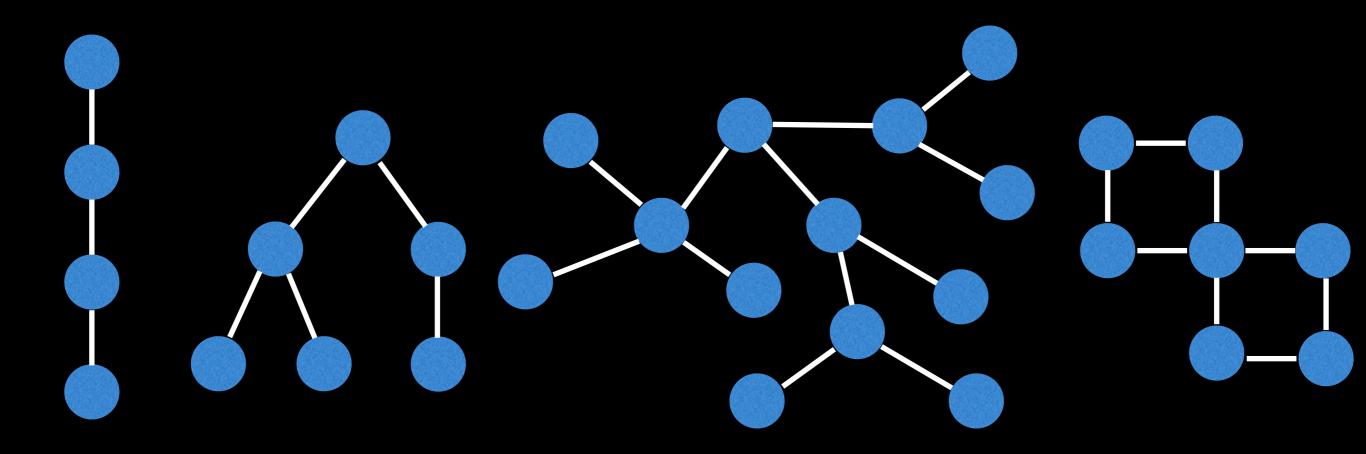


# Storage and representation of trees

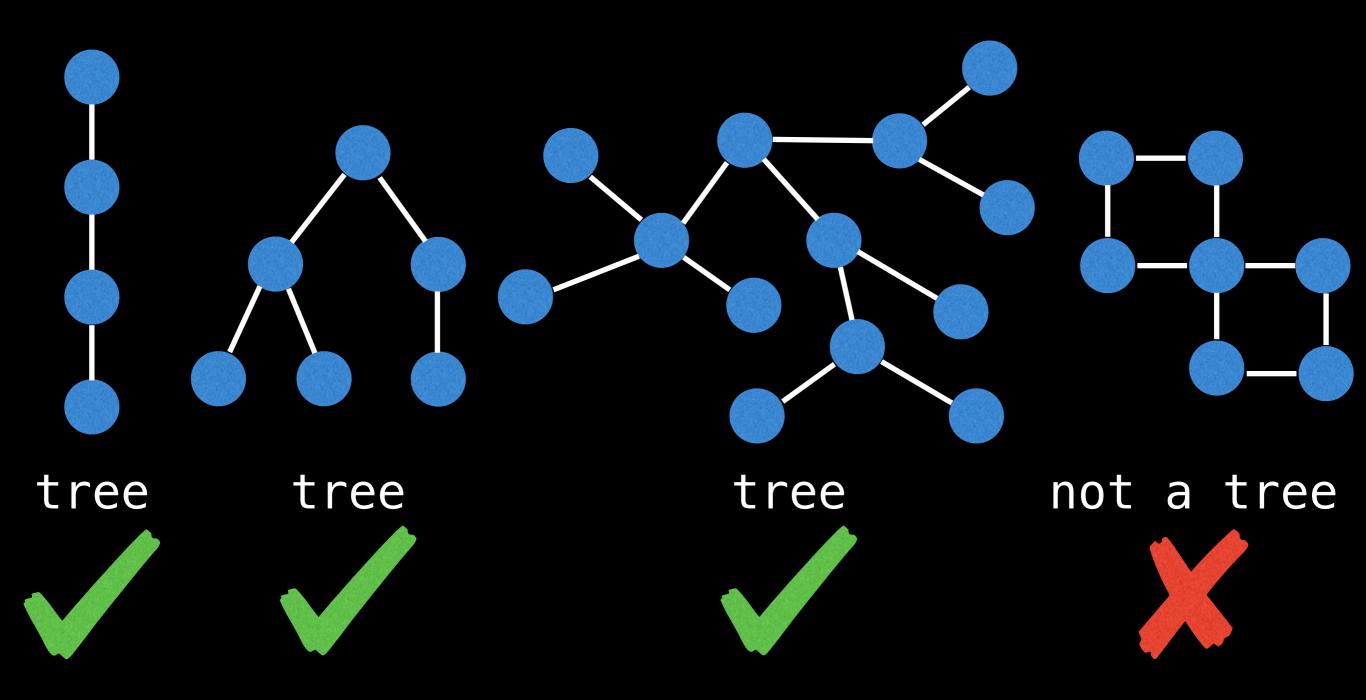
Definitions and storage representation



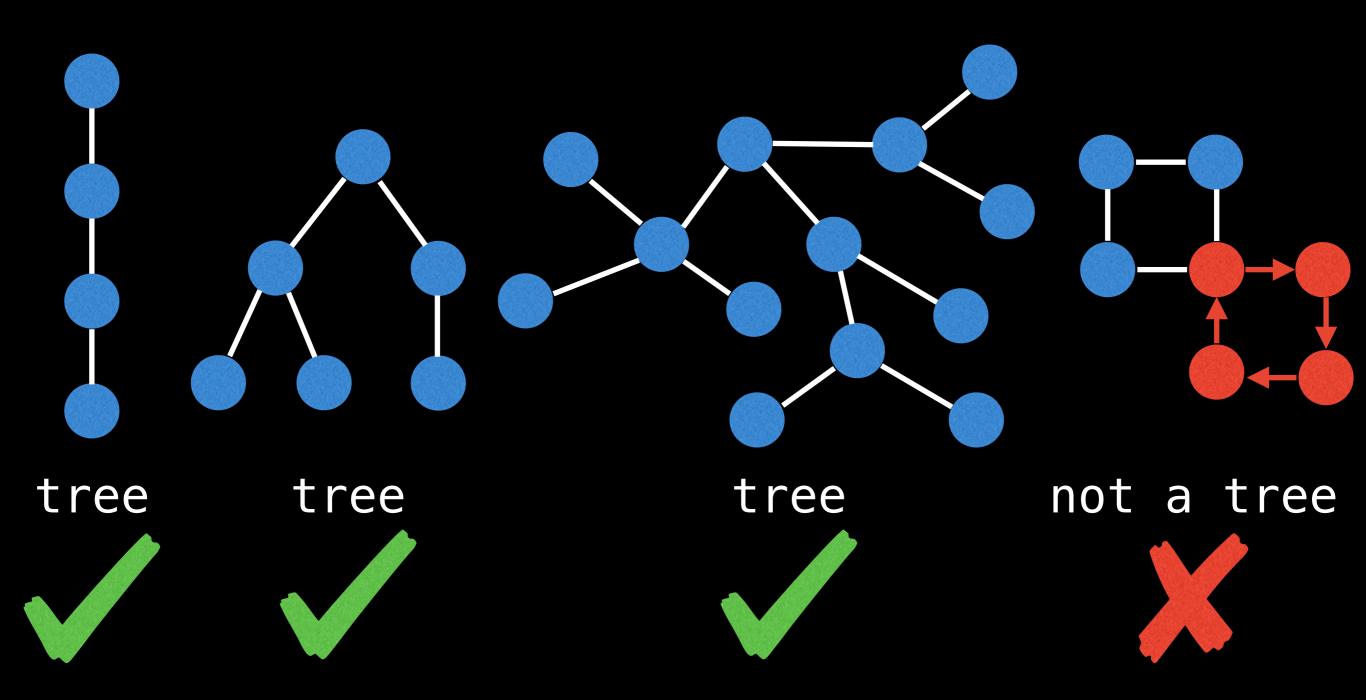
What **is** a tree?



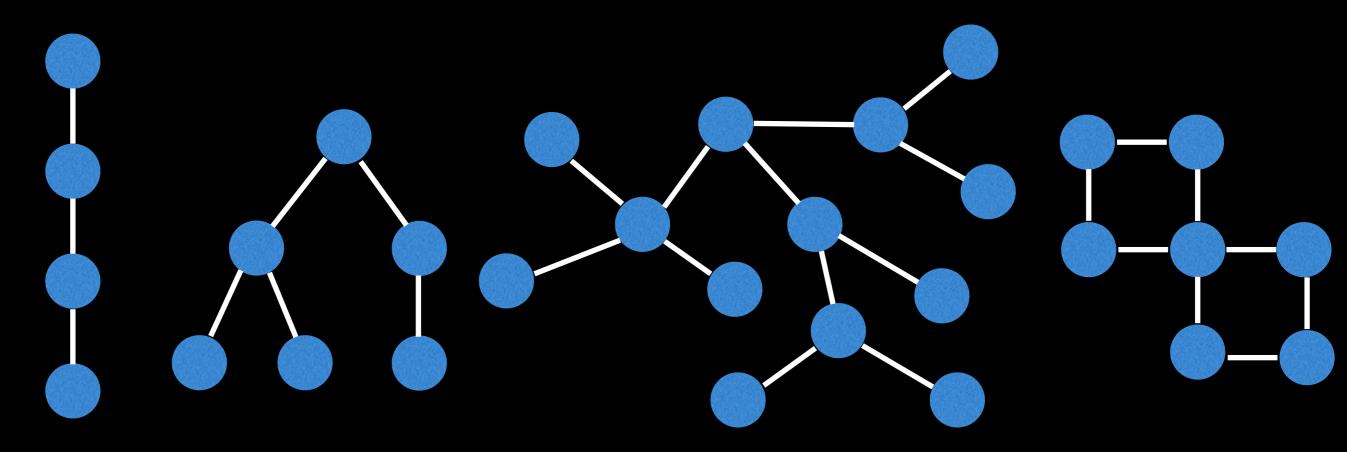
What *is* a tree?



A tree is a connected, undirected graph with no cycles.



Equivalently, a tree it is a connected graph with N nodes and N-1 edges.



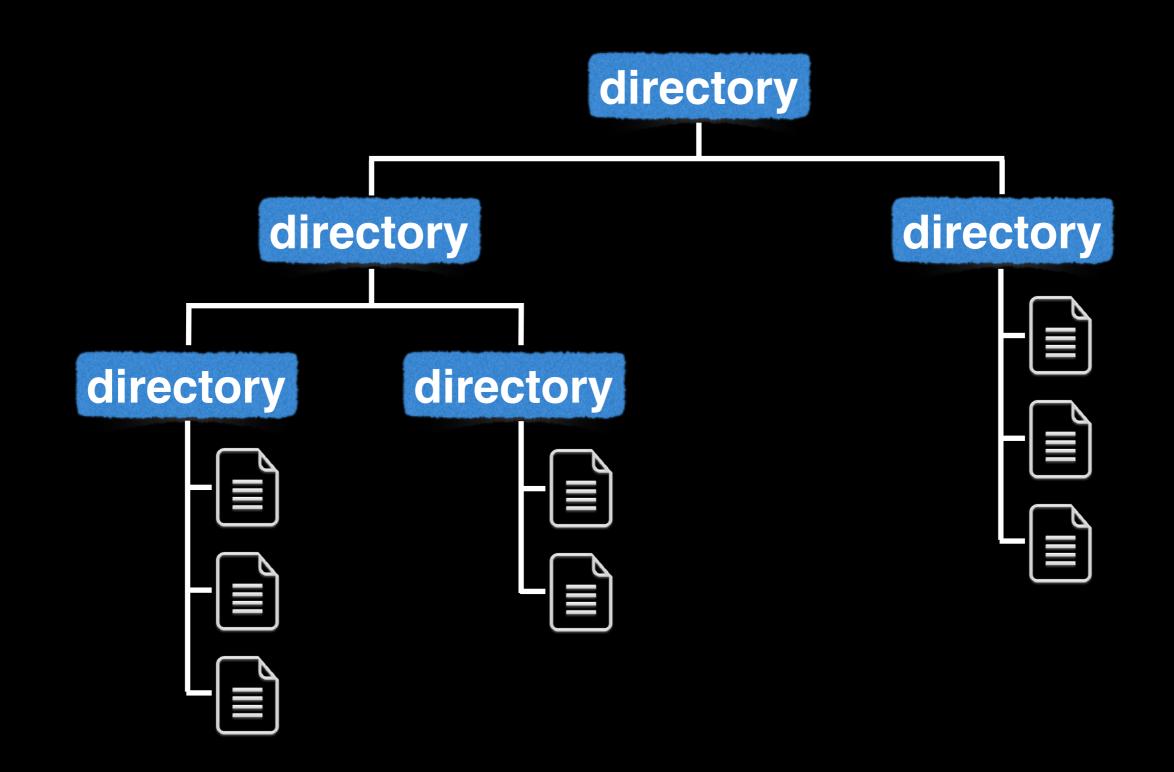
edges 5 edges

nodes 6 nodes

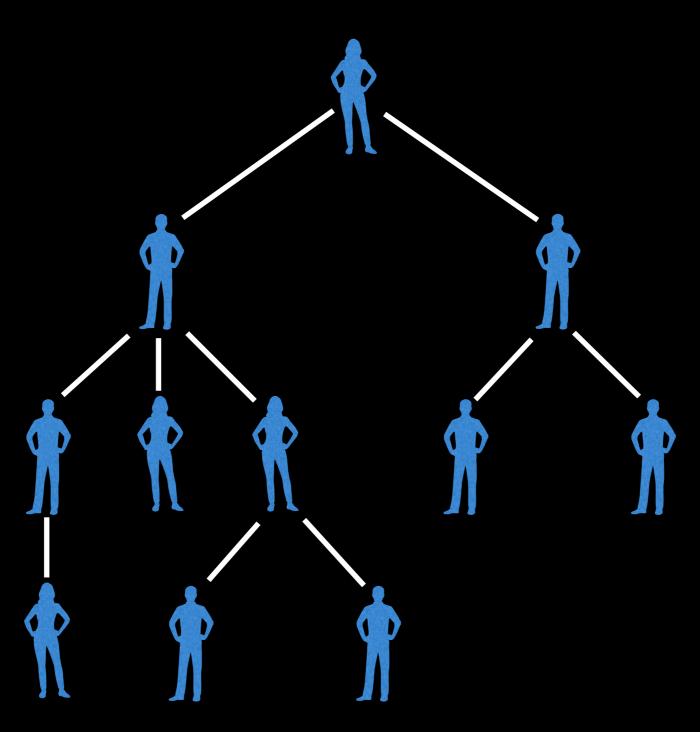
13 nodes 12 edges 7 nodes

8 edges

Filesystem structures are inherently trees

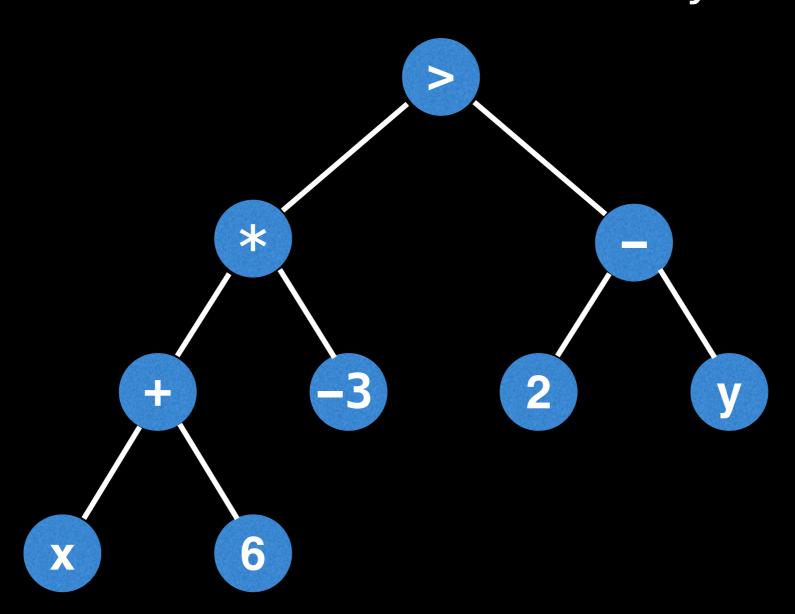


Social hierarchies

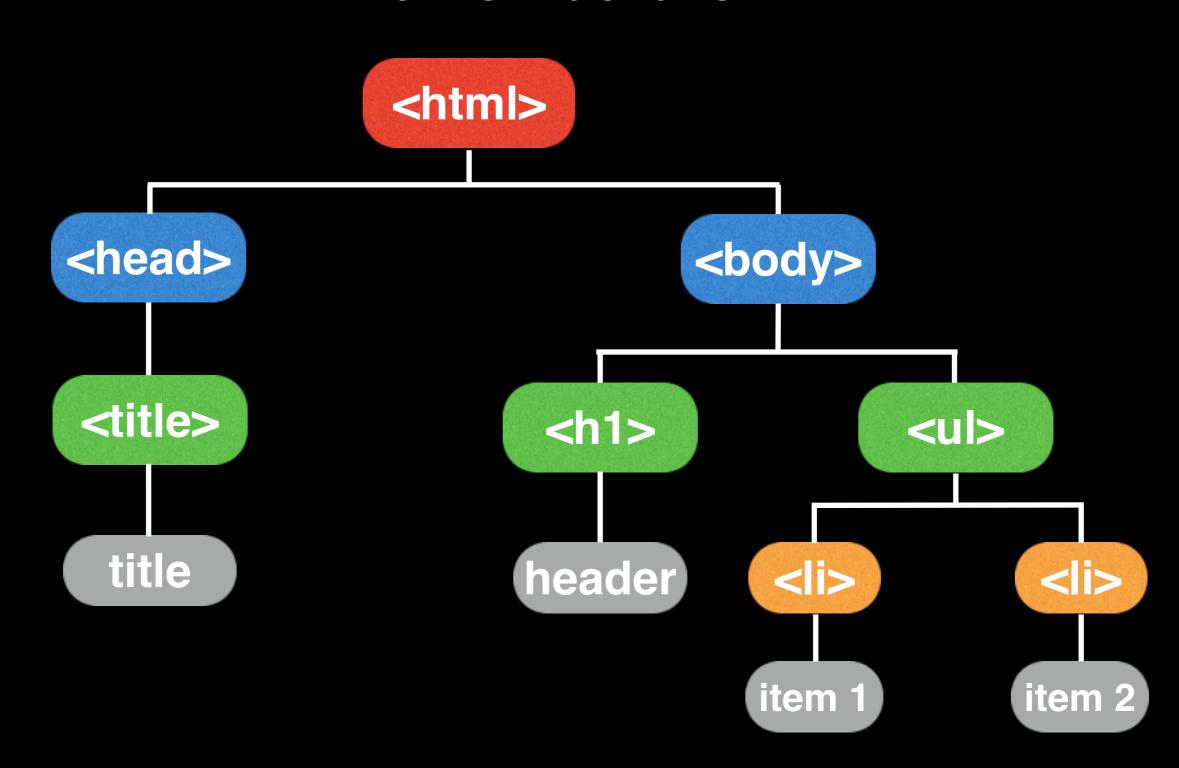


Abstract syntax trees to decompose source code and mathematical expressions for easy evaluation.

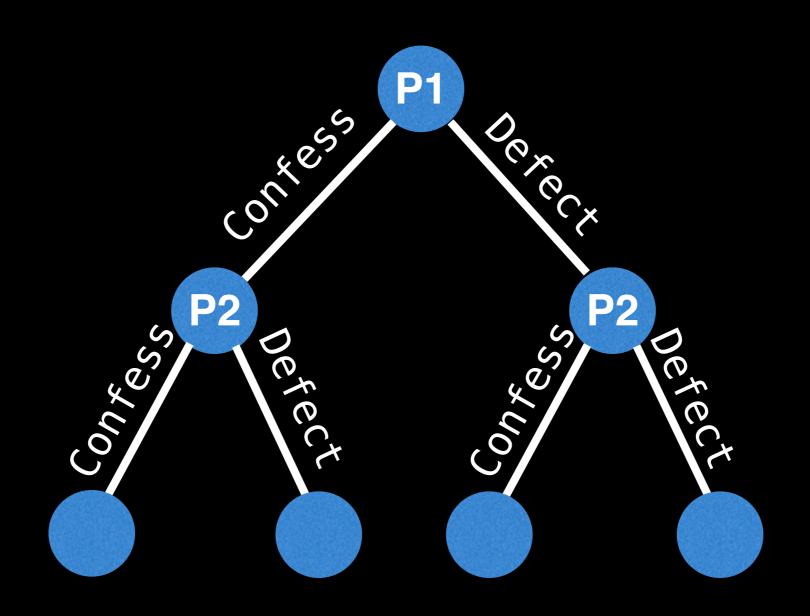
$$((x + 6) * -3) > (2 - y)$$



Every webpage is a tree as an HTML DOM structure



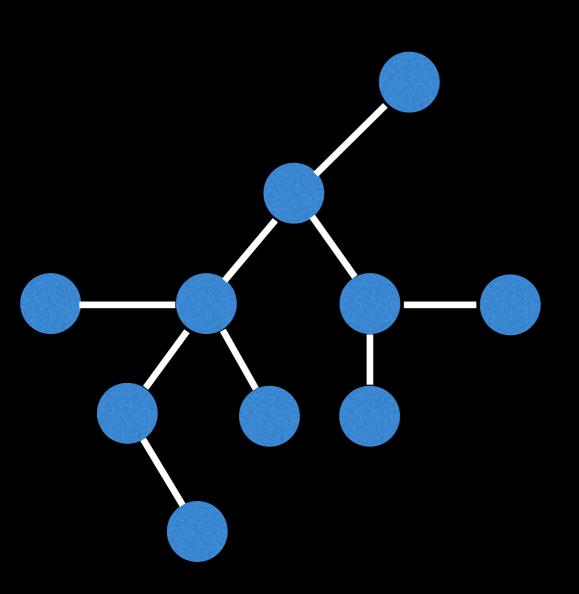
The decision outcomes in game theory are often modeled as trees for ease of representation.



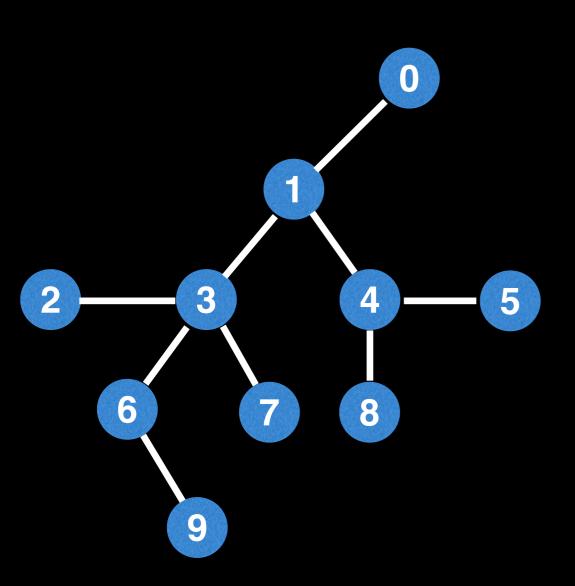
Tree of the prisoner's dilemma

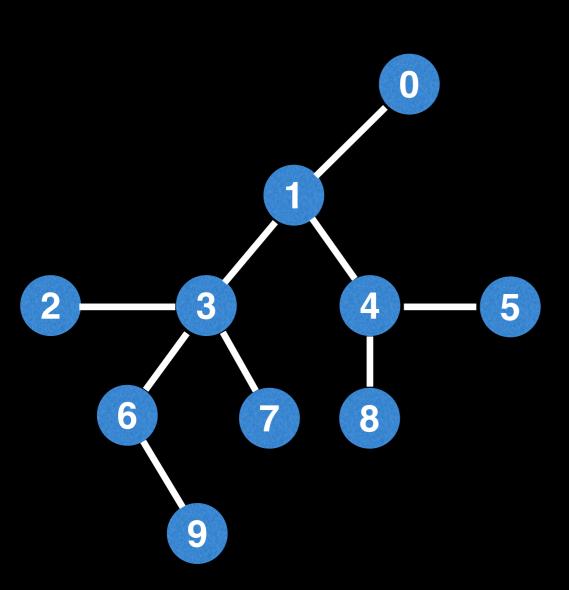
There are many many more applications...

- Family trees
- File parsing/HTML/JSON/Syntax trees
- Many data structures use/are trees:
  - AVL trees, B-tree, red-black trees, segment trees, fenwick trees, treaps, suffix trees, tree maps/sets, etc...
- Game theory decision trees
- Organizational structures
- Probabilty trees
- Taxonomies
- etc...



Start by labelling the tree nodes from [0, n)

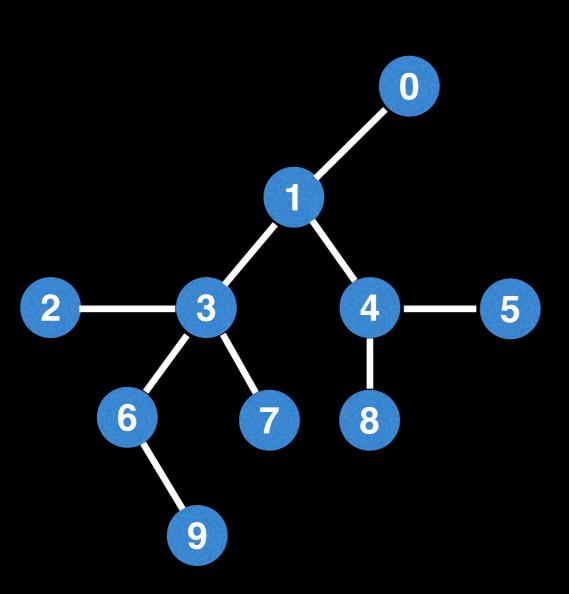




edge list storage
representation:

```
[(0, 1),
(1, 4),
(4, 5),
(4, 8),
(1, 3),
(3, 6),
(3, 6),
(2, 3),
(6, 9)]
```

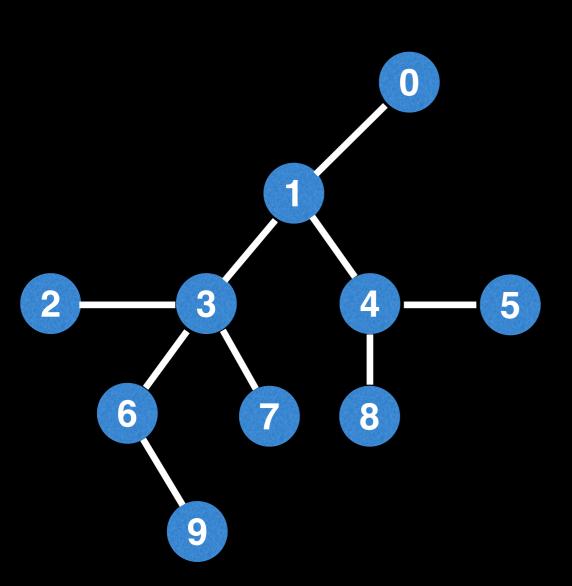
pro: simple and easy to iterate over.



edge list storage
representation:

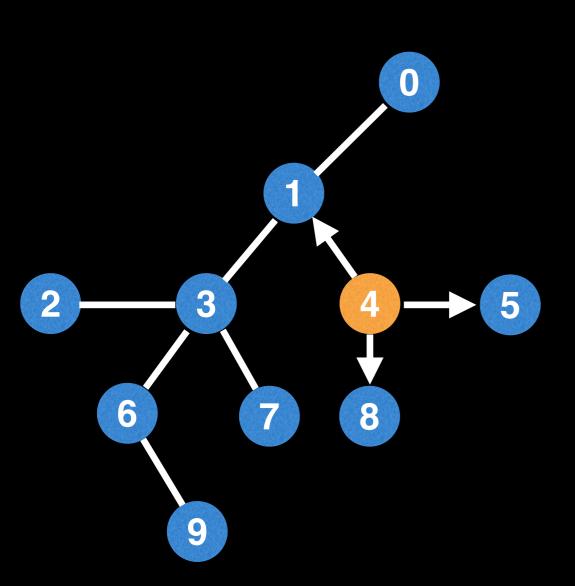
```
[(0, 1),
(1, 4),
(4, 5),
(4, 8),
(1, 3),
(3, 6),
(3, 6),
(2, 3),
(6, 9)]
```

con: storing a tree as a list lacks the
structure to efficiently query all the
 neighbors of a node.



# adjacency list representation

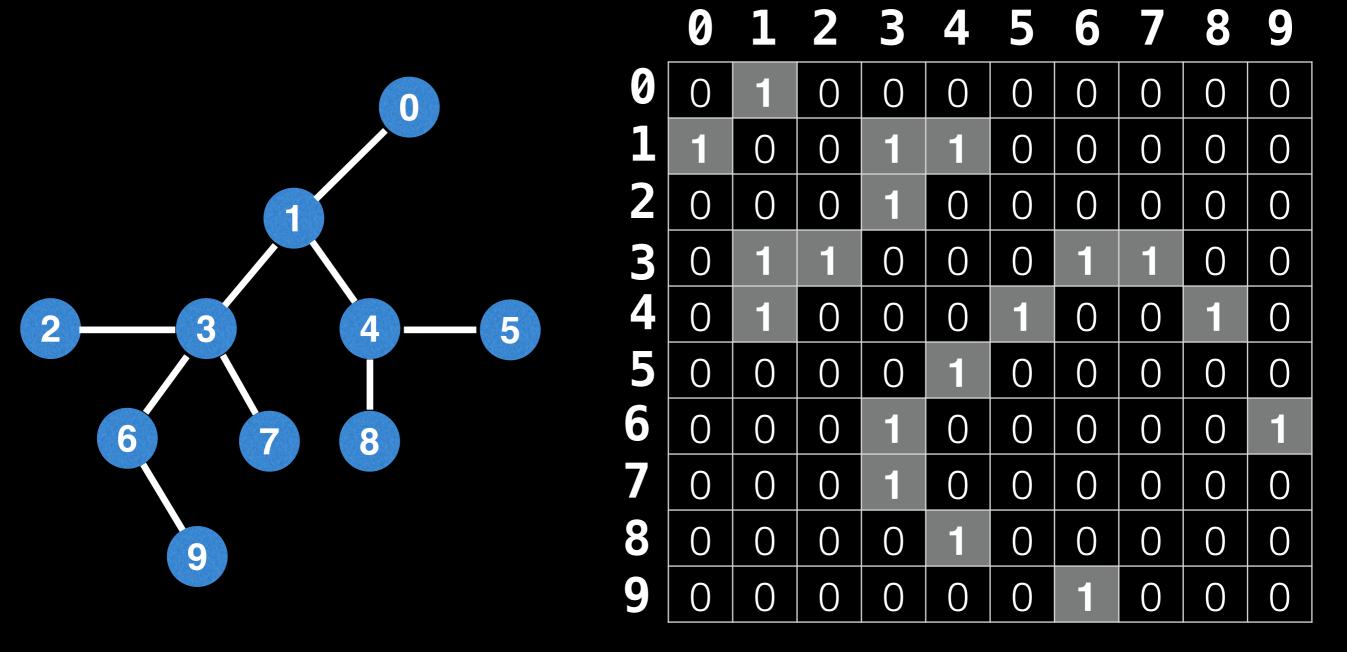
```
0 -> [1]
1 \rightarrow [0,3,4]
2 -> [3]
3 \rightarrow [1,2,6,7]
4 \rightarrow [1,5,8]
5 -> [4]
6 \rightarrow [3,9]
7 -> [3]
8 -> [4]
9 -> [6]
```



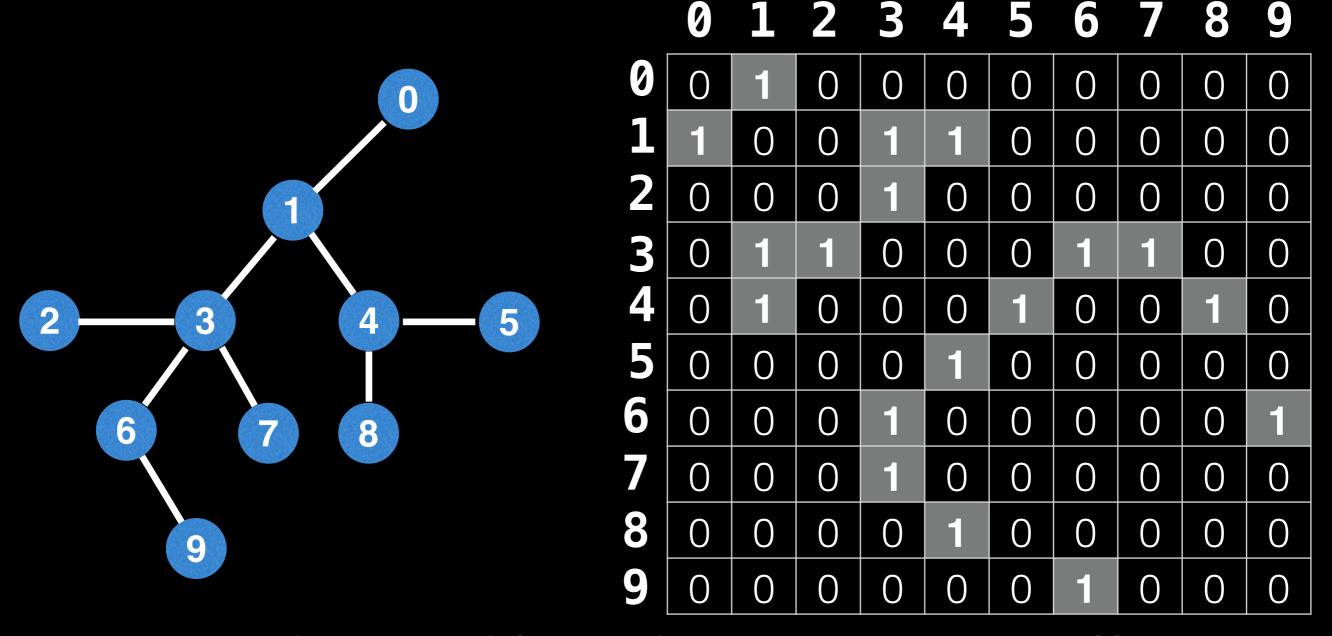
# adjacency list representation

```
0 \rightarrow [1]
1 \rightarrow [0,3,4]
2 -> [3]
3 \rightarrow [1,2,6,7]
4 \rightarrow [1,5,8]
5 -> [4]
6 \rightarrow [3,9]
7 -> [3]
8 -> [4]
9 -> [6]
```

adjacency matrix representation



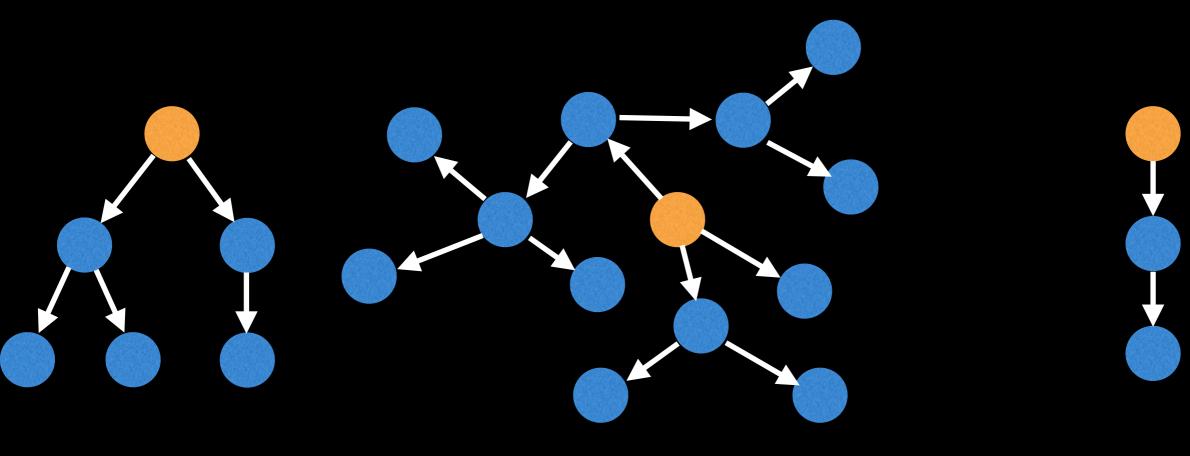
adjacency matrix representation



In practice, avoid storing a tree as an adjacency matrix! It's a huge waste of space to use n<sup>2</sup> memory and only use 2(n-1) of the matrix cells.

# Rooted Trees!

One of the more interesting types of trees is a rooted tree which is a tree with a designated root node.



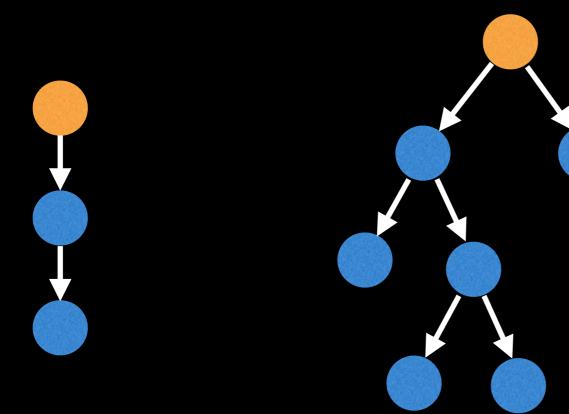
Rooted tree

Rooted tree

Rooted tree

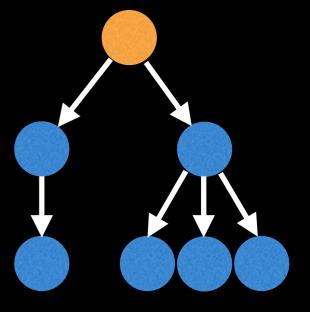
# Binary Tree (BT)

Related to rooted trees are binary trees which are trees for which every node has at most two child nodes.









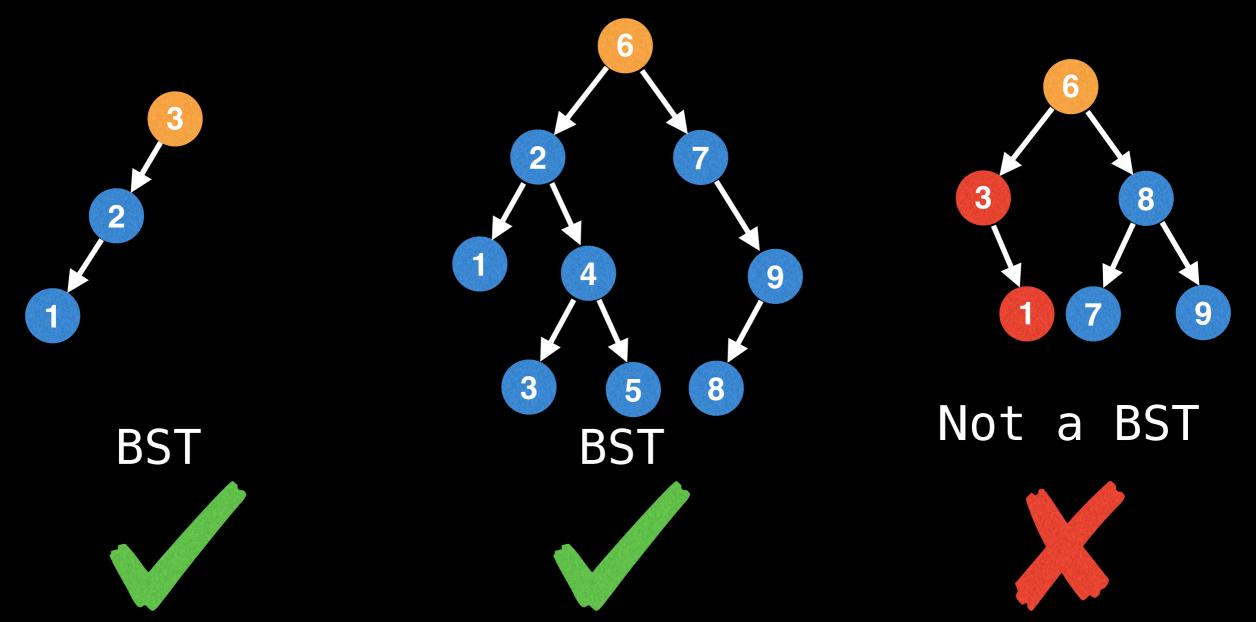
Not a binary tree



#### Binary Search Trees (BST)

Related to binary trees are **binary search trees** which are trees which satisfy the BST invariant which states that for every node x:

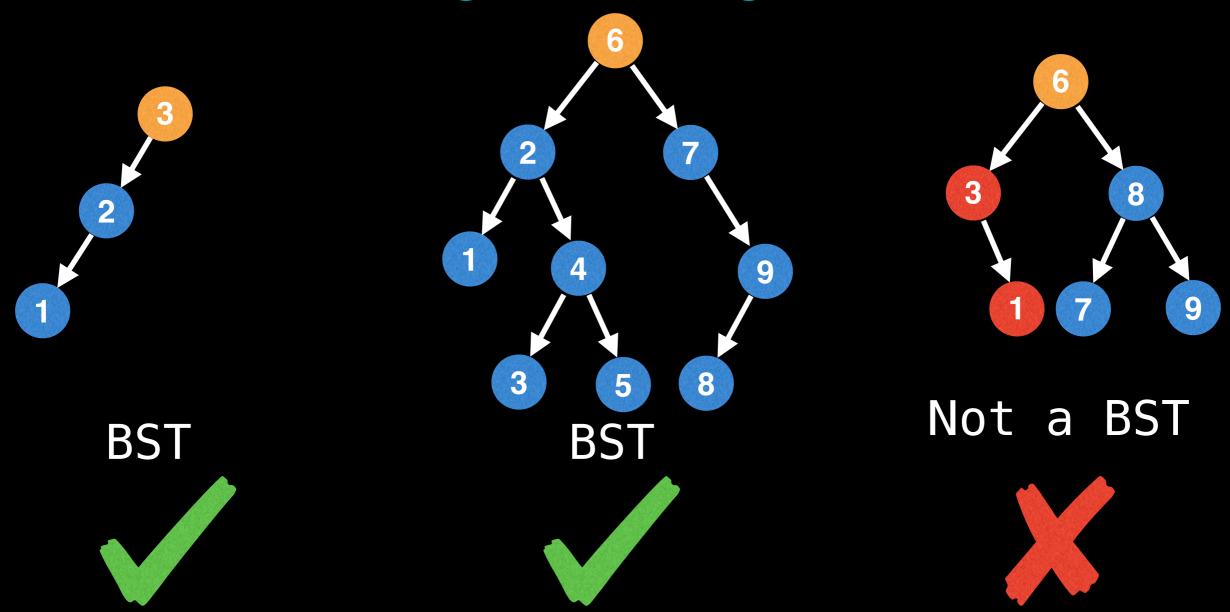
x.left.value ≤ x.value ≤ x.right.value



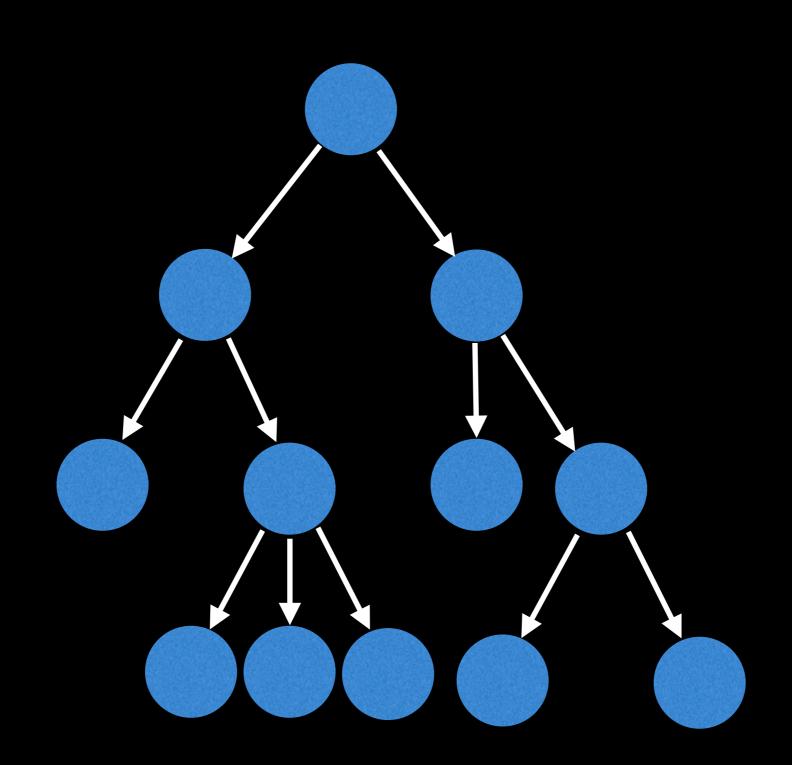
#### Binary Search Trees (BST)

It's often useful to **require uniqueness** on the node values in your tree. Change the invariant to be strictly < rather than ≤:

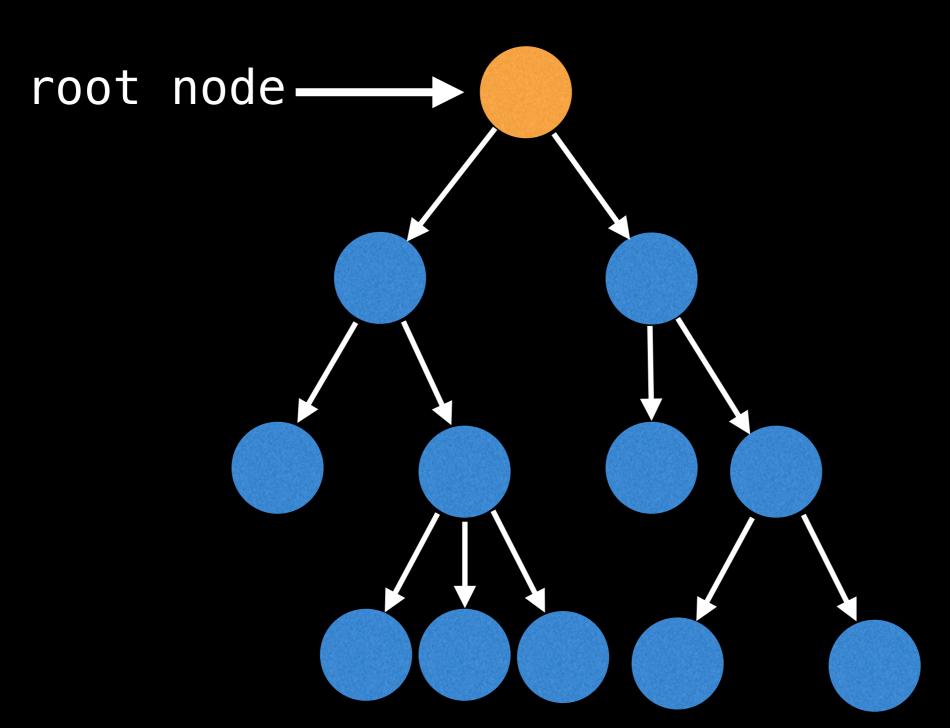
x.left.value < x.value < x.right.value



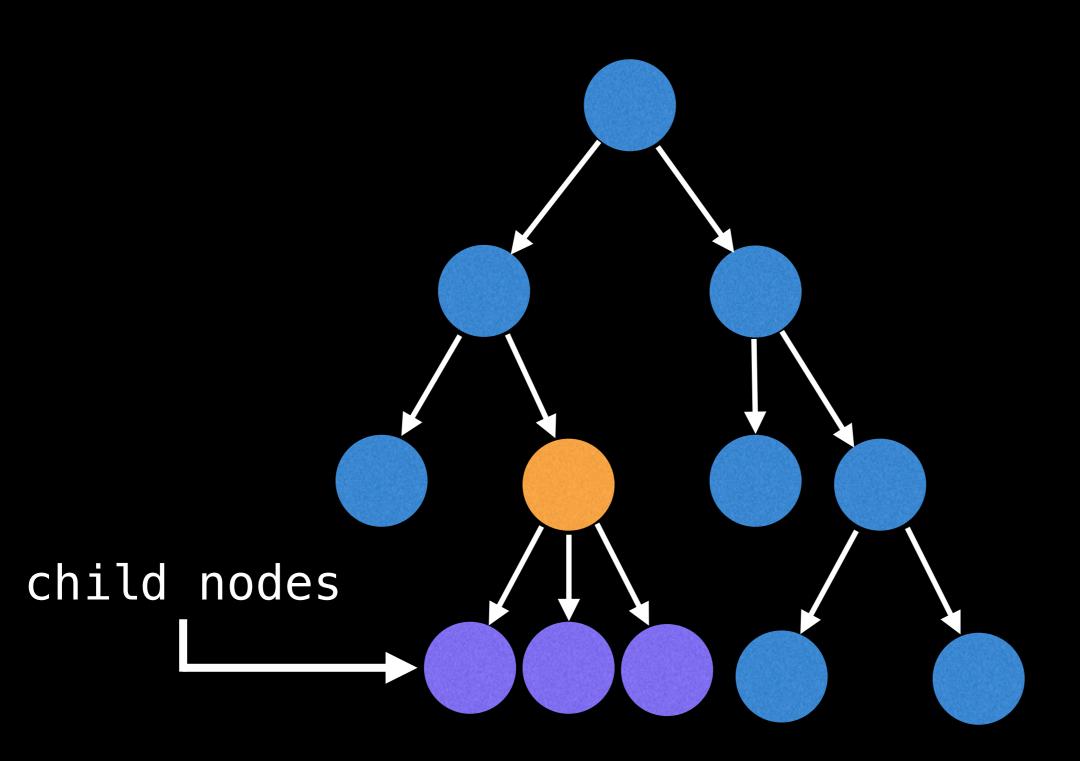
Rooted trees are most naturally defined recursively in a top-down manner.



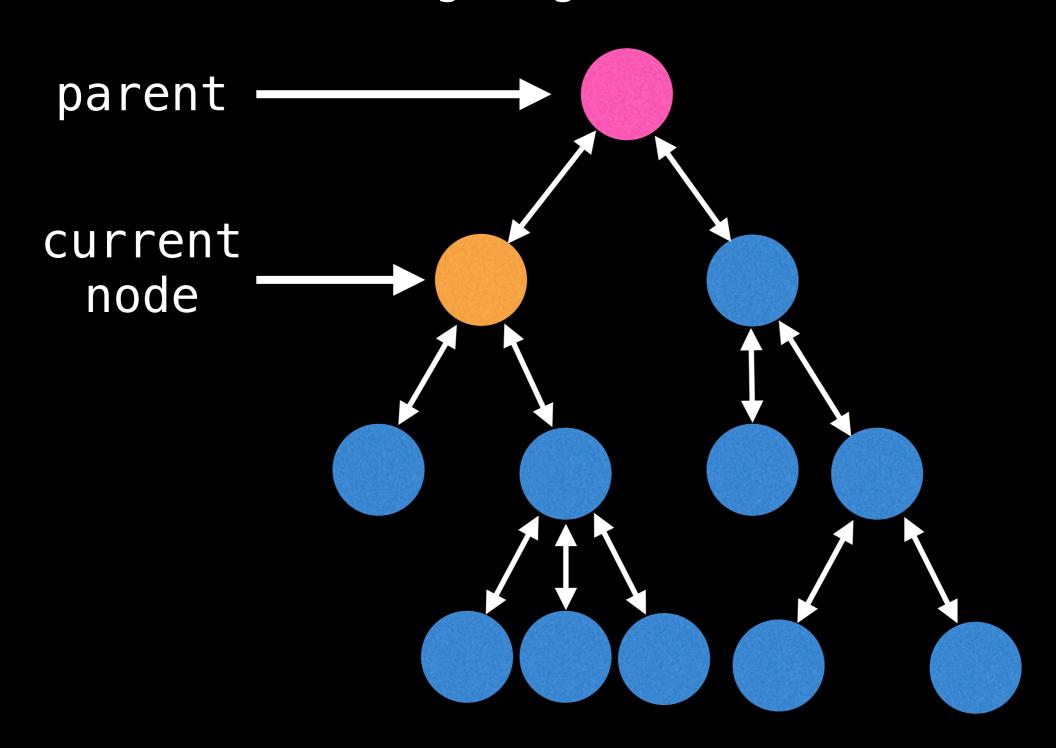
In practice, you always maintain a pointer reference to the **root node** so that you can access the tree and its contents.



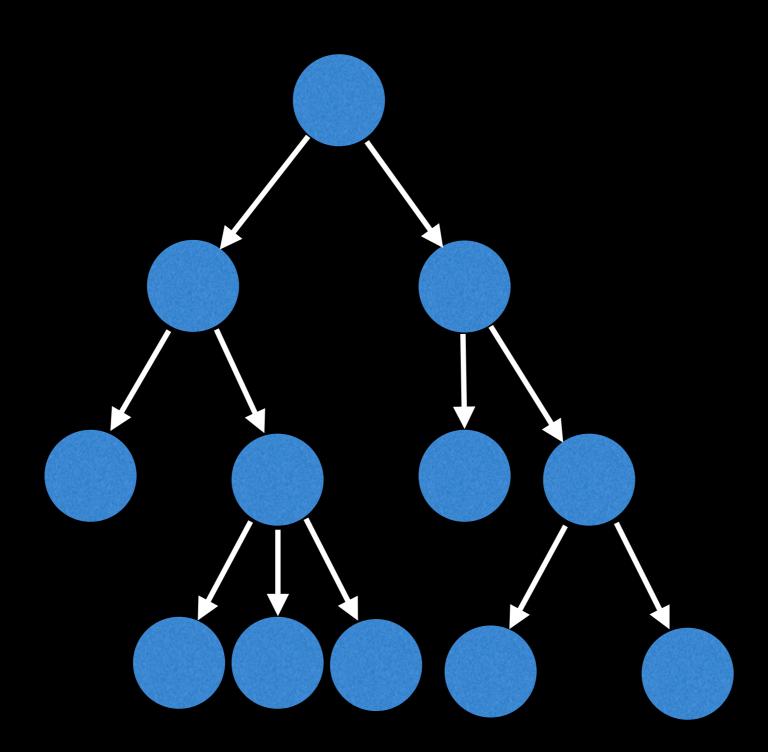
Each node also has access to a list of all its children.



Sometimes it's also useful to maintain a pointer to a node's **parent node** effectively making edges **bidirectional**.

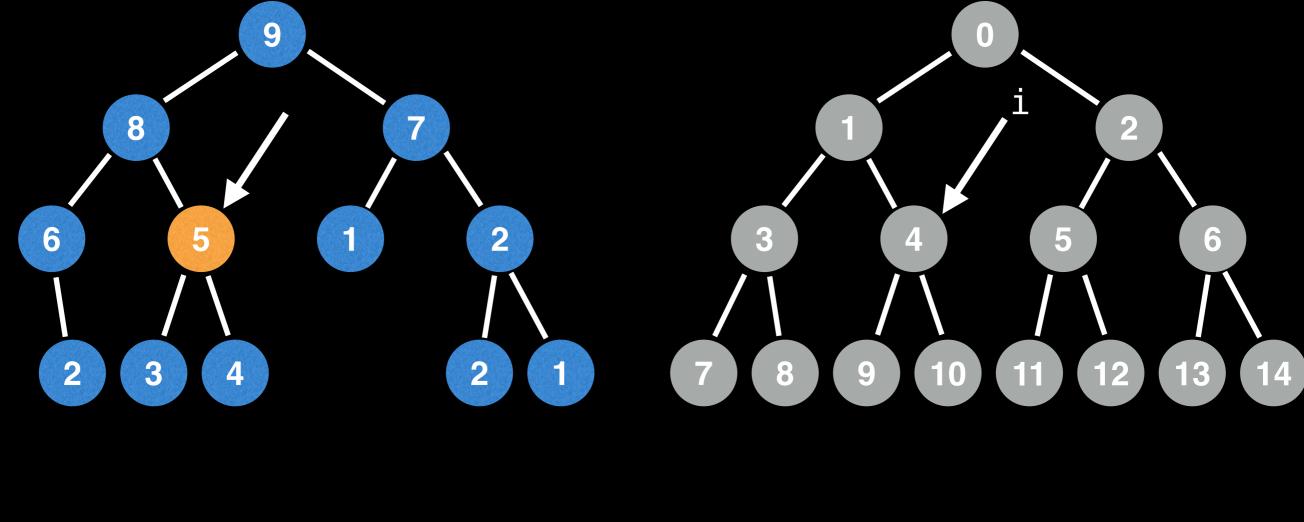


However, this isn't usually necessary because you can access a node's parent on a recursive function's callback.



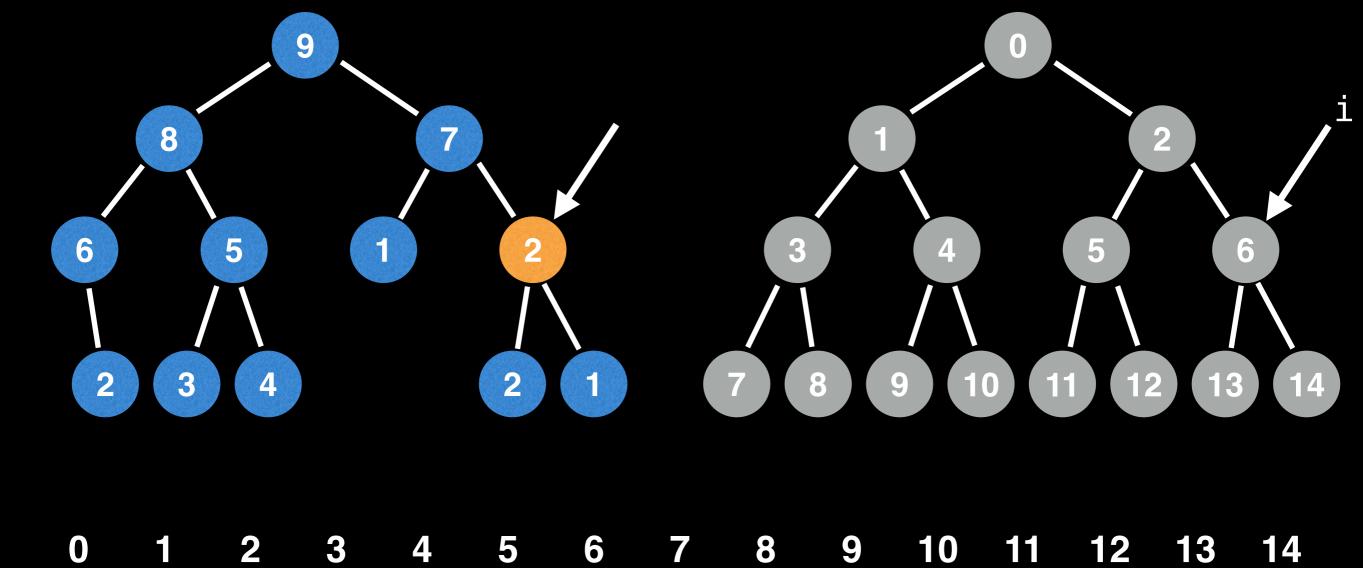
If your tree is a binary tree, you can store it in a flattened array.

In this flattened array representation, each node has an assigned index position based on <a href="where it is in the tree">where it is in the tree</a>.



0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
9	8	7	6	5	1	2	Ø	2	3	4	Ø	Ø	2	1

In this flattened array representation, each node has an assigned index position based on where it is in the tree.



2

 $\emptyset$ 

 $\emptyset$ 

This trick also works for any n-ary tree

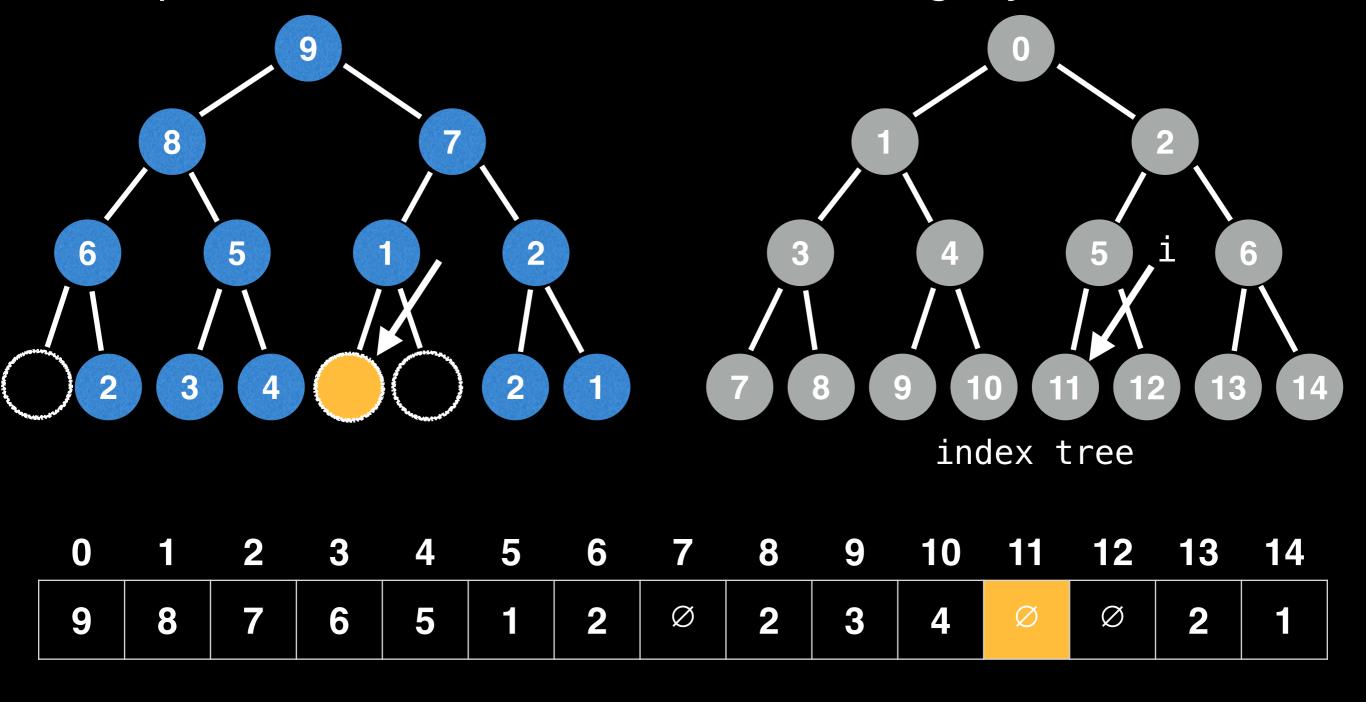
 $\emptyset$ 

9

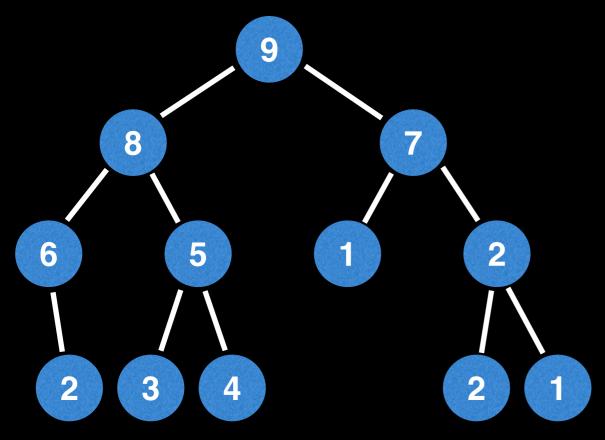
8

6

Even nodes which aren't currently present have an index because they can be mapped back to a unique position in the "index tree" (gray tree).



The root node is always at index 0 and the children of the current node *i* are accessed relative to position *i*.



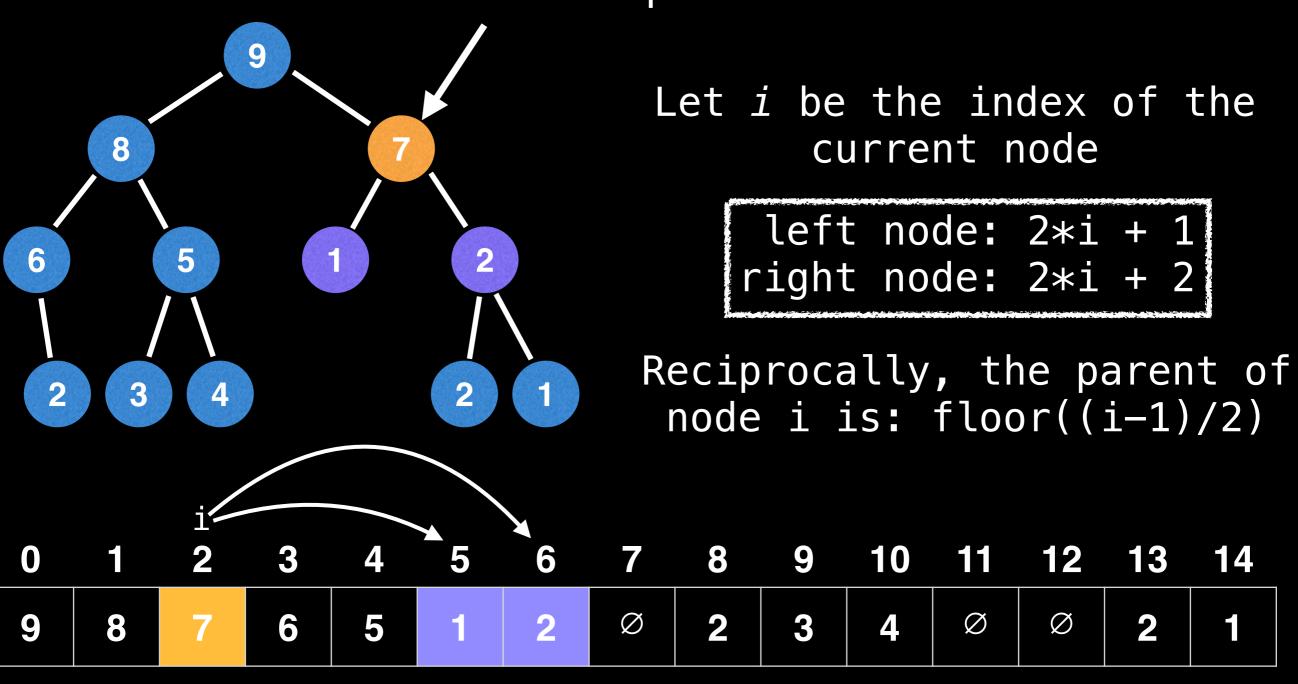
Let *i* be the index of the current node

left node: 2\*i + 1
right node: 2\*i + 2

Reciprocally, the parent of node i is: floor((i-1)/2)

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
9	8	7	6	5	1	2	Ø	2	3	4	Ø	Ø	2	1

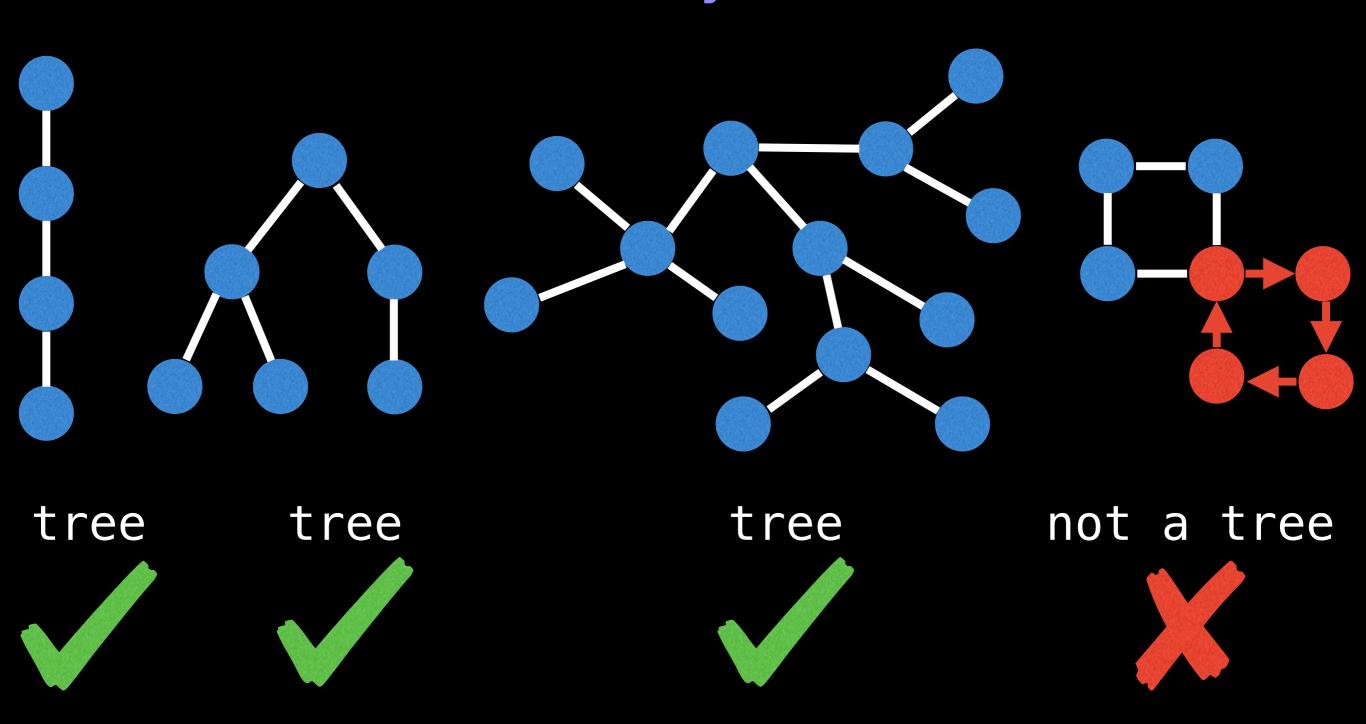
The root node is always at index 0 and the children of the current node *i* are accessed relative to position *i*.

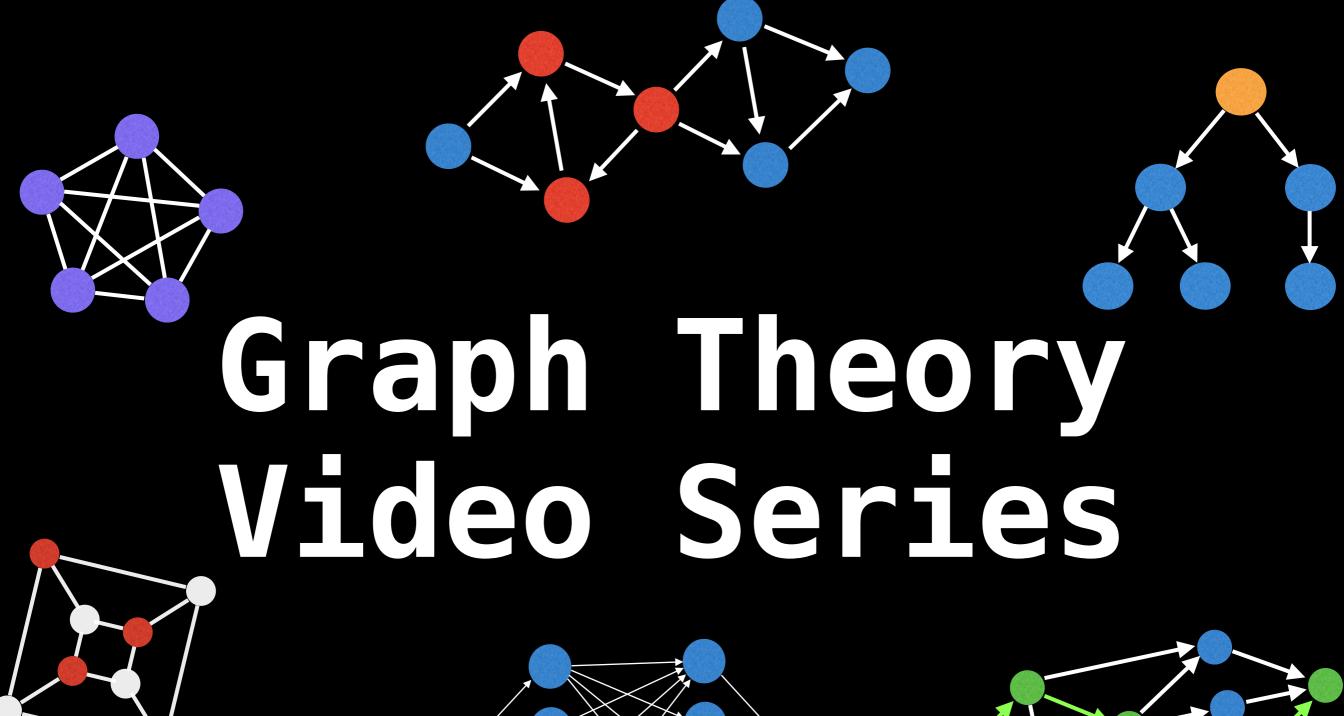


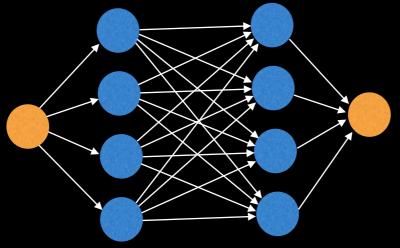
Next Video: beginner tree algorithms

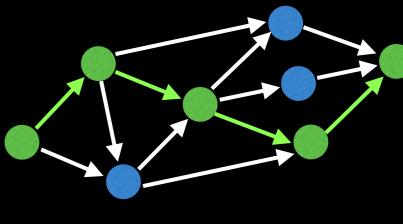
## Introduction to Trees

A tree is a connected, undirected graph with no cycles.







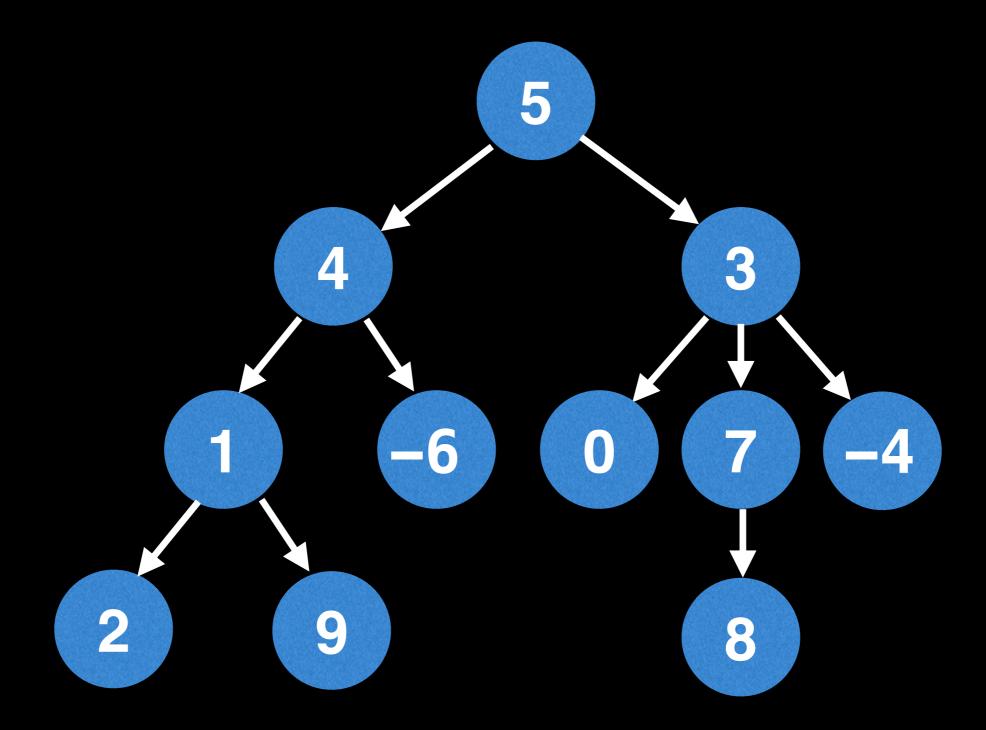


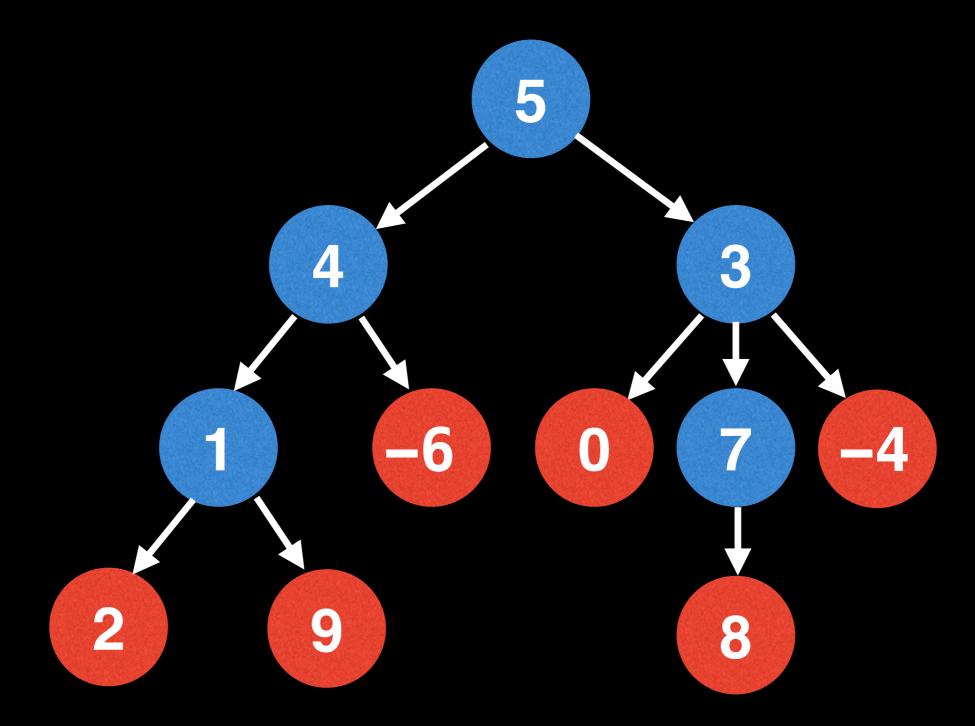
## Beginner tree algorithms



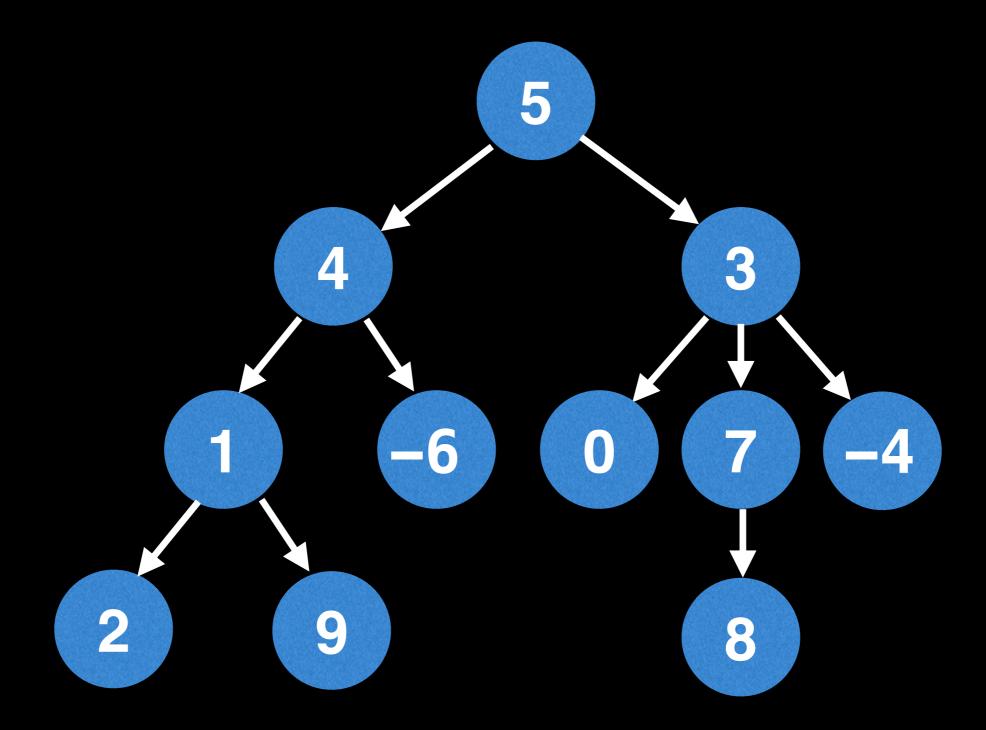
## Problem 1: leaf node sum

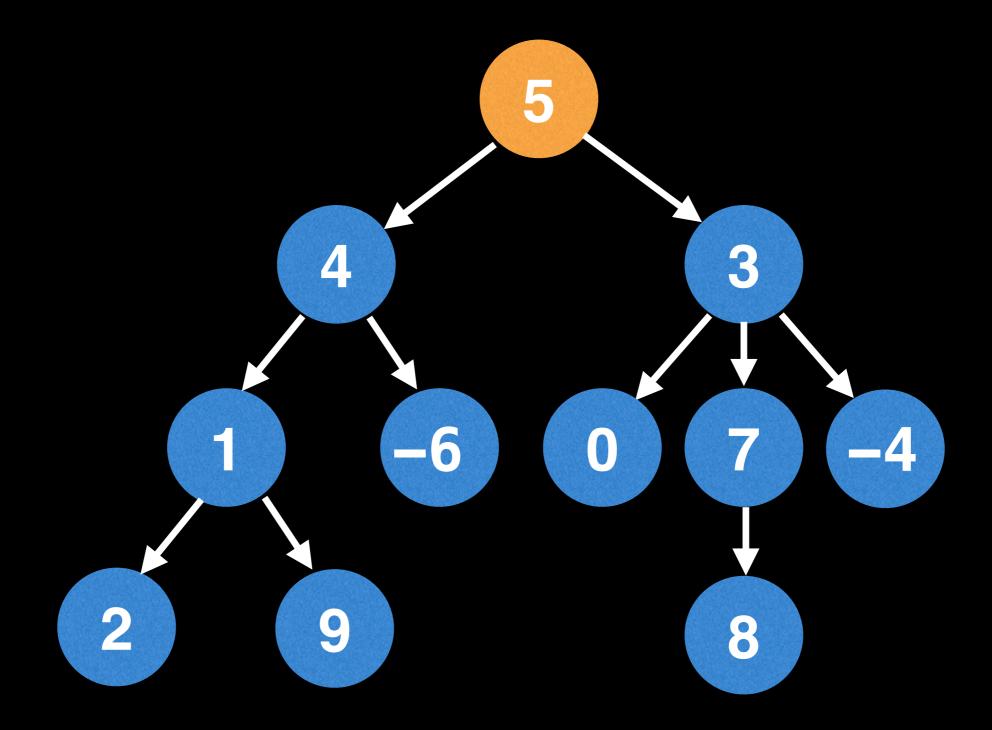
What is the sum of all the leaf node values in a tree?



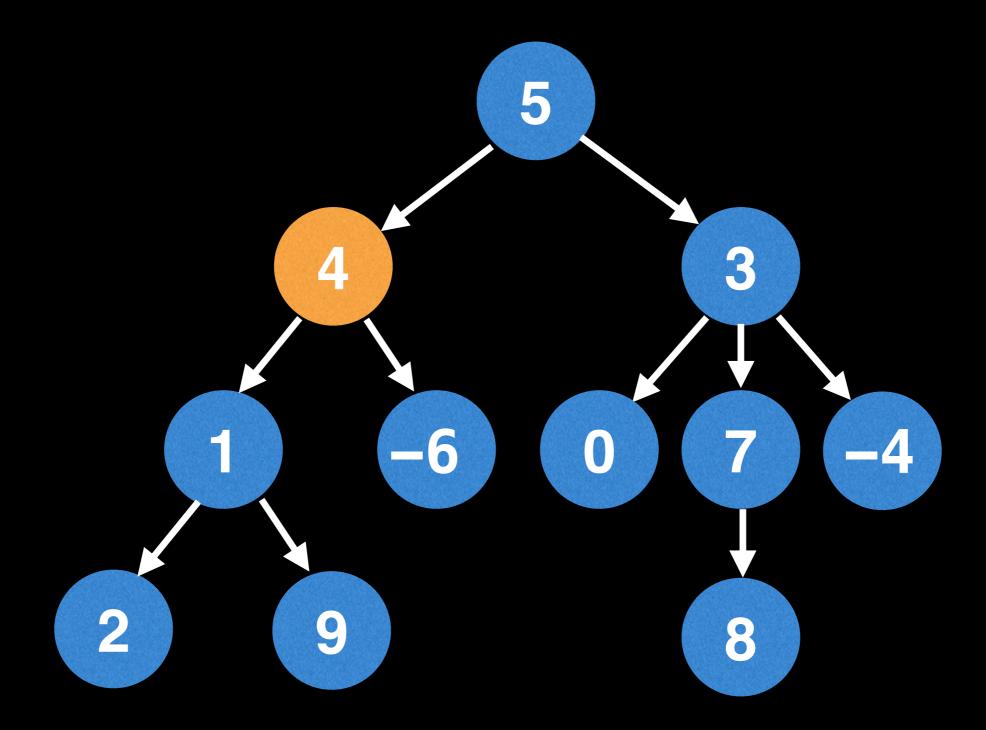


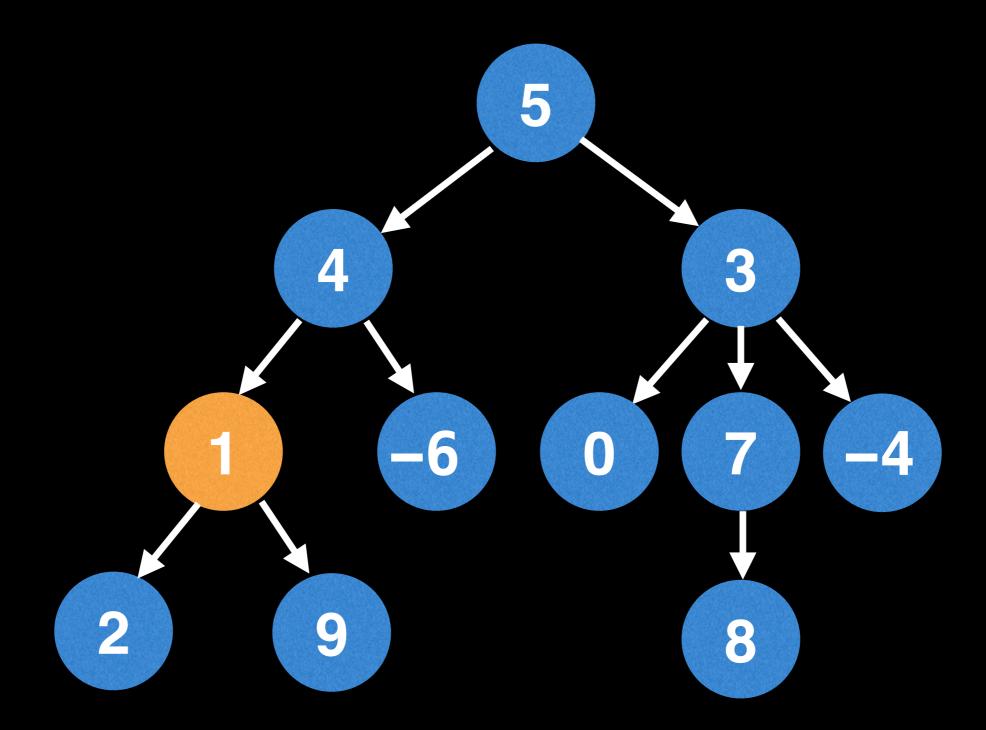
$$2 + 9 - 6 + 0 + 8 - 4 = 9$$

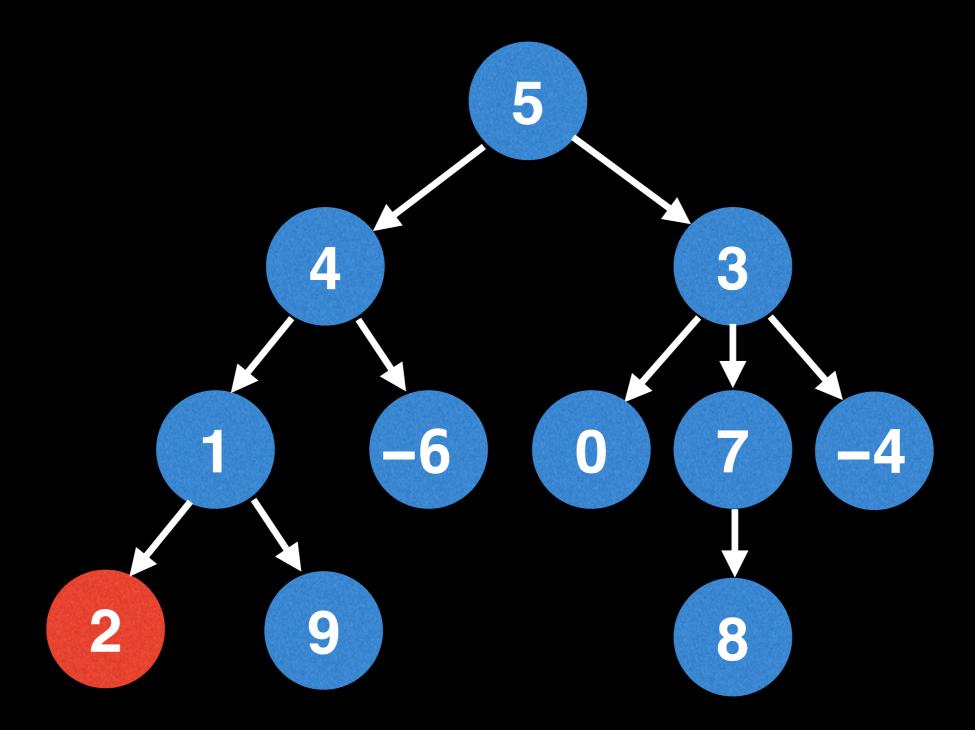


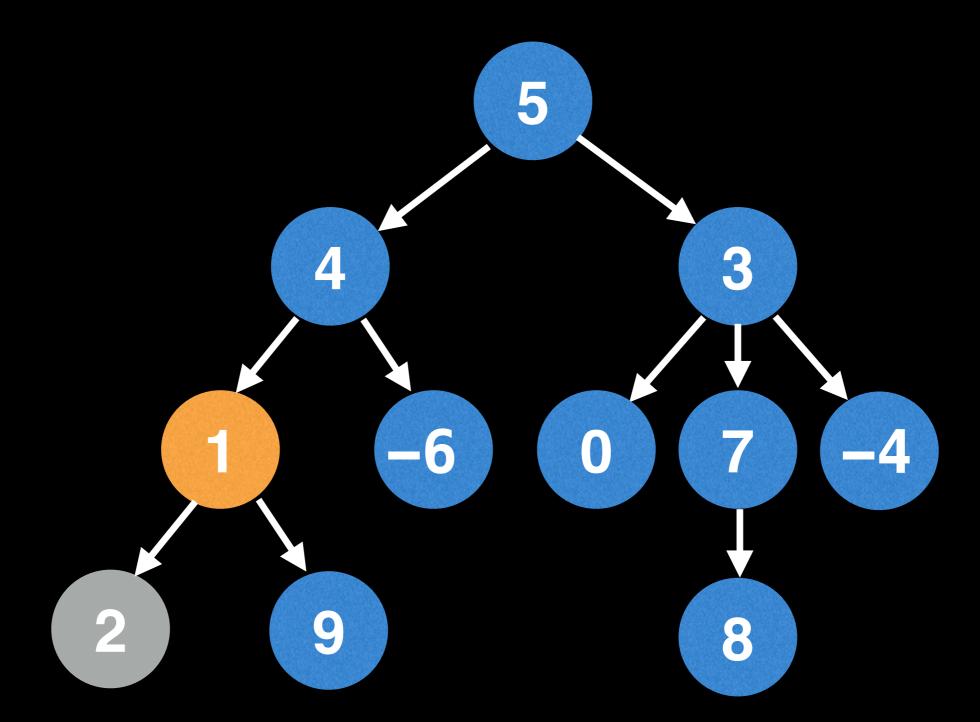


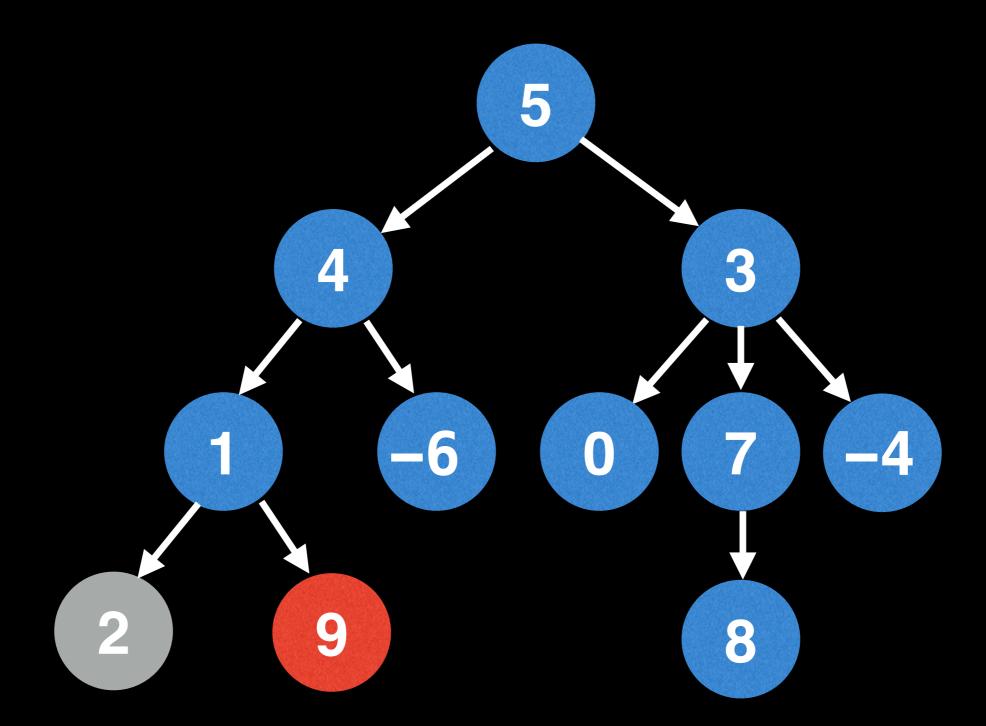
When dealing with rooted trees you begin with having a reference to the root node as a starting point for most algorithms.

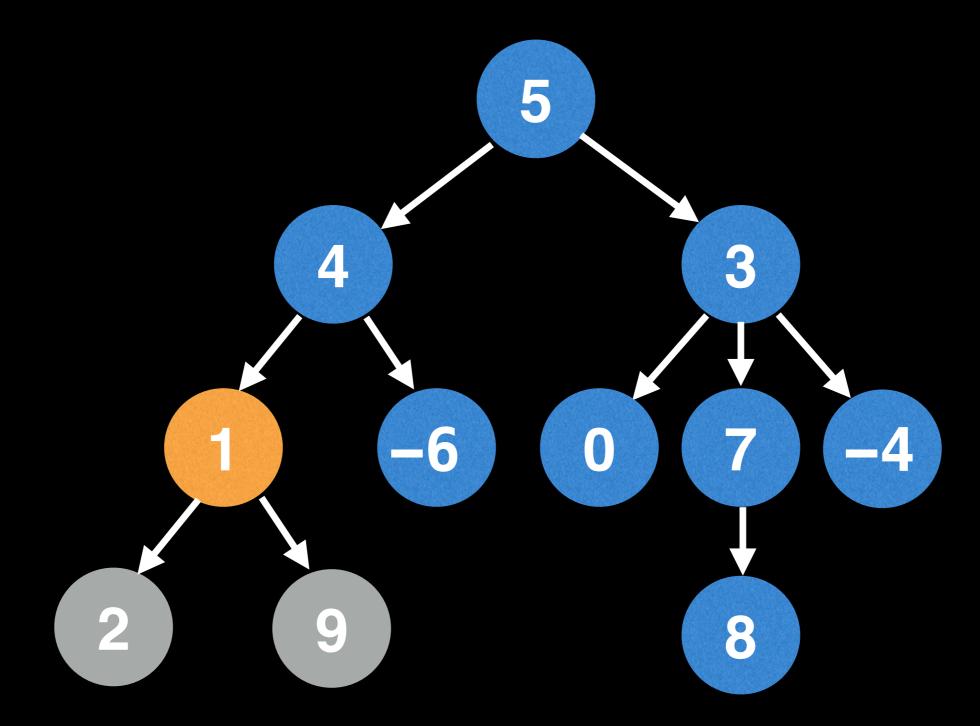




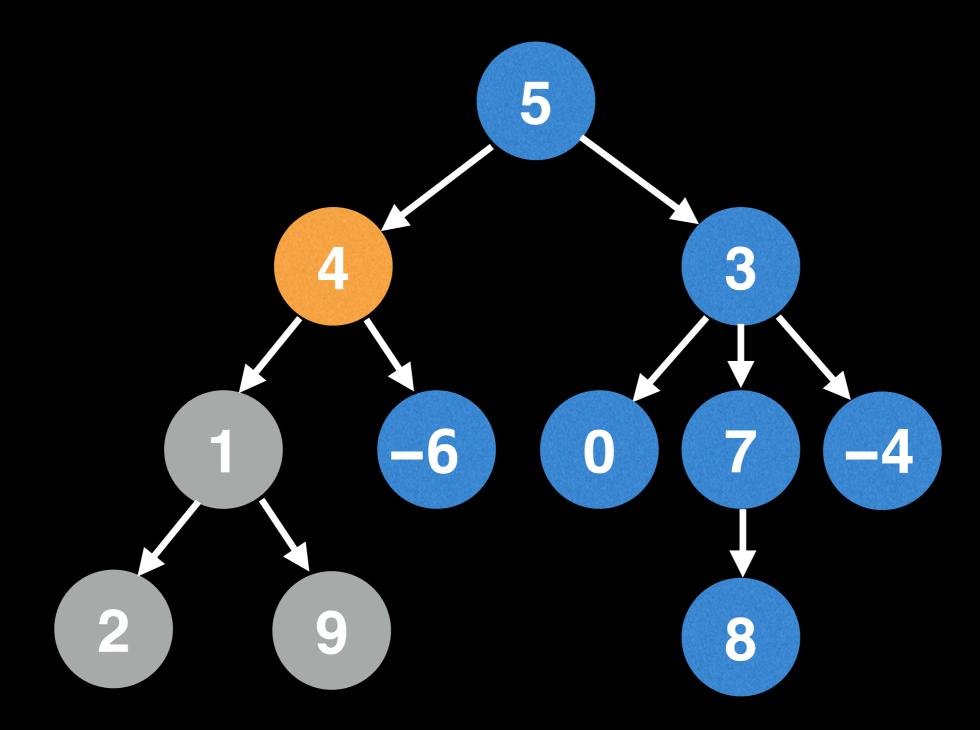




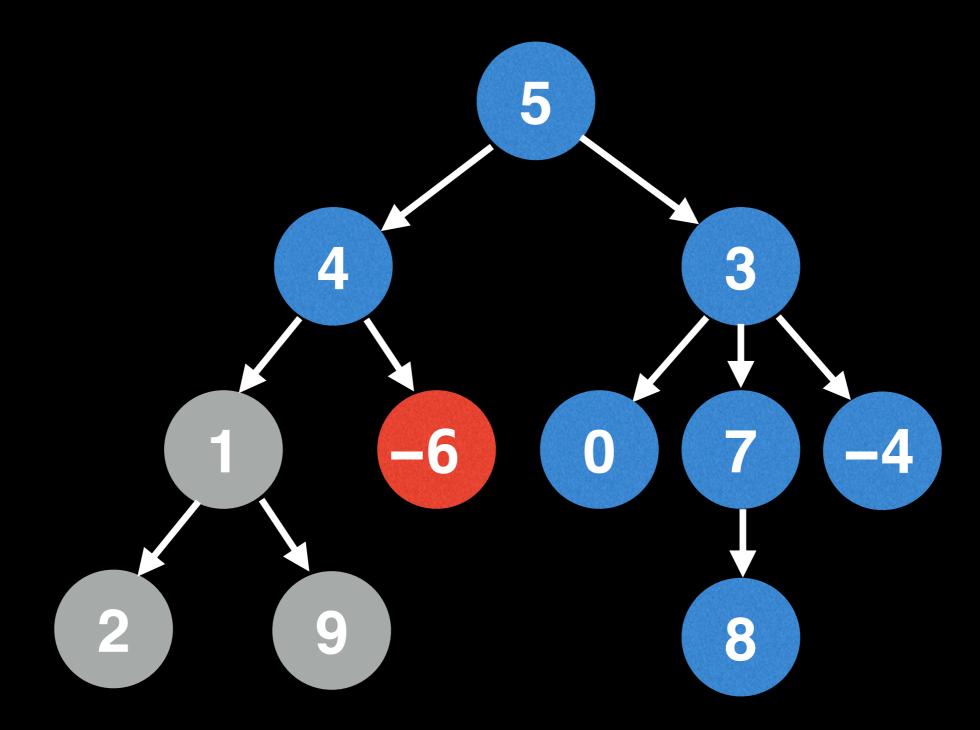




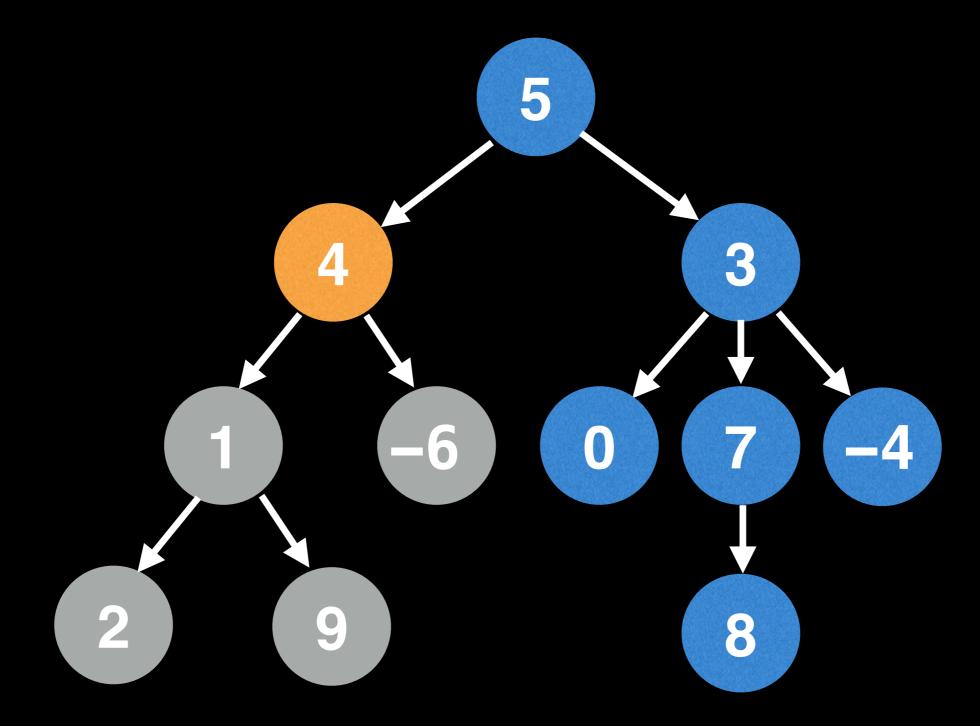
$$2 + 9$$



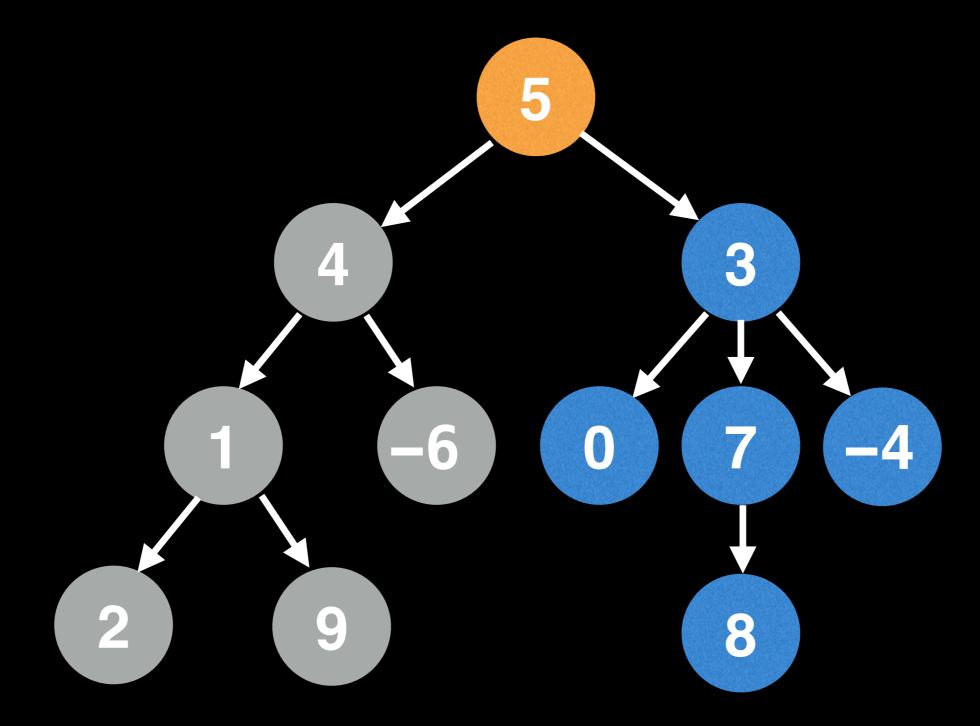
$$2 + 9$$



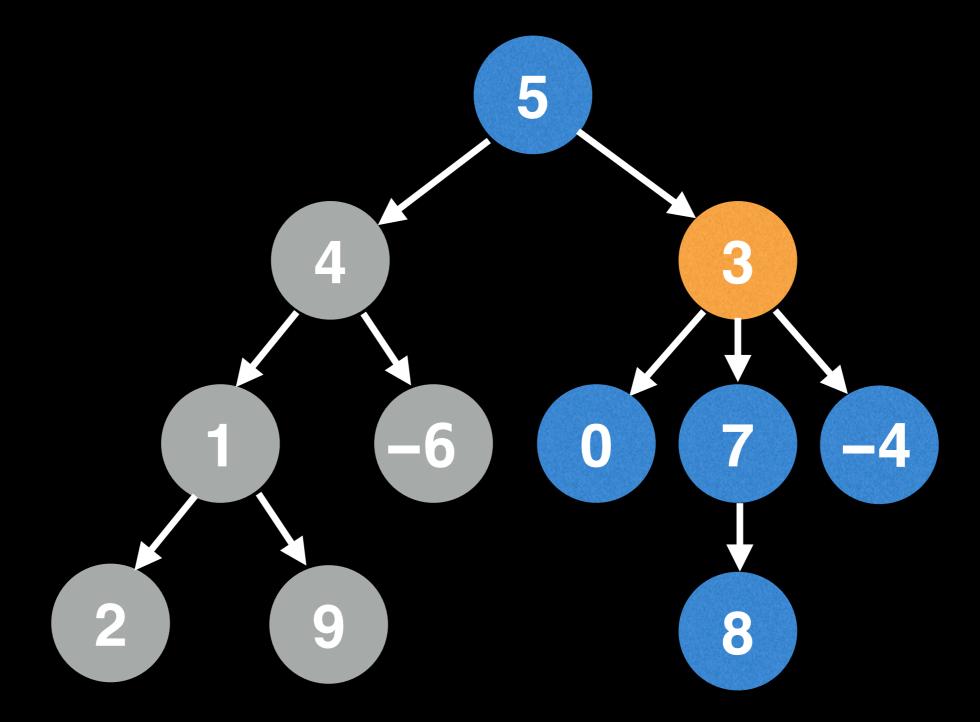
$$2 + 9$$



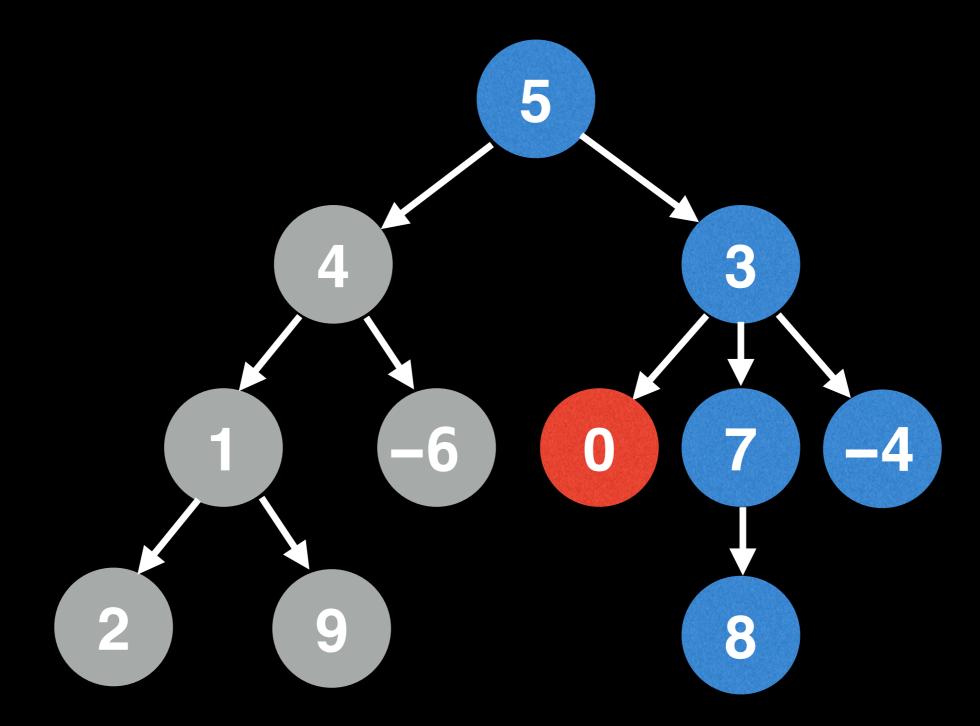
$$2 + 9 - 6$$



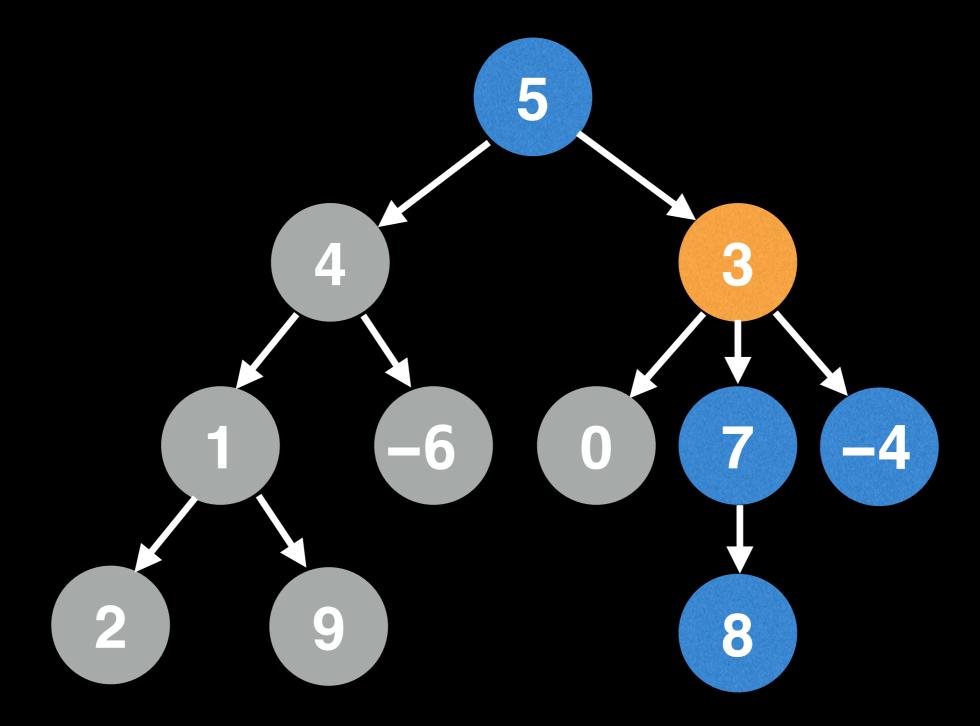
$$2 + 9 - 6$$

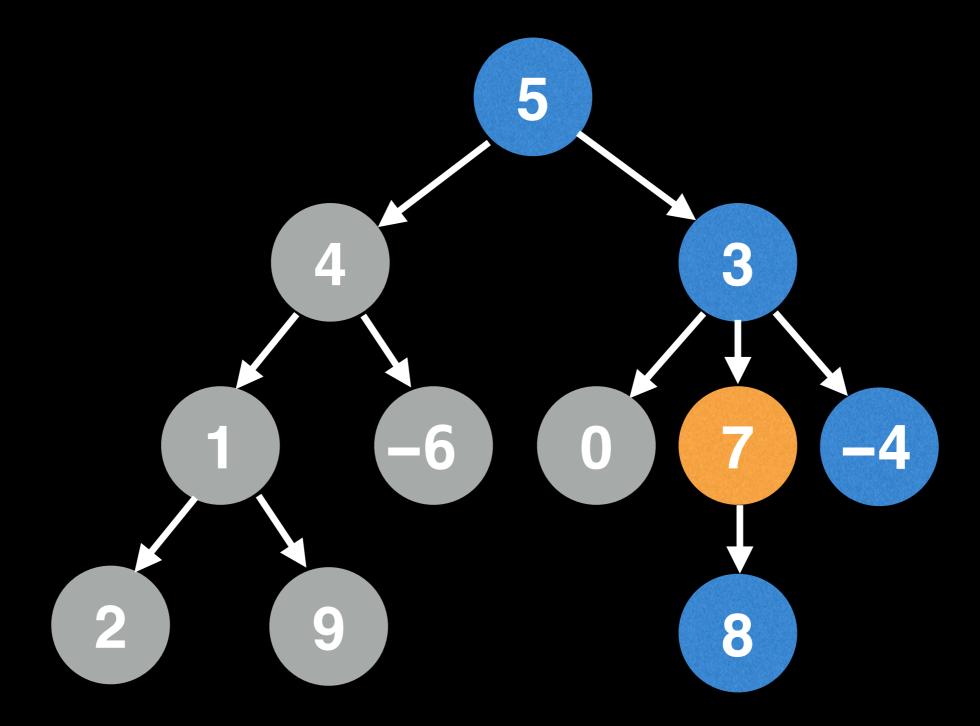


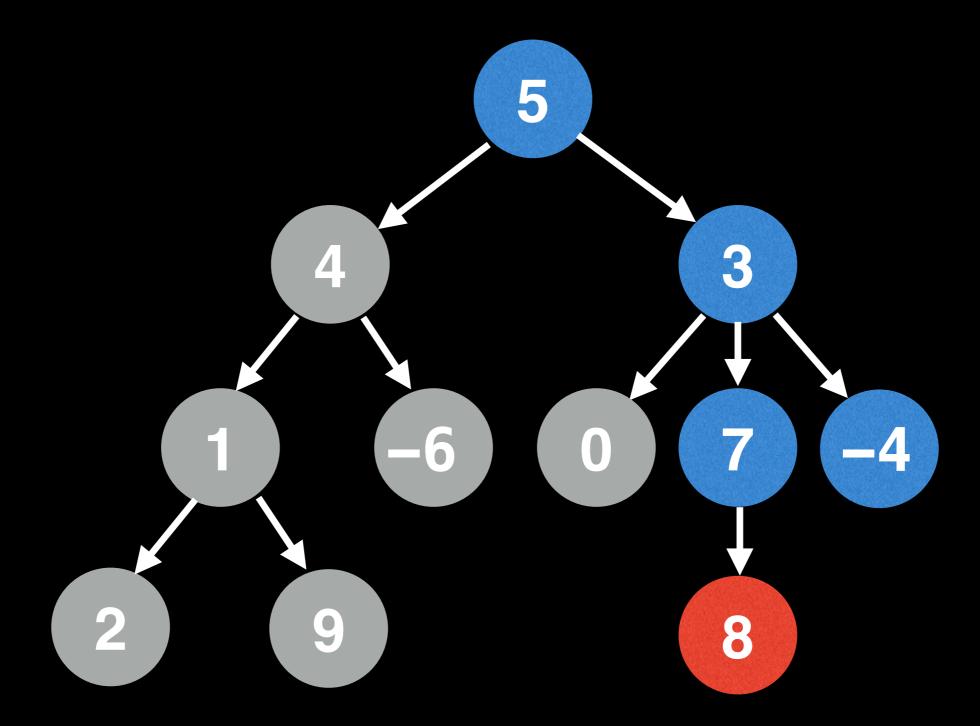
$$2 + 9 - 6$$

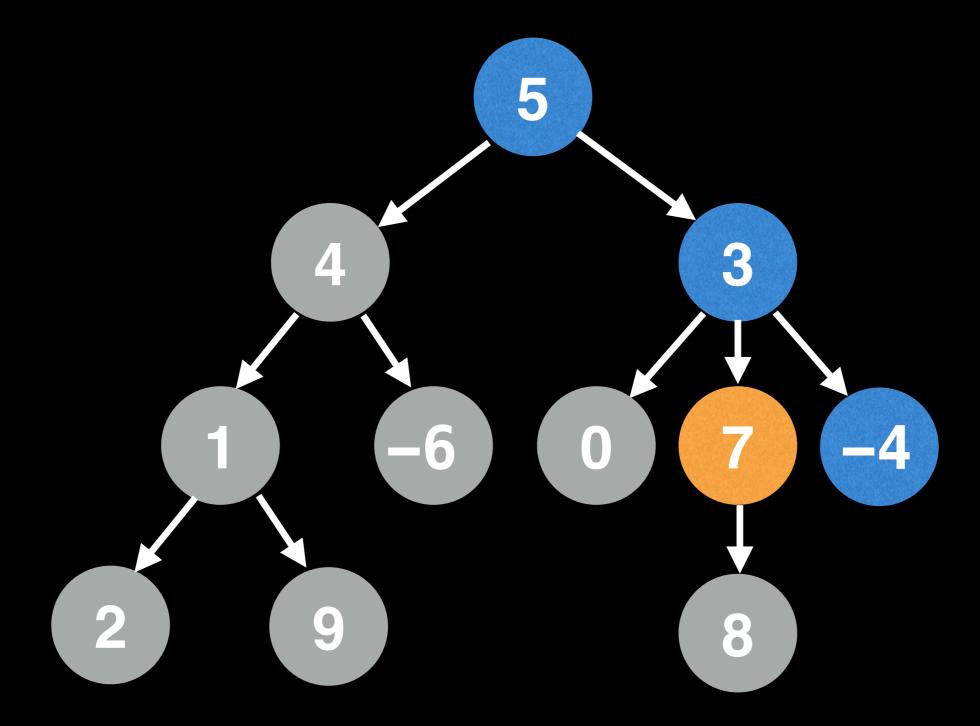


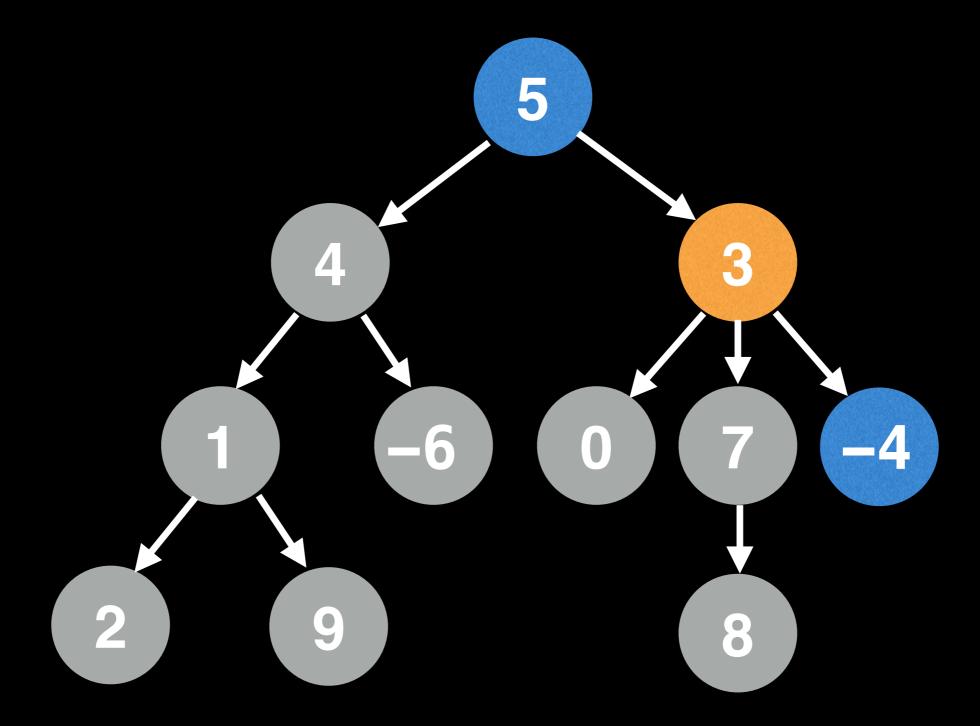
$$2 + 9 - 6$$



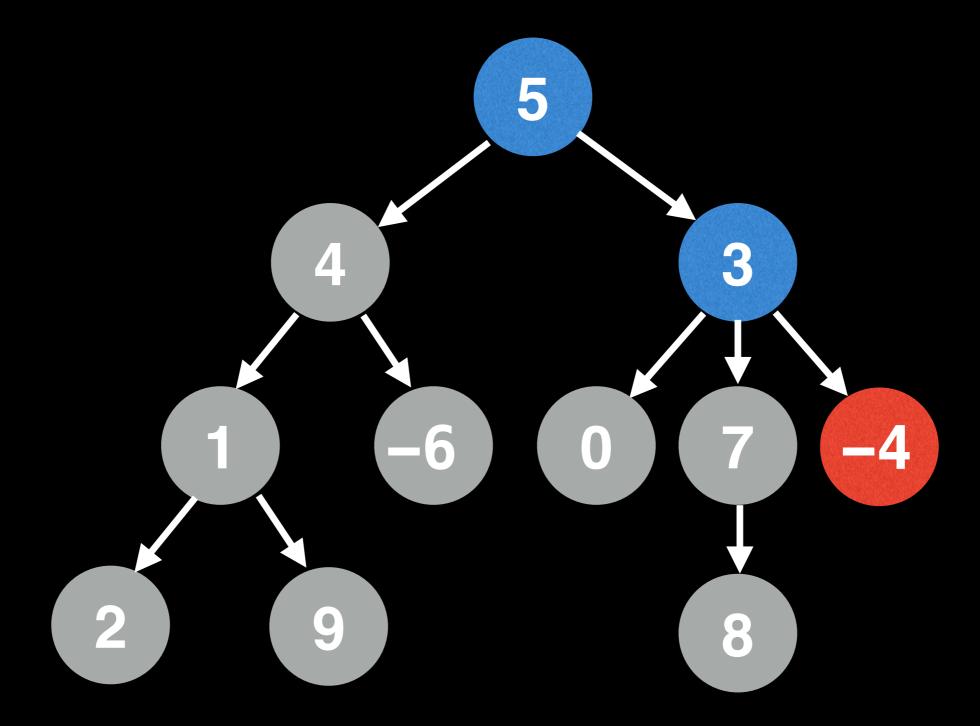




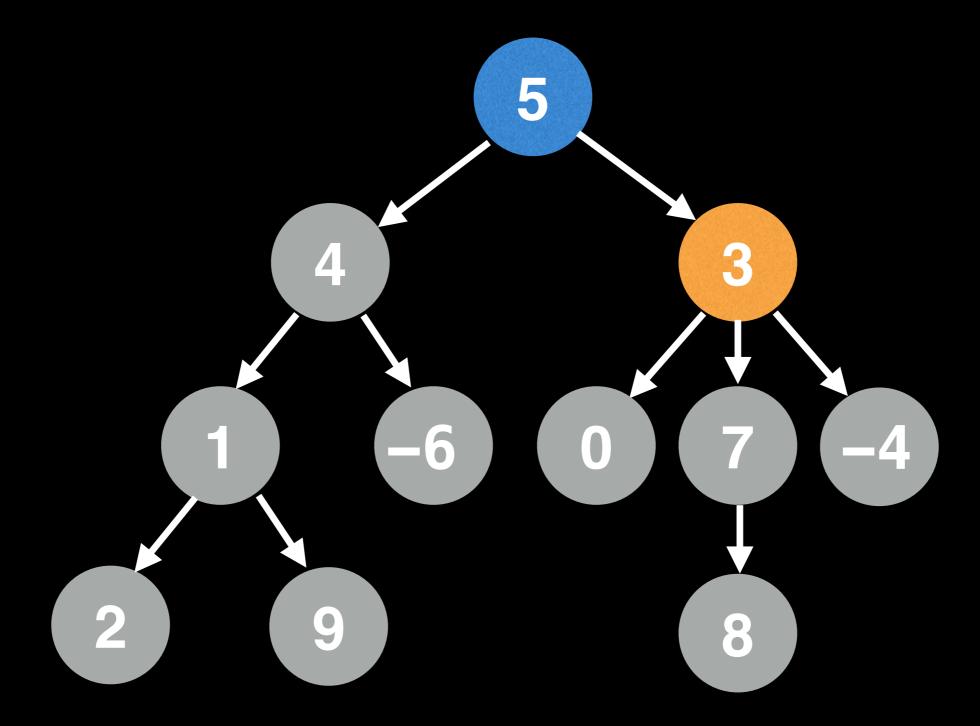




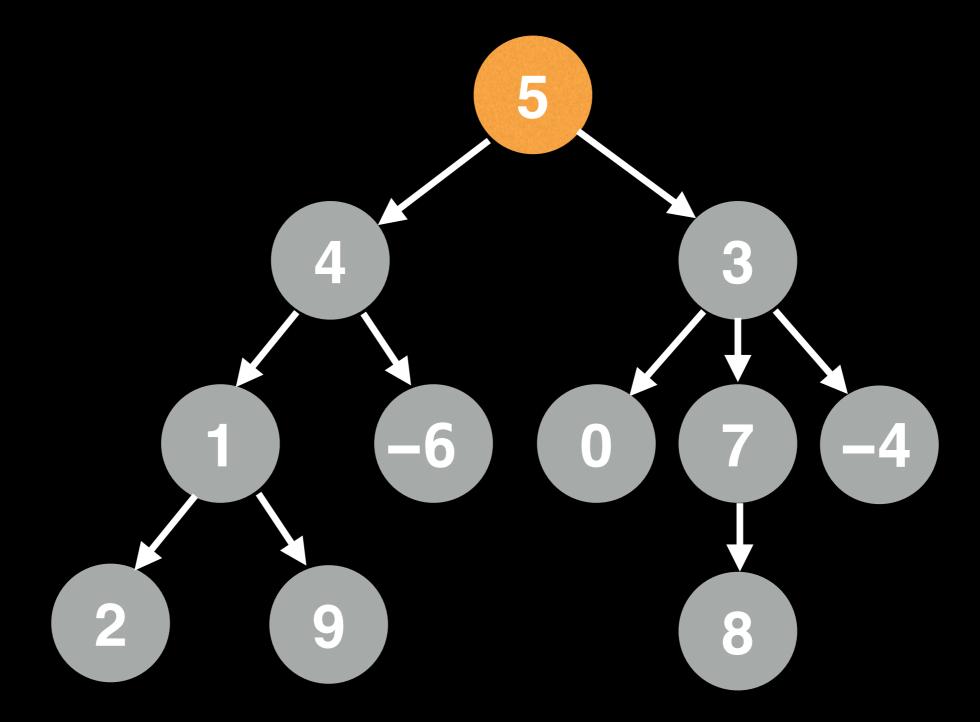
$$2 + 9 - 6 + 0 + 8$$



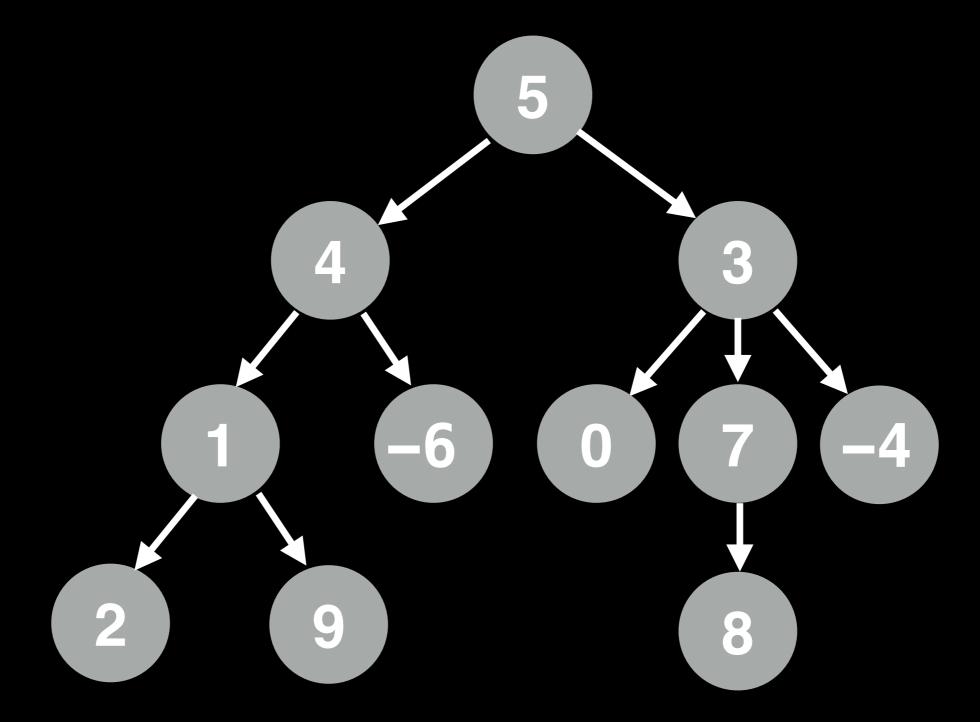
$$2 + 9 - 6 + 0 + 8$$



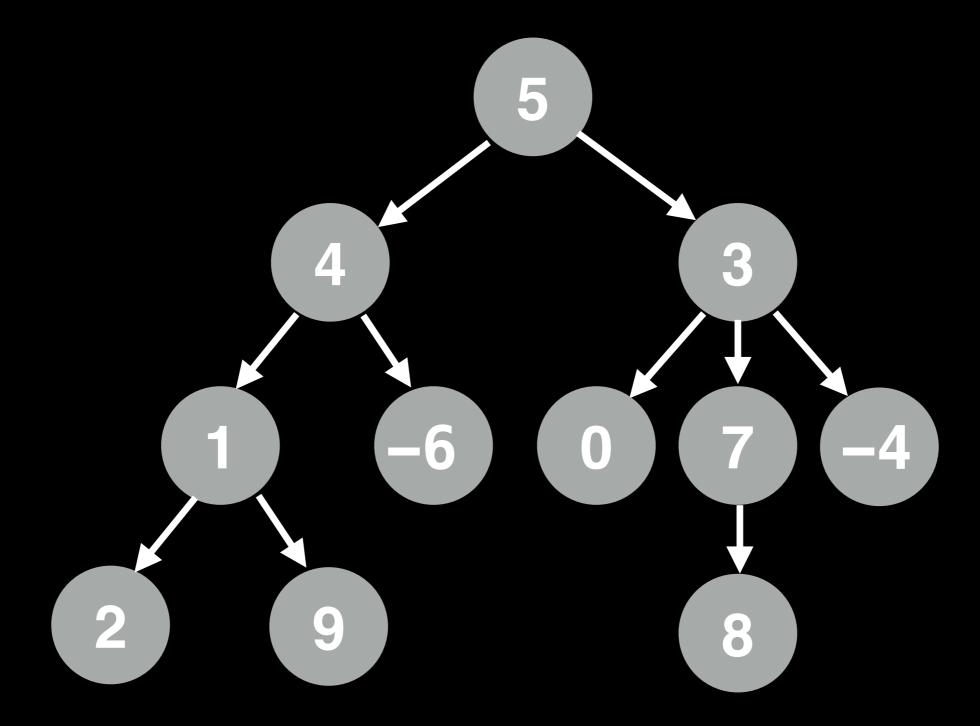
$$2 + 9 - 6 + 0 + 8 - 4$$



$$2 + 9 - 6 + 0 + 8 - 4$$



$$2 + 9 - 6 + 0 + 8 - 4$$



$$2 + 9 - 6 + 0 + 8 - 4 = 9$$

```
# Sums up leaf node values in a tree.
# Call function like: leafSum(root)
function leafSum(node):
  # Handle empty tree case
  if node == null:
    return 0
  if isLeaf(node):
    return node.getValue()
  total = 0
  for child in node.getChildNodes():
     total += leafSum(child)
  return total
function isLeaf(node):
  return node.getChildNodes().size() == 0
```

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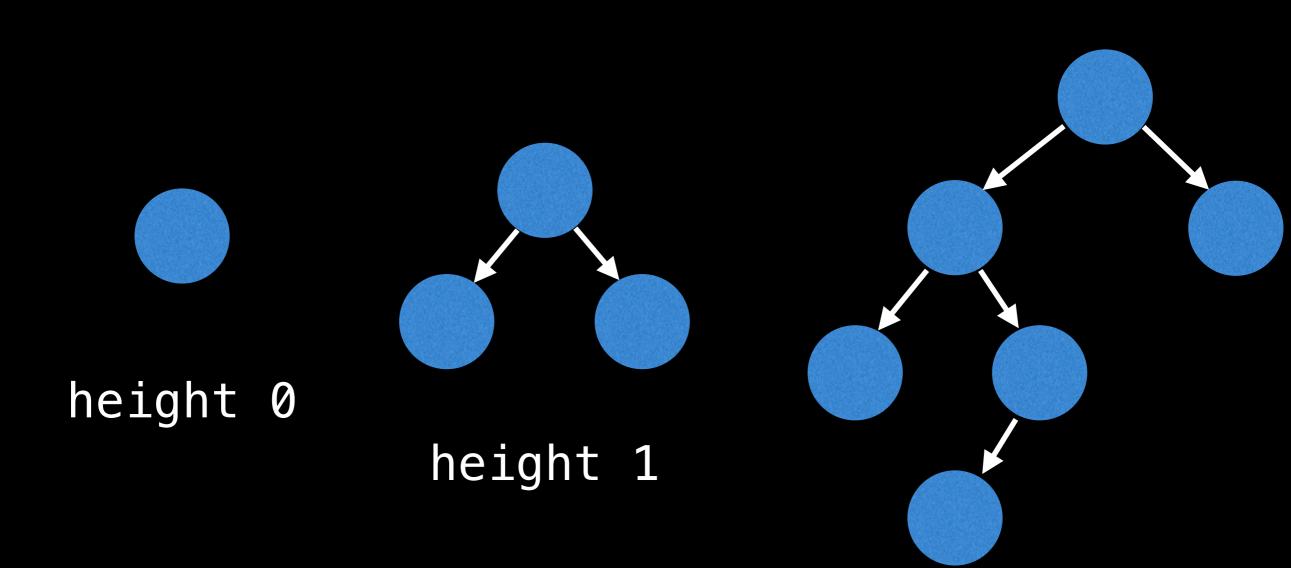
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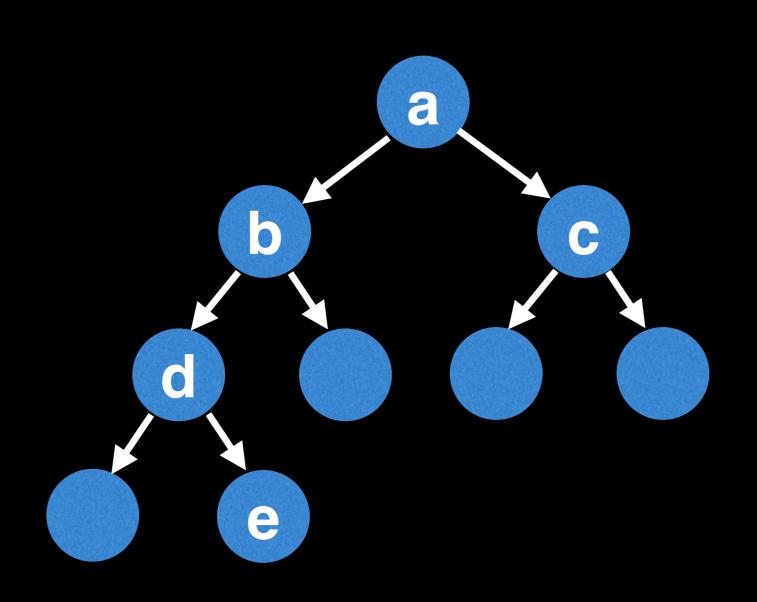
## Problem 2: Tree Height

Find the **height** of a **binary tree**. The **height** of a tree is the number of edges from the root to the lowest leaf.

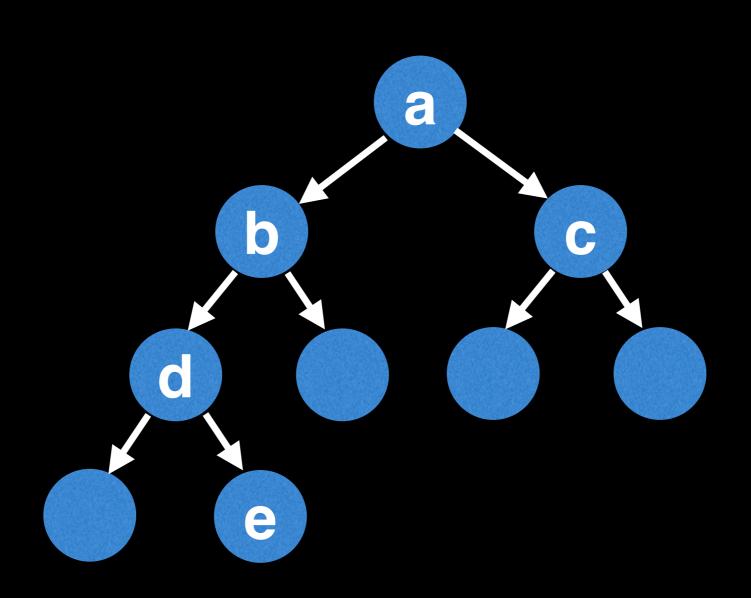


height 3

Let h(x) be the height of the subtree rooted at node x.

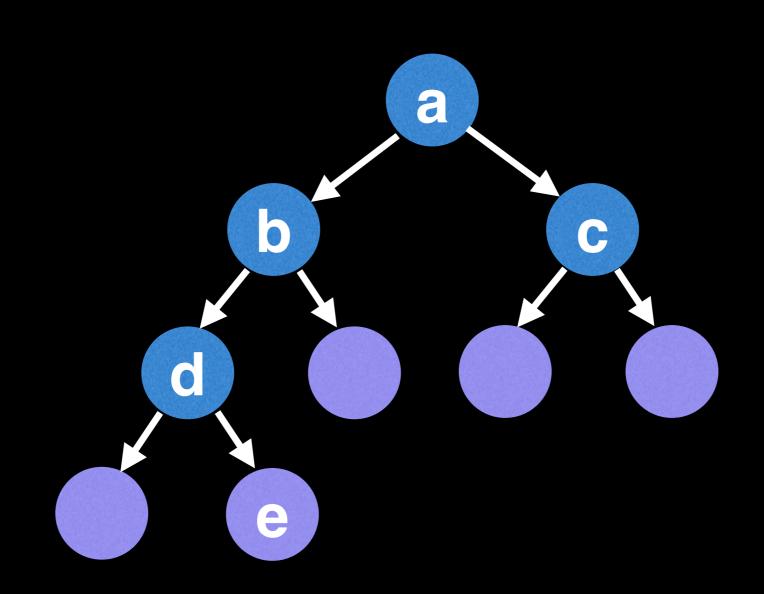


Let h(x) be the height of the subtree rooted at node x.



$$h(a) = 3$$
,  $h(b) = 2$ ,  $h(c) = 1$ ,  $h(d) = 1$ ,  $h(e) = 0$ 

By themselves, leaf nodes such as node **e** don't have children, so they don't add any additional height to the tree.

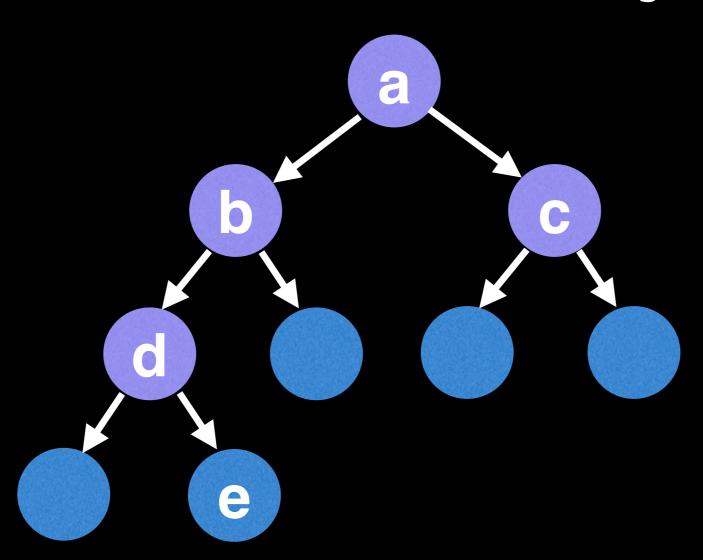


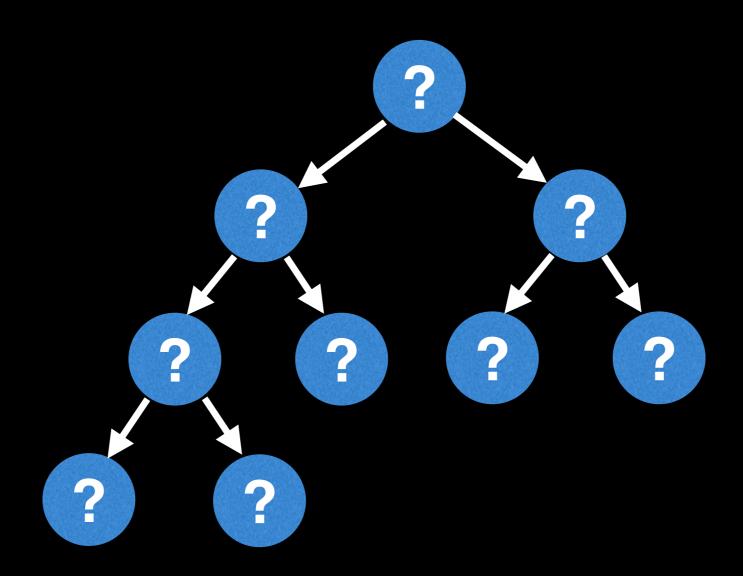
As a base case we can conclude that:

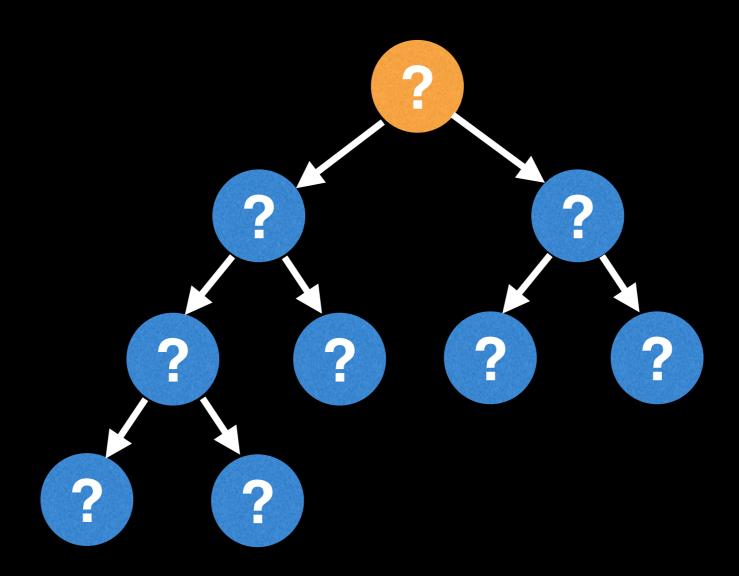
$$h(leaf node) = 0$$

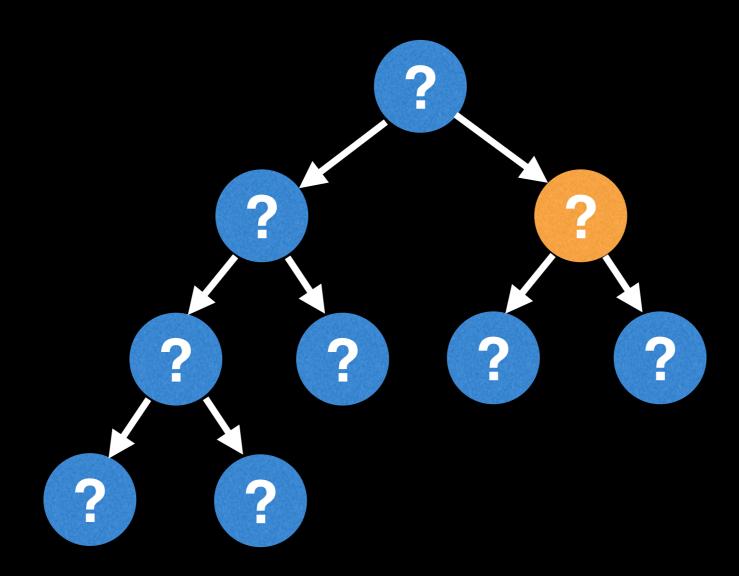
Assuming node x is not a leaf node, we're able to formulate a recurrence for the height:

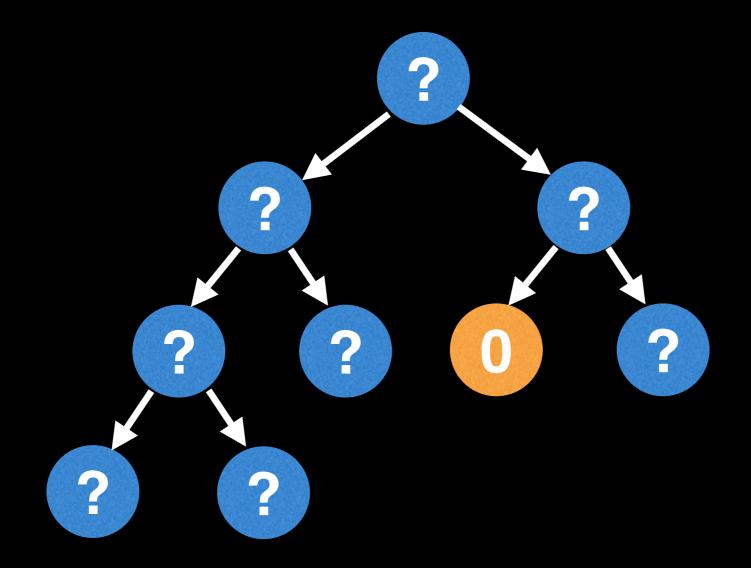
h(x) = max(h(x.left), h(x.right)) + 1

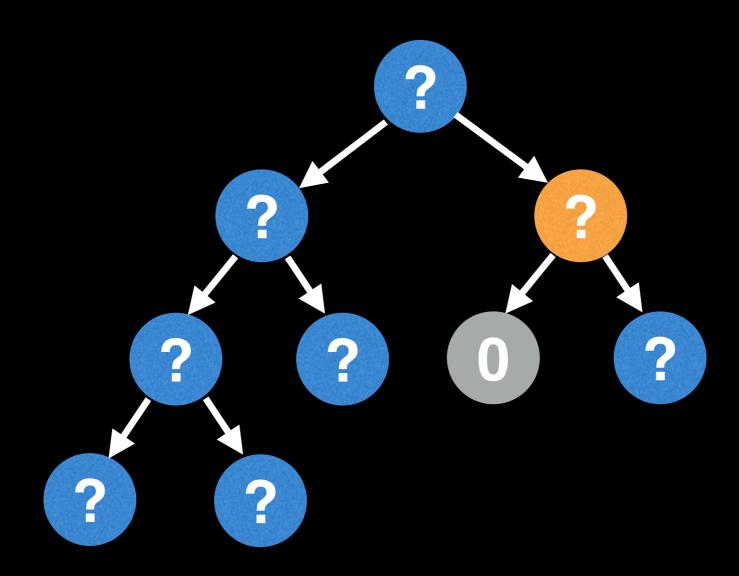


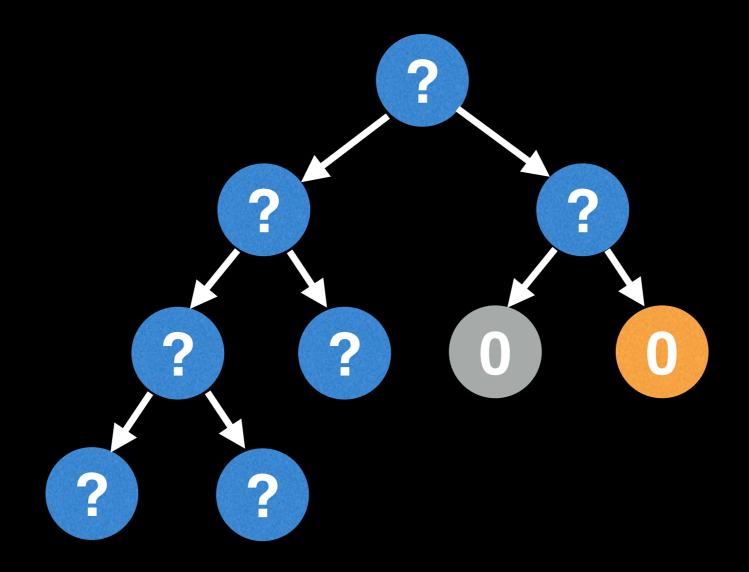


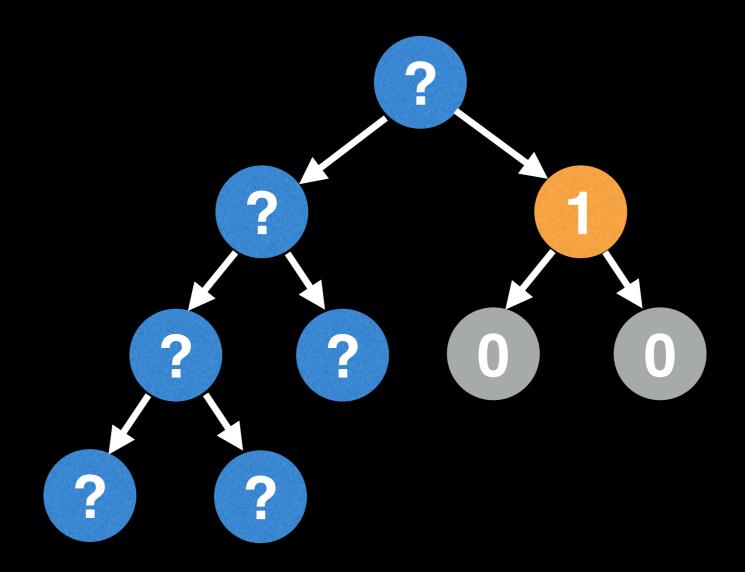




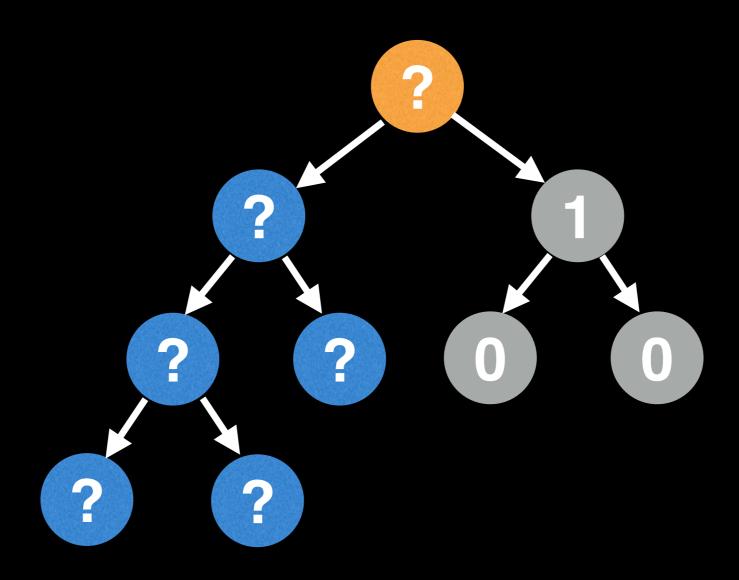


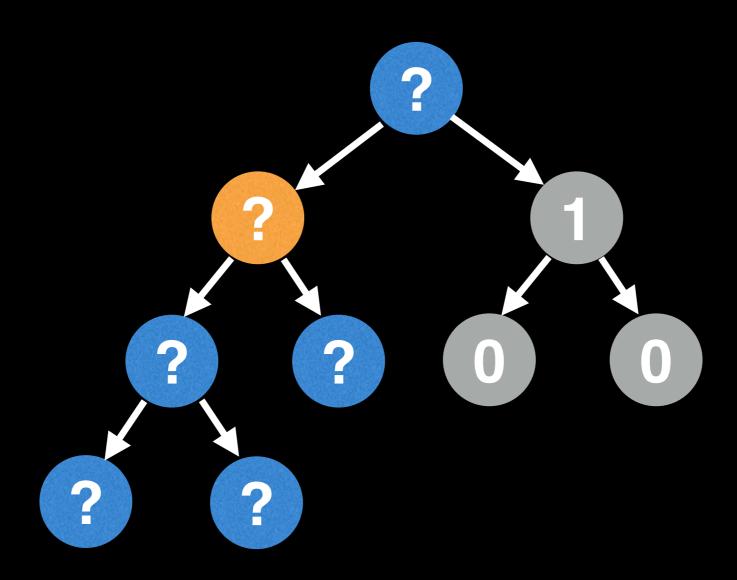


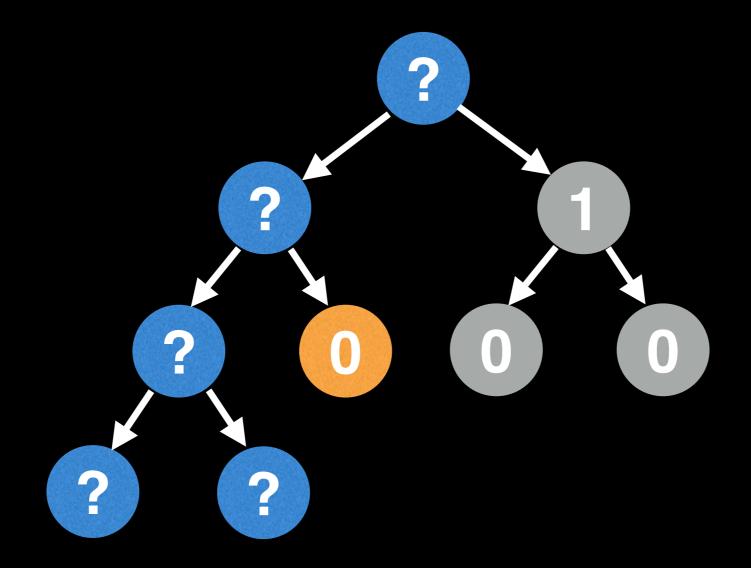


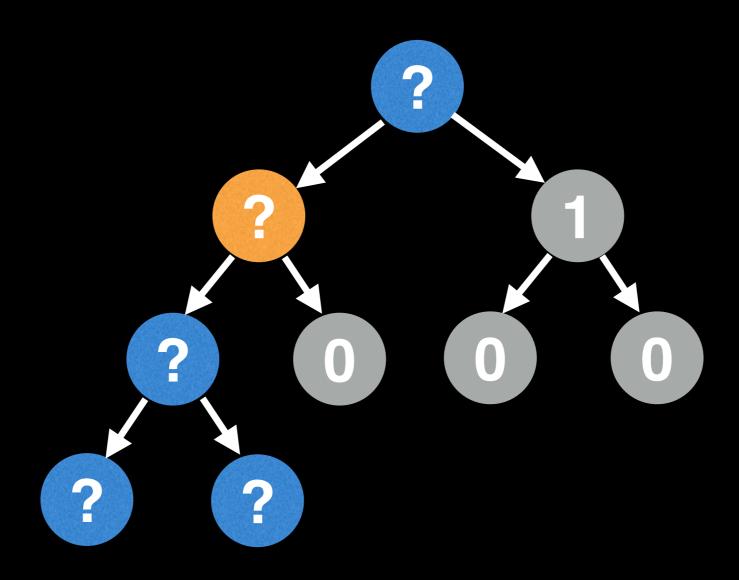


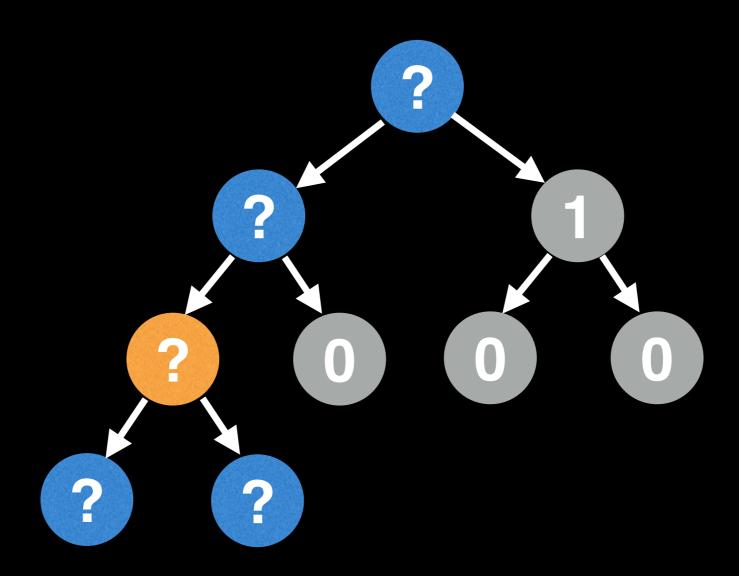
height = 
$$\max(0, 0) + 1 = 1$$

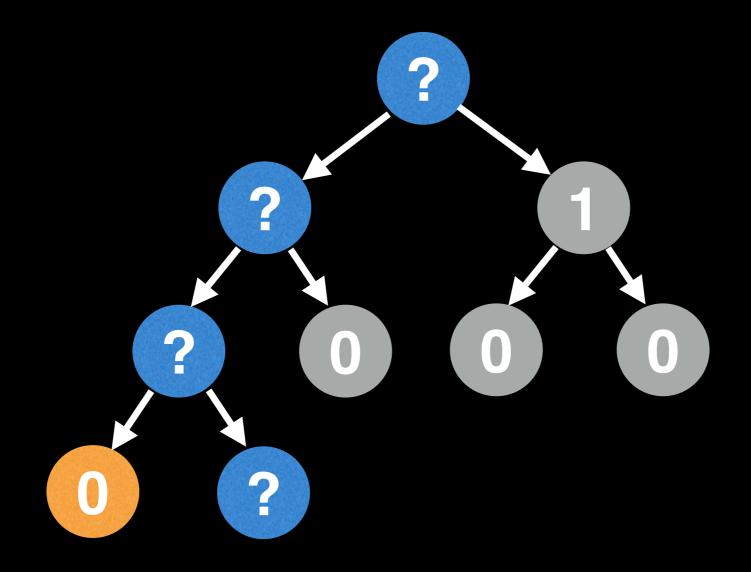


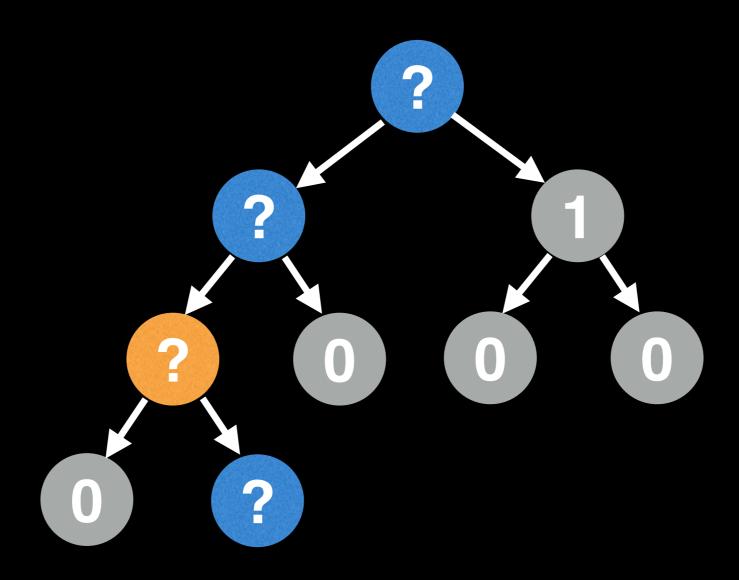


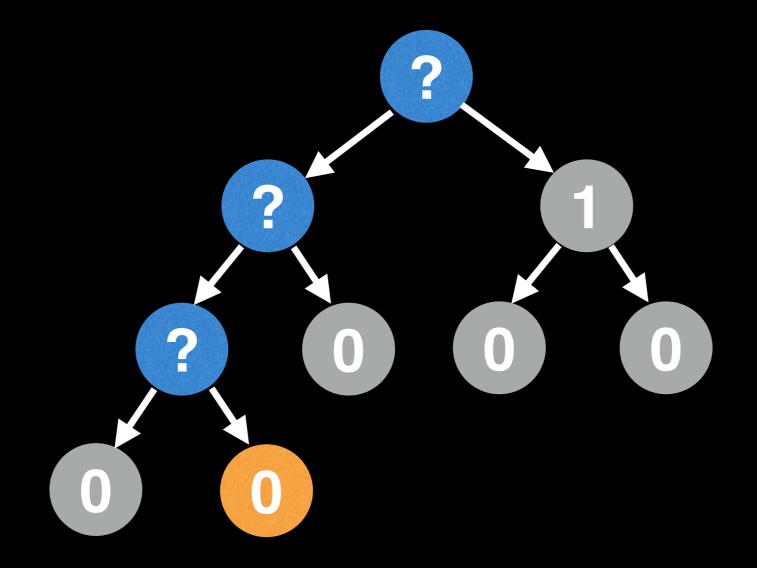


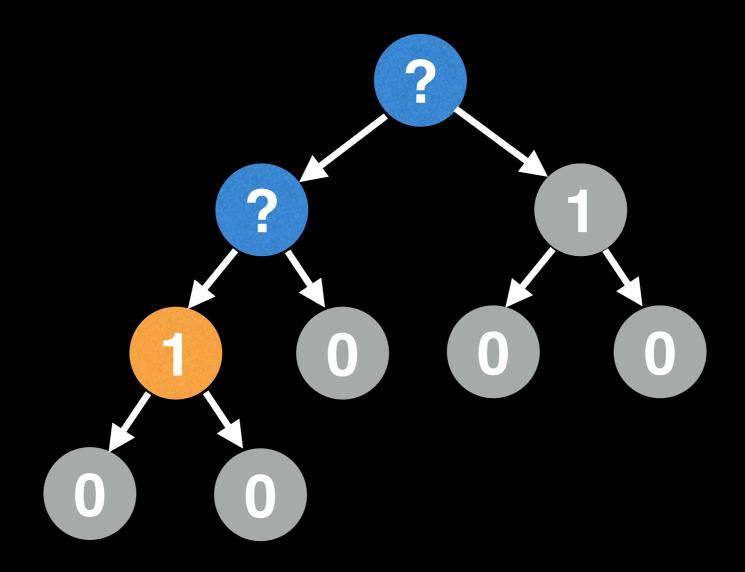




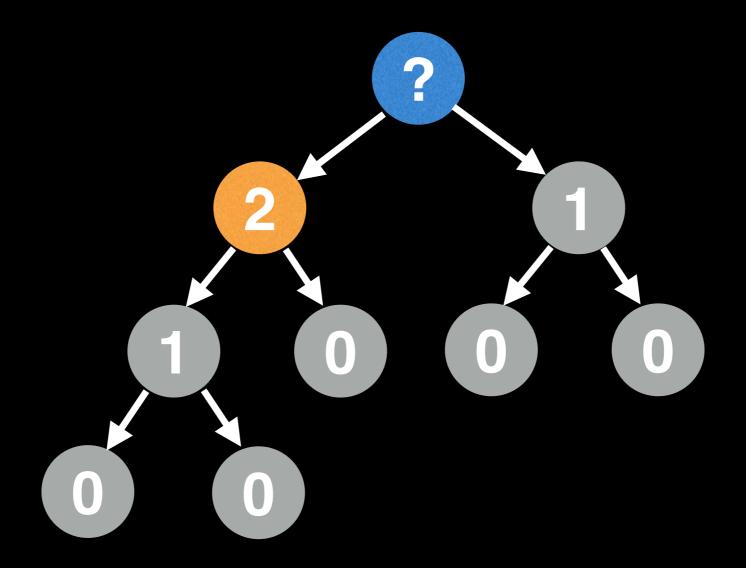




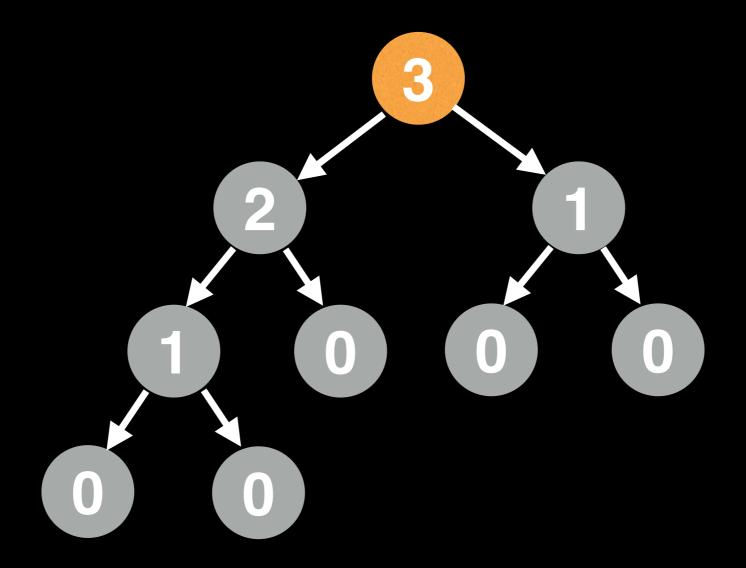




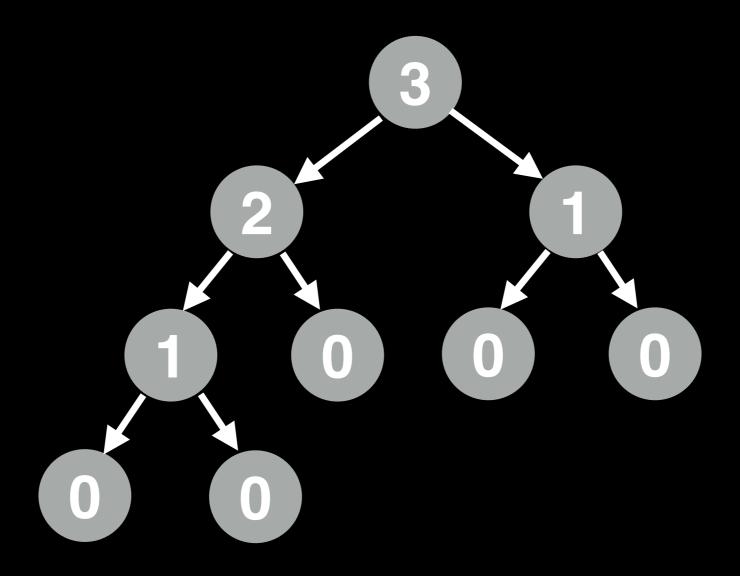
height = 
$$\max(0, 0) + 1 = 1$$



height = 
$$\max(1, 0) + 1 = 2$$



height = 
$$\max(2, 1) + 1 = 3$$



```
# The height of a tree is the number of
# edges from the root to the lowest leaf.
function treeHeight(node):
    # Handle empty tree case
    if node == null:
        return -1

# Identify leaf nodes and return zero
```

```
if node.left == null and node.right == null:
    return 0
```

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# The height of a tree is the number of
  edges from the root to the lowest leaf.
function treeHeight(node):
 # Handle empty tree case
 if node == null:
     return -1
 # Identify leaf nodes and return zero
  if node.left == null and node.right == null:
```

return max(treeHeight(node.left),

treeHeight(node\_right)) + 1

return 0

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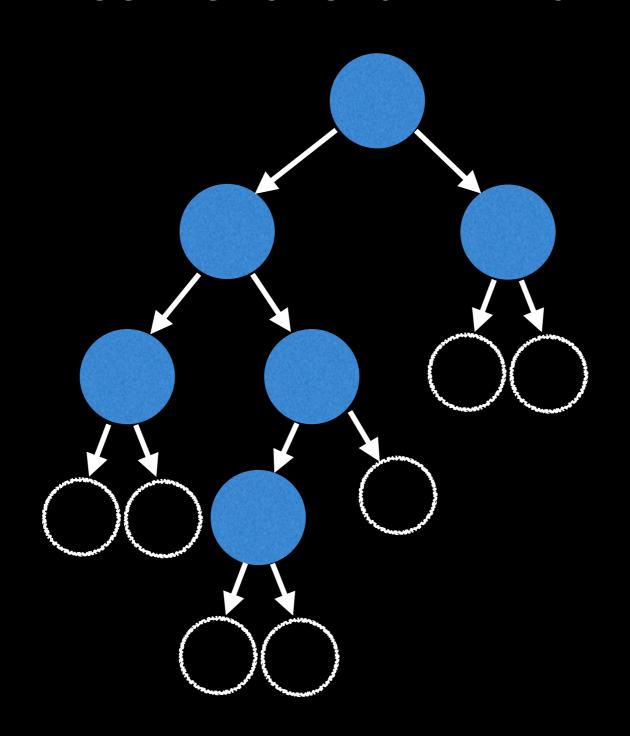
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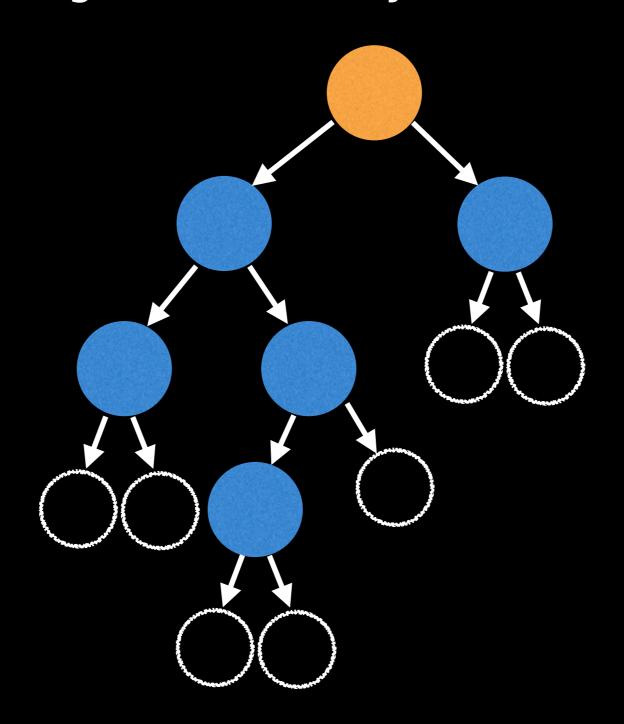
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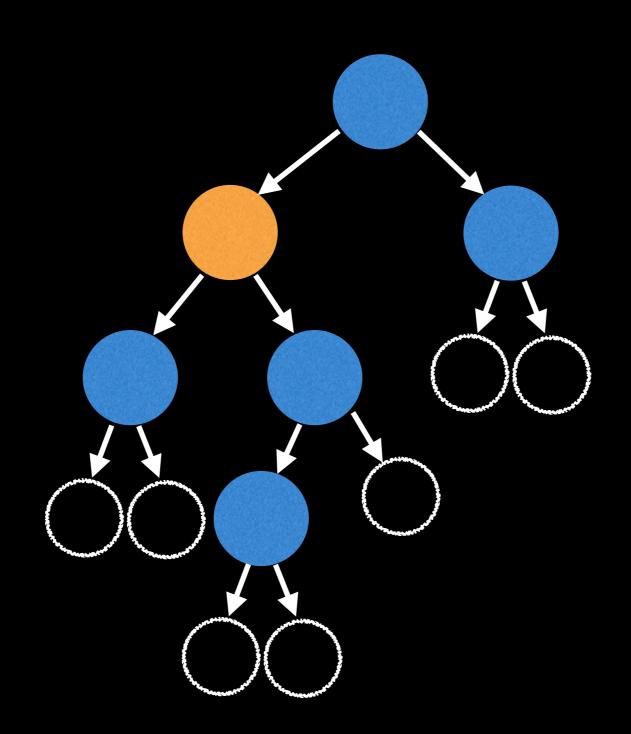
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# The height of a tree is the number of
# edges from the root to the lowest leaf.
function treeHeight(node):
    # Return -1 when we hit a null node
    # to correct for the right height.
    if node == null:
        return -1
```

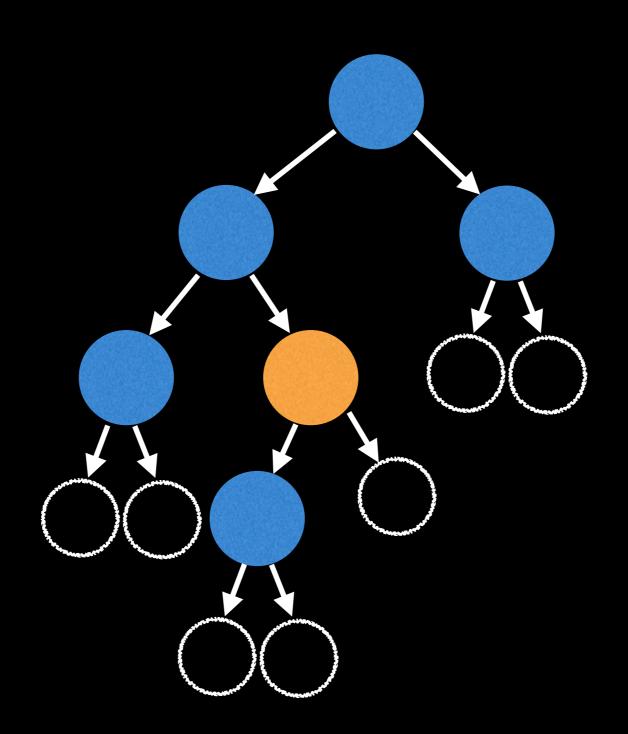
Notice that if we visit the null nodes our tree is one unit taller.

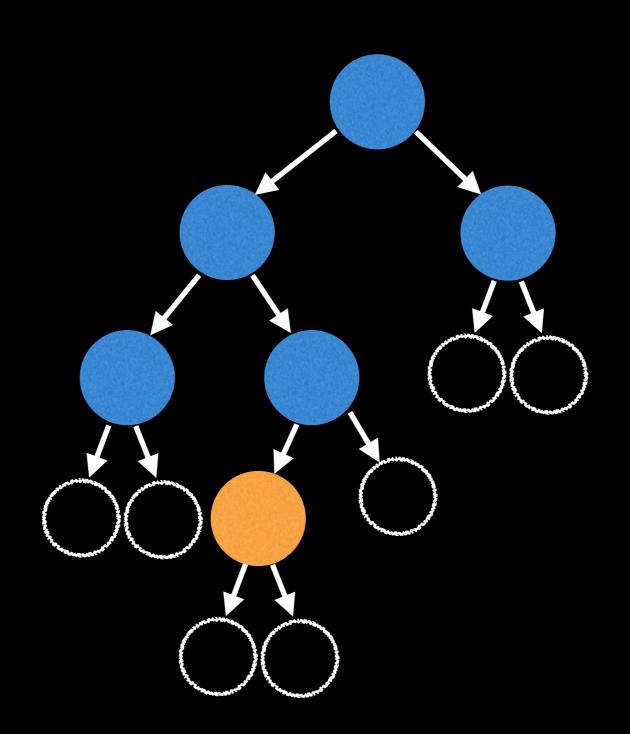


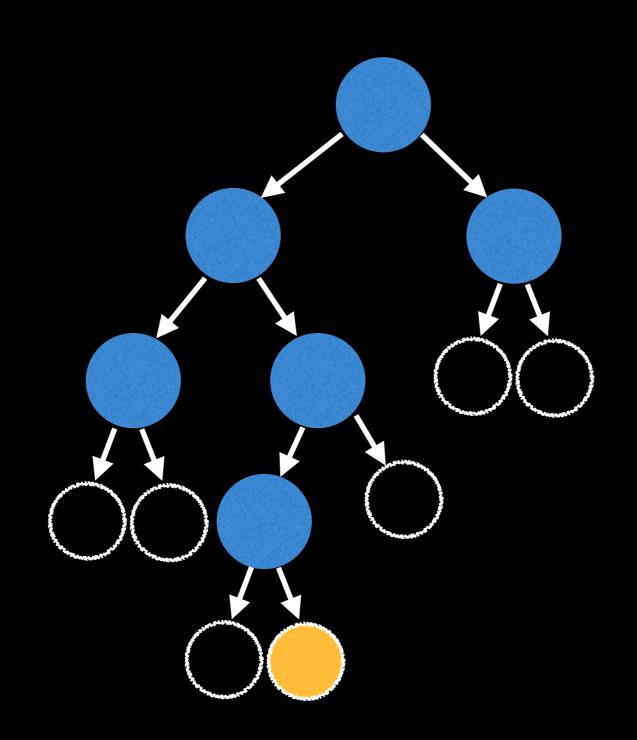
When we go down the tree we need to correct for the height added by the null nodes.

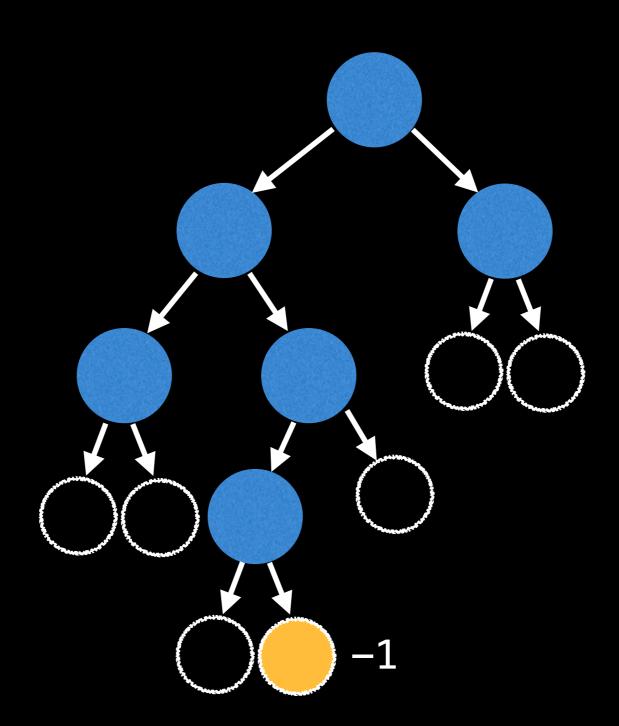


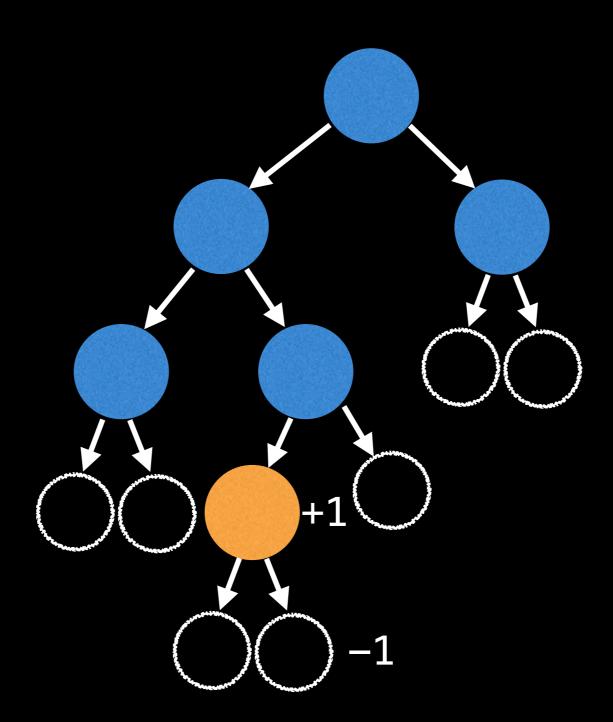


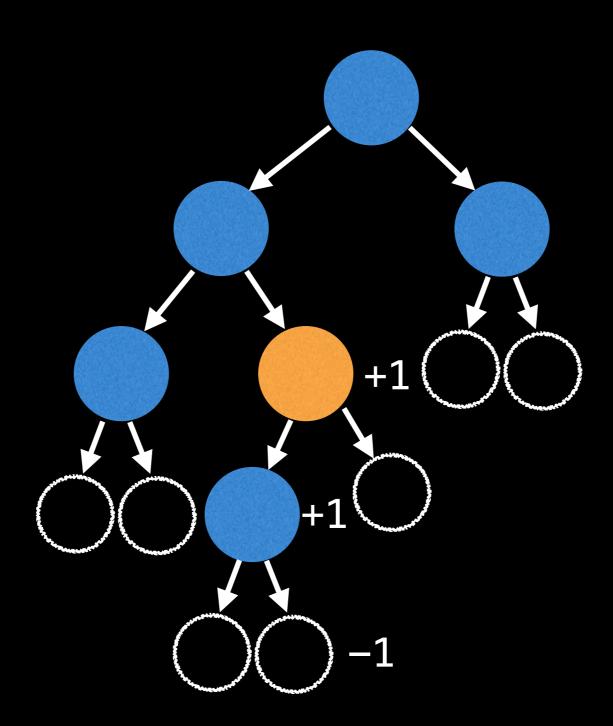


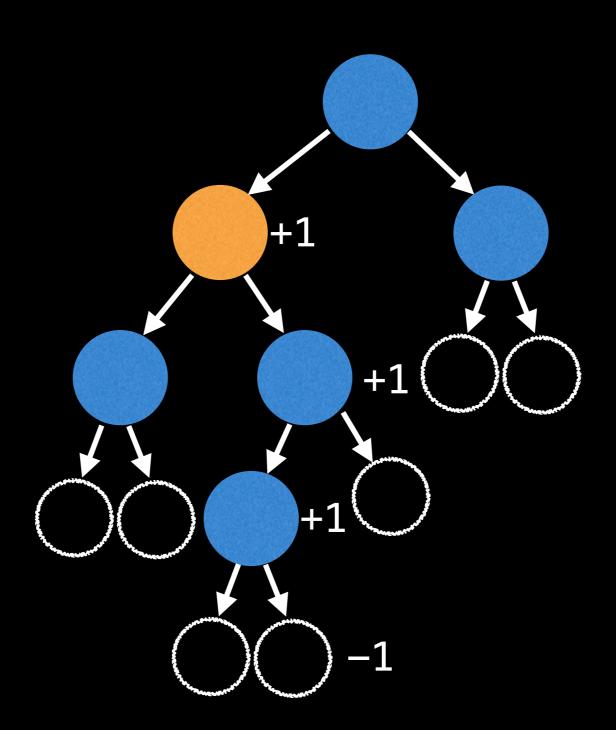


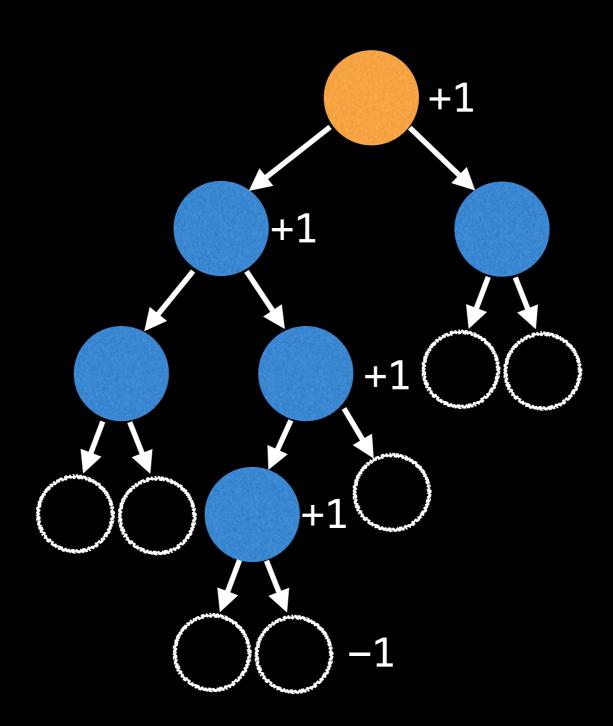


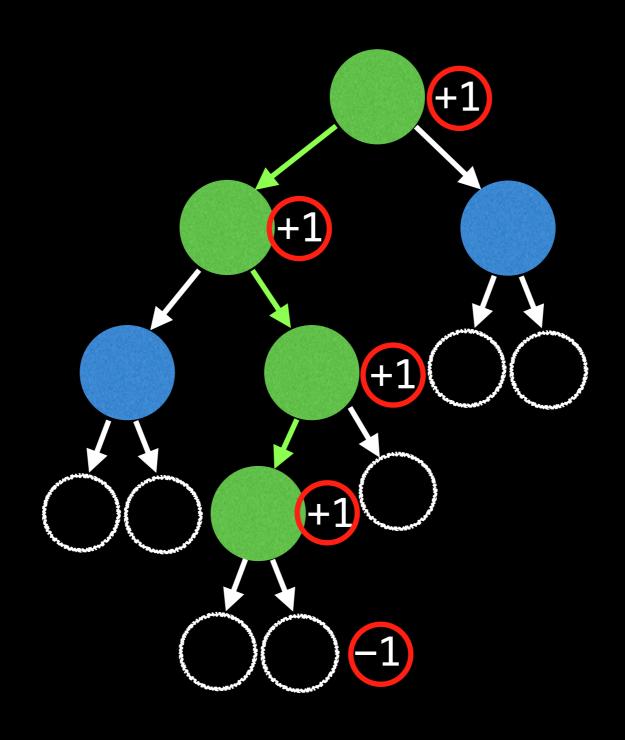










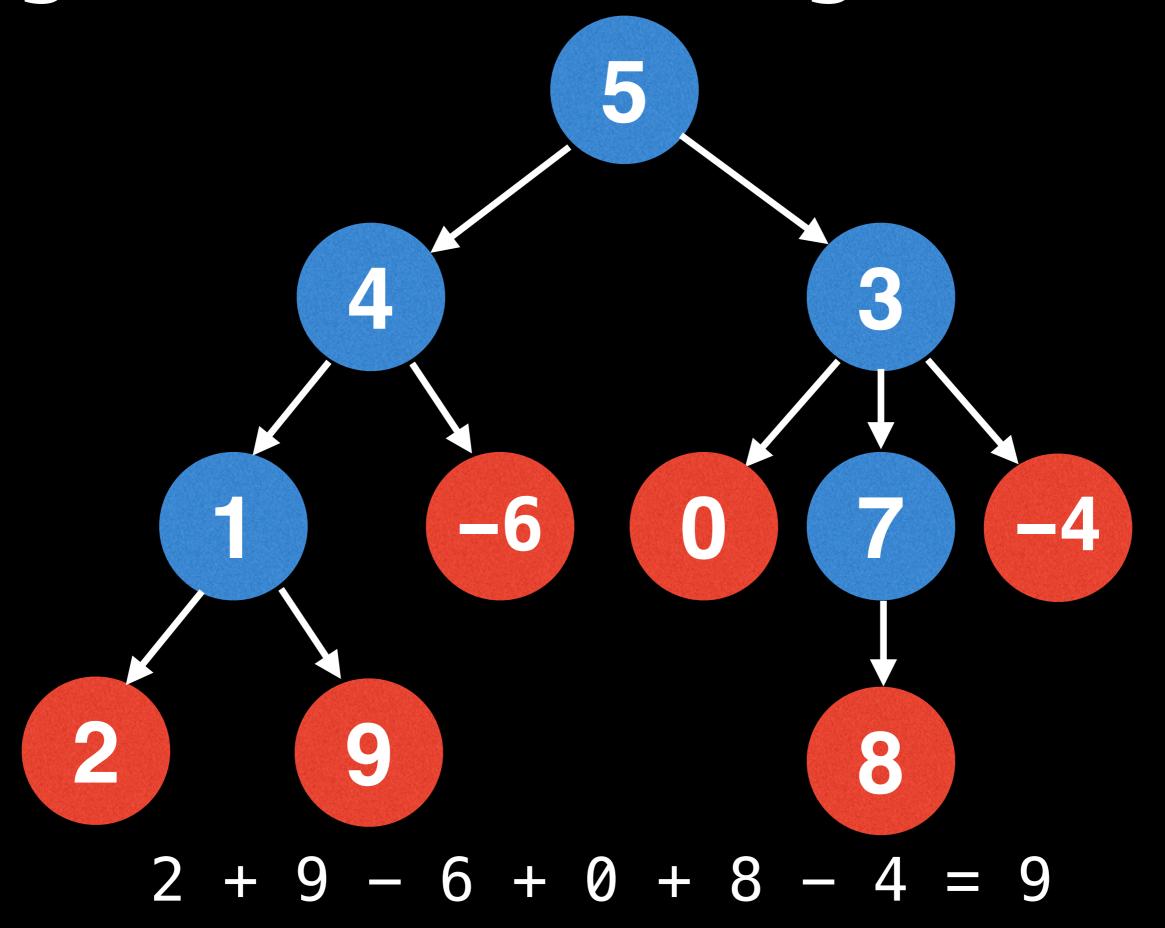


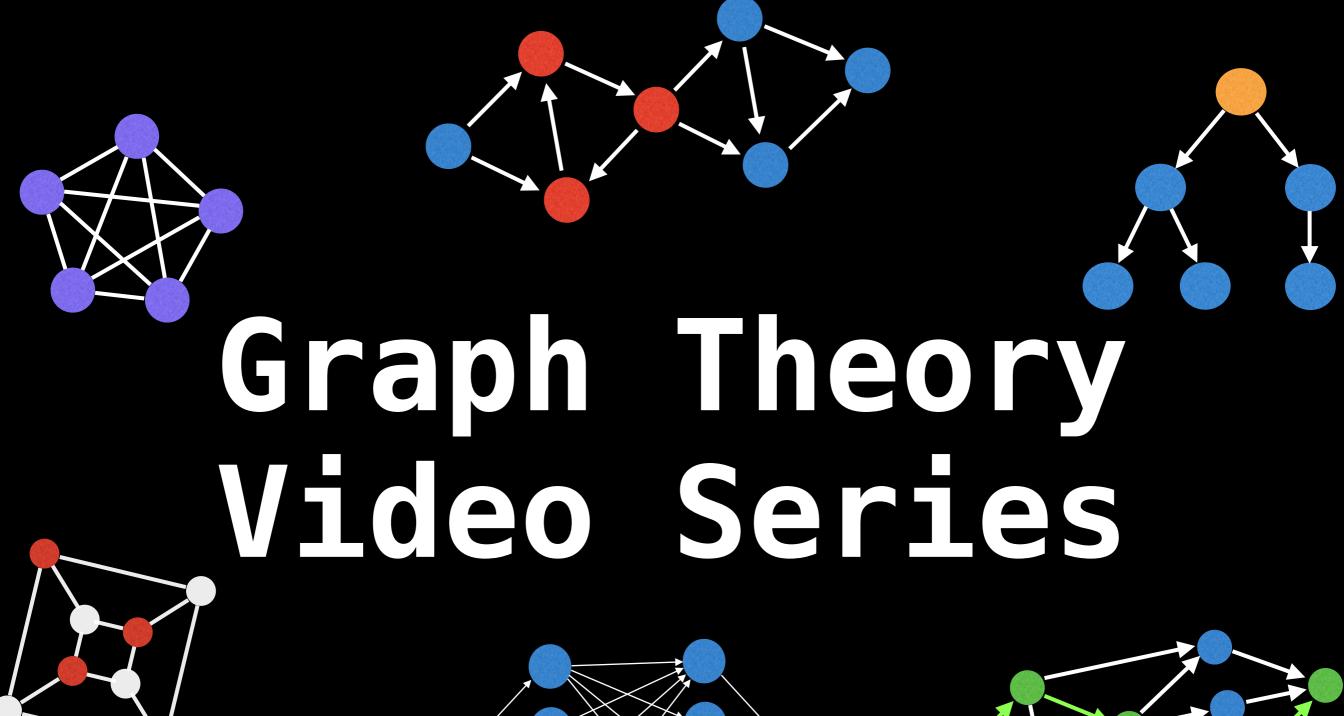
$$1 + 1 + 1 + 1 - 1 = 3$$

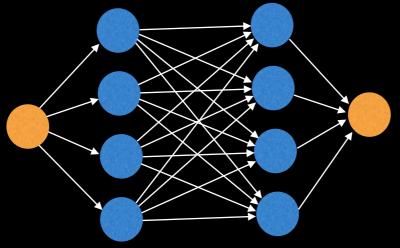
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# The height of a tree is the number of
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function treeHeight(node):
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    if node == null:
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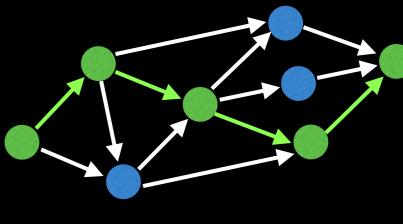
# Next Video: rooting a tree

# Beginner Tree Algorithms



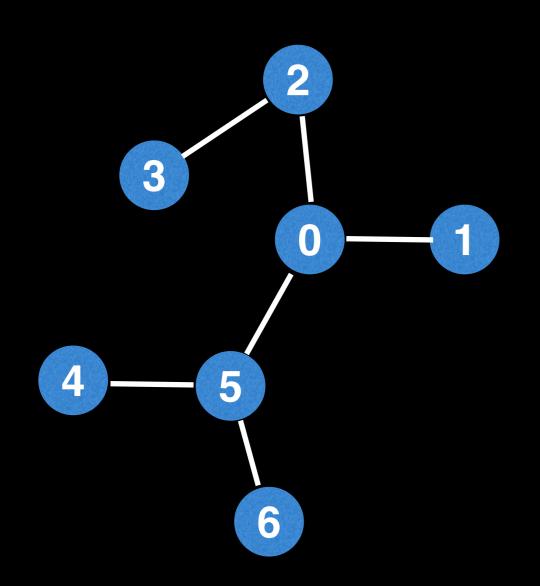






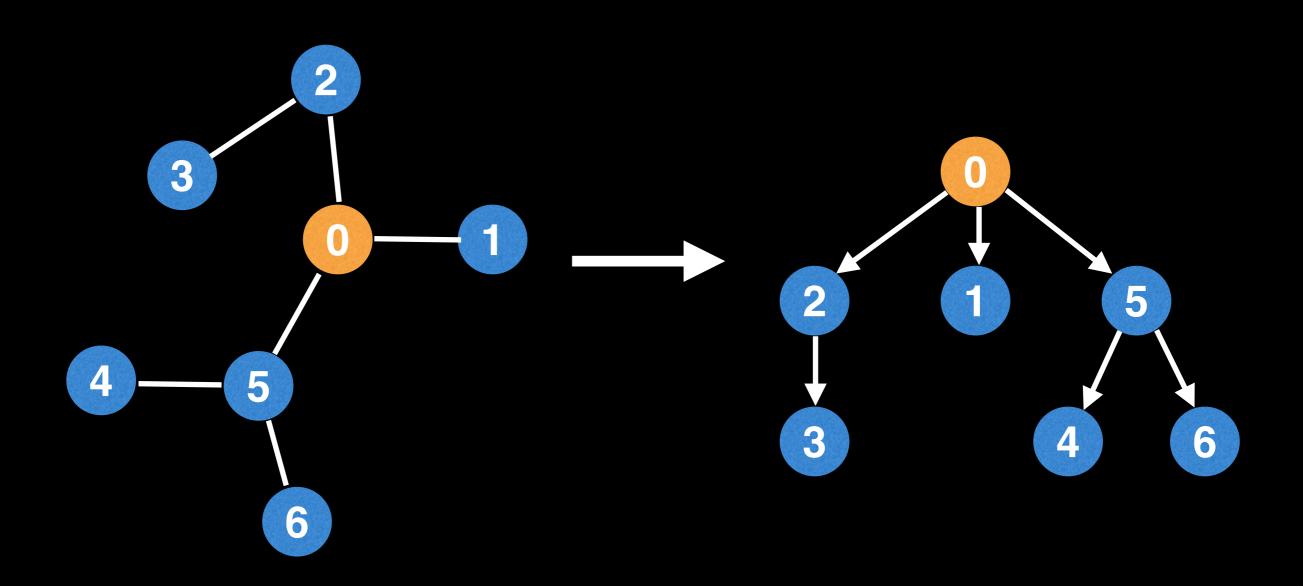


Sometimes it's useful to root an undirected tree to add structure to the problem you're trying to solve.

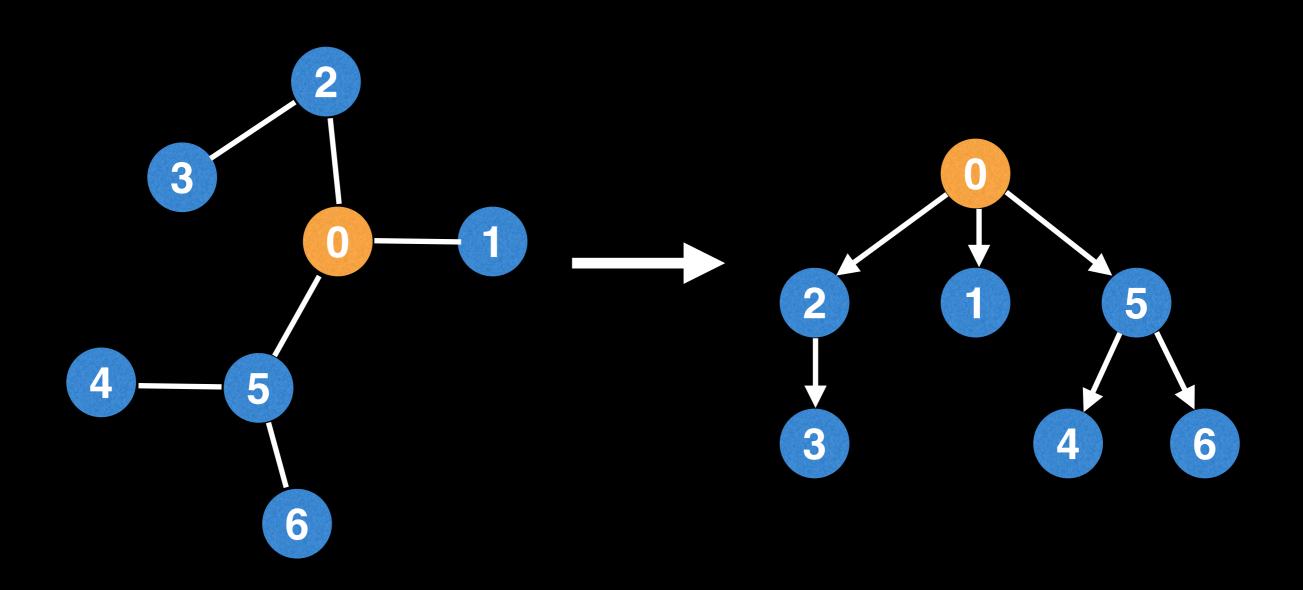


Undirected graph adjacency list:

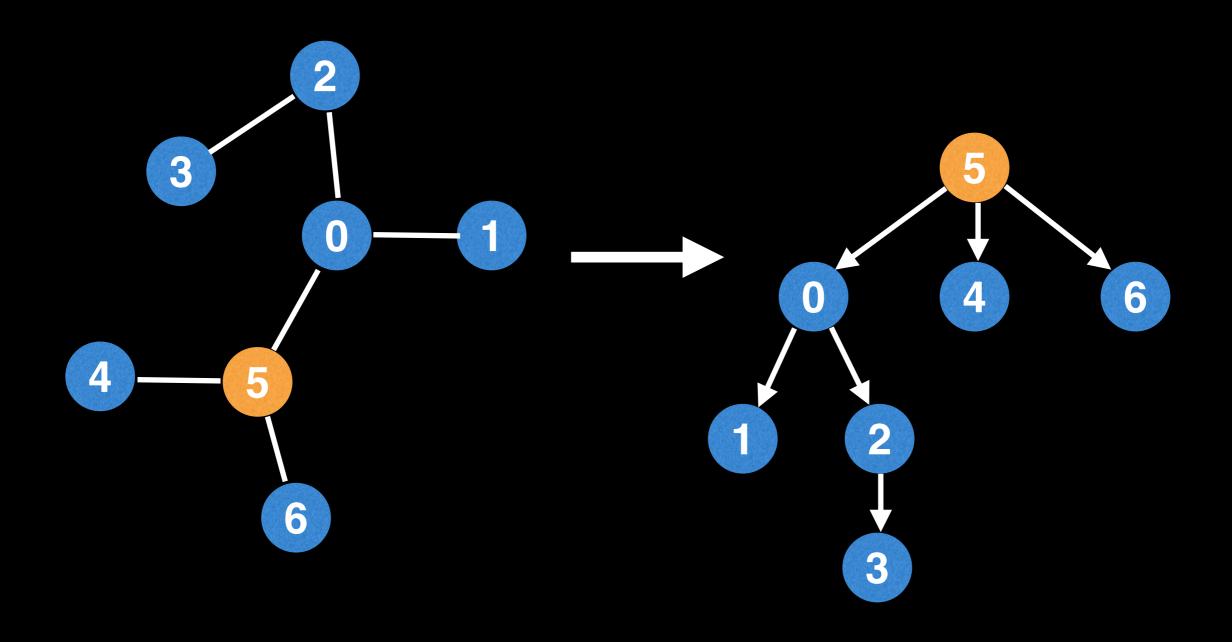
Sometimes it's useful to root an undirected tree to add structure to the problem you're trying to solve.



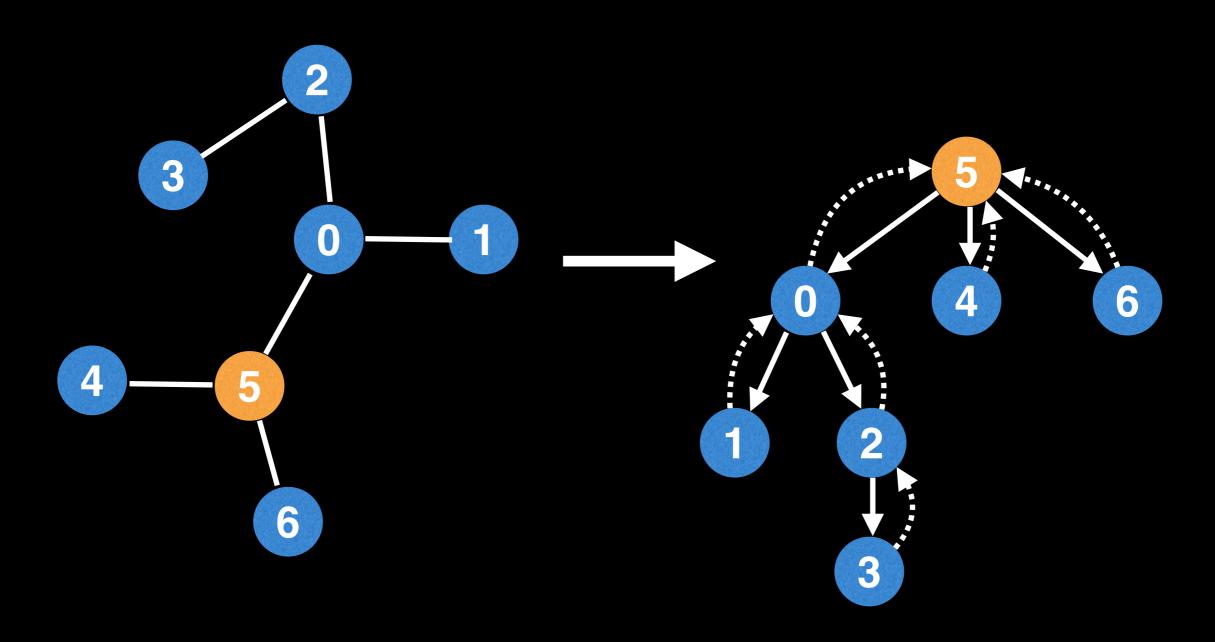
Conceptually this is like "picking up" the tree by a specific node and having all the edges point downwards.

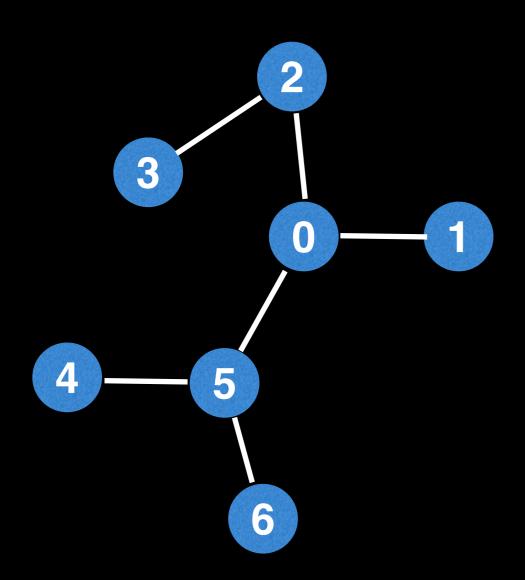


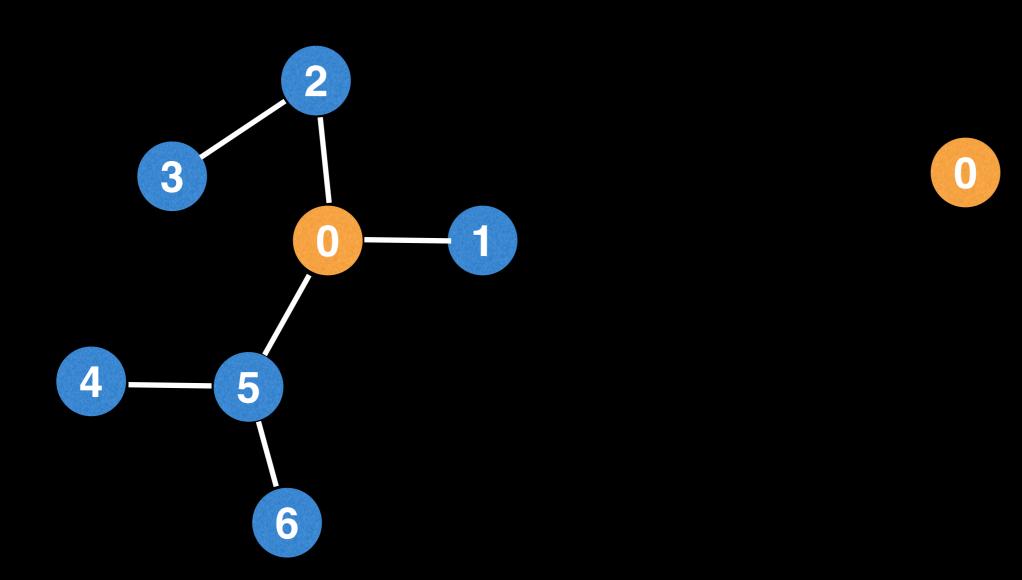
You can root a tree using any of its nodes.

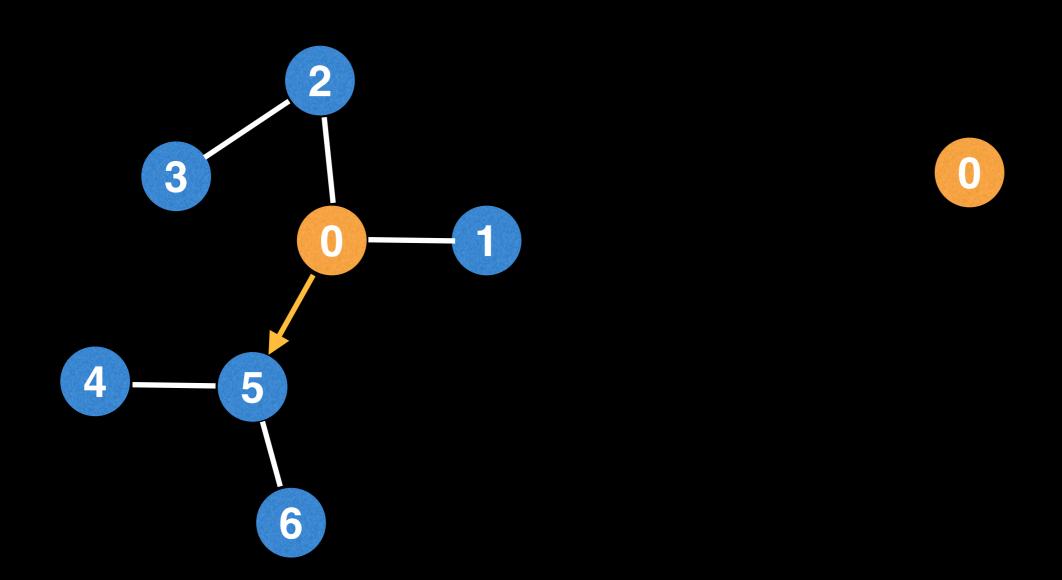


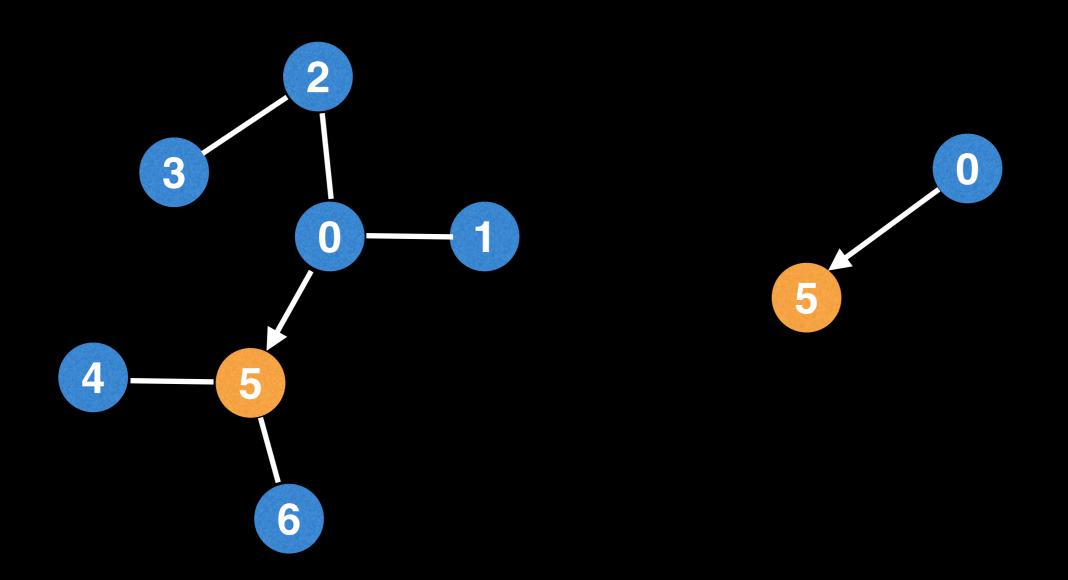
In some situations it's also useful to keep have a reference to the parent node in order to walk up the tree.

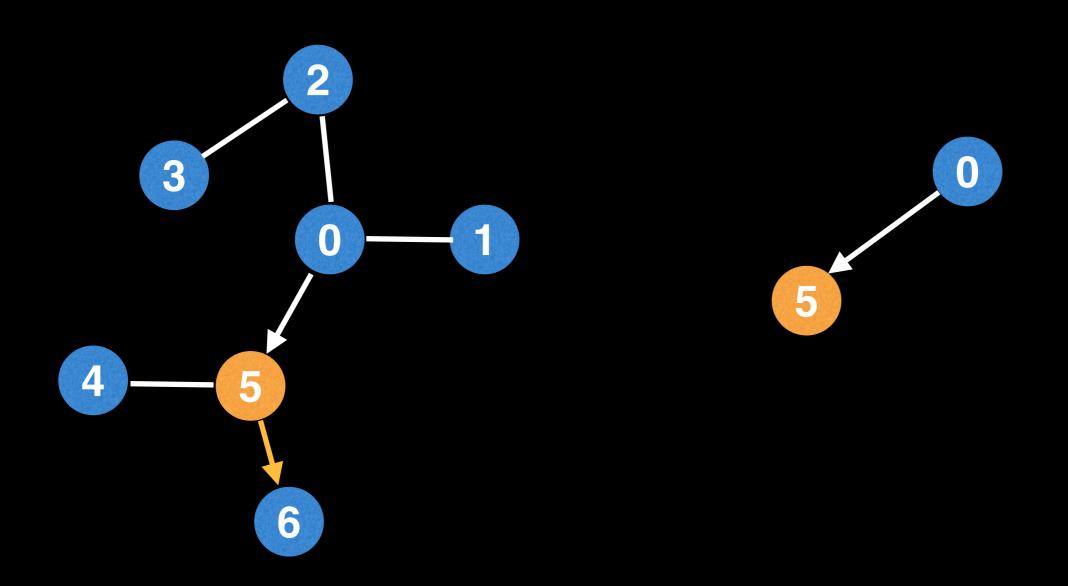


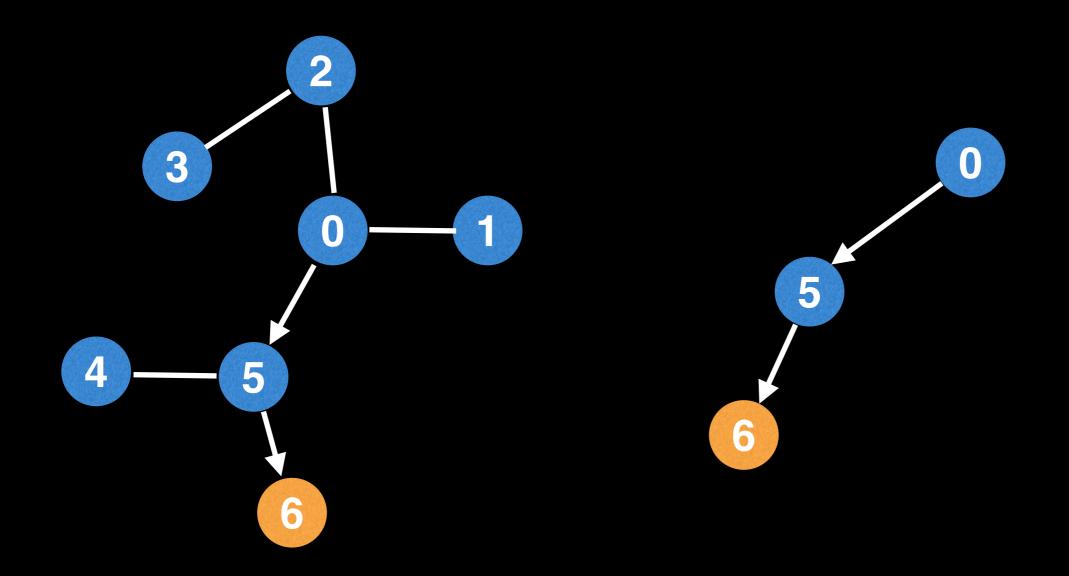


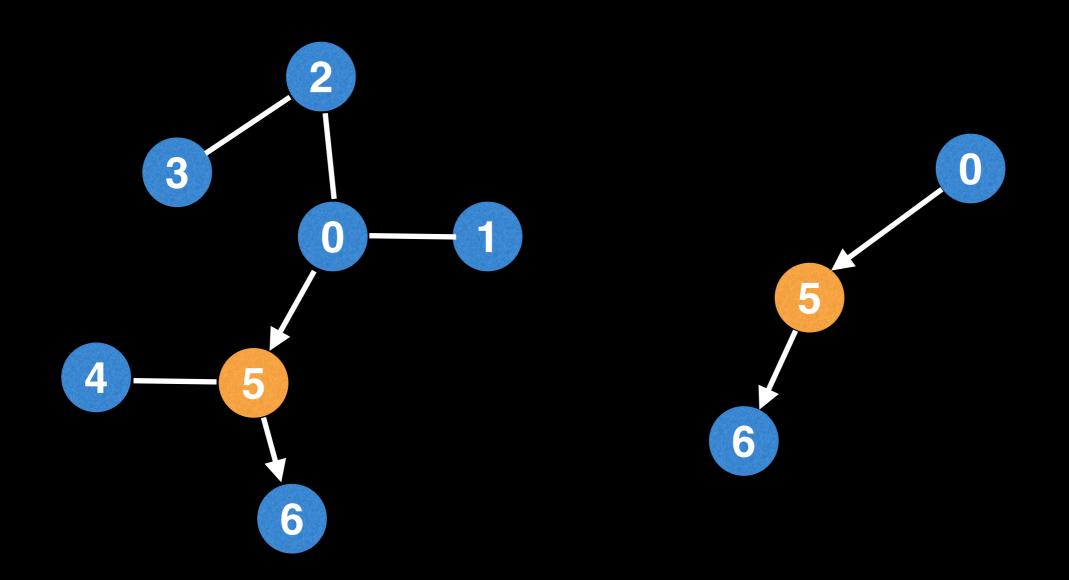


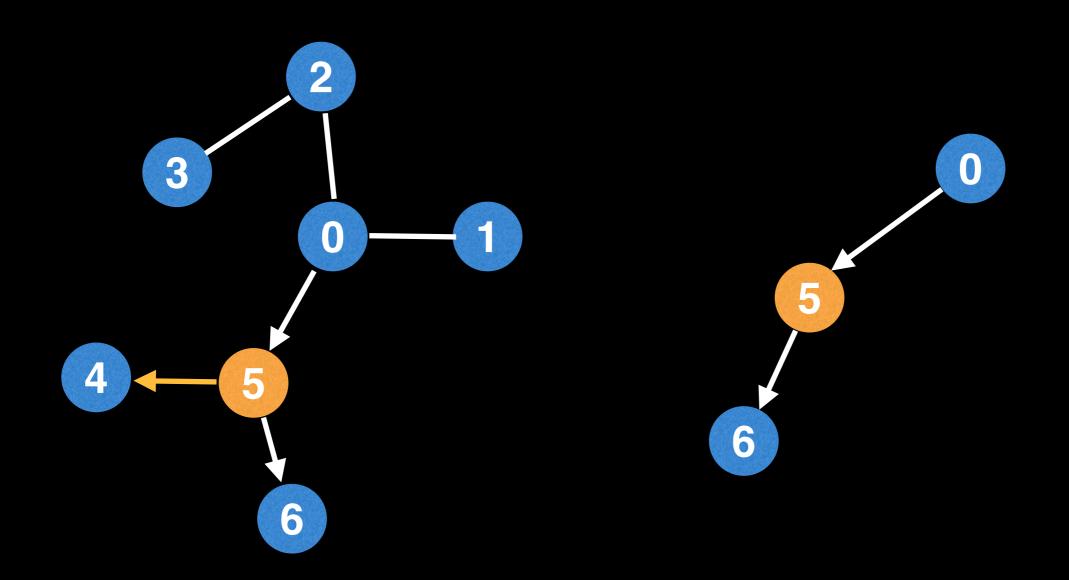


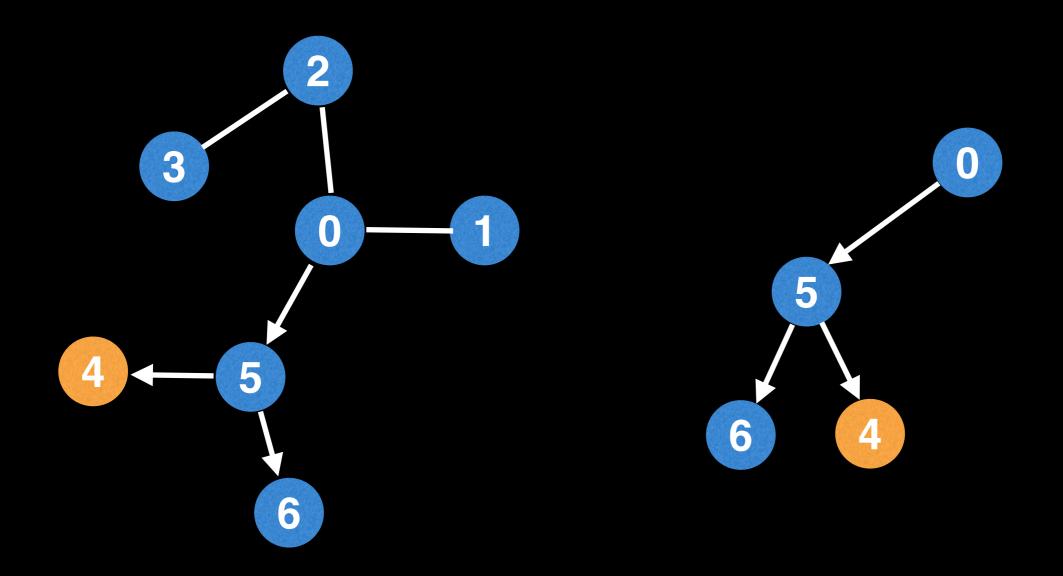


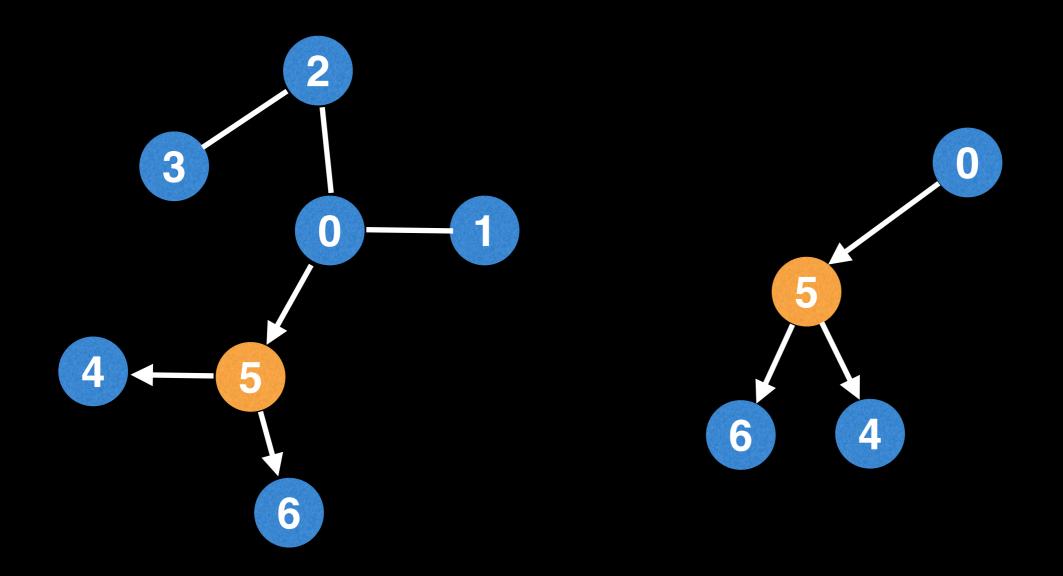


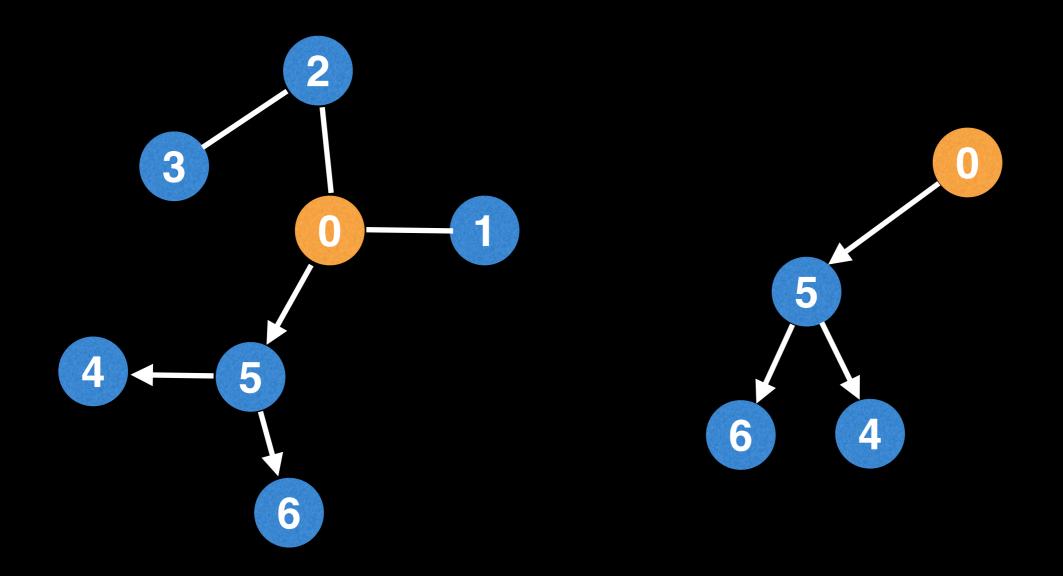


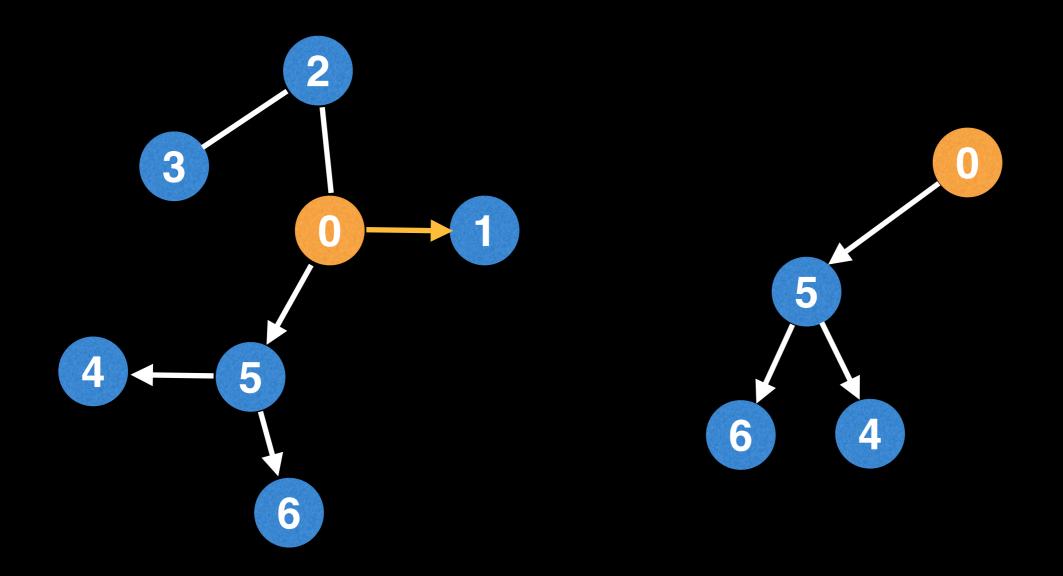


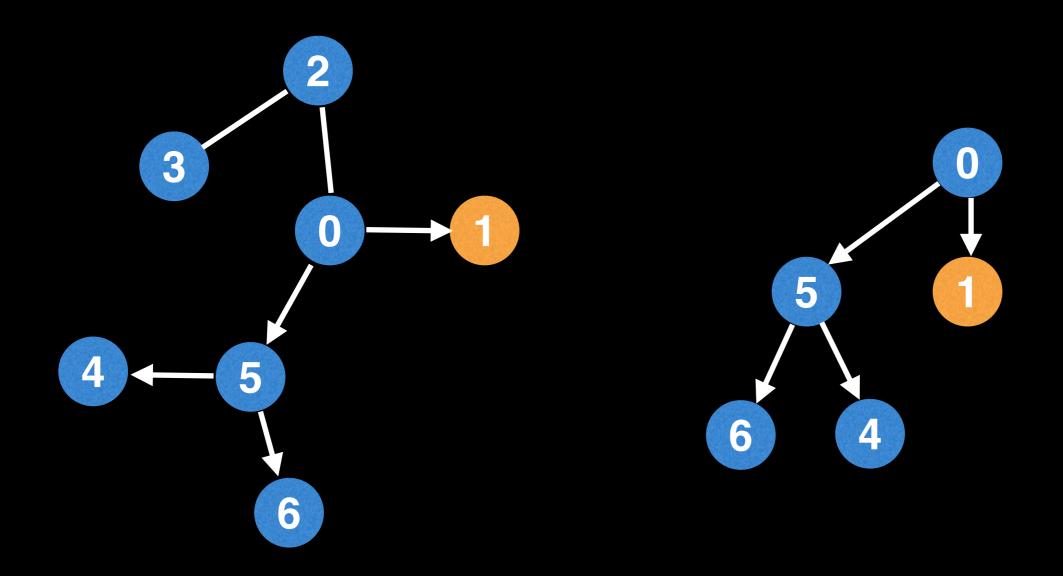


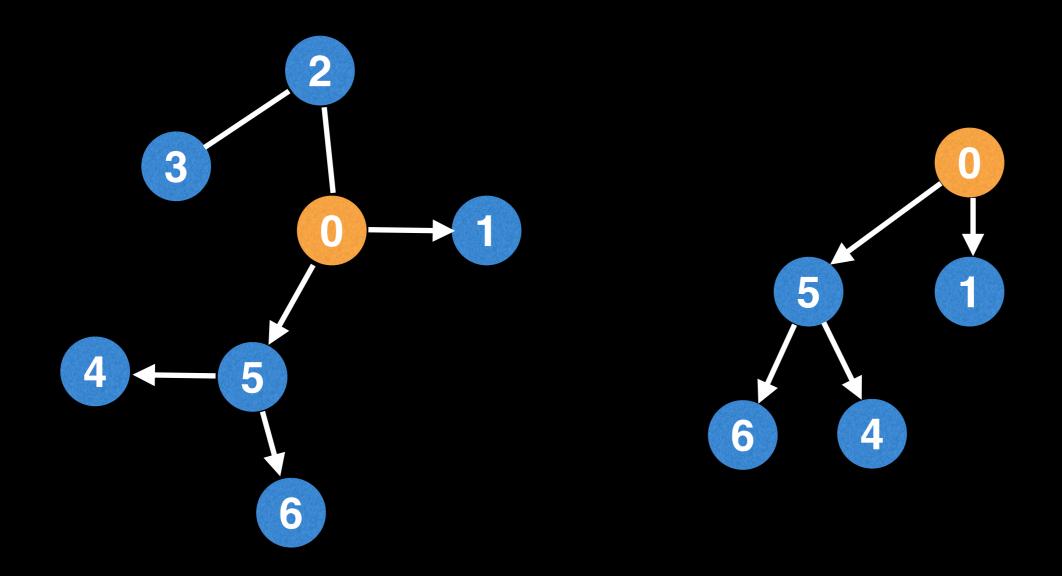


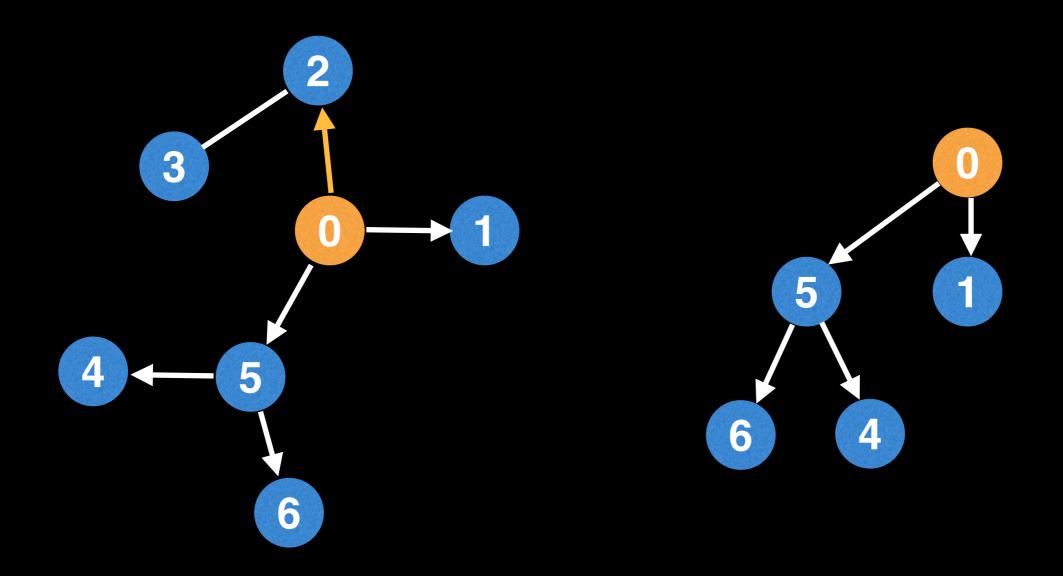


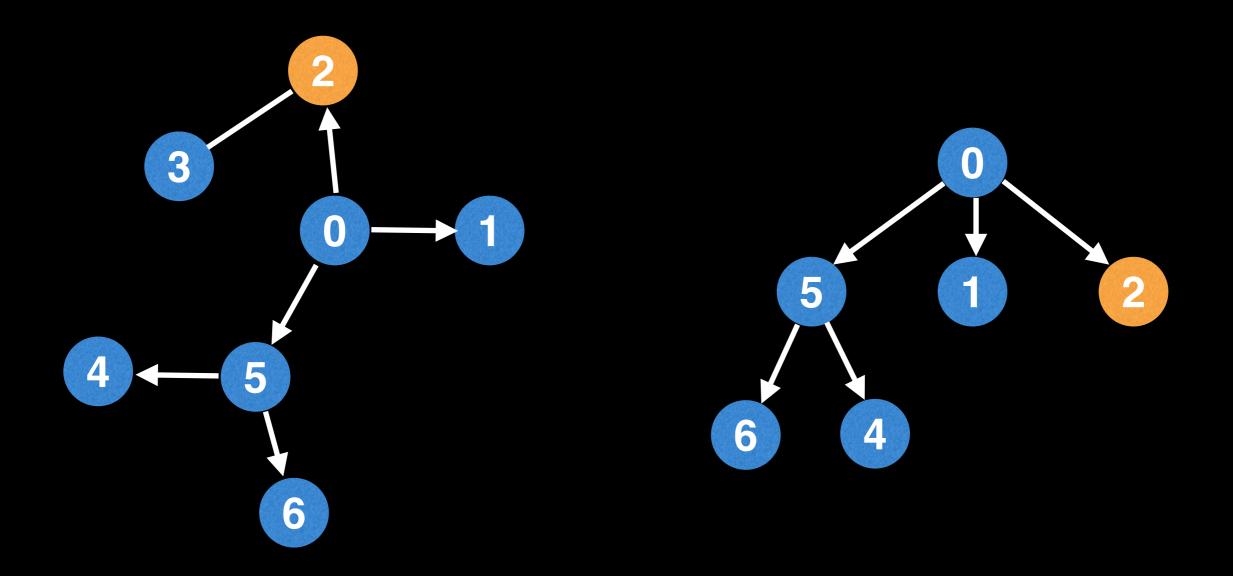


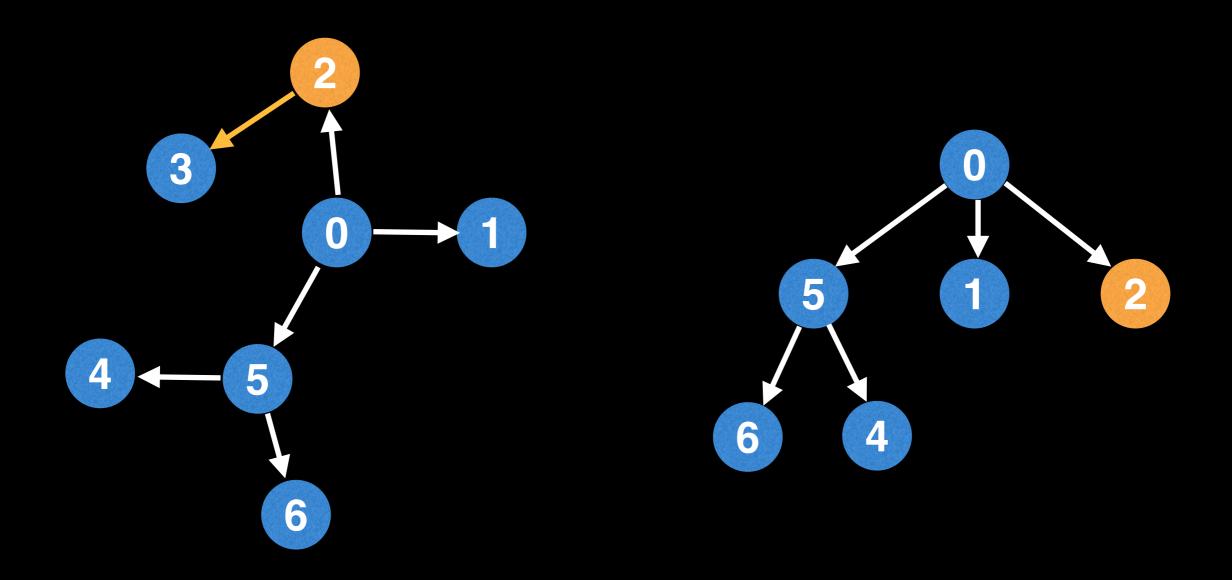


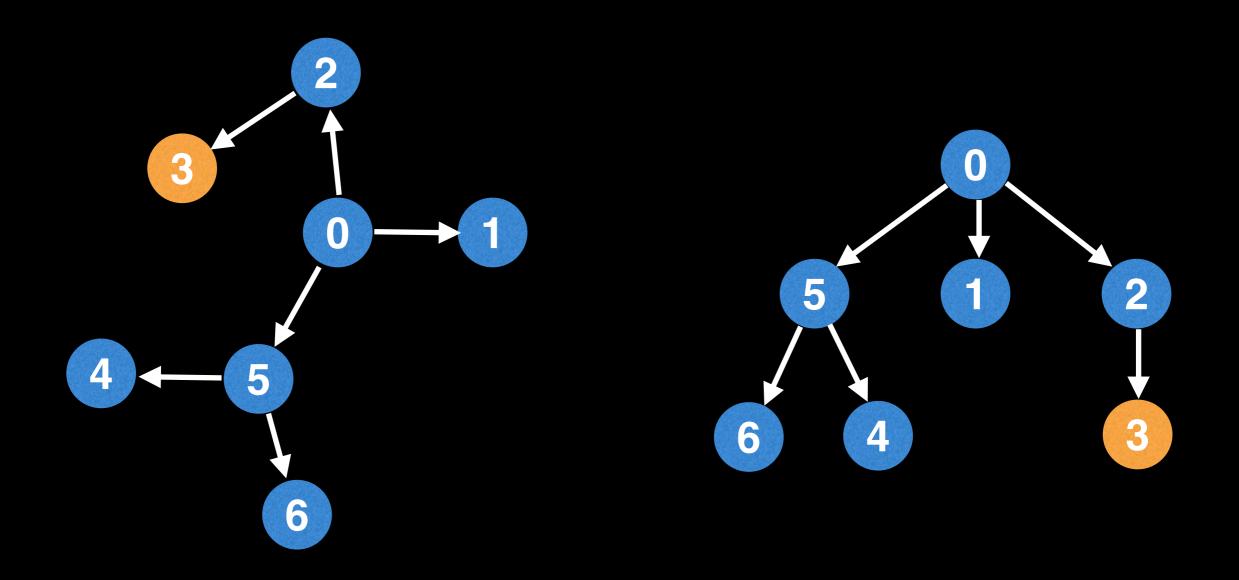


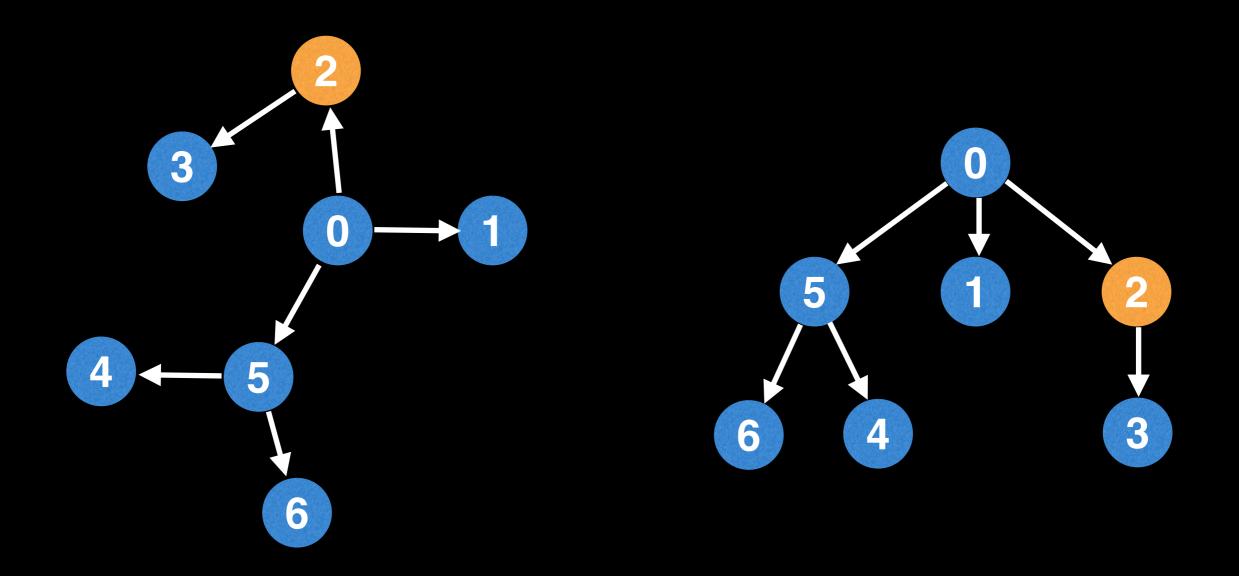


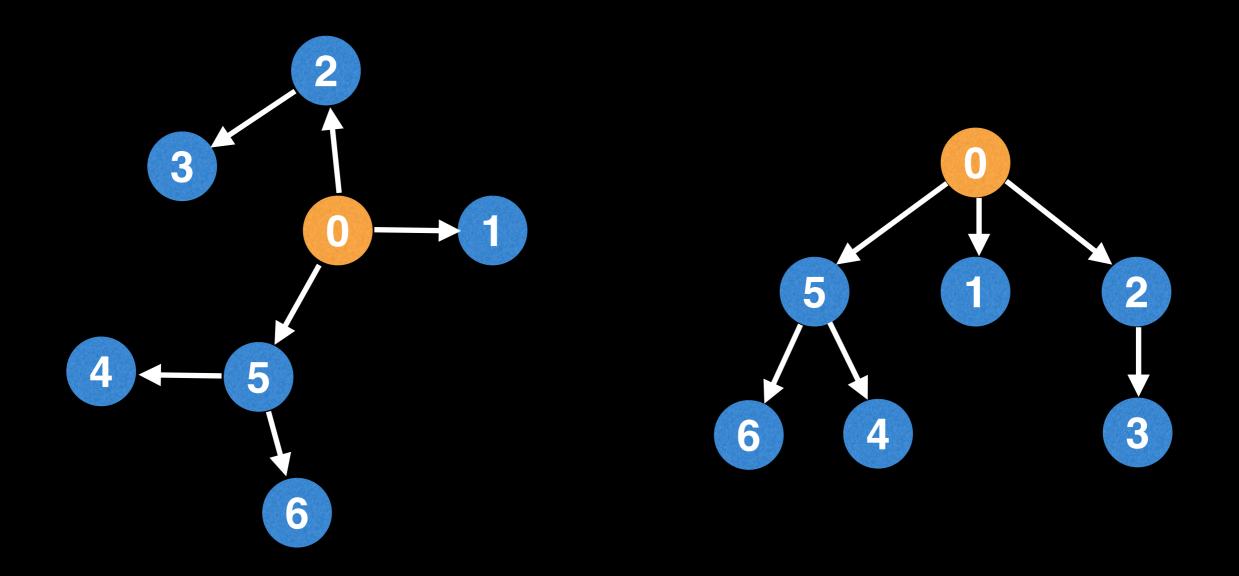


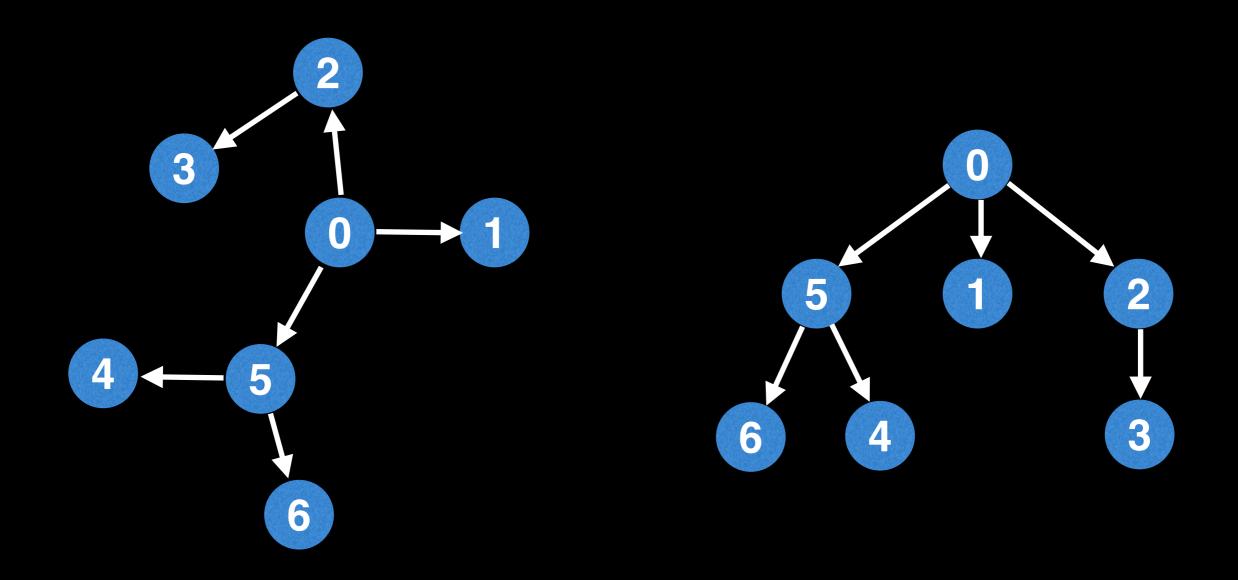












```
# TreeNode object structure.
class TreeNode:
  # Unique integer id to identify this node.
  int id;
  # Pointer to parent TreeNode reference. Only the
  # root node has a null parent TreeNode reference.
  TreeNode parent;
  # List of pointers to child TreeNodes.
  TreeNode[] children;
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```
# g is the graph/tree represented as an adjacency
# list with undirected edges. If there's an edge between
# (u, v) there's also an edge between (v, u).
# rootId is the id of the node to root the tree from.
function rootTree(g, rootId = 0):
  root = TreeNode(rootId, null, [])
 return buildTree(g, root, null)
# Build tree recursively depth first.
function buildTree(g, node, parent):
  for childId in g[node.id]:
    # Avoid adding an edge pointing back to the parent.
    if parent != null and childId == parent.id:
      continue
    child = TreeNode(childId, node, [])
    node.children.add(child)
    buildTree(g, child, node)
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                                       root node has
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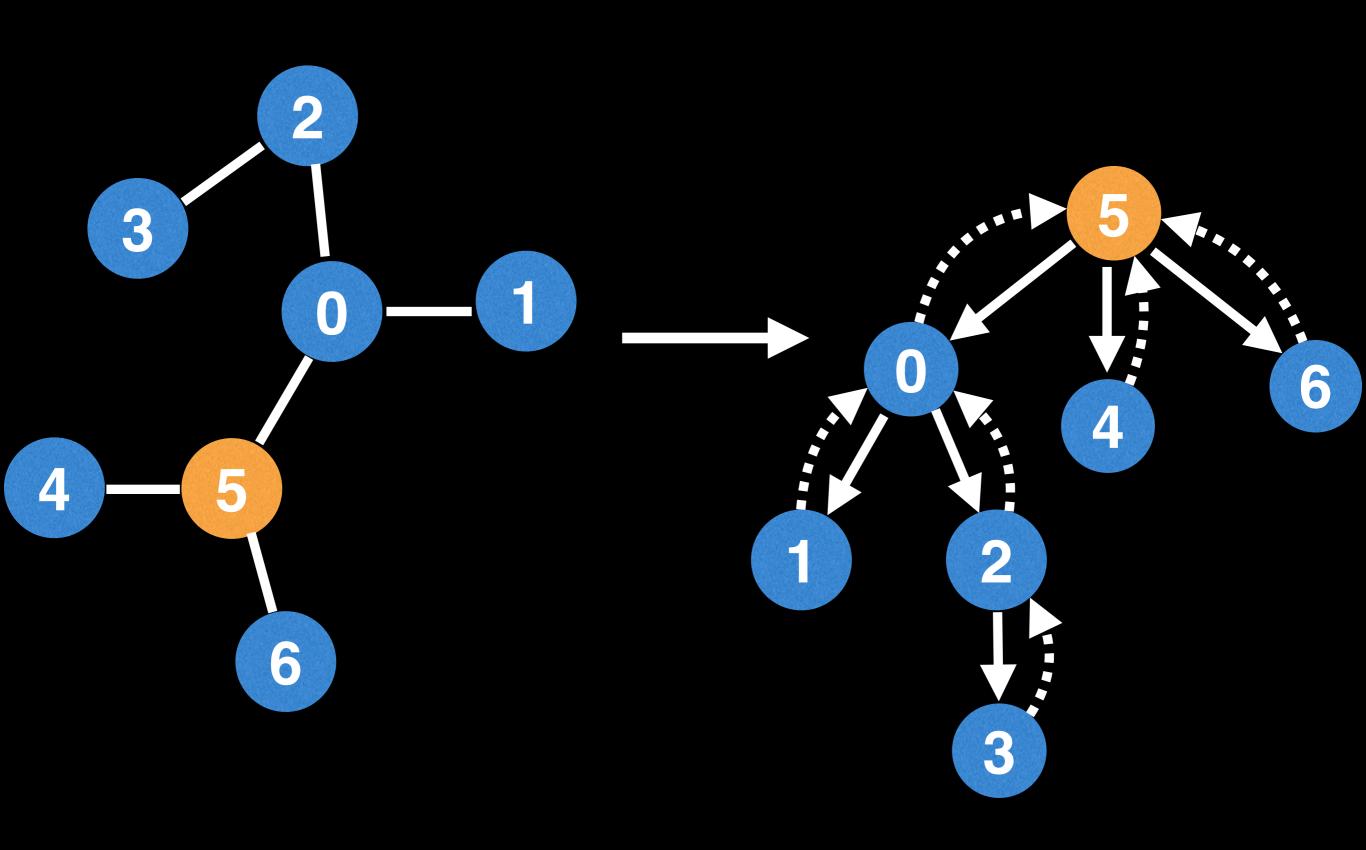
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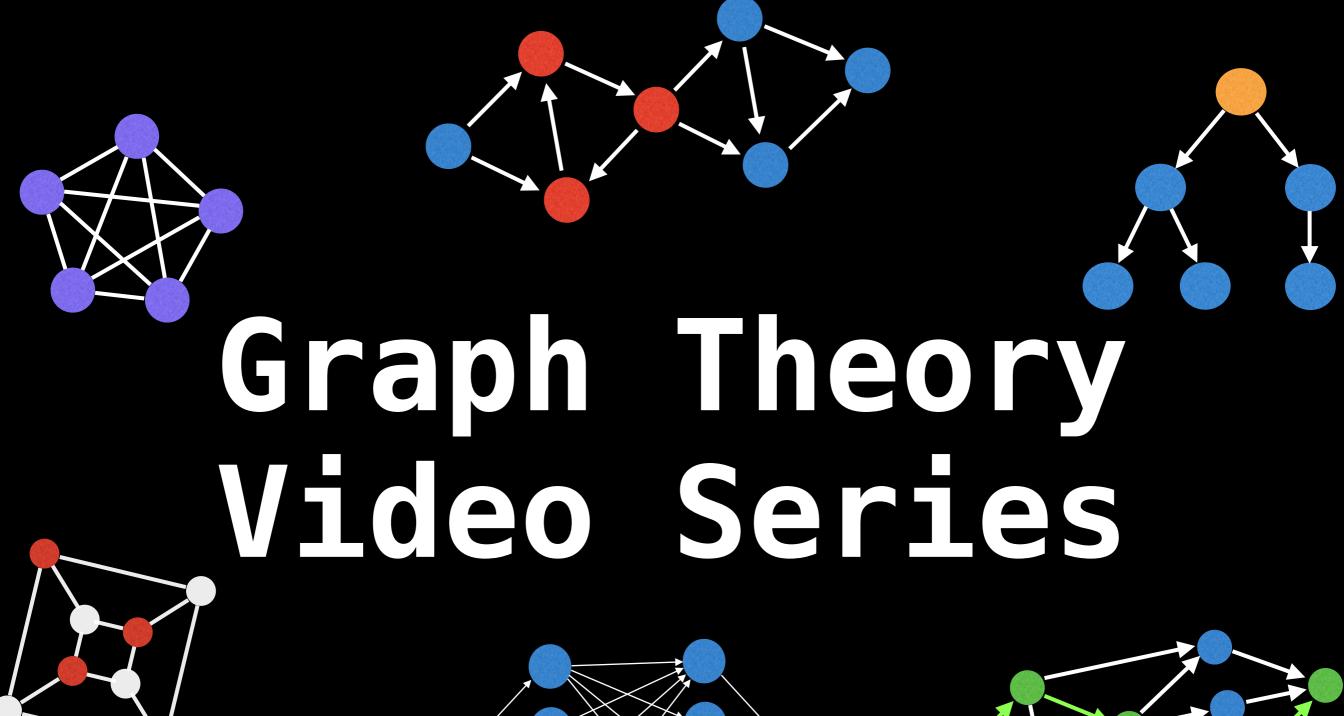
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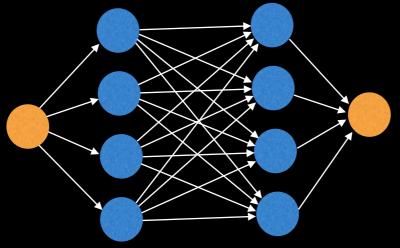
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    # Avoid adding an edge pointing back to the parent.
    if parent != null and childId == parent.id:
      continue
    child = TreeNode(childId, node, [])
    node.children.add(child)
    buildTree(g, child, node)
  return node
```

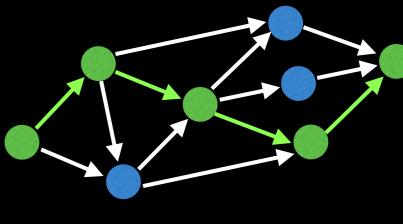
```
# g is the graph/tree represented as an adjacency
# list with undirected edges. If there's an edge between
# (u, v) there's also an edge between (v, u).
# rootId is the id of the node to root the tree from.
function rootTree(g, rootId = 0):
  root = TreeNode(rootId, null, [])
 return buildTree(g, root, null)
# Build tree recursively depth first.
function buildTree(g, node, parent):
  for childId in g[node.id]:
    # Avoid adding an edge pointing back to the parent.
    if parent != null and childId == parent.id:
      continue
    child = TreeNode(childId, node, [])
    node.children.add(child)
    buildTree(g, child, node)
  return node
```

# Rooting a Tree





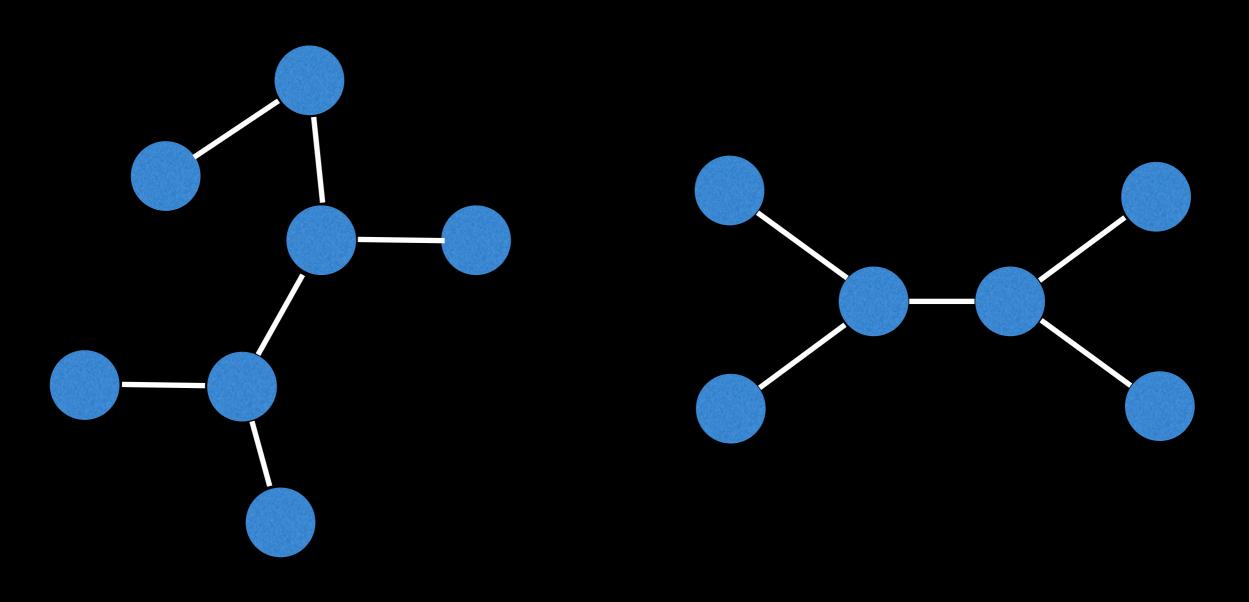




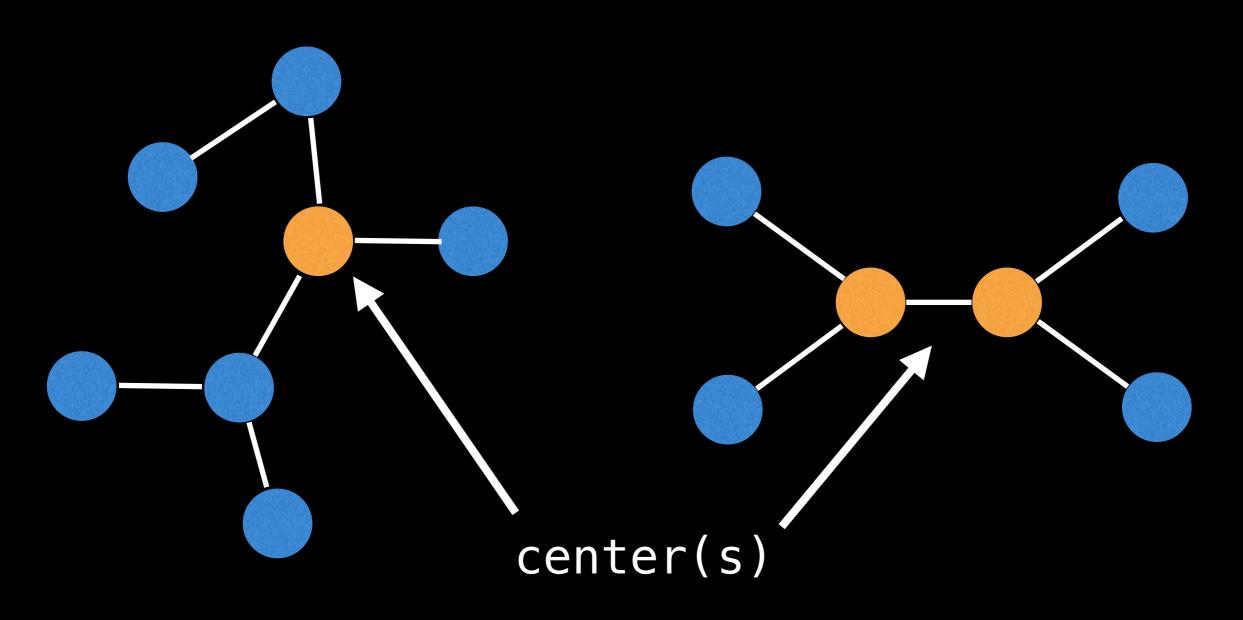
# Center(s) of a tree

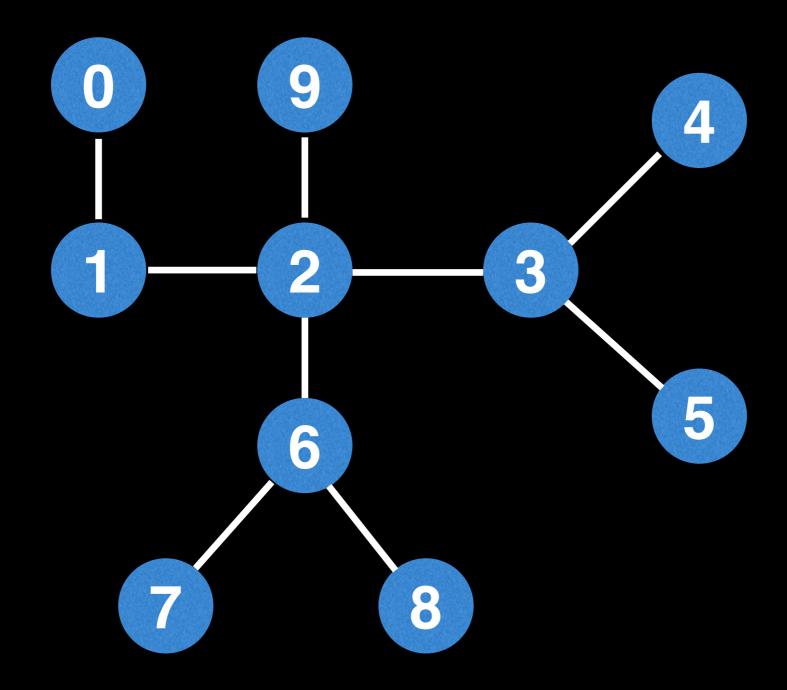


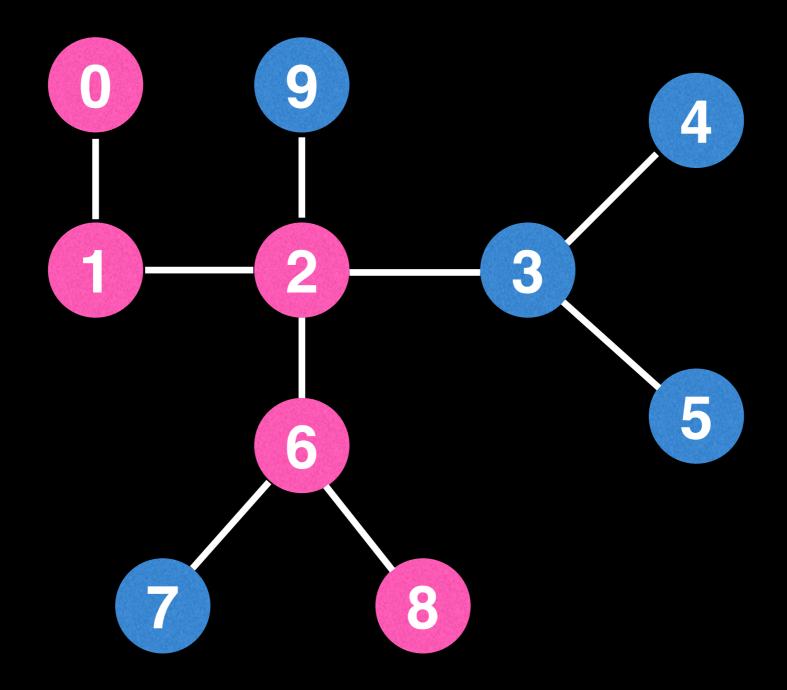
An interesting problem when you have an undirected tree is finding the tree's center node(s). This could come in handy if we wanted to select a good node to root our tree ©

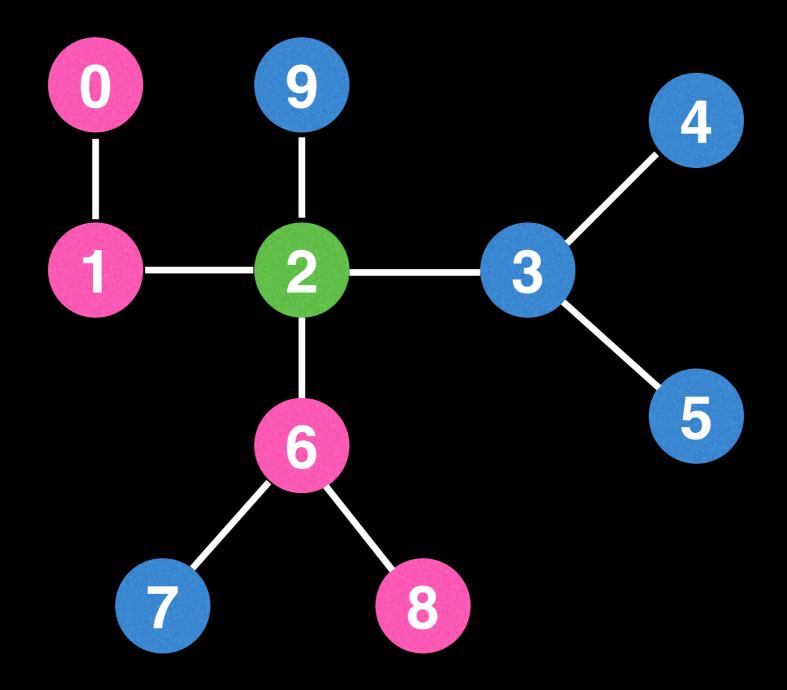


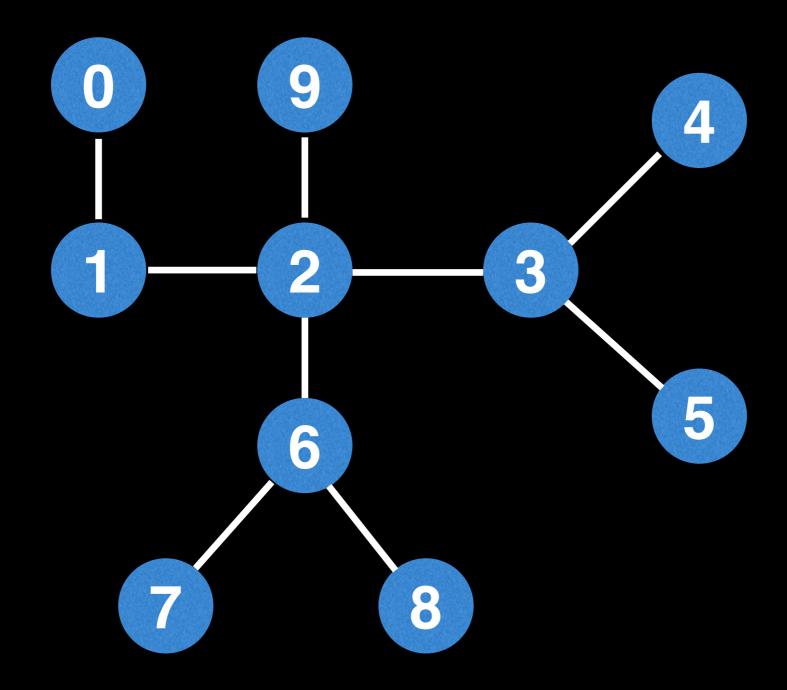
An interesting problem when you have an undirected tree is finding the tree's center node(s). This could come in handy if we wanted to select a good node to root our tree ©

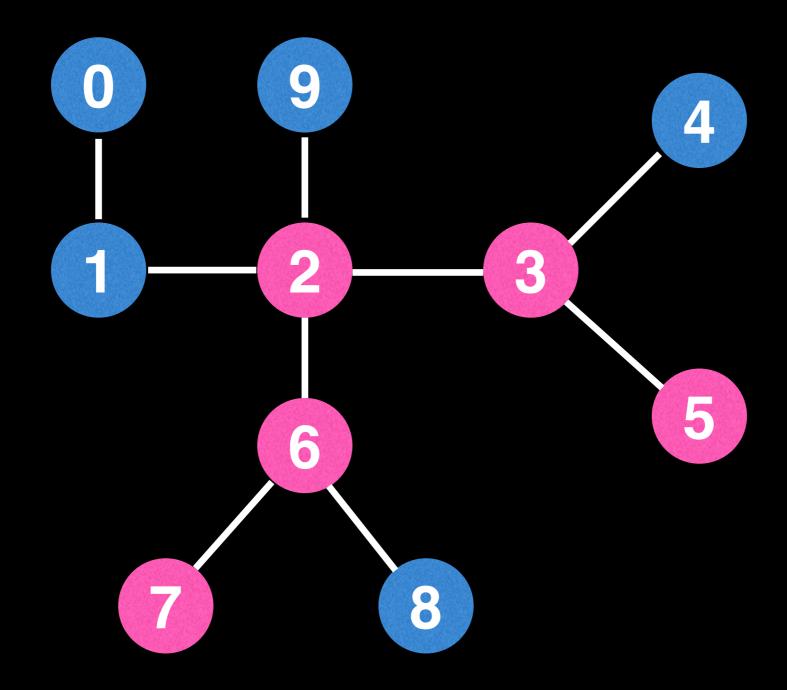


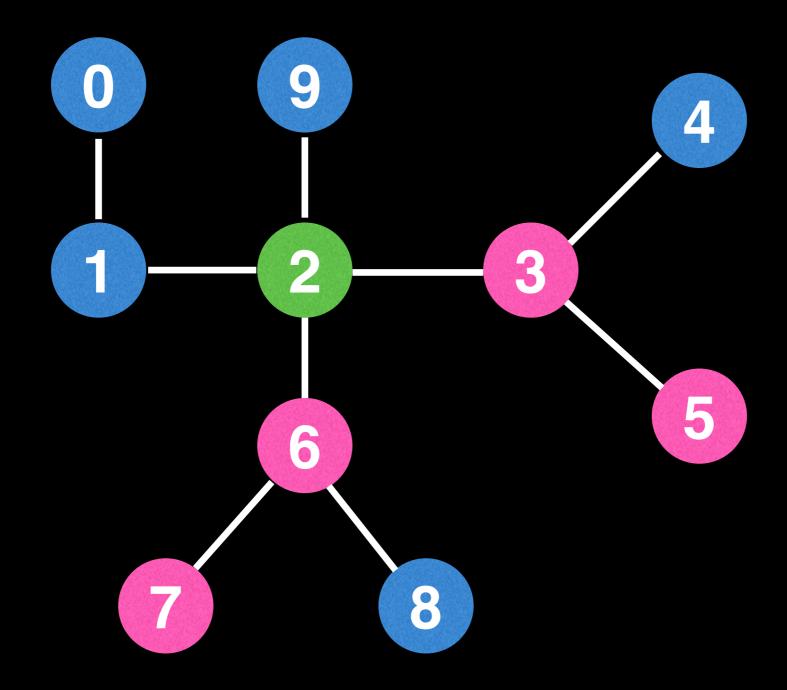


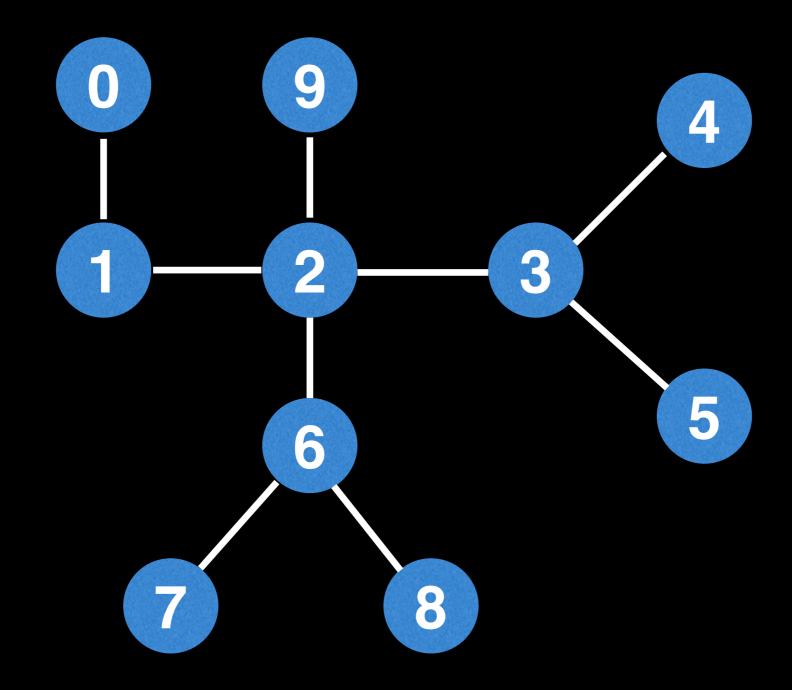




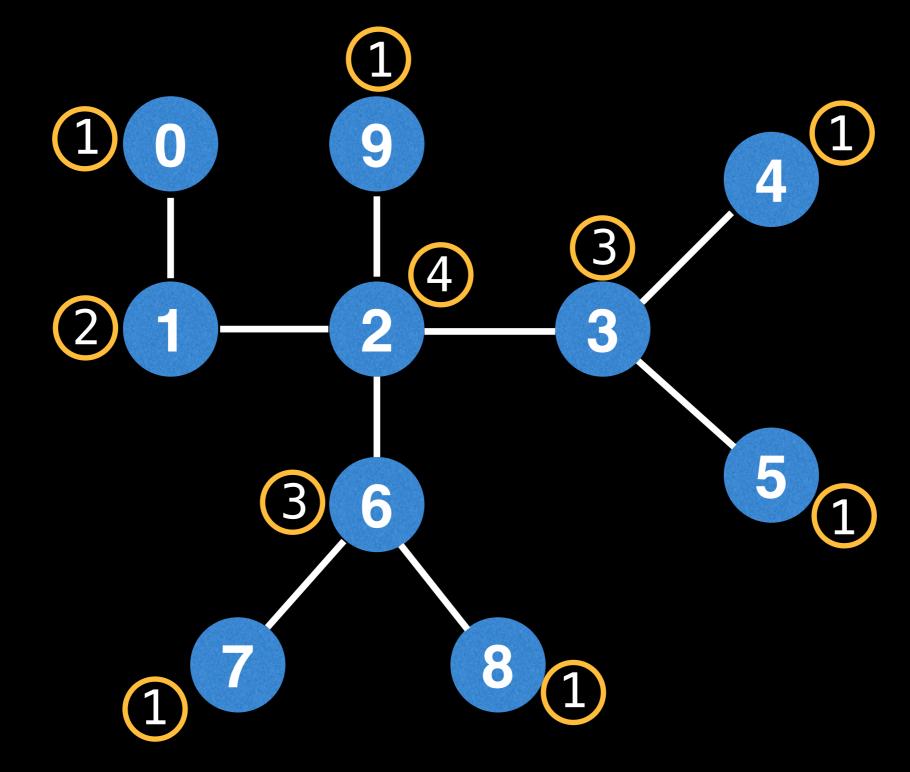




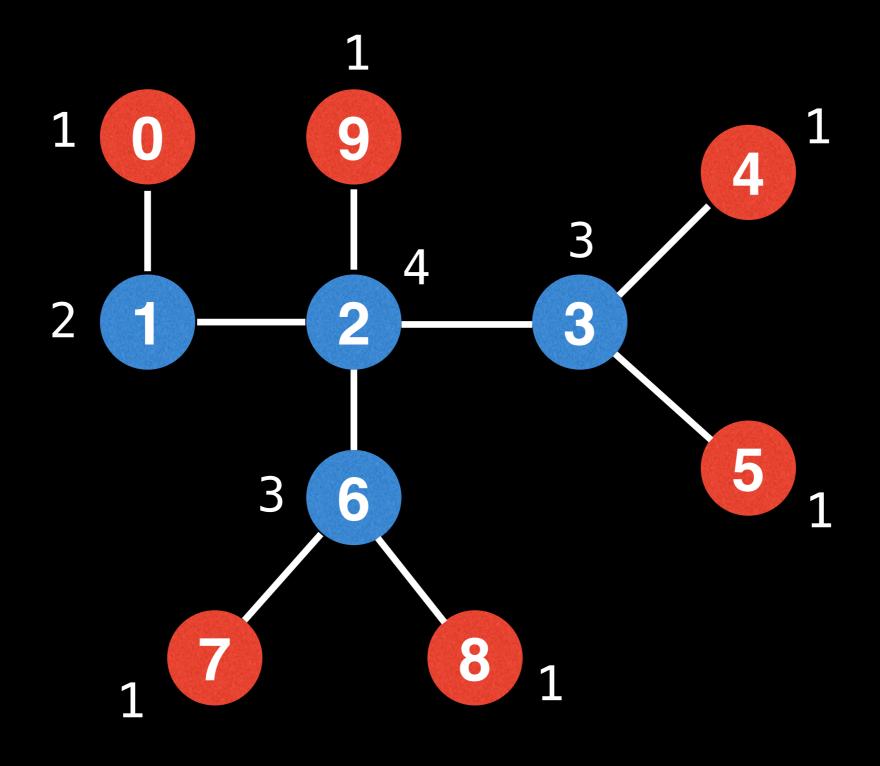


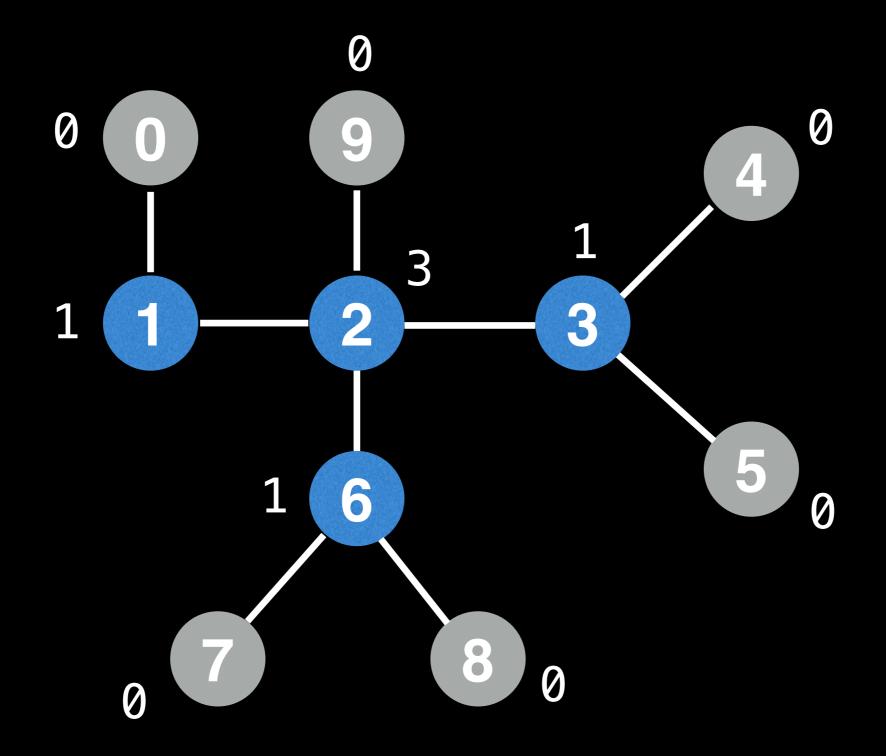


Another approach to find the center is to iteratively pick off each leaf node layer like we were peeling an onion.

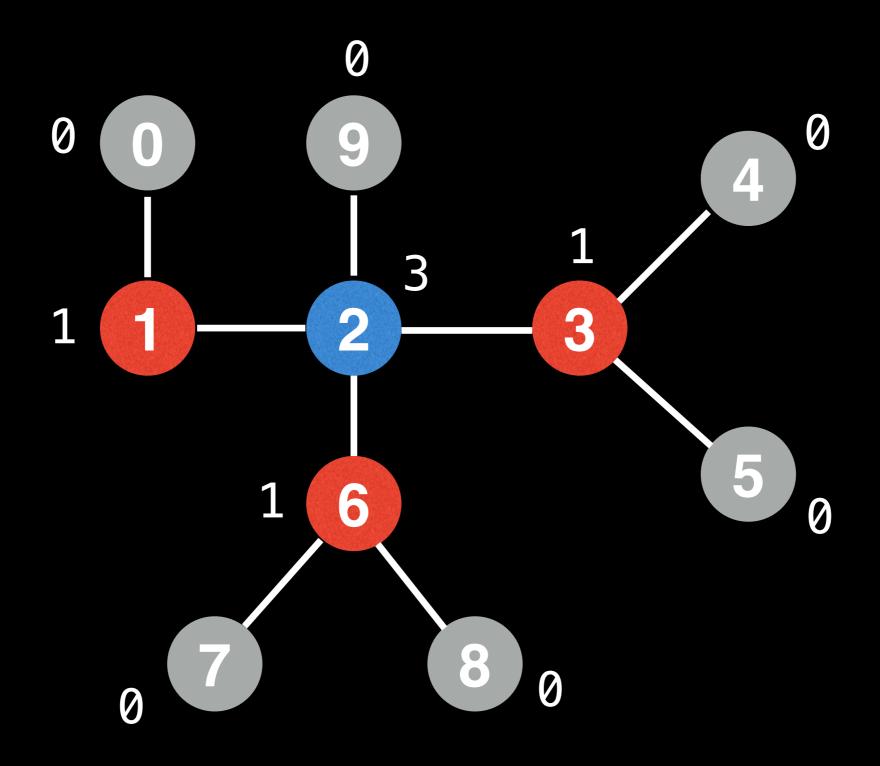


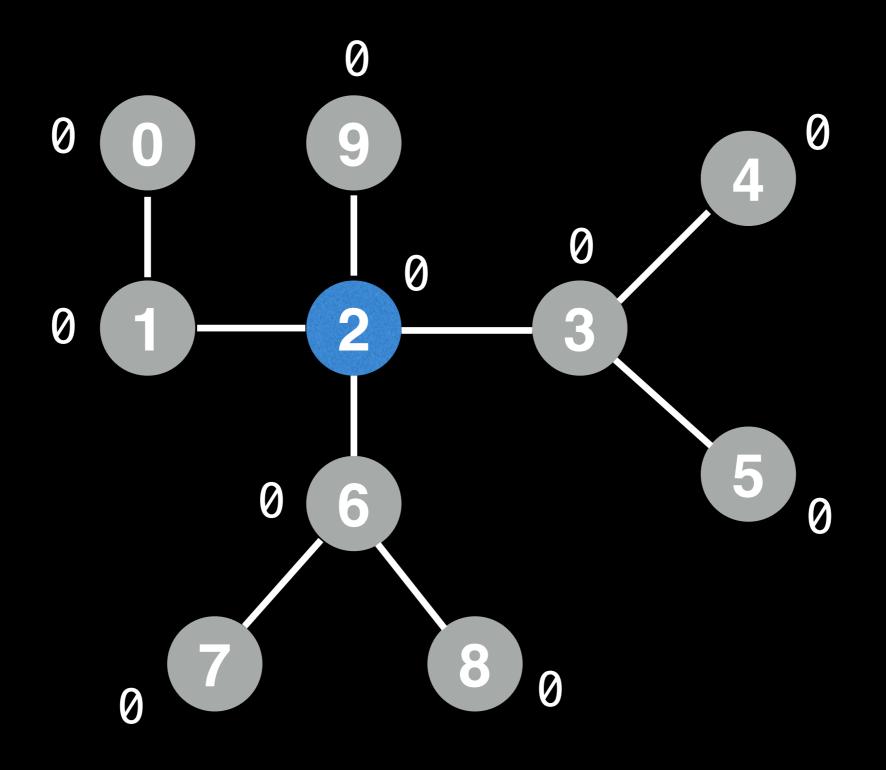
The orange circles represent the **degree** of each node. Observe that each leaf node will have a degree of 1.

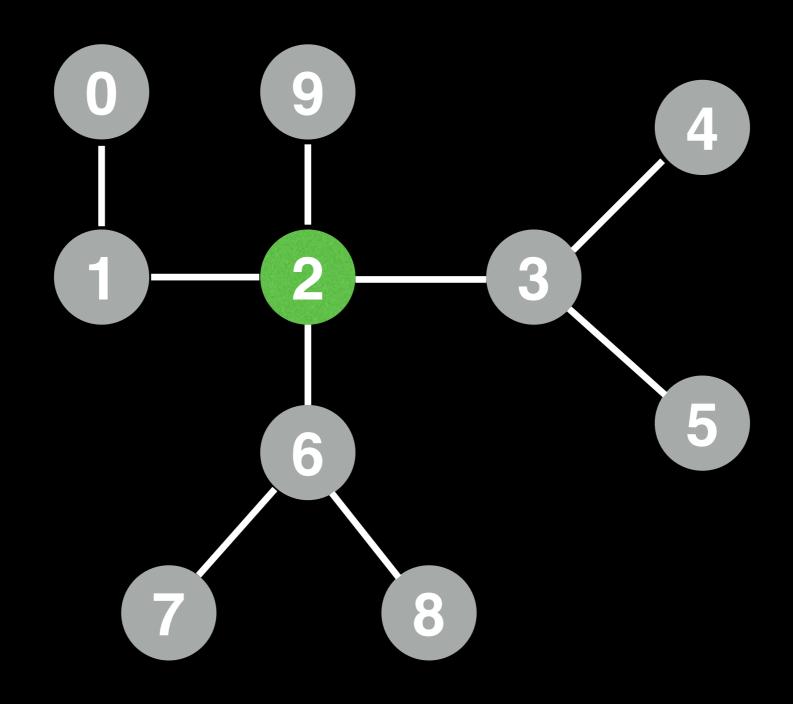


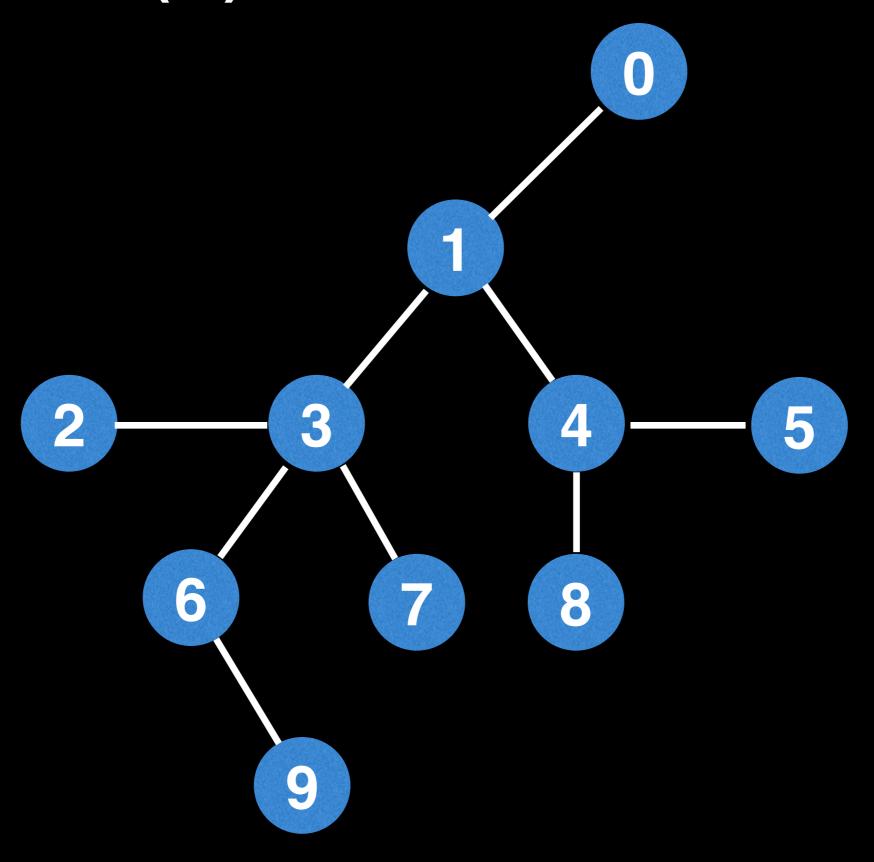


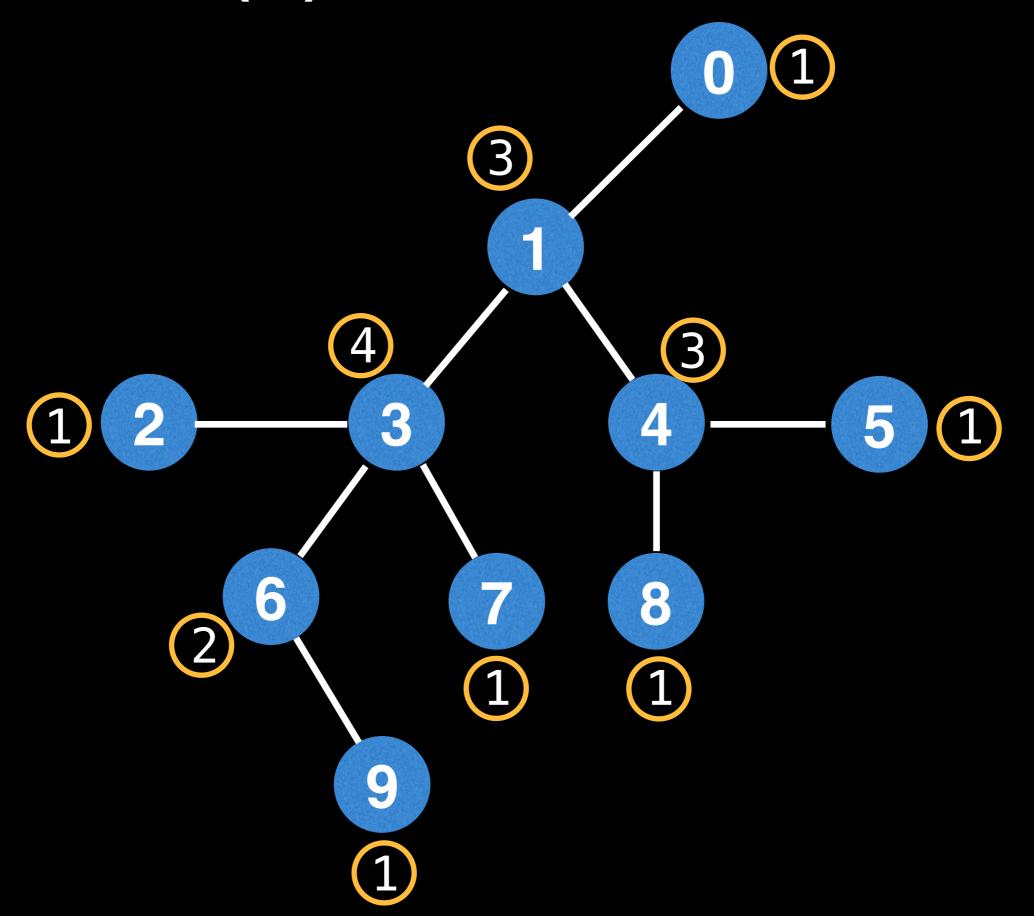
As we prune nodes also reduce the node degree values.

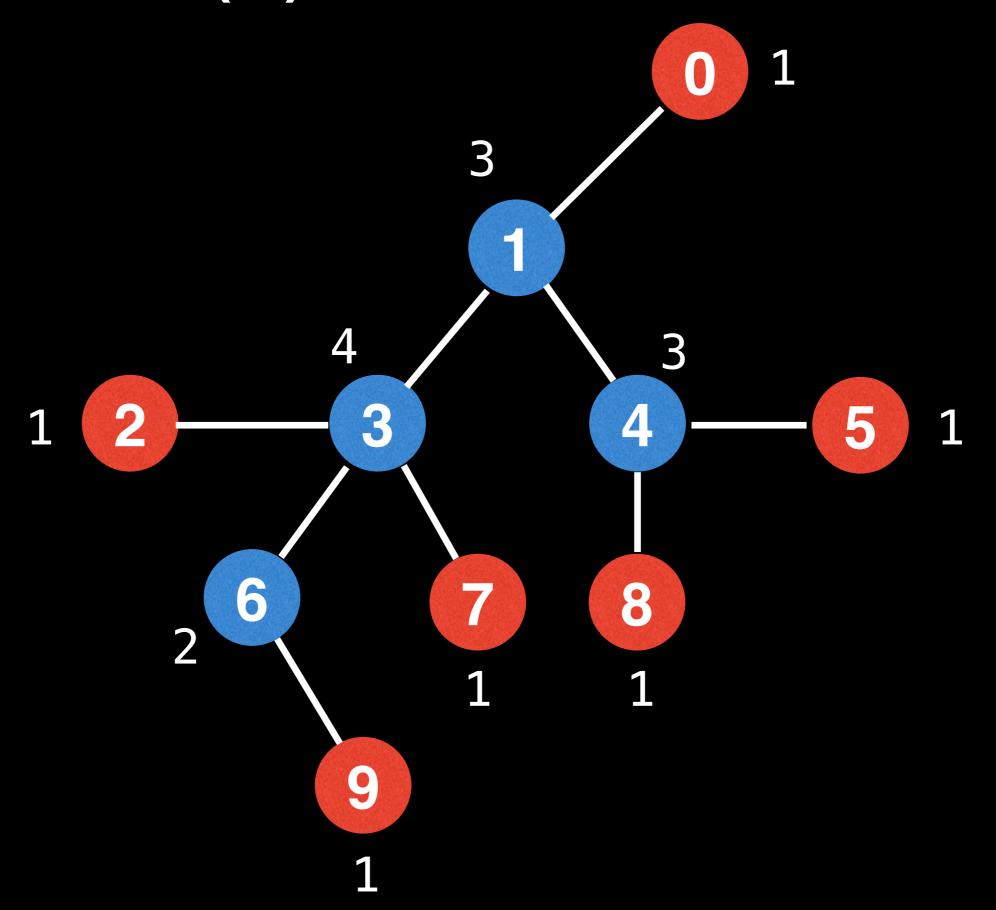


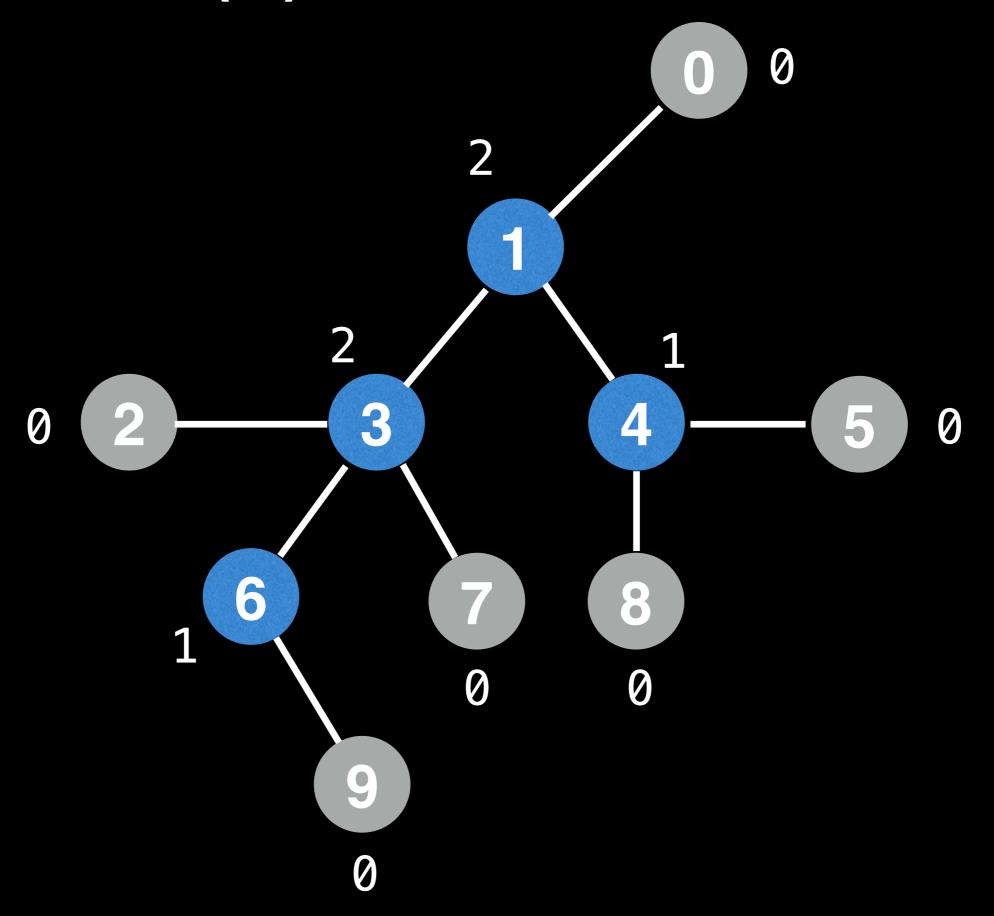


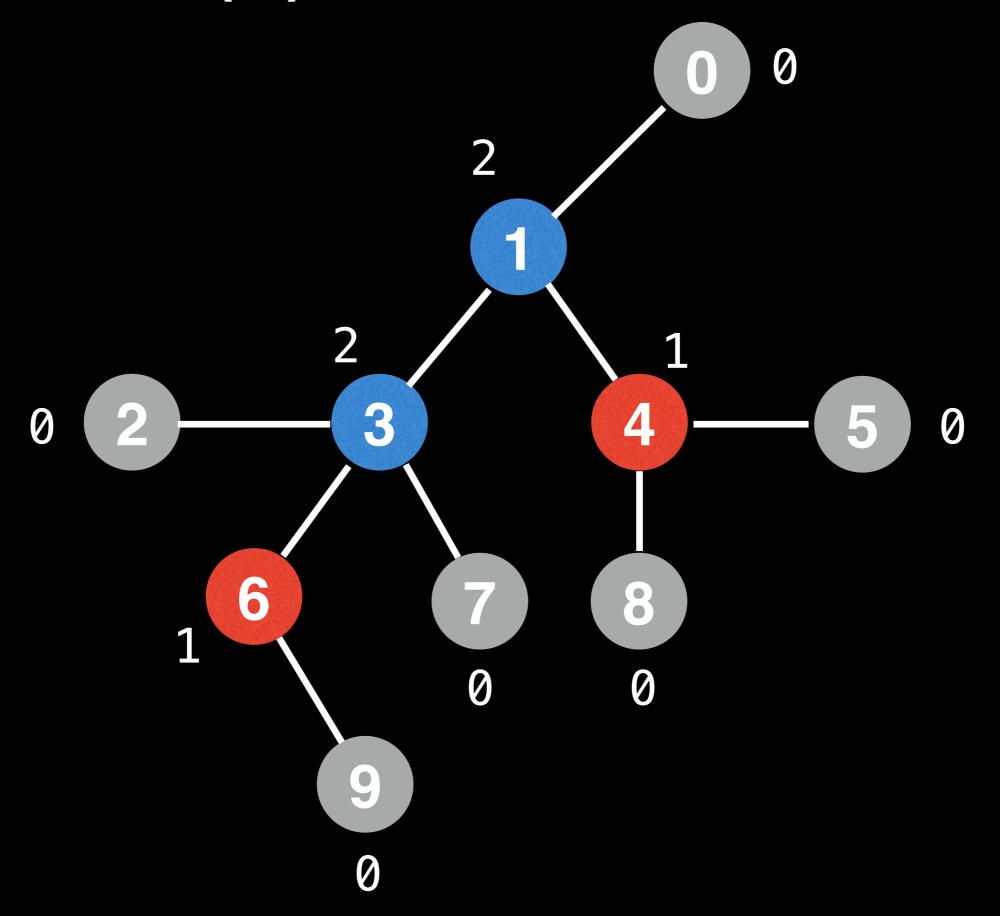


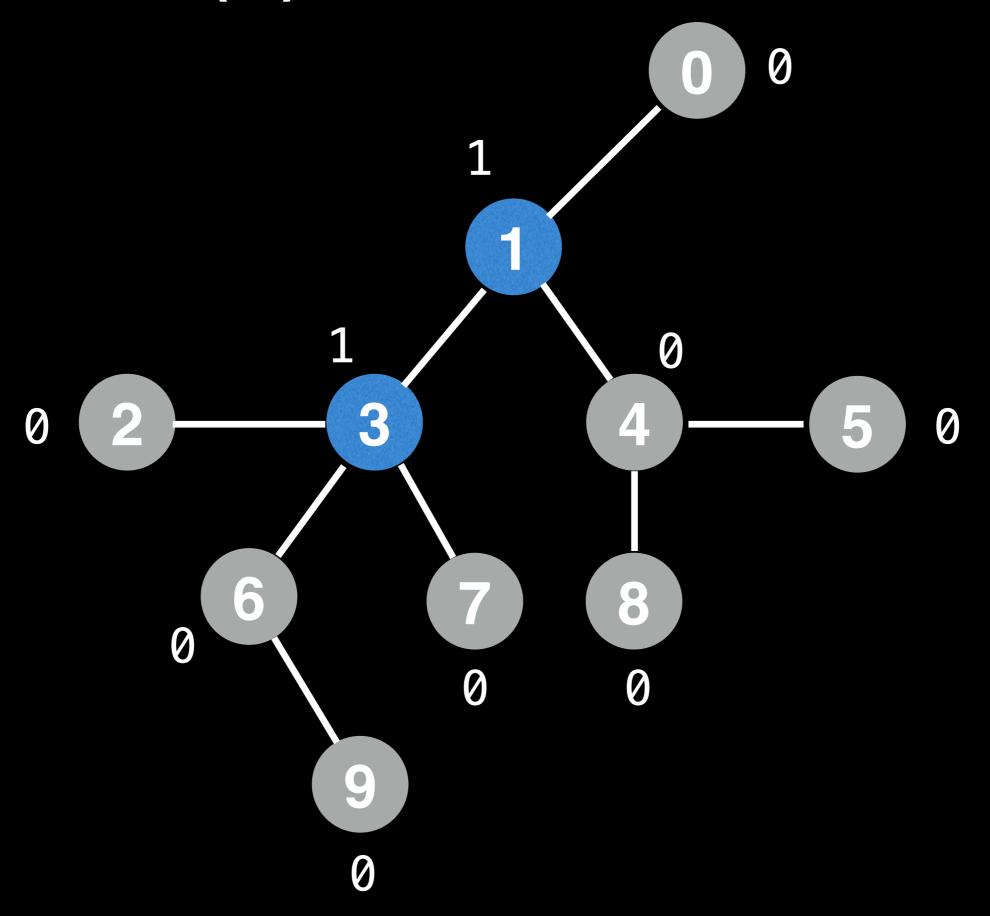


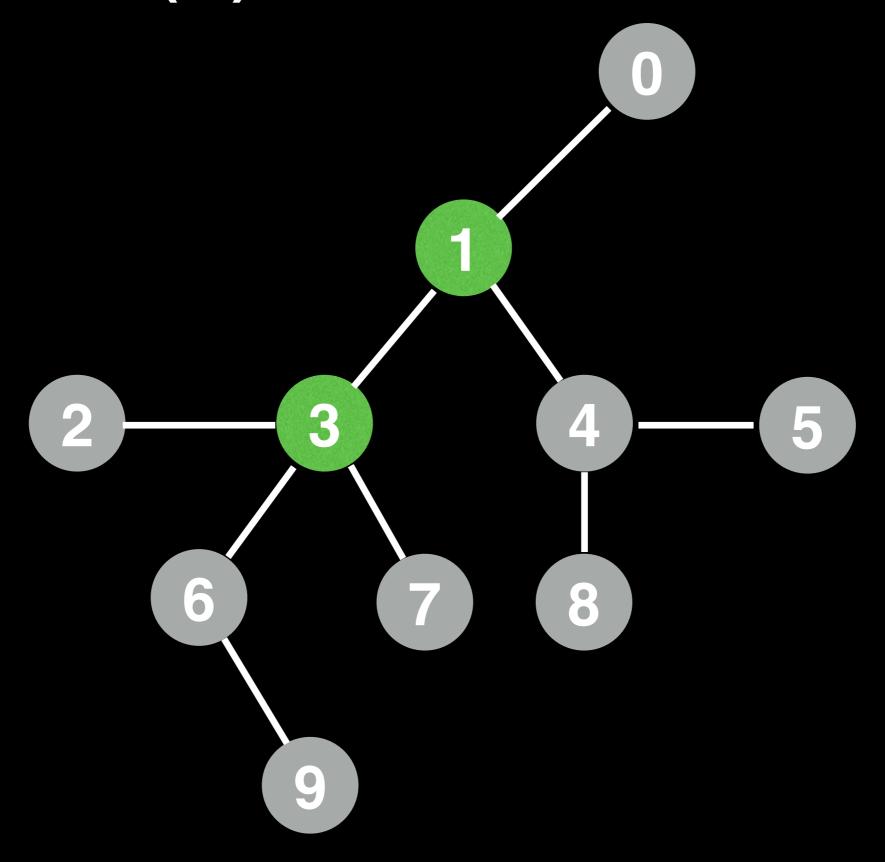












Some trees have two centers

```
# g = tree represented as an undirected graph
function treeCenters(g):
  n = g.numberOfNodes()
  degree = [0, 0, ..., 0] # size n
  leaves = []
  for (i = 0; i < n; i++):
    degree[i] = g[i].size()
    if degree[i] == 0 or degree[i] == 1:
      leaves.add(i)
      degree[i] = 0
  count = leaves_size()
  while count < n:</pre>
    new_leaves = []
    for (node : leaves):
      for (neighbor : g[node]):
        degree[neighbor] = degree[neighbor] - 1
        if degree[neighbor] == 1:
          new_leaves.add(neighbor)
      degree[node] = 0
    count += new_leaves.size()
    leaves = new_leaves
  return leaves # center(s)
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# g = tree represented as an undirected graph
function treeCenters(g):
  n = q_numberOfNodes()
  degree = [0, 0, ..., 0] # size n
  leaves = []
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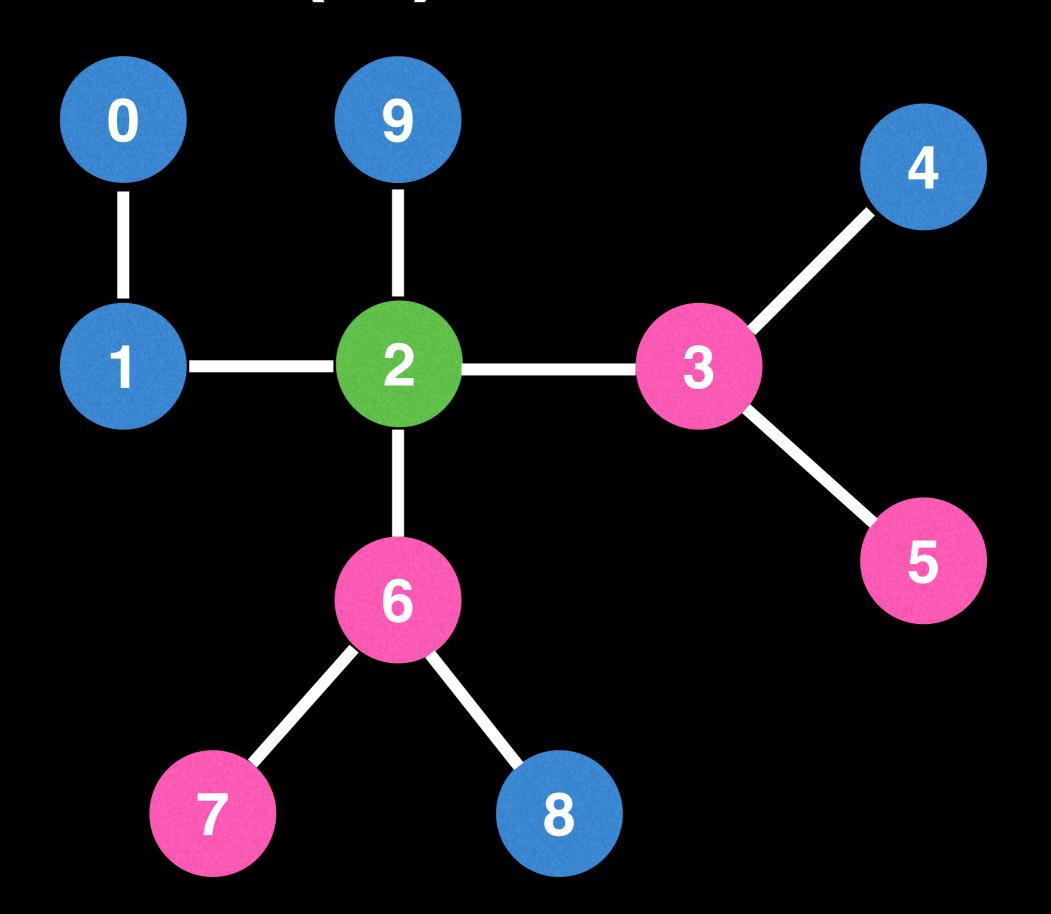
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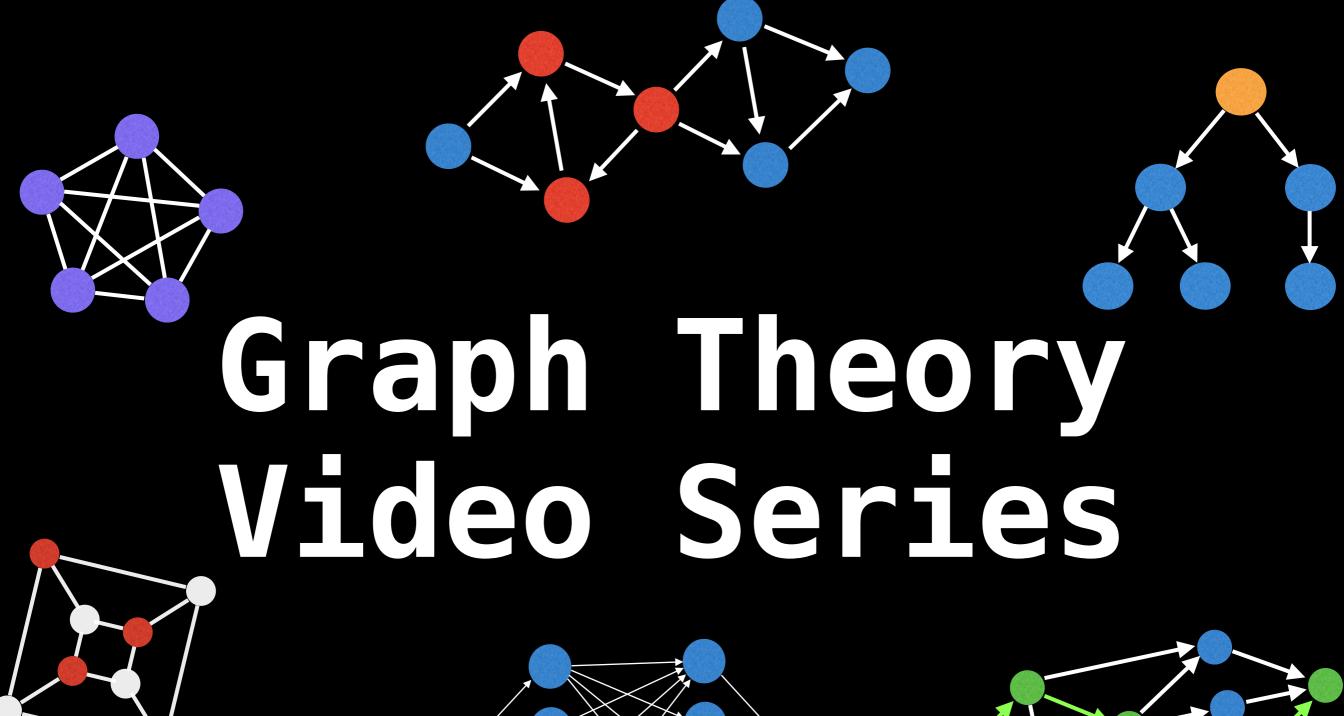
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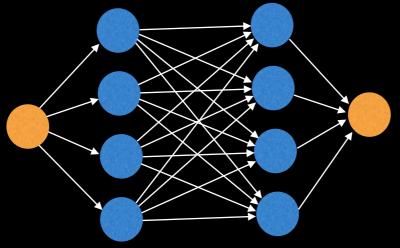
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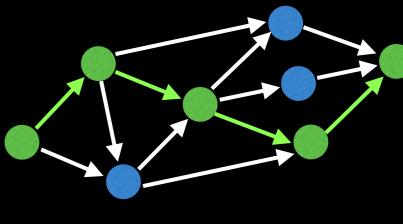
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  return leaves # center(s)
```

# Center(s) of a Tree









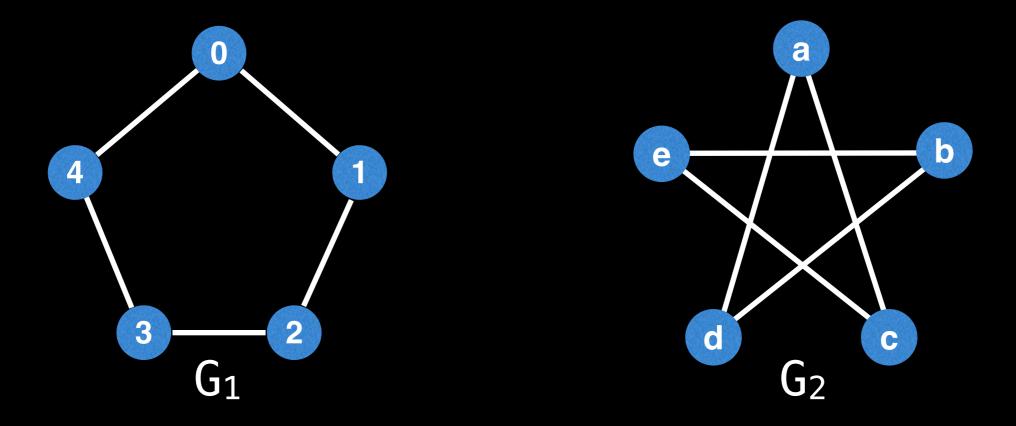
# Isomorphisms in trees

A question of equality



### Graph Isomorphism

The question of asking whether two graphs  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  are **isomorphic** is asking whether they are *structurally* the same.



Even though  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  are labelled differently and may appear different they are structurally the same graph.

### Graph Isomorphism

We can also define the notion of a graph isomorphism more rigorously:

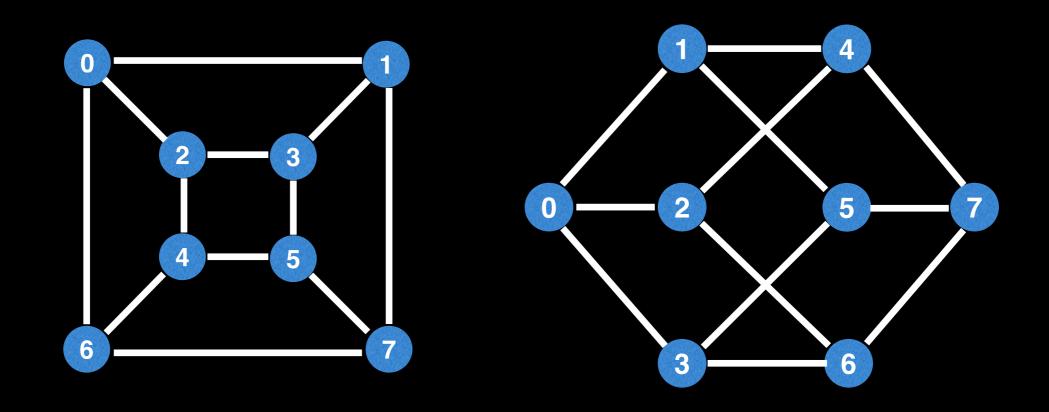
 $G_1(V_1, E_1)$  and  $G_2(V_2, E_2)$  are isomorphic if there exists a **bijection**  $\phi$  between the sets  $V_1 \rightarrow V_2$  such that:

 $\forall$  u,v  $\in$  V<sub>1</sub>, (u,v)  $\in$  E<sub>1</sub>  $\iff$  ( $\varphi$ (u), $\varphi$ (v))  $\in$  E<sub>2</sub>

In simple terms, for an isomorphism to exist there needs to be a function  $\phi$  which can map all the nodes/edges in  $G_1$  to  $G_2$  and vice-versa.

### Graph Isomorphism

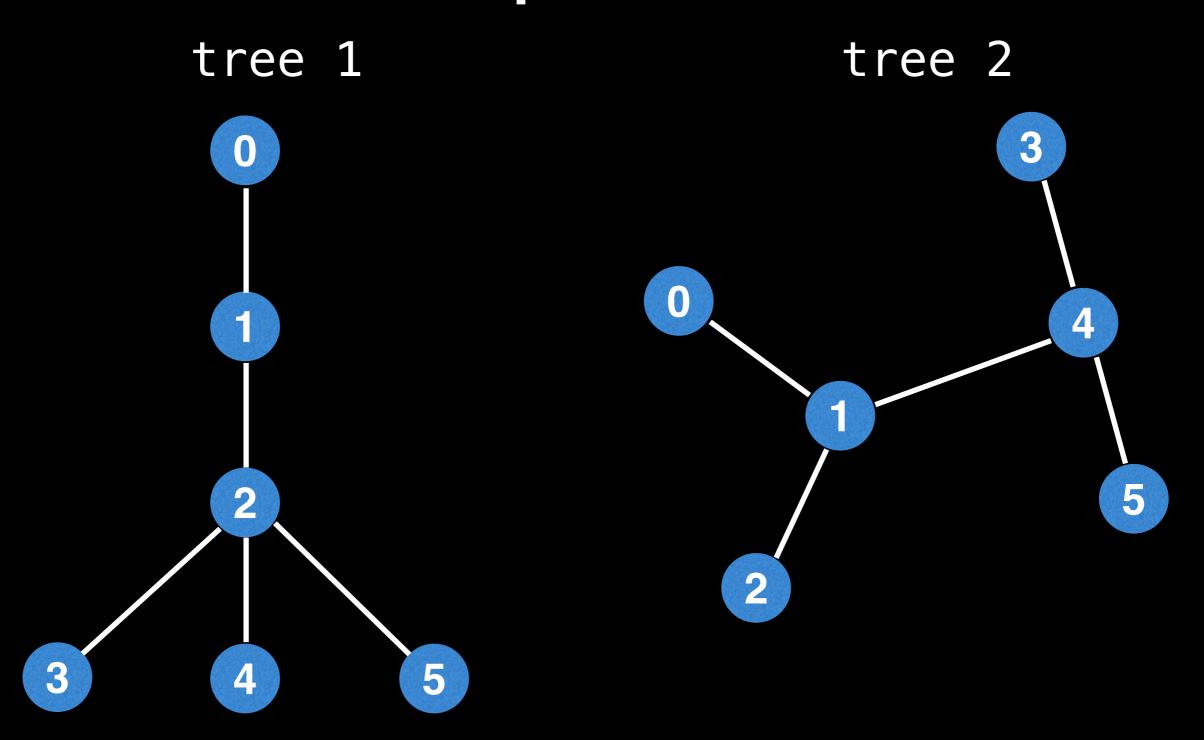
Determining if two graphs are isomorphic is not only not obvious to the human eye, but also a difficult problem for computers.



It is still an open question as to whether the graph isomorphism problem is NP complete. However, many polynomial time isomorphism algorithms exist for graph subclasses such as trees.

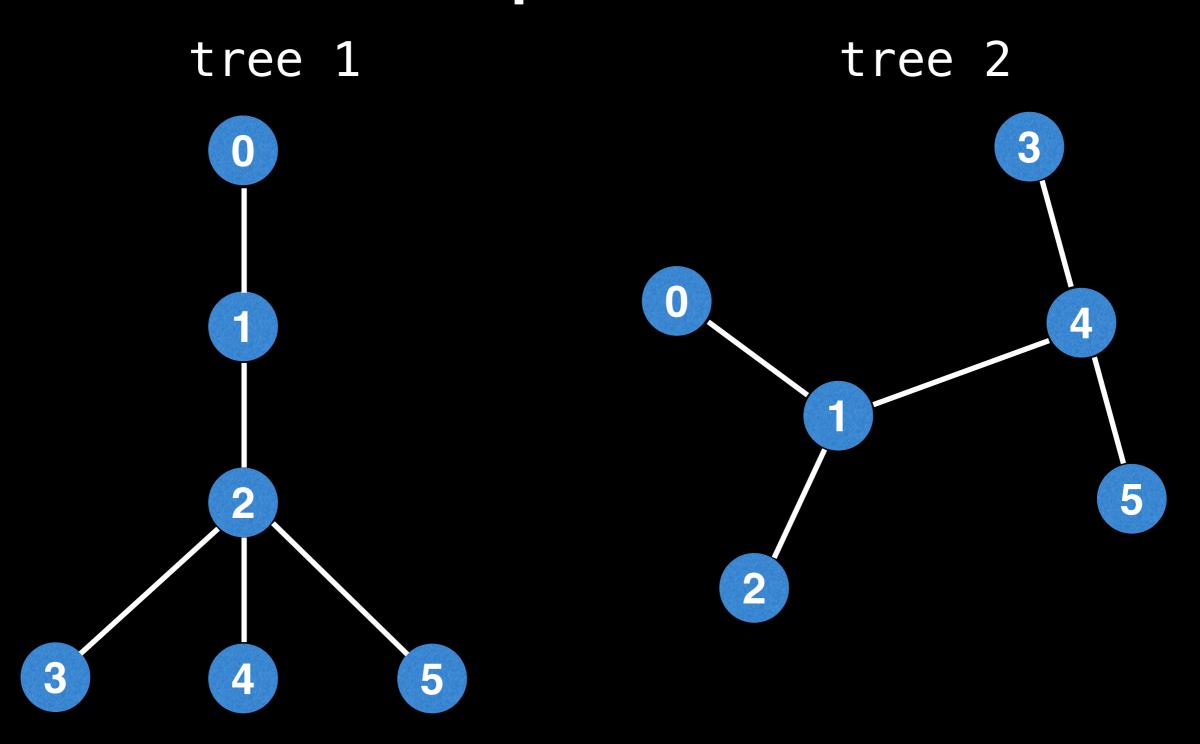
# Isomorphic Trees

### Isomorphic Trees



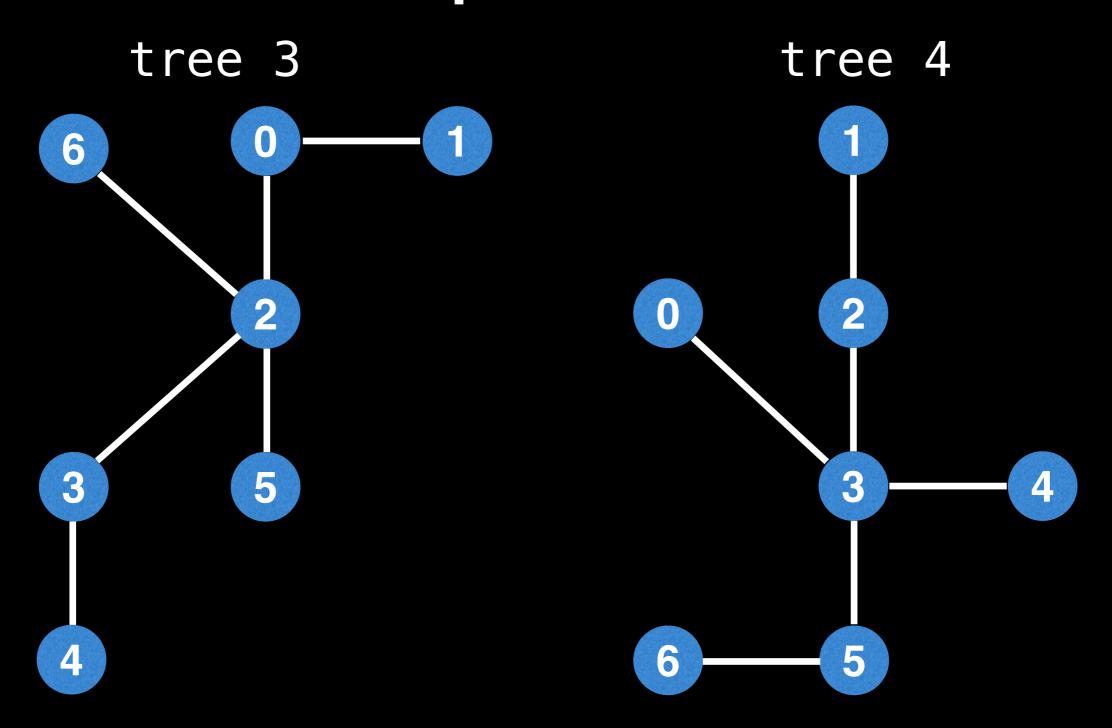
Q: Are these trees isomorphic?

### Isomorphic Trees



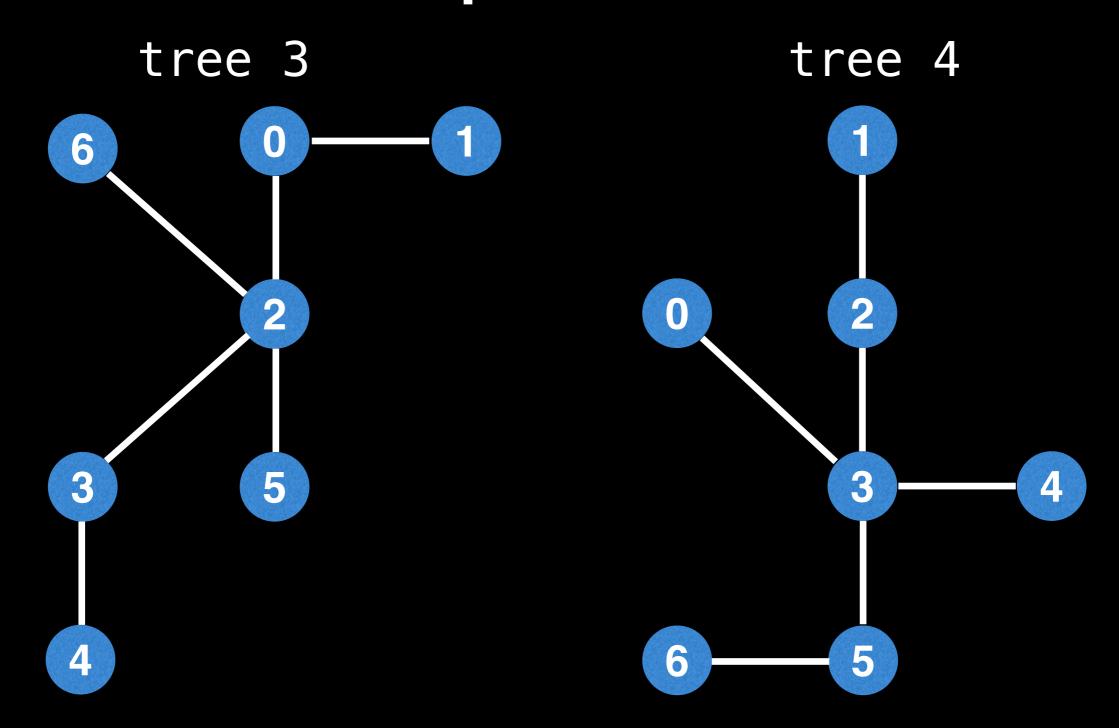
A: no, these trees are structurally different.

## Isomorphic Trees



Q: Are these trees isomorphic?

### Isomorphic Trees



Yes, one possible label mapping is: 6->0, 1->1, 0->2, 2->3, 5->4, 3->5, 4->6

### Identifying Isomorphic Trees

There are several very quick **probabilistic** (usually hash or heuristic based) algorithms for identifying isomorphic trees. These tend to be fast, but also error prone due to hash collisions in a limited integer space.

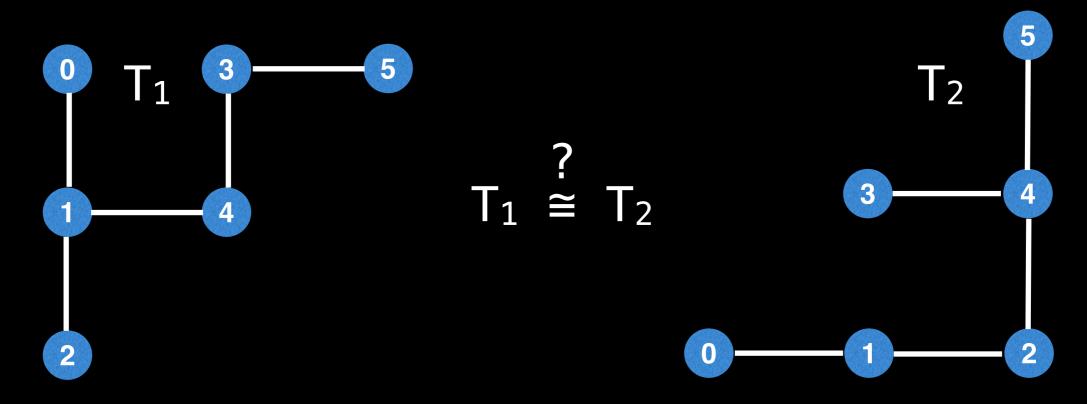
The method we'll be looking at today involves serializing a tree into a unique encoding.

This unique encoding is simply a unique string that represents a tree, if another tree has the same encoding then they are isomorphic.

### Identifying Isomorphic Trees

We can directly serialize an unrooted tree, but in practice serializing a rooted tree is typically easier code wise.

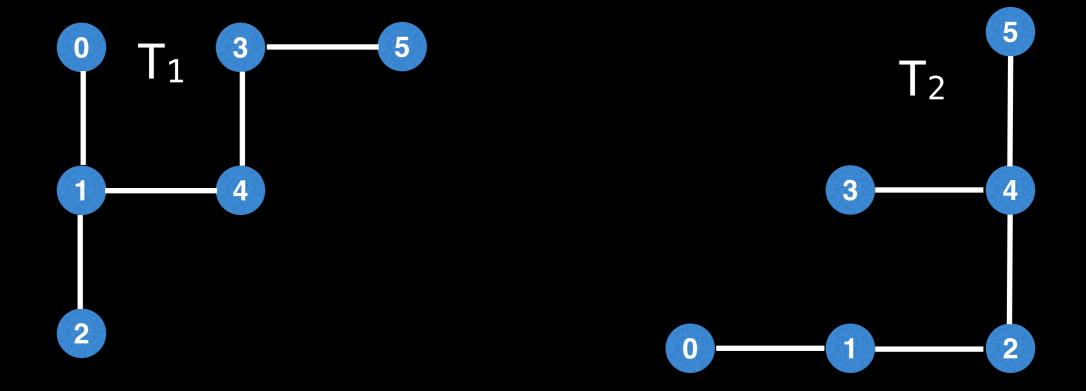
However, one caveat to watch out for if we're going to root our two trees T<sub>1</sub> and T<sub>2</sub> to check if they're isomorphic is to ensure that the same root node is selected in both trees before serializing/encoding the trees.

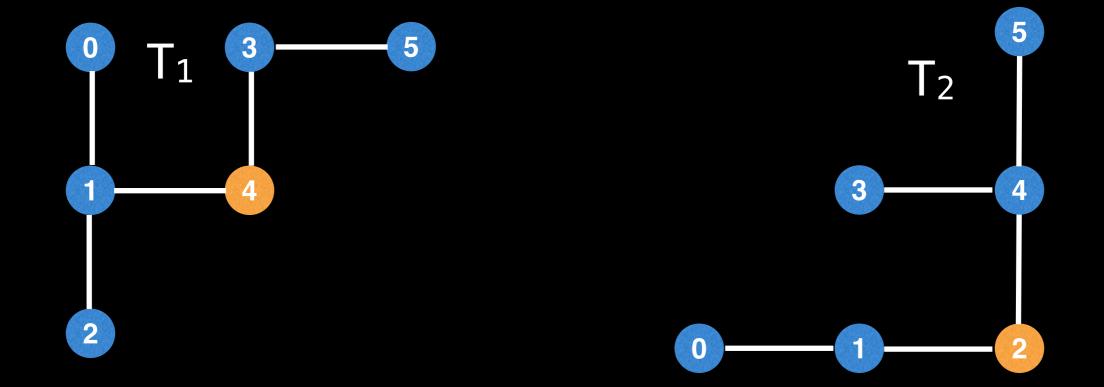


### Identifying Isomorphic Trees

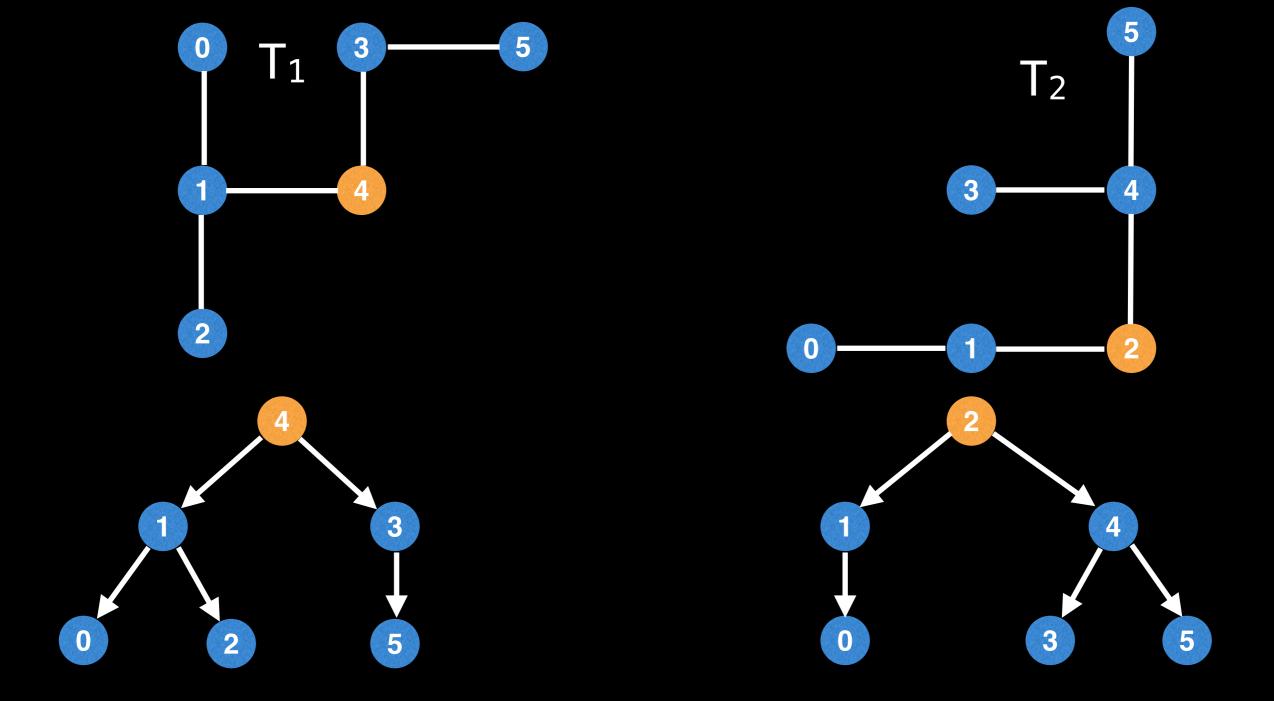
To select a common node between both trees we can use what we learned from finding the center(s) of a tree to help ourselves.

<insert video frame>

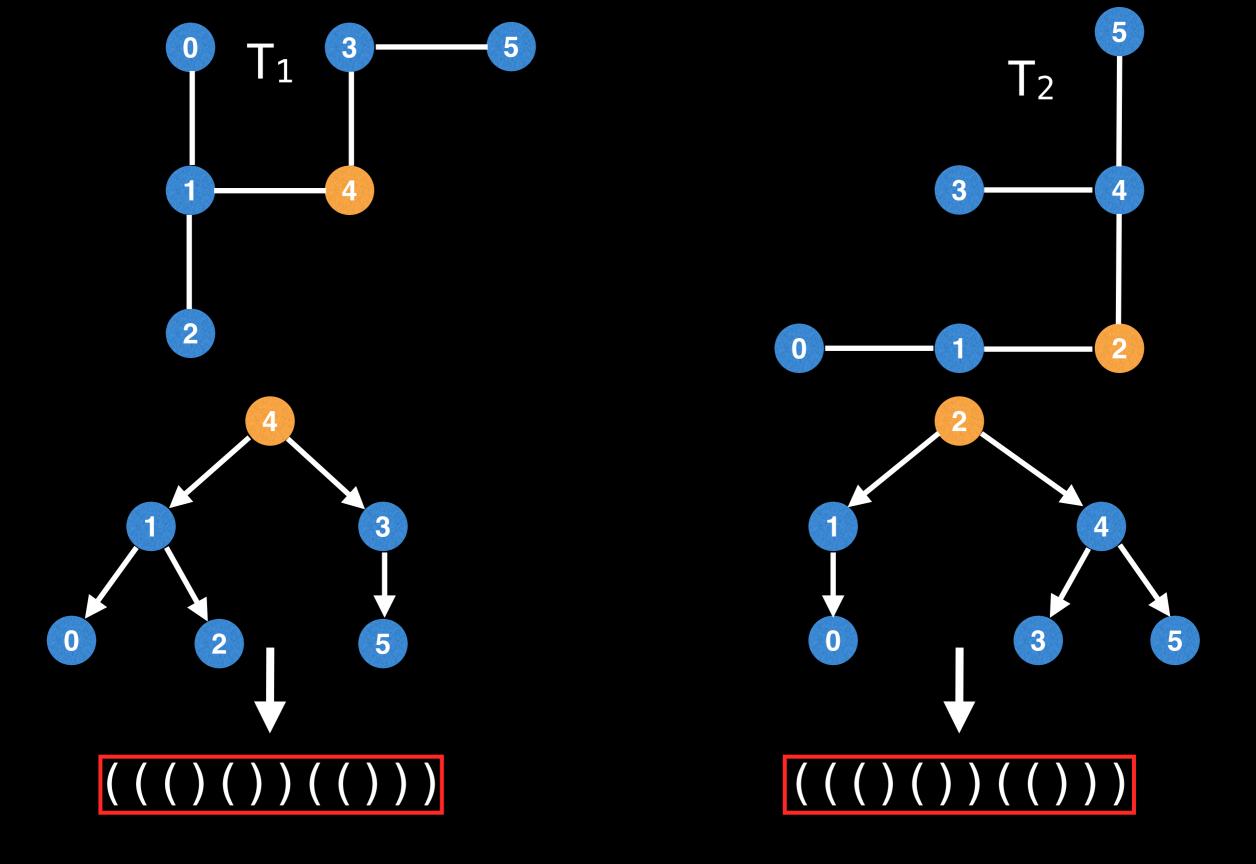




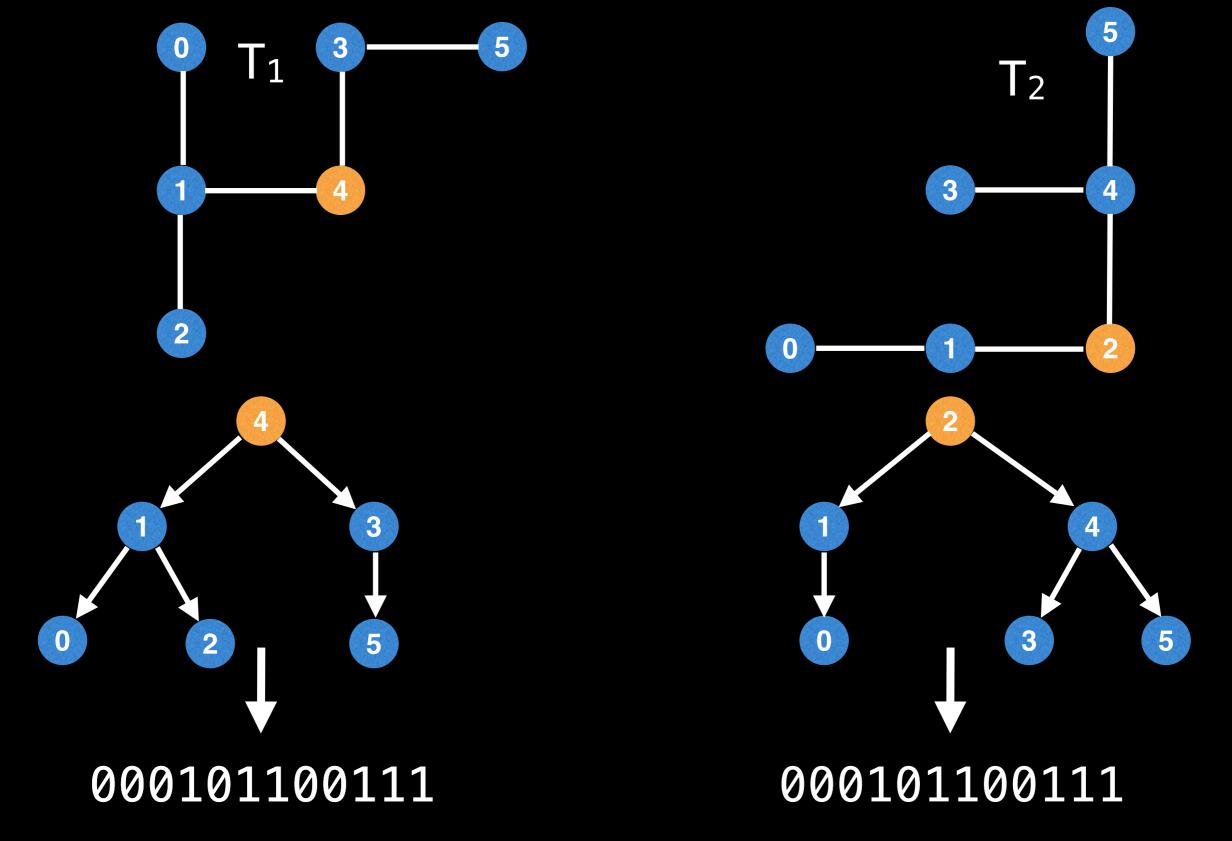
Find the center(s) of the original tree. We'll see how to handle the case where either tree can have more than 1 center shortly.



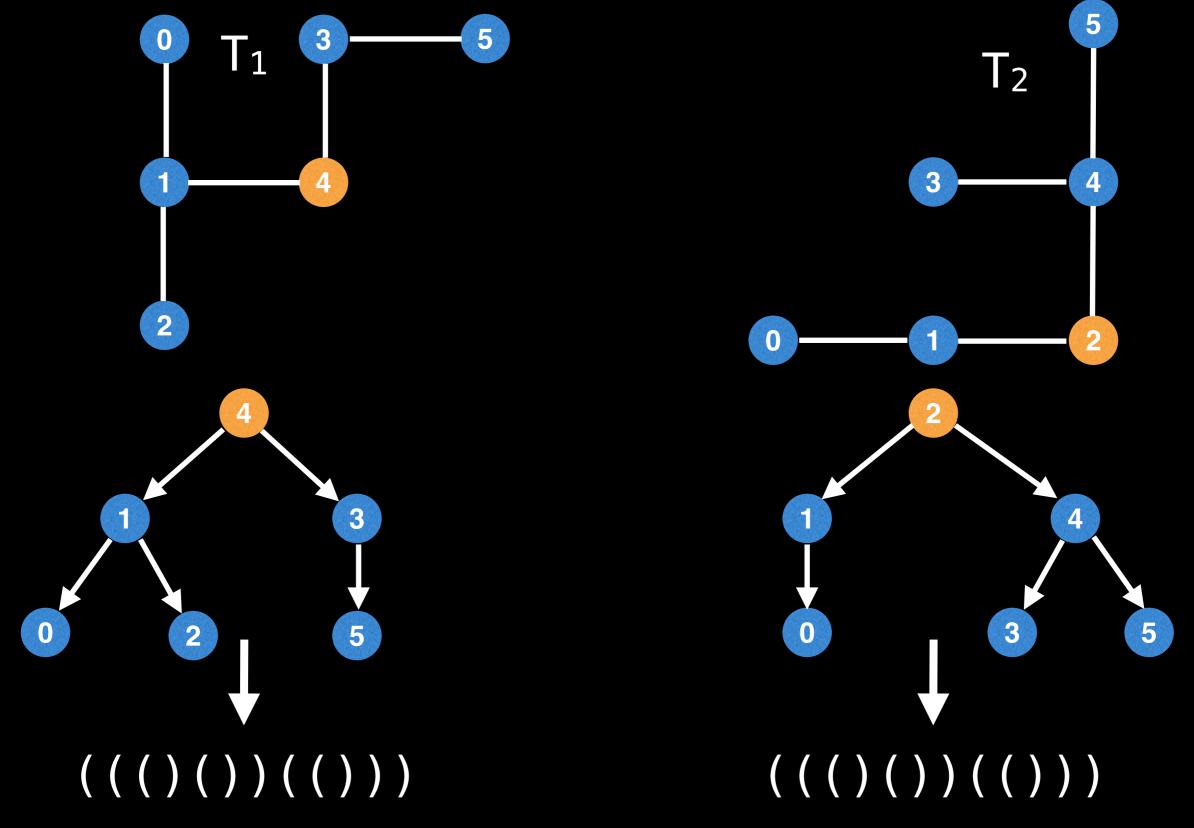
Root the tree at the center node.



Generate the encoding for each tree and compare the serialized trees for equality.



The tree encoding is simply a sequence of left '(' and right ')' brackets. However, you can also think of them as 1's and 0's (i.e a large number) if you prefer.



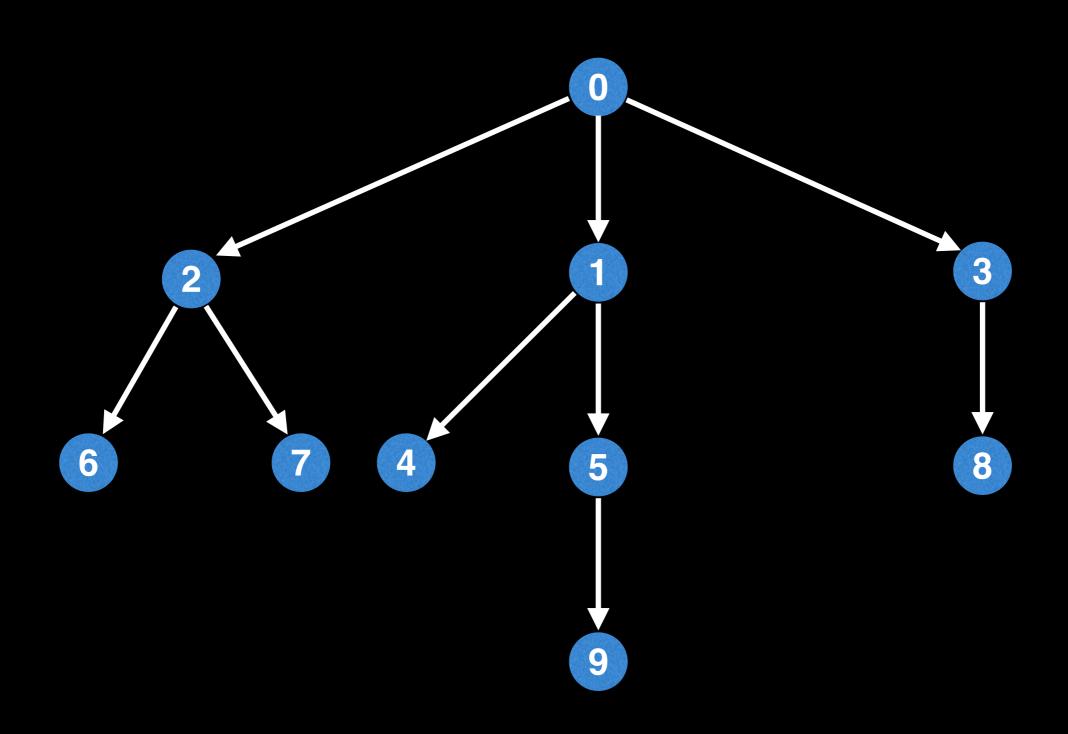
It should also be possible to reconstruct the tree solely from the encoding. This is left as an exercise to the reader...

## Generating the tree encoding

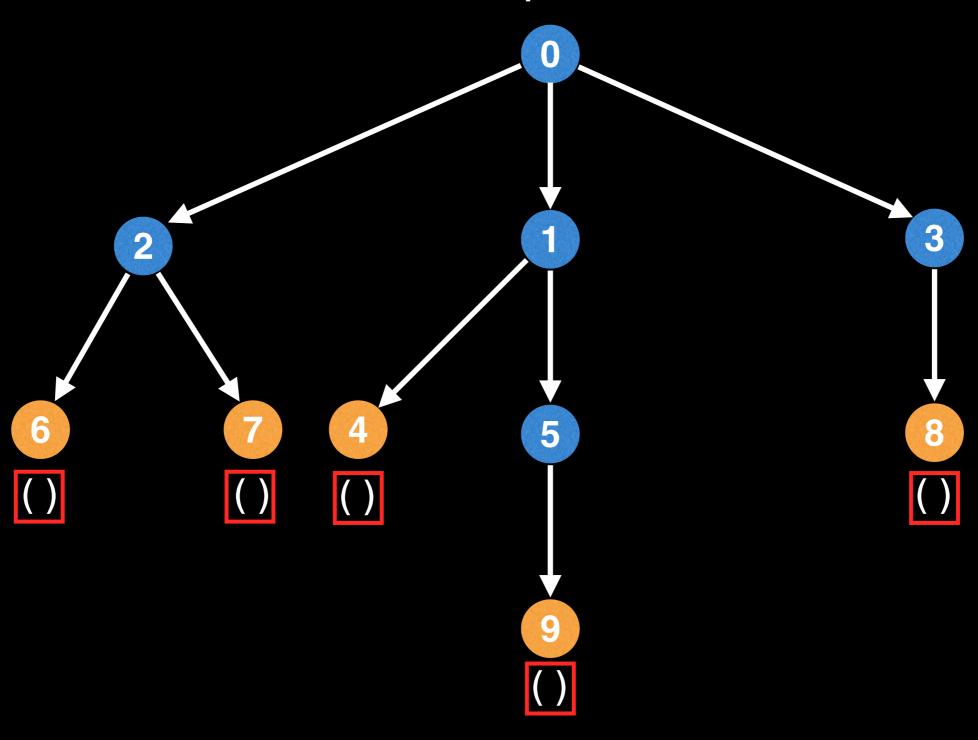
The AHU (Aho, Hopcroft, Ullman) algorithm is a clever serialization technique for representing a tree as a unique string.

Unlike many tree isomorphism invariants and heuristics, AHU is able to capture a complete history of a tree's degree spectrum and structure ensuring a deterministic method of checking for tree isomorphisms.

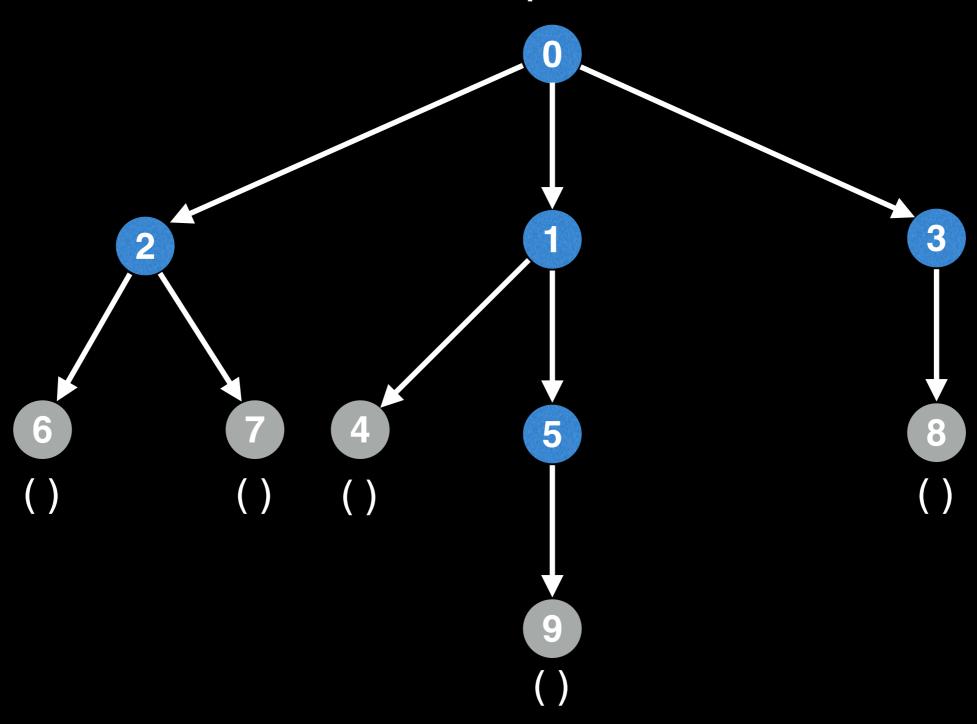
Let's have a closer look...



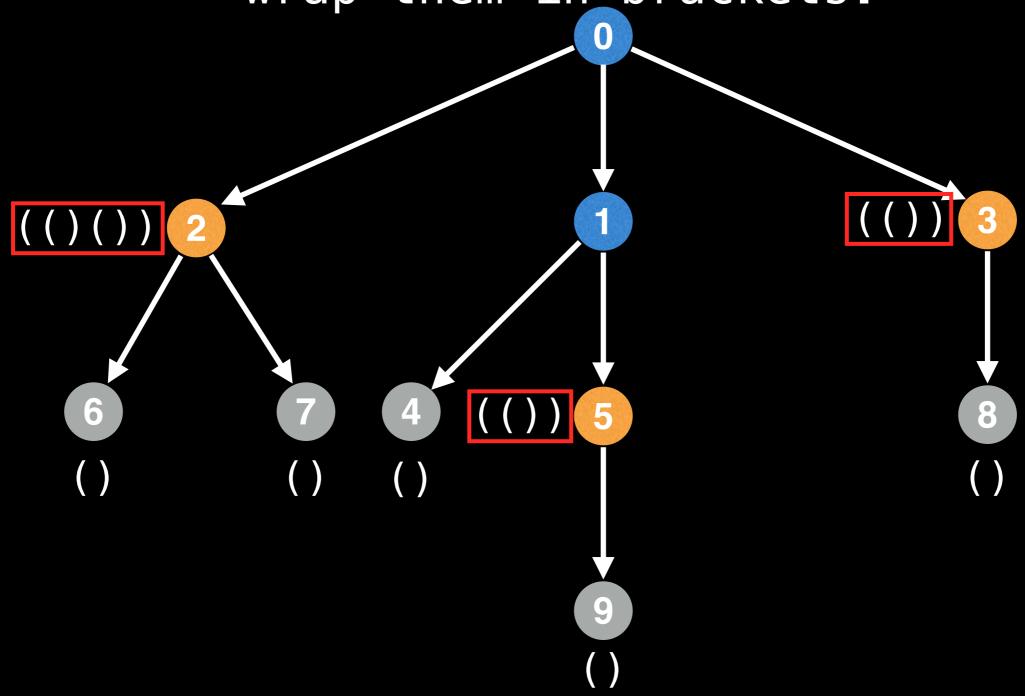
Start by assigning all leaf nodes Knuth tuples: '()'



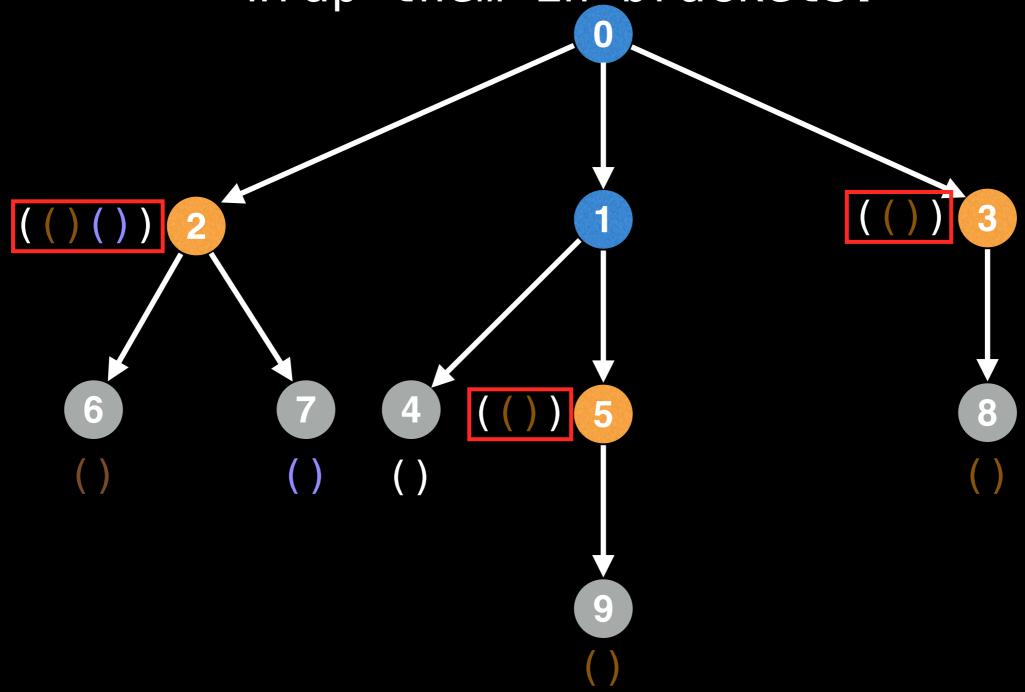
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 Knuth tuples: '()'

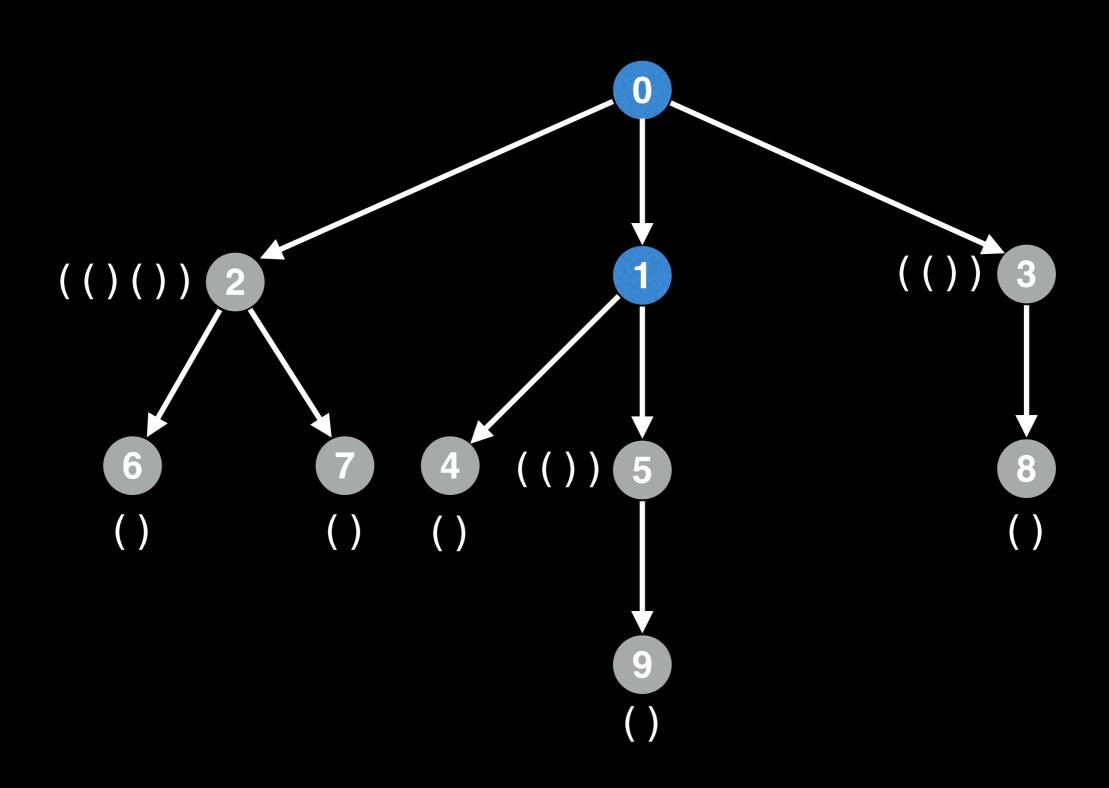


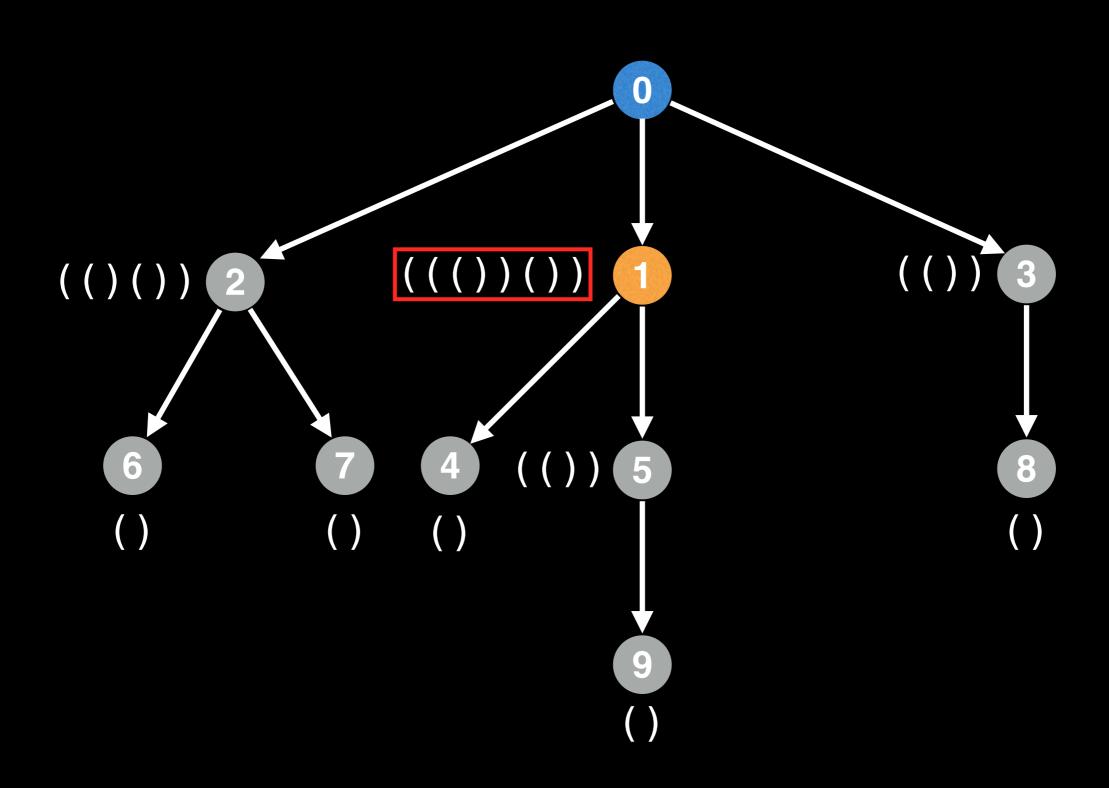
Process all nodes with grayed out children and combine the labels of their child nodes and wrap them in brackets.



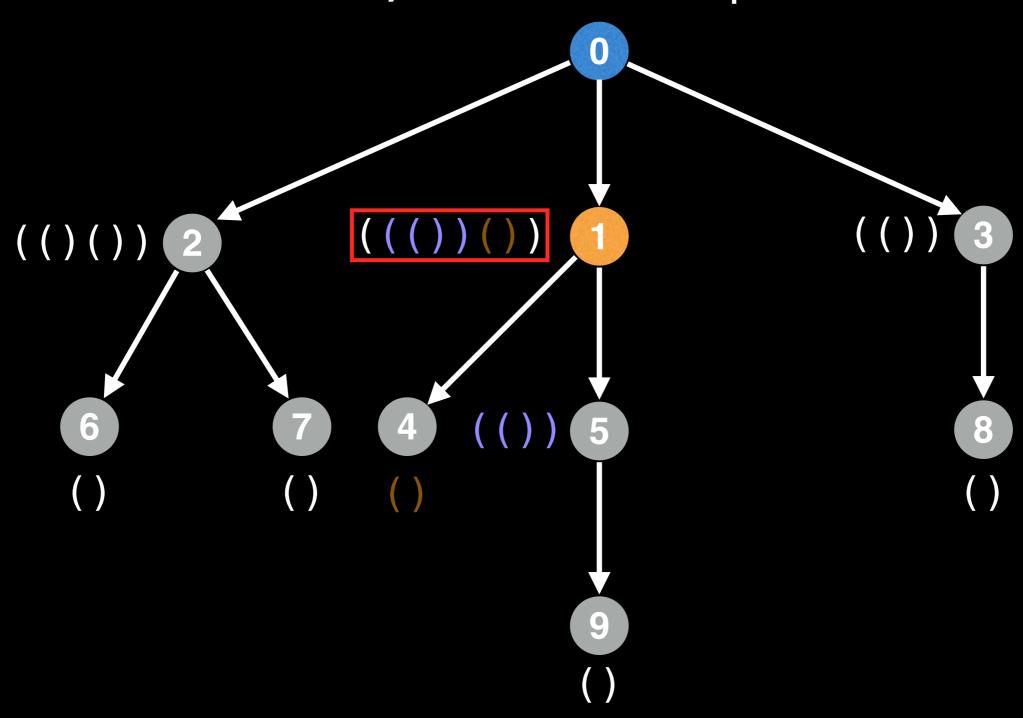
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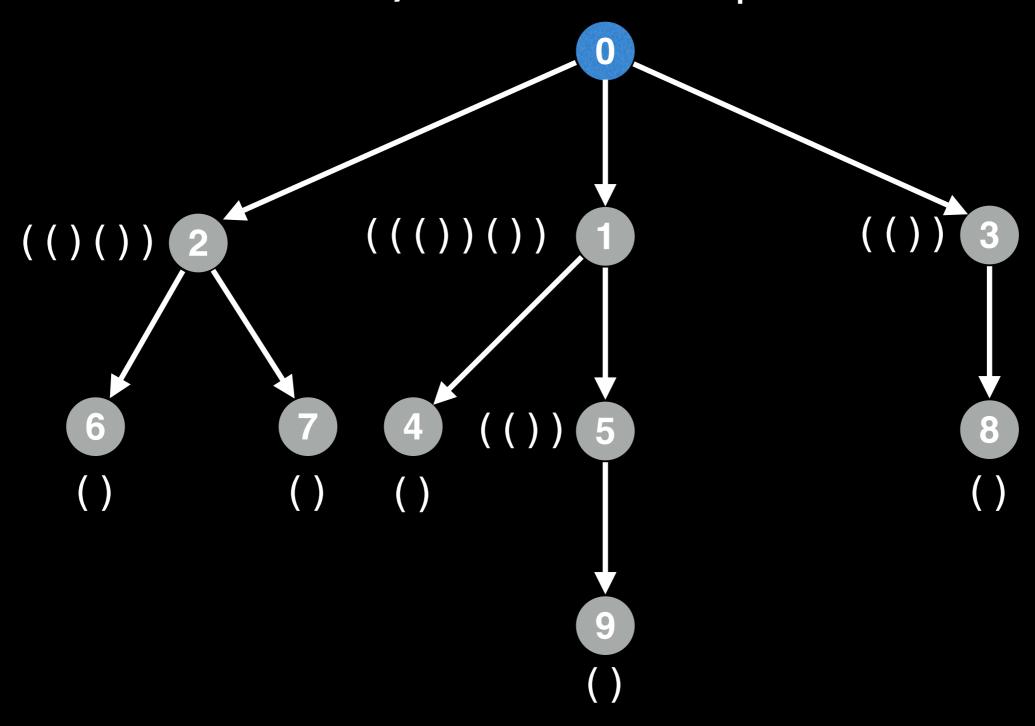


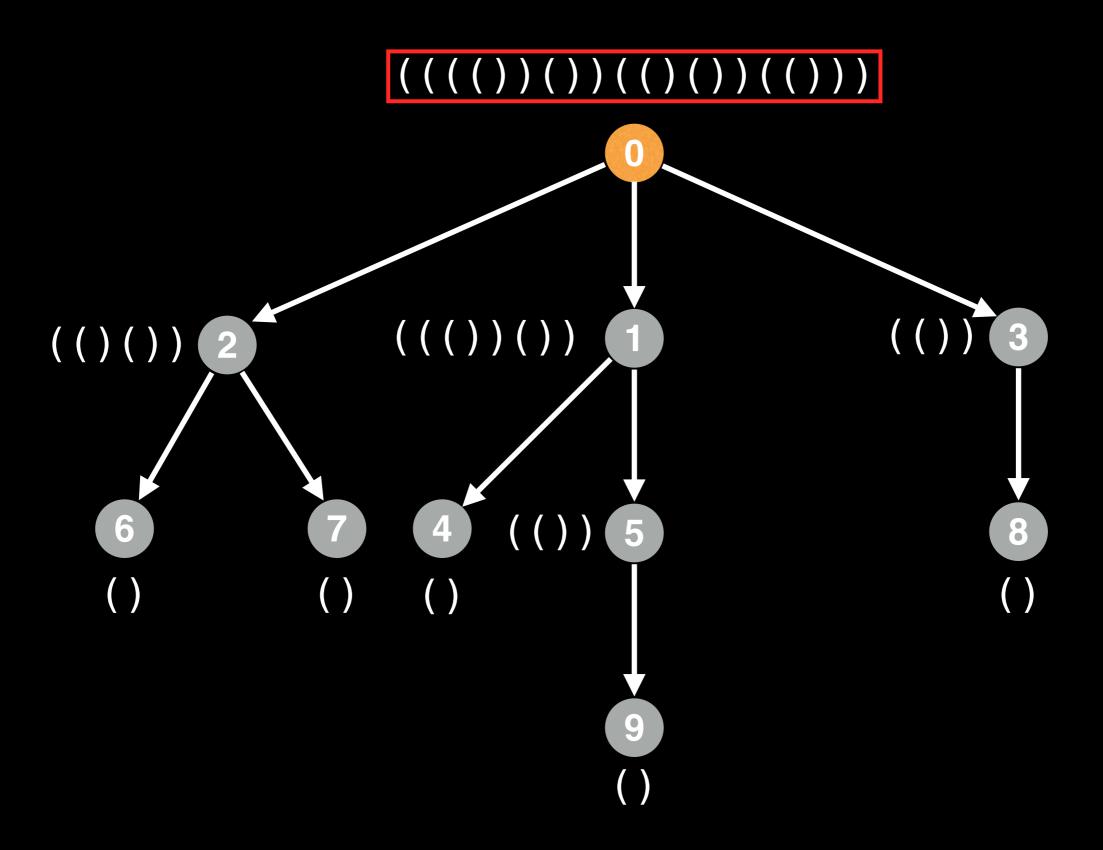


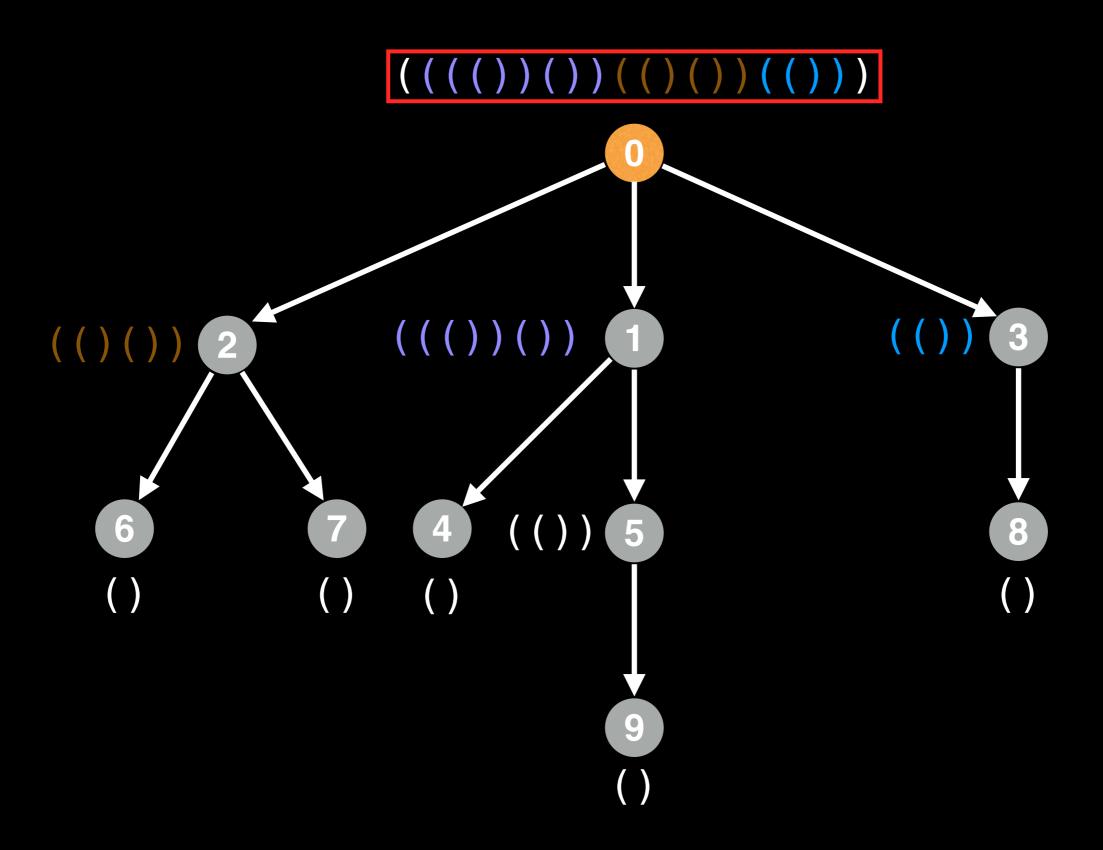
Notice that the labels get *sorted* when combined, this is important.

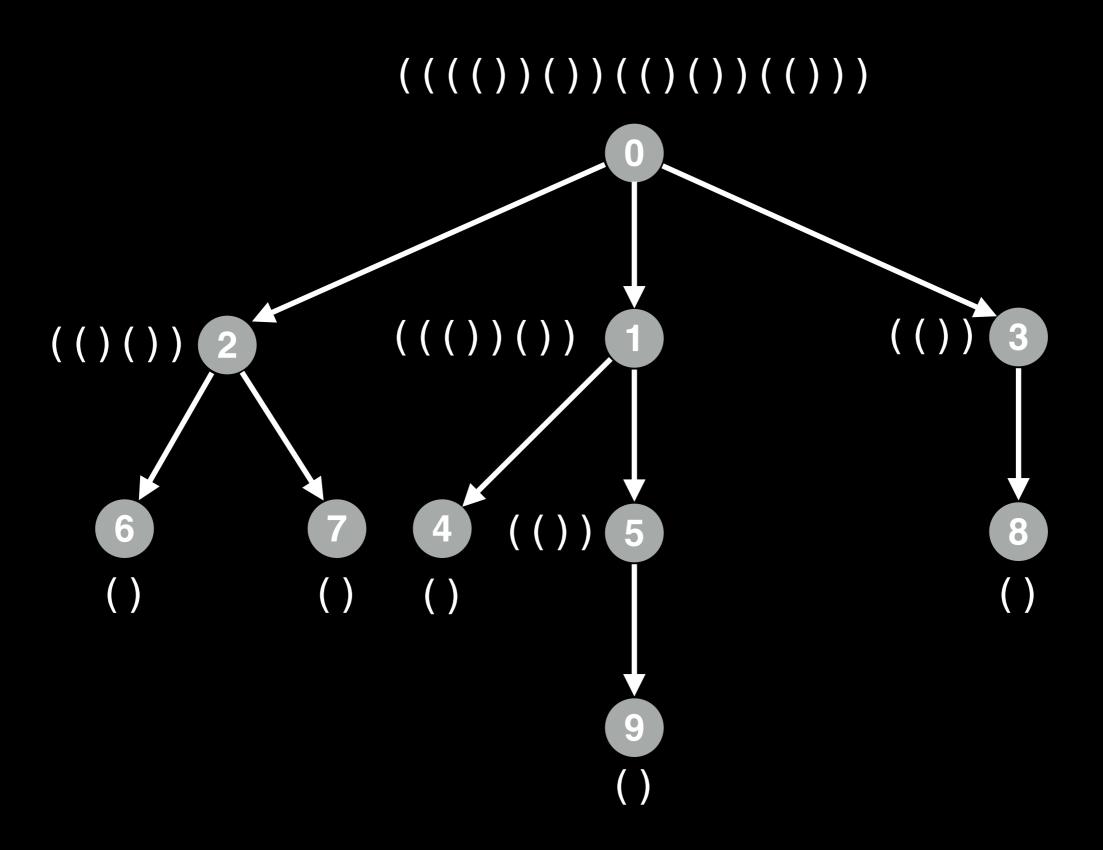


Notice that the labels get *sorted* when combined, this is important.









### Tree Encoding Summary

In summary of what we did for AHU:

- Leaf nodes are assigned Knuth tuples'()' to begin with.
- Every time you move up a layer the labels of the previous subtrees get sorted lexicographically and wrapped in brackets.
- You cannot process a node until you have processed all its children.

```
# Returns whether two trees are isomorphic.
# Parameters tree1 and tree2 are undirected trees
# stored as adjacency lists.
function treesAreIsomorphic(tree1, tree2):
  tree1 centers = treeCenters(tree1)
  tree2 centers = treeCenters(tree2)
  tree1_rooted = rootTree(tree1, tree1_centers[0])
  tree1 encoded = encode(tree1 rooted)
  for center in tree2_centers:
    tree2_rooted = rootTree(tree2, center)
    tree2 encoded = encode(tree2 rooted)
   # Two trees are isomorphic if their encoded
   # canonical forms are equal.
   if tree1_encoded == tree2_encoded:
      return True
  return False
```

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```

Rooted trees are stored recursively in TreeNode objects:

```
# TreeNode object structure.
class TreeNode:
  # Unique integer id to identify this node.
  int id;
  # Pointer to parent TreeNode reference. Only the
  # root node has a null parent TreeNode reference.
  TreeNode parent;
  # List of pointers to child TreeNodes.
  TreeNode[] children;
```

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```

```
function encode(node):
 if node == null:
    return ""
  labels = []
  for child in node.children():
    labels add (encode (child))
 # Regular lexicographic sort
 sort(labels)
  result = ""
  for label in labels:
    result += label
  return "(" + result + ")"
```

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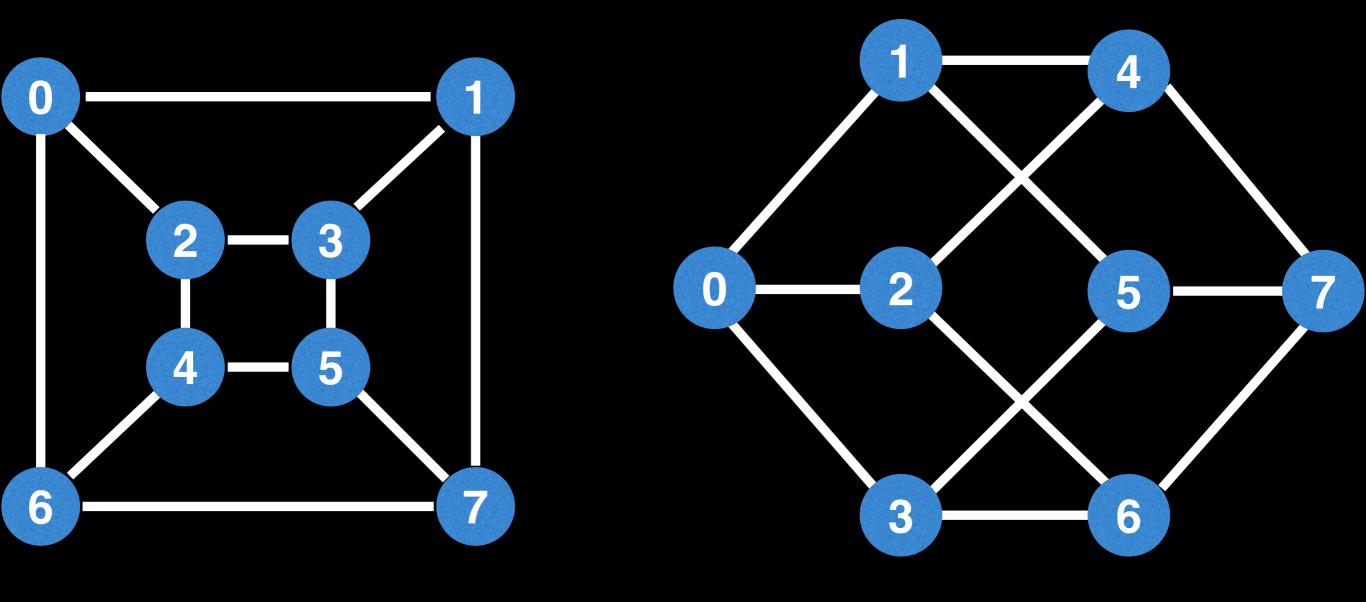
#### Unrooted tree encoding pseudocode

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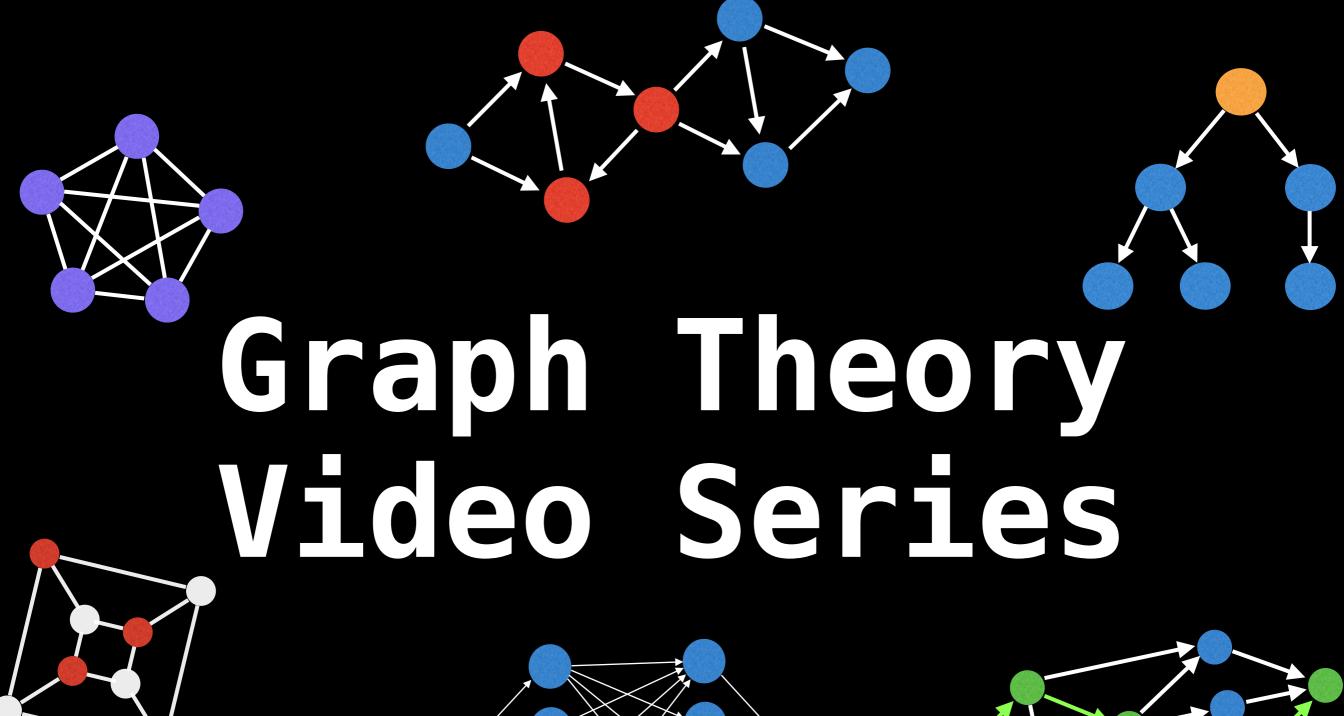
#### Unrooted tree encoding pseudocode

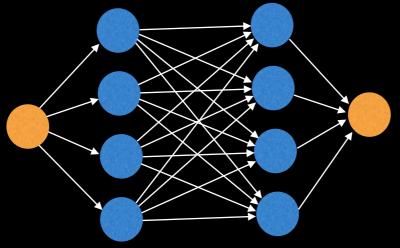
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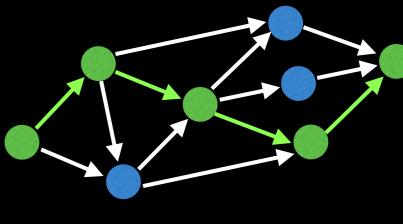
### Isomorphic Trees



Determining if two graphs are isomorphic is not only not obvious to the human eye, but also a difficult problem for computers.







# Isomorphisms in trees source code

A question of equality

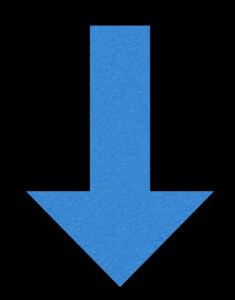


## Previous video explaining identifying isomorphic trees:

### Source Code Link

Implementation source code can
be found at the following link:
github.com/williamfiset/algorithms

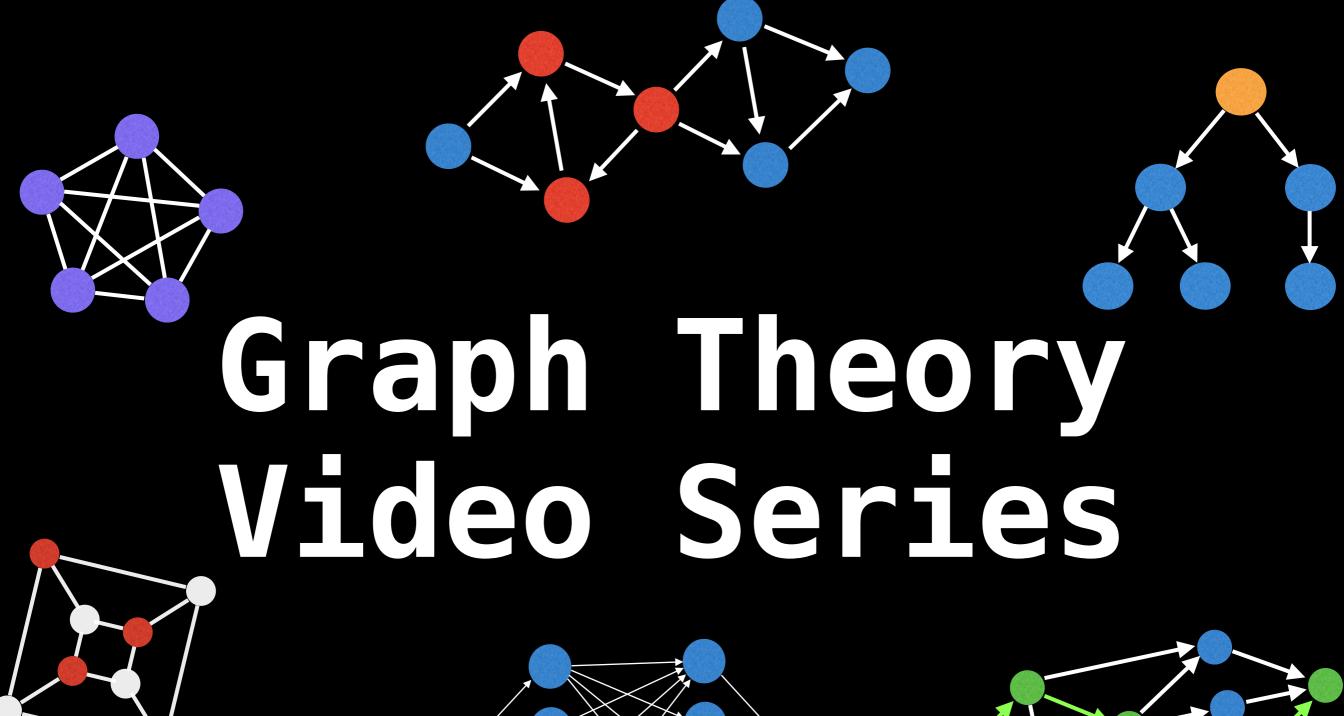
Link in the description below:

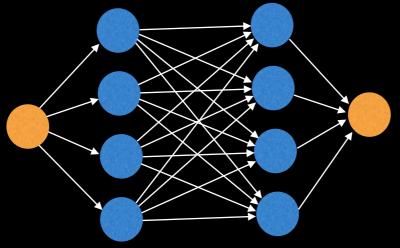


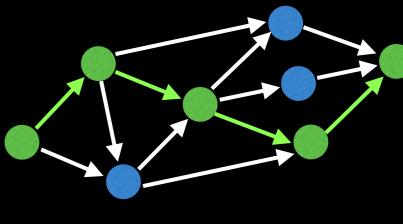
# Isomorphic rees source

A question of equality









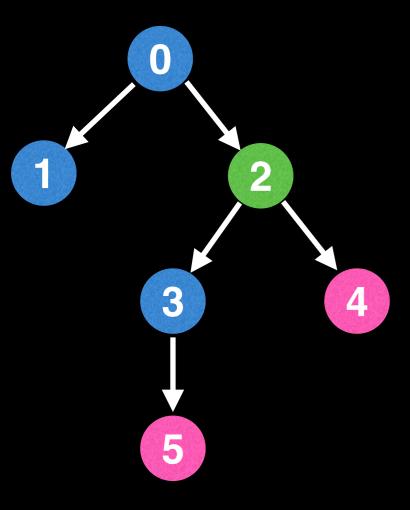
# Lowest Common Ancestor

Eulerian tour + range minimum query method



#### Definition

The Lowest Common Ancestor (LCA) of two nodes `a` and `b` in a rooted tree is the deepest node `c` that has both `a` and `b` as descendants (where a node can be a descendant of itself)

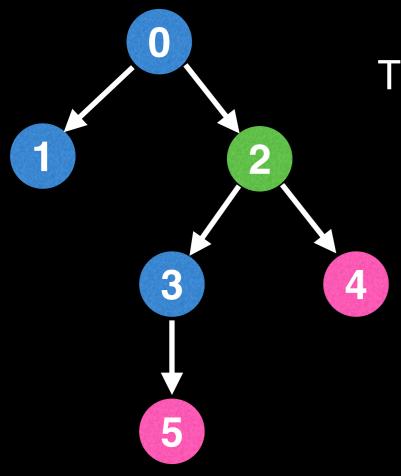


LCA(5, 4) = 2

NOTE: The notion of a LCA also exists for Directed Acyclic Graphs (DAGs), but today we're only looking at the LCA in the context of trees.

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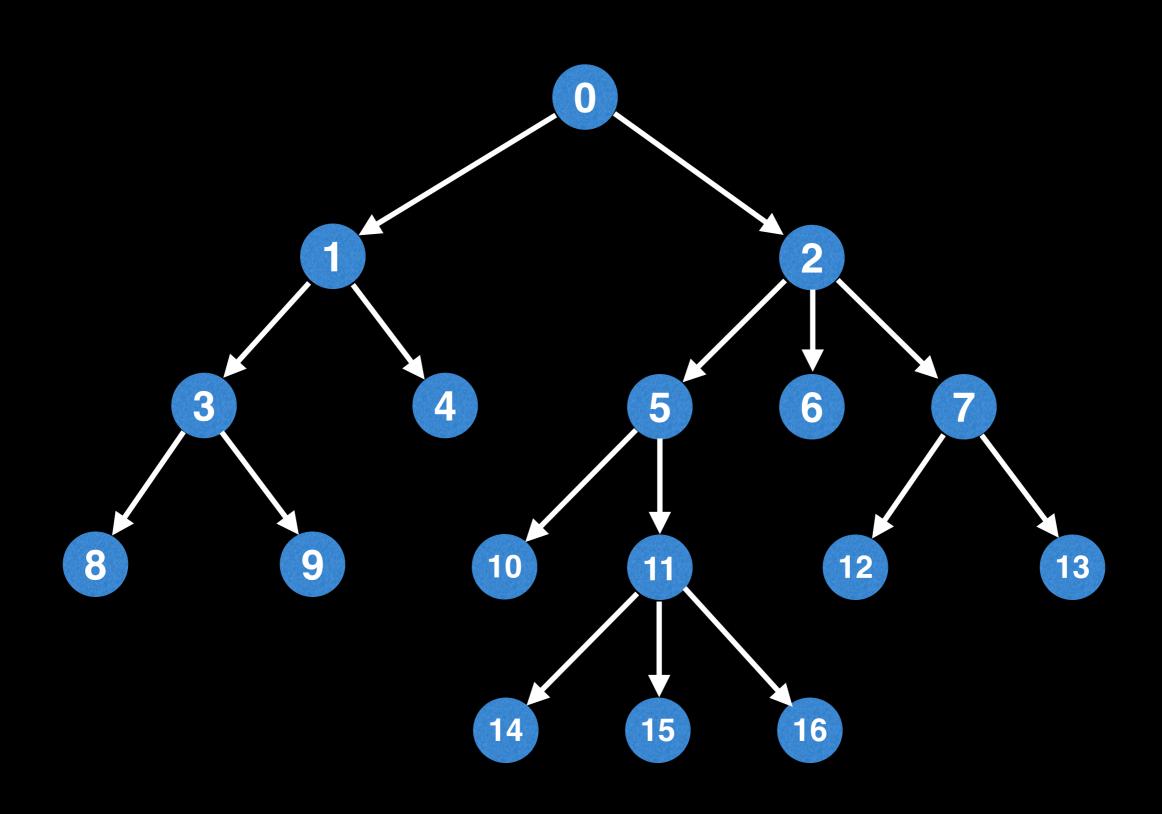


The LCA problem has several applications in Computer Science, notably:

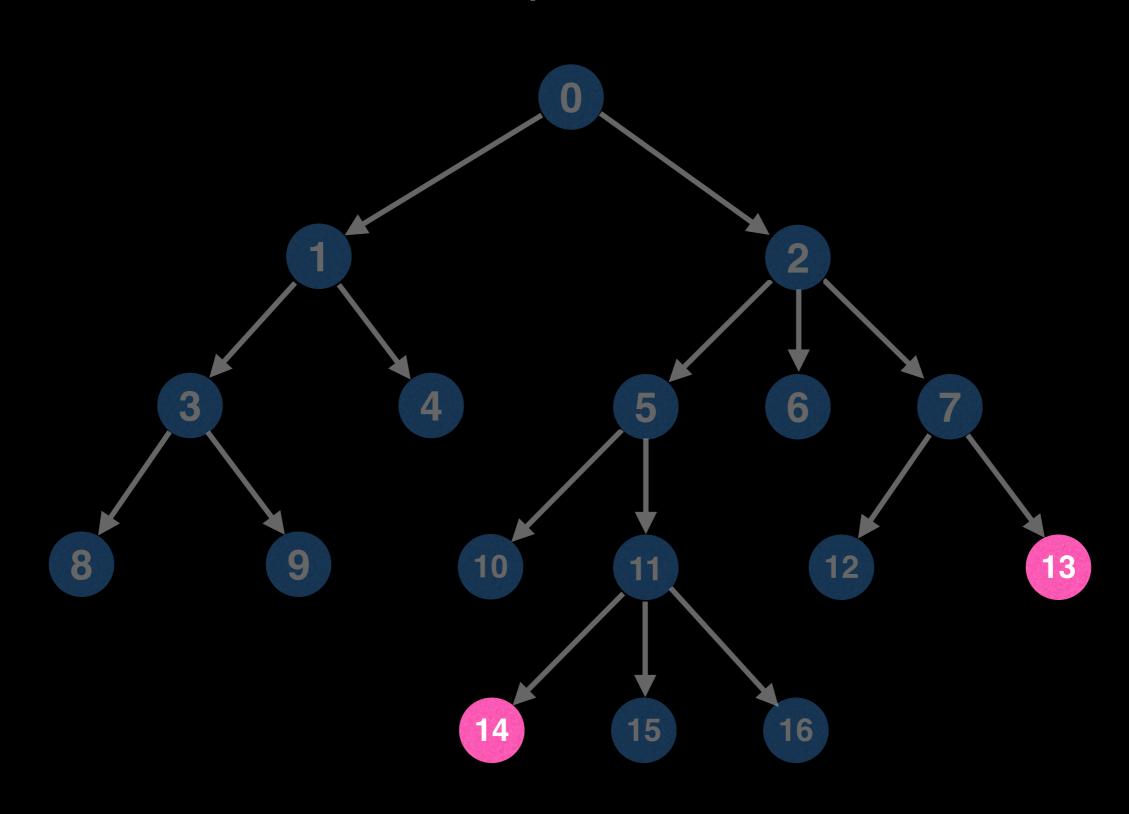
- Finding the distance between two nodes
- Inheritance hierarchies in OOP
- As a subroutine in several advanced algorithms and data structures
- etc...

 $\overline{LCA(5, 4)} = 2$ 

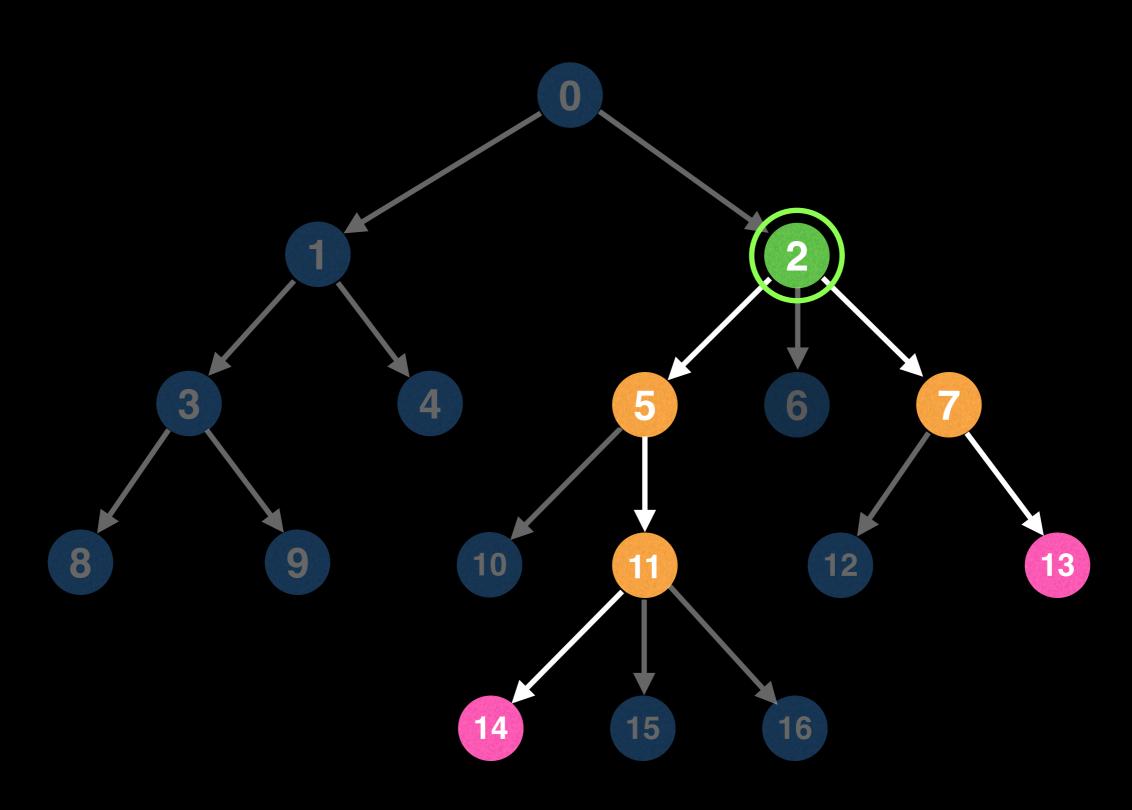
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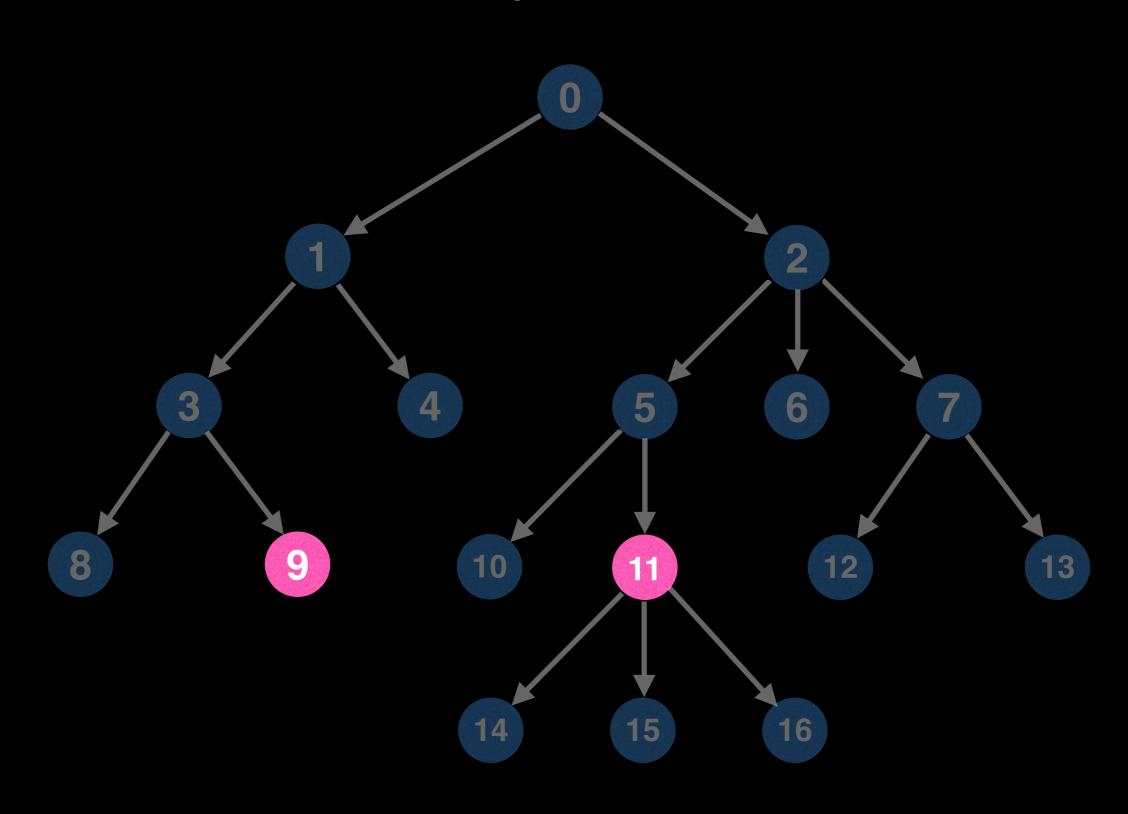
LCA(13, 14)



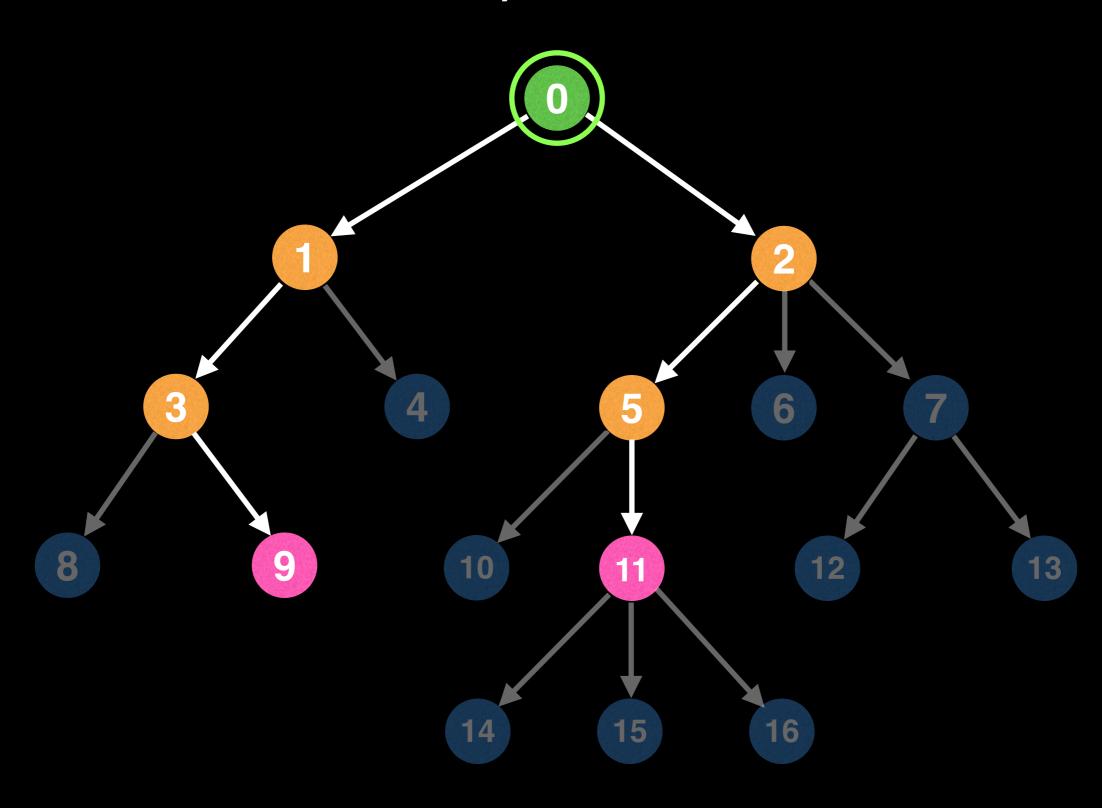
LCA(13, 14) = 2



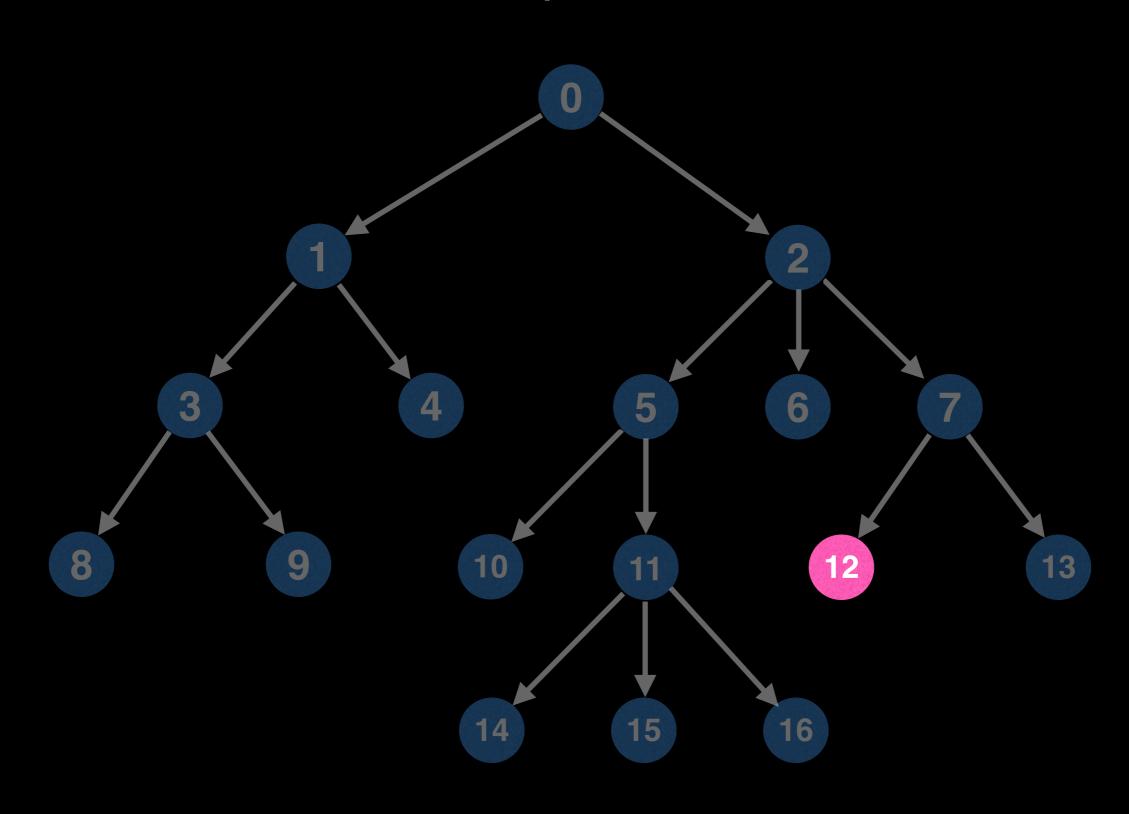
LCA(9, 11)



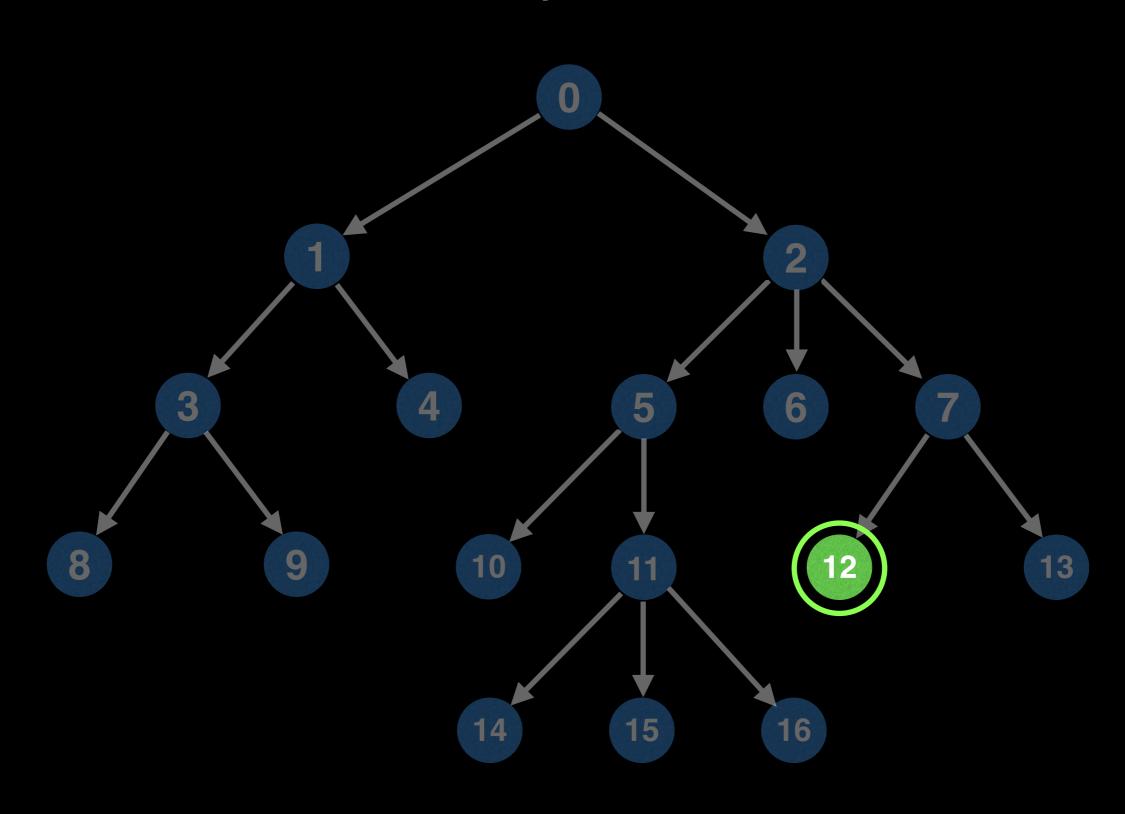
LCA(9, 11) = 0



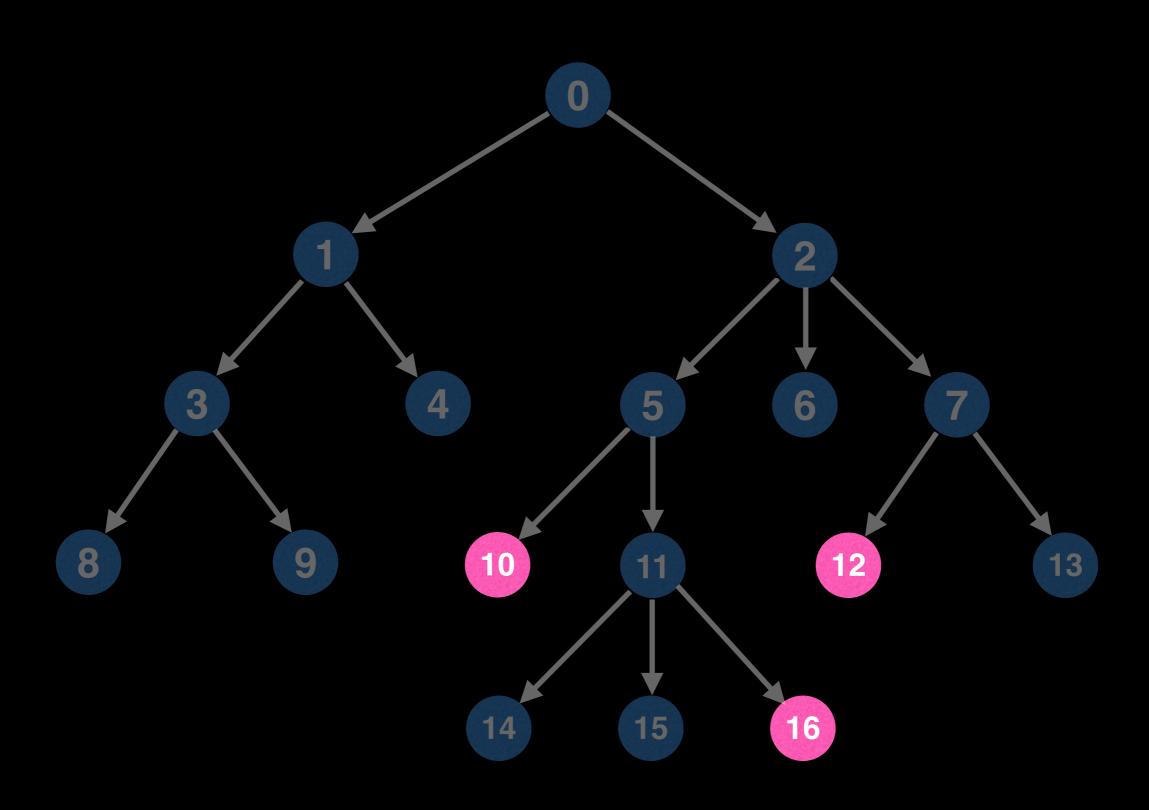
LCA(12, 12)



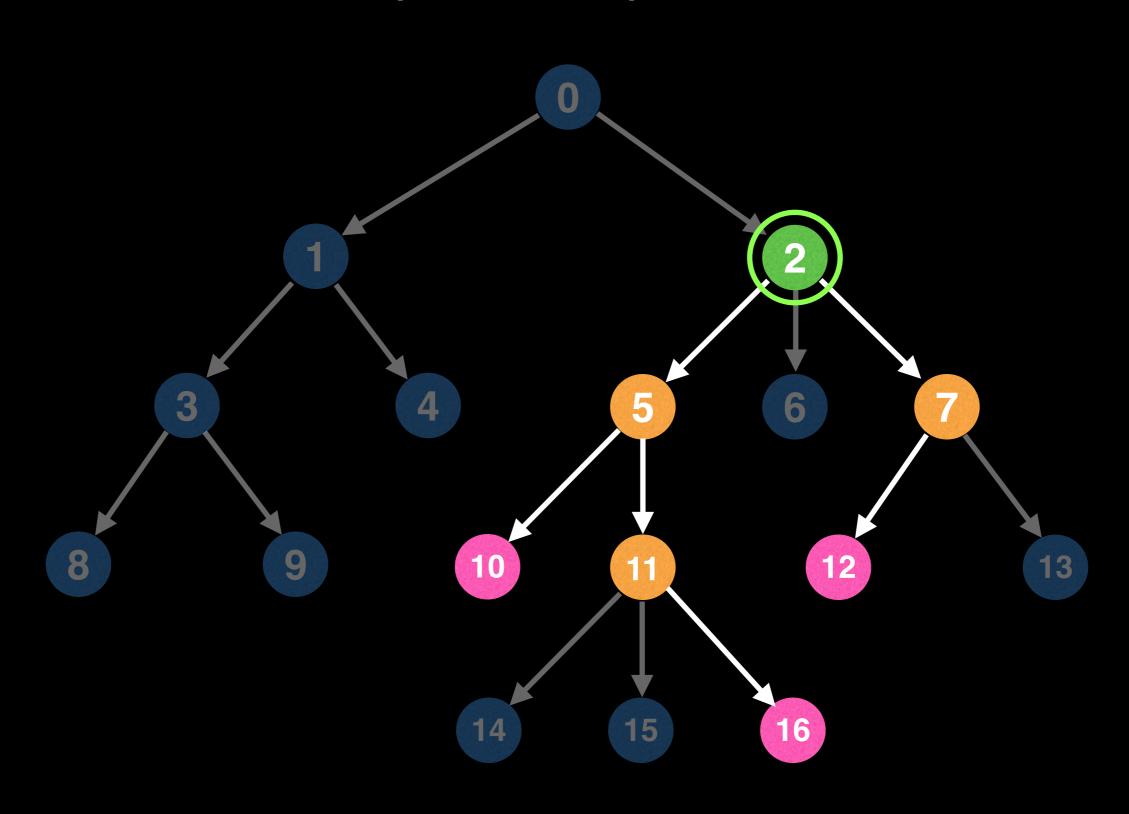
LCA(12, 12) = 12



You can also find the LCA of more than 2 nodes



LCA(10, LCA(12, 16)) = 2



#### LCA Algorithms

There are a diverse number of popular algorithms for finding the LCA of two nodes in a tree including:

- Tarjan's offline LCA algorithm
- Heavy-Light decomposition
- Binary Lifting
- etc...

Today, we're going to cover how to find the LCA using the Eulerian tour + Range Minimum Query (RMQ) method.

#### LCA Algorithms

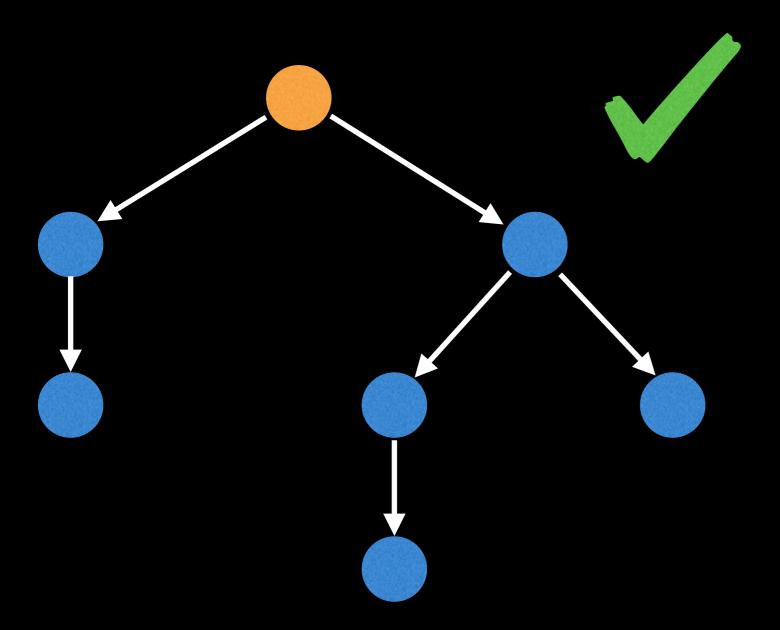
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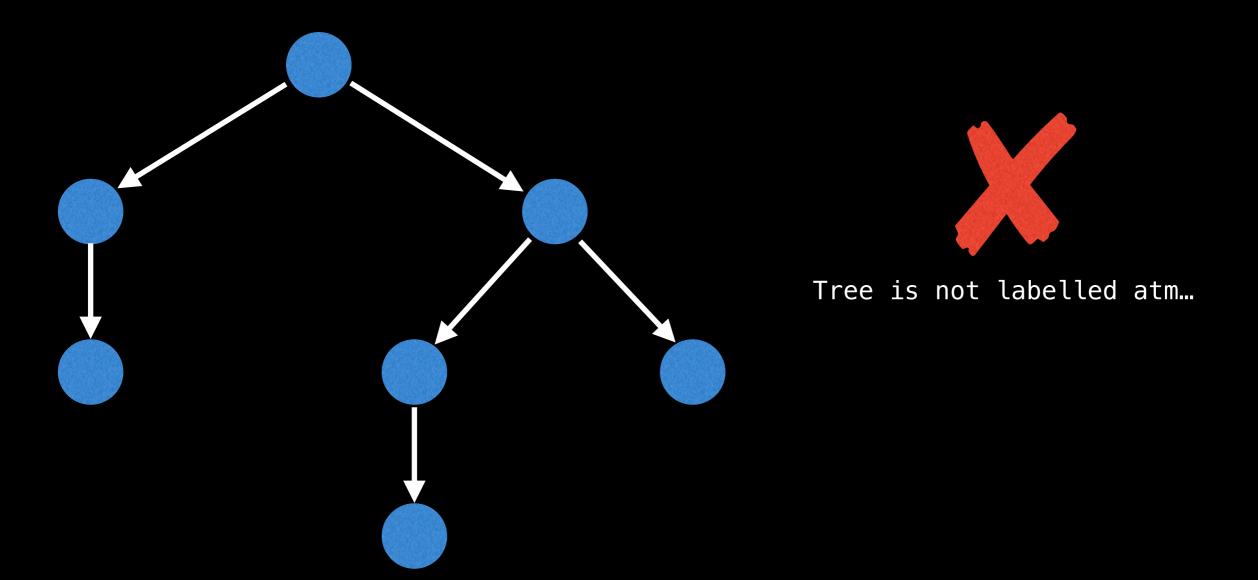
This method can answer LCA queries in **O(1)** time with **O(nlogn)** pre-processing when using a **Sparse Table** to do the RMQs.

However, the pre-processing time can be improved to O(n) with the Farach-Colton and Bender optimization.



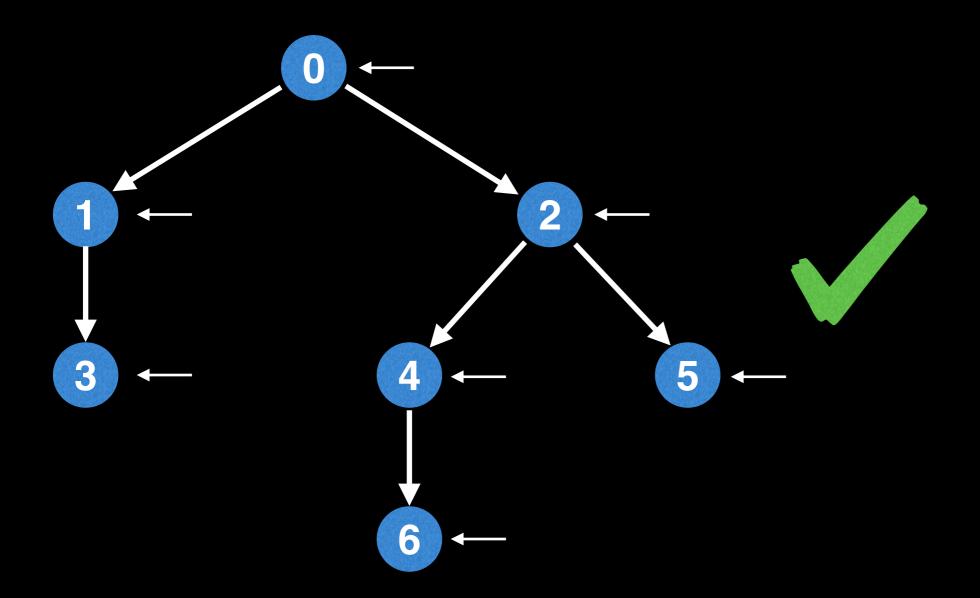
Given a tree we want to do LCA queries on, first:

1. Make sure the tree is rooted

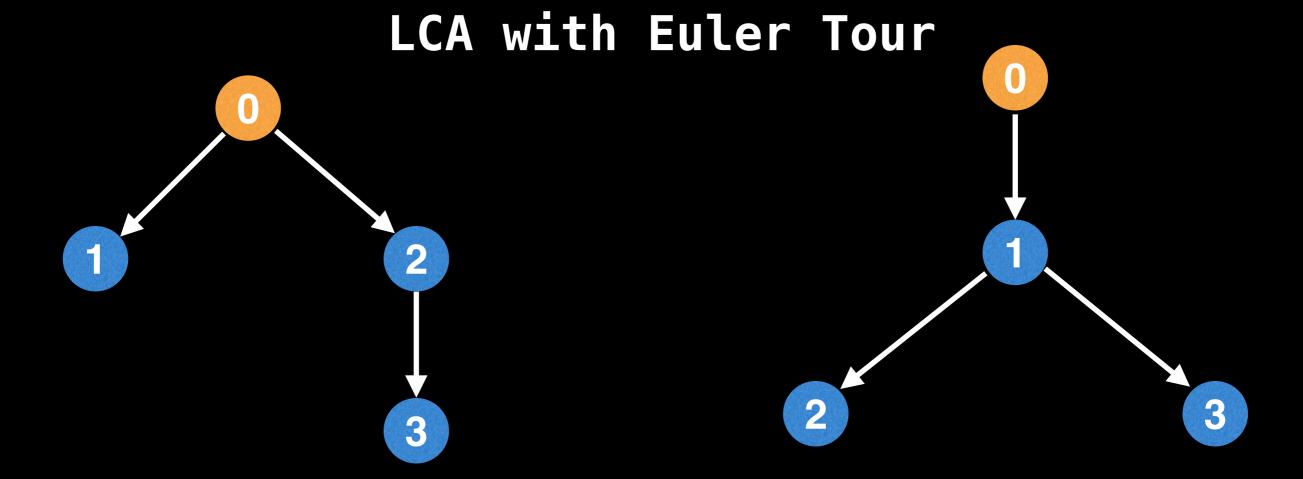


Given a tree we want to do LCA queries on, first:

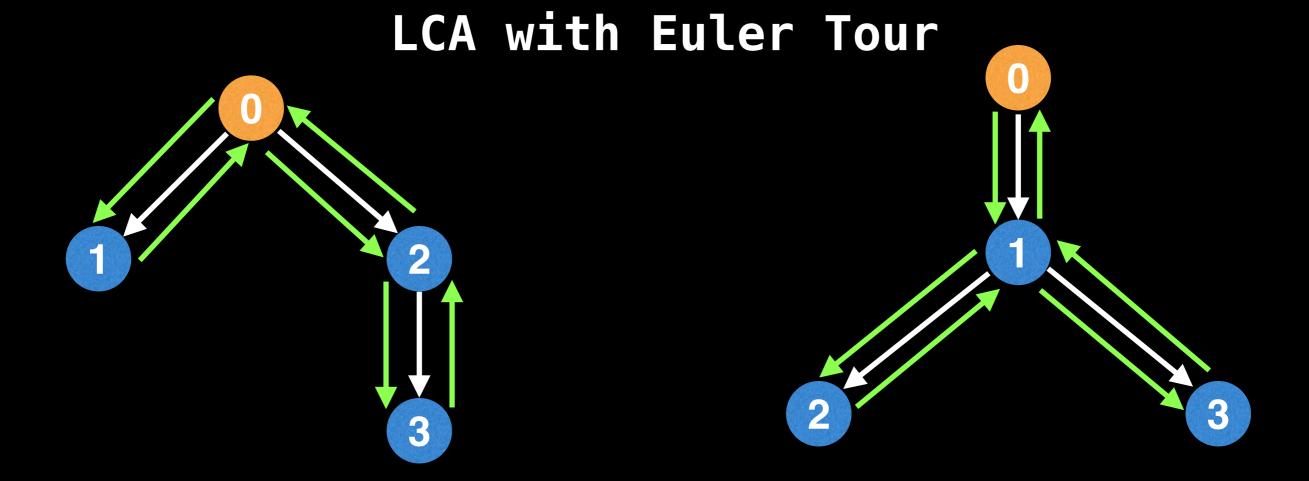
2. Ensure that all nodes are uniquely indexed in some way so that we can reference them later.



One easy way to index each node is by assigning each node a unique id between [0, n-1]



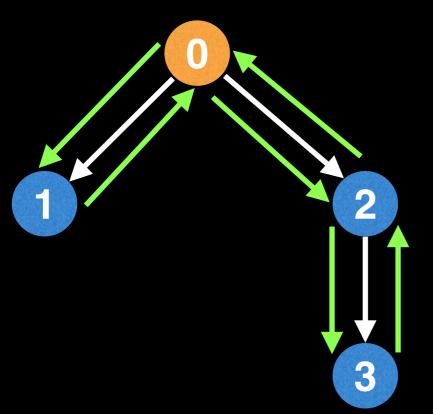
As you might have guessed, the Eulerian tour method begins by finding an Eulerian tour of the edges in a rooted tree.



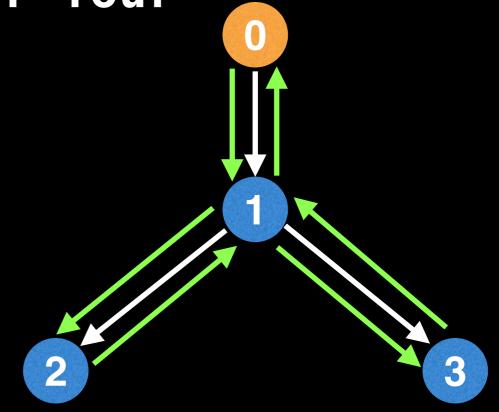
As you might have guessed, the Eulerian tour method begins by finding an Eulerian tour of the edges in a rooted tree.

Rather than doing the Euler tour on the white edges of our tree, we're going to do the Euler tour on a new set of imaginary green edges which wrap around the tree. This ensures that our tour visits every node in the tree.

#### LCA with Euler Tour

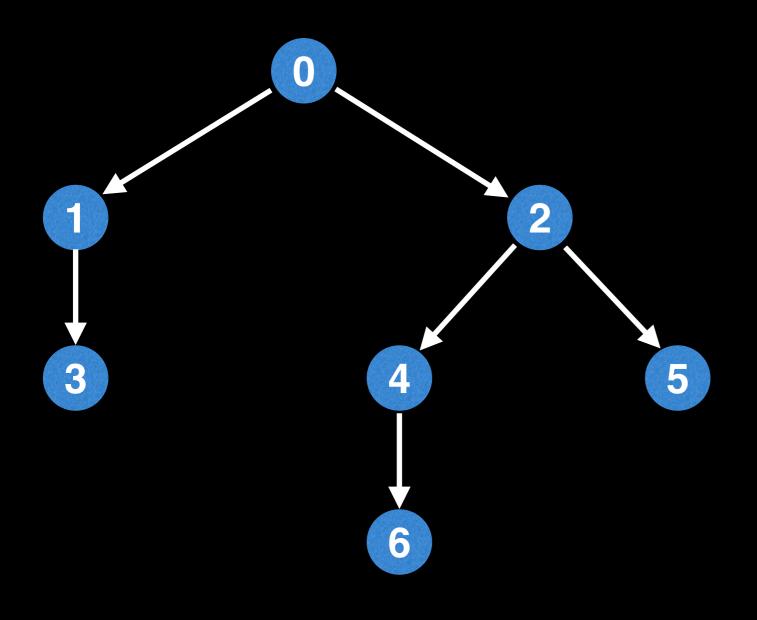


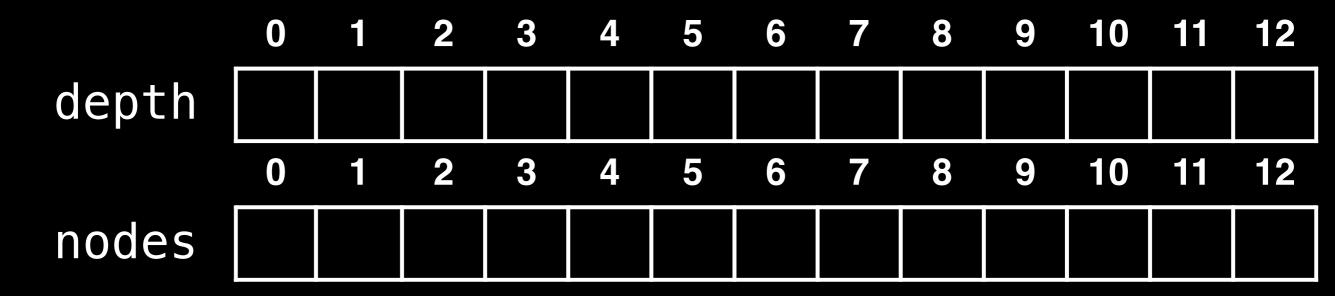


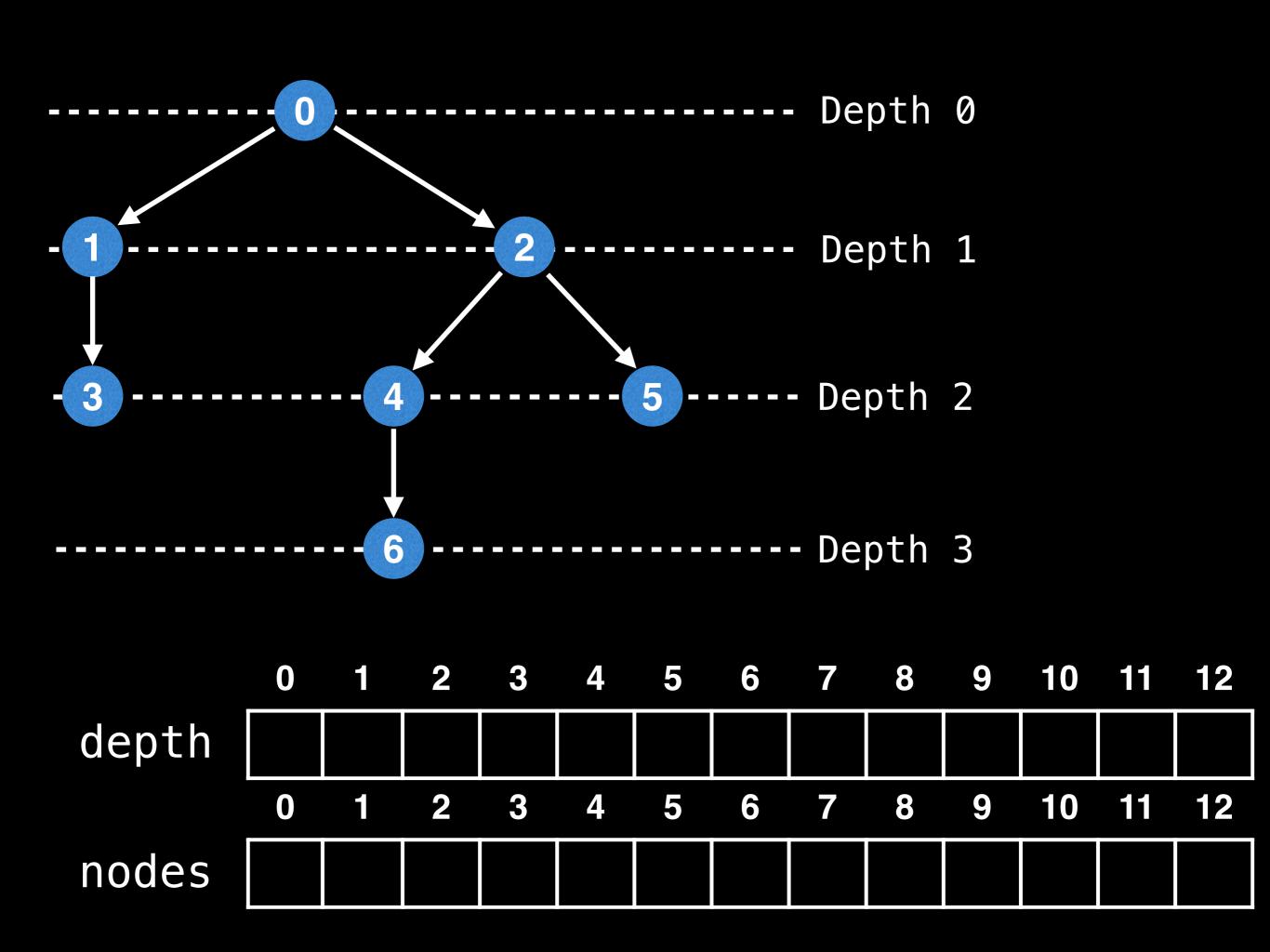


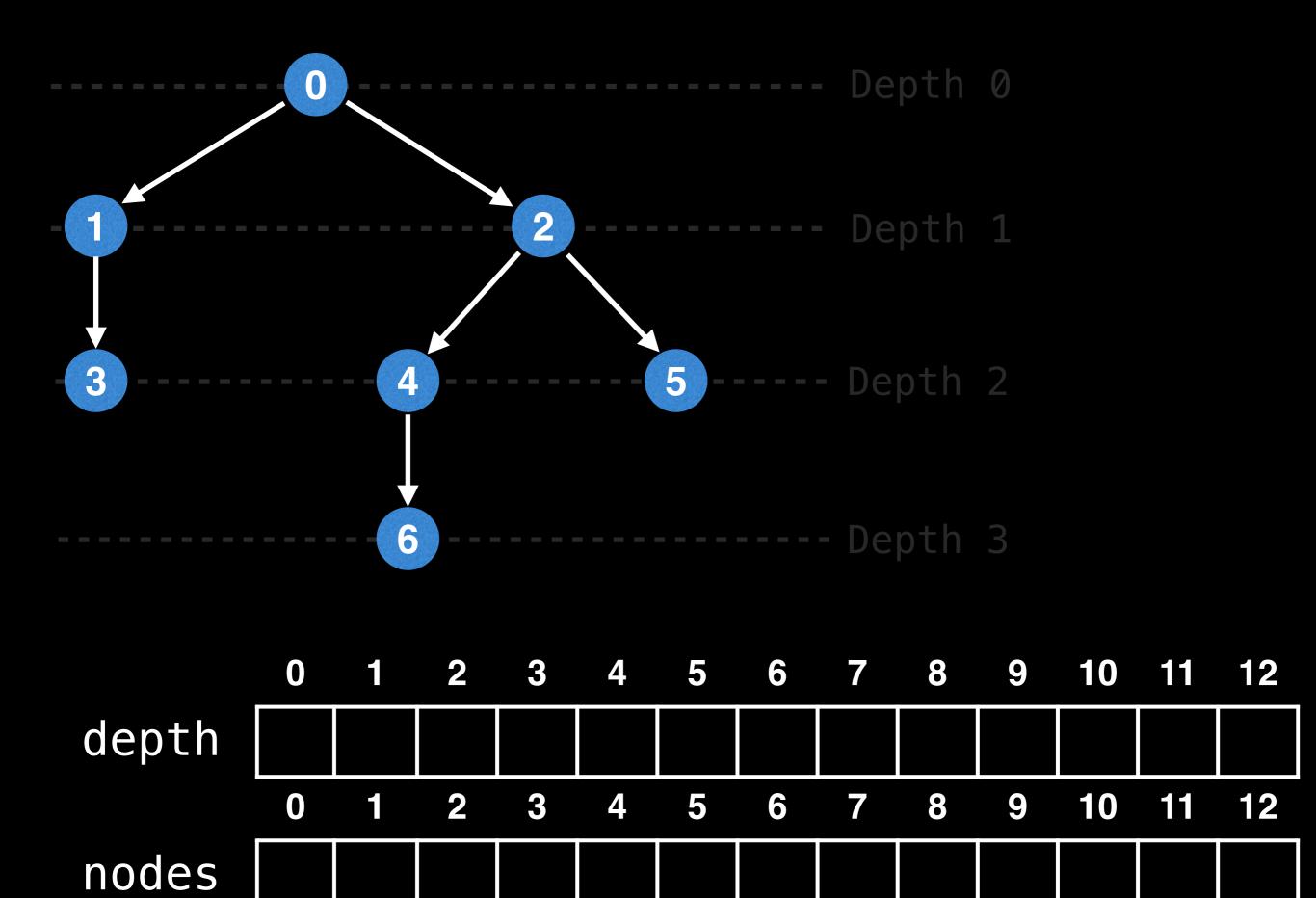
tour: [0,1,2,1,3,1,0]

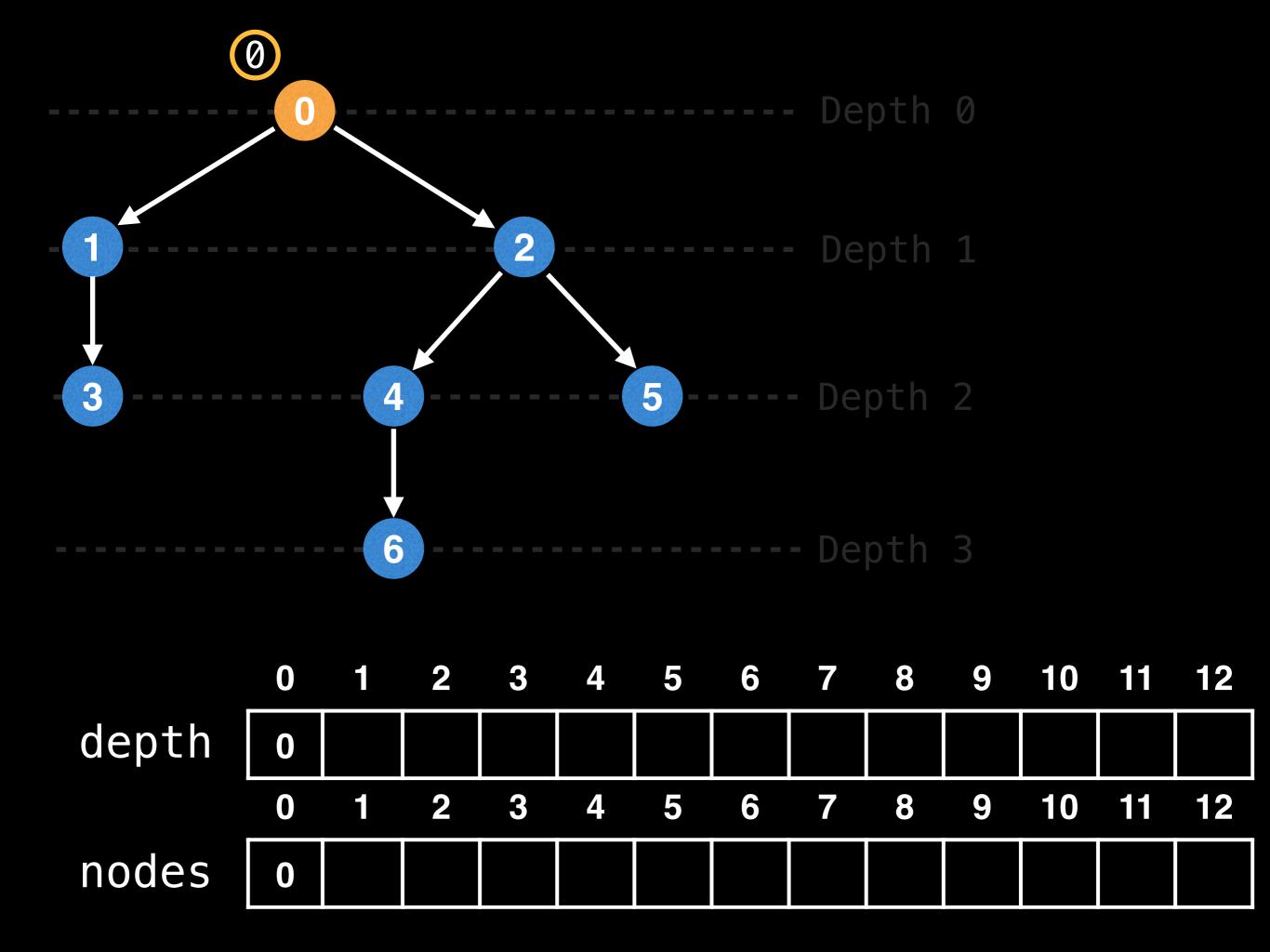
Start an **Eulerian tour** (Eulerian circuit) at the root node, traverse all green edges, and finally return to the root node. As you do this, keep track of which nodes you visit and this will be your Euler tour.

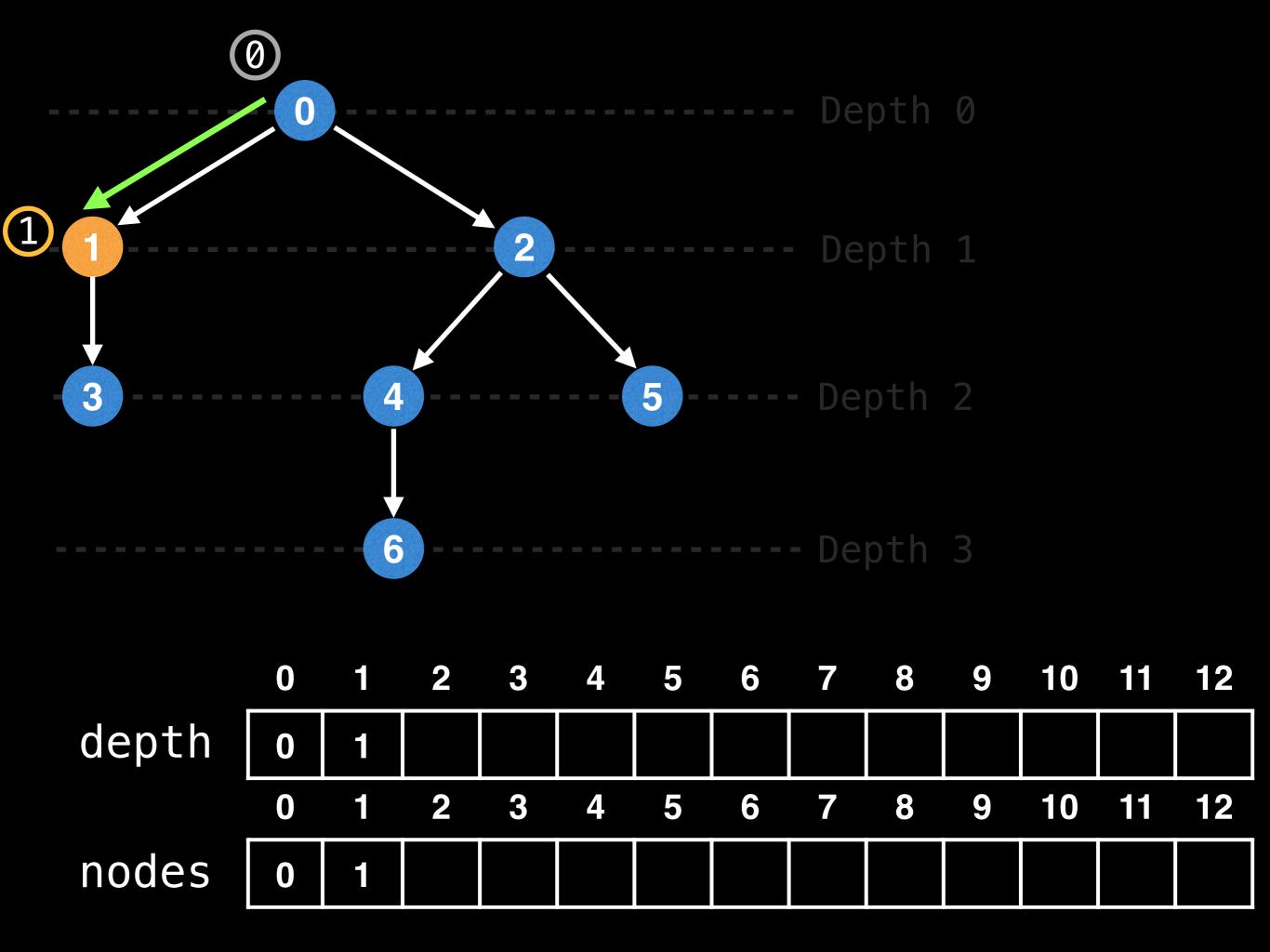


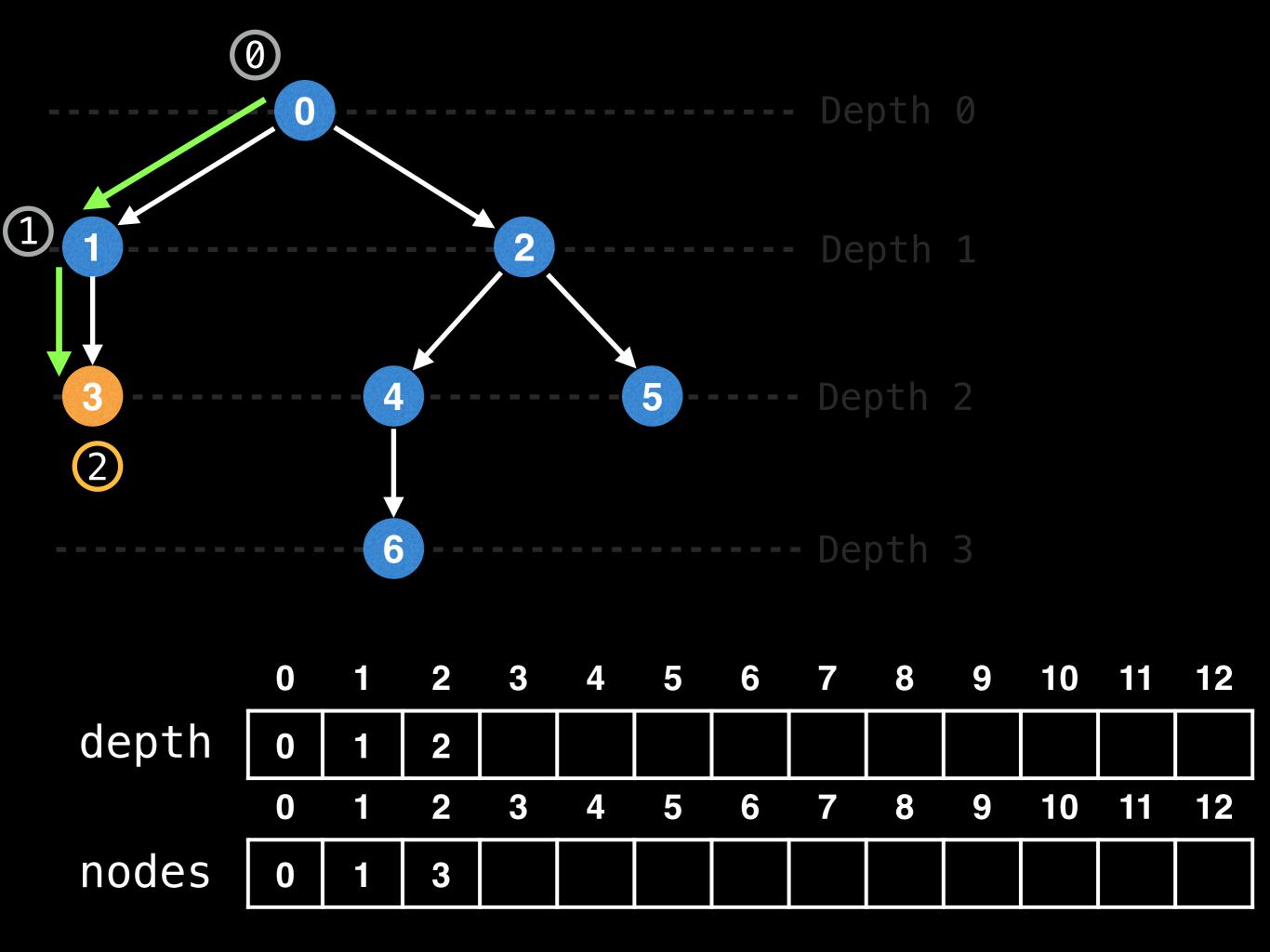


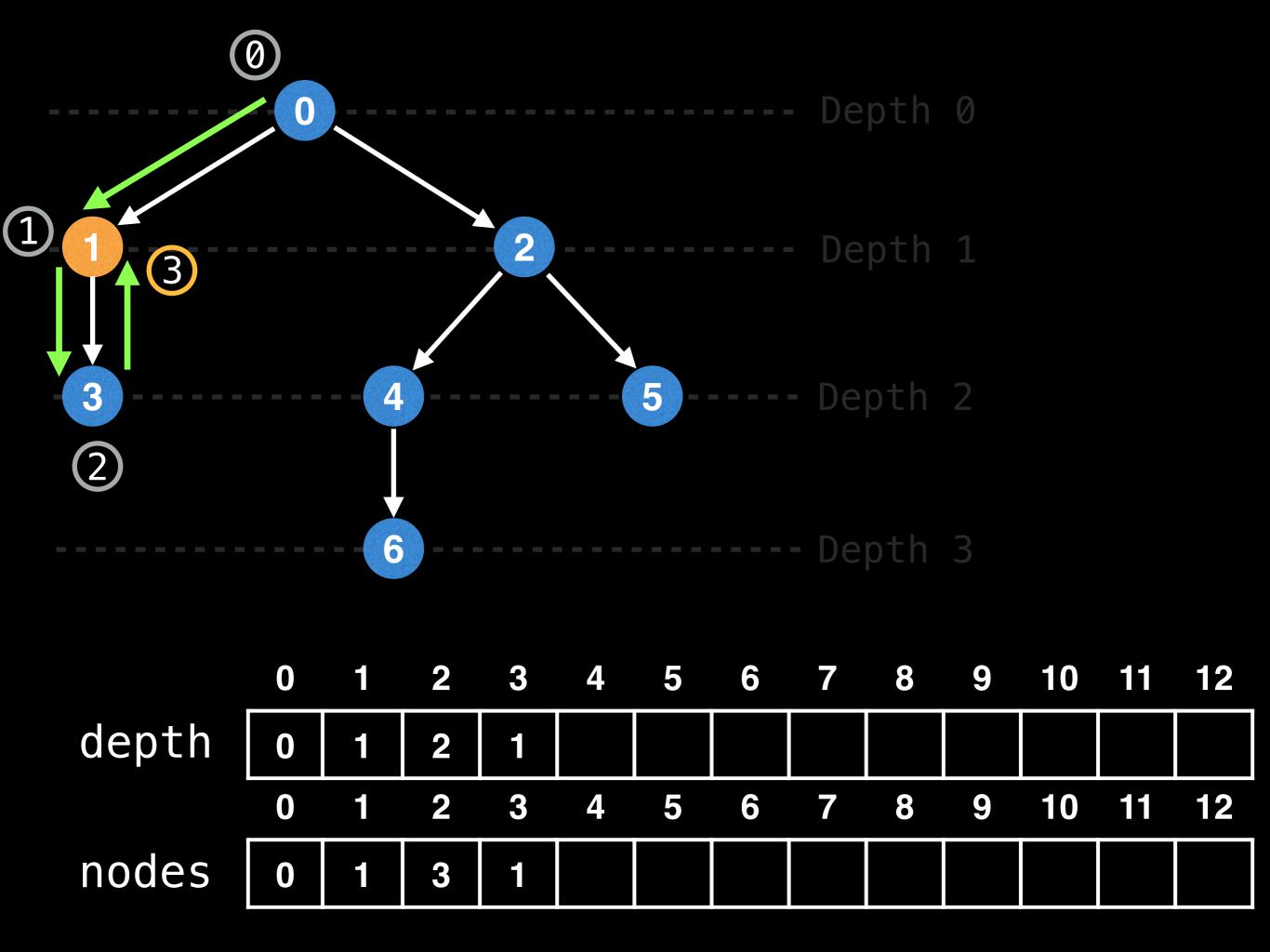


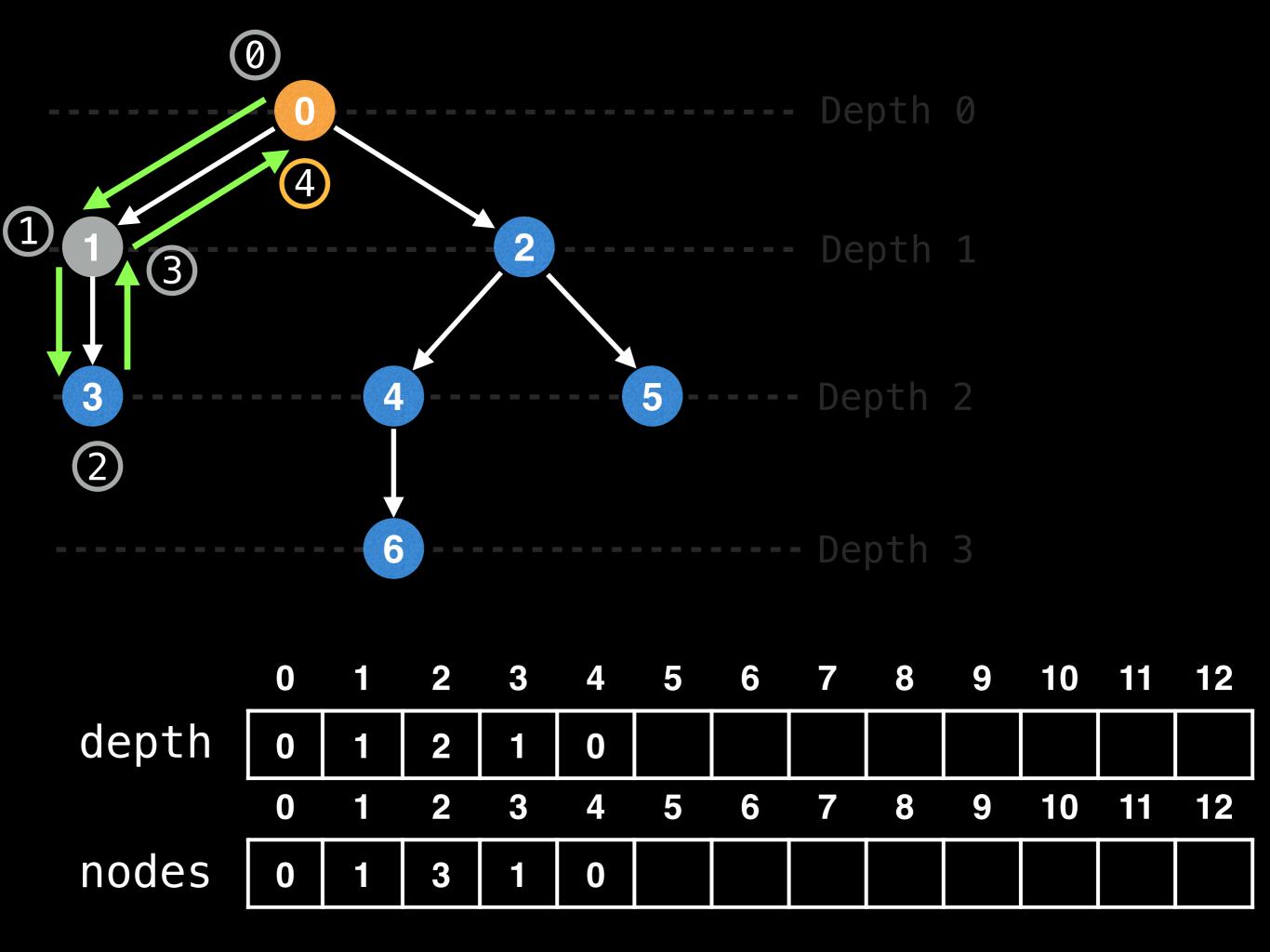


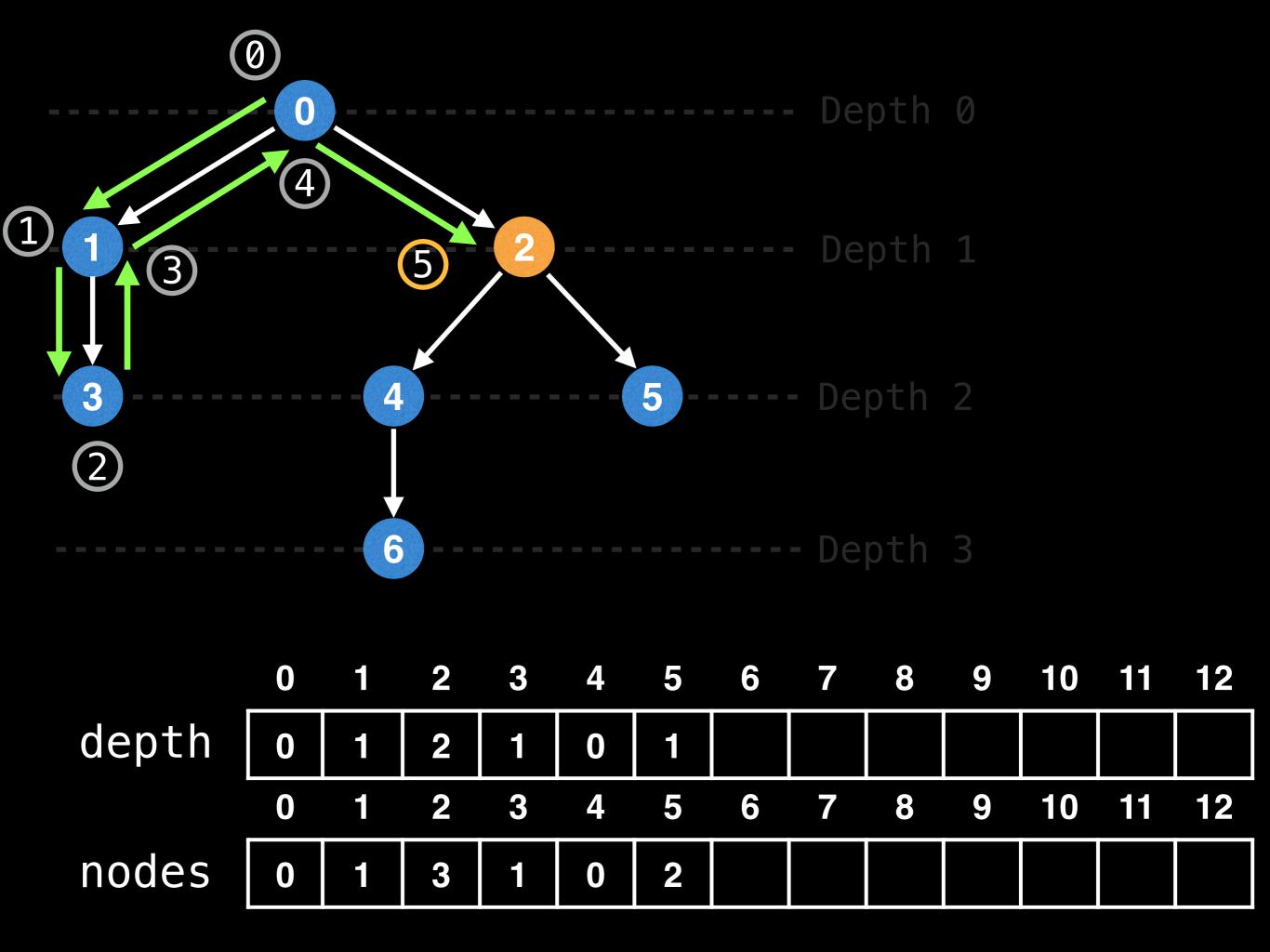


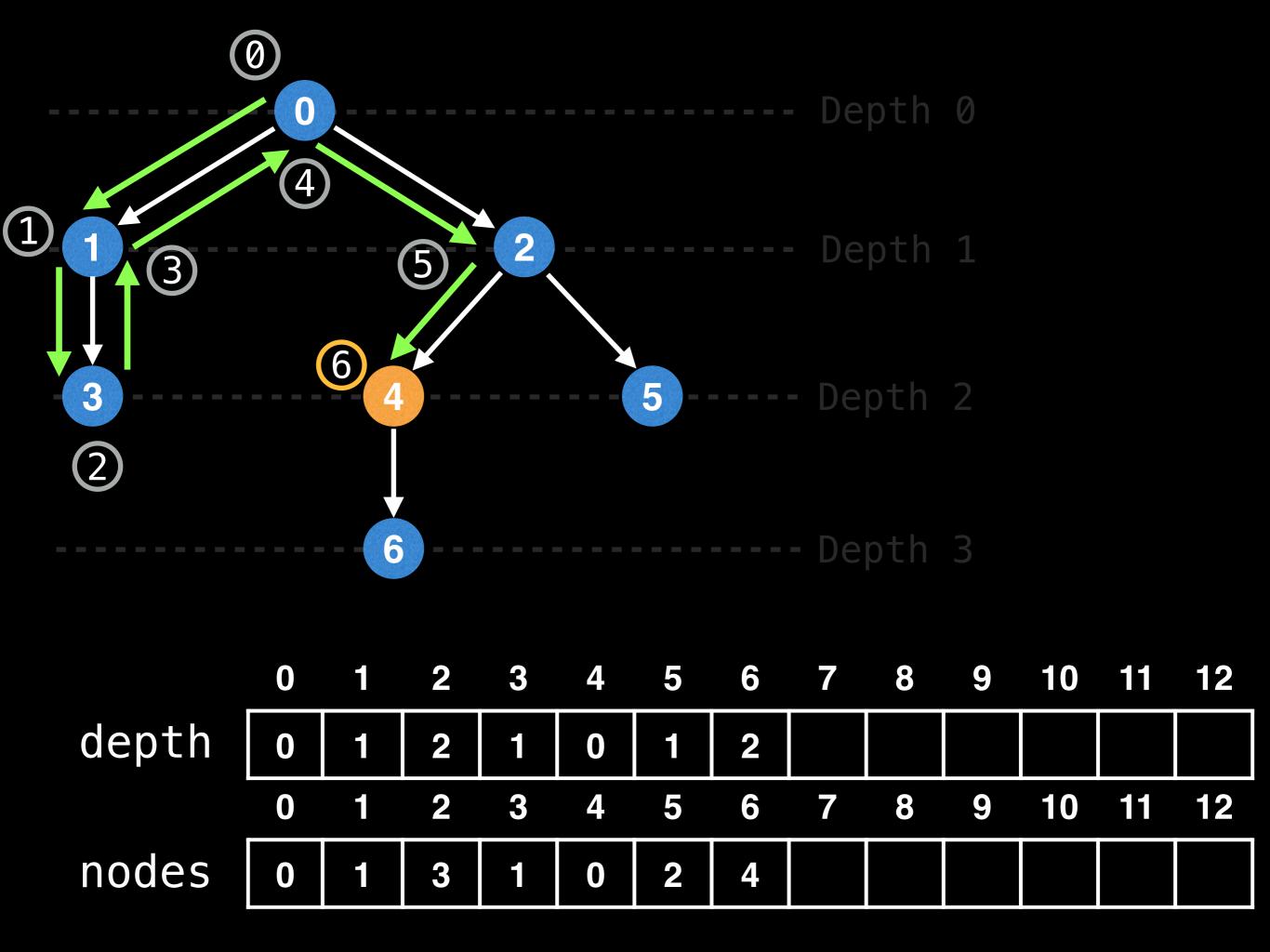


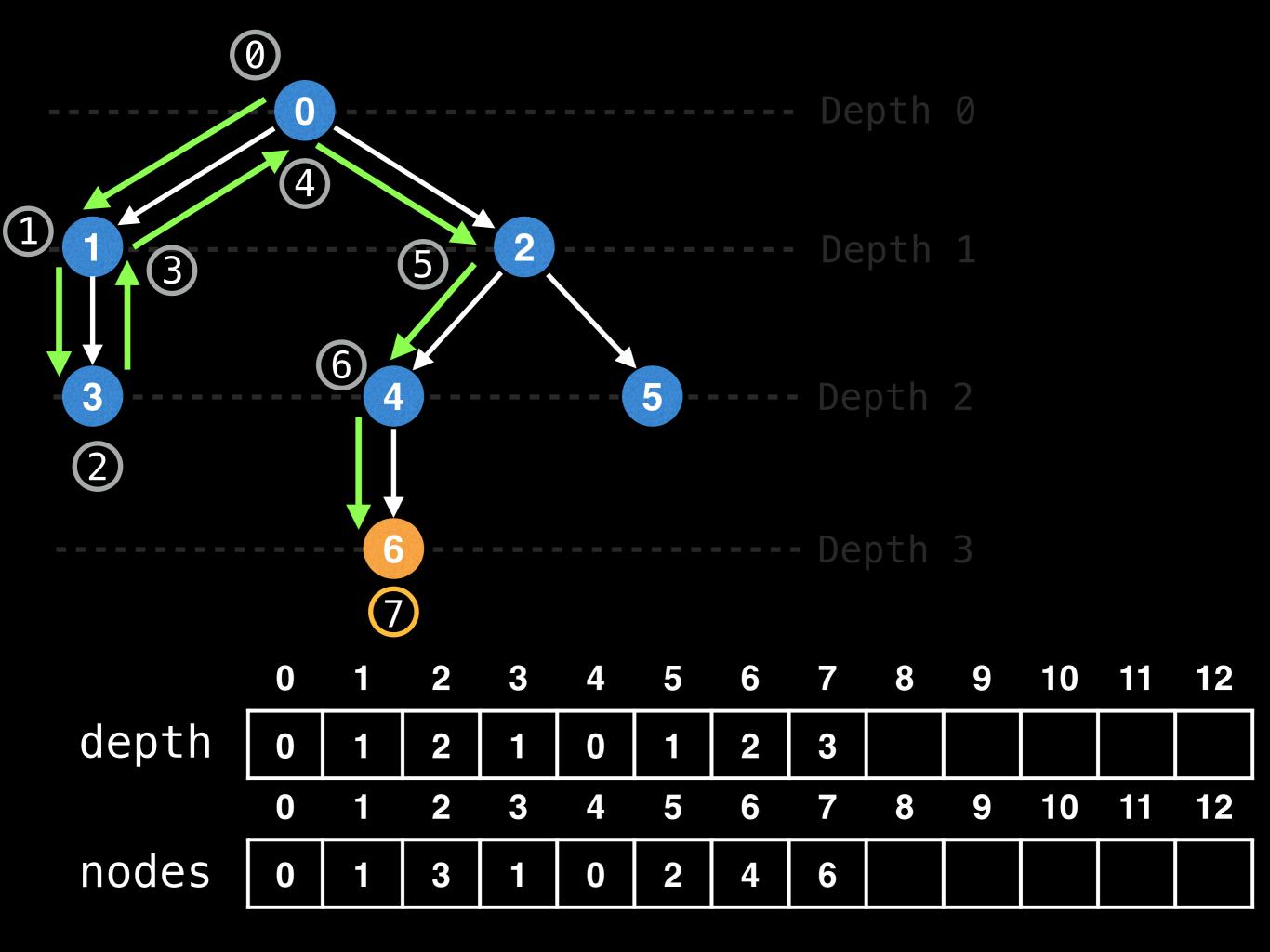


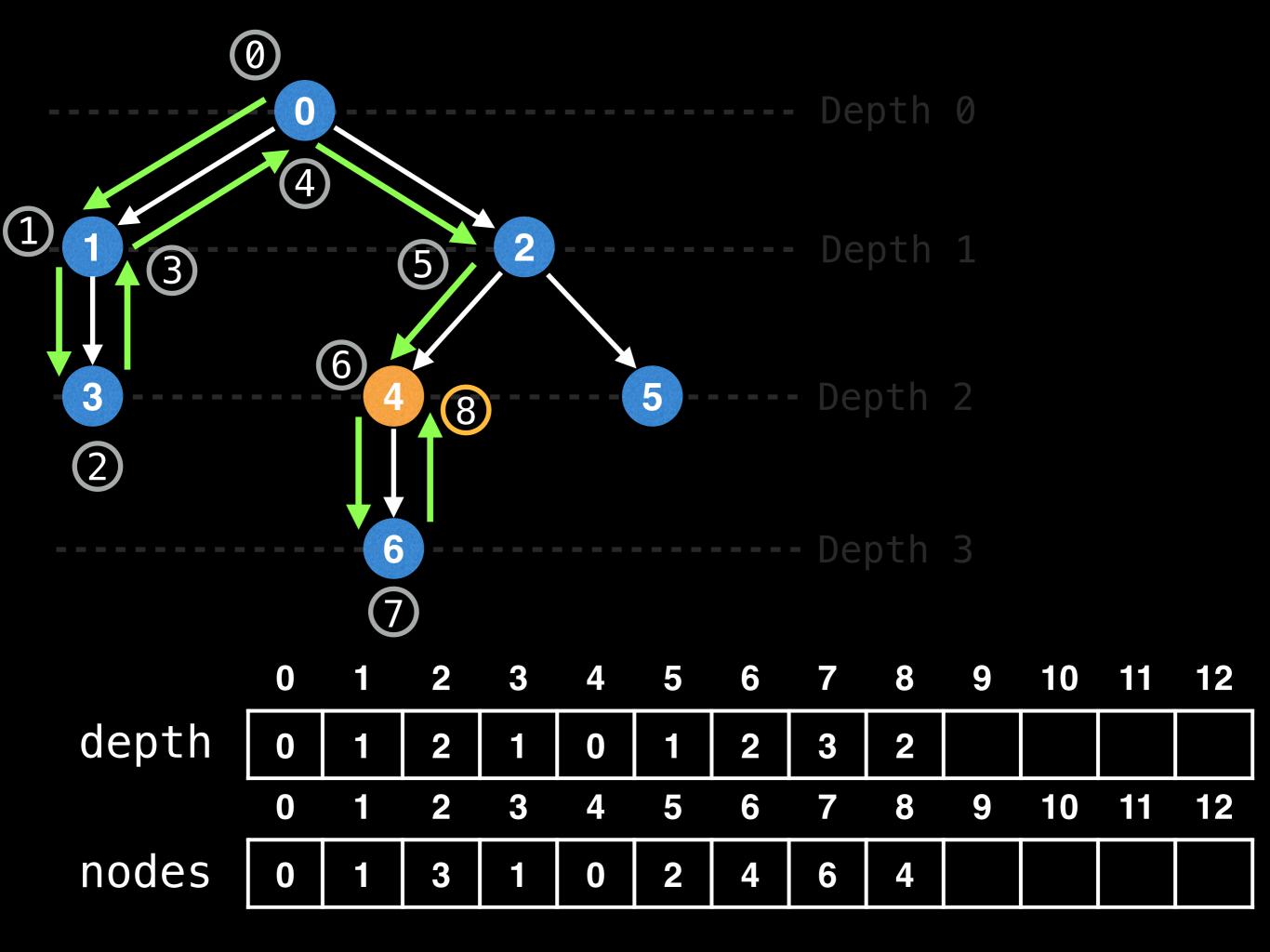


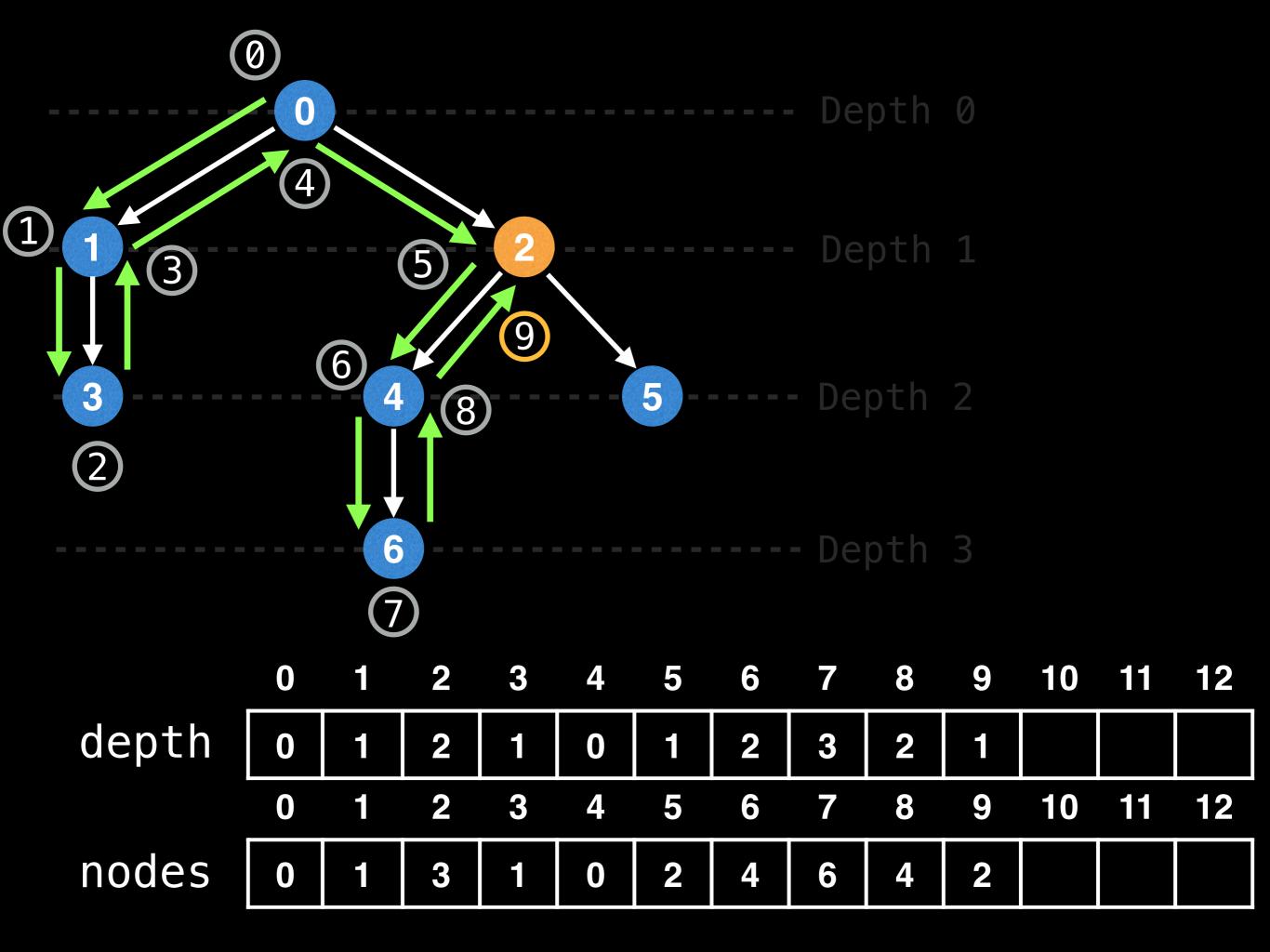


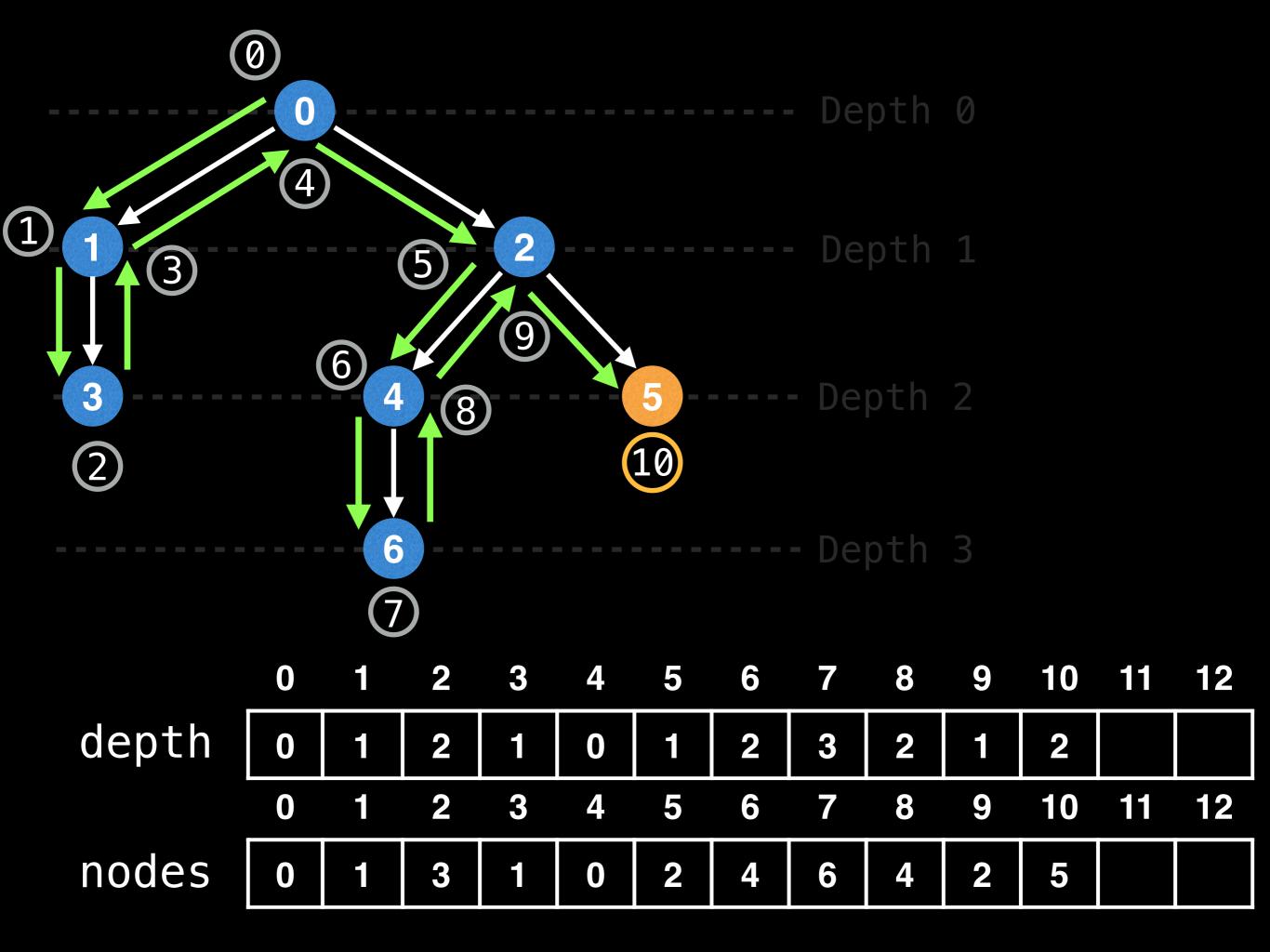


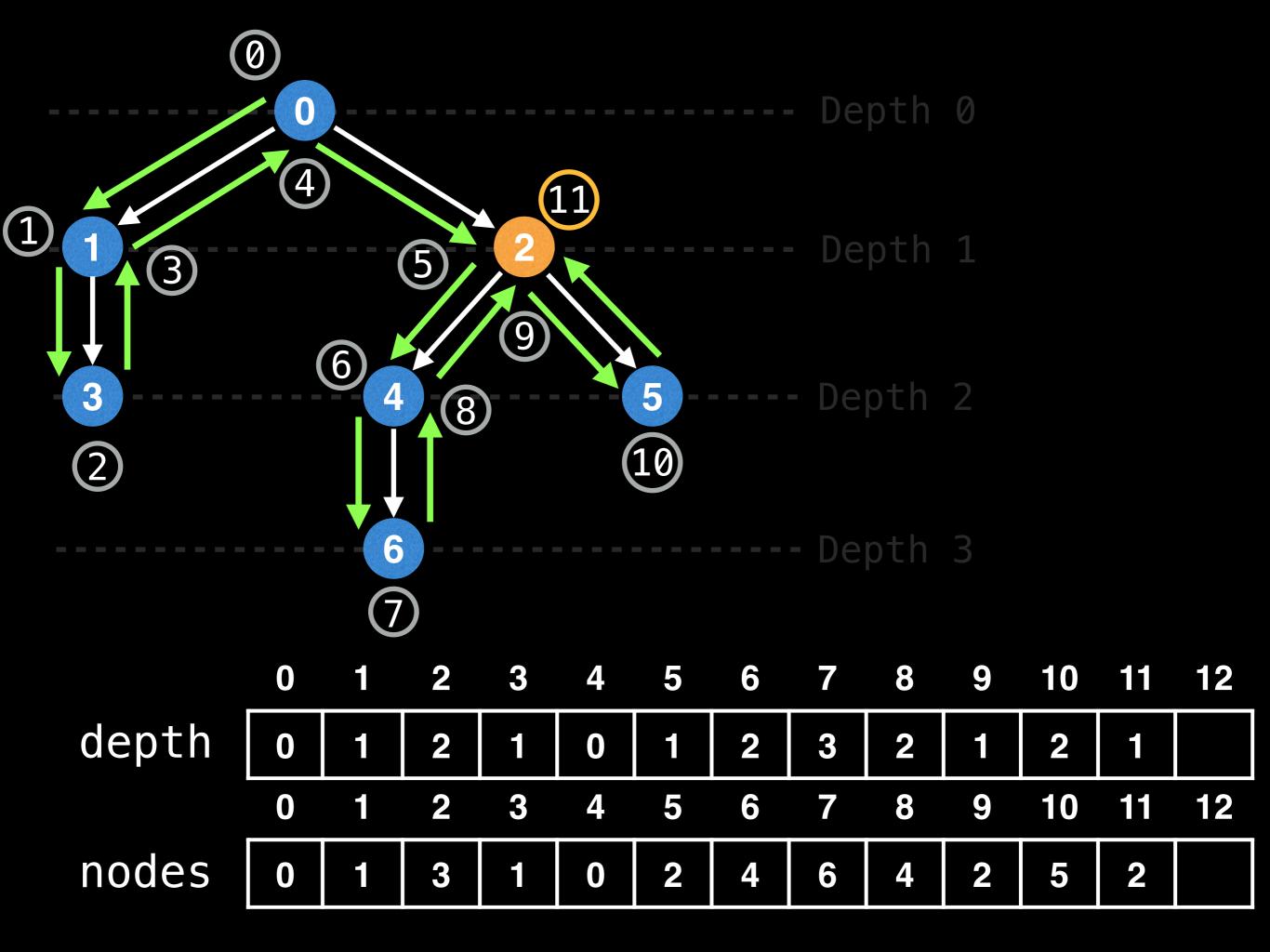


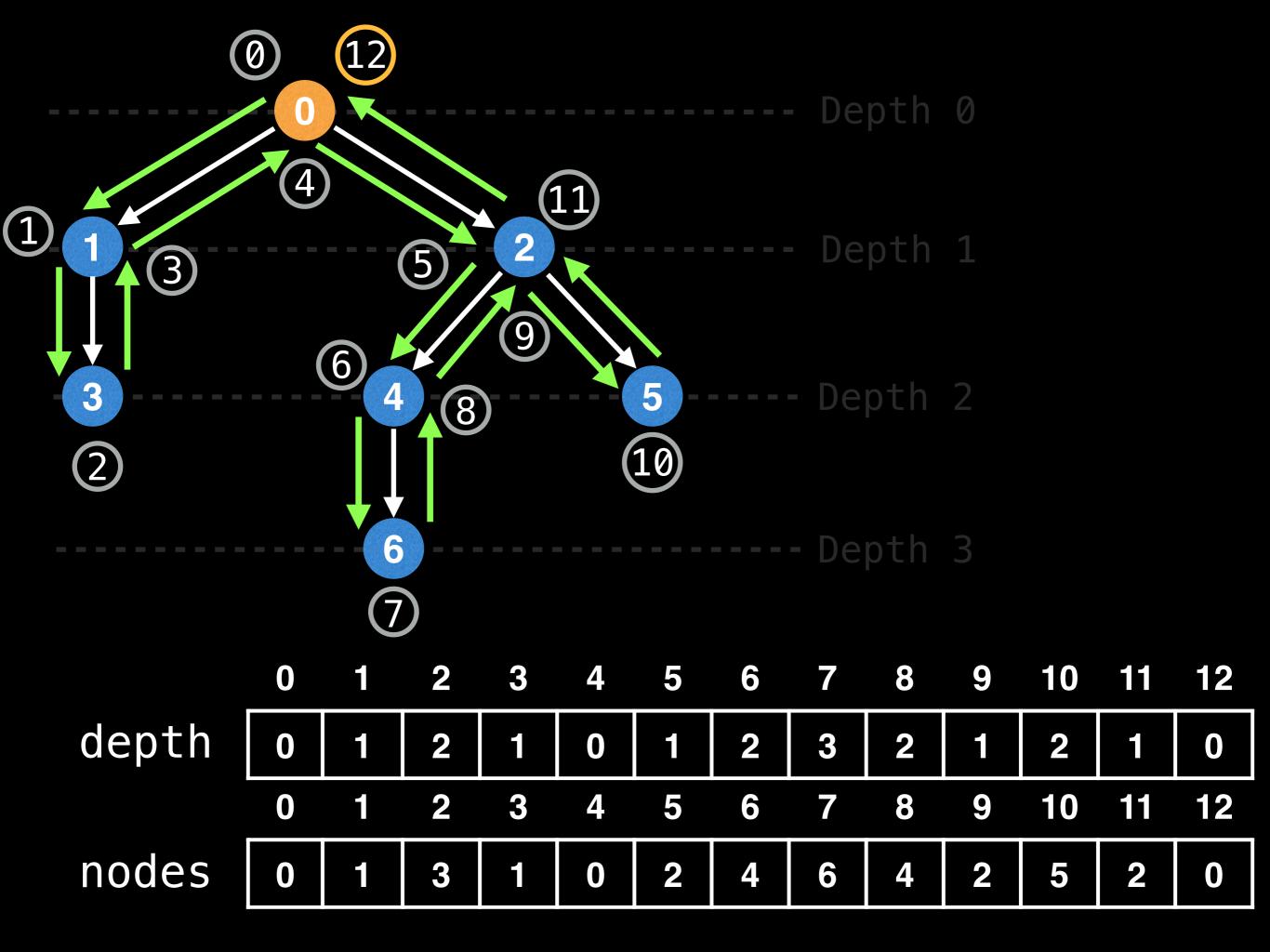


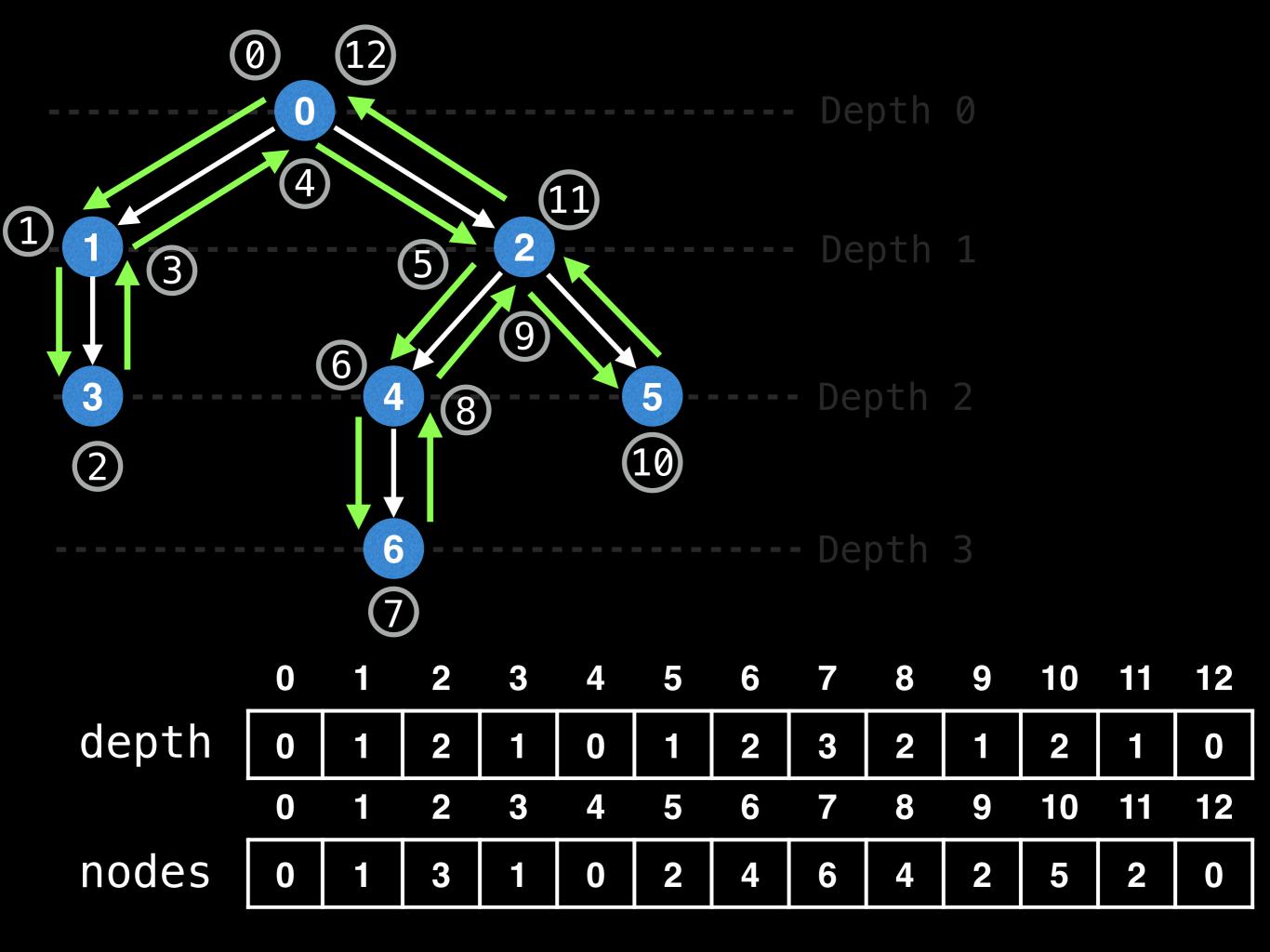


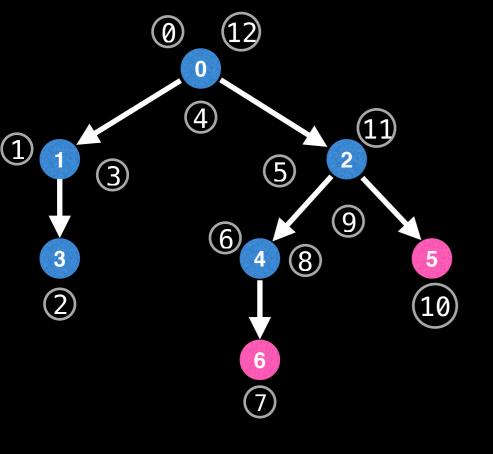




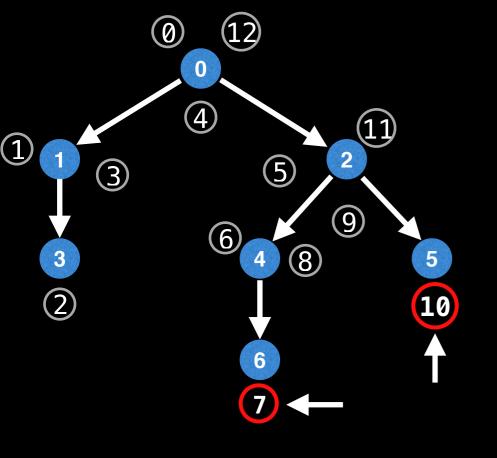






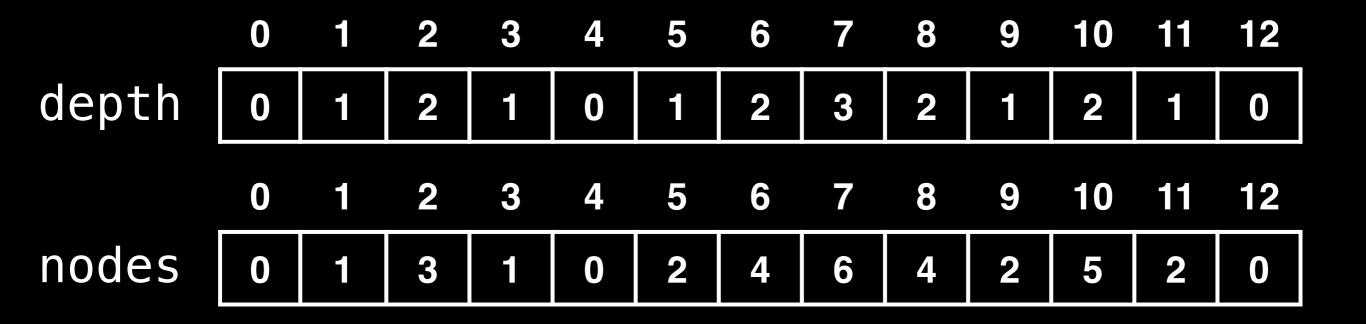


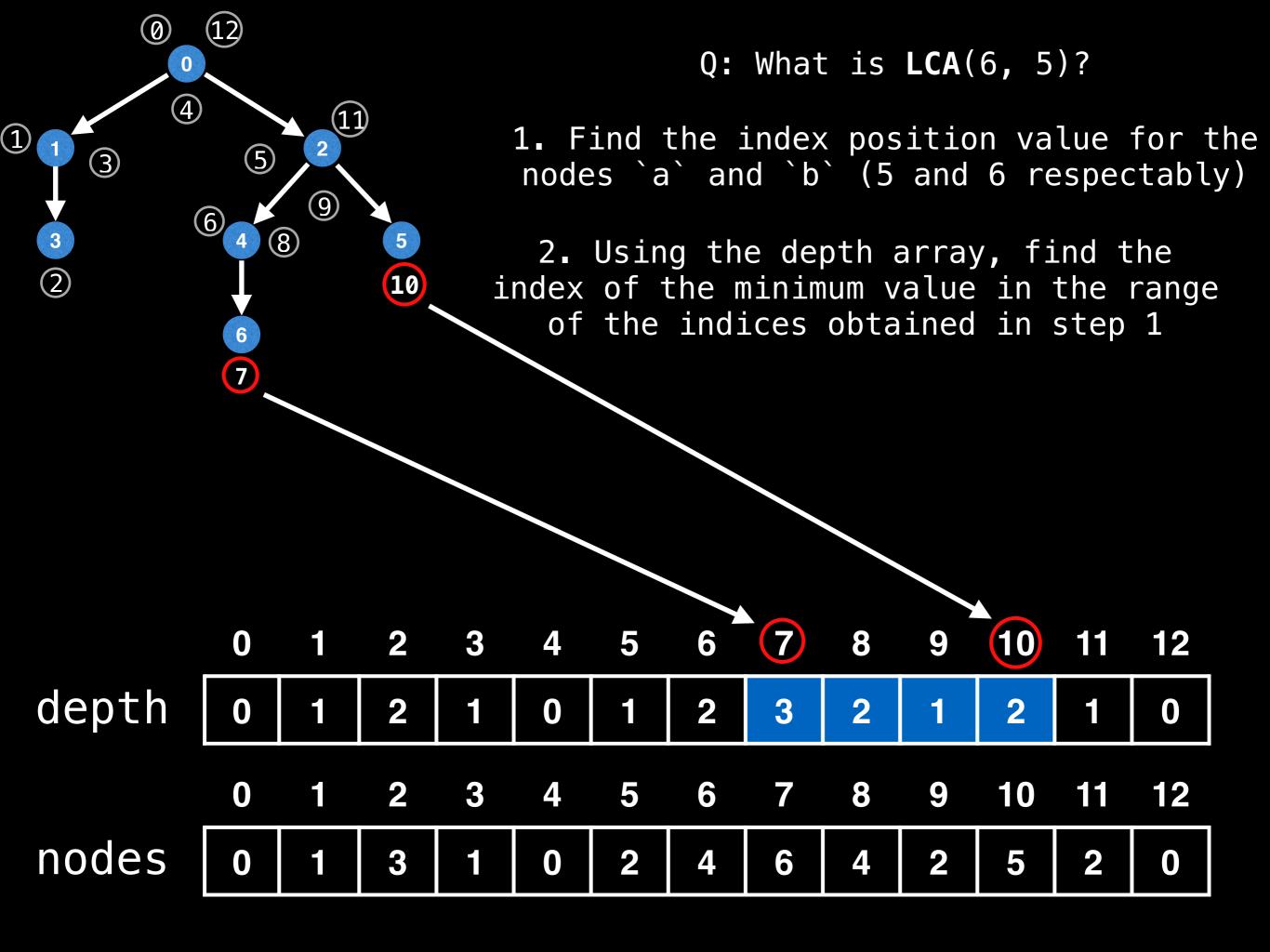
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
depth	0	1	2	1	0	1	2	3	2	1	2	1	0
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
nodes	0	1	3	1	0	2	4	6	4	2	5	2	0

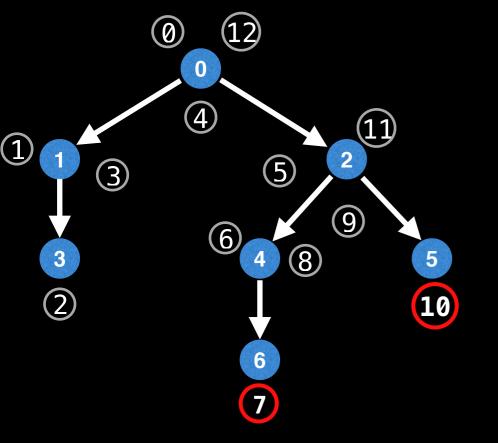


1. Find the index position value for the nodes `a` and `b` (5 and 6 respectably)

Nodes 5 and 6 map the the index positions 7 and 10 in the Euler Tour



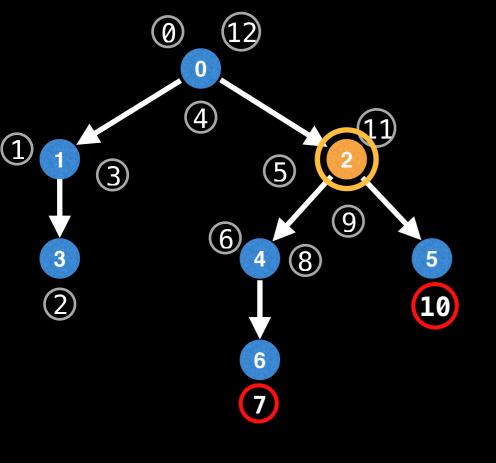




- 1. Find the index position value for the nodes `a` and `b` (5 and 6 respectably)
- 2. Using the depth array, find the index of the minimum value in the range of the indices obtained in step 1

Query the range [7, 10] in the depth array to find the index of the minimum value. This can be done in <code>O(1)</code> with a Sparse Table. For this example, the index is `9` with a value of `1`

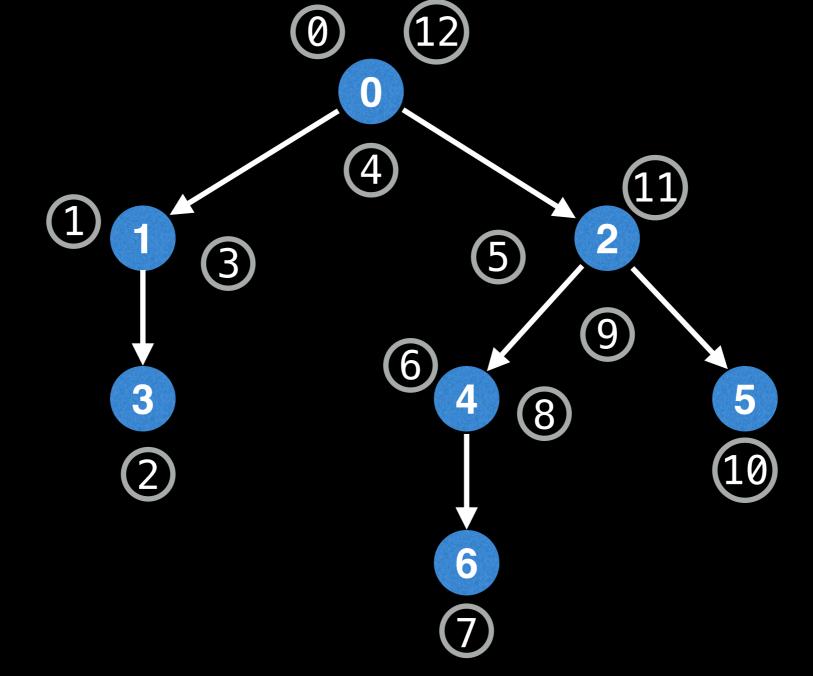
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
depth	0	1	2	1	0	1	2	3	2	1	2	1	0
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
nodes	0	1	3	1	0	2	4	6	4	2	5	2	0



- 1. Find the index position value for the nodes `a` and `b` (5 and 6 respectably)
- 2. Using the depth array, find the index of the minimum value in the range of the indices obtained in step 1
  - 3. Using the index obtained in step 2,
     find the LCA of `a` and `b` in the
     `nodes` array.

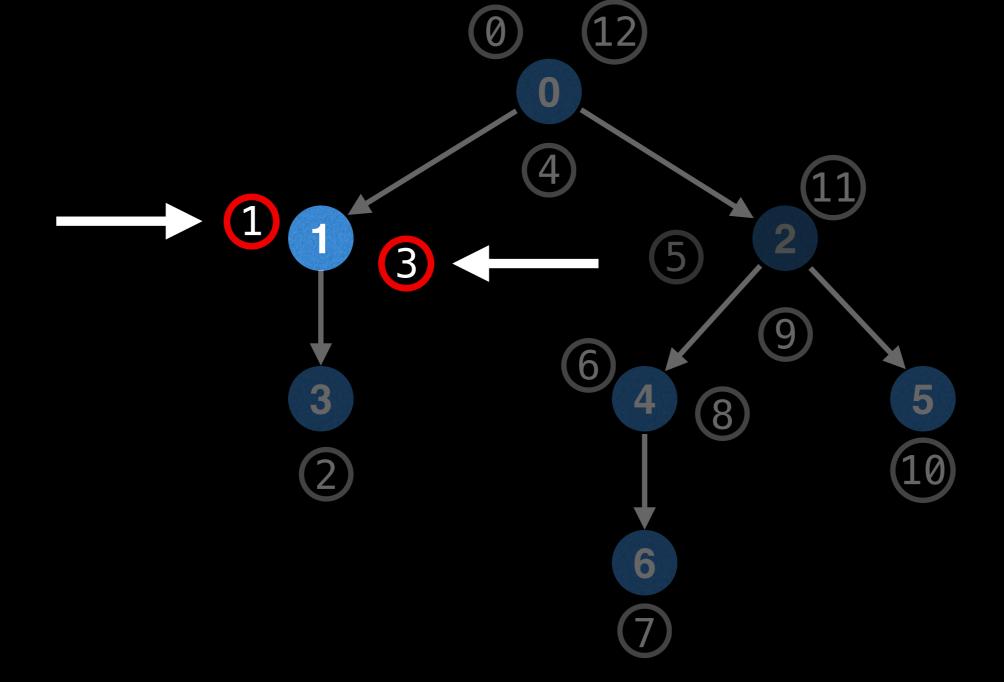
With index 9 found in the previous step, retrieve the LCA at nodes[9]

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
depth	0	1	2	1	0	1	2	3	2	1	2	1	0
										9			
nodes	0	1	3	1	0	2	4	6	4	2	5	2	0

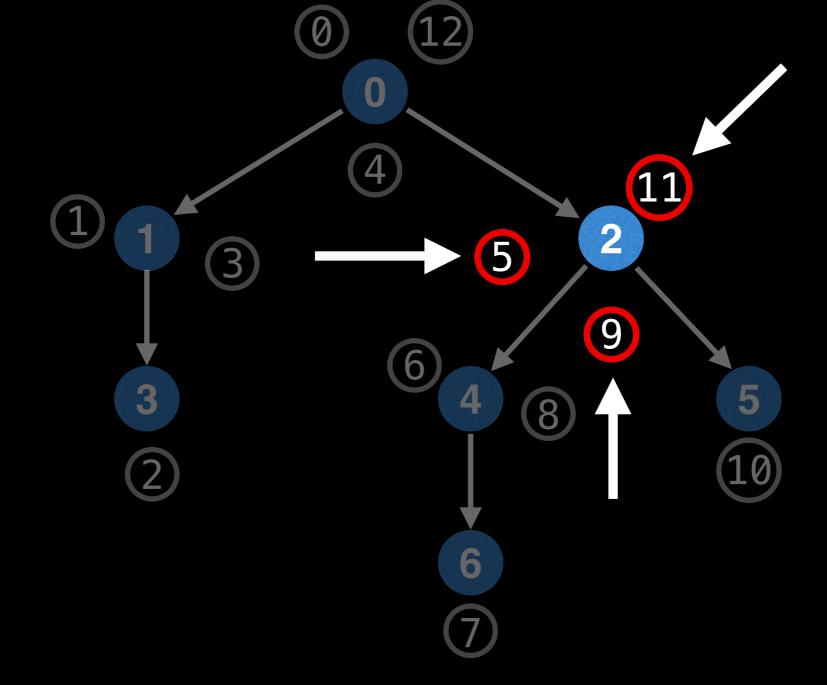


If you recall, step 1 required finding the index position for the two nodes with ids `a` and `b`.

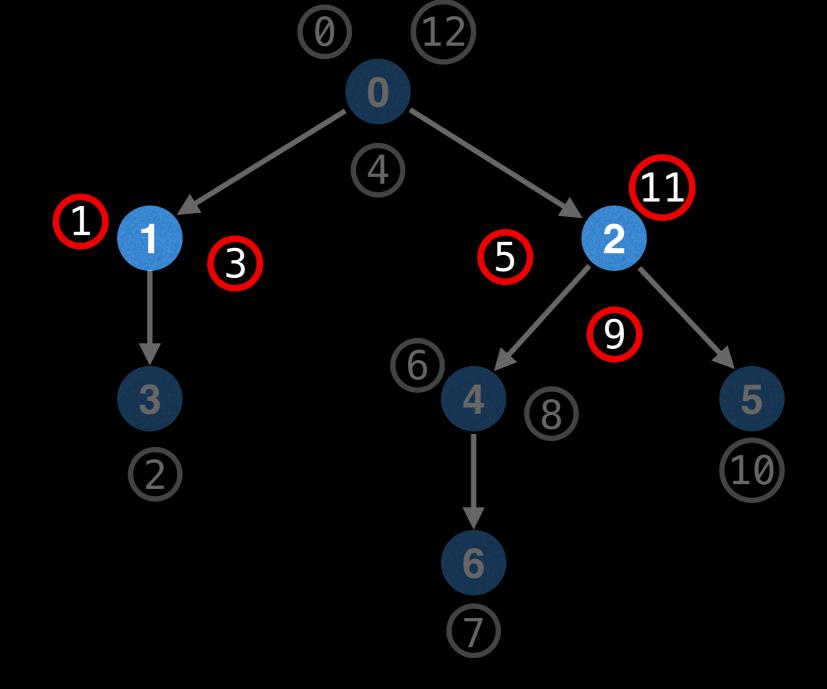
However, an issue we soon run into is that there are 2n - 1 nodes index positions in the Euler tour, and only n nodes in total, so a perfect 1 to 1 inverse mapping isn't possible.



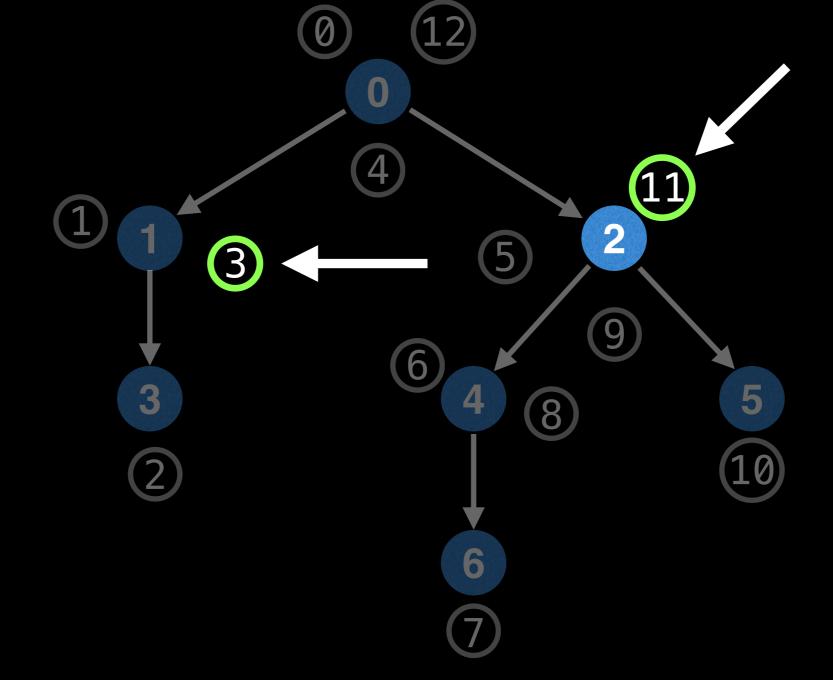
For example, the inverse mapping of node 1 could map to either index 1 or index 3 in the Euler tour.



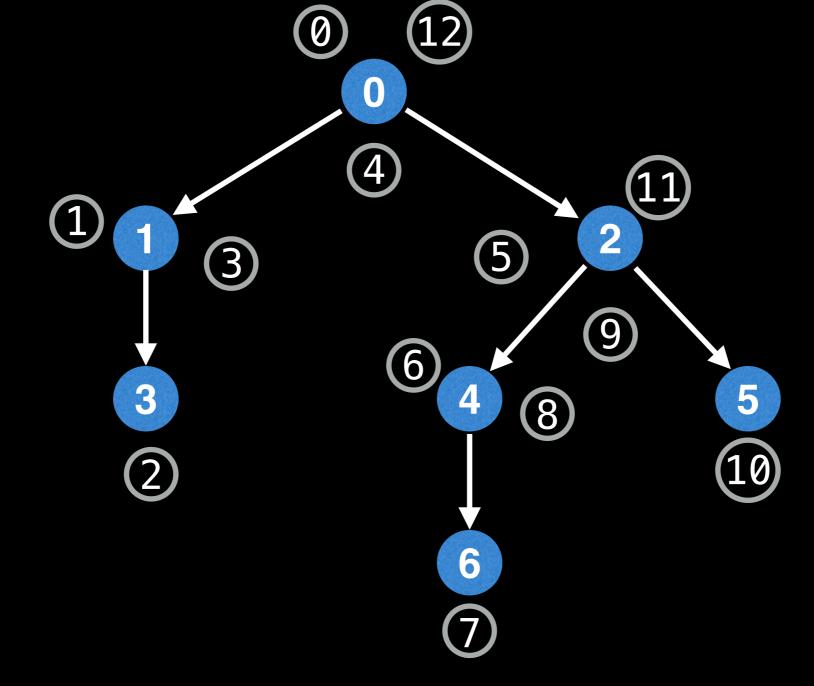
Similarly, the inverse mapping for node 2 could map to either index 5, 9 or 11 in the Euler tour.



So, which index values should we pick if we wanted to find the LCA of the nodes 1 and 2?

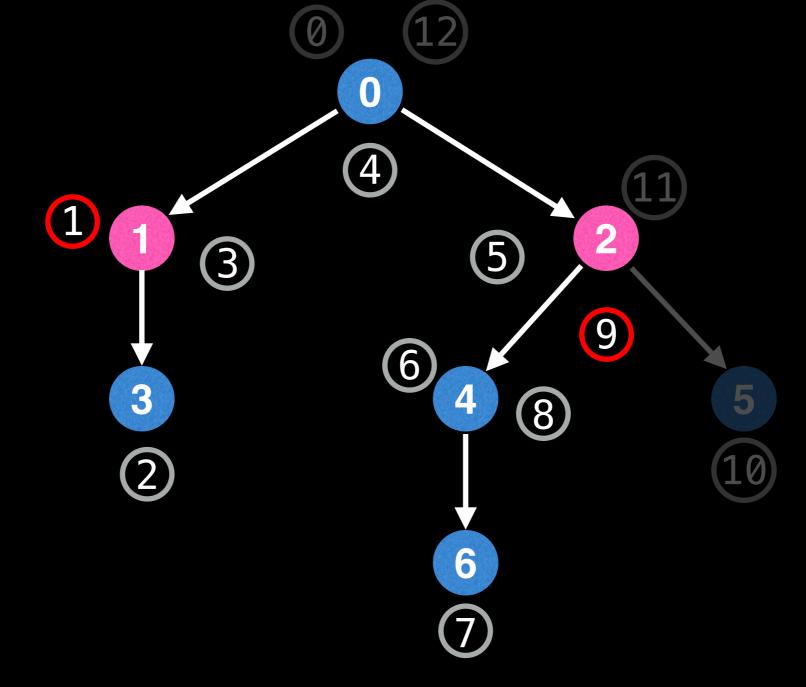


The answer is that it doesn't matter, any of the inverse index values will do. However, in practice, I find that it is easiest to select the last encountered index while doing the Euler tour.

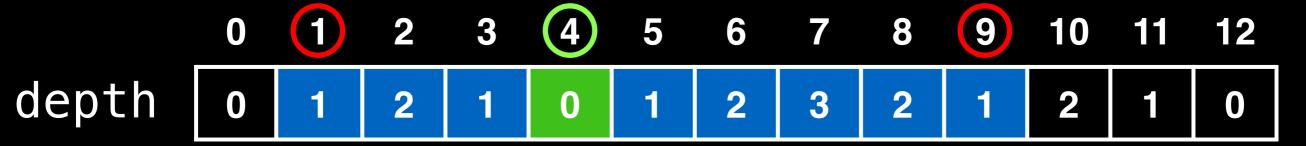


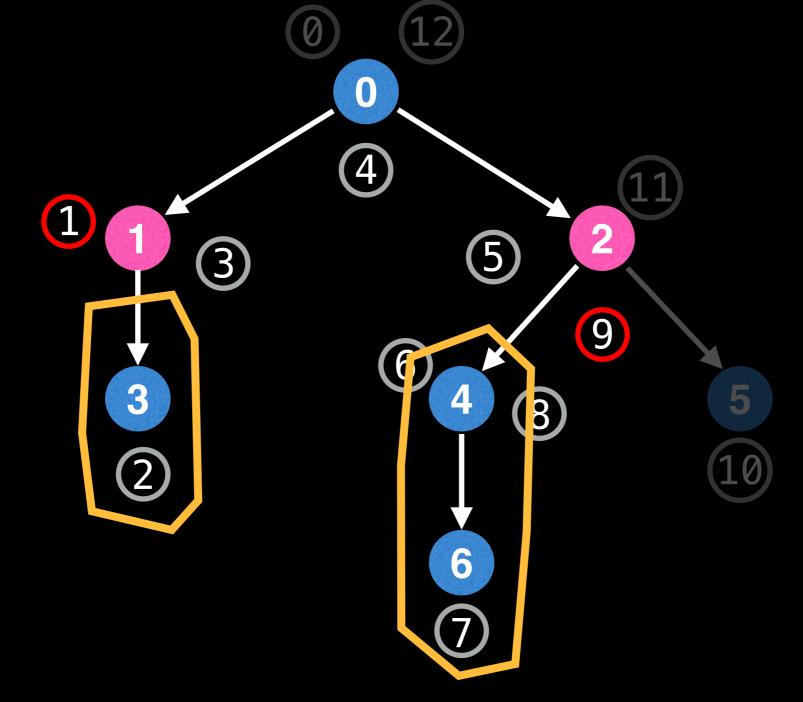
The reason the selection of the inverse index mapping doesn't matter is that it does not affect the value obtained from the **Range Minimum Query (RMQ)** in step 2

depth 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 depth 0 1 2 1 0 1 2 3 2 1 0



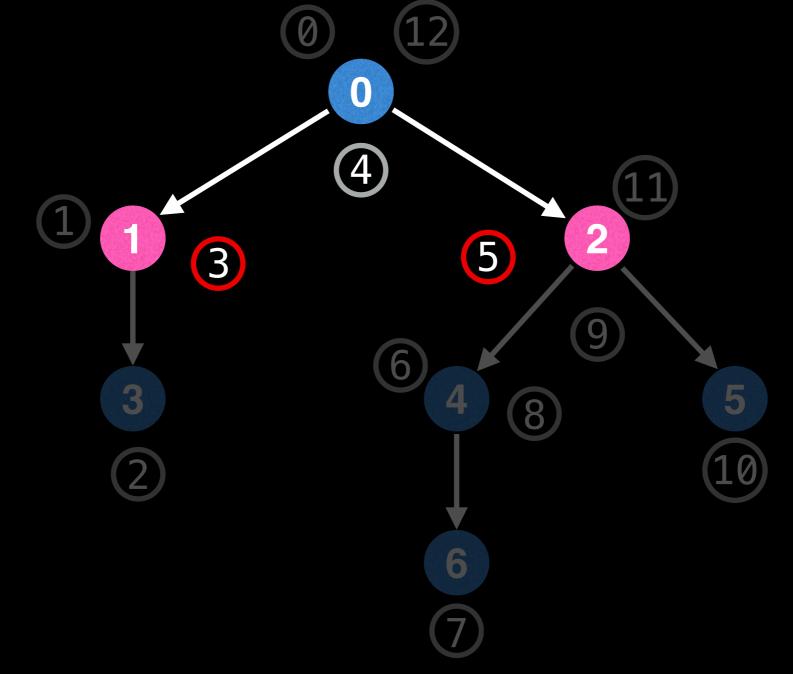
Suppose that for the LCA(1, 2) we selected index 1 for node 1 and index 9 for node 2, meaning the range [1, 9] in the depth array for the RMQ.





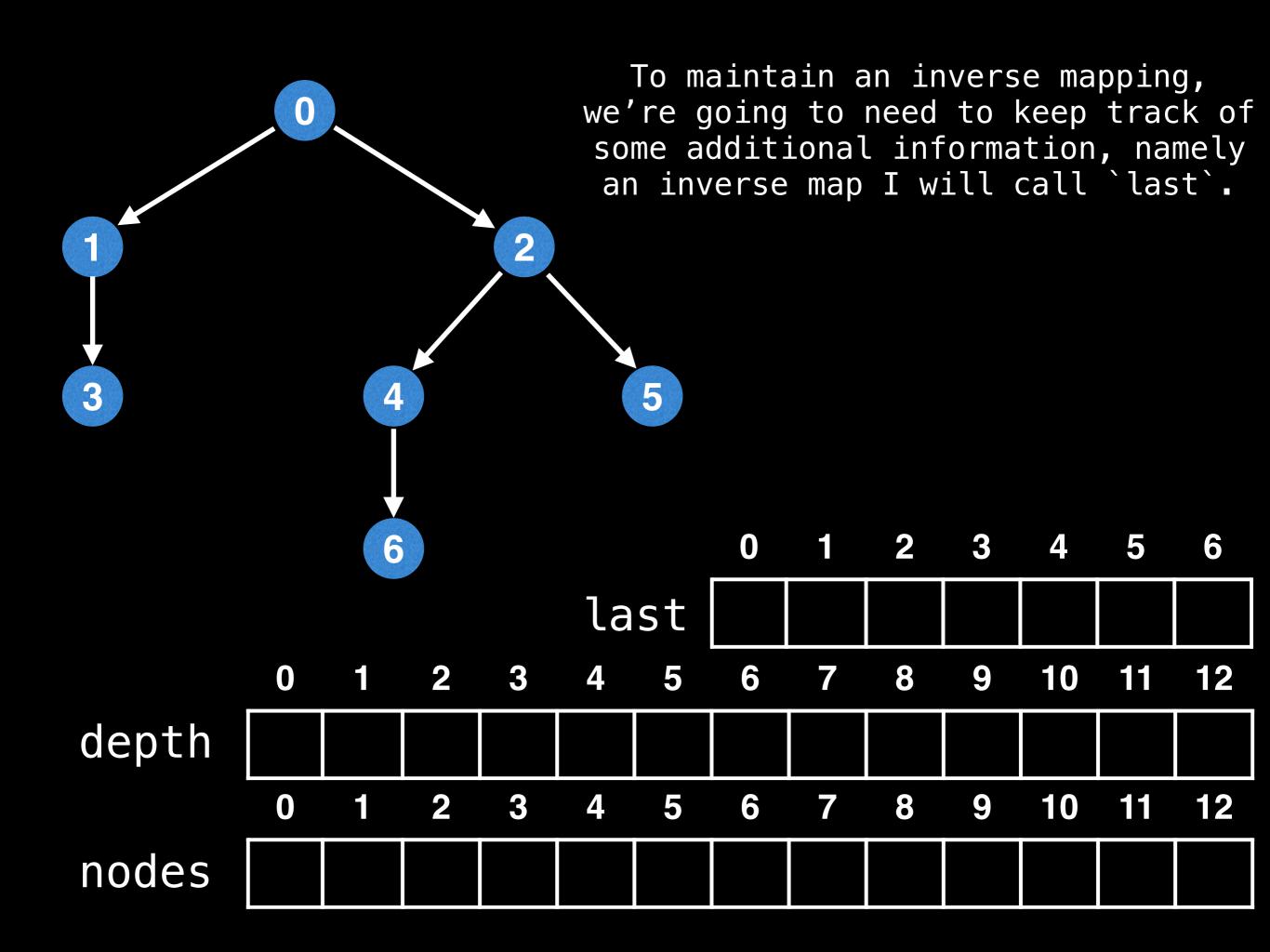
Even though the range [1, 9] includes some subtrees of the nodes 1 and 2, the depths of the subtree nodes are always more than the depths of nodes 1 and 2, so the value of the RMQ remains unchanged.

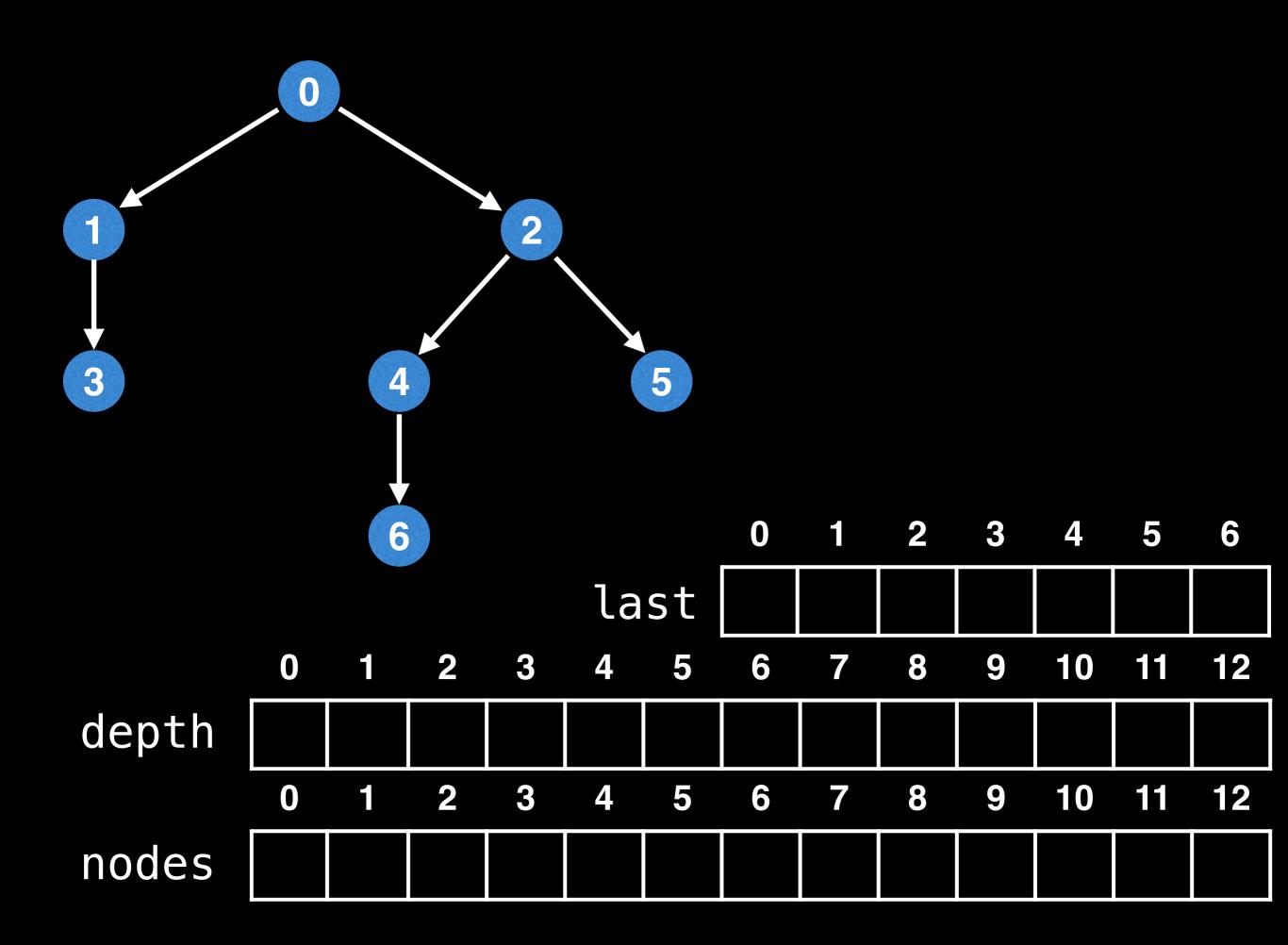


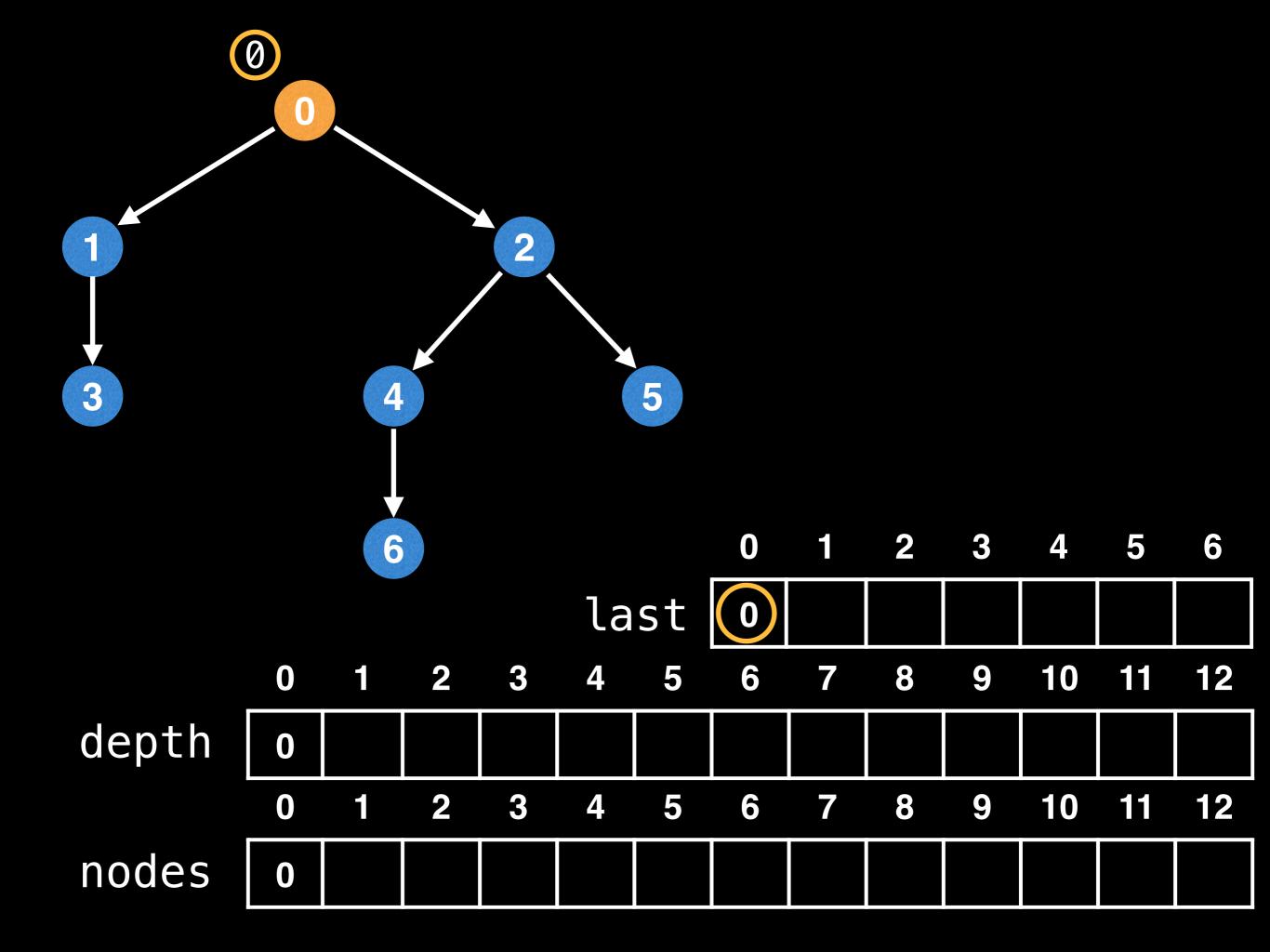


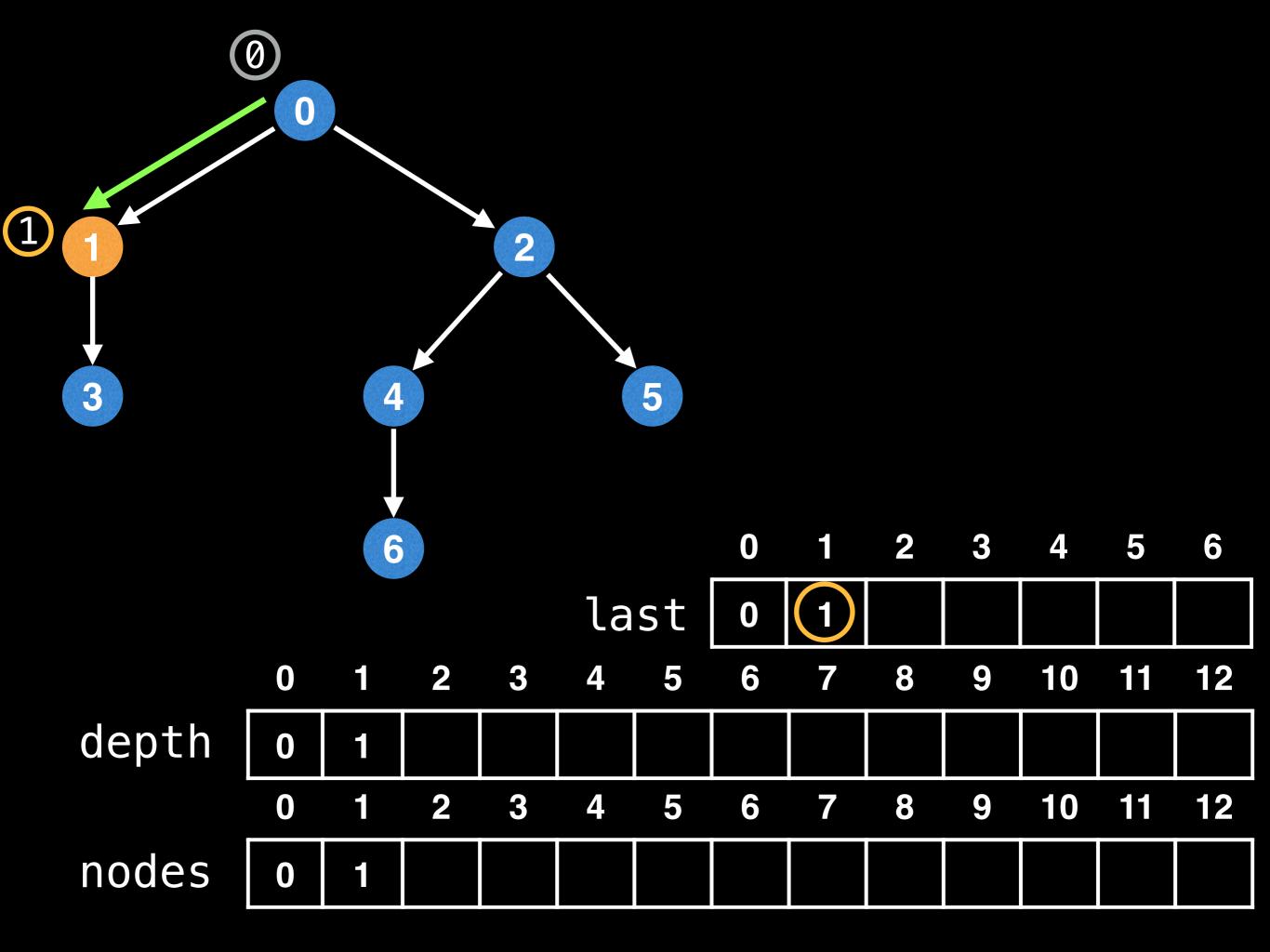
You may think that choosing the index values 3 and 5 for nodes 1 and 2 would be better choice since the interval [3, 5] is smaller. However, this doesn't matter since RMQs take O(1) when using a sparse table.

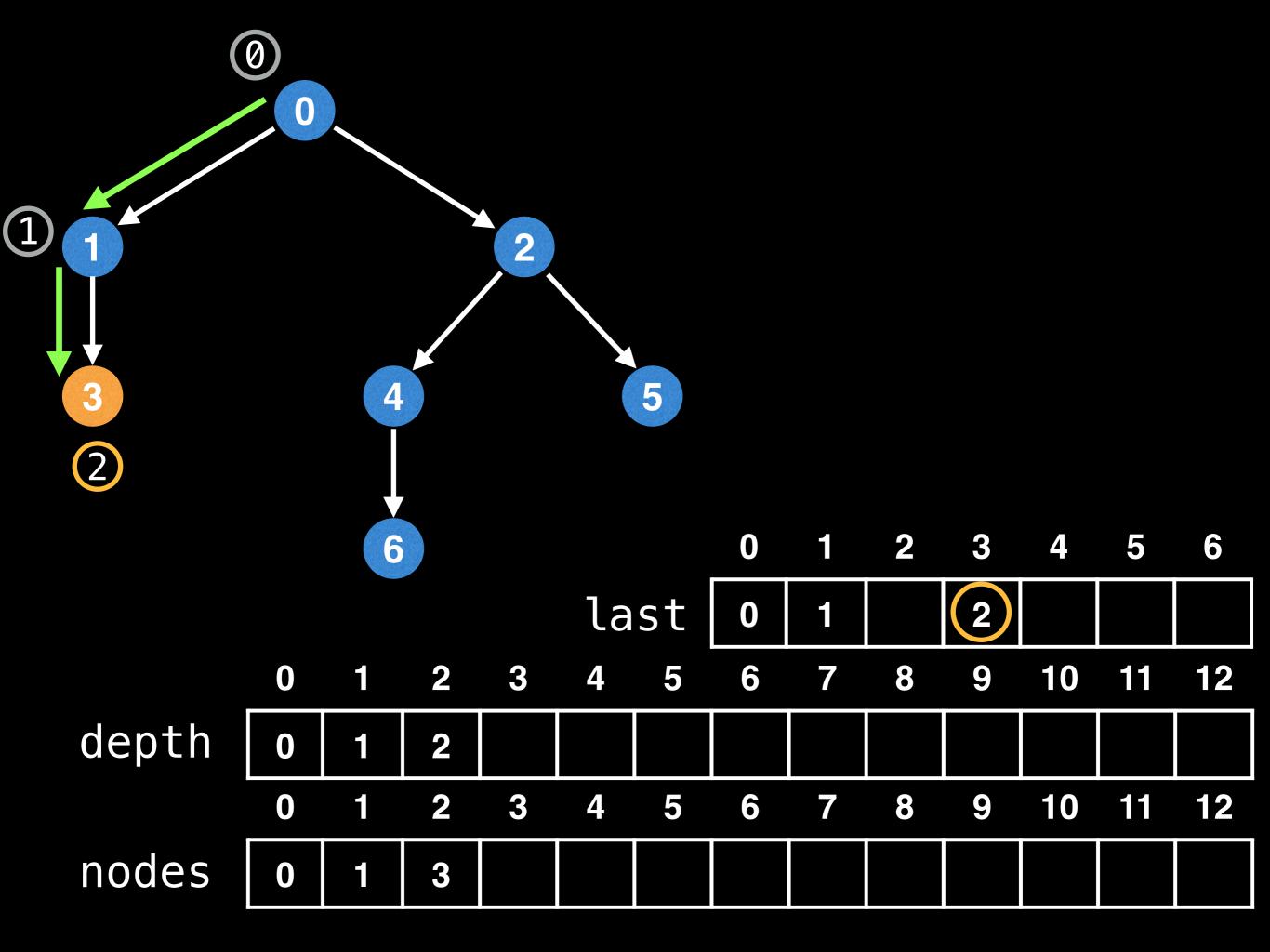


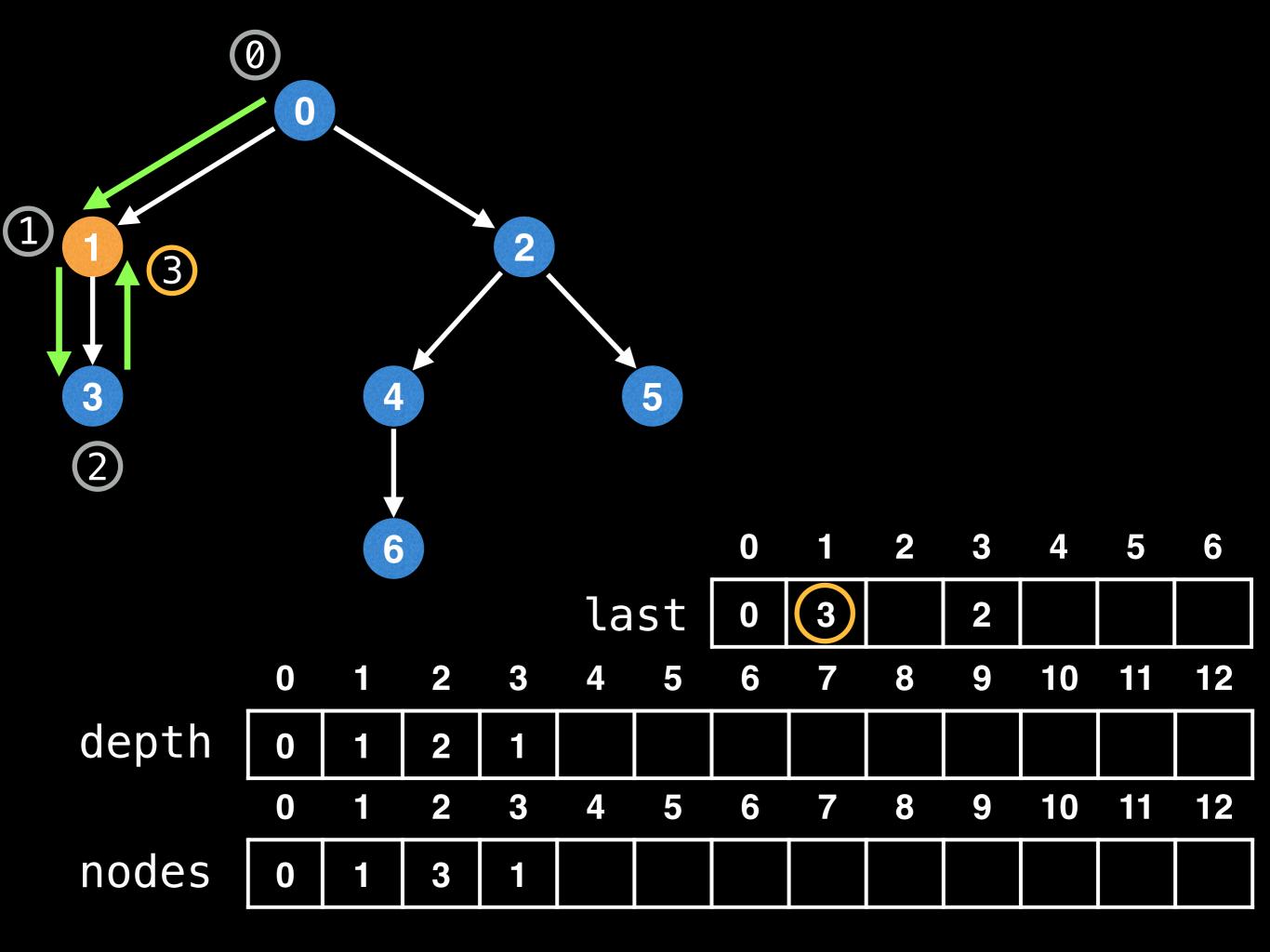


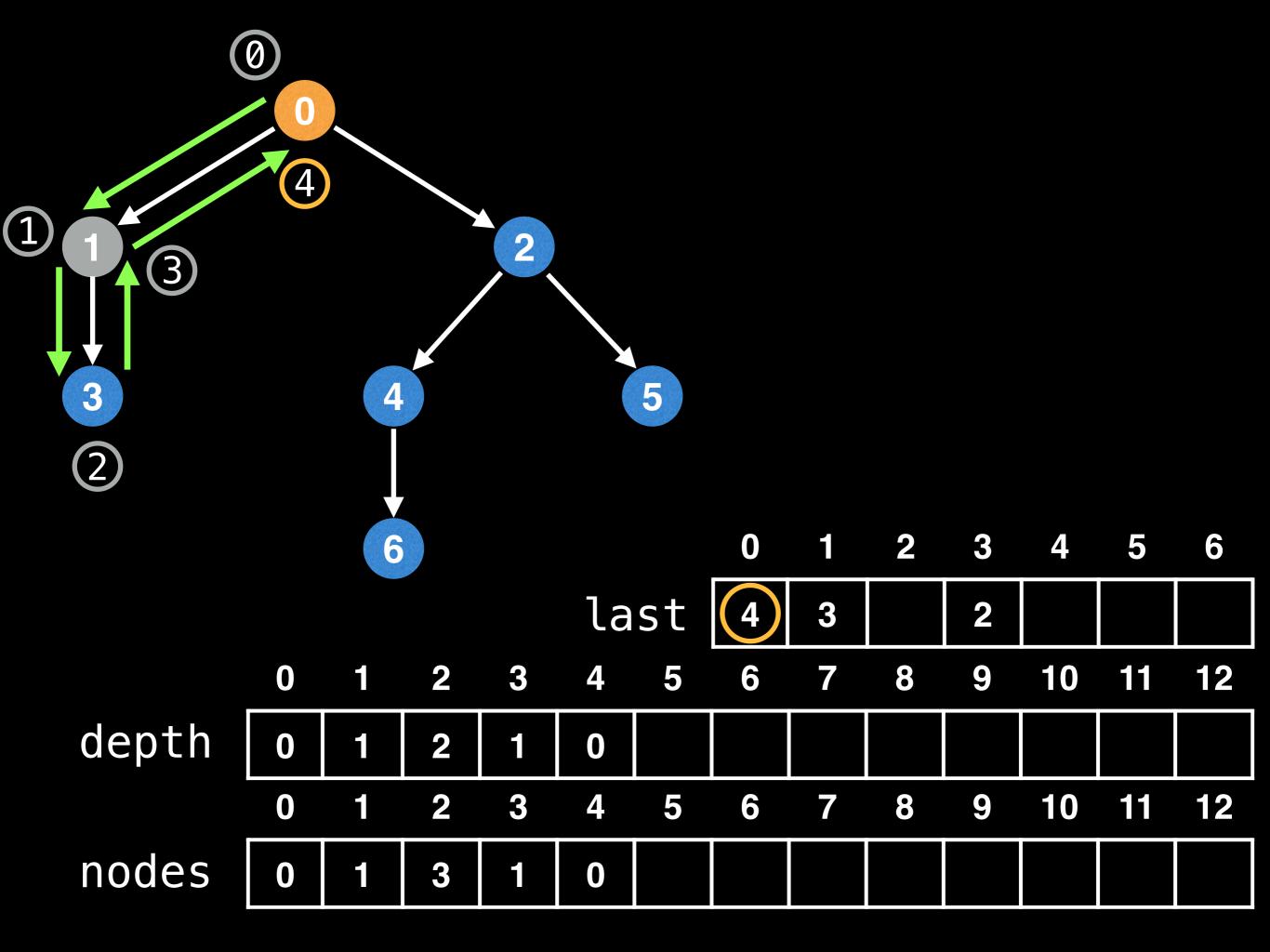


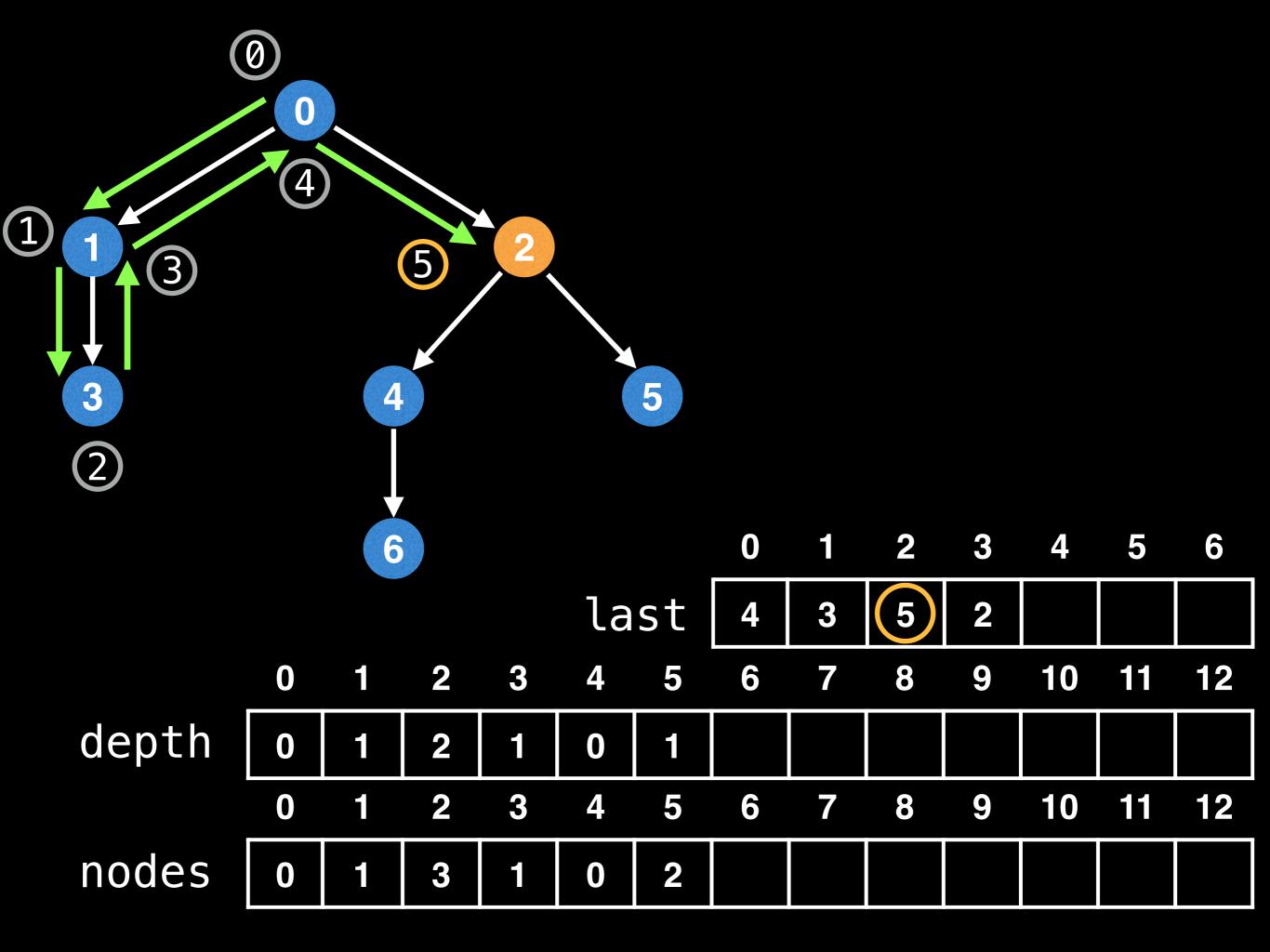


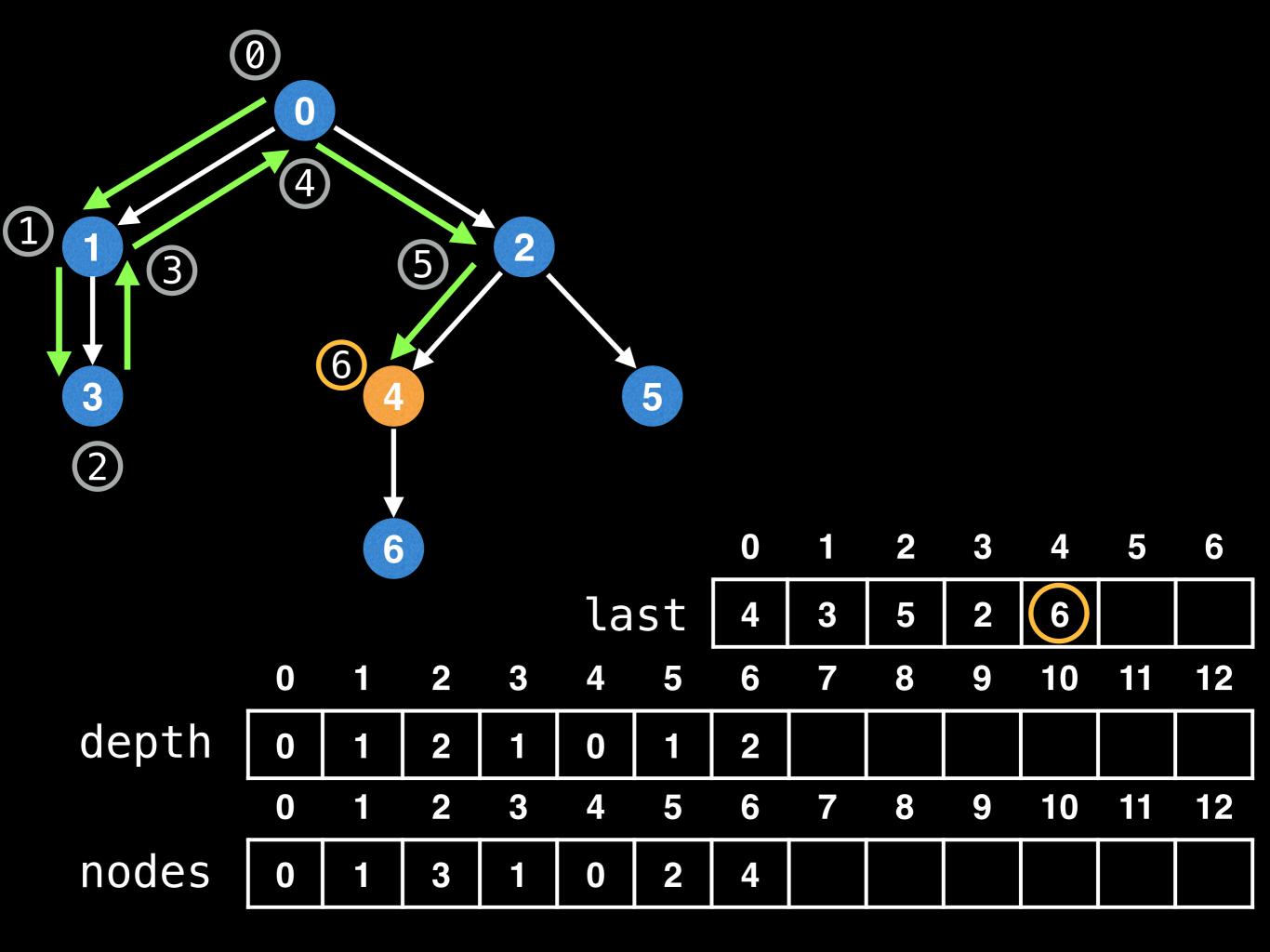


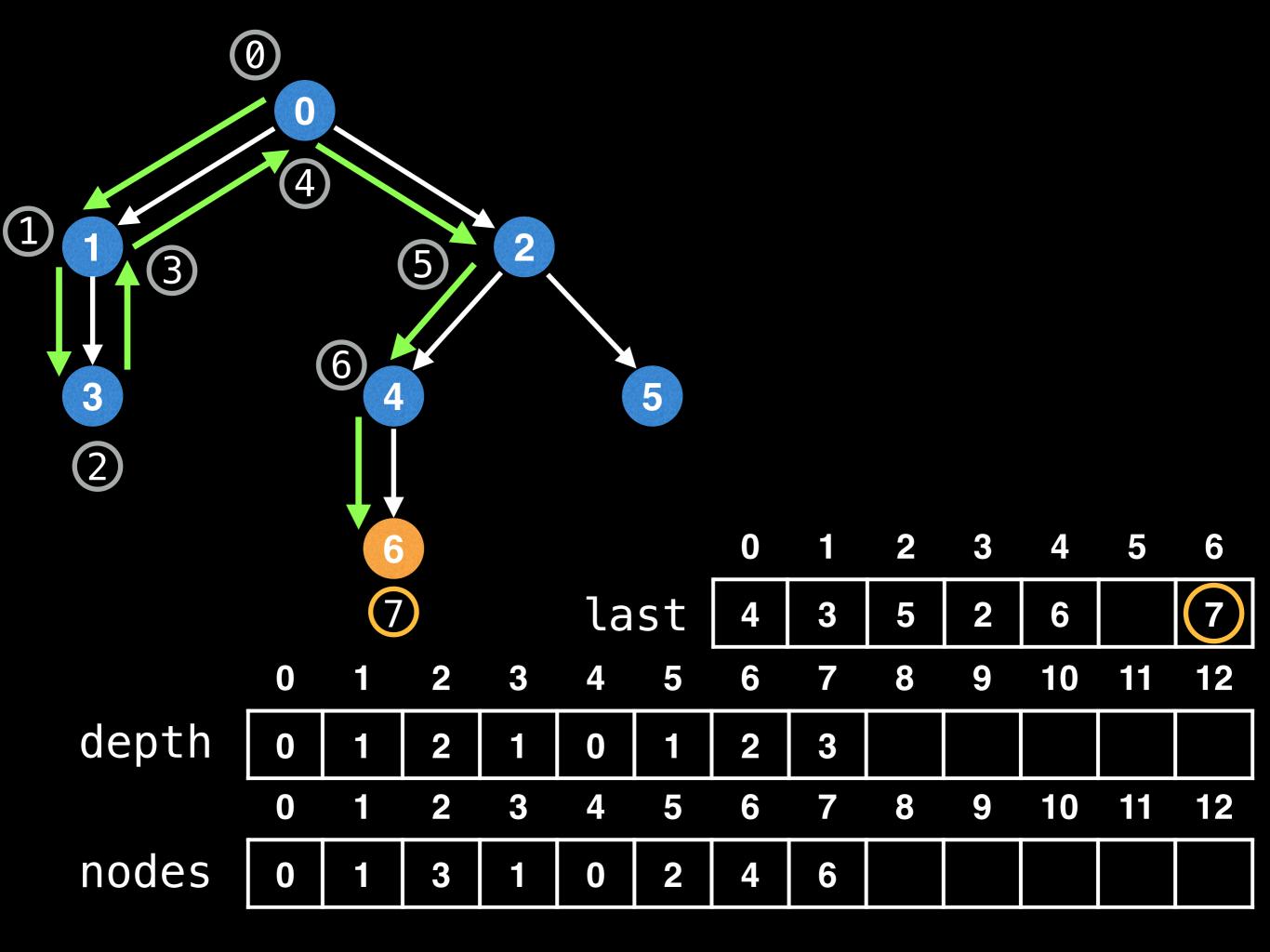


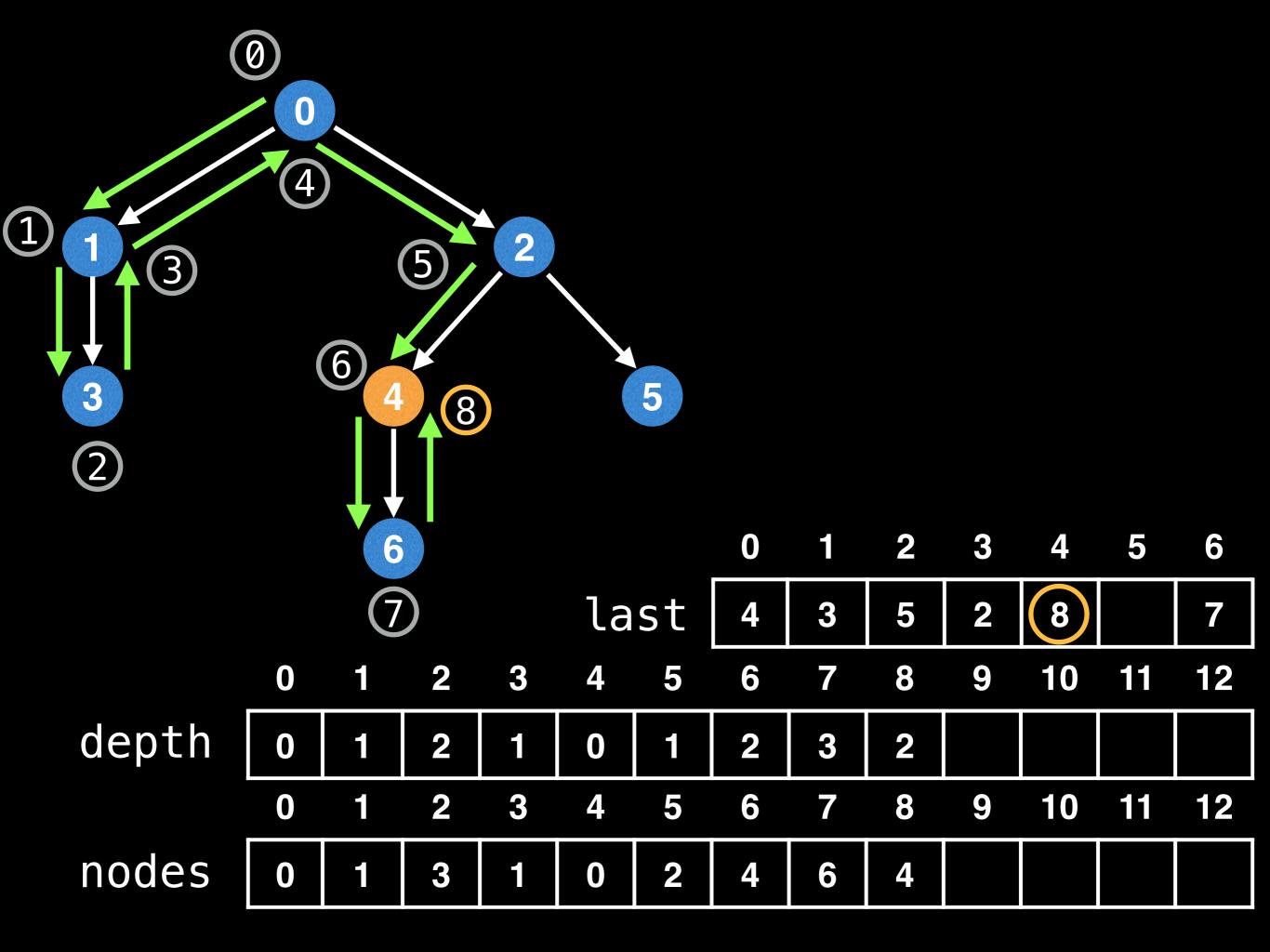


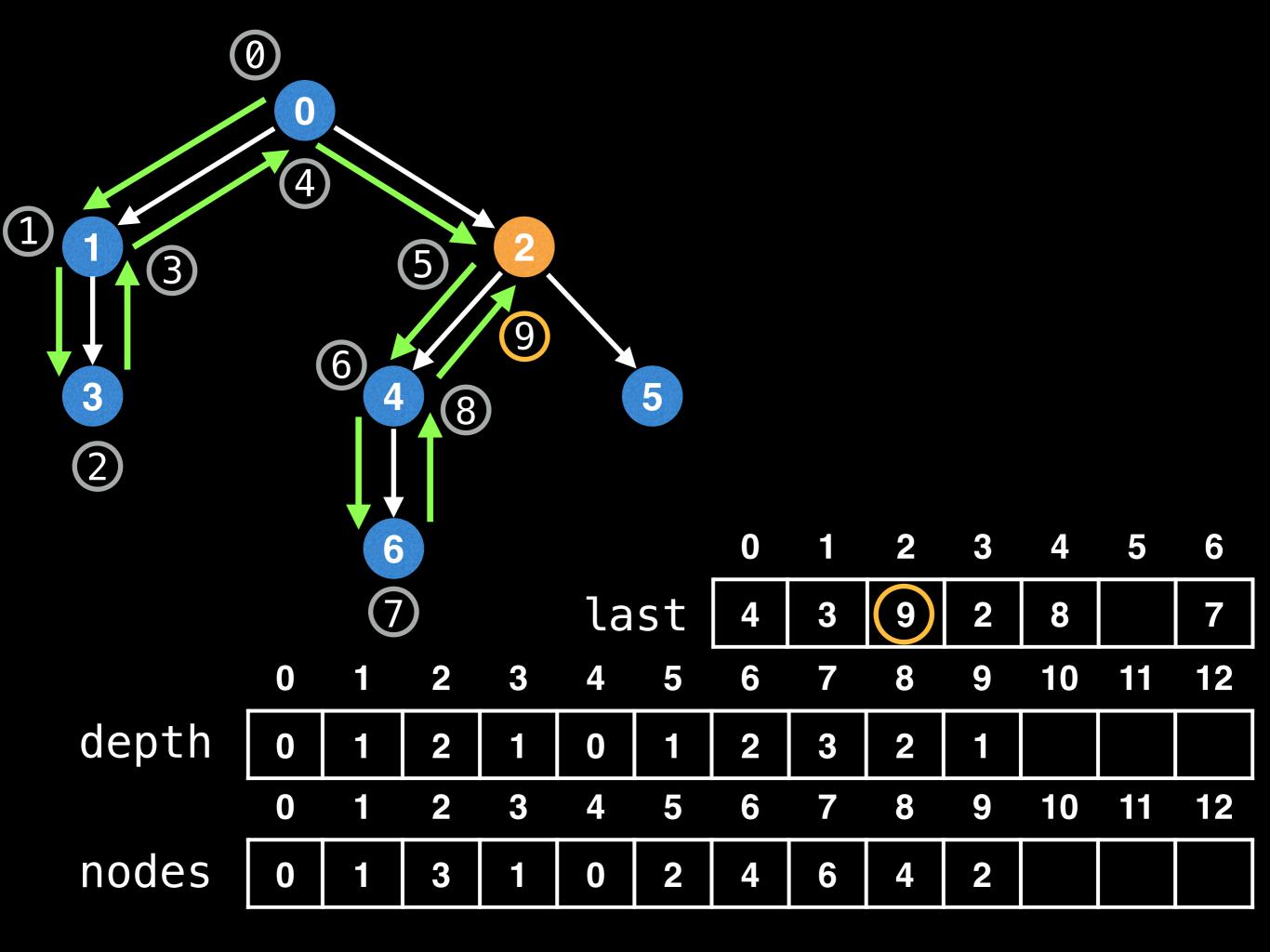


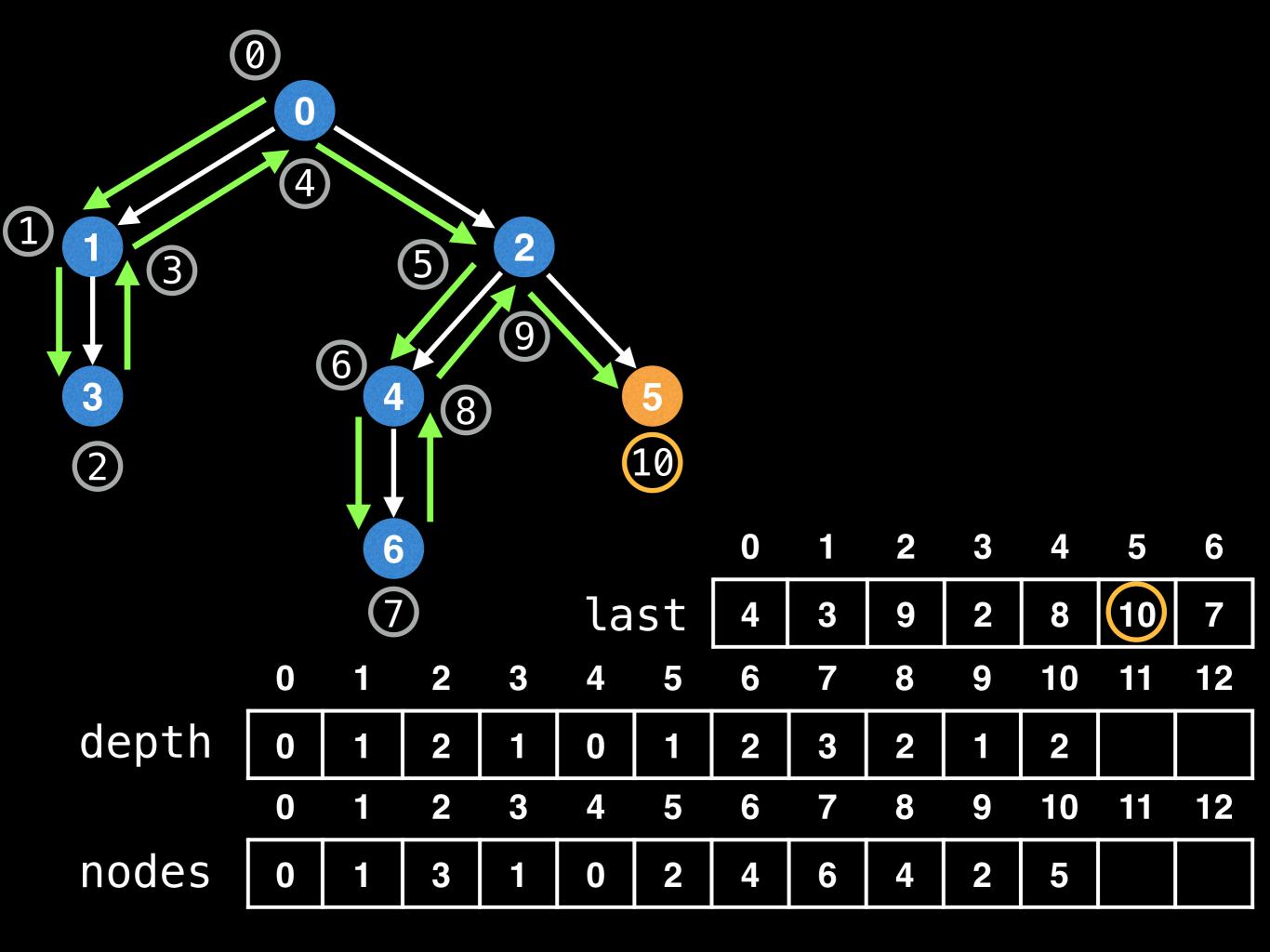


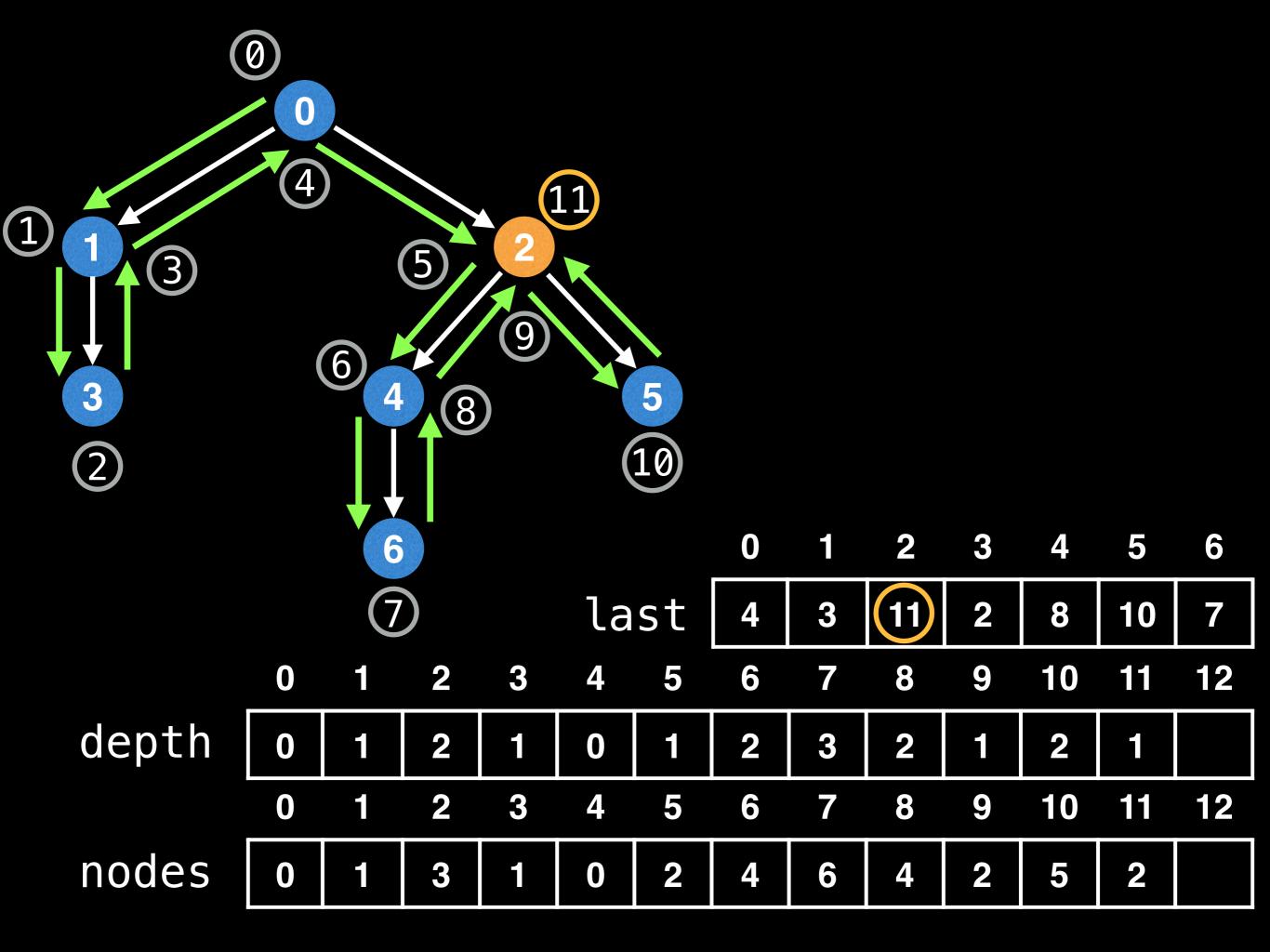


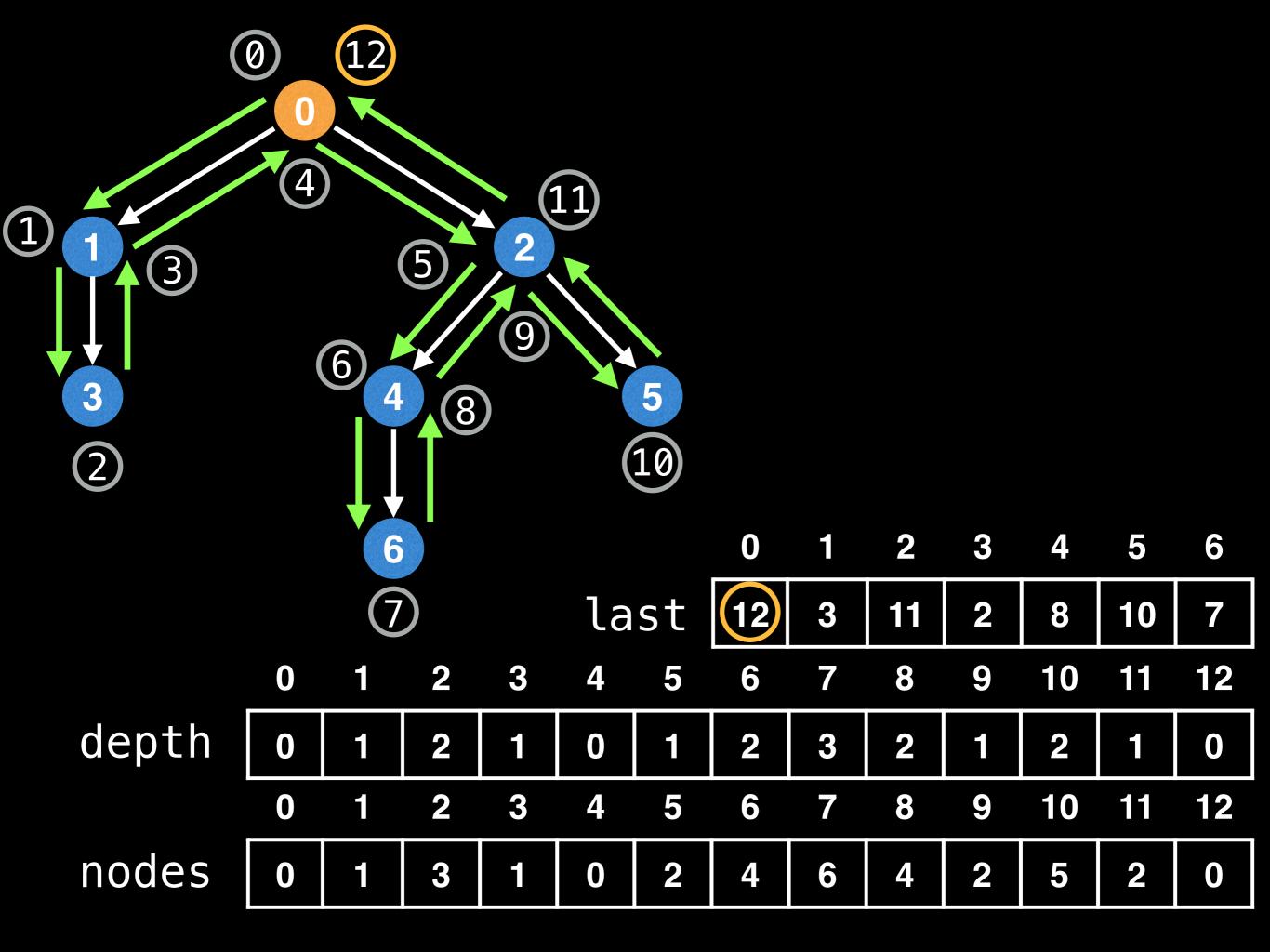


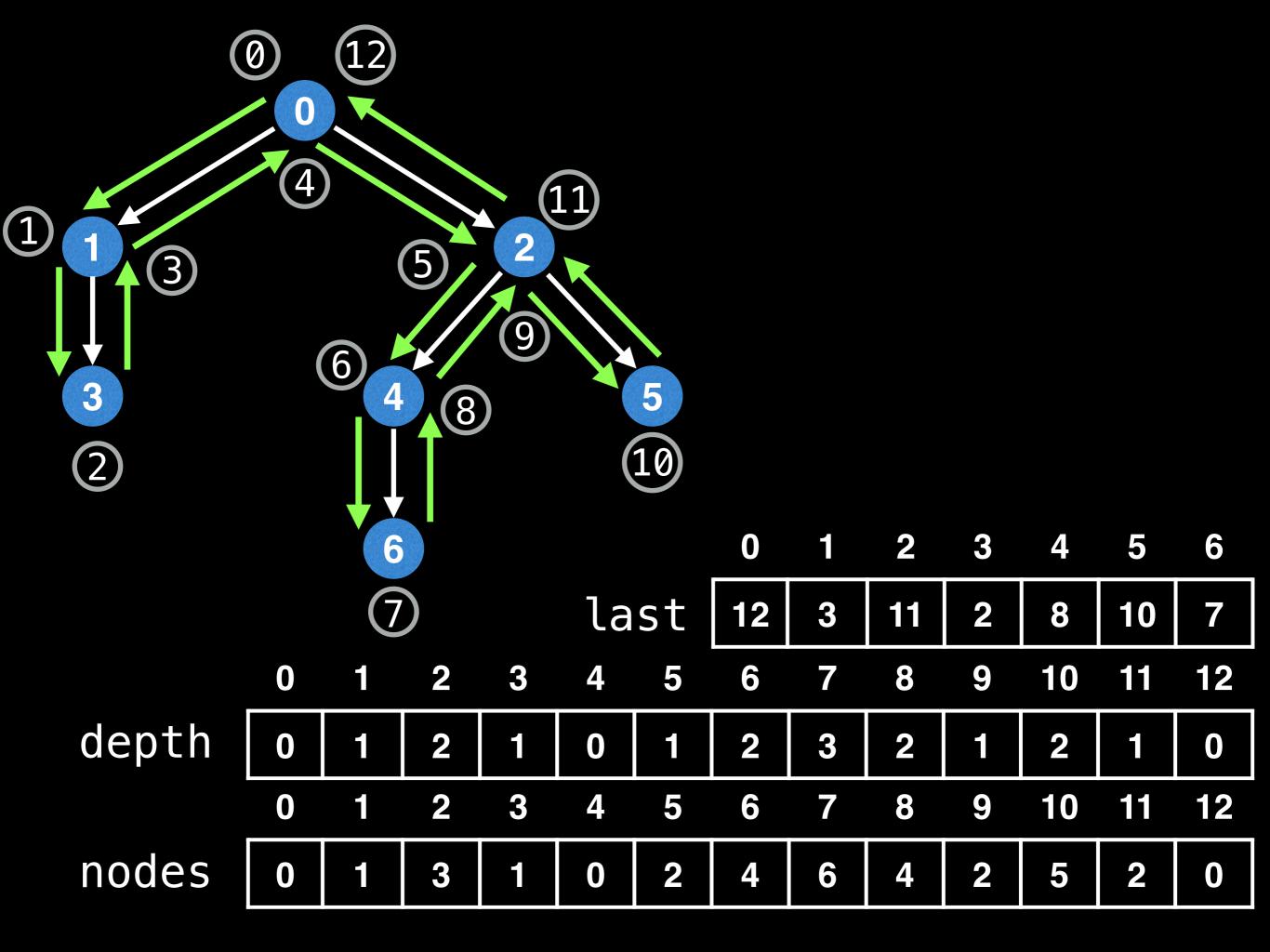












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# A unique index (id) associated with this
# TreeNode.
int index;
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# List of pointers to child TreeNodes.

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nodes = ... \# array of nodes of size 2n - 1
depth = ... # array of integers of size 2n - 1
last = ... # node index -> Euler tour index
# Do Eulerian Tour around the tree
dfs(root)
# Initialize sparse table data structure to
  do Range Minimum Queries (RMQs) on the
# 'depth' array. Sparse tables take O(nlogn)
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# time to construct and do RMQs in O(1)

sparse\_table = CreateMinSparseTable(depth)

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# Eulerian tour index position
tour_index = 0
# Do an Eulerian Tour of all the nodes using
# a DFS traversal.
function dfs(node, node_depth = 0):
  if node == null:
    return
  visit(node, node_depth)
  for (TreeNode child in node.children):
    dfs(child, node_depth + 1)
    visit(node, node depth)
# Save a node's depth, inverse mapping and
# position in the Euler tour
function visit(node, node_depth):
  nodes[tour_index] = node
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  last[node.index] = tour_index
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# Query the Lowest Common Ancestor (LCA) of
# the two nodes with the indices `index1` and
# `index2`.
function lca(index1, index2):
  l = min(last[index1], last[index2])
  r = max(last[index1], last[index2])
  # Do RMQ to find the index of the minimum
  # element in the range [l, r]
  i = sparse table.queryIndex(l, r)
  # Return the TreeNode object for the LCA
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#### Unused slides follow

1. Find the Eulerian Tour of a rooted tree, and subsequently do Range Minimum Queries to find the LCA. Requires O(nlogn) preprocessing with a Sparse Table, and gives O(1) LCA queries

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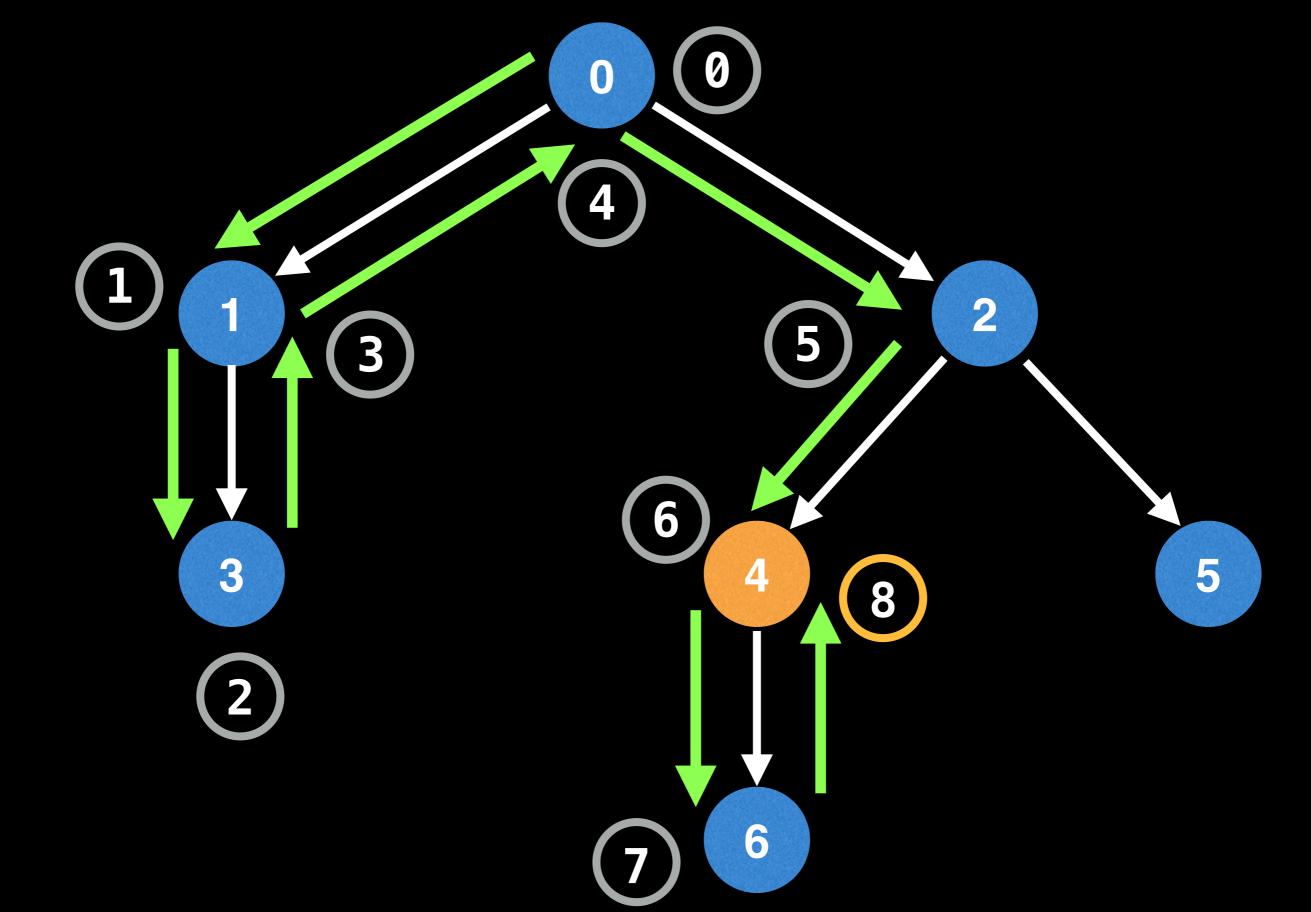
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- 3. Use the **Heavy-Light Decomposition** technique to break a tree into disjoint chains, and use this structure to do LCA queries.

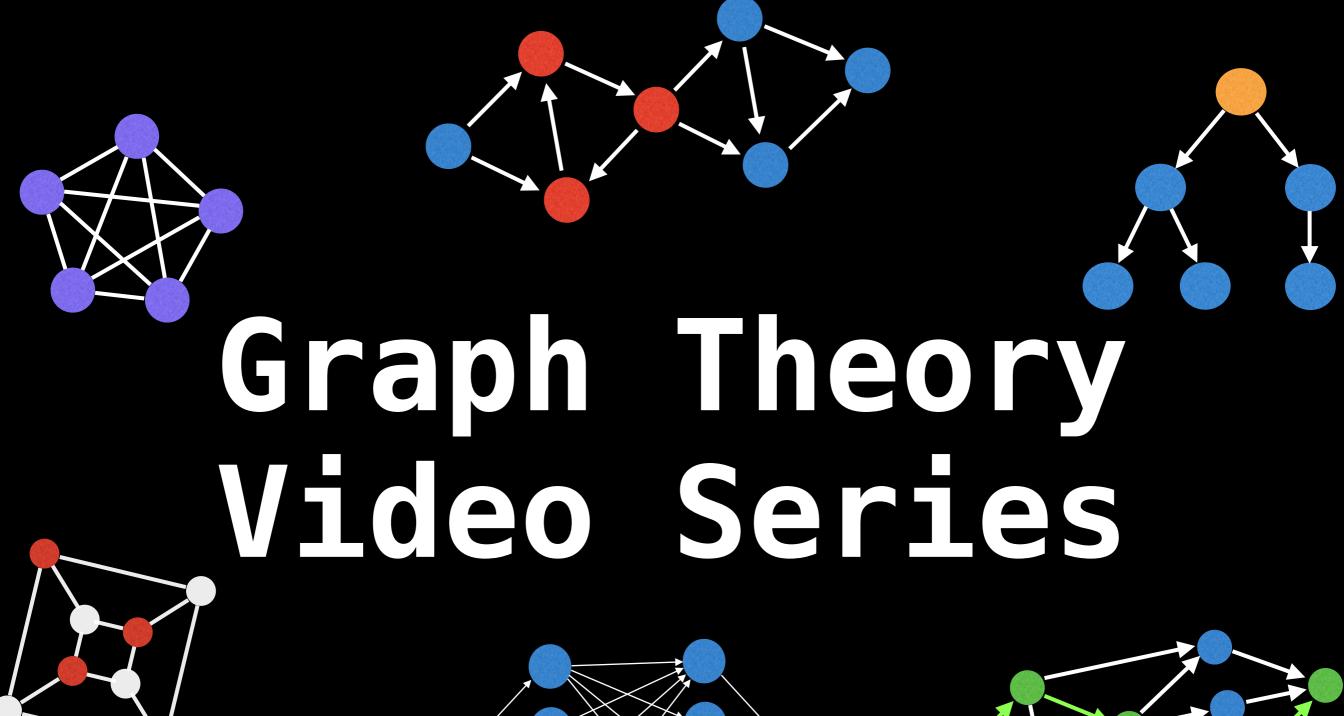
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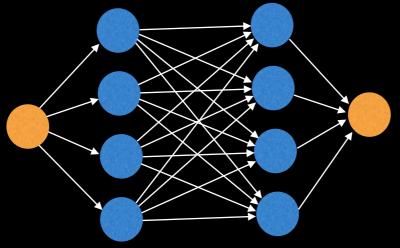
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- 5. ... and several more algorithms like **Binary Lifting** and the naive approach of walking up the tree.

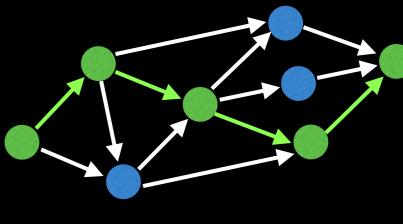
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#### Lowest Common Ancestor









# Lowest Common Ancestor source code

Eulerian tour + range minimum query method

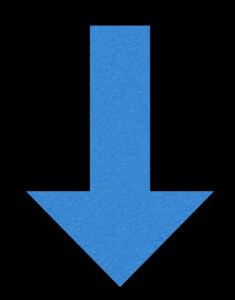


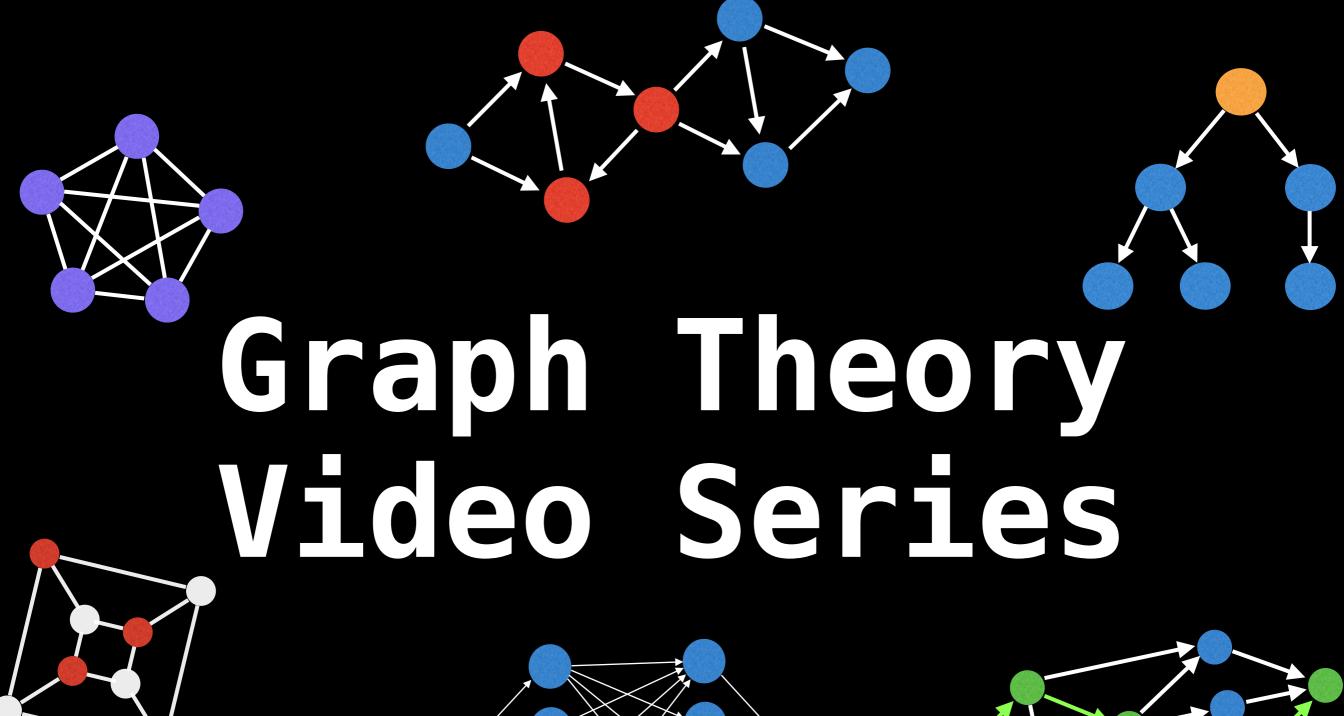
### Previous video explaining the LCA problem:

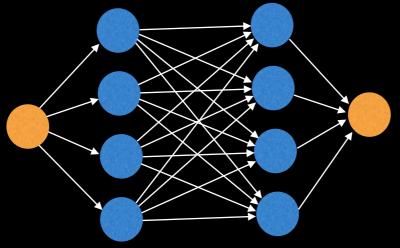
#### Source Code Link

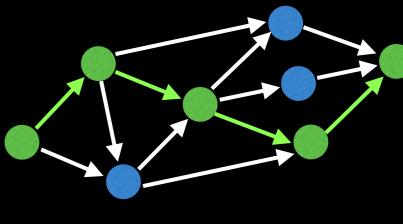
Implementation source code can
be found at the following link:
github.com/williamfiset/algorithms

Link in the description below:









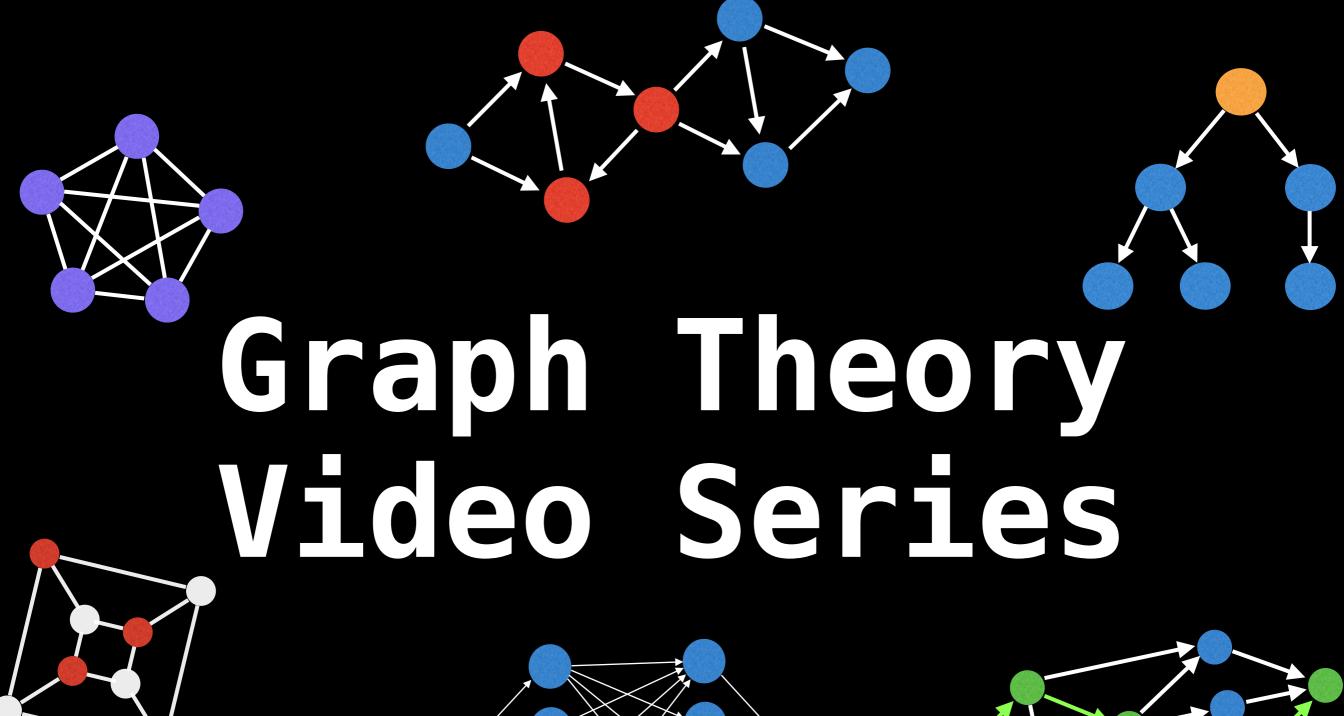
## Heavy-Light Decomposition

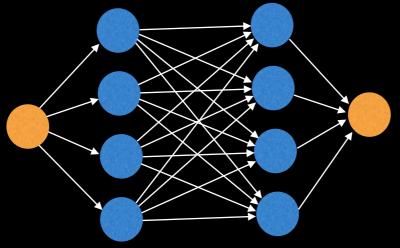
(Heavy path decomposition)

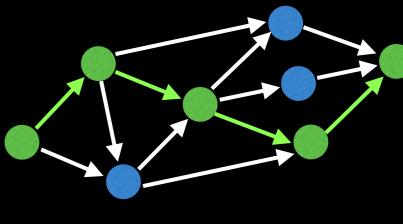


Micah Stairs | William Fiset









# Tree Centroid Decomposition

