

## Question 1

**Theorem 1.** INSERT operations do not invalidate a binary search tree.

*Proof.* Consider the following pseudocode for insertion:

```
1: function INSERT(node  $N$ , value  $x$ )
2:   if  $N.value < x \wedge N.RightChild = nil$  then
3:      $N.RightChild \leftarrow \text{SINGLETON}(x)$ 
4:   else if  $N.value < x \wedge N.RightChild \neq nil$  then
5:     INSERT( $N.RightChild$ ,  $x$ )
6:   else if  $N.value > x \wedge N.LeftChild = nil$  then
7:      $N.LeftChild \leftarrow \text{SINGLETON}(x)$ 
8:   else if  $N.value > x \wedge N.LeftChild \neq nil$  then
9:     INSERT( $N.LeftChild$ ,  $x$ )
10:  end if
11: end function
```

Assume that the tree whose root is at  $N$  (which may be a subtree of some larger tree) is initially valid. I show that it is thus after any operation, by induction on the recursion in this function.

- Base case 1: If we enter the first case, then the tree whose root is at  $N$  initially contains no right subtree. After the operation, its left subtree is unchanged, and the right subtree consists only of one node whose value is  $x$ . Since the left subtree is initially valid, and as its values are less than  $N.value$  (as we have assumed  $N$  to be initially valid), and since the right subtree is also valid (since it is a singleton), and all the values in the right subtree (i.e.  $x$ ) are greater or equal to  $N.value$ , thus  $N$  remains valid after the operation.
- Base case 2: If we enter the third case, that  $N$  is valid after the operation can be shown with an argument symmetrical to the previous one.
- Inductive step 1: If we enter the second case, then, by inductive hypothesis,  $N.RightChild$ 's subtree will be valid after inserting  $x$  into it. Moreover,  $N.LeftChild$ 's subtree is valid by assumption, and the values in the left subtree are not greater than  $N.value$ . Finally, by assumption, all values other than  $x$  in  $N$ 's right subtree are greater than  $N.value$ , and  $x$  also satisfies this property in this case. So overall,  $N$ 's tree is valid after the operation.
- Inductive step 2: If we enter the fourth case, that  $N$  is valid after the operation can be shown with an argument symmetrical to the previous one.

□

**Theorem 2.** DELETE operations do not invalidate a binary search tree.

*Proof.* Consider the following pseudocode for deletion:

```

1: function DELETE(node  $N$ )
2:   if  $N.RightChild = nil \wedge N.LeftChild = nil$  then
3:     Set  $N$ 's father's link to  $N$  to nil.
4:   else if  $N.LeftChild = nil \wedge N.RightChild \neq nil$  then
5:     Promote  $N.RightChild$  in place of  $N$ .
6:   else if  $N.LeftChild \neq nil \wedge N.RightChild = nil$  then
7:     Promote  $N.LeftChild$  in place of  $N$ .
8:   else if  $N.LeftChild \neq nil \wedge N.RightChild \neq nil$  then
9:      $M \leftarrow \text{SUCCESSOR}(N)$ 
10:    SWAP( $N, M$ )
11:    DELETE( $N$ ).
12:   end if
13: end function

```

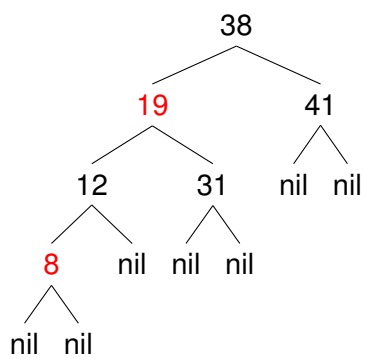
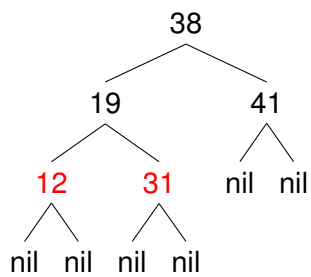
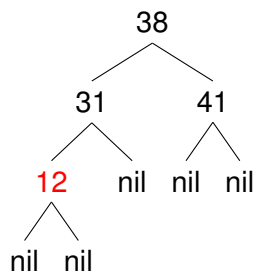
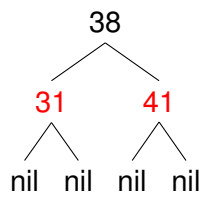
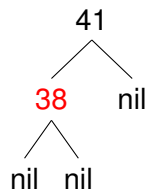
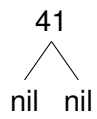
As before I show that, if applied on some node  $N$  from a valid tree, then DELETE results in a valid tree, by induction on the recursion present in this function. This time, I assume that DELETE indeed removes a node from a tree:

- Base case 1: Note that it can easily be shown by induction that, for each node  $M \neq N$  in the tree, supposing that  $I_M$  is the set of values in the left subtree of  $M$  before the operation,  $I'_M$  is this set after the operation, and that  $r_M, r'_M$  are defined symmetrically for the right subtree, then  $I_M \subseteq I'_M$  and  $r_M \subseteq r'_M$ . Now, since the tree is initially valid, we have that  $\forall x \in I_M. x < N.value$  and  $\forall x \in r_M. N.value < x$ . Since  $I_M \subseteq I'_M$  and  $r_M \subseteq r'_M$ , we have that  $\forall x \in I'_M. x < N.value$  and  $\forall x \in r'_M. N.value < x$ . Thus the tree is valid after the operation.
- Base case 2: If we enter the second case, a proof similar to the previous one suffices.
- Base case 3: If we enter the third case, a proof similar to the previous one suffices.
- Inductive step: If we enter the fourth case, then note that:
  - Step 9 does not modify the step.
  - Consider  $V = \{v_1, \dots, v_N, v_M, \dots, v_n\}$ , where  $v_1 < \dots < v_n$ ,  $v_N = N.value$ ,  $v_M = M.value$ , the set of values in the tree (note that  $v_N$  and  $v_M$  are adjacent, as  $M = \text{SUCCESSOR}(N)$ ), and a relation  $\prec \in V \times V$ . Define  $\prec$  to be the smallest total order that includes  $v_1 \prec v_2 \prec \dots \prec v_M \prec v_N \prec \dots \prec v_n$ . It is easy to see that, after step 10, the tree is valid w.r.t.  $\prec$ , although it is not so w.r.t.  $<$ .
  - Now, note that step 11 removes  $v_M$ . Moreover, by the inductive hypothesis, since the tree is initially valid w.r.t.  $\prec$ , it is also thus after this step. However, note that the tree does not include the value  $v_N$ , and that, by restricting  $\prec$  to  $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\} \setminus \{v_N\}$ , it becomes the same as  $<$ ! This implies that the tree is also valid w.r.t.  $<$ , as desired.

□

## Question 2

The sequence of trees:



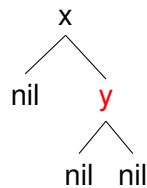
### Question 3

**Theorem 3.** A red-black tree formed by inserting  $n \geq 2$  nodes has at least one non-root red node.

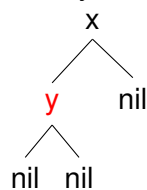
*Proof.* By induction on  $n$ :

- Base case: For  $n = 2$ , we note that any red-black tree formed by inserting two values  $x \neq y$  has one of two different structures:

- If  $x < y$  then:



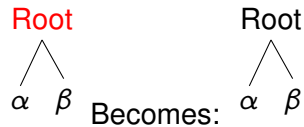
- If  $x > y$  then:



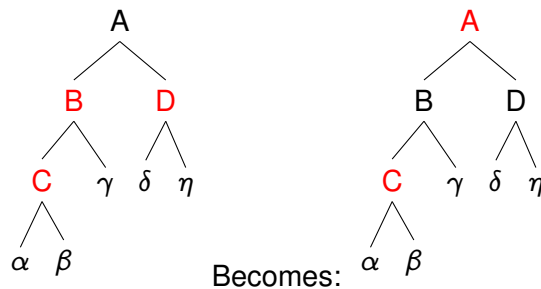
Which obviously satisfy the claim.

- Inductive step: Note that inserting a node into a red-black tree is done by repeatedly applying various different transformations, according to different case logic. There are 4 different transformations:

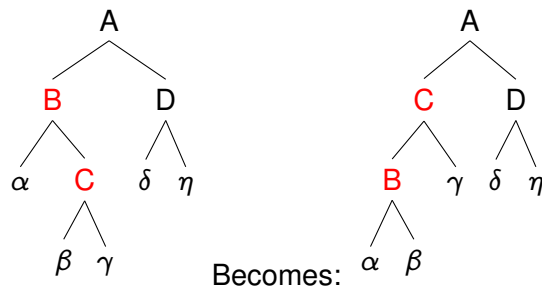
- Case 1:



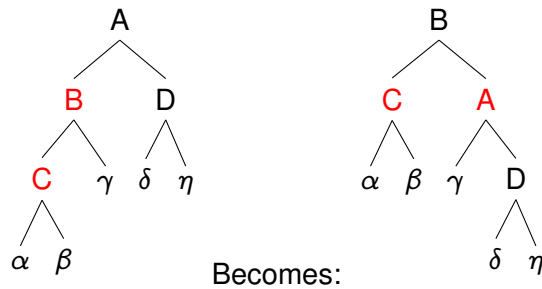
- Case 2:



– Case 3:



– Case 4:



But note that in all cases, if the tree initially has a non-root red node, then it also will have one after the transformation. This means that after any insertion, if the claim holds initially, it also holds at the end.

□

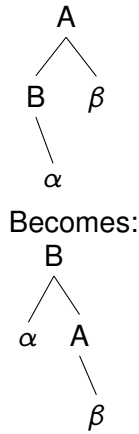
## Question 4

**Definition 1.** Say that a binary search tree is a "right-chain" if and only if all nodes in the tree lack a left child.

**Theorem 4.** Any binary tree with  $n$  nodes, whose left subtree has  $l$  nodes, and whose left and right subtrees are right-chains, can be turned into a right chain with the same values in  $l$  rotations.

*Proof.* By induction on  $l$ , for any  $n$ :

- Base case: For  $l = 0$ , the tree is already a right chain, so it can be "turned into" a right chain in  $0 = l$  operations.
- Inductive step: For  $l > 0$ , note that performing a right rotation performed on the root will turn the tree into one whose root's left and right subtrees are right-chains, and whose left subtree has  $l - 1$  nodes, viz:



(where  $\alpha$  is a right chain of size  $l - 1$  and  $\beta$  is also a right chain).  
 Now, by the inductive hypothesis, the resulting tree can be turned into a right-chain with the same elements using  $l - 1$  rotations. Thus, overall, the initial tree can be turned into a right-chain with the same values using  $l$  operations.

□

**Theorem 5.** *Any binary tree with  $n$  nodes can be turned into a right-chain with the same values in at most  $n$  rotations.*

*Proof.* We prove this by induction on  $n$ :

- Base case: Note that all binary search trees with 1 node are already right-chains (as the sole node has neither left or right child). Thus they can be turned into right-chains with  $0 \leq 1 = n$ .
- Inductive step: For  $n > 1$ , suppose the root's left and right subtrees have  $l$  and  $r$  nodes respectively. First, apply the inductive hypothesis on the right subtree to turn it into a right-chain in  $r - 1$  operations. Now, note that by applying a right rotation on the root, we maintain the property that the right subtree is a right-chain, and we reduce the left subtree's size by 1. This implies that by applying at most  $l$  further operations, we can turn the tree into a right-chain. Overall this implies that using  $l + r - 1 \leq l + r + 1 = n$  operations we can turn the tree into a right-chain, as required.

□

**Theorem 6.** *A right-chain with  $n$  nodes can be turned into any binary search tree with the same values in at most  $n$  rotations.*

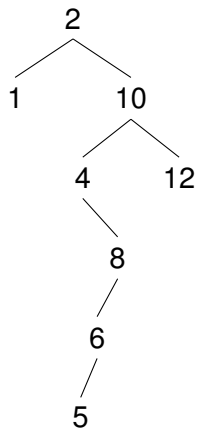
*Proof.* Use the sequence of rotations that would be used to transform the target binary search tree into a right-chain (which has  $n$  rotations at most, by the previous theorem), but reversed, and swapping right-rotations and left-rotations. □

**Theorem 7.** Any binary tree with  $n$  nodes can be turned into any other binary tree with the same values in at most  $2n$  rotations.

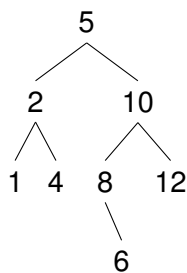
*Proof.* Use the previous two theorems to turn the tree first into a right-chain in  $n$  rotations, then into the target tree in another  $n$  rotations.  $\square$

## Question 5

After the first splay:

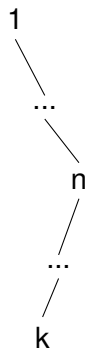


After the second splay:



## Question 6

Take the definition of right-chains from question 4, and define left-chains analogously. Now, consider a right-chain with  $n$  values, viz.  $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ . Suppose we were to splay the node  $n$  with this alternate scheme. By simulating the rotations generated, we can see that, during the splay, the tree is of the following shape:



where  $k$  is some value in  $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ . And the resulting tree after the splay is a left-chain with  $n$  values, with the splay costing  $\Omega(n)$  operations. Note that then doing a splay on node 1 now leads again to a cost of  $\Omega(n)$ , and a right-chain with  $n$  values. Alternating these  $m$  times gives us a total cost of  $\Omega(nm)$ .