CS 240 - Data Structures and Data Management

Module 5: Other Dictionary Implementations

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Outline

- Dictionaries with Lists revisited
 - Dictionary ADT: Implementations thus far
 - Skip Lists
 - Biased Search Requests

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Dictionary ADT: Implementations thus far

A *dictionary* is a collection of key-value pairs (KVPs), supporting operations *search*, *insert*, and *delete*.

Realizations we have seen so far:

- Unordered array or list: $\Theta(1)$ insert, $\Theta(n)$ search and delete
- Ordered array: $\Theta(\log n)$ search, $\Theta(n)$ insert and delete
- Binary search trees: $\Theta(height)$ search, insert and delete
- Balanced Binary Search trees (AVL trees):
 - $\Theta(\log n)$ search, insert, and delete

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Improvements/Simplifications?

- Can show: If the KVPs were inserted in random order, then the expected height of the binary search tree would be $O(\log n)$.
- How can we use randomization within the data structure to mirror what would happen on random input?

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Towards Skip Lists

We did not consider an ordered list as realization of ADT Dictionary. Why?

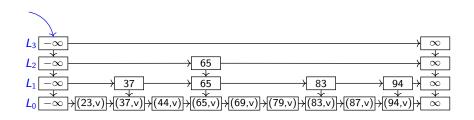
- insert and delete take $\Theta(1)$ time in an ordered lists, once we know the place where to do them.
- The bottleneck is search:
 - In an ordered array, we can do binary search to achieve O(log n) run-time.
 - ▶ In an ordered list, we cannot 'skip to the middle' and so cannot do binary search.
 - ▶ Therefore *search* takes $\Theta(n)$ time in an ordered list—too slow.

Idea: To speed up search in an ordered list, add more links to help us skip forward quicker. Choose randomly when to add such links.

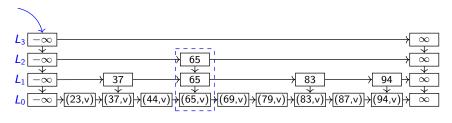
Skip Lists

A hierarchy of ordered linked lists (*levels*) L_0, L_1, \dots, L_h :

- Each list L_i contains the special keys $-\infty$ and $+\infty$ (sentinels)
- List L_0 contains the KVPs of S in non-decreasing order. (The other lists store only keys and references.)
- Each list is a subsequence of the previous one, i.e., $L_0 \supseteq L_1 \supseteq \cdots \supseteq L_h$
- List L_h contains only the sentinels



Skip Lists



A few more definitions:

- node = entry in one list vs. KVP = one non-sentinel entry in L_0
- There are (usually) more *nodes* than KVPs Here # (non-sentinel) nodes = 14 vs. $n \leftarrow \#$ KVPs = 9.
- root = topmost left sentinel is the only field of the skip list.
- Each node p has references p.after and p.below
- Each key k belongs to a tower of nodes
 - ▶ Height of tower of k: maximal index i such that $k \in L_i$
 - ▶ Height of skip list: maximal index h such that L_h exists

Search in Skip Lists

For each list, find **predecessor** (node before where k would be). This will also be useful for *insert*/*delete*.

```
get-predecessors (k)

1. p \leftarrow \text{root}

2. P \leftarrow \text{stack of nodes, initially containing } p

3. while p.below \neq \text{NULL do}

4. p \leftarrow p.below

5. while p.after.key < k \text{ do } p \leftarrow p.after

6. P.push(p)

7. return P
```

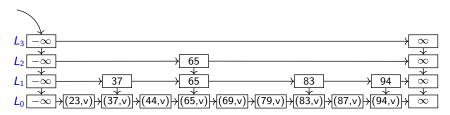
```
skipList::search (k)

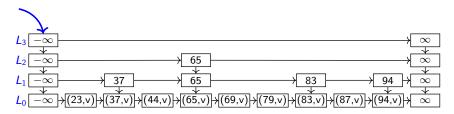
1. P \leftarrow get\text{-}predecessors(k)

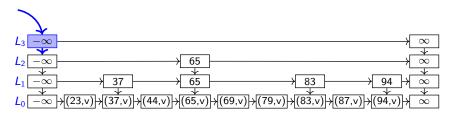
2. p_0 \leftarrow P.top() // predecessor of k in L_0

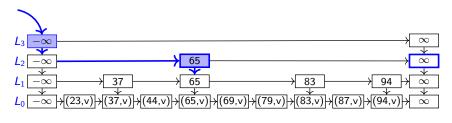
3. if p_0.after.key = k return KVP at p_0.after

4. else return "not found, but would be after p_0"
```



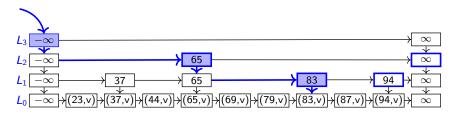






- key compared with k
- added to P
- \longrightarrow path taken by p

Example: search(87)

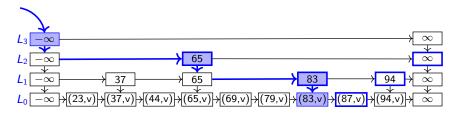


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Final stack returned:



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key compared with k

added to P

path taken by *p*

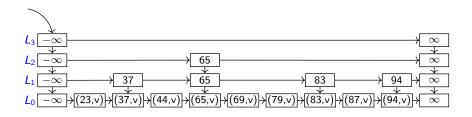
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Delete in Skip Lists

It is easy to remove a key since we can find all predecessors. Then eliminate lists if there are multiple ones with only sentinels.

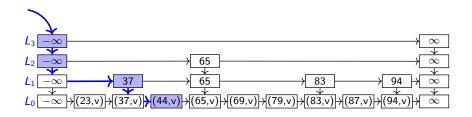
```
skipList::delete(k)
1. P \leftarrow get\text{-}predecessors(k)
2. while P is non-empty
3. p \leftarrow P.pop() // predecessor of k in some list
4. if p.after.kev = k
              p.after \leftarrow p.after.after
5.
         else break // no more copies of k
6.
   p \leftarrow left sentinel of the root-list
    while p.below.after is the \infty-sentinel
         // the two top lists are both only sentinels, remove one
         p.below \leftarrow p.below.below
         p.after.below \leftarrow p.after.below.below
10.
```

Example: skipList::delete(65)



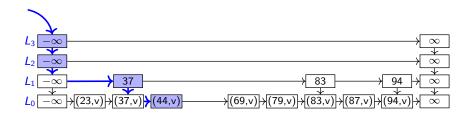
Example: skipList::delete(65)

get-predecessors(65)



Example: *skipList::delete*(65)

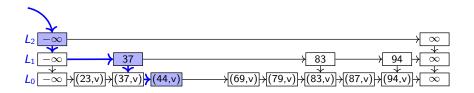
get-predecessors(65)



Example: skipList::delete(65)

get-predecessors(65)

Height decrease



skipList::insert(k, v)

- There is no choice as to where to put the tower of *k*.
- Only choice: how tall should we make the tower of k?
 - ► Choose *randomly*! Repeatedly toss a coin until you get tails
 - ▶ Let *i* the number of times the coin came up heads
 - ▶ We want key k to be in lists $L_0, ..., L_i$, so $i \rightarrow height$ of tower of k

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 - Add sentinel-only lists, if needed, until height h satisfies h > i.

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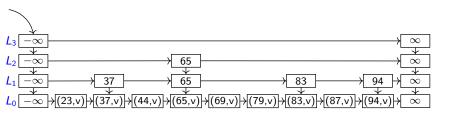
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- Before we can insert, we must check that these lists exist.
 - Add sentinel-only lists, if needed, until height h satisfies h > i.
- Then do the actual insertion.
 - ▶ Use *get-predecessors*(*k*) to get stack *P*.
 - ▶ The top *i* items of *P* are the predecessors p_0, p_1, \dots, p_i of where *k* should be in each list L_0, L_1, \dots, L_i
 - ▶ Insert (k, v) after p_0 in L_0 , and k after p_i in L_i for $1 \le j \le i$

Example: skipList::insert(52, v)

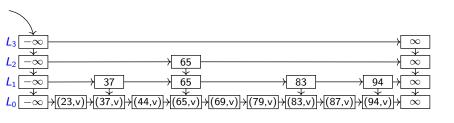
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Example: skipList::insert(52, v)

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Have $h = 3 > i \Rightarrow$ no need to add lists

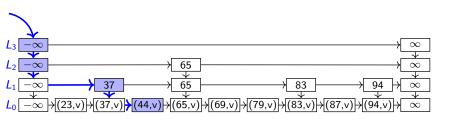


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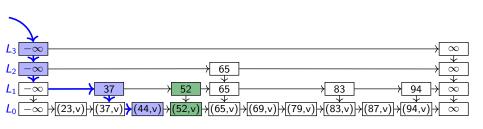
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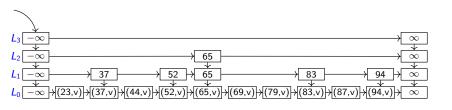
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get-predecessors(52)

Insert 52 in lists L_0, \ldots, L_i

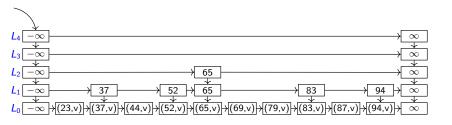


Example: skipList::insert(100, v)Coin tosses: H,H,H,T $\Rightarrow i = 3$



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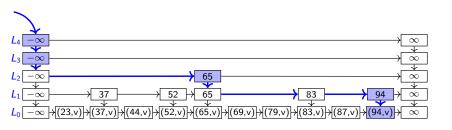
Height increase



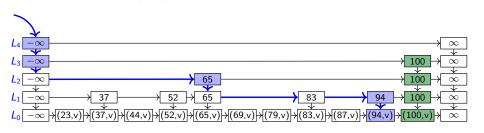
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Height increase

get-predecessors(100)



```
Example: skipList::insert(100, v)
Coin tosses: H,H,H,T \Rightarrow i = 3
Height increase
get-predecessors(100)
Insert 100 in lists L_0, \ldots, L_i
```



```
skipList::insert(k, v)
 1. for (i \leftarrow 0; random(2) = 1; i++) \{\} // random tower height
     for (h \leftarrow 0, p \leftarrow root.below; p \neq NULL; p \leftarrow p.below, h++) \{\}
     while i > h
                                                   // increase skip-list height?
           create new sentinel-only list; link it in below topmost list
4.
 5. h++
 6. P \leftarrow get\text{-}predecessors(k)
 7. p \leftarrow P.pop()
                                                    // insert (k, v) in L_0
 8. z_{below} \leftarrow new node with (k, v);
     z_{below}.after \leftarrow p.after, p.after \leftarrow z_{below}
                                                    // insert k in L_1, \ldots, L_i
 10. while i > 0
 11. p \leftarrow P.pop()
 12. z \leftarrow new node with k
 13. z.after \leftarrow p.after; p.after \leftarrow z; z.below \leftarrow z_{below}; z_{below} \leftarrow z
 14. i \leftarrow i - 1
```

Analysis of Skip Lists

- Expected **space** usage: O(n)
 - ▶ Set X_k = tower height of key k. Recall $\Pr(X_k \ge i) = (\frac{1}{2})^i$.

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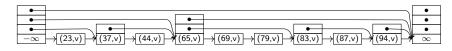
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- Expected **height**: $O(\log n)$. [Similar (longer) proof omitted.]
- skipList::get-predecessors: O(log n) expected time
 - ▶ How often do we *drop down* (execute $p \leftarrow p.below$)? *height*.
 - ► How often do we *step forward* (execute $p \leftarrow p.after$)? Can show: expect to step forward at most once in each list

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 - ► How often do we drop down (execute p ← p.below)? height.
 - ► How often do we step forward (execute p ← p.after)?
 Can show: expect to step forward at most once in each list
- So search, insert, delete: $O(\log n)$ expected time

Summary of Skip Lists

- O(n) expected space, all operations take $O(\log n)$ expected time.
- Lists make it easy to implement. We can also easily add more operations (e.g. *successor*, *merge*,...)
- As described they are no better than randomized binary search trees.
- But there are numerous improvements on the space:
 - Can save links (hence space) by implementing towers as array.



- ▶ Biased coin-flips to determine tower-heights give smaller expected space
- ▶ With both ideas, expected space is < 2n (less than for a BST).

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Improving unsorted lists/arrays

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 1
 2
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 90
 30
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Recall unsorted array realization:

- search: $\Theta(n)$, insert: $\Theta(1)$, delete: $\Theta(1)$ (after a search)
- Very simple and popular. Can we do something to make search more effective in practice?

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Recall *unsorted array* realization:

- search: $\Theta(n)$, insert: $\Theta(1)$, delete: $\Theta(1)$ (after a search)
- Very simple and popular. Can we do something to make search more effective in practice?
- No: if items are accessed equally likely. We can show that the average-case cost for *search* is then $\Theta(n)$.
- Yes: if the search requests are biased: some items are accessed much more frequently than others.
 - ▶ 80/20 rule: 80% of outcomes result from 20% of causes.
 - access: insertion or successful search
 - Intuition: Frequently accessed items should be in the front.
 - ▶ Two scenarios: Do we know the access distribution beforehand or not?

Optimal Static Ordering

Scenario: We know access distribution, and want the best order of a list.

Example:

Recall:
$$T^{avg}(n) = \sum_{I \in \mathcal{I}_n} T(I) \cdot \text{(relative frequency of } I)$$

= expected run-time on randomly chosen input
= $\sum_{I \in \mathcal{I}_n} T(I) \cdot \text{Pr(randomly chosen instance is } I)$

Optimal Static Ordering

Scenario: We know access distribution, and want the best order of a list.

Example:

key	A	В	C	D	E
frequency of access	2	8	1	10	5
access-probability	$\frac{2}{26}$	<u>8</u> 26	$\frac{1}{26}$	$\frac{10}{26}$	<u>5</u> 26

Recall:
$$T^{avg}(n) = \sum_{I \in \mathcal{I}_n} T(I) \cdot (\text{relative frequency of } I)$$

= expected run-time on randomly chosen input
= $\sum_{I \in \mathcal{I}_n} T(I) \cdot \text{Pr}(\text{randomly chosen instance is } I)$

- Count cost i if search-key (= instance I) is at ith position ($i \ge 1$).
- $T^{avg}(n)$ =expected access cost = $\sum_{i\geq 1} i \cdot \underbrace{\Pr\left(\text{search for key at position } i\right)}_{\text{access-probability of that key}}$
- Example: Order ABBCDDE has expected access cost $\frac{2}{26} \cdot 1 + \frac{8}{26} \cdot 2 + \frac{1}{26} \cdot 3 + \frac{10}{26} \cdot 4 + \frac{5}{26} \cdot 5 = \frac{86}{26} \approx 3.31$

Optimal Static Ordering

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- Order D B E A C is better! $\frac{10}{26} \cdot 1 + \frac{8}{26} \cdot 2 + \frac{5}{26} \cdot 3 + \frac{2}{26} \cdot 4 + \frac{1}{26} \cdot 5 = \frac{66}{26} \approx 2.54$

Claim: Over all possible static orderings, the one that sorts items by non-increasing access-probability minimizes the expected access cost.

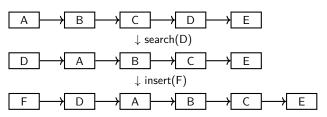
Proof:

- Consider any other ordering.
- How can we improve its access cost?

Dynamic Ordering: MTF

Scenario: We do *not know the access probabilities* ahead of time.

- Idea: modify the order dynamically, i.e., while we are accessing.
- Rule of thumb (temporal locality): A recently accessed item is likely to be used soon again.
- Move-To-Front heuristic (MTF): Upon a successful search, move the accessed item to the front of the list

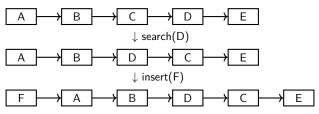


• We can also do MTF on an array, but should then insert and search from the *back* so that we have room to grow.

Dynamic Ordering: other ideas

There are other heuristics we could use:

• Transpose heuristic: Upon a successful search, swap the accessed item with the item immediately preceding it

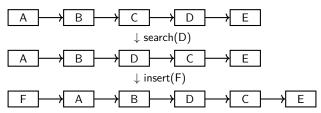


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Dynamic Ordering: other ideas

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Here the changes are more gradual.

 Frequency-count heuristic: Keep counters how often items were accessed, and sort in non-decreasing order.
 Works well in practice, but requires auxiliary space.

Summary of biased search requests

- We are unlikely to know the access-probabilities of items, so optimal static order is mostly of theoretical interest.
- For any dynamic reordering heuristic, some sequence will defeat it (have $\Theta(n)$ access-cost for each item).
- MTF and Frequency-count work well in practice.

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- For MTF, can also prove theoretical guarantees.
 - ▶ MTF is an *online* algorithm: Decide based on incomplete information.

 - Compare it to the best offline algorithm (has complete information).
 Here, best offline-algorithm builds optimal static ordering.
 Can show: MTF is "2-competitive": cost(MTF) ≤ 2 · cost(OPT).

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 - MTF is an *online* algorithm: Decide based on incomplete information.
 Compare it to the best *offline* algorithm (has complete information).
 Here, best offline-algorithm builds optimal static ordering.
 Can show: MTF is "2-competitive": cost(MTF) ≤ 2 · cost(OPT).
- There is very little overhead for MTF and other strategies; they should be applied whenever unordered lists or arrays are used $(\rightarrow \mathsf{Hashing}, \mathsf{text} \mathsf{compression}).$