



Algorithms and Data Structures

(Search) Trees

Ulf Leser



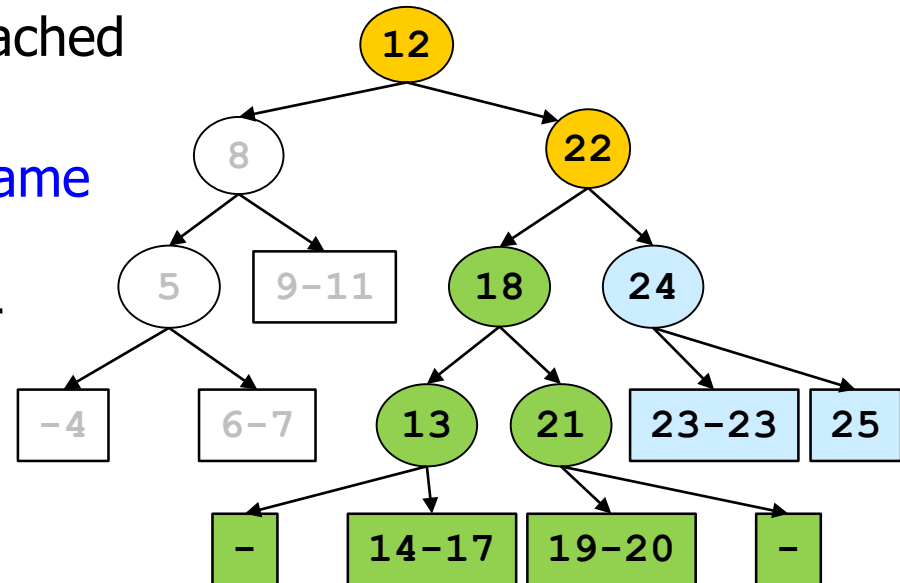
Source: whmsoft.net/

Content of this Lecture

- Trees
- Search Trees
- Natural Trees

Motivation

- In a list, (almost) every element has one predecessor / successor
- In a tree, (almost) every element has one predecessor but **many successors**
- These splits **partition the set of all elements** of the list
 - Every node in a tree can be reached by **only one path** from root
 - Partitions: All nodes with **the same prefix** in their access paths
 - Prominent split criterion: Order
 - Elements with lower rank to left subtree, with higher rank to the right subtree



Trees are everywhere in computer science

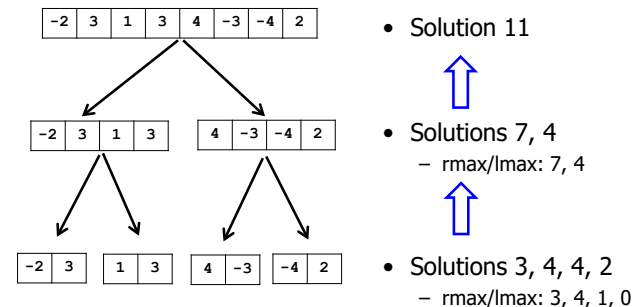
- **Divide-and-conquer** call stacks

- Max-subarray
- Merge-Sort
- QuickSort
- ...

- **XML**

- depth-first vs breadth-first traversal

Example

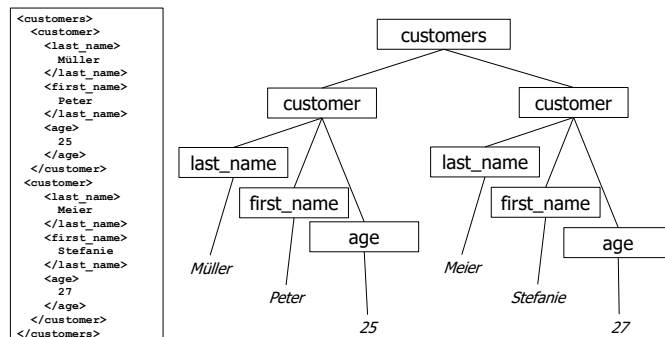


Ulf Leser: Alg&DS, Summer semester 2011

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Data – A Tree

- The data items of an **XML database form a tree**



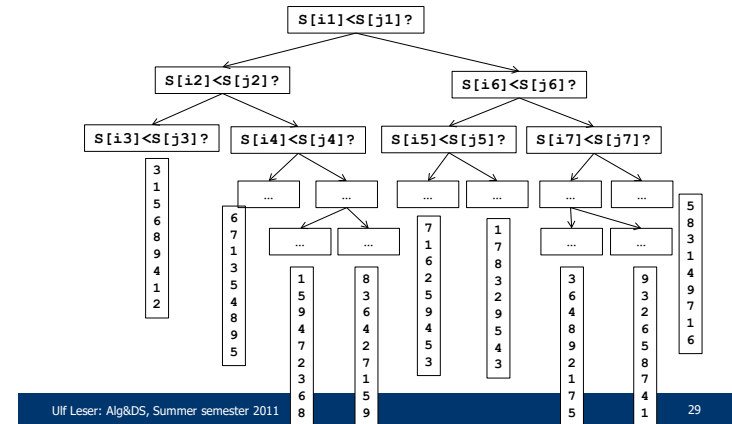
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Already Seen

- Decision trees for proving the lower bound for sorting

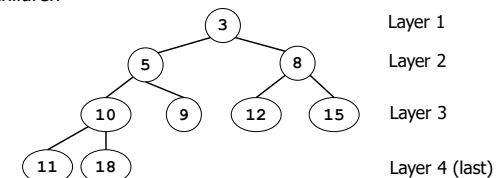
Full Decision Tree



- Heaps for priority queues

Heaps

- Definition
A *heap* is a labeled binary tree for which the following holds
 - Form-constraint (FC): The tree is complete except the last layer
 - I.e.: Every node has exactly two children
 - Heap-constraint (HC): The value of any node is smaller than that of its children

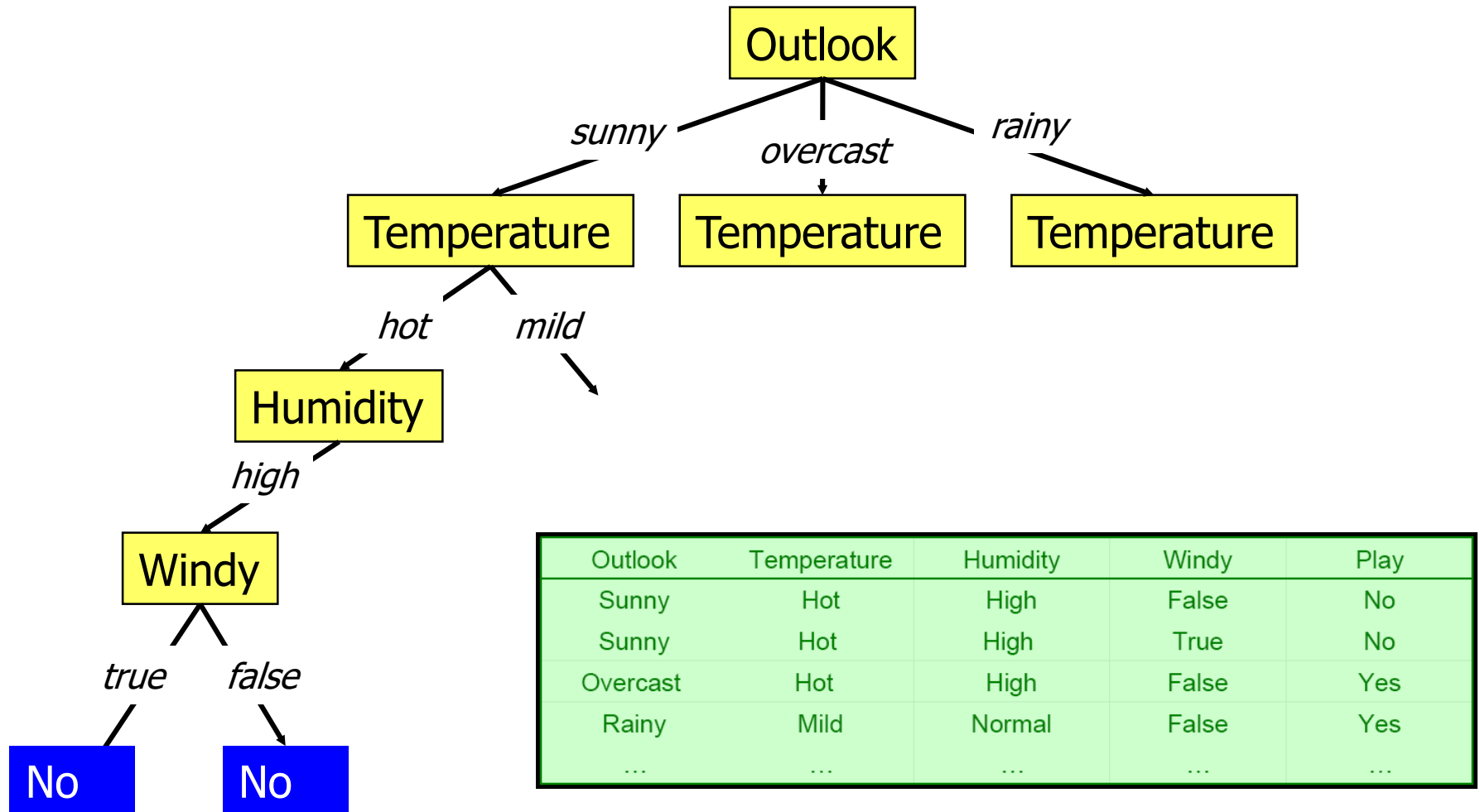


Machine Learning

- Want to go to a football game?
- Might be canceled – depends on the whether
- Let's **learn from examples**

Outlook	Temperature	Humidity	Windy	Play
Sunny	Hot	High	False	No
Sunny	Hot	High	True	No
Overcast	Hot	High	False	Yes
Rainy	Mild	Normal	False	Yes
...

Decision Trees



Many Applications

The decision tree partitions the set of all possible situations based on predefined characteristics (attributes)

Challenge: Which tree leads to the best decisions as soon as possible?

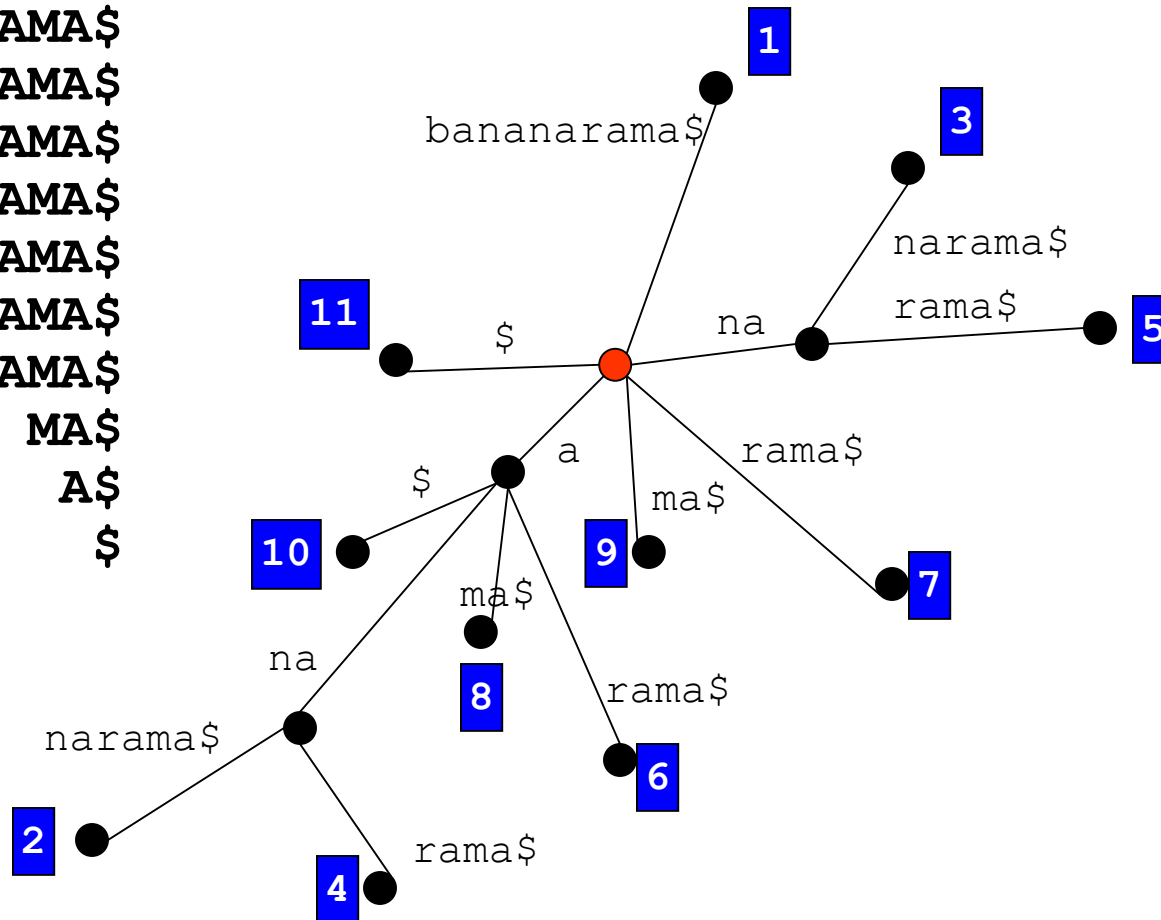
Source: Am J Transplant © 2004 Blackwell

Suffix-Trees

- Recall the problem to find all occurrences of a (short) string P in a (long) string T
- Fastest way ($O(|P|)$): Suffix Trees
 - Look at all suffixes of T (there are $|T|$ many)
 - Construct a tree
 - Every edge is labeled with a letter from T
 - All edges emitting from a node are labeled differently
 - Every path from root to a leaf is uniquely labeled
 - All suffixes of T are represented as leaves
- Every occurrence of P must be the prefix of a suffix of T
- Thus, every occurrence of P must map to a path starting at the root of the suffix tree

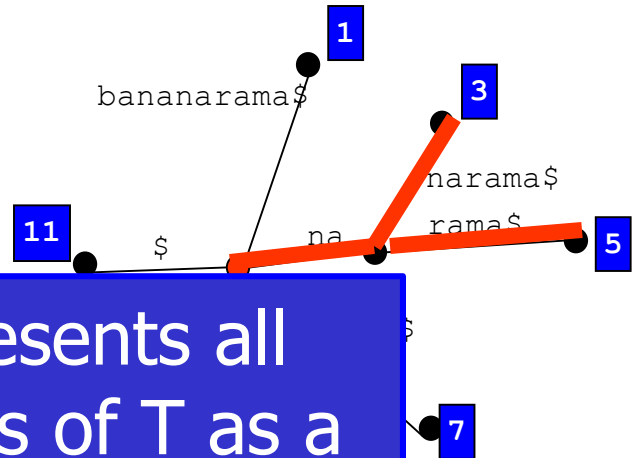
Example

12345678901
BANANARAMA\$
ANANARAMA\$
NANARAMA\$
ANARAMA\$
NARAMA\$
ARAMA\$
RAMA\$
AMA\$
MA\$
A\$
\$



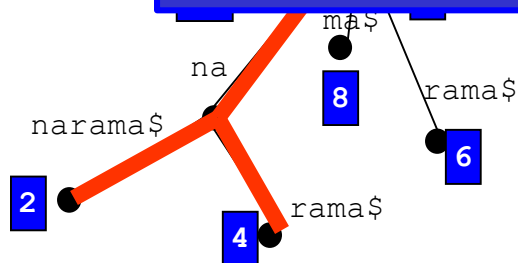
Searching in the Suffix Tree

P = „na“



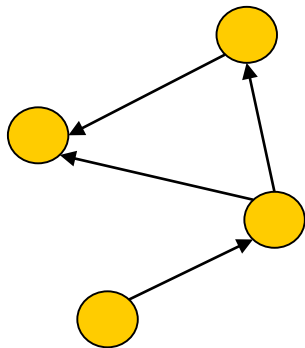
The suffix tree for T represents all common prefixes of suffixes of T as a unique path from root.

Challenge: Construction of a suffix tree in linear time.

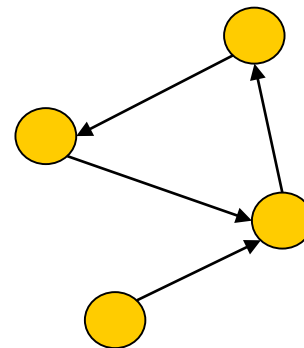


P = „an“

Not Trees

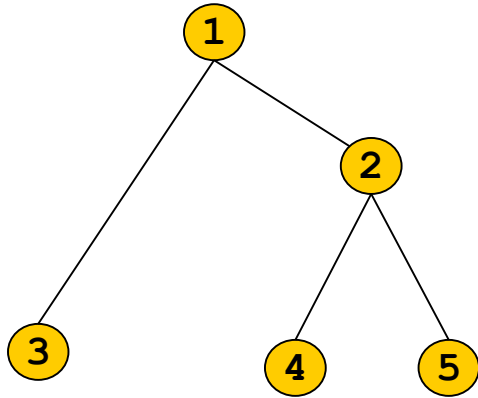


DAG: Directed,
acyclic graph



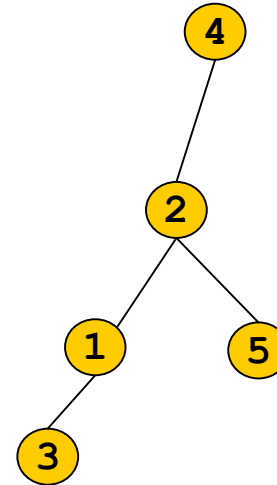
General
(directed) graph

Directed? Single-rooted?



We sometimes draw undirected edges with root at the top and **assume directed edges** from root to leaves

Root: **Only node without** incoming edge



This visual aid is necessary!
Otherwise, roots/leaves are not defined without directed edges

Graphs

- Definition

A *graph* $G=(V, E)$ consists of a set V of vertices (nodes) and a set E of edges ($E \subseteq V \times V$).

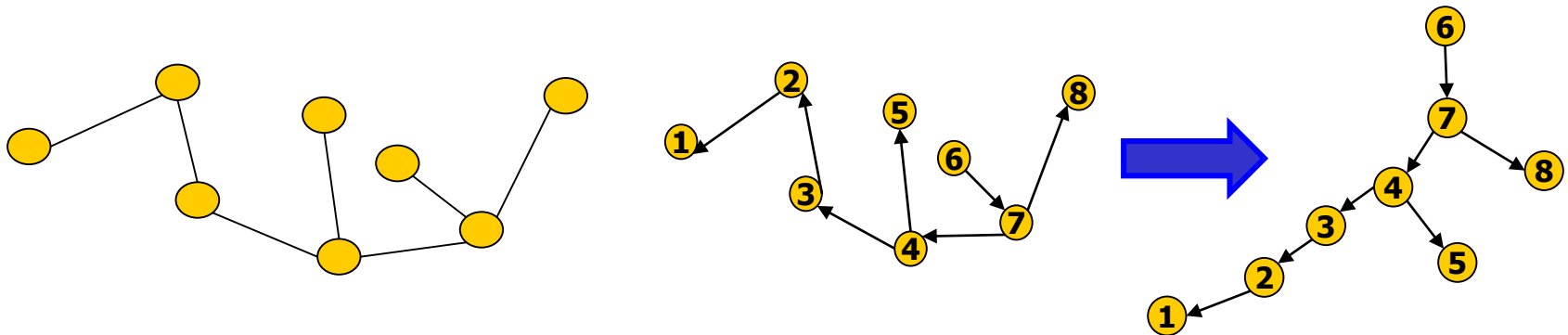
- A sequence of edges e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n is called a *path* iff $\forall 1 \leq i < n-1: e_i = (v_i, v_{i+1})$ and $e_{i+1} = (v_{i+1}, v_{i+2})$
- The *length of a path* e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n is n
- A path $(v_1, v_2), (v_2, v_3), \dots, (v_{n-1}, v_n)$ is *acyclic* iff all v_i are different
- G is *connected* if every pair v_i, v_j is connected by at least one path
- G is *undirected*, if $\forall (v, v') \in E \Rightarrow (v', v) \in E$. Otherwise G is *directed*
- G is *acyclic* if it contains no cyclic path

Let $G=(V, E)$ be a directed graph and let $v, v' \in V$.

- Every edge $(v, v') \in E$ is called *outgoing for* v
- Every edge $(v', v) \in E$ is called *incoming for* v

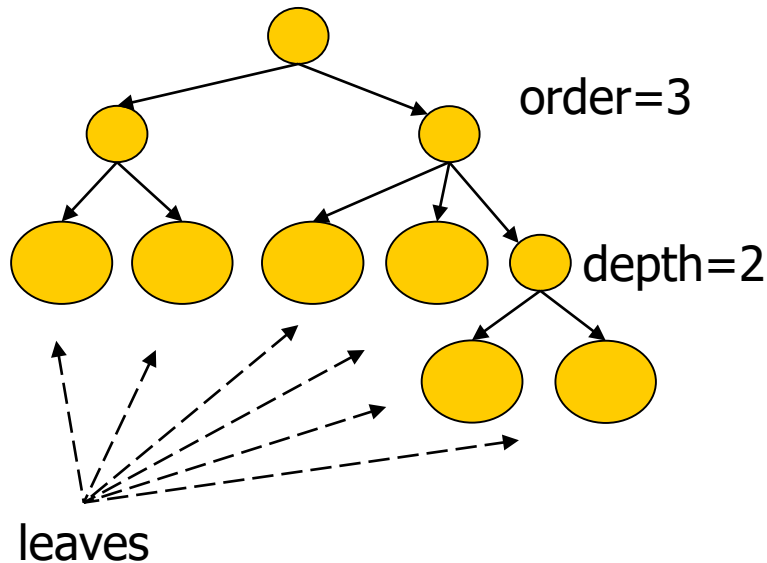
Trees as Connected Graphs

- Definition
 - A undirected connected acyclic graph is called a *undirected tree*
 - A directed connected acyclic graph in which all but one vertex of in-degree 1 and one vertex has in-degree 0 is *called a directed rooted tree*
- From now on: “Tree” means “rooted directed tree”
- Lemma
 - In a tree, there exists exactly one path between root and any other node



Terminology

height=3

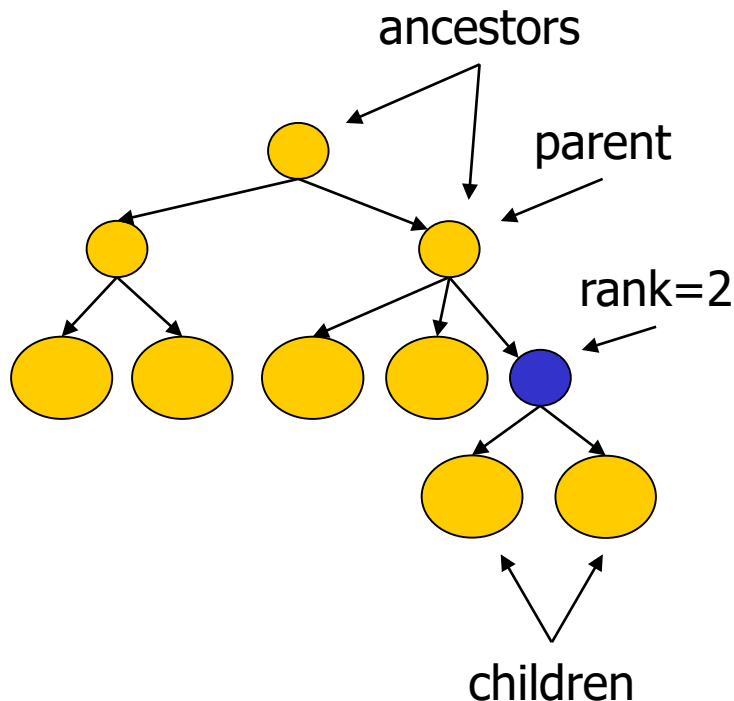


- Definition

Let T be a tree. Then ...

- *A node with no outgoing edge is a **leaf**; other nodes are **inner nodes***
- *The **depth of a node** p is the length of the path from root to p*
- *The **height of T** is the depth of its deepest leaf*
- *The **order of T** is the maximal number of children of its nodes*
- *"Level i " are all nodes at depth i*
- ***T is ordered** if the children of all inner nodes are ordered*

More Terminology

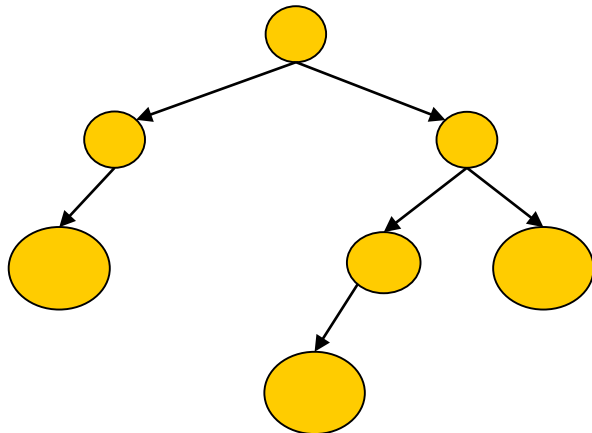
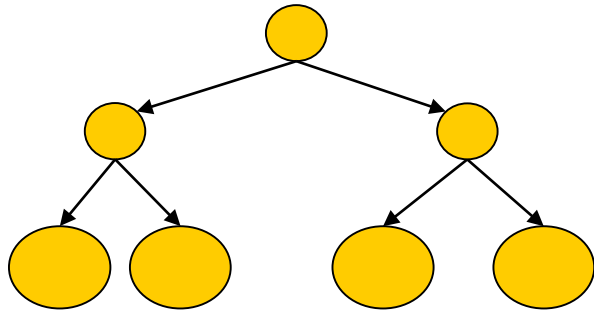


- Definition

Let T be a tree and v a node.

- *All nodes adjacent to an outgoing edge of v are v 's **children***
- *v is called the **parent** of all its children*
- *All nodes on the path from root to v without v are the **ancestors of v***
- *All nodes reachable from v are **its successors***
- *The **rank of a node v** is the number of its children*

Two More Concepts



- Definition
*Let T be a directed tree of order k . T is **complete** if all its inner nodes have rank k and all leaves have the same depth*
- In this lecture, we will mostly consider rooted ordered trees of order two (**binary trees**)

Recursive Definition of Trees

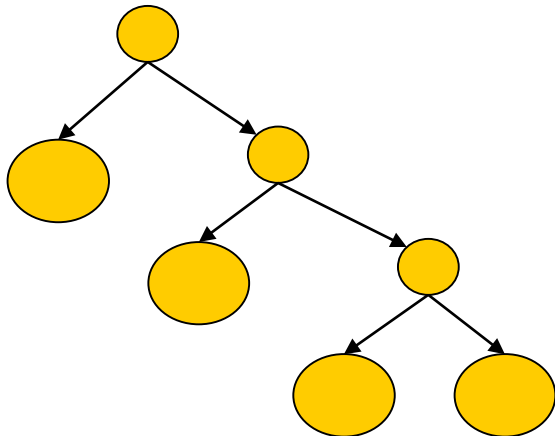
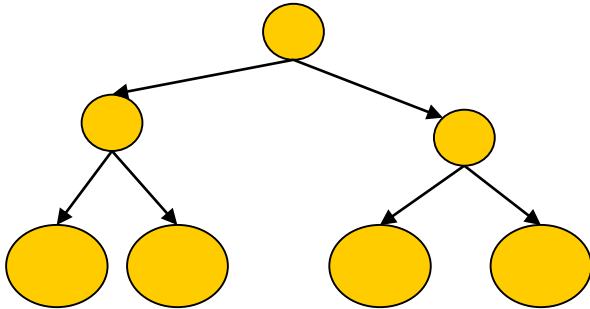
- Will often traverse trees using recursive functions

- Definition

A (binary) tree is a structure defined as follows:

- *A **single node** is a tree with height 0*
- *If T_1 and T_2 are trees, then the structure formed by a **new node v** and edges from v to the root of T_1 and from v to the root of T_2 is a tree*
 - *v is its root*
 - *The height of this tree is $\max(\text{height}(T_1), \text{height}(T_2))+1$;*
- *If T_1 is a tree, then the structure formed by a **new node v and an edge from v to the root of T_1** is a tree*
 - *v is its root*
 - *The height of this tree is $\text{height}(T_1)+1$;*

Some Properties (without proofs)



- Lemma
*Let $T=(V, E)$ be a tree of order k .
Then*
 - $|V|=|E|+1$
 - *If T is complete, T has $k^{\text{height}(T)}$ leaves*
 - *If T is a complete binary tree, T has $2^{\text{height}(T)+1}-1$ nodes*
 - *If T is a binary tree with n leaves, $\text{height}(T) \in [\text{floor}(\log(n)), n-1]$*

Content of this Lecture

- Trees
- Search Trees
 - Definition
 - Searching
 - Inserting
 - Deleting
- Natural Trees

Search Trees

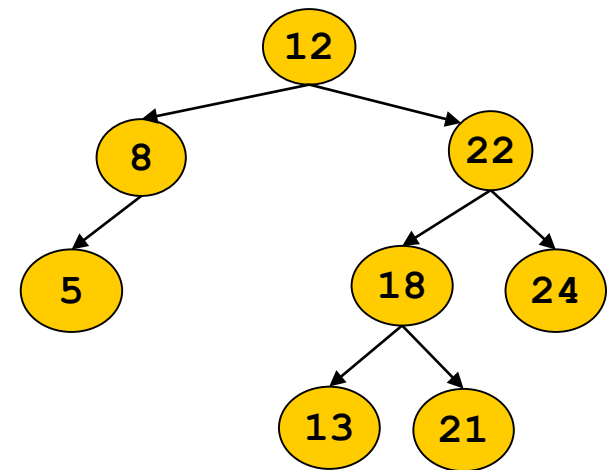
- Definition

A *search tree* $T=(V,E)$ is a rooted binary tree with $n=|V|$ *differently key-labeled* nodes such that $\forall v \in V$:

- $label(v) > \max(label(left_child(v)), label(successors(left_child(v))))$
- $label(v) < \min(label(right_child(v)), label(successors(right_child(v))))$

- Remarks

- For simplicity, we use integer labels
- “node” \sim “label of a node”
- We only consider search trees *without duplicate* keys (easy to change)
- Search trees are used to manage and search a list of keys
- Operations: *search, insert, delete*



Search Trees

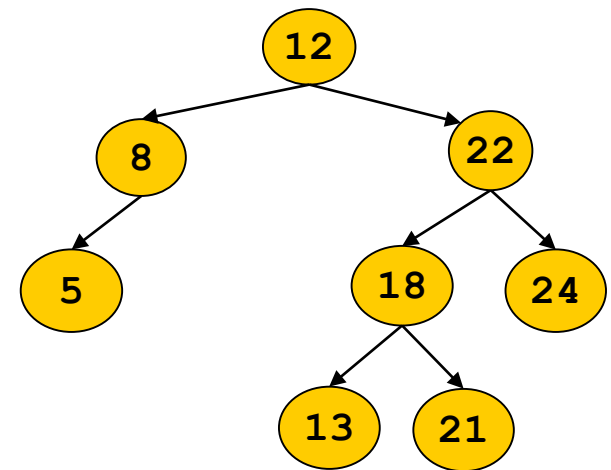
- Definition

A *search tree* $T=(V,E)$ for a set of n unique keys is a labeled binary tree with $|V|=n$ and

- $label(v) > \max(label(left_child(v)), label(successors(left_child(v))))$
- $label(v) < \min(label(right_child(v)), label(successors(right_child(v))))$

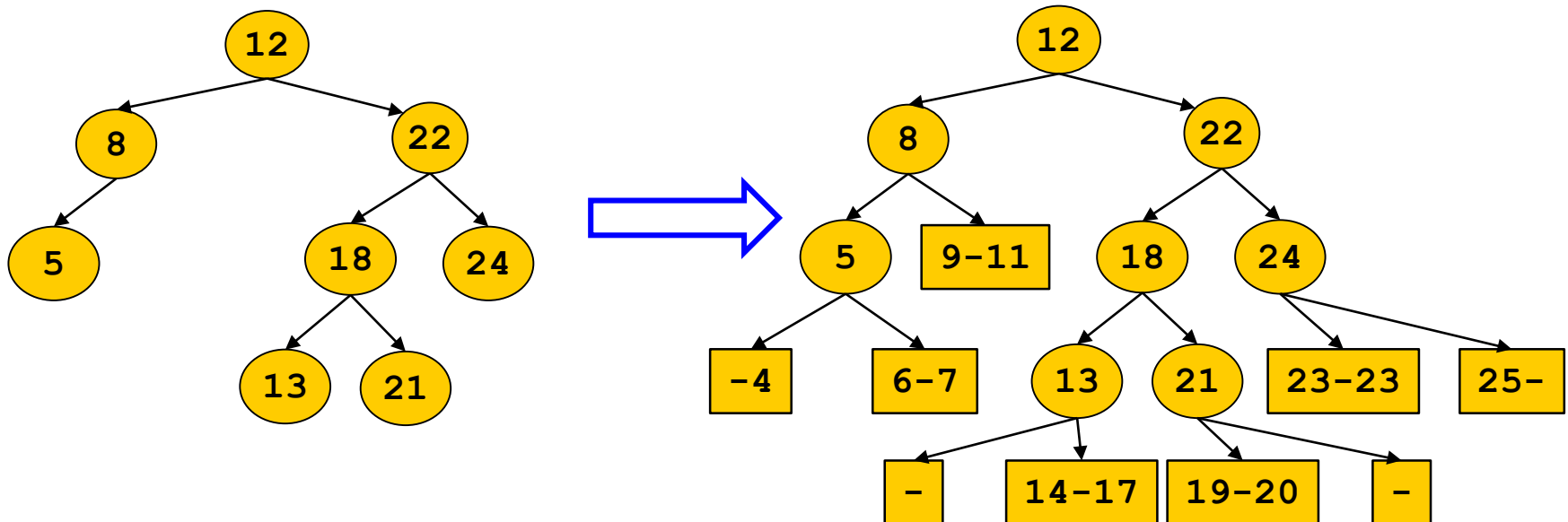
- Remarks

- For simplicity, we use integer labels
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- Search trees are used to manage and search a list of keys
- Operations: *search, insert, delete*



Complete Trees

- Conceptually, we **pad search trees** to full rank in all nodes
 - “padded” leaves are usually neither drawn nor implemented (NULL)
- A “padded” leaf represents the interval of values that **would be** below this node



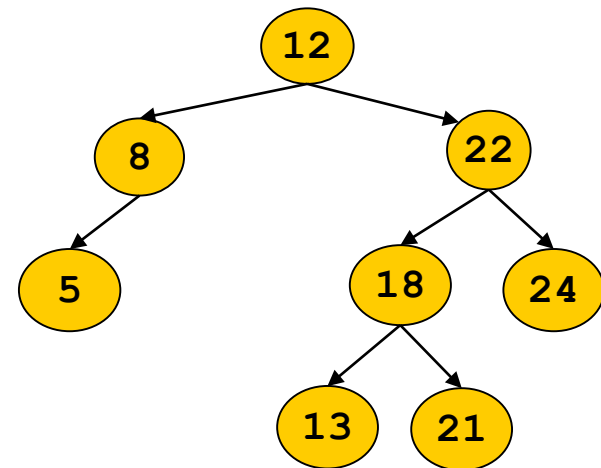
What For?

- For a search tree $T=(V,E)$, we eventually will reach $O(\log(|V|))$ for testing whether $k \in T$ and for inserting and deleting a key
 - First: Average Case of natural trees
 - Next: Worst Case for AVL-Trees
- Compared to binsearch on arrays, search trees are a dynamically growing / shrinking data structure
 - But need to store pointers
 - Complete trees can be easily managed in arrays

Searching

- Searching a key k
 - Comparing k to a node determines whether we have to look further down the **left** or the **right subtree**
 - We stop if $\text{label}(\text{node}) = k$
 - If there is no child left, $k \notin T$
- Complexity
 - In the worst case we need to traverse the **longest path** in T to show $k \notin T$
 - Thus: **$O(|V|)$**
 - Wait a bit ...

```
func node search( T search_tree,  
                  k integer) {  
    v := root(T);  
    while v!=null do  
        if label(v)>k then  
            v := v.left_child();  
        else if label(v)<k then  
            v := v.right_child();  
        else  
            return v;  
        end while;  
    return null;  
}
```

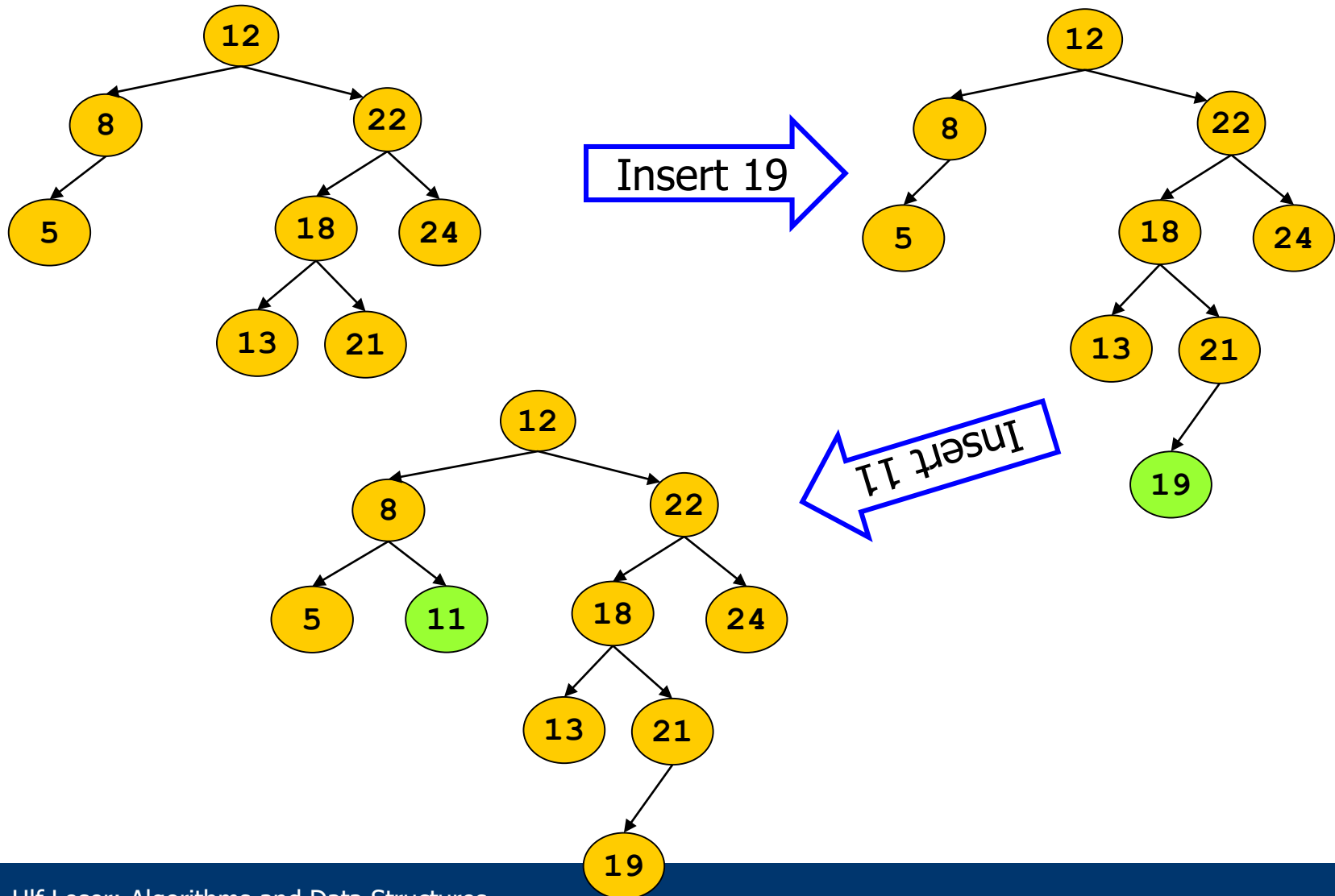


Insertion

```
func bool insert( T search_tree,
                  k integer) {
    v := root(T);
    while v!=null do
        p := v;
        if label(v)>k then
            v := v.left_child();
        else if label(v)<k then
            v := v.right_child();
        else
            return false;
    end while;
    if label(p)>k then
        p.left_child := new node(k);
    else
        p.right_child := new node(k);
    end if;
    return true;
}
```

- First search the new key k
 - If $k \in T$, we do nothing
 - If $k \notin T$, the search must finish at a **null pointer** in a node p
 - A “right pointer” if $\text{label}(p) < k$, otherwise a “left pointer”
- We replace the null with a pointer to a new node k
- Complexity: Same as search

Example

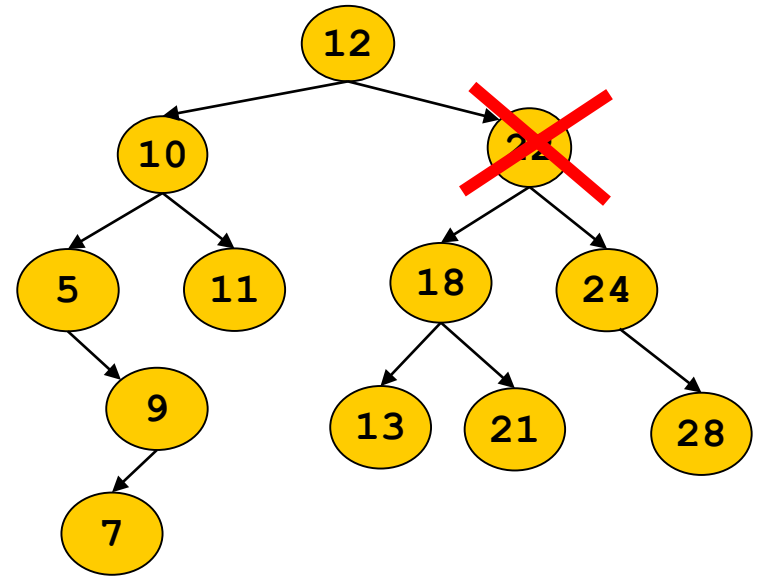


Deletion

- Again, we first search k
- If $k \notin T$, we are done
- Assume $k \in T$. The following situations are possible
 - k is **stored in a leaf**. Then simply remove this leaf
 - k is stored in an inner node q with **only one child**. Then remove q and connect $\text{parent}(q)$ to $\text{child}(q)$
 - k is stored in an inner node q with **two children**. Then ...

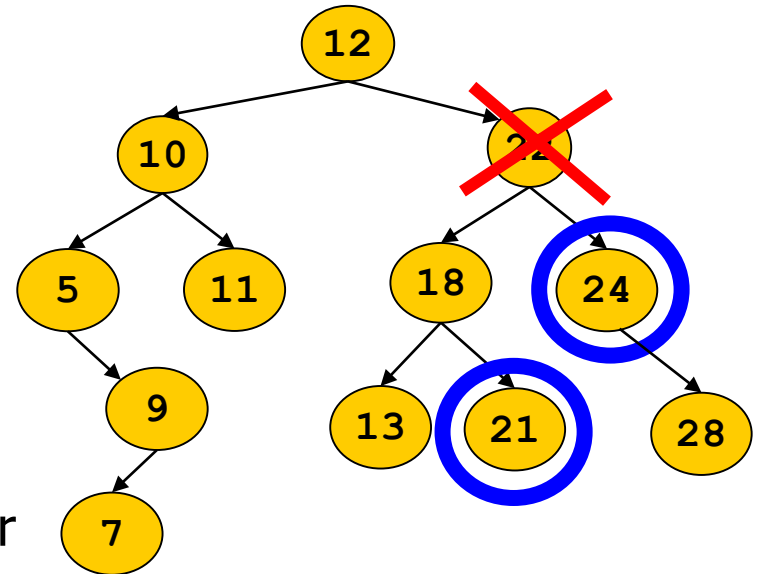
Observations

- We cannot remove q , but we can **replace the label of q** with another label - and remove this node
- We need a node q' which can be removed and whose **label k' can replace k** without hurting the **search tree constraints**
 - $\text{label}(k') > \max(\text{label}(\text{left_child}(k')), \text{label}(\text{successors}(\text{left_child}(k'))))$
 - $\text{label}(k') < \min(\text{label}(\text{right_child}(k')), \text{label}(\text{successors}(\text{right_child}(k'))))$



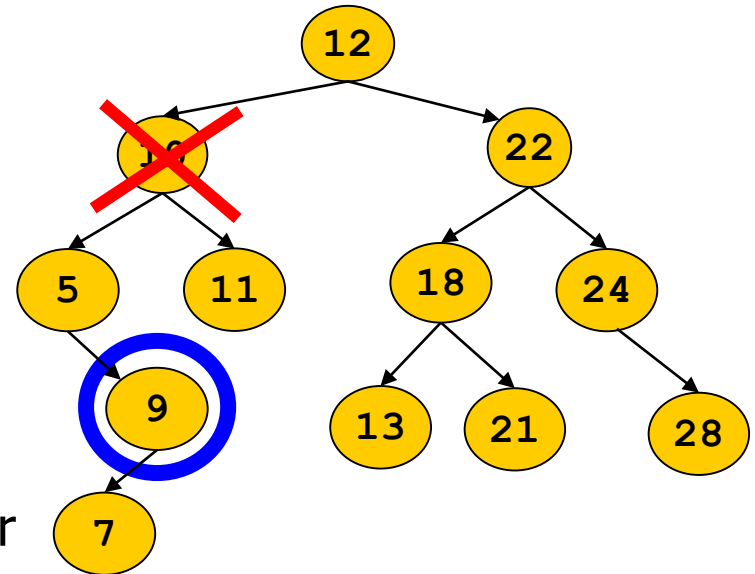
Observations

- Two candidates
 - Largest value in the left subtree
(**symmetric predecessor** of k)
 - Smallest value in the right subtree
(**symmetric successor** of k)
- We can choose any of those
 - Let's use the symmetric predecessor
 - This is either a leaf – no problem

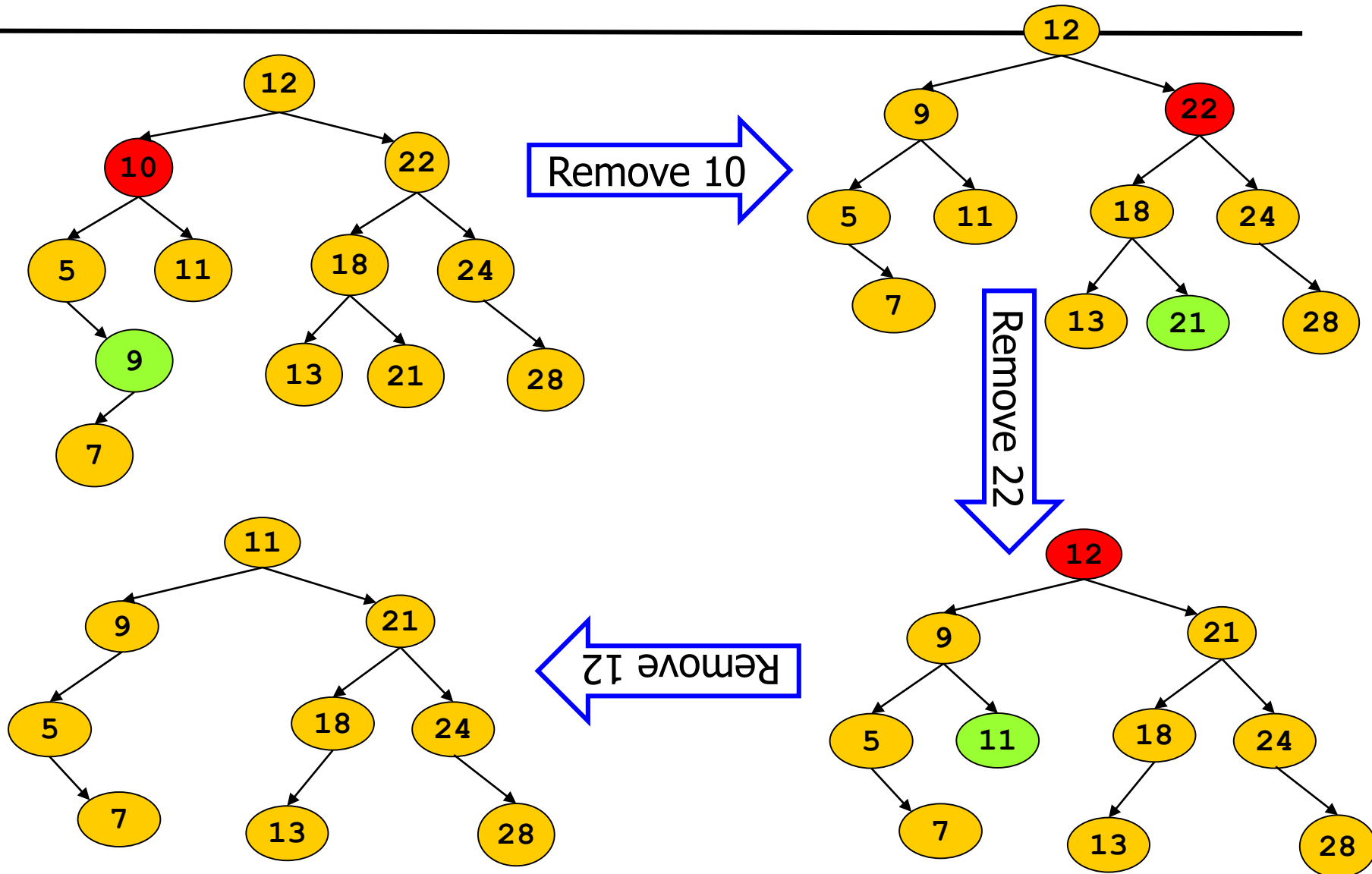


Observations

- Two candidates
 - Largest value in the left subtree (symmetric predecessor of k)
 - Smallest value in the right subtree (symmetric successor of k)
- We can choose any of those
 - Let's use the symmetric predecessor
 - This is either a leaf
 - Or an **inner node**; but since its label is larger than that of all other labels in the left subtree of q, it can only have a left child
 - Thus it is a node with one child - and can be removed easily



Example



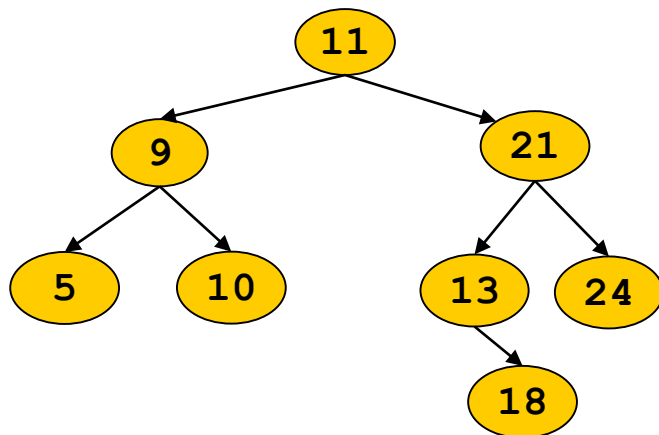
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 - Deleting
- Natural Trees

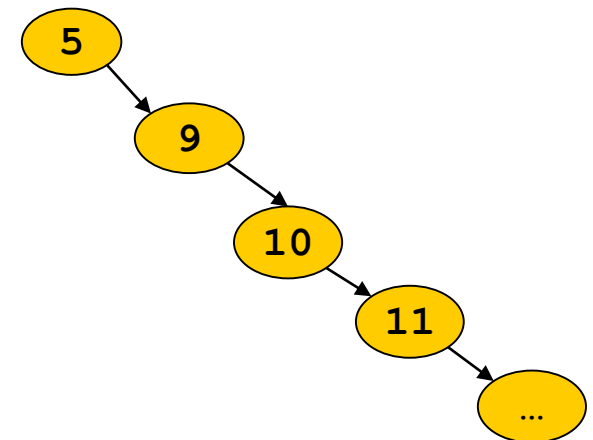
Natural Trees

- A search tree T created by inserting and deleting n keys in **random order** is called a **natural tree**
- As any binary tree, it has $\text{height}(T) \in [n-1, \log(n)]$
- Height depends on **the order in which keys were inserted**
- Example

11,9,10,5,21,13,24,18



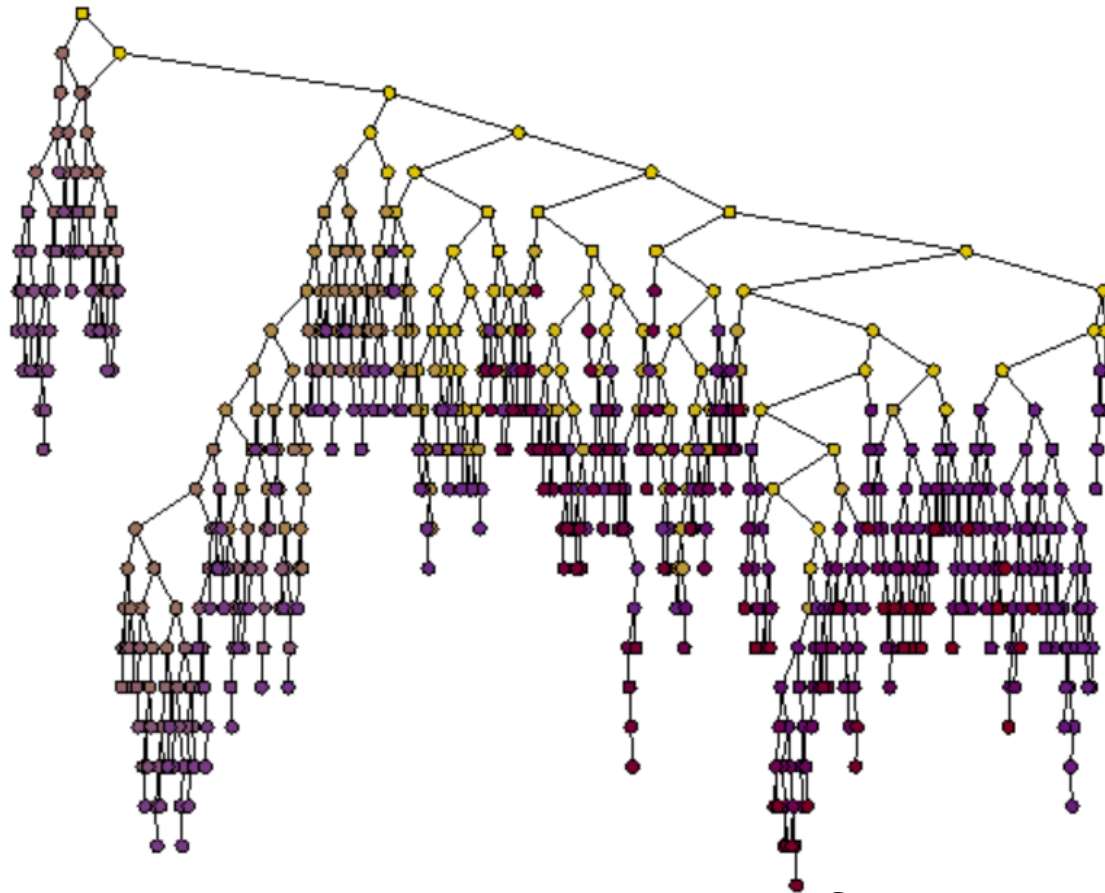
5,9,10,11,13,18,21,24



Average Case

- A natural tree with n nodes has maximal height of $n-1$
- Thus, searching will need $O(n)$ comparisons in worst-case
 - Same for inserting and deleting
- But: Natural trees are not bad on average
 - The average case is $O(\log(n))$
 - More precisely, a natural tree is on average only ~ 1.4 times deeper than the optimal search tree (with height $h \sim \log(n)$)
 - We skip the proof (argue over all possible orders of inserting n keys), because balanced search trees (AVL trees) are $O(\log(n))$ also in worst-case and are not much harder to implement

Example



Source: cg.scs.carleton.ca/

Exemplary Questions

- Construct a natural search tree from the following input, showing all intermediate steps (I: insert; D: delete): I5, I7, I3, I10, D7, I7, I13, I12, D5
- The worst case complexity for inserting/deleting a key into a search tree with $n=|V|$ nodes is $O(n)$. Give an order of the following operations such that this worst case happens for every operation: I5, I7, I3, I10, D7, I7, I13, I12, D5
- For deleting a given key k in a natural search tree, one may need to find the symmetric predecessor (SP) of a key. Define what a SP is, give an algorithm for finding it (starting from k), and analyze its complexity