# COMP 2402 Class Notes

# Java Collections Framework (JCF)

The Java Collections Framework (JCF) is a unified architecture for representing and manipulating collections.

A collection — sometimes called a container — is simply an object that groups multiple elements into a single unit. Collections are used to store, retrieve, manipulate, and communicate aggregate data. Typically, they represent data items that form a natural group, such as a poker hand (a collection of cards), a mail folder (a collection of letters), or a telephone directory (a mapping of names to phone numbers). If you have used the Java programming language — or just about any other programming language — you are already familiar with collections.

In order to use the JCF you can import it like this.

```
import java.util.*
```

# Sorting

This is how to sort strings based on length by using anonymous object [Comparator].

```
Collections.sort(list, new Comparator<String>() {
    public int compare(String x, String y) {
        return x.length() - y.length();
    }
});

// or you can use lambda function
list.sort( (String o1, String o2) -> o1.compareTo(o2)
```

```
// if you want to sort by length and also
alphabetically
Collections.sort(list,new Comparator<String>() {
    public int compare(String x, String y) {
        // if not same length, use length
        if(x.length() != y.length()) {
            return x.length() - y.length();
        }
        // else compare as strings
        return x.compareTo(y);
    }
});
```

The **compare(x,y)** method works by moving an element left if the **compare(x,y)** method returns a negative integer, and moves the element right if the **compare(x,y)** returns a positive integer. [difference between x and y]

```
(-) x < y
(0) x = y
(+) x > y
```

# Maps [Hashmap]

Also known as dictionaries in Swift or C#...

Cannot have duplicate entries

```
Map<String, Integer> map = new HashMap<>();
map.put("Java", 6);
map.put("Swift", 10);
map.put("C#", 7);
map.put("Ruby", 9);
```

```
// this will print out every value in the map [foreach]
for(String str : map.keySet()) {
    System.out.println(str + " : " + map.get(str))
}
map.get(key); // fast operation, returns null if no key
found
```

## List

Continuing from previous example...

Map.Entry is just a key-value pair

```
List<Map.Entry<String,Integer>> entryList = new
ArrayList<>();
entryList.addAll(map.entrySet); // set containing all
the elements

for(Map.Entry<String,Integer> entry : entrylist) {
    System.out.println(entry.getKey() + " : " +
entry.getValue() );
}
```

# Deque [ArrayDeque]

Fast for reading/writing at *start* or *end* of list. Basically just a flexible stack/queue.

```
Deque<String> dq = new ArrayDeque<>();
dq.addFirst("second");
dq.addFirst("first");
dq.addLast("penultimate");
dq.addLast("last");
```

# **Priority Queue**

Essentially: uses a heap instead of a tree, in order to keep a certain one on top. So first element is 'sorted' and then rest is unsorted.

Not good for sorting, or random access.

```
Queue<String> pq = new PriorityQueue<>();
pq.addAll(list);

System.out.println(pq.remove()); // remove smallest
element
```

If alphabetical, one that starts with 'a' will be removed. After first element, the queue is not sorted. Removing one will promote next smallest to the top

# Asymptotic Notation [Big O]

Used to analyze complexity of algorithms, to find faster, or which ones requires more space.

### Comparing data structures

- Time
- Space
- Correctivenes

### Growth rates proportioanl to n

• If input doubles in size, how much will runtime increase?

## Runtime as a count of primative operation

This is machine independent

Proportional to exact runtimess

```
for(int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
    arr[i] = i;
}</pre>
```

#### Runtime:

- 1: assignment [int i = 0]
- **n+1**: comparisons [i < n]
- **n**: increments [i++]
- n: array offset calculations [arr[i]]
- **n**: n indirect assignments [arr[i] = i]

## Definition of Big O

After a certain point, g(x) will grow as fast [or faster] than f(x)

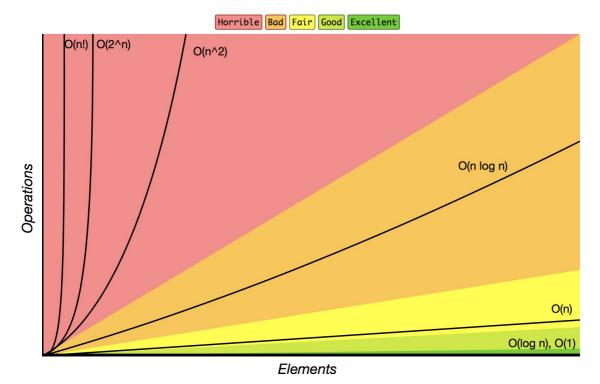
• g(x) is the upper limit to f(x)

$$O(g(n)) \ \forall \ (f(n) < c \bullet g(n))$$

# Orders of growth

Complexity	Name
O(1)	Constant
O(log n)	Logarithmic
O(n)	Linear
O(n log n)	Quasilinear
O(n^2)	Quasilinear
O(2^n)	Exponential
O(n!)	Factorial

**Big-O Complexity Chart** 



## **Tips**

- Only largest values matter
- Drop all coefficient
- Log bases are all equivalent

## Example

# Array-based Data Structures

# ArrayStack [ArrayList]

- Implements **List** interface with an array
- Similar to ArrayList
- Efficient only for stack operations [back]
- superceded by ArrayDeque
- get(), set() in O(1)
- add(), remove() in O(1 + n-i)
  - o good for write at the back

## Stacks vs List

Stack	List
push(x)	add(n,x)
pop()	remove(n-1)
size()	size()
peek(x)	get(n-1)

### List Interface

- get(i) / set(i,x)
  - Access element i, and return/replace it

- size()
  - o number of items in list
- add(i,x)
  - o insert new item x at position i
- remove(i)
  - remove the element from position i

dereferencing: getting the address of a data item

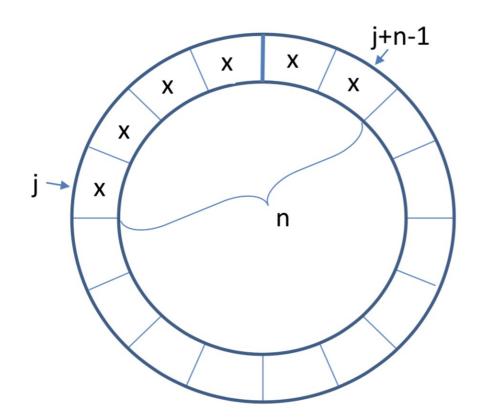
#### **Amortized Cost**

When an algorithm has processes that may be much longer but usually is quick, so you take the average. [roughly]

e.g. resizing an an array when adding/removing

## ArrayQueue & ArrayDeque

Allow for efficient access at front and backs.



## **ArrayQueue**

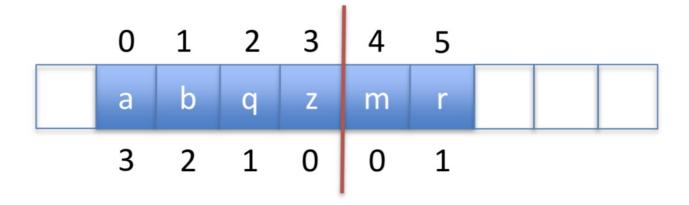
- Implements Queue and List interfaces with an array
- Cyclic array, (n: number of elements, j: 'index' of last element)
- get(), set() in O(1)
- add(), remove () in O(1 + min(i, n-i))
  - quick to write at front or back
  - cannot access anywhere else
- resize is O(n)

#### **ArrayDeque**

- Implements List interface with an array
- get(), set() in O(1)
- add(), remove() in O(1 + min(i, n-i))
  - quick to write at front or back
  - not so quick to access middle
- resize is O(n)

## DualArrayDeque

- Implements **List** interface
- Uses two ArrayStacks front-to-front
- Since arrays are quick to add to the end, this makes front and back operations fast
- May be rebalanced if one array is much larger than the other
- Use Potential Function to decide when to rebalance
- get(), set() in O(1)
- add(), remove() in O(1 + min(i, n-i))
  - o quick to write at front or back, but not middle



#### **Potential Function**

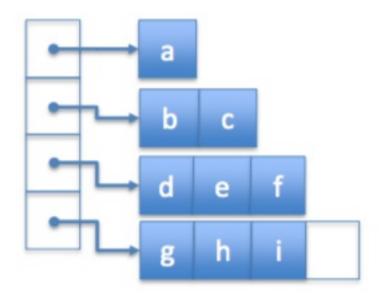
Define a potential function for the data structure to be the absolute difference of the sizes of the two stacks

P = | front\_array.size - back\_array.size |

 Adding or removing an element can only increase/decrease 1 to this function

## RootishArrayStack

- Implements the **List** interface using multiple backing arrays
- Reduces 'wasted space' [unused space]
- At most: sqrt(n) unused array locations
- Good for space efficiency
- get(), set() in O(1)
- add(), remove() in O(1 + n-i)
  - quick to write at the back



# Linked Lists

- Recursive data structure made up of nodes
- Pointers to head and tail, and each node points to the next node
- Efficient add/remove but slow read/write

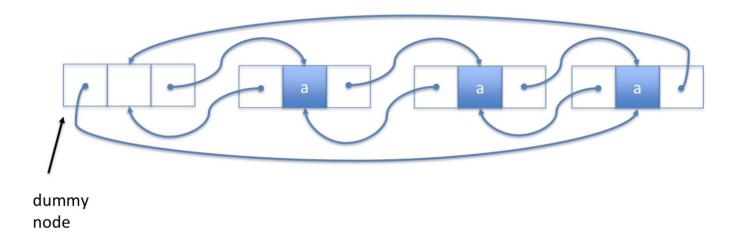
## SLList [Singly-Linked List]

- Implements the Stack and Queue interfaces
- push(), pop() in O(1)
- add(), remove() in O(1)



# DSList [Doubly-Linked List]

- Forward and backwards pointers at each node
- Implements the **List** interfaces
- get(), set() in O(1 + min(i, n-i))
- add(), remove() in O(1 + min(i, n-i))

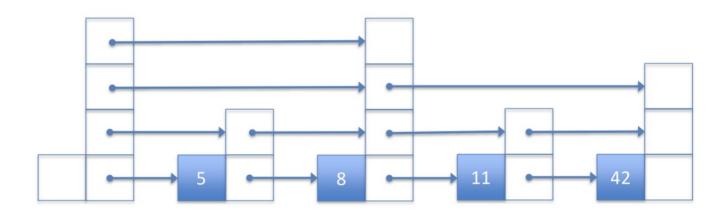


## SELList [Space-Efficient Linked List]

- Like a doubly-linked list, but uses block size b
- Is a series of **ArrayDeque** with *next* and *prev* pointers
- Implements the **List** interfaces
- get(), set() in O(1 + min(i, n-i)/b)
- add(), remove() in O(1 + min(i, n-i)/b)
  - o is quicker because you can skip blocks of data

# Skiplist

- Like a singly-linked list, with 'skips'
- Randomly generated structure
- Faster searches than linked lists
- Additional nodes with pointers that allow 'skipping'
- Successor search: find(x) will return smallest value ≥ x
- find(), add(), remove() in O(log n)



# List Implementations

	get/set	add/remove
Arrays	O(1)	O(1 + min(i,n-i))
LinkedList	O(1 + min(i,n-i))	O(1)*
Skiplist	O(log n)	O(log n)

<sup>\*</sup>given a pointer to the location, else traversal is necessary

## **Definitions**

Random variable: a random sample from a group of values

**Expected value:** average value of a random variable

**Indicator variable:** random variable with values of 0 or 1

**Linearity of Expectation:** the expected value of a sum is equal to the sum of expected values

Expected height of node [if coin flips were used]:

```
let S = Sum(P(x = i)) = 1 + 1/2 + 1/4 + ...

therefore,

S/2 = 1/2 + 1/4 + 1/8 + ...

S - S/2 = 1

=> S = 2

E[x] = Sum(P(I_j = i)) = S = 1 + 1/2 + 1/4 + ...

E[x] = 2
```

#### Expected number of elements in the skiplist:

### Average height of skiplist:

```
h = # of levels in list

I_i = 1 if level is not empty, 0 if level empty

// expected value of sum of indicator(level not empty)

E[h] = E[ Sum( I_i ) ] // from 0...infinity [no max height]
```

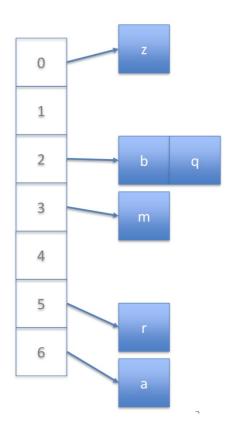
```
\begin{split} & E[h] = Sum(\ E[\ I\_i\ ]\ ) \\ & I\_i \le n\_i \quad // \text{ if level exists, less likely than number of nodes} \\ & E[I\_i] \le E[n\_i] = n/(2^i) \\ & // \text{ use log(n) since we know to prove } O(\log n) \\ & E[h] = E[\ I\_i\ ] \{ \text{ from } [0] \text{ to } [\log(n)] \} \\ & \quad + E[\ I\_i\ ] \{ \text{ from } [\log(n) + 1] \text{ to } [\text{infinity}] \} \\ & E[h] = [\ \log(n) + 1\ ] + [\ 1\ ] \qquad // \text{ because math} \\ & E[h] = \log(n) + 2 \le \log(n) + 3 \end{split}
```

#### Average length of skiplist:

```
R i = # of horizontal steps at level ≤ n i
l = Sum(R i)
E[R \ i] \le E[\# \text{ node height not promoted }]
E[R_i] \le E[\# node height promoted] - 1
E[R_i] \le S - 1 // S = 2 from above
E[R i] \leq 1
let sp = total length of search path
E[sp] = E[h] + E[l]
E[sp] = (log(n) + 3) + E[Sum(R_i)]
E[sp] = (log(n) + 3) + Sum(E[R_i])
E[sp] \le (log(n) + 3)
        + Sum(1){ from [0] to [log(n)] }
        + Sum( E[ n i ] ) { from [log(n) + 1] to n }
E[sp] \leq (log(n) + 3)
        + log(n)
        + Sum( n/(2^i) ){ from [log(n) + 1] to n }
E[sp] \le 2*log(n) + 6
E[sp] = O(log n) + O(1)
```

# HashTables

- Unordered sets with fast access
- Associative array
  - Index elements into a range of int
  - for non-integer elements, use hashCode()



## Hashing

• Computing an [integer] index into the array

### ChainedHashTable

- Implements the **USet** interface
- find(), add(), remove() in O(n\_i)
  - where *n\_i* is based of size of list at index

//  $m \ge 1$  add() / remove() calls, results in O(m) time on resize()

# **Universal Hashing**

A hash function, hash(x):int  $\rightarrow$  {0,...,m-1}, is universal if, for any elements x, y:

- 1. if x == y, then hash(x) == hash(y)
- 2. if x != y, then Prob{ hash(x) == hash(y) } = 1/m
- If a hash function gives probablility of 2/m, then it can be called nearly-universal

#### HashCodes

Methods of Java Object:

- .hashCode(), integer representation of object
- .equals(), compare two object references

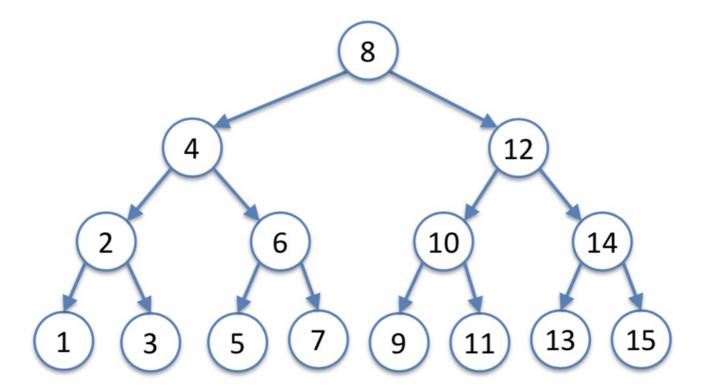
Equal objects must have equal hash codes

a.equals(b) => a.hashCode() == b.hashCode()

but, reverse is not true:

- a.hashCode() == b.hashCode() =/> a.equals(b)
  - o Same hashcode does not imply, same object
- !a.equals(b) =/> a.hashCode() != b.hashCode()
  - Different object does not mean different hashcode

# **Binary Trees**



#### Nodes:

• Root: top-most node

• Internal: nodes that have children

• Leaf: nodes with no children

• External: null nodes [children of leaf nodes]

#### **Definitions:**

• Depth: distance from root

• level: set of nodes at same depth

• height: largest depth for subtree at node

• size: number of nodes for subtree at node

How to calculate the size of a subtree [recursively]

```
int size(Node u) {
   if(u == null) return 0; // external node
   // add one each time, count this node
   return size(u.left) + size(u.right) + 1;
}
```

### How to calculate the height of a subtree [recursively]

```
int height(Node u) {
   if(u == null) return -1; // external node, went too
far
   // add one each time, count this node
   return max( height(u.left) + height(u.right) ) + 1;
}
```

#### How to calculate the depth of a node [recursively]

```
int depth(Node u) {
   if(u == null) return -1; // root node, went too far
   // add one each time, count this node
   return depth(u.parent) + 1;
}
```

## BinarySearchTree

- Implements the **SSet** interface
- find(), add(), remove() in O(n)

### Adding Node to Binary Search Tree

```
boolean addNode(x) {
    last = FindLast(x); // successor search
    if(x == last) return false; // no duplicates
    if(x.value < last.value)
        last.right = x;
    else
        last.left = x;
    return true;
}</pre>
```

## Removing Node from Binary Search Tree

#### **Case 1:** Node is a leaf [no children]

• Just remove node.

#### Case 2: Node has one child

Node can be replaced by child node

#### Case 3: Node has two children

• Replace the node with the smallest value, unless in right subtree

### Random Binary Search Trees

Balanced trees are statistically more likely

- Implements the **SSet** interface
- contructed in O( n●log(n) )
- add(), remove() in O(n)
- find()) in O(log n)

```
// search path is at most 2 \cdot \log(n) + O(1)
```

## **Treaps**

### Has an extra priority:

Parent priority should be less than child priority.

This has the property of bounding the height of the tree.

- Implements the **SSet** interface
- Priorities are randomly applied
- contructed in O( n●log(n) )
- find(),add(), remove() in O(log n)

