### **Asymptotic Analysis of Algorithms**



EECS2011 N & Z: Fundamentals of Data Structures Winter 2022

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### What You're Assumed to Know



 You will be required to *implement* Java classes and methods, and to test their correctness using JUnit.

Review them if necessary:

```
https://www.eecs.yorku.ca/~jackie/teaching/
lectures/index.html#EECS2030 F21
```

- □ Implementing classes and methods in Java [ Weeks 1 2 ]
- Testing methods in Java [ Week 4 ]
- Also, make sure you know how to trace programs using a debugger:

```
https://www.eecs.yorku.ca/~jackie/teaching/
tutorials/index.html#java from scratch w21
```

Debugging actions (Step Over/Into/Return) [ Parts C – E, Week 2 ]







This module is designed to help you learn about:

- Notions of Algorithms and Data Structures
- Measurement of the "goodness" of an algorithm
- Measurement of the efficiency of an algorithm
- Experimental measurement vs. Theoretical measurement
- Understand the purpose of *asymptotic* analysis.
- Understand what it means to say two algorithms are:
  - equally efficient, asymptotically
  - one is more efficient than the other, asymptotically
- Given an algorithm, determine its asymptotic upper bound.

### **Algorithm and Data Structure**



- A data structure is:
  - A systematic way to store and organize data in order to facilitate access and modifications
  - Never suitable for all purposes: it is important to know its <u>strengths</u> and <u>limitations</u>
- A well-specified computational problem precisely describes the desired input/output relationship.
  - **Input:** A sequence of *n* numbers  $(a_1, a_2, ..., a_n)$
  - Output: A permutation (reordering)  $\langle a'_1, a'_2, \ldots, a'_n \rangle$  of the input sequence such that  $a'_1 \le a'_2 \le \ldots \le a'_n$
  - An instance of the problem: (3, 1, 2, 5, 4)
- An *algorithm* is:
  - A solution to a well-specified computational problem
  - A sequence of computational steps that takes value(s) as input and produces value(s) as output
- Steps in an *algorithm* manipulate well-chosen *data structure(s)*.



### Measuring "Goodness" of an Algorithm

#### 1. Correctness:

- Does the algorithm produce the expected output?
- Use JUnit to ensure this.

#### 2. Efficiency:

- Time Complexity: processor time required to complete
- Space Complexity: memory space required to store data

Correctness is always the priority.

How about efficiency? Is time or space more of a concern?



### Measuring Efficiency of an Algorithm

- *Time* is more of a concern than is *storage*.
- Solutions that are meant to be run on a computer should run as fast as possible.
- Particularly, we are interested in how running time depends on two input factors:
  - 1. size
    - e.g., sorting an array of 10 elements vs. 1m elements
  - 2. structure
    - e.g., sorting an already-sorted array vs. a hardly-sorted array
- How do you determine the running time of an algorithm?
  - 1. Measure time via experiments
  - 2. Characterize time as a mathematical function of the input size

## LASSONDE

### **Measure Running Time via Experiments**

- Once the algorithm is implemented in Java:
  - Execute the program on *test inputs* of various *sizes* and *structures*.
  - For each test, record the elapsed time of the execution.

```
long startTime = System.currentTimeMillis();
/* run the algorithm */
long endTime = System.currenctTimeMillis();
long elapsed = endTime - startTime;
```

- Visualize the result of each test.
- To make *sound statistical claims* about the algorithm's *running time*, the set of input tests must be "reasonably" *complete*.



### **Example Experiment**



- Computational Problem:
  - **Input**: A character *c* and an integer *n*
  - Output: A string consisting of n repetitions of character c
     e.g., Given input '\*' and 15, output \*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*
- Algorithm 1 using String Concatenations:

```
public static String repeat1(char c, int n) {
   String answer = "";
   for (int i = 0; i < n; i ++) {       answer += c; }
   return answer; }</pre>
```

• Algorithm 2 using StringBuilder append's:

```
public static String repeat2(char c, int n) {
   StringBuilder sb = new StringBuilder();
   for (int i = 0; i < n; i ++) {       sb.append(c);    }
   return sb.toString(); }</pre>
```



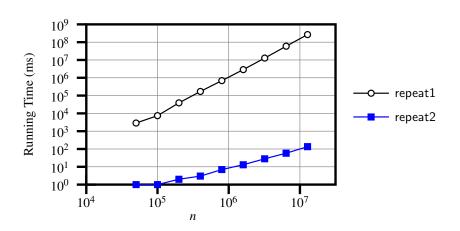
### **Example Experiment: Detailed Statistics**

п	repeat1 (in ms)	repeat2 (in ms)
50,000	2,884	1
100,000	7,437	1
200,000	39,158	2
400,000	170,173	3
800,000	690,836	7
1,600,000	2,847,968	13
3,200,000	12,809,631	28
6,400,000	59,594,275	58
12,800,000	265,696,421 (≈ 3 days)	135

- As input size is doubled, rates of increase for both algorithms are linear:
  - Running time of repeat1 increases by ≈ 5 times.
  - Running time of repeat2 increases by ≈ 2 times.

### **Example Experiment: Visualization**





### **Experimental Analysis: Challenges**



- An algorithm must be fully implemented (i.e., translated into valid Java syntax) in order study its runtime behaviour experimentally.
  - What if our purpose is to choose among alternative data structures or algorithms to implement?
  - Can there be a <u>higher-level analysis</u> to determine that one algorithm or data structure is more <u>superior</u> than others?
- **2.** Comparison of multiple algorithms is only *meaningful* when experiments are conducted under the same environment of:
  - Hardware: CPU, running processes
  - o Software: OS, JVM version
- **3.** Experiments can be done only on *a limited set of test inputs*.
  - What if "important" inputs were not included in the experiments?

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### **Moving Beyond Experimental Analysis**

- A better approach to analyzing the **efficiency** (e.g., *running times*) of algorithms should be one that:
  - Allows us to calculate the relative efficiency (rather than absolute elapsed time) of algorithms in a ways that is independent of the hardware and software environment.
  - Can be applied using a high-level description of the algorithm (without fully implementing it).
  - Considers all possible inputs (esp. the worst-case scenario).
- We will learn a better approach that contains 3 ingredients:
  - 1. Counting primitive operations
  - 2. Approximating running time as *a function of input size*
  - **3.** Focusing on the *worst-case* input (requiring the most running time)





## A *primitive operation* corresponds to a low-level instruction with a *constant execution time*.

Assignment

[e.g., x = 5;]

Indexing into an array

- [e.g., a[i]]
- Arithmetic, relational, logical op. [e.g., a + b, z > w, b1 && b2]
- Accessing an attribute of an object [e.g., acc.balance]
  - [e.g., return result;]

- Returning from a method
  - Q: Why is a method call in general not a primitive operation?
  - A: It may be a call to:
  - a "cheap" method (e.g., printing Hello World), or
  - an "expensive" method (e.g., sorting an array of integers)



### Example: Counting Primitive Operations (1) LASSONDE

```
int findMax (int[] a, int n) {
 currentMax = a[0];
 for (int i = 1; i < n; ) {
   if (a[i] > currentMax) {
    currentMax = a[i]; }
   i ++ }
 return currentMax: }
```

```
# of times i < n in Line 3 is executed?
                                                               [ n ]
  # of times the loop body (Line 4 to Line 6) is executed? [n-1]
• I ine 2.
                                      [1 indexing + 1 assignment]
           2
• Line 3: n+1
                                  [1 assignment + n comparisons]
• Line 4: (n-1) \cdot 2
                                      [1 indexing + 1 comparison]
• Line 5: (n-1) \cdot 2
                                      [1 indexing + 1 assignment]
• Line 6: (n-1) \cdot 2
                                       [1 addition + 1 assignment]

    Line 7:

                                                         [1 return]

    Total # of Primitive Operations:

                                     7n - 2
```

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### **Example: Counting Primitive Operations (2)**

### Count the number of primitive operations for

```
boolean foundEmptyString = false;
int i = 0;
while (!foundEmptyString && i < names.length) {
   if (names[i].length() == 0) {
     /* set flag for early exit */
     foundEmptyString = true;
   }
   i = i + 1;
}</pre>
```

# times the stay condition of the while loop is checked?

```
[between 1 and names.length + 1]
```

```
[ worst case: names.length + 1 times]
```

# times the body code of while loop is executed?

```
[between 0 and names.length]
```

[ worst case: names.length times]

# LASSONDE

### From Absolute RT to Relative RT

- Each primitive operation (PO) takes approximately the <u>same</u>, <u>constant</u> amount of time to execute. [ say t ]
   The absolute value of t depends on the <u>execution environment</u>.
- The number of primitive operations required by an algorithm should be proportional to its actual running time on a specific environment.

e.g., findMax (int[] a, int n) has 
$$7n-2$$
 POs  
 $RT = (7n-2) \cdot t$ 

Say two algorithms with RT  $(7n - 2) \cdot t$  and RT  $(10n + 3) \cdot t$ .

⇒ It suffices to compare their *relative* running time:

$$7n - 2$$
 vs.  $10n + 3$ .

• To determine the *time efficiency* of an algorithm, we only focus on their *number of POs*.

### Example: Approx. # of Primitive Operations LASSONDE



 Given # of primitive operations counted precisely as 7n – 2, we view it as

$$7 \cdot n^1 - 2 \cdot n^0$$

- We say
  - *n* is the *highest power*
  - o 7 and 2 are the *multiplicative constants*
  - o 2 is the lower term
- When approximating a function (considering that input size may be very large):
  - Only the *highest power* matters.
  - multiplicative constants and lower terms can be dropped.
  - $\Rightarrow$  7*n* 2 is approximately *n*

**Exercise**: Consider  $7n + 2n \cdot log \ n + 3n^2$ :

- highest power?
  - multiplicative constants?
- lower terms?

 $[n^2]$ 

[7, 2, 3]

 $[7n + 2n \cdot log n]$ 



# Approximating Running Time as a Function of Input Size

Given the *high-level description* of an algorithm, we associate it with a function f, such that  $\frac{f(n)}{f(n)}$  returns the *number of primitive operations* that are performed on an *input of size n*.

0	<i>t</i> ( <i>n</i> )	= 5
0	f(n)	$= log_2 n$

$$\circ \ f(n) = 4 \cdot n$$

$$\circ f(n) = n^2$$

$$\circ f(n) = n^3$$

$$\circ$$
  $f(n) = 2^n$ 

[logarithmic]

[linear]

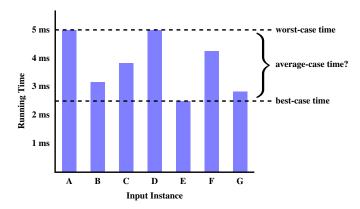
[quadratic]

[cubic]

[exponential]



### **Focusing on the Worst-Case Input**



- Average-case analysis calculates the expected running times based on the probability distribution of input values.
- worst-case analysis or best-case analysis?



### What is Asymptotic Analysis?

### Asymptotic analysis

- Is a method of describing behaviour in the limit:
  - How the running time of the algorithm under analysis changes as the input size changes without bound
  - e.g., contrast  $RT_1(n) = n$  with  $RT_2(n) = n^2$
- Allows us to compare the *relative* performance of alternative algorithms:
  - For large enough inputs, the multiplicative constants and lower-order terms of an exact running time can be disregarded.
  - e.g.,  $RT_1(n) = 3n^2 + 7n + 18$  and  $RT_1(n) = 100n^2 + 3n 100$  are considered **equally efficient**, asymptotically.
  - e.g.,  $RT_1(n) = n^3 + 7n + 18$  is considered **less efficient** than  $RT_1(n) = 100n^2 + 100n + 2000$ , asymptotically.



### **Three Notions of Asymptotic Bounds**

We may consider three kinds of *asymptotic bounds* for the *running time* of an algorithm:

•	Asymptotic	upper	bound	[0	)]

•	Asymptotic lower bound	$[\Omega]$
	3 1	

•	Asymptotic tight bound	[⊖]
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### **Asymptotic Upper Bound: Definition**

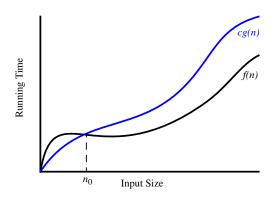
- Let f(n) and g(n) be functions mapping positive integers (input size) to positive real numbers (running time).
  - $\circ$  f(n) characterizes the running time of some algorithm.
  - $\circ$  O(g(n)):
    - denotes a collection of functions
    - consists of all functions that can be upper bounded by g(n), starting at some point, using some constant factor
- $f(n) \in O(g(n))$  if there are:
  - A real constant c > 0
  - ∘ An integer *constant*  $n_0 \ge 1$  such that:

$$f(n) \le c \cdot g(n)$$
 for  $n \ge n_0$ 

- For each member function f(n) in O(g(n)), we say that:
  - ∘  $f(n) \in O(g(n))$  [f(n) is a member of "big-O of g(n)"]
  - f(n) is O(g(n)) [f(n) is "big-O of g(n)"]
  - $\circ$  f(n) is order of g(n)



### **Asymptotic Upper Bound: Visualization**



From  $n_0$ , f(n) is upper bounded by  $c \cdot g(n)$ , so f(n) is O(g(n)).



### **Asymptotic Upper Bound: Example (1)**

**Prove**: The function 8n + 5 is O(n).

**Strategy**: Choose a real constant c > 0 and an integer constant  $n_0 \ge 1$ , such that for every integer  $n \ge n_0$ :

$$8n + 5 \le c \cdot n$$

Can we choose c = 9? What should the corresponding  $n_0$  be?

n	8n + 5	9n
1	13	9
2	21	18
3	29	27
4	37	36
5	45	45
6	53	54

. .

Therefore, we prove it by choosing c = 9 and  $n_0 = 5$ .

We may also prove it by choosing c = 13 and  $n_0 = 1$ . Why?





**Prove**: The function  $f(n) = 5n^4 + 3n^3 + 2n^2 + 4n + 1$  is  $O(n^4)$ .

**Strategy**: Choose a real constant c > 0 and an integer constant  $n_0 \ge 1$ , such that for every integer  $n \ge n_0$ :

$$5n^4 + 3n^3 + 2n^2 + 4n + 1 \le c \cdot n^4$$

$$f(1) = 5 + 3 + 2 + 4 + 1 = 15$$

Choose c = 15 and  $n_0 = 1!$ 

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### **Asymptotic Upper Bound: Proposition (1)**

If f(n) is a polynomial of degree d, i.e.,

$$f(n) = a_0 \cdot n^0 + a_1 \cdot n^1 + \dots + a_d \cdot n^d$$

and  $a_0, a_1, \dots, a_d$  are integers, then f(n) is  $O(n^d)$ .

We prove by choosing

$$c = |a_0| + |a_1| + \cdots + |a_d|$$
  
 $n_0 = 1$ 

• We know that for  $n \ge 1$ :

$$n^0 \le n^1 \le n^2 \le \cdots \le n^d$$

• Upper-bound effect:  $n_0 = 1$ ?  $[f(1) \le (|a_0| + |a_1| + \dots + |a_d|) \cdot 1^d]$ 

$$a_0 \cdot 1^0 + a_1 \cdot 1^1 + \dots + a_d \cdot 1^d \le |a_0| \cdot 1^d + |a_1| \cdot 1^d + \dots + |a_d| \cdot 1^d$$

Upper-bound effect holds?

$$[f(\mathbf{n}) \le (|a_0| + |a_1| + \dots + |a_d|) \cdot n^d]$$

$$a_0 \cdot n^0 + a_1 \cdot n^1 + \dots + a_d \cdot n^d \le |a_0| \cdot n^d + |a_1| \cdot n^d + \dots + |a_d| \cdot n^d$$



### **Asymptotic Upper Bound: Proposition (2)**

$$O(n^0) \subset O(n^1) \subset O(n^2) \subset \dots$$

If a function f(n) is upper bounded by another function g(n) of degree d,  $d \ge 0$ , then f(n) is also upper bounded by all other functions of a *strictly higher degree* (i.e., d + 1, d + 2, etc.).

e.g., Family of O(n) contains:

$$n^0$$
,  $2n^0$ ,  $3n^0$ , ...  
 $n$ ,  $2n$ ,  $3n$ , ...

[functions with degree 0] [functions with degree 1]

e.g., Family of  $O(n^2)$  contains:

$$n^0$$
,  $2n^0$ ,  $3n^0$ , ...  
 $n$ ,  $2n$ ,  $3n$ , ...  
 $n^2$ ,  $2n^2$ ,  $3n^2$ , ...

[functions with degree 0] [functions with degree 1] [functions with degree 2]

### **Asymptotic Upper Bound: More Examples**



• 
$$5n^2 + 3n \cdot logn + 2n + 5$$
 is  $O(n^2)$ 

$$[c = 15, n_0 = 1]$$

• 
$$20n^3 + 10n \cdot logn + 5$$
 is  $O(n^3)$ 

$$[c = 35, n_0 = 1]$$

• 
$$3 \cdot logn + 2$$
 is  $O(logn)$ 

$$[c = 5, n_0 = 2]$$

- ∘ Why can't n₀ be 1?
- Choosing  $n_0 = 1$  means  $\Rightarrow f(\boxed{1})$  is upper-bounded by  $c \cdot log \boxed{1}$ :
  - We have  $f(1) = 3 \cdot log 1 + 2$ , which is 2.
  - We have  $c \cdot log \mid 1 \mid$ , which is 0.

$$\Rightarrow f(1)$$
 is not upper-bounded by  $c \cdot log 1$ 

[ Contradiction! ]

• 
$$2^{n+2}$$
 is  $O(2^n)$ 

$$[c = 4, n_0 = 1]$$

• 
$$2n + 100 \cdot logn$$
 is  $O(n)$ 

$$[c = 102, n_0 = 1]$$

# LASSONDE

### **Using Asymptotic Upper Bound Accurately**

 Use the big-O notation to characterize a function (of an algorithm's running time) as closely as possible.

For example, say  $f(n) = 4n^3 + 3n^2 + 5$ :

- Recall:  $O(n^3) \subset O(n^4) \subset O(n^5) \subset \dots$
- It is the *most accurate* to say that f(n) is  $O(n^3)$ .
- It is *true*, but not very useful, to say that f(n) is  $O(n^4)$  and that f(n) is  $O(n^5)$ .
- It is *false* to say that f(n) is  $O(n^2)$ , O(n), or O(1).
- Do not include constant factors and lower-order terms in the big-O notation.

For example, say  $f(n) = 2n^2$  is  $O(n^2)$ , do not say f(n) is  $O(4n^2 + 6n + 9)$ .

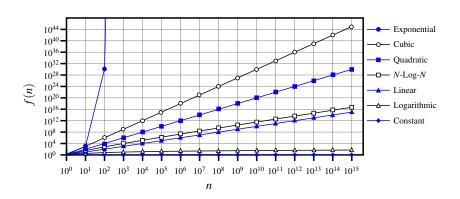




upper bound	class	cost
<i>O</i> (1)	constant	cheapest
O(log(n))	logarithmic	
<i>O</i> ( <i>n</i> )	linear	
$O(n \cdot log(n))$	"n-log-n"	
$O(n^2)$	quadratic	
$O(n^3)$	cubic	
$O(n^k), k \ge 1$	polynomial	
$O(a^n), a > 1$	exponential	most expensive

### **Rates of Growth: Comparison**







### **Upper Bound of Algorithm: Example (1)**

```
1 int maxOf (int x, int y) {
2   int max = x;
3   if (y > x) {
4    max = y;
5   }
6   return max;
}
```

- # of primitive operations: 4
   2 assignments + 1 comparison + 1 return = 4
- Therefore, the running time is O(1).
- That is, this is a *constant-time* algorithm.



### **Upper Bound of Algorithm: Example (2)**

```
int findMax (int[] a, int n) {
   currentMax = a[0];
   for (int i = 1; i < n; ) {
      if (a[i] > currentMax) {
         currentMax = a[i]; }
      i ++ }
   return currentMax; }
```

- From last lecture, we calculated that the # of primitive operations is 7n − 2.
- Therefore, the running time is O(n).
- That is, this is a *linear-time* algorithm.



### **Upper Bound of Algorithm: Example (3)**

```
boolean containsDuplicate (int[] a, int n) {
  for (int i = 0; i < n; ) {
    for (int j = 0; j < n; ) {
      if (i != j && a[i] == a[j]) {
      return true; }
      j ++; }
    i ++; }
  return false; }</pre>
```

- Worst case is when we reach Line 8.
- # of primitive operations ≈ c<sub>1</sub> + n · n · c<sub>2</sub>, where c<sub>1</sub> and c<sub>2</sub> are some constants.
- Therefore, the running time is  $O(n^2)$ .
- That is, this is a *quadratic* algorithm.



### **Upper Bound of Algorithm: Example (4)**

```
int sumMaxAndCrossProducts (int[] a, int n) {
  int max = a[0];
  for(int i = 1; i < n; i ++) {
    if (a[i] > max) { max = a[i]; }
  }
  int sum = max;
  for (int j = 0; j < n; j ++) {
    for (int k = 0; k < n; k ++) {
        sum += a[j] * a[k]; }
  return sum; }
</pre>
```

- # of primitive operations  $\approx (c_1 \cdot n + c_2) + (c_3 \cdot n \cdot n + c_4)$ , where  $c_1$ ,  $c_2$ ,  $c_3$ , and  $c_4$  are some constants.
- Therefore, the running time is  $O(n + n^2) = O(n^2)$ .
- That is, this is a *quadratic* algorithm.



### **Upper Bound of Algorithm: Example (5)**

```
1  int triangularSum (int[] a, int n) {
2   int sum = 0;
3   for (int i = 0; i < n; i ++) {
4    for (int j = i; j < n; j ++) {
5     sum += a[j]; }
6   return sum; }</pre>
```

- # of primitive operations  $\approx n + (n-1) + \cdots + 2 + 1 = \frac{n \cdot (n+1)}{2}$
- Therefore, the running time is  $O(\frac{n^2+n}{2}) = O(n^2)$ .
- That is, this is a *quadratic* algorithm.

### Beyond this lecture ...



 You will be required to *implement* Java classes and methods, and to test their correctness using JUnit.

Review them if necessary:

```
https://www.eecs.yorku.ca/~jackie/teaching/
lectures/index.html#EECS2030 F21
```

- Implementing classes and methods in Java [ Weeks 1 2 ]
- Testing methods in Java [ Week 4 ]
- Also, make sure you know how to trace programs using a debugger:

```
https://www.eecs.yorku.ca/~jackie/teaching/
tutorials/index.html#java from scratch w21
```

∘ Debugging actions (Step Over/Into/Return) [ Parts C – E, Week 2 ]



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Beyond this lecture ...

# **Basic Data Structures: Arrays vs. Linked-Lists**



EECS2011 N & Z: Fundamentals of Data Structures Winter 2022

CHEN-WEI WANG



## **Background Study: Generics in Java**

- It is assumed that, in EECS2030, you learned about the basics of Java generics:
  - General collection (e.g., Object[]) vs. Generic collection (e.g., E[])
  - How using generics minimizes casts and instanceof checks
  - How to implement and use generic classes
- If needed, review the above assumed basics from the relevant parts of EECS2030 (https://www.eecs.yorku.ca/~jackie/ teaching/lectures/index.html#EECS2030 F21):
  - Parts A1 − A3, Lecture 7, Week 10
  - Parts B C, Lecture 7, Week 11

#### Tips.

- Skim the slides: watch lecture videos if needing explanations.
- Ask questions related to the assumed basics of generics!
- Assuming that know the basics of Java generics, we will implement and use generic SLL and DLL.



## **Learning Outcomes of this Lecture**

This module is designed to help you learn about:

- basic data structures: Arrays vs. Linked Lists
- Two Sorting Algorithms: Selection Sort vs. Insertion Sort
- Linked Lists: Singly-Linked vs. Doubly-Linked
- Running Time: Array vs. Linked-List Operations
- Java Implementations: String Lists vs. Generic Lists



# **Basic Data Structure: Arrays**

- An array is a sequence of indexed elements.
- Size of an array is fixed at the time of its construction.
  - o e.g., int[] numbers = new int[10];
  - <u>Heads-Up</u>. Two *resizing* strategies: *increments* vs. *doubling*.
- Supported operations on an array:

Inserting/Removing:

```
String[] insertAt(String[] a, int n, String e, int i)
    String[] result = new String[n + 1];
    for(int j = 0; j <= i - 1; j ++) { result[j] = a[j]; }
    result[i] = e;
    for(int j = i + 1; j <= n; j ++) { result[j] = a[j-1]; }
    return result;</pre>
```

Time Complexity: O(n)

[linear-time op.]



# **Array Case Study: Comparing Two Sorting Strategies**

• The Sorting Problem:

**Input**: An array a of n numbers  $\langle a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n \rangle$  (e.g.,  $\langle 3, 4, 1, 3, 2 \rangle$ ) **Output**: A permutation/reordering  $\langle a'_1, a'_2, \ldots, a'_n \rangle$  of the input sequence s.t. elements are arranged in a **non-descending** order (e.g.,  $\langle 1, 2, 3, 3, 4 \rangle$ ):  $a'_1 \leq a'_2 \leq \cdots \leq a'_n$ 

**Remark**. Variants of the **sorting problem** may require different **orderings**:

- o non-descending
- ascending/increasing
- non-ascending
- descending/decreasing
- Two <u>alternative</u> implementation strategies for solving this problem
- At the end, choose one based on their time complexities.



# Sorting: Strategy 1 - Selection Sort

- Maintain a (initially empty) sorted portion of array a.
- From left to right in array a, select and insert the minimum element to the end of this sorted portion, so it remains sorted.

```
1  void selectionSort(int[] a, int n)
2  for (int i = 0; i <= (n - 2); i ++)
3   int minIndex = i;
4  for (int j = i; j <= (n - 1); j ++)
5   if (a[j] < a[minIndex]) { minIndex = j; }
6  int temp = a[i];
7  a[i] = a[minIndex];
8  a[minIndex] = temp;</pre>
```

- How many times does the body of **for-loop** (L4) run? [ (n 1) ]
- Running time?  $O(n^2)$

$$\underbrace{n}_{\text{find } \{a[0], \dots, a[n-1]\}} + \underbrace{(n-1)}_{\text{find } \{a[1], \dots, a[n-1]\}} + \dots + \underbrace{2}_{\text{find } \{a[n-2], a[a[n-1]]\}}$$

So selection sort is a quadratic-time algorithm.





## Sorting: Strategy 2 – Insertion Sort

- Maintain a (initially empty) *sorted portion* of array *a*.
- From left to right in array a, insert one element at a time into the "correct" spot in this sorted portion, so it remains sorted.

```
1  void insertionSort(int[] a, int n)
2  for (int i = 1; i < n; i ++)
3   int current = a[i];
4   int j = i;
5   while (j > 0 && a[j - 1] > current)
6   a[j] = a[j - 1];
7   j --;
8   a[j] = current;
```

- while-loop (L5) exits when? [j <= 0 or a[j 1] <= current]
- - insert into  $\{a[0]\}$  insert into  $\{a[0], a[1]\}$  insert into  $\{a[0], \ldots, a[n-2]\}$
- So insertion sort is a quadratic-time algorithm.



# **Sorting: Alternative Implementations?**

- In the Java implementations of selection sort and insertion sort, we maintain the "sorted portion" from the left end.
  - For selection sort, we select the minimum element from the "unsorted portion" and insert it to the end of the "sorted portion".
  - For insertion sort, we choose the left-most element from the "unsorted portion" and insert it at the "correct spot" in the "sorted portion".
- Exercise: Modify the Java implementations, so that the "sorted portion" is:
  - o arranged in a *non-ascending* order (e.g., (5, 4, 3, 2, 1)); and
  - maintained and grown from the *right* end instead.



# **Comparing Insertion & Selection Sorts**

- Asymptotically, running times of selection sort and insertion sort are both  $O(n^2)$ .
- We will later see that there exist better algorithms that can perform better than quadratic: O(n · logn).



# **Basic Data Structure: Singly-Linked Lists**

- We know that arrays perform:
  - o well in indexing
  - badly in inserting and deleting
- We now introduce an alternative data structure to arrays.
- A <u>linked list</u> is a series of <u>connected</u> <u>nodes</u>, forming a <u>linear sequence</u>.
   <u>Remark</u>. At <u>runtime</u>, node <u>connections</u> are through <u>reference aliasing</u>.
- Each *node* in a *singly-linked list (SLL)* stores:
  - o reference to a data object; and
  - o reference to the next node in the list.

<u>Contrast</u>. relative positioning of LL vs. absolute indexing of arrays

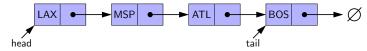


 The *last node* in a <u>singly-linked</u> list is different from others. How so? Its reference to the *next node* is simply null.



# Singly-Linked List: How to Keep Track?

- Due to its "chained" structure, a SLL, when first being created, does not need to be specified with a fixed length.
- We can use a SLL to dynamically store and manipulate as many elements as we desire without the need to resize by:
  - e.g., *creating* a new node and setting the relevant *references*.
  - e.g., inserting some node to the beginning/middle/end of a SLL
  - e.g., deleting some node from the beginning/middle/end of a SLL
- <u>Contrary to arrays</u>, we do <u>not</u> keep track of all nodes in a SLL <u>directly</u> by indexing the <u>nodes</u>.
- Instead, we only store a reference to the head (i.e., first node), and find other parts of the list indirectly.



- Exercise: Given the *head* reference of a SLL, describe how we may:
  - Count the number of nodes currently in the list.

[Running Time?]

Find the reference to its tail (i.e., last node)

[ Running Time? ]



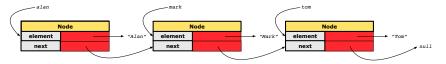
# Singly-Linked List: Java Implementation

We first implement a **SLL** storing strings only.

```
public class Node {
  private String element;
  private Node next:
  public Node(String e, Node n) { element = e; next = n; }
  public String getElement() { return element; }
  public void setElement(String e) { element = e; }
  public Node getNext() { return next; }
  public void setNext(Node n) { next = n; }
public class SinglyLinkedList {
  private Node head:
  public void setHead(Node n) { head = n; }
  public int getSize() { ... }
  public Node getTail() { ... }
  public void addFirst(String e) { ... }
  public Node getNodeAt(int i) { ... }
  public void addAt(int i, String e) { ... }
  public void removeLast() { ... }
```



# Singly-Linked List: Constructing a Chain of Nodes



#### Approach 1

```
Node tom = new Node("Tom", null);
Node mark = new Node("Mark", tom);
Node alan = new Node("Alan", mark);
```

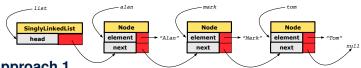
#### Approach 2

```
Node alan = new Node("Alan", null);
Node mark = new Node("Mark", null);
Node tom = new Node("Tom", null);
alan.setNext(mark);
mark.setNext(tom);
```





# Singly-Linked List: Setting a List's Head



#### Approach 1

```
Node tom = new Node("Tom", null);
Node mark = new Node("Mark", tom);
Node alan = new Node("Alan", mark);
SinglyLinkedList list = new SinglyLinkedList();
list.setHead(alan);
```

#### Approach 2

```
Node alan = new Node("Alan", null);
Node mark = new Node("Mark", null);
Node tom = new Node("Tom", null);
alan.setNext(mark);
mark.setNext(tom);
SinglyLinkedList list = new SinglyLinkedList();
list.setHead(alan);
```





Problem: Return the number of nodes currently stored in a SLL.

- Hint. Only the last node has a null next reference.
- Assume we are in the context of class SinglyLinkedList.

```
int getSize() {
   int size = 0;
   Node current = head;
while (current != null) {
   current = current.getNext();
   size ++;
}
return size;
}
```

- When does the while-loop (L4) exit?
- RT of getSize: O(n)
- Contrast: RT of a.length:

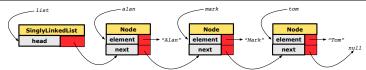
[current == null]

[linear-time op.]

[ constant-time op. ]

# Singly-Linked List: Counting # of Nodes (2)





```
int getSize() {
  int size = 0;
  Node current = head;
  while (current != null) { /* exit when current == null */
      current = current.getNext();
      size ++;
  }
  return size;
}
```

Let's now consider list.getSize()

8

curr	ent   current	!= null   <u>End</u> of	Iteration   size
ala	an <i>tr</i>	ue	1 1
ma	mark <i>true</i>		2 2
to	m   tr	rue	3 3
nu	11   <i>fa</i>	lse	-   =



# Singly-Linked List: Finding the Tail (1)

**Problem**: Retrieved the tail (i.e., last node) in a SLL.

- Hint. Only the last node has a null next reference.
- Assume we are in the context of class SinglyLinkedList.

```
1 Node getTail() {
2   Node current = head;
3   Node tail = null;
4   while (current != null) {
5     tail = current;
6     current = current.getNext();
7   }
8   return tail;
9 }
```

• When does the while-loop (L4) exit?

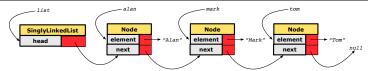
[current == null]

• RT of getTail: O(n)

- [ linear-time op. ]
- Contrast: RT of a [a.length 1]: O(1) [constant-time op.]

# LASSONDE

# Singly-Linked List: Finding the Tail (2)



```
Node getTail() {
  Node current = head;
  Node tail = null;
  while (current != null) { /* exit when current == null */
    tail = current;
    current = current.getNext();
  }
  return tail;
}
```

Let's now consider list.getTail():

8

curr	ent    curr	ent != nul	1   End of Iteration	tail
ala	ın	true	1	alan
ma	mark <i>true</i>		2	mark
toı	n	true	3	tom
nu.	Ll	false	_	_



# Singly-Linked List: Can We Do Better?

- In practice, we may <u>frequently</u> need to:
  - Access the tail of a list. [e.g., customers joining a service queue]
  - Inquire the size of a list. [e.g., the service queue full?]

Both operations cost O(n) to run (with only *head* available).

We may improve the RT of these two operations.

#### **Principle**. Trade **space** for **time**.

- Declare a new attribute tail pointing to the end of the list.
- Declare a new attribute size denoting the number of stored nodes.
- **RT** of these operations, accessing attribute values, are O(1)!
- Why not declare attributes to store <u>references</u> of <u>all nodes</u> between <u>head</u> and <u>tail</u> (e.g., secondNode, thirdNode)?
  - No at the *time of declarations*, we simply do <u>not</u> know how many nodes there will be at *runtime*.

# Singly-Linked List: Inserting to the Front (1) LASSONDE



**Problem**: Insert a new string *e* to the front of the list.

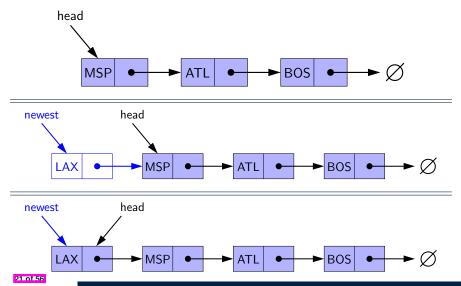
- **Hint**. The list's new head should store *e* and point to the old head.
- Assume we are in the context of class SinglyLinkedList.

```
1  void addFirst (String e) {
2    head = new Node(e, head);
3    if (size == 0) {
4        tail = head;
5    }
6    size ++;
7  }
```

- Remember that RT of accessing head or tail is O(1)
- RT of addFirst is O(1) [constant-time op.]
- Contrast: Inserting into an array costs O(n) [linear-time op.]

# Singly-Linked List: Inserting to the Front (2) LASSONDE





#### **Exercise**



See ExampleStringLinkedLists.zip.

Compare and contrast two alternative ways to constructing a SLL: testSLL\_01 vs. testSLL\_02.

#### **Exercise**



 Complete the Java implementations, tests, and running time analysis for:

```
o void removeFirst()
o void addLast(String e)
```

 Question: The removeLast() method may not be completed in the same way as is void addLast(String e). Why?



# Singly-Linked List: Accessing the Middle (1) LASSONDE

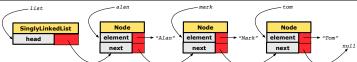
**Problem**: Return the node at index *i* in the list.

- Hint.  $0 \le i < \text{list.getSize}()$
- Assume we are in the context of class SinglyLinkedList.

```
Node getNodeAt (int i) {
      if (i < 0 || i >= size) {
        throw new IllegalArgumentException("Invalid Index");
4
5
      else {
6
        int index = 0:
        Node current = head:
8
        while (index < i) { /* exit when index == i */
           index ++:
10
           /* current is set to node at index i
11
            * last iteration: index incremented from i - 1 to i
12
            */
13
           current = current.getNext();
14
15
        return current:
16
17
```

# Singly-Linked List: Accessing the Middle (2) LASSONDE





```
Node getNodeAt (int i) {
   if (i < 0 || i >= size) { /* error */ }
   else {
     int index = 0;
     Node current = head;
     while (index < i) { /* exit when index == i */
        index ++;
        current = current.getNext();
     }
     return current;
   }
}</pre>
```

Let's now consider list.getNodeAt(2):

current	index	index < 2	Beginning of Iteration
alan	0	true	1
mark	1	true	2
tom	2	false	_



10

11 12



# Singly-Linked List: Accessing the Middle (3) LASSONDE

- What is the worst case of the index i for getNodeAt (i)?
  - Worst case: list.getNodeAt(list.size 1)
  - RT of getNodeAt is O(n)

[ linear-time op. ]

• Contrast: Accessing an array element costs O(1) [constant-time op. ]



# Singly-Linked List: Inserting to the Middle (1) SSSONDE



**Problem**: Insert a new element at index *i* in the list.

- Hint 1.  $0 \le i \le list.getSize()$
- Hint 2. Use getNodeAt (?) as a helper method.

```
void addAt (int i, String e) {
      if (i < 0 || i > size) {
        throw new IllegalArgumentException("Invalid Index.");
4
      else {
6
        if (i == 0) {
           addFirst(e):
8
        else {
10
           Node nodeBefore = getNodeAt(i - 1):
11
           Node newNode = new Node(e, nodeBefore.getNext());
12
           nodeBefore.setNext(newNode);
13
           size ++;
14
15
16
```

**Example**. See testSLL\_addAt in ExampleStringLinkedLists.zip.

# Singly-Linked List: Inserting to the Middle (2) SSONDE



[O(1)]

- A call to addAt (i, e) may end up executing:
  - Line 3 (throw exception)
  - Line 7 (addFirst) [O(1)]
  - Lines 10 (getNodeAt)
  - Lines 11 13 (setting references) [O(1)]
- What is the worst case of the index i for addAt (i, e)?
  - A. list.addAt(list.getSize(), e)

which requires list.getNodeAt(list.getSize() - 1)

- RT of addAt is O(n) [linear-time op.]
- **Contrast**: Inserting into an array costs O(n) [ linear-time op. ] For arrays, when given the *index* to an element, the RT of inserting an element is always O(n)!



# Singly-Linked List: Removing from the End LASSONDE

**Problem**: Remove the last node (i.e., tail) of the list.

**Hint.** Using *tail* sufficient? Use getNodeAt (?) as a helper?

• Assume we are in the context of class SinglyLinkedList.

```
void removeLast () {
      if (size == 0) {
        throw new IllegalArgumentException("Empty List.");
5
      else if (size == 1) {
6
        removeFirst():
8
      else {
        Node secondLastNode = getNodeAt(size - 2):
10
        secondLastNode.setNext(null);
11
        tail = secondLastNode:
12
        size --:
13
14
```

Running time? O(n)



## Singly-Linked List: Exercises

Consider the following two linked-list operations, where a <u>reference node</u> is given as an input parameter:

- void insertAfter(*Node* n, String e)
  - · Steps?
    - Create a new node nn.
    - Set nn's next to n's next.
    - Set n's next to nn.
  - Running time?

*O*(1) ]

- void insertBefore(*Node* n, String e)
  - Steps?
    - Iterate from the head, until current.next == n.
    - Create a new node nn.
    - Set nn's next to current's next (which is n).
    - Set current's next to nn.
  - Running time?

O(n)

#### **Exercise**



 Complete the Java implementation, tests, and running time analysis for void removeAt (int i).





DATA STRUCTURE			SINGLY-LINKED LIST	
OPERATION				
get size			O(1)	
get first/last element		O(1)		
get element at index i			O(n)	
remove last element		O(1)	O(II)	
add/remove first element, add last element			O(1)	
add/remove i <sup>th</sup> element	given reference to $(i-1)^{th}$ element	O(n)	O(1)	
	not given		O(n)	



### **Background Study: Generics in Java**

- It is assumed that, in EECS2030, you learned about the basics of Java generics:
  - o General collection (e.g., Object []) vs. Generic collection (e.g., E[])
  - How using generics minimizes casts and instanceof checks
  - o How to implement and use generic classes
- If needed, review the above assumed basics from the relevant parts of EECS2030 (https://www.eecs.yorku.ca/~jackie/
  - teaching/lectures/index.html#EECS2030\_F21):
  - Parts A1 A3, Lecture 7, Week 10
  - Parts B C, Lecture 7, Week 11

#### Tips.

- Skim the slides: watch lecture videos if needing explanations.
- Ask questions related to the assumed basics of generics!
- Assuming that know the basics of Java generics, we will implement and use generic SLL and DLL.

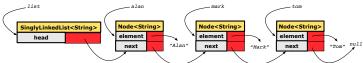


# Generic Classes: Singly-Linked List (1)

```
public class SinglyLinkedList< E > {
    private Node< E > head;
    private Node< E > tail;
    private int size;
    public void setHead(Node< E > n) { head = n; }
    public void addFirst( E e) { ... }
    Node< E > getNodeAt (int i) { ... }
    void addAt (int i, E e) { ... }
}
```



### **Generic Classes: Singly-Linked List (2)**



#### Approach 1

```
Node<String> tom = new Node<String>("Tom", null);
Node<String> mark = new Node<>("Mark", tom);
Node<String> alan = new Node<>("Alan", mark);
SinglyLinkedList<String> list = new SinglyLinkedList<>();
list.setHead(alan);
```

#### Approach 2

```
Node<String> alan = new Node<String>("Alan", null);
Node<String> mark = new Node<>("Mark", null);
Node<String> tom = new Node<>("Tom", null);
alan.setNext(mark);
mark.setNext(tom);
SinglyLinkedList<String> list = new SinglyLinkedList<>();
list.setHead(alan);
```



## **Generic Classes: Singly-Linked List (3)**

Assume we are in the context of class SinglyLinkedList.

```
void addFirst (E e) {
  head = new Node < E > (e, head);
  if (size == 0) { tail = head; }
  size ++:
Node < E > getNodeAt (int i) {
  if (i < 0 | | i >= size) {
   throw new IllegalArgumentException("Invalid Index"); }
  else {
    int index = 0;
    Node < E > current = head;
    while (index < i) {
      index ++;
       current = current.getNext();
    return current:
```



# Singly-Linked Lists: Handling Edge Cases

```
void addFirst (E e) {
     head = new Node < E > (e, head);
3
     if (size == 0) {
4
       void removeFirst ()
     if (size == 0) { /* error */ }
3
     else if (size == 1) {
4
       head = null; tail = null; size --; }
5
     else {
6
       Node < E > oldHead = head:
       head = oldHead.getNext();
8
       oldHead.setNext(null); size --;
9
```

- We have to <u>explicitly</u> deal with special cases where the <u>current</u> list or <u>resulting list</u> is empty.
- We can actually resolve this issue via a small extension!

### Basic Data Structure: Doubly-Linked Lists (



• We know that *singly-linked* lists perform:

• WELL:	[ <i>O</i> (1) ]
<ul> <li>inserting to the front/end</li> </ul>	[ head/tail ]
<ul> <li>removing from the front</li> </ul>	[ head ]
<ul> <li>inserting/deleting the middle</li> </ul>	[ given ref. to previous node ]
• Poorly:	[ <i>O</i> ( <i>n</i> ) ]
<ul> <li>accessing the middle</li> </ul>	[getNodeAt(i)]
<ul> <li>removing from the end</li> </ul>	<pre>[getNodeAt(list.getSize() - 2)]</pre>

We may again improve the performance by

trading space for time

just like how attributes **size** and **tail** were introduced.

### Basic Data Structure: Doubly-Linked Lists (2) ssonni





- Each *node* in a *doubly-linked list (DLL)* stores:
  - A reference to an element of the sequence
  - o A reference to the next node in the list
  - A reference to the <u>previous</u> node in the list

[SYMMETRY]

- Each DLL stores:
  - A reference to a dedicated header node in the list
  - A reference to a dedicated <u>trailer node</u> in the list Remark. Unlike SLL, *DLL* does not store refs. to head and tail.
- These two special nodes are called sentinels or guards:
  - They do <u>not</u> store data, but store node references:
    - The *header node* stores the **next** reference only
    - The trailer node stores previous reference only
- They <u>always</u> exist, even in the case of <u>empty</u> lists.



# **Generic Doubly-Linked Lists in Java (1)**

```
public class Node<E> {
  private E element;
  private Node<E> next;
  public E getElement() { return element; }
  public void setElement(E e) { element = e; }
  public Node<E> getNext() { return next; }
  public void setNext(Node<E> n) { next = n; }
  private Node<E> prev;
  public Node<E> getPrev() { return prev; }
  public void setPrev(Node<E> p) { prev = p; }
  public Node(E e, Node<E> p, Node<E> n) {
    element = e:
    prev = p;
    next = n:
```



# **Generic Doubly-Linked Lists in Java (2)**

```
public class DoublyLinkedList<E> {
    private int size = 0;
    public void addFirst(E e) { ... }
    public void removeLast() { ... }
    public void addAt(int i, E e) { ... }
    private Node<E> header;
    private Node<E> trailer;
    public DoublyLinkedList() {
        header = new Node<> (null, null, null);
        trailer = new Node<> (null, header, null);
        header.setNext(trailer);
    }
}
```

#### Lines 8 to 10 are equivalent to:

```
header = new Node<> (null, null, null);
trailer = new Node<> (null, null);
header.setNext(trailer);
trailer.setPrev(header);
```

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8

10

11

12 13

# Header, Trailer, and prev Reference

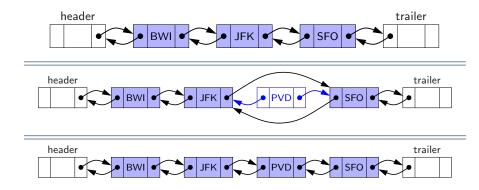


- The *prev reference* helps *improve the performance* of removeLast().
  - The <u>second last</u> node can be accessed in <u>constant time</u>.

    [trailer.getPrev().getPrev()]
- The two sentinel/guard nodes (header and trailer) do not help improve the performance.
  - Instead, they help simplify the logic of your code.
  - Each insertion/deletion can be treated
    - *Uniformly*: a node is always inserted/deleted <u>in-between</u> two nodes
    - Without worrying about re-setting the head and tail of list

### **Doubly-Linked List: Insertions**







# **Doubly-Linked List: Inserting to Front/End**

```
1 void addBetween(E e, Node<E> pred, Node<E> succ) {
2   Node<E> newNode = new Node<>(e, pred, succ);
   pred.setNext(newNode);
   succ.setPrev(newNode);
   size ++;
}
```

#### Running Time? *O*(1)

```
void addFirst(E e) {
   addBetween(e, header, header.getNext())
}
```

#### Running Time? *O*(1)

```
void addLast(E e) {
   addBetween(e, trailer.getPrev(), trailer)
}
```

#### Running Time? O(1)



# **Doubly-Linked List: Inserting to Middle**

```
void addBetween(E e, Node<E> pred, Node<E> succ) {
  Node<E> newNode = new Node<>(e, pred, succ);
  pred.setNext(newNode);
  succ.setPrev(newNode);
  size ++;
}
```

#### Running Time? O(1)

```
addAt(int i, E e) {
  if (i < 0 || i > size) {
    throw new IllegalArgumentException("Invalid Index."); }
  else {
    Node<E> pred = getNodeAt(i - 1);
    Node<E> succ = pred.getNext();
    addBetween(e, pred, succ);
  }
}
```

Running Time? Still O(n)!!!

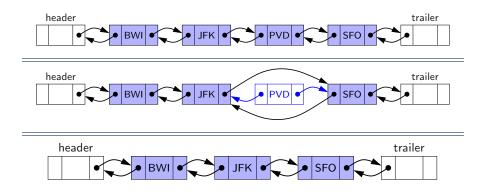


2

5

### **Doubly-Linked List: Removals**





### Doubly-Linked List: Removing from Front/Endonder

```
1  void remove (Node<E> node) {
2   Node<E> pred = node.getPrev();
3   Node<E> succ = node.getNext();
4   pred.setNext(succ); succ.setPrev(pred);
5   node.setNext(null); node.setPrev(null);
6   size --;
7  }
```

#### Running Time? *O*(1)

```
void removeFirst() {
  if (size == 0) { throw new IllegalArgumentException("Empty"); }
  else { remove (header.getNext()); }
}
```

#### Running Time? *O*(1)

```
void removeLast() {
  if (size == 0) { throw new IllegalArgumentException("Empty"); }
  else { remove (trailer.getPrev()); }
}
```

Running Time? Now O(1) !!!



# **Doubly-Linked List: Removing from Middle**

```
1  void  remove (Node<E> node) {
2   Node<E> pred = node.getPrev();
3   Node<E> succ = node.getNext();
4   pred.setNext(succ); succ.setPrev(pred);
5   node.setNext(null); node.setPrev(null);
6   size --;
7  }
```

#### Running Time? *O*(1)

```
removeAt (int i) {
  if (i < 0 || i >= size) {
    throw new IllegalArgumentException("Invalid Index."); }
  else {
    Node<E> node = getNodeAt(i);
    remove (node);
  }
}
```

Running Time? Still O(n)!!!





### **Reference Node:** To be Given or Not to be Given

#### **Exercise 1**: Compare the steps and running times of:

- Not given a reference node:
  - addNodeAt(int i, E e)

[ O(n) ]

- Given a reference node:
  - addNodeBefore(**Node**<E> n, E e)
- [ SLL: O(n); DLL: O(1) ]

• addNodeAfter(*Node*<E> n, E e)

[O(1)]

#### **Exercise 2**: Compare the steps and running times of:

- Not given a reference node:
  - removeNodeAt (int. i)

[ O(n) ]

- Given a reference node:
  - removeNodeBefore (Node<E> n) removeNodeAfter(Node<E> n)

- [ SLL: O(n); DLL: O(1) ]

removNode (Node<E> n)

[ SLL: O(n); DLL: O(1) ]



# Arrays vs. (Singly- and Doubly-Linked) Lists LASSONDE



DATA STRUCTURE OPERATION		ARRAY	SINGLY-LINKED LIST	DOUBLY-LINKED LIST	
size			O(1)		
first/last element		O(1)			
element at index i		O(1)	O(n)	O(n)	
remove last element			O(11)		
add/remove first element, add last element		O(n)	O(1)	O(1)	
add/remove ith element	given reference to $(i-1)^{th}$ element	O(II)	O(1)		
add/16/110VE / CICITICITE	not given		O(n)		





- In Eclipse, *implement* and *test* the assigned methods in SinglyLinkedList class and DoublyLinkedList class.
- Modify the *insertion sort* and *selection sort* implementations using a SLL or DLL.

### Index (1)



Background Study: Generics in Java

Learning Outcomes of this Lecture

Basic Data Structure: Arrays

Array Case Study:

Comparing Two Sorting Strategies

Sorting: Strategy 1 – Selection Sort

Sorting: Strategy 2 – Insertion Sort

Sorting: Alternative Implementations?

Comparing Insertion & Selection Sorts

Basic Data Structure: Singly-Linked Lists

Singly-Linked List: How to Keep Track?

### Index (2)



Singly-Linked List: Java Implementation

Singly-Linked List:

Constructing a Chain of Nodes

Singly-Linked List: Setting a List's Head

Singly-Linked List: Counting # of Nodes (1)

Singly-Linked List: Counting # of Nodes (2)

Singly-Linked List: Finding the Tail (1)

Singly-Linked List: Finding the Tail (2)

Singly-Linked List: Can We Do Better?

Singly-Linked List: Inserting to the Front (1)

Singly-Linked List: Inserting to the Front (2)

### Index (3)



Exercise

Exercise

Singly-Linked List: Accessing the Middle (1)

Singly-Linked List: Accessing the Middle (2)

Singly-Linked List: Accessing the Middle (3)

Singly-Linked List: Inserting to the Middle (1)

Singly-Linked List: Inserting to the Middle (2)

Singly-Linked List: Removing from the End

Singly-Linked List: Exercises

Exercise

Arrays vs. Singly-Linked Lists

# Index (4)



Background Study: Generics in Java

Generic Classes: Singly-Linked List (1)

Generic Classes: Singly-Linked List (2)

Generic Classes: Singly-Linked List (3)

Singly-Linked Lists: Handling Edge Cases

Basic Data Structure: Doubly-Linked Lists (1)

Basic Data Structure: Doubly-Linked Lists (2)

Generic Doubly-Linked Lists in Java (1)

Generic Doubly-Linked Lists in Java (2)

Header, Trailer, and prev Reference

Doubly-Linked List: Insertions



### Index (5)

Doubly-Linked List: Inserting to Front/End

Doubly-Linked List: Inserting to Middle

Doubly-Linked List: Removals

Doubly-Linked List: Removing from Front/End

Doubly-Linked List: Removing from Middle

Reference Node:

To be Given or Not to be Given

Arrays vs. (Singly- and Doubly-Linked) Lists

Beyond this lecture ...

### Abstract Data Types (ADTs), Stacks, Queues



EECS2011 N & Z: Fundamentals of Data Structures Winter 2022

CHEN-WEI WANG



### **Learning Outcomes of this Lecture**

This module is designed to help you learn about:

- The notion of *Abstract Data Types (ADTs)*
- The obligations of an ADT's supplier
- The benefits of an ADT's client
- Criterion of *Modularity*, Modular Design
- ADTs: Stack vs. Queue
- Implementing <u>Stack</u> and <u>Queue</u> in Java [interface, classes]
- Applications of Stack



### **Background Study: Interfaces in Java**

- It is assumed that, in EECS2030, you learned about the basics of Java interfaces:
  - How to declare an interface
  - o How to create a class implementing an interface
  - How polymorphism and dynamic binding work
- If needed, review the above assumed basics from the relevant parts of EECS2030 (https://www.eecs.yorku.ca/~jackie/ teaching/lectures/index.html#EECS2030\_F21):
  - ∘ Parts B1 B3, Lecture 6, Week 10

#### Tips.

- Skim the slides: watch lecture videos if needing explanations.
- Ask questions related to the assumed basics of *interfaces*!
- Assuming that know the basics of Java interfaces, we will implement and use generic Stack and Queue.





### **Terminology: Contract, Client, Supplier**

- A *supplier* implements/provides a service (e.g., microwave).
- A client uses a service provided by some supplier.
  - The client is required to follow certain instructions to obtain the service (e.g., supplier assumes that client powers on, closes door, and heats something that is not explosive).
  - If instructions are followed, the client would expect that the service does what is guaranteed (e.g., a lunch box is heated).
  - The client does not care <u>how</u> the supplier implements it.
- What are the benefits and obligations of the two parties?

	benefits	obligations
CLIENT	obtain a service	follow instructions
SUPPLIER	assume instructions followed	provide a service

- There is a *contract* between two parties, violated if:
  - The instructions are not followed. [Client's fault ]
  - Instructions followed, but service not satisfactory. [ Supplier's fault ]



## Client, Supplier, Contract in OOP (1)

```
class Microwave {
  private boolean on;
  private boolean locked;
  void power() {on = true;}
  void lock() {locked = true;}
  void <u>heat(Object stuff) {</u>
    /* Assume: on && locked */
    /* stuff not explosive. */
  } }
```

```
class MicrowaveUser
public static void main(...) {
   Microwave m = new Microwave();
   Object obj = [???];
   m.power(); m.lock();
   m.heat(obj);
}
```

Method call **m**.<u>heat(obj)</u> indicates a client-supplier relation.

- Client: resident class of the method call [MicrowaveUser]
- Supplier: type of context object (or call target) m [Microwave]





# Client, Supplier, Contract in OOP (2)

```
class Microwave
                                 class MicrowaveUser
 private boolean on;
                                   public static void main(...) {
 private boolean locked;
                                     Microwave m = new Microwave();
 void power() {on = true;}
                                    Object obj = | ??? |;
 void lock() {locked = true;}
                                     m.power(); m.lock();
 void heat(Object stuff) {
                                     m. heat (obj);
   /* Assume: on && locked */
   /* stuff not explosive. */}}
```

• The *contract* is honoured if:

#### Right **before** the method call :

- State of m is as assumed: m.on==true and m.locked==ture
- The input argument obj is valid (i.e., not explosive).

Right after the method call |: obj is properly heated.

- If any of these fails, there is a contract violation.
  - m.on or m.locked is false

⇒ MicrowaveUser's fault.

obj is an explosive

⇒ MicrowaveUser's fault.

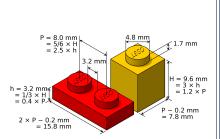
A fault from the client is identified

⇒ Method call will not start.

- Method executed but obj not properly heated ⇒ Microwave's fault

## Modularity (1): Childhood Activity







(INTERFACE) SPECIFICATION

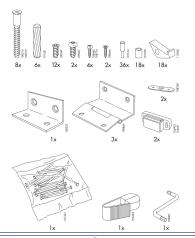
(ASSEMBLY) ARCHITECTURE

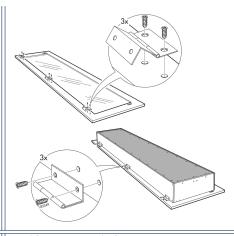
Sources: https://commons.wikimedia.ord and https://www.wish.com



# Modularity (2): Daily Construction







(INTERFACE) SPECIFICATION

(ASSEMBLY) ARCHITECTURE

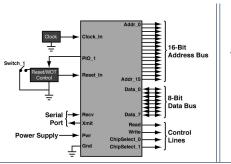
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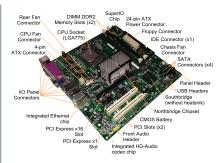


# **Modularity (3): Computer Architecture**



Motherboards are built from functioning units (e.g., CPUs).





(INTERFACE) SPECIFICATION

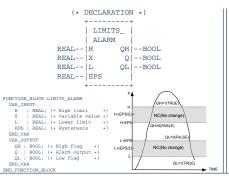
(ASSEMBLY) ARCHITECTURE

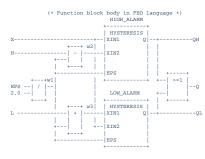
Sources: www.embeddedlinux.org.cn and https://en.wikipedia.org





Safety-critical systems (e.g., *nuclear shutdown systems*) are built from *function blocks*.





(INTERFACE) SPECIFICATION

(ASSEMBLY) ARCHITECTURE

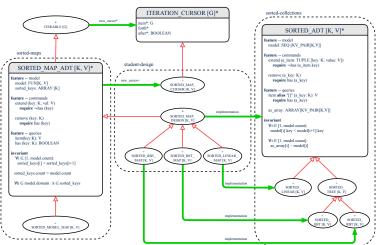
Sources: https://plcopen.org/iec-61131-3





### Modularity (5): Software Design

Software systems are composed of well-specified classes.



# **Design Principle: Modularity**

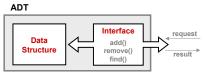


- Modularity refers to a sound quality of your design:
  - <u>Divide</u> a given complex *problem* into inter-related *sub-problems* via a logical/justifiable <u>functional decomposition</u>.
     e.g., In designing a game, solve sub-problems of: 1) rules of the game; 2) actor characterizations; and 3) presentation.
  - 2. <u>Specify</u> each *sub-solution* as a *module* with a clear <u>interface</u>: inputs, outputs, and <u>input-output relations</u>.
    - The UNIX principle: Each command does one thing and does it well.
    - In objected-oriented design (OOD), each <u>class</u> serves as a module.
  - 3. <u>Conquer</u> original *problem* by assembling *sub-solutions*.
    - In OOD, classes are assembled via <u>client-supplier</u> relations (aggregations or compositions) or <u>inheritance</u> relations.
- A modular design satisfies the criterion of modularity and is:
  - *Maintainable*: <u>fix</u> issues by changing the relevant modules only.
  - *Extensible*: introduce new functionalities by adding new modules.
  - Reusable: a module may be used in <u>different</u> compositions
- Opposite of modularity: A *superman module* doing everything.



#### **Abstract Data Types (ADTs)**

- Given a problem, <u>decompose</u> its solution into <u>modules</u>.
- Each *module* implements an *abstract data type (ADT)*:
  - filters out *irrelevant* details
  - contains a list of declared data and well-specified operations



- Supplier's Obligations:
  - Implement all operations
  - Choose the "right" data structure [e.g., arrays vs. SLL vs. DLL]
  - The <u>internal</u> details of an implemented <u>ADT</u> should be **hidden**.
- Client's Benefits:
  - Correct output
  - Efficient performance

#### **Java API Approximates ADTs (1)**





#### It is useful to have:

- A generic collection class where the homogeneous type of elements are parameterized as E.
- A reasonably intuitive overview of the ADT.





# **Java API Approximates ADTs (2)**



set(int index, E element) Replaces the element at the specified position in this list with the specified element (optional operation). set E set(int index, E element) Replaces the element at the specified position in this list with the specified element (optional operation). Parameters: index - index of the element to replace element - element to be stored at the specified position Returns: the element previously at the specified position Throws: UnsupportedOperationException - if the set operation is not supported by this list ClassCastException - if the class of the specified element prevents it from being added to this list NullPointerException - if the specified element is null and this list does not permit null elements IllegalArgumentException - if some property of the specified element prevents it from being added to this list IndexOutOfBoundsException - if the index is out of range (index < 0 | | index >= size()

Methods described in a *natural language* can be *ambiguous*.





### **Building ADTs for Reusability**

- ADTs are <u>reusable</u> software components that are common for solving many real-world problems.
  - e.g., Stacks, Queues, Lists, Tables, Trees, Graphs
- An ADT, once thoroughly tested, can be reused by:
  - o Clients of Applications
  - Suppliers of other ADTs
- As a supplier, you are <u>obliged</u> to:
  - Implement standard ADTs [≈ lego building bricks]
     Note. Recall the basic data structures: arrays vs. SLLs vs. DLLs
  - Design algorithms using <u>standard</u> ADTs [≈ lego houses, ships]
- For each <u>standard</u> <u>ADT</u>, you should know its <u>interface</u>:
  - Stored data
  - For each operation manipulating the stored data
    - How are *clients* supposed to use the method?
- preconditions ]

What are the services provided by suppliers?

postconditions ]

Time (and sometimes space) complexity

#### What is a Stack?



- A stack is a collection of objects.
- Objects in a stack are inserted and removed according to the last-in, first-out (LIFO) principle.
  - Cannot access arbitrary elements of a stack
  - Can only access or remove the most-recently added element





#### The Stack ADT



```
• top
```

[ precondition: stack is not empty ]
[ postcondition: return item last pushed to the stack ]

• size

[ precondition: none ]
[ postcondition: return number of items pushed to the stack ]

isEmpty

[ precondition: none ]

[ postcondition: return whether there is no item in the stack ]

push(item)

[ precondition: stack is not full ]

[ postcondition: push the input item onto the top of the stack ]

pop

[ precondition: stack is not empty ]

[ postcondition: remove and return the top of stack ]

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#### Stack: Illustration

OPERATION	RETURN VALUE	STACK CONTENTS
_	_	Ø
isEmpty	true	Ø
push(5)	_	5
push(3)	_	3 5
push(1)	_	1 3 5
size	3	1 3 5
top	1	1 3 5
pop	1	3 5
pop	3	5
pop	5	Ø



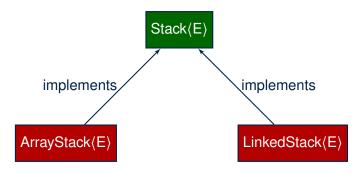


```
public interface Stack< E > {
  public int size();
  public boolean isEmpty();
  public E top();
  public void push(E e);
  public E pop();
}
```

The **Stack** ADT, declared as an **interface**, allows **alternative implementations** to conform to its method headers.

#### **Generic Stack: Architecture**







### **Implementing Stack: Array (1)**

```
public class ArrayStack<E> implements Stack<E> {
 private final int MAX CAPACITY = 1000;
 private E[] data:
 private int t: /* index of top */
 public ArrayStack() {
  data = (E[]) new Object[MAX CAPACITY];
  t = -1:
 public int size() { return (t + 1); }
 public boolean isEmptv() { return (t == -1); }
 public E top() {
  if (isEmpty()) { /* Precondition Violated */ }
  else { return data[t]; }
 public void push(E e) {
  if (size() == MAX CAPACITY) { /* Precondition Violated */ }
  else { t ++; data[t] = e; }
 public E pop() {
  E result;
  if (isEmptv()) { /* Precondition Violated */ }
  else { result = data[t]: data[t] = null: t --: }
  return result;
```

#### **Implementing Stack: Array (2)**



• Running Times of *Array*-Based *Stack* Operations?

ArrayStack Method	Running Time
size	O(1)
isEmpty	O(1)
top	O(1)
push	O(1)
pop	O(1)

- <u>Exercise</u> This version of implementation treats the <u>end</u> of array as the <u>top</u> of stack. Would the RTs of operations <u>change</u> if we treated the <u>beginning</u> of array as the <u>top</u> of stack?
- Q. What if the preset capacity turns out to be insufficient?
   A. IllegalArgumentException occurs and it takes O(1) time to respond.
- At the end, we will explore the alternative of a dynamic array.



# Implementing Stack: Singly-Linked List (1)

```
public class LinkedStack<E> implements Stack<E> {
   private SinglyLinkedList<E> list;
   ...
}
```

#### Question:

Stack Method	Singly-Linked List Method	
Stack Method	Strategy 1	Strategy 2
size	list.	size
isEmpty	list.isEmpty	
top	list.first	list.last
push	list.addFirst	list.addLast
pop	list.removeFirst	list.removeLast

Which implementation strategy should be chosen?



### Implementing Stack: Singly-Linked List (2)

- If the front of list is treated as the top of stack, then:
  - All stack operations remain O(1) [ ∵ removeFirst takes O(1) ]
- If the end of list is treated as the top of stack, then:
  - The pop operation takes O(n) [ : removeLast takes O(n) ]
- But in both cases, given that a linked, dynamic structure is used, no resizing is necessary!



### **Generic Stack: Testing Implementations**

```
aTest
public void testPolymorphicStacks() {
 Stack<String> s = new ArrayStack<>():
 s.push("Alan"); /* dynamic binding */
 s.push("Mark"); /* dvnamic binding */
 s.push("Tom"); /* dynamic binding */
 assertTrue(s.size() == 3 && !s.isEmptv());
 assertEquals("Tom", s.top());
 s = new LinkedStack<>();
 s.push("Alan"); /* dvnamic binding */
 s.push("Mark"); /* dynamic binding */
 s.push("Tom"); /* dynamic binding */
 assertTrue(s.size() == 3 && !s.isEmpty());
 assertEquals("Tom", s.top());
```

# **Polymorphism & Dynamic Binding**



```
Stack<String> myStack;
myStack = new ArrayStack<String>();
myStack.push("Alan");
myStack = new LinkedStack<String>();
myStack.push("Alan");
```

Polymorphism

An object may change its "**shape**" (i.e., **dynamic type**) at runtime.

Which lines? 2, 4

Dynamic Binding

Effect of a method call depends on the "current shape" of the target object.

Which lines? 3, 5

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#### Stack Application: Reversing an Array

• Implementing a generic algorithm:

```
public static <E> void reverse(E[] a) {
   Stack<E> buffer = new ArrayStack<E>();
   for (int i = 0; i < a.length; i ++) {
      buffer.push(a[i]);
   }
   for (int i = 0; i < a.length; i ++) {
      a[i] = buffer.pop();
   }
}</pre>
```

• *Testing* the *generic* algorithm:

```
@Test
public void testReverseViaStack() {
   String[] names = {"Alan", "Mark", "Tom"};
   String[] expectedReverseOfNames = {"Tom", "Mark", "Alan"};
   StackUtilities.reverse(names);
   assertArrayEquals(expectedReverseOfNames, names);

Integer[] numbers = {46, 23, 68);
   Integer[] expectedReverseOfNumbers= {68, 23, 46};
   StackUtilities.reverse(numbers);
   assertArrayEquals(expectedReverseOfNumbers, numbers);
}
```





# **Stack Application: Matching Delimiters (1)**

#### Problem

```
Opening delimiters: (, [, {
Closing delimiters: ), ], }
e.g., Correct: () (()) {([()])}
e.g., Incorrect: ({[])}
```

#### Sketch of Solution

- When a new opening delimiter is found, push it to the stack.
- Most-recently found delimiter should be matched first.
- When a new closing delimiter is found:
  - If it matches the *top* of the stack, then *pop* off the stack.
  - Otherwise, an error is found!
- Finishing reading the input, an empty <u>stack</u> means a success!



#### **Stack Application: Matching Delimiters (2)**

• Implementing the algorithm:

```
public static boolean isMatched(String expression) {
  final String opening = "([{":
  final String closing = ") | } ";
  Stack<Character> openings = new LinkedStack<Character>();
  int i = 0:
  boolean foundError = false:
  while (!foundError && i < expression.length()) {
    char c = expression.charAt(i);
    if(opening.indexOf(c) != -1) { openings.push(c); }
    else if (closing.indexOf(c) != -1) {
      if(openings.isEmptv()) { foundError = true; }
      else (
         if (opening.indexOf(openings.top()) == closing.indexOf(c)) { openings.pop(); }
         else { foundError = true; } } }
    i ++; }
  return !foundError && openings.isEmpty(); }
```

• *Testing* the algorithm:

```
@Test
public void testMatchingDelimiters() {
    assertTrue(StackUtilities.isMatched(""));
    assertTrue(StackUtilities.isMatched("{[]}({{}})"));
    assertFalse(StackUtilities.isMatched("{[]})"));
    assertFalse(StackUtilities.isMatched("{[]})"));
    assertFalse(StackUtilities.isMatched("({[]})"));
}
```





# **Stack Application: Postfix Notations (1)**

**Problem:** Given a postfix expression, calculate its value.

Infix Notation	Postfix Notation
Operator <i>in-between</i> Operands	Operator <i>follows</i> Operands
Parentheses force precedence	Order of evaluation embedded
3	3
3 + 4	3 4 +
3 + 4 + 5	3 4 + 5 +
3 + (4 + 5)	3 4 5 + +
3 - 4 * 5	3 4 5 * -
(3 - 4) * 5	3 4 - 5 *



### **Stack Application: Postfix Notations (2)**

#### **Sketch of Solution**

- When input is an operand (i.e., a number), push it to the stack.
- When input is an *operator*, obtain its two *operands* by *popping*off the <u>stack</u> twice, evaluate, then *push* the result back to <u>stack</u>.
- When finishing reading the input, there should be only one number left in the stack.
- Error if:
  - Not enough items left in the stack for the operator

[e.g., 523+\*+]

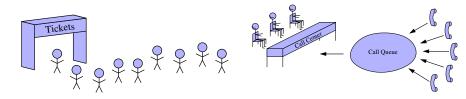
When finished, two or more numbers left in stack

[e.g., 53+6]

#### What is a Queue?



- A queue is a collection of objects.
- Objects in a *queue* are inserted and removed according to the *first-in, first-out (FIFO)* principle.
  - Each new element joins at the back/end of the queue.
  - · Cannot access arbitrary elements of a queue
  - Can only access or remove the least-recently inserted (or longest-waiting) element



#### The Queue ADT



```
• first
                                                             ≈ top of stack
                [ precondition: queue is not empty ]
                [ postcondition: return item first enqueued ]
• size
                [ precondition: none ]
                [ postcondition: return number of items enqueued ]

    isEmpty

                [ precondition: none ]
                [ postcondition: return whether there is no item in the gueue ]
enqueue(item)
                                                            ≈ push of stack
                [ precondition: queue is not full ]
                [ postcondition: enqueue item as the "last" of the queue ]

    dequeue

                                                             ≈ pop of stack
                [ precondition: queue is not empty ]
                [ postcondition: remove and return the first of the queue ]
```

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Operation	Return Value	Queue Contents
_	_	Ø
isEmpty	true	Ø
enqueue(5)	_	(5)
enqueue(3)	_	(5, 3)
enqueue(1)	_	(5, 3, 1)
size	3	(5, 3, 1)
dequeue	5	(3, 1)
dequeue	3	1
dequeue	1	Ø

#### **Generic Queue: Interface**



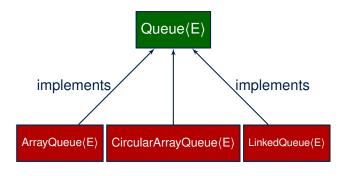
```
public interface Queue< E > {
   public int size();
   public boolean isEmpty();
   public E first();
   public void enqueue(E e);
   public E dequeue();
}
```

The **Queue** ADT, declared as an **interface**, allows **alternative implementations** to conform to its method headers.



#### **Generic Queue: Architecture**







# **Implementing Queue ADT: Array (1)**

```
public class ArrayQueue<E> implements Queue<E> {
 private final int MAX CAPACITY = 1000;
 private E[] data:
 private int r; /* rear index */
 public ArrayQueue() {
   data = (E[]) new Object[MAX_CAPACITY];
   r = -1;
 public int size() { return (r + 1); }
 public boolean isEmptv() { return (r == -1); }
 public E first() {
   if (isEmptv()) { /* Precondition Violated */ }
   else { return data[0]; }
 public void enqueue(E e) {
   if (size() == MAX CAPACITY) { /* Precondition Violated */ }
   else { r ++; data[r] = e; }
 public E dequeue() {
   if (isEmptv()) { /* Precondition Violated */ }
   else {
    E result = data[0]:
    for (int i = 0; i < r; i ++) { data[i] = data[i + 1]; }</pre>
    data[r] = null; r --;
    return result;
```

#### **Implementing Queue ADT: Array (2)**



• Running Times of Array-Based Queue Operations?

ArrayQueue Method	Running Time
size	O(1)
isEmpty	O(1)
first	O(1)
enqueue	O(1)
dequeue	<i>O</i> ( <i>n</i> )

- <u>Exercise</u> This version of implementation treats the <u>beginning</u> of array as the <u>first</u> of queue. Would the RTs of operations <u>change</u> if we treated the <u>end</u> of array as the <u>first</u> of queue?
- Q. What if the preset capacity turns out to be insufficient?
   A. IllegalArgumentException occurs and it takes O(1) time to respond.
- At the end, we will explore the alternative of a dynamic array.

#### Implementing Queue: Singly-Linked List (1) LASSONDE



```
public class LinkedQueue<E> implements Queue<E> {
   private SinglyLinkedList<E> list;
   ...
}
```

#### Question:

Queue Method	Singly-Linked List Method	
Queue Methou	Strategy 1	Strategy 2
size	list.	size
isEmpty	list.isEmpty	
first	list.first	list.last
enqueue	list.addLast	list.addFirst
dequeue	list.removeFirst	list.removeLast

Which implementation strategy should be chosen?



# Implementing Queue: Singly-Linked List (2)

- If the *front of list* is treated as the *first of queue*, then:
  - All queue operations remain O(1) [ ∵ removeFirst takes O(1) ]
- If the end of list is treated as the first of queue, then:
  - ∘ The *dequeue* operation takes O(n) [ : removeLast takes O(n) ]
- But in both cases, given that a linked, dynamic structure is used, no resizing is necessary!



### **Generic Queue: Testing Implementations**

```
aTest
public void testPolymorphicOueues() {
 Oueue<String> q = new ArravOueue<>();
 q.enqueue("Alan"); /* dynamic binding */
 g.enqueue("Mark"); /* dynamic binding */
 q.enqueue("Tom"); /* dynamic binding */
 assertTrue(q.size() == 3 && !q.isEmpty());
 assertEquals("Alan", q.first());
 \alpha = \text{new LinkedOueue} <> ();
 g.engueue("Alan"); /* dvnamic binding */
 g.engueue("Mark"); /* dynamic binding */
 g.enqueue("Tom"); /* dynamic binding */
 assertTrue(q.size() == 3 && !q.isEmpty());
 assertEquals("Alan", q.first());
```





```
Queue<String> myQueue;
myQueue = new CircularArrayQueue<String>();
myQueue.enqueue("Alan");
myQueue = new LinkedQueue<String>();
myQueue.enqueue("Alan");
```

Polymorphism

An object may change its "shape" (i.e., dynamic type) at runtime.

Which lines? 2, 4

Dynamic Binding

Effect of a method call depends on the "current shape" of the target object.

Which lines? 3, 5

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#### Implementing Queue ADT: Circular Array (1) LASSONDE



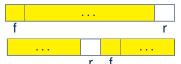
- Maintain two indices: f for front; r for next available slot.
- Maximum size: N 1

[N = data.length]

• Empty Queue: when r = f



- Full Queue: when ((r + 1) % N) = f
  - When r > f:
  - ∘ When *r* < *f*:



- Size of Queue:
  - $\circ$  If r = f: 0
  - $\circ$  If r > f: r f
  - $\circ \ \text{If } r < f : r + (N f)$



# Implementing Queue ADT: Circular Array (2) LASSONDE

Running Times of *CircularArray*-Based *Queue* Operations?

Circular Array Queue Method	Running Time
size	O(1)
isEmpty	O(1)
first	O(1)
enqueue	O(1)
dequeue	<i>O</i> (1)

Exercise: Create a Java class CircularArrayQueue that implements the Queue interface using a circular array.



# **Exercise:**

### Implementing a Queue using Two Stacks

```
public class StackOueue<E> implements Oueue<E> {
 private Stack<E> inStack;
 private Stack<E> outStack:
```

- For size, add up sizes of inStack and outStack.
- For <u>isEmpty</u>, are inStack and outStack both empty?
- For enqueue, push to inStack.
- For dequeue:
  - pop from outStack

If outStack is empty, we need to first pop all items from inStack and push them to outStack.

**Exercise**: Why does this work? [ implement and test ]

**Exercise**: Running Time? [ see analysis on *dynamic arrays* ]

#### **Limitations of Queue**



- Say we use a *queue* to implement a *waiting list*.
  - What if we dequeue the front customer, but find that we need to put them back to the front (e.g., seat is still not available, the table assigned is not satisfactory, etc.)?
  - What if the customer at the end of the queue decides not to wait and leave, how do we remove them from the end of the queue?
- Solution: A new ADT extending the Queue by supporting:
  - insertion to the front
  - deletion from the end



## The Double-Ended Queue ADT

• <u>Double-Ended Queue</u> (or <u>Deque</u>) is a <u>queue-like</u> data structure that supports *insertion* and *deletion* at both the *front* and the *end* of the queue.

```
public interface Deque<E> {
    /* Queue operations */
    public int size();
    public boolean isEmpty();
    public E first();
    public void addLast(E e); /* enqueue */
    public E removeFirst(); /* dequeue */
    /* Extended operations */
    public void addFirst(E e);
    public E removeLast();
}
```

- Exercise: Implement Deque using a circular array.
- Exercise: Implement Deque using a SLL and/or DLL.



## **Array Implementations: Stack and Queue**

 When implementing stack and queue via arrays, we imposed a maximum capacity:

```
public class ArrayStack<E> implements Stack<E> {
   private final int MAX_CAPACITY = 1000;
   private E[] data;
   ...
   public void push(E e) {
    if (size() == MAX_CAPACITY) { /* Precondition Violated */ }
    else { ... }
   }
   ...
}
```

```
public class ArrayQueue<E> implements Queue<E> {
   private final int MAX_CAPACITY = 1000;
   private E[] data;
   ...
   public void enqueue(E e) {
    if (size() == MAX_CAPACITY) { /* Precondition Violated */ }
    else { ...
   }
   ...
}
```

This made the push and enqueue operations both cost O(1).





## **Dynamic Array: Constant Increments**

Implement stack using a dynamic array resizing itself by a constant increment:

```
public class ArrayStack<E> implements Stack<E> 
 private int I;
 private int C:
 private int capacity;
 private E[] data;
 public ArravStack() {
   I = 1000; /* arbitrary initial size */
   C = 500; /* arbitrary fixed increment */
   capacity = I;
   data = (E[]) new Object[capacity];
   t = -1:
 public void push(E e) {
   if (size() == capacity)
    /* resizing by a fixed constant */
    E[] temp = (E[]) new Object[capacity + C];
    for (int i = 0; i < capacity; i ++) {
      temp[i] = data[i];
    data = temp:
    capacity = capacity + C
   data[t] = e;
```

- This alternative strategy resizes the array, whenever needed, by a constant amount.
- L17 L19 make push cost
   O(n), in the worst case.
- However, given that resizing only happens rarely, how about the average running time?
- We will refer L14 L22 as the <u>resizing</u> part and L23 – L24 as the <u>update</u> part.

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Implement stack using a dynamic array resizing itself by doubling:

```
public class ArravStack<E> implements Stack<E> {
 private int I;
 private int capacity;
 private E[] data:
 public ArrayStack() {
   I = 1000; /* arbitrary initial size */
   capacity = I;
   data = (E[]) new Object[capacity];
   t = -1:
 public void push(E e) {
   if (size() == capacity) {
    /* resizing by doubling */
    E[] temp = (E[]) new Object[capacity * 2];
    for (int i = 0; i < capacity; i ++) {
      temp[i] = data[i];
    data = temp;
    capacity = capacity * 2
   t++;
   data[t] = e;
```

- This alternative strategy resizes the array, whenever needed, by doubling its current size.
- L15 L17 make push cost
   O(n), in the worst case.
- However, given that resizing only happens rarely, how about the average running time?
- We will refer L12 L20 as the resizing part and L21 – L22 as the update part.

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## Avg. RT: Const. Increment vs. Doubling

 Without loss of generality, assume: There are n push operations, and the last push triggers the last resizing routine.

	Constant Increments	Doubling
RT of exec. update part for n pushes	<i>O</i> ( <i>n</i> )	
RT of executing 1st resizing	1	
RT of executing 2nd resizing	1 + C	2 · 1
RT of executing 3rd resizing	1 + 2 · C	4 · /
RT of executing 4th resizing	<i>I</i> + 3 · <i>C</i>	8 · /
RT of executing kth resizing	$I+(k-1)\cdot C$	2 <sup>k-1</sup> · I
RT of executing last resizing	n	
# of resizing needed (solve $k$ for $RT = n$ )	<i>O</i> ( <i>n</i> )	$O(log_2n)$
Total RT for <i>n</i> pushes	$O(n^2)$	<i>O</i> ( <i>n</i> )
Amortized/Average RT over <i>n</i> pushes	O(n)	O(1)

Over n push operations, the amortized average running time of the doubling strategy is more efficient.

# Beyond this lecture ...



- Attempt the exercises throughout the lecture.
- Implement the *Postfix Calculator* using a <u>stack</u>.

# Index (1)



Learning Outcomes of this Lecture

Background Study: Interfaces in Java

Terminology: Contract, Client, Supplier

Client, Supplier, Contract in OOP (1)

Client, Supplier, Contract in OOP (2)

Modularity (1): Childhood Activity

Modularity (2): Daily Construction

Modularity (3): Computer Architecture

Modularity (4): System Development

Modularity (5): Software Design

Design Principle: Modularity





Abstract Data Types (ADTs)

Java API Approximates ADTs (1)

Java API Approximates ADTs (2)

Building ADTs for Reusability

What is a Stack?

The Stack ADT

Stack: Illustration

Generic Stack: Interface

Generic Stack: Architecture

Implementing Stack: Array (1)

Implementing Stack: Array (2)

## Index (3)



Implementing Stack: Singly-Linked List (1)

Implementing Stack: Singly-Linked List (2)

Generic Stack: Testing Implementations

Polymorphism & Dynamic Binding

Stack Application: Reversing an Array

Stack Application: Matching Delimiters (1)

Stack Application: Matching Delimiters (2)

Stack Application: Postfix Notations (1)

Stack Application: Postfix Notations (2)

What is a Queue?

The Queue ADT

## Index (4)



Queue: Illustration

Generic Queue: Interface

Generic Queue: Architecture

Implementing Queue ADT: Array (1)

Implementing Queue ADT: Array (2)

Implementing Queue: Singly-Linked List (1)

Implementing Queue: Singly-Linked List (2)

Generic Queue: Testing Implementations

Polymorphism & Dynamic Binding

Implementing Queue ADT: Circular Array (1)

Implementing Queue ADT: Circular Array (2)



## Index (5)

Exercise:

Implementing a Queue using Two Stacks

Limitations of Queue

The Double-Ended Queue ADT

Array Implementations: Stack and Queue

Dynamic Array: Constant Increments

Dynamic Array: Doubling

Avg. RT: Const. Increment vs. Doubling

Beyond this lecture ...

### Recursion



EECS2011 N & Z: Fundamentals of Data Structures Winter 2022

CHEN-WEI WANG



## **Background Study: Basic Recursion**

- It is assumed that, in EECS2030, you learned about the basics of recursion in Java:
  - What makes a method recursive?
  - How to trace recursion using a *call stack*?
  - How to define and use recursive helper methods on arrays?
- If needed, review the above assumed basics from the relevant parts of EECS2030 (https://www.eecs.yorku.ca/~jackie/ teaching/lectures/index.html#EECS2030\_F21):
  - ∘ Parts A C, Lecture 8, Week 12

#### Tips.

- Skim the slides: watch lecture videos if needing explanations.
- Recursion lab from EECS2030-F19: here [Solution: here]
- Ask questions related to the assumed basics of recursion!
- Assuming that you know the basics of recursion in Java, we will proceed with more advanced examples.



## **Extra Challenging Recursion Problems**

- 1. groupSum
  - Problem Specification: here
  - Solution Walkthrough: here
  - Notes: here [pp. 7–10] & here
- 2. parenBit
  - Problem Specification: here
  - Solution Walkthrough: here
  - Notes: here [pp. 4–5]
- 3. climb
  - Problem Specification: here
  - Solution Walkthrough: here & here
  - Notes: here [pp. 7–8] & here [p. 4]
- 4. climbStrategies
  - Problem Specification: here
  - Solution Walkthrough: here
  - Notes: here [pp. 5 − 6]

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Solution: here

Solution: here

\_ \_ \_

Solution: here

Solution: *here* 





This module is designed to help you:

- Know about the resources on recursion basics.
- Learn about the more intermediate recursive algorithms:
  - o Binary Search
  - Merge Sort
  - Quick Sort
  - Tower of Hanoi
- Explore extra, *challenging* recursive problems.



## **Recursion: Binary Search (1)**

Searching Problem

Given a numerical key *k* and an array *a* of *n* numbers:

**Precondition**: Input array  $\underline{a}$  **sorted** in a non-descending order i.e.,  $a[0] \le a[1] \le ... \le a[n-1]$ 

**Postcondition**: Return whether or not  $\underline{k}$  exists in the input array  $\underline{a}$ .

- Q. RT of a search on an unsorted array?
  - A. O(n) (despite being <u>iterative</u> or <u>recursive</u>)
- A Recursive Solution

**Base** Case: Empty array  $\longrightarrow$  *false*.

**Recursive** Case: Array of size  $\geq 1 \longrightarrow$ 

- $\circ$  Compare the *middle* element of array <u>a</u> against key <u>k</u>.
  - All elements to the <u>left</u> of *middle* are  $\leq k$
  - All elements to the <u>right</u> of *middle* are  $\ge k$
- $\circ$  If the *middle* element *is* equal to key  $\underline{k} \longrightarrow true$
- If the *middle* element *is not* equal to key  $\underline{k}$ :
  - If k < middle, recursively search key  $\underline{k}$  on the left half.
  - If k > middle, recursively search key  $k \in \mathbb{R}$  on the right half.



## **Recursion: Binary Search (2)**

```
boolean binarySearch(int[] sorted, int key) {
 return binarySearchH(sorted, 0, sorted.length - 1, key);
boolean binarySearchH(int[] sorted, int from, int to, int key) {
 if (from > to) { /* base case 1: empty range */
  return false:
 else if(from == to) { /* base case 2: range of one element */
  return sorted[from] == kev; }
 else {
   int middle = (from + to) / 2:
   int middleValue = sorted[middle];
   if(key < middleValue) {</pre>
    return binarySearchH(sorted, from, middle - 1, key);
   else if (kev > middleValue) {
    return binarySearchH(sorted, middle + 1, to, kev);
   else { return true; }
```



## **Running Time: Binary Search (1)**

We define T(n) as the *running time function* of a *binary search*, where n is the size of the input array.

$$\begin{cases} T(0) = 1 \\ T(1) = 1 \\ T(n) = T(\frac{n}{2}) + 1 \text{ where } n \ge 2 \end{cases}$$

To solve this recurrence relation, we study the pattern of T(n) and observe how it reaches the **base case(s)**.



## **Running Time: Binary Search (2)**

Without loss of generality, assume  $n = 2^i$  for some  $i \ge 0$ .

$$T(n) = T(\frac{n}{2}) + 1$$

$$= (T(\frac{n}{4}) + 1) + \underbrace{1}_{1 \text{ time}}$$

$$= ((T(\frac{n}{8}) + 1) + \underbrace{1}_{2 \text{ times}}$$

$$= \dots$$

$$= (((\underbrace{1}_{2\log n}) = T(1)) + \underbrace{1}_{\log n \text{ times}}$$

T(n) is  $O(\log n)$ 

## **Recursion: Merge Sort**



#### Sorting Problem

Given a list of **n** numbers  $\langle a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n \rangle$ :

**Precondition: NONE** 

**Postcondition**: A permutation of the input list  $(a'_1, a'_2, ..., a'_n)$ 

**sorted** in a non-descending order (i.e.,  $a'_1 \le a'_2 \le ... \le a'_n$ )

### A Recursive Algorithm

<u>Base</u> Case 1: Empty list → Automatically sorted.

**Base** Case 2: List of size  $1 \longrightarrow$  Automatically sorted.

**Recursive Case**: List of size  $\geq 2 \longrightarrow$ 

- Split the list into two (unsorted) halves: L and R.
- 2. Recursively sort L and R, resulting in: sortedL and sortedR.
- 3. Return the *merge* of *sortedL* and *sortedR*.



## **Recursion: Merge Sort in Java (1)**

```
/* Assumption: L and R are both already sorted. */
private List<Integer> merge(List<Integer> L, List<Integer> R) {
 List<Integer> merge = new ArrayList<>();
 if(L.isEmpty() | | R.isEmpty()) { merge.addAll(L); merge.addAll(R); }
 else -
  int i = 0;
   int i = 0;
  while(i < L.size() && j < R.size()) {
    if(L.qet(i) <= R.qet(j)) { merge.add(L.qet(i)); i ++; }
    else { merge.add(R.get(j)); j ++; }
  /* If i >= L.size(), then this for loop is skipped. */
   for (int k = i; k < L.size(); k ++) { merge.add(L.get(k)); }
   /* If j >= R.size(), then this for loop is skipped. */
   for (int k = j; k < R.size(); k ++) { merge.add(R.get(k)); }
 return merge;
```

RT(merge)?

[ O( L.size() + R.size() ) ]



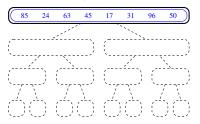
## **Recursion: Merge Sort in Java (2)**

```
public List<Integer> sort(List<Integer> list) {
 List<Integer> sortedList;
 if(list.size() == 0) { sortedList = new ArravList<>(); }
 else if(list.size() == 1) {
   sortedList = new ArrayList<>();
   sortedList.add(list.get(0)):
 else ·
   int middle = list.size() / 2;
   List<Integer> left = list.subList(0, middle);
   List<Integer> right = list.subList(middle, list.size());
  List<Integer> sortedLeft = sort(left);
   List<Integer> sortedRight = sort(right);
   sortedList = merge (sortedLeft, sortedRight);
 return sortedList:
```

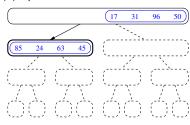
# LASSONDE

## **Recursion: Merge Sort Example (1)**

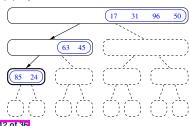




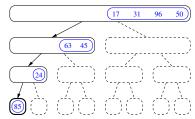
#### (2) Split and recur on L of size 4



#### (3) Split and recur on L of size 2

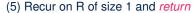


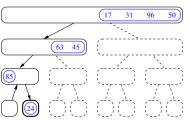
### (4) Split and recur on L of size 1, return



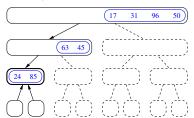
## **Recursion: Merge Sort Example (2)**



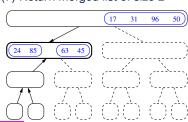




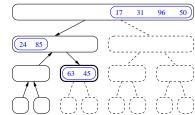
#### (6) Merge sorted L and R of sizes 1



### (7) Return merged list of size 2

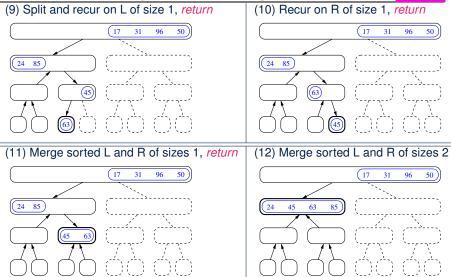


### (8) Recur on R of size 2



## **Recursion: Merge Sort Example (3)**

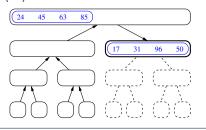




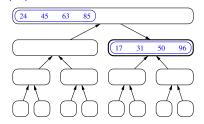
# **Recursion: Merge Sort Example (4)**



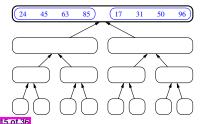




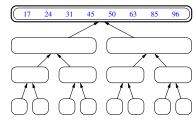
#### (14) Return a sorted list of size 4



(15) Merge sorted L and R of sizes 4



(16) Return a sorted list of size 8

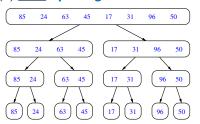


# LASSONDE

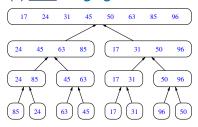
## **Recursion: Merge Sort Example (5)**

Let's visualize the two critical phases of merge sort:

#### (1) After **Splitting Unsorted** Lists

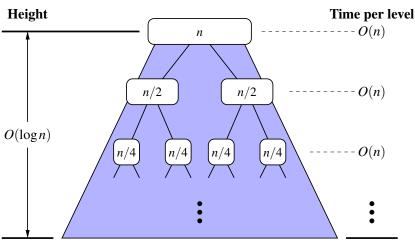


#### (2) After *Merging Sorted* Lists



# LASSONDE

## **Recursion: Merge Sort Running Time (1)**



**Total time:**  $O(n \log n)$ 



## Recursion: Merge Sort Running Time (2)

- <u>Base</u> Case 1: Empty list → Automatically sorted. [ *O(1)* ]
- <u>Base</u> Case 2: List of size 1 → Automatically sorted. [ *O(1)* ]
- Recursive Case: List of size ≥ 2 →
  - 1. Split the list into two (unsorted) halves: L and R; [O(1)]
  - 2. Recursively sort L and R, resulting in: sortedL and sortedR
  - Q. # times to **split** until **L** and **R** have size 0 or 1?
    - <u>A</u>. [ *O(log n)* ]
  - 3. Return the merge of sortedL and sortedR. [O(n)]
  - **Running Time of Merge Sort** 
    - $\times$  (RT each RC)  $\times$  (# RCs)
    - =  $(RT \text{ merging } sortedL \text{ and } sortedR) \times (\# \text{ splits until bases})$
    - $= O(n \cdot log n)$



## **Recursion: Merge Sort Running Time (3)**

We define T(n) as the *running time function* of a *merge sort*, where n is the size of the input array.

$$\begin{cases} T(0) = 1 \\ T(1) = 1 \\ T(n) = 2 \cdot T(\frac{n}{2}) + n \text{ where } n \ge 2 \end{cases}$$

To solve this recurrence relation, we study the pattern of T(n) and observe how it reaches the **base case(s)**.

# LASSONDE

## **Recursion: Merge Sort Running Time (4)**

*Without loss of generality*, assume  $n = 2^i$  for some  $i \ge 0$ .

$$T(n) = 2 \times T(\frac{n}{2}) + n$$

$$= 2 \times (2 \times T(\frac{n}{4}) + \frac{n}{2}) + n$$

$$= 2 \times (2 \times T(\frac{n}{4}) + \frac{n}{2}) + n$$

$$= 2 \times (2 \times (2 \times T(\frac{n}{8}) + \frac{n}{4}) + \frac{n}{2}) + n$$

$$= 3 \text{ terms}$$

$$= \dots$$

$$= 2 \times (2 \times (2 \times \dots \times (2 \times T(\frac{n}{2\log n}) + \frac{n}{2(\log n) - 1}) + \dots + \frac{n}{4}) + \frac{n}{2}) + n$$

$$= 2 \cdot \frac{n}{2} + 2^2 \cdot \frac{n}{4} + \dots + 2^{(\log n) - 1} \cdot \frac{n}{2(\log n) - 1} + \frac{n}{2\log n \cdot \frac{n}{2\log n}}$$

$$= n + n + \dots + n + n$$

$$= n + n + \dots + n + n$$

loa n terms

# LASSONDE

## **Recursion: Quick Sort**

### Sorting Problem

Given a list of **n** numbers  $\langle a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n \rangle$ :

**Precondition: NONE** 

**Postcondition**: A permutation of the input list  $(a'_1, a'_2, \ldots, a'_n)$ 

**sorted** in a <u>non-descending</u> order (i.e.,  $a'_1 \le a'_2 \le ... \le a'_n$ )

#### A Recursive Algorithm

<u>Base</u> Case 1: Empty list → Automatically sorted.

**Base** Case 2: List of size  $1 \longrightarrow$  Automatically sorted.

#### **Recursive Case**: List of size $\geq 2 \longrightarrow$

1. Choose a *pivot* element.

[ ideally the *median* ]

- 2. Split the list into two (unsorted) halves: L and R, s.t.:
  All elements in L are less than or equal to (≤) the pivot.
  All elements in R are greater than (>) the pivot.
- 3. Recursively sort L and R: sortedL and sortedR;
- **4.** Return the *concatenation* of: *sortedL* + *pivot* + *sortedR*.



## **Recursion: Quick Sort in Java (1)**

```
List<Integer> allLessThanOrEqualTo(int pivotIndex, List<Integer> list)
 List<Integer> sublist = new ArrayList<>():
 int pivotValue = list.get(pivotIndex);
 for(int i = 0; i < list.size(); i ++) {</pre>
  int v = list.get(i);
   if(i != pivotIndex && v <= pivotValue) { sublist.add(v); }</pre>
 return sublist;
List<Integer> allLargerThan(int pivotIndex, List<Integer> list) {
 List<Integer> sublist = new ArrayList<>();
 int pivotValue = list.get(pivotIndex);
 for(int i = 0; i < list.size(); i ++) {</pre>
   int v = list.qet(i);
   if(i != pivotIndex && v > pivotValue) { sublist.add(v); }
 return sublist;
```

```
RT(allLessThanOrEqualTo)? RT(allLargerThan)?
```

[ *O(n)* ] [ *O(n)* ]



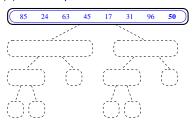
## **Recursion: Quick Sort in Java (2)**

```
public List<Integer> sort(List<Integer> list) {
 List<Integer> sortedList;
 if(list.size() == 0) { sortedList = new ArravList<>(); }
 else if(list.size() == 1) {
   sortedList = new ArrayList<>(); sortedList.add(list.get(0)); }
 else {
   int pivotIndex = list.size() - 1;
   int pivotValue = list.get(pivotIndex);
   List<Integer> left = allLessThanOrEqualTo (pivotIndex, list);
   List<Integer> right = allLargerThan (pivotIndex, list);
   List<Integer> sortedLeft = sort(left);
   List<Integer> sortedRight = sort(right);
   sortedList = new ArrayList<>();
   sortedList.addAll(sortedLeft):
   sortedList.add(pivotValue);
   sortedList.addAll(sortedRight);
 return sortedList:
```

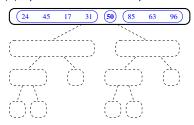
## **Recursion: Quick Sort Example (1)**



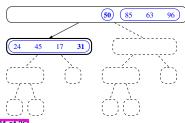




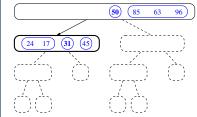
(2) Split w.r.t. the chosen pivot 50



(3) Recur on L of size 4, choose pivot 31



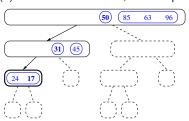
(4) Split w.r.t. the chosen pivot 31



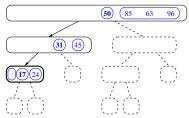
## **Recursion: Quick Sort Example (2)**



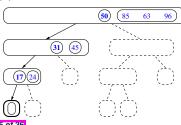
(5) Recur on L of size 2, choose pivot 17



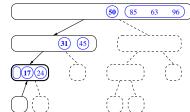
(6) Split w.r.t. the chosen pivot 17



(7) Recur on L of size 0



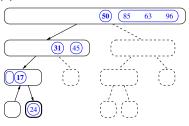
(8) Return empty list



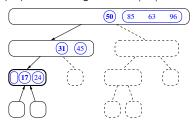
# **Recursion: Quick Sort Example (3)**



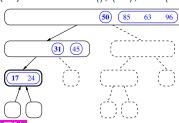
(9) Recur on R of size 1



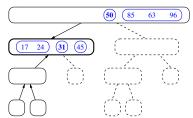
(10) Return singleton list (24)



(11) Concatenate  $\langle \rangle$ ,  $\langle 17 \rangle$ , and  $\langle 24 \rangle$ 



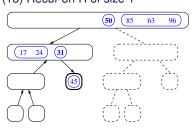
(12) Return concatenated list of size 2



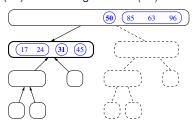
### **Recursion: Quick Sort Example (4)**



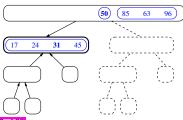




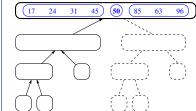
(14) Return singleton list (45)



(15) Concatenate  $\langle 17, 24 \rangle$ ,  $\langle 31 \rangle$ , and  $\langle 45 \rangle$ 



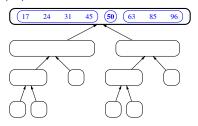
(16) Return concatenated list of size 4



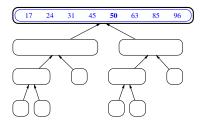
### **Recursion: Quick Sort Example (5)**







#### (16) Return sorted list of size 3

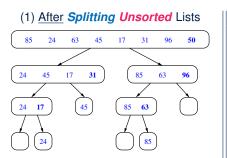


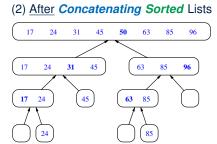
(17) Concatenate  $\langle 17, 24, 31, 45 \rangle$ ,  $\langle 50 \rangle$ , and  $\langle 63, 85, 96 \rangle$ , then *return* 

# LASSONDE

### **Recursion: Quick Sort Example (6)**

Let's visualize the two critical phases of quick sort:

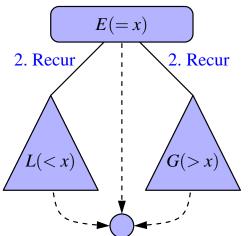






# **Recursion: Quick Sort Running Time (1)**

### 1. Split using pivot *x*





### **Recursion: Quick Sort Running Time (2)**

- Base Case 1: Empty list → Automatically sorted. [O(1)]
  Base Case 2: List of size 1 → Automatically sorted. [O(1)]
  Recursive Case: List of size ≥ 2 →

  1. Choose a *pivot* element (e.g., rightmost element) [O(1)]
  2. Split the list into two (unsorted) halves: L and R, s.t.:

  All elements in L are less than or equal to (≤) the pivot. [O(n)]
  All elements in R are greater than (>) the pivot. [O(n)]
  - 3. Recursively sort L and R: sortedL and sortedR;
    - Q. # times to split until L and R have size 0 or 1?
    - A. O(log n) [ if pivots chosen are close to median values ]
  - **4.** Return the *concatenation* of: *sortedL* + *pivot* + *sortedR*. [ *O*(1) ]

### **Running Time of Quick Sort**

- = (RT each RC) × (# RCs)
- =  $(\mathbf{RT} \text{ splitting into } \mathbf{L} \text{ and } \mathbf{R}) \times (\# \text{ splits until bases})$
- $= O(n \cdot log n)$

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### **Recursion: Quick Sort Running Time (3)**

- We define *T(n)* as the *running time function* of a *quick sort*, where *n* is the size of the input array.
- Worst Case
  - If the pivot is s.t. the two sub-arrays are "unbalanced" in sizes:
    - e.g., rightmost element in a reverse-sorted array

("unbalanced" splits/partitions: 0 vs. n – 1 elements)

$$\begin{cases} T(0) &= 1 \\ T(1) &= 1 \\ T(n) &= T(n-1) + n \text{ where } n \ge 2 \end{cases}$$

As <u>efficient</u> as <u>Selection/Insertion</u> Sorts: O(n²)

[ EXERCISE ]

• Best Case

If the pivot is s.t. it is close to the *median* value:

$$\begin{cases} T(0) &= 1 \\ T(1) &= 1 \\ T(n) &= 2 \cdot T(\frac{n}{2}) + n \text{ where } n \ge 2 \end{cases}$$

- ∘ As efficient as Merge Sort: O(n · log n)
- Even with partitions such as  $\frac{n}{10}$  vs.  $\frac{9 \cdot n}{10}$  elements, RT remains  $O(n \cdot log n)$ .





Notes on Recursion:

```
https://www.eecs.yorku.ca/~jackie/teaching/
Lectures/2021/F/EECS2030/notes/EECS2030 F21
Notes Recursion.pdf
```

notes Recursion.pur

 The <u>best</u> approach to learning about recursion is via a functional programming language:

Haskell Tutorial: https://www.haskell.org/tutorial/

### Index (1)



Background Study: Basic Recursion

Extra Challenging Recursion Problems

Learning Outcomes of this Lecture

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Recursion: Binary Search (2)

Running Time: Binary Search (1)

Running Time: Binary Search (2)

Recursion: Merge Sort

Recursion: Merge Sort in Java (1)

Recursion: Merge Sort in Java (2)

Recursion: Merge Sort Example (1)

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Recursion: Merge Sort Example (3)

Recursion: Merge Sort Example (4)

Recursion: Merge Sort Example (5)

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Recursion: Quick Sort Example (6)

Recursion: Quick Sort Running Time (1)

Recursion: Quick Sort Running Time (2)

Recursion: Quick Sort Running Time (3)

Beyond this lecture ...

# **General Trees and Binary Trees**



EECS2011 N & Z: Fundamentals of Data Structures Winter 2022

CHEN-WEI WANG



### **Learning Outcomes of this Lecture**

This module is designed to help you understand:

- Linar DS (e.g., arrays, LLs) vs. Non-Linear DS (e.g., trees)
- Terminologies: General Trees vs. Binary Trees
- Implementation of a Generic Tree
- Mathematical Properties of Binary Trees
- Tree *Traversals*

### **General Trees**

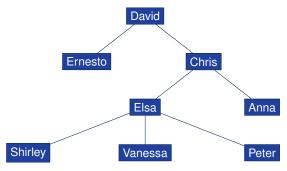


- A *linear* data structure is a sequence, where stored objects can be related via notions of "predecessor" and "successor".
  - e.g., arrays
  - e.g., Singly-Linked Lists (SLLs)
  - e.g., Doubly-Linked Lists (DLLs)
- The *Tree ADT* is a *non-linear* collection of nodes/positions.
  - Each node stores some data object.
  - Nodes in a tree are organized into levels: some nodes are "above" others, and some are "below" others.
  - Think of a tree forming a hierarchy among the stored nodes.
- Terminology of the *Tree ADT* borrows that of *family trees*:
  - o e.g., root
  - o e.g., parents, siblings, children
  - o e.g., ancestors, descendants





# **General Trees: Terminology (1)**



- top element of the tree
   e.g., root of the above family tree: David
- the node immediately above node n e.g., parent of Vanessa: Elsa
- all nodes <u>immediately below</u> node n
   e.g., children of Elsa: Shirley, Vanessa, and Peter
   e.g., children of Ernesto: Ø

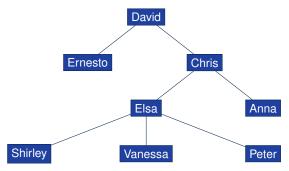
[ root of tree ]

[ parent of n ]

[ children of n ]



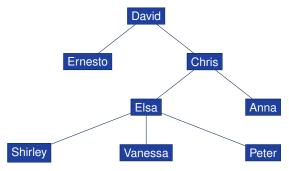
# **General Trees: Terminology (2)**



- Union of n, n's parent, n's grand parent, ..., root [n's ancestors]
   e.g., ancestors of Vanessa: Vanessa, Elsa, Chris, and David
   e.g., ancestors of David: David
- Union of n, n's children, n's grand children, ... [ n's descendants ]
   e.g., descendants of Vanessa: Vanessa
   e.g., descendants of David: the entire family tree
- By the above definitions, a node is both its ancestor and descendant.

# LASSONDE

# General Trees: Terminology (3)



- all nodes with the same parent as n's e.g., siblings of Vanessa: Shirley and Peter
- the tree formed by descendants of n
- nodes with no children
  - e.g., leaves of the above tree: Ernesto, Anna, Shirley, Vanessa, Peter
- nodes with at least one child
- e.g., non-leaves of the above tree: David, Chris, Elsa

[ siblings of node n ]

[ subtree rooted at n ]

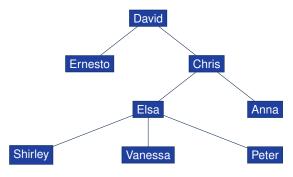
[ external nodes (leaves) ]

[ internal nodes ]

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### **General Trees: Terminology (4)**



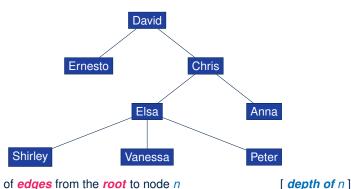
o a <u>pair</u> of *parent* and *child* nodes

- [ an edge of tree ]
- e.g., (David, Chris), (Chris, Elsa), (Elsa, Peter) are three edges
- a sequence of nodes where any two consecutive nodes form an edge
  - [ a path of tree ]
  - e.g., 〈 David, Chris, Elsa, Peter 〉 is a path
  - e.g., Elsa's ancestor path: ( Elsa, Chris, David )





# **General Trees: Terminology (5)**

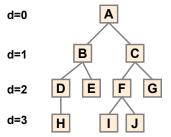


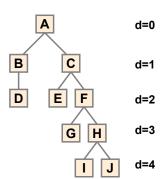
- number of *edges* from the *root* to node *n* <u>alternatively</u>: number of *n*'s *ancestors* of *n* minus one
   e.g., depth of David (root): 0
  - e.g., depth of Shirley, Vanessa, and Peter: 3
- <u>maximum</u> <u>depth</u> among all nodes [ <u>height of tree</u> ]
   e.g., Shirley, Vanessa, and Peter have the maximum depth

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# **General Trees: Example Node Depths**







### **General Tree: Definition**

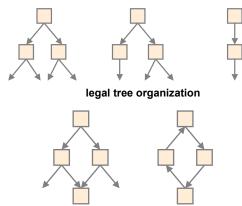


- A *tree T* is a set of *nodes* satisfying **parent-child** properties:
  - **1.** If *T* is *empty*, then it does not contain any nodes.
  - **2.** If *T* is *nonempty*, then:
    - T contains at least its root (a special node with no parent).
    - Each node <u>n</u> of T that is <u>not</u> the root has <u>a unique parent node w</u>.
    - Given two nodes  $\underline{n}$  and  $\underline{w}$ , if  $\underline{w}$  is the *parent* of  $\underline{n}$ , then **symmetrically**,  $\underline{n}$  is one of  $\underline{w}$ 's *children*.



### **General Tree: Important Characteristics**

There is a *single, unique path* from the *root* to any particular node in the same tree.

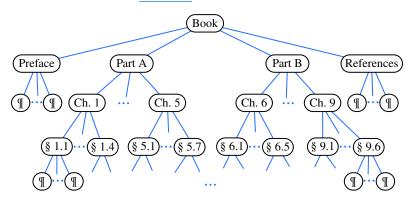


illegal tree organization (nontrees)

### **General Trees: Ordered Trees**



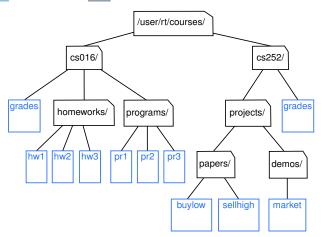
A tree is *ordered* if there is a meaningful *linear order* among the *children* of each *internal node*.





### **General Trees: Unordered Trees**

A tree is *unordered* if the order among the *children* of each *internal node* does **not** matter.







# **Implementation: Generic Tree Nodes (1)**

```
public class TreeNode<E> {
     private E element: /* data object */
     private TreeNode<E> parent; /* unique parent node */
     private TreeNode<E>[] children: /* list of child nodes */
     private final int MAX NUM CHILDREN = 10; /* fixed max */
     private int noc: /* number of child nodes */
     public TreeNode(E element) {
10
       this.element = element:
11
       this.parent = null;
12
       this.children = (TreeNode<E>[])
13
        Array.newInstance(this.getClass(), MAX_NUM_CHILDREN);
14
       this, noc = 0:
15
16
17
```

Replacing **L13** with the following results in a **ClassCastException**:

```
this.children = (TreeNode<E>[]) new Object[MAX_NUM_CHILDREN];
40147
```



# Implementation: Generic Tree Nodes (2)

```
public class TreeNode<E> {
 private E element; /* data object */
 private TreeNode<E> parent; /* unique parent node */
 private TreeNode<E>[] children; /* list of child nodes */
 private final int MAX NUM CHILDREN = 10; /* fixed max */
 private int noc: /* number of child nodes */
 public E getElement() { ... }
 public TreeNode<E> getParent() { ... }
 public TreeNode<E>[] getChildren() { ... }
 public void setElement(E element) { ... }
 public void setParent(TreeNode<E> parent) { ... }
 public void addChild(TreeNode<E> child) { ... }
 public void removeChildAt(int i) { ... }
```

Exercise: Implement void removeChildAt (int i).





### **Testing: Connected Tree Nodes**

Constructing a *tree* is similar to constructing a *SLL*:

```
aTest
public void test general trees construction() {
 TreeNode<String> agnarr = new TreeNode<> ("Agnarr");
 TreeNode<String> elsa = new TreeNode<>("Elsa");
 TreeNode<String> anna = new TreeNode<>("Anna");
 agnarr.addChild(elsa);
 agnarr.addChild(anna);
 elsa.setParent(agnarr):
 anna.setParent(agnarr);
 assertNull(agnarr.getParent());
 assertTrue(agnarr == elsa.getParent());
 assertTrue(agnarr == anna.getParent());
 assertTrue(agnarr.getChildren().length == 2);
 assertTrue(agnarr.getChildren()[0] == elsa);
 assertTrue(agnarr.getChildren()[1] == anna);
```



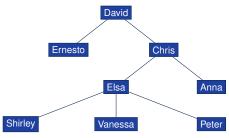
### **Problem: Computing a Node's Depth**

- Given a node n, its depth is defined as:
  - If *n* is the *root*, then *n*'s depth is 0.
  - Otherwise, n's depth is the depth of n's parent plus one.
- Assuming under a generic class TreeUtilities<E>:

```
public int depth(TreeNode<E> n) {
   if(n.getParent() == null) {
      return 0;
   }
   else {
      return 1 + depth(n.getParent());
   }
}
```



### Testing: Computing a Node's Depth



```
@Test
public void test_general_trees_depths() {
    ... /* constructing a tree as shown above */
    TreeUtilities\String\* u = new TreeUtilities\\();
    assertEquals(0, u.depth(david));
    assertEquals(1, u.depth(ernesto));
    assertEquals(1, u.depth(chris));
    assertEquals(2, u.depth(elsa));
    assertEquals(2, u.depth(anna));
    assertEquals(3, u.depth(shirley));
    assertEquals(3, u.depth(vanessa));
    assertEquals(3, u.depth(vanessa));
    assertEquals(3, u.depth(peter));
}
```



### **Unfolding: Computing a Node's Depth**

```
David
                         Chris
         Ernesto
                  Elsa
                                Anna
  Shirley
                Vanessa
                                Peter
   depth(vanessa)
= { vanessa.getParent() == elsa }
   1 + depth(elsa)
= { elsa.getParent() == chris }
   1 + 1 + depth(chris)
= { chris.getParent() == david }
   1 + 1 + 1 + depth(David)
= { David is the root }
   1 + 1 + 1 + 0
```



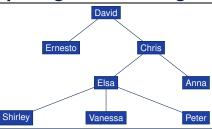
### **Problem: Computing a Tree's Height**

- Given node *n*, the *height* of subtree <u>rooted at *n*</u> is defined as:
  - If n is a *leaf*, then the *height* of subtree rooted at n is 0.
  - Otherwise, the height of subtree rooted at n is one plus the maximum height of all subtrees rooted at n's children.
- Assuming under a generic class TreeUtilities<E>:

```
public int height(TreeNode<E> n) {
      TreeNode < E > [] children = n.getChildren();
      if(children.length == 0) { return 0; }
     else {
 5
       int max = 0;
 6
       for (int i = 0; i < children.length; <math>i ++) {
         int h = 1 + height(children[i]);
8
         max = h > max ? h : max:
9
10
       return max;
11
12
```



### **Testing: Computing a Tree's Height**

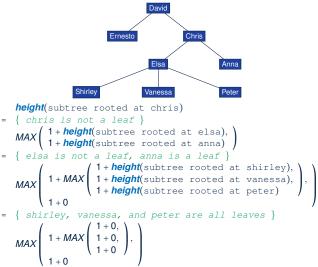


```
@Test
public void test_general_trees_heights() {
    ... /* constructing a tree as shown above */
    TreeUtilities<String> u = new TreeUtilities<>();
    /* internal nodes */
    assertEquals(3, u.height(david));
    assertEquals(2, u.height(chris));
    assertEquals(1, u.height(elsa));
    /* external nodes */
    assertEquals(0, u.height(ernesto));
    assertEquals(0, u.height(anna));
    assertEquals(0, u.height(shirley));
    assertEquals(0, u.height(vanessa));
    assertEquals(0, u.height(vanessa));
    assertEquals(0, u.height(peter));
}
```

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# LASSONDE

### **Unfolding: Computing a Tree's Height**







• Implement and test the following *recursive* algorithm:

```
public TreeNode<E>[] ancestors(TreeNode<E> n)
```

which returns the list of ancestors of a given node n.

• <u>Implement</u> and <u>test</u> the following *recursive* algorithm:

```
public TreeNode<E>[] descendants(TreeNode<E> n)
```

which returns the list of *descendants* of a given node n.





### A binary tree (BT) is an ordered tree satisfying the following:

- **1.** Each node has **at most two** ( $\leq$  2) children.
- 2. Each *child node* is labeled as either a *left child* or a *right child*.
- 3. A <u>left child</u> precedes a <u>right child</u>.

### A binary tree (BT) is either:

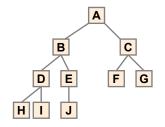
- An *empty* tree; or
- A *nonempty* tree with a *root* node *r* which has:
  - a <u>left subtree</u> rooted at its *left child*, if any
  - a <u>right subtree</u> rooted at its <u>right child</u>, if any



### BT Terminology: LST vs. RST

For an *internal* node (with <u>at least</u> one child):

- Subtree <u>rooted</u> at its *left child*, if any, is called *left subtree*.
- Subtree <u>rooted</u> at its *right child*, if any, is called *right subtree*.
   e.g.,



### Node A has:

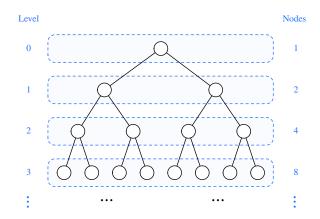
- a *left subtree* rooted at node <u>B</u>
- a right subtree rooted at node <u>C</u>

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#### **BT Terminology: Depths, Levels**

The set of nodes with the same depth d are said to be at the same level d.





# LASSONDE

## **Background: Sum of Geometric Sequence**

• Given a *geometric sequence* of *n* terms, where the initial term is *a* and the common factor is *r*, the *sum* of all its terms is:

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (a \cdot r^k) = a \cdot r^0 + a \cdot r^1 + a \cdot r^2 + \dots + a \cdot r^{n-1} = a \cdot \left(\frac{r^n - 1}{r - 1}\right)$$

[ See **here** to see how the formula is derived. ]

- For the purpose of binary trees, maximum numbers of nodes at all levels form a geometric sequence:
  - a = 1 [the **root** at **Level 0**]
  - $\circ r = 2$  [  $\leq 2$  children for each *internal* node ]
  - e.g., Max total # of nodes at levels 0 to  $4 = 1 + 2 + 4 + 8 + 16 = 1 \cdot (\frac{2^5 1}{2 1}) = 31$



#### BT Properties: Max # Nodes at Levels

#### Given a binary tree with height h:

At each level:

Summing all levels:

- Maximum number of nodes at Level 0:
- Maximum number of nodes at Level 1:
- Maximum number of nodes at Level 2:
- Maximum number of nodes at Level h:

 $2^h$ 

 $2^0 = 1$ 

 $2^1 = 2$ 

 $2^2 = 4$ 

**Maximum** total number of nodes:

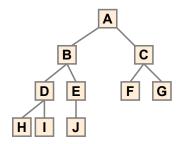
$$\underbrace{2^0 + 2^1 + 2^2 + \dots + 2^h}_{h+1 \text{ terms}} = 1 \cdot \left(\frac{2^{h+1} - 1}{2 - 1}\right) = 2^{h+1} - 1$$



#### **BT Terminology: Complete BTs**

A binary tree with height h is considered as complete if:

- Nodes with  $depth \le h 2$  has two children.
- Nodes with depth h − 1 may have zero, one, or two child nodes.
- Children of nodes with depth h 1 are filled from left to right.



**Q1:** *Minimum* # of nodes of a *complete* BT?  $(2^h - 1) + 1 = 2^h$ 

**Q2:** Maximum # of nodes of a complete BT?  $2^{h+1} - 1$ 

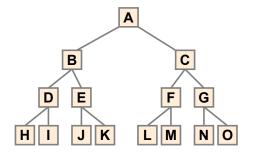


#### BT Terminology: Full BTs

A binary tree with height h is considered as full if:

Each node with  $depth \le h - 1$  has two child nodes.

That is, <u>all *leaves*</u> are with the same *depth* h.



**Q1:** *Minimum* # of nodes of a complete BT?  $2^{h+1} - 1$ 

**Q2:** *Maximum* # of nodes of a complete BT?  $2^{h+1}$  –



## **BT Properties: Bounding # of Nodes**

Given a binary tree with height h, the number of nodes n is bounded as:

$$h+1 \le n \le 2^{h+1}-1$$

- Shape of BT with *minimum* # of nodes?
   A "one-path" tree (each *internal node* has exactly one child)
- Shape of BT with maximum # of nodes?
   A tree completely filled at each level



#### **BT Properties: Bounding Height of Tree**

Given a *binary tree* with *n nodes*, the *height h* is bounded as:

$$log(n+1)-1 \le h \le n-1$$

Shape of BT with *minimum* height?

A tree completely filled at each level

$$n = 2^{h+1} - 1$$

$$\iff n+1 = 2^{h+1}$$

$$\iff log(n+1) = h+1$$

$$\iff log(n+1) - 1 = h$$

Shape of BT with maximum height?

A "one-path" tree (each internal node has exactly one child)



# BT Properties: Bounding # of Ext. Nodes

Given a binary tree with height h, the number of external nodes  $n_E$  is bounded as:

$$1 \leq n_E \leq 2^h$$

- Shape of BT with minimum # of external nodes?
   A tree with only one node (i.e., the root)
- Shape of BT with maximum # of external nodes?
   A tree whose bottom level (with depth h) is completely filled



#### BT Properties: Bounding # of Int. Nodes

Given a binary tree with height h, the number of internal nodes  $n_l$  is bounded as:

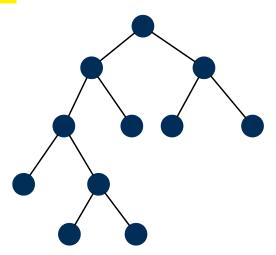
$$h \le n_l \le 2^h - 1$$

- Shape of BT with minimum # of internal nodes?
  - Number of nodes in a "one-path" tree (h + 1) minus one
  - That is, the "deepest" leaf node excluded
- Shape of BT with maximum # of internal nodes?
  - A tree whose  $\leq h 1$  *levels* are all completely filled
  - That is:  $2^0 + 2^1 + \dots + 2^{h-1} = 2^h 1$



#### **BT Terminology: Proper BT**

A binary tree is proper if each internal node has two children.





#### BT Properties: #s of Ext. and Int. Nodes

#### Given a binary tree that is:

- o nonempty and proper
- with n<sub>l</sub> internal nodes and n<sub>E</sub> external nodes

We can then expect that:  $n_E = n_I + 1$ 

#### Proof by *mathematical induction*:

#### Base Case:

A *proper* BT with only the *root* (an *external node*):  $n_E = 1$  and  $n_I = 0$ .

#### • Inductive Case:

- Assume a proper BT with n nodes (n > 1) with n<sub>1</sub> internal nodes and n<sub>E</sub> external nodes such that n<sub>E</sub> = n<sub>I</sub> + 1.
- Only one way to create a <u>larger</u> BT (with n + 2 nodes) that is still **proper** (with  $\mathbf{n'_E}$  external nodes and  $\mathbf{n'_i}$  internal nodes):

Convert an external node into an internal node.

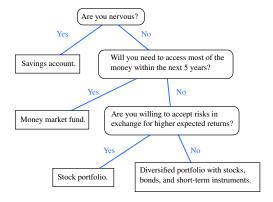
$$\mathbf{n}'_{\mathsf{E}} = (n_{\mathsf{E}} - 1) + 2 = n_{\mathsf{E}} + 1 \land \mathbf{n}'_{\mathsf{I}} = n_{\mathsf{I}} + 1 \Rightarrow \mathbf{n}'_{\mathsf{E}} = \mathbf{n}'_{\mathsf{E}} + 1$$



## **Binary Trees: Application (1)**

A *decision tree* is a <u>proper</u> binary tree used to to express the decision-making process:

- Each internal node denotes a decision point: yes or no.
- Each external node denotes the consequence of a decision.



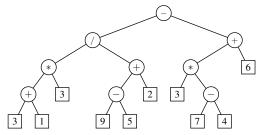


#### **Binary Trees: Application (2)**



An *infix arithmetic expression* can be represented using a binary tree:

- Each internal node denotes an operator (unary or binary).
- Each external node denotes an operand (i.e., a number).



 To evaluate the expression that is represented by a binary tree, certain traversal over the entire tree is required.





#### **Tree Traversal Algorithms: Definition**

- A traversal of a tree T systematically visits all T's nodes.
- Visiting each node may be associated with an action: e.g.,
  - Print the node element.
  - Determine if the node element satisfies certain property
     (e.g., positive, matching a key).
  - Accumulate the node element values for some global result.



# **Tree Traversal Algorithms: Common Types**

#### Three common traversal orders:

o Preorder: Visit parent, then visit child subtrees.

```
preorder (n)
visit and act on position n
for child C: children(n) { preorder (C) }
```

Postorder: Visit child subtrees, then visit parent.

```
postorder (n)
for child c: children(n) { postorder (c) }
visit and act on position n
```

• **Inorder** (for **BT**): Visit left subtree, then parent, then right subtree.

```
inorder (n)
if (n has a left child lc) { inorder (lc) }
visit and act on position n
if (n has a right child rc) { inorder (rc) }
```





#### **Tree Traversal Algorithms: Preorder**

**Preorder**: Visit parent, then visit child subtrees.

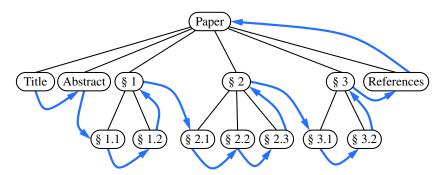
```
preorder (n)
 visit and act on position n
 for child c: children(n) { preorder (c) }
                                 Paper
                                                               (References)
  Title
         Abstract)
                              (§ 2.1) (§ 2.2) (§ 2.3)
                                                    (§ 3.1
                                                            (§ 3.2
```



#### **Tree Traversal Algorithms: Postorder**

**Postorder**: Visit child subtrees, then visit parent.

```
postorder (n)
for child c: children(n) { postorder (C) }
visit and act on position n
```



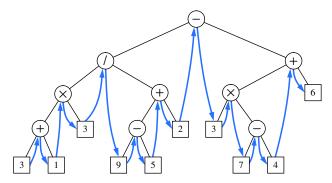




#### **Tree Traversal Algorithms: Inorder**

**Inorder** (for BT): Visit left subtree, then parent, then right subtree.

```
inorder (n)
if (n has a left child lc) { inorder (lc) }
visit and act on position n
if (n has a right child rc) { inorder (rc) }
```



#### Index (1)



Learning Outcomes of this Lecture

**General Trees** 

General Trees: Terminology (1)

General Trees: Terminology (2)

General Trees: Terminology (3)

General Trees: Terminology (4)

General Trees: Terminology (5)

General Trees: Example Node Depths

General Tree: Definition

General Tree: Important Characteristics

General Trees: Ordered Trees

#### Index (2)



General Trees: Unordered Trees

Implementation: Generic Tree Nodes (1)

Implementation: Generic Tree Nodes (2)

Testing: Connected Tree Nodes

Problem: Computing a Node's Depth

Testing: Computing a Node's Depth

Unfolding: Computing a Node's Depth

Problem: Computing a Tree's Height

Testing: Computing a Tree's Height

Unfolding: Computing a Tree's Height

Exercises on General Trees

#### Index (3)



Binary Trees (BTs): Definitions

BT Terminology: LST vs. RST

BT Terminology: Depths, Levels

Background: Sum of Geometric Sequence

BT Properties: Max # Nodes at Levels

BT Terminology: Complete BTs

BT Terminology: Full BTs

BT Properties: Bounding # of Nodes

BT Properties: Bounding Height of Tree

BT Properties: Bounding # of Ext. Nodes

BT Properties: Bounding # of Int. Nodes



#### Index (4)

BT Terminology: Proper BT

BT Properties: #s of Ext. and Int. Nodes

Binary Trees: Application (1)

Binary Trees: Application (2)

Tree Traversal Algorithms: Definition

Tree Traversal Algorithms: Common Types

Tree Traversal Algorithms: Preorder

Tree Traversal Algorithms: Postorder

Tree Traversal Algorithms: Inorder

#### **Binary Search Trees**



EECS2011 N & Z: Fundamentals of Data Structures Winter 2022

CHEN-WEI WANG



#### **Learning Outcomes of this Lecture**

This module is designed to help you understand:

- Binary Search Trees (BSTs) = BTs + Search Property
- Implementing a Generic BST in Java
- BST Operations:
  - Searching: Implementation, Visualization, RT
  - Insertion: (Sketch of) Implementation, Visualization, RT
  - Deletion: (Sketch of) Implementation, Visualization, RT

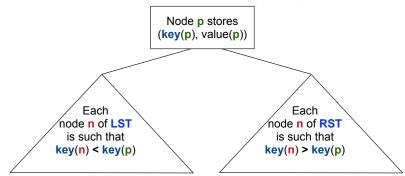


#### **Binary Search Tree: Recursive Definition**

A Binary Search Tree (BST) is a BT satisfying the search property:

Each *internal node* p stores an *entry*, a key-value pair (k, v), such that:

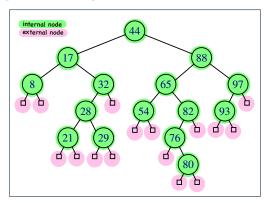
- For each node n in the **LST** of p: key(n) < key(p)
- For each node n in the RST of p: key(n) > key(p)





#### **BST: Internal Nodes vs. External Nodes**

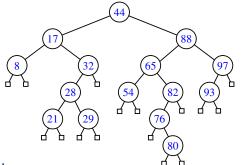
- We store key-value pairs only in internal nodes.
- Recall how we treat header and trailer in a DLL.
- We treat external nodes as sentinels, in order to simplify the coding logic of BST algorithms.



# LASSONDE

#### **BST: Sorting Property**

- An in-order traversal of a BST will result in a sequence of nodes whose keys are arranged in an ascending order.
- Unless necessary, we may only show keys in BST nodes:



#### Justification:

- In-Order Traversal: Visit LST, then root, then RST.
- <u>Search</u> Property of BST: keys in LST/RST 
   root's key



#### Implementation: Generic BST Nodes

```
public class BSTNode<E> {
 private int kev: /* kev */
 private E value: /* value */
 private BSTNode<E> parent; /* unique parent node */
 private BSTNode<E> left: /* left child node */
 private BSTNode<E> right; /* right child node */
 public BSTNode() { ... }
 public BSTNode(int key, E value) { ... }
 public boolean isExternal() {
  return this.getLeft() == null && this.getRight() == null;
 public boolean isInternal() {
  return !this.isExternal():
 public int getKev() { ... }
 public void setKey(int key) { ... }
 public E getValue() { ... }
 public void setValue(E value) { ... }
 public BSTNode<E> getParent() { ... }
 public void setParent(BSTNode<E> parent) { ... }
 public BSTNode<E> getLeft() { ... }
 public void setLeft(BSTNode<E> left) { ... }
 public BSTNode<E> getRight() { ... }
 public void setRight(BSTNode<E> right) { ... }
```



#### Implementation: BST Utilities – Traversal

```
import java.util.ArravList;
public class BSTUtilities<E> {
 public ArrayList<BSTNode<E>> inOrderTraversal(BSTNode<E> root) {
  ArrayList<BSTNode<E>> result = null;
   if(root.isInternal())
    result = new ArrayList<>();
    if(root.getLeft().isInternal) {
      result.addAll(inOrderTraversal(root.getLeft()));
    result.add(root):
    if(root.getRight().isInternal) {
      result.addAll(inOrderTraversal(root.getRight()));
   return result:
```



#### **Testing: Connected BST Nodes**

#### Constructing a BST is similar to constructing a General Tree:

```
aTest
public void test binary search trees construction() {
 BSTNode<String> n28 = new BSTNode<>(28, "alan");
 BSTNode<String> n21 = new BSTNode<>(21, "mark");
 BSTNode<String> n35 = new BSTNode<>(35. "tom"):
 BSTNode<String> extN1 = new BSTNode<>();
 BSTNode<String> extN2 = new BSTNode<>();
 BSTNode<String> extN3 = new BSTNode<>();
 BSTNode<String> extN4 = new BSTNode<>();
 n28.setLeft(n21); n21.setParent(n28);
 n28.setRight(n35): n35.setParent(n28):
 n21.setLeft(extN1); extN1.setParent(n21);
 n21.setRight(extN2); extN2.setParent(n21);
 n35.setLeft(extN3); extN3.setParent(n35);
 n35.setRight(extN4); extN4.setParent(n35);
 BSTUtilities<String> u = new BSTUtilities<>();
 ArrayList<BSTNode<String>> inOrderList = u.inOrderTraversal(n28):
 assertTrue(inOrderList.size() == 3);
 assertEquals(21, inOrderList.get(0).getKey());
 assertEquals("mark", inOrderList.get(0).getValue());
 assertEquals (28, inOrderList.get(1).getKey());
 assertEquals("alan", inOrderList.get(1).getValue());
 assertEquals (35, inOrderList.get(2).getKev());
 assertEquals("tom", inOrderList.get(2).getValue());
```



## Implementing BST Operation: Searching

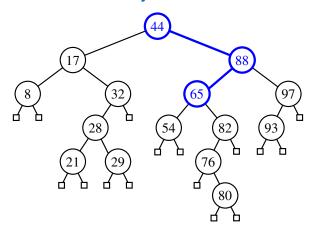
Given a BST rooted at node p, to locate a particular **node** whose key matches k, we may view it as a **decision tree**.

```
public BSTNode<E> search(BSTNode<E> p, int k) {
 BSTNode < E> result = null:
 if(p.isExternal()) {
   result = p; /* unsuccessful search */
 else if (p. qetKev() == k) {
   result = p; /* successful search */
 else if (k < p.getKev()) {
   result = search(p.getLeft(), k); /* recur on LST */
 else if (k > p.qetKev()) {
   result = search(p.getRight(), k): /* recur on RST */
 return result;
```



## **Visualizing BST Operation: Searching (1)**

A successful search for key 65:

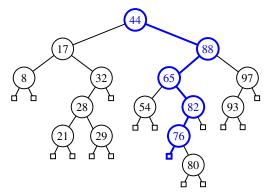


The *internal node* storing key 65 is <u>returned</u>.



# **Visualizing BST Operation: Searching (2)**

• An unsuccessful search for key 68:



The **external**, **left child node** of the **internal node** storing **key 76** is **returned**.

Exercise: Provide keys for different external nodes to be returned.

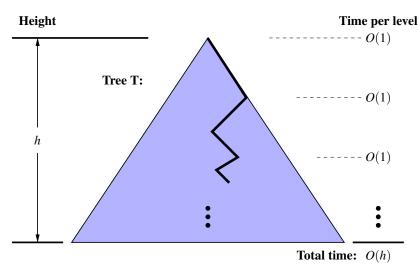


## **Testing BST Operation: Searching**

```
@Test
public void test binary search trees search() {
 BSTNode<String> n28 = new BSTNode<>(28, "alan");
 BSTNode<String> n21 = new BSTNode<>(21. "mark"):
 BSTNode<String> n35 = new BSTNode<>(35, "tom");
 BSTNode<String> extN1 = new BSTNode<>();
 BSTNode<String> extN2 = new BSTNode<>();
 BSTNode<String> extN3 = new BSTNode<>();
 BSTNode<String> extN4 = new BSTNode<>();
 n28.setLeft(n21); n21.setParent(n28);
 n28.setRight(n35); n35.setParent(n28);
 n21.setLeft(extN1); extN1.setParent(n21);
 n21.setRight(extN2); extN2.setParent(n21);
 n35.setLeft(extN3); extN3.setParent(n35);
 n35.setRight(extN4); extN4.setParent(n35);
 BSTUtilities<String> u = new BSTUtilities<>():
 /* search existing keys */
 assertTrue(n28 == u.search(n28, 28));
 assertTrue(n21 == u.search(n28, 21));
 assertTrue(n35 == u.search(n28, 35));
 assertTrue(extN1 == u.search(n28, 17)); /* *17* < 21 */
 assertTrue(extN2 == u. search(n28, 23)): /* 21 < *23* < 28 */
 assertTrue(extN3 == u.search(n28, 33)); /* 28 < *33* < 35 */
 assertTrue(extN4 == u.search(n28, 38)); /* 35 < *38* */
```



## RT of BST Operation: Searching (1)





#### RT of BST Operation: Searching (2)

- Recursive calls of search are made on a path which
  - o Starts from the root
  - Goes down one *level* at a time

RT of deciding from each node to go to LST or RST?

[ *O*(1) ]

 Stops when the key is found or when a *leaf* is reached *Maximum* number of nodes visited by the search?

[ **h** + 1 ]

- ∴ RT of **search on a BST** is O(h)
- Recall: Given a BT with *n* nodes, the *height h* is bounded as:

$$log(n+1)-1 \leq h \leq n-1$$

Best RT of a binary search is O(log(n))

[ balanced BST ]

Worst RT of a binary search is O(n)

[ ill-balanced BST ]

• Binary search on non-linear vs. linear structures:

	Search on a BST	Binary Search on a Sorted Array
START	Root of BST	Middle of Array
Progress	LST or RST	Left Half or Right Half of Array
BEST RT	O(log(n))	O(log(n))
Worst RT	O(n)	

## **Sketch of BST Operation: Insertion**



To *insert* an *entry* (with **key** *k* & **value** *v*) into a BST rooted at *node n*:

- Let node p be the return value from search (n, k).
- ∘ If *p* is an *internal node* 
  - $\Rightarrow$  Key k exists in the BST.
  - $\Rightarrow$  Set p's value to v.
- If p is an external node
  - $\Rightarrow$  Key k deos **not** exist in the BST.
  - $\Rightarrow$  Set p's key and value to k and v.

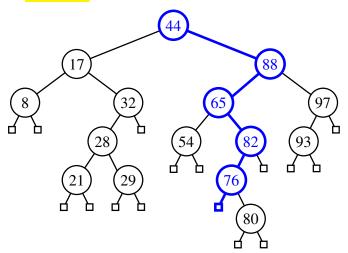
Running time?

O(h)



## **Visualizing BST Operation: Insertion (1)**

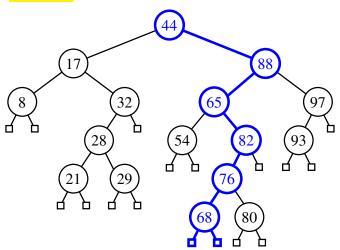
Before *inserting* an entry with *key 68* into the following BST:





## **Visualizing BST Operation: Insertion (2)**

After *inserting* an entry with *key 68* into the following BST:





## **Exercise on BST Operation: Insertion**

<u>Exercise</u>: In BSTUtilities class, implement and test the void insert(BSTNode<E> p, int k, E v) method.

## **Sketch of BST Operation: Deletion**



To **delete** an **entry** (with **key** k) from a BST rooted at **node** n:

Let node p be the return value from search (n, k).

- o Case 1: Node p is external.
  - k is not an existing key  $\Rightarrow$  Nothing to remove
- Case 2: Both of node p's child nodes are external.
  - No "orphan" subtrees to be handled ⇒ Remove p
- [Still BST?]
- Case 3: One of the node p's children, say r, is *internal*.
  - r's sibling is external ⇒ Replace node p by node r
- [Still BST?]

- Case 4: Both of node p's children are internal.
  - Let *r* be the <u>right-most</u> internal node *p*'s LST.
    - $\Rightarrow$  r contains the <u>largest</u> key s.t. key(r) < key(p).
  - **Exercise**: Can r contain the **smallest** key s.t. key(r) > key(p)?
  - Overwrite node p's entry by node r's entry.

[Still BST?]

- *r* being the *right-most internal node* may have:
  - ♦ Two external child nodes  $\Rightarrow$  Remove r as in Case 2.
  - ♦ An external, RC & an internal LC  $\Rightarrow$  Remove r as in Case 3.

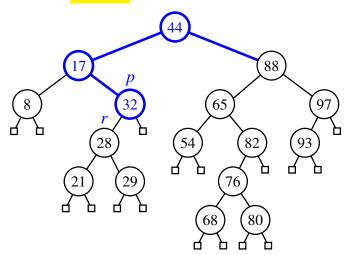
Running time?

O(h)



## **Visualizing BST Operation: Deletion (1.1)**

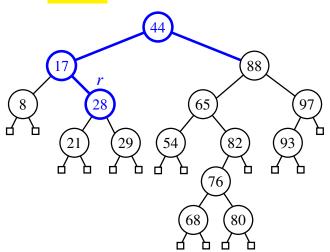
(Case 3) Before *deleting* the node storing *key 32*:





## **Visualizing BST Operation: Deletion (1.2)**

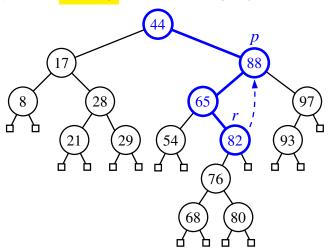
(Case 3) After deleting the node storing key 32:





## **Visualizing BST Operation: Deletion (2.1)**

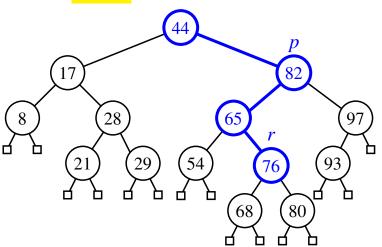
(Case 4) Before *deleting* the node storing *key 88*:





## **Visualizing BST Operation: Deletion (2.2)**

(Case 4) After deleting the node storing key 88:





## **Exercise on BST Operation: Deletion**

<u>Exercise</u>: In BSTUtilities class, implement and test the void delete(BSTNode<E> p, int k) method.

## Index (1)



Learning Outcomes of this Lecture

Binary Search Tree: Recursive Definition

BST: Internal Nodes vs. External Nodes

BST: Sorting Property

Implementation: Generic BST Nodes

Implementation: BST Utilities – Traversal

Testing: Connected BST Nodes

Implementing BST Operation: Searching

Visualizing BST Operation: Searching (1)

Visualizing BST Operation: Searching (2)

Testing BST Operation: Searching

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RT of BST Operation: Searching (1)

RT of BST Operation: Searching (2)

Sketch of BST Operation: Insertion

Visualizing BST Operation: Insertion (1)

Visualizing BST Operation: Insertion (2)

Exercise on BST Operation: Insertion

Sketch of BST Operation: Deletion

Visualizing BST Operation: Deletion (1.1)

Visualizing BST Operation: Deletion (1.2)

Visualizing BST Operation: Deletion (2.1)

Visualizing BST Operation: Deletion (2.2)

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## Index (3)

**Exercise on BST Operation: Deletion** 

## **Balanced Binary Search Trees**



EECS2011 N & Z: Fundamentals of Data Structures Winter 2022

CHEN-WEI WANG



## **Learning Outcomes of this Lecture**

This module is designed to help you understand:

- When the Worst-Case RT of a BST Search Occurs
- Height-Balance Property
- Performing Rotations to Restore Tree Balance



## **Balanced Binary Search Trees: Motivation**

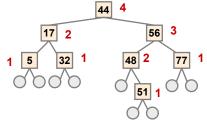
- After *insertions* into a BST, the worst-case RT of a search occurs when the height h is at its maximum: O(n):
  - $\circ\,$  e.g., Entries were inserted in an <u>decreasing order</u> of their keys  $\langle 100, 75, 68, 60, 50, 1 \rangle$ 
    - ⇒ One-path, left-slanted BST
  - $\circ$  e.g., Entries were inserted in an <u>increasing order</u> of their keys (1,50,60,68,75,100)
    - ⇒ One-path, right-slanted BST
  - e.g., Last entry's key is <u>in-between</u> keys of the previous two entries (1,100,50,75,60,68)
    - ⇒ One-path, side-alternating BST
- To avoid the worst-case RT (: a *ill-balanced tree*), we need to take actions as soon as the tree becomes unbalanced.

# LASSONDE

## **Balanced Binary Search Trees: Definition**

Given a node p, the height of the subtree rooted at p is:

A balanced BST T satisfies the height-balance property:
 For every internal node n, heights of n's child nodes differ ≤ 1.



Q: Is the above tree a balanced BST?

Q: Will the tree remain balanced after inserting 55?

Q: Will the tree remain balanced after inserting 63?

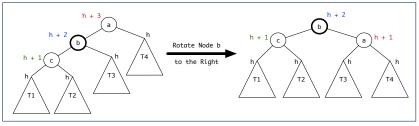


## LASSONDE

## **Fixing Unbalanced BST: Rotations**

A tree **rotation** is performed:

- When the latest <u>insertion</u>/<u>deletion</u> creates <u>unbalanced</u> nodes, along the <u>ancestor path</u> of the node being inserted/deleted.
- To change the shape of tree, restoring the height-balance property



- **Q**. An *in-order traversal* on the resulting tree?
- **<u>A</u>**. Still produces a sequence of **sorted keys**  $\langle T_1, c, T_2, b, T_3, a, T_4 \rangle$
- After *rotating* node b to the <u>right</u>:
  - Heights of *descendants* (b, c, T<sub>1</sub>, T<sub>2</sub>, T<sub>3</sub>) and *sibling* (T<sub>4</sub>) stay *unchanged*.
  - Height of parent (a) is decreased by 1.
    - ⇒ **Balance** of node a was **restored** by the **rotation**.





## After Insertions: Trinode Restructuring via Rotation(s)

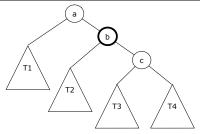
#### After *inserting* a new node *n*:

- Case 1: Nodes on n's ancestor path remain balanced.
  - ⇒ No rotations needed
- Case 2: At least one of n's ancestors becomes unbalanced.
  - Get the <u>first/lowest</u> unbalanced node a on n's ancestor path.
  - **2.** Get a's child node b in n's ancestor path.
  - 3. Get b's child node c in n's ancestor path.
  - **4.** Perform rotation(s) based on the *alignment* of *a*, *b*, and *c*:
    - Slanted the same way ⇒ single rotation on the middle node b
    - Slanted *different* ways ⇒ *double rotations* on the *lower* node *c*

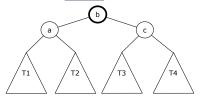


## Trinode Restructuring: Single, Left Rotation LASSONDE





After a *left rotation* on the middle node *b*:



**BST property** maintained?

 $\langle T_1, a, T_2, b, T_3, c, T_4 \rangle$ 

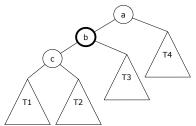
#### **Left Rotation**



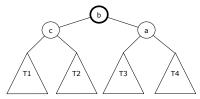
• *Insert* the following sequence of nodes into an <u>empty</u> BST:

- Is the BST now balanced?
- Insert 100 into the BST.
- Is the BST still balanced?
- Perform a *left rotation* on the appropriate node.
- Is the BST again balanced?

## Trinode Restructuring: Single, Right Rotation SSONDE



After a *right rotation* on the <u>middle</u> node *b*:



**BST property** maintained?

 $\langle T_1, a, T_2, b, T_3, c, T_4 \rangle$ 

## **Right Rotation**

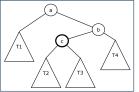


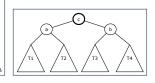
• *Insert* the following sequence of nodes into an empty BST:

- Is the BST now balanced?
- Insert 46 into the BST.
- Is the BST still balanced?
- Perform a **right rotation** on the appropriate node.
- Is the BST again balanced?

## Trinode Restructuring: Double, R-L Rotation







Perform a Right Rotation on Node c

Perform a Left Rotation on Node c

After Right-Left Rotations

**BST property** maintained?

$$\langle T_1, a, T_2, c, T_3, b, T_4 \rangle$$

#### **R-L Rotations**

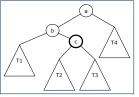


• *Insert* the following sequence of nodes into an empty BST:

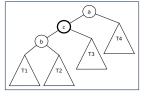
- Is the BST now balanced?
- Insert 85 into the BST.
- Is the BST still balanced?
- Perform the **R-L rotations** on the appropriate node.
- Is the BST again balanced?

## Trinode Restructuring: Double, L-R Rotation SSONDE

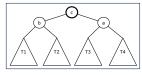




Perform a Left Rotation on Node c



Perform a Right Rotation on Node c



After Left-Right Rotations

**BST** property maintained?

 $\langle T_1, b, T_2, c, T_3, a, T_4 \rangle$ 

#### **L-R Rotations**



• *Insert* the following sequence of nodes into an empty BST:

- Is the BST now balanced?
- Insert 54 into the BST.
- Is the BST still balanced?
- Perform the **L-R rotations** on the appropriate node.
- Is the BST again balanced?



## After Deletions: Continuous Trinode Restructuring

- <u>Recall</u>: <u>Deletion</u> from a BST results in removing a node with zero or one <u>internal</u> child node.
- After *deleting* an existing node, say its child is *n*:

**Case 1**: Nodes on *n*'s *ancestor path* remain *balanced*. ⇒ No rotations

Case 2: At least one of n's ancestors becomes unbalanced.

- 1. Get the <u>first/lowest</u> unbalanced node a on n's ancestor path.
- **2.** Get a's **taller** child node **b**.

[ b ∉ n's ancestor path ]

- **3.** Choose *b*'s child node *c* as follows:
  - b's two child nodes have different heights ⇒ c is the taller child
  - b's two child nodes have same height ⇒ a, b, c slant the same way
- **4.** Perform rotation(s) based on the *alignment* of *a*, *b*, and *c*:
  - Slanted the same way ⇒ single rotation on the middle node b
  - Slanted *different* ways ⇒ *double rotations* on the <u>lower</u> node *c*
- As n's unbalanced ancestors are found, keep applying Case 2, until Case 1 is satisfied.

 $O(h) = O(\log n)$  rotations]



## **Single Trinode Restructuring Step**

• *Insert* the following sequence of nodes into an <u>empty</u> BST:

(44, 17, 62, 32, 50, 78, 48, 54, 88)

- Is the BST now balanced?
- **Delete** 32 from the BST.
- Is the BST still balanced?
- Perform a left rotation on the appropriate node.
- Is the BST again balanced?

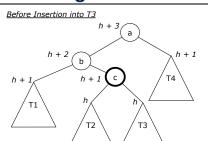


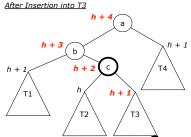
## **Multiple Trinode Restructuring Steps**

- Insert the following sequence of nodes into an empty BST:
   (50, 25, 10, 30, 5, 15, 27, 1, 75, 60, 80, 55)
- Is the BST now balanced?
- Delete 80 from the BST.
- Is the BST still balanced?
- Perform a <u>right rotation</u> on the appropriate node.
- Is the BST now balanced?
- Perform another <u>right rotation</u> on the appropriate node.
- Is the BST again balanced?

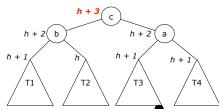
## **Restoring Balance from Insertions**





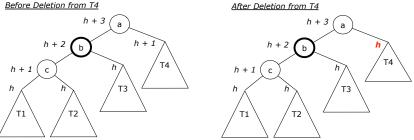


After Performing L-R Rotations on Node c: Height of Subtree Being Fixed Remains h + 3

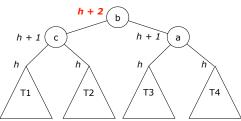


## **Restoring Balance from Deletions**





After Performing Right Rotation on Node b: Height of Subtree Being Fixed Reduces its Height by 1!







- Each *rotation* involves only *POs* of setting parent-child references.
  - ⇒ O(1) running time for each tree rotation
- After each insertion, a trinode restructuring step can restore the balance of the subtree rooted at the first unbalanced node.
  - $\Rightarrow$  O(1) rotations suffices to restore the balance of tree
- After each deletion, one or more trinode restructuring steps may restore the balance of the subtree rooted at the first unbalanced node.
  - $\Rightarrow$  May take  $O(\log n)$  rotations to restore the balance of tree

### Index (1)



Learning Outcomes of this Lecture

**Balanced Binary Search Trees: Motivation** 

**Balanced Binary Search Trees: Definition** 

Fixing Unbalanced BST: Rotations

After Insertions:

Trinode Restructuring via Rotation(s)

Trinode Restructuring: Single, Left Rotation

Left Rotation

Trinode Restructuring: Single, Right Rotation

Right Rotation

Trinode Restructuring: Double, R-L Rotations

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## Index (2)

R-L Rotations

Trinode Restructuring: Double, L-R Rotations

L-R Rotations

After Deletions:

Continuous Trinode Restructuring

Single Trinode Restructuring Step

Multiple Trinode Restructuring Steps

Restoring Balance from Insertions

Restoring Balance from Deletions

Restoring Balance: Insertions vs. Deletions

## **Priority Queues, Heaps, and Heap Sort**



EECS2011 N & Z: Fundamentals of Data Structures Winter 2022

CHEN-WEI WANG



#### **Learning Outcomes of this Lecture**

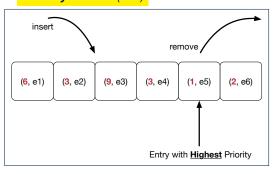
This module is designed to help you understand:

- The **Priority Queue** (PQ) ADT
- Time Complexities of *List*-Based *PQ*
- The *Heap* Data Structure (Properties & Operations)
- · Heap Sort
- Time Complexities of *Heap*-Based *PQ*
- Heap Construction Methods: Top-Down vs. Bottom-Up
- Array-Based Representation of a Heap

#### What is a Priority Queue?



• A **Priority Queue (PQ)** stores a collection of **entries**.



- Each *entry* is a pair: an *element* and its *key*.
- The key of each entry denotes its element's "priority".
- Keys in a
   Priority Queue (PQ) are
   not used for uniquely identifying an entry.
- In a <u>PQ</u>, the next entry to remove has the "highest" priority.
  - e.g., In the stand-by queue of a fully-booked flight, frequent flyers get the higher priority to replace any cancelled seats.
  - e.g., A network router, faced with insufficient bandwidth, may only handle real-time tasks (e.g., streaming) with highest priorities.

#### The Priority Queue (PQ) ADT



```
• min
```

```
[ precondition: PQ is not empty ]
[ postcondition: return entry with highest priority in PQ ]
```

• size

```
[ precondition: none ]
[ postcondition: return number of entries inserted to PQ ]
```

isEmpty

```
[ precondition: none ]
[ postcondition: return whether there is no entry in PQ ]
```

• insert(k, v)

```
[ precondition: PQ is not full ]
[ postcondition: insert the input entry into PQ ]
```

• removeMin

```
[ precondition: PQ is not empty ]
[ postcondition: remove and return a min entry in PQ ]
```



#### Two List-Based Implementations of a PQ

Consider two strategies for implementing a *PQ*, where we maintain:

- **1.** A list  $\underline{\textit{always sorted}}$  in a non-descending order [  $\approx$  INSERTIONSORT ]
- 2. An <u>unsorted</u> list [≈ SELECTIONSORT]

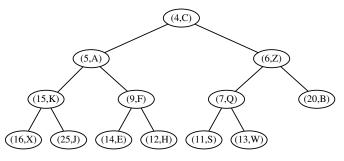
PQ Method	List Method							
- Wethou	SORTED LIST		Unsorted List					
size	list.size <i>O(1)</i> list.isEmpty <i>O(1)</i>							
isEmpty								
min	list.first	0(1)	search min	O(n)				
insert	insert to "right" spot	<b>O</b> (n)	insert to front	0(1)				
removeMin	list.removeFirst	0(1)	search min and remove	O(n)				

#### **Heaps**



#### A **heap** is a **binary tree** which:

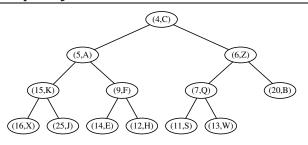
1. Stores in each node an *entry* (i.e., *key* and *value*).



- 2. Satisfies a *relational* property of stored **keys**
- 3. Satisfies a structural property of tree organization

#### **Heap Property 1: Relational**





Keys in a heap satisfy the Heap-Order Property:

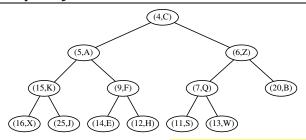
- Every node n (other than the root) is s.t.  $key(n) \ge key(parent(n))$ 
  - $\Rightarrow$  **Keys** in a **root-to-leaf path** are sorted in a <u>non-descending</u> order. e.g., Keys in entry path  $\langle (4,C), (5,A), (9,F), (14,E) \rangle$  are sorted.
  - ⇒ The minimal key is stored in the root.

e.g., Root (4, C) stores the minimal key 4.

Keys of nodes from different subtrees are <u>not</u> constrained at all.
 e.g., For node (5, A), key of its LST's root (15) is <u>not minimal</u> for its RST.

#### **Heap Property 2: Structural**





- A **heap** with **height h** satisfies the **Complete BT Property**:
- ∘ Nodes with  $depth \le h 2$  has two child nodes.
- Nodes with depth h 1 may have zero, one, or two child nodes.
- Nodes with depth h are filled from <u>left</u> to <u>right</u>.
- $\mathbf{Q}$ . When the # of nodes is n, what is h?
- **Q**. # of nodes from Level 0 through Level h-1?
- Q. # of nodes at Level h?
- Q. Minimum # of nodes of a complete BT?
- **Q**. **Maximum** # of nodes of a complete BT?

[log<sub>2</sub>n]

2<sup>h</sup> – 1

 $n-\big(2^h-1\big)$ 

2<sup>h</sup>

 $2^{h+1} - 1$ 

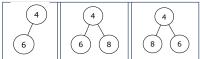
# LASSONDE

## **Heaps: More Examples**

- The *smallest heap* is just an empty binary tree.
- The smallest non-empty heap is a one-node heap.
   e.g.,



<u>Two</u>-node and <u>Three</u>-node Heaps:



These are <u>not</u> two-node heaps:



#### **Heap Operations**



- There are three main operations for a heap:
  - 1. Extract the Entry with Minimal Key: Return the stored entry of the *root*.

[ *O*(1) ]

- 2. Insert a New Entry:
  - A single *root-to-leaf path* is affected.

[ *O(h)* or *O(log n)* ]

Delete the Entry with Minimal Key: A single root-to-leaf path is affected.

[ *O(h)* or *O(log n)* ]

 After performing each operation, both *relational* and *structural* properties must be maintained.



#### **Updating a Heap: Insertion**

To insert a new entry (k, v) into a heap with **height h**:

- **1.** Insert (k, v), possibly **temporarily** breaking the *relational property*.
  - **1.1** Create a new entry  $\mathbf{e} = (k, v)$ .
  - **1.2** Create a new *right-most* node *n* at *Level h*.
  - **1.3** Store entry **e** in node **n**.

After steps 1.1 and 1.2, the *structural property* is maintained.

- 2. Restore the heap-order property (HOP) using Up-Heap Bubbling:
  - **2.1** Let c = n.
  - **2.2** While **HOP** is not restored and *c* is not the root:
    - **2.2.1** Let **p** be **c**'s parent.
    - **2.2.2** If  $key(p) \le key(c)$ , then **HOP** is restored.

**Else**, swap nodes c and p.

[ "upwards" along *n*'s *ancestor path* ]

#### Running Time?

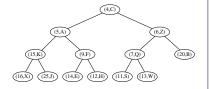
- All sub-steps in 1, as well as steps 2.1, 2.2.1, and 2.2.2 take *O(1)*.
- Step 2.2 may be executed up to O(h) (or O(log n)) times.

O(log n)

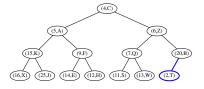
#### **Updating a Heap: Insertion Example (1.1)**



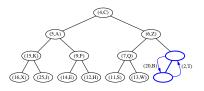
(0) A heap with height 3.



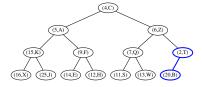
(1) Insert a new entry (2, T) as the *right-most* node at Level 3.
Perform *up-heap bubbling* from here.



(2) **HOP** violated  $\therefore$  2 < 20  $\therefore$  Swap.



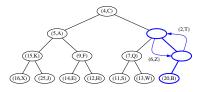
(3) After swap, entry (2, T) prompted up.



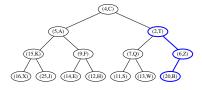
#### **Updating a Heap: Insertion Example (1.2)**



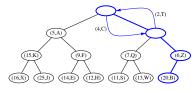
(4) **HOP** violated  $\therefore$  2 < 6  $\therefore$  Swap.



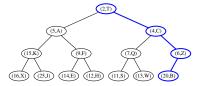
(5) After swap, entry (2, T) prompted up.



(6) **HOP** violated : 2 < 4 ∴ Swap.



(7) Entry (2, T) becomes root  $\therefore$  Done.



#### **Updating a Heap: Deletion**



To delete the **root** (with the **minimal** key) from a heap with **height h**:

- 1. Delete the root, possibly temporarily breaking HOP.
  - **1.1** Let the *right-most* node at *Level h* be *n*.
  - **1.2** Replace the **root**'s entry by **n**'s entry.
  - **1.3** Delete *n*.

After steps 1.1 - 1.3, the *structural property* is maintained.

- 2. Restore **HOP** using *Down-Heap Bubbling*:
  - 2.1 Let p be the root.
  - **2.2** While **HOP** is not restored and **p** is not external:
    - **2.2.1** IF p has  $\underline{no}$  right child, let c be p's left child.
      - **Else**, let **c** be **p**'s child with a **smaller key value**.
  - **2.2.2** If  $key(p) \le key(c)$ , then **HOP** is restored.

Else, swap nodes p and c. ["6

[ "downwards" along a root-to-leaf path ]

#### Running Time?

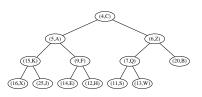
- All sub-steps in 1, as well as steps 2.1, 2.2.1, and 2.2.2 take *O(1)*.
- Step 2.2 may be executed up to O(h) (or O(log n)) times.

*O*(*log n*) ]

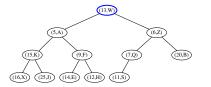
## **Updating a Heap: Deletion Example (1.1)**



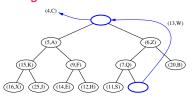
(0) Start with a heap with height 3.



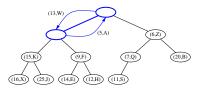
(2) (13, W) becomes the root. Perform down-heap bubbling from here.



(1) Replace root with (13, *W*) and delete *right-most* node from Level 3.



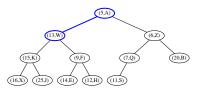
(3) Child with smaller key is (5, A). **HOP** violated  $\because 13 > 5 \therefore$  Swap.



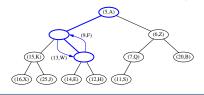
## LASSONDE

## **Updating a Heap: Deletion Example (1.2)**

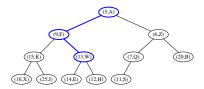
(4) After swap, entry (13, *W*) demoted down.



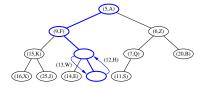
(5) Child with smaller key is (9, F). **HOP** violated  $\because 13 > 9 \therefore$  Swap.



(6) After swap, entry (13, *W*) demoted down.



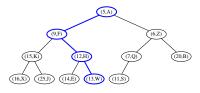
(7) Child with smaller key is (12, H). **HOP** violated  $\because 13 > 12 \therefore$  Swap.





## **Updating a Heap: Deletion Example (1.3)**

(8) After swap, entry (13, W) becomes an external node  $\therefore$  Done.





#### **Heap-Based Implementation of a PQ**

PQ Method	Heap Operation	RT
min	root	O(1)
insert	insert then up-heap bubbling	O(log n)
removeMin	delete then down-heap bubbling	O(log n)



## Top-Down Heap Construction: List of Entries is Not Known in Advance

#### **<u>Problem</u>**: Build a heap out of *N* entires, supplied <u>one at a time</u>.

Initialize an empty heap h.

- [ *O*(1) ]
- As each new entry  $\mathbf{e} = (k, v)$  is supplied, **insert**  $\mathbf{e}$  into  $\mathbf{h}$ .
  - Each insertion triggers an *up-heap bubbling* step,
     which takes *O(log n)* time.
     [ n = 0, 1, 2, ..., N 1 ]
  - There are N insertions.
- $\therefore$  Running time is  $O(N \cdot log N)$



#### Bottom-Up Heap Construction: List of Entries is Known in Advance

**<u>Problem</u>**: Build a heap out of **N** entires, supplied <u>all at once</u>.

• <u>Assume</u>: The resulting heap will be *completely filled* at <u>all</u> levels.

$$\Rightarrow$$
 N = 2<sup>h+1</sup> - 1 for some **height** h > 1

$$[h = (log(N + 1)) - 1]$$

- Perform the following steps called *Bottom-Up Heap Construction*:
  - **Step 1**: Treat the first  $\frac{N+1}{2^1}$  list entries as heap roots.
    - $\therefore \frac{N+1}{2^1}$  heaps with height 0 and size  $2^1 1$  constructed.
  - **Step 2**: Treat the next  $\frac{N+1}{2^2}$  list entries as heap roots.
    - ♦ Each root sets two heaps from Step 1 as its LST and RST.
    - Perform down-heap bubbling to restore HOP if necessary.
    - $\therefore \frac{N+1}{2^2}$  heaps, each with height 1 and size  $2^2-1$ , constructed.

. . .

- **Step** h + 1: Treat next  $\frac{N+1}{2^{h+1}} = \frac{(2^{h+1}-1)+1}{2^{h+1}} = 1$  list entry as heap root.
  - ⋄ Each root sets two heaps from Step h as its LST and RST.
  - Perform down-heap bubbling to restore HOP if necessary.
  - $\therefore \frac{N+1}{2^{h+1}} = 1$  heap, each with height h and size  $2^{h+1} 1$ , constructed.

## Bottom-Up Heap Construction: Example (1. 1)555



Build a heap from the following list of 15 keys:

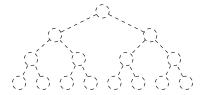
$$\langle 16, 15, 4, 12, 6, 7, 23, 20, 25, 9, 11, 17, 5, 8, 14 \rangle$$

- The resulting heap has:
  - Size N is 15
  - **Height h** is (log(15+1)) 1 = 3
- According to the bottom-up heap construction technique, we will need to perform h + 1 = 4 steps, utilizing 4 sublists:

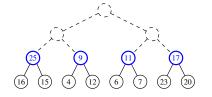
$$\underbrace{\langle \underbrace{16,15,4,12,6,7,23,20}_{\frac{15+1}{2^1}=8}, \underbrace{25,9,11,17}_{\frac{15+1}{2^2}=4}, \underbrace{5,8}_{\frac{15+1}{2^3}=2}, \underbrace{14}_{\frac{15+1}{2^4}=1} \rangle}_{}$$

## Bottom-Up Heap Construction: Example (1.2) SSONDE

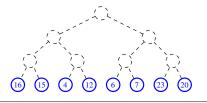
We know in advance to build a heap with height 3 and size  $2^{3+1} - 1 = 15$ 



(Step 2) Treat next  $\frac{15+1}{2}$  entries as roots. Set LST and RST of each root.

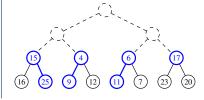


(**Step 1**) Treat first  $\frac{15+1}{21}$  entries as roots.  $\therefore$  8 one-node heaps.



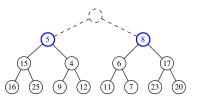
(Step 2 cont.) Down-heap bubbling.

∴ 4 three-node heaps.

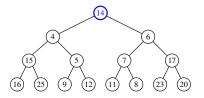


## Bottom-Up Heap Construction: Example (1. 1) SSONDE

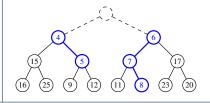
(**Step 3**) Treat next  $\frac{15+1}{23}$  entries as roots. Set LST and RST of each root.



(**Step 4**) Treat next  $\frac{15+1}{24}$  entry as roots. Set LST and RST of each root.

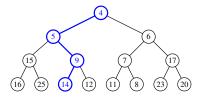


(Step 3 cont.) Down-heap bubbling. ∴ 2 three-node heaps.



(Step 4 cont.) Down-heap bubbling.

∴ 1 fifteen-node heap.



#### **RT of Bottom-Up Heap Construction**



- Intuitively, the majority of the intermediate roots from which we perform down-heap bubbling are of very small height values:
  - The first  $\frac{n+1}{2}$  1-node heaps with **height 0** require **no** down-heap bubbling. [About 50% of the list entries processed]
  - Next  $\frac{n+1}{4}$  3-node heaps with **height 1** require down-heap bubbling.

    [ Another 25% of the list entries processed ]
  - Next  $\frac{n+1}{9}$  7-node heaps with **height 2** require down-heap bubbling.
  - [ Another 12.5% of the list entries processed ]

. . .

- Next two  $\frac{N-1}{2}$ -node heaps with *height (h 1)* require down-heap
- Final one N-node heaps with height h requires down-heap bubbling.
- Running Time of the Bottom-Up Heap Construction takes only O(n).





#### Sorting Problem:

Given a list of **n** numbers  $(a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n)$ :

Precondition: NONE

<u>Postcondition</u>: A permutation of the input list  $(a'_1, a'_2, \ldots, a'_n)$  sorted in a non-descending order (i.e.,  $a'_1 \le a'_2 \le \ldots \le a'_n$ )

#### The *Heap Sort* algorithm consists of two phases:

- 1. Construct a heap of size N out of the input array.
  - Approach 1: Top-Down "Continuous-Insertions"

 $[O(N \cdot log N)]$ 

Approach 2: Bottom-Up Heap Construction

[O(N)]

- 2. Delete N entries from the heap.
  - Each deletion takes O(log N) time.
  - 1st deletion extracts the *minimum*, 2nd deletion the 2nd *minimum*, ...
    - $\Rightarrow$  Extracted *minimums* from *N* deletions form a *sorted* sequence.
- $\therefore$  Running time of the *Heap Sort* algorithm is  $O(N \cdot \log N)$ .



#### The Heap Sort Algorithm: Exercise

**Sort** the following array of integers

$$\langle 16, 15, 4, 12, 6, 7, 23, 20, 25, 9, 11, 17, 5, 8, 14 \rangle$$

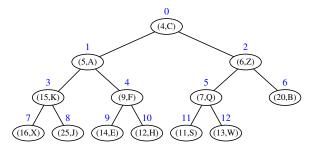
into a *non-descending* order using the *Heap Sort Algorithm*.

#### Demonstrate:

- 1. Both top-down and bottom-up heap constructions in Phase 1
- 2. Extractions of minimums in Phase 2



#### **Array-Based Representation of a CBT (1)**

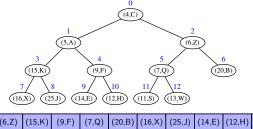


$$index(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \text{ is the root} \\ 2 \cdot index(parent(x)) + 1 & \text{if } x \text{ is a left child} \\ 2 \cdot index(parent(x)) + 2 & \text{if } x \text{ is a right child} \end{cases}$$

(4,C)	(5,A)	(6,Z)	(15,K)	(9,F)	(7,Q)	(20,B)	(16,X)	(25,J)	(14,E)	(12,H)	(11,S)	(13,W)
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12

# LASSONDE

#### Array-Based Representation of a CBT (2)



- Q1: Where are nodes at *Levels* 0 ... h 1 stored in the array? Indices  $0 ... (2^h - 2) \equiv 0 ... (2^{\lfloor log_2 N \rfloor} - 2)$  [e.g., Indices  $0 ... 2^3 - 2$ ]
- **Q2:** Where are nodes at *Level h* stored in the array? Indices  $2^h - 1 ... (N-1) \equiv 2^{\lfloor log_2 N \rfloor} - 1 ... (N-1)$  [e.g., I

[e.g., Indices 7 .. 12]

- Q3: How do we determine if a non-root node x is a left or right child?
   IF index(x) % 2 == 1 THEN left ELSE right
- Q4: Given a non-root node x, how do we determine the *index of x's parent*? IF index(x) % 2 == 1 THEN  $\frac{index(x)-1}{2}$  ELSE  $\frac{index(x)-2}{2}$

## Index (1)



Learning Outcomes of this Lecture

What is a Priority Queue?

The Priority Queue (PQ) ADT

Two List-Based Implementations of a PQ

Heaps

Heap Property 1: Relational

Heap Property 2: Structural

Heaps: More Examples

Heap Operations

Updating a Heap: Insertion

Updating a Heap: Insertion Example (1.1)

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## Index (2)



Updating a Heap: Insertion Example (1.2)

Updating a Heap: Deletion

Updating a Heap: Deletion Example (1.1)

Updating a Heap: Deletion Example (1.2)

Updating a Heap: Deletion Example (1.3)

Heap-Based Implementation of a PQ

Top-Down Heap Construction:

List of Entries is Not Known in Advance

**Bottom-Up Heap Construction:** 

List of Entries is Known in Advance

Bottom-up Heap Construction: Example (1.1)

Bottom-up Heap Construction: Example (1.2)

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#### Index (3)

Bottom-up Heap Construction: Example (1.3)

RT of Bottom-up Heap Construction

The Heap Sort Algorithm

The Heap Sort Algorithm: Exercise

Array-Based Representation of a CBT (1)

Array-Based Representation of a CBT (2)

#### Wrap-Up



EECS2011 N & Z: Fundamentals of Data Structures Winter 2022

CHEN-WEI WANG

#### What You Learned (1)



- Java Programming
  - JUnit
  - Recursion
  - o Generics

#### What You Learned (2)



#### Data Structures

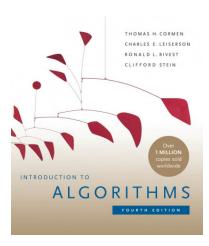
- Arrays, Circular Arrays, Dynamic Arrays, Amortized RT Anaylsis
- Singly-Linked Lists and Doubly-Linked Lists
- Stacks, Queues, Double-Ended Queues
- Trees, Binary Trees, Binary Search Trees, Balanced BSTs
- Priority Queues and Heaps

#### Algorithms

- Asymptotic Analysis
- Binary Search
- Trinode Restructuring Steps
- Insertion Sort, Selection Sort, Merge Sort, Quick Sort, Heap Sort
- Pre-order, in-order, and post-order traversals

#### Beyond this course... (1)





- Introduction to Algorithms (4th Ed.) by Cormen, etc.
- DS by DS, Algo. by Algo.:
  - Understand math analysis
  - Read pseudo code
  - Implement in Java
  - Test in JUnit

## Beyond this course... (2)





 Design Patterns: Elements of Reusable Object-Oriented Software by Gamma, etc.

- Pattern by Pattern:
  - Understand the problem
  - Read the solution (not in Java)
  - Implement in Java
  - o Test in JUnit

## Beyond this course... (3)



A tutorial on building a language compiler using Java (from *EECS4302-W20*):

Using the ANTLR4 Parser Generator to Develop a Compiler

- Trees
- Recursion
- Visitor Design Pattern

#### Wish You All the Best



- What you have learned will be assumed in the third year.
- Some topics we did not cover:
  - Hash table [See Weeks 10 11 of EECS2030-F19]Graphs [EECS3101]
- Logic is your friend: Learn/Review EECS1019/EECS1090.
- Do not abandon Java during the break!!
- Feel free to get in touch and let me know how you're doing:D