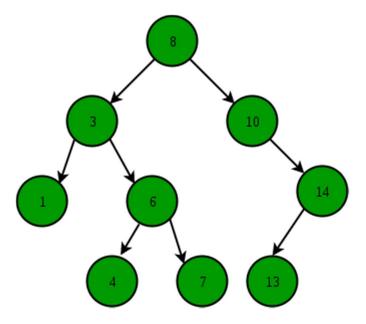
Data Structure - Binary Search Tree

Binary Search Tree

Binary Search Tree is a node-based binary tree data structure which has the following properties:

- The left subtree of a node contains only nodes with keys lesser than the node's key.
- The right subtree of a node contains only nodes with keys greater than the node's key.
- The left and right subtree each must also be a binary search tree.



A Binary Search Tree (BST) is a tree in which all the nodes follow the belowmentioned properties –

- The value of the key of the left sub-tree is less than the value of its parent (root) node's key.
- The value of the key of the right sub-tree is greater than or equal to the value of its parent (root) node's key.

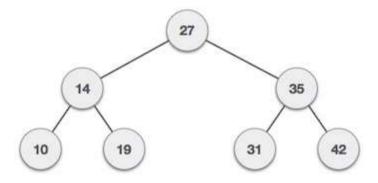
Thus, BST divides all its sub-trees into two segments; the left sub-tree and the right sub-tree and can be defined as -

left_subtree (keys) < node (key) ≤ right_subtree (keys)

Representation

- BST is a collection of nodes arranged in a way where they maintain BST properties. Each node has a key and an associated value.
- While searching, the desired key is compared to the keys in BST and if found, the associated value is retrieved.

Following is a pictorial representation of BST -



We observe that the root node key (27) has all less-valued keys on the left sub-tree and the higher valued keys on the right sub-tree.

Basic Operations

Following are the basic operations of a tree -

- **Search** Searches an element in a tree.
- **Insert** Inserts an element in a tree.
- Pre-order Traversal Traverses a tree in a pre-order manner.
- In-order Traversal Traverses a tree in an in-order manner.
- Post-order Traversal Traverses a tree in a post-order manner.

Node

Define a node having some data, references to its left and right child nodes.

```
struct node {
  int data;
  struct node *leftChild;
  struct node *rightChild;
```

};

Search Operation

- Whenever an element is to be searched, start searching from the root node.
- Then if the data is less than the key value, search for the element in the left subtree.
- Otherwise, search for the element in the right subtree.
- Follow the same algorithm for each node.

Algorithm

```
struct node* search(int data){
  struct node *current = root;
  printf("Visiting elements: ");
 while(current->data != data){
    if(current != NULL) {
      printf("%d ",current->data);
      //go to left tree
      if(current->data > data){
        current = current->leftChild;
      } //else go to right tree
      else {
        current = current->rightChild;
      }
      //not found
      if(current == NULL){
        return NULL;
   }
  return current;
```

Insert Operation

- Whenever an element is to be inserted, first locate its proper location.
- Start searching from the root node, then if the data is less than the key value, search for the empty location in the left subtree and insert the data.
- Otherwise, search for the empty location in the right subtree and insert the data.

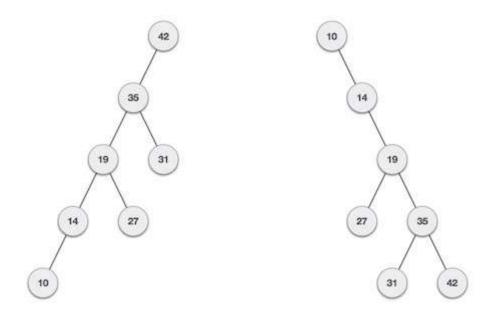
Algorithm

```
void insert(int data) {
  struct node *tempNode = (struct node*) malloc(sizeof(struct node));
  struct node *current;
 struct node *parent;
 tempNode->data = data;
 tempNode->leftChild = NULL;
 tempNode->rightChild = NULL;
 //if tree is empty
 if(root == NULL) {
   root = tempNode;
 } else {
   current = root;
   parent = NULL;
   while(1) {
     parent = current;
     //go to left of the tree
     if(data < parent->data) {
       current = current->leftChild;
       //insert to the left
       if(current == NULL) {
         parent->leftChild = tempNode;
         return;
     } //go to right of the tree
```

```
else {
    current = current->rightChild;

    //insert to the right
    if(current == NULL) {
        parent->rightChild = tempNode;
        return;
    }
    }
}
```

What if the input to binary search tree comes in a sorted (ascending or descending) manner? It will then look like this –



If input 'appears' non-increasing manner

If input 'appears' in non-decreasing manner

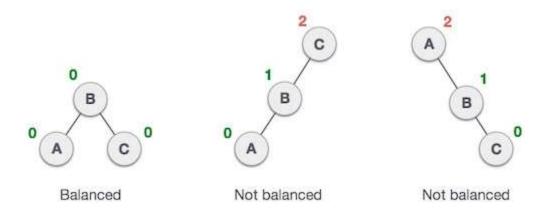
• It is observed that BST's worst-case performance is closest to linear search algorithms, that is O(n).

In real-time data, we cannot predict data pattern and their frequencies.
 So, a need arises to balance out the existing BST.

AVL TREE

- Named after their inventor Adelson, Velski & Landis, AVL trees are height balancing binary search tree.
- AVL tree checks the height of the left and the right sub-trees and assures that the difference is not more than 1.
- This difference is called the Balance Factor.

Here we see that the first tree is balanced and the next two trees are not balanced –



In the second tree, the left subtree of **C** has height 2 and the right subtree has height 0, so the difference is 2. In the third tree, the right subtree of **A** has height 2 and the left is missing, so it is 0, and the difference is 2 again. AVL tree permits difference (balance factor) to be only 1.

BalanceFactor = height(left-sutree) - height(right-sutree)

If the difference in the height of left and right sub-trees is more than 1, the tree is balanced using some rotation techniques.

AVL Rotations

To balance itself, an AVL tree may perform the following four kinds of rotations –

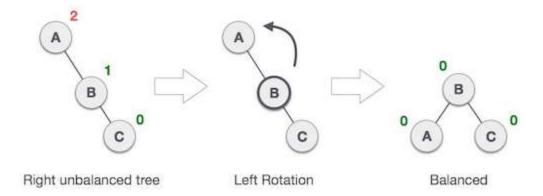
- Left rotation
- Right rotation

- Left-Right rotation
- Right-Left rotation

The first two rotations are single rotations and the next two rotations are double rotations. To have an unbalanced tree, we at least need a tree of height 2. With this simple tree, let's understand them one by one.

Left Rotation

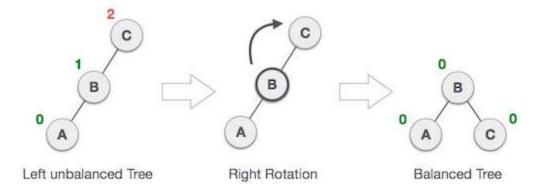
If a tree becomes unbalanced, when a node is inserted into the right subtree of the right subtree, then we perform a single left rotation –



In our example, node **A** has become unbalanced as a node is inserted in the right subtree of A's right subtree. We perform the left rotation by making **A** the left-subtree of B.

Right Rotation

AVL tree may become unbalanced, if a node is inserted in the left subtree of the left subtree. The tree then needs a right rotation.

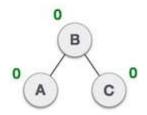


As depicted, the unbalanced node becomes the right child of its left child by performing a right rotation.

Left-Right Rotation

Double rotations are slightly complex version of already explained versions of rotations. To understand them better, we should take note of each action performed while rotation. Let's first check how to perform Left-Right rotation. A left-right rotation is a combination of left rotation followed by right rotation.

State Action A node has been inserted into the right subtree of the left subtree. This makes C an unbalanced node. These scenarios cause AVL tree to perform left-right rotation. We first perform the left rotation on the left subtree of C. This makes A, the left subtree of B. Node C is still unbalanced, however now, it is because of the left-subtree of the left-subtree. We shall now right-rotate the tree, making **B** the new root node of this subtree. C now becomes the right subtree of its own left subtree.



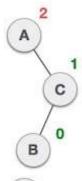
The tree is now balanced.

Right-Left Rotation

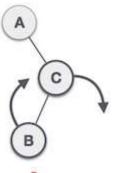
The second type of double rotation is Right-Left Rotation. It is a combination of right rotation followed by left rotation.

State

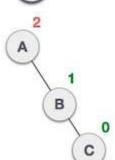
Action



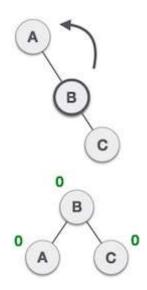
A node has been inserted into the left subtree of the right subtree. This makes **A**, an unbalanced node with balance factor 2.



First, we perform the right rotation along **C** node, making **C** the right subtree of its own left subtree **B**. Now, **B** becomes the right subtree of **A**.



Node **A** is still unbalanced because of the right subtree of its right subtree and requires a left rotation.

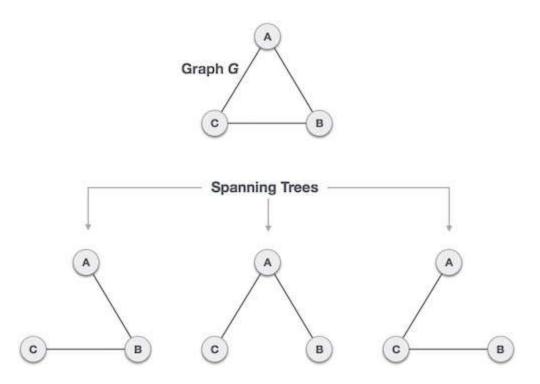


A left rotation is performed by making **B** the new root node of the subtree. **A** becomes the left subtree of its right subtree **B**.

The tree is now balanced.

Spanning TREE

- A spanning tree is a subset of Graph G, which has all the vertices covered with minimum possible number of edges.
- Hence, a spanning tree does not have cycles and it cannot be disconnected..
- By this definition, we can draw a conclusion that every connected and undirected Graph G has at least one spanning tree.
- A disconnected graph does not have any spanning tree, as it cannot be spanned to all its vertices.



- We found three spanning trees off one complete graph.
- A complete undirected graph can have maximum **n**ⁿ⁻² number of spanning trees, where **n** is the number of nodes.
- In the above addressed example, **n is 3**, hence $3^{3-2} = 3$ spanning trees are possible.

General Properties of Spanning Tree

We now understand that one graph can have more than one spanning tree.

Following are a few properties of the spanning tree connected to graph G –

- A connected graph G can have more than one spanning tree.
- All possible spanning trees of graph G, have the same number of edges and vertices.
- The spanning tree does not have any cycle (loops).
- Removing one edge from the spanning tree will make the graph disconnected, i.e. the spanning tree is **minimally connected**.
- Adding one edge to the spanning tree will create a circuit or loop, i.e. the spanning tree is **maximally acyclic**.

Mathematical Properties of Spanning Tree

- Spanning tree has **n-1** edges, where **n** is the number of nodes (vertices).
- From a complete graph, by removing maximum **e n** + **1** edges, we can construct a spanning tree.
- A complete graph can have maximum nⁿ⁻² number of spanning trees.

Thus, we can conclude that spanning trees are a subset of connected Graph G and disconnected graphs do not have spanning tree.

Application of Spanning Tree

Spanning tree is basically used to find a minimum path to connect all nodes in a graph. Common application of spanning trees are –

- Civil Network Planning
- Computer Network Routing Protocol
- Cluster Analysis

Let us understand this through a small example. Consider, city network as a huge graph and now plans to deploy telephone lines in such a way that in minimum lines we can connect to all city nodes. This is where the spanning tree comes into picture.

Minimum Spanning Tree (MST)

In a weighted graph, a minimum spanning tree is a spanning tree that has minimum weight than all other spanning trees of the same graph. In real-world situations, this weight can be measured as distance, congestion, traffic load or any arbitrary value denoted to the edges.

Minimum Spanning-Tree Algorithm

We shall learn about two most important spanning tree algorithms here -

- Kruskal's Algorithm
- Prim's Algorithm

Both are greedy algorithms.

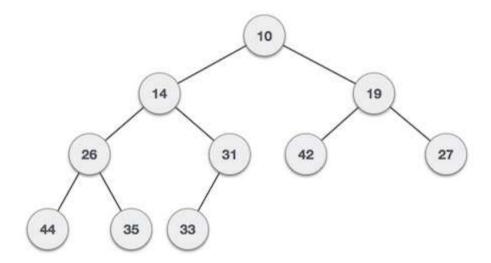
Heap is a special case of balanced binary tree data structure where the root-node key is compared with its children and arranged accordingly. If α has child node β then –

$key(\alpha) \ge key(\beta)$

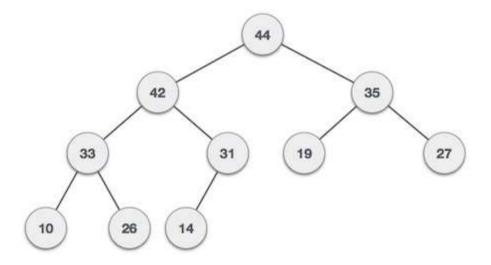
As the value of parent is greater than that of child, this property generates **Max Heap**. Based on this criteria, a heap can be of two types –

For Input → 35 33 42 10 14 19 27 44 26 31

Min-Heap – Where the value of the root node is less than or equal to either of its children.



Max-Heap – Where the value of the root node is greater than or equal to either of its children.



Both trees are constructed using the same input and order of arrival.

Max Heap Construction Algorithm

We shall use the same example to demonstrate how a Max Heap is created. The procedure to create Min Heap is similar but we go for min values instead of max values.

We are going to derive an algorithm for max heap by inserting one element at a time. At any point of time, heap must maintain its property. While insertion, we also assume that we are inserting a node in an already heapified tree.

- **Step 1** Create a new node at the end of heap.
- **Step 2** Assign new value to the node.
- **Step 3** Compare the value of this child node with its parent.
- **Step 4** If value of parent is less than child, then swap them.
- **Step 5** Repeat step 3 & 4 until Heap property holds.

Note – In Min Heap construction algorithm, we expect the value of the parent node to be less than that of the child node.

Let's understand Max Heap construction by an animated illustration. We consider the same input sample that we used earlier.

Input 35 33 42 10 14 19 27 44 26 31

Let us derive an algorithm to delete from max heap. Deletion in Max (or Min) Heap always happens at the root to remove the Maximum (or minimum) value.

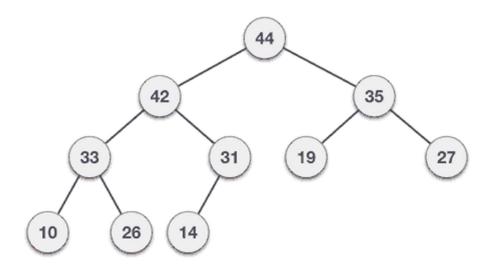
Step 1 – Remove root node.

Step 2 – Move the last element of last level to root.

Step 3 – Compare the value of this child node with its parent.

Step 4 – If value of parent is less than child, then swap them.

Step 5 – Repeat step 3 & 4 until Heap property holds.



Some computer programming languages allow a module or function to call itself. This technique is known as recursion. In recursion, a function α either calls itself directly or calls a function β that in turn calls the original function α . The function α is called recursive function.

Example – a function calling itself.

```
int function(int value) {
  if(value < 1)
    return;
  function(value - 1);
  printf("%d ",value);
}</pre>
```

Example – a function that calls another function which in turn calls it again.

```
int function1(int value1) {
   if(value1 < 1)
      return;
   function2(value1 - 1);
   printf("%d ",value1);
}
int function2(int value2) {
   function1(value2);
}</pre>
```

Properties

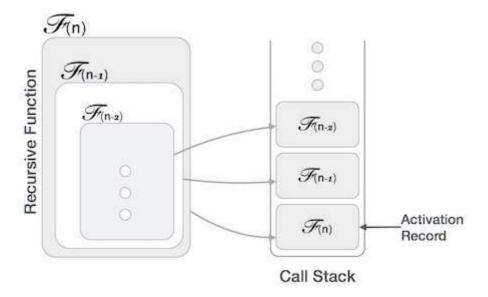
A recursive function can go infinite like a loop. To avoid infinite running of recursive function, there are two properties that a recursive function must have –

- Base criteria There must be at least one base criteria or condition, such that, when this condition is met the function stops calling itself recursively.
- **Progressive approach** The recursive calls should progress in such a way that each time a recursive call is made it comes closer to the base criteria.

Implementation

Many programming languages implement recursion by means of **stacks**. Generally, whenever a function (**caller**) calls another function (**callee**) or itself as callee, the caller function transfers execution control to the callee. This transfer process may also involve some data to be passed from the caller to the callee.

This implies, the caller function has to suspend its execution temporarily and resume later when the execution control returns from the callee function. Here, the caller function needs to start exactly from the point of execution where it puts itself on hold. It also needs the exact same data values it was working on. For this purpose, an activation record (or stack frame) is created for the caller function.



This activation record keeps the information about local variables, formal parameters, return address and all information passed to the caller function.

Analysis of Recursion

One may argue why to use recursion, as the same task can be done with iteration. The first reason is, recursion makes a program more readable and because of latest enhanced CPU systems, recursion is more efficient than iterations.

Time Complexity

In case of iterations, we take number of iterations to count the time complexity. Likewise, in case of recursion, assuming everything is constant, we try to figure out the number of times a recursive call is being made. A call made to a function is O(1), hence the (n) number of times a recursive call is made makes the recursive function O(n).

Space Complexity

Space complexity is counted as what amount of extra space is required for a module to execute. In case of iterations, the compiler hardly requires any extra space. The compiler keeps updating the values of variables used in the iterations. But in case of recursion, the system needs to store activation record each time a recursive call is made. Hence, it is considered that space complexity of recursive function may go higher than that of a function with iteration.