

# Data\_structure\_note

Thursday, May 30, 2024 2:42 PM

**1. Data Structure** => is a way of organizing data different ways of storing data on your computer  
EX: is like preparing for cooking you slice up vegetables

**2. Algorithm** => the process that does something to data to produce the output operations on different data structure

**data structure + algorithm = programming**

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Steps to learn:

a.. Big O notation => is the language of analyzing algorithms and data structures.

b. Data structures list:

1. Arrays
2. Linked Lists
3. Queues and Stacks
4. Trees
5. Graphs
6. Hash Maps
7. pointers
8. Memory => 1 byte = 8 bits

c. Algorithms:

1. recursion
2. sorting algorithms
3. Graph search algorithms
4. Dynamic programming
5. common problem solving patterns

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**3. Memory (RAM) vs. Storage**

After turning off the computer, Storage is permanent, and memory will disappear.

int a = 1; => 32 bits for int

4 bytes = 32 bits = 1 integer

-----  
**4. classes and objects**

```
//class
class Robot {
    string name;
    string color;
    int weight;
//constructors
    Robot(String n, String c, int w){
        this.name = n;
        this.color = c;
        this.weight = w;
    }
//function
    void introduceSelf(){
        system.out.println("My name is " + this.name);
    }
}
```

} }

```
//to use constructors and functions
Robot r1 = new robot("Leo", "Red", "37");
r1.introduceSelf();
```

-----

6 -> 3 -> 4 -> 2 -> 1 -> null

```
class Node{
    int data;
    Node next;
    Node prev;
    //constructor
    Node(int data){
        this.data = data;
    }
}
```

```
Node head = new Node(6);
Node nodeB = new Node(3);
Node nodeC = new Node(4);
...
```

```
head.next = nodeB
nodeB.next = nodeC
...
```

```
//count how many nodes we have
int countNodes(Node head){
    //assuming head != null
    int count = 1;
    Node current = head;
    while(current.next != null){
        current = current.next;
        count += 1;
    }
}
```

-----

```
//factorial
n! = n. (n-1)!    if n >= 1
    1              otherwise (if n = 0 )
Ex: 4! = 4 x 3 x 2 x 1 = 24
```

```
int fact(int n){
    //assume that n is a positive integer or 0
    if (n >= 1) {
        return n * fact(n-1);
    } else {
        return 1;
    }
}
```

```
}  
}
```

### // Fibonacci sequence

Ex: 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8

```
int fib(int n){  
    if (n >= 3){  
        return fib(n-1) * fib(n-2);  
    } else {  
        return 1;  
    }  
}
```

### google interview problem

#### Recursive staircase problem

```
num_way(N) = num_ways(N-1) + num_ways(N-2)  
num_way(0) = 1  
num_way(1) = 1
```

```
//python  
//this won't work if n = 2  
def num_ways(n):  
    if n == 0 or n == 1:  
        return 1  
    else:  
        return num_ways(n-1) + num_ways(n-2)
```

//fixed

```
def num_ways_bottom_up(n):  
    if n == 0 or n == 1:  
        return 1  
    nums = [0] * (n + 1)  
    nums[0] = 1  
    nums[1] = 1  
    for i in range(2, n + 1):  
        nums[i] = nums[i - 1] + nums[i - 2]  
    return nums[n]  
# Example usage  
total_feet = 11  
print(f"Number of ways to jump {total_feet} feet:  
{num_ways_bottom_up(total_feet)}")
```

//variation problems

X = {1,3,5}

//wrong

```
def num_ways_X(n):  
    if n == 0:  
        return 1  
    total = 0;  
    for each i in {1,3,5}:  
        if n - i >= 0:
```

```

total += num_ways_X(n-i)
return total

```

```

//fixed
def num_ways_bottom_up_X(n):
    if n == 0:
        return 1
    nums = [0] * (n + 1)
    nums[0] = 1
    for i in range(1, n + 1):
        total = 0
        for j in {1, 3, 5}:
            if i - j >= 0:
                total += nums[i - j]
        nums[i] = total
    return nums[n]

```

## 7. Big O notation

**runtime** = time to takes to execute a piece of code

**linear time** =  $O(n)$

**constant time** =  $O(1)$

**quadratic time** =  $O(n^2)$

1. find the fastest growing term
2. take out the coefficient

$T = an + b = O(n)$

$T = cn^2 + dn + e = O(n^2)$

given\_array = [1, 4, 3, 2, ..., 10]

```

def stupid_function(given_array):
    total = 0 -> O(1)
    return total -> O(1)

```

$$T = \overset{c_1}{O(1)} + \overset{c_2}{O(1)} = c_1 + c_2$$

$$= c_3 = c_3 \times 1 = O(1)$$

$$O(1) + O(1) = O(1)$$

```

def find_sum(given_array):
    total = 0 -> O(1)
    for each i in given_array:
        total += i -> O(1)
    return total -> O(1)

```

$$T_2 = O(1) + n \times O(1) + O(1)$$

$$= c_4 + n \times c_5 = O(n)$$

```
array_2d = [[1, 4, 3], [3, 1, 9], [0, 5, 2]]
```

```
[[1, 4, 3, 1], [3, 1, 9, 4], [0, 5, 2, 6], [4, 5, 7, 8]]
```

$$T_3 = O(1) + n^2 \times O(1) + O(1)$$

$$= c_6 + n^2 \times c_7 = O(n^2)$$

$$T_4 = \overset{0}{O}(2n^2) = \overset{c}{O}(n^2)$$

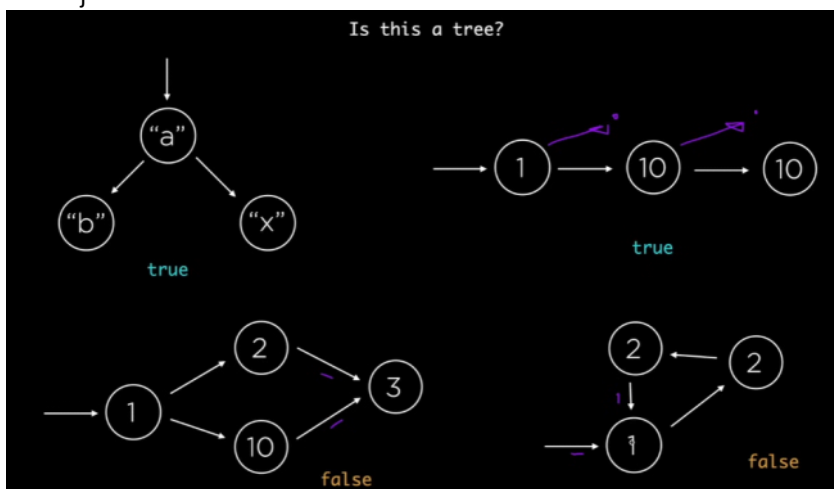
$$T_4 = 2n^2 \times c + \dots = 2n^2 \times c + c_2n + c_3$$

$$= (2c) \times n^2 + c_2n + c_3 = O(n^2)$$

```
def find_sum_2d(array_2d):
    total = 0 -> O(1)
    for each row in array_2d:
        for each i in row:
            total += i -> O(1)
    return total -> O(1)
```

## 8. Tree =>

```
Class Node{
    Int data
    Node left
    Node right
}
```



## Binary Tree =>

is a data structure in which each node has at most two children, referred to as the left child and the right child.

## 9. Sorting

**a. Linear search** =  $O(n)$  =  $O(n/2)$  = It works by checking each element in the list, one by one, until the desired element is found or the end of the list is reached

```
def linear_search(arr, target):
    for i in range(len(arr)):
        if arr[i] == target:
            return i # Return the index of the target element
    return -1 # Return -1 if the target is not found

# Example usage
arr = [34, 17, 23, 35, 45, 9, 1]
```

```

target = 23
result = linear_search(arr, target)

if result != -1:
    print(f"Element found at index {result}")
else:
    print("Element not found")

```

### b. Binary search:

Arr[-50 ~ 50]  
Target = 20

40 -> 20 -> 10 -> ... -> 1

$N \rightarrow \frac{n}{2} \rightarrow \frac{n}{4} \rightarrow \frac{n}{8} \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow 1$

$n \rightarrow \frac{n}{2} \rightarrow \frac{n}{2^2} \rightarrow \frac{n}{2^3} \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow \frac{n}{2^x} \approx 1$

$\frac{n}{2^x} \approx 1 \Rightarrow n = 2^x \Rightarrow \log_2(n) = x = O(\log(n))$

```

def search(arr, target):
    left = 0
    right = len(arr) - 1
    while left <= right:
        mid = (left + right) // 2 # make sure to round it down
        if arr[mid] == target:
            return mid
        elif target < arr[mid]:
            right = mid - 1
        else:
            left = mid + 1
    return -1

arr1 = [-2, 3, 4, 7, 8, 9, 11, 13]
assert search(arr1, 11) == 6
assert search(arr1, 13) == 7
assert search(arr1, -2) == 0
assert search(arr1, 8) == 4
assert search(arr1, 6) == -1
assert search(arr1, 14) == -1
assert search(arr1, -4) == -1
arr2 = [3]
assert search(arr2, 6) == -1
assert search(arr2, 2) == -1
assert search(arr2, 3) == 0
print("If you didn't get an assertion error, this program has run
successfully.")

```

### c. Quicksort:

is typically the fastest for large datasets due to its low overhead and excellent average-case performance.

Implement details:

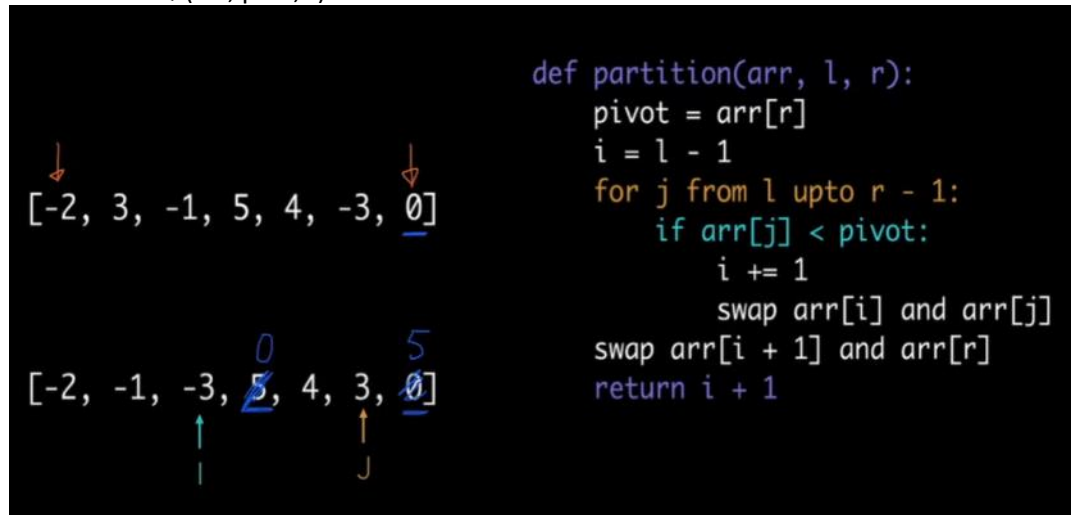
1. Choosing pivot
  - Random element
  - Median of three
2. Dealing with duplicates

### 3-way quicksort

```

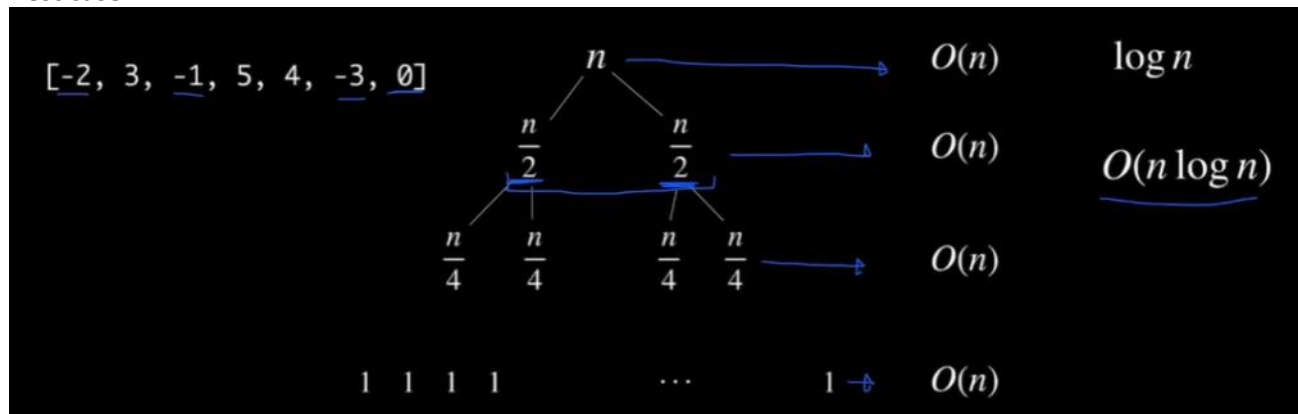
Def qs(arr, l, r):
    If l >= r:
        Return
    P = partition(arr, l, r)
    Qs(arr, l, p-1)
    Qs(arr, p+1, r)

```

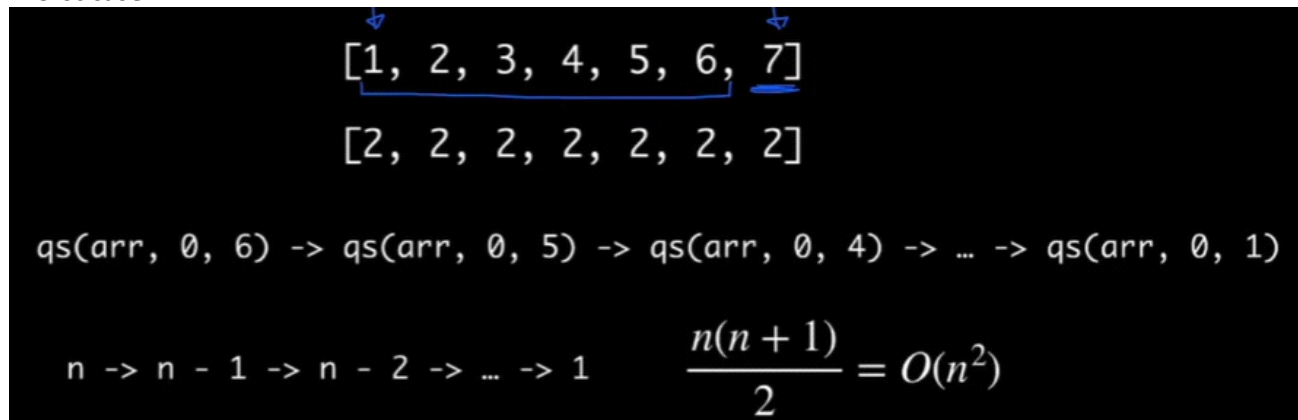


### Time Complexity:

**Best case:**



**Worst case:**



**d. other sorting:**

1. **Mergesort:** is a good choice when stability is required and for data that doesn't fit in memory (external sorting).

2. **Heapsort**: provides reliable  $O(n \log n)$  performance with in-place sorting but is generally outperformed by quicksort and mergesort.

3. **Timsort**: is highly efficient for real-world data and is used in many standard libraries due to its adaptive nature and stability.

## 10. Stacks and queues

**Stacks** = last in, first out.

### 1. Operations:

**Push**: Add an element to the top of the stack.

**Pop**: Remove the top element from the stack.

**Peek/Top**: Look at the top element without removing it.

### 2. Usage:

Undo mechanisms in text editors.

Function call management in programming languages (call stack).

**Depth-first search (DFS) algorithms.**

```
# Implementing a stack using a list
stack = []
# Push operation
stack.append(1)
stack.append(2)
stack.append(3)
# Pop operation
print(stack.pop()) # Output: 3
print(stack.pop()) # Output: 2
# Peek operation
print(stack[-1])  # Output: 1
```

**Queues** = first in, first out

### 1. Operations:

**Enqueue**: Add an element to the end of the queue.

**Dequeue**: Remove the element from the front of the queue.

**Front/Peek**: Look at the front element without removing it

### 2. Usages

Order processing systems.

**Breadth-first search (BFS) algorithms.**

Print job management.

```
from collections import deque
# Implementing a queue using deque from collections
queue = deque()
# Enqueue operation
queue.append(1)
queue.append(2)
queue.append(3)
# Dequeue operation
print(queue.popleft()) # Output: 1
print(queue.popleft()) # Output: 2
# Peek operation
print(queue[0])        # Output: 3
```

## 11. Hash Tables and Dictionaries

is a data structure that implements an associative array abstract data type, a structure that



can map keys to values. It uses a hash function to compute an index into an array of buckets or slots, from which the desired value can be found.

Fast to compute

Avoid collision

**Double hashing** is an advanced technique used to handle collisions in hash tables

*double-hashing*

|     |  |      |  |      |      |       |  |
|-----|--|------|--|------|------|-------|--|
| Bob |  | Jane |  | Paul | Alex | Chloe |  |
| 8   |  | 35   |  | 29   | 18   | 88    |  |

search .

$$\frac{1}{1 - \alpha}$$

insertion

$i = h_1(\text{key}) \bmod 8$   
 $(i + c) \bmod 8$   
 $(i + 2c) \bmod 8$

$\gcd(c, m) = 1$   
 $c \leftarrow \{h_2(\text{key}) \bmod (m - 1)\} + 1$   
 $h_2(\text{key}) = h_1(\text{key} + 'd')$   
 $h_2(\text{key}) = h_1(\text{key})$

$\alpha = \frac{n}{m}$

*[Handwritten notes in red and orange:]*  
 $[0, m-2]$   
 $[1, m-1]$

Suppose we want to insert the keys 10, 22, 31, 44, 59 into the hash table:

1. Insert 10:  $h_1(10) = 10 \bmod 11 = 10$   
No collision, so 10 is placed at index 10.
2. Insert 22:  $h_1(22) = 22 \bmod 11 = 0$   
No collision, so 22 is placed at index 0.
3. Insert 31:  $h_1(31) = 31 \bmod 11 = 9$   
No collision, so 31 is placed at index 9.
4. Insert 44:  $h_1(44) = 44 \bmod 11 = 0$   
Collision occurs at index 0.  
Calculate the step size using  $h_2(44) = 1 + (44 \bmod 10) = 5$   
Probe sequence:  $(0 + 1 \cdot 5) \bmod 11 = 5$   
No collision at index 5, so 44 is placed at index 5.
5. Insert 59:  $h_1(59) = 59 \bmod 11 = 4$   
No collision, so 59 is placed at index 4.

#### Advantages of Double Hashing

1. Reduced Clustering: It minimizes both primary and secondary clustering compared to linear and quadratic probing.
2. Efficiency: Provides good performance in terms of average search, insert, and delete operations.

**Resources:** [Resources for Learning Data Structures and Algorithms \(Data Structures & Algorithms # 8\)](#)