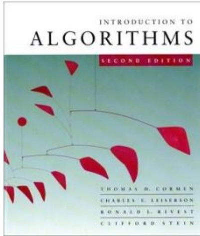

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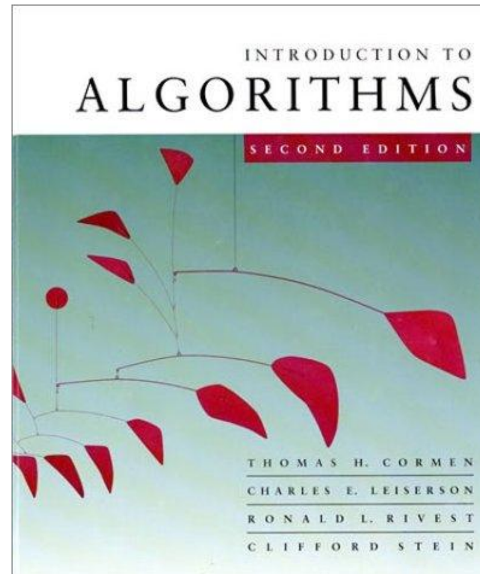
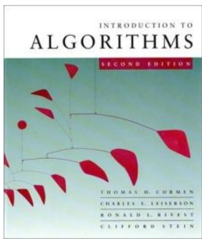


Red-black trees

Carola Wenk

Slides courtesy of Charles Leiserson with small changes by Carola Wenk

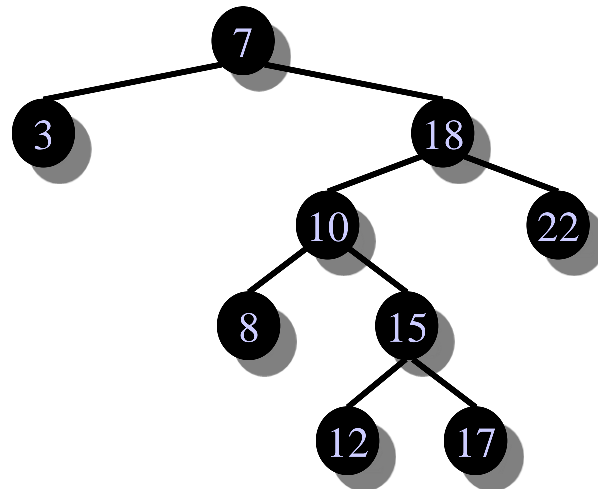


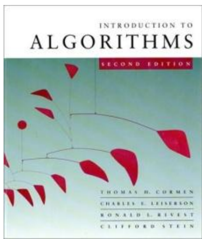
Search Trees

- A binary search tree is a binary tree. Each node stores a key. The tree fulfills the **binary search tree property**:

For every node x holds:

- $y \leq x$, for all y in the subtree left of x
- $x < y$, for all y in the subtree right of x

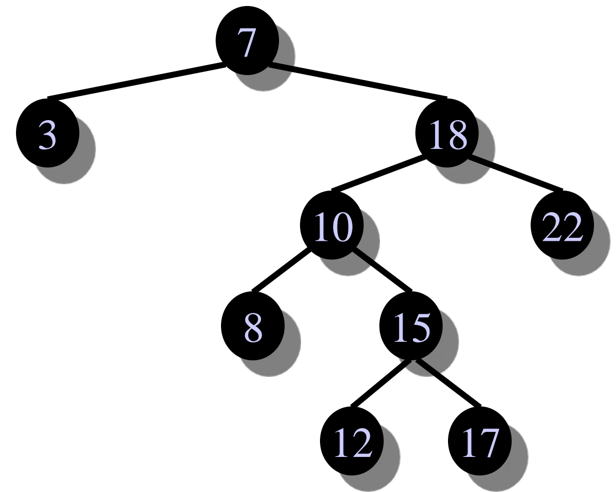


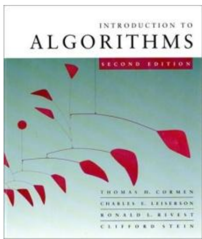


Search Trees

Different variants of search trees:

- Balanced search trees (guarantee height of $\log n$ for n elements)
- k-ary search trees (such as B-trees, 2-3-4-trees)
- Search trees that store the keys only in the leaves, and store additional split-values in the internal nodes



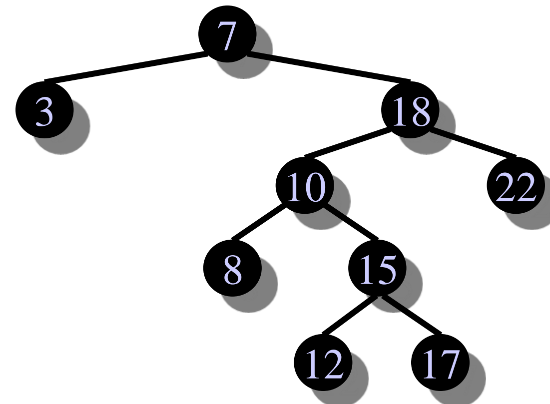


ADT Dictionary / Dynamic Set

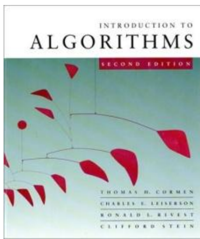
Abstract data type (ADT) Dictionary (also called Dynamic Set):

A data structure which supports operations

- Insert
- Delete
- Find



Using **balanced binary search trees** we can implement a dictionary data structure such that each operation takes $O(\log n)$ time.

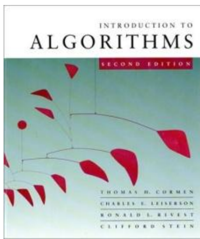


Balanced search trees

Balanced search tree: A search-tree data structure for which a height of $O(\log n)$ is guaranteed when implementing a dynamic set of n items.

Examples:

- AVL trees
- 2-3 trees
- 2-3-4 trees
- B-trees
- Red-black trees

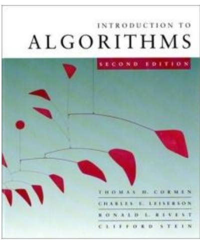


Red-black trees

This data structure requires an extra one-bit color field in each node.

Red-black properties:

1. Every node is either red or black.
2. The root is black.
3. The leaves (NIL's) are black.
4. If a node is red, then both its children are black.
5. All simple paths from any node x, excluding x, to a descendant leaf have the same number of black nodes = black-height(x).

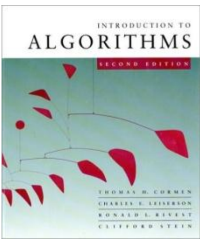


Example of a red-black tree

7
3 18
NIL NIL 10 22
8 11 NIL 26
NIL NIL NIL NIL NIL NIL

$h = 4$

1. Every node is either red or black.

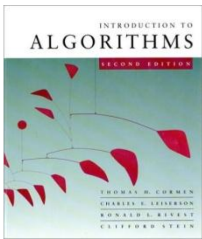


Example of a red-black tree

7
3 18
NIL NIL 10 22
8 11 NIL 26
NIL NIL NIL NIL NIL NIL

$h = 4$

2., 3. The root and leaves (NIL's) are black.



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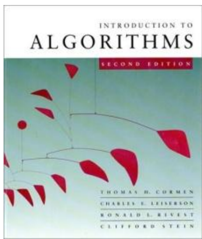


Example of a red-black tree

7 $bh = 2$

3

18 $bh = 2$

NIL NIL

$bh = 1$ 10

22

$h = 4$

NIL

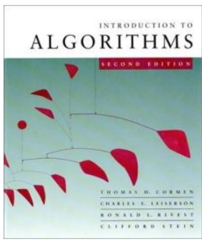
$bh = 1$ 8

11

26

$bh = 0$ NIL NIL NIL NIL NIL NIL

5. All simple paths from any node x, excluding x, to a descendant leaf have the same number of black nodes = *black-height*(x).



Height of a red-black tree

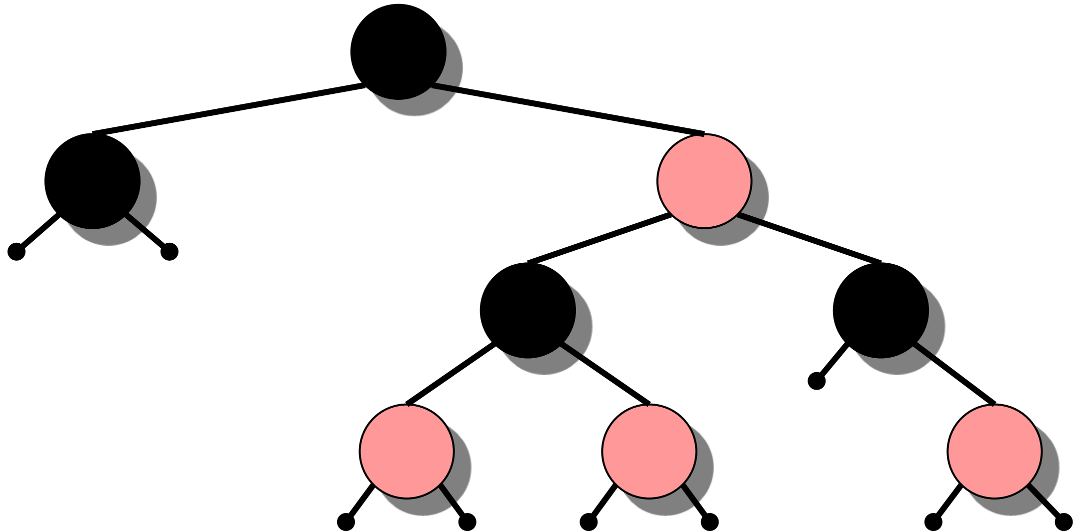
Theorem. A red-black tree with n keys has height

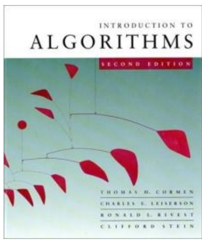
$$h \leq 2 \log(n + 1).$$

Proof. (The book uses induction. Read carefully.)

INTUITION:

- Merge red nodes into their black parents.





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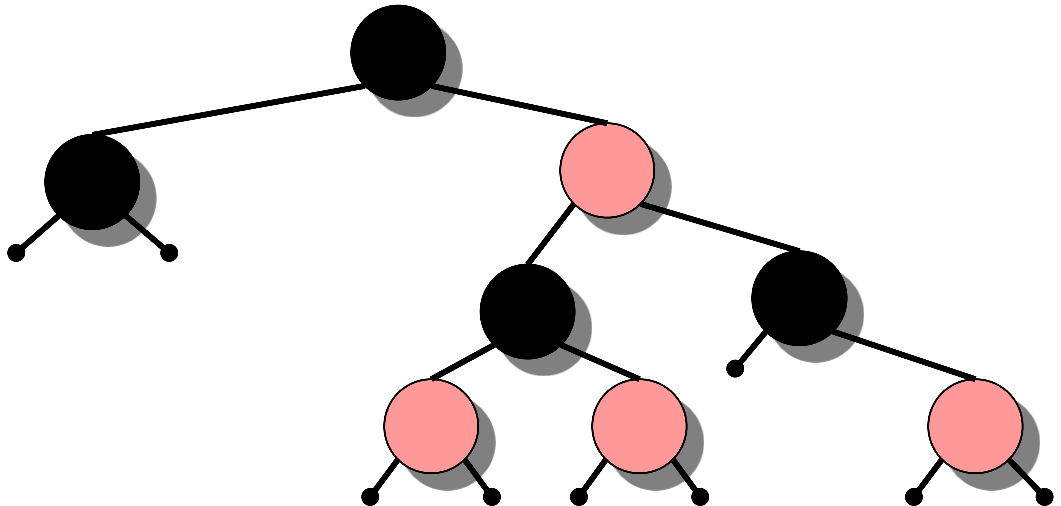

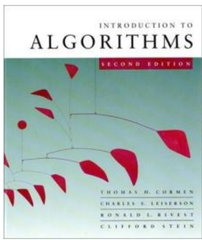

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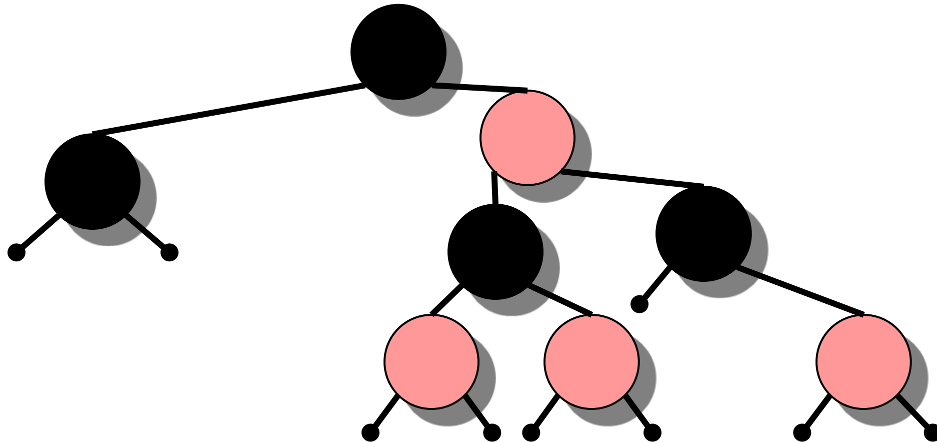

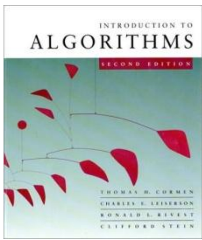

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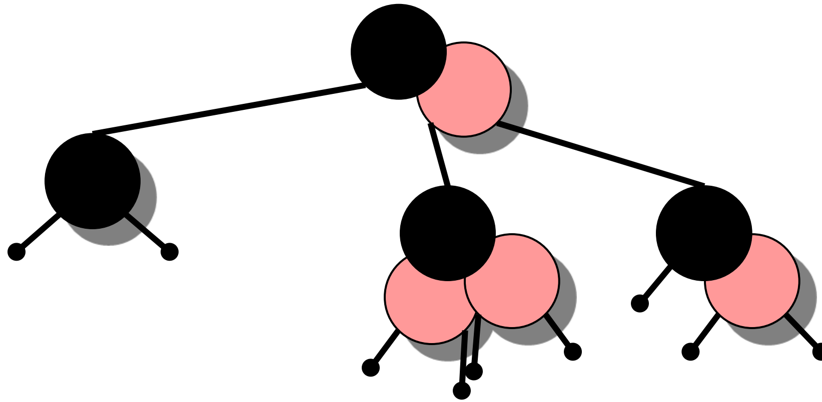

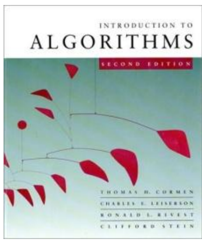

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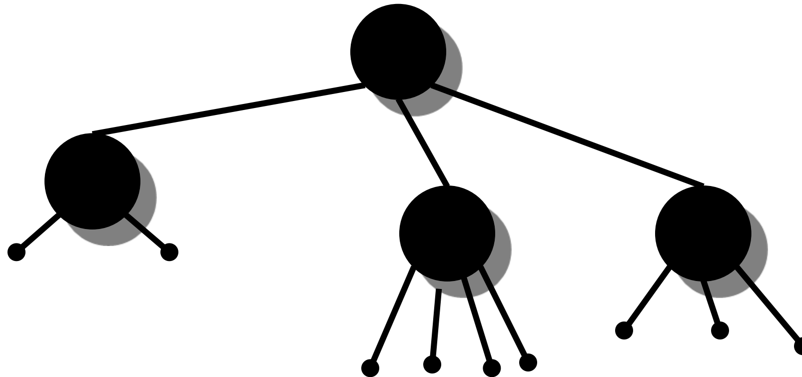

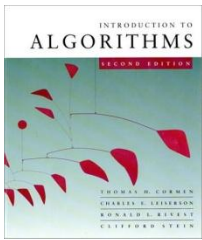

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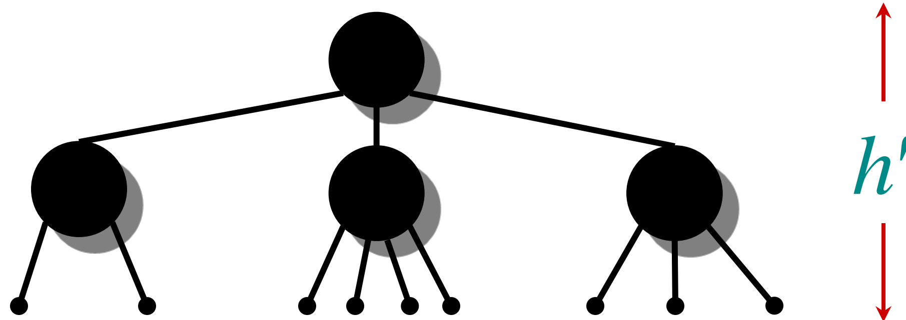
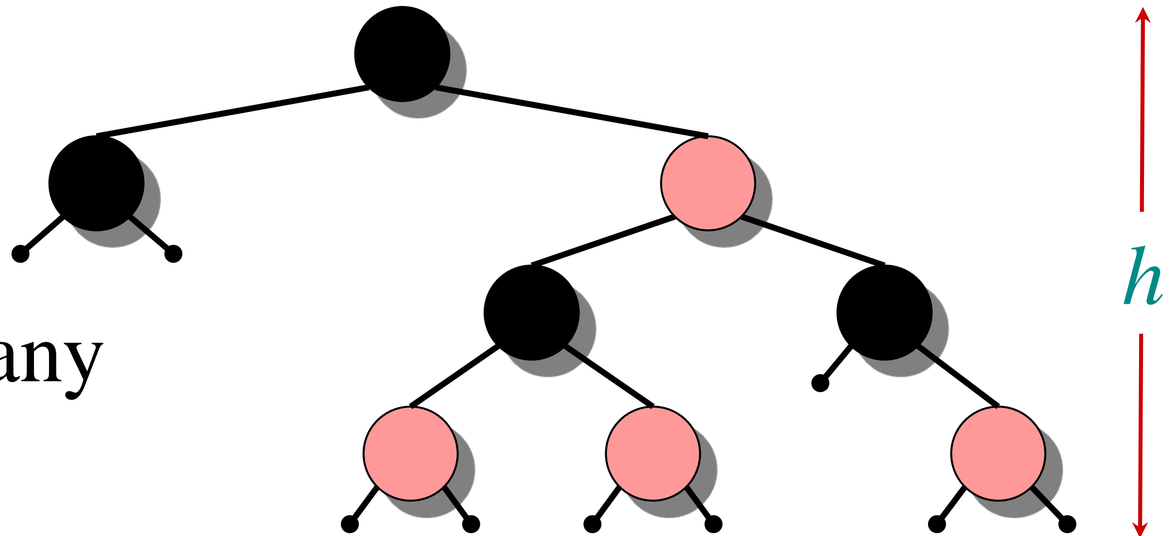
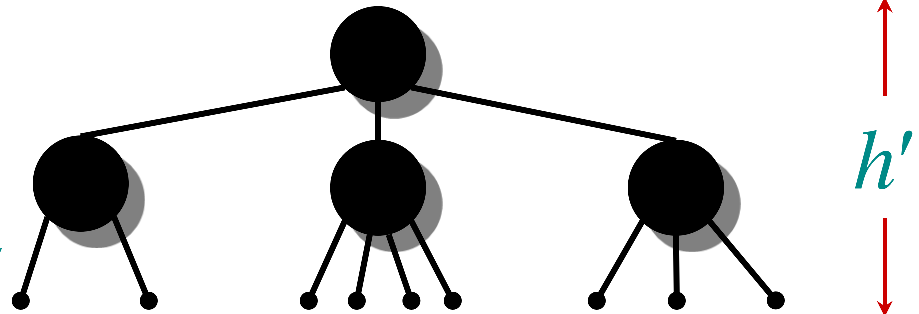


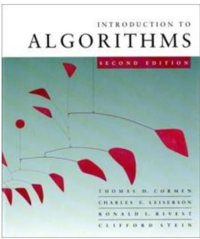
- Merge red nodes into their black parents.
- This process produces a tree in which each node has 2, 3, or 4 children.
- The 2-3-4 tree has uniform depth h' of leaves.

Proof (continued)

- We have $h' \geq h/2$, since at most half the vertices on any path are red.
- The number of leaves in each tree is $n + 1$
  $\Rightarrow n + 1 \geq 2^{h'}$
  $\Rightarrow \log(n + 1) \geq h' \geq h/2$
  $\Rightarrow h \leq 2 \log(n + 1)$. ◻

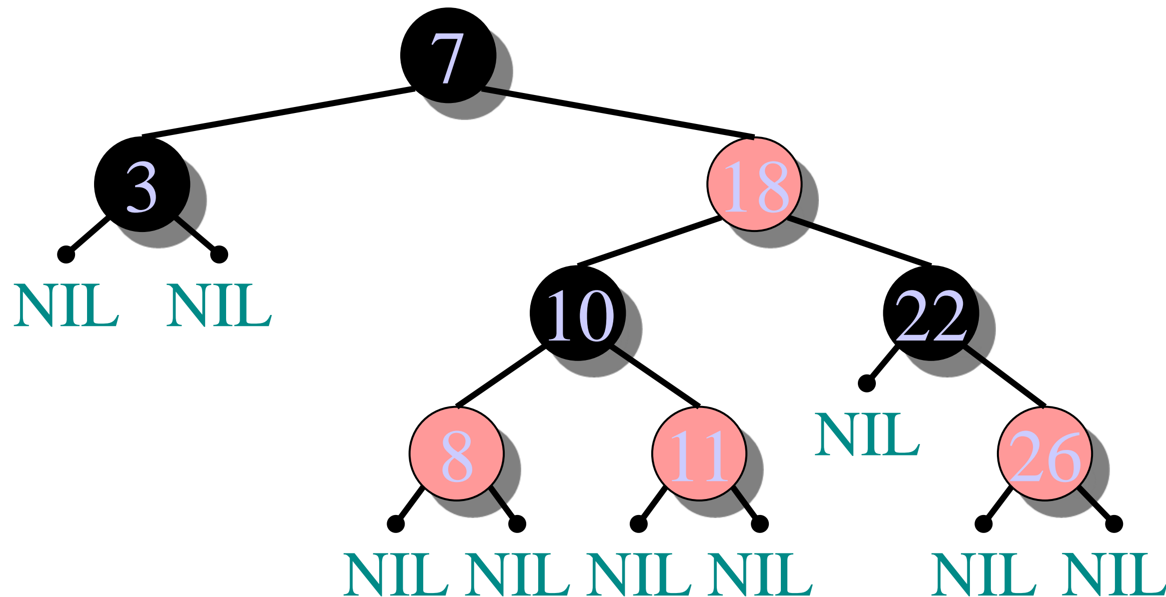


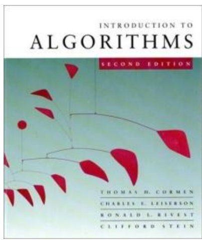




Query operations

Corollary. The queries SEARCH, MIN, MAX, SUCCESSOR, and PREDECESSOR all run in $O(\log n)$ time on a red-black tree with n nodes.



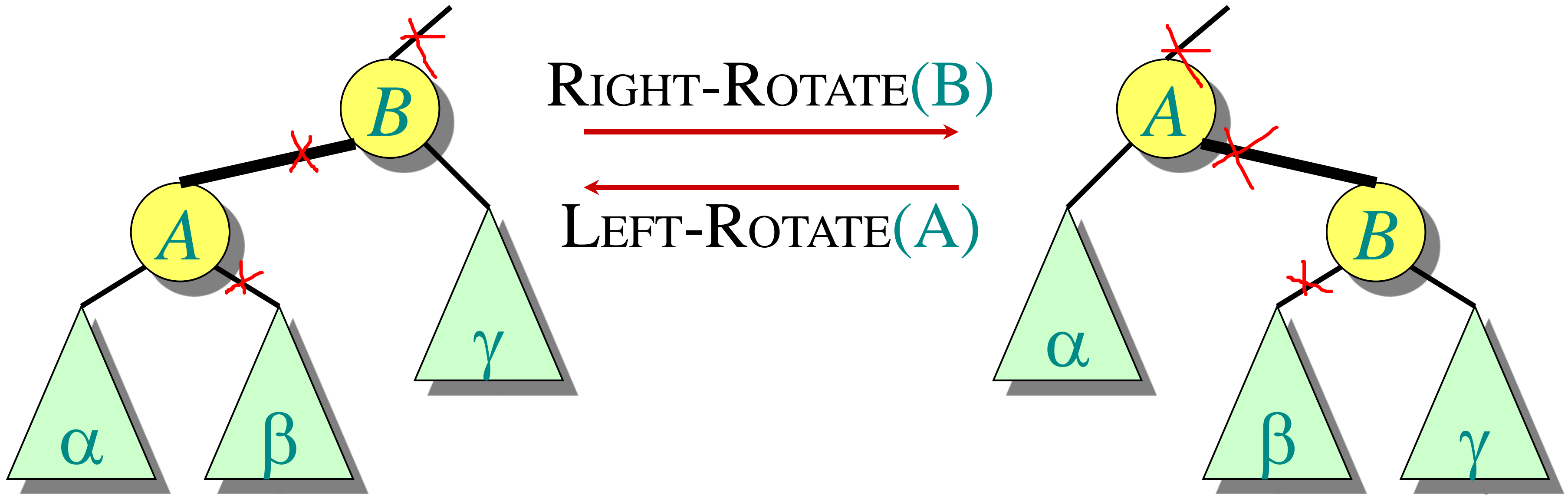


Modifying operations

The operations INSERT and DELETE cause modifications to the red-black tree:

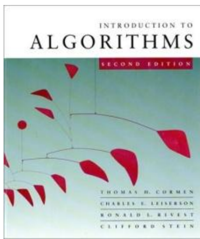
1. the operation itself,
2. color changes,
3. restructuring the links of the tree via ***"rotations"***.

Rotations



- Rotations maintain the inorder ordering of keys:

  $a \in \alpha, b \in \beta, c \in \gamma \Rightarrow a \le A \le b \le B \le c.$
- Rotations maintain the binary search tree property
- A rotation can be performed in $O(1)$ time.



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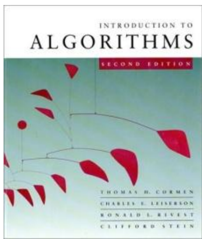
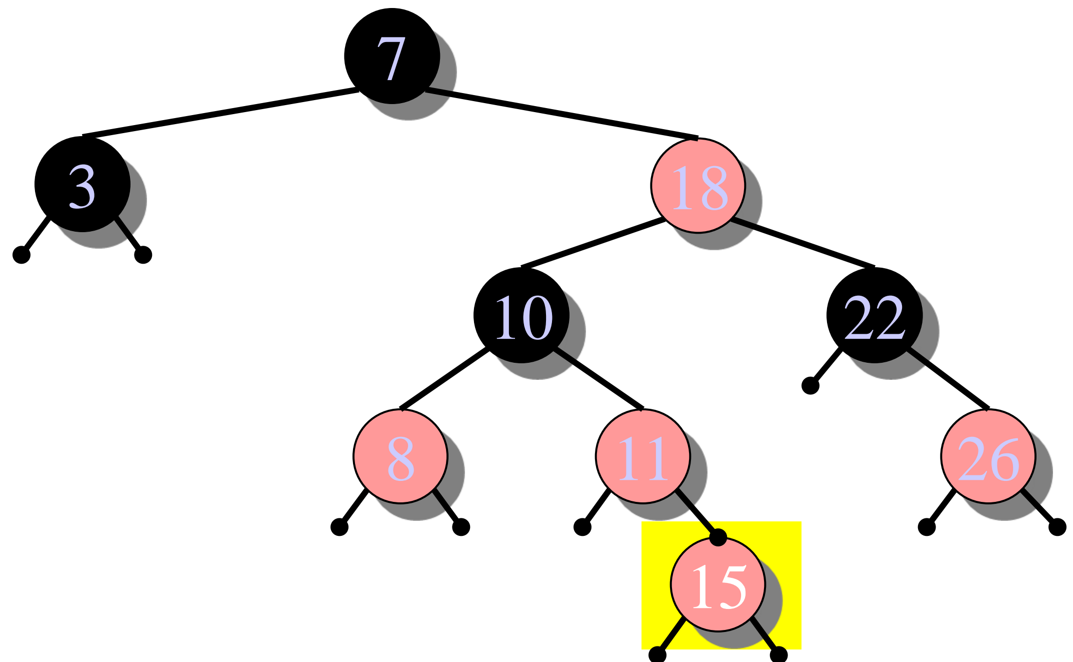


Insertion into a red-black tree

IDEA: Insert x in tree. Color x red. Only red-black property 4 might be violated. Move the violation up the tree by recoloring until it can be fixed with rotations and recoloring.

Example:

- Insert $x = 15$.



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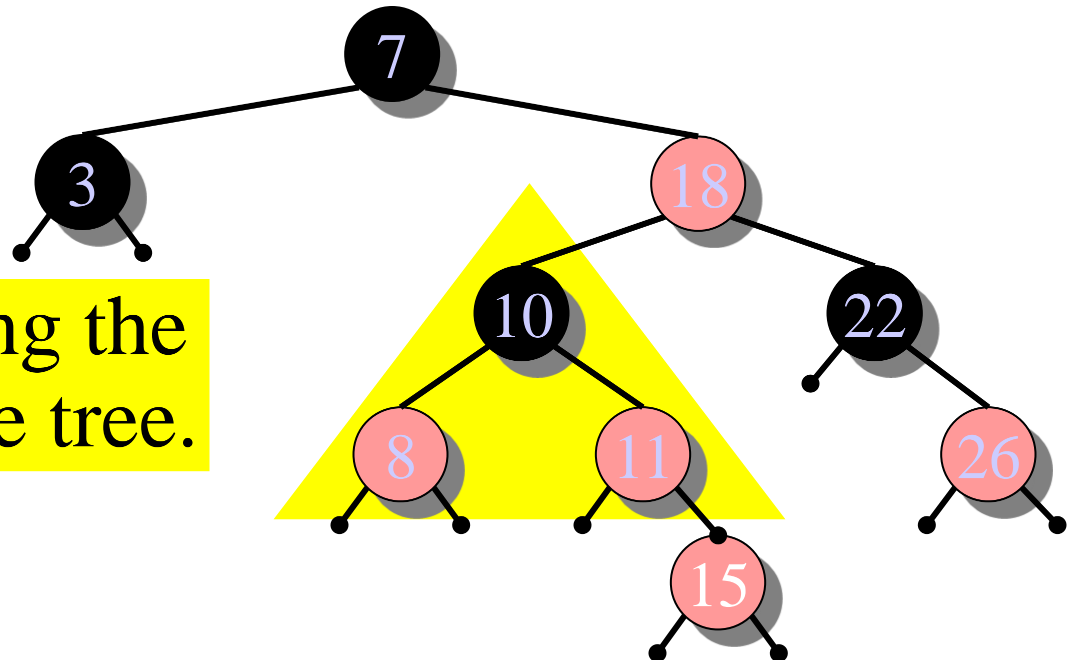

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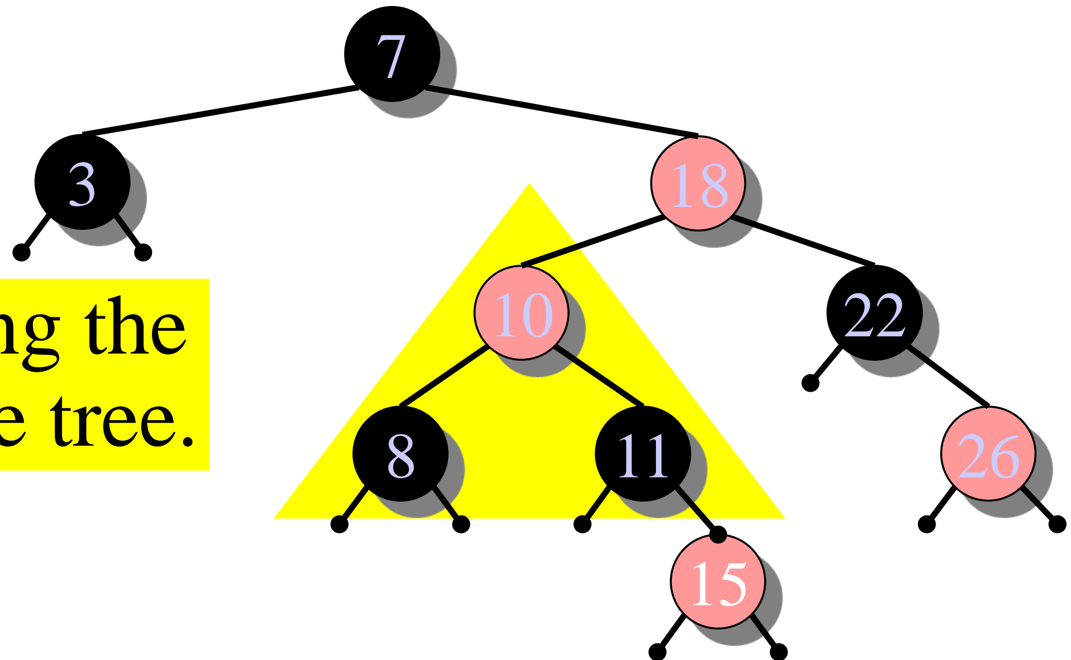

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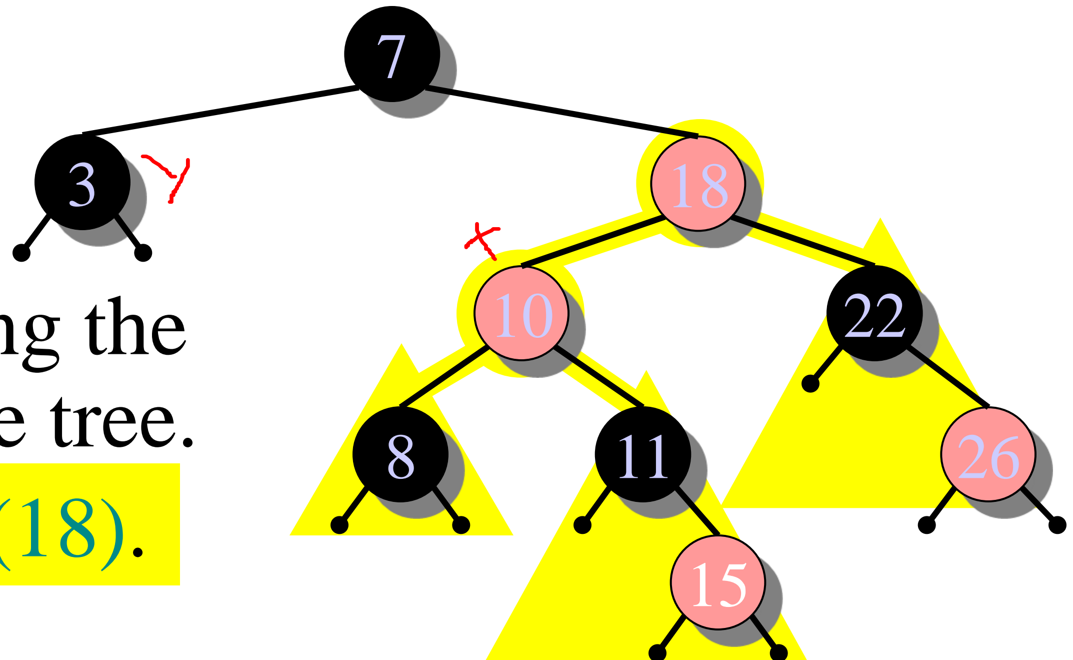
- RIGHT-ROTATE(18).



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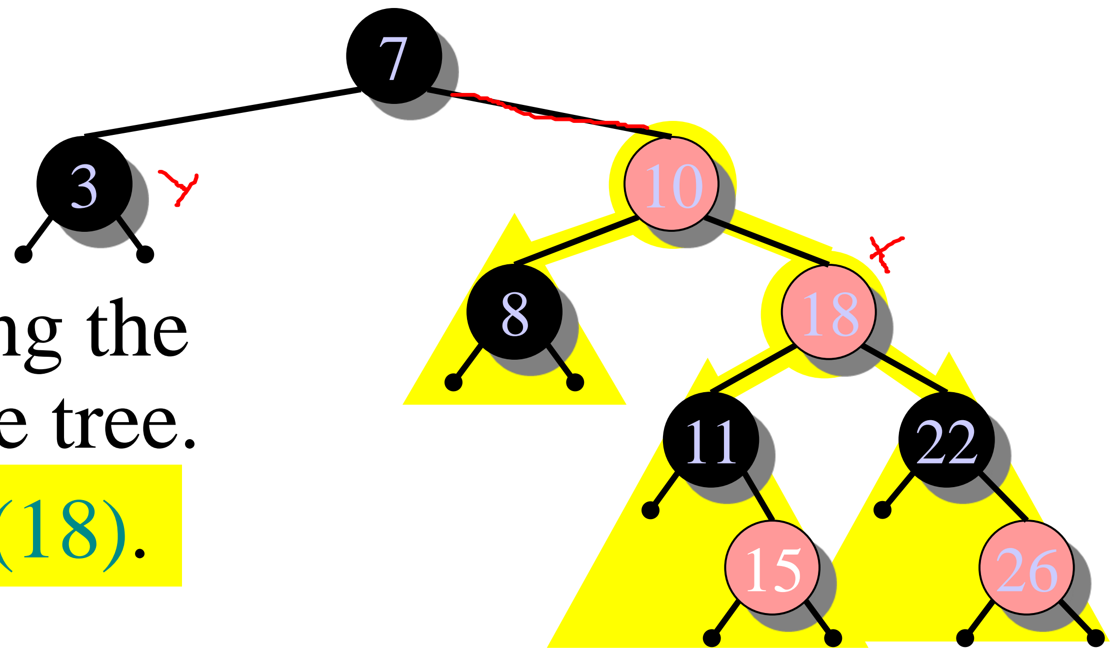

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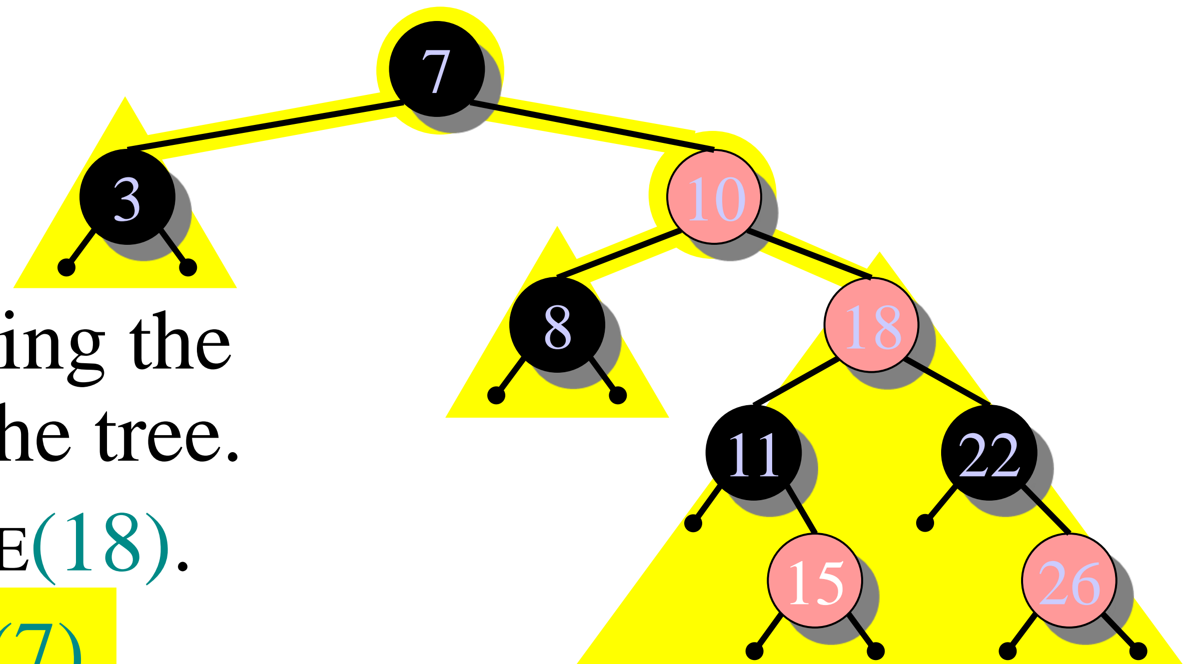
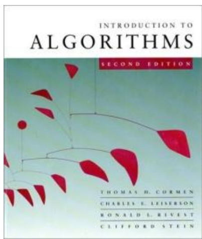
- LEFT-ROTATE(7)





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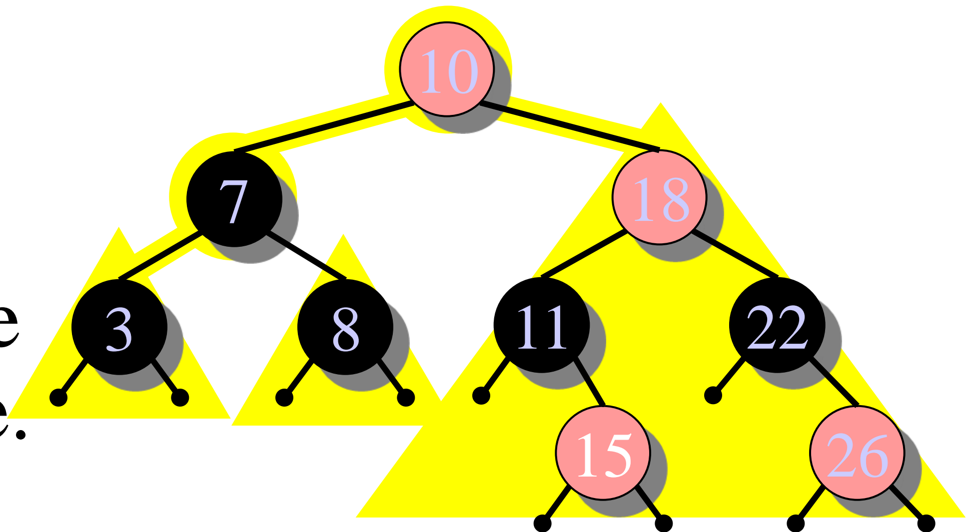

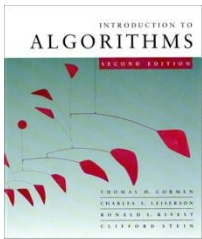

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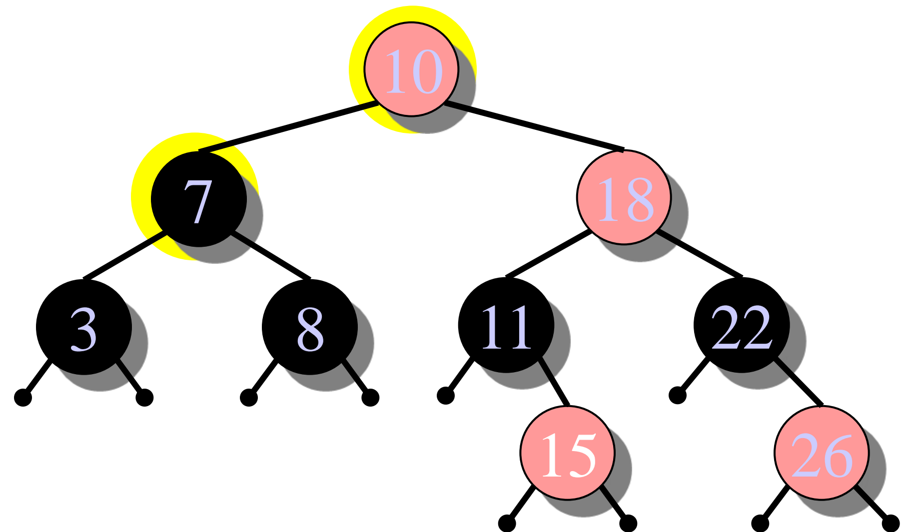
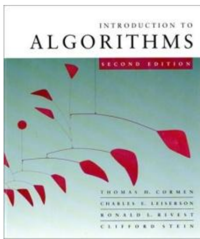
- LEFT-ROTATE(7) and recolor.





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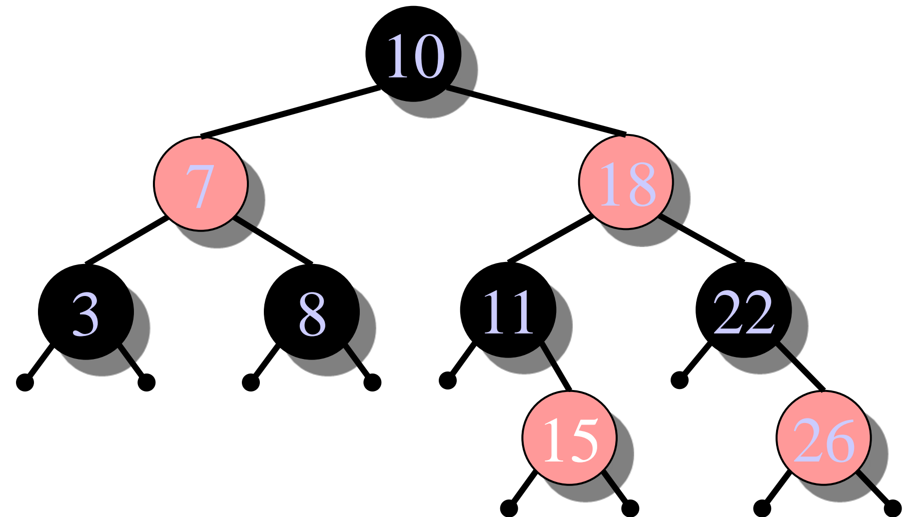
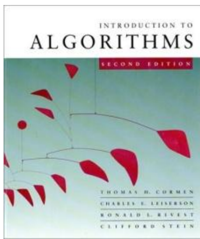
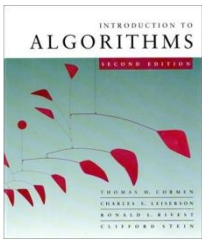




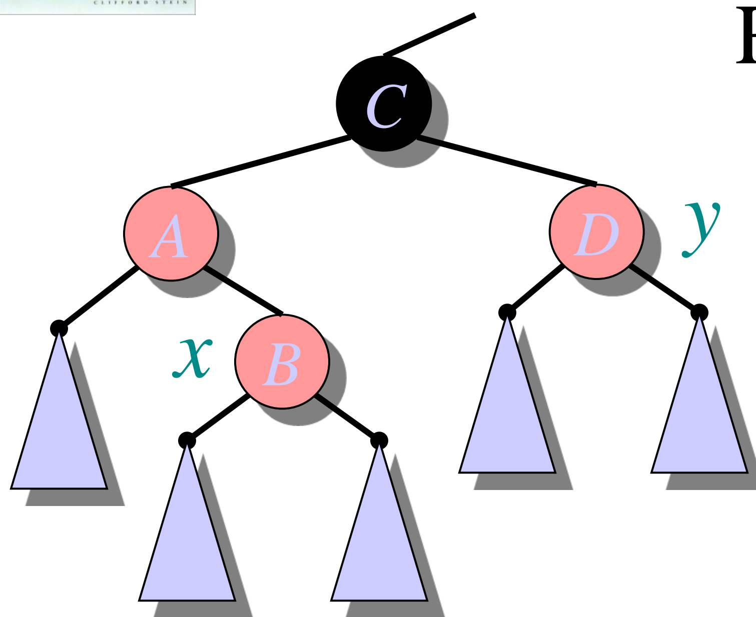
Pseudocode

```
RB-INSERT(T, x)
    TREE-INSERT(T, x)
    color[x] ← RED        ⊳ only RB property 4 can be violated
    while x ≠ root[T] and color[p[x]] = RED
        do if p[x] = left[p[p[x]]]
            then y ← right[p[p[x]]]         ⊳ y = aunt/uncle of x
                 if color[y] = RED
                  then ⟨Case 1⟩
                  else  if x = right[p[x]]
                          then ⟨Case 2⟩     ⊳ Case 2 falls into Case 3
                        ⟨Case 3⟩
            else ⟨"then" clause with "left" and "right" swapped⟩
    color[root[T]] ← BLACK
```

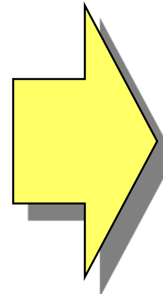


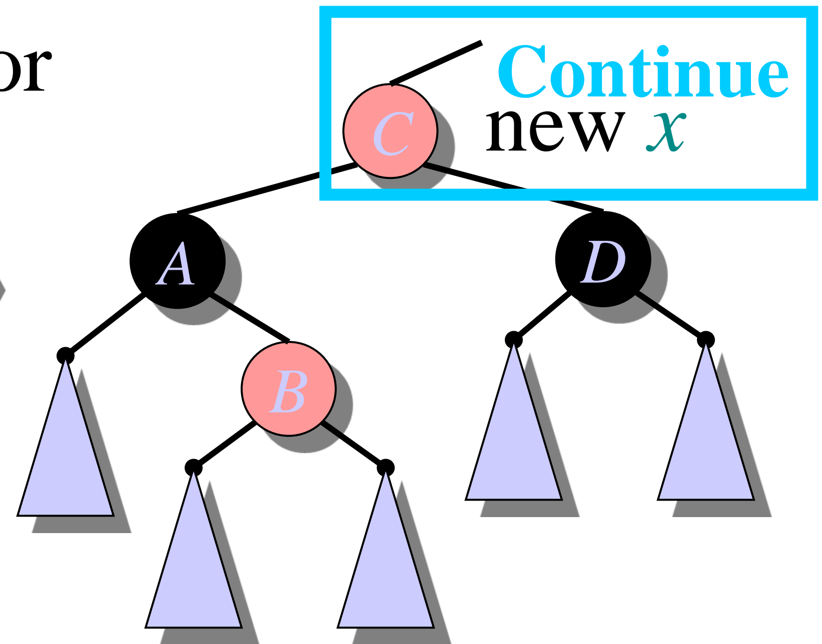
Graphical notation

Case 1



Recolor





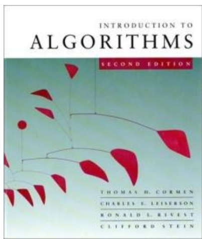
(Or, A's children are swapped.)

$p[x] = left[p[p[x]]$

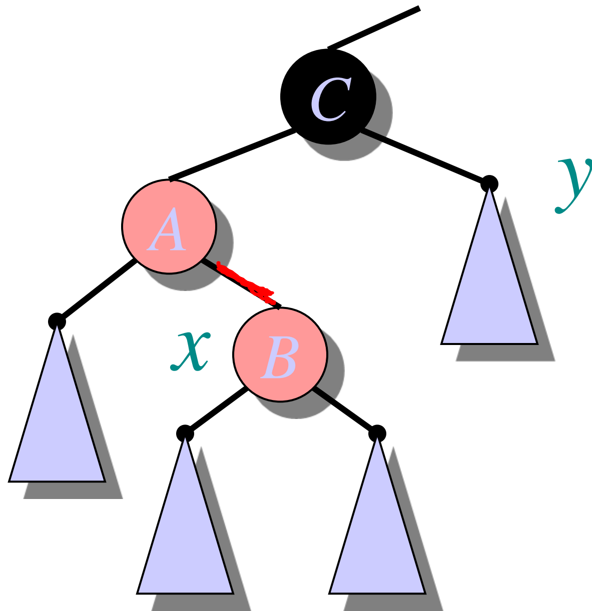
$y \leftarrow right[p[p[x]]$

$color[y] = \text{RED}$

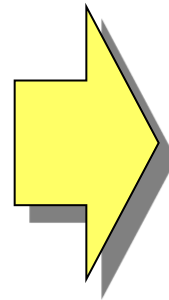
Push C's black onto A and D, and recurse, since C's parent may be red.

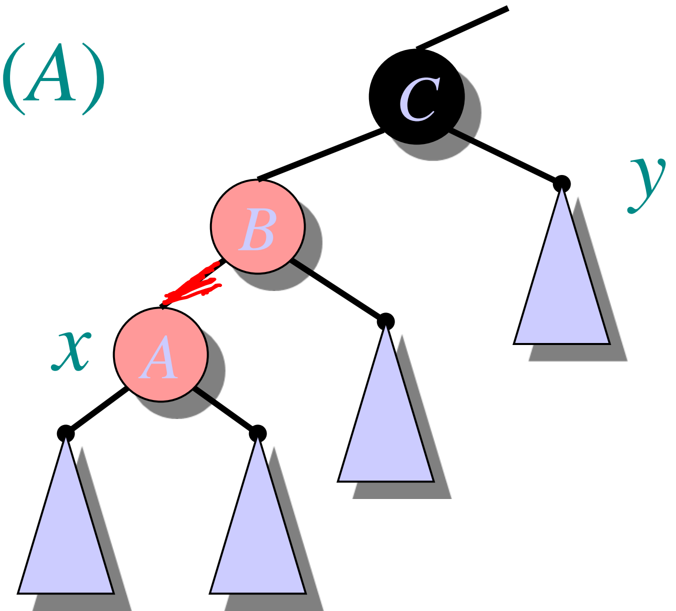


Case 2



LEFT-ROTATE(A)





$p[x] = left[p[p[x]]$

$y \leftarrow right[p[p[x]]$

$color[y]$ = BLACK

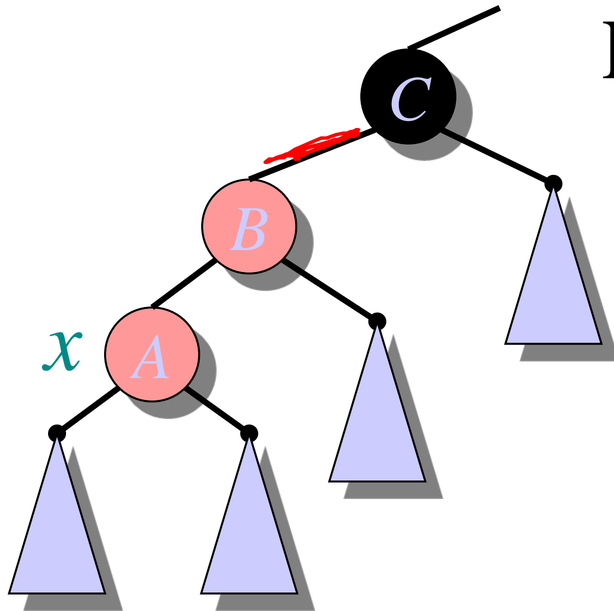
$x = right[p[x]]$

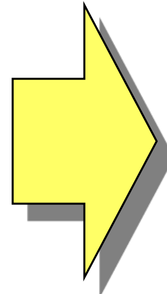
Transform to Case 3.

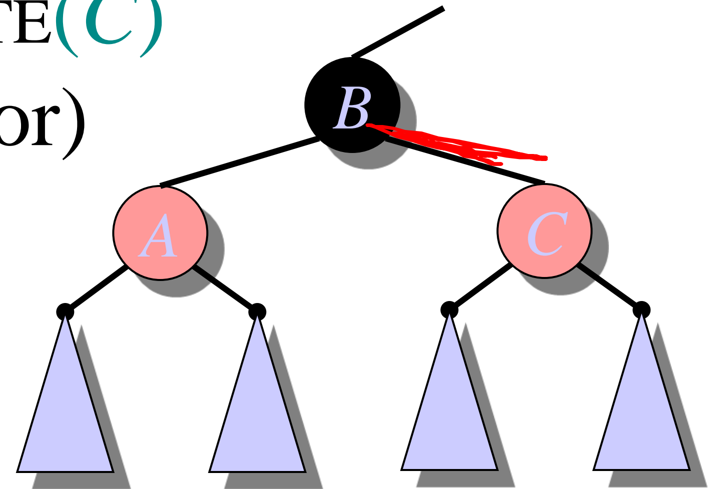
Case 3

RIGHT-ROTATE(C)

y (and recolor)







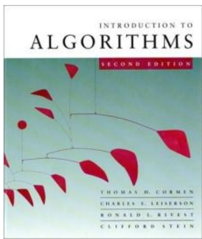
$p[x] = left[p[p[x]]$

$y \leftarrow right[p[p[x]]$

$color[y] =$ BLACK

$x = left[p[x]]$

Done! No more violations of RB property 4 are possible.

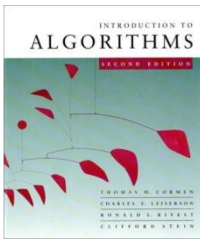


Analysis

- Go up the tree performing Case 1, which only recolors nodes.
- If Case 2 or Case 3 occurs, perform 1 or 2 rotations, and terminate.

Running time: $O(\log n)$ with $O(1)$ rotations.

RB-DELETE — same asymptotic running time and number of rotations as RB-INSERT (see textbook).



Pseudocode (part II)

else ⟨**"then"** clause with "*left*" and "*right*" swapped⟩

▷ $p[x] = right[p[p[x]]$

then $y \leftarrow left[p[p[x]]$ ▷ y = aunt/uncle of x

if $color[y]$ = RED

then ⟨**Case 1'**⟩

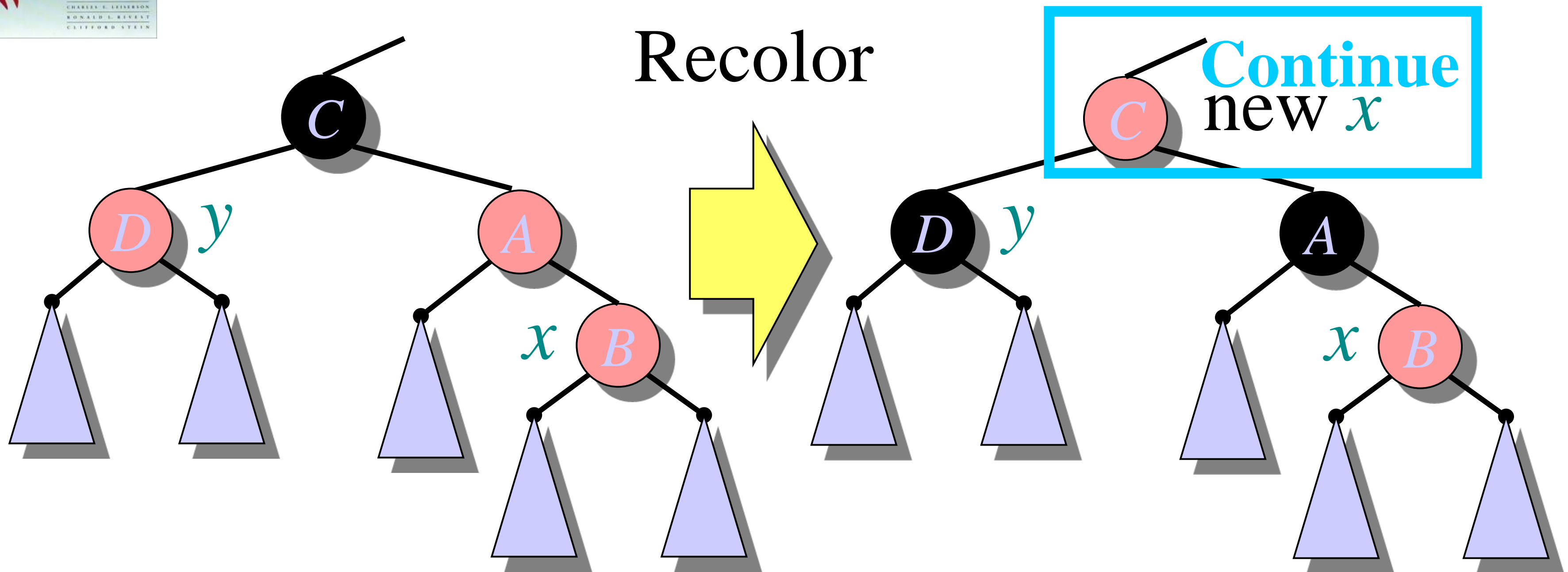
else if $x = left[p[x]]$

then ⟨**Case 2'**⟩ ▷ Case 2' falls into Case 3'

⟨**Case 3'**⟩

$color[root[T]] \leftarrow$ BLACK

Case 1'



(Or, *A*'s children are swapped.)

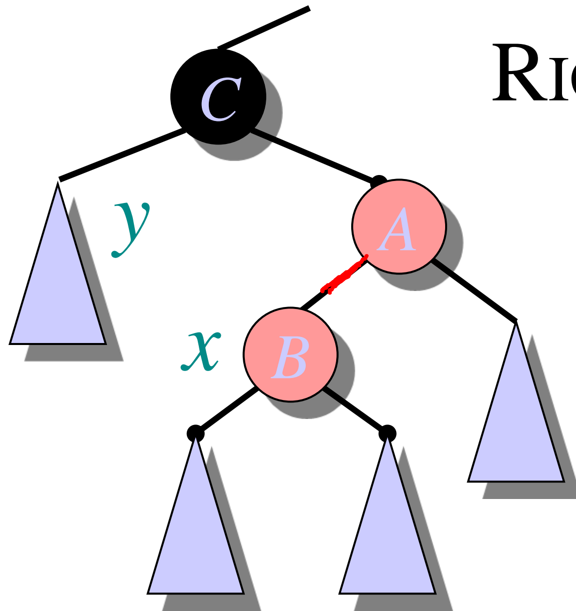
$p[x] = right[p[p[x]]$

$y \leftarrow left[p[p[x]]$

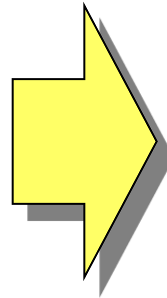
$color[y] = \text{RED}$

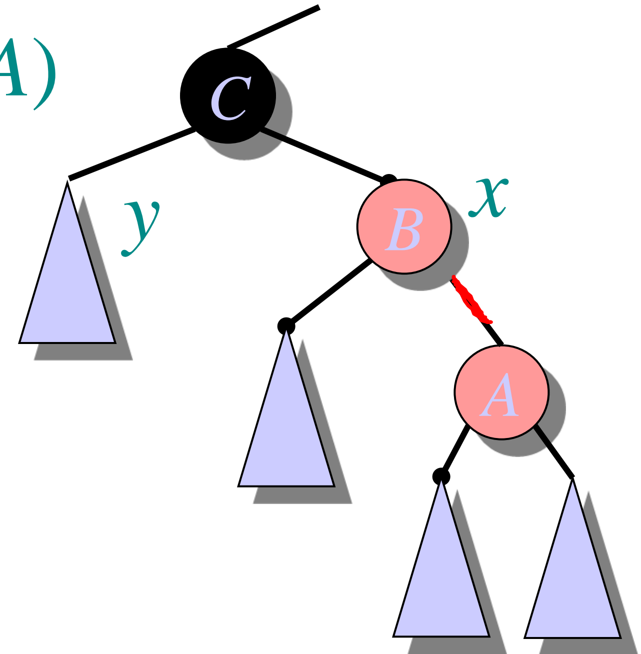
Push *C*'s black onto *A* and *D*, and recurse, since *C*'s parent may be red.

Case 2’



RIGHT-ROTATE(A)





$p[x] = right[p[p[x]]$

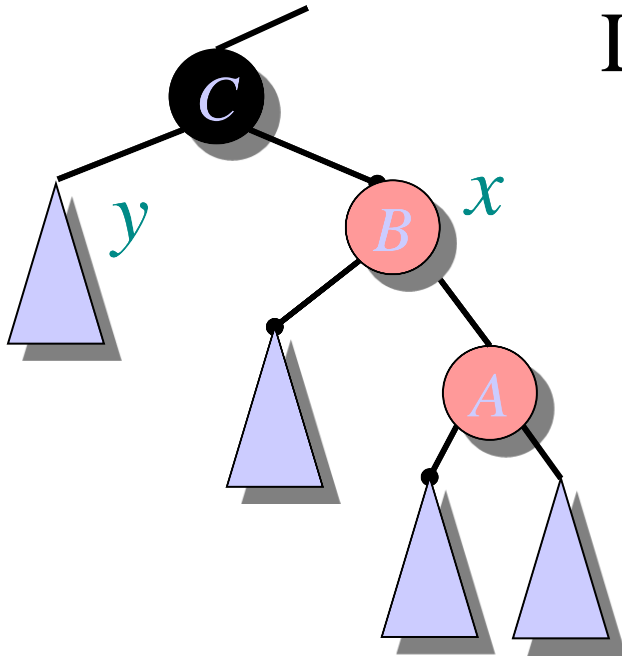
$y \leftarrow left[p[p[x]]$

$color[y] = \text{BLACK}$

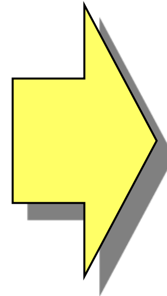
$x = left[p[x]]$

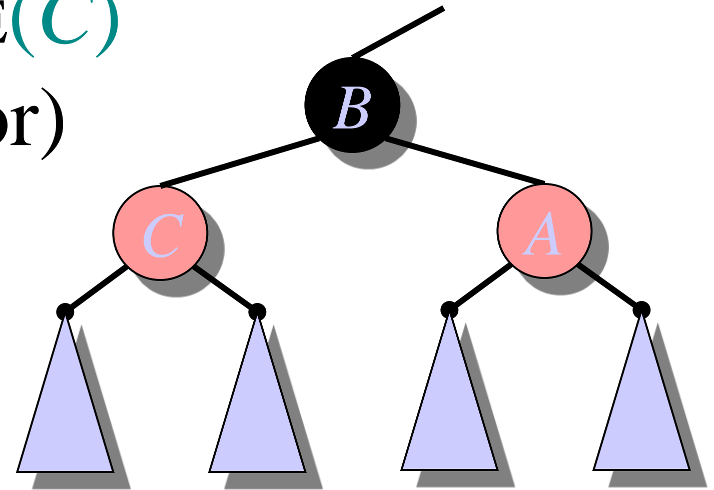
Transform to Case 3’.

Case 3'



LEFT-ROTATE(C)
(and recolor)





$p[x] = right[p[p[x]]$

$y \leftarrow left[p[p[x]]$

$color[y] = \text{BLACK}$

$x = right[p[x]]$

Done! No more violations of RB property 4 are possible.