## Week 03b: Search Tree Data Structures

Searching 1/49

An extremely common application in computing

- given a (large) collection of items and a key value
- find the item(s) in the collection containing that key
  - item = (key, val<sub>1</sub>, val<sub>2</sub>, ...) (i.e. a structured data type)
  - key = value used to distinguish items (e.g. student ID)

Applications: Google, databases, .....

... Searching 2/49

Since searching is a very important/frequent operation, many approaches have been developed to do it

Linear structures: arrays, linked lists, files

Arrays = random access. Lists, files = sequential access.

Cost of searching:

|          | Array                    | List                  | File                       |
|----------|--------------------------|-----------------------|----------------------------|
| Unsorted | O(n)<br>(linear scan)    | O(n)<br>(linear scan) | O(n)<br>(linear scan)      |
| Sorted   | O(log n) (binary search) | O(n)<br>(linear scan) | O(log n)<br>(seek, seek>,) |

- O(n) ... linear scan (search technique of last resort)
- O(log n) ... binary search, search trees (trees also have other uses)

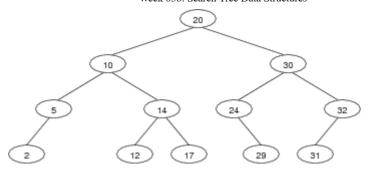
Also (cf. COMP9021): hash tables (O(1), but only under optimal conditions)

... Searching 3/49

Maintaining the order in sorted arrays and files is a costly operation.

Search trees are as efficient to search but more efficient to maintain.

Example: the following tree corresponds to the sorted array [2,5,10,12,14,17,20,24,29,30,31,32]:

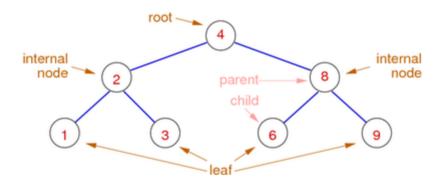


# **Tree Data Structures**

Trees 5/49

Trees are connected graphs

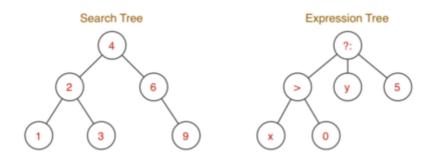
- consisting of nodes and edges (called links), with no cycles (no "up-links")
- each node contains a data value (or key+data)
- each node has links to  $\leq k$  other child nodes (k=2 below)



... Trees 6/49

Trees are used in many contexts, e.g.

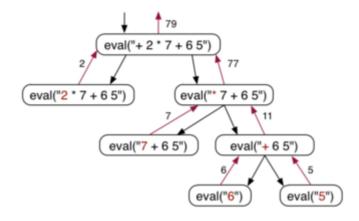
- representing hierarchical data structures (e.g. expressions)
- efficient searching (e.g. sets, symbol tables, ...)



... Trees 7/49

Trees can be used as a data structure, but also for illustration.

E.g. showing evaluation of a prefix arithmetic expression

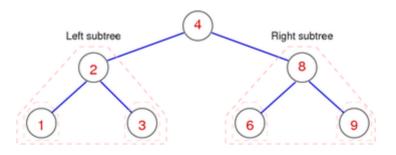


... Trees 8/49

Binary trees (k=2 children per node) can be defined recursively, as follows:

A binary tree is either

- empty (contains no nodes)
- consists of a *node*, with two *subtrees* 
  - o node contains a value
  - o left and right subtrees are binary trees



... Trees 9/49

Other special kinds of tree

- *m-ary tree*: each internal node has exactly *m* children
- Ordered tree: all left values < root, all right values > root
- Balanced tree: has ≅minimal height for a given number of nodes
- Degenerate tree: has ≅ maximal height for a given number of nodes

**Search Trees** 

**Binary Search Trees** 

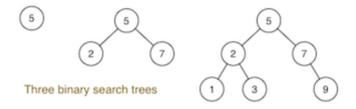
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Binary search trees (or BSTs) have the characteristic properties

- each node is the root of 0, 1 or 2 subtrees
- all values in any left subtree are less than root
- all values in any right subtree are greater than root
- these properties applies over all nodes in the tree

perfectly balanced trees have the properties

- #nodes in left subtree = #nodes in right subtree
- this property applies over all nodes in the tree



### ... Binary Search Trees

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Operations on BSTs:

- insert(Tree, Item) ... add new item to tree via key
- delete(Tree, Key) ... remove item with specified key from tree
- search(Tree,Key) ... find item containing key in tree
- plus, "bookkeeping" ... new(), free(), show(), ...

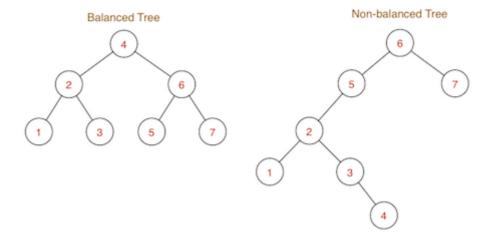
Notes:

- in general, nodes contain Items; we just show Item.key
- keys are unique (not technically necessary)

### ... Binary Search Trees

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Examples of binary search trees:



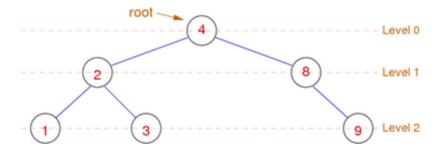
Shape of tree is determined by order of insertion.

## ... Binary Search Trees

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Level of node = path length from root to node

Height (or: depth) of tree = max path length from root to leaf



Height-balanced tree: ∀ nodes: height(left subtree) = height(right subtree)

Time complexity of tree algorithms is typically *O(height)* 

#### Exercise #1: Insertion into BSTs

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For each of the sequences below

- start from an initially empty binary search tree
- show tree resulting from inserting values in order given
- (a) 4 2 6 5 1 7 3
- (b) 6 5 2 3 4 7 1
- (c) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Assume new values are always inserted as new leaf nodes

- (a) the balanced tree from 3 slides ago (height = 2)
- (b) the non-balanced tree from 3 slides ago (height = 4)
- (c) a fully degenerate tree of height 6

# Representing BSTs

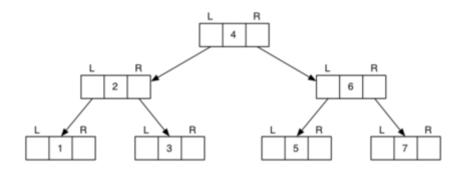
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Binary trees are typically represented by node structures

• containing a value, and pointers to child nodes

Most tree algorithms move down the tree.

If upward movement needed, add a pointer to parent.



### ... Representing BSTs

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Typical data structures for trees ...

```
// a Tree is represented by a pointer to its root node
typedef struct Node *Tree;

// a Node contains its data, plus left and right subtrees
typedef struct Node {
   int data;
   Tree left, right;
} Node;

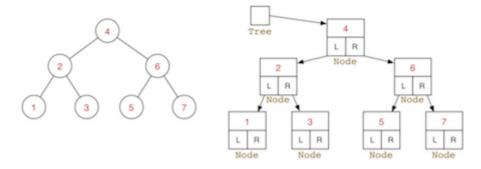
// some macros that we will use frequently
#define data(tree) ((tree)->data)
#define left(tree) ((tree)->left)
#define right(tree) ((tree)->right)
```

We ignore items  $\Rightarrow$  data in Node is just a key

### ... Representing BSTs

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Abstract data vs concrete data ...



# **Tree Algorithms**

# Searching in BSTs

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Most tree algorithms are best described recursively

# Insertion into BSTs

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Insert an item into appropriate subtree

**Tree Traversal** 

Iteration (traversal) on ...

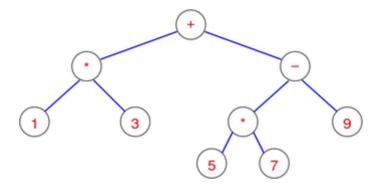
- Lists ... visit each value, from first to last
- Graphs ... visit each vertex, order determined by DFS/BFS/...

For binary Trees, several well-defined visiting orders exist:

- preorder (NLR) ... visit root, then left subtree, then right subtree
- inorder (LNR) ... visit left subtree, then root, then right subtree
- postorder (LRN) ... visit left subtree, then right subtree, then root
- level-order ... visit root, then all its children, then all their children

... Tree Traversal

Consider "visiting" an expression tree like:



NLR: + \* 13 - \* 579 (prefix-order: useful for building tree)

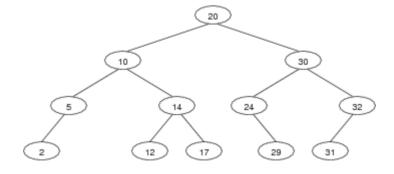
LNR: 1\*3+5\*7-9 (infix-order: "natural" order)

LRN: 13 \* 57 \* 9 - + (postfix-order: useful for evaluation) Level: + \* - 13 \* 957 (level-order: useful for printing tree)

**Exercise #2: Tree Traversal** 

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Show NLR, LNR, LRN traversals for the tree



NLR (preorder): 20 10 5 2 14 12 17 30 24 29 32 31

LNR (inorder): 2 5 10 12 14 17 20 24 29 30 31 32

LRN (postorder): 2 5 12 17 14 10 29 24 31 32 30 20

#### Exercise #3: Non-recursive traversals

Write a non-recursive *preorder* traversal algorithm.

Assume that you have a stack ADT available.

# **Joining Two Trees**

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An auxiliary tree operation ...

Tree operations so far have involved just one tree.

An operation on two trees:  $t = joinTrees(t_1, t_2)$ 

- Pre-conditions:
  - takes two BSTs; returns a single BST
  - max(key(t<sub>1</sub>)) < min(key(t<sub>2</sub>))
- Post-conditions:
  - result is a BST (i.e. fully ordered)
  - o containing all items from t<sub>1</sub> and t<sub>2</sub>

# ... Joining Two Trees

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Method for performing tree-join:

- find the min node in the right subtree (t<sub>2</sub>)
- replace min node by its right subtree
- elevate min node to be new root of both trees

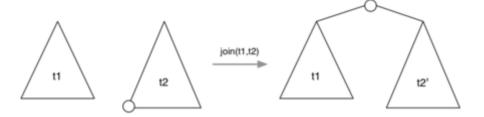
Advantage: doesn't increase height of tree significantly

```
x \le \text{height}(t) \le x+1, where x = \text{max}(\text{height}(t_1), \text{height}(t_2))
```

Variation: choose deeper subtree; take root from there.

#### ... Joining Two Trees

Joining two trees:



Note: t2' may be less deep than t2

### ... Joining Two Trees

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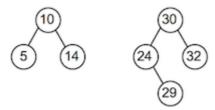
Implementation of tree-join

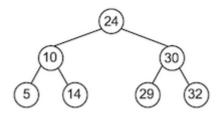
```
joinTrees(t_1, t_2):
   Input trees t_1, t_2
   Output t_1 and t_2 joined together
   if t_1 is empty then return t_2
   else if t<sub>2</sub> is empty then return t<sub>1</sub>
   else
      curr=t2, parent=NULL
      while left(curr) is not empty do  // find min element in t2
         parent=curr
         curr=left(curr)
      end while
      if parent≠NULL then
         left(parent)=right(curr) // unlink min element from parent
         right(curr)=t<sub>2</sub>
      end if
      left(curr)=t1
                                       // curr is new root
      return curr
   end if
```

### **Exercise #4: Joining Two Trees**

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Join the trees





# **Deletion from BSTs**

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Insertion into a binary search tree is easy.

Deletion from a binary search tree is harder.

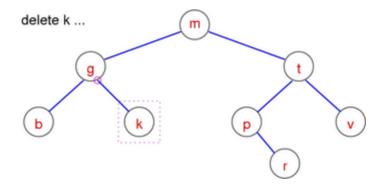
Four cases to consider ...

- empty tree ... new tree is also empty
- zero subtrees ... unlink node from parent
- one subtree ... replace by child
- two subtrees ... replace by successor, join two subtrees

#### ... Deletion from BSTs

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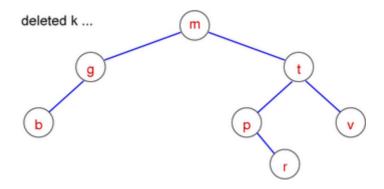
#### Case 2: item to be deleted is a leaf (zero subtrees)



Just delete the item

#### ... Deletion from BSTs

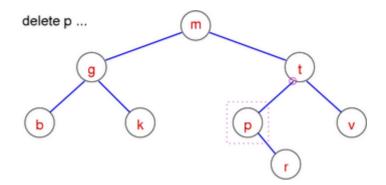
Case 2: item to be deleted is a leaf (zero subtrees)



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#### ... Deletion from BSTs

Case 3: item to be deleted has one subtree

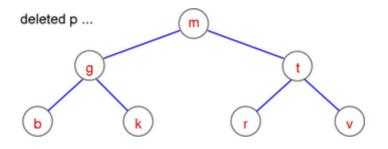


Replace the item by its only subtree

### ... Deletion from BSTs

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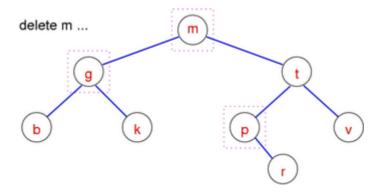
Case 3: item to be deleted has one subtree



### ... Deletion from BSTs

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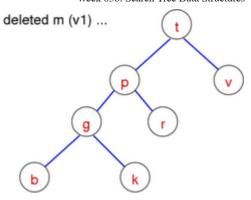
Case 4: item to be deleted has two subtrees



Version 1: right child becomes new root, attach left subtree to min element of right subtree

### ... Deletion from BSTs

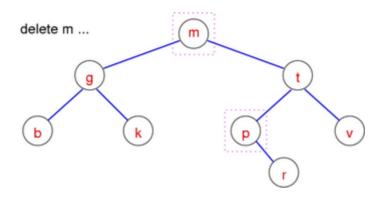
Case 4: item to be deleted has two subtrees



#### ... Deletion from BSTs

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Case 4: item to be deleted has two subtrees

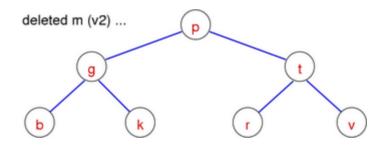


Version 2: join left and right subtree

#### ... Deletion from BSTs

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#### Case 4: item to be deleted has two subtrees



### ... Deletion from BSTs

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Pseudocode (version 2 for case 4)

```
TreeDelete(t,item):
```

```
// node 't' must be deleted
   else
      if left(t) and right(t) are empty then
         new=empty tree
                                           // 0 children
      else if left(t) is empty then
                                           // 1 child
         new=right(t)
      else if right(t) is empty then
                                           // 1 child
         new=left(t)
      else
         new=joinTrees(left(t),right(t)) // 2 children
      free memory allocated for t
      t=new
   end if
end if
return t
```

# **Application of BSTs: Sets**

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Trees provide efficient search.

Sets require efficient search

- to find where to insert/delete
- to test for set membership

Logical to implement a set ADT via BSTree

## ... Application of BSTs: Sets

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Assuming we have Tree implementation

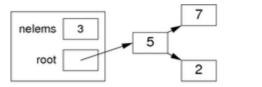
- which precludes duplicate key values
- which implements insertion, search, deletion

then Set implementation is

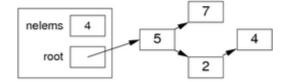
```
    SetInsert(Set,Item) = TreeInsert(Tree,Item)
```

- SetDelete(Set, Item) = TreeDelete(Tree, Item. Key)
- SetMember(Set, Item) = TreeSearch(Tree, Item.Key)

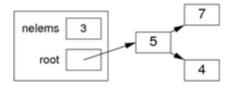
#### ... Application of BSTs: Sets



#### After SetInsert(s,4):



#### After SetDelete(s,2):



## ... Application of BSTs: Sets

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Concrete representation:

```
#include <BSTree.h>

typedef struct SetRep {
   int nelems;
   Tree root;
} SetRep;

typedef Set *SetRep;

Set newSet() {
   Set S = malloc(sizeof(SetRep));
   assert(S != NULL);
   S->nelems = 0;
   S->root = newTree();
   return S;
}
```

Summary 49/49

- Binary search tree (BST) data structure
- Tree traversal
- Basic BST operation: insertion, join, deletion
- Suggested reading:
  - o Sedgewick, Ch. 12.5-12.6

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