CS 310: Trees (Part I)

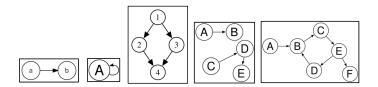
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(Rooted) Trees

- A set of nodes and edges with no cycles
 - Edges point from parent to child
- One special node serves as the root
 - There is exactly one incoming edge per node per root
 - There is a unique path which traverses from the root to each node

Examples

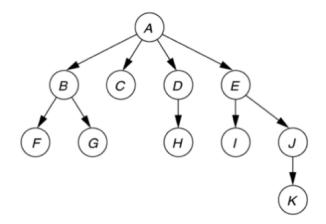


- From left to right:
 - Tree
 - Not a tree (it's cyclic)
 - Not a tree (more than one parent)
 - Not a tree (disjoint), or two trees, depending on how you look at it
 - Not a tree (more than one parent)

Tree Definitions

- Node relationship:
 - The descendants of a node x are all the nodes that we can reach by following the paths starting from x (and sometimes includes the node x itself)
 - The ancestors of a node x are the nodes on the path from the root to x (and sometimes includes the node x itself)
 - Nodes are *siblings* if they have the same parent
- Special nodes:
 - The root node is a node that has no parent there is only one root node in a rooted tree
 - A leaf node has no children

Examples

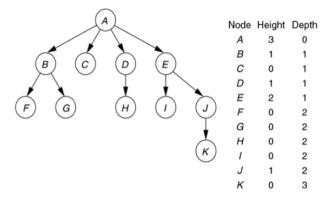


- What is the root node?
 - -A
- What are the leaf nodes?
 - -F,G,C,H,I and K
- What is the parent of H?
 - -D
- What are the children of B?
 - F and G
- What are the ancestors of G?
 - B and A
- What are the descendants of E?
 - -I, J, and K
- What are the siblings of C?
 - -B, D, and E

Tree Properties

- Size (the number of nodes)
- Node height (the number of levels)
 - The node height is the length of the path (number of edges) from the node to the deepest leaf
 - The tree height is the height of the root
- Node depth (distance from the root)
 - The depth of a node is the length of the path from the root to the node

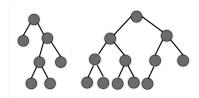
Example



Tree Features

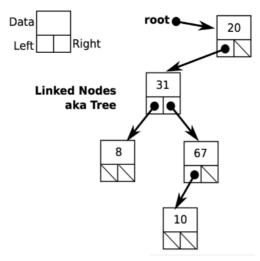
- Balanced tree
 - For a binary tree, the height of the left and right sub-trees of every node differ by 1 or 0 (as used by an AVL tree)
- Full tree
 - Every node other than the leaves has the maximum number of children
- Perfect tree
 - A full tree in which all leaves have the same depth
- Complete tree (an almost perfect tree)
 - A tree that is completely filled, with the possible exception of the bottom level, which is filled from left to right and has no missing nodes

Examples (Binary Trees)



- Left: a full tree
- Right: a balanced and (nearly) complete tree

Trees Implemented with Linked Nodes



- Node structures are typically used for linked lists (owing to the singly-linked next/data idea)
- Trees also use nodes
 - Data, pointers to children, possibly pointers to parents
 - Binary trees have left and right children:

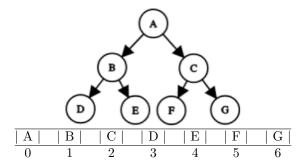
```
class Node<T> {
    T data;
    Node<T> left, right;
}
```

• Trees must have a finite number of children – however, the maximum number of children is arbitrary

Trees Implemented with Arrays

- Store nodes in an array in level order
 - Start with the root
 - Left to right for each level
 - Reserve space for missing nodes
- Used to represent k-ary tree
 - Each parent can have at most k children
 - Binary tree when k=2
- Works the best with trees of a regular structures
 - Trees that are perfect or complete don't have (or have small) gaps
 - There's less wasted memory then

Binary Tree with an Array



- Root is at index 0
- Parent at index p:
 - Left child: 2p + 1- Right child: 2p + 2
- Child at index c:
 - Parent at index $\lfloor (c-1)/2 \rfloor$

Binary Tree with an Array

- Complete binary trees
 - The array is filled left to right
- Arbitrary binary trees
 - Some elements of the array can be null

Tree Implementations

- Arrays
 - Fast memory access
 - Must have a fixed branching factor
 - Inefficient use of memory
 - Common for regular and stable structures like complete binary trees
- Linked nodes
 - Easy to move around
 - Easier to deal with arbitrary trees

Tree Applications

- Model hierarchical structures
 - File systems, class inheritance
- Store sorted data and support efficient search and insertion
 - Search trees or ordered trees in $O(\log(n))$ time
 - Sorted lists and hash tables also come into play

- Many others
 - Expression trees
 - Huffman coding

Common Tree Operations

- Searching for an item
- Adding items
- Deleting items
- Balancing
- Iterating through the tree
 - Selecting part of the tree

Recursion

- Recursion: something defined in terms of itself
- Function recursion: when a function invokes itself
 - Two types of function recursion:
 - * Direct: a function invokes itself
 - * Indirect: foo invokes bar, and bar invokes foo

Example: Factorial

• Mathematically:

$$n! = \begin{cases} 1 & n \le 1\\ (n-1)! & n > 1 \end{cases}$$

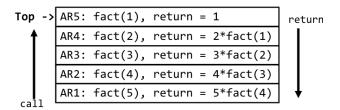
• Programatically:

```
public static int factorial(int n) {
    return (n <= 1) ? 1 : n * factorial(n - 1);
}</pre>
```

Recursion Basics

- Think of your task in terms of a "base case" and a "recursive case"
- The base case is the answer which is directly calculated with no recursion
- The recursive case is the answer to be calculated by repeated application
 - It is crucial that repeated application of the definition make progress towards the base case

Recursive Function Execution



- Each recursive call is distinct
 - There is a separate frame or activation record on the runtime stack for each call
 - It's as if they're separate functions with the same implementation

Common Issues with Recursion

- The base case is unreachable
 - If the recursive definition never triggers the base case, it will never stop
 - $-\,$ Don't put the base case after the recursive call $-\,$ it'll never be reached
- The recursive case doesn't make progress towards the base case
- Space or time efficiency matters

Example

• Consider the following definition of the Fibonacci numbers

```
public static int fib(int n) {
    return (n <= 2) ? 1 : fib(n - 1) + fib(n - 2);
}</pre>
```

- For a call to fib(5), how many additional calls are made?
 - Nine calls
 - It's $O(2^n)$