



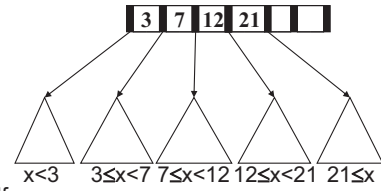
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Lecture 10: More B Trees; Hashing

Dan Grossman
Spring 2012

B Tree Review

- M-ary tree with room for L data items at each leaf
- Order property: Subtree **between** keys x and y contains only data that is $\geq x$ and $< y$ (notice the \geq)
- Balance property: All nodes and leaves at least half full, and all leaves at same height
- find and insert efficient
 - insert uses *splitting* to handle overflow, which may require splitting parent, and so on recursively



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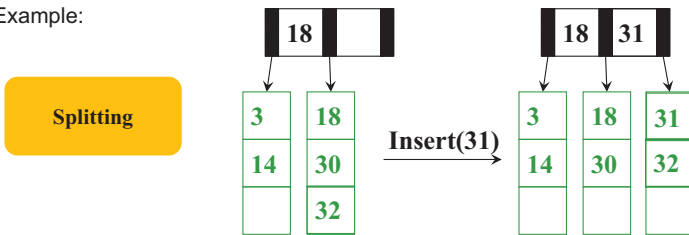
Can do a little better with insert

Eventually have to split up to the root (the tree will fill)

But can sometimes avoid splitting via *adoption*

- Change what leaf is correct by changing parent keys
- This idea "in reverse" is necessary in deletion (next)

Example:



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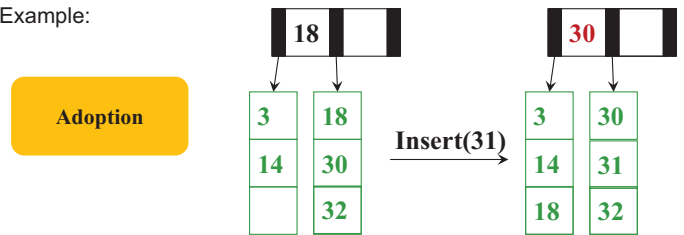
Adoption for insert

Eventually have to split up to the root (the tree will fill)

But can sometimes avoid splitting via *adoption*

- Change what leaf is correct by changing parent keys
- This idea "in reverse" is necessary in deletion (next)

Example:

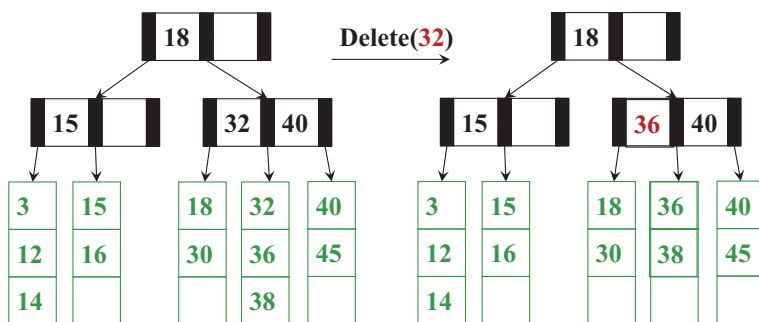


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Deletion

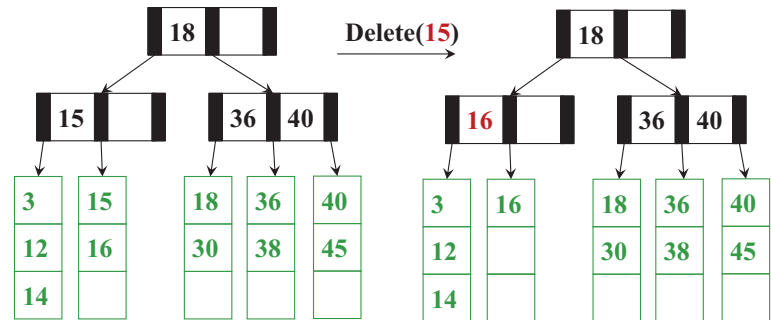


$M = 3 \quad L = 3$

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$M = 3 \quad L = 3$

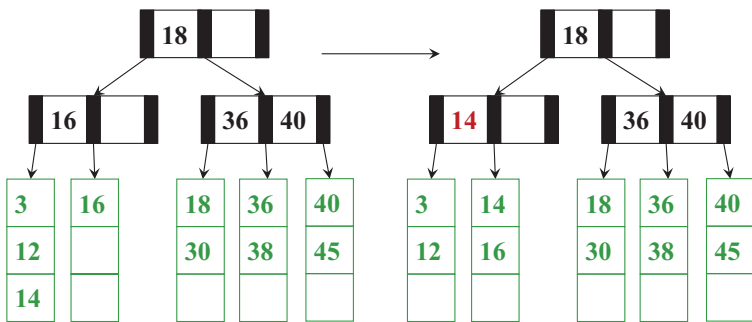
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What's wrong?

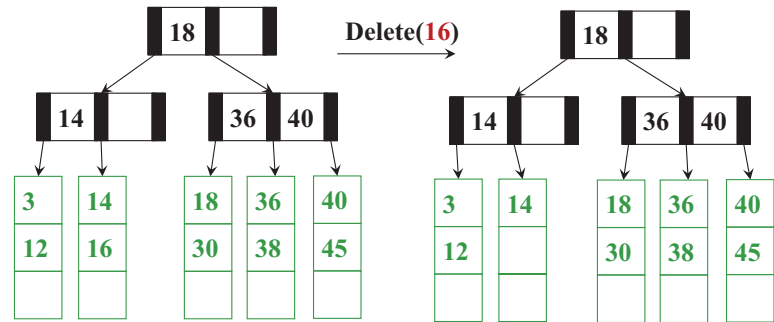
Adopt from a neighbor!



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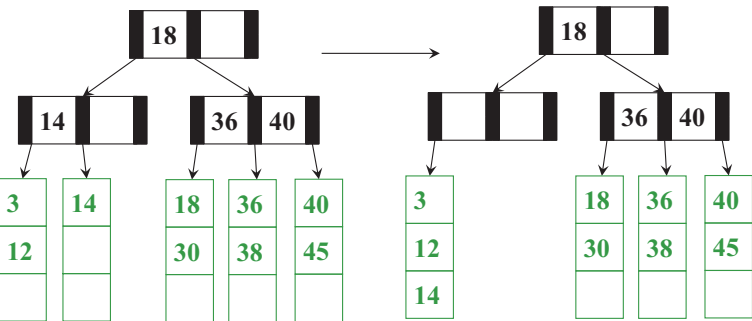


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Uh-oh, neighbors at their minimum!

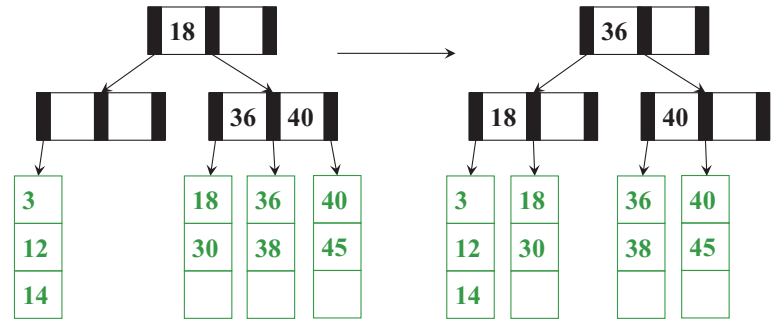


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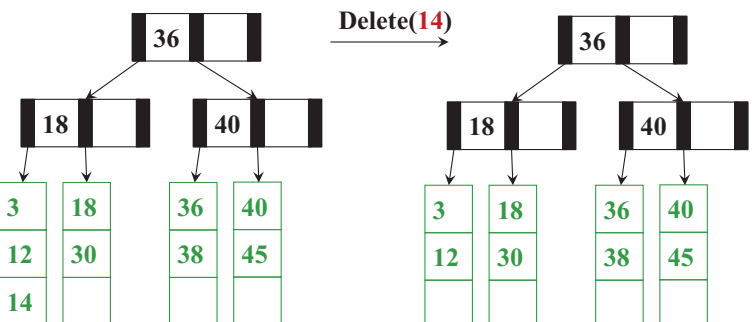
Move in together and remove leaf – now parent might underflow; it has neighbors



$M = 3 \quad L = 3$
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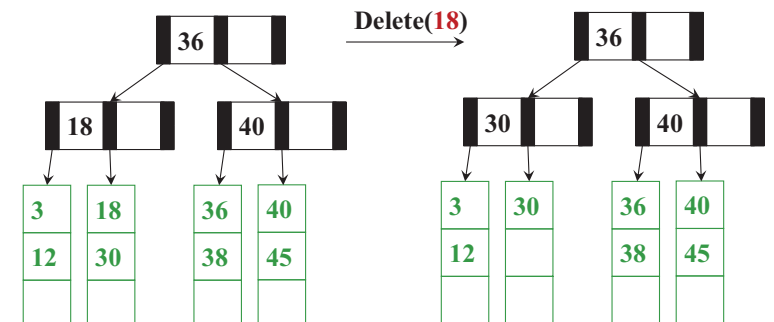
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$M = 3 \quad L = 3$
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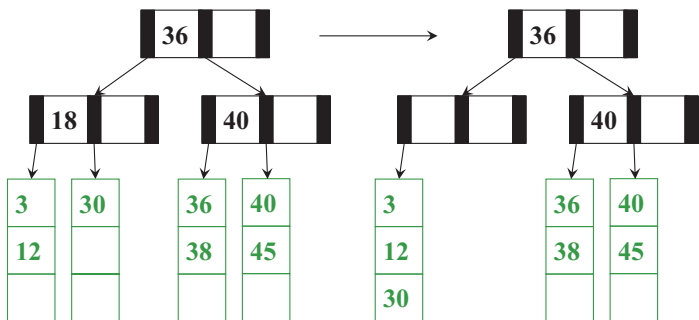
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$M = 3 \quad L = 3$
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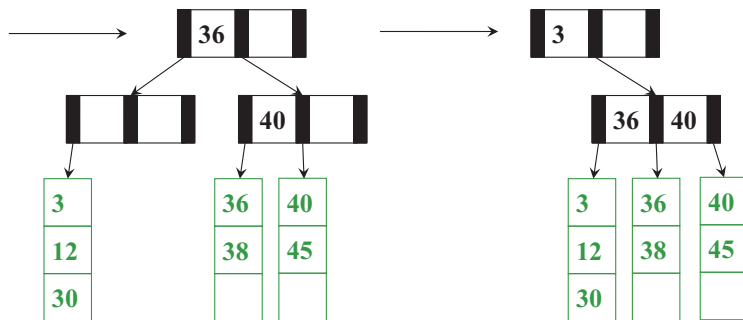


$M = 3 \quad L = 3$

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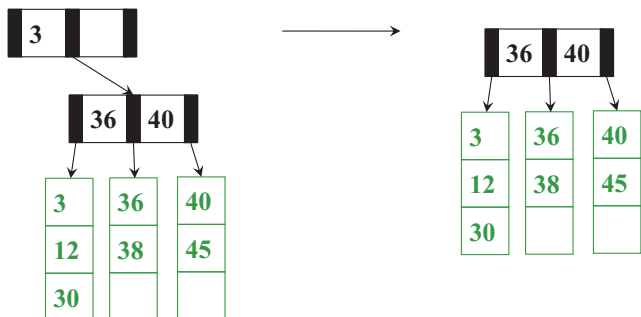


$M = 3 \quad L = 3$

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$M = 3 \quad L = 3$

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Deletion algorithm, part 1

1. Remove the data from its leaf
2. If the leaf now has $\lceil L/2 \rceil - 1$, *underflow!*
 - If a neighbor has $> \lceil L/2 \rceil$ items, *adopt* and update parent
 - Else *merge* node with neighbor
 - Guaranteed to have a legal number of items
 - Parent now has one less node
3. If step (2) caused the parent to have $\lceil M/2 \rceil - 1$ children, *underflow!*
 - ...

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Deletion algorithm continued

3. If an internal node has $\lceil M/2 \rceil - 1$ children
 - If a neighbor has $> \lceil M/2 \rceil$ items, *adopt* and update parent
 - Else *merge* node with neighbor
 - Guaranteed to have a legal number of items
 - Parent now has one less node, may need to continue underflowing up the tree

Fine if we merge all the way up through the root

- Unless the root went from 2 children to 1
- In that case, delete the root and make child the root
- This is the only case that decreases tree height

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Worst-Case Efficiency of Delete

- Find correct leaf: $O(\log_2 M \log_M n)$
- Remove from leaf: $O(L)$
- Adopt from or merge with neighbor: $O(L)$
- Adopt or merge all the way up to root: $O(M \log_M n)$

Total: $O(L + M \log_M n)$

But it's not that bad:

- Merges are not that common
- Disk accesses are the name of the game: $O(\log_M n)$

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B Trees in Java?

For most of our data structures, we have encouraged writing high-level, reusable code, such as in Java with generics

It is worthwhile to know enough about “how Java works” to understand why this is probably a bad idea for B trees

- If you just want a balanced tree with worst-case logarithmic operations, no problem
 - If $M=3$, this is called a 2-3 tree
 - If $M=4$, this is called a 2-3-4 tree
- Assuming our goal is efficient number of disk accesses
 - Java has many advantages, but it wasn't designed for this

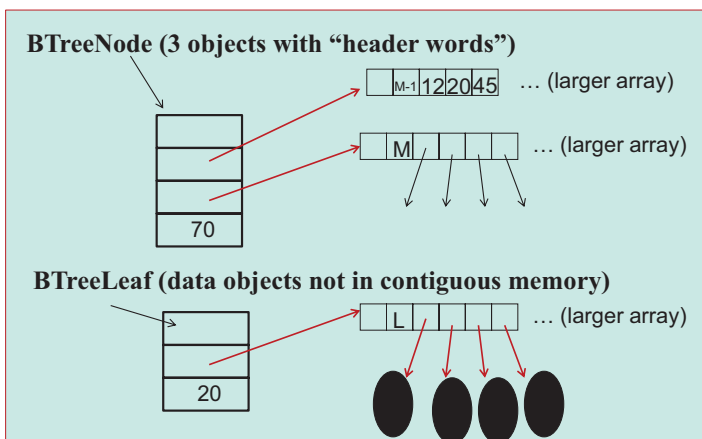
The key issue is extra *levels of indirection*...

Naïve approach

Even if we assume data items have `int` keys, you cannot get the data representation you want for “really big data”

```
interface Keyed {
    int getKey();
}
class BTreeNode<E implements Keyed> {
    static final int M = 128;
    int[] keys = new int[M-1];
    BTreeNode<E>[] children = new BTreeNode[M];
    int numChildren = 0;
    ...
}
class BTreeLeaf<E implements Keyed> {
    static final int L = 32;
    E[] data = (E[])new Object[L];
    int numItems = 0;
    ...
}
```

What that looks like



The moral

- The point of B trees is to keep related data in contiguous memory
- All the red references on the previous slide are inappropriate
 - As minor point, beware the extra “header words”
- But that’s “the best you can do” in Java
 - Again, the advantage is generic, reusable code
 - But for your performance-critical web-index, not the way to implement your B-Tree for terabytes of data
- Other languages (e.g., C++) have better support for “flattening objects into arrays”
- Levels of indirection matter!

Conclusion: Balanced Trees

- *Balanced* trees make good dictionaries because they guarantee logarithmic-time **find**, **insert**, and **delete**
 - Essential and beautiful computer science
 - But only if you can maintain balance within the time bound
- **AVL trees** maintain balance by tracking height and allowing all children to differ in height by at most 1
- **B trees** maintain balance by keeping nodes at least half full and all leaves at same height
- Other great balanced trees (see text; worth knowing they exist)
 - **Red-black trees**: all leaves have depth within a factor of 2
 - **Splay trees**: self-adjusting; amortized guarantee; no extra space for height information

Motivating Hash Tables

For dictionary with n key/value pairs

	insert	find	delete
• Unsorted linked-list	$O(1)$	$O(n)$	$O(n)$
• Unsorted array	$O(1)$	$O(n)$	$O(n)$
• Sorted linked list	$O(n)$	$O(n)$	$O(n)$
• Sorted array	$O(n)$	$O(\log n)$	$O(n)$
• <i>Balanced</i> tree	$O(\log n)$	$O(\log n)$	$O(\log n)$
• <i>Magic array</i>	$O(1)$	$O(1)$	$O(1)$

Sufficient “magic”:

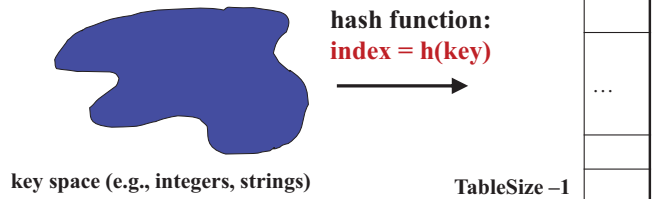
- Compute array index for an item in $O(1)$ time [doable]
- Have a different index for every item [magic]

Hash Tables

- Aim for constant-time (i.e., $O(1)$) **find**, **insert**, and **delete**
 - “On average” under some often-reasonable **assumptions**

- A hash table is an array of some fixed size

- Basic idea:



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Hash Tables vs. Balanced Trees

- In terms of a Dictionary ADT for just **insert**, **find**, **delete**, hash tables and balanced trees are just different data structures
 - Hash tables $O(1)$ on average (*assuming few collisions*)
 - Balanced trees $O(\log n)$ worst-case
- Constant-time is better, right?
 - Yes, but you need “hashing to behave” (must avoid collisions)
 - Yes, but **findMin**, **findMax**, **predecessor**, and **successor** go from $O(\log n)$ to $O(n)$, **printSorted** from $O(n)$ to $O(n \log n)$
 - Why your textbook considers this to be a different ADT
 - Not so important to argue over the definitions

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Hash Tables

- There are m possible keys (m typically large, even infinite)
- We expect our table to have only n items
- n is much less than m (often written $n \ll m$)

Many dictionaries have this property

- Compiler: All possible identifiers allowed by the language vs. those used in some file of one program
- Database: All possible student names vs. students enrolled
- AI: All possible chess-board configurations vs. those considered by the current player
- ...

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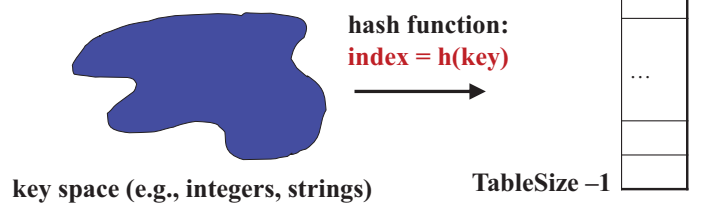
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Hash functions

An ideal hash function:

- Is fast to compute
- “Rarely” hashes two “used” keys to the same index
 - Often impossible in theory; easy in practice
 - Will handle *collisions* in next lecture



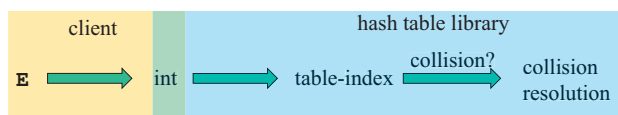
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Who hashes what?

- Hash tables can be generic
 - To store elements of type **E**, we just need **E** to be:
 1. Comparable: order any two **E** (as with all dictionaries)
 2. Hashable: convert any **E** to an **int**
- When hash tables are a reusable library, the division of responsibility generally breaks down into two roles:



- We will learn both roles, but most programmers “in the real world” spend more time as clients while understanding the library

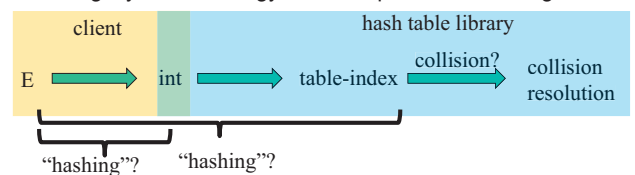
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More on roles

Some ambiguity in terminology on which parts are “hashing”



Two roles must both contribute to minimizing collisions (heuristically)

- Client should aim for different ints for expected items
 - Avoid “wasting” any part of **E** or the 32 bits of the **int**
- Library should aim for putting “similar” **ints** in different indices
 - Conversion to index is almost always “mod table-size”
 - Using prime numbers for table-size is common

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What to hash?

We will focus on the two most common things to hash: ints and strings

- If you have objects with several fields, it is usually best to have most of the “identifying fields” contribute to the hash to avoid collisions
- Example:


```
class Person {
    String first; String middle; String last;
    Date birthdate;
}
```
- An inherent trade-off: hashing-time vs. collision-avoidance
 - Bad idea(?): Only use first name
 - Good idea(?): Only use middle initial
 - Admittedly, what-to-hash is often unprincipled ☹

Hashing integers

- key space = integers
- Simple hash function:

$$h(\text{key}) = \text{key} \% \text{TableSize}$$
 - Client: $f(x) = x$
 - Library $g(x) = x \% \text{TableSize}$
 - Fairly fast and natural
- Example:
 - $\text{TableSize} = 10$
 - Insert 7, 18, 41, 34, 10
 - (As usual, ignoring data “along for the ride”)

0	
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	
7	
8	
9	

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0	10
1	41
2	
3	
4	34
5	
6	
7	7
8	18
9	

Collision-avoidance

- With “ $x \% \text{TableSize}$ ” the number of collisions depends on
 - the ints inserted (obviously)
 - TableSize
- Larger table-size tends to help, but not always
 - Example: 70, 24, 56, 43, 10
 - with $\text{TableSize} = 10$ and $\text{TableSize} = 60$
- Technique: Pick table size to be prime. Why?
 - Real-life data tends to have a pattern
 - “Multiples of 61” are probably less likely than “multiples of 60”
 - Next time we’ll see that one collision-handling strategy does *provably* well with prime table size

More on prime table size

If TableSize is 60 and...

- Lots of data items are multiples of 5, wasting 80% of table
- Lots of data items are multiples of 10, wasting 90% of table
- Lots of data items are multiples of 2, wasting 50% of table

If TableSize is 61...

- Collisions can still happen, but 5, 10, 15, 20, ... will fill table
- Collisions can still happen but 10, 20, 30, 40, ... will fill table
- Collisions can still happen but 2, 4, 6, 8, ... will fill table

In general, if x and y are “co-prime” (means $\text{gcd}(x, y) == 1$), then $(a * x) \% y == (b * x) \% y$ if and only if $a \% y == b \% y$

- So good to have a TableSize that has no common factors with any “likely pattern” x

Okay, back to the client

- If keys aren’t ints, the client must convert to an **int**
 - Trade-off: speed and distinct keys hashing to distinct **ints**
- Very important example: Strings
 - Key space $K = s_0s_1s_2...s_{m-1}$
 - (where s_i are chars: $s_i \in [0,52]$ or $s_i \in [0,256]$ or $s_i \in [0,2^{16}]$)
 - Some choices: Which avoid collisions best?
 1. $h(K) = s_0 \% \text{TableSize}$
 2. $h(K) = \left(\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} s_i \right) \% \text{TableSize}$
 3. $h(K) = \left(\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} s_i \cdot 37^i \right) \% \text{TableSize}$

Specializing hash functions

How might you hash differently if all your strings were web addresses (URLs)?

Combining hash functions

A few rules of thumb / tricks:

1. Use all 32 bits (careful, that includes negative numbers)
2. Use different overlapping bits for different parts of the hash
 - This is why a factor of 37^i works better than 256^i
 - Example: “abcde” and “ebcda”
3. When smashing two hashes into one hash, use bitwise-xor
 - bitwise-and produces too many 0 bits
 - bitwise-or produces too many 1 bits
4. Rely on expertise of others; consult books and other resources
5. If keys are known ahead of time, choose a *perfect hash*

One expert suggestion

- `int result = 17;`
- `foreach field f`
 - `int fieldHashCode =`
 - `boolean: (f ? 1: 0)`
 - `byte, char, short, int: (int) f`
 - `long: (int) (f ^ (f >>> 32))`
 - `float: Float.floatToIntBits(f)`
 - `double: Double.doubleToLongBits(f), then above`
 - `Object: object.hashCode()`
 - `result = 31 * result + fieldHashCode`

