

IS 2610: Data Structures

Elementary Data Structures

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First-In First Out Queues

- An ADT that comprises two basic operations: insert (put) a new item, and delete (get) the item that was least recently used

```
void QUEUEinit(int);
int QUEUEempty();
void QUEUEput(Item);
Item QUEUEget();
```

```
typedef struct QUEUEnode* link;
struct QUEUEnode {Item item; link next;}
static link head;
link NEW(Item item, link next);
{ link x = malloc(sizeof *x);
  x->item = item; x->next = next;
  return x;
}
```

First-class ADT

- Clients use a single instance of STACK or QUEUE
- Only one object in a given program
- Could not declare variables or use it as an argument
- A first-class data type is one for which we can have potentially many different instances, and which can assign to variables which can declare to hold the instances

First-class data type – Complex numbers

- Complex numbers contains two parts
 - $(a + bi)$ where $i^2 = -1$;
 - $(a + bi)(c + di) = (ac - bd) + (ad + bc)i$

```
typedef struct {float r; float i;} Complex;
Complex COMPLEXinit(float, float)
float Re(float, float);
float Im(float, float);
Complex COMPLEXmult(Complex, Complex)
```

```
Complex t, x, tx;
...
t = COMPLEXinit(cos(r), sin(r))
x = COMPLEXinit(?, ?)

tx = COMPLEXmult(t, x)
```

First-class data type – Queues

```
typedef struct queue *Q;  
  
void QUEUEDump(Q);  
Q QUEUEInit(int);  
int QUEUEEmpty(Q);  
void QUEUEPut(Q, Item);  
Item QUEUEGet(Q);
```

```
void QUEUEInit(int);  
int QUEUEEmpty();  
void QUEUEPut(Item);  
Item QUEUEGet();
```

```
Q queues[M];  
for (i=0; i<M; i++)  
    queues[i] = QUEUEInit(N);  
.  
printf("%3d ", QUEUEGet(queues[i]));
```

ADT

- ADTs are important software engineering tool
 - Many algorithms serve as implementations for fundamental
- ADTs encapsulate the algorithms that we develop, so that we can use the same code for many different applications
- ADTs provide a convenient mechanism for our use in the process of developing and comparing the performance of algorithms.

Recursion and Trees

- Recursive algorithm is one that solves a problem by solving one or more smaller instances of the same problem
 - Functions that call themselves
 - Can only solve a base case Recursive function calls itself
- If not base case
 - Break problem into smaller problem(s)
 - Launch new copy of function to work on the smaller problem (recursive call/recursive step)
 - Slowly converges towards base case
 - Function makes call to itself inside the return statement
 - Eventually base case gets solved
 - Answer works way back up, solves entire problem

Example of recursion

- Factorial of n : $n! = n*(n-1)*(n-2)*... *1$

- Recursive relationship ($n! = n*(n-1)!$)

$$5! = 5 * 4!$$

$$4! = 4 * 3!...$$

- Base case ($1! = 0! = 1$)

```
int factorial(int n){
    if (n <= 1) return 1; //Base case
    return n*factorial(n-1);
}
```

- Fibonacci number

- Base case: $F_0 = F_1 = 1$

- $F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}$

```
int fibonacci(int n){
    ??; // Base Case
    return ??;
}
```

Euclid's algorithm Greatest Common Divisor

- One of the oldest-known algorithm (over 2000 years)

Euclid's method for finding the greatest Common divisor

```
int gcd(int m, int n){
    if (n==0) return m;
    return gcd(n, m%n);
}
```

```
56 ) 76 ( 1
   56
   --
    20 ) 56 ( 2
       40
       --
        16 ) 20 ( 1
            16
            --
             4 ) 16 ( 4
                16
                --
                 0
```

Algorithm for pre-fix expression

```
char *a; int i;
int eval()
{ int x = 0;
  while (a[i] == ' ') i++;
  if (a[i] == '+')
    { i++; return eval() + eval(); }
  if (a[i] == '*')
    { i++; return eval() * eval(); }
  while ((a[i] >= '0') && (a[i] <= '9'))
    x = 10*x + (a[i++] - '0');
  return x;
}
```

```
eval () * + 7 6 12
eval () + 7 6
    eval () 7
        eval () 6
            return 13 = 7 + 6
                eval () 12
                    return 12 * 13
```

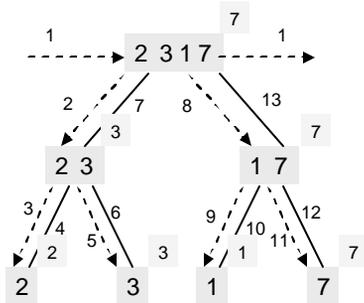
Recursive vs. iterative solution

- In principle, a loop can be replaced by an equivalent recursive program
 - Recursive program usually is more natural way to express computation
- Disadvantage
 - Nested function calls –
 - Use built in pushdown stack
 - Depth will depend on input
 - Hence programming environment has to maintain a stack that is proportional to the push down stack
 - Space complexity could be high

Divide and Conquer

- Many recursive programs use recursive calls on two subsets of inputs (two halves usually)
 - Divide the problem and solve them – divide and conquer paradigm
 - Property 5.1: a recursive function that divides a problem size N into two independent (nonempty) parts that it solves recursively calls itself less than N times
 - Complexity: $T_N = T_k + T_{N-k} + 1$

Find max- Divide and Conquer



```

Item max(Item a[], int l, int r)
{
    Item u, v;
    int m = (l+r)/2;
    if (l == r) return a[l];
    u = max(a, l, m);
    v = max(a, m+1, r);
    if (u > v) return u;
    else return v;
}
  
```

Dynamic programming

- When the sub-problems are not independent the situation may be complicated
 - Time complexity can be very high
- Example

- Fibonacci number

- Base case: $F_0 = F_1 = 1$
- $F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}$

```

int fibonacci(int n){
    if (n<=1) return 1; // Base case
    return fibonacci(n-1) + fibonacci(n-2);
}
  
```


Dynamic Programming

- Top-down : save known values
- Bottom-up : pre-compute values
 - Determining the order may be a challenge
- Top-down preferable
 - It is a mechanical transformation of natural problem
 - The order of computing the sub-problems takes care of itself
 - We may not need to compute answers to all the sub-problems

```
int F(int i)
{
  int t;
  if (knownF[i] != unknown)
    return knownF[i];
  if (i == 0) t = 0;
  if (i == 1) t = 1;
  if (i > 1) t = F(i-1) + F(i-2);
  return knownF[i] = t;
}
```

Dynamic programming Knapsack problem

- *Property*: DP reduces the running times of a recursive function to be at most the time required to evaluate the function for all arguments less than or equal to the given argument
- Knapsack problem
 - Given
 - N types of items of varying size and value
 - One knapsack (belongs to a thief!)
 - Find: the combination of items that maximize the total value

Knapsack problem

Knapsack size: 17

	0	1	2	3	4
Item	A	B	C	D	E
Size	3	4	7	8	9
Val	4	5	10	11	13

```
int knap(int cap)
{ int i, space, max, t;
  for (i = 0, max = 0; i < N; i++)
    if ((space = cap - items[i].size) >= 0)
      if ((t = knap(space) + items[i].val) > max)
        max = t;
  return max;
}
```

```
int knap(int M)
{ int i, space, max, maxi, t;
  if (maxKnown[M] != unknown) return maxKnown[M];
  for (i = 0, max = 0; i < N; i++)
    if ((space = M - items[i].size) >= 0)
      if ((t = knap(space) + items[i].val) > max) { max = t; maxi = i; }
  maxKnown[M] = max; itemKnown[M] = items[maxi];
  return max; }
```

Tree

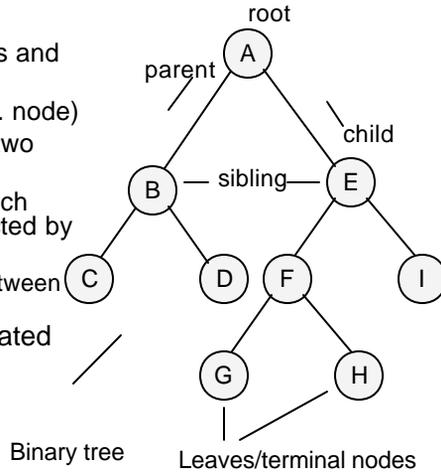
- Trees are central to design and analysis algorithms
 - Trees can be used to describe dynamic properties
 - We build and use explicit data structures that are concrete realization of trees

General issues:

- Trees
- Rooted tree
- Ordered trees
- M-ary trees and binary trees

Tree

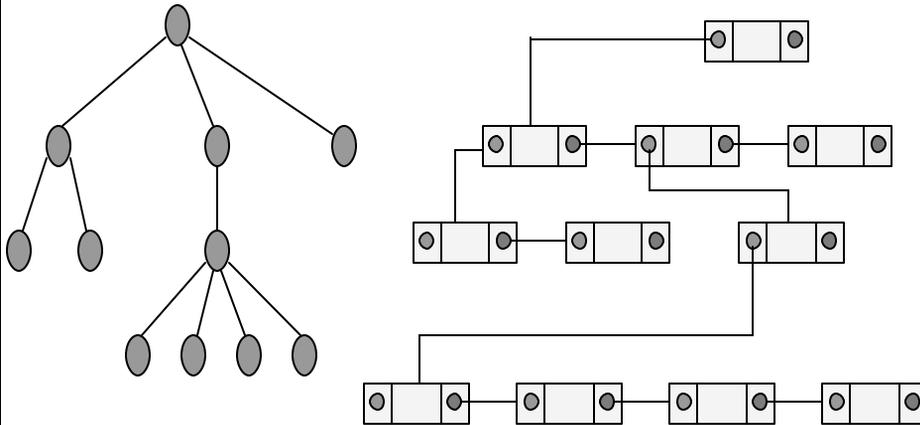
- Trees
 - Non-empty collection of vertices and edges
 - Vertex is a simple object (a.k.a. node)
 - Edge is a connection between two nodes
 - Path is a distinct vertices in which successive vertices are connected by edges
 - There is precisely one path between any two vertices
- Rooted tree: one node is designated as the root
- Forest
 - Disjoint set of trees



Definitions

- Binary tree is either an external node or an internal node connected to a pair of binary trees, which are called the left sub-tree and the right sub-tree of that node
 - Struct node {Item item; link left, link right;}
- M-ary tree is either an external node or an internal node connected to an ordered sequence of M-trees that are also M-ary trees
- A tree (or ordered tree) is a node (called the root) connected to a set of disjoint trees. Such a sequence is called a forest.
 - Arbitrary number of children
 - One for linked list connecting to its sibling
 - Other for connecting it to the sibling

Example general tree



Binary trees

- A binary tree with N internal nodes has $N + 1$ external nodes
 - Proof by induction
 - $N = 0$ (no internal nodes) has one external node
 - Hypothesis: holds for $N - 1$
 - $k, N - 1 - k$ internal nodes in left and right sub-trees (for k between 0 and $N - 1$)
 - $(k + 1) + (N - 1 - k) = N + 1$

Binary tree

- A binary tree with N internal nodes has $2N$ links
 - $N-1$ to internal nodes
 - Each internal node except root has a unique parent
 - Every edge connects to its parent
 - $N+1$ to external nodes
- Level, height, path
 - Level of a node is $1 + \text{level of parent}$ (Root is at level 0)
 - Height is the maximum of the levels of the tree's nodes
 - Path length is the sum of the levels of all the tree's nodes
 - Internal path length is the sum of the levels of all the internal nodes

Tree traversal (binary tree)

- Preorder
 - Visit a node,
 - Visit left subtree,
 - Visit right subtree
- Inorder
 - Visit left subtree,
 - Visit a node,
 - Visit right subtree
- Postorder
 - Visit left subtree,
 - Visit right subtree
 - Visit a node

