Priority Queues

- It is a variant of queues
- Each item has an associated priority value.
- When inserting an item in the queue, the priority value is also provided for it.
- The data structure provides a method to delete the item with the highest priority.

Priority Queues

package weiss.nonstandard;

```
// PriorityQueue interface
11
// Position insert(x) --> Insert x
// Comparable deleteMin()--> Return and remove smallest item
// Comparable findMin( ) --> Return smallest item
// boolean isEmpty() --> Return true if empty; else false
// void makeEmpty() --> Remove all items
// int size( ) --> Return size
// void decreaseKey( p, v)--> Decrease value in p to v
// Throws UnderflowException for findMin and deleteMin when empty
```

Applications of Priority Queues

- Implementing job queues in computer systems, or queues in an emergency room in a hospital.
- Implementing Dijkstra's shortest path algorithm

Binary Search Trees

// BinarySearchTree class // // void insert(x) --> Insert x O(h) // void remove(x) --> Remove x O(h) // void removeMin() --> Remove minimum item O(h)// Comparable find(x) --> Return item that matches $\times O(h)$ // Comparable findMin() --> Return smallest item O(h)// Comparable findMax() --> Return largest item O(h) // boolean isEmpty() --> Return true if empty; else false // void makeEmpty() --> Remove all items

The height of the tree = ? $O(\log n)$ on the average, and O(n) on the worst case.

Balanced Binary Search Trees

- There can be many binary search trees for the same data.
- Not all of them have the same characteristics.
 Some are better than the others.
- Worst case height of the binary search tree is O(log n)
- More work when you insert or delete, because you try to fix any imbalances in the tree caused by the change.
- No change when you search, because the tree is still a binary search tree.

Figure 19.19

(a) The balanced tree has a depth of $\log N$; (b) the unbalanced tree has a depth of N - 1.

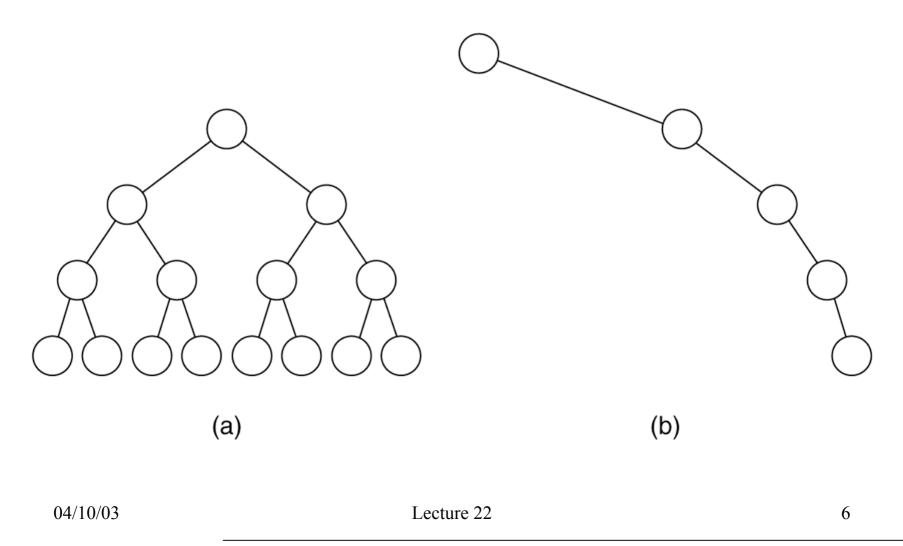


Figure 19.20

Binary search trees that can result from inserting a permutation 1, 2, and 3; the balanced tree shown in part (c) is twice as likely to result as any of the others.

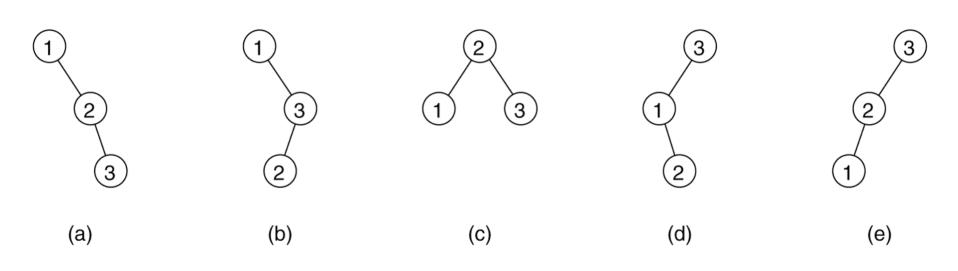


Figure 19.22 Minimum tree of height *H*

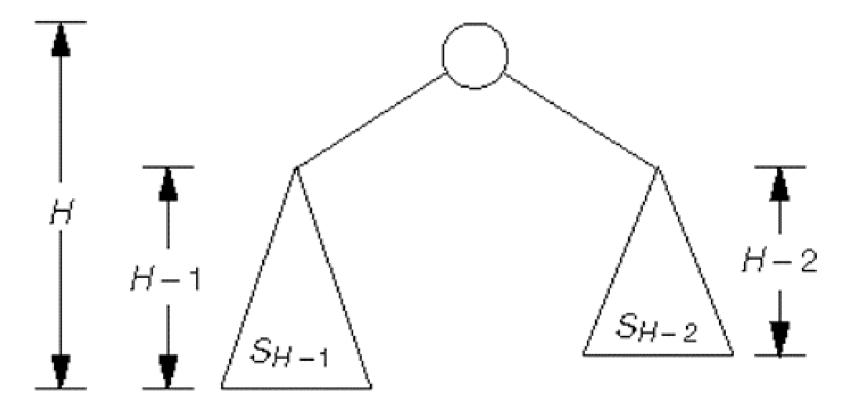
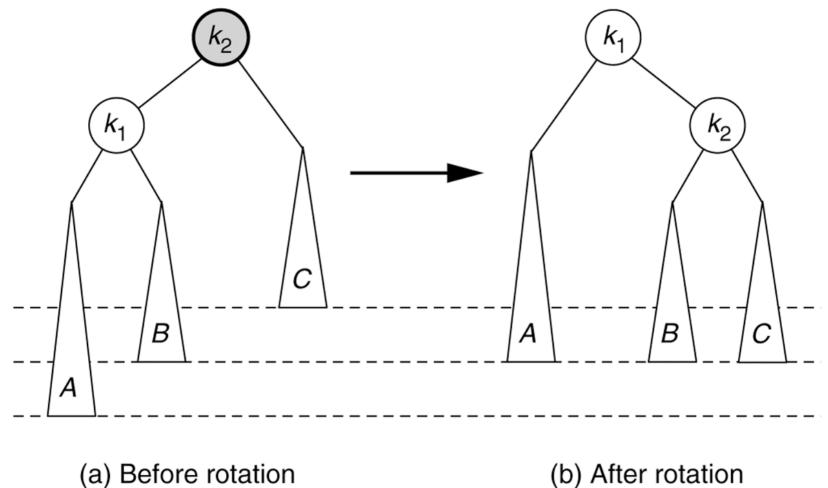


Figure 19.23 Single rotation to fix case 1

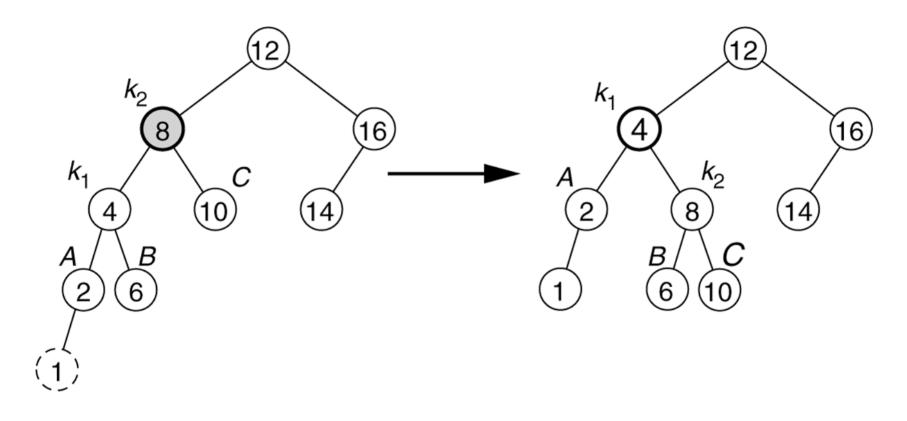


(b) After rotation

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Figure 19.25 Single rotation fixes an AVL tree after insertion of 1.



(a) Before rotation

(b) After rotation

Lecture 22

Applications of Balanced BSTs

- Anywhere where you want to store a dynamic set of items.
- Static means that the items in the set are fixed at the start and do not change. To implement static sets, a sorted array would do well.
- Dynamic means that the items in the set are changing (inserts and deletes).
- Balanced BSTs guarantee the worst-case performance of the data structure.

Disjoint Set Union-Find Data Structure

- Maintains disjoint sets.
- Main operations:
 - Union: unions two given sets
 - Find: finds set containing given item

```
Disjoint Set Union-Find Data Structure
```

```
public class DisjointSets
```

```
public DisjointSets( int numElements )
public void union( int root1, int root2 )
public int find( int x )
private int [ ] s;
```

{

Figure 24.12 A forest and its eight elements, initially in different sets



Figure 24.13 The forest after the union of trees with roots 4 and 5

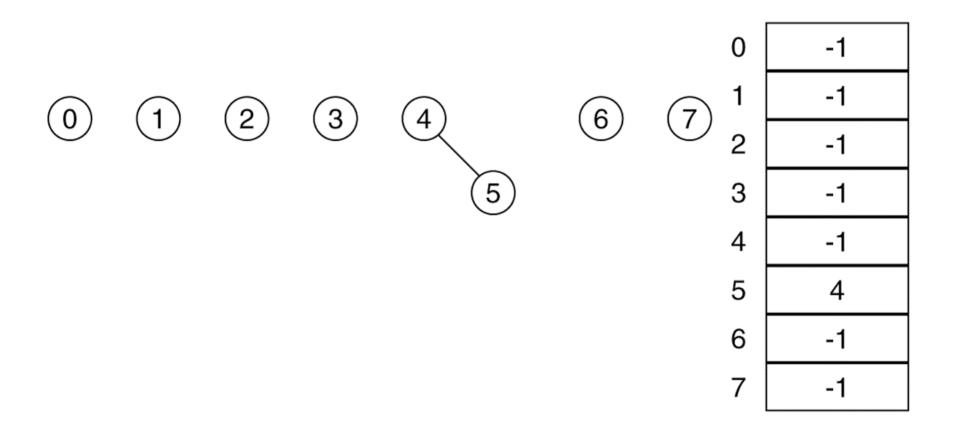


Figure 24.14 The forest after the union of trees with roots 6 and 7

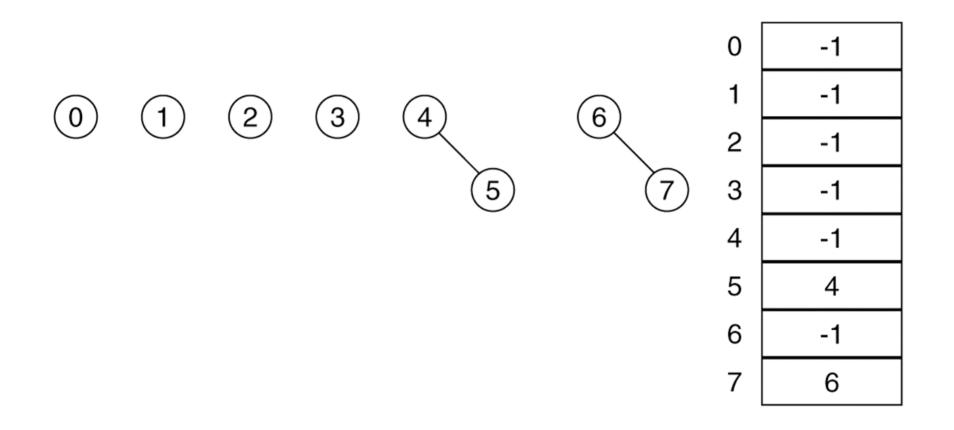
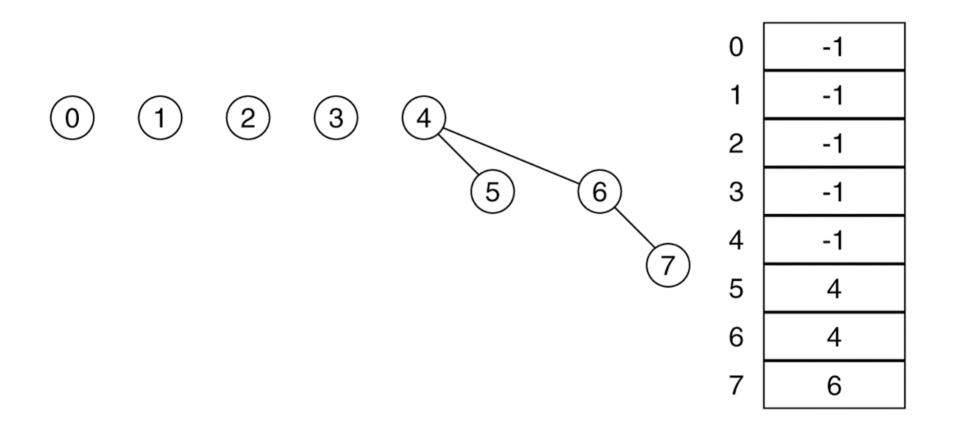
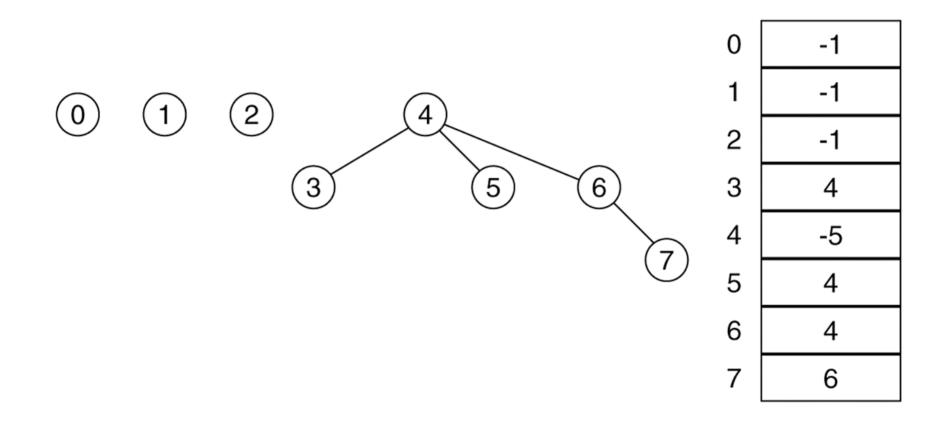


Figure 24.15 The forest after the union of trees with roots 4 and 6



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The forest formed by union-by-size, with the sizes encoded as negative numbers



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Applications: Disjoint Set Union-Find Data Structure

Minimum Spanning Tree problem

Figure 24.6 (a) A graph *G* and (b) its minimum spanning tree

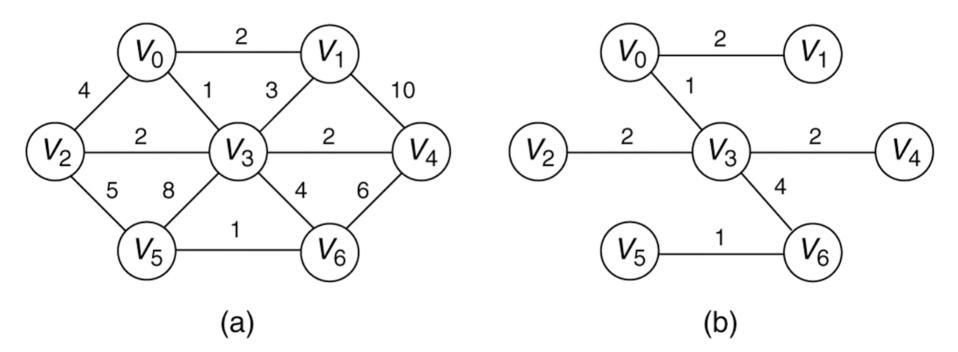


Figure 24.7 (A)

Kruskal's algorithm after each edge has been considered. The stages proceed left-to-right, top-to-bottom, as numbered. (*continued*)

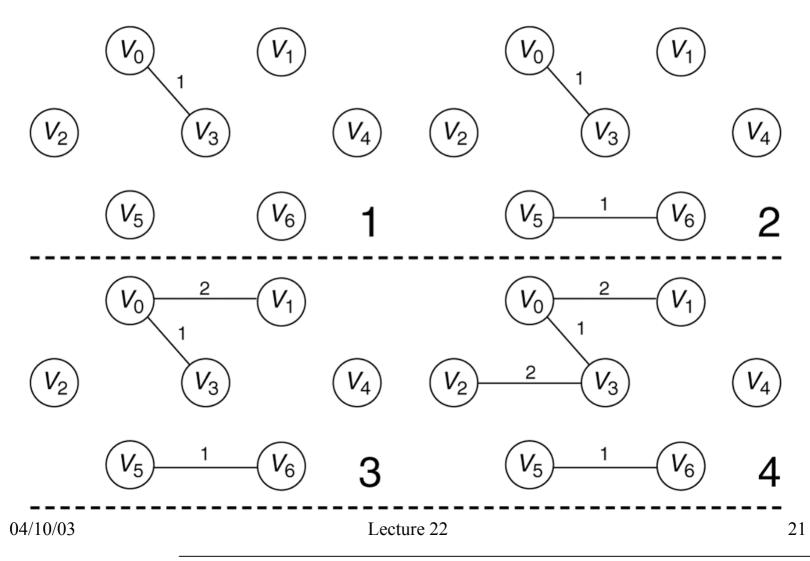


Figure 24.7 (B)

Kruskal's algorithm after each edge has been considered. The stages proceed left-to-right, top-to-bottom, as numbered.

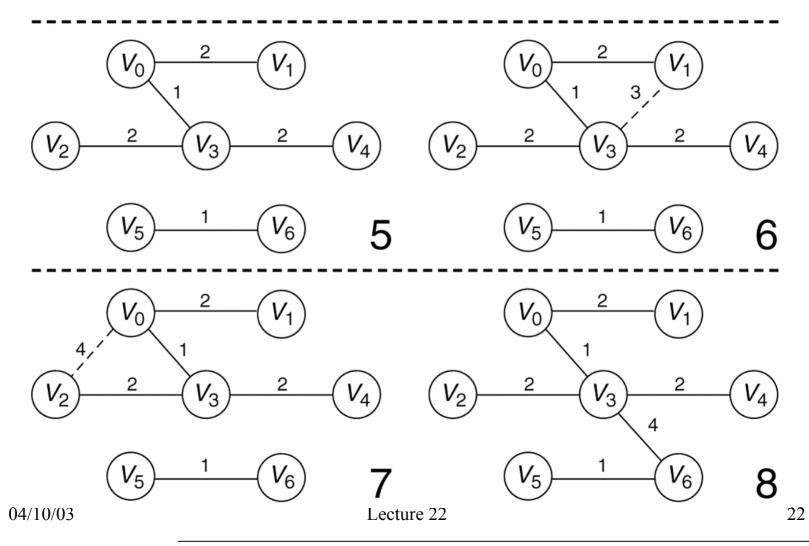
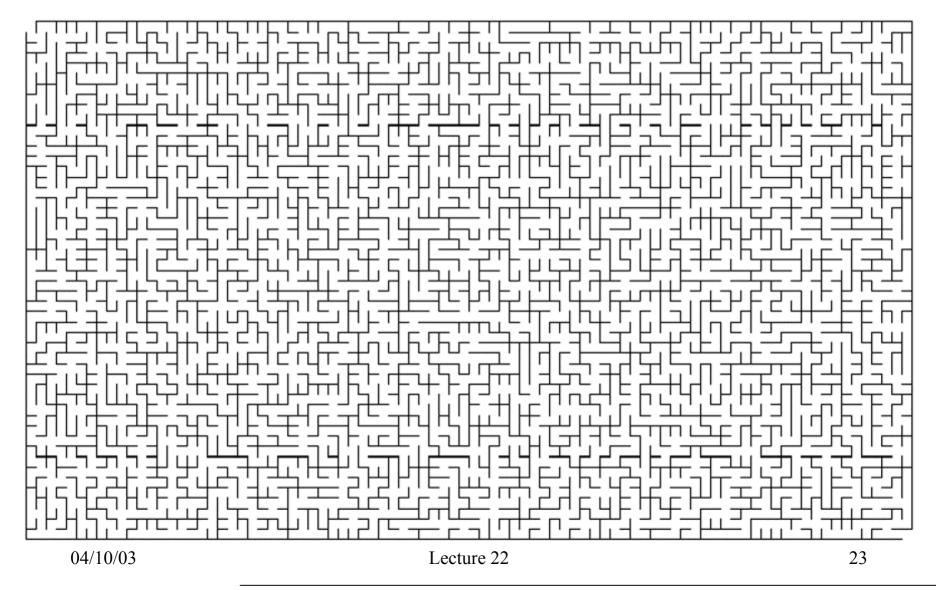


Figure 24.1 A 50 × 88 maze



Initial state: All walls are up, and all cells are in their own sets.

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

(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)

Lecture 22

At some point in the algorithm, several walls have been knocked down and sets have been merged. At this point, if we randomly select the wall between 8 and 13, this wall is not knocked down because 8 and 13 are already connected.

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

(0, 1) (2) (3) (4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 13,14) (5) (10, 11, 15) (12) (16, 17, 18, 22) (19) (20) (21) (22) (23) (24)

Lecture 22

We randomly select the wall between squares 18 and 13 in Figure 24.3; this wall has been knocked down because 18 and 13 were not already connected, and their sets have been merged.

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

(0,1) (2) (3) (5) (10, 11, 15) (12) (4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 13, 14, 16, 17, 18, 22) (19) (20) (21) (23) (24) Lecture 22 26

Eventually, 24 walls have been knocked down, and all the elements are in the same set.

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

(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)

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