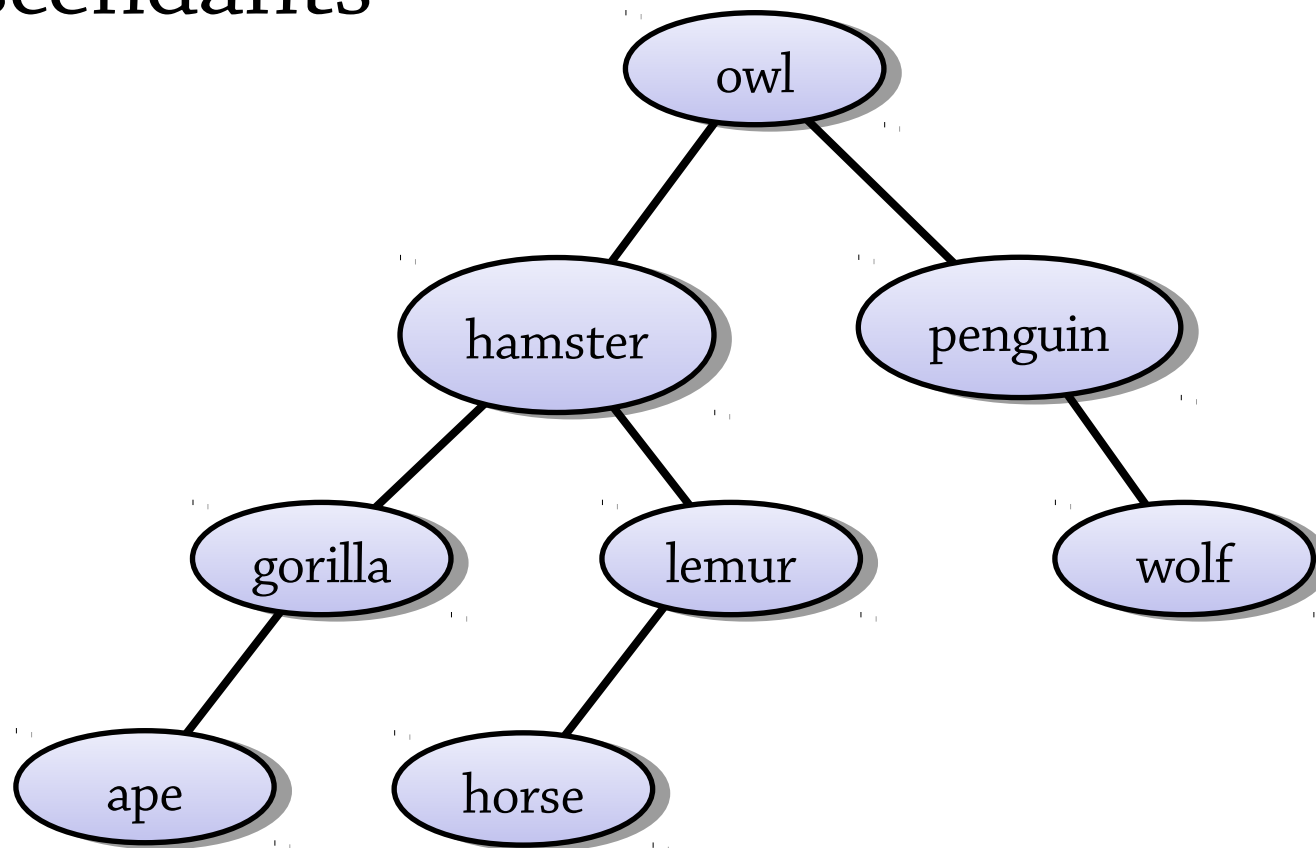


# Binary search trees

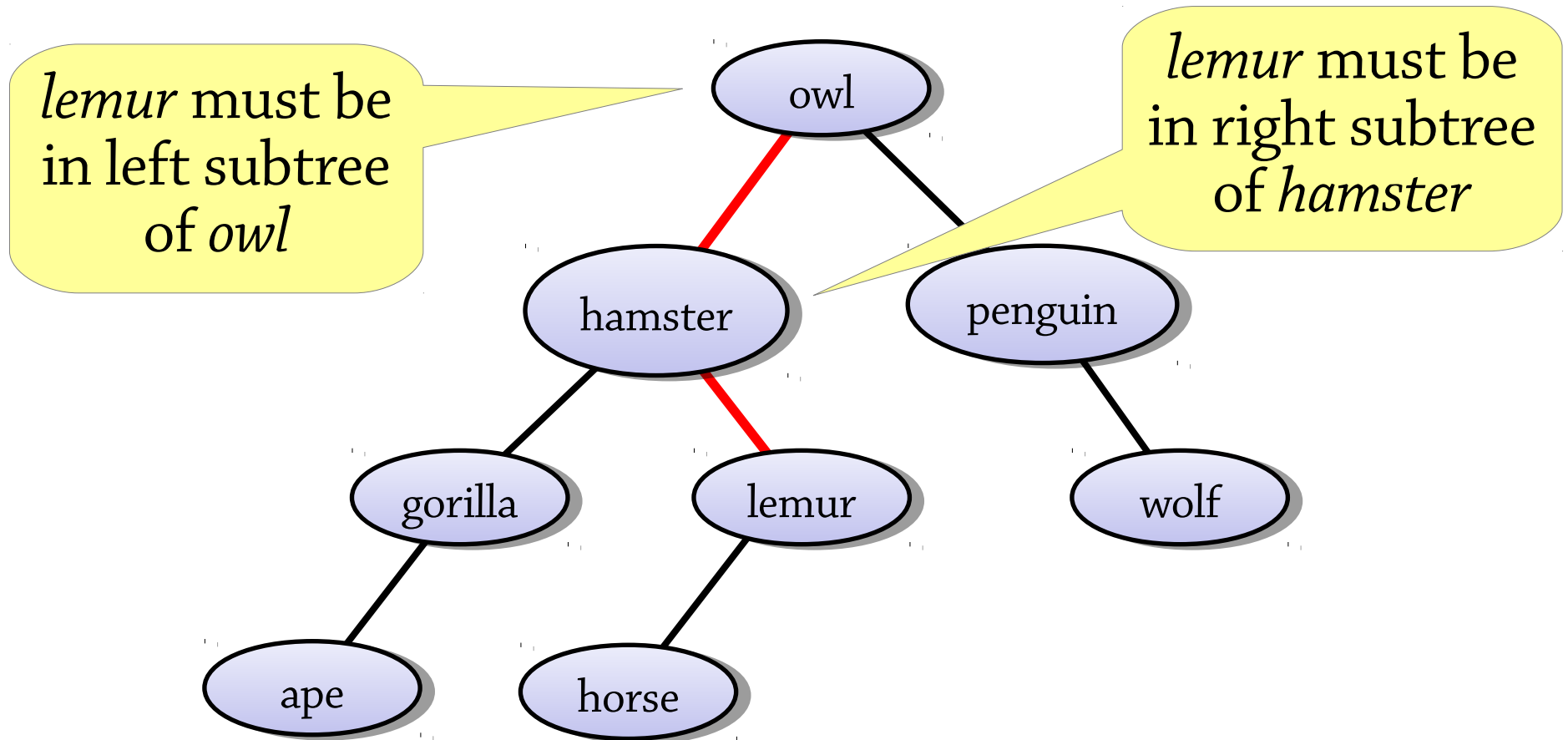
# Binary search trees

*A binary search tree (BST)* is a binary tree where each node is greater than all its left descendants, and less than all its right descendants



# Searching in a BST

Finding an element in a BST is easy, because by looking at the root you can tell which subtree the element is in



# Searching in a binary search tree

To search for *target* in a BST:

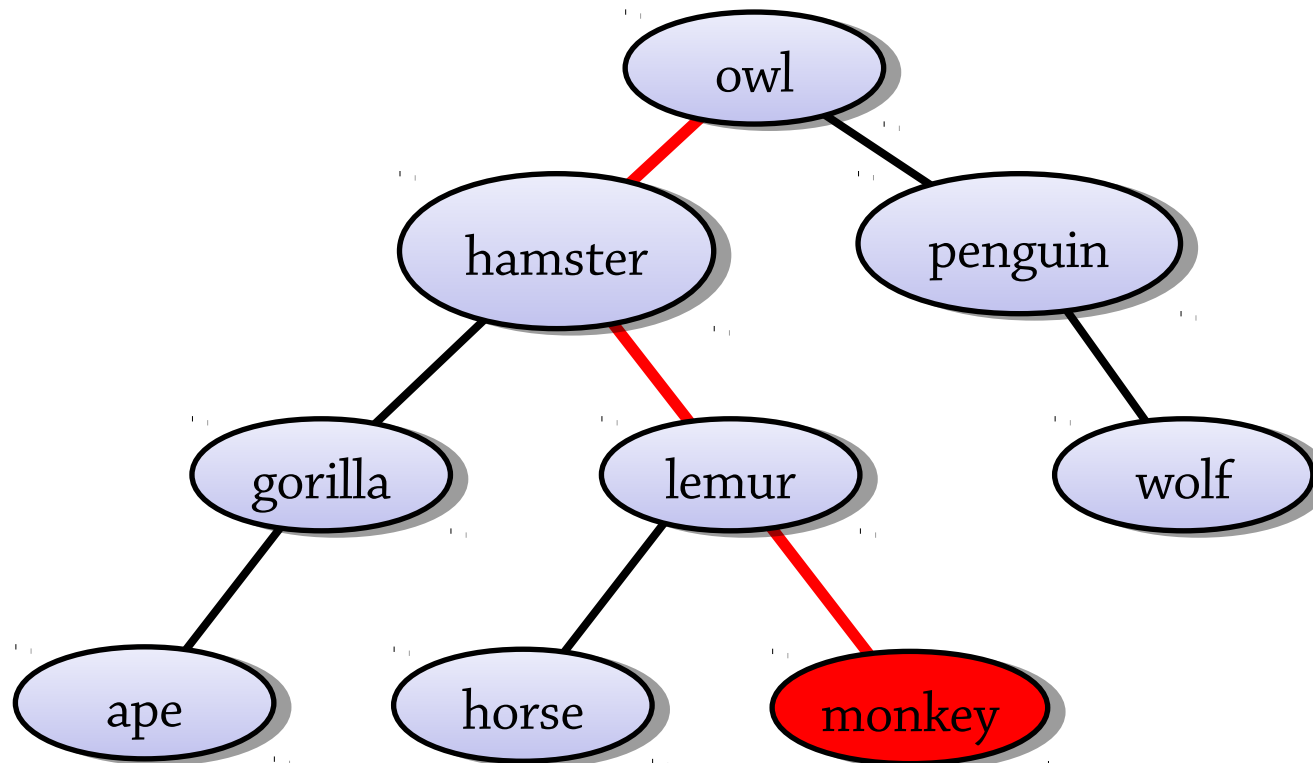
- If the target matches the root node's data, we've found it
- If the target is *less* than the root node's data, recursively search the left subtree
- If the target is *greater* than the root node's data, recursively search the right subtree
- If the tree is empty, fail

A BST can be used to implement a set, or a map from keys to values (TreeSet and TreeMap in Java, Data.Set and Data.Map in haskell)

# Inserting into a BST

To insert a value into a BST:

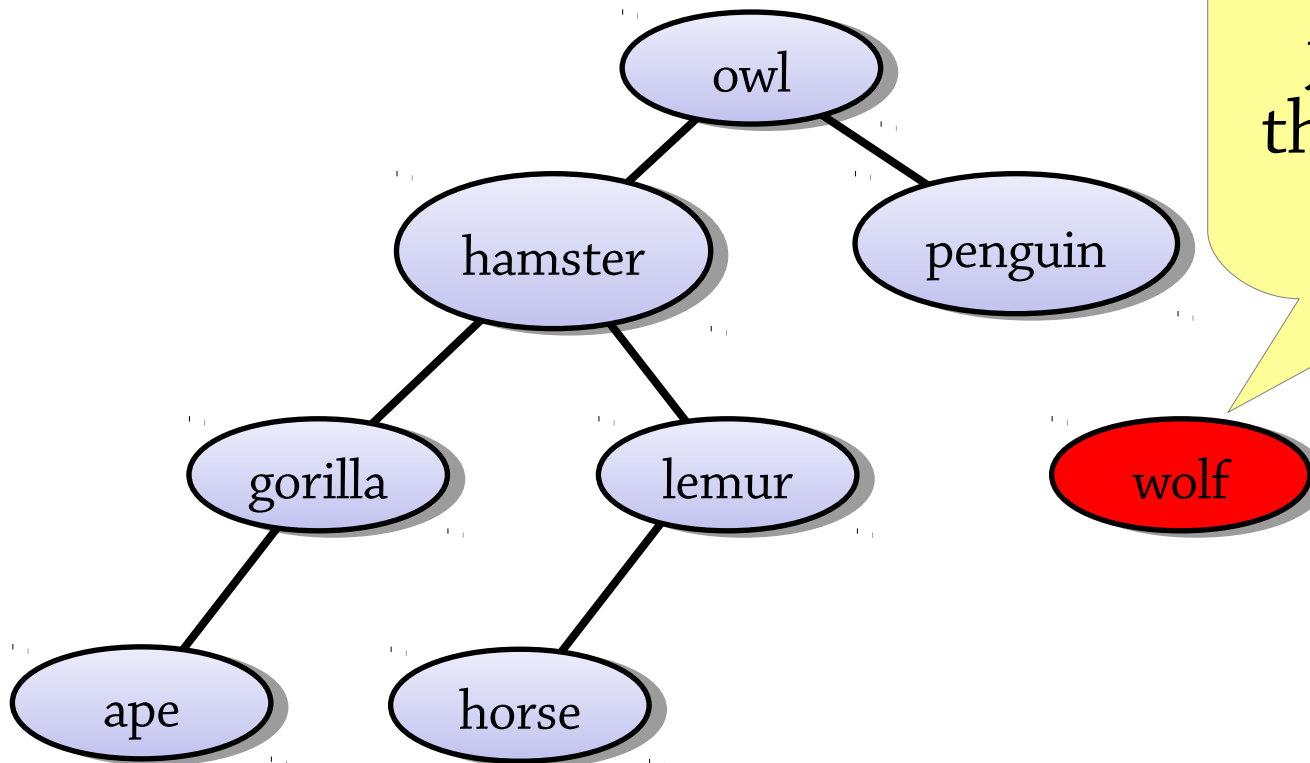
- Start by searching for the value
- But when you get to *null* (the empty tree), make a node for the value and place it there



# Deleting from a BST

To delete a value in a BST:

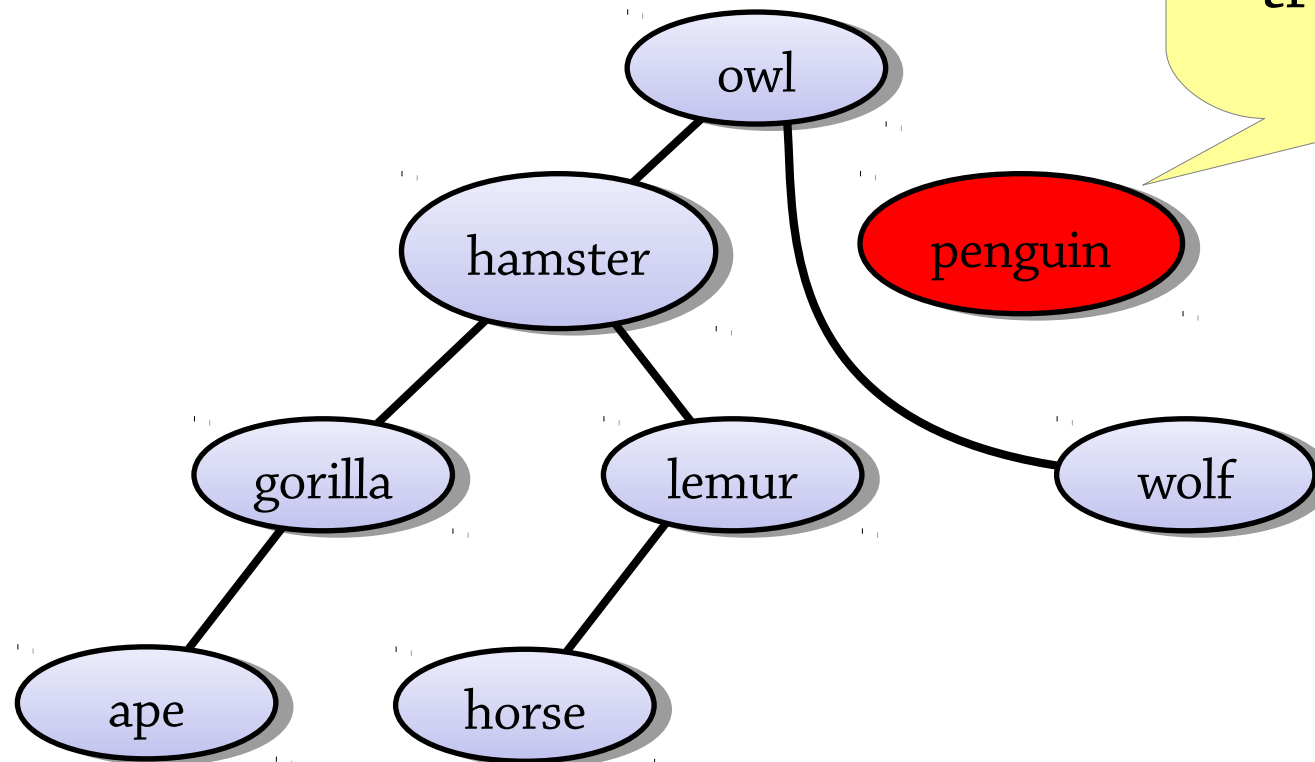
- Find the node containing the value
- If the node is a leaf, just remove it



To delete *wolf*,  
just remove  
this node from  
the tree

# Deleting from a BST, continued

If the node has *one* child, replace the node with its child



To delete *penguin*, replace it in the tree with *wolf*

# Deleting from a BST

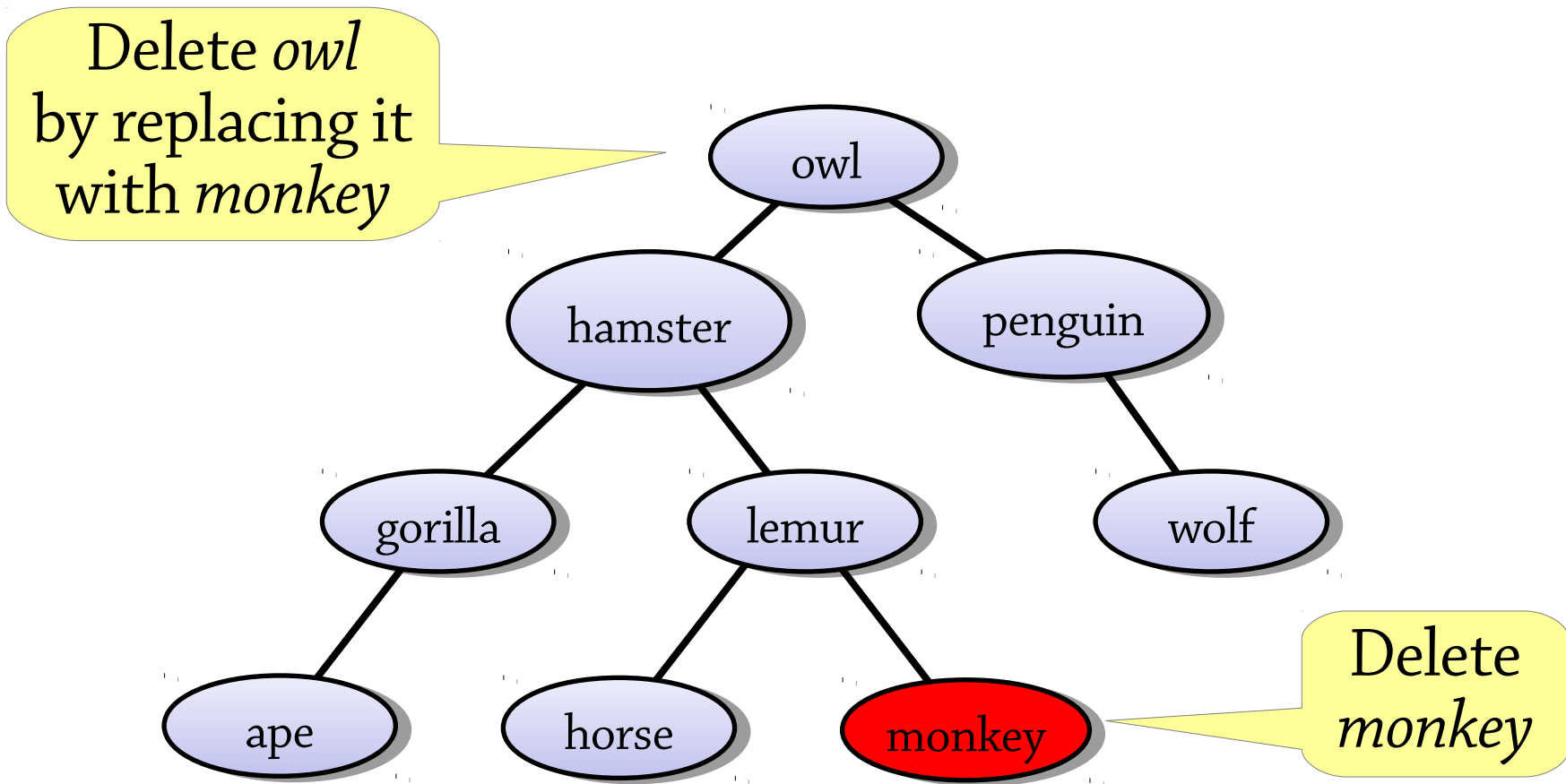
To delete a value from a BST:

- Find the node
- If it has no children, just remove it from the tree
- If it has one child, replace the node with its child
- If it has two children...?  
Can't remove the node without removing its children too!



# Deleting a node with two children

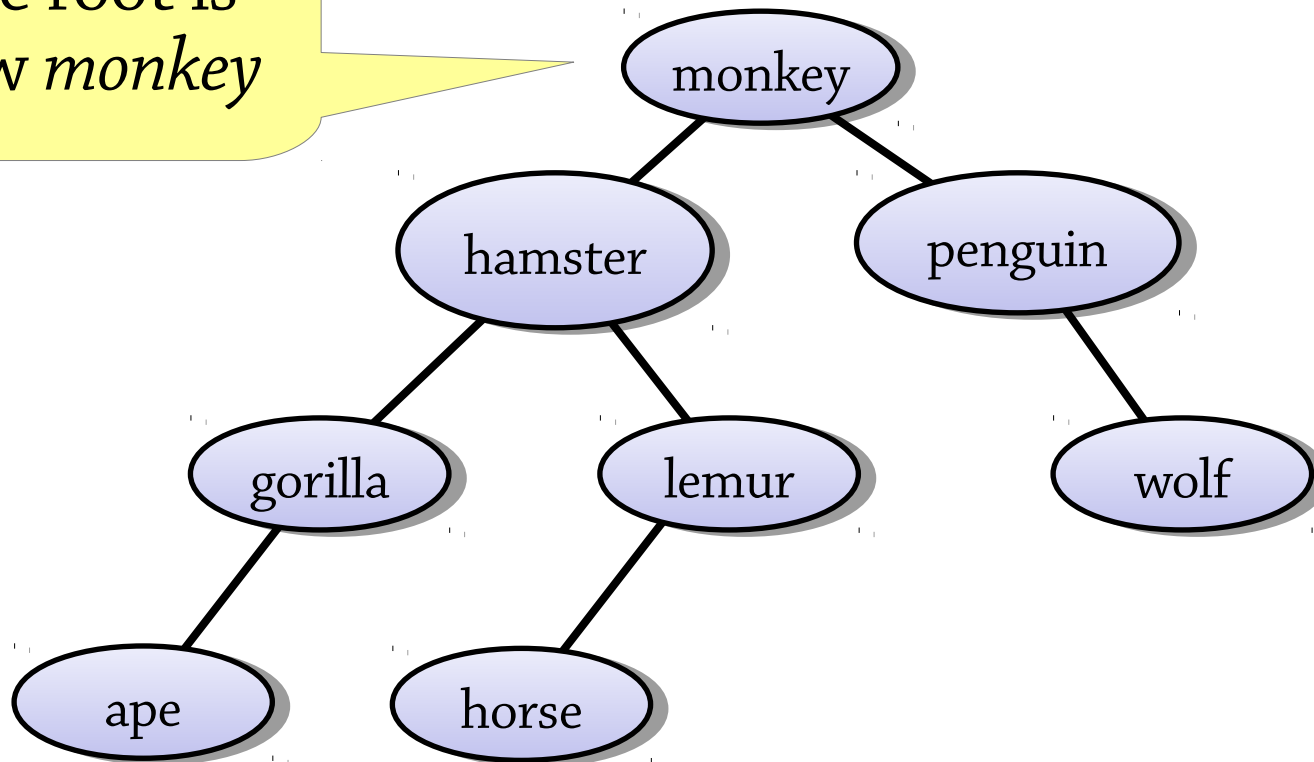
Delete the *biggest value from the node's left subtree* and put this value [why this one?] in place of the node we want to delete



# Deleting a node with two children

Delete the *biggest value from the node's left subtree* and put this value [why this one?] in place of the node we want to delete

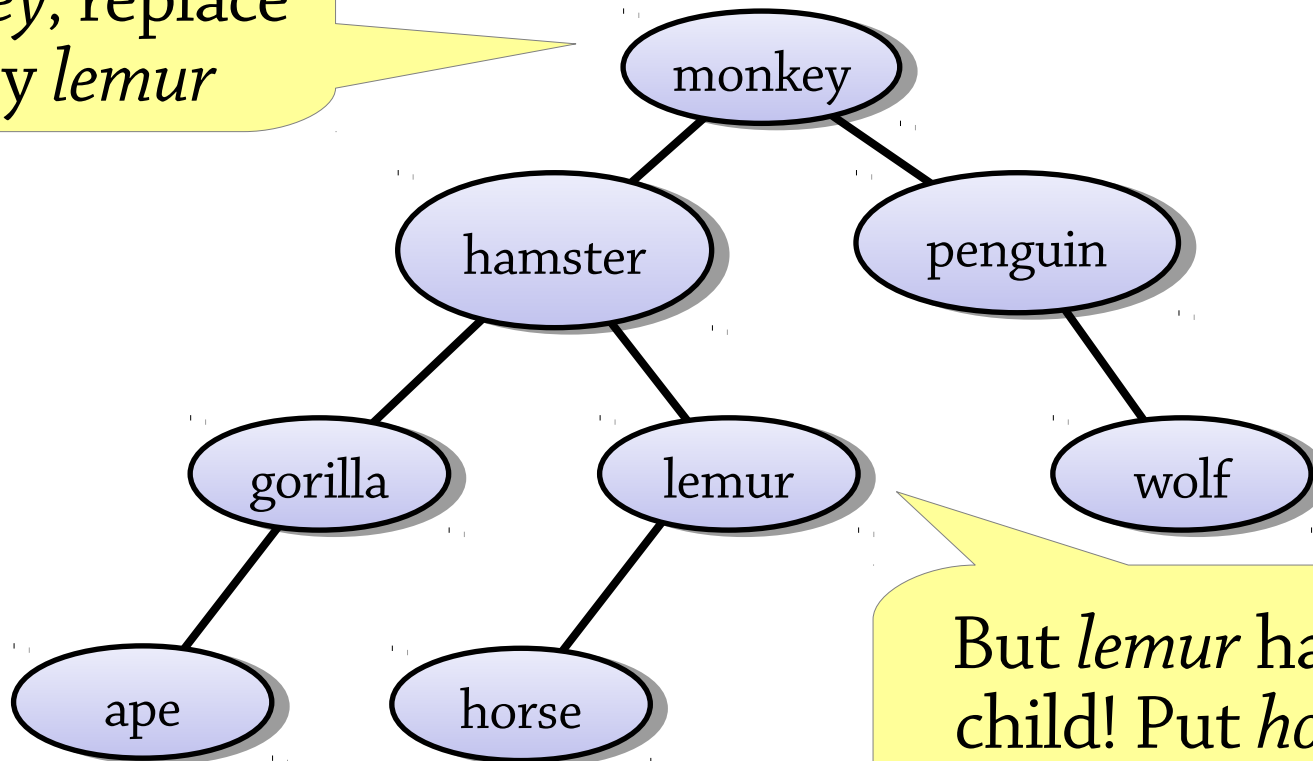
The root is now *monkey*



# Deleting a node with two children

Here is the most complicated case:

To delete *monkey*, replace it by *lemur*

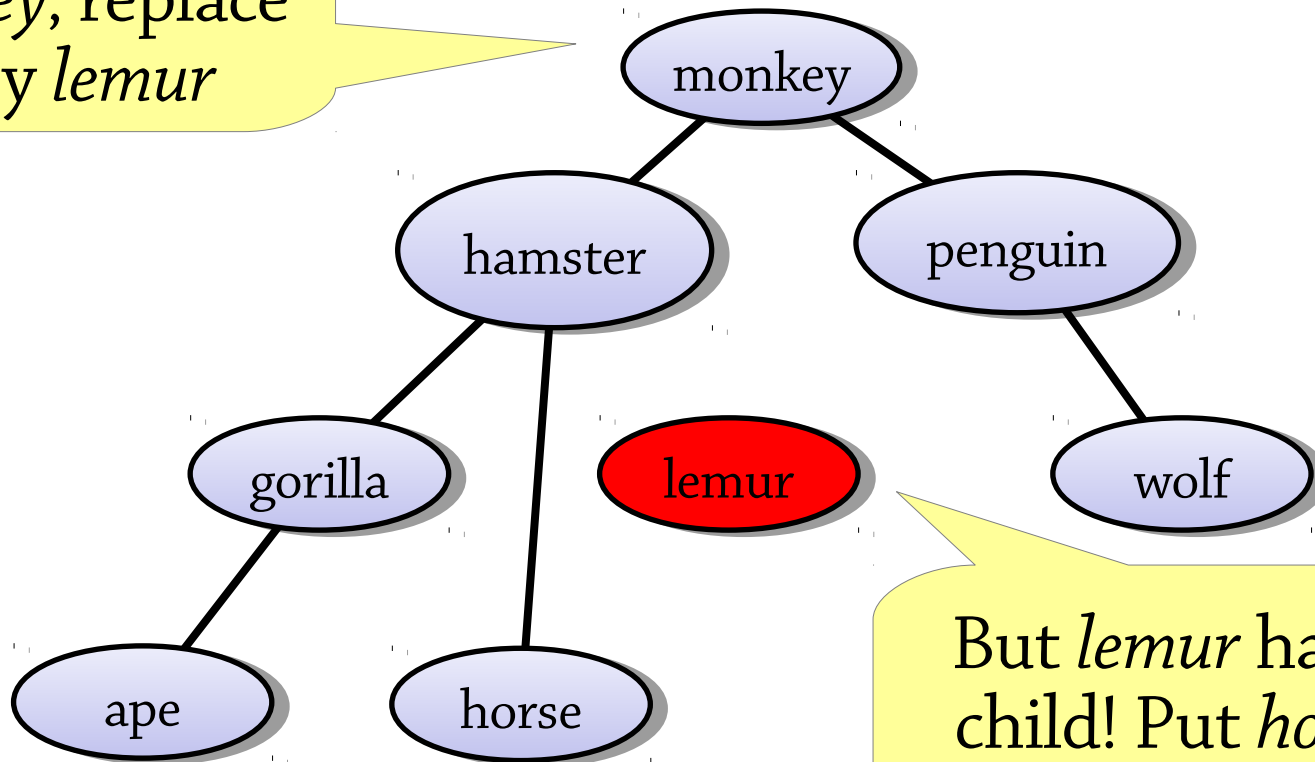


But *lemur* has a child! Put *horse* where *lemur* was

# Deleting a node with two children

Here is the most complicated case:

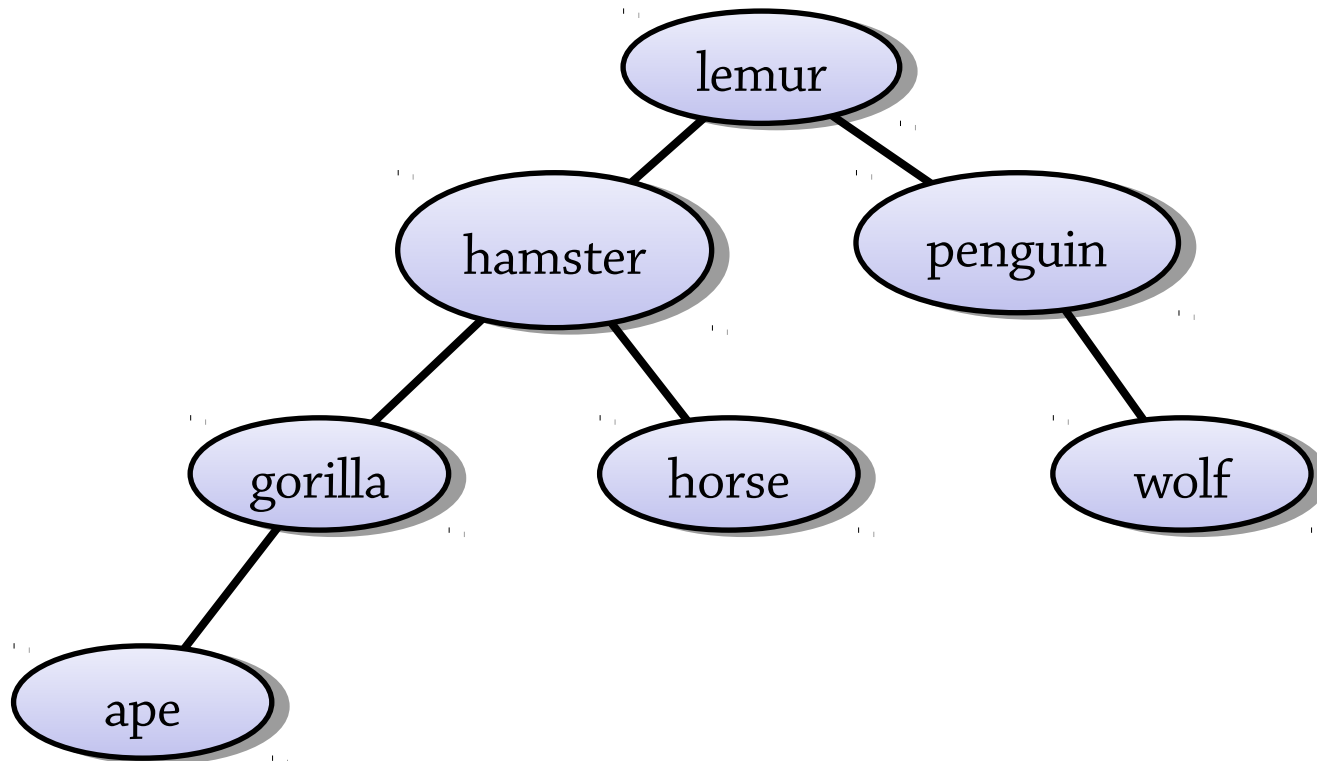
To delete *monkey*, replace it by *lemur*



But *lemur* has a child! Put *horse* where *lemur* was

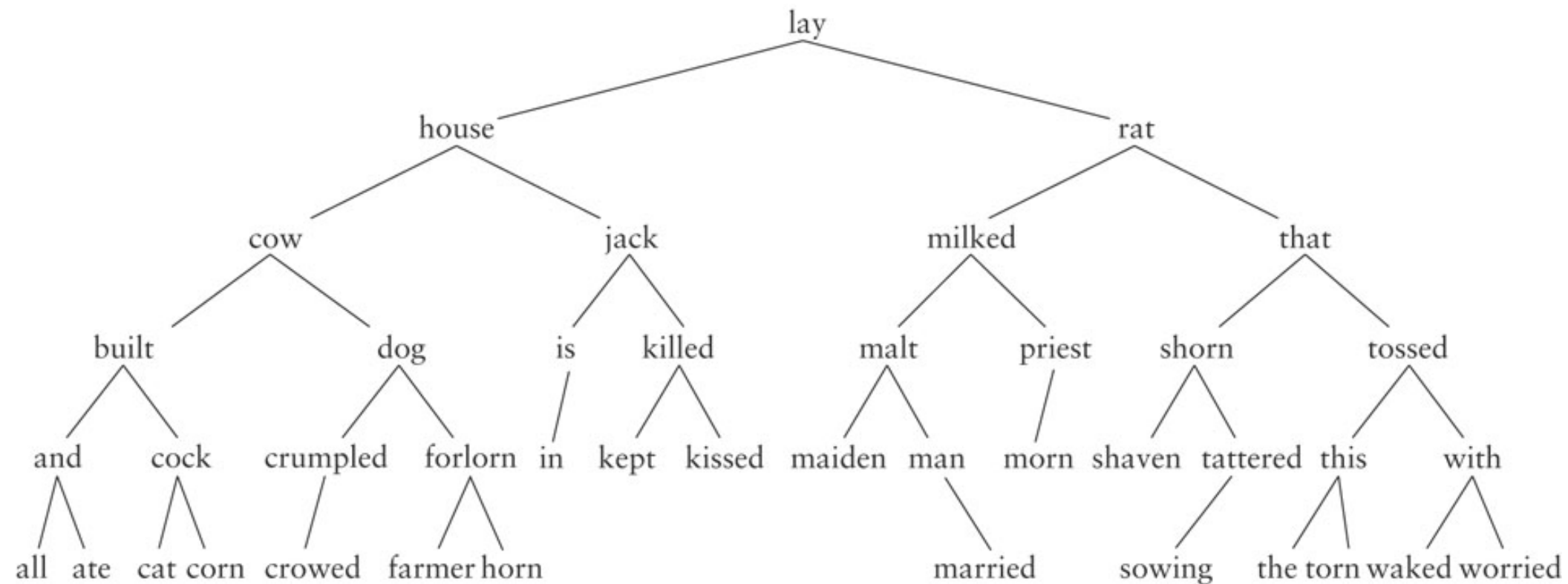
# Deleting a node with two children

Here is the most complicated case:



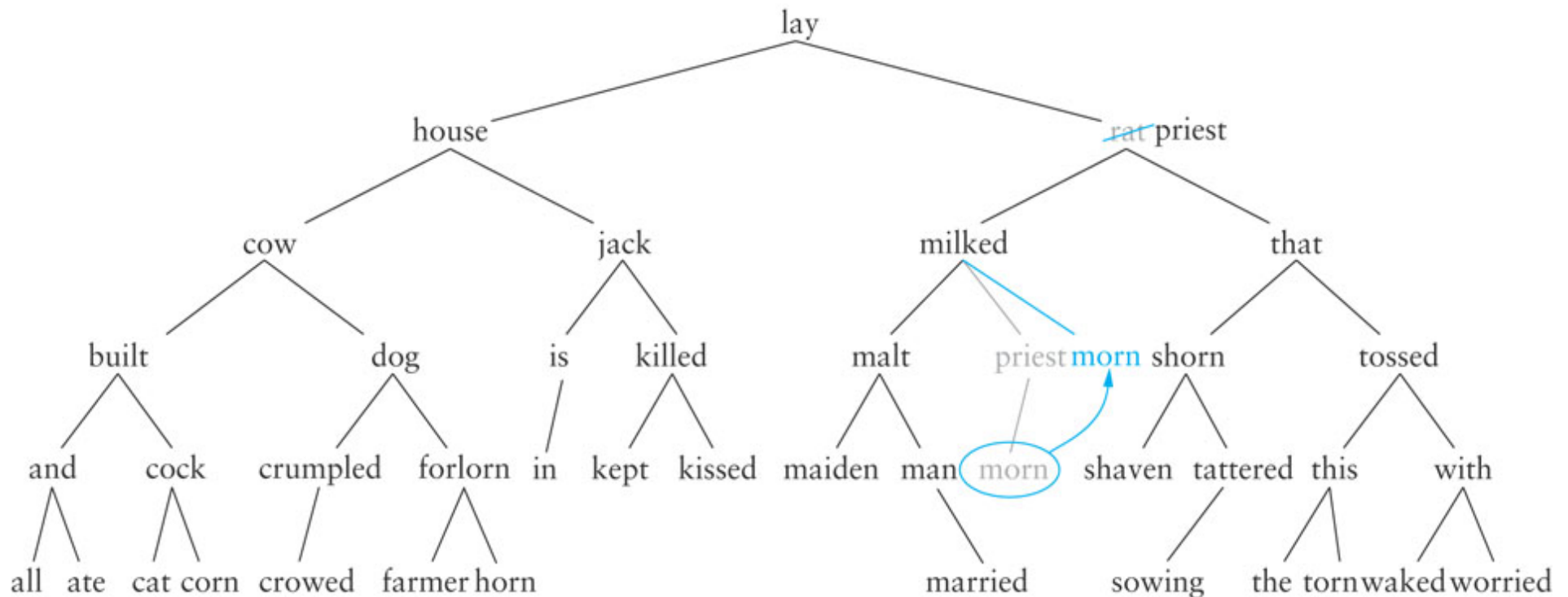
# A bigger example

What happens if we delete  
is? cow? rat?



# Deleting a node with two children

Deleting *rat*, we replace it with *priest*; now we have to delete *priest* which has a child, *morn*



# Deleting a node with two children

Find and delete the *biggest value* in the *left subtree* and put that value in the deleted node

- Using the biggest value preserves the invariant (check you understand why)
- To find the biggest value: repeatedly descend into the right child until you find a node with no right child
- The biggest node can't have two children, so deleting it is easier

You can of course alternatively do the opposite, i.e. find the *smallest* value in the *right subtree*.



# Complexity of BST operations

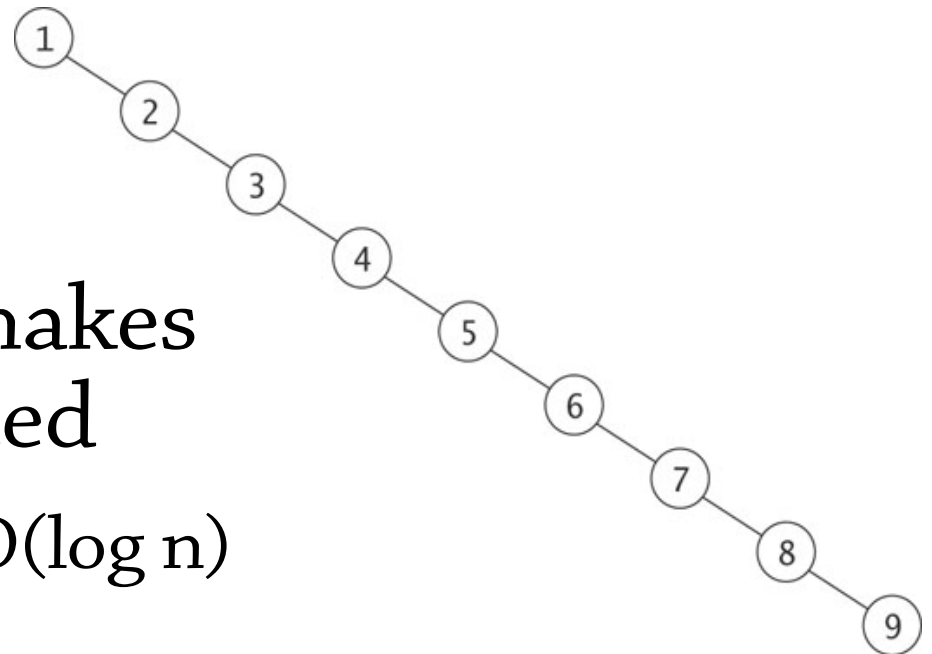
All our operations are  $O(\text{height of tree})$

This means  $O(\log n)$  if the tree is balanced, but  $O(n)$  if it's unbalanced (like the tree on the right)

- how might we get this tree?

*Balanced BSTs* add an extra invariant that makes sure the tree is balanced

- then all operations are  $O(\log n)$



# Summary of BSTs

Binary trees with *BST invariant*

Can be used to implement sets and maps

- lookup: can easily find a value in the tree
- insert: perform a lookup, then put the new value at the place where the lookup would stop
- delete: find the value, then remove its node from the tree – several cases depending on how many children the node has

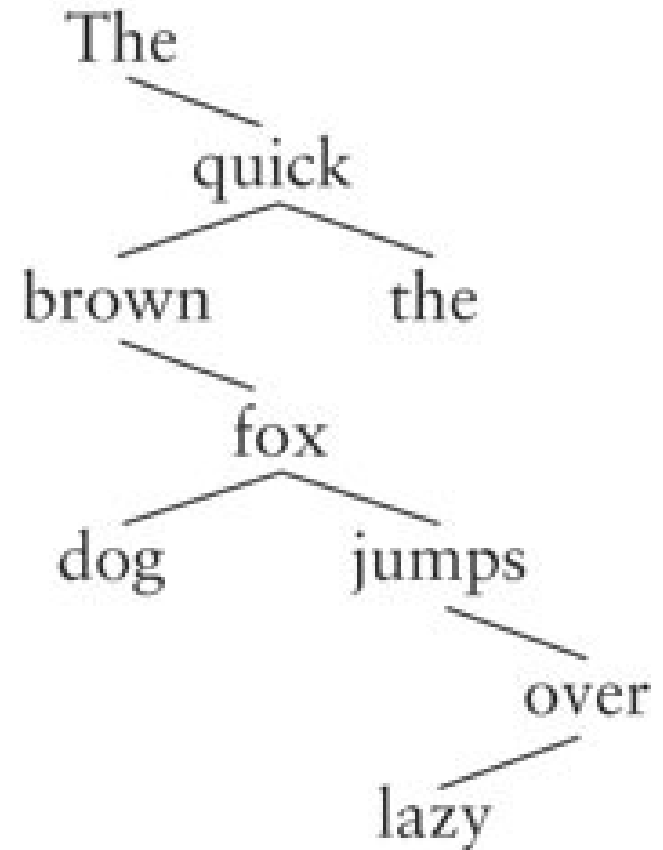
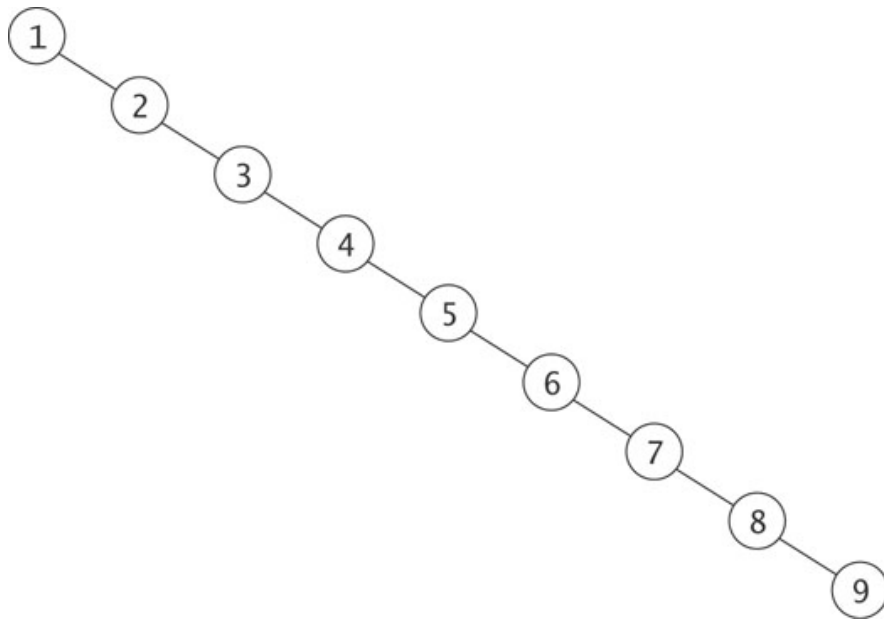
Complexity:

- all operations  $O(\text{height of tree})$
- that is,  $O(\log n)$  if tree is balanced,  $O(n)$  if unbalanced
- inserting random data tends to give balanced trees, sequential data gives unbalanced ones

# AVL trees

# Balanced BSTs: the problem

The BST operations take  $O(\text{height of tree})$ , so for unbalanced trees can take  $O(n)$  time



# Balanced BSTs: the solution

Take BSTs and add an extra invariant that makes sure that the tree is balanced

- Height of tree must be  $O(\log n)$
- Then all operations will take  $O(\log n)$  time

One possible idea for an invariant:

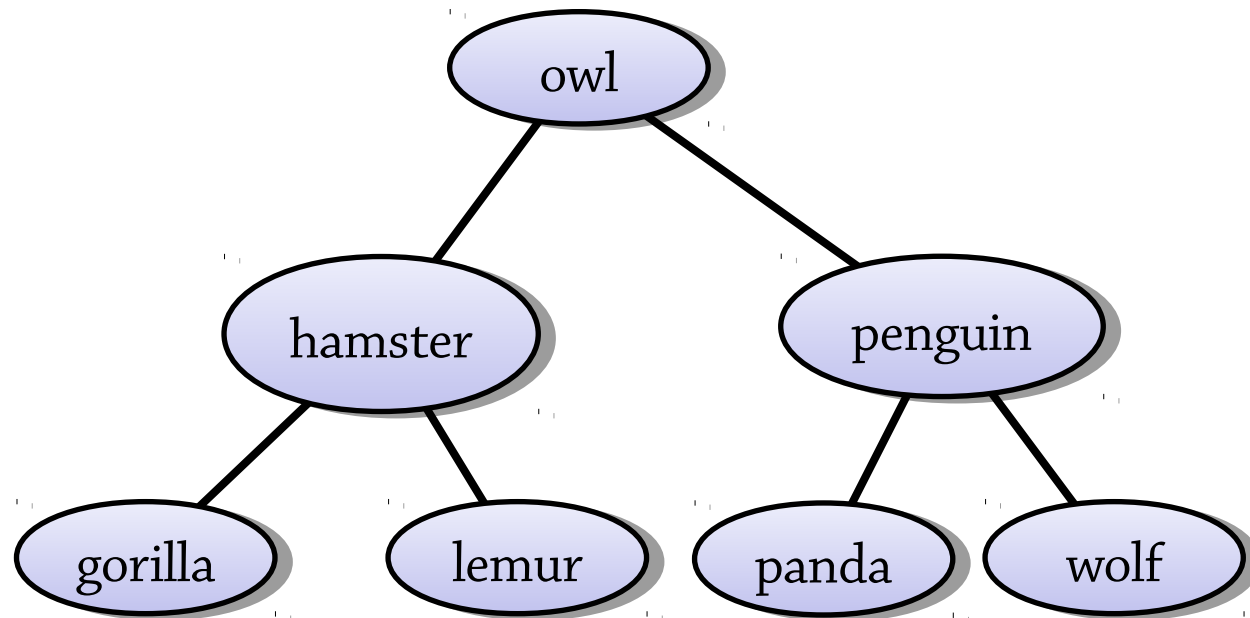
- Height of left child = height of right child (for all nodes in the tree)
- Tree would be sort of “perfectly balanced”

What's wrong with this idea?

# A too restrictive invariant

Perfect balance is too restrictive!

Number of nodes can only be 1, 3, 7, 15, 31, ...



Perfect tree is a too restrictive invariant, and so is complete tree, which is the balancing invariant for binary heaps.

# AVL trees – a less restrictive invariant

The AVL tree is the first balanced BST discovered (from 1962) – it's named after Adelson-Velsky and Landis

It's a BST with the following invariant:

- The *difference in heights* between the left and right children of any node is at most 1
- (compared to 0 for a perfectly balanced tree)

This makes the tree's height  $O(\log n)$ , so it's balanced

# AVL invariant balances tree

- Why does the AVL tree shape invariant balance the tree, i.e. make  $h$  be in  $O(\log n)$ ?
- Let's formulate a recurrence equation for the minimum size of a tree with AVL shape and height  $h$ ,  $n(h)$
- We get a tree of height  $h$  with minimum number of nodes by combining a minimum tree of height  $h-1$  with a tree of height  $h-2$ .

$$n(-1) = 0$$

$$n(0) = 1$$

$$n(h) = 1 + n(h-1) + n(h-2)$$

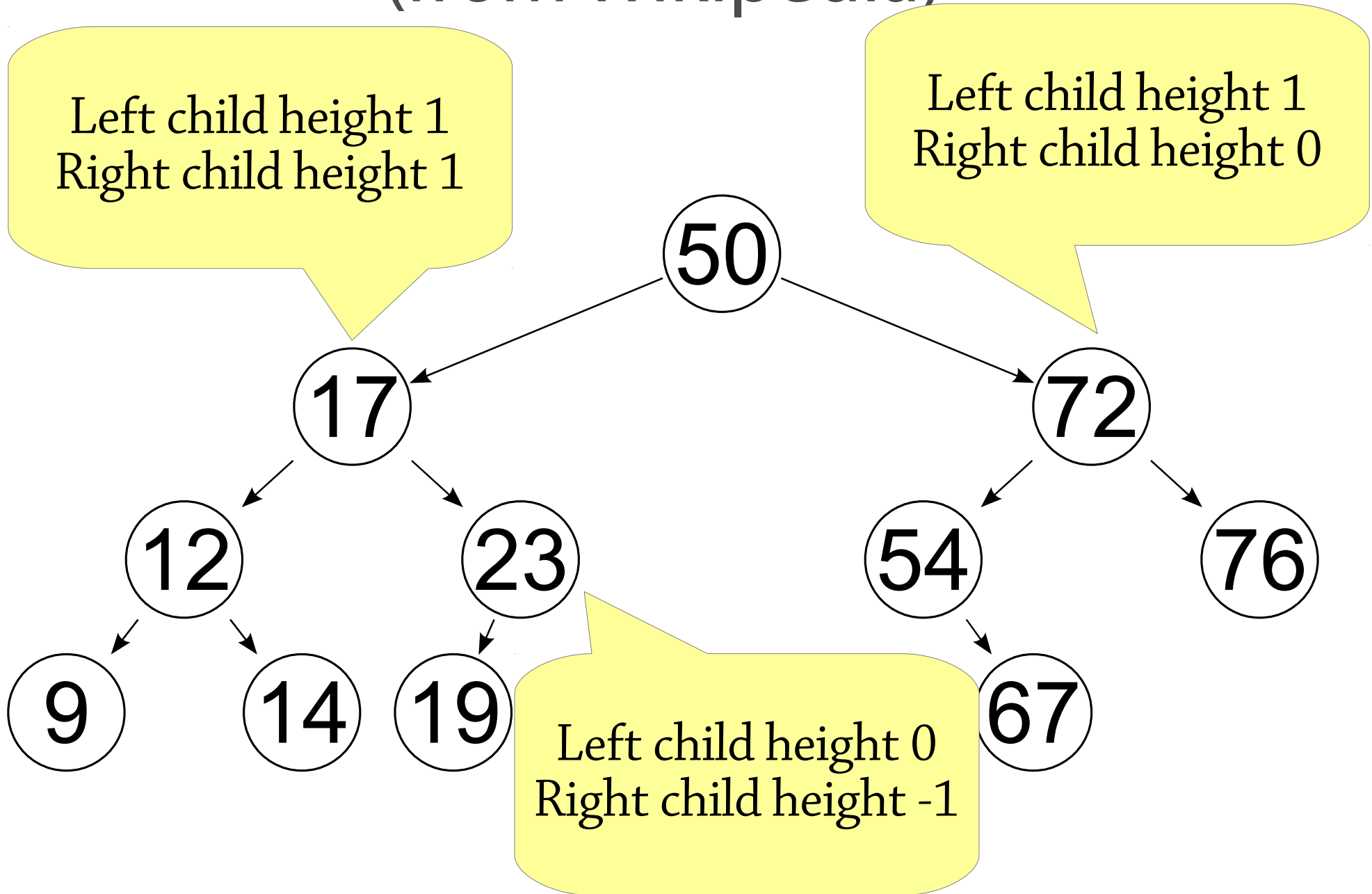
- $n(1) = 2, n(2) = 4, n(3) = 7, n(4) = 12, n(5) = 20, \dots$



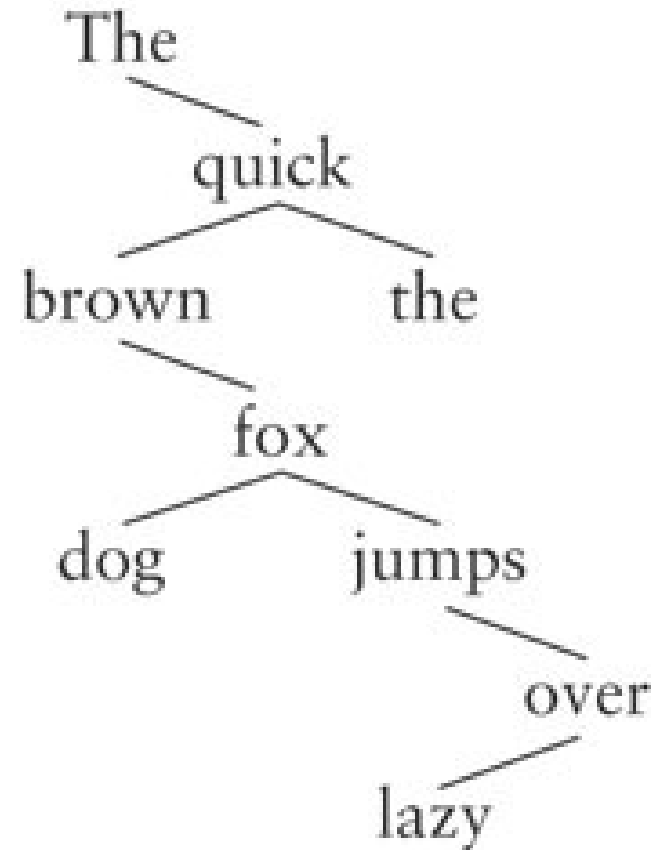
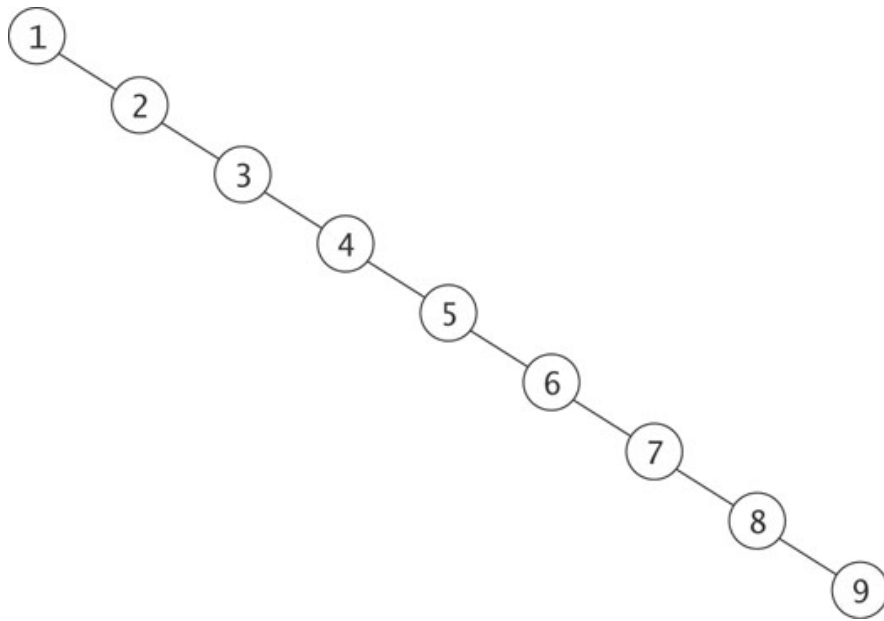
# AVL invariant balances tree

- $n(1) = 2, n(2) = 4, n(3) = 7, n(4) = 12, n(5) = 20, \dots$
- This is almost the Fibonacci sequence. It's exactly  $F(h+3) - 1$  (or  $F(h+2) - 1$ , depending on definition of height).
- The  $k$ :th Fibonacci number is the integer nearest to  $\varphi^k/\sqrt{5}$ , where  $\varphi$  is the golden ratio, 1.618...
- So the number of nodes,  
 $n \geq F(h+3) - 1 > \varphi^{h+3}/\sqrt{5} - 2$ , which means  
 $h < \log_2(\sqrt{5}(n+2))/\log_2\varphi - 3$
- So  $h$  is  $O(\log n)$

# Example of an AVL tree (from Wikipedia)

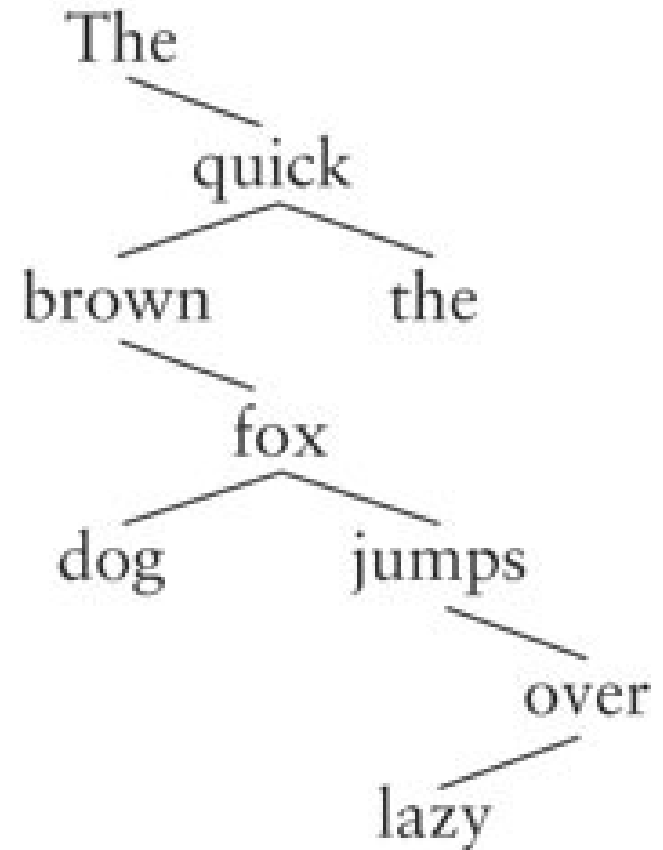
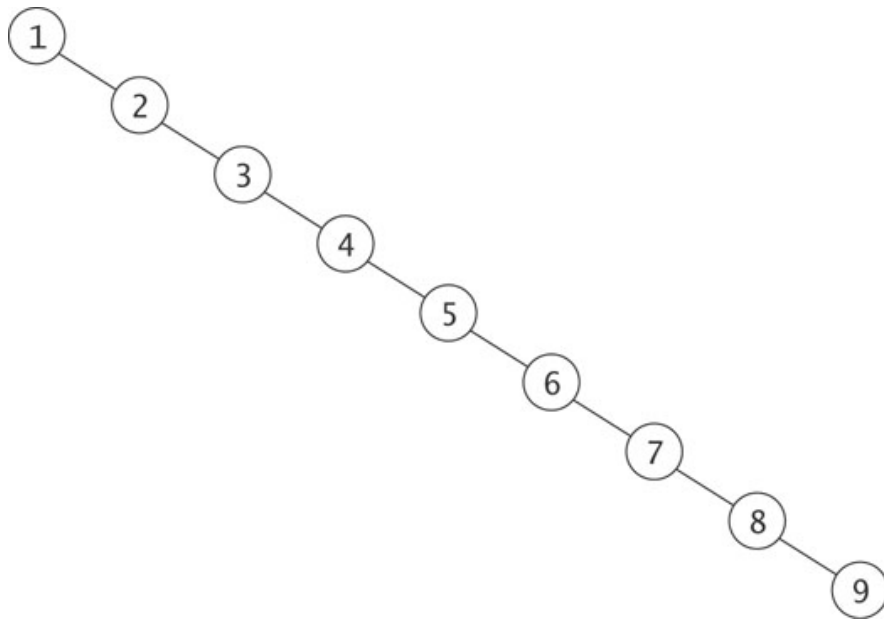


# Why are these not AVL trees?

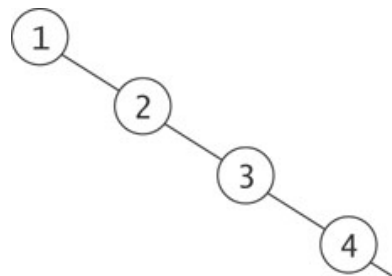


# Why are these not AVL trees?

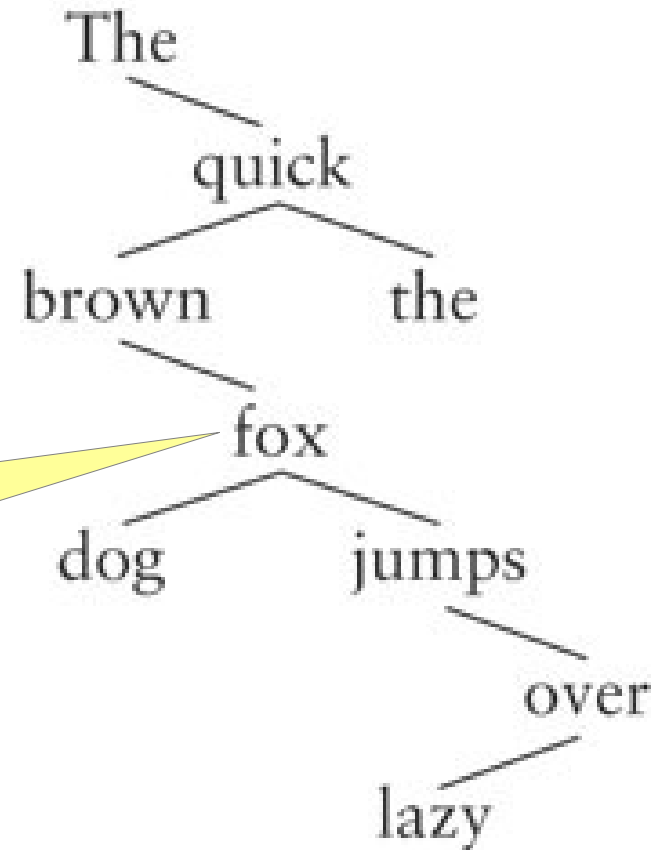
Left child height -1  
Right child height 7



# Why are these not AVL trees?

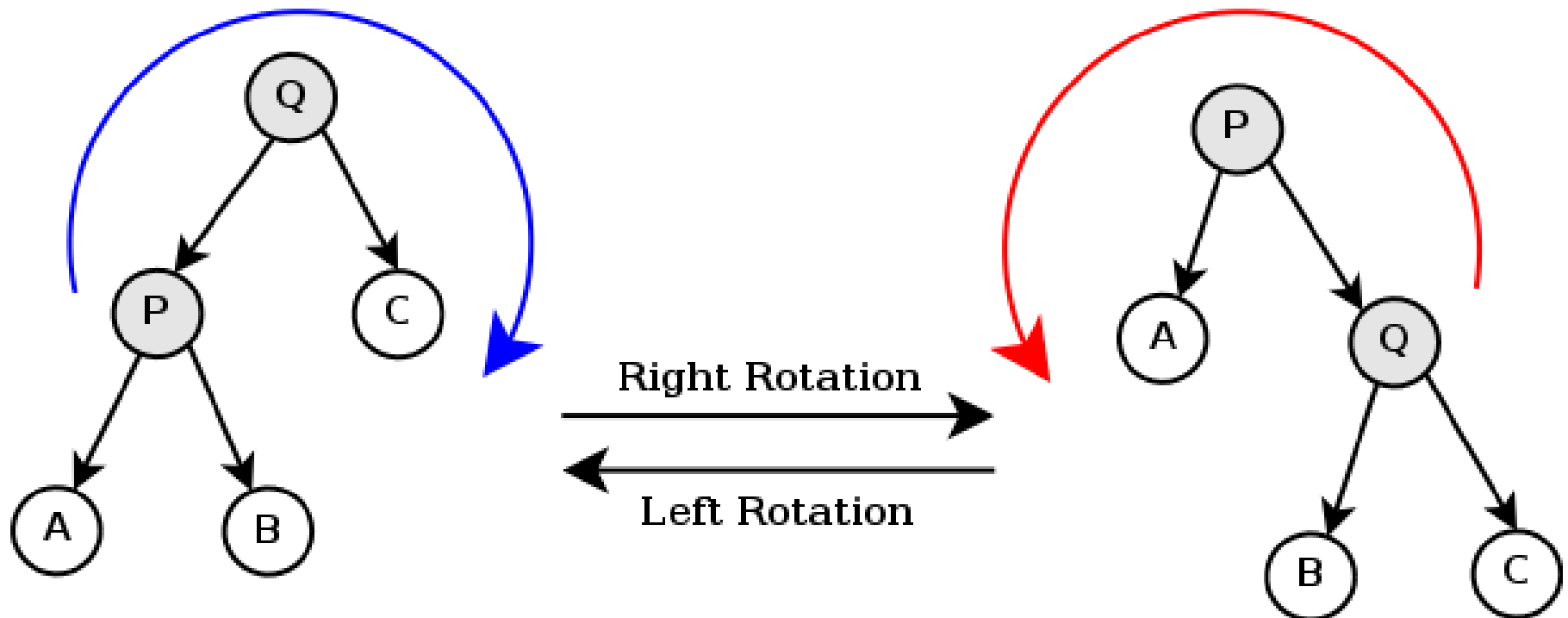


Left child height 0  
Right child height 2



# Rotation

Rotation rearranges a BST by moving a different node to the root, without changing the trees contents or breaking the BST ordering.

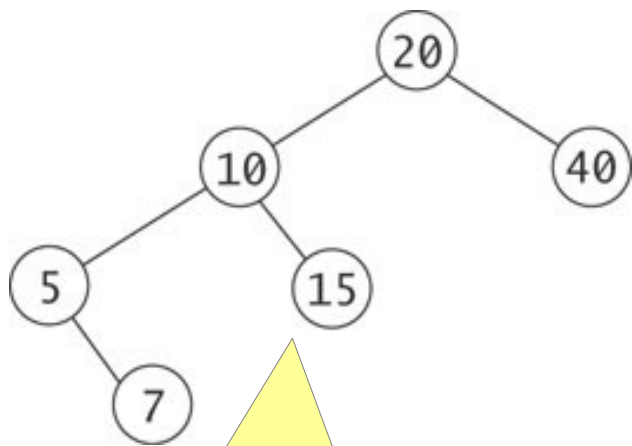


(pic from Wikipedia)

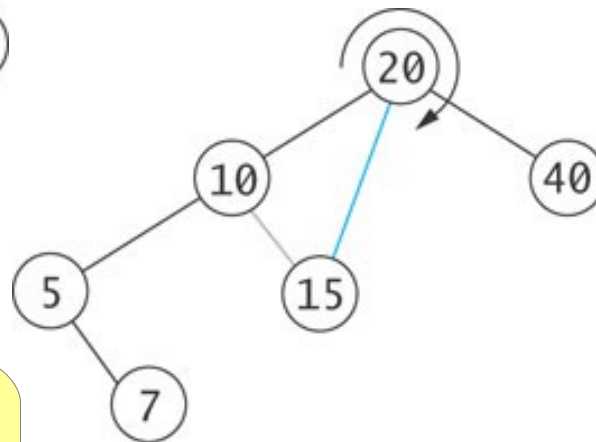
# Rotation

We can strategically use rotations to rebalance an unbalanced tree.

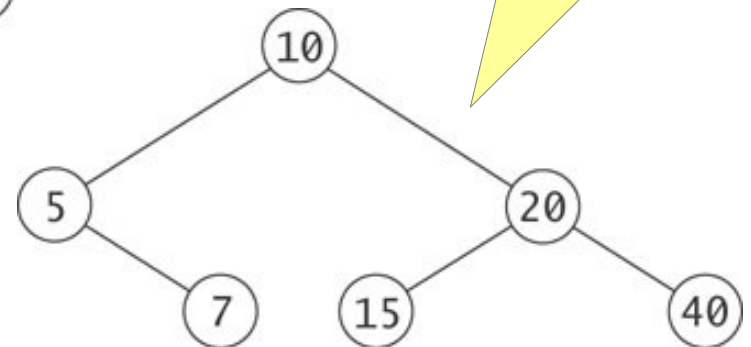
This is what most balanced BST variants do!



Height of 3, and root node is unbalanced.



Height of 2, root node balanced.



# AVL insertion

Start by doing a BST insertion

- This might break the AVL (balance) invariant

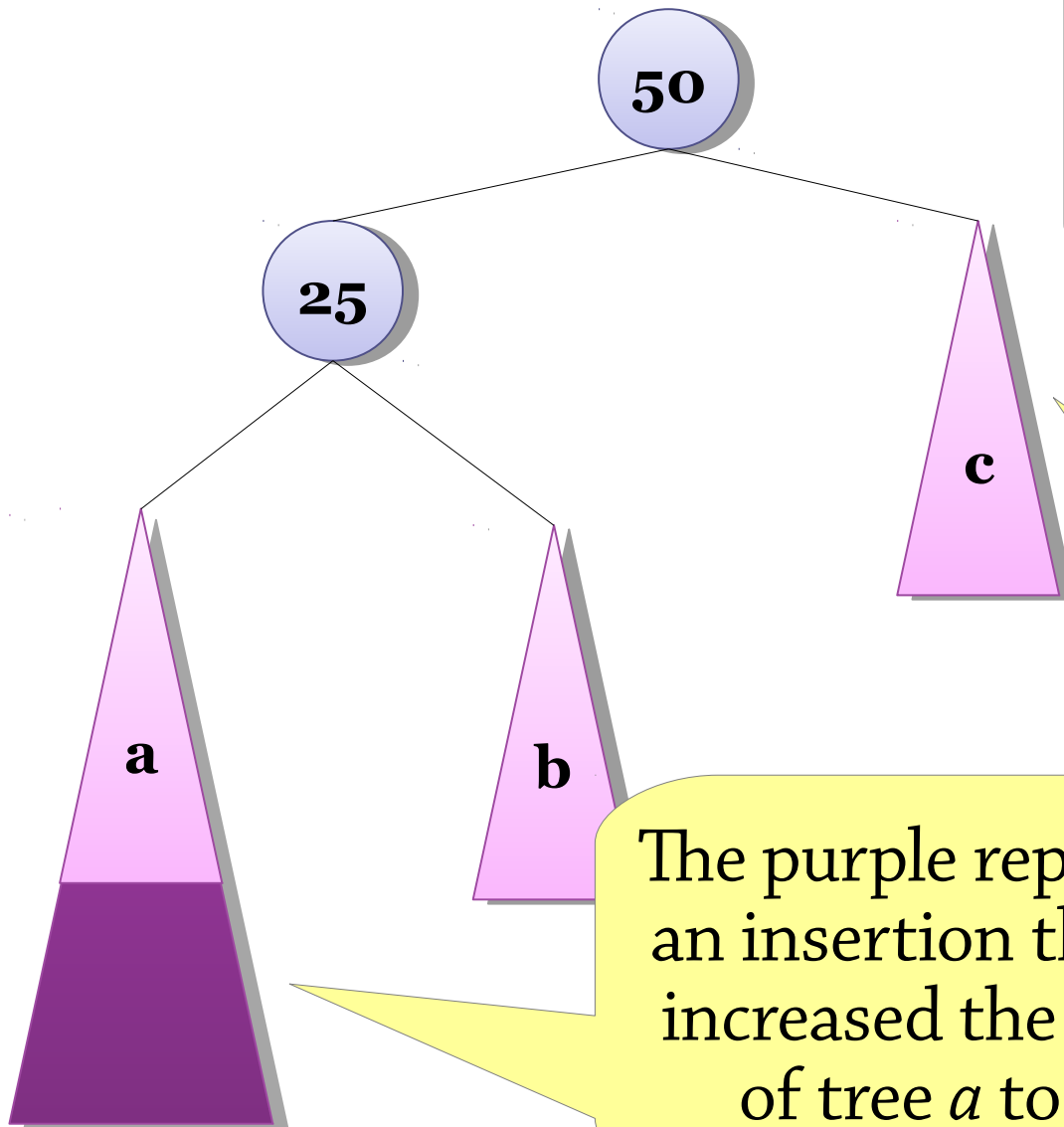
Then go upwards from the newly-inserted node, looking for nodes that break the invariant (unbalanced nodes)

If you find one, rotate it to fix the balance

There are four cases depending on *how* the node became unbalanced



# Case 1: a *left-left* tree

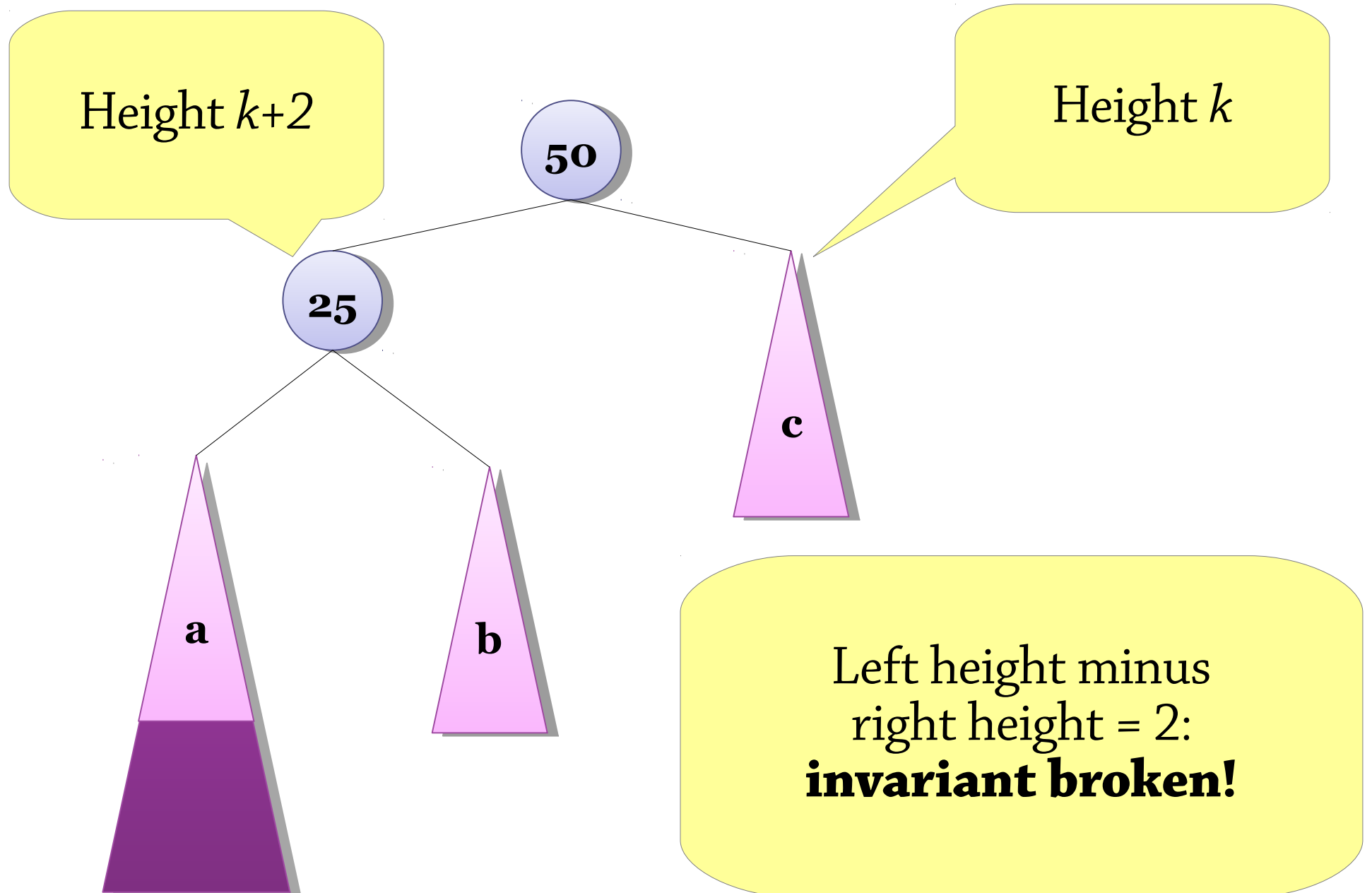


Notice that the tree was balanced before the purple bit was added

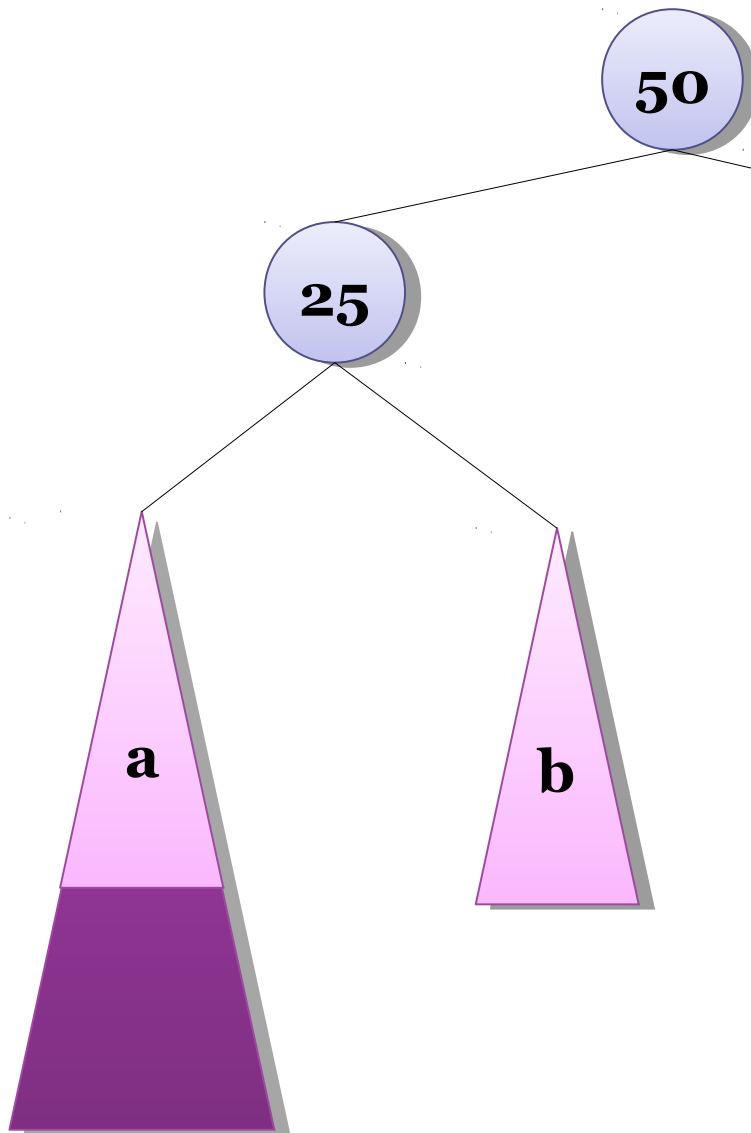
Each pink triangle represents an AVL tree with height  $k$

The purple represents an insertion that has increased the height of tree  $a$  to  $k+1$

# Case 1: a *left-left* tree



# Case 1: a *left-left* tree

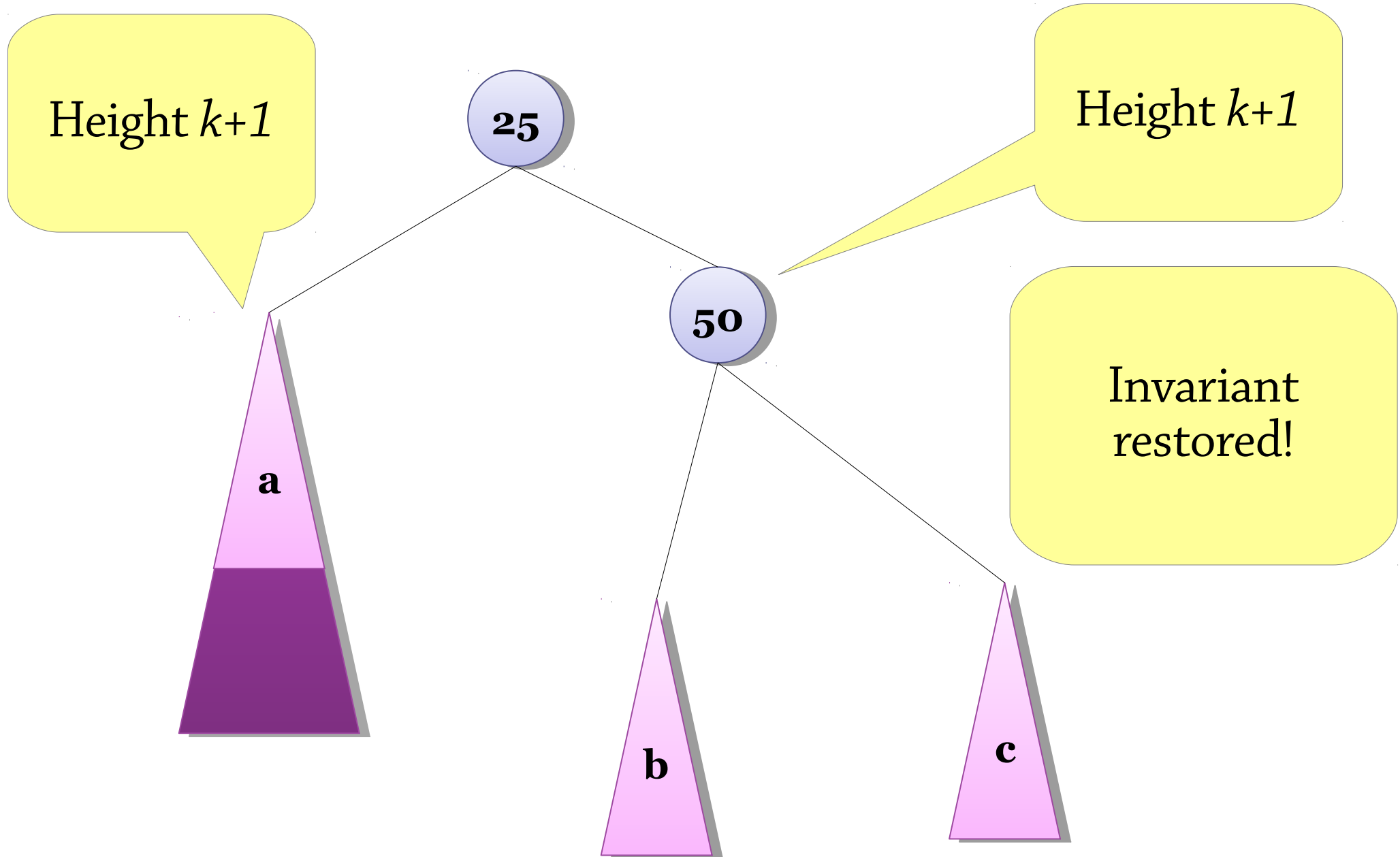


This is called a *left-left tree* because both the root and the left child are deeper on the left

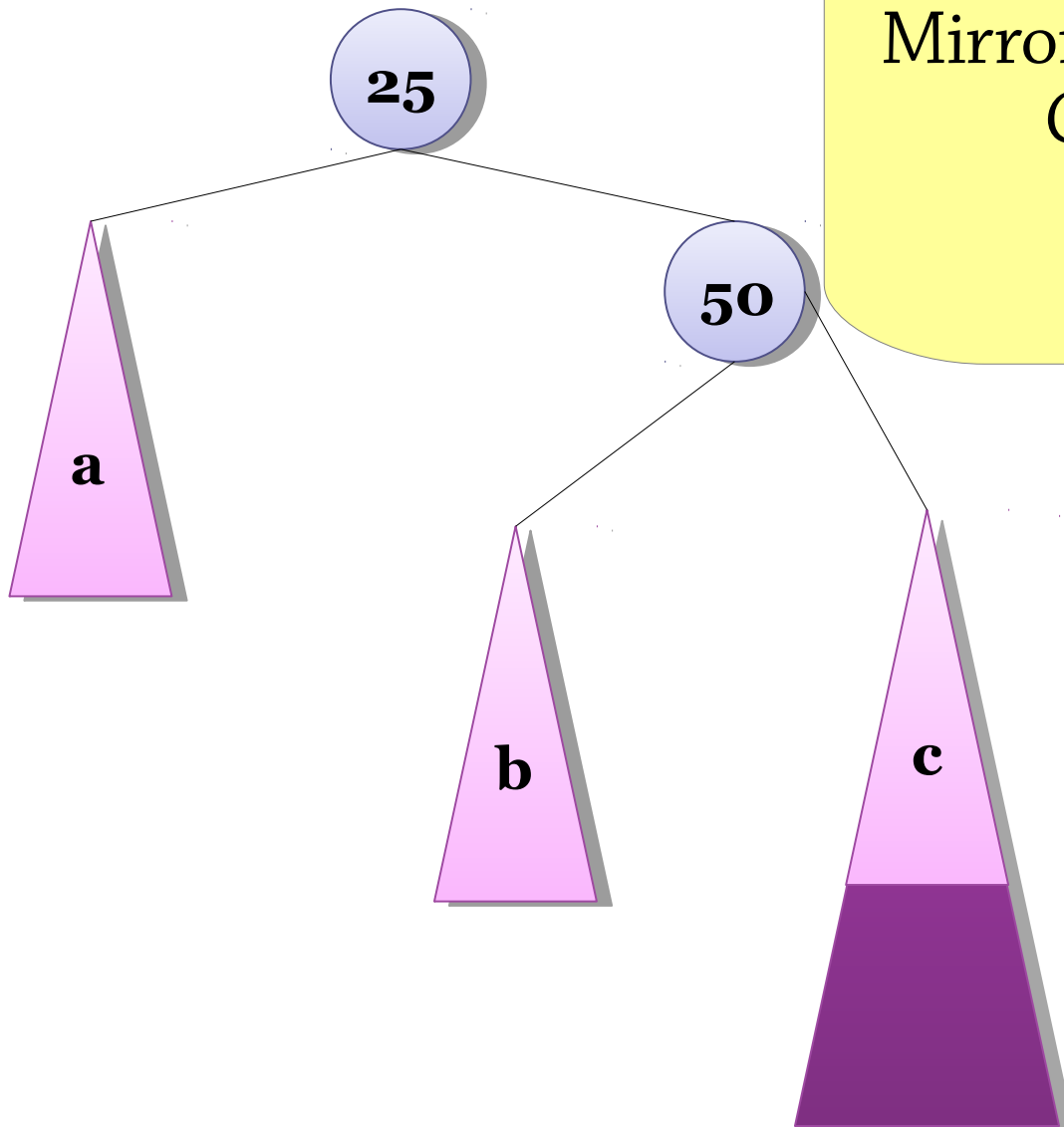
**c**

To fix it we do a *right rotation*

# Balancing a left-left tree, afterwards

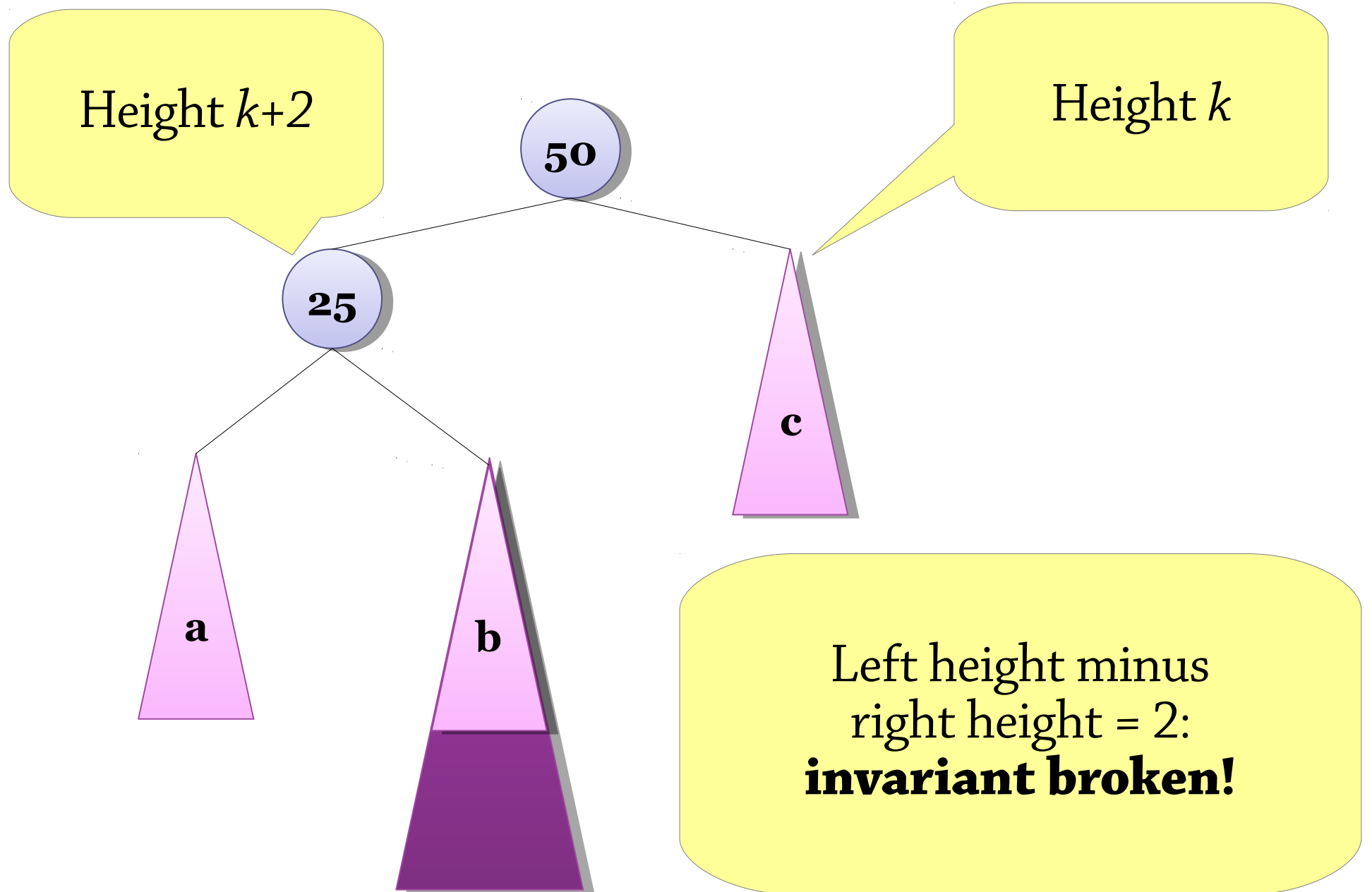


## Case 2: a *right-right* tree

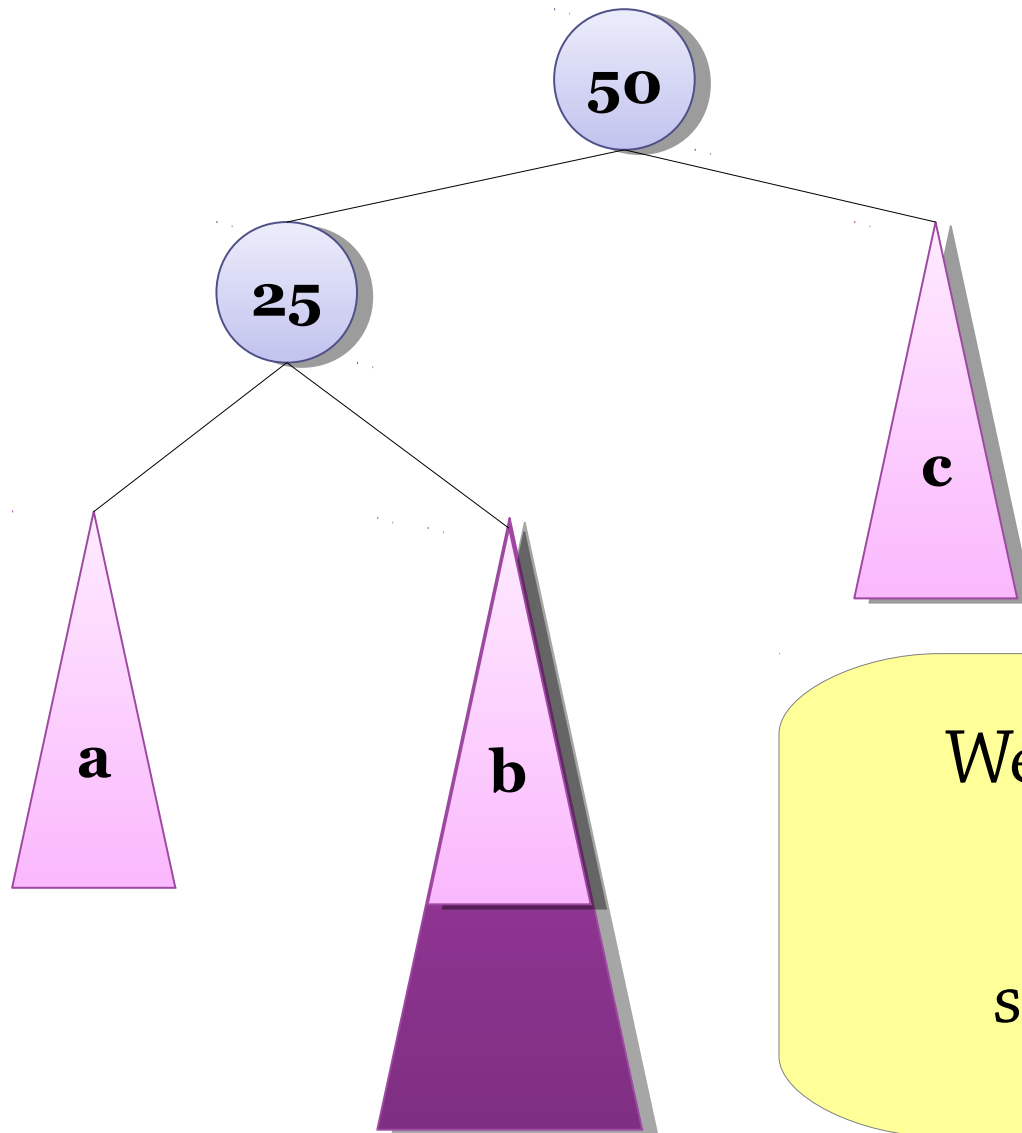


Mirror image of left-left tree  
Can be fixed with  
*left rotation*

# Case 3: a *left-right* tree

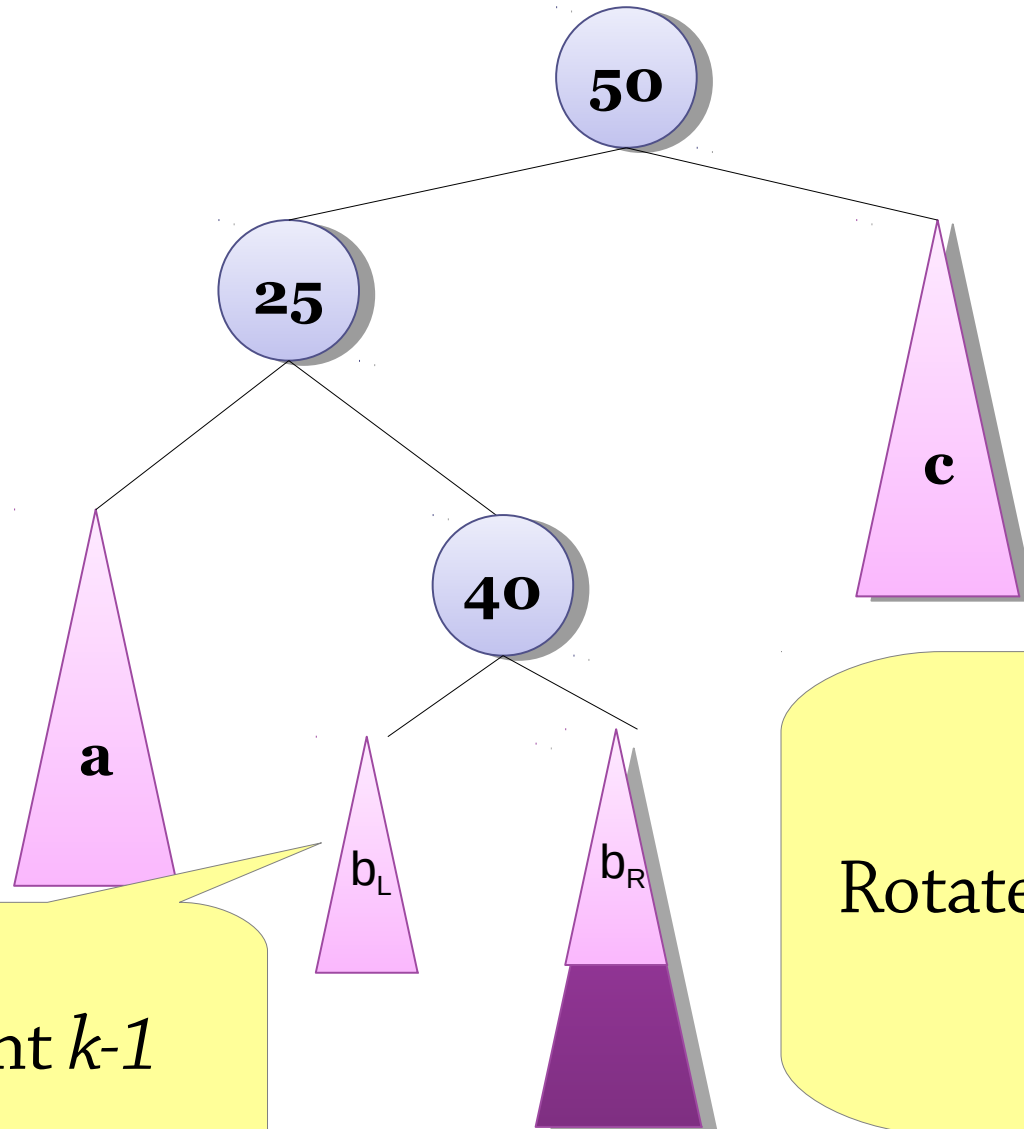


# Case 3: a *left-right* tree



We can't fix this with  
one rotation  
Let's look at b's  
subtrees  $b_L$  and  $b_R$

# Case 3: a *left-right* tree

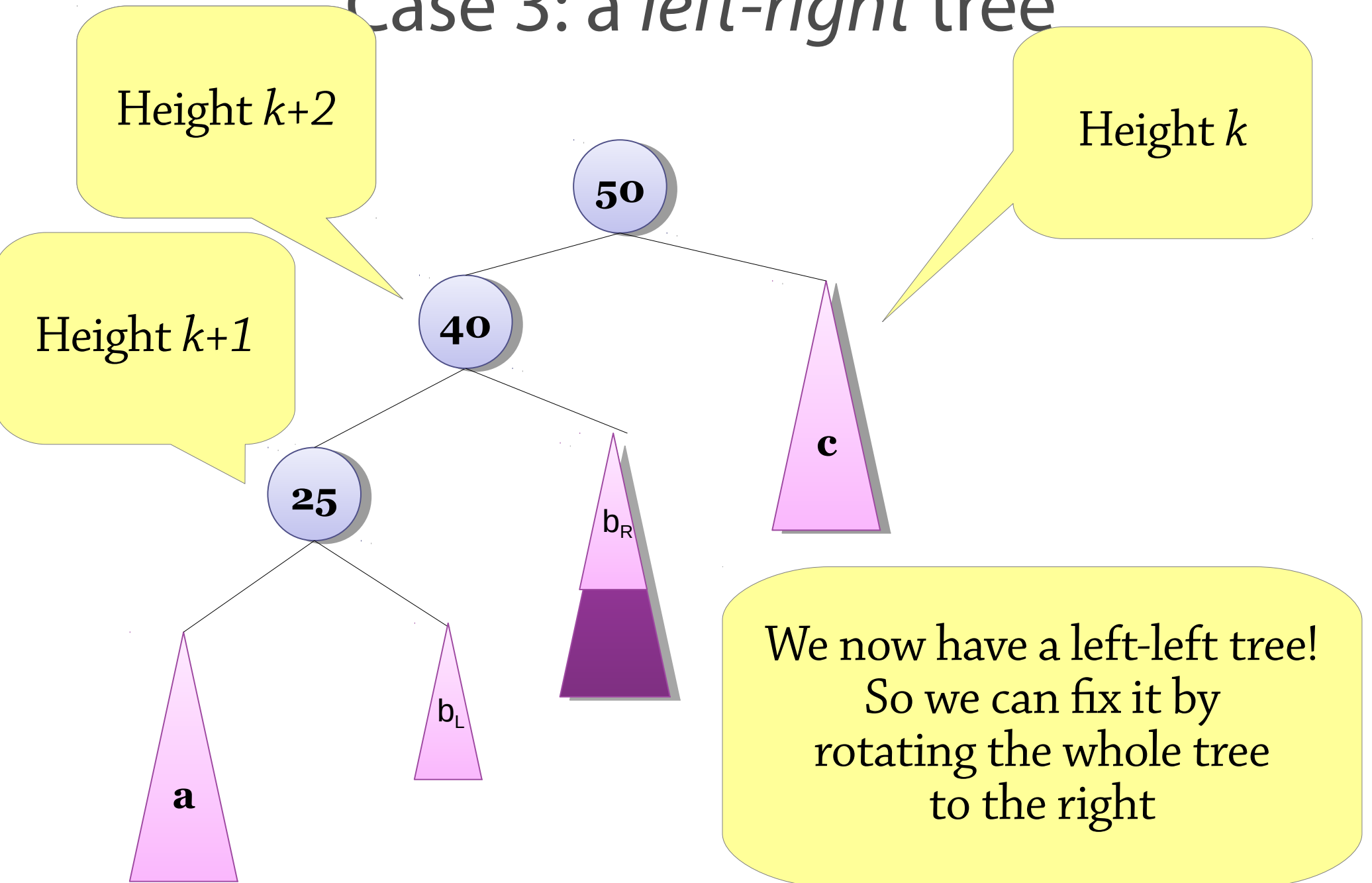


Height  $k-1$

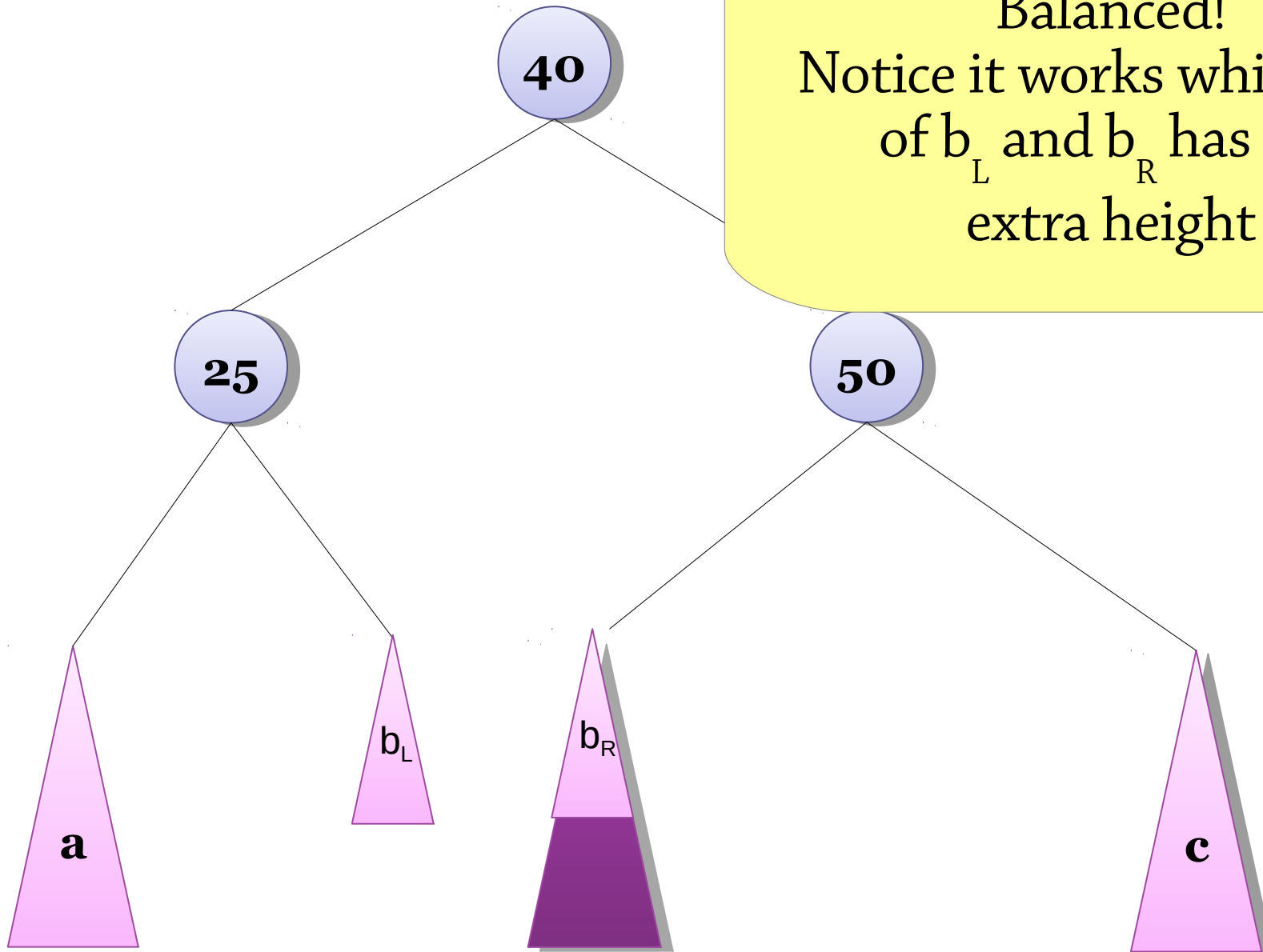
Rotate 25-subtree to the left



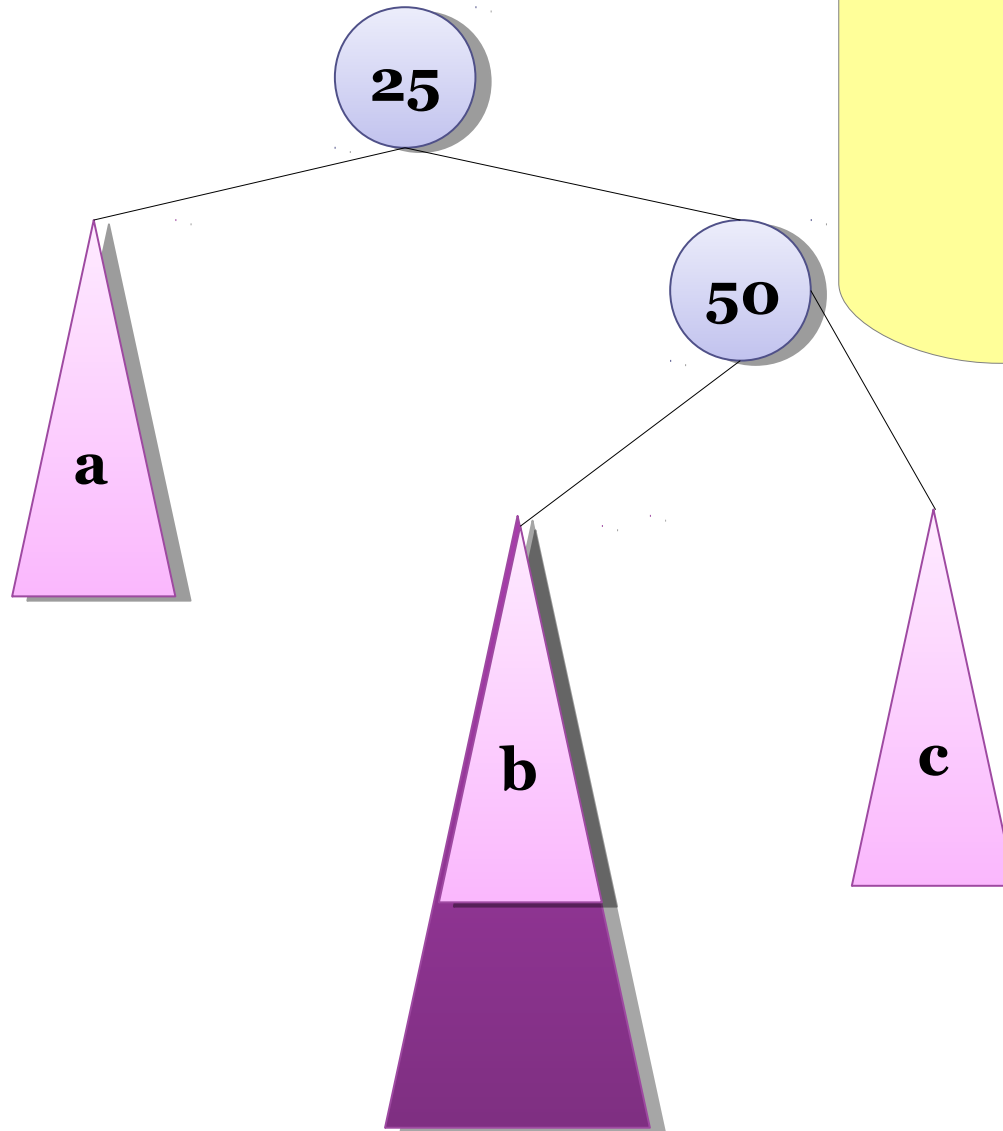
# Case 3: a *left-right* tree



# Case 3: a *left-right* tree



# Case 4: a *right-left* tree



Mirror image of  
left-right tree

# How to identify the cases

Left-left (extra height in left-left grandchild):

- height of left-left grandchild =  $k+1$   
height of left child =  $k+2$   
height of right child =  $k$
- Rotate the whole tree to the right

Left-right (extra height in left-right grandchild):

- height of left-right grandchild =  $k+1$   
height of left child =  $k+2$   
height of right child =  $k$
- First rotate the left child to the left
- Then rotate the whole tree to the right

Algorithm uses heights of subtrees to determine case

Right-left and right-right: symmetric

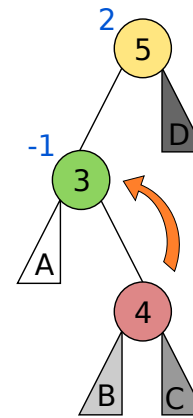
# The four cases

(picture from Wikipedia)

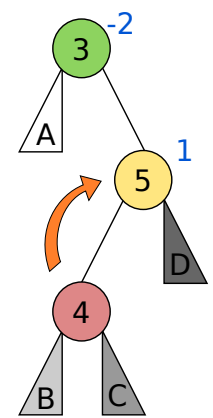
The numbers in the diagram show the *balance* of the tree: left height minus right height

To implement this efficiently, record the balance in the nodes and look at it to work out which case you're in

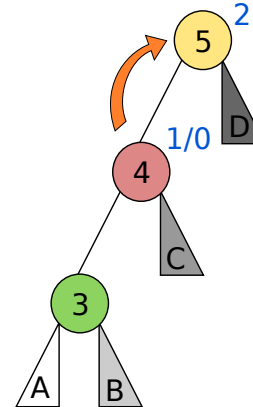
**Left Right Case**



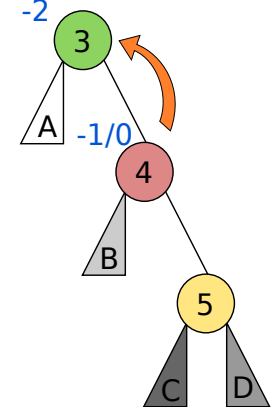
**Right Left Case**



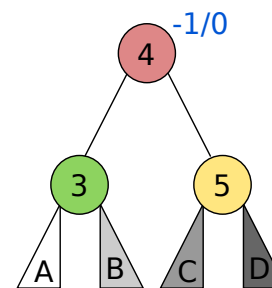
**Left Left Case**



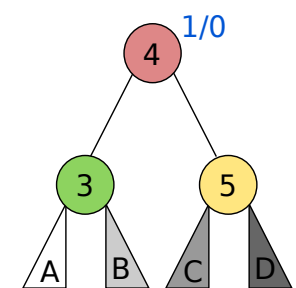
**Right Right Case**



**Balanced**



**Balanced**

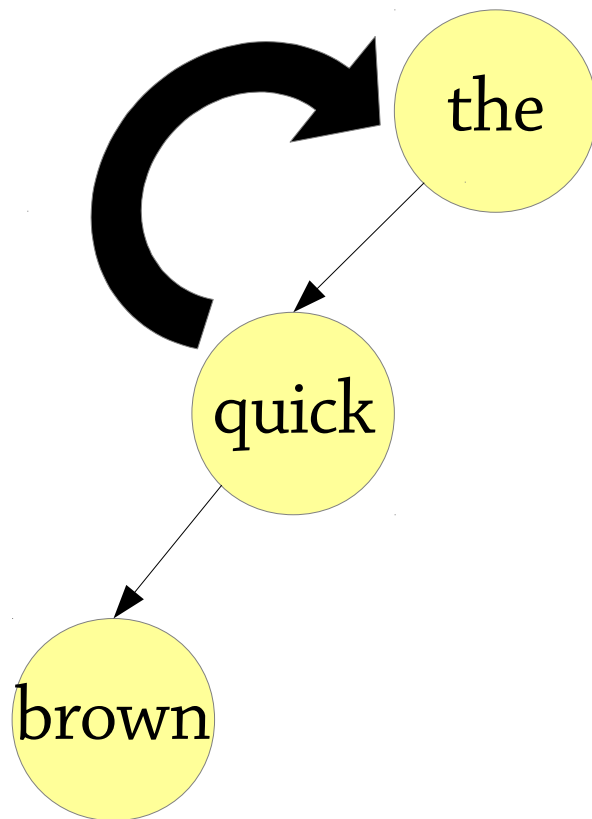


# AVL insertion

- Note that in each case, the height of the resulting subtree is the same as before the insertion.
- This means that if, while traversing the tree from the insertion point and upwards, you find an unbalanced node, the balance should be restored, but after that the traversing can stop – the height of the altered subtree has no longer changed.
- This is also true for nodes which does not become unbalanced and whose height is unchanged (the increased height of the altered child tree does not affect the height of the subtree)

Example: the quick brown fox  
jumps over a lazy dog

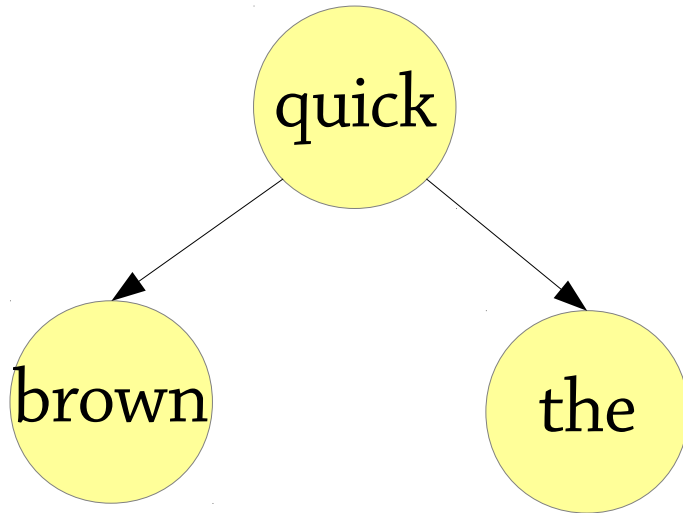
Insert “brown” into “the quick”



Left-left tree!  
Rotate right

Example: the quick brown fox  
jumps over a lazy dog

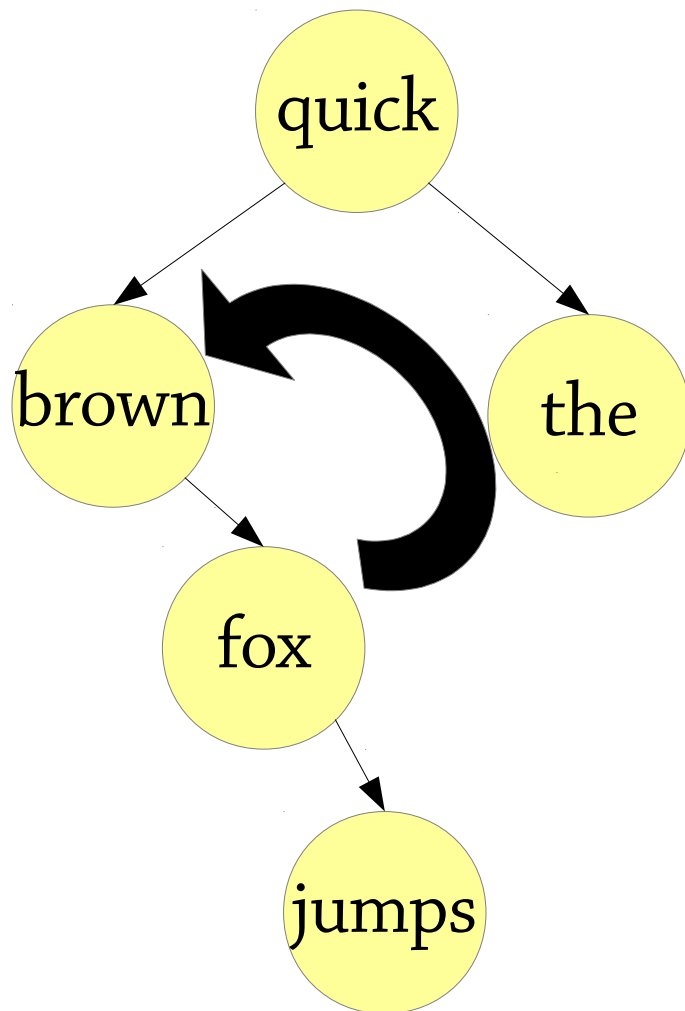
Insert “brown” into “the quick”





# Example: the quick brown fox jumps over a lazy dog

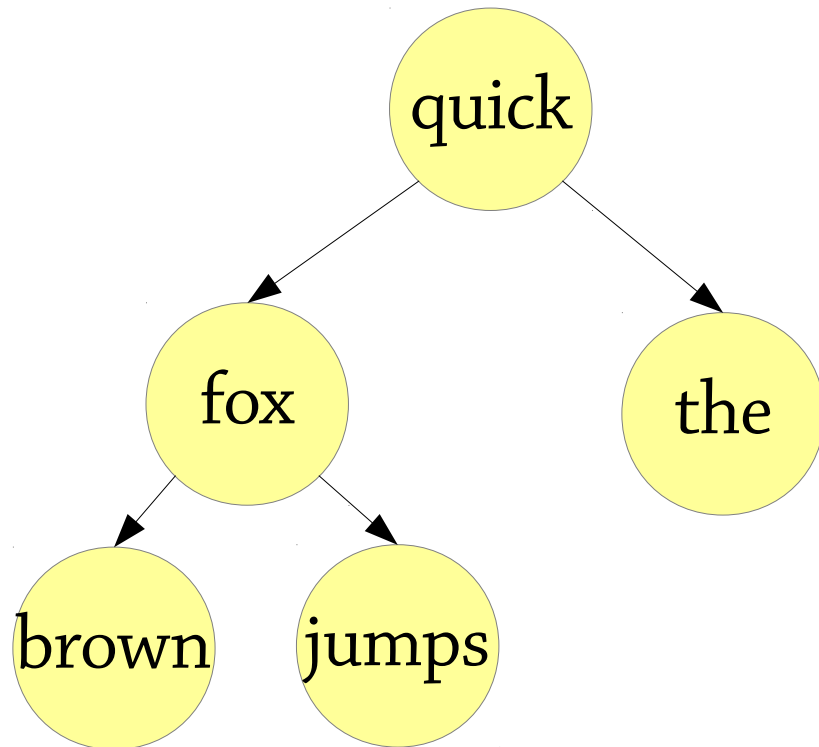
Insert “jumps” into “the quick brown fox”



Right-right tree!  
(What node?)  
Rotate left

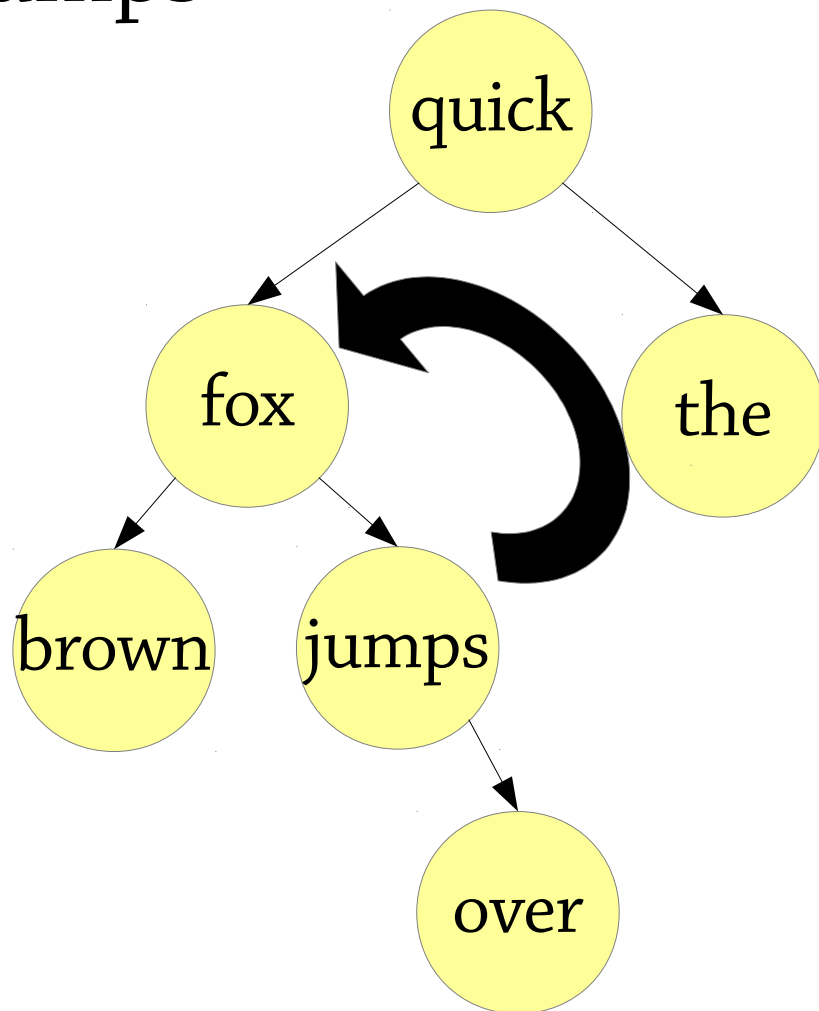
Example: the quick brown fox  
jumps over a lazy dog

Insert “jumps” into “the quick brown fox”



# Example: the quick brown fox jumps over a lazy dog

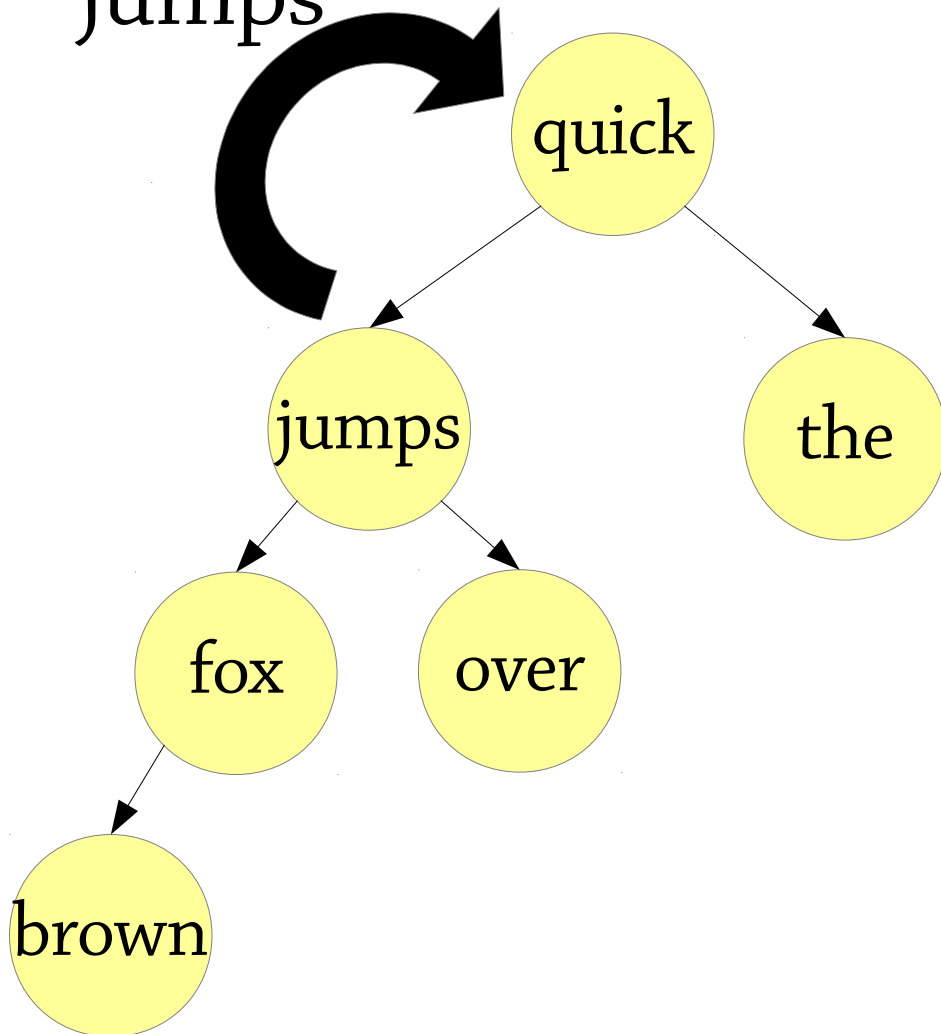
Insert “over” into “the quick brown fox jumps”



Left-right tree!  
(quick →  
fox →  
jumps)  
Rotate fox left...

# Example: the quick brown fox jumps over a lazy dog

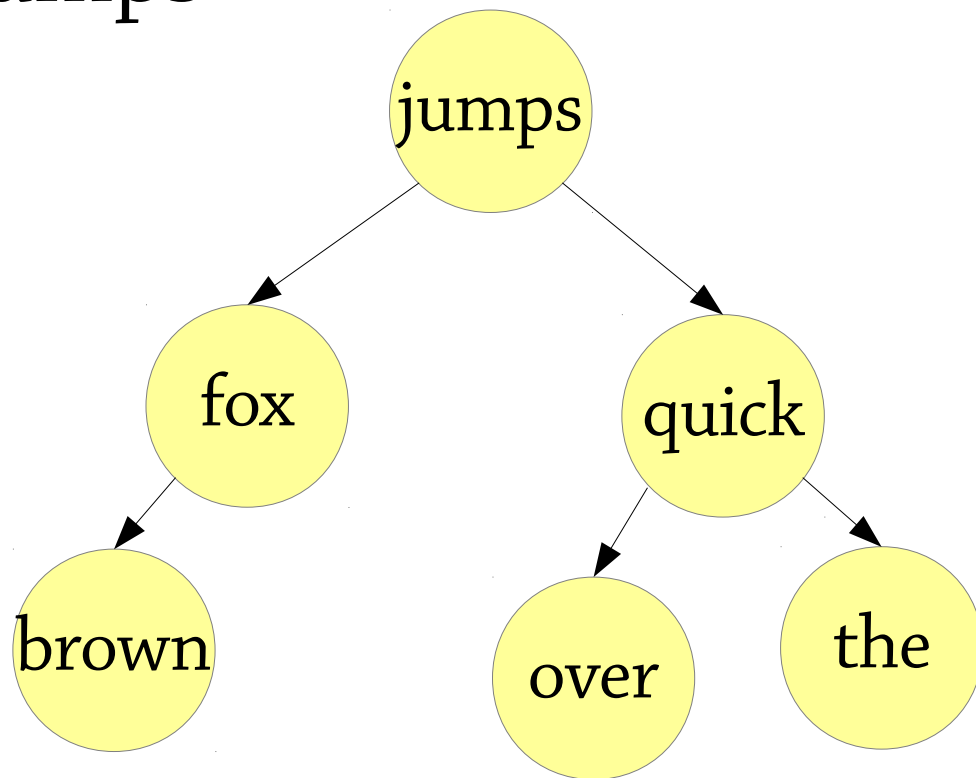
Insert “over” into “the quick brown fox jumps”



...then rotate quick right

# Example: the quick brown fox jumps over a lazy dog

Insert “over” into “the quick brown fox jumps”



# AVL deletion

AVL deletion is similar to insertion.

- First do a standard BST deletion.
- Then look for unbalanced nodes starting from the node that was deleted. Not that this might not be the node where the value to delete was found.
- If a node's height is unchanged then the traversing can stop.
- If an unbalanced node is found then rebalance. Just as for insertion there are the four cases left-left, left-right, right-right, right-left.

# Lazy deletion

- An alternative to actually deleting the node is to use *lazy deletion*.
- After you've found the node with the element to delete, you simply mark it as dead (each node has a boolean indicating alive/dead status).
- If you reinsert a deleted element, you simply mark it as alive again.
- After many deletions, the number of nodes can become much larger than the number of elements that the tree represents.
- One can keep track of the ratio of dead vs. alive nodes and when it reaches a threshold, perform a garbage collect by creating a new tree only containing the alive nodes.

# AVL trees

Use *rotation* to keep the tree balanced

- Worst case height  $1.44 \log_2 n$ , normally close to  $\log n$ 
  - so lookups are quick

Insertion – BST insertion, then rotate to repair the invariant

Deletion (see Wikipedia if you're interested)  
– similar idea but a bit harder (more cases)

- or use lazy deletion

Implementation – see Haskell compendium on course website!