

# Lecture 8: Advanced Binary Trees

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Bo Tang @ SUSTech, Fall 2022

## Our Roadmap

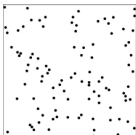
- ◆ Priority Queue (binary heap)
  - ◆ Min-heap insert / delete-min
- ◆ Binary Heaps in Dynamic Arrays
  - ◆  $O(n)$  time to build min-heap
- ◆ Binary Search Tree (BST)
  - ◆ BST operators
  - ◆ Balanced BST (AVL-tree)

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## Priority Queue

- ◆ A priority queue stores a set  $S$  of  $n$  integers and supports the following operations:
  - ◆ *Insert( $e$ )*: adds a new integer to  $S$
  - ◆ *Delete-min*: removes the smallest integer in  $S$ , and returns it.
- ◆ Priority Queue applications:
  - ◆ Artificial intelligence (A\* algorithm)
  - ◆ Operating systems (load balancing)
  - ◆ Graph searching (Shortest path algorithms)

8	4	7
1	5	6
3	2	



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## Priority Queue Example

- ◆ Suppose that the following integers are inserted into an initially empty priority queue
  - ◆  $S = \{93, 39, 1, 26, 8, 23, 79, 54\}$
  - ◆ Perform *Delete-min*, the operation returns 1, and  $S = \{93, 39, 26, 8, 23, 79, 54\}$
  - ◆ Perform *Delete-min*, the operation returns 8, and  $S = \{93, 39, 26, 23, 79, 54\}$
  - ◆ Perform .....
- ◆ Unlike an ordinary queue (FIFO), a priority queue guarantees that the elements always leave in ascending order (or descending order with *Delete-max*), regardless of the order by which they are inserted.

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## Priority Queue Implementation

- ◆ We will implement a priority queue using a data structure called the “binary heap” to achieve the following guarantees:
  - ◆  $O(n)$  space consumption
  - ◆  $O(\log n)$  insertion time
  - ◆  $O(\log n)$  delete-min time
- ◆ The binary heap data structure is an array object that we can view as a complete binary tree.
  - ◆ Level 0 to  $h-1$  are full
  - ◆ Leaf nodes in level  $h$  are “as far left as possible”

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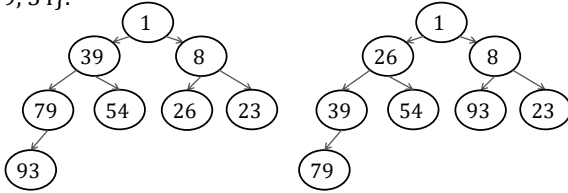
## Binary Heap

- ◆ Let  $S$  be a set of  $n$  integers. A binary heap on  $S$  is a binary tree  $T$  satisfying:
  - ◆ (1)  $T$  is complete
  - ◆ (2) Every node  $u$  in  $T$  corresponds to a distinct integer in  $S$ , the integer is called the key of  $u$  (and is stored at  $u$ )
  - ◆ (3) If  $u$  is an internal node, the key of  $u$  is smaller than those of its child nodes
- ◆ Note that:
  - ◆ Condition 2 implies that  $T$  has  $n$  nodes
  - ◆ Condition 3 implies that the key of  $u$  is the smallest in the subtree of  $u$

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## Binary Heap Example

- Two possible binary heaps on  $S = \{93, 39, 1, 26, 8, 23, 79, 54\}$ :



- The binary heaps of a set  $S$  is not unique.
- The smallest integer of  $S$  must be the key of the root.

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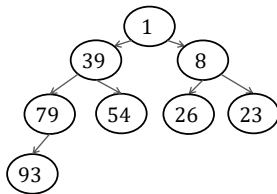
## Binary Heap Insertion

- We perform  $\text{insert}(e)$  on a binary heap  $T$  as follows:
  - Step 1: Create a leaf node  $z$  with key  $e$ , while ensuring that  $T$  is a complete binary tree, it means there is only one place where  $z$  could be added.
  - Step 2: Set  $u \leftarrow z$
  - Step 3: If  $u$  is the root, return.
  - Step 4: If the key of  $u >$  the key of its parent  $p$ , return
  - Step 5: Otherwise, swap the keys of  $u$  and  $p$ . Set  $u \leftarrow p$ , and repeat from Step 3.

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## Binary Heap Insertion

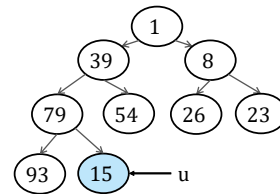
- Suppose we want to insert 15 into the binary heap below:



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## Binary Heap Insertion

- First add 15 as a new leaf, making sure that we still have a complete binary tree.

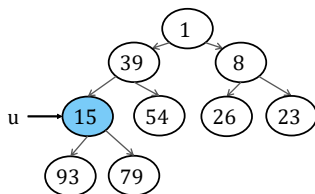


- Step 3 is not true, go to Step 4,
- Step 4 is not true, go to step 5.

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## Binary Heap Insertion

- First add 15 as a new leaf, making sure that we still have a complete binary tree.

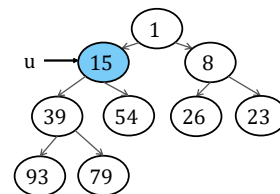


- Swap the keys of  $u$  and its parent  $p$
- Set  $u \leftarrow p$ , go back to Step 3)
- Step 3 and Step 4 are not true, go to Step 5.

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## Binary Heap Insertion

- First add 15 as a new leaf, making sure that we still have a complete binary tree.



- Swap the keys of  $u$  and  $p$
- Set  $u \leftarrow p$ , go back to Step 3)
- Step 3 is not true, Step 4 is true, return. Insertion complete,

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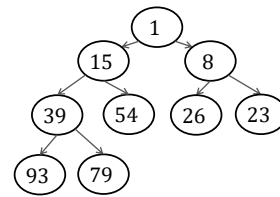
## Binary Heap Delete-min

- ◆ We perform delete-min on a binary heap  $T$  as follows:
  - ◆ Step 1: Report the key of the root
  - ◆ Step 2: Identify the rightmost leaf  $z$  at the bottom level of  $T$
  - ◆ Step 3: Delete  $z$ , and store the key of  $z$  at the root
  - ◆ Step 4: Set  $u \leftarrow$  the root
  - ◆ Step 5: If  $u$  is leaf, return
  - ◆ Step 6: If the key of  $u <$  the keys of the children of  $u$ , return
  - ◆ Step 7: Otherwise, let  $v$  be the child of  $u$  with a smaller key. Swap the keys of  $u$  and  $v$ . Set  $u \leftarrow v$ , and repeat from Step 5

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## Binary Heap Delete-min

- ◆ Assume that we perform a delete-min from the binary heap below:

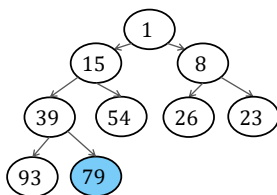


- ◆ Delete-min delete root node, and we should maintain the rest nodes as a complete binary tree.

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## Binary Heap Delete-min

- ◆ First, find the rightmost leaf at the bottom level, it is node with key 79.

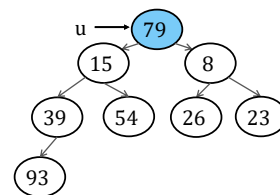


- ◆ Note that the tree is still a complete binary tree after removing this leaf.

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## Binary Heap Delete-min

- ◆ Remove the leaf, but place the key value 79 in the root.

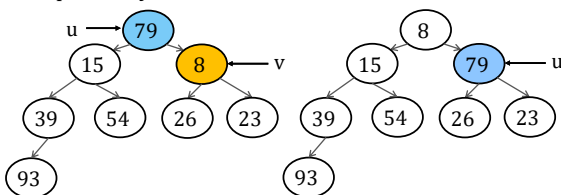


- ◆ Step 4: set  $u$  as the root.
- ◆ Step 5 and 6 are not true,
- ◆ Go to Step 7.

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## Binary Heap Delete-min

- ◆ Let  $v$  be the child of  $u$  with a smaller key.
- ◆ Swap the keys of  $u$  and  $v$ , and set  $u \leftarrow v$

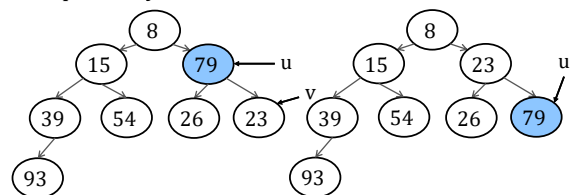


- ◆ Go to Step 5
- ◆ Step 5 and Step 6 are not true, go to Step 7

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## Binary Heap Delete-min

- ◆ Let  $v$  be the child of  $u$  with a smaller key.
- ◆ Swap the keys of  $u$  and  $v$ , and set  $u \leftarrow v$

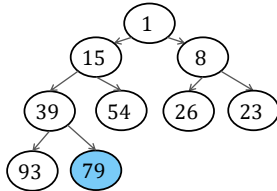


- ◆ Go to Step 5
- ◆ Step 5 is true, return. Delete-min complete.

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## How to find rightmost leaf?

- Before we analyzing the time complexity of insert and delete-min, let us first consider a sub-problem:
- Given a complete binary tree  $T$  with  $n$  nodes, how to identify quickly the rightmost leaf node at the bottom level of  $T$  (i.e., colored node in below tree).
  - It is Step 1 in insert algorithm, and Step 2 in delete-min algorithm



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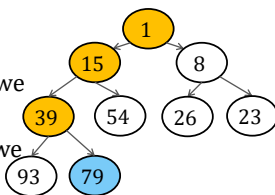
## How to find rightmost leaf?

- We give a clever algorithm for solving the sub-problem in  $O(\log n)$  time.
- Write the value  $n$  in binary form. We can do that in  $O(\log n)$  time.
- Skip the most significant bit. We will scan the remaining bits from left to right, start from root,
  - If the bit is 0, we go to the left child of the current node
  - Otherwise, go to right child

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## Find Rightmost Leaf Example

- Here  $n = 9$ , binary form: 1001
- Skip the first bit '1'
- We scan the remaining bits
- Start from root node 1.
- The 2<sup>nd</sup> leftmost bit is 0, so we visit left, and go to node 15
- The 3<sup>rd</sup> leftmost bit is 0, so we visit left, and go to node 39
- The 4<sup>th</sup> leftmost bit is 1, so we turn right, and go to node 79 (done).



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## Time Complexity Analysis

- We are now ready to prove that our insertion and delete-min algorithms finish in  $O(\log n)$  time.
- It suffices to point out the key facts:
  - Step 1 of the insertion algorithm (page 8) and Step 2 of the delete-min algorithm (page 13) can be performed in  $O(\log n)$  time, using our solution to previous sub-problem
  - The rest of insertion ascends a root-to-leaf path, while that of delete-min descends a root-to-leaf path. The time is  $O(\log n)$  in both cases.
- Thus, we guarantee: (1)  $O(n)$  space consumption, (2)  $O(\log n)$  insertion / delete-min operations.

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## Our Roadmap

- Priority Queue (binary heap)
  - Min-heap insert / delete-min
- Binary Heaps in Dynamic Arrays
  - $O(n)$  time to build min-heap
- Binary Search Tree (BST)
  - BST operators
  - Balanced BST (AVL-tree)

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## Binary Heaps in Dynamic Arrays

- We have already learned that the binary heap serves as an efficient implementation of a priority queue. Our previous discussion was based on pointers (for getting a parent node connected with its children). In this lecture, we will see a "pointerless" way to implement a binary heap, which in practice achieves much lower space consumption
- We will also see a way to build a heap from  $n$  integers in just  $O(n)$  time, improving the obvious  $O(n \log n)$  bound.

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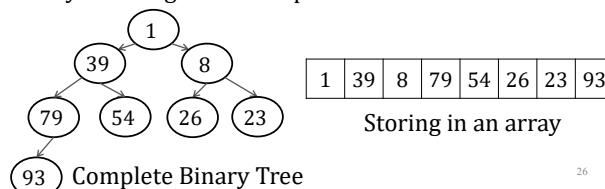
## Recall

- ◆ A **priority queue** stores a set  $S$  of  $n$  integers and supports the following operations:
  - ◆ *Insert( $e$ )*: adds a new integer to  $S$
  - ◆ *Delete-min*: removes the smallest integer in  $S$ , and returns it.
- ◆ Let  $S$  be a set of  $n$  integers. A **binary heap** on  $S$  is a binary tree  $T$  satisfying:
  - ◆ (1)  $T$  is complete
  - ◆ (2) Every node  $u$  in  $T$  corresponds to a distinct integer in  $S$ , the integer is called the key of  $u$  (and is stored at  $u$ )
  - ◆ (3) If  $u$  is an internal node, the key of  $u$  is smaller than those of its child nodes

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## Storing a Complete Binary Tree

- ◆ Storing a complete binary tree using an array
- ◆ Let  $T$  be any complete binary tree with  $n$  nodes, let us linearize the nodes in the following manner:
  - ◆ Put nodes at a higher level before those at a lower level
  - ◆ Within the same level, order the nodes from left to right
- ◆ Let us store the linearized sequence of nodes in an array  $A$  of length  $n$ . Example:



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## Property 1

- ◆ Let us refer to the  $i$ -th element of  $A$  as  $A[i]$ , for simplicity, we assume the index of  $A$  starts from 1.
- ◆ Lemma: Suppose that node  $u$  of  $T$  is stored at  $A[i]$ . Then, the left child of  $u$  is stored at  $A[2i]$ , and the right child at  $A[2i+1]$ .
- ◆ Observe this from the example of the previous slide
- ◆ Proof leaves as your homework.
- ◆ Hints, consider the number of nodes after  $u$ , but before its left child.

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## More Properties

- ◆ The following is an immediate corollary of the previous lemma:
- ◆ Corollary: Suppose that node  $u$  of  $T$  is stored at  $A[i]$ . Then, the parent of  $u$  is stored at  $A[\lfloor i/2 \rfloor]$ .
- ◆ The following is a simple yet useful fact:
- ◆ Lemma: the rightmost leaf node at the bottom level is stored at  $A[n]$ .
- ◆ Now we have got everything we need to implement the insertion and delete-min algorithms on the array representation of a binary heap.

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## Insert 15

1	39	8	79	54	26	23	93	
1	39	8	79	54	26	23	93	15
1	39	8	15	54	26	23	93	79
1	15	8	39	54	26	23	93	79

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## Delete-min

1	15	8	39	54	26	23	93	79
79	15	8	39	54	26	23	93	
8	15	79	39	54	26	23	93	
8	15	23	39	54	26	79	93	

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## Performance Guarantees

- Combining our analysis on (i) binary heaps and (ii) dynamic arrays, we obtain the following guarantees on binary heap implemented with a dynamic array:
  - Space consumption  $O(n)$
  - Insertion:  $O(\log n)$  time amortized
  - Delete-min:  $O(\log n)$  time amortized

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## Build a binary heap in array

- Next we consider the problem of creating a binary heap on a set  $S$  of  $n$  integers. Obviously, we can do so in  $O(n \log n)$  time by doing  $n$  insertions. However, this is an overall kill because the binary heap does not need to support any delete-min operations until all the  $n$  numbers have been inserted. This raises the question whether we can build the heap faster?
- The answer is positive: we will see an algorithm that does so in  $O(n)$  time.

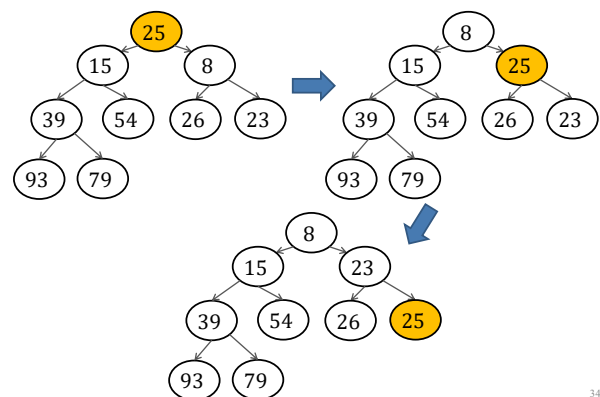
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## Root-fix operator

- We are given a complete binary tree  $T$  with root  $r$ . It guaranteed that:
  - The left subtree of  $r$  is binary heap
  - The right subtree of  $r$  is a binary heap
  - However, the key of  $r$  may not be smaller than the keys of its children.
- We define the root-fix operation, it fixes the issue and makes  $T$  a binary heap.
- Root-fix can be done in  $O(\log n)$  time – in the same manner as the delete-min algorithm (step 4 - 7)

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## Root-fix Example



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## Building a Heap

- Create an array  $A$  that stores a set  $S$  of  $n$  integers, we can turn  $A$  into a binary heap on  $S$  using the following simple algorithm, which view  $A$  as a complete binary tree  $T$ :
  - For each  $i=n$  downto 1:
    - Perform root-fix on the subtree of  $T$  rooted at  $A[i]$
- Think: why are the conditions of root-fix always satisfied?

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## Building a Heap example

54	26	15	93	8	1	23	39
54	26	15	93	8	1	23	39
54	26	15	93	8	1	23	39
54	26	15	93	8	1	23	39
54	26	15	93	8	1	23	39
54	26	15	93	8	1	23	39
54	26	15	93	8	1	23	39
54	26	15	93	8	1	23	39

Root-fix

54	26	15	39	8	1	23	93
54	26	1	39	8	15	23	93
56	8	1	39	26	15	23	93
1	8	15	39	26	54	23	93

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## Complexity Analysis

- ◆ Lemma: The time complexity of turn array A into a binary heap on S is  $O(n)$ .
- ◆ Proof as follows:
  - ◆ view A as a complete binary tree
  - ◆ The height of T is h.
  - ◆ Without loss of generality, assume that all the levels of T are full, i.e.,  $n=2^{h+1}-1$ .
    - ◆ Why no generality is lost?
  - ◆ Analyze the total running time of Build heap algorithm
  - ◆ Proof that  $\sum_{i=0}^h O(i * 2^{h-i}) = O(n)$  with  $n=2^{h+1}-1$ .

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## Our Roadmap

- ◆ Priority Queue (binary heap)
  - ◆ Min-heap insert / delete-min
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- ◆ Binary Search Tree (BST)
  - ◆ BST operators
  - ◆ Balanced BST (AVL-tree)

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## Binary Search Tree (BST)

Binary Search Tree (especially, balanced BST) is the most powerful data structure of this course. This is without a doubt one of the most important data structures in computer science.

In extreme case, BST is equivalent to a linked list, thus, we guarantee the operations performance of BST by study AVL-tree.

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## Dynamic Predecessor Search

- ◆ Let S be a set of integers. We want to store S in a data structure to support the following operations:
  - ◆ A predecessor query: give an integer q, find its predecessor in S, which is the largest integer in S that does not exceed q.
  - ◆ Insertion: adds a new integer to S
  - ◆ Deletion: removes a integer from S
- ◆ Suppose that  $S=\{3,10,15,20,30,40,60,73,80\}$ 
  - ◆ The predecessor of 23 is 20
  - ◆ The predecessor of 15 is 15
  - ◆ The predecessor of 2 does not exist
- ◆ Note that a predecessor query is more general than a “dictionary look-up”. Why?

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## Binary Search Tree (BST)

- ◆ We will learn a version of the BST that guarantees:
  - ◆  $O(n)$  space consumption
  - ◆  $O(h)$  time per predecessor query (hence, also per dictionary lookup)
  - ◆  $O(h)$  time per insertion
  - ◆  $O(h)$  time per deletion
- ◆ where  $n = |S|$ , h is the height of BST, Note that all the above complexities hold in the worst case.

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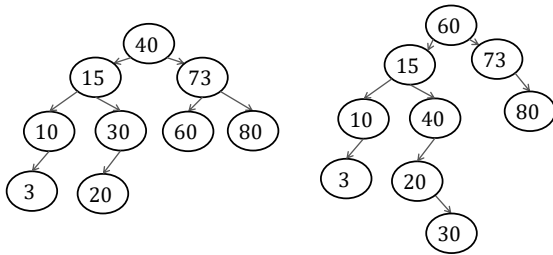
## Binary Search Tree (BST)

- ◆ A BST on a set S of n integers in a binary tree T satisfying all the following requirements:
  - ◆ T has n nodes
  - ◆ Each node u in T stores a distinct integer in S, which is called the key of u
  - ◆ For every internal u, it holds that:
    - ◆ The key of u is larger than all the keys in the left subtree of u.
    - ◆ The key of u is smaller than all the keys in the right subtree of u.

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## BST Example

- Two possible BSTs on  $S = \{3, 10, 15, 20, 30, 40, 60, 73, 80\}$



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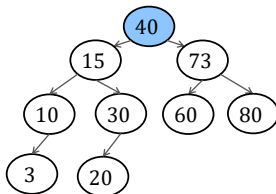
## Predecessor Query

- Suppose that we have created a BST  $T$  on a set  $S$  of  $n$  integers. A predecessor query with search value  $q$  can be answered by descending a single root-to-leaf path:
  - (1) Set  $p \leftarrow -\infty$  ( $p$  will contain the final answer at the end)
  - (2) Set  $u \leftarrow$  the root of  $T$
  - (3) If  $u = \text{nil}$ , then return  $p$
  - (4) If key of  $u = q$ , the set  $p$  to  $q$ , and return  $p$
  - (5) If key of  $u > q$ , then set  $u$  to the left child (now  $u = \text{nil}$  if there is no left child), and repeat from Step (3)
  - (6) Otherwise, set  $p$  to the key of  $u$  and  $u$  to the right child, and repeat from Step (3)

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## Predecessor Query Example

- Suppose that we want to find the predecessor of 35

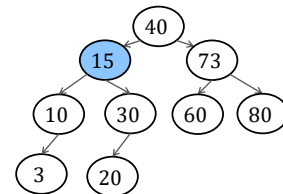


- Set  $p \leftarrow -\infty$ ,  $u = \text{root } 40$
- (3) and (4) are not true, go to (5)
- Since  $40 > 35$ , the predecessor cannot be in the right subtree of 40, so we move to the left child of 40, now  $u = \text{node } 15$ .

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## Predecessor Query Example

- Suppose that we want to find the predecessor of 35

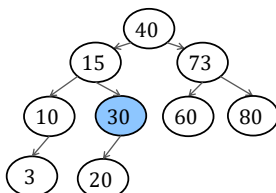


- (3), (4) and (5) are not true, go to (6)
- Since  $15 < 35$ ,  $p \leftarrow 15$ , since this is the predecessor of 35 so far.
- The predecessor cannot be in the left subtree of 15, so we move  $u$  to the right child, now  $u = \text{node } 30$ .

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## Predecessor Query Example

- Suppose that we want to find the predecessor of 35



- (3), (4) and (5) are not true, go to (6)
- Since  $30 < 35$ ,  $p \leftarrow 30$ , since this is the predecessor of 35 so far.
- The predecessor will be in the right subtree of 30, but 30 does not have a right child. So algorithm terminates here with  $p = 30$  as the final answer.

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## Time complexity Analysis

- Obviously, we spend  $O(1)$  time at each node visited. Since the height of BST is  $h$ , therefore the total query time is  $O(h)$ .

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## Successor Query

- ◆ The opposite of predecessors are successors.
- ◆ The successors of an integer  $q$  in  $S$  is the smallest integer in  $S$  that is no smaller than  $q$ .
- ◆ Suppose that  $S = \{3, 10, 15, 20, 30, 40, 60, 73, 80\}$ 
  - ◆ The successor of 23 is 30
  - ◆ The successor of 15 is 20
  - ◆ The successor of 81 does not exist
- ◆ Given an integer  $q$ , a successor query returns the successor of  $q$  in  $S$ .
- ◆ By symmetry, we know from the earlier discussion (on predecessor queries) that a successor query can be answered using a BST in  $O(h)$  time.

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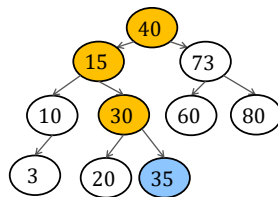
## BST Insertion

- ◆ Suppose that we need to insert a new integer  $e$ . First create a new leaf  $z$  storing the key  $e$ . This can be done by descending a root-to-leaf path:
  - ◆ 1. Set  $u \leftarrow$  the root of  $T$
  - ◆ 2. If  $e <$  the key of  $u$ 
    - ◆ 2.1 If  $u$  has a left child, then set  $u$  to the left child
    - ◆ 2.2 Otherwise, make  $z$  the left child of  $u$ , and done
  - ◆ 3. Otherwise:
    - ◆ 3.1 If  $u$  has a right child, then set  $u$  to the right child
    - ◆ 3.2 Otherwise, make  $z$  the right child of  $u$ , and done.
  - ◆ Repeat from Step 2.
- ◆ The total cost is proportional to the height of  $T$ , i.e.,  $O(h)$

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## BST Insertion Example

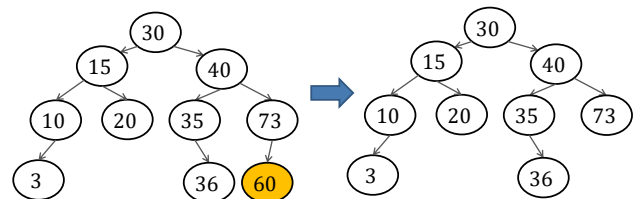
- ◆ Inserting 35:
- ◆  $u$  is root 40,  $e <$  the key of  $u$ ,  $u$  has a left child,  $u \leftarrow$  node 15
- ◆  $u$  is node 15,  $e >$  the key of  $u$ ,  $u$  has a right child,  $u \leftarrow$  node 30
- ◆  $u$  is node 30,  $e >$  the key of  $u$ ,  $u$ 's right child is nil, then set  $z$  as the right child of  $u$ . Done.



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## BST Deletion

- ◆ Suppose that we want to delete an integer  $e$ . First, find the node  $u$  whose key equals to  $e$  in  $O(h)$  time (through a predecessor query).
- ◆ Case 1: if  $u$  is a leaf node, simply remove it from  $T$ .
- ◆ Example: remove 60



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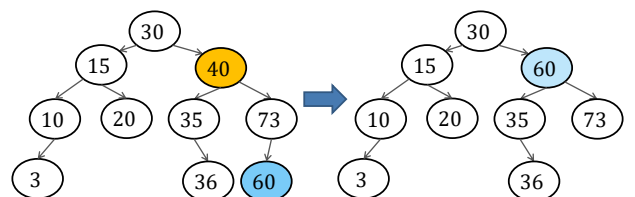
## BST Deletion

- ◆ What happens if node  $u$  is not a leaf node?
- ◆ Case 2: if  $u$  has a right subtree:
  - ◆ Find the node  $v$  storing the successor  $s$  of  $e$ .
  - ◆ Set the key of  $u$  to  $s$
  - ◆ Case 2.1: if  $v$  is a leaf node, then remove it from  $T$
  - ◆ Case 2.2: otherwise, it must hold that  $v$  has a right child  $w$ , but not left child. Replace node  $v$  by subtree which rooted at  $w$ .
- ◆ Case 3: if  $u$  has no right subtree:
  - ◆ It must hold that  $u$  has a left child  $v$ , Replace node  $u$  by the subtree rooted at  $v$ .

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## Case 2.1 Example

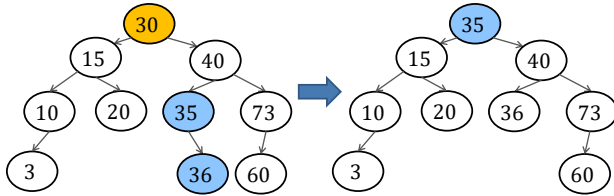
- ◆ Delete 40:
- ◆  $u$  has a right subtree, node  $v$  (60) is the successor of 40.
- ◆ Set the key of  $u$  to 60
- ◆  $v$  is a leaf, remove node  $v$ , done.



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## Case 2.2 Example

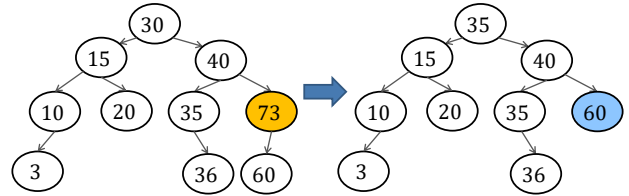
- ◆ Delete 30:
- ◆ u has a right subtree, node v (35) is the successor of 30.
- ◆ Set the key of u to 35
- ◆ v is not leaf node, it has right child w (36), replace node v by subtree rooted at w(36).



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## Case 3 Example

- ◆ Delete 73:
- ◆ u has no right subtree, and u must have a left child v (60), replace node u by node v(60).
- ◆ done.



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## BST Deletion

- ◆ In all above cases, we have essentially descended a root-to-leaf path (call it deletion path), and removed a leaf node.
- ◆ The cost so far is  $O(h)$ , recall that the successor of an integer can be found in  $O(h)$  time.
- ◆ Given a set  $S$  of  $n$  integers, what is the maximum possible height of its BST?
  - ◆  $h = n$ , why?
  - ◆ So what is the worst-case query cost?  $O(n)$
  - ◆ However, we can guarantee  $h = O(\log n)$  if the BST is balanced BST.

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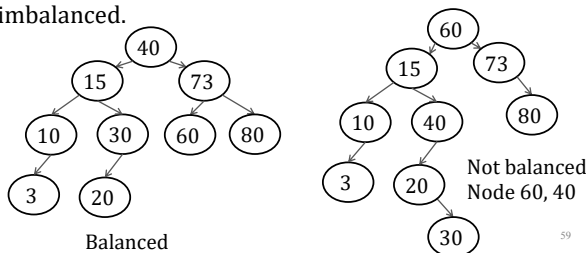
## What is the height of tree

- ◆ Given a set  $S$  of  $n$  integers, what is the maximum possible height of its BST?
  - ◆  $h = n$ , why?
- ◆ What is the worst-case query / insertion / deletion cost?
  - ◆  $O(n)$  !!!
- ◆ How to achieve  $O(\log n)$  time per operation?
  - ◆ Balanced Binary Search Tree

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## Balanced Binary Tree

- ◆ A binary tree  $T$  is balanced if the following holds on every internal node  $u$  of  $T$ :
  - ◆ The height of the left subtree of  $u$  differs from that of the right subtree of  $u$  by at most 1.
- ◆ If  $u$  violates the above requirement, we say that  $u$  is imbalanced.



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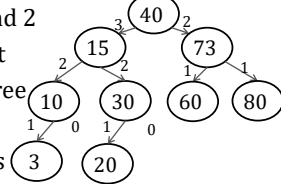
## Height of a Balanced Binary Tree

- ◆ Theorem: a balanced binary tree with  $n$  nodes has height  $O(\log n)$ .
- ◆ Proof. (left as homework)
- ◆ Hints:
  - ◆ 1) consider minimum number of nodes in a balanced binary tree with height  $h$
  - ◆ 2) recursive equation
  - ◆ 3) analysis two cases: case 1)  $h$  is even, case 2)  $h$  is odd.
- ◆ With the height of balanced binary tree is  $O(\log n)$ , we can conclude that the cost of query operation is  $O(\log n)$  on a balanced binary search tree.
- ◆ How about the cost of insertion and deletion on it?

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## Balanced BST

- ◆ An AVL-tree on a set  $S$  of  $n$  integers is a balanced binary search tree  $T$ , where the following hold on every internal node  $u$ 
  - ◆  $u$  stores the heights of its left and right subtrees.
- ◆ An AVL-tree on  $S = \{3, 10, 15, 20, 30, 40, 60, 73, 80\}$
- ◆ For example, the number 3 and 2 near root 40 indicate that its left subtree has height 3, right subtree has height 2.
- ◆ By storing the subtree heights an internal node know whether it has become imbalanced



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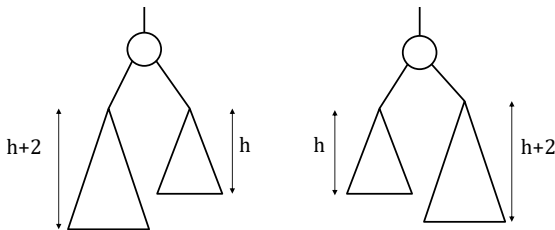
## Balanced BST

- ◆ Next we will explain how to perform updates. The most important step is remedy a node  $u$  when it becomes imbalanced.
- ◆ It suffices to consider a scenario called 2-level imbalance. In this situation, two conditions apply:
  - ◆ There is a difference of 2 in the heights of the left and right subtree of  $u$ .
  - ◆ All the proper descendants of  $u$  are balanced
- ◆ We will first explain how to rebalance  $u$  in the above situation

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## 2-level imbalance

- ◆ There are two cases:

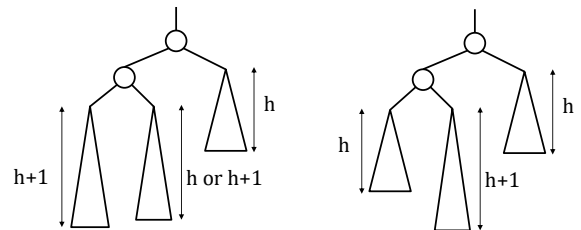


- ◆ Due to symmetry, it suffices to explain only the left case, which can be further divide to a left-left and a left-right case, as shown next.

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## 2-level imbalance

- ◆ There are two cases:



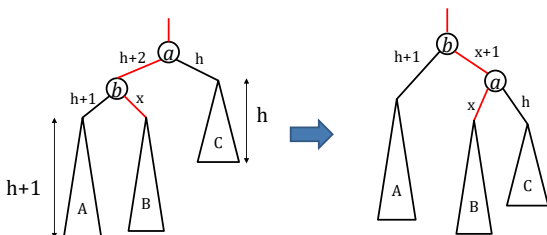
Left-Left case

Left-Right case

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## Rebalance Left-Left

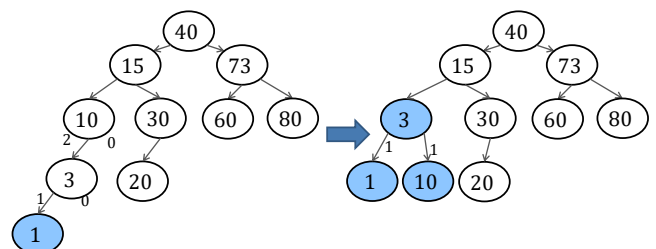
- ◆ By a rotation:



- ◆ Only 3 pointers to change (the red ones). The cost is  $O(1)$ .
- ◆ Recall that  $x = h$  or  $h+1$

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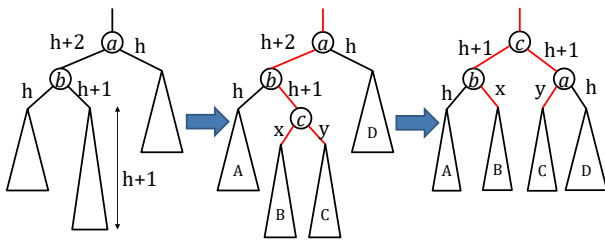
## Rebalance Left-Left Example



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## Rebalance Left-Right

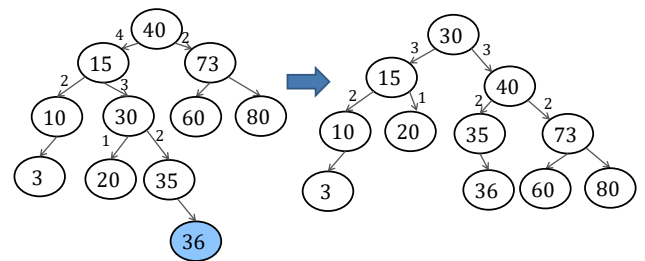
- By a double rotation:



- Only 5 pointers to change (see above). Hence, the cost is  $O(1)$ .
- Note that  $x$  and  $y$  must be  $h$  or  $h-1$ . Furthermore, at least one of them must be  $h$  (why?)

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## Rebalance Left-Right Example



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## Insertion and Deletion Time

- Insertion time analysis
  - It will be left as an exercise for you to prove
    - Only 2-level imbalance can occur in an insertion
    - Once we have remedied the lowest imbalance node, all the nodes in the tree will become balanced again
  - Thus, we can conclude the insertion cost in a balanced BST is  $O(\log n)$ , why?
- Deletion time analysis
  - It will be left as an exercise for you to prove
    - Only 2-level imbalance can occur after a deletion
  - Thus, we can conclude the deletion cost in a balanced BST is  $O(\log n)$

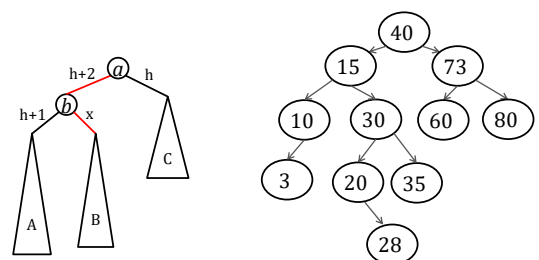
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## Balanced BST

- We now conclude our discussion on the AVL-tree, which provides the following guarantees:
  - $O(n)$  space consumption
  - $O(\log n)$  time per predecessor query (hence, also per dictionary lookup)
  - $O(\log n)$  time per insertion
  - $O(\log n)$  time per deletion
- All the above complexities hold in the worst case.

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Thank You!



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