



Lectures 3, 4  
Recap of basic data  
structures, binary search

CS 161 Design and Analysis of Algorithms

Ioannis Panageas

## Outline of these notes

- ▶ Review of basic data structures
- ▶ Searching in a sorted array/binary search: the algorithm, analysis

# Basic Data structures

Prerequisite material. Review [GT Chapters 2–4, 6] as necessary)

- ▶ Arrays, dynamic arrays
- ▶ Linked lists
- ▶ Stacks, queues
- ▶ Dictionaries, hash tables
- ▶ Binary trees

## Arrays, Dynamic arrays, Linked lists

- ▶ Arrays:
  - ▶ Numbered collection of **cells** or **entries**
    - ▶ Numbering usually starts at 0
    - ▶ Fixed number of entries
  - ▶ Each cell has an **index** which uniquely identifies it.
  - ▶ Accessing or modifying the contents of a cell given its index:  $O(1)$  time.
  - ▶ Inserting or deleting an item in the middle of an array is slow.
- ▶ Dynamic arrays:
  - ▶ Similar to arrays, but size can be increased or decreased
  - ▶ **ArrayList** in Java, **list** in Python
- ▶ Linked lists:
  - ▶ Collection of nodes that form a linear ordering.
    - ▶ The list has a **first node** and a **last node**
    - ▶ Each node has a **next node** and a **previous node** (possibly null)
  - ▶ Inserting or deleting an item in the middle of linked list is fast.
  - ▶ Accessing a cell given its index (i.e., finding the  $k$ th item in the list) is slow.

# Stacks and Queues

- ▶ Stacks:
  - ▶ Container of objects that are inserted and removed according to **Last-In First-Out (LIFO)** principle:
    - ▶ Only the most-recently inserted object can be removed.
  - ▶ Insert and remove are usually called **push** and **pop**
- ▶ Queues (often called FIFO Queues)
  - ▶ Container of objects that are inserted and removed according to **First-In First-Out (FIFO)** principle:
    - ▶ Only the element that has been in the queue the longest can be removed.
  - ▶ Insert and remove are usually called **enqueue** and **dequeue**
  - ▶ Elements are inserted at the **rear** of the queue and are removed from the **front**

# Dictionaries/Maps

- ▶ Dictionaries
  - ▶ A **Dictionary** (or **Map**) stores `<key, value>` pairs, which are often referred to as **items**
  - ▶ There can be at most item with a given key.
  - ▶ Examples:
    1. `<Student ID, Student data>`
    2. `<Object ID, Object data>`

# Hashing

An efficient method for implementing a dictionary. Uses

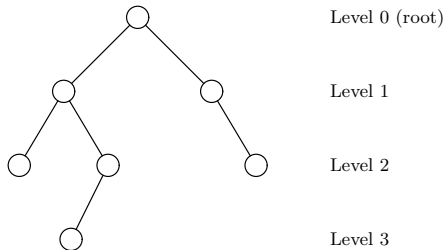
- ▶ A **hash table**, an array of size  $N$ .
- ▶ A **hash function**, which maps any key from the set of possible keys to an integer in the range  $[0, N - 1]$
- ▶ A **collision strategy**, which determines what to do when two keys are mapped to the same table location by the hash function. Commonly used collision strategies are:
  - ▶ Chaining
  - ▶ Open addressing: linear probing, quadratic probing, double hashing
  - ▶ Cuckoo hashing

Hashing is fast:

- ▶  $O(1)$  **expected** time for access, insertion
- ▶ Cuckoo hashing improves the access time to  $O(1)$  **worst-case** time. Insertion time remains  $O(1)$  expected time.

## Binary Trees: a quick review

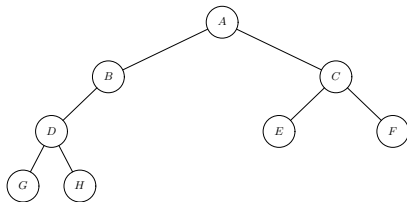
We will use as a data structure and as a tool for analyzing algorithms.



The **depth** of a binary tree is the maximum of the levels of all its leaves.

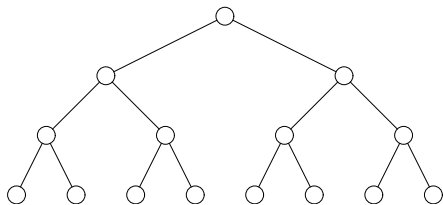


## Traversing binary trees



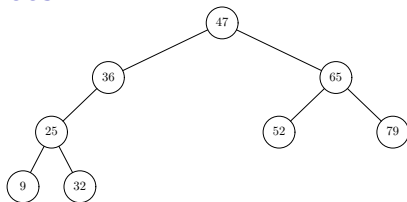
- ▶ **Preorder:** root, left subtree (in preorder), right subtree (in preorder): *ABDGHCEF*
- ▶ **Inorder:** left subtree (in inorder), root, right subtree (in inorder): *GDHBAECF*
- ▶ **Postorder:** left subtree (in postorder), right subtree (in postorder), root: *GHDBEFCA*
- ▶ **Breadth-first order (level order):** level 0 left-to-right, then level 1 left-to-right, ...: *ABCDEFGH*

## Facts about binary trees



1. There are at most  $2^k$  nodes at level  $k$ .
2. A binary tree with depth  $d$  has:
  - ▶ At most  $2^d$  leaves.
  - ▶ At most  $2^{d+1} - 1$  nodes.
3. A binary tree with  $n$  leaves has depth  $\geq \lceil \lg n \rceil$ .
4. A binary tree with  $n$  nodes has depth  $\geq \lceil \lg n \rceil$ .

## Binary search trees



- ▶ Function as **ordered dictionaries**. (Can find successors, predecessors)
- ▶ **find**, **insert**, and **remove** can all be done in  $O(h)$  time ( $h = \text{tree height}$ )
- ▶ **AVL trees**, **Red-Black Trees**, **Weak AVL trees**:  $h = O(\log n)$ , so **find**, **insert**, and **remove** can all be done in  $O(\log n)$  time.
- ▶ **Splay trees** and **Skip Lists**: alternatives to balanced trees
- ▶ Can traverse the tree and list all items in  $O(n)$  time.
- ▶ [GT] Chapters 3–4 for details

## Binary Search: Searching in a sorted array

- ▶ Input is a sorted array  $A$  and an item  $x$ .
- ▶ Problem is to locate  $x$  in the array.
- ▶ Several variants of the problem, for example...
  1. Determine whether  $x$  is stored in the array
  2. Find the largest  $i$  such that  $A[i] \leq x$  (with a reasonable convention if  $x < A[0]$ ).

We will focus on the first variant.

- ▶ We will show that binary search is an **optimal** algorithm for solving this problem.

## Binary Search: Searching in a sorted array

**Input:** A: Sorted array with  $n$  entries  $[0..n - 1]$   
x: Item we are seeking

**Output:** Location of  $x$ , if  $x$  found  
-1, if  $x$  not found

```
def binarySearch(A,x,first,last)
if first > last:
    return (-1)
else:
    mid = [(first+last)/2]
    if x == A[mid]:
        return mid
    else if x < A[mid]:
        return binarySearch(A,x,first,mid-1)
    else:
        return binarySearch(A,x,mid+1,last)
binarySearch(A,x,0,n-1)
```

## Correctness of Binary Search

We need to prove two things:

1. If  $x$  is in the array, its location in the array (its index) is between *first* and *last*, inclusive.

Note that this is equivalent to:

*Either  $x$  is not in the array, or its location is between *first* and *last*, inclusive.*

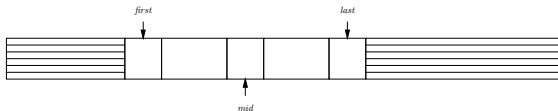
2. On each recursive call, the difference *last* – *first* gets strictly smaller.



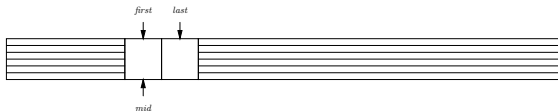
## Correctness of Binary Search

To prove that the invariant continues to hold, we need to consider three cases.

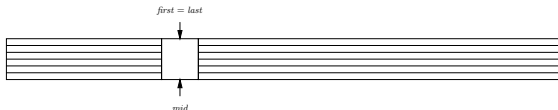
1.  $last \geq first + 2$



2.  $last = first + 1$



3.  $last = first$



## Binary Search: Analysis of Running Time

- ▶ We will count the number of **3-way comparisons** of  $x$  against elements of  $A$ . (also known as **decisions**)
- ▶ Rationale:
  1. This is the essentially the same as the number of recursive calls. Every recursive call, except for possibly the very last one, results in a 3-way comparison.
  2. Gives us a way to compare binary search against other algorithms that solve the same problem: searching for an item in an array by comparing the item against array entries.



## Binary Search: Analysis of Running Time (continued)

- ▶ Binary search in an array of size 1: 1 decision
- ▶ Binary search in an array of size  $n > 1$ : after 1 decision, either we are done, or the problem is reduced to binary search in a subarray with a worst-case size of  $\lfloor n/2 \rfloor$
- ▶ So the worst-case time to do binary search on an array of size  $n$  is  $T(n)$ , where  $T(n)$  satisfies the equation

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 1 \\ 1 + T(\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- ▶ The solution to this equation is:

$$T(n) = \lfloor \lg n \rfloor + 1$$

This can be proved by induction.

- ▶ So binary search does  $\lfloor \lg n \rfloor + 1$  3-way comparisons on an array of size  $n$ , in the worst case.