

BINARY TREE

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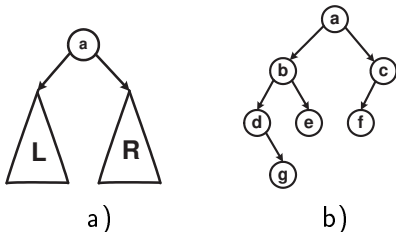
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A set of **binary trees** is recursively defined as:

- ▶ the **empty set** is a binary tree;
- ▶ one **vertex** $a \in D$ is a binary tree;

- if L and R are binary trees, then denote by $T := L * R$ the binary tree obtained by adding an element $a \in D$ connected to the left to L and to the right to R , by adding edges when these sub-trees are non-empty (see a) part of the figure). Then a is the **root** of a tree, L and R are **left and right sub-trees** of the tree T .



An example of a binary tree.

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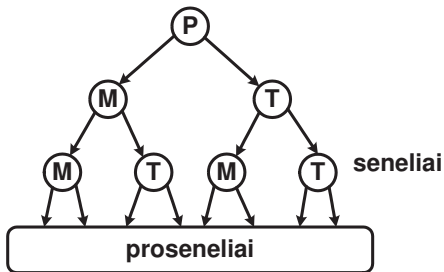
The **height** of a rooted tree is the maximum of the levels of vertices.

We can use a recursive definition. The level of the root vertex is equal to zero.

Then the level of k th-level vertex's children is equal to $(k + 1)$.

Family tree

A family tree, also called a genealogy chart, is a chart representing family relationships in a conventional tree structure (parents, grandparents and great grandparents).



Infix form of mathematical expression saved in a binary tree

Let's consider the following mathematical expression

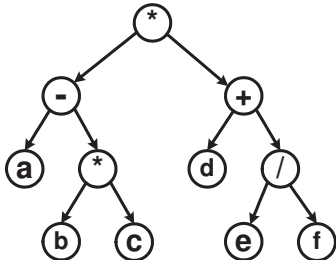
$$(a - b * c) * (d + e / f).$$

Infix form of mathematical expression saved in a binary tree

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We put it into a binary tree

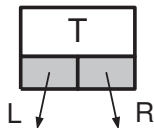


First, we define a basic node (element), it has a **value field** as well as two links (pointers), they point to the left and right sub-trees.

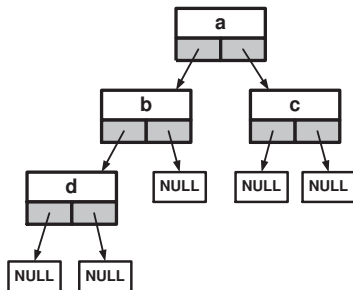
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struct node {  
    T data;  
    node * left;  
    node * right;  
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```
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```



A **binary tree** is a nonlinear structure of nodes, when one node is connected to two or less nodes.



For many important applications it is convenient to add one additional field and one pointer to the structure of the basic node.

This new field is used to store a *key*.

An additional link points to the parent of the node.

```
struct node {  
    T data;  
    int key;  
    node * left;  
    node * right;  
    node * p;  
}
```

As for all data structures we define the following main methods:

- a) **Insert** a new node;
- b) **Remove** a node from the tree;
- c) **Check** if a node with a given key exists;

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- a) **Insert** a new node;
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In the case of **binary trees** we add two more methods, they are very useful in implementation of search trees:

- d) **MINIMUM** – finds a node with a smallest key value;
- e) **SUCCESSOR** – finds a **next** element in a sorted set of elements.

A fully balanced binary tree

It is a general rule that a complexity of most important algorithms depends on the **height of a tree**.

Thus our aim is to control/minimize the growth of the height, when the total number of elements is increasing.

A fully balanced binary tree

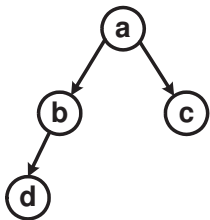
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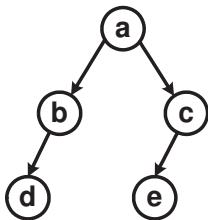
It is important to regulate the construction of left and right subtrees, when new elements are added or removed.

Definition

A tree is called a fully balanced if for any vertex total numbers of elements in the right and left subtrees differ by at most one.



a)



b)

Fully balanced binary trees: a) $N = 4$, b) $N = 5$

Next we present a recursive algorithm for construction of a fully balanced binary tree.

```
node * balancedTree(int N){
    y = NIL;
    if (N == 0) return (NIL);
    nL = N/2; nR = N - nL - 1;
    x = read();
    node * Node = new(node);
    Node.data = x; Node.key = key;
    Node.left = balancedTree(nL);
    Node.right = balancedTree(nR);
    Node.p = y, y = Node;
    return (Node);
}
```

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We consider three important algorithms, they define different orders how vertices of left and right sub-trees are visited.

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Again all three algorithms are **recursive**.

If a mathematical expression is stored in a tree, then these algorithms can print the **prefix**, **infix** and **postfix** forms of the given mathematical expression.

Prefix algorithm

First we visit a root, then vertices of a left sub-tree and finally a right-subtree.

```
preOrder (node* v)
begin
  (1) if (v  $\neq$  NIL ) then
  (2)   P(v);
  (3)   preOrder(v.left);
  (4)   preOrder(v.right);
  end if
end preOrder
```

Infix algorithm

First we visit vertices of a left sub-tree, then a root, and finally vertices of a right-subtree.

```
inOrder (node* v)
begin
  (1) if (v  $\neq$  NIL ) then
  (2)   inOrder(v.left);
  (3)   P(v);
  (4)   inOrder(v.right);
  end if
end inOrder
```

Postfix algorithm

First we visit vertices of a left sub-tree, then a right-subtree and finally a root.

```
postOrder (node* v)
begin
  (1) if (v  $\neq$  NIL ) then
  (2)   postOrder(v.left);
  (3)   postOrder(v.right);
  (4)   P(v);
  end if
end postOrder
```

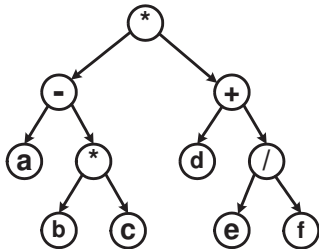

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First we write it into the binary tree:



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Postfix: $abc * -def / + *.$

Binary search tree

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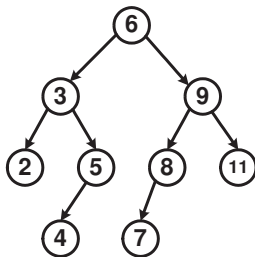
Definition. A binary search tree is a data structure with the key of each internal node being **greater** than all the keys in the respective node's left subtree and **equal or less** than the ones in its right subtree.

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Apply `InOrder(T.root)` method to visit all vertices of a binary search tree T . What conclusion follows from such an experiment?

Yes, we print elements in a `sorted` order, starting with the smallest one and moving to the element with the largest key.

Try to prove that this result is valid for any sorted tree.

Next we solve a problem, which is very popular in applications.
In a **binary search tree** we want to find an element with a key k .
If such element do not exist, then the procedure returns a link to *NIL*.

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Our idea

Start searching from the root node.

Then if the data is less than the key value, search for the element in the left subtree.

Otherwise, search for the element in the right subtree.

Follow the same algorithm for each node.


```
node * Tree_Search(node * x, int k){  
    if (x == NULL || k == x.key) return x;  
    if (k < x.key) return Tree_Search(x.left, k);  
    else  
        return Tree_Search(x.right, k);  
}
```

```
node * Tree_Search(node * x, int k){  
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The structure of this new algorithm is similar to algorithms used to visit all nodes of any binary tree.

In both cases algorithms are [recursive](#).

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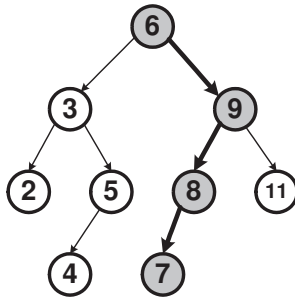
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Still for the search algorithm at each step we select to visit **only one subtree**. The second subtree is **never visited**.

Therefore the complexity of the search algorithm depends only on the height of a binary tree $O(h)$.

We present also an iterative version of the search algorithm. In many cases it can be more efficient than the recursive version.

```
node * Tree_Iterative_Search(node * x, int k){  
    while (x ≠ NILL and k ≠ x.key)  
        if (k < x.key)  
            x = x.left;  
        else  
            x = x.right;  
    return x;  
}
```



Searching for a node with a key value 7. Search algorithm traverses the tree "in-depth", choosing an appropriate way (a left or right subtree).

Test Problems

Make iterative algorithms to implement the following methods of binary search trees:

`Tree_Minimum_Search(node* T.root),`

`Tree_Maximum_Search(node* T.root).`

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Do we need to compare keys of elements?

Insert a new node

We want to insert into binary search tree T a new vertex v . The initial values of all fields are the following:

$$v.key = k, \quad v.left = NIL, \quad v.right = NIL, \quad v.p = NIL.$$

We should guarantee that after insertion the tree T remains to be a **binary search tree**.

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If the tree T is empty, then this new vertex becomes a **root** of T .

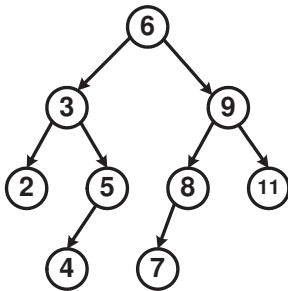
insert (tree T, node* v)

- (1) $y = \text{NIL}, x = T.\text{root}$
- (2) **while** ($x \neq \text{NIL}$)
- (3) $y = x$
- (4) **if** ($v.\text{key} < x.\text{key}$)
- (5) $x = x.\text{left}$
- (6) **else** $x = x.\text{right}$
- (7) $v.p = y$
- (8) **if** ($y == \text{NIL}$)
- (9) $T.\text{root} = v$
- (9) **elseif** ($v.\text{key} < y.\text{key}$)
- (10) $y.\text{left} = v$
- (11) **else** $y.\text{right} = v$

Example 1

Insert the given elements into a new binary search tree:

6, 9, 3, 5, 11, 4, 8, 2, 7.



Delete a vertex

It is more difficult to delete a vertex from T , since the obtained tree should remain a **binary search tree**.

We consider three separate cases:

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1. A leaf node v should be deleted. Then an appropriate link of v parent $w = v.p$ gets the value NIL :

$w = v.p$

if ($T.root == v$) $T.root = NIL$

else

 if ($v.key < w.key$) $w.left = NIL$

 else $w.right = NIL$

$delete(v)$

2. We want to delete a vertex v , which has one child. Then an appropriate link of the parent $w = v.p$ points to the child of v :

$w = v.p$

if ($v.left == NIL$) $c = v.right$

else $c = v.left$

if ($T.root == v$) $T.root = c$

else

$c.p = w$

if ($v.key < w.key$) $w.left = c$

else $w.right = c$

$delete(v)$

3. We want to delete a vertex v , which has two children.

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The first algorithm finds the smallest element in the right sub-tree of v :

```
node * Tree_Right_Minimum(node * x){  
    y = x.right  
    s = y  
    while ( y ≠ NIL )  
        s = y  
        y = y.left  
    return s  
}
```

Then a vertex v is deleted by applying the following algorithm (first we check if the smallest element defines the right side child of v):

```
s = Tree_Right_Minimum(v)
```

```
w = v.p, z = s.p
```

```
if (z ≠ v)
```

```
    z.left = s.right
```

```
    s.right = v.right
```

```
s.left = v.left
```

```
if (v.key < w.key)
```

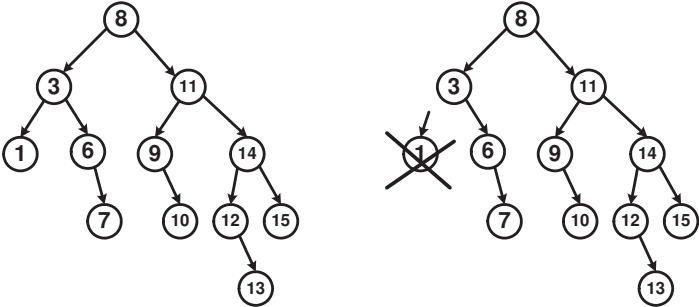
```
    w.left = s
```

```
else
```

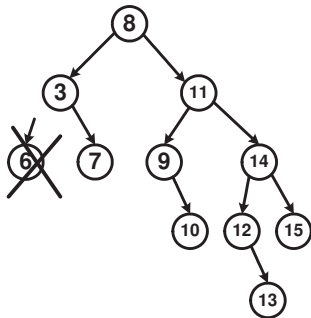
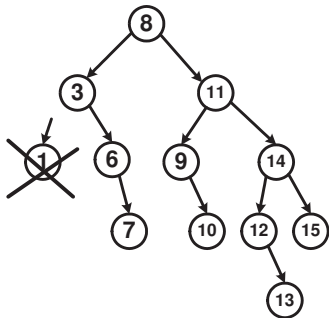
```
    w.right = s
```

```
delete(v)
```

Let us delete a leaf vertex $v.key = 1$.



Next we delete a vertex which has one child $v.key = 6$.



Finally we delete a vertex with two children $v.key = 11$.

