

//R-2.7

Algorithm Root (S)

return S[1]

Algorithm Parent(S,p)

if  $p==1$  return null

return S[p//2]

Algorithm leftChild(S,p)

if  $(2*p) > \text{size}(s)$  then return null

return S[2\*p]

Algorithm rightChild(S,p)

if  $(2*p+1) > \text{size}(s)$  then return null

return S[2\*p +1]

Algorithm isInternal(S,p)

return  $2*p < \text{size}(S)$

Algorithm isExternal(S,p)

return  $2*p > \text{size}(S)$

Algorithm isRoot(S,p)

return  $p==1$

//R-2.8

a. will be 16 children at the level 5

b. For height  $h$ , the minimum number of external nodes is 1,  
since a degenerate tree has just one leaf at the deepest level.

c. For height  $h$ , the maximum number of external nodes is  $2^h$ ,  
because a complete binary tree doubles the number of external nodes at each level.  
exple : level 5  $\rightarrow 2^5=32$

d.

In a binary tree, for  $n$  internal nodes, the number of external nodes  $e$  is  $n + 1$   
(because a binary tree has one more external node than internal nodes).

The height of a complete binary tree is the minimum height, which is  $\log(n + 1)$ .

The height of a degenerate (linear) tree is the maximum height, which is  $n$ .

Hence, the height  $h$  satisfies:

$$\log(n+1) < h < n$$

The logarithmic term represents the minimum height (complete tree),  
and the linear term represents the maximum height (degenerate tree).

e.

Lower Bound ( $\log(n+1) = h$ ): Achieved when the binary tree is complete,  
meaning all levels except possibly the last are fully filled, and the last level has nodes as  
far left as possible.

Upper Bound ( $h = n$ ): Achieved when the binary tree is degenerate,

i.e., each internal node has only one child, making the tree resemble a linked list.

## C-2.2

When using two stacks to implement a queue:

Enqueue (push): This operation always takes constant time  $O(1)$  because we simply push elements onto the first stack (stack1).

Dequeue (pop):

When stack2 is empty, all elements from stack1 are transferred to stack2, which takes  $O(n)$  in the worst case, where  $n$  is the number of elements.

However, this transfer happens infrequently. After transferring, each of these  $n$  elements can be dequeued in  $O(1)$  time.

Therefore, the amortized cost of a dequeue operation is  $O(1)$  because the expensive  $O(n)$  transfer is spread out over the  $n$  dequeues.

Conclusion: The amortized running time for both enqueue and dequeue is  $O(1)$ .

## C-2.7

We need to shuffle a sequence of  $n$  elements (representing cards) so that each possible order is equally likely.

The approach involves using a variation of the Fisher-Yates shuffle (also known as the Knuth shuffle).

Algorithm shuffle( $S, n$ ):

for  $i = 0$  to  $n-2$ :

$j = \text{randomInt}(n-i) + i$

    swap( $S[i], S[j]$ )

`//randomInt(n)` generates a random integer between 0 and  $n-1$ .

For each position  $i$ , you randomly select an index  $j$  from the unselected portion of the sequence and swap the elements at  $i$  and  $j$ .

This ensures that every element is selected exactly once, guaranteeing that all possible orderings are equally likely.