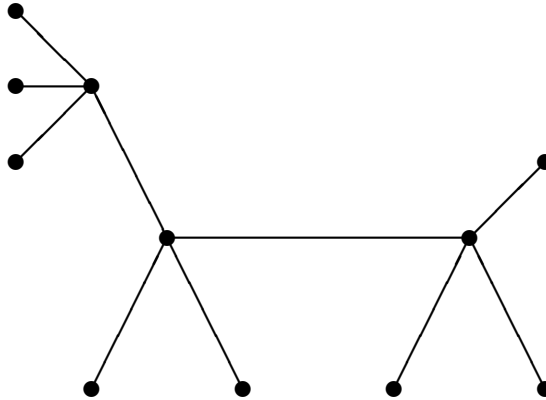


## Special graphs: trees

A **tree** is a connected simple graph with no simple cycles.

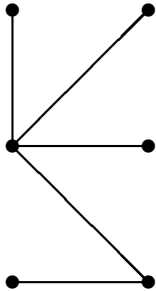


Some useful facts about trees:

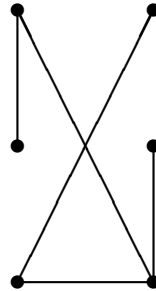
- In a tree there is a unique simple path between any two of its vertices.
- If we add an edge to a tree, it creates a cycle.
- If we remove an edge from a tree, it becomes not connected.

## Trees: examples and non-examples

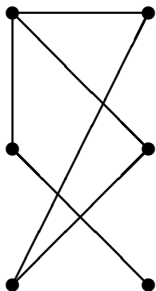
Trees:



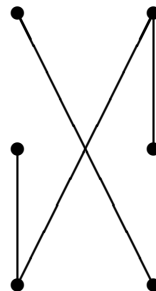
and



Not trees:

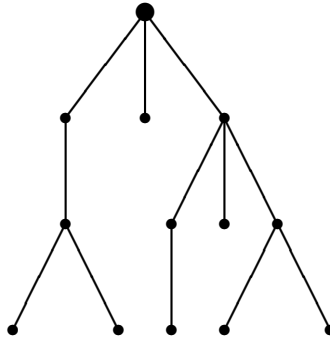


and



## Rooted trees

A **rooted tree** is a tree in which one vertex has been designated as the root. We can change an unrooted tree to a rooted tree by choosing *any* vertex as the root. We usually draw a rooted tree with its root at the top:



Two rooted trees are **isomorphic** if there is a bijection between their vertices that

- takes the root to root, and
- takes edges to edges, and non-edges to non-edges.

## Rooted trees: basic terminology

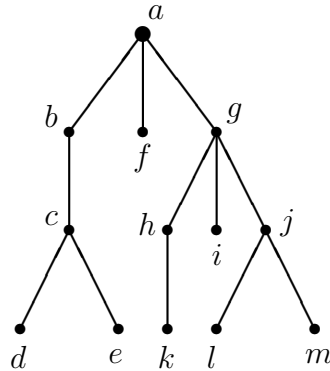
The terminology for trees has botanical and genealogical origins.

- If vertices  $u$  and  $v$  are connected by an edge, and  $u$  is closer to the root than  $v$  (that is, above  $v$ ), then
  - $u$  is called the **parent** of  $v$ , and  $v$  is called a **child** of  $u$ .

Vertices with the same parent are called **siblings**.

- A childless vertex is called a **leaf**.
- Vertices with at least one child are called **internal**.
- The **ancestors** of a non-root vertex  $v$  are the vertices in the (unique) simple path from the root to  $v$ .
- The **descendants** of vertex  $v$  are those vertices that have  $v$  as an ancestor.

## Basic terminology: an example



- The root is  $a$ .
- The parent of  $c$  is  $b$ .
- The children of  $g$  are  $h$ ,  $i$ , and  $j$ .
- The siblings of  $h$  are  $i$  and  $j$ .
- The ancestors of  $e$  are  $c$ ,  $b$ , and  $a$ .
- The descendants of  $b$  are  $c$ ,  $d$ , and  $e$ .
- The internal vertices are  $a$ ,  $b$ ,  $c$ ,  $g$ ,  $h$ , and  $j$ .
- The leaves are  $d$ ,  $e$ ,  $f$ ,  $i$ ,  $k$ ,  $l$ , and  $m$ .

## Applications of trees

Trees are used for modelling and problem solving in a wide variety of disciplines.

FOR EXAMPLE:

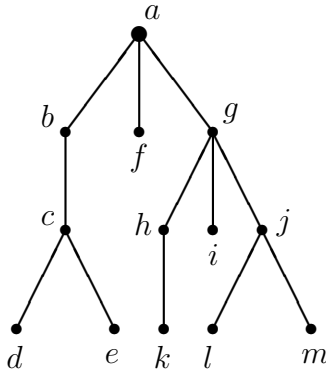
- family trees in genealogy
- representing organisations
- computer file systems
- constructing efficient methods for locating items in a list: binary search trees
- game trees to analyse winning strategies in games
- decision trees
- decomposition trees to parse arithmetical and logic formulas and expressions
- ...

## Rooted trees: the level of a vertex

The level (or depth) of a vertex  $v$  is the length of the (unique) path from the root to  $v$ .

The level of the root is 0.

FOR EXAMPLE:



level of  $a$  is 0

level of  $f$  is 1

level of  $j$  is 2

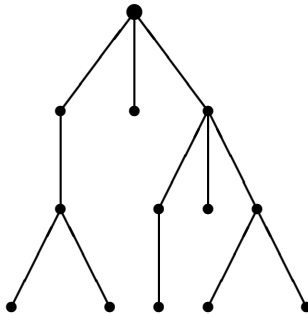
level of  $e$  is 3

## Rooted trees: height

The height of a rooted tree is the maximum of the levels of its vertices.

FOR EXAMPLE:

height of



is 3

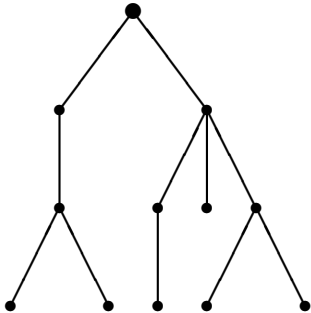


## Balanced rooted trees

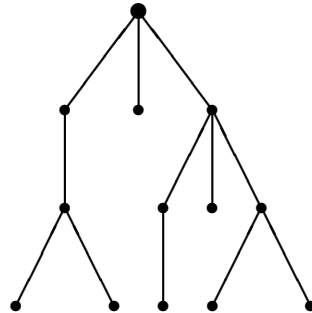
A rooted tree of height  $n$  is called **balanced**

if all its leaves are of level  $n$  or  $n - 1$ .

FOR EXAMPLE:



balanced

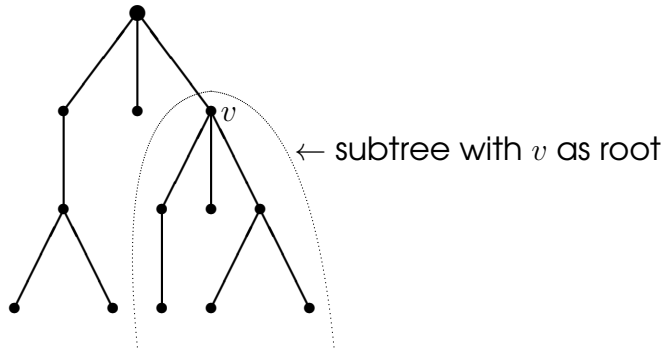


not balanced

## Rooted trees: subtrees

- If  $v$  is a vertex in a rooted tree  $T$ , the **subtree** with  $v$  as its root is the subgraph of  $T$  consisting of  $v$ , all its descendants, and all edges incident to these descendants.

FOR EXAMPLE:

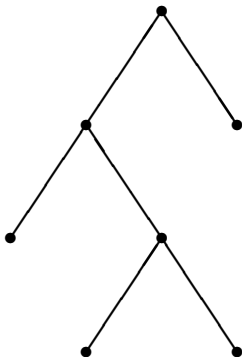


## Special trees

- A rooted tree is called an  $m$ -ary tree if every internal vertex has no more than  $m$  children.
- A rooted tree is called a full  $m$ -ary tree if every internal vertex has exactly  $m$  children.

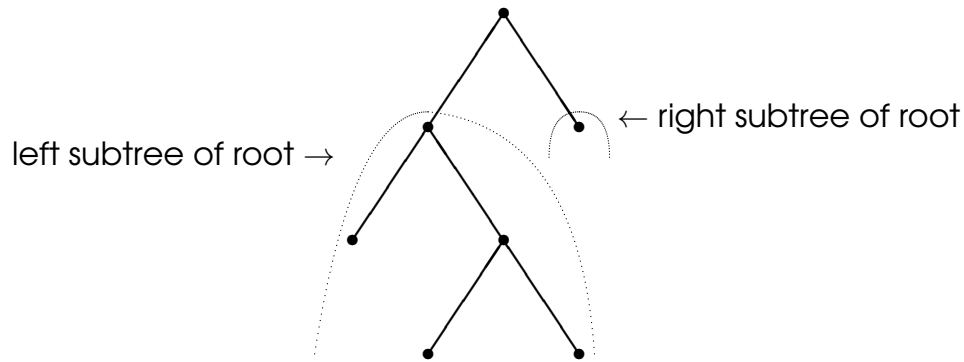
A rooted tree is called a full binary tree if every internal vertex has exactly 2 children: a **left child** and a **right child**.

FOR EXAMPLE: A full binary tree:



## Useful observations about full binary trees

Recall: A full binary tree is a rooted tree in which every internal vertex has exactly 2 children.



When we have a full binary tree of height  $n$  then

- the left and right subtrees of the root are **both** full binary trees of height  $\leq n - 1$
- at least one** of the left and right subtrees of the root is a full binary tree of height  $n - 1$  (but not necessarily both)

## Counting vertices and edges of trees

- A full binary tree with  $n$  internal vertices contains  $2n+1$  vertices altogether.

WHY? Every vertex, except the root, is the child of an internal vertex.

Because each of the  $n$  internal vertices has 2 children, there are  $2n$  vertices in the tree other than the root.

- A full  $m$ -ary tree with  $n$  internal vertices contains  $m \cdot n + 1$  vertices altogether.

WHY? Every vertex, except the root, is the child of an internal vertex.

Because each of the  $n$  internal vertices has  $m$  children, there are  $m \cdot n$  vertices in the tree other than the root.

## Exercise 7.1

Prove by induction that, for every positive integer  $n$ , every full binary tree of height  $\leq n$  has  $\leq 2^n$  leaves.

$P(n)$  : the number of leaves of any full binary tree of height  $\leq n$  is  $\leq 2^n$

SOLUTION: **Basis step:** We need to prove

$P(1)$  : the number of leaves of any full binary tree of height  $\leq 1$  is  $\leq 2^1$

So let's see. A full binary tree of height  $\leq 1$  is either of height 0, or of height 1.

- A full binary tree of height 0 is just a root, so it has 1 leaf and  $1 \leq 2 = 2^1$ .
- And a full binary tree of height 1 consists of a root and its two children, so it has 2 leaves and  $2 \leq 2^1$ .

## Exercise 7.1 (cont.)

**Inductive step:** We need show that, for all positive integer  $k$ ,  
if  $P(k)$  holds then  $P(k+1)$  holds as well.

So suppose that for some positive integer  $k$ ,

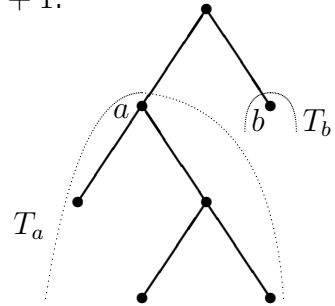
the number of leaves in any full binary tree of height  $\leq k$  is  $\leq 2^k$  **(IH).**

We need to show that

the number of leaves in any full binary tree of height  $\leq k+1$  is  $\leq 2^{k+1}$ .

So let  $T$  be an arbitrary full binary tree of height  $\leq k+1$ .

- Take the two children of the root of  $T$ , say,  $a$  and  $b$ . Let  $T_a$  denote the subtree with root  $a$ , and  $T_b$  denote the subtree with root  $b$ . Then both  $T_a$  and  $T_b$  are full binary trees of height  $\leq k$  (see lecture slide 197).
- Thus, by the IH,  $T_a$  has  $\leq 2^k$  leaves, and  $T_b$  has  $\leq 2^k$  leaves as well.
- As the leaves of  $T$  consists of all the leaves in  $T_a$  plus all the leaves in  $T_b$ ,  $T$  has  $\leq 2^k + 2^k = 2 \cdot 2^k = 2^{k+1}$  leaves, as required.



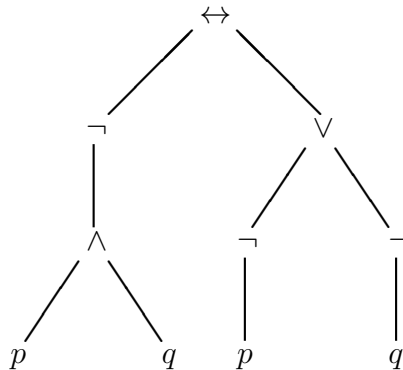
## Example: decomposition tree of a logic formula

We can represent complicated expressions, like formulas of propositional logic and arithmetical expressions, using rooted trees.

FOR EXAMPLE: The formula

$$(\neg(p \wedge q) \leftrightarrow (\neg p \vee \neg q))$$

can be represented as





## Binary search trees: a tool for sorting linearly ordered lists

**Linearly ordered list:** a sequence (list) whose elements are linearly ordered  
(not necessarily in the order of listing)

FOR EXAMPLE:

- (5, 128, 3, 2, 15, 4, 20) is a list of natural numbers,  
natural numbers can be ordered by the  $\leq$  relation  
(which is a linear order, see lecture slide 92)
- (*mathematics, physics, geography, geology, psychology*) is a list of words,  
words can be ordered by the lexicographical order relation  $<$   
(see lecture slide 203)

Searching for items in a linearly ordered list is an important task. Binary search trees are particularly useful in representing elements in such a list. There are very efficient methods for

- *searching* data in binary search trees,
- *revising* data in binary search trees,
- converting linearly ordered lists to binary search trees and back.

## Example linear order: lexicographical order on words

First, we order the letters of the English alphabet as usual:

$$a \prec b \prec c \prec d \prec e \prec \dots \prec x \prec y \prec z$$

Then, we can use this ordering of the letters to order longer words:

- Given two words  $w_1$  and  $w_2$ , we compare them letter by letter, from left to right, passing equal letters.
- If at any point a letter in  $w_1$  is  $\prec$ -smaller than the corresponding letter in  $w_2$ , then we put  $w_1 \prec w_2$ .
- If every letter in  $w_1$  is equal to the corresponding letter in  $w_2$ , but  $w_2$  is longer than  $w_1$ , then we also put  $w_1 \prec w_2$ .
- In any other case, we put  $w_2 \prec w_1$ .

FOR EXAMPLE:  $discreet \prec discreetness \prec discrete \prec discretion$

$geography \prec geology \prec mathematics \prec physics \prec psychology$

## Binary search trees

We are given two things: a list  $[L]$  of items, and a linear order  $\prec$  on them.

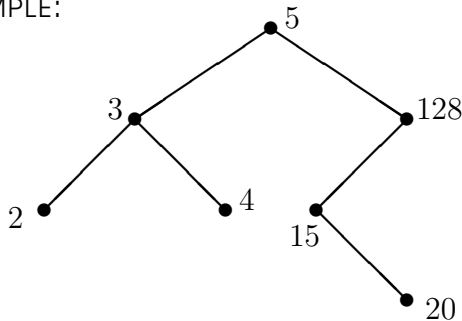
A **binary search tree** for  $L$  and  $\prec$  is a binary tree in which every vertex is labelled with an item from  $L$  such that:

(1) the label of each vertex

- is  $\prec$ -greater than the labels of all vertices in its left subtree,
- is  $\prec$ -less than the labels of all vertices in its right subtree.

(2) Also, every path in the tree is 'compatible with' the order of listing.

FOR EXAMPLE:



for the list  $(5, 128, 3, 2, 15, 4, 20)$   
and linear order  $\leq$

## How to build binary search trees from linearly ordered lists

We are given a list  $L$  of items, and a linear order  $\prec$  on them.

We go through each member of the list, from left to right:

- **First item:** We assign it as the label of the root.
- **Comparing:** We take the next item on the list, and first we compare it with the labels of the 'old' vertices already in the tree, starting from the root and
  - moving to the left if the new item is  $\prec$ -less than the label of the respective 'old' vertex, if this 'old' vertex has a left child, or
  - moving to the right if the new item is  $\prec$ -greater than the label of the respective 'old' vertex, if this 'old' vertex has a right child.
- **Adding:**
  - When the new item is  $\prec$ -less than the label of an 'old' vertex and the vertex has no left child, then we insert a new left child to the 'old' vertex, and label it with the new item.
  - When the new item is  $\prec$ -larger than the label of an 'old' vertex and the vertex has no right child, then we insert a new right child to the 'old' vertex, and label it with the new item.

## Building a binary search tree: an example

TASK: Build a binary search tree for the list of words



*mathematics, physics, geography, zoology, meteorology, geology, psychology,*

using lexicographical order  $\prec$ .

1ST STEP: We take *mathematics* and label the root with it:

*mathematics*



*mathematics, physics, geography, zoology, meteorology, geology, psychology*

2ND STEP: We take *physics* and compare it with *mathematics*:

*mathematics*  $\prec$  *physics*,

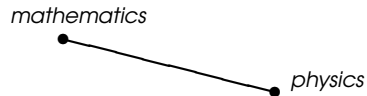
*mathematics* has no right child, so we label a new right child with *physics*:

*mathematics*



*physics*

## Building a binary search tree: an example (cont.)



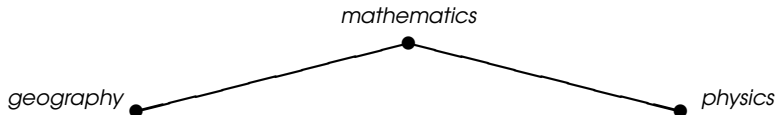
↓

*mathematics, physics, geography, zoology, meteorology, geology, psychology*

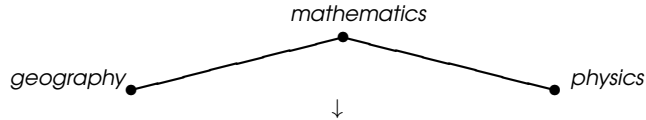
3RD STEP: We take *geography* and compare it with *mathematics*:

*geography*  $\prec$  *mathematics*,

*mathematics* has no left child, so we label a new left child with *geography*:



## Building a binary search tree: an example (cont.)



*mathematics, physics, geography, zoology, meteorology, geology, psychology*

4TH STEP: We take *zoology* and compare it with *mathematics*:

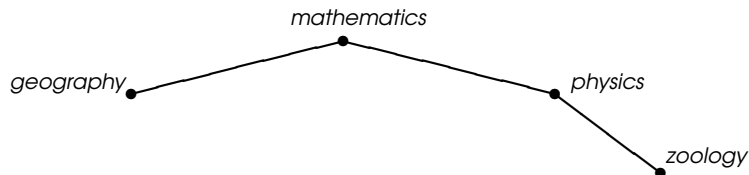
*mathematics*  $\prec$  *zoology*,

so we move to the right child of the root and take its label, *physics*.

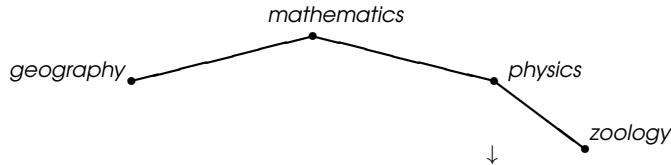
5TH STEP: We compare the new word *zoology* with *physics*:

*physics*  $\prec$  *zoology*,

*physics* has no right child, so we label a new right child with *zoology*:



## Building a binary search tree: an example (cont.)



*mathematics, physics, geography, zoology, meteorology, geology, psychology*

6TH STEP: We take *meteorology* and compare it with *mathematics*:

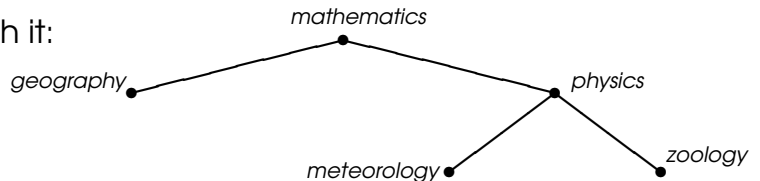
$\text{mathematics} \prec \text{meteorology}$ ,

so we move to the right child of the root and take its label, *physics*.

7TH STEP: We compare the new word *meteorology* with *physics*:

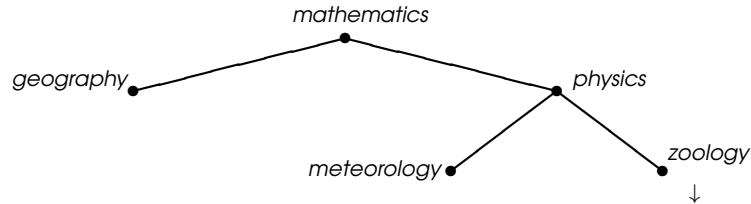
$\text{meteorology} \prec \text{physics}$ ,

so we label a new left child with it:





## Building a binary search tree: an example (cont.)



*mathematics, physics, geography, zoology, meteorology, geology, psychology*

8TH STEP: We take *geology* and compare it with *mathematics*:

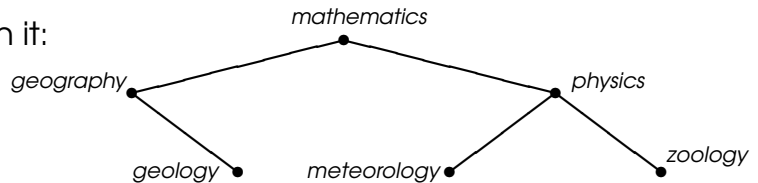
*geology*  $\prec$  *mathematics*,

so we move to the left child of the root and take its label, *geography*.

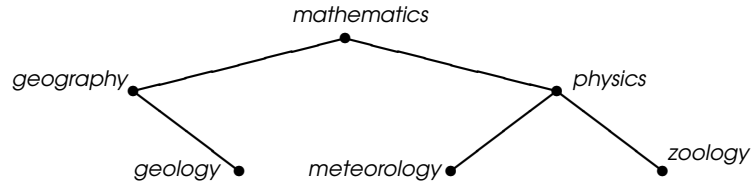
9TH STEP: We compare the new word *geology* with *geography*:

*geography*  $\prec$  *geology*,

so we label a new right child with it:



## Building a binary search tree: an example (cont.)

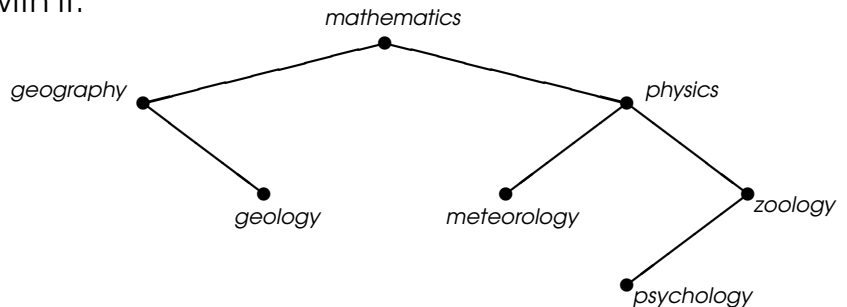


*mathematics, physics, geography, zoology, meteorology, geology, psychology*

FINALLY: We take *psychology*, then compare it with *mathematics*, move to the right, compare it with *physics*, move to the right, then compare it with *zoology*. As

$psychology \prec zoology$ ,

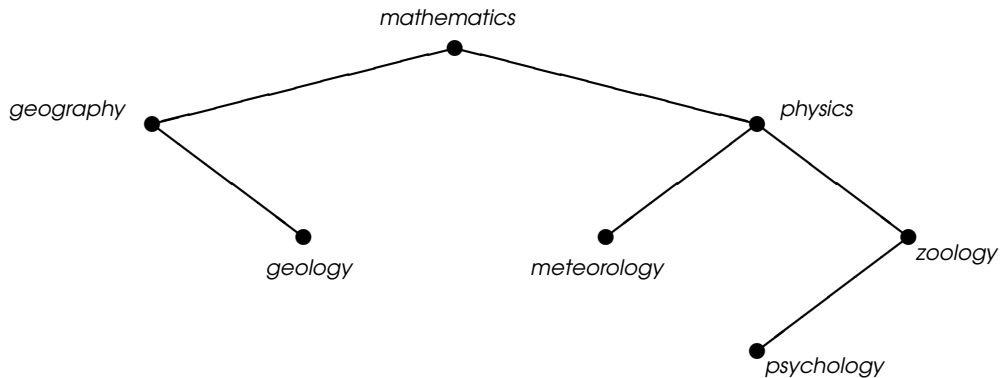
we label a new left child with it:



## Binary search trees: locating or adding items I

TYPICAL TASK: We already have a binary search tree. We are given a word, *meteorology*. How many comparisons do we need to locate this word in our tree (if it is there), or to add to it (if it is new)?

SOLUTION: Just 3. We take the word. First compare it with *mathematics*, move to the right, then compare it with *physics*, move to the left, then compare it with *meteorology*: successfully located.



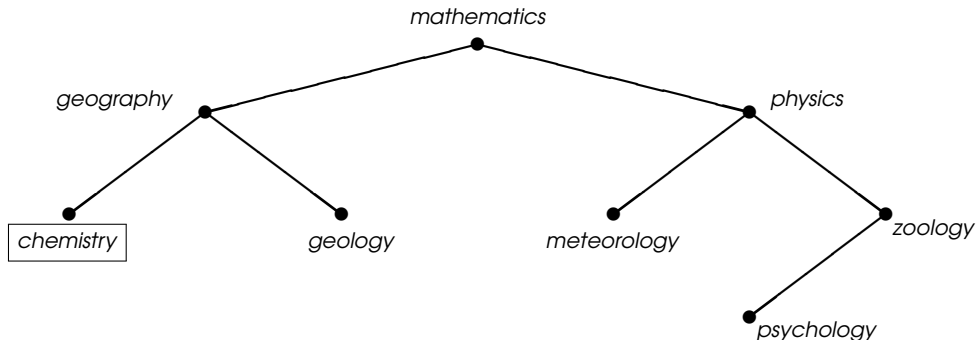
## Binary search trees: locating or adding items II

TASK: We are given a word, *chemistry*. How many comparisons do we need to locate or add it?

SOLUTION: Just 2. We compare it with *mathematics*, move to the left, then compare it with *geography*. As

$chemistry \prec geography$ ,

and *geography* has no left child, we know at this point that *chemistry* is NOT in the tree. So we create a new left child and label it with *chemistry*:



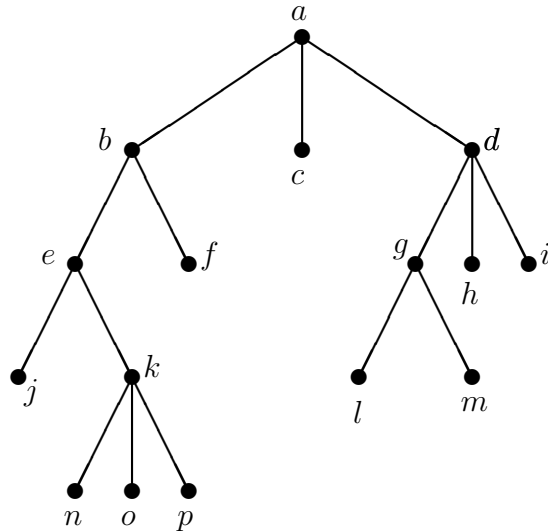
## Tree traversal

Rooted trees are often used to store information. We need systematic procedures for visiting each vertex of a rooted tree to access data. Such procedures are called traversal algorithms.

Here are some important ones:

- **Preorder traversal**: Visit the root, then continue traversing subtrees in preorder, from left to right.
- **Inorder traversal**: Begin traversing leftmost subtree in inorder, then visit root, then continue traversing subtrees in inorder, from left to right.
- **Postorder traversal**: Begin traversing leftmost subtree in postorder, then continue traversing subtrees in postorder, from left to right, finally visit root.

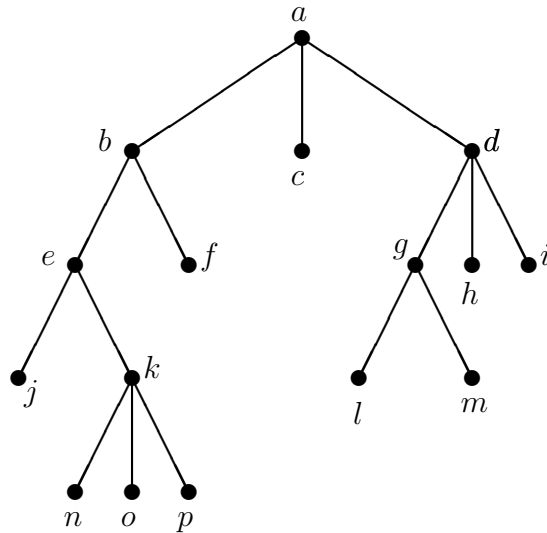
## Preorder traversal



Visit the root, then continue traversing subtrees in preorder, from left to right:

$a, b, e, j, k, n, o, p, f, c, d, g, l, m, h, i$

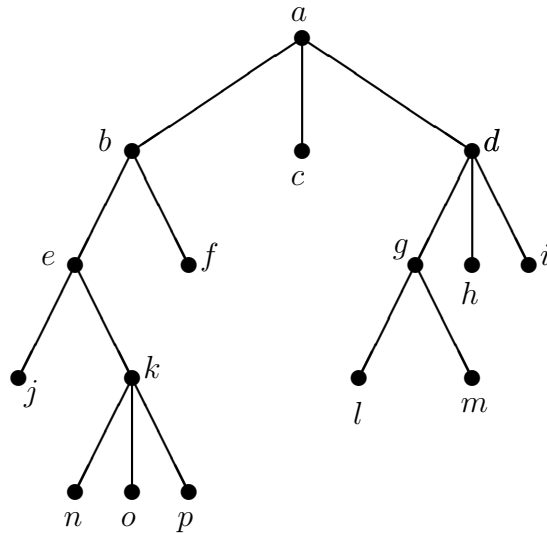
## Inorder traversal



Begin traversing leftmost subtree in inorder, then visit root, then continue traversing subtrees in inorder, from left to right:

$j, e, n, k, o, p, b, f, a, c, l, g, m, d, h, i$

## Postorder traversal



Begin traversing leftmost subtree in postorder, then continue traversing subtrees in postorder, from left to right, finally visit root:

$j, n, o, p, k, e, f, b, c, l, m, g, h, i, d, a$