Data Structures

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Where we are

Why did we want dynamic sets to start with?

- To improve algorithms.
- First part of today: complete Computational geometry

Second part: Augmenting Data Structures (e.g. Red-Black Trees)

- What happens if a data structure doesn't support all the operations you want?
- Augment it: modify it to support the new operations.
- Might need to add additional fields. These need to be maintained.

Convex hull

- Convex hull of a set of points: smallest convex polygon that contains the set of points.
- place elastic rubber band around set of points and let it shrink.
- Two algorithms: Graham's Scan $O(n \log n)$.
- Jarvis's March $O(n \cdot h)$, h the number of points on the convex hull.
- Other algorithms:
- Incremental: points sorted from left to right forming sequence p_1, \ldots, p_n . At stage i add p_i to convex hull $CH(p_1, \ldots, p_{i-1})$, forming $CH(p_1, \ldots, p_i)$.
- Divide-and-conquer: divide into leftmost n/2 points and rightmost n/2 points. Compute convex hulls and combine them.
- Prune-and-search method.

Convex hull

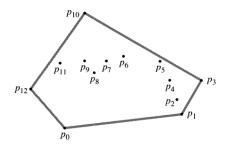


Figure 33.6 A set of points $Q = \{p_0, p_1, \dots, p_{12}\}$ with its convex hull CH(Q) in gray.

Graham's scan

- Maintains a stack S of candidate points.
- Each point of *Q* is pushed onto the stack.
- Points not in CH(Q) eventually popped from the stack.
- TOP(S), NEXT TO TOP(S): stack functions, do not change its contents.
- \blacksquare Stack returned by the algorithm: points of CH(Q) in counterclockwise order.

Convex hull algorithm

```
GRAHAM-SCAN(Q)
 1 let p_0 be the point in Q with the minimum y-coordinate,
             or the leftmost such point in case of a tie
 2 let \langle p_1, p_2, \dots, p_m \rangle be the remaining points in Q,
             sorted by polar angle in counterclockwise order around p_0
             (if more than one point has the same angle, remove all but
             the one that is farthest from p_0)
 3 PUSH(p_0, S)
 4 PUSH(p_1, S)
 5 PUSH(p_2, S)
    for i \leftarrow 3 to m
         do while the angle formed by points NEXT-TO-TOP(S), TOP(S),
                      and p_i makes a nonleft turn
 8
                do Pop(S)
             Push(p_i, S)
10 return S
```

Graham's Scan: Example

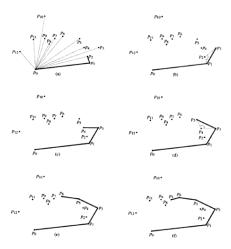
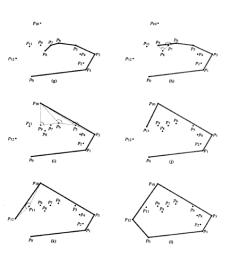


Figure 33.7 The execution of GRAHAM-SCAN on the set Q of Figure 33.6. The current convex bull contained in sack 5 is shown in gray at each step, (a) The sequence (p_1, p_2, \dots, p_p) ; of points numbered in order of increasing polar plane feature to p_1 , and the initial sack 5 containing p_0 , p_1 , and p_2 , (0)-40. Stack 5 after each iteration of the for loop of lines 6-0. Dashed lines show nonelf turns, which cause goods to be popped from the stack. In part (h) for example, the right turn at angle $L_p p_1 p_2$ causes p_2 to be popped, and then the right turn at angle $L_p p_1 p_2$ causes p_2 to be popped, if D is convex bull returned by the procedure, which mattes that of Figure 3.

Graham's Scan:Example



Graham's Scan: Correctness and Performance

- Invariant: at the beginning of each iteration of the for loop stack S contains (from bottom to top) exactly the vertices of $CH(Q_{i-1})$ in counterclockwise order.
- Line 1: $\theta(n)$ time.
- Sorting $\theta(n \log n)$ time.
- Testing for left/right turn: vector product $\theta(1)$ time.
- The rest of the algorithm O(n) time.

Graham's Scan: Correctness

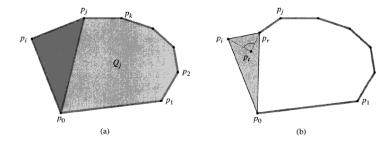


Figure 33.8 The proof of correctness of GRAHAM-SCAN. (a) Because p_i 's polar angle relative to p_0 is greater than p_j 's polar angle, and because the angle $\angle p_k p_j p_i$ makes a left turn, adding p_i to $CH(Q_j)$ gives exactly the vertices of $CH(Q_j \cup \{p_i\})$. (b) If the angle $\angle p_i p_i p_j$ makes a nonleft turn, then p_t is either in the interior of the triangle formed by p_0 , p_r , and p_i or on a side of the triangle, and it cannot be a vertex of $CH(Q_i)$.

Jarvis's March

- uses a technique known as gift wrapping.
- Simulates wrapping a piece of paper around set Q.
- Start at the same point p_0 as in Graham's scan.
- Pull the paper to the right, then higher until it touches a point. This point is a vertex in the convex hull. Continue this way until we come back to p_0 .
- Formally: start at p_0 . Choose p_1 as the point with the smallest polar angle from p_0 . Choose p_2 as the point with the smallest polar angle from p_1 ...
- \blacksquare . . . until we reached the highest point p_k .
- We have constructed the right chain.
- Construct the left chain by starting from p_k and measuring polar angles with respect to the negative x-axis.

Jarvis's March

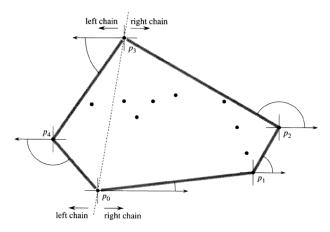


Figure 33.9 The operation of Jarvis's march. The first vertex chosen is the lowest point p_0 . The next vertex, p_1 , has the smallest polar angle of any point with respect to p_0 . Then, p_2 has the smallest polar angle with respect to p_1 . The right chain goes as high as the highest point p_3 . Then, the left chain is constructed by finding smallest polar angles with respect to the negative x-axis.

Augmenting Data Structures

- What if no existing data structure fits your needs?
- Invent a new one, or ...
- More realistic (in practice): slightly modify a "standard" data structure to support more operations.
- Done by storing extra information in it
- Not always straightforward: new information **must be updated and maintained** by D.S. operations.

Augmenting Data Structures

Example: two data structures obtained by modifying red-black trees

- First data structure: supports order statistics queries on a dynamic set.
 - Find *i*'th number in a set or the rank of an element.
- Second data structure: maintain a set of intervals (e.g. time intervals).
- Plus: a general result about augmenting Data Structures.

Dynamic order statistics

- Order statistic tree: red-black tree with one extra field per node: size of the subtree rooted at that node.
- Thus fields: *key*, *color*, *p*, *left*, *right*, *size*.
- \blacksquare size[nil[T]] = 0.
- \blacksquare size[x] = size[left[x]] + size[right[x]] + 1.
- Supports OS SELECT(x, i): return i'th smallest element in the tree rooted at x. $O(\log n)$ time.
- Supports OS RANK(T, x): return the rank of x in the tree T. $O(\log n)$ time.

Order statistics tree

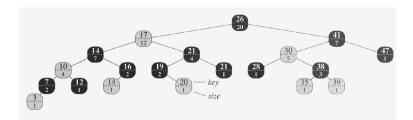


Figure 14.1 An order-statistic tree, which is an augmented red-black tree. Shaded nodes are red, and darkened nodes are black. In addition to its usual fields, each node x has a field size[x], which is the number of nodes in the subtree rooted at x.

Selecting i'th element

- If i = size[left(x)] + 1 then (by BST property) node x is the i'th element. Return x.
- If $i \le size[left(x)]$ then node is in left[x]. i'th element. Call procedure recursively.
- If i > size[left(x)] + 1 then node is in right[x]. i size[left(x)]'th element. Call procedure recursively.
- Running time: proportional to the height of the tree: $O(\log n)$.

Selecting *i***'th element**

```
OS-SELECT(x, i)

1 r \leftarrow size[left[x]]+1

2 if i = r

3 then return x

4 elseif i < r

5 then return OS-SELECT(left[x], i)

6 else return OS-SELECT(right[x], i - r)
```

Rank of an element

```
OS-RANK(T, x)

1 r \leftarrow size[left[x]] + 1

2 y \leftarrow x

3 while y \neq root[T]

4 do if y = right[p[y]]

5 then r \leftarrow r + size[left[p[y]]] + 1

6 y \leftarrow p[y]

7 return r
```

Rank of an element

- Perform inorder traversal.
- Return rank of node x in this traversal.
- Move pointer y from x up towards root(T).
- Maintains the following invariant: at the start of each iteration of the while loop, r is the rank of key[x] in the subtree rooted at y.
- If y is a right child, add the size of its left child to the count.
- Each iteration: O(1) time. y goes up the tree, time complexity $O(\log n)$.

Maintaining subtree sizes: Insertion.

- During LEFT/RIGHT rotations.
- INSERTION. First phase: go from the root to the frontier, inserting the new node as the child of an existing node. new node gets size of 1. Each node from x to the path: size increases by 1. $O(\log n)$.
- Second phase: go up the tree, changing colors, and maintaining the red-black property by rotations.
- Second phase: changes via LEFT/RIGHT rotations.
- LEFT-ROTATE: add lines
- size[y] ← size[x].
- $size[x] \leftarrow size[left[x]] + size[right[x]] + 1$.
- to rotation pseudocode.
- RIGHT-ROTATE: symmetric.

Maintaining *size* **during rotations.**

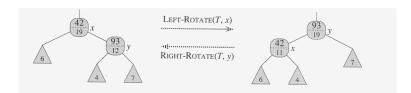


Figure 14.2 Updating subtree sizes during rotations. The link around which the rotation is performed is incident on the two nodes whose size fields need to be updated. The updates are local, requiring only the size information stored in x, y, and the roots of the subtrees shown as triangles.

Maintaining subtree sizes: Deletion.

- DELETION: two phases.
- First phase: delete node. Update tree size on the path from the node to the top. Decrement by 1 for each node.
- Rotations: as for insertion.

How to augment a data structure

- Four steps:
- 1. Choose underlying data structure.
- 2. Determine additional information to be maintained.
- 3. Verify that additional information can be maintained in the D.S. operations.
- 4. develop new operations required by new fields.

How to augment a data structure (II)

- 1. Choose red-black trees. Clue: supports other dynamic set operations on total order: MINIMUM, MAXIMUM, SUCCESSOR, PREDECESSOR.
- 2. We didn't need field size to implement OS-SELECT, OS-RANK, but then operations wouldn't run in $O(\log n)$ time. Additional information to be maintained: sometimes pointer rather than data.
- 3. Ideally only a few elements need to be updated to maintain D.S. E.g. if we simply stored in each node it rank in the tree then OS-SELECT and OS-UPDATE would be efficient but inserting a smallest node causes changes in the whole tree.
- 4. Developed OS-SELECT, OS-RANK. Occasionally, instead of new operations, speed-up old ones.

Augmenting red-black trees

Theorem

Let f be a field that augments a RB tree of n nodes, and suppose the contents of f for node x can be computed in O(1) using only information in node x, left[x] and right[x], including f[left[x]] and f[right[x]]. Then we can maintain the values of f in all nodes in T during insertion and deletion without asymptotically affecting $O(\log n)$ performance.

Proof idea: change in field f at a node x propagates only to ancestors of x in the tree.

Interval trees

- closed interval: $[t_1, t_2]$. Also open, half-open intervals.
- \bullet $i = [t_1, t_2]. low[i] = t_1, high[i] = t_2.$
- i and i' overlap if $i \cap i' \neq \emptyset$. That is $low[i] \leq high[i']$ and $low[i'] \leq high[i]$.
- Want: Data structure representing a dynamic set of intervals.
- Must support the following operations:
- INTERVAL INSERT(T, x): adds element x, whose int field contains an interval.
- INTERVAL DELETE(T, x): removes element x from T.
- INTERVAL SEARCH(T, i): return pointer to an element x such that int[x] overlaps i, or nil if no such element found.

Intervals

- Any two intervals satisfy interval trichotomy: three alternatives:
 - 1. *i* and *i'* overlap.
 - 2. i is to the left of i' (high[i] < low[i']).
 - 3. i is to the right of i'.(low[i] > high[i']).

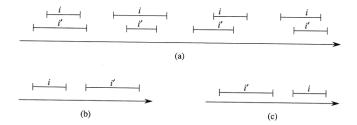


Figure 14.3 The interval trichotomy for two closed intervals i and i'. (a) If i and i' overlap, there are four situations; in each, $low[i] \le high[i']$ and $low[i'] \le high[i]$. (b) The intervals do not overlap, and high[i'] < low[i']. (c) The intervals do not overlap, and high[i'] < low[i'].

Interval trees: Implementation

- 1. Possible clue: intervals (partial) ordering. Might try to modify a total order. Then red-black tree. Each node *x* stores an interval *int*[*x*].
- key[x] = low[int[x]].
- 2. Additional info: max[x], the maximum value of any endpoint of an interval stored in the subtree rooted at x.
- 3. Maintain info: max[x] = max(high[int[x]], max[left[x]], max[right[x]]).
- 4. By applying previous theorem: insertion/deletion $O(\log n)$ while maintaining $\max[x]$.

Interval tree

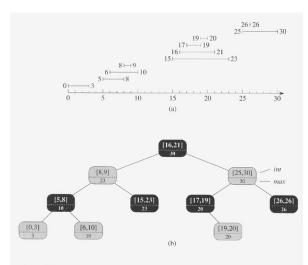


Figure 14.4 An interval tree. (a) A set of 10 intervals, shown sorted bottom to top by left endpoint. (b) The interval tree that represents them. An inorder tree walk of the tree lists the nodes in sorted order by left endpoint.

INTERVAL-SEARCH

- finds a node in tree T whose interval overlaps interval i, returns sentinel node nil[T] if no overlapping interval found.
- Search starts at the root and proceeds downwards.
- Chooses *left* or *right* subtree based on the maximum element in the *left* subtree of *x*.
- If max[left[x]] is $\geq low[i]$ (of course, $left[x] \neq nil[T]$) go left.
- otherwise go right.
- takes $O(\log n)$ time since each basic loop takes O(1) time and the height of the RB tree is $O(\log n)$.

INTERVAL-SEARCH

```
INTERVAL-SEARCH(T, i)

1 x \leftarrow root[T]

2 while x \neq nil[T] and i does not overlap int[x]

3 do if left[x] \neq nil[T] and max[left[x]] \geq low[i]

4 then x \leftarrow left[x]

5 else x \leftarrow right[x]

6 return x
```

Correctness of INTERVAL-SEARCH

- Why is it enough to examine a single path?
- Idea: search proceeds in a "safe direction".
- INVARIANT: If tree *T* contains an interval that overlaps *i* then there is such an interval in the subtree rooted at *x*.
- Initialization: clearly satisfied, x = root[T].
- Either line 4 or line 5 executed.
- <u>Line 5 executed:</u> because left[x] = nil[T] or max[left[x]] < low[i]. The subtree rooted at left[x] does not contain any interval that overlaps i.
- If such an interval is found in T, it must be in right[x].

Correctness of INTERVAL-SEARCH

- Line 4 executed: contrapositive of loop invariant holds.
- If there is no such an interval in the subtree rooted at left[x] then there is no such interval in tree T.
- Since line 4 executed $max[left[x]] \ge low[i]$. There exists i' with $high[i'] = max[left[x]] \ge low[i]$.
- *i* and *i'* do not overlap, by assumption. By trichotomy high[i] < low[i'].
- \bullet *i*" interval in *right*[x]. Intervals keyed on the low endpoints.
- $high[i] < low[i'] \le low[i'']$.
- Conclusion: no interval in right[x] (and thus in T) overlaps i.

Next: B-Trees

Outline:

- Search in secondary storage
- B-Trees
 - properties
 - search
 - insertion



Complexity Model

- Basic assumption so far: *data structures fit completely in main memory (RAM)*
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Disk is 10,000–100,000 times slower than RAM



Idea

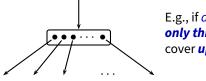
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E.g., if d = 1000, then only three accesses (h = 2) cover up to one billion keys

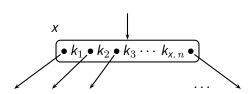
Why B-Tree?

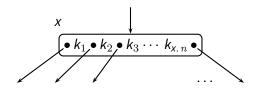
Noone knows. The authors never explained.

- Authors: Rudolf Bayer and Edward McCreight.
- They were working for **Boeing** Research Labs.
- Other suggested meanings: balanced, between, broad, bushy.

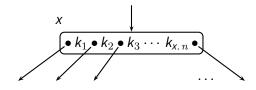
Important cases:

- At most two items per node: 2-3 tree.
- At most three items per node: 2-3-4 tree.
- Lots of items per node: used in **databases**.

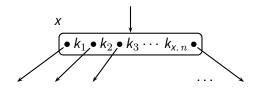




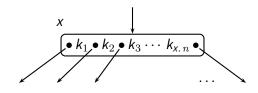
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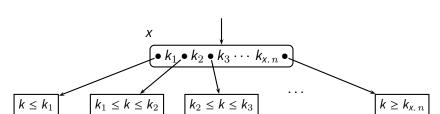
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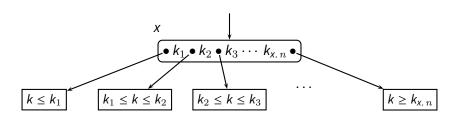


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 - \triangleright x. leaf is a Boolean flag that is TRUE if x is a leaf node or FALSE if x is an internal node

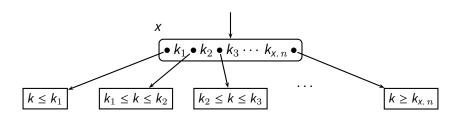


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 - $ightharpoonup x. c[1], x. c[2], \dots, x. c[x. n + 1]$ are the x. n + 1 pointers to its children, if x is an internal node





■ The keys x. key[i] delimit the ranges of keys stored in each subtree



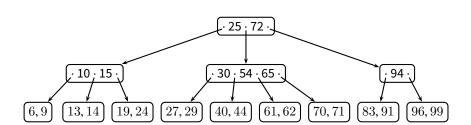
- The keys x. key[i] delimit the ranges of keys stored in each subtree
 - $x. c[1] \longrightarrow \mathsf{subtree} \ \mathsf{containing} \ \mathsf{keys} \ k \le x. \ key[1]$
 - $\textit{x.} \ c[2] \longrightarrow \mathsf{subtree} \ \mathsf{containing} \ \mathsf{keys} \ \textit{k,x.} \ key[1] \le \textit{k} \le \textit{x.} \ key[2]$
 - $x. c[3] \longrightarrow \text{subtree containing keys } k, x. key[2] \le k \le x. key[3]$
 - . . .
 - $\mathbf{x}.\,c[\mathbf{x}.\,n+1]$ \longrightarrow subtree containing keys $\mathbf{k},\mathbf{k}\geq\mathbf{x}.\,key[\mathbf{x}.\,n]$



■ All leaves have the same depth

- All leaves have the same depth
- Let $t \ge 2$ be the **minimum degree** of the B-tree
 - every node other than the root must have **at least** t-1 **keys**
 - every node must contain *at most* 2t 1 *keys*
 - ▶ a node is *full* when it contains exactly 2t 1 keys
 - a full node has 2t children

Example





Search in B-Trees

```
\begin{array}{lll} \textbf{B-TREE-SEARCH}(x,k) 1 & i = 1 \\ & 2 & \textbf{while} \ i \leq x. \ n \ \textbf{and} \ k > x. \ key[i] \\ & 3 & i = i+1 \\ & 4 & \textbf{if} \ i \leq x. \ n \ \textbf{and} \ k == x. \ key[i] \\ & 5 & \textbf{return} \ (x,i) \\ & 6 & \textbf{if} \ x. \ leaf \\ & 7 & \textbf{return} \ \textbf{NIL} \\ & 8 & \textbf{else} \ \textbf{DISK-READ}(x. \ c[i]) \\ & 9 & \textbf{return} \ \textbf{B-TREE-SEARCH}(x. \ c[i], k) \end{array}
```



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- each subtree contains $1 + t + t^2 \cdots + t^{h-1}$ nodes, each one containing t 1 keys

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- $n \ge 1$, so the root has at least one key (and therefore two children)
- every other node has at least t children
- in the worst case, there are two subtrees (of the root) each one containing a total of (n-1)/2 keys, and each one consisting of t-degree nodes, with each node containing t-1 keys
- each subtree contains $1 + t + t^2 \cdots + t^{h-1}$ nodes, each one containing t 1 keys, so

$$n \ge 1 + 2(t^h - 1)$$