



BITS Pilani
Pilani Campus

Data Structures & Algorithms

Design- SS ZG519

Lecture - 12

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Lecture 12 Topics

- AVL Trees
- Dynamic Programming
- Greedy Algorithms



- **AVL (Adelson-Velski & Landis) Trees**

Balanced Binary Search Tree



- Worst case height of binary search tree: $N-1$
 - Insertion, deletion can be $O(N)$ in the worst case
- We want a tree with small height
- Height of a binary tree with N node is at least $\Theta(\log N)$
- Goal: keep the height of a binary search tree $O(\log N)$
- Balanced binary search trees
 - Examples: AVL tree, red-black tree

AVL Tree



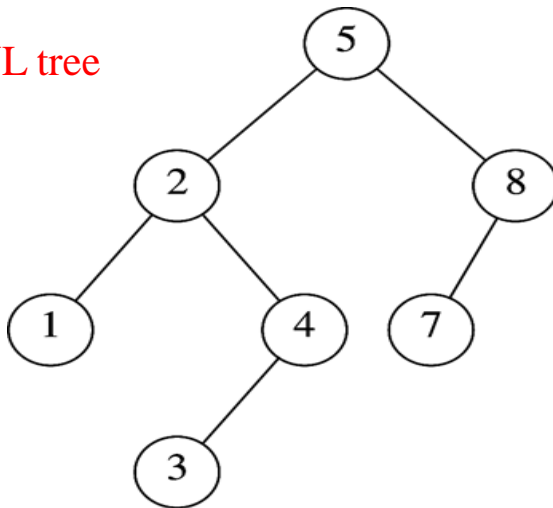
An AVL tree is a binary search tree in which

- for *every* node in the tree, the height of the left and right subtree differ by at most 1.

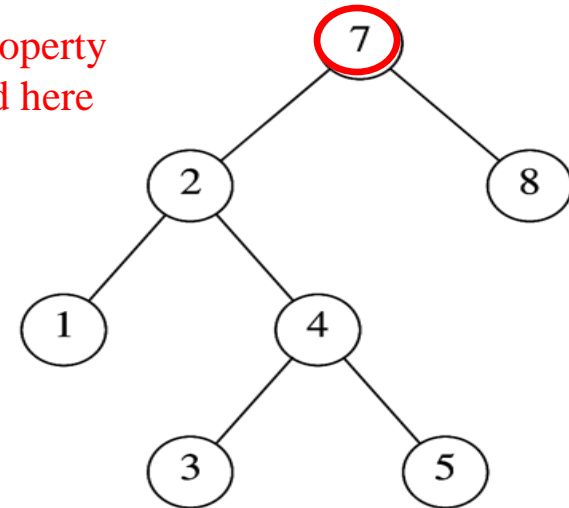
Height of subtree: **Max # of edges to a leaf**

Height of an empty subtree: -1

AVL tree



AVL property violated here



Balance Property



Balance property

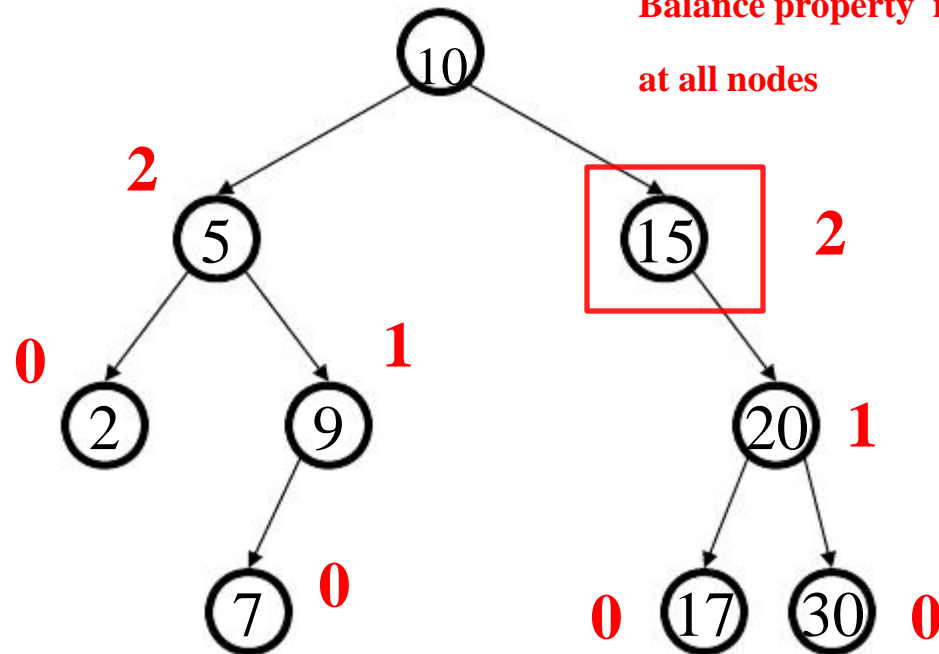
$b = \text{height}(\text{left subtree}) - \text{height}(\text{right subtree})$

– balance of every node is: $-1 \leq b \leq 1$

– depth is $\theta(\log n)$

Not balanced!

Balance property must hold
at all nodes

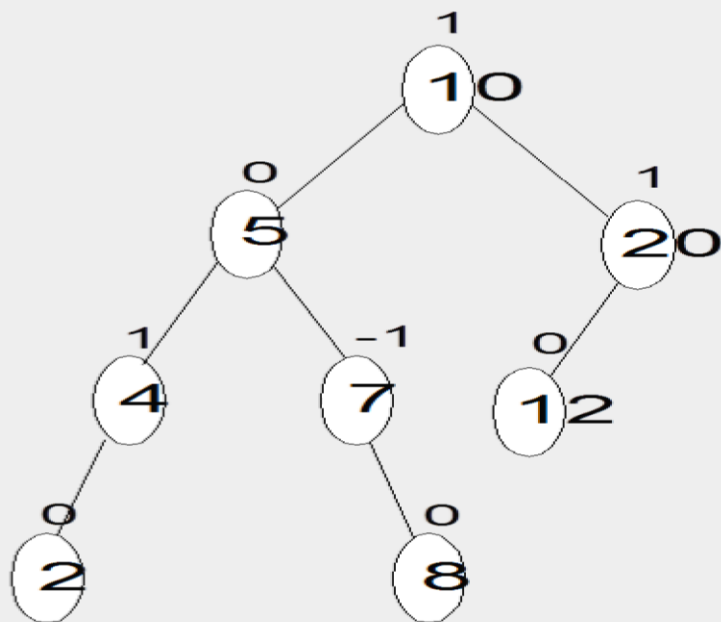


Balanced Trees: AVL Trees

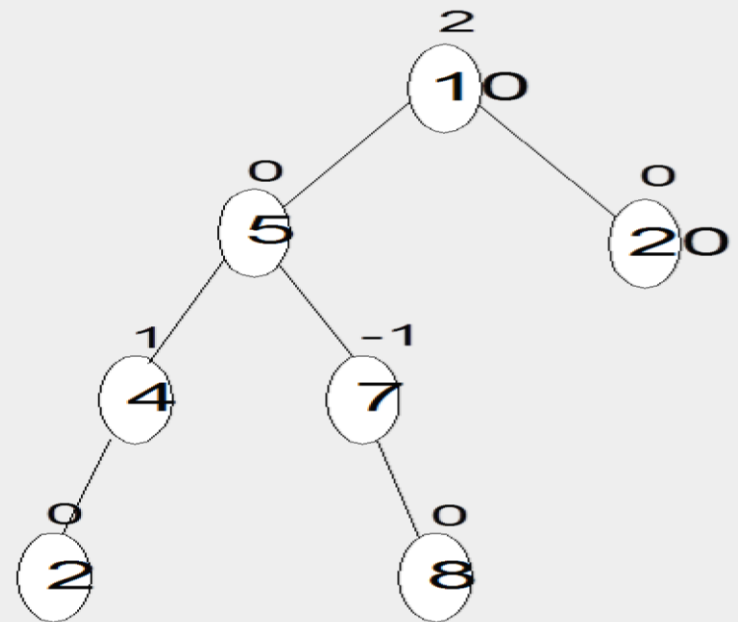


An *AVL tree* is a binary search tree in which, for every node, the difference between the heights of its left and right subtrees, called the *balance factor*, is at most 1 (with the height of an empty tree defined as -1)
the *balance factor*, is at most 1 (with the height of an empty tree defined as -1)

Balanced Trees: AVL Trees



(a)



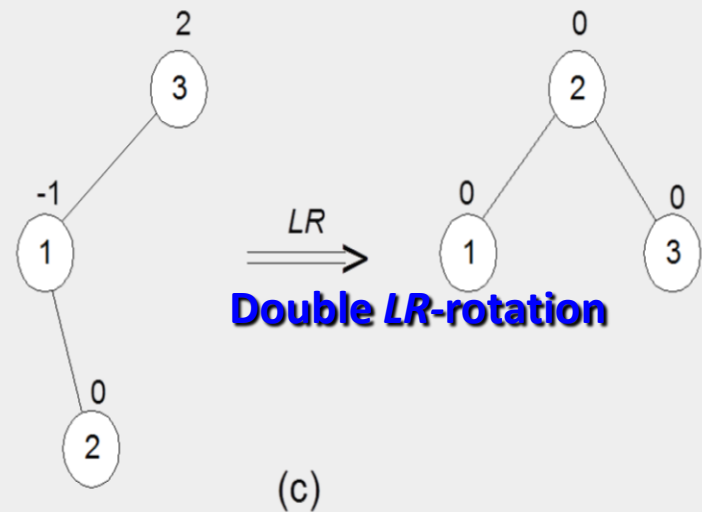
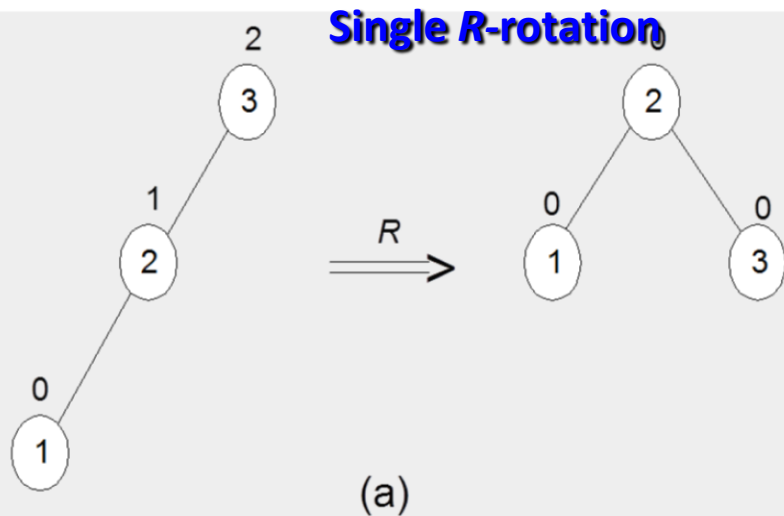
(b)

Tree (a) is an AVL tree; tree (b) is not an AVL tree

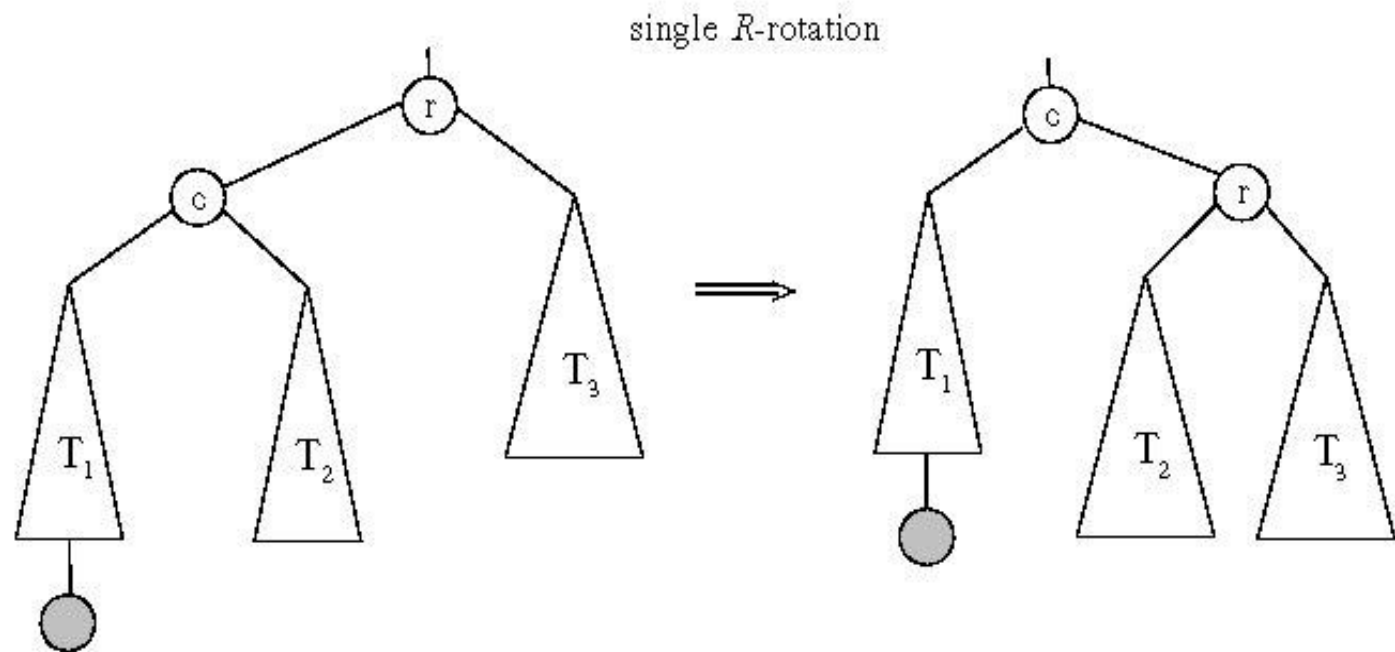
Rotations



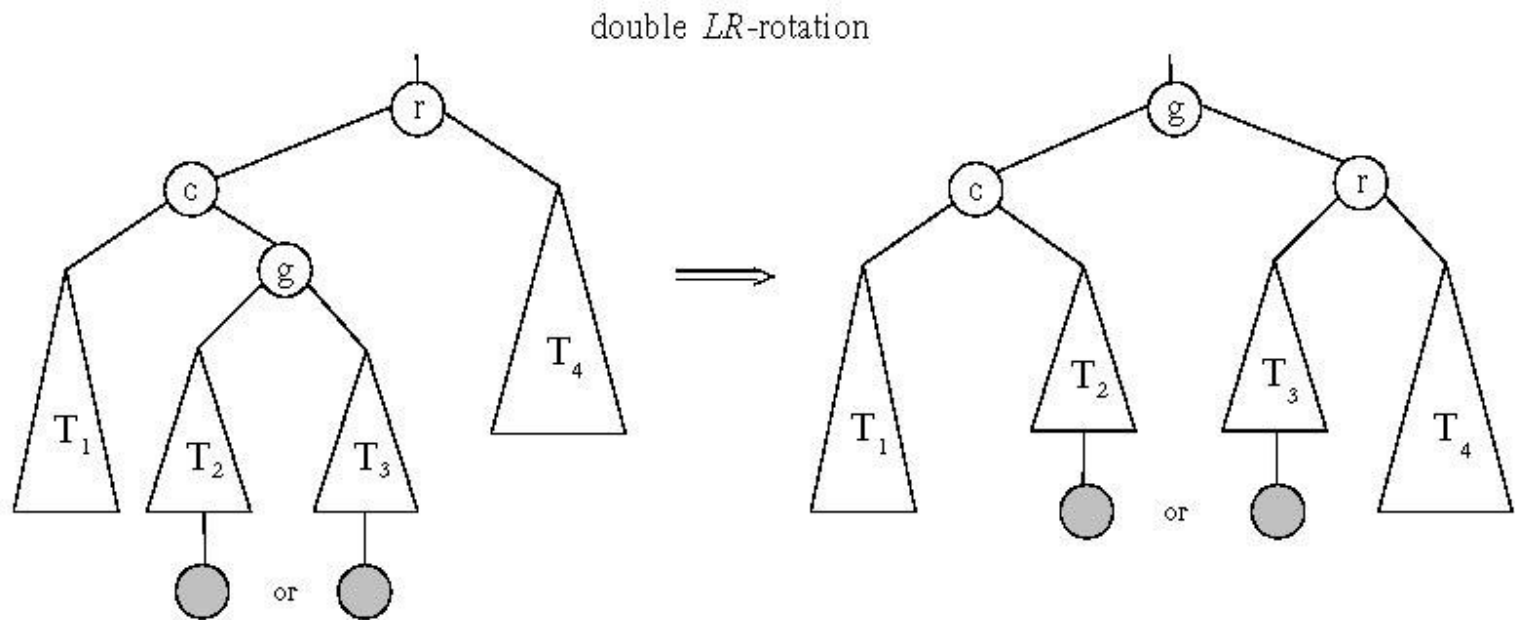
If a key insertion violates the balance requirement at some node, the subtree rooted at that node is transformed via one of the four *rotations*. (The rotation is always performed for a subtree rooted at an “unbalanced” node closest to the new leaf.)



General case: Single R-rotation



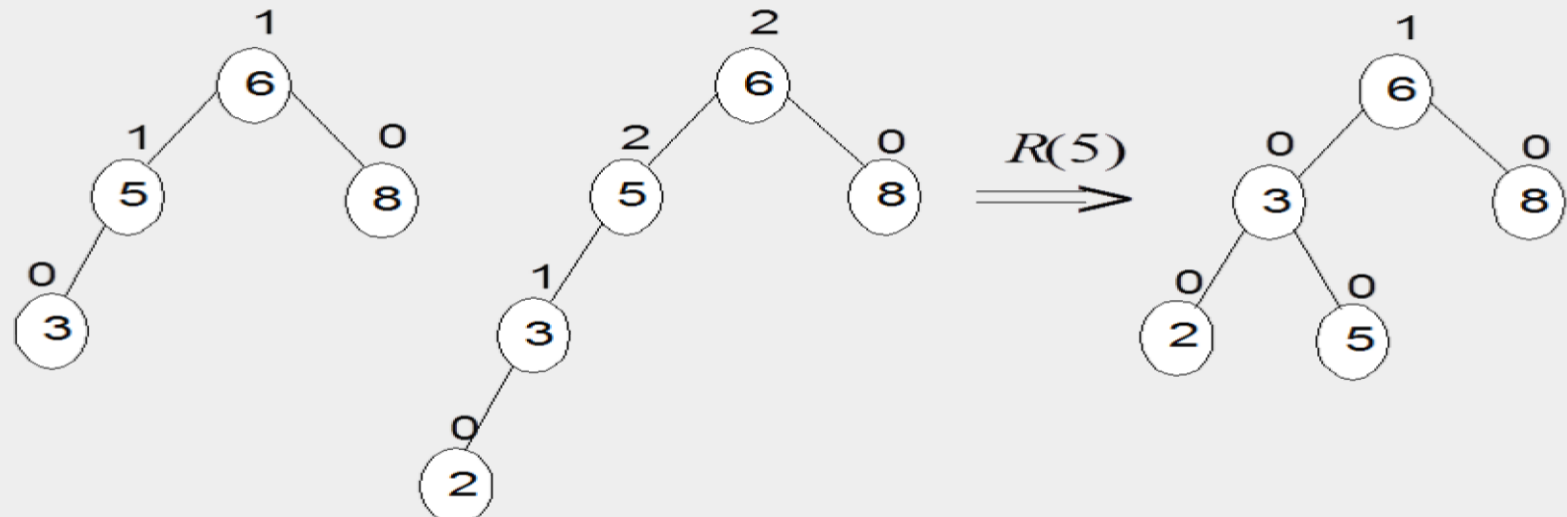
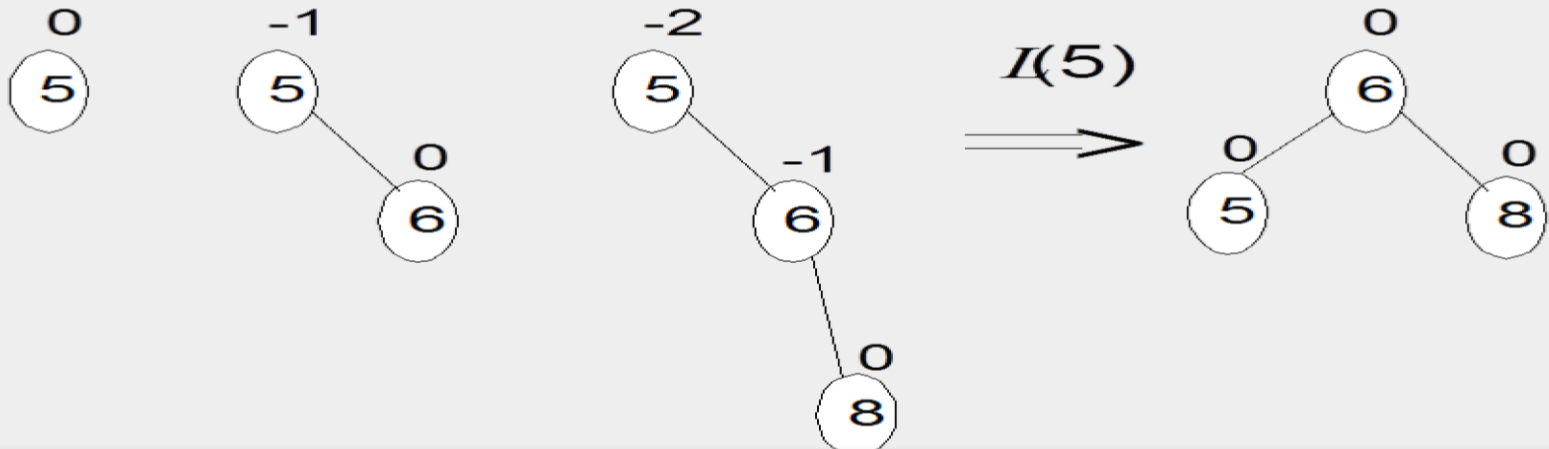
General case: Double LR-rotation



AVL tree construction - an

example

Construct an AVL tree for the list 5, 6, 8, 3, 2, 4.

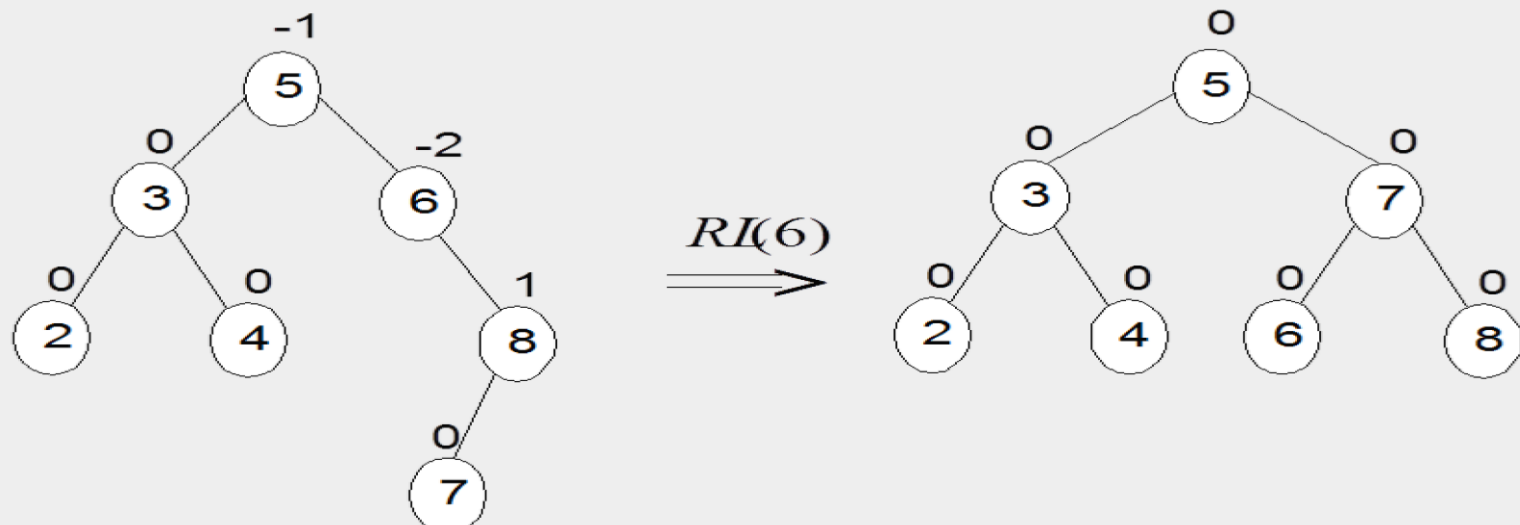
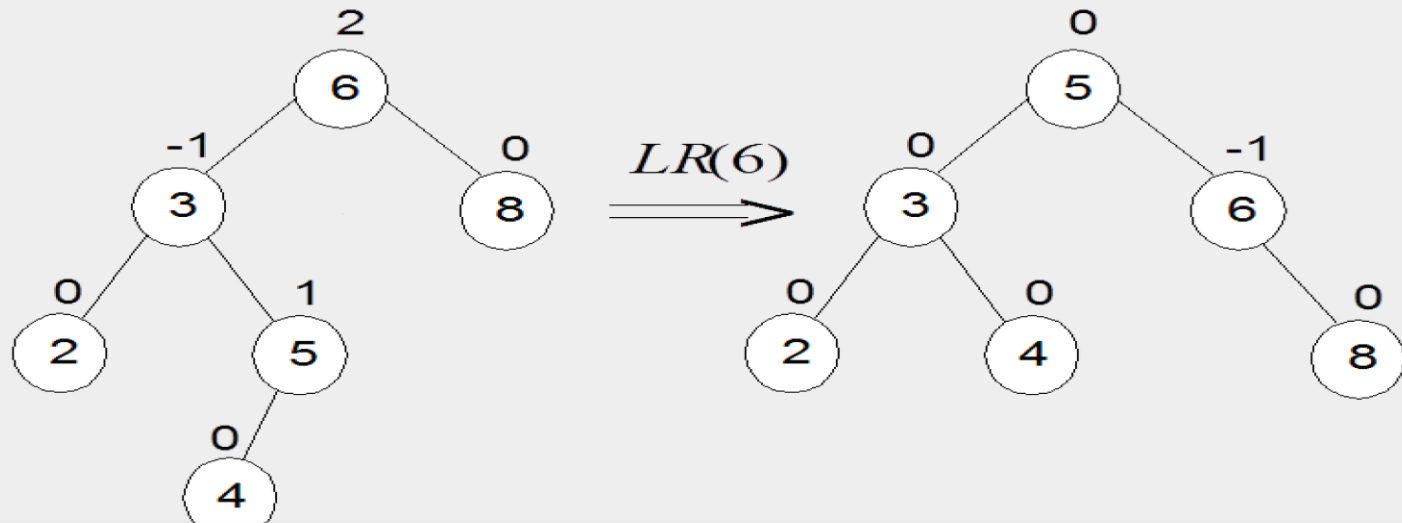


AVL tree construction - an example (cont.)

innovate

achieve

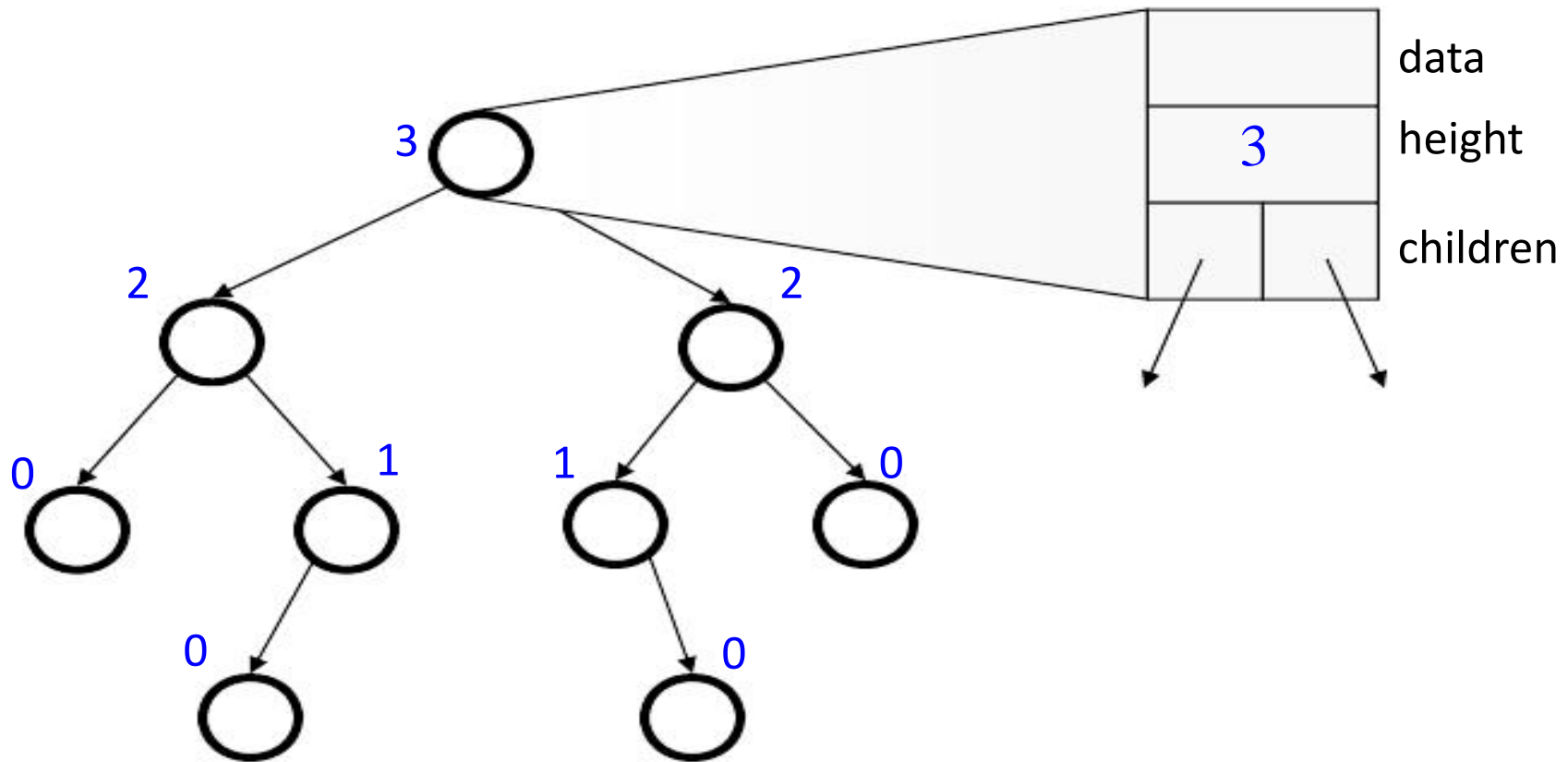
lead



Analysis of AVL trees

- $h \leq 1.4404 \log_2 (n + 2) - 1.3277$
average height: $1.01 \log_2 n + 0.1$ for large n (found empirically)
- Search and insertion are $O(\log n)$
- Deletion is more complicated but is also $O(\log n)$
- Disadvantages:
 - frequent rotations
 - complexity
- A similar idea: *red-black trees* (height of subtrees is allowed to differ by up to a factor of 2)

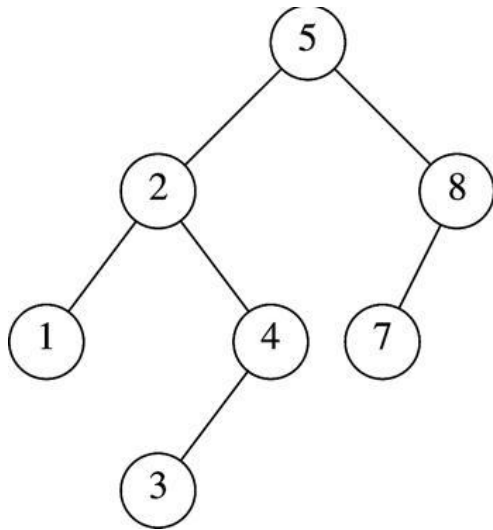
An AVL Tree



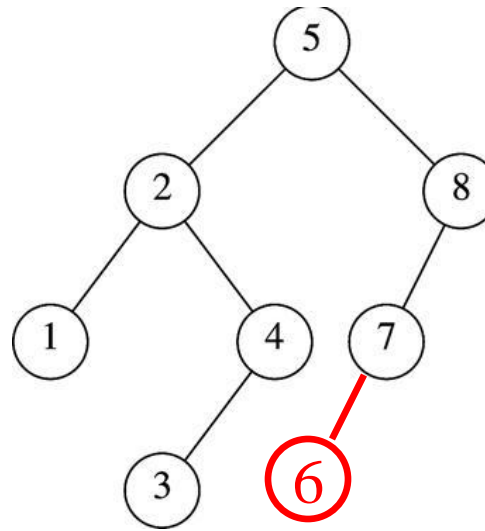
AVL Tree - Insertion



- Basically follows insertion strategy of binary search tree
 - But may cause violation of AVL tree property
- Restore the destroyed balance condition if needed

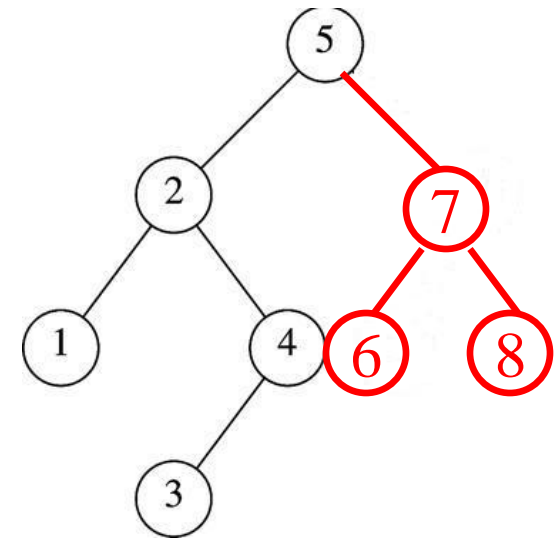


Original AVL tree



Insert 6

Property violated



Restore AVL property

AVL Tree - Insertion



Denote the **node** that must be rebalanced as α

- **Case 1: an insertion into the left subtree of the left child of α**
- **Case 2: an insertion into the right subtree of the left child of α**
- **Case 3: an insertion into the left subtree of the right child of α**
- **Case 4: an insertion into the right subtree of the right child of α**

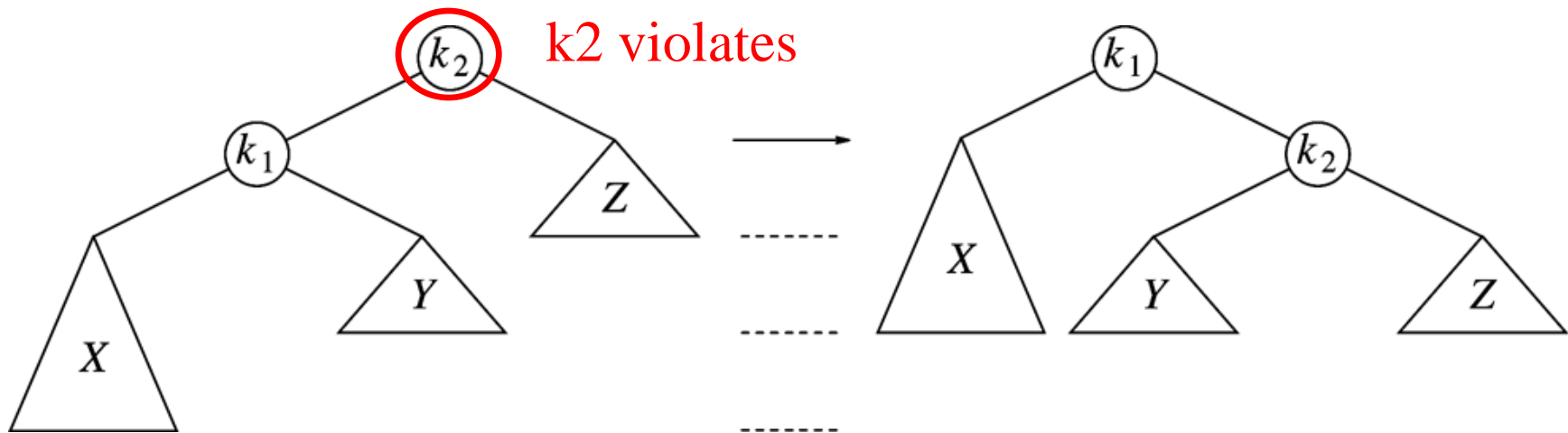
Cases 1&4 are mirror image symmetries with respect to α ,
as are cases 2&3

AVL Tree - Insertion



- Rebalance of AVL tree are done with simple modification to tree, known as **rotation**
- Insertion occurs on the “outside” (i.e., **left-left or right-right**) is fixed by **single rotation** of the tree
- Insertion occurs on the “inside” (i.e., **left-right or right-left**) is fixed by **double rotation** of the tree

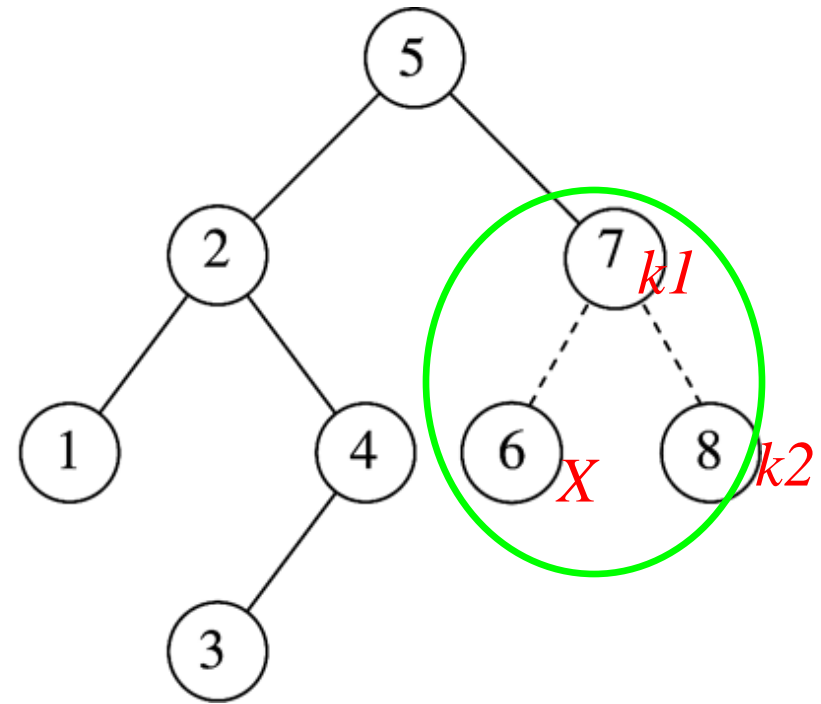
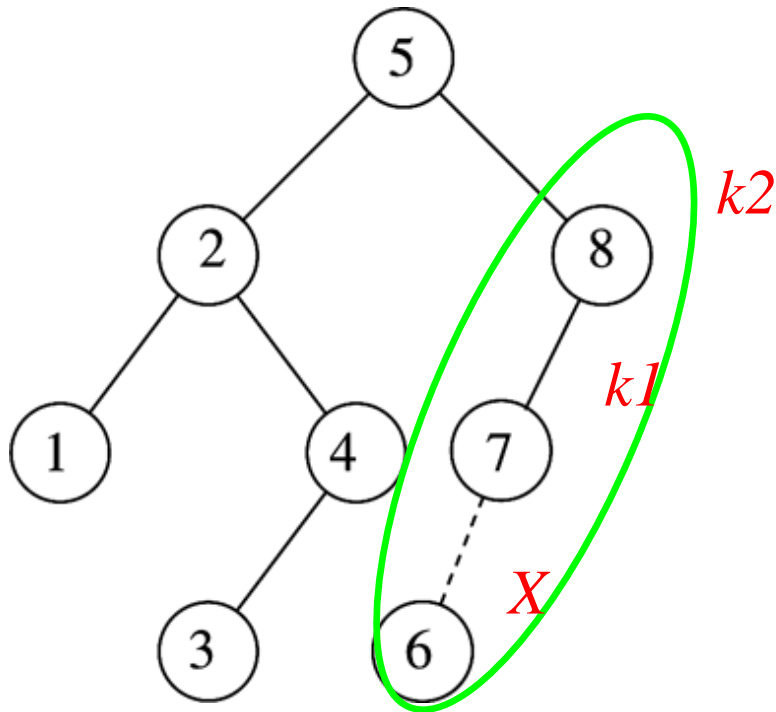
Single Rotation to Fix Case 1(left-left)



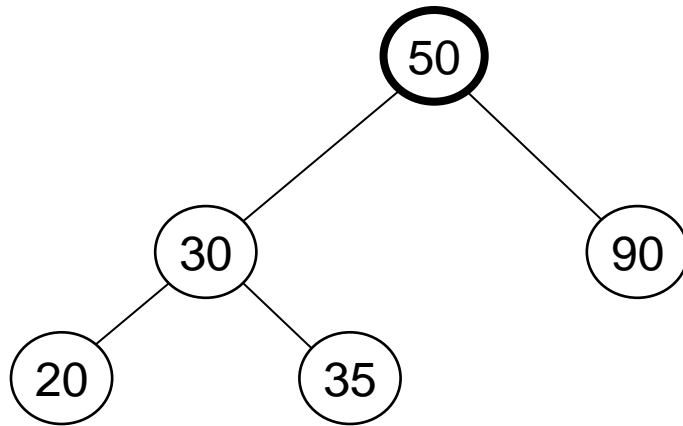
An insertion in subtree X,
AVL property violated at node k_2

Solution: single rotation

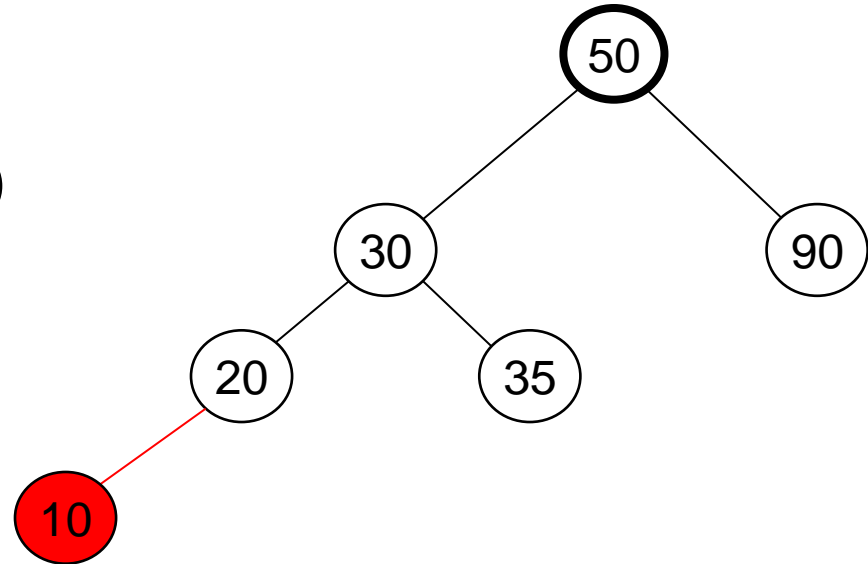
Single Rotation Case 1 Example



Single Rotation Case 1 Example



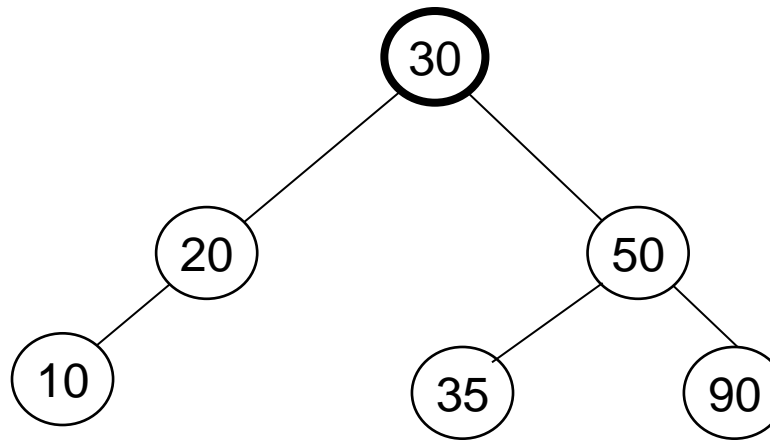
If node 10 is inserted we get



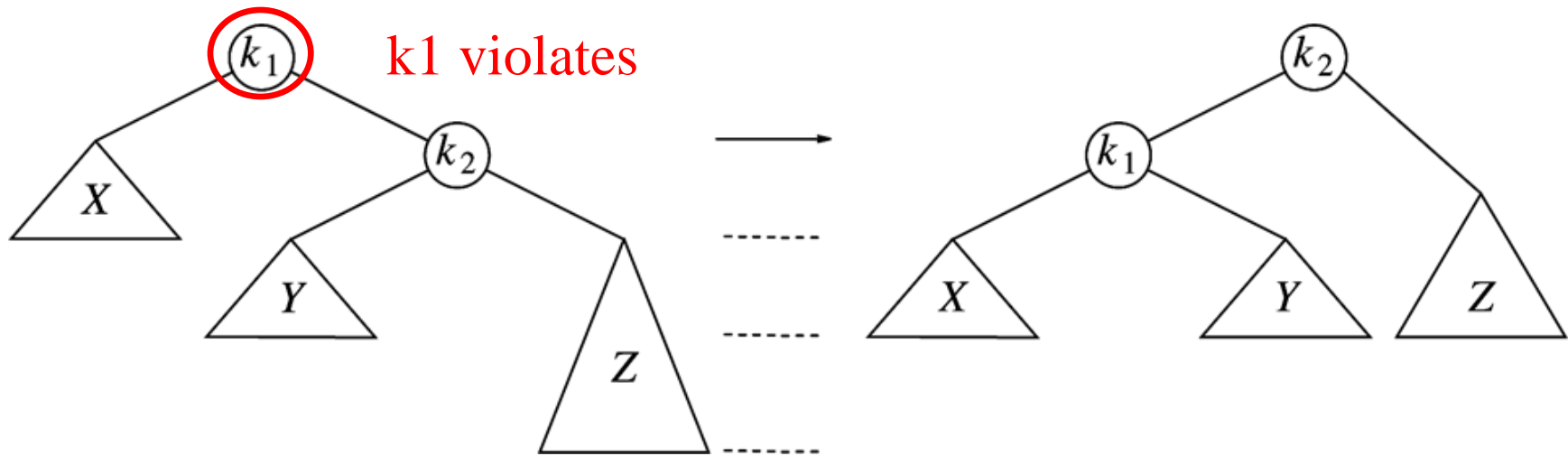
Single Rotation Case 1 Example



After LL Rotation

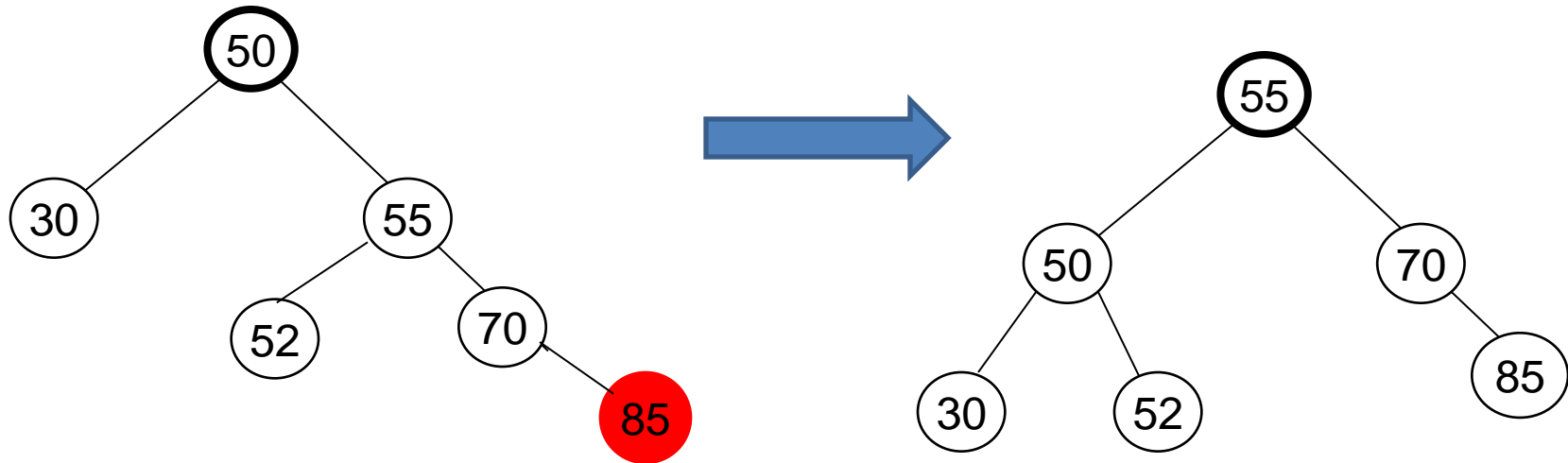


Single Rotation to Fix Case 4 (right-right)



An insertion in subtree Z

Single Rotation to Fix Case 4 (right-right)



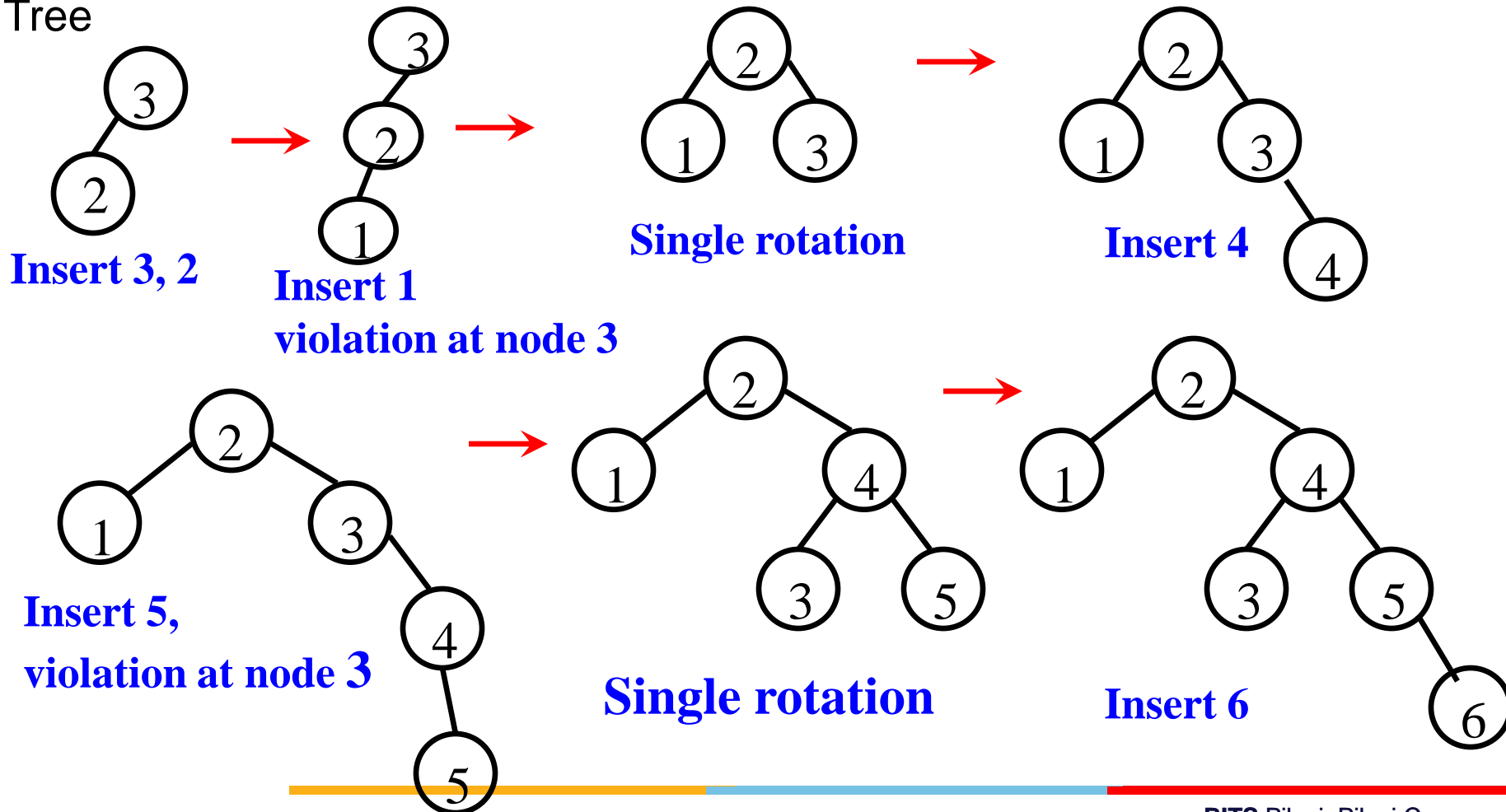
After RR rotation

Single Rotation Example

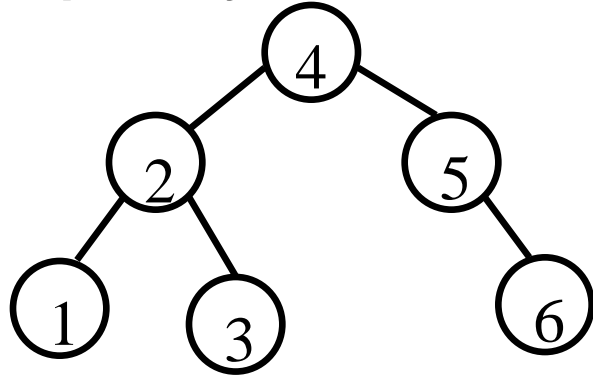


Sequentially insert 3, 2, 1, 4, 5, 6, 7, 16, 15, 14, 13, 12, 11, 10, 8, 9 to an AVL

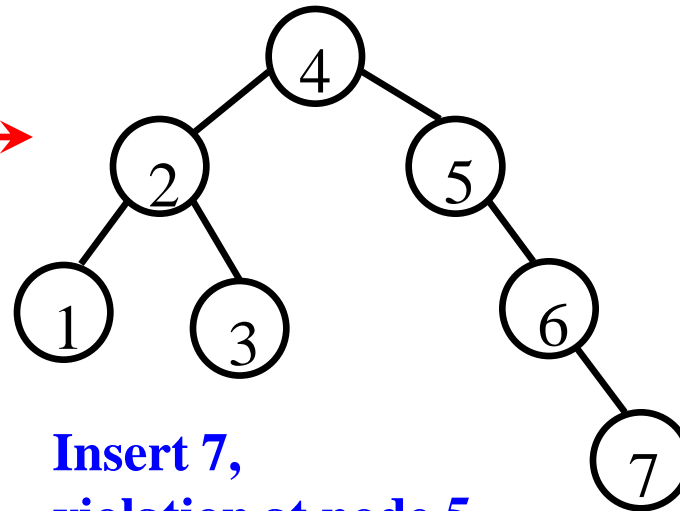
Tree



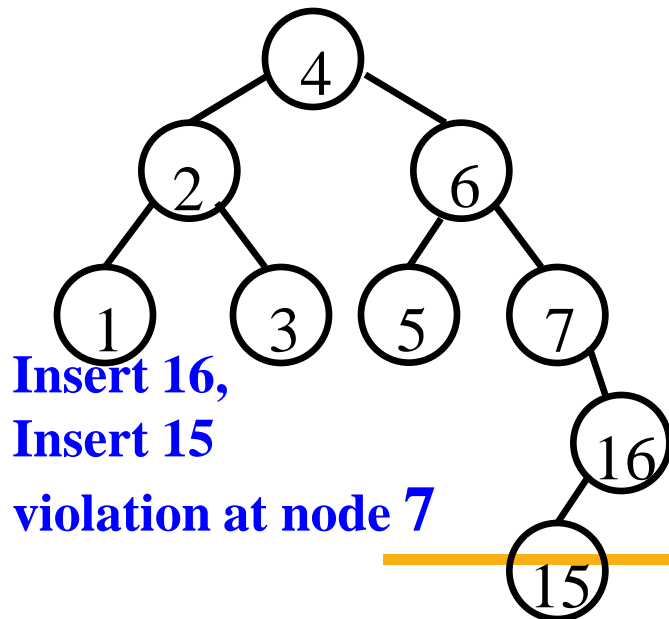
Sequentially insert 3, 2, 1, 4, 5, 6, 7, 16, 15, 14, 13, 12, 11, 10, 8, 9 to an AVL Tree



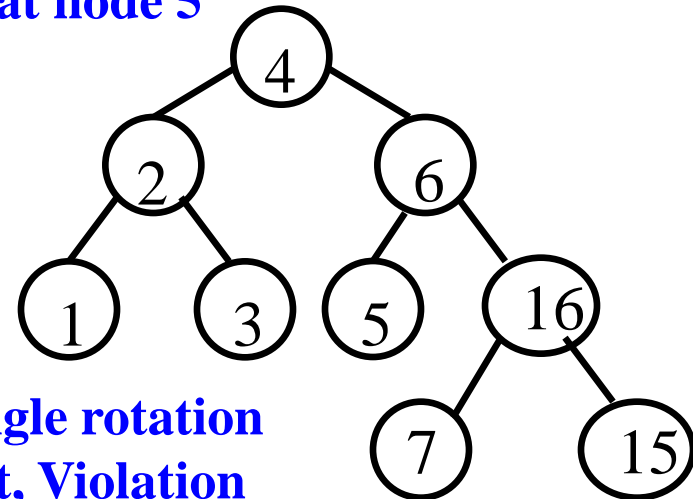
Single rotation



**Insert 7,
violation at node 5**

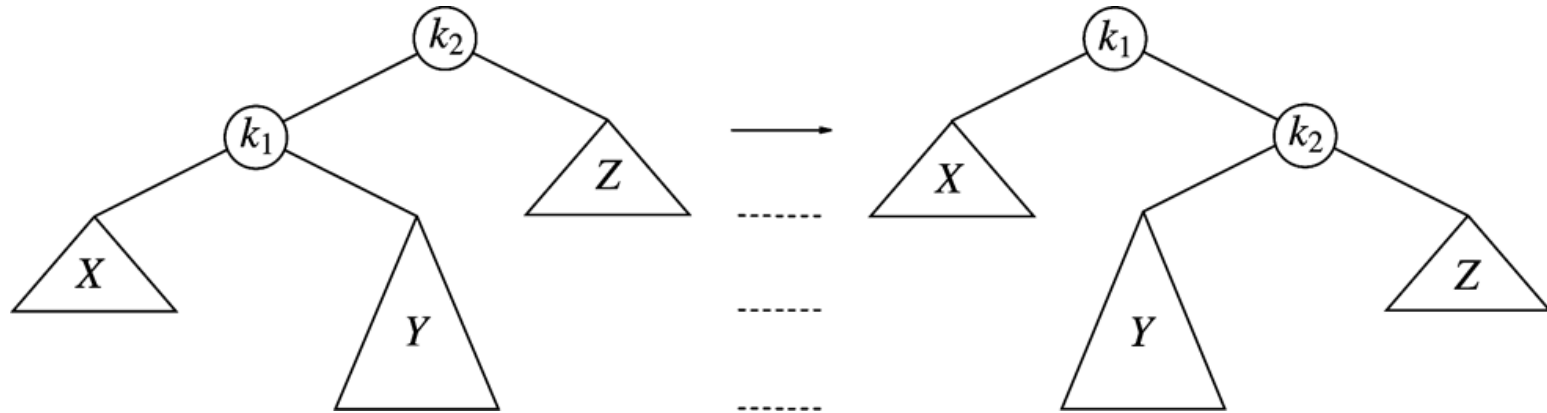


**Insert 16,
Insert 15
violation at node 7**



**Single rotation
But, Violation
remains**

Single Rotation Fails to fix Case 2&3



Case 2: violation in k_2 because of insertion in subtree Y

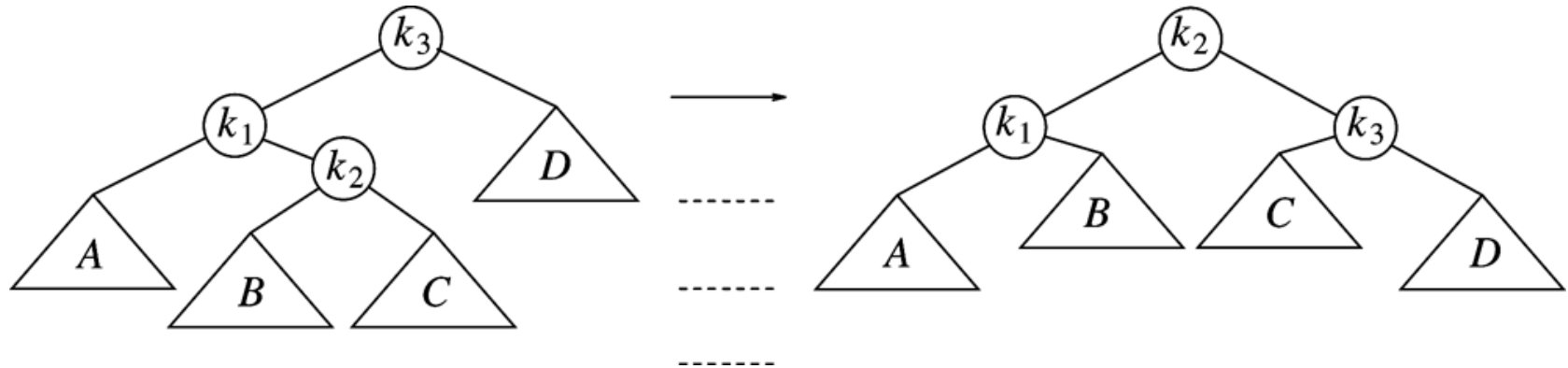
Single rotation result

Single rotation fails to fix case 2&3

Take case 2 as an example (case 3 is a symmetry to it)

- The problem is subtree Y is too deep
- Single rotation doesn't make it any less deep

Double Rotation to fix Case 2(left-right)

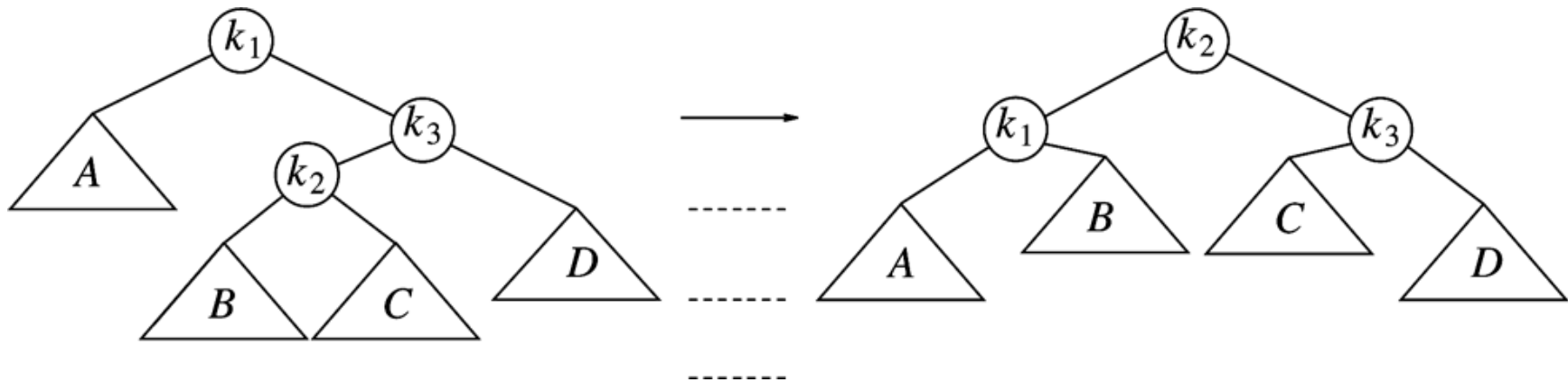


- The new key is inserted in the subtree B or C
- The AVL-property is violated at k_3
- k_3 - k_1 - k_2 forms a zig-zag shape: LR case

Solution

- place k_2 as the **new root**

Double Rotation to fix Case 3(right-left)

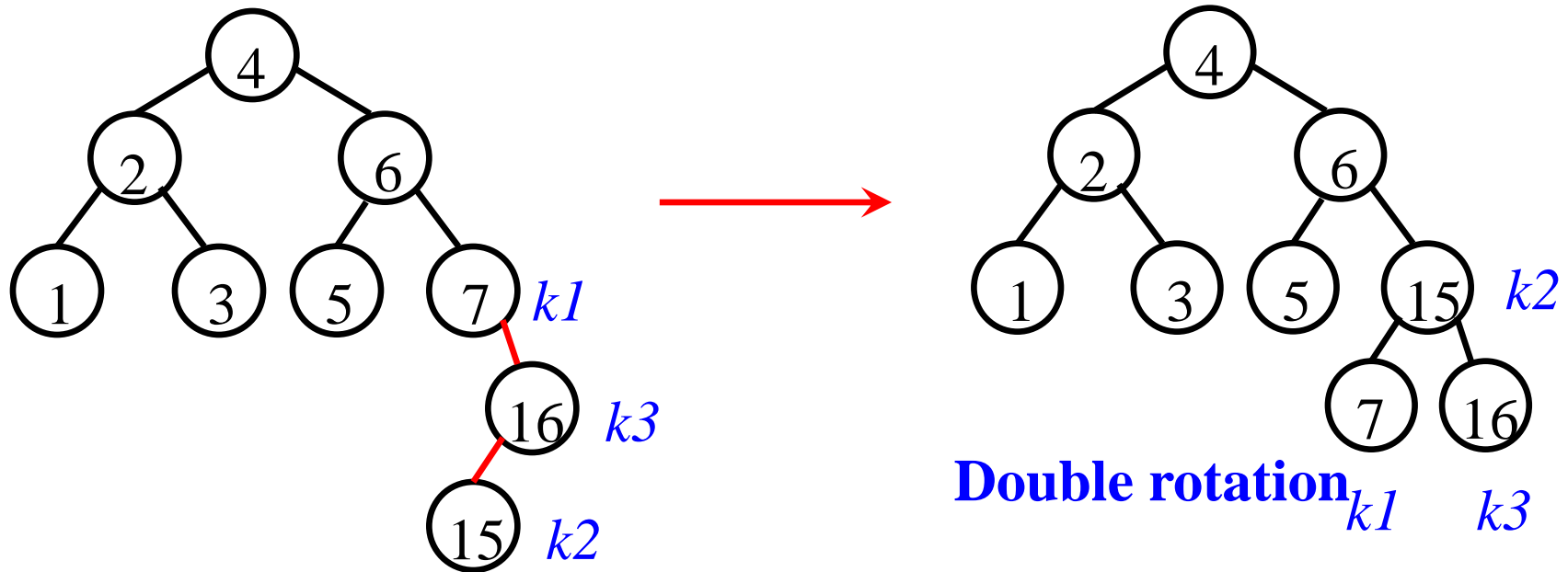


- The new key is inserted in the subtree B or C
- The AVL-property is violated at k_1
- k_1 - k_3 - k_2 forms a zig-zag shape

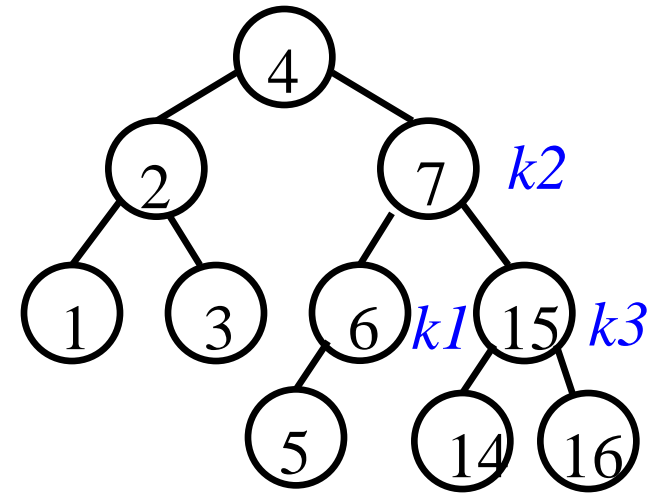
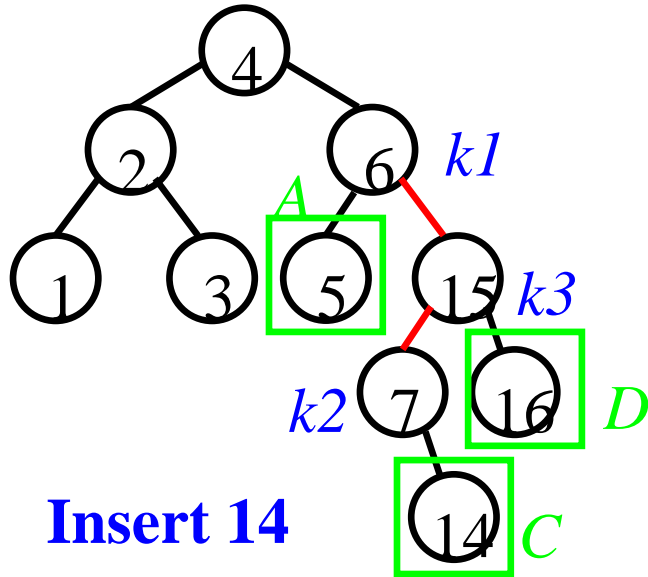
Sequentially insert 3, 2, 1, 4, 5, 6, 7, 16, 15, 14, 13, 12, 11, 10, 8, 9 to an AVL Tree

We've inserted 3, 2, 1, 4, 5, 6, 7, 16

We'll insert 15, 14, 13, 12, 11, 10, 8, 9



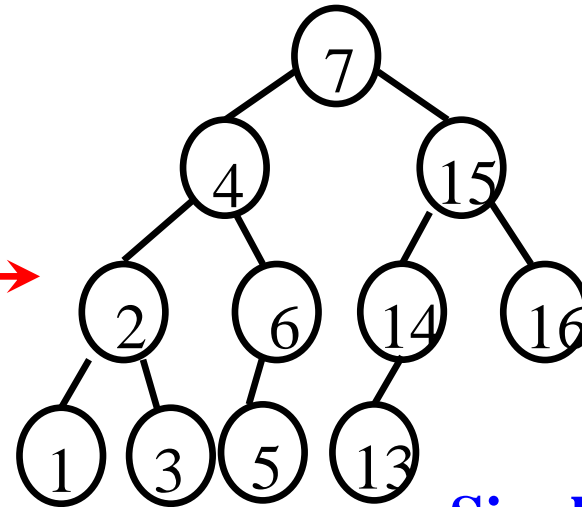
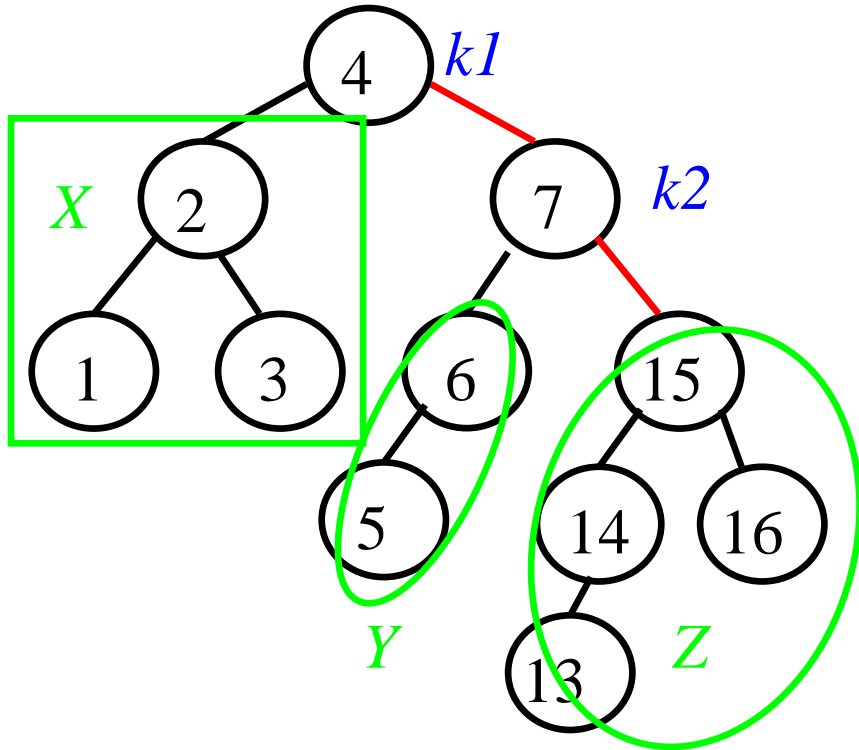
Sequentially insert 3, 2, 1, 4, 5, 6, 7, 16, 15, 14, 13, 12, 11, 10, 8, 9
to an AVL Tree



Double rotation

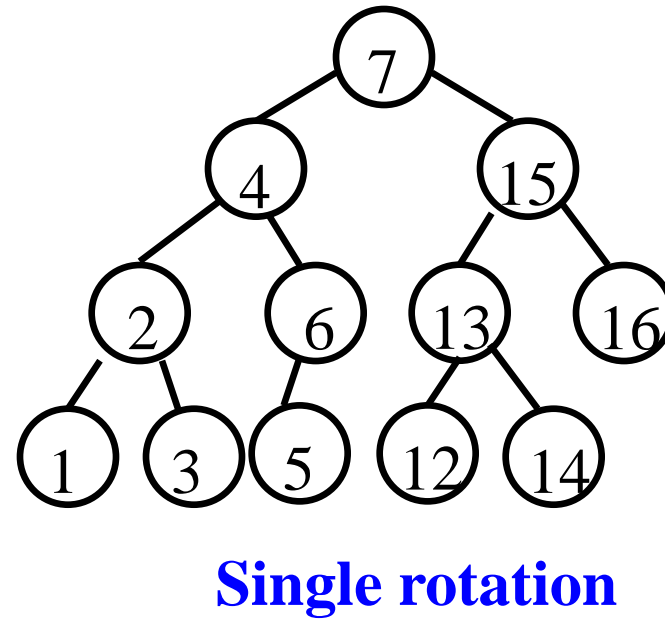
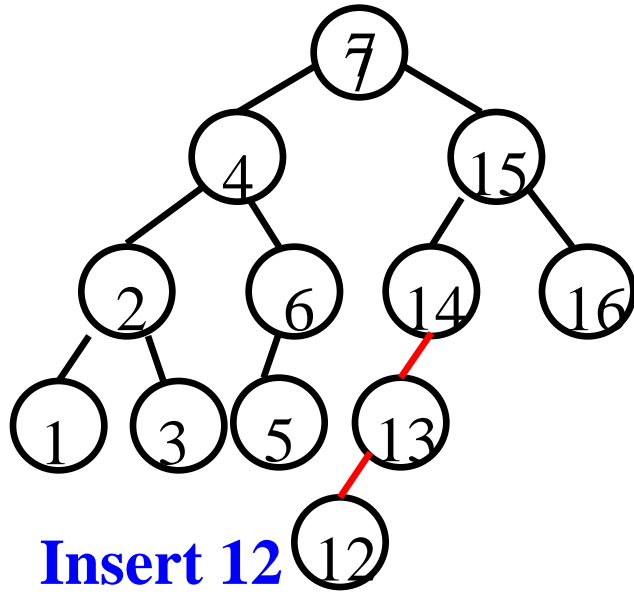
Sequentially insert 3, 2, 1, 4, 5, 6, 7, 16, 15, 14, 13, 12, 11, 10, 8, 9

to an AVL Tree



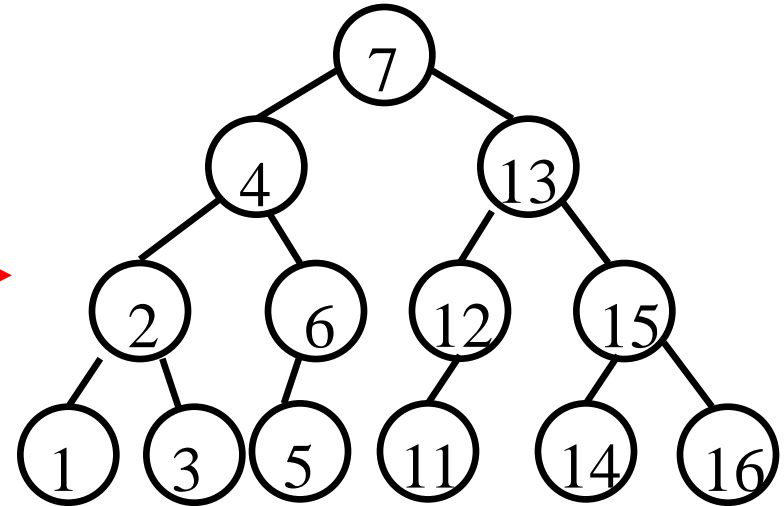
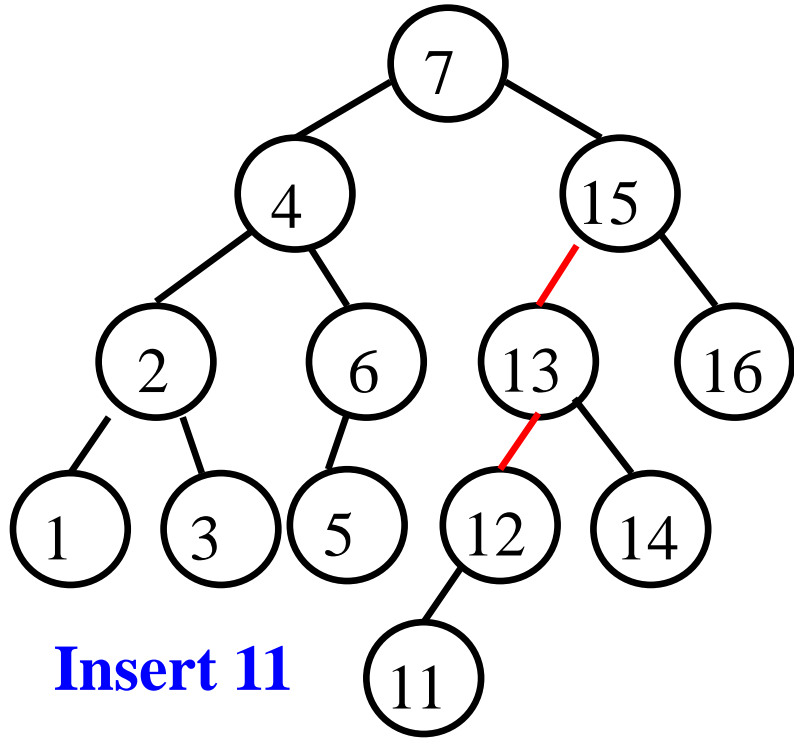
Single rotation

Sequentially insert 3, 2, 1, 4, 5, 6, 7, 16, 15, 14, 13, 12, 11, 10, 8, 9
to an AVL Tree



Sequentially insert **3, 2, 1, 4, 5, 6, 7, 16, 15, 14, 13, 12, 11, 10, 8, 9**

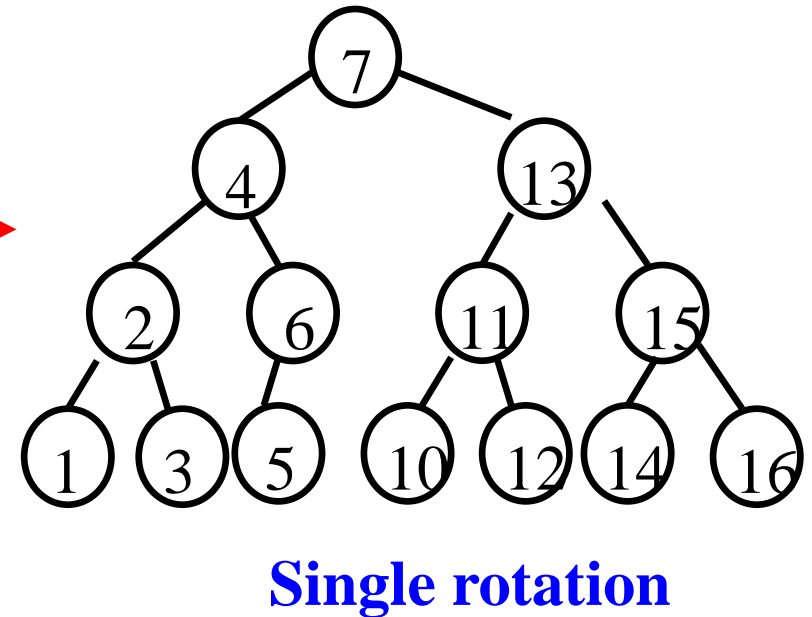
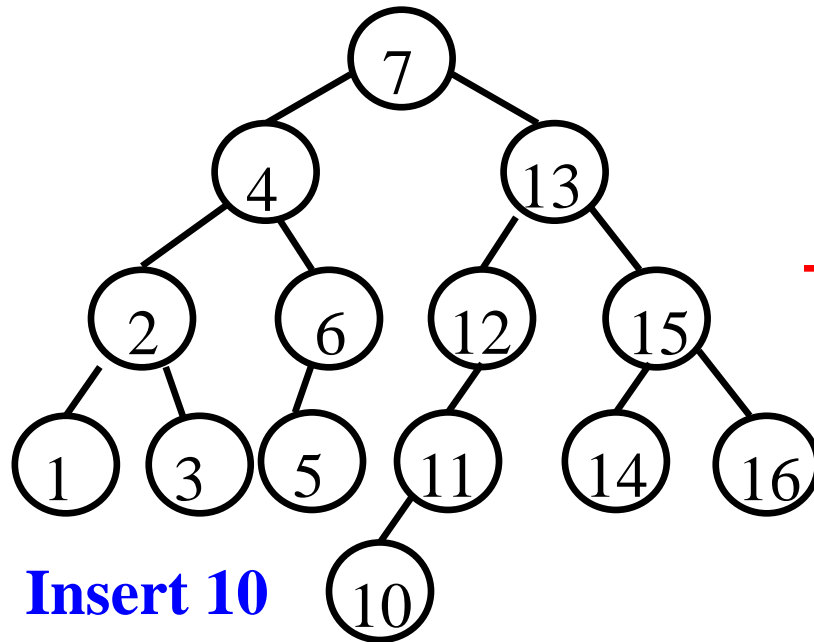
to an AVL Tree



Single rotation

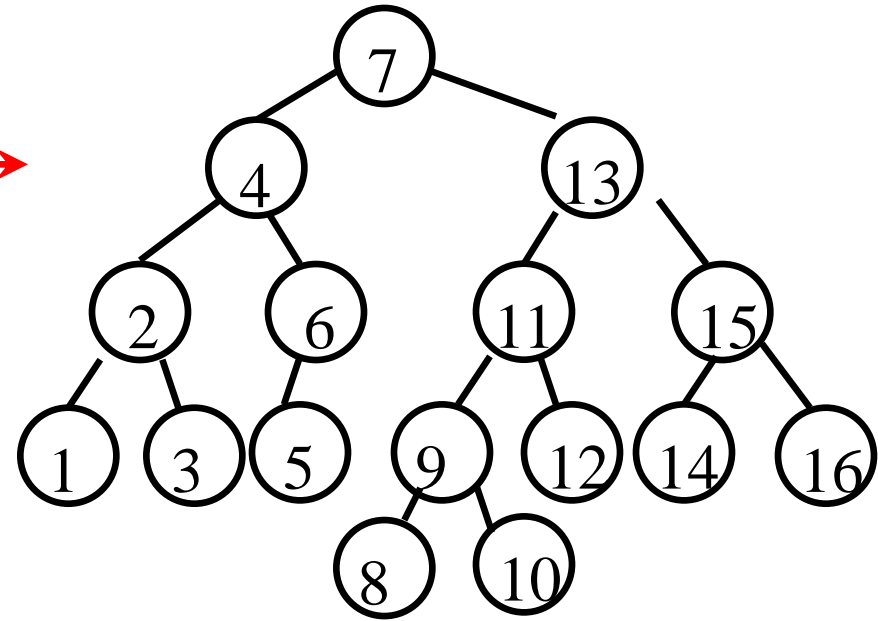
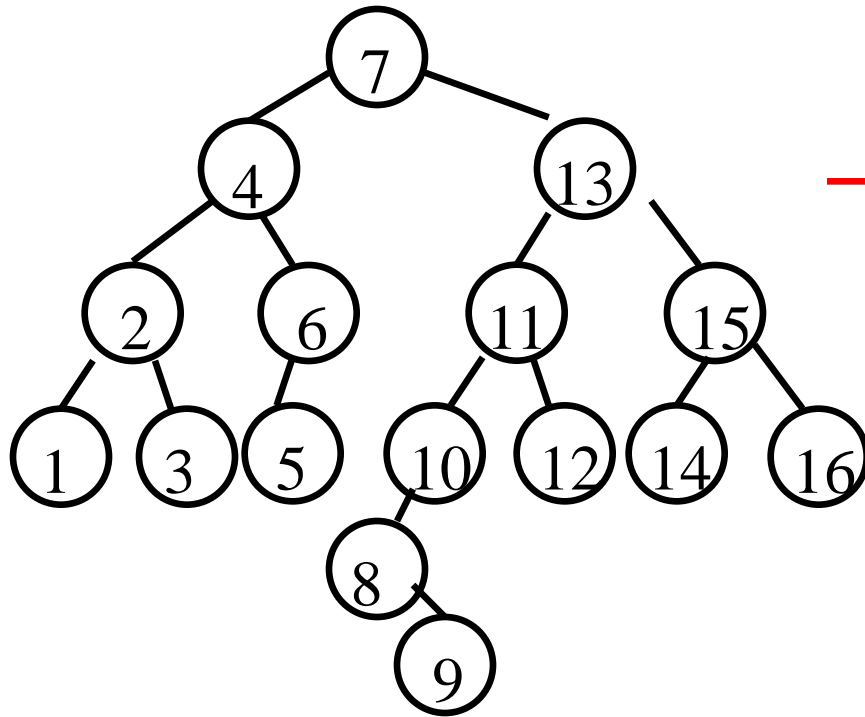
Sequentially insert **3, 2, 1, 4, 5, 6, 7, 16, 15, 14, 13, 12, 11, 10, 8, 9**

to an AVL Tree



Sequentially insert 3, 2, 1, 4, 5, 6, 7, 16, 15, 14, 13, 12, 11, 10, 8, 9

to an AVL Tree



Double rotation

Insert 8, then insert 9



- **Dynamic Programming**

Dynamic Programming



- An algorithm design technique for **optimization problems** (similar to divide and conquer)
- Applicable when subproblems are not independent
 - **Subproblems share subsubproblems**
 - A divide and conquer approach would repeatedly solve the common subproblems
 - Dynamic programming solves every subproblem just once and stores the answer in a table

Dynamic Programming



Used for **optimization problems**

- A set of choices must be made to get an optimal solution
- Find a solution with the optimal value (minimum or maximum)
- There may be many solutions that return the optimal value: **an optimal solution**

Dynamic Programming Algorithm



1. Characterize the structure of an optimal solution
2. Recursively define the value of an optimal solution
3. Compute the value of an optimal solution in a bottom-up fashion
4. Construct an optimal solution from computed information

Elements of Dynamic Programming



- **Optimal Substructure**
 - An optimal solution to a problem contains within it an optimal solution to subproblems
 - Optimal solution to the entire problem is built in a bottom-up manner from optimal solutions to subproblems
- **Overlapping Subproblems**
 - If a recursive algorithm revisits the same subproblems over and over \Rightarrow the problem has overlapping subproblems

Matrix-Chain Multiplication



In what order should we multiply the matrices?

$$A_1 \cdot A_2 \cdots A_n$$

Parenthesize the product to get the order in which matrices are multiplied

E.g.: $A_1 \cdot A_2 \cdot A_3 = ((A_1 \cdot A_2) \cdot A_3)$
 $= (A_1 \cdot (A_2 \cdot A_3))$

Which one of these orderings should we choose?

- The order in which we multiply the matrices has a significant impact on the cost of evaluating the product



■ Greedy Algorithms

Greedy Algorithms



- Similar to dynamic programming, but simpler approach
 - Also used for optimization problems

Idea: When we have a choice to make, make the one that looks best right now

- Make a locally optimal choice in hope of getting a globally optimal solution
- Greedy algorithms don't always yield an optimal solution
- When the problem has certain general characteristics, greedy algorithms give optimal solutions

Designing Greedy Algorithms



1. Cast the optimization problem as one for which:
 - we make a choice and are left with only one subproblem to solve
2. Prove the **GREEDY CHOICE**
 - that there is always an optimal solution to the original problem that makes the greedy choice
3. Prove the **OPTIMAL SUBSTRUCTURE**:
 - the greedy choice + an optimal solution to the resulting subproblem leads to an optimal solution

Dynamic Programming vs. Greedy Algorithms



Dynamic programming

- We make a choice at each step
- The choice depends on solutions to subproblems
- Bottom up solution, from smaller to larger subproblems

Greedy algorithm

- Make the greedy choice and THEN
- Solve the subproblem arising after the choice is made
- The choice we make may depend on previous choices, but not on solutions to subproblems
- Top down solution, problems decrease in size