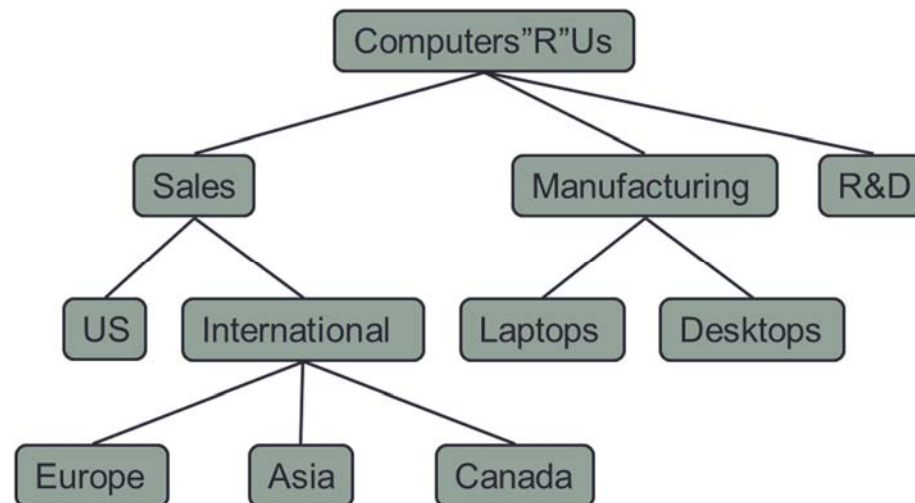


## Lecture 6. Binary Search Trees. Binary Heaps

SIT221 Data Structures and Algorithms

## Tree: Definition

- In computer science, a tree is an abstract model of a hierarchical structure.
- A tree consists of nodes with a parent-child relation (inspired by family trees).
- Every node except one has a unique parent.
- Applications:
  - Organization charts
  - File systems
  - Programming environments

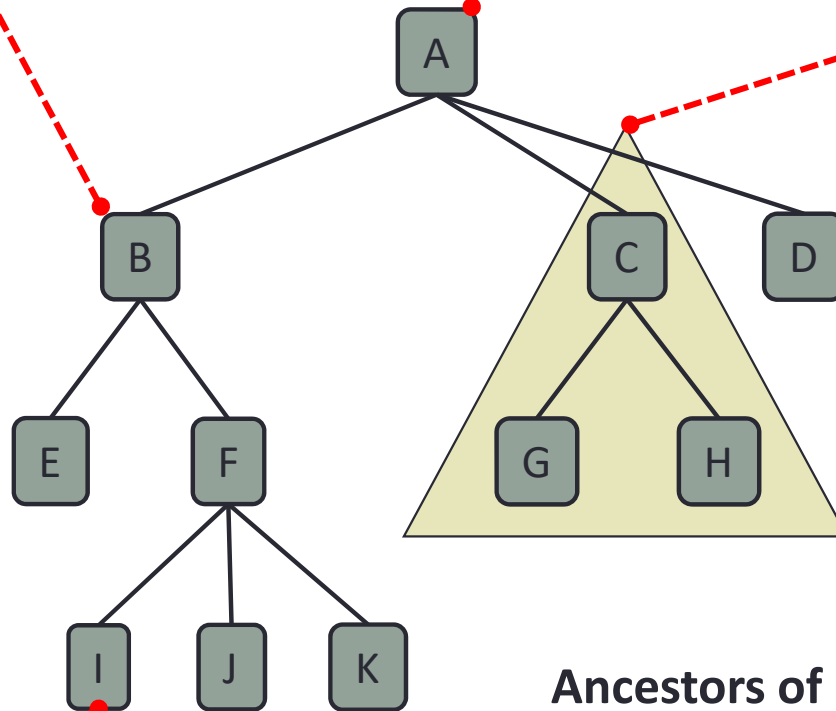


# Tree: Terminology

**Root:** unique node without a parent

**Internal node:** node with at least one child (A, B, C, F)

**Subtree:** tree consisting of a node and its descendants



**Ancestors of a node:** parent, grandparent, etc.

**Depth of a node:** number of ancestors

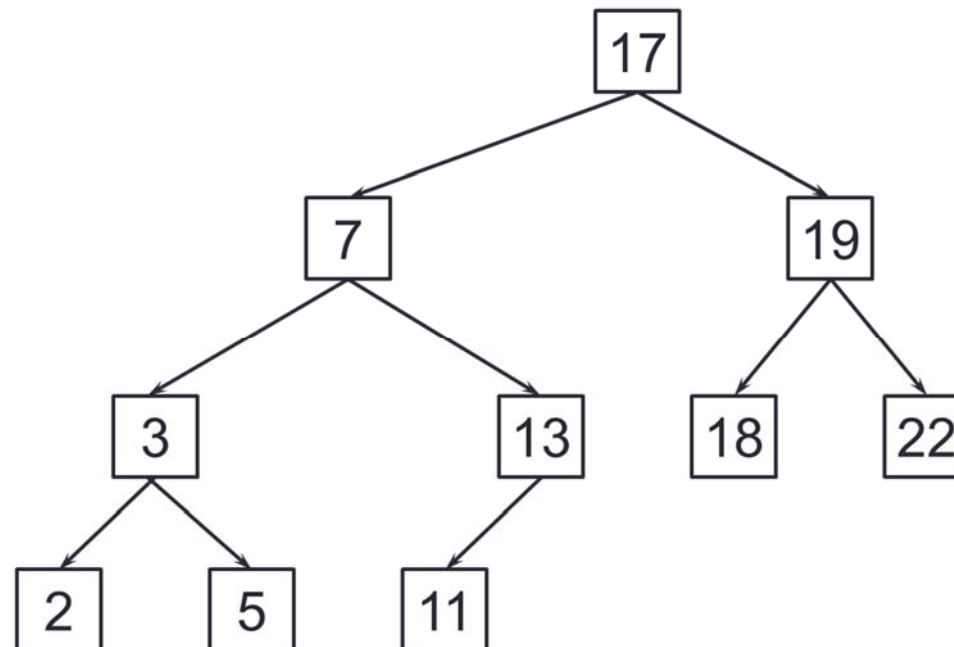
**Descendant of a node:** child, grandchild, etc.

**Height of a tree:** maximum depth of any node (3)

**External node (a.k.a. leaf):**  
node without children  
(E, I, J, K, G, H, D)

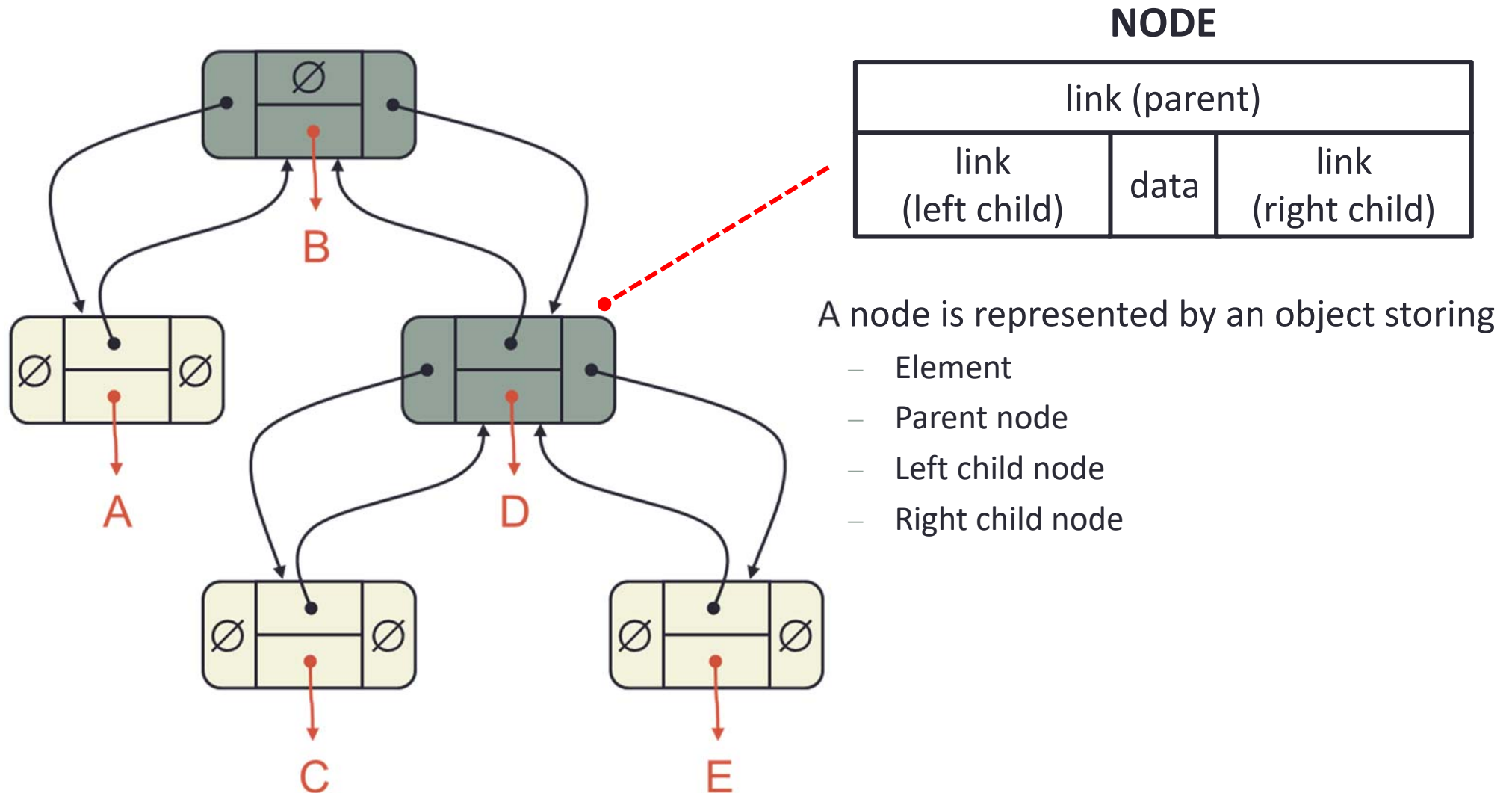
## Binary Search Trees: Idea

- We want to have a pointer-based representation of trees
- Each node
  - stores an element
  - has a pointer to the left subtree (might be null)
  - has a point to the right subtree (might be null)





# Binary Search Trees: Linked Structure



## Binary Search Trees

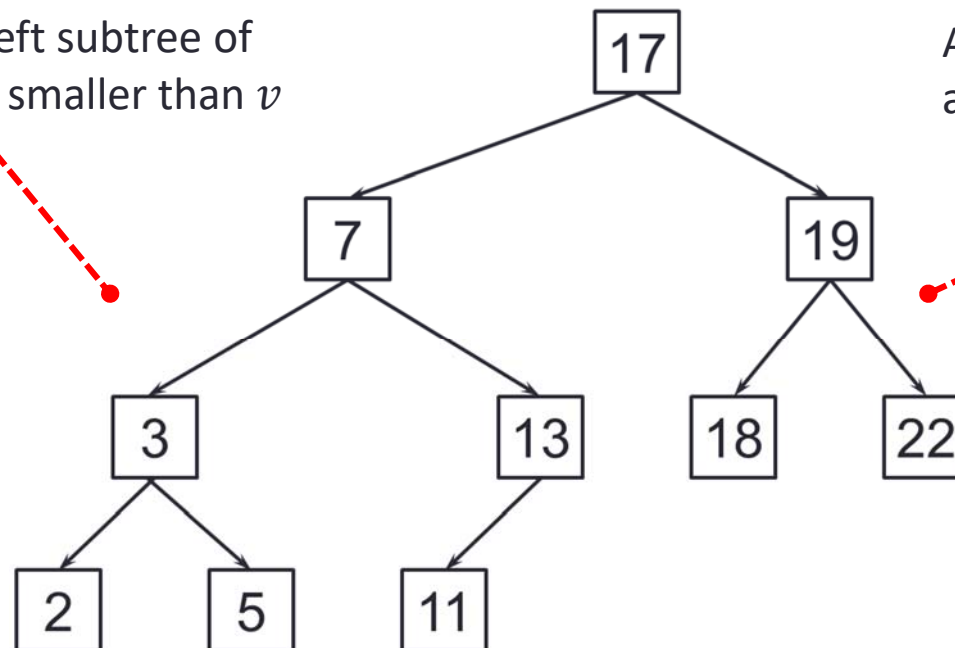
A **binary search tree** is a binary tree storing keys (or key-value entries) at its internal nodes and satisfying the following property:

Let  $u$ ,  $v$ , and  $w$  be three nodes such that  $u$  is in the left subtree of  $v$  and  $w$  is in the right subtree of  $v$ . Then we have

$$\text{key}(u) \leq \text{key}(v) \leq \text{key}(w)$$

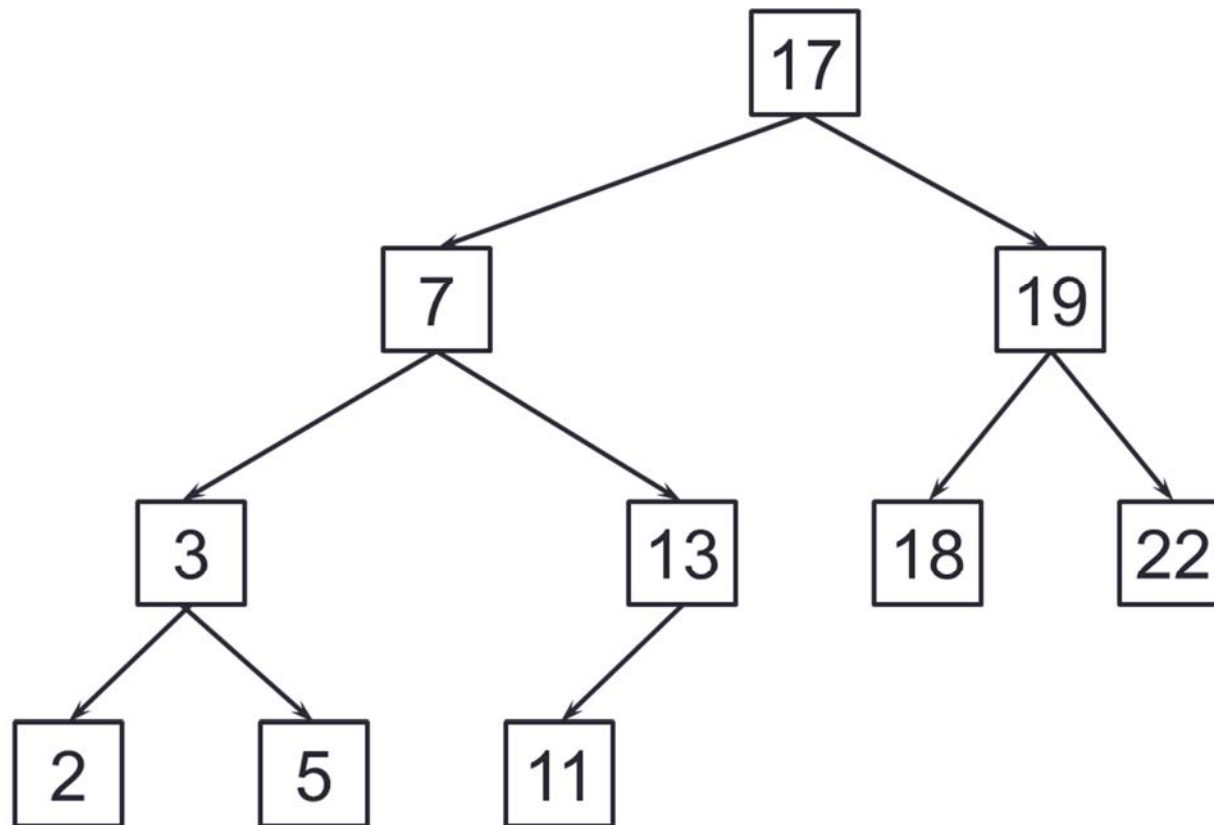
All elements in the left subtree of a node  $v$  have value smaller than  $v$

All elements in the right subtree of a node  $v$  have value larger than  $v$



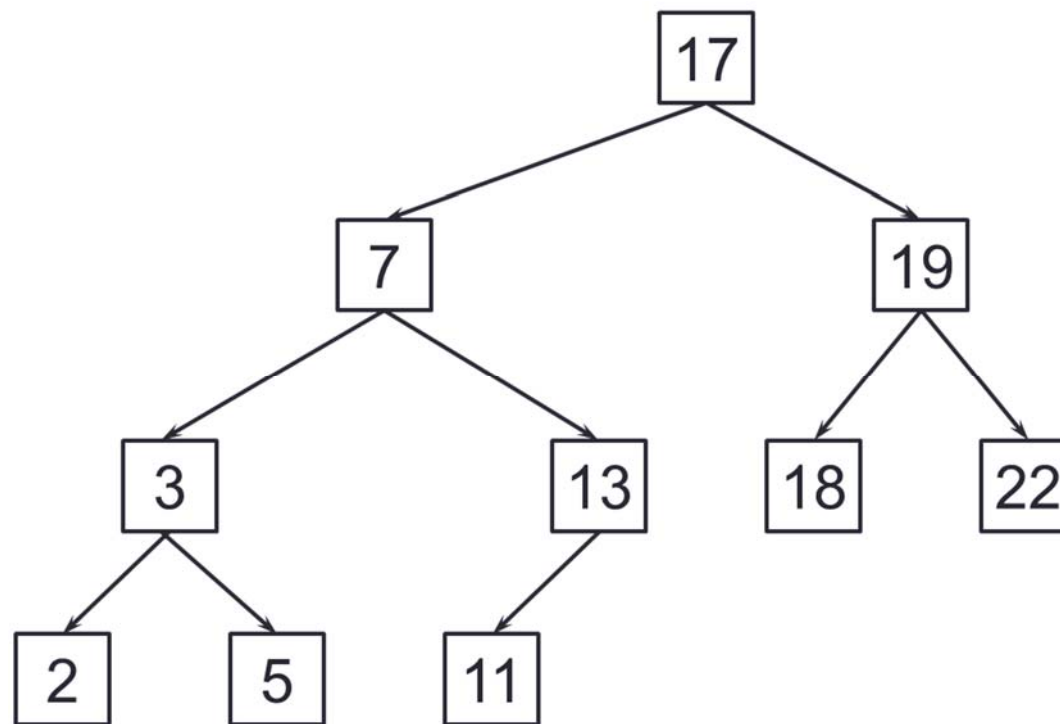
## Binary Search Trees: Tree Traversal

- Want to visit every node in the tree (and print out the elements).
- Want to have a recursive formulation for tree traversal.



## Binary Search Trees: Preorder Traversal

1. Visit the root (and print out the element)
2. If (node.left != null) Preorder(node.left)
3. If (node.right != null) Preorder(node.right)

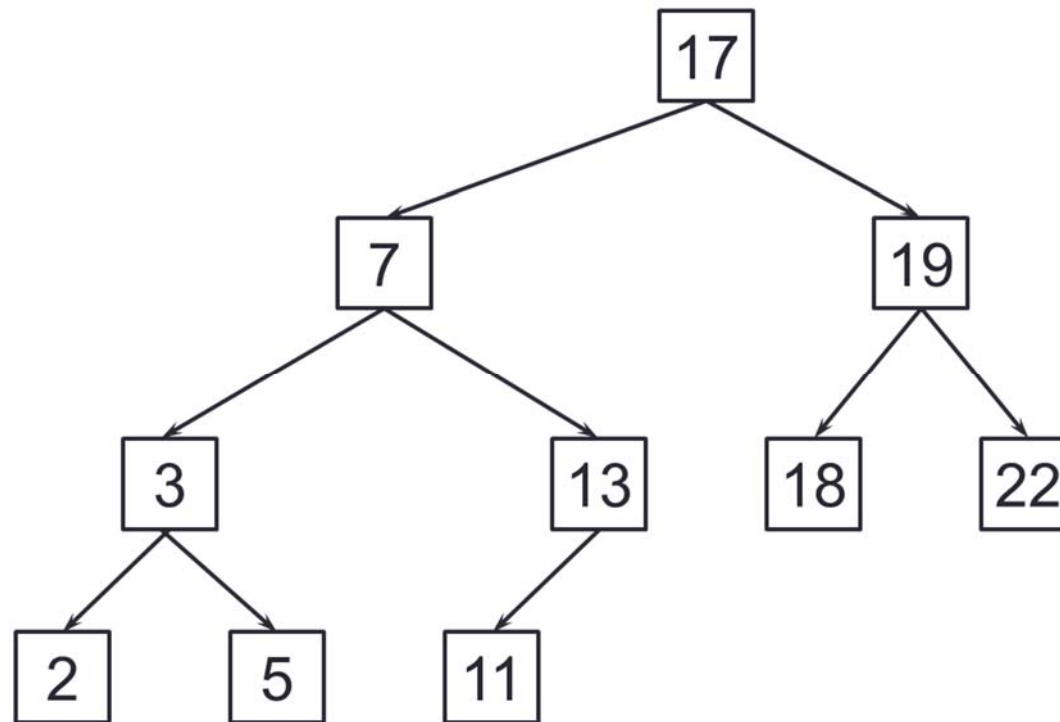


Order nodes are visited: 17, 7, 3, 2, 5, 13, 11, 19, 18, 22



## Binary Search Trees: Postorder Traversal

1. If (node.left != null) Postorder(node.left)
2. If (node.right != null) Postorder(node.right)
3. Visit the root (and print out the element)



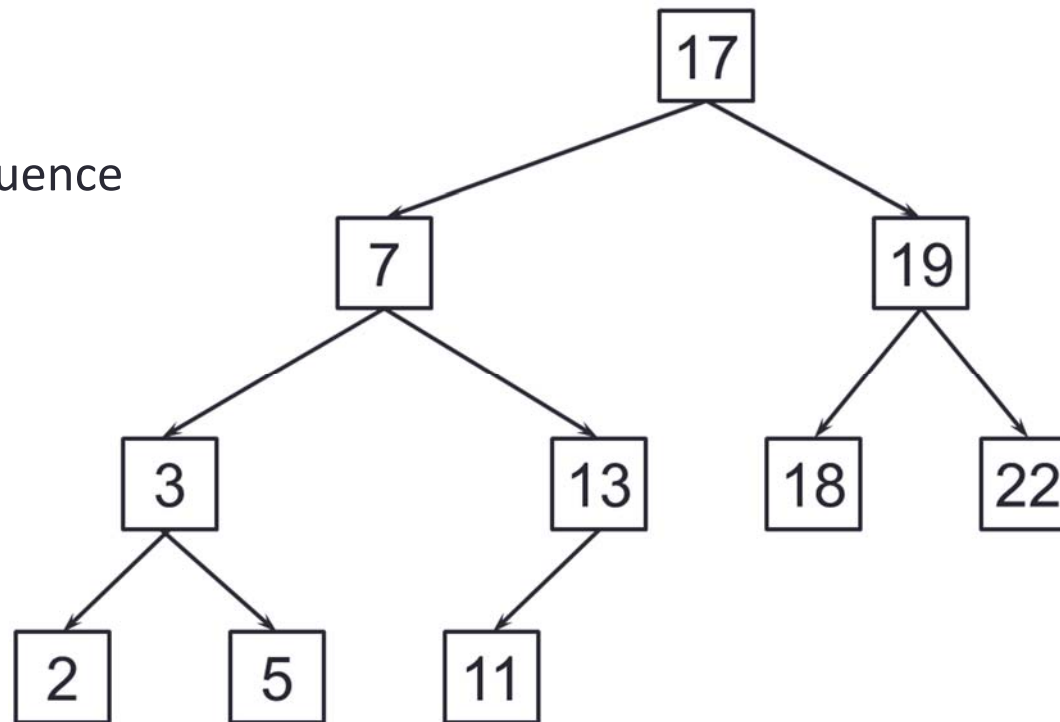
Order nodes are visited: 2, 5, 3, 11, 13, 7, 18, 22, 19, 17

## Binary Search Trees: Inorder Traversal

1. If (node.left != null) Inorder(node.left)
2. Visit the root (and print out the element)
3. If (node.right != null) Inorder(node.right)

### Observation:

The resulting sequence is sorted



Order nodes are visited: 2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 18, 19, 22

## Binary Search Trees: Basic Operations

- Find an element  $e$  in the binary search tree
- Insert an element  $e$  into the binary search tree
- Delete an element  $e$  from the binary search tree

Want to have all these operations implemented in time  $O(\log n)$ .

## Binary Search Trees: Find Operation

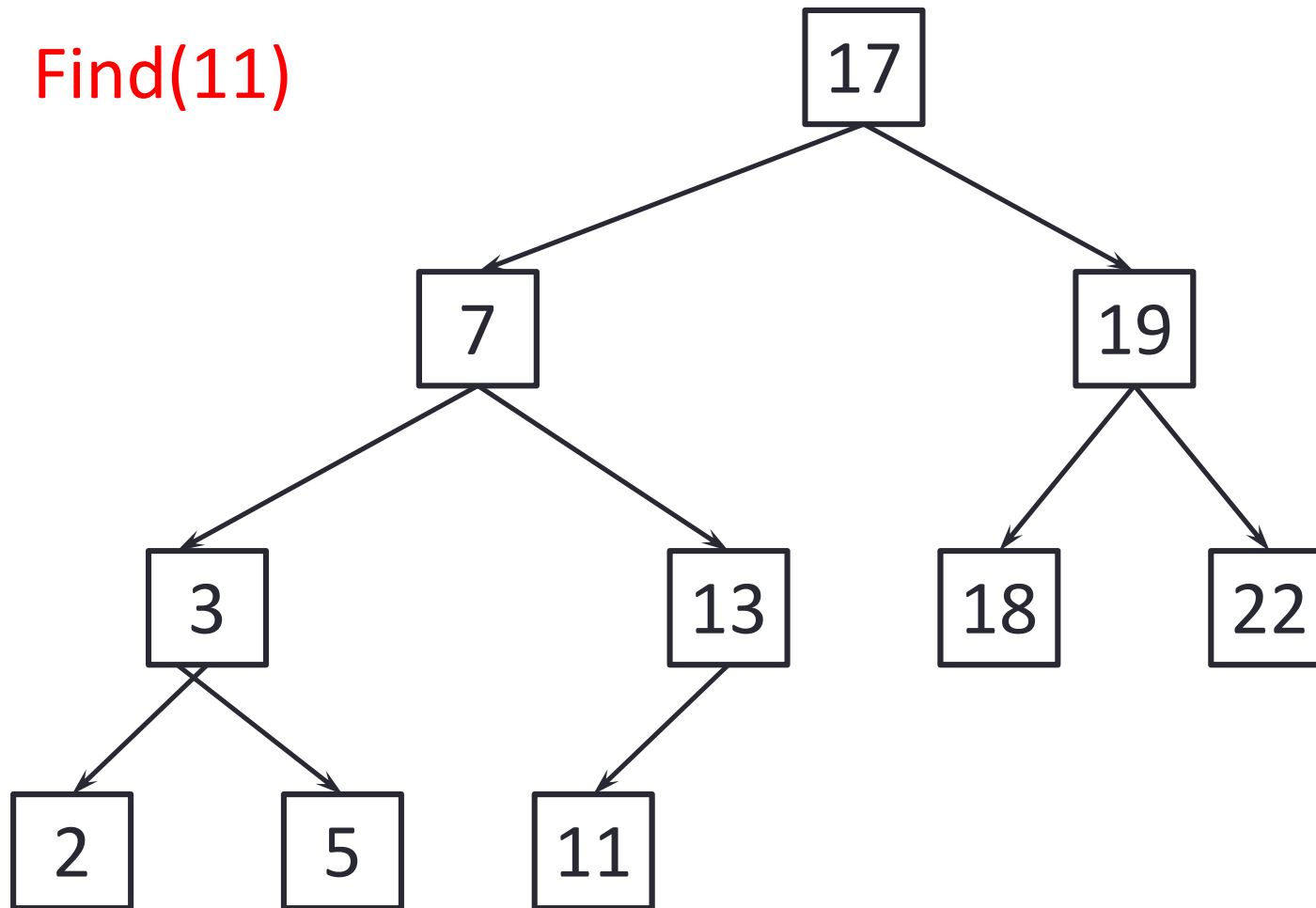
- To search for a key  $k$ , we trace a downward path starting at the root.
- The next node visited depends on the outcome of the comparison of  $k$  with the key of the current node.
- If we reach a leaf, the key is not found and we return null.

### Find( $k$ )

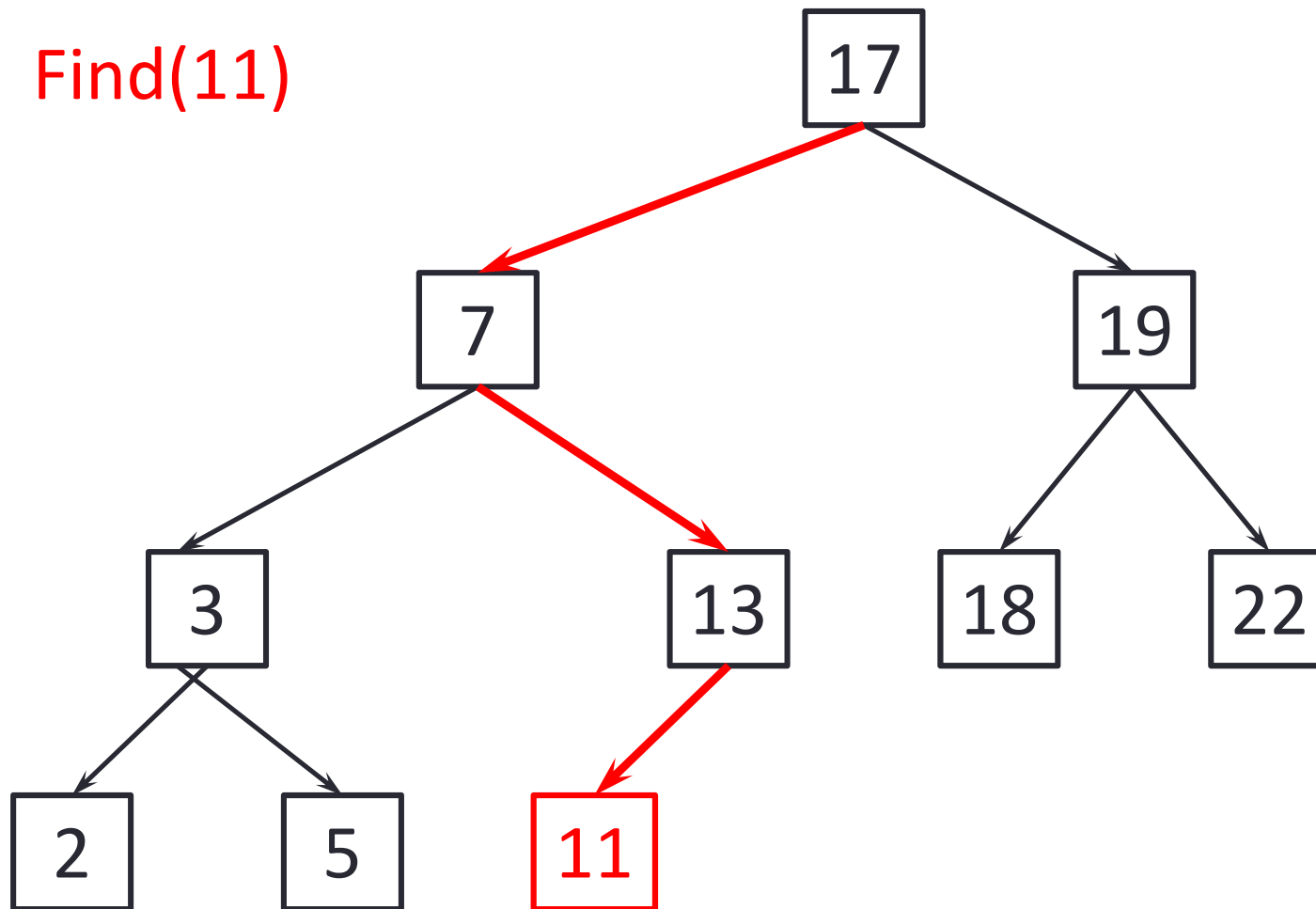
1. Start at the root.
2. At a node  $x$ , compare  $x$  and  $k$ .
  - If  $k = x$ , then **found**
  - If  $k < x$ , search in the left subtree of  $x$ .  
If subtree does not exist return **not found**.
  - If  $k > x$ , search in the right subtree of  $x$ .  
If subtree does not exist, return **not found**

# Binary Search Trees: Find Operation

Find(11)



# Binary Search Trees: Find Operation





## Binary Search Trees: Insertion

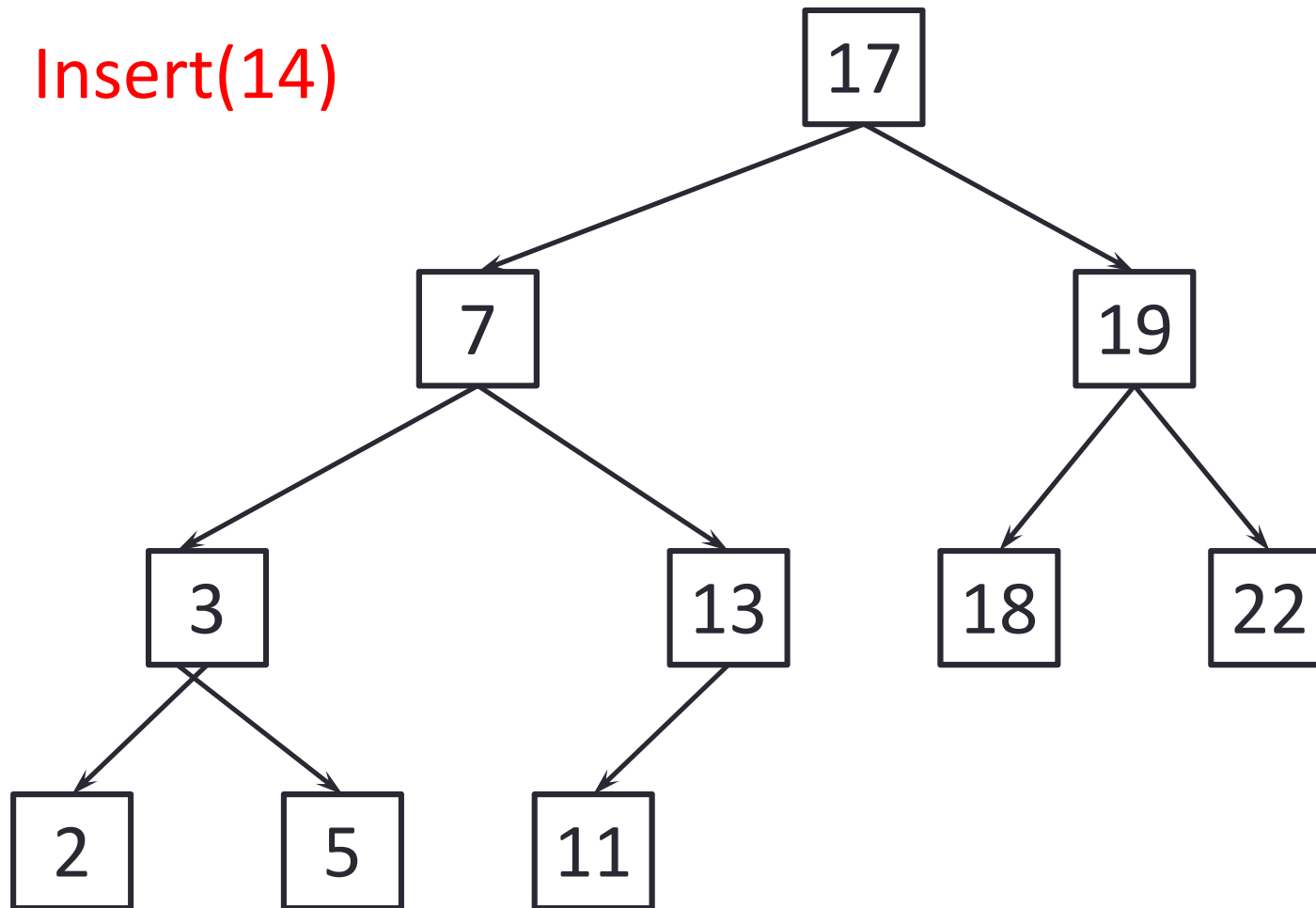
- To perform operation  $\text{Insert}(k)$ , we search for key  $k$  using  $\text{Find}(k)$
- Assume  $k$  is not yet in the tree, and let  $w$  be the leaf reached by  $\text{Find}(k)$
- We insert  $k$  at node  $w$  and expand  $w$  into an internal node

### **$\text{Insert}(k)$**

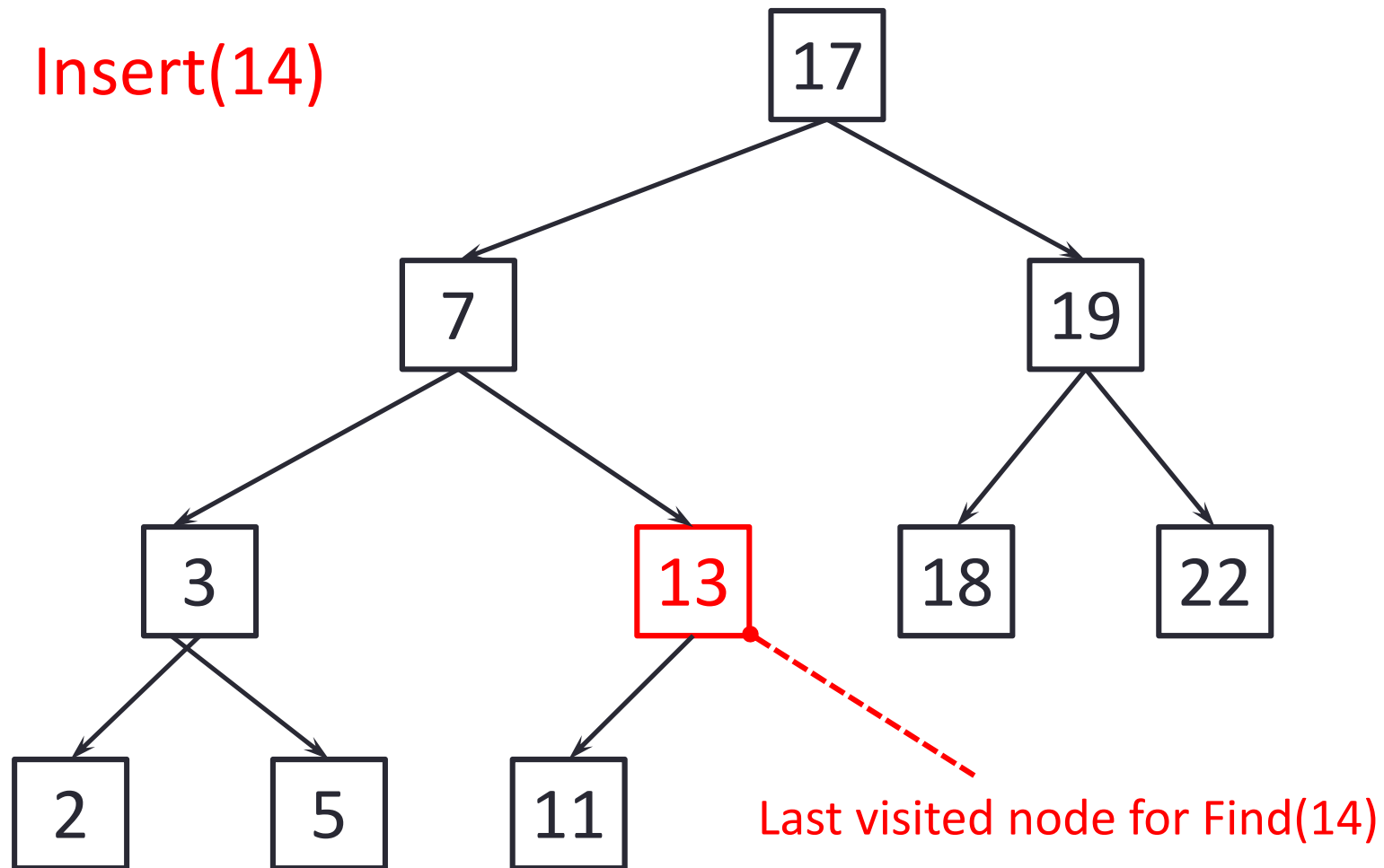
1.  $\text{Find}(k)$
2. If not found, element with key  $k$  becomes child of the last visited node of  $\text{Find}(k)$ .

# Binary Search Trees: Insertion

Insert(14)

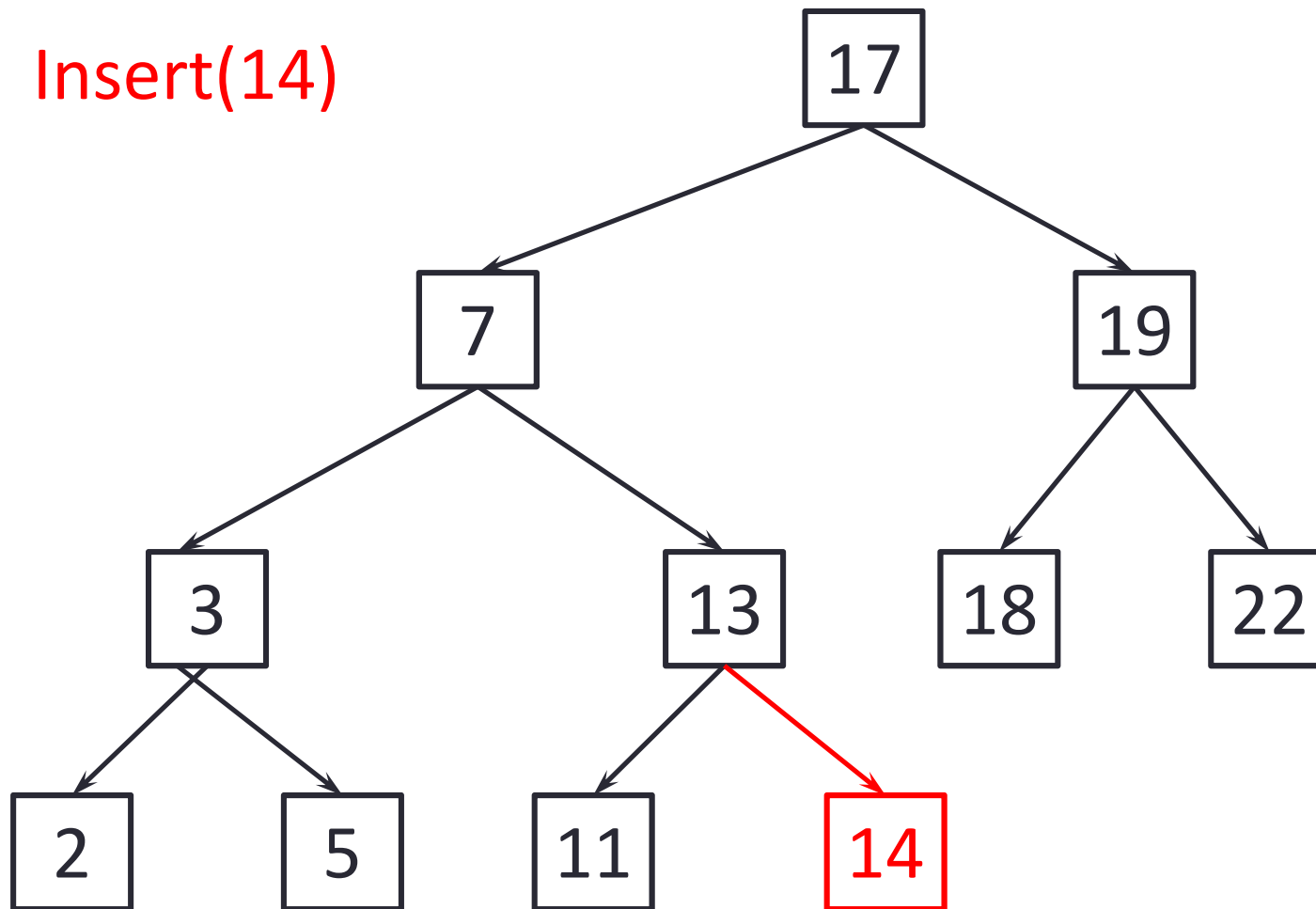


# Binary Search Trees: Insertion



# Binary Search Trees: Insertion

Insert(14)



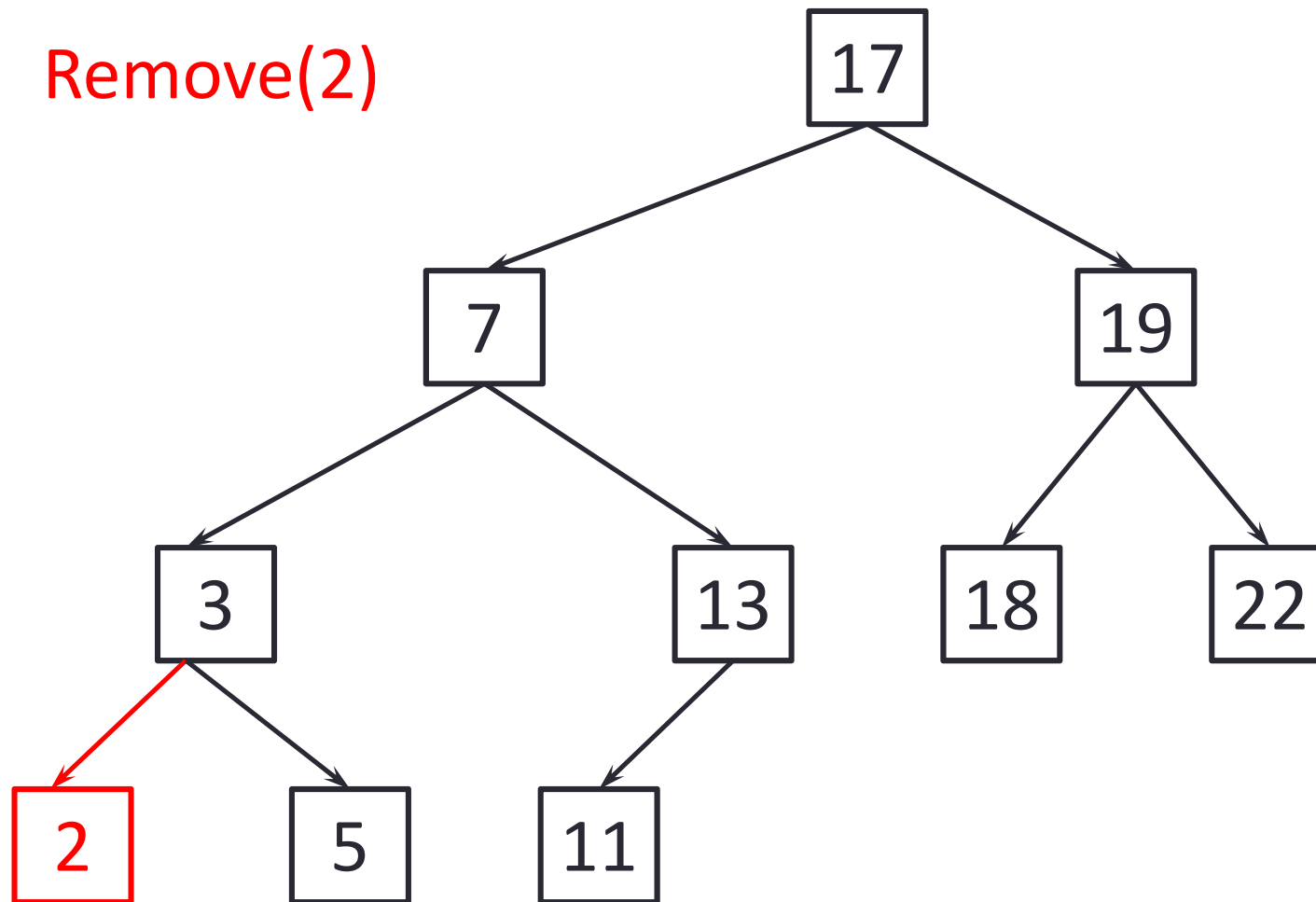
# Binary Search Trees: Deletion

## Remove( $k$ )

### 1. Find( $k$ )

- If  $k$  is stored at a leaf, delete this leaf and the incoming edge.
- If  $k$  has one child  $x$ , redirect pointer pointing to  $k$  to  $x$  and delete  $k$ .
- If  $k$  has two children
  - search in the tree for the largest element  $x$  smaller than  $k$ .
  - swap  $x$  and  $k$  and Remove( $k$ )

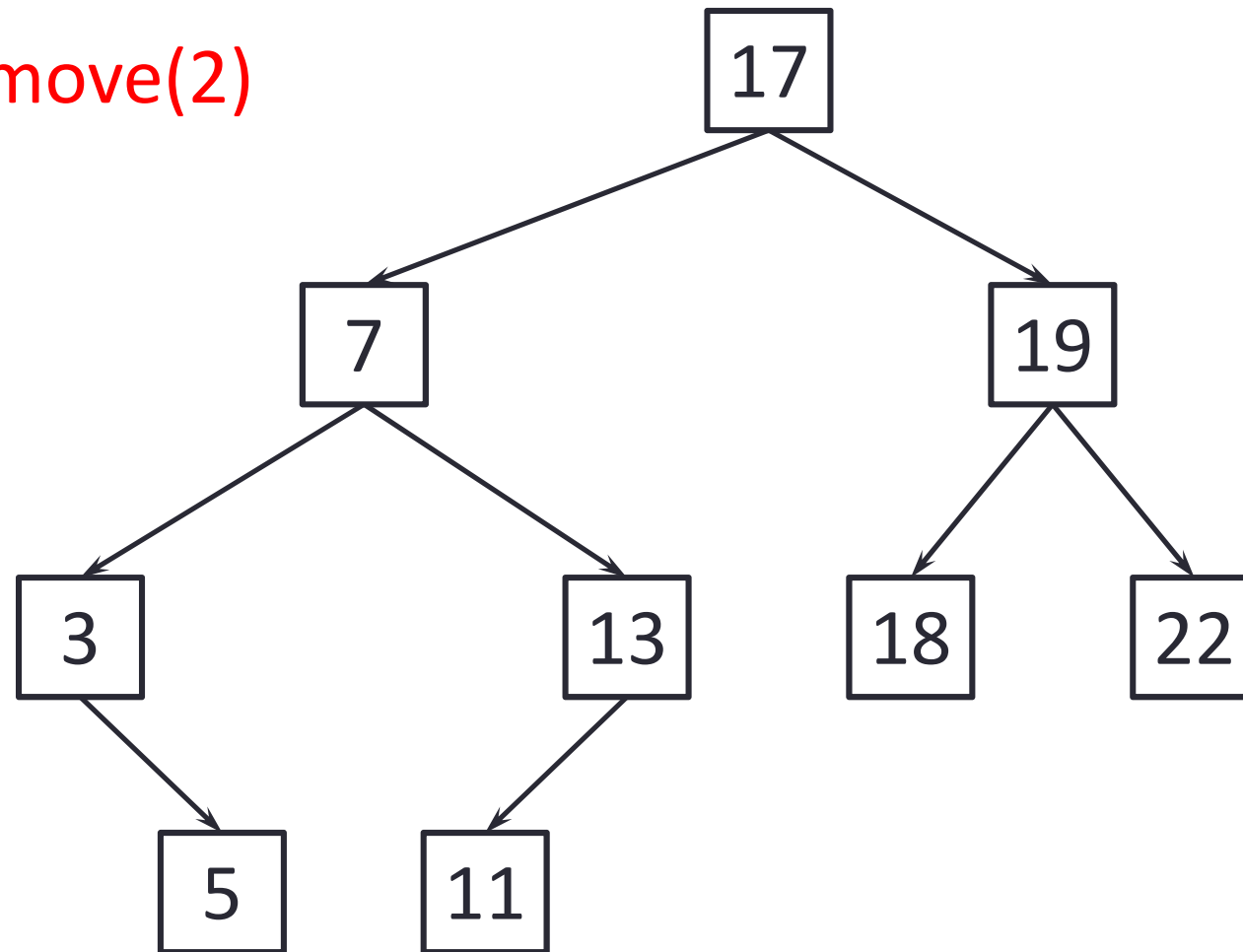
# Binary Search Trees: Deletion





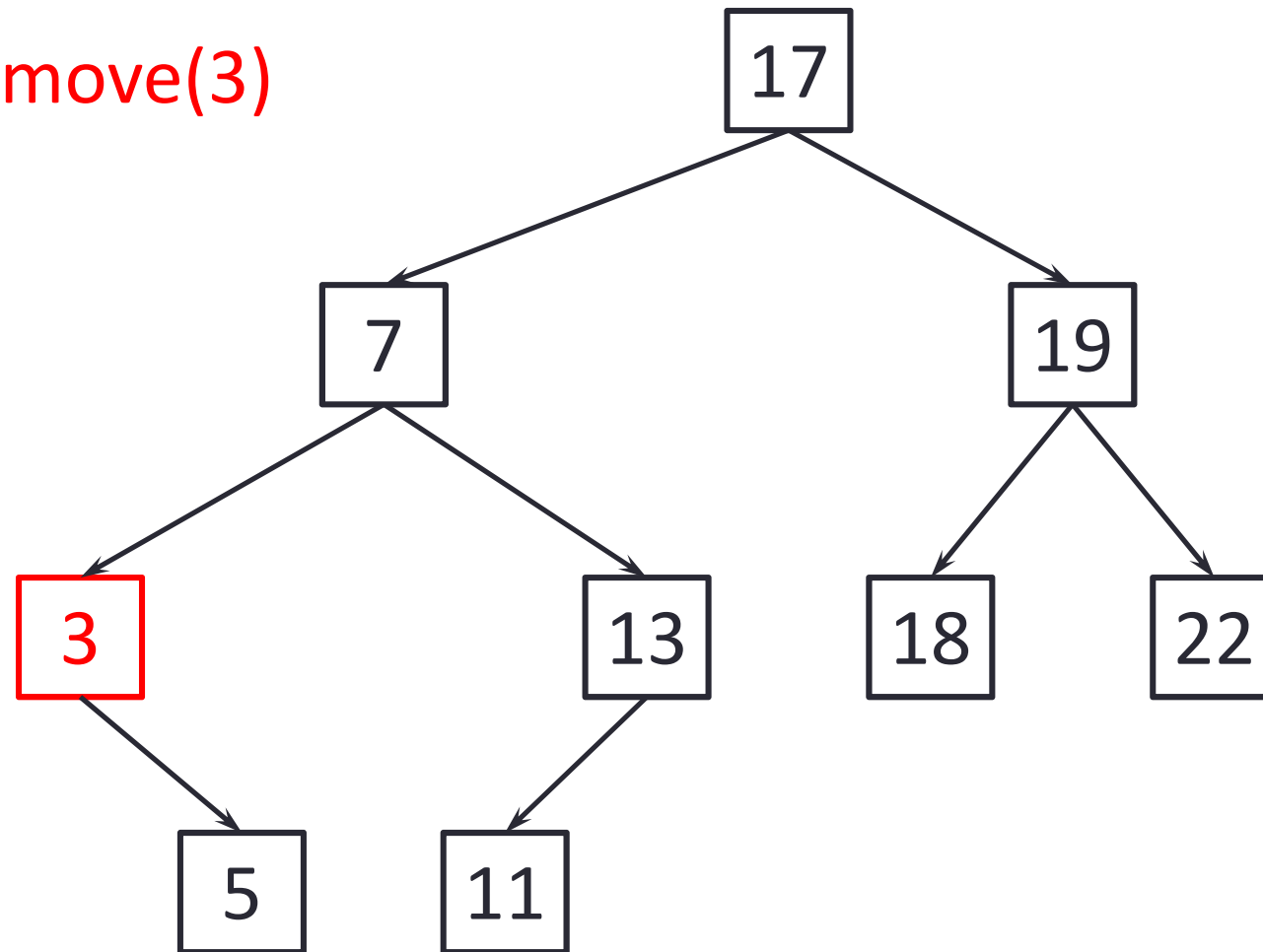
# Binary Search Trees: Deletion

Remove(2)



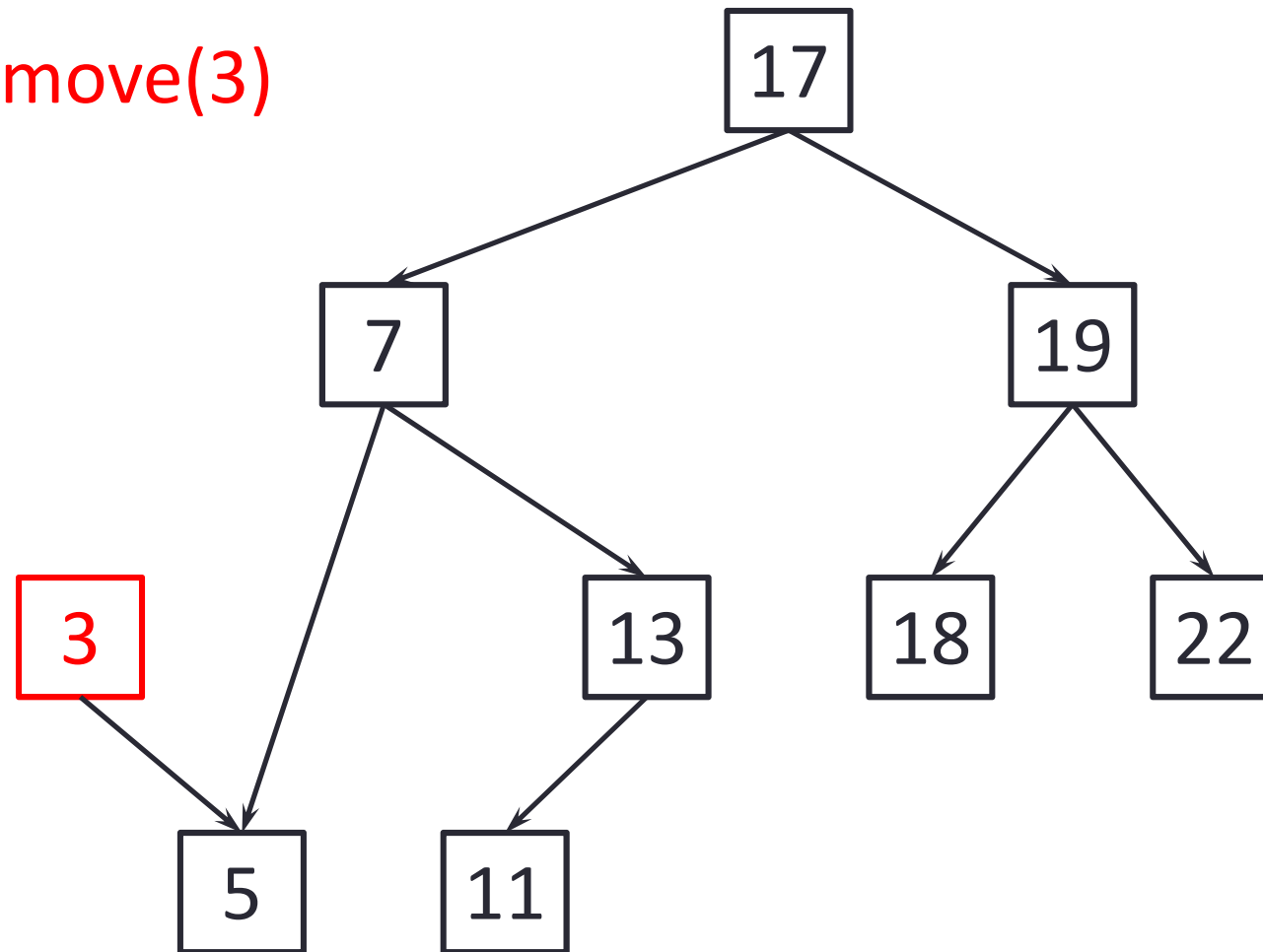
## Binary Search Trees: Deletion (node with 1 child)

Remove(3)



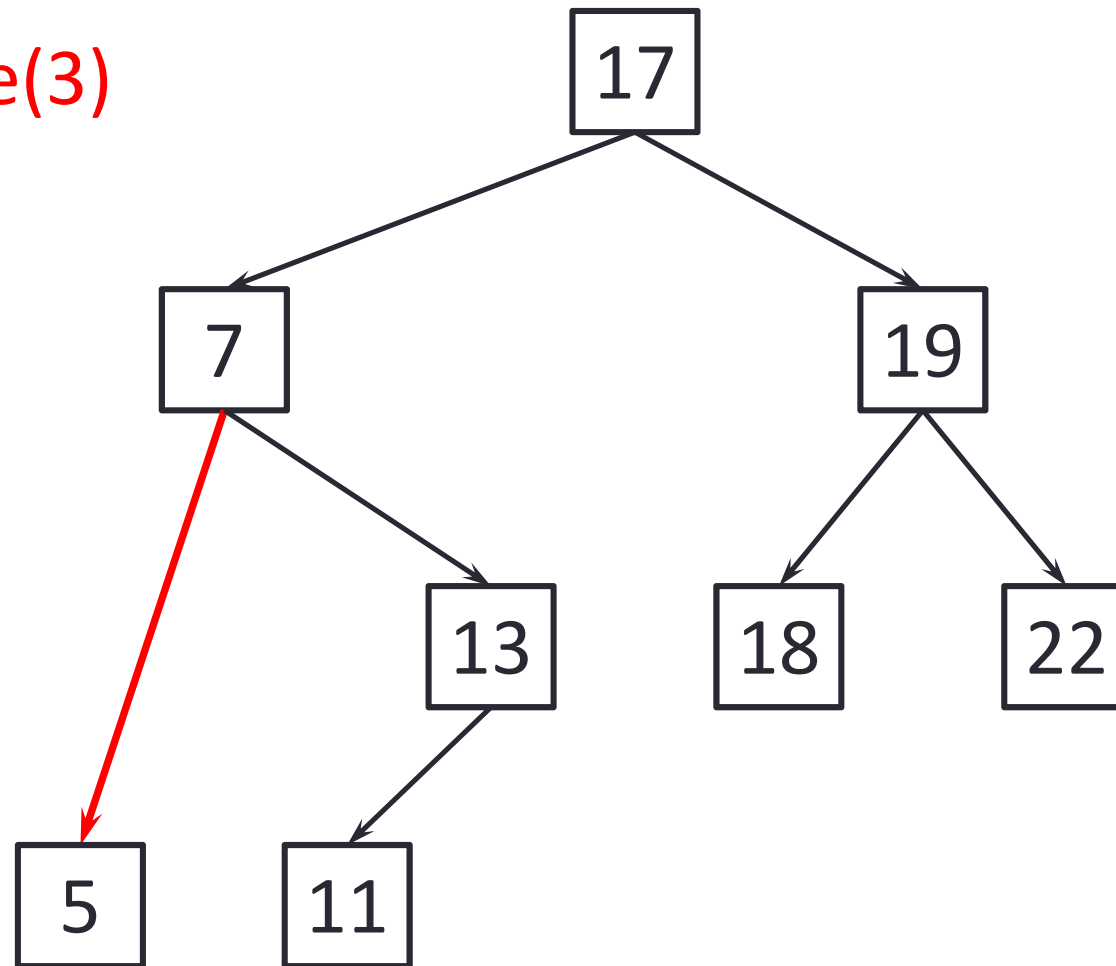
## Binary Search Trees: Deletion (node with 1 child)

Remove(3)



## Binary Search Trees: Deletion (node with 1 child)

Remove(3)

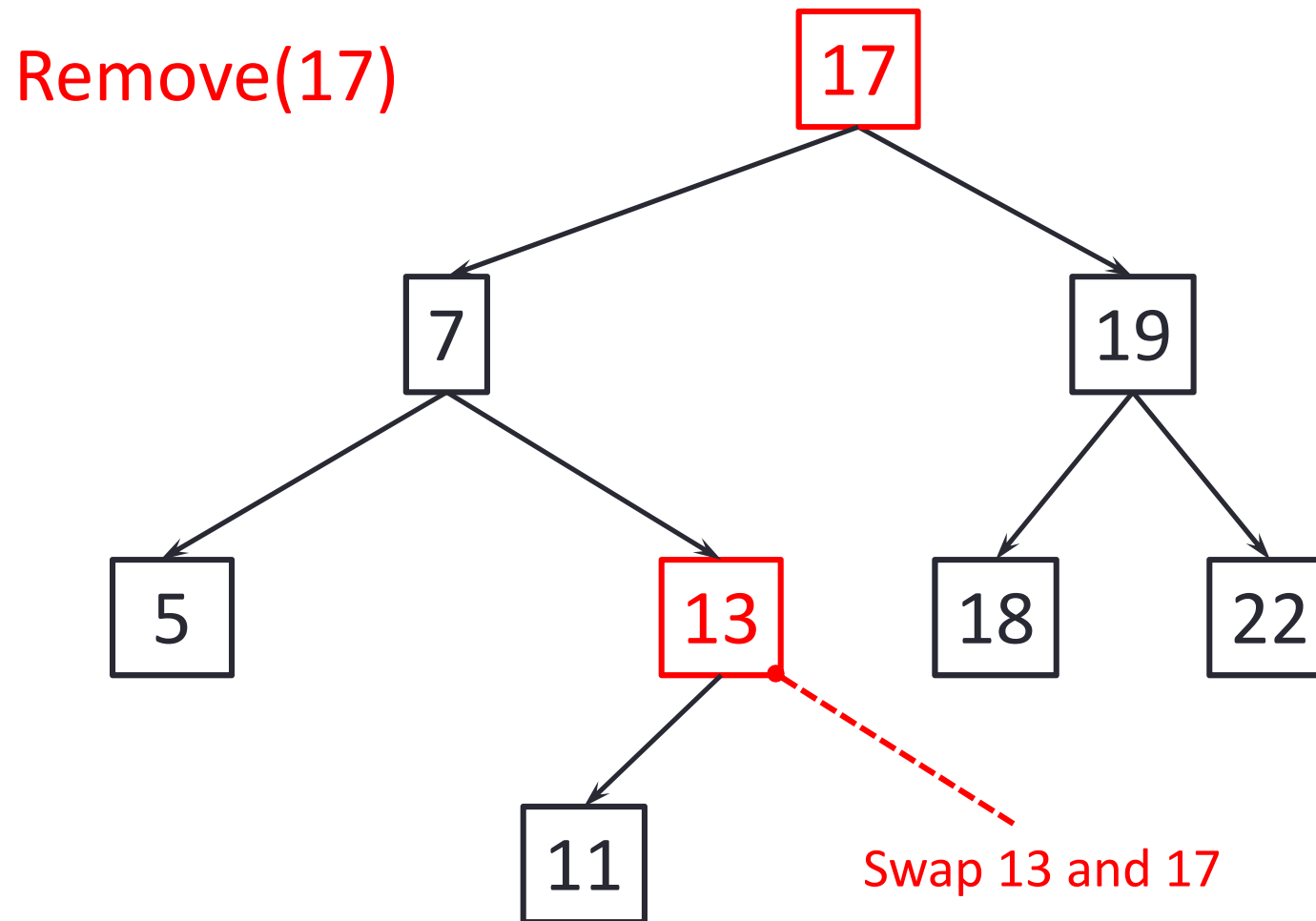


## Binary Search Trees: Deletion (node with 2 children)

How to find the largest element smaller than  $k$ ?

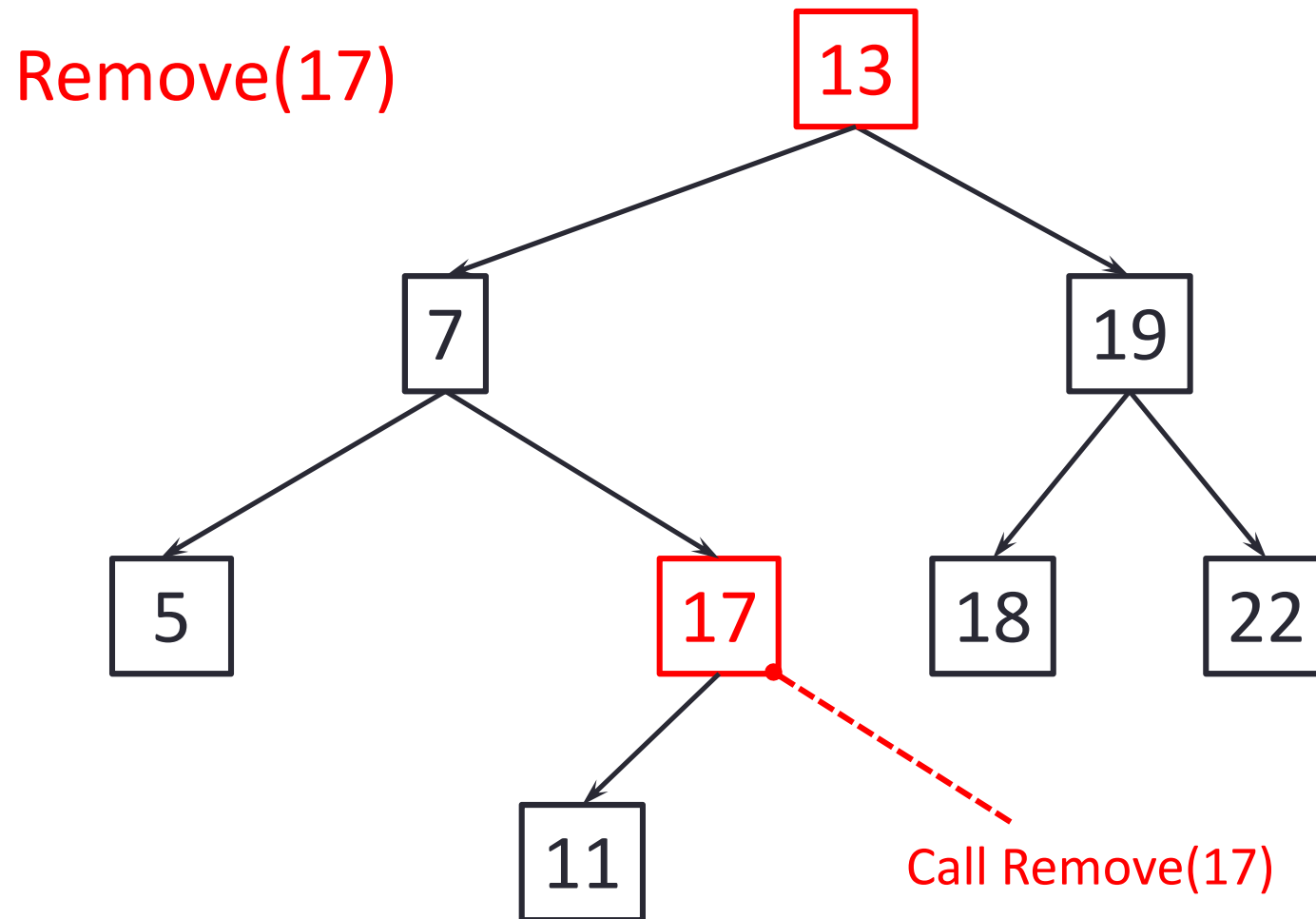
- Go to the left child of  $k$  (has to exist as  $k$  has two children).
- Follow the pointer to the right as long as possible.

# Binary Search Trees: Deletion (node with 2 children)



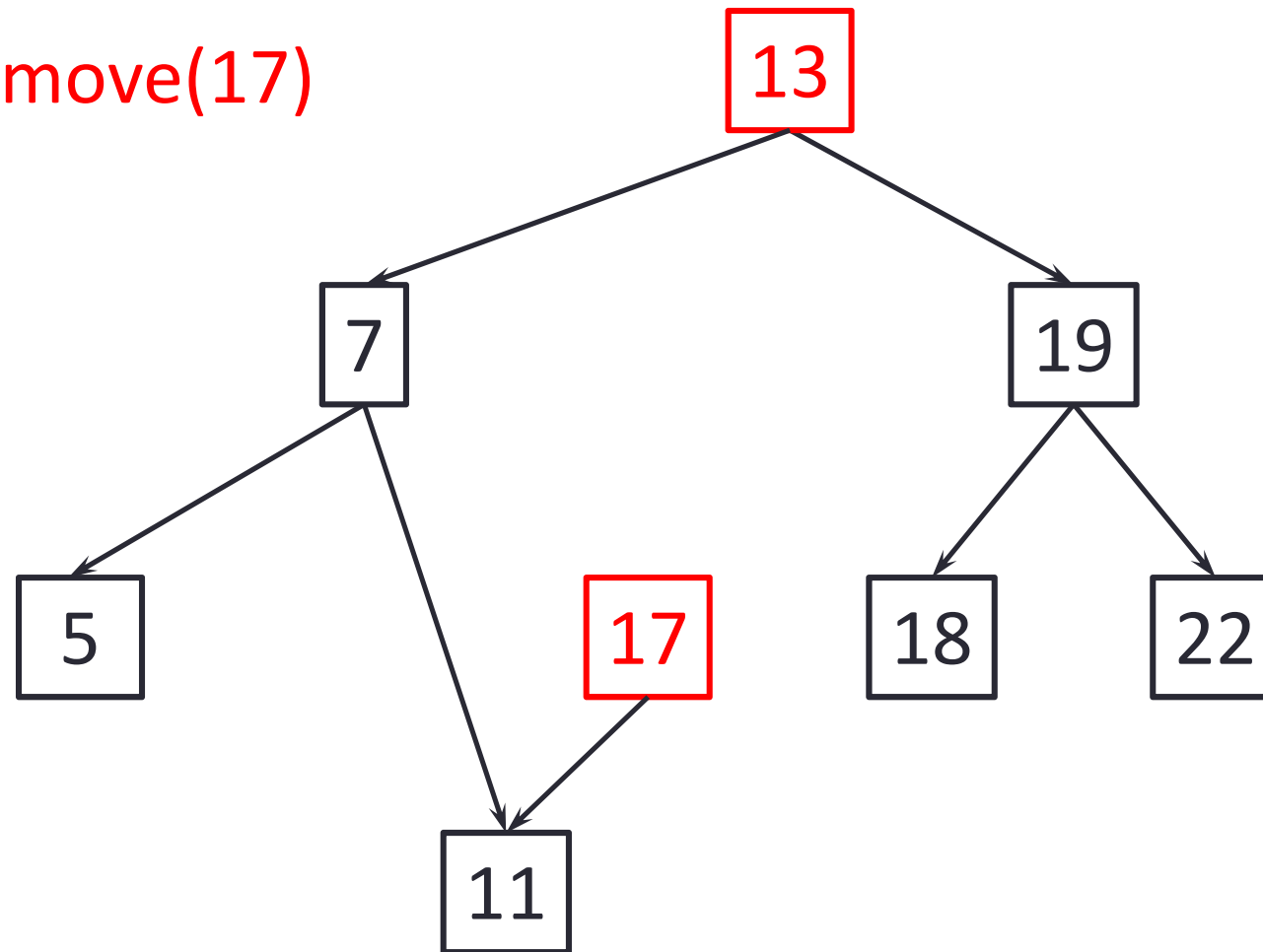


# Binary Search Trees: Deletion (node with 2 children)



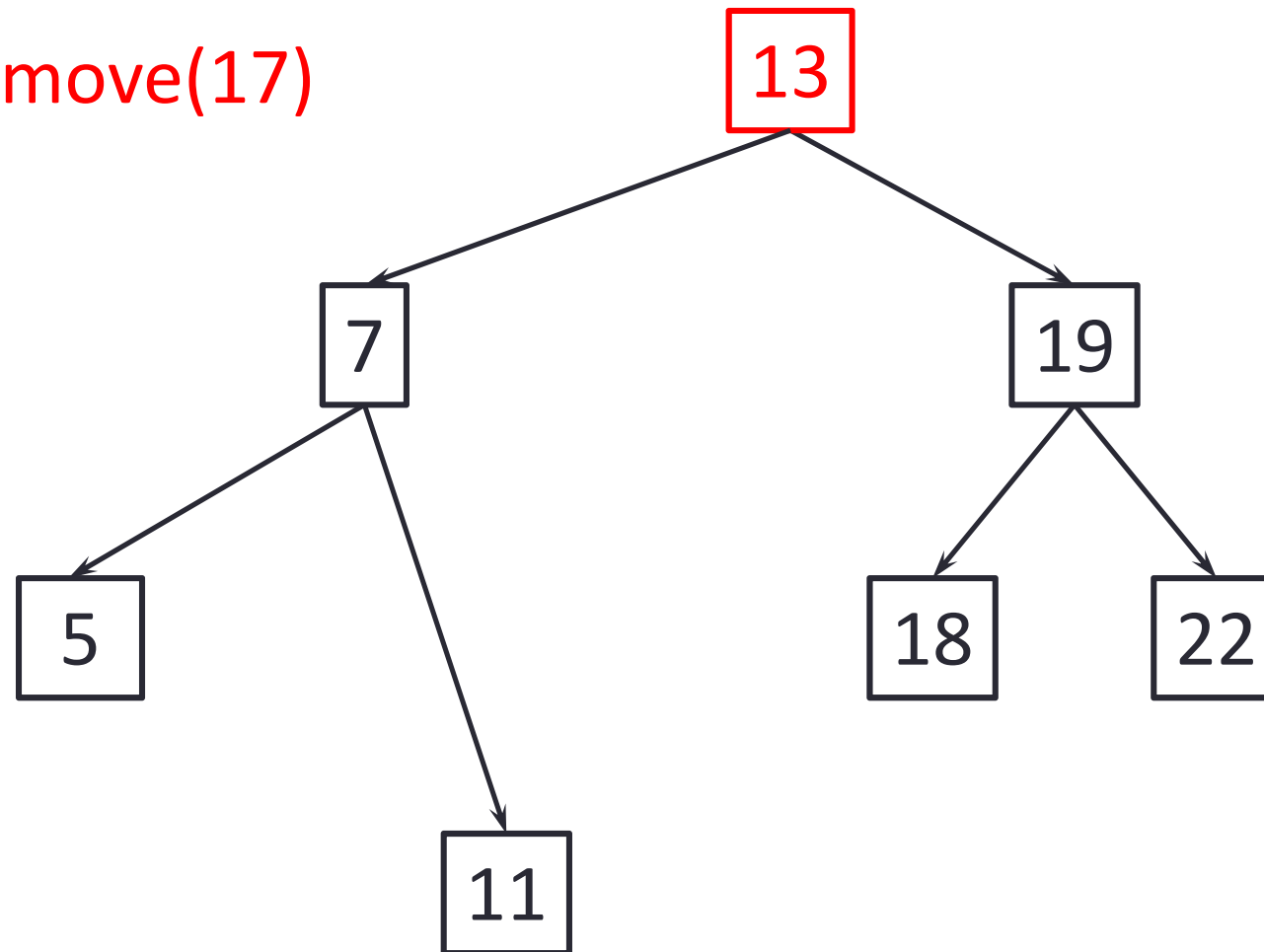
# Binary Search Trees: Deletion (node with 2 children)

Remove(17)



# Binary Search Trees: Deletion (node with 2 children)

Remove(17)

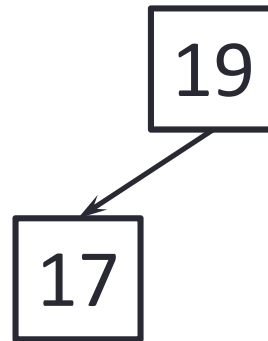


# Binary Search Trees: Build

19

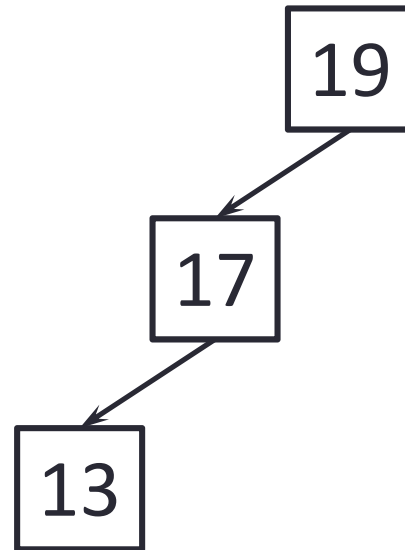
Insert 17

## Binary Search Trees: Build



Insert 13

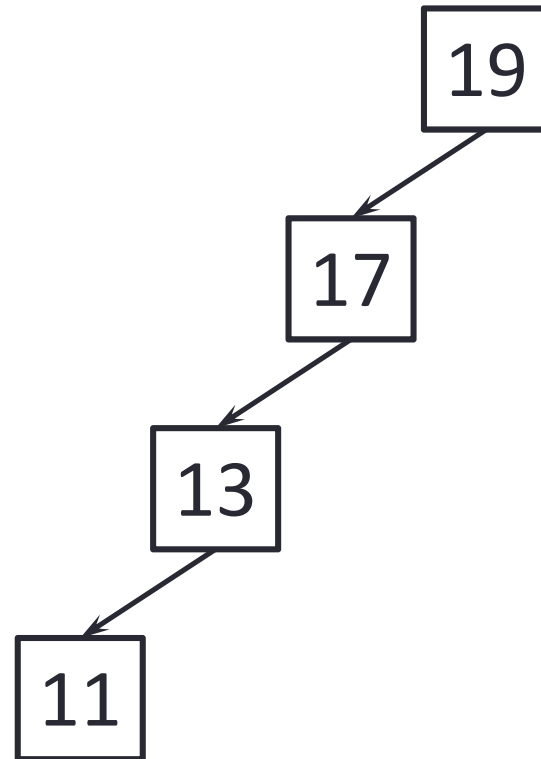
## Binary Search Trees: Build



Insert 11

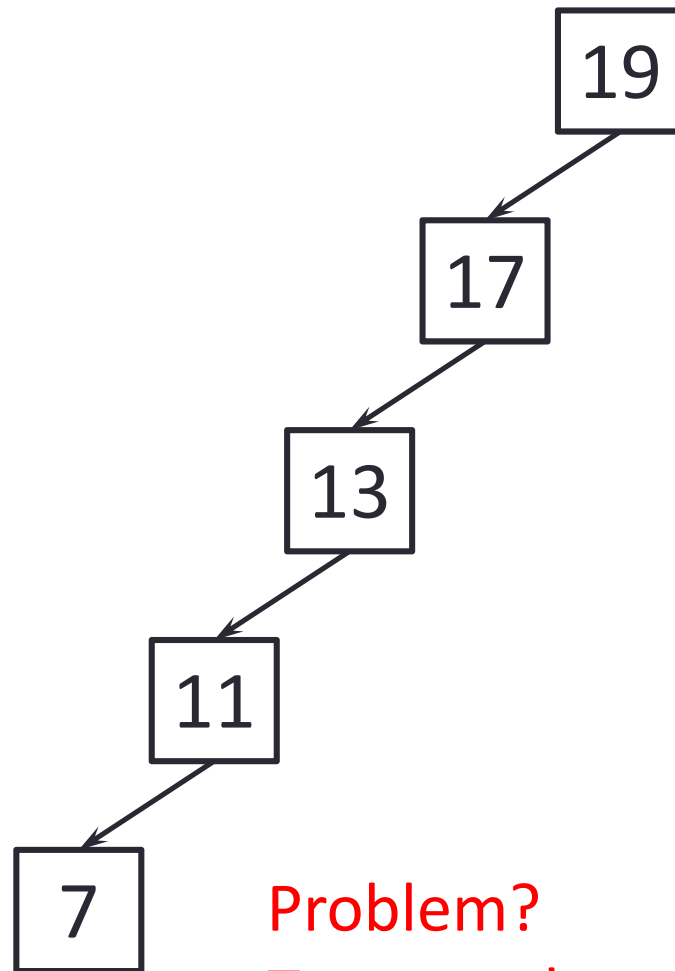


## Binary Search Trees: Build



Insert 7

## Binary Search Trees: Build



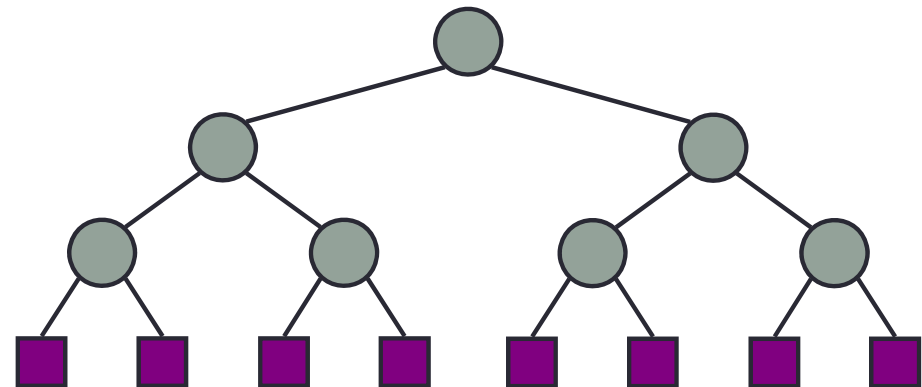
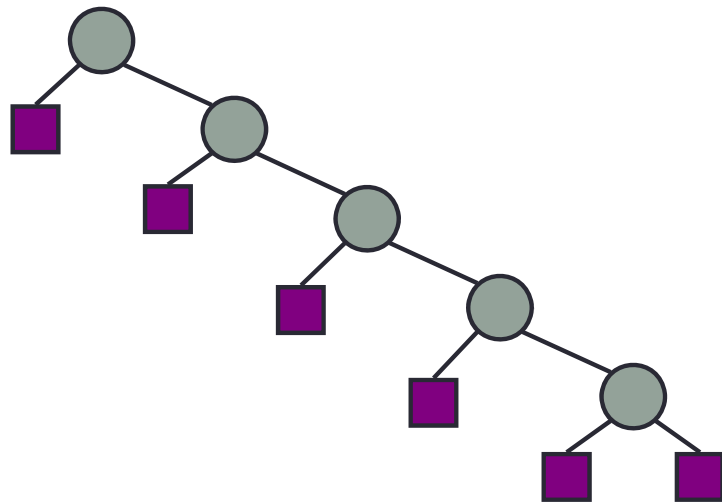
Problem?

Tree can degenerate to a list.

## Binary Search Trees: Build

The height  $h$  is  $O(n)$  in the worst case and  $O(\log n)$  in the best case

- space complexity  $O(n)$
- methods  $\text{Find}(k)$ ,  $\text{Insert}(k)$  and  $\text{Remove}(k)$  take  $O(h)$  time



## Perfectly Balanced Binary Search Trees

A binary search tree is perfectly balanced if it has height  $\lfloor \log n \rfloor$ .  
(height is the length of the longest path from the root to a leaf)

Number of nodes in a perfectly balanced tree of height  $k$ :

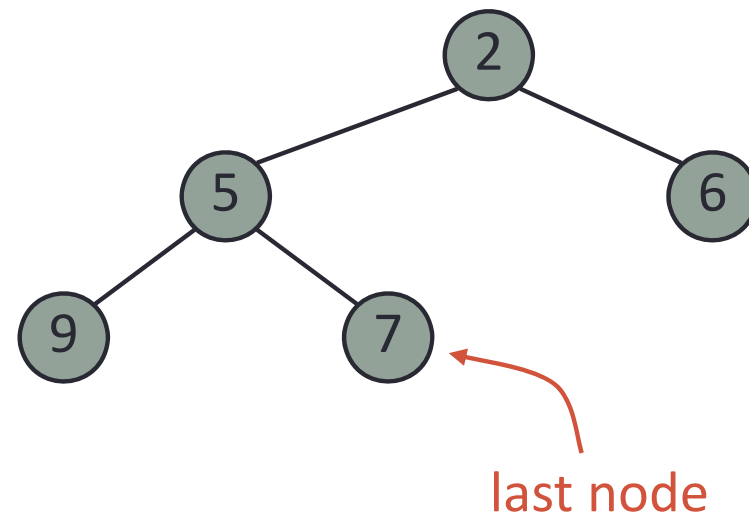
$$\sum_{i=0}^k 2^i = 1 + 2 + 4 + \dots + 2^k = 2^{k+1} - 1$$

# Binary Heaps

A heap is a binary tree storing keys at its nodes and satisfying the following properties:

- **Heap-Order:** for every internal node  $v$  other than the root,  $key(v) \geq key(parent(v))$
- **Complete Binary Tree:** let  $h$  be the height of the heap
  - for  $i = 0, \dots, h - 1$ , there are  $2^i$  nodes of depth  $i$
  - at depth  $h - 1$ , the internal nodes are to the left of the external nodes

The last node of a heap is the rightmost node of depth  $h$



## Binary Heaps: Properties

- Smallest element is stored at the root
- Each node is smaller than its children
- All levels are completely filled (except perhaps the last one)
- Last level is filled from left to right

**Observation:** The children of a node with index  $i$  have indices  $2i$  and  $2i + 1$  (if they exist)

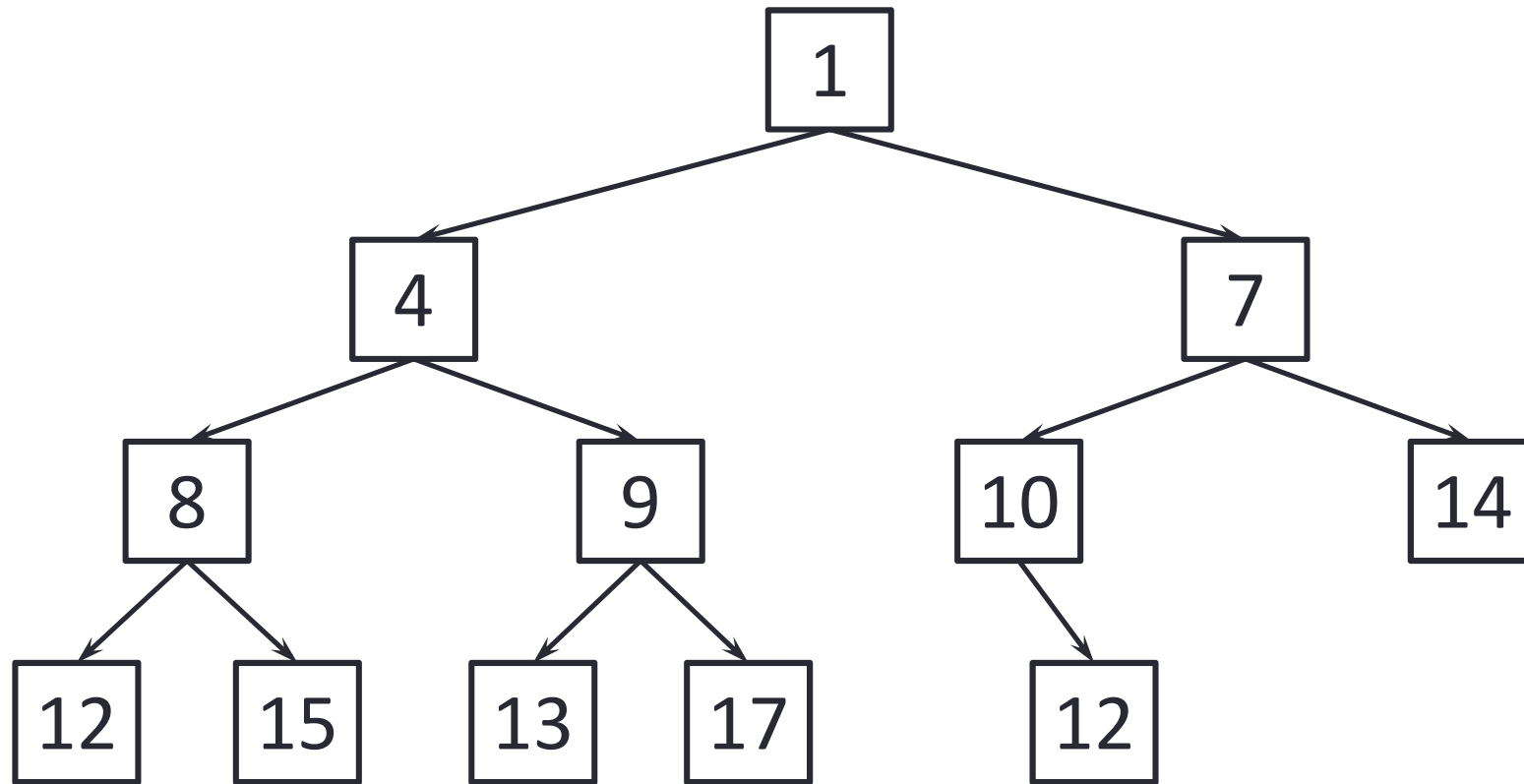
**Heap-Order:** An array  $h$  is called heap-ordered if and only if

$$\forall j \in \{2, \dots, n\} : h[\lfloor j/2 \rfloor] \leq h[j]$$

## Binary Heaps: Vector-based Heap Implementation

- We can represent a heap with  $n$  keys by means of a vector of length  $n + 1$
- For the node at rank  $i$ 
  - the left child is at rank  $2i$
  - the right child is at rank  $2i + 1$
- Links between nodes are not explicitly stored
- The cell of at rank 0 is not used
- Operation insert corresponds to inserting at rank  $n + 1$
- Operation removeMin corresponds to removing at rank  $n$
- Yields in-place heap-sort

## Binary Heaps as Arrays



value: 

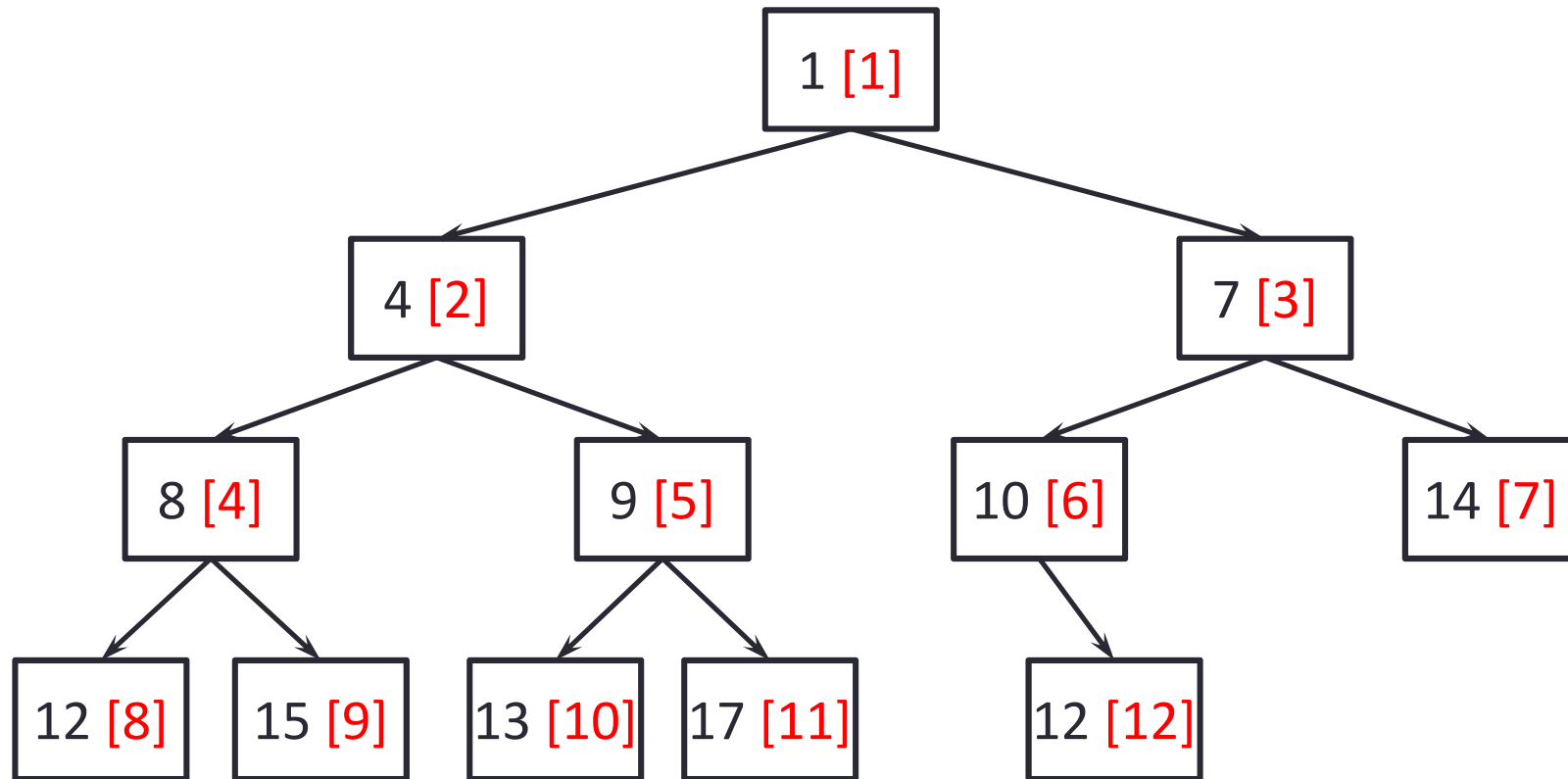
1	4	7	8	9	10	14	12	15	13	17	12
---	---	---	---	---	----	----	----	----	----	----	----

indices: 

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----	----



# Binary Heaps as Arrays



values: 

1	4	7	8	9	10	14	12	15	13	17	12
---	---	---	---	---	----	----	----	----	----	----	----

indices: 

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----	----

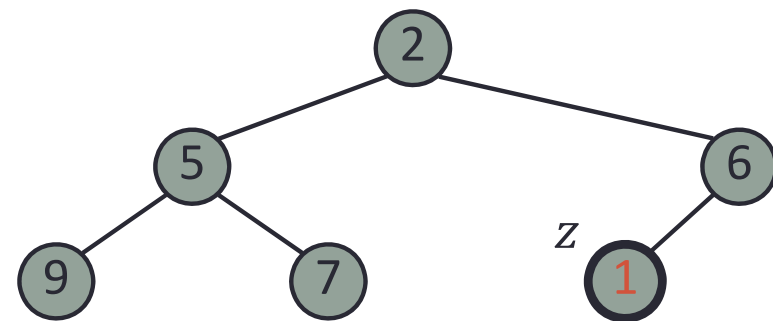
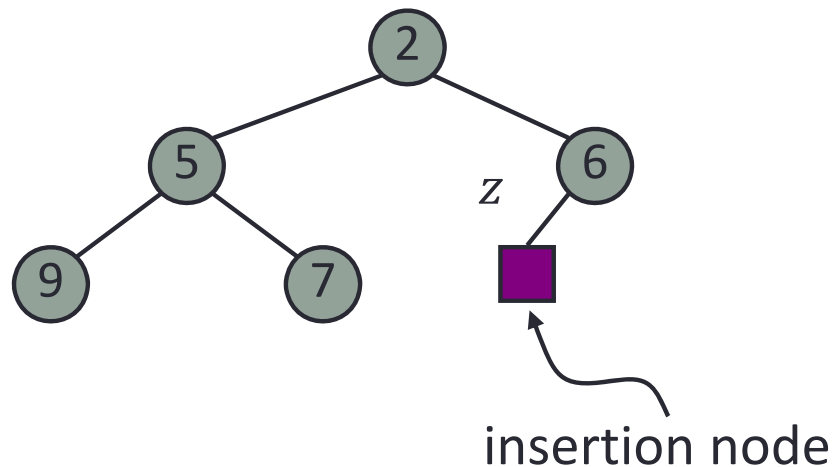
## Binary Heaps: Operations

- $M.\text{build}(\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}): M := \{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$
- $M.\text{insert}(e): M := M \cup \{e\}$
- $M.\text{min}: \textbf{return} \min M$
- $M.\text{deleteMin}: e := \min M; M := M \setminus \{e\}; \textbf{return} e$

## Binary Heaps: Insertion

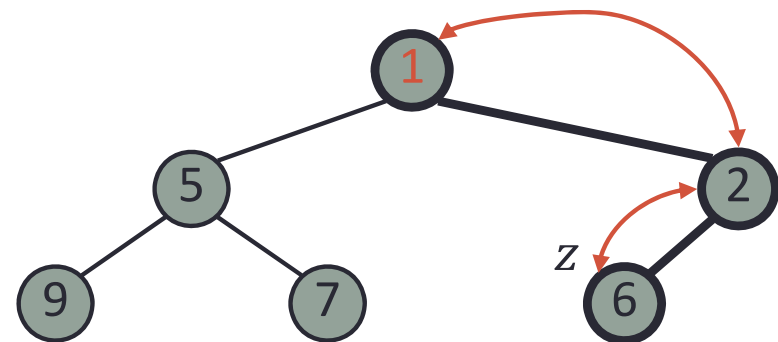
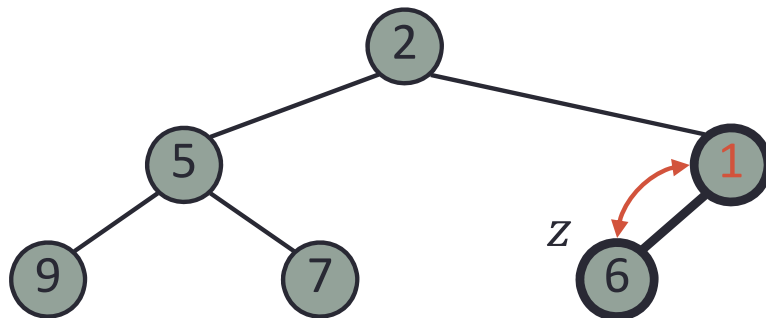
The insertion algorithm to add a key  $k$  to the heap consists of three steps:

- Find the insertion node  $z$  (the new last node)
- Store  $k$  at  $z$
- Restore the heap-order property (discussed next)



## Binary Heaps: UpHeap

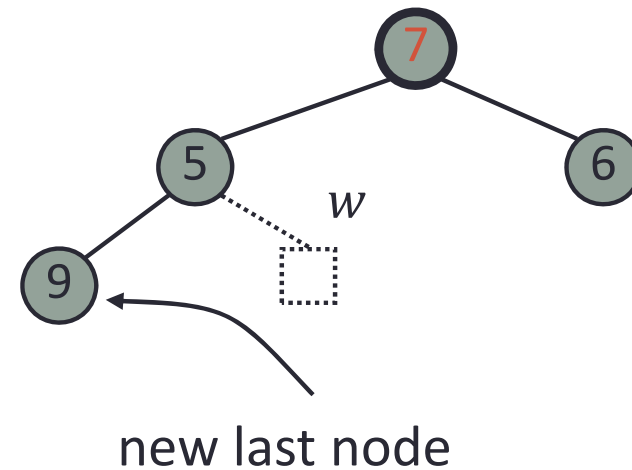
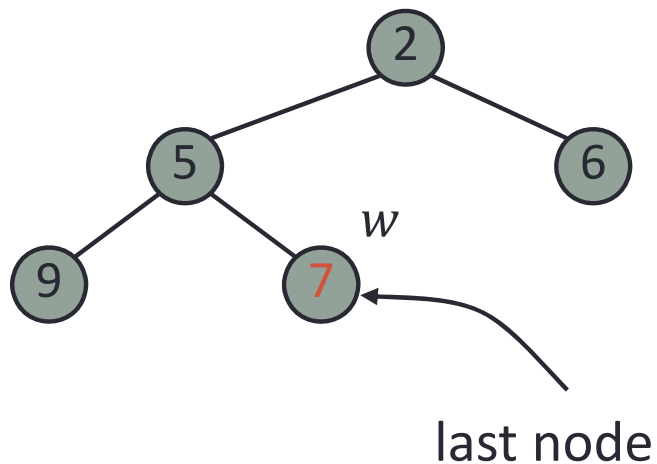
- After the insertion of a new key  $k$ , the heap-order property may be violated.
- Algorithm UpHeap restores the heap-order property by swapping  $k$  along an upward path from the insertion node.
- UpHeap terminates when the key  $k$  reaches the root or a node whose parent has a key smaller than or equal to  $k$ .
- Since a heap has height  $O(\log n)$ , UpHeap runs in  $O(\log n)$  time.



## Binary Heaps: RemoveMin

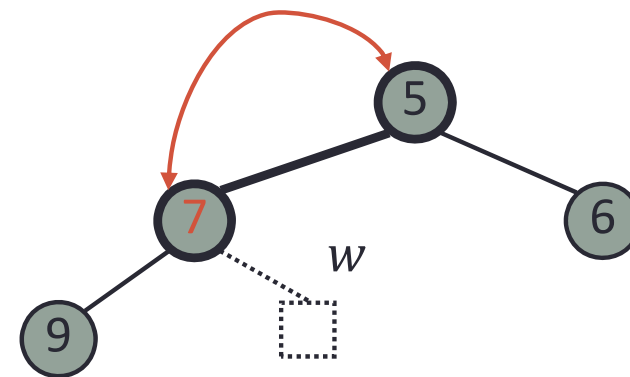
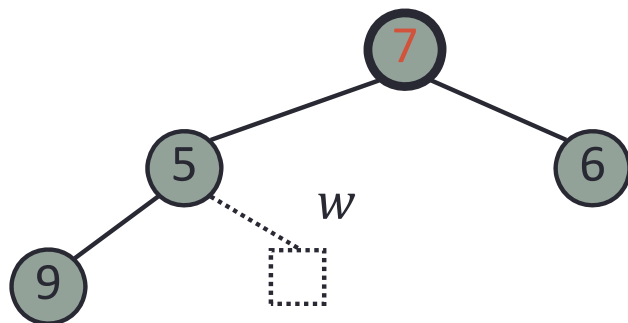
The removal algorithm consists of three steps

- Replace the root key with the key of the last node  $w$
- Remove  $w$
- Restore the heap-order property (discussed next)



## Binary Heaps: DownHeap

- After replacing the root key with the key  $k$  of the last node, the heap-order property may be violated.
- Algorithm DownHeap restores the heap-order property by swapping key  $k$  along a downward path from the root.
- DownHeap terminates when key  $k$  reaches a leaf or a node whose children have keys greater than or equal to  $k$ .
- Since a heap has height  $O(\log n)$ , DownHeap runs in  $O(\log n)$  time

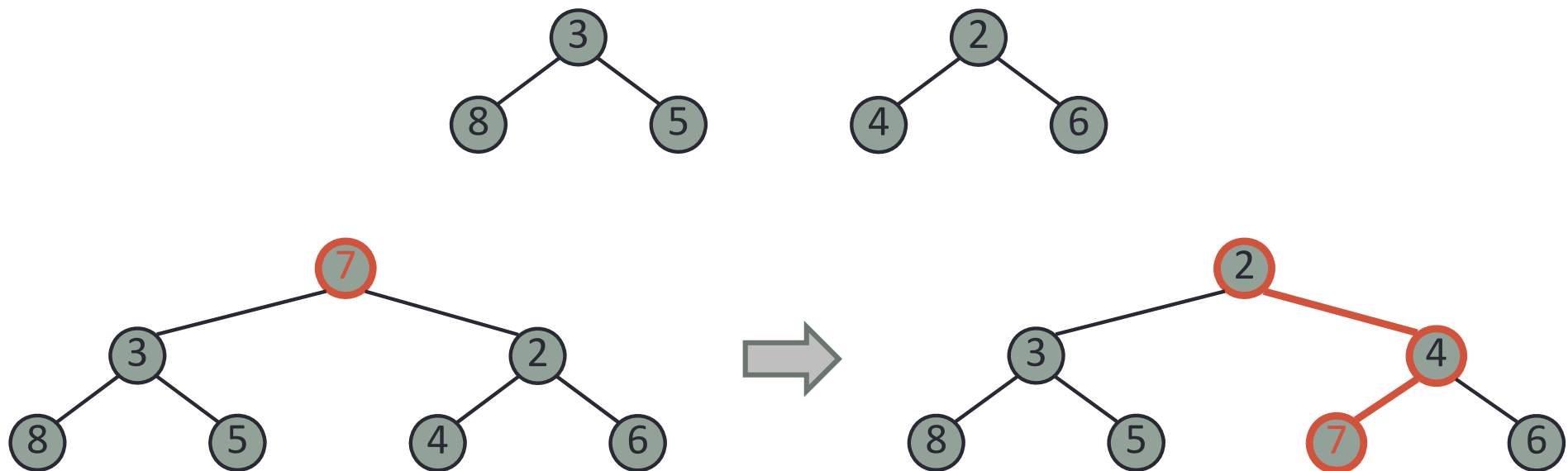


## Binary Heaps: Build Heap

- We can build a binary heap by inserting the  $n$  elements one after the other.
- This implies runtime  $O(n \log n)$ . But can you do better?
- Assume that the heap property holds for all subtrees of height  $h$ .
- Then we can establish the heap property for height  $h + 1$  by DownHeap.

## Binary Heaps: Merging Two Heaps

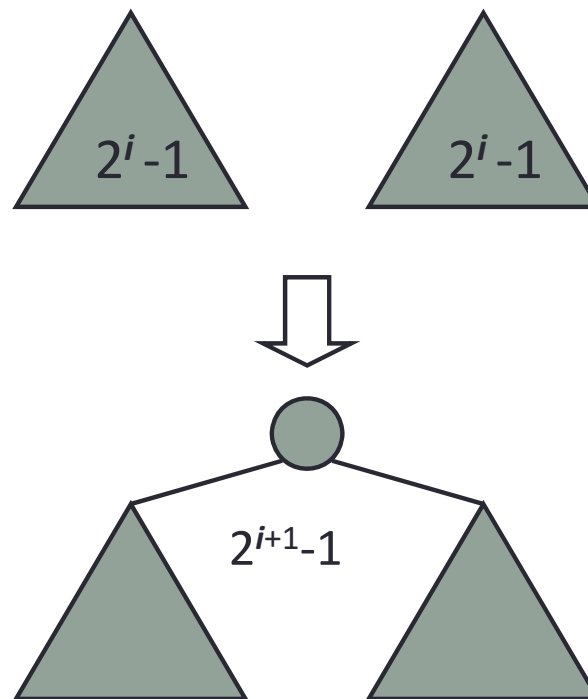
- We are given two heaps and a key  $k$ .
- We create a new heap with the root node storing  $k$  and with the two heaps as subtrees.
- We perform DownHeap to restore the heap-order property.





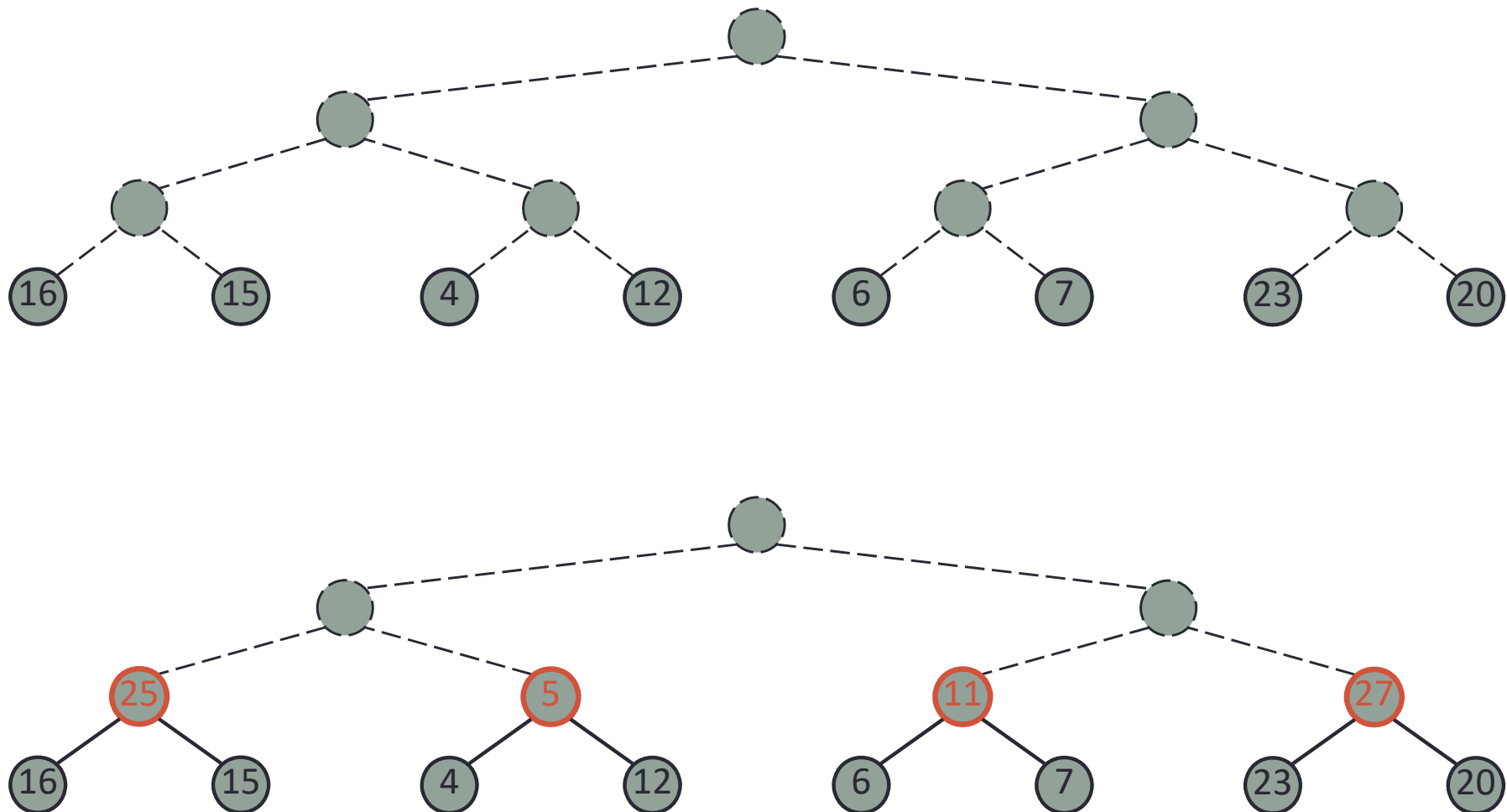
## Binary Heaps: Bottom-up Heap Construction

- We can construct a heap storing  $n$  given keys in using a bottom-up construction with  $\log n$  phases
- In phase  $i$ , pairs of heaps with  $2^i - 1$  keys are merged into heaps with  $2^{i+1} - 1$  keys



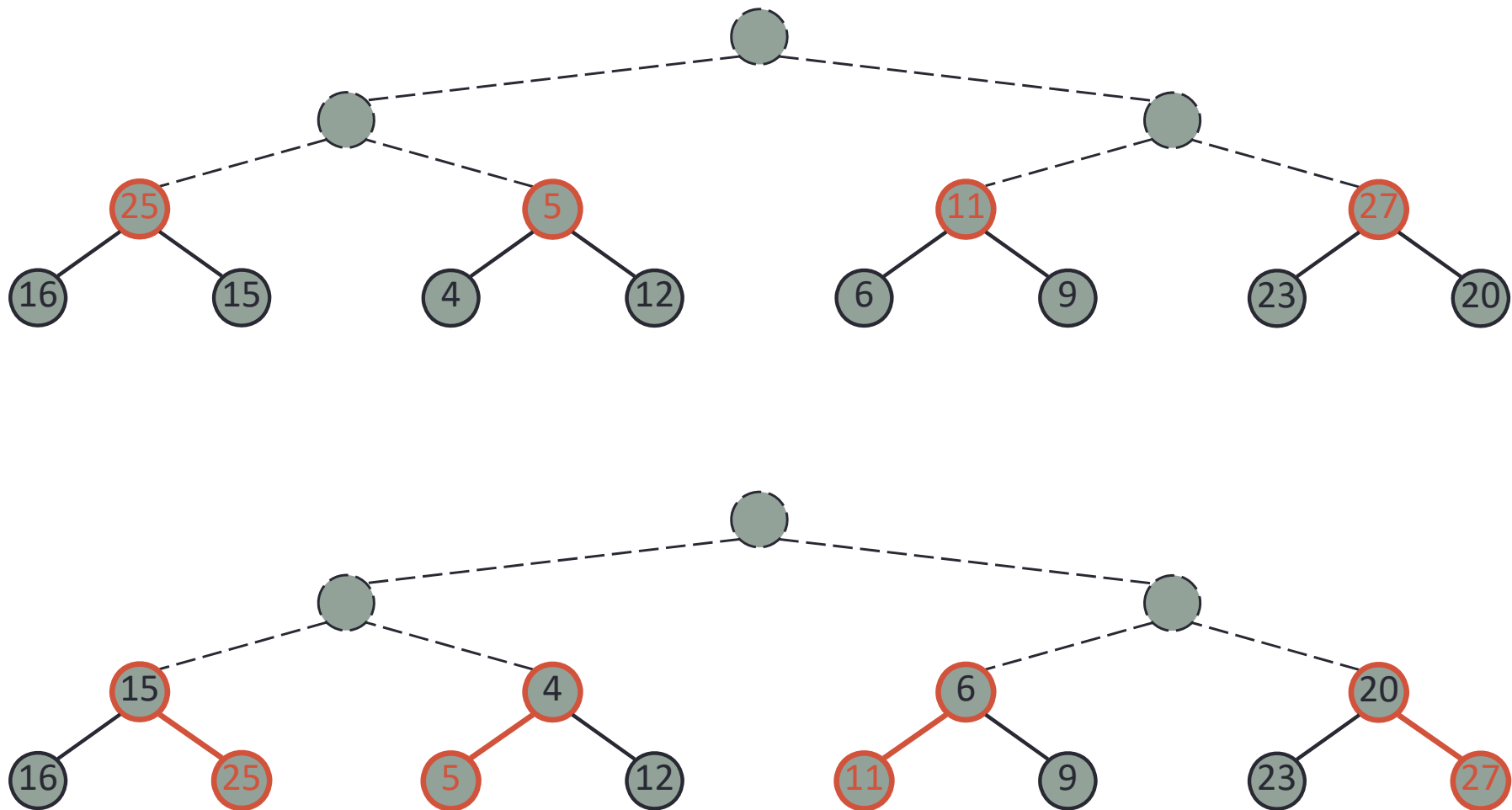
# Binary Heaps: Bottom-up Heap Construction

## Example



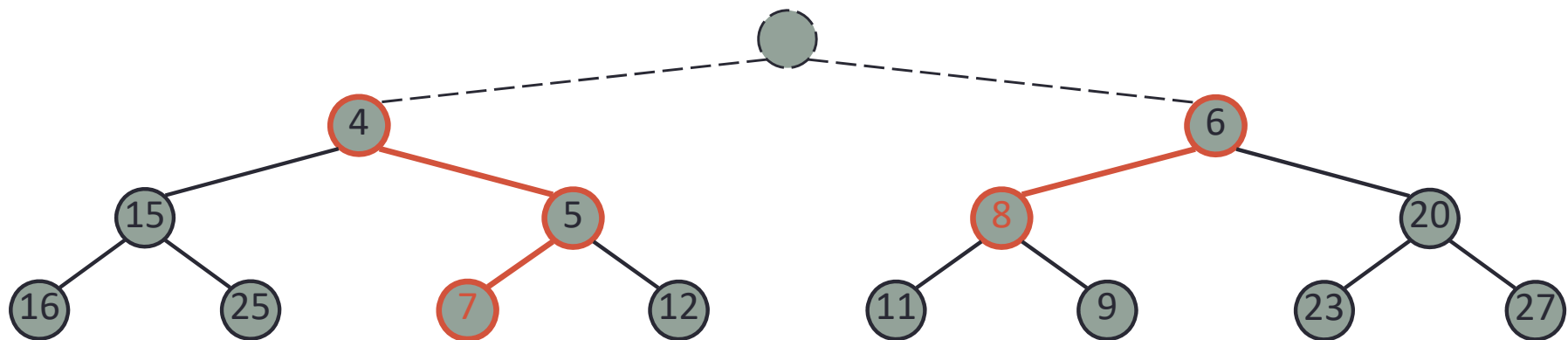
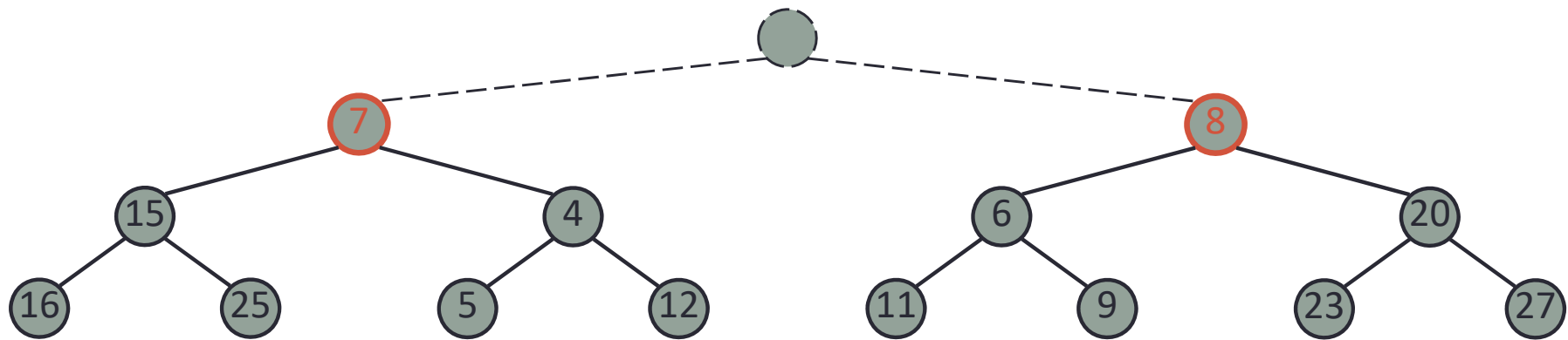
# Binary Heaps: Bottom-up Heap Construction

Example (cont.)



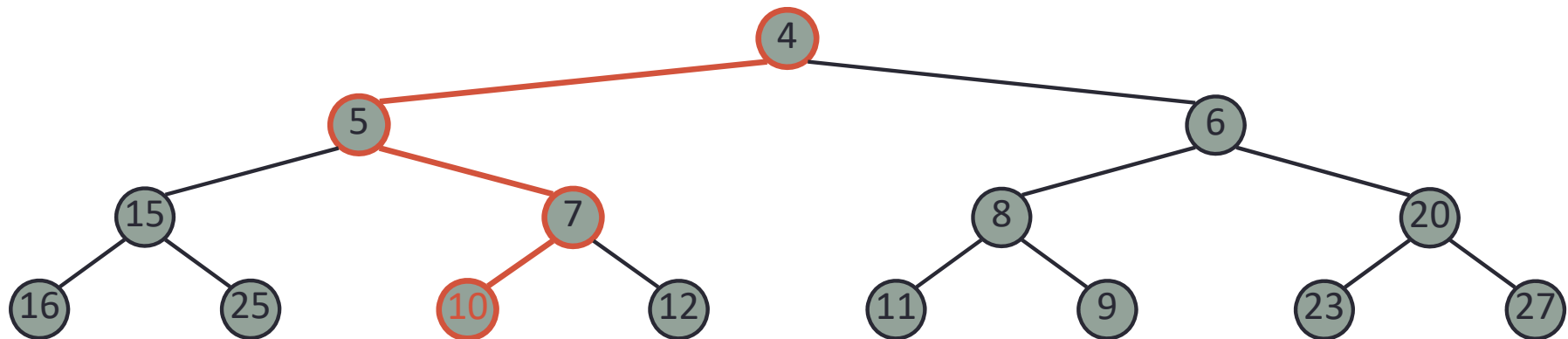
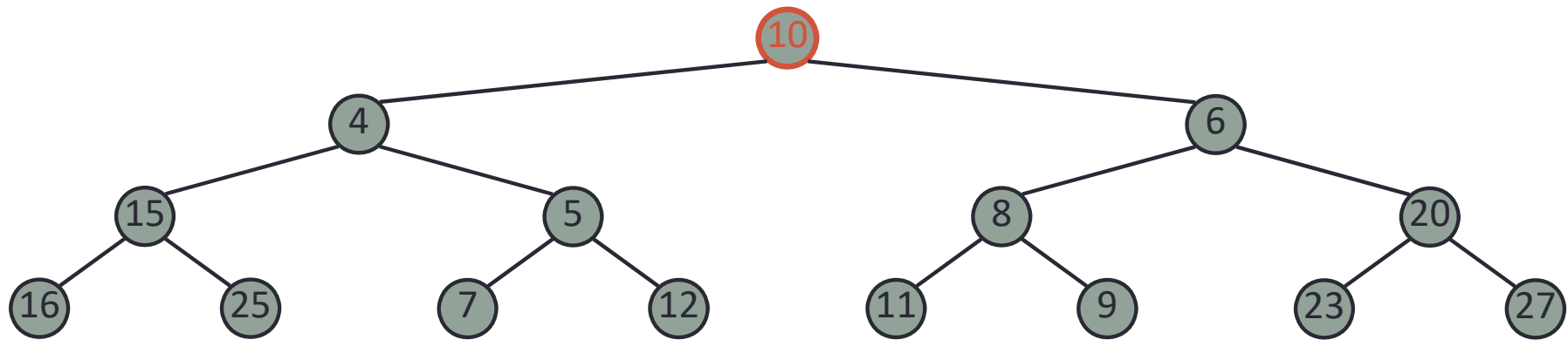
# Binary Heaps: Bottom-up Heap Construction

Example (cont.)



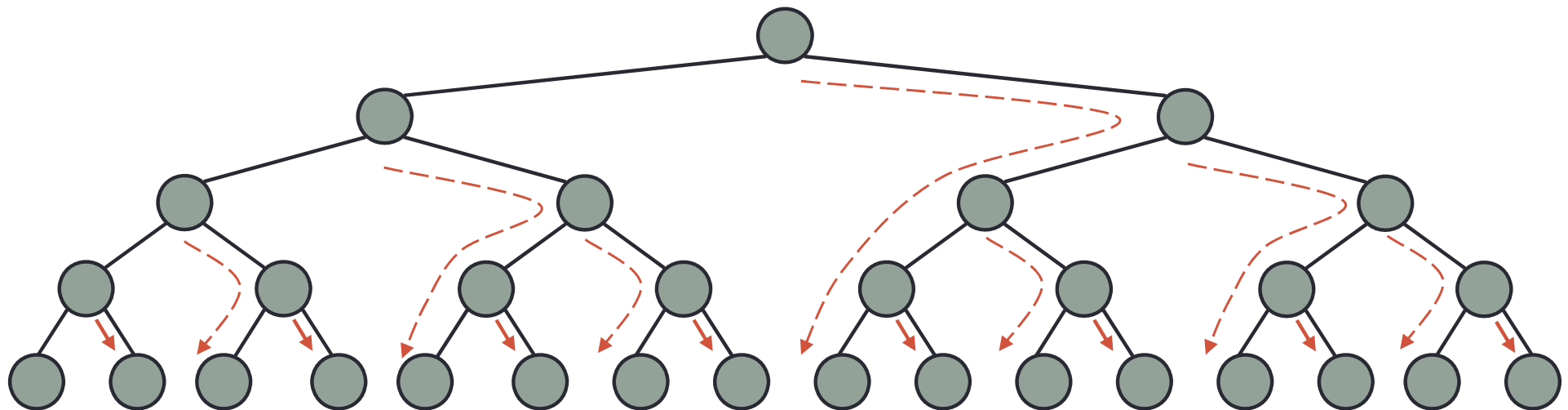
# Binary Heaps: Bottom-up Heap Construction

Example (cont.)



## Binary Heaps: Analysis

- We visualize the worst-case time of a DownHeap with a proxy path that goes first right and then repeatedly goes left until the bottom of the heap (this path may differ from the actual DownHeap path).
- Since each node is traversed by at most two proxy paths, the total number of nodes of the proxy paths is  $O(n)$ .
- Thus, bottom-up heap construction runs in  $O(n)$  time
- Bottom-up heap construction is faster than  $n$  successive insertions and speeds up the first phase of the Heap Sort sorting algorithm.



## Other references and things to do

- Read relevant sections of chapter 8 and 9.3 in Data Structures and Algorithms in Java. Michael T. Goodrich, Irvine Roberto Tamassia, and Michael H. Goldwasser, 2014.