

# 31251 – Data Structures and Algorithms

Week 6

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- Binary Trees
- Tree Traversals
- Expression Trees
- Binary Search Trees

# Binary Trees

- A Graph is a mathematical object that consists of a set of vertices (or nodes) and a set of edges between the vertices.
  - We normally visualise vertices as circles and edges as lines between the circles.
- A *Tree* is a graph with no cycles.
  - You can't walk through the graph and get back to your starting point without backtracking.
- A *Binary Tree* is a tree where every vertex has at most three neighbours.

- If it has at most 3 neighbours, why is it “binary”?
- We normally think of them as having an order:
  - One vertex is the root.
  - Each vertex has at most two children, and at most one parent.
  - Vertices with no children are called *leaves*.

- Binary Trees find uses in many areas of computer science:
  - 3D rendering (binary space partition).
  - Networking (Binary Tries, Treaps).
  - Cryptology (GGM Trees).
  - Coding and Compression (Huffman Trees).
  - Hashing (Hash Trees).
  - Sorting (Heaps and Heapsort).
  - Searching (Binary Search Trees).
  - Parsing (Expression Trees)

## How do we build them?

- There are two basic methods for building a binary tree:
  - ① Kind of like a LinkedList with with two next pointers (left and right children).
  - ② Embedded in an array, where the children of the vertex at index  $i$  are at indices  $2i$  and  $2i + 1$ .

## How do we get around them?

- No matter which representation you choose, there are number of ways to traverse binary trees:
  - ① Breadth first - start with the root, then visit its children, then their children, then their children...
  - ② Depth first - start at the root, go all the way to the bottom first, then backtrack.



- Very amenable to recursive implementation.
- At each node we have 3 things to do:
  - ① Deal with the current node,
  - ② visit the left child,
  - ③ visit the right child.
- Gives 3 different traversals.
  - ① Pre-order (deal with the current node first)
  - ② In-order (deal with the current node between visiting the descendents)
  - ③ Post-order (deal with the current node last).

## Depth First Traversal – Implementation

Pre-order traversal, recursive:

```
preorderTraversal(Node n){  
    if (n == null) return;  
  
    visit(n);  
    preorderTraversal(n.leftChild());  
    preorderTraversal(n.rightChild());  
}
```

## Depth First Traversal – Implementation

We can switch from recursive to iterative by swapping the implicit use of the call stack with an explicit stack.

Pre-order traversal, iterative:

```
preorderTraversal(Node n){  
    Stack<Node> s = new Stack<Node>();  
    Node current = n;  
  
    while (current != null){  
        visit(current);  
        if (current.rightChild() != null)  
            s.push(current.rightChild());  
        if (current.leftChild() != null)  
            s.push(current.leftChild());  
  
        current = stack.pop();  
    }  
}
```

## Depth First Traversal – Implementation

In-order traversal, recursive:

```
inorderTraversal(Node n){  
    if (n == null) return;  
  
    preorderTraversal(n.leftChild());  
    visit(n);  
    preorderTraversal(n.rightChild());  
}
```

## Depth First Traversal – Implementation

In-order traversal, iterative:

```
inorderTraversal(Node n){
    Stack<Node> s = new Stack<Node>();
    Node current = n;

    while (current != null || !s.isEmpty()){
        if (current != null){
            s.push(current);
            current = current.leftChild();
        }
        else {
            current = s.pop();
            visit(current);
            current = current.rightChild();
        }
    }
}
```

## Depth First Traversal – Implementation

Post-order traversal, recursive:

```
postorderTraversal(Node n){  
    if (n == null) return;  
  
    preorderTraversal(n.leftChild());  
    preorderTraversal(n.rightChild());  
    visit(n);  
}
```

# Depth First Traversal – Implementation

Post-order traversal, iterative:

```
postorderTraversal(Node n){
    Stack<Node> s = new Stack<Node>();
    Node current = n;
    Node last = null;

    while (current != null || !s.isEmpty()){
        if (current != null){
            s.push(current);
            current = current.leftChild();
        }
        else{
            if (s.peek().rightChild() != null &&
                s.peek().rightChild() != last){
                current = s.peek().rightChild();
            }
            else{
                current = s.pop();
                visit(current);
                last = current;
            }
        }
    }
}
```

- Visits vertices according to their level in the tree ( “left to right, top to bottom” ).
- Simple to implement iteratively using a queue.



## Breadth First Traversal - Implementation

```
breadthFirst(Node n){  
    Queue<Node> q = new Queue<Node>();  
  
    q.add(n);  
  
    while (!q.isEmpty()){  
  
        Node current = q.remove();  
        visit(current);  
  
        if (current.leftChild != null)  
            q.add(current.leftChild());  
        if (current.rightChild != null)  
            q.add(current.rightChild());  
  
    }  
}
```

# Binary Search Trees

# Binary Search Trees

- Binary Search Trees (BSTs) are a simple data structure that allows fast insertion, removal and lookup of the elements they store.
- They are an ordered data structure, but because they use a binary tree, you don't have to reshuffle everything to put something new in.
- They follow a simple rule to find or insert:
  - If what you're looking for (or what you have) has a smaller key than the current vertex, go to the left. Otherwise, go to the right. (Special case: duplicate keys)
- Insertion then is just traversing the tree to the bottom and adding the new element wherever you stop.
- Finding something mimics binary search, if you get to the bottom without finding it, it's not there.

# Complexity of Binary Search Trees

Operation	Average Case	Worst Case
Space	$O(n)$	$O(n)$
Insert	$O(\log n)$	$O(n)$
Remove	$O(\log n)$	$O(n)$
Find	$O(\log n)$	$O(n)$

At the cost of more complicated code, there are several self-balancing BST data structures which reduce the worst case insert, remove and find to  $O(\log n)$ : 2-3 Trees, Red-Black Trees, AVL Trees, Splay Trees and others,

## Binary Expression Trees

# Representing Grammars with Trees

- Many things in computer science can be expressed in terms of *Formal Grammars*.
  - (We don't need to know what they are though).
- In particular, expressions that have syntax can be modelled with grammars.
  - e.g. every programming language (and much more).
- One way of showing how a concrete expression derives from a grammar is by using a tree.
  - ... and for certain types of expression grammars, binary trees!

- We can take Boolean expressions as an example. They have simple rules:
  - ① True is a Boolean expression.
  - ② False is a Boolean expression.
  - ③ If  $A$  a Boolean expression,  $\neg A$  is a Boolean expression.
  - ④ If  $A$  and  $B$  are Boolean expressions,  $A \wedge B$  is a Boolean expression.
  - ⑤ If  $A$  and  $B$  are Boolean expressions,  $A \vee B$  is a Boolean expression.

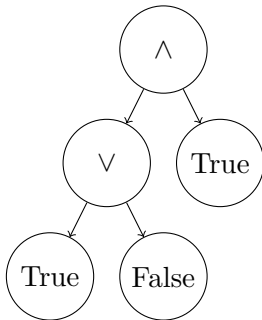
- Just for those that are interested, a grammar for that looks like:

$$S \rightarrow \neg S \mid S \wedge S \mid S \vee S \mid \text{True} \mid \text{False}$$

- You can build more complicated ones that build in operator precedence and associativity too.



- We can convert these rules to a binary tree structure.
- For example, the expression  $(\text{True} \vee \text{False}) \wedge \text{True}$  can be represented by:



## Why is this useful?

- Given an expression as text, it is not immediately obvious how to begin computing its value.
- You need to read the whole thing, then decide which bits you are going to do first.
  - Operator precedence is important! ( $3 \times 2 - 1$  vs  $3 \times (2 - 1)$ )
- If we can quickly build a tree like this, then we can *recursively* evaluate it!
  - It becomes a simple divide and conquer algorithm!
- We can also traverse it looking for other properties (very useful when compiling code).

- Another thing we can do is turn the expression back into a string in different ways.
  - ① Prefix notation results from a pre-order traversal of the tree,
  - ② Infix notation results from an in-order traversal, and...
  - ③ (you guessed it) Postfix notation results from a post-order traversal of the tree.
- Prefix and Postfix are unambiguous, and don't require operator precedence or associativity rules to parse.
  - So converting an infix expression (what we meat-bags normally write in) to postfix or prefix can make things easier for the computer (or better still easier for the computer programmer).