

Binary Trees

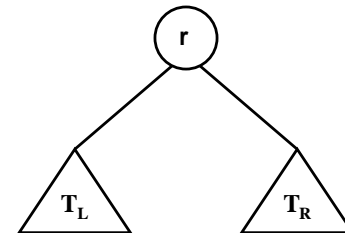
The linear access time of lists makes them prohibitive for large input sets.

- Tree structures:
 - ☐ Efficient access and update to large collections of data
 - ☐ Running time of many operations is $O(\log n)$ (or based on $\log n$)
 - ☐ Some types of trees can guarantee $O(\log n)$ in worst case
 - ☐ Binary trees are widely used, relatively easy to implement
- Uses for Trees
 - ☐ Arithmetic expression evaluation
 - ☐ Storing/searching data
 - ☐ Sorting, priority queues
 - ☐ Coding, Compression
 - ☐ File systems (general trees)
- Reading: all of Ch. 5

Definitions

The definition of a binary tree is recursive:

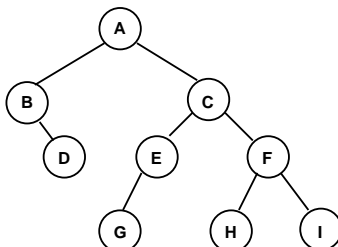
- A **binary tree** is a collection of nodes.
 - ☐ The collection can be empty
 - ☐ Otherwise, a binary tree consists of
 - A distinguished node, r , called the **root**
 - Two binary trees, called the left and right **subtrees**, which may be empty or not
- Binary tree characteristics
 - ☐ The root of each subtree is a **child** of r
 - ☐ r is the **parent** of each subtree root.
 - ☐ Example using recursive definition:



CSC 375-Turner, Page 2

Definitions (cont.)

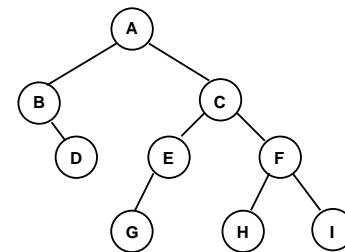
- Binary tree characteristics
 - ☐ **Path** from node n_1 to n_k : a sequence of nodes such that n_i is the parent of n_{i+1} for $1 \leq i < k$
 - ☐ **Length** of a path: the number of edges on the path ($k - 1$ using prior definition)
 - ☐ **Parent** of a node: immediate predecessor along the path from the root to that node
 - ☐ **Child** of a node: any immediate successor along the path from the root *through* that node
 - ☐ If there is a path from n_1 to n_2 then n_1 is an **ancestor** of n_2 and n_2 is a **descendant** of n_1
 - ☐ **Siblings**: nodes with the same parent



CSC 375-Turner, Page 3

Definitions (cont.)

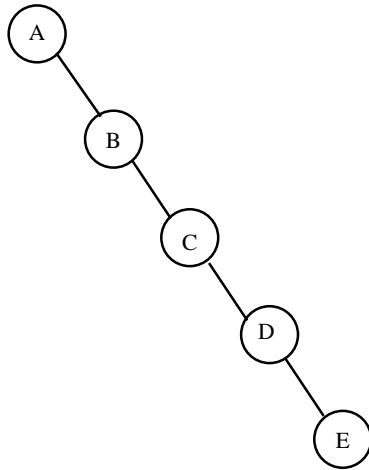
- Binary tree characteristics
 - ☐ **Leaf node**: a node with no children
 - ☐ **Internal node**: a node with at least one child
 - ☐ **Depth** of node n_i : length of the unique path from the root to n_i
 - ☐ **Height** of the tree: one more than the depth of the deepest node in the tree
 - ☐ All nodes of depth d are at **level** d in the tree
 - ☐ The root is at level 0 and has depth 0



CSC 375-Turner, Page 4

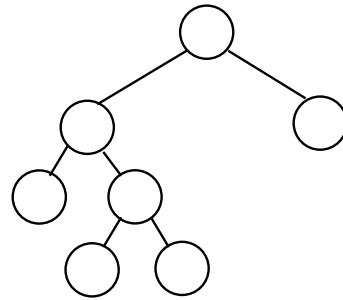
Binary Tree Depth

- Average depth
 - Normal binary trees: $O(\sqrt{n})$
 - Binary search trees: $O(\log n)$
- Worst-case binary tree is $O(n)$:



Full Binary Trees

- **Full binary tree:** each node is either a leaf or an internal node with exactly two nonempty children
 - Example:

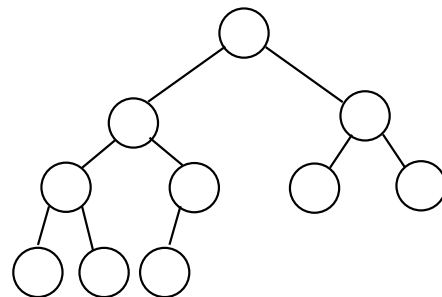


Full Binary Trees

- **Full Binary Tree Theorem:** The number of leaves in a non-empty full binary tree is one more than the number of internal nodes
 - Proof (by Mathematical Induction):
 - Base: a tree with one node has one leaf and no internal nodes.
 - Induction Hypothesis: Assume any FBT containing $n - 1$ internal nodes has n leaves
 - Induction Step: Select an internal node whose children are both leaves and remove them...
- **Corollary to FBT Theorem:** The number of empty subtrees in a non-empty binary tree is one more than the number of nodes in the tree.
 - Proof: in an arbitrary tree, replace every empty subtree with a leaf node...

Complete Binary Trees

- **Complete binary tree:**
 - If the height of the tree is d , then all leaves except possibly level d are completely full.
 - The bottom level fills from left to right (all nodes are to the left)



Binary Tree Node ADT

- Abstract Base Class Node:

```
template <class Elem>
class BinNode {
public:
    virtual Elem & val() = 0;
    virtual void setVal (const Elem &) = 0;
    virtual BinNode* left() const = 0;
    virtual void setLeft (BinNode*) = 0;
    virtual BinNode* right() const = 0;
    virtual void setRight (BinNode*) = 0;
    virtual bool isLeaf() = 0;
};
```

Binary Tree Traversals

A traversal is the act of visiting each node in the tree in some systematic fashion.

- A traversal that lists every node exactly once is called an **enumeration**
- Each visit involves some sort of work
- Traversals are usually defined recursively
- Three types:
 - ☐ Inorder: visit left subtree, then parent, then right subtree
 - ☐ Preorder: visit parent, then both subtrees
 - ☐ Postorder: visit both subtrees, then parent
 - ☐ Example:

```
template <class Elem>
void preorder(BinNode<Elem>* subroot) {
    if (subroot != NULL) {
        visit(subroot);
        preorder(subroot -> left());
        preorder(subroot -> right());
    }
}
```

Binary Tree Node Implementations

- Pointer-based nodes are most common
- How can we differentiate leaf and internal nodes? (And, should we?)
 - ☐ C++ Union construct
 - ☐ Use base class/subclass implementation
 - ☐ Don't
- Example: A simple node implementation (this one does not differentiate)

```
template <class Elem>
class BinaryNode {
public:
    Elem element;
    BinaryNode *left;
    BinaryNode *right;
};
```

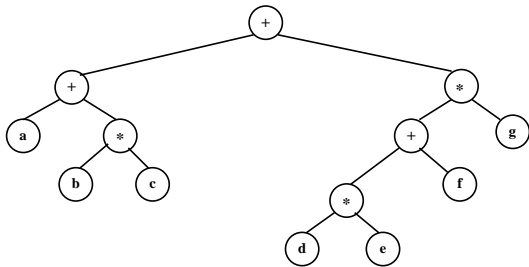
Union Implementation

- Primary problem is space inefficiency:

```
enum Nodetype {leaf, internal};
class VarBinNode {
public:
    Nodetype mytype;
    union {
        struct {
            VarBinNode *left;
            VarBinNode *right;
            operator opx;
        } intl;
        Operand var;
    }
};
```

Expression Trees

- Nodes:
 - Leaves are operands
 - Internal nodes are operators
- Expression tree for $(a + b * c) + ((d * e + f) * g)$



Constructing an Expression Tree

- Convert postfix expression to a tree
- Uses a stack to store the postfix expression
 - Pseudocode algorithm:

```
while (not end of postfix-expression) {
    read next symbol
    if symbol is an operand {
        create a one-node tree using operand
        push that tree onto the stack
    }
    else { // symbol is operator
        pop tree T1 from the stack
        pop tree T2 from the stack
        Form a new tree whose root is the operator
        T1 is right child
        T2 is left child
        push new tree onto stack
    }
}
```

Using Inheritance (1)

- Create an abstract base class to differentiate
- Base class and Leaf node:

```
class VarBinNode {
public:
    virtual bool isLeaf() = 0;
};

class LeafNode : public VarBinNode {
private:
    Operand Var;
public:
    LeafNode(const Operand & val) {
        var = val;
    }
    bool isLeaf() { return true; }
    Operand value() { return var; }
};
```

Using Inheritance (2)

- Internal Node:

```
class IntlNode : public VarBinNode {
private:
    VarBinNode *left;
    VarBinNode *right;
    Operator opx;
public:
    IntlNode(const Operator& op,
             VarBinNode *l, VarBinNode *r) {
        opx = op;
        left = l;
        right = r;
    }
    bool isLeaf() { return false; }
    VarBinNode *leftChild() { return left; }
    VarBinNode *rightChild() { return right; }
    Operator value() { return opx; }
};
```

Using Inheritance (3)

- Composite implementation

- Base class and Leaf node:

```
class VarBinNode {
public:
    virtual bool isLeaf() = 0;
    virtual void trav() = 0;
};

class LeafNode : public VarBinNode {
private:
    Operand Var;
public:
    LeafNode(const Operand & val) {
        var = val;
    }
    bool isLeaf() { return true; }
    Operand value() { return var; }
    void trav() {
        cout << "Leaf: " << value() << endl;
    }
};
```

Using Inheritance (4)

- Composite Implementation

- Internal Node:

```
class IntlNode : public VarBinNode {
private:
    VarBinNode *left;
    VarBinNode *right;
    Operator opx;
public:
    IntlNode(const Operator& op,
             VarBinNode *l, VarBinNode *r) {
        opx = op;
        left = l;
        right = r;
    }
    bool isLeaf() { return false; }
    VarBinNode *leftChild() { return left; }
    VarBinNode *rightChild() { return right; }
    Operator value() { return opx; }
    void trav() {
        cout << "Internal: " << value() << endl;
        if (left() != NULL) left() -> trav();
        if (right() != NULL) right() -> trav();
    }

    void traverse(VarBinNode *root) {
        if (root != NULL) root -> trav();
    }
};
```

Space Overhead

- FBT Theorem:

- ☐ (Roughly) half the pointers are NULL
- ☐ If leaves store only data, then overhead depends whether the tree is full
- ☐ Example: all nodes are the same, with two pointers to children
 - Overhead fraction: $o_f = o/t$
 - Total space: $t = n(2p + d)$
 - Overhead: $o = 2pn$
 - If $p = d$, then $o_f = 2p/(2p + d) = 2/3$
- ☐ Eliminate pointers from leaf nodes:
 - Overhead

$$o = \frac{n}{2}(2p)$$

- Total space

$$t = \frac{n}{2}(2p) + dn$$

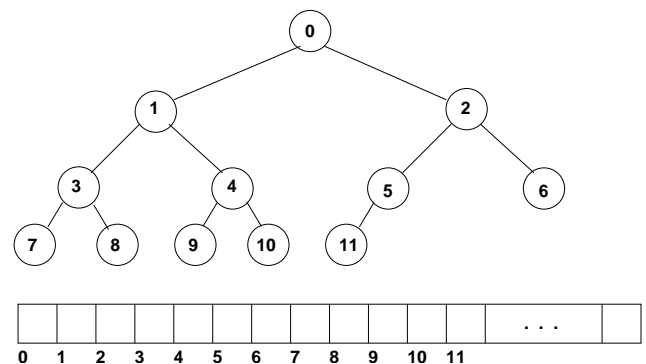
- Overhead fraction

$$o_f = \frac{n/2(2p)}{n/2(2p) + dn} = \frac{p}{p + d}$$

- This is $1/2$ if $p = d$

Array Implementation

- Binary trees may be implemented with arrays
- Structure works best for complete binary trees



- Good example of logical vs. physical implementation
 - ☐ Complete binary tree is very limited
 - ☐ Space efficiency can be achieved

Array Implementation (cont.)

- Functions that may be necessary:

- ☐ Parent(r) =
- ☐ Leftchild(r) =
- ☐ Rightchild(r) =
- ☐ Leftsibling(r) =
- ☐ Rightsibling(r) =

Binary Search Trees

BST property: all elements stored in the left subtree of a node whose value is K have values less than k . all elements stored in the right subtree of a node whose value is k have values $\geq k$.

- The BST property allows elements to be ordered in a consistent manner
- Examples:
 - ☐ Insert 37, 24, 42, 7, 2, 40, 42, 32, 120
 - ☐ Insert 120, 42, 42, 7, 2, 32, 37, 24, 40

BST Node Class

- Code example uses friends and templates

```
template <class Comparable>
class BinarySearchTree;

template <class Comparable>
class BinaryNode
{
    Comparable element;
    BinaryNode *left;
    BinaryNode *right;

    BinaryNode(const Comparable &theElement,
               BinaryNode *lt, BinaryNode *rt)
        : element(theElement), left(lt), right(rt) { }
    friend class BinarySearchTree<Comparable>;
};
```

- Note: "Comparable" is used as a reminder
- No substantive difference from your basic binary node
- (See web site for book examples)

BST Operations

- Retrieving information:
 - ☐ find: return a pointer to that node
 - ☐ Options for failure of find:
 - throw an exception
 - return boolean as a reference or otherwise
 - return a special value
 - ☐ findMin: find the smallest element in a given (sub)tree
 - ☐ findMax: find the largest element in a given (sub)tree
- Operations that modify the tree
 - ☐ insert: insert according to BST property
 - ☐ remove: remove an element
 - ☐ removeMin: remove the smallest element (may be used by remove)
 - ☐ removeAny: remove the smallest element (used by Shaffer's dictionary ADT)
- See web site for Book's code examples

BST Insert and Remove

- Insert is relatively easy: preserve BST property
- Remove is the most difficult operation
- Three cases:
 - ☐ Remove a leaf
 - ☐ Remove a node that has one child
 - ☐ Remove a node that has two children
 - General strategy: replace node with smallest value of right subtree
- Examples:

Cost of BST Operations

- Find:
- Insert
- Remove

Heaps

- Sometimes, FIFO is not the best policy:
 - ☐ More important jobs may need to be processed first
 - ☐ Very long jobs may need to be processed last
 - ☐ Examples:
 - Print jobs
 - Multiuser OS process scheduling
- A **priority queue** can be used to satisfy this kind of environment.
 - ☐ A priority queue allows jobs to be ordered according to priority
 - ☐ Often, it supports only a small number of public operations:
 - **insert**: insert an element into the queue
 - **removeMin** removes the minimum value
 - Alternative: **removeMax** removes the maximum value

Heap Concept

A heap is a complete binary tree having the **heap property**

- Heap property:
 - ☐ In a min-heap, the value at a node is less than (or equal to) values at child nodes.
 - ☐ In a max-heap, the value at a node is greater than (or equal to) values at child nodes.
- Values in a heap are **partially ordered**
 - ☐ There is a relationship between the node and its children
 - ☐ There is **no** defined relationship between siblings (may be $>$ or \geq or $<$ or \leq in either direction)
- Heap representations are complete binary trees that (normally) use array-based implementations

Heap Operations

- Public operations that may be implemented:
 - ☐ **insert**: insert an element
 - ☐ **removeMax** or **removeMin**: remove the "first" element
 - ☐ **remove**: remove a specific element
 - ☐ **isEmpty**
 - ☐ **isFull**
 - ☐ **findMax** or **findMin**: find the "first" element
 - ☐ **buildHeap**: "heapify" the contents (may be a private operation)
 - ☐ **leftchild**, **rightchild**, **parent**, **isLeaf**: standard binary tree operations

Heap ADT

- Max heap that uses the binary tree array representation

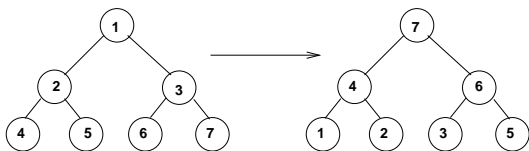
```
template <Class Elem, class Comp>
class maxheap {
private:
    Elem* heap;           // Pointer to heap array
    int size;             // Max heap size
    int n;                // Current no. elements stored
    void siftDown(int);   // Put an element in its place

public:
    maxheap(Elem*, int, int);
    int heapSize() const;
    bool isLeaf(int pos) const;
    int leftChild(int) const;
    int rightChild(int) const;
    int parent(int) const;
    void insert(const Elem&);
    bool removeMax(Elem&);
    bool remove(int, Elem&);
    void buildheap();
};
```

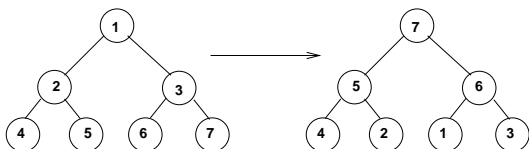
Building a Heap

What is the most efficient way to build a max heap?

- Example: exchange (4-2), (4-1), (2-1), (5-2), (5-4), (6-3), (6-5), (7-5), (7-6)



- Example: exchange (5-2), (7-3), (7-1), (6-1)

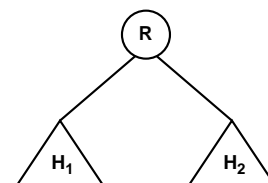


- It is undesirable to build a heap as you would a BST

How to Build a Max Heap

The process works in a fashion similar to an inductive proof.

- Given that H_1 and H_2 are already (max) heaps and R is element at root:



- Two possibilities exist:
 - ☐ $R \geq$ its two children: construction is complete
 - ☐ $R <$ one or both children: push R to its proper level as follows:
 - Exchange R with the greater-valued child
 - As long as R is out of place, descend through the tree with it until it reaches its proper place

Siftdown

- Siftdown accomplishes the “descend” process:

```
void maxheap::siftdown(int pos) {
    while (!isLeaf(pos)) {
        int newpos = leftchild(pos);
        int rc = rightchild(pos);
        if ((rc < n) && (heap[newpos] < heap[rc]))
            newpos = rc;
        if (heap[pos] < heap[newpos]) {
            swap(Heap, pos, newpos);
            pos = newpos;
        }
    }
}
```

- (See web site for templated version)
- Example(s):

Efficient Heap Build

For fast heap construction:

- Fill the array in input order
- Call `buildheap` procedure:
 - ☐ Works from high end of the array to low end
 - ☐ Calls `siftdown` for each item
 - ☐ Does not need to call `siftdown` for any leaf node.
- Example:
 - ☐ input file contains 42, 21, 33, 9, 12, 6, 7, 18, 72

Cost for Buildheap

- Given an unordered array, heap construction is very efficient:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\log n} (i-1)n/2^i \approx n$$

- Idea:
 - ☐ Count the distance each element must go to reach final level
 - Only count downward moves
 - Once a node is processed, all nodes below it **must** be correct
 - ☐ Given a heap of height d , up to half the nodes are at depth $d \dots$

Applications

- Selection Problem
- Event Simulation; ex: operation of a bank
 - ☐ Events:
 - customer arrival
 - customer departure
 - ☐ Simulation proceeds in “stages” based on events
 - ☐ Key idea is to advance the clock to next event at every stage:
 - When next customer in input file arrives
 - When a customer departs
 - ☐ Waiting line for customers is a queue
 - ☐ Waiting line for departures is a priority queue (heap)

Huffman Coding Trees

Using fixed length codes can waste space

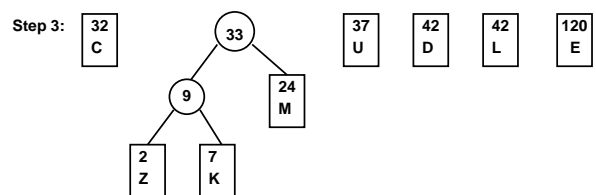
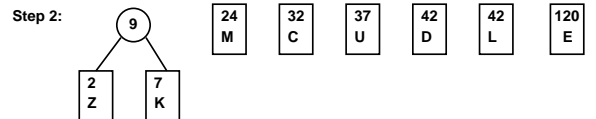
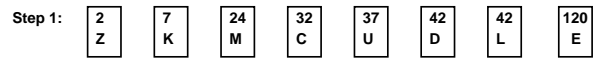
- Fixed length codes:
 - ASCII: 8 bits per character
 - Unicode: 16 bits per character
- Natural language does not have a uniform distribution of letters
 - Relative frequency of letters can be exploited
 - Variable length coding:

Z	K	F	C	U	D	L	E
2	7	24	32	37	42	42	120
 - Desire is to build the tree with **minimum external path weight**
 - Weighted path length** of a leaf: weight of the leaf times its depth
 - The binary tree with minimum external path weight is the one with the minimum sum of weighted path lengths for a given set of leaves
 - Ex: a letter with high weight should have low depth to minimize its cost

CSC 375-Turner, Page 37

Huffman Tree Construction

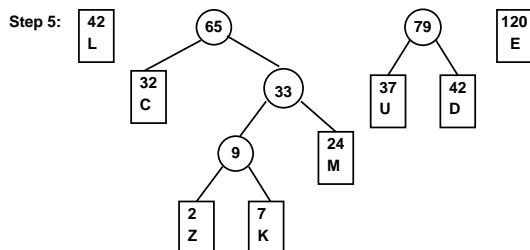
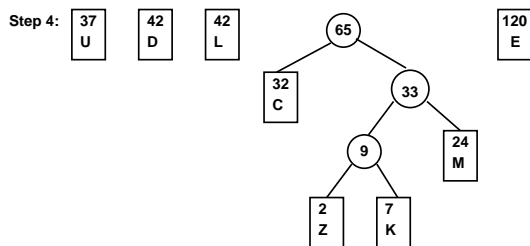
- Create a list of nodes
 - Node contains letter/frequency pairs
 - Nodes are in increasing order of frequency
 - At each step, combine two smallest nodes into a binary tree and reorder as needed



CSC 375-Turner, Page 38

Huffman Tree Construction (cont.)

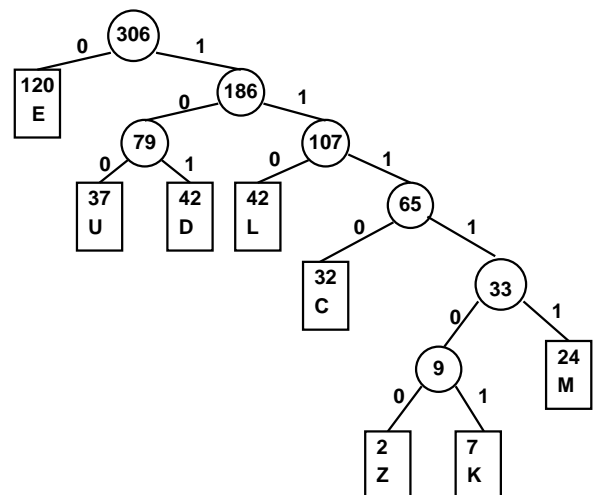
- Process continues until entire tree is built.



CSC 375-Turner, Page 39

Assigning Codes

- Use the completed tree
 - Right branch assigns 1 bit
 - Left branch assigns 0 bit



CSC 375-Turner, Page 40

Coding and Decoding

- A set of codes meets the **prefix property** if no code in the set is the prefix of another

- Examples:

☐ Code for DEED:

☐ Decode 1011001110111101

☐ Expected cost per letter: