Algorithms and Satisfiability

Lecture 4: External-Memory Algorithms and Data Structures

DAT6 spring 2023 Simonas Šaltenis



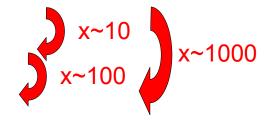
External Mem. Algorithms and DS



- Goals of the lecture:
 - to understand the external memory model and the principles of analysis of algorithms and data structures in this model;
 - to understand the algorithms of B-tree and its variants and to be able to analyze them;
 - to understand the main principles of external tree structures;
 - to understand how the different versions of merge-sort derived algorithms work in external memory;
 - to understand why the amount of available main-memory is an important parameter for the efficiency of external-memory algorithms.

Memory hierarchy, prices

- In 2021, people created ~2.5 exabytes (million TBs) per day!
 - Where do we store that data?
- Prices:
 - HDD price: ~0.02 \$/GB
 - SSD price: ~0.15 \$/GB
 - DRAM price: ~5-10 \$/GB

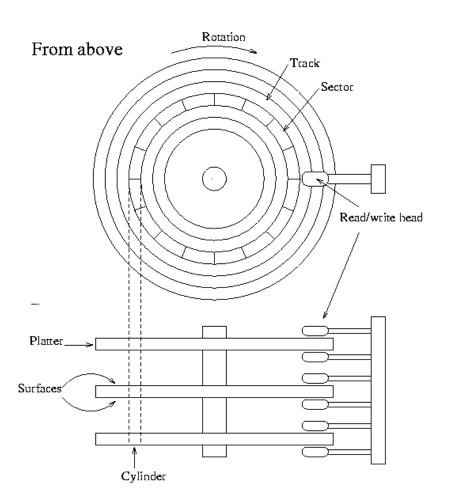


 Memory-hierarchy is still very relevant in the age of big data!

Sources: https://techjury.net/, https://pcpartpicker.com/

Hard disk I

- In *real systems*, we need to cope with data that does not fit in main memory
- Reading a data element from the hard-disk:
 - Seek with the head
 - Wait while the necessary sector rotates under the head
 - Transfer the data



Hard disk II



- Modern hard drives:
 - Seek time: 4ms-10ms
 - Spindle speed: ~10K RPM ⇒ Half of rotation: ~3ms
 - Transfer rate: 500 MB/s ⇒ Transferring 1 byte: 0.000003ms

Conclusions:

- 1. It makes sense to *read and write in large blocks disk pages* (4 32Kb)
- 2. Sequential access is much faster than random access
- 3. Disk access is much slower than main-memory access

SSDs, Memory Hierarchy



- The same, although to less extent is true for flash-based solid state drives (SSDs):
 - Efficient to read/write (especially write) in larger blocks
 - Sequential/random I/O difference is less pronounced than in disks.
- Depth of the memory hierarchy (access latency):
 - DRAM(~50ns) $x4000 \rightarrow SSD(~0.2ms) x50 \rightarrow HDD(10ms)$ If = 1s, then > 1 hour, > 2 days
- Memory hierarchy consisting of several levels of CPU caches and DRAM:
 - Again, data between levels is transferred in blocks
 - In contrast to disk drives and SSDs, block reads and writes are not explicit – controlled by hardware/low level system software

External memory model

- Running time: in page accesses or "I/Os"
- B page size is an important parameter:
 - Not "just" a constant:
 - $\Theta(\log_2 n) \neq \Theta(\log_B n)$
 - $\Theta(N) \neq \Theta(N/B)$
 - Example: N = 256MB / 8 bytes_per_object;
 B = 4KB / 8 bytes_per_object; 0.1 ms disk access
 - ▲ N disk accesses = 3200s = 53 minutes
 - N/B disk accesses = 6.4s
- Operations:
 - DiskRead(x:pointer_to_a_page)
 - DiskWrite(x:pointer_to_a_page)
 - AllocatePage():pointer_to_a_page

Writing algorithms



• The typical working pattern for algorithms:

```
01 ...
02 x \leftarrow a pointer to some object
03 DiskRead(x)
04 operations that access and/or modify x
05 DiskWrite(x) //omitted if nothing changed
06 other operations, only access no modify
07 ...
```

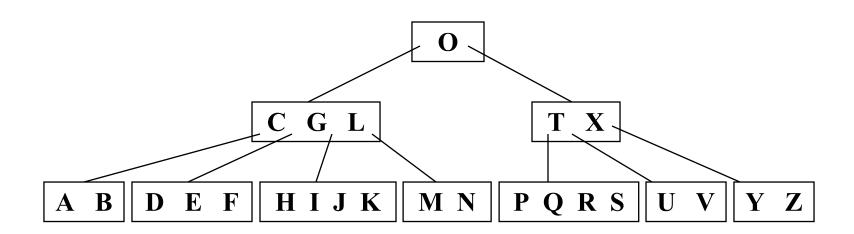
 Pointers in data-structures point to disk-pages, not locations in memory

"Porting" main-memory DSs

- Why not "just" use the main-memory data structures and algorithms in external memory?
- Consider a balanced binary search tree.
 - A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I
- Options:
 - Each node gets a separate disk page waist of space and search is just Θ(log₂n)
 - Nodes are somehow packed to make disk pages full
 search may still be Θ(log₂n) in the worst-case

B-trees

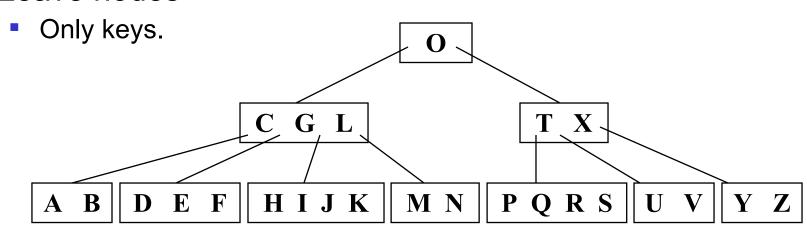
- We are concerned only with keys
- The nodes have high fan-out (many children) = Θ(B)
 - Degree of a tree t:
 - Min_fan-out = t, Max_fan-out = 2*t = B / index_entry_size
 - Root is the exception: can have as little as two children
- B-tree is a balanced tree, and all leaves have the same depth: $h = \Theta(log_t n) = \Theta(log_B n)$



B-trees, nodes



- Internal nodes
 - *t* 1 *to* 2*t* 1 keys
 - pointer₁ key₁ pointer₂ key₂ pointer₃ key₃ ... pointer_x key_x pointer_{x+1}
 - key₁ ≤ key₂ ≤ key₃ ≤ ... ≤ key_x
 - For the first and last pointers: pointer₁.key ≤ key₁
 - ...and key_x < pointer_{x+1}.key
 - For the remaining pointers: key_{i-1}<pointer_i.key ≤ key_i
- Leave nodes

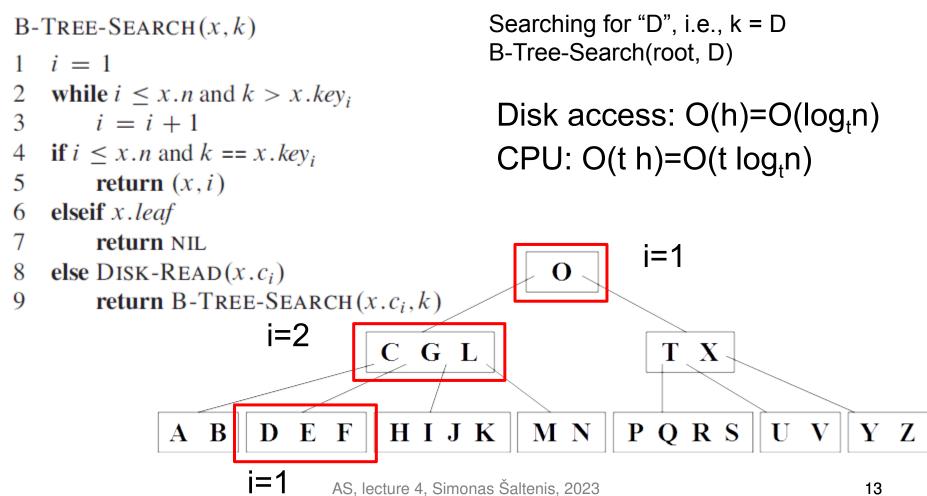


Searching on B-trees

- The root node is normally "always" in main memory.
 - No need to perform a DiskRead on the root.
- Search is very similar to a search in a binary search tree
 - Instead of making a binary branching decision at each node, we make a (j+1)-way branching decision, where j is the number of keys in a node.

Pseudo code

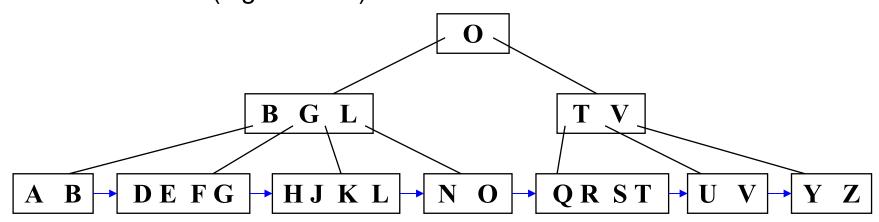
- x is a node and x.n is the number of keys in the node.
- k is the key that we are searching for.
- x.key, is the i-th key of node x; and x.c, is the i-th pointer of node x.



B+-trees

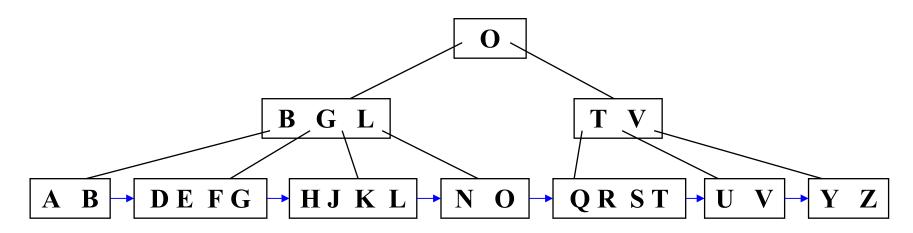


- B+-trees is a variant of B-trees:
 - All data keys are in leaf nodes
 - What is the height?
 - Leaf-nodes are connected into a (doubly) linked list
 - Search is very similar to a search in a binary search tree
 - Always goes to a leaf
 - Range searches are convenient
 - Cost: $\Theta(\log_B n + k/B)$



B+-trees: Insertion

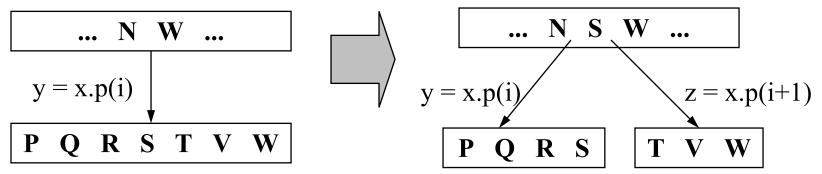
- Skeleton of the algorithm:
 - Down-phase: recursively traverse down and find the leaf (as in search)
 - Up-phase: Insert the key. If necessary, split nodes and propagate the splits up the tree
- Assumption:
 - In the down-phase pointers to traversed nodes are saved in the stack as there are no parent pointers!
- Insert M:



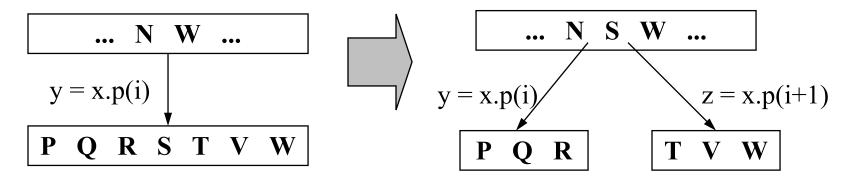
B+-trees: Node Splitting



Leaf node (copy the middle key to the parent)



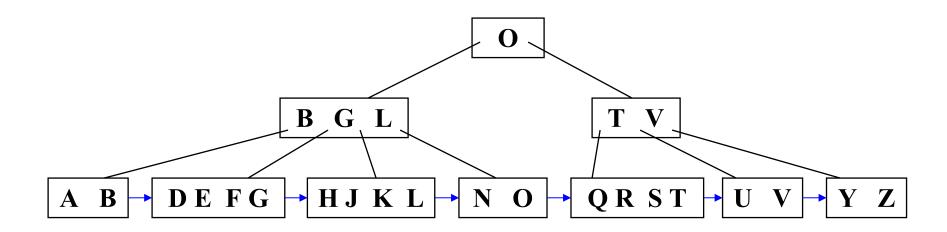
Internal node (*move* the middle key to the parent, as in B-tree)



 The tree grows when the root is split into two nodes and their parent becomes the new root.

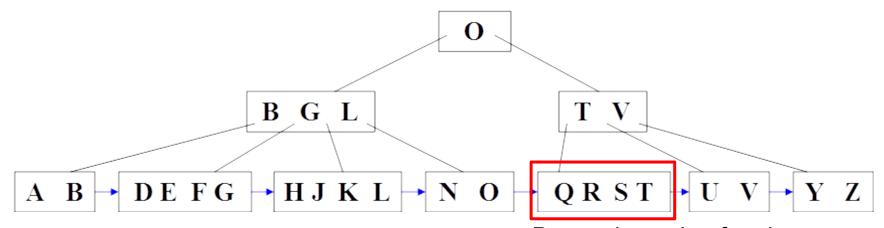
B+-trees: Example

- Insert P (maximum fan-out = 5 children = 4 data entries)
- What is the cost?
 - Θ(log_Bn)
- How much memory is used?
 - $\Theta(log_B n)$ can be reduced to $\Theta(1)$.

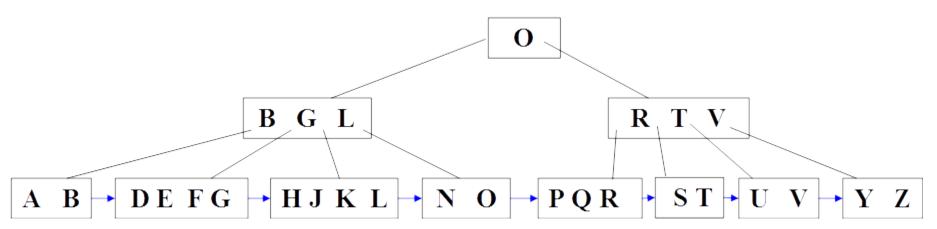




Insert P (assume that at most 4 keys)



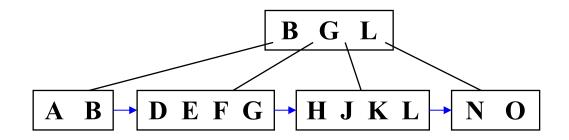
Down-phase: Leaf node (copy the middle key to the parent)



B+-trees: insert excercise

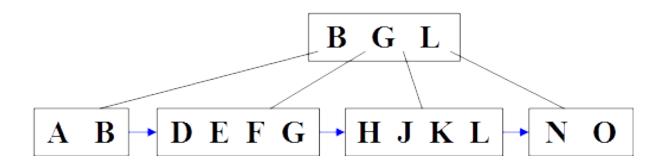


- Excercise:
 - Assume maximum fan-out = 5 children = 4 data entries
 - Insert I, C

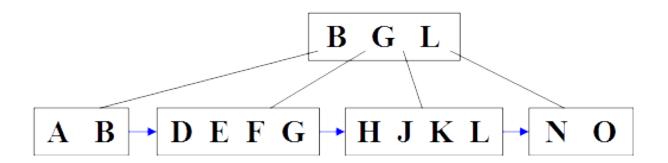


 So, why parent pointers are usually not used in B-trees, in contrast to binary search trees?

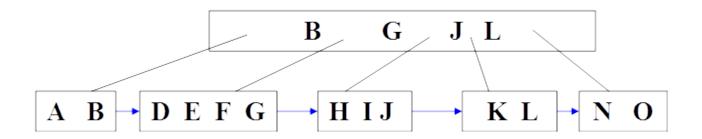
- At most 4 keys
- After inserting I, C
- How does the root node look like?





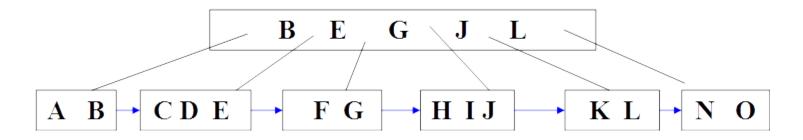


- Insert I
 - HJKL becomes HIJKL. Then split HIJ, KL. J is copied to its parent.

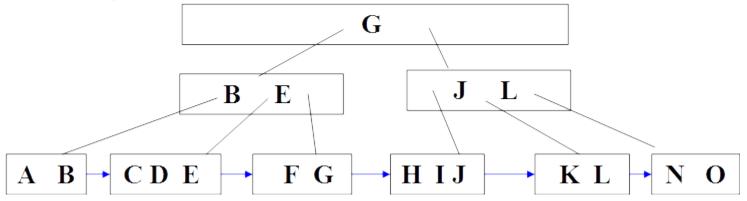




- Insert C
 - DEFG becomes CDEFG. Split CDE, FG. E is copied to its parent.



BEGJL splits to BE and JL and a new root with G is created.



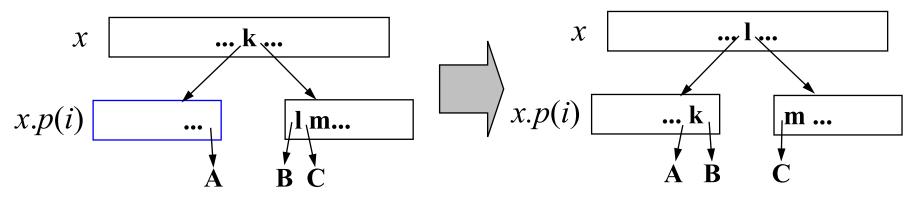
B+-trees: Deletion

- Opposite of insertion:
 - Phase 1: traverse down to find the key in a leaf
 - Phase 2: remove the key and traverse up handling underfull nodes
- Tree shrinking: if the root has only one child, remove the root.

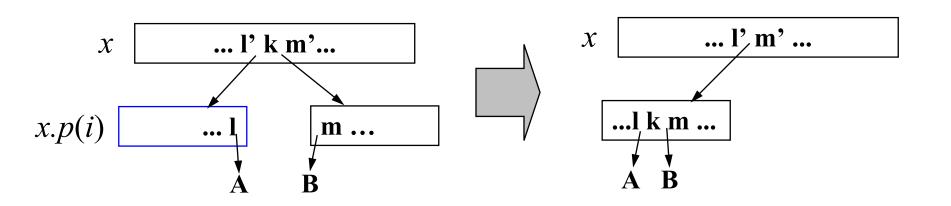
B+-trees: Deletion (internal nodes)



Underfull handling, case 1: Distributing



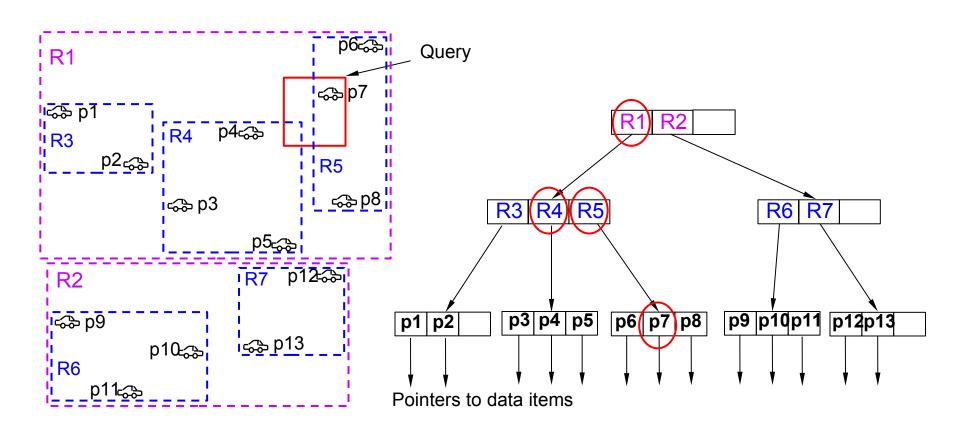
Underfull handling, case 2: Merging



R-trees



Example



Grow-Post Trees

Grow-Post trees (Generalized Search Trees - GiST)

Bounding predicate (*BP*) = something that describes entries in a subtree

Building blocks of algorithms:

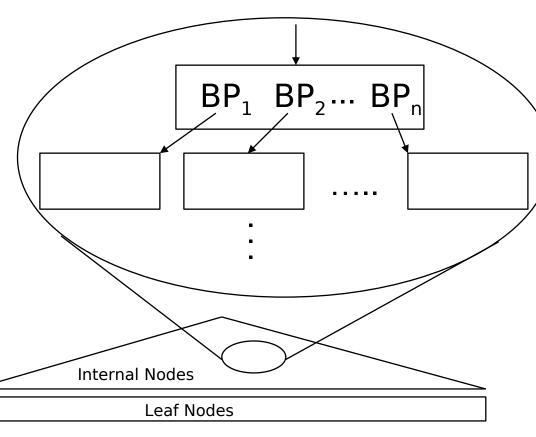
• Consistent(BP, Q) – returns true if results of query Q can be under BP (in the R-

tree, MBR intersects *Q*).

 Penalty(BP, E) – returns an estimate how "worse" BP becomes if E is inserted under it.

• Union(node) – computes a BP of a collection of entries (in the R-tree, computes an MBR, minimum bounding rectangle)

 PickSplit(node) – splits a page of entries into two groups



External DS: Summary

- Two practical data structures (n is the number of pages):
 - B-trees: supports point and range queries, insertions, deletions
 - Point query: $\Theta(log_B n)$
 - Range query: Θ(log_Bn + k/B)
 - Insertion, deletion: Θ(log_Bn)
 - R-trees: supports multi-dimensional point and range queries, on point and extended objects:
 - Point/range query, deletion: $\Theta(n)$, but usually much better on average
 - Insertion: Θ(log_Bn)
 - Both structures have Θ(n) size.

External-Memory Sorting



- External-memory algorithms
 - When data do not fit in main-memory
- External-memory sorting
 - Rough idea: sort pieces that fit in main-memory and "merge" them
- Main-memory merge sort:
 - The main part of the algorithm is Merge
 - Let's merge:
 - 3, 6, 7, 11, 13
 - 1, 5, 8, 9, 10

Main-Memory Merge Sort



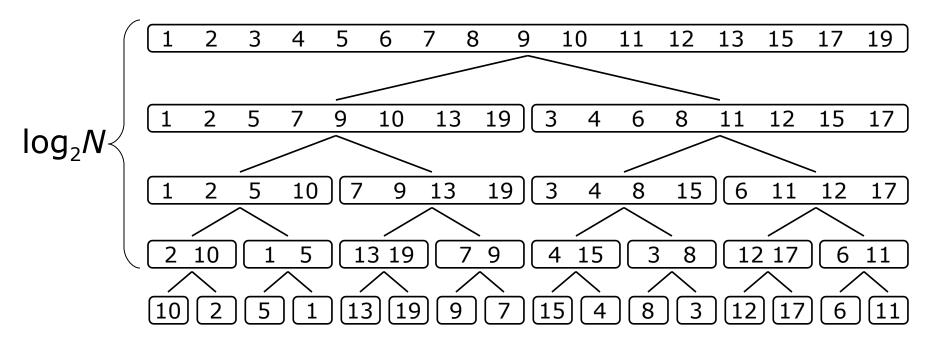
```
Merge-Sort(A)
01 if length(A) > 1 then
02    Copy the first half of A into array A1
03    Copy the second half of A into array A2
04    Merge-Sort(A1)
05    Merge-Sort(A2)
06    Merge(A, A1, A2)

Compute
Combine
Combine
Combine
```

Running time?

Merge-Sort Recursion Tree

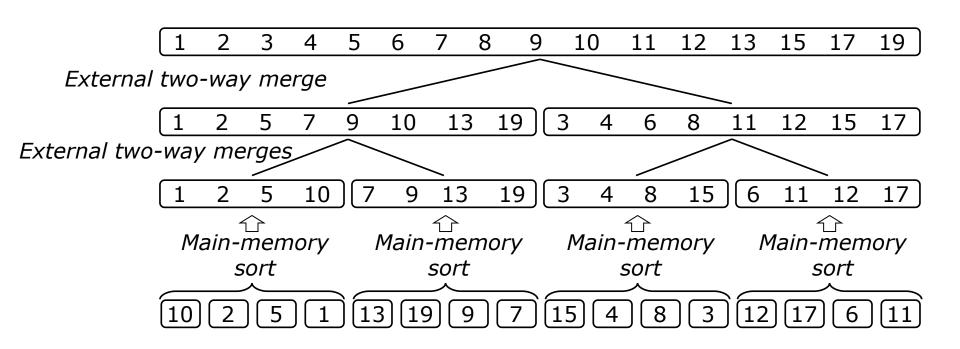




- In each level: merge runs (sorted sequences) of size x into runs of size 2x, decrease the number of runs twofold.
- What would it mean to run this on a file in external memory?

External-Memory Merge-Sort

- Idea: increase the size of initial runs!
 - Initial runs the size of available main memory (M data elements)

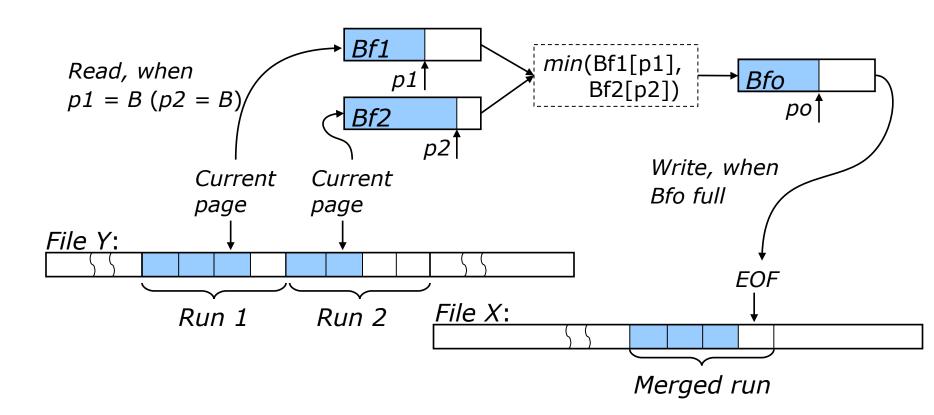


External-Memory Merge Sort

- Input file X, empty file Y
- Phase 1: Repeat until the end of file X:
 - Read the next M elements from X
 - Sort them in main-memory
 - Write them at the end of file Y
- Phase 2: Repeat while there is more than one run in Y:
 - Empty X
 - MergeAllRuns(Y, X)
 - X is now called Y, Y is now called X

External-Memory Merging

- MergeAllRuns(Y, X): repeat until the end of Y:
 - Call TwowayMerge to merge the next two runs from Y into one run, which is written at the end of X
- TwowayMerge: uses three main-memory arrays of size B



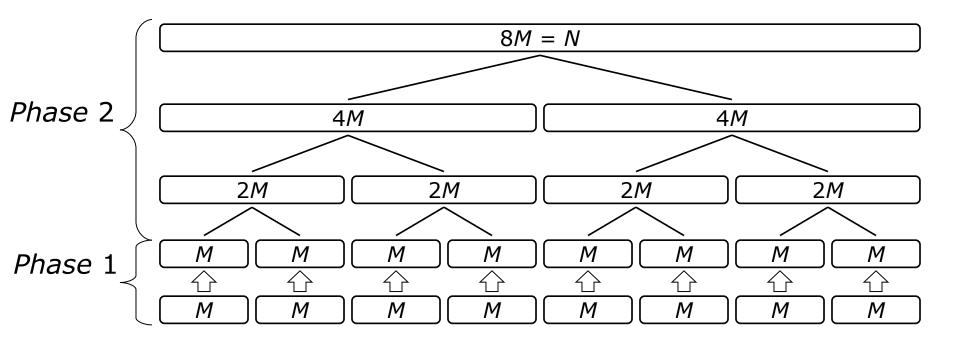
Analysis: Assumptions



- Assumptions and notation:
 - Disk page size:
 - B data elements
 - Data file size:
 - N elements, n = N/B disk pages
 - Available main memory:
 - M elements, m = M/B pages

Analysis





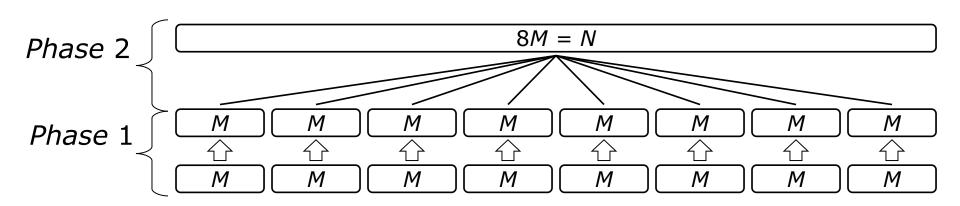
- Phase 1:
 - Read file X, write file Y: $2n = \Theta(n)$ I/Os
- Phase 2:
 - One iteration: Read file Y, write file X: $2n = \Theta(n)$ I/Os
 - Number of iterations: $\log_2 N/M = \log_2 n/m$

Analysis: Conclusions

- Total running time of external-memory merge sort: Θ(n log₂ n/m)
- We can do better!
- Observation:
 - Phase 1 uses all available memory
 - Phase 2 uses just 3 pages out of m available!!!

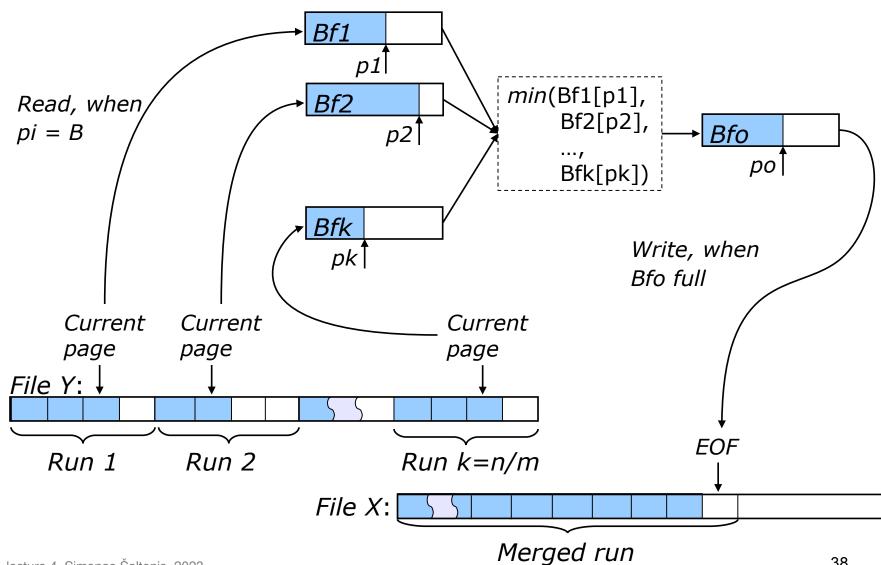
Two-Phase, Multiway Merge Sort

- Idea: merge all runs at once!
 - Phase 1: the same (do internal sorts)
 - Phase 2: perform MultiwayMerge(Y,X)



Multiway Merging





Analysis of TPMMS

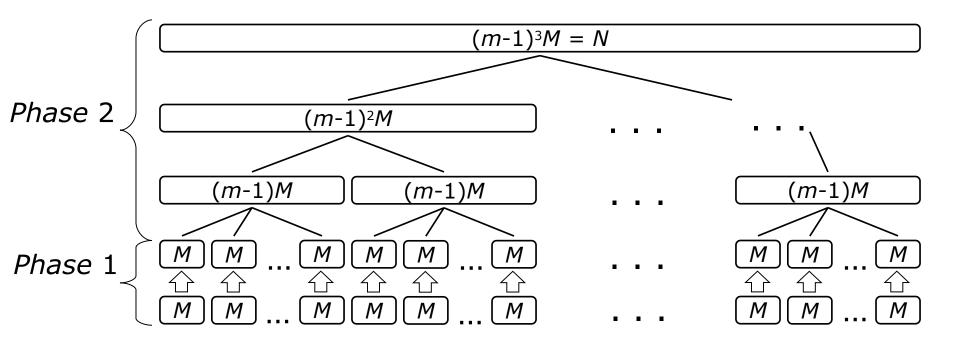
- Phase 1: $\Theta(n)$, Phase 2: $\Theta(n)$
- Total: Θ(n) I/Os!
- The catch: files only of "limited" size can be sorted
 - Phase 2 can merge a maximum of m-1 runs.
- Which means: $N/M \le m$ -1 $(n/m \le m$ -1)
 - How large files can we sort with TPMMS on a machine with 128MiB main memory and disk page size of 16KiB?

General Multiway Merge Sort

- What if a file is very large or memory is small?
- General multiway merge sort:
 - Phase 1: the same (do internal sorts)
 - Phase 2: do as many iterations of merging as necessary until only one run remains
 - Each iteration repeatedly calls MultiwayMerge(Y, X) to merge groups of m-1 runs until the end of file Y is reached

Analysis





- Phase 1: $\Theta(n)$, each iteration of phase 2: $\Theta(n)$
- How many iterations are there in phase 2?
 - Number of iterations: $\log_{m-1} N/M = \Theta(\log_m n)$
- Total running time: $\Theta(n \log_m n) I/Os$

Conclusions

- External sorting can be done in Θ(n log_m n) I/O operations for any n
 - This is asymptotically optimal
- In practice, we can usually sort in $\Theta(n)$ I/Os
 - Use two-phase, multiway merge-sort