

ADT Lists

CS240 Spring '19

Problems with Arrays

Arrays in C/C++ are:

- inflexible
- wasteful
- cumbersome

Example problem

Suppose I have an array: [1,4,10,19,6]

I want to insert a 7 between the 4 and the 10. What do I need to do?

C++ Solution Performance

- What is the performance of the C++ solution?
 - How can we evaluate this array insertion algorithm?
- How can we evaluate the effectiveness of any data structure or algorithm?
 - We need several evaluation tools
 - *growth rate*
- Growth rate of what? what are we measuring?

Complexity

- The efficiency of an algorithm is called its complexity
 - Memory complexity
 - Time complexity
- The complexity of an algorithm is not exact
 - Different hardware or languages affect the time and memory usage of an algorithm or data structure
- Complexity also does not tell us anything about the merits of two programs where one is "slightly faster".

Big O

- We can refer to the complexity of an algorithm using Big O notation.
- Why is it called Big O
 - Best guess is that it stands for Order of Complexity.
 - Typically, Big O describes the time required for an algorithm and the space required for a data structure.

Factors Requiring Resources

- How do we determine the memory complexity of an algorithm or data structure?
- How do we determine the time complexity?
 - Basic Operations
 - input size

Resource Example

```
int largest(int A[], int size) {  
    int currlarge = 0;           // Position of largest element seen  
    for (int i=1; i<size; i++)   // For each element  
        if (A[currlarge] < A[i]) // if A[i] is larger  
            currlarge = i;       // remember its position  
    return A[currlarge];        // Return largest  
}
```

- The memory complexity would be size + 2
 - (the size of the array, plus the size of the two variables in the function)
- The time complexity is 'size' (repetition factor) multiplied by the if statement (the operations factor)

Expressing Resource Usage

- For a given input size of n we often express the time to run the algorithm as a function of n
 - written as $O(n)$.
 - We will always assume $O(n)$ is a non-negative value.

Calculating Time

- If ' c ' = *the amount of time required to compare two integers*
 - we only count operations that happen every time
- The total time to run largest is therefore approximately ' cn '

Time Function

- We say that function ***largest()*** has a running time expressed by the equation $O(n) = cn$
 - We do not care right now what the precise value of c might be.
 - We do not care about the time required to increment variable ***i***
 - We do not care about the time for the actual assignment when a larger value is found
 - We do not care about the little bit of extra time taken to initialize ***curlarge***.

Growth Rate

- $O(n)=cn$.
 - This equation describes the growth rate for the running time of the largest-value sequential search algorithm.
- When we discuss Growth rates, we often have several scenarios
 - best case, average case, and worst case

Constant Time Operations

- How many operations to read a value from an array?
 - 1 operation.
- $c = 1$ the amount of time necessary to read a value.
- Thus, the equation for this algorithm is simply $T(n)=1$
 - This is called a constant running time, or $O(1)$.

Linear Growth Rate

- If you have a set of operations, each one running in constant time, but only run once.
 - Example: Your morning routine
 - *wakeup*
 - *brush teeth*
 - *shower*
 - *make coffee*
 - *get dressed*
 - *leave house*
- 6 operations, each taking roughly the same amount of time
 - not really, but close enough
- So we have 6 constant time operations performed once per day
- A growth rate of $c \cdot n$ (for c any positive constant) is referred to as a *linear growth rate*
 - Also referred to as running time.
 - Our morning routine function is:
 - $T(n) = 6c$
- As the value of n grows, the running time of the algorithm grows in the same proportion.
 - Doubling the value of n roughly doubles the running time.
- So if you add another task to your morning routine, eat breakfast, the function becomes:
 - $T(n) = 7c$

What is the complexity of 'Largest()'?

- $O(n) = \text{size} * \text{number of operations}$
 - size: the size of the array
 - number of operations: 2
- Big O for this code is:
 - $O(n) = 2n$

```
int largest(int A[], int size) {  
    int currlarge = 0;  
    for (int i=1; i<size; i++)  
        if (A[currlarge] < A[i])  
            currlarge = i;  
    return currlarge;  
}
```

Simplifying Growth Rates

- When working with algorithm complexity, we are concerned with rate of growth
 - We just want to know how it will grow when the input size grows
- When analyzing growth rates, we can simplify the results
 - Ignore Constants
 - Higher order term dominates

BogoSort

- Simple sorting algorithm
- Algorithm
 - `bogoSort(list):`
 - `while(listSorted(list) == FALSE)`
 - `shuffle(list)`

Evaluating Bogosort

- What is the best case scenario for Bogosort?
 - Constant Time
- How long this sort technique takes grows rapidly with each additional input
 - Average Case: $O((n+1)!)$
 - Worst Case: $O(\text{unbounded})$

Never Use BogoSort!

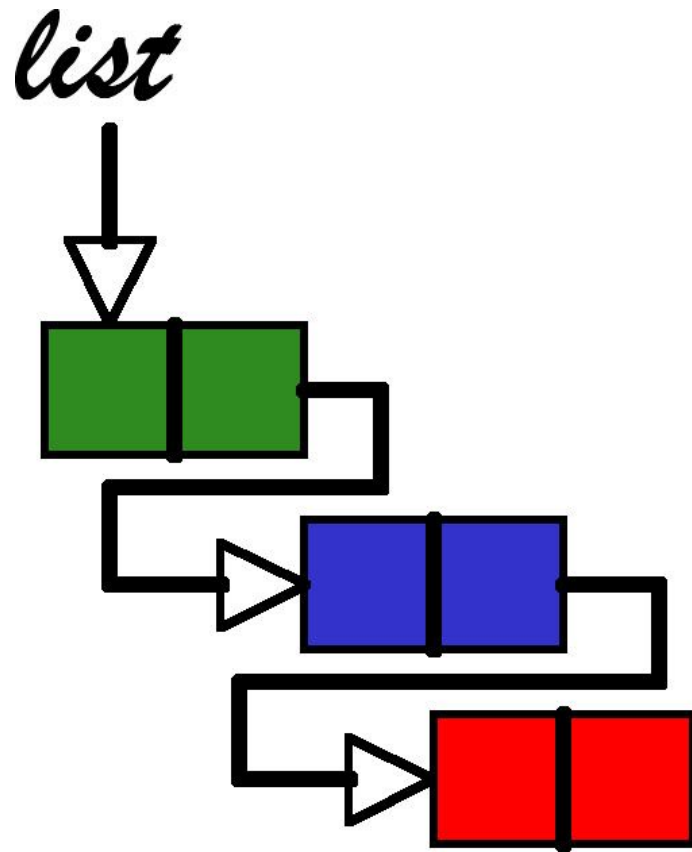
**Bogosort is an academic sort, used only to illustrate an idea.
It is never used in any real world application.**

Remember When We Were Talking About C Arrays?

- What is the Memory and Time complexity of the following solution:
 - `new_size = old_array.size + 1;`
`allocate new_array[new_size]`
`copy from old_array -> new_array adding the 7`
`delete old_array`
 - *You can assume array allocation and deallocation is 1 operation*
- Time and Memory: We have to copy over every value in the array, which is $O(n)$ for both

Classwork:

Making a Train



Linked Lists

Linked Lists

- What if we need to insert and delete values frequently during runtime?
- Arrays would be very slow for these data requirements
- What if we could break up each element of the array into its own separate object?

Linked Lists solve Everything

- We would need a mechanism to go from one element to the other, but they wouldn't have to be contiguous in memory
 - This means insertion and deletion are less cumbersome

Singly Linked List

- We can create our own list of objects
 - we'll call them **nodes**
- The order of the **nodes** is determined by the insertion order, called the link, stored in each **node**
- Every **node** (except the last node) contains the address of the next node

Nodes

- Components of a node
 - Data: stores the relevant information
 - Link: stores the address of the next node

```
class Node {  
    public:  
        <type> data;  
        Node * next;  
};
```

List

The List class's only required instance variable is a pointer to the head of the list

```
class List{  
    private:  
        Node * head;  
    public:  
};
```

Head Node

- Only required instance variable for your list
 - initialized to null
- Holds the address of the first node in the list
 - how can we determine if the list is empty?
- Advanced versions of the linked list can have more
 - size
 - pointer to the end

Traversal and Iteration

- Basic operations of a linked list that require the list to be traversed
 - Read the list for items
 - Insert an item in the list
 - Delete an item from the list

Example of Traversal

```
Node * current = this->head;  
while (current != NULL) {  
    //Process current  
    current = this->current->next;  
}
```

What is the time complexity of traversing the linked list?

Traversal and Iteration

- How do we traverse the list?
 - You cannot use the **head** node to traverse the list
 - Create a new variable to traverse every time?
 - *Pros: encapsulated, no state*
 - *Cons: more complexity in the methods, **no state***
 - Add another instance variable of the same type as head, Node * current, to your List class
 - *Pros - can increase efficiency*
 - *Cons - more complexity in the class*

Current

- To allow reading items from the list without exposing implementation, we will need a pointer to the 'current' item in the list
- We could use **current** to iterate through the list instead of a temp variable
 - wrap iteration in methods

Example of Traversal with Iterator

```
this->current = this->head;  
while (this->current != NULL) {  
    //Process current  
    this->current = this->current->next;  
}
```

- What is the time complexity of traversing the linked list?

Reading from the list

- In order to read from the list we need to start at the beginning and iterate through the list with each call

```
■ <type> *LList::get(){  
    if(head == NULL) return NULL;  
    if(current == NULL) {  
        current = head;  
        return NULL;  
    }  
    <type> * temp = current->data;  
    current = current->next;  
    return temp;  
}
```

Resetting Current

- Internally, we should have a way to set **current** back to the beginning of the list

```
■ bool LList::reset(){  
    if(head == NULL) return false;  
    else current = head;  
    return true;  
}
```

- We should use reset anywhere we need to reset **current**
 - Prefer method calls over direct manipulation

Next

- We could also wrap the iteration itself in a method
 - ```
bool LList::next(){
 if(current != NULL) current = current->next;
 (current == NULL) ? return false: return true;
}
```
- For the same reason reset should be wrapped in a method, we should hide the implementation of our iteration

## Updated get() method

```
<type> * LList::get(){
 if(this->next()) return NULL;
 return &(amp;current->data);
}
```

- Internally, use reset() and next() to iterate through the list.
  - This is an example of a design choice that must be documented
  - The user can only iterate through the list items. **No Random Access.**

# Doubly Linked List

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# Doubly Linked List

- Linked list in which every node has a next pointer and a previous pointer
  - must add previous pointer to Node class
  - Must refactor most methods to update/use the previous pointer
- A doubly linked list can be traversed in either direction
- List class must also contains a pointer to last node

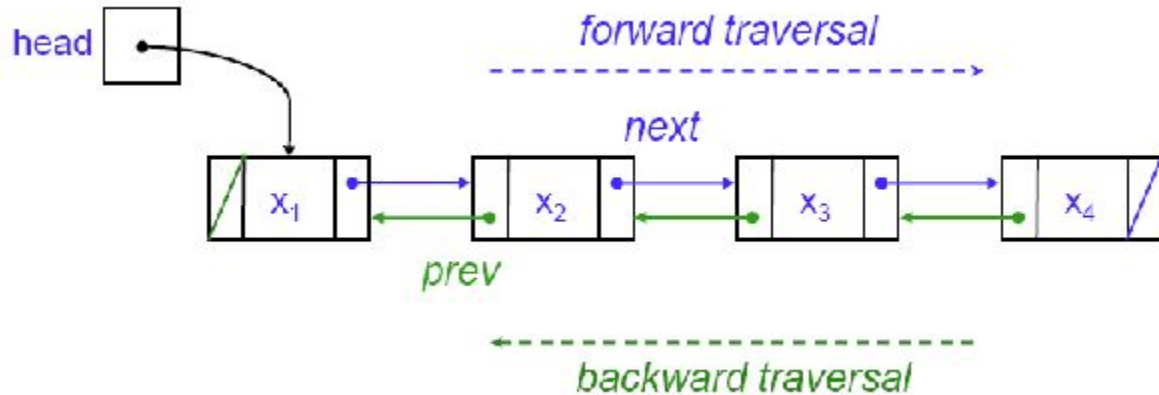
# Doubly Linked List Attributes

- What needs to be changed?
  - Add previous pointer
  - How does this affect the iterator, **current**
- What benefits does this provide?
- How can this be detrimental?



# Changes to our CRUD

How does the extra pointer affect our CRUD operations?



# Doubly Linked List Insertion

- Adds an element to the end of the list
  - ```
bool insert(<type> data){  
    Node * new_node = new Node(data);  
    tail->next = new node;  
    return true;  
}
```
- What is the Big O of appending to the doubly linked list?

Classwork

Two Lists



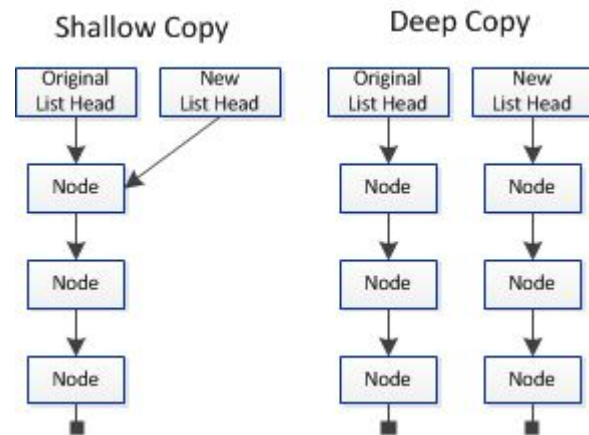
Shallow vs Deep Copy

- Shallow Copy

- Copies all instance variables into a cloned object
- DOES NOT copy pointer reference values

- Deep Copy

- Copies all instance variables **and** referenced values into a cloned object
- In C++ you must write the code to perform the deep copy



Copy Constructor

- Copy Constructors

- `<Class>(const <Class> &o){`
 `//deep copy object`
 `}`

- 3 Scenarios where Copy Constructor is called:

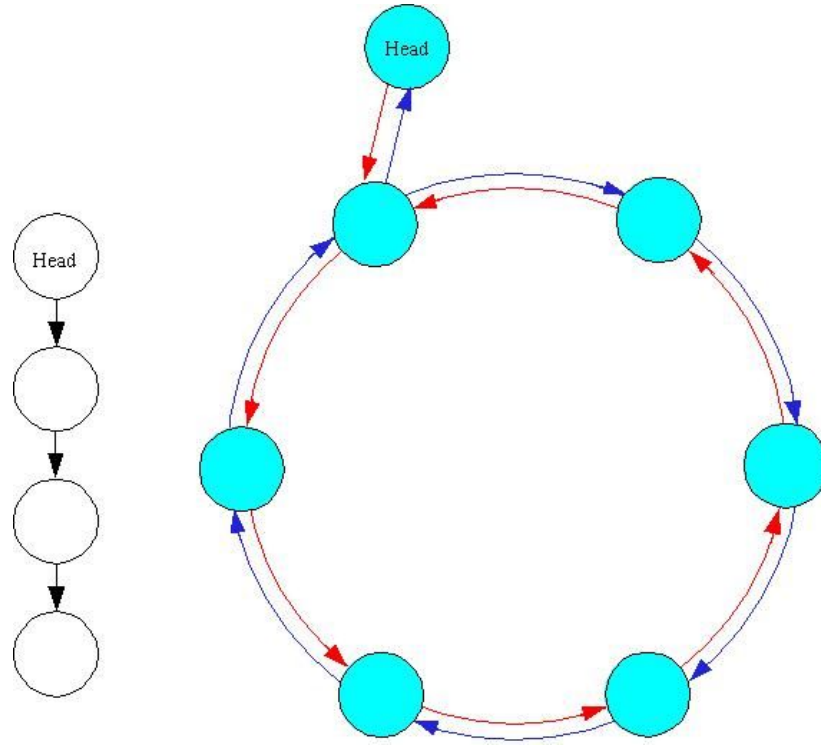
- Using the copy constructor explicitly
 - *Both invoke the copy constructor*
 - `List copy_list(old_list);`
 - `List copy_list = old_list;`
- Passing parameters by value

Circularly Linked List

Circular Linked List

- Linked list in which last node points to the first node
- How do we know when we have finished traversing the list?
- Eliminates checks for null

Circular Doubly Linked List



Deletion

- Standard Deletion
 - removes an element from the end of the list

```
void remove(){
    Node * to_delete = tail;
    tail = tail->previous; //set the new tail
    //update pointers
    tail->next = head;
    head->previous = tail;
    //remove the tail
    delete to_delete;
}
```

Deletion Complexity

- What is the Big O of deleting the last item from the circularly linked list?
- What about a singly linked list?

Another design

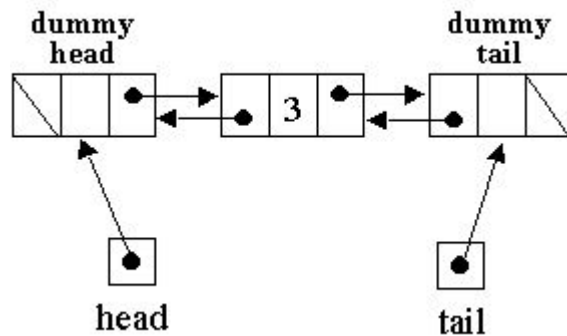
- How can we alter our design to remove special cases?
- Adding dummy nodes allows you to get rid of the special cases
 - You never have to worry about an empty list
- How does this change your constructor?
 - You have to allocate space for a head node and a tail node in the constructor

Dummy Nodes

- The dummy node is very useful as a “lag” pointer when inserting or removing nodes.
 - For instance, to remove all the nodes whose data is 0, one can write:
 - ```
Node lag = head;
for (Node p = lag.next; p != null; p = p.next) {
 if (p.data == 0) {
 lag.next = p.next;
 delete p;
 } else {
 lag = p;
 }
}
```

# Dummy Nodes

- Eliminates the need to check if the head is empty
- Eliminates long boolean conditions
  - `if(current != null && current->next != null && current->next->next != null)`
- How would a dummy node work for a circular doubly linked list?



# Linked List Algorithms

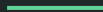
- Linked List algorithms generally require a well formed linked list.
- If a linked list has a cycle:
  - The malformed linked list has no end
  - Iterating through the malformed linked list will yield all or some nodes in the loop multiple times

# Malformed Lists

- A malformed linked list with a loop causes iteration over the list to fail because the iteration will never reach the end of the list.
- Solution?

# Classwork

Well-Formed Lists





# The Two Iterator Algorithm

- Simultaneously go through the list by ones (slow iterator) and by twos (fast iterators).
  - If there is a loop the fast iterators will go around that loop twice as fast as the slow iterator.
  - The fast iterator will lap the slow iterator within a single pass through the cycle,  $O(n)$ .
- Detecting a loop is detecting that the slow iterator has been lapped by the fast iterator.

# Two Iterator Pseudocode

```
malFormed(List l){
 Node slow = l->head, fast1 = l->head, fast2 = l->head;
 while (slow && fast1 = fast2->next && fast2 = fast1->next){
 if (slow == fast1 || slow == fast2)
 return true;
 slow = slow->next;
 }
 return false;
}
```