

Trees

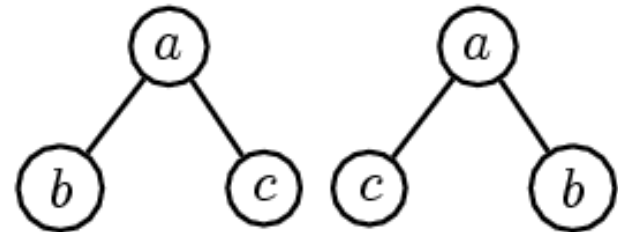
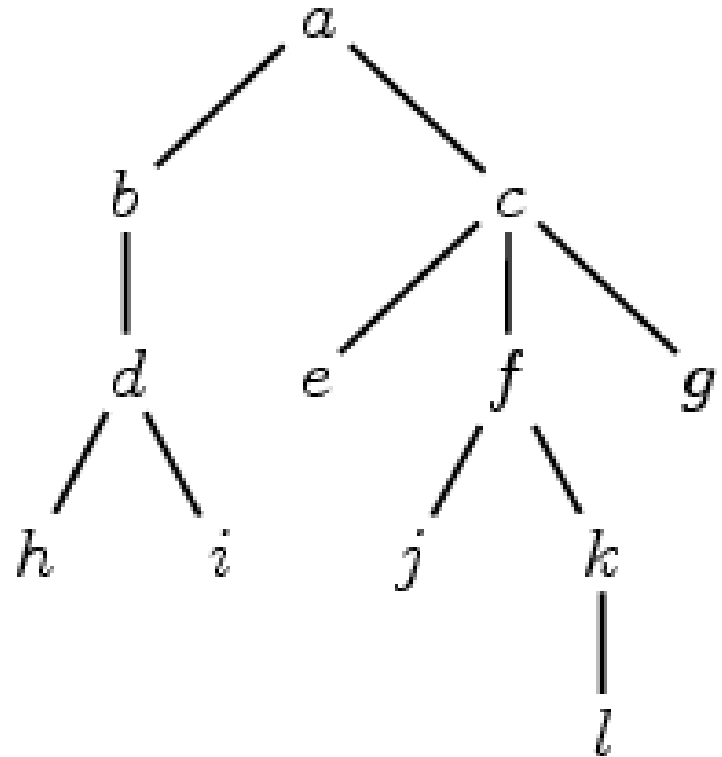
Terminology. Rooted Trees.
Traversals. Labeled Trees and
Expression Trees. Tree ADT. Tree
Implementations. Binary Search
Trees. Optimal Search Trees

Trees

- Rooted tree: collection of elements called nodes, one of which is distinguished as root, along with a relation ("parenthood") that imposes a hierarchical structure on the nodes
- Formal definition:
 - A single node by itself = tree. This node is also the root of the tree
 - Assume $n = \text{node}$ and $T_1, T_2, \dots, T_k = \text{trees with roots } n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k$:
 - construct a new tree by making n be the parent of nodes n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k
- Common data structure for non-linear collections.

Terminology for rooted trees

- ancestors, descendants, parent, children,
- leaves (vertices with no children),
- internal vertices (vertices with children)
 - “root” is an internal vertex
- path
- subtrees
- order of nodes, siblings,

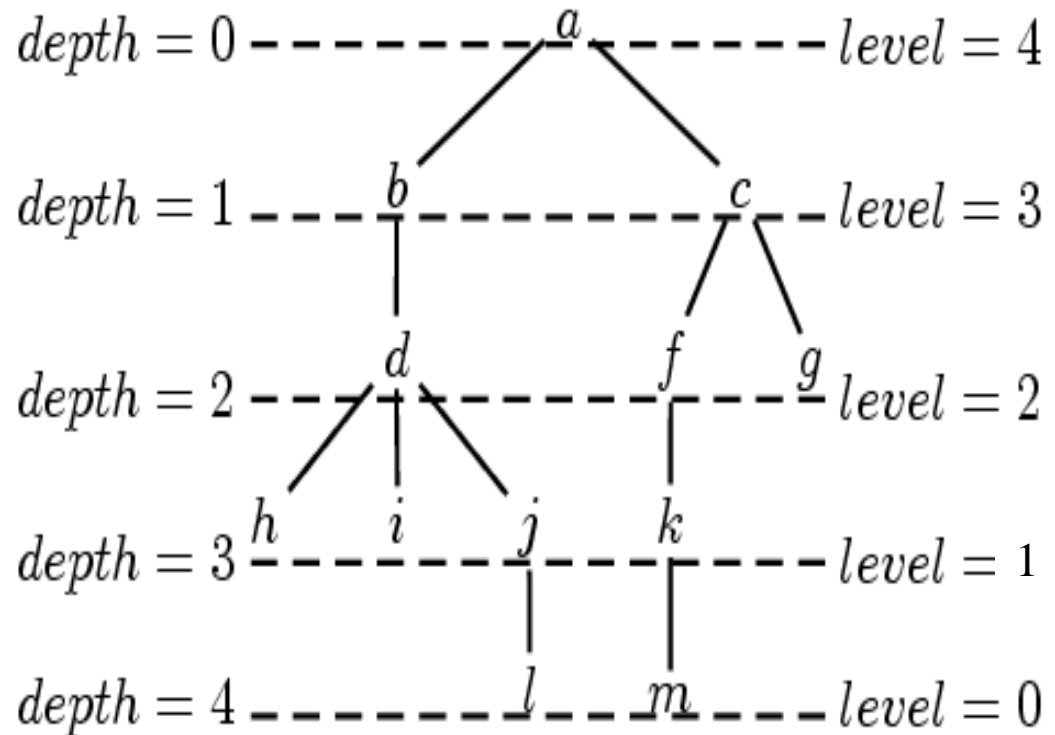


Terminology for rooted trees

- For a rooted tree $T = (V, E)$ with root $r \in V$:
 - Path: $\langle n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k \rangle$ such that $n_i = \text{parent } n_{i+1}$ for $1 \leq i \leq k$. *length(path)*: no. of nodes - 1
 - The depth of a vertex $v \in V$ is $\text{depth}(v) =$ the length of the path from r to v
 - The height of a vertex $v \in V$ is $\text{height}(v) =$ the length of the longest path from v to a leaf
 - The height of the tree T is $\text{height}(T) = \text{height}(r)$
 - The level of a vertex $v \in V$ is $\text{level}(v) = \text{height}(T) - \text{depth}(v)$
 - The subtree generated by a vertex $v \in V$ is a tree consisting of root v and all its descendants in T .

Terminology for rooted trees. Example

- For the tree on the right...
 - The root is a .
 - The leaves are h, g, i, l, m .
 - The proper ancestors of k are a, c, f .
 - The proper descendants of d are h, i, j, l .
 - The parent of h is d .
 - The children of c are f, g .
 - The siblings of h are i, j .
 - $\text{Height}(T) = \text{height}(a) = 4$



Terminology for rooted trees

- A rooted tree is said to be:
 - m -ary if each internal vertex has at most m children.
 - $m = 2 \rightarrow$ binary; $m = 3 \rightarrow$ ternary
 - full m -ary if each internal vertex has exactly m children.
 - complete m -ary if it is full and all leaves are at level 0.
- Some limits:
 - Maximum height for a tree with n vertices is $n - 1$.
 - Maximum height for a full binary tree with n vertices is $(n - 1)/2$
 - The minimum height for a binary tree with n vertices is $\lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor$

Traversals

PREORDER(n)

- 1 list n
- 2 **for** each child c of n , if any, in order from the left
- 3 **do** PREORDER(c)

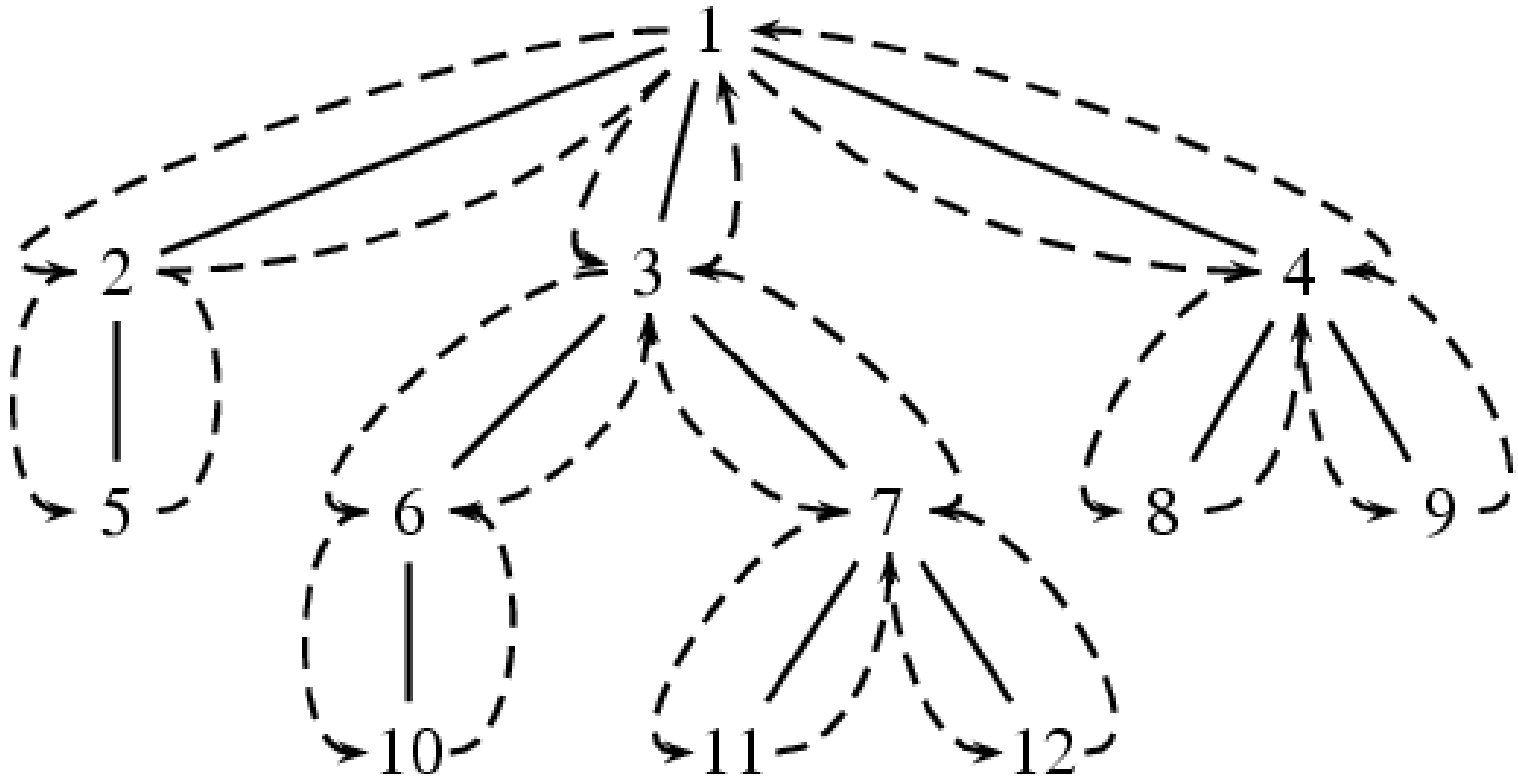
INORDER(n)

- 1 **if** n is a leaf
- 2 **then** list n
- 3 **else** INORDER(leftmost child of n)
- 4 list n
- 5 **for** each child c of n , except for the leftmost, in order from the left
- 6 **do** INORDER(c)

Ancestral information

- Traversals in preorder and postorder are useful for obtaining ancestral information. Suppose
 - $\text{post}(n)$ is the position of node n in a postorder listing of the nodes of a tree, and
 - $\text{desc}(n)$ is the number of proper descendants of node n .
Then
 - nodes in the subtree with root n are numbered consecutively from $\text{post}(n) - \text{desc}(n)$ to $\text{post}(n)$
- To test if a node x is a descendant of node y :
$$\text{post}(y) - \text{desc}(y) \leq \text{post}(x) \leq \text{post}(y)$$
- Similar relationship for preorder

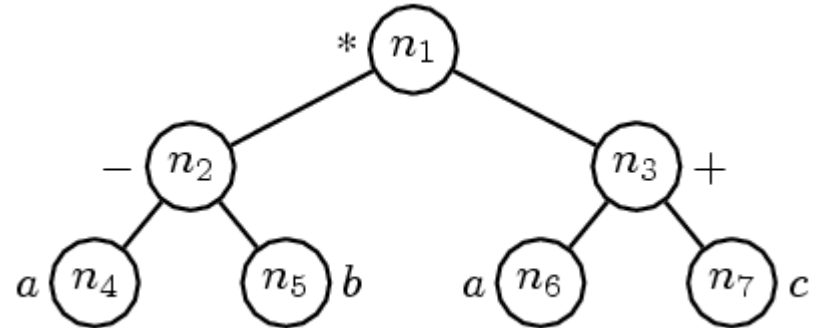
Traversal example



- preorder: 1, 2, 5, 3, 6, 10, 7, 11, 12, 4, 8, 9.
- postorder: 5, 2, 10, 6, 11, 12, 7, 3, 8, 9, 4, 1.
- inorder: 5, 2, 1, 10, 6, 3, 11, 7, 12, 8, 4, 9.

Labelled trees and expression trees

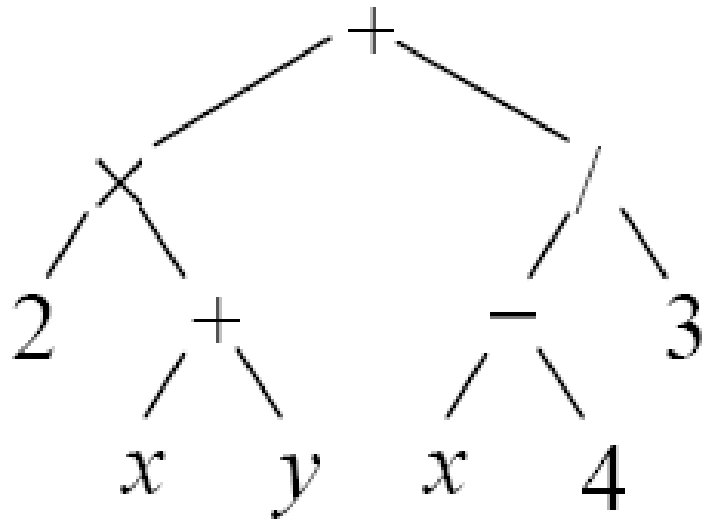
- Binary trees can be used to represent expressions such as
 - compound propositions,
 - combinations of sets, and
 - arithmetic expressions.
- Labelled tree: *Label (value)* associated with each node
- Expression tree: The internal vertices represent operators, and the leaves represent operands.
 - binary operator : 1st operand on the left leaf
2nd operand on the right leaf
 - unary operator : single operand on the right leaf



Prefix, postfix, infix form

- From the binary trees, we can obtain expressions in three forms:
 - infix form:
 - use in-order traversal
 - parentheses are needed to avoid ambiguity
 - prefix form / Polish notation:
 - use pre-order traversal
 - no parentheses are needed
 - postfix form / reverse Polish notation:
 - use postorder traversal
 - no parentheses are needed
- Prefix and postfix expressions are used extensively in computer science.

Expression tree examples



infix: $(2 \times (x + y)) + ((x - 4) / 3)$

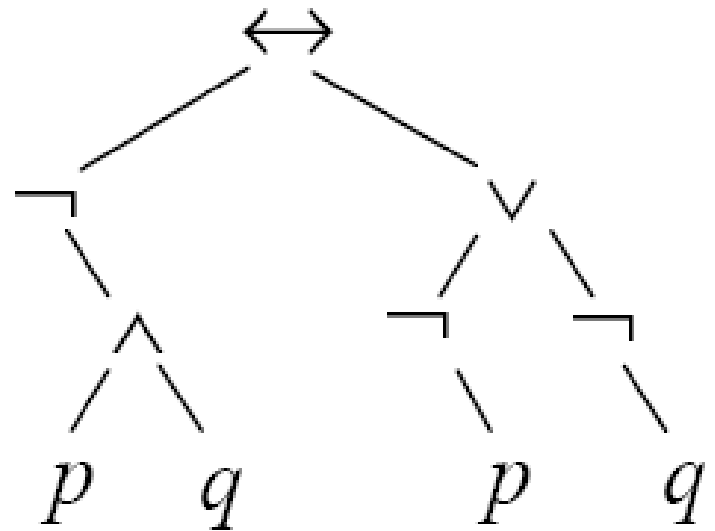
prefix: $+ \times 2 + x y / - x 4 3$

postfix: $2 x y + \times x 4 - 3 / +$

infix: $(\neg(p \wedge q)) \leftrightarrow (\neg p \vee \neg q)$

prefix: $\leftrightarrow \neg \wedge p q \vee \neg p \neg q$

postfix: $p q \wedge \neg p \neg q \neg \vee \leftrightarrow$

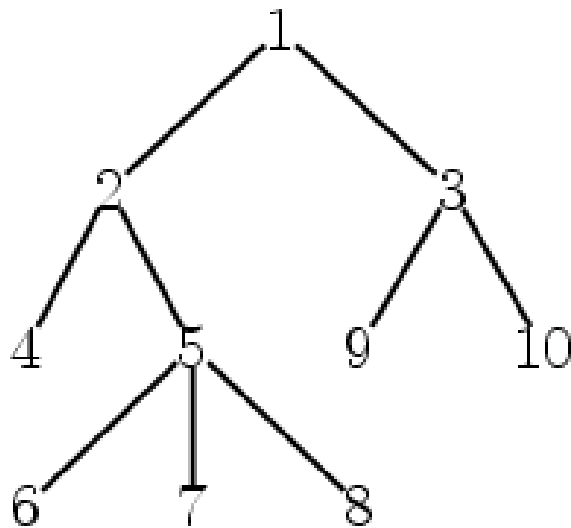


ADT Tree

- ADT that supports the following operations:
 - $\text{parent}(n, T)$: returns parent of node n in tree T . For root returns *null tree* (denoted Λ).
 - Input: node, tree; Output: node or Λ
 - $\text{leftmostChild}(n, T)$: returns the leftmost child of node n in tree T or Λ for a leaf
 - Input: node, tree; Output: node or Λ
 - $\text{rightSibling}(n, T)$: returns the right sibling of node n in tree T or Λ for the rightmost sibling
 - Input: node, tree; Output: node or Λ
 - $\text{label}(n, T)$: returns the label (associated value) of node n in tree T
 - Input: node, tree; Output: label
 - $\text{root}(T)$: returns the root of T
 - Input: tree; Output: node or Λ
- Support operations may also be defined

Implementations of trees. A vector

- Example
 - Supports only “parent” operation



(a)

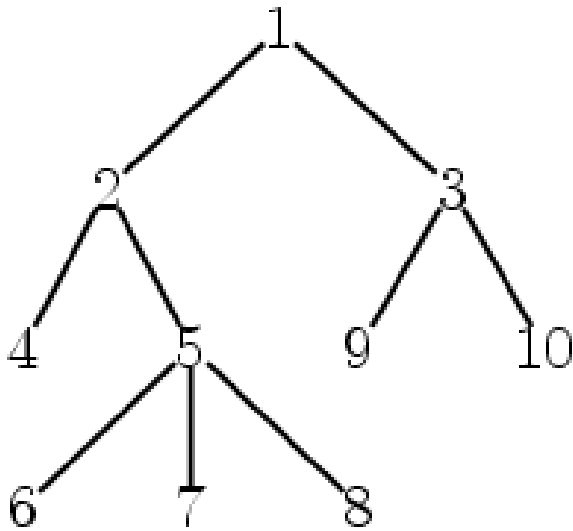
(a) Tree

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	1	1	2	2	5	5	5	3	3

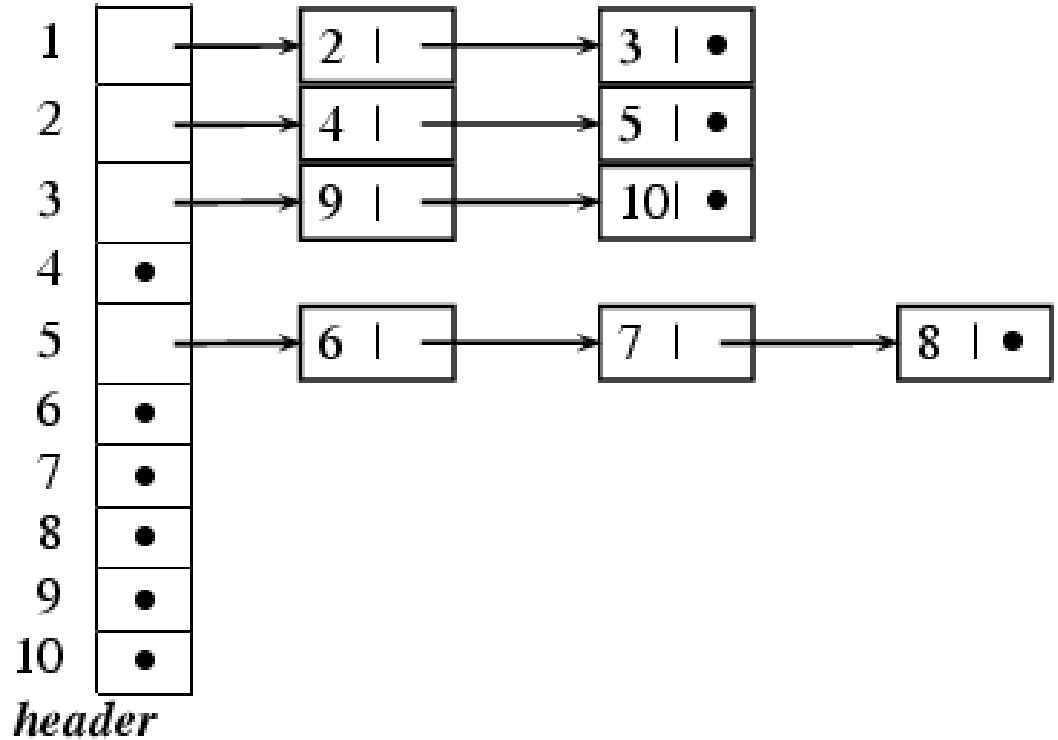
(b)

(b) Data structure

Implementations of trees. Lists of children

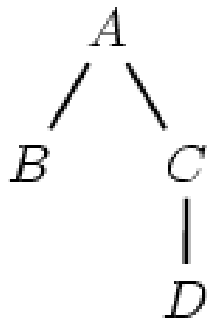


(a) Tree



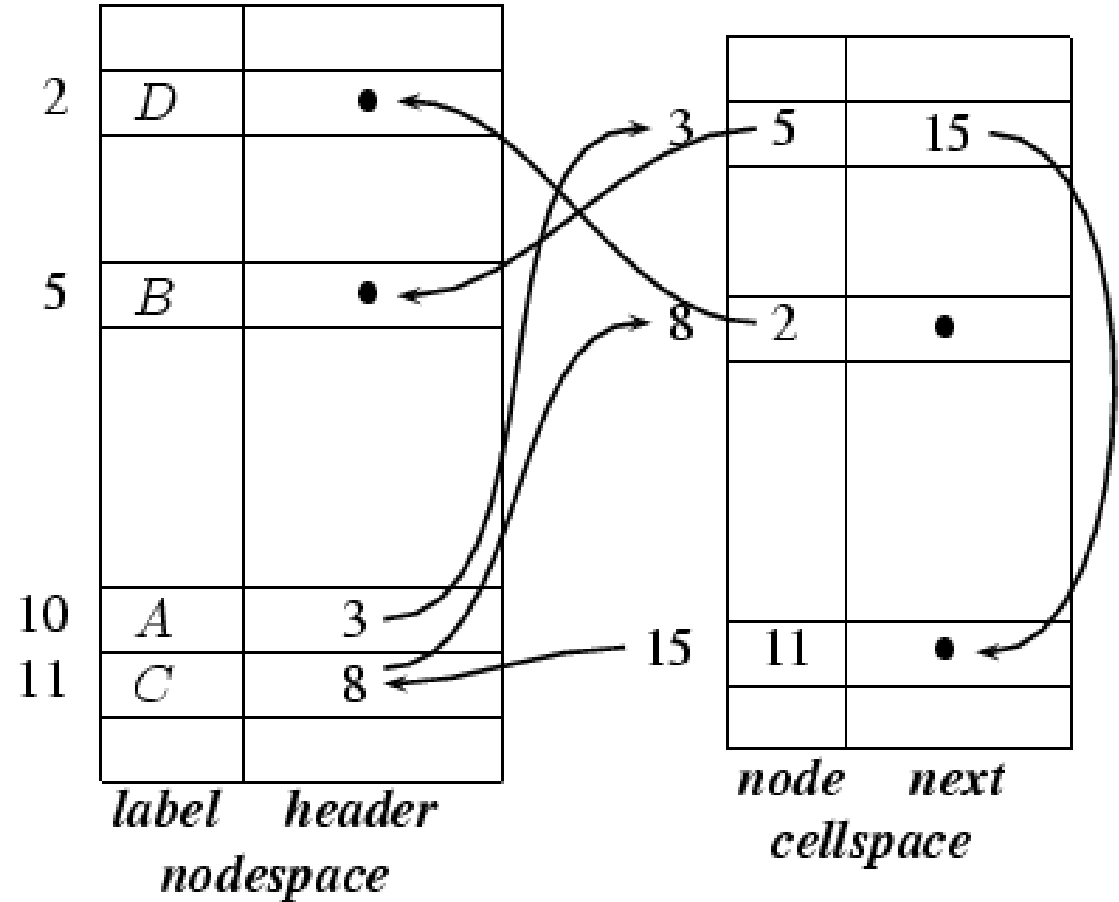
(b) Data structure

Implementations of trees. Lists of children



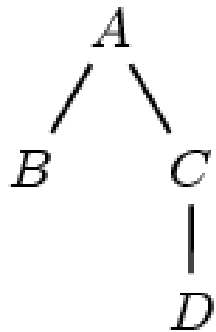
(a) Tree

T

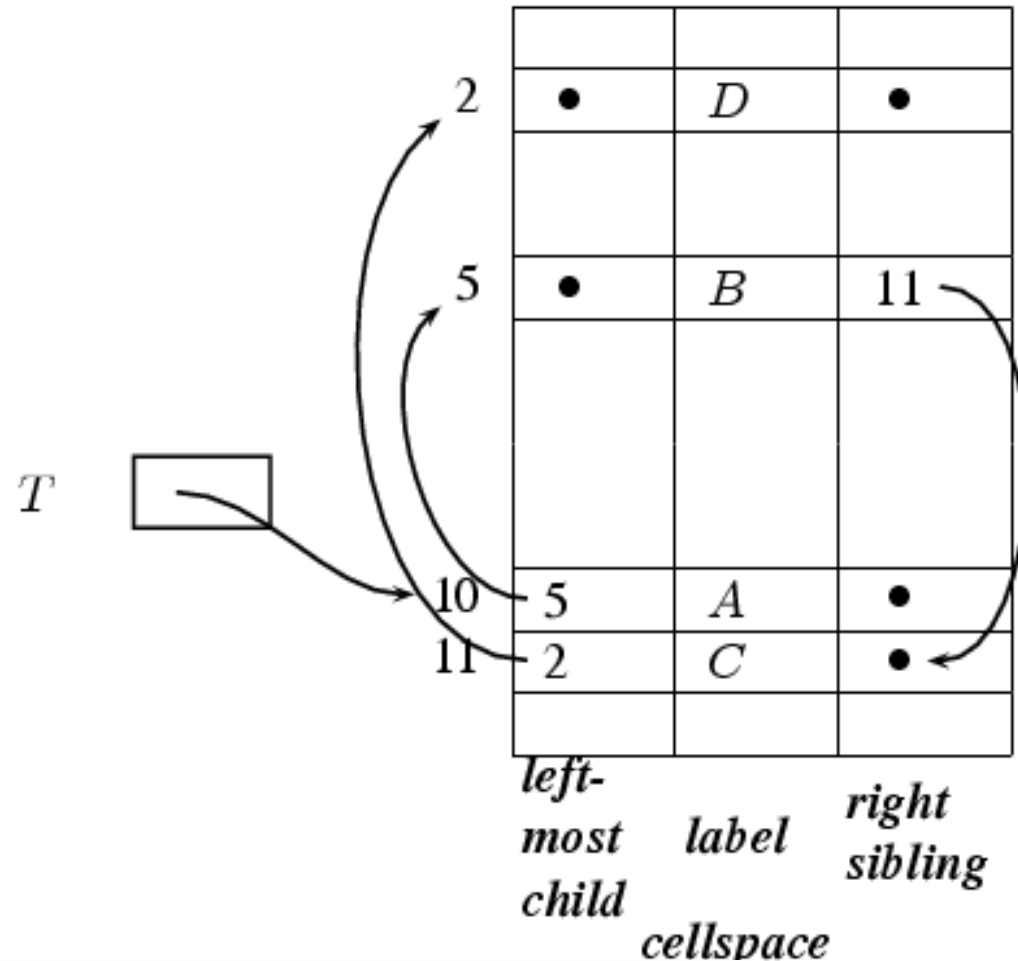


(b) Data structure

Tree leftmost child – right sibling example

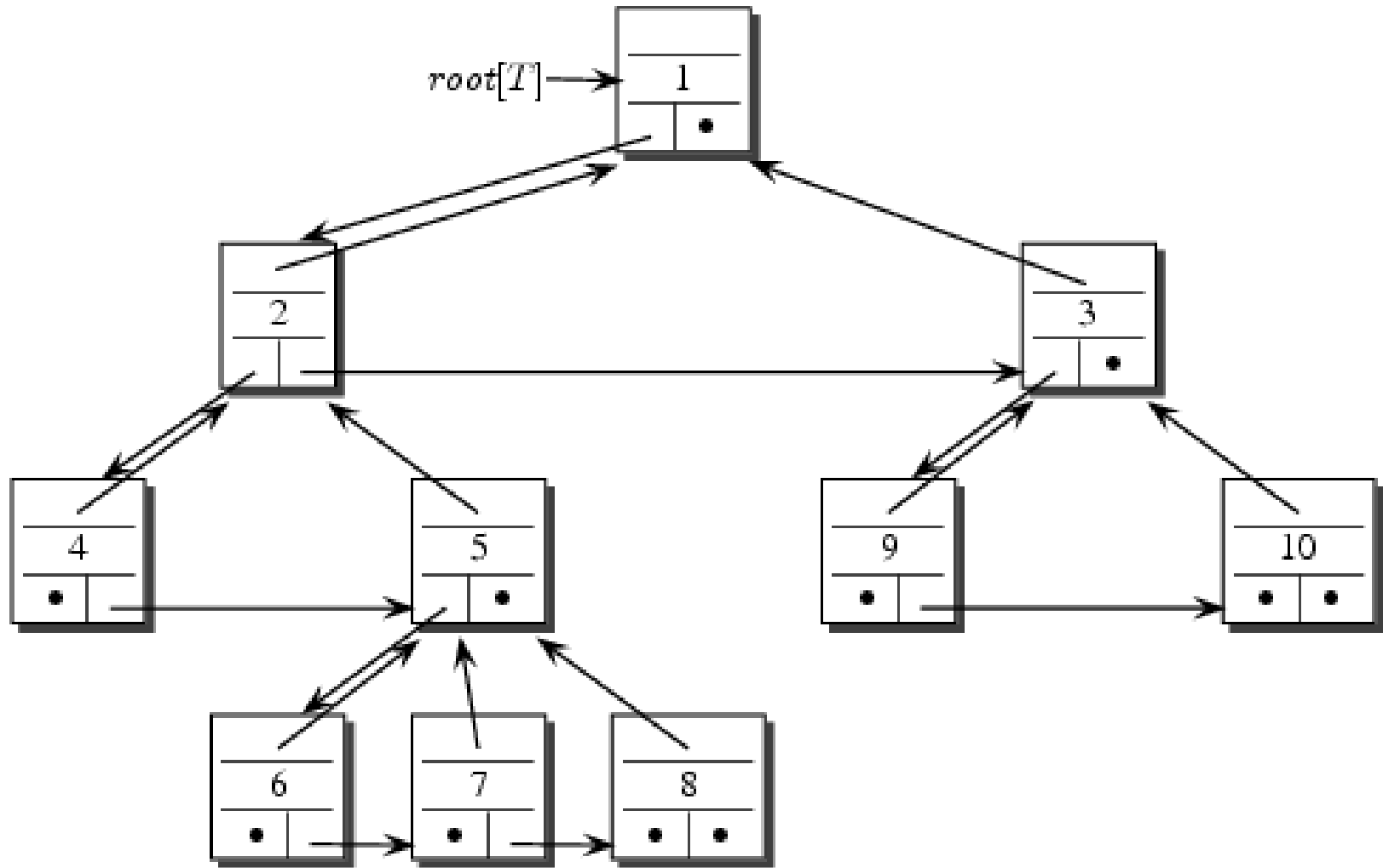


(a) Tree



(b) Data structure

Another leftmost child – right sibling example

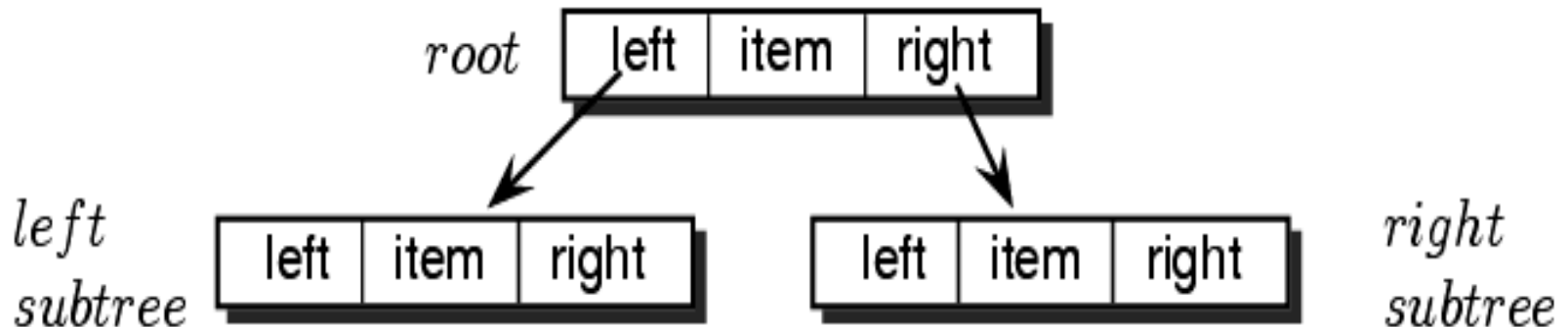


Binary search trees (BST)

- Binary search tree property: for every node, say x , in the tree,
 - the values of all keys in the left subtrees are smaller than the key value stored at x ,
 - and the values of all the keys in the right subtree are larger than the key value in x
- Typical representation: linked representation of binary tree, with *key*, *left*, *right*, [and *p* (*parent*)] fields.

BST implementation

```
typedef struct t_node
{
    void *item;
    struct t_node *left;
    struct t_node *right
} NodeT;
```



BST implementation. Find (recursive)

```
extern int KeyCmp( void *a, void *b );  
/* Returns -1, 0, 1 for keys stored with a < b, a == b, a > b */  
void *FindInTree( NodeT *t, void *key ) {  
    if ( t == (Node)0 ) return NULL;  
    switch( KeyCmp( key, ItemKey(t->item) ) ) {  
        case -1 : return FindInTree( t->left, key );  
        case 0:  return t->item;  
        case +1 : return FindInTree( t->right, key );  
    }  
}
```

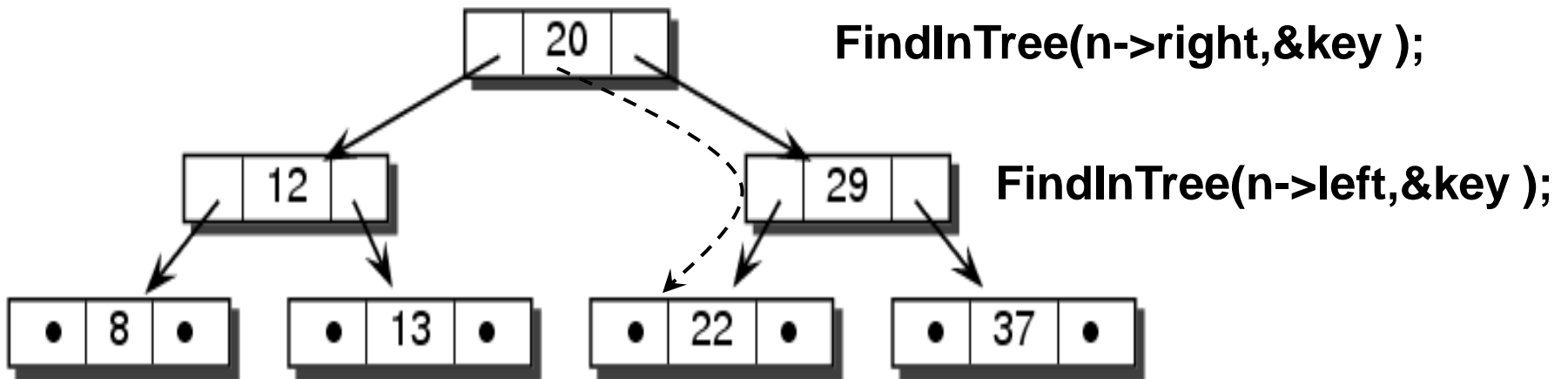
Less,
search
left

Greater,
search
right

BST implementation. Find (recursive)

- key = 22;
if (FindInTree(root ,
&key))...

FindInTree(n, &key);



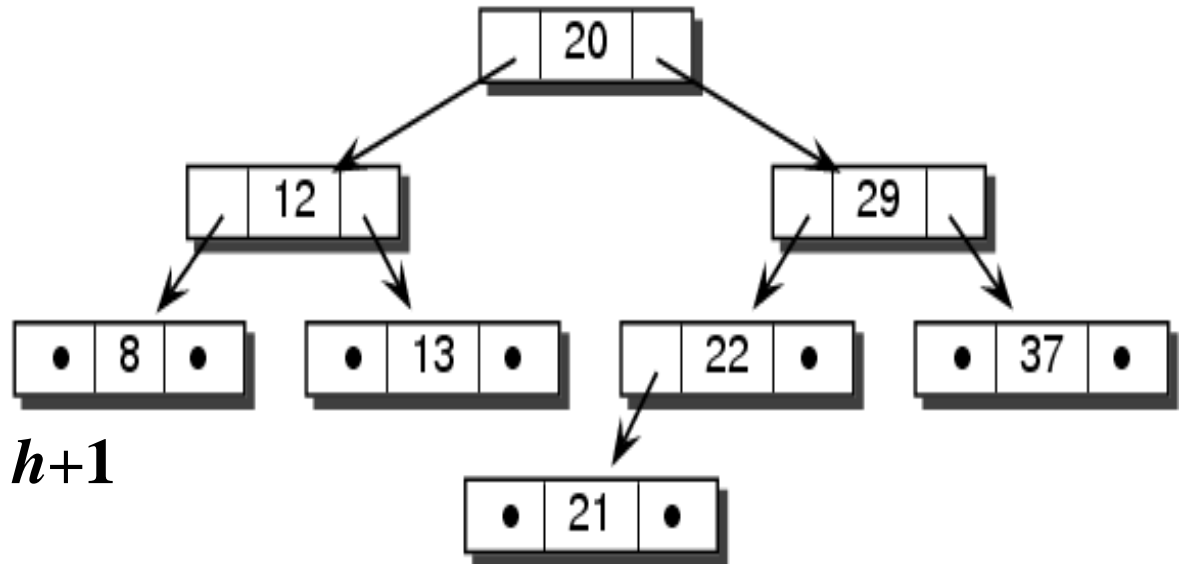
return n->item;

Find performance

- Height, h
 - Nodes traversed in a path from the root to a leaf
- Number of nodes, n
 - $n = 1 + 2^1 + 2^2 + \dots + 2^h = 2^{h+1} - 1$
 - $h = \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor$
- Complete Tree
- Since we need at most $h+1$ comparisons, find in $O(h+1)$ or $O(\log n)$
- Same as binary search

BST. Adding a node

- Add 21 to the tree



- We need at most $h+1$ comparisons
- Create a new node (constant time)
- ∴ add takes $c_1(h+1)+c_2$ or $c \log n$
- So addition to a tree takes time proportional to $\log n$

Addition implementation (recursive)

```
static void AddToTree( NodeT **t, NodeT *new )
{
    NodeT *base = *t;
    /* If it's a null tree, just add it here */
    if ( base == NULL )
        { *t = new; return; }
    else
        if( KeyLess(ItemKey(new->item),
            ItemKey(base->item)) )
            AddToTree( &(base->left), new );
        else
            AddToTree( &(base->right), new );
}
```

BST. Deleting a node

- Cases of deletion

1. A leaf (simple)

2. A node with a single child

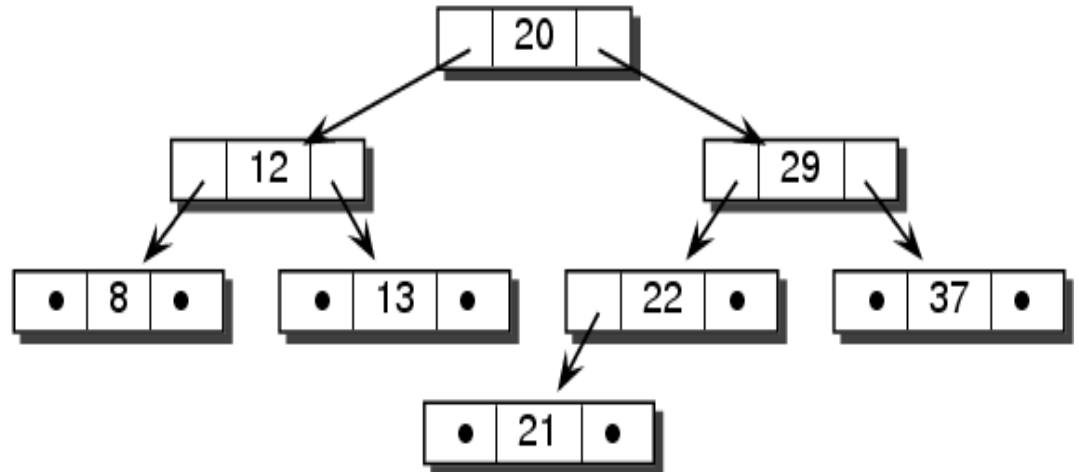
3. A node with two children

- Example:

1. Delete 8, 13, 21 or 37

2. Delete 22

3. Delete 12, 20 or 29



BST. Deleting a node

BSTMINIMUM(x, k)

▷ Input: x : node; k : key to find

▷ Output: node or NIL(x, k)

```
1 while left[x] ≠ NIL
2   do x ← left[x]
3 return x
```

BSTSUCCESSOR(x, k)

▷ Input: x : node; k : key to find

▷ Output: node of minimum key

```
1 if right[x] ≠ NIL
2   then return BSTMINIMUM(right[x])
3 y ← p[x] ▷ p[x] is parent of node x
4 while y ≠ NIL ∧ x = right[y]
5   do x ← y
6     y ← p[y]
7 return y
```

BST. Deleting a node

BSTDELETE(T, z)

▷ Input: z : node; T : tree

▷ Output: nothing

```
1  if  $z$  is a leaf           ▷ (case 0)
2      then remove  $z$ 
3  if  $z$  has one child       ▷ (case 1)
4      then make  $p[z]$  point to the child
5  if  $z$  has two children    ▷ (case 2)
6      then swap  $z$  with its successor
7          perform case 0 or case 1 to delete it
```

BST Animation

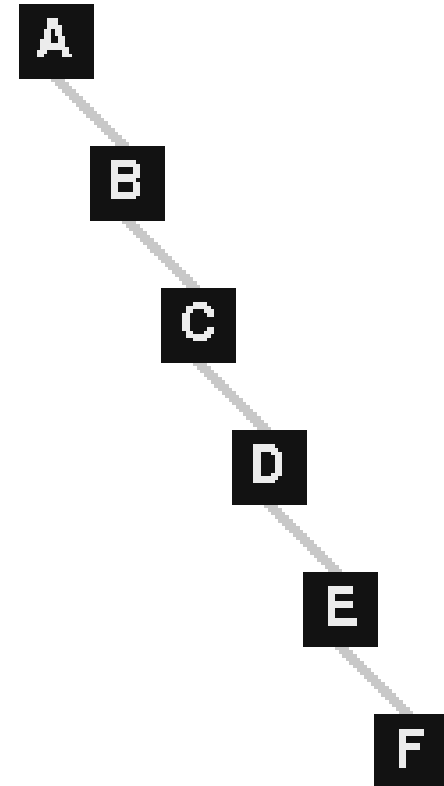
- <http://people.ksp.sk/~kuko/bak/>

BST performance

- Find $c \log n$
- Add $c \log n$
- Delete $c \log n$
- Apparently efficient in every respect!
- Take this list of characters and form a tree

A B C D E F

- unbalanced



Performance comparison

Arrays

Simple, fast
Inflexible

Linked List

Simple
Flexible

Trees

Still Simple
Flexible

Add

$O(1)$

$O(1)$

$O(n)$ *inc sort*

sort -> no adv

Delete

$O(n)$

$O(1)$ - *any*

$O(n)$ - *specific*

Find

$O(n)$

$O(n)$

$O(\log n)$

$O(\log n)$ ←

(no bin search)

binary search

Reading

- AHU, chapter 3
- CLR, chapters 11.3, 11.4
- CLRS, chapter 10.4, 12
- Preiss, chapter: Trees.
- Knuth, vol. 1, 2.3
- Notes