

Introduction to Data Structures and Algorithms

Chapter: **Elementary Data Structures(1)**

**Friedrich-Alexander-Universität
Erlangen-Nürnberg**



Lehrstuhl Informatik 7 (Prof. Dr.-Ing. Reinhard German)
Martensstraße 3, 91058 Erlangen

Elementary Data Structures

Overview on simple data structures for representing dynamic sets of data records

- Main operations on these data structures are
 - **Insertion** and **deletion** of an element
 - **searching** for an element
 - finding the **minimum** or **maximum** element
 - finding the **successor** or the **predecessor** of an element
 - And similar operations ...
- These data structures are often implemented using **dynamically allocated objects** and **pointers**

Elementary Data Structures

Typical Examples of Elementary Data Structures

- Array
- Stack
- Queue
- Linked List
- Tree

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Stack

- A **stack** implements the LIFO (last-in, first-out) policy
 - like a stack of plates, where you can either place an extra plate at the top or remove the topmost plate
- For a stack,
 - the **insert** operation is called **Push**
 - and the **delete** operation is called **Pop**

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Where are Stacks used?

- A *call stack* that is used for the proper execution of a computer program with subroutine or function calls
- Analysis of *context free languages* (e.g. properly nested brackets)
 - Properly nested: $((()((())))$, Wrongly nested: $((()((())))$
- Reversed Polish notation of terms
 - Compute $2 + 3 * 5 \Rightarrow 2 \text{ Push } 3 \text{ Push } 5 * +$

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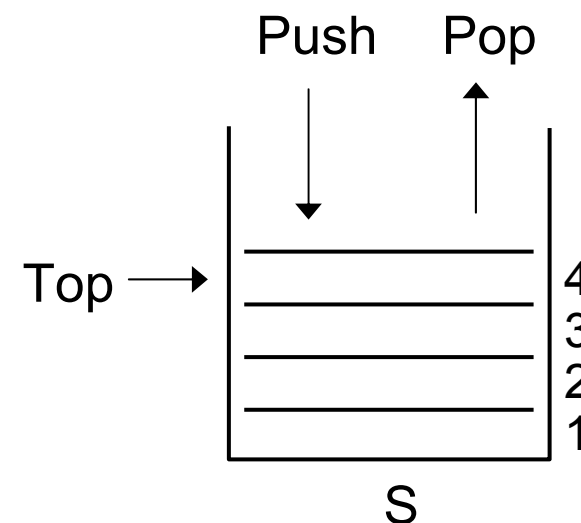
Properties of a Stack

- Stacks can be defined by axioms based on the stack operations, i.e. a certain data structure is a stack if the respective axioms hold
- For illustration some examples for such axioms - the “typical” axioms are
(where S is a Stack which can hold elements x of some set X)
 - If not full(S): $\text{Pop}(S) \circ (\text{Push}(S,x)) = x$ for all $x \in X$
 - If not empty(S): $\text{Push}(S, \text{Pop}(S)) = S$

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Typical Implementation of a Stack

- A typical implementation of a stack of size n is based on an **array** $S[1 \dots n]$
 - ⇒ so it can hold at most n elements
- $\text{top}(S)$ is the index of the most recently inserted element
- The stack consists of elements $S[1 \dots \text{top}(S)]$, where
 - $S[1]$ is the element at the bottom of the stack,
 - and $S[\text{top}(S)]$ is the element at the top.
- The unused elements $S[\text{top}(S)+1 \dots n]$ are not in the stack



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Stack

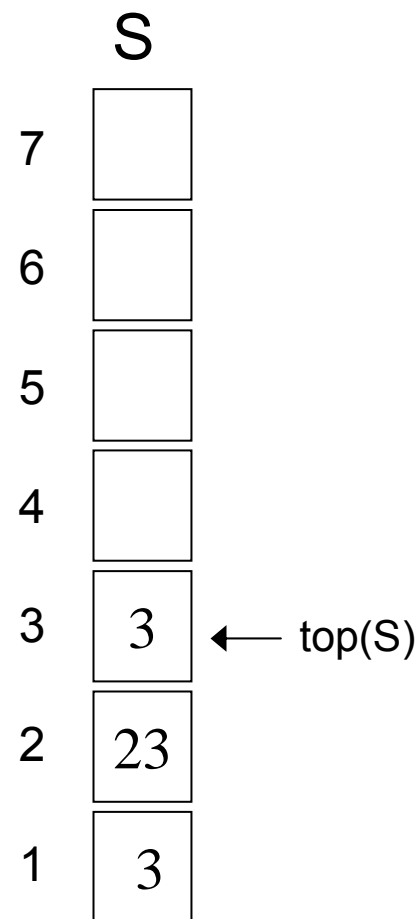
- If $\text{top}(S) = 0$ the stack is empty \Rightarrow no element can be popped
- If $\text{top}(S) = n$ the stack is full \Rightarrow no further element can be pushed

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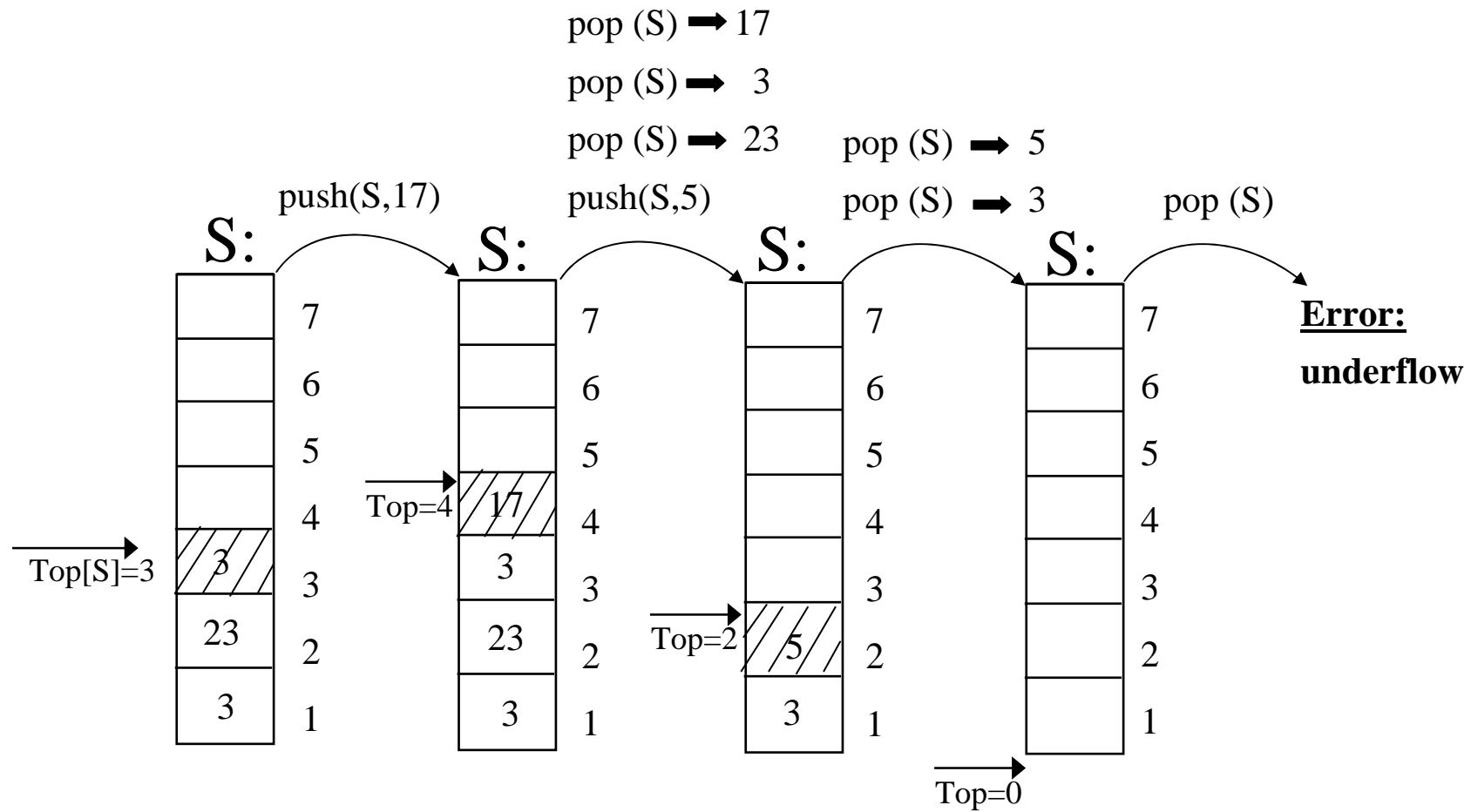
Example (Stack Manipulation)

Start with stack given,
denote changes of “stack state”

- Push(S, 17)
- Pop(S), Pop(S), Pop(S), Push(S, 5)
- Pop(S), Pop(S)
- Pop(S)



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Pseudo Code for Stack Operations

- Number of elements

```
NumElements (S)  
    return top[S]
```

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Pseudo Code for Stack Operations

- Test for emptiness

```
Stack_Empty(S)
    if top[S]=0
        then return true
        else return false
```

- Test for “stack full”

```
Stack_Full (S)
    if top[S]=n
        then return true
        else return false
```

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Pseudo Code for Stack Operations

- Pushing and Popping

This pseudo code contains error handling functionality

```
Push(S,x)
  if Stack_Full(S)
    then error "overflow"
  else top[S] := top[S]+1
       S[top[S]] := x
```

```
Pop(S)
  if Stack_Empty(S)
    then error "underflow"
  else top[S] := top[S]-1
       return S[top[S]+1]
```

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Pseudo Code for Stack Operations

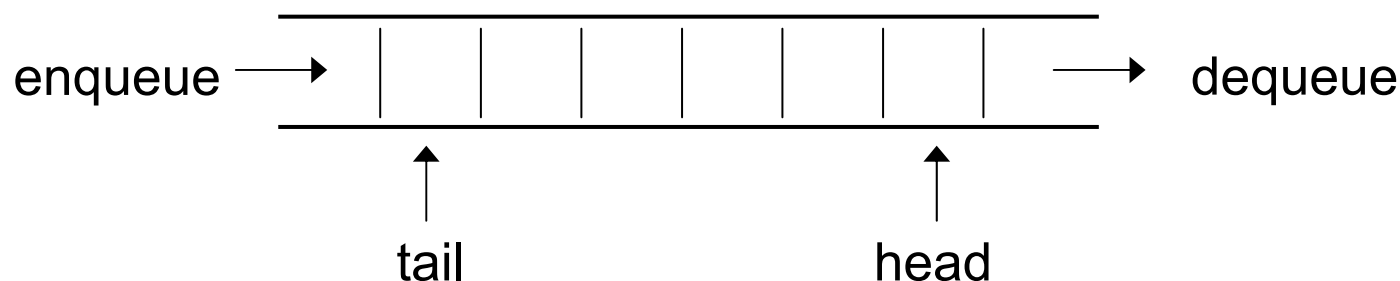
■ (Asymptotic) Runtime

- **NumElements:**
number of operations independent of size n of stack
⇒ constant ⇒ $O(1)$
- **Stack_Empty** and **Stack_Full:**
number of operations independent of size n of stack
⇒ constant ⇒ $O(1)$
- **Push** and **Pop:**
number of operations independent of size n of stack
⇒ constant ⇒ $O(1)$

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Queue

- A **queue** implements the FIFO (first-in, first-out) policy
 - Like a line of people at the post office or in a shop



- For a queue,
 - the insert operation is called **Enqueue** (= > place at the tail of the queue)
 - and the delete operation is called **Dequeue** (= > take from the head of the queue)

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Where are Queues used?

- In multi-tasking systems (communication, synchronization)
- In communication systems (store-and-forward networks)
- In servicing systems (queue in front of the servicing unit)
- Queuing networks (performance evaluation of computer and communication networks)

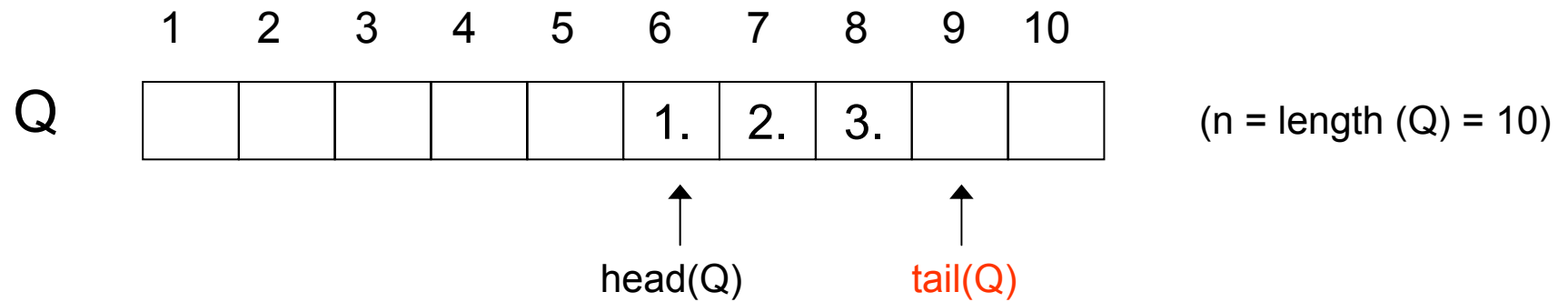
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Typical Implementation of a Queue

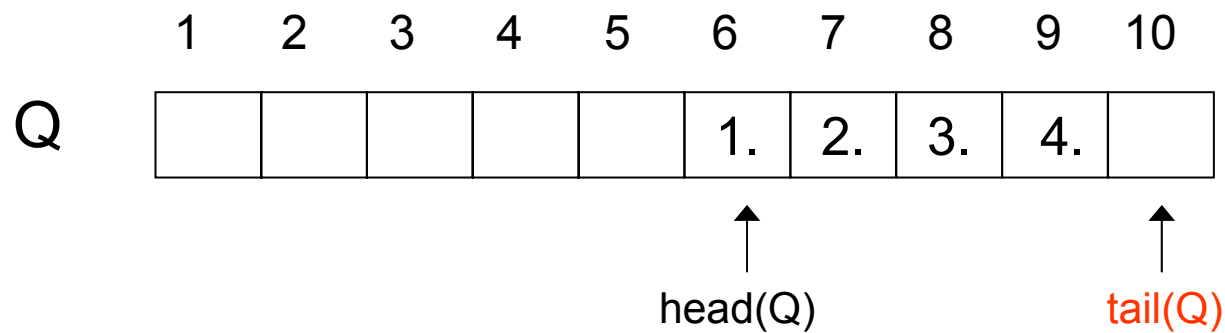
- A typical implementation of a queue consisting of at most $n-1$ elements is based on an array $Q[1 \dots n]$
- Its attribute **head(Q)** points to the head of the queue.
- Its attribute **tail(Q)** points to the position where a new element will be inserted into the queue (i.e. one position behind the last element of the queue).
- The elements in the queue are in positions $\text{head}(Q), \text{head}(Q)+1, \dots, \text{tail}(Q)-1$, where we wrap around the array boundary in the sense that $Q[1]$ immediately follows $Q[n]$

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Example (1)



- Insert a new element (4.)



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Typical Implementation of a Queue

■ Number of elements in queue

- If $\text{tail} > \text{head}$:

$$\text{NumElements}(Q) = \text{tail} - \text{head}$$

- If $\text{tail} < \text{head}$:

$$\text{NumElements}(Q) = \text{tail} - \text{head} + n$$

- If $\text{tail} = \text{head}$:

$$\text{NumElements}(Q) = 0$$

- Initially: $\text{head}[Q] = \text{tail}[Q] = 1$

■ Position of elements in queue

- The x . element of a queue Q ($1 \leq x \leq \text{NumElements}(Q)$) is mapped to array position

$$\text{head}(Q) + (x - 1) \quad \text{if } x \leq n - \text{head} + 1 \text{ (no wrap around)}$$

$$\text{head}(Q) + (x - 1) - n \quad \text{if } x > n - \text{head} + 1 \text{ (wrap around)}$$

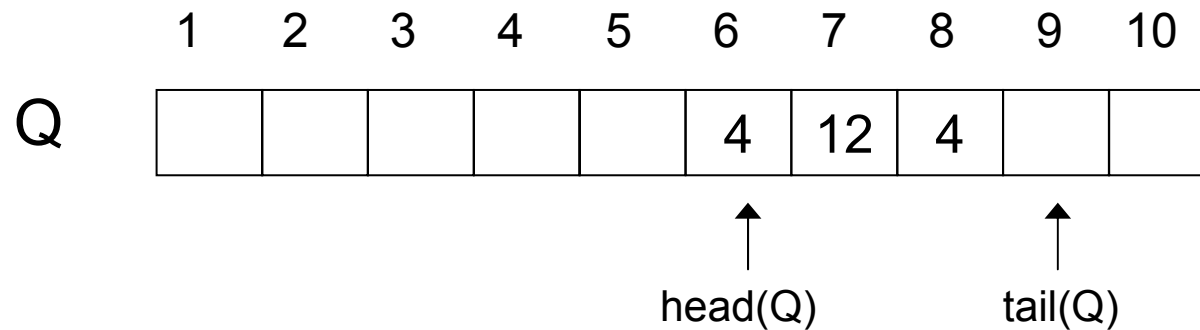
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Typical Implementation of a Queue

- Remark:
 - A queue implemented by a n -element array can hold at most $n-1$ elements
 - otherwise we could not distinguish between an empty and a full queue
- A queue Q is empty: $(\Leftrightarrow \text{NumElements}(Q) = 0)$
 - if $\text{head}(Q) = \text{tail}(Q)$
- A queue Q is full: $(\Leftrightarrow \text{NumElements}(Q) = n-1)$
 - if $\text{head}(Q) = (\text{tail}(Q) + 1)$ $(\text{head}(Q) > \text{tail}(Q))$
 - if $\text{head}(Q) = (\text{tail}(Q) - n + 1)$ $(\text{head}(Q) < \text{tail}(Q))$

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Example (Queue Manipulation)



Start with queue given, denote changes of “queue state”

- Enqueue(Q, 2), Enqueue(Q, 3), Enqueue(Q, 7)
- Dequeue(Q)

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Queue Operations

- Enqueue and Dequeue

This pseudo code does not contain error handling functionality (see stack push and pop)

Enqueue(Q, x)

```
Q[tail[Q]] := x
if tail[Q]=length[Q]
  then tail[Q] := 1
  else tail[Q] := tail[Q]+1
```

Precondition: queue not full

Dequeue(Q)

```
x := Q[head[Q]]
if head[Q]=length[Q]
  then head[Q] := 1
  else head[Q] := head[Q]+1
return x
```

Precondition: queue not empty

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Pseudo Code for Queue Operations

■ (Asymptotic) Runtime

- **Enqueue and Dequeue:**
number of operations independent of size n of queue
 - ⇒ constant
 - ⇒ $O(1)$

Introduction to Data Structures and Algorithms

Chapter: **Elementary Data Structures(2)**

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Elementary Data Structures

Typical Examples of Elementary Data Structures

- Array
- Stack
- Queue
- Linked List
- Tree

Elementary Data Structures

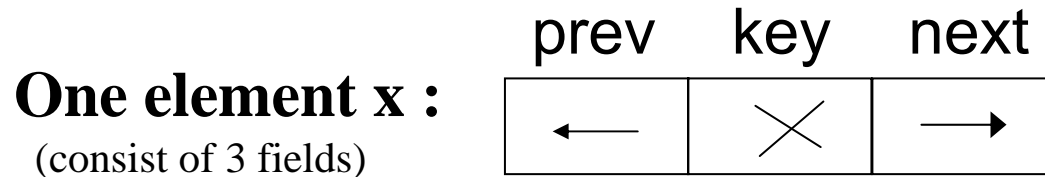
Linked List

- In a **linked list**, the elements are arranged in a linear order, i.e. each element (except the first one) has a **predecessor** and each element (except the last one) has a **successor**.
- Unlike an array, elements are not addressed by an index, but by a **pointer** (a reference).
- There are *singly* linked lists and *doubly* linked lists.
- A list may be sorted or unsorted.
- A list may be circular (i.e. a ring of elements).
- Here we consider mainly unsorted, doubly linked lists

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Linked List

- Each element x of a (doubly) linked list has three fields
 - A pointer **prev** to the previous element
 - A pointer **next** to the next element
 - A field that contains a **key** (value of a certain type)
 - Possibly a field that contains satellite data (ignored in the following)



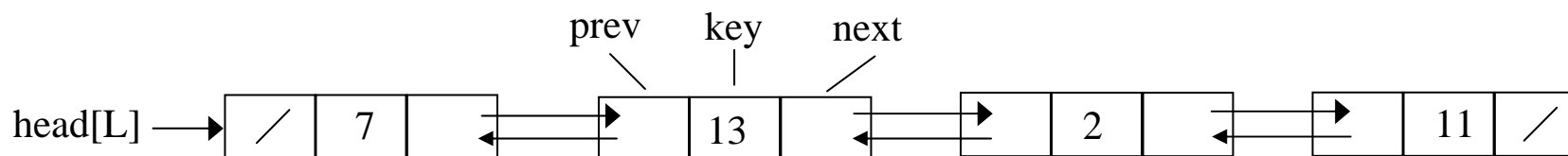
- Pointer fields that contain no pointer pointing to another element contain the special pointer **NIL** (\backslash)
- The pointer **head[L]** points to the first element of the linked list
- If $\text{head}[L] = \text{NIL}$ the list L is an **empty list**

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Linked List

- In a linked list, the insert operation is called **List_Insert**, and the delete operation is called **List_Delete**.
- In a linked list we may search for an element with a certain key k by calling **List_Search**.

Linked List Example: dynamic set {11, 2, 7, 13}



Notice:

$prev[head] = NIL$ and $next[tail] = NIL$

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Some Examples for the Use of Linked Lists

- Lists of passengers of a plane or a hotel
- Card games (sorting cards corresponding to a certain order, inserting new cards into or removing cards out of the sequence)
- To-do lists (containing entries for actions to be done)
- Hash Lists (⇒ Hashing, dealt later in this lecture)

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Searching a Linked List

- The procedure `List_search (L, k)` finds the first element with key `k` in list `L` and returns a pointer to that element.
- If no element with key `k` is found, the special pointer `NIL` is returned.

```
List_Search(L,k)
  x := head[L]
  while x!=NIL and key[x]!=k do
    x := next[x]
  return x
```

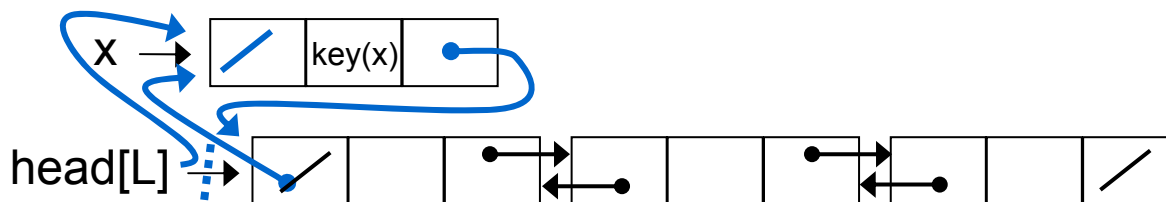
- It takes at most $\Theta(n)$ time to search a list of `n` objects (linear search)

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Inserting into a Linked List

- The procedure `List_insert(L,x)` inserts a new element `x` as the new head of list `L`

```
List_Insert(L,x)
  next[x] := head[L]
  if head[L] != NIL then
    prev[head[L]] := x
  head[L] := x
  prev[x] := NIL
```



- The runtime for `List_Insert` on a list of length `n` is constant ($O(1)$)

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Deleting from a Linked List

- The procedure `List_Delete(L, x)` removes an element `x` from the linked list `L`, where the element is given by a pointer to `x`.
- If you want to delete an element given by its key `k`, you have to compute a pointer to this element (e.g. by using `List_search(L, k)`)

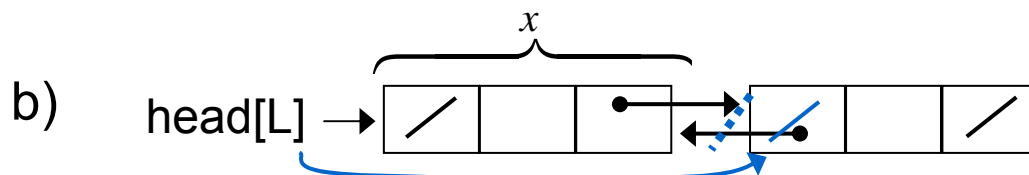
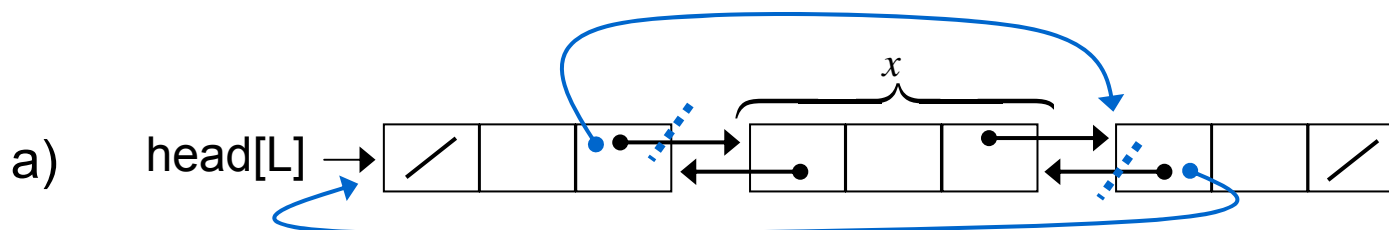
```
List_Delete(L, x)
  if prev[x] != NIL           ⇨ x not the first element
  then next[prev[x]] := next[x]
  else head[L] := next[x]
  if next[x] != NIL          ⇨ x not the last element
  then prev[next[x]] := prev[x]
```

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Deleting from a Linked List

`List_Delete(L, x)`

- a) `if prev[x] != NIL`
 `then next[prev[x]] := next[x]`
- b) `else head[L] := next[x]`
 `if next[x] != NIL`
 `then prev[next[x]] := prev[x]`



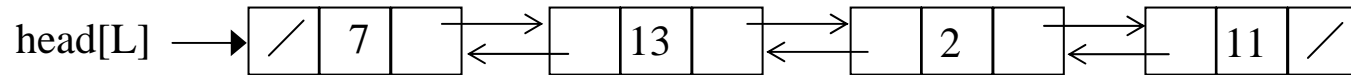
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Deleting from a Linked List

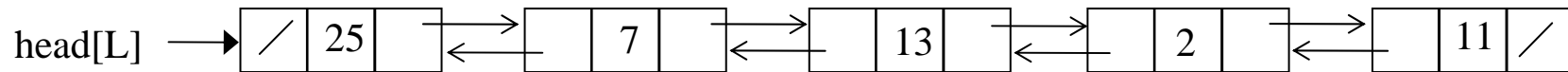
- The runtime for `List_Delete` on a list of length n is constant ($O(1)$)
- If you want to delete an element with a certain key, you must first find that element by executing `List_Search`, which takes $\Theta(n)$ time in the worst case

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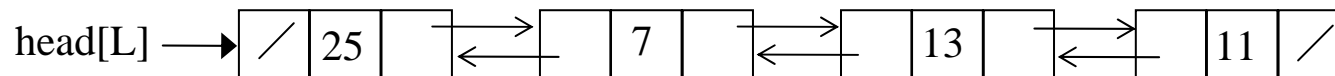
Inserting and deleting :



List_insert (L,x) with key[x] = 25 ↻



List_Delete (L,x) where x points to element with key[x] = 2 ↻



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Tree

- Any data structure consisting of elements of the same type can be represented with the help of pointers (in a similar way as we implemented lists).
- Very important examples of such data structures are **trees**.
 - Trees are graphs that contain no cycle: every non-trivial path through a tree starting at a node and ending in the same node, does traverse at least one edge at least twice.
- There exist many kinds of trees. Examples are:
 - Binary trees
 - Trees with unbounded branching
 - Binary search trees
 - Red-black trees

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Some Examples for the Use of Trees

- Systematically exploring various ways of proceeding (e.g. in chess or planning games)
- Morse trees (coding trees)
- Heaps (\Rightarrow heap sort)
- Search trees

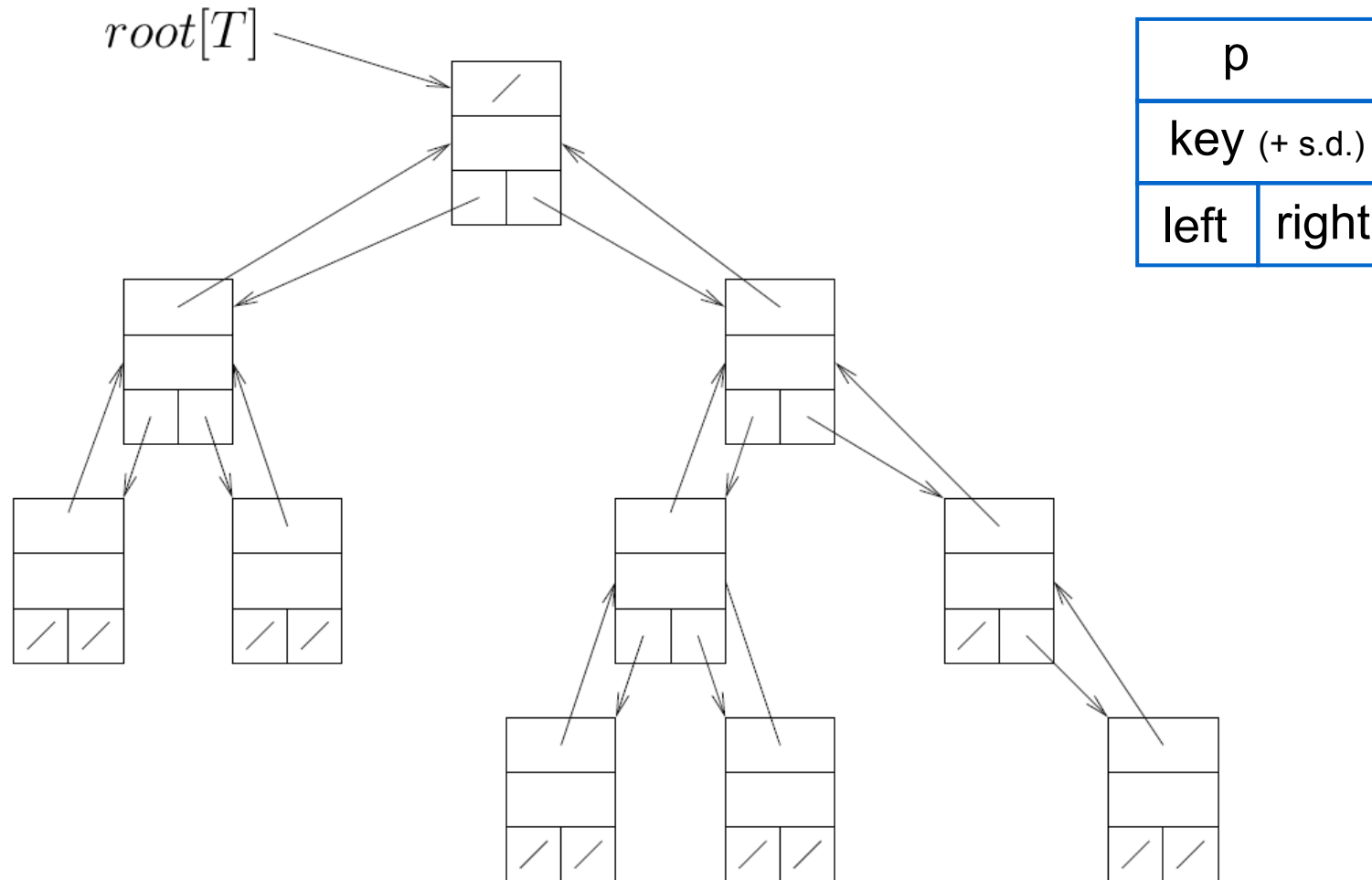
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Tree

- A **binary tree** consists of nodes with the following fields
 - A **key** field
 - Possibly some satellite data (ignored in the following)
 - Three pointers **p**, **left** and **right** pointing to the parent node, left child node and right child node
- Be x an element (or node) of a tree
 - If $p[x] = \text{NIL}$ \Rightarrow x represents the **root** node
 - If both $\text{left}[x] = \text{NIL}$ and $\text{right}[x] = \text{NIL}$
 - \Rightarrow x represents a **leaf** node
- For each tree T there is a pointer $\text{root}[T]$ that points to the root of T
- If $\text{root}[T] = \text{NIL}$, the tree T is empty

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Binary Tree (Example)



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P-nary Trees

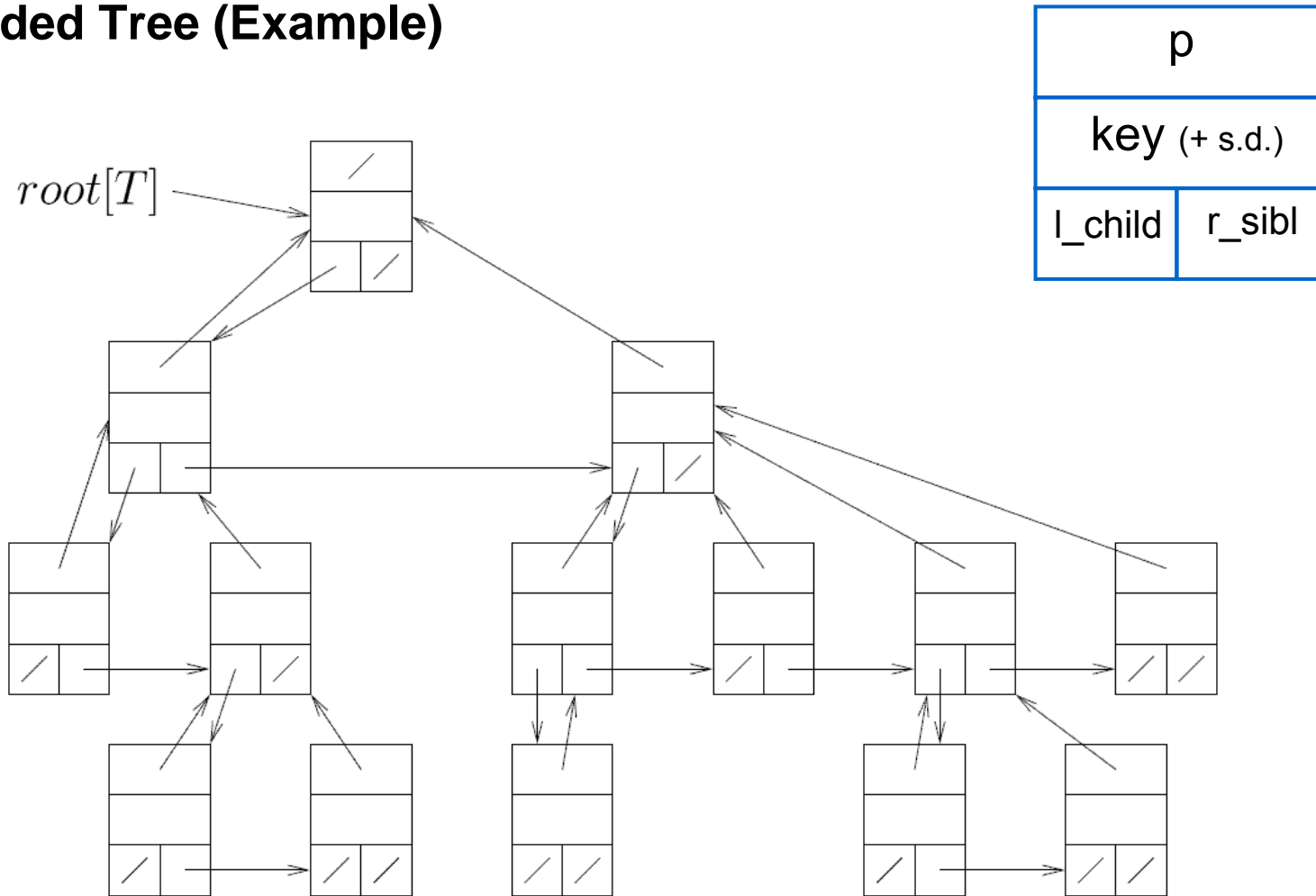
- The above scheme can be extended to any class of trees where the number of children is bounded by some constant k : $child_1, \dots, child_k$ $k \in \mathbb{N}$
 - a bit of memory space may be wasted for pointers which are not actually used

Trees with unbounded branching

- A **tree with unbounded branching**
(if no upper bound on the number of a node's children is known a priori)
can be implemented by the following scheme:
 - Each node has a key field (and possibly some satellite data),
 - and three pointers **p**, **left_child** and **right_sibling**
 - In a leaf node, left_child=NIL
 - If a node is the rightmost child of its parent, then right_sibling=NIL

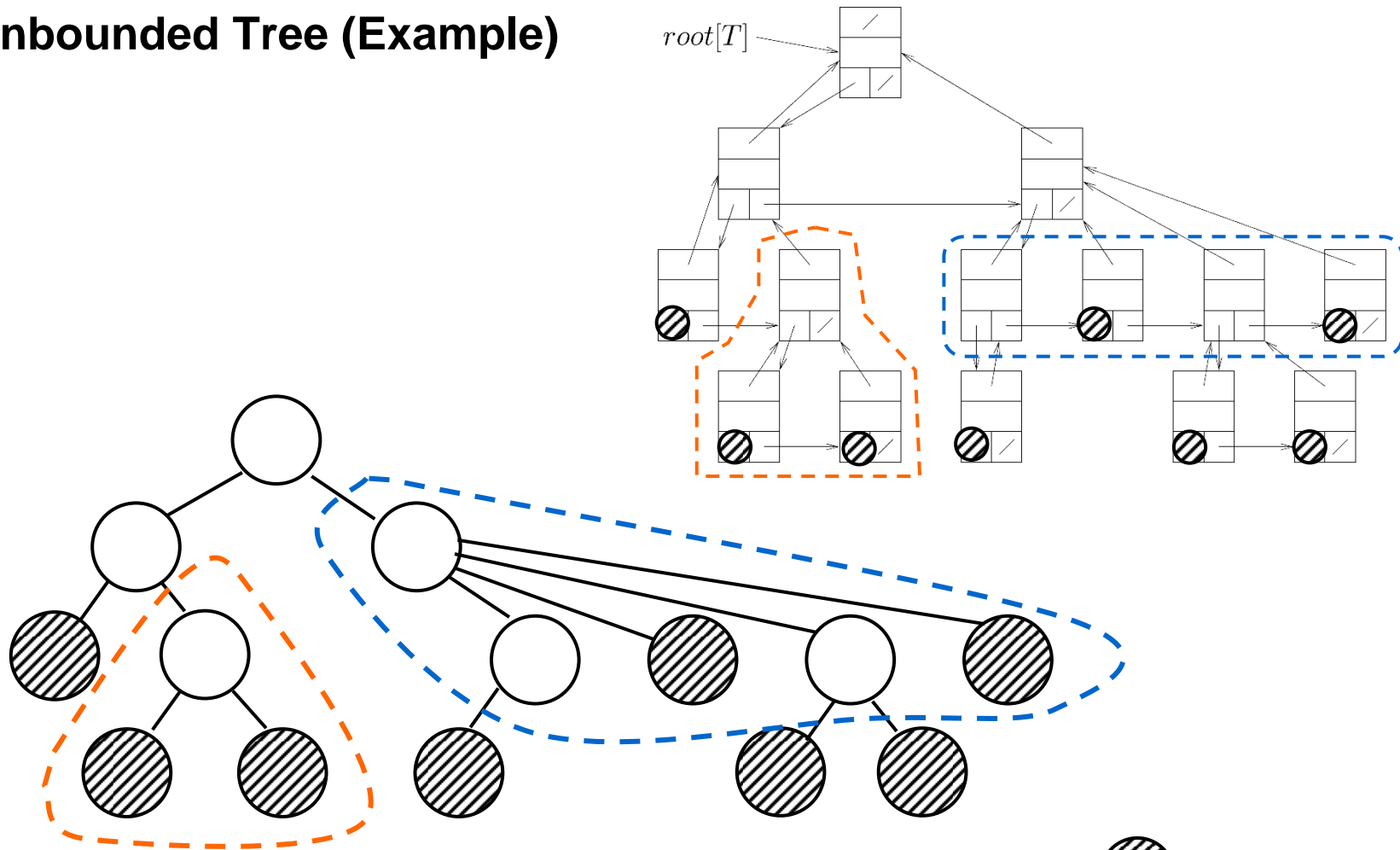
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Unbounded Tree (Example)



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Unbounded Tree (Example)



 leaves