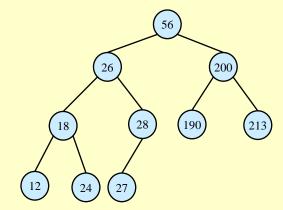
# Binary Search Trees

## **Binary Trees**

- Recursive definition
  - 1. An empty tree is a binary tree
  - 2. A node with two child subtrees is a binary tree
  - 3. Only what you get from 1 by a finite number of applications of 2 is a binary tree.

Is this a binary tree?



## **Binary Search Trees**

- View today as data structures that can support dynamic set operations.
  - » Search, Minimum, Maximum, Predecessor, Successor, Insert, and Delete.
- Can be used to build
  - » Dictionaries.
  - » Priority Queues.
- Basic operations take time proportional to the height of the tree -O(h).

## BST – Representation

- Represented by a linked data structure of nodes.
- root(T) points to the root of tree T.
- Each node contains fields:
  - » key
  - » *left* pointer to left child: root of left subtree.
  - » right pointer to right child : root of right subtree.
  - » p pointer to parent. p[root[T]] = NIL (optional).

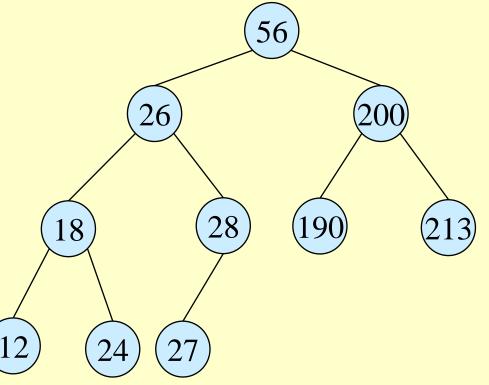


## Binary Search Tree Property

 Stored keys must satisfy the *binary search tree* property.

»  $\forall$  y in left subtree of x, then  $key[y] \leq key[x]$ .

»  $\forall$  *y* in right subtree of *x*, then  $key[y] \ge key[x]$ .

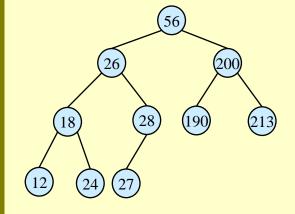


## **Inorder Traversal**

The binary-search-tree property allows the keys of a binary search tree to be printed, in (monotonically increasing) order, recursively.

### <u>Inorder-Tree-Walk (x)</u>

- 1. if  $x \neq NIL$
- 2. **then** Inorder-Tree-Walk(left[p])
- 3. print key[x]
- 4. Inorder-Tree-Walk(right[p])



- How long does the walk take?
- Can you prove its correctness?

## Correctness of Inorder-Walk

- Must prove that it prints all elements, in order, and that it terminates.
- ◆ By induction on size of tree. Size=0: Easy.
- ◆ Size >1:
  - » Prints left subtree in order by induction.
  - » Prints root, which comes after all elements in left subtree (still in order).
  - » Prints right subtree in order (all elements come after root, so still in order).

# Querying a Binary Search Tree

- ◆ All dynamic-set search operations can be supported in O(h) time.
- $h = \Theta(\lg n)$  for a balanced binary tree (and for an average tree built by adding nodes in random order.)
- $h = \Theta(n)$  for an unbalanced tree that resembles a linear chain of n nodes in the worst case.

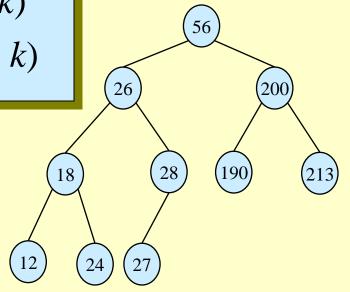
### Tree Search

### $\underline{\text{Tree-Search}(x, k)}$

- 1. **if** x = NIL or k = key[x]
- 2. **then** return x
- 3. **if** k < key[x]
- 4. **then** return Tree-Search(left[x], k)
- 5. **else** return Tree-Search(right[x], k)

#### Running time: O(h)

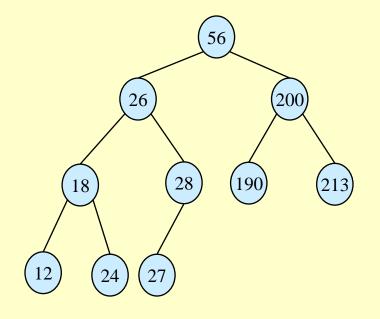
**Aside: tail-recursion** 



### Iterative Tree Search

### <u>Iterative-Tree-Search(*x*, *k*)</u>

- 1. while  $x \neq NIL$  and  $k \neq key[x]$
- 2. **do if** k < key[x]
- 3. **then**  $x \leftarrow left[x]$
- 4. **else**  $x \leftarrow right[x]$
- 5. return x



The iterative tree search is more efficient on most computers. The recursive tree search is more straightforward.

## Finding Min & Max

- The binary-search-tree property guarantees that:
  - » The minimum is located at the left-most node.
  - » The maximum is located at the right-most node.

#### $\underline{\text{Tree-Minimum}(x)}$

#### 1. while $left[x] \neq NIL$

- 2. **do**  $x \leftarrow left[x]$
- 3. return x

#### Tree-Maximum(x)

- 1. while  $right[x] \neq NIL$
- 2. **do**  $x \leftarrow right[x]$
- 3. return x

Q: How long do they take?

### Predecessor and Successor

- Successor of node x is the node y such that key[y] is the smallest key greater than key[x].
- The successor of the largest key is NIL.
- Search consists of two cases.
  - » If node x has a non-empty right subtree, then x's successor is the minimum in the right subtree of x.
  - » If node x has an empty right subtree, then:
    - As long as we move to the left up the tree (move up through right children), we are visiting smaller keys.
    - x's successor y is the node that x is the predecessor of (x is the maximum in y's left subtree).
    - In other words, x's successor y, is the lowest ancestor of x whose left child is also an ancestor of x.

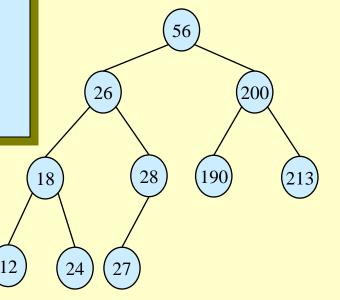
### Pseudo-code for Successor

#### <u>Tree-Successor(x)</u>

- **if**  $right[x] \neq NIL$
- 2. **then** return Tree-Minimum(right[x])
- 3.  $y \leftarrow p[x]$
- 4. while  $y \neq NIL$  and x = right[y]
- 5. **do**  $x \leftarrow y$
- 6.  $y \leftarrow p[y]$
- 7. **return** y

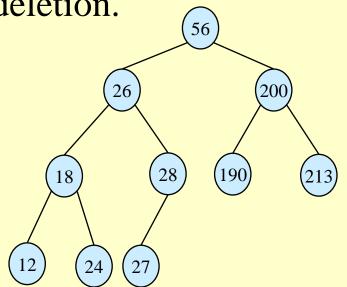
Code for *predecessor* is symmetric.

Running time: O(h)



### BST Insertion – Pseudocode

- Change the dynamic set represented by a BST.
- Ensure the binarysearch-tree property holds after change.
- Insertion is easier than deletion.



```
Tree-Insert(T, z)
      y \leftarrow NIL
2.
      x \leftarrow root[T]
      while x \neq NIL
3.
4.
         do y \leftarrow x
5.
             if key[z] < key[x]
                  then x \leftarrow left[x]
6.
7.
                  else x \leftarrow right[x]
8.
    p[z] \leftarrow y
9.
      if y = NIL
         then root[t] \leftarrow z
10.
11.
         else if key[z] < key[y]
12.
              then left[y] \leftarrow z
13.
              else right[y] \leftarrow z
```

## **Analysis of Insertion**

- Initialization: *O*(1)
- While loop in lines 3-7 searches for place to insert z, maintaining parent y.
   This takes O(h) time.
- ◆ Lines 8-13 insert the value: *O*(1)
- $\Rightarrow$  TOTAL: O(h) time to insert a node.

```
Tree-Insert(T, z)
1.
      y \leftarrow NIL
2.
      x \leftarrow root[T]
3. while x \neq NIL
4.
         do y \leftarrow x
5.
             if key[z] < key[x]
                  then x \leftarrow left[x]
6.
7.
                  else x \leftarrow right[x]
8.
     p[z] \leftarrow y
9.
      if y = NIL
10.
          then root[t] \leftarrow z
11.
         else if key[z] < key[y]
12.
              then left[y] \leftarrow z
13.
              else right[y] \leftarrow z
```

# **Exercise: Sorting Using BSTs**

```
Sort (A)
for i \leftarrow 1 to n
do tree-insert(A[i])
inorder-tree-walk(root)
```

- » What are the worst case and best case running times?
- » In practice, how would this compare to other sorting algorithms?

## Tree-Delete (T, x)

if x has no children ♦ case 0 then remove x if x has one child ♦ case 1 then make p[x] point to child if x has two children (subtrees)  $\diamond$  case 2 then swap x with its successor perform case 0 or case 1 to delete it

 $\Rightarrow$  TOTAL: O(h) time to delete a node

### Deletion – Pseudocode

#### Tree-Delete(T, z)

```
/* Determine which node to splice out: either z or z's successor. */
      if left[z] = NIL or right[z] = NIL
         then y \leftarrow z
         else y \leftarrow \text{Tree-Successor}[z]
/* Set x to a non-NIL child of x, or to NIL if y has no children. */
   if left[y] \neq NIL
          then x \leftarrow left[y]
         else x \leftarrow right[y]
/* y is removed from the tree by manipulating pointers of p[y]
      and x */
7. if x \neq NIL
        then p[x] \leftarrow p[y]
/* Continued on next slide */
```

### Deletion – Pseudocode

#### $\underline{\text{Tree-Delete}(T, z)}$ (Contd. from previous slide)

```
if p[y] = NIL
9.
10.
         then root[T] \leftarrow x
11.
         else if y \leftarrow left[p[i]]
               then left[p[y]] \leftarrow x
12.
13.
              else right[p[y]] \leftarrow x
/* If z's successor was spliced out, copy its data into z */
14. if y \neq z
15.
         then key[z] \leftarrow key[y]
                 copy y's satellite data into z.
16.
17. return y
```

### Correctness of Tree-Delete

- How do we know case 2 should go to case 0 or case 1 instead of back to case 2?
  - » Because when x has 2 children, its successor is the minimum in its right subtree, and that successor has no left child (hence 0 or 1 child).
- Equivalently, we could swap with predecessor instead of successor. It might be good to alternate to avoid creating lopsided tree.

## **Binary Search Trees**

- View today as data structures that can support dynamic set operations.
  - » Search, Minimum, Maximum, Predecessor, Successor, Insert, and Delete.
- Can be used to build
  - » Dictionaries.
  - » Priority Queues.
- Basic operations take time proportional to the height of the tree -O(h).

### Red-black trees: Overview

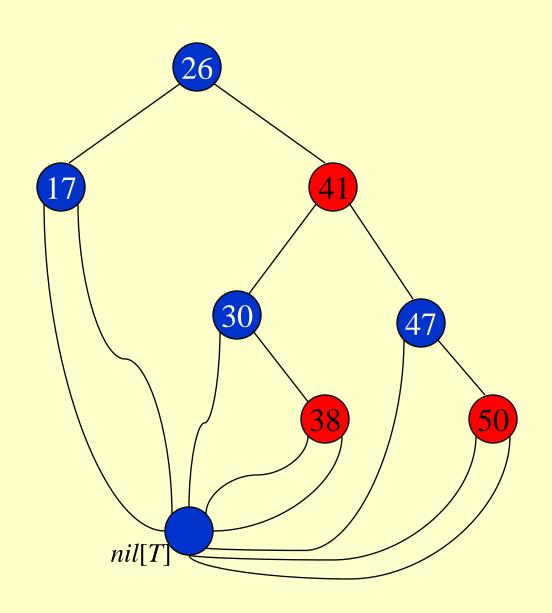
- Red-black trees are a variation of binary search trees to ensure that the tree is *balanced*.
  - » Height is  $O(\lg n)$ , where n is the number of nodes.
- Operations take  $O(\lg n)$  time in the worst case.

### Red-black Tree

- Binary search tree + 1 bit per node: the attribute *color*, which is either **red** or **black**.
- All other attributes of BSTs are inherited:
  - $\gg$  key, left, right, and p.

- All empty trees (leaves) are colored black.
  - » We use a single sentinel, nil, for all the leaves of red-black tree T, with color[nil] = black.
  - » The root's parent is also nil[T].

# Red-black Tree – Example



## Red-black Properties

- 1. Every node is either red or black.
- 2. The root is black.
- 3. Every leaf (*nil*) is black.
- 4. If a node is red, then both its children are black.
- 5. For each node, all paths from the node to descendant leaves contain the same number of black nodes.

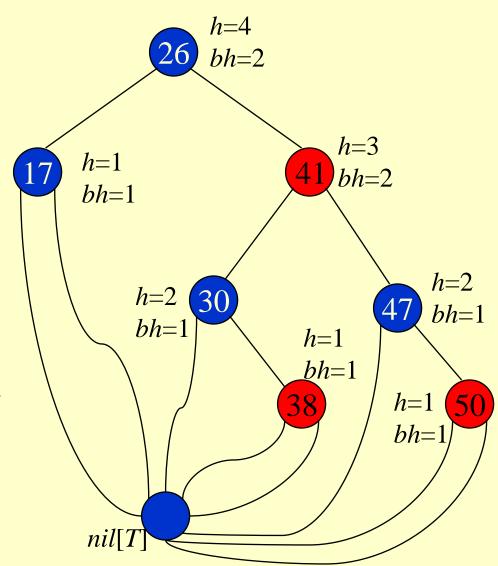
## Height of a Red-black Tree

- Height of a node:
  - » Number of edges in a longest path to a leaf.
- Black-height of a node x, bh(x):
  - » bh(x) is the number of black nodes (including nil[T]) on the path from x to leaf, not counting x.
- Black-height of a red-black tree is the black-height of its root.
  - » By Property 5, black height is well defined.

## Height of a Red-black Tree

• Example:

- Height of a node:
  - » Number of edges in a longest path to a leaf.
- Black-height of a node
   bh(x) is the number of
   black nodes on path from
   x to leaf, not counting x.



## Hysteresis: or the value of lazyness

◆ **Hysteresis**, n. [fr. Gr. to be behind, to lag.] a retardation of an effect when the forces acting upon a body are changed (as if from viscosity or internal friction); *especially*: a lagging in the values of resulting magnetization in a magnetic material (as iron) due to a changing magnetizing force