

DS221

Data Structures, Algorithms & Data Science Platforms

Instructor: Chirag Jain
(slides from Prof. Simmhan)

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L4: Fast Searching

Search Trees, B-Tree, Hashmap



Dictionary Abstract Data Structure

- Store $\langle \text{key}, \text{value} \rangle$ as a pair
 - *Lookup* the value for a given key
 - Goal: Lookup has to be fast
-
- Different implementations
 - Ordered List
 - Hash table (or Hash Map)
 - Binary Search Tree



Dictionary using List

- Dictionary stored as a List of $\langle \text{key}, \text{value} \rangle$ items (in no particular order)
 - Insertion time? Searching time?
- Dictionary stored as an *Ordered* List of $\langle \text{key}, \text{value} \rangle$ elements, ordered by key
 - What's the advantage?



Dictionary as a Sorted List

- Idea: **Divide and Conquer**
- Narrow down the search range by half at each stage
- E.g. find (23)
- Start with mid of search interval = $\lfloor (\text{low} + \text{high}) / 2 \rfloor$
- 2 5 8 12 **16** 23 38 56 72 91
- 2 5 8 12 16 23 38 **56** 72 91
- 2 5 8 12 16 **23** 38 56 72 91

*Binary search over array
Takes $O(\log_2(n))$ searches*



Dictionary as a Sorted List

```
int bsearch(KVP[] list, int start, int end, int k) {  
    if (end < start) return -1 // No match!  
    i = (start+end)/2 // midpoint  
    if (list[i].key == k) // Found!  
        return list[i].value  
    if (list[i].key < k) // check 2nd half  
        return bsearch(list, i+1, end, k)  
    else // check 1st half  
        return bsearch(list, start, i-1, k)  
}
```



Dictionary as a Sorted List

```
int bsearch(KVP[] list, int start, int end, int k) {  
    if (end < start) return -1 // No match!  
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    if (list[i].key == k) // Found!  
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    if (list[i].key < k) // check 2nd half  
        return bsearch(list, i+1, end, k)  
    else // check 1st half  
        return bsearch(list, start, i-1, k)  
}
```

Usual problem with arrays!

- Unused capacity
- Costly to update and maintain sorted list...many shifts



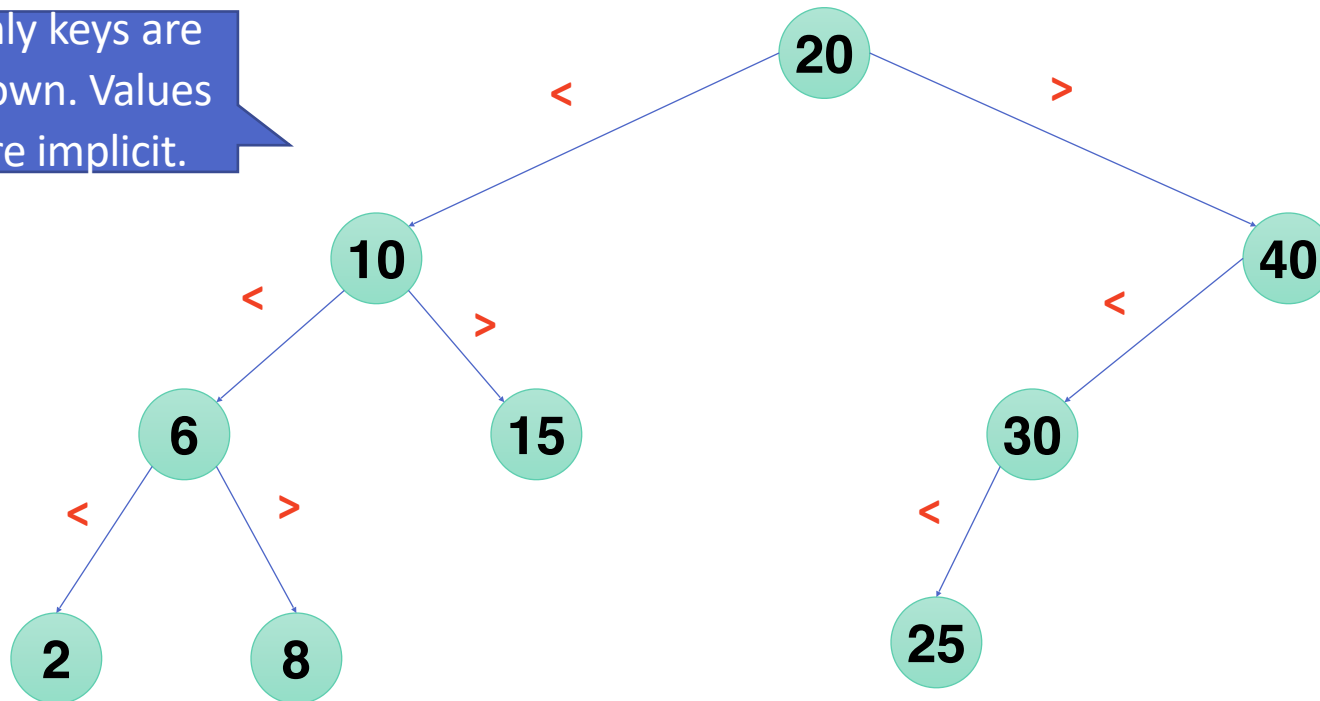
Binary Search Tree (BST)

- Combining speed of binary search over array with dynamic capacity of a linked list
- A binary tree with each node having a **(key, value)** pair
- For each node x ,
 - All keys in the *left subtree* of x are *smaller* than the key of x
 - All keys in the *right subtree* of x are *greater* than the key of x
- Dictionary Operations
 - find(key)
 - insert(key, value)
 - delete(key)



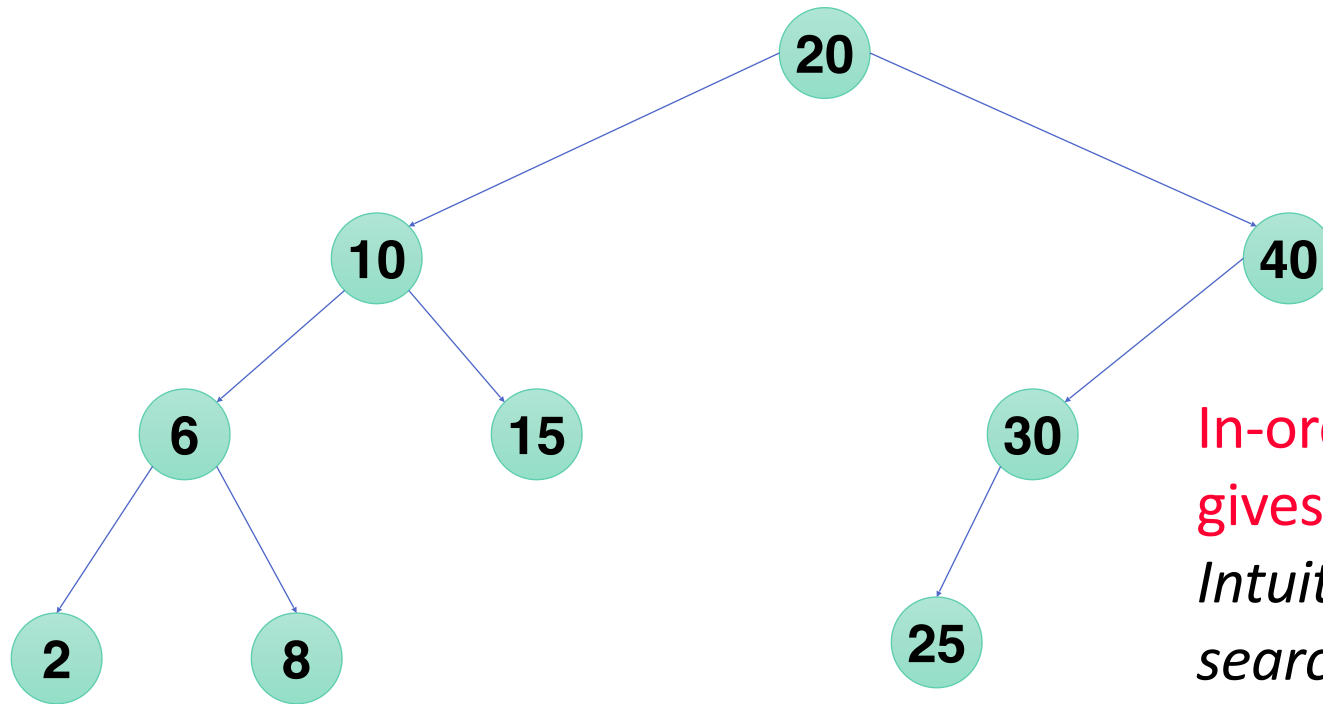
Example Binary Search Tree

Only keys are shown. Values are implicit.





The Operation find()



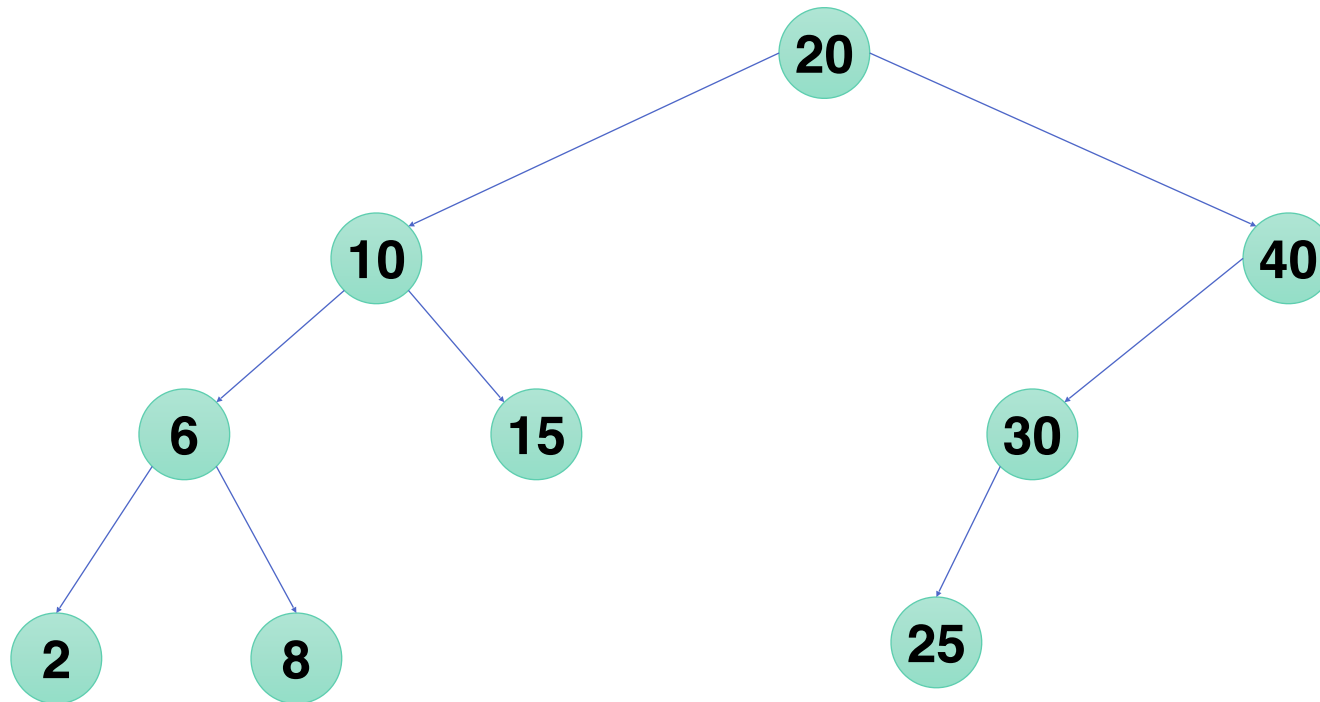
In-order traversal of BST gives a sorted array.
Intuition behind “binary search” by partitioning into two.

2	6	8	10	-	15	-	20	25	30	-	40	-	-	-
---	---	---	----	---	----	---	----	----	----	---	----	---	---	---

Complexity is $O(\text{height}) = O(n)$, where n is the number of elements.



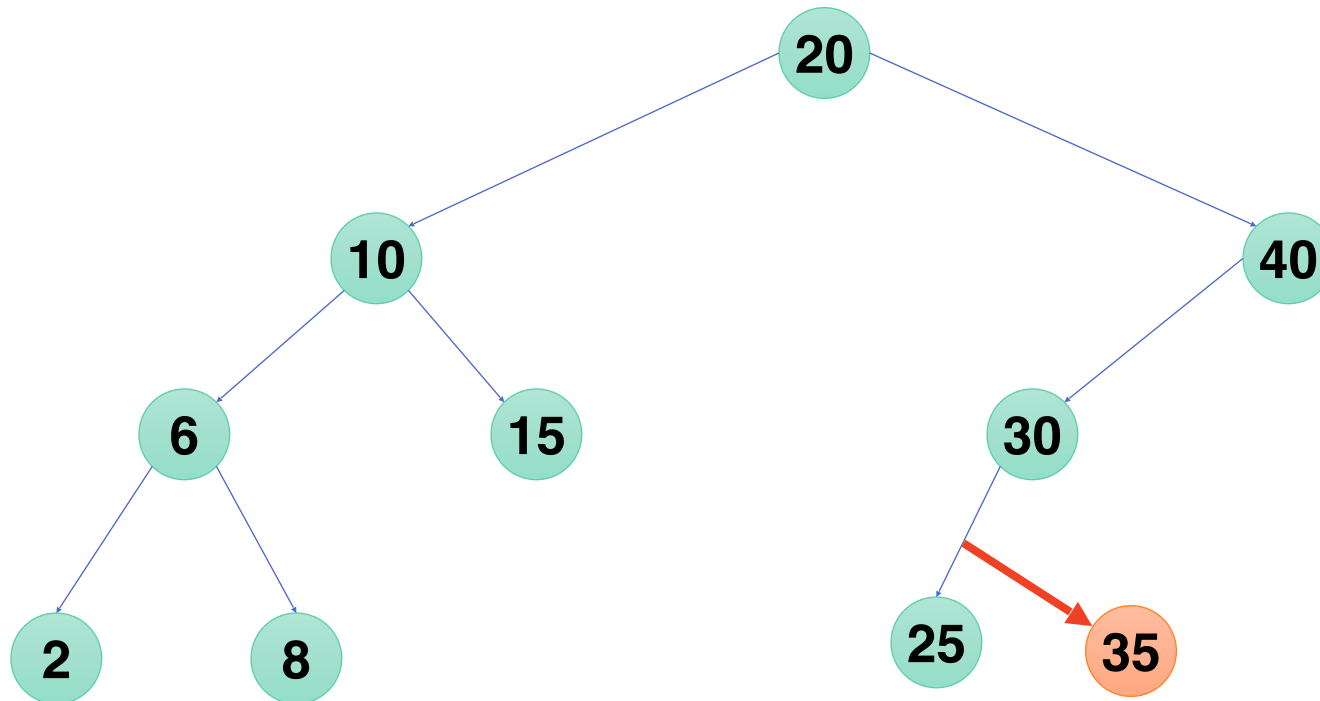
The Operation insert()



Insert a pair whose key is **35**.



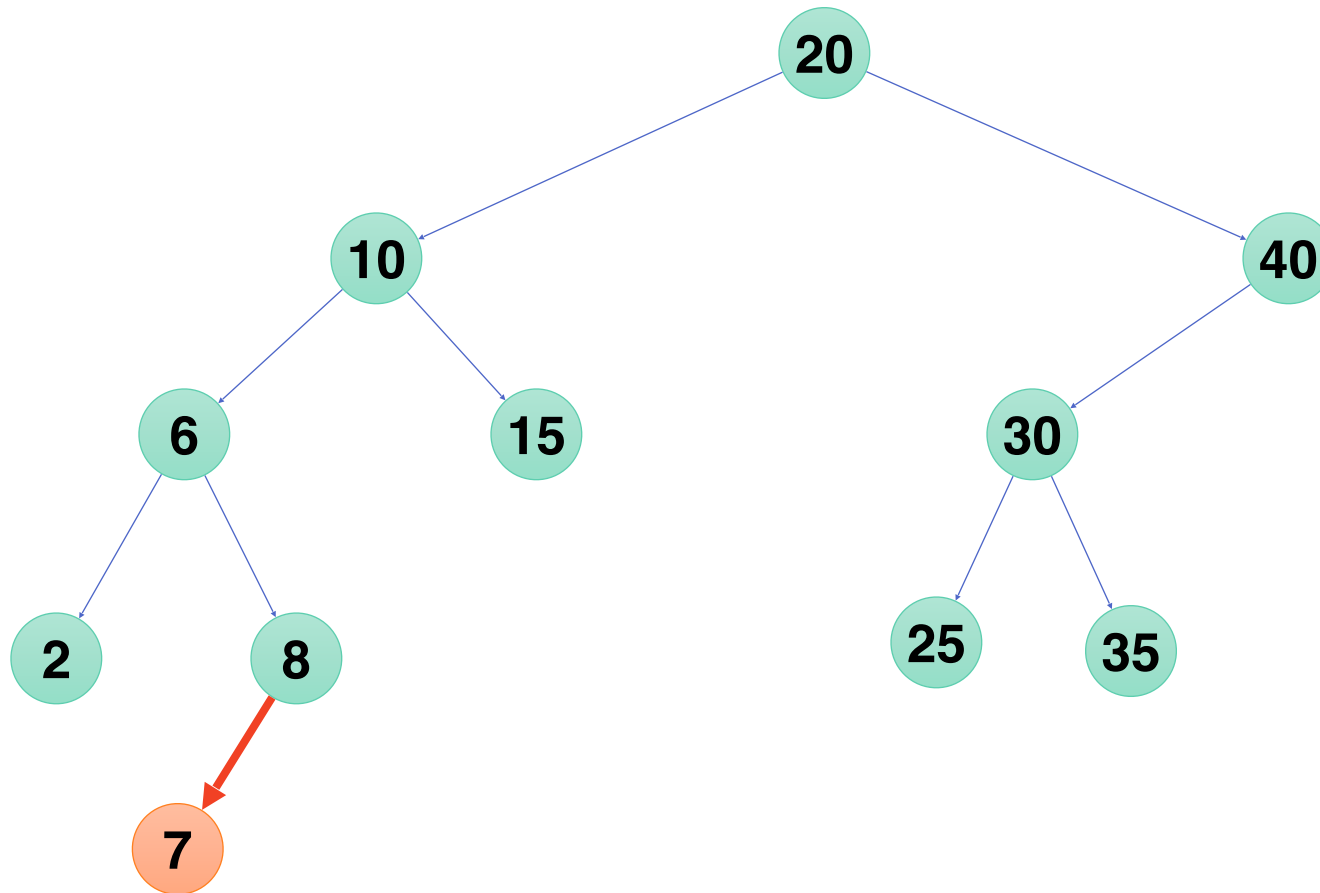
The Operation insert()



Insert a pair whose key is **35**.



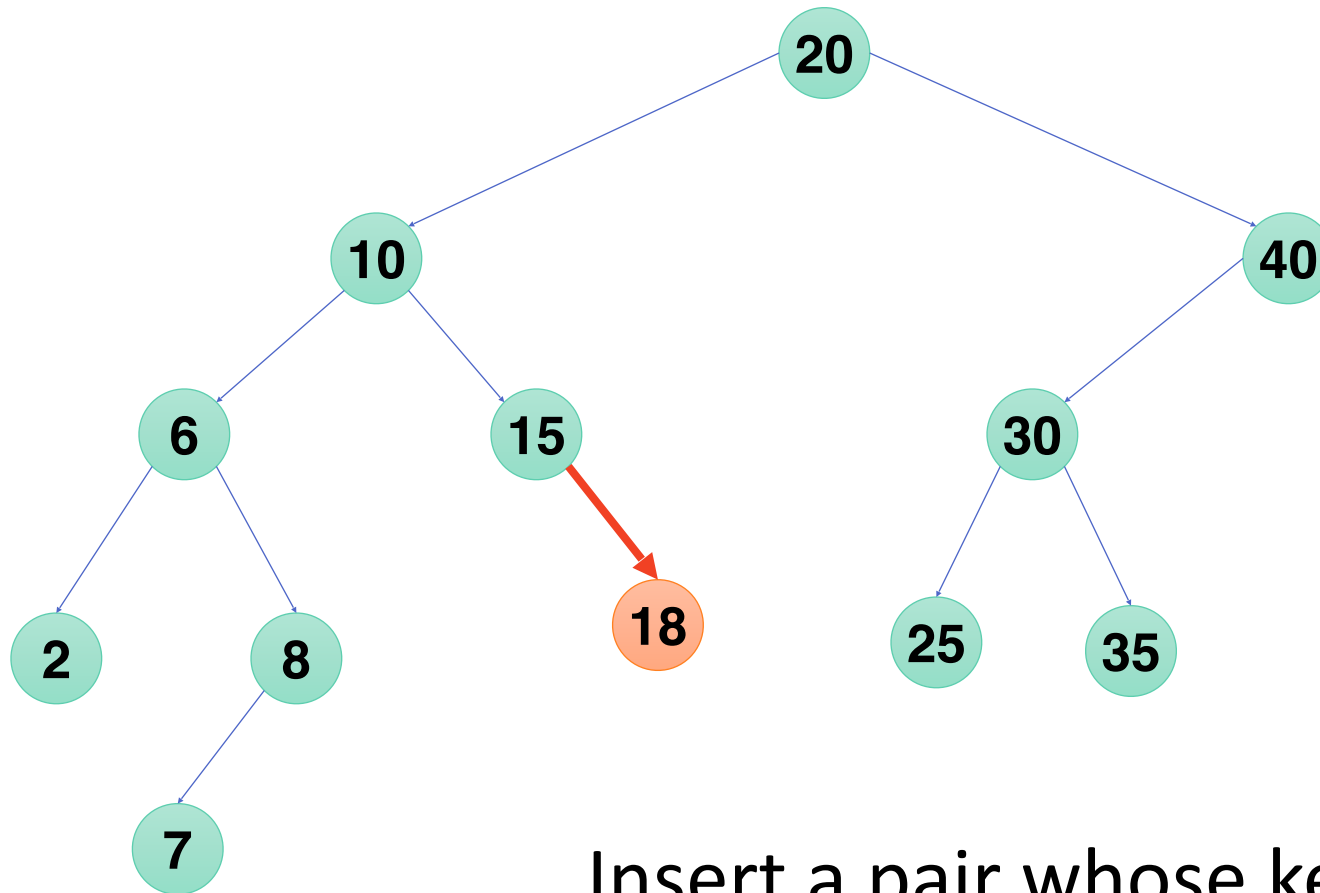
The Operation insert()



Insert a pair whose key is **7**.



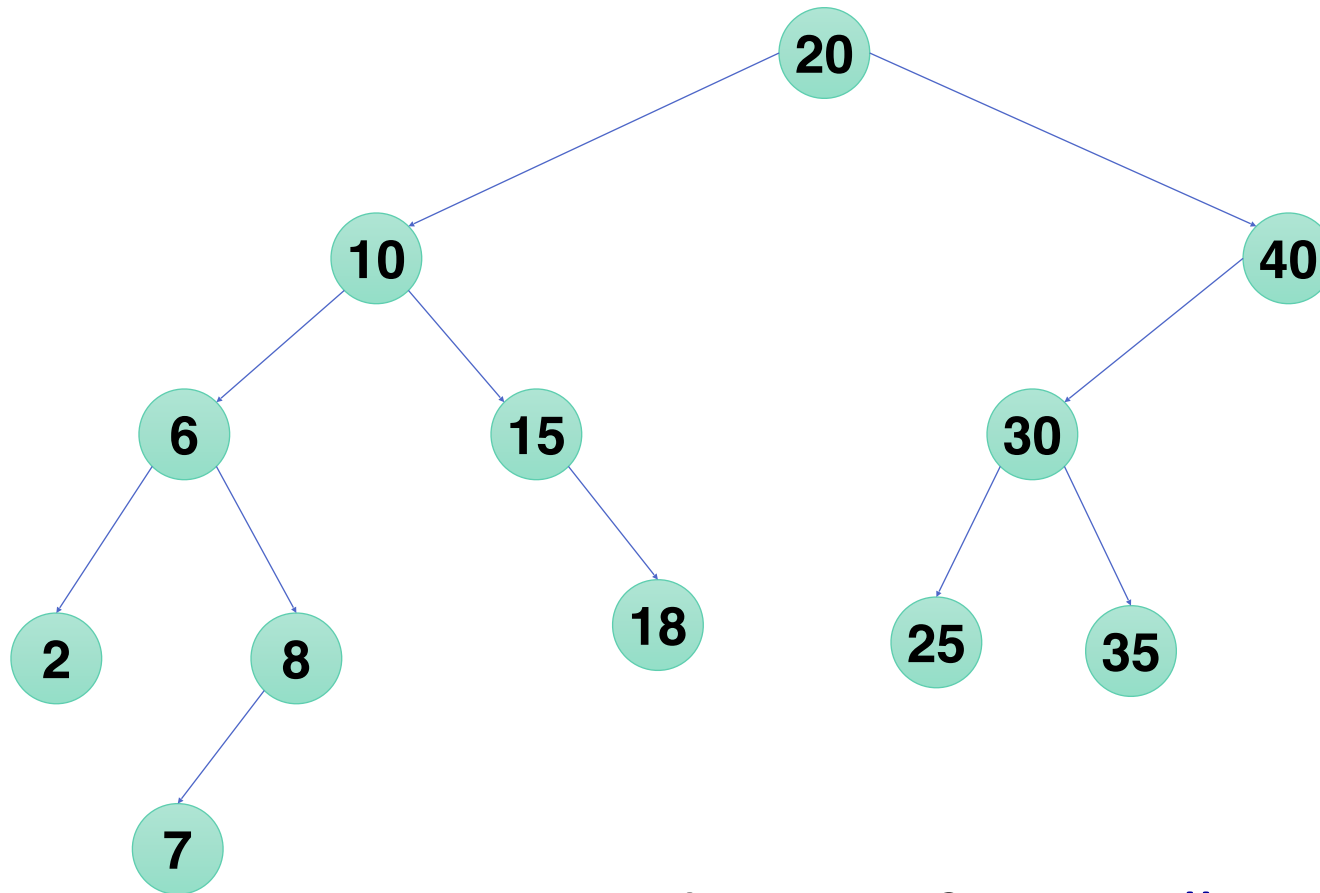
The Operation insert()



Insert a pair whose key is **18**.



The Operation insert()



Complexity of `insert()` is $O(\text{height})$.



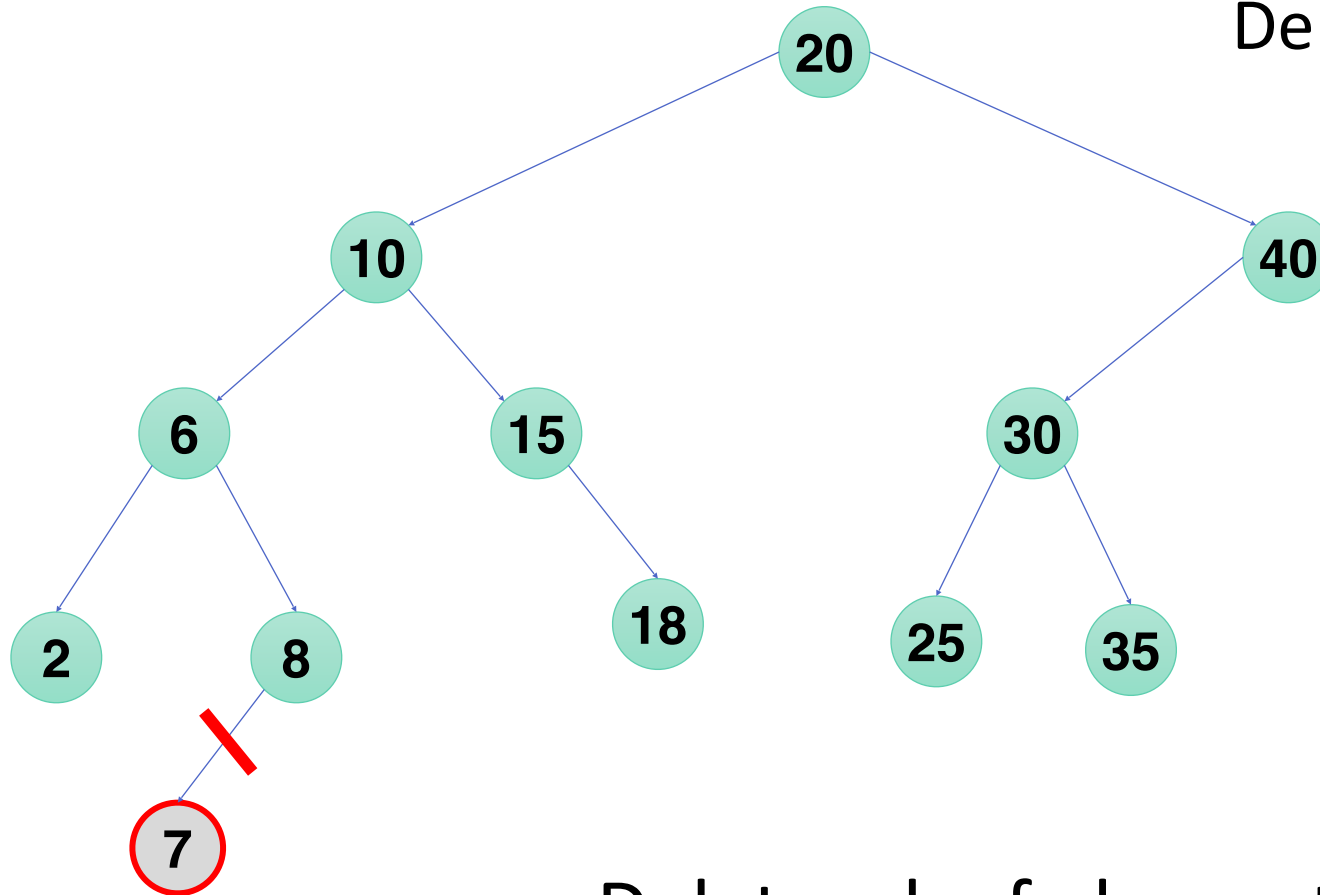
The Operation delete()

- Three cases:
 - Element is in a leaf.
 - Element is in a degree 1 node.
 - Element is in a degree 2 node.



Delete From A Leaf

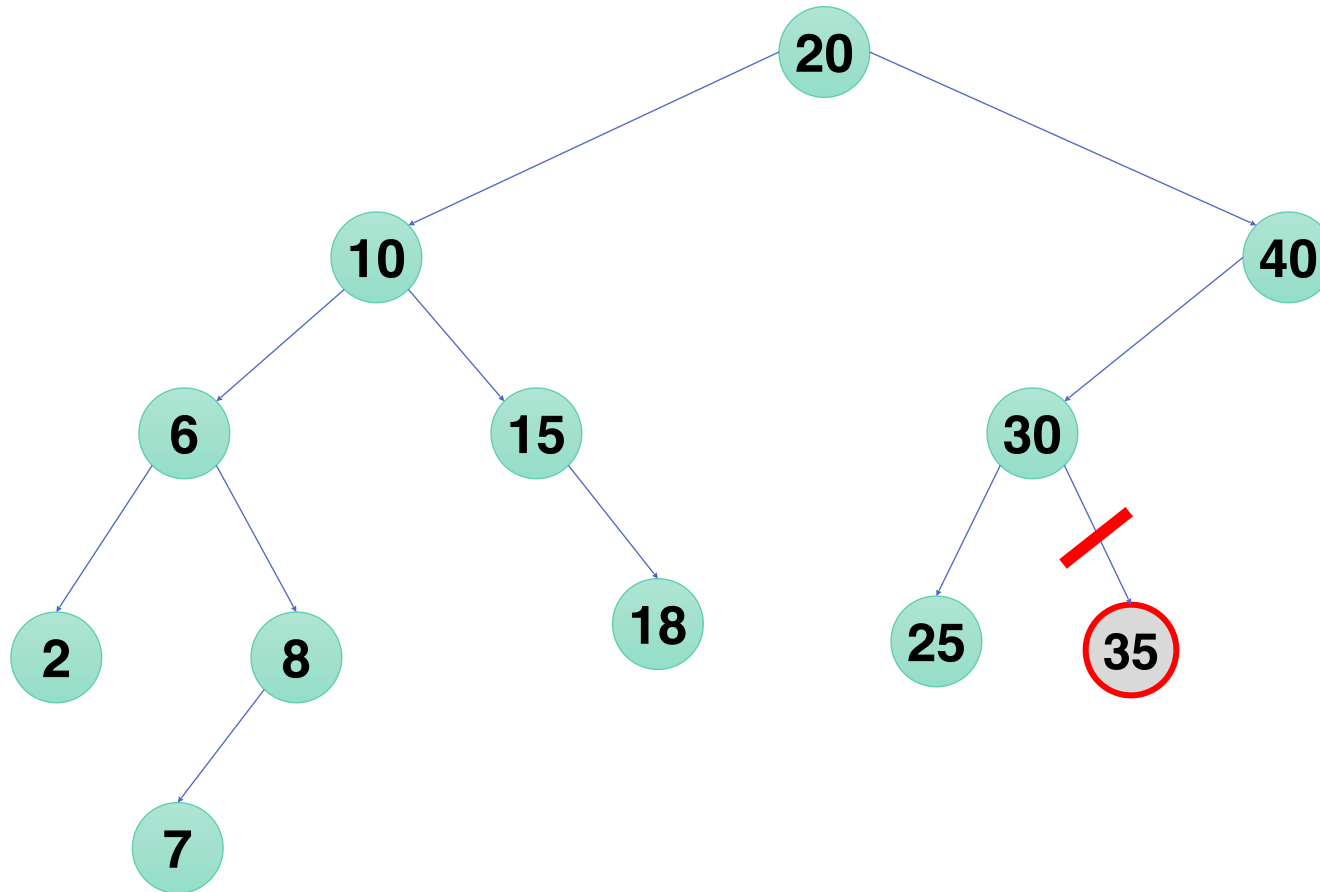
Delete key = 7



Delete a leaf element.
Set parent to NULL



Delete From A Leaf

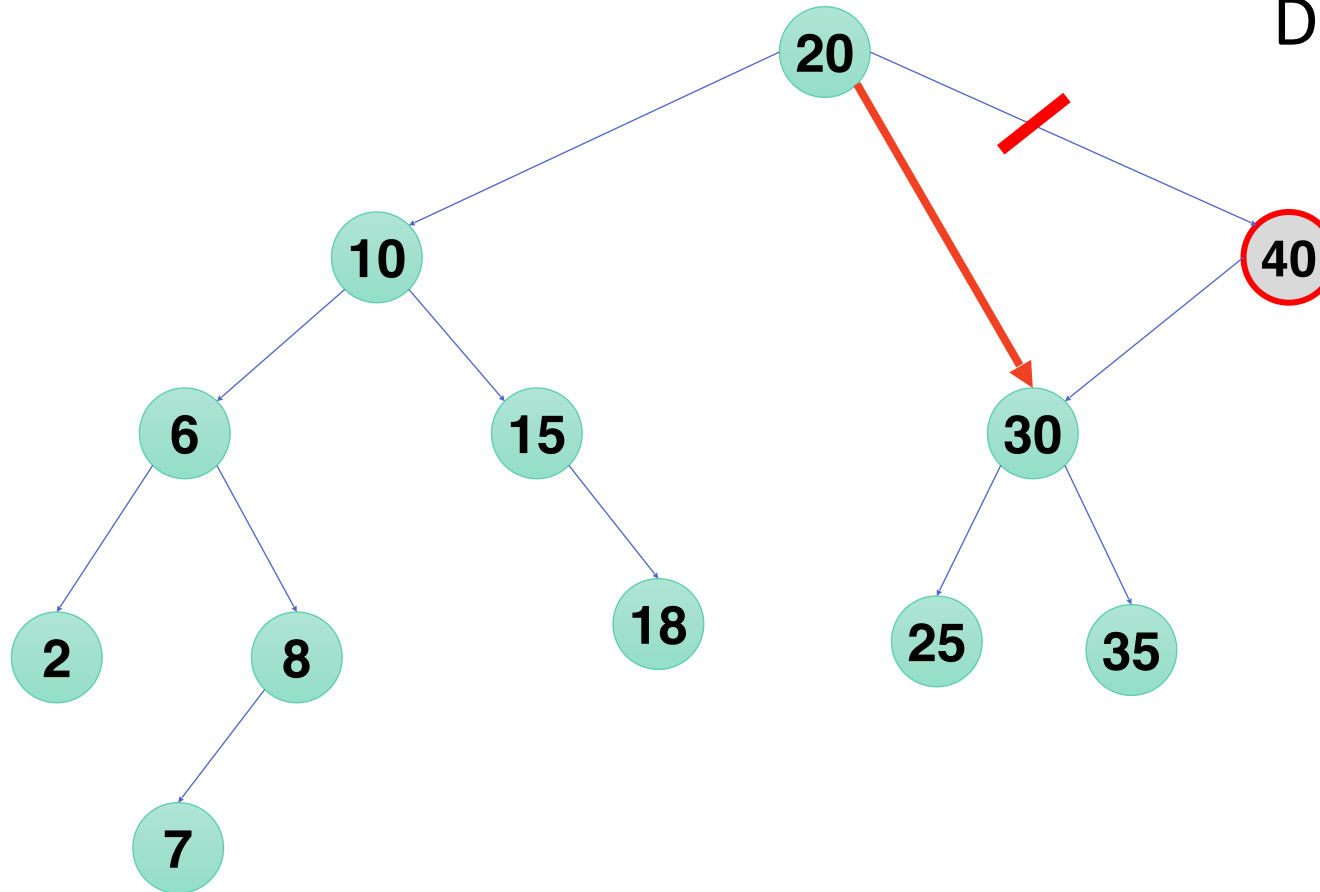


Delete a leaf element. key = 35



Delete From Degree 1 Node

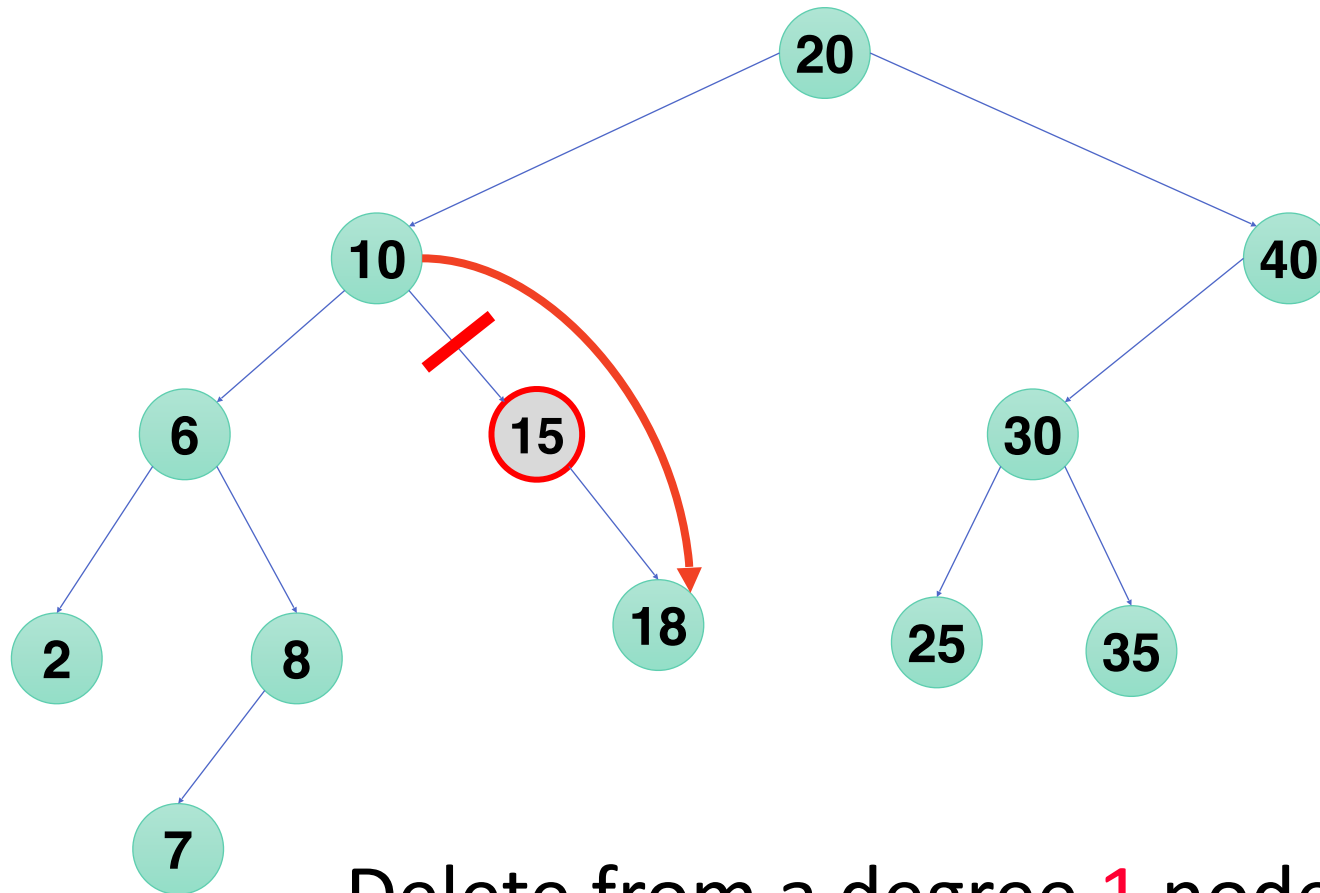
Delete key = 40



Delete from a degree **1** node.
Point parent to child.



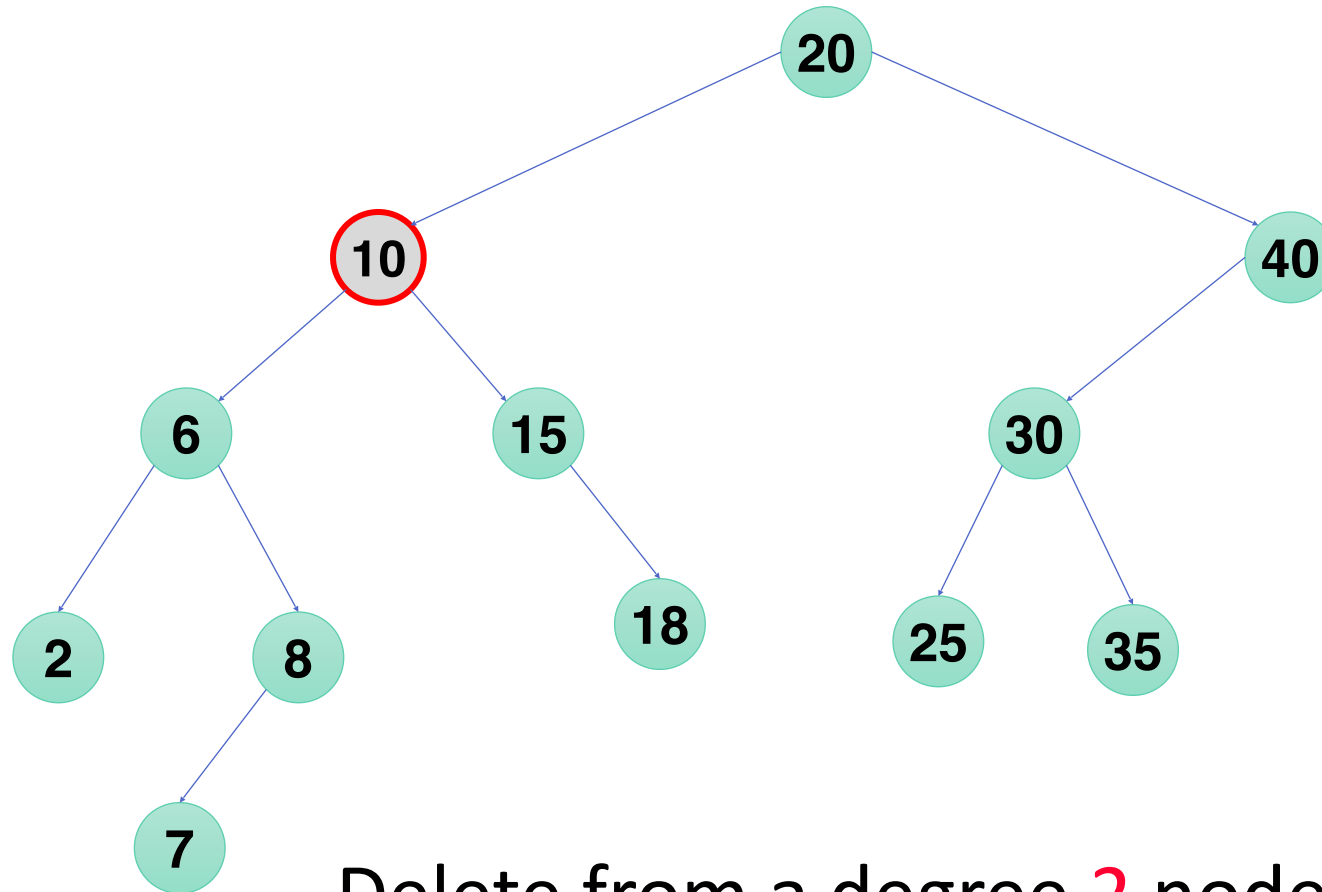
Delete From Degree 1 Node



Delete from a degree **1** node. key = **15**



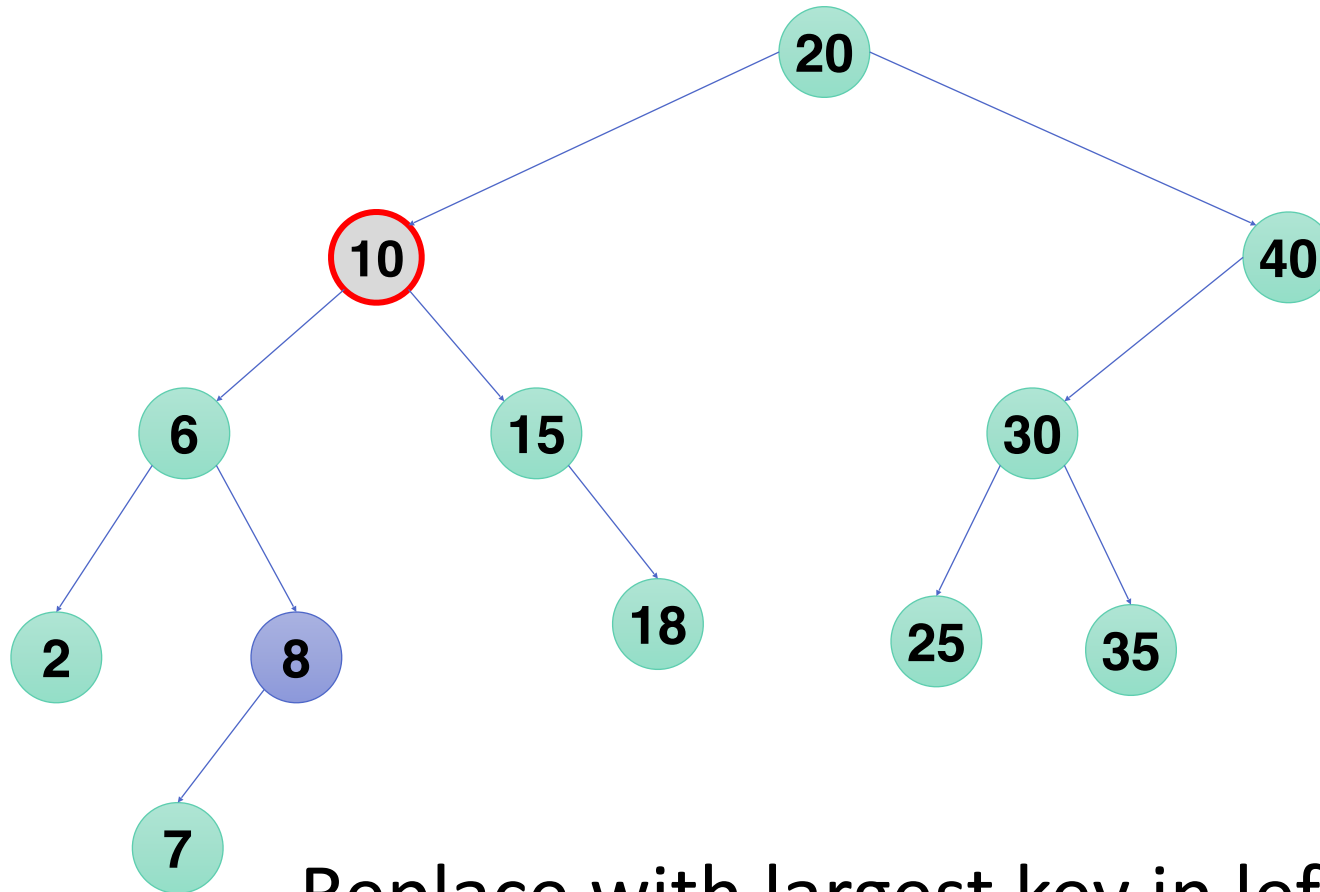
Delete From Degree 2 Node



Delete from a degree 2 node. key = 10



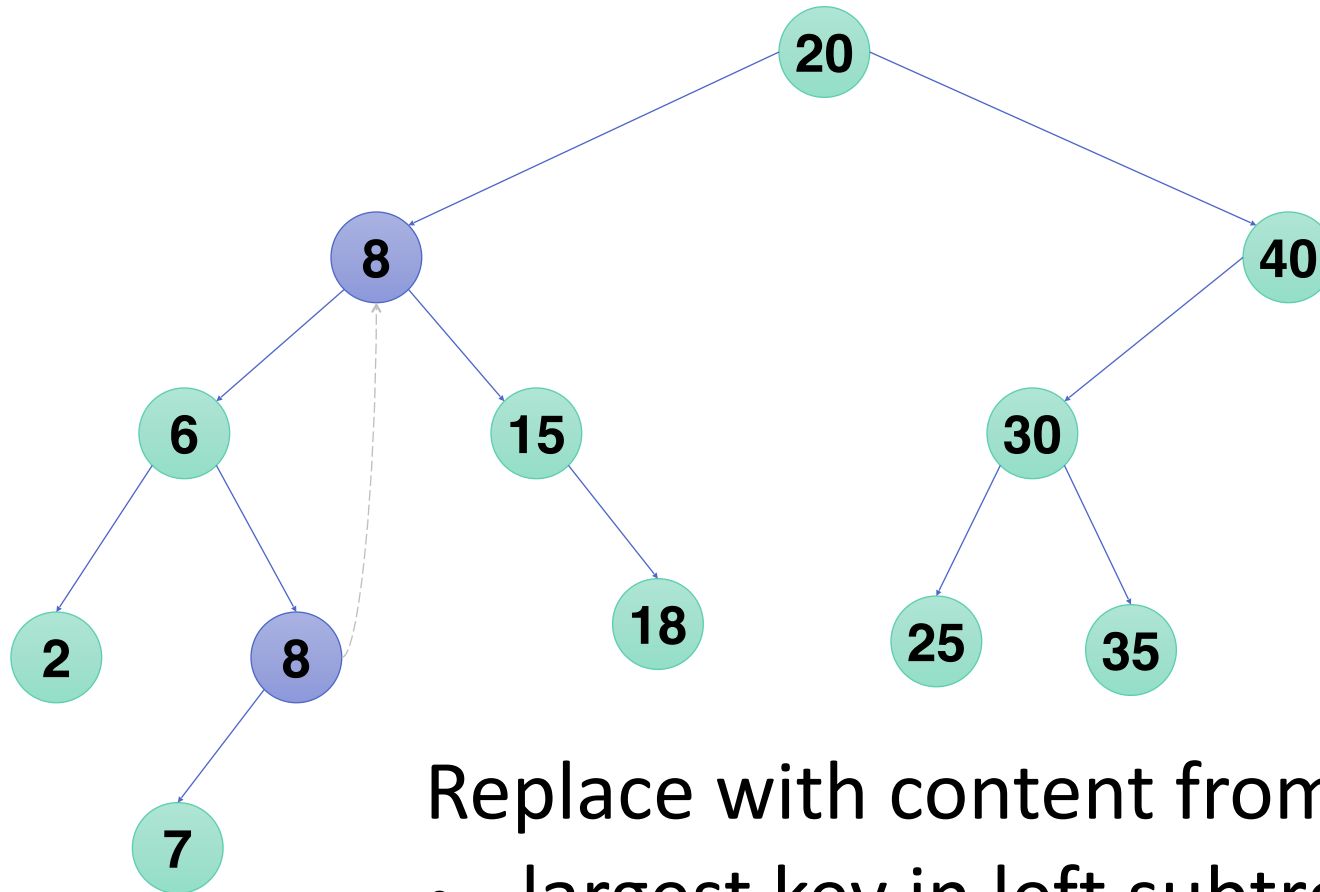
Delete From Degree 2 Node



Replace with largest key in left subtree
(or smallest in right subtree).



Delete From Degree 2 Node

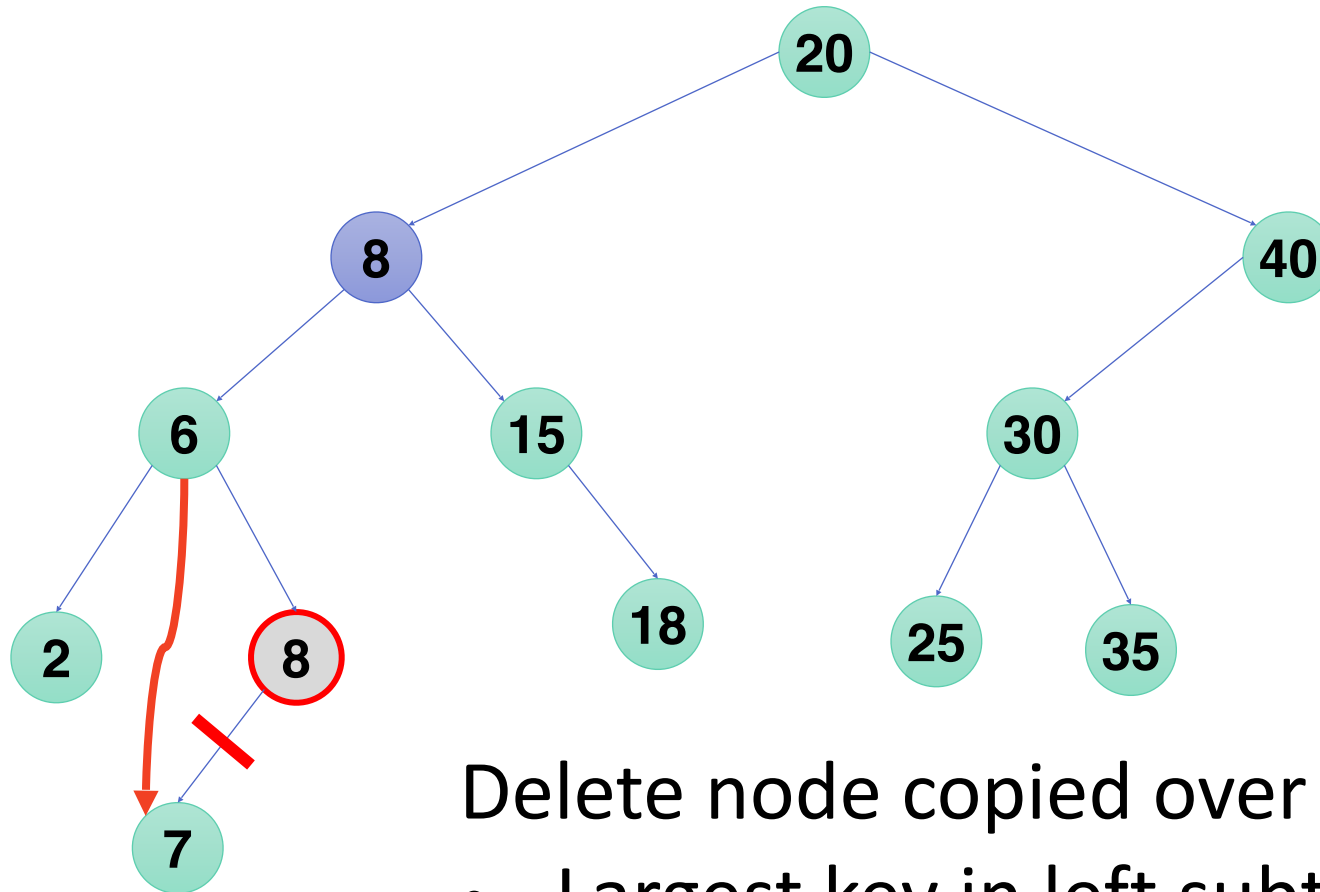


Replace with content from

- largest key in left subtree, or
- smallest in right subtree



Delete From Degree 2 Node

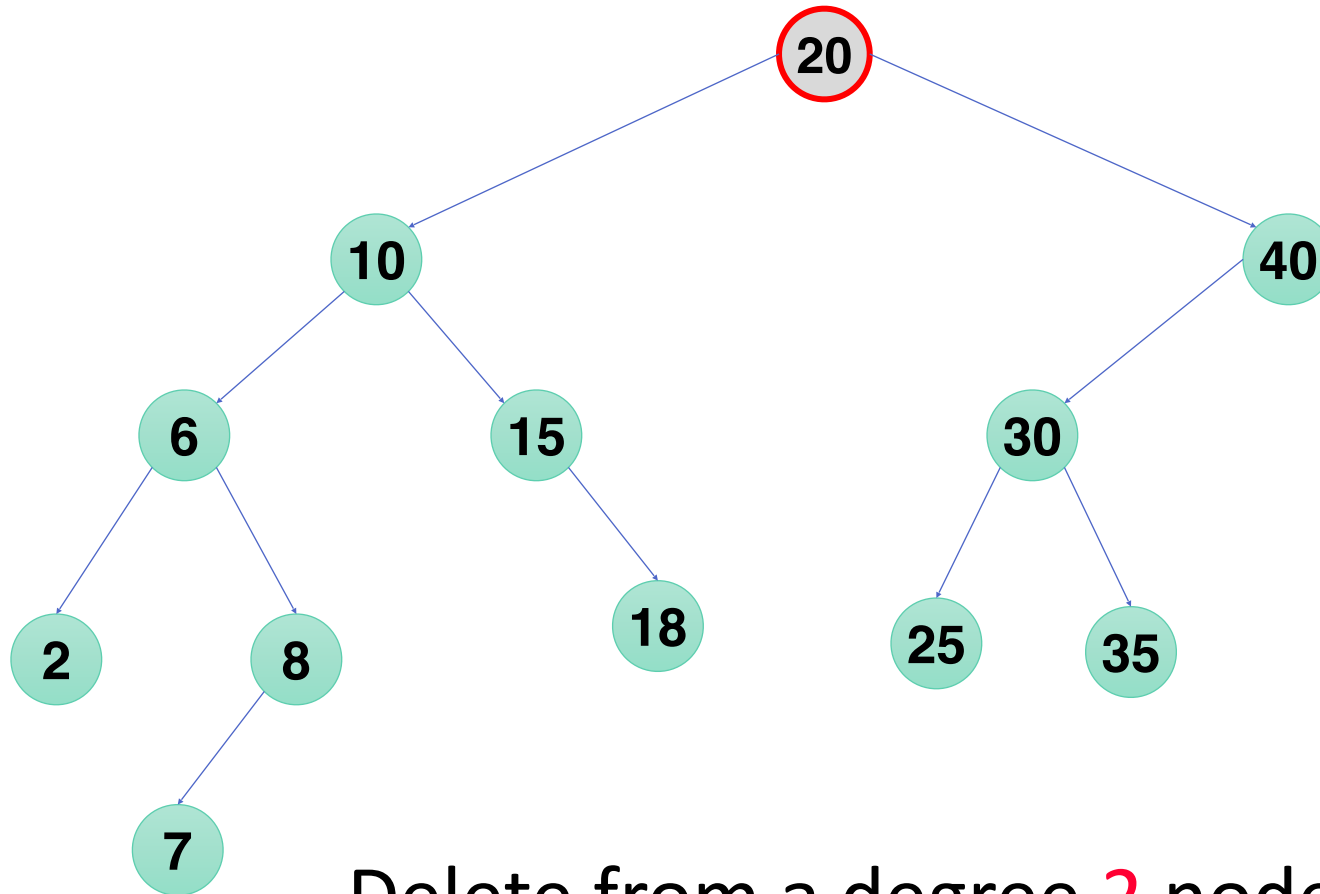


Delete node copied over

- Largest key in left subtree will be a leaf, or degree **1** node.



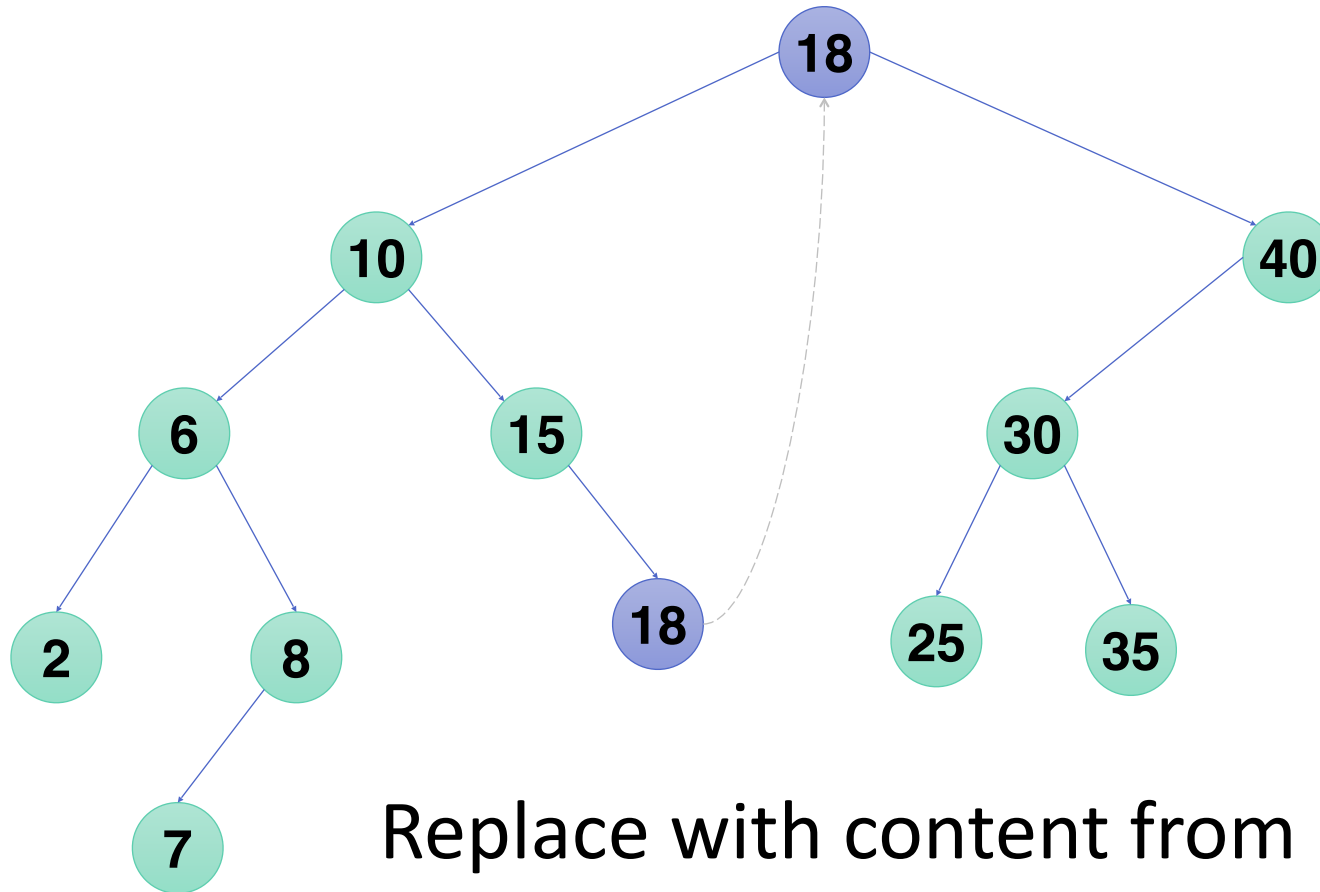
Delete From Degree 2 Node



Delete from a degree 2 node. key = 20



Delete From Degree 2 Node

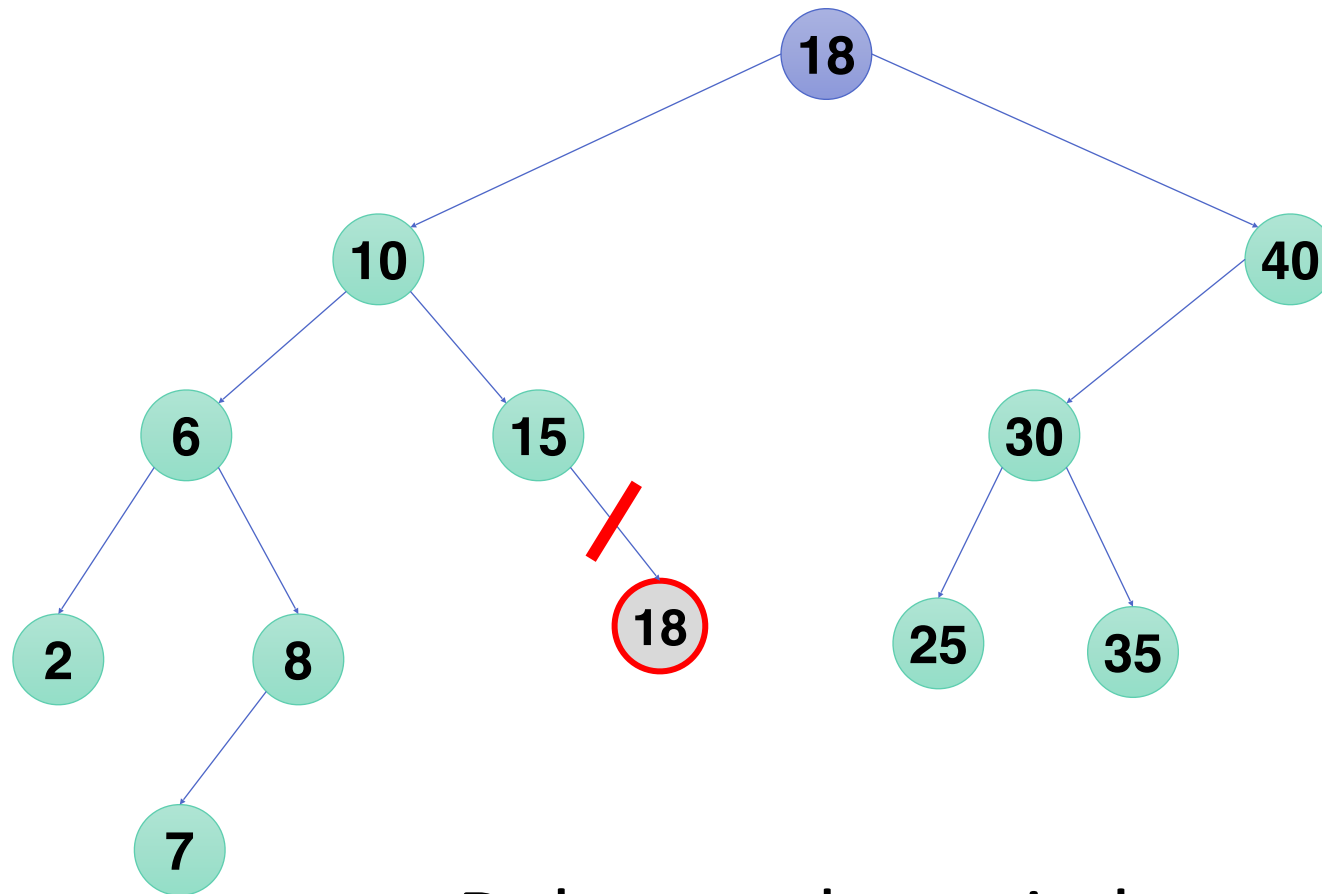


Replace with content from

- largest key in left subtree, or
- smallest in right subtree



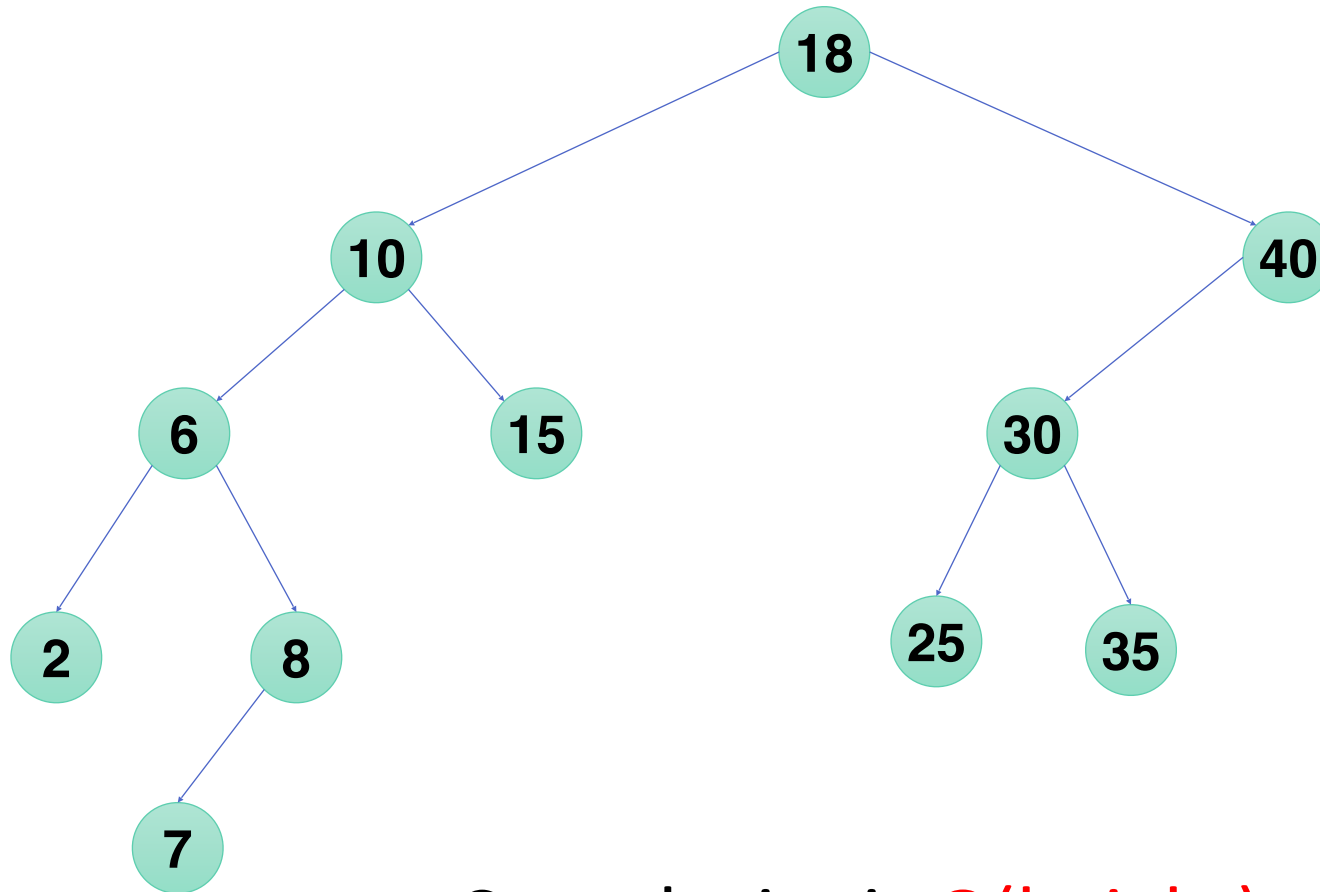
Delete From Degree 2 Node



Delete node copied over



Delete From Degree 2 Node



Complexity is $O(\text{height})$



Tree Imbalances

- Inserting and Deleting in specific orders can cause tree to be imbalanced
 - E.g. insert in sorted ascending/descending order
 - Height of left and right subtrees are very different, skewed
- Causes complexity to tend to $O(n)$ rather than $O(\log(n))$
- Periodically *rebalance* if skew greater than a threshold
 - *Balanced* BST, e.g., AVL Tree, Red-Black Tree, etc.



Complexity Of Dictionary Operations `find()`, `insert()`

- Given n elements in the dictionary

Data Structure	Worst Case	Average Case
Binary Search Tree	$O(n)$	$O(\log n)$
<i>Balanced Binary Search Tree</i>	$O(\log n)$	$O(\log n)$



Complexity Of Dictionary Operations `find()`, `insert()`

- Given n elements in the dictionary

Data Structure	Worst Case	Average Case
Hash Table	$O(n)$	$O(1)$
Binary Search Tree	$O(n)$	$O(\log n)$
<i>Balanced Binary Search Tree</i>	$O(\log n)$	$O(\log n)$



Hash Table

- Uses a 1D array (or table) `table[0:b-1]`
 - Each position of this array is a **bucket**
 - Number of buckets is `b`
 - A bucket can normally hold only one dictionary pair: `<key, value>`
 - But larger capacity allowed per bucket as well
 - Bucket sizes can be unbounded as well
- Uses a hash function `h` that converts each key `k` into an index in the range `[0, b-1]`.
 - `h(k)` is the “home bucket” for key `k`.
- Every dictionary pair is stored in its home bucket `table[h(item.key)] = item`



Ideal Hashing Example

- Key-value pairs are: (22,a), (33,c), (3,d), (73,e), (85,f).
- Hash table is **table[0:7]**, $b = 8$.
- Hash function **$h = \text{key}/11$**
- Pairs are stored in table as below

(3,d)		(22,a)	(33,c)			(73,e)	(85,f)
-------	--	--------	--------	--	--	--------	--------

- Lookup, Insert and Delete are done similarly
 - Apply hash, find bucket, perform op.
 - Take **$O(1)$** time to apply hash and do array access



What Can Go Wrong?

(3,d)		(22,a)	(33,c)			(73,e)	(85,f)
-------	--	--------	--------	--	--	--------	--------

- Where does (99,k) go?
- Hash function causes us to go beyond table size
- **Simple fix:** do a “mod” with the bucket size by default
- **$h = (k / 11) \% 8$**



What Can Go Wrong?

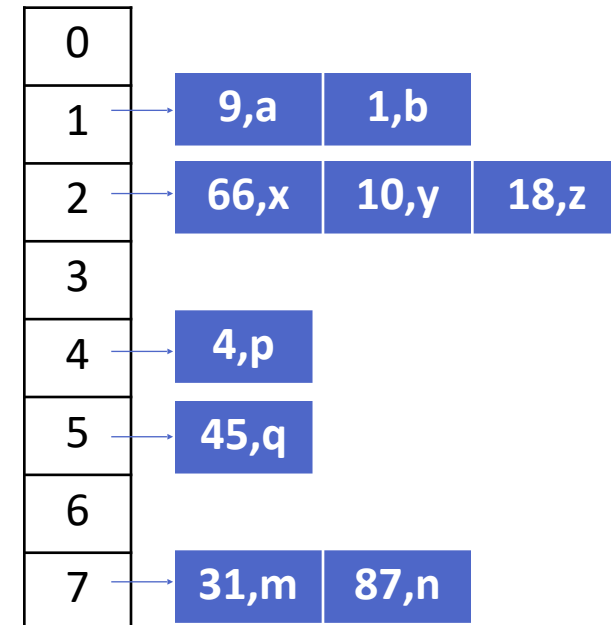
(3,d)		(22,a)	(33,c)			(73,e)	(85,f)
-------	--	--------	--------	--	--	--------	--------

- Where does (26,g) go?
- Keys 22 and 26 have the same *home bucket*, are synonyms with respect to the hash function used
 - This is a **collision**
- The home bucket for (26,g) is already occupied
 - And capacity of bucket is only 1 item
 - This is called an **overflow**



Hash-table using Array & Linked List

- Buckets with unbounded capacity
 - Bucket as a linked list
- Hash function gives array index
- Array contains pointer to head of linked list
 - Items are <key, value> pairs
- Traverse list to lookup element
- What if key not present?
- Time complexity for Insert?
Lookup?





Designing a Hash Table

- Choice of hash function
 - **Quick** to compute
 - Should **distribute keys evenly across buckets**
 - E.g. $h=k\%b$ is a *uniform hash function* for keys in the range $[0..r]$ *assuming all keys are uniformly randomly distributed* in $[0..r]$
 - The above assumption may not be true in practice
- Size (number of buckets) of hash table
 - Decides frequency of collision
- Overflow handling method



Open Addressing to handle Overflows

- All elements are stored in the hash table
 - Elements to store \leq capacity of table
- Each table entry contains either a $\langle \text{key}, \text{value} \rangle$ element or *null*
- While **inserting** an element **systematically probe** table slots if overflow occurs
- While **searching** for an element **systematically probe** table slots if bucket does not match key



Open Addressing

- Modify the hash function to take the *probe number i* as second parameter
 - $h: K \times \{0, 1, \dots, b-1\} \rightarrow \{0, 1, \dots, b-1\}$
- Hash function, h , also determines the sequence of slots “probed” for a given key
- Probe sequence for a given key k is the series of buckets $h(k, 0), h(k, 1), \dots, h(k, b-1)$
 - Use $h(k, 0)$ as bucket if no overflow
 - Else probe each bucket from successive hash fns., i.e. a permutation of $\langle 0, 1, \dots, b-1 \rangle$



Linear Probing

- If the current location is occupied, try the next location

LPInsert(k)

If (table is full) return error

probe = $h(k)$

while (table[probe] is occupied)

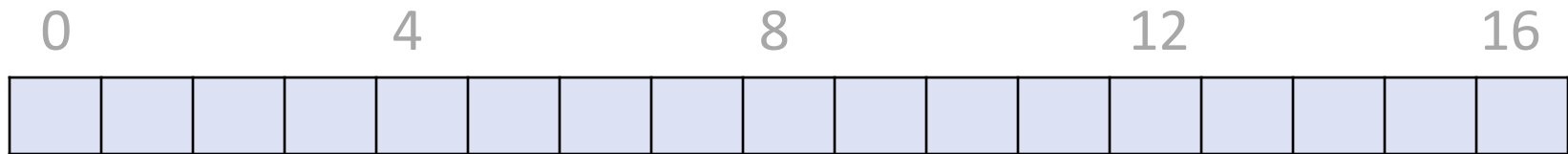
 probe = (probe+1) **mod b**

table[probe]=k



Linear Probing – Example

- Home bucket $h(k) = k \bmod 17$
- Insert keys: 6, 12, 34, 29, 28, 11, 23, 7, 0, 33, 30, 45





Linear Probing – Example

- Home bucket $h(k) = k \bmod 17$
- Insert keys: 6, 12, 34, 29, 28, 11, 23, 7, 0, 33, 30, 45


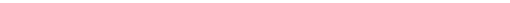
0	4				8				12				16				
34	<u>0</u>					6	<u>23</u>	<u>7</u>			28	12	<u>29</u>	<u>11</u>	<u>30</u>	33	
						→						→					
						→											
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												→					



Linear Probing – Example

- Home bucket $h(k) = k \bmod 17$
- Insert keys: 6, 12, 34, 29, 28, 11, 23, 7, 0, 33, 30, 45

0	4				8				12				16				
34	<u>0</u>					6	<u>23</u>	<u>7</u>			28	12	<u>29</u>	<u>11</u>	<u>30</u>	33	
						→						→					
						→											
												→					
														→			

0	4				8				12				16			
34	<u>0</u>	<u>45</u>				6	<u>23</u>	<u>7</u>			28	12	<u>29</u>	<u>11</u>	<u>30</u>	33
																



Lookup in Linear Probing

- Search for a key: Go to $(k \bmod 17)$ and continue looking at successive locations till we find k or reach empty location.
 - Longer (unsuccessful) lookup time
 - Deletion?

0	4				8				12				16			
34	0	45				6	23	7			28	12	29	11	30	33



Deletion

- Shift all elements to previous location?
 - That may create issue with lookups
- Instead, place flag at vacated location
 - `neverUsed=false`
- Lookup continues till `neverUsed=true`
- Insert puts element in first location with `neverUsed=true`, sets it to `false`
 - Or at the first location flagged as `neverUsed=false` [RECYCLE]
- Too many markers degrade performance
 - Perform Rehashing



B-Tree



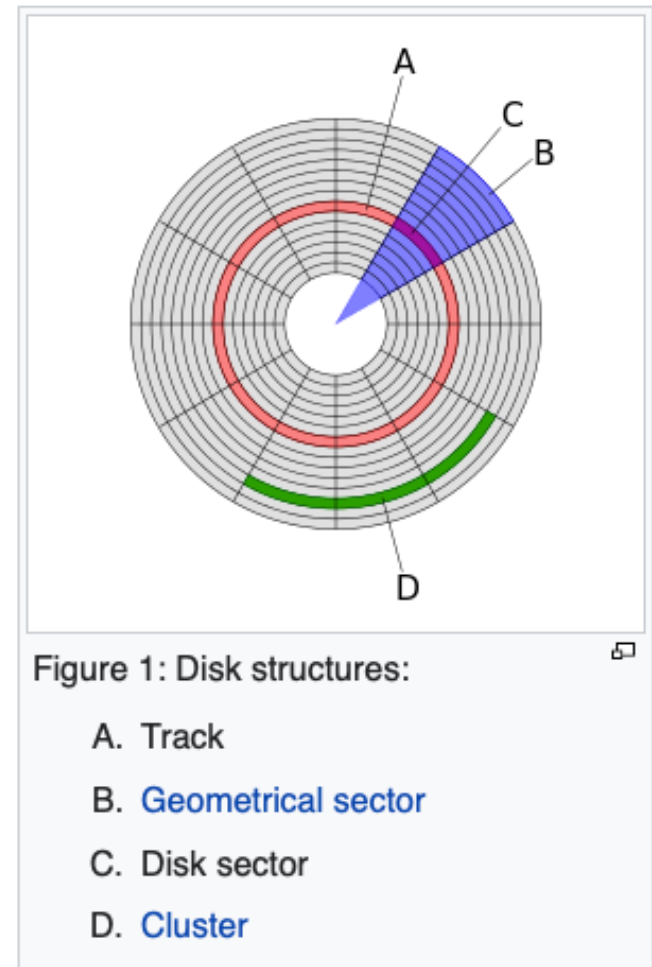
B-Tree: Searching External Storage

- Main memory (RAM) is fast, but has limited capacity
- Different considerations for in-memory vs. on-disk data structures for search
- Problem: Database too big to fit memory
 - Disk reads are slow
- Example: 1,000,000 records on disk
- Binary search might take 20 disk reads
 - $\log_2(1M) \approx 20$



Searching External Storage

- But disks are accessed “block at a time” by OS
- Blocks are typically 1KiB–4KiB in size
 - Access time per block
 - ~12ms for HDD
 - <1ms for SSD
- Say 1KiB block, 10B per record
 - 10,000 blocks for 1M records



wikipedia.org/wiki/Disk_sector



B-Trees

- Data structures for external memory, not main memory
 - Goal is to reduce number of block accesses, not number of comparisons
- Similar to *binary* search tree
 - But allow more than 1 value and 2 children per node
 - Each node is one disk block with data records plus block addresses of children
- B-Trees
 - Proposed by R. Bayer and E. M. McCreigh in 1972.
 - “Bayer”, “Balanced”, Bushy”, “Boeing” trees?
 - Different from **binary** trees
- NOTE
 - In-memory data structure will be better than on-disk
 - milliseconds vs. nano seconds
 - So *in-memory binary tree* will be better than *on-disk B Tree*
 - But on-disk B Tree better than on-disk binary tree



B-Tree

- Like BST, node has alternate children (block pointers) and records (Key and Values)
 - Number of children = Number of Records + 1
- Keys within a node are in increasing order
- A key within a node is greater than all keys on left child's tree and smaller than all keys on right child's tree
- Bounds on minimum and maximum number of children in a node. For B-tree of *order* m :
 - Each node has $\leq m - 1$ records (therefore $\leq m$ children)
- Every internal node (except the root) has $\geq \lceil m/2 \rceil$ children

E.g. order 5 B-Tree's largest-sized Node...



...and its smallest-sized Node

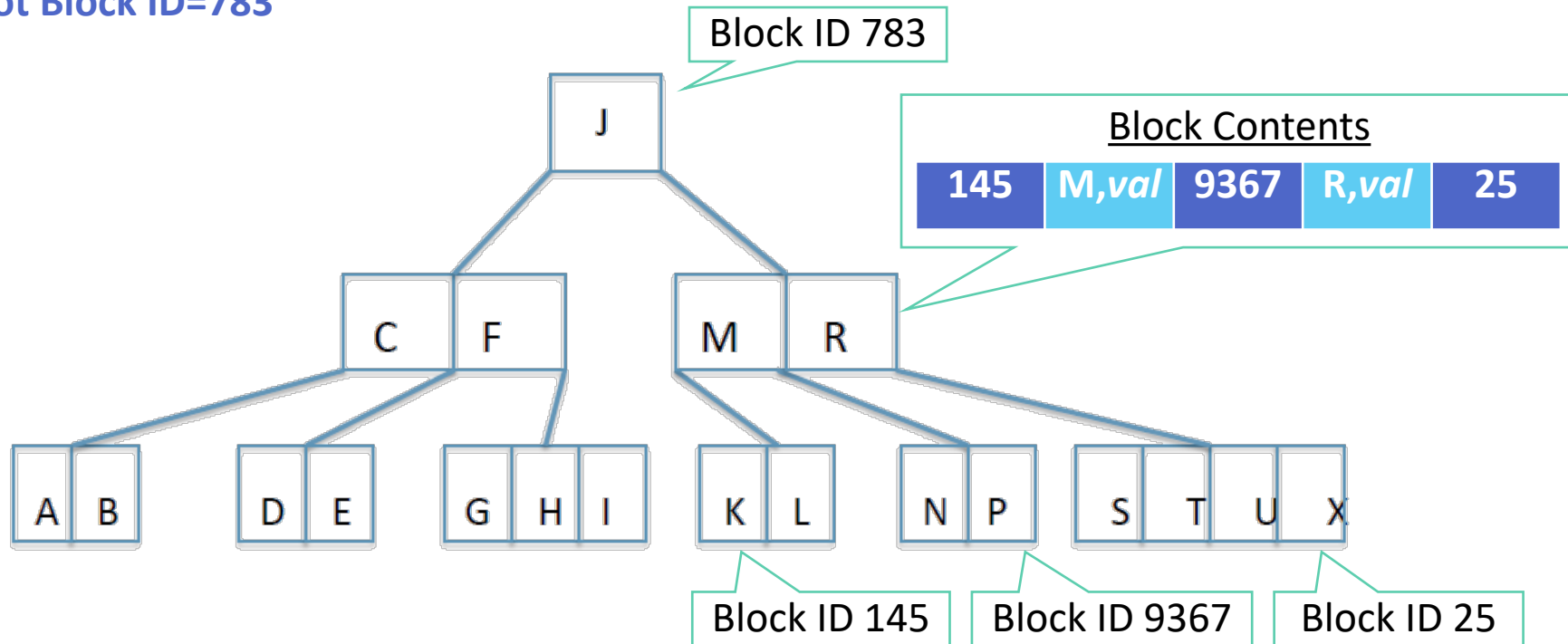




B-Tree Search (Order 5)

A G F B K D H M J E S I R X C L N T U P

Root Block ID=783

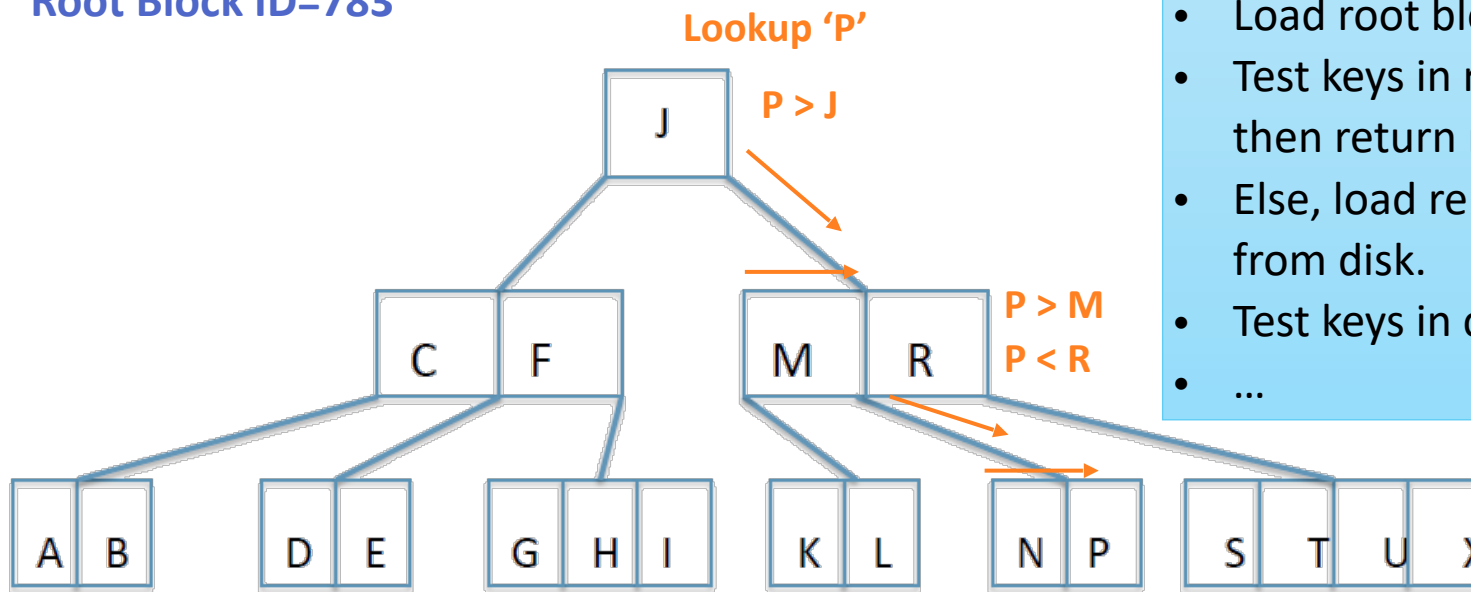




B-Tree Search (Order 5)

A G F B K D H M J E S I R X C L N T U P

Root Block ID=783



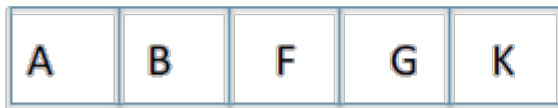
Lookup is similar to BST

- Load root block from disk
- Test keys in root block. If match, then return record.
- Else, load relevant child block from disk.
- Test keys in child block...
- ...

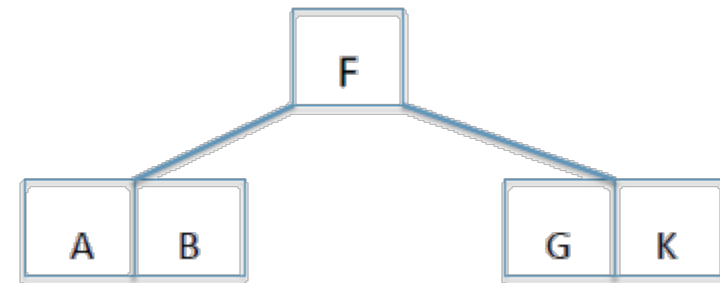


B-Tree Creation

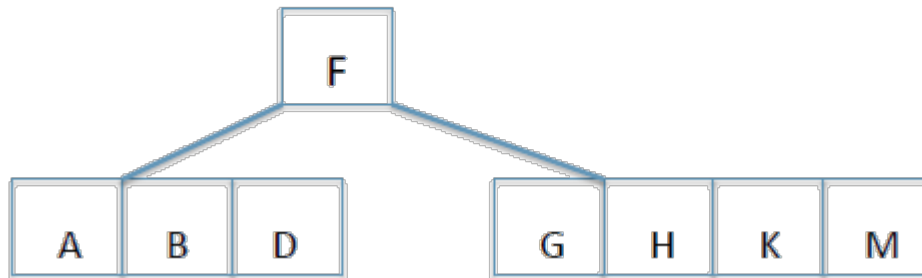
A G F B K D H M J E S I R X C L N T U P



Split if keys $> m-1$
Add mid-point to parent.
Create parent if root.



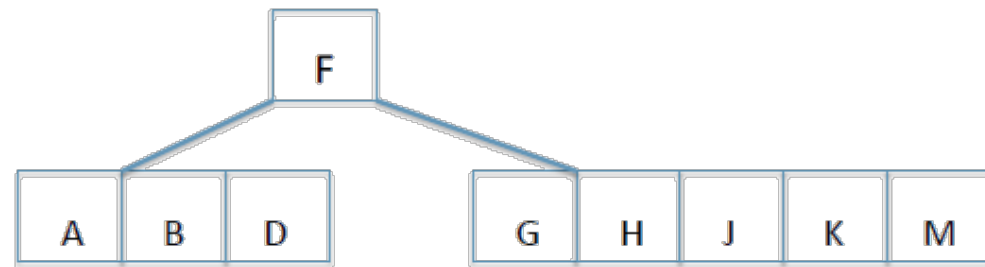
A G F B K D H M J E S I R X C L N T U P



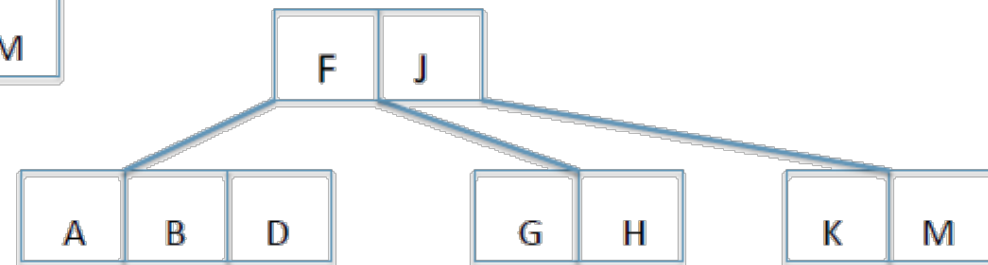


B-Tree Creation

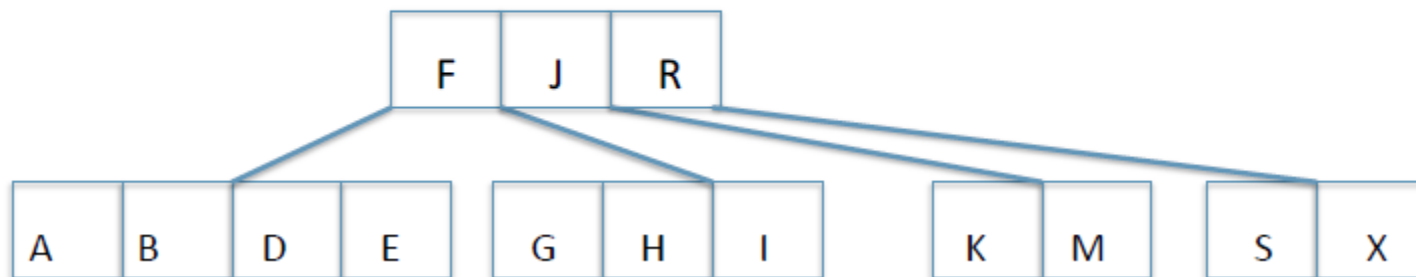
A G F B K D H M J E S I R X C L N T U P



Split if keys $> m-1$
Add mid-point key to parent.



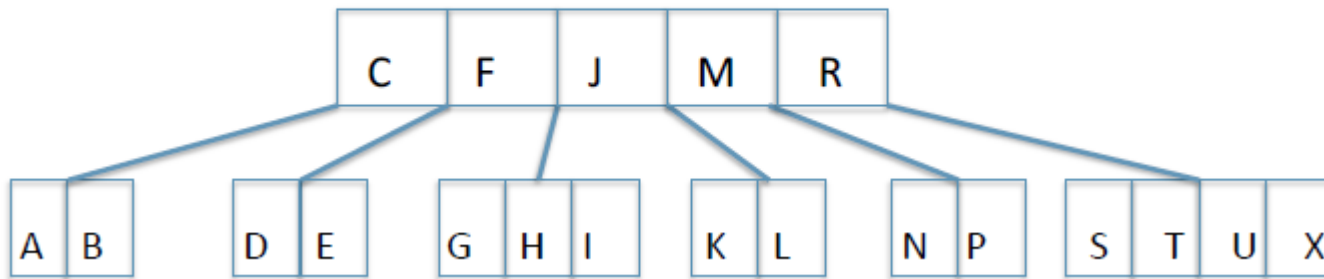
A G F B K D H M J E S I R X C L N T U P



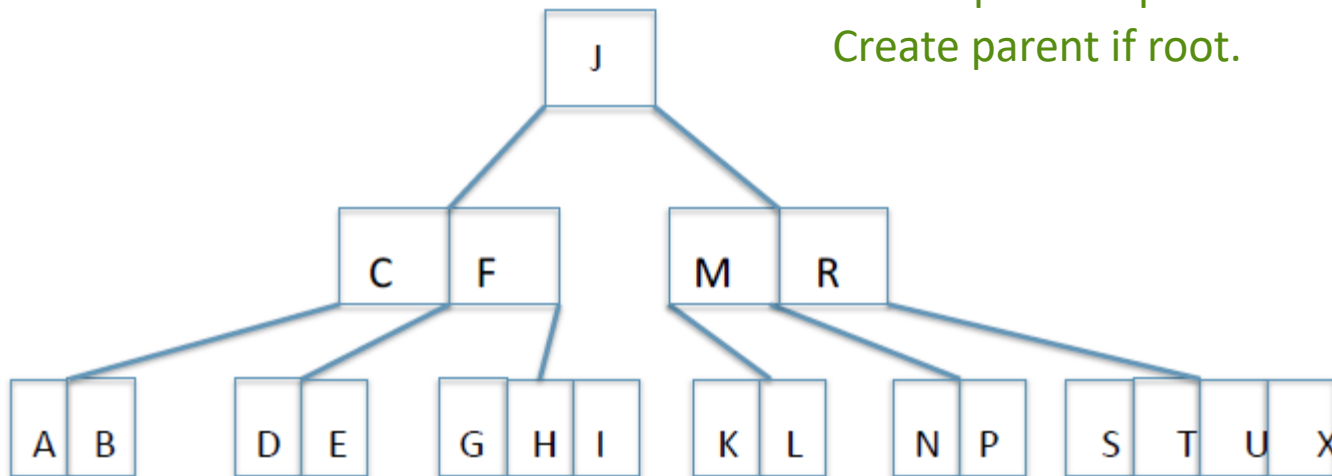


B-Tree Creation

A G F B K D H M J E S I R X C L N T U P



Split if keys > m-1
Add mid-point to parent.
Create parent if root.





Efficiency of B-trees

- If a B-tree has order **m**, then each node (apart from the root) has at least $\lceil m/2 \rceil$ **children**
- So the depth of the tree is at most **$\log_{m/2}(\text{size}) + 1$**
 - These many blocks have to be loaded from disk
- In the worst case, we have to make **m-1 comparisons** in each node
 - Linear search, but (m-1) is a *constant factor* and *in-memory scan cost* is lower



Tasks

■ Self study (Sahni Textbook)

- Chapter 10.5, Hashing from textbook
- Chapter 11.0-11.6, Trees & Binary Trees from textbook
- B Trees (online sources <https://opendatastructures.org/newhtml/ods/latex/btree.html>)