

# Java Notes Big O, Recursion, Priority Queues and Heaps

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## Big O

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The big O notation gives an upper bound on the growth rate of a function. The statement  $f(n)$  is  $O(g(n))$  means that the growth rate of  $f(n)$  is no more than the growth rate of  $g(n)$ .

Given function  $f(n)$ , if  $f(n)$  is a polynomial of degree  $d$ , then  $f(n)$  is  $O(n^d)$ .

## Asymptotic analysis

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The asymptotic analysis of an algorithm determines the running time in big O notation.

To perform the asymptotic analysis:

- We find the worst-case number of primitive operations executed as a function of the input size
- We express this function with big O notation

For an example with array of elements  $n$  the big O of a function to find the largest element is  $O(n)$ , since each element must be visited once in a worst case scenario.

Whilst big O is a measure of the longest amount of time it could possibly take for the algorithm to complete. big Omega describes the best that can happen for a given data set. Big Theta is essentially saying that the function,  $f(n)$  is bounded both from the top and bottom by the same function,  $g(n)$ .

### Big O:

$f(n)$  is  $O(g(n))$  if  $f(n)$  is asymptotically less than or equal to  $g(n)$

### Big-Omega:

$f(n)$  is  $\Omega(g(n))$  if  $f(n)$  is asymptotically greater than or equal to  $g(n)$

**Big Theta:**

$f(n)$  is  $\Theta(g(n))$  if  $f(n)$  is asymptotically equal to  $g(n)$

## Recursion

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Recursion: when a method calls itself.

A classic example of this is the factorial function,

$$n! = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot \dots \cdot (n - 1) \cdot n$$

Recursive definition:

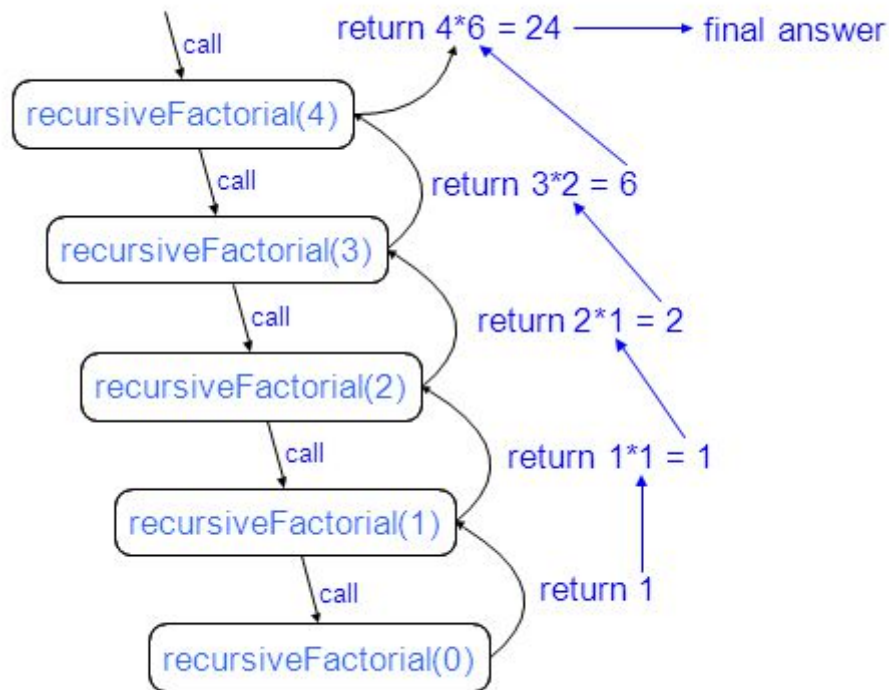
$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } n = 0 \\ n \cdot f(n - 1), & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

This is seen in the Java program below:

```
public static int factorial(int n) throws IllegalArgumentException{
    if (n < 0)
        throw new IllegalArgumentException();
    else if (n == 0)
        return 1
    else
        return n * factorial(n-1);
}
```

Recursive procedures have 2 constituent parts, base cases and recursive calls. A base case is when the value of the inputs for which we perform no recursive calls. Every possible chain of recursive calls must eventually reach a base case. A recursive call is a call to the current method.

A recursive trace is a good way to visually represent a recursive call. In a recursive trace a box is used to represent each recursive call, with an arrow running from each caller to callee. And a separate arrow from each to caller showing return value. Example below:



Below is a binary search algorithm in Java that utilises recursion:

```

/**
 * Returns true if the target value is found in the indicated
 * portion of the data array. This search only considers the
 * array portion from data[low] to data[high] inclusive.
 */
public static boolean binarySearch(int[] data, int target, int low, int high)
{
    if (low > high)
        return false; // interval empty; no match
    else int mid = (low + high) / 2;
    if (target == data[mid])
        return true; // found a match
    else if (target < data[mid])
        return binarySearch(data, target, low, mid - 1);
        // recur left of the middle
    else
        return binarySearch(data, target, mid + 1, high);
        // recur right of the middle
}

```

After each iteration the remaining portion of the list is of size  $high - low + 1$ . After one comparison, this becomes one of the following:

$$(mid - 1) - low + 1 = \left\lfloor \frac{low + high}{2} \right\rfloor - low \leq \frac{high - low + 1}{2}$$

$$\text{high} - (\text{mid} + 1) + 1 = \text{high} - \lfloor \frac{\text{low} + \text{high}}{2} \rfloor \leq \frac{\text{high} - \text{low} + 1}{2}$$

Thus, each recursive call divides the search region in half; hence, there can be at most  $\log n$  levels. So the algorithm runs in  $O(\log(n))$ .

## Reversing an array

```
if i < j then
    swap A[i] and A[j]
    reverseArray(A, i+1, j-1)
return
```

## Computing Powers

The power function,  $p(x,n)=x^n$ , can be defined recursively:

$$p(x, n) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } n = 0 \\ x \cdot p(x, n - 1), & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

Giving us a power function that runs in  $O(n)$  time (for we make  $n$  recursive calls)  
However, it is possible to do better...

Through effective use of repeated squaring we can derive a more efficient linearly recursive algorithm.

$$p(x, n) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } n = 0 \\ x \cdot p(x, (n - 1)/2)^2, & \text{else} \\ p(x, n/2)^2 & \text{if } n > 0 \text{ is even} \end{cases}$$

## Heaps

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A heap is a binary tree storing keys at its nodes and satisfying the following properties:

**Heap-Order:** for every internal node  $v$  other than the root,  $key(v) \geq key(parent(v))$

**Complete Binary Tree:** let  $h$  be the height of the heap,

- for  $i = 0, \dots, h - 1$  there are  $2^i$  nodes of depth  $i$

- at depth  $h - 1$ , the internal nodes are to the left of the external nodes
- The last node of a heap is the rightmost node of maximum depth

**Theorem:** A heap storing  $n$  keys has height  $O(\log n)$

*Proof:* (we apply the complete binary tree property)

- Let  $h$  be the height of a heap storing  $n$  keys
- Since there are  $2^i$  keys at depth  $i = 0, \dots, h - 1$  and at least one key at depth  $h$ , we have  $n \geq 1 + 2 + 4 + \dots + 2^{h-1} + 1$
- Thus,  $n \geq 2^h$  i.e.,  $h \leq \log n$

We can use a heap to implement a priority queue. We store a (key, element) item at each internal node and keep track of the position of the last node.

## Insertion into a heap

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Method `insertItem` of the priority queue ADT corresponds to the insertion of a key  $k$  to the heap.

The algorithm consists of three steps.

- Find the insertion node  $z$  (the last new node)
- Store  $k$  at  $z$
- Restore the heap order property

**Upheap** is what restores the heap order property. After insertion of a new key this property may be violated. upheap restores the heap order property by swapping  $k$  along an upward path from the insertion node. Upheap terminates when the key  $k$  reaches the root or a node whose parent has a key smaller than or equal to  $k$ .

## Removal from a heap

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Method `removeMin` of the priority queue ADT corresponds to the removal of the root key from the heap

The removal algorithm consists of three steps.

- Replace the root key with the key of the last node  $w$
- Remove  $w$

- Restore the heap order property.

**Downheap** After replacing the root key with the key  $k$  of the last node, the heap-order property may be violated. Algorithm downheap restores the heap-order property by swapping key  $k$  along a downward path from the root.

## Heap-sort

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Consider a priority queue with  $n$  items implemented by means of a heap.

- The space used in  $O(n)$
- methods `insert` and `removeMin` take  $O(\log n)$  time
- methods `size`, `isEmpty`, and `min` take time  $O(1)$  time.

Using a heap-based priority queue, we can sort a sequence of  $n$  elements in  $O(n \log n)$  time. The resulting algorithm is called heap-sort. Heap-sort is much faster than quadratic sorting algorithms, such as insertion-sort and selection-sort.

## Merging

We are given 2 heaps and a key  $k$  with the intention of merging the heaps and adding  $k$ . We create a new heap and store  $k$  at the root node. We then perform downheap to restore the heap-order property.