CSE 12: Basic data structures and object-oriented design

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Stacks.

Review of stacks

- Stacks are a last-in-first-out (LIFO) data structure designed primarily to store data temporarily.
- Data are always added to/removed from the top of the stack.
- Stack ADT interface:

```
interface Stack<T> {
    // Adds the specified object to the top of the stack.
    void push (T o);
    // Removes the top of the stack and returns it.
    T pop () throws NoSuchElementException;
```

```
// Returns the top of the stack without removing it.
T peek () throws NoSuchElementException;
```

Stack implementations

- A stack can be implemented straightforwardly using two kinds of backing stores/underlying storage.
 - Array
 - More efficient for stacks of a fixed maximum capacity.
 - Linked list
 - More flexible for stacks with a growable capacity.

- Arrays offer a natural implementation of stacks:
 - Use T[] _underlyingStorage to hold elements added to stack.
 - Maximum capacity is _underlyingStorage.length
 - Keep track of "height" of stack using _numElements instance variable.



- In every call to push(o), e.g., _stack.push(q);
 - _numElements is incremented.
 - o is stored at index _numElements 1.



- In every call to peek():
 - The element stored at index _numElements
 1 is saved to a local variable top.
 - top is returned.



- In every call to pop():
 - The element stored at index _numElements
 1 is saved to a local variable top.
 - numElements is decremented.



Exceptions

- If a stack has reached its maximum capacity (i.e., _numElements == _underlyingStorage.length) and the user calls push(o), then the stack will overflow.
- If a stack is empty (_numElements == 0) and the user calls pop(), then the stack will underflow.

• A stack can also be implemented using a linked-list of nodes:



 Each call to push (o) adds a new Node to the _top of the stack (or _tail of the list), e.g.:

```
_stack.push(d);
```



 Each call to peek() simply returns the data referenced by _top (or _tail):

final T top = _stack.peek(); // d



 Each call to pop() removes the Node at the _top of the stack (or _tail of the list) and returns the data it referenced, e.g.:

final T top = _stack.pop(); // d



- A linked list-based stack ADT could be implemented by defining a static inner-class Node and essentially "re-implementing" the DoublyLinkedList12 functionality.
 - But this would be wasteful -- we already have a functioning DoublyLinkedList12 ADT.
 - We can save time and the possibility of human error by "adapting" the DoublyLinkedList12 ADT to a Stack ADT.

"Adapter" design pattern

- In software engineering, one of the classic "design patterns" is the *adapter*.
 - An *adapter* is a class that "maps" from the interface of one ADT -- the one we're trying to implement -- into the interface of another ADT *that already exists*.
 - If we adapt an ADT B to implement another ADT A, then every method of A must be "converted" into a related call of B.
 - In particular, we can adapt the List12 ADT (implemented by DoublyLinkedList12) to satisfy the Stack ADT interface specification...

Stack as adaptation of linked list

- How to "map" from Stack ADT to List12 ADT:
 - Stack constructor instantiates
 _dll = new DoublyLinkedList12<T>();
 - push(o) calls _dll.addToBack(o)
 - pop() calls _dll.removeBack()
 - peek() calls _dll.get(_dll.size() 1)

Queues.

Queues

- Queues are a first-in-first-out (FIFO) data structure used typically for temporary data storage.
 - Similarly to a train entering a tunnel, the first car to enter the tunnel is the first car to exit the tunnel.
- As with stacks, queues find many uses in systems programming (programming of the operating system).



- One of the classical use-cases for queues is for interprocess communication (IPC).
- Programs sometimes need to send messages to other programs in order to get work done.
 - E.g., to write anything to the terminal or to a file, a program must send a message to the operating system requesting that the specified data be written.

- IPC can take place between a computer program and the operating system, or between two computer programs:
- Examples:
 - cat program to operating system: "please take this message [contents of a particular file] and print it to the screen."
 - 1s program to more program: "please take this message [contents of a directory] and split it into convenient page-size chunks."

- In IPC, it is crucial that the messages be received in the same order that they are sent.
 - E.g., if we send the following messages... sendMsg("h"); sendMsg("e"); sendMsg("1"); sendMsg("1"); sendMsg("0");
 - ...then we expect "hello" to be received, and not "lehol"!
 - We need messaging to be a FIFO process.

- Suppose Program A wishes to send a message to Program B (perhaps running concurrently).
- One way in which we might conceive of implementing IPC is for A to call a *method* of B ("procedure call").



- Unfortunately, this "procedure call" from A to B is problematic:
 - What if B is currently doing something else? (Remember that it's a separate program.) B might need a long time before it can process A's message.
- As a consequence, A's procedure call will "hang" execution of A.
 Implementing IPC using a procedure call effectively "couples" programs A and B.
 class A { // Program A Program _b; void someMethod () {
 class B { // Program B void pleasePrint (String msg) { ... // Process the request }

- Message queues offer a way of "decoupling" the sending of a message (from A) and the receiving/ processing of a message (in B).
- With message queues, two programs A and B that wish to communicate can instantiate a message queue between them.

D.

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- Whenever B wishes to receive/process a message M from A, it **dequeues** a message from the queue.
 - In accordance with the FIFO principle, the first message B dequeues is the first message A had enqueued.

A queue is sometimes referred to simply as a FIFO.



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- The queue as an "intermediary communication medium" between A and B allows both programs to operate independently.
 - A can send a message to B without waiting for B to finish processing it.
 - B can process messages from A when it is convenient to receive them.

```
class B { // Program B
  void processQueue () {
    ...
    final String msg =
    _queue.dequeue();
    print(msg);
  }
```

```
class A { // Program A
  Queue _queue;
  void someMethod () {
    _queue.enqueue(
        "print: testing"
    );
  }
}
```

Queue ADT

• The interface for a Queue ADT looks as follows:

```
interface Queue<T> {
    // Adds o to the back of the queue.
    void enqueue (T o);
    // Removes the object at the front of the
    // queue.
    T dequeue () throws NoSuchElementException;
}
```

Implementing a queue

- A queue can probably be most easily conceptualized and implemented as a linked list.
- The head of the list is the *front* of the queue.
- The tail is the back of the queue.
- Calls to enqueue (o) add a new Node to the back.
- Calls to dequeue () remove a Node (and return its data) from the *front*.



Adapting a DoublyLinkedList12

- As with the Stack ADT, the Queue ADT also lends itself to *adapting* the existing DoublyLinkedList12 ADT to suit its needs:
 - Instantiate _dll = new DoublyLinkedList12<T>();
 - Calls to enqueue (o): _dll.addToBack(o);
 - Calls to dequeue():return _dll.removeFront();

- Like stacks, queues too can be implemented using an array as the underlying storage.
- However, arriving at at an efficient solution is non-trivial.
- Assume following instance variables:
 - T[] _underlyingStorage
 - int _frontIdx, _backIdx -- indices into _underlyingStorage of where the front and back of the queue are located.

- enqueue (o): Append to the back of the array:
 - This is easy:

```
_backIdx++;
_underlyingStorage[ backIdx] = o;
```



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 - This is easy: O(I) time cost

```
_backIdx++;
_underlyingStorage[_backIdx] = o;
```



- dequeue(): Remove from the *front* of the array:
 - This is harder -- what happens when we remove o1?
 - There are several ways one can attempt to implement this method...



 One possibility is to "shift down" by I the entire queue after the front has been removed:

```
final T front = _underlyingStorage[0];
for (int i = _frontIdx+1; i <= _backIdx; i++) {
    _underlyingStorage[i-1] = _underlyingStorage[i];
}
_backIdx--; // The back has "moved up" by 1
return front;</pre>
```



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}
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return front;</pre>
```

• Example: _queue.dequeue();



 One possibility is to "shift down" by I the entire queue after the front has been removed:

```
final T front = _underlyingStorage[0]; O(n) time cost!
for (int i = 1; i < _backIdx; i++) {
    _underlyingStorage[i-1] = _underlyingStorage[i];
}
_backIdx--; // The back has "moved up" by 1
return front;
frontIdx never changes -- always !!</pre>
```

• Example: _queue.dequeue();



 Another possibility is to allocate a huge array for the _underlyingStorage, and then just keep advancing _frontIdx by I whenever dequeue() is called.

```
final T front = _underlyingStorage[_frontIdx];
_frontIdx++;
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O(|) time cost

```
• Example: _queue.dequeue();
```



```
_queue.enqueue(09);
_queue.dequeue();
_queue.enqueue(010);
_queue.dequeue();
```



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- This implementation of dequeue() is elegant and efficient.
 - The queue keeps "moving" to the right.
 - Even though the length of the queue may be small, the array would have to be of *infinite length* to accommodate the eternal "sliding down".



- Let's try one more time...
- Let's assume that the maximum length of the queue is bounded, i.e., it will never exceed some MAX_LENGTH.
 - Note -- in general, MAX_LENGTH and __underlyingStorage could be different.
- We can simulate an "infinite array" by implementing a ring buffer.
 - In a ring buffer, the back of the array is connected to the front of the array by "bending the array into a circle".

- Example: T[] _ringBuffer = (T[]) new Object[8];
- In a ring buffer, the array indices 7 and 0 are adjacent.
 - The index "before" 0 is 7.
 - The index "after" 7 is 0.



- A ring buffer is a convenient programming *abstraction*.
- With ring buffers, when we wish to "iterate around" the array, we can use an index variable currentIdx.
- Each time we wish to retrieve the "next" element, we return _ringBuffer
 [currentIdx];
- We then must "increment" currentIdx.
 - If currentIdx < 7, then: currentIdx++;
 - If currentIdx == 7, then: currentIdx = 0;



"Bend" into a circle



- Similar logic applies to iterating "backwards":
- Each time we wish to retrieve the "previous" element, we return _ringBuffer[currentIdx];
- We then must "decrement" currentIdx.
 - If currentIdx > 0, then: currentIdx--;
 - If currentIdx == 0, then: currentIdx = 7;



- Ring buffers are useful when implementing queues because they allow us to keep "moving the queue to the right" without actually requiring infinite storage.
- Consider the queue below (initially _frontIdx = 2 and _backIdx = 4).
- We can call enqueue and dequeue repeatedly -- the queue will appear to "slide around" the ring buffer.
- As long as dequeue () is called frequently enough (compared to enqueue (o)), the ring buffer will never get full.

```
enqueue(f);
enqueue(g);
dequeue();
enqueue(h);
enqueue(i);
dequeue();
```



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```



- Using a ring buffer as the underlying storage, a queue can be implemented so that both enqueue (o) and dequeue () have time cost O(1).
- The disadvantage compared to a linked list-based implementation is that the maximum length of the queue must be known in advance.
 - When the queue is "full" and the user calls enqueue (o), then either:
 - The queue will **block** -- hang until some other program/thread calls dequeue; or
 - Throw an exception.
 - With linked lists, the queue can grow arbitrarily long.