


ALGEBRA



# DATA STRUCTURES AND ALGORITHMS


Lecture 09

Learning outcome 3



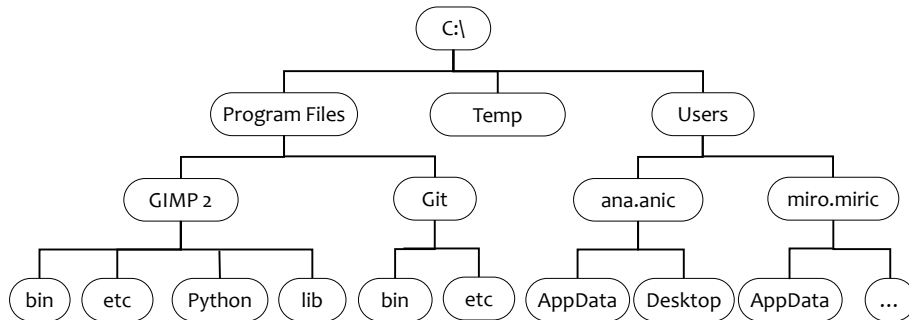
# TREES

Strana • 2



## Introduction

- All previous data structures have been linearly arranged
  - Can we store the following data in vector or list:



- We can't because the data is hierarchical in nature
  - We need a new structure - a tree

Strana • 3



## Application of trees

- Trees are suitable for:
  - Storage of hierarchical data
    - Family tree
    - Sports competitions
    - File system
    - Organizational chart of the company
    - Organization chart of the army
  - Storing non-hierarchical data in a searchable form
    - Indexes in databases

Strana • 4



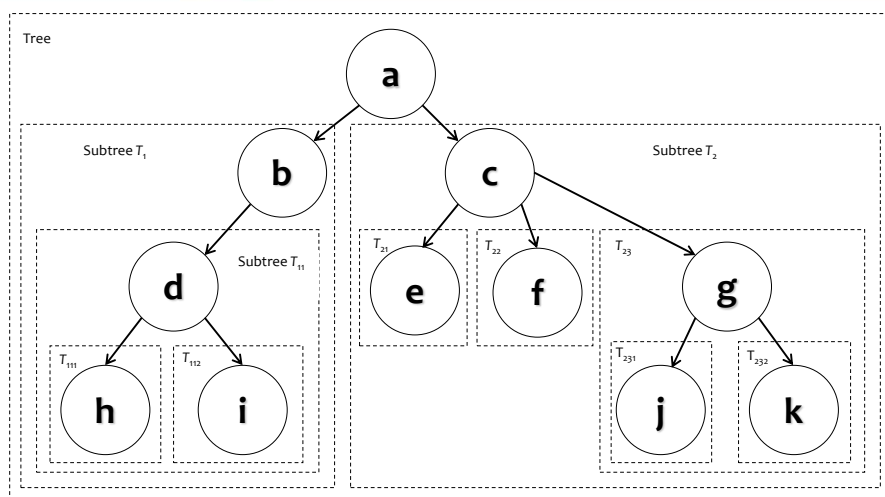
## Simplified tree definition

- A tree is a group of connected nodes with the following properties:
  - Each node contains one or more values
  - Nodes are hierarchically organized (parent - children)
  - There is exactly one node that has no parents and is called the tree root
  - Each node is also a subtree root, and this subtree can be complex (composed of several nodes) or trivial (composed of only 1 node)

Strana • 5



## An example of a tree



Strana • 6



## Basic terms (1/4)

- Nodes that are located directly below a node are called its children
  - For example, nodes e, f, and g are the children of node c
- Except for the root of the tree, each node has exactly one parent, and that is the node directly above it
  - For example, the parent of node h is node d
  - Each node can have several children, but at most one parent
- Nodes with the same parent are called siblings
  - For example, nodes e, f, and g are siblings

Strana • 7



## Basic terms (2/4)

- The path from node x to node y is a series of nodes that are traversed when going from x to y (where each node on the path is the parent of the next node on that path)
  - For example, the path from a to k is: a, c, g, k; the path from e to g does not exist
- If a path consists of n nodes, then the length of that path is equal to n - 1
  - For example, the path length of a path a, c, g, k is 3
- If we look at some node x:
  - The descendants of the node x are all nodes in the tree to which there is a path from x
  - The ancestors of node x are all nodes in the tree from which there is a path to x

Strana • 8



### Basic terms (3/4)

- A leaf is a node that has no children
  - For example, nodes h, i, e, f, j, k are leaves
- An internal node is a node that has children
  - For example, nodes a, b, c, d, g are internal
- Node level or node depth represents its distance (path length) from the root
  - Root has level 0, his children have level 1, their children have level 2, and so on
- The depth of a tree is equal to the maximum node level in the tree
  - For example, the depth of our tree is 3

Strana • 9



### Basic terms (4/4)

- The degree of the node is equal to the number of his children
  - For example, degree of node a is 2, degree of node c is 3
- The degree of the tree is equal to the degree of the node with the most children
  - For example, the degree of our tree is 3

Strana • 10



# BINARY TREES

Strana • 11



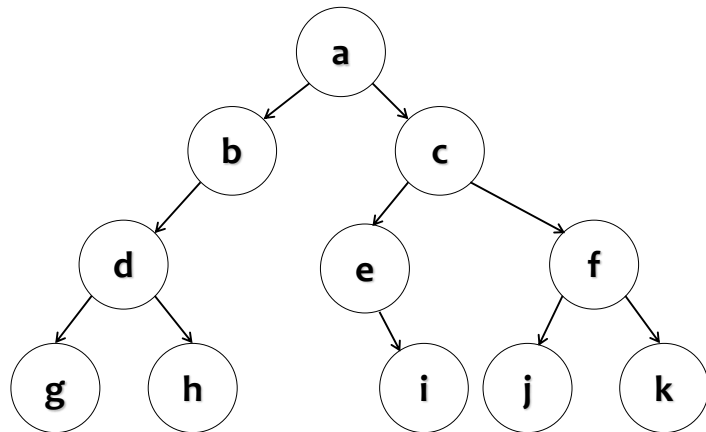
## Introduction

- A binary tree is a tree whose degree can be a maximum of 2
  - This means that each node can have a maximum of two children
- Binary trees are a subset of general trees
  - Usually working with them is easier than working with general trees
- The terms introduced for general trees are used in the same way for binary trees

Strana • 12



## An example of a binary tree

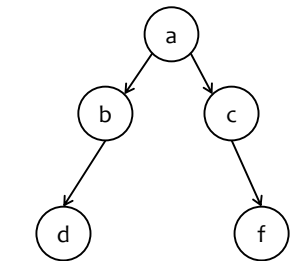


Strana • 13

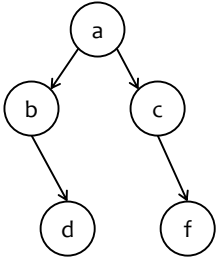


## The difference between a left and a right child

- We distinguish the left and right child of each node
- If a node has only one child, it does matter if it is a left or a right child
  - The next two binary trees are not equal



Left child



Right child

Strana • 14



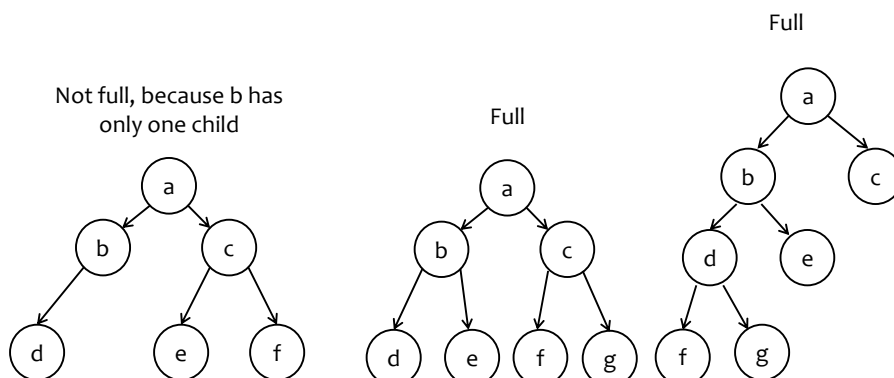
## Types of binary trees

- We are interested in the following types of binary trees:
  - A **full** binary tree is one in which each non-leaf node has exactly 2 children
  - A **perfect** binary tree is one that is full and in which all the leaves are at the same level
  - A **complete** binary tree is one in which all levels (except perhaps the last) are completely filled, and the last level has all the nodes filled from the left
    - This means that nodes are added to the tree as follows:
      - We start from the root and fill each level from left to right
      - When there is no more room in current level, we move on to the next level and start filling it from the left

Strana • 15



## Examples of full binary trees



Strana • 16

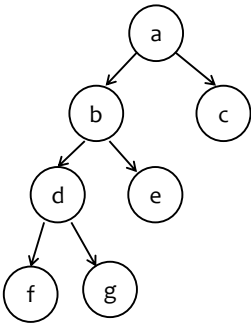
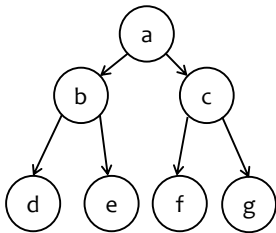




# Examples of perfect binary trees

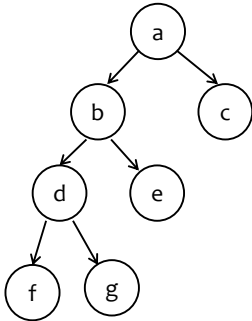
Full, but not perfect because the level of nodes f and g is equal to 3, node e is equal to 2, and node c is equal to 1

Perfect

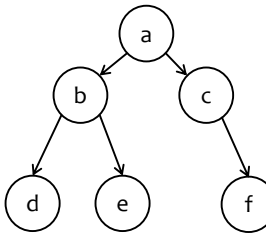


# Examples of complete binary trees

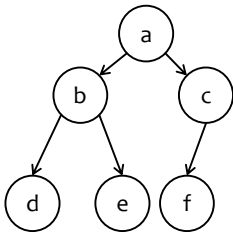
Full, but not complete



Not complete



Complete



# RECURSION

Strana • 19



## Recursion

- A problem-solving method in which a function calls itself with different parameter values
  - Each function call works on a part of the problem
  - There must be a stop condition (base case)
- Each execution of the same function is called an iteration
  - Each iteration is independent of the previous one
  - In each iteration:
    - Let's solve a small part of the problem
    - We recursively call on ourselves to solve the rest of the problem
  - Check out  
<https://www.cs.usfca.edu/~galles/visualization/RecFact.html>

Strana • 20



## Example of recursion

- The task of each iteration is to display only one letter

```
void display(string name, int i) {
    if (i == name.size()) {
        return;
    }
    cout << name[i] << endl;
    display(name, i + 1);
}

int main() {
    string name = "Marko";
    display(name, 0);
    return 0;
}
```

Base case check

Solving a piece  
of a problem

Recursive  
call

Initial call

Strana • 21



## Problem

- Let's write a program that will display all the subfolders within the given folder.
  - We will use dirent.h
    - Available in any Linux distribution
    - For Windows: [github.com/tronkko/dirent](https://github.com/tronkko/dirent)
  - Recursive function design:
    - Which part of the problem is solved by one iteration?
      - Displays the name of the current folder
    - What recursive calls we make?
      - One for each subfolder

Strana • 22



## The basic outline of the solution

```
void process_folder(const char* parent, const char* name, int lvl) {
    // Do this folder.

    // Create a full path.

    // Do the subfolders.
}

int main() {
    process_folder("D:\\", "Temp", 0);

    return 0;
}
```

Strana • 23



## Solution details (1/2)

```
// Do this folder.
for (int i = 0; i < lvl; i++) {
    cout << " ";
}
cout << name << endl;

// Create a full path.
stringstream sstr;
sstr << parent << name << "\\ ";
char full[256];
sstr >> full;

// Do the subfolders.
```

Strana • 24



## Solution details (2/2)

```
// Do the subfolders.
DIR* dir;
dirent* ent;

if ((dir = opendir(full)) == NULL) {
    return;
}

while ((ent = readdir(dir)) != NULL) {
    if (ent->d_name[0] == '.') {
        continue;
    }

    if (S_ISDIR(ent->d_type) == true) {
        process_folder(full, ent->d_name, lvl + 1); // REC!
    }
}

closedir(dir);
```

Strana • 25



## TREE TRAVERSALS

Strana • 26



## Introduction

- Tree traversal is the process of visiting all nodes of a tree under conditions:
  - We will visit every element in the tree
  - We will not visit any element two or more times
- The most common reasons for visiting are:
  - Read the contents of the element
  - Change the content of an element

Strana • 27



## Traversal of linear structures

- Traversal of linear structures (for example, lists) is simple: we start from the first element and go to the last
- For example, if we have a list of 50 integers
  - If we want to calculate the sum of all elements, we will go from the beginning to the end of the list and read the contents of each element
  - If we want to multiply each number by 2, we will go from the beginning to the end of the list and change the content of each element

Strana • 28



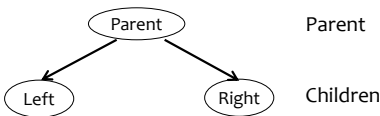
# Traversal of the binary tree

- Traversal of hierarchical structures is more complex and there are several ways to visit them
- The most well-known binary tree traversal algorithms are:
  - DFS algorithms (*depth-first search*)
    - INORDER
    - PREORDER
    - POSTORDER
  - BFS algorithm (*breadth-first search*)
- All algorithms start from the root and differ in the order in which nodes are visited
- DFS algorithms are recursive

Strana • 29



# DFS traversal algorithms



INORDER	Traversal principle: <b>Left, Parent, Right</b> The traversal starts from the left subtree and goes to the parent and then to the right subtree. Each subtree is traversed in the same way (recursive).
PREORDER	Traversal principle: <b>Parent, Left, Right</b> The traversal starts from the parent and goes to the left and then to the right subtree. Each subtree is traversed in the same way (recursive).
POSTORDER	Traversal principle: <b>Left, Right, Parent</b> The traversal starts from the left subtree and goes to the right subtree and finally to the parent. Each subtree is traversed in the same way (recursive).

Strana • 30



## Applications of traversal algorithms

### ▪ Applications of traversal algorithms:

#### ○ INORDER

- It is often used on binary search trees (BST) as it returns values in sorted form (defined by the BST itself)

#### ○ PREORDER

- It is often used to duplicate a tree because it first visits the parents and only then the children

#### ○ POSTORDER

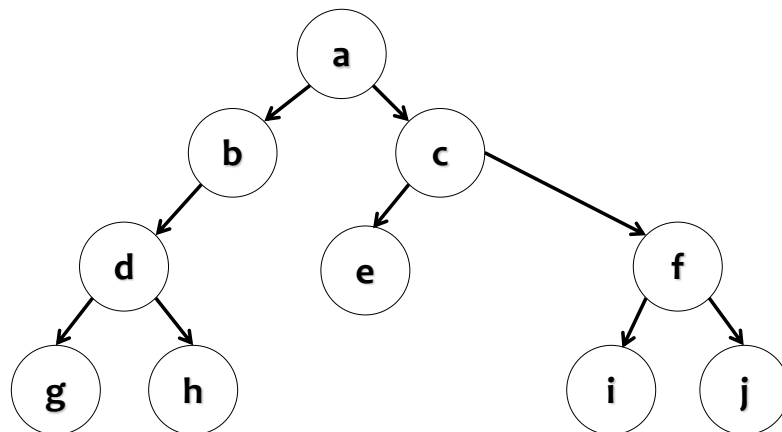
- It is often used to erase nodes and destroy trees because it visits children first and then parents

Strana • 31



## INORDER example (1/11)

### ▪ Lets consider the binary tree:



Strana • 32





### INORDER example (2/11)

Traversal order: g

```
graph TD; a((a)) --> b((b)); a --> c((c)); b --> d((d)); d --> g((g)); d --> h((h)); c --> e((e)); c --> f((f)); f --> i((i)); f --> j((j));
```

Strana • 33

### INORDER example (3/11)

Traversal order: g, d

```
graph TD; a((a)) --> b((b)); a --> c((c)); b --> d((d)); d --> g((g)); d --> h((h)); c --> e((e)); c --> f((f)); f --> i((i)); f --> j((j));
```

Strana • 34

### INORDER example (4/11)

Traversal order: g, d, h

```
graph TD; a((a)) --> b((b)); a --> c((c)); b --> d((d)); d --> g((g)); d --> h((h)); c --> e((e)); c --> f((f)); f --> i((i)); f --> j((j));
```

Strana • 35

### INORDER example (5/11)

Traversal order: g, d, h, b

```
graph TD; a((a)) --> b((b)); a --> c((c)); b --> d((d)); d --> g((g)); d --> h((h)); c --> e((e)); c --> f((f)); f --> i((i)); f --> j((j));
```

Strana • 36

### INORDER example (6/11)

Traversal order: g, d, h, b, a

Strana • 37

### INORDER example (7/11)

Traversal order: g, d, h, b, a, e

Strana • 38

### INORDER example (8/11)

Traversal order: g, d, h, b, a, e, c

Strana • 39

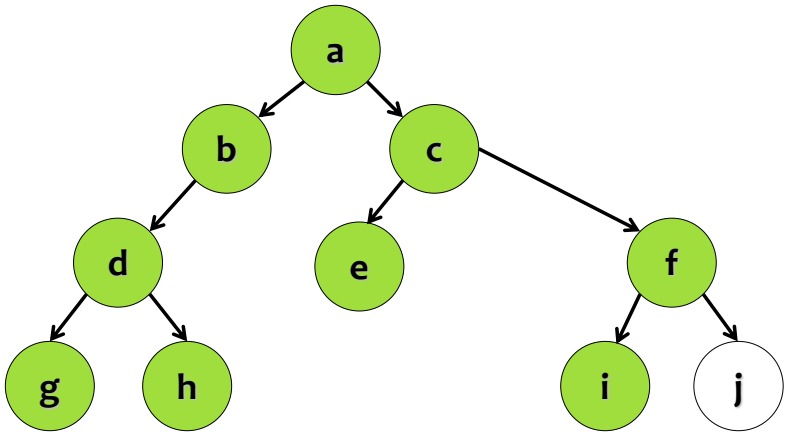
### INORDER example (9/11)

Traversal order: g, d, h, b, a, e, c, i

Strana • 40

# INORDER example (10/11)

Traversal order: g, d, h, b, a, e, c, i, f

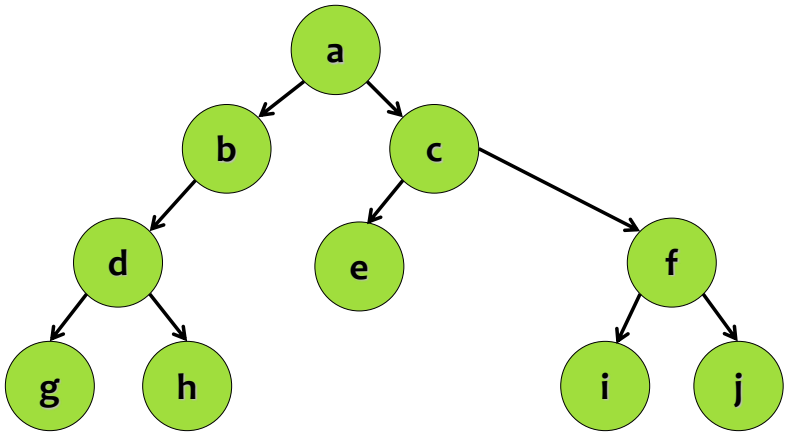


Strana • 41



# INORDER example (11/11)

Traversal order: g, d, h, b, a, e, c, i, f, j

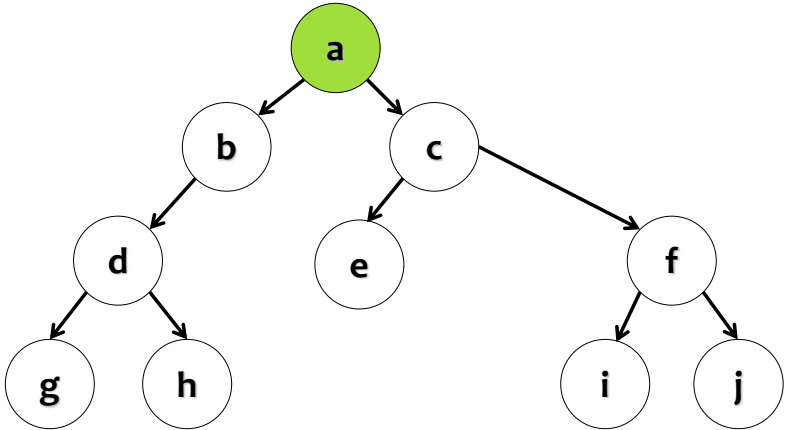


Strana • 42



### PREORDER example (1/10)

Traversal order: a

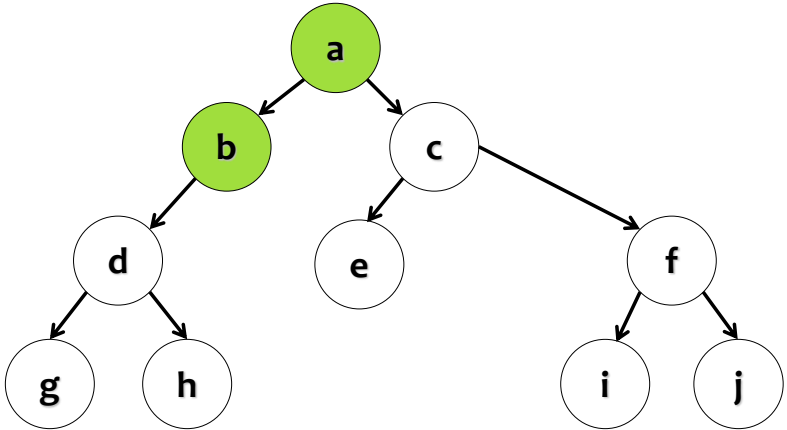


Strana • 43



### PREORDER example (2/10)

Traversal order: a, b

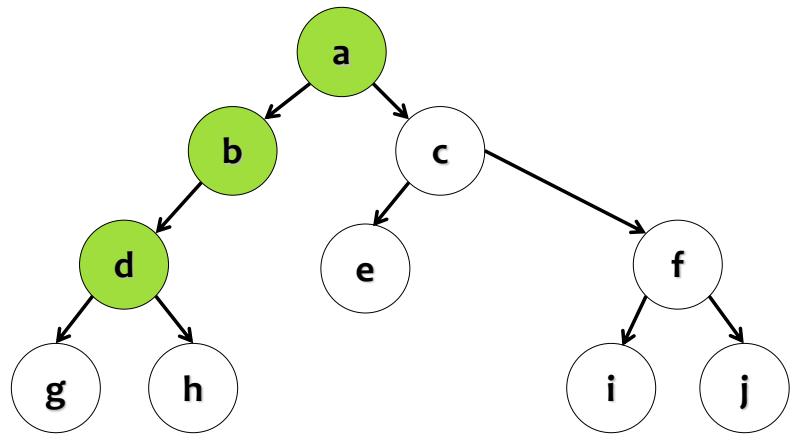


Strana • 44



**PREORDER example (3/10)**

Traversal order: a, b, d

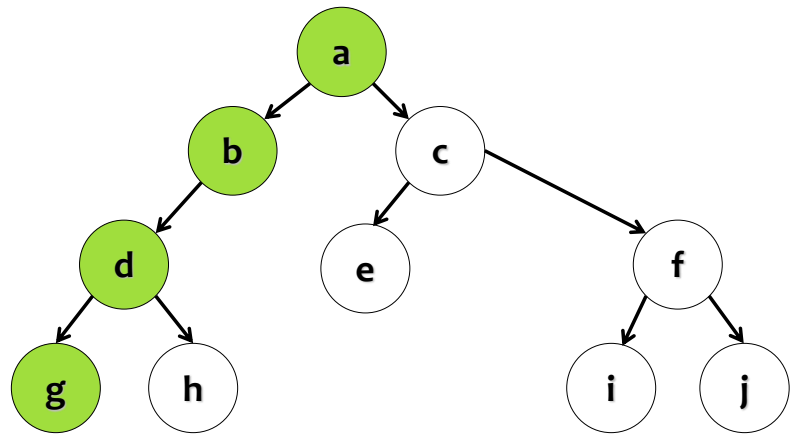


Strana • 45



**PREORDER example (4/10)**

Traversal order: a, b, d, g

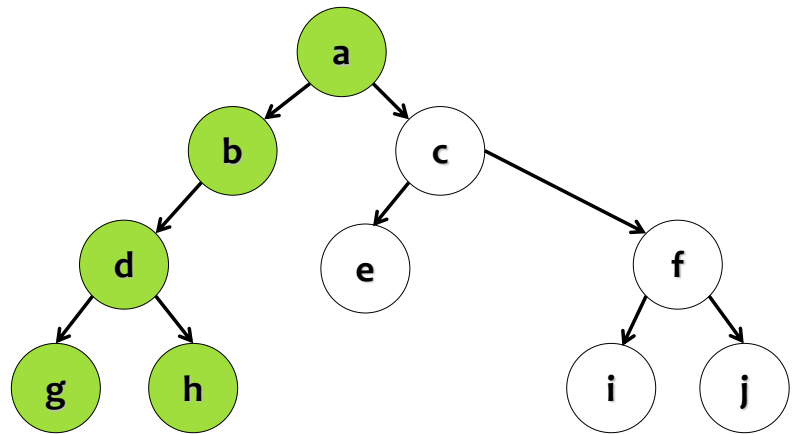


Strana • 46



# PREORDER example (5/10)

Traversal order: a, b, d, g, h

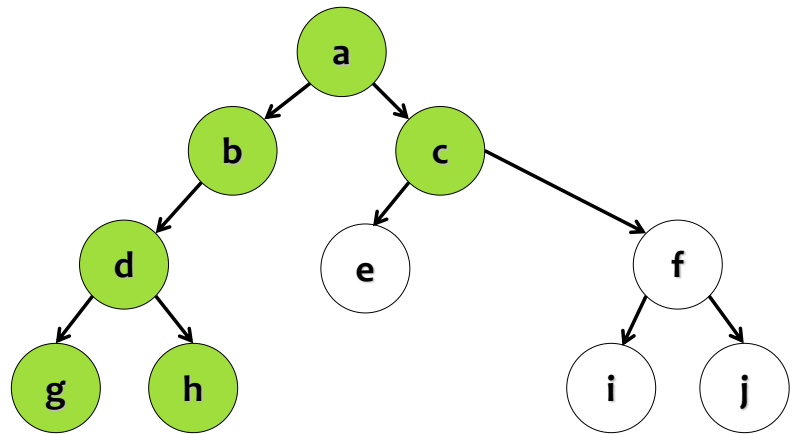


Strana • 47



# PREORDER example (6/10)

Traversal order: a, b, d, g, h, c



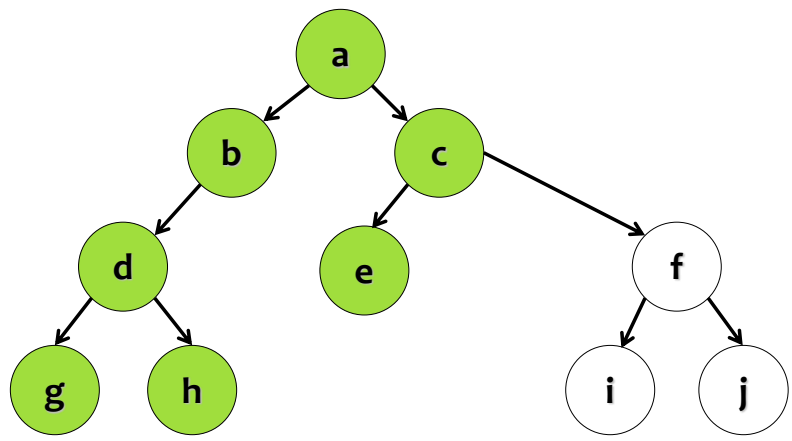
Strana • 48





**PREORDER example (7/10)**

Traversal order: a, b, d, g, h, c, e

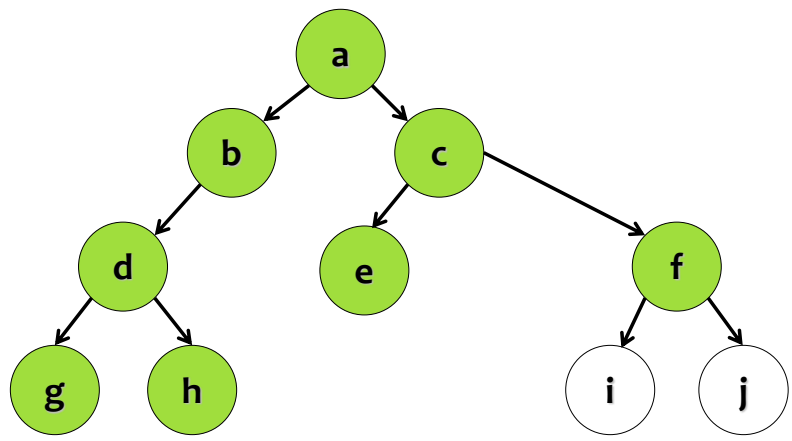


Strana • 49



**PREORDER example (8/10)**

Traversal order: a, b, d, g, h, c, e, f

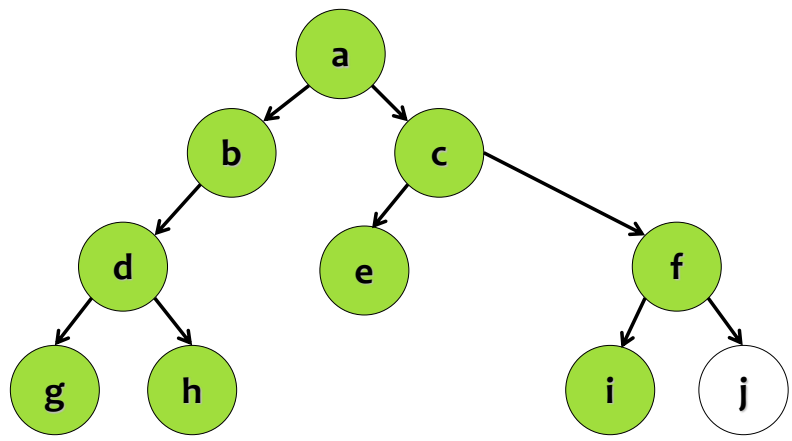


Strana • 50



# PREORDER example (9/10)

Traversal order: a, b, d, g, h, c, e, f, i

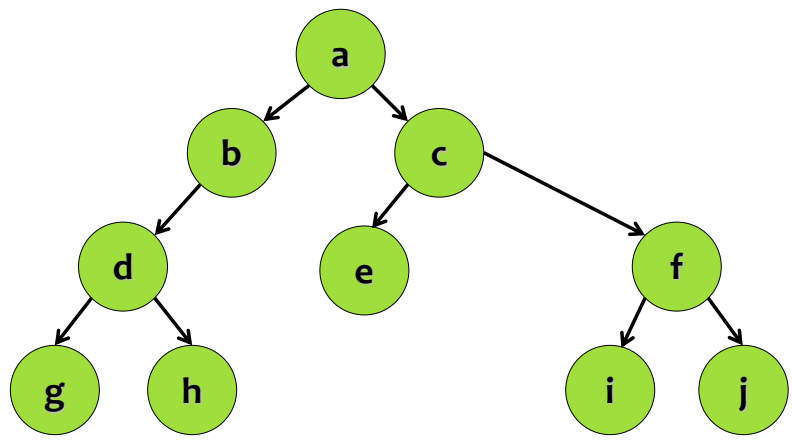


Strana • 51



# PREORDER example (10/10)

Traversal order: a, b, d, g, h, c, e, f, i, j

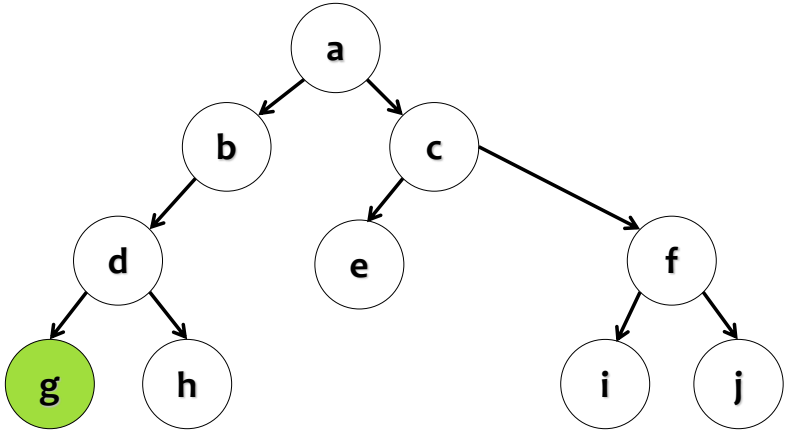


Strana • 52



# POSTORDER example (1/10)

Traversal order: g

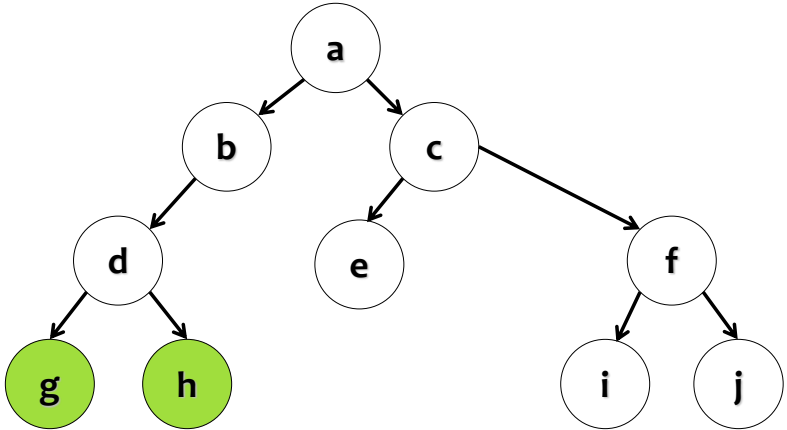


Strana • 53



# POSTORDER example (2/10)

Traversal order: g, h

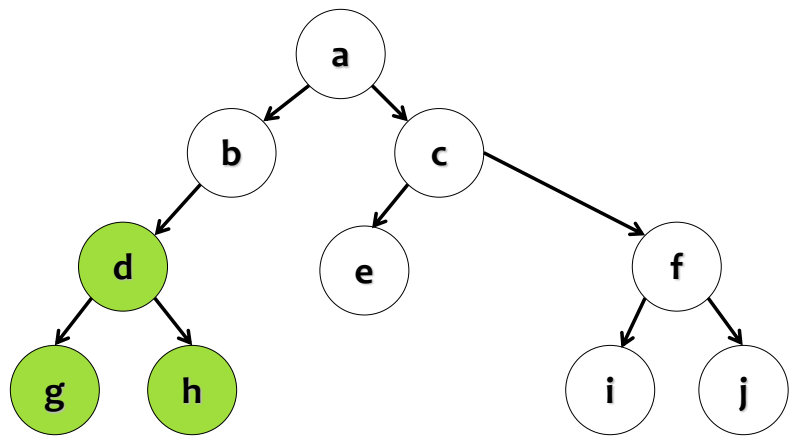


Strana • 54



# POSTORDER example (3/10)

Traversal order: g, h, d

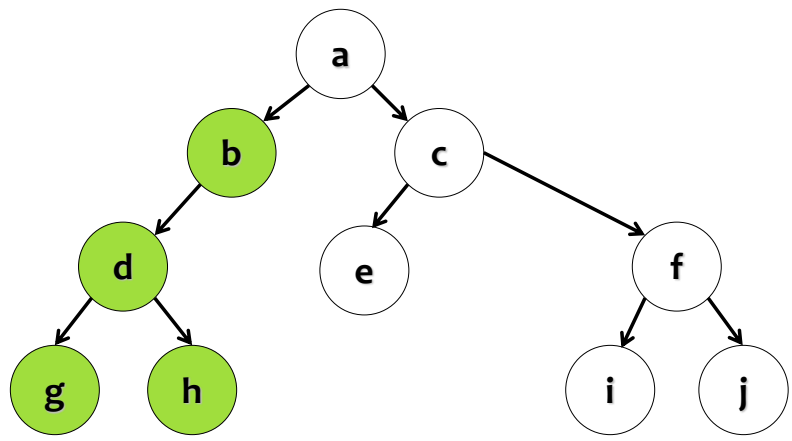


Strana • 55



# POSTORDER example (4/10)

Traversal order: g, h, d, b

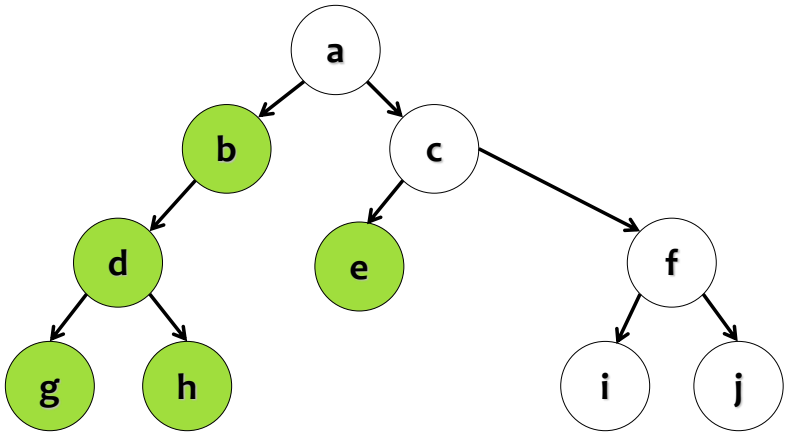


Strana • 56



# POSTORDER example (5/10)

Traversal order: g, h, d, b, e

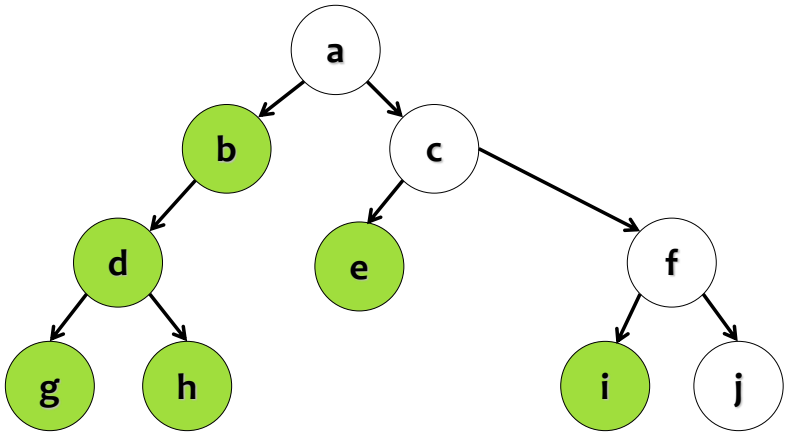


Strana • 57



# POSTORDER example (6/10)

Traversal order: g, h, d, b, e, i

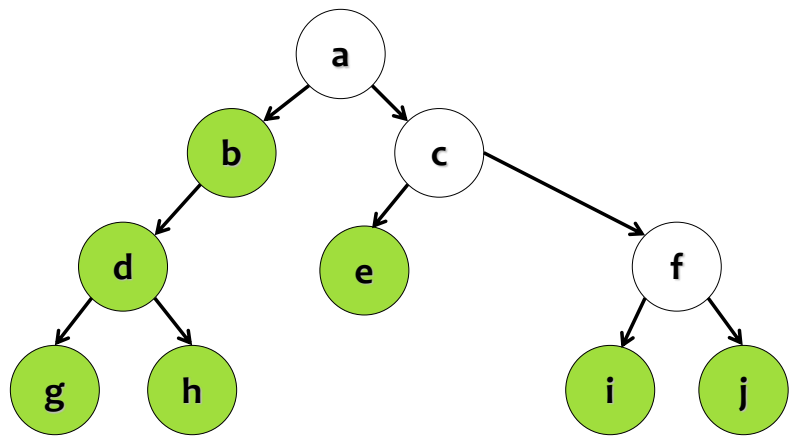


Strana • 58



**POSTORDER example (7/10)**

Traversal order: g, h, d, b, e, i, j

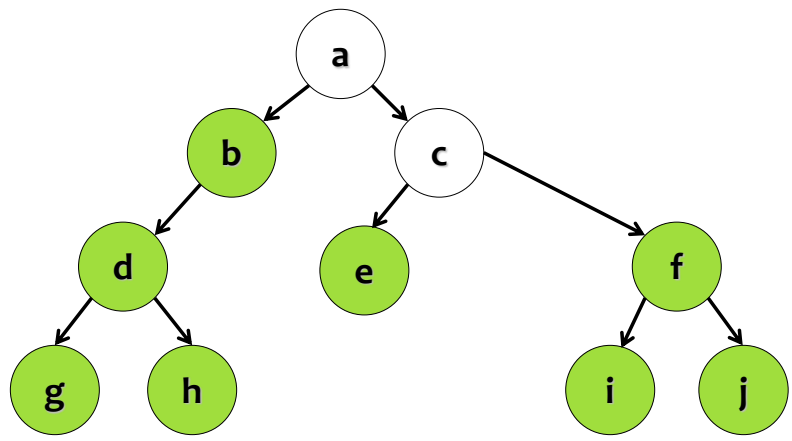


Strana • 59



**POSTORDER example (8/10)**

Traversal order: g, h, d, b, e, i, j, f

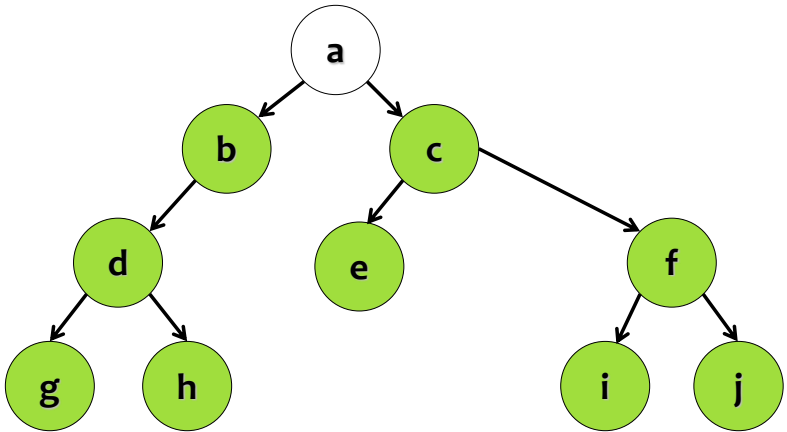


Strana • 60



# POSTORDER example (9/10)

Traversal order: g, h, d, b, e, i, j, f, c

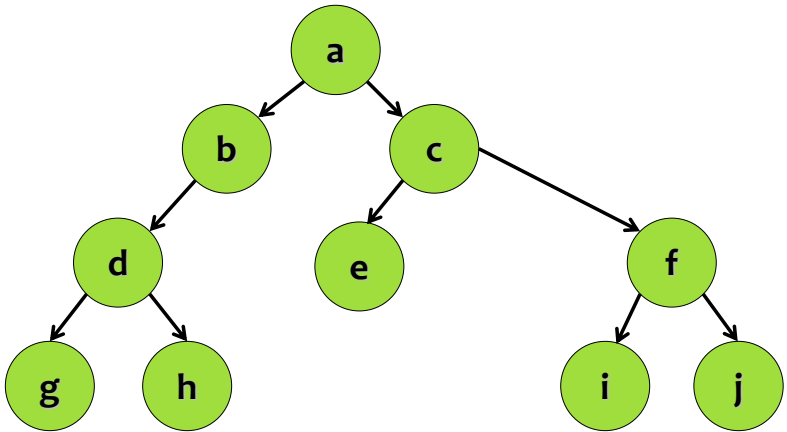


Strana • 61



# POSTORDER example (10/10)

Traversal order: g, h, d, b, e, i, j, f, c, a



Strana • 62



## The order of traversal of all three algorithms

- Order of traversal for INORDER:
  - g, d, h, b, a, e, c, i, f, j
- Order of traversal for PREORDER:
  - a, b, d, g, h, c, e, f, i, j
- Order of traversal for POSTORDER:
  - g, h, d, b, e, i, j, f, c, a

Strana • 63



## BFS algorithm

- The BFS algorithm visits nodes level by level, from left to right:
  1. Take a queue
  2. Add root to the queue
  3. Take the next element A from the queue and display its value
  4. Add the children of node A to the queue
  5. If the queue is not empty, go to step 3
- For example, if the tree displays a hierarchy, then this traversal method first displays those at the top of the hierarchy
- The usage of this algorithm is not so common in practice

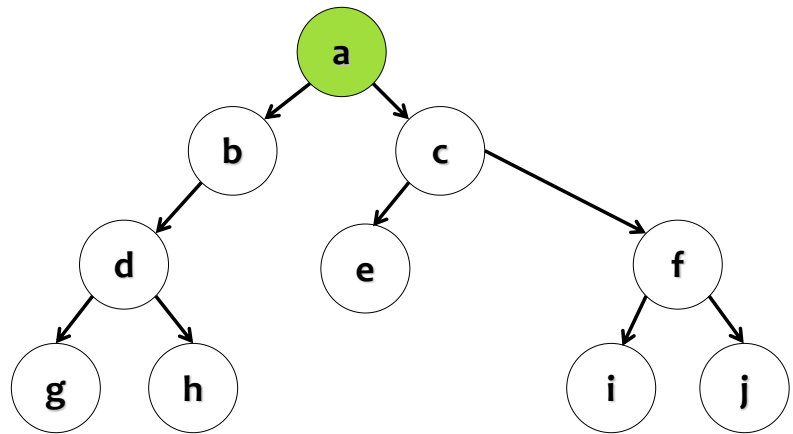
Strana • 64





# BFS example (1/10)

Traversal order: a

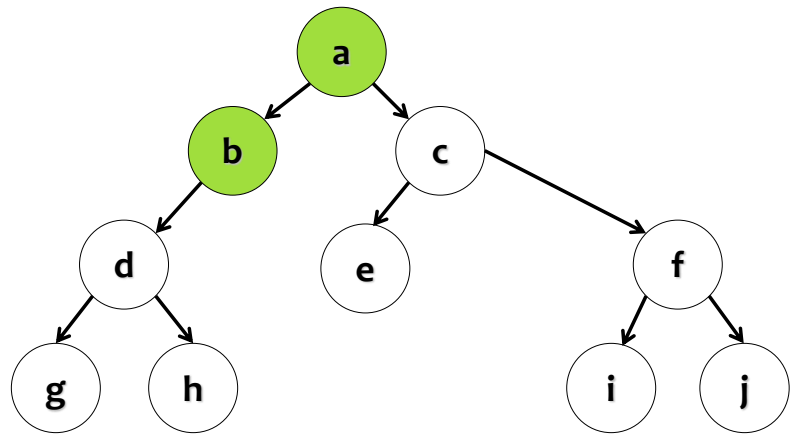


Strana • 65



# BFS example (2/10)

Traversal order: a, b



Strana • 66



BFS example (3/10)

Traversal order: a, b, c

```
graph TD; a((a)) --> b((b)); a --> c((c)); b --> d((d)); b --> e((e)); c --> f((f)); c --> j((j)); d --> g((g)); d --> h((h)); f --> i((i)); f --> j((j));
```

Strana • 67

BFS example (4/10)

Traversal order: a, b, c, d

```
graph TD; a((a)) --> b((b)); a --> c((c)); b --> d((d)); b --> e((e)); c --> f((f)); c --> j((j)); d --> g((g)); d --> h((h)); f --> i((i)); f --> j((j));
```

Strana • 68

BFS example (5/10)

Traversal order: a, b, c, d, e

Strana • 69

BFS example (6/10)

Traversal order: a, b, c, d, e, f

Strana • 70

### BFS example (7/10)

Traversal order: a, b, c, d, e, f, g

```
graph TD; a((a)) --> b((b)); a --> c((c)); b --> d((d)); b --> h1((h)); c --> e((e)); c --> f((f)); d --> g((g)); d --> h2((h)); f --> i((i)); f --> j((j));
```

Strana • 71

### BFS example (8/10)

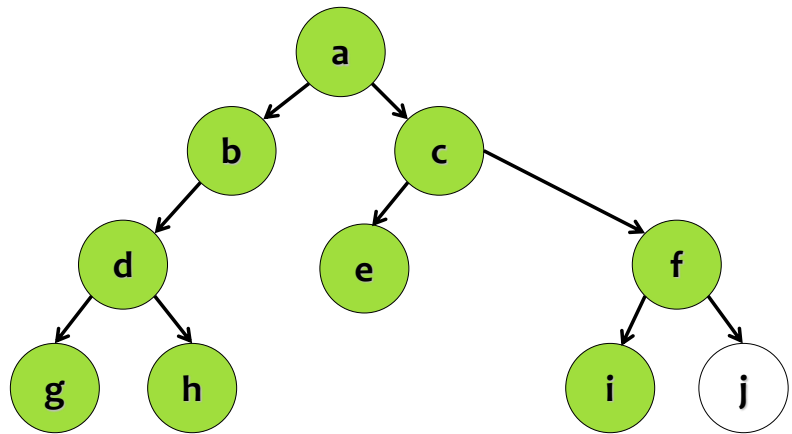
Traversal order: a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h

```
graph TD; a((a)) --> b((b)); a --> c((c)); b --> d((d)); b --> h1((h)); c --> e((e)); c --> f((f)); d --> g((g)); d --> h2((h)); f --> i((i)); f --> j((j));
```

Strana • 72

# BFS example (9/10)

Traversal order: a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i

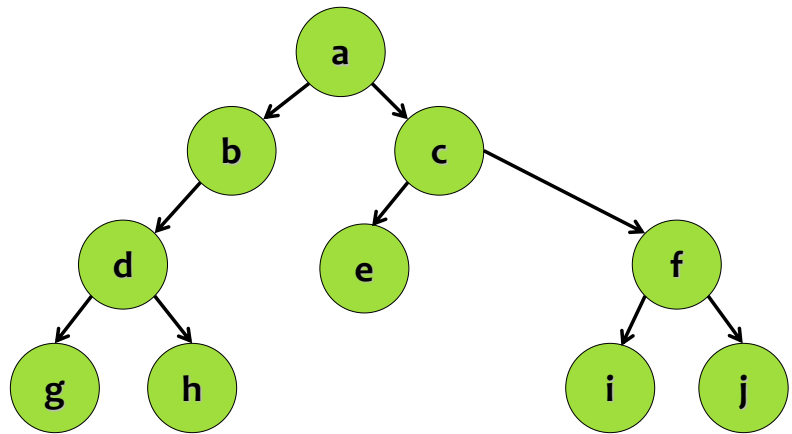


Strana • 73



# BFS example (10/10)

Traversal order: a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j



Strana • 74



# TREE IMPLEMENTATION

Strana • 76



## Introduction

- STL does not contain a "pure" tree implementation
  - The tree is used internally as a support for some containers
- Good implementation is available at <https://github.com/kpeeters/tree.hh>
- We will use our simple implementation
  - Tree traversal methods are missing
  - The destructor is missing

Strana • 77



## Implementation – btree.h

```

struct node {
    string element;
    node* left_child;
    node* right_child;
};

class btree {
private:
    node* root_node;
    node* create_new_node(string element);
public:
    btree(string element);
    void insert_left(node* parent, string element);
    void insert_right(node* parent, string element);
    node* root();
    node* get_left_child(node* parent);
    node* get_right_child(node* parent);
};

```

Strana \* 78



## Implementation – btree.cpp

```

node* btree::create_new_node(string element) {
    node* novi = new node;
    novi->element = element;
    novi->left_child = nullptr;
    novi->right_child = nullptr;
    return novi;
}

btree::btree(string element) {
    root_node = create_new_node(element);
}

void btree::insert_left(node* parent, string element) {
    parent->left_child = create_new_node(element);
}

```

Strana \* 79



## Implementation – btree.cpp

```
void btree::insert_right(node* parent, string element) {
    parent->right_child = create_new_node(element);
}

node* btree::root() {
    return root_node;
}

node* btree::get_left_child(node* parent) {
    return parent->left_child;
}

node* btree::get_right_child(node* parent) {
    return parent->right_child;
}
```

Strana • 80



## Usage example

```
btree t("A");

node* node_a = t.root();
t.insert_left(node_a, "B");

node* node_b = t.get_left_child(node_a);
t.insert_left(node_b, "C");

node* node_c = t.get_left_child(node_b);
t.insert_left(node_c, "D");

node* node_d = t.get_left_child(node_c);
t.insert_left(node_d, "E");
```

Strana • 81

