Algorithms 2016: Data Structures

A Supplement (Based on [Manber 1989])

Yih-Kuen Tsay

1 Heaps

Heaps

- A (max) heap is a binary tree whose keys satisfy the heap property:

 the key of every node is greater than or equal to the key of any of its children.
- It supports the two basic operations of a priority queue:
 - Insert(x): insert the key x into the heap.
 - Remove(): remove and return the largest key from the heap.

Heaps (cont.)

- \bullet A binary tree can be represented implicitly by an array A as follows:
 - 1. The root is stored in A[1].
 - 2. The left child of A[i] is stored in A[2i] and the right child is stored in A[2i+1].

Heaps (cont.)

end

```
Algorithm Remove_Max_from_Heap (A, n); begin

if n = 0 then print "the heap is empty"

else Top\_of\_the\_Heap := A[1];

A[1] := A[n]; n := n - 1;

parent := 1; child := 2;

while child \le n - 1 do

if A[child] < A[child + 1] then

child := child + 1;

if A[child] > A[parent] then

swap(A[parent], A[child]);

parent := child;

child := 2 * child

else child := n
```

Heaps (cont.)

```
Algorithm Insert_to_Heap (A, n, x); begin n := n + 1; A[n] := x; child := n; parent := n \ div \ 2; while parent \ge 1 \ do if A[parent] < A[child] \ then swap(A[parent], A[child]); child := parent; parent := parent \ div \ 2 else parent := 0 end
```

2 AVL Trees

AVL Trees

Definition 1. An AVL tree is a binary search tree such that, for every node, the difference between the heights of its left and right subtrees is at most 1 (the height of an empty tree is defined as 0).

This definition guarantees a maximal height of $O(\log n)$ for any AVL tree of n nodes.

AVL Trees (cont.)

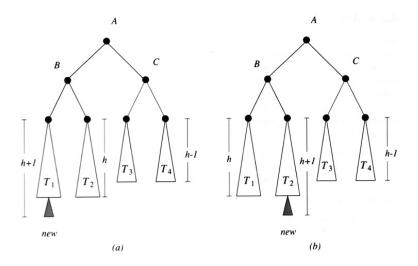


Figure 4.13 Insertions that invalidate the AVL property.

Source: [Manber 1989].

AVL Trees (cont.)

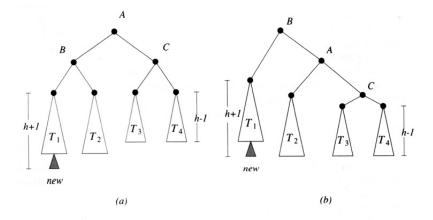


Figure 4.14 A single rotation: (a) Before. (b) After.

Source: [Manber 1989].

AVL Trees (cont.)

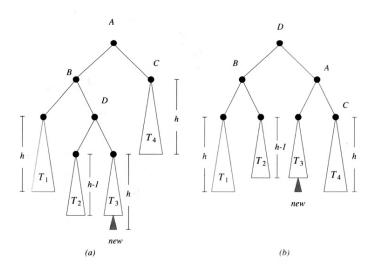


Figure 4.15 A double rotation: (a) Before. (b) After.

Source: [Manber 1989].

3 Union-Find

${\bf Union\text{-}Find}$

- There are n elements x_1, x_2, \cdots, x_n divided into groups. Initially, each element is in a group by itself.
- \bullet Two operations on the elements and groups:
 - find(A): returns the name of A's group.

- -union(A, B): combines A's and B's groups to form a new group with a unique name.
- To tell if two elements are in the same group, one may issue a find operation for each element and see if the returned names are the same.

Union-Find (cont.)

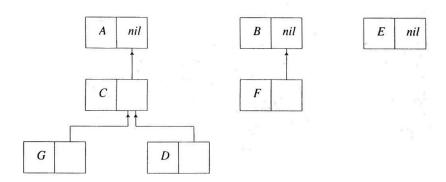


Figure 4.16 The representation for the union-find problem.

Source: [Manber 1989].

Balancing

- The root also stores the number of elements in (i.e., the size of) its group.
- To *balance* the tree resulted from a union operation, *let the smaller group join the larger group* and update the size of the larger group accordingly.

Theorem 2 (Theorem 4.2). If balancing is used, then any tree of height h must contain at least 2^h elements.

• Any sequence of m find or union operations (where $m \ge n$) takes $O(m \log n)$ steps.

Union-Find (cont.)

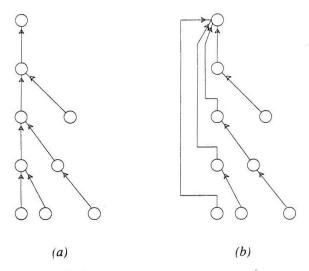


Figure 4.17 Path compression: (a) Before. (b) After.

Source: [Manber 1989].

Effect of Path Compression

Theorem 3 (Theorem 4.3). If both balancing and path compression are used, any sequence of m find or union operations (where $m \ge n$) takes $O(m \log^* n)$ steps.

The value of $\log^* n$ intuitively equals the number of times that one has to apply \log to n to bring its value down to 1.

Code for Union-Find

```
Algorithm Union_Find_Init(A,n);
begin
  for i := 1 to n do
      A[i].parent := nil;
      A[i].size := 1
end
Algorithm Find(a);
begin
  if A[a].parent <> nil then
     A[a].parent := Find(A[a].parent);
     Find := A[a].parent;
  else
     Find := a
end
Code for Union-Find (cont.)
Algorithm Union(a,b);
begin
  x := Find(a);
```

```
y := Find(b);
if x <> y then
    if A[x].size > A[y].size then
        A[y].parent := x;
        A[x].size := A[x].size + A[y].size;
else
        A[x].parent := y;
        A[y].size := A[y].size + A[x].size
end
```