

CS217 - Data Structures & Algorithm Analysis (DSAA)

Lecture #9

► Binary Search Trees

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Reading: Chapter 12

► Aims of this lecture

- We've seen a lot of binary trees already
 - Recurrence tree for visualising runtime in recursive calls
 - HeapSort uses imaginary trees
 - Decision trees in the lower bound for comparison sorts
- Now: discussing binary trees more thoroughly, including how to prove **inductive statements about trees**.
- To introduce **binary search trees** and their typical operations.
- To work out the **running time** for operations on binary search trees.

► Recall

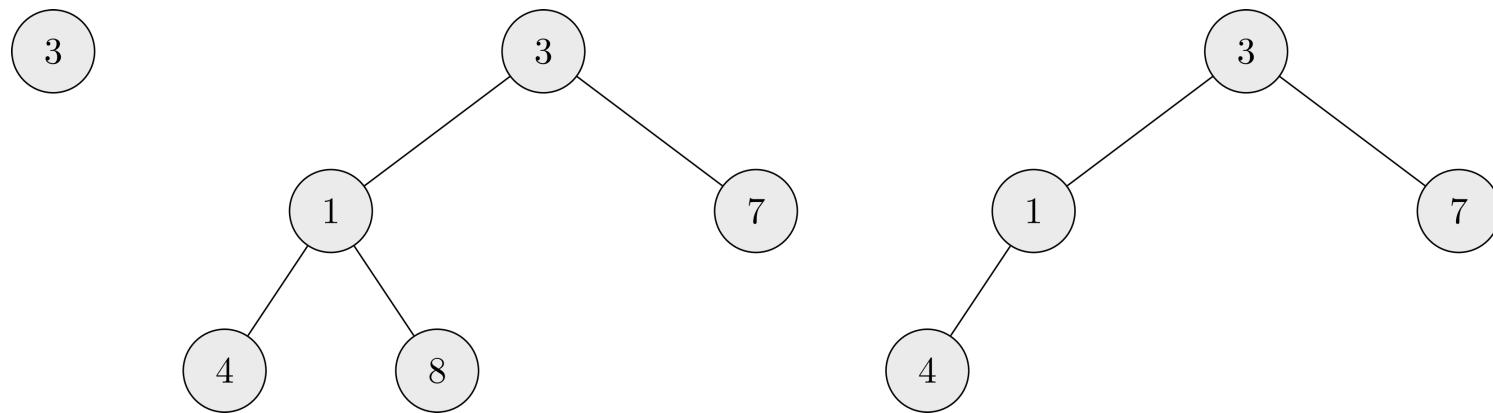
- Elements can contain **satellite data** and a **key** is used to identify the element.
- Typical operations:
 - **Search(S, k)**: returns element x with **key k** , or NIL
 - **Insert(S, x)**: adds **element x** to S
 - **Delete(S, x)**: removes element x from S
 - **Minimum(S), Maximum(S)**: return x resp. with smallest or largest key
 - **Successor(S, x), Predecessor(S, x)**: next larger (smaller) than $\text{Key}(x)$
- **Time** often measured using n as the number of elements in S .

► Binary trees

- Intuitively: trees where every node has at most two children.
- We can define binary trees recursively:
- A **binary tree** is a structure defined as finite set of nodes such that either
 - The tree is empty (no nodes) or
 - It is composed of a root node, a left subtree and a right subtree
- This view is very handy for proving statements about trees by induction (see later).
- The root of the left subtree of a node is called **left child**, that of the right subtree is called **right child**.

► Definitions for binary trees

- We tacitly assume that all nodes are labelled by numbers.



- A **path** in a tree is a sequence of nodes linked by edges. The **length** of a path is the number of edges.
- A **leaf** of a tree is a node that has no children; otherwise it is called **internal node**.
- We speak about **siblings**, **parents**, **ancestor**, **descendant** in the obvious way.

► Depth and height

- The **depth** of a node in a tree is the length of a (simple) path from that node to the root.
- A **level** of a tree is a set of nodes of the same depth.
- The **height** of a node in a tree is the length of the longest path from that node to a leaf.
- The **height of a tree** is the height of its root.
- A binary tree is **full** if each node is either a leaf or has exactly two children.
- It is **complete** if it is full and all leaves have the same level.

► Inductive proofs on trees

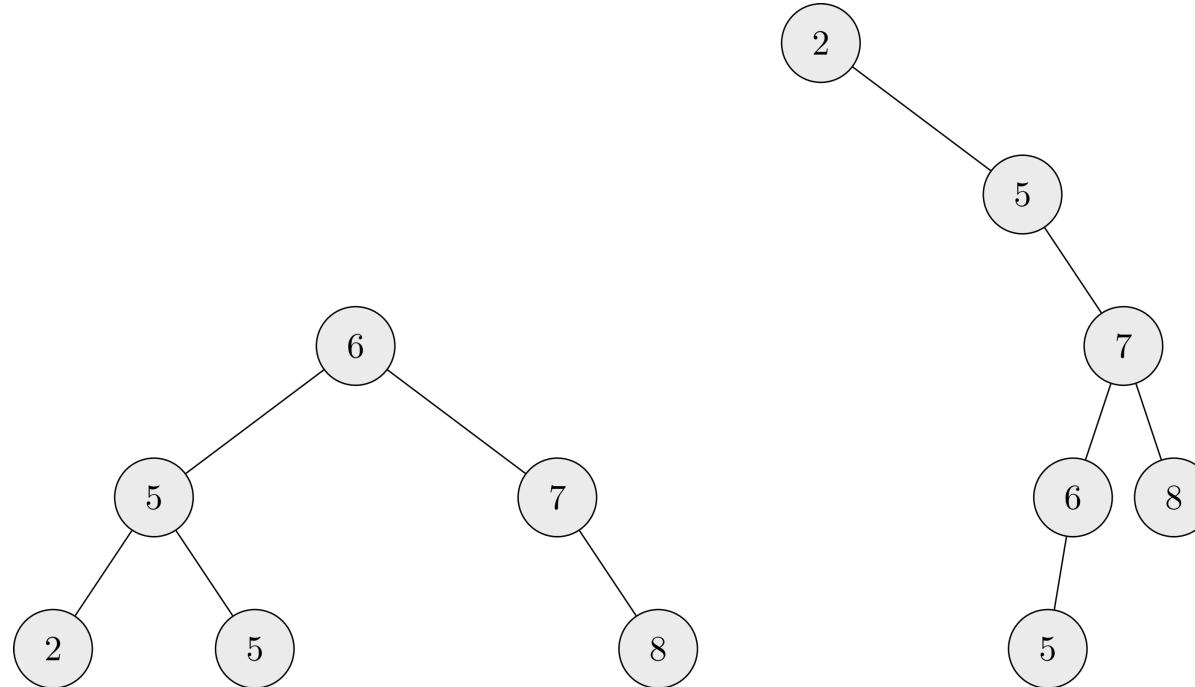
- We can use the recursive definition to prove statements about trees inductively. The general recipe is this:
- **Proof:**
 - **Base case:** show that the statement holds for the “smallest” tree, e.g. an empty tree or just the root node (depending on the statement).
 - **Induction step:** any larger tree has a root and two subtrees (possibly empty). Assume that the statement holds for both subtrees and show that it then holds for the whole tree.
- Caveat: if a statement reads “for all non-empty trees”, in the induction step we may need to watch out for empty subtrees.

► Inductive proofs on trees: example

- **Theorem:** A binary tree of height at most h has no more than 2^h leaves.
 - We have used this statement in the lower bound for comparison sorts. Now we prove it.
- **Proof:**
 - **Base case:** a tree of height 0 has no more than $2^0=1$ leaves.
 - **Induction step:** a tree of height $h>0$ has a root and two subtrees (possibly empty) of height at most $h-1$. Assume that the statement holds for both subtrees. Then the subtrees have at most 2^{h-1} leaves, so the whole tree has at most $2 \cdot 2^{h-1} = 2^h$ leaves.

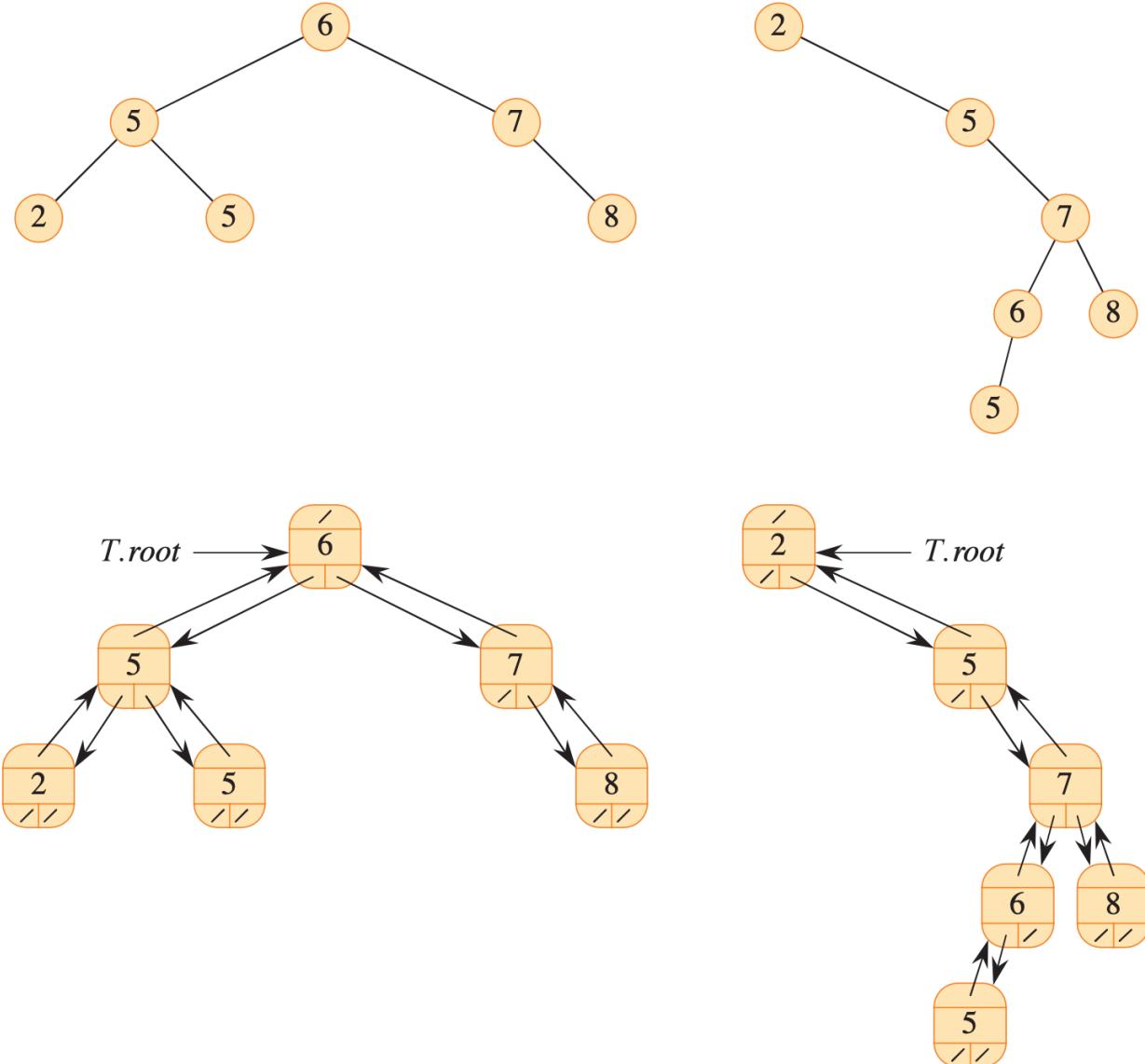
► Binary search trees

- A binary search tree (BST) is a binary tree where all labels (keys) satisfy the **binary search tree property**:
 - If y is a node in the left subtree of x , then $y.key \leq x.key$.
 - If y is a node in the right subtree of x , then $y.key \geq x.key$.



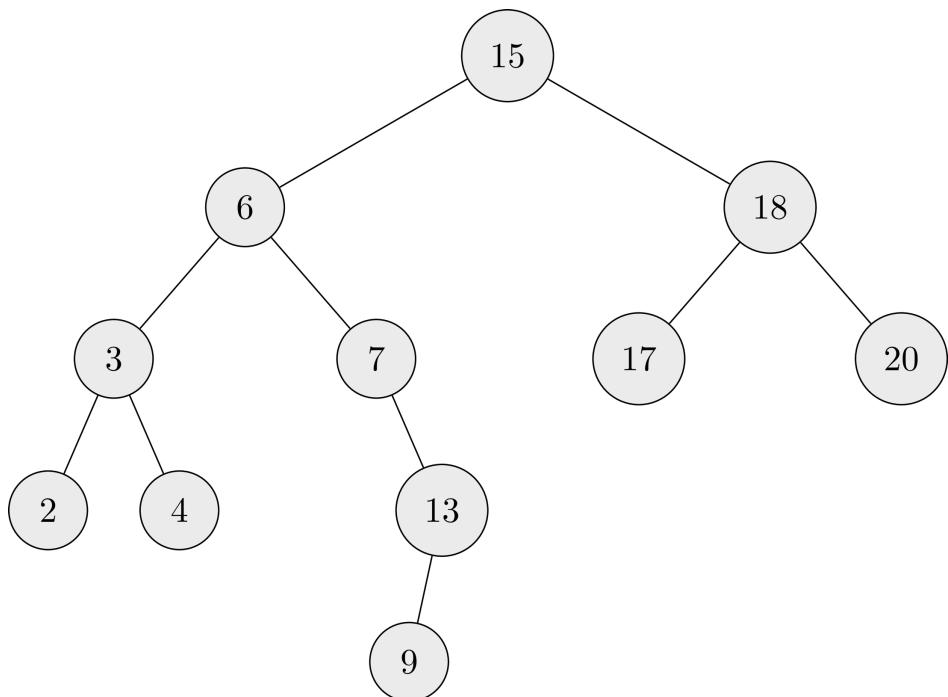
► Binary search trees: representation

- Linked list
- Key
- Satellite data
- Attributes:
 - **T.Root**
 - **Left child pointer**
 - **Right child pointer**
 - **Parent** pointer
- Parent of T.root is NIL



► Searching in a BST

- **Search(x, k):** returns the element with key k in a tree rooted in x , or NIL
- **Idea:** compare against current key and stop or go down left or right.



TREE-SEARCH(x, k)

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

ITERATIVE-TREE-SEARCH(x, k)

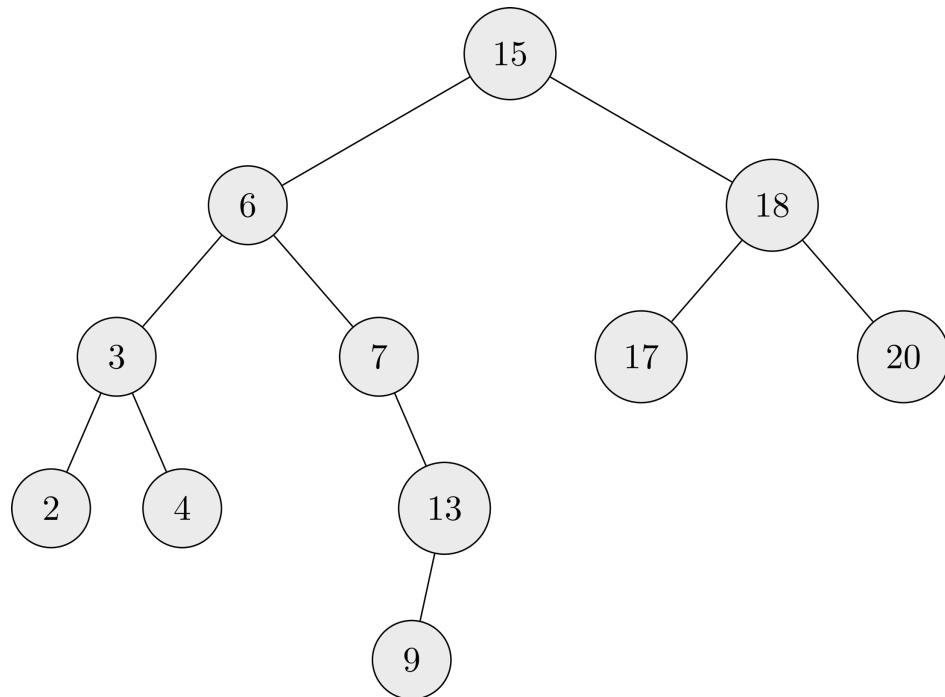
```
1 while  $x \neq \text{NIL}$  and  $k \neq x.\text{key}$ 
2   if  $k < x.\text{key}$ 
3      $x = x.\text{left}$ 
4   else  $x = x.\text{right}$ 
5 return  $x$ 
```

Runtime: $O(h)$, h the height of the tree

► Minimum, Maximum, Successor in a BST

Minimum: starting from the root, go left until the left child is NIL.

Maximum: starting from the root, go right until the right child is NIL.



TREE-MINIMUM(x)

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

TREE-MAXIMUM(x)

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

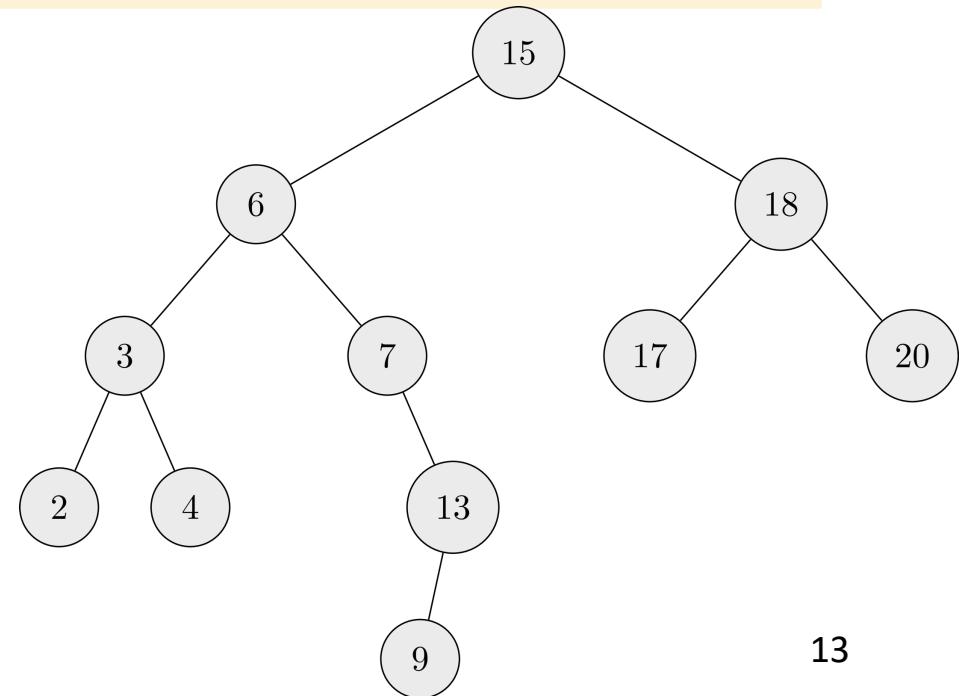
Runtime: $O(h)$, h the height of the tree

► Minimum, Maximum, Successor in a BST

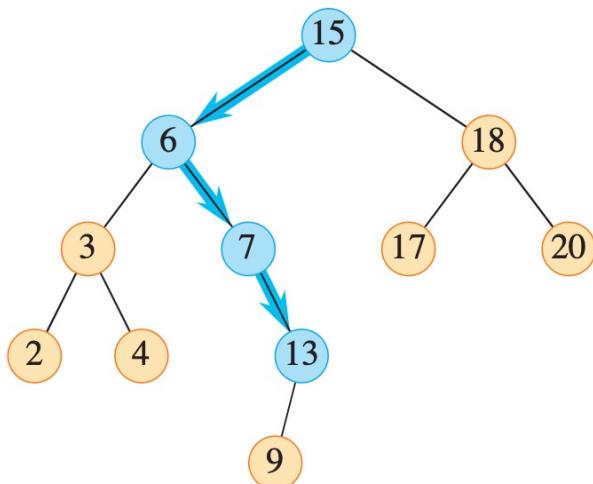
TREE-SUCCESSOR(x)

```
1  if  $x.right \neq \text{NIL}$ 
2      return TREE-MINIMUM( $x.right$ ) // leftmost node in right subtree
3  else // find the lowest ancestor of  $x$  whose left child is an ancestor of  $x$ 
4       $y = x.p$ 
5      while  $y \neq \text{NIL}$  and  $x == y.right$ 
6           $x = y$ 
7           $y = y.p$ 
8  return  $y$ 
```

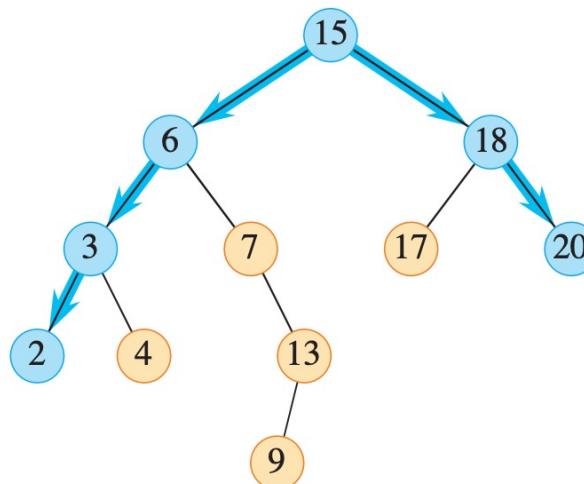
Runtime: $O(h)$, h the height of the tree



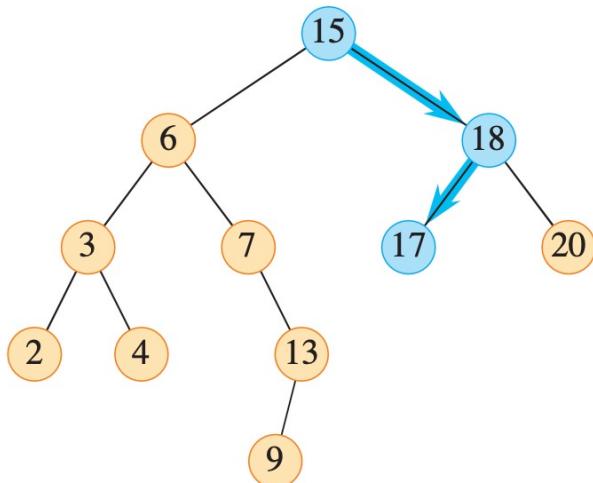
► Searching in a BST: Summary



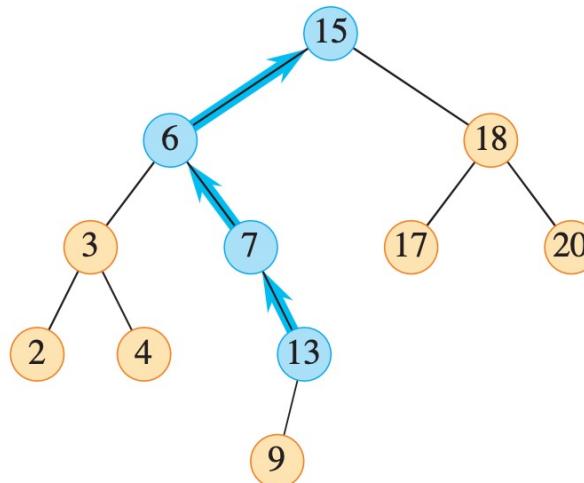
(a)



(b)



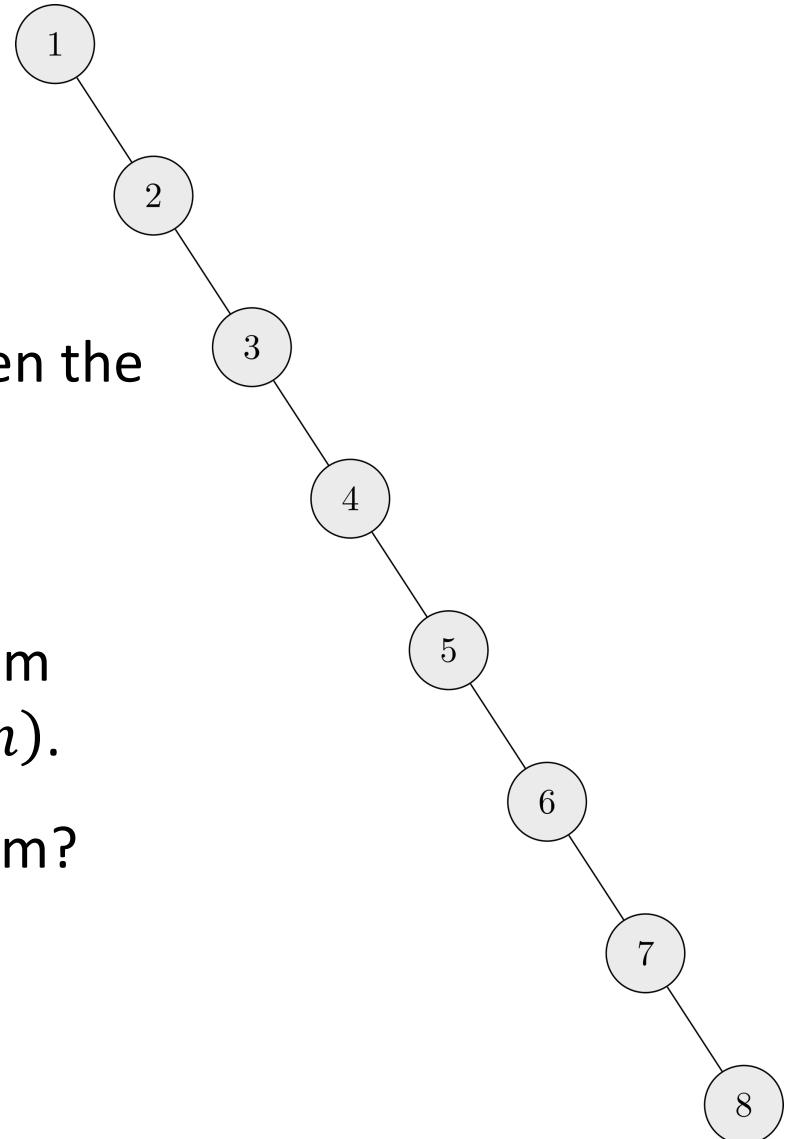
(c)



(d)

► Searching in a BST: Worst case runtime

- BSTs can be **imbalanced** and even degenerate to a single path!
- Height can be as bad as $n-1$, e.g. when the input is sorted.
- So the **worst-case runtime is $\Theta(n)$** .
- If keys are inserted in uniform random order, the expected height is $O(\log n)$.
- Can we rely on our data being random? Such inputs might be very unlikely.
- We'll see **balanced trees** later on, guaranteeing a height of $O(\log n)$.



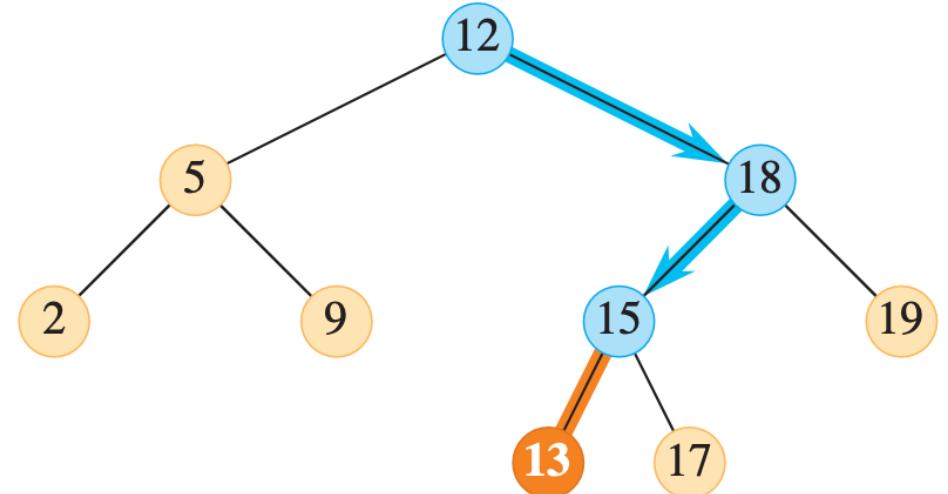
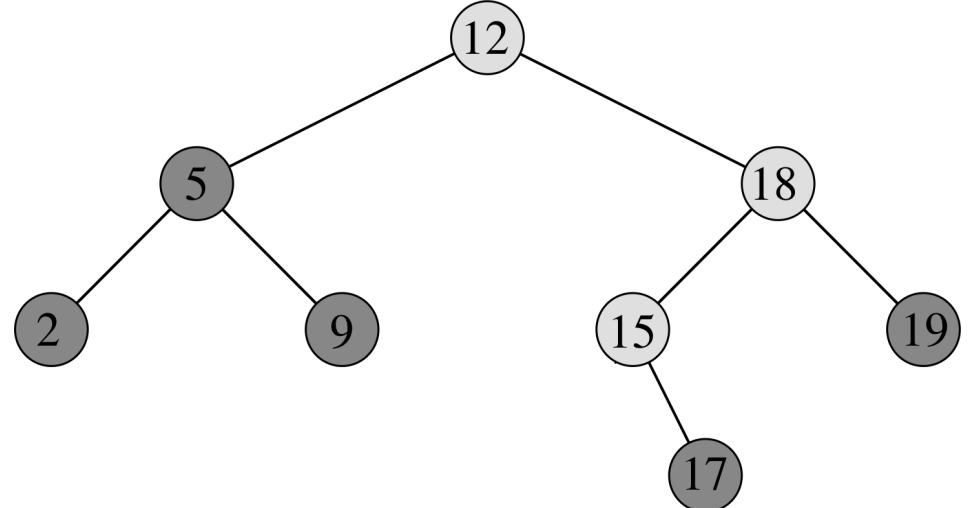
Example: Insert($T, 13$)

► Insert(T, z)

Idea

Go down the tree like in Search to find where the new element needs to go.

1. The search will end in NIL, hence we record the **search path** (e.g. 12, 18, 15, NIL).
2. Add the element as a left or right subtree to last non-NIL node.

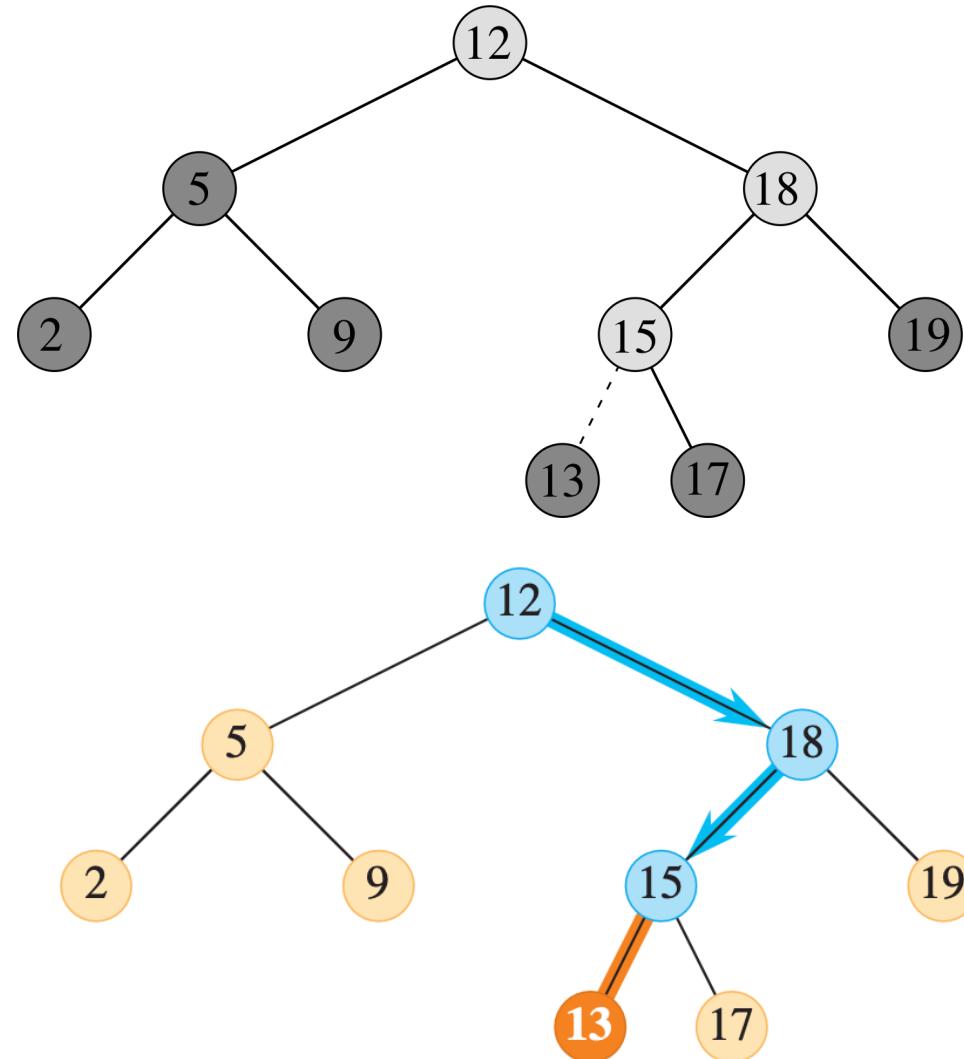


► Insert(T, z)

TREE-INSERT(T, z)

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

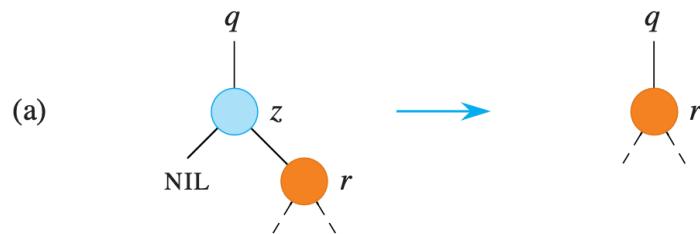
Example: Insert($T, 13$)



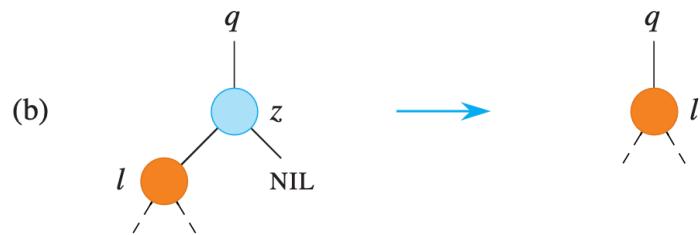
Runtime: $O(h)$, h the height of the tree

► Delete(T, z)

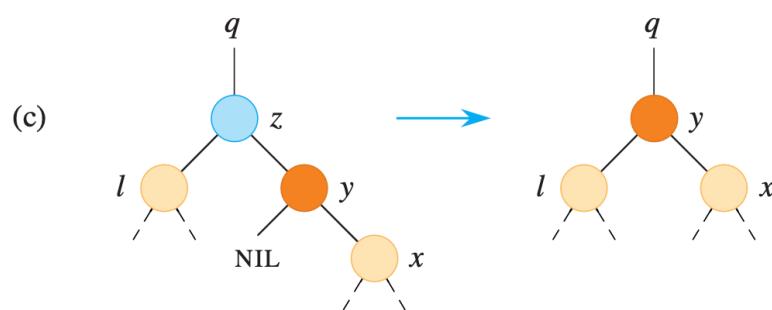
- **Idea:** Three cases
 1. Easy when z is a **leaf** (delete z).
 2. If z has one child, have the child replace z .
 3. Otherwise, if z has two children, we can't leave a hole in the tree!
 - Solution: replace z with its **successor**.
 - z 's successor is the minimum in the right subtree (this subtree exists since z has two children).
 - z 's successor **has no left child**.
 - Hence we can swap it with z and then delete z .



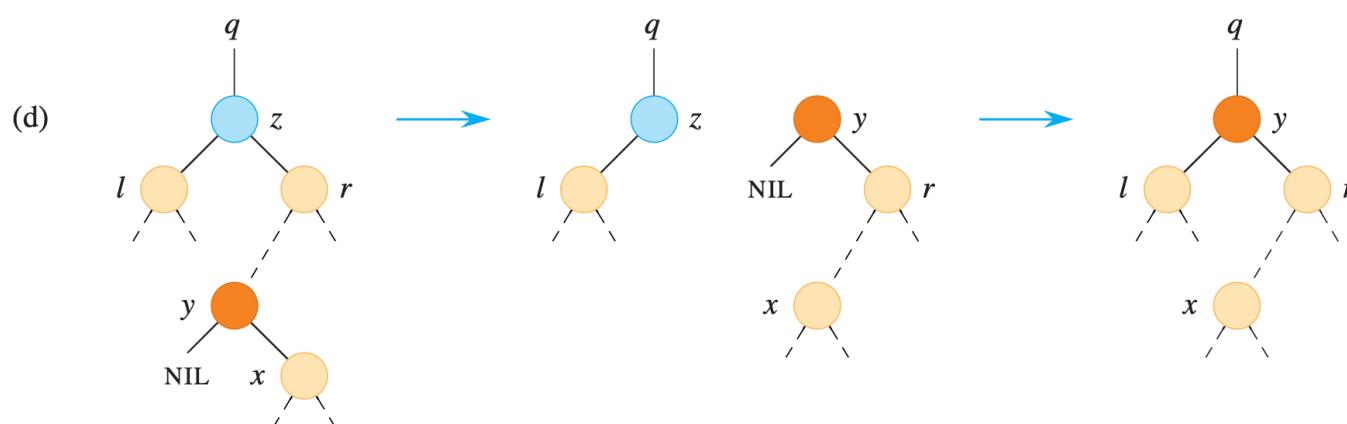
(a) Node has no children or only right child



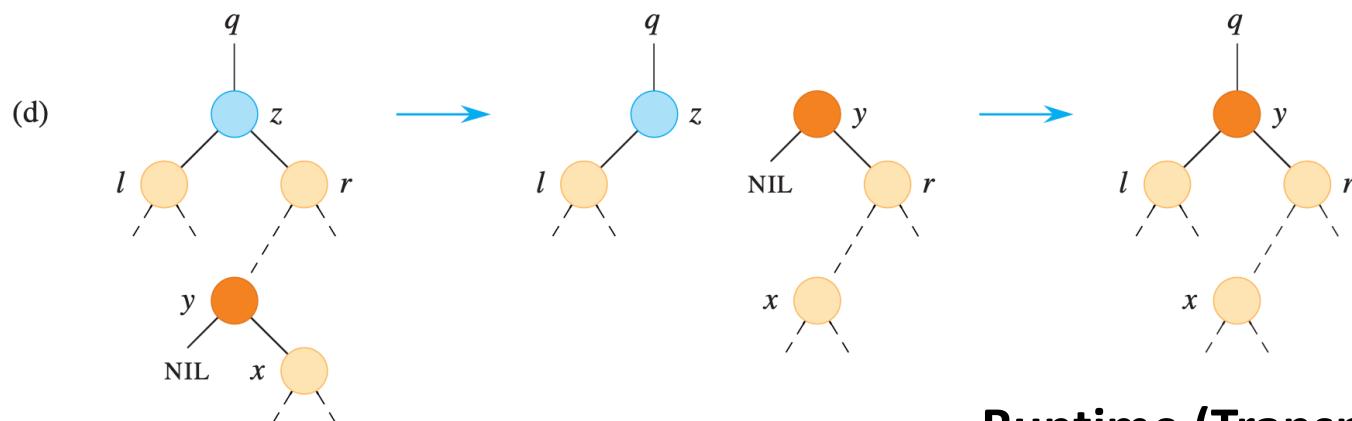
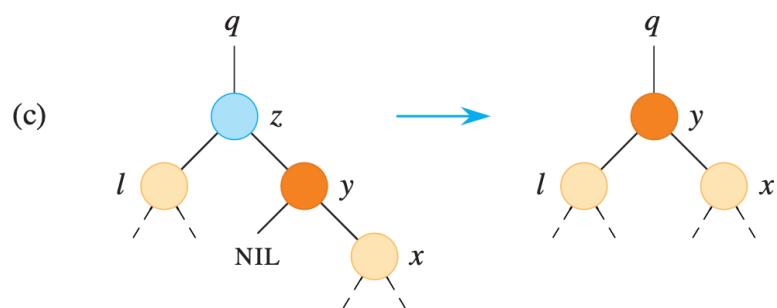
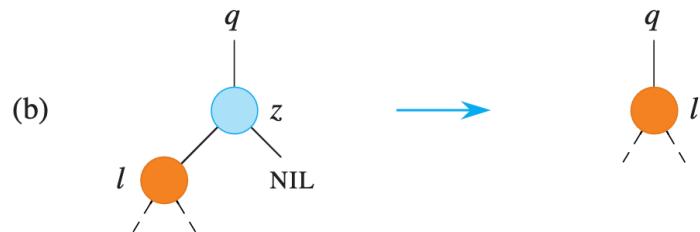
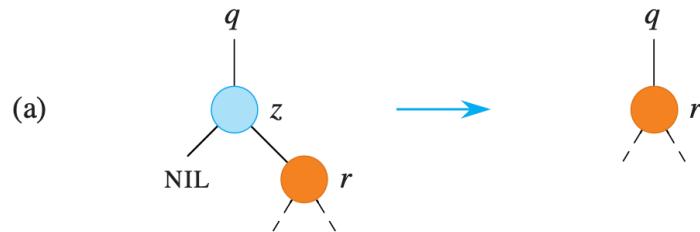
(b) Node has only left child



(c) **Special case** where right child is the successor.



(d) Successor y is the minimum in right subtree; y 's left child is NIL. Swapping z and y .



► Transplant(T, u, v)

TRANSPLANT(T, u, v)

```

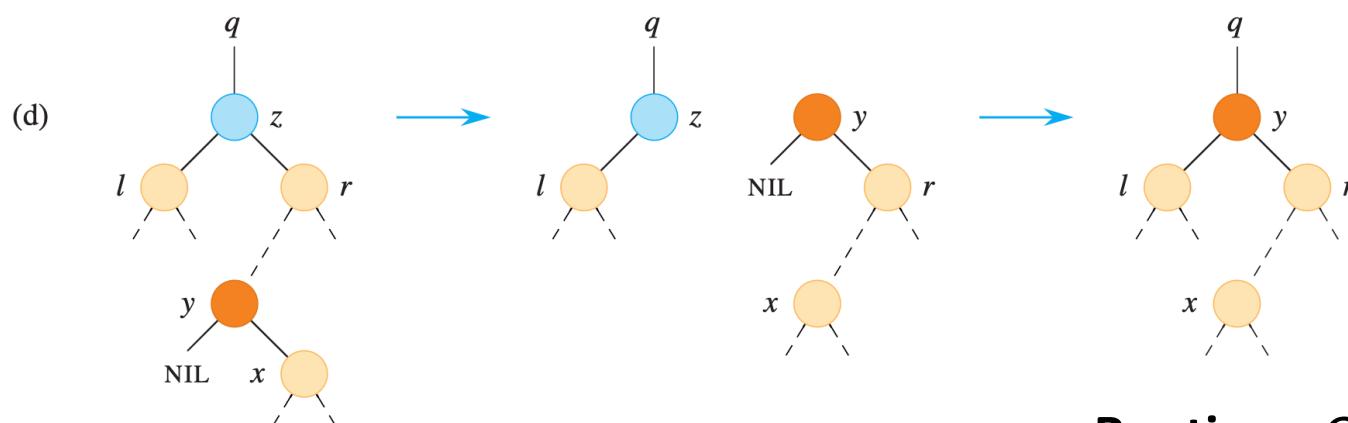
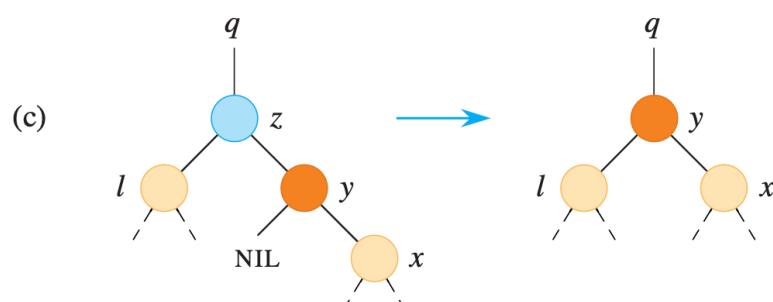
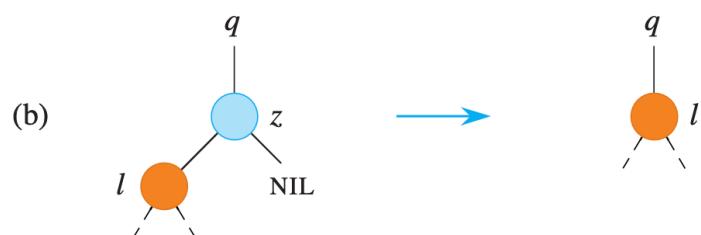
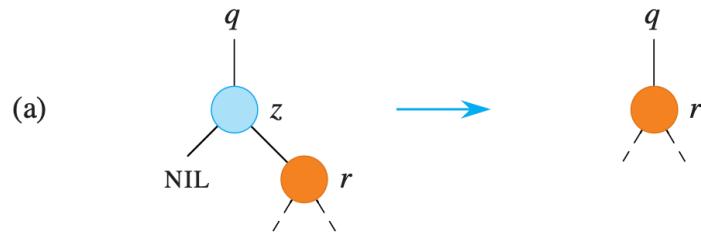
1  if  $u.p == \text{NIL}$ 
2       $T.\text{root} = v$ 
3  elseif  $u == u.p.\text{left}$ 
4       $u.p.\text{left} = v$ 
5  else  $u.p.\text{right} = v$ 
6  if  $v \neq \text{NIL}$ 
7       $v.p = u.p$ 

```

Replaces subtree rooted in u with a subtree rooted in v

Transplant does not update $v.\text{left}$ and $v.\text{right}$: this is the responsibility of the caller of **Transplant!!**

Runtime (Transplant) ?
 $O(1)$



► Delete(T, z)

TREE-DELETE(T, z)

```

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

```

// replace z by its right child
// replace z by its left child
// y is z 's successor
// is y farther down the tree?
// replace y by its right child
// z 's right child becomes
// y 's right child
// replace z by its successor y ,
// and give z 's left child to y ,
// which had no left child

Runtime: $O(h)$, h the height of the tree

► Tree walks

- We can print out the keys of a BST by a **tree walk**:

PREORDER(x)

```
1: if  $x \neq \text{NIL}$  then  
2:   print  $x.\text{key}$   
3:   PREORDER( $x.\text{left}$ )  
4:   PREORDER( $x.\text{right}$ )
```

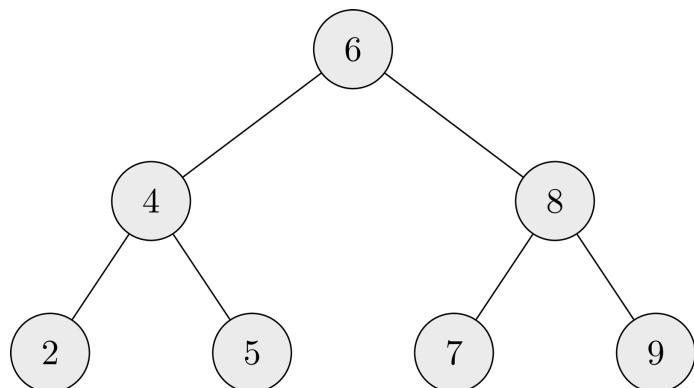
INORDER(x)

```
1: if  $x \neq \text{NIL}$  then  
2:   INORDER( $x.\text{left}$ )  
3:   print  $x.\text{key}$   
4:   INORDER( $x.\text{right}$ )
```

POSTORDER(x)

```
1: if  $x \neq \text{NIL}$  then  
2:   POSTORDER( $x.\text{left}$ )  
3:   POSTORDER( $x.\text{right}$ )  
4:   print  $x.\text{key}$ 
```

- Inorder tree walk outputs sorted sequence.



Inorder: 2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9

Preorder: 6, 4, 2, 5, 8, 7, 9

Postorder: 2, 5, 4, 7, 9, 8, 6

► Tree walks: runtime

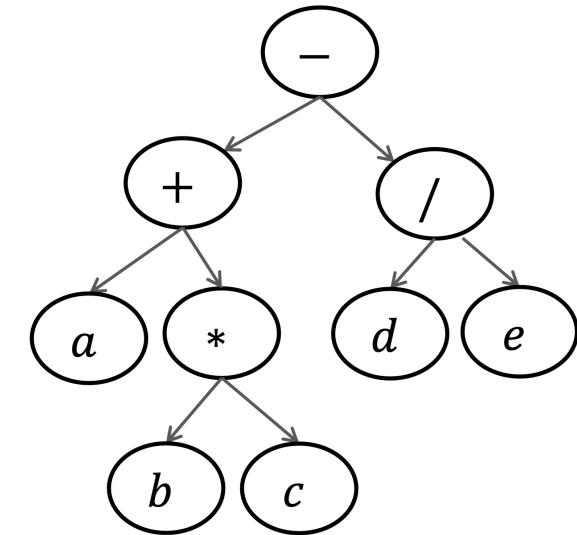
- **Theorem:** Inorder (Preorder/Postorder) tree walk of the root of an n -node tree takes time $\Theta(n)$.

PREORDER(x)	INORDER(x)	POSTORDER(x)
1: if $x \neq \text{NIL}$ then 2: print $x.\text{key}$ 3: PREORDER($x.\text{left}$) 4: PREORDER($x.\text{right}$)	1: if $x \neq \text{NIL}$ then 2: INORDER($x.\text{left}$) 3: print $x.\text{key}$ 4: INORDER($x.\text{right}$)	1: if $x \neq \text{NIL}$ then 2: POSTORDER($x.\text{left}$) 3: POSTORDER($x.\text{right}$) 4: print $x.\text{key}$

- Book gives a rather dull proof based on recurrences.
- A simpler proof:
 - Assign costs (time) for operations made at x to node x .
 - Cost at each node is $\Theta(1)$, and all costs are accounted for.
 - Sum of costs = runtime is $n \cdot \Theta(1) = \Theta(n)$.
- NB: This kind of argument is called **accounting method**.

► Algebraic Expressions

- Algebraic expression with binary operators
- + - * /
- We can use a binary tree to represent it because the operations are binary
- Internal nodes: **operators**
- Leaves: **operands**
- $(a+(b*c)) - (d/e)$



• Inorder tree walk? **((a+(b*c))-(d/e))**

Print (before left visit and) after right subtree visit

• Postorder tree walk? **a b c * + d e / -**

• Preorder tree walk? **- +(a,*(b,c)),/(d,e))**

add commas , after left visit

Inorder: infix expression; **Postorder:** postfix expression (stack);

Preorder: functional programming notation

►Summary

- Binary trees have at most 2 children and can be defined recursively:
 - A tree is either empty or it contains a root and two subtrees (=trees).
 - Very useful for inductive proofs for trees.
- Binary search trees store data such that smaller keys are in the left subtree and larger keys are in the right subtree.
- BSTs of height h execute the following operations in time $O(h)$
 - **Searching, Minimum, Maximum, Successor**
 - **Insertion**
 - **Deletion**
- Binary search trees can be **imbalanced**: trees can degenerate to height $h = \Theta(n)$ **and worst-case time $\Theta(n)$** for many operations.
- Inorder/preorder/postorder walks output all elements in time $\Theta(n)$.