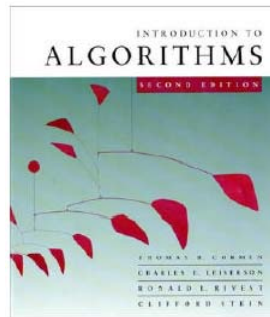


Introduction to Algorithms



Chapter 10: Elementary Data Structures - Review

Introduction

- Data structures for dynamic sets
- Set in mathematics
 - {1, 2, 5, 4, 3, 6}
- Set in algorithms
 - Allow repetition in set elements: {1, 2, 5, 4, 3, 6, 4}
 - Dynamic: can grow, shrink, or change over time
 - Set operations: insert, delete, test membership

2

Elements of A Dynamic Set

- Each element is represented by an object (or record)
 - An object may consists of many fields
 - Need a **pointer** to an object to examine and manipulate its fields
 - **Key** field for identifying objects and for the set manipulation
 - Keys are usually drawn from a totally ordered set
 - **Satellite fields**: all the fields irrelevant for the set manipulation

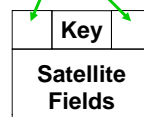
```
Type Record patron {
integer  patron_ID;
char[20] name;
integer  age;
char[10] department;
...
}
```

Key field

Satellite fields

Type patron p1, p2, p3, p4;

Other information relevant
for set manipulation



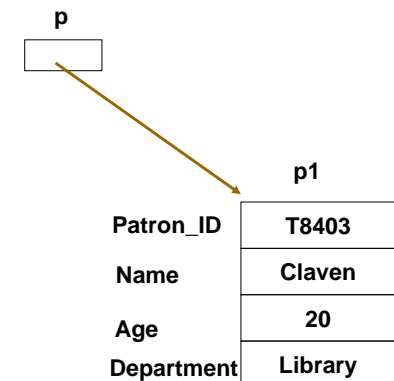
3

Record(Object) and Pointer

```
Type Record patron {
integer  patron_ID;
char[20] name;
integer  age;
char[10] department;
...
}
```

Type patron p1, p2, p3, p4;

Type patron *p;



4

Operations on Dynamic Sets

- Query operations: return information about a set
 - SEARCH(S, k): given a set S and key value k , returns a pointer x to an element in S such that $\text{key}[x] = k$, or NIL if no such element belongs to S
 - MINIMUM(S): returns a pointer to the element of S with the smallest key
 - MAXIMUM(S): returns a pointer to the element of S with the largest key
 - SUCCESSOR(S, x): returns a pointer to the next larger element in S , or NIL if x is the maximum element
 - PREDECESSOR(S, x): returns a pointer to the next smaller element in S , or NIL if x is the minimum element

5

Operations on Dynamic Sets (Cont.)

- Modifying operations: change a set
 - INSERT(S, x): augments the set S with the element pointed to by x . We usually assume that any fields in element x needed by the set implementation have already initialized.
 - DELETE(S, x): given a pointer x to an element in the set S , removes x from S .

6

Stacks

7

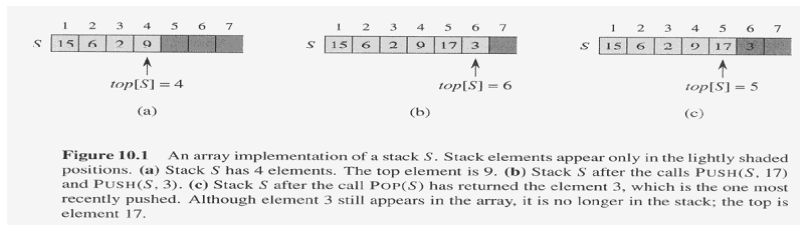
Introduction

- Stack
 - The element deleted from the set is the one most recently inserted
 - Last-in, First-out (LIFO)
- Stack operations
 - PUSH: Insert
 - DELETE: Delete
 - TOP: return the key value of the most recently inserted element
 - STACK-EMPTY: check if the stack is empty
 - STACK-FULL: check if the stack is full

8

Represent Stack by Array

- A stack of at most n elements can be implemented by an array $S[1..n]$
 - $top[S]$: a pointer to the most recently inserted element
 - A stack consists of elements $S[1..top[S]]$



9

Stack Operations

$STACK-EMPTY(S)$

```

1  if  $top[S] = 0$ 
2    then return TRUE
3  else return FALSE

```

$POP(S)$

```

1  if  $STACK-EMPTY(S)$ 
2    then error "underflow"
3  else  $top[S] \leftarrow top[S] - 1$ 
4        return  $S[top[S] + 1]$ 

```

$PUSH(S, x)$

```

1   $top[S] \leftarrow top[S] + 1$ 
2   $S[top[S]] \leftarrow x$ 

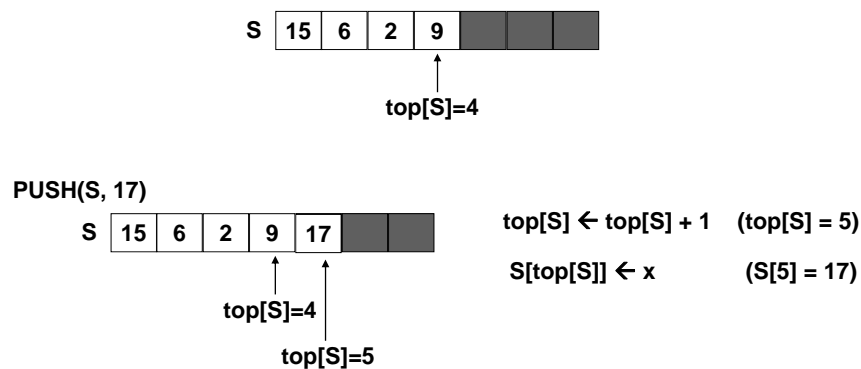
```

How to implement
 $TOP(S)$, $STACK-FULL(S)$?

$O(1)$

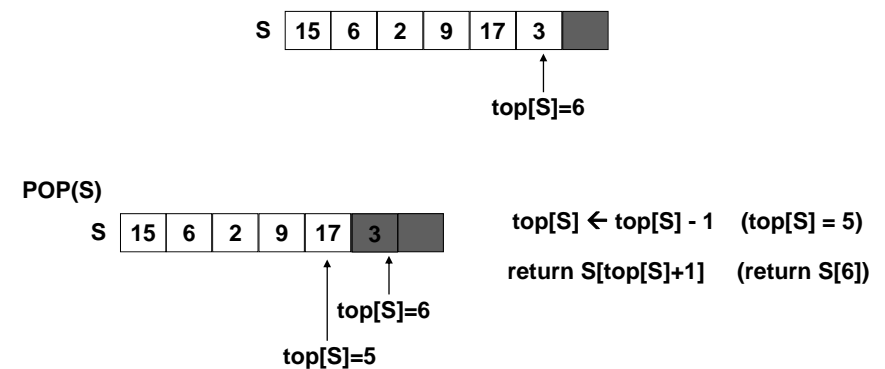
10

Illustration of PUSH



11

Illustration of POP



12

Queues

13

Introduction

- Queue
 - The element deleted is always the one that has been in the set for the longest time
 - First-in, First-out (FIFO)
- Queue operations
 - ENQUEUE: Insert
 - DEQUEUE: Delete
 - HEAD: return the key value of the element that has been in the set for the longest time
 - TAIL: return the key value of the element that has been in the set for the shortest time
 - QUEUE-EMPTY: check if the stack is empty
 - QUEUE-FULL: check if the stack is full

14

Represent Queue by Array

- A queue of at most $n-1$ elements can be implemented by an array $S[1..n]$
 - $head[S]$: a pointer to the element that has been in the set for the longest time
 - $tail[S]$: a pointer to the next location at which a newly arriving element will be inserted into the queue
 - The elements in the queue are in locations $head[Q]$, $head[Q]+1$, ..., $tail[Q]-1$
 - The array is circular
 - Empty queue: $head[Q] = tail[Q]$
 - Initially we have $head[Q] = tail[Q] = 1$
 - Full queue: $head[Q] = tail[Q] + 1$ (in circular sense)

15

Illustration of A Queue

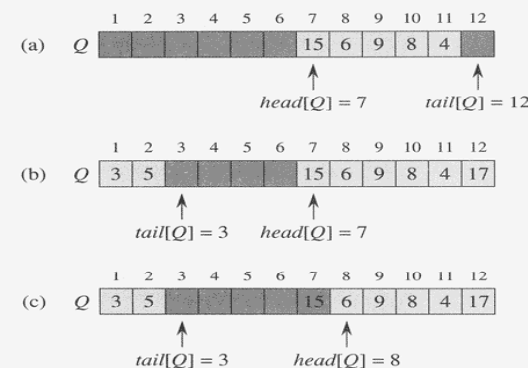


Figure 10.2 A queue implemented using an array $Q[1..12]$. Queue elements appear only in the lightly shaded positions. (a) The queue has 5 elements, in locations $Q[7..11]$. (b) The configuration of the queue after the calls $ENQUEUE(Q, 17)$, $ENQUEUE(Q, 3)$, and $ENQUEUE(Q, 5)$. (c) The configuration of the queue after the call $DEQUEUE(Q)$ returns the key value 15 formerly at the head of the queue. The new head has key 6.

Queue Operations

ENQUEUE(Q, x)

```
1   $Q[tail[Q]] \leftarrow x$ 
2  if  $tail[Q] = length[Q]$ 
3      then  $tail[Q] \leftarrow 1$ 
4      else  $tail[Q] \leftarrow tail[Q] + 1$ 
```

How to implement
other queue
operations ?

DEQUEUE(Q)

```
1   $x \leftarrow Q[head[Q]]$ 
2  if  $head[Q] = length[Q]$ 
3      then  $head[Q] \leftarrow 1$ 
4      else  $head[Q] \leftarrow head[Q] + 1$ 
5  return  $x$ 
```

$O(1)$

17

Linked Lists

18

Introduction

- A linked list is a data structure in which the objects are arranged in linear order
 - The order in a linked list is determined by pointers in each object
- Doubly linked list
 - Each element is an object with a *key* field and two other pointer fields: *next* and *prev*, among other satellite fields. Given an element x
 - $next[x]$ points to its successor
 - if x is the last element (called *tail*), $next[x] = NIL$
 - $prev[x]$ points to its predecessor
 - if x is the first element (called *head*), $prev[x] = NIL$
 - An attribute $head[L]$ points to the first element of the list
 - if $head[L] = NIL$, the list is empty

19

Introduction (Cont.)

- Singly linked list: omit the *prev* pointer in each element
- Sorted linked list: the linear order of the list corresponds to the linear order of keys stored in elements of the list
 - The minimum element is the head
 - The maximum element is the tail
- Circular linked list: the *prev* pointer of the head points to the tail, and the *next* pointer of the tail points to the head

20

Illustration of A Doubly Linked List

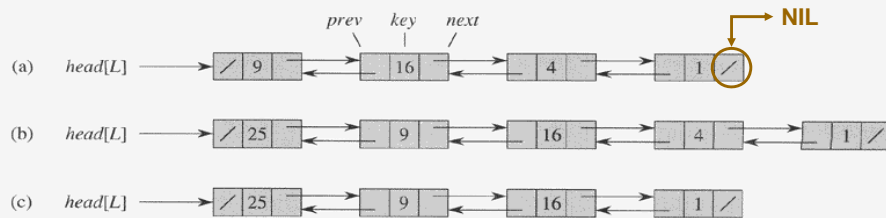


Figure 10.3 (a) A doubly linked list L representing the dynamic set $\{1, 4, 9, 16\}$. Each element in the list is an object with fields for the key and pointers (shown by arrows) to the next and previous objects. The $next$ field of the tail and the $prev$ field of the head are NIL, indicated by a diagonal slash. The attribute $head[L]$ points to the head. (b) Following the execution of $LIST-INSERT(L, x)$, where $key[x] = 25$, the linked list has a new object with key 25 as the new head. This new object points to the old head with key 9. (c) The result of the subsequent call $LIST-DELETE(L, x)$, where x points to the object with key 4.

21

Searching A Linked List

- $LIST-SEARCH(L, k)$: finds the first element with key k in list L by a simple linear search, returning a pointer to this element
 - If no object with key k appears in the list, then NIL

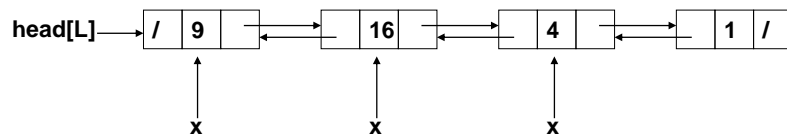
$LIST-SEARCH(L, k)$

```

1   $x \leftarrow head[L]$ 
2  while  $x \neq NIL$  and  $key[x] \neq k$ 
3      do  $x \leftarrow next[x]$ 
4  return  $x$ 
    
```

22

Illustration of LIST-SEARCH



$LIST-SEARCH(L, 4)$

return x

How about $LIST-SEARCH(L, 7)$?

23

Inserting Into A Linked List

- $LIST-INSERT(L, x)$: given an element pointed by x , splice x onto the front of the linked list

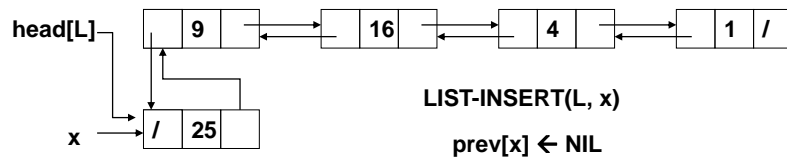
$LIST-INSERT(L, x)$

```

1   $next[x] \leftarrow head[L]$ 
2  if  $head[L] \neq NIL$ 
3      then  $prev[head[L]] \leftarrow x$ 
4   $head[L] \leftarrow x$ 
5   $prev[x] \leftarrow NIL$ 
    
```

24

Illustration of LIST-INSERT



25

Deleting From A Linked List

- **LIST-DELETE(L, x)**: given an element pointed by x , remove x from the linked list

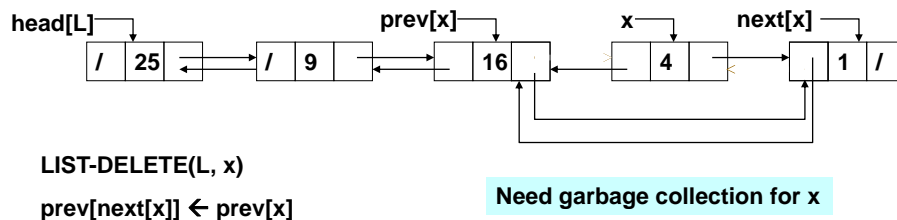
LIST-DELETE(L, x)

```

1  if  $prev[x] \neq NIL$ 
2    then  $next[prev[x]] \leftarrow next[x]$ 
3    else  $head[L] \leftarrow next[x]$ 
4  if  $next[x] \neq NIL$ 
5    then  $prev[next[x]] \leftarrow prev[x]$ 
    
```

26

Illustration of LIST-DELETE



27

Implementing Pointers and Objects

28

Pointers in Pseudo Language

```
Type Record patron {
  integer  patron_ID;
  char[20] name;
  integer  age;
  char[10] department;
  ...
}
```

```
Type patron p1, p2, p3,
p4;
```

```
Type patron *pointer_to_p1
```

```
Type Record patron_list
{
  integer  patron_ID;
  char[20] name;
  integer  age;
  char[10] department;
  ...
  Type patron_list *prev;
  Type patron_list *next;
}
Type patron_list *head;
```

Some languages, like C and C++, support pointers and objects; but some others not

29

A Multiple-Array

Representation of Objects

- We can represent a collection of objects that have the same fields by using an array for each field.
 - Figure 10.3 (a) and Figure 10.5
 - For a given array index x , $key[x]$, $next[x]$, and $prev[x]$ represent an object in the linked list
 - A pointer x is simply a common index on the the key, next, and prev arrays
 - NIL can be represented by an integer that cannot possibly represent an actual index into the array

30

A Multiple-Array Representation of Objects Example

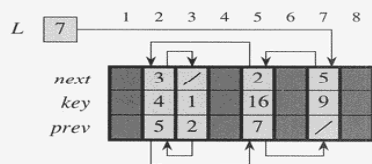
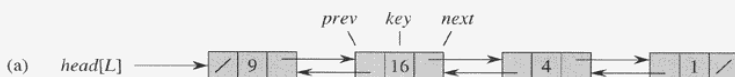


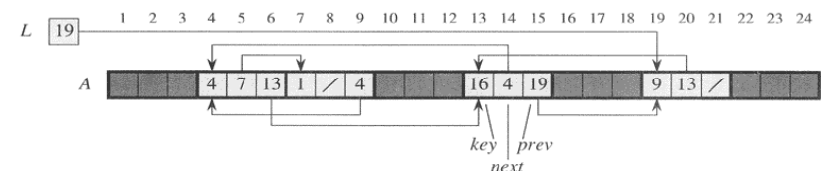
Figure 10.5 The linked list of Figure 10.3(a) represented by the arrays *key*, *next*, and *prev*. Each vertical slice of the arrays represents a single object. Stored pointers correspond to the array indices shown at the top; the arrows show how to interpret them. Lightly shaded object positions contain list elements. The variable *L* keeps the index of the head.



31

A Single-Array Representation of Objects

- An object occupies a contiguous set of locations in a single array $\rightarrow A[j..k]$
 - A pointer is simply the address of the first memory location of the object $\rightarrow A[j]$
 - Other memory locations within the object can be indexed by adding an offset to the pointer $\rightarrow 0 \sim k-j$
 - Flexible but more difficult to manage



32

Allocating and Freeing Objects

- To insert a key into a dynamic set represented by a linked list, we must allocate a pointer to a currently unused object in the linked-list representation
 - It is useful to manage the storage of objects not currently used in the linked-list representation so that one can be allocated
- Allocate and free homogeneous objects using the example of a doubly linked list represented by multiple arrays
 - The arrays in the multiple-array representation have length m
 - At some moment the dynamic set contains $n \leq m$ elements
 - The remaining $m-n$ objects are *free* → can be used to represent elements inserted into the dynamic set in the future

33

Free List

- A singly linked list to keep the free objects
 - Initially it contains all n unallocated objects
- The free list is a stack
 - Allocate an object from the free list → POP
 - De-allocate (free) an object → PUSH
 - The next object allocated the last one freed
- Use only the *next* array to implement the free list
- A variable *free* pointers to the first element in the free list
- Each object is either in list L or in the free list, but not in both

34

Free List Example

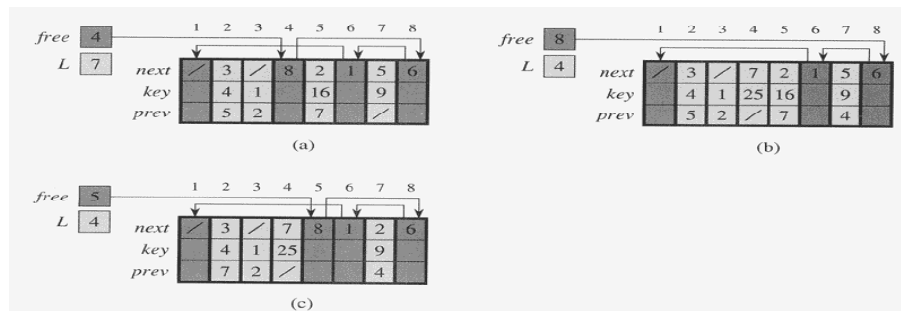


Figure 10.7 The effect of the `ALLOCATE-OBJECT` and `FREE-OBJECT` procedures. (a) The list of Figure 10.5 (lightly shaded) and a free list (heavily shaded). Arrows show the free-list structure. (b) The result of calling `ALLOCATE-OBJECT()` (which returns index 4), setting `key[4]` to 25, and calling `LIST-INSERT(L, 4)`. The new free-list head is object 8, which had been `next[4]` on the free list. (c) After executing `LIST-DELETE(L, 5)`, we call `FREE-OBJECT(5)`. Object 5 becomes the new free-list head, with object 8 following it on the free list.

35

Allocate And Free An Object

```

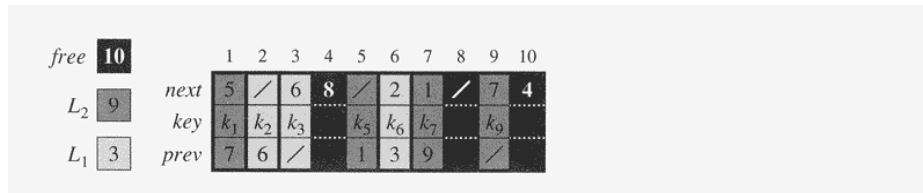
ALLOCATE-OBJECT()
1  if free = NIL
2      then error "out of space"
3      else x ← free
4           free ← next[x]
5      return x
    
```

```

FREE-OBJECT(x)
1  next[x] ← free
2  free ← x
    
```

36

Two Linked Lists L_1 and L_2 , and A Free List



37

Representing Rooted Trees

38

Binary Tree

- Use linked data structures to represent a rooted tree
 - Each node of a tree is represented by an object
 - Each node contains a *key* field and maybe other satellite fields
 - Each node also contains *pointers* to other nodes
- For binary tree...
 - Three pointer fields
 - *p*: pointer to the parent → NIL for root
 - *left*: pointer to the left child → NIL if no left child
 - *right*: pointer to the right child → NIL if no right child
 - $root[T]$ pointer to the root of the tree
 - NIL for empty tree

39

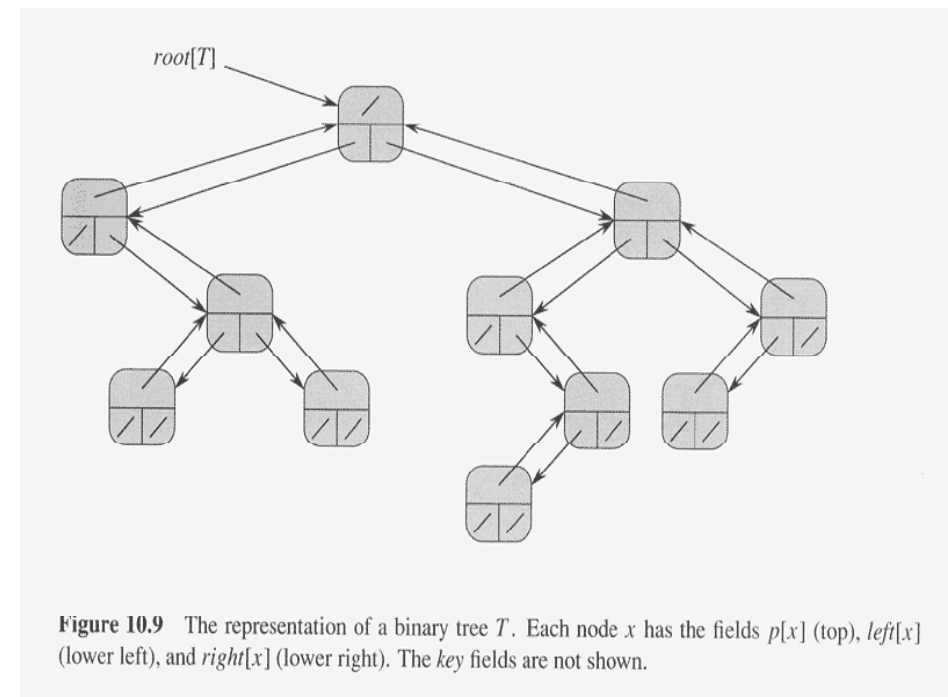
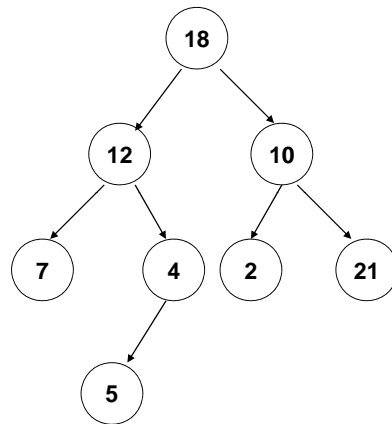


Figure 10.9 The representation of a binary tree T . Each node x has the fields $p[x]$ (top), $left[x]$ (lower left), and $right[x]$ (lower right). The *key* fields are not shown.

Draw the Binary Tree Rooted At Index 6

Index	Key	Left	Right
1	12	7	3
2	15	8	NIL
3	4	10	NIL
4	10	5	9
5	2	NIL	NIL
6	18	1	4
7	7	NIL	NIL
8	14	6	2
9	21	NIL	NIL
10	5	NIL	NIL



41

Rooted Trees With Unbounded Branches

- The representation for binary trees can be extended to a tree in which no. of children of each node is at most k
 - left, right \rightarrow child₁, child₂, ..., child_k
- If no. of children of a node can be unbounded, or k is large but most nodes have small numbers of children...
 - Left-child, right sibling representation
 - Three pointer fields
 - p : pointer to the parent
 - *left-child*: pointer to the leftmost child
 - *right-sibling*: pointer to the sibling immediately to the right
 - root[T] pointer to the root of the tree
 - $O(N)$ space for any n -node rooted tree

42

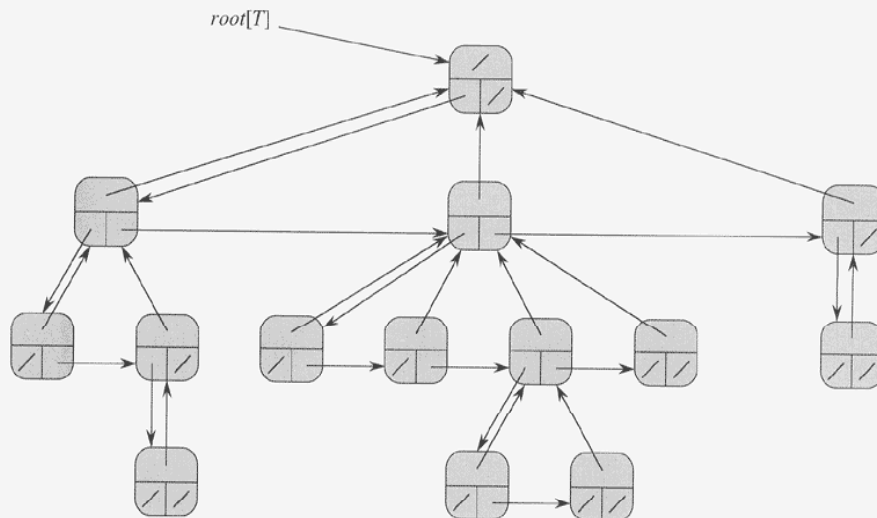


Figure 10.10 The left-child, right-sibling representation of a tree T . Each node x has fields $p[x]$ (top), $left-child[x]$ (lower left), and $right-sibling[x]$ (lower right). Keys are not shown.