

3 Fundamental Data Structures

21 October 2025

Prof. Dr. Sebastian Wild

Learning Outcomes

Unit 3: *Fundamental Data Structures*

1. Understand and demonstrate the difference between *abstract data type (ADT)* and its *implementation*
2. Be able to define the ADTs *stack*, *queue*, *priority queue* and *dictionary / symbol table*
3. Understand *array*-based implementations of stack and queue
4. Understand *linked lists* and the corresponding implementations of stack and queue
5. Know *binary heaps* and their performance characteristics
6. Understand *binary search trees* and their performance characteristics
7. Know high-level idea of basic *hashing strategies* and their performance characteristics

Outline

3 Fundamental Data Structures

- 3.1 Stacks & Queues
- 3.2 Resizable Arrays
- 3.3 Priority Queues & Binary Heaps
- 3.4 Operations on Binary Heaps
- 3.5 Symbol Tables
- 3.6 Binary Search Trees
- 3.7 Ordered Symbol Tables
- 3.8 Balanced BSTs
- 3.9 Hashing

Clicker Question

What's the running time (on our word-RAM model with word size w) of this Java instruction?

`Object[] A = new Object[n];`



A 1

B $\Theta(1)$

C $\Theta(\log n)$

D $\Theta(w)$

E $\Theta(n/w)$

F $\Theta(n)$

G $\Theta(n \log n)$

H $\Theta(nw)$

I $\Theta(n^2)$



→ sli.do/cs566

Clicker Question



What's the running time (on our word-RAM model with word size w) of this Java instruction?

`Object[] A = new Object[n];` // $n \cdot w$ bit

A $\pm$

D ~~$\Theta(w)$~~

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B ~~$\Theta(1)$~~

E ~~$\Theta(n \log w)$~~

H ~~$\Theta(nw)$~~

C ~~$\Theta(\log n)$~~

F $\Theta(n)$ ✓

I ~~$\Theta(n^2)$~~



→ sli.do/cs566

Recap: The Random Access Machine

- ▶ Data structures make heavy use of pointers and dynamically allocated memory.
- ▶ Recall: Our RAM model supports
 - ▶ basic pseudocode ($\approx$ simple Python/Java code)
 - ▶ creating arrays of a fixed/known size.
 - ▶ creating instances (objects) of a known class.

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Python abstracts this away!

There are **no arrays** in Python, only its built-in **lists**.

no predefined capacity!



But: Python *implementations create* lists based on fixed-size arrays (stay tuned!)



Java

Python $\neq$ RAM:

Not every built-in Python instruction runs in $O(1)$ time!

3.1 Stacks & Queues

Abstract Data Types

abstract data type (ADT)

- ▶ list of supported operations
- ▶ **what** should happen
- ▶ **not:** how to do it
- ▶ **not:** how to store data

≈ Java interface, Python ABCs
(with comments)

abstract base classes



VS.

data structures

- ▶ specify exactly **how** data is represented
- ▶ **algorithms** for operations
- ▶ has concrete costs
(space and running time)

≈ Java/Python class
(non abstract)

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Why separate?

- ▶ Can swap out implementations $\rightsquigarrow$ “drop-in replacements”

$\rightsquigarrow$ **reusable code!**

- ▶ (Often) better abstractions
- ▶ Prove generic lower bounds ($\rightsquigarrow$ Unit 3)

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- ↪ **reusable code!**
- ▶ (Often) better abstractions
- ▶ Prove generic lower bounds (↪ Unit 3)



Clicker Question

Which of the following are examples of abstract data types?



- | | |
|-----------------------------|----------------------------------|
| A ADT | G resizable array |
| B Stack | H heap |
| C Deque | I priority queue |
| D Linked list | J dictionary/symbol table |
| E binary search tree | K hash table |
| F Queue | |



→ sli.do/cs566

Clicker Question

Which of the following are examples of abstract data types?



A ~~ADT~~

B Stack ✓

C Deque ✓

D ~~Linked list~~

E ~~binary search tree~~

F Queue ✓

G ~~resizable array~~

H ~~heap~~

I priority queue ✓

J dictionary/symbol
table ✓

K ~~hash table~~



→ *sli.do/cs566*

Stacks



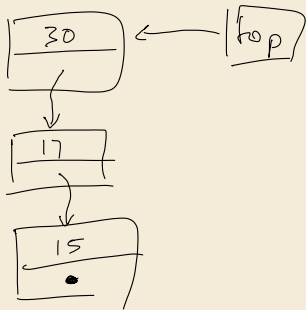
Stack ADT

- ▶ `top()`
Return the topmost item on the stack
Does not modify the stack.
- ▶ `push( $x$ )`
Add x onto the top of the stack.
- ▶ `pop()`
Remove the topmost item from the stack
(and return it).
- ▶ `isEmpty()`
Returns `true` iff stack is empty.
- ▶ `create()`
Create and return an new empty stack.

Linked-list implementation for Stack

Invariants:

- ▶ maintain pointer *top* to topmost element
- ▶ each element points to the element below it (or null if bottommost)



```
1 class Node
2     value
3     next
4
5 class Stack
6     top := null
7     procedure top():
8         return top.value
9     procedure push(x):
10         top := new Node(x, top)
11     procedure pop():
12         t := top()
13         top := top.next
14         return t
```

Linked-list implementation for Stack – Discussion

Linked stacks:

👍 require $\Theta(n)$ space when n elements on stack

👍 All operations take $O(1)$ time

👎 require $\Theta(n)$ space when n elements on stack

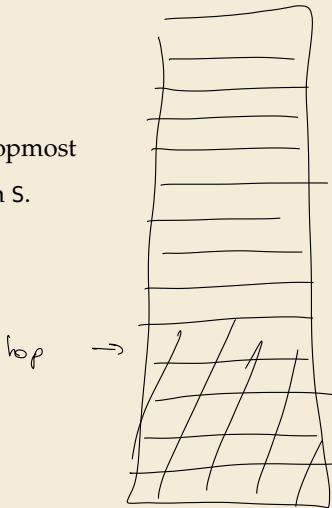
Can we avoid extra space for pointers?

Array-based implementation for Stack

If we want no pointers $\rightsquigarrow$ array-based implementation

Invariants:

- ▶ maintain array S of elements, from bottommost to topmost
- ▶ maintain index top of position of topmost element in S .



Array-based implementation for Stack

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What to do if stack is full upon push?

Array stacks:

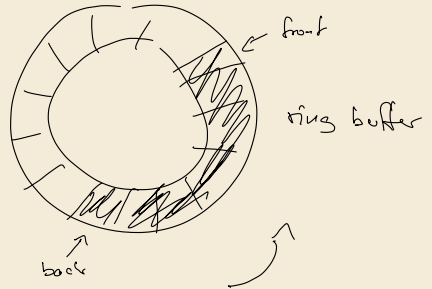
- ▶ require *fixed capacity* C (decided at creation time)!
- ▶ require $\Theta(C)$ space for a capacity of C elements
- ▶ all operations take $O(1)$ time



Queues

Operations:

- ▶ enqueue(x)
Add x at the end of the queue.
- ▶ dequeue()
Remove item at the front of the queue and return it.



Implementations similar to stacks.

Bags

What do Stack and Queue have in common?

Bags

What do Stack and Queue have in common?

They are special cases of a **Bag**!

Update Operations:

- ▶ `insert(x)`
Add *x* to the items in the bag.
- ▶ `delAny()`
Remove any one item from the bag and return it.
(Not specified which; any choice is fine.)
- ▶ roughly similar to Java's `java.util.Collection`
Python's `collections.abc.Collection`
- ▶ always support iterating over content (read only)

Sometimes it is useful to *state* that order is irrelevant $\rightsquigarrow$ Bag
Implementation of Bag usually just a Stack or a Queue



3.2 Resizable Arrays

Digression – Arrays as ADT

Arrays can also be seen as an ADT!

Array operations:

► `create( $n$ )` *Java*: `A = new int[ $n$ ];` *Python*: `A = [0] *  $n$`

Create a new array with n cells, with positions $0, 1, \dots, n - 1$;
we write $A[0..n) = A[0..n - 1]$

► `get( $i$ )` *Java/Python*: `A[ $i$ ]`

Return the content of cell i

► `set( $i, x$ )` *Java/Python*: `A[ $i$ ] =  $x$ ;`

Set the content of cell i to x .

↪ Arrays have *fixed* size (supplied at creation). ($\neq$ lists in Python)

Digression – Arrays as ADT

Arrays can also be seen as an ADT! ... but are commonly seen as specific data structure

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Set the content of cell i to x .

↪ Arrays have *fixed* size (supplied at creation). ($\neq$ lists in Python)

Usually directly implemented by compiler + operating system / virtual machine.



Difference to “real” ADTs: *Implementation usually fixed*
to “a contiguous chunk of memory”.

Doubling trick

Can we have unbounded stacks based on arrays? Yes!

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Invariants:

- ▶ maintain array S of elements, from bottommost to topmost
- ▶ maintain index top of position of topmost element in S
- ▶ maintain capacity $C = S.length$ so that $\frac{1}{4}C \leq n \leq C$

$\rightsquigarrow$ can always push more elements!

Doubling trick

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↪ can always push more elements!

How to maintain the last invariant?

- ▶ before push
If $n = C$, allocate new array of size $2n$, copy all elements.
- ▶ after pop
If $n < \frac{1}{4}C$, allocate new array of size $2n$, copy all elements.

↪ ***“Resizing Arrays”***

↖ an implementation technique, not an ADT!

Clicker Question

Which of the following statements about resizable array that currently stores n elements is ^{always} correct?



- A** The elements are stored in an array of size $2n$.
- B** Adding or deleting an element at the end takes constant time.
- C** A sequence of m insertions or deletions at the end of the array takes time $O(n + m)$.
- D** Inserting and deleting any element takes $O(1)$ amortized time.



→ sli.do/cs566

Amortized Analysis

- Any individual operation push / pop can be expensive!
 $\Theta(n)$ time to copy all elements to new array.
- **But:** An one expensive operation of cost T means $\Omega(T)$ next operations are cheap!

Amortisierte Analyse c_i = echte Kosten von Operation i

Φ_i = "Potential" nach Operation i

a_i = amortisierte Kosten

$$= c_i + \alpha \cdot (\Phi_i - \Phi_{i-1})$$

Ziel: Zeigen, dass $a_i \leq A$

$$m \cdot A \geq \sum_{i=1}^m a_i = \sum_{i=1}^m (c_i + \alpha \underbrace{(\Phi_i - \Phi_{i-1})}_{\text{Teleskopsumme!}}) = \sum_{i=1}^m c_i + \alpha (\Phi_m - \Phi_0)$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^m c_i \leq m \cdot A - \alpha (\Phi_m - \Phi_0)$$

" "

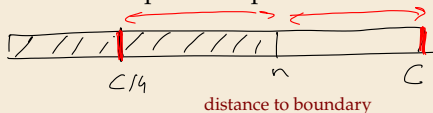
5 -4

für verändertes α

$$\sum_{i=1}^m c_i \leq 5 \cdot m + 4 \cdot \Phi_m \leq \underline{5m + 2.4 \cdot n}$$

Amortized Analysis

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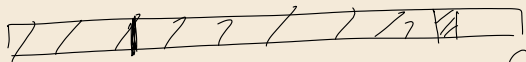


Formally: consider “credits/potential” $\Phi = \min\{n - \frac{1}{4}C, C - n\} \in [0, 0.6n]$

- ▶ amortized cost of an operation = actual cost (array accesses) $- 4 \cdot$ change in Φ
 - ▶ cheap push/pop: actual cost 1 array access, consumes ≤ 1 credits $\rightsquigarrow$ amortized cost ≤ 5
 - ▶ copying push: actual cost $2n + 1$ array accesses, creates $\frac{1}{2}n + 1$ credits $\rightsquigarrow$ amortized cost ≤ 5
 - ▶ copying pop: actual cost $2n + 1$ array accesses, creates $\frac{1}{2}n - 1$ credits $\rightsquigarrow$ amortized cost 5

$\rightsquigarrow$ **sequence of m operations:** total actual cost $\leq$ total amortized cost + final credits
 here: $\leq 5m + 4 \cdot 0.6n = \Theta(m + n)$

gutes push/pop



C c_i

$$\Delta \Phi = -1$$

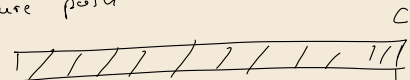
$$a_i = 1 - 4 \cdot \Delta \Phi = 5$$



$$\Delta \Phi = 1$$

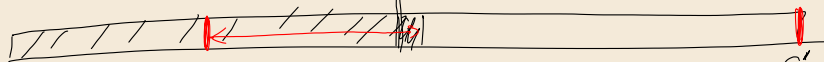
$$a_i = 1 - 4 \cdot 1 = -3 \leq 5$$

teure push



vorher

$$\Phi_{i-1} = 0$$



nachher

$$\approx \frac{n}{4}$$

$$n \quad n' = n+1$$

$$\Phi_i =$$

$$C' \\ 2n$$

Clicker Question



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Deamortized Resizable Arrays

What if we need $O(1)$ worst case time?

Deamortized Resizable Arrays

What if we need $O(1)$ *worst case time*?

- ▶ It's possible to *de-amortize* the resizing arrays solution!
- ▶ maintain **3 arrays**: S (as before) and S_2 and $S_{1/2}$
of twice and half the size of S

Deamortized Resizable Arrays

What if we need $O(1)$ *worst case* time?

- ▶ It's possible to *de-amortize* the resizing arrays solution!
 - ▶ maintain **3 arrays**: S (as before) and S_2 and $S_{1/2}$
of twice and half the size of S
 - ▶ write operations go to all 3 arrays
 - ▶ upon resize, “shift” arrays up/down $\rightsquigarrow S_2$ resp. $S_{1/2}$ become new S
 - ▶ allocate new array, but **delay filling it with elements** $\leftarrow$ general strategy!
 - ▶ every insert or delete copies 2 slots from last resize
- $\rightsquigarrow$ by time for next resize, we have caught up and S_2 resp. $S_{1/2}$ ready to use

Deamortized Resizable Arrays

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Analysis:

- ▶ $O(1)$ worst case time for read/write by index, push, and pop! $\leftarrow$ assuming memory allocation in $O(1)$ $\rightsquigarrow$ needs to be uninitialized!
- ▶ up to 7 array accesses per operation
- ▶ up to $7n$ space $\leftarrow$ other time-space trade-offs possible

Rabbit Hole: Can we do this more space-efficiently?

- It might appear as if every efficient implementation of a stack needs $\Omega(n)$ extra space on top of space for storing the n elements in the stack.

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- ▶ But this is not true!

bisher, $\Theta(n)$

/

- ▶ Can get operations in $O(1)$ worst-case time with $O(\sqrt{n})$ extra space at any time (!)

- ▶ Maintain a collection of small arrays (plus header with pointers to them)

- ▶ Clever choice of block sizes guarantees

$O(\sqrt{n})$ blocks of $O(\sqrt{n})$ elements throughout
and fast calculation of address for an index.

imaginary “superblocks” of sizes 2^k , $k = 0, 1, \dots, \lg n$
 k th superblock consists of $2^{k/2}$ actual blocks of $2^{k/2}$ elements each.

- ▶ $O(\sqrt{n})$ extra space is best possible

exactly

Resizable Arrays in Optimal Time and Space

Andrej Brodnik, Svante Carlsson, Erik D. Demaine, J. Ian Munro & Robert Sedgwick

WADS 1999

3.3 Priority Queues & Binary Heaps

Clicker Question



What is a heap-ordered tree?

- A** A tree in which every node has exactly 2 children.
- B** A tree where all keys in the left subtree are smaller than the key at the root and all keys in the right subtree are bigger than the key at the root.
- C** A tree where all keys in the left subtree and right subtree are smaller than the key at the root.
- D** An tree that is stored in the heap-area of the memory.



→ *sli.do/cs566*

Priority Queue ADT

Now: elements in the bag have different *priorities*.

(Max-oriented) Priority Queue (MaxPQ):

- ▶ `construct( $A$ )`
Construct from elements in array A .
- ▶ `insert( $x, p$ )`
Insert item x with priority p into PQ.
- ▶ `max()`
Return item with largest priority. (Does not modify the PQ.)
- ▶ `delMax()`
Remove the item with largest priority and return it.
- ▶ `changeKey( $x, p'$ )`
Update x 's priority to p' .
Sometimes restricted to *increasing* priority.
- ▶ `isEmpty()`

Fundamental building block in many applications.



Priority Queue ADT – min-oriented version

Now: elements in the bag have different *priorities*.

~~(Max-oriented)~~ Priority Queue (~~Max~~PQ):

- ▶ `construct( $A$ )`
Construct from elements in array A .
- ▶ `insert( $x, p$ )`
Insert item x with priority p into PQ.
- ▶ ~~`max()`~~ `min()`
Return item with ~~largest~~ ^{smallest} priority. (Does not modify the PQ.)
- ▶ ~~`delMax()`~~ `delMin()`
Remove the item with ~~largest~~ ^{smallest} priority and return it.
- ▶ `changeKey( $x, p'$ )`
Update x 's priority to p' .
Sometimes restricted to ~~increasing~~ ^{de} priority.
- ▶ `isEmpty()`

Fundamental building block in many applications.



PQ implementations

Elementary implementations

- ▶ unordered list $\rightsquigarrow \Theta(1)$ insert, but $\Theta(n)$ delMax
- ▶ sorted list $\rightsquigarrow \Theta(1)$ delMax, but $\Theta(n)$ insert

PQ implementations

Elementary implementations

- ▶ unordered list $\rightsquigarrow \Theta(1)$ insert, but $\Theta(n)$ delMax
- ▶ sorted list $\rightsquigarrow \Theta(1)$ delMax, but $\Theta(n)$ insert

Can we get something between these extremes? Like a “slightly sorted” list?

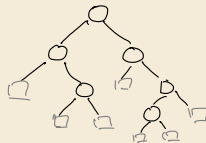
PQ implementations

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Yes! *Binary heaps.*



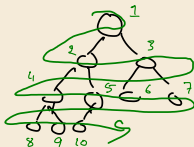
binary tree
w/ null pointers



complete binary tree

Array view

Heap = array A with
 $\forall i \in [n] : A[\lfloor i/2 \rfloor] \geq A[i]$



store nodes
in level order
in $A[1..n]$

$$\text{parent}(k) = \left\lfloor \frac{k}{2} \right\rfloor$$

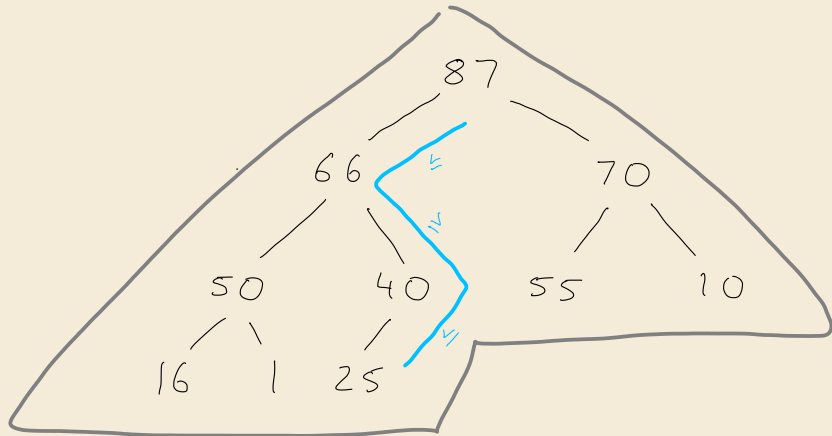
Tree view

Heap = tree that is
(i) a complete binary tree
(ii) heap ordered

all but last level full
last level flush left

parent $\geq$ children

Binary heap example



Why heap-shaped trees?

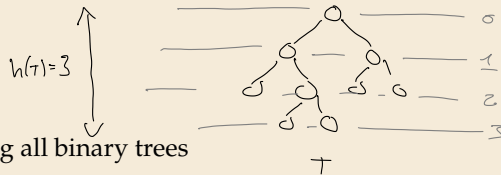
Why complete binary tree shape?

- ▶ only one possible tree shape $\rightsquigarrow$ keep it simple!
- ▶ complete binary trees have minimal height among all binary trees
- ▶ simple formulas for moving from a node to parent or children:

For a node at index k in A

⚠ Recall: nodes at indices $[1..n]$

- ▶ parent at $\lfloor k/2 \rfloor$ (for $k \geq 2$)
- ▶ left child at $2k$
- ▶ right child at $2k + 1$



Why heap-shaped trees?

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Why heap ordered?

- ▶ Maximum must be at root! $\rightsquigarrow$ $\max()$ is trivial!
- ▶ But: Sorted only along paths of the tree; leaves lots of leeway for fast inserts

how? ... stay tuned

Clicker Question



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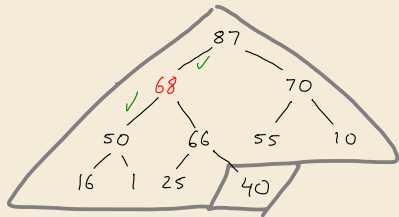
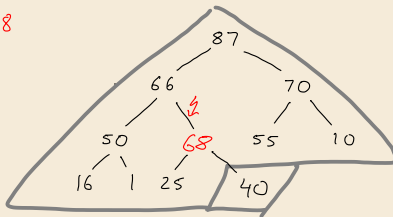
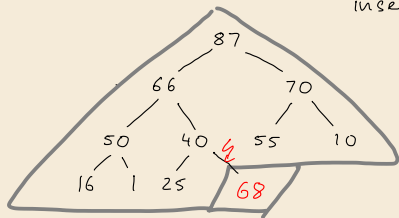
→ sli.do/cs566

3.4 Operations on Binary Heaps

Insert

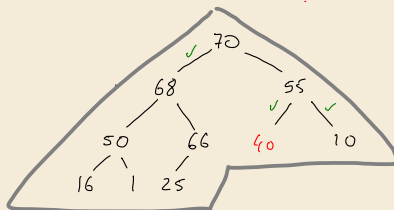
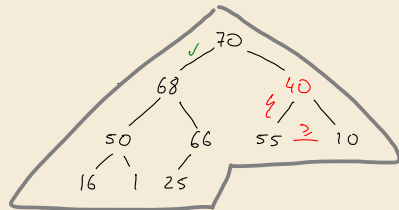
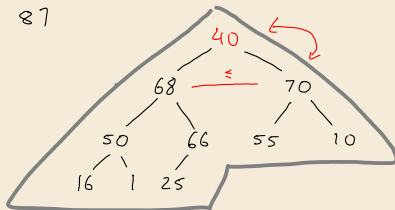
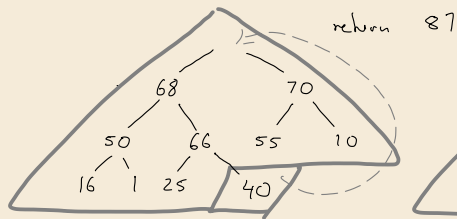
1. Add new element at only possible place: bottom-most level, next free spot.
2. Let element *swim* up to repair heap order.

insert 68



Delete Max

1. Remove max (must be in root).
2. Move last element (bottom-most, rightmost) into root.
3. Let root key *sink* in heap to repair heap order.



Running time:

both dominated
by one root-to-leaf
path

$\sim$ cost proportional
to height of tree

height $h \Rightarrow \#nodes$

$$\geq \sum_{l=0}^{h-1} 2^l + 1$$

$$= 2^h$$

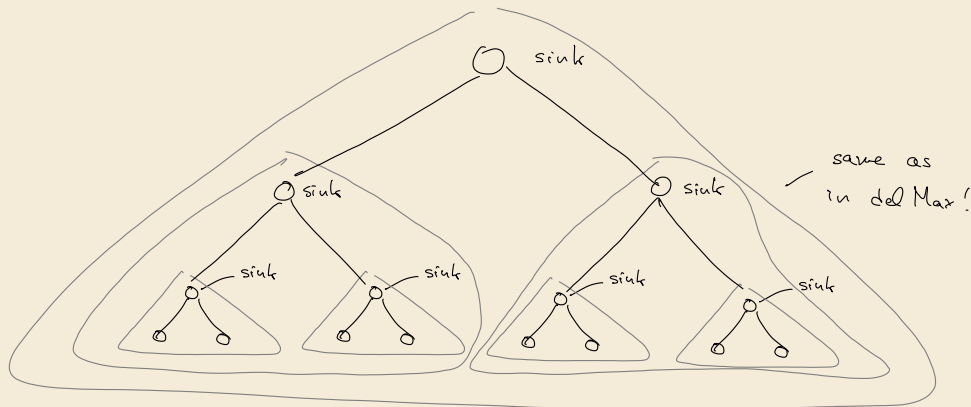
$$\Rightarrow h \leq \log_2(n)$$

Heap construction

► n times insert $\rightsquigarrow \Theta(n \log n)$ 🚫

► instead:

1. Start with singleton heaps (one element)
2. Repeatedly merge two heaps of height k with new element into heap of height $k + 1$



Analysis

Height of binary heaps:

- ▶ *height* of a tree: # edges on longest root-to-leaf path
- ▶ *depth/level* of a node: # edges from root $\rightsquigarrow$ root has depth 0

- ▶ How many nodes on first k *full* levels? $\sum_{\ell=0}^k 2^{\ell} = 2^{k+1} - 1$

$\rightsquigarrow$ Height of binary heap: $h = \min k \text{ s.t. } 2^{k+1} - 1 \geq n = \lfloor \lg(n) \rfloor$

Analysis

Height of binary heaps:

- ▶ *height* of a tree: # edges on longest root-to-leaf path
- ▶ *depth/level* of a node: # edges from root $\rightsquigarrow$ root has depth 0

- ▶ How many nodes on first k full levels? $\sum_{\ell=0}^k 2^{\ell} = 2^{k+1} - 1$

$\rightsquigarrow$ Height of binary heap: $h = \min k \text{ s.t. } 2^{k+1} - 1 \geq n = \lfloor \lg(n) \rfloor$

Analysis:

- ▶ insert: new element “swims” up $\rightsquigarrow \leq h$ steps (h cmps)
- ▶ delMax: last element “sinks” down $\rightsquigarrow \leq h$ steps ($2h$ cmps)
- ▶ construct from n elements:

cost = cost of letting *each node* in heap sink!

$$\begin{aligned} &\leq 1 \cdot h + 2 \cdot (h-1) + 4 \cdot (h-2) + \cdots + 2^{\ell} \cdot (h-\ell) + \cdots + 2^{h-1} \cdot 1 + 2^h \cdot 0 \\ &= \sum_{\ell=0}^h 2^{\ell} (h-\ell) = \sum_{i=0}^h \frac{2^h}{2^i} i = 2^h \underbrace{\sum_{i=0}^h \frac{i}{2^i}}_{\leq 2} \leq 2 \cdot 2^h \leq 4n \end{aligned}$$

Binary heap summary

Operation	Running Time
<code>construct($A[1..n]$)</code>	$O(n)$
<code>max()</code>	$O(1)$
<code>insert(x, p)</code>	$O(\log n)$
<code>delMax()</code>	$O(\log n)$
<code>changeKey(x, p')</code>	$O(\log n)$
<code>isEmpty()</code>	$O(1)$
<code>size()</code>	$O(1)$

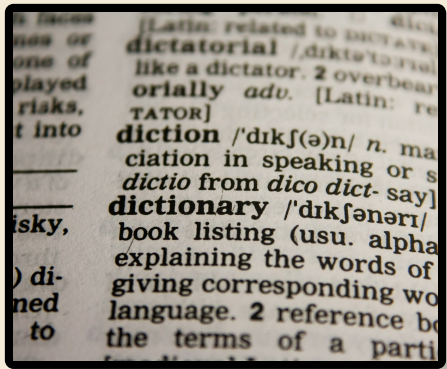
3.5 Symbol Tables

Symbol table ADT

Java: `java.util.Map<K,V>`

Symbol table / Dictionary / Map / Associative array / key-value store:

Python dict `{k:v}`



- ▶ `put(k, v)` Python dict: `d[k] = v`
Put key-value pair (k, v) into table
- ▶ `get(k)` Python dict: `d[k]`
Return value associated with key k
- ▶ `delete(k)` Python dict: `del d[k]`
Remove key k (any associated value) from table
- ▶ `contains(k)` Python dict: `k in d`
Returns whether the table has a value for key k
- ▶ `isEmpty(), size()`
- ▶ `create()`



Most fundamental building block in computer science.

(Every programming library has a symbol table implementation.)

Symbol tables vs. mathematical functions

- ▶ similar interface
- ▶ but: mathematical functions are *static/immutable* (never change their mapping)
(Different mapping is a *different* function)
- ▶ symbol table = *dynamic* mapping
Function may change over time

Elementary implementations

Unordered (linked) list:



Fast put



$\Theta(n)$ time for get



Too slow to be useful

Elementary implementations

Unordered (linked) list:

 Fast put

 $\Theta(n)$ time for get

↪ Too slow to be useful

Sorted linked list:

 $\Theta(n)$ time for put

 $\Theta(n)$ time for get

↪ Too slow to be useful

↪ *Sorted order does not help us at all?!*

Binary search

*It does help ... if we have a sorted **array**!*

Example: search for 69

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
12	12	17	28	35	55	57	63	69	77	79	80	82	85	88	97
ℓ							m			r					

Binary search

*It does help ... if we have a sorted **array**!*

Example: search for 69

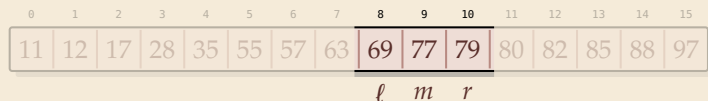
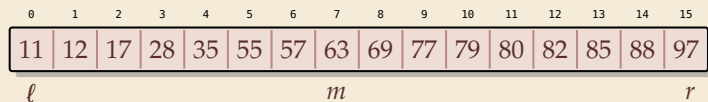
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
11	12	17	28	35	55	57	63	69	77	79	80	82	85	88	97
ℓ								m			r				

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
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Binary search

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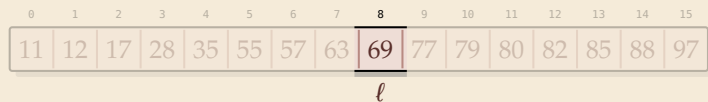
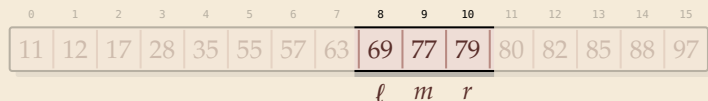
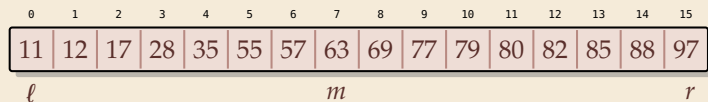
Example: search for 69



Binary search

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Example: search for 69



Binary search

*It does help ... if we have a sorted **array**!*

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0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
11	12	17	28	35	55	57	63	69	77	79	80	82	85	88	97
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11	12	17	28	35	55	57	63	69	77	79	80	82	85	88	97	
								ℓ				m				r

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
11	12	17	28	35	55	57	63	69	77	79	80	82	85	88	97
								ℓ	m	r					

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
11	12	17	28	35	55	57	63	69	77	79	80	82	85	88	97
								ℓ							

Binary search:

- ▶ halve remaining list in each step
 $\log_2$
- $\leadsto \leq \lfloor \lg n \rfloor + 1$ cmps in the worst case



needs random access!

3.6 Binary Search Trees

Clicker Question



What is a binary search tree (tree in symmetric order)?

- A** A tree in which every node has exactly 2 children.
- B** A tree where all keys in the left subtree are smaller than the key at the root and all keys in the right subtree are bigger than the key at the root.
- C** A tree where all keys in the left subtree and right subtree are bigger than the key at the root.
- D** A tree that is stored in the heap-area of the memory.



→ *sli.do/cs566*

Clicker Question



What is a binary search tree (tree in symmetric order)?

- ☐ **A** ~~A tree in which every node has exactly 2 children.~~
- ☒ **B** A tree where all keys in the left subtree are smaller than the key at the root and all keys in the right subtree are bigger than the key at the root. ✓
- ☐ **C** ~~A tree where all keys in the left subtree and right subtree are bigger than the key at the root.~~
- ☐ **D** ~~A tree that is stored in the heap area of the memory.~~



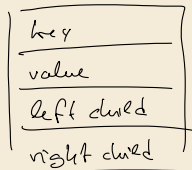
→ sli.do/cs566

Binary search trees

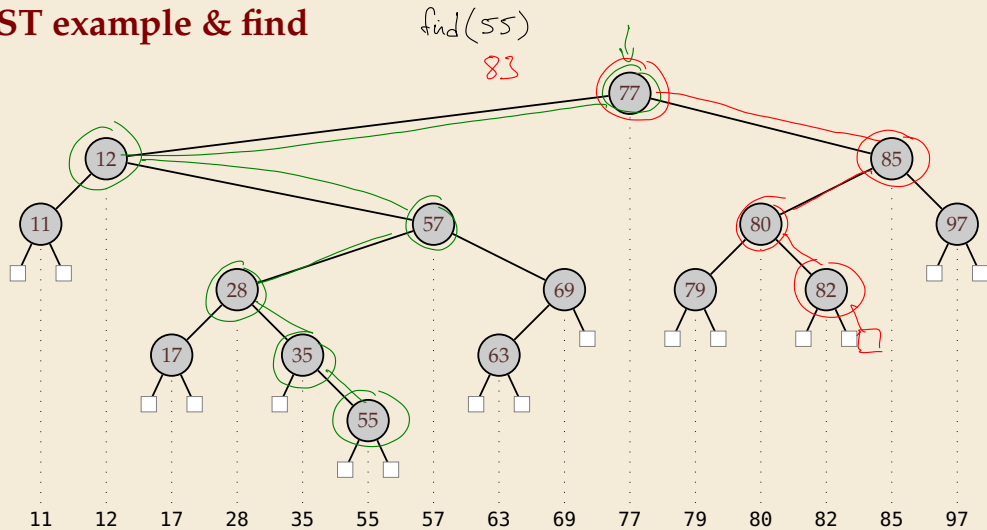
Binary search trees (BSTs) $\approx$ dynamic sorted array

- ▶ binary tree
 - ▶ Each node has left and right child
 - ▶ Either can be empty (null)
- ▶ Keys satisfy *search-tree property*

all keys in left subtree $\leq$ root key $\leq$ all keys in right subtree

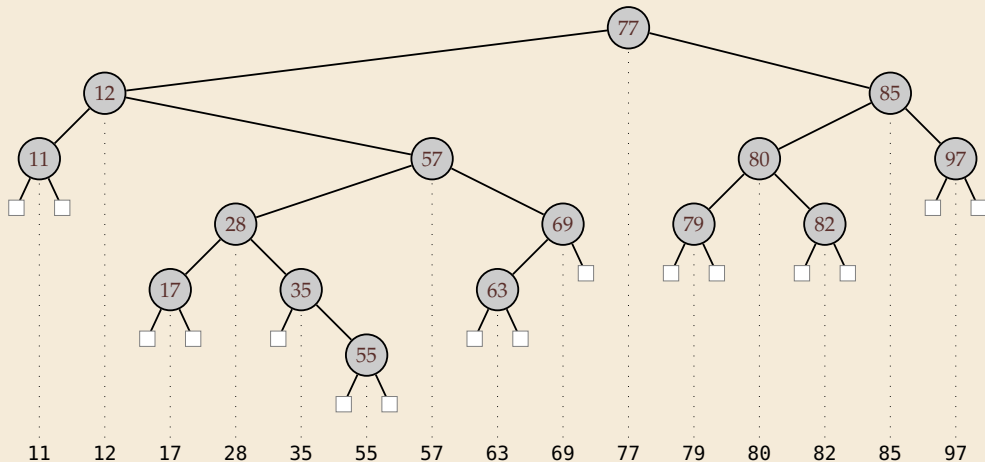


BST example & find



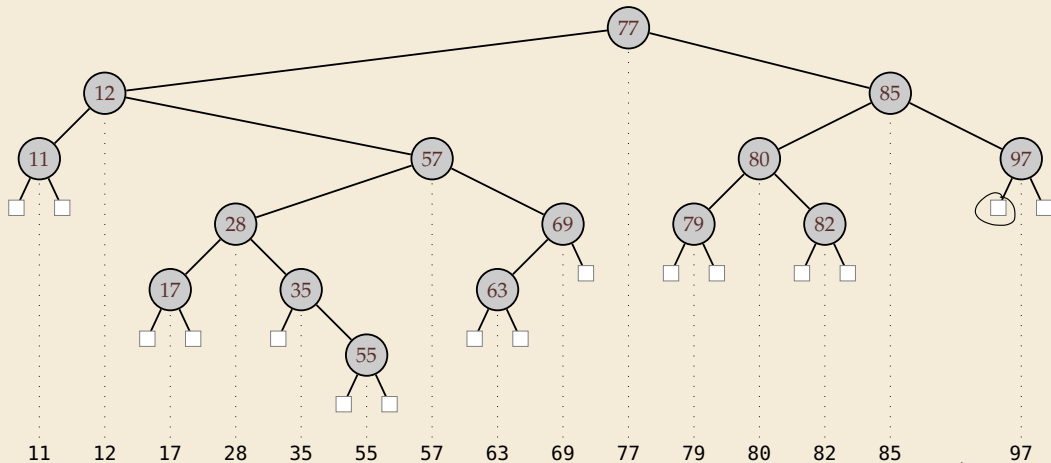
BST insert

Example: Insert 88



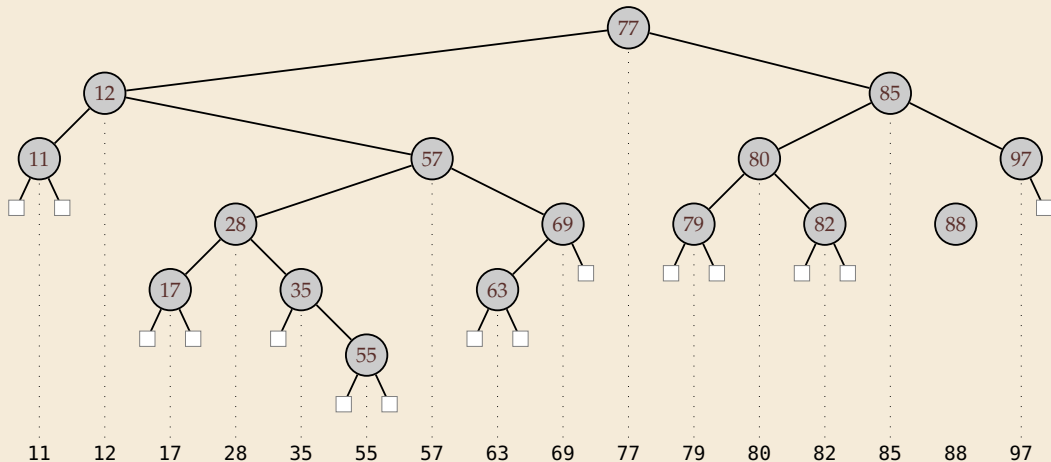
BST insert

Example: Insert 88



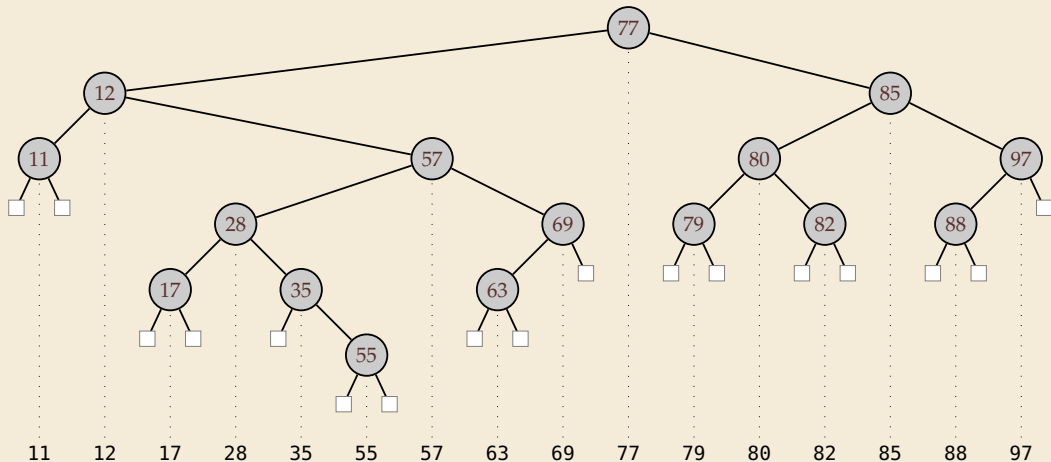
BST insert

Example: Insert 88



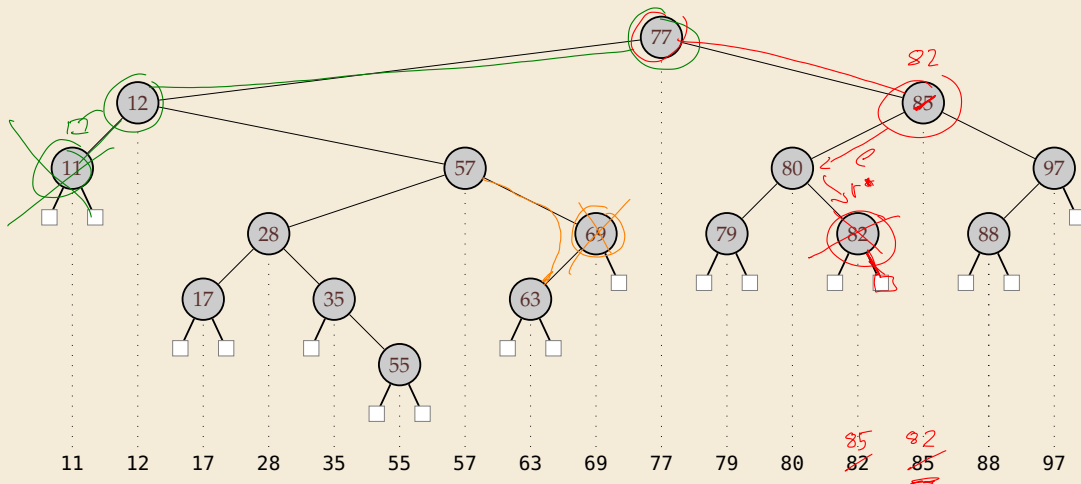
BST insert

Example: Insert 88



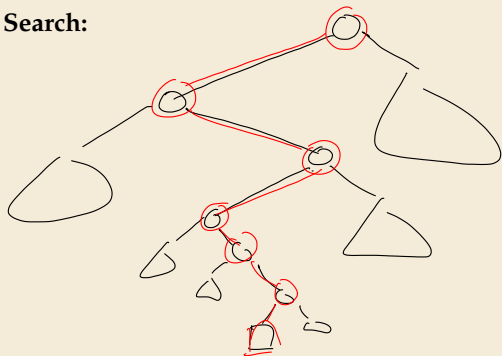
BST delete

- ▶ Easy case: remove leaf, e. g., 11 $\rightsquigarrow$ replace by null
- ▶ Medium case: remove unary, e. g., 69 $\rightsquigarrow$ replace by unique child
- ▶ Hard case: remove binary, e. g., 85 $\rightsquigarrow$ swap with predecessor, recurse



Analysis

► Search:



#comps = length of
search path
+ 1

$$\leq \underbrace{\text{height of BST}}_h + 1$$

► Insert: $O(h)$

► Delete: all cases $O(h)$

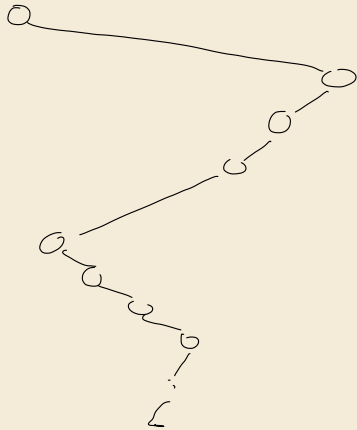
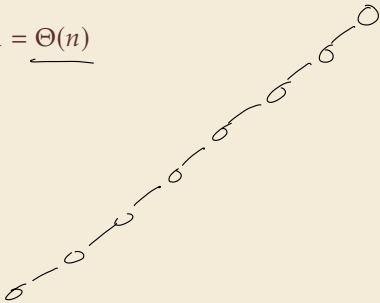
BST summary

Operation	Running Time
<code>construct($A[1..n]$)</code>	$O(nh)$
<code>put(k, v)</code>	$O(h)$
<code>get(k)</code>	$O(h)$
<code>delete(k)</code>	$O(h)$
<code>contains(k)</code>	$O(h)$
<code>isEmpty()</code>	$O(1)$
<code>size()</code>	$O(1)$

What is the height of a BST?

Worst Case:

► $h = n - 1 = \Theta(n)$



What is the height of a BST?

Worst Case:

► $h = n - 1 = \Theta(n)$

Precise analysis for

EXPECTED

$C_n = \text{TOTAL cost of finding ALL keys in BST}$

$[n]$ inserted in random order
//

$[1..n] = \{1, \dots, n\}$

$C_n = n + \overset{\text{comp w/ root}}{\frac{1}{n}} \sum_{r=1}^n (C_{r-1} + C_{n-r})$

$= n + \frac{2}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} C_k \quad (n \geq 1)$

$C_0 = 0$

Average Case:

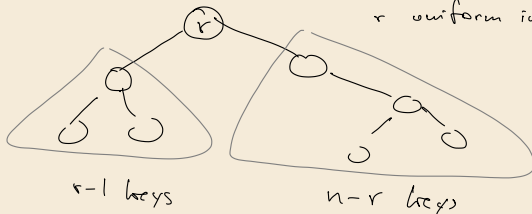
► Assumption: insertions come in random order
no deletions

► $h = \Theta(\log n)$ in expectation

even "with high probability":
 $\forall d \exists c : \Pr[h \geq c \lg(n)] \leq n^{-d}$ } $\nexists$ exam

root key = first inserted key

r uniform in $[n]$



① Getting rid of full history

$$n C_n = n^2 + 2 \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} C_k$$

$$= 2 C_{n-1}$$

$$n \cdot C_n - (n-1) C_{n-1} = n^2 - (n-1)^2 + 2 \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} C_k - 2 \sum_{k=0}^{n-2} C_k$$

$$\Leftrightarrow n C_n = 2n - 1 + (n+1) C_{n-1} \quad | : n(n+1)$$

$$\frac{C_n}{n+1} = \frac{2n-1}{n(n+1)} + \frac{C_{n-1}}{n} \quad (n \geq 1)$$

$$D_n := \frac{C_n}{n+1}$$

$$D_n = \frac{2n-1}{n(n+1)} + D_{n-1} \quad (n \geq 1)$$

$$D_0 = 0$$

partial fraction decomposition

② Telescoping recurrence

$$D_n = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{2k-1}{k(k+1)}$$

$k := -1$

$$\frac{2k-1}{k(k+1)}$$

$|$

$$= \frac{-1}{k}$$

$+ k, \text{ then } k := 0$

$$+ \frac{3}{k+1}$$

$$= - \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k} + 3 \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k+1}$$

$$= H_n$$

$$H_{n+1} - 1$$

$$= 3H_{n+1} - 3 - H_n$$

$$= 2H_n - 3 + \frac{3}{n+1}$$

$$H_n + \frac{1}{n+1}$$

$$H_n = \ln n + \gamma + O\left(\frac{1}{n}\right).$$

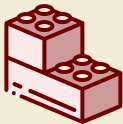
$$C_n = (n+1) D_n = 2(n+1) H_n - 3(n+1) + 3$$

$$\sim 2n \cdot \ln(n) \approx 1.39 n \lg n$$

3.7 Ordered Symbol Tables

Ordered symbol tables

- ▶ `min()`, `max()`
Return the smallest resp. largest key in the ST
- ▶ `floor( $x$ )`, $\lfloor x \rfloor = \mathbb{Z}.\text{floor}(x)$
Return largest key k in ST with $k \leq x$.
- ▶ `ceiling( $x$ )`
Return smallest key k in ST with $k \geq x$.
- ▶ `rank( $x$ )`
Return the number of keys k in ST $k < x$.
- ▶ `select( $i$ )`
Return the i th smallest key in ST (zero-based, i. e., $i \in [0..n)$)



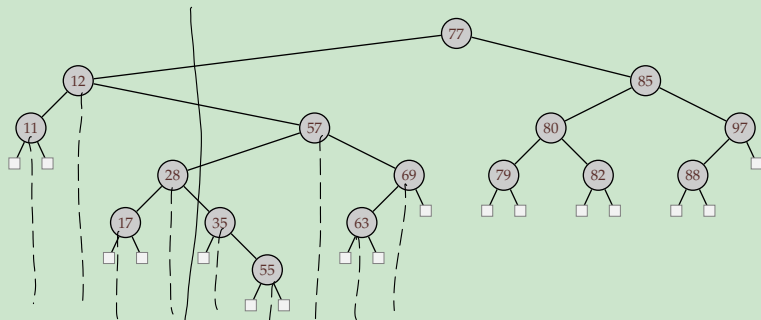
With select, we can simulate access as in a truly dynamic array! ⚡

(Might not need any keys at all then!)

Clicker Question

In the BST below, what would `rank(35)` return?

4



11 | 12 | 17 | 28 | 35 |
0 1 2 3 4

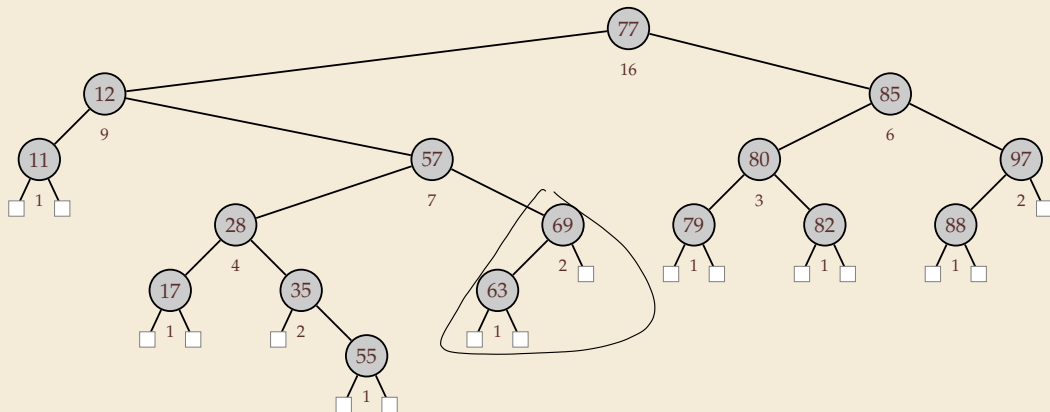


→ sli.do/cs566

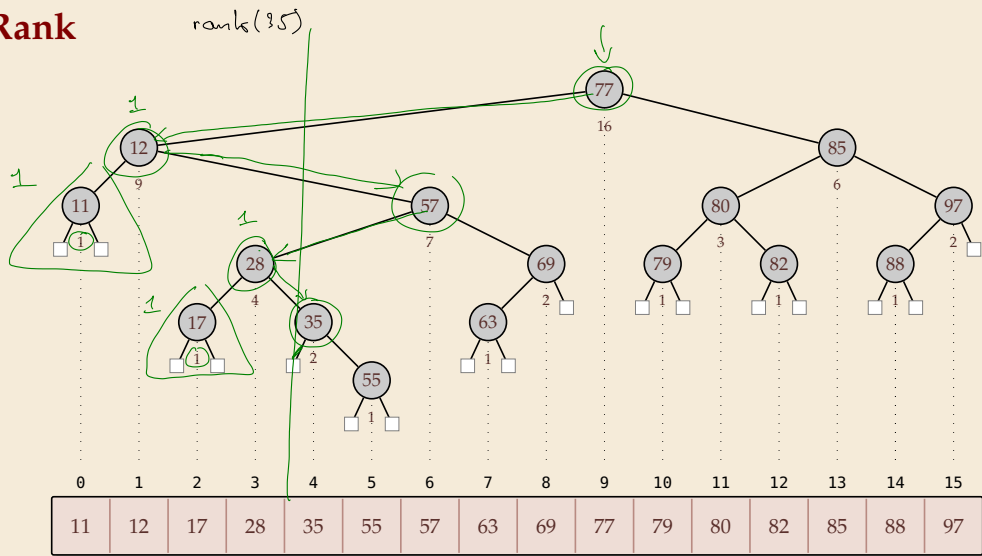
Augmented BSTs

$\hat{k}$

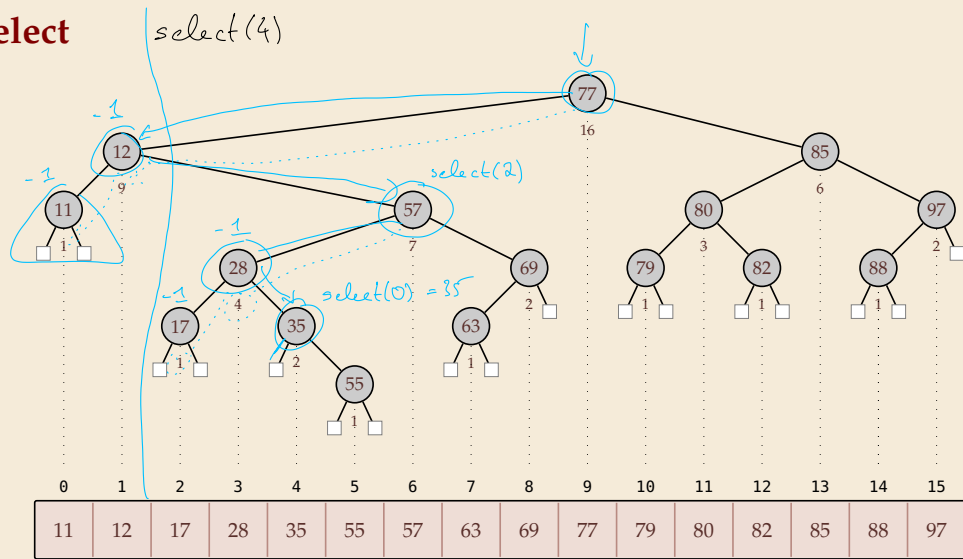
s = subtree size



Rank



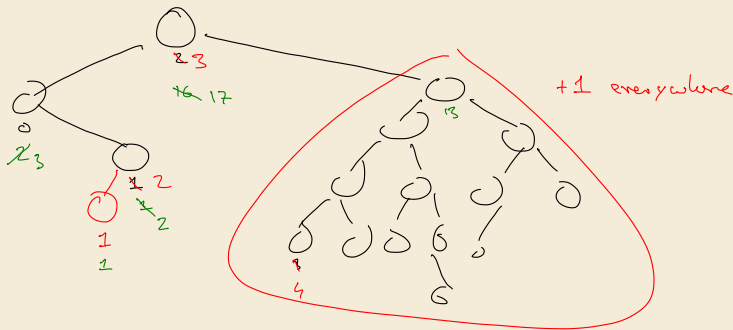
Select



Why store subtree sizes?

- Note that in an augmented BST, each node stores the **size of its subtree**.
- ... why not directly store the rank? Would make rank/select much simpler!

subtree sizes



Why store subtree sizes?

- ▶ Note that in an augmented BST, each node stores the **size of its subtree**.
- ▶ ... why not directly store the **rank**? Would make rank/select much simpler!
- ▶ Problem: Single insertion/deletion can change *all* node ranks!

↪ Cannot efficiently maintain node ranks.



Subtree sizes only change along search path ↪ $O(h)$ nodes affected

3.8 **Balanced BSTs**

Clicker Question



What ways of maintaining a **balanced** binary search tree do you know?

Write “none” if you have not seen balanced BSTs before.



→ *sli.do/cs566*

Balanced BSTs

Balanced binary search trees:

- ▶ imposes shape invariant that guarantees $O(\log n)$ height
- ▶ adds rules to restore invariant after updates

Balanced BSTs

Balanced binary search trees:

- ▶ imposes shape invariant that guarantees $O(\log n)$ height
- ▶ adds rules to restore invariant after updates
- ▶ many examples known
 - ▶ *AVL trees* (height-balanced trees)
 - ▶ *red-black trees*
 - ▶ *weight-balanced trees* (BB[α] trees)
 - ▶ ...

Balanced BSTs

Balanced binary search trees:

- ▶ imposes shape invariant that guarantees $O(\log n)$ height
- ▶ adds rules to restore invariant after updates
- ▶ many examples known
 - ▶ *AVL trees* (height-balanced trees)
 - ▶ *red-black trees*
 - ▶ *weight-balanced trees* (BB[α] trees)
 - ▶ ...

Other options:

- ▶ **amortization:** *splay trees, scapegoat trees*
COLA (cache oblivious lookahead array)
- ▶ **randomization:** *randomized BSTs, treaps, skip lists*

I'd love to talk more about all of these ...
(Maybe another time)



BSTs vs. Heaps

Balanced binary search tree

Operation	Running Time
$\text{construct}(A[1..n])$	$O(n \log n)$
$\text{put}(k, v)$	$O(\log n)$
$\text{get}(k)$	$O(\log n)$
$\text{delete}(k)$	$O(\log n)$
$\text{contains}(k)$	$O(\log n)$
$\text{isEmpty}()$	$O(1)$
$\text{size}()$	$O(1)$
$\text{min}() / \text{max}()$	$O(\log n) \rightsquigarrow O(1)$
$\text{floor}(x)$	$O(\log n)$
$\text{ceiling}(x)$	$O(\log n)$
$\text{rank}(x)$	$O(\log n)$
$\text{select}(i)$	$O(\log n)$

Binary heaps

Operation	Running Time
$\text{construct}(A[1..n])$	$O(n)$
$\text{insert}(x, p)$	$O(\log n)$
$\text{delMax}()$	$O(\log n)$
$\text{changeKey}(x, p')$	$O(\log n)$
$\text{max}()$	$O(1)$
$\text{isEmpty}()$	$O(1)$
$\text{size}()$	$O(1)$

BSTs vs. Heaps

Balanced binary search tree

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Binary heaps

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$\text{size}()$	$O(1)$

- ▶ apart from faster construct, BSTs always as good as binary heaps

BSTs vs. Heaps

Balanced binary search tree

Operation	Running Time
$\text{construct}(A[1..n])$	$O(n \log n)$
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Binary heaps

Operation	Running Time
$\text{construct}(A[1..n])$	$O(n)$
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$\text{changeKey}(x, p')$	$O(\log n)$
$\text{max}()$	$O(1)$
$\text{isEmpty}()$	$O(1)$
$\text{size}()$	$O(1)$

- ▶ apart from faster construct, BSTs always as good as binary heaps
- ▶ MaxPQ abstraction still helpful

BSTs vs. Heaps

Balanced binary search tree

Operation	Running Time
<code>construct($A[1..n]$)</code>	$O(n \log n)$
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<code>select(i)</code>	$O(\log n)$

~~Binary heaps~~ *Strict Fibonacci heaps*

Operation	Running Time
<code>construct($A[1..n]$)</code>	$O(n)$
<code>insert(x, p)</code>	$O(\log n)$ $O(1)$
<code>delMax()</code>	$O(\log n)$
<code>changeKey(x, p')</code>	$O(\log n)$ $O(1)$
<code>max()</code>	$O(1)$
<code>isEmpty()</code>	$O(1)$
<code>size()</code>	$O(1)$

- ▶ apart from faster construct, BSTs always as good as binary heaps
- ▶ MaxPQ abstraction still helpful
- ▶ and faster heaps exist!

3.9 Hashing

Lower bound for search

The fastest implementations of the ordered symbol table ADT require $\Theta(\log n)$ time to search among n items. Is this the best possible?

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*What if we don't need the **ordered** symbol table operations?*

↪ Focus on symbol table operations: get, put, contains, delete

Symbol Table without Sorting

- ▶ key idea in hashing: everything is ultimately an integer, or can be turned into one!

↪ hash function $h : U \rightarrow [0..m)$

- ▶ maps elements from universe U to integers
- ▶ $h(x)$ used as index in a hash table $T[0..m)$

↪ if h is quick to compute and **all stored elements hash to different indices**
get, put, contains, delete become simple array operations!

↪ symbol table with $O(1)$ time per operation

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(can make it so ("perfect hashing"), but usually too expensive)

- ⚡ Generally hash function h is not injective, so many keys can map to the same integer.
 - ▶ We get *collisions*: we want to insert (k, v) into the table, but $T[h(k)]$ is already occupied.
 - ▶ *Birthday Paradox*: quite likely! Some collision with prob. $\geq \frac{1}{e}$ when $n \geq 2\sqrt{m}$
- ↪ need to deal with them

Handling Collision

- ▶ Two basic strategies to deal with collisions:

- ▶ *Buckets/Chaining*: Allow multiple items at each table location
each table location points to linked list

$$T[h(x)]$$

- ▶ *Open addressing*: Allow each item to go into multiple locations
need strategy to define and search these locations

- ▶ linear probing
 - ▶ quadratic probing
 - ▶ Robin Hood hashing
 - ▶ Cuckoo hashing

(for full details of these strategies, see *Algorithms and Data Structures*)

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- ▶ We evaluate strategies by the average cost of get, put, delete
in terms of n , m , and/or the *load factor* $\alpha = n/m$.

↪ Might have to rebuild the whole hash table and change the value of m
when the load factor gets too large or too small.

- ▶ This is called *rehashing*, and costs $\Theta(m + n)$.
- ▶ alternative: *dynamic hashing* (not here; examples in *Algorithms and Data Structures*)

Comparison of Classic Hashing Schemes

Hash table design	Search hit	Search miss	Insert	Space	good $\alpha = \frac{n}{m}$
Separate Chaining	$\sim \frac{1}{2}\alpha$	$\sim \alpha$	= miss	$n + m$	≈ 2
Linear Probing	$\sim \frac{1}{2}\left(1 + \frac{1}{1-\alpha}\right)$	$\sim \frac{1}{2}\left(1 + \frac{1}{(1-\alpha)^2}\right)$	= miss	m	≤ 0.5
Quadratic Probing	$\sim 1 + \ln\left(\frac{1}{1-\alpha}\right) - \frac{1}{2}\alpha$	$\sim \frac{1}{1-\alpha} - \alpha + \ln\left(\frac{1}{1-\alpha}\right)$	= miss	m	≤ 0.7
Robin Hood Hashing	$O(1)$	$O(1)$	= miss	m	≤ 1 (=any!)
d -way Cuckoo Hashing	$\leq d$ worst case	$\leq d$ worst case	amort.	m	$< c_d$

- Assumption: uniform hashing (all m^n hash sequences equally likely)
- Cost: expected # (equality) comparisons
- Space usage in words on top of space for items (without space for optional optimizations)

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More improvements possible with word-RAM bitwise tricks $\rightsquigarrow$ *Advanced Data Structures*

Hashing vs. Balanced Search Trees

Advantages of Balanced Search Trees

- ▶ $O(\log n)$ worst-case operation cost
- ▶ Does not require any assumptions, special functions, or known properties of input distribution
- ▶ Predictable (and often smaller) space usage (exactly n nodes)
- ▶ Never need to rebuild the entire structure
- ▶ supports ordered dictionary operations (rank, select etc.)

Advantages of Hash Tables

- ▶ $O(1)$ operations (if hashes well-spread and load factor small)
- ▶ We can choose space-time tradeoff via load factor
- ▶ Cuckoo hashing achieves $O(1)$ worst-case for search & delete