

# **Splay Trees**

- Support all of the BST operations but does not guarantee O (Log n) worst-case performance.
- Its **bound** is **amortized**, meaning, although **individual operations** can be **expensive**, any **sequence** of **operations** is guaranteed to be **logarithmic**.
- Because this is a **weaker guarantee** than that provided by **balanced BST**, **only the data** and two **references** per node are required for each item and the **operations** are somewhat **simpler**.

- Although balanced BST provide logarithmic worst-case running-time per operation, they have several limitations:
  - Require storing an extra balancing information
  - They are complicated to implement. As a result, insertions and deletions are expensive and potentially error-prone.
  - □ We don't win when **easy inputs** occur.

The **performance** of a **balance BST is improvable**. That is, there **worst-case, average-case, and best-case** performance are essentially **identical**.

An **example** is a **find operation** for some item **X**. It is reasonable to expect not only that the **cost** of the **find** will be **logarithmic**, but also that if we perform an **immediate second find for X**, the second access will be cheaper than the first. In a **red-black** trees this is **not true**.

We would also expect that if we perform an **access of X, Y, and Z**, then a **second set of accesses** for the same sequence would be **easy**.

90-10 rule.

- The 90 -10 rule has been used for many years in disk I/O system.
  - A cache stores in main memory the contents of some of the disk blocks.
- **Browsers** use the same idea: a **cache** stores locally the **previously** visited **Web Pages**.

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# **Amortized Time Bounds**

# **Splay Trees**

There is, however, a reasonable **compromise**: **O(N) time** for a **single** access may be **acceptable** as long as it does not happen **too often**. In particular any **M operations** take a total of **O** (**MLog N**) worst-case time, then the fact that **some operations** are **expensive** might be **inconsequential**.

- When we can show a **worst-case** bound for a **sequence of operations** that is **better** than the corresponding bound obtained by considering **each operation separately**, the running time is said to be **amortized**.
- Some **single operations** may take **more** than logarithmic time.
- However, amortized bounds are not always acceptable. Specifically, if a single bad operation is too time-consuming, then we really need worst-case bounds rather than amortized bounds.

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# A simple self-adjusting strategy (that does not work)

- The **easiest** way to **move** an item toward the **root** is to **rotate** it continually **with its parent** until it becomes a root node.
- Then, if the item is **accessed** a **second time**, the second access is **cheap**.
- Even if a few other operations intervene before the item is **re-accessed**, that item will remain **close** to the **root** and thus will be quickly found.
- This process is called **rotate-to-root** strategy.



- Future **access** to **node 3** is cheaper. But node **4** and **5** each move **down** a level.
  - This means that if **access patterns** do not follow the **90-10** rule, it is possible for a **long sequence** of **bad accesses** to occur.

As a result, the **rotate-to-root** rule will not have **logarithmic amortized** behavior; this will be **unacceptable**.

# **Basic Bottom-up Splay**

- Achieving logarithmic amortized cost seems impossible because when we move an item to root via rotations, other items are pushed deeper.
- It means there would always be some very depth nodes, if no balancing information is maintained.
- There is a simple fix to the rotate-to-root strategy that allows the logarithmic amortized bound to be obtained. The resulting rotate-to-root strategy is called splaying.

- Let **X** be a **non-root** node on the access **path** on which we are **rotating**.
- If the **parent** of **X** is the **root** of the **tree**, we merely rotate **X** and the root as shown in figure 21.4.
- This is the last rotation along the access path, and it places X at the root.
  - This is a **zig** case.



- Otherwise, **X** has both a **parent P** and a **grandparent G**, and there are **two cases** plus **symmetries** to consider.
  - **Zig-zag** case, which corresponds to the **inside** case for **AVL** trees. Here **X** is a **right child** and **P** is a **left child** (or **vice versa**). We perform a **double rotation**, exactly like an **AVL** double rotation, as shown in figure 21.5.

In figure 21.1, the splay at node 3 is a single **zigzag** rotation.



Figure 21.5 Zig-zag case (some as a double rotation); the symmetric case has been omited.

**Zig-zig** case, which is the **outside** case for **AVL** trees. Here, **X** and **P** are either **both left** children or **both right children**. In this case, we **transform** the **left-hand** tree of figure 21.6 to the **right-hand** tree.

This **zig-zig** splay rotates between **P** and **G** and then **X** and **P**.



Figure 21.6 Zig-zig case (this is unique to the splay tree); the symmetric case has been omited



#### Figure 21.7 Result of splaying at node 1 (three zig-zigs and a zig)

**Splaying** not only moves the accessed node to the **root**. It also roughly **halves** the **depth** of most nodes on the access path.



Figure 21.8 The remove operation applied to node 6: first 6 is splayed to the root, thus leaving two sub-trees; a findMax on the left sub-tree is performed, raising 5 to the root of the left sub-tree; then the right sub-tree can be attached (not shown)

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# Analysis of Bottom-up Splaying

#### **Splay Trees**

The analysis of splay tree algorithm is complicated because each splay vary from a few rotations to O (N) rotations. Furthermore, unlike with balanced search trees, each splay changes the structure of the tree. This section proves that the amortized cost of a splay is at most 3log N+1 single rotations. The splay tree's amortized bound guarantees that any sequence of M splays will use at most 3Mlog N+M tree rotations, and consequently any sequence of M operations starting from an empty tree will take a total of at most O (M log N) time.

To **prove** this bound, we introduce an **accounting function** called the **potential function**. The potential function is not maintained by the algorithm. Rather it is merely an **accounting device** that aids in establishing the required time bound. Its choice is not obvious and is the result of a large amount of trial and error. See pages 624 – 630.

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# **Top-down Splay Trees**

- Bottom-up splay require two pass. This can be done either by maintaining parent references, by storing the access path on a stack, or by using a clever trick to store the path using the available references in the accessed nodes.
  - Unfortunately, all of these methods require a substantial amount of **overhead**, and we must handle many **special cases**. This section describes a **top-down splay tree** that maintains the **logarithmic amortized bound**. The topdown procedure is **faster** in practice and uses only constant extra space. It is the method recommended by the **inventors** of splay tree.

As we **descend** the tree in our search for some **node X**, we must take the **nodes** that are on the access path and move them and their sub-trees out of the way. We must also **perform** some tree rotations to guarantee the amortized time **bound**. At **any point** in the middle of the splay, there is a current node X that is the root of its sub-tree; this is represented in the diagrams as the **middle tree**. Tree L stores nodes that are **less** than X; similarly, tree R stores nodes that are larger than X. Initially, X is the root of T, and L and **R** are empty.

Descending the tree **two levels** at a time, we encounter a pair of nodes. Depending on whether these nodes are smaller than X or larger than X, they are placed in L or R along with sub-trees that are not on the access path to X. Thus the **current node** on the search path is always the **root** of the **middle tree**. When we finally **reach X**, we can then attach L and R to the **bottom** of the of the middle tree. As a result, X will have been moved to the root. The issue then is how nodes are placed into L and R and how the reattachment is performed at the end. This is what the tree in figure **21.9** are illustrating.

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Figure 21.9 continue<sub>B</sub>(see next page)





# Figure 21.9 Top-down splay rotations; zig(top), zig-zig (middle), and zig-zag (bottom)

- In all the pictures, X is the current node, Y is its child, and Z is a grandchild.
- If the rotation should be a zig, then the tree rooted at Y becomes the new root of the middle tree. X and sub-tree B are attached as a left child of the smallest item in R;
  X's left child is logically made null. As a result, X is the new smallest element in R, thus making future attachment easy.
- Notice carefully that Y does not have to be a **leaf** for the **zig case** to apply. If the item sought is found in Y, a **zig case** will apply even if Y has children. A **zig case** also applies if the item sought is **smaller** than Y and Y has no **left child**, even if Y has a **right child**, and also for the symmetric case.

Data Structures and Algorithms

- A similar discussion applies to the zig-zig case. The crucial point is that a rotation between X and Y is performed. The zig-zag case brings the bottom node Z to the top of the middle tree and attaches sub-trees X and Y to R and L, respectively. Note that Y is attached to, and then becomes, the largest item in L.
- The zig-zag step can be simplified somewhat because no rotations are performed. Instead of making Z the root of the middle tree, we make Y the root. This is shown in figure 21.10. This simplifies the coding because the action for the zig-zag case becomes identical to the zig case. This would seem advantages, since testing for a host of cases is time-consuming. The disadvantages is that a descent of only one level results in more iterations in the splaying procedure.
- Once we performed the final splaying step, then L, R, and the middle tree are arranged to form a single tree, as shown in figure 21.11. Notice carefully that the result is different from that obtained with bottom-up splaying. The crucial fact is that the O (log N) amortized bound is preserved.





# Figure 21.10: Simplified top-down zig-zag



An example of the **simplified top-down splaying** algorithm is shown in **figure 21.12**. We attempt to access 19 in the tree. The first step is a **zig-zag**. In accordance with a symmetric version of figure 21.10, we bring the sub-tree rooted at 25 to the root of the middle tree and attach 12 and its left sub-tree to L. Next, we have a zigzig: 15 is elevated to the root of the middle tree, and a rotation between **20** and **25** is performed, with the resulting **sub-tree** being attached to **R**. The search for **19** then results in a terminal **zig**. The middle's new root is **18**, and 15 and its left sub-tree are attached as a right child of L's largest node. The reassembly, in accordance with

figure **21.11**, terminates the splay step.

#### **Splay Trees** 12 Empty Empty (25) 5 30 24 (13) (18)16 Empty Simplified zig-zag 25) (30 5 18 1 16 By: S. Hassan

**Data Structures and Algorithms** 





#### Figure 21.12: Steps in a top-down splay (accessing 19 in top tree)