

Balanced Binary Search Trees

A binary search tree can implement any of the basic dynamic-set operations in $O(h)$ time. These operations are $O(\lg n)$ if tree is "balanced".

BST balancing algorithms:

1st type: insert nodes as is done in the BST insert, then rebalance tree

Red-Black trees: uses rotations & recoloring to balance tree

AVL trees: uses rotations to balance tree

2nd type: allow more than one key per node of the search tree:

2-3 trees: Uses ≤ 2 keys per node to keep tree balanced all the time (also 2-3-4 trees)

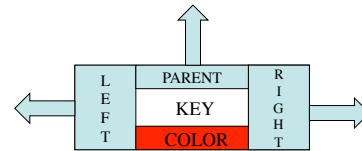
B-trees: Lots of keys in each node. Good for storing large records of data

Red-Black Trees (RBT) (Ch. 13)

Red-Black tree: BST in which each node is colored red or black.

Constraints on the coloring and connection of nodes ensure that no root to leaf path is more than twice as long as any other, so tree is approximately balanced.

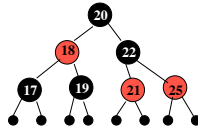
Each RBT node contains fields *left*, *right*, *parent*, *color*, and *key*.



Red-Black Properties

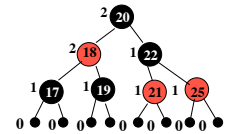
Red-Black tree properties:

- 1) Every node is either red or black.
- 2) The root is black.
- 3) Every leaf contains NIL and is black.
- 4) If a node is red, then both its children are black.
- 5) For each node x , all paths from x to its descendant leaves contain the same number of black nodes.



Black Height $bh(x)$

Black-height of a node x : $bh(x)$ is the number of black nodes (including the NIL leaf) on the path from x to a leaf, *not counting x itself*.



Every node has a black-height, $bh(x)$, labeled next to node.

For all NIL leaves, $bh(x) = 0$.

For root x , $bh(x) = bh(T)$.

Red-Black Tree Height

Lemma 13.1: A red-black tree with n internal nodes has height at most $2\lg(n+1)$.

Start with claim 1: The subtree rooted at any node x contains at least $2^{bh(x)} - 1$ internal nodes.

Proof is by induction on the height of the node x .

Basis: height of x is 0 with $bh(x) = 0$. Then x is a leaf and its subtree contains $2^0 - 1 = 0$ internal nodes.

Inductive step: Consider a node x that has a positive height and 2 children. Each *child* of x has bh either equal to $bh(x)$ (red child) or $bh(x)-1$ (black child).

Red-Black Tree Height

Claim 1: (cont) The subtree rooted at any node x contains at least $2^{bh(x)} - 1$ internal nodes.

We can apply the Inductive Hypothesis to the children of node x to find that the subtree rooted at each child of x has at least $2^{bh(x)-1} - 1$ internal nodes. Thus, the subtree rooted at x has at least $((2^{bh(x)-1} - 1) + (2^{bh(x)-1} - 1) + 1) = 2(2^{bh(x)-1} - 1) + 1$ internal nodes $= 2^{bh(x)} - 1$ internal nodes. QED

Red-Black Tree Height

Lemma 13.1: (cont.) A red-black tree with n internal nodes has height at most $2\lg(n+1)$.

Rest of proof of lemma: Let h be the height of the tree. By property 4 of RBTs, at least $1/2$ the nodes on any root to leaf path are black. Therefore, the black-height of the root must be at least $h/2$.

Thus, by claim 1, $n \geq 2^{h/2} - 1$, so $n+1 \geq 2^{h/2}$ and, taking the log of both sides, $\lg(n+1) \geq h/2$, which means that $h \leq 2\lg(n+1)$.

Red-Black Tree Height

Since a red-black tree is a binary search tree, the dynamic-set operations for Search, Minimum, Maximum, Successor, and Predecessor for the binary search tree can be implemented as-is on red-black trees, and since they take $O(h)$ time on a binary search tree, they take $O(\lg n)$ time on a red-black tree.

The operations Tree-Insert and Tree-Delete can also be done in $O(\lg n)$ time on red-black trees. However, after inserting or deleting, the nodes of the tree may have to be moved around to ensure that the red-black properties are maintained. The number of operations to move nodes around are constant at each level.

Operations on Red-Black Trees

All non-modifying bst operations (min, max, succ, pred, search) run in $O(h) = O(\lg n)$ time on red-black trees.

Insertion and deletion are more complex.

If we insert a node, what color do we make the new node?

- * If red, the node might violate property 4.
- * If black, the node might violate property 5.

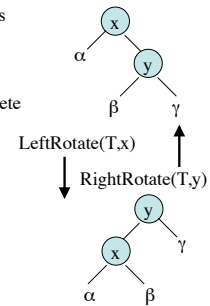
If we delete a node, what color was the node that was removed?

- * Red? OK, since we won't have changed any black-heights, nor will we have created 2 red nodes in a row. If node removed was red, it could not have been the root by property 2.
- * Black? Could violate property 4, 5, and/or 2.

Red-Black Tree Rotations

Algorithms to restore RBT property to tree after Tree-Insert and Tree-Delete include right and left rotations and re-coloring nodes.

The number of rotations for insert and delete are constant, but they may take place at every level of the tree, so therefore the running time of both insert and delete is $O(\lg n)$



```
RB-Insert-Fixup(T, z)
while z.p.c == red
    if z.p == z.p.p.right
        y = z.p.p.left // sibling of parent
        if y.c == red
            z.p.c = y.c = black
            z.p.p.c = red
            z = z.p.p
        else // y is red
            if z == z.p.left
                z = z.p
                right-rotate(T,z)
            z.p.c = black
            z.p.p.c = red
            left-rotate(T,z.p.p)
        else // z.p == z.p.p.left
            y = z.p.p.right // sibling of parent
            if y.c == red
                z.p.c = y.c = black
                z.p.p.c = red
                z = z.p.p
            else // y is red
                if z == z.p.right
                    z = z.p
                    left-rotate(T,z)
                z.p.c = black
                z.p.p.c = red
                right-rotate(T,z.p.p)
T.root.c = black
```

Operations on Red-Black Trees

You should remember that the red-black tree procedures are intended to preserve the $\lg(n)$ running time of dynamic set operations by keeping the height of a binary search tree low, at most $2\lg n$.

Read sections 1 through 3 of Chapter 13 (and more if you like).

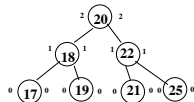
Given a binary search tree with red and black nodes, you should be able to decide whether it follows all the rules for a red-black tree (i.e., you should be able to determine whether a given binary search tree with node colors black and red is a red-black tree). You should also be able to give the black height of each node x in a red-black tree. You should know how the insert RB-insert-fixup algorithms work.

AVL Trees

Developed by Russians Adelson-Velsky and Landis (hence AVL). This algorithm is not covered in our text but I've posted a reading on our web page at the "Readings" link.

The AVL procedures keep the height of a binary search tree low. The balance factor of node x is the *difference in heights of nodes in x 's left and right subtrees*

Definition: An AVL tree is a BST in which the difference in height between left and right subtrees is at most 1.

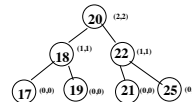


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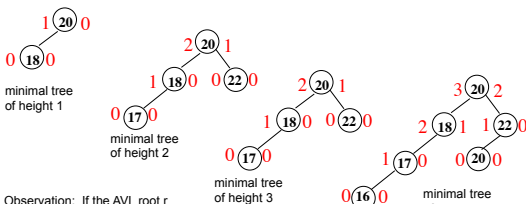
Definition: An AVL tree is a BST in which the difference in height between left and right subtrees is at most 1.



Different way of showing left and right subtree heights as pairs rather than number to the left and right of each node.

AVL Trees

AVL trees with minimal number of nodes are worst-case examples of AVL height imbalance: every internal node's subtrees differ in height by 1.



Observation: If the AVL root r has a minimum number of nodes, then one subtree of r is higher by 1 than the other subtree of r . Otherwise, if r 's 2 subtrees were equal height, then AVL rooted at r is not minimal.

AVL Trees

Lemma: AVL trees have height $= O(\lg n)$.

Proof:

Let $N(h)$ denote the minimum number of nodes in AVL tree of height h with root r .

Assume, without loss of generality, that the left subtree is taller by 1 node than the right subtree. We can express $N(h)$ in terms of:

- $N(h-1)$, the minimum number of nodes in the left subtree of r , and
- $N(h-2)$, the minimum number of nodes in the right subtree of r .

By assumption, $N(h-1) > N(h-2)$, so it must be that

$$N(h) > 1 + N(h-2) + N(h-2) = 1 + 2N(h-2) > 2N(h-2).$$

So we have $N(h) > 2N(h-2)$.

AVL Trees

Lemma: AVL trees have height $= O(\lg n)$.

Proof (continued):

We can solve $N(h) > 2N(h-2)$ as a recurrence, where $N(0) = 1$.

$$N(h) > 2 * N(h-2) > 2 * 2 * N(h-4) > 2 * 2 * 2 * N(h-6) > \dots > 2^{h/2}$$

You can see this by checking for a particular $h = 6$:

$$N(6) > 2 * N(4) > 2 * 2 * N(2) > 2 * 2 * 2 * N(0) > 2^3$$

Now, we can bound h :

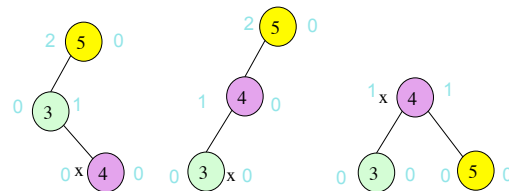
$$N(h) > 2^{h/2}, \text{ so taking the log of both sides, } \lg N(h) > \lg 2^{h/2} = h/2$$

$$\text{and so } h < 2 \lg N(h), \text{ and since } N(h) = n, \text{ we have that } h = O(\lg n).$$

Thus, these worst-case AVL trees have height $h = O(\lg n)$. Therefore, more balanced AVL trees have same bound on height.

Example of AVL rotations

Let $x.p$ be the parent and $x.p.p$ be the grandparent of x .



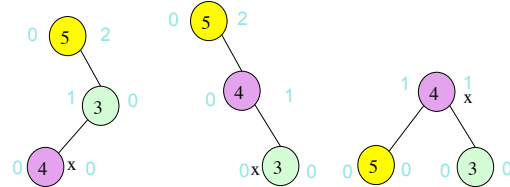
Case with LR imbalance at $x.p.p$. Left rotation of $x.p$.

Case with LL imbalance at $x.p.p$. Right rotation of $x.p.p$.

Tree height-balanced at x .

Example of AVL rotations

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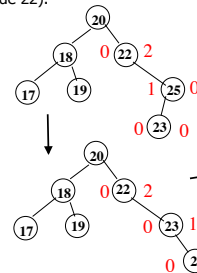
Case with RL imbalance at $x.p.p$. Right rotation of $x.p$.

Case with RR imbalance at $x.p.p$. Left rotation of $x.p.p$.

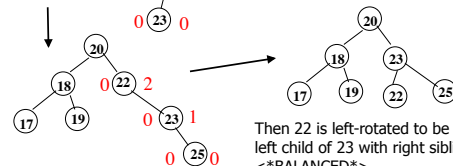
Tree Height-balanced at x .

AVL Trees

In the case on the left below, the node $x=23$ has just been inserted, creating a 1-0 imbalance $x.p$ (node 25) and a 0-2 imbalance at $x.p.p$ (node 22).



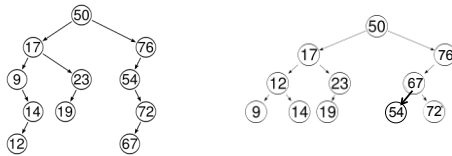
In this case, 25 is right-rotated to put 23 between 22 and 25, producing the tree shown under the tree to the left, where $x.p$ now has a 0-1 imbalance.



Then 22 is left-rotated to be the left child of 23 with right sibling 25. <*<BALANCED*>

AVL trees

For each of these trees, indicate whether they are AVL trees by showing the height at each node.



Inserting nodes into AVL tree

Insert the following nodes into an AVL tree, in the order specified. Show the balance factor at each node as you add each one. When an imbalance occurs, specify the rotations needed to restore the AVL property. Nodes = $\langle 9, 5, 8, 3, 2, 4, 7 \rangle$

AVL Tree Pros and Cons

1. Search is $O(\lg n)$ since AVL trees are **always (nearly) balanced**.
2. Insertion and deletion are also $O(\lg n)$.

The rotations may be needed along entire leaf to root path, whereas RB trees need fewer rotations.

2-3 Trees

Another set of procedures to keep the height of a binary search tree low.

Definition: A 2-3 tree is a tree that can have nodes of two kinds: **2-nodes** and **3-nodes**. A **2-node** contains a single key and has two children, exactly like any other binary search tree node. A **3-node** contains 2 values and has three children.

A 2-3 tree is always perfectly height balanced.

2-3 Tree Search

Search for a key k in a 2-3 tree:

1. Start at the root.
2. If the root is a 2-node (with only 1 key), look at the right node of the root if k is larger than key at root and to the left node of the root if k is smaller than key of root.
3. If the root is a 3-node (with 2 keys), go to the left child if k is less than K_1 of root, to the middle child if k is greater than K_1 but less than K_2 of root, and go to the right child if k is greater than K_2 of root.

2-3 Tree Insert

Insert a key k in a 2-3 tree: (key always inserted in leaf node)

1. Start at the root.
2. Search for k until reaching a leaf.
 - a) If leaf is a 2-node, insert k in proper position in leaf, either to the left or right of the key that already exists in the leaf, making it a 3-node.
 - b) If leaf is a 3-node, temporarily make the leaf node have 3 keys: the smallest of the 3 keys is put on the left, the largest key is put on the right, and the middle key is promoted to the parent. This may cause overload on the parent leaf and can lead to several node splits along the chain of the leaf's ancestors, possibly all the way to the root.

Inserting nodes into 2-3 tree

Insert the following nodes into a 2-3 tree, in the order specified. When an overload occurs, specify the changes needed to restore the 2-3 property. Nodes = $\langle 9, 5, 8, 3, 2, 4, 7 \rangle$

A 2-3 tree of height h with the smallest number of keys is a complete tree of 2 nodes (height = $\Theta(\lg n)$). A 2-3 tree of height h with largest number of keys is a complete tree of 3 nodes, each with 2 keys and 3 children (height = $\Theta(\log_3 n)$). Therefore, all operations are $\Theta(\lg n)$.

2-3-4 Trees

Like a 2-3 tree, but with 2-nodes (1 key), 3 nodes (2 keys), and 4-nodes (3 keys). Not covered in our text.

Obeys BST tree convention of smaller keys in left subtree and larger in right subtree.

Each node can have 2, 3 or 4 children and 1, 2 or 3 keys at each node

When a node with 4 keys is created, the tree is reordered in a similar fashion as a 2-3 tree.

You are not expected to know how to perform any operations on a 2-3-4 tree.

B-Trees

Developed by Bayer and McCreight in 1972.

Our text covers these trees in Chapter 18.

B-trees are balanced search trees designed to work well on magnetic disks or other secondary-storage devices to minimize disk I/O operations. Extends the idea of the 2-3 tree by permitting more than a single key in the same node.

Internal nodes can have a variable number of child nodes within some pre-defined range, m .

B-Trees

A B-Tree of order m (the maximum number of children for each node) is a tree which satisfies the following properties :

1. Every node has at most m and at least $m/2$ children.
2. The root has at least 2 children.
3. All leaves appear in the same level, and carry no information.
4. A non-leaf node with k children contains $k - 1$ keys

B-trees have substantial advantages over alternative implementations when node access times far exceed access times within nodes.