

Föreläsning 16

Splay-trees, Heaps, Skip-lists

TDDD86: DALP

Utskriftsversion av Föreläsning i *Datastrukturer, algoritmer och programmeringsparadigm*
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IDA, Linköpings universitet

16.1

Content

Contents

1 Splay-trees	1
2 Priority queues	6
2.1 Heaps	8
3 Skip-lists	9

16.2

1 Splay-trees

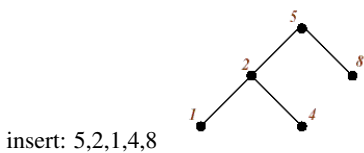
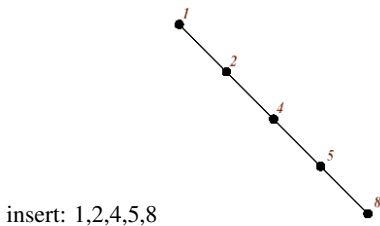
Binary search trees are not unique

Recall that binary search trees:

- Allow for simple insertion and deletion, but . . .
- "balance" depends on insertion and deletion orders.

Combine with the heuristic: "keep last used first"?

- Elements that currently most often used should be close to the root!



16.3

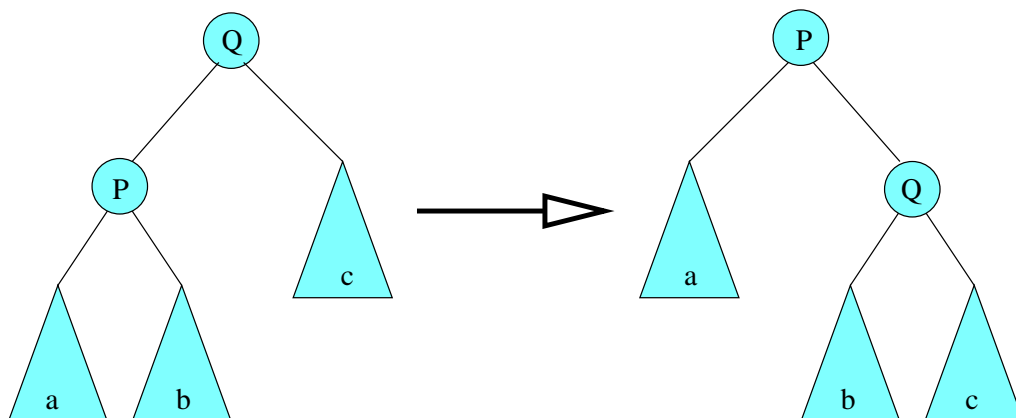
Operation $splay(k)$

- Perform a normal search for k , and remember the nodes we pass . . .
- Let P be the last node we visit
 - If k is in the tree T , then it is in P ,
 - otherwise, P is parent to an empty node in the tree
- Get back to the root and perform a rotation at each node to move P up in the tree . . . (3 cases)

16.4

Operation $splay(k)$

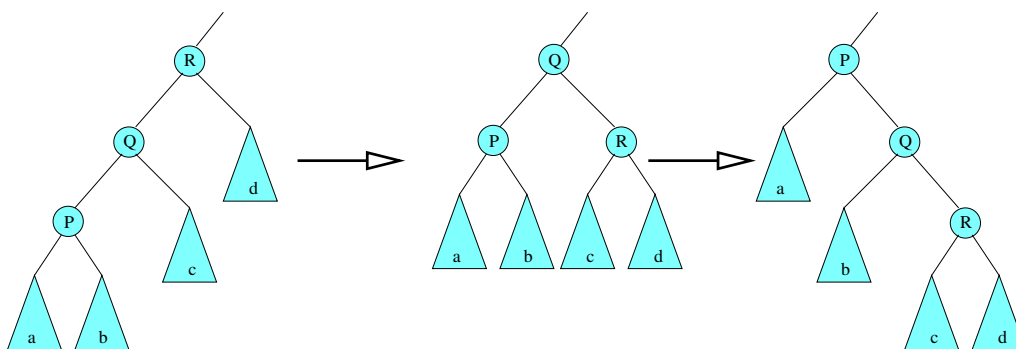
- **zig**: $parent(P)$ is root: rotate wrt. P



16.5

Operation $splay(k)$

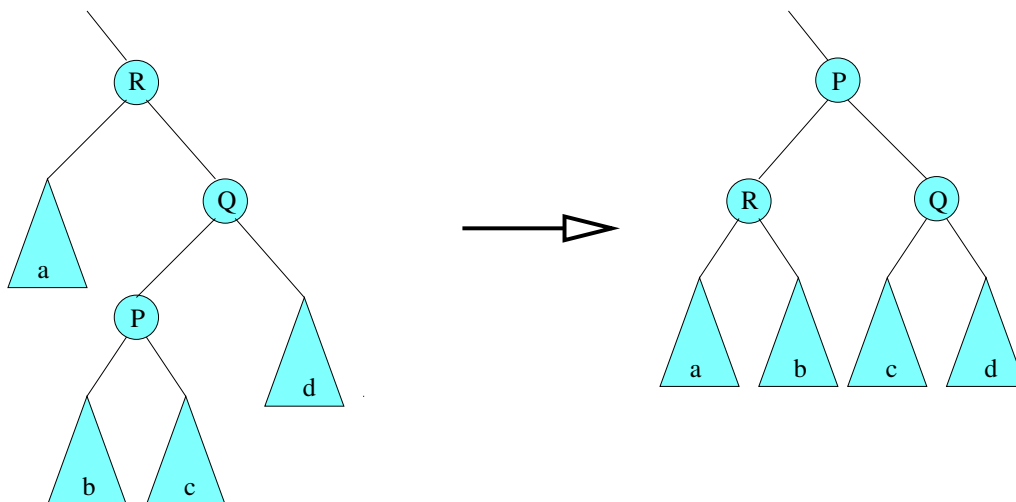
- **zig-zig**: P and $parent(P)$ are both left children (or both right children): perform two rotations to move P upwards



16.6

Operation $splay(k)$

- **zig-zag**: One of P and $parent(P)$ is a left child and the other is a right child: perform two different rotations



Observe that rotations can increase the height of the tree!

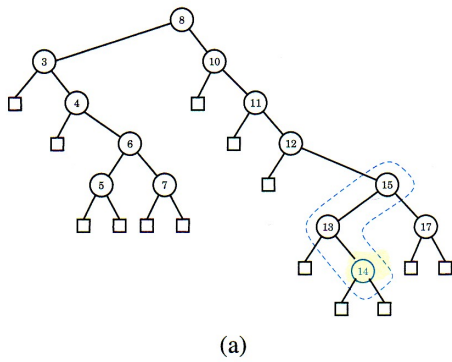
16.7

find and insert

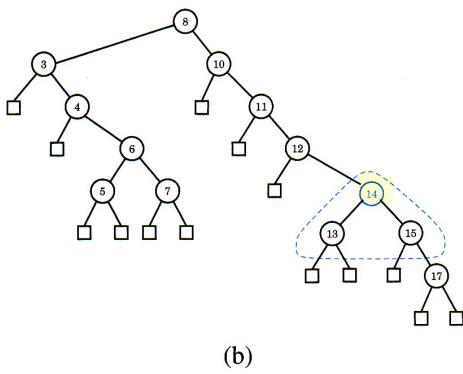
```
function FIND( $k, T$ )  
  SPLAY( $k, T$ )  
  if KEY(ROOT( $T$ )) =  $k$  then return ( $k, v$ )  
  else return null
```

```
function INSERT( $k, v, T$ )  
  insert ( $k, v$ ) as in a binary search tree  
  SPLAY( $k, T$ )
```

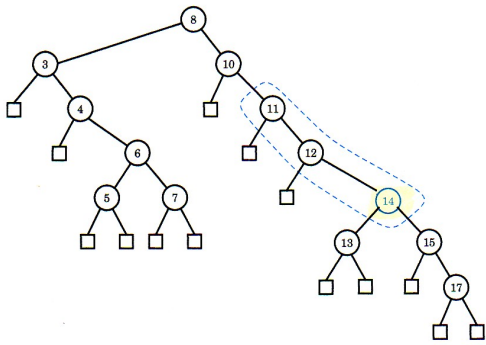
Example: insertion of 14



Example: insertion 14

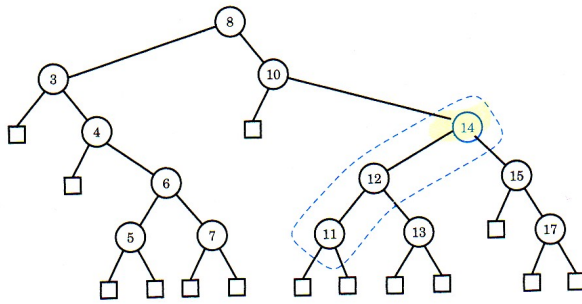


Example: insertion of 14



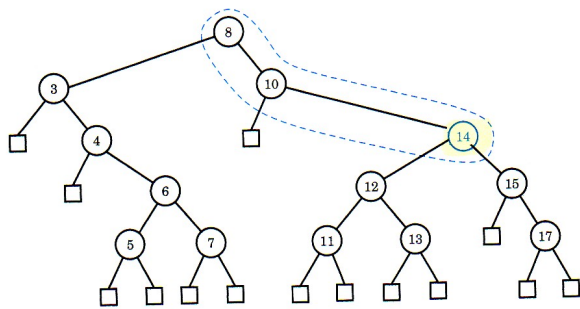
(c)

Example: insertion of 14



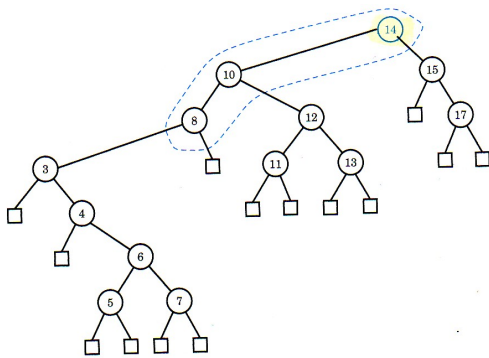
(d)

Example: insertion of 14



(e)

Example: insertion of 14



(f)

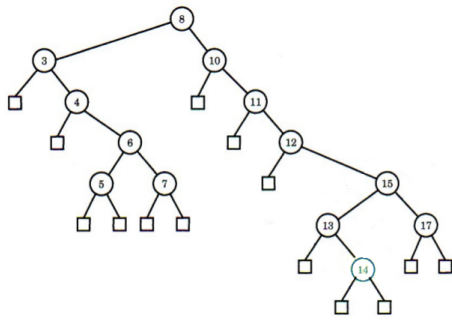
delete

```

function DELETE( $k, T$ )
  SPLAY( $k, T$ )
  if KEY(ROOT( $T$ )) =  $k$  then
    remove ROOT( $T$ ): gives  $T_{left}$  and  $T_{right}$ 
    do SPLAY on max value in  $T_{left}$ , gives  $T'_{left}$ 
    bind  $T_{right}$  to ROOT( $T'_{left}$ )
  
```

You can also use successor in inorder traversal.

Example: remove 8



16.16

Performance

- Each operation might need to be executed on unbalanced trees
 - no guaranty to achieve $O(\log n)$ in worst case
- Amortized time is logarithmic
 - each sequence of m operations, executed on an initially empty tree, take in total $O(m \log m)$ time complexity
 - therefore, the *amortized* cost for an operation is $O(\log n)$ even if individual operations can perform much worst

16.17

2 Priority queues

Priority queues

Naturally encountered:

- waiting lists (among tasks, events in a simulation)
- If a resource is free, choose an element from the waiting list
- Choice based on a partial/linear order:
 - task with highest priority is chosen
 - each event is to occur at some time, events are to be processed in time order

16.18

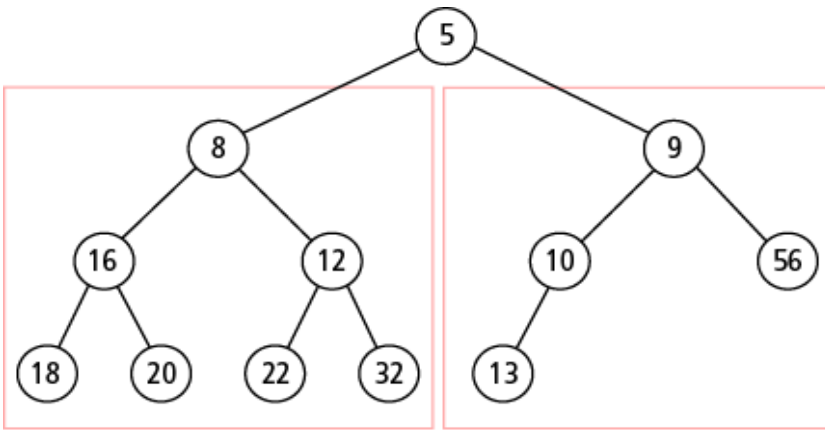
ADT priority queue

- Linearly ordered set of keys K
- We store pair (k, v) (as in a dictionary ADT), *multiple pairs with same key* are allowed
- A typical operation is to fetch a pair with a minimal key
- Operations on a priority queue P :
 - `makeEmptyPQ()`
 - `isEmpty()`
 - `size()`
 - `min()`: find pair (k, v) with minimal k in P ; return (k, v)
 - `insert(k, v)`: insert (k, v) in P
 - `removeMin()`: remove and return a pair (k, v) in P with a minimal k ; **error** if P is empty

16.19

Implementation of priority queues

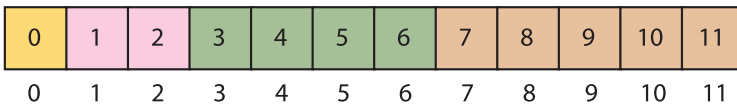
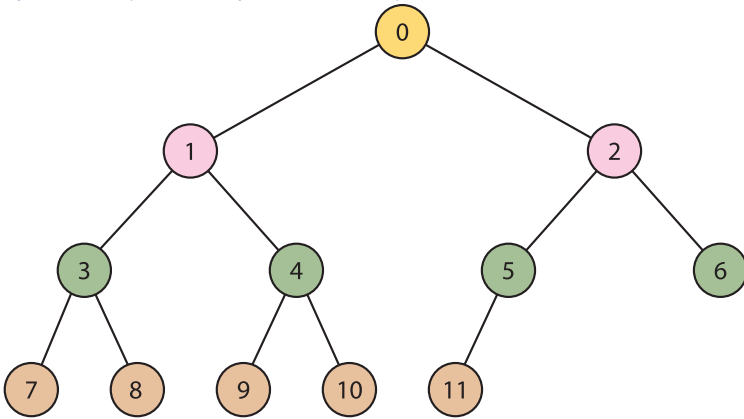
- One could use sorted linked lists or BSTs
- Another idea: use a complete binary tree where the root, in each (sub)tree, contains a minimal element in the (sub)tree



This is a partially sorted tree, also called a heap!

16.20

Complete binary tree: sequential memory

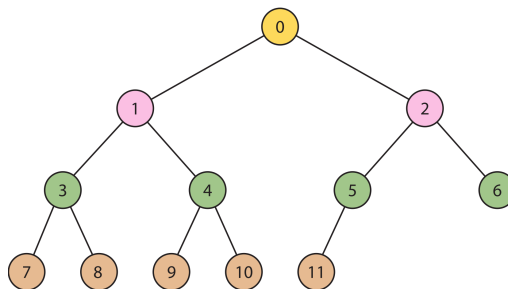


16.21

Sequential memory

Use a table table<key,info>[0..n-1]

- $\text{leftChild}(i) = 2i + 1$ (returns **null** if $2i + 1 \geq n$)
- $\text{rightChild}(i) = 2i + 2$ (returns **null** if $2i + 2 \geq n$)
- $\text{isLeaf}(i) = (i < n)$ and $(2i + 1 > n)$
- $\text{leftSibling}(i) = i - 1$ (returns **null** if $i = 0$ or $\text{odd}(i)$)
- $\text{rightSibling}(i) = i + 1$ (returns **null** if $i = n - 1$ or $\text{even}(i)$)
- $\text{parent}(i) = \lfloor (i - 1) / 2 \rfloor$ (returns **null** if $i = 0$)
- $\text{isRoot}(i) = (i = 0)$



16.22

2.1 Heaps

Updating a heap structure

- The **last leaf** is the last node when traversing level by level
- `removeMin(PQ)` // remove the root
 - Replace root with **last leaf**
 - Restore the partial ordering by pushing the node downwards with "down-heap bubbling"
- `insert(PQ, k, v)`
 - insert node (k, v) after the **last leaf**
 - Restore the partial order with "up-heap bubbling"

16.23

Properties

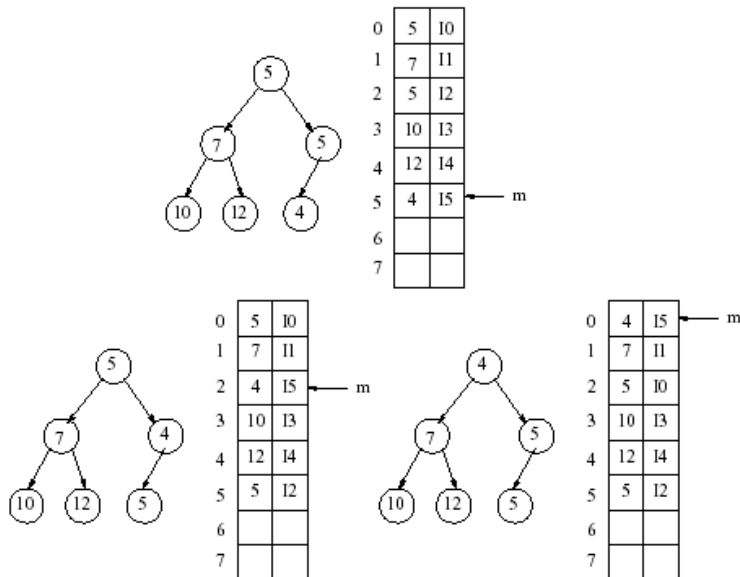
- `size()`, `isEmpty()`, `min()`: $O(1)$
- `insert()`, `removeMin()`: $O(\log n)$

Recall array representation of a complete binary tree ...

- Compact representation
- "Bubble-up" and "bubble-down" have efficient implementations

16.24

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



16.25

Recall ArrayList from lecture 7

- Write a class that implements an array of integers
 - We call it `ArrayList`
 - Behavior:
 - `add(value)` `insert(index, value)`
 - `get(index)` `set(index, value)`
 - `size()` `isEmpty()`
 - `remove(index)`
 - `indexOf(value)` `contains(value)`
 - `toString()`
 - ...
- The size of the list will be the number of elements inserted so far
 - The actual length of the array (capacity) can be larger. Start with a size of 10 by default.

16.26

Destructor

```

• // ClassName.h           // ClassName.cpp
  ~ClassName();           ClassName::~~ClassName() { ...

```

- Called when the object is destroyed by the program (when the object goes out of scope or delete is used)
- Can be useful to:
 - * free temporary resources
 - * free dynamically allocated memory used by the members

- Does ArrayList need a destructor? What should it do?
 - Yes; to free the memory associated with storing elements

16.27

Increase capacity

index	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
value	3	8	9	7	5	12	4	8	1	6
size	10		capacity	10						

- What if the users wants to add more than ten elements?

```
list.add(75) //add a 11th element
```

index	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
value	3	8	9	7	5	12	4	8	1	6	75	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
size	11		capacity	20																

- Answer: double the size of the field
 - Do not forget to release the memory used by the old array!
 - ```
int* a = new int[10];
int* b = new int[20];
std::copy(a, a+10, b); // Do not use memcpy(b, a, 10 * sizeof(int))!
delete[] a;
a = b;
std::copy(first, after, output);
```

16.28

## Amortised analysis

We want a new type of array that automatically increase available size when full (when the number of elements  $n$  is same as the capacity  $N$ ). Suppose the array always insert new element in the first free position:

- Allocate a new array  $B$  with capacity  $2N$
- Copy  $A[i]$  to  $B[i]$ , for  $i = 0, \dots, N - 1$
- Lets  $A = B$ , we let  $B$  take over the role  $A$  had.

In term of effectiveness, expanding the array is slow. But the algorithmic complexity is:

- $O(1)$  most of the time
- $O(n)$  for copying  $n$  element and  $O(1)$  for inserting after reallocation.

16.29

## 3 Skip-lists

### Skip-lists

- A hierarchical linked list...
- A randomized alternative to implementing a dictionary ADT
- Insertion uses randomization ("coin tossing")
- Good expected performance
- Worst behavior occurs extremely rarely (for more than 250 data elements, the risk that the search time is more than 3 times the expected time is less than  $10^{-6}$ )

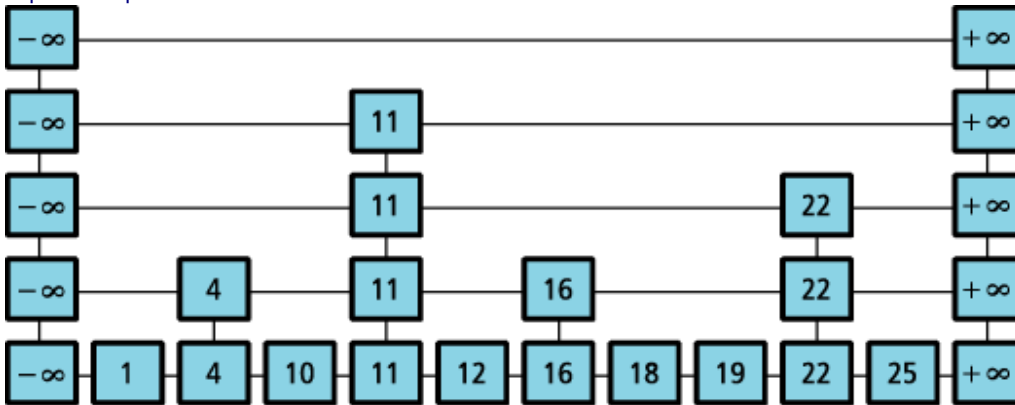
16.30

## The skip-list data-structure

- Levels  $L_1, \dots, L_h$  of nodes (keys, values)
- Same nodes on several levels (tower)
- Special keys:  $-\infty$  and  $+\infty$  ... smaller/larger than all real keys...
- Several levels of doubly linked lists, the higher the parser
  - Level 1: all nodes are part of a doubly linked list from  $-\infty$  to  $+\infty$ , ordered according to ' $<$ '-relation
  - In average, half the nodes from  $L_i$  are also part of  $L_{i+1}$
  - Special keys  $-\infty$  and  $+\infty$  are part of all levels
  - Only  $-\infty$  and  $+\infty$  are part of  $L_h$

16.31

### Example: a skip-list



16.32

### Search

Search key  $k$ :

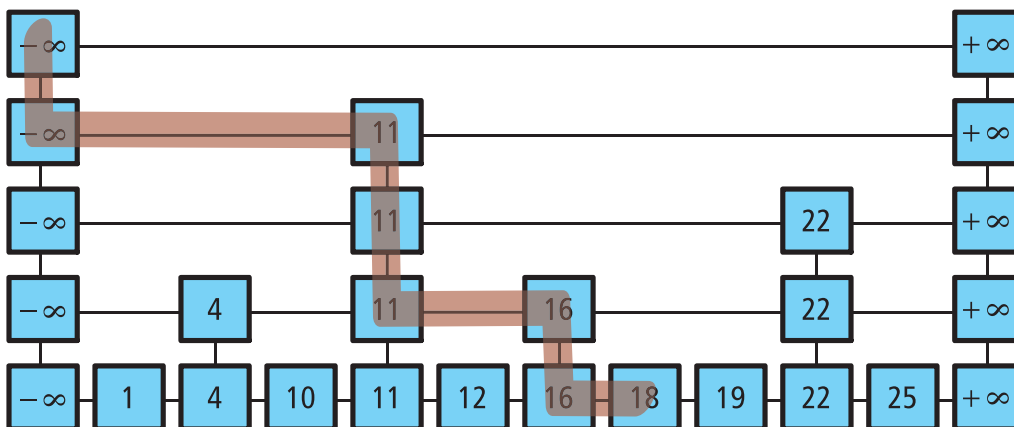
- Follow the list at the highest level...
  - Stop just before passing some  $k_i > k$
  - If found  $k$ , return the result, otherwise ...
- We stopped at some level:
  - Did we find the key?
  - No, change the lower level (using the "last tower") and continue searching
  - Return: largest key  $k_i \leq k$  (which could be  $+\infty$ )

16.33

### Searching

Searching for key  $k$ :

- Similarities with binary search, but for lists
- Example: `find(18)`



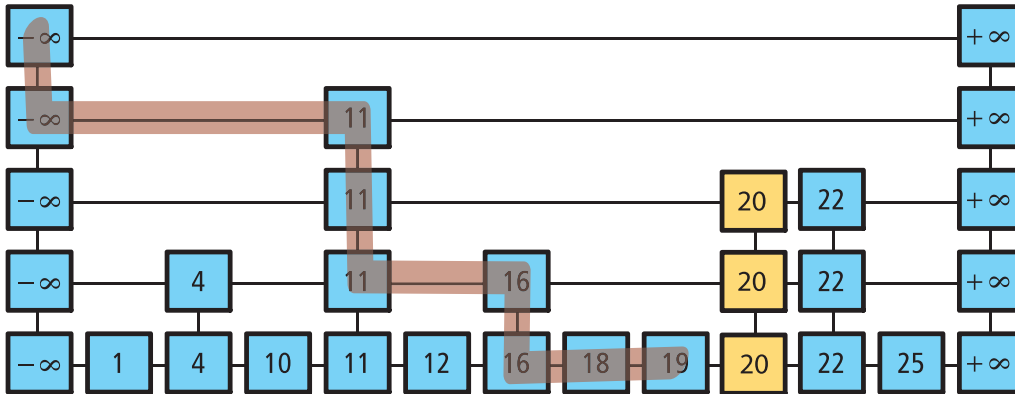
16.34

## Insert

```
function INSERT(x)
 $P \leftarrow$ FIND(x)
 if $P.value < x$ then
 insert a new node after P
 "toss a coin" to decide how high the "tower" should be:
 while "tossing a coin"=yes do
 increase tower with one level
 (might increase the height of the skip-list)
```

16.35

## Example: insert(20)



16.36

## Deletion . . . and properties

- Similar to search:
  - Search
  - if found, remove and repair links between the towers
- Worst case for **find**, **insert** and **remove** in a skip-list with  $n$  elements is  $O(n + h)$
- But expected execution time (assuming the keys are uniformly distributed) is  $O(\log n)$  if the search starts at height  $\lfloor \log n \rfloor$

16.37