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CMC 101 TOPIK DALAM PEMROGRAMAN
PERTEMUAN 9
PROGRAM STUDI MAGISTER ILMU KOMPUTER
FAKULTAS ILMU KOMPUTER

TOPIK DALAM PEMROGRAMAN

Struktur Data Dasar

Pertemuan 9

TUJUAN PERKULIAHAN

- Mahasiswa memahami beberapa tipe persoalan yang penting.
- Framework Analisis
 - Pengukuran Input
 - Unit untuk mengukur running time
 - Orde pertumbuhan
 - Efisiensi kasus terburuk, kasus terbaik, dan kasus rata-rata
- Notasi Asimptotik
 - Notasi O
 - Notasi Ω
 - Notasi Θ
- Kelas efisiensi dasar

Algorithm Efficiency, Big O Notation, ADT's, and Role of data Structures

- Algorithm Efficiency
- Big O Notation
- Role of Data Structures
- Abstract Data Types (ADTs)
- Data Structures
- The Java Collections API

Algorithm Efficiency

- Let's look at the following algorithm for initializing the values in an array:

```
final int N = 500;  
int [] counts = new int[N];  
for (int i=0; i<counts.length; i++)  
    counts[i] = 0;
```

- The length of time the algorithm takes to execute depends on the value of N

Algorithm Efficiency

- In that algorithm, we have one loop that processes all of the elements in the array
- Intuitively:
 - If N was half of its value, we would expect the algorithm to take half the time
 - If N was twice its value, we would expect the algorithm to take twice the time
- That is true and we say that the algorithm efficiency relative to N is linear

Algorithm Efficiency

- Let's look at another algorithm for initializing the values in a different array:

```
final int N = 500;
int [] [] counts = new int[N][N];
for (int i=0; i<N; i++)
    for (int j=0; j<N; j++)
        counts[i][j] = 0;
```

- The length of time the algorithm takes to execute still depends on the value of N

Algorithm Efficiency

- However, in the second algorithm, we have two nested loops to process the elements in the two dimensional array
- Intuitively:
 - If N is half its value, we would expect the algorithm to take one quarter the time
 - If N is twice its value, we would expect the algorithm to take quadruple the time
- That is true and we say that the algorithm efficiency relative to N is quadratic

Big-O Notation

- We use a shorthand mathematical notation to describe the efficiency of an algorithm relative to any parameter n as its “Order” or Big-O
 - We can say that the first algorithm is $O(n)$
 - We can say that the second algorithm is $O(n^2)$
- Let $T(n)$ be a function that formulates the time an algorithm needs to be completed, where n is the parameter that specifies the size of the problem, we say that the algorithm is $O(T(n))$ [or the algorithm has the time-complexity of $O(T(n))$].

Big-O Notation

- **Big-O notation measures how fast the the running time of the algorithm **grows** with increase in the size of the problem , not how **long** will it take for our algorithm to run as a function of the size of the problem. Therefore,**
 - We only include the fastest growing term and ignore any multiplying by or adding of constants. Since they are not dependent on the size of the problem.
 - If our time growth function has multiple terms dependent on the problem size n , we only take the dominating term as the Big-O measure.
 - Example

Seven Growth Functions

- Eight functions $O(n)$ that occur frequently in the analysis of algorithms (in order of increasing rate of growth relative to n):
 - Constant ≈ 1
 - Logarithmic $\approx \log n$
 - Linear $\approx n$
 - Log Linear $\approx n \log n$
 - Quadratic $\approx n^2$
 - Cubic $\approx n^3$
 - Exponential $\approx 2^n$
 - Factorial $\approx n!$

Growth Rates Compared

| | n=1 | n=2 | n=4 | n=8 | n=16 | n=32 |
|------------|-----|-----|-----|-------|----------|------------|
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| $\log n$ | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| n | 1 | 2 | 4 | 8 | 16 | 32 |
| $n \log n$ | 0 | 2 | 8 | 24 | 64 | 160 |
| n^2 | 1 | 4 | 16 | 64 | 256 | 1024 |
| n^3 | 1 | 8 | 64 | 512 | 4096 | 32768 |
| 2^n | 2 | 4 | 16 | 256 | 65536 | 4294967296 |
| $n!$ | 1 | 2 | 24 | 40320 | 2.09e+13 | 2.63e+35 |

Big-O for a Problem

- $O(T(n))$ for *a problem* means there is some $O(T(n))$ algorithm that solves the problem
- Don't assume that the specific algorithm that you are currently using is the best solution for the problem
- There may be other correct algorithms that grow at a smaller rate with increasing n
- Many times, the goal is to find an algorithm with the smallest possible growth rate

Data Structures

- That brings up the topic of the Data structure on which the algorithm operates.
- **Data Structure** is a particular way of organizing the data in computer memory so that it can be used efficiently.

Role of Data Structures

- If we are using an algorithm manually on some amount of data, we intuitively try to organize the data in a way that minimizes the number of steps that we need to take. **As an example,** publishers offer dictionaries with the words listed in alphabetical order to minimize the length of time it takes us to look up a word.

Role of Data Structures

- We can do the same thing for algorithms in our computer programs
- Example: Finding a numeric value in a list
 - If we assume that the list is unordered, we must search from the beginning to the end
 - On average, we will search half the list
 - Worst case, we will search the entire list
 - Algorithm is $O(n)$, where n is size of array or list.

Role of Data Structures

- Find a match with `value` in an unordered list

```
int [] list = {7, 2, 9, 5, 6, 4};
```

```
for (int i=0; i<list.length, i++)
```

```
    if (value == list[i])
```

```
        return true; // found it
```

```
return false; //did not find it.
```

Role of Data Structures

- If we assume that the list is ordered, we can still search the entire list from the beginning to the end to determine if we have a match
- But, we do not need to search that way
- Because the values are in numerical order, we can use a binary search algorithm
- Like the old parlor game “Twenty Questions”
- Algorithm is $O(\log_2 n)$, where n is size of array

Role of Data Structures

- Find a match with `value` in an ordered list

```
int [] list = {2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 9};
int min = 0, max = list.length-1;
while (min <= max) {
    if (value == list[(min+max)/2])
        return true; // found it
    else
        if (value < list[(min+max)/2])
            max = (min+max)/2 - 1;
        else
            min = (min+max)/2 + 1;
}
return false; // didn't find it
```

Role of Data Structures

- The difference in the structure of the data between an unordered list and an ordered list can be used to reduce algorithm Big-O
- This is the role of data structures and why we study them
- We need to be as clever in **organizing our data** efficiently as we are in **designing** an algorithm for processing it efficiently. In fact we can not separate one task from another.

Abstract Data Types (ADT's)

- A data type is a set of values and operations that can be performed on those values.
- The Java primitive data types (e.g. int) have values and operations defined in Java itself.
- An Abstract Data Type (ADT) is a (usually more sophisticated) data type that has values and operations that are not defined in the language itself. Instead, in Java, an ADT is implemented using a class or an interface.

Abstract Data Types (ADT's)

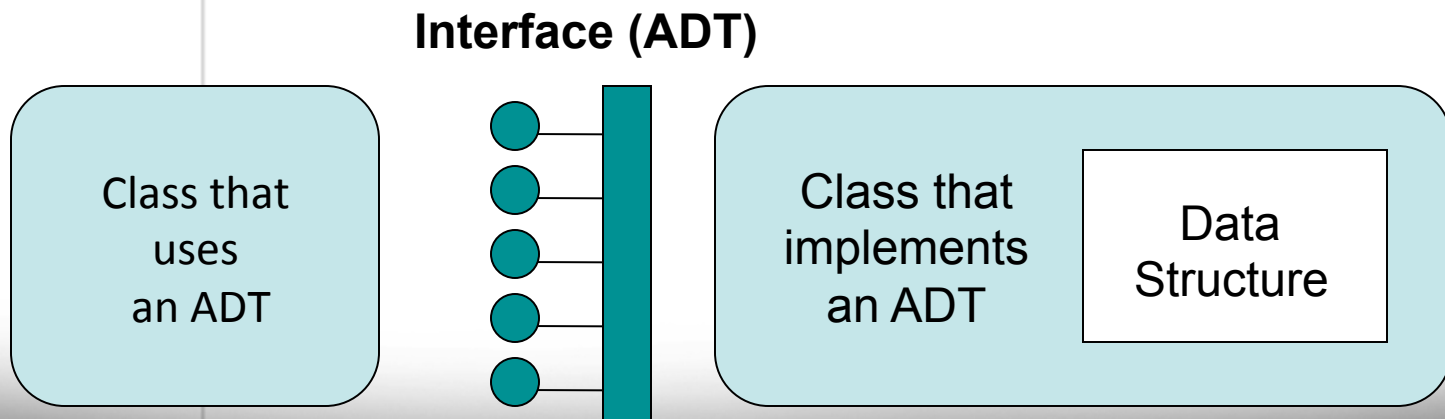
- The code for `Arrays.sort` is designed to sort an array of `Comparable` objects:

```
public static void sort (Comparable [ ] data)
```

- The `Comparable` interface defines an ADT
- There are no objects of `Comparable` “class”
- There are objects of classes that implement the `Comparable` interface.
- `Arrays.sort` only uses methods defined in the `Comparable` interface, i.e. `compareTo()`.

ADT's and Data Structures

- Data structures are used to implement an Abstract Data Type. A data structure is used to:
 - to organize the data that the ADT is encapsulating.
- The type of data structure should be hidden by the API (the methods) of the ADT.



Collections

- A collection is a typical example of Abstract Data Type.
- A collection is a data type that contains and allows access to a group of objects.
- The Collection ADT is the most general form of ADTs designed for containing/accessing a group of objects.
- We have more specific forms of Collection ADTs which describe the access “strategy” that models that collection:
 - A *Set* is a group of things without any duplicates
 - A *Stack* is the abstract idea of a pile of things, LIFO
 - A *Queue* is the abstract idea of a waiting line, FIFO
 - A *List* is an indexed group of things

The Java Collections API

- The classes and interfaces in the Java Collections Library are named to indicate the underlying data structure and the abstract Data type.
- For example, the `ArrayList` we studied in CS110 uses an underlying *array* as the data structure for storing its objects and implements its access model as a *list*
- However, from the user's code point of view, the data structure is hidden by the API.

Collection

Methods declared in Interfaces are hidden in subtypes

See also: [Legacy Collection Diagram](#)

Collection

Accessors + Collectors

- boolean isEmpty ()
- boolean add / remove (Object o)
- boolean add / removeAll (Collection c)

Object

- boolean equals (Object o)
- int hashCode ()

Other Public Methods

- void clear ()
- boolean contains (Object o)
- boolean containsAll (Collection c)
- Iterator iterator ()
- boolean retainAll (Collection c)
- int size ()
- Object[] toArray ()
- Object[] toArray (Object a[])

List

Accessors

- Object get / set (int index)
- Object set (int index, Object element)

Collectors

- void add (int index, Object element)
- boolean addAll (int index, Collection c)
- Object remove (int index)

Other Public Methods

- int indexOf (Object o)
- int lastIndexOf (Object o)
- ListIterator listIterator ()
- ListIterator listIterator (int index)
- List sublist (int fromIndex, int toIndex)

Set

AbstractCollection

- # AbstractCollection ()
- String toString ()

SortedSet

- Comparator comparator ()
- Object first ()
- SortedSet headSet (Object toElement)
- Object last ()
- SortedSet subSet (Object fromElement, Object toElement)
- SortedSet tailSet (Object fromElement)

AbstractSet

- # AbstractSet ()

Cloneable

Serializable

AbstractList

- # AbstractList ()
- # void removeRange (int fromIndex, int toIndex)

RandomAccess

TreeSet

- Tree Set ()
- Tree Set (Comparator c)
- Tree Set (Collection c)
- Tree Set (SortedSet s)
- Object clone ()

HashSet

- Hash Set ()
- Hash Set (Collection c)
- Hash Set (int initialCapacity)
- Hash Set (int initialCapacity, float loadFactor)
- Object clone ()

LinkedHashSet

- Linked Hash Set ()
- Linked Hash Set (int initialCapacity)
- Linked Hash Set (Collection c)
- Linked Hash Set (int initialCapacity, float loadFactor)

AbstractSequentialList

- # AbstractSequentialList ()

LinkedList

- Linked List ()
- Linked List (Collection c)

Accessors

- Object getFirst ()
- Object getLast ()

Collectors

- void addFirst (Object o)
- void addLast (Object o)
- Object removeFirst ()
- Object removeLast ()

Object

- Object clone ()

ArrayList

- Array List ()
- Array List (int initialCapacity)
- Array List (Collection c)

Collectors

- # void removeRange (int fromIndex, int toIndex)

Object

- Object clone ()

Other Public Methods

- void ensureCapacity (int minCapacity)
- void trimToSize ()

Sumber : <https://www.cs.umb.edu>