Lecture 19 Priority Queues, Heap, Trie, Union/Find, Geometric applications of BST

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1 Priority Queues

Priority queues

A common occurring situation:

- Waiting list (job management on multi-user computers, simulation of events)
- If a resource becomes available, select an element from the waiting list
- The choice is based on a partial/linear order:
 - the job with the highest priority will be served first,
 - each event will occur at a specific time; the events will be processed in chronological order.

ADT priority queues

- Linearly ordered set of keys K
- We store the pairs (k, v) (as in the ADT Dictionary), several pairs with the same key are allowed
- a common operation is to retrieve couples with minimal key
- Operations on a priority queue *P*:
 - makeEmptyPQ()
 - isEmpty()
 - size()
 - min(): find a pair (k, v) that has the minimal k in P; returns (k, v)
 - $\operatorname{insert}(k, v)$: inserts (k, v) in P
 - removeMin(): removes and returns the pair (k, v) having the minimal key k; error if P is empty

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Implementation of priority queues

- We can for example use (sorted) linked lists, BST or Skip-lists
- Another idea: use a complete binary tree where the root of each (sub) tree *T* contains the smallest element in *T*.



This is a partially ordered tree, also called "heap"!

1.1 Heaps

Updating a heap structure

- A heap is a complete binary tree
- With the last leaf we mean the last node in a traversal in level order
- removeMin(PQ) // remove the root
 - Replace the root with the last leaf
 - Reset the partial order by swapping rows below "down-heap bubbling"
- insert(PQ, k, v)
 - Insert a new node (k, v) after the last leaf
 - Reset the partial order by "up-heap bubbling"

Updating a heap structure

Given the initial heap:



Remove the root.

Characteristics

- size(), is Empty(), min(): O(1)
- insert(), removeMin(): $O(\log n)$

Remember the array representation of BST A complete binary tree...

- compact array representation
- "Bubble-up" and "bubble-down" have rapid implementations

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Example: "bubble-up" after insert(4,15)



Heap variants

Different partial orders

- the smallest -minimum- key is in the root (minHeap)
- the biggest key in the root (maxHeap)

Different array representations

- Numbering forward in the level orders (starting from 0 or 1)
- numbering backwards in level order (starting with 0 or 1)

1.2 Application

Greedy algorithms

Algorithms that solve a piece of the problem at a time. Each step done gives the best return and costs the least.

- The greedy method is a general paradigm for the design of algorithms based on the following:
 - configurations: different choices, collections or values to find
 - goal function: configurations are assigned a score that we will maximize or minimize
- It works well for problems with greedy-choice property:
 - a globally optimal solution can always be found by a series of local improvements from an initial configuration

For many problems, greedy algorithms do not provide optimal solutions but maybe decent approximate solutions.

Text compression

- Given a string X, encode X in a shorter string Y
 Save memory/bandwidth
- A good way to do it: Huffman coding
 - Calculate the frequency f(c) for each character c
 - Use short codes for characters with high frequency
 - No code word is the prefix of another code word
 - Use optimal coding tree to determine the code words

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Example of coding tree

- A code maps each character in an alphabet to a binary code word
- A prefix code is a binary code such that no code word is a prefix of another code word
- A coding tree represents a prefix code
 - Each external node stores a character
 - The code word for a character is given by the path from the root to the external node storing that character (0 for a left child and one for a right child)



Optimization of the coding tree

- Given a text string *X*, we want to find a prefix code for a character in *X* which gives a short coding of *X*
 - Common characters receive short code words
 - Unusual characters should get long code words

Example: X = abrakadabra

- T_1 encodes X in 29 bits
- T_2 encodes X in 24 bits



Huffman's algorithm

- Given a string X, Huffman algorithm constructs a prefix code that minimizes the size of the encoding of X
- The algorithm runs in $O(n + d \log d)$ time, where *n* is the size of *X* and *d* is the number of distinguished characters in *X*
- A heap-based priority queue is used as an additional data structure

function HUFFMANENCODING(X, |X| = n) $C \leftarrow \text{DISTINCTCHARACTERS}(X)$ COMPUTEFREQUENCIES(C,X) $Q \leftarrow \text{new empty heap}$ for all $c \in C$ do $T \leftarrow a$ new tree node that stores c Q.INSERT(GETFREQUENCY(C), 1)while Q.SIZE() > 1 do $f_1 \leftarrow Q.\text{MIN}()$ 19.13

$$T_{1} \leftarrow Q.\text{REMOVEMIN}()$$

$$f_{2} \leftarrow Q.\text{MIN}()$$

$$T_{2} \leftarrow Q.\text{REMOVEMIN}()$$

$$T \leftarrow \text{JOIN}(T_{1}, T_{2})$$

$$Q.\text{INSERT}(f_{1} + f_{2}, T)$$
return Q.REMOVEMIN}()

Example



2 Trie

Trie (prefix-tree)

- trie: An ordered tree used to store a variety of data, usually strings, optimized to perform prefix search
 - Example: Starting a few words in the set with the prefix mart?
 - Dictionary-class in lab5 uses such a data structure
 - Idea: instead of a binary tree, use a "26-descendenttree
 - * Each node has 26 children: one for each letter A to Z
 - * add the word in a trie by following the appropriate child pointer

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Trie-node

```
struct TrieNode {
   bool word;
   TrieNode* children[26];
   TrieNode() {
     this->word = false;
     for (int i = 0; i < 26; i++) {
        this->children[i] = nullptr;
     }
   }
};
```

word		1	f	als	e																				
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25
а	b	с	d	е	f	g	h	i	j	k	Ι	m	n	0	р	q	r	S	t	u	v	w	х	у	z
				Г	\square	\square	\square	\Box	\Box	\square		\square			\square				\Box	\Box		\square		\Box	

Trie with data

• After inserting "am", "ate", "me", "mud", "my", "one", "out":



3 Union/Find

Partition Rings with Union/Find-operations

Partition rings represent a sorted list of virtual nodes, where virtual nodes are just hashes based on the actual node. Usually the sorted list just contains the hashes themselves, and a companion map is used to translate from the virtual node hash back to its actual node.

- makeSet(x): Create a set that contains only element x and returns the position that stores x.
- union(A,B): Returns the set $A \cup B$, destroy the old A and B.
- find(*p*): Returns the set that contains the element in position *p*.

Example: Dynamic connectivity



Question: is there a path between *p* and *q*?

- Pixels in a digital photo
- Computers on a network
- Friends on a social network
- Transistors in a computer chip
- Elements of a mathematical set
- Variable names in a computer program
- Metallic parts of a composite system

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List-based implementation

- Each set is stored as a sequence represented by a linked list
- Each node stores an object containing an element and a reference to the set name



Analysis of list-based representation

- When the union is carried out, always move elements from the smaller set to the larger set
 - Each time an element is moved, it comes to a set (the new one) which is at least twice as large as the old set.
 - Thus, an element can be moved up to $O(\log n)$ times
- Total time to perform *n* union- and find-operations is $O(n \log n)$

Tree-based implementation

- Each element is stored in a node that contains a pointer to a set name
- A node *v* whose the pointer points to node *v* is also a set name
- Each set is a tree rooted in a node with self-referenced set name pointer
- E.g. the sets "1", "2" and "5":



Operations

- To perform the union, just let the root of a tree point to the root of the second.
- To perform find, follow the set name pointers from the start node to a self-referenced node!



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A heuristic

- Union via size:
 - When the union is carried out, the root of the smaller tree points to the root of the larger one
- $O(n \log n)$ time to perform *n* union- and find-operations:
 - Every time we follow a pointer, we come to a subtree that is at least twice as large as the previous subtree
 - Thus, we end up by following at most $O(\log n)$ pointers for any find.



Again, a heuristic

- Path compression:
 - After find"is done, compress all the pointers on the path just traversed so that they all point to the root



• $O(n\log^* n)$ time to perform *n* union- and find-operations.

4 Geometric search

4.1 Range search

Range search in a dimension

- Extension of ordered symbol tables
 - Insert key-value pair

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- Search key k
- Range search: find all keys between k_1 and k_2
- Range size: the number of keys between k_1 and k_2
- Application:
 - Database questions
- Geometric interpretation:
 - The keys are points on a line
 - Find/count points on a given range

insert B	в
insert D	BD
insert A	ABD
insert l	ABDI
insert H	ABDHI
insert F	ABDFHI
insert P	ABDFHIP
count G to K	2
search G to K	ні

```
•• •• •• •• •• ••
```

Range search in a dimension with BST

- Find all keys between k_1 and k_2
 - Find recursively all the keys in the left subtree (some may be in the range)
 - Check the key in the current node
 - Find recursively all the keys in the right subtree (some may be in the range)



Driving time is proportional to $R + \log N$

Range search in 2 dimensions

- Extension of ordered symbol table to 2d keys
 - Insert a 2d-key
 - Search the 2d-key
 - Range search: find all keys in a 2d-range
 - Range size: the number of keys in a 2d-range
- Applications:
 - Network, circuit design, databases
- Geometric interpretation:
 - The keys are points in the plane (2d)

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- Find/count points in a given rectangle



Range search in two dimensions with grid

- Divide up the plane in $M \times M$ -grid of squares
- Create list of points in each square
- Use 2d-array to directly index the relevant squares
- Interval search: check only the squares that overlap the issue



Clustering

- Grid implementation:
 - Fast, easy solution for well-distributed point sets
- Problem: Clustering a well-known problematic phenomenon of geometric data
 - The lists are too long, even though the average length is short
 - Need data structure that *adapts* to data



Clustering

- Grid implementation:
 - Fast, easy solution for well-distributed point sets
- Problem: Clustering a well-known problematic phenomenon of geometric data
 - For example, map data

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4.2 Tree structures

Tree structures

Use a tree to recursively split the (2d-surface) plane

- Grid: Divide the plane uniformly in squares
- Quadtree: Divide the plane recursively into four quadrants
- 2d-tree: Divide the plane recursively into 2 half-plane
- BSP-tree: Divide the plane recursively into 2 regions



Applications

- Ray-tracing
- Range search in 2 dimensions
- flight simulators
- collision detection
- Astronomical databases
- Search for the nearest neighbors
- Adaptive grid generation
- Accelerate rendering of Doom
- Remove hidden surfaces and shading



Quadtree

- Idea: Divide the plane recursively into four quadrants
- Implementation: 4-way tree (actually a trie)

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- Advantage: Good performance for clustering data
- Disadvantage: Arbitrary deep!

Quadtree: Range search in 2 dimensions

- Find recursively all the keys in the NE-quadrant (some may be in the range)
- Find recursively all the keys in the NW-quadrant (some may be in the range)
- Find recursively all the keys in the SE-quadrant (some may be in the range)
- Find recursively all the keys in the SW-quadrant (some may be in the range)



• Typical execution time: $R + \log N$

Dimensionality problem

- Range search in *k* dimensions
 - Main application: Multi-dimensional databases
 - 3d: Octree: recursively split up the 3D space in 8 oktanter
 - 100d: Centree: split up recuresively a 100d-space into 2¹⁰⁰?



http://graphics.cs.ucdavis.edu/~gregorsk/graphics/275.html

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2d-tree

Split up recursively the plane in 2 half-planes



2d-tree

- Data structure: BST, but uses *x* and *y*-coordinates as key
 - Search provides a rectangle containing point
 - Insertion under sub-parts further



2d-tree: Range search in 2 dimensions

Find all the points of the rectangle in question (in line with the coordinate axes)

- Check the points in node located in the given rectangle
- Search recursively in the left/upper subdivision (a few points can be found in the rectangle)
- Search recursively in the right/lower subdivision (a few points can be found in the rectangle)





- Typical execution time: $R + \log N$
- Worst case (assuming the tree is balanced): $R + \sqrt{N}$

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2d-tree: Search for nearest neighbor

Find the point closest to a given point

- Check the distance from the point in a node to the point in question
- Search recursively in the left/upper subdivision (that can contain nearer points)
- Search recursively in the right/lower subdivision (that can contain nearer points)
- Organize a recursive method so that it begins by searching for the query point



- Typical execution time: $\log N$
- Worst case (even if the tree is balanced): N

Kd-tree

- Kd-tree: Partition recuresively the k-dimensional space into two half spaces
 - Implementation: BST, but the cycling dimensions like 2d-trees



- Efficient, simple data structure to treat k-dimensional data
 - wide use
 - Adapts well to higher dimensional clustering and data
 - Discovered by a student (Jon Bentley) in an algorithm course!