16. Binary Search Trees

[Ottman/Widmayer, Kap. 5.1, Cormen et al, Kap. 12.1 - 12.3]

Hashing: implementation of dictionaries with expected very fast access times.

Disadvantages of hashing:

Hashing: implementation of dictionaries with expected very fast access times.

Disadvantages of hashing: linear access time in worst case. Some operations not supported at all:

enumerate keys in increasing order

Hashing: implementation of dictionaries with expected very fast access times.

Disadvantages of hashing: linear access time in worst case. Some operations not supported at all:

- enumerate keys in increasing order
- next smallest key to given key

Hashing: implementation of dictionaries with expected very fast access times.

Disadvantages of hashing: linear access time in worst case. Some operations not supported at all:

- enumerate keys in increasing order
- next smallest key to given key
- Key k in given interval $k \in [l, r]$

Trees

Trees are

- Generalized lists: nodes can have more than one successor
- Special graphs: graphs consist of nodes and edges. A tree is a fully connected, directed, acyclic graph.

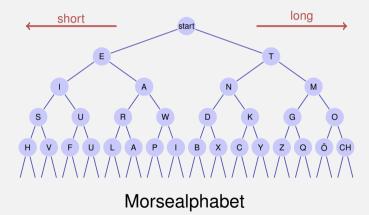
Trees

Use

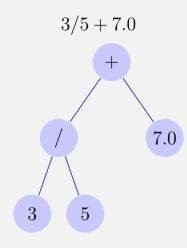
- Decision trees: hierarchic representation of decision rules
- syntax trees: parsing and traversing of expressions, e.g. in a compiler
- Code tress: representation of a code, e.g. morse alphabet, huffman code
- Search trees: allow efficient searching for an element by value



Examples

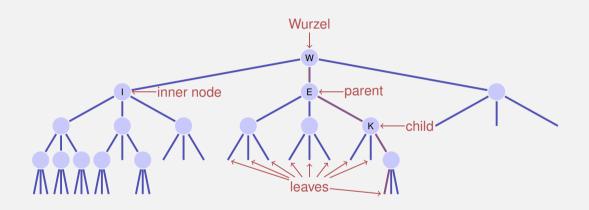


Examples



Expression tree

Nomenclature



- Order of the tree: maximum number of child nodes, here: 3
- Height of the tree: maximum path length root leaf (here: 4)

47

Binary Trees

A binary tree is

- either a leaf, i.e. an empty tree,
- or an inner leaf with two trees T_l (left subtree) and T_r (right subtree) as left and right successor.

In each inner node v we store



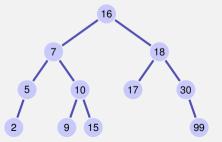
- a key v.key and
- two nodes v.left and v.right to the roots of the left and right subtree.

a leaf is represented by the **null**-pointer

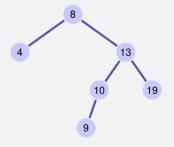
Binary search tree

A binary search tree is a binary tree that fulfils the *search tree property*:

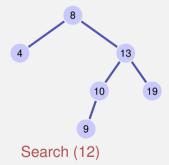
- Every node v stores a key
- Keys in left subtree v.left are smaller than v.key
- Keys in right subtree v.right are greater than v.key



```
Input: Binary search tree with root r, key k
Output: Node v with v.key = k or null
v \leftarrow r
while v \neq \text{null do}
    if k = v.kev then
          return v
    else if k < v.key then
         v \leftarrow v.left
    else
      v \leftarrow v.\text{right}
```



```
Input: Binary search tree with root r, key k
Output: Node v with v.key = k or null
v \leftarrow r
while v \neq \text{null do}
    if k = v.kev then
          return v
    else if k < v.key then
         v \leftarrow v.left
    else
      v \leftarrow v.\text{right}
```

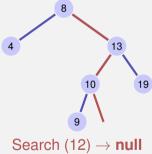


return null

```
Input: Binary search tree with root r, key k
Output: Node v with v.key = k or null
v \leftarrow r
while v \neq \text{null do}
    if k = v.kev then
          return v
    else if k < v.key then
         v \leftarrow v.left
    else
      v \leftarrow v.\text{right}
```



```
Input: Binary search tree with root r, key k
Output: Node v with v.key = k or null
v \leftarrow r
while v \neq \text{null do}
    if k = v.kev then
          return v
    else if k < v.key then
         v \leftarrow v.left
    else
      v \leftarrow v.\text{right}
```



Height of a tree

The height h(T) of a binary tree T with root r is given by

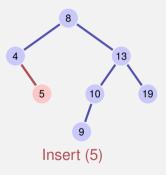
$$h(r) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } r = \text{null} \\ 1 + \max\{h(r.\text{left}), h(r.\text{right})\} & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

The worst case run time of the search is thus $\mathcal{O}(h(T))$

Insertion of a key

Insertion of the key k

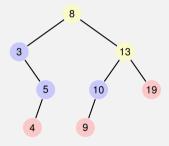
- Search for k
- If successful search: output error
- Of no success: insert the key at the leaf reached



Three cases possible:

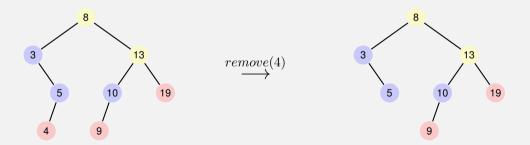
- Node has no children
- Node has one child
- Node has two children

[Leaves do not count here]



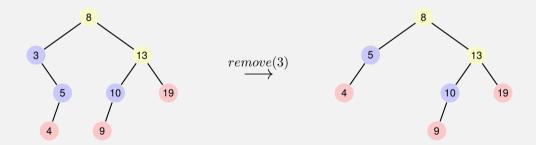
Node has no children

Simple case: replace node by leaf.



Node has one child

Also simple: replace node by single child.

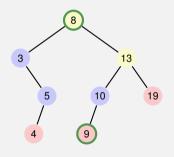


Node v has two children

The following observation helps: the smallest key in the right subtree v.right (the *symmetric successor* of v)

- is smaller than all keys in v.right
- is greater than all keys in v.left
- and cannot have a left child.

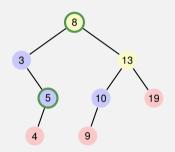
Solution: replace v by its symmetric successor.



By symmetry...

Node v has two children

Also possible: replace v by its symmetric predecessor.



Algorithm SymmetricSuccessor(v)

```
\begin{array}{l} \textbf{Input:} \ \mathsf{Node} \ v \ \mathsf{of} \ \mathsf{a} \ \mathsf{binary} \ \mathsf{search} \ \mathsf{tree}. \\ \textbf{Output:} \ \mathsf{Symmetric} \ \mathsf{successor} \ \mathsf{of} \ v \\ w \leftarrow v.\mathsf{right} \\ x \leftarrow w.\mathsf{left} \\ \textbf{while} \ x \neq \textbf{null} \ \textbf{do} \\ w \leftarrow x \\ x \leftarrow x.\mathsf{left} \end{array}
```

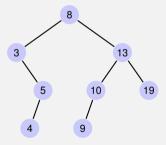
return w

Analysis

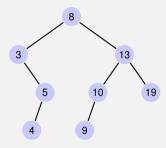
Deletion of an element v from a tree T requires $\mathcal{O}(h(T))$ fundamental steps:

- Finding v has costs $\mathcal{O}(h(T))$
- If v has maximal one child unequal to **null**then removal takes $\mathcal{O}(1)$ steps
- Finding the symmetric successor n of v takes $\mathcal{O}(h(T))$ steps. Removal and insertion of n takes $\mathcal{O}(1)$ steps.

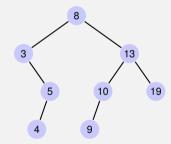
■ preorder: v, then $T_{\text{left}}(v)$, then $T_{\text{right}}(v)$.



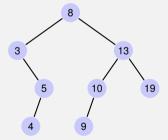
■ preorder: v, then $T_{\rm left}(v)$, then $T_{\rm right}(v)$. 8, 3, 5, 4, 13, 10, 9, 19



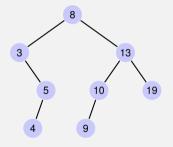
- preorder: v, then $T_{\text{left}}(v)$, then $T_{\text{right}}(v)$. 8, 3, 5, 4, 13, 10, 9, 19
- **postorder**: $T_{\text{left}}(v)$, then $T_{\text{right}}(v)$, then v.



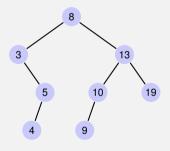
- preorder: v, then $T_{\text{left}}(v)$, then $T_{\text{right}}(v)$. 8, 3, 5, 4, 13, 10, 9, 19
- postorder: $T_{\rm left}(v)$, then $T_{\rm right}(v)$, then v.
 - 4, 5, 3, 9, 10, 19, 13, 8



- preorder: v, then $T_{\text{left}}(v)$, then $T_{\text{right}}(v)$. 8, 3, 5, 4, 13, 10, 9, 19
- postorder: $T_{\rm left}(v)$, then $T_{\rm right}(v)$, then v. 4, 5, 3, 9, 10, 19, 13, 8
- inorder: $T_{\text{left}}(v)$, then v, then $T_{\text{right}}(v)$.

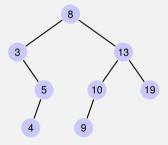


- preorder: v, then $T_{\text{left}}(v)$, then $T_{\text{right}}(v)$. 8, 3, 5, 4, 13, 10, 9, 19
- postorder: T_{left}(v), then T_{right}(v), then v.
 4, 5, 3, 9, 10, 19, 13, 8
- inorder: $T_{\text{left}}(v)$, then v, then $T_{\text{right}}(v)$. 3, 4, 5, 8, 9, 10, 13, 19

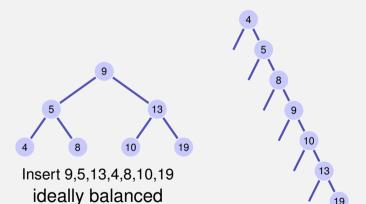


Further supported operations

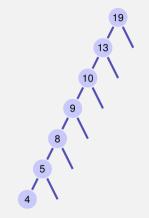
- Min(T): Read-out minimal value in $\mathcal{O}(h)$
- ExtractMin(T): Read-out and remove minimal value in $\mathcal{O}(h)$
- List(T): Output the sorted list of elements
- Join(T_1, T_2): Merge two trees with $\max(T_1) < \min(T_2)$ in $\mathcal{O}(n)$.



Degenerated search trees



Insert 4,5,8,9,10,13,19 linear list



Insert 19,13,10,9,8,5,4 linear list

Probabilistically

A search tree constructed from a random sequence of numbers provides an an expected path length of $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$.

Attention: this only holds for insertions. If the tree is constructed by random insertions and deletions, the expected path length is $\mathcal{O}(\sqrt{n})$.

Balanced trees make sure (e.g. with rotations) during insertion or deletion that the tree stays balanced and provide a $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$ Worst-case guarantee.

17. AVL Trees

Balanced Trees [Ottman/Widmayer, Kap. 5.2-5.2.1, Cormen et al, Kap. Problem 13-3]

Objective

Searching, insertion and removal of a key in a tree generated from n keys inserted in random order takes expected number of steps $\mathcal{O}(\log_2 n)$.

But worst case $\Theta(n)$ (degenerated tree).

Goal: avoidance of degeneration. Artificial balancing of the tree for each update-operation of a tree.

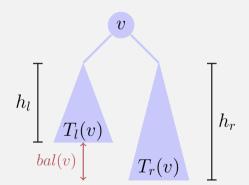
Balancing: guarantee that a tree with n nodes always has a height of $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$.

Adelson-Venskii and Landis (1962): AVL-Trees

Balance of a node

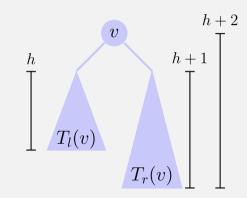
The height *balance* of a node v is defined as the height difference of its sub-trees $T_l(v)$ and $T_r(v)$

$$bal(v) := h(T_r(v)) - h(T_l(v))$$

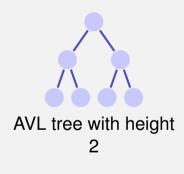


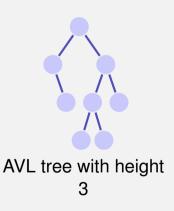
AVL Condition

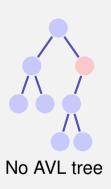
AVL Condition: for each node v of a tree $bal(v) \in \{-1, 0, 1\}$



(Counter-)Examples







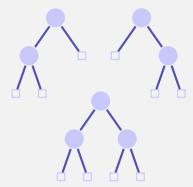
Number of Leaves

- 1. observation: a binary search tree with n keys provides exactly n+1 leaves. Simple induction argument.
 - The binary search tree with n = 0 keys has m = 1 leaves
 - When a key is added $(n \to n+1)$, then it replaces a leaf and adds two new leafs $(m \to m-1+2=m+1)$.
- 2. observation: a lower bound of the number of leaves in a search tree with given height implies an upper bound of the height of a search tree with given number of keys.

Lower bound of the leaves



AVL tree with height 1 has N(1) := 2 leaves.



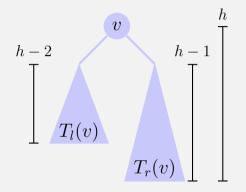
AVL tree with height 2 has at least N(2) := 3 leaves.

Lower bound of the leaves for h > 2

- Height of one subtree > h 1.
- Height of the other subtree $\geq h-2$.

 $\label{eq:minimal number of leaves} \ N(h) \ \text{is}$

$$N(h) = N(h-1) + N(h-2)$$



Overal we have $N(h) = F_{h+2}$ with *Fibonacci-numbers* $F_0 := 0$, $F_1 := 1$, $F_n := F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}$ for n > 1.

It holds that²⁸

$$F_i = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} (\phi^i - \hat{\phi}^i)$$

with the roots ϕ , $\hat{\phi}$ of the golden ratio equation $x^2 - x - 1 = 0$:

$$\phi = \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2} \approx 1.618$$

$$\hat{\phi} = \frac{1 - \sqrt{5}}{2} \approx -0.618$$

96

²⁸Derivation using generating functions (power series) in the appendix.

Fibonacci Numbers, Inductive Proof

$$F_i \stackrel{!}{=} \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} (\phi^i - \hat{\phi}^i)$$
 [*] $\left(\phi = \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}, \hat{\phi} = \frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}\right).$

- Immediate for i = 0, i = 1.
- Let i > 2 and claim [*] true for all F_i , j < i.

$$\begin{split} F_i &\stackrel{def}{=} F_{i-1} + F_{i-2} \stackrel{[*]}{=} \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} (\phi^{i-1} - \hat{\phi}^{i-1}) + \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} (\phi^{i-2} - \hat{\phi}^{i-2}) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} (\phi^{i-1} + \phi^{i-2}) - \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} (\hat{\phi}^{i-1} + \hat{\phi}^{i-2}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \phi^{i-2} (\phi + 1) - \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \hat{\phi}^{i-2} (\hat{\phi} + 1) \\ &(\phi, \hat{\phi} \text{ fulfil } x + 1 = x^2) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \phi^{i-2} (\phi^2) - \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \hat{\phi}^{i-2} (\hat{\phi}^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} (\phi^i - \hat{\phi}^i). \end{split}$$

Tree Height

Because $|\hat{\phi}| < 1$, overal we have

$$N(h) \in \Theta\left(\left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^h\right) \subseteq \Omega(1.618^h)$$

and thus

$$N(h) \ge c \cdot 1.618^h$$

$$\Rightarrow h \le 1.44 \log_2 n + c'.$$

An AVL tree is asymptotically not more than 44% higher than a perfectly balanced tree.²⁹

²⁹The perfectly balanced tree has a height of $\lceil \log_2 n + 1 \rceil$

Insertion

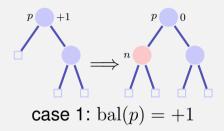
Balance

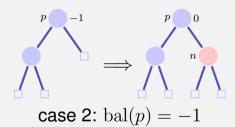
- Keep the balance stored in each node
- Re-balance the tree in each update-operation

New node n is inserted:

- Insert the node as for a search tree.
- \blacksquare Check the balance condition increasing from n to the root.

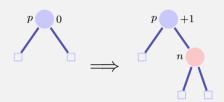
Balance at Insertion Point



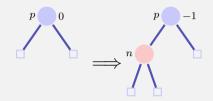


Finished in both cases because the subtree height did not change

Balance at Insertion Point



case 3.1: bal(p) = 0 right



case 3.2: bal(p) = 0, left

Not finished in both case. Call of upin(p)

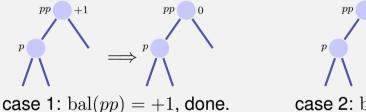
upin(p) - invariant

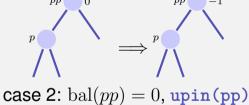
When upin(p) is called it holds that

- \blacksquare the subtree from p is grown and
- $bal(p) \in \{-1, +1\}$

upin(p)

Assumption: p is left son of pp^{30}



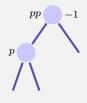


In both cases the AVL-Condition holds for the subtree from pp

 $^{^{30}}$ If p is a right son: symmetric cases with exchange of +1 and -1

upin(p)

Assumption: p is left son of pp



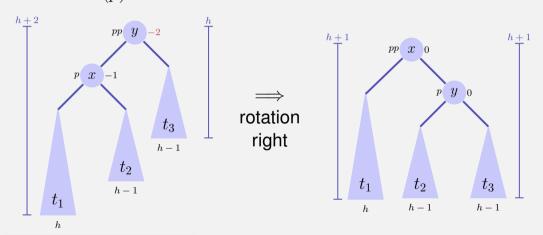
case 3: bal(pp) = -1,

This case is problematic: adding n to the subtree from pp has violated the AVL-condition. Re-balance!

Two cases bal(p) = -1, bal(p) = +1

Rotations

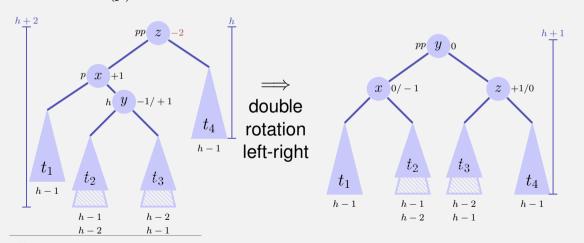
case 1.1 bal(p) = -1. 31



 $^{^{31}}p$ right son: $\Rightarrow bal(pp) = bal(p) = +1$, left rotation

Rotations

case 1.1 bal(p) = -1. ³²



 $^{^{32}}p$ right son \Rightarrow bal(pp)=+1, bal(p)=-1, double rotation right left

Analysis

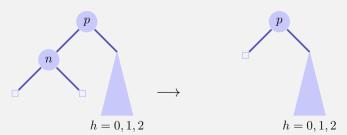
- Tree height: $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$.
- Insertion like in binary search tree.
- Balancing via recursion from node to the root. Maximal path lenght $O(\log n)$.

Insertion in an AVL-tree provides run time costs of $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$.

Deletion

Case 1: Children of node n are both leaves Let p be parent node of $n. \Rightarrow$ Other subtree has height h' = 0, 1 or 2.

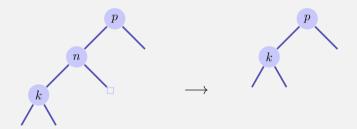
- h'=1: Adapt bal(p).
- h' = 0: Adapt bal(p). Call upout (p).
- h' = 2: Rebalanciere des Teilbaumes. Call upout (p).



Deletion

Case 2: one child k of node n is an inner node

■ Replace n by k. upout (k)



509

Deletion

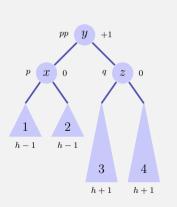
Case 3: both children of node *n* are inner nodes

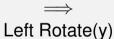
- Replace n by symmetric successor. upout (k)
- Deletion of the symmetric successor is as in case 1 or 2.

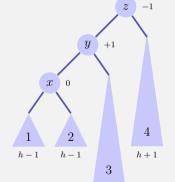
Let pp be the parent node of p.

- (a) p left child of pp
 - $bal(pp) = -1 \Rightarrow bal(pp) \leftarrow 0.$ upout (pp)
 - $2 \operatorname{bal}(pp) = 0 \Rightarrow \operatorname{bal}(pp) \leftarrow +1.$
 - $\operatorname{bal}(pp) = +1 \Rightarrow \operatorname{next slides}.$
- (b) p right child of pp: Symmetric cases exchanging +1 and -1.

Case (a).3: $\operatorname{bal}(pp) = +1$. Let q be brother of p (a).3.1: $\operatorname{bal}(q) = 0$.³³



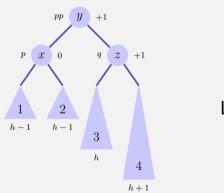




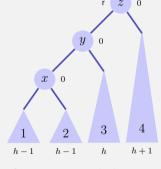
h+1

³³(b).3.1: bal(pp) = -1, bal(q) = -1, Right rotation

Case (a).3: bal(pp) = +1. (a).3.2: bal(q) = +1.



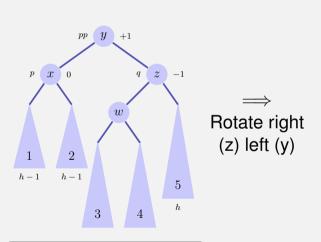
Left Rotate(y)

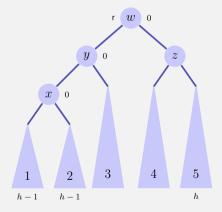


plus upout (r).

³⁴(b).3.2: $\operatorname{bal}(pp) = -1$, $\operatorname{bal}(q) = +1$, Right rotation+upout

Case (a).3: bal(pp) = +1. (a).3.3: bal(q) = -1.





plus upout (r).

³⁵(b).3.3: bal(pp) = -1, bal(q) = -1, left-right rotation + upout

Conclusion

- AVL trees have worst-case asymptotic runtimes of $O(\log n)$ for searching, insertion and deletion of keys.
- Insertion and deletion is relatively involved and an overkill for really small problems.

17.5 Appendix

Derivation of some mathemmatical formulas

Closed form of the Fibonacci numbers: computation via generation functions:

Power series approach

$$f(x) := \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} F_i \cdot x^i$$

For Fibonacci Numbers it holds that $F_0 = 0$, $F_1 = 1$, $F_i = F_{i-1} + F_{i-2} \ \forall \ i > 1$. Therefore:

$$f(x) = x + \sum_{i=2}^{\infty} F_i \cdot x^i = x + \sum_{i=2}^{\infty} F_{i-1} \cdot x^i + \sum_{i=2}^{\infty} F_{i-2} \cdot x^i$$

$$= x + x \sum_{i=2}^{\infty} F_{i-1} \cdot x^{i-1} + x^2 \sum_{i=2}^{\infty} F_{i-2} \cdot x^{i-2}$$

$$= x + x \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} F_i \cdot x^i + x^2 \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} F_i \cdot x^i$$

$$= x + x \cdot f(x) + x^2 \cdot f(x).$$

Thus:

$$f(x) \cdot (1 - x - x^2) = x.$$

 $\Leftrightarrow f(x) = \frac{x}{1 - x - x^2} = -\frac{x}{x^2 + x - 1}$

with the roots $-\phi$ and $-\hat{\phi}$ of x^2+x-1 ,

$$\phi = \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2} \approx 1.6, \qquad \hat{\phi} = \frac{1 - \sqrt{5}}{2} \approx -0.6.$$

it holds that $\phi \cdot \hat{\phi} = -1$ and thus

$$f(x) = -\frac{x}{(x+\phi)\cdot(x+\hat{\phi})} = \frac{x}{(1-\phi x)\cdot(1-\hat{\phi}x)}$$

It holds that:

$$(1 - \hat{\phi}x) - (1 - \phi x) = \sqrt{5} \cdot x.$$

Damit:

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \frac{(1 - \hat{\phi}x) - (1 - \phi x)}{(1 - \phi x) \cdot (1 - \hat{\phi}x)}$$
$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left(\frac{1}{1 - \phi x} - \frac{1}{1 - \hat{\phi}x} \right)$$

520

5 Power series of $g_a(x) = \frac{1}{1-a \cdot x}$ $(a \in \mathbb{R})$:

$$\frac{1}{1 - a \cdot x} = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a^i \cdot x^i.$$

E.g. Taylor series of $g_a(x)$ at x=0 or like this: Let $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} G_i \cdot x^i$ a power series of g. By the identity $g_a(x)(1-a\cdot x)=1$ it holds that for all x (within the radius of convergence)

$$1 = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} G_i \cdot x^i - a \cdot \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} G_i \cdot x^{i+1} = G_0 + \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (G_i - a \cdot G_{i-1}) \cdot x^i$$

For x = 0 it follows $G_0 = 1$ and for $x \neq 0$ it follows then that $G_i = a \cdot G_{i-1} \Rightarrow G_i = a^i$.

Fill in the power series:

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left(\frac{1}{1 - \phi x} - \frac{1}{1 - \hat{\phi} x} \right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left(\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \phi^i x^i - \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \hat{\phi}^i x^i \right)$$
$$= \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} (\phi^i - \hat{\phi}^i) x^i$$

Comparison of the coefficients with $f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} F_i \cdot x^i$ yields

$$F_i = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} (\phi^i - \hat{\phi}^i).$$