

CSCI 136
Data Structures &
Advanced Programming

Lecture 22

Fall 2019

Instructor: Bill & Sam

Administration

- PS3 out
- Lab 5 back

Application: Huffman Codes (a CS 256 Preview)

- Computers encode a text as a sequence of bits

ASCII TABLE

Decimal	Hex	Char	Decimal	Hex	Char	Decimal	Hex	Char	Decimal	Hex	Char
0	0	[NULL]	32	20	[SPACE]	64	40	@	96	60	`
1	1	[START OF HEADING]	33	21	!	65	41	A	97	61	a
2	2	[START OF TEXT]	34	22	"	66	42	B	98	62	b
3	3	[END OF TEXT]	35	23	#	67	43	C	99	63	c
4	4	[END OF TRANSMISSION]	36	24	\$	68	44	D	100	64	d
5	5	[ENQUIRY]	37	25	%	69	45	E	101	65	e
6	6	[ACKNOWLEDGE]	38	26	&	70	46	F	102	66	f
7	7	[BELL]	39	27	'	71	47	G	103	67	g
8	8	[BACKSPACE]	40	28	(72	48	H	104	68	h
9	9	[HORIZONTAL TAB]	41	29)	73	49	I	105	69	i
10	A	[LINE FEED]	42	2A	*	74	4A	J	106	6A	j
11	B	[VERTICAL TAB]	43	2B	+	75	4B	K	107	6B	k
12	C	[FORM FEED]	44	2C	,	76	4C	L	108	6C	l
13	D	[CARRIAGE RETURN]	45	2D	-	77	4D	M	109	6D	m
14	E	[SHIFT OUT]	46	2E	.	78	4E	N	110	6E	n
15	F	[SHIFT IN]	47	2F	/	79	4F	O	111	6F	o
16	10	[DATA LINK ESCAPE]	48	30	0	80	50	P	112	70	p
17	11	[DEVICE CONTROL 1]	49	31	1	81	51	Q	113	71	q
18	12	[DEVICE CONTROL 2]	50	32	2	82	52	R	114	72	r
19	13	[DEVICE CONTROL 3]	51	33	3	83	53	S	115	73	s
20	14	[DEVICE CONTROL 4]	52	34	4	84	54	T	116	74	t
21	15	[NEGATIVE ACKNOWLEDGE]	53	35	5	85	55	U	117	75	u
22	16	[SYNCHRONOUS IDLE]	54	36	6	86	56	V	118	76	v
23	17	[ENG OF TRANS. BLOCK]	55	37	7	87	57	W	119	77	w
24	18	[CANCEL]	56	38	8	88	58	X	120	78	x
25	19	[END OF MEDIUM]	57	39	9	89	59	Y	121	79	y
26	1A	[SUBSTITUTE]	58	3A	:	90	5A	Z	122	7A	z
27	1B	[ESCAPE]	59	3B	;	91	5B	[123	7B	{
28	1C	[FILE SEPARATOR]	60	3C	<	92	5C	\	124	7C	
29	1D	[GROUP SEPARATOR]	61	3D	=	93	5D]	125	7D	}
30	1E	[RECORD SEPARATOR]	62	3E	>	94	5E	^	126	7E	~
31	1F	[UNIT SEPARATOR]	63	3F	?	95	5F	_	127	7F	[DEL]

Huffman Codes

- Goal: Encode a text as a sequence of bits
- Sometimes, use ASCII: 1 character = 8 bits (1 byte)
 - Allows for $2^8 = 256$ different characters
- ‘A’ = 01000001, ‘B’ = 01000010
- Space to store “AN_ANTARCTIC_PENGUIN”
 - 20 characters -> $20 * 8$ bits = 160 bits
- Is there a better way?
 - Only 11 symbols are used (ANTRCIPEGU_)
 - Only need 4 bits per symbol (since $2^4 > 11$)!
 - $20 * 4 = 80$ bits instead of 160!
 - Can we still do better??

Huffman Codes

- Example
 - AN_ANTARCTIC_PENGUIN
 - Compute letter frequencies

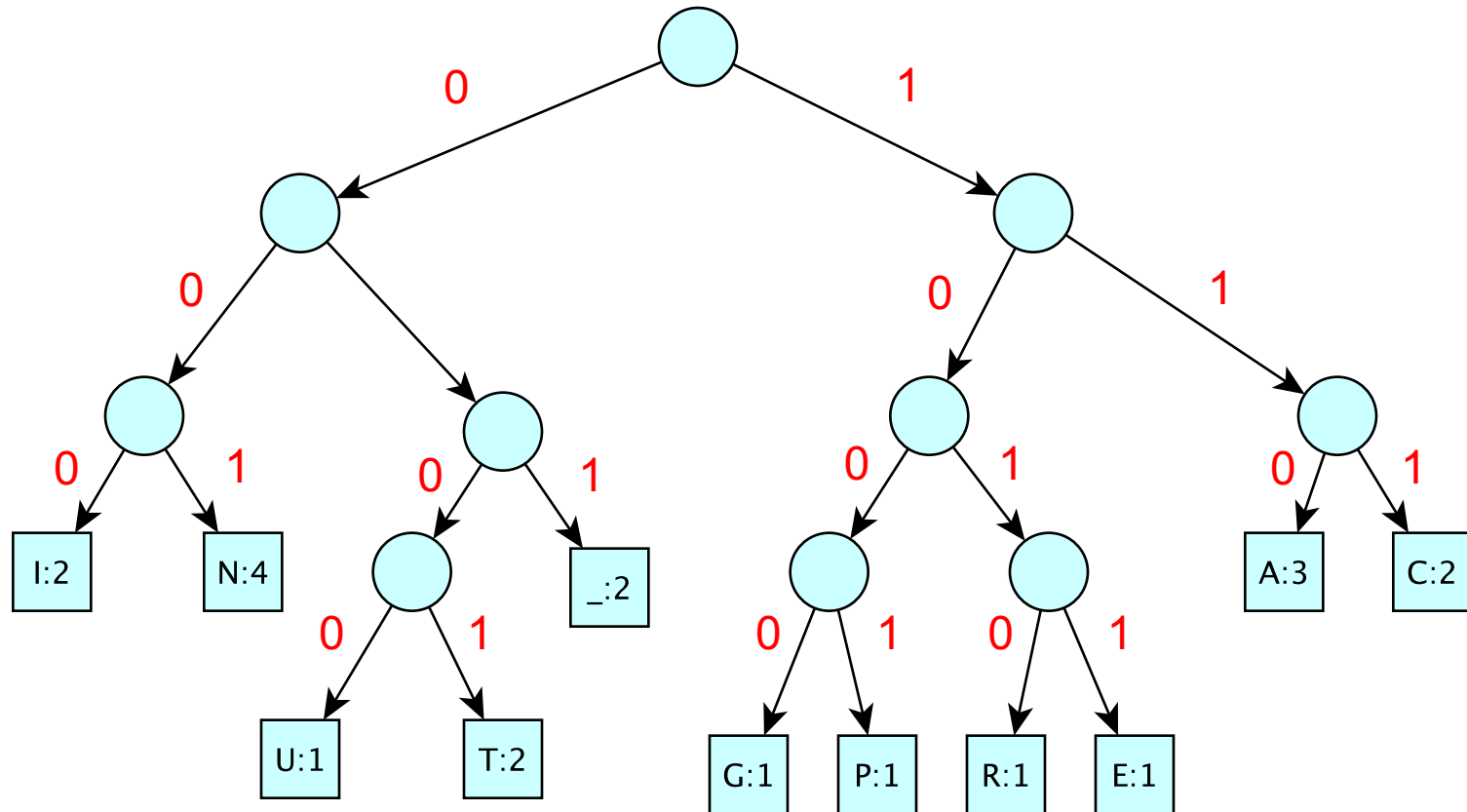
A	C	E	G	I	N	P	R	T	U	_
3	2	1	1	2	4	1	1	2	1	2

- **Key Idea:** Use fewer bits for most common letters

A	C	E	G	I	N	P	R	T	U	_
3	2	1	1	2	4	1	1	2	1	2
110	111	1011	1000	000	001	1001	1010	0101	0100	011

- Uses 67 bits to encode entire string

The Encoding Tree



Left = 0; Right = 1

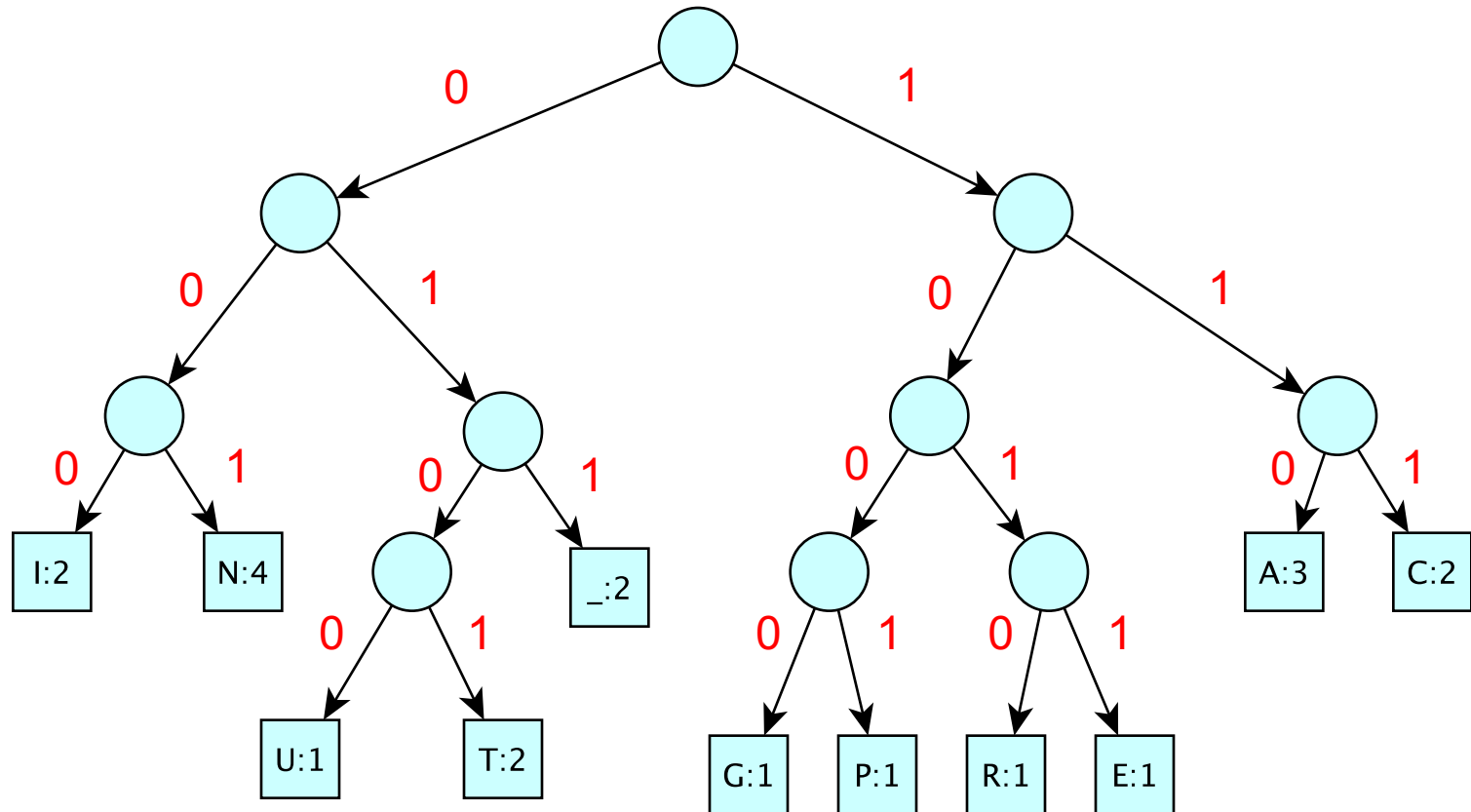
Features of Good Encoding

- Prefix property: No encoding is a prefix of another encoding (letters appear at leaves)
- No node has exactly one child
- Nodes with lower frequency have greater depth

Huffman Encoding

- Input: symbols of alphabet with frequencies
- Huffman encode as follows
 - Create a single-node tree for each symbol: key is frequency; value is letter
 - while there is more than one tree
 - Find two trees T1 and T2 with lowest keys
 - Merge them into new tree T with dummy value and $\text{key} = T1.\text{key} + T2.\text{key}$
- Theorem: The tree computed by Huffman is an optimal encoding for given frequencies

The Encoding Tree



Left = 0; Right = 1

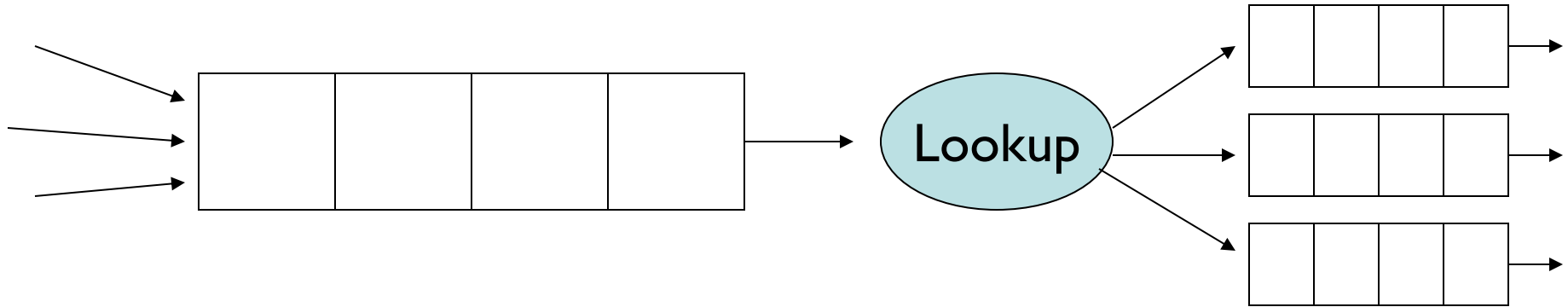
How To Implement Huffman

- Keep a Vector of Binary Trees
- Sort them by decreasing frequency
 - Removing two smallest frequency trees is fast
- Insert merged tree into correct sorted location in Vector
- Running Time:
 - $O(n \log n)$ for initial sorting
 - $O(n^2)$ for rest: $O(n)$ re-insertions of merged trees
- Can we do better...?

What Huffman Encoder Needs

- A structure S to hold items with *priorities*
- S should support operations
 - `add(E item); // add an item`
 - `E removeMin(); // remove min priority item`
- S should be designed to make these two operations fast
- If, say, they both ran in $O(\log n)$ time, the Huffman algorithm would take $O(n \log n)$ time instead of $O(n^2)$!
- We've seen this situation before....

Priority Queues



Packet Sources May Be Ordered by Sender

sysnet.cs.williams.edu

priority = 1 (best)

bull.cs.williams.edu

2

yahoo.com

10

spammer.com

100 (worst)

Priority Queues

- Priority queues are also used for:
 - Scheduling processes in an operating system
 - Priority is function of time lost + process priority
 - Order services on server
 - Backup is low priority, so don't do when high priority tasks need to happen
 - Scheduling future events in a simulation
 - Medical waiting room
 - Huffman codes - order by tree size/weight
 - A variety of graph/network algorithms
 - To roughly order choices that are generated out of order

Priority Queues

- Name is misleading: They are **not FIFO**
- Always dequeue object with **highest priority** (smallest rank) regardless of when it was enqueued
- Data can be received/inserted in any order, but it is always returned/removed according to priority
- Like ordered structures (i.e., OrderedVectors and OrderedLists), PQs require comparisons of values

An Apology

- On behalf of computer scientists everywhere, I'd like to apologize for the confusion that inevitably results from the fact that

Higher Priority Lower Rank

- The PQ removes the *lowest ranked* value in an ordering: that is, the *highest priority* value!

We're sorry!

PQ Interface

```
public interface PriorityQueue<E extends Comparable<E>> {  
    public E getFirst(); // peeks at minimum element  
    public E remove(); // removes minimum element  
    public void add(E value); // adds an element  
    public boolean isEmpty();  
    public int size();  
    public void clear();  
}
```


Notes on PQ Interface

- Unlike previous structures, we do not extend any other interfaces
 - Many reasons: For example, it's not clear that there's an obvious iteration order
- PriorityQueue uses Comparables: methods *consume* Comparable parameters and *return* Comparable values
 - Could be made to use Comparators instead...

Implementing PQs

- Queue?
 - Wouldn't work so well because we can't insert and remove in the "right" way (i.e., keeping things ordered)
- OrderedVector?
 - Keep ordered vector of objects
 - $O(n)$ to add/remove from vector
 - Details in book...
 - Can we do better than $O(n)$?
- Heap!
 - Partially ordered binary tree

Heap

- A heap is a special type of tree
- A heap is a tree where:
 - Root holds smallest (highest priority) value
 - Subtrees are also heaps (this is important!)
- So values increase in priority (decrease in rank) from leaves to root (from descendant to ancestor)
- *Invariant for nodes*
 - $\text{node.value()} \geq \text{node.parent.value()}$
 - Tree need not be binary....
- Several valid heaps for same data set (no unique representation)

Inserting into a PQ

- Add new value as a leaf
- “Percolate” it up the tree
 - while (value < parent’s value) swap with parent
- This operation preserves the heap property since new value was the only one violating heap property
- Efficiency depends upon speed of
 - Finding a place to add new node
 - Finding parent
 - Tree height

Removing From a PQ

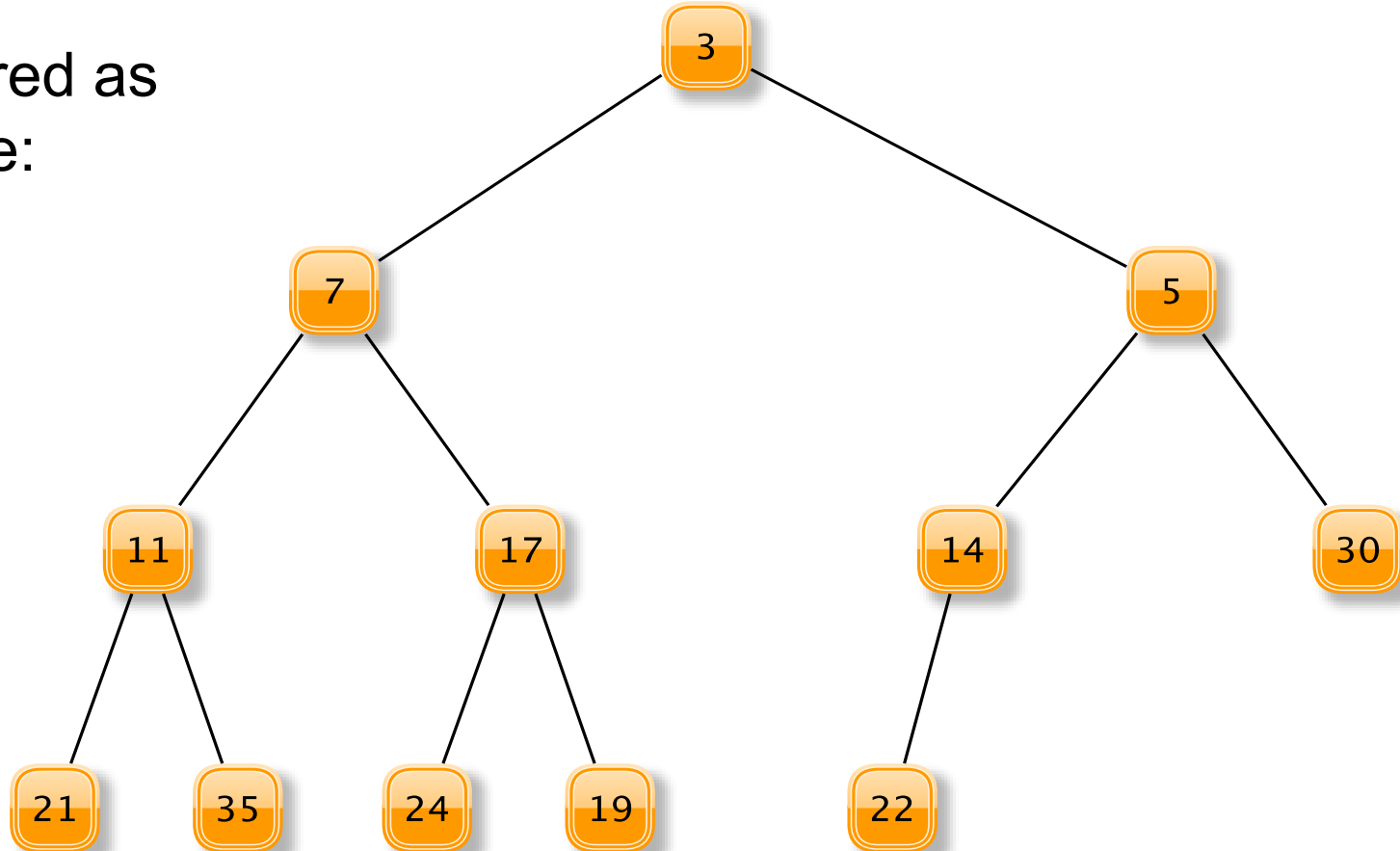
- Find a leaf, delete it, put its *data* in the root
- “Push” *data* down through the tree
 - while (*data.value* > value of (at least) one child)
 - Swap *data* with data of **smaller** child
- This operation preserves the heap property
- Efficiency depends upon speed of
 - Finding a leaf
 - Finding locations of children
 - Height of tree

Implementing Heaps

- VectorHeap
 - Use conceptual array representation of BT (ArrayTree)
 - But use extensible Vector instead of array (makes adding elements easier)
 - Note:
 - Root of tree is location 0 of Vector
 - Children of node in location i are in locations $2i+1$ (left) and $2i+2$ (right)
 - Parent of node i is in location $(i-1)/2$

Heap

Stored as
Tree:



Stored as
Vector:

3	7	5	11	17	14	30	21	35	24	19	22
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11

Implementing Heaps

- Features
 - No gaps in array (array is *complete*)-- why?
 - We always add in next available array slot (left-most available spot in binary tree;
 - We always remove using “final” leaf
 - *Heap Invariant becomes*
 - $\text{data}[i] \leq \text{data}[2i+1]; \text{data}[i] \leq \text{data}[2i+2]$ (or kids might be null)
 - When elements are added and removed, do small amount of work to “re-heapify”
 - How small? Note: finding a node’s child or parent takes constant time, as does finding “final” leaf or next slot for adding
 - Since this heap corresponds to a full binary tree, the depth of the tree is $O(\log n)$, so percolate/pushDown takes $O(\log n)$ time!

VectorHeap Summary

- Let's look at VectorHeap code....
- Add/remove are both $O(\log n)$
- Data is not completely sorted
 - “Partial” order is maintained
- Note: `VectorHeap(Vector<E> v)`
 - Takes an unordered Vector and uses it to construct a heap
 - How?

Heapifying A Vector (or array)

- Method I: Top-Down
 - Assume $V[0..k]$ satisfies the heap property
 - Now call percolate on item in location $k+1$
 - Then $V[0..k+1]$ satisfies the heap property
- Method II: Bottom-up
 - Assume $V[k..n]$ satisfies the heap property
 - Now call pushDown on item in location $k-1$
 - Then $V[k-1..n]$ satisfies heap property

Top-Down vs Bottom-Up

- Top-down heapify: elements at depth d may be swapped d times: Total # of swaps is at most

$$\sum_{d=0}^h d2^d = (h - 1)2^{h+1} + 2 = (\log n - 1)2n + 2$$

- This is $O(n \log n)$
- Some intuition: most of the elements are in the lowest levels of the tree, so each of them might have to move to root: $O(\log n)$ swaps per element

Top-Down vs Bottom-Up

- Bottom-up heapify: elements at depth d may be swapped $h-d$ times: Total # of swaps is at most

$$\sum_{d=0}^h (h-d)2^d = 2^{h+1} - h - 2 = 2n - \log n + 2$$

- This is $O(n)$ --- beats top-down!
- Some intuition: most of the elements are in the lowest levels of the tree, so each of them will only be pushed down (swapped) a small number of times **SO COOL!!!**

Some Sums

$$\sum_{d=0}^{d=k} 2^d = 2^{k+1} - 1$$

All of these can be proven by (weak) induction.

$$\sum_{d=0}^{d=k} r^d = (r^{k+1} - 1) / (r - 1)$$

Try these to hone your skills

$$\sum_{d=0}^{d=k} d * 2^d = (k - 1) * 2^{k+1} + 2$$

The second sum is called a geometric series. It works for any $r \neq 0$

$$\sum_{d=0}^{d=k} (k - d) * 2^d = 2^{k+1} - k - 2$$

HeapSort

- Heaps yield another $O(n \log n)$ sort method
- To HeapSort a Vector “in place”
 - Perform bottom-up heapify on the reverse ordering: that is: highest rank/lowest priority elements are near the root (low end of Vector)
 - Now repeatedly remove elements to fill in Vector from tail to head
 - For(`int i = v.size() - 1; i > 0; i--`)
 - RemoveMin from `v[0..i]` // `v[i]` is now not in heap
 - Put removed value in location `v[i]`

Mergeable Heaps

- We now want to support the additional operation `merge(heap1, heap2)`
- Basic idea: heap with larger root somehow points into heap with smaller root
- Challenges
 - Points how? Where?
 - How much reheapifying is needed
 - How deep do trees get after many merges?

Skew Heap

- What if heaps are not complete BTs?
- We can implement PQs using skew heaps instead of “regular” complete heaps
- Key differences:
 - Rather than use Vector as underlying data structure, use BT
 - Need a merge operation that merges two heaps together into one heap
- Details in book

Skew Heap: Merge Pseudocode

```
SkewHeap merge(SkewHeap S, SkewHeap T)
    if either S or T is empty, return the other
    if T.minValue < S.minValue
        swap S and T      (S now has minValue)
    if S has no left subtree, T becomes left subtree
    else
        let temp point to right subtree of S
        left subtree of S becomes right subtree of S
        merge(temp, T) becomes left subtree of S
    return S
```

Tree Summary

- Trees
 - Express hierarchical relationships
 - Tree structure captures relationship
 - i.e., ancestry, game boards, decisions, etc.
- Heap
 - Partially ordered tree based on item priority
 - Node invariants: parent has higher priority than each child
 - Provides efficient PriorityQueue implementation

Improving on OrderedVector

- The OrderedVector class provides $O(\log n)$ time searching for a group of n comparable objects
 - `add()` and `remove()`, though, take $O(n)$ time in the worst case---and on average!
- Can we improve on those running times without sacrificing the $O(\log n)$ search time?
- Let's find out....

Binary Trees and Orders

- Binary trees impose multiple orderings on their elements (pre-/in-/post-/level-orders)
- In particular, in-order traversal suggests a natural way to hold comparable items
 - For each node v in tree
 - All values in left subtree of v are at most v
 - All values in right subtree of v are at least v
- This leads us to...

Binary Search Trees

- Binary search trees maintain a *total* ordering among elements
- Definition: A BST T is either:
 - Empty
 - Has root r with subtrees T_L and T_R such that
 - All nodes in T_L have smaller value than r
 - All nodes in T_R have larger value than r
 - T_L and T_R are also BSTs
- Examples

BST Observations

- The same data can be represented by many BST shapes
- Searching for a value in a BST takes time proportional to the height of the tree
 - Reminder: trees have height, nodes have depth
- Additions to a BST happen at nodes missing at least one child (*a constraint!*)
- Removing from a BST can involve *any* node

BST Operations

- BSTs will implement the `OrderedStructure` Interface
 - `add(E item)`
 - `contains(E item)`
 - `get(E item)`
 - `remove(E item)`
 - `iterator()`
 - This will provide an in-order traversal
- Runtime of `add`, `contains`, `get`, `remove`: $O(\text{height})$
- Goal: Keep the height to $O(\log n)$
 - Duane's `BinarySearchTree` class doesn't achieve this...
 - But his `RedBlackSearchTree` does!

Application: Dictionary

- Create a BST of ComparableAssociations
 - Order BST by key
 - Two objects are equal if keys are equal
- Example: Symbol tables (PostScript lab) are Dictionaries
 - But would only use a BST if the set of possible symbols was very large

Application: Tree Sort

- Can we sort data using a BST?
 - Yes!
- Runtime?
 - To build a tree with n elements, we do n insertions: $O(n \cdot h)$, where h is the maximum height attained by the tree
 - In order traversal: $O(n)$
 - Total runtime: $O(n \cdot h)$

BST Implementation

- The BST holds the following items
 - BinaryTree root: the root of the tree
 - BinaryTree EMPTY: a static empty BinaryTree
 - To use for all empty nodes of tree
 - int count: the number of nodes in the BST
 - Comparator<E> ordering: for comparing nodes
 - Note: E must implement Comparable
- Two constructors: One takes a Comparator
 - The other creates a NaturalComparator

BST Implementation: locate

- Several methods search the tree: add, remove, contains
- We factor out common code: locate method
- *protected* locate(BinaryTree<E> node, E v)
 - Returns a BinaryTree<E> in the subtree with root *node* such that either
 - *node* has its value equal to v, or
 - v is not in this subtree and *node* is where v would be added as a (left or right) child
- How would we implement locate()?

BST Implementation: locate

BinaryTree locate(BinaryTree root, E value)

if root's value equals value return root

child ← child of root that should hold value

if child is empty tree, return root

// value not in subtree based at root

else //keep looking

return locate(child, value)