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Fast Calculation of Factorials from 1 to 100 in Java

<u>Factorial</u> calculation represents one of the typical problems in Computer Science (CS) that is used to explain <u>recursion</u>. However, you might find this type of problems during interview sessions or even in programming challenges. With that said, in this post I will try to cover the traditional approach, as well as the optimized approach for calculating factorials.

The typical recursive implementation for factorial calculation as explained in CS textbooks is:

```
1  int factorial(int n) {
2    if (n == 0) {
3       return 1;
4    } else {
5       return n * factorial(n - 1);
6    }
7  }
```

However, it is easy to see that this solution wouldn't suffice for calculating factorials ranging up to 100, as they can have values up to $9.3326215444 \times 10^{157}$. In order to overcome this restriction, we need to use Java's <u>BigInteger</u> class. This class will enable us to do basic arithmetic operations with very large numbers, which will clearly suffice for the needs of factorial calculation. With that said, we can rewrite our initial recursive implementation to use the BigInteger class as so:

```
1 BigInteger factorial(int n) {
2    if (n == 0) {
3       return BigInteger.ONE;
4    } else {
5       return new BigInteger("" + n).multiply(factorial(n - 1));
6    }
7 }
```

It's clear, that you can use this BigInteger-based recursive approach for calculating factorials; however, if you plan to calculate factorials from 1 to 100 then using this approach would be costly; especially if we implement it in the following manner:

```
1     for (int i = 0; i < 100; i++) {
2         System.out.println(factorial(i));
3     }</pre>
```

The faster approach of calculating the factorials from 1 to 100 would be to use the approach described in **SmallFactorials.java**, i.e.:

```
import java.util.Scanner;
2
     import java.math.BigInteger;
3
4
     public class SmallFactorials {
5
6
         public static final int MAX_SIZE = 100;
         public static BigInteger[] factorials = new BigInteger[MAX_SIZE + 1];
8
         static {
             factorials[0] = BigInteger.ONE;
10
             init();
11
12
13
         public static void init() {
             for (int i = 1; i <= MAX_SIZE; i++) {</pre>
14
                  factorials[i] = factorials[i - 1].multiply(new BigInteger("" + i));
15
16
17
18
19
         public static void main(String[] args) {
20
21
             Scanner sc = new Scanner(System.in);
22
             int lineCount = sc.nextInt();
23
24
             for (int i = 0; i < lineCount; i++) {
25
                  System.out.println(factorials[sc.nextInt()]);
26
27
         }
28
     }
```

Yes, there are several things going on in this class, so please bear with me as I try to explain them
in First of all, the calculation of factorials is not done in a recursive manner. Since we want to calculate factorials from 1 to 100 we can use a traditional for loop, and just multiply the current index (i.e. n) with the previous result (i.e. factorial(n - 1)). This approach would be more efficient than by calling the recursive factorial(1 method even) time. To further

About



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<u>September 2010</u> (17) <u>August 2010</u> (17) optimize our solution, we can make sure that all the factorials are stored in a static (i.e. class level) BigInteger array whose populated through static instantiation.

The final caveat of this approach is the integration of the <u>Scanner</u> class. The instance of the Scanner class will enable us to take the input directly from the command line (i.e. stdin). Thus, in the command line we can specify the number of requests, and then proceed to make requests for pre-calculated factorials ranging from 1 to 100. E.g. we indicate on the first line that we will make 5-requests, and then proceed with requesting results for factorials 1, 3, 5, 10, 30:

```
gdoko@mars:~/Java$ java SmallFactorials 5 1 1 3 6 5 5 1 120 10 3628800 30
```

The speed of this approach can be tested by using the **SmallFactorialsInput.txt** (see below) which contains 100-requests for factorials ranging from 1 to 100. On my laptop (i.e. Lenovo T400, Intel Core 2 Duo P8600 with 4GB RAM), the runtime for this test is as follows:

 $\verb|gdoko@mars:~/Java$ time java SmallFactorials < SmallFactorialsInput.txt > SmallFactorialsOutput.txt > SmallFac$

real 0m0.350s user 0m0.320s sys 0m0.040s

For your convenience, here are the input and output files that I've used for testing the SmallFactorials class:

SmallFactorialsInput.txt:

```
100
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
55
57
```

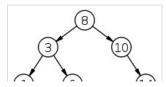
SmallFactorialsOutput.txt:

Java Implementation of Binary Search Tree Insert and Traversal

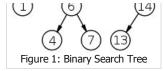
Tagged as: Algorithms, Java, Mathematics, Optimizations, Programming Challenges, SPOJ

Methods

If you never heard about the Binary Search Tree (BST) data structure, then you better get used to it, as it represents the basis of many interview questions regarding algorithms. According to Thomas H. Cormen et. al. <u>Introduction to Algorithms (Third Edition)</u>, Chapter 12: Binary Search Trees, a BST is defined as a linked data structure in which each node is represented as an object. In addition to having a key (i.e. value), each node has a left child, right child, and



parent field, which link the node to its child nodes and parent node. I hus, each node can have at most one parent, or no parent (if it's a root node); and each node can have at most two (thus the name binary) children (i.e. left and right child), or no children at all (if it's a leaf node). Finally, the left child node of each BST node must have a key (i.e. value) that is smaller; and the right child node of each BST node must have a key that is greater. Having said that, a BST



which conforms to the aforementioned properties is represented in Figure 1: Binary Search Tree.

The Java implementation of the BST data structure represented in this post, will consist of a **Node** class, and a **BinarySearchTree** class. The Node class will hold the basic information on a BST node, such as the key, and the fields for the left child, right child, and the parent node. The BinarySearchTree class on the other hand will hold the reference to the root node, as well as the methods for inserting and traversing the BST data structure (i.e. preorder, inorder, and postorder tree traversal).

Having said that, the Node class has the following structure:

```
public class Node {
2
3
         private int key;
4
         private Node parent;
5
         private Node leftChild;
6
         private Node rightChild;
         public Node(int key, Node leftChild, Node rightChild) {
8
              this.setKey(key);
this.setLeftChild(leftChild);
10
              this.setRightChild(rightChild);
11
12
         }
13
         public void setKey(int key) {
14
15
              this.key = key;
16
17
18
         public int getKey() {
19
              return key;
20
21
         public void setParent(Node parent) {
22
23
              this.parent = parent;
24
25
26
         public Node getParent() {
27
             return parent;
29
30
         public void setLeftChild(Node leftChild) {
31
              this.leftChild = leftChild;
32
33
         public Node getLeftChild() {
34
35
              return leftChild;
36
37
         public void setRightChild(Node rightChild) {
38
39
              this.rightChild = rightChild;
40
         public Node getRightChild() {
42
43
              return rightChild;
44
         }
45
     }
```

In order to proceed with the Java implementation for the BST insertion, we will look at Cormen et. al. pseudocode which has the following structure:

```
Tree-Insert(T, z)
2
         y = NIL
         x = T.root
3
         while x != NIL
6
              if z.key < x.key
                  x = x.left
8
              else x = x.right
         z.p = y
9
         if y == NIL
10
11
              T.root = z
          elseif z.key < y.key
12
             y.left = z
13
         else\ y.right = z
14
```

Thus, based on the above mentioned pseudocode, as well as taking in consideration few adjustments, we have the following Java implementation for BST insertion:

```
5     public void insert(int key) {
6         insert(new Node(key, null, null));
7     }
8
9     public void insert(Node z) {
```

```
10
11
          Node y = null;
12
          Node x = root;
13
14
          while (x != null) {
15
              y = x;
16
17
               if (z.getKey() < x.getKey()) {</pre>
                   x = x.getLeftChild();
18
               } else {
19
                   x = x.getRightChild();
20
21
22
23
24
          z.setParent(y);
25
26
          if (y == null) {
          root = z;
} else if (z.getKey() < y.getKey()) {</pre>
27
28
29
              y.setLeftChild(z);
30
          } else {
              y.setRightChild(z);
31
          }
32
     }
33
```

As it can be seen, we can either insert an integer value in the tree (and thus automatically create a node) through the **insert(int)** method, or we can insert an existing node (or a binary search sub-tree), through the **insert(Node)** method.

The tree traversal methods on the other hand, are defined in such a manner that you can either start traversing from the root node, or you can start traversing from a specific node (i.e. sub-tree). Thus, for the preorder, inorder, and postorder traversal, the Java implementation is:

```
35
     public void preorderTraversal() {
36
         preorderTraversal(root);
37
38
39
     public void preorderTraversal(Node node) {
40
         if (node != null) {
             System.out.print(node.getKey() + " ");
41
             preorderTraversal(node.getLeftChild());
42
             preorderTraversal(node.getRightChild());
43
44
45
     }
46
47
     public void inorderTraversal() {
48
         inorderTraversal(root);
49
50
51
     private void inorderTraversal(Node node) {
52
         if \ (\text{node } != null) \ \{
              inorderTraversal(node.getLeftChild());
53
54
              System.out.print(node.getKey() + "
55
              in order Traversal (node.get Right Child ());\\
56
         }
57
     }
58
59
     public void postorderTraversal() {
60
         postorderTraversal(root);
61
62
63
     private void postorderTraversal(Node node) {
64
         if (node != null) {
             postorderTraversal(node.getLeftChild());
65
66
              postorderTraversal(node.getRightChild());
67
              System.out.print(node.getKey() + " ");
68
         }
     }
69
```

All three tree traversal methods are implemented recursively, however they differ on their traversal approach, i.e.:

- Preorder Traversal proceeds with parent node, left child node, right child node.
- Inorder Traversal proceeds with left child node, parent node, right child node.
- Postorder Traversal proceeds with left child node, right child node, parent node.

It should be clear after testing the code that the inorder traversal produces a sorted output (in ascending order). With that said, the complete code for the BinarySearchTree class, is as follows:

```
public class BinarySearchTree {
2
3
         private Node root;
4
         public void insert(int key) {
5
6
             insert(new Node(key, null, null));
8
         public void insert(Node z) {
9
10
11
             Node y = null;
12
             Node x = root;
```

```
14
             while (x != null) {
15
16
                 if (z.getKey() < x.getKey()) {
17
                     x = x.getLeftChild();
18
                  } else {
19
                     x = x.getRightChild();
20
21
             }
23
24
             z.setParent(y);
25
26
             if (y == null) {
             root = z;
} else if (z.getKey() < y.getKey()) {</pre>
27
28
29
                 y.setLeftChild(z);
30
              } else {
                 y.setRightChild(z);
31
             }
32
         }
33
34
35
         public void preorderTraversal() {
36
             preorderTraversal(root);
37
38
39
         public void preorderTraversal(Node node) {
40
             if (node != null) {
                  System.out.print(node.getKey() + " ");
41
42
                  inorderTraversal(node.getLeftChild());
43
                  inorderTraversal(node.getRightChild());
             }
44
         }
45
46
         public void inorderTraversal() {
47
48
             inorderTraversal(root):
49
         private void inorderTraversal(Node node) {
51
             if (node != null) {
53
                  inorderTraversal(node.getLeftChild());
                 System.out.print(node.getKey() + "
55
                  inorderTraversal(node.getRightChild());
56
57
         }
58
         public void postorderTraversal() {
59
60
             postorderTraversal(root);
61
62
         private void postorderTraversal(Node node) {
63
             if (node != null) {
64
                  inorderTraversal(node.getLeftChild());
                  inorderTraversal(node.getRightChild());
                  System.out.print(node.getKey() + " ");
             }
69
         }
70
     }
```

In order to test all the Java implementations displayed so far, we will use the **BinarySearchTreeTest** class, which will insert the integer sequence of **8**, **3**, **10**, **1**, **6**, **14**, **4**, **7**, **13**, and afterwards it will traverse the tree in a preorder, inorder, and postorder approach. With that said, the BinarySearchTreeTest implementation is as follows:

```
public class BinarySearchTreeTest {
          public static void main(String[] args) {
    BinarySearchTree bst = new BinarySearchTree();
2
3
               int[] input = new int[] { 8, 3, 10, 1, 6, 14, 4, 7, 13 };
4
5
6
               for (int i : input) {
                   bst.insert(i);
10
               System.out.println("Preorder Traversal:");
11
              bst.preorderTraversal();
12
               System.out.println( "\nInorder Traversal:");
13
14
              bst.inorderTraversal();
15
               System.out.println("\nPostorder Traversal:"):
16
              bst.postorderTraversal();
17
18
          }
     }
```

After successful compilation and execution the BinarySearchTreeTest produces the following output:

```
Preorder Traversal:
8 3 1 6 4 7 10 14 13
Inorder Traversal:
1 3 4 6 7 8 10 13 14
Postorder Traversal:
1 4 7 6 3 13 14 10 8
```

As mentioned previously, the inorder traversal has produced a sorted output.

Do note that there is more than one way of implementing the BST insert and traversal methods. However, the implementation included in this post primarily follows the pseudocode of Cormen et. al. in the <u>Introduction to Algorithms (Third Edition)</u>.

Finally, due to the vast implementation and importance of the BST data structure, I will follow-up with several other posts, with the next one being Java Implementation of the Binary Search Tree Search and Delete Methods. Needless to say, I look forward to your feedback.

Tagged as: Algorithms, Binary Search Tree, Data Structures, Java

2 Comments

3-Key Differences between LinkedList and ArrayList

The <u>LinkedList</u> and <u>ArrayList</u> represent some of the widely used data structures of the Java Collections Framework. You might have had a chance to already use both classes several times so far; however, if you have wondered on what makes them fundamentally different, then continue reading.

Although both the LinkedList and ArrayList classes implement the <u>List</u> interface, they differ on the following 3-key issues: 1) Data Storage, 2) Data Access, 3) Data Management.

DATA STORAGE: Linked-list versus Array

- **LinkedList** uses the design of a linked-list data structure (from where it get its name) to store data elements (i.e. objects). In this manner, each data element -- depending on the position of the list -- has a link to the previous and next element. This storage approach proves to be very efficient, as it uses only as much memory as it needs; no more no less
- ArrayList uses an Object array for storing the data elements. By default the array starts with a capacity of 10; unless otherwise specified at the time of instantiation. For example, if we want to instantiate an ArrayList of strings with an initial capacity of 1024 then we would use:

ArrayList<String> stringArrayList = new ArrayList<String>(1024);

Thus, by default the ArrayList can be more wasteful as far as the memory allocation goes.

DATA ACCESS: Sequential Access versus Random Access

• LinkedList due to the nature of its data storage, has a sequential access approach. Thus, if we want to retrieve an element at a specific index through the public E get(int index) method, we would have to iterate either from the beginning or the end, depending if the requested index is greater than or less than half the length of the list. It can easily be seen how this sequential access can become quite timely as we deal with longer and longer lists. As the public E get(int index)) method uses the Node node(int index) method for data retrieval, we can see the implications of LinkedList's sequential access in the following code:

```
570
571
      * Returns the (non-null) Node at the specified element index.
572
      Node<E> node(int index) {
573
         // assert isElementIndex(index);
574
575
         if (index < (size >> 1)) {
576
              Node \le x = first;
577
              for (int i = 0; i < index; i++)
578
579
580
              return x;
581
          } else {
              Node<E> x = last;
582
              for (int i = size - 1; i > index; i--)
583
584
                 x = x.prev;
585
              return x:
          }
586
     }
587
```

• ArrayList supports random access as it has an internal array for data storage. Thus, when we call the <u>public E</u> <u>get(int index)</u> method in an ArrayList instance, we get forwarded to the **E elementData(int index)** method which simply returns the element located at the specified position within the array, i.e.:

```
333  // Positional Access Operations
334
335     @SuppressWarnings("unchecked")
336     E elementData(int index) {
        return (E) elementData[index];
338     }
```

Needless to say, ArrayList's random access approach is far more efficient, as it doesn't have to waste computing cycles on iteration.

DATA MANAGEMENT: Linking and Unlinking versus Array Copying

• LinkedList can very efficiently undergo any changes in its collection of data elements. For example, if we want to

remove a specific data element from the LinkedList instance -- through the <u>public boolean remove(Object o)</u> method -- then we go ahead and link the neighbors (i.e. previous and next data elements) of the unwanted data element, and the Garbage Collector will take care of the rest. Thus, if we have a linked-list structure with three string data elements (with previous and next links), as follow:

```
["A"] <-> ["B"] <-> ["C"]
```

Then, when we request removal of the "B" string data element, "A" and "C" get linked together, and "B" is left alone, thus becoming eligible for Garbage Collection:

```
["A"].next = ["B"].next => ["A"].next = ["C"]
["C"].prev = ["B"].prev => ["C"].prev = ["A"]
```

The Java implementation behind this pseudo-code looks like the following:

```
213
       * Unlinks non-null node x.
214
215
      E unlink(Node<E> x) {
216
           // assert x != null;
217
          final E element = x.item;
218
219
          final Node<E> next = x.next:
          final Node<E> prev = x.prev;
220
221
222
          if (prev == null) {
              first = next;
224
          } else {
225
              prev.next = next;
226
              x.prev = null;
227
228
          if (next == null) {
229
230
              last = prev;
231
          } else {
              next.prev = prev;
232
              x.next = null:
233
234
235
236
          x.item = null;
237
          size--;
238
          modCount++;
239
          return element;
240
      }
```

Do note that the code displayed above is for the **E unlink(Node x)** method on which LinkedList's **public boolean remove(Object o)** method relies. In addition to the efficiency of the remove method, LinkedList is very flexible when it comes to enlarging or shrinking its collection of data elements. In a LinkedList instance whenever we need to add to the collection, a call is made to the **void linkLast(E e)** method, which simply appends the new data element to the end of the list, as seen below:

```
144
145
       * Links e as last element.
146
147
      void linkLast(E e) {
148
          final Node<E> 1 = last;
149
          final Node<E> newNode = new Node<E>(1, e, null);
150
          last = newNode;
          if (1 == null)
151
152
              first = newNode;
153
          else
154
              1.next = newNode;
155
          size++:
          modCount++:
156
      }
157
```

• **ArrayList** due to the usage of its internal array it copies all of the elements to a new array every time there's a removal request, or when there's not enough room to add a new element. Thus, for every new addition or removal from our ArrayList collection a call is made to the <u>public void ensureCapacity(int minCapacity)</u> method, which carries out the necessary copying and shifting of the elements, as seen below:

```
171
        * Increases the capacity of this <tt>ArrayList</tt> instance, if
172
         * necessary, to ensure that it can hold at least the number of elements * specified by the minimum capacity argument.
173
174
175
176
                      minCapacity the desired minimum capacity
177
178
       public void ensureCapacity(int minCapacity) {
179
            int oldCapacity = elementData.length;
if (minCapacity > oldCapacity) {
180
181
                int newCapacity = (oldCapacity * 3)/2 + 1;
if (newCapacity < minCapacity)</pre>
182
183
                     newCapacity = minCapacity;
184
                 // minCapacity is usually close to size, so this is a win:
185
                 elementData = Arrays.copyOf(elementData, newCapacity);
186
187
            }
188
       }
```

Needless to say, you can imagine how much work these operations carry out, especially when dealing with very large arrays.

In conclusion, we can see that both the LinkedList and ArrayList have their positives and negatives; however, by having a good understanding of these issues you can make a better decision on what implementation should you use, based on the data size and usage requirements.

Tagged as: <u>Algorithms</u>, <u>Data Structures</u>, <u>Interview Questions</u>, <u>Java</u>, <u>Java Collections</u> Framework, Linked Lists No Comments

3-Ways to Reverse a String in Java

Reversing a String in Java is a task that I came across in several interview experiences that I've read about. Although there are several ways to do this task, it seems that [potential] employers are especially interested in the solution involving recursion. Overall, (in case you're wondering) this task is used to get a better assessment on your understanding of the programming flow. Having said that, I will list in detail 3-ways to solve this task, from which you can pick and choose:

First Solution: StringBuffer

The easiest way to reverse a String in Java is by using an instance of the <u>StringBuffer</u> class as it already contains a <u>reverse()</u> method. Thus, with this approach our reverse method will look like:

```
public String reverse(String s) {
    return new StringBuffer(s).reverse().toString();
}
```

However, using this solution in an interview will only show how much you're familiar with the Java API which is not necessary the point of the task.

Second Solution: Reverse For Loop

You can also reverse a String by traversing it from the end in a traditional for loop. For this approach you can either use a char array which would be somewhat more efficient than by creating a large String pool as a result of continuous concatenation to a String variable. To better elaborate my point, here are both versions of this solution:

```
2
      * Reverse For Loop: Char Array
3
     public String reverse(String s) {
5
          char[] reverseStringArray = new char[s.length()];
          for (int i = s.length() - 1, j = 0; i != -1; i--, j++) {
              reverseStringArray[j] = s.charAt(i);
8
9
          return new String(reverseStringArray);
10
     }
2
       * Reverse For Loop: String Variable
3
4
     public String reverse(String s) {
          String reverseStringVariable = "";
5
         for (int i = s.length() - 1; i != -1; i--) {
    reverseStringVariable += s.charAt(i);
6
8
          return reverseStringVariable;
9
10
     }
```

Third Solution: Recursion

Finally, here's the solution that most likely your [potential] employer will like to see:

```
public String reverse(String s) {
    if (s.length() <= 1) {
        return s;
    }
    return reverse(s.substring(1, s.length())) + s.charAt(0);
}</pre>
```

To better understand this recursive approach, let's trace for example a call to the reverse(String) method with the String "ABC" as an argument:

```
Step 1: "ABC" does NOT have a length equal to or less than 1.
Step 2: Call reverse(String) with "BC" as argument and concatenate to its return value "A".
Step 3: "BC" does NOT have a length equal to or less than 1.
Step 4: Call reverse(String) with "C" as argument and concatenate to its return value "B".
Step 5: "C" has a length of 1. Return "C" and unroll the stack.
```

Now, as the stack unrolls, the following concatenation occurs: "C" + "B" + "A" thus we end up getting the String

```
"CBA", which is the exact reverse (2)
```

Needless to say, I hope that you get a chance to use these solutions, and I look forward to hear about any different approaches that you've taken for solving this task.

Tagged as: Algorithms, Interview Questions, Java, String Algorithms

No Comments

Iterating through a LinkedList Instance

<u>LinkedList</u> is the Java Collections Framework implementation of the <u>List</u> interface. This implementation represents a widely used elementary data structure on which other data structures such as <u>Queues</u>, <u>Stacks</u>, <u>Double-ended</u> <u>Queues</u> (<u>Deques</u>) are built upon. As per the definition of the linked-list data structures, a link is kept between the previous and next neighbors of each inserted element; thus by default the LinkedList implementation keeps all elements sorted by insertion order.

To instantiate and populate a LinkedList implementation which contains the names of planets of our Solar System we could use:

```
LinkedList<String> linkedList = new LinkedList<String>();
linkedList.add("Mercury");
linkedList.add("Venus");
linkedList.add("Earth");
linkedList.add("Mars");
linkedList.add("Jupiter");
linkedList.add("Saturn");
linkedList.add("Uranus");
linkedList.add("Neptune");
```

To iterate through this LinkedList instance we can either use a <u>ListIterator</u>, or we can use a traditional for loop approach. With the ListIterator approach the iteration is carried out in the following way:

```
// ListIterator approach
ListIterator<String> listIterator = linkedList.listIterator();
while (listIterator.hasNext()) {
    System.out.println(listIterator.next());
}
Whereas the iteration through a traditional for loop approach is carried out as:
// Traditional for loop approach
for (int i = 0; i < linkedList.size(); i++) {
    System.out.println(linkedList.get(i));
}</pre>
```

It is important to stress out that it is more efficient to use a ListIterator, as the traditional for loop approach traverses the list every time either from the beginning or the end, depending if the requested index is greater than or less than half the length of the list (i.e. index < size() >> 1).

Thus, to put everything in perspective the LinkedList iteration example application looks like:

```
import java.util.LinkedList;
2
      import java.util.ListIterator;
3
      public class LinkedListIterationExample {
4
5
          public static void main(String[] args) {
6
               LinkedList<String> linkedList = new LinkedList<String>();
8
               linkedList.add("Mercury");
linkedList.add("Venus");
9
               linkedList.add("Earth");
10
               linkedList.add("Mars");
11
               linkedList.add("Jupiter");
linkedList.add("Saturn");
13
               linkedList.add("Uranus");
               linkedList.add("Neptune");
15
16
17
               // ListIterator approach
               ListIterator<String> listIterator = linkedList.listIterator();
while (listIterator.hasNext()) {
18
19
20
                    System.out.println(listIterator.next());
21
22
23
                // Traditional for loop approach
24
               for (int i = 0; i < linkedList.size(); i++) {</pre>
25
                    System.out.println(linkedList.get(i));
26
27
          }
28
     }
```

Tagged as: Algorithms, Data Structures, Java, Java Collections Framework, Linked Lists

No Comments