## Data Structures – Week #6

Special Trees

#### Outline

- Adelson-Velskii-Landis (AVL) Trees
- Splay Trees
- B-Trees

# **AVL Trees**

#### Motivation for AVL Trees

- Accessing a node in a BST takes  $O(log_2n)$  in average.
- A BST can be structured so as to have an average access time of O(n). Can you think of one such BST?
- Q: Is there a way to guarantee a worst-case access time of  $O(log_2n)$  per node or can we find a way to guarantee a BST depth of  $O(log_2n)$ ?
- A: AVL Trees

#### Definition

An *AVL tree* is a *BST* with the following balance condition:

for each node in the BST, the height of left and right sub-trees can differ by at most 1, or

$$\left|h_{N_L}-h_{N_R}\right|\leq 1.$$

#### Remarks on Balance Condition

- Balance condition must be easy to maintain:
  - This is the reason, for example, for the balance condition's not being as follows: the height of left and right sub-trees of each node have the same height.
- It ensures the depth of the BST is  $O(\log_2 n)$ .
- The *height information is stored* as an additional field in BTNodeType.

#### Structure of an AVL Tree

```
struct BTNodeType {
   infoType *data;
   unsigned int height;
   struct BTNodeType *left;
   struct BTNodeType *right;
```

#### Rotations

#### Definition:

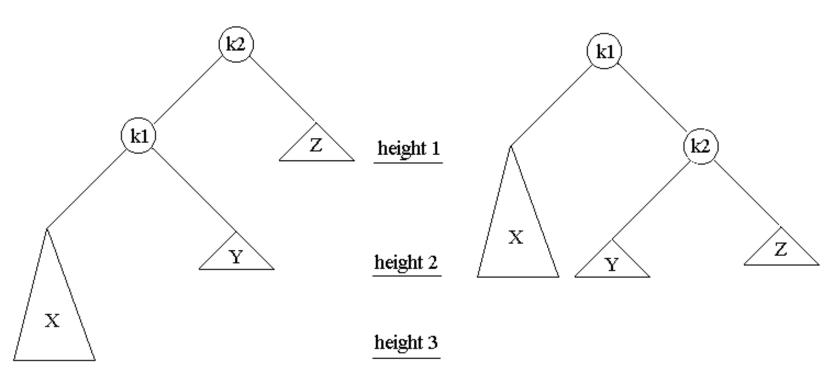
• *Rotation* is the operation performed on a BST to restore its AVL property lost as a result of an insert operation.

• We consider the node α whose new balance violates the AVL condition.

#### Rotation

- Violation of AVL condition
- The AVL condition violation may occur in four cases:
  - Insertion into left subtree of the left child (L/L)
  - Insertion into right subtree of the left child (R/L)
  - Insertion into left subtree of the right child (L/R)
  - Insertion into right subtree of the right child (R/R)
- The outside cases 1 and 4 (i.e., L/L and R/R) are fixed by a *single rotation*.
- The other cases (i.e., R/L and L/R) need two rotations called *double rotation* to get fixed.
- These are fundamental operations in balanced-tree algorithms.

## Single Rotation (L/L)

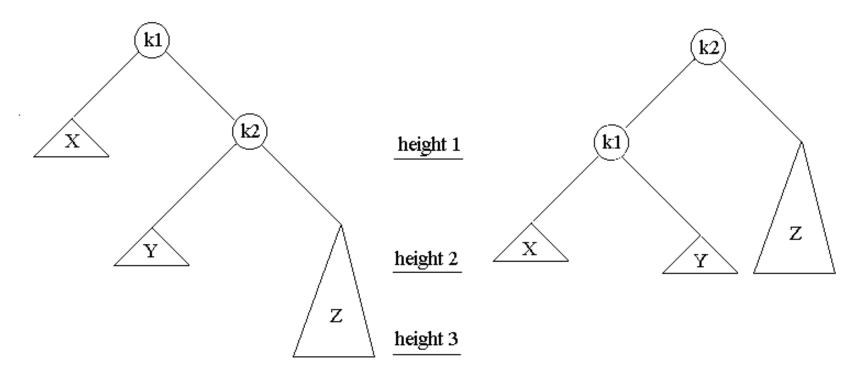


before single rotation

after single rotation

 $\alpha \equiv k2 \text{ node}$ 

## Single Rotation (R/R)

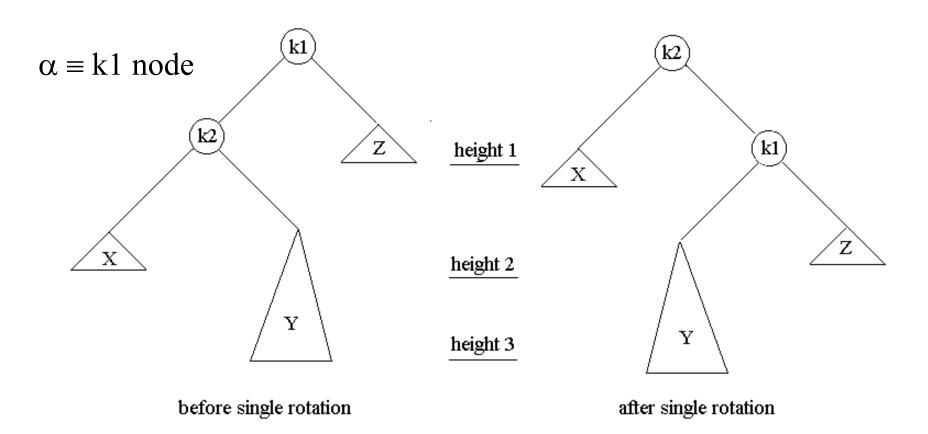


before single rotation

after single rotation

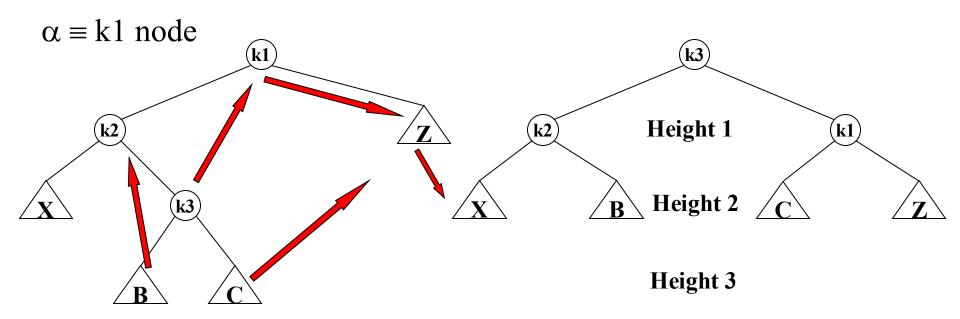
 $\alpha \equiv k1 \text{ node}$ 

## Double Rotation (R/L)



#### Single rotation cannot fix the AVL condition violation!!!

## Double Rotation (R/L)

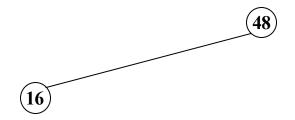


The symmetric case (L/R) is handled similarly left as an exercise to you!

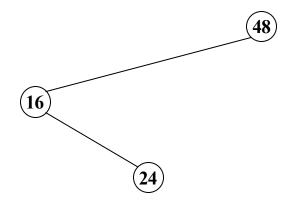
48



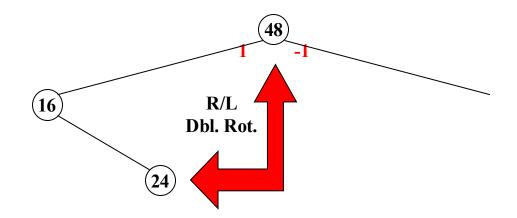
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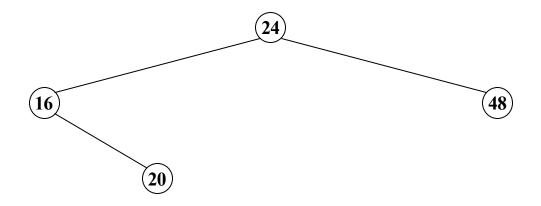
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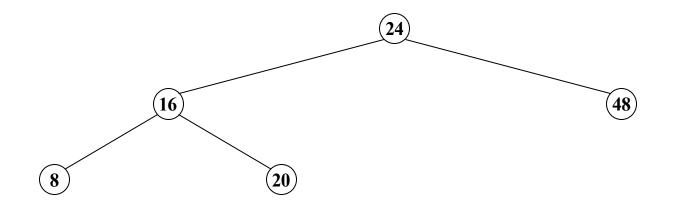
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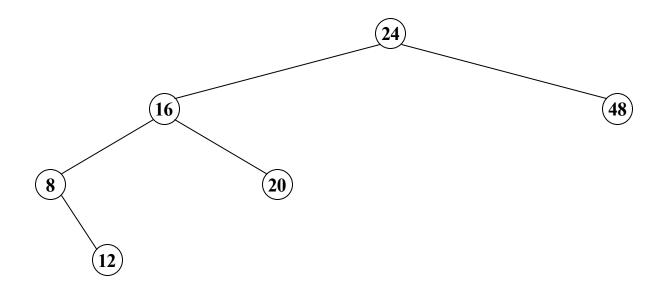
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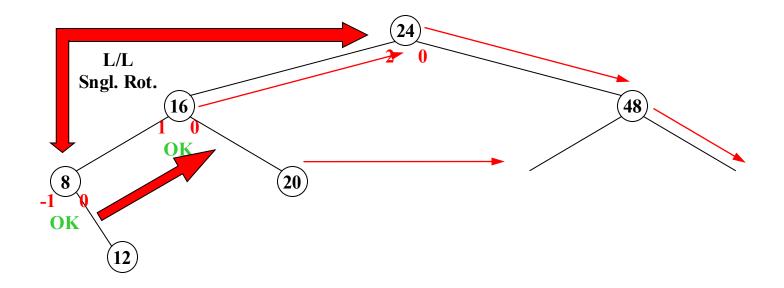
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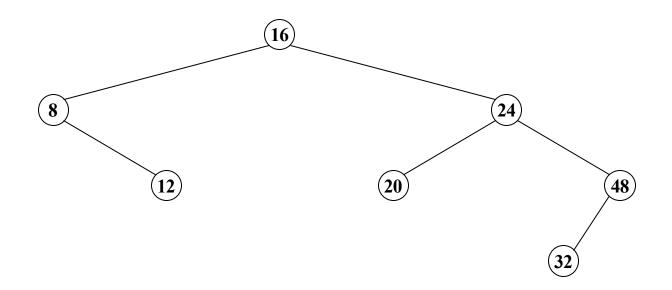
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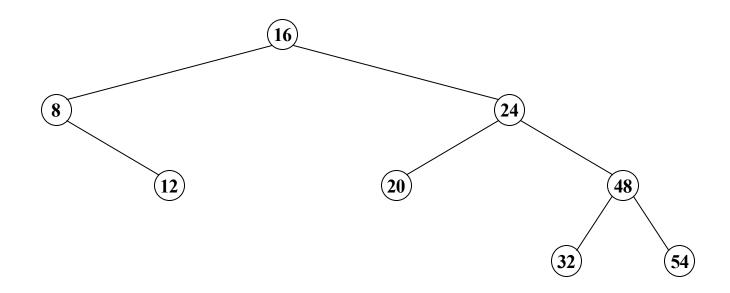
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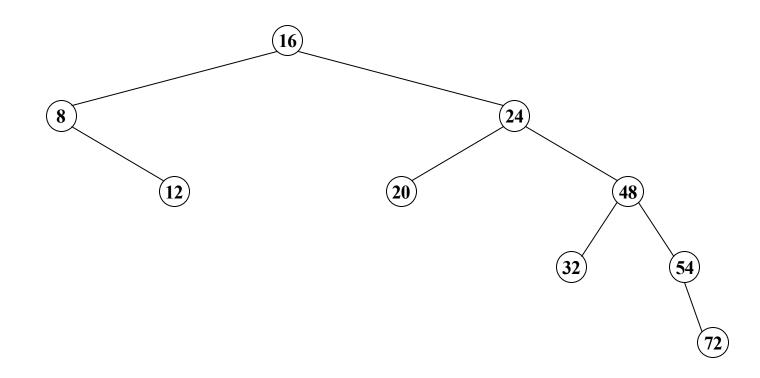
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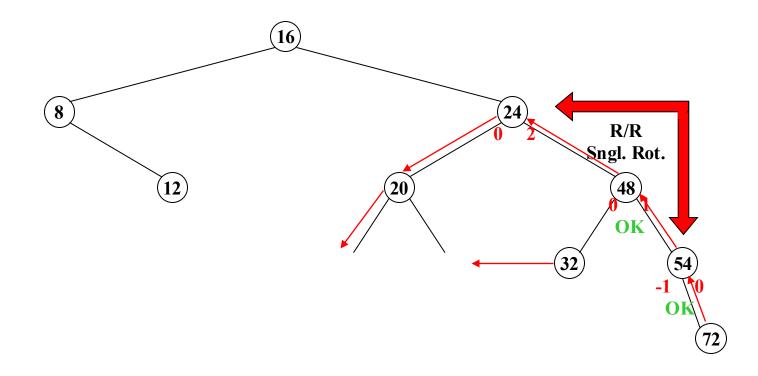
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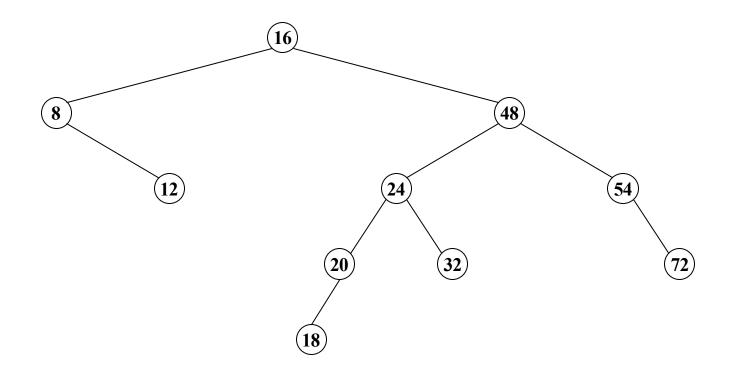
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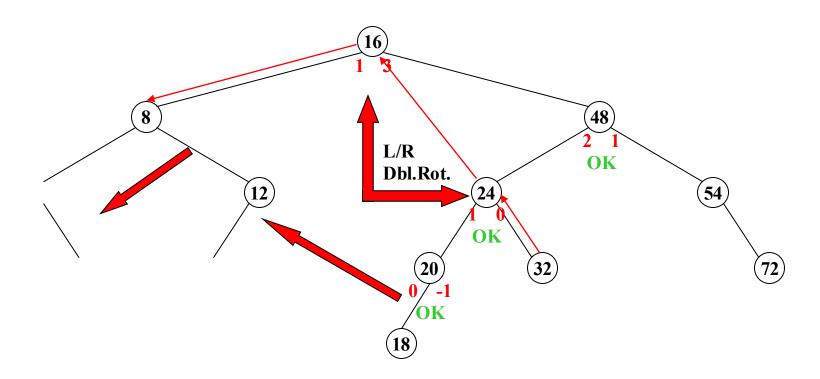
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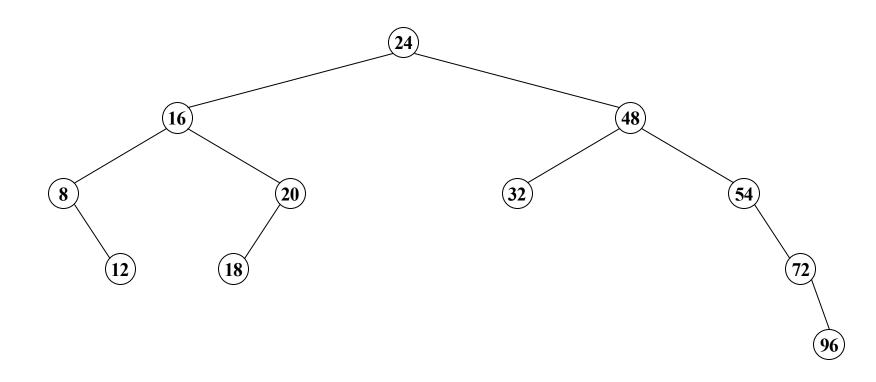
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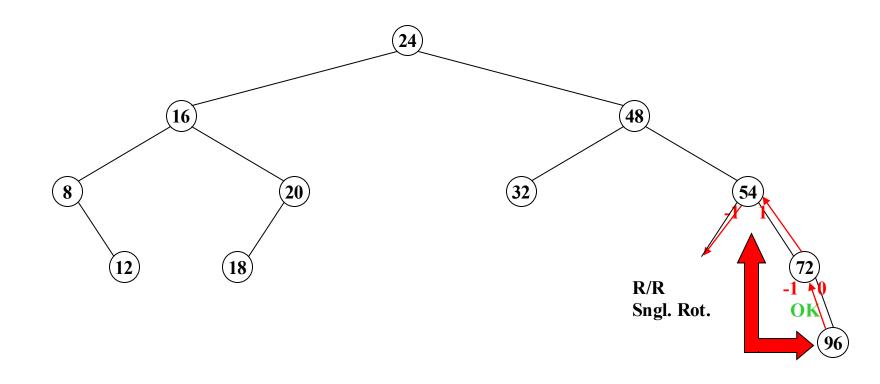
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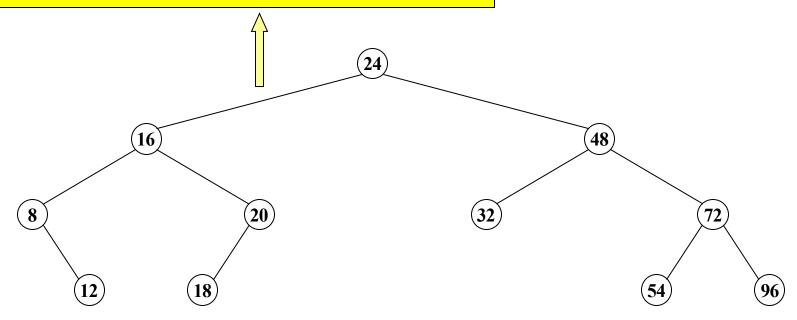
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48 16 24 20 8 12 32 54 72 18 96



48 16 24 20 8 12 32 54 72 18 96 64 17 60 98 68 84 36 30



## Height versus Number of Nodes

• The *minimum number* of nodes in an AVL tree recursively relates to the height of the tree as follows:

$$S(h) = S(h-1) + S(h-2) + 1;$$
  
Initial Values:  $S(0)=1$ ;  $S(1)=2$ 

Homework: Solve for S(h) as a function of h!

# Splay Trees

# Motivation for Splay Trees

- We are looking for a data structure where, even though some worst case (O(n)) accesses may be possible, m consecutive tree operations starting from an empty tree (inserts, finds and/or removals) take O(m\*log<sub>2</sub>n).
- Here, the main idea is to assume that, O(n) accesses are not bad as long as they occur relatively infrequently.
- Hence, we are looking for modifications of a BST per tree operation that attempts to minimize O(n) accesses.

# Splaying

- The underlying idea of splaying is to *move a* deep node accessed upwards to the root, assuming that it will be accessed in the near future again.
- While doing this, other deep nodes are also carried up to smaller depth levels, making the average depth of nodes closer to  $O(log_2n)$ .

# Splaying

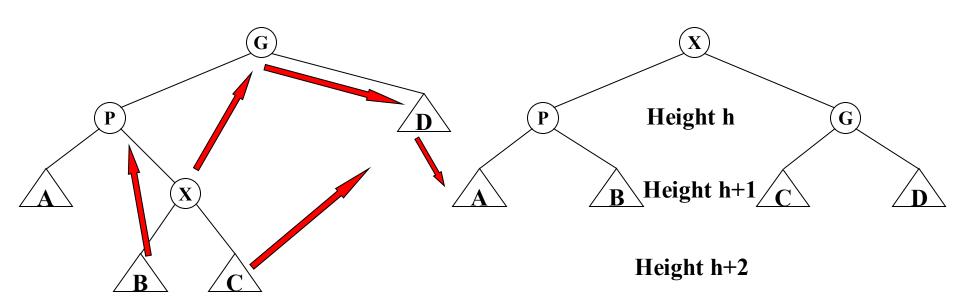
- Splaying is similar to bottom-up AVL rotations
- If a node *X* is the child of the root R,
  - then we rotate only X and R, and this is the last rotation performed.

else consider X, its parent P and grandparent G.

Two cases and their symmetries to consider

Zig-zag case, and Zig-zig case.

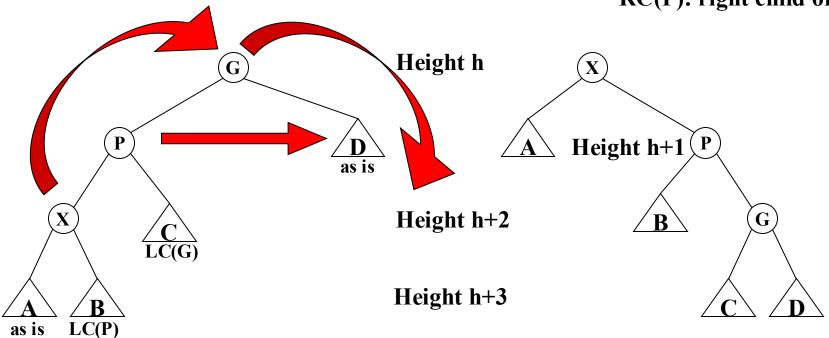
## Zig-zag case

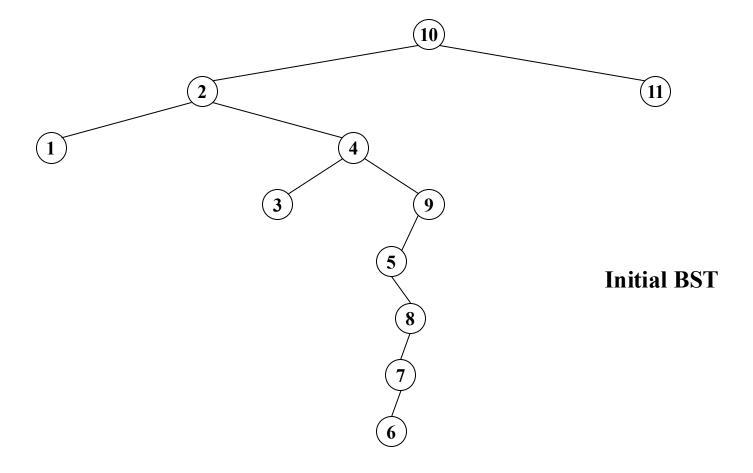


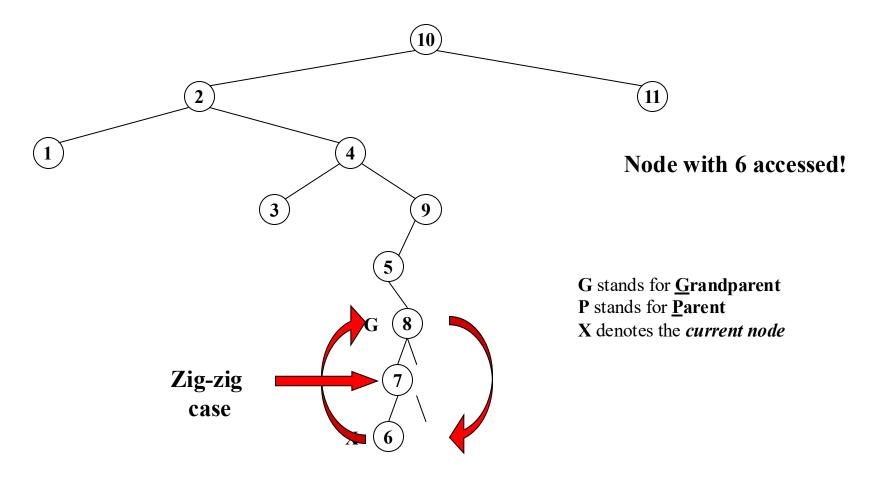
This is the same operation as an AVL double rotation in an R/L violation.

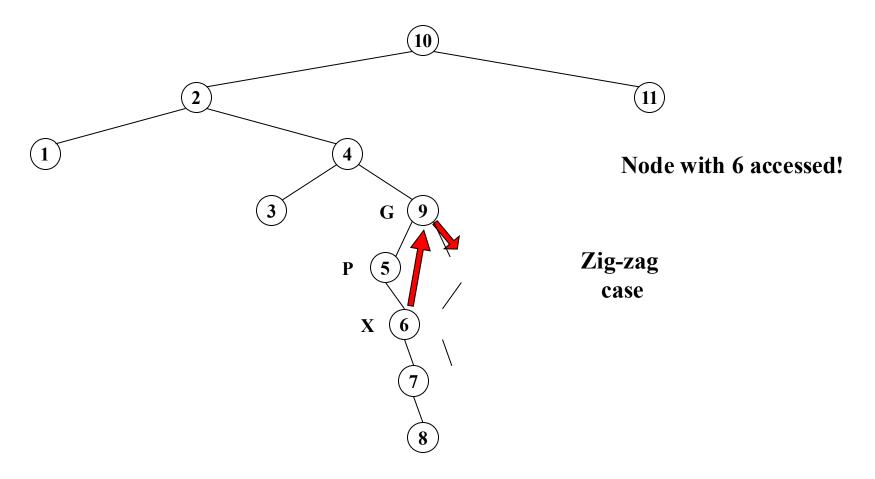
## Zig-zig case

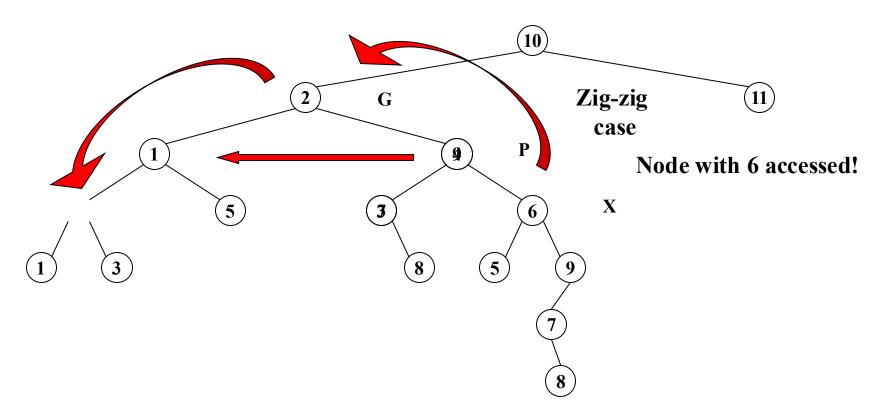
LC(P): left child of node P RC(P): right child of node P

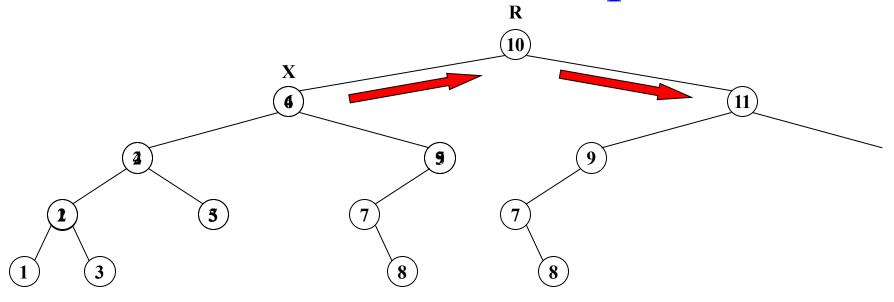




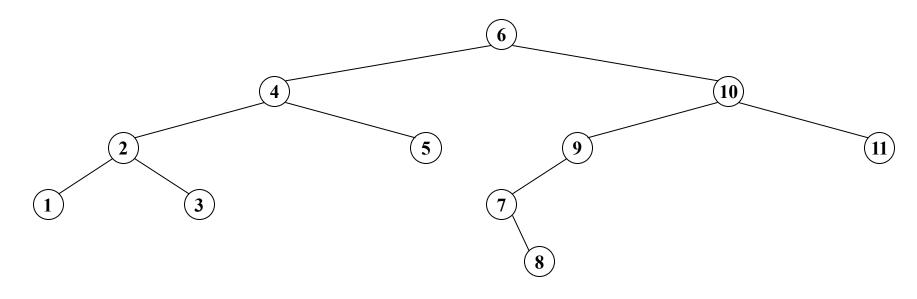








#### Node with 6 accessed!



#### Node with 6 accessed!

#### Motivation for B-Trees

- Two technologies for providing memory capacity in a computer system
  - Primary (main) memory (silicon chips)
  - Secondary storage (magnetic disks)
- Primary memory
  - 5 orders of magnitude (i.e., about 10<sup>5</sup> times) *faster*,
  - 2 orders of magnitude (about 100 times) more expensive,
     and
  - by at least 2 orders of magnitude *less in size*

than secondary storage due to mechanical operations involved in magnetic disks.

#### Motivation for B-Trees

- During one disk read or disk write ((4-8.5msec for 7200 RPM sequential disks (not SSDs!)), MM can be accessed about 10<sup>5</sup> times (100 nanosec per access).
- To reimburse (compensate) for this time, at each disks access, *not a single item*, but one or more *equal-sized pages* of items (each page 2<sup>11</sup>-2<sup>14</sup> bytes) are accessed.
- We need some data structure to store these *equal sized pages* in MM.
- *B-Trees*, with their *equal-sized leaves* (as big as a page), are suitable data structures for storing and performing regular operations on paged data.

- A *B-tree* is a rooted tree with the following properties:
- Every node x has the following fields:
  - -n[x], the number of keys currently stored in x.
  - the n[x] keys themselves, in non-decreasing order,
     so that

$$key_{1}[x] \le key_{2}[x] \le \dots \le key_{n/x}[x]$$
,

-leaf[x], a boolean value, true if x is a leaf.

- Each internal (non-leaf) node has n[x]+1 pointers,  $c_1[x],..., c_{n[x]+1}[x]$ , to its children. Leaf nodes have no children, hence no pointers!
- The keys separate the ranges of keys stored in each subtree: if  $k_i$  is any key stored in the subtree with root  $c_i[x]$ , then

```
k_1 \le key_1[x] \le k_2 \le key_2[x] \le \dots \le key_{n/x}[x] \le k_{n/x}[x].
```

• *All leaves have the same depth*, *h*, equal to the *tree's height*.

- There are lower and upper bounds on the number of keys a node may contain. These bounds can be expressed in terms of a fixed integer  $t \ge 2$  called the *minimum degree* of the B-Tree.
  - Lower limits
    - All *nodes but the root* has *at least t-1* keys.
    - Every internal node but the root has at least t children.
    - A non-empty tree's **root** must have *at least one key*.

- Upper limits
  - Every *node* can contain *at most 2t-1 keys*.
  - Every internal node can have at most 2t children.
  - A node is defined to be full if it has exactly 2t-1 keys.
- For a *B-tree* of minimum degree  $t \ge 2$  and *n* nodes

$$h \le \log_t \frac{n+1}{2}$$

### Basic Operations on B-Trees

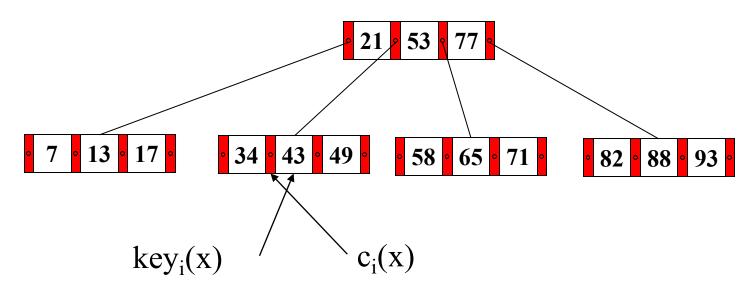
- B-tree search
- B-tree insert
- B-tree removal

### Disk Operations in B-Tree operations

- Suppose x is a pointer to an object.
- It is accessible if it is in the main memory.
- If it is on the disk, it needs to be transferred to the main memory to be accessible. This is done by  $DISK\_READ(x)$ .
- To save any changes made to any field(s) of the object pointed to by x, a DISK\_WRITE(x) operation is performed.

#### Search in B-Trees

• Similar to search in BSTs with the exception that instead of a binary, a multi-way (n[x]+1-way) decision is made.



November 6, 2025

#### Search in B-Trees

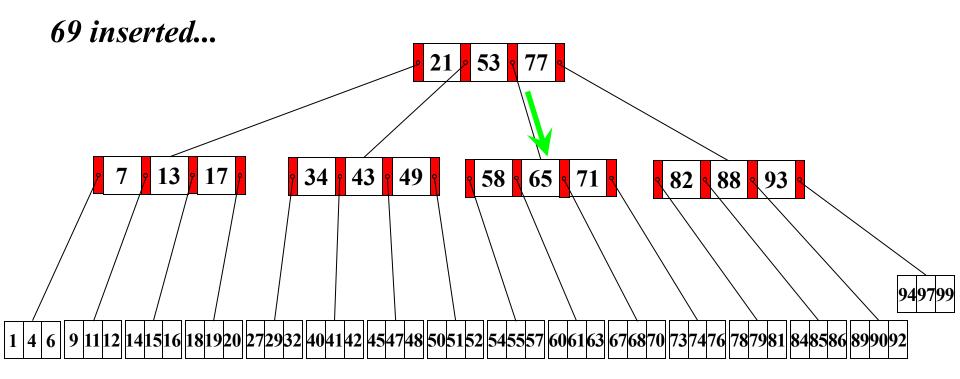
```
B-tree-Search(x,k)
\{ i=1;
  while (i \leq n[x] and k > key<sub>i</sub>[x]) i++;
  if (i \leq n[x] and k = key<sub>i</sub>[x])
                                             // if key found
       return (x,i);
                               || if key not found at a leaf
  if (leaf[x])
       return NULL;
  else {DISK_READ(c_i[x]);
                                          return B-tree-Search(c_i[x],k);}
```

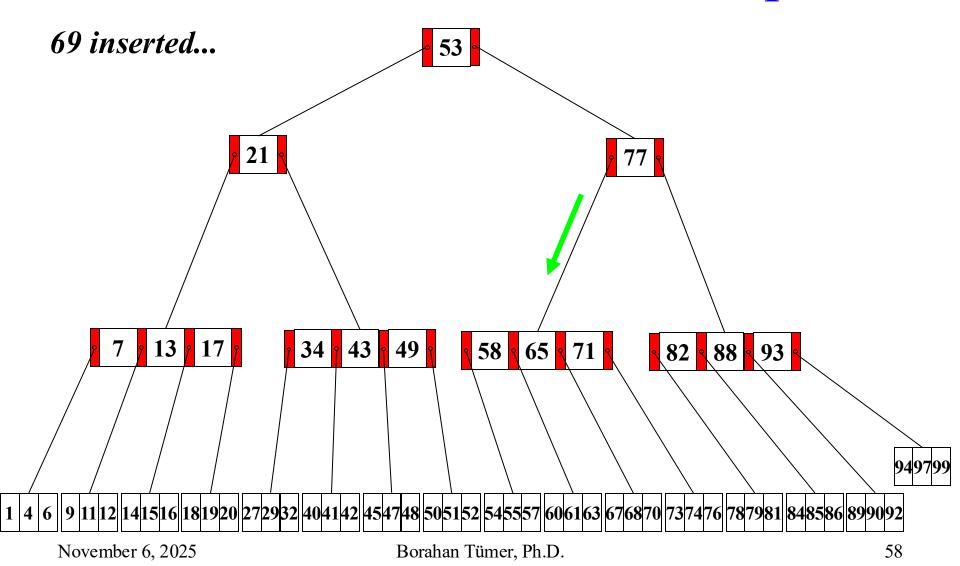
### Insertion in B-Trees

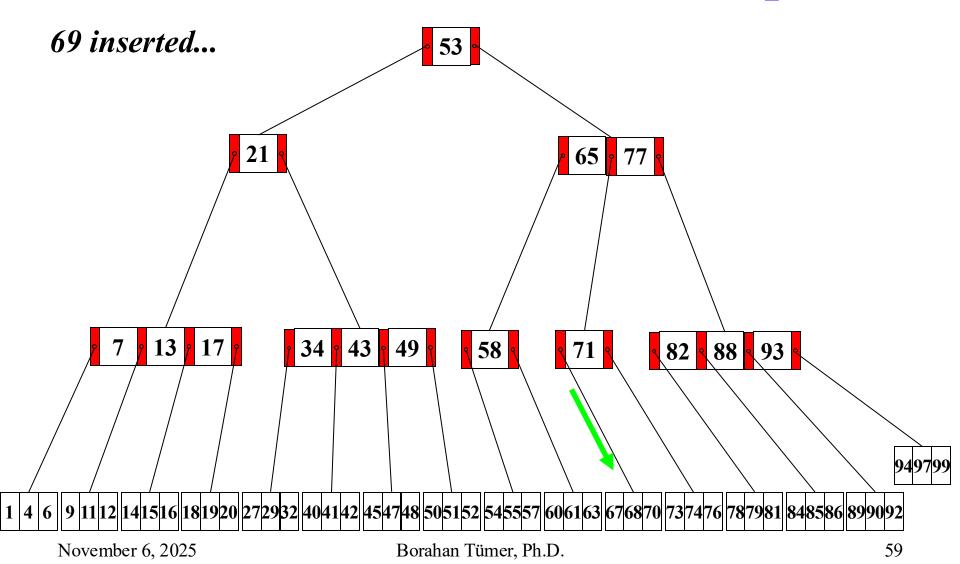
- Insertion into a B-tree is more complicated than that into a BST, since the creation of a new node to place the new key may violate the B-tree property of the tree.
- Instead, the key is put *into a leaf node x if it is not full*.
- If full, a *split* is performed, which splits a full node (with 2t-1 keys) at its *median key*,  $key_t[x]$ , into two nodes with t-1 keys each.
- $key_t[x]$  moves up into the parent of x and identifies the split point of the two new trees.

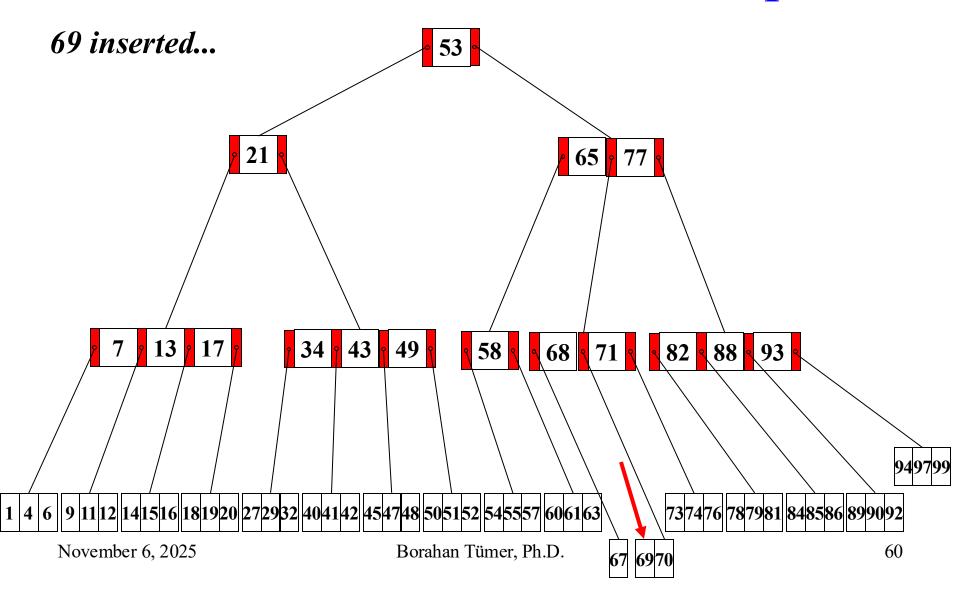
#### Insertion in B-Trees

- A *single-pass insertion* starts at the root traversing *down to the leaf* into which the key is to be inserted.
- On the path down, *all full nodes are split* including a full leaf that also guarantees a parent with an available position for the median key of a full node to be placed.









#### Insertion in B-Trees:B-tree-Insert

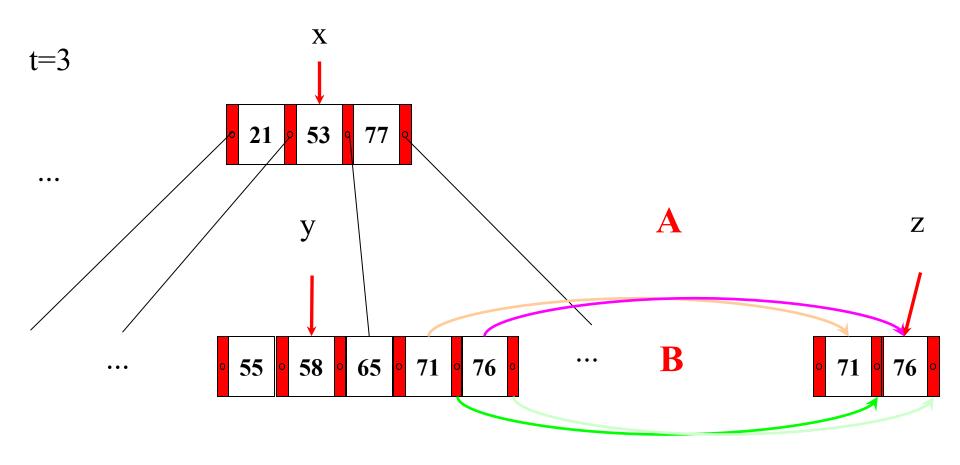
```
B-tree-Insert(T,k)
{ r=root[T];
  if (n[r] == 2t-1) {
       s=malloc(new-B-tree-node);
       root[T]=s;
       leaf[s]=false;
       n[s]=0;
       c_1[s]=r;
       B-tree-Split-Child(s,1,r);
       B-tree-Insert-Nonfull(s,k); }
  else B-tree-Insert-Nonfull(r,k);
```

### Insertion in B-Trees:B-tree-Split-Child

```
B-tree-Split-Child(x,i,y)
    z=malloc(new-B-tree-node);
     leaf[z]=leaf[y];
    n[z]=t-1;
    for (j = 1; j < t; j++) key<sub>j</sub>[z]=key<sub>j+t</sub>[y]; \bigwedge //y's 2<sup>nd</sup> half of keys to z if (lleaf[y])
    if (!leaf[y])
                                                             B //y's 2<sup>nd</sup> half of pointers to z
           for (j = 1; j \le t; j++) c_j[z] = c_{j+t}[y];
    n[y]=t-1;
    for (j=n[x]+1; j>=i+1; j--) c_{j+1}[x]=c_j[x];
                                                                   //shift pointers right
                                                               \int //z pointed by i+1<sup>st</sup> pntr of x
    c_{i+1}[x]=z;
    for (j=n[x]; j>=i; j--) key_{j+1}[x]=key_{j}[x];
                                                             *E //shift keys in x right

*F //median key moved to parent
    \text{key}_{i}[x] = \text{key}_{t}[y]; n[x] + +;
    DISK_WRITE(y);
     DISK WRITE(z);
   NDISK! WRITE(x);
                                          Borahan Tümer, Ph.D.
```

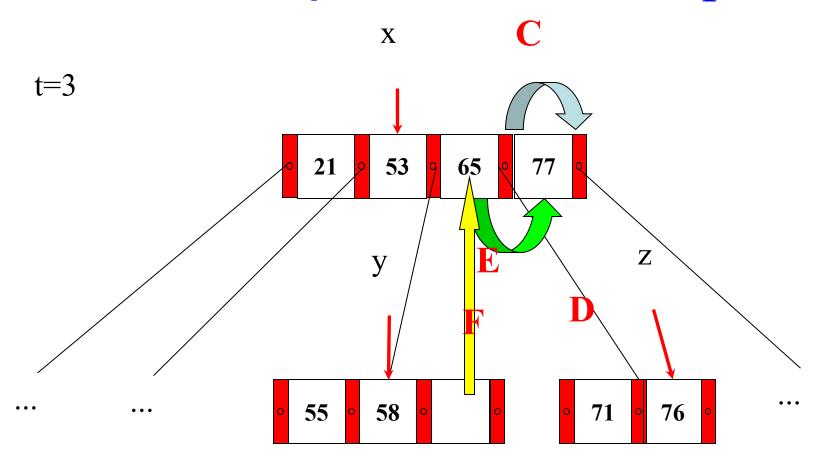
## B-tree-Split-Child: Example



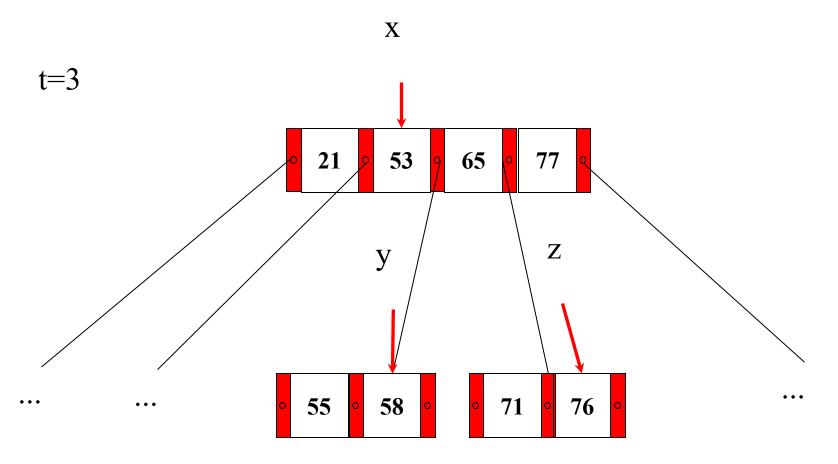
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Borahan Tümer, Ph.D.

## B-tree-Split-Child: Example



## B-tree-Split-Child: Example



## Insertion in B-Trees:B-tree-Insert-Nonfull

```
B-tree-Insert-Nonfull(x,k)
  i=n[x];
    if (leaf[x]) {
            while (i \ge 1 and k < \text{key}_i[x]) {\text{key}_{i+1}[x] = \text{key}_i[x]; i--;}
            key_{i+1}[x]=k;
            n[x]++;
            DISK_WRITE(x);
    else {
            while (i \ge 1 and k < key_i[x]) i--;
            i++;
            DISK_READ(c_i[x]);
            if (n[c_i[x]] = 2t-1) {
                         B-tree-Split-Child(x,i, c_i[x]);
                         if (k > key_i[x]) i++;
            B-tree-Insert-Nonfull(c_i[x],k);
```

if x is a leaf
then place key in x;
write x on disk;
else find the node (root of
subtree) key goes to;
read node from disk;
if node full
split node at key's
position;
recursive call with
node split and key;

## Removing a key from a B-Tree

- Removal in B-trees is different than insertion only in that *a key may be removed from any node, not just from a leaf.*
- As the insertion algorithm splits any full node down the path to the leaf to which the key is to be inserted, a recursive removal algorithm may be written to ensure that for any call to removal on a node x, the number of keys in x is at least the minimum degree t.

# Various Cases of Removing a key from a B-Tree

- 1. If the key *k* is in node *x* and *x* is a leaf, remove the key *k* from *x*.
- 2. If the key *k* is in node *x* and *x* is an internal node, then
  - a. If the child y that precedes k in node x has at least t keys, then find the predecessor k' of k in the subtree rooted at y. Recursively delete k', and replace k by k' in x. Finding k' and deleting it can be performed in a single downward pass.

# Various Cases of Removal a key from a B-Tree

- b. Symmetrically, if the child z that follows k in node x has at least t keys, then find the successor k' of k in the subtree rooted at z. Recursively delete k', and replace k by k' in x. Finding k' and deleting it can be performed in a single downward pass.
- c. Otherwise, if both y and z have only t-1 keys, merge k and all of z into y so that x loses both k and the pointer to z and y now contains 2t-1 keys. Free z and recursively delete k from y.

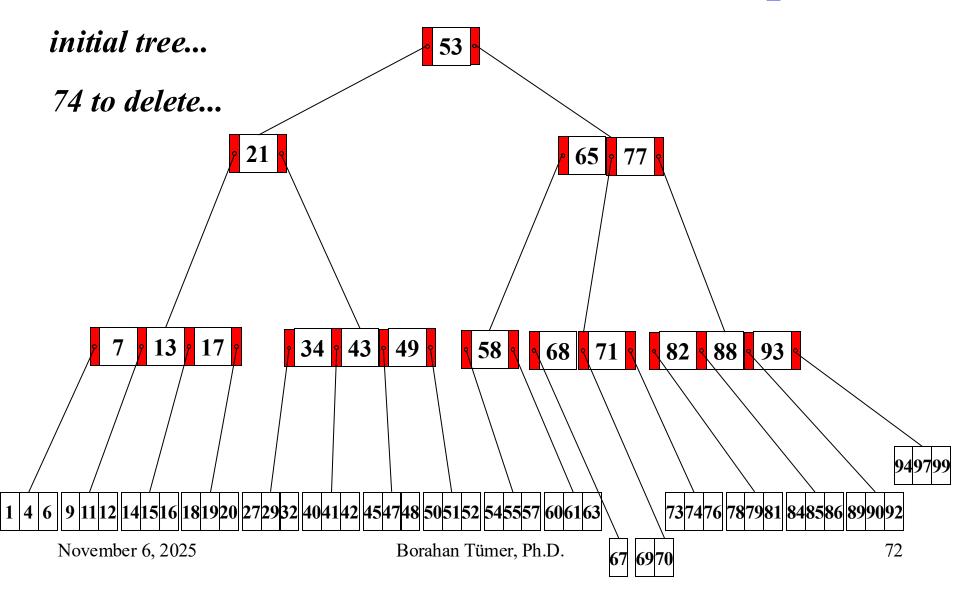
# Various Cases of Removal a key from a B-Tree

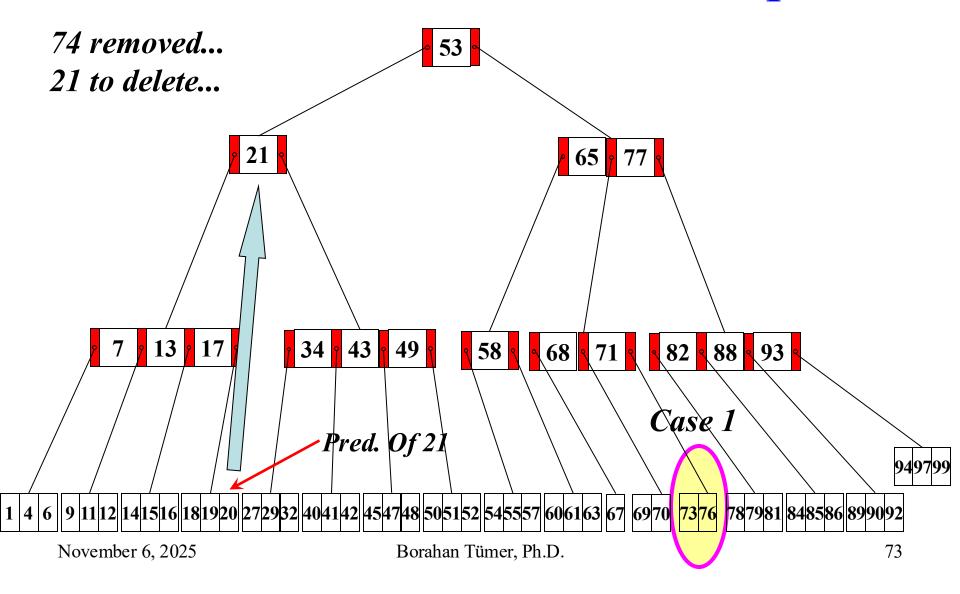
3. If k is not present in internal node x, determine root  $c_i[x]$  of the subtree that must contain k, if k exists in the tree. If  $c_i[x]$  has only t-1 keys, execute step 3a or 3b as necessary to guarantee that we descend to a node containing at least t keys. Then finish by recursing on the appropriate child of x.

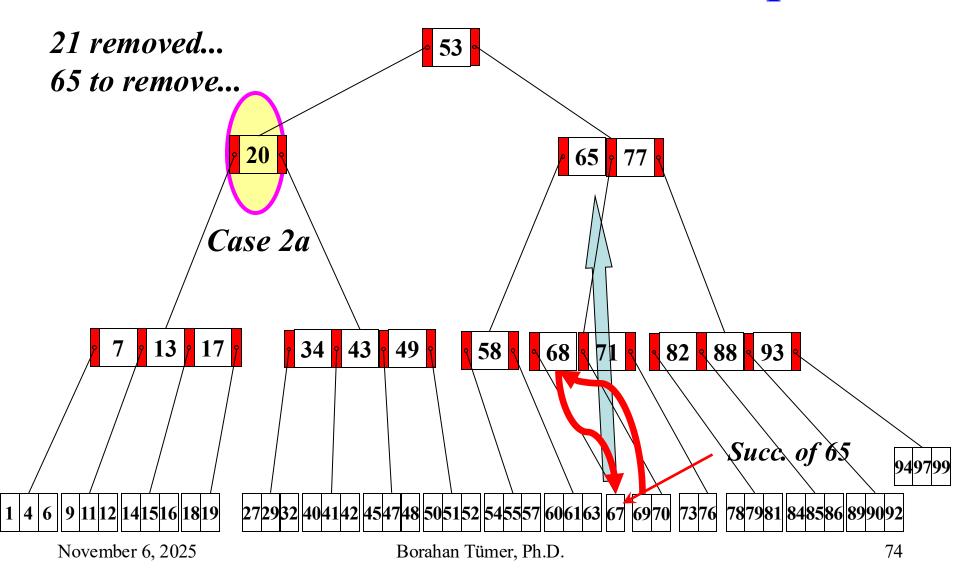
# Various Cases of Removal a key from a B-Tree

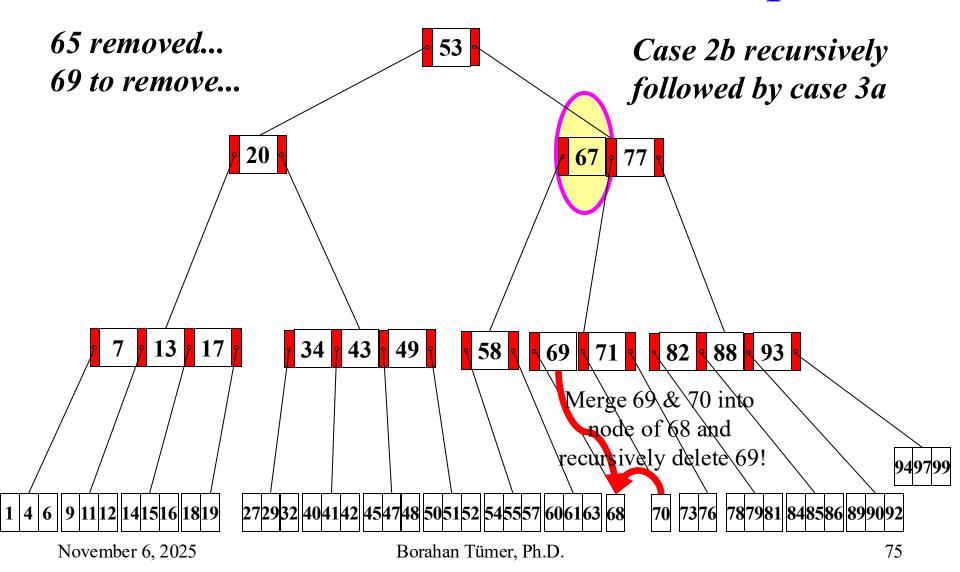
- a. If  $c_i[x]$  has only t-1 keys but has an immediate sibling with at least t keys, give  $c_i[x]$  an extra key by moving a key from x down into  $c_i[x]$ , moving a key from  $c_i[x]$ 's immediate left or right sibling up into x, and moving the appropriate child pointer from the sibling into  $c_i[x]$ .
- b. If  $c_i[x]$  and both of  $c_i[x]$  's immediate siblings have t-l keys, merge  $c_i[x]$  with one sibling, which involves moving a key from x down into the new merged node to become the *median key* for that node.

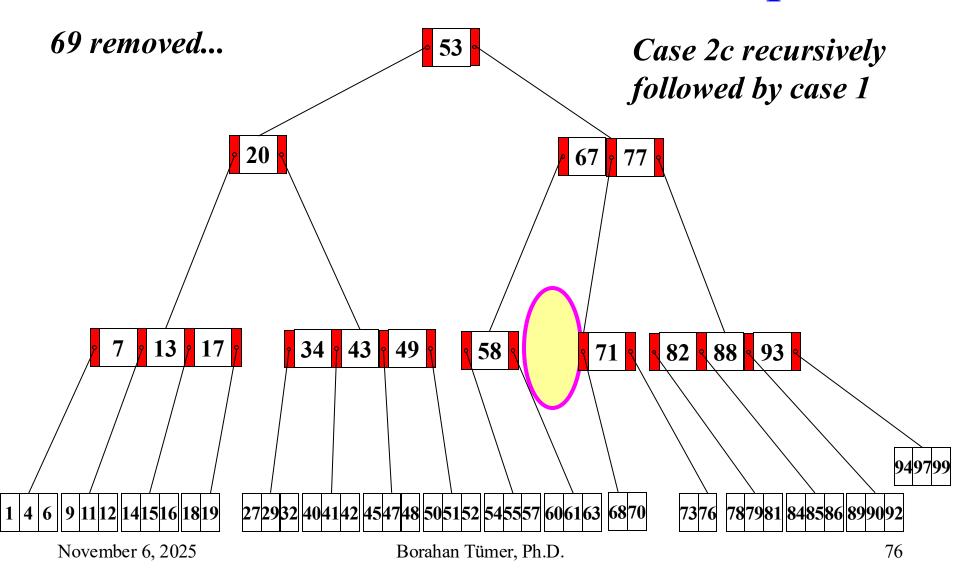
## Removal in B-Trees: Example



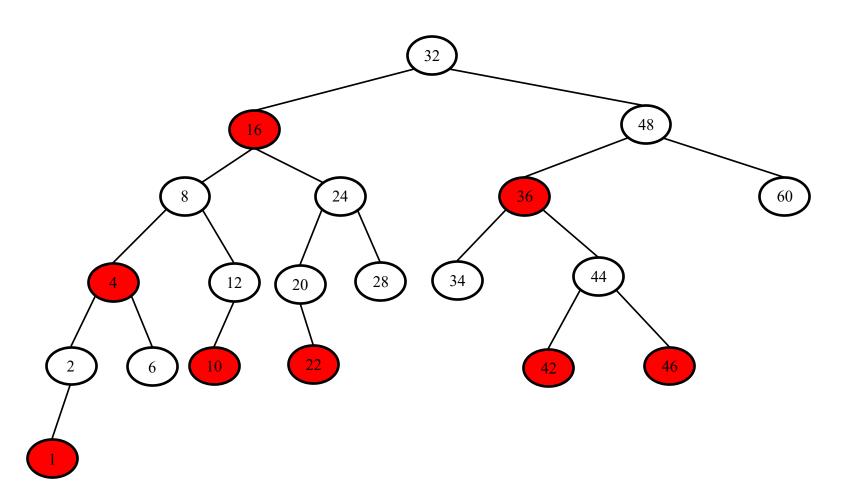




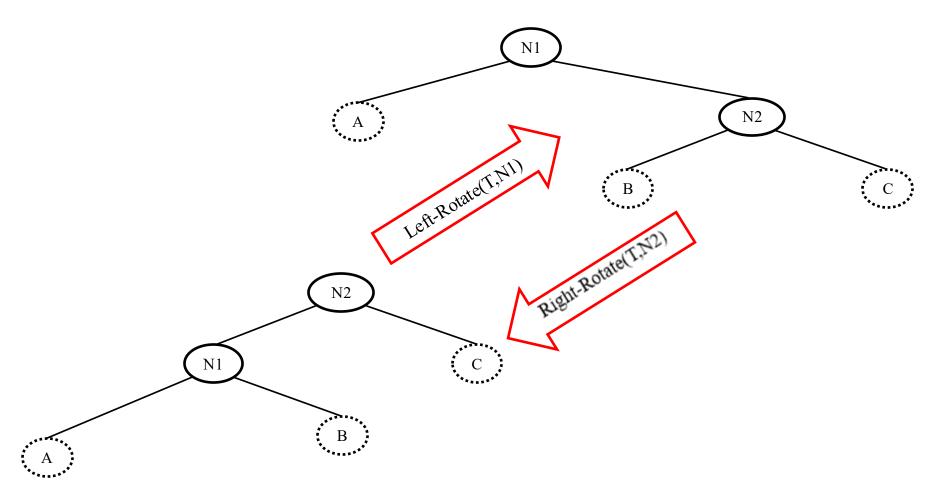




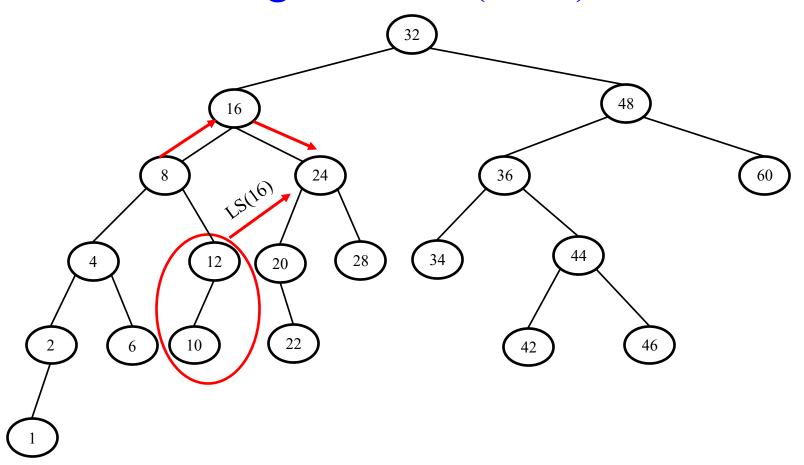
## Example RBT



#### Rotations

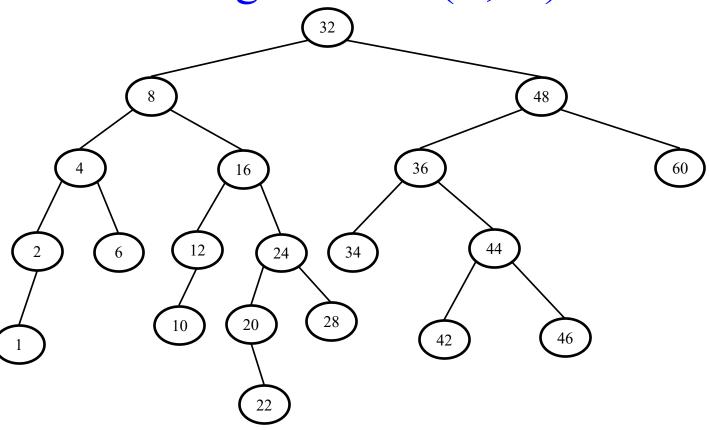


# Example RBT Right-Rotate(T,16)



LS stands for « Left Subtree of »

## Example Rotation Right-Rotate(T,16)



#### Insertion O(lgn)

• RB-INSERT(T,z) • /\*z inserted to T in  $O(\log n)$ •  $y \leftarrow nil[T]; x \leftarrow root[T];$ • while  $x \neq nil[T]$  do -  $y \leftarrow x$ - if (key[z] < key[x])•  $x \leftarrow left[x]$ - else  $x \leftarrow right[x]$ • p[z]=y• if y=nil[T]  $- root[T] \leftarrow z$ - else if (key[z]<key[y])</pre>  $- \operatorname{left}[y] \leftarrow z$ • else right[y]  $\leftarrow$ z •  $\operatorname{left}[z] \leftarrow \operatorname{nil}[T]$ ;  $\operatorname{right}[z] \leftarrow \operatorname{nil}[T]$ ; •  $\operatorname{color}[z] \leftarrow \operatorname{RED};$ 

RB-INSERT-FIXUP(T,z)

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#### Fixing Up Colors after Insertion

```
RB-INSERT-FIXUP(T,z)
  while color[p[z]] == RED do
     if (p[z] == left[p[p[z]]])
     - y=right[p[p[z]]];
     - if (color[y]==RED)
           • color[p[z]]=BLACK

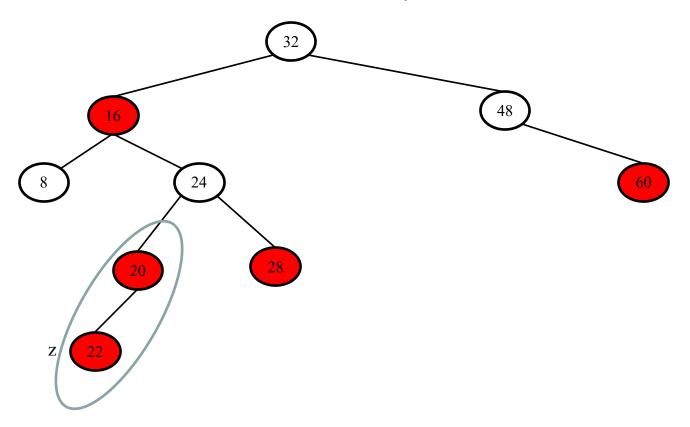
    color[y]=BLACK
    color[p[p[z]]]=RED
    z=p[p[z]]

     - else if (z==right[p[z]])
Case 2 - z=p[z]
- LEFT-ROTATE(T,z)
          • color[p[z]]=BLACK
           color[p[p[z]]]=REDRIGHT-ROTATE(T,p[p[z]])
```

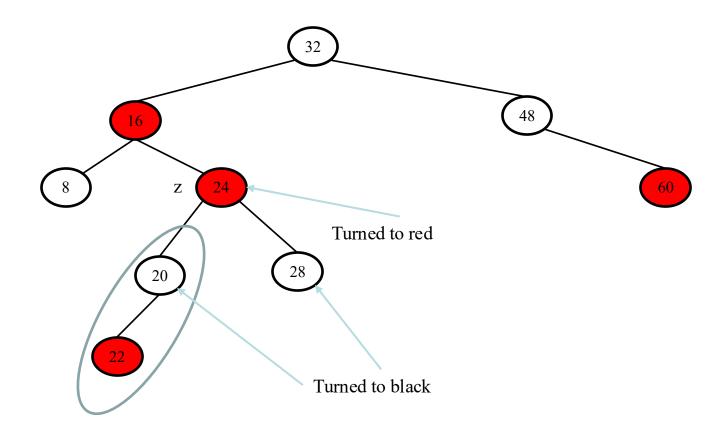
```
else //** if (p[z] \neq left[p[p[z]])
  - y=left[p[p[z]]];
  - if (color[y]==RED)
       • color[p[z]]=BLACK
       • color[y]=BLACK
                                     Case 1
       • color[p[p[z]]]=RED
       • z=p[p[z]]
  - else if (z==left[p[z]])
            -z=p[z]
                                      Case 2
            RIGHT-ROTATE(T,z)
       • color[p[z]]=BLACK
       • color[p[p[z]]]=RED
                                      Case 3
       • LEFT-ROTATE(T,p[p[z]])
 color[root[T]]=BLACK;
```

## Example: Case 1

Case 1: z's uncle y is red.

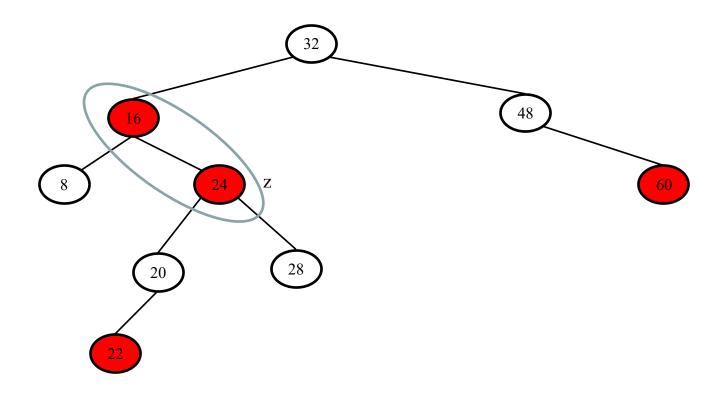


### Example: Case 1 solved

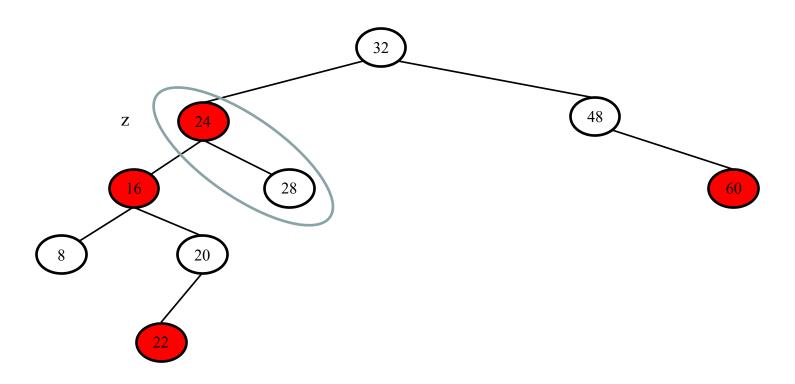


## Example: Case 2

Case 2: z's uncle y is black and z is a right child

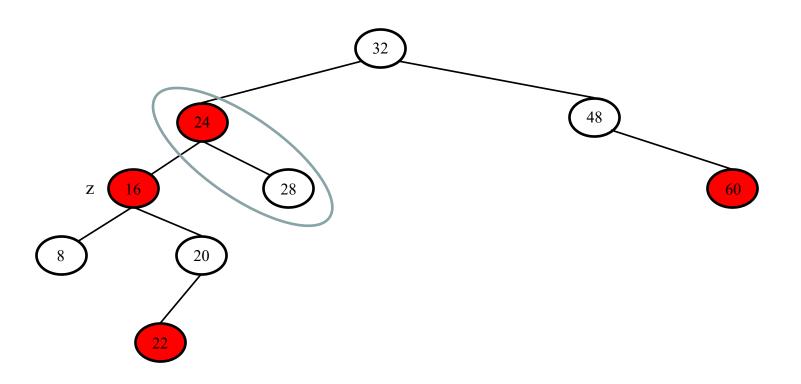


### Example: Case 2 solved



## Example: Case 3

Case 3: z's uncle y is black and z is a left child



#### Example: Case 3 solved

