

# Datatyper och Algoritmer

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## Introduction

### **Goal:**

Improve programming skills

Understand complexity in time space (comparing)

Understand important types of algorithms and data types

### **Demands:**

Read the book

Exercises

### **Assignments/exercises:**

Analyzing algorithms

Test

Debugging

Tables

Group:

- Complexity analysis
- Memory and files
- Algorithm construction
- Advanced data types
- Preparation for the exam

### **Exam:**

15 minutes before!

The actual course

## Algorithms

Set of instruction for calculating or doing something

### Examples

Sorting  
Path finding  
Item finding  
Controlling

### History

Something, something, something

### Time and space complexity

### Pseudocode

### Design

## Data types

A way of classifying pieces of information  
Useful for computers

### Examples

Primitive  
• Integers, reals(floats, doubles), boolean  
Composite  
• Lump of primitive  
• Arrays ,struct, unions  
Abstract  
• Stacks, queues, heaps, trees

## Program design

## Writing code

## Testing code

## Datatypes

### Integers

int nVar; (should be the bit of the computer (64bit cpu -> 64bit int, but is not guaranteed))

short int nVar; (16bit, guaranteed)

long int lVar; (32bit, guaranteed)

Tip: declare only one variable per line

unsigned int nVar; (only positive)

int nArray[nSize];

### Floats/doubles

float fVar;

double dVar; (32/64bit)

long double dVar; (64bit)

### Char

char cVar; (8bit)

signed char cVar;

char strArray[nSize]; (must have a \0 in the end)

### Void

void\* pVar;

void \*pVar; (asterisks position doesn't matter)

## Program Design

### The ideal way:

- Customer specification (should be user guided)
- Program / top level specification
- Top level design (design)
- Low level design (functions)
- Implementation

Tip: plan ahead/design before programming

### Customer specification

From the users point of view  
What to do but not how

### Program / top level specification

Modelling the system  
What data  
What function/methods

### Top level design

Structured analysis / Structured design (problemated, out of fashion)  
Object oriented (Encapsulation, reuse)  
Agents Design (Task oriented, look at tasks)

### Low level design

Function design

- KISS (keep it simple stupid)
- Does one thing!

Algorithm design

- Reuse other ones, and analys for the best one

Pseudocode

### Program boundary

If something gone wrong, make it crash  
Don't hide crashes  
assert() is good (only works if debug is one)

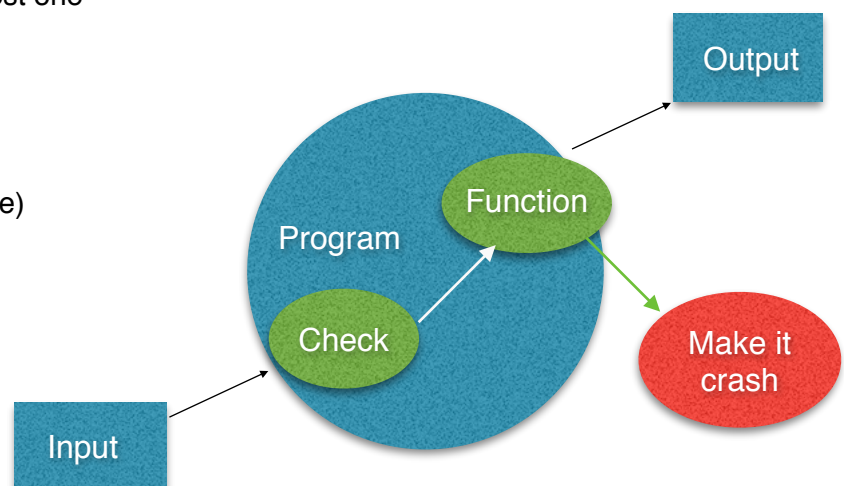
### Writing Code

Hungarien notation:

- n - integer, nVar
- l - long, lVar
- f - float, dVar
- b - boolean bVar
- m\_ - member m\_nVar
- o - object oVar
- Extra: fp, i, j

Block structure

- {}
- Indentation



## Testing Code

Does it meet the requirements?

- Time constraints
- Space constraints

Does it work (bugs?)

- Show others your code

Usability

### **Block / function test**

- test a part of the code

### **Assambly / integration test**

- Assemble the tested code

### **Customer / validation testing**

## **Different Ways:**

### **Static:**

- Test a code before you run it
- Asymptotic analysis
- Logical proof
- checking (show others)

### **Dynamic**

- Running the code
- Debugger:
  - Break points
  - Check variables
  - Change variables
  - Jump in and out of code
  - Step though code
  - Look at the memory

## Analys of algoritmer

- Exekveringstid
- Minnesåtgång
- Implementationkomplexitet
- Förstålighet
- Korrekthet

## Exekveringstid/minnesåtgång

Varför analysera:

är algoritmen praktiskt körbar

Vill ha den snabbaste - att implementera och köra

## Beräkningsbar/hanterbar

**Olika kategorier:**

Beräkningsbara - Ej beräkningsbara (går ej göra en algoritm av)

Beräkningsbara:

Hantera polynom  $1+n^2+3*n$  (kan lösas på en rimlig tid)

Ej hantera superpolynom ( $n!$ ,  $n^n$ , ...)

## Stora ordo

Sätt att förenkla funktioner av tidsåtgång

Gäller att hitta en funktion som är garanterat att vara större än den riktiga funktionen efter en viss punkt.

**Def:**

Giver funktionen  $f(n)$  och  $g(n)$  säger vi att  $f(n)$  är  $O(g(n))$  om och endast om  $f(n) \leq c * g(n)$  för  $n \geq n_0$  och  $c > 0$   $n_0 > 1$ .

$f(n)$  är  $O(g(n))$

Välja rätt algoritm är mycket viktigare än att programmering ska vara optimerad

**Ohanterbara:**

Shemaläggning

Handelresande

Moore's lag förändrar den situationen? nej

### Hur hanteras ohanterbarhet:

Heuristik:

- Förenkling (Lösä nästan rätt problem)
- Approximation (Lösä problemet nästan rätt)

### NP-kompletta problem

En speciell klass av ohanterbara problem

Har problem  $x$  en lösning med egenskaperna  $y$

Ekvivalenta:

- Transformerar (om ett problem kan lösas kan alla lösas)
- Högst exponentiella
- Saknar bevis för ohanterbarhet

## Mäta tidsåtgång

Hur:

- Experimentell analys
  - Implementera algoritmen
  - Kör programmet med varierande datamängd
    - Storlek
    - Sammansättning
  - Använda metoder för tidtagning så som
    - `time` (sekunder)
    - `clock` (processortid)
    - `gettimeofday` (bättre precision än `time`, men ej standard)
  - Plotta uppmätt data

Om det är svårt att sätta en funktion på plotten:

Bästa, värsta, medel

Begränsningar:

- Måste implementera och testa algoritmen
- Svårt att veta om programmet har stanna eller fast i beräkningar
- Experimenten kan endast utföras på en begränsad mängd data
- Hård och mjukvara måste varas samma för all implementationer

Kontrollera sin slutsats

- Plotta uppmätta tid/uppskattad ( $f(n)/g(n)$ )
  - Borde gå mot konstant eller 0 för stora värden om korrekt
    - Konstant betyder bra, 0 betyder för stor uppskattning
  - Lätta att missa  $\ln(n)$

## Asymptotisk analys (maskinoberoende)

Utgår från pseudokod

Räkna operationer

- Ställ upp ett uttryck för antalet operationer beroende av

Förenkla tidsuttrycket

Ta fram en funktion som begränsar tidsuttrycket ovanifrån...

Primitiva operationer som räknas som en operation:

- Lågnivå beräkningar som är i stort sett oberoende av programspråk och kan definieras i termer av pseudokod:
  - Anropa en metod/funktion
  - Returnera från en metod/funktion
  - Utföra en aritmetisk operation (+, -, ...) \* Jämföra två tal, etc
  - Referera till en/ett variabel/objekt
  - Indexera i en array

Algorithm addAllEven(n)

sum <- 0	1
i <- 2	1
while i<=n do	(n/2+1)*1 +(n/2)*[] ([] är innehållet i loopen)
sum <- sum+i	1+1 (skulle kunna skrivas += vilket är en operation)
i <- i+2	1+1
return sum;	1

$$T(n)=1+1+(n/2+1)*1 +(n/2)*(1+1+1+1)+1=4n+n/2+$$

En for loop räknas: 1 operation för initiera,  $n(1+1)$  antal ++, innehållet  $([] + 1) * n$



## Memory and Files

# Memory

Memory need drivers

HAL - Hardware abstract level

stdin - standard in (keyboard...)

stdout - standard out (screen...)

stderr - stadard error (screen...)

file - device

Von Neumann architecture (standard)

Linier

Program code and data is in the same block, one long line

Everything has an adress

Normally uses hex addresses (0x<hex number>) (ex: 0xf8 - 0xff serial I/O)

Direct Memory access

Paging / caching

### Variable storage class:

- Automatic
  - Declared at start of a block
  - Memory allocated as needed
  - Stack
- Register (keyword) (saying this memory needs to go fast)
  - Loke automatic but stored CPU registers (if possible)
  - Faster code
- External
  - Global variables allocated for the life time of the program
  - Not a good idea!
- Static
  - Limited scope
  - Allocated for life time of the program
  - Heap

Data Alignment

- Word size access

Structure size

- Padding

Aligment

- n-bytes

Speed vs memory usage

## Dynamic memory

- From stdlib.h
- malloc
- realloc (changing size)
- calloc
- free
- return void or void\*

How:

- void\* malloc(size\_t size)
- size\_t - unsigned integer (min 16 bits)
- size - number of size
- void\* - the adress of the first byte of the allocated memory
  - if null then memory allocation failed
  - **Always** check for null!!! (assert)
- void\* realloc(void \*ptr, size\_t size)
- Resizes an already allocated block
- Returns point ro block
- Use the returned pointed as the block may have moved in memory
  - Always check for null
- void\* calloc(size\_t num, size\_t, size)
- Like malloc but allocates for an array
  - size - some of array element
  - num - number of elements
  - Always check for null pointer
- void free(void\* ptr)
- Returns no longer used memory back to the heap
- ptr - pointer to a block of memory previously allocated buy an dynamic memory function

## Caching algorithmes

cpu -(fast)- cache -(slow)- memory

- Maximise fast memory access
- Minimise slow memory access
- How:
- Pages
- (speed, size)

Best way to cache program:

- Least recently used (keep)
- Most recently used (keep)

## Memory problems

### Memory Leaks:

- Failing to free memory
- Keep track of allocations

### Over stepping the bounds:

- Going beyond the limits of an allocated block
- assert the variable (index)

Running out of memory

- Check for null pointers

## Other memory Functions

- malloc.h (intel specific, (old))
- void\* alloca(size\_t size)
  - void\* \_malloca(size\_t size)
  - Allocates from the stack (don't use free!)
- void\* far\_fmalloc(size\_t size) (intel)
- Big endian / little endian
  - Big - most significant byte first
  - Little - least significant byte first)

## File IO

C standard

- Buffered file system
- Formatted

Unix standard

- Unbuffered
- Unformatted

### Streams and files

- Constant interface regardless of device - stream
  - Abstraction
- Device being used
  - File

Types of streams:

- **Text**
  - Sequence of characters
  - Lines of text (new line character)
- **Binary**
  - Sequence of bytes
  - One-to-one correspondence (may have null bytes on the end)

### Control / management functions

- FILE\* fp = fopen(const char\* filename, const char\* mode)
  - Filename can include path specification
  - Mode
    - r, w, a, r+, w+, a+, rb (read binary) ...
- int fclose(FILE \*fp)
- int fflush(FILE\* fp) (flush to make sure the data is written, if fp == null, then all file are flushed)
- int remove(char\* filename)
- void rewind(FILE\* fp) (put back the data pointer to the start)
- int fseek(FILE\* fp, long number\_of\_bytes, int origin) (jump to different parts)
- int feof(FILE\* fp) (important for binary, binary data, false end of file, return true after the file ended)
- ferror()
- fscanf

Input functions

Output functions

in stdio.h

- file\* fp
  - structure defining file

## Stack and Queues

### All about in and out

Stack: Filling up the stack with data. Last in first out

Queue: First in, first out

### Stack operations

(see presentation for specific implementations of the operations)

Set of data

$S[1 \dots S.top]$

Operations:

- Is empty
- Push
- Pop

### Stack Implementation

With

- Array (problem with size: fixed and unused)
- Linked list

### Queue operations

(see presentation for specific implementations of the operations)

$Q[Q.head \dots Q.tail]$

- Enqueue( $Q.tail$ ) (like push)
- Dequeue( $Q.head$ ) (like pop)

The  $Q.tail$  loops together with  $Q.head$  and therefor as long as  $head < tail$  the data is never overwritten

### Queue implementations

With

- Array
- Linked list (you don't have to loop)

### Complexity

Always constant  $O(1)$

## Testing

### Aims

#### **Correctness** (verification)

- Requirements
- Time
- Space

#### **Reliability** (validation)

#### **Maintainability** (regression)

- Important with documentation

#### **How to meet those terms:**

- Test each module/function
- Integrate and test larger units
- Test whole program

#### **How to do that:**

- Formal reviews (present your work to someone else)
- Standards
- Measurements (time, size, comments, how much percent is tested)

## Testing

#### **What to test for?**

- Memory leaks, overriding arrays, overflows

#### **What can be tested for?**

#### **What does the test actually tell us?**

- Does a crash means it doesn't work?

#### **When to test**

- Often

## Static Testing

- Analysis the code (looking at the code, let someone else to look through it)
- Logical analysis
- Check standards
- Check loops / reachability
- Check variables
- Check documentation
- Metrics (code size, complexity)

# Dynamic Testing

- Running the code
- Debugging

- — Software specification
- -> Test cases
- -> Test scripts
- -> Desired results
- -> Code execution
- -> Compare results



Test cases:

- Derived from specification

Valid input:

- Specification

Invalid input:

- > max
- < min

Test plan

Memory leaks?

Coverage (can't test everything):

- Statement coverage (lines of code)
- Decision coverage
- Path coverage

Boxes:

- Black box (you don't know what code your testing, just input and output)
- White box (look through the code your testing)

## Algorithms, Lists and Pseudocode

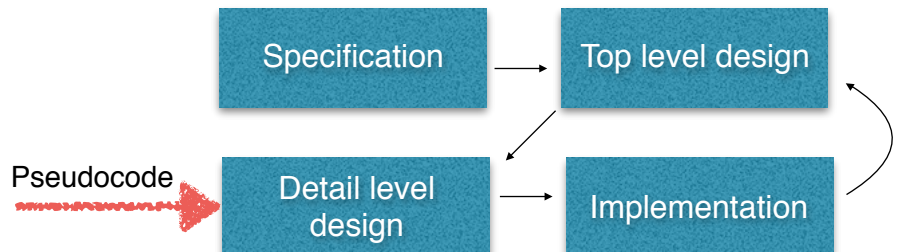
### Pseudocode

No standard

Top level (often OOP)

Detail level (functions, algorithms)

- Program design language:
  - Design algorithms
  - Structured English
  - Code like syntax
  - Design -> comments



#### What do you do in program? (what pseudocode includes)

- Declarations / assignments
- Loops
  - For
  - While
- If statements
  - Else
  - Switch
- Function calls
- Logic operations
- Blocks
- Local variables (assumes local)
- Variables as objects
  - Attributes
    - *attr[x]*
- References
- Loops:
  - Same as in C, C++, or Java. Loop variable still defined after loop
    - for i <= 0 to max do
    - ...
    - ...
  - while i < 0 to max do
- If statements:
  - if a <= b then
  - ...
- Function calls
  - Parameters passed as pointers
  - Change attributes



- Logic operations
  - and
  - or
  - not
- Short circuiting (if first in an if statements it doesn't bother calculating the rest)
- Indentation defines blocks:
  - ...
    - ...
      - ...
      - ...
  - ...

## Algorithm

What is algorithm?:

- Problem solving instructions
- Structured method
- Detailed, step by step plan
- Calculable
- Finiteness
  - The algorithm must stop
- Assertiveness
  - Each step must be unique
- Input
  - Must have zero or more input
- Output
  - Must have one or more output
- Efficiency / Feasibility
  - Each step of the algorithm must be done in a finite time

## Lists

Abstract data structure

Data arranged in linear order

Types of lists:

- Arrays
- Ordered / unordered
- Linked lists
  - Single
  - Double
  - Circular
- Skip lists

Linked list:

- Head
- Data

#### Double linked list

- Tail

#### Operations on lists:

- Insert
- Delete
- Search
- Min / Max
- Successor
- Predecessor

#### Sentinel

- Null dummy objects in the end

#### Implementation issues

- Pointers
- Memory leaks

#### Skip lists

- Local line
- Express lines
- To save time
  - if theres to many in express line or to few then it's inefficient
- Most used
  - Dynamic skip list
- Uniformly
  - Evenly spaces nodes (best case)
- Even faster skip list: add more express lanes

## Sorting

### Bubble sort

Worst case:  $O(n^2)$

$$T_n = cn^2 + cn + c$$

Best case:  $\Omega(n)$

Memory:

Small - fixed

$O(1)$

### Stability

stable if multiple of same keys is sorted in the same ways every run

unstable if the keys may change places

ex: 1:b 1:a 5:c 10:e  $\rightarrow$  1:a 1:b 5:c 10:e

Bubble sort is stable - two equal elements will never get swapped

### Quicksort

Divide and conquer

Algorithm:

Divide the array in to two halves

- about a pivot

conquer by recursive calls to quicksort

Combine - no need as they are sorted in place

Proper algorithm:

Quicksort(a, p, r)

if  $p < r$  then

$q \leftarrow \text{Partition}(a, p, r)$

    Quicksort(a, p, q-1)

    Quicksort(a, q+1, r)

Initial call: Quicksort(a, 1, n)

p = pivot

## Quicksort time complexity

(See presentation for specific math and calculations)

Worst case:

- pivot is around max or min (not the middle)
- Sorted or reverse sorted

All elements are distinct

$O(n^2)$

Best case:

- pivot in middle

$T(n) = O(n \log_2 n)$

Middle case:

ex: 1:9

$O(n \log n)$

## Quicksort improvement

Choice of pivot

- Randomise

Improve the partition part

## Quicksort stability

Not stable

- It is possible to partition the sort in such a way that elements with the same key get swapped
  - add a second key to preserve order
- => stable

## Debugging code

### What can go wrong?

Syntax error

Run time error (array over runs, etc ...)

Logic error

Common code errors

- == & =
- Break in switch statements
- Forgetting &
- Arrays overruns
- Array sizes
- integer devision (double d = 1/3)
- Where are you pointing
  - Initialize all your pointers to NULL
  - Have you freed the memory
- Strings terminated with '\0'
- fgetc returns an int

### Bug hunting

**How to find bugs?:**

- Compiler output
- Code reviews
- Assert
- Debugger
- Scripts
- Robust code!

**Debugger:**

- Breakpoints
- Stepping (in, over, through)
- Variables
- Call stack
- Memory

**Codeblocks:**

Menu -> debug -> toggle breakpoints

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## Table, hash tables, relation and dictionaries

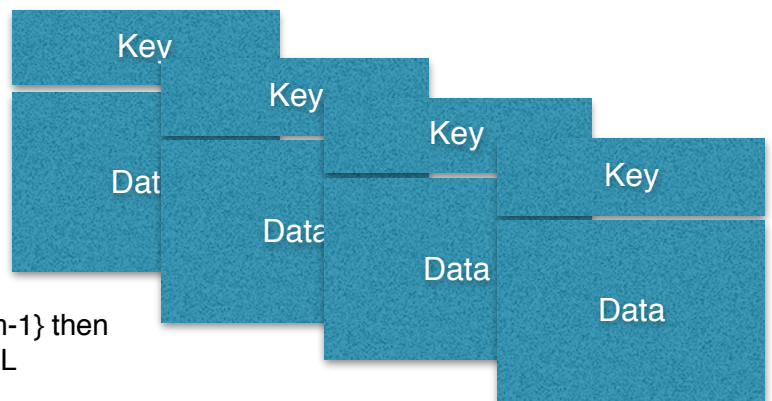
abstract datatypes - can be implemented different ways

### Tables

- Library database
  - Books with unique / ISBN
  - Authors can author more than one book
- How to organize them?
- Organize by title
  - Arrange alphabetically
- Arrange in numerical order
- Do I have a given book?
  - Search using letters or ISBN

#### Tables formally

- Collection of related data
- Implementation
  - Array
  - Linked list
  - Hashing
- Operations
  - Search
  - Insert
  - Delete
  - Empty
- Record (item, post)
  - Key
  - Data
- To access the table
  - Keys taken from set  $U \subseteq \{0, 1, \dots, m-1\}$
  - Set up an array of used keys  $T = \{0, 1, m-1\}$  then
  - $T[k] = \{x \text{ if } x \in k \text{ and } \text{key}[x] = k \text{ or } \text{NULL}\}$
  - To find:  $O(1)$
- Key :
  - By using an array as key holder
- Problems:
  - Large keys (array)
  - Not all position used (unused spaces in the array)



### Hash tables

- Library Database
- Organize according to author?
  - (even book title or parts of an ISBN)
- Divide up in to chunks

- $U \subseteq \{0, 1, \dots, m-1\}$
- $S$  (subset)  $\subseteq U$
- Map  $h(s) \rightarrow U$
- When hash keys points to multiple data (collision):
  - Use link list. ex 0 points to 23 and 25, but 23 points to 25. So it goes  $0 \rightarrow 23 \rightarrow 25$
  - Another hash table
- Worst case:
  - Everything maps to the same location
  - $O(n)$

## Hash functions

- Probability of hashing to a given slot just a likely regardless of previous hashing
- Uniformity in keys should not effect probability
- $n$  = number of keys
- $m$  = number of slots
- Load factor  $\alpha = n/m$
- Unsuccess ... check presentation
- $h(k) = k \bmod m$
- Problems:
  - $m$  with a small divisor
- Pick  $m$  as prime number (but not close to 10 or 2)
- $h(k) = (A * k \bmod 2^w) \text{ rsh}(\text{right shift bit}) (w-r)$
- $w$  = word size
- $A$  is an odd integer  $2^{w-1} < A < 2^w$
- $r$  = integer

## Open addressing

Another name: closed hashing

- Resolving collision through repeated probes ( another hash funktion )
- Depends on hash function + probe
- Search:
  - Same probe sequence
- Problems:
  - Table can become full
  - Deletion can be difficult
- Linier probing:
  - $h(k, i) = (h'(k) + i) \bmod m$
  - $h'(k)$  = ordinary hash funktion
  - Can lead to clustering (blocks and wasted space in-between)
- $h(k, i) = (h_1(k) + i * h_2(k)) \bmod m$
- $m$  needs to be the power of 2
- $h_2(k)$  needs to produce odd numbers

## Relations

- Table of related data
  - Attributes
- Relations
  - Connecting attributes from table to table

## Dictionaries

- Associative list or map
  - Key, value
- Operations:
  - insert
  - delete
  - modify
  - search



## Problem solving

# Breaking and entry

### Brute force:

- Simple
  - Start at the beginning
  - Keep going till ...
  - You find a solution
- Ex: searching a list, traveling sale man problem, make words out of other words
- It can work, sometimes only solution
- Problem:
  - Inefficient
  - Can become time consuming

### Optimal subproblems:

- Optimal solution has optional subproblem solution
- Optimal sub-structure
- Greedy algorithms
- Else
  - Overlapping substructures
  - Dynamic programming

### Greedy Algorithms:

- Local optimum results in global optimum (not guaranteed)
- Ex. problem:
  - Shortest path from A to B:
  - Always take the shortest sub-rout
- Not all local optimal solutions can lead to global optimal solutions
- If globally optimal can be fast
- Problems:
  - No back tracking

### Dynamic Programming (not as in computer programming):

- Overlapping sub problems
  - Once calculated, save and reuse
- Dynamic
  - Updates and changes things but not as in dynamic languages
- Programming
  - Filling tables, not computer programming

### Divide and Conquer:

- Recursion
  - Break the problem reclusively into small problems
  - Preferably evenly
- Solve the smaller problems
- Combine together to produce the overall solution
- Master method the find  $O()$ , look up in table

- Master method:
  - $T(N) = a \cdot T(n/b) + f(n^c)$
  - Three cases:
    - If  $f(n) = \Theta(n^c)$ , where  $c < \log_b(a)$  then  $T(n) = O(n^{\log_b(a)})$
    - If  $f(n) = O(n^c \log^k(n))$ , where  $c = \log_b(a)$ , then  $T(n) = O(n^{\log_b(a)} \log^{k+1}(n))$
    - If  $f(n) = \Omega(n^c) \dots$  (se presentation)

## Problem Solving

Top down:

- Greedy

Bottom up

- Dynamic
-

## Trees

### Why trees?

- Structural relationships
- Hierarchies
- Efficient insertion and search
- Flexibility (moving tree around)

Examples:

- Navigation (robot)
- Files systems
- Family trees (animals, relationships)
- Assembles (things that are assembled)
- Hierarchies
- Decision making

### Terminology

- Node (contains data, connected)
- Root (top node)
- Branches
- Leaves (end nodes)
- Label (identifier)
- Parent (above node)
- Child (below node)
- Sibling (beside node)
- Levels (1, 2, 3, ...)
- Position (where nodes are)
- Height (how many levels,  $h(o)$  = leaves,  $h(1)$  = parent)
- Depth (reverse of height,  $d(0)$  = root)
  
- Recursive
- Finite number of nodes
- Homogeneous data type (same type)
- Sub tree (part of tree)
- Unique path (each node have, hmmm)
- No multiple paths
  
- Different types of trees:
  - **Ordered**
    - Sibling linearly ordered
    - Siblings in a list
  - **Unordered**
    - Disorganized
    - No significance between siblings
  - **Directed trees**
    - Paths in only one direction
    - Down directed trees lack parentes
    - Up directed trees lack children
  - **Binary trees**

- Max two children
- **Sorted**
  - Relationship / values
- **Binary trees**
  - Left child
  - Right child
  - Number of nodes in a binary trees
    - At least  $n = 2^h - 1$
  - Number of leaves in a full binary trees
    - $l = (n+1)/2$
  - Full binary trees
    - Each node has 0 or 2 children
  - Complete
    - Full at each level with exception on leaves
  - Balanced
    - Left and right sub trees have same number of nodes
  - Height:
    - $n/2^k = 1$ ,  $n$  = number of nodes at bottom level
    - $k = \log_2 n$
    - Max number of nodes per level
      - $2^k$  ( $k-1$  = levels) (1, 2, 4, 8, 16, ...)

## Operations

- Navigate
- Balancing
- Enumerate
- Search
- Insert
- Delete
- Pruning (delete subtree)
- Grafting (insert subtree)
- **Navigate**
  - Travers
  - **Breadth first:**
    - Create a queue
    - Save all outgoing nodes to the queue
    - Work through the queue and check each node
    - End when queue is empty
  - **Depth first:**
    - Walking the tree
    - Walk
      - Pre-order
        - Parent traversed before child
        - Go down left child, back up, go to right
      - Post-order
        - Child traversed before parent
      - In-order
        - Left tree, then node, then right tree

- Balancing a tree
  - Adding sorted data to tree
  - Tree becomes like a list
  - Rotate left
  - Red-black trees
- Delete
  1. Deleting a leaf
  2. Deleting a node with one child
  3. Deleting a node with two children
    - Case 2
      - Remove node and replace with child
    - Case 3
      - Select either in order predecessor or successor,  $r$ , of  $n$
      - Copy  $r$  to  $n$
      - Recursively call delete on  $r$  until case 1 or 2
- Insert in red-black tree
  - See presentation for red-black specifics

## Implementation

- Linked list
  - Label
  - Pointer to parent
  - Array of pointers to children
  - Struct
- 
- As an array
    - Label
    - Parent
-

## Priority Queue and Queue

### Priority Queue

Special case:

- Queues
- Stacks

Operations:

- Insert (or push, enqueue)
  - With priority
- Remove (or pop, dequeue)
  - With priority
- isEmpty
- inspectFirst

Implementation:

- Array
- Linked list
- Heap (tree)

### Priority Queue Examples

- A\* (path finding)
- Discrete Event Simulator (not-real simulation (chunk of time simulation))

### Heap

- Tree data structure
  - Often binary tree
- Ordered relationship between child and parent
  - Not between siblings
  - Heap property
  - Max / Min heap

Operations:

- Create
- Insert
- Delete (max or min)
- isEmpty
- Extract max or min

### Heap Implementation

- Usually as an array
- (Often) Binary tree
- Almost complete

### Priority queue as a heap

- Root at index 1
- Left at index 2
- Right at index 3
- For node  $n$ , children at  $2n$  and  $2n+1$

Operations:

- Insert
- Add at end
  - New leaf on the tree
- Fix the priorities
  - Compare with parent
  - If smaller, swap
  - Continue until priorities are fixed
- RemoveMax
  - Return at index 1
  - Copy end of array to index 1
  - Compare and swap to restore priorities

## Building a Heap

### Build a heap

- In a binary tree, where do the leaves start?
  - $\text{floor}(n/2) + 1$  to  $n$
  - $n = 5$  laves start at 3
- Every leaf is a heap with one node!

### Heapify

- Go up and down to compare each element in a tree and swap them to create a heap

How many nodes at each level?

- $\text{ceil}(n/2^{h+1})$
- Height  $h = 0$ ,  $n = 7$ , number of nodes = 4

### HeapSort

?

## Heap operations

(See presentation for details)

- Extract max
- Insert
  - Insert at the end and copy upwards till heap proper is satisfied
- HeapSort

## Variations of Heap

- Fibonacci heaps - set of trees ((often) min), no predefined order, number of children are low
- Binomial heaps - collection of tree on order less than parent

## Graphs and Sets

### Sets

- Collection of items
- No specified ordered
- Unique values
- Implementation of mathematical concept of finite set
- Static or dynamic
  
- Items in a set are members of the set
  - $x \in X$
- Subsets
  - $a \subseteq A$
- Union of sets
  - $A \cup B$
- Intersections
  - $A \cap B$

### Operations

- Create
- Inset
- Remove
- Is member of  $\in$
- Is empty
- Select (lookup)
- Size of
- Enumerate
- Compare

### Implementation

- Simple
  - Linked lists
  - Array
- Efficient
  - Trees
  - Hash tables
  
- Insert
  - Check for duplicates
  - Union
- If list has duplicates
  - Check when doing
    - Equal
    - Remove
    - Intersection
    - Difference
- Bit vector (array)
  - 0 or 1
  - Set the bit if the item is in the queue



- Faster operations
  - Bit operations hardware (bitwise AND or OR)
  - Masking
    - 0010110101 AND 0010000000
- Minimize memory
  - n/m
- Bit field
  - Struct {int var :3;}
- Limitations
  - Can't use bit field variables in and attar
  - Can't take the memory adress of a bit field variable
  - Can't overlap integer boundaries
- Priority Queues
  - Linux kernel
- Caching algorithms / memory pages

## Complexity

Depends on the implementation

- Improve set operations such as union or intersection
- Improve insert, search, remove

$O(n)$  or  $O(\log n)$

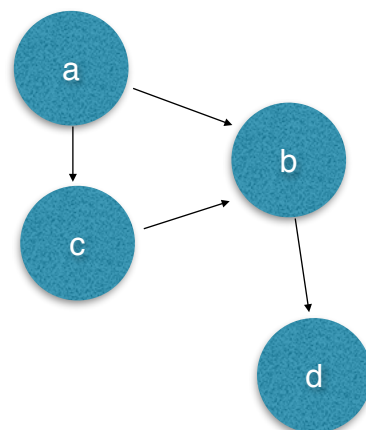
Some set operations can take  $O(m*n)$

### Another bit on the bit vectors:

- Number of bit in an array
  - Hamming Weight
    - Population count
  - Bit wise operations
  - Counting

## Graphs

- Set of nodes or vertices + pairs of nodes
  - $G = (V, A)$
- Directed or undirected
  - Undirected a to b is the same as b to a
  - Node - Undirected
  - Vertices - directed
- Edge
  - Arcs (directed)
  - Connection between nodes
  - Weighted or unweighted



- $V = \{a, b, c, d\}$
- $A = \{(a, b), (a, c), (b, d), (c, d)\}$
- Adjacency
  - 2 edges are adjacent if they share a common vertex
  - $(a, c)$  and  $(a, b)$
  - 2 vertices are adjacent if they share a common ... (se presentation for additional notes)

**Implementation:**

```
struct Node {  
    int nodeID;  
    void* out;  
    int out; (antal som går ut)  
};
```

OR

```
struct Edge {  
    int edgeID;  
    int start;  
    int end;  
};
```

**Types:**

Trivial graph

- One vertex (node)

Edgeless graph

- Vertices and no edges

Null graph

- Empty graph

**Terminology:**

- Paths
  - Sequence of nodes
  - $\{a, b, c\}$
- Simple path
  - No repetition of nodes
- Cyclic path
  - Round and round
- Walk
  - Open walk = path
  - Closed walk = cyclic path
- Connected graph
  - All nodes have a path to all other nodes
- Sub graphs
  - Vertices are a sub set of  $G$
  - Adjacency relationship are a subset of  $G$ 's and restricted to the subgraph
- Complete graph
  - All nodes connected to all other nodes
  - Undirected graph  $A = n(n-1)/2$
  - If  $a < n-1$  then the graph is not connected

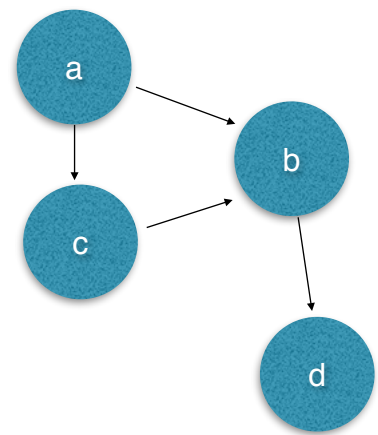
- Weighted graph
  - Maps
  - Places as node
  - Roads as arcs
  - Distance as weights on the edges
- Weights can represent "cost"
- Some algorithm require restrictions on weights
  - Rational numbers or integers
  - All positive integers
- Weight of path
  - Sum of the weights for a given path

## Constructing Graphs

- Adjacency lists
  - An array of arrays of adjacent vertices
- Adjacency matrix (a bunch of squares with sides abcd and abcd)
  - Node x node matrix ( $n \times n$ ) (vertical and horizontal)
- Undirected graph
  - Symmetrical

## Graph example

- Robot navigation



## Grafalgoritmer

(Se presentation för algoritmer)

## Traversiering

- **Djupet-först-traversering**
  - Rekursivt besöka alla noder - gå hela vägen genom noder fören besöka flera grannar
  - Cykler ger risk för oändlig traversering - kan undvikas genom att komma ihåg noder som besökts
- **Bredden-först-traversering**
  - Besöka alla grannar fören börja söka i nästa nod
  - Risk för oändlig loop och inget minnet av besökta
  - Implementeras best med en kö
- **Kortast-väg-algoritm**
  - Med hjälp av bredden-först och en distans funktion kan kortast väg hittas
  - Utgår efter ta alltid kortast väg till nästa nod
- Båda traverseringar har  $O(n)$  eftersom alla noder besökts en gång, ( $O(n+m)$  där  $m$  är antal grannar)

## Finna vägar till en nod

- **Floyds shortest path ( $O(n^3)$ )**
  - Bygger på att man representerar grafen med en matris
  - Loopar 3 gånger i varandra för att hitta längden av den kortaste vägen mellan alla noder
  - Kan läggas in mer loopar för att komma ihåg den väg som tagits
  - Sparar alla längder mellan alla noder i en matris
- **Dijkstras shortest path**
  - Kortast väg från en nod till alla andra noder
  - Alla noder har tre attribut: visited, distance, parent
  - Använder en prioritetskö (inte en vanlig kö)
- Skillnad:
  - Floyds: jämför alla noder med all
  - Dijkstra: jämför en nod med all - bättre för glesa träd

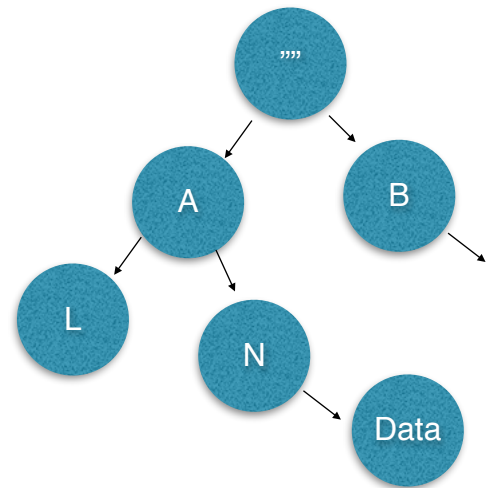
## Konstruera ett (minsta) uppspännande träd

- bredden/djupet först gav båda uppspännande träd
- Graf med vikter: uppspännande träd ska ha så liten summa som möjligt
- **Kruskals Algoritm**
  - Greedy
  - Man färglägger olika delgrafer
- **Prims Algoritm**
  - By ett allt större träd
  - Varje steg välj med minimal vikt (greedy algoritm)

## Trie and Search Trees

### Trie

- Special type of tree
  - Retrieval
- Dynamic sets
- Keys is a string
  - Root node is an empty string
- Example:
  - Autocomplete/correct
  - File structures
  - DNA sequencing
  - Data compression
    - LZ78
    - Huffman encoding



### Implementation

- As a table
- 2x2 array
- One column per letter in the alphabet, n
- One row per node, m
- $\log_2 m$  to represent the data
- As a linked list
- Each node contains
  - A letter
  - A link to child
- de la Brandais tree

### Operations

- Insert child
- Delete child
- Child
  - Lookup

### Example LZ78:

- Lossless data compression
- Dictionary based
- Random access

### Example Huffman coding:

- Frequency encoding
- To encode:
  - Right = 1 and left = 0 (in tree)
- Applications:
  - Zip file
  - jpeg
  - PNG

## Binary search tree

- Each node has max two child nodes
- Relationship between child nodes
  - Nodes key is larger than all the nodes in the left sub tree
  - Nodes key is smaller than all the nodes in the right sub tree
- Binary search tree and a binary tree
  - In a binary search tree all nodes must have a label
- Delete can break the tree
  - Fix it downwards
- Insert must insert in sorted order

### Operations:

- Search
- Insert
- Delete

### Search

- Fast if tree is ordered
- If tree is complete:  $O(\log n)$

### Insert

- Keep the tree complete
- Check left sub tree. If it is full, insert the values in the higher tree and move old down the tree

### Delete

- Case 1
  - No sub tree
- Case 2
  - One sub tree
  - Move sub tree to the deleted node's position
- Case 3
  - Two sub trees
  - Delete the node
  - Promote the lowest value in the right sub tree (lowest value(right) takes the deleted values place)

### Balancing a binary tree

- Rotations
- Self-balancing
  - Performed at key times (programmer decides what key times is)

### Binary tree extensions

- Quad tree
  - As binary tree but based in 4 instead of 2
  - Breaks up a 2d region into 4 space
    - Collision detection

## Revision

### Data types

(from complex → simple)

- Graphs
- Trees (heap, trie, binary search trees)
- Queues and stacks (Priority queues)
- Linked lists
- Arrays, structures, unions (collections, builtin in C)
- Int, float, double, char, bool

(Abstract datatype = can be implemented different ways)

### Algorithms

3 types:

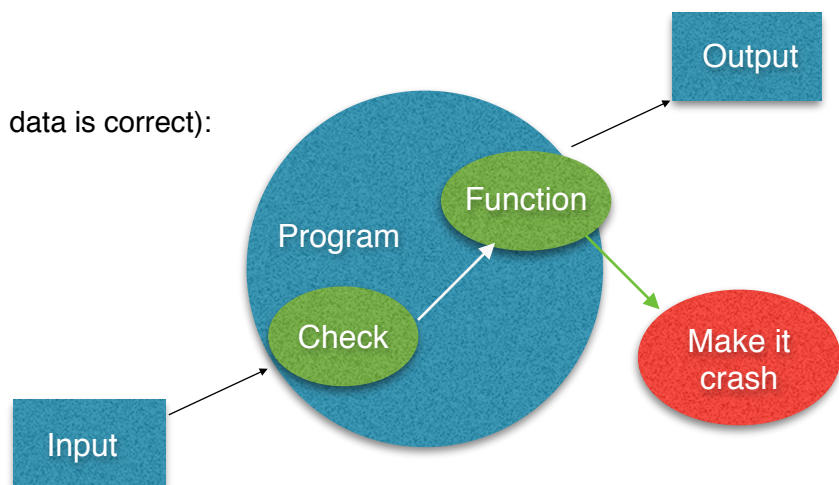
- Constant time
- Iterative
- Recursive

Example:

- BubbleSort
  - $n^2/2 + n/2$ .  $n \rightarrow \infty$ :  $O(n^2)$
- Quicksort
  - $O(\log n)$
- Mergesort
- Heapsort
- Greedy Algorithms
- Dynamic programming
  - Overlapping subproblems (save result for later use)
- Brute force

### Programming / implementation

- Structures
- Arrays
- Pointers
- Program boundary (check you data is correct):
  - Memory allocation
    - malloc
  - i/o functions (fopen etc)
  - Other project functions



## Datatyper Generella Teorier

(att själv designa en datatyp)

### Abstract Datatyp

- Koncept för att diskutera och jämföra datatyper
- Hög abstraktnivå
  - Främst intresserad av struktur och organisation, inte implementation
- Operationerna ger datatypen karaktär
- och specifikation visar datatypens uttrycksfullhet

#### Operationskategorier

- **Konstruktörer** - skapa ny datatyper:
  - Grundkonstruktörer (empty, make, create, ...) - inga argument
    - Boken: empty = inga värden eller struktur, make = inga värden men struktur, create = värden och struktur
  - Formalitiserat: Pythons `__init__`
  - Vidareutvecklade konstruktörer (insert, push, ...) - flera argument
  - Kombinerande konstruktörer (Set-union) - flera argument
- **Inspektioner** - undersöka värden
  - Avläsning (inspekt, top, lookup)
  - Test av extremfall (tree-has-left-child)
  - Mätning av objekt (lsempty, has-value)
- **Modifikationer** - ändrar datatyper
  - Insättning, bortagning, tilldelning (set-value, pop, insert)
- Navigatörer - ta fram datatypens struktur
  - Landmärken, lokala förflyttningar, traverseringar (first, end, next, tree-left-child)
- **Komparatörer** - jämför datatyper
  - Equal, subset

### Generella Teorier

#### Uttrycksfullhet

- Abstrakt datatyp = objekt + konstruktion av gränsyta
- Frågar vid skapandet av datatyp:
  - Vilken är värdemängden?
  - Vilka interna resp. externa egenskaper har objekten?
  - Vad ska man göra med objekten?
  - Specificera en gränsyta informellt och formellt
  - Överväga olika implementationsmöjligheter
- Vad kan göras med objekten?
  - Uttrycksfullhet

#### Hur mycket ska man kunna göra i datatypen?

- Skapa alla objekt i datatypen och skilja dem åt?
- Utnyttja all information i datatypen till att skriva algoritmer?
- Att algoritmerna man skriver också ska vara effektiva?
- Ställer olika krav på den gränsyta man väljer att ha till datatypen



### **Uttrycksfullhet**

- Datatypspecifikationen har två roller:
  - Slå fast hur datatypen är beskaffad, vilka egenskaper den har
  - Fungerar som en regelsamling för användning av datatypen
- Specifikationens uttrycksfullhet kan mätas med tre begrepp
  - Objektfullständighet
  - Algoritmfullständighet
  - Rik gränsytan

### **Objektfullständighet**

- Är det svagaste kriteriet
- De ska vara möjligt att konstruera och skilja mellan alla objekt som anses höra till datatypen

### **Algoritmfullständighet**

- Starkaste än (och implicerar) objektfullständig
- Man ska kunna implementera alla algoritmer i denna datatyp
  - D.v.s. allt som man kan göra med datatypen ska och gå att implementera utifrån specifikationens operatorer
- Alltså: Algoritmfullständighet = objektfullständig + likhetstest

### **Rik gränsyta**

- Starkaste kriteriet, implecerar de andra två
- Även om man har algoritmfullständighet så kan vissa algoritmer bli hopplöst ineffektiva
- Krav: man ska med hjälp av gränsytan kunna implementera speciella analysfunktioner som kan:
  - Kunna plocka isär ett objekt och bygga ihop det igen
  - Får varken innehålla iteration eller rekursion i sin definition

### **Att utforma en gränsyta:**

- Man utgår från de operationer som gör datatypen speciell
- Sedan applicera de teoretiska begreppen
  - Objektfullständighet
  - Ska vara primitiva (kan inte delas upp i mindre operationer)
  - Algoritmfullständighet
  - Är oberoende, kan inte ta bort en enda operation och ändå ha kvar en algoritmfullständig gränsyta
- Detta ger en rätt stram yta med få operationer

### **Fördelar med en stram gränsyta**

- Utbytbarhet
- Portabilitet
- Integritet
  - Mindre risk för att operation läggs till som strider mot grundidén med datatypen

## **Hänsyn till när skapa nya**

Många programmeringsspråk ger mycket litet eller inget stöd alls. Då krävs:

- Namngivning
- Operationsval
- God dokumentation
- Disciplin (inte gå in och peta i interna strukturer)

---

## Inför Tenta (exempel)

### Exempel psuedo-kod: Jämför 2 arrayer om de är lika, oberoende av ordning och antalet av ett värde

```
Algorithm equal (arr1, arr2)
```

```
    if subEqual(arr1, arr2) and subEqual(arr2, arr1) then  
        return true
```

```
Algorithm subEqual (arr1, arr2)
```

```
    for i <- low(arr1) to high(arr1) do  
        val <- inspect-value(arr1, i)  
        eq <- false  
        for j <- low(arr2) to high(arr2) do  
            if val = inspect-value(arr2, j) then  
                eq <- true  
        if not eq then  
            return eq  
    return true
```

### Exempel insertsort med ord:

Vi går igenom alla de osorterade värdena en efter en och stoppar in dom på rätt plats bland de vi sorterat hittills

### Exempel förklara vad är en prioritetkö:

Fungerar som en kö men värdena istället för ordning efter hur de kom in, behandlas de med någon relation som bestämmer ordning efter prioritet

Traversera bredd först behövs en kö, djup först behövs en stack

### Vad menas med en linjär hantering av kollision vid hashtabell?:

Om kollision uppstår, gå linjärt till nästa oanvänd plats (samma med lookup)

Vilka problem uppstår?:

Kan bilda klumpar av värden som blir segt att söka igenom

### Ordförståelse:

Abstract datatyp - en datatyp som är bestämd men inte hur den ska implementeras

Relativ komplexitet - komplexiteten för en algoritm tar endast hänsyn till algoritmen och inga yttre (primitiva) funktioner och datatyper som används

Gleat matris - 2 dimensionellt fält med **många** värden som är 0 eller något annat fixt värde som inte skiljer värdena ifrån varandra

Objektfullständighet - skapa varje element och de kan utskiljas, i en datatyp

Gränsyta - vilka operationer som en datatyp har och vilka parametrar de tar

Hanterbara problem - problem som har en algoritm med högst polynomisk komplexitet

Komplett graf - graf där varje nod är granne med alla andra noder i grafen

Divide and Conquer - delar upp problemet till mindre problem rekursivt och slår ihop de senare för att fylla huvudproblemet

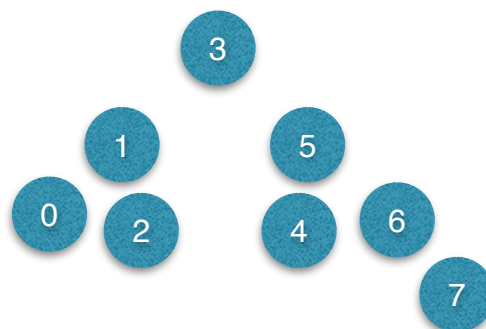
### Binärt sökträd: 3, 5, 6, 7, 1, 4, 2, 0

Hitta 2: 3 noder

### Traverseringsorder

Djup först inorder (andra besöket): 01234567

Djup först postorder (rad för rad): 70246153



### Minst antal total väg problem

Prim eller Kruskals(färglägg) algoritmer