Tree 2

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Binary Tree Traversal and Tree Iterators

- "Iterator": A term (programming style) in C++, you have a container, design an iterator to visit every one in the container.
- Now a tree is a container, there are different ways that systematically visit every node in the tree- tree traversal.
- A traversal produces a linear order.

Binary Tree Traversal

- ▶ Let L, V, and R stand for: at a node, we move left (L), visit the node (V), moving right (R),
- then there are 6 possible combination: LVR, LRV, VLR, VRL, RVL, RLV.
- Suppose that we always "moving left" before "moving right", there are LVR, LRV, and VLR.
- To these, we assign inorder, postorder, and preorder.
- The position of V is "in between", "after", and "before", "moving left" and "moving right".

Traversal and Expession

- Given the binary tree as in Figure 5.16
- It contains binary operators and operands
- for an operator, left subtree stands for left operand, right subtree stands for right operand.
- inorder traversal produces infix expression, postorder traversal produces postfix expression.

Inorder Traversal

```
template <class T>
void Tree < T > :: Inorder()
  Inorder(root);
template <Class T>
void Tree < T > :: Inorder(TreeNode < T > *currentNode)
  if (currentNode) {
    Inorder(currentNode-> leftChild);
    Visit(currentNode);
    Inorder(CurrentNode->rightChild);
} run though Figure 5.16 A/B*C*D+E
```

Preorder Traversal

```
template <class T>
void Tree < T > :: Preorder()
  Preorder(root);
template <Class T>
void Tree < T > :: Preorder(TreeNode < T > *currentNode)
  if (currentNode) {
    Visit(currentNode);
    Preorder(currentNode-> leftChild);
    Preorder(CurrentNode->rightChild);
} run though Figure 5.16 +**/ABCDE
```

Postorder Traversal

```
template <class T>
void Tree < T > :: Postorder()
  Postorder(root);
template <Class T>
void Tree < T > :: Postorder(TreeNode < T > *currentNode)
  if (currentNode) {
    Postorder(currentNode -> leftChild);
    Postorder(CurrentNode->rightChild);
    Visit(currentNode);
} run though Figure 5.16 AB/C*D*E+
```

Iterative Inorder Traversal

```
template <class T > void Tree < T > :: NonrecInorder() { Stack < TreeNode < T > * > s; declare and initialize stack TreeNode < T > * currentNode = root; while(1) { while (currentNode) { s.Push(currentNode); currentNode = currentNode - > leftChild; }
```

```
if (s.IsEmpty()) return;
    currentNode = s.Top();
    s.Pop();
    Visit(currentNode);
    currentNode = currentNode -> rightChild;
}
```

- Need a stack
- Push a node into stack then move left until left subtree is traversed,
- then get one from top of the stack,
- traverse right subtree.

- Can we traverse without a stack?
- A possible approach is to add a parent field to each node.
- Another approach is to use thread: Threaded binary tree.

Level-Order Traversal

```
\gamma
\exists Tree < T > :: LevelOrder()
Queue < TreeNode < T > * > q;
TreeNode < T > * currentNode = root;
hile (currentNode) {
Visit(currentNode);
if (currentNode - > leftChild) q.Push(currentNode - > leftChild);
if (currentNode->rightChild) q.Push(currentNode->rightChild);
if (q.IsEmpty()) return;
currentNode = q.Front();
q.Pop()
```

The Satisfiability Problem

- A set of formulas constructed by taking variables x_1 , x_2 , ..., and operators, \land and, \lor or and \neg not.
- Variable holds two possible values, true or false.
- The set of formulas using these variables and operators is defined by the rules,
 - 1. a variable is an expression,
 - 2. if x and y are expressions then $x \wedge y$, $x \vee y$, and $\neg x$ are expressions.
 - 3. parentheses can be used to alter the normal order of evaluation, which is **not** before **and** before **or**.
- Propositional calculus.

$$x_1 \lor (x_2 \land \neg x_3)$$

is a formula.

- if x_1 and x_3 are false and x_2 is true,
- $false \lor (true \land \neg false)$
- \bullet = $false \lor true$
- \blacksquare = true
- "Satisfiability Problem": for formulas or propositional calculus asks if there is an assignment of values to the variables that causes the value of the expression to be true.

$$(x_1 \wedge \neg x_2) \vee (\neg x_1 \wedge x_3) \vee \neg x_3$$

- Assume the formula is in the tree Figure 5.18.
- Inorder traversal of the tree gives $x_1 \wedge \neg x_2 \vee \neg x_1 \wedge x_3 \vee \neg x_3$,
- infix form of the expression
- to determine the satisfiability, to let (x_1, x_2, x_3) take all possible combinations of true and false.
- For n variables, 2^n possible combinations for true and false.
- To evaluate the expression, postorder traverse the tree,
- when we visit an operator node, left subtree and right subtree are visited, we can then get the result after the operator applied.

Threaded Binary Trees

- In linked representation of any binary tree, there are more 0-links than actual pointers.
- Suppose there are n nodes (2n links), n+1 0-links and n-1 actual pointers.
- to replace the 0-links by pointers, called threads, to other nodes in the tree.

- The threads are constructed using the rules,
 - 1. A 0 rightChild field in node p is replaced by a pointer to the node that would be visited after p when traversing the tree in inorder. It is replaced by the inorder successor of p.
 - 2. A 0 leftChild link at node p is replaced by a pointer to the node that immediately precedes node p in inorder. Replaced by the inorder predecessor of p.
- Figure 5.20 shows the threaded binary tree of Figure 5.10 b. And Figure 5.21, a node in the threaded binary tree. To prevent special case of an empty tree, a head node (Figure 5.22).
- Inorder traversal, $x > rightThread == \mathbf{true}$, x > rightChild poitns to the inorder successor of x.

. . .

Insertion a Node into a Threaded Binary Tree

- Only look at the example of inserting r as the right child of a node s.
- Two cases,
 - 1. If s has an empty right subtree, then the insertion is simply and shown in Figure 5.23.
 - 2. If the right child of s is not empty, then the right subtree of s is made the right subtree of r after insertion. Figure 5.23.
- Time complexity?

Heaps

- Priority Queue, a kind of queue that
 - delete the largest (or the smallest)
 - At any time, insert arbitrary priority into the queue.
- Implemented by using an unsorted array.
- Implemented by using a sorted array.
- A heap can do these operations in $O(\log n)$ time.

Definition: A max (min) tree is a tree in which the key value in each node is no smaller (larger) that the key values in its children.

Definition: A $max\ heap$ is a complete binary tree that is also a max tree.

Definition: A $min\ heap$ is a complete binary tree that is also a min tree.

- Some examples are shown in Figure 5.24, 5.25.
- Note that a complete tree can be stored in an array.
- ▶ Figure 5.26, insertion, Figure 5.27 deletion both can be done in $O(\log n)$ time.

Binary Search Trees

A "dictionary" is a collection of pairs, each pair has a key and an associated element. (Assume that all pairs are distinct.)

```
template <class K, class E> class Dictionary { public: virtual bool IsEmpty() const = 0; virtual pair < K, E > * Get(const <math>K\&) const =0; virtual void Insert(const pair < K, E > \&)=0; virtual void Delete (const K\&) =0; };
```

Implement a Dictionary

- Unsorted array
- Sorted array
- Linked list,
- Make a linked list to support binary search.

Definition: A "binary search tree" is a binary tree. It may be empty. If it is not empty, then it satisfies the following properties:

- 1. Every element has a key (assuming distinct at present time).
- 2. The keys (if any) in the left subtree are smaller than the key in the root.
- 3. The keys (if any) in the right subtree are larger than the key in the root.
- 4. The left and right subtrees are also binary search trees. Figure 5.28.

Given a binary search tree, and a key k, a search is done by

- suppose we are calling BinarySearch(p), p the node we are at.
- if p == 0 return 0;
- if (k data) return BinarySearch(p > leftChild),
- if (k > p > data) return BinarySearch(p > rightChild),
- if none of the above, this must be the case, we have a succesful search. p->data==key, return p->data,

Time required proportinal to the number of node visited, $O(h)\ h$ is the depth of the tree.

What if we are looking for the kth largest element in the tree.

- Define the "rank" of a node: its position in inorder.
- Each node should have another additional field, leftSize, the number of nodes in the left subtree.
- So the search will be k == (p > leftSize + 1) we are done,
- Otherwise if $(k \le p > leftSize)$, we search on the left subtree, and
- if $(k \ge p > leftSize)$, we search on the right subtree.
- Again, time depends on the number of node visited, O(h).

Insertion into a Binary Search Tree

- ullet Given a key k to be inserted.
- Search for k in the tree,
- an unsuccessful search reaches an external node,
- insert the node at the external node.
- Cost for the insertion, search O(h), insertion $\Theta(1)$.

Deletion from a Binary Search Tree

- Given a key k to be deleted.
- Search for k in the Binary search tree,
- if an external node is reached, an unsuccessful search
- ullet otherwise we should stop at an internal node p.
- if p has no subtrees or p has one subtree, delete p (similar to that what we have done in processing the linked list).
- \bullet if p has two nonempty subtree,

Joining and Splitting Binary Tree Other than Search, Insertion, and Deletion, there are some other useful operations

- ThreeWayJoin(small, mid, big): there are two binary search tree small and big, and a node middle, make a new tree consists of small, middle, and big.
- TwoWayJoin(small,big), Make small and big a single binary search tree.
- Split(k, small, mid, big), Given a binary search tree T, T will be splitted into small, big, and if k is in T, k will be mid.

Three-way Join

- ullet Get a new node, make it data field to be mid.
- Make small to be its left subtree,
- ullet make big to be its right subtree.
- Time required is $\Theta(1)$.
- Height of the tree is $\max(height(small), height(big)) + 1$.

Two-way Join

- Suppose that one of the small and big is empty, the result is the other.
- If both are non-empty, delete the maximum from the small and let it be mid,
- perform a Three-way join.
- time required
 - Delete maximum from the small, O((h(small)),
 - Three-way Join, $\Theta(1)$

Split at *k*

- Givne a tree T
- If k is less than the root of T, root and the right subtree of root are in the big.
- We may split at the left sub tree of root, the splitted left subtree is T and root and right subtree is big.
- if k greater that the root of T, root and the left subtree must be in small,
- split the right subtree to be T, and the root and the left subtree is small.
- it k is less than the root of T, again, root and the right subtree is in big,

- we split at the left subtree, left subtree is T, append the splitted root and right subtree to the left subtree of the big,
- Note that we can do this without violiting the binary search tree definition
- repeat this process, each time a comparison and than split and append.
- Compare need O(h) time, each append takes $\Theta(1)$ time, total need O(h) time.

Height of a Binary Search Tree with *n* nodes

- Height determines the time required for searching, insertion, deletion, joint, and splitting.
- In the worst case, a skew binary search tree, height is O(n).
- The height is at leat $O(\log n)$.
- Some trees are designed so that the height is always $(\log n)$, such as AVL-tree, 2-3 Tree, we call that height balance tree.

Selection Trees

Problem definition:

- k ordered sequences, called "runs"
- merged into a sequence
- Each runs consists of records, each record has a "key"
- To merge, each time output the record with the smallest key,
- brute force approach, choose the smallest from k runs, need k-1 comparison.
- selection tree can do this in $\log k$ comparisons.
- winner trees and loser trees.

Winner Trees

- A complete binary tree,
- each node represents the smallest the smallest node of its children.
- The root has the smallest. Figure 5.31
- output the smallest can be found at the root,
- suppose the smallest is the head of ith run, take the smallest and put it into the selection tree, and update the tree.
- height of the selection tree, $\Theta(\log k)$.
- if there are n records in k runs, merging can be done in $\Theta(n \log k)$.

Loser Tree

- Do the same thing
- make operations a little bit simpler.
- Each node has a pointer pointing to the head of the loser,
- There a node on the top of the tree which is the overall winner. Figure 5.33
- Remove (output) the overall winner, take the second largest in the run into the selection tree,
- it is simple because the previous loser was there, we can make comparison directly.

Forest

Definition: A forest is a set of $n \ge 0$ disjoint trees.

- Figure 5.34, a 3 trees forest.
- transform a forest into a binary tree:
 - each tree is transformed into a binary tree
 - these tree are linked throug the *rightChild* field.
 - Figure 5.34, the binary tree of previous 3 trees forest.

Representation of Disjoint Sets

- Use of trees in the representation of sets.
- Assume that the sets are numbers 0, 1, 2, ..., n-1. (They can be actually pointers to the name of the sets.)
- Assume that the sets are pairwise disjoint, i.e., S_i and S_j , if $i \neq j$, then $S_i \cap S_j$ is \emptyset .
- An example, in "Equivalence classes", if the relation is "in the same set", there are 3 sets.
- Another example, if n = 10 (0, 1, ..., 9), the elements can be partitioned into three disjoin sets, $S_1 = \{0, 6, 7, 8\}$, $S_2 = \{1, 4, 9\}$, and $S_3 = \{2, 3, 5\}$.
- Figure 5.36 shows a possible representation, the forest representation. Root of the tree, the representative of the set.

The Operations

- *Disjoint* Set Union. If S_i and S_j are two disjoint sets, then the union $S_i \cup S_j = \{0, 6, 7, 8, 1, 4, 9\}$. The two old sets are replaced by the new set which is the union of the previous two.
- Find(i). Find the set containing element i. Find(3) returns S_3 .
- ullet We call this the Union and Find operations.
- $Union(S_i, S_j)$, make one of the roots has the parent pointer points the the root of the other tree. (Figure 5.37).
- Find(k), trace the parent links to the root of the tree.
- Implemented using an array (Figure 5.39).

Performance of *Union* and *Find*

- A single Union, it takes $\Theta(1)$ time.
- A single Find(i), depends on the path length from i to the root.
- Suppose that Union(i, j) makes root of i points to root of j,
- And suppose we have the sequence of operations $Union(0,1), Union(1,2), Union(2,3), Union(3,4), \ldots, Union(n-2,n-1)$ followed by $Find(0), Find(1), \ldots, Find(n-1)$.
- The total cost will be $\sum_{i=1}^{n} i = O(n^2)$.
- Can this be improved? Try to prevent the "bad" union.

Definition Weighting rule for Union(i, j): If the number of nodes in the tree rooted i is less than the number of nodes in the tree rooted j, then make j the parent of i, otherwise make i the parent of j.

- To implement the weighting rule, we need a count field other than the parent field.
- if count[i] == count[j], tie broken arbitrarily.
- It still take $\Theta(1)$ time for a single Union,
- but with the weighting rule, we prevent the bad case,
- but how much can we improve?

Lemma 5.5: Assume that we start with a forest of trees, each having one node. Let T be a tree with m nodes created as a result of a sequence of unions each performed using the weighting rule. The height of T is no greater than $\lfloor \log_2 m + 1 \rfloor$.

Proof: By induction on the number of nodes, m, in T. Clear true for m=1.

Assume it is true for all trees with $i \le m - 1$. We show that it is also true for i = m.

Let T be a tree with m nodes. And T was created by applying the weighting rule Union(k,j). And we let the two trees be denoted T_k and T_j . Let a be the number of nodes in T_j (thus tree T_k has m-a nodes).

We may assume without loss of geneality that $1 \le a \le m/2$. Thus root of T_k is the root of the tree after Union. Let |T| denote the height of T. There are two cases,

- 1. $|T_k| > |T_j|$, the resulted tree T has the same height as T_k . Height of T_k is $\leq \lfloor \log_2(m-a) \rfloor + 1 \leq \lfloor \log_2 m \rfloor + 1$.
- 2. $|T_k| < |T_j|$, height of T is $|T_j| + 1$, i.e., |T| is $\le \lfloor \log_2 a \rfloor + 1 + 1 \le \lfloor \log_2 m/2 \rfloor + 2 \le \lfloor \log_2 m \rfloor + 1$.

In both cases, we have $|T| \leq \lfloor \log_2 m \rfloor + 1$.

- Note that this bound is tight (it is achievable).
- Each single Find is bounded by $O(\log n)$.
- Can be further improved.

Definition [Collapsing Rule]: If j is a node on the path from i to its root and $parent[i] \neq root(i)$, the set parent[j] to root(i).

- Apply collapsing rule in Find(i).
- There are two passes.
- in the first pass, Find(i) traces the parent links to the root.
- in the 2nd pass, change the parent[j], j are nodes on the path from i to the root.
- Pay some more efforts this time, but the Find() operations in the future could save time.

Effects of the Weighting Rule and Collapsing Rule

- **●** Each Union still takes $\Theta(1)$ time. And there are at most n-1 Unions.
- Each Find takes no more than $O(\log n)$ time by the wieghting rule.
- When collapsing rule is applied, each Find takes $O(\alpha(p,q))$ time.
- $\alpha(p,q)$ is a function which is the inverse of the the Ackermann's function A(i,j).
- Ackermann's function is a function grows very fast.
- $\alpha(p,q)$ monotonically increasing as p or q increase, but very very slowly increases.

- A function $n = 2^k$, its inverse $\log_2 n = k$. As n increases, k increases. n double but k just increment by 1.
- Another function $n=2^{2^{2^{\dots^2}}}$, $k=\log^* n$ is the height of the tower. $\log^* n$ inverse of the function $n=2^{2^{2^{\dots^2}}}$. Again, k increases as n increases. But n increases a lot so that k increment by 1.
- Ackermann's function grows much faster than $n = 2^{2^{2^{-n^2}}}$, its inverse is $\alpha(p,q)$ which gorws even lower than $\log^* n$.

Ackermann's Function

$$A(1,j) = 2^{j}, \text{ for } j \ge 1,$$
 (1)

$$A(i,1) = A(i-1,2) \text{ for } j \ge 2,$$
 (2)

$$A(i,j) = A(i-1, A(i,j-1)) \text{ for } i,j \ge 2$$
 (3)

Inverse of Ackermann's Function

$$\alpha(p,q) = \min\{z \ge 1 | A(z, \lfloor p/q \rfloor) > \log_2 q\}, p \ge q \ge 1.$$

Discussions on A(i,j) and $\alpha(p,q)$

- A(i,j) very rapidly growing function, thus α is a very slowly growing function.
- A(3,1) = 16, $\alpha(p,q) \le 3$ for $q < 2^{16} = 65536$ and p > q.
- Since A(4,1) is a very large number,
- and in Union/Find application, q will be the number, n, of set elements and p will be n + f (f number of finds),
- $\alpha(p,q) \leq 4$ for all practical purposes.

Lemma 5.6 [Tarjan and Van Leeuwen]: Assume that we start with a forest of trees, each having one node. Let T(f,u) be the maximum time required to process many intermixed sequence of f finds and u unions. Assume that $u \geq n/2$. Then

$$k_1(n + f\alpha(f + n, n)) \le T(n, u) \le k_2(n + f\alpha(f + n, n))$$

for some positive constants k_1 and k_2 .

An application, solve the Equivalence relationship problem.