# Algo Lecture 4

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### Abstract

RED-BLACK trees and integer storing algorithms

### Plan:

- Red-black trees
- Lower bound for searching algorithms
- Predecessor problem

# I] Binary search trees.

It's a tree storing **integers** in its nodes. It must satisfy two *properties*:

- It must be **binary** ie. each non-leaf node must have two children.
- The left (resp. right) subtree of each node must contain elements that are  $\leq$  (resp. >) than the node

Access, insertion and deletion of a gibven element are in O(h) time where h is the height of the tree.

A red-black tree is a BST where each node is colored red or black. By constraigning the node colors on any simple path from root to leaf, we ensure that no such path can be more than twice as long as any other  $\rightarrow$  approximate balance

### Properties:

- Every node is either red or black
- the root is black
- every leaf (NIL) is **black**
- is a node is red, then both of its children are black

• for each node, all simple path from it to descendant leaves contain the same number of black nodes

**LEMMA**: The height of such a tree with a node is at most 2log(n+1)

**PROOF**: By induction: Let bh(x) be the number of black nodes in a path from x to any leaf below it. By induction on bh(x): the subtree rooted at x contains at least  $2^{bh(x)} - 1$  nodes

Hence, if h is the black height of the tree,  $n \ge 2^h - 1$  ie.  $h \le log(n+1)$ 

Since in any root-to-leaf path the number of red nodes is at most twice the number of black nodes, the lemma follows.  ${\bf QED}$ 

The search operation is therefore in O(log(n)) time. Insert and delete operation are a bit trickier 'cuz they could violate the red-black properties.

We hence have to *change color* of some nodes and perform *right or left rotations*.

## 1) Insertion

- We start by inserting the node n into the tree T as if we were in an ordinary search tree
- Then we color it red
- To guarantee the preservation of the red-black properties, we call an auxiliary procedure RB-INSERT-FIXUP to recolor nodes and perform rotations.
- 1.2) RB-INSERT-FIXUP We now need to show hopw to restore the redblack properties after insertion. Let z be the node that violates the properties.

Case 1: z's uncle y is red Case 2: z's uncle y is black and z is a right child Case 3: z's uncle y is black and z is a left child

Case 1: color z.p black color y black color z.p.p red That is we invert color of the parent, grandparent and uncle of z Then we treat z.p.p recursively

Case 2: We perform left-rotation on the edge z.p. z We are now in case 3

Case 3: color z.p. black color z.p.p red right-rotate on the edge z.p\_z.p.p That is we invert the color of the parent and grand-parent of z. Then, the red-black properties are restored

### Pseudo-code:

```
RB-INSERT-FIXUP(T, z):
  while z.p.color == RED:
    if z.p == z.p.p.left:
      y <- z.p.p.right</pre>
```

```
if y.color == RED: # Case 1
      z.p.color <- BLACK
      y.color <- BLACK
      z.p.p.color <- RED
      z <- z.p.p
    elif z == z.p.right # Case 2
      z <-s z.p
      LEFT-ROTATE(T, z)
      z.p.color <- BLACK
      z.p.p.color <- RED
      RIGHT-ROTATE(T, z.p.p)
                        # Case 3
      z.p.color <- BLACK
      z.p.p.color <- RED
      RIGHT-ROTATE(T, z.p.p)
    same but inverting "right" and "left"
T.root.colro <- BLACK
```

**Analysis:** The while loop maintains the following three-part invariant. At the start of each iteration of the loop:

- 1. Node z is RED.
- 2. if z.p is the root, then z.p is BLACK
- 3. If there is a violation of the red-bblack properties, there is at most one violation and it is of either:
  - Prt 2 : The root is black. -> Violated chen z is the root and is red
     -> We color z black
  - Prt 4: Is a node is RED, the nboth of its children are BLACK.
  - Violated when z and z.p are red.  $\rightarrow$  The depth of z can only decrease, this happen at least  $O(\log(n))$  times

Insertion therefore happens in  $O(\log(n))$  time.

## 2) Deletion

It's a bit trickier than the insertion We have three cases :

- The node has no children -> Simply delete it
- The node has exactly one child -> replace it with its child

• The node has two children -> replace it with its "successor" -> the bottom left element (hence minimum value of) of its right child

Then if the replacement is black, RB-DELETE-FIXUP(T, x) 'cuz the properties could be violated where x = y.left if y = T.NIL else y.right where y = z if one the z's children is T.NIL else the successor (case 3)

If y.color == BLACK, we can violate these three properties:

- Prt 2: the root is black -> when y si the root and we move y's child x, possibly RED, at its place)
- Prt 4: if a node is RED, then both its children are BLACK
- Prt 5: for each node, all simple paths from it to descendant leaves contain the same number of BLACK nodes -> every root-to-leaf path containing node y now contains one less black node

#### We consider 4 cases:

- x's sibling w is RED
- x's sibling w is BLACK and both children of w are BLACK
- x's sibling w is BLACK, w's left child is RED and right child is BLACK
- x's sibling w is BLACK and w's right child is RED
- Case 1: Rotation on edge w\_w.p reduces to cases 2-4 on x and it's new sibling
- Case 2: Color w in RED reduces to 1
- Case 3: Right-rotation on w\_(w's left child) to reduce to case 4
- Case 4 : Rotation on w\_w.p color w's right child to BLACK Now there's no violation anymore

**DELETION** is also in O(log(n)) time.

# II] Dynamic optimality problem

In practice, we access some elements **more often than others**... -> Can we use that to make the **search faster**?

For a fixed access sequence X, let OPT(X) be the number of unit-cost operations made by the fastest **BST** for X.

A BST is c-competitive is it executes all sufficiently long sequences X in time at most  $c \times OPT(X)$ 

**TANGO TREES** are  $O(\log \log n)$ -competitive. **SPLAY TREES** are conjectured to be O(1)-competitive BUT this hasn't been proved.

A **RED-BLACK tree** can be used to sort a set of n integers in  $O(n \times log \ n)$  time and O(n) space It's not the best algorithm in practice (large hidden constants) -> DFT Assuming we're only allowed to compare integers, is is **asymptotically optimal**.

# III] LOWER BOUND FOR INTEGER SORT-ING

Can we sort in  $o(n \times log \ n)$ ? If only comparisons are allowed, **NO** Any comparison-based sorting program can be thought of a decision tree of possible executions. Running the same program twice on the same permutation causes it to do exactly the same thing, but running it on different permutations of the same data causes a different sequence of comparisons to be made on each.

### CLAIM:

The minimum height of a decision tree is the worst-case complexity of comparison-based sorting.

### LEMMA:

The height of any decision tree is  $\Omega(n \times log n)$ .

### PROOF:

Since any two different permutations of n elements require a different sequence of steps to sort, there must be at least n! different paths from the root to leave in the decision tree.

Thus there must be at least n! leaves in this binary tree. Since a binary tree of height h has  $2^h$  leaves, we know that :  $n! \le 2^h$  ie.  $h \ge log(n!)$ 

Finally,  $log(n!) = \Omega(n \times log n)$  QED.

# IV] PREDECESSOR PROBLEM

Maintain a set S of **integers** from U = [1; u] subject to :

- insertions
- deletions
- predecessor queries : find the largest smallest element
- successor queries : find the smallest largest element

We can use **BST** for O(n) space and  $\Theta(\log n)$  time  $\rightarrow$  Optimal in the comparison model or **van Emde Boas trees** for O(u) space and  $O(\log \log u)$  time.

### VAN EMDE BOAS TREES:

**Idea**: split the universe U in  $\sqrt{u}$  chunks of size  $\sqrt{u}$  each and recurse for each chunk.

If the time per operation satisfies

$$T(u) = T(\sqrt{u}) + O(1), T(u) = O(\log \log u)$$

**T.summary** is a **vBBT** of size  $\sqrt{u}$  containing all i such that the i-th chunk is not empty.

for each  $1 \le i \le \sqrt{u}$ , T.chunk[i] is a **vBBT** of size  $\sqrt{u}$  containing  $x\%\sqrt{u}$  for each x in the i-th chunk

### T.min:

the smallest element in T, not stored recursively (only stored once)

### T.max:

the largest element in T

We introduce **hierchical coordinates**: Represent each integer x = (c, i) where

- c is the chunk containing x  $(c = x//\sqrt{u})$
- i is the position of x in that chunk  $(i = x\%\sqrt{u})$

```
SUCCESSOR(T, x = (c, i)):
    if x < T.min:
     return T.min
    if i < T.chunk[c].max: # successor has to be searched in the same chunk&
     return (c, SUCCESSOR(T.chunk[c], i))
    else:
      c' = SUCESSOR(T.summary, c) # successor has to be searched in the following chunk
      return (c', T.cluster[c'].min)
Analysis: in each case, we have T(u) = T(\sqrt{u}) + 1
```

```
INSERTION(T, x = (c, i)):
  if T.min = None: # if the tree is empty
   T.min = T.max = x
   return
  if x < T:
    swap(x, T.min)
  if x > T.max:
   T.max = x
  if T.chunk[c].min = None: # bucket is empty
    INSERT(T.summary, c) # Next call in constant time! That's because it will store once the
```

INSERT(T.chunk[c], i)

```
DELETION(T, x = (c, i)):
  if x = T.min:
    c = T.summary.min
    if c = None: # T only contains T.min
     T.min = None
   x = T.min = (c, i=T.chunk[c].min) # unstore new min
 DELETE(T.chunk[c], i)
  if T.chunk[c].min = None: # ie. that chunk is now empty
   DELETE(T.summary, c)
                         # we then delete chunk c from the summary
  if T.summary.min = None: # if T only contains one element : T.min
   T.max = T.min
  else:
                            # update the maximum after deletion
   c' = T.summary.max
   T.max = (c', T.chunk[c'].max)
```

We therefore have:

```
• T(u) = T(\sqrt{u}) + O(1) ie. T(u) = O(\log \log u)
• S(u) = (\sqrt{u} + 1) \times S(\sqrt{u}) + O(1) ie. S(u) = O(u)
```

Can we use instead **space** in O(n)?

We construct a **perfect binary tree** whose *leafs* are all **elements from** U

Each leaf holds a *bit*. 1 means the **element is in the tree**. We then define the bit for every node: the OR of its children. It thus has a height in  $O(\log u)$ .

Then, to get the predecessor/successor of an element x, just follow the path from the root to x. Once you encounter a 0, juste keep on following the ones. At the end, you get the **predecessor** or the **successor**.

If the tree is stored in a **double linked list**, we can thus get the predecessor or the successor in  $O(\log \log u)$  time (store it like with a **heap**)

# Better: X-FAST TRESS:

Store every root-to-leaf path corresponding to a present element viewed in binary (left = 0, right = 1), using **cuckoo hashing**. **Predecessor queries** in  $O(\log \log u)$  time, **update** in  $O(\log u)$  expected amortised time and **space**  $O(n \log u)$ 

## Even better: Y-FAST TREES:

We create one big tree containing O(n) nodes and small trees containing between  $\left[\frac{1}{2},2\right]\times log(u)$  elements

The small trees work like BST  $\rightarrow$  groups  $\rightarrow$  a representative for each group is stored in the big tree.  $\rightarrow O(\frac{n}{\log u})$  elements in the big tree

We then get :  $\,$ 

- Predecessor queries in  $O(\log \log u)$  time
- Updates in  $O(\log \log u)$  expected amortised time
- Space : O(n)

How to maintain the  $[\frac{1}{2}, 2] \times log(u)$  elements in each group?

If there are fewer than  $\frac{log(u)}{2}$  elements in total, store them in a single **BST**.

Otherwise, suppose we add/delete an element. If a group becomes too large, split it in two. If a group becomes too small, merge it with its neighbour then split it if needed.