

Algorithms and Data Structures (II)

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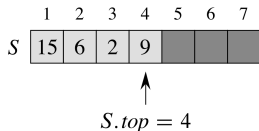
First of all ...



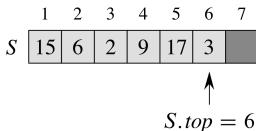
Last time: Stacks

- A Stack is a sequential organization of items in which the last element inserted is the first element removed. They are often referred to as LIFO, which stands for “last in first out.”
- Examples: letter basket, stack of trays, stack of plates.
- **Only element that may be accessed:** the one that was **most recently inserted**.
- There are only two basic operations on stacks, the **push** (insert), and the **pop** (read and delete).

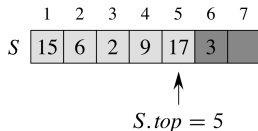
Stacks: Implementation



(a)



(b)



(c)

- (a). Stack representing set $S = \{2, 6, 9, 15\}$.
- (b). After $\text{PUSH}(S, 3)$.
- (c). After $\text{POP}(S)$.

Operator Precedence Parsing

- We can use the stack class we just defined to parse and evaluate mathematical expressions like:

$$5 * (((9 + 8) * (4 * 6)) + 7)$$

- First, we transform it to **postfix notation**:

$$5\ 9\ 8\ +\ 4\ 6\ *\ * 7\ +\ *$$

- Usual form for arithmetic expressions: **infix**. **term1** op **term2**.
- Postfix notation: **term1 term2** op.
- How to convert infix to postfix: **later !**

Evaluating Postfix expressions

Then, the following C++ routine uses a stack to perform this evaluation:

```
1 char c;
2 Stack acc(50);
3 int x;
4 while (cin.get(c))
5 {
6     x = 0;
7     while (c == ' ') cin.get(c);
8     if (c == '+') x = acc.pop() + acc.pop();
9     if (c == '*') x = acc.pop() * acc.pop();
10    while (c >= '0' && c <= '9')
11        x = 10*x + (c-'0'); cin.get(c);
12    acc.push(x);
13 }
14 cout << acc.pop();
```

Explanation of code

- We read one character at a time in c .
- In x we compute the value of the currently evaluated expression.
- After computing it we push the value on the stack - we will need it later.
- When reading an op we take the last two value off the stack and apply the op on them and assign this to x .
- When reading a digit we update value of x by making the last read digit the least significant one.

Stacks: Applications

- Algorithms (later).
- Recursion removal.
- Reversing things.
- Procedure call and procedure return is similar to matching symbols:
 - When a procedure returns, it returns to the most recently active procedure.
 - When a procedure call is made, save current state on the stack. On return, restore the state by popping the stack.
 - Formal languages: [pushdown automata](#).

Queues

- The ubiquitous “first-in first-out” container (FIFO)

Queues

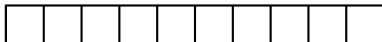
- The ubiquitous “first-in first-out” container (FIFO)
- Interface
 - $\text{Enqueue}(Q, x)$ adds element x at the back of queue Q
 - $\text{Dequeue}(Q)$ extracts the element at the head of queue Q

Queues

- The ubiquitous “first-in first-out” container (FIFO)
- Interface
 - `Enqueue(Q, x)` adds element x at the back of queue Q
 - `Dequeue(Q)` extracts the element at the head of queue Q
- Implementation
 - Q is an array of fixed length $Q.length$
 - i.e., Q holds at most $Q.length$ elements
 - enqueueing more than Q elements causes an “overflow” error
 - $Q.head$ is the position of the “head” of the queue
 - $Q.tail$ is the first empty position at the tail of the queue

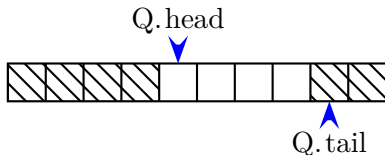
Enqueue

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Enqueue(Q,x)
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2      error "overflow"
3  else Q[Q.tail] = x
4      if Q.tail < Q.length
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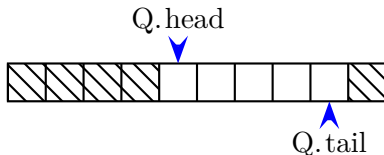
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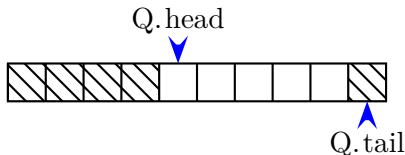
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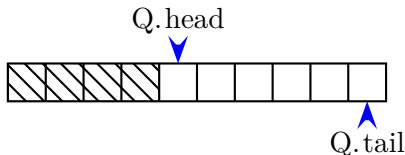
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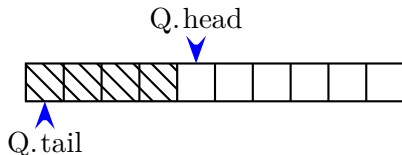
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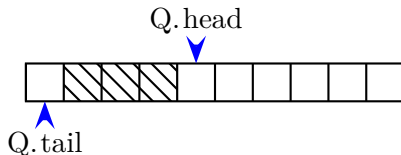
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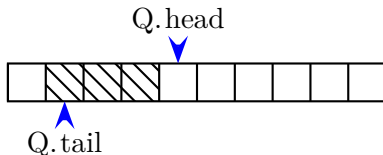
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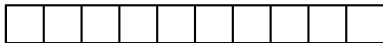
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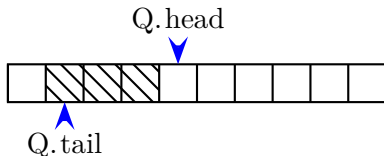
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1  if Q.queue-empty
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3  else x = Q[Q.head]
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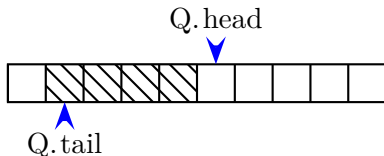
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Deque

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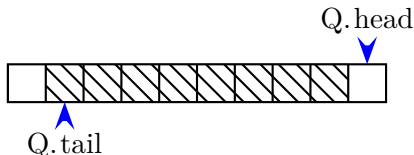
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Q.head



Q.tail

Applications of Queues

- Scheduling (disk, CPU)
- Used by operating systems to handle congestion.
- Algorithms (we'll see): breadth-first search.

Stacks, Queues: Scorecard

Algorithm	Complexity
Stack-Empty	$O(1)$ ✓
Push	$O(1)$ ✓
Pop	$O(1)$ ✓
Enqueue	$O(1)$ ✓
Dequeue	$O(1)$ ✓
Restrictions:	LIFO/FIFO orders only. ✗

Dequeues

- Like queues but can enqueue/dequeue at both ends.
- Can modify the code for queues, add two more procedure.
- **do it !**
- Complexity scorecard: similar to queues.

Major problem this semester:

Represent a set S whose elements may vary through time. May want to perform some of:

- INSERT(S,x)
- DELETE(S,x)
- SEARCH(S,x). Result YES/NO. Better: handle for x , if found.
- MIN(S)
- MAX(S)
- SUCC(S,x), PRED(S,x)

Example: stacks/queues

- Stacks: dynamic sets with LIFO order.
- Queues: dynamic sets with FIFO order.

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 - we'll see: hash tables

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 - each key has its own position in T

Direct-Address-Insert(T, k)

```
1  T[k] = true
```

Direct-Address-Delete(T, k)

```
1  T[k] = false
```

Direct-Address-Search(T, k)

```
1  return T[k]
```

Direct-Address Table (2)

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- Space complexity is $\Theta(|U|) \times$
 - $|U|$ is typically a very large number— U is the universe of keys!
 - the represented set is typically much smaller than $|U|$
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 - the represented set is typically much smaller than $|U|$
 - i.e., a direct-address table usually wastes a lot of space
- Want: the benefits of a direct-address table but with a table of reasonable size.

Direct Access Tables: Scorecard

Algorithm	Complexity
INSERT	$O(1)\checkmark$
DELETE	$O(1)\checkmark$
SEARCH	$O(1)\checkmark$
MEMORY:	$\theta(M)\times$

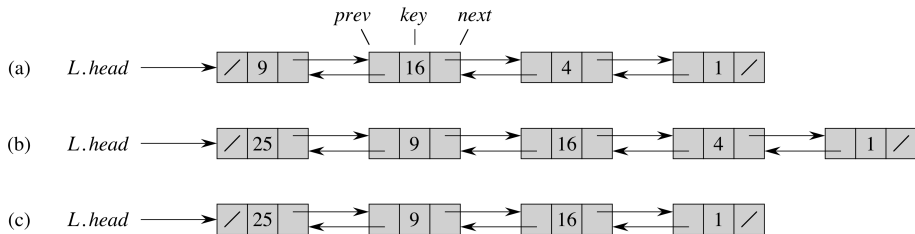
Linked Lists

- Interface
 - `List-Insert(L, x)` adds element x at beginning of a list L
 - `List-Delete(L, x)` removes element x from a list L
 - `List-Search(L, k)` finds an element whose key is k in a list L

Linked Lists

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 - `List-Insert(L, x)` adds element `x` at beginning of a list `L`
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 - `List-Search(L, k)` finds an element whose key is `k` in a list `L`
- Implementation
 - a doubly-linked list
 - each element `x`: two “links” `x.prev` and `x.next` to the previous and next elements, respectively
 - each element `x`: key `x.key`

Linked List: Implementation



- (a). Linked list representing set $S = \{1, 4, 9, 16\}$.
- (b). After LIST-INSERT($S, 25$).
- (c). After LIST-DELETE($S, 4$).

Linked List: Implementation

List-Init(L)

1 L.head = NIL

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
```

List-Search(L, k)

```
1 x = L.head.next
2 while x  $\neq$  NIL  $\wedge$  x.key  $\neq$  k
3     x = x.next
4 return x
```

Linked List: Implementation (II)

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
```


Linked List With a “Sentinel”

- instead of NIL sometimes convenient to have a dummy “sentinel” element $L.nil$
- Simplifies LIST-DELETE .
- Adds more memory \times .

Linked List With a “Sentinel”

List-Init(L)

- 1 L.nil.prev = L.nil
- 2 L.nil.next = L.nil

List-Insert(L, x)

- 1 x.next = L.nil.next
- 2 L.nil.next.prev = x
- 3 L.nil.next = x
- 4 x.prev = L.nil

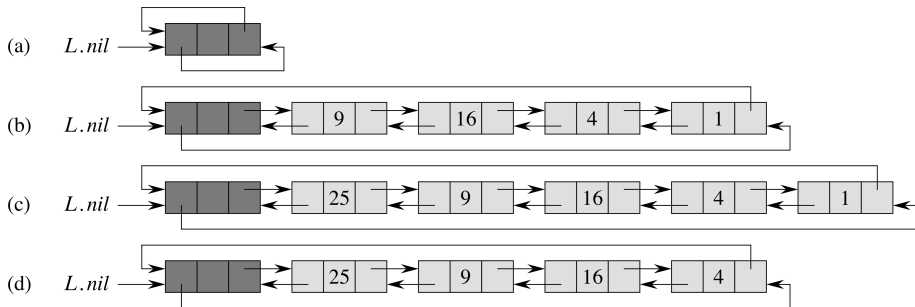
List-Search(L, k)

- 1 x = L.nil.next
- 2 while $x \neq L.nil \wedge x.key \neq k$
- 3 x = x.next
- 4 return x

Linked Lists: Observations on Implementation

- Insert: at the head of the list.
- Possible: insert arbitrary position.

Circular Linked Lists



- Can use nil sentinel as head of the list.
- (a): empty circular list.
- (b): Linked list representing set $S = \{1, 4, 9, 16\}$.
- (c): After $LIST-INSERT(S, 25)$.
- (d): After $LIST-DELETE(S, 4)$.

Linked Lists: Scorecard

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Algorithm

Complexity

List-Insert

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List-Search	

Linked Lists: Scorecard

Algorithm	Complexity
List-Insert	$O(1)$ ✓
List-Delete (with pointer)	$O(1)$ ✓
List-Search	$\Theta(n)$ ✗

Linked Lists: to conclude

- Can reimplement Stacks/Queues using Linked Lists.
- Implementation with pointers: **will not pass the class if you don't know it !**

Hash Tables

- Idea
 - use a table T with $|T| \ll |U|$
 - map each key $k \in U$ to a position in T , using a **hash function**

$$h : U \rightarrow \{1, \dots, |T|\}$$

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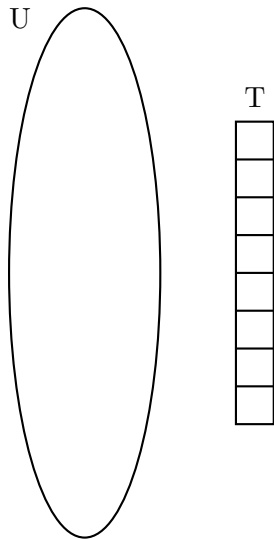
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What if two distinct keys $k_1 \neq k_2$ collide? (I.e., $h(k_1) = h(k_2)$)

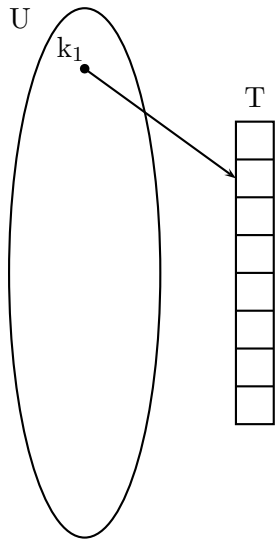
Hash tables

- Hash Tables: work well "on the average"
- Analogy: throw T balls at random into N bins.
- If $T \ll N$ (in fact $T = o(\sqrt{N})$) then with high-probability no two balls land in the same bin.
- Want our hash-function to be "random-like": elements of U "thrown out uniformly" by h onto elements of T .

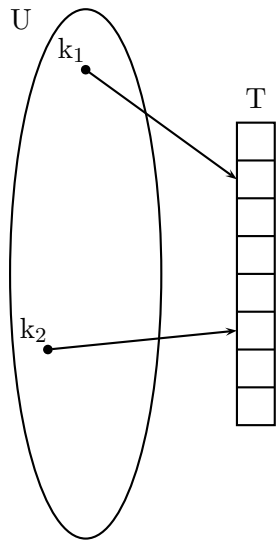
Hash Table: Chaining



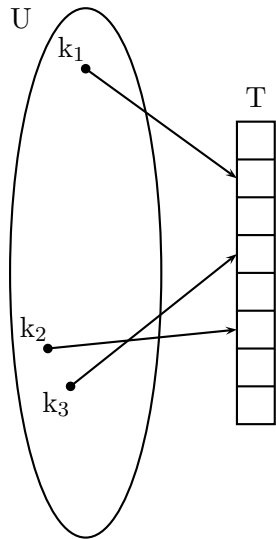
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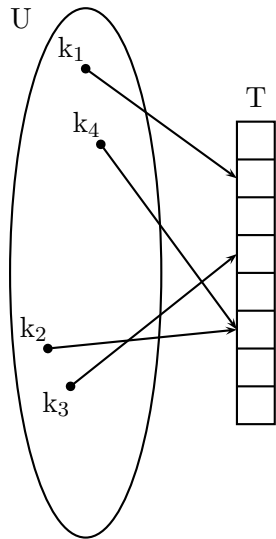
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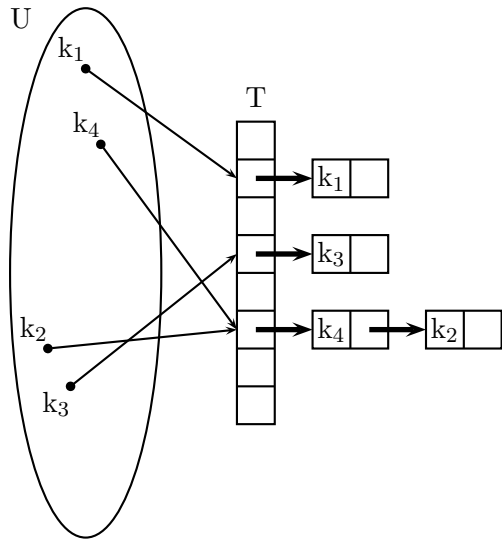
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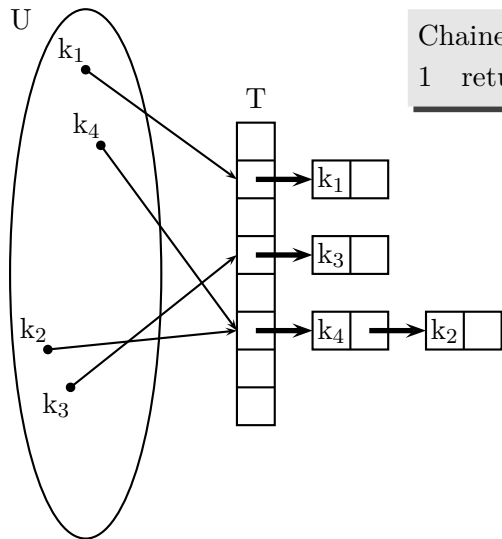
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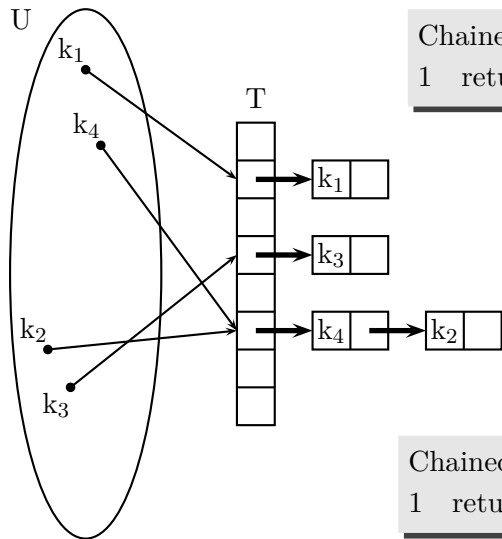
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Chained-Hash-Insert(T, k)

```
1 return List-Insert( $T[h(k)], k$ )
```

Hash Table: Chaining



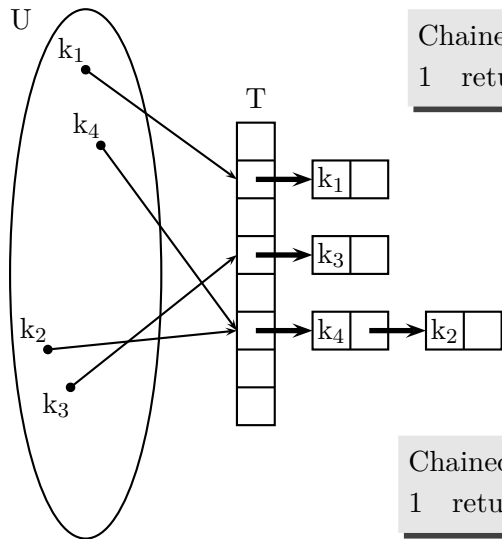
Chained-Hash-Insert(T, k)

1 return List-Insert($T[h(k)], k$)

Chained-Hash-Search(T, k)

1 return List-Search($T[h(k)], k$)

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$$\text{load factor} \\ \alpha = \frac{n}{|T|}$$

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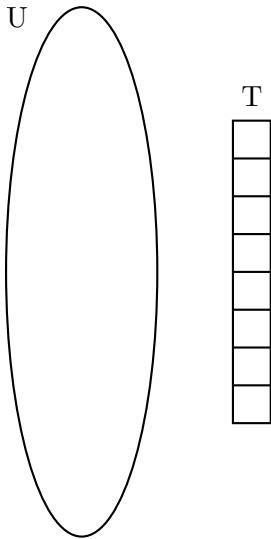
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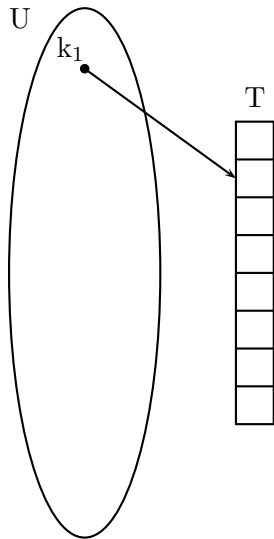
- We further assume that $h(k)$ can be computed in $O(1)$ time
- Therefore, the complexity of Chained-Hash-Search is

$$\Theta(1 + \alpha)$$

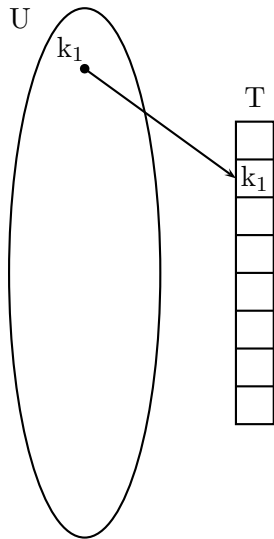
Open-Address Hash Table



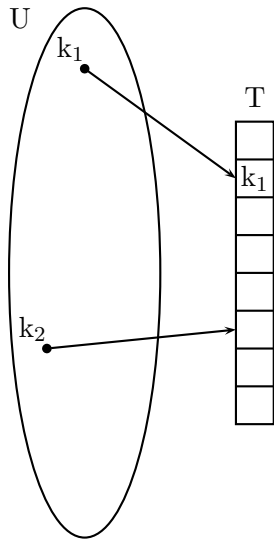
Open-Address Hash Table



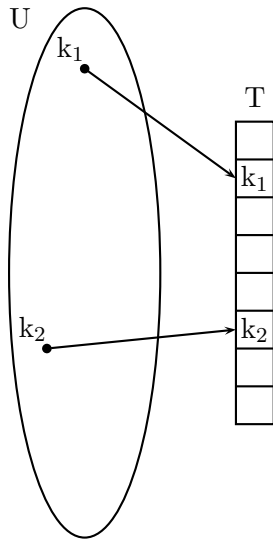
Open-Address Hash Table



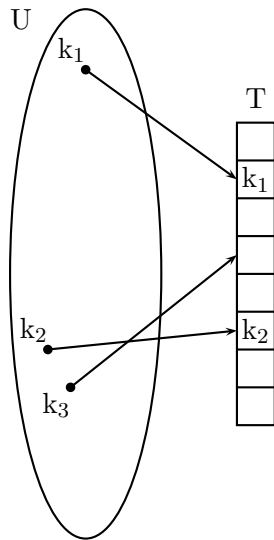
Open-Address Hash Table



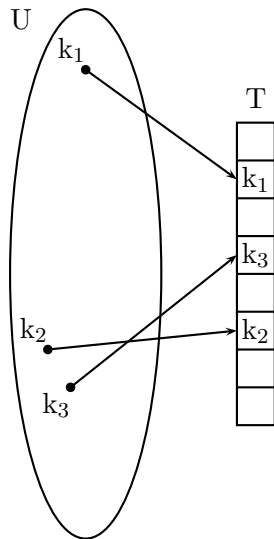
Open-Address Hash Table



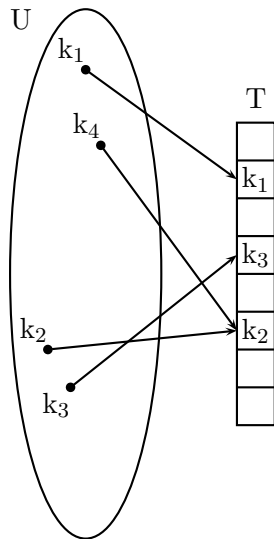
Open-Address Hash Table



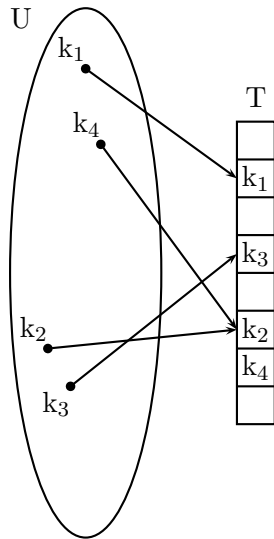
Open-Address Hash Table



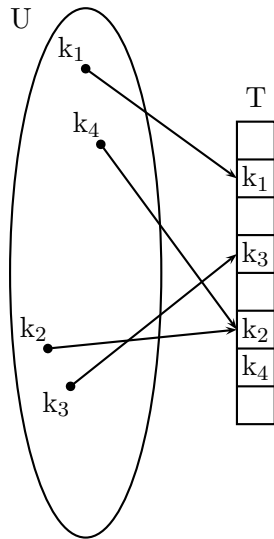
Open-Address Hash Table



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Open-Address Hash Table



Hash-Insert(T, k)

```
1   $j = h(k)$ 
2  for  $i = 1$  to  $T.length$ 
3      if  $T[j] == nil$ 
4           $T[j] = k$ 
5          return  $j$ 
6      elseif  $j < T.length$ 
7           $j = j + 1$ 
8      else  $j = 1$ 
9  error "overflow"
```


Open-Addressing (2)

- Idea: instead of using linked lists, we can store all the elements in the table
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 - this implies $\alpha \leq 1$
- When a collision occurs, we simply find another free cell in T
- A sequential “probe” may not be optimal
 - can you figure out why?

Open-Addressing (3)

```
Hash-Insert(T, k)
1  for i = 1 to T.length
2  j = h(k, i)
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- Notice that $h(k, \cdot)$ must be a **permutation**
 - i.e., $h(k, 1), h(k, 2), \dots, h(k, |T|)$ must cover the entire table T