

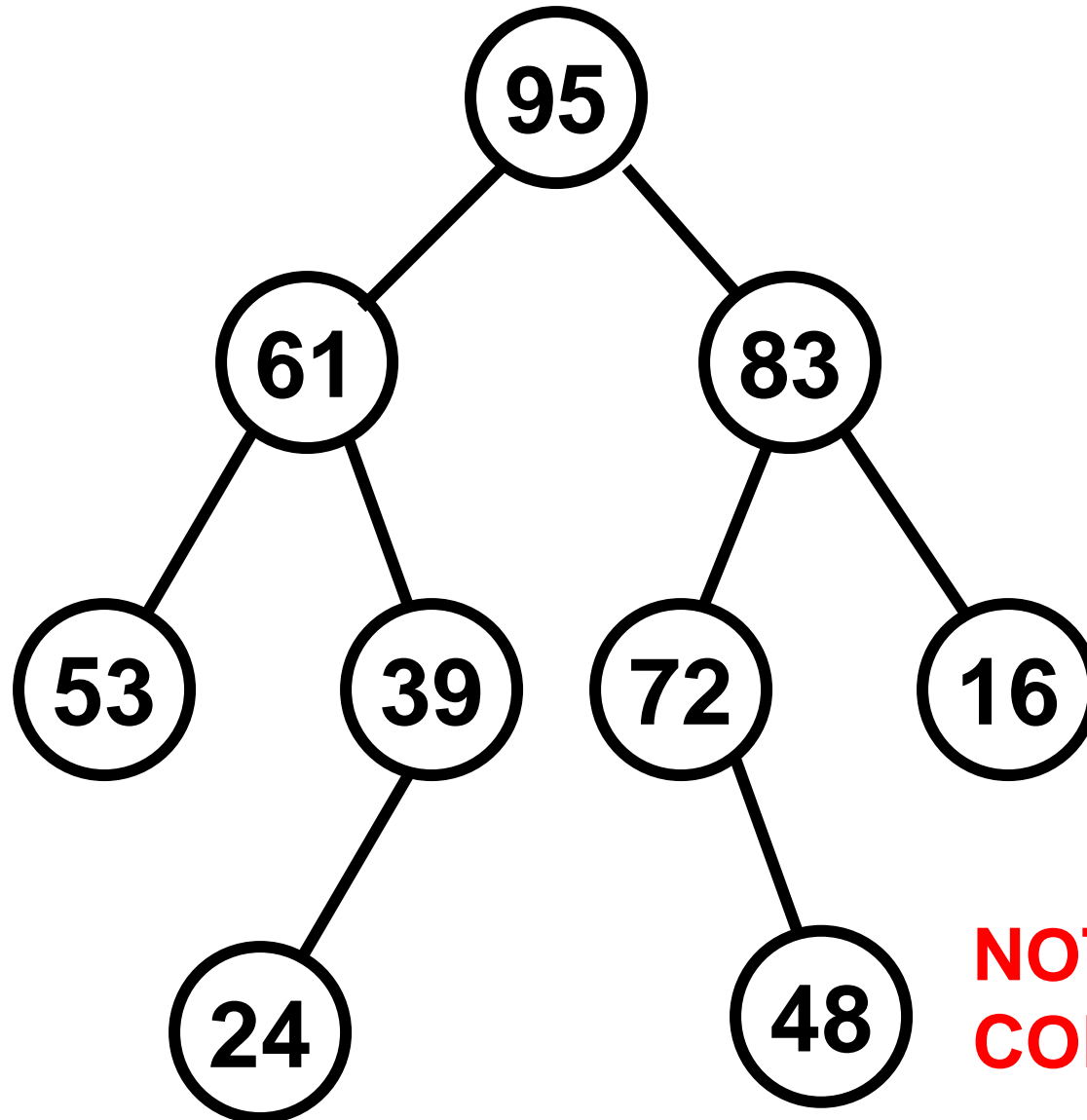
Balanced Trees

Chapter 10

Heap

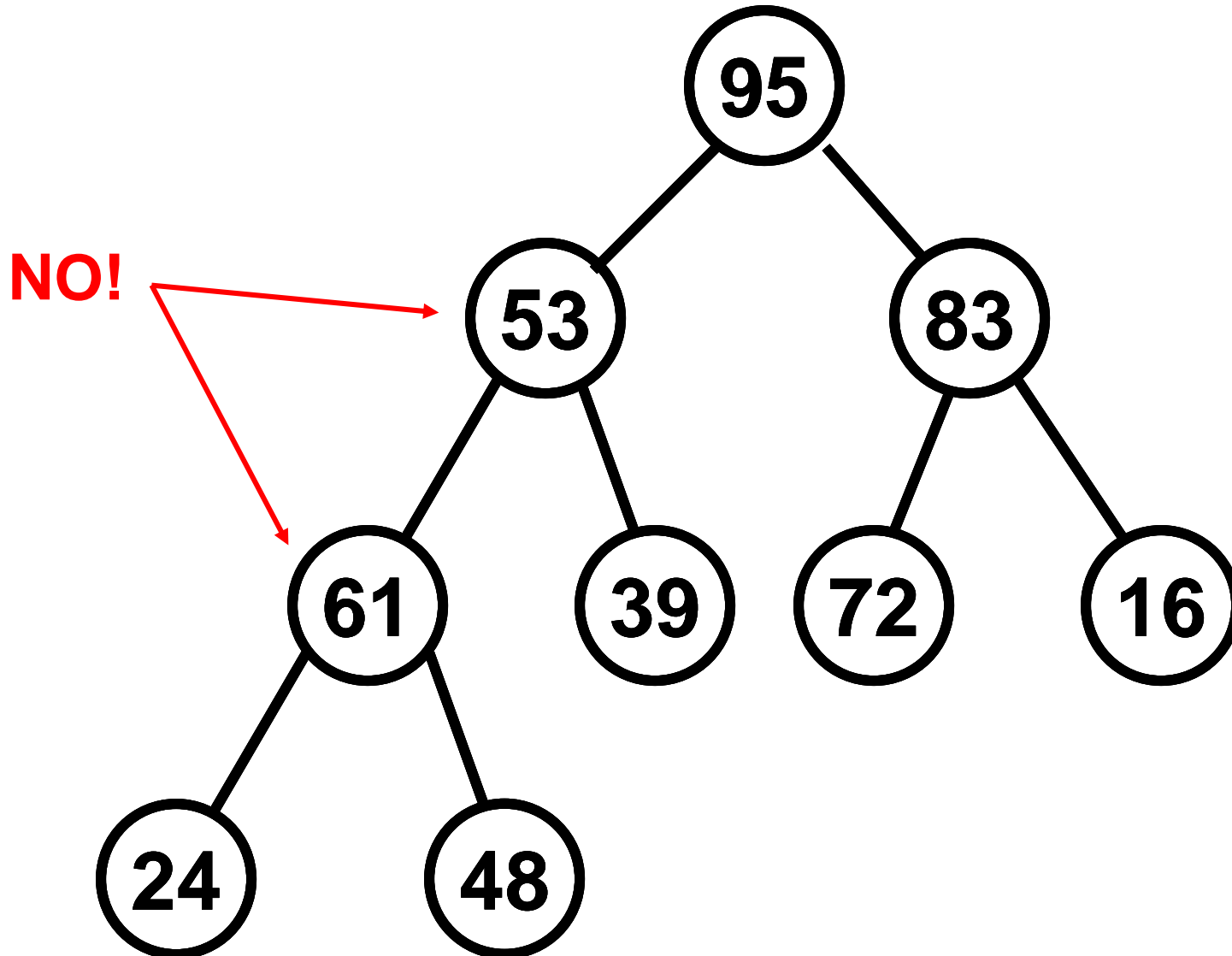
- A heap is a binary tree such that
 - the data contained in each node is greater than (or equal to) the data in that node's children.
 - the binary tree is complete

Is it a heap?

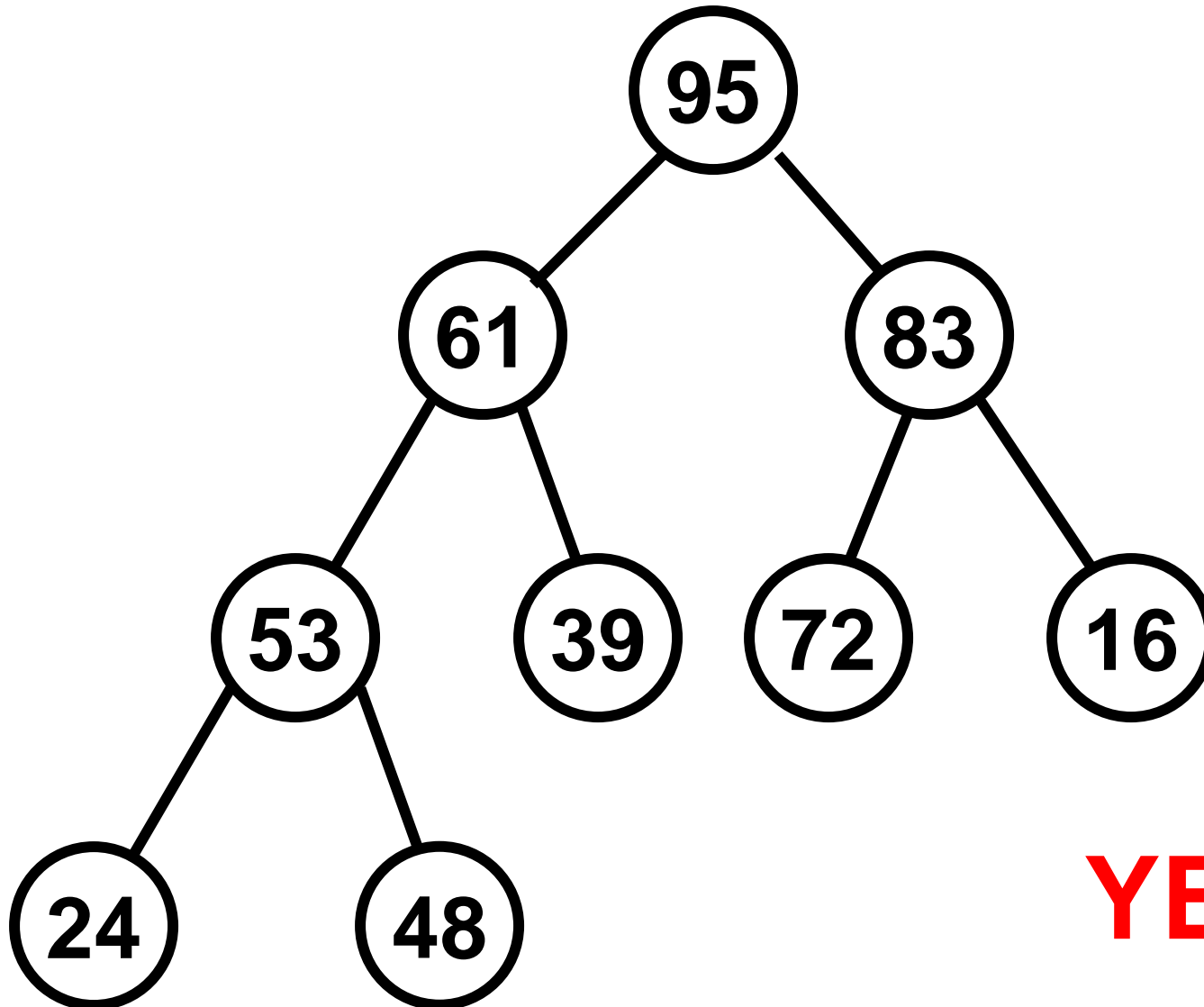


**NOT
COMPLETE!**

Is it a heap?



Is it a heap?

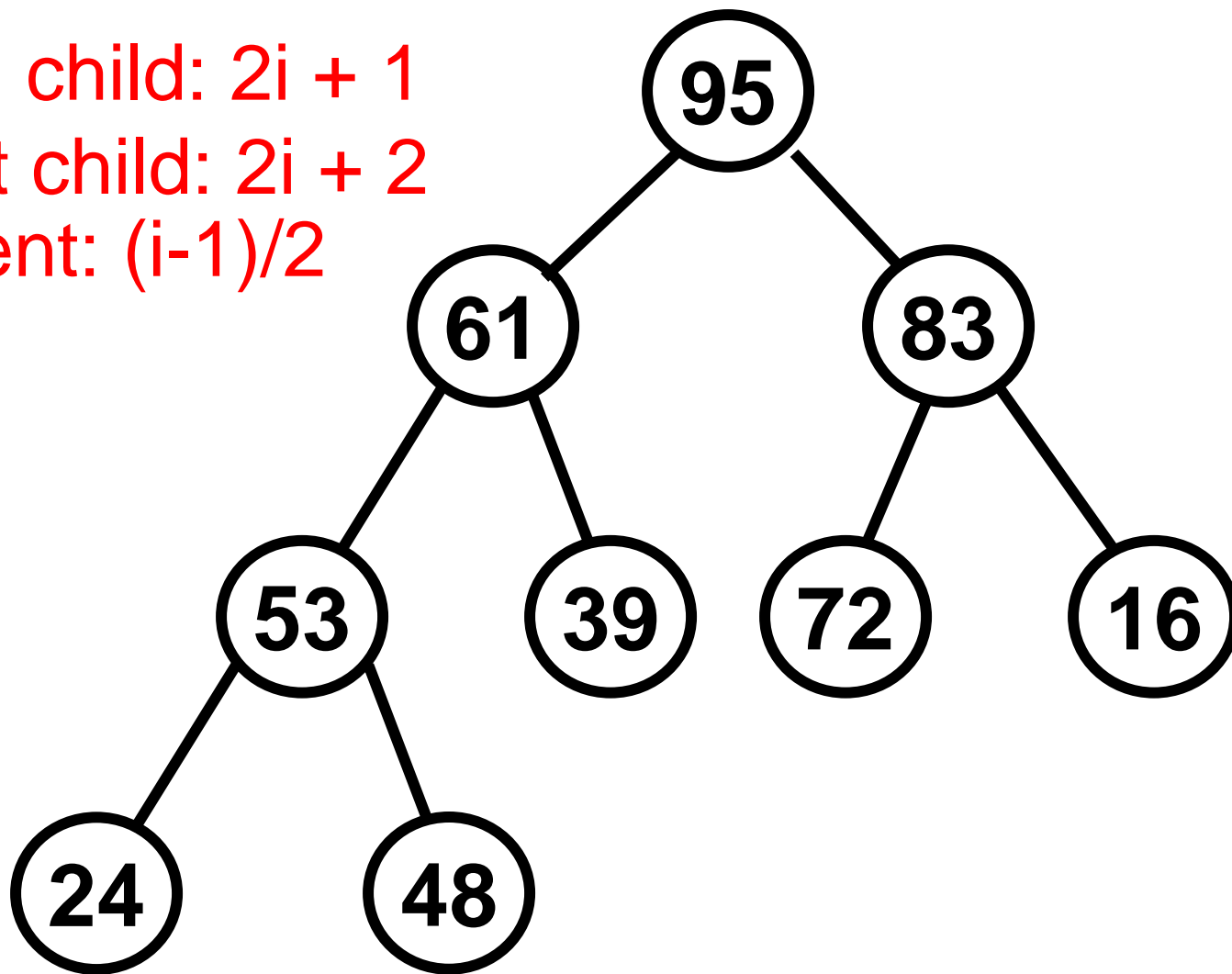


YES!

Storage of a heap

- Use an array to hold the data.
- Store the root in position 0.
- For any node in position i ,
 - its left child (if any) is in position $2i + 1$
 - its right child (if any) is in position $2i + 2$
 - its parent (if any) is in position $(i-1)/2$
(integer division)

left child: $2i + 1$
right child: $2i + 2$
parent: $(i-1)/2$



<i>0</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>7</i>	<i>8</i>
95	61	83	53	39	72	16	24	48

Basic operations on a heap

- Create an empty heap (constructor).
- Insert a data element into a heap.
- Remove the maximum data element from the heap.

The heap data structure

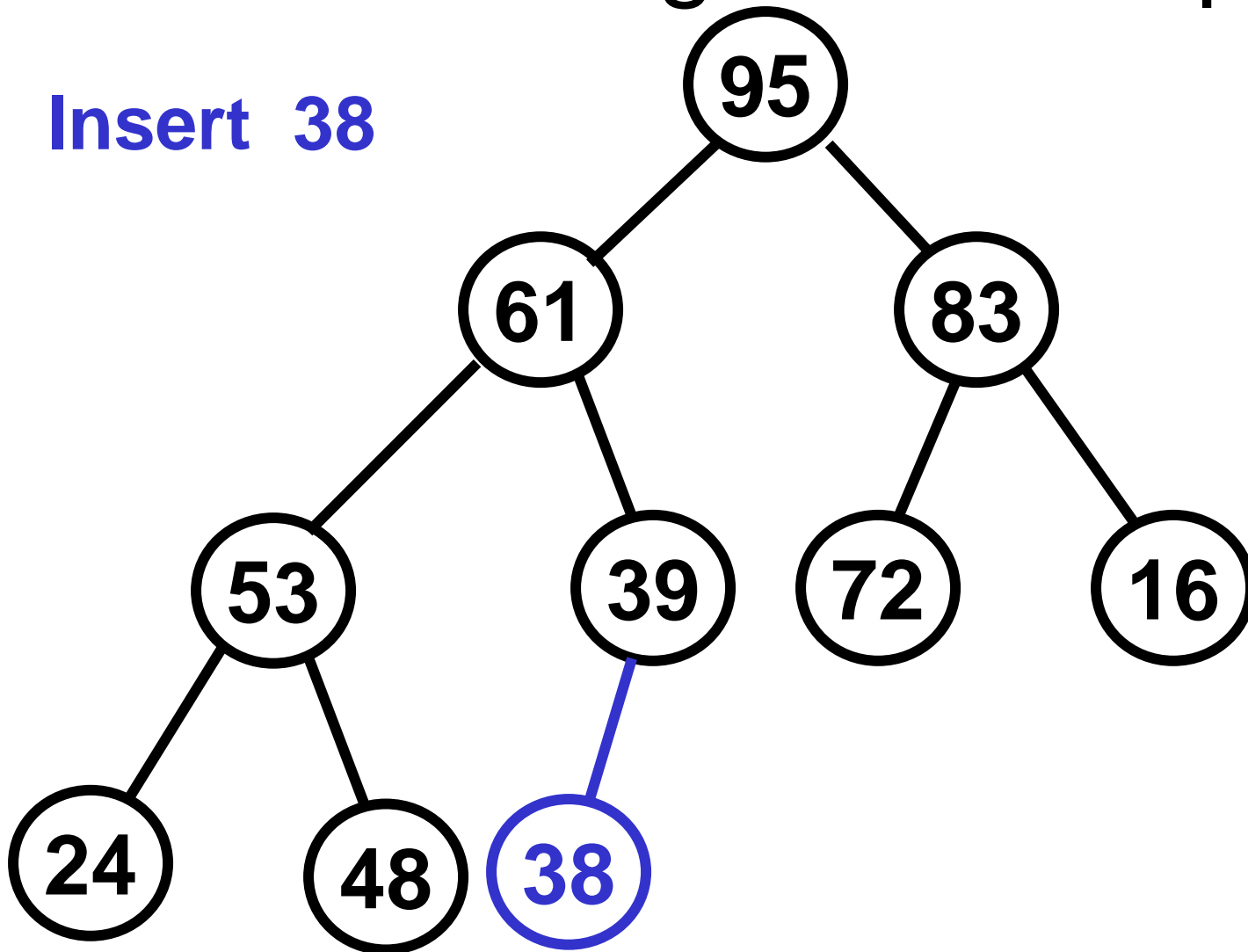
```
public class Heap {  
    private int[] data;  
    private int heapSize;  
    private int maxSize;  
    public Heap(int maximumSize) {  
        if (maximumSize < 1) maxSize = 100;  
        else maxSize = maximumSize;  
        data = new int[maxSize];  
        heapSize = 0;  
    }  
    public boolean isEmpty()           // not  
    public boolean isFull()           // shown
```

Inserting into a heap

- Place the new element in the first available position in the array.
- Compare the new element with its parent. If the new element is greater, than swap it with its parent.
- Continue this process until either
 - the new element's parent is greater than or equal to the new element, or
 - the new element reaches the root

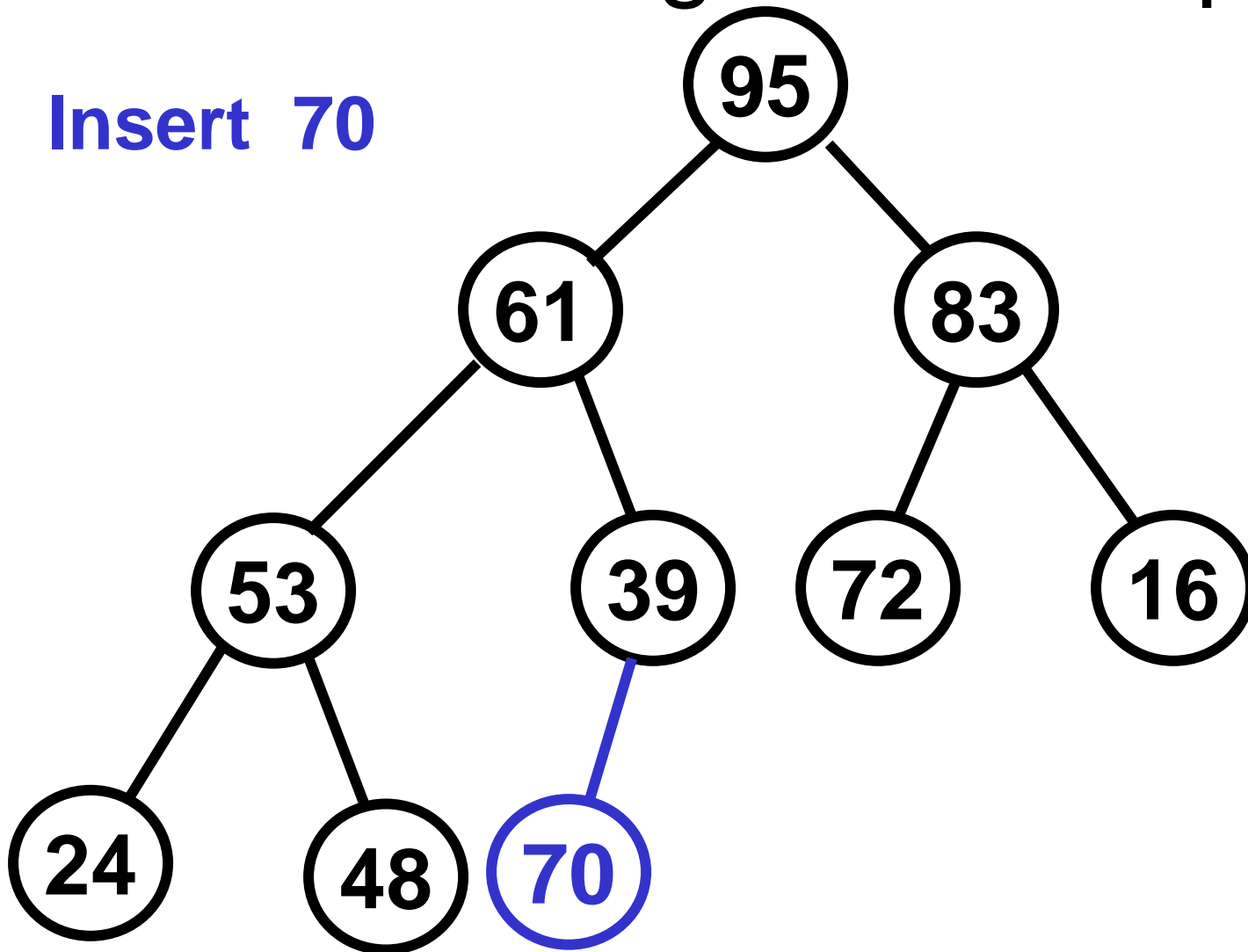
Inserting into a heap

Insert 38



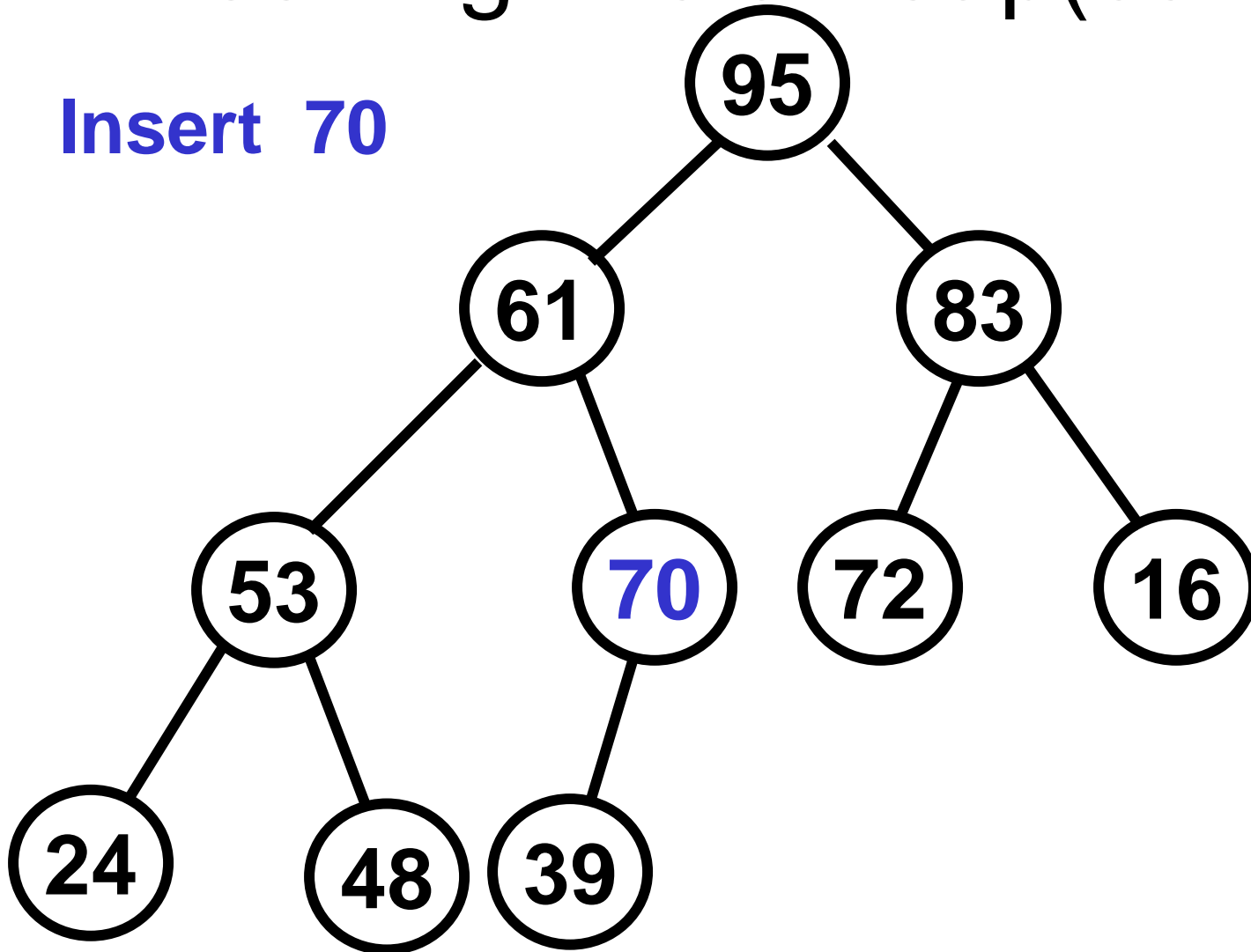
Inserting into a heap

Insert 70



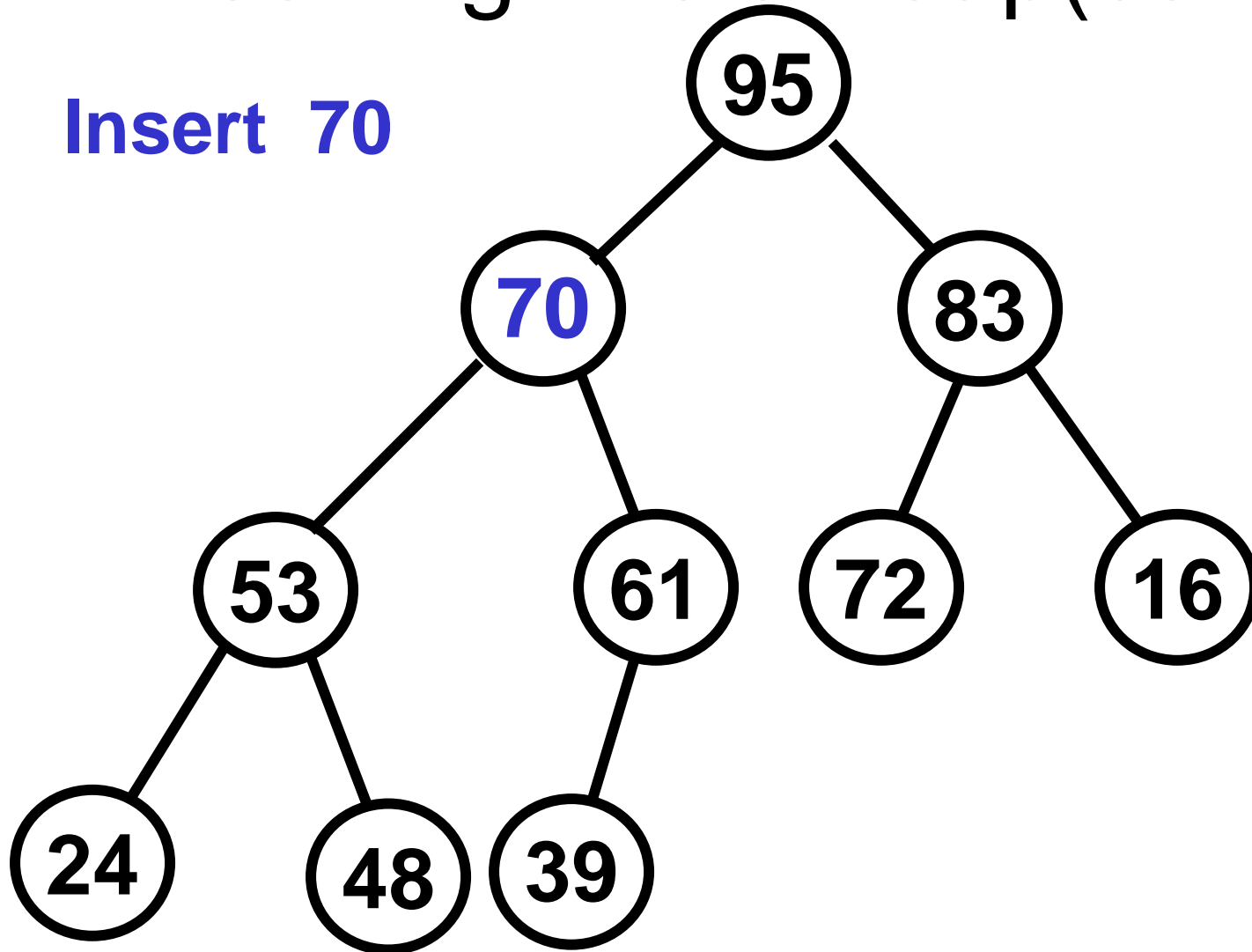
Inserting into a heap(cont'd)

Insert 70



Inserting into a heap(cont'd)

Insert 70



Inserting into a heap

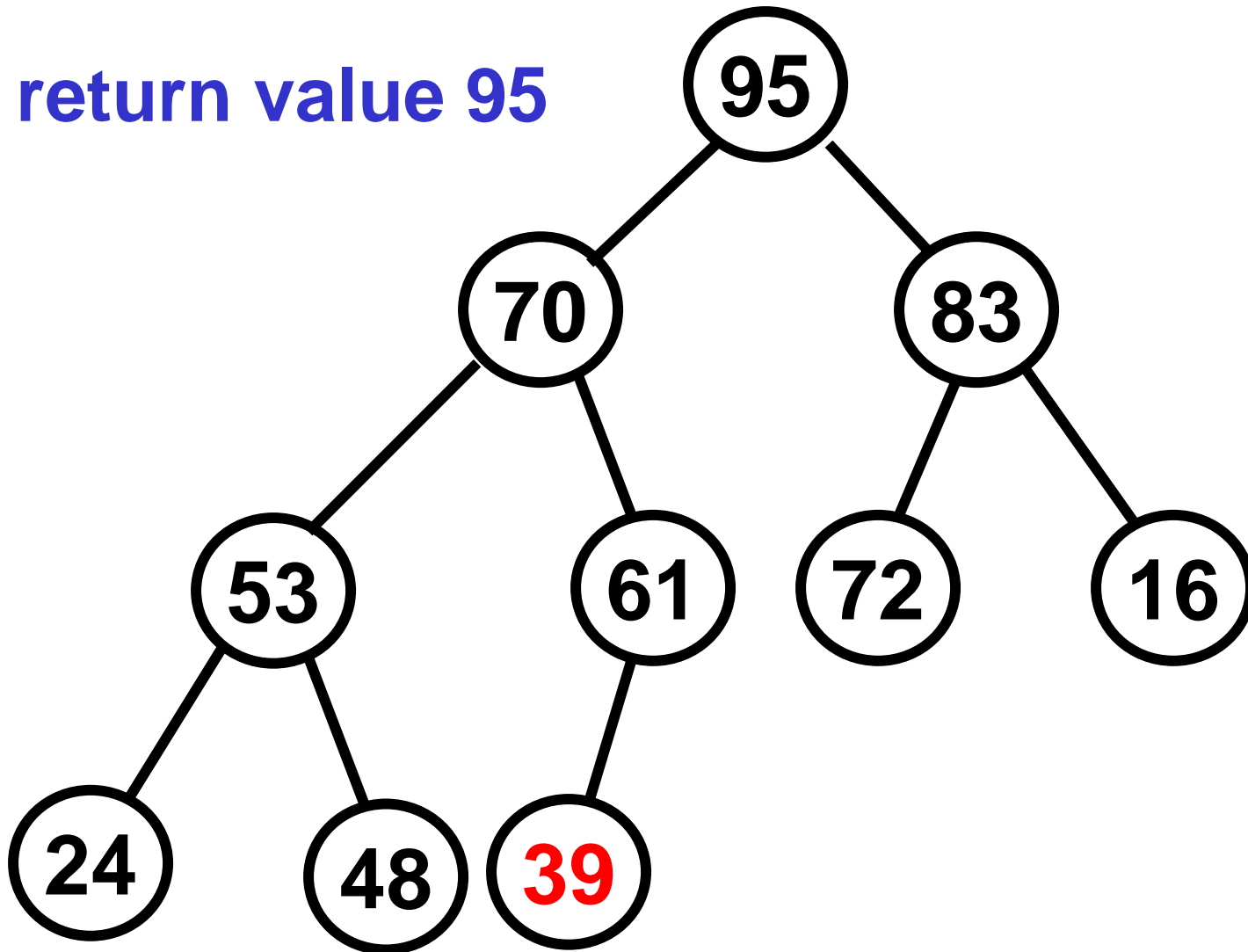
```
public void insert(int item) {  
    int position;  
    if (isFull()) throw new Exception();  
    heapSize++;  
    data[heapSize-1] = item;  
    position = heapSize - 1;  
    while (position > 0 &&  
        data[position] > data[(position-1)/2])  
    {  
        swap(position, (position-1)/2);  
        position = (position-1) / 2;  
    }  
}
```

Removing from a heap

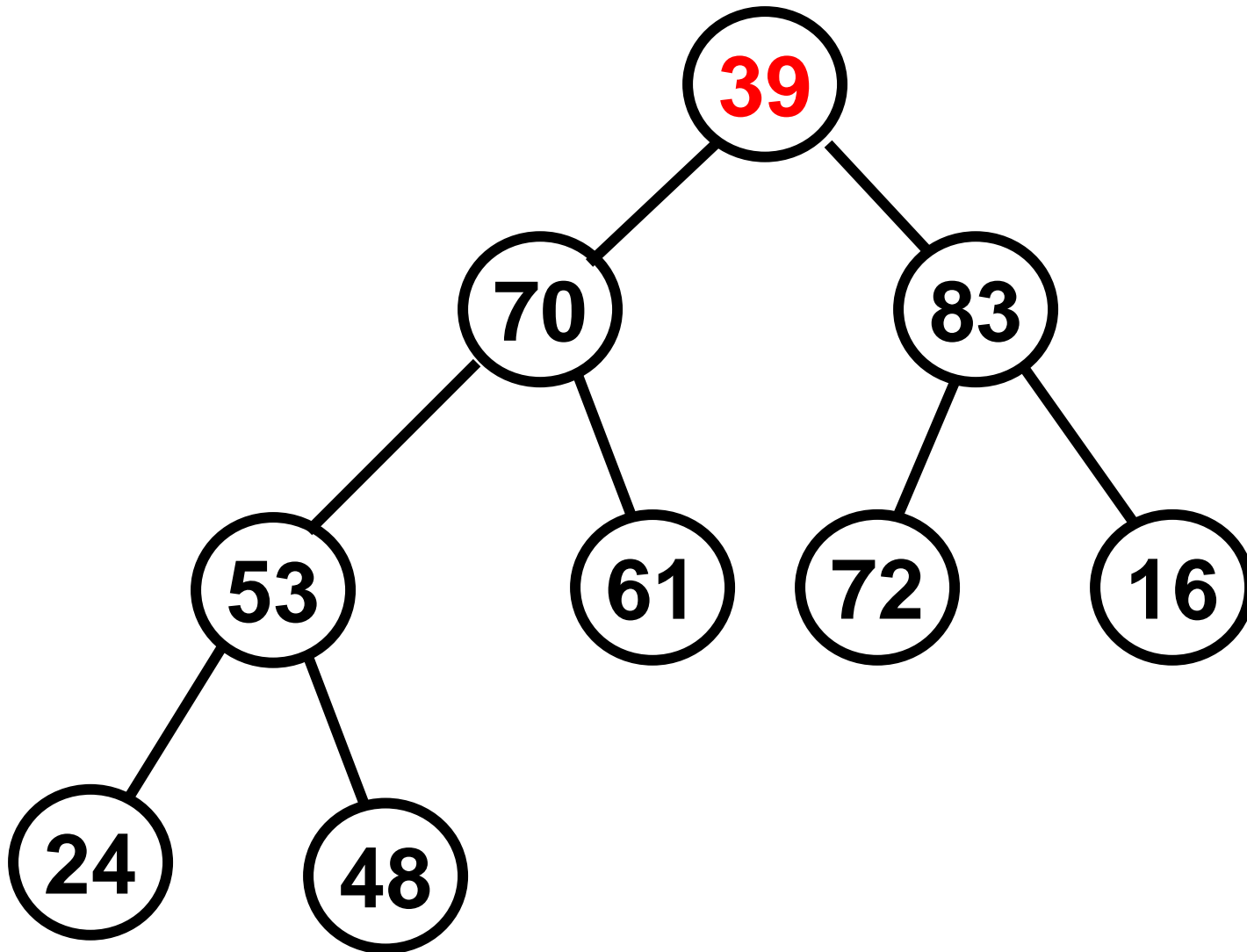
- Place the root element in a variable to return later.
- Move the last element in the deepest level to the root (reduce the size of the heap by 1).
- While the moved element has a value lower than one of its children, swap this value with the highest-valued child.
- Return the original root that was saved.

Removing from a heap

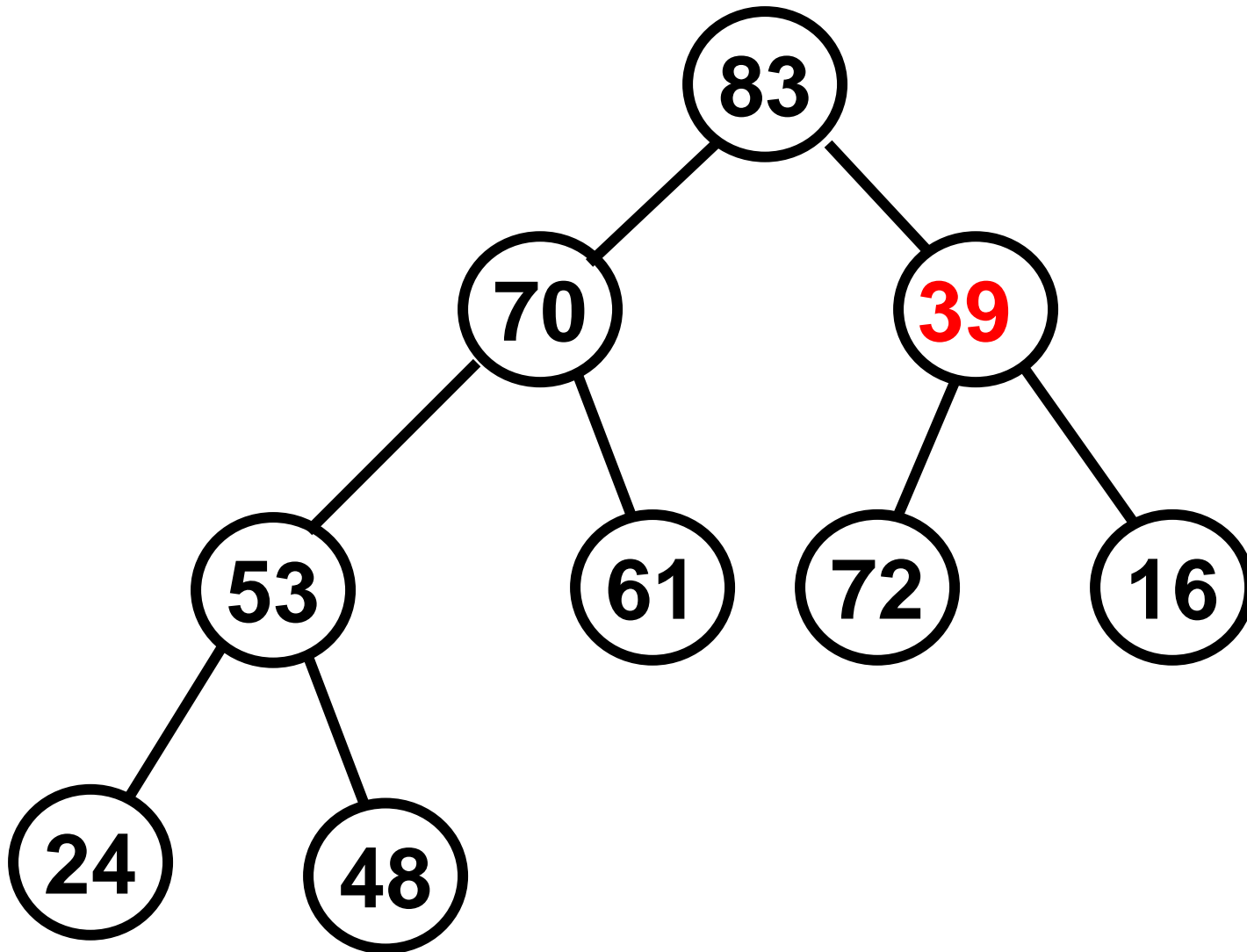
return value 95



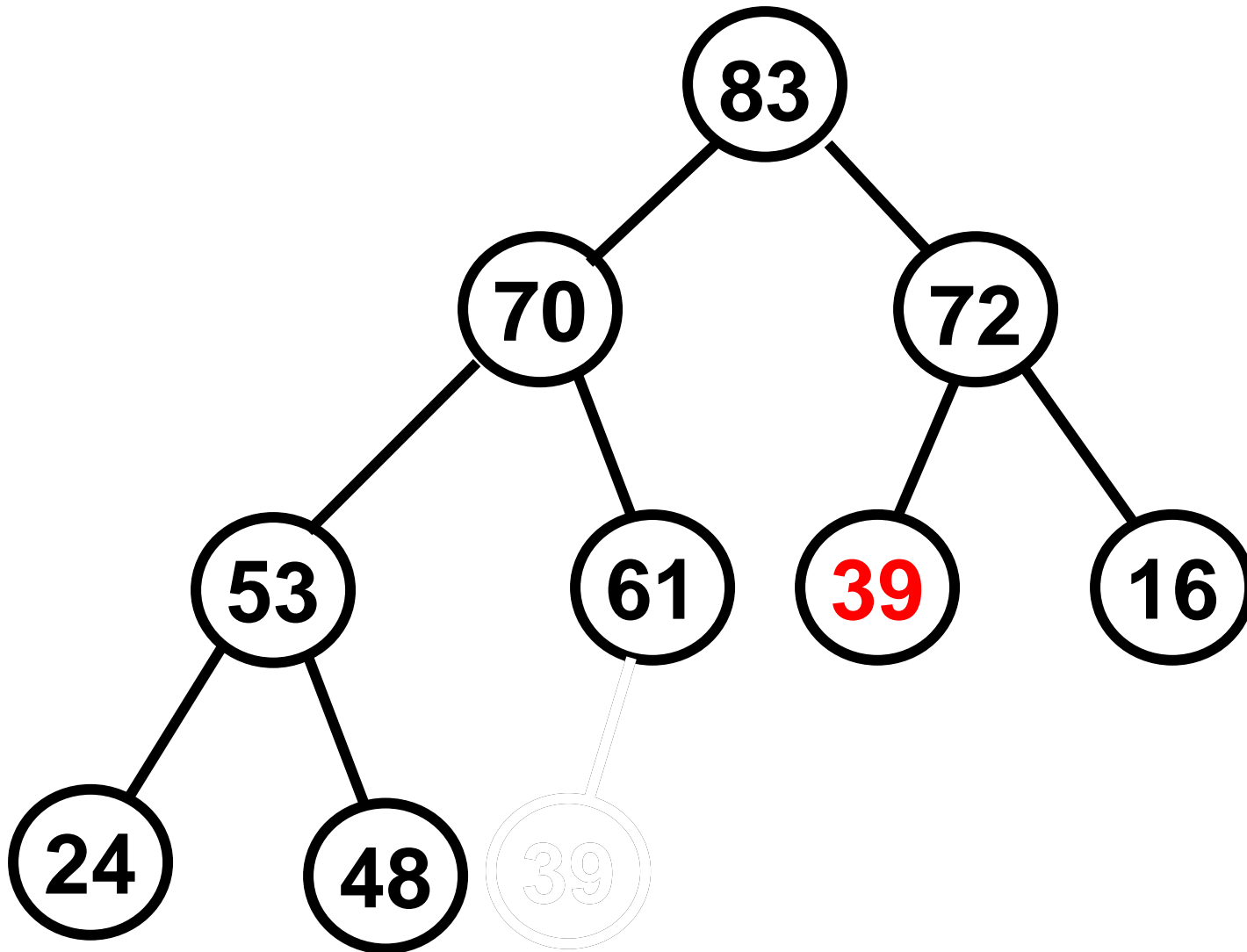
Removing from a heap(cont'd)



Removing from a heap(cont'd)



Removing from a heap



Removing from a heap

```
public int remove() {  
    int answer;  
    if (isEmpty()) throw new Exception();  
    answer = data[0];  
    data[0] = data[heapSize-1];  
    heapSize--;  
    fixheap();  
    return answer;  
}
```

Removing from a heap (cont'd)

```
private void fixheap() {  
    int position = 0; int childPos;  
    while (position*2 + 1 < heapSize) {  
        childPos = position*2 + 1;  
        if (childPos < heapSize-1 &&  
            data[childPos+1] > data[childPos])  
            childPos++;  
        if (data[position] >= data[childPos])  
            return;  
        swap(position, childPos);  
        position = childPos;  
    }  
}
```

Efficiency of heaps

Assume the heap has N nodes.

Then the heap has approximately $\log_2 N$ levels.

- Insert

Since the insert swaps at most once per level, the order of complexity of insert is $O(\log N)$

- Remove

Since the remove swaps at most once per level, the order of complexity of remove is also $O(\log N)$

Priority Queues

- A priority queue PQ is like an ordinary queue except that we can only remove the “maximum” element at any given time (not the “front” element necessarily).
- If we use an array for the PQ, enqueue takes $O(1)$ time but dequeue takes $O(n)$ time.
- If we use a sorted array for the PQ, enqueue takes $O(n)$ time, while dequeue takes $O(1)$ time.
- We can use a heap to implement a priority queue, so that enqueue and dequeue take $O(\log N)$ time.

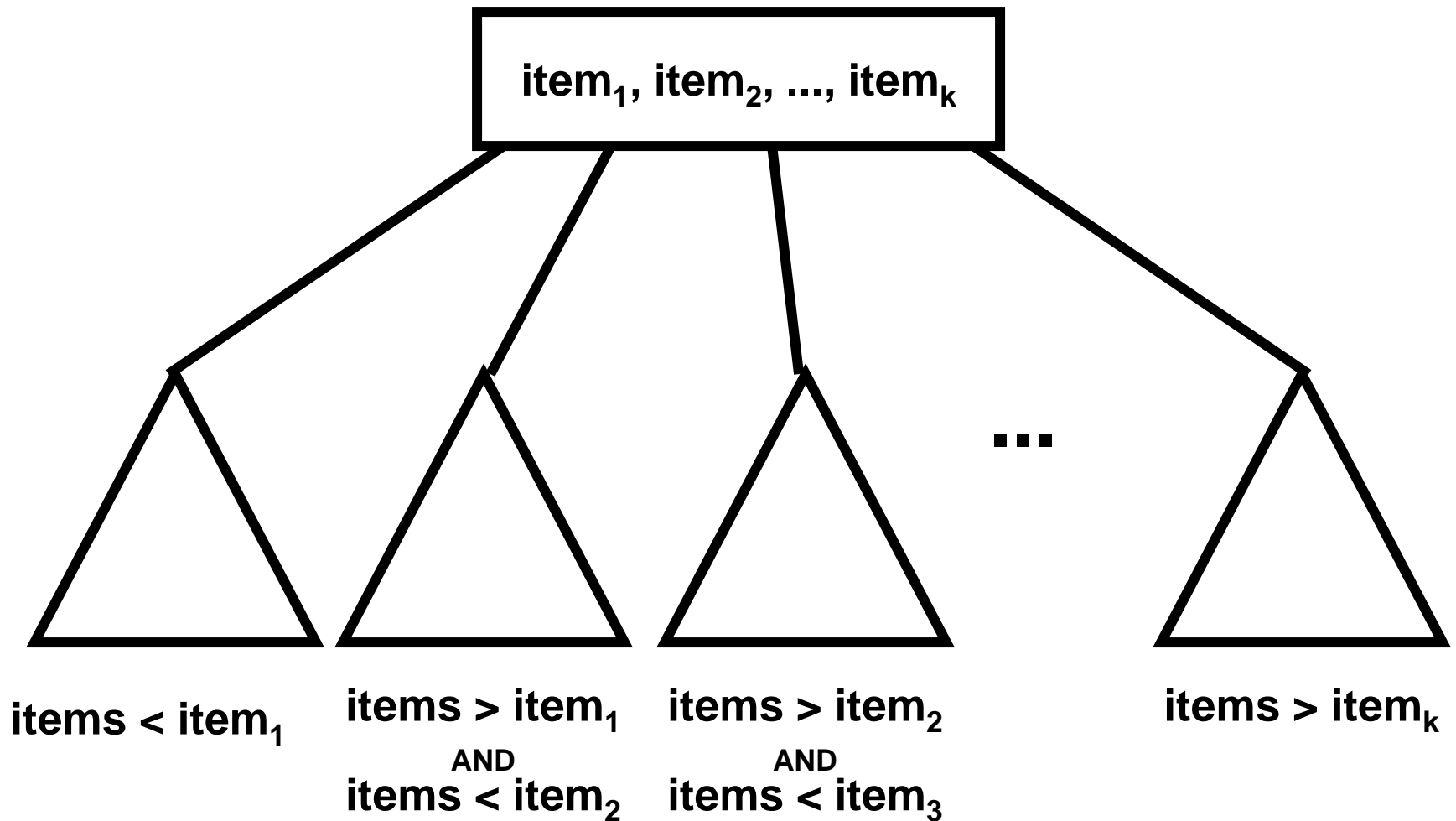
B-trees

- A B-tree is a balanced search tree.
- A B-tree is designed to work well on magnetic disks and other direct-access secondary storage devices by minimizing disk I/O operations.
- A node can hold more than one item.
- A node can have more than two children.

B-tree rules

- The root may have as few as one element. Every other node has at least MINIMUM elements.
- The maximum number of elements in a node is twice the value of MINIMUM.
- The elements of each B-tree node are stored in a partially filled array, sorted from the smallest element (in position 0) to the largest element.

General Idea

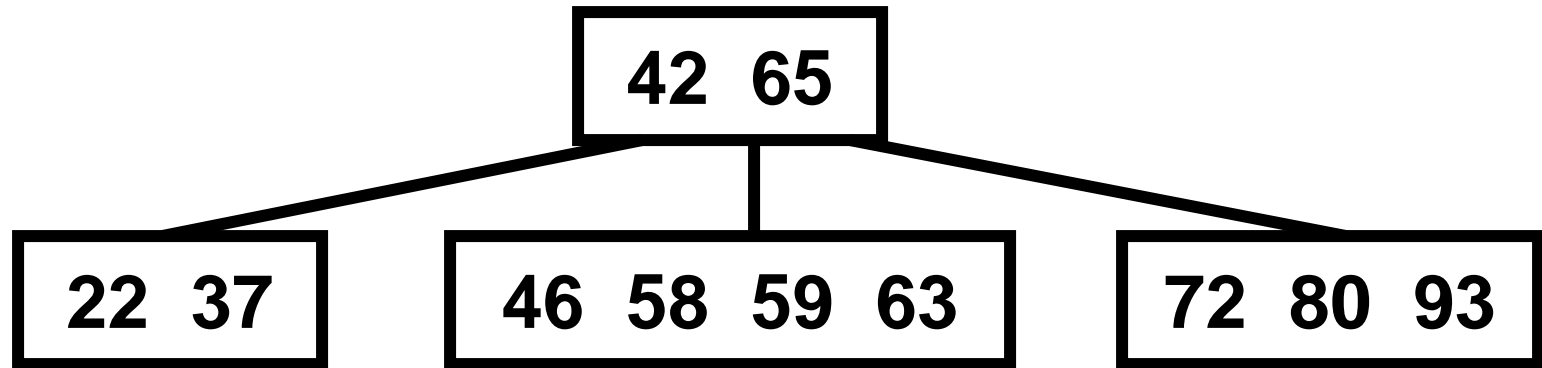


B-tree rules (cont'd)

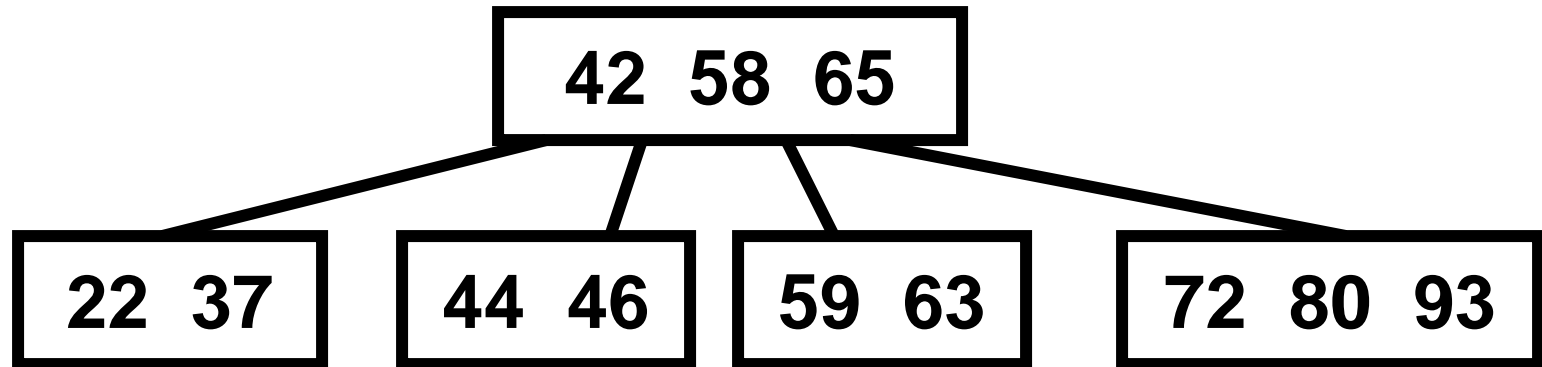
- The number of subtrees below a non-leaf node is always one more than the number of elements in the node.
- For any non-leaf node, an element at index i is
 - (a) greater than all the elements in subtree i of the node, and
 - (b) less than all the elements in subtree $i+1$ of the node
- Every leaf in a B-tree has the same depth.

Sample B-tree

MINIMUM = 2



Insert 44:



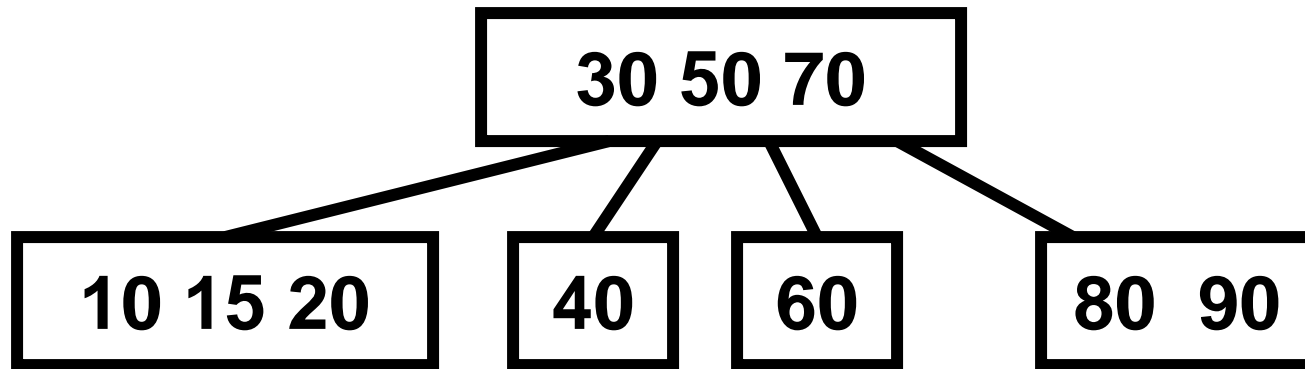
Searching in a B-tree

- Searching for an item in the current node:
 - Let k = number of data values in this node
 - Let i = the first index such that $\text{data}[i] \geq \text{item}$. (If every data value in the node is $< \text{item}$, set $i = k$.)
 - If $\text{item} = \text{data}[i]$, return true. (assume $i < k$)
 - Else if node has no children, return false
 - Else call search recursively on subtree[i]

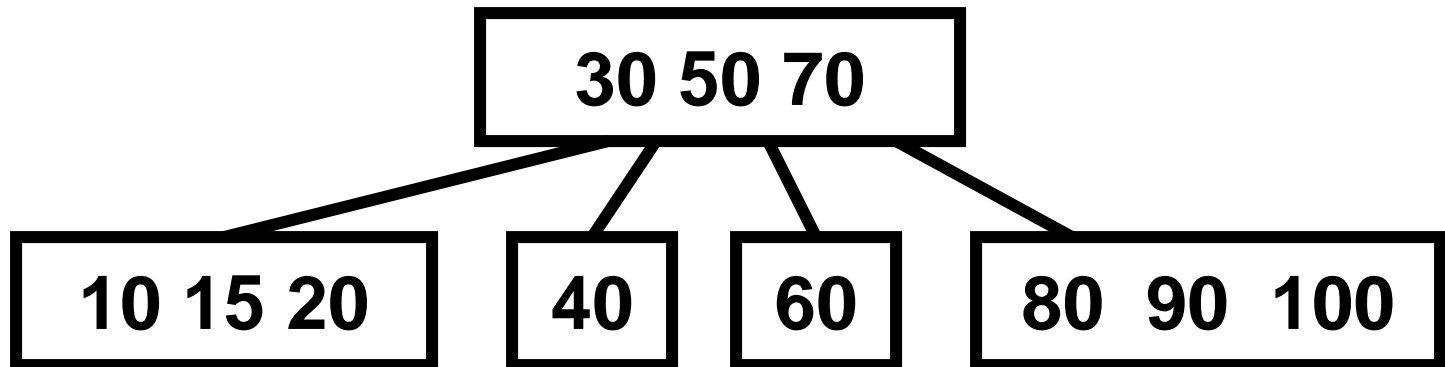
2-3-4-trees

- A 2-3-4 Tree is a tree in which each internal node (nonleaf) has two, three, or four children, and all leaves are at the same depth.

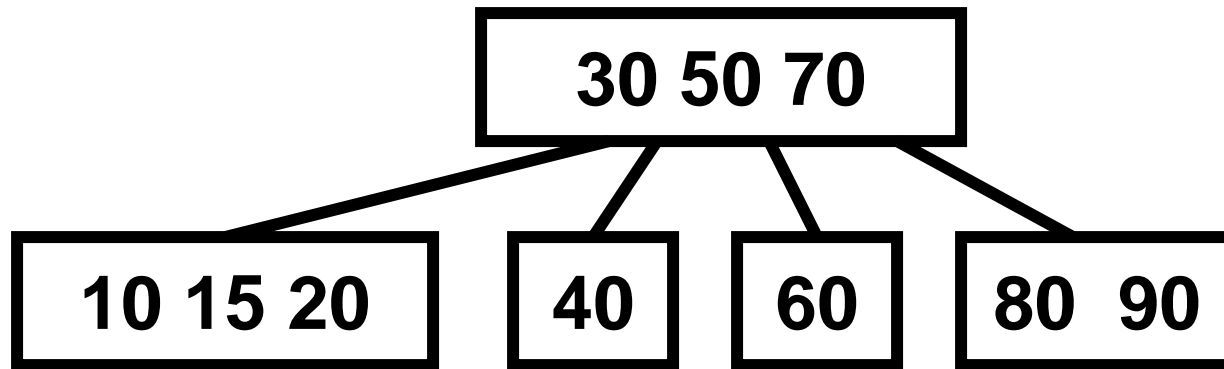
Sample 2-3-4-tree



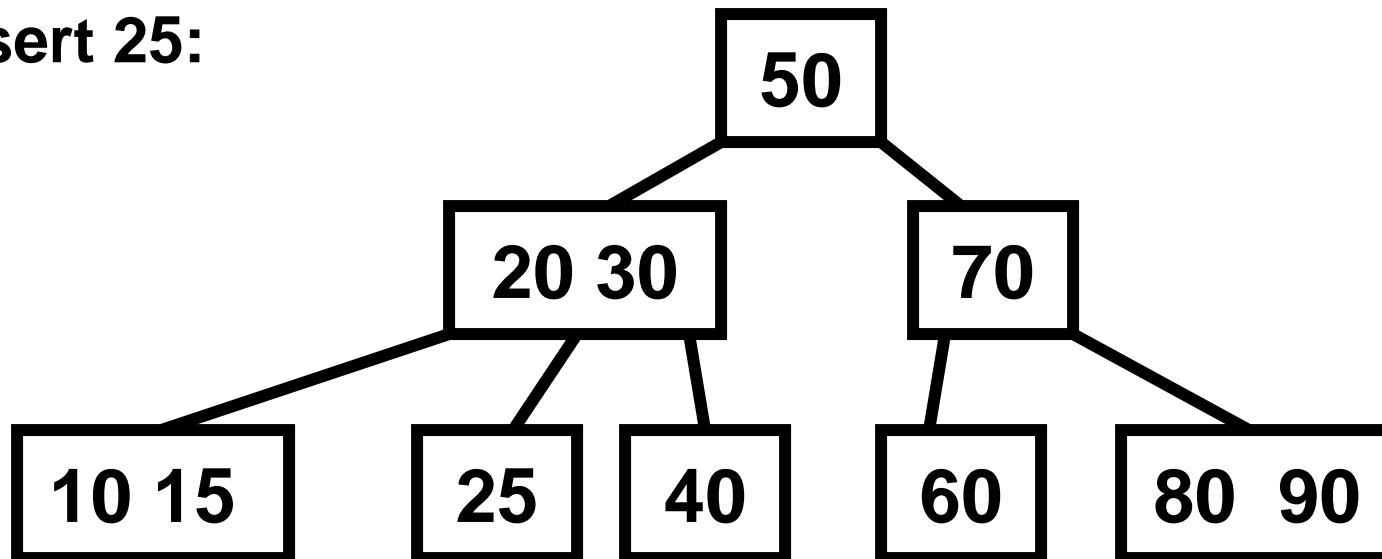
Insert 100:



Sample 2-3-4-tree



Insert 25:



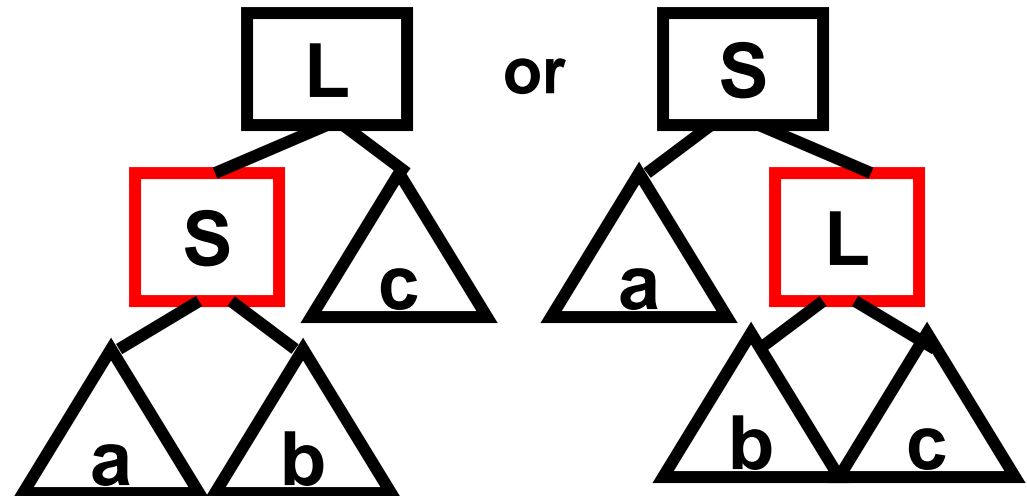
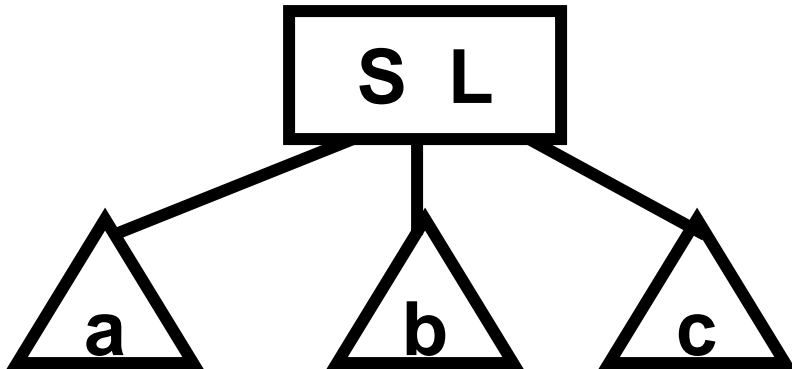
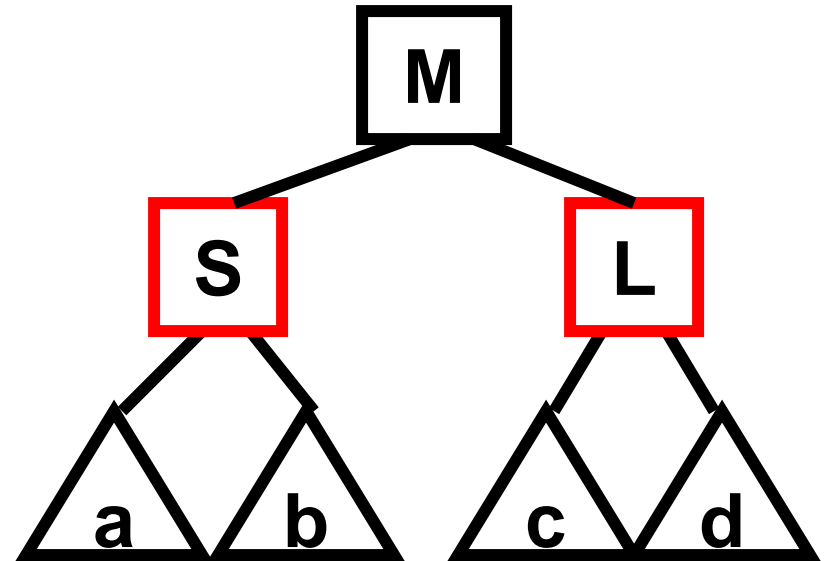
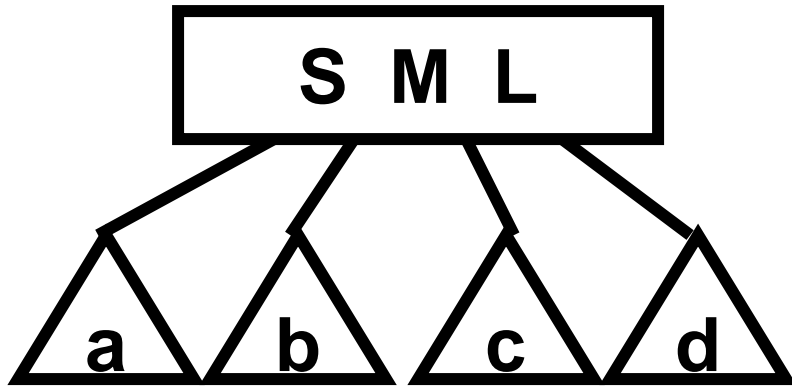
2-3-4 trees vs. B-trees

- The more data values in a node, the shorter the tree will be, which translates into less searches for an item.
- However, the more data in a node, the greater the number of comparisons to determine the subtree to examine.
- 2-3-4 trees good for trees in main memory.
- B-trees good for external memory searches.

Red-Black Trees

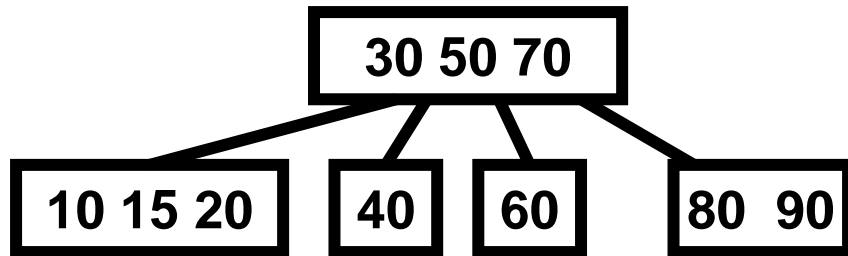
- A red-black tree has the advantages of a 2-3-4 tree but requires less storage.
- Red-black tree rules:
 - Every node is colored either red or black.
 - The root is black.
 - If a node is red, its children must be black.
 - Every path from a node to a null link must contain the same number of black nodes.

Red-Black Trees

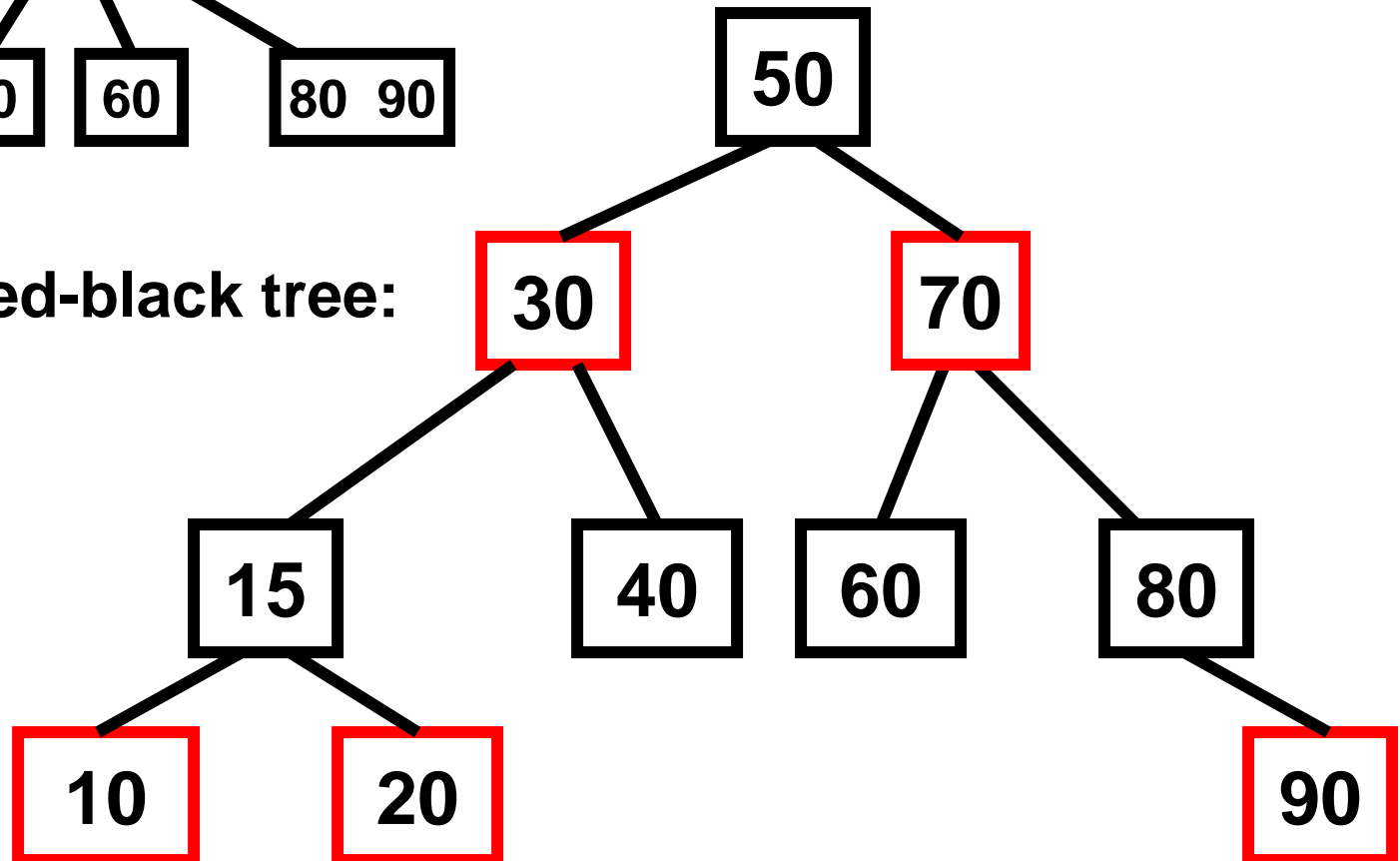


Sample Red-Black Tree

Original 2-3-4 tree:

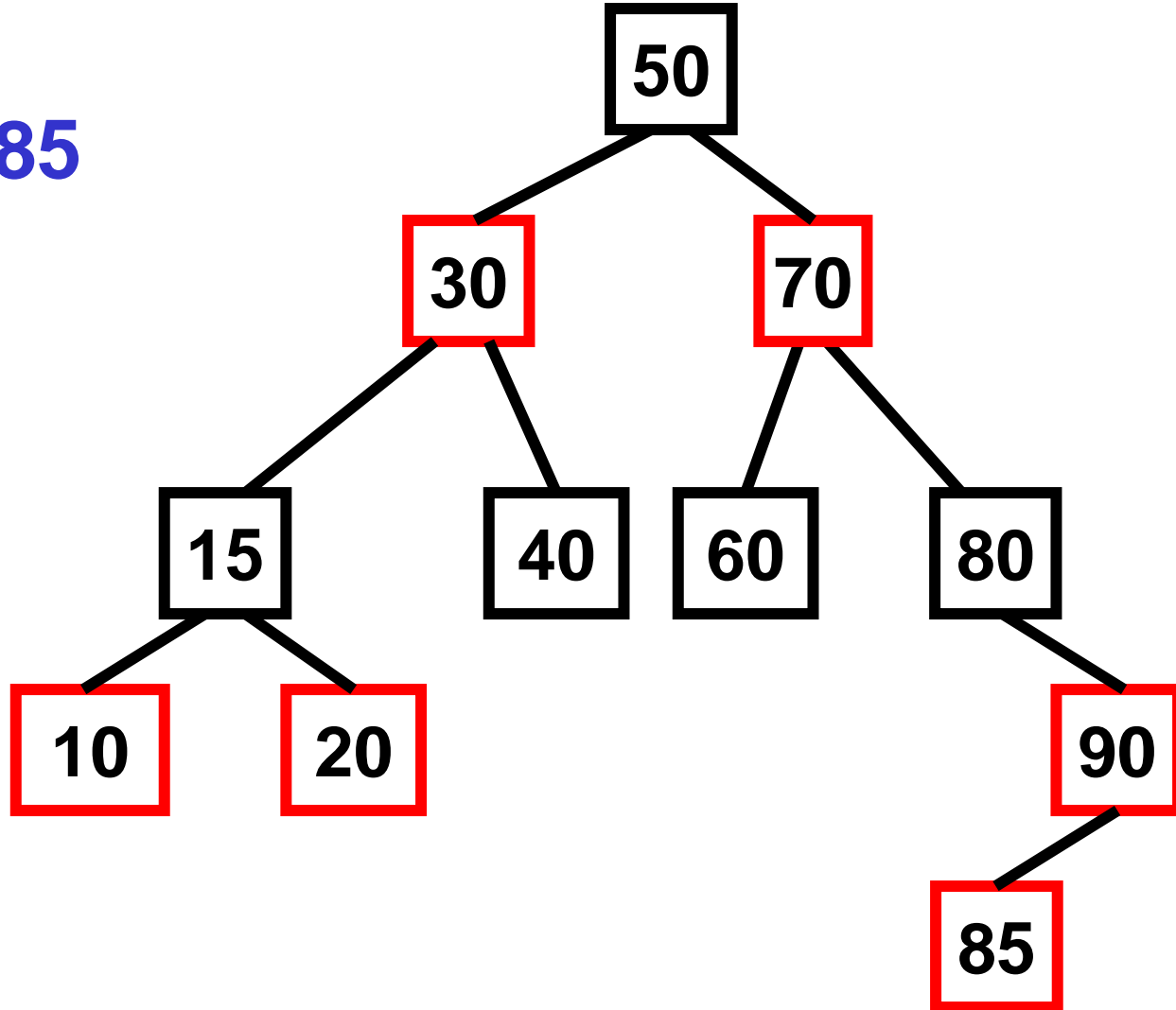


Equivalent red-black tree:



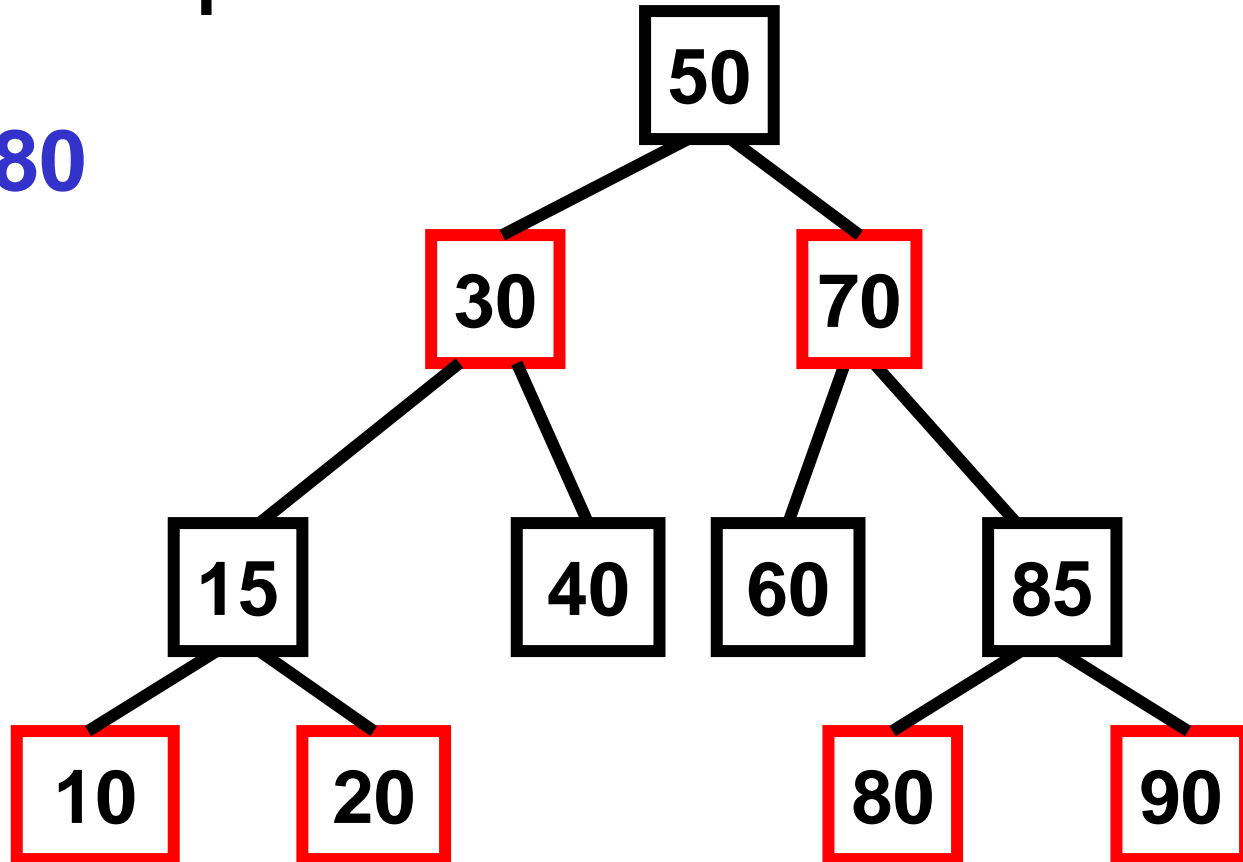
Insert in Red-Black Tree

Insert 85



Sample Red-Black Tree

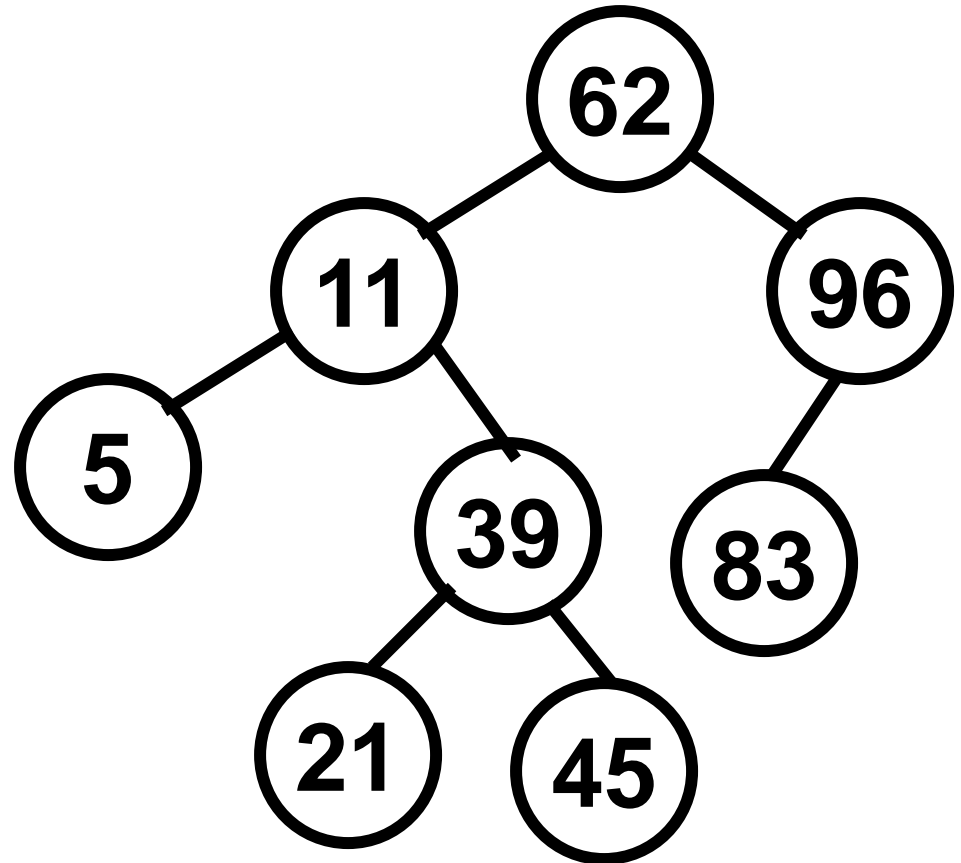
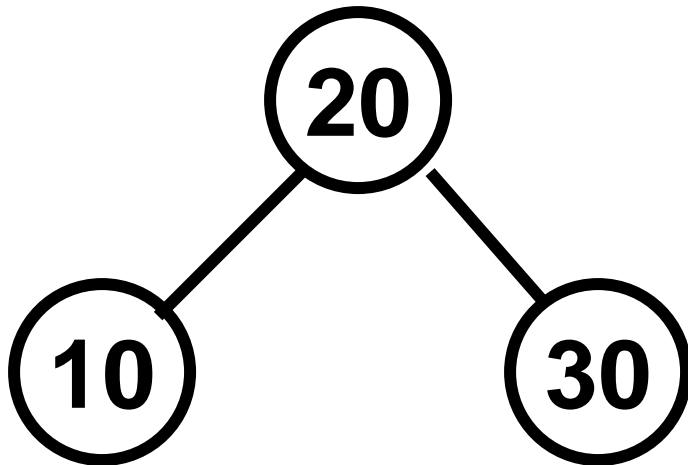
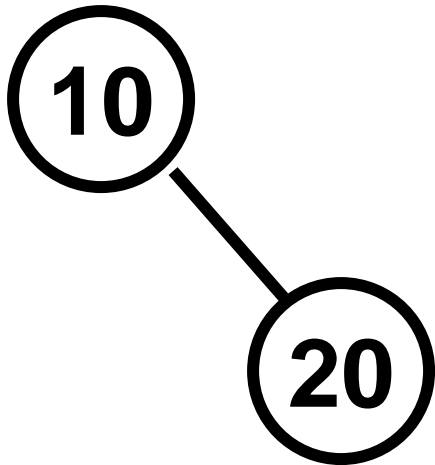
Insert 80



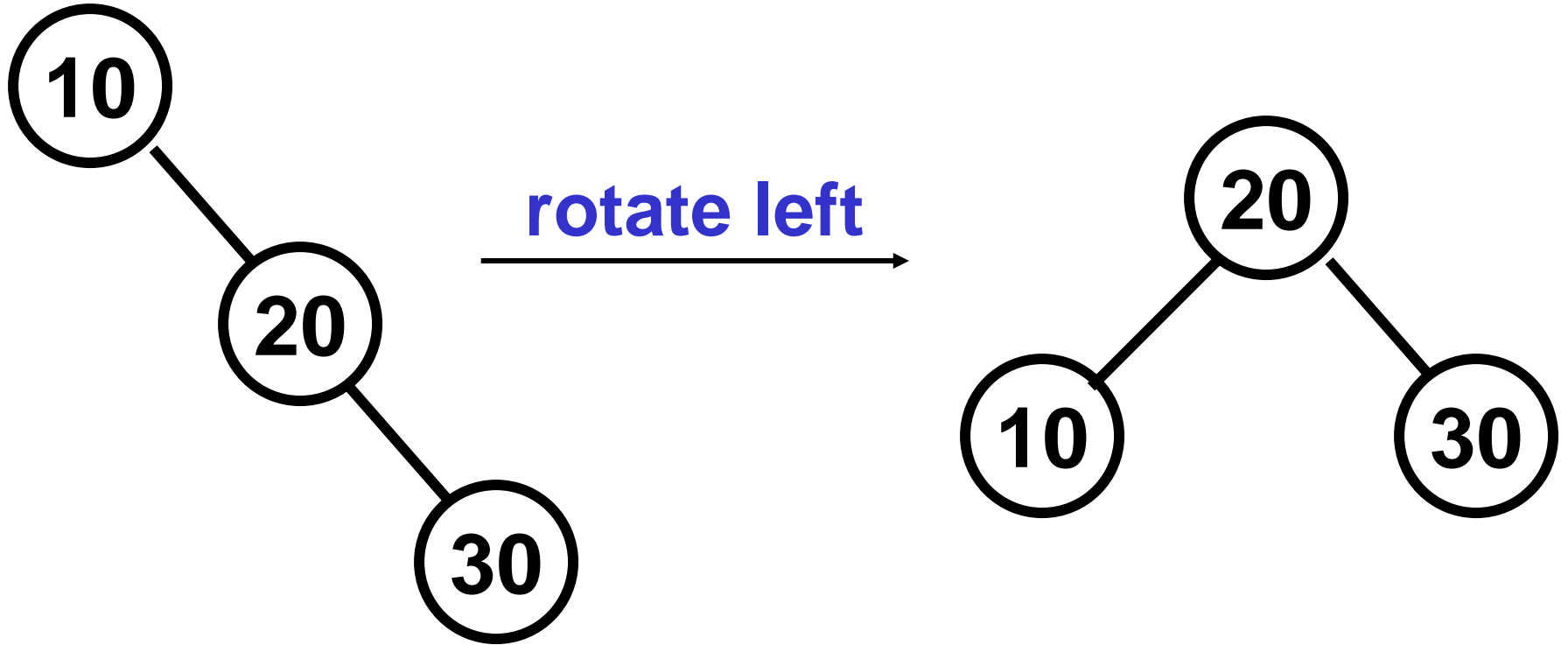
AVL Trees

- An AVL tree is a **balanced** binary search tree.(AVL comes from the inventors: Adelson, Velski, and Landis)
- The main idea is to maintain that for every node, and its subtrees. Depths differ by no more than 1.
- If the property above is violated, the tree is “rotated” to maintain its balance.
- The depth of an AVL tree with n nodes is $O(\log n)$

AVL Examples

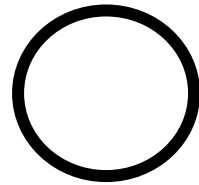


AVL Example



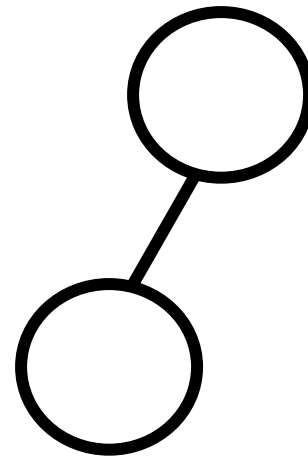
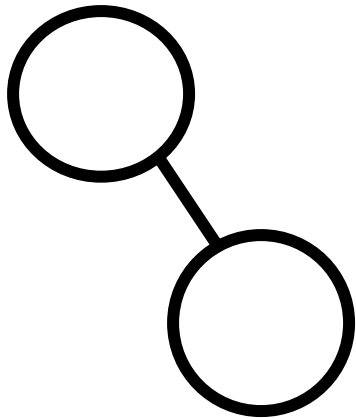
Counting Binary Trees

for $n=1$, $\text{count}=1$



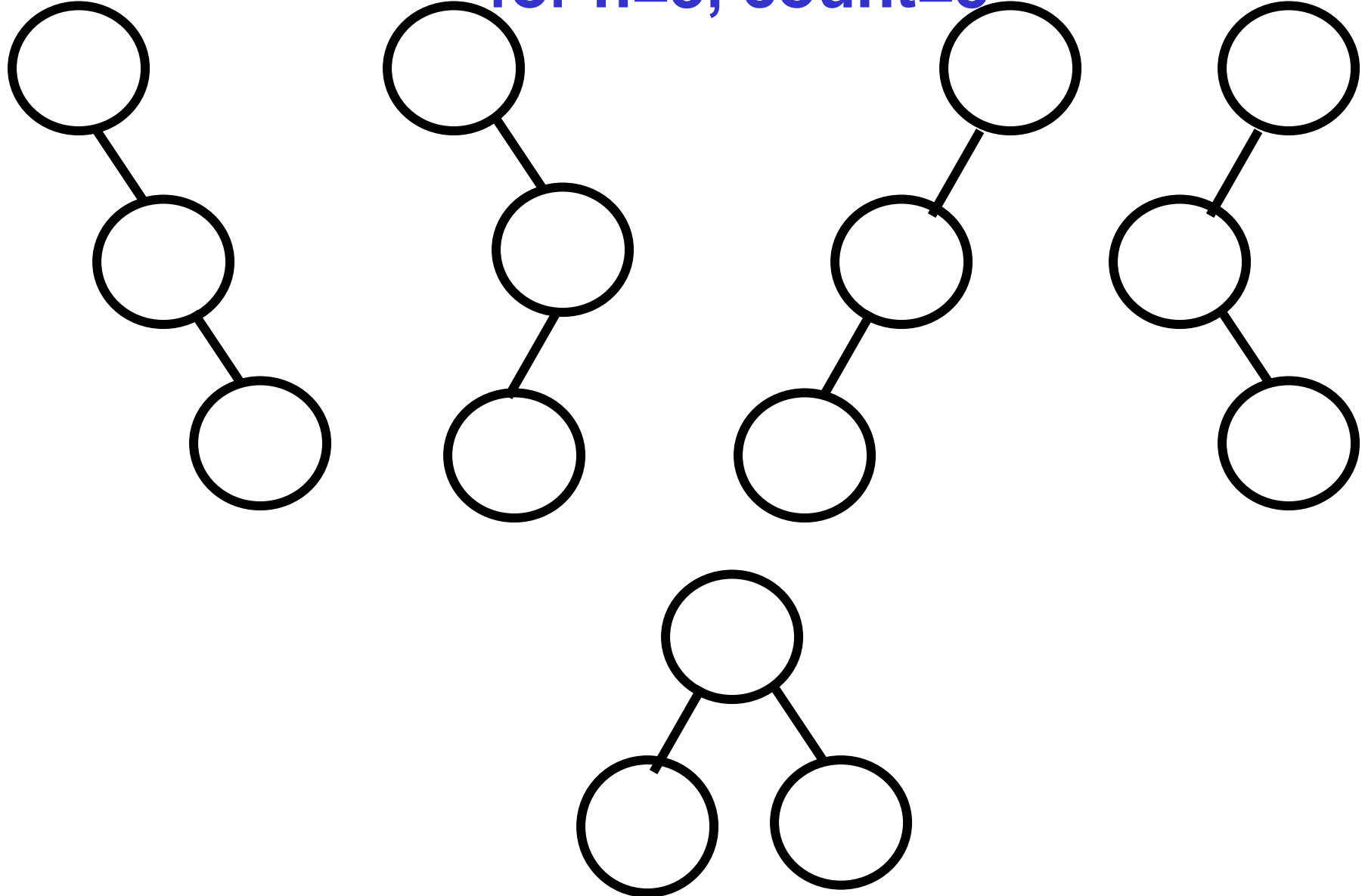
Counting Binary Trees(cont'd)

for $n=2$, count=2



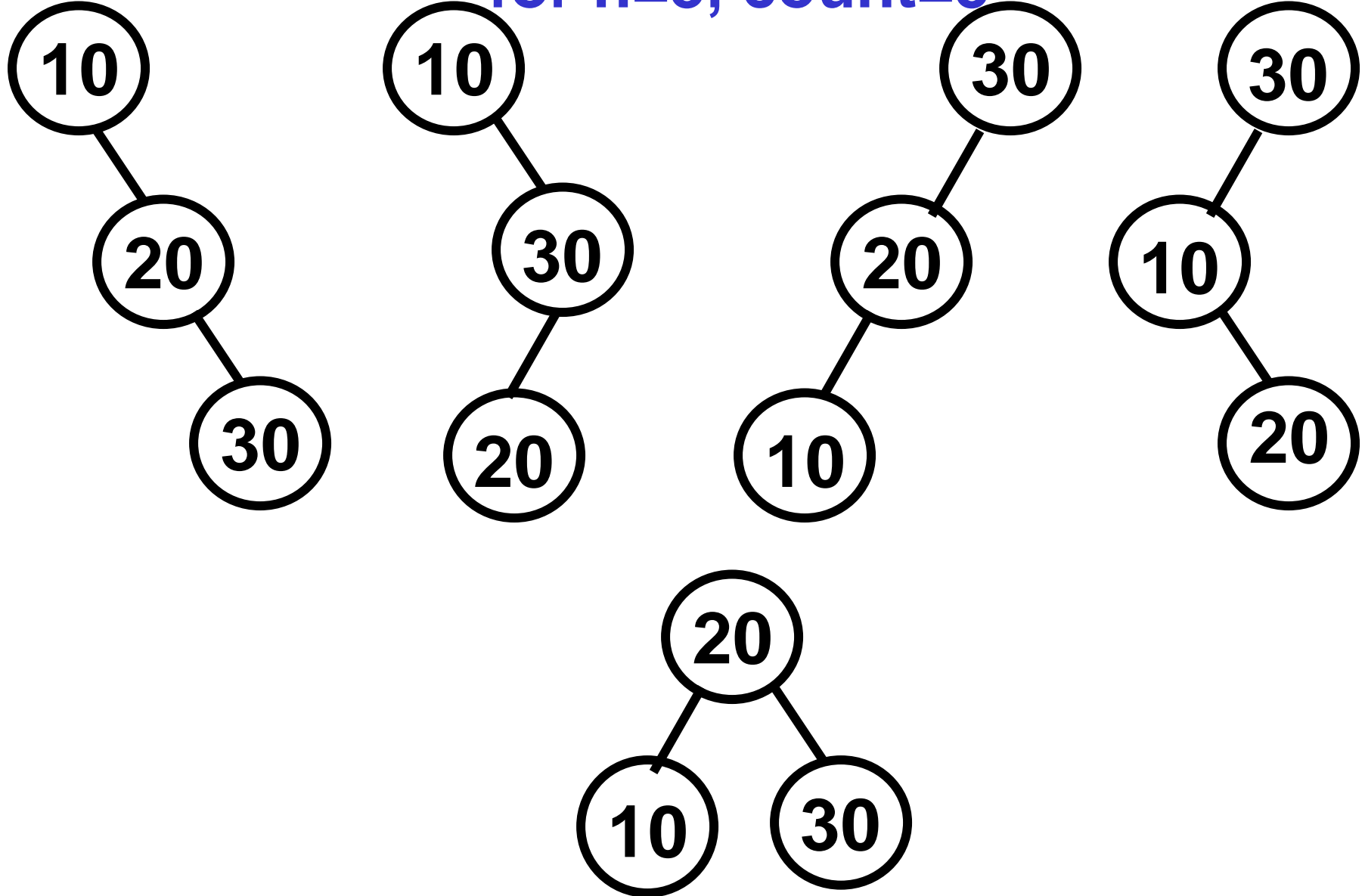
Counting Binary Trees (cont'd)

for $n=3$, $\text{count}=5$



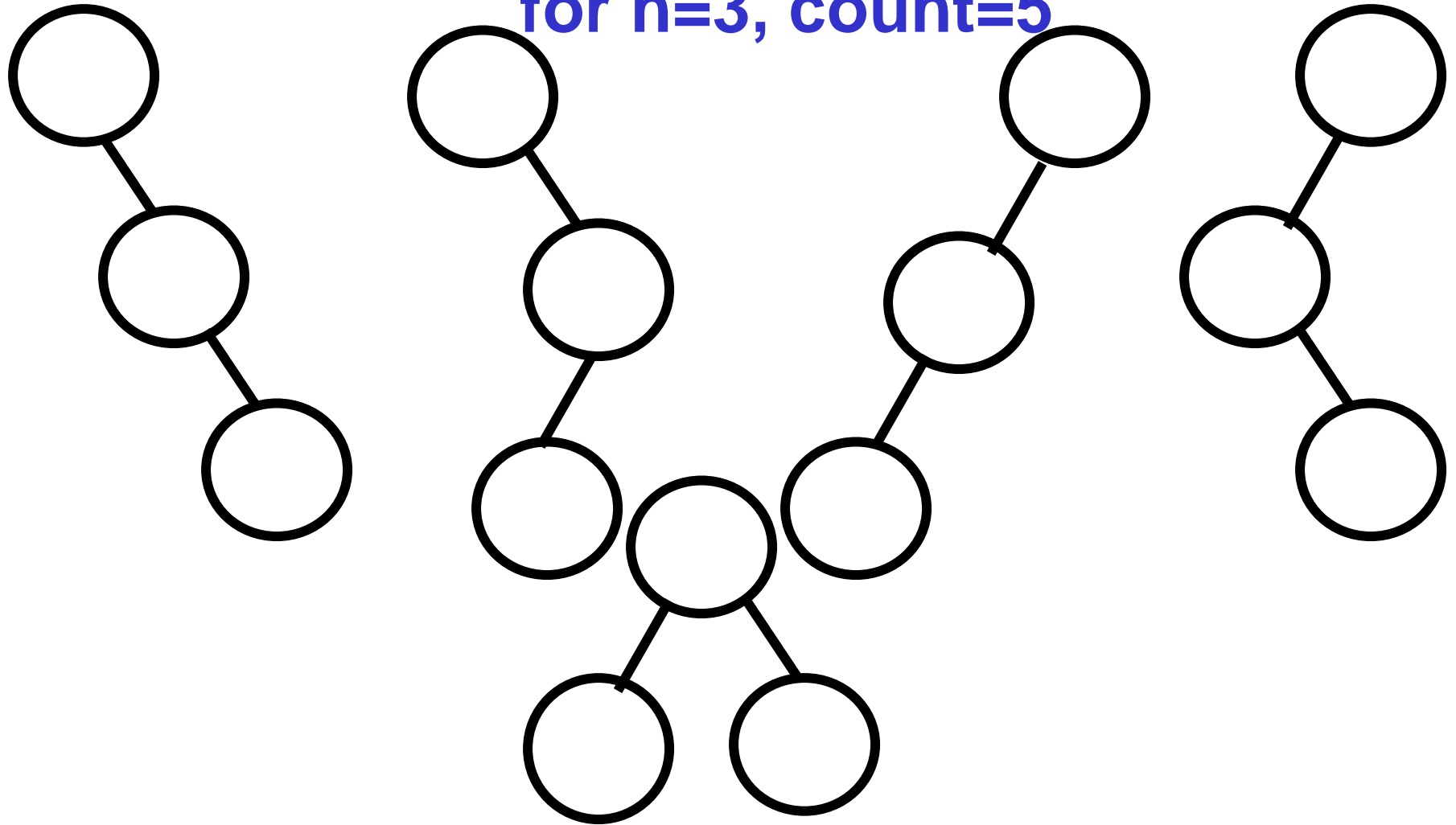
Counting Binary Trees (cont'd)

for $n=3$, $\text{count}=5$



Counting Binary Trees (cont'd)

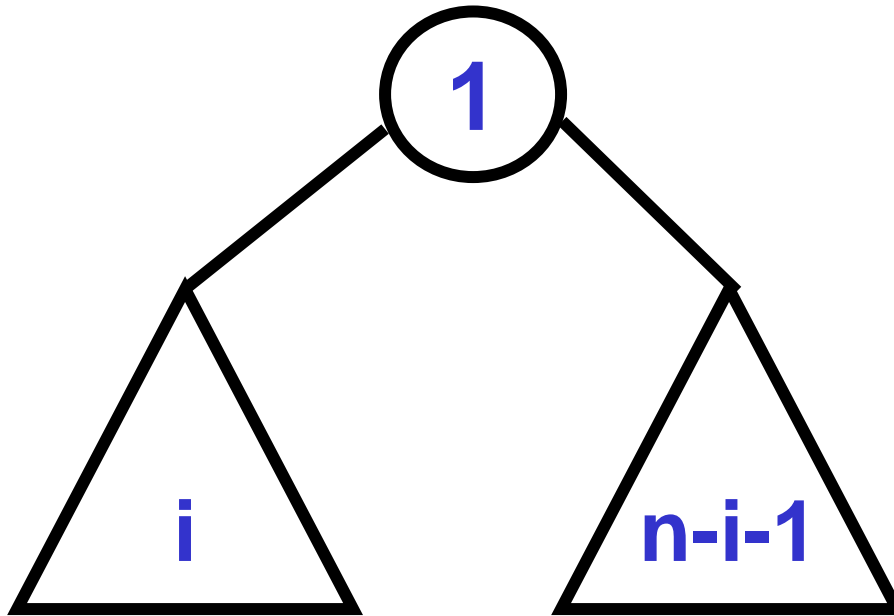
for $n=3$, count=5



$$b_3 = b_0 * b_2 + b_1 * b_1 + b_2 * b_0 = 1*2 + 1*1 + 2*1 = 5$$

Counting Binary Trees (cont'd)

General Form



$$b_n = b_0 * b_{n-i-1} + b_1 * b_{n-i-2} + \dots + b_{n-i-1} * b_0$$