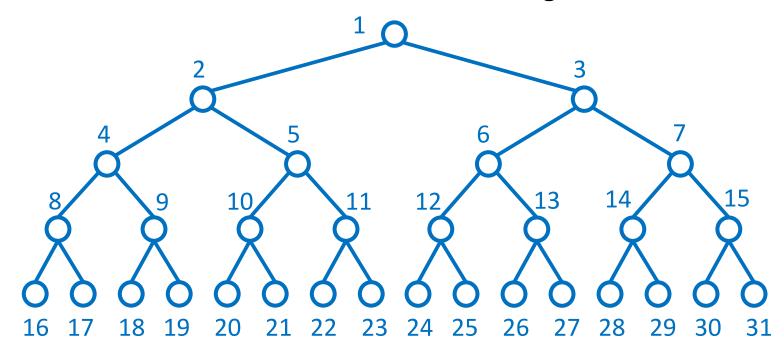
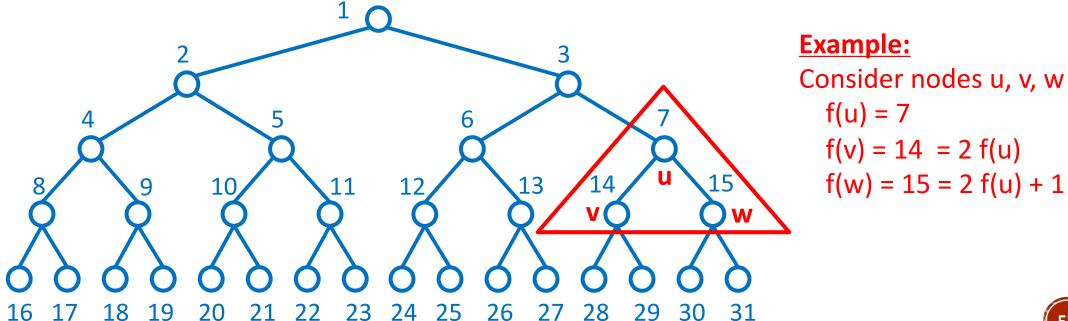
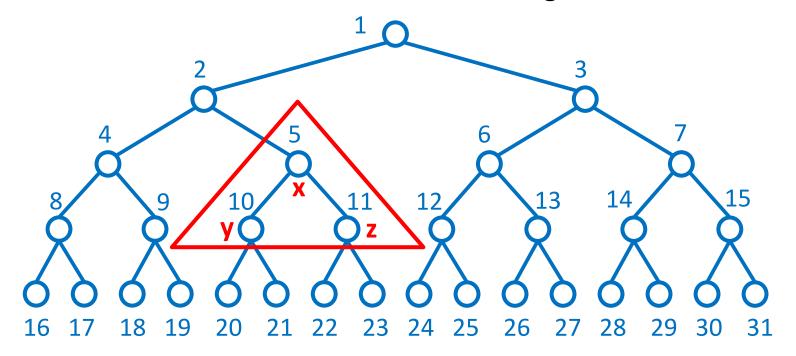
- Given a binary tree, T, let f(v) be the integer defined as follows:
  - If v is the root of T, then f(v) = 1
  - If v is the left child of node u, then f(v) = 2 f(u)
  - If v is the right child of node u, then f(v) = 2 f(u) + 1
- The function f is known as a level numbering of the nodes in a binary tree T



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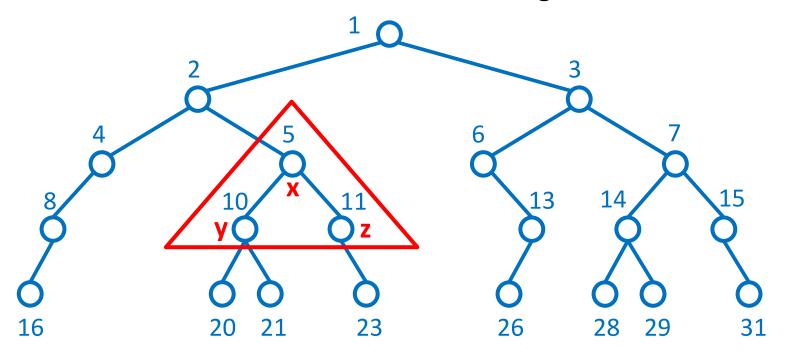


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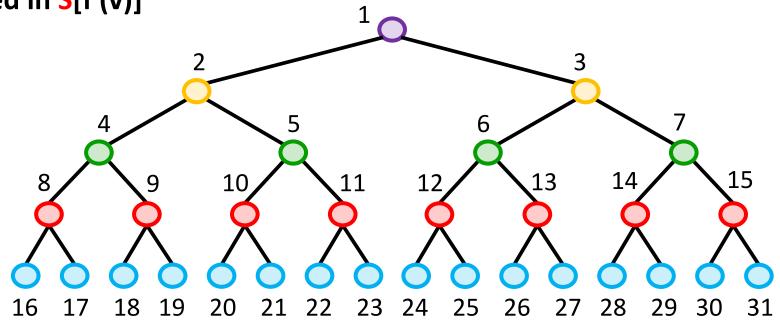
### **Example:**

- Given a binary tree, T, let **f(v)** be the integer defined as follows:
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Note that the level numbering remains the same even if some nodes are missing from different levels!

Using the level numbering, we can represent T as a vector, S, such that node v of T is stored in S[f (v)]

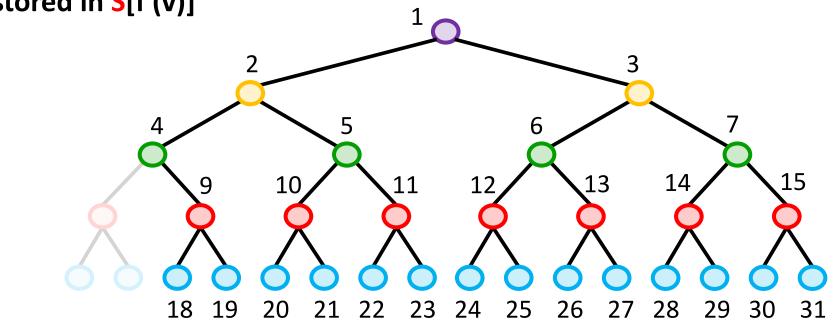


0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31

What could be a disadvantage of the vector based implementation?



Using the level numbering, we can represent T as a vector, S, such that node v of T is stored in S[f (v)]

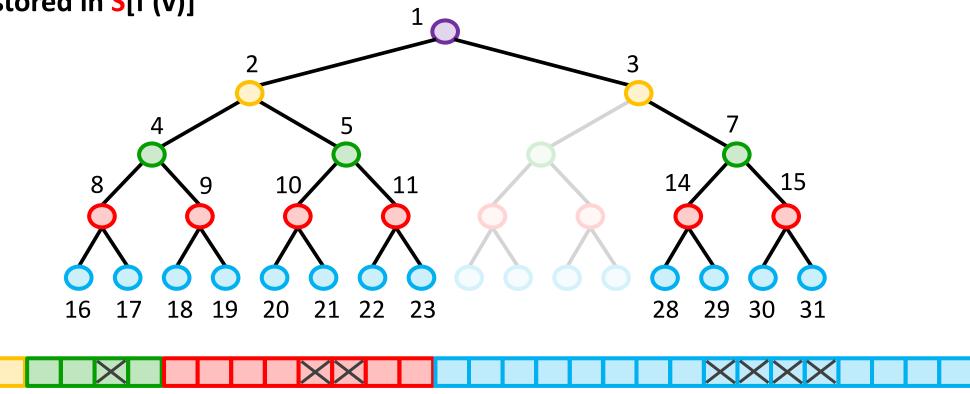




Disadvantage: We waste memory space if some nodes are missing!



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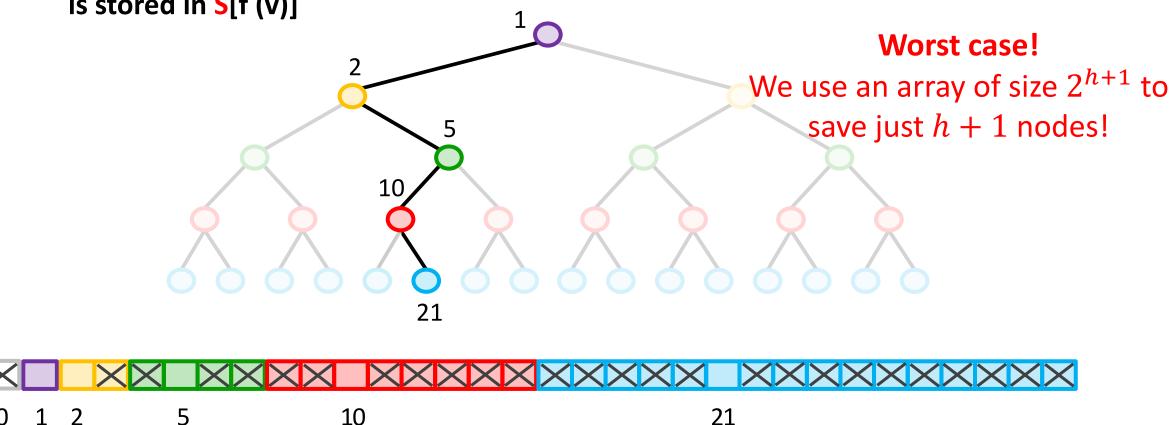
14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23

Disadvantage: We waste memory space if some nodes are missing!

7 8 9 10 11

28 29 30 31

Using the level numbering, we can represent T as a vector, S, such that node v of T is stored in S[f (v)]



Disadvantage: We waste memory space if some nodes are missing!



# BINARY TREE TRAVERSAL

 This is the same as for general trees, except that we now make a recursive call for the left child and the right child instead of making it for all children

```
Algorithm binaryPreorder(T, p):
   perform the "visit" action for node p
   if p is an internal node then{
      binaryPreorder(T, p.left())
      binaryPreorder(T, p.right())
Algorithm binaryPostorder(T, p):
   if p is an internal node then{
     binaryPostorder(T, p.left())
      binaryPostorder(T, p.right())
   perform the "visit" action for node p
```

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```

For binary trees, we can also use In-order traversal

```
Algorithm Inorder(T, p):

if p is an internal node then

Inorder(T, p.left())

perform the "visit" action for node p

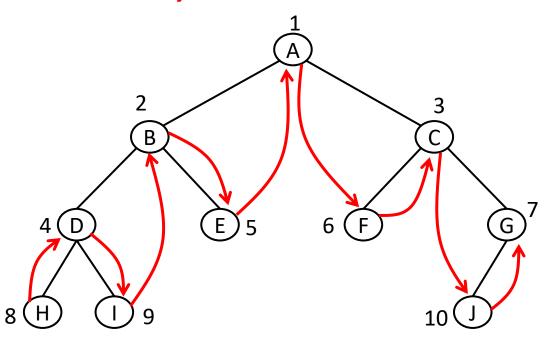
if p is an internal node then

Inorder(T, p.right())
```

# BINARY TREE TRAVERSAL

 This is the same as for general trees, except that we now make a recursive call for the left child and the right child instead of making it for all children

#### How do you think in-order works?



For binary trees, we can also use In-order traversal

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Algorithm Inorder(T, p):

if p is an internal node then

Inorder(T, p.left())

perform the "visit" action for node p

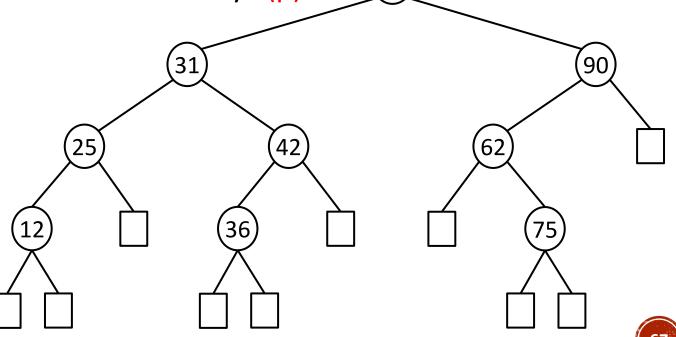
if p is an internal node then

Inorder(T, p.right())
```

### BINARY SEARCH TREE

A binary search tree (BST) is a proper binary tree such that:

- External nodes (represented as squares) do not store elements
- Each internal node p stores an object of some type
- For each **internal node** p, there is a value denoted by x(p):
  - Any object stored in the **left**subtree of p has such a value
    that is  $\leq x(p)$
  - Any object stored in the **right** subtree of p has such a value that is  $\geq x(p)$



58)

## BINARY SEARCH TREE

A binary search tree (BST) is a proper binary tree such that:

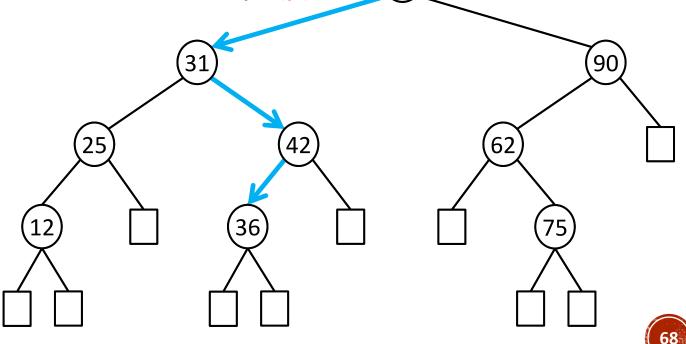
External nodes (represented as <u>squares</u>) do not store elements

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For each internal node p, there is a value denoted by x(p):

Any object stored in the **left**subtree of p has such a value
that is  $\leq x(p)$ 

Any object stored in the **right** subtree of p has such a value that is  $\geq x(p)$ 



(58)

How do we search

for a node with the

value 36?

## BINARY SEARCH TREE

A binary search tree (BST) is a proper binary tree such that:

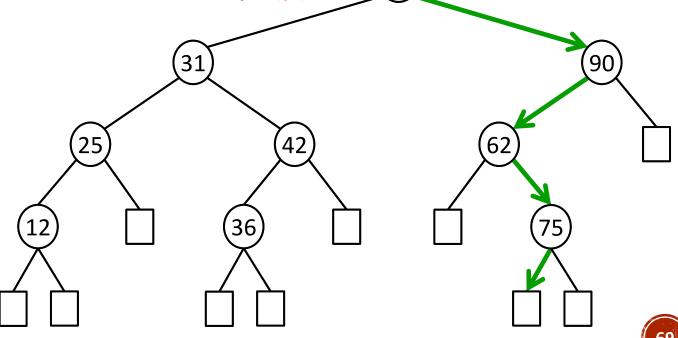
• External nodes (represented as <u>squares</u>) do not store elements

Each internal node p stores an object of some type.

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Any object stored in the **left**subtree of p has such a value
that is  $\leq x(p)$ 

Any object stored in the **right** subtree of p has such a value that is  $\geq x(p)$ 



(58)

How do we search

for a node with the

value 70?

# CHAPTER 8:

# HEAPS & PRIORITY QUEUES



# PRIORITY QUEUE

# PRIORITY QUEUE

- A priority queue is a data structure, where each element is associated with a key that represents its priority (i.e. its importance or weight)
- This is fundamentally different from the position-based data structures such as stacks, queues, deques, lists, and trees, all of which store elements at specific positions
  - A priority queue has no notion of position
- In a priority queue, more than one element can have the same key
- Note that a key does not have to be a number, it can be of any type, and can even be an object of a class!

# TOTAL ORDER

- A priority queue needs a comparison rule that can compare any two keys to determine which one is "smaller".
- Such a comparison rule must never contradict itself. To achieve this, it must satisfy these properties:
  - $\triangleright$  Reflexive property :  $k \le k$
  - ightharpoonup Antisymmetric property: if  $k_1 \le k_2$  and  $k_2 \le k_1$ , then  $k_1 = k_2$
  - ightharpoonup Transitive property: if  $k_1 \le k_2$  and  $k_2 \le k_3$ , then  $k_1 \le k_3$
- Any rule, ≤, that satisfies these properties never leads to a comparison contradiction. In this case, we say that it defines a total order relation.

# COMPARATOR

 We need to implement the comparison rule as a function. This function will be referred to as the "comparator".

### **Example:**

- Suppose we have a class called "Point2D" that represents a 2-dimentional point, where the methods getX() and getY() return the x and y coordinates.
- One possible comparator could be:

```
bool isLess(const Point2D& p, const Point2D& q) {
    if (p.getX() == q.getX()) return p.getY() < q.getY();
        else return p.getX() < q.getX();
}</pre>
```

Here are two examples where p is "less than" q.
 (the point that is more to the left is "smaller"; if both are equally to the left, the bottom one is "smaller")



# COMPARATOR - OVERLOADING "<"

It is practical to overload the operator "<" so that instead of writing, e.g.,</p>

```
if( isLess( p, q ) ) then . . .
we can simply write:
   if( p < q ) then . . .</pre>
```

To do so, instead of defining the comparator as follows:

In some applications, we may need to define multiple, different comparators!

### **Example:**

When comparing 2-dimentional points, we might require two comparators:

```
// The point more to the left is considered "smaller"
bool leftRight(const Point2D& p, const Point2D& q) {
    return p.getX() < q.getX();
}

// The point more to the bottom is considered "smaller"
bool bottomTop (const Point2D& p, const Point2D& q) {
    return p.getY() < q.getY();
}</pre>
```

How can we disguise our comparator functions as types?

• We'll make each comparator function appear as a class! To do this, simply take each function, and make it a method in a class dedicated for that function!

```
bool leftRight(Point2D p, Point2D q) {
    return p.getX() < q.getX();
}</pre>
```

```
Class LeftRight {
  public:
    bool operator()(Point2D p, Point2D q) const {
     return p.getX() < q.getX();
    }
}</pre>
```

```
bool bottomTop (Point2D p, Point2D q) {
    return p.getY() < q.getY();
}</pre>
```

```
Class BottomTop {
  public:
    bool operator()(Point2D p, Point2D q) const {
      return p.getY() < q.getY();
    }
}</pre>
```

 Now that our comparator functions have become classes (i.e., types), we can pass them to templates! Instead of repeating code that calls different comparators:

```
void function_1 ( int x, int y ){
    /* code goes here that
    uses comparator_1 */
}
```

```
void function_2 ( int x, int y ){
    /* The same code goes here, but
    uses comparator_2 */
}
```

```
void function_3 ( int x, int y ){
  /* The same code goes here, but
   uses comparator_3 */
}
```

We can define a single template that take a type representing the comparators:

```
template <typename T> void myFunction( int x, int y, T comparator) {
   // code goes here that uses comparator
}
```

Example: Instead of defining 2 versions of a function that print the "smallest" point

```
void printLeft( Point2D p, Point2D q) {
    if( leftRight( p, q) ) cout << p;
        else cout << q;
}</pre>
```

```
void printBottom( Point2D p, Point2D q) {
   if( BottmTop( p, q) ) cout << p;
        else cout << q;
}</pre>
```

We can define a single template that takes a type representing the comparators:

```
template <typename T> void printSmaller( Point2D p, Point2D q, T isLess) {
    if( isLess( p, q) ) cout << p;
        else cout << q;
}</pre>
```

Here is how we can use such a template:

```
Point2D p(2, 6), q(3, 1); // define two points, p and q

LeftRight c1; // c1 is a function object representing a "LeftRight" comparator

BottomTop c2; // c2 is a function object representing a "BottomTop" comparator

printSmaller( p, q, c1 ); // outputs: (2, 6)

printSmaller( p, q, c2 ); // outputs: (3, 1)
```

# COMPOSITION METHOD

- As we said, a comparator takes two elements and determines which is "smaller"
- This implies that there is something (i.e. attributes) in those elements that allows the comparator to determine their keys, to decide which one is "smaller"
- But there are applications where the key is independent from the element
  - Example: a hotel may have a record for each client, and the room key of a client cannot be determined solely based on that client's attributes!
- In such applications, we can't use comparators! Instead, we'll have an object with two members (1) key; (2) element, e.g., (1) the room key; (2) the client's record.
- This idea to separate the key from the element is called the composition method, which will be discussed in Chapter 9.

# PRIORITY QUEUE ADT

A priority queue ADT P supports these functions:

- size(): Return the number of elements in P.
- empty(): Return true if P is empty and false otherwise.
- insert(e): Insert e into P.
- min(): Return a reference to <u>an element of P with the smallest associated key value</u> (but do not remove it); ERROR if the priority queue is empty.
- removeMin(): Remove from P the element referenced by min(); ERROR if the priority queue is empty.

<u>Note</u>: more than one element can have the same key, which is why we define removeMin() to remove not just any minimum element, but the same element returned by min().

<u>Note</u>: We don't specify how e is inserted into P. <u>Depending on the implementation</u>, it may be inserted **always at the end of the queue**, or inserted **based on its key** such that, after the insertion, the elements in P are sorted according to their keys

# PRIORITY QUEUE - EXAMPLE

- In this is a priority queue:
  - It contains integer elements
  - ➤ The key of any element, e, is e itself!
  - Insertion is implemented such that, after an element is inserted, the priority queue is sorted!
- But don't forget that:
  - A priority queue supports elements of any type
  - > The key associated with each element doesn't have to be the element itself!
  - Insertion may be implemented such that elements are always is inserted at the end!

Operation	Output	Priority Queue
insert(5)	_	{5}
insert(9)	_	{5,9}
insert(2)	_	{2,5,9}
insert(7)	_	{2,5,7,9}
min()	[2]	{2,5,7,9}
removeMin()	_	{5,7,9}
size()	3	{5,7,9}
min()	[5]	{5,7,9}
removeMin()	_	{7,9}
removeMin()	_	{9}
removeMin()	_	{}
empty()	true	{}
removeMin()	"error"	{}