

Data Structures and Algorithms

CatchUp Lecture Week 3

Recursion

- Basically speaking, an algorithm is called **recursive** if it **calls itself**
- Common examples: **Fibonacci numbers**, **factorial**, ...

Fibonacci

```
public static double fibonacci(int n) throws Exception {  
    if (n < 0) {  
        throw new Exception("n should be positive");  
    }  
  
    if ((n == 0) || (n == 1)) {  
        return 1;  
    }  
  
    return fibonacci(n - 1) + fibonacci(n - 2);  
}
```

Factorial

```
public static double factorial(int n) throws Exception {  
    if (n < 1) {  
        throw new Exception("n should be positive");  
    }  
  
    if (n == 1) {  
        return 1;  
    }  
  
    return n * factorial(n - 1);  
}
```

Algorithm Analysis (1)

- To solve a given problem, several different algorithms may exist
- Q: Which algorithm is better?

Algorithm Analysis (2)

- To answer this question, a metric is needed:
- Q_{v2} : Which algorithm is better regarding X^* ?

* $X \in \{time, space\}$

Algorithm Analysis (3)

- Is that question good enough?

Algorithm Analysis (3)

- Is that question good enough?
- No!

Algorithm Analysis (3)

- Is that question good enough?
- No!
- Q_{v3} : Which algorithm is better regarding X^* given problem size n ?

* $X \in \{time, space\}$

Algorithm Analysis (4)

- The general answer to Q_{v3} generally is as follows:

The algorithms that needs less time / space.

Algorithm Analysis (4)

- The general answer to Q_{v_3} generally is as follows:

The algorithms that needs less time / space.

... but how?!

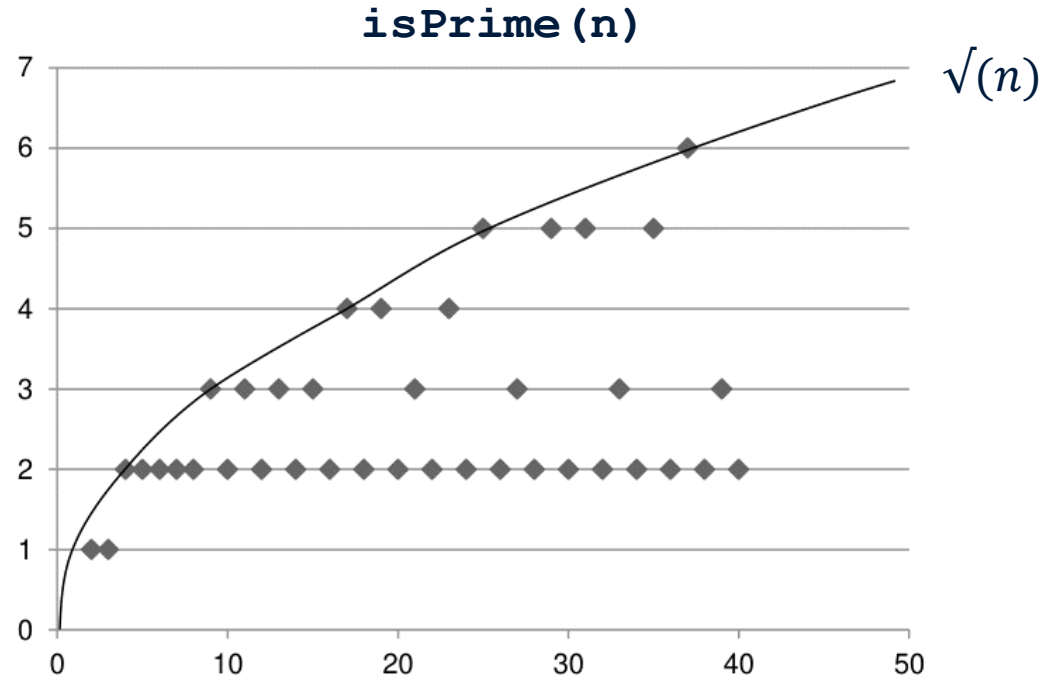
Algorithm Analysis (5)

- A common approach to algorithm analysis is simply counting the steps / stored elements that occur while executing the algorithm with different input sizes n
- However, counting alone may produce strange results

Finding Primes (1)

```
static boolean isPrime(int n) {  
    // Corner case  
    if (n <= 1) {  
        return false;  
    }  
  
    // Check from 2 to sqrt(n)  
    for (int i = 2; i <= Math.sqrt(n); i++) {  
        if (n % i == 0) {  
            return false;  
        }  
    }  
  
    return true;  
}
```

Finding Primes (2)



Cases & Complexity Classes

- Best case, average case and worst case are distinguished
- Assign a problem to a complexity class and forget about the specific value from counting

Big-O (Landau) notation (1)

- Complexity classes are denoted using Big-O (Landau) notation:

$$O(f) = \left\{ \min \left(g: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+ \right) \mid f(n) \leq c * g(n) \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, c \in \mathbb{R}^+ \right\}$$

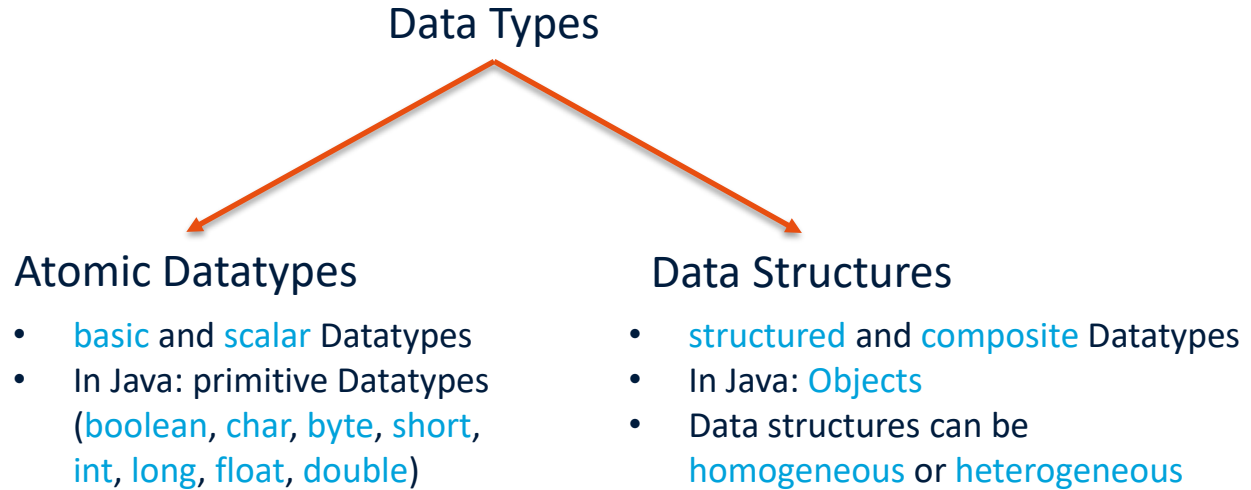
Big-O (Landau) notation (2)

- Basically speaking:
 - The complexity class of a function f is the smallest function g in the set of all functions $g: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$ such that $c * g(n) \geq f(n)$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$
 - That is called an “upper bound”

Big-O (Landau) notation (3)

| Class | Name | Example |
|--------------|--------------------------|----------------------|
| 1 | constant | A single instruction |
| $\log n$ | logarithmic | Binary Search |
| n | linear | Unstructured search |
| $n * \log n$ | superlinear / log linear | Efficient sorting |
| n^2 | quadratic | Basic sorting |
| n^k | polynomial | Linear programming |
| 2^n | exponential | Backtracking |
| $n!$ | factorial | Permutations |

What are ADTs? – Prerequisites (1)



What are ADTs? – Prerequisites (2)

- Data structures adhere to the principles of object-oriented programming:
 - **Encapsulation** (→ next slide)
 - **Inheritance**: Objects acquire properties of parent objects from which they are derived
 - **Polymorphism**: Different classes have the same interface because of a common superclass, but may react differently

What are ADTs?

- ADTs are data structures adhering to **two principles**:
 - **Encapsulation**: Accessing the data structure **only** works by using pre-defined interfaces, e.g. **functions**
 - **Opaqueness**: The internal working principles are **hidden** from the user

What's the difference between ... (1)

- First, you have to distinguish two things:
 - ADTs and their implementations
 - Map vs. **HashMap**, List vs. **ArrayList**, ...
- Normally, the latter part is the ADT and the first part gives a hint on the implementation
- There are always multiple ways of implementing

What's the difference between ... (2)

- Common ADTs:
 - (Array)
 - List (ArrayList, LinkedList)
 - Set (HashSet, TreeSet)
 - Stack
 - Queue
 - Deque
 - Map / Table (HashMap, TreeMap)

Arrays

- Arrays are composed of a fixed number of elements of the same data type
- Each element can be directly accessed
 - Access can be read or write
 - In Java: using the index operator `[]`

Circular Arrays

| | | | | |
|----|----|----|---|---|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 15 | d | | | 5 |
| 14 | | | | 6 |
| 13 | | | | 7 |
| 12 | 11 | 10 | 9 | 8 |

- Going clockwise

`i = (i + 1) % d.length`

- Going counter clockwise

`i = (i - 1 + d.length) % d.length`

Lists

- Basically speaking, a **List** is like an **Array** that can **grow and shrink**
- Two common implementations
 - **ArrayList**
 - **LinkedList**
- Operations: **add**, **get**, **contains**, **remove**

ArrayList (1)

- An **ArrayList** is a class based on an **Array** to store the data
- If the array is **full** (or **nearly full**), a new array is created and all elements are copied to the new array

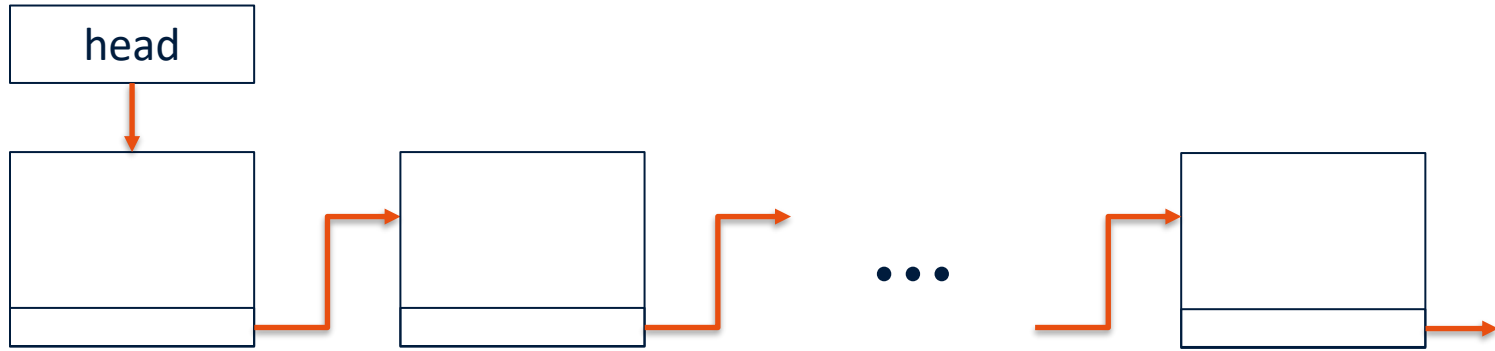
ArrayList (2)

- Complexity of the operations:
 - **add**:
 - at the end: $O(1)$ (array not full), $O(n)$ (array full)
 - else: $O(n)$
 - **get**: $O(1)$
 - **contains**: $O(n)$
 - **remove**: $O(n)$

LinkedList

- A **LinkedList** is a data structure based on (doubly) **linked node objects**
- Each node object contains **one data element** and at least a **link to the next node object**

Single LinkedList (1)



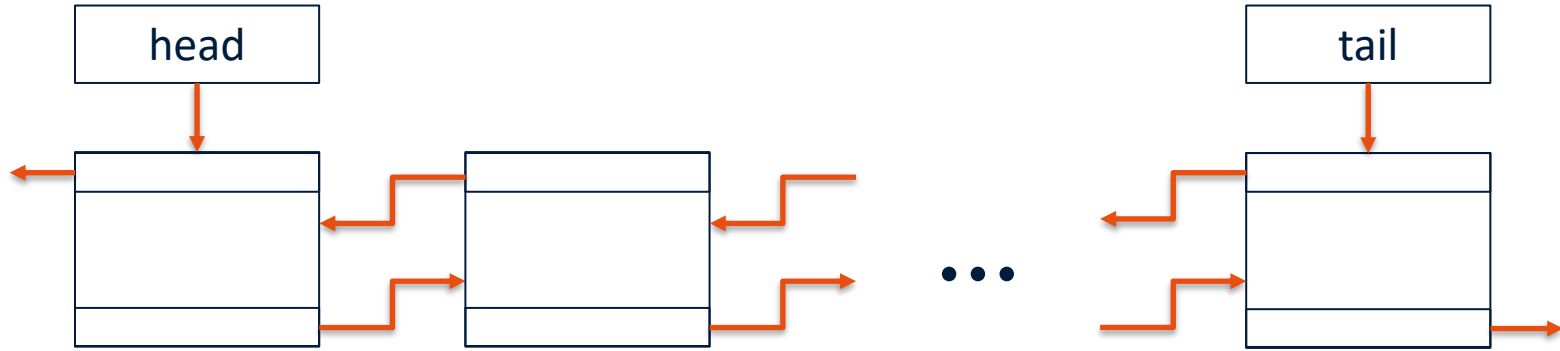
```
class List {  
    Node head;  
}
```

```
class Node {  
    Object element;  
    Node next;  
}
```

Single LinkedList (2)

- Complexity of the operations:
 - **add**:
 - at the end / begin: $O(1)$
 - else: $O(n)$
 - **get**: $O(n)$
 - **contains**: $O(n)$
 - **remove**: $O(n)$

Double LinkedList (1)



```
class List {  
    Node head;  
    Node tail;  
}
```

```
class Node {  
    Object element;  
    Node next;  
    Node prev;  
}
```


Double LinkedList (2)

- Complexity of the operations:
 - **add, get, contains, remove:**
 - at the begin / end: $O(1)$
 - else: $O(n)$

Iterating Arrays and Lists

- Arrays / ArrayLists

```
for (int i = 0; i < a.length; i++) {  
    ...  
}
```

- LinkedLists

```
for (Node n = head; n != null; n = n.next) {  
    ...  
}
```

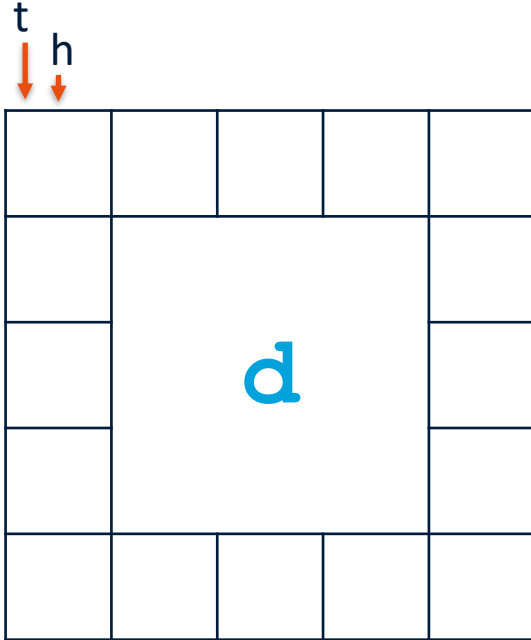
Stacks

- Can be easily build based on an `ArrayList` or a doubly `LinkedList`
- Adding and Removing always happens `at the end` of the Stack (`FIFO`)
- Operations: `push`, `pop`, `peek`

Queues (1)

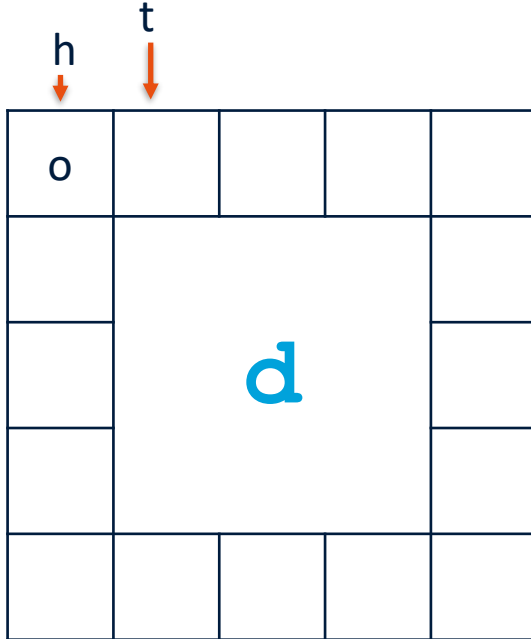
- Can be easily build based on a circular Array doubly **LinkedList**
- Adding happens **at the end** of the queue, removing always at the beginning (**LIFO**)
- Operations: **put**, **get**, **peek**

Queues (2)



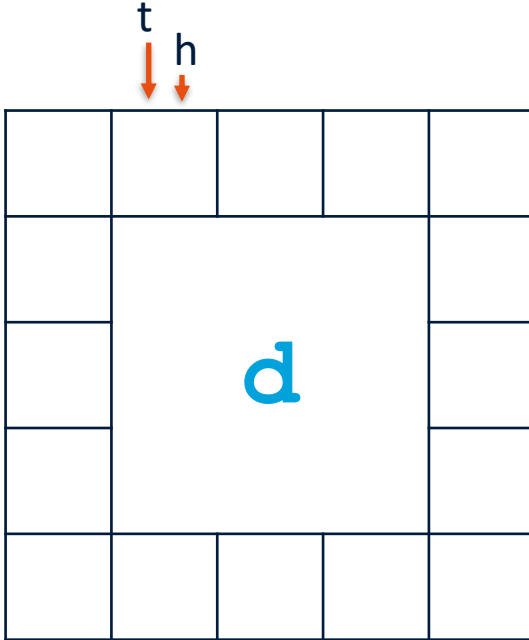
```
public boolean isEmpty() {  
    return head == tail;  
}  
  
public void put(Object o) {  
    data[tail] = o;  
    tail = (tail + 1) % data.length;  
  
    if (head == tail) {  
        resize();  
    }  
}
```

Queues (3)



```
public Object get() {  
    if (isEmpty()) {  
        return null;  
    }  
  
    Object r = data[head];  
    data[head] = null;  
    head = (head + 1) % data.length;  
  
    return r;  
}
```

Queues (3)



```
public Object get() {  
    if (isEmpty()) {  
        return null;  
    }  
  
    Object r = data[head];  
    data[head] = null;  
    head = (head + 1) % data.length;  
  
    return r;  
}
```

Sets and Maps (1)

- A **set** is an ADT that represents a **collection of elements of the same data type**
 - Sets are **unordered**
 - Each element can **occur only once** in the set
- Operations: **add, contains**

Sets and Maps (2)

- A **map** is an ADT that represents a collection of elements of the same data type **accessible by a unique key**
 - The keys of a map form a set
- Operations: **add, get, contains**

Sets and Maps (3)

- A **map** can be used as a **set** when only adding dummy data
- Implementations using **Hashes** and **Trees*** are common
(HashSet & HashSet vs. TreeSet & TreeMap)

* We'll come to that later!

Sets and Maps (4)

- Complexity of the operations of a Set:
 - HashSet / TreeSet
 - contains: $O(1)$ / $O(\log n)$
 - add:
 - If is full: $O(n)$ / $O(\log n)$
 - else: $O(1)$ / $O(\log n)$

Sets and Maps (5)

- Complexity of the operations of a Map:
 - **HashMap / TreeMap**
 - **contains**: $O(1)$ / $O(\log n)$
 - **get**: $O(1)$ / $O(\log n)$
 - **add**:
 - If is full: $O(n)$ / $O(\log n)$
 - else: $O(1)$ / $O(\log n)$

Iterating Sets

```
Set<T> s = ...;
```

```
...
```

```
Iterator<T> it = s.iterator();
```

```
while (it.hasNext()) {  
    T t = it.next();  
    ...  
}
```

Iterating Maps

```
Map<K, V> m = ...;
```

```
...
```

```
Set<Map.Entry<K,V>> s = m.entrySet();
```

```
Iterator<Map.Entry<K,V>> it = s.iterator();
```

```
while (it.hasNext()) {  
    Map.Entry<K, V> kv = it.next();  
    K key = kv.getKey();  
    V val = kv.getValue();  
    ...  
}
```

Hashing

- A hash function $h(x)$ is a function that maps an arbitrary input x to an output of fixed-size
- Hash functions are generally not injective

ADTs based on Hashing (1)

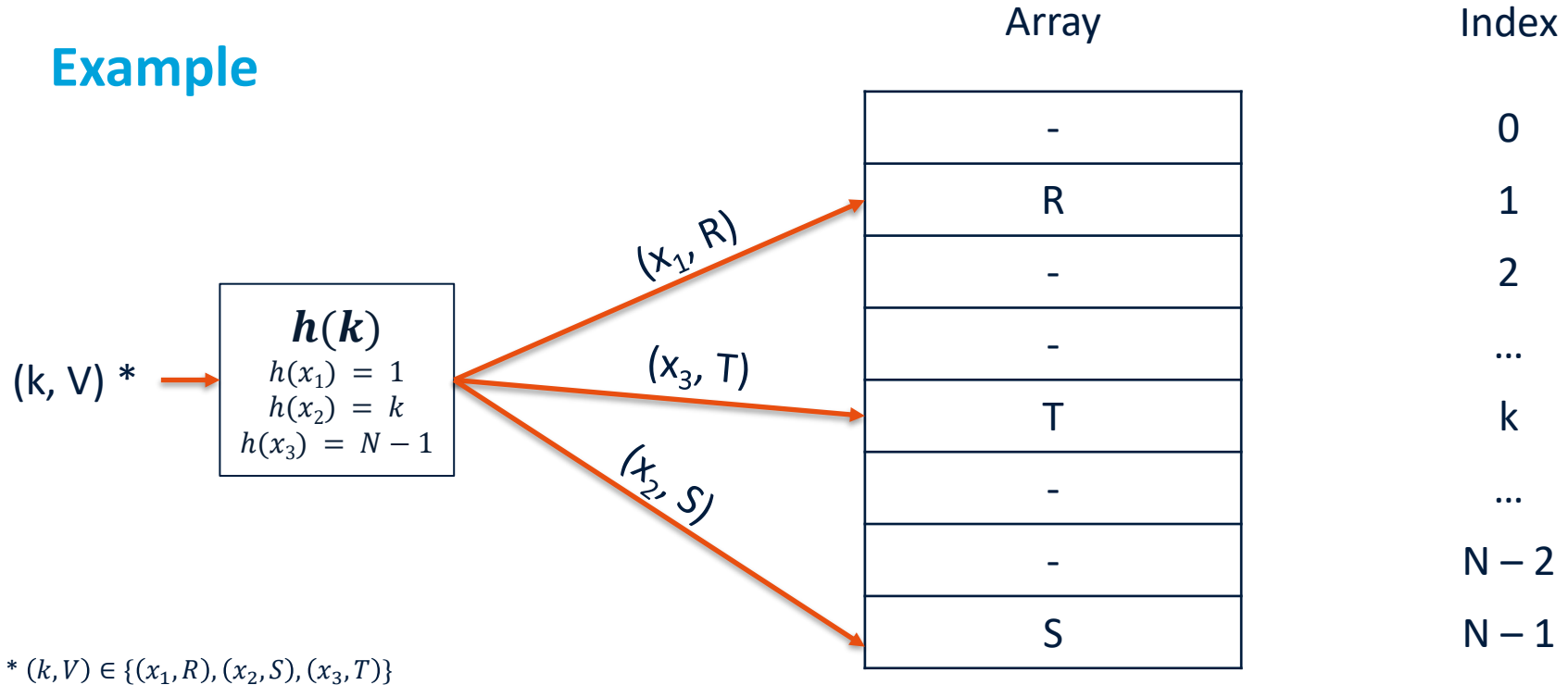
- Approach: Hashing with modulo on arrays

$$h(x) = h'(x) \bmod N$$

- That is: $h(x)$ is the result of another function $h'(x)$ modulo N , where N is the size of the underlying array

ADTs based on Hashing (2)

Example



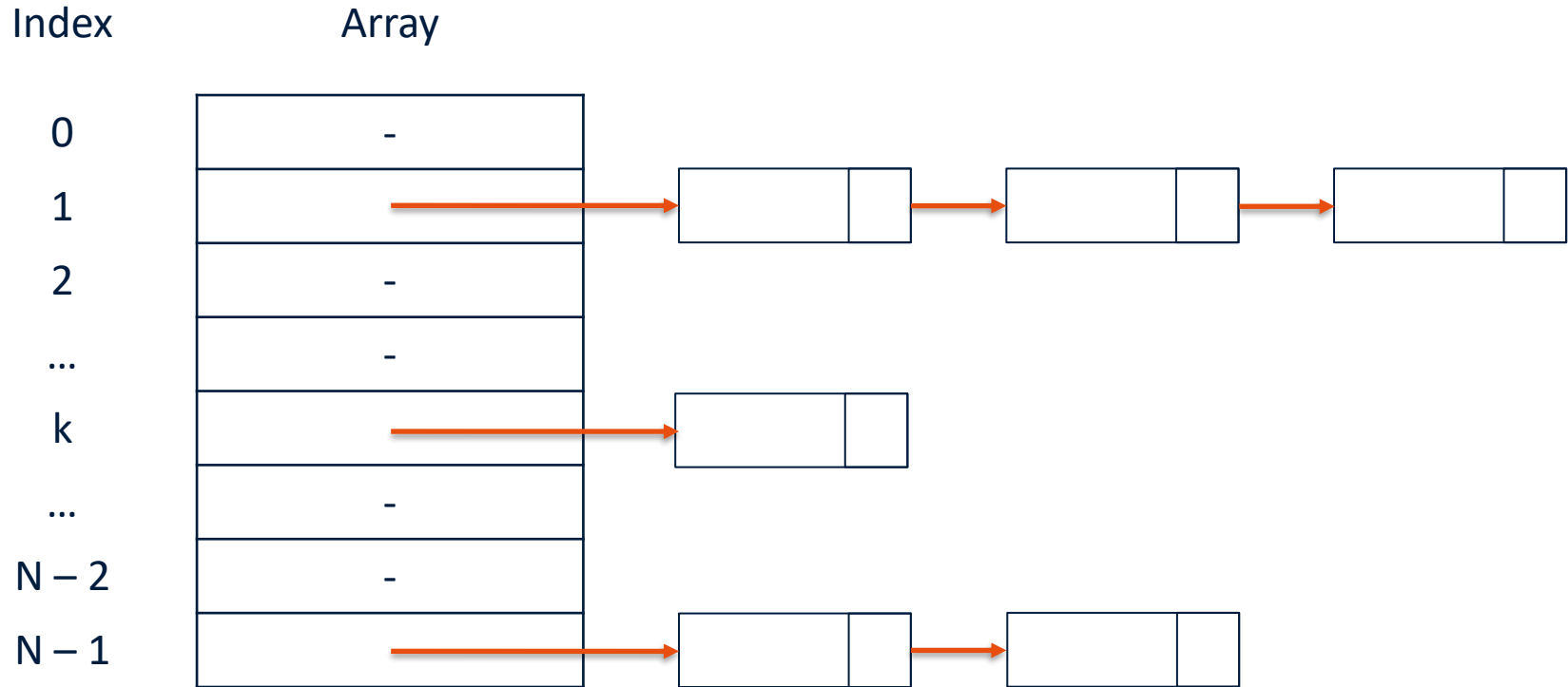
ADTs based on Hashing (3)

- Problem: There will be collisions
 - Need to store key-value pairs either way, to be able to uniquely identify stored values
- Possible solutions:
 - Separate Chaining
 - Open Addressing

Separate Chaining

- Use the underlying array not to store the data, but to store lists
- Each list contains all elements that were mapped to the same index

Separate Chaining



Open Addressing

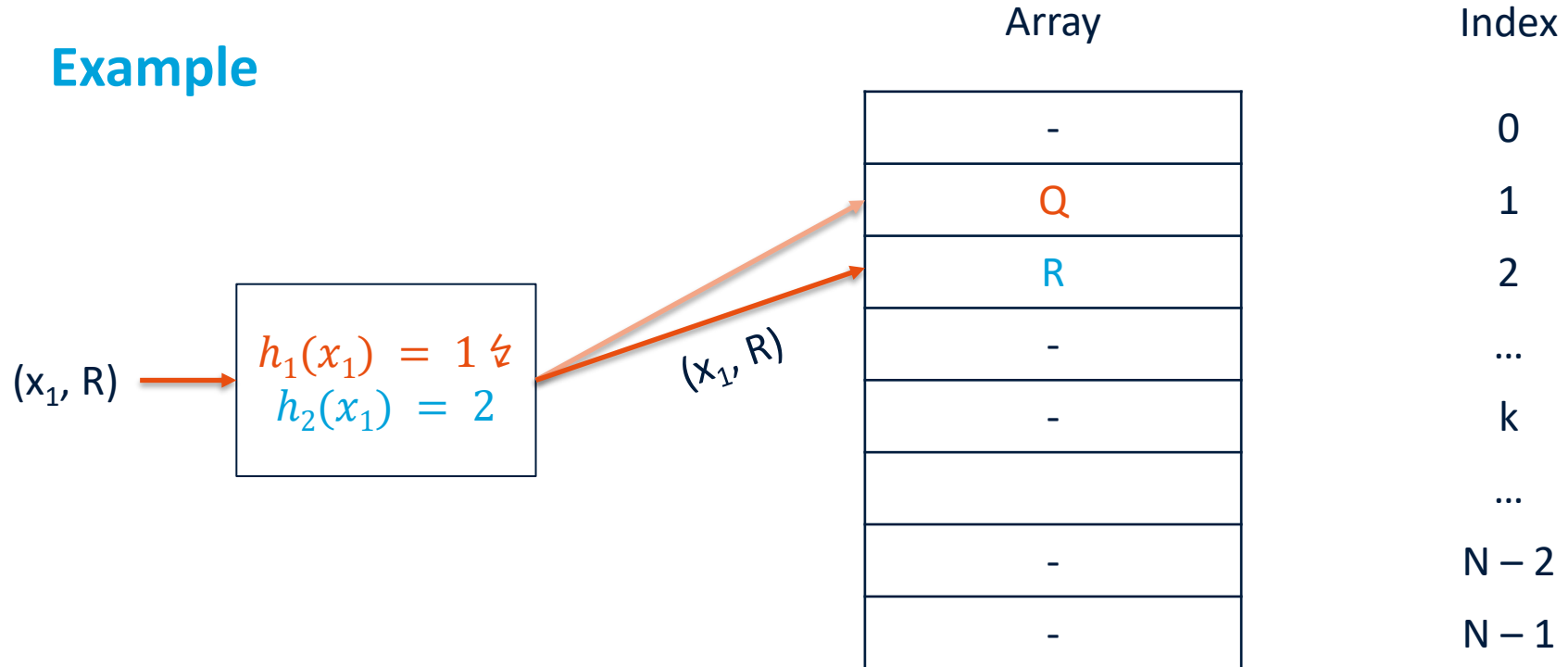
- Resort to another hash function in case a collision occurs
- Can be done n-fold

Open Addressing

- Different common approaches
 - Linear probing: $h_{2(x)} = h_{1(x)} + k$
 - Quadratic probing: $h_{2(x)} = h_{1(x)} + k^2$
- k starts at 1 and is incremented by one for each step

Open Addressing

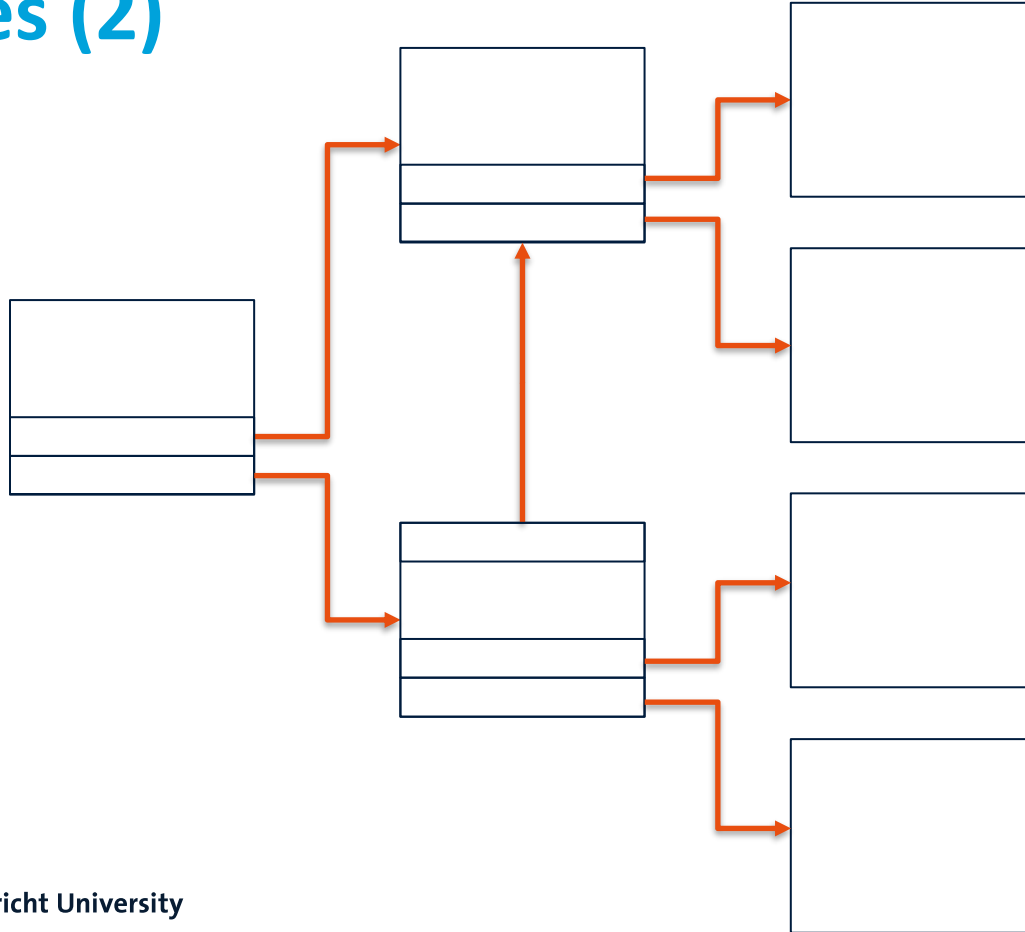
Example



Trees

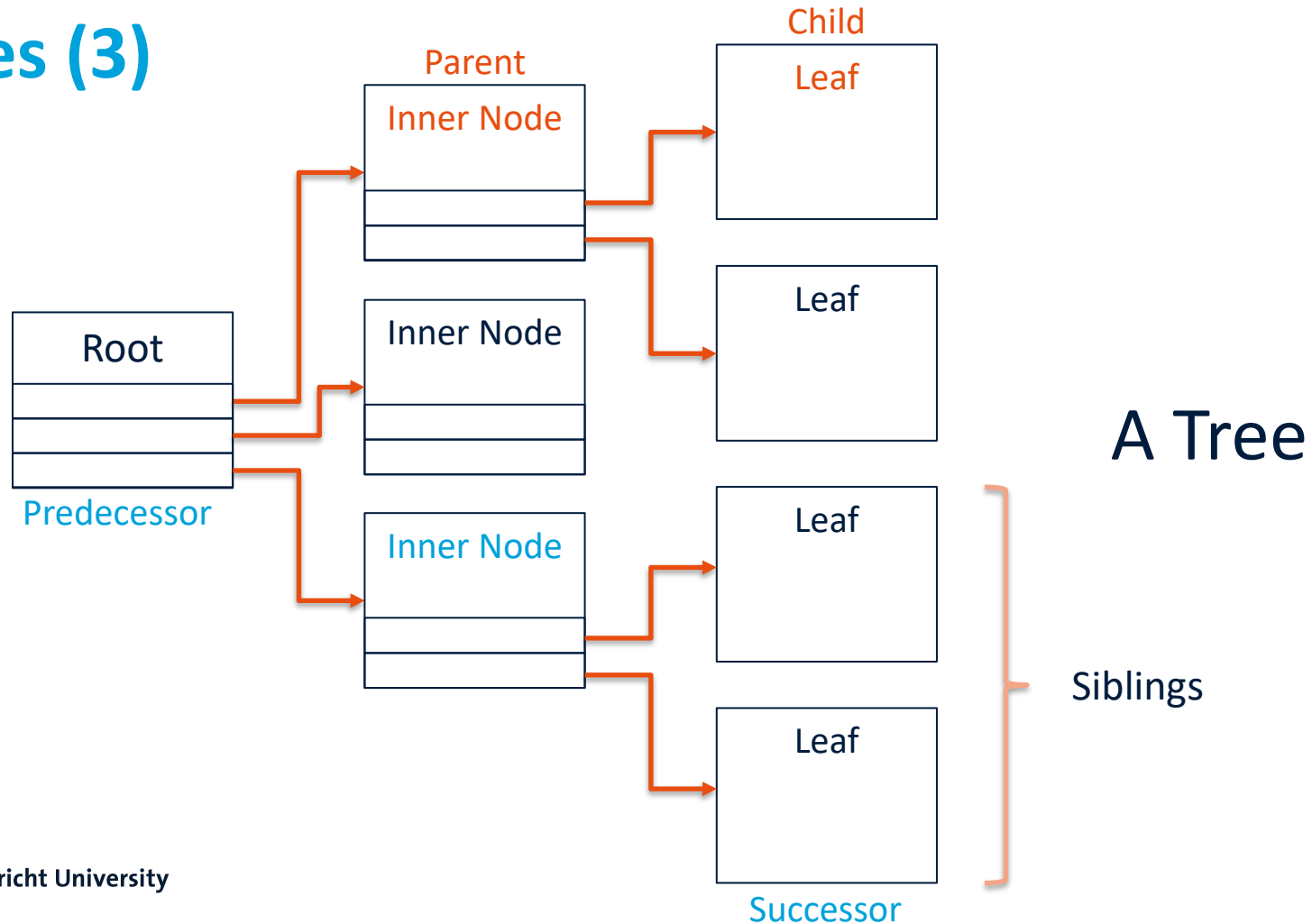
- If in a **LinkedList** there is not only one next node, but **multiple next nodes**, then this is called a **Tree**
- Two distinct nodes in the Tree are connected by **exactly one path**, otherwise it is a **Graph**

Trees (2)



Not a Tree

Trees (3)



Trees (3)

- Each node in a Tree has a level
 - The **root** has level 0
 - Each other node has the **level of the parent node plus 1**
- The **height** of a tree is equal to the **maximum level of any node**

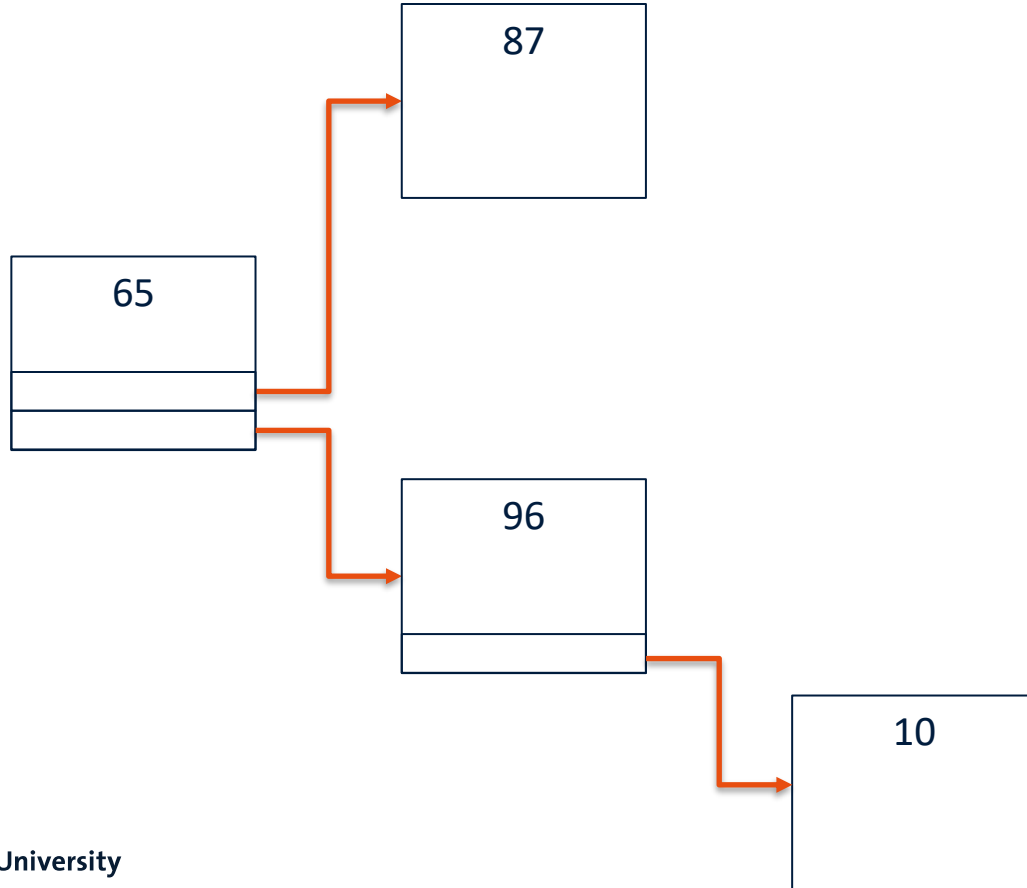
Binary Trees (1)

- A **binary tree** is a tree in which every node has two children at maximum
- In a **balanced binary tree**, all **leaf nodes** have the same level

Binary Trees (2)

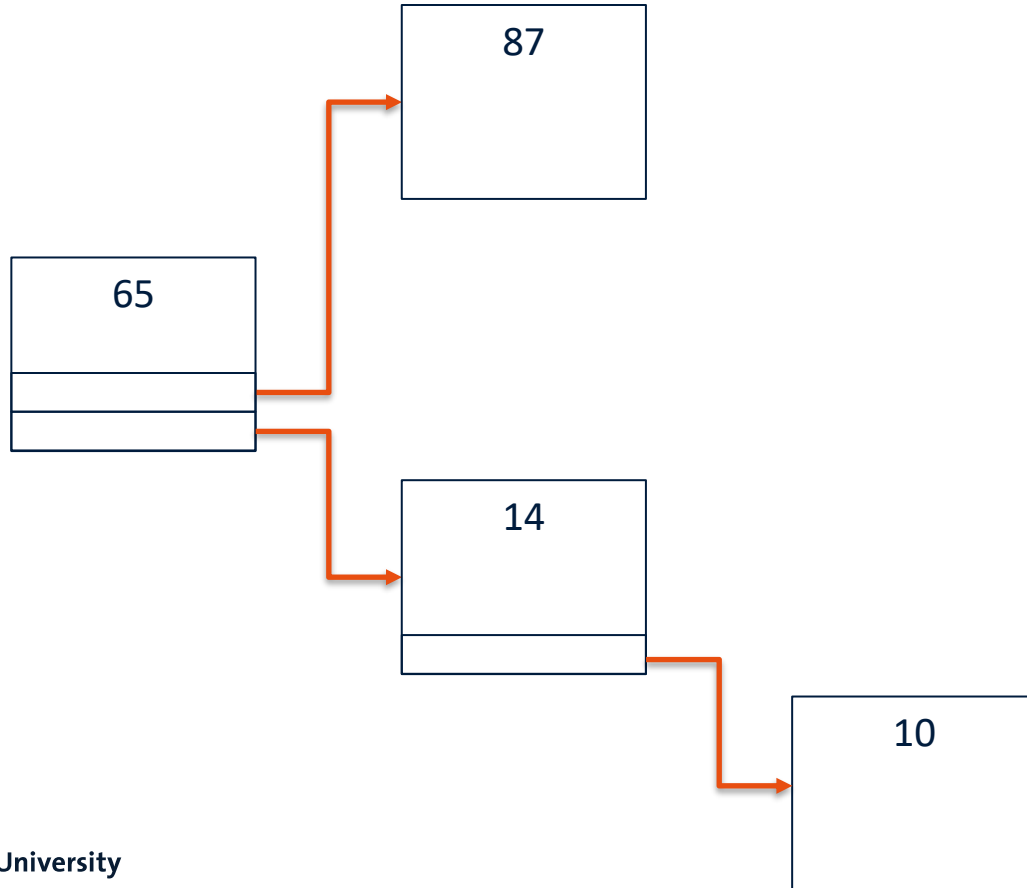
- A **complete binary tree** is a tree, in which **all levels** of the tree are **filled**
- A **binary search tree** is a tree, in which all **children to the left** have a **lower value** than the parent and all **children to the right** have a **higher value** than the parent

Binary Trees (3)



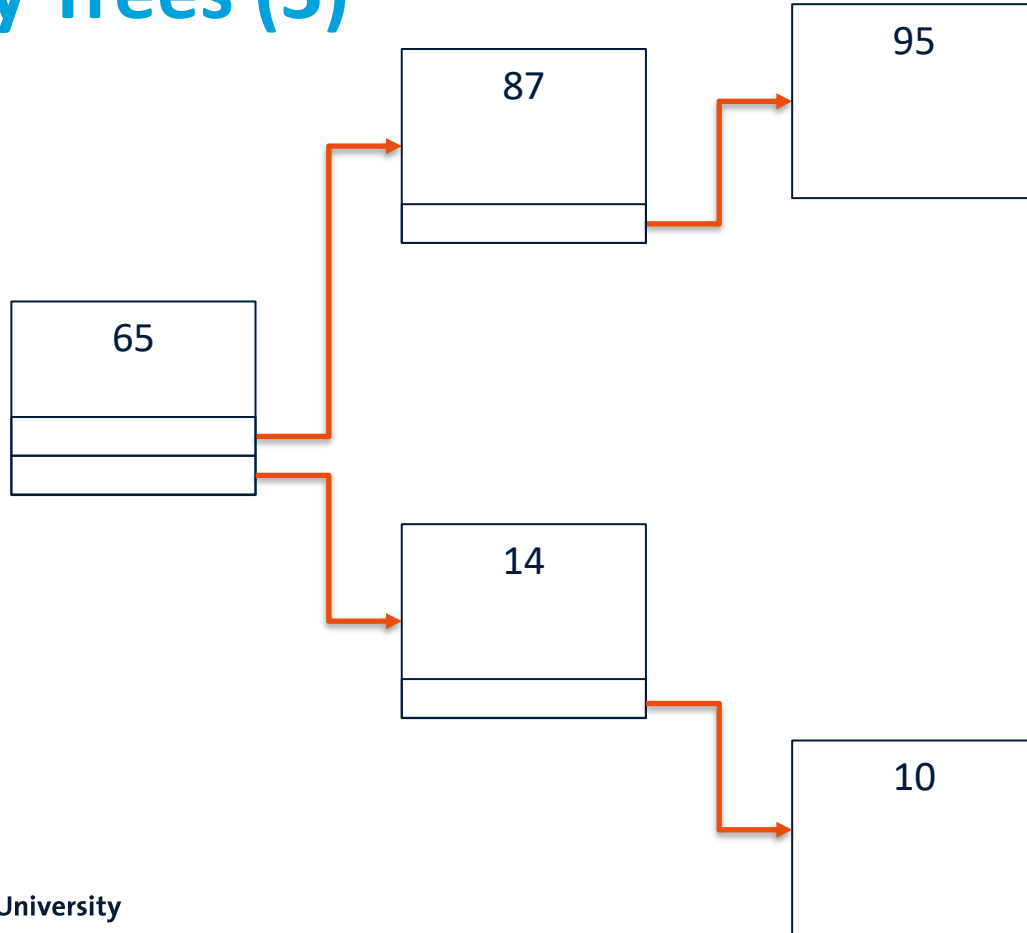
A
binary
tree

Binary Trees (3)



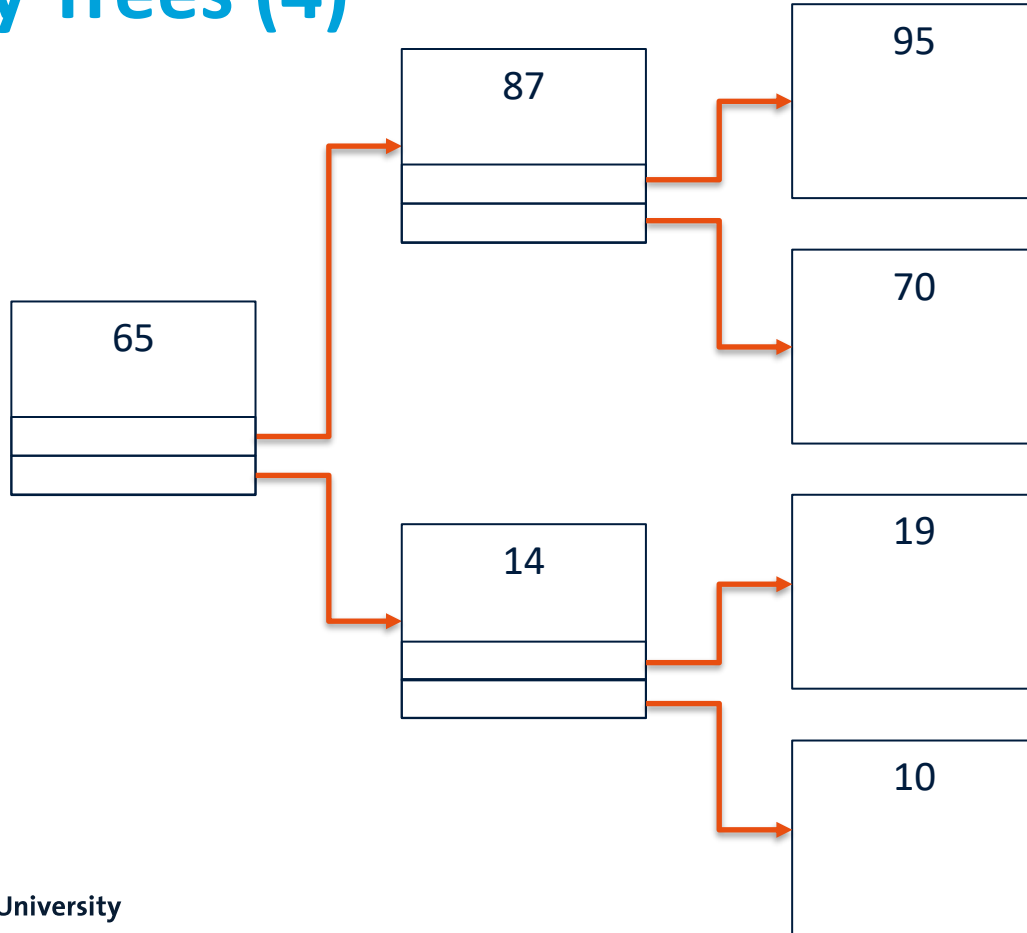
A
binary
search
tree

Binary Trees (3)



A
balanced
binary
search
tree

Binary Trees (4)

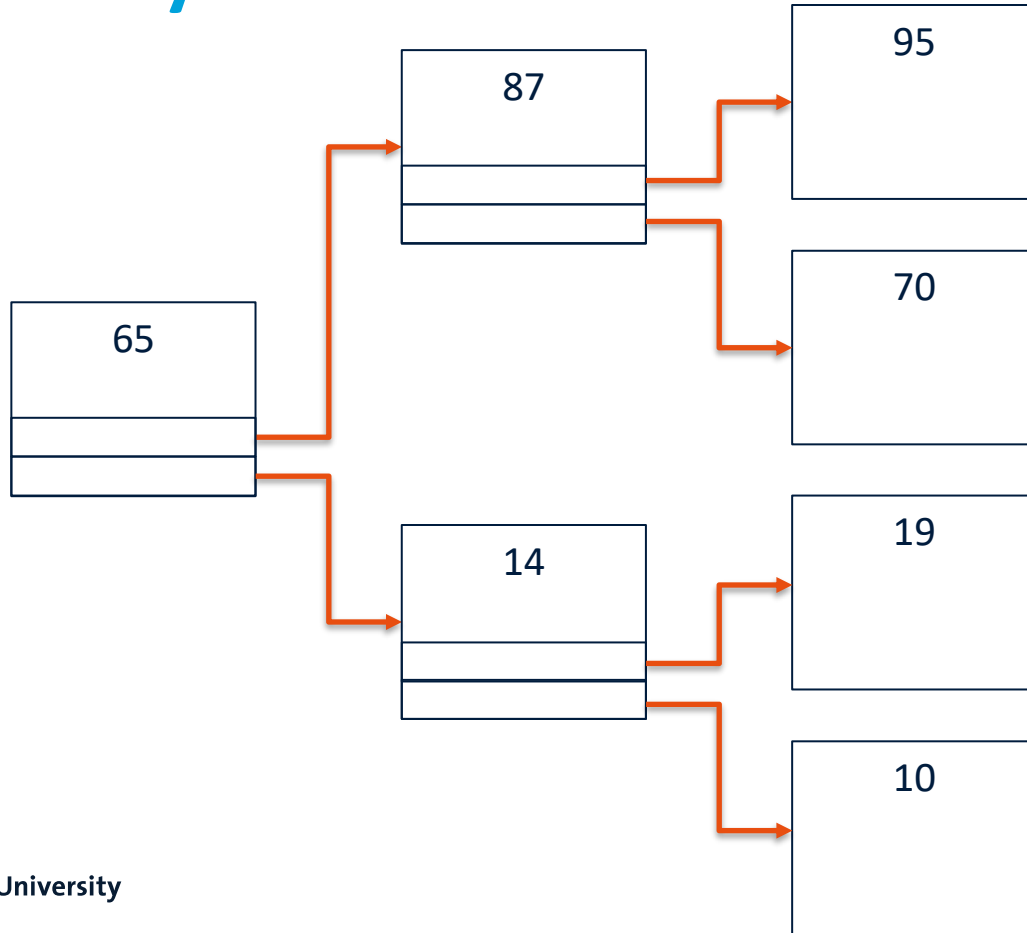


A
balanced
complete
binary
search
tree

Complexity of a Tree

- In a complete binary search tree with N nodes, you will have to traverse $\log N$ nodes on average to find a node
- You have to find a node to delete it
- You have to “not find” a node to insert it

Complexity of a Tree



$$N = 6$$
$$\log N \cong 2.58$$