

# Examples on the (2,3)-Tree, BFS and DFS

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## (2,3)-Tree

A **(2,3)-tree** on a set  $S$  of  $n$  integers is a good 3-ary tree  $T$  satisfying:

- Every leaf node — if not the root — stores either 2 or 3 **data elements**, each of which is an integer in  $S$ .
- Every integer in  $S$  is stored as a data element exactly once.
- For every internal node  $u$ , if its child nodes are  $v_1, \dots, v_f$  ( $f = 2$  or  $3$ ), then
  - For any  $i, j \in [1, f]$  such that  $i < j$ , all the data elements in the subtree of  $v_i$  are smaller than those in the subtree of  $v_j$ .
  - For each  $i \in [1, f]$ ,  $u$  stores a **routing element**, which is an integer that equals the smallest data element in the subtree of  $v_i$ .

## (2,3)-Tree

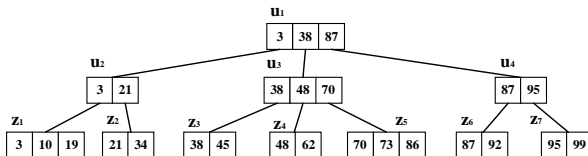
From the lecture, we know that a (2,3)-tree on a set of  $n$  integers has the following guarantees:

- Space consumption  $O(n)$
- Predecessor/successor query  $O(\log n)$
- **Insertion**  $O(\log n)$  time
- **Deletion**  $O(\log n)$  time

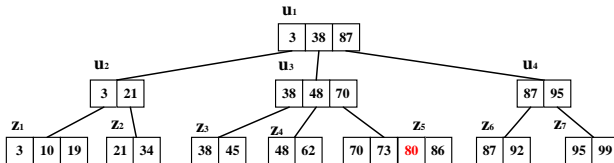
In the following, let's go through the algorithms of insertion and deletion with examples.

## Example on Insertion

Suppose that we want to insert 80 into the following tree, which should go into Leaf  $z_5$ .

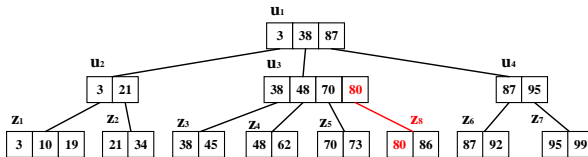


Now  $z_5$  overflows, and needs to be split.

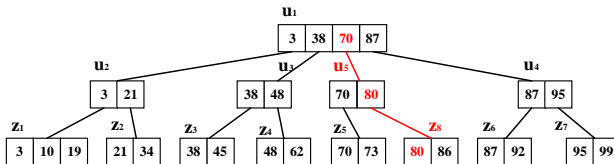


## Example on Insertion

Splitting  $z_5$  makes parent node  $u_3$  overflow, which also needs to be split.

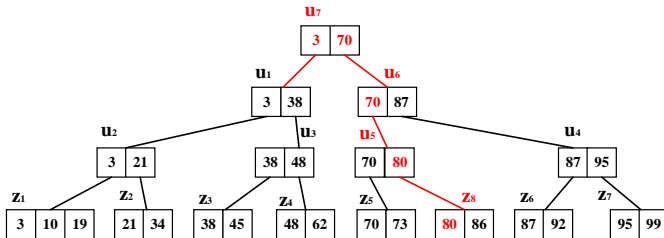


Splitting  $u_3$  makes the root node  $u_1$  overflow, then split it. (create a new root)



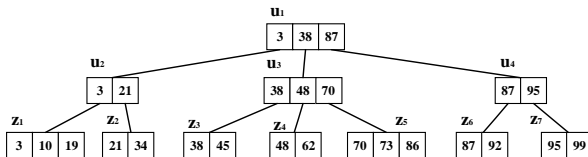
## Example on Insertion

Now the insertion completes.

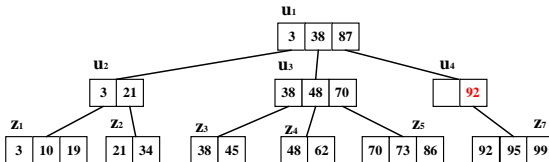


## Example on Deletion

Suppose that we want to delete 87 from the following tree. Remove it from Leaf  $z_6$ , which then underflows.

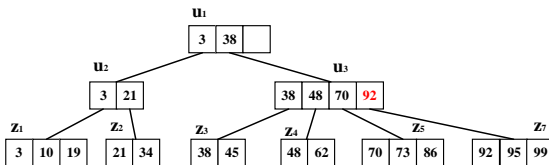


Merging  $z_6$  with its right sibling  $z_7$  causes their parent  $u_4$  to underflow.

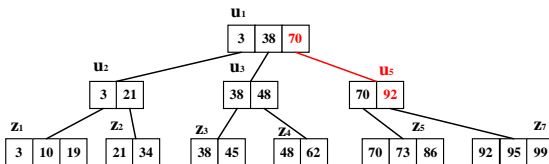


## Example on Deletion

Merging  $u_4$  with its left sibling  $u_3$  causes overflowing on  $u_3$ , then split it.



Now the deletion completes.





## Construction of a (2,3)-Tree

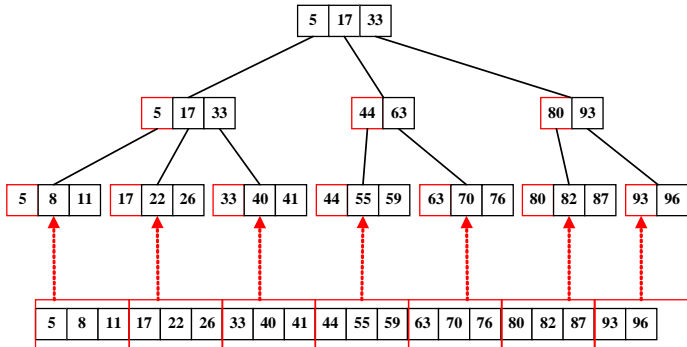
In the following, we will discuss how to construct a (2, 3)-tree on a given set  $S$  of  $n$  integers.

The most trivial way is to initialize an empty (2,3)-tree and insert the elements of  $S$  one by one to this tree. The time complexity is  $O(n \log n)$ .

What's next is a more efficient algorithm to construct a (2, 3)-tree provided that  $S$  is already sorted. The time complexity of this algorithm is  $O(n)$ .

The basic idea is to construct the tree level by level in a **bottom-up** manner.

## Example



## Construction of a (2,3)-Tree

Assume that the sorted set  $S$  of  $n$  integers is stored in an array. A (2,3)-tree on  $S$  can be constructed as follows:

- Scan the **sorted** array and create a leaf node for every three **consecutive** integers **except possibly for the last two leaf nodes which may have only two integers**. All these leaf nodes are at level-0 and in ascending order.
- Given all the nodes at level- $i$  in ascending order, all the nodes at level- $(i + 1)$  can be constructed in ascending order as follows:
  - Scan the level- $i$  nodes and create a parent node for every three consecutive nodes (except possibly for the last two parent nodes which may have only two child nodes).
  - Each parent node stores the smallest routing element in each of its child nodes as its routing elements.
- If there is only one parent node created at level- $(i + 1)$ , stop and return this node as the root of the (2,3)-tree.

### Construction of a (2,3)-Tree

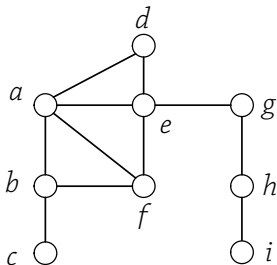
- The construction cost of level-0 is  $O(n)$ .
- The construction cost of level- $(i + 1)$  ( $i \geq 0$ ) is bounded by the cost of scanning all level- $i$  nodes. Since there are at most  $\frac{n}{2^{i+1}}$  nodes at level- $i$ , the scanning cost is  $O(\frac{n}{2^{i+1}})$ .

The total construction cost is bounded by:

$$O(n + \frac{n}{2} + \frac{n}{2^2} + \cdots + 1) = O(n)$$

In the following, we will go over the algorithm of BFS and DFS on **undirected graph**.

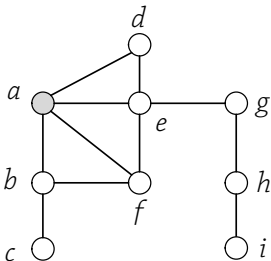
Input



Suppose that we start from **a**, namely **a** is the root of both BFS tree and DFS tree.

## BFS

Firstly, create a queue  $Q$ , insert the starting vertex  $a$  into  $Q$  and color it gray. Create a BFS Tree with  $a$  as the root.



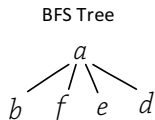
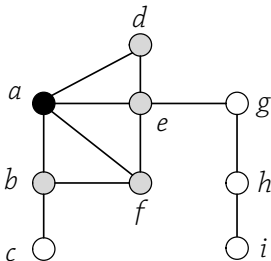
BFS Tree

$a$

$Q = (a)$

## BFS

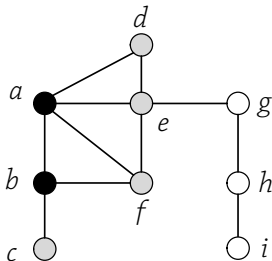
After de-queueing *a*.



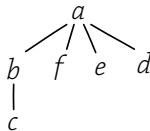
$$Q = (b, f, e, d)$$

## BFS

After de-queueing *b*.



BFS Tree

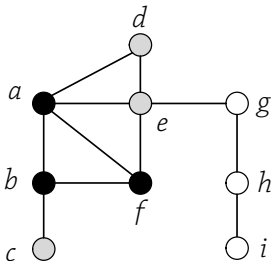


$$Q = (f, e, d, c)$$

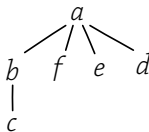


## BFS

After de-queueing  $f$ .



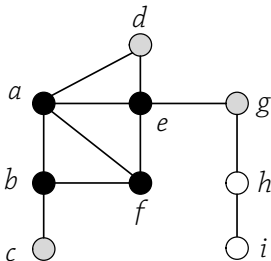
BFS Tree



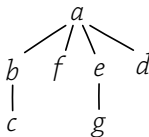
$$Q = (e, d, c)$$

## BFS

After de-queueing **e**.



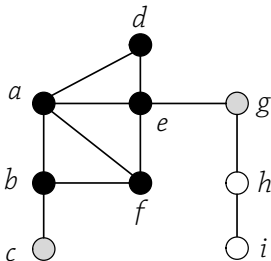
BFS Tree



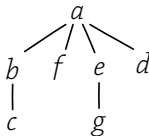
$$Q = (d, c, g)$$

## BFS

After de-queueing  $d$ .



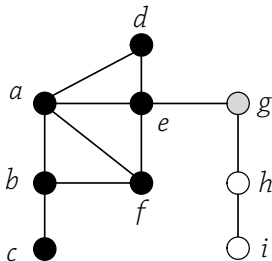
BFS Tree



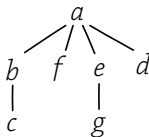
$$Q = (c, g)$$

## BFS

After de-queueing *c*.



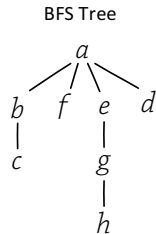
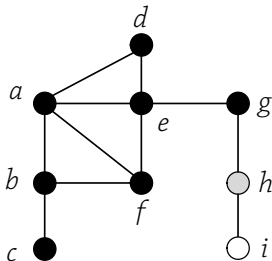
BFS Tree



$$Q = (g)$$

## BFS

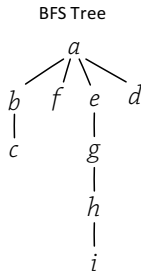
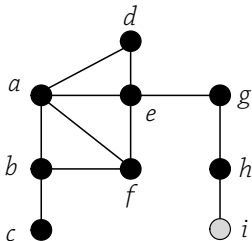
After de-queueing  $g$ .



$Q = (h)$

## BFS

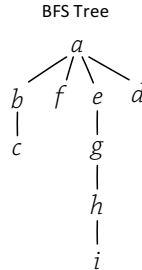
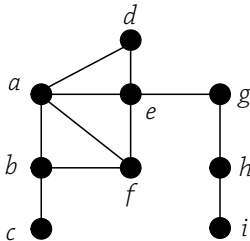
After de-queueing *h*.



$$Q = (i)$$

## BFS

After dequeuing *i*.

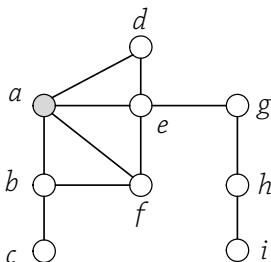


$Q = ()$

Done.

## DFS

Firstly, create a stack  $S$ , push the starting vertex  $a$  into  $S$  and color it gray. Create a DFS Tree with  $a$  as the root.



DFS Tree

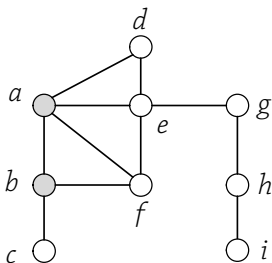
$a$

$S = (a)$



## DFS

Top of stack: *a*, which has white neighbors *b*, *f*, *e* and *d*. Suppose that we access *b* first. Push *b* into *S*.



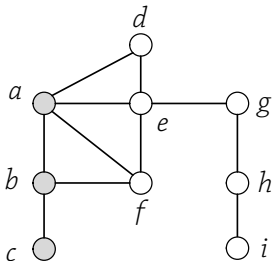
DFS Tree

*a*  
|  
*b*

$$S = (a, b)$$

## DFS

After pushing **c**.



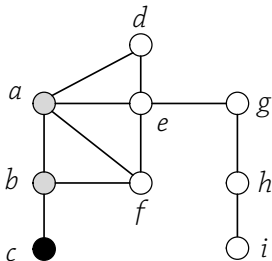
DFS Tree

a  
|  
b  
|  
c

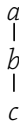
$S = (a, b, c)$

## DFS

Since **c** has no white neighbors, pop it from  $S$ , and color it black.



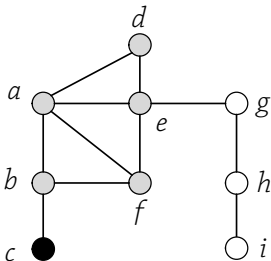
DFS Tree



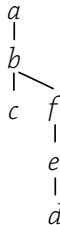
$$S = (a, b)$$

## DFS

After pushing  $f$ ,  $e$ ,  $d$ .



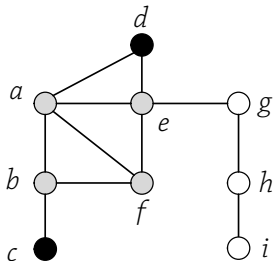
DFS Tree



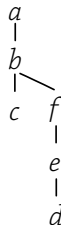
$$S = (a, b, f, e, d)$$

## DFS

Since  $d$  has no white neighbors, pop it from  $S$ , and color it black.



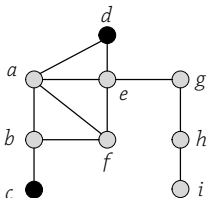
DFS Tree



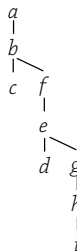
$$S = (a, b, f, e)$$

## DFS

Consecutively push  $g$ ,  $h$ ,  $i$ .



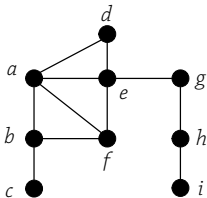
DFS Tree



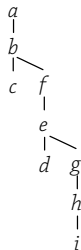
$$S = (a, b, f, e, g, h, i)$$

## DFS

After popping *i*, *h*, *g*, *e*, *f*, *b*, *a*.



DFS Tree



$S = ()$

Done.

In the following, let's talk about an application on **BFS**.

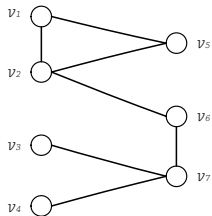
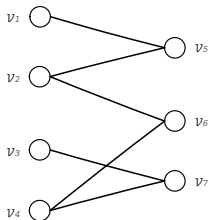
### Bipartite Graph

A **Bipartite Graph** is an undirected graph  $G(V, E)$  where:

- $V$  can be partitioned into two parts  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  such that:
  - $V_1 \cap V_2 = \emptyset$ ,
  - $V_1 \cup V_2 = V$ .
- $\nexists (u, v) \in E$  such that  $u, v \in V_i$  for  $i = 1, 2$ .



## Example



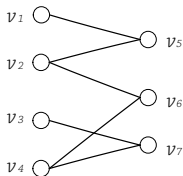
The left one is a bipartite graph, while the right one is not.

## Bipartite Graph Detection

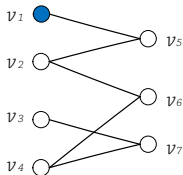
Given a graph  $G = (V, E)$ , how to determine whether it is bipartite?

### Example

Create a queue  $Q$ , color all vertices white:



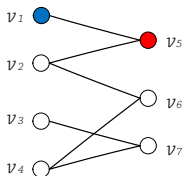
Arbitrarily pick a white vertex, e.g.  $v_1$ , color it blue and insert it into  $Q$ :



$$Q = (v_1)$$

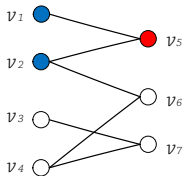
### Example

De-queue from  $Q$  the first vertex  $v_1$ , color its white neighbor  $v_5$  red and insert it into  $Q$ .



$$Q = (v_5)$$

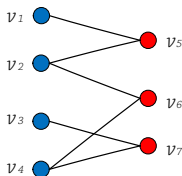
De-queue from  $Q$  the first vertex  $v_5$  and color its white neighbor  $v_2$  blue, insert it into  $Q$ :



$$Q = (v_2)$$

### Example

While de-queueing a vertex  $v$ , if one of its neighbors  $u$  has been colored with the same color as  $v$ , then terminate and report it is not bipartite. Otherwise, terminate until all vertices are colored either **blue** or **red**.



Note that the vertices from the same subset have the same color.

## Bipartite Graph Detection

In order to determine whether a graph  $G = (V, E)$  is bipartite, we perform a BFS on it with a little modification. The algorithm is as follows:

- 1 Create a queue  $Q$  and color all vertices **white**.
- 2 Arbitrarily pick a white vertex from the graph, color it **blue** and insert it into  $Q$ .
- 3 De-queue from  $Q$  the first vertex  $v$  and check its color.
- 4 For every neighbor  $u$  of  $v$ ,
  - if  $u$  is colored, then check whether the color of  $u$  is the same as  $v$ . If so, terminate and output “No”. Otherwise, continue.
  - if  $u$  is white and  $v$  is **blue**, then color  $u$  **red**; if  $v$  is **red**, then color  $u$  **blue**; insert it into  $Q$ .
- 5 Repeat from 3 until  $Q$  is empty, then repeat from 2 until all vertices are colored and output “Yes”.

## Bipartite Graph Detection – Correctness

3 milestone steps to prove:

- ① To perform BFS on an undirected graph, all nodes with shortest path distance  $\ell$  from the source are at level  $\ell$  of the BFS tree (root at level 0).
- ② For an undirected graph, every edge in the BFS tree connects 2 nodes that are
  - Either at the same level
  - Or at adjacent levels.
- ③ The graph is bipartite if and only if we do not have edges connecting nodes at adjacent levels.