

Data structures are

FUNDAMENTAL!

- All fields of CS involve storing, retrieving and processing data
- Information retrieval
- Geographic Inf. Systems
- Machine Learning
- Text/String processing
- Computer Graphics
-

Basic Elements in Study of data structures

- **Modeling**: How real world objects are encoded
- **Operations**: Allowed functions to access + modify structure
- **Representation**: Mapping to memory
- **Algorithms**: How are operations performed?

Course Overview:

- Fundamental data structures + algorithms
- Mathematical techniques for analyzing them
- Implementation

Introduction to Data Structures

- Elements of data structures
- Our approach
- Short review of asymptotics

Our approach:

- **Theoretical**: Algorithms + Asymptotic Analysis
- **Practical**: Implementation + practical efficiency

Common:

- $O(1)$: constant time ☺
[Hash map]
- $O(\log n)$: log-time (good)
[Binary search]
- $O(n^p)$: $p = \text{constant}$: poly time
- $O(\sqrt{n})$

Asymptotic: "Big-o"

- Ignore constants
 - Focus on large n
- $T(n) = 34n^2 + 15n \log n + 143$
 $T(n) = O(n^2)$

Asymptotic Analysis:

- Run time as function of n : no. of items
- Worst-case, average case, randomized, ...
- **Amortized** - average over series of ops.

Linear List ADT:

Stores a sequence of elements $\langle a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \rangle$. Operations:

init() - create an empty list

get(i) - returns a_i

set(i, x) - sets i^{th} element to x

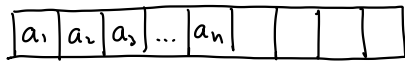
insert(i, x) - inserts x prior to i^{th} (moving others back)

delete(i) - deletes i^{th} item (moving others up)

length() - returns num. of items

Implementations:

Sequential: Store items in an array



Linked allocation: linked list

Singly: head \rightarrow
A sequence of nodes, each containing an element and a pointer to the next node. The first node contains a_1 , the second a_2 , and so on, up to a_n . The last node's pointer is null.

Doubly: head \rightarrow
A sequence of nodes, each containing an element and pointers to the previous and next nodes. The first node's previous pointer is null. The last node's next pointer is null. A tail pointer points to the last node.

Performance varies with implementation

Abstract Data Type (ADT)

- Abstracts the functional elements of a data structure (math) from its implementation (algorithm/programming)

Basic Data Structures I

- ADTs
- Lists, Stacks, Queues
- Sequential Allocation

Doubling Reallocation:

When array of size n overflows

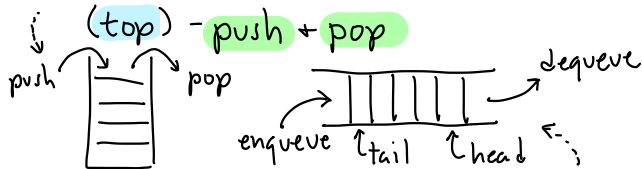
- allocate new array size $2n$
- copy old to new
- remove old array

Dynamic Lists + Sequential Allocation

What to do when your array runs out of space?

Deque ("deck"): Can insert or delete from either end

Stack: All access from one side

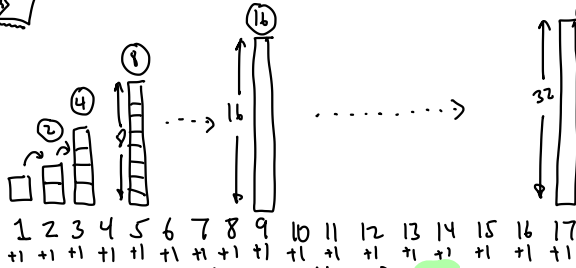


Queue: FIFO list: **enqueue** inserts at **tail** and **dequeue** deletes from **head**

Cost model (Actual cost)

Cheap: No reallocation \rightarrow 1 unit

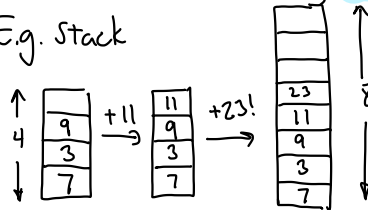
Expensive: Array of size n is reallocated to size $2n$



Dynamic (Sequential) Allocation

- When we overflow, double

Eg. Stack



Basic Data Structures II

- Amortized analysis of dynamic stack

Amortized Cost: Starting from an empty structure, suppose that any sequence of m ops takes time $T(m)$. The amortized cost is $T(m)/m$.

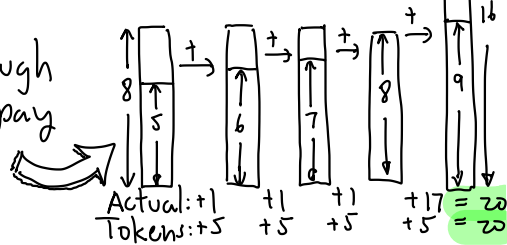
Thm: Starting from an empty stack, the amortized cost of our stack operations is at most 5.
[i.e. any seq. of m ops has cost $\leq 5 \cdot m$]

Charging Argument:

- Each request of push/pop we charge user 5 work tokens
- We use 1 token to pay for the operation + put other 4 in bank account.
- Will show there is enough in bank account to pay actual costs.

Proof:

- Break the full sequence after each reallocation \rightarrow run
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 ... 16 17
- At start of a run there are $n+1$ items in stack and array size is $2n$
- There are at least n ops before the end of run
- During this time we collect at least $5n$ tokens
 \rightarrow 1 for each op
 \rightarrow 4 for deposit
- Next reallocation costs $4n$, but we have enough saved!



Fixed Increment: Increase by a fixed constant
 $n \rightarrow n + 100$

Fixed factor: Increase by a fixed constant factor (not nec. 2)
 $n \rightarrow 5 \cdot n$

Squaring: Square the size (or some other power)
 $n \rightarrow n^2$ or $n \rightarrow \lceil n^{1.5} \rceil$

Which of these provide $O(1)$ amortized cost per operation?

Leave as exercise ☹️
 (Spoiler alert!)

Fixed increment \rightarrow no

Fixed factor \rightarrow yes

Squaring \rightarrow yes

Dynamic Stack:

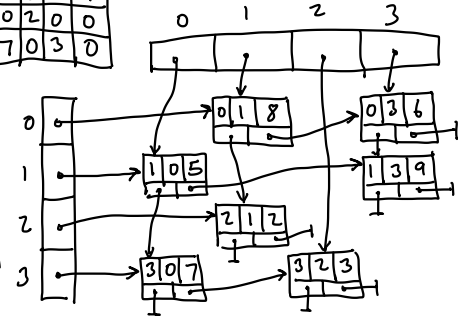
- Showed doubling \Rightarrow Amortized $O(1)$

- Other strategies?

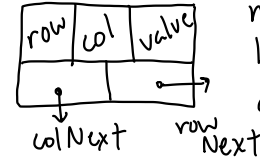
Basic Data Structures III

- Dynamic Stack - Wrap-up
 - Multilists + Sparse Matrices

0	8	0	6
5	0	0	9
0	2	0	0
7	0	3	0

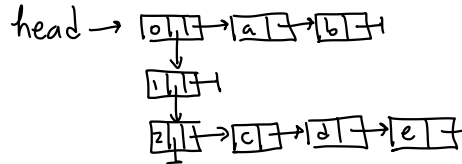


Node:



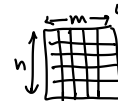
Idea: Store only non-zero entries linked by row and column

Multilists: Lists of lists



Sparse Matrices:

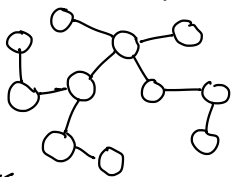
An $n \times m$ matrix has $n \cdot m$ entries and takes (naively) $O(n \cdot m)$ space



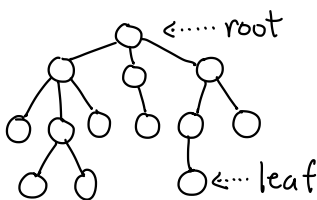
Sparse matrix: Most entries are zero

Tree (or "Free Tree")

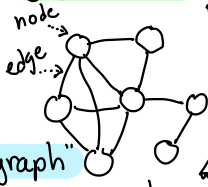
- undirected
- connected
- acyclic graph



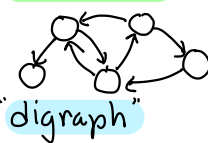
Rooted tree: A free tree with root node



Undirected



Directed



Graph: $G=(V,E)$

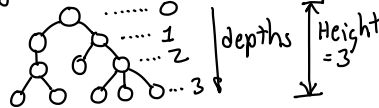
V = finite set of vertices (nodes)

E = set of edges (pairs of vertices)

Trees: Basic Concepts and Definitions

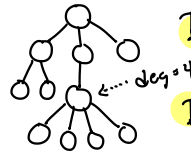
Depth: path length from root

Height: (of tree) max depth



Degree (of node): number of children

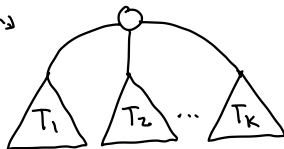
Degree (of tree): max. degree of any node



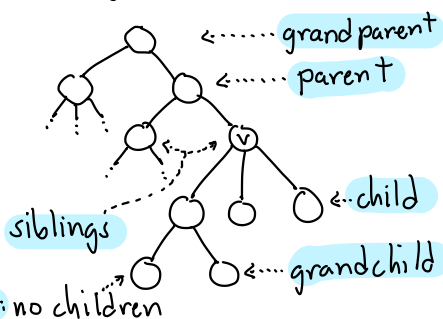
Formal definition:

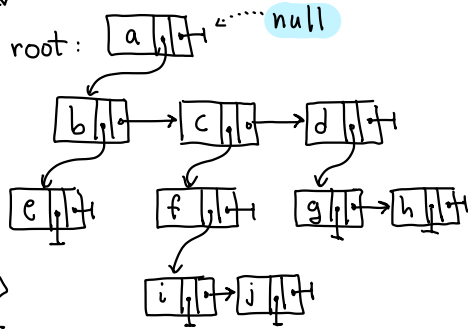
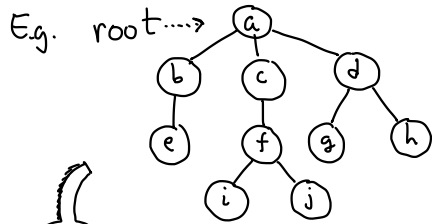
Rooted tree: is either

- single node (root)
- set of one or more rooted trees (subtrees) joined to a common root



"Family" Relations



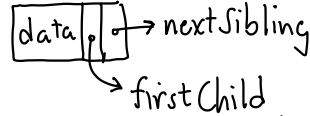


called the **Binary representation**

Binary tree: A rooted tree of degree 2, where each node has two children (possibly null) **left + right**

Representing rooted trees:
Each node stores a (linked) list of its children

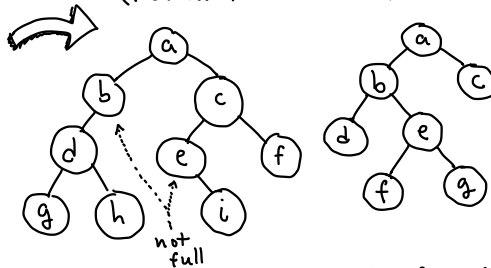
Node structure:



Trees
Representation
+ Binary Trees (I)

(Not full)

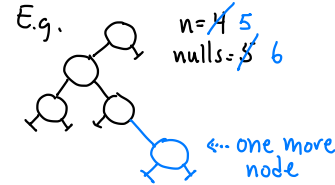
Full:



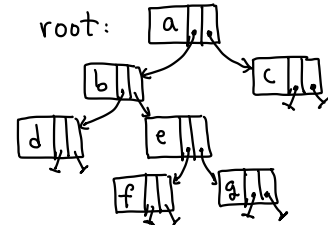
Full: Every non-leaf node has 2 children

Wasted space?

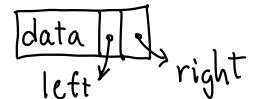
Theorem: A binary tree with n nodes has $n+1$ null links



In Java: `class BTNode<E> {`
`E data;`
`BTNode<E> left;`
`BTNode<E> right;`
`....`
`}`
 generic data



Node structure:




```

traverse(BTNode v) {
  if (v == null) return;
  visit/process v ← Preorder
  traverse (v.left)
  visit/process v ← Inorder
  traverse (v.right)
  visit/process v ← Postorder
}

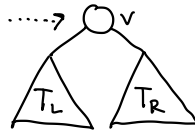
```



Traversals: How to (systematically) visit the nodes of a rooted tree?

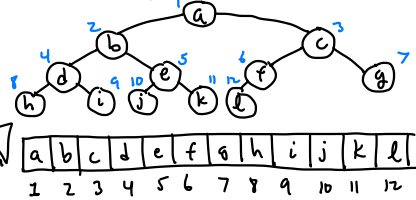
Binary Tree Traversals (can be generalized)

root →



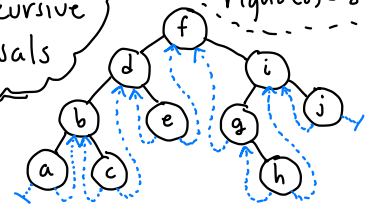
- process/visit v
 - traverse T_L
 - traverse T_R
- } recursive

Complete Binary Tree: All levels full (except last)



Challenge:
Nonrecursive traversals

$\text{parent}(i) = \lfloor i/2 \rfloor$
 $\text{left}(i) = 2 \cdot i$
 $\text{right}(i) = 2 \cdot i + 1$



Binary Trees:
Traversals, Extension,
and More

Thm: An extended binary tree with n internal nodes (black) has $n+1$ external nodes (blue)

Another way to save space...

Threaded binary tree:

Store (useful) links in the null links. (Use a mark bit to distinguish link types.)

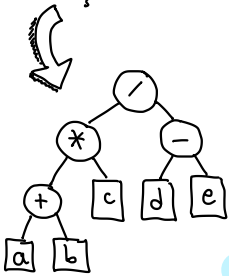
Eg. **Inorder Threads:**

Null left → inorder predecessor
 Null right → " successor

Preorder:

Postorder:

Inorder:



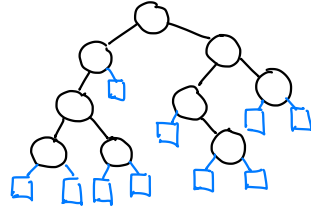
$/ (* + a b) c - d e$

$(a b + c) * (d e -) /$

$(a + b) * c / (d - e)$

Those wasteful null links....

Extended binary tree: Replace each null link with a special leaf node: external node



Observation: Every extended binary tree is full

Dictionary:

insert (Key x , Value v)

- insert (x, v) in dict. (No duplicates)

delete (Key x)

- delete x from dict. (Error if x not there)

find (Key x)

- returns a reference to associated value v , or null if not there.



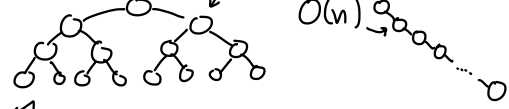
Search: Given a set of n entries each associated with key x ;

- store for quick access & updates

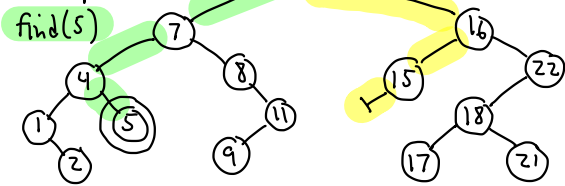
- Ordered: Assume that keys are totally ordered: $<$, $>$, $=$

Efficiency: Depends on tree's height

Balanced: $O(\log n)$ Unbalanced: $O(n)$

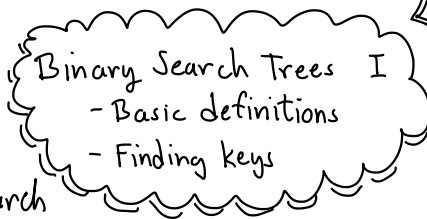


Example:



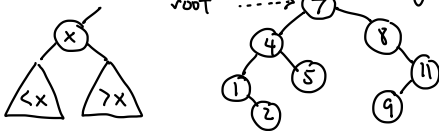
Sequential Allocation?

- Store in array sorted by key
- Find: $O(\log n)$ by binary search
- Insert/Delete: $O(n)$ time



Can we achieve $O(\log n)$ time for all ops? **Binary Search Trees**

Idea: Store entries in binary tree sorted (inorder traversal) by key



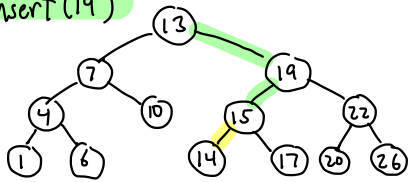
Find: How to find a key in the tree?

- Start at root $p \leftarrow \text{root}$
- if $(x < p.\text{key})$ search left
- if $(x > p.\text{key})$ search right
- if $(x == p.\text{key})$ found it!
- if $(p == \text{null})$ not there!



```
Value find (Key  $x$ , BSTNode  $p$ ) {  
    if ( $p == \text{null}$ ) return null  
    else if ( $x < p.\text{key}$ )  
        return find( $x$ ,  $p.\text{left}$ )  
    else if ( $x > p.\text{key}$ )  
        return find( $x$ ,  $p.\text{right}$ )  
    else return  $p.\text{value}$   
}
```


insert(14)



Insert (Key x , Value v)

- find x in tree
- if found \Rightarrow error! duplicate key
- else: create new node where we "fell out"



```

BSTNode insert(Key x, Value v, BSTNode p){
    if (p == null)
        p = new BSTNode(x, v)
    else if (x < p.key)
        p.left = insert(x, v, p.left)
    else if (x > p.key)
        p.right = insert(x, v, p.right)
    else throw exception  $\rightarrow$  Duplicate!
    return p
}
    
```

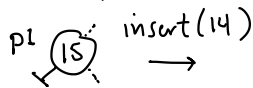
Binary Search Trees II

- insertion
- deletion

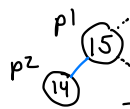


Why did we do:

$p.left = insert(x, v, p.left)$?



$p1.left = insert(14, v, p1.left)$



$p2 = new BSTNode$
return $p2$

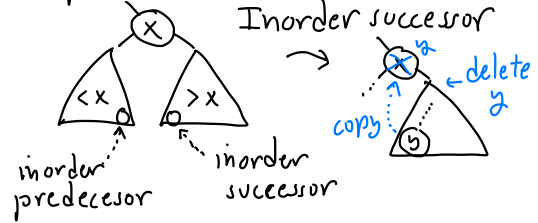
Be sure you understand this!

Delete (Key x)

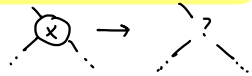
- find x
 - if not found \rightarrow error
 - else: remove this node + restore BST structure
- How?



Replacement Node?



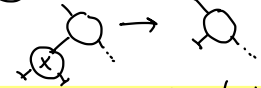
3. x has two children



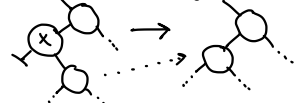
Find replacement node y , copy to x , and then delete y

3 cases:

① x is a leaf



② x has single child

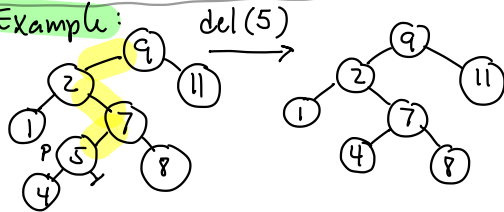



```

BSTNode delete(Key x, BSTNode p) {
    if (p == null) error! Key not found else
    if (x < p.key)
        p.left = delete(x, p.left)
    else if (x > p.key)
        p.right = delete(x, p.right)
    else if (either p.left or p.right null)
        if (p.left == null)
            return p.right
        if (p.right == null)
            return p.left
    else
        r = findReplacement(p)
        copy r's contents to p
        p.right = delete(r.key, p.right)
    return p
}

```

Example:



Find Replacement Node

```

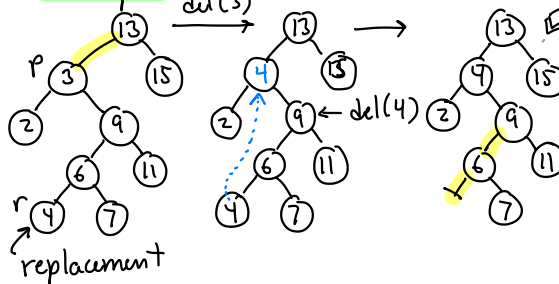
BSTNode findReplacement(BSTNode p) {
    BSTNode r = p.right
    while (r.left != null)
        r = r.left
    return r
}

```

Binary Search Trees III

- deletion
- analysis
- Java

Example:



Java Implementation:

- Parameterize Key + Value types: `extends Comparable`
- class `BinSearchTree<K,V>{...`
- BSTNode - inner class
- Private data: `BSTNode root`
- `insert, delete, find`: local
- provide public fns `insert, delete, find`

But height can vary from $O(\log n)$ to $O(n)$...

Expected case is good

Thm: If n keys are inserted in random order, expected height is $O(\log n)$.

Analysis:

All operations (find, insert, delete) run in $O(h)$ time, where h = tree's height

Java implementation (see notes for details)

```
public class BSTree<Key extends Comparable, Value> {
```

```
    class Node {  
        Key key  
        Value value  
        Node left, right  
  
        .... constructor, toString...  
    }
```

Inner class
for node
(protected)

Local helpers
(private or protected)

```
    Value find(Key x, Node p) {...}  
    Node insert(Key x, Value v, Node p) {...}  
    Node delete(Key x, Node p) {...}
```

```
    private Node root;
```

Data (private)

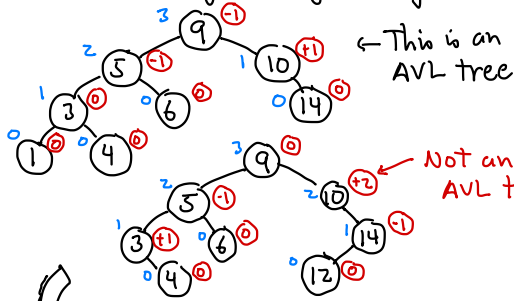
```
    public Value find(Key x) {...}  
    public void insert(Key x, Value v) {...}  
    public void delete(Key x) {...}
```

Public
members
(invoke
helpers)

```
}
```


Balance factor:

$$\text{bal}(v) = \text{hgt}(v.\text{right}) - \text{hgt}(v.\text{left})$$

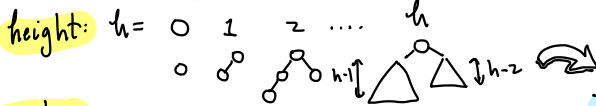


← This is an AVL tree

Not an AVL tree

Does this imply $O(\log n)$ height?

Worst cases:



nodes: $n = 1, 2, 4, 7, 12, 20, \dots$
 $n+1 = 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, \dots$

Recall: $F_0 = 0, F_1 = 1, F_h = F_{h-1} + F_{h-2}$

Conjecture: Min no. of nodes in AVL tree of height h is $F_{h+3} - 1$

AVL Height Balance

- for each node v , the heights of its subtrees differ by ≤ 1 .

AVL tree: A binary search tree that satisfies this condition

AVL Trees I

- Basic defs
- Height props
- Rotations

Theorem: An AVL tree of height h has at least $F_{h+3} - 1$ nodes.

Proof: (Induct. on h)

$$h=0: n(h) = 1 = F_3 - 1$$

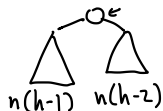
$$h=1: n(h) = 2 = F_4 - 1$$

$$h \geq 2:$$

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

$$= 1 + (F_{h+2} - 1) + (F_{h+1} - 1)$$

$$= (F_{h+2} + F_{h+1}) - 1 = F_{h+3} - 1 \quad \square$$



```
BSTNode rotateRight(BSTNode p){
```

```
    BSTNode q = p.left
```

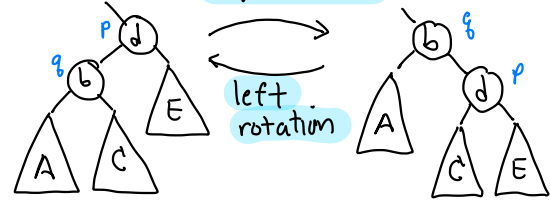
```
    p.left = q.right
```

```
    q.right = p
```

```
    return q
```

```
}
```

How to maintain the AVL property?



$$A < b < C < d < E$$

$$A < b < C < d < E$$

Corollary: An AVL tree with n nodes has height $O(\log n)$

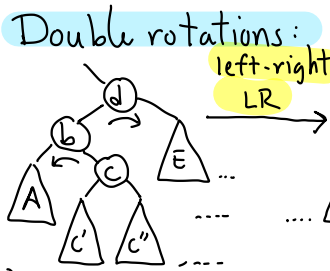
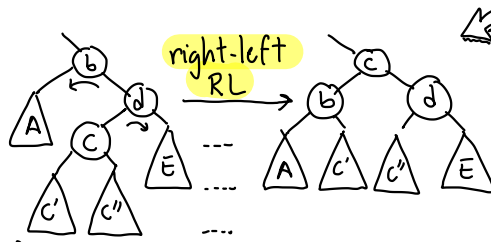
Proof: Fact: $F_h \approx \varphi^h / \sqrt{5}$ where

$$\varphi = (1 + \sqrt{5})/2 \text{ "Golden ratio"}$$

$$n \geq \varphi^{h+3} = c \cdot \varphi^h \Rightarrow h \leq \log_{\varphi} n + c$$

$$\Rightarrow h \leq \log_2 n / \log_2 \varphi$$

$$= O(\log n) \quad \square$$



Double rotations:
left-right LR

AVLNode rebalance (AVLNode p)

```

if (p == null) return p
if (balanceFactor(p) < -1)
    if (ht(p.left.left) ≥ ht(p.left.right))
        p = rotateRight(p)
    else p = rotateLeftRight(p)
else if (balanceFactor(p) > +1)
    ... (symmetrical)
updateHeight(p); return p

```

BSTNode rotateLeftRight (BSTNode p)
 p.left = rotateLeft(p.left)
 return rotateRight(p)

AVL Tree:

AVL Node: Same as BSTNode (from Lect 4) but add: int height

Utilities:

```

int height (AVLNode p)
{
    return { p == null → -1
            { ow. → p.height

```

```

void updateHeight (AVLNode p)
{
    p.height = 1 + max (height(p.left),
                        height(p.right))

```

```

int balanceFactor (AVLNode p)
{
    return height(p.right) -
           height(p.left)

```

simpler than bal factor

AVL Trees II

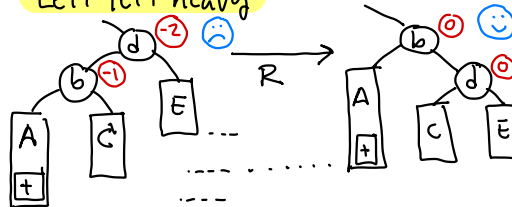
- double rotations
- insertion

Find: Same as B.S.T.

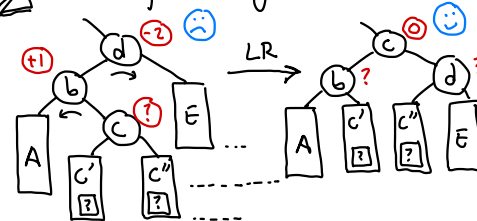
Insert: Same as BST but as we "back out" rebalance

How to rebalance? Bal = -2

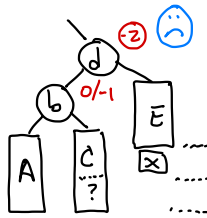
Left-left heavy



Left-right heavy:

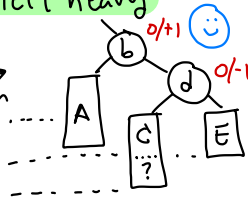


Cases: Balance factor -2

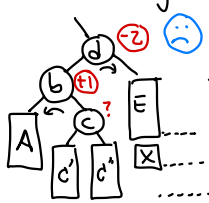


Left-left heavy

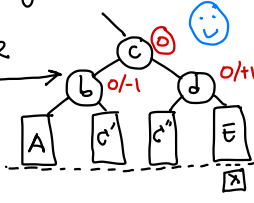
Right rotation



Left-right heavy



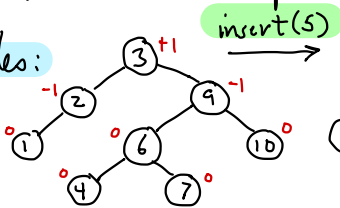
LR



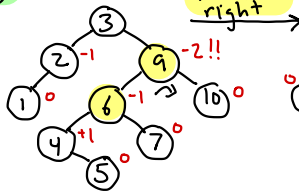
AVLNode delete (Key x, AVLNode p)

same as BST delete
return rebalance(p)

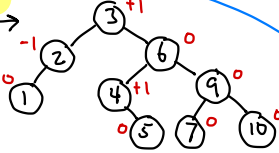
Examples:



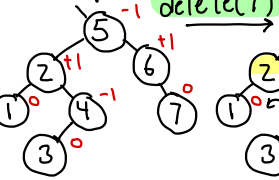
insert(5)



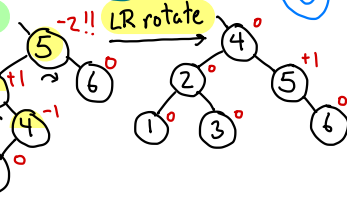
rotate right



Example 4:



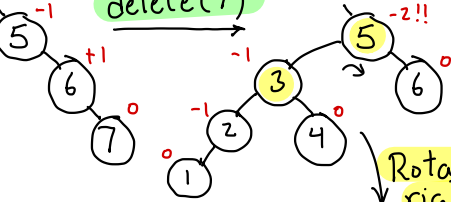
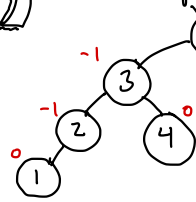
delete(7)



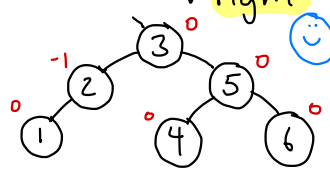
LR rotate

Example 3:

delete(7)



Rotate right



Deletion: Basic plan

- Apply standard BST deletion
- find key to delete
- find replacement node
- copy contents
- delete replacement
- rebalance

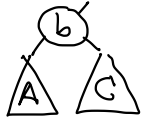
AVL Trees III

- Deletion
- Examples

Node types:

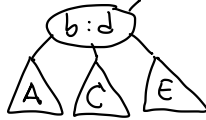
2-Node

1 key
2 children



3-Node

2 keys
3 children



Identical heights



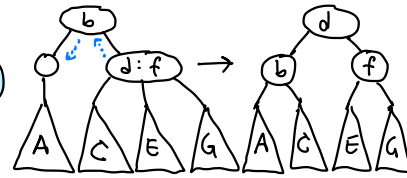
Recap:

AVL: Height balanced
Binary

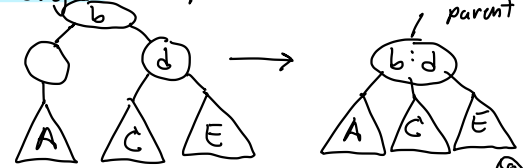
2-3 tree: Height exact
Variable width

Adoption
(Key-Rotation)

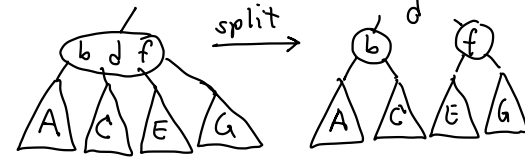
$$1+3 = 2+2$$



Merge: $1+2/2+1 \rightarrow 3$



Split: $4 \rightarrow 2+2$



Def: A 2-3 tree of height h is either:

- Empty ($h = -1$)
- A 2-Node root and two subtrees, each 2-3 tree of height $h-1$
- A 3-Node root and three subtrees... height $h-1$.

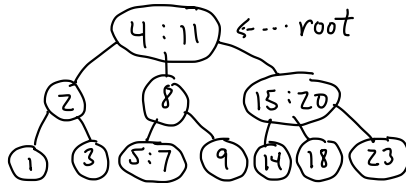
2-3 Trees

Thm: A 2-3 tree of n nodes has height $O(\log n)$

Roughly: $\log_3 n \leq h \leq \log_2 n$

Example:

2-3 tree of height 2

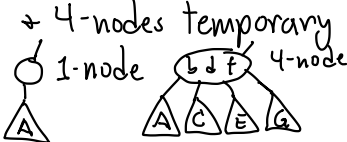


How to maintain balance?

- Split
- Merge
- Adoption (Key rotation)

Conceptual tool:

We'll allow 1-nodes



Insertion example:



Dictionary operations:

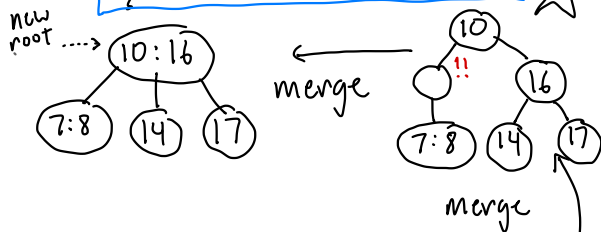
Find - straight forward

Insert - find "leaf node" where key "belongs" + add it (may split)

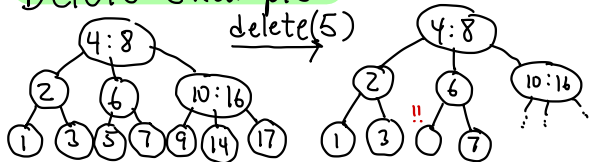
Delete - find/replacement/merge or adopt

Implementation?

```
class TwoThreeNode {
    int nChildren
    TwoThreeNode children[3]
    Key key[2]
}
```



Delete Example:

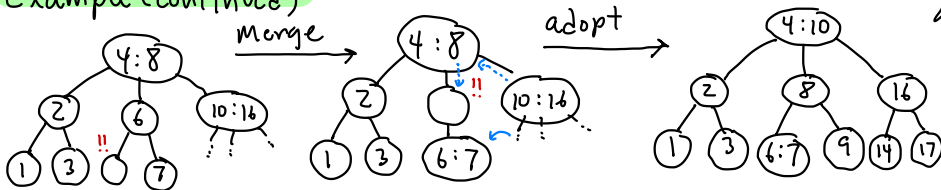


Deletion remedy:

- Have a 3-node neighboring sibling → adopt
- o.w.: Merge with either siblings + steal key from parent

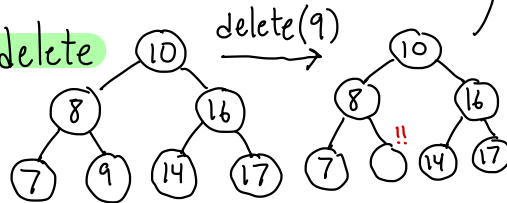


Example (continued)

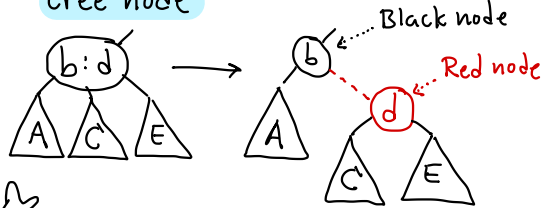


2-3 Trees II

Another delete example:

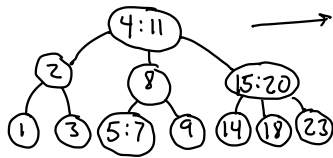


Encoding 3-node as binary tree node

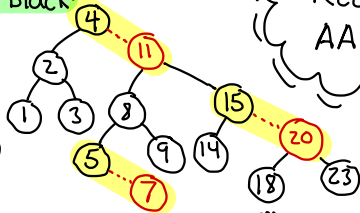


Example:

2-3 Tree:



Red-Black:



Rules:

- ① Every node labeled red/black
- ② Root is black
- ③ Nulls treated as if black
- ④ If node is red, both children are black
- ⑤ Every path from root to null has same no. of black

Some history:

2-3 Trees: Bayer 1972

Red-black Trees: Guibas & Sedgwick 1978 (a binary variant of 2-3)

Rumor - Guibas had two pens - red & black to draw with

Red-Black and AA-Trees I

AA-Trees: Simpler to code

- No null pointers: Create a sentinel node, nil, and all nulls point to it → nil
- No colors: Each node stores level number. Red child is at same level as parent. $q \text{ is red} \Leftrightarrow q.\text{level} == p.\text{level}$

What we need are stricter rules!

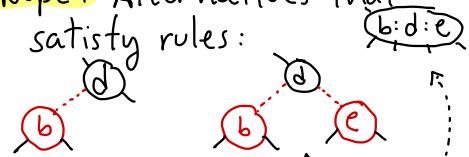
AA-tree:

Arne Anderson 1993

New rule:

- ⑥ Each red node can arise only as right child (of a black node)

Nope! Alternatives that satisfy rules:



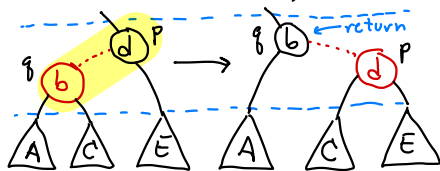
A "left-skewed" encoding

Corresponds to 2-3-4 trees

Restructuring Ops:

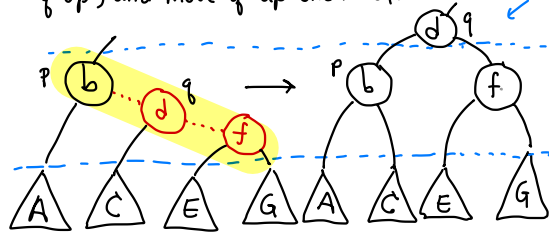
Skew: Restore right skew

→ If black node has red left child, rotate



How to test? $p.\text{left.level} == p.\text{level}$

Split: If a black node has a right-right red chain, do a left rotation at p (bringing its right child q up) and move q up one level.



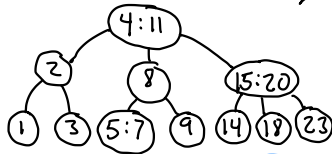
How to test?

$p.\text{level} == p.\text{right.level} == p.\text{right.right.level}$
not needed (levels are monotone)

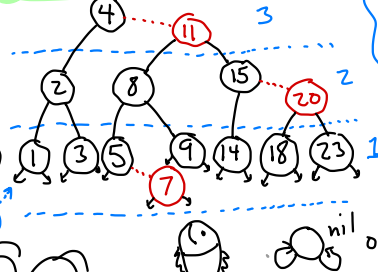


Example:

2-3 Tree:



AA tree:



Red-Black + AA Trees II

Level 3

AA Insertion:

- Find the leaf (as usual)
- Create new red node
- Back out applying skew + split

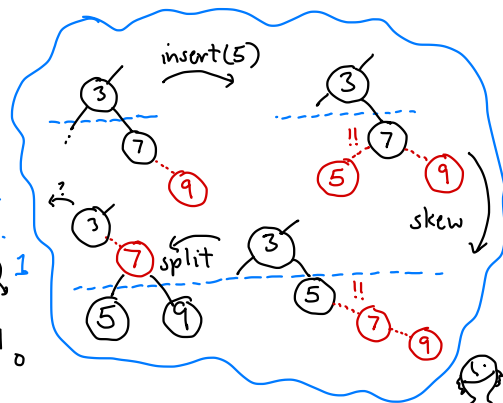
AA Node skew (AA Node p)

```

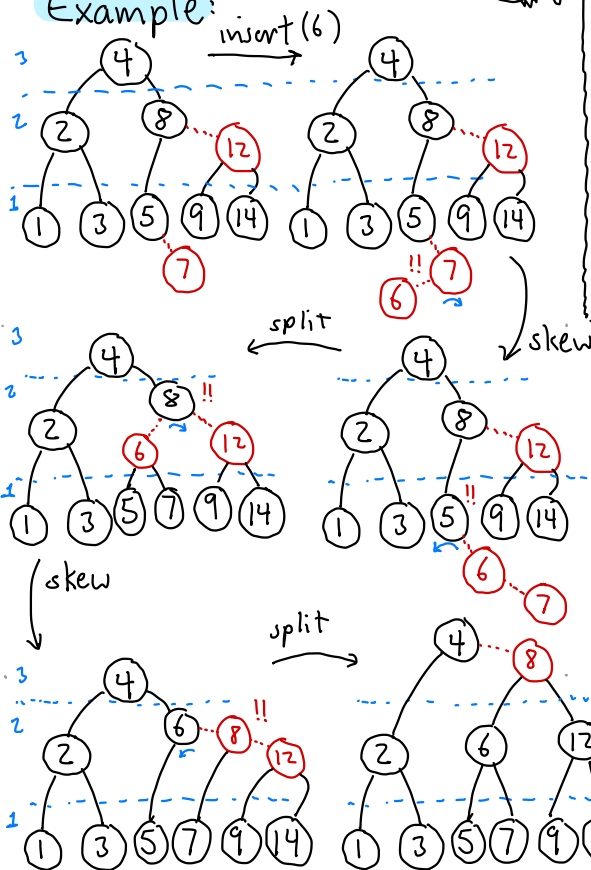
if (p == nil) return p
if (p.right.right.level == p.level) {
    AANode q = p.right
    p.right = q.left
    q.left = p
    q.level += 1
    return q
} else return p
    
```

```

AANode skew (AANode p) {
    if (p == nil) return p
    if (p.left.level == p.level) {
        AANode q = p.left
        p.left = q.right
        q.right = p
        return q
    } else return p
}
    
```



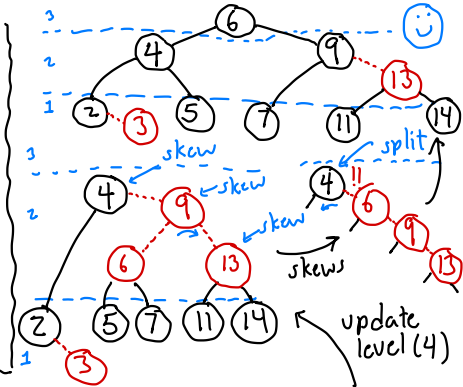
Example:



```

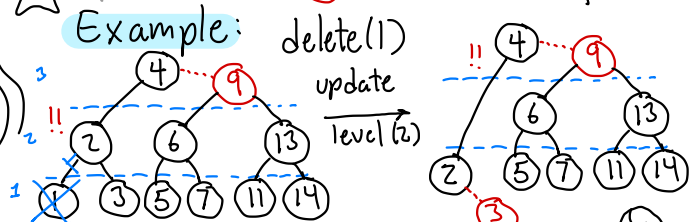
AANode insert(Key x, Value v, AANode p)
{
    if (p == nil)
    {
        p = new AANode(x, v, 1, nil, nil)
    }
    else if (x < p.key) ... insert on left
    else if (x > p.key) ... insert on right
    else Duplicate Key!
    return split(skew(p))
}

```



Red-Black and AA Trees III

Example:



Deletion:

Two more helpers:

update Level: If p 's level exceeds $l = 1 + \min(p.\text{left.level}, p.\text{right.level})$ then set p 's level to l & also p 's right child

fix After Delete (p):

- update p's level
- skew(p), skew(p.right)
- skew(p.right.right)
- split(p), split(p.right)

deletion: Same as AVL deletion, but end with:
return fixAfterDelete(lp)

History:

1989: Seidel + Aragon

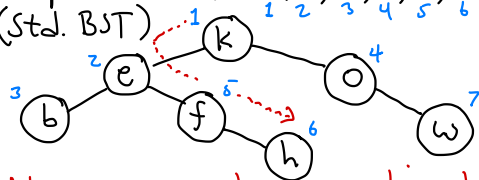
[Explosion of randomized algorithms]

Later discovered this was already known: **Priority Search Trees** from different context (geometry)
McCreight 1980

Intuition:

- Random insertion into BSTs $\Rightarrow O(\log n)$ expected height
- Worst case can be very bad $O(n)$ height
- **Treap**: A tree that behaves as if keys are inserted in random order

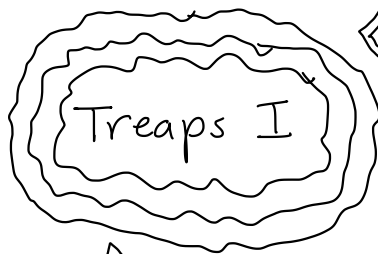
Example: Insert: k, e, b, o, f, h, w (std. BST)



Along any path - Insertion times increase

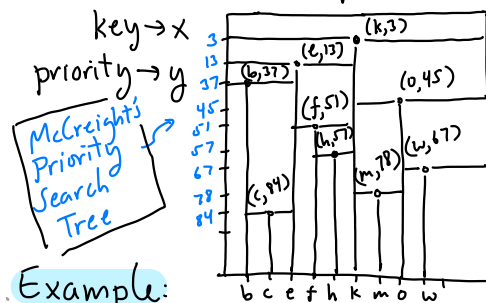
Randomized Data Structures

- Use a random number generator
- Running in **expectation** over all random choices
- Often **simpler** than deterministic



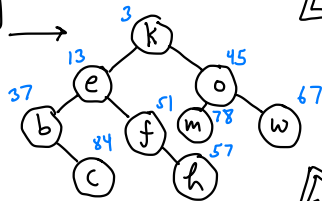
Obs: In a standard BST, keys are by inorder + insert times are in **heap order** (parent < child)

Geometric Interpretation:



Example:

Key	Priority
b	37
c	84
e	13
f	51
h	57
k	3
m	78
o	45
w	67



Treap: Each node stores a **key** + a random **priority**.
Keys are in **inorder**.
Priorities are in **heap order**.

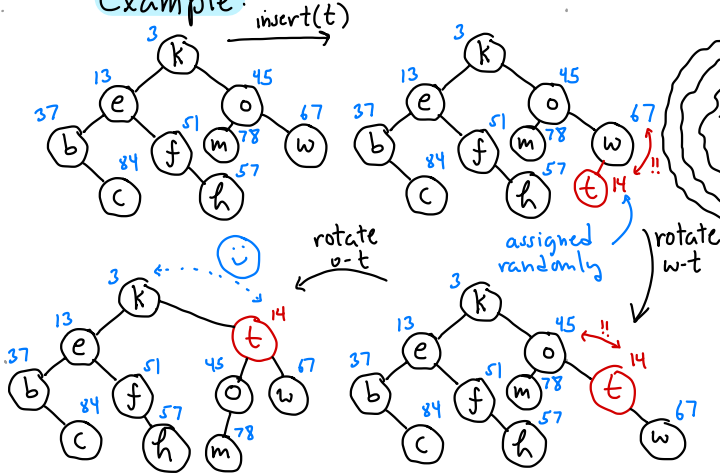
? Is it always possible to do both?

Yes: Just consider the corresponding BST

Insertion: As usual, find the leaf + create a new leaf node.

- Assign random priority
- On backing out - check heap order + rotate to fix.

Example:



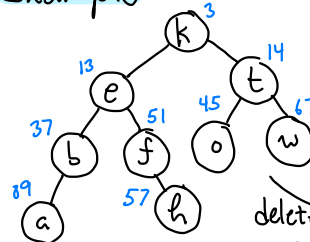
Deletion: (cute solution) Find node to delete. Set its priority to $+\infty$. Rotate it down to leaf level + unlink.

Theorem: A treap containing n entries has height $O(\log n)$ in expectation (averaged over all assignments of random priorities)

Proof: Follows directly from BST analysis

Treaps II

Example:



Implementation: (See pdf notes)

Node: Stores priority + usual...

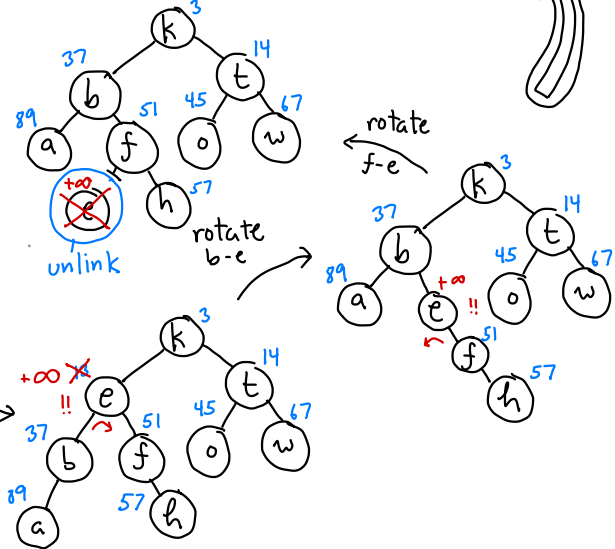
Helpers:

lowest priority (p)

returns node of lowest priority among:

restructure:

performs rotation (if needed) to put lowest priority node at p .



Ideal Skip list:

- Organize list in levels

- Level 0: Everything

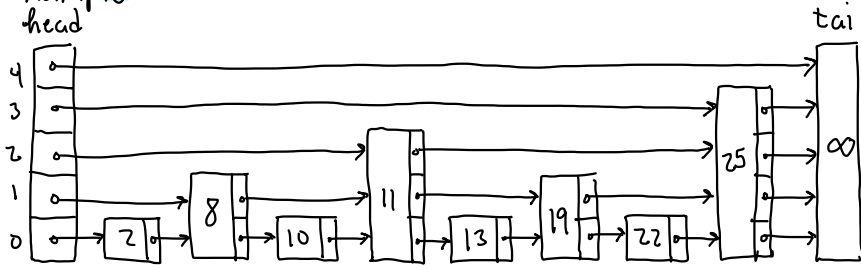
- 1: Every other

- 2: Every fourth

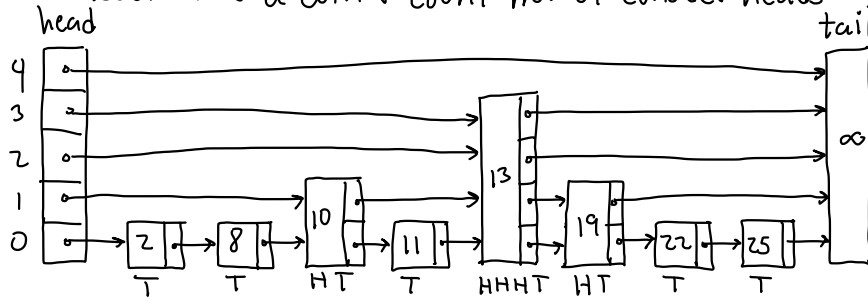
- i: Every 2^i



Example:



Too rigid → **Randomize!** To determine level - toss a coin + count no. of consec. heads:



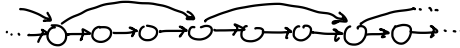
Sorted linked lists:

- Easy to code

- Easy to insert/delete

- Slow to search... $O(n)$

Idea: Add extra links to skip



How to generalize?



Skip Lists I

Node Structure: (Variable sized)

```
class SkipNode {  
    Key key  
    Value value  
    SkipNode[] next  
}
```

In constructor,
set level and
size

Value find(Key x)

```
{  
    i = topmost level  
    SkipNode p = head  
    while (i ≥ 0) {  
        if (p.next[i].key ≤ x) p = p.next[i]  
        else i--  
    }  
    if (p.key == x) return p.value  
    else return null  
}
```

current node
until we hit
base level
advance
horizontal

drop down a level
we are at base level

Thm: A skip list with n nodes has $O(\log n)$ levels in expectation

Proof: Will show that probability of exceeding $c \cdot \lg n$ is $\leq 1/n^{c-1}$

→ Prob that any given node's level exceeds l is $1/2^l$

[l consecutive heads]

→ Prob that any of n nodes' level exceeds l is $\leq n/2^l$

[n trials with prob $1/2^l$]

→ Let $l = c \cdot \lg n$ ($\lg \equiv \log_2$)

Prob that max level exceeds $c \cdot \lg n$ is:

$$\leq n/2^l = n/2^{(c \cdot \lg n)}$$

$$= n/(2^{\lg n})^c$$

$$= n/n^c = 1/n^{c-1}$$

□

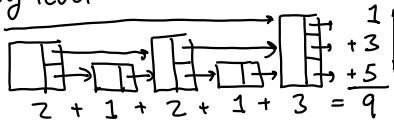
Obs: Prob. level exceeds $3 \cdot \lg n$ is $\leq 1/n^2$.

(If $n \geq 1,000$, chances are less than 1 in million!)

Skip Lists II

Thm: Total space for n -node skip list is $O(n)$ expected.

Proof: Rather than count node by node, we count level by level:



- Let n_i = no. of nodes that contrib. to level i .

- Prob that node at level $\geq i$ is $1/2^i$

- Expected no. of nodes that contrib. to level $i = n/2^i$

$$\Rightarrow E(n_i) = n/2^i$$

Total space (expected) is:

$$E\left(\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} n_i\right) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} E(n_i) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} n/2^i$$

$$= n \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} 1/2^i = 2n$$

□

Thm: Expected search time is $O(\log n)$

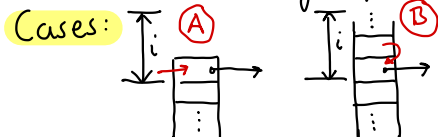
Proof:

- We have seen no. levels is $O(\log n)$

- Will show that we visit 2 nodes per level on average

Obs- Whenever search arrives first time to a node, it's at top level. (Can you see why?)

Def: $E(i)$ = Expect. num. nodes visited among top i levels.



$$E(i) = 1 + (\text{Prob}(\text{A}))E(i) + (\text{Prob}(\text{B}))E(i-1)$$

$$= 1 + 1/2 E(i) + 1/2 E(i-1)$$

$$\Rightarrow E(i)(1 - 1/2) = 1 + 1/2 E(i-1)$$

$$\Rightarrow E(i) = [1 + 1/2 E(i-1)] \cdot 2 = 2 + E(i-1)$$

Basis: $E(0) = 0 \Rightarrow E(i) = 2 \cdot i$

Let l = max level. **Total visited** = $E(l)$

\Rightarrow We visit 2 nodes per level on average. □

Delete:

- Start at top
- Search each level saving last node < key
- On reaching node at level 0, remove it and unlink from saved pointers



Insert: (Similar to linked lists)

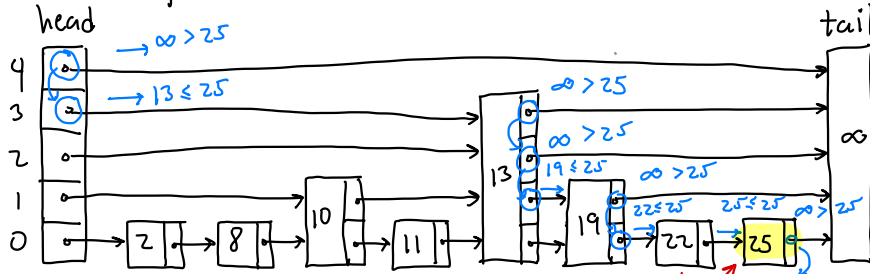


- Start at top level
- At each level:
 - Advance to last node \leq key
 - Save node + drop level
- At level 0:
 - Create new node (flip coins to determine height)
- Link into each saved node

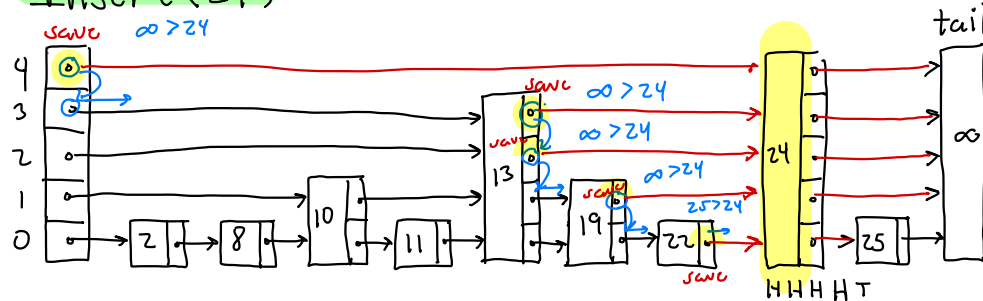
Skip Lists III



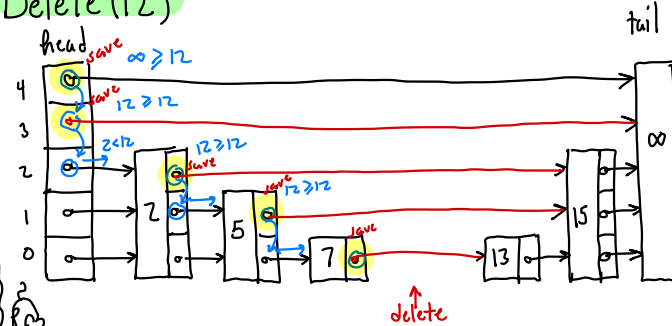
Example: find(25)



Insert(24)



Delete(12)



Analysis: All operations run in time \sim find $\Rightarrow O(\log n)$ expected
Note: Variation in running times due to randomness only - not sequence
 \Rightarrow User cannot force poor performance.

Other/Better Criteria?

Expected case: Some keys more popular than others

Self-adjusting: Tree adapts as popularity changes

How to design/analyze?

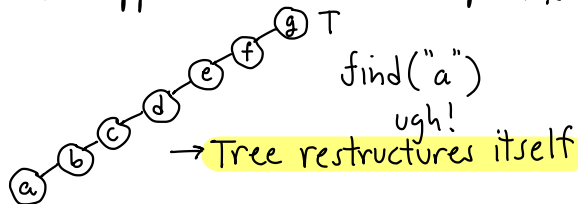
Splay Tree: A self-adjusting binary search tree

- **No rules!** (yay anarchy!)
 - No balance factors
 - No limits on tree height
 - No colors/levels/priorities

- **Amortized efficiency:**

- Any single op - slow
- Long series - efficient on avg.

Intuition: Let T be an unbalanced BST + suppose we access its deepest key



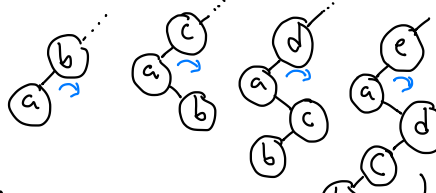
Recap: Lots of search trees

- Unbalanced BSTs
- AVL Trees
- 2-3, Red-black, AA Trees
- Treaps + Skip lists

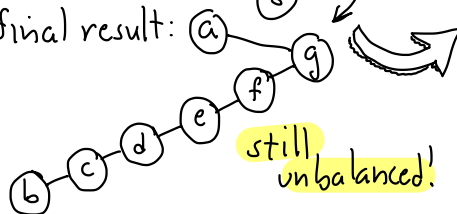
→ **Focus:** Worst-case or randomized expected case

SPLAY TREES I

Idea I: Rotate "a" to top
(Future accesses to "a" fast)

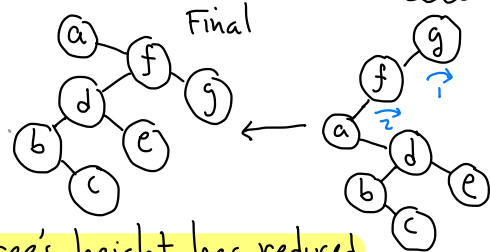


... final result:

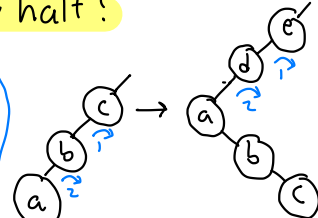


Lesson: Different combinations of rotations can:

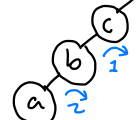
- bring given node to root
- significantly change (improve?) tree structure.



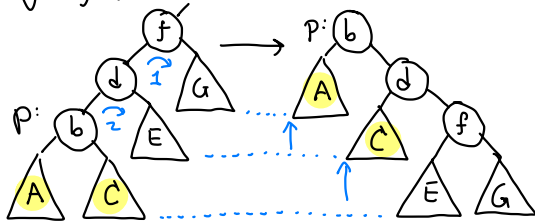
Tree's height has reduced by ~ half!



Idea II: Rotate 2 at a time - upper + lower

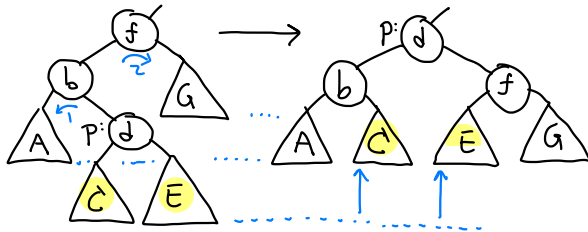


ZigZig(p): [LL case]



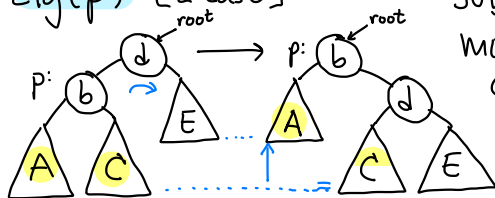
Subtrees A, C move up ↑

ZigZag(p): [LR case]



Subtrees C, E of p move up ↑

Zig(p): [L case]



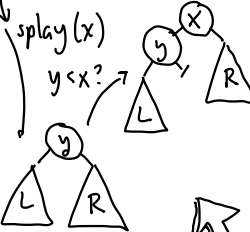
Subtree A moves up ↑
C unchanged

Splay(Key x):

Node $p \leftarrow$ find x by standard BST search
while ($p \neq \text{root}$) {
 if ($p == \text{child of root}$) zig(p)
 else /* p has grand parent */
 if (p is LL or RR grand child) zigzig(p)
 else /* p is LR or RL gr. child */ zigzag(p)
}

insert(x):

splay(x)
 $g = \text{new Node}(x)$
if ($\text{root.key} < x$)
 $x.\text{left} = \text{root}$
 $x.\text{right} = \text{root.right}$
 $\text{root.right} = \text{null}$
else ... symmetrical ...

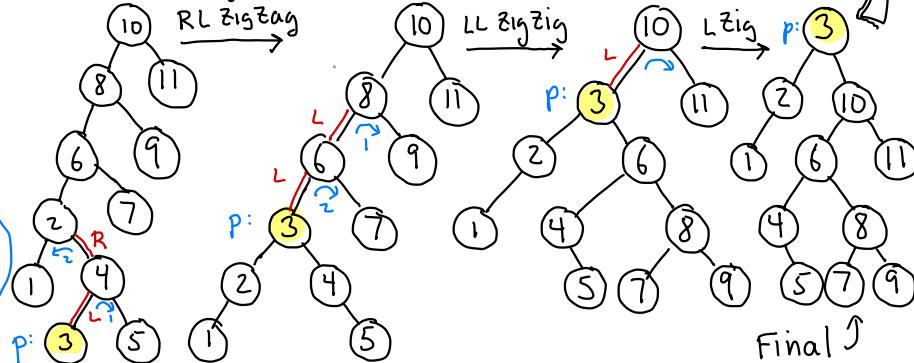


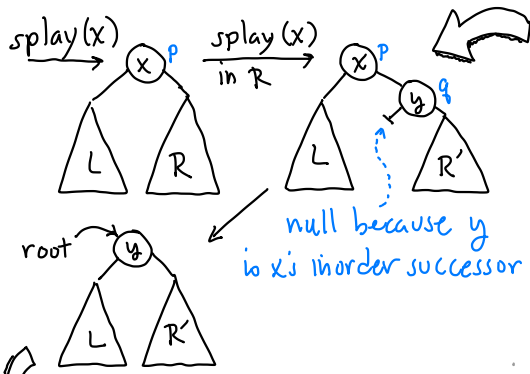
find(x):

splay(x)
if ($\text{root.key} == x$)
 found!
else not found

Splay Trees II

Example: splay(3)





Analysis:

- Amortized analysis
- Any one op might take $O(n)$
- Over a long sequence, average time is $O(\log n)$ each
- Amortized analysis is based on a sophisticated **potential argument**
- Potential: A function of the tree's structure
- **Balanced** \Rightarrow Low potential.
- **Unbalanced** \Rightarrow High potential.
- Every operation tends to reduce the potential

delete(x):

$\text{splay}(x)$ [x now at root]
 $p = \text{root}$
 if ($p.\text{key} \neq x$) **error!**
 $\text{splay}(x)$ in p 's right subtree
 $q = p.\text{right}$ [q 's key is x 's successor]
 $q.\text{left} = p.\text{left}$ [$q.\text{left} == \text{null}$]
 $\text{root} = q$

SPLAY TREES III

Splay Trees are
Amazingly Adaptive!

Balance Theorem: Starting with an empty dictionary, any sequence of m accesses takes total time $O(m \log n + n \log n)$ where $n = \max.$ entries at any time.

Dynamic Finger Theorem:

Keys: x_1, \dots, x_n . We perform accesses $x_{i_1}, x_{i_2}, \dots, x_{i_m}$. Let $\Delta_j = i_j - i_{j-1}$: distance between consecutive items.

Thm: Total access time is $O(m + n \log n + \sum_{j=1}^m (1 + \lg \Delta_j))$

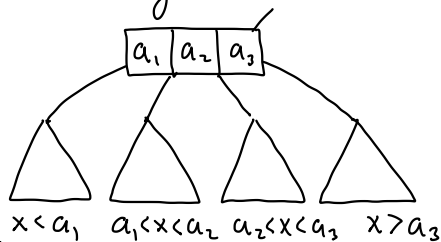
Static Optimality:

- Suppose key x_i is accessed with prob p_i ($\sum_{i=1}^n p_i = 1$)
- **Information Theory:** Best possible binary search tree answers queries in expected time $O(H)$ where $H = \sum p_i \lg 1/p_i$ **Entropy**

Static Optimality Theorem:

Given a seq. of m ops. on splay tree with keys x_1, \dots, x_n , where x_i is accessed q_i times. Let $p_i = q_i/m$. Then total time is $O(m \sum p_i \lg 1/p_i)$

Multiway Search Trees:



Secondary Memory:

- Most large data structures reside on disk storage
- Organized in blocks - pages
- Latency: High start-up time
- Want to minimize no. of blocks accessed

Node Structure: constant int M=...

```
class BTreeNode {
    int nChild // no. of children
    BTreeNode child[M] // children
    Key key[M-1] // keys
    Value value[M-1] // values
}
```

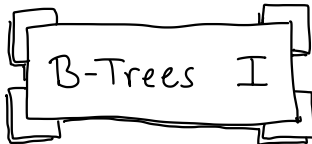


Theorem: A B-tree of order m with n keys has height at most $(\lg n)/\gamma$, where $\gamma = \lg(m/2)$

(See full notes for proof)

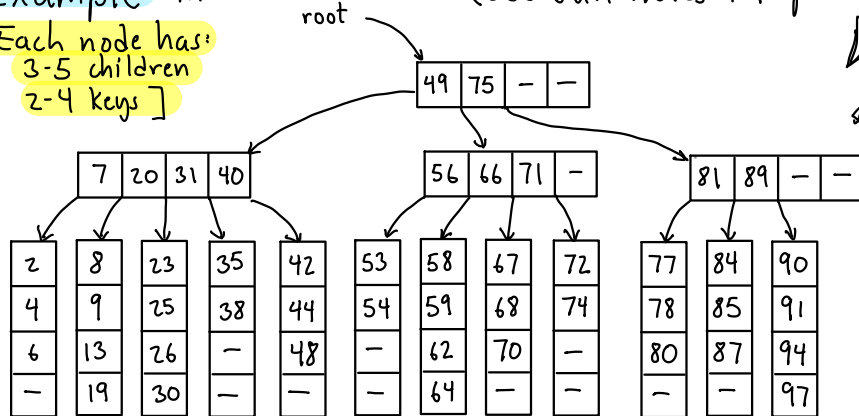
B-Tree:

- Perhaps the most widely used search tree
- 1970 - Bayer & McCreight
- Databases
- Numerous variants



Example: $m=5$

[Each node has:
3-5 children
2-4 keys]



B-Tree: of order $m (\geq 3)$

- Root is leaf or has ≥ 2 children
- Non-root nodes have $\lceil m/2 \rceil$ to m children [null for leaves]
- k children $\Rightarrow k-1$ key-values
- All leaves at same level

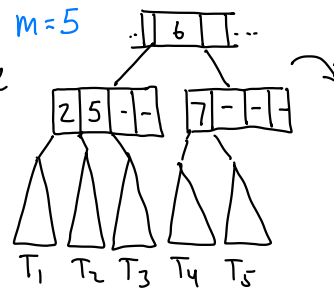
Key Rotation (Adoption)

- A node has **too few** children $\lceil m/2 \rceil - 1$
- Does either immediate sibling have **extra**? $\geq \lceil m/2 \rceil + 1$
- Adopt child from sibling & rotate keys
- When applicable - **preferred**.

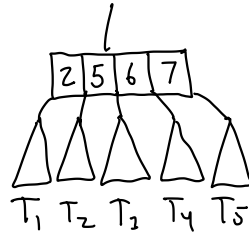
B-Tree restructuring:

- Generalizes 2-3 restructure
- Key rotation (Adoption)
- Splitting (insertion)
- Merging (deletion)

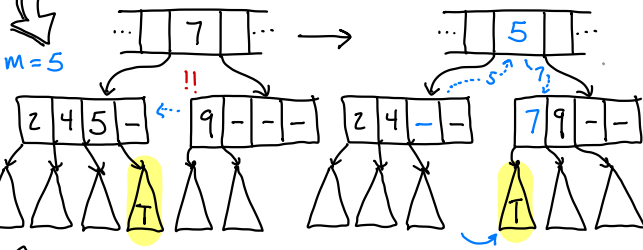
$m=5$



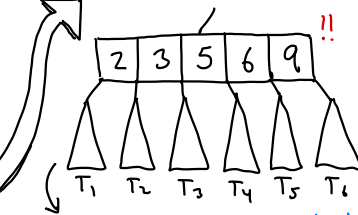
(Parent lost one key/child)



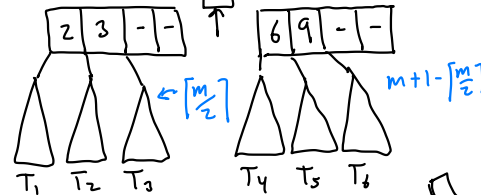
$m=5$



$m=5$



5 promote to parent



Lemma: For all $m \geq 2$,
 $\lceil m/2 \rceil \leq 2\lceil m/2 \rceil - 1 \leq m$
 \Rightarrow Resulting node is valid

Node Splitting:

- After insertion, a node has too many children... $m+1$
- We split into two nodes of sizes $m' = \lceil m/2 \rceil$ and $m'' = m+1 - \lceil m/2 \rceil$

Lemma: For all $m \geq 2$,
 $\lceil m/2 \rceil \leq m+1 - \lceil m/2 \rceil \leq m$

$\Rightarrow m' + m''$ are valid node sizes

Node Merging:

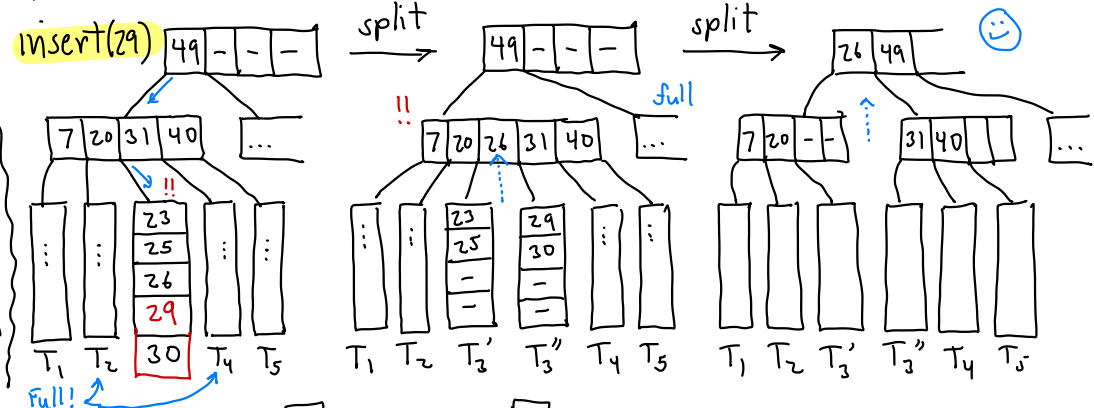
- A node has too few children $\lceil m/2 \rceil - 1$
- Neither sibling has extra (both $\lceil m/2 \rceil$)
- Merge with either sibling to produce node with $(\lceil m/2 \rceil - 1) + \lceil m/2 \rceil$ child

Insertion:

- Find insertion point (leaf level)
- Add key/value here
- If node **overflow** (m keys, $m+1$ children)
 - Can either sibling take a child ($< m$)?
 - ⇒ **Key rotation** [done]
 - Else, **split**
 - Promotes key
 - If root splits add new root



Example: $m=5$



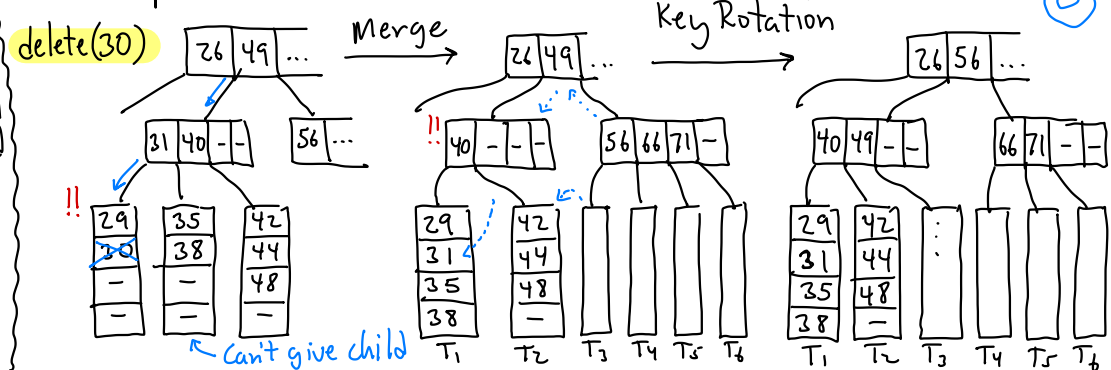
B-Trees III

Deletion:

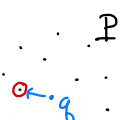
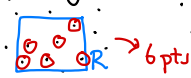
- Find key to delete
- Find replacement/copy
- If **underfull** ($\lceil m/2 \rceil - 1$) child
 - If sibling can give child
 - **Key rotation**
 - Else (sibling has $\lceil m/2 \rceil$)
 - **Merge** with sibling
 - Propagates → If root has 1 child → collapse root



Example: $m=5$



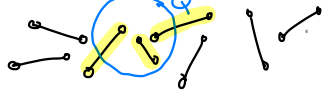
Geometric Search:

- Nearest neighbors \rightarrow 
- Range searching \rightarrow 

- Point Location



- Intersection Search

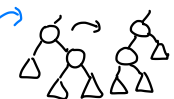


Multi-Dim vs. 1-dim Search?

Similarities:

- Tree structure
- Balance $O(\log n)$
- Internal nodes - split
- External nodes - data

Differences:


- No (natural) total order
- Need other ways to discriminate + separate
- Tree rotation may not be meaningful 

So far: 1-dimensional keys


- Multi-dimensional data
- Applications:
 - Spatial databases + maps
 - Robotics + Auton. Systems
 - Vision/Graphics/Games
 - Machine Learning

Quadtrees & kd-Trees I

Representations:

- Scalars: Real numbers for coordinates, etc. float
- Points: $p = (p_1, \dots, p_d)$ in real d-dim space \mathbb{R}^d
- Other geom objects: Built from these 

Partition Trees:

- Tree structure based on hierarchical space partition 
- Each node is associated w. a region - cell
- Each internal node stores a splitter - subdivides the cell



- External nodes store pts.

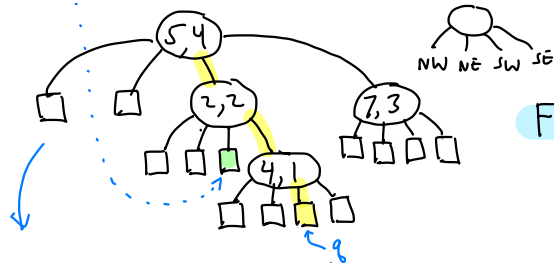
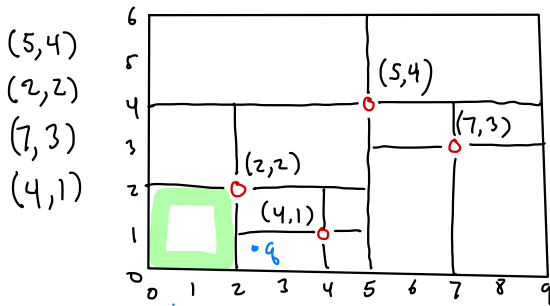
Point: A d-vector in \mathbb{R}^d
 $p = (p_1, \dots, p_d)$ $p_i \in \mathbb{R}$

class Point {

```
float[] coord // coords
Point(int d)
    ...  $\rightarrow$  coord = new float[d]
int getDim()  $\rightarrow$  coord.length
float get(int i)  $\rightarrow$  coord[i]
... others: equality, distance
toString...
```


Point Quadtree:

- Each internal node stores a point
- Cell is split by horiz. + vertic. lines through point



Each external node corresponds to cell of final subdivision

Quadtrees: (abstractly)

- Partition trees
- **Cell**: Axis-parallel rectangle [AABB - Axis-aligned bounding box]

Splitter: Subdivides cell into four (genlly 2^d) subcells

Quadtrees & kd-Trees II

Find/Pt Location:

Given a query point q , is it in tree, and if not which leaf cell contains it?

→ Follow path from root down (generalizing BST find)

History: Bentley 1975

- called it 2-d tree (\mathbb{R}^2)
3-d tree (\mathbb{R}^3)
- In short **kd-tree** (any dim)
- Where/which direction to split?
→ next

kd-Tree: Binary variant of quadtree

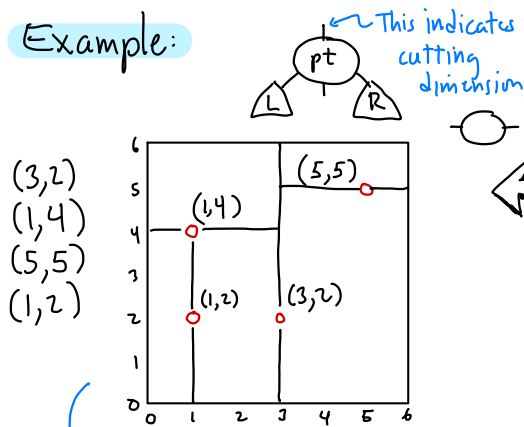
- **splitter**: Horiz. or vertic. line in 2-d (orthogonal plane ow.)
- **cell**: Still AABB



Quadtrees - Analysis

- Numerous variants!
PR, PMR, QR, QX, ... see Samet's book
- Popular in 2-d apps
(in 3-d, **outtrees**)
- Don't scale to high dim
- out degree = 2^d
- What to do for higher dims?

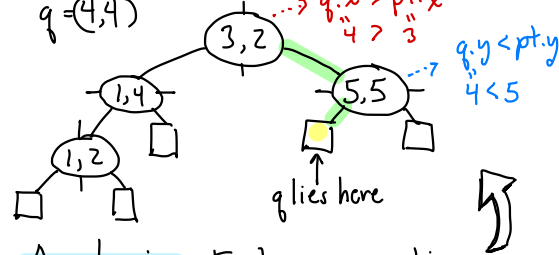
Example:



Kd-Tree Node:

```
class KNode {
    Point pt // splitting point
    int cutDim // cutting coordinate
    KNode left // low side
    KNode right // high side
}
```

Example: $\text{find}(q) \xrightarrow{\text{calls}} \text{find}(q, \text{root})$
 $q = (4,4)$



Analysis: Find runs in time $O(h)$, where h is height of tree.

Theorem: If pts are inserted in random order, expected height is $O(\log n)$

```
Value find(Point q, KNode p) {
    if (p == null) return null;
    else if (q == p.pt) // all coords match?
        return p.val;
    else if (p.onLeft(q))
        return find(q, p.left);
    else
        return find(q, p.right);
}
```

QuadTrees & kd-Trees III

Find:

- Descend the tree
- Compare query pt with node pt along cutDim

```
class KNode {
    boolean onLeft(Point q)
    { return q[cutDim] < pt[cutDim]; }
}
```

How do we choose cutting dim?

- Standard kd-tree: cycle through them (eg. $d=3: 1,2,3,1,2,3,\dots$) based on tree depth
- Optimized kd-tree: (Bentley)
 - Based on widest dimension of pts in cell.



KDNode insert (Point x, Value v, KDNode p, int cd) {

Kd-Tree Insertion: (Similar to std. BSTs)

```

if (p == null) // fell out?
{
    p = new KDNode(x, v, cd)
    // new leaf node
}
else if (p.pt == x)
{
    Error! Duplicate key
}
else if (p.onLeft(x))
{
    p.left = insert(x, v, p.left, (cd+1)%dim)
}
else
{
    p.right = insert(x, v, p.right, (cd+1)%dim)
}
return p
    
```

- Descend tree until
 → find pt → Error - duplicate
 → falling out
 → create new node
 → set cutting dim

cutting dimension to use

(Although we draw extended trees, lets assume standard trees)

Quadtrees & kd-Trees IV

Deletion:

- Descend path to leaf
- If found:
 - leaf node → just remove
 - internal node
 - find replacement
 - copy here
 - recur. delete replacement

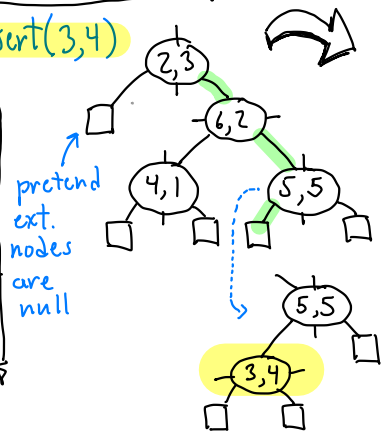
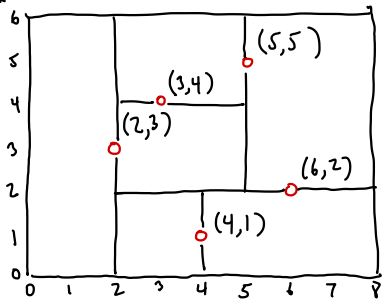
This is the hardest part. See Latex notes.

Rebalance by Rebuilding:

- Rebuild subtrees as with scapegoat trees
- $O(\log n)$ amortized
- Find: $O(\log n)$ guaranteed.

Example:

insert(3,4)



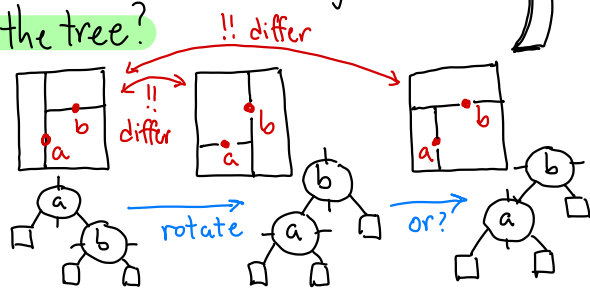
Analysis:

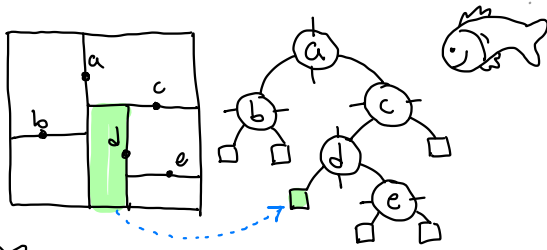
Run time: $O(h)$

Tree height

Can we balance the tree?

- Rotation does not make sense





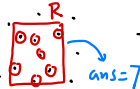
Kd-Trees:

- Partition trees
- Orthogonal split
- Alternate cutting dimension x, y, x, y, \dots
- Cells are axis-aligned rectangles (AABB)



Queries?

- **Orthogonal range queries**
 - Given query rect. (AABB) count/report pts in this rect.
- Other range queries?
 - Circular disks
 - Halfplane



Kd-Tree Queries

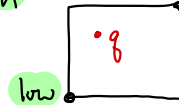
- Nearest neighbor queries

- Given query pt, return closest pt in the set
- Find k^{th} closest point
- Find farthest point from q

This Lecture: $O(\sqrt{n})$ time alg for orthog. range counting queries in \mathbb{R}^2
 → General \mathbb{R}^d : $O(n^{1-1/d})$

Axis-Aligned Rect in \mathbb{R}^d

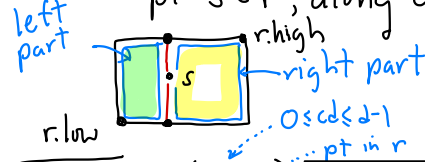
- Defined by two pts: $low, high$



- Contains pt $q \in \mathbb{R}^d$ iff $low_i \leq q_i \leq high_i$

Rectangle methods for kd-cells:

- Split a cell r by a split pt $s \in r$, along cutdim cd



$r.\text{leftPart}(cd, s)$

→ returns rect with $low = r.low$ + $high = r.high$ but $high[cd] \leftarrow s[cd]$

$r.\text{rightPart}(cd, s)$

→ $high = r.high$ + $low = r.low$ but $low[cd] \leftarrow s[cd]$

Useful methods:

Let r, c - Rectangle
 q - Point

$r.\text{contains}(q)$

$r.\text{contains}(c)$

$r.\text{isDisjointFrom}(c)$



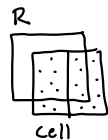
- node p + p 's cell.

- \mathbb{R}  

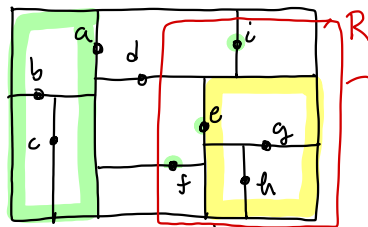
answer

- cell
- 

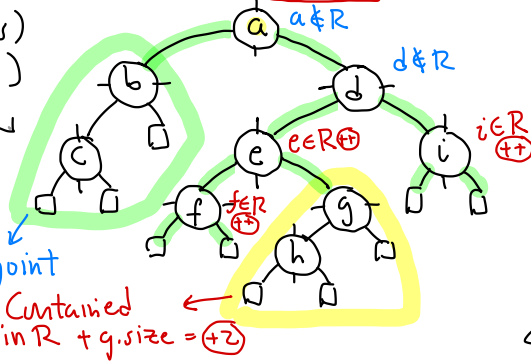
- answer.



```
private Point low, high
public Rect (Point l, Point h)
"    boolean contains (Point q)
"    boolean contains (Rect c)
"    Rect leftPart (int cd, Points)
"    Rect rightPart (" " " " )
```



Final
answer
 $= 1 + 1 + 1 + 2$
 $= 5$



Disjoint

Contained in R + g.size = $(+2)$

Kd-Tree Queries



```
int rangeCount(Rect R, KDNode p, Rect cell)
```

```
else if (R.isDisjointFrom(cell)) return 0 // no overlap
```

```
else if (R.contains(cell)) return p.size // take all
```

```
else { int ct = 0
```

```
if (R.contains(p.pt) ct++ // p's pt in range
```

```
ct += rangeCount(R, p.left,
                 cell.leftPart(p.wtDirn, p.pt))
```

```
ct += rangeCount(R, p.right, cell.rightPart...
```

3

Theorem: Given a balanced kd-tree storing n pts in \mathbb{R}^2 (using alternating cut dim), orthog. range queries can be answered in $O(\sqrt{n})$ time.

Analysis: How efficient is our algorithm?

→ **Tricky to analyze**

→ At some nodes we recurse on both children
 $\Rightarrow O(n)$ time?

→ At some we don't recurse at all!

Solving the Recurrence:

- **Macho:** Expand it

- **Wimpy:** Master Thm (CLRS)

Master Thm:

$$T(n) = aT\left(\frac{n}{b}\right) + n^d + d \log_b a$$

$$\Rightarrow T(n) = n^{\log_b a}$$

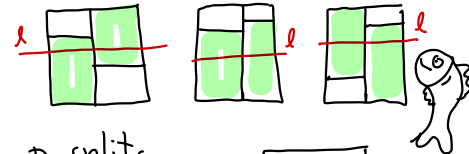
For us: $a=2$
 $b=4$
 $d=0$
 $\Rightarrow T(n) = n^{\log_4 2} = n^{1/2} = \sqrt{n}$

Since tree is **balanced** a child has half the pts + grandchild has quarter.

Recurrence: $T(n) = 2 + 2T(n/4)$

2 cells stabbed
 Recurse on 2 grandchildren
 Each has $n/4$ pts

If we consider 2 consecutive levels of kd-tree, l stabs at most 2 of 4 cells:

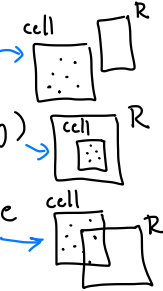


p splits horizontally
 l stabs only one

→ Slower than $\log n$. Faster than n

Stabbing: 3 cases

- cell is **disjoint** (easy)
- cell is **contained** (easy)
- cell partially overlaps or is **stabbed** by the query range (hard!)

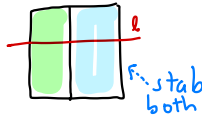


Kd-Tree Queries III

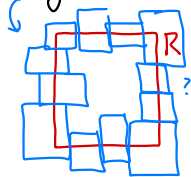
Lemma: Given a kd-tree (as in Thm above) and horiz. or vert. line l , at most $O(\sqrt{n})$ cells can be stabbed by l

Proof: w.l.o.g. l is horiz.

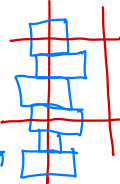
Cases: p splits vertically



How many cells are stabbed by R ? (worst case)



Simpler: Extend R 's sides to 4 lines + analyze each one.



Hashing: (Unordered)

dictionary

- stores key-value pairs in array $table[0..m-1]$
- supports basic dict. ops. (insert, delete, find) in $O(1)$ expected time
- does not support ordered ops (getMin, findUp, ...)
- simple, practical, widely used

Overview:

- To store n keys, our table should (ideally) be a bit larger (e.g., $m \geq c \cdot n$, $c = 1.25$)
- Load factor:
 $\lambda = n/m$
- Running times increase as $\lambda \rightarrow 1$
- Hash function:
 $h: \text{Keys} \rightarrow [0..m-1]$
 - Should scatter keys random.
 - Need to handle collisions

Recap: So far, ordered dicts.

- insert, delete, find
 - Comparison-based: $<, =, >$
 - getMin, getMax, getK, findUp...
 - Query/Update time: $O(\log n)$
 - Worst-case, amortized, random.
- Can we do better? $O(1)$?

Hashing I

Good Hash Function:

- Efficient to compute
- Produce few collisions
 - Use every bit in key
 - Break up natural clusters

Eg. Java variable names:
temp1, temp2, temp3

table:



$x \neq y$
but
 $h(x) = h(y)$

Universal Hashing:

Even better → randomize!

- Let H be a family of hash fns
- Select $h \in H$ randomly
- If $x \neq y$ then $\text{Prob}(h(x) = h(y)) = \frac{1}{m}$
Eg. Let p - large prime, $a \in [1..p-1]$
 $b \in [0..p-1]$ all random
- $h_{a,b}(x) = ((ax + b) \bmod p) \bmod m$

Why "mod p mod m"?

- modding by a large prime scatters keys
- m may not be prime (e.g. power of 2)

Common Examples:

- Division hash:
 $h(x) = x \bmod m$
- Multiplicative hash:
 $h(x) = (ax \bmod p) \bmod m$
 a, p - large prime numbers
- Linear hash:
 $h(x) = ((ax + b) \bmod p) \bmod m$
 a, b, p - large primes

Assume keys can be interpreted as ints

Overview:

- Separate Chaining
 - Open Addressing:
 - Linear probing
 - Quadratic probing
 - Double hashing
- simpl/slow
 ↓
 complex/fast

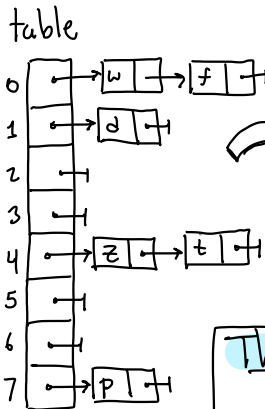
Separate Chaining:

table[i] is head of linked list of keys that hash to i.

Example:

Keys(x)	$h(x)$
d	1
z	4
p	7
w	0
t	4
f	0

$m=8$



Analysis: Recall **load factor**
 $\lambda = n/m$ $n = \# \text{ of keys}$
 $m = \text{table size}$

Collision Resolution:

If there were **no collisions** hashing would be trivial!

$\text{insert}(x, v) \rightarrow \text{table}[h(x)] = v$
 $\text{find}(x) \rightarrow \text{return table}[h(x)]$
 $\text{delete}(x) \rightarrow \text{table}[h(x)] = \text{null}$

Hashing II

Token-based - See latex notes!

If $\lambda < \lambda_{\min}$ or $\lambda > \lambda_{\max}$? Rehash!

- Alloc. new table size = n/λ_0
- Compute new hash fn h
- Copy each x, v from old to new using h
- Delete old table

Thm: Amortized time for rehashing is $1 + (2\lambda_{\max} / (\lambda_{\max} - \lambda_{\min}))$

How to control λ ?

Rehashing: If table is too dense / too sparse, realloc. to new table of ideal size

Designer: $\lambda_{\min}, \lambda_{\max}$ - allowed λ values

$$\lambda_0 = \frac{\lambda_{\min} + \lambda_{\max}}{2} \text{ "ideal"}$$

If $\lambda < \lambda_{\min}$ or $\lambda > \lambda_{\max}$...

S_{sc} = Expected search time if x found (successful)

U_{sc} = Expect. search time if x not found (unsuccessful)

Thm: $S_{sc} = 1 + \lambda/2$ $U_{sc} = 1 + \lambda$

Proof: On avg. each list has $n/m = \lambda$
 success: 1 for head + half the list
 unsuccess: 1 " " + all the list

Open Addressing:

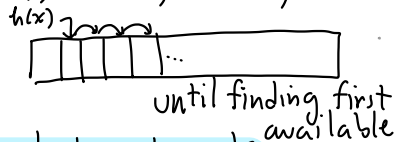
- Special entry ("empty") means this slot is unoccupied
- Assume $\lambda \leq 1$
- To insert key: check: $h(x)$ if not empty try
 - $h(x) + i_1$
 - $h(x) + i_2$
 - \vdots

$\langle i_1, i_2, i_3, \dots \rangle$ - Probe sequence

- What's the best probe sequence?

Linear Probing:

$h(x), h(x)+1, h(x)+2, \dots$



Simple, but is it good?

$x: d, z, p, w, t$

$h(x): 0, 2, 2, 0, 1$

table

d	w	z	p	t			
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	...

t did not collide directly but had to probe 3 times!

Collision Resolution: (cont.)

- Separate chaining is efficient, but uses extra space (nodes, pointers, ...)
- Can we just use the table itself?

→ Open Addressing

Hashing III

Analysis:

Let S_{LP} = expected time for successful search

U_{LP} = " " unsuccessful " "

$$\text{Thm: } S_{LP} = \frac{1}{2} \left(1 + \frac{1}{1-\lambda} \right)$$

$$U_{LP} = \frac{1}{2} \left(1 + \frac{1}{1-\lambda} \right)^2$$

Obs: As $\lambda \rightarrow 1$ times increase rapidly

Analysis: Improves secondary clustering

- May fail to find empty entry
(Try $m=4$. $j^2 \bmod 4 = 0$ or 1 but not 2 or 3)
- How bad is it? It will succeed if $\lambda < 1/2$.

Thm: If quad. probing used + m is prime, the the first $\lfloor m/2 \rfloor$ probe locations are distinct.

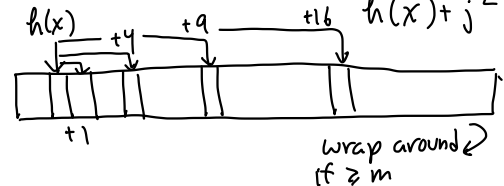
Pf: See latex notes.

Clustering

- Clusters form when keys are hashed to nearby locations
- Spread them out!

Quadratic Probing:

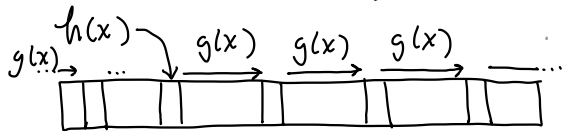
$h(x), h(x)+1, h(x)+4, h(x)+9, \dots, h(x)+j^2$



Double Hashing:
(Best of the open-addressing methods)

- Probe sequence det'd by second hash fn. - $g(x)$

$$h(x) + \{0, g(x), 2 \cdot g(x), 3 \cdot g(x) \dots\} \pmod{m}$$



(until finding an empty slot)

Why does bust up clusters?

Even if $h(x) = h(y)$ [collision] it is **very unlikely** that $g(x) = g(y)$

\Rightarrow Probe sequences are entirely different!

Analysis: Defs:

S_{DH}^v = Expected search time of doub. hash. if successful

U_{DH} = Exp. if unsuccessful
Recall: **Load factor** $\lambda = n/m$

Recap:

Separate Chaining:

Fastest but uses extra space (linked list)

Open Addressing:

Linear probing: } clustering
Quadratic probing: }

Hashing IV

Thm: $S_{DH} = \frac{1}{\lambda} \ln \left(\frac{1}{1-\lambda} \right)$
 $U_{DH} = 1/(1-\lambda)$

\rightarrow Proof is nontrivial (skip)

λ :	0.5	.075	0.95	0.99
U_{DH} :	2	4	20	100
S_{DH} :	1.39	1.89	3.15	4.65

very efficient!

Delete(x): Apply find(x)

\rightarrow Not found \Rightarrow error

\rightarrow Found \Rightarrow set to "empty"
 "deleted"

Problem:

insert(a):

delete(o):

find(a):

Find(x): Visit entries on probe sequence until:

- found $x \Rightarrow$ return v

- hit empty \Rightarrow return null

find(x)

Dictionary Operations:

Insert(x,v): Apply

probe sequence until finding first empty slot.

- Insert (x,v) here.

(If x found along the way \Rightarrow duplicate key error!)

Scapegoat Trees:

- Arne Anderson (1989)
- Galperin + Rivest (1993)
rediscovered/extended
- **Amortized analysis**
 - $O(\log n)$ for dictionary ops amortized (guaranteed for find)
 - Just let things happen
 - If subtree unbalanced - rebuild it

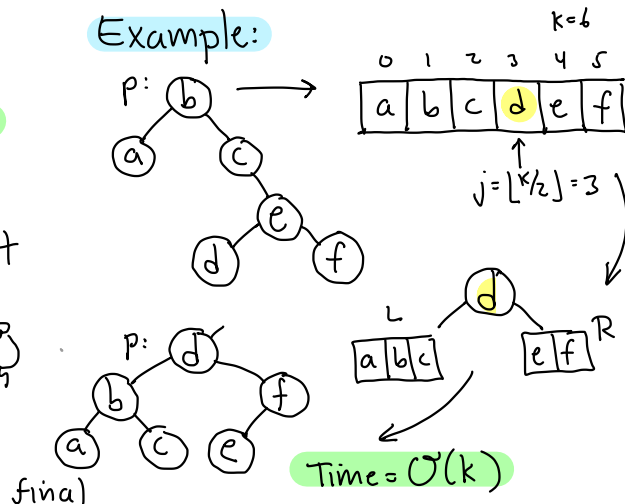


Recap:

- Seen many search trees
- Restructure via **rotation**
- Today: Restructure via **rebuilding**
- Sometimes rotation not possible
- Better mem. usage



Example:



Overview:

Insert:

- same as standard BST
- if depth too high
 - trace search path back
 - find unbalanced node - **scapegoat**
 - rebuild this subtree

Find: Same as std BST

- Tree height $\leq \log_{3/2} n \approx 1.71 \lg n$

Delete:

- Same as std. BST
- If num. of deleters is large rel. to n - rebuild entire tree!

How? Maintain $n, m \leftarrow 0$

Insert: $n++$, $m++$

Delete: $n--$... If $m > 2n$ rebuild

How to rebuild?

rebuild(p):

- inorder traverse p's subtree \rightarrow array $A[]$
- buildSubtree(A)

buildSubtree($A[0..k-1]$):

- if $k=0$ return null
- $j \leftarrow \lfloor k/2 \rfloor$; $x \leftarrow A[j]$ median
- $L \leftarrow \text{buildSubtree}(A[0..j-1])$
- $R \leftarrow \text{buildSubtree}(A[j+1..k-1])$
- return Node(x, L, R)

-

-

Details

In

Del

- 100.

Time: 7

Scapegoat Trees II

Mu

Lem

7.1.41

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 0 \\ 1 \end{array} \right\}$$

Proc

$$-S_v$$

1. +)

Even



Final

Scapegoat Trees

III



Theorem: Starting with an empty tree,
any sequence of m dictionary operations
on a scapegoat tree take time
 $O(m \log m)$ [Amortized: $O(\log m)$]

Proof: (Sketch)

Find: $O(\log n)$ guaranteed [Height = $O(\log n)$]

Delete: In order to induce a rebuild,
number of deletes \sim number of
nodes in tree

→ Amortize rebuild time against
delete ops

Insert: Based on potential argument

→ It takes $\sim k$ ops to cause a
subtree to size k to be unbalanced.

→ Charge rebuild time to these
operations

Range Tree Applications:

- Range trees can be applied to a variety of query problems

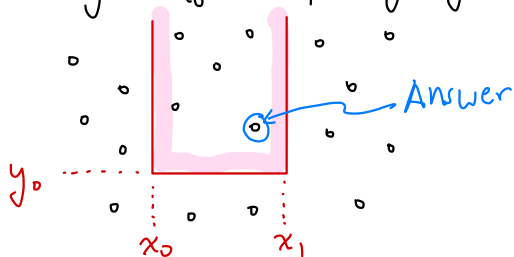
- Methods:

- Minimization/Maximization
- Transform coordinates
- Adding new coordinates

Minimization/Maximization -

3-Sided Min Query

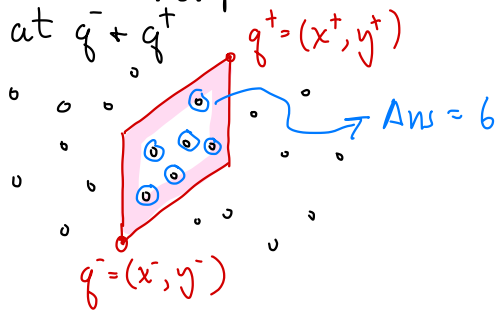
Given a set P of n pts in \mathbb{R}^2 , a query consists of x -interval $[x_0, x_1]$ and y value y_0 . Return the lowest pt in 3-sided region $x_0 \leq x \leq x_1$, + $y \geq y_0$



Transforming coordinates:

Skewed rectangle query:

Given a set P of n pts in \mathbb{R}^2 , a skewed rectangle is given by 2 pts $q^- = (x^-, y^-)$ and $q^+ = (x^+, y^+)$ and consists of pts in parallelogram with two vertical sides and two with slope +1 + corners at $q^- + q^+$

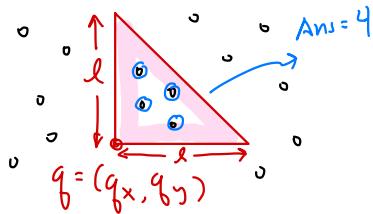


Return a count of the number of pts of P inside the skewed rectangle.

Adding New Coordinates:

NE Right Triangle Query

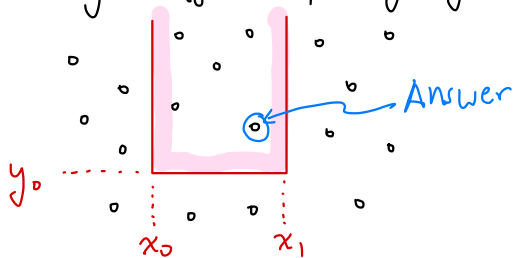
Given a set P of n pts in \mathbb{R}^2 and scalar $l > 0$, a NE triangle is a 45-45 right trian^g with lower left corner at q and side length l .



Return a count of the number of pts of P lying within the triangle.

3-Sided Min Query

Return lowest in region
region $x_0 \leq x \leq x_1$ + $y \geq y_0$



Data structure:

- Build a range tree for x
- Aux. trees are range trees for y that support findLarger

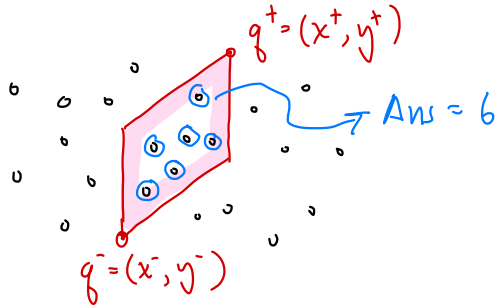
Query Processing:

- Do 1D range search in main tree for interval $[x_0, x_1]$
- For each maximal subtree in range, do findLarger(y_0)
- Return smallest of these.

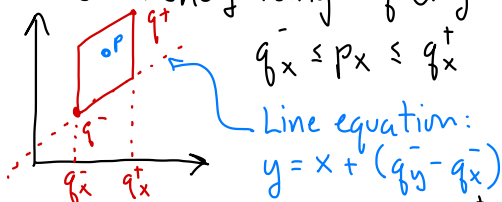
Analysis:

- Same as 2D range tree
- Space: $O(n \log n)$ Time: $O(\log^2 n)$

Skewed rectangle query:



Transform coordinates to
make orthog range query



$$p_x + (q_y^- - q_x^-) \leq p_y \leq p_x + (q_y^+ - q_x^+)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow q_y^- - q_x^- \leq p_y - p_x \leq q_y^+ - q_x^+$$

Map each $p = (p_x, p_y) \in P$
to $p' = (p'_x, p'_y) \triangleq (p_x, p_y - p_x)$

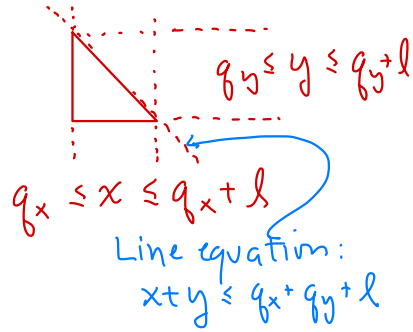
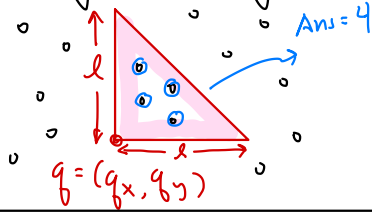
Let P' be resulting set.

Build std. range tree for
 P' . Return ans. to query

$$q_x^- \leq x \leq q_x^+$$

$$q_y^- - q_x^- \leq y \leq q_y^+ - q_x^+$$

NE Right Triangle Query



- Add new coord:

$$z = x + y$$

- Map pts:

$$p = (p_x, p_y) \rightarrow p' = (p_x, p_y, p_x + p_y)$$

- Let P' be resulting set

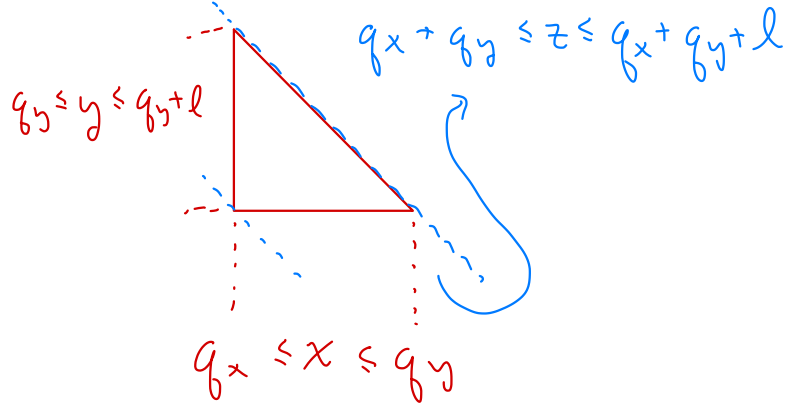
Build a 3D range tree on P'

NE triangle query becomes:

$$q_x \leq x \leq q_x + l$$

$$q_y \leq y \leq q_y + l$$

$$q_x + q_y \leq z \leq q_x + q_y + l$$



Space:

$$O(n \log^2 n)$$

Query time:

$$O(\log^3 n)$$

Can we do better?

Range Trees:

- Space is $O(n \log^{d-1} n)$

- Query time:

Counting: $O(\log^d n)$

Reporting: $O(k + \log^d n)$

→ In \mathbb{R}^2 : $\log^2 n$ much better than \sqrt{n} for large n

→ Range trees are more limited

Layering: Combining search structures

- Suppose you want to answer a composite query w. multiple criteria:

- Medical data: Count subjects

Age range: $a_{l_0} \leq \text{age} \leq a_{h_i}$

Weight range: $w_{l_0} \leq \text{weight} \leq w_{h_i}$

- Design a data structure for each criterion individually


- Layer these structures together to answer full query

→ Multi-Layer Data Structures

Recap:

- kd-Tree: General-purpose data structure for pts in \mathbb{R}^d

- Orthogonal range query:

Count/report pts in axis-aligned rect.  → Ans = 4

- kd-Tree: Counting: $O(\sqrt{n})$ time

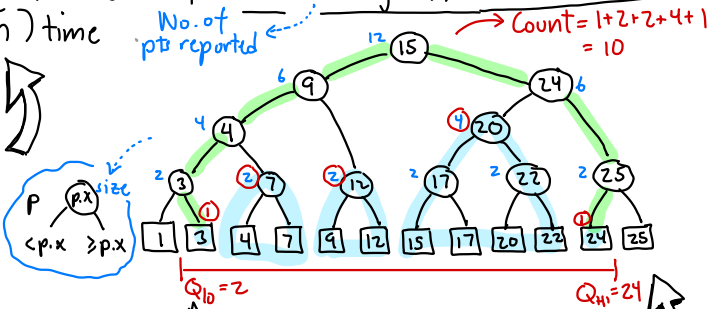
Report: $O(k + \sqrt{n})$ time

No. of pts reported

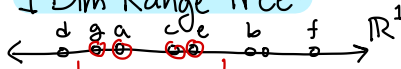
Call this a 1-Dim Range Tree:

Claim: A 1-Dim range tree with n pts has space $O(n)$ and answers 1-D range count/rept queries in time $O(\log n)$ (or $O(k + \log n)$)

Range Trees I



1-Dim Range Tree:



Approach:

- Balanced BST (eg. AVL, RB, ...)

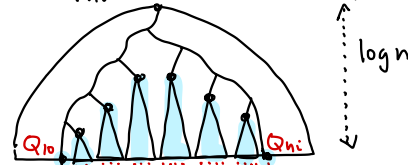
- Assume extended tree

- Each node p stores no. of entries in subtree: $p.size$

Canonical Subsets:

- Goal: Express answer as disjoint union of subsets

- Method: Search for $Q_{l_0} + Q_{h_i}$ + take maximal subtrees



Recursive helper:

int range1Dx(Node p,
Intv Q=[Q_{lo}, Q_{hi}], Intv C=[x_o, x_i])
initial call: range1Dx(root, Q, C_o)

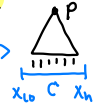
More details:

Given a 1-D range tree T:

- Let Q=[Q_{lo}, Q_{hi}] be query interval

- For each node p, define interval cell C=[x_o, x_i] s.t. all pts of p's subtree lie in C

- Root cell: C_o=[-∞, +∞]



Cases:

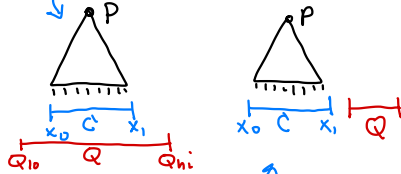
p is external:

- if p.pt.x ∈ Q → 1 else → 0

p is internal:

- C ⊆ Q ⇒ all of p's pts lie within query

→ return p.size

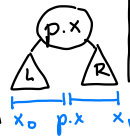


- C is disjoint from Q ⇒ none of p's pts lie in Q

→ return 0

- Else partial overlap

→ Recurse on p's children + trim the cell



Range Trees II

int range1Dx(Node p,

Intv Q, Intv C=[x_o, x_i]) {

if (p is external) return 1

if (C ⊆ Q) return p.size

else if (Q + C disjoint) return 0

else return:

range1Dx(p.left, Q, [x_o, p.x])

+ range1Dx(p.right, Q, [p.x, x_i])

x-range:

S(p)

y-range:

p.aux

S'(p)

2-D Range Searching:

- "layer" a range tree for x with range tree for y

- For each node p ∈ 1D-x tree, let S(p) = set of pts in p's subtree

- Def: p.aux: A 1D-y tree for S'(p)

Analysis:

Lemma: Given a 1-D range tree with n pts, given any interval Q, can compute O(log n) subtrees whose union is answer to query.

Thm: Given 1-D range tree...

can answer range queries in time O(log n) ... (+k to report)

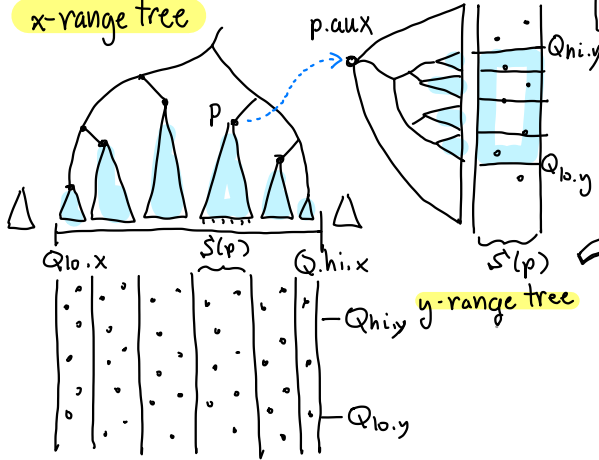
Answering Queries?

Given query range

$$Q = [Q_{lo.x}, Q_{hi.x}] \times [Q_{lo.y}, Q_{hi.y}]$$

- Run range1D_x to find all subtrees that contribute
- For each such node p, run range1D_y on p.aux
- Return sum of all result

x-range tree



Intuition: The x-layer finds subtrees p contained in x-range + each aux tree filters based on y.

2D Range Tree:

- Construct 1D range tree based on x coords for all pts
- For each node p:
 - Let $S(p)$ be pts of p's tree
 - Build 1D range tree for $S(p)$ based on y \rightarrow p.aux
- Final structure is union of x-tree + (n-1) y-trees

Range Trees III

```
int range2D(Node p, Rect Q, Intv C=[x0, x1]) {
    if (p is external) return p.pt ∈ Q ? 1 : 0
    else if (Q.x contains C) { // C ⊆ Q's x-projection
        [y0, y1] = [-∞, +∞] // init y-cell
        return range1Dy(p.aux, Q, [y0, y1])
    } else if (Q.x is disjoint of C) return 0
    else // partial x-overlap
        return range2D(p.left, Q, [x0, p.x])
        + range2D(p.right, Q, [p.x, x1])
}
```

Higher Dimensions?

- In d-dim space, we create d-layers
- Each recurses one dim lower until we reach 1-d search
- Time is the product: $\log n \cdot \log n \cdot \dots \log n = O(\log^d n)$

Analysis: The 1D x search takes of $O(\log n)$ time + generates $O(\log n)$ calls to 1Dy search
 \Rightarrow Total: $O(\log n \cdot \log n) = O(\log^2 n)$

Analysis:

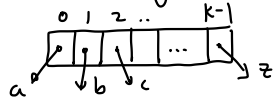
Invoked $O(\log n)$ times - once per maximal subtree

Invoked $O(\log n)$ times - once for each ancestor of max subtree

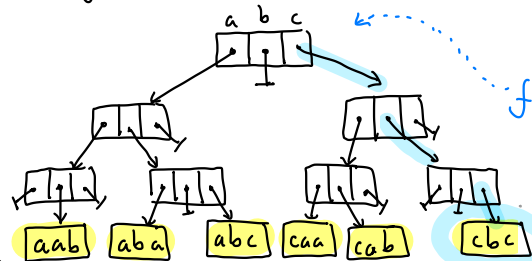
Tries: History

- de la Briandais (1959)
- Fredkin - "trie" from "retrieval"
- Pronounced like "try"

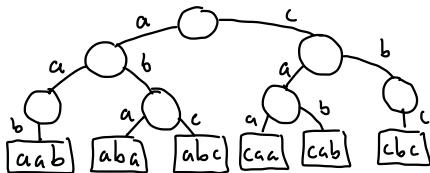
Node: Multiway of order k



Example: $\Sigma = \{a=0, b=1, c=2\}$
Keys: $\{aab, aba, abc, caa, cab, cbc\}$



Same structure/Alt. Drawing



Digital Search:

- Keys are strings over some alphabet Σ
- E.g. $\Sigma = \{a, b, c, \dots\}$
 $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$ Let $k = |\Sigma|$
- Assume chars coded as ints: $a=0, b=1, \dots, z=k-1$

Tries and Digital Search Trees I

find("cbc")

Analysis:

Search: \sim length of query string $[O(1)$ time per node]

Space:

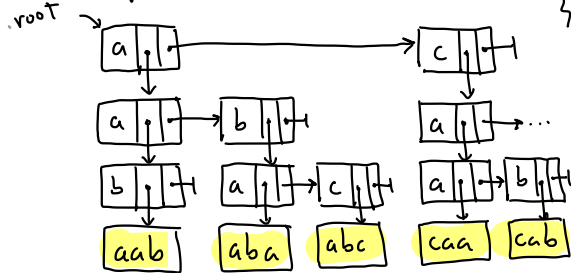
- No. of nodes \sim total no. of chars in all strings
- Space $\sim k \cdot (\text{no. of nodes})$

Large!

Analysis:

- Space: Smaller by factor k
- Search Time: Larger by factor of k

Example:



How to save space?

de la Briandais trees:

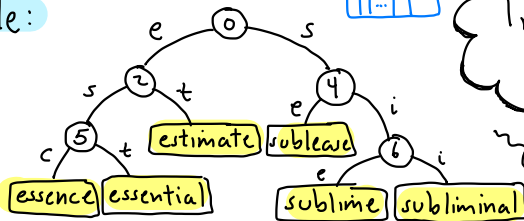
- Store 1 char. per node
- $\boxed{x} \rightarrow \neq x \Rightarrow$ try next char in Σ
 $= x \Rightarrow$ advance to next character of search string
- First-child/next-sibling

Patricia Tries:

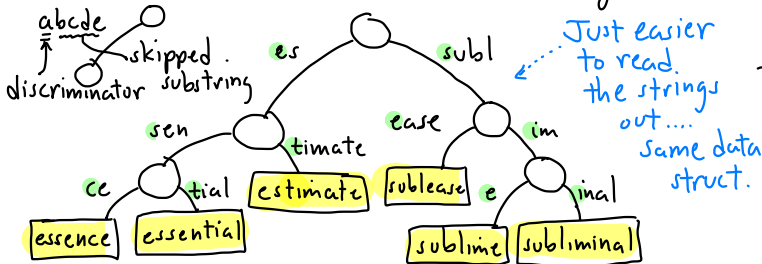
- Improves trie by compressing degenerate paths
- PATRICIA = Practical Alg. to Retrieve Info. Coded in Alpha...
- Late 1960's: Morrison + Guichenberger
- Each node has **index field**, indicates which char to check next (Increase with depth)

Example:

essence
essential
estimate
sublease
sublime
subliminal



Same data structure - Drawn differently



Dealing with long Paths:

- To get both good spaces + query time efficiency, need to avoid long, degenerate paths.



Path compression!

Tries and Digital Search Trees II

Analysis:

- **Query time:** (Same as std trie) \sim search string length (may be less)
- **Space:**
No. nodes: \sim No. of strings (irresp. of length)
Total space: $K \cdot (\text{No. of nodes})$ + (storage for strings)

Example:

S_{10} : \$
 S_9 : a\$
 S_8 : ma\$
 S_7 : ama\$
 S_6 : jama\$

ID
 \$
 a\$
 ma\$
 ama\$
 j

S_5 : ajam... aj
 S_4 : pajam... paj
 S_3 : apaja... ap
 S_2 : mapaj... map
 S_1 : amapaj... amap
 S_0 : pamapa... pam

Example: $S = \text{pamapajama}\$$

S_{10} - \$
 S_9 - a\$
 S_8 - ma\$
 S_7 - ama\$
 \vdots

Def: Substring identifier for S_i is shortest prefix of S_i unique to this string
 Eg. $ID(S_1) = \text{"amap"}$
 $ID(S_7) = \text{"ama\$"}$

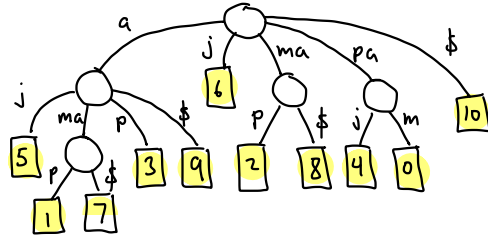
Suffix Trees:

- Given single large text S
- Substring queries: "How many occurrences of 'tree' in CMSC 420 notes"

Notation: $S = a_0 a_1 a_2 \dots a_{n-1} \$$

- **Suffix:**
 $S_i = a_i a_{i+1} \dots a_{n-1} \$$ (special terminal)
- **Q:** What is minimum substring needed to identify suffix S_i ?

Example: $S = \text{pamapajama}\$$



E.g. $ID(S, \text{ama}) = \text{ama}$ $ID(S, \text{ama}\$) = \text{ama}\$$

Substring Queries:

How many occurrences of t in text?

- Search for target string t in trie
- if we end in internal node (or midway on edge) - return no. of extern. nodes in this subtree
- else (fall off on extern node)
 - compare target with string
 - if matches - found 1 occurrence
 - else - no occurrences

Example:

Search("ama") → End at intern node
Report: 2 occs. ← 1 7
Search("amapaj") → End at extern node
Go to S_i + verify ← 1

Suffix Trees (cont.)

S - text string $|S| = n$

$S_i = i^{\text{th}}$ suffix

Substring ID = min substr. needed to identify S_i

A suffix tree is a Patricia trie of the $n+1$ substring identifiers

Tries and Digital Search Trees III

Analysis:

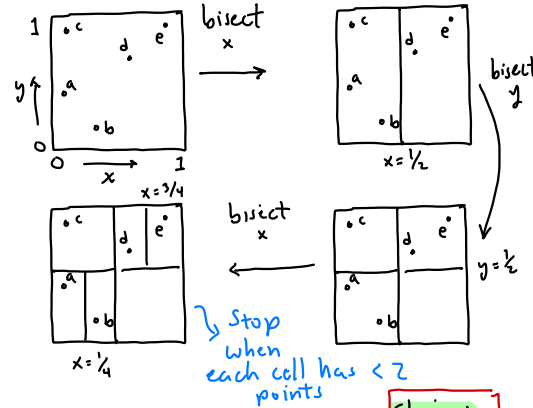
- Space: $O(n)$ nodes
 $O(n \cdot k)$ total space ($k = |S| = O(1)$)
- Search time: \sim to length of target string
- Construction time: $O(n \cdot k)$ [nontrivial]

PR k-d tree: Can be used for answering same queries as point kd-tree (orth. range, near. neigh)

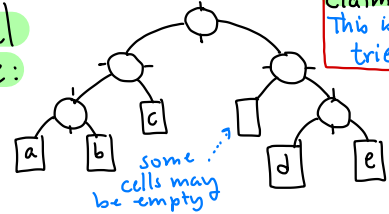
Geometric Applications:

PR kd-Tree: kd-tree based on midpoint subdivision

Assume points lie in unit square



Final tree:



Claim: This is a trie!

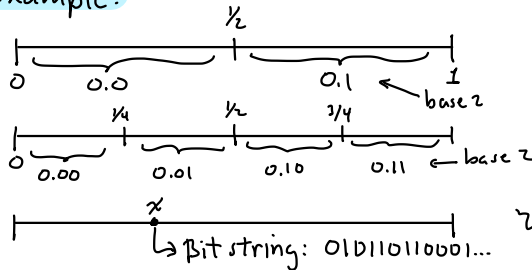
Binary Encoding:

- Assume our points are scaled to lie in **unit square**
 $0 \leq x, y < 1$ (can always be done)
- Represent each coordinate as **binary fraction**:

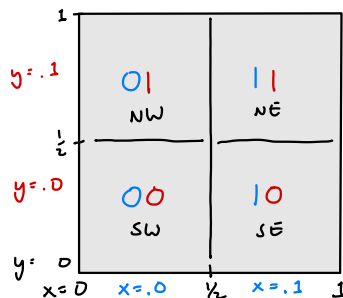
$$x = 0.a_1a_2a_3\dots \quad a_i \in \{0,1\}$$

$$x = \sum a_i \cdot \frac{1}{2^i}$$

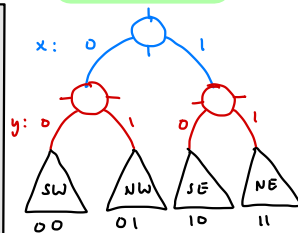
Example:



How do we extend to 2-D?



PR kd-tree



Bit Interleaving:

Given a point $p = (x, y)$

$$0 \leq x, y < 1$$

let: $x = 0.a_1a_2\dots$ in binary

$$y = 0.b_1b_2\dots$$

Define:

$$\phi(x, y) = a_1b_1a_2b_2a_3b_3\dots$$

Called **Morton Code** of p

Further Remarks:

- Techniques for efficiently encoding, building, serializing, compressing... tries **apply immediately to PR kd-tree**
- Can generalize to **any dimension**

$$\begin{aligned} x &= 0.a_1a_2\dots \\ y &= 0.b_1b_2\dots \\ z &= 0.c_1c_2\dots \end{aligned} \quad \phi = a_1b_1c_1a_2b_2c_2\dots$$

Lemma: Given a pt set $P \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$ (in unit square $[0,1]^2$) let $P = \{p_1, \dots, p_n\}$ where $p_i = (x_i, y_i)$. Let $\Phi(P) = \{\phi(p_1), \phi(p_2), \dots, \phi(p_n)\}$ (n binary strings). Then the PR kd-tree for P is equivalent to binary trie for $\Phi(P)$.

Proof: By induction on no. of bits

Let $x = 0.a_1a_2\dots$ $y = 0.b_1b_2\dots$ and consider just $\phi(x, y) = a_1b_1\dots$

