# CS213/293 Data Structure and Algorithms 2025

Lecture 5: Tree

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Let us study

# tree data structure,

which will help us solving many problems including the problem of dictionary.

Commentary: The purpose of programs is to solve problems. We need not invent a data structure until we have a purpose. The purpose will be clarified by the next

# Topic 5.1

Tree



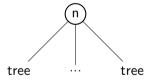
### Tree

#### Definition 5.1

A tree is either a node



or the following structure consisting of a node and a set of children trees that are disjoint.



The above is our first recursive definition.

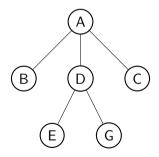
### Exercise 5.1

Does the above definition include infinite trees? How would you define an infinite tree?

# Example: tree

### Example 5.1

An instance of tree.



# Some tree terminology(2)

For nodes  $n_1$  and  $n_2$  in a tree T.

### Definition 5.2

 $n_1$  is child of  $n_2$  if  $n_1$  is immediately below  $n_2$ . We write  $n_1 \in children(n_2)$ .

### Definition 5.3

We say  $n_2$  is parent of  $n_1$  if  $n_1 \in children(n_2)$  and write  $parent(n_1) = n_2$ . If there is no such  $n_2$ , we write  $parent(n_1) = Null$ .

### Definition 5.4

 $n_1$  is ancestor of  $n_2$  if  $n_1 \in parent^*(n_2)$ . We write  $n_1 \in ancestors(n_2)$ .  $n_2$  is descendant of  $n_1$  if  $n_1 \in ancestor(n_2)$ . We write  $n_2 \in descendants(n_1)$ .

**Commentary:** For a function f(x), we define  $f^*(x) = \{y | y = f(...f(x))\}$ , i.e., the function is applied 0 or more times (informal definition). What would be a mathematically

formal definition?

# Some tree terminology

### Definition 5.5

 $n_1$  and  $n_2$  are siblings if  $parent(n_1) = parent(n_2)$ .

### Definition 5.6

 $n_1$  is a leaf if  $children(n_1) = \emptyset$ .

 $n_1$  is an internal node if  $children(n_1) \neq \emptyset$ .

### Definition 5.7

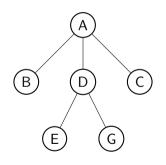
 $n_1$  is a root if  $parent(n_1) = Null$ .

### Exercise 5.2

Can the root be an internal node? Can the root be a leaf?

# Example: Tree terminology

### Example 5.2



B, D, and C are children of A.

D is the parent of G.

A is an ancestor of G and E is a descendant of A.

A is an ancestor of A.

G and E are siblings.

B, E, G, and C are leaves.

A and D are internal nodes.

A is the root.

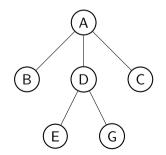
# Degree of nodes

### Definition 5.8

We define the degree of a node n as follows.

$$degree(n) = |children(n)|$$

### Example 5.3



$$degree(A) = 3$$

$$degree(B) = 0$$

$$degree(D) = 2$$

### Label of tree

Usually, we store data on the tree nodes.

We define the label(n) of a node n as the data stored on the node.

# Level/Depth and height of nodes

### Definition 5.9

We define the level/depth of a node n as follows.

$$\mathit{level}(\mathit{n}) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \mathit{n} \text{ is a root} \\ \mathit{level}(\mathit{n}') + 1 & \mathit{n}' = \mathit{parent}(\mathit{n}) \end{cases}$$

### Definition 5.10

We define the height of a node n as follows.

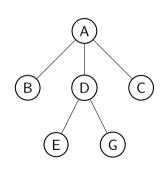
$$\textit{height}(\textit{n}) = \textit{max}(\{\textit{height}(\textit{n}') + 1 | \textit{n}' \in \textit{children}(\textit{n})\} \cup \{0\})$$

### Exercise 5.3

Why do we need to take a union with 0 in the definition of height?

# Example: Level(Depth) and height of nodes

### Example 5.4



$$level(A) = 0$$

$$level(E) = 2$$

level(B) = 1

$$height(E) = 0$$

$$height(D) = 1$$

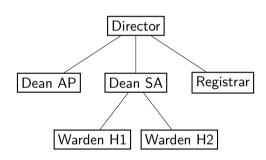
$$\begin{aligned} \textit{height}(A) &= \textit{max}(\{\textit{height}(B) + 1,\\ \textit{height}(D) + 1,\\ \textit{height}(C) + 1\} \cup \{0\}) \\ &= \textit{max}(\{1,2,1\} \cup \{0\}) = 2 \end{aligned}$$

### Why do we need trees?

A tree represents a hierarchy.

### Example 5.5

▶ Organization structure of an organization

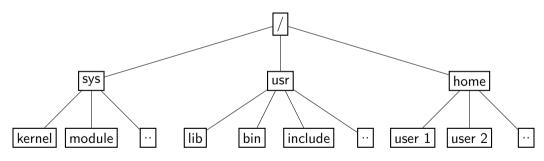


### Example: File system

Files are stored in trees in Linux/Windows.

### Example 5.6

Part of a Linux file system.



Topic 5.2

Binary tree



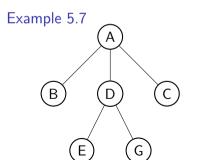
### Ordered tree

#### Definition 5.11

A tree is an ordered tree if we assign an order among children.

#### Definition 5.12

Let n be a node. In an ordered tree, children(n) is a list instead of a set.



In a tree, we define the children as follows.  $children(A) = \{B, D, C\}$ 

In an ordered tree, we define the children as follows. children(A) = [B, D, C]

# Binary tree

#### Definition 5.13

An ordered tree T is a binary tree if  $|children(n)| \le 2$  for each  $n \in T$ .

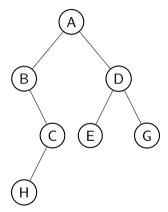
We define the left and right child of n as follows.

- ightharpoonup if  $children(n) = [n_1, n_2]$ ,
  - ightharpoonup left(n) =  $n_1$  and right(n) =  $n_2$ .
- ▶ If  $children(n) = [n_1]$ ,  $n_1$  is either left or right child.
  - ightharpoonup left(n) =  $n_1$  and right(n) = Null, or
  - ightharpoonup left(n) = Null and right(n) =  $n_1$ .
- ▶ If children(n) = [],
  - ightharpoonup left(n) = Null and right(n) = Null.

**Commentary:** For a mathematical nerd, the given definition of left/right child is not satisfactory. How can we interpret  $children(n) = [n_1]$  in two possible ways? In the next slide, we give a more formal definition.

### Example: binary tree

### Example 5.8



E is the left and G is the right child of D. C is the right child of B. B has no left child.

# Binary tree (alternative definition)

There is an alternative, more formal, way to define the binary tree. We may say that there are "Null" nodes, which are the leaves.

#### Definition 5.14

An ordered tree T is a binary tree if  $|children(n)| \in \{0,2\}$  for each  $n \in T$ .

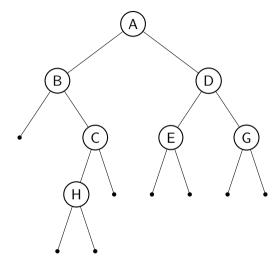
- ▶ If |children(n)| = 0, the n is a null node and has no label and we say n = Null (usually not drawn!).
- If |children(n)| = 2, We define the left and right child of n as follows. If  $children(n) = [n_1, n_2]$ ,  $left(n) = n_1$  and  $right(n) = n_2$ .

By the above definition, all internal nodes will have two children. We will write either  $children(n) = [Null, n_1]$  or  $children(n) = [n_1, Null]$  to express single child. Hence, we will have a clean definition of left and right child. For a leaf n, we will have children(n) = [Null, Null].

Commentary: Please note that if we consider null-nodes then the height of the tree increases by one. There the subsequent discussion may cause confusion when we talk

# Example: binary tree with null nodes

Example 5.9

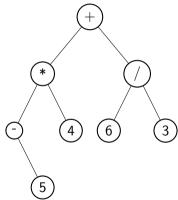


This issue will come up again in Red-Black tree. Meanwhile, we assume there are no null nodes.

# Usage of binary tree: representing expressions

### Example 5.10

Representing mathematical expressions



### Exercise 5.4

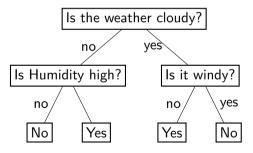
- a. Why do we need an ordered tree?
- b. How would you evaluate a mathematical expression given as a binary tree?

### Usage of binary tree: decision trees in Al

### Example 5.11

Do you want to play outside given the weather?

Given the behavior, we may learn the following tree.



# Complete binary tree (aka perfect binary tree)

Example 5.12

Commentary: Some sources define the complete trees differently, where they allow last level to be not filled and all nodes are as left as possible. They also define full and balanced trees. Do an internet search.

### Definition 5.15

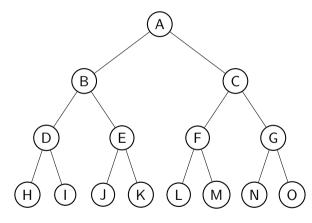
# A binary tree is complete if the height of the root is h and every level $i \le h$ has $2^i$ nodes.

Leaves are only at level h.

The number of leaves  $=2^h$ .

Number of internal nodes  $= 1 + 2 + \dots + 2^{h-1}$  $= 2^h - 1$ .

The total number of nodes is  $2^{h+1} - 1$ .



### Exercise 5.5

a. Prove/Disprove: if no node in the binary tree has a single child, the binary tree is complete.

b. What fraction of nodes are leaves in a complete binary tree?

# Maximum and minimum height of a binary tree

### Exercise 5.6

Let us suppose there are n nodes in a binary tree.

- ▶ What is the minimum height of the tree?
- ▶ What is the maximum height of the tree?

**Commentary:** For a given height h, a complete binary tree has  $2^{h+1}-1$  nodes. All other binary trees with the height h have fewer nodes. Therefore,  $n \le 2^{h+1}-1$ . Therefore,  $\log_2 \frac{n+1}{2} \le h$ . The maximum possible height for n nodes is n-1. Therefore,  $\log_2 \frac{n+1}{2} \le h \le n-1$ .

### Leaves of binary tree

#### Theorem 5.1

For a binary tree,  $|\text{leaves}| \le 1 + |\text{internal nodes}|$ .

### Proof.

We will prove the theorem by induction over the structure of a tree (Recall the recursive definition of a tree).

#### Base case:

(n)

We have a single node.

 $|\mathit{leaves}| = 1$  and  $|\mathsf{internal}| = 0$ . Case holds.

Commentary: |A| indicates the size of set A.

# Leaves of binary tree(2)

### Proof(continued).

### Induction step:

We have two cases in the induction step: Root has one child or two children.

#### Case 1:

Let tree T be constructed as follows.



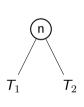
For  $T_1$ , let  $|leaves| = \ell_1$  and  $|internal\ nodes| = i_1$ . T has  $\ell_1$  leaves and  $i_1+1$  internal nodes. By the induction hypothesis,  $\ell_1 \leq 1+i_1$ . Therefore,  $\ell_1 \leq 1+i_1+1$ . Therefore,  $\ell_1 \leq 1+(i_1+1)$ . Case holds.

# Leaves of binary tree(3)

Proof(continued).

### Case 2:

Let tree T be constructed as follows.



For  $T_1$ , let  $|\textit{leaves}| = \ell_1$  and  $|\textit{internal nodes}| = i_1$ . For  $T_2$ , let  $|\textit{leaves}| = \ell_2$  and  $|\textit{internal nodes}| = i_2$ . T has  $\ell_1 + \ell_2$  leaves and  $i_1 + i_2 + 1$  internal nodes. By induction hypothesis,  $\ell_1 \leq 1 + i_1$  and  $\ell_2 \leq 1 + i_2$ . Therefore, we have  $\ell_1 + \ell_2 \leq 2 + i_1 + i_2$ . Therefore,  $\ell_1 + \ell_2 \leq 1 + (i_1 + i_2 + 1)$ . Case holds.

#### Exercise 5.7

 ${\sf Prove/Disprove:} \ \ {\sf If no node in the binary tree \ has a single \ child, \ |leaves|=1+|internal \ nodes|.}$ 

@(I)(S)(D)

# Maximum and minimum number of leaves

Let n be the number of nodes in a binary tree T.

Due to the previous theorem, we know |leaves|  $< 1 + |internal\ nodes|$ .

Since |leaves| + |internal nodes| = n,  $|\text{leaves}| \le 1 + n - |\text{leaves}|$ .

$$|\mathsf{leaves}| \leq \frac{(n+1)}{2}$$
.

### Exercise 5.8

- a. When do |leaves| meet the inequality?
- b. When is the number of leaves minimum?

Topic 5.3

Representing Tree



### Container for tree

There is no C++ container for the tree.

Trees are the backbone of many abstract data structures.

For some reason, it is not explicitly there.

### Exercise 5.9

Why is there no tree container in C++ STL? (Let us ask ChatGPT)

Commentary: I guess that we rarely explicitly need trees in our programming. We usually have higher goals such as stack, queue, set, and map, which may need a tree as an internal data structure, but users need not be exposed. However, there are applications where there is a clear need for trees. For example, the representation of arithmetic expressions. In my programming, whenever I needed a tree. I have implemented it myself.

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# Representation of a binary tree on a computer

Commentary: parent pointer causes cycle of pointers, which makes the garbage collection difficult in the languages like Java. In C++, we may break the cycle by using weak pointers. Please investigate how the problem is solved in Java and Python.

### Definition 5.16

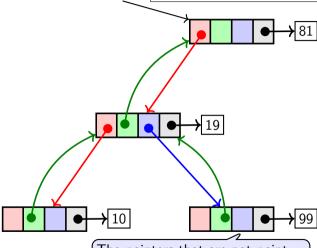
A binary tree consists of nodes containing four pointer fields.

- ► left child
- parent
- right child
- label

An additional root pointer points to the root of the tree.

### Exercise 5.10

Do we need the parent pointer?



root

The pointers that are not pointing anywhere are NULL.

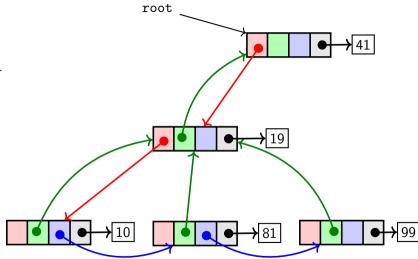
# Representation of a tree on a computer

### Definition 5.17

A tree consists of nodes containing four pointer fields.

- ▶ first child
- parent
- next sibling
- label

An additional root pointer points to the root of the tree.



### Exercise 5.11

Are we representing an ordered tree or an unordered tree?

Topic 5.4

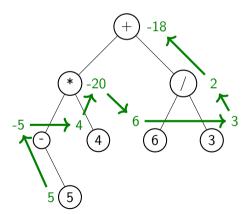
Tree walks



# Application: Evaluating an expression

### Example 5.13

If we want to evaluate an expression represented as a binary tree, we need to visit each node and evaluate the expression in a certain order.



In green, we have evaluated the value of the node. The path indicates the order of evaluation.

### Tree walks

Visiting nodes of a tree in a certain order are called tree walks.

There are two kinds of walks for trees.

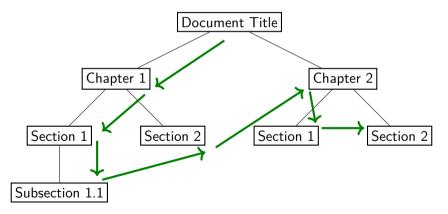
preorder: visit parent first

postorder: visit children first

### Example: preorder

### Example 5.14

Let a document be stored as a tree. We read the document in preorder.



## Preorder/Postorder walk

### **Algorithm 5.1:** PreOrderWalk(n)

- 1 visit(n);
- 2 for  $n' \in children(n)$  do
- 3 PreOrderWalk(n');

### **Algorithm 5.2:** PostOrderWalk(n)

- 1 for  $n' \in children(n)$  do
- 2 PostOrderWalk(n');
- 3 visit(n);

The first example of expression evaluation is postorder walk.

### Walking on ordered tree

How do we walk on an ordered tree?

For an ordered tree, we may visit children in the given order among siblings.

We may have choices to change the order of visits among ordered siblings.

## Topic 5.5

Walking binary trees



## Preorder/Postorder walk over binary trees

We have more structure in binary trees. Let us write the algorithm for walks again.

### Algorithm 5.3: PreOrderWalk(n)

- 1 if n == Null then
- return
- 3 visit(n);
- 4 PreOrderWalk(left(n));
- 5 PreOrderWalk(right(n));

### **Algorithm 5.4:** PostOrderWalk(n)

- 1 if n == Null then
- 2 return
- 3 PostOrderWalk(left(n));
- 4 PostOrderWalk(right(n));
- 5 visit(n);

#### Exercise 5.12

Are the above programs tail-recursive?

## Inorder walk of binary trees

#### Definition 5 18

In an inorder walk of a binary tree, we visit the node after visiting the left subtree and before visiting the right subtree.

# **Algorithm 5.5:** InOrderWalk(n)

- 1 if n == Nu/l then
- return
- 3 InOrderWalk(left(n));
- 4 visit(n):
- 5 InOrderWalk(right(n));

#### Exercise 5.13

Given complete binary trees with 7 nodes, label the nodes such that the preorder, inorder, or postorder walks produce the sequence 1.2.....7.

## Application: Printing an expression

To print an expression (without unary minus), we need to visit the nodes in inorder.

```
Algorithm 5.6: PrintExpression(n)
1 if n is leaf then
    print(label(n));
     return
4 print("(");
5 PrintExpression(left(n));
6 print(label(n));
7 PrintExpression(right(n));
                                              ((5 * 4) + (6 / 3))
8 print(")");
```

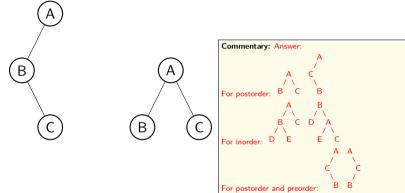
#### Exercise 5.14

- a. Modify the above algorithm to support unary minus.
- b. What will happen if "if" at line 1 is replaced by "if n == NULL then return"?

Commentary: The order of the walk is the pattern of recursive calls and actions on nodes. An application may need a mixed action pattern. In the above printing example, we need to print parentheses before and after making recursive calls. The parentheses are printed pre/post-order. All three walks are present in the above algorithm.

### Many trees have the same walks

The following two ordered trees have the same preorder walks.



#### Exercise 5.15

- a. Give two binary trees that have the same postorder walks.
- b. Give two binary trees that have the same inorder walks.
- c. Give two binary trees that have the same postorder and preorder walks.

Topic 5.6

Tutorial problems



### Exercise: paths in a tree

#### Exercise 5.16

Given a tree with a maximum number of children as k. We give a label between 0 and k-1 to each node with the following simple rules. (i) the root is labeled 0. (ii) For any vertex v, suppose that it has r children, then arbitrarily label the children as 0,...,r-1. This completes the labeling. For such a labeled tree T, and a vertex v, let seq(v) be the labels of the vertices of the path from the root to v. Let  $Seq(T) = \{seq(w)|winT\}$  be the set of label sequences. What properties does Seq(T) have? If a word w appears what words are guaranteed to appear in Seq(T)? How many times does a word w appear as a prefix of some words in Seq(T)?

## Lowest common ancestor(LCA)

#### Definition 5.19

For two nodes  $n_1$  and  $n_2$  in a tree T,  $LCA(n_1, n_2, T)$  is a node in  $ancestors(n_1) \cap ancestors(n_2)$  that has the largest level.

#### Exercise 5.17

Write a function that returns lca(v, w, T). What is the time complexity of the program?

### Exercise: paths in a tree

#### Exercise 5.18

Given  $n \in T$ , Let f(n) be a vector, where f(n)[i] is the number of nodes at depth i from n.

- ightharpoonup Give a recursive equation for f(n).
- ▶ Give a pseudo code to compute the vector f(root(T)). How is the time complexity of the program?

The uniqueness of walks if two walks are the same.

#### Exercise 5.19

Give an algorithm for reconstructing a binary tree if we have the preorder and inorder walks.

#### Exercise 5.20

Let us suppose all internal nodes of a binary tree have two children. Give an algorithm for reconstructing the binary tree if we have the preorder and postorder walks.

Topic 5.7

**Problems** 



#### True or False

#### Exercise 5.21

Mark the following statements True / False and also provide justification.

- 1. Any two out of the three traversals (preorder,inorder,postorder) can be used to construct a unique binary tree.
- A binary tree is an ordered tree.
- 3. Evaluating an arithmetic expression stored in a tree needs preorder walk.
- 4. The height of binary tree is always smaller than the number of nodes in the tree.
- 5. The preorder walk takes  $O(\log n)$  time on a binary tree with n nodes.

## Exercise: Tree to binary tree (midsem 2025)

#### Exercise 5.22

The binary tree representation of general ordered trees is defined as follows. The tree containing only the root node is represented by the empty binary tree. For every non-root node i in the tree, there is a corresponding node b(i) in the binary tree. The left child of b(i) is the node b(j) where j is the first child of i, if it exists, otherwise b(i) has no left child. The right child of b(i) is the node b(k), where k is the right sibling of i, that is the next node having the same parent as i. Write an efficient algorithm to compute the binary tree representation of a given tree and vice versa. Assume any suitable implementation of trees and binary trees.

#### Exercise: mean level

#### Exercise 5.23

- a. Suppose that you are given a binary tree, where, for any node v, the number of children is no more than 2. We want to compute the mean of ht(v), i.e., the mean level of nodes in T. Write a program to compute the mean level.
- b. Suppose that we are given the level of all leaves in the tree. Can we compute the mean height? Given a sequence  $(n_1, n_2, ..., n_k)$  of the levels of k leaves, is there a binary tree with exactly k leaves at the given levels?

## Reconstructing tree from preorder walks

#### Exercise 5.24

Let us suppose we can calculate the number of children of a node by looking at the label of a node of a binary tree, e.g., arithmetic expressions. Give an algorithm for reconstructing the binary tree if we have the preorder walk.

### Exercise: previous print

#### Exercise 5.25

For a given binary tree, let prevPrint(T, n) give the node n' such that label(n') will appear just before label(n) in the inorder printing of T. Give a program that implements prevPrint.

#### Exercise: level-order walk

#### Exercise 5.26

Give an algorithm for walking a tree such that nodes are visited in the order of their level. Two nodes at the same level can visit in any order.

#### Exercise 5.27

Give an algorithm for walking a tree such that nodes are visited in the order of their height.

### Exercise: balanced trees

#### Definition 5.20

A binary tree T is called balanced if for each node  $n \in T$ 

$$|height(right(n)) - height(left(n))| \le 1.$$

#### Exercise 5.28

Prove/Disprove: if no node in the binary tree has a single child, the binary tree is balanced.

## Exercise: Diameter of tree (midsem 2024)

#### Definition 5.21

The diameter of a tree is the length of the longest path between any two nodes of the tree.

#### Exercise 5.29

Let us consider a binary tree T.

- a. Give an efficient algorithm to find a farthest node from a node n in T.
- b. Give an efficient algorithm for calculating the diameter of T.

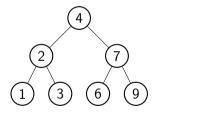
Assume that you have access to the parent pointer. Please write pseudocode otherwise there will be no marks

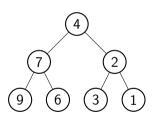
## Exercise: Inverting a tree (quiz 2023)

#### Exercise 5.30

Given the root of a binary tree, invert the tree, and return its root.

Example: Input Output





# End of Lecture 5

