2-3 Trees

CS 311 Data Structures and Algorithms
Lecture Slides
Wednesday, November 11, 2020

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Review
Our problem for most of the rest of the semester:

- **Store**: A collection of data items, all of the same type.
- **Operations**:
  - Access items [single item: retrieve/find, all items: traverse].
  - Add new item [insert].
  - Eliminate existing item [delete].
- Time & space efficiency are desirable.

A solution to this problem is a **container**.

In a **generic container**, client code can specify the value type.
Unit Overview
Tables & Priority Queues

Major Topics
- Introduction to Tables
- Priority Queues
- Binary Heap Algorithms
- Heaps & Priority Queues in the C++ STL
  - 2-3 Trees
  - Other self-balancing search trees
- Hash Tables
- Prefix Trees
- Tables in the C++ STL & Elsewhere

Lots of lousy implementations

Idea #1: Restricted Table

Idea #2: Keep a tree balanced

Idea #3: Magic functions

A special-purpose implementation: “the Radix Sort of Table implementations”
A **Table** allows for arbitrary key-based look-up.

Three single-item operations: retrieve, insert, delete by key.

A Table implementation typically holds **key-value pairs**.

### Table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Ed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Peg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Ann</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Inefficient Implementations

(12, Ed) (4, Peg) (9, Ann)

(9, Ann)

(4, Peg)

(12, Ed)

### Three ideas for efficient implementations:

1. Restricted Table → Priority Queues
2. Keep a tree balanced → Self-balancing search trees
3. Magic functions → Hash Tables
A **Binary Heap** (or just **Heap**) is a complete Binary Tree with one data item—which includes a **key**—in each node, where no node has a key that is less than the key in either of its children.

In practice, we use “Heap” to refer to the array-based complete Binary Tree implementation of this.

![Binary Heap Diagram]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Physical Structure</th>
<th>Logical Structure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>56 50 25 5 22 25 11 1 3 10 3 12</td>
<td>56 50 25 5 22 25 11 1 3 10 3 12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A Heap is a good basis for an implementation of a **Priority Queue**.
- Like Table, but retrieve/delete only highest key.
- Insert any key-value pair.

### Algorithms for three primary operations

- **getFront**
  - Get the root node.
  - Constant time.

- **insert**
  - Add new node to end of Heap. Sift-up last item.
  - Logarithmic time if space available.
  - Linear time if not. However, in practice, a Heap often does not manage its own memory.

- **delete**
  - Swap first & last items. Reduce size of Heap. Sift-down new root item.
  - Logarithmic time. Faster than linear time!
Heap insert and delete are usually given a random-access range. The item to insert or delete is the last item; the rest is a Heap.

- **Action of Heap insert:**
  
  ![Diagram of Heap insert](image)

- **Action of Heap delete:**
  
  ![Diagram of Heap delete](image)

Note that Heap algorithms can do *all* modifications using *swap*. This usually allows for both speed and (exception) safety.
Review
Binary Heap Algorithms [4/6]

To turn a range (array?) into a Heap, we could do $n-1$ Heap inserts.
- Each insert operation is $\Theta(\log n)$; making a Heap in this way is $\Theta(n \log n)$.

However, there is a faster way.
- Place each item into a partially-made Heap, in backwards order.
- Sift-down each item through its descendants.
  - For most items, there are not very many of these.

This Make-Heap algorithm is linear time!
Heap Sort is a fast comparison sort that uses Heap algorithms.

- We can think of it as using a Priority Queue, except that the algorithm is in-place, with no separate data structure used.
- Procedure. Make a Heap, then delete all items, using the Heap delete procedure that places the deleted item in the top spot.
- The Make-Heap operation is $\Theta(n)$. Then we do $n$ Heap delete operations, each of which is $\Theta(\log n)$. Total: $\Theta(n \log n)$.

See heap_sort.cpp for an implementation of Heap Sort. This uses the Heap algorithms in heap_algs.h.
Efficiency 😊

- Heap Sort is $\Theta(n \log n)$.

Requirements on Data ☹

- Heap Sort requires random-access data.

Space Usage 😊

- Heap Sort is in-place.

Stability ☹

- Heap Sort is not stable.

Performance on Nearly Sorted Data 😊

- Heap Sort is not significantly faster or slower for nearly sorted data.

Notes

- Heap Sort can be stopped early, with useful results.
- Recall that Heap Sort is used by Introsort, when the depth of the Quicksort recursion exceeds the maximum allowed.

We have seen these together before (Iterative Merge Sort on a Linked List), but never for an array.
The STL has a Priority Queue: `std::priority_queue` (<queue>).

- This is another **container adapter**: wrapper around a container. And once again, you get to pick what that container is.

```
std::priority_queue<T, container<T>>
```

*container* defaults to `std::vector`.

```
std::priority_queue<T>
// = std::priority_queue<T, std::vector<T>>
```
The comparison used by `priority_queue` defaults to `operator<`.

```cpp
std::priority_queue<Foo> pq1;  // Uses operator<
```

We can specify a custom comparison.

```cpp
std::priority_queue<Foo, std::vector<Foo>,
                    std::greater<Foo>> pq2;
                    // Uses operator>
```
Heaps & Priority Queues in the C++ STL
std::priority_queue [3/3]

To pass our own comparison function, we specify:

- Its type, as the third template argument.
- The comparison itself, as a constructor argument.

```cpp
auto comp = [](const Foo & a, const Foo & b) {
    return a.bar() < b.bar();
};
```

`std::priority_queue<Foo, std::vector<Foo>, decltype(comp)> pq3(comp);`

See `pq.cpp` for example code.

We will look at a more practical example near the end of the semester.
Overview of Advanced Table Implementations

This ends our coverage of Idea #1: restricted Tables. Next, actual Tables, allowing retrieve & delete for arbitrary keys. We cover the following advanced Table implementations.

- **Self-balancing search trees**
  - To make things easier, allow more children (?):
    - **2-3 Tree**
      - Up to 3 children
    - **2-3-4 Tree**
      - Up to 4 children
    - **Red-Black Tree**
      - Binary Tree representation of a 2-3-4 Tree
      - Or back up and try for a strongly balanced Binary Search Tree again:
        - **AVL Tree**
- Alternatively, forget about trees entirely:
  - **Hash Table**
- Finally, “the Radix Sort of Table implementations”:
  - **Prefix Tree**

Idea #2: Keep a tree balanced

Later, we will cover other self-balancing search trees: B-Trees, B+ Trees.

Idea #3: Magic functions
2-3 Trees
Now we look at the second of our three ideas: keeping a Binary Search Tree strongly balanced.

But let’s not insist on strongly balanced Binary Search Trees. Rather, we want trees that, like these, have small height, and do not require visiting many nodes to find a given key. We also want fast insert/delete algorithms that keep the height small.

These structures are called **self-balancing search trees**.

- There are many kinds. All are similar to Binary Search Trees, but may not be strongly balanced. Many are not even Binary Trees.
- All the self-balancing search trees we will cover have logarithmic-time retrieve, insert, and delete algorithms that maintain the required structure.
2-3 Trees
Self-Balancing Search Trees [2/3]

Small height is easier to maintain if we allow a node to have more than 2 children.

Q. If we do this, how do we maintain the search tree idea?
A. We generalize the order property of a Binary Search Tree:
   For each pair of consecutive subtrees, a node has one data item lying between the values in these subtrees.

7 lies between \{2,4\} and \{8\}.
12 lies between \{8\} and \{18\}.
20 lies between \{2,4,7,8,12,18\} and \{23,28,32,35\}.
A Binary-Search-Tree style node is a **2-node**.
- This is a node with 2 subtrees and 1 item.
- The item’s value lies between the values in the two subtrees.

In a 2-3 Tree we also allow a node to be a **3-node**.
- This is a node with 3 subtrees and 2 items.
- Each of the 2 items has a value that lies between the values in the corresponding pair of consecutive subtrees.

Later, we will look at 2-3-4 Trees, which can also have **4-nodes**.
A **2-3 Search Tree** (generally just **2-3 Tree**) is a tree with the following properties [John Hopcroft 1970].

- Each node is either a 2-node or a 3-node. The associated order properties hold.
- Each node either has its full complement of children, or else is a leaf.
- All leaves lie in the same level.

We will look at a number of kinds of self-balancing search trees. Most of these will be closely related to the 2-3 Tree.

We cover algorithms for 2-3 Trees in detail. For other kinds of trees, we might say something along the lines of, “It works just like a 2-3 Tree, except ...”
Which of the following are 2-3 Trees?

A  

10 20

B  

10 20

30 40 50 60

C  

20 40

10 30 50 60

D  

20 30

10 40

E  

30

10 40

F  

10 20 30

Answers on next slide.
2-3 Trees
Definition [3/3] (Try It!)

Which of the following are 2-3 Trees?

Answers

A ✔

B ✗

C ✔

D ✗

E ✔

F ✗

A: 10 20

B: 10 20

The order property does not hold.

C: 20 40

D: 20 30

Each node must either have its full complement of children, or else be a leaf.

E: 30

F: 10 20 30

This will turn out to be a valid 2-3-4 Tree, but it is not a 2-3 Tree. A 2-3 Tree has at most 2 items in each node.
To **traverse** a 2-3 Tree, generalize the **inorder traversal** of a Binary Search Tree.

- For each leaf, go through the items in it, in order.
- For each non-leaf 2-node:
  - Traverse subtree 1.
  - Do item.
  - Traverse subtree 2.
- For each non-leaf 3-node:
  - Traverse subtree 1.
  - Do item 1.
  - Traverse subtree 2.
  - Do item 2.
  - Traverse subtree 3.

This procedure lists all the items in sorted order.
2-3 Trees
Single-Item Operations

The single-item operations are the usual three: retrieve, insert, delete. All are done by key.

To retrieve by key in a 2-3 Tree, start at the root and proceed downward, making comparisons, just as when doing a retrieve in a Binary Search Tree.

3-nodes make the procedure just a bit more complicated.

How do we insert & delete by key in a 2-3 Tree?

- These are trickier problems.
- It turns out that both have efficient—$\Theta(\log n)$—algorithms, which is why we like 2-3 Trees.
Ideas in the 2-3 Tree \textbf{insert} algorithm:

- Find the proper leaf, and add the item to that leaf.
- Allow nodes to expand when legal.
- If a node becomes \textbf{over-full} (3 items), then split the subtree rooted at that node and propagate the \textbf{middle} item upward.
- If we split the entire tree, then create a new root node—which effectively advances all other nodes down one level simultaneously.

Example 1. Insert 9.
2-3 Trees
Insert Algorithm [2/6]

Example 2. Insert 5.

Over-full nodes are blue.
Example 3. Insert 3.

Here we see how a 2-3 Tree can increase in height.
2-3 Trees
Insert Algorithm [4/6]

2-3 Tree **Insert** Algorithm (outline)

- Find the leaf that the new item goes in.
  - In the process of finding this leaf, you may determine that the given key is already in the tree. If so, then act accordingly.
- Add the item to the proper node.
- If the node is over-full, then split it (dragging subtrees along, if necessary), and move the middle item up:
  - If there is no parent, then make a new root. Done.
  - Otherwise, add the moved-up item to the parent node. Recursively apply the insertion procedure one level up.
2-3 Trees
Insert Algorithm [5/6] (Try It!)

Do insert 21 in the following 2-3 Tree. Draw the resulting Tree.

Answer on next slide.
2-3 Trees
Insert Algorithm [6/6] (Try It!)

Do insert 21 in the following 2-3 Tree. Draw the resulting Tree.

Answer
2-3 Trees will be continued next time.