

can continue using (with modifications) the approach you outlined in Step 1, but occasionally you will need to fundamentally alter the approach.

Note that an iterative approach is typically useful. That is, once you have solved the problems from Step 3, new problems may have emerged, and you must tackle those as well.

Your goal is not to re-architect a complex system that companies have spent millions of dollars building, but rather to demonstrate that you can analyze and solve problems. Poking holes in your own solution is a fantastic way to demonstrate this.

► Key Concepts

While system design questions aren't really tests of what you know, certain concepts can make things a lot easier. We will give a brief overview here. All of these are deep, complex topics, so we encourage you to use online resources for more research.

Horizontal vs. Vertical Scaling

A system can be scaled one of two ways.

- Vertical scaling means increasing the resources of a specific node. For example, you might add additional memory to a server to improve its ability to handle load changes.
- Horizontal scaling means increasing the number of nodes. For example, you might add additional servers, thus decreasing the load on any one server.

Vertical scaling is generally easier than horizontal scaling, but it's limited. You can only add so much memory or disk space.

Load Balancer

Typically, some frontend parts of a scalable website will be thrown behind a load balancer. This allows a system to distribute the load evenly so that one server doesn't crash and take down the whole system. To do so, of course, you have to build out a network of cloned servers that all have essentially the same code and access to the same data.

Database Denormalization and NoSQL

Joins in a relational database such as SQL can get very slow as the system grows bigger. For this reason, you would generally avoid them.

Denormalization is one part of this. Denormalization means adding redundant information into a database to speed up reads. For example, imagine a database describing projects and tasks (where a project can have multiple tasks). You might need to get the project name and the task information. Rather than doing a join across these tables, you can store the project name within the task table (in addition to the project table).

Or, you can go with a NoSQL database. A NoSQL database does not support joins and might structure data in a different way. It is designed to scale better.

Database Partitioning (Sharding)

Sharding means splitting the data across multiple machines while ensuring you have a way of figuring out which data is on which machine.

A few common ways of partitioning include:

- **Vertical Partitioning:** This is basically partitioning by feature. For example, if you were building a social network, you might have one partition for tables relating to profiles, another one for messages, and so on. One drawback of this is that if one of these tables gets very large, you might need to repartition that database (possibly using a different partitioning scheme).
- **Key-Based (or Hash-Based) Partitioning:** This uses some part of the data (for example an ID) to partition it. A very simple way to do this is to allocate N servers and put the data on $\text{mod}(\text{key}, n)$. One issue with this is that the number of servers you have is effectively fixed. Adding additional servers means reallocating all the data—a very expensive task.
- **Directory-Based Partitioning:** In this scheme, you maintain a lookup table for where the data can be found. This makes it relatively easy to add additional servers, but it comes with two major drawbacks. First, the lookup table can be a single point of failure. Second, constantly accessing this table impacts performance.

Many architectures actually end up using multiple partitioning schemes.

Caching

An in-memory cache can deliver very rapid results. It is a simple key-value pairing and typically sits between your application layer and your data store.

When an application requests a piece of information, it first tries the cache. If the cache does not contain the key, it will then look up the data in the data store. (At this point, the data might—or might not—be stored in the data store.)

When you cache, you might cache a query and its results directly. Or, alternatively, you can cache the specific object (for example, a rendered version of a part of the website, or a list of the most recent blog posts).

Asynchronous Processing & Queues

Slow operations should ideally be done asynchronously. Otherwise, a user might get stuck waiting and waiting for a process to complete.

In some cases, we can do this in advance (i.e., we can pre-process). For example, we might have a queue of jobs to be done that update some part of the website. If we were running a forum, one of these jobs might be to re-render a page that lists the most popular posts and the number of comments. That list might end up being slightly out of date, but that's perhaps okay. It's better than a user stuck waiting on the website to load simply because someone added a new comment and invalidated the cached version of this page.

In other cases, we might tell the user to wait and notify them when the process is done. You've probably seen this on websites before. Perhaps you enabled some new part of a website and it says it needs a few minutes to import your data, but you'll get a notification when it's done.

Networking Metrics

Some of the most important metrics around networking include:

- **Bandwidth:** This is the maximum amount of data that can be transferred in a unit of time. It is typically expressed in bits per second (or some similar ways, such as gigabytes per second).
- **Throughput:** Whereas bandwidth is the maximum data that can be transferred in a unit of time, throughput is the actual amount of data that is transferred.
- **Latency:** This is how long it takes data to go from one end to the other. That is, it is the delay between the sender sending information (even a very small chunk of data) and the receiver receiving it.

Imagine you have a conveyor belt that transfers items across a factory. Latency is the time it takes an item to go from one side to another. Throughput is the number of items that roll off the conveyor belt per second.

- Building a fatter conveyor belt will not change latency. It will, however, change throughput and bandwidth. You can get more items on the belt, thus transferring more in a given unit of time.
- Shortening the belt will decrease latency, since items spend less time in transit. It won't change the throughput or bandwidth. The same number of items will roll off the belt per unit of time.
- Making a faster conveyor belt will change all three. The time it takes an item to travel across the factory decreases. More items will also roll off the conveyor belt per unit of time.
- Bandwidth is the number of items that can be transferred per unit of time, in the best possible conditions. Throughput is the time it really takes, when the machines perhaps aren't operating smoothly.

Latency can be easy to disregard, but it can be very important in particular situations. For example, if you're playing certain online games, latency can be a very big deal. How can you play a typical online sports game (like a two-player football game) if you aren't notified very quickly of your opponent's movement? Additionally, unlike throughput where at least you have the option of speeding things up through data compression, there is often little you can do about latency.

MapReduce

MapReduce is often associated with Google, but it's used much more broadly than that. A MapReduce program is typically used to process large amounts of data.

As its name suggests, a MapReduce program requires you to write a Map step and a Reduce step. The rest is handled by the system.

- Map takes in some data and emits a `<key, value>` pair.
- Reduce takes a key and a set of associated values and "reduces" them in some way, emitting a new key and value. The results of this might be fed back into the Reduce program for more reducing.

MapReduce allows us to do a lot of processing in parallel, which makes processing huge amounts of data more scalable.

For more information, see "MapReduce" on page 642.

► Considerations

In addition to the earlier concepts to learn, you should consider the following issues when designing a system.

- **Failures:** Essentially any part of a system can fail. You'll need to plan for many or all of these failures.
- **Availability and Reliability:** Availability is a function of the percentage of time the system is operational. Reliability is a function of the probability that the system is operational for a certain unit of time.
- **Read-heavy vs. Write-heavy:** Whether an application will do a lot of reads or a lot of writes impacts the design. If it's write-heavy, you could consider queuing up the writes (but think about potential failure here!). If it's read-heavy, you might want to cache. Other design decisions could change as well.
- **Security:** Security threats can, of course, be devastating for a system. Think about the types of issues a system might face and design around those.

This is just to get you started with the potential issues for a system. Remember to be open in your interview about the tradeoffs.

► There is no “perfect” system.

There is no single design for TinyURL or Google Maps or any other system that works perfectly (although there are a great number that would work terribly). There are always tradeoffs. Two people could have substantially different designs for a system, with both being excellent given different assumptions.

Your goal in these problems is to be able to understand use cases, scope a problem, make reasonable assumptions, create a solid design based on those assumptions, and be open about the weaknesses of your design. Do not expect something perfect.

► Example Problem

Given a list of millions of documents, how would you find all documents that contain a list of words? The words can appear in any order, but they must be complete words. That is, “book” does not match “bookkeeper.”

Before we start solving the problem, we need to understand whether this is a one time only operation, or if this `findWords` procedure will be called repeatedly. Let’s assume that we will be calling `findWords` many times for the same set of documents, and, therefore, we can accept the burden of pre-processing.

Step 1

The first step is to pretend we just have a few dozen documents. How would we implement `findWords` in this case? (Tip: stop here and try to solve this yourself before reading on.)

One way to do this is to pre-process each document and create a hash table index. This hash table would map from a word to a list of the documents that contain that word.

```
"books" -> {doc2, doc3, doc6, doc8}
"many" -> {doc1, doc3, doc7, doc8, doc9}
```

To search for “many books,” we would simply do an intersection on the values for “books” and “many”, and return {doc3, doc8} as the result.

Step 2

Now go back to the original problem. What problems are introduced with millions of documents? For starters, we probably need to divide up the documents across many machines. Also, depending on a variety of factors, such as the number of possible words and the repetition of words in a document, we may not be able to fit the full hash table on one machine. Let’s assume that this is the case.

This division introduces the following key concerns:

1. How will we divide up our hash table? We could divide it up by keyword, such that a given machine contains the full document list for a given word. Or, we could divide by document, such that a machine contains the keyword mapping for only a subset of the documents.
2. Once we decide how to divide up the data, we may need to process a document on one machine and push the results off to other machines. What does this process look like? (Note: if we divide the hash table by document, this step may not be necessary.)
3. We will need a way of knowing which machine holds a piece of data. What does this lookup table look like, and where is it stored?

These are just three concerns. There may be many others.

Step 3

In Step 3, we find solutions to each of these issues. One solution is to divide up the words alphabetically by keyword, such that each machine controls a range of words (e.g., “after” through “apple”).

We can implement a simple algorithm in which we iterate through the keywords alphabetically, storing as much data as possible on one machine. When that machine is full, we can move to the next machine.

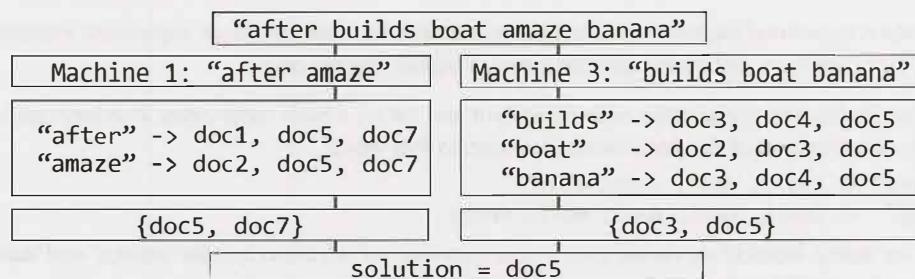
The advantage of this approach is that the lookup table is small and simple (since it must only specify a range of values), and each machine can store a copy of the lookup table. However, the disadvantage is that if new documents or words are added, we may need to perform an expensive shift of keywords.

To find all the documents that match a list of strings, we would first sort the list and then send each machine a lookup request for the strings that the machine owns. For example, if our string is “after builds boat amaze banana”, machine 1 would get a lookup request for {"“after”, “amaze”}.

Machine 1 looks up the documents containing “after” and “amaze,” and performs an intersection on these document lists. Machine 3 does the same for {"“banana”, “boat”, “builds”}, and intersects their lists.

In the final step, the initial machine would do an intersection on the results from Machine 1 and Machine 3.

The following diagram explains this process.



Interview Questions

These questions are designed to mirror a real interview, so they will not always be well defined. Think about what questions you would ask your interviewer and then make reasonable assumptions. You may make different assumptions than us, and that will lead you to a very different design. That's okay!

- 9.1 Stock Data:** Imagine you are building some sort of service that will be called by up to 1,000 client applications to get simple end-of-day stock price information (open, close, high, low). You may assume that you already have the data, and you can store it in any format you wish. How would you design the client-facing service that provides the information to client applications? You are responsible for the development, rollout, and ongoing monitoring and maintenance of the feed. Describe the different methods you considered and why you would recommend your approach. Your service can use any technologies you wish, and can distribute the information to the client applications in any mechanism you choose.

Hints: #385, #396

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- 9.2 Social Network:** How would you design the data structures for a very large social network like Facebook or LinkedIn? Describe how you would design an algorithm to show the shortest path between two people (e.g., Me -> Bob -> Susan -> Jason -> You).

Hints: #270, #285, #304, #321

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- 9.3 Web Crawler:** If you were designing a web crawler, how would you avoid getting into infinite loops?

Hints: #334, #353, #365

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- 9.4 Duplicate URLs:** You have 10 billion URLs. How do you detect the duplicate documents? In this case, assume "duplicate" means that the URLs are identical.

Hints: #326, #347

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- 9.5 Cache:** Imagine a web server for a simplified search engine. This system has 100 machines to respond to search queries, which may then call out using `processSearch(string query)` to another cluster of machines to actually get the result. The machine which responds to a given query is chosen at random, so you cannot guarantee that the same machine will always respond to the same request. The method `processSearch` is very expensive. Design a caching mechanism for the most recent queries. Be sure to explain how you would update the cache when data changes.

Hints: #259, #274, #293, #311

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- 9.6 Sales Rank:** A large eCommerce company wishes to list the best-selling products, overall and by category. For example, one product might be the #1056th best-selling product overall but the #13th best-selling product under "Sports Equipment" and the #24th best-selling product under "Safety." Describe how you would design this system.

Hints: #142, #158, #176, #189, #208, #223, #236, #244

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- 9.7 Personal Financial Manager:** Explain how you would design a personal financial manager (like Mint.com). This system would connect to your bank accounts, analyze your spending habits, and make recommendations.

Hints: #162, #180, #199, #212, #247, #276

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- 9.8 Pastebin:** Design a system like Pastebin, where a user can enter a piece of text and get a randomly generated URL to access it.

Hints: #165, #184, #206, #232

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Additional Questions: Object-Oriented Design (#7.7)

Hints start on page 662.

10

Sorting and Searching

Understanding the common sorting and searching algorithms is incredibly valuable, as many sorting and searching problems are tweaks of the well-known algorithms. A good approach is therefore to run through the different sorting algorithms and see if one applies particularly well.

For example, suppose you are asked the following question: Given a very large array of Person objects, sort the people in increasing order of age.

We're given two interesting bits of knowledge here:

1. It's a large array, so efficiency is very important.
2. We are sorting based on ages, so we know the values are in a small range.

By scanning through the various sorting algorithms, we might notice that bucket sort (or radix sort) would be a perfect candidate for this algorithm. In fact, we can make the buckets small (just 1 year each) and get $O(n)$ running time.

► Common Sorting Algorithms

Learning (or re-learning) the common sorting algorithms is a great way to boost your performance. Of the five algorithms explained below, Merge Sort, Quick Sort and Bucket Sort are the most commonly used in interviews.

Bubble Sort | Runtime: $O(n^2)$ average and worst case. Memory: $O(1)$.

In bubble sort, we start at the beginning of the array and swap the first two elements if the first is greater than the second. Then, we go to the next pair, and so on, continuously making sweeps of the array until it is sorted. In doing so, the smaller items slowly “bubble” up to the beginning of the list.

Selection Sort | Runtime: $O(n^2)$ average and worst case. Memory: $O(1)$.

Selection sort is the child's algorithm: simple, but inefficient. Find the smallest element using a linear scan and move it to the front (swapping it with the front element). Then, find the second smallest and move it, again doing a linear scan. Continue doing this until all the elements are in place.

Merge Sort | Runtime: $O(n \log(n))$ average and worst case. Memory: Depends.

Merge sort divides the array in half, sorts each of those halves, and then merges them back together. Each of those halves has the same sorting algorithm applied to it. Eventually, you are merging just two single-element arrays. It is the “merge” part that does all the heavy lifting.

The merge method operates by copying all the elements from the target array segment into a helper array, keeping track of where the start of the left and right halves should be (`helperLeft` and `helperRight`). We then iterate through `helper`, copying the smaller element from each half into the array. At the end, we copy any remaining elements into the target array.

```

1 void mergesort(int[] array) {
2     int[] helper = new int[array.length];
3     mergesort(array, helper, 0, array.length - 1);
4 }
5
6 void mergesort(int[] array, int[] helper, int low, int high) {
7     if (low < high) {
8         int middle = (low + high) / 2;
9         mergesort(array, helper, low, middle); // Sort left half
10        mergesort(array, helper, middle+1, high); // Sort right half
11        merge(array, helper, low, middle, high); // Merge them
12    }
13 }
14
15 void merge(int[] array, int[] helper, int low, int middle, int high) {
16     /* Copy both halves into a helper array */
17     for (int i = low; i <= high; i++) {
18         helper[i] = array[i];
19     }
20
21     int helperLeft = low;
22     int helperRight = middle + 1;
23     int current = low;
24
25     /* Iterate through helper array. Compare the left and right half, copying back
26      * the smaller element from the two halves into the original array. */
27     while (helperLeft <= middle && helperRight <= high) {
28         if (helper[helperLeft] <= helper[helperRight]) {
29             array[current] = helper[helperLeft];
30             helperLeft++;
31         } else { // If right element is smaller than left element
32             array[current] = helper[helperRight];
33             helperRight++;
34         }
35         current++;
36     }
37
38     /* Copy the rest of the left side of the array into the target array */
39     int remaining = middle - helperLeft;
40     for (int i = 0; i <= remaining; i++) {
41         array[current + i] = helper[helperLeft + i];
42     }
43 }
```

You may notice that only the remaining elements from the left half of the helper array are copied into the target array. Why not the right half? The right half doesn't need to be copied because it's *already* there.

Consider, for example, an array like [1, 4, 5 || 2, 8, 9] (the "||" indicates the partition point). Prior to merging the two halves, both the helper array and the target array segment will end with [8, 9]. Once we copy over four elements (1, 4, 5, and 2) into the target array, the [8, 9] will still be in place in both arrays. There's no need to copy them over.

The space complexity of merge sort is $O(n)$ due to the auxiliary space used to merge parts of the array.

Quick Sort | Runtime: $O(n \log(n))$ **average**, $O(n^2)$ **worst case**. **Memory:** $O(\log(n))$.

In quick sort, we pick a random element and partition the array, such that all numbers that are less than the partitioning element come before all elements that are greater than it. The partitioning can be performed efficiently through a series of swaps (see below).

If we repeatedly partition the array (and its sub-arrays) around an element, the array will eventually become sorted. However, as the partitioned element is not guaranteed to be the median (or anywhere near the median), our sorting could be very slow. This is the reason for the $O(n^2)$ worst case runtime.

```
1 void quickSort(int[] arr, int left, int right) {  
2     int index = partition(arr, left, right);  
3     if (left < index - 1) { // Sort left half  
4         quickSort(arr, left, index - 1);  
5     }  
6     if (index < right) { // Sort right half  
7         quickSort(arr, index, right);  
8     }  
9 }  
10  
11 int partition(int[] arr, int left, int right) {  
12     int pivot = arr[(left + right) / 2]; // Pick pivot point  
13     while (left <= right) {  
14         // Find element on left that should be on right  
15         while (arr[left] < pivot) left++;  
16  
17         // Find element on right that should be on left  
18         while (arr[right] > pivot) right--;  
19  
20         // Swap elements, and move left and right indices  
21         if (left <= right) {  
22             swap(arr, left, right); // swaps elements  
23             left++;  
24             right--;  
25         }  
26     }  
27     return left;  
28 }
```

Radix Sort | Runtime: $O(kn)$ (see below)

Radix sort is a sorting algorithm for integers (and some other data types) that takes advantage of the fact that integers have a finite number of bits. In radix sort, we iterate through each digit of the number, grouping numbers by each digit. For example, if we have an array of integers, we might first sort by the first digit, so that the 0s are grouped together. Then, we sort each of these groupings by the next digit. We repeat this process sorting by each subsequent digit, until finally the whole array is sorted.

Unlike comparison sorting algorithms, which cannot perform better than $O(n \log(n))$ in the average case, radix sort has a runtime of $O(kn)$, where n is the number of elements and k is the number of passes of the sorting algorithm.

▶ Searching Algorithms

When we think of searching algorithms, we generally think of binary search. Indeed, this is a very useful algorithm to study.

In binary search, we look for an element x in a sorted array by first comparing x to the midpoint of the array. If x is less than the midpoint, then we search the left half of the array. If x is greater than the midpoint, then we search the right half of the array. We then repeat this process, treating the left and right halves as subarrays. Again, we compare x to the midpoint of this subarray and then search either its left or right side. We repeat this process until we either find x or the subarray has size 0.

Note that although the concept is fairly simple, getting all the details right is far more difficult than you might think. As you study the code below, pay attention to the plus ones and minus ones.

```

1  int binarySearch(int[] a, int x) {
2      int low = 0;
3      int high = a.length - 1;
4      int mid;
5
6      while (low <= high) {
7          mid = (low + high) / 2;
8          if (a[mid] < x) {
9              low = mid + 1;
10         } else if (a[mid] > x) {
11             high = mid - 1;
12         } else {
13             return mid;
14         }
15     }
16     return -1; // Error
17 }
18
19 int binarySearchRecursive(int[] a, int x, int low, int high) {
20     if (low > high) return -1; // Error
21
22     int mid = (low + high) / 2;
23     if (a[mid] < x) {
24         return binarySearchRecursive(a, x, mid + 1, high);
25     } else if (a[mid] > x) {
26         return binarySearchRecursive(a, x, low, mid - 1);
27     } else {
28         return mid;
29     }
30 }
```

Potential ways to search a data structure extend beyond binary search, and you would do best not to limit yourself to just this option. You might, for example, search for a node by leveraging a binary tree, or by using a hash table. Think beyond binary search!

Interview Questions

- 10.1 Sorted Merge:** You are given two sorted arrays, A and B, where A has a large enough buffer at the end to hold B. Write a method to merge B into A in sorted order.

Hints: #332

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- 10.2 Group Anagrams:** Write a method to sort an array of strings so that all the anagrams are next to each other.

Hints: #177, #182, #263, #342

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- 10.3 Search in Rotated Array:** Given a sorted array of n integers that has been rotated an unknown number of times, write code to find an element in the array. You may assume that the array was originally sorted in increasing order.

EXAMPLE

Input: find 5 in {15, 16, 19, 20, 25, 1, 3, 4, 5, 7, 10, 14}

Output: 8 (the index of 5 in the array)

Hints: #298, #310

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- 10.4 Sorted Search, No Size:** You are given an array-like data structure **Listy** which lacks a size method. It does, however, have an `elementAt(i)` method that returns the element at index i in $O(1)$ time. If i is beyond the bounds of the data structure, it returns -1. (For this reason, the data structure only supports positive integers.) Given a **Listy** which contains sorted, positive integers, find the index at which an element x occurs. If x occurs multiple times, you may return any index.

Hints: #320, #337, #348

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- 10.5 Sparse Search:** Given a sorted array of strings that is interspersed with empty strings, write a method to find the location of a given string.

EXAMPLE

Input: ball, {"at", "", "", "", "ball", "", "", "car", "", "", "dad", "", ""}

Output: 4

Hints: #256

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- 10.6 Sort Big File:** Imagine you have a 20 GB file with one string per line. Explain how you would sort the file.

Hints: #207

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- 10.7 Missing Int:** Given an input file with four billion non-negative integers, provide an algorithm to generate an integer that is not contained in the file. Assume you have 1 GB of memory available for this task.

FOLLOW UP

What if you have only 10 MB of memory? Assume that all the values are distinct and we now have no more than one billion non-negative integers.

Hints: #235, #254, #281

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- 10.8 Find Duplicates:** You have an array with all the numbers from 1 to N, where N is at most 32,000. The array may have duplicate entries and you do not know what N is. With only 4 kilobytes of memory available, how would you print all duplicate elements in the array?

Hints: #289, #315

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- 10.9 Sorted Matrix Search:** Given an M x N matrix in which each row and each column is sorted in ascending order, write a method to find an element.

Hints: #193, #211, #229, #251, #266, #279, #288, #291, #303, #317, #330

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- 10.10 Rank from Stream:** Imagine you are reading in a stream of integers. Periodically, you wish to be able to look up the rank of a number x (the number of values less than or equal to x). Implement the data structures and algorithms to support these operations. That is, implement the method `track(int x)`, which is called when each number is generated, and the method `getRankOfNumber(int x)`, which returns the number of values less than or equal to x (not including x itself).

EXAMPLE

Stream (in order of appearance): 5, 1, 4, 4, 5, 9, 7, 13, 3

`getRankOfNumber(1) = 0`

`getRankOfNumber(3) = 1`

`getRankOfNumber(4) = 3`

Hints: #301, #376, #392

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- 10.11 Peaks and Valleys:** In an array of integers, a “peak” is an element which is greater than or equal to the adjacent integers and a “valley” is an element which is less than or equal to the adjacent integers. For example, in the array {5, 8, 6, 2, 3, 4, 6}, {8, 6} are peaks and {5, 2} are valleys. Given an array of integers, sort the array into an alternating sequence of peaks and valleys.

EXAMPLE

Input: {5, 3, 1, 2, 3}

Output: {5, 1, 3, 2, 3}

Hints: #196, #219, #231, #253, #277, #292, #316

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Additional Questions: Arrays and Strings (#1.2), Recursion (#8.3), Moderate (#16.10, #16.16, #16.21, #16.24), Hard (#17.11, #17.26).

Hints start on page 662.

11

Testing

Before you flip past this chapter saying, “but I’m not a tester,” stop and think. Testing is an important task for a software engineer, and for this reason, testing questions may come up during your interview. Of course, if you are applying for Testing roles (or Software Engineer in Test), then that’s all the more reason why you need to pay attention.

Testing problems usually fall under one of four categories: (1) Test a real world object (like a pen); (2) Test a piece of software; (3) Write test code for a function; (4) Troubleshoot an existing issue. We’ll cover approaches for each of these four types.

Remember that all four types require you to not make an assumption that the input or the user will play nice. Expect abuse and plan for it.

► What the Interviewer Is Looking For

At their surface, testing questions seem like they’re just about coming up with an extensive list of test cases. And to some extent, that’s right. You do need to come up with a reasonable list of test cases.

But in addition, interviewers want to test the following:

- *Big Picture Understanding:* Are you a person who understands what the software is really about? Can you prioritize test cases properly? For example, suppose you’re asked to test an e-commerce system like Amazon. It’s great to make sure that the product images appear in the right place, but it’s even more important that payments work reliably, products are added to the shipment queue, and customers are never double charged.
- *Knowing How the Pieces Fit Together:* Do you understand how software works, and how it might fit into a greater ecosystem? Suppose you’re asked to test Google Spreadsheets. It’s important that you test opening, saving, and editing documents. But, Google Spreadsheets is part of a larger ecosystem. You need to test integration with Gmail, with plug-ins, and with other components.
- *Organization:* Do you approach the problem in a structured manner, or do you just spout off anything that comes to your head? Some candidates, when asked to come up with test cases for a camera, will just state anything and everything that comes to their head. A good candidate will break down the parts into categories like Taking Photos, Image Management, Settings, and so on. This structured approach will also help you to do a more thorough job creating the test cases.
- *Practicality:* Can you actually create reasonable testing plans? For example, if a user reports that the software crashes when they open a specific image, and you just tell them to reinstall the software, that’s typically not very practical. Your testing plans need to be feasible and realistic for a company to implement.

Demonstrating these aspects will show that you will be a valuable member of the testing team.

► Testing a Real World Object

Some candidates are surprised to be asked questions like how to test a pen. After all, you should be testing software, right? Maybe, but these “real world” questions are still very common. Let’s walk through this with an example.

Question: How would you test a paperclip?

Step 1: Who will use it? And why?

You need to discuss with your interviewer who is using the product and for what purpose. The answer may not be what you think. The answer could be “by teachers, to hold papers together,” or it could be “by artists, to bend into the shape of animal.” Or, it could be both. The answer to this question will shape how you handle the remaining questions.

Step 2: What are the use cases?

It will be useful for you to make a list of the use cases. In this case, the use case might be simply fastening paper together in a non-damaging (to the paper) way.

For other questions, there might be multiple use cases. It might be, for example, that the product needs to be able to send and receive content, or write and erase, and so on.

Step 3: What are the bounds of use?

The bounds of use might mean holding up to thirty sheets of paper in a single usage without permanent damage (e.g., bending), and thirty to fifty sheets with minimal permanent bending.

The bounds also extend to environmental factors as well. For example, should the paperclip work during very warm temperatures (90 - 110 degrees Fahrenheit)? What about extreme cold?

Step 4: What are the stress / failure conditions?

No product is fail-proof, so analyzing failure conditions needs to be part of your testing. A good discussion to have with your interviewer is about when it’s acceptable (or even necessary) for the product to fail, and what failure should mean.

For example, if you were testing a laundry machine, you might decide that the machine should be able to handle at least 30 shirts or pants. Loading 30 - 45 pieces of clothing may result in minor failure, such as the clothing being inadequately cleaned. At more than 45 pieces of clothing, extreme failure might be acceptable. However, extreme failure in this case should probably mean the machine never turning on the water. It should certainly *not* mean a flood or a fire.

Step 5: How would you perform the testing?

In some cases, it might also be relevant to discuss the details of performing the testing. For example, if you need to make sure a chair can withstand normal usage for five years, you probably can’t actually place it in a home and wait five years. Instead, you’d need to define what “normal” usage is (How many “sits” per year on the seat? What about the armrest?). Then, in addition to doing some manual testing, you would likely want a machine to automate some of the usage.

► Testing a Piece of Software

Testing a piece of software is actually very similar to testing a real world object. The major difference is that software testing generally places a greater emphasis on the details of performing testing.

Note that software testing has two core aspects to it:

- *Manual vs. Automated Testing:* In an ideal world, we might love to automate everything, but that's rarely feasible. Some things are simply much better with manual testing because some features are too qualitative for a computer to effectively examine (such as if content represents pornography). Additionally, whereas a computer can generally recognize only issues that it's been told to look for, human observation may reveal new issues that haven't been specifically examined. Both humans and computers form an essential part of the testing process.
- *Black Box Testing vs. White Box Testing:* This distinction refers to the degree of access we have into the software. In black box testing, we're just given the software as-is and need to test it. With white box testing, we have additional programmatic access to test individual functions. We can also automate some black box testing, although it's certainly much harder.

Let's walk through an approach from start to end.

Step 1: Are we doing Black Box Testing or White Box Testing?

Though this question can often be delayed to a later step, I like to get it out of the way early on. Check with your interviewer as to whether you're doing black box testing or white box testing—or both.

Step 2: Who will use it? And why?

Software typically has one or more target users, and the features are designed with this in mind. For example, if you're asked to test software for parental controls on a web browser, your target users include both parents (who are implementing the blocking) and children (who are the recipients of blocking). You may also have "guests" (people who should neither be implementing nor receiving blocking).

Step 3: What are the use cases?

In the software blocking scenario, the use cases of the parents include installing the software, updating controls, removing controls, and of course their own personal internet usage. For the children, the use cases include accessing legal content as well as "illegal" content.

Remember that it's not up to you to just magically decide the use cases. This is a conversation to have with your interviewer.

Step 4: What are the bounds of use?

Now that we have the vague use cases defined, we need to figure out what exactly this means. What does it mean for a website to be blocked? Should just the "illegal" page be blocked, or the entire website? Is the application supposed to "learn" what is bad content, or is it based on a white list or black list? If it's supposed to learn what inappropriate content is, what degree of false positives or false negatives is acceptable?

Step 5: What are the stress conditions / failure conditions?

When the software fails—which it inevitably will—what should the failure look like? Clearly, the software failure shouldn't crash the computer. Instead, it's likely that the software should just permit a blocked site,

or ban an allowable site. In the latter case, you might want to discuss the possibility of a selective override with a password from the parents.

Step 6: What are the test cases? How would you perform the testing?

Here is where the distinctions between manual and automated testing, and between black box and white box testing, really come into play.

Steps 3 and 4 should have roughly defined the use cases. In step 6, we further define them and discuss how to perform the testing. What exact situations are you testing? Which of these steps can be automated? Which require human intervention?

Remember that while automation allows you to do some very powerful testing, it also has some significant drawbacks. Manual testing should usually be part of your test procedures.

When you go through this list, don't just rattle off every scenario you can think of. It's disorganized, and you're sure to miss major categories. Instead, approach this in a structured manner. Break down your testing into the main components, and go from there. Not only will you give a more complete list of test cases, but you'll also show that you're a structured, methodical person.

► Testing a Function

In many ways, testing a function is the easiest type of testing. The conversation is typically briefer and less vague, as the testing is usually limited to validating input and output.

However, don't overlook the value of some conversation with your interviewer. You should discuss any assumptions with your interviewer, particularly with respect to how to handle specific situations.

Suppose you were asked to write code to test `sort(int[] array)`, which sorts an array of integers. You might proceed as follows.

Step 1: Define the test cases

In general, you should think about the following types of test cases:

- *The normal case:* Does it generate the correct output for typical inputs? Remember to think about potential issues here. For example, because sorting often requires some sort of partitioning, it's reasonable to think that the algorithm might fail on arrays with an odd number of elements, since they can't be evenly partitioned. Your test case should list both examples.
- *The extremes:* What happens when you pass in an empty array? Or a very small (one element) array? What if you pass in a very large one?
- *Nulls and "illegal" input:* It is worthwhile to think about how the code should behave when given illegal input. For example, if you're testing a function to generate the nth Fibonacci number, your test cases should probably include the situation where n is negative.
- *Strange input:* A fourth kind of input sometimes comes up: strange input. What happens when you pass in an already sorted array? Or an array that's sorted in reverse order?

Generating these tests does require knowledge of the function you are writing. If you are unclear as to the constraints, you will need to ask your interviewer about this first.

Step 2: Define the expected result

Often, the expected result is obvious: the right output. However, in some cases, you might want to validate additional aspects. For instance, if the `sort` method returns a new sorted copy of the array, you should probably validate that the original array has not been touched.

Step 3: Write test code

Once you have the test cases and results defined, writing the code to implement the test cases should be fairly straightforward. Your code might look something like:

```
1 void testAddThreeSorted() {  
2     myList list = new myList();  
3     list.addThreeSorted(3, 1, 2); // Adds 3 items in sorted order  
4     assertEquals(list.getElement(0), 1);  
5     assertEquals(list.getElement(1), 2);  
6     assertEquals(list.getElement(2), 3);  
7 }
```

► Troubleshooting Questions

A final type of question is explaining how you would debug or troubleshoot an existing issue. Many candidates balk at a question like this, giving unrealistic answers like “reinstall the software.” You can approach these questions in a structured manner, like anything else.

Let’s walk through this problem with an example: You’re working on the Google Chrome team when you receive a bug report: Chrome crashes on launch. What would you do?

Reinstalling the browser might solve this user’s problem, but it wouldn’t help the other users who might be experiencing the same issue. Your goal is to understand what’s *really* happening, so that the developers can fix it.

Step 1: Understand the Scenario

The first thing you should do is ask questions to understand as much about the situation as possible.

- How long has the user been experiencing this issue?
- What version of the browser is it? What operating system?
- Does the issue happen consistently, or how often does it happen? When does it happen?
- Is there an error report that launches?

Step 2: Break Down the Problem

Now that you understand the details of the scenario, you want to break down the problem into testable units. In this case, you can imagine the flow of the situation as follows:

1. Go to Windows Start menu.
2. Click on Chrome icon.
3. Browser instance starts.
4. Browser loads settings.
5. Browser issues HTTP request for homepage.

6. Browser gets HTTP response.
7. Browser parses webpage.
8. Browser displays content.

At some point in this process, something fails and it causes the browser to crash. A strong tester would iterate through the elements of this scenario to diagnose the problem.

Step 3: Create Specific, Manageable Tests

Each of the above components should have realistic instructions—things that you can ask the user to do, or things that you can do yourself (such as replicating steps on your own machine). In the real world, you will be dealing with customers, and you can't give them instructions that they can't or won't do.

Interview Questions

- 11.1 Mistake:** Find the mistake(s) in the following code:

```
unsigned int i;
for (i = 100; i >= 0; --i)
    printf("%d\n", i);
```

Hints: #257, #299, #362

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- 11.2 Random Crashes:** You are given the source to an application which crashes when it is run. After running it ten times in a debugger, you find it never crashes in the same place. The application is single threaded, and uses only the C standard library. What programming errors could be causing this crash? How would you test each one?

Hints: #325

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- 11.3 Chess Test:** We have the following method used in a chess game: boolean canMoveTo(int x, int y). This method is part of the Piece class and returns whether or not the piece can move to position (x, y). Explain how you would test this method.

Hints: #329, #401

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- 11.4 No Test Tools:** How would you load test a webpage without using any test tools?

Hints: #313, #345

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- 11.5 Test a Pen:** How would you test a pen?

Hints: #140, #164, #220

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- 11.6 Test an ATM:** How would you test an ATM in a distributed banking system?

Hints: #210, #225, #268, #349, #393

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Hints start on page 662.

12

C and C++

A good interviewer won't demand that you code in a language you don't profess to know. Hopefully, if you're asked to code in C++, it's listed on your resume. If you don't remember all the APIs, don't worry—most interviewers (though not all) don't care that much. We do recommend, however, studying up on basic C++ syntax so that you can approach these questions with ease.

► Classes and Inheritance

Though C++ classes have similar characteristics to those of other languages, we'll review some of the syntax below.

The code below demonstrates the implementation of a basic class with inheritance.

```
1 #include <iostream>
2 using namespace std;
3
4 #define NAME_SIZE 50 // Defines a macro
5
6 class Person {
7     int id; // all members are private by default
8     char name[NAME_SIZE];
9
10 public:
11     void aboutMe() {
12         cout << "I am a person.";
13     }
14 };
15
16 class Student : public Person {
17 public:
18     void aboutMe() {
19         cout << "I am a student.";
20     }
21 };
22
23 int main() {
24     Student * p = new Student();
25     p->aboutMe(); // prints "I am a student."
26     delete p; // Important! Make sure to delete allocated memory.
27     return 0;
28 }
```

All data members and methods are private by default in C++. One can modify this by introducing the keyword `public`.

► Constructors and Destructors

The constructor of a class is automatically called upon an object's creation. If no constructor is defined, the compiler automatically generates one called the Default Constructor. Alternatively, we can define our own constructor.

If you just need to initialize primitive types, a simple way to do it is this:

```
1 Person(int a) {
2     id = a;
3 }
```

This works for primitive types, but you might instead want to do this:

```
1 Person(int a) : id(a) {
2     ...
3 }
```

The data member `id` is assigned before the actual object is created and before the remainder of the constructor code is called. This approach is necessary when the fields are constant or class types.

The destructor cleans up upon object deletion and is automatically called when an object is destroyed. It cannot take an argument as we don't explicitly call a destructor.

```
1 ~Person() {
2     delete obj; // free any memory allocated within class
3 }
```

► Virtual Functions

In an earlier example, we defined `p` to be of type `Student`:

```
1 Student * p = new Student();
2 p->aboutMe();
```

What would happen if we defined `p` to be a `Person*`, like so?

```
1 Person * p = new Student();
2 p->aboutMe();
```

In this case, "I am a person" would be printed instead. This is because the function `aboutMe` is resolved at compile-time, in a mechanism known as *static binding*.

If we want to ensure that the `Student`'s implementation of `aboutMe` is called, we can define `aboutMe` in the `Person` class to be `virtual`.

```
1 class Person {
2     ...
3     virtual void aboutMe() {
4         cout << "I am a person.";
5     }
6 };
7
8 class Student : public Person {
9 public:
10     void aboutMe() {
11         cout << "I am a student.";
12     }
13 }
```

```
13 };
```

Another usage for virtual functions is when we can't (or don't want to) implement a method for the parent class. Imagine, for example, that we want `Student` and `Teacher` to inherit from `Person` so that we can implement a common method such as `addCourse(string s)`. Calling `addCourse` on `Person`, however, wouldn't make much sense since the implementation depends on whether the object is actually a `Student` or `Teacher`.

In this case, we might want `addCourse` to be a virtual function defined within `Person`, with the implementation being left to the subclass.

```
1  class Person {
2      int id; // all members are private by default
3      char name[NAME_SIZE];
4  public:
5      virtual void aboutMe() {
6          cout << "I am a person." << endl;
7      }
8      virtual bool addCourse(string s) = 0;
9  };
10
11 class Student : public Person {
12 public:
13     void aboutMe() {
14         cout << "I am a student." << endl;
15     }
16
17     bool addCourse(string s) {
18         cout << "Added course " << s << " to student." << endl;
19         return true;
20     }
21 };
22
23 int main() {
24     Person * p = new Student();
25     p->aboutMe(); // prints "I am a student."
26     p->addCourse("History");
27     delete p;
28 }
```

Note that by defining `addCourse` to be a "pure virtual function," `Person` is now an abstract class and we cannot instantiate it.

► Virtual Destructor

The virtual function naturally introduces the concept of a "virtual destructor." Suppose we wanted to implement a destructor method for `Person` and `Student`. A naive solution might look like this:

```
1  class Person {
2  public:
3      ~Person() {
4          cout << "Deleting a person." << endl;
5      }
6  };
7
8  class Student : public Person {
9  public:
```

```

10 ~Student() {
11     cout << "Deleting a student." << endl;
12 }
13 };
14
15 int main() {
16     Person * p = new Student();
17     delete p; // prints "Deleting a person."
18 }
```

As in the earlier example, since `p` is a `Person`, the destructor for the `Person` class is called. This is problematic because the memory for `Student` may not be cleaned up.

To fix this, we simply define the destructor for `Person` to be virtual.

```

1 class Person {
2     public:
3         virtual ~Person() {
4             cout << "Deleting a person." << endl;
5         }
6     };
7
8 class Student : public Person {
9     public:
10     ~Student() {
11         cout << "Deleting a student." << endl;
12     }
13 };
14
15 int main() {
16     Person * p = new Student();
17     delete p;
18 }
```

This will output the following:

```

Deleting a student.
Deleting a person.
```

► Default Values

Functions can specify default values, as shown below. Note that all default parameters must be on the right side of the function declaration, as there would be no other way to specify how the parameters line up.

```

1 int func(int a, int b = 3) {
2     x = a;
3     y = b;
4     return a + b;
5 }
6
7 w = func(4);
8 z = func(4, 5);
```

► Operator Overloading

Operator overloading enables us to apply operators like `+` to objects that would otherwise not support these operations. For example, if we wanted to merge two `BookShelves` into one, we could overload the `+` operator as follows.

```
1 BookShelf BookShelf::operator+(BookShelf &other) { ... }
```

► Pointers and References

A pointer holds the address of a variable and can be used to perform any operation that could be directly done on the variable, such as accessing and modifying it.

Two pointers can equal each other, such that changing one's value also changes the other's value (since they, in fact, point to the same address).

```
1 int * p = new int;
2 *p = 7;
3 int * q = p;
4 *p = 8;
5 cout << *q; // prints 8
```

Note that the size of a pointer varies depending on the architecture: 32 bits on a 32-bit machine and 64 bits on a 64-bit machine. Pay attention to this difference, as it's common for interviewers to ask exactly how much space a data structure takes up.

References

A reference is another name (an alias) for a pre-existing object and it does not have memory of its own. For example:

```
1 int a = 5;
2 int & b = a;
3 b = 7;
4 cout << a; // prints 7
```

In line 2 above, b is a reference to a; modifying b will also modify a.

You cannot create a reference without specifying where in memory it refers to. However, you can create a free-standing reference as shown below:

```
1 /* allocates memory to store 12 and makes b a reference to this
2 * piece of memory. */
3 const int & b = 12;
```

Unlike pointers, references cannot be null and cannot be reassigned to another piece of memory.

Pointer Arithmetic

One will often see programmers perform addition on a pointer, such as what you see below:

```
1 int * p = new int[2];
2 p[0] = 0;
3 p[1] = 1;
4 p++;
5 cout << *p; // Outputs 1
```

Performing p++ will skip ahead by `sizeof(int)` bytes, such that the code outputs 1. Had p been of different type, it would skip ahead as many bytes as the size of the data structure.

▶ Templates

Templates are a way of reusing code to apply the same class to different data types. For example, we might have a list-like data structure which we would like to use for lists of various types. The code below implements this with the `ShiftedList` class.

```

1  template <class T>class ShiftedList {
2      T* array;
3      int offset, size;
4  public:
5      ShiftedList(int sz) : offset(0), size(sz) {
6          array = new T[size];
7      }
8
9      ~ShiftedList() {
10         delete [] array;
11     }
12
13     void shiftBy(int n) {
14         offset = (offset + n) % size;
15     }
16
17     T getAt(int i) {
18         return array[convertIndex(i)];
19     }
20
21     void setAt(T item, int i) {
22         array[convertIndex(i)] = item;
23     }
24
25 private:
26     int convertIndex(int i) {
27         int index = (i - offset) % size;
28         while (index < 0) index += size;
29         return index;
30     }
31 };

```

Interview Questions

- 12.1 Last K Lines:** Write a method to print the last K lines of an input file using C++.

Hints: #449, #459

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- 12.2 Reverse String:** Implement a function `void reverse(char* str)` in C or C++ which reverses a null-terminated string.

Hints: #410, #452

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- 12.3 Hash Table vs. STL Map:** Compare and contrast a hash table and an STL map. How is a hash table implemented? If the number of inputs is small, which data structure options can be used instead of a hash table?

Hints: #423

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12.4 Virtual Functions: How do virtual functions work in C++?

Hints: #463

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12.5 Shallow vs. Deep Copy: What is the difference between deep copy and shallow copy? Explain how you would use each.

Hints: #445

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12.6 Volatile: What is the significance of the keyword "volatile" in C?

Hints: #456

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12.7 Virtual Base Class: Why does a destructor in base class need to be declared **virtual**?

Hints: #421, #460

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12.8 Copy Node: Write a method that takes a pointer to a Node structure as a parameter and returns a complete copy of the passed in data structure. The Node data structure contains two pointers to other Nodes.

Hints: #427, #462

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12.9 Smart Pointer: Write a smart pointer class. A smart pointer is a data type, usually implemented with templates, that simulates a pointer while also providing automatic garbage collection. It automatically counts the number of references to a `SmartPointer<T*>` object and frees the object of type T when the reference count hits zero.

Hints: #402, #438, #453

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12.10 Malloc: Write an aligned malloc and free function that supports allocating memory such that the memory address returned is divisible by a specific power of two.

EXAMPLE

`align_malloc(1000, 128)` will return a memory address that is a multiple of 128 and that points to memory of size 1000 bytes.

`aligned_free()` will free memory allocated by `align_malloc`.

Hints: #413, #432, #440

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12.11 2D Alloc: Write a function in C called `my2DAlloc` which allocates a two-dimensional array. Minimize the number of calls to `malloc` and make sure that the memory is accessible by the notation `arr[i][j]`.

Hints: #406, #418, #426

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Additional Questions: Linked Lists (#2.6), Testing (#11.1), Java (#13.4), Threads and Locks (#15.3).

Hints start on page 676.

13

Java

While Java-related questions are found throughout this book, this chapter deals with questions about the language and syntax. Such questions are more unusual at bigger companies, which believe more in testing a candidate's aptitude than a candidate's knowledge (and which have the time and resources to train a candidate in a particular language). However, at other companies, these pesky questions can be quite common.

► How to Approach

As these questions focus so much on knowledge, it may seem silly to talk about an approach to these problems. After all, isn't it just about knowing the right answer?

Yes and no. Of course, the best thing you can do to master these questions is to learn Java inside and out. But, if you do get stumped, you can try to tackle it with the following approach:

1. Create an example of the scenario, and ask yourself how things should play out.
2. Ask yourself how other languages would handle this scenario.
3. Consider how you would design this situation if you were the language designer. What would the implications of each choice be?

Your interviewer may be equally—or more—impressed if you can derive the answer than if you automatically knew it. Don't try to bluff though. Tell the interviewer, "I'm not sure I can recall the answer, but let me see if I can figure it out. Suppose we have this code..."

► Overloading vs. Overriding

Overloading is a term used to describe when two methods have the same name but differ in the type or number of arguments.

```
1 public double computeArea(Circle c) { ... }  
2 public double computeArea(Square s) { ... }
```

Overriding, however, occurs when a method shares the same name and function signature as another method in its super class.

```
1 public abstract class Shape {  
2     public void printMe() {  
3         System.out.println("I am a shape.");  
4     }  
5     public abstract double computeArea();  
6 }
```

```

7
8 public class Circle extends Shape {
9     private double rad = 5;
10    public void printMe() {
11        System.out.println("I am a circle.");
12    }
13
14    public double computeArea() {
15        return rad * rad * 3.14;
16    }
17 }
18
19 public class Ambiguous extends Shape {
20     private double area = 10;
21     public double computeArea() {
22         return area;
23     }
24 }
25
26 public class IntroductionOverriding {
27     public static void main(String[] args) {
28         Shape[] shapes = new Shape[2];
29         Circle circle = new Circle();
30         Ambiguous ambiguous = new Ambiguous();
31
32         shapes[0] = circle;
33         shapes[1] = ambiguous;
34
35         for (Shape s : shapes) {
36             s.printMe();
37             System.out.println(s.computeArea());
38         }
39     }
40 }

```

The above code will print:

```

1 I am a circle.
2 78.5
3 I am a shape.
4 10.0

```

Observe that `Circle` overrode `printMe()`, whereas `Ambiguous` just left this method as-is.

► Collection Framework

Java's collection framework is incredibly useful, and you will see it used throughout this book. Here are some of the most useful items:

ArrayList: An `ArrayList` is a dynamically resizing array, which grows as you insert elements.

```

1 ArrayList<String> myArr = new ArrayList<String>();
2 myArr.add("one");
3 myArr.add("two");
4 System.out.println(myArr.get(0)); /* prints <one> */

```

Vector: A `vector` is very similar to an `ArrayList`, except that it is synchronized. Its syntax is almost identical as well.

```

1 Vector<String> myVect = new Vector<String>();
2 myVect.add("one");
3 myVect.add("two");
4 System.out.println(myVect.get(0));

```

LinkedList: `LinkedList` is, of course, Java's built-in `LinkedList` class. Though it rarely comes up in an interview, it's useful to study because it demonstrates some of the syntax for an iterator.

```

1 LinkedList<String> myLinkedList = new LinkedList<String>();
2 myLinkedList.add("two");
3 myLinkedList.addFirst("one");
4 Iterator<String> iter = myLinkedList.iterator();
5 while (iter.hasNext()) {
6     System.out.println(iter.next());
7 }

```

HashMap: The `HashMap` collection is widely used, both in interviews and in the real world. We've provided a snippet of the syntax below.

```

1 HashMap<String, String> map = new HashMap<String, String>();
2 map.put("one", "uno");
3 map.put("two", "dos");
4 System.out.println(map.get("one"));

```

Before your interview, make sure you're very comfortable with the above syntax. You'll need it.

Interview Questions

Please note that because virtually all the solutions in this book are implemented with Java, we have selected only a small number of questions for this chapter. Moreover, most of these questions deal with the "trivia" of the language, since the rest of the book is filled with Java programming questions.

- 13.1 Private Constructor:** In terms of inheritance, what is the effect of keeping a constructor private?

Hints: #404

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- 13.2 Return from Finally:** In Java, does the `finally` block get executed if we insert a `return` statement inside the `try` block of a `try-catch-finally`?

Hints: #409

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- 13.3 Final, etc.:** What is the difference between `final`, `finally`, and `finalize`?

Hints: #412

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- 13.4 Generics vs. Templates:** Explain the difference between templates in C++ and generics in Java.

Hints: #416, #425

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- 13.5 TreeMap, HashMap, LinkedHashMap:** Explain the differences between `TreeMap`, `HashMap`, and `LinkedHashMap`. Provide an example of when each one would be best.

Hints: #420, #424, #430, #454

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13.6 Object Reflection: Explain what object reflection is in Java and why it is useful.

Hints: #435

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13.7 Lambda Expressions: There is a class `Country` that has methods `getContinent()` and `getPopulation()`. Write a function `int getPopulation(List<Country> countries, String continent)` that computes the total population of a given continent, given a list of all countries and the name of a continent.

Hints: #448, #461, #464

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13.8 Lambda Random: Using Lambda expressions, write a function `List<Integer> getRandomSubset(List<Integer> list)` that returns a random subset of arbitrary size. All subsets (including the empty set) should be equally likely to be chosen.

Hints: #443, #450, #457

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Additional Questions: Arrays and Strings (#1.3), Object-Oriented Design (#7.12), Threads and Locks (#15.3)

Hints start on page 676.

14

Databases

If you profess knowledge of databases, you might be asked some questions on it. We'll review some of the key concepts and offer an overview of how to approach these problems. As you read these queries, don't be surprised by minor variations in syntax. There are a variety of flavors of SQL, and you might have worked with a slightly different one. The examples in this book have been tested against Microsoft SQL Server.

► SQL Syntax and Variations

Implicit and explicit joins are shown below. These two statements are equivalent, and it's a matter of personal preference which one you choose. For consistency, we will stick to the explicit join.

Explicit Join	Implicit Join
1 SELECT CourseName, TeacherName	1 SELECT CourseName, TeacherName
2 FROM Courses INNER JOIN Teachers	2 FROM Courses, Teachers
3 ON Courses.TeacherID = Teachers.TeacherID	3 WHERE Courses.TeacherID = 4 Teachers.TeacherID

► Denormalized vs. Normalized Databases

Normalized databases are designed to minimize redundancy, while denormalized databases are designed to optimize read time.

In a traditional normalized database with data like Courses and Teachers, Courses might contain a column called TeacherID, which is a foreign key to Teacher. One benefit of this is that information about the teacher (name, address, etc.) is only stored once in the database. The drawback is that many common queries will require expensive joins.

Instead, we can denormalize the database by storing redundant data. For example, if we knew that we would have to repeat this query often, we might store the teacher's name in the Courses table. Denormalization is commonly used to create highly scalable systems.

► SQL Statements

Let's walk through a review of basic SQL syntax, using as an example the database that was mentioned earlier. This database has the following simple structure (* indicates a primary key):

Courses: CourseID*, CourseName, TeacherID
Teachers: TeacherID*, TeacherName
Students: StudentID*, StudentName

StudentCourses: CourseID*, StudentID*

Using the above table, implement the following queries.

Query 1: Student Enrollment

Implement a query to get a list of all students and how many courses each student is enrolled in.

At first, we might try something like this:

```
1 /* Incorrect Code */
2 SELECT Students.StudentName, count(*)
3 FROM Students INNER JOIN StudentCourses
4 ON Students.StudentID = StudentCourses.StudentID
5 GROUP BY Students.StudentID
```

This has three problems:

1. We have excluded students who are not enrolled in any courses, since `StudentCourses` only includes enrolled students. We need to change this to a LEFT JOIN.
2. Even if we changed it to a LEFT JOIN, the query is still not quite right. Doing `count(*)` would return how many items there are in a given group of `StudentIDs`. Students enrolled in zero courses would still have one item in their group. We need to change this to count the number of `CourseIDs` in each group: `count(StudentCourses.CourseID)`.
3. We've grouped by `Students.StudentID`, but there are still multiple `StudentNames` in each group. How will the database know which `StudentName` to return? Sure, they may all have the same value, but the database doesn't understand that. We need to apply an *aggregate* function to this, such as `first(Students.StudentName)`.

Fixing these issues gets us to this query:

```
1 /* Solution 1: Wrap with another query */
2 SELECT StudentName, Students.StudentID, Cnt
3 FROM (
4     SELECT Students.StudentID, count(StudentCourses.CourseID) as [Cnt]
5     FROM Students LEFT JOIN StudentCourses
6     ON Students.StudentID = StudentCourses.StudentID
7     GROUP BY Students.StudentID
8 ) T INNER JOIN Students on T.studentID = Students.StudentID
```

Looking at this code, one might ask why we don't just select the student name on line 3 to avoid having to wrap lines 3 through 6 with another query. This (incorrect) solution is shown below.

```
1 /* Incorrect Code */
1 SELECT StudentName, Students.StudentID, count(StudentCourses.CourseID) as [Cnt]
2 FROM Students LEFT JOIN StudentCourses
3 ON Students.StudentID = StudentCourses.StudentID
4 GROUP BY Students.StudentID
```

The answer is that we *can't* do that - at least not exactly as shown. We can only select values that are in an aggregate function or in the GROUP BY clause.

Alternatively, we could resolve the above issues with either of the following statements:

```
1 /* Solution 2: Add StudentName to GROUP BY clause. */
2 SELECT StudentName, Students.StudentID, count(StudentCourses.CourseID) as [Cnt]
3 FROM Students LEFT JOIN StudentCourses
4 ON Students.StudentID = StudentCourses.StudentID
5 GROUP BY Students.StudentID, Students.StudentName
```

OR

```

1  /* Solution 3: Wrap with aggregate function. */
2  SELECT max(StudentName) as [StudentName], Students.StudentID,
3         count(StudentCourses.CourseID) as [Count]
4  FROM Students LEFT JOIN StudentCourses
5  ON Students.StudentID = StudentCourses.StudentID
6  GROUP BY Students.StudentID

```

Query 2: Teacher Class Size

Implement a query to get a list of all teachers and how many students they each teach. If a teacher teaches the same student in two courses, you should double count the student. Sort the list in descending order of the number of students a teacher teaches.

We can construct this query step by step. First, let's get a list of TeacherIDs and how many students are associated with each TeacherID. This is very similar to the earlier query.

```

1  SELECT TeacherID, count(StudentCourses.CourseID) AS [Number]
2  FROM Courses INNER JOIN StudentCourses
3  ON Courses.CourseID = StudentCourses.CourseID
4  GROUP BY Courses.TeacherID

```

Note that this `INNER JOIN` will not select teachers who aren't teaching classes. We'll handle that in the below query when we join it with the list of all teachers.

```

1  SELECT TeacherName, isnull(StudentSize.Number, 0)
2  FROM Teachers LEFT JOIN
3      (SELECT TeacherID, count(StudentCourses.CourseID) AS [Number]
4       FROM Courses INNER JOIN StudentCourses
5       ON Courses.CourseID = StudentCourses.CourseID
6       GROUP BY Courses.TeacherID) StudentSize
7  ON Teachers.TeacherID = StudentSize.TeacherID
8  ORDER BY StudentSize.Number DESC

```

Note how we handled the `NUL` values in the `SELECT` statement to convert the `NUL` values to zeros.

► Small Database Design

Additionally, you might be asked to design your own database. We'll walk you through an approach for this. You might notice the similarities between this approach and the approach for object-oriented design.

Step 1: Handle Ambiguity

Database questions often have some ambiguity, intentionally or unintentionally. Before you proceed with your design, you must understand exactly what you need to design.

Imagine you are asked to design a system to represent an apartment rental agency. You will need to know whether this agency has multiple locations or just one. You should also discuss with your interviewer how general you should be. For example, it would be extremely rare for a person to rent two apartments in the same building. But does that mean you shouldn't be able to handle that? Maybe, maybe not. Some very rare conditions might be best handled through a work around (like duplicating the person's contact information in the database).

Step 2: Define the Core Objects

Next, we should look at the core objects of our system. Each of these core objects typically translates into a table. In this case, our core objects might be `Property`, `Building`, `Apartment`, `Tenant` and `Manager`.

Step 3: Analyze Relationships

Outlining the core objects should give us a good sense of what the tables should be. How do these tables relate to each other? Are they many-to-many? One-to-many?

If `Buildings` has a one-to-many relationship with `Apartments` (one Building has many Apartments), then we might represent this as follows:

Apartments	
ApartmentID	int
ApartmentAddress	varchar(100)
BuildingID	int

Buildings	
BuildingID	int
BuildingName	varchar(100)
BuildingAddress	varchar(500)

Note that the `Apartments` table links back to `Buildings` with a `BuildingID` column.

If we want to allow for the possibility that one person rents more than one apartment, we might want to implement a many-to-many relationship as follows:

TenantApartments	
TenantID	int
ApartmentID	int

Apartments	
ApartmentID	int
ApartmentAddress	varchar(500)
BuildingID	int

Tenants	
TenantID	int
TenantName	varchar(100)
TenantAddress	varchar(500)

The `TenantApartments` table stores a relationship between `Tenants` and `Apartments`.

Step 4: Investigate Actions

Finally, we fill in the details. Walk through the common actions that will be taken and understand how to store and retrieve the relevant data. We'll need to handle lease terms, moving out, rent payments, etc. Each of these actions requires new tables and columns.

► Large Database Design

When designing a large, scalable database, joins (which are required in the above examples) are generally very slow. Thus, you must *denormalize* your data. Think carefully about how data will be used—you'll probably need to duplicate the data in multiple tables.

Interview Questions

Questions 1 through 3 refer to the database schema at the end of the chapter. Each apartment can have multiple tenants, and each tenant can have multiple apartments. Each apartment belongs to one building, and each building belongs to one complex.

- 14.1 Multiple Apartments:** Write a SQL query to get a list of tenants who are renting more than one apartment.

Hints: #408

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- 14.2 Open Requests:** Write a SQL query to get a list of all buildings and the number of open requests (Requests in which status equals ‘Open’).

Hints: #411

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- 14.3 Close All Requests:** Building #11 is undergoing a major renovation. Implement a query to close all requests from apartments in this building.

Hints: #431

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- 14.4 Joins:** What are the different types of joins? Please explain how they differ and why certain types are better in certain situations.

Hints: #451

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- 14.5 Denormalization:** What is denormalization? Explain the pros and cons.

Hints: #444, #455

pg 443

- 14.6 Entity-Relationship Diagram:** Draw an entity-relationship diagram for a database with companies, people, and professionals (people who work for companies).

Hints: #436

pg 444

- 14.7 Design Grade Database:** Imagine a simple database storing information for students’ grades. Design what this database might look like and provide a SQL query to return a list of the honor roll students (top 10%), sorted by their grade point average.

Hints: #428, #442

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Additional Questions: Object-Oriented Design (#7.7), System Design and Scalability (#9.6)

Hints start on page 676.

Apartments	
AptID	int
UnitNumber	varchar(10)
BuildingID	int

Buildings	
BuildingID	int
ComplexID	int
BuildingName	varchar(100)
Address	varchar(500)

Requests	
RequestID	int
Status	varchar(100)
AptID	int
Description	varchar(500)

Complexes	
ComplexID	int
ComplexName	varchar(100)

AptTenants	
TenantID	int
AptID	int

Tenants	
TenantID	int
TenantName	varchar(100)

15

Threads and Locks

In a Microsoft, Google or Amazon interview, it's not terribly common to be asked to implement an algorithm with threads (unless you're working in a team for which this is a particularly important skill). It is, however, relatively common for interviewers at any company to assess your general understanding of threads, particularly your understanding of deadlocks.

This chapter will provide an introduction to this topic.

► Threads in Java

Every thread in Java is created and controlled by a unique object of the `java.lang.Thread` class. When a standalone application is run, a user thread is automatically created to execute the `main()` method. This thread is called the main thread.

In Java, we can implement threads in one of two ways:

- By implementing the `java.lang.Runnable` interface
- By extending the `java.lang.Thread` class

We will cover both of these below.

Implementing the Runnable Interface

The `Runnable` interface has the following very simple structure.

```
1 public interface Runnable {  
2     void run();  
3 }
```

To create and use a thread using this interface, we do the following:

1. Create a class which implements the `Runnable` interface. An object of this class is a `Runnable` object.
2. Create an object of type `Thread` by passing a `Runnable` object as argument to the `Thread` constructor. The `Thread` object now has a `Runnable` object that implements the `run()` method.
3. The `start()` method is invoked on the `Thread` object created in the previous step.

For example:

```
1 public class RunnableThreadExample implements Runnable {  
2     public int count = 0;  
3  
4     public void run() {  
5         System.out.println("RunnableThread starting.");  
6     }  
7 }
```

```

6   try {
7     while (count < 5) {
8       Thread.sleep(500);
9       count++;
10    }
11 } catch (InterruptedException exc) {
12   System.out.println("RunnableThread interrupted.");
13 }
14 System.out.println("RunnableThread terminating.");
15 }
16 }
17
18 public static void main(String[] args) {
19   RunnableThreadExample instance = new RunnableThreadExample();
20   Thread thread = new Thread(instance);
21   thread.start();
22
23 /* waits until above thread counts to 5 (slowly) */
24 while (instance.count != 5) {
25   try {
26     Thread.sleep(250);
27   } catch (InterruptedException exc) {
28     exc.printStackTrace();
29   }
30 }
31 }
```

In the above code, observe that all we really needed to do is have our class implement the `run()` method (line 4). Another method can then pass an instance of the class to `new Thread(obj)` (lines 19 - 20) and call `start()` on the thread (line 21).

Extending the Thread Class

Alternatively, we can create a thread by extending the `Thread` class. This will almost always mean that we override the `run()` method, and the subclass may also call the thread constructor explicitly in its constructor.

The below code provides an example of this.

```

1  public class ThreadExample extends Thread {
2   int count = 0;
3
4   public void run() {
5     System.out.println("Thread starting.");
6     try {
7       while (count < 5) {
8         Thread.sleep(500);
9         System.out.println("In Thread, count is " + count);
10        count++;
11      }
12    } catch (InterruptedException exc) {
13      System.out.println("Thread interrupted.");
14    }
15    System.out.println("Thread terminating.");
16  }
17 }
```

```
19 public class ExampleB {  
20     public static void main(String args[]) {  
21         ThreadExample instance = new ThreadExample();  
22         instance.start();  
23     }  
24     while (instance.count != 5) {  
25         try {  
26             Thread.sleep(250);  
27         } catch (InterruptedException exc) {  
28             exc.printStackTrace();  
29         }  
30     }  
31 }  
32 }
```

This code is very similar to the first approach. The difference is that since we are extending the `Thread` class, rather than just implementing an interface, we can call `start()` on the instance of the class itself.

Extending the Thread Class vs. Implementing the Runnable Interface

When creating threads, there are two reasons why implementing the `Runnable` interface may be preferable to extending the `Thread` class:

- Java does not support multiple inheritance. Therefore, extending the `Thread` class means that the subclass cannot extend any other class. A class implementing the `Runnable` interface will be able to extend another class.
- A class might only be interested in being runnable, and therefore, inheriting the full overhead of the `Thread` class would be excessive.

► Synchronization and Locks

Threads within a given process share the same memory space, which is both a positive and a negative. It enables threads to share data, which can be valuable. However, it also creates the opportunity for issues when two threads modify a resource at the same time. Java provides synchronization in order to control access to shared resources.

The keyword `synchronized` and the `lock` form the basis for implementing synchronized execution of code.

Synchronized Methods

Most commonly, we restrict access to shared resources through the use of the `synchronized` keyword. It can be applied to methods and code blocks, and restricts multiple threads from executing the code simultaneously *on the same object*.

To clarify the last point, consider the following code:

```
1  public class MyClass extends Thread {  
2      private String name;  
3      private MyObject myObj;  
4  
5      public MyClass(MyObject obj, String n) {  
6          name = n;  
7          myObj = obj;  
8      }
```

```

9
10    public void run() {
11        myObj.foo(name);
12    }
13 }
14
15 public class MyObject {
16     public synchronized void foo(String name) {
17         try {
18             System.out.println("Thread " + name + ".foo(): starting");
19             Thread.sleep(3000);
20             System.out.println("Thread " + name + ".foo(): ending");
21         } catch (InterruptedException exc) {
22             System.out.println("Thread " + name + ": interrupted.");
23         }
24     }
25 }

```

Can two instances of `MyClass` call `foo` at the same time? It depends. If they have the same instance of `MyObject`, then no. But, if they hold different references, then the answer is yes.

```

1 /* Difference references - both threads can call MyObject.foo() */
2 MyObject obj1 = new MyObject();
3 MyObject obj2 = new MyObject();
4 MyClass thread1 = new MyClass(obj1, "1");
5 MyClass thread2 = new MyClass(obj2, "2");
6 thread1.start();
7 thread2.start()
8
9 /* Same reference to obj. Only one will be allowed to call foo,
10 * and the other will be forced to wait. */
11 MyObject obj = new MyObject();
12 MyClass thread1 = new MyClass(obj, "1");
13 MyClass thread2 = new MyClass(obj, "2");
14 thread1.start()
15 thread2.start()

```

Static methods synchronize on the *class lock*. The two threads above could not simultaneously execute synchronized static methods on the same class, even if one is calling `foo` and the other is calling `bar`.

```

1 public class MyClass extends Thread {
2 ...
3     public void run() {
4         if (name.equals("1")) MyObject.foo(name);
5         else if (name.equals("2")) MyObject.bar(name);
6     }
7 }
8
9 public class MyObject {
10     public static synchronized void foo(String name) { /* same as before */ }
11     public static synchronized void bar(String name) { /* same as foo */ }
12 }

```

If you run this code, you will see the following printed:

```

Thread 1.foo(): starting
Thread 1.foo(): ending
Thread 2.bar(): starting
Thread 2.bar(): ending

```

Synchronized Blocks

Similarly, a block of code can be synchronized. This operates very similarly to synchronizing a method.

```

1  public class MyClass extends Thread {
2      ...
3      public void run() {
4          myObj.foo(name);
5      }
6  }
7  public class MyObject {
8      public void foo(String name) {
9          synchronized(this) {
10         ...
11     }
12 }
13 }
```

Like synchronizing a method, only one thread per instance of `MyObject` can execute the code within the `synchronized` block. That means that, if `thread1` and `thread2` have the same instance of `MyObject`, only one will be allowed to execute the code block at a time.

Locks

For more granular control, we can utilize a lock. A lock (or monitor) is used to synchronize access to a shared resource by associating the resource with the lock. A thread gets access to a shared resource by first acquiring the lock associated with the resource. At any given time, at most one thread can hold the lock and, therefore, only one thread can access the shared resource.

A common use case for locks is when a resource is accessed from multiple places, but should be only accessed by one thread *at a time*. This case is demonstrated in the code below.

```

1  public class LockedATM {
2      private Lock lock;
3      private int balance = 100;
4
5      public LockedATM() {
6          lock = new ReentrantLock();
7      }
8
9      public int withdraw(int value) {
10         lock.lock();
11         int temp = balance;
12         try {
13             Thread.sleep(100);
14             temp = temp - value;
15             Thread.sleep(100);
16             balance = temp;
17         } catch (InterruptedException e) { }
18         lock.unlock();
19         return temp;
20     }
21
22     public int deposit(int value) {
23         lock.lock();
24         int temp = balance;
25         try {
26             Thread.sleep(100);
```

```

27     temp = temp + value;
28     Thread.sleep(300);
29     balance = temp;
30 } catch (InterruptedException e) {      }
31 lock.unlock();
32 return temp;
33 }
34 }
```

Of course, we've added code to intentionally slow down the execution of `withdraw` and `deposit`, as it helps to illustrate the potential problems that can occur. You may not write code exactly like this, but the situation it mirrors is very, very real. Using a lock will help protect a shared resource from being modified in unexpected ways.

► Deadlocks and Deadlock Prevention

A deadlock is a situation where a thread is waiting for an object lock that another thread holds, and this second thread is waiting for an object lock that the first thread holds (or an equivalent situation with several threads). Since each thread is waiting for the other thread to relinquish a lock, they both remain waiting forever. The threads are said to be deadlocked.

In order for a deadlock to occur, you must have all four of the following conditions met:

- Mutual Exclusion:* Only one process can access a resource at a given time. (Or, more accurately, there is limited access to a resource. A deadlock could also occur if a resource has limited quantity.)
- Hold and Wait:* Processes already holding a resource can request additional resources, without relinquishing their current resources.
- No Preemption:* One process cannot forcibly remove another process' resource.
- Circular Wait:* Two or more processes form a circular chain where each process is waiting on another resource in the chain.

Deadlock prevention entails removing any of the above conditions, but it gets tricky because many of these conditions are difficult to satisfy. For instance, removing #1 is difficult because many resources can only be used by one process at a time (e.g., printers). Most deadlock prevention algorithms focus on avoiding condition #4: circular wait.

Interview Questions

15.1 Thread vs. Process: What's the difference between a thread and a process?

Hints: #405

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15.2 Context Switch: How would you measure the time spent in a context switch?

Hints: #403, #407, #415, #441

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- 15.3 Dining Philosophers:** In the famous dining philosophers problem, a bunch of philosophers are sitting around a circular table with one chopstick between each of them. A philosopher needs both chopsticks to eat, and always picks up the left chopstick before the right one. A deadlock could potentially occur if all the philosophers reached for the left chopstick at the same time. Using threads and locks, implement a simulation of the dining philosophers problem that prevents deadlocks.

Hints: #419, #437

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- 15.4 Deadlock-Free Class:** Design a class which provides a lock only if there are no possible deadlocks.

Hints: #422, #434

pg 452

- 15.5 Call In Order:** Suppose we have the following code:

```
public class Foo {
    public Foo() { ... }
    public void first() { ... }
    public void second() { ... }
    public void third() { ... }
}
```

The same instance of Foo will be passed to three different threads. ThreadA will call first, threadB will call second, and threadC will call third. Design a mechanism to ensure that first is called before second and second is called before third.

Hints: #417, #433, #446

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- 15.6 Synchronized Methods:** You are given a class with synchronized method A and a normal method B. If you have two threads in one instance of a program, can they both execute A at the same time? Can they execute A and B at the same time?

Hints: #429

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- 15.7 FizzBuzz:** In the classic problem FizzBuzz, you are told to print the numbers from 1 to n. However, when the number is divisible by 3, print "Fizz". When it is divisible by 5, print "Buzz". When it is divisible by 3 and 5, print "FizzBuzz". In this problem, you are asked to do this in a multithreaded way. Implement a multithreaded version of FizzBuzz with four threads. One thread checks for divisibility of 3 and prints "Fizz". Another thread is responsible for divisibility of 5 and prints "Buzz". A third thread is responsible for divisibility of 3 and 5 and prints "FizzBuzz". A fourth thread does the numbers.

Hints: #414, #439, #447, #458

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Hints start on page 676.

16

Moderate

- 16.1 Number Swapper:** Write a function to swap a number in place (that is, without temporary variables).

Hints: #492, #716, #737

pg 462

- 16.2 Word Frequencies:** Design a method to find the frequency of occurrences of any given word in a book. What if we were running this algorithm multiple times?

Hints: #489, #536

pg 463

- 16.3 Intersection:** Given two straight line segments (represented as a start point and an end point), compute the point of intersection, if any.

Hints: #465, #472, #497, #517, #527

pg 464

- 16.4 Tic Tac Win:** Design an algorithm to figure out if someone has won a game of tic-tac-toe.

Hints: #710, #732

pg 466

- 16.5 Factorial Zeros:** Write an algorithm which computes the number of trailing zeros in n factorial.

Hints: #585, #711, #729, #733, #745

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- 16.6 Smallest Difference:** Given two arrays of integers, compute the pair of values (one value in each array) with the smallest (non-negative) difference. Return the difference.

EXAMPLE

Input: {1, 3, 15, 11, 2}, {23, 127, 235, 19, 8}

Output: 3. That is, the pair (11, 8).

Hints: #632, #670, #679

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- 16.7 Number Max:** Write a method that finds the maximum of two numbers. You should not use if-else or any other comparison operator.

Hints: #473, #513, #707, #728

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- 16.8 English Int:** Given any integer, print an English phrase that describes the integer (e.g., "One Thousand, Two Hundred Thirty Four").

Hints: #502, #588, #688

pg 477

- 16.9 Operations:** Write methods to implement the multiply, subtract, and divide operations for integers. The results of all of these are integers. Use only the add operator.

Hints: #572, #600, #613, #648

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- 16.10 Living People:** Given a list of people with their birth and death years, implement a method to compute the year with the most number of people alive. You may assume that all people were born between 1900 and 2000 (inclusive). If a person was alive during any portion of that year, they should be included in that year's count. For example, Person (birth = 1908, death = 1909) is included in the counts for both 1908 and 1909.

Hints: #476, #490, #507, #514, #523, #532, #541, #549, #576

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- 16.11 Diving Board:** You are building a diving board by placing a bunch of planks of wood end-to-end. There are two types of planks, one of length shorter and one of length longer. You must use exactly K planks of wood. Write a method to generate all possible lengths for the diving board.

Hints: #690, #700, #715, #722, #740, #747

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- 16.12 XML Encoding:** Since XML is very verbose, you are given a way of encoding it where each tag gets mapped to a pre-defined integer value. The language/grammar is as follows:

```
Element    --> Tag Attributes END Children END
Attribute   --> Tag Value
END         --> 0
Tag          --> some predefined mapping to int
Value        --> string value
```

For example, the following XML might be converted into the compressed string below (assuming a mapping of family -> 1, person -> 2, firstName -> 3, lastName -> 4, state -> 5).

```
<family lastName="McDowell" state="CA">
    <person firstName="Gayle">Some Message</person>
</family>
```

Becomes:

```
1 4 McDowell 5 CA 0 2 3 Gayle 0 Some Message 0 0
```

Write code to print the encoded version of an XML element (passed in Element and Attribute objects).

Hints: #466

pg 489

- 16.13 Bisect Squares:** Given two squares on a two-dimensional plane, find a line that would cut these two squares in half. Assume that the top and the bottom sides of the square run parallel to the x-axis.

Hints: #468, #479, #528, #560

pg 490

- 16.14 Best Line:** Given a two-dimensional graph with points on it, find a line which passes the most number of points.

Hints: #491, #520, #529, #563

pg 492

- 16.15 Master Mind:** The Game of Master Mind is played as follows:

The computer has four slots, and each slot will contain a ball that is red (R), yellow (Y), green (G) or blue (B). For example, the computer might have RGGB (Slot #1 is red, Slots #2 and #3 are green, Slot #4 is blue).

You, the user, are trying to guess the solution. You might, for example, guess YRGB.

When you guess the correct color for the correct slot, you get a "hit." If you guess a color that exists but is in the wrong slot, you get a "pseudo-hit." Note that a slot that is a hit can never count as a pseudo-hit.

For example, if the actual solution is RGBY and you guess GGRR, you have one hit and one pseudo-hit.

Write a method that, given a guess and a solution, returns the number of hits and pseudo-hits.

Hints: #639, #730

pg 494

- 16.16 Sub Sort:** Given an array of integers, write a method to find indices m and n such that if you sorted elements m through n , the entire array would be sorted. Minimize $n - m$ (that is, find the smallest such sequence).

EXAMPLE

Input: 1, 2, 4, 7, 10, 11, 7, 12, 6, 7, 16, 18, 19

Output: (3, 9)

Hints: #482, #553, #667, #708, #735, #746

pg 496

- 16.17 Contiguous Sequence:** You are given an array of integers (both positive and negative). Find the contiguous sequence with the largest sum. Return the sum.

EXAMPLE

Input: 2, -8, 3, -2, 4, -10

Output: 5 (i.e., {3, -2, 4})

Hints: #531, #551, #567, #594, #614

pg 498

- 16.18 Pattern Matching:** You are given two strings, `pattern` and `value`. The `pattern` string consists of just the letters a and b, describing a pattern within a string. For example, the string catcatgocatgo matches the pattern aabab (where cat is a and go is b). It also matches patterns like a, ab, and b. Write a method to determine if `value` matches `pattern`.

Hints: #631, #643, #653, #663, #685, #718, #727

pg 499

16.19 Pond Sizes: You have an integer matrix representing a plot of land, where the value at that location represents the height above sea level. A value of zero indicates water. A pond is a region of water connected vertically, horizontally, or diagonally. The size of the pond is the total number of connected water cells. Write a method to compute the sizes of all ponds in the matrix.

EXAMPLE

Input:

```
0 2 1 0
0 1 0 1
1 1 0 1
0 1 0 1
```

Output: 2, 4, 1 (in any order)

Hints: #674, #687, #706, #723

pg 503

16.20 T9: On old cell phones, users typed on a numeric keypad and the phone would provide a list of words that matched these numbers. Each digit mapped to a set of 0 - 4 letters. Implement an algorithm to return a list of matching words, given a sequence of digits. You are provided a list of valid words (provided in whatever data structure you'd like). The mapping is shown in the diagram below:

1	2 abc	3 def
4 ghi	5 jkl	6 mno
7 pqrs	8 tuv	9 wxyz
	0	

EXAMPLE

Input: 8733

Output: tree, used

Hints: #471, #487, #654, #703, #726, #744

pg 505

16.21 Sum Swap: Given two arrays of integers, find a pair of values (one value from each array) that you can swap to give the two arrays the same sum.

EXAMPLE

Input: {4, 1, 2, 1, 1, 2} and {3, 6, 3, 3}

Output: {1, 3}

Hints: #545, #557, #564, #571, #583, #592, #602, #606, #635

pg 509

- 16.22 Langton's Ant:** An ant is sitting on an infinite grid of white and black squares. It initially faces right. At each step, it does the following:

- (1) At a white square, flip the color of the square, turn 90 degrees right (clockwise), and move forward one unit.
- (2) At a black square, flip the color of the square, turn 90 degrees left (counter-clockwise), and move forward one unit.

Write a program to simulate the first K moves that the ant makes and print the final board as a grid. Note that you are not provided with the data structure to represent the grid. This is something you must design yourself. The only input to your method is K. You should print the final grid and return nothing. The method signature might be something like void printKMoves(int K).

Hints: #474, #481, #533, #540, #559, #570, #599, #616, #627

pg 512

- 16.23 Rand7 from Rand5:** Implement a method rand7() given rand5(). That is, given a method that generates a random number between 0 and 4 (inclusive), write a method that generates a random number between 0 and 6 (inclusive).

Hints: #505, #574, #637, #668, #697, #720

pg 518

- 16.24 Pairs with Sum:** Design an algorithm to find all pairs of integers within an array which sum to a specified value.

Hints: #548, #597, #644, #673

pg 520

- 16.25 LRU Cache:** Design and build a “least recently used” cache, which evicts the least recently used item. The cache should map from keys to values (allowing you to insert and retrieve a value associated with a particular key) and be initialized with a max size. When it is full, it should evict the least recently used item.

Hints: #524, #630, #694

pg 521

- 16.26 Calculator:** Given an arithmetic equation consisting of positive integers, +, -, * and / (no parentheses), compute the result.

EXAMPLE

Input: $2*3+5/6*3+15$

Output: 23.5

Hints: #521, #624, #665, #698

pg 524

17

Hard

- 17.1 Add Without Plus:** Write a function that adds two numbers. You should not use + or any arithmetic operators.

Hints: #467, #544, #601, #628, #642, #664, #692, #712, #724

pg 530

- 17.2 Shuffle:** Write a method to shuffle a deck of cards. It must be a perfect shuffle—in other words, each of the $52!$ permutations of the deck has to be equally likely. Assume that you are given a random number generator which is perfect.

Hints: #483, #579, #634

pg 531

- 17.3 Random Set:** Write a method to randomly generate a set of m integers from an array of size n . Each element must have equal probability of being chosen.

Hints: #494, #596

pg 532

- 17.4 Missing Number:** An array A contains all the integers from 0 to n , except for one number which is missing. In this problem, we cannot access an entire integer in A with a single operation. The elements of A are represented in binary, and the only operation we can use to access them is “fetch the j th bit of $A[i]$,” which takes constant time. Write code to find the missing integer. Can you do it in $O(n)$ time?

Hints: #610, #659, #683

pg 533

- 17.5 Letters and Numbers:** Given an array filled with letters and numbers, find the longest subarray with an equal number of letters and numbers.

Hints: #485, #515, #619, #671, #713

pg 536

- 17.6 Count of 2s:** Write a method to count the number of 2s that appear in all the numbers between 0 and n (inclusive).

EXAMPLE

Input: 25

Output: 9 (2, 12, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24 and 25. Note that 22 counts for two 2s.)

Hints: #573, #612, #641

pg 538

- 17.7 Baby Names:** Each year, the government releases a list of the 10000 most common baby names and their frequencies (the number of babies with that name). The only problem with this is that some names have multiple spellings. For example, "John" and "Jon" are essentially the same name but would be listed separately in the list. Given two lists, one of names/frequencies and the other of pairs of equivalent names, write an algorithm to print a new list of the true frequency of each name. Note that if John and Jon are synonyms, and Jon and Johnny are synonyms, then John and Johnny are synonyms. (It is both transitive and symmetric.) In the final list, any name can be used as the "real" name.

EXAMPLE

Input:

Names: John (15), Jon (12), Chris (13), Kris (4), Christopher (19)

Synonyms: (Jon, John), (John, Johnny), (Chris, Kris), (Chris, Christopher)

Output: John (27), Kris (36)

Hints: #478, #493, #512, #537, #586, #605, #655, #675, #704

pg 541

- 17.8 Circus Tower:** A circus is designing a tower routine consisting of people standing atop one another's shoulders. For practical and aesthetic reasons, each person must be both shorter and lighter than the person below him or her. Given the heights and weights of each person in the circus, write a method to compute the largest possible number of people in such a tower.

EXAMPLE

Input (ht, wt): (65, 100) (70, 150) (56, 90) (75, 190) (60, 95) (68, 110)

Output: The longest tower is length 6 and includes from top to bottom:

(56, 90) (60, 95) (65, 100) (68, 110) (70, 150) (75, 190)

Hints: #638, #657, #666, #682, #699

pg 546

- 17.9 Kth Multiple:** Design an algorithm to find the kth number such that the only prime factors are 3, 5, and 7. Note that 3, 5, and 7 do not have to be factors, but it should not have any other prime factors. For example, the first several multiples would be (in order) 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 15, 21.

Hints: #488, #508, #550, #591, #622, #660, #686

pg 549

- 17.10 Majority Element:** A majority element is an element that makes up more than half of the items in an array. Given a positive integers array, find the majority element. If there is no majority element, return -1. Do this in $O(N)$ time and $O(1)$ space.

EXAMPLE

Input: 1 2 5 9 5 9 5 5 5

Output: 5

Hints: #522, #566, #604, #620, #650

pg 554

- 17.11 Word Distance:** You have a large text file containing words. Given any two words, find the shortest distance (in terms of number of words) between them in the file. If the operation will be repeated many times for the same file (but different pairs of words), can you optimize your solution?

Hints: #486, #501, #538, #558, #633

pg 557

17.12 BiNode: Consider a simple data structure called BiNode, which has pointers to two other nodes.

```
public class BiNode {
    public BiNode node1, node2;
    public int data;
}
```

The data structure BiNode could be used to represent both a binary tree (where node1 is the left node and node2 is the right node) or a doubly linked list (where node1 is the previous node and node2 is the next node). Implement a method to convert a binary search tree (implemented with BiNode) into a doubly linked list. The values should be kept in order and the operation should be performed in place (that is, on the original data structure).

Hints: #509, #608, #646, #680, #701, #719

pg 560

17.13 Re-Space: Oh, no! You have accidentally removed all spaces, punctuation, and capitalization in a lengthy document. A sentence like "I reset the computer. It still didn't boot!" became "iresetthecomputeritstilldidntboot". You'll deal with the punctuation and capitalization later; right now you need to re-insert the spaces. Most of the words are in a dictionary but a few are not. Given a dictionary (a list of strings) and the document (a string), design an algorithm to unconcatenate the document in a way that minimizes the number of unrecognized characters.

EXAMPLE:

Input: jesslookedjustliketimherbrother

Output: jess looked just like tim her brother (7 unrecognized characters)

Hints: #496, #623, #656, #677, #739, #749

pg 563

17.14 Smallest K: Design an algorithm to find the smallest K numbers in an array.

Hints: #470, #530, #552, #593, #625, #647, #661, #678

pg 567

17.15 Longest Word: Given a list of words, write a program to find the longest word made of other words in the list.

EXAMPLE

Input: cat, banana, dog, nana, walk, walker, dogwalker

Output: dogwalker

Hints: #475, #499, #543, #589

pg 572

17.16 The Masseuse: A popular masseuse receives a sequence of back-to-back appointment requests and is debating which ones to accept. She needs a 15-minute break between appointments and therefore she cannot accept any adjacent requests. Given a sequence of back-to-back appointment requests (all multiples of 15 minutes, none overlap, and none can be moved), find the optimal (highest total booked minutes) set the masseuse can honor. Return the number of minutes.

EXAMPLE

Input: {30, 15, 60, 75, 45, 15, 15, 45}

Output: 180 minutes ({30, 60, 45, 45}).

Hints: #495, #504, #516, #526, #542, #554, #562, #568, #578, #587, #607

pg 574

- 17.17 Multi Search:** Given a string b and an array of smaller strings T , design a method to search b for each small string in T .

Hints: #480, #582, #617, #743

pg 578

- 17.18 Shortest Supersequence:** You are given two arrays, one shorter (with all distinct elements) and one longer. Find the shortest subarray in the longer array that contains all the elements in the shorter array. The items can appear in any order.

EXAMPLE

Input: {1, 5, 9} | {7, 5, 9, 0, 2, 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 1, 1, 5, 8, 8, 9, 7}

Output: [7, 10] (the underlined portion above)

Hints: #645, #652, #669, #681, #691, #725, #731, #741

pg 584

- 17.19 Missing Two:** You are given an array with all the numbers from 1 to N appearing exactly once, except for one number that is missing. How can you find the missing number in $O(N)$ time and $O(1)$ space? What if there were two numbers missing?

Hints: #503, #590, #609, #626, #649, #672, #689, #696, #702, #717

pg 591

- 17.20 Continuous Median:** Numbers are randomly generated and passed to a method. Write a program to find and maintain the median value as new values are generated.

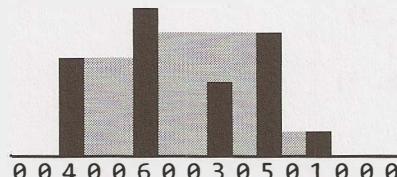
Hints: #519, #546, #575, #709

pg 595

- 17.21 Volume of Histogram:** Imagine a histogram (bar graph). Design an algorithm to compute the volume of water it could hold if someone poured water across the top. You can assume that each histogram bar has width 1.

EXAMPLE (Black bars are the histogram. Gray is water.)

Input: {0, 0, 4, 0, 0, 6, 0, 0, 3, 0, 5, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0}



Output: 26

Hints: #629, #640, #651, #658, #662, #676, #693, #734, #742

pg 596

- 17.22 Word Transformer:** Given two words of equal length that are in a dictionary, write a method to transform one word into another word by changing only one letter at a time. The new word you get in each step must be in the dictionary.

EXAMPLE

Input: DAMP, LIKE

Output: DAMP -> LAMP -> LIMP -> LIME -> LIKE

Hints: #506, #535, #556, #580, #598, #618, #738

pg 602

- 17.23 Max Black Square:** Imagine you have a square matrix, where each cell (pixel) is either black or white. Design an algorithm to find the maximum subsquare such that all four borders are filled with black pixels.

Hints: #684, #695, #705, #714, #721, #736

pg 608

- 17.24 Max Submatrix:** Given an NxN matrix of positive and negative integers, write code to find the submatrix with the largest possible sum.

Hints: #469, #511, #525, #539, #565, #581, #595, #615, #621

pg 611

- 17.25 Word Rectangle:** Given a list of millions of words, design an algorithm to create the largest possible rectangle of letters such that every row forms a word (reading left to right) and every column forms a word (reading top to bottom). The words need not be chosen consecutively from the list, but all rows must be the same length and all columns must be the same height.

Hints: #477, #500, #748

pg 615

- 17.26 Sparse Similarity:** The similarity of two documents (each with distinct words) is defined to be the size of the intersection divided by the size of the union. For example, if the documents consist of integers, the similarity of {1, 5, 3} and {1, 7, 2, 3} is 0.4, because the intersection has size 2 and the union has size 5.

We have a long list of documents (with distinct values and each with an associated ID) where the similarity is believed to be "sparse." That is, any two arbitrarily selected documents are very likely to have similarity 0. Design an algorithm that returns a list of pairs of document IDs and the associated similarity.

Print only the pairs with similarity greater than 0. Empty documents should not be printed at all. For simplicity, you may assume each document is represented as an array of distinct integers.

EXAMPLE

Input:

```
13: {14, 15, 100, 9, 3}
16: {32, 1, 9, 3, 5}
19: {15, 29, 2, 6, 8, 7}
24: {7, 10}
```

Output:

```
ID1, ID2 : SIMILARITY
13, 19   : 0.1
13, 16   : 0.25
19, 24   : 0.14285714285714285
```

Hints: #484, #498, #510, #518, #534, #547, #555, #561, #569, #577, #584, #603, #611, #636

pg 620

Solutions

X

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1

Solutions to Arrays and Strings

- 1.1 **Is Unique:** Implement an algorithm to determine if a string has all unique characters. What if you cannot use additional data structures?

pg 90

SOLUTION

You should first ask your interviewer if the string is an ASCII string or a Unicode string. Asking this question will show an eye for detail and a solid foundation in computer science. We'll assume for simplicity the character set is ASCII. If this assumption is not valid, we would need to increase the storage size.

One solution is to create an array of boolean values, where the flag at index i indicates whether character i in the alphabet is contained in the string. The second time you see this character you can immediately return `false`.

We can also immediately return `false` if the string length exceeds the number of unique characters in the alphabet. After all, you can't form a string of 280 unique characters out of a 128-character alphabet.

| It's also okay to assume 256 characters. This would be the case in extended ASCII. You should clarify your assumptions with your interviewer.

The code below implements this algorithm.

```
1  boolean isUniqueChars(String str) {  
2      if (str.length() > 128) return false;  
3  
4      boolean[] char_set = new boolean[128];  
5      for (int i = 0; i < str.length(); i++) {  
6          int val = str.charAt(i);  
7          if (char_set[val]) { // Already found this char in string  
8              return false;  
9          }  
10         char_set[val] = true;  
11     }  
12     return true;  
13 }
```

The time complexity for this code is $O(n)$, where n is the length of the string. The space complexity is $O(1)$. (You could also argue the time complexity is $O(1)$, since the for loop will never iterate through more than 128 characters.) If you didn't want to assume the character set is fixed, you could express the complexity as $O(c)$ space and $O(\min(c, n))$ or $O(c)$ time, where c is the size of the character set.

We can reduce our space usage by a factor of eight by using a bit vector. We will assume, in the below code, that the string only uses the lowercase letters a through z. This will allow us to use just a single int.

```

1  boolean isUniqueChars(String str) {
2      int checker = 0;
3      for (int i = 0; i < str.length(); i++) {
4          int val = str.charAt(i) - 'a';
5          if ((checker & (1 << val)) > 0) {
6              return false;
7          }
8          checker |= (1 << val);
9      }
10     return true;
11 }
```

If we can't use additional data structures, we can do the following:

1. Compare every character of the string to every other character of the string. This will take $O(n^2)$ time and $O(1)$ space.
2. If we are allowed to modify the input string, we could sort the string in $O(n \log(n))$ time and then linearly check the string for neighboring characters that are identical. Careful, though: many sorting algorithms take up extra space.

These solutions are not as optimal in some respects, but might be better depending on the constraints of the problem.

- 1.2 Check Permutation:** Given two strings, write a method to decide if one is a permutation of the other.

pg 90

SOLUTION

Like in many questions, we should confirm some details with our interviewer. We should understand if the permutation comparison is case sensitive. That is: is God a permutation of dog? Additionally, we should ask if whitespace is significant. We will assume for this problem that the comparison is case sensitive and whitespace is significant. So, “god” is different from “dog”.

Observe first that strings of different lengths cannot be permutations of each other. There are two easy ways to solve this problem, both of which use this optimization.

Solution #1: Sort the strings.

If two strings are permutations, then we know they have the same characters, but in different orders. Therefore, sorting the strings will put the characters from two permutations in the same order. We just need to compare the sorted versions of the strings.

```

1  String sort(String s) {
2      char[] content = s.toCharArray();
3      java.util.Arrays.sort(content);
4      return new String(content);
5  }
6
7  boolean permutation(String s, String t) {
8      if (s.length() != t.length()) {
9          return false;
10     }
```

```
11     return sort(s).equals(sort(t));  
12 }
```

Though this algorithm is not as optimal in some senses, it may be preferable in one sense: It's clean, simple and easy to understand. In a practical sense, this may very well be a superior way to implement the problem.

However, if efficiency is very important, we can implement it a different way.

Solution #2: Check if the two strings have identical character counts.

We can also use the definition of a permutation—two words with the same character counts—to implement this algorithm. We simply iterate through this code, counting how many times each character appears. Then, afterwards, we compare the two arrays.

```
1  boolean permutation(String s, String t) {  
2      if (s.length() != t.length()) {  
3          return false;  
4      }  
5  
6      int[] letters = new int[128]; // Assumption  
7  
8      char[] s_array = s.toCharArray();  
9      for (char c : s_array) { // count number of each char in s.  
10         letters[c]++;  
11     }  
12  
13     for (int i = 0; i < t.length(); i++) {  
14         int c = (int) t.charAt(i);  
15         letters[c]--;  
16         if (letters[c] < 0) {  
17             return false;  
18         }  
19     }  
20  
21     return true;  
22 }
```

Note the assumption on line 6. In your interview, you should always check with your interviewer about the size of the character set. We assumed that the character set was ASCII.

- 1.3 URLify:** Write a method to replace all spaces in a string with '%20'. You may assume that the string has sufficient space at the end to hold the additional characters, and that you are given the "true" length of the string. (Note: if implementing in Java, please use a character array so that you can perform this operation in place.)

EXAMPLE

Input: "Mr John Smith", 13

Output: "Mr%20John%20Smith"

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SOLUTION

A common approach in string manipulation problems is to edit the string starting from the end and working backwards. This is useful because we have an extra buffer at the end, which allows us to change characters without worrying about what we're overwriting.

We will use this approach in this problem. The algorithm employs a two-scan approach. In the first scan, we count the number of spaces. By tripling this number, we can compute how many extra characters we will have in the final string. In the second pass, which is done in reverse order, we actually edit the string. When we see a space, we replace it with %20. If there is no space, then we copy the original character.

The code below implements this algorithm.

```

1 void replaceSpaces(char[] str, int trueLength) {
2     int spaceCount = 0, index, i = 0;
3     for (i = 0; i < trueLength; i++) {
4         if (str[i] == ' ') {
5             spaceCount++;
6         }
7     }
8     index = trueLength + spaceCount * 2;
9     if (trueLength < str.length) str[trueLength] = '\0'; // End array
10    for (i = trueLength - 1; i >= 0; i--) {
11        if (str[i] == ' ') {
12            str[index - 1] = '0';
13            str[index - 2] = '2';
14            str[index - 3] = '%';
15            index = index - 3;
16        } else {
17            str[index - 1] = str[i];
18            index--;
19        }
20    }
21 }
```

We have implemented this problem using character arrays, because Java strings are immutable. If we used strings directly, the function would have to return a new copy of the string, but it would allow us to implement this in just one pass.

1.4 Palindrome Permutation: Given a string, write a function to check if it is a permutation of a palindrome. A palindrome is a word or phrase that is the same forwards and backwards. A permutation is a rearrangement of letters. The palindrome does not need to be limited to just dictionary words.

EXAMPLE

Input: Tact Coa

Output: True (permutations: "taco cat", "atco cta", etc.)

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SOLUTION

This is a question where it helps to figure out what it means for a string to be a permutation of a palindrome. This is like asking what the “defining features” of such a string would be.

A palindrome is a string that is the same forwards and backwards. Therefore, to decide if a string is a permutation of a palindrome, we need to know if it can be written such that it’s the same forwards and backwards.

What does it take to be able to write a set of characters the same way forwards and backwards? We need to have an even number of almost all characters, so that half can be on one side and half can be on the other side. At most one character (the middle character) can have an odd count.

For example, we know tactcoapapa is a permutation of a palindrome because it has two Ts, four As, two

Cs, two Ps, and one O. That O would be the center of all possible palindromes.

To be more precise, strings with even length (after removing all non-letter characters) must have all even counts of characters. Strings of an odd length must have exactly one character with an odd count. Of course, an “even” string can’t have an odd number of exactly one character, otherwise it wouldn’t be an even-length string (an odd number + many even numbers = an odd number). Likewise, a string with odd length can’t have all characters with even counts (sum of evens is even). It’s therefore sufficient to say that, to be a permutation of a palindrome, a string can have no more than one character that is odd. This will cover both the odd and the even cases.

This leads us to our first algorithm.

Solution #1

Implementing this algorithm is fairly straightforward. We use a hash table to count how many times each character appears. Then, we iterate through the hash table and ensure that no more than one character has an odd count.

```
1  boolean isPermutationOfPalindrome(String phrase) {  
2      int[] table = buildCharFrequencyTable(phrase);  
3      return checkMaxOneOdd(table);  
4  }  
5  
6  /* Check that no more than one character has an odd count. */  
7  boolean checkMaxOneOdd(int[] table) {  
8      boolean foundOdd = false;  
9      for (int count : table) {  
10          if (count % 2 == 1) {  
11              if (foundOdd) {  
12                  return false;  
13              }  
14              foundOdd = true;  
15          }  
16      }  
17      return true;  
18  }  
19  
20 /* Map each character to a number. a -> 0, b -> 1, c -> 2, etc.  
21 * This is case insensitive. Non-letter characters map to -1. */  
22 int getCharNumber(Character c) {  
23     int a = Character.getNumericValue('a');  
24     int z = Character.getNumericValue('z');  
25     int val = Character.getNumericValue(c);  
26     if (a <= val && val <= z) {  
27         return val - a;  
28     }  
29     return -1;  
30 }  
31  
32 /* Count how many times each character appears. */  
33 int[] buildCharFrequencyTable(String phrase) {  
34     int[] table = new int[Character.getNumericValue('z') -  
35                           Character.getNumericValue('a') + 1];  
36     for (char c : phrase.toCharArray()) {  
37         int x = getCharNumber(c);  
38         table[x]++;  
39     }  
40     return table;  
41 }
```

```

38     if (x != -1) {
39         table[x]++;
40     }
41 }
42 return table;
43 }
```

This algorithm takes $O(N)$ time, where N is the length of the string.

Solution #2

We can't optimize the big O time here since any algorithm will always have to look through the entire string. However, we can make some smaller incremental improvements. Because this is a relatively simple problem, it can be worthwhile to discuss some small optimizations or at least some tweaks.

Instead of checking the number of odd counts at the end, we can check as we go along. Then, as soon as we get to the end, we have our answer.

```

1 boolean isPermutationOfPalindrome(String phrase) {
2     int countOdd = 0;
3     int[] table = new int[Character.getNumericValue('z') -
4                             Character.getNumericValue('a') + 1];
5     for (char c : phrase.toCharArray()) {
6         int x = getCharNumber(c);
7         if (x != -1) {
8             table[x]++;
9             if (table[x] % 2 == 1) {
10                 countOdd++;
11             } else {
12                 countOdd--;
13             }
14         }
15     }
16     return countOdd <= 1;
17 }
```

It's important to be very clear here that this is not necessarily more optimal. It has the same big O time and might even be slightly slower. We have eliminated a final iteration through the hash table, but now we have to run a few extra lines of code for each character in the string.

You should discuss this with your interviewer as an alternate, but not necessarily more optimal, solution.

Solution #3

If you think more deeply about this problem, you might notice that we don't actually need to know the counts. We just need to know if the count is even or odd. Think about flipping a light on/off (that is initially off). If the light winds up in the off state, we don't know how many times we flipped it, but we do know it was an even count.

Given this, we can use a single integer (as a bit vector). When we see a letter, we map it to an integer between 0 and 26 (assuming an English alphabet). Then we toggle the bit at that value. At the end of the iteration, we check that at most one bit in the integer is set to 1.

We can easily check that no bits in the integer are 1: just compare the integer to 0. There is actually a very elegant way to check that an integer has exactly one bit set to 1.

Picture an integer like **00010000**. We could of course shift the integer repeatedly to check that there's only a single 1. Alternatively, if we subtract 1 from the number, we'll get **00001111**. What's notable about this

is that there is no overlap between the numbers (as opposed to say `00101000`, which, when we subtract 1 from, we get `00100111`.) So, we can check to see that a number has exactly one 1 because if we subtract 1 from it and then AND it with the new number, we should get 0.

```
00010000 - 1 = 00001111
00010000 & 00001111 = 0
```

This leads us to our final implementation.

```
1  boolean isPermutationOfPalindrome(String phrase) {
2      int bitVector = createBitVector(phrase);
3      return bitVector == 0 || checkExactlyOneBitSet(bitVector);
4  }
5
6  /* Create a bit vector for the string. For each letter with value i, toggle the
7   * ith bit. */
8  int createBitVector(String phrase) {
9      int bitVector = 0;
10     for (char c : phrase.toCharArray()) {
11         int x = getCharNumber(c);
12         bitVector = toggle(bitVector, x);
13     }
14     return bitVector;
15 }
16
17 /* Toggle the ith bit in the integer. */
18 int toggle(int bitVector, int index) {
19     if (index < 0) return bitVector;
20
21     int mask = 1 << index;
22     if ((bitVector & mask) == 0) {
23         bitVector |= mask;
24     } else {
25         bitVector &= ~mask;
26     }
27     return bitVector;
28 }
29
30 /* Check that exactly one bit is set by subtracting one from the integer and
31   * ANDing it with the original integer. */
32 boolean checkExactlyOneBitSet(int bitVector) {
33     return (bitVector & (bitVector - 1)) == 0;
34 }
```

Like the other solutions, this is $O(N)$.

It's interesting to note a solution that we did not explore. We avoided solutions along the lines of "create all possible permutations and check if they are palindromes." While such a solution would work, it's entirely infeasible in the real world. Generating all permutations requires factorial time (which is actually worse than exponential time), and it is essentially infeasible to perform on strings longer than about 10–15 characters.

I mention this (impractical) solution because a lot of candidates hear a problem like this and say, "In order to check if A is in group B, I must know everything that is in B and then check if one of the items equals A." That's not always the case, and this problem is a simple demonstration of it. You don't need to generate all permutations in order to check if one is a palindrome.

- 1.5 One Away:** There are three types of edits that can be performed on strings: insert a character, remove a character, or replace a character. Given two strings, write a function to check if they are one edit (or zero edits) away.

EXAMPLE

```
pale, ple -> true
pales, pale -> true
pale, bale -> true
pale, bae -> false
```

pg 91

SOLUTION

There is a “brute force” algorithm to do this. We could check all possible strings that are one edit away by testing the removal of each character (and comparing), testing the replacement of each character (and comparing), and then testing the insertion of each possible character (and comparing).

That would be too slow, so let’s not bother with implementing it.

This is one of those problems where it’s helpful to think about the “meaning” of each of these operations. What does it mean for two strings to be one insertion, replacement, or removal away from each other?

- **Replacement:** Consider two strings, such as `bale` and `pale`, that are one replacement away. Yes, that does mean that you could replace a character in `bale` to make `pale`. But more precisely, it means that they are different only in one place.
- **Insertion:** The strings `apple` and `aple` are one insertion away. This means that if you compared the strings, they would be identical—except for a shift at some point in the strings.
- **Removal:** The strings `apple` and `ape` are also one removal away, since removal is just the inverse of insertion.

We can go ahead and implement this algorithm now. We’ll merge the insertion and removal check into one step, and check the replacement step separately.

Observe that you don’t need to check the strings for insertion, removal, and replacement edits. The lengths of the strings will indicate which of these you need to check.

```
1  boolean oneEditAway(String first, String second) {
2      if (first.length() == second.length()) {
3          return oneEditReplace(first, second);
4      } else if (first.length() + 1 == second.length()) {
5          return oneEditInsert(first, second);
6      } else if (first.length() - 1 == second.length()) {
7          return oneEditInsert(second, first);
8      }
9      return false;
10 }
11
12 boolean oneEditReplace(String s1, String s2) {
13     boolean foundDifference = false;
14     for (int i = 0; i < s1.length(); i++) {
15         if (s1.charAt(i) != s2.charAt(i)) {
16             if (foundDifference) {
17                 return false;
18             }
19         }
```

```
20         foundDifference = true;
21     }
22 }
23 return true;
24 }
25
26 /* Check if you can insert a character into s1 to make s2. */
27 boolean oneEditInsert(String s1, String s2) {
28     int index1 = 0;
29     int index2 = 0;
30     while (index2 < s2.length() && index1 < s1.length()) {
31         if (s1.charAt(index1) != s2.charAt(index2)) {
32             if (index1 != index2) {
33                 return false;
34             }
35             index2++;
36         } else {
37             index1++;
38             index2++;
39         }
40     }
41     return true;
42 }
```

This algorithm (and almost any reasonable algorithm) takes $O(n)$ time, where n is the length of the shorter string.

Why is the runtime dictated by the shorter string instead of the longer string? If the strings are the same length (plus or minus one character), then it doesn't matter whether we use the longer string or the shorter string to define the runtime. If the strings are very different lengths, then the algorithm will terminate in $O(1)$ time. One really, really long string therefore won't significantly extend the runtime. It increases the runtime only if both strings are long.

We might notice that the code for `oneEditReplace` is very similar to that for `oneEditInsert`. We can merge them into one method.

To do this, observe that both methods follow similar logic: compare each character and ensure that the strings are only different by one. The methods vary in how they handle that difference. The method `oneEditReplace` does nothing other than flag the difference, whereas `oneEditInsert` increments the pointer to the longer string. We can handle both of these in the same method.

```
1  boolean oneEditAway(String first, String second) {
2      /* Length checks. */
3      if (Math.abs(first.length() - second.length()) > 1) {
4          return false;
5      }
6
7      /* Get shorter and longer string.*/
8      String s1 = first.length() < second.length() ? first : second;
9      String s2 = first.length() < second.length() ? second : first;
10
11     int index1 = 0;
12     int index2 = 0;
13     boolean foundDifference = false;
14     while (index2 < s2.length() && index1 < s1.length()) {
15         if (s1.charAt(index1) != s2.charAt(index2)) {
```

```

16     /* Ensure that this is the first difference found.*/
17     if (foundDifference) return false;
18     foundDifference = true;
19
20     if (s1.length() == s2.length()) { // On replace, move shorter pointer
21         index1++;
22     }
23     } else {
24         index1++; // If matching, move shorter pointer
25     }
26     index2++; // Always move pointer for longer string
27 }
28 return true;
29 }
```

Some people might argue the first approach is better, as it is clearer and easier to follow. Others, however, will argue that the second approach is better, since it's more compact and doesn't duplicate code (which can facilitate maintainability).

You don't necessarily need to "pick a side." You can discuss the tradeoffs with your interviewer.

- 1.6 String Compression:** Implement a method to perform basic string compression using the counts of repeated characters. For example, the string aabcccccaa would become a2b1c5a3. If the "compressed" string would not become smaller than the original string, your method should return the original string. You can assume the string has only uppercase and lowercase letters (a - z).

pg 91

SOLUTION

At first glance, implementing this method seems fairly straightforward, but perhaps a bit tedious. We iterate through the string, copying characters to a new string and counting the repeats. At each iteration, check if the current character is the same as the next character. If not, add its compressed version to the result.

How hard could it be?

```

1  String compressBad(String str) {
2      String compressedString = "";
3      int countConsecutive = 0;
4      for (int i = 0; i < str.length(); i++) {
5          countConsecutive++;
6
7          /* If next character is different than current, append this char to result.*/
8          if (i + 1 >= str.length() || str.charAt(i) != str.charAt(i + 1)) {
9              compressedString += "" + str.charAt(i) + countConsecutive;
10             countConsecutive = 0;
11         }
12     }
13     return compressedString.length() < str.length() ? compressedString : str;
14 }
```

This works. Is it efficient, though? Take a look at the runtime of this code.

The runtime is $O(p + k^2)$, where p is the size of the original string and k is the number of character sequences. For example, if the string is aabccddeaa, then there are six character sequences. It's slow because string concatenation operates in $O(n^2)$ time (see *StringBuilder* on pg 89).

We can fix this by using a *StringBuilder*.

```

1 String compress(String str) {
2     StringBuilder compressed = new StringBuilder();
3     int countConsecutive = 0;
4     for (int i = 0; i < str.length(); i++) {
5         countConsecutive++;
6
7         /* If next character is different than current, append this char to result.*/
8         if (i + 1 >= str.length() || str.charAt(i) != str.charAt(i + 1)) {
9             compressed.append(str.charAt(i));
10            compressed.append(countConsecutive);
11            countConsecutive = 0;
12        }
13    }
14    return compressed.length() < str.length() ? compressed.toString() : str;
15 }

```

Both of these solutions create the compressed string first and then return the shorter of the input string and the compressed string.

Instead, we can check in advance. This will be more optimal in cases where we don't have a large number of repeating characters. It will avoid us having to create a string that we never use. The downside of this is that it causes a second loop through the characters and also adds nearly duplicated code.

```

1 String compress(String str) {
2     /* Check final length and return input string if it would be longer. */
3     int finalLength = countCompression(str);
4     if (finalLength >= str.length()) return str;
5
6     StringBuilder compressed = new StringBuilder(finalLength); // initial capacity
7     int countConsecutive = 0;
8     for (int i = 0; i < str.length(); i++) {
9         countConsecutive++;
10
11         /* If next character is different than current, append this char to result.*/
12         if (i + 1 >= str.length() || str.charAt(i) != str.charAt(i + 1)) {
13             compressed.append(str.charAt(i));
14             compressed.append(countConsecutive);
15             countConsecutive = 0;
16         }
17     }
18     return compressed.toString();
19 }
20
21 int countCompression(String str) {
22     int compressedLength = 0;
23     int countConsecutive = 0;
24     for (int i = 0; i < str.length(); i++) {
25         countConsecutive++;
26
27         /* If next character is different than current, increase the length.*/
28         if (i + 1 >= str.length() || str.charAt(i) != str.charAt(i + 1)) {
29             compressedLength += 1 + String.valueOf(countConsecutive).length();
30             countConsecutive = 0;
31         }
32     }
33     return compressedLength;
34 }

```

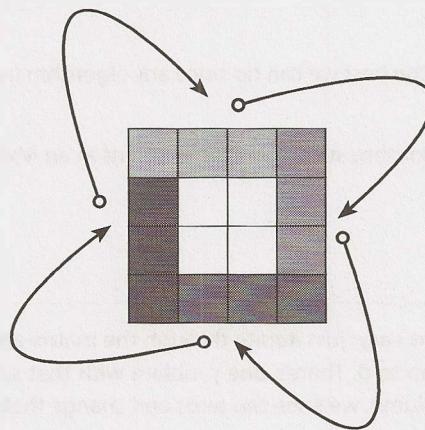
One other benefit of this approach is that we can initialize `StringBuilder` to its necessary capacity up-front. Without this, `StringBuilder` will (behind the scenes) need to double its capacity every time it hits capacity. The capacity could be double what we ultimately need.

- 1.7 Rotate Matrix:** Given an image represented by an $N \times N$ matrix, where each pixel in the image is 4 bytes, write a method to rotate the image by 90 degrees. Can you do this in place?

pg 91

SOLUTION

Because we're rotating the matrix by 90 degrees, the easiest way to do this is to implement the rotation in layers. We perform a circular rotation on each layer, moving the top edge to the right edge, the right edge to the bottom edge, the bottom edge to the left edge, and the left edge to the top edge.



How do we perform this four-way edge swap? One option is to copy the top edge to an array, and then move the left to the top, the bottom to the left, and so on. This requires $O(N)$ memory, which is actually unnecessary.

A better way to do this is to implement the swap index by index. In this case, we do the following:

```

1  for i = 0 to n
2      temp = top[i];
3      top[i] = left[i]
4      left[i] = bottom[i]
5      bottom[i] = right[i]
6      right[i] = temp
    
```

We perform such a swap on each layer, starting from the outermost layer and working our way inwards. (Alternatively, we could start from the inner layer and work outwards.)

The code for this algorithm is below.

```

1  boolean rotate(int[][] matrix) {
2      if (matrix.length == 0 || matrix.length != matrix[0].length) return false;
3      int n = matrix.length;
4      for (int layer = 0; layer < n / 2; layer++) {
5          int first = layer;
6          int last = n - 1 - layer;
7          for(int i = first; i < last; i++) {
8              int offset = i - first;
    
```

```

9      int top = matrix[first][i]; // save top
10
11     // left -> top
12     matrix[first][i] = matrix[last-offset][first];
13
14     // bottom -> left
15     matrix[last-offset][first] = matrix[last][last - offset];
16
17     // right -> bottom
18     matrix[last][last - offset] = matrix[i][last];
19
20     // top -> right
21     matrix[i][last] = top; // right <- saved top
22 }
23 }
24 return true;
25 }
```

This algorithm is $O(N^2)$, which is the best we can do since any algorithm must touch all N^2 elements.

- 1.8 Zero Matrix:** Write an algorithm such that if an element in an $M \times N$ matrix is 0, its entire row and column are set to 0.

pg 91

SOLUTION

At first glance, this problem seems easy: just iterate through the matrix and every time we see a cell with value zero, set its row and column to 0. There's one problem with that solution though: when we come across other cells in that row or column, we'll see the zeros and change their row and column to zero. Pretty soon, our entire matrix will be set to zeros.

One way around this is to keep a second matrix which flags the zero locations. We would then do a second pass through the matrix to set the zeros. This would take $O(MN)$ space.

Do we really need $O(MN)$ space? No. Since we're going to set the entire row and column to zero, we don't need to track that it was exactly $cell[2][4]$ (row 2, column 4). We only need to know that row 2 has a zero somewhere, and column 4 has a zero somewhere. We'll set the entire row and column to zero anyway, so why would we care to keep track of the exact location of the zero?

The code below implements this algorithm. We use two arrays to keep track of all the rows with zeros and all the columns with zeros. We then nullify rows and columns based on the values in these arrays.

```

1 void setZeros(int[][] matrix) {
2     boolean[] row = new boolean[matrix.length];
3     boolean[] column = new boolean[matrix[0].length];
4
5     // Store the row and column index with value 0
6     for (int i = 0; i < matrix.length; i++) {
7         for (int j = 0; j < matrix[0].length; j++) {
8             if (matrix[i][j] == 0) {
9                 row[i] = true;
10                column[j] = true;
11            }
12        }
13    }
14 }
```

```

15 // Nullify rows
16 for (int i = 0; i < row.length; i++) {
17     if (row[i]) nullifyRow(matrix, i);
18 }
19
20 // Nullify columns
21 for (int j = 0; j < column.length; j++) {
22     if (column[j]) nullifyColumn(matrix, j);
23 }
24 }
25
26 void nullifyRow(int[][] matrix, int row) {
27     for (int j = 0; j < matrix[0].length; j++) {
28         matrix[row][j] = 0;
29     }
30 }
31
32 void nullifyColumn(int[][] matrix, int col) {
33     for (int i = 0; i < matrix.length; i++) {
34         matrix[i][col] = 0;
35     }
36 }

```

To make this somewhat more space efficient, we could use a bit vector instead of a boolean array. It would still be $O(N)$ space.

We can reduce the space to $O(1)$ by using the first row as a replacement for the `row` array and the first column as a replacement for the `column` array. This works as follows:

1. Check if the first row and first column have any zeros, and set variables `rowHasZero` and `columnHasZero`. (We'll nullify the first row and first column later, if necessary.)
2. Iterate through the rest of the matrix, setting `matrix[i][0]` and `matrix[0][j]` to zero whenever there's a zero in `matrix[i][j]`.
3. Iterate through rest of matrix, nullifying row `i` if there's a zero in `matrix[i][0]`.
4. Iterate through rest of matrix, nullifying column `j` if there's a zero in `matrix[0][j]`.
5. Nullify the first row and first column, if necessary (based on values from Step 1).

This code is below:

```

1 void setZeros(int[][] matrix) {
2     boolean rowHasZero = false;
3     boolean colHasZero = false;
4
5     // Check if first row has a zero
6     for (int j = 0; j < matrix[0].length; j++) {
7         if (matrix[0][j] == 0) {
8             rowHasZero = true;
9             break;
10        }
11    }
12
13    // Check if first column has a zero
14    for (int i = 0; i < matrix.length; i++) {
15        if (matrix[i][0] == 0) {
16            colHasZero = true;
17            break;
18        }
19    }
20
21    // Nullify first row
22    if (rowHasZero) {
23        for (int j = 0; j < matrix[0].length; j++) {
24            matrix[0][j] = 0;
25        }
26    }
27
28    // Nullify first column
29    if (colHasZero) {
30        for (int i = 0; i < matrix.length; i++) {
31            matrix[i][0] = 0;
32        }
33    }
34
35    // Nullify rest of matrix
36    for (int i = 1; i < matrix.length; i++) {
37        for (int j = 1; j < matrix[0].length; j++) {
38            if (matrix[i][j] == 0) {
39                matrix[i][0] = 0;
40                matrix[0][j] = 0;
41            }
42        }
43    }
44
45    // Nullify first row again
46    if (rowHasZero) {
47        for (int j = 0; j < matrix[0].length; j++) {
48            matrix[0][j] = 0;
49        }
50    }
51
52    // Nullify first column again
53    if (colHasZero) {
54        for (int i = 0; i < matrix.length; i++) {
55            matrix[i][0] = 0;
56        }
57    }
58
59    // Nullify rest of matrix again
60    for (int i = 1; i < matrix.length; i++) {
61        for (int j = 1; j < matrix[0].length; j++) {
62            if (matrix[i][j] == 0) {
63                matrix[i][0] = 0;
64                matrix[0][j] = 0;
65            }
66        }
67    }
68
69    // Nullify first row again
70    if (rowHasZero) {
71        for (int j = 0; j < matrix[0].length; j++) {
72            matrix[0][j] = 0;
73        }
74    }
75
76    // Nullify first column again
77    if (colHasZero) {
78        for (int i = 0; i < matrix.length; i++) {
79            matrix[i][0] = 0;
80        }
81    }
82
83    // Nullify rest of matrix again
84    for (int i = 1; i < matrix.length; i++) {
85        for (int j = 1; j < matrix[0].length; j++) {
86            if (matrix[i][j] == 0) {
87                matrix[i][0] = 0;
88                matrix[0][j] = 0;
89            }
90        }
91    }
92
93    // Nullify first row again
94    if (rowHasZero) {
95        for (int j = 0; j < matrix[0].length; j++) {
96            matrix[0][j] = 0;
97        }
98    }
99
100   // Nullify first column again
101   if (colHasZero) {
102       for (int i = 0; i < matrix.length; i++) {
103           matrix[i][0] = 0;
104       }
105   }
106
107   // Nullify rest of matrix again
108   for (int i = 1; i < matrix.length; i++) {
109       for (int j = 1; j < matrix[0].length; j++) {
110           if (matrix[i][j] == 0) {
111               matrix[i][0] = 0;
112               matrix[0][j] = 0;
113           }
114       }
115   }
116
117   // Nullify first row again
118   if (rowHasZero) {
119       for (int j = 0; j < matrix[0].length; j++) {
120           matrix[0][j] = 0;
121       }
122   }
123
124   // Nullify first column again
125   if (colHasZero) {
126       for (int i = 0; i < matrix.length; i++) {
127           matrix[i][0] = 0;
128       }
129   }
130
131   // Nullify rest of matrix again
132   for (int i = 1; i < matrix.length; i++) {
133       for (int j = 1; j < matrix[0].length; j++) {
134           if (matrix[i][j] == 0) {
135               matrix[i][0] = 0;
136               matrix[0][j] = 0;
137           }
138       }
139   }
140
141   // Nullify first row again
142   if (rowHasZero) {
143       for (int j = 0; j < matrix[0].length; j++) {
144           matrix[0][j] = 0;
145       }
146   }
147
148   // Nullify first column again
149   if (colHasZero) {
150       for (int i = 0; i < matrix.length; i++) {
151           matrix[i][0] = 0;
152       }
153   }
154
155   // Nullify rest of matrix again
156   for (int i = 1; i < matrix.length; i++) {
157       for (int j = 1; j < matrix[0].length; j++) {
158           if (matrix[i][j] == 0) {
159               matrix[i][0] = 0;
160               matrix[0][j] = 0;
161           }
162       }
163   }
164
165   // Nullify first row again
166   if (rowHasZero) {
167       for (int j = 0; j < matrix[0].length; j++) {
168           matrix[0][j] = 0;
169       }
170   }
171
172   // Nullify first column again
173   if (colHasZero) {
174       for (int i = 0; i < matrix.length; i++) {
175           matrix[i][0] = 0;
176       }
177   }
178
179   // Nullify rest of matrix again
180   for (int i = 1; i < matrix.length; i++) {
181       for (int j = 1; j < matrix[0].length; j++) {
182           if (matrix[i][j] == 0) {
183               matrix[i][0] = 0;
184               matrix[0][j] = 0;
185           }
186       }
187   }
188
189   // Nullify first row again
190   if (rowHasZero) {
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965   if (colHasZero) {
966       for (int i = 0; i < matrix.length; i++) {
967           matrix[i][0] = 0;
968       }
969   }
970
971   // Nullify rest of matrix again
972   for (int i = 1; i < matrix.length; i++) {
973       for (int j = 1; j < matrix[0].length; j++) {
974           if (matrix[i][j] == 0) {
975               matrix[i][0] = 0;
976               matrix[0][j] = 0;
977           }
978       }
979   }
980
981   // Nullify first row again
982   if (rowHasZero) {
983       for (int j = 0; j < matrix[0].length; j++) {
984           matrix[0][j] = 0;
985       }
986   }
987
988   // Nullify first column again
989   if (colHasZero) {
990       for (int i = 0; i < matrix.length; i++) {
991           matrix[i][0] = 0;
992       }
993   }
994
995   // Nullify rest of matrix again
996   for (int i = 1; i < matrix.length; i++) {
997       for (int j = 1; j < matrix[0].length; j++) {
998           if (matrix[i][j] == 0) {
999               matrix[i][0] = 0;
1000              matrix[0][j] = 0;
1001          }
1002      }
1003  }
1004
1005  // Nullify first row again
1006  if (rowHasZero) {
1007      for (int j = 0; j < matrix[0].length; j++) {
1008          matrix[0][j] = 0;
1009      }
1010  }
1011
1012  // Nullify first column again
1013  if (colHasZero) {
1014      for (int i = 0; i < matrix.length; i++) {
1015          matrix[i][0] = 0;
1016      }
1017  }
1018
1019  // Nullify rest of matrix again
1020  for (int i = 1; i < matrix.length; i++) {
1021      for (int j = 1; j < matrix[0].length; j++) {
1022          if (matrix[i][j] == 0) {
1023              matrix[i][0] = 0;
1024              matrix[0][j] = 0;
1025          }
1026      }
1027  }
1028
1029  // Nullify first row again
1030  if (rowHasZero) {
1031      for (int j = 0; j < matrix[0].length; j++) {
1032          matrix[0][j] = 0;
1033      }
1034  }
1035
1036  // Nullify first column again
1037  if (colHasZero) {
1038      for (int i = 0; i < matrix.length; i++) {
1039          matrix[i][0] = 0;
1040      }
1041  }
1042
1043  // Nullify rest of matrix again
1044  for (int i = 1; i < matrix.length; i++) {
1045      for (int j = 1; j < matrix[0].length; j++) {
1046          if (matrix[i][j] == 0) {
1047              matrix[i][0] = 0;
1048              matrix[0][j] = 0;
1049          }
1050      }
1051  }
1052
1053  //
```

```

18     }
19 }
20
21 // Check for zeros in the rest of the array
22 for (int i = 1; i < matrix.length; i++) {
23     for (int j = 1; j < matrix[0].length; j++) {
24         if (matrix[i][j] == 0) {
25             matrix[i][0] = 0;
26             matrix[0][j] = 0;
27         }
28     }
29 }
30
31 // Nullify rows based on values in first column
32 for (int i = 1; i < matrix.length; i++) {
33     if (matrix[i][0] == 0) {
34         nullifyRow(matrix, i);
35     }
36 }
37
38 // Nullify columns based on values in first row
39 for (int j = 1; j < matrix[0].length; j++) {
40     if (matrix[0][j] == 0) {
41         nullifyColumn(matrix, j);
42     }
43 }
44
45 // Nullify first row
46 if (rowHasZero) {
47     nullifyRow(matrix, 0);
48 }
49
50 // Nullify first column
51 if (colHasZero) {
52     nullifyColumn(matrix, 0);
53 }
54 }

```

This code has a lot of “do this for the rows, then the equivalent action for the column.” In an interview, you could abbreviate this code by adding comments and TODOs that explain that the next chunk of code looks the same as the earlier code, but using rows. This would allow you to focus on the most important parts of the algorithm.

- 1.9 String Rotation:** Assume you have a method `isSubstring` which checks if one word is a substring of another. Given two strings, `s1` and `s2`, write code to check if `s2` is a rotation of `s1` using only one call to `isSubstring` (e.g., “waterbottle” is a rotation of “erbottlewat”).

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SOLUTION

If we imagine that `s2` is a rotation of `s1`, then we can ask what the rotation point is. For example, if you rotate `waterbottle` after `wat`, you get `erbottlewat`. In a rotation, we cut `s1` into two parts, `x` and `y`, and rearrange them to get `s2`.

`s1 = xy = waterbottle`
`x = wat`

```
y = erbottle  
s2 = yx = erbottlewat
```

So, we need to check if there's a way to split s_1 into x and y such that $xy = s_1$ and $yx = s_2$. Regardless of where the division between x and y is, we can see that yx will always be a substring of $xyxy$. That is, s_2 will always be a substring of s_1s_1 .

And this is precisely how we solve the problem: simply do `isSubstring(s1s1, s2)`.

The code below implements this algorithm.

```
1 boolean isRotation(String s1, String s2) {  
2     int len = s1.length();  
3     /* Check that s1 and s2 are equal length and not empty */  
4     if (len == s2.length() && len > 0) {  
5         /* Concatenate s1 and s1 within new buffer */  
6         String s1s1 = s1 + s1;  
7         return isSubstring(s1s1, s2);  
8     }  
9     return false;  
10 }
```

The runtime of this varies based on the runtime of `isSubstring`. But if you assume that `isSubstring` runs in $O(A+B)$ time (on strings of length A and B), then the runtime of `isRotation` is $O(N)$.

2

Solutions to Linked Lists

2.1 Remove Dups: Write code to remove duplicates from an unsorted linked list.

FOLLOW UP

How would you solve this problem if a temporary buffer is not allowed?

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SOLUTION

In order to remove duplicates from a linked list, we need to be able to track duplicates. A simple hash table will work well here.

In the below solution, we simply iterate through the linked list, adding each element to a hash table. When we discover a duplicate element, we remove the element and continue iterating. We can do this all in one pass since we are using a linked list.

```
1 void deleteDups(LinkedListNode n) {  
2     HashSet<Integer> set = new HashSet<Integer>();  
3     LinkedListNode previous = null;  
4     while (n != null) {  
5         if (set.contains(n.data)) {  
6             previous.next = n.next;  
7         } else {  
8             set.add(n.data);  
9             previous = n;  
10        }  
11        n = n.next;  
12    }  
13 }
```

The above solution takes $O(N)$ time, where N is the number of elements in the linked list.

Follow Up: No Buffer Allowed

If we don't have a buffer, we can iterate with two pointers: `current` which iterates through the linked list, and `runner` which checks all subsequent nodes for duplicates.

```
1 void deleteDups(LinkedListNode head) {  
2     LinkedListNode current = head;  
3     while (current != null) {  
4         /* Remove all future nodes that have the same value */  
5         LinkedListNode runner = current;  
6         while (runner.next != null) {  
7             if (runner.next.data == current.data) {
```

```

8         runner.next = runner.next.next;
9     } else {
10        runner = runner.next;
11    }
12}
13current = current.next;
14}
15}

```

This code runs in $O(1)$ space, but $O(N^2)$ time.

2.2 Return Kth to Last: Implement an algorithm to find the kth to last element of a singly linked list.

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SOLUTION

We will approach this problem both recursively and non-recursively. Remember that recursive solutions are often cleaner but less optimal. For example, in this problem, the recursive implementation is about half the length of the iterative solution but also takes $O(n)$ space, where n is the number of elements in the linked list.

Note that for this solution, we have defined k such that passing in $k = 1$ would return the last element, $k = 2$ would return to the second to last element, and so on. It is equally acceptable to define k such that $k = 0$ would return the last element.

Solution #1: If linked list size is known

If the size of the linked list is known, then the k th to last element is the $(\text{length} - k)$ th element. We can just iterate through the linked list to find this element. Because this solution is so trivial, we can almost be sure that this is not what the interviewer intended.

Solution #2: Recursive

This algorithm recurses through the linked list. When it hits the end, the method passes back a counter set to 0. Each parent call adds 1 to this counter. When the counter equals k , we know we have reached the k th to last element of the linked list.

Implementing this is short and sweet—provided we have a way of “passing back” an integer value through the stack. Unfortunately, we can’t pass back a node and a counter using normal return statements. So how do we handle this?

Approach A: Don’t Return the Element.

One way to do this is to change the problem to simply printing the k th to last element. Then, we can pass back the value of the counter simply through return values.

```

1 int printKthToLast(LinkedListNode head, int k) {
2     if (head == null) {
3         return 0;
4     }
5     int index = printKthToLast(head.next, k) + 1;
6     if (index == k) {
7         System.out.println(k + "th to last node is " + head.data);
8     }
9     return index;
10}

```

Of course, this is only a valid solution if the interviewer says it is valid.

Approach B: Use C++.

A second way to solve this is to use C++ and to pass values by reference. This allows us to return the node value, but also update the counter by passing a pointer to it.

```
1  node* nthToLast(node* head, int k, int& i) {  
2      if (head == NULL) {  
3          return NULL;  
4      }  
5      node* nd = nthToLast(head->next, k, i);  
6      i = i + 1;  
7      if (i == k) {  
8          return head;  
9      }  
10     return nd;  
11 }  
12  
13 node* nthToLast(node* head, int k) {  
14     int i = 0;  
15     return nthToLast(head, k, i);  
16 }
```

Approach C: Create a Wrapper Class.

We described earlier that the issue was that we couldn't simultaneously return a counter and an index. If we wrap the counter value with simple class (or even a single element array), we can mimic passing by reference.

```
1  class Index {  
2      public int value = 0;  
3  }  
4  
5  LinkedListNode kthToLast(LinkedListNode head, int k) {  
6      Index idx = new Index();  
7      return kthToLast(head, k, idx);  
8  }  
9  
10 LinkedListNode kthToLast(LinkedListNode head, int k, Index idx) {  
11     if (head == null) {  
12         return null;  
13     }  
14     LinkedListNode node = kthToLast(head.next, k, idx);  
15     idx.value = idx.value + 1;  
16     if (idx.value == k) {  
17         return head;  
18     }  
19     return node;  
20 }
```

Each of these recursive solutions takes $O(n)$ space due to the recursive calls.

There are a number of other solutions that we haven't addressed. We could store the counter in a static variable. Or, we could create a class that stores both the node and the counter, and return an instance of that class. Regardless of which solution we pick, we need a way to update both the node and the counter in a way that all levels of the recursive stack will see.

Solution #3: Iterative

A more optimal, but less straightforward, solution is to implement this iteratively. We can use two pointers, p1 and p2. We place them k nodes apart in the linked list by putting p2 at the beginning and moving p1 k nodes into the list. Then, when we move them at the same pace, p1 will hit the end of the linked list after LENGTH - k steps. At that point, p2 will be LENGTH - k nodes into the list, or k nodes from the end.

The code below implements this algorithm.

```

1  LinkedListNode nthToLast(LinkedListNode head, int k) {
2      LinkedListNode p1 = head;
3      LinkedListNode p2 = head;
4
5      /* Move p1 k nodes into the list.*/
6      for (int i = 0; i < k; i++) {
7          if (p1 == null) return null; // Out of bounds
8          p1 = p1.next;
9      }
10
11     /* Move them at the same pace. When p1 hits the end, p2 will be at the right
12      * element. */
13     while (p1 != null) {
14         p1 = p1.next;
15         p2 = p2.next;
16     }
17     return p2;
18 }
```

This algorithm takes $O(n)$ time and $O(1)$ space.

- 2.3 Delete Middle Node:** Implement an algorithm to delete a node in the middle (i.e., any node but the first and last node, not necessarily the exact middle) of a singly linked list, given only access to that node.

EXAMPLE

Input: the node c from the linked list a->b->c->d->e->f

Result: nothing is returned, but the new linked list looks like a->b->d->e->f

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SOLUTION

In this problem, you are not given access to the head of the linked list. You only have access to that node. The solution is simply to copy the data from the next node over to the current node, and then to delete the next node.

The code below implements this algorithm.

```

1  boolean deleteNode(LinkedListNode n) {
2      if (n == null || n.next == null) {
3          return false; // Failure
4      }
5      LinkedListNode next = n.next;
6      n.data = next.data;
7      n.next = next.next;
8      return true;
9  }
```

Note that this problem cannot be solved if the node to be deleted is the last node in the linked list. That's okay—your interviewer wants you to point that out, and to discuss how to handle this case. You could, for example, consider marking the node as dummy.

- 2.4 Partition:** Write code to partition a linked list around a value x , such that all nodes less than x come before all nodes greater than or equal to x . If x is contained within the list, the values of x only need to be after the elements less than x (see below). The partition element x can appear anywhere in the "right partition"; it does not need to appear between the left and right partitions.

EXAMPLE

Input: 3 → 5 → 8 → 5 → 10 → 2 → 1 [partition = 5]
Output: 3 → 1 → 2 → 10 → 5 → 5 → 8

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SOLUTION

If this were an array, we would need to be careful about how we shifted elements. Array shifts are very expensive.

However, in a linked list, the situation is much easier. Rather than shifting and swapping elements, we can actually create two different linked lists: one for elements less than x , and one for elements greater than or equal to x .

We iterate through the linked list, inserting elements into our `before` list or our `after` list. Once we reach the end of the linked list and have completed this splitting, we merge the two lists.

This approach is mostly "stable" in that elements stay in their original order, other than the necessary movement around the partition. The code below implements this approach.

```
1  /*Pass in the head of the linked list and the value to partition around */  
2  LinkedListNode partition(LinkedListNode node, int x) {  
3      LinkedListNode beforeStart = null;  
4      LinkedListNode beforeEnd = null;  
5      LinkedListNode afterStart = null;  
6      LinkedListNode afterEnd = null;  
7  
8      /*Partition list */  
9      while (node != null) {  
10         LinkedListNode next = node.next;  
11         node.next = null;  
12         if (node.data < x) {  
13             /*Insert node into end of before list */  
14             if (beforeStart == null) {  
15                 beforeStart = node;  
16                 beforeEnd = beforeStart;  
17             } else {  
18                 beforeEnd.next = node;  
19                 beforeEnd = node;  
20             }  
21         } else {  
22             /*Insert node into end of after list */  
23             if (afterStart == null) {  
24                 afterStart = node;  
25                 afterEnd = afterStart;  
26             } else {
```

```

27         afterEnd.next = node;
28         afterEnd = node;
29     }
30 }
31 node = next;
32 }
33
34 if (beforeStart == null) {
35     return afterStart;
36 }
37
38 /* Merge before list and after list */
39 beforeEnd.next = afterStart;
40 return beforeStart;
41 }
```

If it bugs you to keep around four different variables for tracking two linked lists, you're not alone. We can make this code a bit shorter.

If we don't care about making the elements of the list "stable" (which there's no obligation to, since the interviewer hasn't specified that), then we can instead rearrange the elements by growing the list at the head and tail.

In this approach, we start a "new" list (using the existing nodes). Elements bigger than the pivot element are put at the tail and elements smaller are put at the head. Each time we insert an element, we update either the head or tail.

```

1  LinkedListNode partition(LinkedListNode node, int x) {
2      LinkedListNode head = node;
3      LinkedListNode tail = node;
4
5      while (node != null) {
6          LinkedListNode next = node.next;
7          if (node.data < x) {
8              /* Insert node at head. */
9              node.next = head;
10             head = node;
11         } else {
12             /* Insert node at tail. */
13             tail.next = node;
14             tail = node;
15         }
16         node = next;
17     }
18     tail.next = null;
19
20     // The head has changed, so we need to return it to the user.
21     return head;
22 }
```

There are many equally optimal solutions to this problem. If you came up with a different one, that's okay!

- 2.5 Sum Lists:** You have two numbers represented by a linked list, where each node contains a single digit. The digits are stored in reverse order, such that the 1's digit is at the head of the list. Write a function that adds the two numbers and returns the sum as a linked list.

EXAMPLE

Input: $(7 \rightarrow 1 \rightarrow 6) + (5 \rightarrow 9 \rightarrow 2)$. That is, $617 + 295$.

Output: $2 \rightarrow 1 \rightarrow 9$. That is, 912 .

FOLLOW UP

Suppose the digits are stored in forward order. Repeat the above problem.

Input: $(6 \rightarrow 1 \rightarrow 7) + (2 \rightarrow 9 \rightarrow 5)$. That is, $617 + 295$.

Output: $9 \rightarrow 1 \rightarrow 2$. That is, 912 .

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SOLUTION

It's useful to remember in this problem how exactly addition works. Imagine the problem:

$$\begin{array}{r} 6 \ 1 \ 7 \\ + \ 2 \ 9 \ 5 \end{array}$$

First, we add 7 and 5 to get 12. The digit 2 becomes the last digit of the number, and 1 gets carried over to the next step. Second, we add 1, 1, and 9 to get 11. The 1 becomes the second digit, and the other 1 gets carried over the final step. Third and finally, we add 1, 6 and 2 to get 9. So, our value becomes 912.

We can mimic this process recursively by adding node by node, carrying over any "excess" data to the next node. Let's walk through this for the below linked list:

$$\begin{array}{r} 7 \rightarrow 1 \rightarrow 6 \\ + \ 5 \rightarrow 9 \rightarrow 2 \end{array}$$

We do the following:

1. We add 7 and 5 first, getting a result of 12. 2 becomes the first node in our linked list, and we "carry" the 1 to the next sum.

List: $2 \rightarrow ?$

2. We then add 1 and 9, as well as the "carry," getting a result of 11. 1 becomes the second element of our linked list, and we carry the 1 to the next sum.

List: $2 \rightarrow 1 \rightarrow ?$

3. Finally, we add 6, 2 and our "carry," to get 9. This becomes the final element of our linked list.

List: $2 \rightarrow 1 \rightarrow 9$.

The code below implements this algorithm.

```

1  ListNode addLists(ListNode l1, ListNode l2, int carry) {
2      if (l1 == null && l2 == null && carry == 0) {
3          return null;
4      }
5
6      ListNode result = new ListNode();
7      int value = carry;
8      if (l1 != null) {
9          value += l1.data;
10     }
11     if (l2 != null) {

```

```

12     value += l2.data;
13 }
14
15 result.data = value % 10; /* Second digit of number */
16
17 /* Recurse */
18 if (l1 != null || l2 != null) {
19     LinkedListNode more = addLists(l1 == null ? null : l1.next,
20                                     l2 == null ? null : l2.next,
21                                     value >= 10 ? 1 : 0);
22     result.setNext(more);
23 }
24 return result;
25 }
```

In implementing this code, we must be careful to handle the condition when one linked list is shorter than another. We don't want to get a null pointer exception.

Follow Up

Part B is conceptually the same (recurse, carry the excess), but has some additional complications when it comes to implementation:

1. One list may be shorter than the other, and we cannot handle this "on the fly." For example, suppose we were adding (1 -> 2 -> 3 -> 4) and (5 -> 6 -> 7). We need to know that the 5 should be "matched" with the 2, not the 1. We can accomplish this by comparing the lengths of the lists in the beginning and padding the shorter list with zeros.
2. In the first part, successive results were added to the tail (i.e., passed forward). This meant that the recursive call would be *passed* the carry, and would return the result (which is then appended to the tail). In this case, however, results are added to the head (i.e., passed backward). The recursive call must return the result, as before, as well as the carry. This is not terribly challenging to implement, but it is more cumbersome. We can solve this issue by creating a wrapper class called Partial Sum.

The code below implements this algorithm.

```

1  class PartialSum {
2      public LinkedListNode sum = null;
3      public int carry = 0;
4  }
5
6  LinkedListNode addLists(LinkedListNode l1, LinkedListNode l2) {
7      int len1 = length(l1);
8      int len2 = length(l2);
9
10     /* Pad the shorter list with zeros - see note (1) */
11     if (len1 < len2) {
12         l1 = padList(l1, len2 - len1);
13     } else {
14         l2 = padList(l2, len1 - len2);
15     }
16
17     /* Add lists */
18     PartialSum sum = addListsHelper(l1, l2);
19
20     /* If there was a carry value left over, insert this at the front of the list.
21      * Otherwise, just return the linked list. */
22     if (sum.carry == 0) {
```

```

23     return sum.sum;
24 } else {
25     ListNode result = insertBefore(sum.sum, sum.carry);
26     return result;
27 }
28 }
29
30 PartialSum addListsHelper(ListNode l1, ListNode l2) {
31     if (l1 == null && l2 == null) {
32         PartialSum sum = new PartialSum();
33         return sum;
34     }
35     /* Add smaller digits recursively */
36     PartialSum sum = addListsHelper(l1.next, l2.next);
37
38     /* Add carry to current data */
39     int val = sum.carry + l1.data + l2.data;
40
41     /* Insert sum of current digits */
42     ListNode full_result = insertBefore(sum.sum, val % 10);
43
44     /* Return sum so far, and the carry value */
45     sum.sum = full_result;
46     sum.carry = val / 10;
47     return sum;
48 }
49
50 /* Pad the list with zeros */
51 ListNode padList(ListNode l, int padding) {
52     ListNode head = l;
53     for (int i = 0; i < padding; i++) {
54         head = insertBefore(head, 0);
55     }
56     return head;
57 }
58
59 /* Helper function to insert node in the front of a linked list */
60 ListNode insertBefore(ListNode list, int data) {
61     ListNode node = new ListNode(data);
62     if (list != null) {
63         node.next = list;
64     }
65     return node;
66 }

```

Note how we have pulled `insertBefore()`, `padList()`, and `length()` (not listed) into their own methods. This makes the code cleaner and easier to read—a wise thing to do in your interviews!

2.6 Palindrome: Implement a function to check if a linked list is a palindrome.

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SOLUTION

To approach this problem, we can picture a palindrome like $0 \rightarrow 1 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 1 \rightarrow 0$. We know that, since it's a palindrome, the list must be the same backwards and forwards. This leads us to our first solution.

Solution #1: Reverse and Compare

Our first solution is to reverse the linked list and compare the reversed list to the original list. If they're the same, the lists are identical.

Note that when we compare the linked list to the reversed list, we only actually need to compare the first half of the list. If the first half of the normal list matches the first half of the reversed list, then the second half of the normal list must match the second half of the reversed list.

```

1  boolean isPalindrome(LinkedListNode head) {
2      LinkedListNode reversed = reverseAndClone(head);
3      return isEqual(head, reversed);
4  }
5
6  LinkedListNode reverseAndClone(LinkedListNode node) {
7      LinkedListNode head = null;
8      while (node != null) {
9          LinkedListNode n = new LinkedListNode(node.data); // Clone
10         n.next = head;
11         head = n;
12         node = node.next;
13     }
14     return head;
15 }
16
17 boolean isEqual(LinkedListNode one, LinkedListNode two) {
18     while (one != null && two != null) {
19         if (one.data != two.data) {
20             return false;
21         }
22         one = one.next;
23         two = two.next;
24     }
25     return one == null && two == null;
26 }
```

Observe that we've modularized this code into `reverse` and `isEqual` functions. We've also created a new class so that we can return both the head and the tail of this method. We could have also returned a two-element array, but that approach is less maintainable.

Solution #2: Iterative Approach

We want to detect linked lists where the front half of the list is the reverse of the second half. How would we do that? By reversing the front half of the list. A stack can accomplish this.

We need to push the first half of the elements onto a stack. We can do this in two different ways, depending on whether or not we know the size of the linked list.

If we know the size of the linked list, we can iterate through the first half of the elements in a standard for loop, pushing each element onto a stack. We must be careful, of course, to handle the case where the length of the linked list is odd.

If we don't know the size of the linked list, we can iterate through the linked list, using the fast runner / slow runner technique described in the beginning of the chapter. At each step in the loop, we push the data from the slow runner onto a stack. When the fast runner hits the end of the list, the slow runner will have reached the middle of the linked list. By this point, the stack will have all the elements from the front of the linked list, but in reverse order.

Now, we simply iterate through the rest of the linked list. At each iteration, we compare the node to the top of the stack. If we complete the iteration without finding a difference, then the linked list is a palindrome.

```
1  boolean isPalindrome(LinkedListNode head) {  
2      LinkedListNode fast = head;  
3      LinkedListNode slow = head;  
4  
5      Stack<Integer> stack = new Stack<Integer>();  
6  
7      /* Push elements from first half of linked list onto stack. When fast runner  
8       * (which is moving at 2x speed) reaches the end of the linked list, then we  
9       * know we're at the middle */  
10     while (fast != null && fast.next != null) {  
11         stack.push(slow.data);  
12         slow = slow.next;  
13         fast = fast.next.next;  
14     }  
15  
16     /* Has odd number of elements, so skip the middle element */  
17     if (fast != null) {  
18         slow = slow.next;  
19     }  
20  
21     while (slow != null) {  
22         int top = stack.pop().intValue();  
23  
24         /* If values are different, then it's not a palindrome */  
25         if (top != slow.data) {  
26             return false;  
27         }  
28         slow = slow.next;  
29     }  
30     return true;  
31 }
```

Solution #3: Recursive Approach

First, a word on notation: in this solution, when we use the notation node Kx, the variable K indicates the value of the node data, and x (which is either f or b) indicates whether we are referring to the front node with that value or the back node. For example, in the below linked list, node 2b would refer to the second (back) node with value 2.

Now, like many linked list problems, you can approach this problem recursively. We may have some intuitive idea that we want to compare element 0 and element n - 1, element 1 and element n - 2, element 2 and element n - 3, and so on, until the middle element(s). For example:

$$0 \ (\ 1 \ (\ 2 \ (\ 3 \) \ 2 \) \ 1 \) \ 0$$

In order to apply this approach, we first need to know when we've reached the middle element, as this will form our base case. We can do this by passing in length - 2 for the length each time. When the length equals 0 or 1, we're at the center of the linked list. This is because the length is reduced by 2 each time. Once we've recursed $\frac{N}{2}$ times, length will be down to 0.

```
1  recurse(Node n, int length) {  
2      if (length == 0 || length == 1) {  
3          return [something]; // At middle  
4      }  
5      recurse(n.next, length - 2);
```

```

6     ...
7 }
```

This method will form the outline of the `isPalindrome` method. The “meat” of the algorithm though is comparing node `i` to node `n - i` to check if the linked list is a palindrome. How do we do that?

Let’s examine what the call stack looks like:

```

1 v1 = isPalindrome: list = 0 ( 1 ( 2 ( 3 ) 2 ) 1 ) 0. length = 7
2   v2 = isPalindrome: list = 1 ( 2 ( 3 ) 2 ) 1 ) 0. length = 5
3     v3 = isPalindrome: list = 2 ( 3 ) 2 ) 1 ) 0. length = 3
4       v4 = isPalindrome: list = 3 ) 2 ) 1 ) 0. length = 1
5         returns v3
6         returns v2
7       returns v1
8   returns ?
```

In the above call stack, each call wants to check if the list is a palindrome by comparing its head node with the corresponding node from the back of the list. That is:

- Line 1 needs to compare node `0f` with node `0b`
- Line 2 needs to compare node `1f` with node `1b`
- Line 3 needs to compare node `2f` with node `2b`
- Line 4 needs to compare node `3f` with node `3b`.

If we rewind the stack, passing nodes back as described below, we can do just that:

- Line 4 sees that it is the middle node (since `length = 1`), and passes back `head.next`. The value `head` equals node `3`, so `head.next` is node `2b`.
- Line 3 compares its head, node `2f`, to `returned_node` (the value from the previous recursive call), which is node `2b`. If the values match, it passes a reference to node `1b` (`returned_node.next`) up to line 2.
- Line 2 compares its head (node `1f`) to `returned_node` (node `1b`). If the values match, it passes a reference to node `0b` (or, `returned_node.next`) up to line 1.
- Line 1 compares its head, node `0f`, to `returned_node`, which is node `0b`. If the values match, it returns true.

To generalize, each call compares its head to `returned_node`, and then passes `returned_node.next` up the stack. In this way, every node `i` gets compared to node `n - i`. If at any point the values do not match, we return `false`, and every call up the stack checks for that value.

But wait, you might ask, sometimes we said we’ll return a boolean value, and sometimes we’re returning a node. Which is it?

It’s both. We create a simple class with two members, a boolean and a node, and return an instance of that class.

```

1 class Result {
2   public LinkedListNode node;
3   public boolean result;
4 }
```

The example below illustrates the parameters and return values from this sample list.

```

1 isPalindrome: list = 0 ( 1 ( 2 ( 3 ( 4 ) 3 ) 2 ) 1 ) 0. len = 9
2   isPalindrome: list = 1 ( 2 ( 3 ( 4 ) 3 ) 2 ) 1 ) 0. len = 7
3     isPalindrome: list = 2 ( 3 ( 4 ) 3 ) 2 ) 1 ) 0. len = 5
```

```
4     isPalindrome: list = 3 ( 4 ) 3 ) 2 ) 1 ) 0. len = 3
5     isPalindrome: list = 4 ) 3 ) 2 ) 1 ) 0. len = 1
6     returns node 3b, true
7     returns node 2b, true
8     returns node 1b, true
9     returns node 0b, true
10    returns null, true
```

Implementing this code is now just a matter of filling in the details.

```
1  boolean isPalindrome(LinkedListNode head) {
2      int length = lengthOfList(head);
3      Result p = isPalindromeRecurse(head, length);
4      return p.result;
5  }
6
7  Result isPalindromeRecurse(LinkedListNode head, int length) {
8      if (head == null || length <= 0) { // Even number of nodes
9          return new Result(head, true);
10 } else if (length == 1) { // Odd number of nodes
11     return new Result(head.next, true);
12 }
13
14 /* Recurse on sublist. */
15 Result res = isPalindromeRecurse(head.next, length - 2);
16
17 /* If child calls are not a palindrome, pass back up
18 * a failure. */
19 if (!res.result || res.node == null) {
20     return res;
21 }
22
23 /* Check if matches corresponding node on other side. */
24 res.result = (head.data == res.node.data);
25
26 /* Return corresponding node. */
27 res.node = res.node.next;
28
29 return res;
30 }
31
32 int lengthOfList(LinkedListNode n) {
33     int size = 0;
34     while (n != null) {
35         size++;
36         n = n.next;
37     }
38     return size;
39 }
```

Some of you might be wondering why we went through all this effort to create a special `Result` class. Isn't there a better way? Not really—at least not in Java.

However, if we were implementing this in C or C++, we could have passed in a double pointer.

```
1  bool isPalindromeRecurse(Node head, int length, Node** next) {
2      ...
3  }
```

It's ugly, but it works.

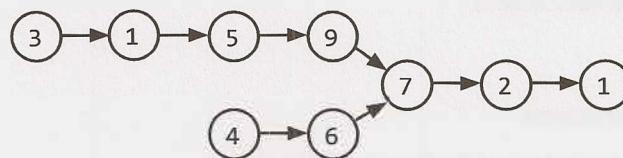
- 2.7 Intersection:** Given two (singly) linked lists, determine if the two lists intersect. Return the intersecting node. Note that the intersection is defined based on reference, not value. That is, if the k th node of the first linked list is the exact same node (by reference) as the j th node of the second linked list, then they are intersecting.

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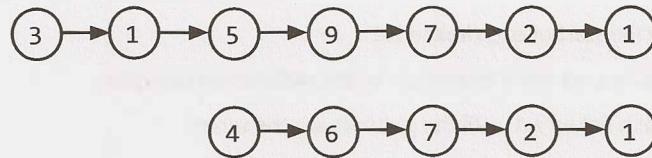
SOLUTION

Let's draw a picture of intersecting linked lists to get a better feel for what is going on.

Here is a picture of intersecting linked lists:



And here is a picture of non-intersecting linked lists:



We should be careful here to not inadvertently draw a special case by making the linked lists the same length.

Let's first ask how we would determine if two linked lists intersect.

Determining if there's an intersection.

How would we detect if two linked lists intersect? One approach would be to use a hash table and just throw all the linked lists nodes into there. We would need to be careful to reference the linked lists by their memory location, not by their value.

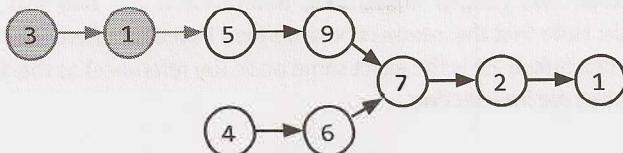
There's an easier way though. Observe that two intersecting linked lists will always have the same last node. Therefore, we can just traverse to the end of each linked list and compare the last nodes.

How do we find where the intersection is, though?

Finding the intersecting node.

One thought is that we could traverse backwards through each linked list. When the linked lists "split", that's the intersection. Of course, you can't really traverse backwards through a singly linked list.

If the linked lists were the same length, you could just traverse through them at the same time. When they collide, that's your intersection.



When they're not the same length, we'd like to just "chop off"—or ignore—those excess (gray) nodes.

How can we do this? Well, if we know the lengths of the two linked lists, then the difference between those two linked lists will tell us how much to chop off.

We can get the lengths at the same time as we get the tails of the linked lists (which we used in the first step to determine if there's an intersection).

Putting it all together.

We now have a multistep process.

1. Run through each linked list to get the lengths and the tails.
2. Compare the tails. If they are different (by reference, not by value), return immediately. There is no intersection.
3. Set two pointers to the start of each linked list.
4. On the longer linked list, advance its pointer by the difference in lengths.
5. Now, traverse on each linked list until the pointers are the same.

The implementation for this is below.

```

1  LinkedListNode findIntersection(LinkedListNode list1, LinkedListNode list2) {
2      if (list1 == null || list2 == null) return null;
3
4      /* Get tail and sizes. */
5      Result result1 = getTailAndSize(list1);
6      Result result2 = getTailAndSize(list2);
7
8      /* If different tail nodes, then there's no intersection. */
9      if (result1.tail != result2.tail) {
10          return null;
11      }
12
13     /* Set pointers to the start of each linked list. */
14     LinkedListNode shorter = result1.size < result2.size ? list1 : list2;
15     LinkedListNode longer = result1.size < result2.size ? list2 : list1;
16
17     /* Advance the pointer for the longer linked list by difference in lengths. */
18     longer = getKthNode(longer, Math.abs(result1.size - result2.size));
19
20     /* Move both pointers until you have a collision. */
21     while (shorter != longer) {
22         shorter = shorter.next;
23         longer = longer.next;
24     }
25
26     /* Return either one. */
27     return longer;
28 }
29
  
```

```

30 class Result {
31     public LinkedListNode tail;
32     public int size;
33     public Result(LinkedListNode tail, int size) {
34         this.tail = tail;
35         this.size = size;
36     }
37 }
38
39 Result getTailAndSize(LinkedListNode list) {
40     if (list == null) return null;
41
42     int size = 1;
43     LinkedListNode current = list;
44     while (current.next != null) {
45         size++;
46         current = current.next;
47     }
48     return new Result(current, size);
49 }
50
51 LinkedListNode getKthNode(LinkedListNode head, int k) {
52     LinkedListNode current = head;
53     while (k > 0 && current != null) {
54         current = current.next;
55         k--;
56     }
57     return current;
58 }

```

This algorithm takes $O(A + B)$ time, where A and B are the lengths of the two linked lists. It takes $O(1)$ additional space.

2.8 Loop Detection: Given a circular linked list, implement an algorithm that returns the node at the beginning of the loop.

DEFINITION

Circular linked list: A (corrupt) linked list in which a node's next pointer points to an earlier node, so as to make a loop in the linked list.

EXAMPLE

Input: A → B → C → D → E → C [the same C as earlier]

Output: C

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SOLUTION

This is a modification of a classic interview problem: detect if a linked list has a loop. Let's apply the Pattern Matching approach.

Part 1: Detect If Linked List Has A Loop

An easy way to detect if a linked list has a loop is through the FastRunner / SlowRunner approach. FastRunner moves two steps at a time, while SlowRunner moves one step. Much like two cars racing around a track at different steps, they must eventually meet.

An astute reader may wonder if `FastRunner` might “hop over” `SlowRunner` completely, without ever colliding. That’s not possible. Suppose that `FastRunner` did hop over `SlowRunner`, such that `SlowRunner` is at spot i and `FastRunner` is at spot $i + 1$. In the previous step, `SlowRunner` would be at spot $i - 1$ and `FastRunner` would be at spot $((i + 1) - 2)$, or spot $i - 1$. That is, they would have collided.

Part 2: When Do They Collide?

Let’s assume that the linked list has a “non-looped” part of size k .

If we apply our algorithm from part 1, when will `FastRunner` and `SlowRunner` collide?

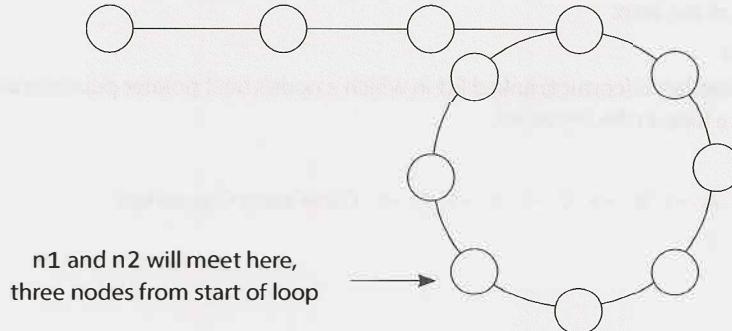
We know that for every p steps that `SlowRunner` takes, `FastRunner` has taken $2p$ steps. Therefore, when `SlowRunner` enters the looped portion after k steps, `FastRunner` has taken $2k$ steps total and must be $2k - k$ steps, or k steps, into the looped portion. Since k might be much larger than the loop length, we should actually write this as $\text{mod}(k, \text{LOOP_SIZE})$ steps, which we will denote as K .

At each subsequent step, `FastRunner` and `SlowRunner` get either one step farther away or one step closer, depending on your perspective. That is, because we are in a circle, when A moves q steps away from B, it is also moving q steps closer to B.

So now we know the following facts:

1. `SlowRunner` is 0 steps into the loop.
2. `FastRunner` is K steps into the loop.
3. `SlowRunner` is K steps behind `FastRunner`.
4. `FastRunner` is $\text{LOOP_SIZE} - K$ steps behind `SlowRunner`.
5. `FastRunner` catches up to `SlowRunner` at a rate of 1 step per unit of time.

So, when do they meet? Well, if `FastRunner` is $\text{LOOP_SIZE} - K$ steps behind `SlowRunner`, and `FastRunner` catches up at a rate of 1 step per unit of time, then they meet after $\text{LOOP_SIZE} - K$ steps. At this point, they will be K steps before the head of the loop. Let’s call this point `CollisionSpot`.



Part 3: How Do You Find The Start of the Loop?

We now know that `CollisionSpot` is K nodes before the start of the loop. Because $K = \text{mod}(k, \text{LOOP_SIZE})$ (or, in other words, $k = K + M * \text{LOOP_SIZE}$, for any integer M), it is also correct to say that it is k nodes from the loop start. For example, if node N is 2 nodes into a 5 node loop, it is also correct to say that it is 7, 12, or even 397 nodes into the loop.

Therefore, both `CollisionSpot` and `LinkedListHead` are k nodes from the start of the loop.

Now, if we keep one pointer at `CollisionSpot` and move the other one to `LinkedListHead`, they will each be k nodes from `LoopStart`. Moving the two pointers at the same speed will cause them to collide again—this time after k steps, at which point they will both be at `LoopStart`. All we have to do is return this node.

Part 4: Putting It All Together

To summarize, we move `FastPointer` twice as fast as `SlowPointer`. When `SlowPointer` enters the loop, after k nodes, `FastPointer` is k nodes into the loop. This means that `FastPointer` and `SlowPointer` are $\text{LOOP_SIZE} - k$ nodes away from each other.

Next, if `FastPointer` moves two nodes for each node that `SlowPointer` moves, they move one node closer to each other on each turn. Therefore, they will meet after $\text{LOOP_SIZE} - k$ turns. Both will be k nodes from the front of the loop.

The head of the linked list is also k nodes from the front of the loop. So, if we keep one pointer where it is, and move the other pointer to the head of the linked list, then they will meet at the front of the loop.

Our algorithm is derived directly from parts 1, 2 and 3.

1. Create two pointers, `FastPointer` and `SlowPointer`.
2. Move `FastPointer` at a rate of 2 steps and `SlowPointer` at a rate of 1 step.
3. When they collide, move `SlowPointer` to `LinkedListHead`. Keep `FastPointer` where it is.
4. Move `SlowPointer` and `FastPointer` at a rate of one step. Return the new collision point.

The code below implements this algorithm.

```

1  LinkedListNode FindBeginning(LinkedListNode head) {
2      LinkedListNode slow = head;
3      LinkedListNode fast = head;
4
5      /* Find meeting point. This will be LOOP_SIZE - k steps into the linked list. */
6      while (fast != null && fast.next != null) {
7          slow = slow.next;
8          fast = fast.next.next;
9          if (slow == fast) { // Collision
10              break;
11          }
12      }
13
14     /* Error check - no meeting point, and therefore no loop */
15     if (fast == null || fast.next == null) {
16         return null;
17     }
18
19     /* Move slow to Head. Keep fast at Meeting Point. Each are k steps from the
20      * Loop Start. If they move at the same pace, they must meet at Loop Start. */
21     slow = head;
22     while (slow != fast) {
23         slow = slow.next;
24         fast = fast.next;
25     }
26
27     /* Both now point to the start of the loop. */
28     return fast;
29 }
```

linked lists. In this chapter, we will learn how to implement linked lists in various ways, including singly linked lists, doubly linked lists, and circular linked lists. We will also learn how to traverse linked lists and how to search for a node in a linked list.

After reading this chapter, you will have a solid understanding of linked lists and how they can be used to solve various problems.

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- 2.1 Singly Linked Lists
- 2.2 Doubly Linked Lists
- 2.3 Circular Linked Lists
- 2.4 Traversing a Linked List
- 2.5 Searching a Linked List

2.1 Singly Linked Lists

A singly linked list is a sequence of nodes, where each node contains a data value and a pointer to the next node in the list. The last node in the list has a null pointer.

The following diagram illustrates a singly linked list with three nodes:

```
graph LR; N1["Node 1: 1"] --> N2["Node 2: 2"]; N2 --> N3["Node 3: 3"]; N3 --> Null["null"];
```

2.2 Doubly Linked Lists

A doubly linked list is a sequence of nodes, where each node contains a data value and two pointers: one pointing to the previous node and one pointing to the next node. The first node has a null pointer to the previous node, and the last node has a null pointer to the next node.

The following diagram illustrates a doubly linked list with three nodes:

```
graph LR; N1["Node 1: 1"] -- prev: null --> N2["Node 2: 2"]; N1 -- next: N2 --> N3["Node 3: 3"]; N2 -- prev: N1 --> N3; N2 -- next: null --> N3;
```

2.3 Circular Linked Lists

A circular linked list is a sequence of nodes, where each node contains a data value and a pointer to the next node. Unlike a singly linked list, the last node in the list has a pointer that loops back to the first node.

The following diagram illustrates a circular linked list with three nodes:

```
graph LR; N1["Node 1: 1"] --> N2["Node 2: 2"]; N2 --> N3["Node 3: 3"]; N3 --> N1;
```

2.4 Traversing a Linked List

Traversing a linked list involves visiting each node in the list sequentially. This can be done by starting at the head of the list and repeatedly moving to the next node until the end of the list is reached.

The following diagram illustrates traversing a singly linked list with three nodes:

```
graph LR; N1["Node 1: 1"] --> N2["Node 2: 2"]; N2 --> N3["Node 3: 3"]; N3 --> Null["null"];
```

2.5 Searching a Linked List

Searching a linked list involves finding a specific node or value within the list. This can be done by traversing the list and comparing the data value of each node against the target value.

The following diagram illustrates searching for the value 2 in a singly linked list with three nodes:

```
graph LR; N1["Node 1: 1"] --> N2["Node 2: 2"]; N2 --> N3["Node 3: 3"]; N3 --> Null["null"];
```

2.6 Implementing a Singly Linked List

To implement a singly linked list, we need to define a node structure and a linked list structure. The node structure should contain a data value and a pointer to the next node. The linked list structure should contain a head pointer to the first node and a tail pointer to the last node.

The following code implements a singly linked list in C++:

```
class Node {  
public:  
    int data;  
    Node* next;  
};  
  
class SinglyLinkedList {  
public:  
    Node* head;  
    Node* tail;  
};
```

2.7 Implementing a Doubly Linked List

To implement a doubly linked list, we need to define a node structure and a linked list structure. The node structure should contain a data value and two pointers: one to the previous node and one to the next node. The linked list structure should contain a head pointer to the first node and a tail pointer to the last node.

The following code implements a doubly linked list in C++:

```
class Node {  
public:  
    int data;  
    Node* prev;  
    Node* next;  
};  
  
class DoublyLinkedList {  
public:  
    Node* head;  
    Node* tail;  
};
```

3

Solutions to Stacks and Queues

3.1 Three in One: Describe how you could use a single array to implement three stacks.

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SOLUTION

Like many problems, this one somewhat depends on how well we'd like to support these stacks. If we're okay with simply allocating a fixed amount of space for each stack, we can do that. This may mean though that one stack runs out of space, while the others are nearly empty.

Alternatively, we can be flexible in our space allocation, but this significantly increases the complexity of the problem.

Approach 1: Fixed Division

We can divide the array in three equal parts and allow the individual stack to grow in that limited space. Note: We will use the notation “[” to mean inclusive of an end point and “(“ to mean exclusive of an end point.

- For stack 1, we will use $[0, \frac{n}{3}]$.
- For stack 2, we will use $[\frac{n}{3}, \frac{2n}{3}]$.
- For stack 3, we will use $[\frac{2n}{3}, n]$.

The code for this solution is below.

```
1  class FixedMultiStack {  
2      private int numberOfStacks = 3;  
3      private int stackCapacity;  
4      private int[] values;  
5      private int[] sizes;  
6  
7      public FixedMultiStack(int stackSize) {  
8          stackCapacity = stackSize;  
9          values = new int[stackSize * numberOfStacks];  
10         sizes = new int[numberOfStacks];  
11     }  
12  
13     /* Push value onto stack. */  
14     public void push(int stackNum, int value) throws FullStackException {  
15         /* Check that we have space for the next element */  
16         if (isFull(stackNum)) {  
17             throw new FullStackException();  
18         }  
19         sizes[stackNum]++;  
20         values[(stackCapacity * stackNum) + sizes[stackNum]] = value;  
21     }  
22  
23     /* Pop value from stack. */  
24     public int pop(int stackNum) throws EmptyStackException {  
25         if (isEmpty(stackNum)) {  
26             throw new EmptyStackException();  
27         }  
28         int value = values[(stackCapacity * stackNum) + sizes[stackNum]];  
29         sizes[stackNum]--;  
30         return value;  
31     }  
32  
33     /* Get size of stack. */  
34     public int getSize(int stackNum) {  
35         return sizes[stackNum];  
36     }  
37  
38     /* Check if stack is full. */  
39     public boolean isFull(int stackNum) {  
40         return sizes[stackNum] == stackCapacity;  
41     }  
42  
43     /* Check if stack is empty. */  
44     public boolean isEmpty(int stackNum) {  
45         return sizes[stackNum] == 0;  
46     }  
47  
48     /* Get total number of elements in all stacks. */  
49     public int getTotalSize() {  
50         int totalSize = 0;  
51         for (int i = 0; i < numberOfStacks; i++) {  
52             totalSize += sizes[i];  
53         }  
54         return totalSize;  
55     }  
56  
57     /* Get total capacity of all stacks. */  
58     public int getTotalCapacity() {  
59         return stackCapacity * numberOfStacks;  
60     }  
61  
62     /* Get total number of elements in all stacks. */  
63     public int getTotalSize() {  
64         int totalSize = 0;  
65         for (int i = 0; i < numberOfStacks; i++) {  
66             totalSize += sizes[i];  
67         }  
68         return totalSize;  
69     }  
70  
71     /* Get total capacity of all stacks. */  
72     public int getTotalCapacity() {  
73         return stackCapacity * numberOfStacks;  
74     }  
75  
76     /* Get total number of elements in all stacks. */  
77     public int getTotalSize() {  
78         int totalSize = 0;  
79         for (int i = 0; i < numberOfStacks; i++) {  
80             totalSize += sizes[i];  
81         }  
82         return totalSize;  
83     }  
84  
85     /* Get total capacity of all stacks. */  
86     public int getTotalCapacity() {  
87         return stackCapacity * numberOfStacks;  
88     }  
89  
90     /* Get total number of elements in all stacks. */  
91     public int getTotalSize() {  
92         int totalSize = 0;  
93         for (int i = 0; i < numberOfStacks; i++) {  
94             totalSize += sizes[i];  
95         }  
96         return totalSize;  
97     }  
98  
99     /* Get total capacity of all stacks. */  
100    public int getTotalCapacity() {  
101        return stackCapacity * numberOfStacks;  
102    }  
103}
```

```

18     }
19
20     /* Increment stack pointer and then update top value. */
21     sizes[stackNum]++;
22     values[indexOfTop(stackNum)] = value;
23 }
24
25 /* Pop item from top stack. */
26 public int pop(int stackNum) {
27     if (isEmpty(stackNum)) {
28         throw new EmptyStackException();
29     }
30
31     int topIndex = indexOfTop(stackNum);
32     int value = values[topIndex]; // Get top
33     values[topIndex] = 0; // Clear
34     sizes[stackNum]--; // Shrink
35     return value;
36 }
37
38 /* Return top element. */
39 public int peek(int stackNum) {
40     if (isEmpty(stackNum)) {
41         throw new EmptyStackException();
42     }
43     return values[indexOfTop(stackNum)];
44 }
45
46 /* Return if stack is empty. */
47 public boolean isEmpty(int stackNum) {
48     return sizes[stackNum] == 0;
49 }
50
51 /* Return if stack is full. */
52 public boolean isFull(int stackNum) {
53     return sizes[stackNum] == stackCapacity;
54 }
55
56 /* Returns index of the top of the stack. */
57 private int indexOfTop(int stackNum) {
58     int offset = stackNum * stackCapacity;
59     int size = sizes[stackNum];
60     return offset + size - 1;
61 }
62 }

```

If we had additional information about the expected usages of the stacks, then we could modify this algorithm accordingly. For example, if we expected Stack 1 to have many more elements than Stack 2, we could allocate more space to Stack 1 and less space to Stack 2.

Approach 2: Flexible Divisions

A second approach is to allow the stack blocks to be flexible in size. When one stack exceeds its initial capacity, we grow the allowable capacity and shift elements as necessary.

We will also design our array to be circular, such that the final stack may start at the end of the array and wrap around to the beginning.

Please note that the code for this solution is far more complex than would be appropriate for an interview. You could be responsible for pseudocode, or perhaps the code of individual components, but the entire implementation would be far too much work.

```
1  public class MultiStack {  
2      /* StackInfo is a simple class that holds a set of data about each stack. It  
3          * does not hold the actual items in the stack. We could have done this with  
4          * just a bunch of individual variables, but that's messy and doesn't gain us  
5          * much. */  
6      private class StackInfo {  
7          public int start, size, capacity;  
8          public StackInfo(int start, int capacity) {  
9              this.start = start;  
10             this.capacity = capacity;  
11         }  
12     }  
13     /* Check if an index on the full array is within the stack boundaries. The  
14        * stack can wrap around to the start of the array. */  
15     public boolean isWithinStackCapacity(int index) {  
16         /* If outside of bounds of array, return false. */  
17         if (index < 0 || index >= values.length) {  
18             return false;  
19         }  
20         /* If index wraps around, adjust it. */  
21         int contiguousIndex = index < start ? index + values.length : index;  
22         int end = start + capacity;  
23         return start <= contiguousIndex && contiguousIndex < end;  
24     }  
25     public int lastCapacityIndex() {  
26         return adjustIndex(start + capacity - 1);  
27     }  
28     public int lastElementIndex() {  
29         return adjustIndex(start + size - 1);  
30     }  
31     public boolean isFull() { return size == capacity; }  
32     public boolean isEmpty() { return size == 0; }  
33 }  
34  
35 private StackInfo[] info;  
36 private int[] values;  
37  
38 public MultiStack(int numberofStacks, int defaultSize) {  
39     /* Create metadata for all the stacks. */  
40     info = new StackInfo[numberofStacks];  
41     for (int i = 0; i < numberofStacks; i++) {  
42         info[i] = new StackInfo(defaultSize * i, defaultSize);  
43     }  
44     values = new int[numberofStacks * defaultSize];  
45 }  
46  
47     /* Push value onto stack num, shifting/expanding stacks as necessary. Throws  
48        * exception if all stacks are full. */  
49     public void push(int stackNum, int value) throws FullStackException {
```

```
54     if (allStacksAreFull()) {
55         throw new FullStackException();
56     }
57
58     /* If this stack is full, expand it. */
59     StackInfo stack = info[stackNum];
60     if (stack.isFull()) {
61         expand(stackNum);
62     }
63
64     /* Find the index of the top element in the array + 1, and increment the
65      * stack pointer */
66     stack.size++;
67     values[stack.lastElementIndex()] = value;
68 }
69
70 /* Remove value from stack. */
71 public int pop(int stackNum) throws Exception {
72     StackInfo stack = info[stackNum];
73     if (stack.isEmpty()) {
74         throw new EmptyStackException();
75     }
76
77     /* Remove last element. */
78     int value = values[stack.lastElementIndex()];
79     values[stack.lastElementIndex()] = 0; // Clear item
80     stack.size--; // Shrink size
81     return value;
82 }
83
84 /* Get top element of stack.*/
85 public int peek(int stackNum) {
86     StackInfo stack = info[stackNum];
87     return values[stack.lastElementIndex()];
88 }
89 /* Shift items in stack over by one element. If we have available capacity, then
90  * we'll end up shrinking the stack by one element. If we don't have available
91  * capacity, then we'll need to shift the next stack over too. */
92 private void shift(int stackNum) {
93     System.out.println("/// Shifting " + stackNum);
94     StackInfo stack = info[stackNum];
95
96     /* If this stack is at its full capacity, then you need to move the next
97      * stack over by one element. This stack can now claim the freed index. */
98     if (stack.size >= stack.capacity) {
99         int nextStack = (stackNum + 1) % info.length;
100        shift(nextStack);
101        stack.capacity++; // claim index that next stack lost
102    }
103
104    /* Shift all elements in stack over by one. */
105    int index = stack.lastCapacityIndex();
106    while (stack.isWithinStackCapacity(index)) {
107        values[index] = values[previousIndex(index)];
108        index = previousIndex(index);
109    }
}
```

```

110
111     /* Adjust stack data. */
112     values[stack.start] = 0; // Clear item
113     stack.start = nextIndex(stack.start); // move start
114     stack.capacity--; // Shrink capacity
115 }
116
117 /* Expand stack by shifting over other stacks */
118 private void expand(int stackNum) {
119     shift((stackNum + 1) % info.length);
120     info[stackNum].capacity++;
121 }
122
123 /* Returns the number of items actually present in stack. */
124 public int numberOfElements() {
125     int size = 0;
126     for (StackInfo sd : info) {
127         size += sd.size;
128     }
129     return size;
130 }
131
132 /* Returns true if all the stacks are full. */
133 public boolean allStacksAreFull() {
134     return numberOfElements() == values.length;
135 }
136
137 /* Adjust index to be within the range of 0 -> length - 1. */
138 private int adjustIndex(int index) {
139     /* Java's mod operator can return neg values. For example, (-11 % 5) will
140      * return -1, not 4. We actually want the value to be 4 (since we're wrapping
141      * around the index). */
142     int max = values.length;
143     return ((index % max) + max) % max;
144 }
145
146 /* Get index after this index, adjusted for wrap around. */
147 private int nextIndex(int index) {
148     return adjustIndex(index + 1);
149 }
150
151 /* Get index before this index, adjusted for wrap around. */
152 private int previousIndex(int index) {
153     return adjustIndex(index - 1);
154 }
155 }

```

In problems like this, it's important to focus on writing clean, maintainable code. You should use additional classes, as we did with `StackInfo`, and pull chunks of code into separate methods. Of course, this advice applies to the "real world" as well.

- 3.2 Stack Min:** How would you design a stack which, in addition to push and pop, has a function `min` which returns the minimum element? Push, pop and `min` should all operate in $O(1)$ time.

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SOLUTION

The thing with minimums is that they don't change very often. They only change when a smaller element is added.

One solution is to have just a single `int` value, `minValue`, that's a member of the `Stack` class. When `minValue` is popped from the stack, we search through the stack to find the new minimum. Unfortunately, this would break the constraint that push and pop operate in $O(1)$ time.

To further understand this question, let's walk through it with a short example:

```
push(5); // stack is {5}, min is 5
push(6); // stack is {6, 5}, min is 5
push(3); // stack is {3, 6, 5}, min is 3
push(7); // stack is {7, 3, 6, 5}, min is 3
pop(); // pops 7. stack is {3, 6, 5}, min is 3
pop(); // pops 3. stack is {6, 5}. min is 5.
```

Observe how once the stack goes back to a prior state (`{6, 5}`), the minimum also goes back to its prior state (5). This leads us to our second solution.

If we kept track of the minimum at each state, we would be able to easily know the minimum. We can do this by having each node record what the minimum beneath itself is. Then, to find the `min`, you just look at what the top element thinks is the `min`.

When you push an element onto the stack, the element is given the current minimum. It sets its "local `min`" to be the `min`.

```
1 public class StackWithMin extends Stack<NodeWithMin> {
2     public void push(int value) {
3         int newMin = Math.min(value, min());
4         super.push(new NodeWithMin(value, newMin));
5     }
6
7     public int min() {
8         if (this.isEmpty()) {
9             return Integer.MAX_VALUE; // Error value
10        } else {
11            return peek().min();
12        }
13    }
14 }
15
16 class NodeWithMin {
17     public int value;
18     public int min;
19     public NodeWithMin(int v, int min){
20         value = v;
21         this.min = min;
22     }
23 }
```

There's just one issue with this: if we have a large stack, we waste a lot of space by keeping track of the `min` for every single element. Can we do better?

We can (maybe) do a bit better than this by using an additional stack which keeps track of the mins.

```

1  public class StackWithMin2 extends Stack<Integer> {
2      Stack<Integer> s2;
3      public StackWithMin2() {
4          s2 = new Stack<Integer>();
5      }
6
7      public void push(int value){
8          if (value <= min()) {
9              s2.push(value);
10         }
11         super.push(value);
12     }
13
14     public Integer pop() {
15         int value = super.pop();
16         if (value == min()) {
17             s2.pop();
18         }
19         return value;
20     }
21
22     public int min() {
23         if (s2.isEmpty()) {
24             return Integer.MAX_VALUE;
25         } else {
26             return s2.peek();
27         }
28     }
29 }
```

Why might this be more space efficient? Suppose we had a very large stack and the first element inserted happened to be the minimum. In the first solution, we would be keeping n integers, where n is the size of the stack. In the second solution though, we store just a few pieces of data: a second stack with one element and the members within this stack.

3.3 Stack of Plates: Imagine a (literal) stack of plates. If the stack gets too high, it might topple. Therefore, in real life, we would likely start a new stack when the previous stack exceeds some threshold. Implement a data structure `SetOfStacks` that mimics this. `SetOfStacks` should be composed of several stacks and should create a new stack once the previous one exceeds capacity. `SetOfStacks.push()` and `SetOfStacks.pop()` should behave identically to a single stack (that is, `pop()` should return the same values as it would if there were just a single stack).

FOLLOW UP

Implement a function `popAt(int index)` which performs a pop operation on a specific sub-stack.

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SOLUTION

In this problem, we've been told what our data structure should look like:

```

1  class SetOfStacks {
2      ArrayList<Stack> stacks = new ArrayList<Stack>();
3      public void push(int v) { ... }
```

```
4     public int pop() { ... }
5 }
```

We know that `push()` should behave identically to a single stack, which means that we need `push()` to call `push()` on the last stack in the array of stacks. We have to be a bit careful here though: if the last stack is at capacity, we need to create a new stack. Our code should look something like this:

```
1 void push(int v) {
2     Stack last = getLastStack();
3     if (last != null && !last.isFull()) { // add to last stack
4         last.push(v);
5     } else { // must create new stack
6         Stack stack = new Stack(capacity);
7         stack.push(v);
8         stacks.add(stack);
9     }
10 }
```

What should `pop()` do? It should behave similarly to `push()` in that it should operate on the last stack. If the last stack is empty (after popping), then we should remove the stack from the list of stacks.

```
1 int pop() {
2     Stack last = getLastStack();
3     if (last == null) throw new EmptyStackException();
4     int v = last.pop();
5     if (last.size == 0) stacks.remove(stacks.size() - 1);
6     return v;
7 }
```

Follow Up: Implement `popAt(int index)`

This is a bit trickier to implement, but we can imagine a “rollover” system. If we pop an element from stack 1, we need to remove the *bottom* of stack 2 and push it onto stack 1. We then need to rollover from stack 3 to stack 2, stack 4 to stack 3, etc.

You could make an argument that, rather than “rolling over,” we should be okay with some stacks not being at full capacity. This would improve the time complexity (by a fair amount, with a large number of elements), but it might get us into tricky situations later on if someone assumes that all stacks (other than the last) operate at full capacity. There’s no “right answer” here; you should discuss this trade-off with your interviewer.

```
1 public class SetOfStacks {
2     ArrayList<Stack> stacks = new ArrayList<Stack>();
3     public int capacity;
4     public SetOfStacks(int capacity) {
5         this.capacity = capacity;
6     }
7
8     public Stack getLastStack() {
9         if (stacks.size() == 0) return null;
10        return stacks.get(stacks.size() - 1);
11    }
12
13    public void push(int v) { /* see earlier code */ }
14    public int pop() { /* see earlier code */ }
15    public boolean isEmpty() {
16        Stack last = getLastStack();
17        return last == null || last.isEmpty();
18    }
}
```

```
19
20     public int popAt(int index) {
21         return leftShift(index, true);
22     }
23
24     public int leftShift(int index, boolean removeTop) {
25         Stack stack = stacks.get(index);
26         int removed_item;
27         if (removeTop) removed_item = stack.pop();
28         else removed_item = stack.removeBottom();
29         if (stack.isEmpty()) {
30             stacks.remove(index);
31         } else if (stacks.size() > index + 1) {
32             int v = leftShift(index + 1, false);
33             stack.push(v);
34         }
35         return removed_item;
36     }
37 }
38
39 public class Stack {
40     private int capacity;
41     public Node top, bottom;
42     public int size = 0;
43
44     public Stack(int capacity) { this.capacity = capacity; }
45     public boolean isFull() { return capacity == size; }
46
47     public void join(Node above, Node below) {
48         if (below != null) below.above = above;
49         if (above != null) above.below = below;
50     }
51
52     public boolean push(int v) {
53         if (size >= capacity) return false;
54         size++;
55         Node n = new Node(v);
56         if (size == 1) bottom = n;
57         join(n, top);
58         top = n;
59         return true;
60     }
61
62     public int pop() {
63         Node t = top;
64         top = top.below;
65         size--;
66         return t.value;
67     }
68
69     public boolean isEmpty() {
70         return size == 0;
71     }
72
73     public int removeBottom() {
74         Node b = bottom;
```

```
75     bottom = bottom.above;
76     if (bottom != null) bottom.below = null;
77     size--;
78     return b.value;
79 }
80 }
```

This problem is not conceptually that tough, but it requires a lot of code to implement it fully. Your interviewer would not ask you to implement the entire code.

A good strategy on problems like this is to separate code into other methods, like a `leftShift` method that `popAt` can call. This will make your code cleaner and give you the opportunity to lay down the skeleton of the code before dealing with some of the details.

3.4 Queue via Stacks: Implement a `MyQueue` class which implements a queue using two stacks.

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SOLUTION

Since the major difference between a queue and a stack is the order (first-in first-out vs. last-in first-out), we know that we need to modify `peek()` and `pop()` to go in reverse order. We can use our second stack to reverse the order of the elements (by popping `s1` and pushing the elements on to `s2`). In such an implementation, on each `peek()` and `pop()` operation, we would pop everything from `s1` onto `s2`, perform the `peek` / `pop` operation, and then push everything back.

This will work, but if two `pop` / `peeks` are performed back-to-back, we're needlessly moving elements. We can implement a "lazy" approach where we let the elements sit in `s2` until we absolutely must reverse the elements.

In this approach, `stackNewest` has the newest elements on top and `stackOldest` has the oldest elements on top. When we dequeue an element, we want to remove the oldest element first, and so we dequeue from `stackOldest`. If `stackOldest` is empty, then we want to transfer all elements from `stackNewest` into this stack in reverse order. To insert an element, we push onto `stackNewest`, since it has the newest elements on top.

The code below implements this algorithm.

```
1  public class MyQueue<T> {
2     Stack<T> stackNewest, stackOldest;
3
4     public MyQueue() {
5         stackNewest = new Stack<T>();
6         stackOldest = new Stack<T>();
7     }
8
9     public int size() {
10        return stackNewest.size() + stackOldest.size();
11    }
12
13    public void add(T value) {
14        /* Push onto stackNewest, which always has the newest elements on top */
15        stackNewest.push(value);
16    }
17
18    /* Move elements from stackNewest into stackOldest. This is usually done so that
19     * we can do operations on stackOldest. */
```

```

20  private void shiftStacks() {
21      if (stackOldest.isEmpty()) {
22          while (!stackNewest.isEmpty()) {
23              stackOldest.push(stackNewest.pop());
24          }
25      }
26  }
27
28  public T peek() {
29      shiftStacks(); // Ensure stackOldest has the current elements
30      return stackOldest.peek(); // retrieve the oldest item.
31  }
32
33  public T remove() {
34      shiftStacks(); // Ensure stackOldest has the current elements
35      return stackOldest.pop(); // pop the oldest item.
36  }
37 }

```

During your actual interview, you may find that you forget the exact API calls. Don't stress too much if that happens to you. Most interviewers are okay with your asking for them to refresh your memory on little details. They're much more concerned with your big picture understanding.

- 3.5 Sort Stack:** Write a program to sort a stack such that the smallest items are on the top. You can use an additional temporary stack, but you may not copy the elements into any other data structure (such as an array). The stack supports the following operations: push, pop, peek, and isEmpty.

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SOLUTION

One approach is to implement a rudimentary sorting algorithm. We search through the entire stack to find the minimum element and then push that onto a new stack. Then, we find the new minimum element and push that. This will actually require a total of three stacks: s_1 is the original stack, s_2 is the final sorted stack, and s_3 acts as a buffer during our searching of s_1 . To search s_1 for each minimum, we need to pop elements from s_1 and push them onto the buffer, s_3 .

Unfortunately, this requires two additional stacks, and we can only use one. Can we do better? Yes.

Rather than searching for the minimum repeatedly, we can sort s_1 by inserting each element from s_1 in order into s_2 . How would this work?

Imagine we have the following stacks, where s_2 is "sorted" and s_1 is not:

s_1	s_2
	12
5	8
10	3
7	1

When we pop 5 from s_1 , we need to find the right place in s_2 to insert this number. In this case, the correct place is on s_2 just above 3. How do we get it there? We can do this by popping 5 from s_1 and holding it in a temporary variable. Then, we move 12 and 8 over to s_1 (by popping them from s_2 and pushing them onto s_1) and then push 5 onto s_2 .

Step 1

s1	s2
	12
	8
10	3
7	1

tmp = 5

Step 2

s1	s2
8	
12	
10	3
7	1

tmp = 5

Step 3

s1	s2
8	
12	5
10	3
7	1

tmp = --

Note that 8 and 12 are still in s1—and that's okay! We just repeat the same steps for those two numbers as we did for 5, each time popping off the top of s1 and putting it into the "right place" on s2. (Of course, since 8 and 12 were moved from s2 to s1 precisely *because* they were larger than 5, the "right place" for these elements will be right on top of 5. We won't need to muck around with s2's other elements, and the inside of the belowwhile loop will not be run when tmp is 8 or 12.)

```

1 void sort(Stack<Integer> s) {
2     Stack<Integer> r = new Stack<Integer>();
3     while(!s.isEmpty()) {
4         /* Insert each element in s in sorted order into r. */
5         int tmp = s.pop();
6         while(!r.isEmpty() && r.peek() > tmp) {
7             s.push(r.pop());
8         }
9         r.push(tmp);
10    }
11
12    /* Copy the elements from r back into s. */
13    while (!r.isEmpty()) {
14        s.push(r.pop());
15    }
16 }
```

This algorithm is $O(N^2)$ time and $O(N)$ space.

If we were allowed to use unlimited stacks, we could implement a modified quicksort or mergesort.

With the mergesort solution, we would create two extra stacks and divide the stack into two parts. We would recursively sort each stack, and then merge them back together in sorted order into the original stack. Note that this would require the creation of two additional stacks per level of recursion.

With the quicksort solution, we would create two additional stacks and divide the stack into the two stacks based on a pivot element. The two stacks would be recursively sorted, and then merged back together into the original stack. Like the earlier solution, this one involves creating two additional stacks per level of recursion.

- 3.6 Animal Shelter:** An animal shelter, which holds only dogs and cats, operates on a strictly “first in, first out” basis. People must adopt either the “oldest” (based on arrival time) of all animals at the shelter, or they can select whether they would prefer a dog or a cat (and will receive the oldest animal of that type). They cannot select which specific animal they would like. Create the data structures to maintain this system and implement operations such as enqueue, dequeueAny, dequeueDog, and dequeueCat. You may use the built-in `LinkedList` data structure.

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SOLUTION

We could explore a variety of solutions to this problem. For instance, we could maintain a single queue. This would make `dequeueAny` easy, but `dequeueDog` and `dequeueCat` would require iteration through the queue to find the first dog or cat. This would increase the complexity of the solution and decrease the efficiency.

An alternative approach that is simple, clean and efficient is to simply use separate queues for dogs and cats, and to place them within a wrapper class called `AnimalQueue`. We then store some sort of timestamp to mark when each animal was enqueued. When we call `dequeueAny`, we peek at the heads of both the dog and cat queue and return the oldest.

```

1 abstract class Animal {
2     private int order;
3     protected String name;
4     public Animal(String n) { name = n; }
5     public void setOrder(int ord) { order = ord; }
6     public int getOrder() { return order; }
7
8     /* Compare orders of animals to return the older item. */
9     public boolean isOlderThan(Animal a) {
10         return this.order < a.getOrder();
11     }
12 }
13
14 class AnimalQueue {
15     LinkedList<Dog> dogs = new LinkedList<Dog>();
16     LinkedList<Cat> cats = new LinkedList<Cat>();
17     private int order = 0; // acts as timestamp
18
19     public void enqueue(Animal a) {
20         /* Order is used as a sort of timestamp, so that we can compare the insertion
21          * order of a dog to a cat. */
22         a.setOrder(order);
23         order++;
24
25         if (a instanceof Dog) dogs.addLast((Dog) a);
26         else if (a instanceof Cat) cats.addLast((Cat)a);
27     }
28
29     public Animal dequeueAny() {
30         /* Look at tops of dog and cat queues, and pop the queue with the oldest
31          * value. */
32         if (dogs.size() == 0) {
33             return dequeueCats();
34         } else if (cats.size() == 0) {
35             return dequeueDogs();
36         }

```

```
37
38     Dog dog = dogs.peek();
39     Cat cat = cats.peek();
40     if (dog.isOlderThan(cat)) {
41         return dequeueDogs();
42     } else {
43         return dequeueCats();
44     }
45 }
46
47 public Dog dequeueDogs() {
48     return dogs.poll();
49 }
50
51 public Cat dequeueCats() {
52     return cats.poll();
53 }
54 }
55
56 public class Dog extends Animal {
57     public Dog(String n) { super(n); }
58 }
59
60 public class Cat extends Animal {
61     public Cat(String n) { super(n); }
62 }
```

It is important that `Dog` and `Cat` both inherit from an `Animal` class since `dequeueAny()` needs to be able to support returning both `Dog` and `Cat` objects.

If we wanted, `order` could be a true timestamp with the actual date and time. The advantage of this is that we wouldn't have to set and maintain the numerical order. If we somehow wound up with two animals with the same timestamp, then (by definition) we don't have an older animal and we could return either one.

4

Solutions to Trees and Graphs

- 4.1 Route Between Nodes:** Given a directed graph, design an algorithm to find out whether there is a route between two nodes.

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SOLUTION

This problem can be solved by just simple graph traversal, such as depth-first search or breadth-first search. We start with one of the two nodes and, during traversal, check if the other node is found. We should mark any node found in the course of the algorithm as “already visited” to avoid cycles and repetition of the nodes.

The code below provides an iterative implementation of breadth-first search.

```
1 enum State { Unvisited, Visited, Visiting; }
2
3 boolean search(Graph g, Node start, Node end) {
4     if (start == end) return true;
5
6     // operates as Queue
7     LinkedList<Node> q = new LinkedList<Node>();
8
9     for (Node u : g.getNodes()) {
10         u.state = State.Unvisited;
11     }
12    start.state = State.Visiting;
13    q.add(start);
14    Node u;
15    while (!q.isEmpty()) {
16        u = q.removeFirst(); // i.e., dequeue()
17        if (u != null) {
18            for (Node v : u.getAdjacent()) {
19                if (v.state == State.Unvisited) {
20                    if (v == end) {
21                        return true;
22                    } else {
23                        v.state = State.Visiting;
24                        q.add(v);
25                    }
26                }
27            }
28        }
29    }
30    u.state = State.Visited;
31 }
```

```
30     }
31     return false;
32 }
```

It may be worth discussing with your interviewer the tradeoffs between breadth-first search and depth-first search for this and other problems. For example, depth-first search is a bit simpler to implement since it can be done with simple recursion. Breadth-first search can also be useful to find the shortest path, whereas depth-first search may traverse one adjacent node very deeply before ever going onto the immediate neighbors.

- 4.2 Minimal Tree:** Given a sorted (increasing order) array with unique integer elements, write an algorithm to create a binary search tree with minimal height.

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SOLUTION

To create a tree of minimal height, we need to match the number of nodes in the left subtree to the number of nodes in the right subtree as much as possible. This means that we want the root to be the middle of the array, since this would mean that half the elements would be less than the root and half would be greater than it.

We proceed with constructing our tree in a similar fashion. The middle of each subsection of the array becomes the root of the node. The left half of the array will become our left subtree, and the right half of the array will become the right subtree.

One way to implement this is to use a simple `root.insertNode(int v)` method which inserts the value `v` through a recursive process that starts with the root node. This will indeed construct a tree with minimal height but it will not do so very efficiently. Each insertion will require traversing the tree, giving a total cost of $O(N \log N)$ to the tree.

Alternatively, we can cut out the extra traversals by recursively using the `createMinimalBST` method. This method is passed just a subsection of the array and returns the root of a minimal tree for that array.

The algorithm is as follows:

1. Insert into the tree the middle element of the array.
2. Insert (into the left subtree) the left subarray elements.
3. Insert (into the right subtree) the right subarray elements.
4. Recurse.

The code below implements this algorithm.

```
1 TreeNode createMinimalBST(int array[]) {
2     return createMinimalBST(array, 0, array.length - 1);
3 }
4
5 TreeNode createMinimalBST(int arr[], int start, int end) {
6     if (end < start) {
7         return null;
8     }
9     int mid = (start + end) / 2;
10    TreeNode n = new TreeNode(arr[mid]);
11    n.left = createMinimalBST(arr, start, mid - 1);
12    n.right = createMinimalBST(arr, mid + 1, end);
13    return n;
```

```
14 }
```

Although this code does not seem especially complex, it can be very easy to make little off-by-one errors. Be sure to test these parts of the code very thoroughly.

- 4.3 List of Depths:** Given a binary tree, design an algorithm which creates a linked list of all the nodes at each depth (e.g., if you have a tree with depth D, you'll have D linked lists).

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SOLUTION

Though we might think at first glance that this problem requires a level-by-level traversal, this isn't actually necessary. We can traverse the graph any way that we'd like, provided we know which level we're on as we do so.

We can implement a simple modification of the pre-order traversal algorithm, where we pass in `level + 1` to the next recursive call. The code below provides an implementation using depth-first search.

```
1 void createLevelLinkedList(TreeNode root, ArrayList<LinkedList<TreeNode>> lists,
2                             int level) {
3     if (root == null) return; // base case
4
5     LinkedList<TreeNode> list = null;
6     if (lists.size() == level) { // Level not contained in list
7         list = new LinkedList<TreeNode>();
8         /* Levels are always traversed in order. So, if this is the first time we've
9          * visited level i, we must have seen levels 0 through i - 1. We can
10         * therefore safely add the level at the end. */
11     lists.add(list);
12 } else {
13     list = lists.get(level);
14 }
15 list.add(root);
16 createLevelLinkedList(root.left, lists, level + 1);
17 createLevelLinkedList(root.right, lists, level + 1);
18 }
19
20 ArrayList<LinkedList<TreeNode>> createLevelLinkedList(TreeNode root) {
21     ArrayList<LinkedList<TreeNode>> lists = new ArrayList<LinkedList<TreeNode>>();
22     createLevelLinkedList(root, lists, 0);
23     return lists;
24 }
```

Alternatively, we can also implement a modification of breadth-first search. With this implementation, we want to iterate through the root first, then level 2, then level 3, and so on.

With each level `i`, we will have already fully visited all nodes on level `i - 1`. This means that to get which nodes are on level `i`, we can simply look at all children of the nodes of level `i - 1`.

The code below implements this algorithm.

```
1 ArrayList<LinkedList<TreeNode>> createLevelLinkedList(TreeNode root) {
2     ArrayList<LinkedList<TreeNode>> result = new ArrayList<LinkedList<TreeNode>>();
3     /* "Visit" the root */
4     LinkedList<TreeNode> current = new LinkedList<TreeNode>();
5     if (root != null) {
6         current.add(root);
7     }
```

```
8
9     while (current.size() > 0) {
10         result.add(current); // Add previous level
11         LinkedList<TreeNode> parents = current; // Go to next level
12         current = new LinkedList<TreeNode>();
13         for (TreeNode parent : parents) {
14             /* Visit the children */
15             if (parent.left != null) {
16                 current.add(parent.left);
17             }
18             if (parent.right != null) {
19                 current.add(parent.right);
20             }
21         }
22     }
23     return result;
24 }
```

One might ask which of these solutions is more efficient. Both run in $O(N)$ time, but what about the space efficiency? At first, we might want to claim that the second solution is more space efficient.

In a sense, that's correct. The first solution uses $O(\log N)$ recursive calls (in a balanced tree), each of which adds a new level to the stack. The second solution, which is iterative, does not require this extra space.

However, both solutions require returning $O(N)$ data. The extra $O(\log N)$ space usage from the recursive implementation is dwarfed by the $O(N)$ data that must be returned. So while the first solution may actually use more data, they are equally efficient when it comes to "big O."

- 4.4 Check Balanced:** Implement a function to check if a binary tree is balanced. For the purposes of this question, a balanced tree is defined to be a tree such that the heights of the two subtrees of any node never differ by more than one.

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SOLUTION

In this question, we've been fortunate enough to be told exactly what balanced means: that for each node, the two subtrees differ in height by no more than one. We can implement a solution based on this definition. We can simply recurse through the entire tree, and for each node, compute the heights of each subtree.

```
1 int getHeight(TreeNode root) {
2     if (root == null) return -1; // Base case
3     return Math.max(getHeight(root.left), getHeight(root.right)) + 1;
4 }
5
6 boolean isBalanced(TreeNode root) {
7     if (root == null) return true; // Base case
8
9     int heightDiff = getHeight(root.left) - getHeight(root.right);
10    if (Math.abs(heightDiff) > 1) {
11        return false;
12    } else { // Recurse
13        return isBalanced(root.left) && isBalanced(root.right);
14    }
15 }
```

Although this works, it's not very efficient. On each node, we recurse through its entire subtree. This means that `getHeight` is called repeatedly on the same nodes. The algorithm is $O(N \log N)$ since each node is "touched" once per node above it.

We need to cut out some of the calls to `getHeight`.

If we inspect this method, we may notice that `getHeight` could actually check if the tree is balanced at the same time as it's checking heights. What do we do when we discover that the subtree isn't balanced? Just return an error code.

This improved algorithm works by checking the height of each subtree as we recurse down from the root. On each node, we recursively get the heights of the left and right subtrees through the `checkHeight` method. If the subtree is balanced, then `checkHeight` will return the actual height of the subtree. If the subtree is not balanced, then `checkHeight` will return an error code. We will immediately break and return an error code from the current call.

What do we use for an error code? The height of a null tree is generally defined to be -1, so that's not a great idea for an error code. Instead, we'll use `Integer.MIN_VALUE`.

The code below implements this algorithm.

```

1 int checkHeight(TreeNode root) {
2     if (root == null) return -1;
3
4     int leftHeight = checkHeight(root.left);
5     if (leftHeight == Integer.MIN_VALUE) return Integer.MIN_VALUE; // Pass error up
6
7     int rightHeight = checkHeight(root.right);
8     if (rightHeight == Integer.MIN_VALUE) return Integer.MIN_VALUE; // Pass error up
9
10    int heightDiff = leftHeight - rightHeight;
11    if (Math.abs(heightDiff) > 1) {
12        return Integer.MIN_VALUE; // Found error -> pass it back
13    } else {
14        return Math.max(leftHeight, rightHeight) + 1;
15    }
16}
17
18 boolean isBalanced(TreeNode root) {
19     return checkHeight(root) != Integer.MIN_VALUE;
20 }
```

This code runs in $O(N)$ time and $O(H)$ space, where H is the height of the tree.

4.5 Validate BST: Implement a function to check if a binary tree is a binary search tree.

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SOLUTION

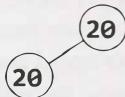
We can implement this solution in two different ways. The first leverages the in-order traversal, and the second builds off the property that `left <= current < right`.

Solution #1: In-Order Traversal

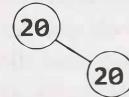
Our first thought might be to do an in-order traversal, copy the elements to an array, and then check to see if the array is sorted. This solution takes up a bit of extra memory, but it works—mostly.

The only problem is that it can't handle duplicate values in the tree properly. For example, the algorithm cannot distinguish between the two trees below (one of which is invalid) since they have the same in-order traversal.

Valid BST



Invalid BST



However, if we assume that the tree cannot have duplicate values, then this approach works. The pseudo-code for this method looks something like:

```
1 int index = 0;
2 void copyBST(TreeNode root, int[] array) {
3     if (root == null) return;
4     copyBST(root.left, array);
5     array[index] = root.data;
6     index++;
7     copyBST(root.right, array);
8 }
9
10 boolean checkBST(TreeNode root) {
11     int[] array = new int[root.size];
12     copyBST(root, array);
13     for (int i = 1; i < array.length; i++) {
14         if (array[i] <= array[i - 1]) return false;
15     }
16     return true;
17 }
```

Note that it is necessary to keep track of the logical “end” of the array, since it would be allocated to hold all the elements.

When we examine this solution, we find that the array is not actually necessary. We never use it other than to compare an element to the previous element. So why not just track the last element we saw and compare it as we go?

The code below implements this algorithm.

```
1 Integer last_printed = null;
2 boolean checkBST(TreeNode n) {
3     if (n == null) return true;
4
5     // Check / recurse left
6     if (!checkBST(n.left)) return false;
7
8     // Check current
9     if (last_printed != null && n.data <= last_printed) {
10         return false;
11     }
12     last_printed = n.data;
13
14     // Check / recurse right
```

```

15     if (!checkBST(n.right)) return false;
16
17     return true; // All good!
18 }

```

We've used an `Integer` instead of `int` so that we can know when `last_printed` has been set to a value.

If you don't like the use of static variables, then you can tweak this code to use a wrapper class for the integer, as shown below.

```

1  class WrapInt {
2     public int value;
3 }

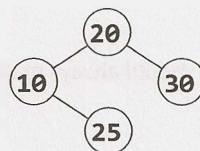
```

Or, if you're implementing this in C++ or another language that supports passing integers by reference, then you can simply do that.

Solution #2: The Min / Max Solution

In the second solution, we leverage the definition of the binary search tree.

What does it mean for a tree to be a binary search tree? We know that it must, of course, satisfy the condition `left.data <= current.data < right.data` for each node, but this isn't quite sufficient. Consider the following small tree:

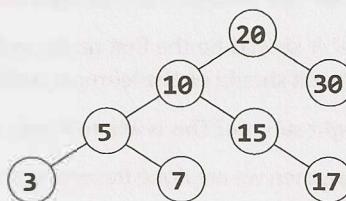


Although each node is bigger than its left node and smaller than its right node, this is clearly not a binary search tree since 25 is in the wrong place.

More precisely, the condition is that *all* left nodes must be less than or equal to the current node, which must be less than all the right nodes.

Using this thought, we can approach the problem by passing down the min and max values. As we iterate through the tree, we verify against progressively narrower ranges.

Consider the following sample tree:



We start with a range of (`min = NULL, max = NULL`), which the root obviously meets. (`NULL` indicates that there is no min or max.) We then branch left, checking that these nodes are within the range (`min = NULL, max = 20`). Then, we branch right, checking that the nodes are within the range (`min = 20, max = NULL`).

We proceed through the tree with this approach. When we branch left, the max gets updated. When we branch right, the min gets updated. If anything fails these checks, we stop and return false.

The time complexity for this solution is $O(N)$, where N is the number of nodes in the tree. We can prove that this is the best we can do, since any algorithm must touch all N nodes.

Due to the use of recursion, the space complexity is $O(\log N)$ on a balanced tree. There are up to $O(\log N)$ recursive calls on the stack since we may recurse up to the depth of the tree.

The recursive code for this is as follows:

```
1  boolean checkBST(TreeNode n) {  
2      return checkBST(n, null, null);  
3  }  
4  
5  boolean checkBST(TreeNode n, Integer min, Integer max) {  
6      if (n == null) {  
7          return true;  
8      }  
9      if ((min != null && n.data <= min) || (max != null && n.data > max)) {  
10         return false;  
11     }  
12  
13     if (!checkBST(n.left, min, n.data) || !checkBST(n.right, n.data, max)) {  
14         return false;  
15     }  
16     return true;  
17 }
```

Remember that in recursive algorithms, you should always make sure that your base cases, as well as your null cases, are well handled.

- 4.6 Successor:** Write an algorithm to find the "next" node (i.e., in-order successor) of a given node in a binary search tree. You may assume that each node has a link to its parent.

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SOLUTION

Recall that an in-order traversal traverses the left subtree, then the current node, then the right subtree. To approach this problem, we need to think very, very carefully about what happens.

Let's suppose we have a hypothetical node. We know that the order goes left subtree, then current side, then right subtree. So, the next node we visit should be on the right side.

But which node on the right subtree? It should be the first node we'd visit if we were doing an in-order traversal of that subtree. This means that it should be the leftmost node on the right subtree. Easy enough!

But what if the node doesn't have a right subtree? This is where it gets a bit trickier.

If a node n doesn't have a right subtree, then we are done traversing n 's subtree. We need to pick up where we left off with n 's parent, which we'll call q .

If n was to the left of q , then the next node we should traverse should be q (again, since $\text{left} \rightarrow \text{current} \rightarrow \text{right}$).

If n were to the right of q , then we have fully traversed q 's subtree as well. We need to traverse upwards from q until we find a node x that we have *not* fully traversed. How do we know that we have not fully traversed a node x ? We know we have hit this case when we move from a left node to its parent. The left node is fully traversed, but its parent is not.

The pseudocode looks like this:

```

1  Node inorderSucc(Node n) {
2      if (n has a right subtree) {
3          return leftmost child of right subtree
4      } else {
5          while (n is a right child of n.parent) {
6              n = n.parent; // Go up
7          }
8          return n.parent; // Parent has not been traversed
9      }
10 }
```

But wait—what if we traverse all the way up the tree before finding a left child? This will happen only when we hit the very end of the in-order traversal. That is, if we're *already* on the far right of the tree, then there is no in-order successor. We should return null.

The code below implements this algorithm (and properly handles the null case).

```

1  TreeNode inorderSucc(TreeNode n) {
2      if (n == null) return null;
3
4      /* Found right children -> return leftmost node of right subtree. */
5      if (n.right != null) {
6          return leftMostChild(n.right);
7      } else {
8          TreeNode q = n;
9          TreeNode x = q.parent;
10         // Go up until we're on left instead of right
11         while (x != null && x.left != q) {
12             q = x;
13             x = x.parent;
14         }
15         return x;
16     }
17 }
18
19 TreeNode leftMostChild(TreeNode n) {
20     if (n == null) {
21         return null;
22     }
23     while (n.left != null) {
24         n = n.left;
25     }
26     return n;
27 }
```

This is not the most algorithmically complex problem in the world, but it can be tricky to code perfectly. In a problem like this, it's useful to sketch out pseudocode to carefully outline the different cases.

- 4.7 Build Order:** You are given a list of projects and a list of dependencies (which is a list of pairs of projects, where the second project is dependent on the first project). All of a project's dependencies must be built before the project is. Find a build order that will allow the projects to be built. If there is no valid build order, return an error.

EXAMPLE

Input:

projects: a, b, c, d, e, f

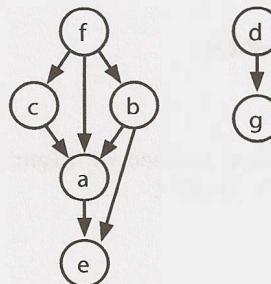
dependencies: (a, d), (f, b), (b, d), (f, a), (d, c)

Output: f, e, a, b, d, c

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SOLUTION

Visualizing the information as a graph probably works best. Be careful with the direction of the arrows. In the graph below, an arrow from d to g means that d must be compiled before g. You can also draw them in the opposite direction, but you need to be consistent and clear about what you mean. Let's draw a fresh example.



In drawing this example (which is *not* the example from the problem description), I looked for a few things.

- I wanted the nodes labeled somewhat randomly. If I had instead put a at the top, with b and c as children, then d and e, it could be misleading. The alphabetical order would match the compile order.
- I wanted a graph with multiple parts/components, since a connected graph is a bit of a special case.
- I wanted a graph where a node links to a node that cannot immediately follow it. For example, f links to a but a cannot immediately follow it (since b and c must come before a and after f).
- I wanted a larger graph since I need to figure out the pattern.
- I wanted nodes with multiple dependencies.

Now that we have a good example, let's get started with an algorithm.

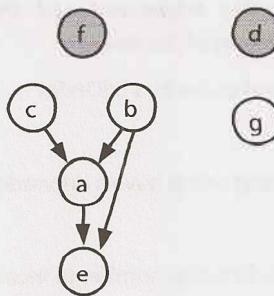
Solution #1

Where do we start? Are there any nodes that we can definitely compile immediately?

Yes. Nodes with no incoming edges can be built immediately since they don't depend on anything. Let's add all such nodes to the build order. In the earlier example, this means we have an order of f, d (or d, f).

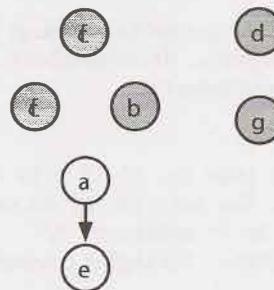
Once we've done that, it's irrelevant that some nodes are dependent on d and f since d and f have already been built. We can reflect this new state by removing d and f's outgoing edges.

build order: f, d



Next, we know that c, b, and g are free to build since they have no incoming edges. Let's build those and then remove their outgoing edges.

build order: f, d, c, b, g



Project a can be built next, so let's do that and remove its outgoing edges. This leaves just e. We build that next, giving us a complete build order.

build order: f, d, c, b, g, a, e

Did this algorithm work, or did we just get lucky? Let's think about the logic.

1. We first added the nodes with no incoming edges. If the set of projects can be built, there must be some "first" project, and that project can't have any dependencies. If a project has no dependencies (incoming edges), then we certainly can't break anything by building it first.
2. We removed all outgoing edges from these roots. This is reasonable. Once those root projects were built, it doesn't matter if another project depends on them.
3. After that, we found the nodes that *now* have no incoming edges. Using the same logic from steps 1 and 2, it's okay if we build these. Now we just repeat the same steps: find the nodes with no dependencies, add them to the build order, remove their outgoing edges, and repeat.
4. What if there are nodes remaining, but all have dependencies (incoming edges)? This means there's no way to build the system. We should return an error.

The implementation follows this approach very closely.

Initialization and setup:

1. Build a graph where each project is a node and its outgoing edges represent the projects that depend on it. That is, if A has an edge to B ($A \rightarrow B$), it means B has a dependency on A and therefore A must be built before B. Each node also tracks the number of *incoming* edges.
2. Initialize a `buildOrder` array. Once we determine a project's build order, we add it to the array. We also continue to iterate through the array, using a `toBeProcessed` pointer to point to the next node to be fully processed.

3. Find all the nodes with zero incoming edges and add those to a `buildOrder` array. Set a `toBeProcessed` pointer to the beginning of the array.

Repeat until `toBeProcessed` is at the end of the `buildOrder`:

1. Read node at `toBeProcessed`.
 - » If `node` is `null`, then all remaining nodes have a dependency and we have detected a cycle.
2. For each child of node:
 - » Decrement `child.dependencies` (the number of incoming edges).
 - » If `child.dependencies` is zero, add `child` to end of `buildOrder`.
3. Increment `toBeProcessed`.

The code below implements this algorithm.

```
1  /* Find a correct build order. */
2  Project[] findBuildOrder(String[] projects, String[][] dependencies) {
3      Graph graph = buildGraph(projects, dependencies);
4      return orderProjects(graph.getNodes());
5  }
6
7  /* Build the graph, adding the edge (a, b) if b is dependent on a. Assumes a pair
8   * is listed in "build order". The pair (a, b) in dependencies indicates that b
9   * depends on a and a must be built before b. */
10 Graph buildGraph(String[] projects, String[][] dependencies) {
11     Graph graph = new Graph();
12     for (String project : projects) {
13         graph.createNode(project);
14     }
15
16     for (String[] dependency : dependencies) {
17         String first = dependency[0];
18         String second = dependency[1];
19         graph.addEdge(first, second);
20     }
21
22     return graph;
23 }
24
25 /* Return a list of the projects a correct build order.*/
26 Project[] orderProjects(ArrayList<Project> projects) {
27     Project[] order = new Project[projects.size()];
28
29     /* Add "roots" to the build order first.*/
30     int endOfList = addNonDependent(order, projects, 0);
31
32     int toBeProcessed = 0;
33     while (toBeProcessed < order.length) {
34         Project current = order[toBeProcessed];
35
36         /* We have a circular dependency since there are no remaining projects with
37          * zero dependencies. */
38         if (current == null) {
39             return null;
40         }
41     }
42 }
```

```
42     /* Remove myself as a dependency. */
43     ArrayList<Project> children = current.getChildren();
44     for (Project child : children) {
45         child.decrementDependencies();
46     }
47
48     /* Add children that have no one depending on them. */
49     endOfList = addNonDependent(order, children, endOfList);
50     toBeProcessed++;
51 }
52
53 return order;
54 }
55
56 /* A helper function to insert projects with zero dependencies into the order
57 * array, starting at index offset. */
58 int addNonDependent(Project[] order, ArrayList<Project> projects, int offset) {
59     for (Project project : projects) {
60         if (project.getNumberDependencies() == 0) {
61             order[offset] = project;
62             offset++;
63         }
64     }
65     return offset;
66 }
67
68 public class Graph {
69     private ArrayList<Project> nodes = new ArrayList<Project>();
70     private HashMap<String, Project> map = new HashMap<String, Project>();
71
72     public Project getOrCreateNode(String name) {
73         if (!map.containsKey(name)) {
74             Project node = new Project(name);
75             nodes.add(node);
76             map.put(name, node);
77         }
78
79         return map.get(name);
80     }
81
82     public void addEdge(String startName, String endName) {
83         Project start = getOrCreateNode(startName);
84         Project end = getOrCreateNode(endName);
85         start.addNeighbor(end);
86     }
87
88     public ArrayList<Project> getNodes() { return nodes; }
89 }
90
91 public class Project {
92     private ArrayList<Project> children = new ArrayList<Project>();
93     private HashMap<String, Project> map = new HashMap<String, Project>();
94     private String name;
95     private int dependencies = 0;
96
97     public Project(String n) { name = n; }
```

```

98     public void addNeighbor(Project node) {
99         if (!map.containsKey(node.getName())) {
100             children.add(node);
101             map.put(node.getName(), node);
102             node.incrementDependencies();
103         }
104     }
105 }
106
107 public void incrementDependencies() { dependencies++; }
108 public void decrementDependencies() { dependencies--; }
109
110 public String getName() { return name; }
111 public ArrayList<Project> getChildren() { return children; }
112 public int getNumberDependencies() { return dependencies; }
113 }

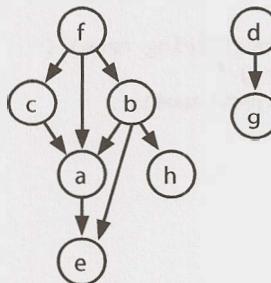
```

This solution takes $O(P + D)$ time, where P is the number of projects and D is the number of dependency pairs.

Note: You might recognize this as the topological sort algorithm on page 632. We've rederived this from scratch. Most people won't know this algorithm and it's reasonable for an interviewer to expect you to be able to derive it.

Solution #2

Alternatively, we can use depth-first search (DFS) to find the build path.



Suppose we picked an arbitrary node (say b) and performed a depth-first search on it. When we get to the end of a path and can't go any further (which will happen at h and e), we know that those terminating nodes can be the last projects to be built. No projects depend on them.

```

DFS(b)                                // Step 1
DFS(h)                                // Step 2
    build order = ..., h               // Step 3
DFS(a)                                // Step 4
DFS(e)                                // Step 5
    build order = ..., e, h           // Step 6
    ...
                                         // Step 7+

```

Now, consider what happens at node a when we return from the DFS of e. We know a's children need to appear after a in the build order. So, once we return from searching a's children (and therefore they have been added), we can choose to add a to the front of the build order.

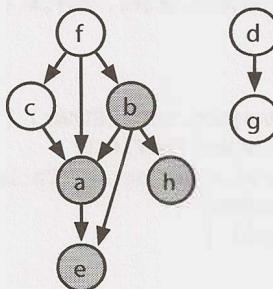
Once we return from a, and complete the DFS of b's other children, then everything that must appear after b is in the list. Add b to the front.

```

DFS(b)                                // Step 1
DFS(h)                                // Step 2
    build order = ..., h               // Step 3
DFS(a)                                // Step 4
    DFS(e)                            // Step 5
        build order = ..., e, h       // Step 6
        build order = ..., a, e, h   // Step 7
    DFS(e) -> return                // Step 8
    build order = ..., b, a, e, h   // Step 9

```

Let's mark these nodes as having been built too, just in case someone else needs to build them.



Now what? We can start with any old node again, doing a DFS on it and then adding the node to the front of the build queue when the DFS is completed.

```

DFS(d)
DFS(g)
    build order = ..., g, b, a, e, h
    build order = ..., d, g, b, a, e, h

DFS(f)
DFS(c)
    build order = ..., c, d, g, b, a, e, h
    build order = f, c, d, g, b, a, e, h

```

In an algorithm like this, we should think about the issue of cycles. There is no possible build order if there is a cycle. But still, we don't want to get stuck in an infinite loop just because there's no possible solution.

A cycle will happen if, while doing a DFS on a node, we run back into the same path. What we need therefore is a signal that indicates "I'm still processing this node, so if you see the node again, we have a problem."

What we can do for this is to mark each node as a "partial" (or "is visiting") state just before we start the DFS on it. If we see any node whose state is partial, then we know we have a problem. When we're done with this node's DFS, we need to update the state.

We also need a state to indicate "I've already processed/built this node" so we don't re-build the node. Our state therefore can have three options: COMPLETED, PARTIAL, and BLANK.

The code below implements this algorithm.

```

1 Stack<Project> findBuildOrder(String[] projects, String[][] dependencies) {
2     Graph graph = buildGraph(projects, dependencies);
3     return orderProjects(graph.getNodes());
4 }

```

```

5   Stack<Project> orderProjects(ArrayList<Project> projects) {
6     Stack<Project> stack = new Stack<Project>();
7     for (Project project : projects) {
8       if (project.getState() == Project.State.BLANK) {
9         if (!doDFS(project, stack)) {
10           return null;
11         }
12       }
13     }
14   }
15   return stack;
16 }
17
18 boolean doDFS(Project project, Stack<Project> stack) {
19   if (project.getState() == Project.State.PARTIAL) {
20     return false; // Cycle
21   }
22
23   if (project.getState() == Project.State.BLANK) {
24     project.setState(Project.State.PARTIAL);
25     ArrayList<Project> children = project.getChildren();
26     for (Project child : children) {
27       if (!doDFS(child, stack)) {
28         return false;
29       }
30     }
31     project.setState(Project.State.COMPLETE);
32     stack.push(project);
33   }
34   return true;
35 }
36
37 /* Same as before */
38 Graph buildGraph(String[] projects, String[][] dependencies) {...}
39 public class Graph {}
40
41 /* Essentially equivalent to earlier solution, with state info added and
42 * dependency count removed. */
43 public class Project {
44   public enum State {COMPLETE, PARTIAL, BLANK};
45   private State state = State.BLANK;
46   public State getState() { return state; }
47   public void setState(State st) { state = st; }
48   /* Duplicate code removed for brevity */
49 }

```

Like the earlier algorithm, this solution is $O(P+D)$ time, where P is the number of projects and D is the number of dependency pairs.

By the way, this problem is called **topological sort**: linearly ordering the vertices in a graph such that for every edge (a, b) , a appears before b in the linear order.

- 4.8 First Common Ancestor:** Design an algorithm and write code to find the first common ancestor of two nodes in a binary tree. Avoid storing additional nodes in a data structure. NOTE: This is not necessarily a binary search tree.

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SOLUTION

If this were a binary search tree, we could modify the `find` operation for the two nodes and see where the paths diverge. Unfortunately, this is not a binary search tree, so we must try other approaches.

Let's assume we're looking for the common ancestor of nodes p and q. One question to ask here is if each node in our tree has a link to its parents.

Solution #1: With Links to Parents

If each node has a link to its parent, we could trace p and q's paths up until they intersect. This is essentially the same problem as question 2.7 which find the intersection of two linked lists. The "linked list" in this case is the path from each node up to the root. (Review this solution on page 221.)

```

1  TreeNode commonAncestor(TreeNode p, TreeNode q) {
2      int delta = depth(p) - depth(q); // get difference in depths
3      TreeNode first = delta > 0 ? q : p; // get shallower node
4      TreeNode second = delta > 0 ? p : q; // get deeper node
5      second = goUpBy(second, Math.abs(delta)); // move deeper node up
6
7      /* Find where paths intersect. */
8      while (first != second && first != null && second != null) {
9          first = first.parent;
10         second = second.parent;
11     }
12     return first == null || second == null ? null : first;
13 }
14
15 TreeNode goUpBy(TreeNode node, int delta) {
16     while (delta > 0 && node != null) {
17         node = node.parent;
18         delta--;
19     }
20     return node;
21 }
22
23 int depth(TreeNode node) {
24     int depth = 0;
25     while (node != null) {
26         node = node.parent;
27         depth++;
28     }
29     return depth;
30 }
```

This approach will take $O(d)$ time, where d is the depth of the deeper node.

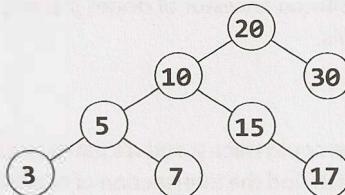
Solution #2: With Links to Parents (Better Worst-Case Runtime)

Similar to the earlier approach, we could trace p's path upwards and check if any of the nodes cover q. The first node that covers q (we already know that every node on this path will cover p) must be the first common ancestor.

Observe that we don't need to re-check the entire subtree. As we move from a node x to its parent y , all the nodes under x have already been checked for q . Therefore, we only need to check the new nodes "uncovered", which will be the nodes under x 's sibling.

For example, suppose we're looking for the first common ancestor of node $p = 7$ and node $q = 17$. When we go to $p.parent$ (5), we uncover the subtree rooted at 3. We therefore need to search this subtree for q .

Next, we go to node 10, uncovering the subtree rooted at 15. We check this subtree for node 17 and—voila—there it is.



To implement this, we can just traverse upwards from p , storing the parent and the *sibling* node in a variable. (The *sibling* node is always a child of parent and refers to the newly uncovered subtree.) At each iteration, *sibling* gets set to the old parent's sibling node and *parent* gets set to *parent.parent*.

```

1  TreeNode commonAncestor(TreeNode root, TreeNode p, TreeNode q) {
2      /* Check if either node is not in the tree, or if one covers the other. */
3      if (!covers(root, p) || !covers(root, q)) {
4          return null;
5      } else if (covers(p, q)) {
6          return p;
7      } else if (covers(q, p)) {
8          return q;
9      }
10
11     /* Traverse upwards until you find a node that covers q. */
12     TreeNode sibling = getSibling(p);
13     TreeNode parent = p.parent;
14     while (!covers(sibling, q)) {
15         sibling = getSibling(parent);
16         parent = parent.parent;
17     }
18     return parent;
19 }
20
21 boolean covers(TreeNode root, TreeNode p) {
22     if (root == null) return false;
23     if (root == p) return true;
24     return covers(root.left, p) || covers(root.right, p);
25 }
26
27 TreeNode getSibling(TreeNode node) {
28     if (node == null || node.parent == null) {
29         return null;
30     }
31     TreeNode parent = node.parent;
  
```

```

33     return parent.left == node ? parent.right : parent.left;
34 }

```

This algorithm takes $O(t)$ time, where t is the size of the subtree for the first common ancestor. In the worst case, this will be $O(n)$, where n is the number of nodes in the tree. We can derive this runtime by noticing that each node in that subtree is searched once.

Solution #3: Without Links to Parents

Alternatively, you could follow a chain in which p and q are on the same side. That is, if p and q are both on the left of the node, branch left to look for the common ancestor. If they are both on the right, branch right to look for the common ancestor. When p and q are no longer on the same side, you must have found the first common ancestor.

The code below implements this approach.

```

1  TreeNode commonAncestor(TreeNode root, TreeNode p, TreeNode q) {
2      /* Error check - one node is not in the tree. */
3      if (!covers(root, p) || !covers(root, q)) {
4          return null;
5      }
6      return ancestorHelper(root, p, q);
7  }
8
9  TreeNode ancestorHelper(TreeNode root, TreeNode p, TreeNode q) {
10     if (root == null || root == p || root == q) {
11         return root;
12     }
13
14     boolean pIsOnLeft = covers(root.left, p);
15     boolean qIsOnLeft = covers(root.left, q);
16     if (pIsOnLeft != qIsOnLeft) { // Nodes are on different side
17         return root;
18     }
19     TreeNode childSide = pIsOnLeft ? root.left : root.right;
20     return ancestorHelper(childSide, p, q);
21 }
22
23 boolean covers(TreeNode root, TreeNode p) {
24     if (root == null) return false;
25     if (root == p) return true;
26     return covers(root.left, p) || covers(root.right, p);
27 }

```

This algorithm runs in $O(n)$ time on a balanced tree. This is because `covers` is called on $2n$ nodes in the first call (n nodes for the left side, and n nodes for the right side). After that, the algorithm branches left or right, at which point `covers` will be called on $\frac{2n}{2}$ nodes, then $\frac{2n}{4}$, and so on. This results in a runtime of $O(n)$.

We know at this point that we cannot do better than that in terms of the asymptotic runtime since we need to potentially look at every node in the tree. However, we may be able to improve it by a constant multiple.

Solution #4: Optimized

Although Solution #3 is optimal in its runtime, we may recognize that there is still some inefficiency in how it operates. Specifically, `covers` searches all nodes under `root` for p and q , including the nodes in each subtree (`root.left` and `root.right`). Then, it picks one of those subtrees and searches all of its nodes. Each subtree is searched over and over again.

We may recognize that we should only need to search the entire tree once to find p and q. We should then be able to “bubble up” the findings to earlier nodes in the stack. The basic logic is the same as the earlier solution.

We recurse through the entire tree with a function called `commonAncestor(TreeNode root, TreeNode p, TreeNode q)`. This function returns values as follows:

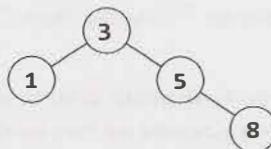
- Returns p, if root’s subtree includes p (and not q).
- Returns q, if root’s subtree includes q (and not p).
- Returns null, if neither p nor q are in root’s subtree.
- Else, returns the common ancestor of p and q.

Finding the common ancestor of p and q in the final case is easy. When `commonAncestor(n.left, p, q)` and `commonAncestor(n.right, p, q)` both return non-null values (indicating that p and q were found in different subtrees), then n will be the common ancestor.

The code below offers an initial solution, but it has a bug. Can you find it?

```
1  /* The below code has a bug. */
2  TreeNode commonAncestor(TreeNode root, TreeNode p, TreeNode q) {
3      if (root == null) return null;
4      if (root == p && root == q) return root;
5
6      TreeNode x = commonAncestor(root.left, p, q);
7      if (x != null && x != p && x != q) { // Already found ancestor
8          return x;
9      }
10
11     TreeNode y = commonAncestor(root.right, p, q);
12     if (y != null && y != p && y != q) { // Already found ancestor
13         return y;
14     }
15
16     if (x != null && y != null) { // p and q found in diff. subtrees
17         return root; // This is the common ancestor
18     } else if (root == p || root == q) {
19         return root;
20     } else {
21         return x == null ? y : x; /* return the non-null value */
22     }
23 }
```

The problem with this code occurs in the case where a node is not contained in the tree. For example, look at the following tree:



Suppose we call `commonAncestor(node 3, node 5, node 7)`. Of course, node 7 does not exist—and that’s where the issue will come in. The calling order looks like:

```
1  commonAnc(node 3, node 5, node 7)           // --> 5
2  calls commonAnc(node 1, node 5, node 7)       // --> null
```

```

3     calls commonAnc(node 5, node 5, node 7)    // --> 5
4     calls commonAnc(node 8, node 5, node 7)    // --> null

```

In other words, when we call `commonAncestor` on the right subtree, the code will return node 5, just as it should. The problem is that, in finding the common ancestor of p and q, the calling function can't distinguish between the two cases:

- Case 1: p is a child of q (or, q is a child of p)
- Case 2: p is in the tree and q is not (or, q is in the tree and p is not)

In either of these cases, `commonAncestor` will return p. In the first case, this is the correct return value, but in the second case, the return value should be `null`.

We somehow need to distinguish between these two cases, and this is what the code below does. This code solves the problem by returning two values: the node itself and a flag indicating whether this node is actually the common ancestor.

```

1  class Result {
2      public TreeNode node;
3      public boolean isAncestor;
4      public Result(TreeNode n, boolean isAnc) {
5          node = n;
6          isAncestor = isAnc;
7      }
8  }
9
10 TreeNode commonAncestor(TreeNode root, TreeNode p, TreeNode q) {
11     Result r = commonAncestorHelper(root, p, q);
12     if (r.isAncestor) {
13         return r.node;
14     }
15     return null;
16 }
17
18 Result commonAncestorHelper(TreeNode root, TreeNode p, TreeNode q) {
19     if (root == null) return new Result(null, false);
20
21     if (root == p && root == q) {
22         return new Result(root, true);
23     }
24
25     Result rx = commonAncestorHelper(root.left, p, q);
26     if (rx.isAncestor) { // Found common ancestor
27         return rx;
28     }
29
30     Result ry = commonAncestorHelper(root.right, p, q);
31     if (ry.isAncestor) { // Found common ancestor
32         return ry;
33     }
34
35     if (rx.node != null && ry.node != null) {
36         return new Result(root, true); // This is the common ancestor
37     } else if (root == p || root == q) {
38         /* If we're currently at p or q, and we also found one of those nodes in a
39          * subtree, then this is truly an ancestor and the flag should be true. */
40         boolean isAncestor = rx.node != null || ry.node != null;

```

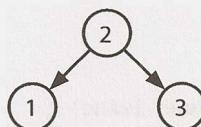
```
41     return new Result(root, isAncestor);  
42 } else {  
43     return new Result(rx.node!=null ? rx.node : ry.node, false);  
44 }  
45 }
```

Of course, as this issue only comes up when p or q is not actually in the tree, an alternative solution would be to first search through the entire tree to make sure that both nodes exist.

- 4.9 BST Sequences:** A binary search tree was created by traversing through an array from left to right and inserting each element. Given a binary search tree with distinct elements, print all possible arrays that could have led to this tree.

EXAMPLE

Input:

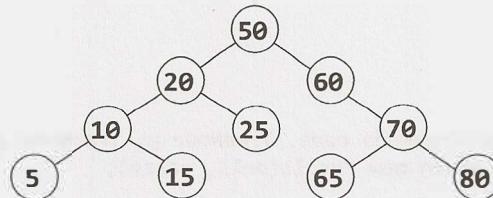


Output: {2, 1, 3}, {2, 3, 1}

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SOLUTION

It's useful to kick off this question with a good example.



We should also think about the ordering of items in a binary search tree. Given a node, all nodes on its left must be less than all nodes on its right. Once we reach a place without a node, we insert the new value there.

What this means is that the very first element in our array must have been a 50 in order to create the above tree. If it were anything else, then that value would have been the root instead.

What else can we say? Some people jump to the conclusion that everything on the left must have been inserted before elements on the right, but that's not actually true. In fact, the reverse is true: the order of the left or right items doesn't matter.

Once the 50 is inserted, all items less than 50 will be routed to the left and all items greater than 50 will be routed to the right. The 60 or the 20 could be inserted first, and it wouldn't matter.

Let's think about this problem recursively. If we had all arrays that could have created the subtree rooted at 20 (call this `arraySet20`), and all arrays that could have created the subtree rooted at 60 (call this `arraySet60`), how would that give us the full answer? We could just "weave" each array from `arraySet20` with each array from `arraySet60`—and then prepend each array with a 50.

Here's what we mean by weaving. We are merging two arrays in all possible ways, while keeping the elements within each array in the same relative order.

```
array1: {1, 2}
array2: {3, 4}
weaved: {1, 2, 3, 4}, {1, 3, 2, 4}, {1, 3, 4, 2},
         {3, 1, 2, 4}, {3, 1, 4, 2}, {3, 4, 1, 2}
```

Note that, as long as there aren't any duplicates in the original array sets, we won't have to worry that weaving will create duplicates.

The last piece to talk about here is how the weaving works. Let's think recursively about how to weave {1, 2, 3} and {4, 5, 6}. What are the subproblems?

- Prepend a 1 to all weaves of {2, 3} and {4, 5, 6}.
- Prepend a 4 to all weaves of {1, 2, 3} and {5, 6}.

To implement this, we'll store each as linked lists. This will make it easy to add and remove elements. When we recurse, we'll push the prefixed elements down the recursion. When `first` or `second` are empty, we add the remainder to `prefix` and store the result.

It works something like this:

```
weave(first, second, prefix):
    weave({1, 2}, {3, 4}, {})
        weave({2}, {3, 4}, {1})
            weave({}, {3, 4}, {1, 2})
                {1, 2, 3, 4}
            weave({2}, {4}, {1, 3})
                weave({}, {4}, {1, 3, 2})
                    {1, 3, 2, 4}
                weave({2}, {}, {1, 3, 4})
                    {1, 3, 4, 2}
        weave({1, 2}, {4}, {3})
            weave({2}, {4}, {3, 1})
                weave({}, {4}, {3, 1, 2})
                    {3, 1, 2, 4}
                weave({2}, {}, {3, 1, 4})
                    {3, 1, 4, 2}
            weave({1, 2}, {}, {3, 4})
                {3, 4, 1, 2}
```

Now, let's think through the implementation of removing, say, 1 from {1, 2} and recursing. We need to be careful about modifying this list, since a later recursive call (e.g., `weave({1, 2}, {4}, {3})`) might need the 1 still in {1, 2}.

We could clone the list when we recurse, so that we only modify the recursive calls. Or, we could modify the list, but then "revert" the changes after we're done with recursing.

We've chosen to implement it the latter way. Since we're keeping the same reference to `first`, `second`, and `prefix` the entire way down the recursive call stack, then we'll need to clone `prefix` just before we store the complete result.

```
1  ArrayList<LinkedList<Integer>> allSequences(TreeNode node) {
2      ArrayList<LinkedList<Integer>> result = new ArrayList<LinkedList<Integer>>();
3
4      if (node == null) {
5          result.add(new LinkedList<Integer>());
6          return result;
7      }
8
9      // ... rest of the code
```

```

7     }
8
9     LinkedList<Integer> prefix = new LinkedList<Integer>();
10    prefix.add(node.data);
11
12    /* Recurse on left and right subtrees. */
13    ArrayList<LinkedList<Integer>> leftSeq = allSequences(node.left);
14    ArrayList<LinkedList<Integer>> rightSeq = allSequences(node.right);
15
16    /* Weave together each list from the left and right sides. */
17    for (LinkedList<Integer> left : leftSeq) {
18        for (LinkedList<Integer> right : rightSeq) {
19            ArrayList<LinkedList<Integer>> weaved =
20                new ArrayList<LinkedList<Integer>>();
21            weaveLists(left, right, weaved, prefix);
22            result.addAll(weaved);
23        }
24    }
25    return result;
26 }
27
28 /* Weave lists together in all possible ways. This algorithm works by removing the
29 * head from one list, recursing, and then doing the same thing with the other
30 * list. */
31 void weaveLists(LinkedList<Integer> first, LinkedList<Integer> second,
32                 ArrayList<LinkedList<Integer>> results, LinkedList<Integer> prefix) {
33    /* One list is empty. Add remainder to [a cloned] prefix and store result. */
34    if (first.size() == 0 || second.size() == 0) {
35        LinkedList<Integer> result = (LinkedList<Integer>) prefix.clone();
36        result.addAll(first);
37        result.addAll(second);
38        results.add(result);
39        return;
40    }
41
42    /* Recurse with head of first added to the prefix. Removing the head will damage
43     * first, so we'll need to put it back where we found it afterwards. */
44    int headFirst = first.removeFirst();
45    prefix.addLast(headFirst);
46    weaveLists(first, second, results, prefix);
47    prefix.removeLast();
48    first.addFirst(headFirst);
49
50    /* Do the same thing with second, damaging and then restoring the list.*/
51    int headSecond = second.removeFirst();
52    prefix.addLast(headSecond);
53    weaveLists(first, second, results, prefix);
54    prefix.removeLast();
55    second.addFirst(headSecond);
56 }

```

Some people struggle with this problem because there are two different recursive algorithms that must be designed and implemented. They get confused with how the algorithms should interact with each other and they try to juggle both in their heads.

If this sounds like you, try this: *trust and focus*. Trust that one method does the right thing when implementing an independent method, and focus on the one thing that this independent method needs to do.

Look at `weaveLists`. It has a specific job: to weave two lists together and return a list of all possible weaves. The existence of `allSequences` is irrelevant. Focus on the task that `weaveLists` has to do and design this algorithm.

As you're implementing `allSequences` (whether you do this before or after `weaveLists`), trust that `weaveLists` will do the right thing. Don't concern yourself with the particulars of how `weaveLists` operates while implementing something that is essentially independent. Focus on what you're doing while you're doing it.

In fact, this is good advice in general when you're confused during whiteboard coding. Have a good understanding of what a particular function should do ("okay, this function is going to return a list of ____"). You should verify that it's really doing what you think. But when you're not dealing with that function, focus on the one you are dealing with and trust that the others do the right thing. It's often too much to keep the implementations of multiple algorithms straight in your head.

- 4.10 Check Subtree:** T1 and T2 are two very large binary trees, with T1 much bigger than T2. Create an algorithm to determine if T2 is a subtree of T1.

A tree T_2 is a subtree of T_1 if there exists a node n in T_1 such that the subtree of n is identical to T_2 . That is, if you cut off the tree at node n , the two trees would be identical.

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SOLUTION

In problems like this, it's useful to attempt to solve the problem assuming that there is just a small amount of data. This will give us a basic idea of an approach that might work.

The Simple Approach

In this smaller, simpler problem, we could consider comparing string representations of traversals of each tree. If T_2 is a subtree of T_1 , then T_2 's traversal should be a substring of T_1 . Is the reverse true? If so, should we use an in-order traversal or a pre-order traversal?

An in-order traversal will definitely not work. After all, consider a scenario in which we were using binary search trees. A binary search tree's in-order traversal always prints out the values in sorted order. Therefore, two binary search trees with the same values will always have the same in-order traversals, even if their structure is different.

What about a pre-order traversal? This is a bit more promising. At least in this case we know certain things, like the first element in the pre-order traversal is the root node. The left and right elements will follow.

Unfortunately, trees with different structures could still have the same pre-order traversal.

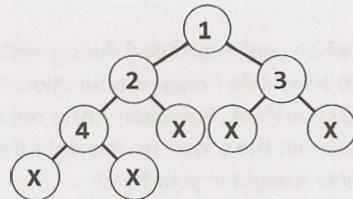


There's a simple fix though. We can store `NONE` nodes in the pre-order traversal string as a special character, like an 'X'. (We'll assume that the binary trees contain only integers.) The left tree would have the traversal {3, 4, X} and the right tree will have the traversal {3, X, 4}.

Observe that, as long as we represent the `NONE` nodes, the pre-order traversal of a tree is unique. That is, if two trees have the same pre-order traversal, then we know they are identical trees in values and structure.

To see this, consider reconstructing a tree from its pre-order traversal (with NULL nodes indicated). For example: 1, 2, 4, X, X, X, 3, X, X.

The root is 1, and its left node, 2, follows it. 2.left must be 4. 4 must have two NULL nodes (since it is followed by two Xs). 4 is complete, so we move back up to its parent, 2. 2.right is another X (NULL). 1's left subtree is now complete, so we move to 1's right child. We place a 3 with two NULL children there. The tree is now complete.



This whole process was deterministic, as it will be on any other tree. A pre-order traversal always starts at the root and, from there, the path we take is entirely defined by the traversal. Therefore, two trees are identical if they have the same pre-order traversal.

Now consider the subtree problem. If T2's pre-order traversal is a substring of T1's pre-order traversal, then T2's root element must be found in T1. If we do a pre-order traversal from this element in T1, we will follow an identical path to T2's traversal. Therefore, T2 is a subtree of T1.

Implementing this is quite straightforward. We just need to construct and compare the pre-order traversals.

```
1 boolean containsTree(TreeNode t1, TreeNode t2) {  
2     StringBuilder string1 = new StringBuilder();  
3     StringBuilder string2 = new StringBuilder();  
4  
5     getOrderString(t1, string1);  
6     getOrderString(t2, string2);  
7  
8     return string1.indexOf(string2.toString()) != -1;  
9 }
```

```
10  
11 void getOrderString(TreeNode node, StringBuilder sb) {  
12     if (node == null) {  
13         sb.append("X");           // Add null indicator  
14         return;  
15     }  
16     sb.append(node.data + " ");    // Add root  
17     getOrderString(node.left, sb); // Add left  
18     getOrderString(node.right, sb); // Add right  
19 }
```

This approach takes $O(n + m)$ time and $O(n + m)$ space, where n and m are the number of nodes in T1 and T2, respectively. Given millions of nodes, we might want to reduce the space complexity.

The Alternative Approach

An alternative approach is to search through the larger tree, T1. Each time a node in T1 matches the root of T2, call `matchTree`. The `matchTree` method will compare the two subtrees to see if they are identical.

Analyzing the runtime is somewhat complex. A naive answer would be to say that it is $O(nm)$ time, where n is the number of nodes in T1 and m is the number of nodes in T2. While this is technically correct, a little more thought can produce a tighter bound.

We do not actually call `matchTree` on every node in T_1 . Rather, we call it k times, where k is the number of occurrences of T_2 's root in T_1 . The runtime is closer to $O(n + km)$.

In fact, even that overstates the runtime. Even if the root were identical, we exit `matchTree` when we find a difference between T_1 and T_2 . We therefore probably do not actually look at m nodes on each call of `matchTree`.

The code below implements this algorithm.

```

1  boolean containsTree(TreeNode t1, TreeNode t2) {
2      if (t2 == null) return true; // The empty tree is always a subtree
3      return subTree(t1, t2);
4  }
5
6  boolean subTree(TreeNode r1, TreeNode r2) {
7      if (r1 == null) {
8          return false; // big tree empty & subtree still not found.
9      } else if (r1.data == r2.data && matchTree(r1, r2)) {
10         return true;
11     }
12     return subTree(r1.left, r2) || subTree(r1.right, r2);
13 }
14
15 boolean matchTree(TreeNode r1, TreeNode r2) {
16     if (r1 == null && r2 == null) {
17         return true; // nothing left in the subtree
18     } else if (r1 == null || r2 == null) {
19         return false; // exactly tree is empty, therefore trees don't match
20     } else if (r1.data != r2.data) {
21         return false; // data doesn't match
22     } else {
23         return matchTree(r1.left, r2.left) && matchTree(r1.right, r2.right);
24     }
25 }
```

When might the simple solution be better, and when might the alternative approach be better? This is a great conversation to have with your interviewer. Here are a few thoughts on that matter:

1. The simple solution takes $O(n + m)$ memory. The alternative solution takes $O(\log(n) + \log(m))$ memory. Remember: memory usage can be a very big deal when it comes to scalability.
2. The simple solution is $O(n + m)$ time and the alternative solution has a worst case time of $O(nm)$. However, the worst case time can be deceiving; we need to look deeper than that.
3. A slightly tighter bound on the runtime, as explained earlier, is $O(n + km)$, where k is the number of occurrences of T_2 's root in T_1 . Let's suppose the node data for T_1 and T_2 were random numbers picked between 0 and p . The value of k would be approximately $\frac{1}{p}$. Why? Because each of n nodes in T_1 has a $\frac{1}{p}$ chance of equaling the root, so approximately $\frac{1}{p}$ nodes in T_1 should equal T_2 .root. So, let's say $p = 1000$, $n = 1000000$ and $m = 100$. We would do somewhere around 1,100,000 node checks ($1100000 = 1000000 + \frac{100 * 1000000}{1000}$).
4. More complex mathematics and assumptions could get us an even tighter bound. We assumed in #3 above that if we call `matchTree`, we would end up traversing all m nodes of T_2 . It's far more likely, though, that we will find a difference very early on in the tree and will then exit early.

In summary, the alternative approach is certainly more optimal in terms of space and is likely more optimal in terms of time as well. It all depends on what assumptions you make and whether you prioritize reducing

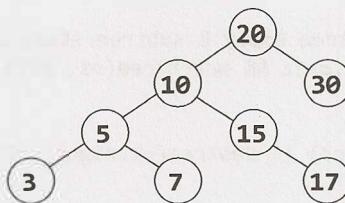
the average case runtime at the expense of the worst case runtime. This is an excellent point to make to your interviewer.

- 4.11 Random Node:** You are implementing a binary search tree class from scratch, which, in addition to `insert`, `find`, and `delete`, has a method `getRandomNode()` which returns a random node from the tree. All nodes should be equally likely to be chosen. Design and implement an algorithm for `getRandomNode`, and explain how you would implement the rest of the methods.

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SOLUTION

Let's draw an example.



We're going to explore many solutions until we get to an optimal one that works.

One thing we should realize here is that the question was phrased in a very interesting way. The interviewer did not simply say, "Design an algorithm to return a random node from a binary tree." We were told that this is a class that we're building from scratch. There is a reason the question was phrased that way. We probably need access to some part of the internals of the data structure.

Option #1 [Slow & Working]

One solution is to copy all the nodes to an array and return a random element in the array. This solution will take $O(N)$ time and $O(N)$ space, where N is the number of nodes in the tree.

We can guess our interviewer is probably looking for something more optimal, since this is a little too straightforward (and should make us wonder why the interviewer gave us a binary tree, since we don't need that information).

We should keep in mind as we develop this solution that we probably need to know something about the internals of the tree. Otherwise, the question probably wouldn't specify that we're developing the tree class from scratch.

Option #2 [Slow & Working]

Returning to our original solution of copying the nodes to an array, we can explore a solution where we maintain an array at all times that lists all the nodes in the tree. The problem is that we'll need to remove nodes from this array as we delete them from the tree, and that will take $O(N)$ time.

Option #3 [Slow & Working]

We could label all the nodes with an index from 1 to N and label them in binary search tree order (that is, according to its inorder traversal). Then, when we call `getRandomNode`, we generate a random index between 1 and N . If we apply the label correctly, we can use a binary search tree search to find this index.

However, this leads to a similar issue as earlier solutions. When we insert a node or a delete a node, all of the indices might need to be updated. This can take $O(N)$ time.

Option #4 [Fast & Not Working]

What if we knew the depth of the tree? (Since we're building our own class, we can ensure that we know this. It's an easy enough piece of data to track.)

We could pick a random depth, and then traverse left/right randomly until we go to that depth. This wouldn't actually ensure that all nodes are equally likely to be chosen though.

First, the tree doesn't necessarily have an equal number of nodes at each level. This means that nodes on levels with fewer nodes might be more likely to be chosen than nodes on a level with more nodes.

Second, the random path we take might end up terminating before we get to the desired level. Then what? We could just return the last node we find, but that would mean unequal probabilities at each node.

Option #5 [Fast & Not Working]

We could try just a simple approach: traverse randomly down the tree. At each node:

- With $\frac{1}{3}$ odds, we return the current node.
- With $\frac{1}{3}$ odds, we traverse left.
- With $\frac{1}{3}$ odds, we traverse right.

This solution, like some of the others, does not distribute the probabilities evenly across the nodes. The root has a $\frac{1}{3}$ probability of being selected—the same as all the nodes in the left put together.

Option #6 [Fast & Working]

Rather than just continuing to brainstorm new solutions, let's see if we can fix some of the issues in the previous solutions. To do so, we must diagnose—deeply—the root problem in a solution.

Let's look at Option #5. It fails because the probabilities aren't evenly distributed across the options. Can we fix that while keeping the basic algorithm the same?

We can start with the root. With what probability should we return the root? Since we have N nodes, we must return the root node with $\frac{1}{N}$ probability. (In fact, we must return each node with $\frac{1}{N}$ probability. After all, we have N nodes and each must have equal probability. The total must be 1 (100%), therefore each must have $\frac{1}{N}$ probability.)

We've resolved the issue with the root. Now what about the rest of the problem? With what probability should we traverse left versus right? It's not 50/50. Even in a balanced tree, the number of nodes on each side might not be equal. If we have more nodes on the left than the right, then we need to go left more often.

One way to think about it is that the odds of picking something—anything—from the left must be the sum of each individual probability. Since each node must have probability $\frac{1}{N}$, the odds of picking something from the left must have probability $\text{LEFT_SIZE} * \frac{1}{N}$. This should therefore be the odds of going left.

Likewise, the odds of going right should be $\text{RIGHT_SIZE} * \frac{1}{N}$.

This means that each node must know the size of the nodes on the left and the size of the nodes on the right. Fortunately, our interviewer has told us that we're building this tree class from scratch. It's easy to keep track of this size information on inserts and deletes. We can just store a `size` variable in each node. Increment `size` on inserts and decrement it on deletes.

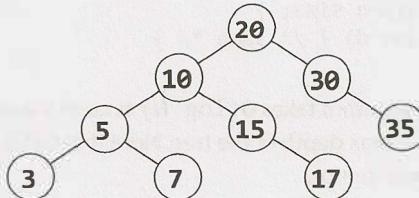
```
1  class TreeNode {
2      private int data;
3      public TreeNode left;
4      public TreeNode right;
5      private int size = 0;
6
7      public TreeNode(int d) {
8          data = d;
9          size = 1;
10     }
11
12     public TreeNode getRandomNode() {
13         int leftSize = left == null ? 0 : left.size();
14         Random random = new Random();
15         int index = random.nextInt(size);
16         if (index < leftSize) {
17             return left.getRandomNode();
18         } else if (index == leftSize) {
19             return this;
20         } else {
21             return right.getRandomNode();
22         }
23     }
24
25     public void insertInOrder(int d) {
26         if (d <= data) {
27             if (left == null) {
28                 left = new TreeNode(d);
29             } else {
30                 left.insertInOrder(d);
31             }
32         } else {
33             if (right == null) {
34                 right = new TreeNode(d);
35             } else {
36                 right.insertInOrder(d);
37             }
38         }
39         size++;
40     }
41
42     public int size() { return size; }
43     public int data() { return data; }
44
45     public TreeNode find(int d) {
46         if (d == data) {
47             return this;
48         } else if (d <= data) {
49             return left != null ? left.find(d) : null;
50         } else if (d > data) {
51             return right != null ? right.find(d) : null;
52         }
53         return null;
54     }
55 }
```

In a balanced tree, this algorithm will be $O(\log N)$, where N is the number of nodes.

Option #7 [Fast & Working]

Random number calls can be expensive. If we'd like, we can reduce the number of random number calls substantially.

Imagine we called `getRandomNode` on the tree below, and then traversed left.



We traversed left because we picked a number between 0 and 5 (inclusive). When we traverse left, we again pick a random number between 0 and 5. Why re-pick? The first number will work just fine.

But what if we went right instead? We have a number between 7 and 8 (inclusive) but we would need a number between 0 and 1 (inclusive). That's easy to fix: just subtract out `LEFT_SIZE + 1`.

Another way to think about what we're doing is that the initial random number call indicates which node (`i`) to return, and then we're locating the `i`th node in an in-order traversal. Subtracting `LEFT_SIZE + 1` from `i` reflects that, when we go right, we skip over `LEFT_SIZE + 1` nodes in the in-order traversal.

```

1  class Tree {
2      TreeNode root = null;
3
4      public int size() { return root == null ? 0 : root.size(); }
5
6      public TreeNode getRandomNode() {
7          if (root == null) return null;
8
9          Random random = new Random();
10         int i = random.nextInt(size());
11         return root.getIthNode(i);
12     }
13
14     public void insertInOrder(int value) {
15         if (root == null) {
16             root = new TreeNode(value);
17         } else {
18             root.insertInOrder(value);
19         }
20     }
21 }
22
23 class TreeNode {
24     /* constructor and variables are the same. */
25
26     public TreeNode getIthNode(int i) {
27         int leftSize = left == null ? 0 : left.size();
28         if (i < leftSize) {
29             return left.getIthNode(i);
30         } else if (i == leftSize) {
31             return this;
32         } else {
  
```

```
33     /* Skipping over leftSize + 1 nodes, so subtract them. */
34     return right.getIthNode(i - (leftSize + 1));
35 }
36 }
37
38 public void insertInOrder(int d) { /* same */ }
39 public int size() { return size; }
40 public TreeNode find(int d) { /* same */ }
41 }
```

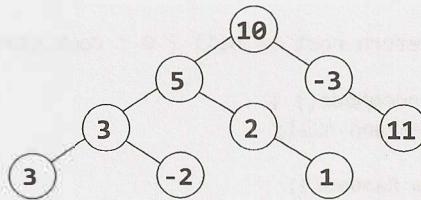
Like the previous algorithm, this algorithm takes $O(\log N)$ time in a balanced tree. We can also describe the runtime as $O(D)$, where D is the max depth of the tree. Note that $O(D)$ is an accurate description of the runtime whether the tree is balanced or not.

4.12 Paths with Sum: You are given a binary tree in which each node contains an integer value (which might be positive or negative). Design an algorithm to count the number of paths that sum to a given value. The path does not need to start or end at the root or a leaf, but it must go downwards (traveling only from parent nodes to child nodes).

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SOLUTION

Let's pick a potential sum—say, 8—and then draw a binary tree based on this. This tree intentionally has a number of paths with this sum.



One option is the brute force approach.

Solution #1: Brute Force

In the brute force approach, we just look at all possible paths. To do this, we traverse to each node. At each node, we recursively try all paths downwards, tracking the sum as we go. As soon as we hit our target sum, we increment the total.

```
1 int countPathsWithSum(TreeNode root, int targetSum) {
2     if (root == null) return 0;
3
4     /* Count paths with sum starting from the root. */
5     int pathsFromRoot = countPathsWithSumFromNode(root, targetSum, 0);
6
7     /* Try the nodes on the left and right. */
8     int pathsOnLeft = countPathsWithSum(root.left, targetSum);
9     int pathsOnRight = countPathsWithSum(root.right, targetSum);
10
11    return pathsFromRoot + pathsOnLeft + pathsOnRight;
12 }
13
14 /* Returns the number of paths with this sum starting from this node. */
```

```

15 int countPathsWithSumFromNode(TreeNode node, int targetSum, int currentSum) {
16     if (node == null) return 0;
17
18     currentSum += node.data;
19
20     int totalPaths = 0;
21     if (currentSum == targetSum) { // Found a path from the root
22         totalPaths++;
23     }
24
25     totalPaths += countPathsWithSumFromNode(node.left, targetSum, currentSum);
26     totalPaths += countPathsWithSumFromNode(node.right, targetSum, currentSum);
27     return totalPaths;
28 }
```

What is the time complexity of this algorithm?

Consider that node at depth d will be “touched” (via `countPathsWithSumFromNode`) by d nodes above it.

In a balanced binary tree, d will be no more than approximately $\log N$. Therefore, we know that with N nodes in the tree, `countPathsWithSumFromNode` will be called $O(N \log N)$ times. The runtime is $O(N \log N)$.

We can also approach this from the other direction. At the root node, we traverse to all $N - 1$ nodes beneath it (via `countPathsWithSumFromNode`). At the second level (where there are two nodes), we traverse to $N - 3$ nodes. At the third level (where there are four nodes, plus three above those), we traverse to $N - 7$ nodes. Following this pattern, the total work is roughly:

$$(N - 1) + (N - 3) + (N - 7) + (N - 15) + (N - 31) + \dots + (N - N)$$

To simplify this, notice that the left side of each term is always N and the right side is one less than a power of two. The number of terms is the depth of the tree, which is $O(\log N)$. For the right side, we can ignore the fact that it's one less than a power of two. Therefore, we really have this:

$$\begin{aligned} O(N * [\text{number of terms}] - [\text{sum of powers of two from 1 through } N]) \\ O(N \log N - N) \\ O(N \log N) \end{aligned}$$

If the value of the sum of powers of two from 1 through N isn't obvious to you, think about what the powers of two look like in binary:

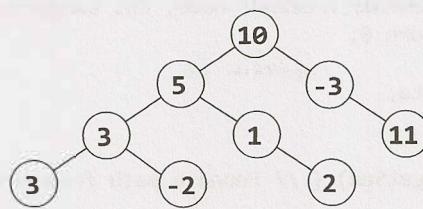
$$\begin{array}{r} 0001 \\ + 0010 \\ + 0100 \\ + \underline{1000} \\ = 1111 \end{array}$$

Therefore, the runtime is $O(N \log N)$ in a balanced tree.

In an unbalanced tree, the runtime could be much worse. Consider a tree that is just a straight line down. At the root, we traverse to $N - 1$ nodes. At the next level (with just a single node), we traverse to $N - 2$ nodes. At the third level, we traverse to $N - 3$ nodes, and so on. This leads us to the sum of numbers between 1 and N , which is $O(N^2)$.

Solution #2: Optimized

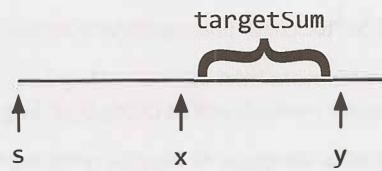
In analyzing the last solution, we may realize that we repeat some work. For a path such as $10 \rightarrow 5 \rightarrow 3 \rightarrow -2$, we traverse this path (or parts of it) repeatedly. We do it when we start with node 10, then when we go to node 5 (looking at 5, then 3, then -2), then when we go to node 3, and then finally when we go to node -2. Ideally, we'd like to reuse this work.



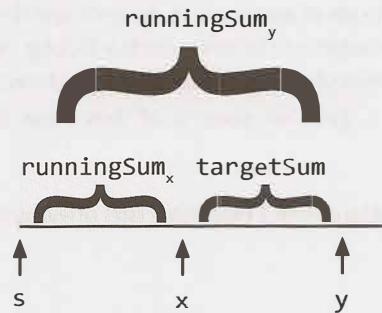
Let's isolate a given path and treat it as just an array. Consider a (hypothetical, extended) path like:

10 → 5 → 1 → 2 → -1 → -1 → -1 → 7 → 1 → 2

What we're really saying then is: How many contiguous subsequences in this array sum to a target sum such as 8? In other words, for each y , we're trying to find the x values below. (Or, more accurately, the number of x values below.)



If each value knows its running sum (the sum of values from s through itself), then we can find this pretty easily. We just need to leverage this simple equation: $\text{runningSum}_x = \text{runningSum}_y - \text{targetSum}$. We then look for the values of x where this is true.



Since we're just looking for the number of paths, we can use a hash table. As we iterate through the array, build a hash table that maps from a runningSum to the number of times we've seen that sum. Then, for each y , look up $\text{runningSum}_y - \text{targetSum}$ in the hash table. The value in the hash table will tell you the number of paths with sum targetSum that end at y .

For example:

index:	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
value:	10	-> 5	-> 1	-> 2	-> -1	-> -1	-> -1	-> 7	-> 1	-> 2
sum:	10	15	16	18	17	16	23	24	26	

The value of runningSum_6 is 24. If targetSum is 8, then we'd look up 16 in the hash table. This would have a value of 2 (originating from index 2 and index 5). As we can see above, indexes 3 through 7 and indexes 6 through 7 have sums of 8.

Now that we've settled the algorithm for an array, let's review this on a tree. We take a similar approach.

We traverse through the tree using depth-first search. As we visit each node:

1. Track its `runningSum`. We'll take this in as a parameter and immediately increment it by `node.value`.
2. Look up `runningSum - targetSum` in the hash table. The value there indicates the total number. Set `totalPaths` to this value.
3. If `runningSum == targetSum`, then there's one additional path that starts at the root. Increment `totalPaths`.
4. Add `runningSum` to the hash table (incrementing the value if it's already there).
5. Recurse left and right, counting the number of paths with sum `targetSum`.
6. After we're done recursing left and right, decrement the value of `runningSum` in the hash table. This is essentially backing out of our work; it reverses the changes to the hash table so that other nodes don't use it (since we're now done with node).

Despite the complexity of deriving this algorithm, the code to implement this is relatively simple.

```

1 int countPathsWithSum(TreeNode root, int targetSum) {
2     return countPathsWithSum(root, targetSum, 0, new HashMap<Integer, Integer>());
3 }
4
5 int countPathsWithSum(TreeNode node, int targetSum, int runningSum,
6                         HashMap<Integer, Integer> pathCount) {
7     if (node == null) return 0; // Base case
8
9     /* Count paths with sum ending at the current node. */
10    runningSum += node.data;
11    int sum = runningSum - targetSum;
12    int totalPaths = pathCount.getOrDefault(sum, 0);
13
14    /* If runningSum equals targetSum, then one additional path starts at root.
15     * Add in this path.*/
16    if (runningSum == targetSum) {
17        totalPaths++;
18    }
19
20    /* Increment pathCount, recurse, then decrement pathCount. */
21    incrementHashTable(pathCount, runningSum, 1); // Increment pathCount
22    totalPaths += countPathsWithSum(node.left, targetSum, runningSum, pathCount);
23    totalPaths += countPathsWithSum(node.right, targetSum, runningSum, pathCount);
24    incrementHashTable(pathCount, runningSum, -1); // Decrement pathCount
25
26    return totalPaths;
27 }
28
29 void incrementHashTable(HashMap<Integer, Integer> hashTable, int key, int delta) {
30     int newCount = hashTable.getOrDefault(key, 0) + delta;
31     if (newCount == 0) { // Remove when zero to reduce space usage
32         hashTable.remove(key);
33     } else {
34         hashTable.put(key, newCount);
35     }
36 }
```

The runtime for this algorithm is $O(N)$, where N is the number of nodes in the tree. We know it is $O(N)$ because we travel to each node just once, doing $O(1)$ work each time. In a balanced tree, the space complexity is $O(\log N)$ due to the hash table. The space complexity can grow to $O(n)$ in an unbalanced tree.

5

Solutions to Bit Manipulation

- 5.1 Insertion:** You are given two 32-bit numbers, N and M, and two bit positions, i and j. Write a method to insert M into N such that M starts at bit j and ends at bit i. You can assume that the bits j through i have enough space to fit all of M. That is, if M = 10011, you can assume that there are at least 5 bits between j and i. You would not, for example, have j = 3 and i = 2, because M could not fully fit between bit 3 and bit 2.

EXAMPLE

Input: N = 10000000000, M = 10011, i = 2, j = 6

Output: N = 10001001100

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SOLUTION

This problem can be approached in three key steps:

1. Clear the bits j through i in N
2. Shift M so that it lines up with bits j through i
3. Merge M and N.

The trickiest part is Step 1. How do we clear the bits in N? We can do this with a mask. This mask will have all 1s, except for 0s in the bits j through i. We create this mask by creating the left half of the mask first, and then the right half.

```
1 int updateBits(int n, int m, int i, int j) {  
2     /* Create a mask to clear bits i through j in n. EXAMPLE: i = 2, j = 4. Result  
3      * should be 11100011. For simplicity, we'll use just 8 bits for the example. */  
4     int allOnes = ~0; // will equal sequence of all 1s  
5  
6     // 1s before position j, then 0s. left = 11100000  
7     int left = allOnes << (j + 1);  
8  
9     // 1's after position i. right = 00000011  
10    int right = ((1 << i) - 1);  
11  
12    // All 1s, except for 0s between i and j. mask = 11100011  
13    int mask = left | right;  
14  
15    /* Clear bits j through i then put m in there */  
16    int n_cleared = n & mask; // Clear bits j through i.  
17    int m_shifted = m << i; // Move m into correct position.
```

```

18
19     return n_cleared | m_shifted; // OR them, and we're done!
20 }

```

In a problem like this (and many bit manipulation problems), you should make sure to thoroughly test your code. It's extremely easy to wind up with off-by-one errors.

- 5.2 Binary to String:** Given a real number between 0 and 1 (e.g., 0.72) that is passed in as a double, print the binary representation. If the number cannot be represented accurately in binary with at most 32 characters, print "ERROR."

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SOLUTION

NOTE: When otherwise ambiguous, we'll use the subscripts x_2 and x_{10} to indicate whether x is in base 2 or base 10.

First, let's start off by asking ourselves what a non-integer number in binary looks like. By analogy to a decimal number, the binary number 0.101_2 would look like:

$$0.101_2 = 1 * \frac{1}{2^1} + 0 * \frac{1}{2^2} + 1 * \frac{1}{2^3}.$$

To print the decimal part, we can multiply by 2 and check if $2n$ is greater than or equal to 1. This is essentially "shifting" the fractional sum. That is:

$$\begin{aligned} r &= 2_{10} * n \\ &= 2_{10} * 0.101_2 \\ &= 1 * \frac{1}{2^0} + 0 * \frac{1}{2^1} + 1 * \frac{1}{2^2} \\ &= 1.01_2 \end{aligned}$$

If $r \geq 1$, then we know that n had a 1 right after the decimal point. By doing this continuously, we can check every digit.

```

1  String printBinary(double num) {
2      if (num >= 1 || num <= 0) {
3          return "ERROR";
4      }
5
6      StringBuilder binary = new StringBuilder();
7      binary.append(".");
8      while (num > 0) {
9          /* Setting a limit on length: 32 characters */
10         if (binary.length() >= 32) {
11             return "ERROR";
12         }
13
14         double r = num * 2;
15         if (r >= 1) {
16             binary.append(1);
17             num = r - 1;
18         } else {
19             binary.append(0);
20             num = r;
21         }
22     }
23     return binary.toString();
24 }

```

Alternatively, rather than multiplying the number by two and comparing it to 1, we can compare the number to .5, then .25, and so on. The code below demonstrates this approach.

```
1  String printBinary2(double num) {  
2      if (num >= 1 || num <= 0) {  
3          return "ERROR";  
4      }  
5  
6      StringBuilder binary = new StringBuilder();  
7      double frac = 0.5;  
8      binary.append(".");
9      while (num > 0) {  
10          /* Setting a limit on length: 32 characters */  
11          if (binary.length() > 32) {  
12              return "ERROR";  
13          }  
14          if (num >= frac) {  
15              binary.append(1);  
16              num -= frac;  
17          } else {  
18              binary.append(0);  
19          }  
20          frac /= 2;  
21      }  
22      return binary.toString();  
23 }
```

Both approaches are equally good; choose the one you feel most comfortable with.

Either way, you should make sure to prepare thorough test cases for this problem—and to actually run through them in your interview.

- 5.3 Flip Bit to Win:** You have an integer and you can flip exactly one bit from a 0 to a 1. Write code to find the length of the longest sequence of 1s you could create.

EXAMPLE

Input: 1775 (or: 11011101111)

Output: 8

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SOLUTION

We can think about each integer as being an alternating sequence of 0s and 1s. Whenever a 0s sequence has length one, we can potentially merge the adjacent 1s sequences.

Brute Force

One approach is to convert an integer into an array that reflects the lengths of the 0s and 1s sequences. For example, 11011101111 would be (reading from right to left) [0₀, 4₁, 1₀, 3₁, 1₀, 2₁, 21₀]. The subscript reflects whether the integer corresponds to a 0s sequence or a 1s sequence, but the actual solution doesn't need this. It's a strictly alternating sequence, always starting with the 0s sequence.

Once we have this, we just walk through the array. At each 0s sequence, then we consider merging the adjacent 1s sequences if the 0s sequence has length 1.

```
1  int longestSequence(int n) {
```

```

2     if (n == -1) return Integer.BYTES * 8;
3     ArrayList<Integer> sequences = getAlternatingSequences(n);
4     return findLongestSequence(sequences);
5 }
6
7 /* Return a list of the sizes of the sequences. The sequence starts off with the
8   number of 0s (which might be 0) and then alternates with the counts of each
9   value.*/
10 ArrayList<Integer> getAlternatingSequences(int n) {
11     ArrayList<Integer> sequences = new ArrayList<Integer>();
12
13     int searchingFor = 0;
14     int counter = 0;
15
16     for (int i = 0; i < Integer.BYTES * 8; i++) {
17         if ((n & 1) != searchingFor) {
18             sequences.add(counter);
19             searchingFor = n & 1; // Flip 1 to 0 or 0 to 1
20             counter = 0;
21         }
22         counter++;
23         n >>>= 1;
24     }
25     sequences.add(counter);
26
27     return sequences;
28 }
29
30 /* Given the lengths of alternating sequences of 0s and 1s, find the longest one
31 * we can build. */
32 int findLongestSequence(ArrayList<Integer> seq) {
33     int maxSeq = 1;
34
35     for (int i = 0; i < seq.size(); i += 2) {
36         int zerosSeq = seq.get(i);
37         int onesSeqRight = i - 1 >= 0 ? seq.get(i - 1) : 0;
38         int onesSeqLeft = i + 1 < seq.size() ? seq.get(i + 1) : 0;
39
40         int thisSeq = 0;
41         if (zerosSeq == 1) { // Can merge
42             thisSeq = onesSeqLeft + 1 + onesSeqRight;
43         } if (zerosSeq > 1) { // Just add a zero to either side
44             thisSeq = 1 + Math.max(onesSeqRight, onesSeqLeft);
45         } else if (zerosSeq == 0) { // No zero, but take either side
46             thisSeq = Math.max(onesSeqRight, onesSeqLeft);
47         }
48         maxSeq = Math.max(thisSeq, maxSeq);
49     }
50
51     return maxSeq;
52 }

```

This is pretty good. It's $O(b)$ time and $O(b)$ memory, where b is the length of the sequence.

Be careful with how you express the runtime. For example, if you say the runtime is $O(n)$, what is n ? It is not correct to say that this algorithm is $O(\text{value of the integer})$. This algorithm is $O(\text{number of bits})$. For this reason, when you have potential ambiguity in what n might mean, it's best just to not use n . Then neither you nor your interviewer will be confused. Pick a different variable name. We used "b", for the number of bits. Something logical works well.

Can we do better? Recall the concept of Best Conceivable Runtime. The B.C.R. for this algorithm is $O(b)$ (since we'll always have to read through the sequence), so we know we can't optimize the time. We can, however, reduce the memory usage.

Optimal Algorithm

To reduce the space usage, note that we don't need to hang on to the length of each sequence the entire time. We only need it long enough to compare each 1s sequence to the immediately preceding 1s sequence.

Therefore, we can just walk through the integer doing this, tracking the current 1s sequence length and the previous 1s sequence length. When we see a zero, update `previousLength`:

- If the next bit is a 1, `previousLength` should be set to `currentLength`.
- If the next bit is a 0, then we can't merge these sequences together. So, set `previousLength` to 0.

Update `maxLength` as we go.

```
1 int flipBit(int a) {
2     /* If all 1s, this is already the longest sequence. */
3     if (~a == 0) return Integer.BYTES * 8;
4
5     int currentLength = 0;
6     int previousLength = 0;
7     int maxLength = 1; // We can always have a sequence of at least one 1
8     while (a != 0) {
9         if ((a & 1) == 1) { // Current bit is a 1
10             currentLength++;
11         } else if ((a & 1) == 0) { // Current bit is a 0
12             /* Update to 0 (if next bit is 0) or currentLength (if next bit is 1). */
13             previousLength = (a & 2) == 0 ? 0 : currentLength;
14             currentLength = 0;
15         }
16         maxLength = Math.max(previousLength + currentLength + 1, maxLength);
17         a >>>= 1;
18     }
19     return maxLength;
20 }
```

The runtime of this algorithm is still $O(b)$, but we use only $O(1)$ additional memory.

5.4 Next Number: Given a positive integer, print the next smallest and the next largest number that have the same number of 1 bits in their binary representation.

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SOLUTION

There are a number of ways to approach this problem, including using brute force, using bit manipulation, and using clever arithmetic. Note that the arithmetic approach builds on the bit manipulation approach. You'll want to understand the bit manipulation approach before going on to the arithmetic one.

The terminology can be confusing for this problem. We'll call `getNext` the bigger number and `getPrev` the smaller number.

The Brute Force Approach

An easy approach is simply brute force: count the number of 1s in n , and then increment (or decrement) until you find a number with the same number of 1s. Easy—but not terribly interesting. Can we do something a bit more optimal? Yes!

Let's start with the code for `getNext`, and then move on to `getPrev`.

Bit Manipulation Approach for Get Next Number

If we think about what the next number *should* be, we can observe the following. Given the number 13948, the binary representation looks like:

1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	0
13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0

We want to make this number bigger (but not *too* big). We also need to keep the same number of ones.

Observation: Given a number n and two bit locations i and j , suppose we flip bit i from a 1 to a 0, and bit j from a 0 to a 1. If $i > j$, then n will have decreased. If $i < j$, then n will have increased.

We know the following:

1. If we flip a zero to a one, we must flip a one to a zero.
2. When we do that, the number will be bigger if and only if the zero-to-one bit was to the left of the one-to-zero bit.
3. We want to make the number bigger, but not unnecessarily bigger. Therefore, we need to flip the rightmost zero which has ones on the right of it.

To put this in a different way, we are flipping the rightmost non-trailing zero. That is, using the above example, the trailing zeros are in the 0th and 1st spot. The rightmost non-trailing zero is at bit 7. Let's call this position p .

Step 1: Flip rightmost non-trailing zero

1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0
13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0

With this change, we have increased the size of n . But, we also have one too many ones, and one too few zeros. We'll need to shrink the size of our number as much as possible while keeping that in mind.

We can shrink the number by rearranging all the bits to the right of bit p such that the 0s are on the left and the 1s are on the right. As we do this, we want to replace one of the 1s with a 0.

A relatively easy way of doing this is to count how many ones are to the right of p , clear all the bits from 0 until p , and then add back in $c1 - 1$ ones. Let $c1$ be the number of ones to the right of p and $c0$ be the number of zeros to the right of p .

Let's walk through this with an example.

Step 2: Clear bits to the right of p. From before, c0 = 2, c1 = 5, p = 7.

1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	

To clear these bits, we need to create a mask that is a sequence of ones, followed by p zeros. We can do this as follows:

```
a = 1 << p; // all zeros except for a 1 at position p.
b = a - 1; // all zeros, followed by p ones.
mask = ~b; // all ones, followed by p zeros.
n = n & mask; // clears rightmost p bits.
```

Or, more concisely, we do:

```
n &= ~((1 << p) - 1).
```

Step 3: Add in c1 - 1 ones.

1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1
13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	

To insert c1 - 1 ones on the right, we do the following:

```
a = 1 << (c1 - 1); // 0s with a 1 at position c1 - 1
b = a - 1; // 0s with 1s at positions 0 through c1 - 1
n = n | b; // inserts 1s at positions 0 through c1 - 1
```

Or, more concisely:

```
n |= (1 << (c1 - 1)) - 1;
```

We have now arrived at the smallest number bigger than n with the same number of ones.

The code for `getNext` is below.

```
1 int getNext(int n) {
2     /* Compute c0 and c1 */
3     int c = n;
4     int c0 = 0;
5     int c1 = 0;
6     while (((c & 1) == 0) && (c != 0)) {
7         c0++;
8         c >>= 1;
9     }
10
11    while ((c & 1) == 1) {
12        c1++;
13        c >>= 1;
14    }
15
16    /* Error: if n == 11..1100...00, then there is no bigger number with the same
17     * number of 1s. */
18    if (c0 + c1 == 31 || c0 + c1 == 0) {
19        return -1;
20    }
21
22    int p = c0 + c1; // position of rightmost non-trailing zero
23
24    n |= (1 << p); // Flip rightmost non-trailing zero
25    n &= ~((1 << p) - 1); // Clear all bits to the right of p
26    n |= (1 << (c1 - 1)) - 1; // Insert (c1-1) ones on the right.
```

```

27     return n;
28 }
```

Bit Manipulation Approach for Get Previous Number

To implement `getPrev`, we follow a very similar approach.

1. Compute c_0 and c_1 . Note that c_1 is the number of trailing ones, and c_0 is the size of the block of zeros immediately to the left of the trailing ones.
2. Flip the rightmost non-trailing one to a zero. This will be at position $p = c_1 + c_0$.
3. Clear all bits to the right of bit p .
4. Insert $c_1 + 1$ ones immediately to the right of position p .

Note that Step 2 sets bit p to a zero and Step 3 sets bits 0 through $p-1$ to a zero. We can merge these steps.

Let's walk through this with an example.

Step 1: Initial Number. $p = 7$. $c_1 = 2$. $c_0 = 5$.

1	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	

Steps 2 & 3: Clear bits 0 through p .

1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	

We can do this as follows:

```

int a = ~0;           // Sequence of 1s
int b = a << (p + 1); // Sequence of 1s followed by p + 1 zeros.
n &= b;              // Clears bits 0 through p.
```

Steps 4: Insert $c_1 + 1$ ones immediately to the right of position p .

1	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	

Note that since $p = c_1 + c_0$, the $(c_1 + 1)$ ones will be followed by $(c_0 - 1)$ zeros.

We can do this as follows:

```

int a = 1 << (c1 + 1); // 0s with 1 at position (c1 + 1)
int b = a - 1;          // 0s followed by c1 + 1 ones
int c = b << (c0 - 1); // c1+1 ones followed by c0-1 zeros.
n |= c;
```

The code to implement this is below.

```

1 int getPrev(int n) {
2     int temp = n;
3     int c0 = 0;
4     int c1 = 0;
5     while (temp & 1 == 1) {
6         c1++;
7         temp >>= 1;
8     }
9 }
```

```

10     if (temp == 0) return -1;
11
12     while (((temp & 1) == 0) && (temp != 0)) {
13         c0++;
14         temp >>= 1;
15     }
16
17     int p = c0 + c1; // position of rightmost non-trailing one
18     n &= ((~0) << (p + 1)); // clears from bit p onwards
19
20     int mask = (1 << (c1 + 1)) - 1; // Sequence of (c1+1) ones
21     n |= mask << (c0 - 1);
22
23     return n;
24 }
```

Arithmetic Approach to Get Next Number

If c_0 is the number of trailing zeros, c_1 is the size of the one block immediately following, and $p = c_0 + c_1$, we can word our solution from earlier as follows:

1. Set the p th bit to 1.
2. Set all bits following p to 0.
3. Set bits 0 through $c_1 - 2$ to 1. This will be $c_1 - 1$ total bits.

A quick and dirty way to perform steps 1 and 2 is to set the trailing zeros to 1 (giving us p trailing ones), and then add 1. Adding one will flip all trailing ones, so we wind up with a 1 at bit p followed by p zeros. We can perform this arithmetically.

```
n += 2c_0 - 1; // Sets trailing 0s to 1, giving us p trailing 1s
n += 1; // Flips first p 1s to 0s, and puts a 1 at bit p.
```

Now, to perform Step 3 arithmetically, we just do:

```
n += 2c_1 - 1 - 1; // Sets trailing c1 - 1 zeros to ones.
```

This math reduces to:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{next} &= n + (2^{c_0} - 1) + 1 + (2^{c_1 - 1} - 1) \\ &= n + 2^{c_0} + 2^{c_1 - 1} - 1 \end{aligned}$$

The best part is that, using a little bit manipulation, it's simple to code.

```

1  int getNextArith(int n) {
2      /* ... same calculation for c0 and c1 as before ... */
3      return n + (1 << c0) + (1 << (c1 - 1)) - 1;
4 }
```

Arithmetic Approach to Get Previous Number

If c_1 is the number of trailing ones, c_0 is the size of the zero block immediately following, and $p = c_0 + c_1$, we can word the initial `getPrev` solution as follows:

1. Set the p th bit to 0
2. Set all bits following p to 1
3. Set bits 0 through $c_0 - 1$ to 0.

We can implement this arithmetically as follows. For clarity in the example, we will assume $n = 10000011$. This makes $c_1 = 2$ and $c_0 = 5$.

```

n -= 2c1 - 1;           // Removes trailing 1s. n is now 10000000.
n -= 1;                 // Flips trailing 0s. n is now 01111111.
n -= 2c0 - 1 - 1;      // Flips last (c0-1) 0s. n is now 01110000.

```

This reduces mathematically to:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{next} &= n - (2^{c1} - 1) - 1 - (2^{c0 - 1} - 1). \\ &= n - 2^{c1} - 2^{c0 - 1} + 1 \end{aligned}$$

Again, this is very easy to implement.

```

1 int getPrevArith(int n) {
2     /* ... same calculation for c0 and c1 as before ... */
3     return n - (1 << c1) - (1 << (c0 - 1)) + 1;
4 }

```

Whew! Don't worry, you wouldn't be expected to get all this in an interview—at least not without a lot of help from the interviewer.

5.5 Debugger: Explain what the following code does: ((n & (n-1)) == 0).

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SOLUTION

We can work backwards to solve this question.

What does it mean if A & B == 0?

It means that A and B never have a 1 bit in the same place. So if $n \& (n-1) == 0$, then n and n-1 never share a 1.

What does n-1 look like (as compared with n)?

Try doing subtraction by hand (in base 2 or 10). What happens?

$\begin{array}{r} 1101011000 \text{ [base 2]} \\ - 1 \\ = 1101010111 \text{ [base 2]} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 593100 \text{ [base 10]} \\ - 1 \\ = 593099 \text{ [base 10]} \end{array}$
--	--

When you subtract 1 from a number, you look at the least significant bit. If it's a 1 you change it to 0, and you are done. If it's a zero, you must "borrow" from a larger bit. So, you go to increasingly larger bits, changing each bit from a 0 to a 1, until you find a 1. You flip that 1 to a 0 and you are done.

Thus, n-1 will look like n, except that n's initial 0s will be 1s in n-1, and n's least significant 1 will be a 0 in n-1. That is:

```

if      n = abcde1000
then   n-1 = abcde0111

```

So what does n & (n-1) == 0 indicate?

n and n-1 must have no 1s in common. Given that they look like this:

```

if      n = abcde1000
then   n-1 = abcde0111

```

abcde must be all 0s, which means that n must look like this: 00001000. The value n is therefore a power of two.

So, we have our answer: $((n \& (n-1)) == 0)$ checks if n is a power of 2 (or if n is 0).

- 5.6 Conversion:** Write a function to determine the number of bits you would need to flip to convert integer A to integer B.

EXAMPLE

Input: 29 (or: 11101), 15 (or: 01111)

Output: 2

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SOLUTION

This seemingly complex problem is actually rather straightforward. To approach this, ask yourself how you would figure out which bits in two numbers are different. Simple: with an XOR.

Each 1 in the XOR represents a bit that is different between A and B. Therefore, to check the number of bits that are different between A and B, we simply need to count the number of bits in $A \oplus B$ that are 1.

```
1 int bitSwapRequired(int a, int b) {  
2     int count = 0;  
3     for (int c = a ^ b; c != 0; c = c >> 1) {  
4         count += c & 1;  
5     }  
6     return count;  
7 }
```

This code is good, but we can make it a bit better. Rather than simply shifting c repeatedly while checking the least significant bit, we can continuously flip the least significant bit and count how long it takes c to reach 0. The operation $c = c \& (c - 1)$ will clear the least significant bit in c.

The code below utilizes this approach.

```
1 int bitSwapRequired(int a, int b) {  
2     int count = 0;  
3     for (int c = a ^ b; c != 0; c = c & (c-1)) {  
4         count++;  
5     }  
6     return count;  
7 }
```

The above code is one of those bit manipulation problems that comes up sometimes in interviews. Though it'd be hard to come up with it on the spot if you've never seen it before, it is useful to remember the trick for your interviews.

- 5.7 Pairwise Swap:** Write a program to swap odd and even bits in an integer with as few instructions as possible (e.g., bit 0 and bit 1 are swapped, bit 2 and bit 3 are swapped, and so on).

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SOLUTION

Like many of the previous problems, it's useful to think about this problem in a different way. Operating on individual pairs of bits would be difficult, and probably not that efficient either. So how else can we think about this problem?

We can approach this as operating on the odds bits first, and then the even bits. Can we take a number n and move the odd bits over by 1? Sure. We can mask all odd bits with 10101010 in binary (which is 0xAA),

then shift them right by 1 to put them in the even spots. For the even bits, we do an equivalent operation. Finally, we merge these two values.

This takes a total of five instructions. The code below implements this approach.

```
1 int swapOddEvenBits(int x) {
2     return ((x & 0aaaaaaaa) >>> 1) | ((x & 0x55555555) << 1); 
3 }
```

Note that we use the logical right shift, instead of the arithmetic right shift. This is because we want the sign bit to be filled with a zero.

We've implemented the code above for 32-bit integers in Java. If you were working with 64-bit integers, you would need to change the mask. The logic, however, would remain the same.

5.8 Draw Line: A monochrome screen is stored as a single array of bytes, allowing eight consecutive pixels to be stored in one byte. The screen has width w , where w is divisible by 8 (that is, no byte will be split across rows). The height of the screen, of course, can be derived from the length of the array and the width. Implement a function that draws a horizontal line from (x_1, y) to (x_2, y) .

The method signature should look something like:

```
drawLine(byte[] screen, int width, int x1, int x2, int y)
```

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SOLUTION

A naive solution to the problem is straightforward: iterate in a for loop from x_1 to x_2 , setting each pixel along the way. But that's hardly any fun, is it? (Nor is it very efficient.)

A better solution is to recognize that if x_1 and x_2 are far away from each other, several full bytes will be contained between them. These full bytes can be set one at a time by doing `screen[byte_pos] = 0xFF`. The residual start and end of the line can be set using masks.

```
1 void drawLine(byte[] screen, int width, int x1, int x2, int y) { 
2     int start_offset = x1 % 8;
3     int first_full_byte = x1 / 8;
4     if (start_offset != 0) {
5         first_full_byte++;
6     }
7
8     int end_offset = x2 % 8;
9     int last_full_byte = x2 / 8;
10    if (end_offset != 7) {
11        last_full_byte--;
12    }
13
14    // Set full bytes
15    for (int b = first_full_byte; b <= last_full_byte; b++) {
16        screen[(width / 8) * y + b] = (byte) 0xFF;
17    }
18
19    // Create masks for start and end of line
20    byte start_mask = (byte) (0xFF >> start_offset);
21    byte end_mask = (byte) ~(0xFF >> (end_offset + 1));
22
23    // Set start and end of line
24    if ((x1 / 8) == (x2 / 8)) { // x1 and x2 are in the same byte
```

```
25     byte mask = (byte) (start_mask & end_mask);
26     screen[(width / 8) * y + (x1 / 8)] |= mask;
27 } else {
28     if (start_offset != 0) {
29         int byte_number = (width / 8) * y + first_full_byte - 1;
30         screen[byte_number] |= start_mask;
31     }
32     if (end_offset != 7) {
33         int byte_number = (width / 8) * y + last_full_byte + 1;
34         screen[byte_number] |= end_mask;
35     }
36 }
37 }
```

Be careful on this problem; there are a lot of “gotchas” and special cases. For example, you need to consider the case where x_1 and x_2 are in the same byte. Only the most careful candidates can implement this code bug-free.

6

Solutions to Math and Logic Puzzles

- 6.1 **The Heavy Pill:** You have 20 bottles of pills. 19 bottles have 1.0 gram pills, but one has pills of weight 1.1 grams. Given a scale that provides an exact measurement, how would you find the heavy bottle? You can only use the scale once.

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SOLUTION

Sometimes, tricky constraints can be a clue. This is the case with the constraint that we can only use the scale once.

Because we can only use the scale once, we know something interesting: we must weigh multiple pills at the same time. In fact, we know we must weigh pills from at least 19 bottles at the same time. Otherwise, if we skipped two or more bottles entirely, how could we distinguish between those missed bottles? Remember that we only have *one* chance to use the scale.

So how can we weigh pills from more than one bottle and discover which bottle has the heavy pills? Let's suppose there were just two bottles, one of which had heavier pills. If we took one pill from each bottle, we would get a weight of 2.1 grams, but we wouldn't know which bottle contributed the extra 0.1 grams. We know we must treat the bottles differently somehow.

If we took one pill from Bottle #1 and two pills from Bottle #2, what would the scale show? It depends. If Bottle #1 were the heavy bottle, we would get 3.1 grams. If Bottle #2 were the heavy bottle, we would get 3.2 grams. And that is the trick to this problem.

We know the "expected" weight of a bunch of pills. The difference between the expected weight and the actual weight will indicate which bottle contributed the heavier pills, *provided* we select a different number of pills from each bottle.

We can generalize this to the full solution: take one pill from Bottle #1, two pills from Bottle #2, three pills from Bottle #3, and so on. Weigh this mix of pills. If all pills were one gram each, the scale would read 210 grams ($1 + 2 + \dots + 20 = 20 * 21 / 2 = 210$). Any "overage" must come from the extra 0.1 gram pills.

This formula will tell you the bottle number:

$$\frac{\text{weight} - 210 \text{ grams}}{0.1 \text{ grams}}$$

So, if the set of pills weighed 211.3 grams, then Bottle #13 would have the heavy pills.