Software Engineering 2 (C++)

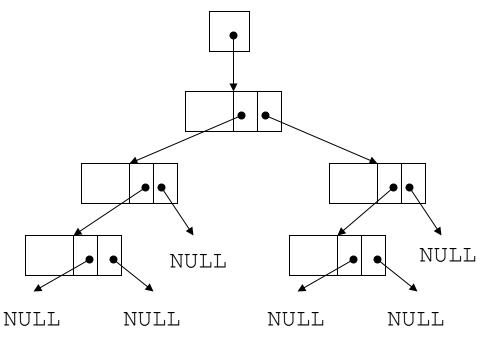
CSY2006 (Week 21)

Dr. Suraj Ajit

Definition and Application of Binary Trees

Definition and Application of Binary Trees

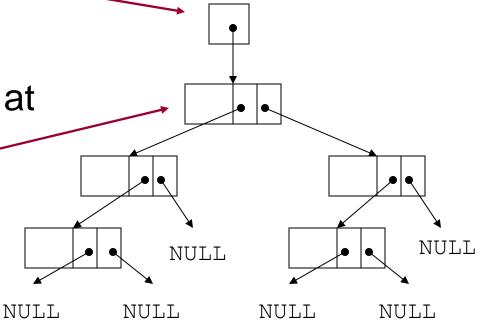
- Binary tree: a nonlinear linked list in which each node may point to 0, 1, or two other nodes
- Each node contains one or more data fields and two pointers



B-Trees make excellent data structures for searching large amounts of data efficient (fast). Arrays and Linked Lists are linear data structures which are slow. Data stored in a way that that makes binary search simple.

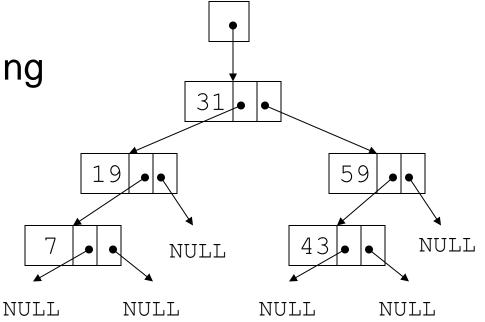
 Tree pointer: like a head pointer for a linked list, it points to the first node in the binary tree

 Root node: the node at the top of the tree

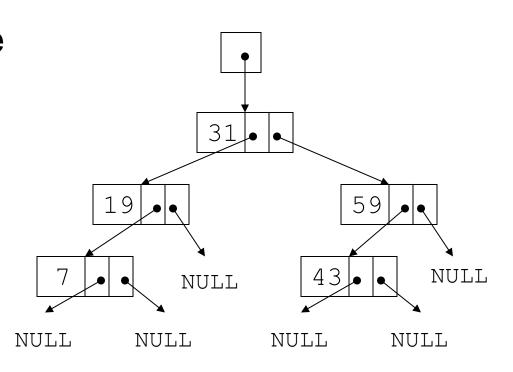


 <u>Leaf nodes</u>: nodes that have no children

The nodes containing 7 and 43 are leaf nodes

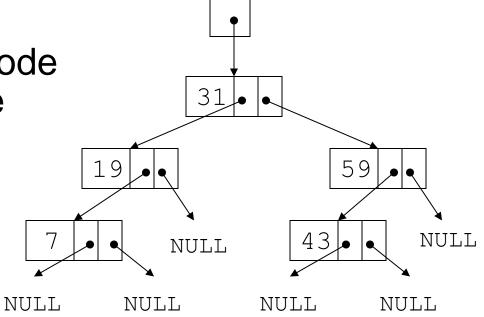


 Child nodes, children: nodes below a given node
 The children of the node containing 31 are the nodes containing 19 and 59



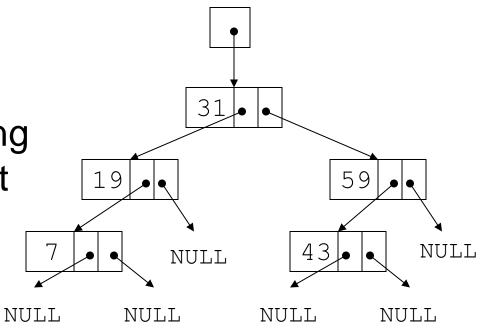
 Parent node: node above a given node

The parent of the node containing 43 is the node containing 59



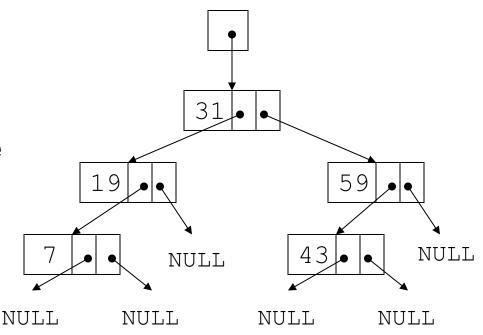
 Subtree: the portion of a tree from a node down to the leaves

The nodes containing 19 and 7 are the left subtree of the node containing 31



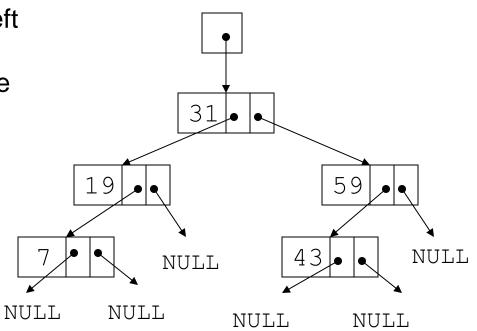
Uses of Binary Trees

- Binary search tree: data organized in a binary tree to simplify searches
- Left subtree of a node contains data values < the data in the node
- Right subtree of a node contains values > the data in the node



Searching in a Binary Tree

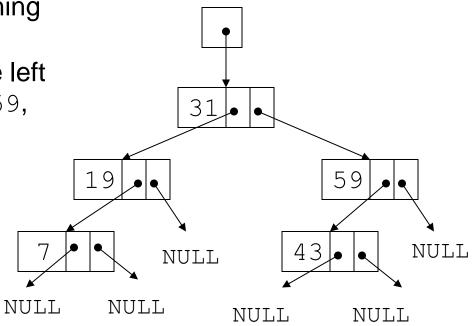
- 1) Start at root node
- 2) Examine node data:
 - a) Is it desired value? Done
 - b) Else, is desired data < node data? Repeat step 2 with left subtree
 - c) Else, is desired data > node data? Repeat step 2 with right subtree
- 3) Continue until desired value found or NULL pointer reached



Searching in a Binary Tree

To locate the node containing 43,

- Examine the root node (31) first
- Since 43 > 31, examine the right child of the node containing 31, (59)
- Since 43 < 59, examine the left child of the node containing 59,
 (43)
- The node containing
 43 has been found



Binary Search Tree Operations

Binary Search Tree Operations

- Create a binary search tree organize data into a binary search tree
- Insert a node into a binary tree put node into tree in its correct position to maintain order
- Find a node in a binary tree locate a node with particular data value
- Delete a node from a binary tree remove a node and adjust links to maintain binary tree

Binary Search Tree Node

 A node in a binary tree is like a node in a linked list, with two node pointer fields:

```
struct TreeNode
{
  int value;
  TreeNode *left;
  TreeNode *right;
}
```

Creating a New Node

Allocate memory for new node:

```
newNode = new TreeNode;
```

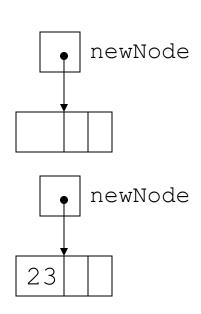
Initialize the contents of the node:

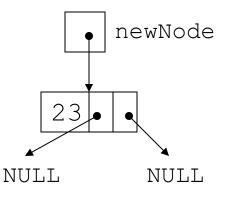
```
newNode->value = num;
```

Set the pointers to NULL:

```
newNode->Left
```

- = newNode->Right
- = NULL;

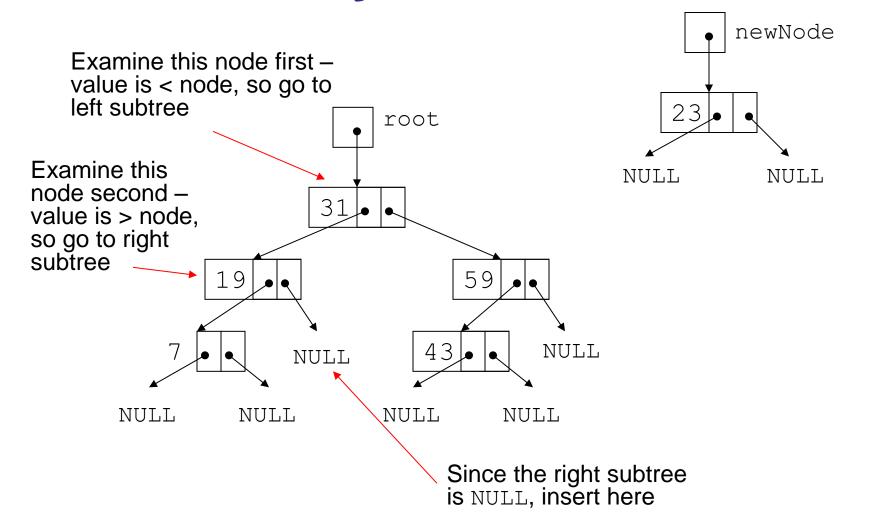




Inserting a Node in a Binary Search Tree

- If tree is empty, insert the new node as the root node
- Else, compare new node against left or right child, depending on whether data value of new node is < or > root node
- 3) Continue comparing and choosing left or right subtree until NULL pointer found
- 4) Set this NULL pointer to point to new node

Inserting a Node in a Binary Search Tree

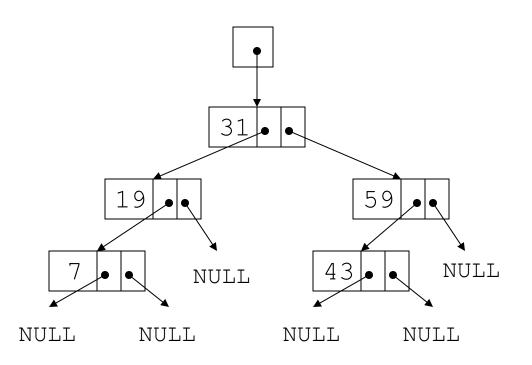


Traversing a Binary Tree

Three traversal methods:

- 1) <u>Inorder</u>:
 - a) Traverse left subtree of node
 - b) Process data in node
 - c) Traverse right subtree of node
- 2) <u>Preorder</u>:
 - a) Process data in node
 - b) Traverse left subtree of node
 - c) Traverse right subtree of node
- 3) Postorder:
 - a) Traverse left subtree of node
 - b) Traverse right subtree of node
 - c) Process data in node

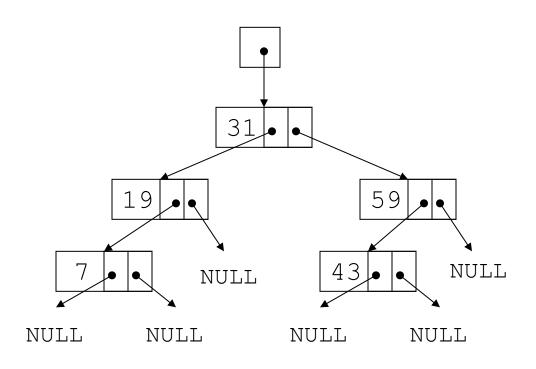
Traversing a Binary Tree



TRAVERSAL METHOD	NODES VISITED IN ORDER
Inorder	7, 19, 31, 43, 59
Preorder	31, 19, 7, 59, 43
Postorder	7, 19, 43, 59, 31

Searching in a Binary Tree

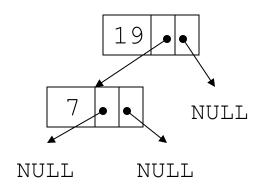
- Start at root node, traverse the tree looking for value
- Stop when value found or NULL pointer detected
- Can be implemented as a bool function



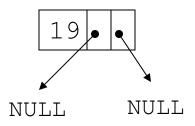
Search for 43? return true Search for 17? return false

Deleting a Node from a Binary Tree – Leaf Node

 If node to be deleted is a leaf node, replace parent node's pointer to it with a NULL pointer, then delete the node



Deleting node with 7 – before deletion

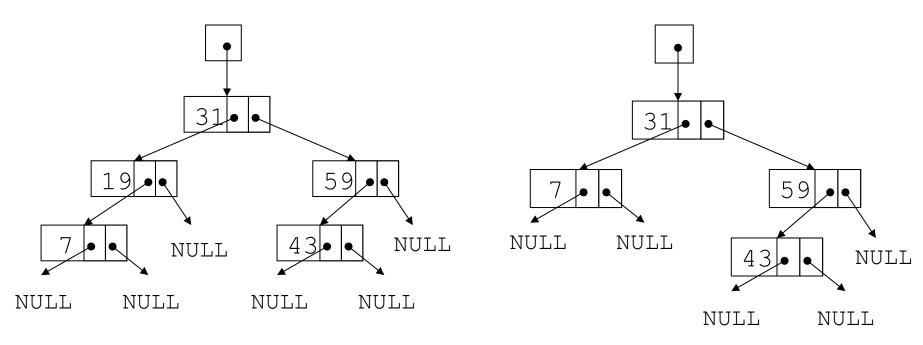


Deleting node with 7 – after deletion

Deleting a Node from a Binary Tree – One Child

 If node to be deleted has one child node, adjust pointers so that parent of node to be deleted points to child of node to be deleted, then delete the node

Deleting a Node from a Binary Tree – One Child



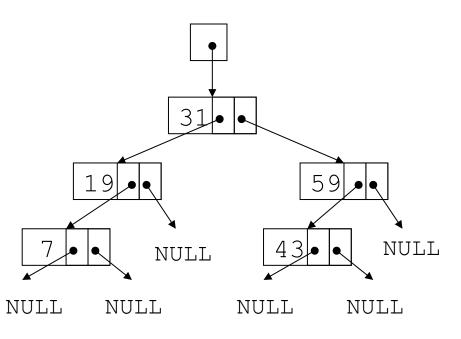
Deleting node with 19 – before deletion

Deleting node with 19 – after deletion

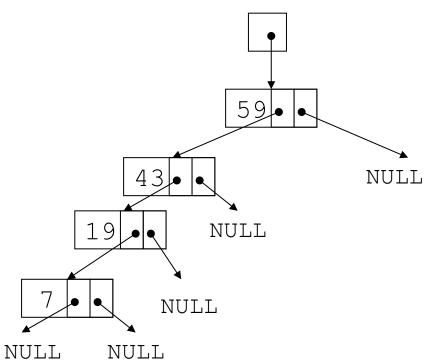
Deleting a Node from a Binary Tree – Two Children

- If node to be deleted has left and right children,
 - 'Promote' one child to take the place of the deleted node
 - Locate correct position for other child in subtree of promoted child
- Convention in text: promote the right child, position left subtree underneath

Deleting a Node from a Binary Tree – Two Children



Deleting node with 31 – before deletion



Deleting node with 31 – after deletion

- Binary tree can be implemented as a template, allowing flexibility in determining type of data stored
- Implementation must support relational operators >, <, and == to allow comparison of nodes

```
// Specification file for the IntBinaryTree class
   □#ifndef INTBINARYTREE H
    #define INTBINARYTREE H
 4
 5
    class IntBinaryTree
 6
    private:
 8
        struct TreeNode
 9
10
          int value;
                             // The value in the node
11
          TreeNode *left; // Pointer to left child node
12
           TreeNode *right; // Pointer to right child node
13
        };
14
15
       TreeNode *root;
                              // Pointer to the root node
16
17
       // Private member functions
18
       void insert(TreeNode *&, TreeNode *&);
19
       void destroySubTree(TreeNode *);
20
       void deleteNode(int, TreeNode *&);
21
       void makeDeletion(TreeNode *&);
22
       void displayInOrder(TreeNode *) const;
23
       void displayPreOrder(TreeNode *) const;
24
       void displayPostOrder(TreeNode *) const;
25
```

```
■#ifndef BINARYTREE H
    #define BINARYTREE H
    #include <iostream>
    using namespace std;
    // Stack template
    template <class T>
   8
    private:
 9
       struct TreeNode{
10
          T value;
                           // The value in the node
11
          TreeNode *left; // Pointer to left child node
12
          TreeNode *right; // Pointer to right child node
13
       };
14
15
       TreeNode *root;
                             // Pointer to the root node
16
17
       // Private member functions
18
       void insert(TreeNode *&, TreeNode *&);
19
       void destroySubTree(TreeNode *);
20
       void deleteNode(T, TreeNode *&);
21
       void makeDeletion(TreeNode *&);
22
       void displayInOrder(TreeNode *) const;
23
       void displayPreOrder(TreeNode *) const;
24
       void displayPostOrder(TreeNode *) const;
```

Background Information(Reference Only)

Introduction to Recursion

Introduction to Recursion

A <u>recursive function</u> contains a call to itself:

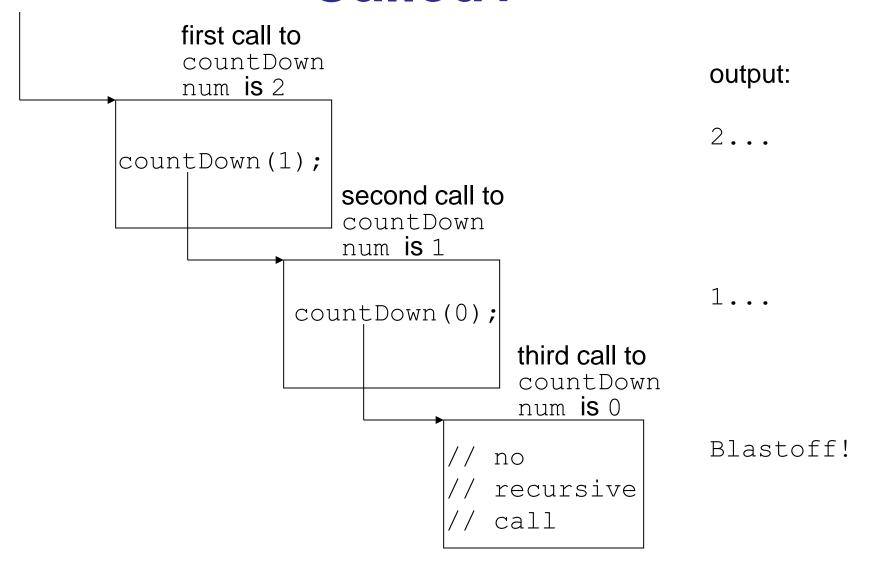
```
void countDown(int num)
{
   if (num == 0)
      cout << "Blastoff!";
   else
   {
      cout << num << "...\n";
      countDown(num-1); // recursive
   }
   }
}</pre>
```

What Happens When Called?

```
If a program contains a line like countDown (2);
```

- 1. countDown (2) generates the output 2..., then it calls countDown (1)
- 2. countDown (1) generates the output 1..., then it calls countDown (0)
- 3. countDown (0) generates the output Blastoff!, then returns to countDown (1)
- 4. countDown (1) returns to countDown (2)
- 5. countDown (2) returns to the calling function

What Happens When Called?



Solving Problems with Recursion

Recursive Functions - Purpose

- Recursive functions are used to reduce a complex problem to a simpler-to-solve problem.
- The simpler-to-solve problem is known as the <u>base case</u>
- Recursive calls stop when the base case is reached

- A recursive function must always include a test to determine if another recursive call should be made, or if the recursion should stop with this call
- In the sample program, the test is:

```
if (num == 0)
```

```
void countDown(int num)
  if (num == 0) // test
      cout << "Blastoff!";</pre>
  else
      cout << num << "...\n";
      countDown(num-1); // recursive
                         // call
```

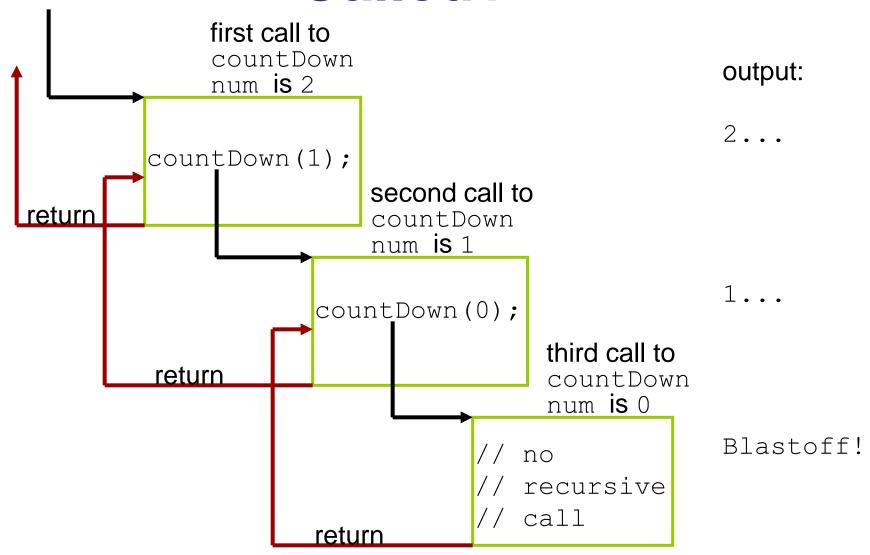
- Recursion uses a process of breaking a problem down into smaller problems until the problem can be solved
- In the countDown function, a different value is passed to the function each time it is called
- Eventually, the parameter reaches the value in the test, and the recursion stops

```
void countDown(int num)
  if (num == 0)
      cout << "Blastoff!";</pre>
  else
      cout << num << "...\n";
      countDown (num-1); // note that the value
                        // passed to recursive
                        // calls decreases by
                        // one for each call
```

What Happens When Called?

- Each time a recursive function is called, a new copy of the function runs, with new instances of parameters and local variables created
- As each copy finishes executing, it returns to the copy of the function that called it
- When the initial copy finishes executing, it returns to the part of the program that made the initial call to the function

What Happens When Called?



Types of Recursion

- Direct
 - a function calls itself
- Indirect
 - function A calls function B, and function B calls function A
 - function A calls function B, which calls ...,
 which calls function A

The Recursive Factorial Function

The factorial function:

```
n! = n*(n-1)*(n-2)*...*3*2*1 if n > 0

n! = 1 if n = 0
```

 Can compute factorial of n if the factorial of (n-1) is known:

```
n! = n * (n-1)!
```

• n = 0 is the base case

The Recursive Factorial Function

```
int factorial (int num)
{
  if (num > 0)
    return num * factorial(num - 1);
  else
    return 1;
}
```

Program 19-3

```
// This program demonstrates a recursive function to
 2 // calculate the factorial of a number.
 3 #include <iostream>
   using namespace std;
 5
 6 // Function prototype
   int factorial(int);
 8
 9
    int main()
10
11
       int number;
12
13
      // Get a number from the user.
14
   cout << "Enter an integer value and I will display\n";
15
      cout << "its factorial: ";
16
      cin >> number;
17
18
     // Display the factorial of the number.
      cout << "The factorial of " << number << " is ";
19
      cout << factorial(number) << endl;
2.0
21
      return 0;
22 }
23
```

Program 19-3 (Continued)

```
//****************
24
  // Definition of factorial. A recursive function to calculate *
26 // the factorial of the parameter n.
  //****************
2.7
2.8
29
   int factorial(int n)
3.0
31
  if (n == 0)
32
       return 1;
                             // Base case
33 else
       return n * factorial(n - 1); // Recursive case
34
35 }
```

Program Output with Example Input Shown in Bold

```
Enter an integer value and I will display its factorial: 4 [Enter]
The factorial of 4 is 24
```

The Recursive gcd Function

The Recursive gcd Function

- Greatest common divisor (gcd) is the largest factor that two integers have in common
- Computed using Euclid's algorithm:

```
gcd(x, y) = y \text{ if } y \text{ divides } x \text{ evenly}

gcd(x, y) = gcd(y, x % y) \text{ otherwise}
```

• gcd(x, y) = y is the base case

The Recursive gcd Function

```
int gcd(int x, int y)
{
    if (x % y == 0)
        return y;
    else
        return gcd(y, x % y);
}
```

Solving Recursively Defined Problems

Solving Recursively Defined Problems

- The natural definition of some problems leads to a recursive solution
- Example: Fibonacci numbers:

```
0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, ...
```

- After the starting 0, 1, each number is the sum of the two preceding numbers
- Recursive solution:

```
fib(n) = fib(n - 1) + fib(n - 2);
```

• Base cases: n <= 0, n == 1

Solving Recursively Defined Problems

```
int fib(int n)
  if (n <= 0)
      return 0;
  else if (n == 1)
      return 1;
  else
       return fib(n -1) + fib(n -2);
```

Recursive Linked List Operations

Recursive Linked List Operations

- Recursive functions can be members of a linked list class
- Some applications:
 - Compute the size of (number of nodes in) a list
 - Traverse the list in reverse order

Counting the Nodes in a Linked List

- Uses a pointer to visit each node
- Algorithm:
 - pointer starts at head of list
 - If pointer is NULL, return 0 (base case)
 else, return 1 + number of nodes in the list pointed to by current node
- See the NumberList class

The countNodes function, a private member function

```
int NumberList::countNodes(ListNode *nodePtr) const

if (nodePtr != NULL)

return 1 + countNodes(nodePtr->next);

else

return 0;

}
```

The countNodes function is executed by the public numNodes function:

Contents of a List in Reverse Order

Algorithm:

- pointer starts at head of list
- If the pointer is NULL, return (base case)
- If the pointer is not NULL, advance to next node
- Upon returning from recursive call, display contents of current node

The showReverse function, a private member function

```
void NumberList::showReverse(ListNode *nodePtr) const

f (nodePtr != NULL)

f (nodePtr != NULL)

showReverse(nodePtr->next);

cout << nodePtr->value << " ";

}
</pre>
```

The showReverse function is executed by the public displayBackwards function:

A Recursive Binary Search Function

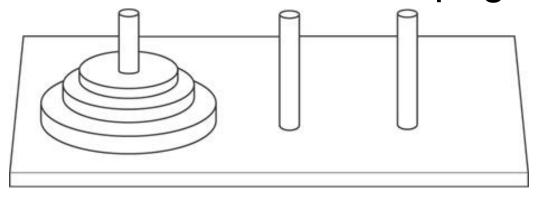
A Recursive Binary Search Function

- Binary search algorithm can easily be written to use recursion
- Base cases: desired value is found, or no more array elements to search
- Algorithm (array in ascending order):
 - If middle element of array segment is desired value, then done
 - Else, if the middle element is too large, repeat binary search in first half of array segment
 - Else, if the middle element is too small, repeat binary search on the second half of array segment

A Recursive Binary Search Function (Continued)

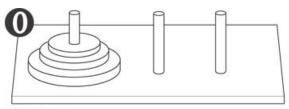
```
int binarySearch(int array[], int first, int last, int value)
  int middle; // Mid point of search
  if (first > last)
     return -1;
 middle = (first + last) / 2;
  if (array[middle] == value)
     return middle;
  if (array[middle] < value)
     return binarySearch(array, middle+1,last,value);
 else
     return binarySearch(array, first,middle-1,value);
```

- The Towers of Hanoi is a mathematical game that is often used to demonstrate the power of recursion.
- The game uses three pegs and a set of discs, stacked on one of the pegs.

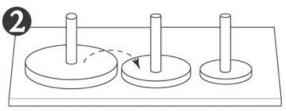


- The object of the game is to move the discs from the first peg to the third peg. Here are the rules:
 - Only one disc may be moved at a time.
 - A disc cannot be placed on top of a smaller disc.
 - All discs must be stored on a peg except while being moved.

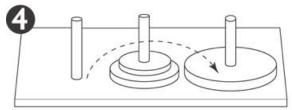
Moving Three Discs



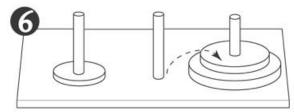
Original setup.



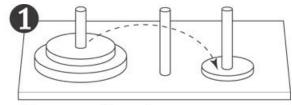
Second move: Move disc 2 to peg 2.



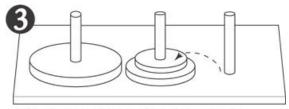
Fourth move: Move disc 3 to peg 3.



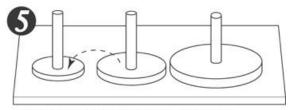
Sixth move: Move disc 2 to peg 3.



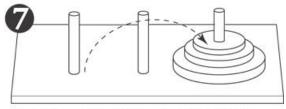
First move: Move disc 1 to peg 3.



Third move: Move disc 1 to peg 2.



Fifth move: Move disc 1 to peg 1.



Seventh move: Move disc 1 to peg 3.

- The following statement describes the overall solution to the problem:
 - Move n discs from peg 1 to peg 3 using peg 2 as a temporary peg.

Algorithm

– To move n discs from peg A to peg C, using peg B as a temporary peg:

If n > 0 Then
Move n − 1 discs from peg A to peg B, using peg C as a temporary peg.

Move the remaining disc from the peg A to peg C.

Move n – 1 discs from peg B to peg C, using peg A as a temporary peg.

End If

Program 19-10

```
1 // This program displays a solution to the Towers of
 2 // Hanoi game.
 3 #include <iostream>
   using namespace std;
 5
   // Function prototype
   void moveDiscs(int, int, int, int);
 8
   int main()
10
      const int NUM DISCS = 3; // Number of discs to move
11
const int FROM PEG = 1; // Initial "from" peg
const int TO PEG = 3; // Initial "to" peg
const int TEMP PEG = 2; // Initial "temp" peg
1.5
```

Program 19-10 (continued)

```
// Play the game.
16
17
      moveDiscs(NUM DISCS, FROM PEG, TO PEG, TEMP PEG);
18
      cout << "All the pegs are moved!\n";
19
      return 0;
20 }
21
22 //********************
23 // The moveDiscs function displays a disc move in
   // the Towers of Hanoi game.
24
   // The parameters are:
25
                  The number of discs to move.
26
   //
         num:
   // fromPeg: The peg to move from.
27
   // toPeq:
28
                  The peg to move to.
         tempPeq: The temporary peg.
29
3.0
31
32
   void moveDiscs(int num, int fromPeg, int toPeg, int tempPeg)
33
   {
34
      if (num > 0)
35
      {
36
         moveDiscs(num - 1, fromPeg, tempPeg, toPeg);
37
         cout << "Move a disc from peg " << from Peg
38
              << " to peq " << toPeq << endl;
39
         moveDiscs(num - 1, tempPeg, toPeg, fromPeg);
40
41
```

Program 19-10 (Continued)

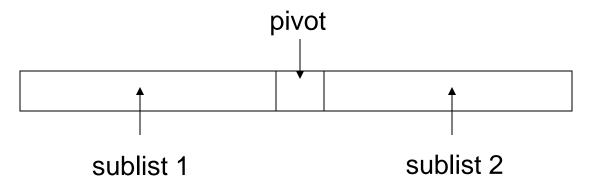
Program Output

```
Move a disc from peg 1 to peg 3
Move a disc from peg 1 to peg 2
Move a disc from peg 3 to peg 2
Move a disc from peg 1 to peg 3
Move a disc from peg 2 to peg 1
Move a disc from peg 2 to peg 3
Move a disc from peg 1 to peg 3
All the pegs are moved!
```

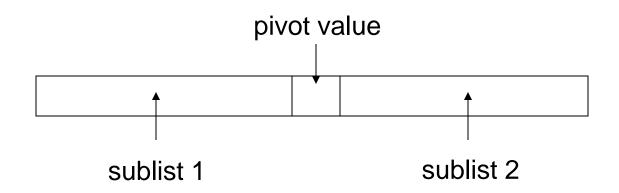
The QuickSort Algorithm

The QuickSort Algorithm

- Recursive algorithm that can sort an array or a linear linked list
- Determines an element/node to use as pivot value:



The QuickSort Algorithm



- Once pivot value is determined, values are shifted so that elements in sublist1 are < pivot and elements in sublist2 are > pivot
- Algorithm then sorts sublist1 and sublist2
- Base case: sublist has size 1

Exhaustive and Enumeration Algorithms

Exhaustive and EnumerationAlgorithms

- Exhaustive algorithm: search a set of combinations to find an optimal one
 - Example: change for a certain amount of money that uses the fewest coins
- Uses the generation of all possible combinations when determining the optimal one.

Recursion vs. Iteration

Recursion vs. Iteration

- Benefits (+), disadvantages(-) for recursion:
 - + Models certain algorithms most accurately
 - + Results in shorter, simpler functions
 - May not execute very efficiently
- Benefits (+), disadvantages(-) for iteration:
 - + Executes more efficiently than recursion
 - Often is harder to code or understand