# Another Application – Dictionary Operations

- Consider designing a data structure for primarily three operations:
  - insert,
  - delete, and
  - search.
- Why not use a hash table?
  - a hash table can only give an average O(1) performance
  - Need worst case performance guarantees.

### **Dictionary Operations**

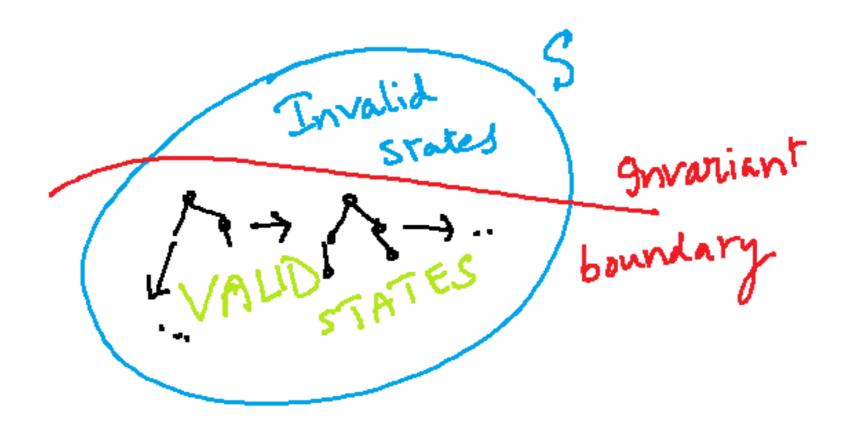
- Further extend the repertoire of operations to standard dictionary operations also such as findMin and findMax.
  - Hash tables may not help in findMin and findMax.
- Specifically, our data structure shall support the following operations.
  - Create()
  - Insert()
  - FindMin()
  - FindMax()
  - Delete(), and
  - Find()

### Binary Search Tree

- Our data structure shall be a binary tree with a few modifications.
- Assume that the data is integer valued for now.
- Search Invariant:

The data at the root of any binary search tree is larger than all elements in the left subtree and is smaller than all elements in the right subtree.

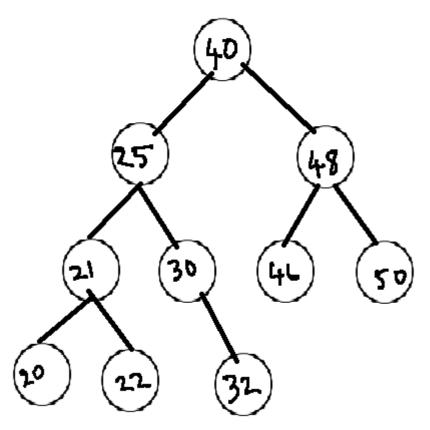
# How to Understand Invariants



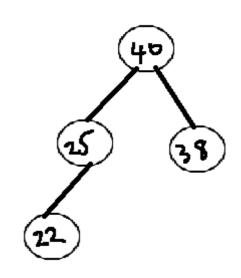
### Binary Search Tree

- The search invariant has to be maintained at all times, after any operation.
- This invariant can be used to design efficient operations, and
- Also obtain bounds on the runtime of the operations.

# Binary Search Tree – Example



A binary search tree



Not a binary search tree

### **Operations**

- Let us start with the operation Find(x).
- We are given a binary search tree T.
- Answer YES if x is in T, and answer NO otherwise.
- Throughout, let us call a node deficient, if it misses at least one child.
  - So a leaf node is also deficient.
  - So is an internal node with only one child.

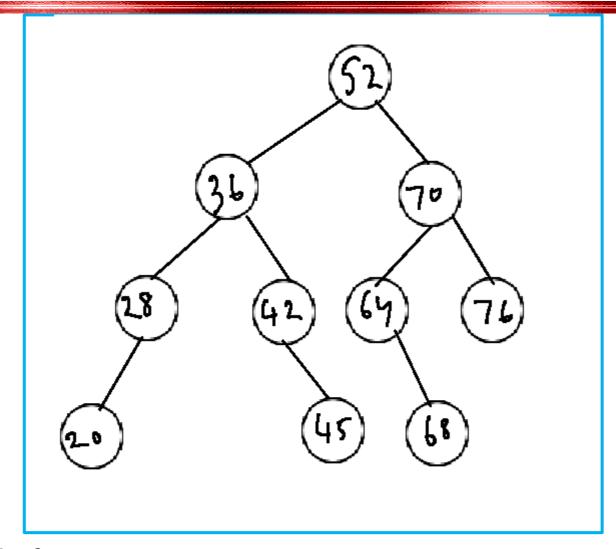
- Let us compare x with the data at the root of T.
- There are three possibilities
  - x = T->data : Answer YES. Easy case.
  - x < T->data : Where can x be if it is in T? Left subtree
  - x > T->data: Where can x be if it is in T? Right subtree
- So, continue search in the left/right subtree.
- When to stop?

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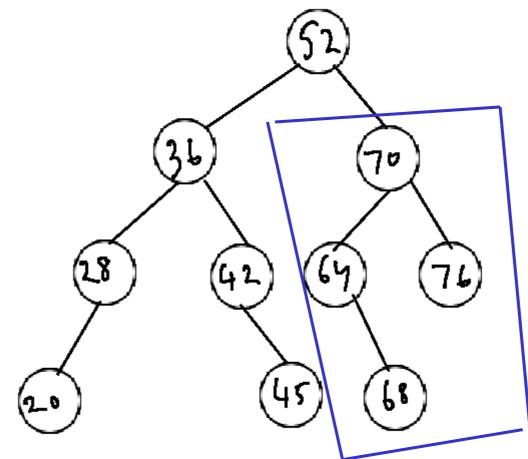
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- So, continue search in the left/right subtree.
- When to stop?
  - Successful search stops when we find x.
  - Unsuccessful search stops when we reach a deficient node without finding x.

- Notice the similarity to binary search.
- In both cases, we continue search in a subset of the data.
  - In the case of binary search the subset size is exactly half the size of the current set.
  - Is that so in the case of a binary search tree also?
  - May not always be true.

- How to analyze the runtime?
- Number of comparisons is a good metric.
- Notice that for a successful or an unsuccessful search, the worst case number of comparisons is equal to the height of the tree.
- What is the height of a binary search tree?
  - We'll postpone this question for now.

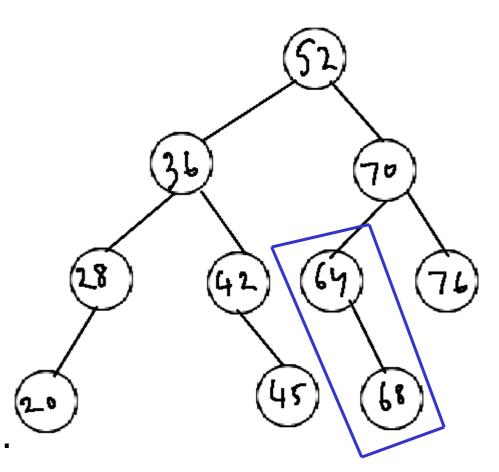


- Search for 64.
- Since 52 < 64, we search in the right subtree.

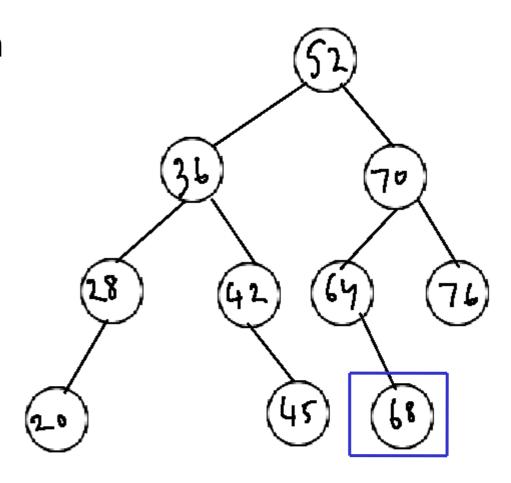


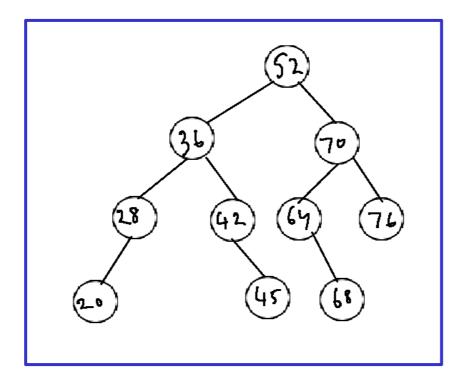
- Search for 68
- Since 52 < 68, we search in the right subtree.
- Since 68 < 70, again search in the left subtree.

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- Since 68 < 70, again search in the left subtree.
- Since 64 < 65, again search in the right subtree.

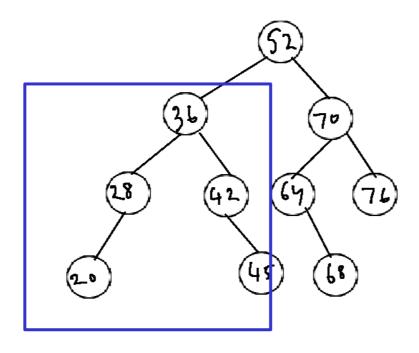


- Search for 68.
- Since 52 < 68, we search in the right subtree.
- Since 68 < 70, again search in the left subtree.
- Since 64 < 68, again search in the right subtree.
- Finally, find 68 as a leaf node.

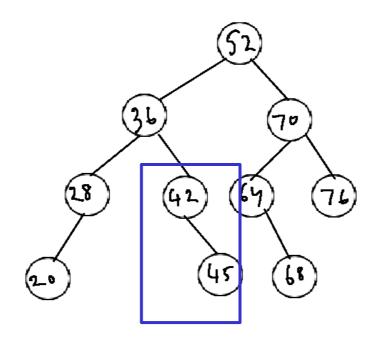




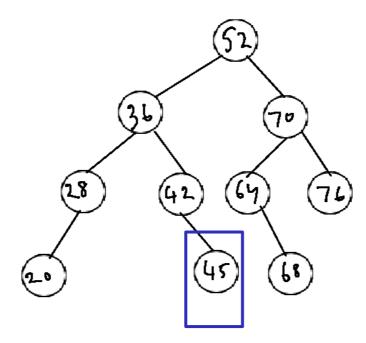
- Consider the same tree and Find(48).
- Since 52 > 48, we search in the left subtree.



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- Since 36 < 48, search in the right subtree.</li>



- Consider the same tree and Find(48).
- Since 52 > 48, we search in the left subtree.
- Since 36 < 48, search in the right subtree.
- Since 42 < 48, search in the right subtree.
- finally, 45 < 48, but no right subtree. So declare NOT FOUND.</li>

# Find(x) Pseudocode

```
procedure Find(x, T)
begin
   if T == NULL return NO;
   if T->data == x return YES;
   else if T->data < x
      return Find(x, T->right);
   else
      return Find(x, T->left);
end
```

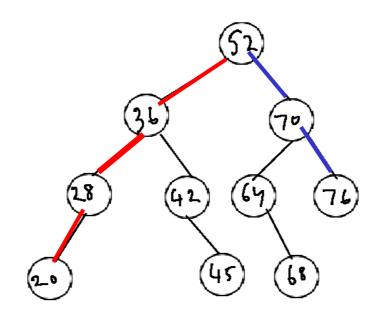
# Observation on Find(x)

- Travel along only one path of the tree starting from the root.
- Hence, important to minimize the length of the longest path.
  - This is the depth/height of the tree.

#### Operation FindMin and FindMax

- Consider FindMin.
- Where is the smallest element in a binary search tree?
- Recall that values in the left subtree are smaller than the root, at every node.
- So, we should travel leftward.
  - stop when we reach a leaf or
  - a node with no left child.
  - Essentially, a deficient node missing a left child.
- FindMax is similar. How should we travel?

#### Operation FindMin and FindMax



- On the above tree, findMin will travese the path shown in red.
- FindMax will travel the path shown in blue.

### Operation FindMin and FindMax

```
procedure FindMin(T)
begin
  if T = NULL return null;
  if T-> left = NULL return T;
  return FindMin(T->left);
end
```

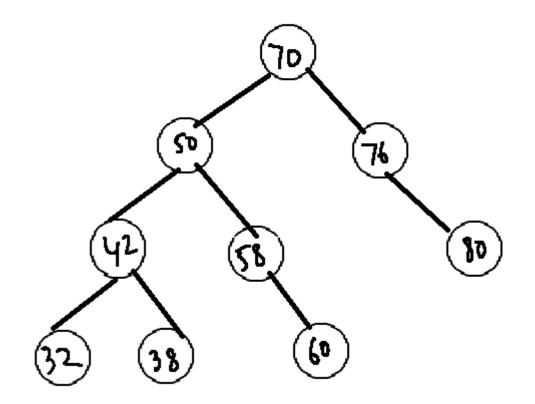
- Both these operations also traverse one path of the tree.
- Hence, the time taken is proportional to the depth of the tree.
- Notice how the depth of the tree is important to these operations also.

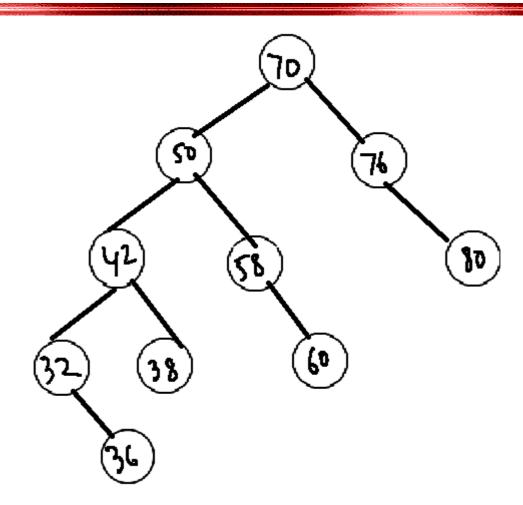
- Let us now study how to insert an element into an existing binary tree.
- Assume for simplicity that no duplicate values are inserted.

- Where should x be inserted?
- Should satisfy the search invariant.
  - So, if x is larger than the root, insert in the right subtree
  - if x is smaller than the root, insert in the left subtree.
- Repeat the above till we reach a deficient node.
- Can always add a new child to a deficient node.
- So, add node with value x as a child of some deficient node.

- Notice the analogy to Find(x)
- If x is not in the tree, Find(x) stops at a deficient node.
- Now, we are inserting x as a child of the deficient node last visited by Find(x).
- If the tree is presently empty, then x will be the new root.
- Let us consider a few examples.

- Consider the tree shown and inserting 36.
- We travel the path 70 –
   50 42 32.
- Since 32 is a leaf node, we stop at 32.





- Now, 36 > 32. So 36 is inserted as a right child of 32.
- The resulting tree is shown in the picture.

#### **Practice Problem**

• Show the binary search tree obtained by inserting 32, 47, 51, 29, 22, 42, 64, 17, 45, 40 in that order into an initially empty binary searh tree.

```
Procedure insert(x)
begin
T' = T;
if T' = NULL then
    T' = \text{new Node}(x, \text{Null}, \text{Null});
else
    while (1)
       if T'-> data > x then
               If T'->left then T' = T'-> left;
                Else Add x as a left child of T'
                      break;
        else
               If T'->right then T' = T'-> right;
                Else Add x as a right child of T'
                      break;
    end-while;
End.
```

- New node always inserted as a leaf.
- To analyze the operation insert(x), consider the following.
  - Operation similar to an unsuccessful find operation.
  - After that, only O(1) operations to add x as a child.
- So, the time taken for insert is also proportional to the depth of the tree.

#### **Duplicates?**

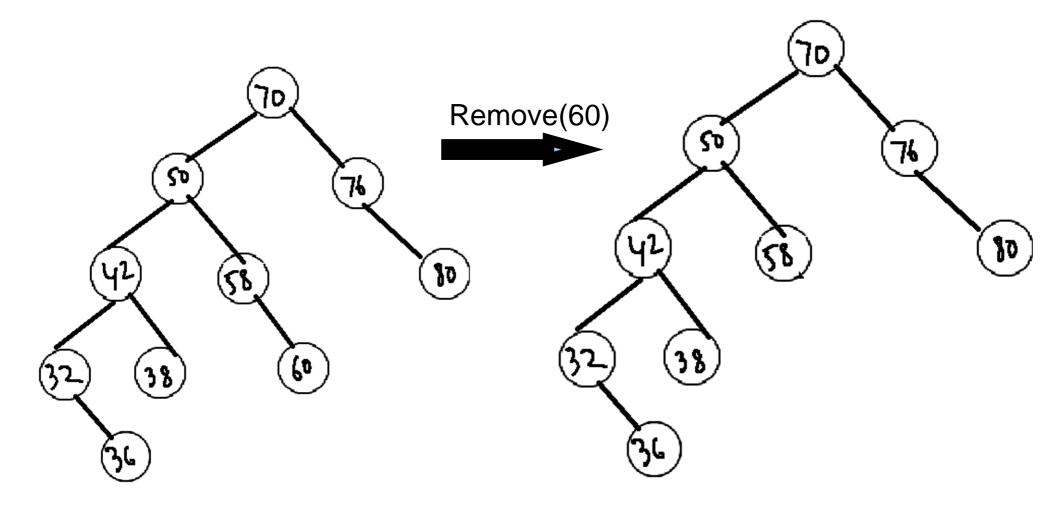
- To handle duplicates, two options
  - report an error message
  - to keep track of the number of elements with the same value

### Remove(x)

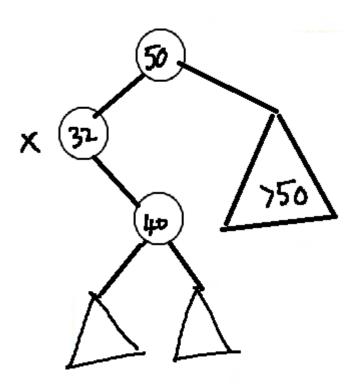
- Finally, the remove operation.
- Difficult compared to insert
  - new node inserted always as a leaf.
  - but can also delete a non-leaf node.
- We will consider several cases
  - when x is a leaf node
  - when x has only one child
  - when x has both children

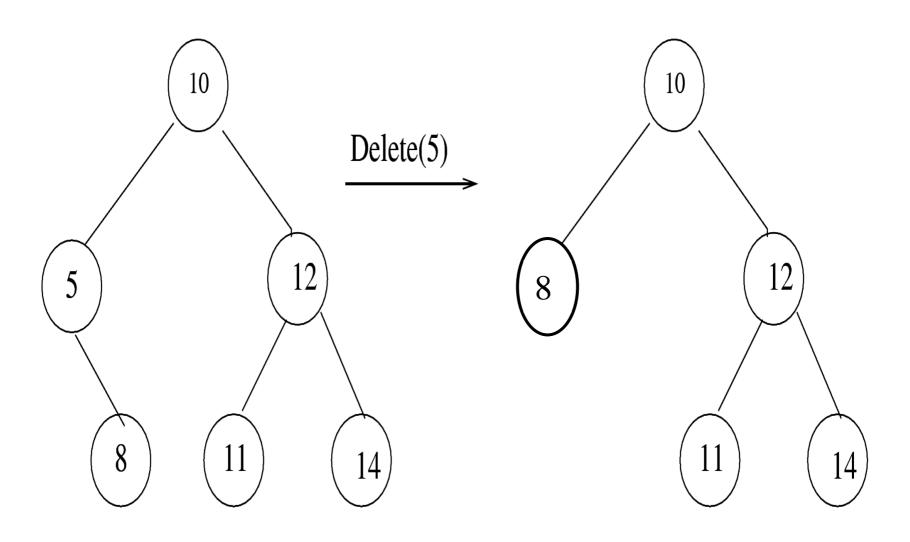
#### Remove(x)

- If x is a leaf node, then x can be removed easily.
  - parent(x) misses a child.



- Suppose x has only one child, say right child.
- Say, x is a left child of its parent.
- Notice that also child(x) < parent(x).</li>
- So, child(x) can be a left child of parent(x), instead of x.
- In essence, promote child(x) as a child of parent(x).

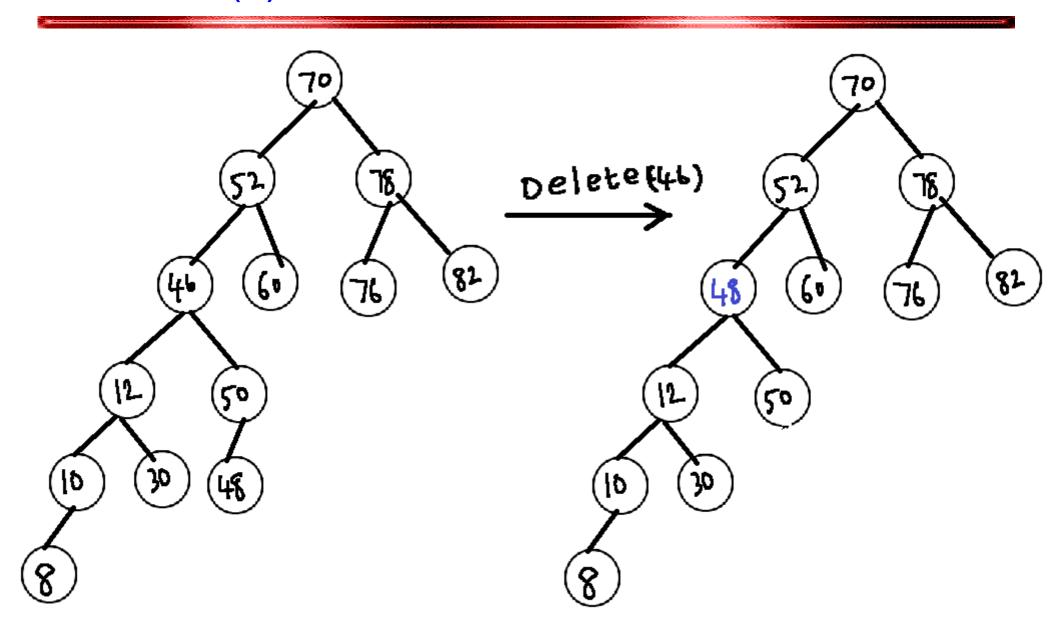




#### Remove(x) – The Difficult Case

- x has both children.
- Cannot promote any one child of x to be child of parent(x).
- But, what is a good value to replace x?
- Notice that, the replacement should satisfy the search invariant.
- So, the replacement node should have a value more than all the left subtree nodes and smaller than all right subtree nodes.

- One possibility is to consider the maximum valued node in the left subtree of x.
- Equivalently, can also consider the node with the minimum value in the right subtree of x.
- Notice that both these replacement nodes are deficient nodes. Hence easy to remove them.
- In a way, to remove x, we physically remove a leaf node or a deficient node.



#### **Practice Problem**

 From the tree of the previous problem, delete nodes 47, 22, and 42 in that order. ``

```
Procedure Delete(x, T)
begin
   if T = NULL then return NULL;
   T' = Find(x);
   if T' has at most one child then
      adjust the parent of the remaining child;
   else
      T'' = FindMin(T'-> right);
       Remove T" from the tree;
      T'-> value = T''-> value;
   End-if
End.
```

 Time taken by the remove() operation also proportional to the depth of the tree.

- What are some bounds on the depth of a binary search tree of n nodes?
- A depth of n is also possible.

- Imagine that each internal node has exactly two children.
- A depth of log<sub>2</sub> n is the best possible.

- So the depth can be between log<sub>2</sub> n and n.
- What is the average depth?

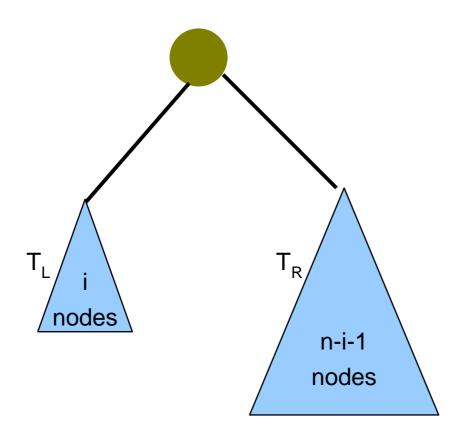
### **Average Depth**

- A good notion as most operations take time proportional on the depth of the binary search tree.
- Still, not a satisfactory measure as we wanted worst-case performance bounds.

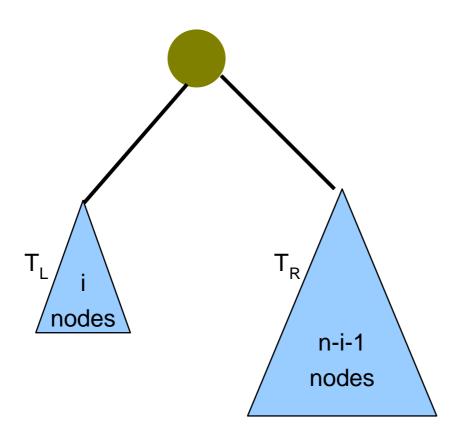
- Let us analyze the average depth of a binary search tree.
- This average is on what?
  - Assume that all subtree sizes are equally likely.
- Under the above assumption, let us show that the average depth of a binary search tree is O(log n).

- Internal path length: The sum of the depths of all nodes in a tree.
- Let D(N) to be the internal path length of some binary search tree of N nodes.
  - $-\Sigma_{i=1}^{n}$  d(i), where d(i) is the depth of node i.
- Note that D(1) = 0.

- In a tree with N nodes, there is one root node and a left subtree of i nodes and a right subtree of n-i-1 nodes.
- Using our notation, D(i) is the internal path length of the left subtree.
- D(n-i-1) is the internal path length of the right subtree.



- Further, if now these trees are attached to the root
  - the depth of each node in T<sub>L</sub> and T<sub>R</sub> increases by 1.



• So, D(N) = D(i) + D(n-i-1) + n-1

### Solving the Recurrence Relation

- If all subtree sizes are equally likely then D(i) is the average over all subtree sizes.
  - That is, i ranges over 0 to N-1.
  - Can hence see that  $D(i) = (1/n) \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} D(j)$
- Similar is the case with the right subtree.
- The recurrence relation simplifies to

$$D(n) = (2/n) (\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} D(j)) + N - 1$$

- Can be solved using known techniques.
  - Left as homework.

### Solving the Recurrence Relation

- The solution to D(N) is  $D(N) = O(N \log N)$ .
- How is D(N) related to the average depth of a binary search tree.
  - There are N paths in any binary search tree from the root.
  - So the average internal path length is O(log N).
- Does this mean that each operation has an average O(log N) runtime.
  - Not quite.

## Average Runtime

- Now, remove() operation may introduce a skew.
- Replacement node can skew left or right subtree.
- Can pick the replacement node from the left or the right subtree uniformly at random.
  - Still not known to help.
- So, at best we can be satisfied with an average
   O(log n) runtime in most cases.
- Need techniques to restrict the height of the binary search tree.