Recursion (Part 1)



EECS2101 X & Z: Fundamentals of Data Structures Winter 2025

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• Fantastic resources for developing your recursive skills:

http://codingbat.com/java/Recursion-1

http://codingbat.com/java/Recursion-2

- The *best* long-term approaches for mastering recursion are:
 - learning a *functional programming* language

[e.g., Haskell: https://www.haskell.org/tutorial/]

learning to develop a *compiler* (after learning *trees* in this course)
 [e.g., ANTLR4 from EECS4302]





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:
 - From F'21: Parts A C, Lecture 8, Week 12
 - From F'24: Lecture 24, Sec. E (Tower of Hanoi)

Tips.

- Skim the *slides*: watch lecture videos if needing explanations.
- Recursion lab from EECS2030-F22: here [Solution: here]
- Ask questions related to the assumed basics of *recursion*!
- Assuming that you know the basics of *recursion*, we will:
 - Look at an advanced example of *recursion on arrays* together.
 - Have you complete an assignment on the more advanced recursion problems.

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This module is designed to help you:

- Quickly review the *recursion basics*.
- Know about the <u>resources</u> on *recursion basics*.
- Get used to the more advanced use of recursion.





- Recursion is useful in expressing solutions to problems that can be recursively defined:
 - Base Cases: Small problem instances immediately solvable.
 - Recursive Cases:
 - Large problem instances not immediately solvable.
 - Solve by reusing *solution(s)* to *strictly smaller* problem instances.
- Similar idea learnt in high school: [mathematical induction]



Tracing Method Calls via a Stack



- When a method is called, it is *activated* (and becomes *active*) and *pushed* onto the stack.
- When the body of a method makes a (helper) method call, that (helper) method is *activated* (and becomes *active*) and *pushed* onto the stack.
 - \Rightarrow The stack contains activation records of all *active* methods.
 - Top of stack denotes the current point of execution .
 - Remaining parts of stack are (temporarily) suspended.
- When entire body of a method is executed, stack is *popped*.
 - ⇒ The current point of execution is returned to the new top of stack (which was suspended and just became active).
- Execution terminates when the stack becomes empty.



Tracing Method Calls via a Stack



• Can you identify the pattern of a Fibonacci sequence?

 $F = 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, 89, \ldots$

• Here is the formal, *recursive* definition of calculating the *n*_{th} number in a Fibonacci sequence (denoted as *F*_n):

$$F_n = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } n = 2 \\ F_{n-1} + F_{n-2} & \text{if } n > 2 \end{cases}$$

· Your tasks are then to review how to

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- *implement* the above mathematical, recursive function in Java
- trace, via a stack, the recursive execution at runtime

by studying this video (≈ 20 minutes):

Making Recursive Calls on an Array



- For *efficiency*, we exploit the feature of *call by value*, by:
 - passing the *reference* of the same array
 - specifying the range of indices to be considered

```
void m(int[] a, int from, int to) {
    if(from > to) { /* base case */ }
    else if(from == to) { /* base case */ }
    else { m(a, from + 1, to) } }
```

- m(a, 0, a.length 1) [Initial call; entire array]
- m(a, 1, a.length 1) [1st r.c. on array of size a.length 1]
- m(a, a.length-1, a.length-1) [Last r.c. on array of size 1]

Required Task:

Study the two examples <code>allPositive</code> and <code>isSorted</code> from the background study.





Assuming that you will review the assumed basic, let's go over an advanced example from paper to Eclipse:

• Problem Description:

https://www.eecs.yorku.ca/~wangcw/teaching/

lectures/2025/W/EECS2101/exercises/

EECS2101-W25-Problem-Recursion-splitArray-Spec.pdf

• Java starter project (with hints and JUnit tests):

https://www.eecs.yorku.ca/~wangcw/teaching/

lectures/2025/W/EECS2101/exercises/

ExtraRecursionProblemSplitArray Starter.zip



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Beyond this lecture ...

Background Study: Basic Recursion

Learning Outcomes of this Lecture

Recursion: Principle

Tracing Method Calls via a Stack

Tracing Method Calls via a Stack

Making Recursive Calls on an Array

A More Advanced Example on Recursion



Asymptotic Analysis of Algorithms



EECS2101 X & Z: Fundamentals of Data Structures Winter 2025

CHEN-WEI WANG

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
- Testing methods in Java

[Weeks 1 – 2] [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]



Learning Outcomes



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
 - $\circ~$ one is more efficient than the other, $\ensuremath{\textit{asymptotically}}$
- 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 strengths and limitations
- A <u>well-specified</u> computational problem precisely describes the desired input/output relationship.
 - Input: A sequence of *n* numbers $\langle a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n \rangle$
 - **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 <u>well-specified</u> computational problem
 - A <u>sequence of computational steps</u> that takes value(s) as *input* and produces value(s) as *output*
- An *algorithm* manipulates some chosen *data structure(s)*.



Measuring "Goodness" of an Algorithm

1. Correctness

- Does the *algorithm* produce the <u>expected</u> output?
- Use *unit & regression testing* (e.g., 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 (run on computers) should be *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

Q. How does one determine the *running time* of an algorithm?

- 1. Measure time via experiments
- 2. Characterize time as a *mathematical function* of the input size



Measure Running Time via Experiments



- Once the algorithm is implemented (e.g., in Java):
 - Execute program on test inputs of various sizes & 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 <u>sound statistical claims</u> about the algorithm's *running time*, the set of *test inputs* should be "*complete*". e.g., To experiment with the *RT* of a sorting algorithm:
 - Unreasonable: only consider small-sized and/or almost-sorted arrays
 - **<u>Reasonable</u>**: <u>also</u> consider large-sized, randomly-organized arrays



Example Experiment



- Computational Problem:
 - Input: A character c and an integer n
- 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 append from StringBuilder:

```
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>
```



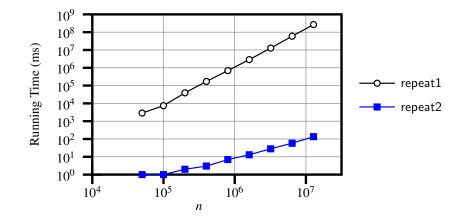
Example Experiment: Detailed Statistics

n	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.

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Experimental Analysis: Challenges

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



Moving Beyond Experimental Analysis



- A better approach to analyzing the *efficiency* (e.g., *running time*) of algorithms should be one that:
 - Can be applied using a *high-level description* of the algorithm (<u>without</u> fully implementing it).

[e.g., Pseudo Code, Java Code (with "tolerances")]

- Allows us to calculate the <u>relative efficiency</u> (rather than <u>absolute</u> elapsed time) of algorithms in a way that is *independent of* the hardware and software environment.
- 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 most running time)



Counting Primitive Operations



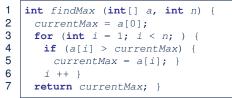
[e.g., acc.balance]

- A primitive operation (POs) corresponds to a low-level instruction with a **constant** execution time.
 - (Variable) Assignment [e.g., x = 5;][e.g., a[i]]
 - Indexing into an array
 - Arithmetic, relational, logical op. [e.g., a + b, z > w, b1 && b2]
 - Accessing an attribute of an object
 - Returning from a method [e.g., return result;]
 - Q: Is a *method call* a primitive operation?
 - A: Not in general. 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)
- *RT* of an *algorithm* is approximated as the number of *POs* involved (despite the execution environment).

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Example: Counting Primitive Operations (1)



of times i < n in Line 3 is executed? [*n*] # of times the loop body (Line 4 to Line 6) is executed? [n-1]

- Line 2: 2
 - Line 3: *n* + 1
 - Line 4: (*n*−1) · 2
 - Line 5: (*n*−1) · 2
 - Line 6: (*n*−1) · 2
 - Line 7:
 - Total # of Primitive Operations: 7n 2
- [1 indexing + 1 assignment] [1 assignment + *n* comparisons] [1 indexing + 1 comparison] [1 indexing + 1 assignment] [1 addition + 1 assignment] [1 return]

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;
}
```

• # 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]





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 *execution environment*.

Q. How do you relate the *number of POs* required by an algorithm and its *actual RT* on a specific working environment?

A. Number of POs should be proportional to the actual RT.

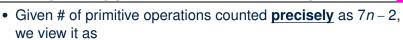
RT = t · number of POs

- e.g., findMax (int[] a, int n) has 7*n* 2 POs *RT* = (7*n* - 2) · t
- e.g., Say two algorithms with *RT* (*7n 2*) · t and *RT* (*10n + 3*) · t: It suffices to compare their <u>relative</u> 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



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

- We say
 - n is the highest power
 - 7 and 2 are the *multiplicative constants*
 - 2 is the *lower term*
- When <u>approximating</u> a *function* [e.g., RT ≈ f(*n*)] (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 $7n + 2n \cdot \log n + 3n^2$:

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

[n²] [7, 2, 3] [7n, 2n · 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 f(n) returns the **number of primitive operations** that are performed on an **input of size** n.

$$\circ f(n) = 5$$

$$\circ f(n) = log_2 n$$

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

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

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

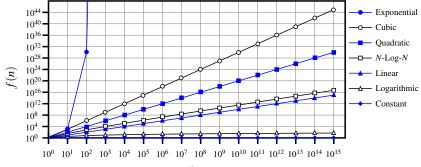
$$\circ f(n) = 2^n$$

[constant] [logarithmic] [linear] [quadratic] [cubic] [exponential]







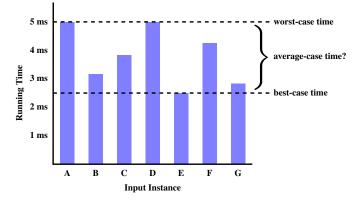


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Focusing on the Worst-Case Input



- *Average-case* analysis calculates the *expected running time* 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 towards the limit:
 - How the *running time* of the algorithm under analysis changes as the *input size* changes <u>without</u> bound
 - e.g., Contrast: $RT_1(n) = n$ vs. $RT_2(n) = n^2$

• Allows us to compare the <u>relative</u> performance of <u>alternative</u> algorithms:

- For large enough inputs, the <u>multiplicative constants</u> and <u>lower-order terms</u> 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*.





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

- Asymptotic upper bound
- Asymptotic lower bound
- Asymptotic tight bound

[Ο] [Ω] [Θ]





Asymptotic Upper Bound: Definition

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

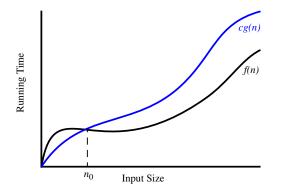
$f(n) \leq c \cdot g(n) \quad \text{for } n \geq n_0$

- For each member function *f(n)* in *O(g(n))*, we say that:
 - $f(n) \in O(g(n))$
 - *f*(*n*) **is** *O*(*g*(*n*))
 - $\circ f(n)$ is order of g(n)

 $[f(n) \text{ is a member of "big-O of } g(n)"] \\ [f(n) \text{ is "big-O of } g(n)"]$



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?



Asymptotic Upper Bound: Proposition

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 $\frac{f(n)}{f(n)}$ is $O(n^d)$. • We prove by choosing

$$c = |a_0| + |a_1| + \dots + |a_d|$$

 $n_0 = 1$

 We know that for *n* ≥ 1: 0 Upper-bound effect: *n*₀ = 1? [*f*(1) ≤ (|*a*₀| + |*a*₁| + ··· + |*a*_d|) · 1^d] *a*₀ · 1⁰ + *a*₁ · 1¹ + ··· + *a*_d · 1^d ≤ |*a*₀| · 1^d + |*a*₁| · 1^d + ··· + |*a*_d| · 1^d

• Upper-bound effect holds? $[f(n) \le (|a_0| + |a_1| + \dots + |a_d|) \cdot n^d]$ $a_0 \cdot n^0 + a_1 \cdot n^1 + \dots + a_d \cdot n^d \le |a_0| \cdot n^d + |a_1| \cdot n^d + \dots + |a_d| \cdot n^d$



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 $n \ge n_0$:

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

Using the proven **proposition**, choose: • c = |5| + |-3| + |2| + |-4| + |1| = 15• $n_0 = 1$



Asymptotic Upper Bound: Families



- 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 all f(n) that can be **upper bounded by** $q(n) = n^{1}$:
 - [functions with degree 1] [functions with degree 0]
 - e.g., Family of $O(n^2)$ contains all f(n) that can be **upper bounded by** $g(n) = n^2$: n^2 , $2n^2$, $3n^2$, ... [functions with degree 2] n, 2n, 3n, ... [functions with degree 1] n^0 , $2n^0$, $3n^0$, ...
 - [functions with degree 0]

Consequently:

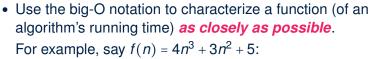
n, 2n, 3n, ...

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

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



Using Asymptotic Upper Bound Accurately



• Recall: $O(n^3) \subset O(n^4) \subset O(n^5) \subset \ldots$

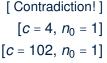
- It is the *most accurate* to say that f(n) is $O(n^3)$.
- It is *true*, but not very useful, to say that f(n) is $O(n^4)$ and that f(n) is $O(n^5)$.
- It is *false* to say that f(n) is $O(n^2)$, O(n), or O(1).
- Do <u>not</u> include *constant factors* and *lower-order terms* in the big-O notation.

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



Asymptotic Upper Bound: More Examples

- $5n^2 + 3n \cdot loan + 2n + 5$ is $O(n^2)$
- $20n^3 + 10n \cdot logn + 5$ is $O(n^3)$
- $3 \cdot loan + 2$ is O(loan)
 - Why can't n₀ be 1?
 - Choosing $n_0 = 1$ means $\Rightarrow f(|1|)$ is upper-bounded by $c \cdot \log |1|$:
 - We have $f(1) = 3 \cdot log 1 + 2$, which is 2.
 - We have $c \cdot \log 1$, which is 0.
 - \Rightarrow f(|1|) is not upper-bounded by $c \cdot log |1|$
- 2^{n+2} is $O(2^n)$
- $2n + 100 \cdot logn$ is O(n)





- $[c = 15, n_0 = 1]$ $[c = 35, n_0 = 1]$
- $[c = 5, n_0 = 2]$



Classes of Functions



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	
<i>O</i> (<i>n</i> ³)	cubic	
$O(n^k), k \ge 1$	polynomial	
$O(a^n), a > 1$	exponential	most expensive





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;
7 }
```

• # of primitive operations: 4

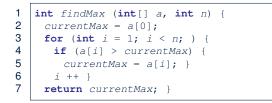
2 assignments + 1 comparison + 1 return = 4

- Therefore, the running time is O(1).
- That is, this is a *constant-time* algorithm.





Upper Bound of Algorithm: Example (2)



- 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)

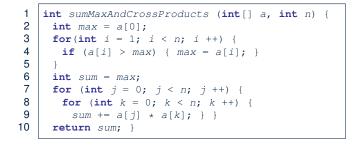
```
1 boolean containsDuplicate (int[] a, int n) {
2 for (int i = 0; i < n; ) {
3 for (int j = 0; j < n; ) {
4 if (i != j && a[i] == a[j]) {
5 return true; }
6 j ++; }
7 i ++; }
8 return false; }</pre>
```

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

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Upper Bound of Algorithm: Example (4)

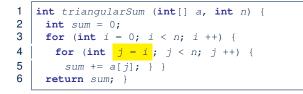


- # of primitive operations $\approx (c_1 \cdot n + c_2) + (c_3 \cdot n \cdot n + c_4)$, where c_1, c_2, c_3 , and c_4 are some constants.
- Therefore, the running time is $O(n + n^2) = O(n^2)$.
- That is, this is a *quadratic* algorithm.

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Upper Bound of Algorithm: Example (5)



- # of primitive operations $\approx n + (n-1) + \dots + 2 + 1 = \frac{n \cdot (n+1)}{2}$
- 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 –
- Testing methods in Java

[Weeks 1 – 2] [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]



Index (1)



What You're Assumed to Know

Learning Outcomes

Algorithm and Data Structure

Measuring "Goodness" of an Algorithm

Measuring Efficiency of an Algorithm

Measure Running Time via Experiments

Example Experiment

Example Experiment: Detailed Statistics

Example Experiment: Visualization

Experimental Analysis: Challenges

Moving Beyond Experimental Analysis

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Index (2)



Counting Primitive Operations

Example: Counting Primitive Operations (1)

Example: Counting Primitive Operations (2)

From Absolute RT to Relative RT

Example: Approx. # of Primitive Operations

Approximating Running Time

as a Function of Input Size

Rates of Growth: Comparison

Focusing on the Worst-Case Input

What is Asymptotic Analysis?

Three Notions of Asymptotic Bounds



Index (3)



Asymptotic Upper Bound: Definition

Asymptotic Upper Bound: Visualization

Asymptotic Upper Bound: Example (1)

Asymptotic Upper Bound: Proposition

Asymptotic Upper Bound: Example (2)

Asymptotic Upper Bound: Families

Using Asymptotic Upper Bound Accurately

Asymptotic Upper Bound: More Examples

Classes of Functions

Upper Bound of Algorithm: Example (1)

Upper Bound of Algorithm: Example (2)







Upper Bound of Algorithm: Example (3)

Upper Bound of Algorithm: Example (4)

Upper Bound of Algorithm: Example (5)

Beyond this lecture ...



Basic Data Structures: Arrays vs. Linked-Lists



EECS2101 X & Z: Fundamentals of Data Structures Winter 2025

CHEN-WEI WANG



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];
 - Heads-Up. Two resizing strategies: increments vs. doubling.
- Supported operations on an array:
 - o Accessing: e.g., int max = a[0]; Time Complexity: O(1)

[constant-time op.]

- Updating: e.g., a[i] = a[i + 1]; Time Complexity: O(1)
- Inserting/Removing:

[constant-time op.]

```
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>
```

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[linear-time op.]



Array Case Study: Comparing Two Sorting Strategies

<u>The Sorting Problem</u>:

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:

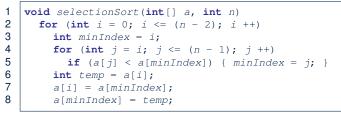
- non-descending
- ascending/increasing
- non-ascending
- descending/decreasing
- Two alternative implementation strategies for solving this problem
- At the end, choose one based on their time complexities.



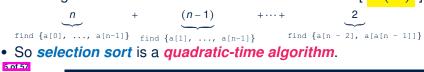
Sorting: Strategy 1 – Selection Sort



- 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 <u>remains</u> sorted.



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



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]
- Running time?

O(1 + 2 +...+ (n-1) insert into {a[0]} insert into {a[0], a[1]} insert into {a[0], ..., a[n-2]}

• So *insertion sort* is a *quadratic-time algorithm*.

Tracing Insertion & Selection Sorts in Java



- Given a fragment of Java code, you are expected to:
 - <u>Derive</u> its *asymptotic upper bound* (by approximating the number of *POs*)
 - (2) <u>Trace</u> its *runtime execution* (by understanding how *variables* change)
- We did (1) in class.
- We discussed how, intuitively, the two sorting algorithms work.
- You are now **expected** to trace the Java code (both on paper and in Eclipse) on your own.
- If needed, you may consult with these videos:
 - Tracing Insertion Sort on paper
 - Tracing <u>Selection Sort</u> on paper
 - Tracing in Eclipse (using breakpoints/Debugger)







- Asymptotically, running times of selection sort and insertion sort are both $O(n^2)$.
- We will later see that there exist <u>more efficient</u> algorithms that can perform <u>faster</u> than quadratic: $O(n \cdot logn)$.





- 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:
 - $\circ~$ arranged in a *non-ascending* order (e.g., $\langle 5,3,3,1\rangle$); and
 - maintained and grown from the *right* end instead.

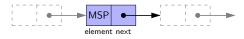


Basic Data Structure: Singly-Linked Lists



- We know that *arrays* perform:
 - well in indexing
 - *badly* in inserting and deleting
- We now introduce an <u>alternative</u> data structure to arrays.
- A *linked list* is a series of <u>connected</u> nodes, forming a *linear sequence*. <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:
 - reference to a data object; and
 - reference to the next node in the list.

Contrast. relative positioning of LL vs. absolute indexing of arrays

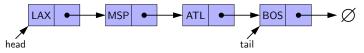


• The *last node* in a <u>singly-linked</u> list is different from others. How so? Its reference to the *next node* is simply null.

Singly-Linked List: How to Keep Track?



- <u>Contrary to arrays</u>, we do <u>not</u> keep track of all nodes in a SLL <u>directly</u> by indexing the *nodes*.
- Instead, we only store a *reference* to the *head* (i.e., *first node*) and the *tail* (i.e., *last node*), and access other parts of the list *indirectly*.



- 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 <u>without</u> the need to *resize*. We achieve this by:
 - 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
- Exercise: Given the *head* reference of a SLL, describe how we may:
 - Count the number of nodes currently in the list.
 - Find the reference to its *tail* (i.e., *last node*)

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[Running Time?] [Running Time?]



Singly-Linked List: Java Implementation

We first implement a *SLL* storing <u>strings only</u>.

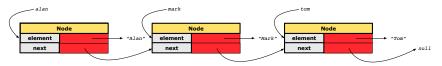
```
public class Node {
    private String element;
    private Node next;
    public Node(String e, Node n) { element = e; next = n; }
    public String getElement() { return element; }
    public void setElement(String e) { element = e; }
    public Node getNext() { return next; }
    public void setNext(Node 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() { ... }
```

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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);

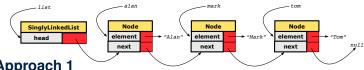
Approach 2

```
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

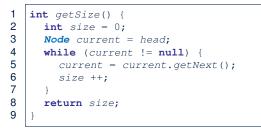
```
Node alan = new Node("Alan", null);
Node mark = new Node("Mark", null);
Node tom = new Node("Tom", null);
alan.setNext(mark);
mark.setNext(tom);
SinglyLinkedList list = new SinglyLinkedList();
list.setHead(alan):
```



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

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 <code>SinglyLinkedList</code>.



- When does the while-loop (L4) exit?
- **RT of** getSize: O(n)

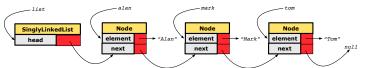
• Contrast: RT of a.length: O(1)

[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;
}
```

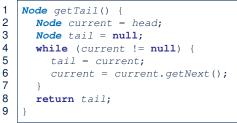
Let's now consider | list.getSize() : current != null End of Iteration size current alan true mark true 2 2 3 3 tom true null false 16 of 57

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 <code>SinglyLinkedList</code>.

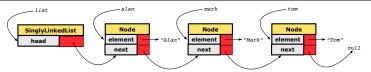


When does the while-loop (L4) exit? [current == null]
 RT of getTail: O(n) [linear-time op.]
 Contrast: RT of a[a.length - 1]: O(1) [constant-time op.]





Singly-Linked List: Finding the Tail (2)



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

Let's now consider list.getTail() :

1

З

4

5

6

7 8

9

18 of

current current != null <u>End</u> of Iteration	tail
alan <i>true</i> 1	alan
mark true 2	mark
tom <i>true</i> 3	tom
null false –	-

Singly-Linked List: Can We Do Better?



- In practice, we may frequently 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.

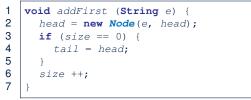
- Declare a new attribute *tail* pointing to the end of the list.
- Declare a new attribute *size* denoting the number of stored nodes.
- *RT* of these operations, accessing attribute values, are O(1)!
- Why not declare attributes to store <u>references</u> of <u>all</u> nodes between head and tail (e.g.,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

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

Problem: Insert a new string *e* to the <u>front</u> of the list.

- Hint. The list's <u>new</u> head should store *e* and point to the old head.
- $\circ~$ Assume we are in the context of class <code>SinglyLinkedList</code>.



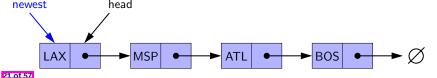
- Remember that RT of accessing head or tail is O(1)
- **RT of** addFirst is O(1)
- **Contrast**: Inserting into an array costs O(n)

[constant-time op.]

[linear-time op.]



Singly-Linked List: Inserting to the Front (2) head MSP BOS $\langle \rangle$ ATL newest head LAX MSP BOS ATL head newest







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:
 - void removeFirst()
 - 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)



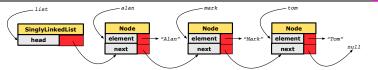
o Hint. 0 ≤ i < list.getSize()</pre>

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• Assume we are in the context of class SinglyLinkedList.

```
1
    Node getNodeAt (int i) {
2
      if (i < 0 || i >= size) {
3
        throw new IllegalArgumentException("Invalid Index");
4
5
      else {
6
        int index = 0:
7
        Node current = head:
8
        while (index < i) { /* exit when index == i */</pre>
9
           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)



```
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 -

Singly-Linked List: Accessing the Middle (3)

- 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)
- **Contrast**: Accessing an array element costs O(1)

[linear-time op.]

[constant-time op.]



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



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

```
o Hint 1. 0 ≤ i ≤ list.getSize()
```

• Hint 2. Use getNodeAt (?) as a helper method.

```
void addAt (int i, String e) {
 1
2
      if (i < 0 || i > size) {
3
        throw new IllegalArgumentException("Invalid Index.");
4
5
      else {
6
        if (i == 0) {
7
           addFirst(e);
8
9
        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)

- A call to addAt (i, e) may end up executing:
 - Line 3 (throw exception)
 - Line 7 (addFirst)
 - Lines 10 (getNodeAt)
 - Lines 11 13 (setting references)
- 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)
- 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) !



[linear-time op.]

Singly-Linked List: Removing from the End



<u>Problem</u>: Remove the last node (i.e., tail) of the list.
<u>Hint</u>. Using *tail* sufficient? Use getNodeAt (?) as a helper?

• Assume we are in the context of class SinglyLinkedList.

```
void removeLast () {
 1
 2
      if (size == 0) {
 3
         throw new IllegalArgumentException("Empty List.");
 4
 5
      else if (size == 1) {
 6
        removeFirst();
 7
 8
      else {
 9
         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 **reference node** 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?
- 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?









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



Arrays vs. Singly-Linked Lists



DATA STRUCTURE			SINGLY-LINKED LIST	
OPERATION			SINGLI-LINKED LIST	
get size			O(1)	
get first/last element				
get element at index i		O(1)	O(n)	
remove last element				
add/remove first element, add last element			O(1)	
add/remove <i>i</i> th 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:
 - General collection (e.g., <code>Object[]</code>) vs. Generic collection (e.g., <code>E[]</code>)
 - 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.



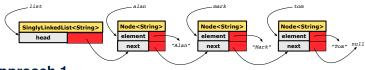
Generic Classes: Singly-Linked List (1)

```
public class Node< E > {
    private E element;
    private Node< E > next;
    public Node( E e, Node< E > n) { element = e; next = n; }
    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; }
}
```

```
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:
```



Basic DS: Doubly-Linked Lists (1.1)



[**O(1)**]

[head]

[O(n)]

[head/tail]

[given ref. to previous node]

- We know that a *singly-linked list (SLL)* performs:
 - WFII.
 - inserting to the front/end
 - · removing from the front
 - inserting/deleting the middle
 - POORLY:
 - accessing the middle
 - [getNodeAt(i)] removing from the end [getNodeAt(list.getSize() - 2)]
 - inserting/deleting the middle
- [not given ref. to previous node] We may again improve the performance by

trading *space* for *time*

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





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

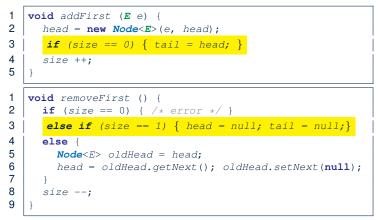
[SYMMETRY]





Basic DS: Doubly-Linked Lists (2.1)

Recall the need to handle <u>edge cases</u> for <u>singly</u>-linked lists:



- Cases of empty *current* and *resulting* lists are *explicitly* coded.
 We can actually reaches this issue via a small extension.
- We can actually resolve this issue via a *small extension*!



Basic DS: Doubly-Linked Lists (2.2)



- Each **DLL** stores:
 - A reference to a dedicated <u>header node</u> in the list
 - A reference to a dedicated <u>trailer node</u> in the list <u>Remark</u>. Unlike SLL, *DLL* does <u>not</u> 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 <u>header</u> node stores the <u>next</u> reference only
 - The <u>trailer</u> node stores previous reference only
 - They **always** exist, even in the case of empty lists.





• The <u>node-level</u> prev reference helps improve the performance of removeLast().

∵ The *second last node* can be accessed in *constant time*.

[trailer.getPrev().getPrev()]

- The two <u>list-level</u> sentinel/guard nodes (header and trailer) do <u>not</u> 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 in-between two nodes
 - Without worrying about dealing with <u>edge cases</u> by re-setting the head and tail of list





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)

```
1
   public class DoublyLinkedList<E> {
2
      private int size = 0;
3
      public void addFirst(E e) { ... }
4
      public void removeLast() { ... }
5
      public void addAt(int i, E e) { ... }
6
      private Node<E> header;
7
      private Node<E> trailer;
8
      public DoublyLinkedList() {
9
        header = new Node<>(null, null, null);
10
        trailer = new Node<>(null, header, null);
11
        header.setNext(trailer);
12
13
```

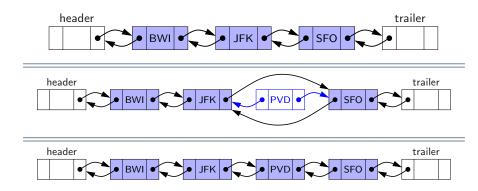
Lines 8 to 10 are equivalent to:

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



Doubly-Linked List: Insertions







Doubly-Linked List: Inserting to Front/End



```
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)

```
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) !!!



1 2

3

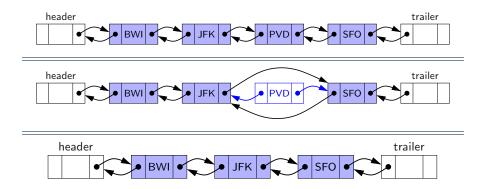
4

5

6

Doubly-Linked List: Removals







Doubly-Linked List: Removing from Front/E

```
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
```

```
void remove (Node<E> node) {
   Node<E> pred = node.getPrev();
   Node<E> succ = node.getNext();
   pred.setNext(succ); succ.setPrev(pred);
   node.setNext(null); node.setPrev(null);
   size --;
}
```

Running Time? O(1)

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

Running Time? O(1)



Running Time? Now <mark>O(1)</mark> !!!

Doubly-Linked List: Removing from Middle

```
void remove (Node<E> node) {
   Node<E> pred = node.getPrev();
   Node<E> succ = node.getNext();
   pred.setNext(succ); succ.setPrev(pred);
   node.setNext(null); node.setPrev(null);
   size --;
}
```

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



[O(n)]

[O(1)]

[O(n)]

Exercise 1: Compare the steps and running times of:

- Not given a reference node:
 - addNodeAt(int i, E e)
- Given a reference node:
 - addNodeBefore(*Node*<E> n, E e) [SLL: *O*(*n*); DLL: *O*(1)]
 - addNodeAfter(*Node*<E> n, E e)

Exercise 2: Compare the steps and running times of:

- Not given a reference node:
 - removeNodeAt(int i)
- Given a reference node:
 - removeNodeBefore(*Node*<E> n)
 - removeNodeAfter(*Node*<E> n)
 - removNode(*Node*<E> n)

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



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

DATA STRUCTURE OPERATION		ARRAY	SINGLY-LINKED LIST	DOUBLY-LINKED LIST	
size		O(1)			
first/last element					
element at index i		O(1)	O(n)	O(n)	
remove last element			0(1)		
add/remove first element, add last element			O(1)	O(1)	
add/remove <i>i</i> th element	given reference to $(i - 1)^{th}$ element	O(n)	0(1)		
	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)



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

Tracing Insertion & Selection Sorts in Java

Comparing Insertion & Selection Sorts

Exercise: Alternative Implementations?

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)

Basic DS: Doubly-Linked Lists (1.1)

Basic DS: Doubly-Linked Lists (1.2)

Basic DS: Doubly-Linked Lists (2.1)

Basic DS: Doubly-Linked Lists (2.2)

DLNs and DLLs: prev, header, trailer

Generic Doubly-Linked Lists in Java (1)

Generic Doubly-Linked Lists in Java (2)



Index (5)



Doubly-Linked List: Insertions

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



EECS2101 X & Z: Fundamentals of Data Structures Winter 2025

CHEN-WEI WANG

Learning Outcomes of this Lecture

This module is designed to help you learn about:

- The notion of *Abstract Data Types (ADTs)*
- **ADTs**: Stack vs. Queue
- Implementing <u>Stack</u> and <u>Queue</u> in Java
- Applications of Stacks vs. Queues
- Circular Arrays
- Optional (but highly encouraged):
 - Criterion of *Modularity*, Modular Design
 - Dynamic Arrays, Amortized Analysis

[interface, classes]



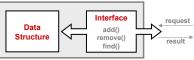


Abstract Data Types (ADTs)



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

ADT



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

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- <u>Correct</u> output
- <u>Efficient</u> performance

Java API Approximates ADTs (1)



Interface List<E>

Type Parameters:

E - the type of elements in this list

All Superinterfaces:

Collection<E>, Iterable<E>

All Known Implementing Classes:

```
AbstractList, AbstractSequentialList, ArrayList, AttributeList, CopyOnWriteArrayList, LinkedList, RoleList, RoleUnresolvedList, Stack, Vector
```

public interface List<E>
extends Collection<E>

An ordered collection (also known as a *sequence*). The user of this interface has precise control over where in the list each element is inserted. The user can access elements by their integer index (position in the list), and search for elements in the list.

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)



E	<pre>set(int index, E element) Replaces the element at the specified position in this list with the specified element (optional operation).</pre>	
<pre>set E set(int index, E element)</pre>		
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 < θ index >= size())		

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



Building ADTs for Reusability



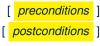
• *ADTs* are *reusable software components* that are common for solving many real-world problems.

e.g., Stacks, Queues, Lists, Tables, Trees, Graphs

- An *ADT*, once thoroughly tested, can be reused by:
 - 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 standard ADT, you should know its interface :
 - Stored data

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- For each *operation* manipulating the stored data
 - How are *clients* supposed to use the method?
 - What are the services provided by *suppliers*?
 - 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 •

size

[precondition: stack is not empty] [postcondition: return item last pushed to the stack] [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] [precondition: stack is not empty] [**postcondition**: remove and return the top of stack]



pop

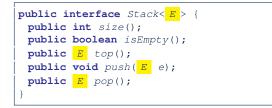
Stack: Illustration



OPERATION	RETURN VALUE	STACK CONTENTS
_	-	Ø
isEmpty	true	Ø
push(5)	_	5
push(3)	_	<u>3</u> 5
puon(o)		5
push(1)	_	<u>1</u> 3 5
size	3	<u>1</u> 3 5
top	1	<u>1</u> 35
рор	1	<u>3</u> 5
рор	3	5
рор	5	Ø





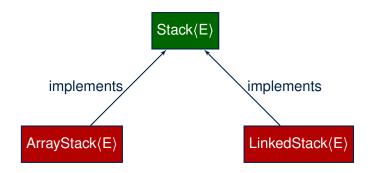


The *Stack* ADT, declared as an *interface*, allows *alternative implementations* to conform to its method headers.



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 isEmpty() \{ 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)
рор	O(1)

- <u>Exercise</u> This version of implementation treats the *end* of array as the *top* of stack. Would the RTs of operations <u>change</u> if we treated the *beginning* of array as the *top* of stack?
- **Q**. What if the preset capacity turns out to be insufficient?

<u>A</u>. 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	
Slack Melliou	Strategy 1	Strategy 2
size	list.size	
isEmpty	list.isEmpty	
top	list.first	list.last
push	list.addFirst	list.addLast
рор	list.removeFirst	list.removeLast

Which *implementation strategy* should be chosen?





- 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 testPolvmorphicStacks() {
 Stack<String> s = new ArravStack<>();
 s.push("Alan"); /* dynamic binding */
 s.push("Mark"); /* dvnamic binding */
 s.push("Tom"); /* dynamic binding */
 assertTrue(s.size() == 3 && !s.isEmpty());
 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> mvStack: 2 mvStack = new ArravStack<String>(); 3

4

5

mvStack.push("Alan");

mvStack = new LinkedStack<String>();

```
mvStack.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





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., <u>Correct</u>: () (()) { ([()] ) }
e.g., <u>Incorrect</u>: ({[])}
```

Sketch of Solution

- When a new *opening* delimiter is found, *push* it to the <u>stack</u>.
- 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 stack 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()) {</pre>
    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("{[]]");
    assertFalse(StackUtilities.isMatched("{[]]"});
    assertFalse(StackUtilities.is
```





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	345*-
(3 - 4) * 5	3 4 - 5 *





Sketch of Solution

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

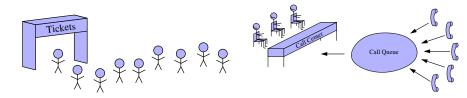
[e.g., 523+*+] [e.g., 53+6]



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 <u>arbitrary</u> 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 engueued] size [precondition: none] [postcondition: return number of items enqueued] isEmpty [precondition: none] [**postcondition**: return whether there is no item in the queue] 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]

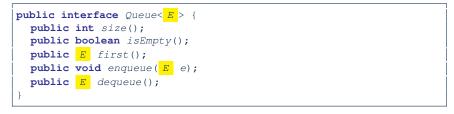
Queue: Illustration



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





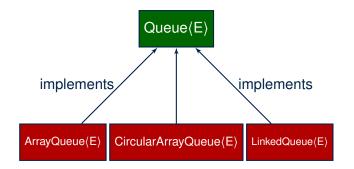


The *Queue* ADT, declared as an *interface*, allows *alternative implementations* to conform to its method headers.



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 isEmpty() \{ 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]; }
    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 *beginning* of array as the *first* of queue. Would the RTs of operations <u>change</u> if we treated the *end* of array as the *first* of queue?
- **Q**. What if the preset capacity turns out to be insufficient?

<u>A</u>. 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)

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





Polymorphism & Dynamic Binding

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	

```
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



Exercise: Implementing a Queue using Two Stacks

```
public class StackQueue<E> implements Queue<E> {
    private Stack<E> inStack;
    private Stack<E> outStack;
    ...
}
```

- For *size*, add up sizes of inStack and outStack.
- For *isEmpty*, 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* <u>all</u> items from inStack and *push* them to outStack.

SON

Exercise: Why does this work? [*implement* and *test*] **Exercise**: Running Time? [see analysis on *dynamic arrays*]

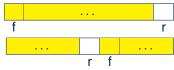
Implementing Queue ADT: Circular Array (1)



- Maximum size: N 1
- Empty Queue: when r = f

f, r f, r

- Full Queue: when ((r + 1) % N) = f
 - When *r* > *f*:
 - When *r* < *f*:
- Size of Queue:
 o If r = f: 0
 - If *r* > *f*: *r f*
 - If **r** < **f**: **r** + (**N f**)



[N = data.length]



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Implementing Queue ADT: Circular Array (2)

Running Times of CircularArray-Based Queue Operations?

CircularArrayQueue 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*.



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 Que</u>ue (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();
}
```

• **<u>Exercise</u>**: Implement *Deque* using a *circular array*.

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• **<u>Exercise</u>**: Implement *Deque* using a *SLL* and/or *DLL*.



These topics are useful for your knowledge about ADTs, stacks, and Queues.

You are **<u>encouraged</u>** to follow through these online lectures:

https://www.eecs.yorku.ca/~jackie/teaching/

lectures/index.html#EECS2011 W22

- Design by Contract and Modularity
 - Week 5: Lecture 3, Parts A2 A3
- Dynamic Arrays and Amortized Analysis
 - Week 6: Lecture 3, Parts E1 E5



Terminology: Contract, Client, Supplier



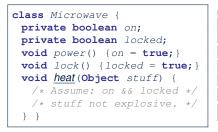
- A *supplier* implements/provides a service (e.g., microwave).
- A *client* uses a service provided by some supplier.
 - The client is required to follow certain instructions to obtain the service (e.g., supplier **assumes** that client powers on, closes door, and heats something that is not explosive).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

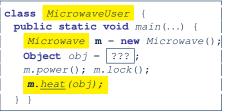
				benefits	obligations
	CLIENT SUPPLIER a			obtain a service	follow instructions
			assume instructions followed		provide a service
 There is a contract between two parties 				between two parties, vio	blated if:
	• The instr	uc	[Client's fault]		

Instructions followed, but service not satisfactory. [Supplier's fault]



Client, Supplier, Contract in OOP (1)





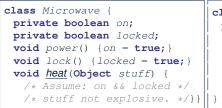
Method call *m.<u>heat(obj)</u> indicates a client-supplier relation.*

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





Client, Supplier, Contract in OOP (2)



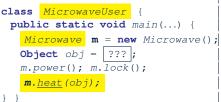
• The contract is honoured if:

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).

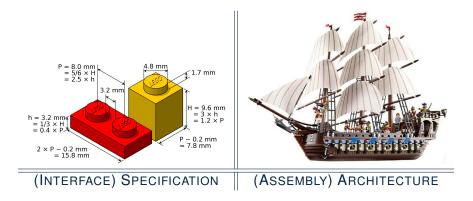
Right after the method call : obj is properly heated.

- If any of these fails, there is a contract violation.
 - m.on **or** m.locked is false
 - obj is an explosive A fault from the client is identified
 - Method executed but obj not properly heated ⇒ Microwave's fault
- ⇒ MicrowaveUser's fault.
- ⇒ MicrowaveUser's fault.
- \Rightarrow Method call will not start.





Modularity (1): Childhood Activity

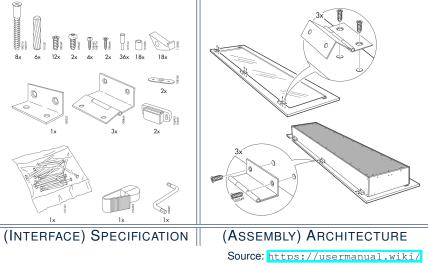


Sources: https://commons.wikimedia.ord and https://www.wish.com





Modularity (2): Daily Construction

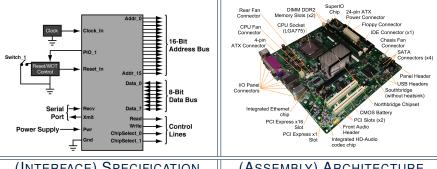




Modularity (3): Computer Architecture



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



(INTERFACE) SPECIFICATION

(ASSEMBLY) ARCHITECTURE

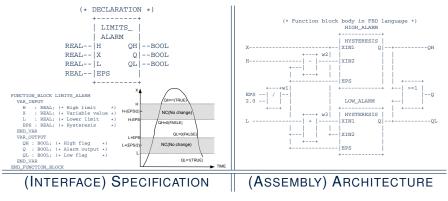


Sources: www.embeddedlinux.org.cn and https://en.wikipedia.org



Modularity (4): System Development

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



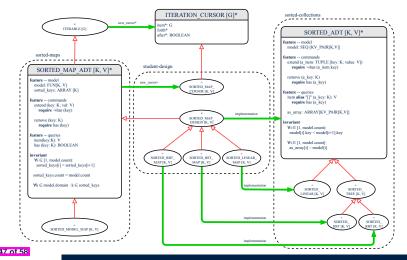
Sources: https://plcopen.org/iec-61131-3



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.

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 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 <u>rarely</u>, how about the <u>average</u> running time?
- We will refer L14 L22 as the resizing part and L23 – L24 as the update part.

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Dynamic Array: Doubling



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 ++) {</pre>
      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 <u>worst case</u>.
- However, given that *resizing* only happens <u>rarely</u>, how about the <u>average</u> running time?
- We will refer L12 L20 as the resizing part and L21 – L22 as the update part.



12

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23 24

Avg. RT: Const. Increment vs. Doubling



 <u>Without loss of generality</u>, assume: There are *n push* operations, and the <u>last push</u> triggers the <u>last *resizing*</u> routine.

	Constant Increments	Doubling	
RT of exec. update part for <i>n</i> pushes	<i>O</i> (<i>n</i>)		
RT of executing 1st resizing	1		
RT of executing 2nd resizing	I + C	2 · 1	
RT of executing 3rd resizing	$I + 2 \cdot C$	4 · /	
RT of executing 4th resizing	<i>I</i> + 3 · <i>C</i>	8 · /	
RT of executing <i>k</i> th resizing	$I + (\mathbf{k} - 1) \cdot C$	2 ^{<i>k</i>−1} · <i>I</i>	
RT of executing last resizing	n		
# of <u>resizing</u> 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	<i>O(n)</i>	O(1)	

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



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



Index (1)



Learning Outcomes of this Lecture

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)



Index (2)



Implementing Stack: Array (2)

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?



Index (3)



The Queue ADT

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



Index (4)



Exercise:

Implementing a Queue using Two Stacks

Implementing Queue ADT: Circular Array (1)

Implementing Queue ADT: Circular Array (2)

Limitations of Queue

The Double-Ended Queue ADT

Optional Materials

Terminology: Contract, Client, Supplier

Client, Supplier, Contract in OOP (1)

Client, Supplier, Contract in OOP (2)

Modularity (1): Childhood Activity



Index (5)



Modularity (2): Daily Construction

Modularity (3): Computer Architecture

Modularity (4): System Development

Modularity (5): Software Design

Design Principle: Modularity

Array Implementations: Stack and Queue

Dynamic Array: Constant Increments

Dynamic Array: Doubling

Avg. RT: Const. Increment vs. Doubling

Beyond this lecture ...



Recursion (Part 2)



EECS2101 X & Z: Fundamentals of Data Structures Winter 2025

CHEN-WEI WANG



This module is designed to help you:

- Learn about the more intermediate recursive algorithms:
 - Binary Search
 - Merge Sort
 - Quick Sort



Recursion: Binary Search (1)



• Searching Problem

Given a numerical key <u>k</u> and an array <u>a</u> of **n** numbers:

Precondition: Input array <u>a</u> **sorted** in a <u>non-descending</u> order

i.e., $a[0] \le a[1] \le ... \le a[n-1]$

Postcondition: Return whether or not <u>k</u> exists in the input array <u>a</u>.

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

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<u>Base</u> Case: Empty array \rightarrow *false*.

<u>Recursive</u> Case: Array of size $\geq 1 \longrightarrow$

- <u>Compare</u> 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 $\geq k$
- If the *middle* element *is* equal to key $\underline{k} \longrightarrow true$
- If the *middle* element *is not* equal to key <u>k</u>:
 - If *k* < *middle*, <u>recursively</u> <u>search</u> key <u>k</u> on the <u>left</u> half.
 - If *k* > *middle*, <u>recursively</u> search key <u>k</u> on the <u>right</u> 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 (key > middleValue) {
    return binarySearchH(sorted, middle + 1, to, key);
   else { return true; }
```





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

$$\begin{array}{rcl} T(0) &= & 1 \\ T(1) &= & 1 \\ T(n) &= & T(\frac{n}{2}) + 1 & \text{where } n \geq 2 \end{array}$$

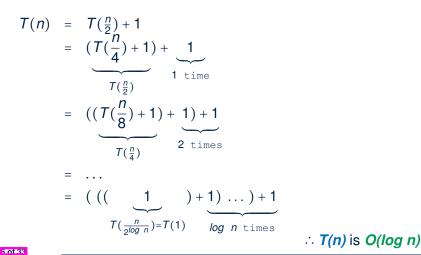
To solve this recurrence relation, we study the pattern of *T(n)* and observe how it reaches the *base case(s)*.



Running Time: Binary Search (2)



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



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

• A Recursive Algorithm

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

<u>Base</u> Case 2: List of size $1 \rightarrow$ Automatically sorted.

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

- 1. Split the list into two (unsorted) halves: L and R.
- 2. <u>Recursively</u> 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 j = 0;
  while(i < L.size() && j < R.size()) {
    if(L.get(i) <= R.get(j)) { merge.add(L.get(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 = i; k < R.size(); k + +) { merge.add(R.get(k)); }
 return merge;
```

RT(merge)?

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



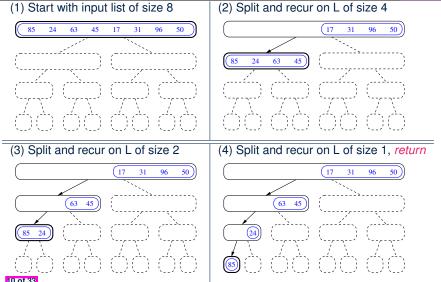
Recursion: Merge Sort in Java (2)

```
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:
```



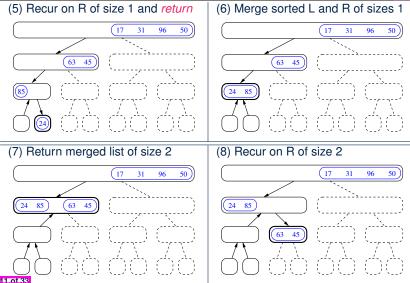


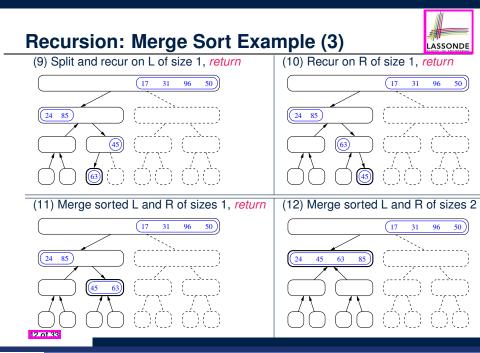
Recursion: Merge Sort Example (1)





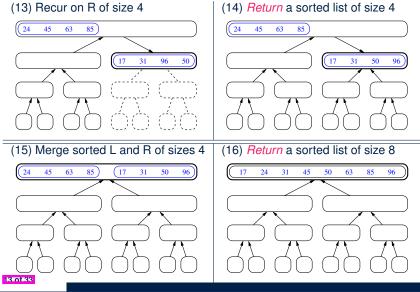
Recursion: Merge Sort Example (2)







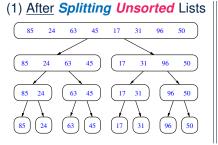
Recursion: Merge Sort Example (4)



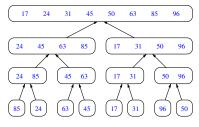
Recursion: Merge Sort Example (5)



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

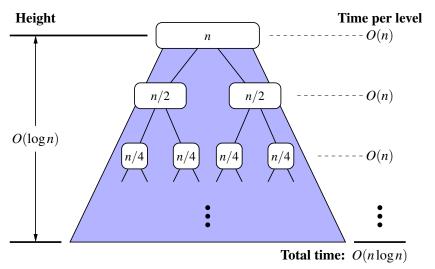








Recursion: Merge Sort Running Time (1)



LASSONDE



Recursion: Merge Sort Running Time (2)



- <u>Base</u> Case 2: List of size $1 \rightarrow$ Automatically sorted. [O(1)]
- **<u>Recursive</u>** Case: List of size $\ge 2 \longrightarrow$
 - 1. Split the list into two (unsorted) halves: L and R;
 - <u>Recursively</u> sort *L* and *R*, resulting in: sortedL and sortedR
 Q. # times to split until *L* and *R* have size 0 or 1?

 $\underline{\mathbf{u}}$: # times to spin that \mathbf{L} and \mathbf{H} have size 0 of 1? A. [O(log n)]

3. Return the *merge* of *sortedL* and *sortedR*.



- = (RT each RC) ×
- \times (# RCs)

LASSOND

[**O(1)**]

[O(n)]

- = (RT merging sortedL and sortedR) × (# splits until bases)
- $= O(n \cdot \log n)$





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

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

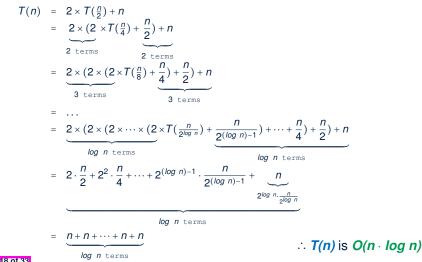
To solve this recurrence relation, we study the pattern of *T(n)* and observe how it reaches the *base case(s)*.



Recursion: Merge Sort Running Time (4)



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



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 $\langle a'_1, a'_2, ..., a'_n \rangle$ **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 \rightarrow Automatically sorted.

<u>Base</u> Case 2: List of size $1 \rightarrow$ Automatically sorted.

<u>Recursive</u> Case: List of size $\ge 2 \longrightarrow$

- 1. Choose a *pivot* element.
- 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*.





[ideally the *median*]



Recursion: Quick Sort in Java (1)



[**O**(n)]

[O(n)]

```
List<Integer> allLessThanOrEqualTo(int pivotIndex, List<Integer> list)
 List<Integer> sublist = new ArravList<>():
 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); }
 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.get(i);
   if(i != pivotIndex && v > pivotValue) { sublist.add(v); }
 return sublist;
```

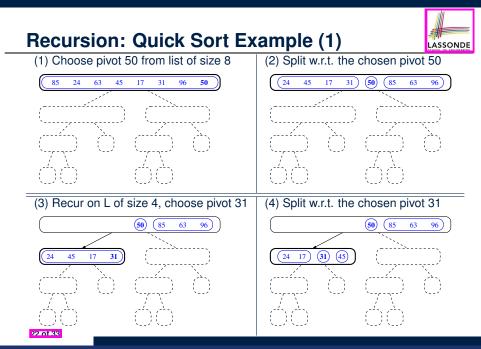
RT(allLessThanOrEqualTo)? RT(allLargerThan)?

Recursion: Quick Sort in Java (2)



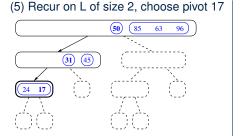
```
public List<Integer> sort(List<Integer> list) {
 List<Integer> sortedList;
 if(list.size() == 0) { sortedList = new ArravList<>(); }
 else if(list.size() == 1) {
   sortedList = new ArrayList<>(); sortedList.add(list.get(0)); }
 else {
   int pivotIndex = list.size() - 1;
   int pivotValue = list.get(pivotIndex);
   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:
```



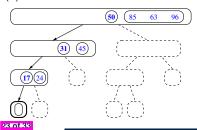




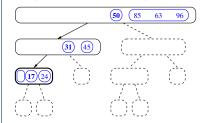
Recursion: Quick Sort Example (2)



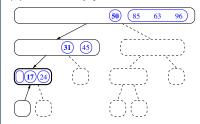
(7) Recur on L of size 0



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

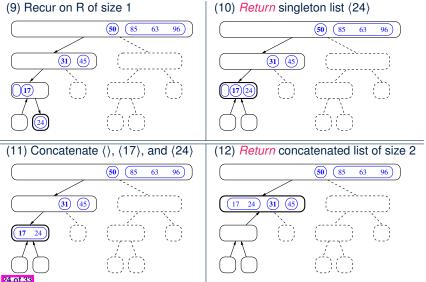


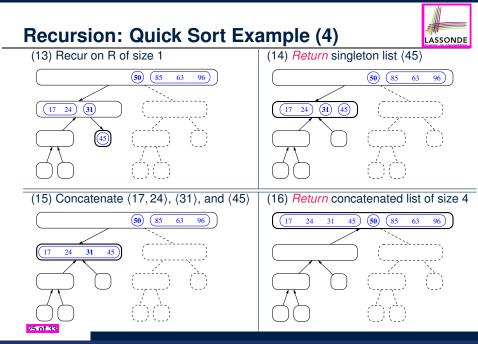
(8) Return empty list





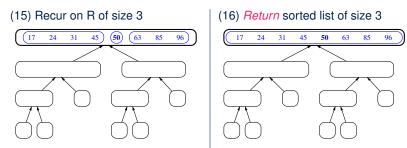
Recursion: Quick Sort Example (3)







Recursion: Quick Sort Example (5)



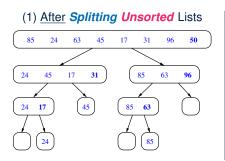
(17) Concatenate (17, 24, 31, 45), (50), and (63, 85, 96), then *return*

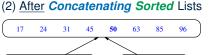


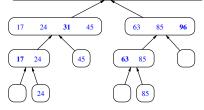
Recursion: Quick Sort Example (6)



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





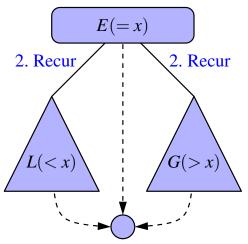






Recursion: Quick Sort Running Time (1)

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

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
 - $\circ~$ 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:

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

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

Index (1)

Learning Outcomes of this Lecture

Recursion: Binary Search (1)

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)

Recursion: Merge Sort Example (2)

Recursion: Merge Sort Example (3)





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Recursion: Merge Sort Running Time (3)

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Recursion: Quick Sort

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Recursion: Quick Sort Example (4)

Recursion: Quick Sort Example (5)

Recursion: Quick Sort Example (6)

Recursion: Quick Sort Running Time (1)

Recursion: Quick Sort Running Time (2)

Recursion: Quick Sort Running Time (3)





General Trees and Binary Trees



EECS2101 X & Z: Fundamentals of Data Structures Winter 2025

CHEN-WEI WANG



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

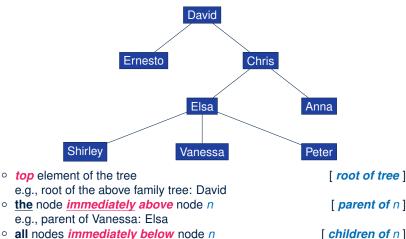


- A *linear* data structure is a sequence, where stored objects can be related via notions of "predecessor" and "successor".
 - e.g., arrays
 - e.g., Singly-Linked Lists (SLLs)
 - e.g., Doubly-Linked Lists (DLLs)
- The *Tree ADT* is a *non-linear* collection of nodes/positions.
 - Each node stores some 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*:
 - e.g., root
 - e.g., parents, siblings, children
 - e.g., ancestors, descendants



General Trees: Terminology (1)

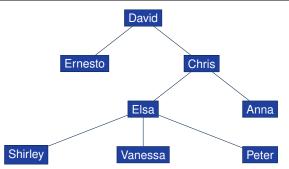




- <u>all</u> nodes <u>immediately below</u> node n
 e.g., children of Elsa: Shirley, Vanessa, and Peter
 - e.g., children of Ernesto: Ø

General Trees: Terminology (2)

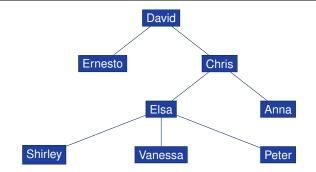




- Union of n, n's parent, n's grand parent, ..., root [n's ancestors]
 e.g., ancestors of Vanessa: <u>Vanessa</u>, Elsa, Chris, and David
 e.g., ancestors of David: David
- Union of n, n's children, n's grand children, ... [n's descendants]
 e.g., descendants of Vanessa: Vanessa
 e.g., descendants of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

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

[siblings of node n]

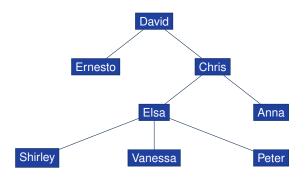
[subtree rooted at n] [external nodes (leaves)]

- e.g., leaves of the above tree: Ernesto, Anna, Shirley, Vanessa, Peter [internal nodes]
- nodes with at least one child

e.g., non-leaves of the above tree: David, Chris, Elsa

General Trees: Terminology (4)





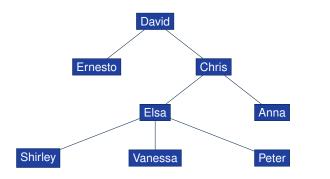
- a <u>pair</u> of *parent* and *child* nodes [an edge of tree]
 e.g., (David, Chris), (Chris, Elsa), (Elsa, Peter) are three edges
- a <u>sequence</u> of nodes where any two consecutive nodes form an <u>edge</u>
 [a path of tree]

e.g., (David, Chris, Elsa, Peter) is a path

e.g., Elsa's *ancestor path*: \langle Elsa, Chris, David \rangle

General Trees: Terminology (5)





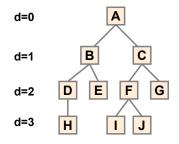
- number of *edges* from the *root* to node *n* [*depth of n*]
 <u>alternatively</u>: number of *n*'s *ancestors* of *n* minus one
 e.g., depth of David (root): 0
 e.g., depth of Shirley, Vanessa, and Peter: 3
- maximum depth among all nodes

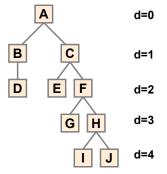
[height of tree]

e.g., Shirley, Vanessa, and Peter have the maximum depth



General Trees: Example Node Depths









A *tree T* is a set of *nodes* satisfying **parent-child** properties:

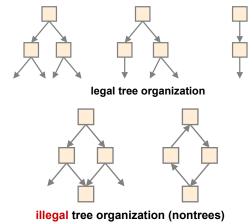
- 1. If T is *empty*, then it does not contain any nodes.
- 2. If T is *nonempty*, then:
 - T contains at least its root (a special node with no parent).
 - Each node <u>n</u> of T that is <u>not</u> the root has a unique parent node w.
 - Given two nodes <u>n</u> and <u>w</u>,
 if w is the parent of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



General Tree: Important Characteristics



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

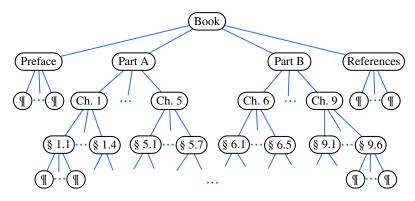




General Trees: Ordered Trees



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



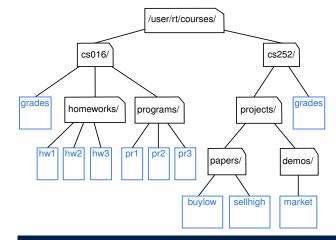


General Trees: Unordered Trees

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





Implementation: Generic Tree Nodes (1)

1 2

3

4

5 6

7

8 9

11

17

```
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:
       this.parent = null;
12
       this.children = (TreeNode<E>[])
13
        Array.newInstance(this.getClass(), MAX_NUM_CHILDREN);
14
       this. noc = 0:
15
16
```

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

this.children = (TreeNode<E>[]) **new Object**[MAX_NUM_CHILDREN]; 14 of 47



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) {
2
     if(n.getParent() == null) {
      return 0;
5
    else H
6
      return 1 + depth(n.getParent());
```



1

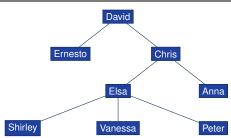
3

4

7 8



Testing: Computing a Node's Depth

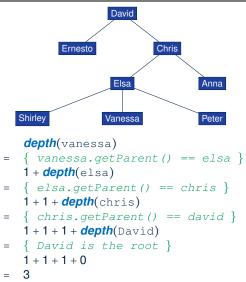


@Test

```
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(2, u.depth(elsa));
    assertEquals(2, u.depth(elsa));
    assertEquals(3, u.depth(shirley));
    assertEquals(3, u.depth(vanessa));
    assertEquals(3, u.depth(peter));
  }
}
```



Unfolding: Computing a Node's Depth



LASSONDE



Problem: Computing a Tree's Height



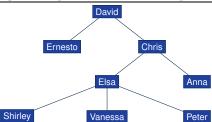
- Given node *n*, the *height* of subtree <u>rooted at *n*</u> is defined as:
 - If *n* is a *leaf*, then the *height* of subtree rooted at *n* is 0.
 - Otherwise, the height of subtree rooted at *n* is one plus the maximum height of <u>all</u> subtrees rooted at *n*'s children.
- Assuming under a *generic*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

```
public int height(TreeNode<E> n) {
 1
 2
      TreeNode<E>[] children = n.getChildren();
 3
      if(children.length == 0) { return 0; }
 4
     else {
 5
       int max = 0;
 6
       for(int i = 0; i < children.length; i ++) {</pre>
 7
         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

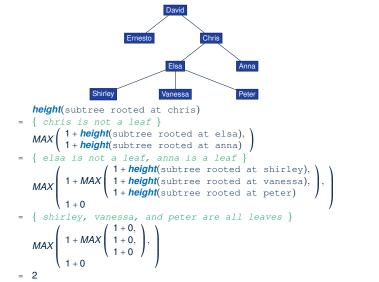
```
public void test_general_trees_heights() {
    ... /* constructing a tree as shown above */
    TreeUtilities<String> u = new TreeUtilities<>();
    /* internal nodes */
    assertEquals(3, u.height(david));
    assertEquals(2, u.height(chris));
    assertEquals(1, u.height(elsa));
    /* external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





Unfolding: Computing a Tree's Height

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• 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.

• Implement and test the following recursive algorithm:

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

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



Binary Trees (BTs): Definitions



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

- **1.** Each node has <u>**at most two**</u> (\leq 2) children.
- 2. Each *child node* is labeled as either a *left child* or a *right child*.
- 3. A left child precedes a right child.
- A *binary tree (BT)* is either:
 - An *empty* tree; or
 - A *nonempty* tree with a *root* node *r* which has:
 - a *left subtree* rooted at its *left child*, if any
 - a right subtree rooted at its right child, if any

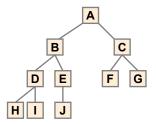


BT Terminology: LST vs. RST



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

- Subtree rooted 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.,



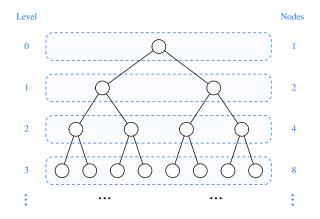
Node <u>A</u> has:

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

BT Terminology: Depths, Levels

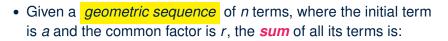


The set of nodes with the same depth d are said to be at the same level d.





Background: Sum of Geometric Sequence



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

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

LASSOND

- For the purpose of *binary trees*, *maximum* numbers of nodes at all *levels* form a *geometric sequence* :
 - a = 1 [the *root* at Level 0]
 r = 2 [≤ 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:

. . .

- 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:
- Summing all levels:

Maximum total number of nodes:

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



0	ŀ
2	

 $2^0 = 1$

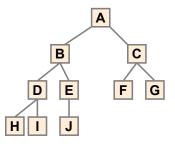
 $2^1 = 2$

 $2^2 = 4$

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 <u>zero</u>, <u>one</u>, or <u>two</u> child nodes.
- Children of nodes with depth h 1 are filled from left to right.

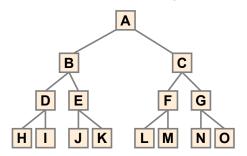


Q1: *Minimum* # of nodes of a *complete* BT? $(2^{h} - 1) + 1 = 2^{h}$ **Q2:** *Maximum* # of nodes of a *complete* BT? $2^{h+1} - 1$

BT Terminology: Full BTs



A *binary tree* with *height h* is considered as *full* if: <u>Each</u> node with *depth* $\leq h - 1$ has <u>two</u> child nodes. That is, all *leaves* 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? $2^{h+1} - 1$ 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

$$n = 2^{n+1} - 3$$

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

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

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

• Shape of BT with *maximum* height?

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





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

 $1 \le n_E \le 2^h$

- 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





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

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

- 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:
$$2^0 + 2^1 + \dots + 2^{h-1} = 2^h - \frac{1}{2^{h-1}}$$

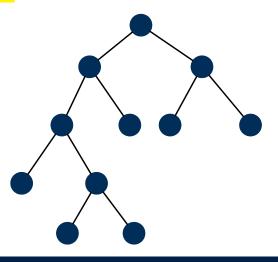
n terms



BT Terminology: Proper BT



A *binary tree* is *proper* if <u>each</u> *internal node* has two children.







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

Given a *binary tree* that is:

- nonempty and proper
- with n_l internal nodes and n_E external nodes

We can then expect that: $\mathbf{n}_{\mathbf{E}} = \mathbf{n}_{\mathbf{I}} + 1$ 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 n₁ *internal nodes* and n_E *external nodes* such that n_E = n₁ + 1.
- Only <u>one</u> way to create a <u>larger</u> BT (with n + 2 nodes) that is still *proper* (with n'_{E} *external nodes* and n'_{I} *internal nodes*):

Convert an external node into an *internal* node.

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

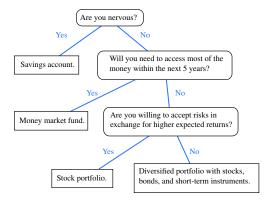
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Binary Trees: Application (1)



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

- Each *internal node* denotes a <u>decision</u> point: yes or no.
- Each external node denotes the <u>consequence</u> of a decision.



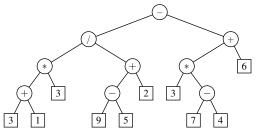


Binary Trees: Application (2)



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

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



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



- 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:

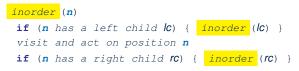
• **Preorder**: Visit parent, then visit child subtrees.

```
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
```

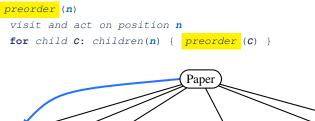
• Inorder (for BT): Visit left subtree, then parent, then right subtree.

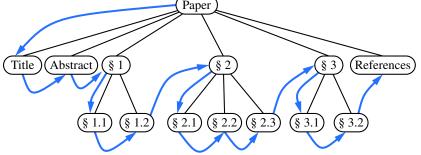




Tree Traversal Algorithms: Preorder

Preorder: Visit parent, then visit child subtrees.



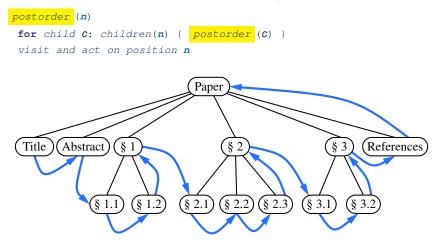




Tree Traversal Algorithms: Postorder



Postorder: Visit child subtrees, then visit parent.

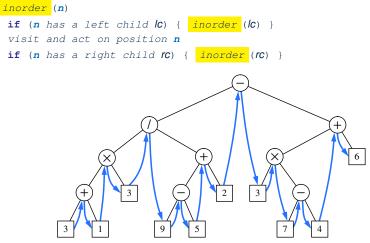




Tree Traversal Algorithms: Inorder



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





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

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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



EECS2101 X & Z: Fundamentals of Data Structures Winter 2025

CHEN-WEI WANG

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



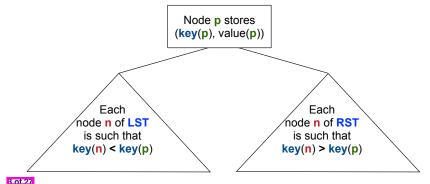
Binary Search Tree: Recursive Definition



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:

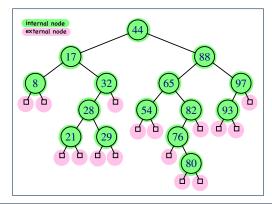
- For each node *n* in the *LST* of *p*: key(*n*) < key(*p*)
- For each node *n* in the *RST* of *p*: key(n) > key(p)



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.

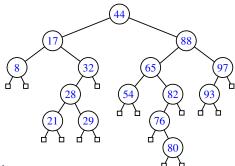




BST: Sorting Property



- 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:

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- <u>In-Order</u> 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 getKey() { ... }
 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) { ... }
```

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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<>(); ArravList<**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());

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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**.

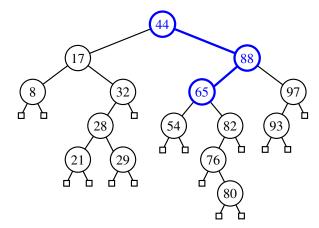
```
public BSTNode<E> search(BSTNode<E> p, int k) {
 BSTNode<E> result = null:
 if(p.isExternal()) {
   result = p; /* unsuccessful search */
 else if (p.getKev() == k) {
   result = p; /* successful search */
 else if (k < p.getKey()) {
   result = search(p.getLeft(), k); /* recur on LST */
 else if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



Visualizing BST Operation: Searching (1)



A successful search for key 65:



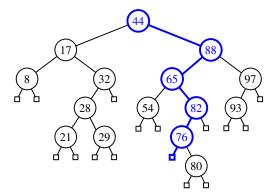
The *internal node* storing key 65 is returned.



Visualizing BST Operation: Searching (2)

• An unsuccessful search for key 68:

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

<u>Exercise</u>: Provide keys for different external nodes to be returned.



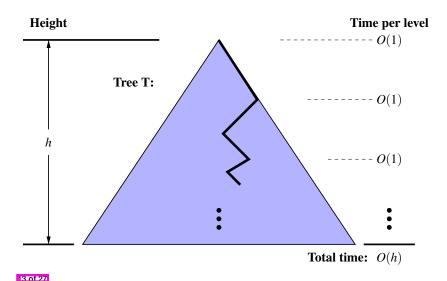
Testing BST Operation: Searching

```
@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 == 11. search(n28, 23)): /* 21 < *23* < 28 */
 assertTrue(extN3 == u.search(n28, 33)); /* 28 < *33* < 35 */
 assertTrue(extN4 == u.search(n28, 38)); /* 35 < *38* */
```

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RT of BST Operation: Searching (1)







[**O(1)**]

[**h**+1]

RT of BST Operation: Searching (2)

- <u>Recursive</u> calls of search are made on a *path* which
 - Starts from the root
 - Goes down one *level* at a time
 - RT of deciding from each node to go to LST or RST?
 - Stops when the key is found or when a *leaf* is reached Maximum number of nodes visited by the search?
 - \therefore RT of **search on a BST** is O(h)
- <u>Recall</u>: Given a BT with *n* nodes, the *height h* is bounded as:

 $log(n+1)-1 \leq \pmb{h} \leq n-1$

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

[balanced BST] [ill-balanced BST]

• *Binary search* on <u>non-linear</u> vs. <u>linear</u> 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)			





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 **<u>not</u>** exist in the BST.
 - \Rightarrow Set *p*'s key and value to *k* and *v*.

Running time?

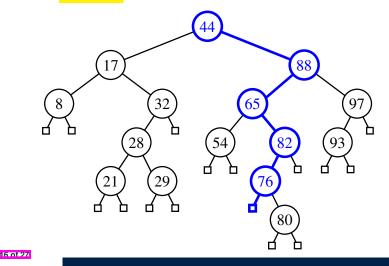




Visualizing BST Operation: Insertion (1)



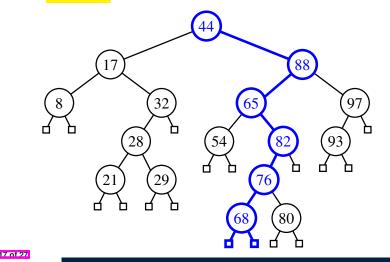
Before *inserting* an entry with *key 68* into the following BST:



Visualizing BST Operation: Insertion (2)



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





<u>Exercise</u>: In BSTUtilities class, *implement* and *test* the

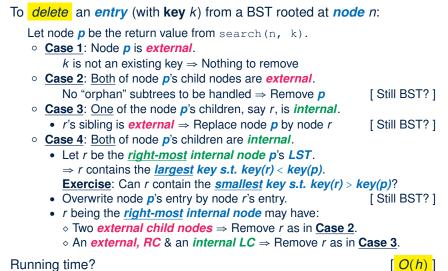
void insert(BSTNode<E> p, int k, E v) method.





Sketch of BST Operation: Deletion

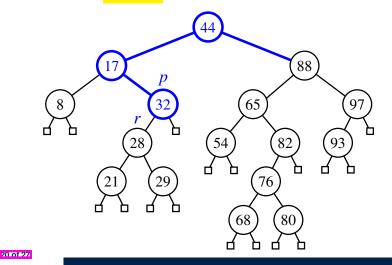
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Visualizing BST Operation: Deletion (1.1)



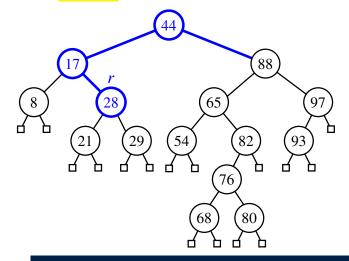
(Case 3) Before *deleting* the node storing *key 32*:



Visualizing BST Operation: Deletion (1.2)



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

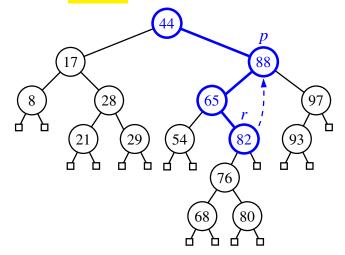




Visualizing BST Operation: Deletion (2.1)



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

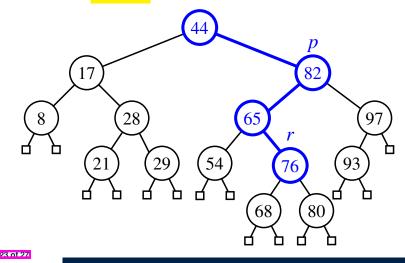




Visualizing BST Operation: Deletion (2.2)



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





Exercise: 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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Index (2)



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



Priority Queues, Heaps, and Heap Sort



EECS2101 X & Z: Fundamentals of Data Structures Winter 2025

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
- 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



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 decreasing order of their keys $\langle 100, 75, 68, 60, 50, 1 \rangle$

⇒ One-path, left-slanted BST

 $\circ~$ e.g., Entries were inserted in an $\underline{increasing~order}$ of their keys $\langle 1, 50, 60, 68, 75, 100 \rangle$

⇒ One-path, right-slanted BST

 $\circ~$ e.g., Last entry's key is in-between keys of the previous two entries $$\langle 1,100,50,75,60,68 \rangle$$

⇒ 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*.



Balanced Binary Search Trees: Definition

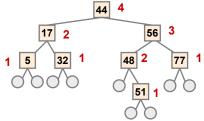


• Given a node *p*, the *height* of the subtree rooted at *p* is:

 $height(p) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } p \text{ is external} \\ 1 + MAX \left(\left\{ \begin{array}{c} height(c) \mid parent(c) = p \right\} \right) & \text{if } p \text{ is internal} \end{cases}$

A balanced BST T satisfies the height-balance property :

For every *internal node* n, *heights* of n's <u>child nodes</u> differ ≤ 1 .



Q: Is the above tree a *balanced BST*?

Q: Will the tree remain *balanced* after inserting 55?

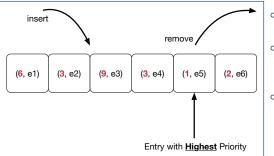
Q: Will the tree remain *balanced* after inserting 63?

What is a Priority Queue?

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• 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

    <u>Priority Queue (PQ)</u> are

    <u>not</u> used for uniquely

    identifying an entry.
```

- In a PQ, 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 <u>not</u> empty] [*postcondition*: return entry with <u>highest priority</u> in PQ]

• size

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

• isEmpty

[precondition: none] [postcondition: return whether there is <u>no</u> entry in PQ]

• insert(k, v)

[*precondition*: PQ is <u>not</u> full] [*postcondition*: insert the input entry into PQ]

• removeMin

[*precondition*: PQ is <u>not</u> empty]

[*postcondition*: remove and return a <u>min</u> entry in PQ]





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

- 1. A list *always sorted* in a non-descending order
- 2. An unsorted list

where we maintain: [≈ InsertionSort] [≈ SeLectionSort]

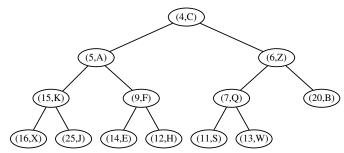
PQ Method	List Method				
	SORTED LIST		UNSORTED LIST		
size	list.size O(1)				
isEmpty	list.isEmpty O(1)				
min	list.first	O(1)	search min	O (n)	
insert	insert to "right" spot	O(n)	insert to front	O(1)	
removeMin	list.removeFirst	O(1)	search min and remove	O(n)	



Heaps



- A *heap* is a *binary tree* which:
 - 1. Stores in each node an *entry* (i.e., *key* and *value*).

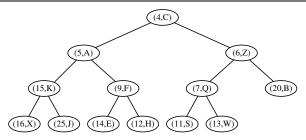


- 2. Satisfies a *relational* property of stored keys
- 3. Satisfies a structural property of tree organization



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.

 \Rightarrow 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 not constrained at all.

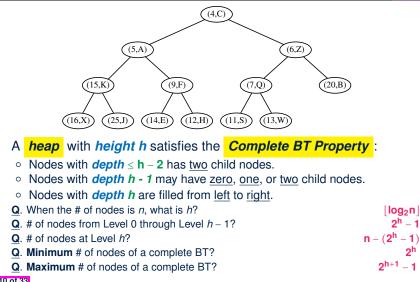
e.g., For node (5, A), key of its *LST*'s root (15) is <u>not minimal</u> for its *RST*.

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Heap Property 2: Structural



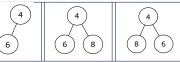
2^h - 1



Heaps: More Examples



- The *smallest heap* is just an empty binary tree.
- The *smallest* <u>non-empty</u> <u>heap</u> is a <u>one</u>-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 <u>three</u> main operations for a **heap** :
 - Extract the Entry with Minimal Key: Return the stored entry of the *root*.
 - Insert a New Entry: A single root-to-leaf path is affected.
 - Delete the Entry with Minimal Key: A single root-to-leaf path is affected.
- After performing each operation,

both *relational* and *structural* properties must be maintained.



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

[**O(1**)]

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

Updating a Heap: Insertion



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

1. Insert (k, v), possibly **<u>temporarily</u>** 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.

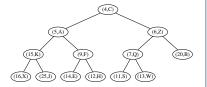




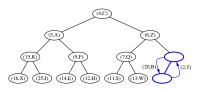
Updating a Heap: Insertion Example (1.1)



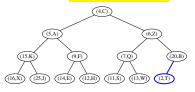
(0) A heap with height 3.



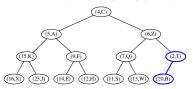
(2) **HOP** violated \therefore 2 < 20 \therefore Swap.



 (1) Insert a new entry (2, *T*) as the *right-most* node at Level 3.
 Perform *up-heap bubbling* from here.



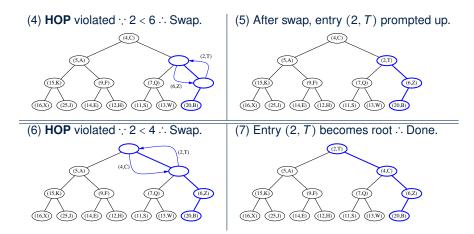
(3) After swap, entry (2, T) prompted up.





Updating a Heap: Insertion Example (1.2)







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 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. ["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.

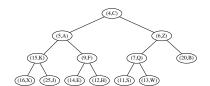


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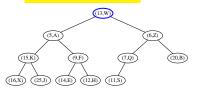
Updating a Heap: Deletion Example (1.1)



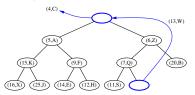
(0) Start with a heap with height 3.



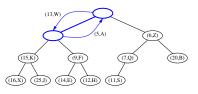
(2) (13, *W*) becomes the root. Perform *down-heap bubbling* from here.



(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.





Updating a Heap: Deletion Example (1.2)

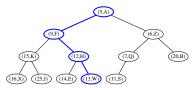


(4) After swap, entry (13, W)(5) Child with smaller key is (9, F). demoted down. **HOP** violated \therefore 13 > 9 \therefore Swap. (6.Z) (6.Z) (20,B) (15,K) (20,B) (13,W) (16.X) (14,E) ((12,H)) (11.5) (16.X) (14,E) (12.H) (11.5 (7) Child with smaller key is (12, H). (6) After swap, entry (13, W)demoted down. **HOP** violated \therefore 13 > 12 \therefore Swap. (6.Z) (6,Z) (9.F (20,B) (15,K (7,Q) (20,B) (15.K (12,H) (13,W) (16.X) (14.E) (12.H) (11.8 (16.X) (25.J) 14.E (11.5





(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)		





[O(1)]

Top-Down Heap Construction: List of Entries is Not Known in Advance

Problem: Build a heap out of *N* entires, supplied <u>one at a time</u>.

- Initialize an *empty heap h*.
- As each new entry $\mathbf{e} = (k, v)$ is supplied, <u>insert</u> \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



Problem: Build a heap out of **N** entires, supplied all at once.

- Assume: The resulting heap will be completely filled at all levels. \Rightarrow **N** = 2^{*h*+1} - 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 $\frac{N+1}{21}$ list entries as heap roots.

 $\therefore \frac{N+1}{21}$ 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 $\frac{N+1}{2h+1} = \frac{(2^{h+1}-1)+1}{2h+1} = 1$ list entry as heap root.

- Seach root sets two heaps from Step h as its LST and RST.
- Perform *down-heap bubbling* to restore HOP if necessary.
- $\therefore \frac{N+1}{n^{h+1}} = 1$ heap, each with height h and size $2^{h+1} 1$, constructed.



Bottom-Up Heap Construction: Example (1.)

• Build a heap from the following list of 15 keys:

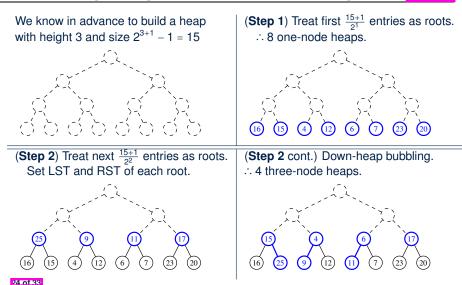
(16, 15, 4, 12, 6, 7, 23, 20, 25, 9, 11, 17, 5, 8, 14)

- 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:

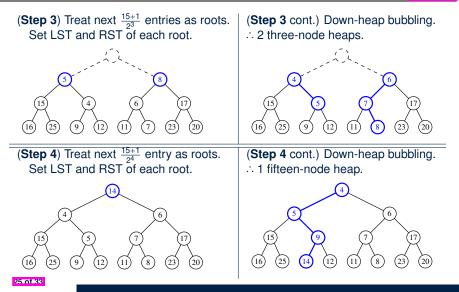
$$(\underbrace{16, 15, 4, 12, 6, 7, 23, 20}_{\frac{15+1}{2^{1}} = 8}, \underbrace{25, 9, 11, 17}_{\frac{15+1}{2^{2}} = 4}, \underbrace{5, 8}_{\frac{15+1}{2^{3}} = 2}, \underbrace{14}_{\frac{15+1}{2^{4}} = 1})$$



Bottom-Up Heap Construction: Example (1.2) SSONDE



Bottom-Up Heap Construction: Example (1.3) sonde



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.
 - Next ⁿ⁺¹/₄ 3-node heaps with *height 1* require down-heap bubbling.
 - [Another 25% of the list entries processed] \circ Next $\frac{n+1}{8}$ 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).



. . .

The Heap Sort Algorithm

Sorting Problem:

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

Precondition: NONE

<u>Postcondition</u>: A permutation of the input list $\langle a'_1, a'_2, \ldots, a'_n \rangle$ sorted in a non-descending order (i.e., $a'_1 \leq a'_2 \leq \ldots \leq a'_n$)

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"
 - <u>Approach 2</u>: Bottom-Up Heap Construction
- 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.

 $\therefore \text{ Running time of the } Heap Sort algorithm is O(N \cdot \log N).$

[O(*N* · log *N*)] [O(*N*)]





Sort the following array of integers

(16, 15, 4, 12, 6, 7, 23, 20, 25, 9, 11, 17, 5, 8, 14)

into a *non-descending* order using the Heap Sort Algorithm.

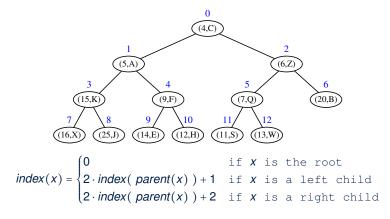
Demonstrate:

- 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)

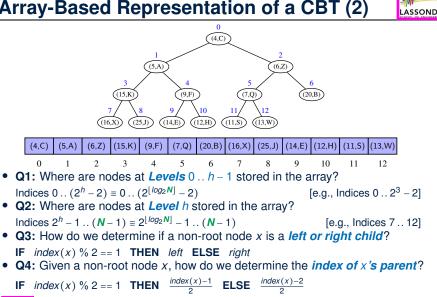




(4,C)	(5,A)	(6,Z)	(15,K)	(9,F)	(7,Q)	(20,B)	(16,X)	(25,J)	(14,E)	(12,H)	(11,S)	(13,W)
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12



Array-Based Representation of a CBT (2)



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Index (1)



Learning Outcomes of this Lecture

Balanced Binary Search Trees: Motivation

Balanced Binary Search Trees: Definition

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



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Index (2)



Updating a Heap: Insertion

Updating a Heap: Insertion Example (1.1)

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





Index (3)

Bottom-up Heap Construction: Example (1.1)

Bottom-up Heap Construction: Example (1.2)

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



EECS2101 X & Z: Fundamentals of Data Structures Winter 2025

CHEN-WEI WANG

What You Learned (1)



• Java Programming

- JUnit
- Recursion
- Generics



What You Learned (2)



Data Structures

- Arrays
- Circular Arrays
- Singly-Linked Lists and Doubly-Linked Lists
- Stacks, Queues, Double-Ended Queues
- Trees, Binary Trees, Binary Search Trees, Balanced BSTs
- Priority Queues and Heaps

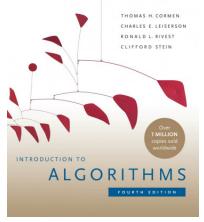
• Algorithms

- Asymptotic Analysis
- Binary Search
- 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

4 of 6



A tutorial on building a language compiler using Java (from **EECS4302-F22**):

Using the ANTLR4 Parser Generator to Develop a Compiler

- Trees
- Recursion
- Composite & Visitor Design Patterns





- What you have learned will be assumed in the third year.
- Some topics we did not cover:
 - See Weeks 10 11 of EECS2030-F19 Hash table [EECS3101]
 - Graphs
- If you're interested in taking a more advanced course with me:
 - EECS3342 System Specification & Refinement [F'25] Applying EECS1090 to construct & verify software systems
 - EECS3101 Design and Analysis of Algorithm [F'25, W'26]

