

## 12 : Binary Search Trees

### 12.1 : Binary Search tree

\* Property: → If  $y$  is in left subtree of  $x$ , then  $\text{key}[y] \leq \text{key}[x]$   
 → If  $y$  is in right subtree of  $x$ , then  $\text{key}[y] \geq \text{key}[x]$

INORDER - TREE - WALK( $x$ )

if  $x \neq \text{NIL}$

INORDER - TREE - WALK( $x\text{-left}$ )

print  $x\text{-key}$

INORDER - TREE - WALK ( $x\text{-right}$ ).

Theorem : If  $x$  is the root of an  $n$ -node subtree, then the all call INORDER - TREE - WALK ( $x$ ) takes  $\Theta(n)$  time.

→ Since INORDER - TREE - WALK visits all  $n$  nodes of the subtree, we have  $T(n) = \Omega(n)$ . It remains to show that  $T(n) = O(n)$ .

→ For  $n > 0$ , suppose that INORDER - TREE - WALK is called a node  $x$  where left subtree has  $k$  nodes & whose right subtree has  $n-k-1$  nodes.

→ The time to perform of INORDER - TREE - WALK ( $x$ ), exclusive of the time incurred by  $T(n) \leq T(k) + T(n-k-1) + d$  for some constant  $d \geq 0$  that reflects an upper case bound on the time to execute the body of INORDER - TREE - WALK ( $x$ ), exclusive of the time spent in recursive calls.

→ We use the substitution method to show that  $T(n) = O(n)$  by proving that  $T(n) \leq (C+d)n + C$  for  $n \geq 0$ , we have  $(C+d).0 + C = C = T(0)$   
 ✓  $n > 0$ , we have

$$T(n) \leq T(k) + T(n-k-1) + d$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= ((c+d)k+c) + ((c+d)(n-k-1)+c)+d \\ &= (c+d)n + c - (c+d) + c + d \end{aligned}$$

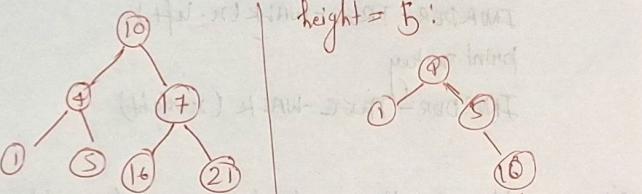
$$T(n) = (c+d)n + c \quad \text{Hence proved.}$$

### Exercise

12.1-1

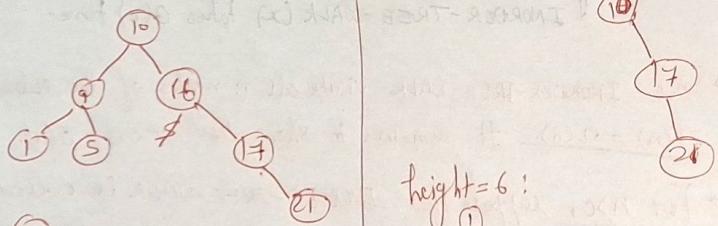
Given keys  $\langle 1, 4, 5, 10, 16, 17, 21 \rangle$  draw binary search trees of heights 2, 3, 4, 5 & 6.

\* height = 2:

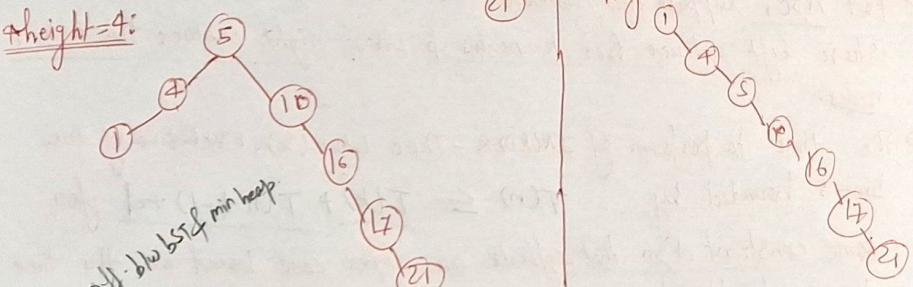


height = 5!

\* height = 3:



height = 6 :



12.1-2: → The binary-search-tree property guarantees that all nodes in the left subtree are smaller if all nodes in the right subtree are larger.

→ The min-heap property only guarantees the general child-larger-than-parent relation, but doesn't distinguish b/w left & right children.

For this reason, the min-heap property can't be used to print out the keys in sorted order in linear time because we have no way to knowing which subtree contains the next smallest element.

### 12.1-3: INORDER-TREE-WALK(T)

Non-Recursive  
Inorder

let S be an empty stack

current = T.root

done = 0

While ! done

if current != NIL

PUSH(S, current)

current = current.left

else

if IS.EMPTY()

current = POP(S)

print current

current = current.right

else done = 1

Non-Recursive  
INORDER

### 12.1-4:

#### PREORDER-TREE-WALK(x)

if  $x.l = \text{NIL}$

print x.key

PREORDER-TREE-WALK(x.left)

PREORDER-TREE-WALK(x.right)

#### POSTORDER-TREE-WALK(x)

if  $x.l \neq \text{NIL}$

POSTORDER-TREE-WALK(x.left)

POSTORDER-TREE-WALK(x.right)

print x.key

12.1-5: Assume, for the sake of contradiction, that we can construct the binary search tree by comparison-based algorithm using less than  $\Omega(n \lg n)$  time, since the in-order tree walk is  $\Theta(n)$ , then we can get the sorted elements in less than  $\Omega(n \lg n)$  time, which contradicts the fact that sorting  $n$  elements takes  $\Omega(n \lg n)$  time in the worst case.

## 12.2: Querying a binary search tree

### \* TREE-SEARCH ( $x, k$ )

- ① if  $x == \text{NIL}$  or  $k == x.\text{key}$   
return  $x$
- ② if  $k < x.\text{key}$   
return TREE-SEARCH ( $x.\text{left}, k$ )
- ③ else return TREE-SEARCH ( $x.\text{right}, k$ ).

$O(h)$ , where  $h$  is the height of the tree.

### \* ITERATIVE-TREE-SEARCH ( $x, k$ )

- ① While  $x \neq \text{NIL}$  and  $k \neq x.\text{key}$
- ② if  $k < x.\text{key}$   
 $x = x.\text{left}$
- ③ else  $x = x.\text{right}$
- ④ return  $x$

### # Minimum & Maximum

#### \* TREE-MINIMUM ( $x$ )

- ① while  $x.\text{left} \neq \text{NIL}$
- ②  $x = x.\text{left}$
- ③ return  $x$ .

#### \* TREE-MAXIMUM ( $x$ )

- ① while  $x.\text{right} \neq \text{NIL}$
- ②  $x = x.\text{right}$
- ③ return  $x$ .

### # Successor & predecessor

#### TREE-SUCCESSOR ( $x$ )

if  $x.\text{right} \neq \text{NIL}$

return TREE-MINIMUM ( $x.\text{right}$ )

$y = x.\text{p}$

while  $y \neq \text{NIL}$  and  $x == y.\text{right}$

$x = y$

return  $y$

#### 12.2-3 TREE-PREDECESSOR ( $x$ )

if  $x.\text{left} \neq \text{NIL}$

return TREE-MINIMUM ( $x.\text{left}$ )

$y = x.\text{p}$

while  $y \neq \text{NIL}$  and  $x == y.\text{left}$

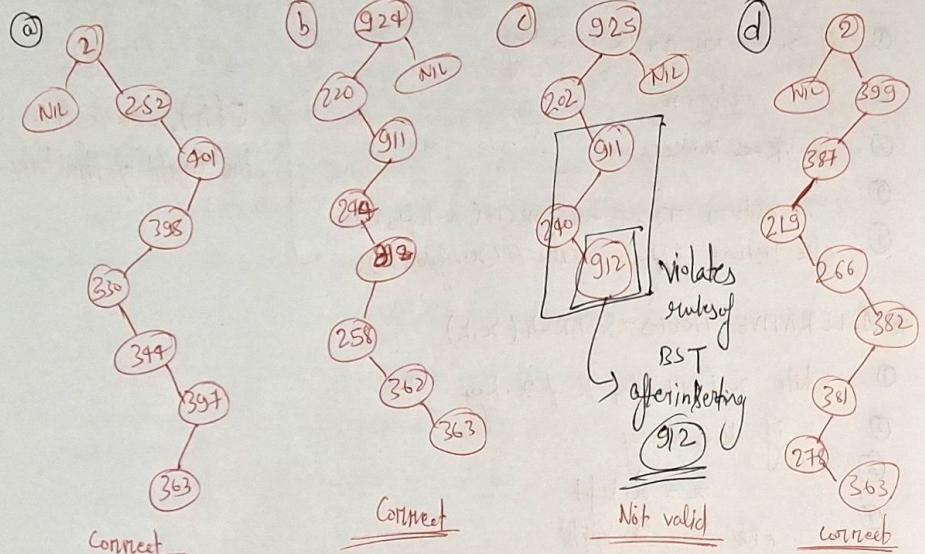
$x = y$

$y = y.\text{p}$

return  $y$

Exercise:

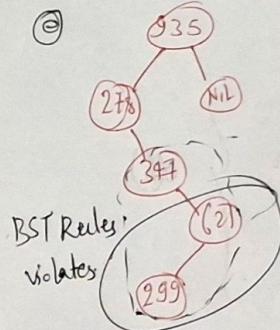
12.2-1 Soln



Correct

Correct

So, correct answer is option (c) & (d)



12.2-2 TREE-MINIMUM( $x$ )

if  $x.\text{left} \neq \text{NIL}$

return TREE-MINIMUM( $x.\text{left}$ )

else return  $x$

TREE-MAXIMUM( $x$ )

if  $x.\text{right} \neq \text{NIL}$

return TREE-MAXIMUM( $x.\text{right}$ )

else return  $x$ .

12.2-4: Search for 9 in this tree. Then  $A = \{7, 3\}$ ,  $B = \{5, 8, 9\}$  &  $C = \{3\}$ . So, since  $7 > 5$  it breaks professor's claim.

12.2-5: Show that if a node in a binary search tree has 2 children, then its successor has no left child & its predecessor has no right child.

Suppose the node  $x$  has 2 children. Then  $x$ 's successor is the minimum element of the BST rooted at  $x.\text{right}$ .

If it had a left child then it wouldn't be the minimum element. So, it must not have a left child.

Similarly, the predecessor must be the maximum element of the left subtree, so cannot have a right child.

12.2-6: First we establish that  $y$  must be an ancestor of  $x$ . If  $y$  weren't an ancestor of  $x$ , then let  $z$  denote the first common ancestor of  $x$  &  $y$ . By the binary-search-tree property,  $x < z < y$ , so  $y$  cannot be the successor of  $x$ .

Next observe that  $y.\text{left}$  must be an ancestor of  $x$  because if it weren't, then  $y.\text{right}$  would be ancestor of  $x$ , implying that  $x > y$ . Finally, suppose that  $y$  is not the lowest ancestor of  $x$  whose left child is also an ancestor of  $x$ . Let  $z$  denote this lowest ancestor. Then  $z$  must be in the left subtree of  $y$ , which implies  $z < y$ , contradicting the fact that  $y$  is successor of  $x$ .

12.2-7: To show this bound on the runtime, we will show that using this procedure, we traverse each edge twice. This will suffice because the number of edges in a tree is one less than the number of vertices.

Consider a vertex of a BST, say  $x$ . Then, we have that the edge b/w  $x.p$  &  $x$  gets used when successor is called on  $x.p$  & gets used again when it is called on the largest element in the subtree rooted at  $x$ . Since there are the only 2 times that edge can be used apart from the initial finding of tree minimum. We have that the runtime is  $\Omega(n)$ . We trivially get the runtime is  $\Omega(n)$  because that is the size of the op.

12.2-8: Suppose  $x$  is the starting node &  $y$  is the ending node. The distance b/w  $x$  &  $y$  is at most  $2h$ . If all the edges connecting the  $k$  nodes are visited twice, therefore it takes  $O(k+h)$  time.

12.2-9:  $\rightarrow$  If  $x = y.\text{left}$ , then calling successor on  $x$  will result in an iteration of the while loop. & so will return  $y$ .

$\rightarrow$  If  $x = y.\text{right}$ , the while loop for calling predecessor will be run 0 no times, & so  $y$  will be returned.

### 12.3: Insertion & deletion

#### \* Insertion:

TREE-INSERT ( $T, z$ )

- ①  $y = \text{NIL}$
- ②  $x = T.\text{root}$
- ③ while  $x \neq \text{NIL}$
- ④  $y = x$
- ⑤ if  $z.\text{key} < x.\text{key}$   
 $x = x.\text{left}$
- ⑥ else  $x = x.\text{right}$
- ⑦  $z.p = y$
- ⑧ if  $y = \text{NIL}$
- ⑨  $T.\text{root} = z$
- ⑩ elseif  $z.\text{key} < y.\text{key}$
- ⑪  $y.\text{left} = z$
- ⑫ else  $y.\text{right} = z$

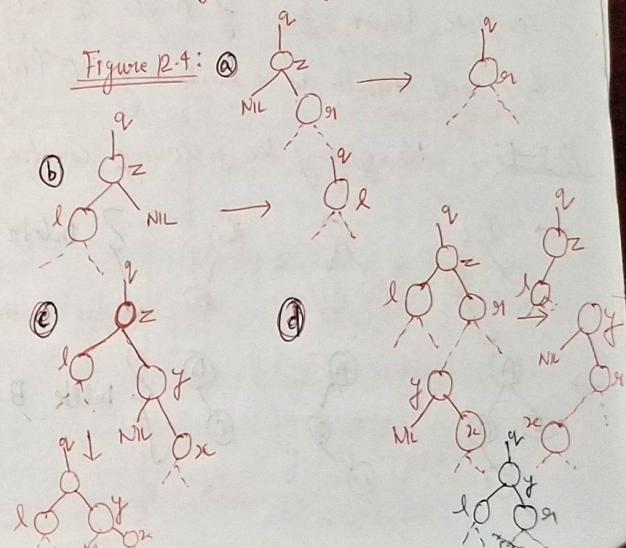
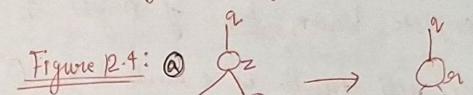
#### \* TRANSPLANT ( $T, u, v$ )

- ① if  $u.p = \text{NIL}$
- ②  $T.\text{root} = v$
- ③ elseif  $u = v.p.\text{left}$   
 $u.p.\text{left} = v$
- ④ else  $u.p.\text{right} = v$
- ⑤ if  $v \neq \text{NIL}$   
 $v.p = u.p$

#### \* Deletion:

TREE-DELETE ( $T, z$ )

- ① if  $z.\text{left} = \text{NIL}$
- ② TRANSPLANT ( $T, z, z.\text{right}$ )
- ③ elseif  $z.\text{right} = \text{NIL}$
- ④ TRANSPLANT ( $T, z, z.\text{left}$ )
- ⑤ else  $y = \text{TREE-MINIMUM}(z.\text{right})$
- ⑥ if  $y.p \neq z$
- ⑦ TRANSPLANT ( $T, y, y.\text{right}$ )
- ⑧  $y.\text{right} = z.\text{right}$
- ⑨  $y.\text{right}.p = y$
- ⑩ TRANSPLANT ( $T, z, y$ )
- ⑪  $y.\text{left} = z.\text{left}$
- ⑫  $y.\text{left}.p = y$



### Exercise: 12.3-1:

RECURSIVE-TREE-INSERT ( $T, z$ )

if  $T.\text{root} == \text{NIL}$   
 $T.\text{root} = z$   
else INSERT (NIL,  $T.\text{root}$ ,  $z$ )

```

    if  $x == \text{NIL}$ 
       $z.b = p$ 
      if  $z.\text{key} < p.\text{key}$ 
         $p.\text{left} = z$ 
      else  $p.\text{right} = z$ 
    elif  $z.\text{key} > x.\text{key}$ 
      INSERT ( $x, z.\text{left}, z$ )
    Else INSERT ( $x, x.\text{right}, z$ )
  
```

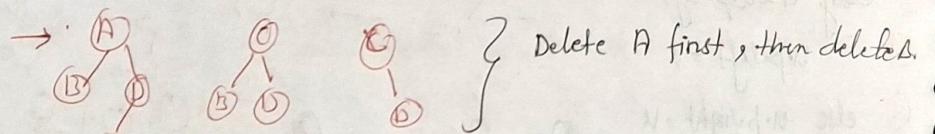
12.3-2: Number of nodes examined while searching also includes the node which is searched for, which isn't care when we inserted it.

12.3-3: → The worst case is that the tree formed has height  $n$  because we were inserting them in already sorted order. This will result in a runtime of  $\Theta(n^2)$ .

→ The best case is that the tree formed is approximately balanced. This will mean that the height doesn't exceed  $O(\lg n)$ .

→ Note that it can't have an smaller height, because a complete binary tree of height  $h$  only has  $\Theta(2^h)$  elements. This will result in a runtime of  $O(n \lg n)$ .

12.3-4: No, giving the following counterexample



} Delete A first, then delete D.

} Delete B first, then delete A.

### 12.3-5

\* TREE-SEARCH ( $n, k$ )

if  $x == \text{NIL}$  or  $k == x.\text{key}$   
return  $x$

if  $k < x.\text{key}$

return TREE-SEARCH ( $x.\text{left}, k$ )

else return TREE-SEARCH ( $x.\text{right}, k$ )

\* PARENT ( $T, x$ )

if  $x == T.\text{root}$   
return NIL

$y = \text{TREE-MAXIMUM}(x).\text{succ}$

if  $y == \text{NIL}$   
 $y = T.\text{root}$

else if  $y.\text{left} == x$   
return  $y$

$y = y.\text{left}$

while  $y.\text{right} \neq n$

$y = y.\text{right}$

return  $y$ .

\* TREE-PREDECESSOR ( $T, x$ )

if  $x.\text{left} \neq \text{NIL}$   
return TREE-MAXIMUM( $x.\text{left}$ )

$y = T.\text{root}$

$\text{pred} = \text{NIL}$

while  $y \neq \text{NIL}$

\* INSERT ( $T, z$ )

```

 $y = \text{NIL}$ 
 $x = T.\text{root}$ 
 $\text{pred} = \text{NIL}$ 
while  $x \neq \text{NIL}$ 
   $y = x$ 
  if  $z.\text{key} < x.\text{key}$ 
     $x = x.\text{left}$ 
  else
     $\text{pred} = x$ 
     $x = x.\text{right}$ 
  if  $y == \text{NIL}$ 
     $T.\text{root} = z$ 
     $z.\text{succ} = \text{NIL}$ 
  else if  $z.\text{key} < y.\text{key}$ 
     $y.\text{left} = z$ 
     $z.\text{succ} = y$ 
    if  $\text{pred} \neq \text{NIL}$ 
       $\text{pred}.succ = z$ 
    else
       $y.\text{right} = z$ 
       $z.\text{succ} = y.\text{succ}$ 
     $y.\text{succ} = z$ 
  
```

if  $y.\text{key} == x.\text{key}$   
break

if  $y.\text{key} < x.\text{key}$   
 $\text{pred} = y$

$y = y.\text{right}$

else  
 $y = y.\text{left}$

return  $\text{pred}$

### \* DELETE( $T, z$ )

- ①  $p_{\text{pred}} = \text{TREE-PREDECESSOR}(T, z)$
- ②  $p_{\text{pred}}.\text{succ} = z.\text{succ}$
- ③ if  $z.\text{left} == \text{NIL}$
- ④  $\text{TRANSPLANT}(T, z, z.\text{right})$
- ⑤ else if  $z.\text{right} == \text{NIL}$
- ⑥  $\text{TRANSPLANT}(T, z, z.\text{left})$
- ⑦ else
- ⑧  $y = \text{TREE-MINIMUM}(z.\text{right})$
- ⑨ if  $\text{PARENT}(T, y) \neq z$
- ⑩  $\text{TRANSPLANT}(T, y, y.\text{right})$
- ⑪  $y.\text{right} = z.\text{right}$
- ⑫  $\text{TRANSPLANT}(T, z, y)$
- ⑬  $y.\text{left} = z.\text{left}$ .

Therefore, all these five algorithms are still  $O(h)$  despite the increase in the hidden constant factor.

12.3-6: Operate line 5 & that  $y$  is set equal to  $\text{TREE-MAXIMUM}(z.\text{left})$  & line 6-12 & that every  $y.\text{left} \leftarrow z.\text{left}$  is replace with  $y.\text{right} \leftarrow z.\text{right}$  and vice-versa.

To implement the fair strategy, we could randomly decide each time  $\text{TREE-DELETE}$  is called whether or not to use the predecessor or successor.

### 13: Red-Black Tree

$O(\lg n)$  times in the worst case

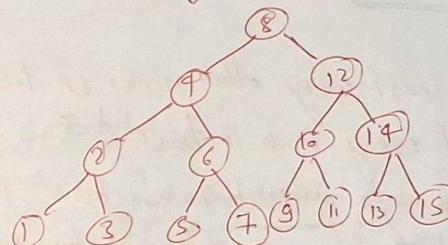
#### 13.1: Properties of red-black trees

- Exercise:
- ① Every node is either red or black
  - ② The root is black
  - ③ Every leaf ( $\text{NIL}$ ) is black
  - ④ If a node is red, then both its children are black
  - ⑤ For each node, all simple paths from the node to descendant leaves contain the same number of black nodes. "Black-height"

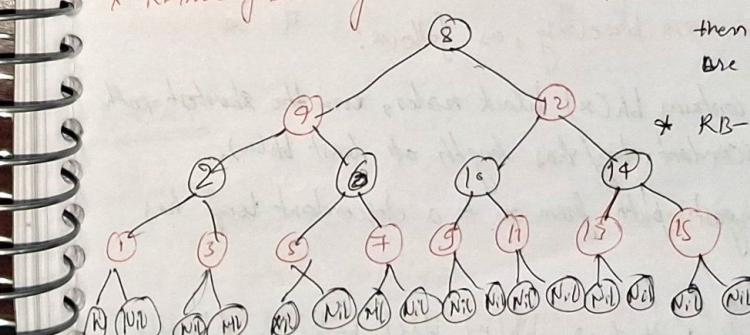
All downward simple paths from a node to a leaf have the same number of blacks.

#### Exercise:

13.1-1: Complete binary tree of height = 3:



\* RD-tree of black-height = 2



\* RB-tree of black-height = 3  
then on Node 9 & 12  
are red others are black

\* RB-tree of black-height = 3  
All nodes are blacks.

13.1-5: Suppose we have the longest simple path  $(a_1, a_2 \dots a_s)$  & the shortest simple path  $(b_1, b_2 \dots b_t)$ . Then, by property 5 we know they have equal numbers of black nodes. By property 4, we know that neither contains a repeated red node. This tells us that at most  $\left\lfloor \frac{s-1}{2} \right\rfloor$  of the nodes in the longest path are red. This means that at least  $\lceil \frac{s+1}{2} \rceil$  are black. So,  $t \geq \lceil \frac{s+1}{2} \rceil$ .

Therefore, if by way of contradiction, we had that  $s > t + 2$ , then  $t \geq \lceil \frac{s+1}{2} \rceil \geq \lceil \frac{2t+2}{2} \rceil = t+1$  results are contradiction.

OR

In the longest path, at least every other node is black. In shortest path, at most every node is black. Since the two paths contain equal numbers of black nodes, the length of the longest path is at most twice the length of the shortest path.

We can say this more precisely, as follows:

- Since every path contains  $bh(x)$  black nodes, even the shortest path from  $x$  to a descendant leaf has length at least  $bh(x)$ .
- By definition, the longest path from  $x$  to a descendant leaf has length  $height(x)$ .
- Since the longest path has  $bh(x)$  black nodes, of at least half the nodes on the longest path are black (by property 4),

So,

$$bh(x) \geq height(x)/2,$$

length of the longest path = height ( $x$ )  $\leq 2 \cdot bh(x) \leq$  twice length of the shortest path

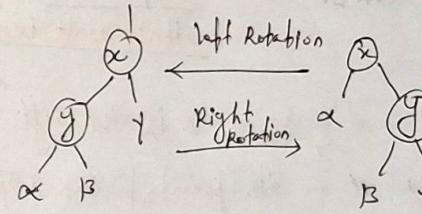
13.1-6:

- \* The largest is a path with half black nodes & half red nodes, which has  $2^{2k}-1$  internal nodes.
- \* The smallest is a path with all black nodes, which has  $2^k-1$  internal nodes.

13.1-7:

- \* The largest ratio is 2, each black node has 2 red children.
- \* The smallest ratio is 0.

13.2 : Rotation



Exercise:

13.2-2: Every node can rotate with its parent, only the root does not have a parent, therefore there are  $n-1$  possible rotations.

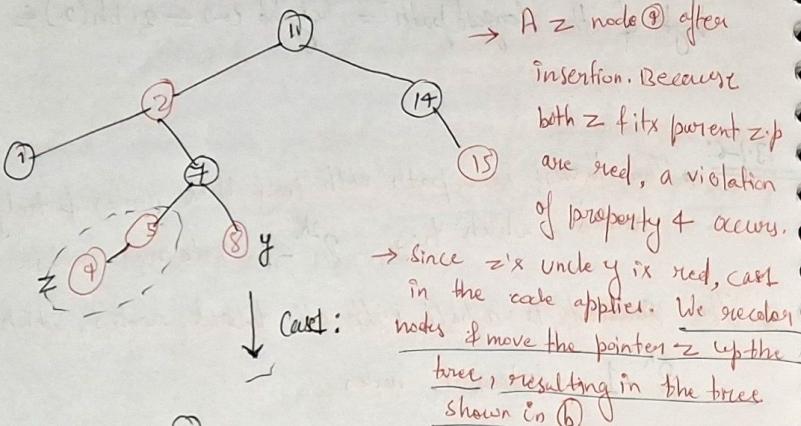
13.2-5:

We can use  $O(n)$  calls to rotate the node which is the root in  $T_2$  to  $T_1$ 's root, then use the same operation in the two subtrees. There are  $n$  nodes;  $\therefore$  Upper bound is  $O(n^2)$

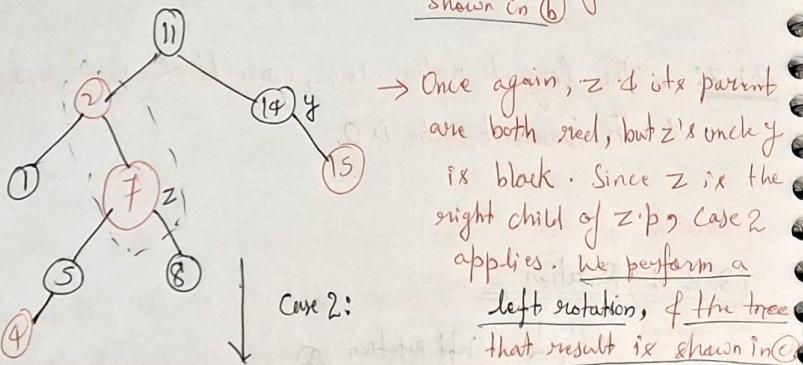
### 13.3 : INSERTION

$\exists 0(\lg n) = \text{height of RB tree on } n \text{ nodes.}$

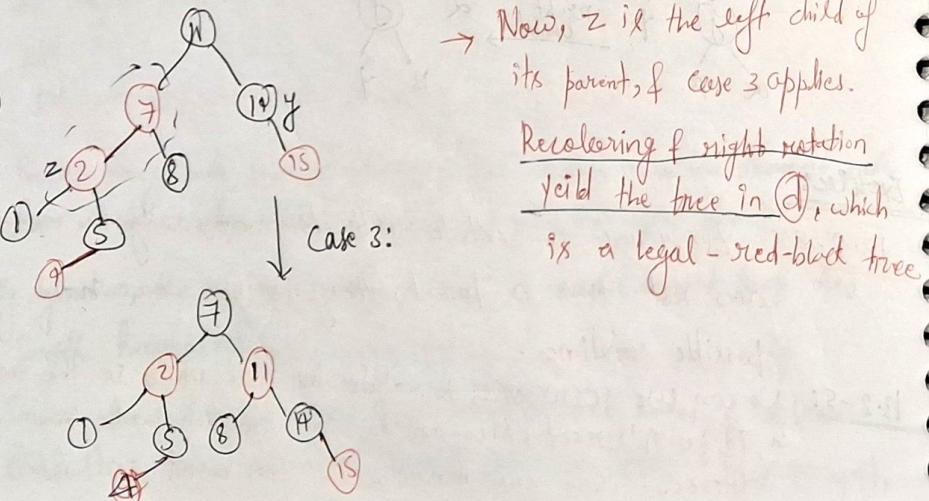
(a)



(b)



(c)



(d)

Case 1: z's uncle y is red

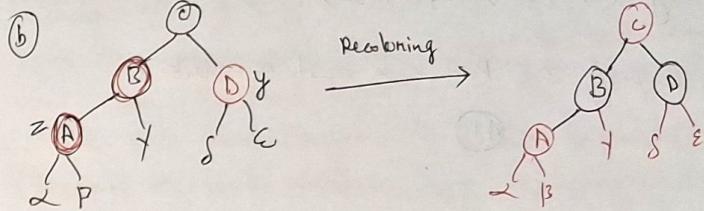
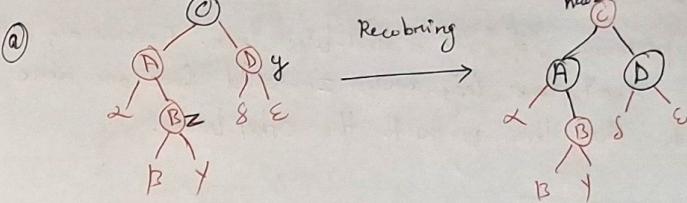
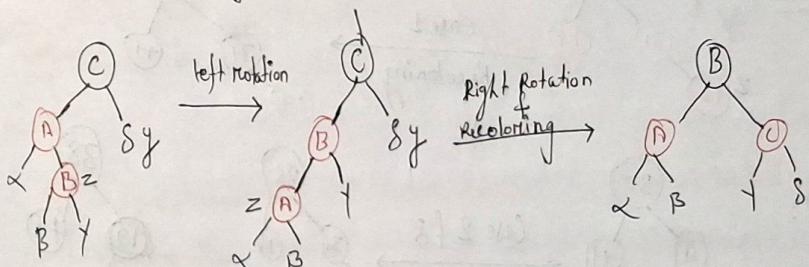


Figure 13.5: Case 1 of the procedure RB-INSERT-FIXUP. Property 4 is violated, since z & its parent z.p are both red. We take the same action whether (a) z is a right child or (b) z is a left child. Each of the subtrees  $z, p, y, s, t, e$  has black root & each has the same black-height.

Case 2: z's uncle y is black & z is a right child

Case 3: z's uncle y is black & z is left child.



### Exercise:

13.3-1: If we chose to set the color of  $z$  to black then we would be violating property 5 of being a red-black tree. Because any path from the root to a leaf under  $z$  would have one more black node than the paths to the other leaves.

13.3-2: Keys  $\{41, 38, 31, 12, 19, 8\}$

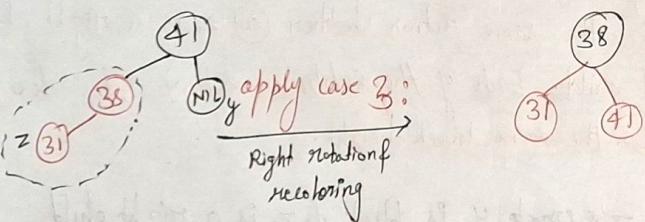
Insert 41: Property 2: Root node must be black

④1

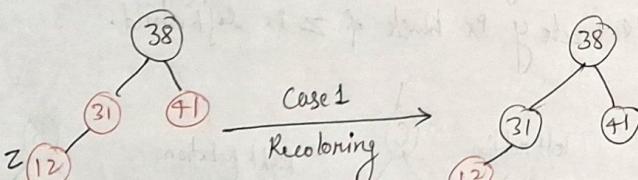
### Insert 38:

③8

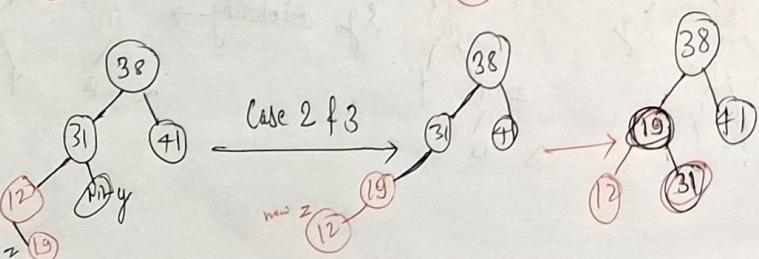
### Insert 31:



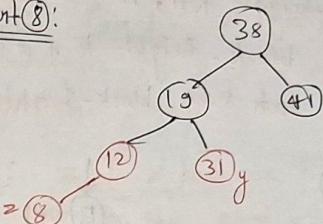
### Insert 12:



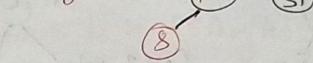
### Insert 19:



### Insert 8:

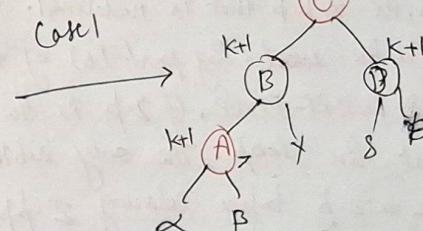
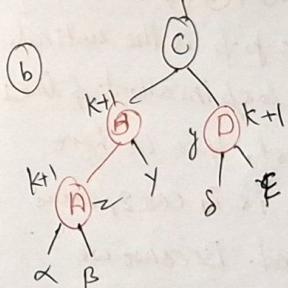
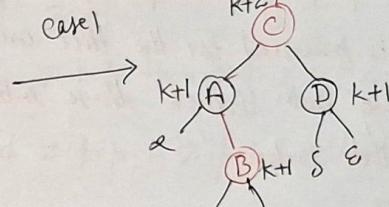
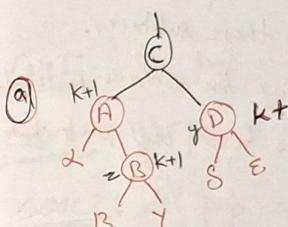


Case 1 &  
Right Rotation



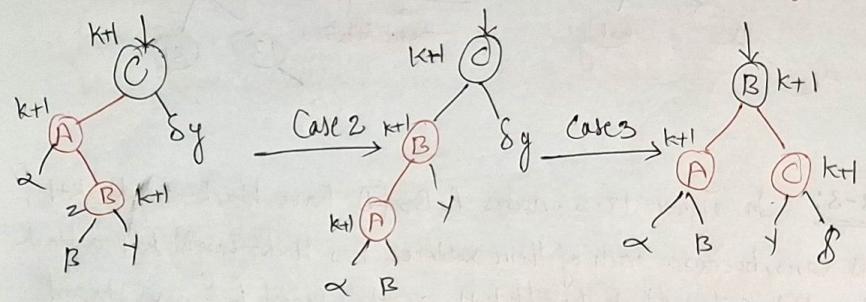
8

13.3-3: In Figure 13.5, nodes A, B, C, D have black-height  $k+1$  in all cases, because each of their subtrees has black-height  $k$  of a black root. Node C has black-height  $k+1$  on the left (because its red children have black-height  $k+1$ ) & black-height  $k+2$  on the right (because its black children have black-height  $k+1$ ).



In Figure 12.6, nodes A, B & C have black-height  $k+1$  in all cases. At left of in the middle, each of A' & B' subtrees has black-height  $k$  of a black root, while C has one such

subtree & a red child black-height  $k+1$ . At the eight, each A's & C's subtrees has black-height  $k$  & a black root, while B's red children each have black-height  $k+1$ .



Property 3 is preserved by the transformations. We have shown above that the black-height is well-defined within the subtrees pictured, so property 3 is preserved within those subtrees.

Property 5 is preserved for the tree containing the subtree pictured, because every path through those subtrees to a leaf contributes  $k+2$  black nodes.

B.3-4: Colors are set to red only in case ① & ③, & in both situations, the  $z.p.p$  that is modified. If  $z.p.p$  is the sentinel, then  $z.p$  is the root. By part (b) of the loop invariant & line 2 of the RB-INSERT-FIXUP, if  $z.p$  is the root, then we have dropped out the loop. The only subtlety is in case 2, where we set  $z = z.p$  before coloring  $z.p.p$  red. Because we rotate before the coloring, the identity of  $z.p.p$  is the same before & after case 2, so there is no problem.

B.3-5: Case 1:  $z$  &  $z.p.p$  are RED, if the loop terminates, then  $z$  could not be the root, thus  $z$  is RED after the fix-up.

Case 2:  $z$  &  $z.p.p$  are RED, & after the rotation  $z.p$  could not be the root, thus  $z.p$  is RED after the fix-up.

Case 3:  $z$  is RED &  $z$  could not be the root, thus  $z$  is RED after the fix up.

Therefore, there is always at least one red node.

B.3-6: Use stack to record the path to the inserted node, then parent is the top element in the stack.

Case 1: We pop  $z.p$  &  $z.p.p$ .

Case 2: We pop  $z.p$  &  $z.p.p$  then push  $z.p.p.p$  &  $z$

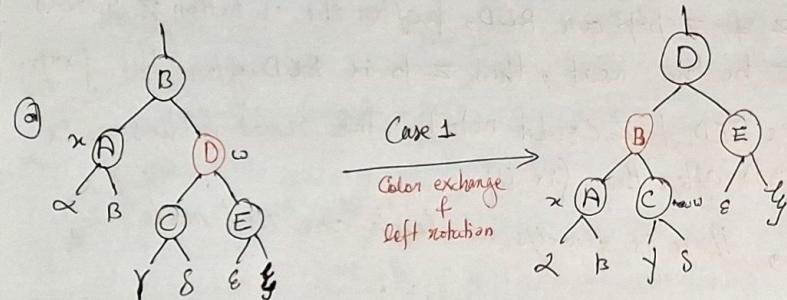
Case 3: We pop  $z.p$  &  $z.p.p.p$  &  $z.p.p.p.p$ , then push  $z.p$ .

### 13.4: Deletion

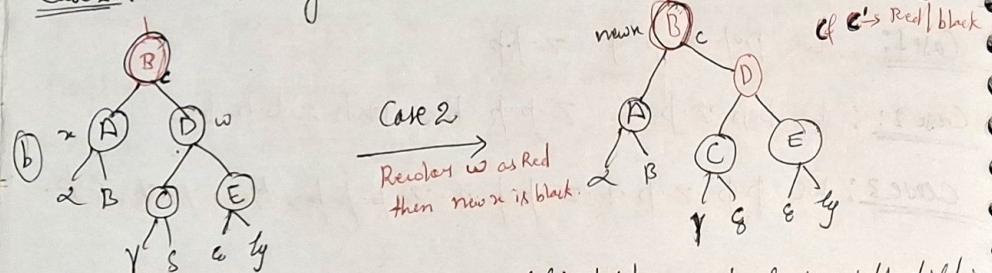
Figure 13.7

Goal (n)

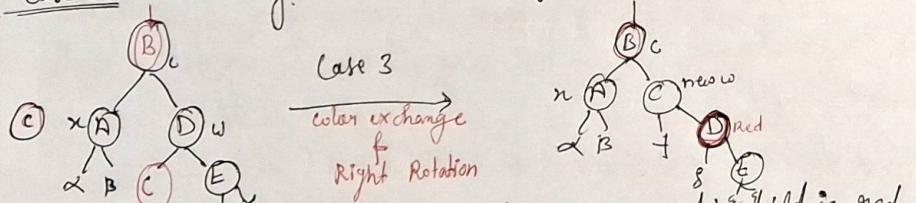
Case 1:  $x$ 's sibling  $w$  is red



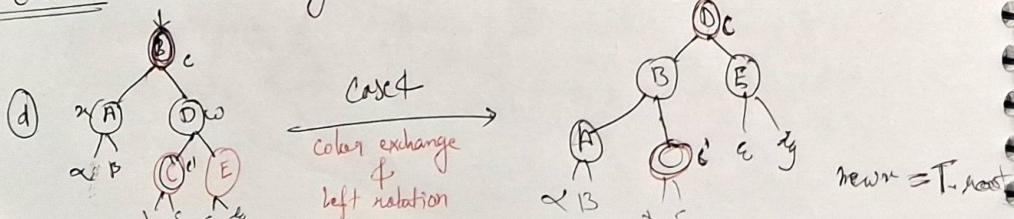
Case 2:  $x$ 's sibling  $w$  is black, if both of  $w$ 's children are black



Case 3:  $x$ 's sibling  $w$  is black,  $w$ 's left child is red, &  $w$ 's right child is black



Case 4:  $x$ 's sibling  $w$  is black, &  $w$ 's right child is red.



### Exercise:

#### 13.4-1:

Case 1: transform to 2, 3, 4

Case 2: if terminates, the root of the subtree (the new  $x$ ) is set to black.

Case 3: transform to 4

Case 4: the root (the new  $x$ ) is set to black.

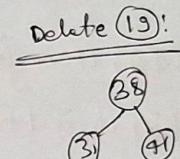
13.4-2: Suppose that both  $x$  &  $x.p$  are red in RB-DELETE. This can only happen in the else-case of line 9. Since we are deleting from a red-black tree, the other child of  $y.p$  which becomes  $x$ 's sibling in the call to RB-TRANSPLANT on line 14 must be black, so  $x$  is the only child of  $x.p$  which is red. The while-loop condition of RB-DELETE-FIXUP ( $T, k$ ) is immediately violated so we simply set  $x.color = \text{black}$ , restoring property 4.

#### 13.4-3:

Deletion sequence  $\langle 8, 12, 19, 31, 38, 41 \rangle$

Inversion keys  $\langle 41, 38, 31, 12, 19, 8 \rangle$

Initially inserted key of RB-tree will be



Delete 19!



Delete 12!



Delete 38!



Delete 41!



13.4-4 → When the node  $y$  in RB-DELETE has no children, the node  $x = T.\text{nil}$ , so we'll examine the line 2 of RB-DELETE FIXUP. [if  $x == x.p.left$ ]

→ When the root node is deleted,  $x = T.\text{nil}$  & the root at this time is  $x$ , & the line 23 of RB-DELETE + FIXUP will draw  $x$  to black. [ $x.\text{color} = \text{BLACK}$ ].

13.4-5: Our count will include the root (If it is black)

Case 1: For each subtree, it is 2 both before & after.

Case 2: For  $\alpha \& \beta$ , it is  $1 + \text{Count}(c)$  in both cases

For the rest of the subtrees, it is from  $2 + \text{Count}(c)$  to  $1 + \text{Count}(c)$ . This decrease in the count for the other subtrees is handled by then having  $x$  represent an additional black.

Case 3: For  $\epsilon \& \delta$ , it is  $2 + \text{Count}(c)$  both before & after.  
For all other subtrees, it is  $1 + \text{Count}(c)$  both before & after.

Case 4:

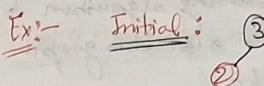
For  $\alpha \& \beta$ , it is from  $1 + \text{Count}(c)$  to  $2 + \text{Count}(c)$ .

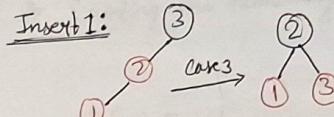
For  $\gamma \& \delta$ , it is  $1 + \text{Count}(c) + \text{Count}(c')$  both before & after

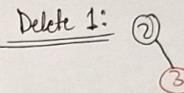
For  $\epsilon \& \delta$ , it is  $1 + \text{Count}(c)$  both before and after.

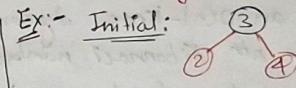
The increase in the count for  $\alpha \& \beta$  is because  $x$  before indicated an extra black.

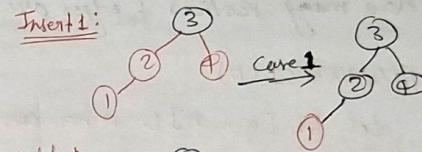
13.4-7: No, the RB tree will not necessarily be the same.

Ex:- Initial: 

Insert 1: 

Delete 1: 

Ex:- Initial: 

Insert 1: 

Delete 1: 