Balanced Trees Part One

Balanced Trees

- Balanced search trees are among the most useful and versatile data structures.
- Many programming languages ship with a balanced tree library.
 - C++: std::map / std::set
 - Java: TreeMap / TreeSet
- Many advanced data structures are layered on top of balanced trees.
 - We'll see several later in the quarter!

Where We're Going

- B-Trees (Today)
 - A simple type of balanced tree developed for block storage.
- Red/Black Trees (Today/Thursday)
 - The canonical balanced binary search tree.
- Augmented Search Trees (Thursday)
 - Adding extra information to balanced trees to supercharge the data structure.

Outline for Today

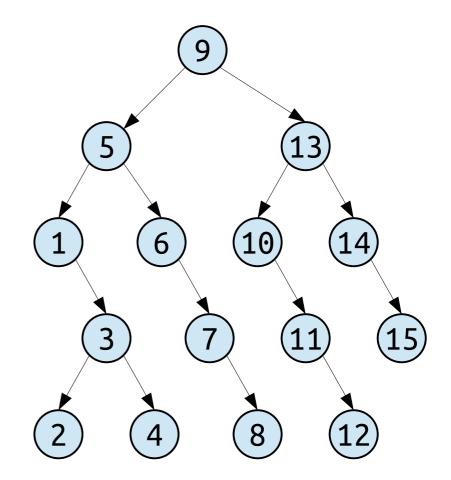
• BST Review

- Refresher on basic BST concepts and runtimes.
- Overview of Red/Black Trees
 - What we're building toward.
- **B-Trees and 2-3-4 Trees**
 - Simple balanced trees, in depth.
- Intuiting Red/Black Trees
 - A much better feel for red/black trees.

A Quick BST Review

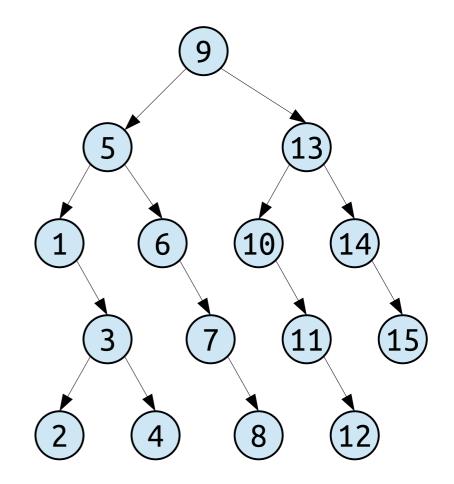
Binary Search Trees

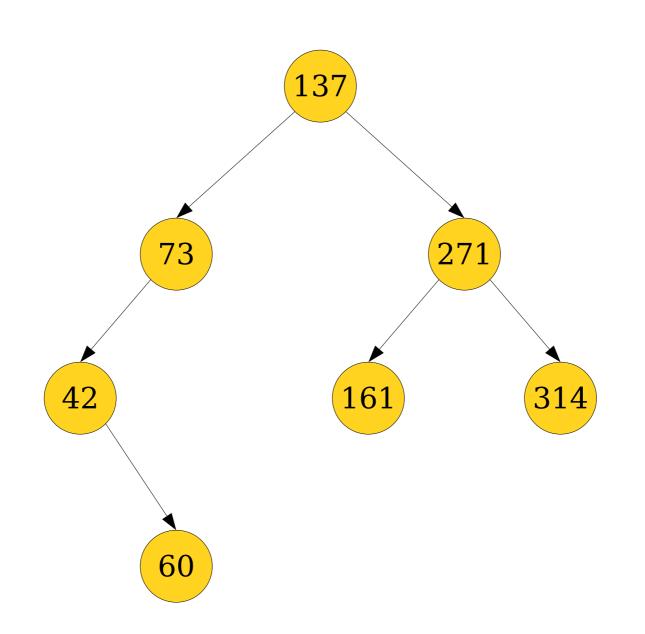
- A **binary search tree** is a binary tree with the following properties:
 - Each node in the BST stores a *key*, and optionally, some auxiliary information.
 - The key of every node in a BST is strictly greater than all keys to its left and strictly smaller than all keys to its right.

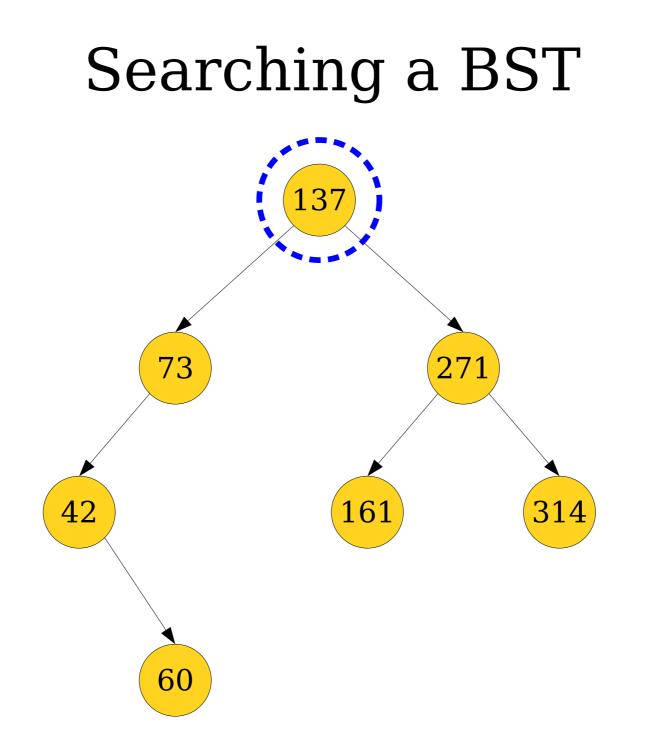


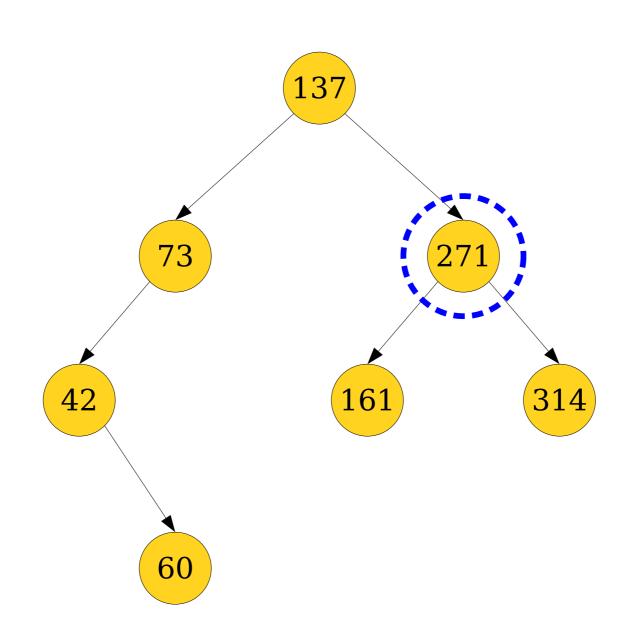
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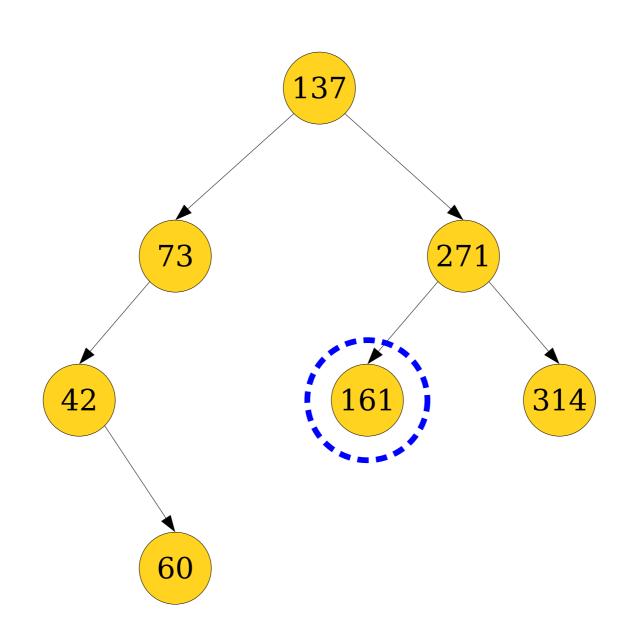
- The *height* of a binary search tree is the length of the longest path from the root to a leaf, measured in the number of *edges*.
 - A tree with one node has height 0.
 - A tree with no nodes has height -1, by convention.

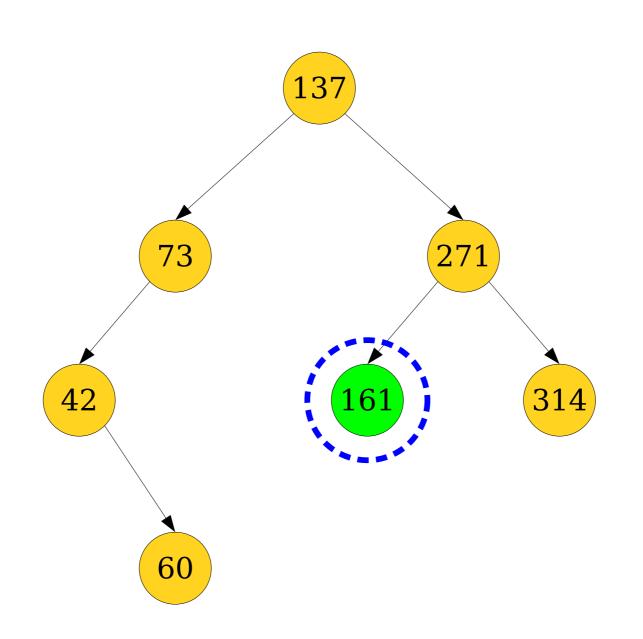


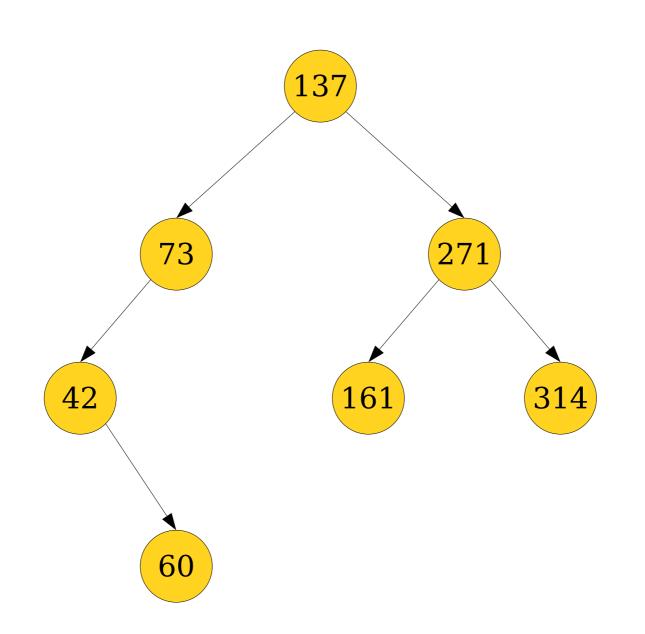


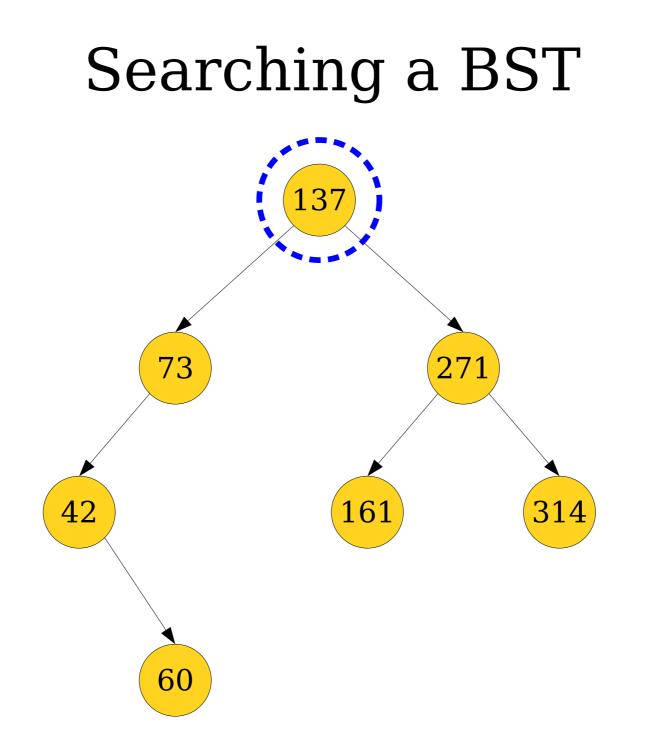


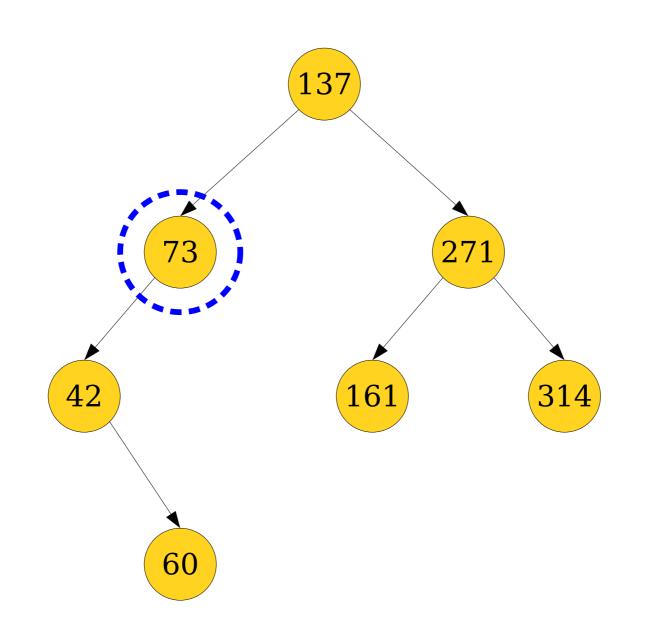


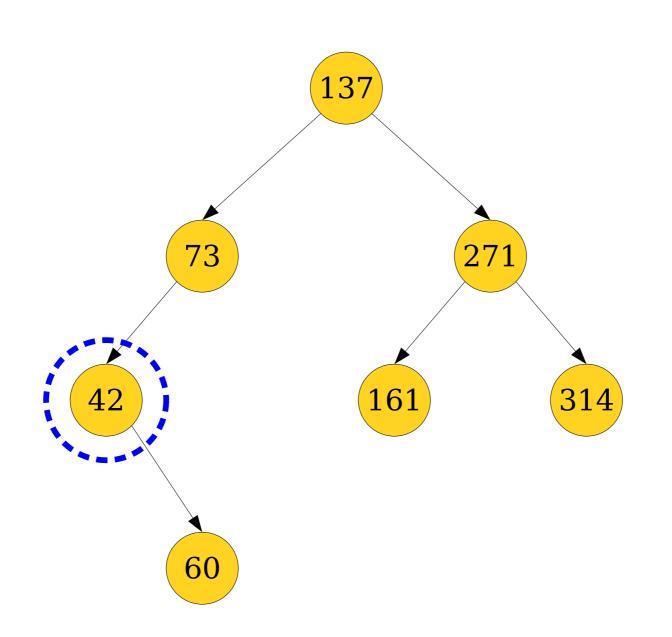


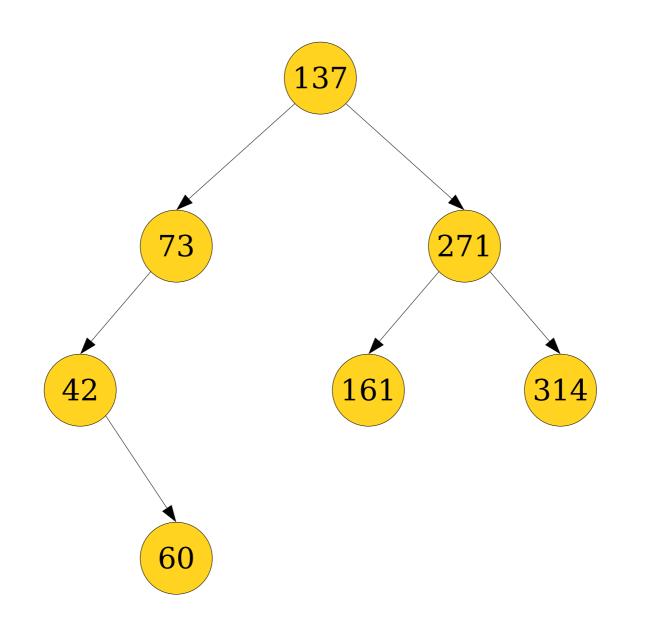


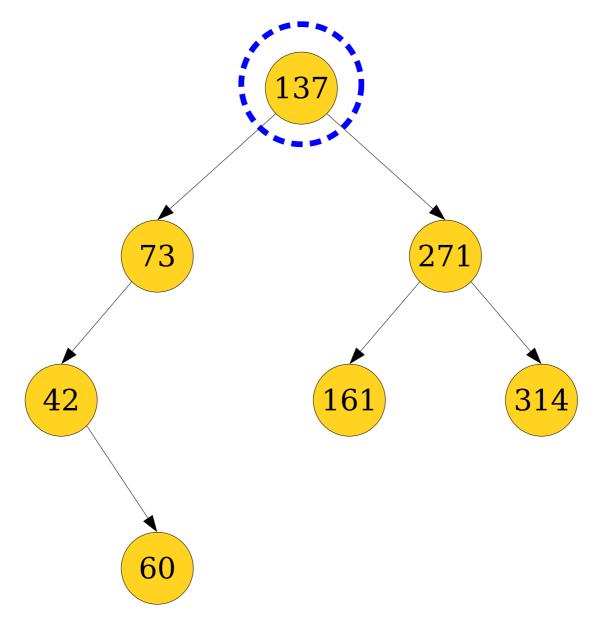


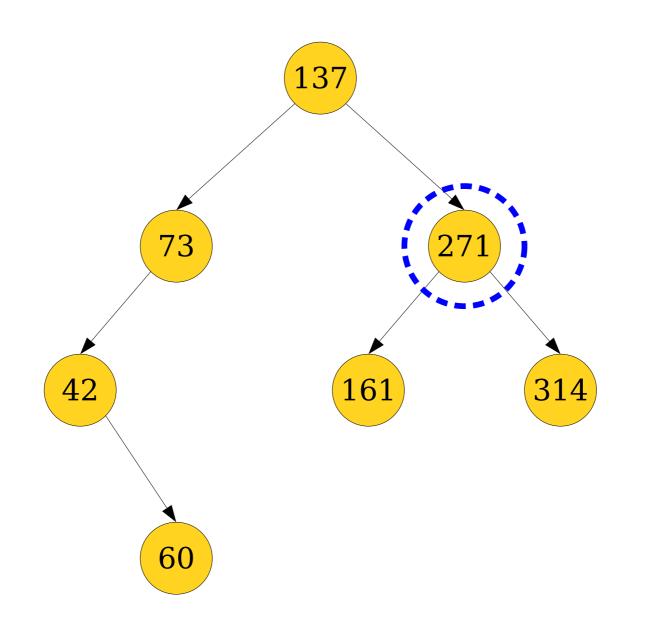


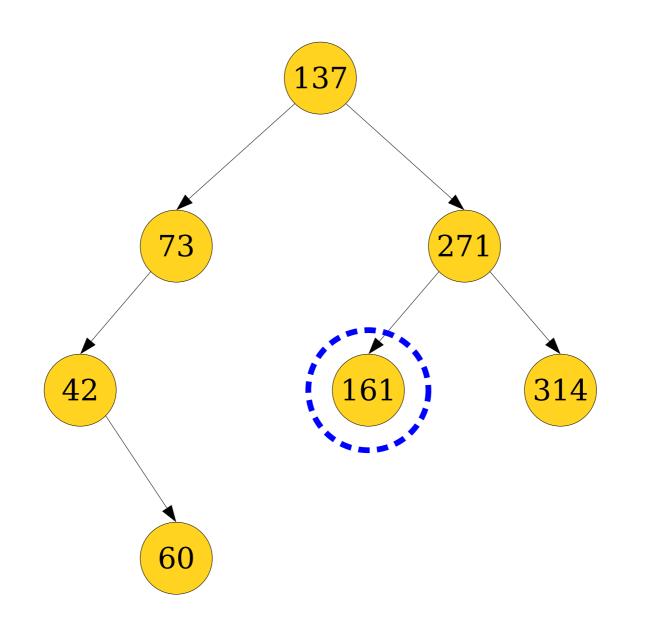


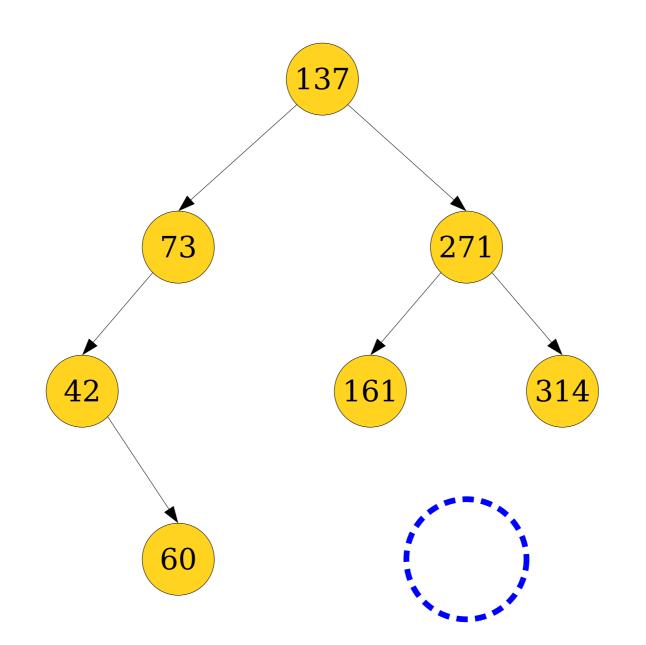


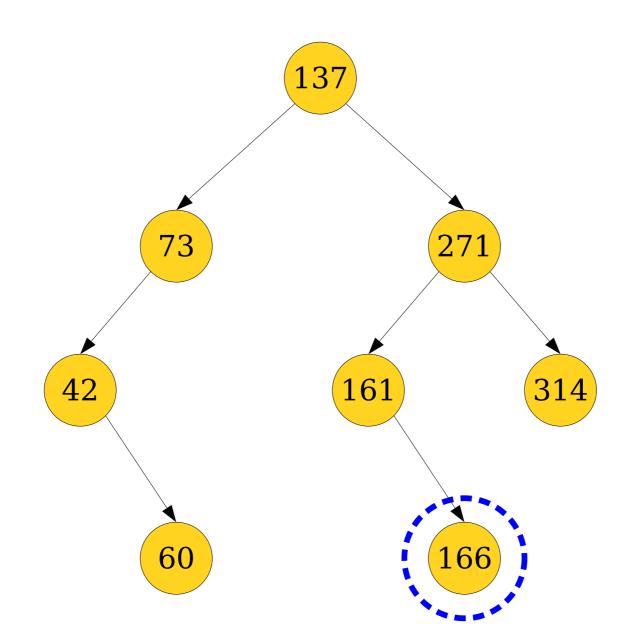


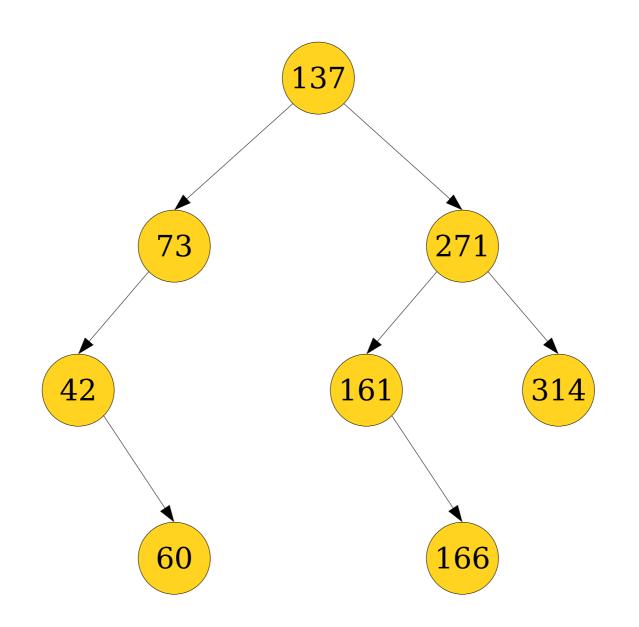


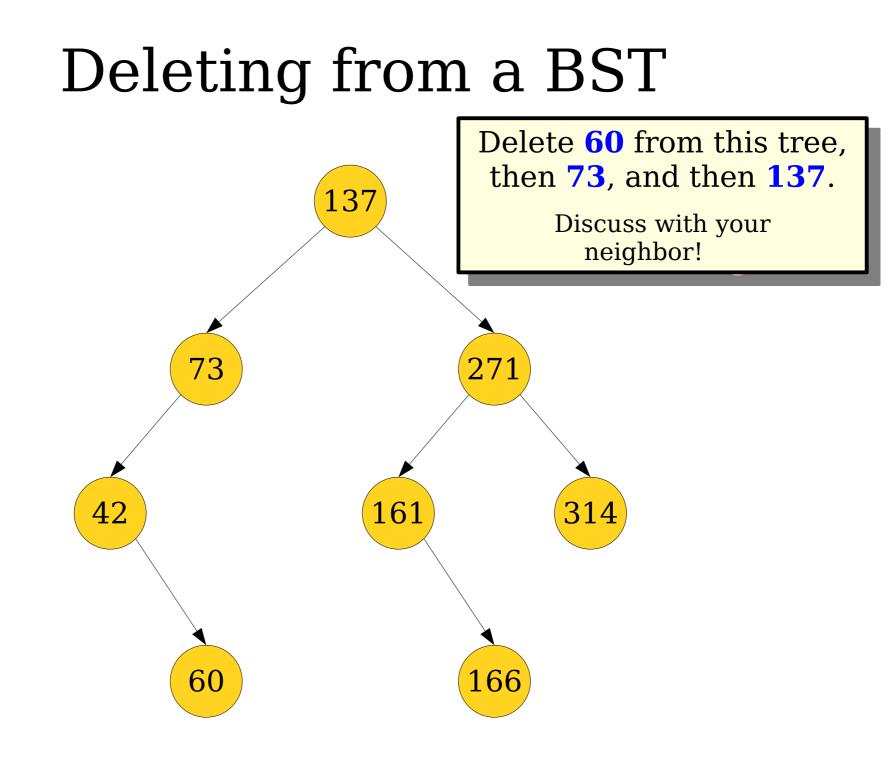


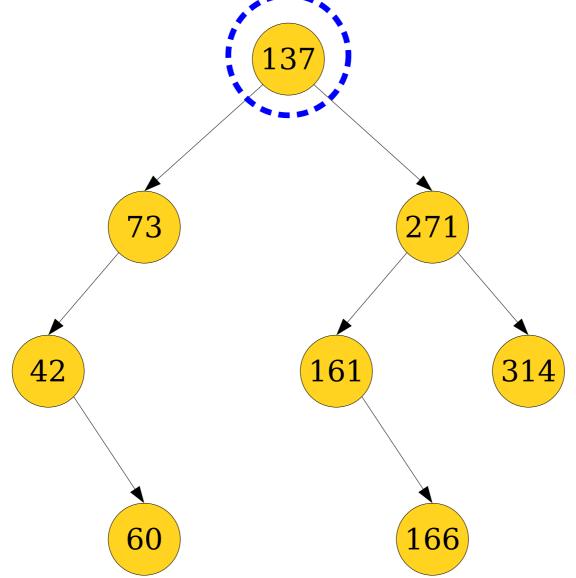


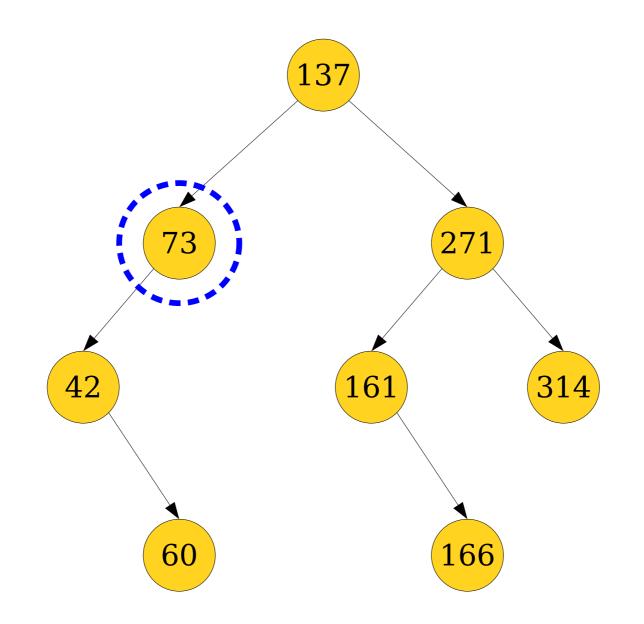


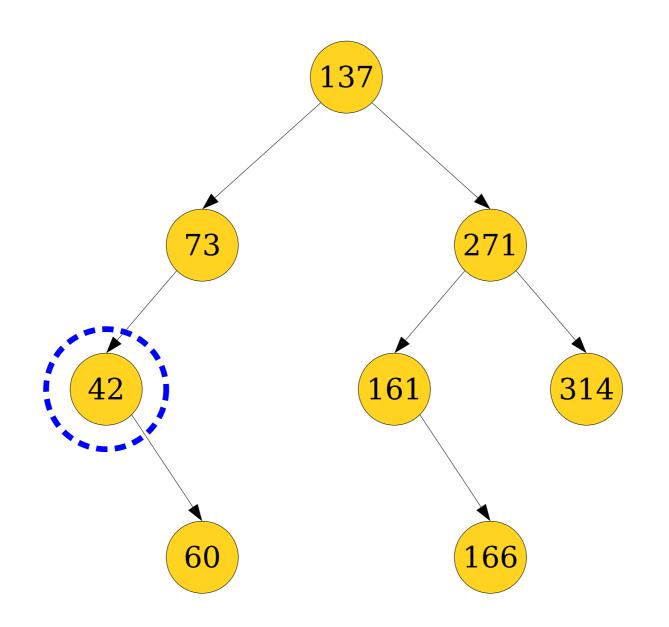


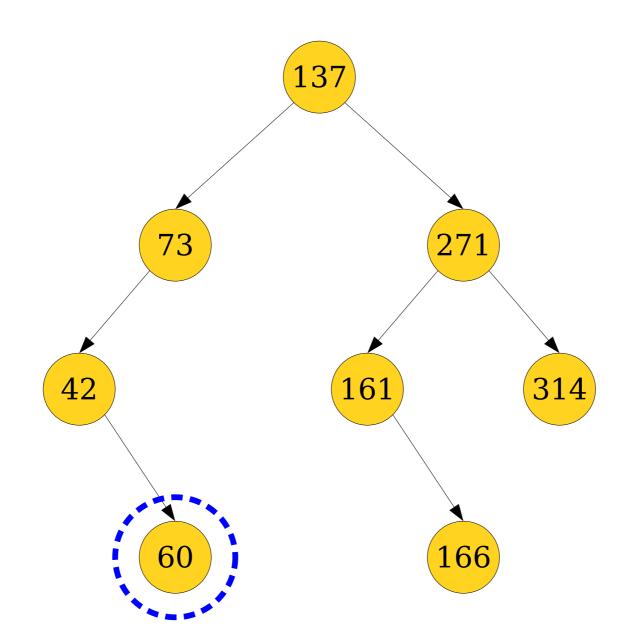


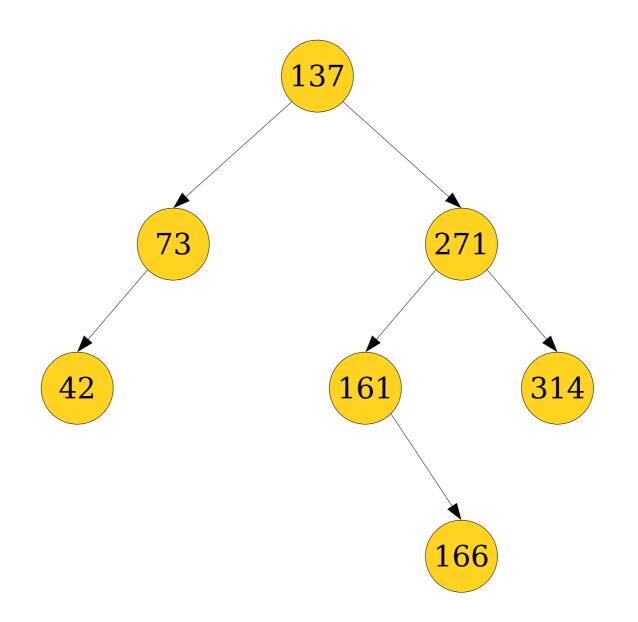


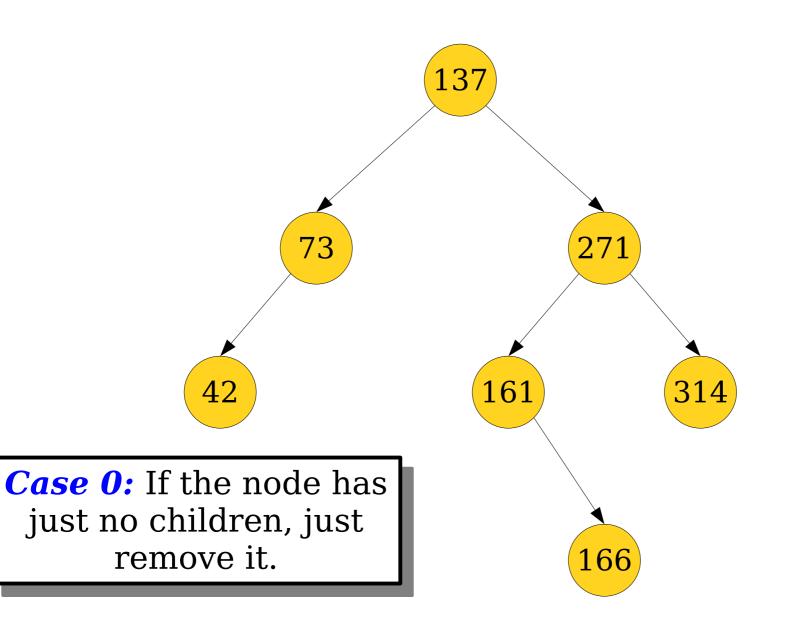


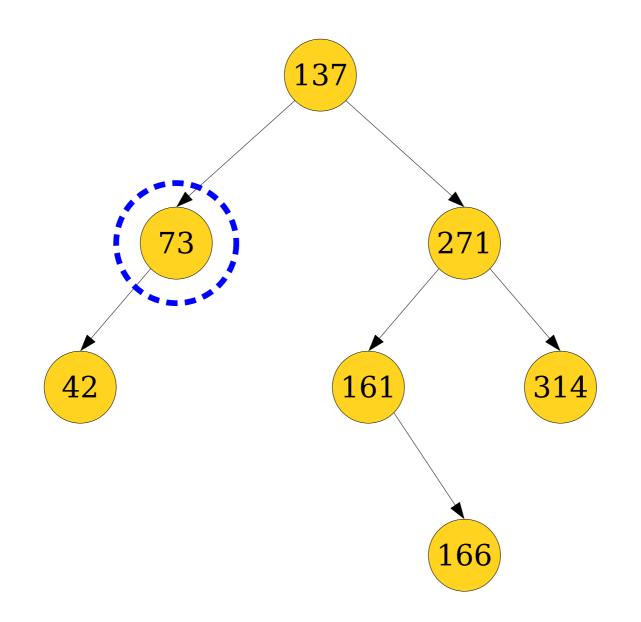


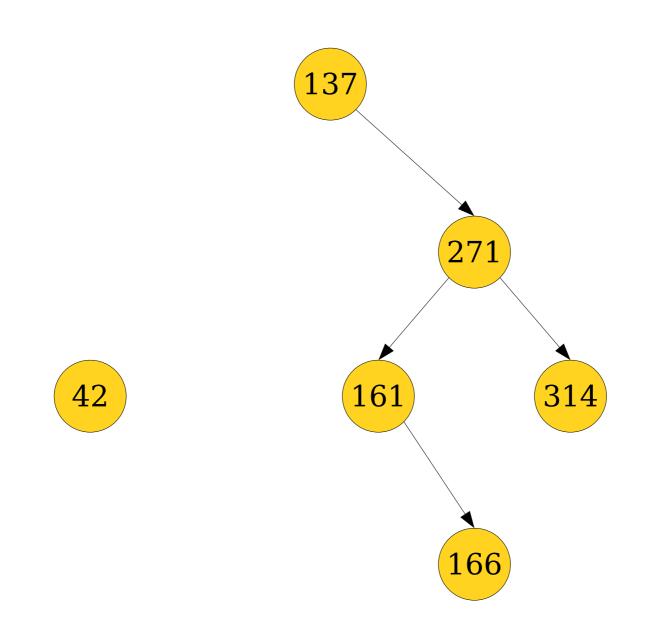


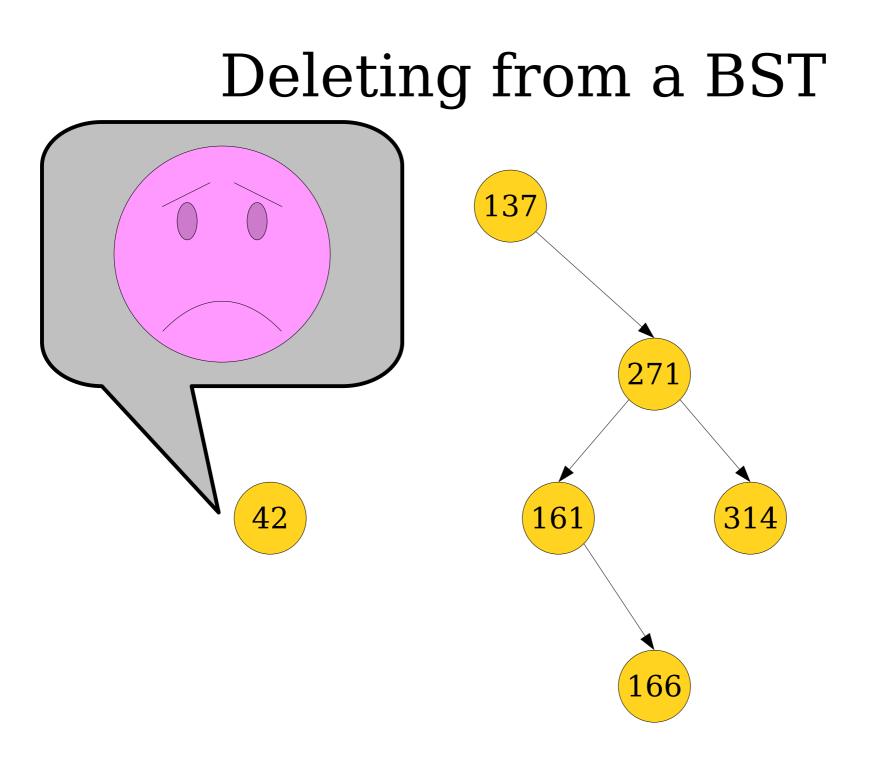


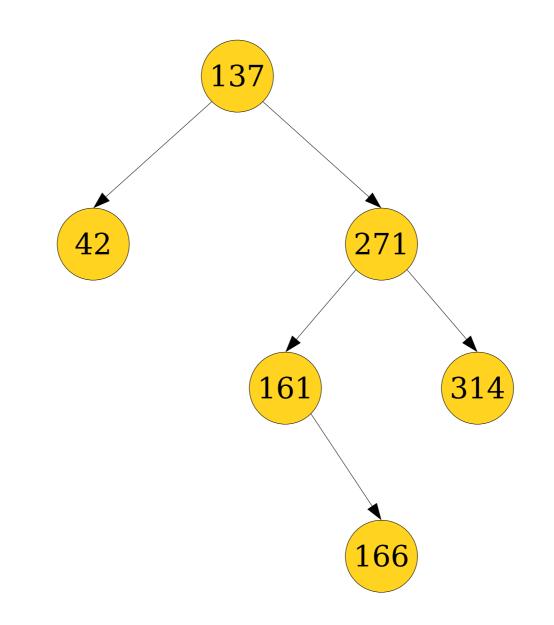


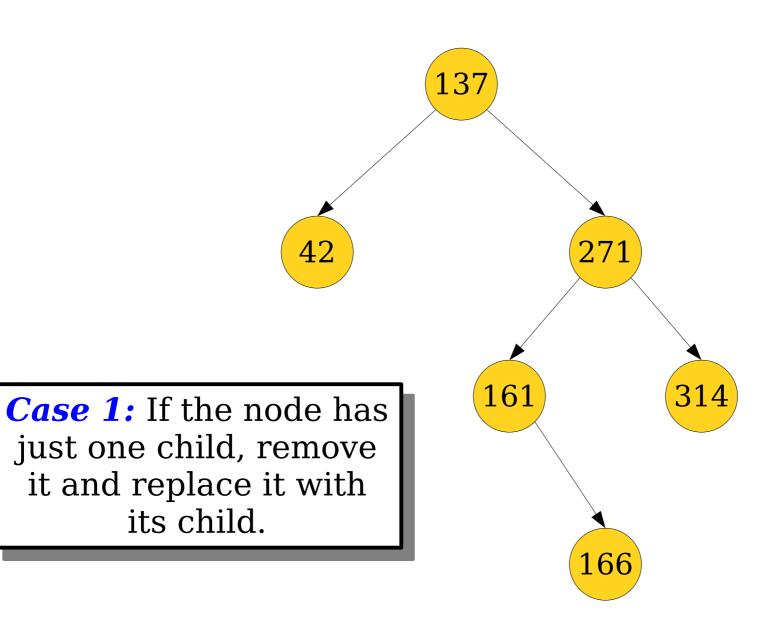


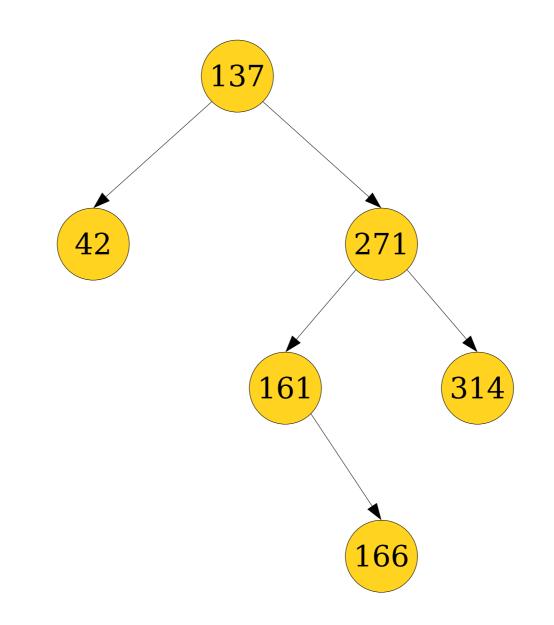


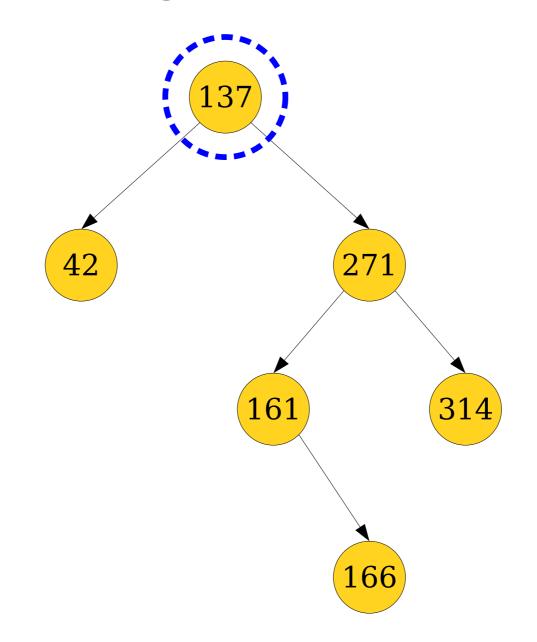


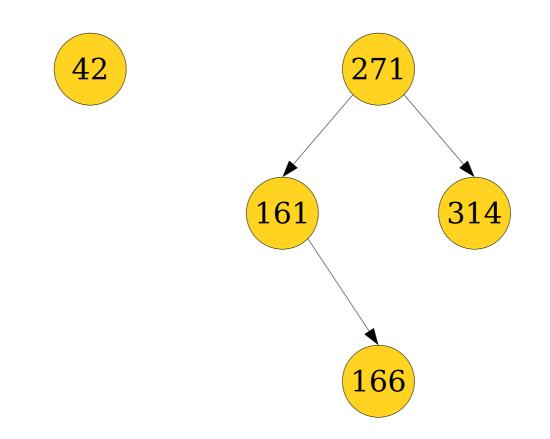


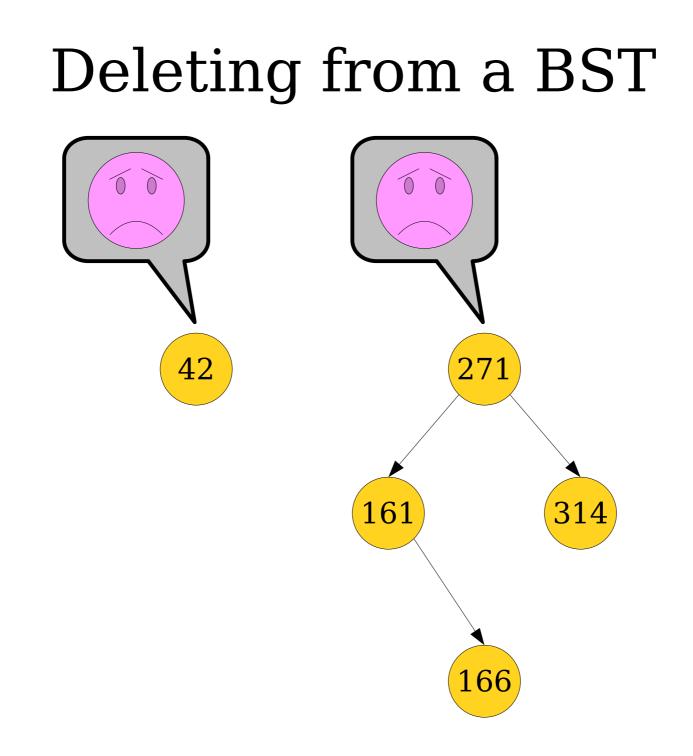


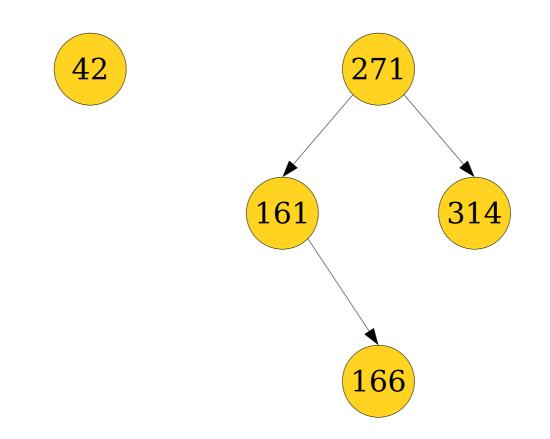


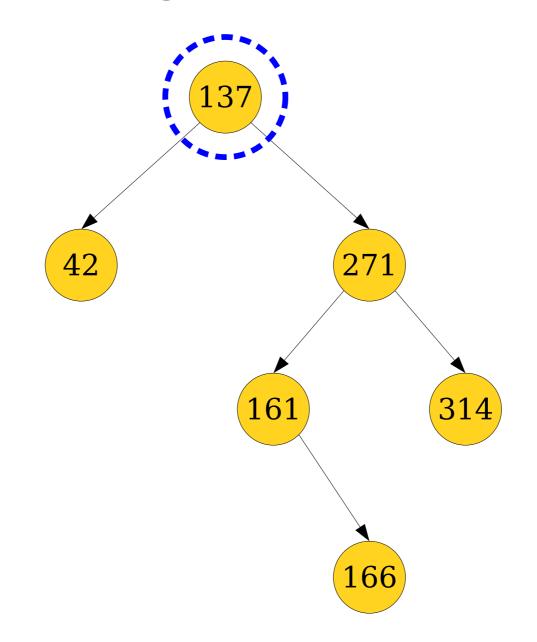


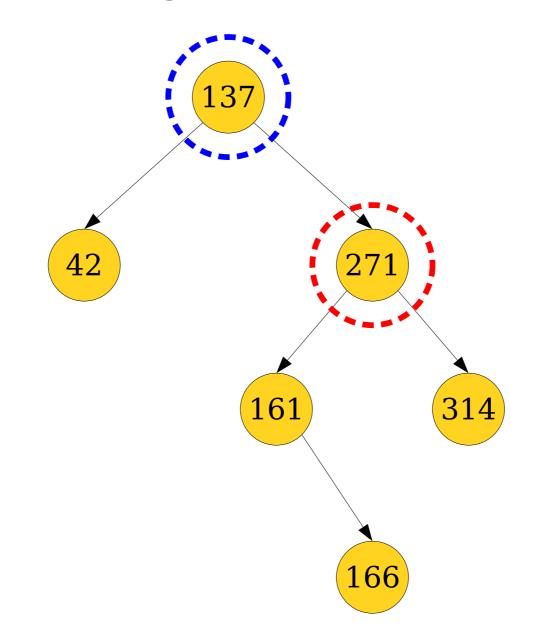


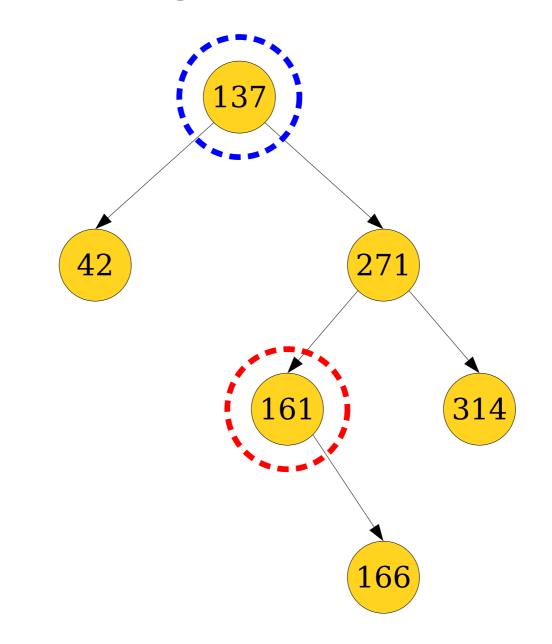


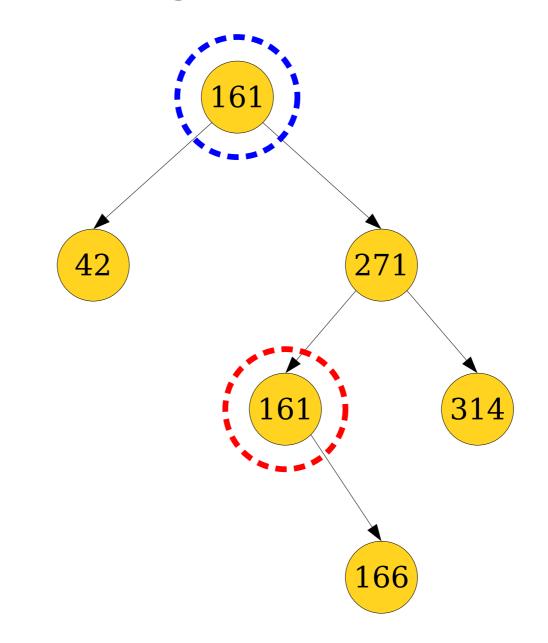


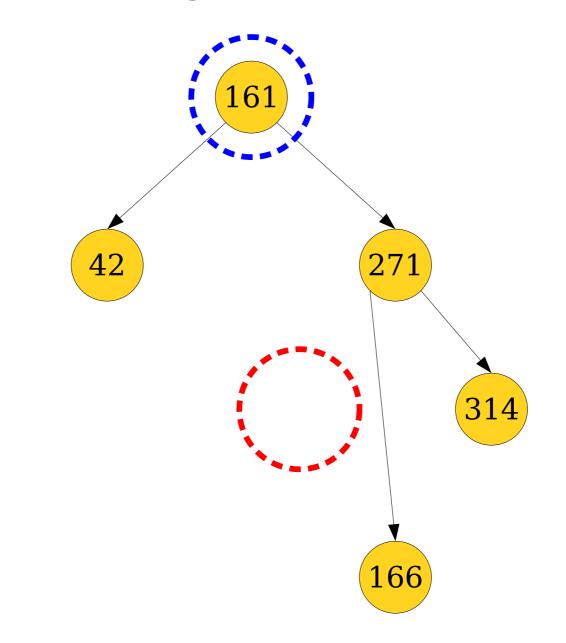


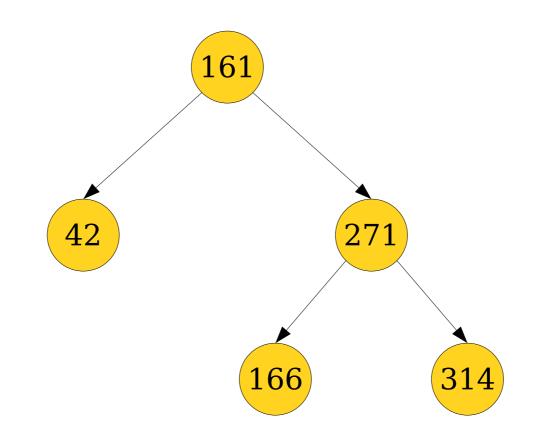


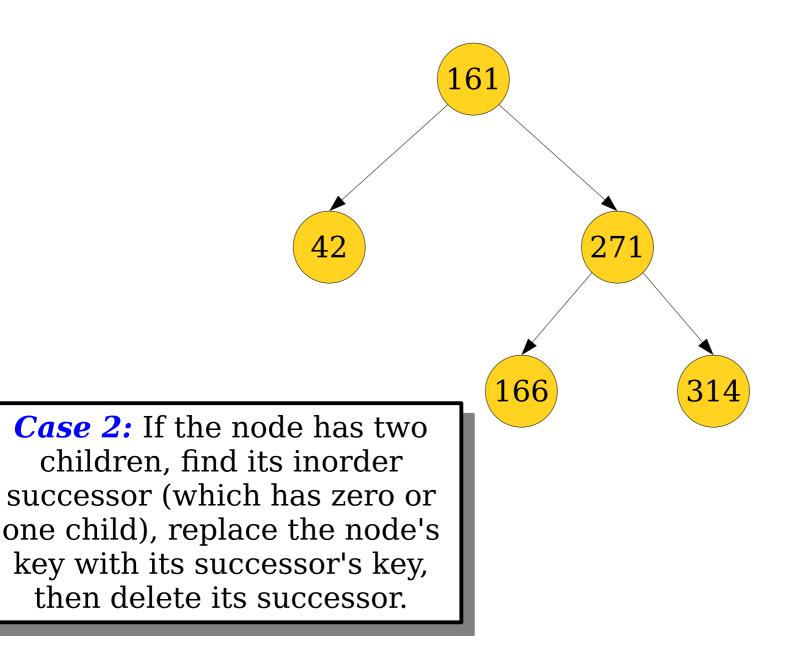










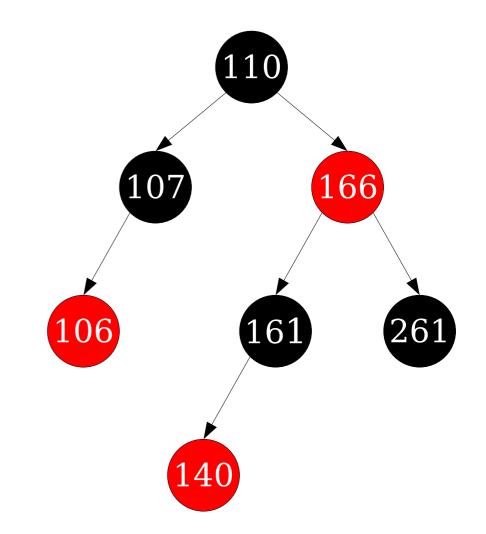


Runtime Analysis

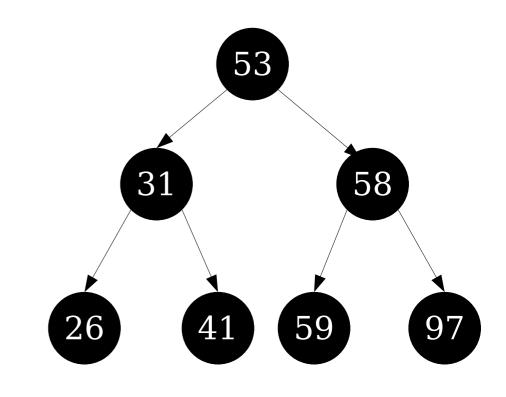
- The time complexity of all these operations is O(*h*), where *h* is the height of the tree.
 - That's the longest path we can take.
- In the best case, $h = O(\log n)$ and all operations take time $O(\log n)$.
- In the worst case, $h = \Theta(n)$ and some operations will take time $\Theta(n)$.
- **Challenge:** How do you efficiently keep the height of a tree low?

A Glimpse of Red/Black Trees

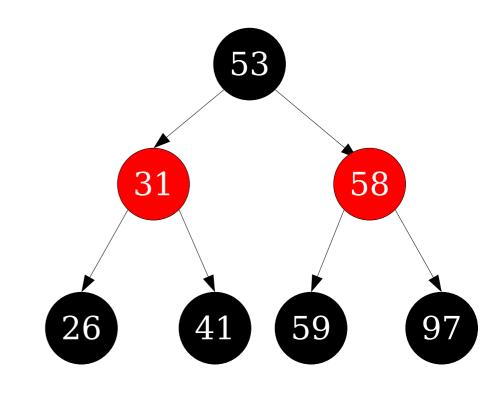
- A *red/black tree* is a BST with the following properties:
 - Every node is either red or black.
 - The root is black.
 - No red node has a red child.
 - Every root-null path in the tree passes through the same number of black nodes.



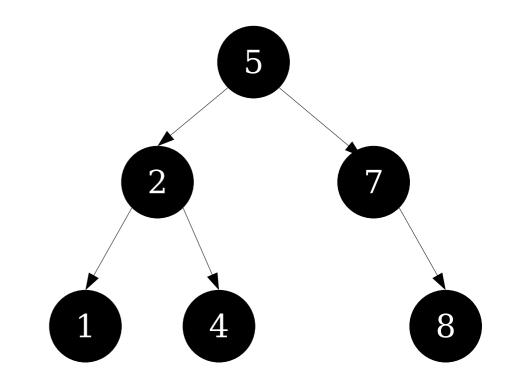
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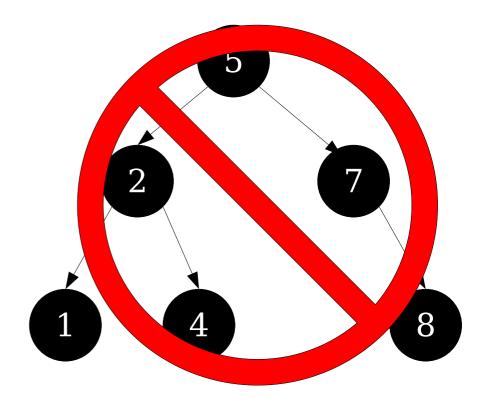
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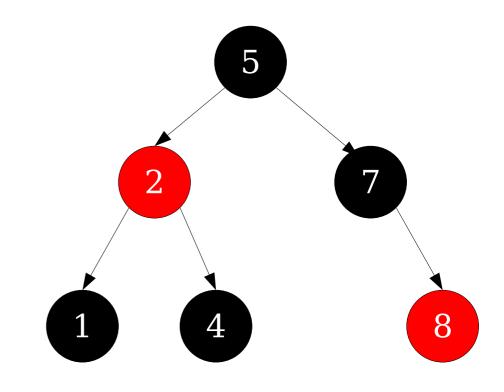
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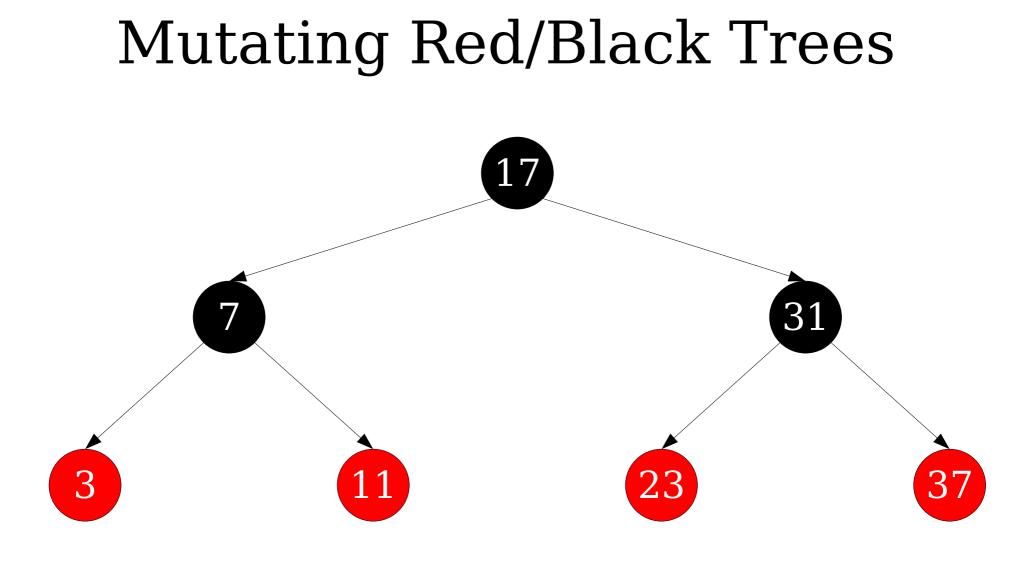
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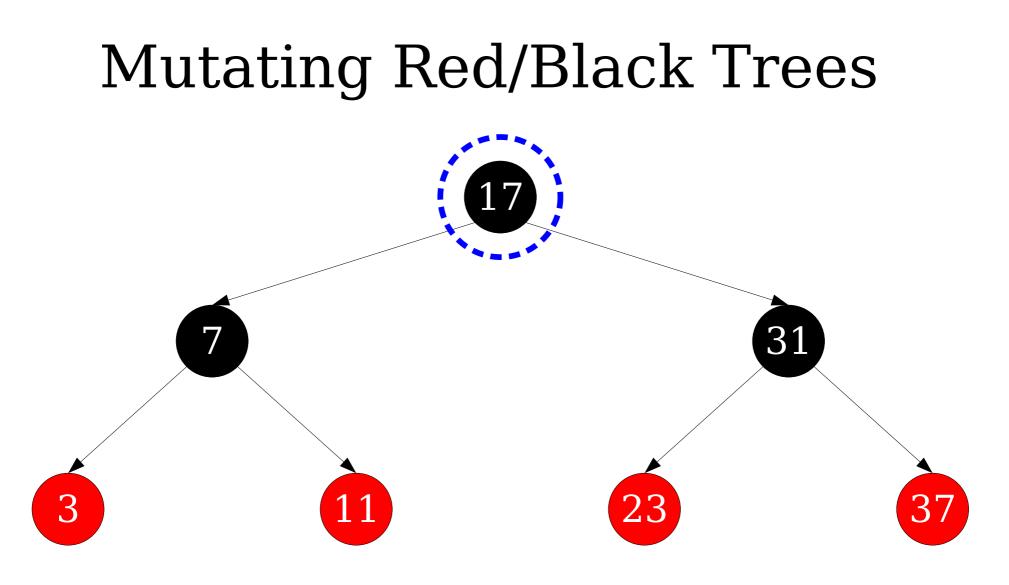


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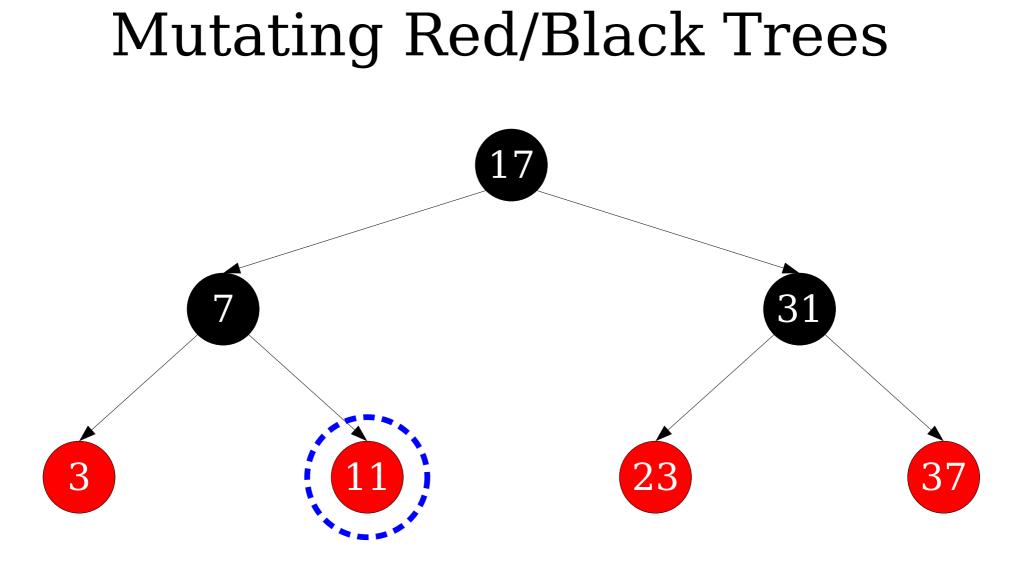


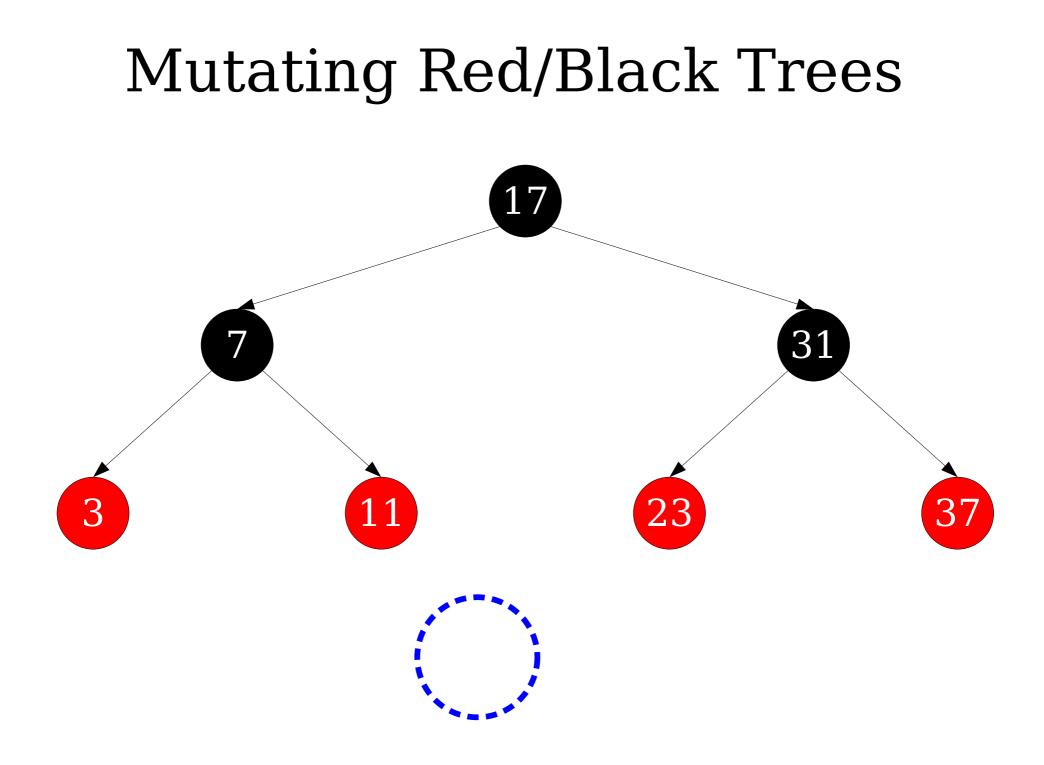
- **Theorem:** Any red/black tree with *n* nodes has height O(log *n*).
 - We could prove this now, but there's a *much* simpler proof of this we'll see later on.
- Given a fixed red/black tree, lookups can be done in time O(log *n*).

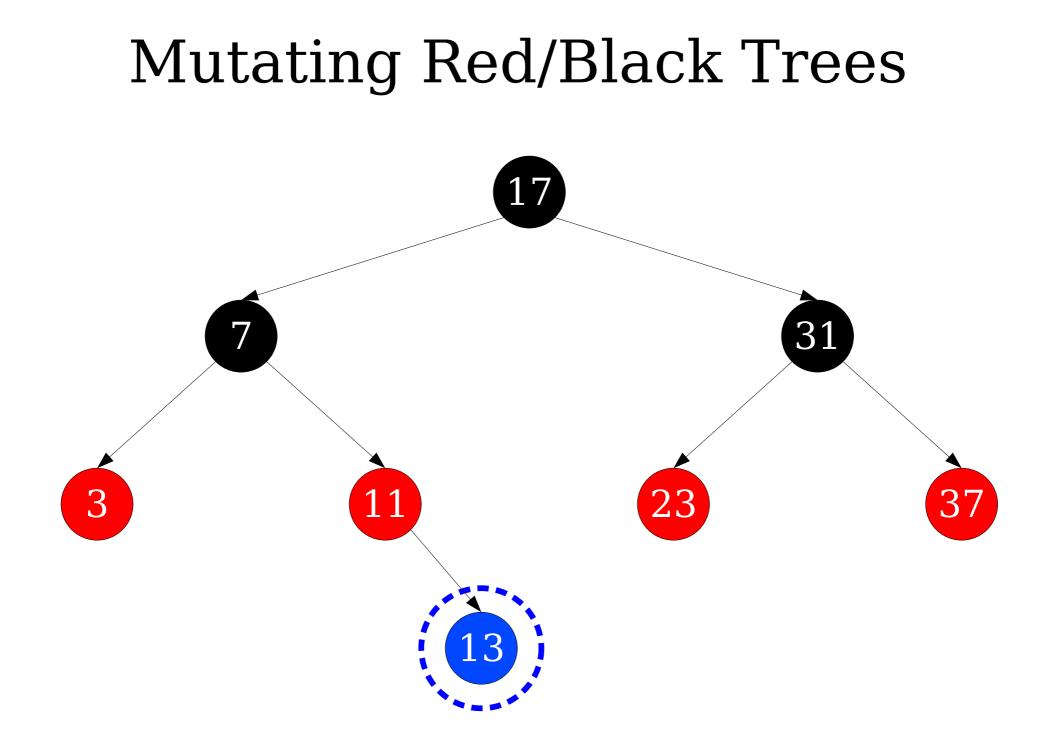


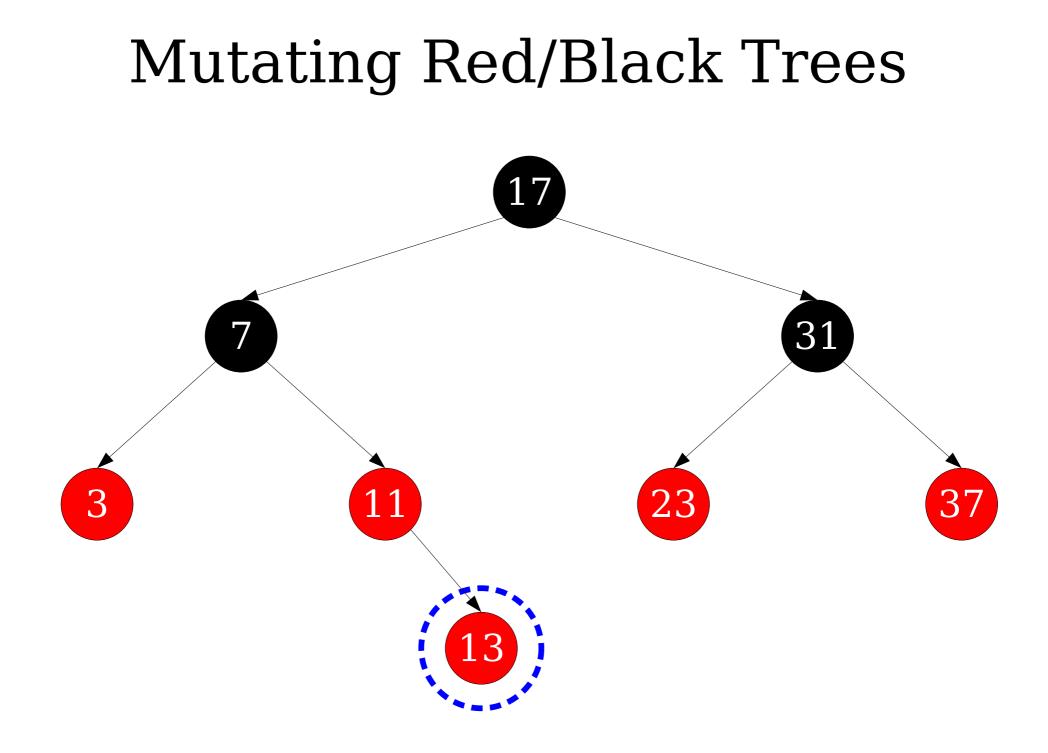


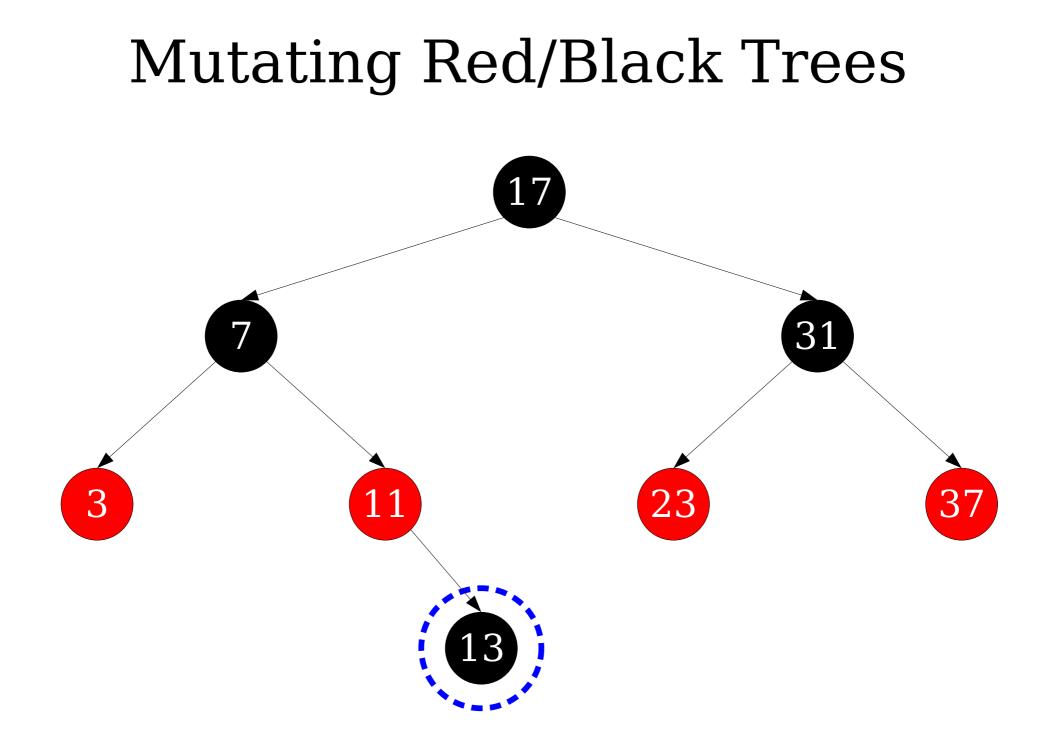
Mutating Red/Black Trees

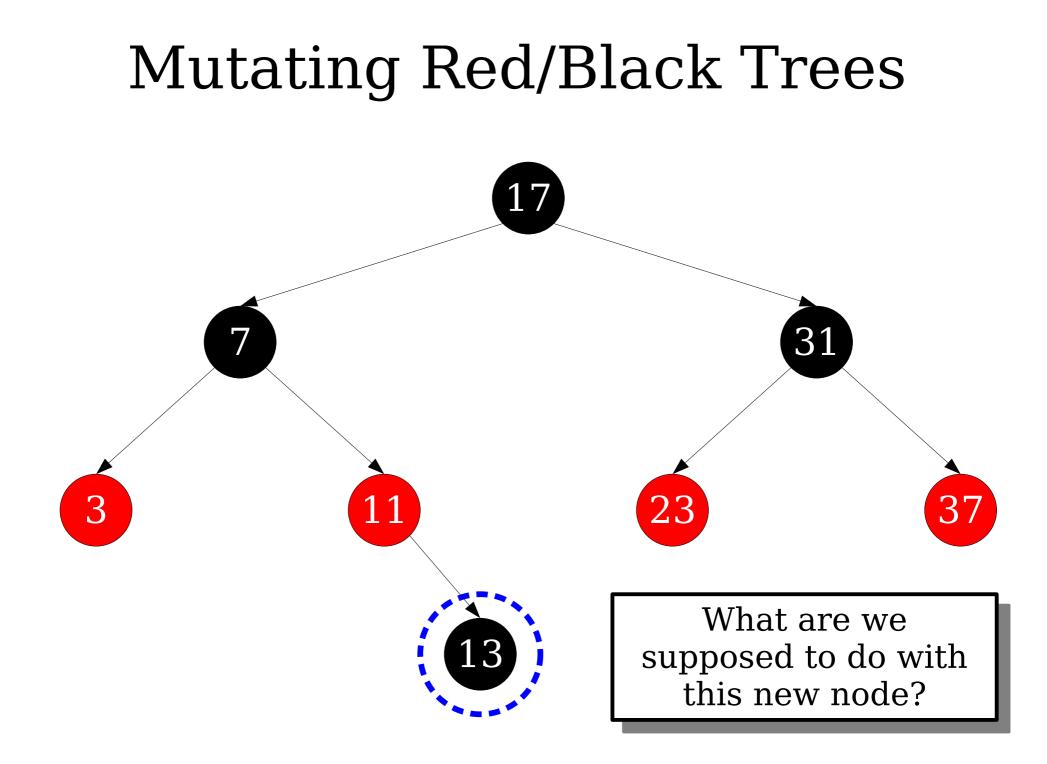




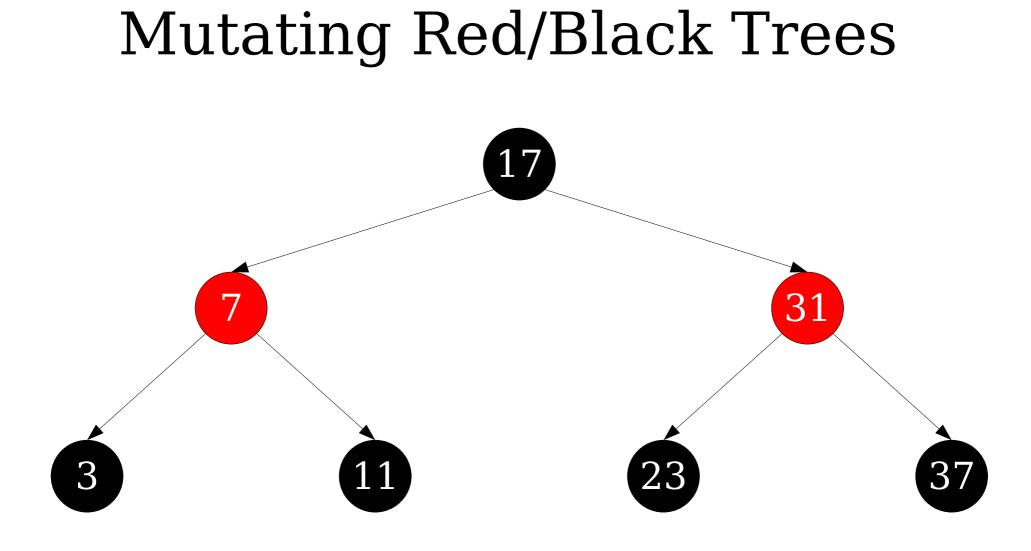


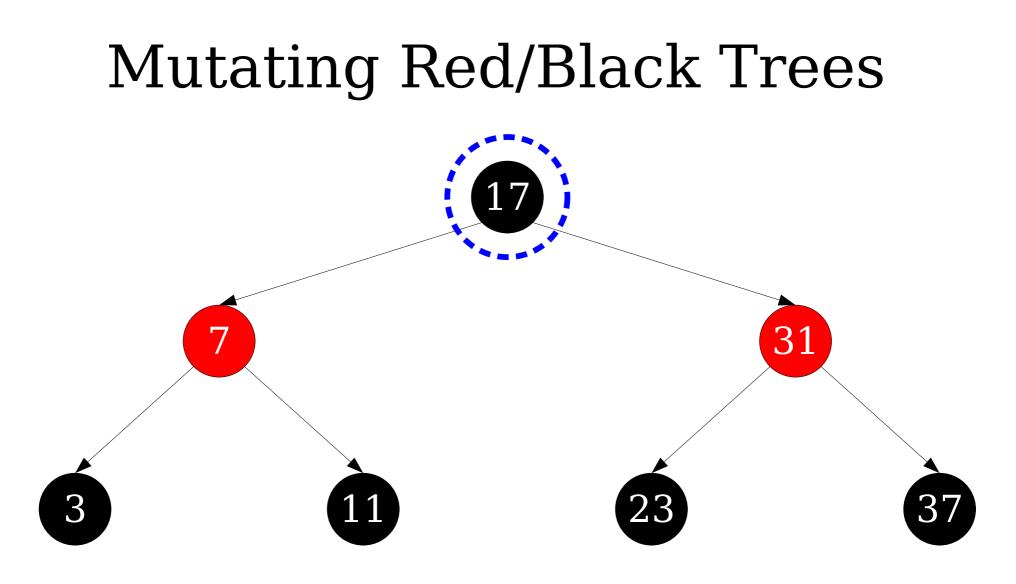


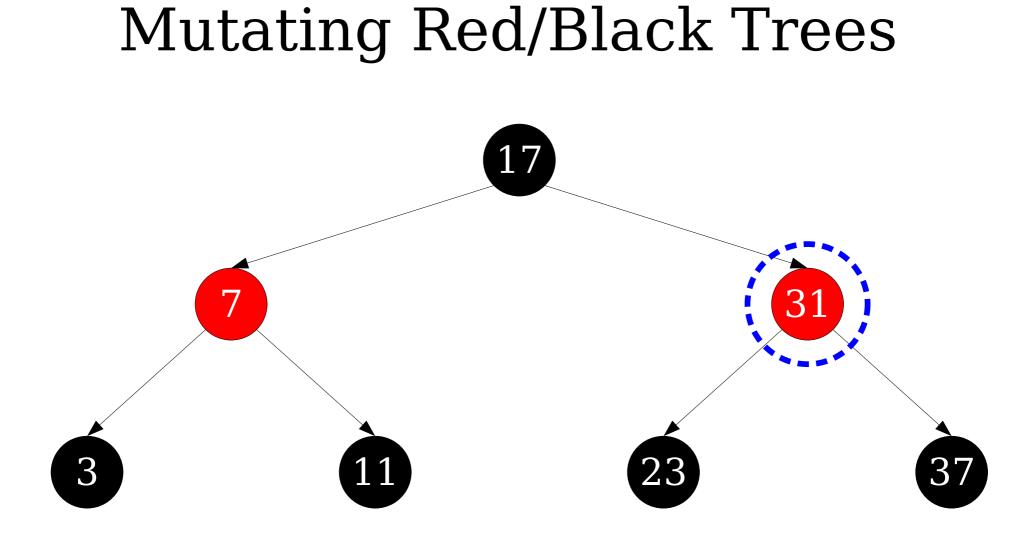


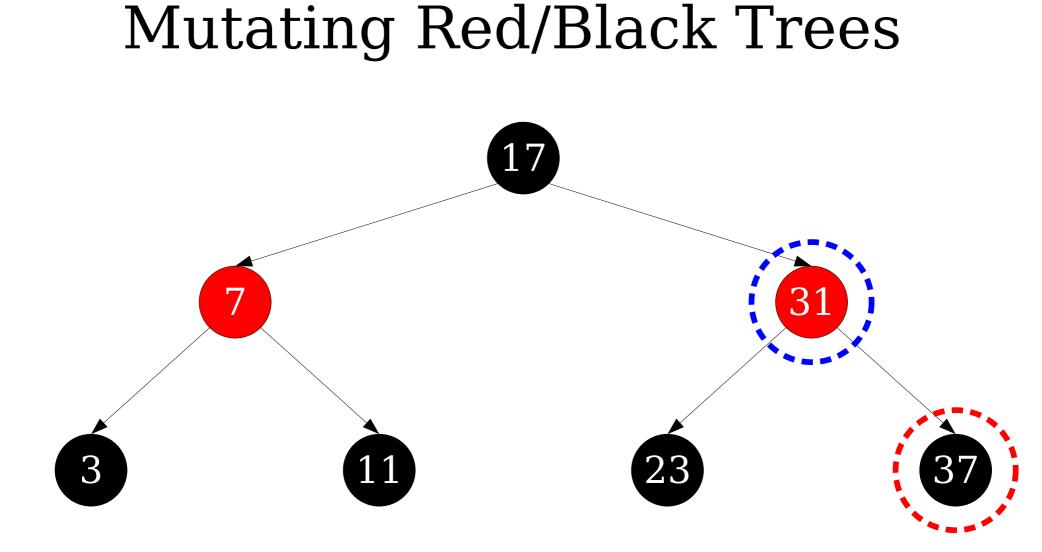


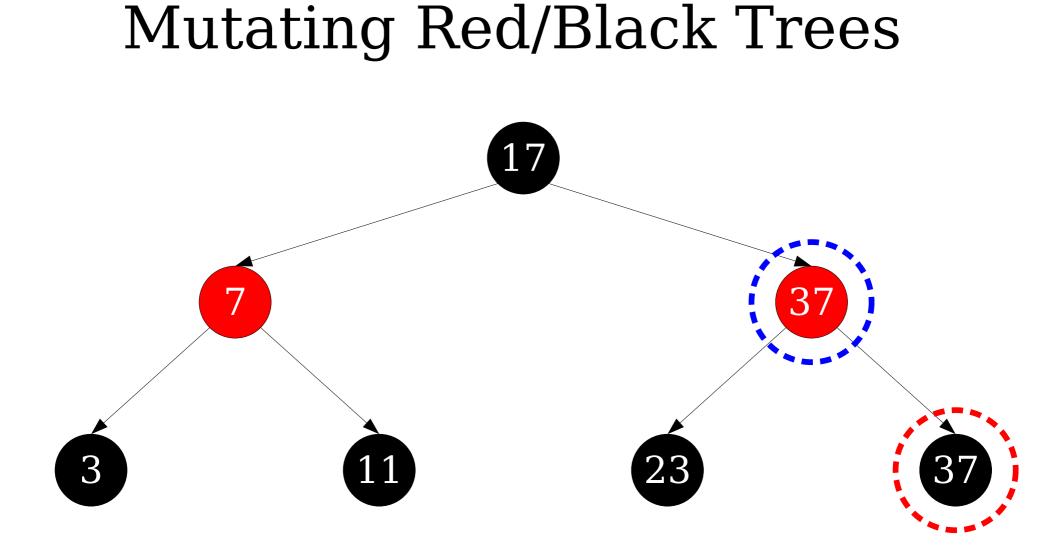
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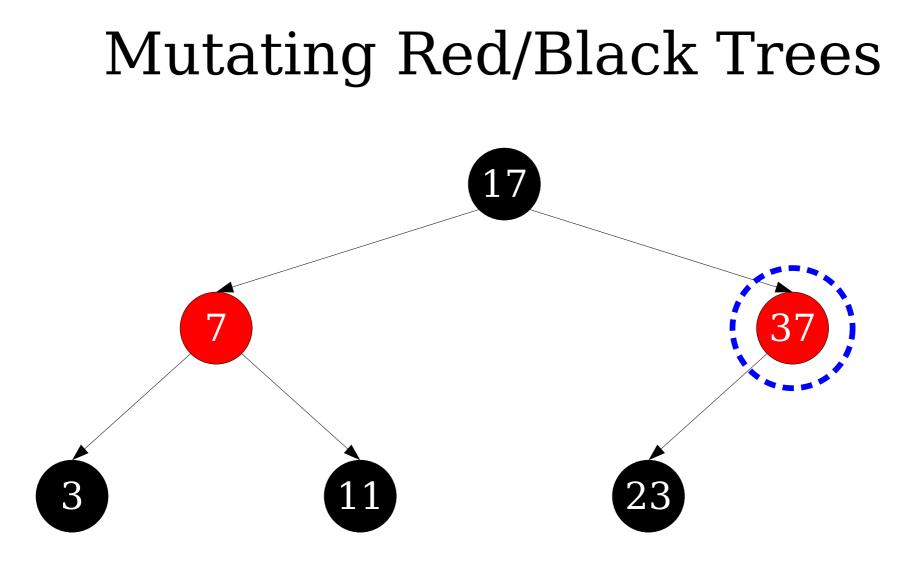


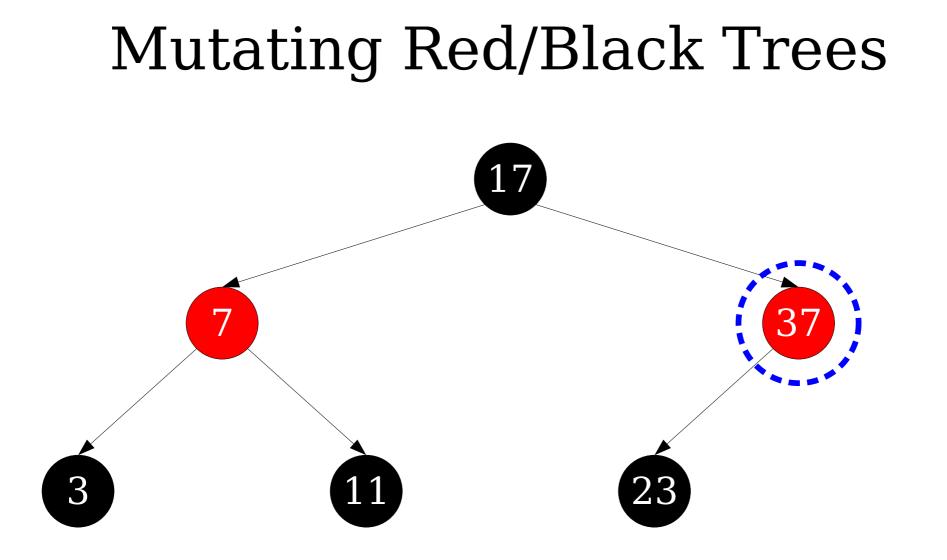












How do we fix up the black-height property?

Fixing Up Red/Black Trees

- **The Good News:** After doing an insertion or deletion, we can locally modify a red/black tree in time O(log *n*) to fix up the red/black properties.
- **The Bad News:** There are a *lot* of cases to consider and they're not trivial.
- Some questions:
 - How do you memorize / remember all the rules for fixing up the tree?
 - How on earth did anyone come up with red/black trees in the first place?

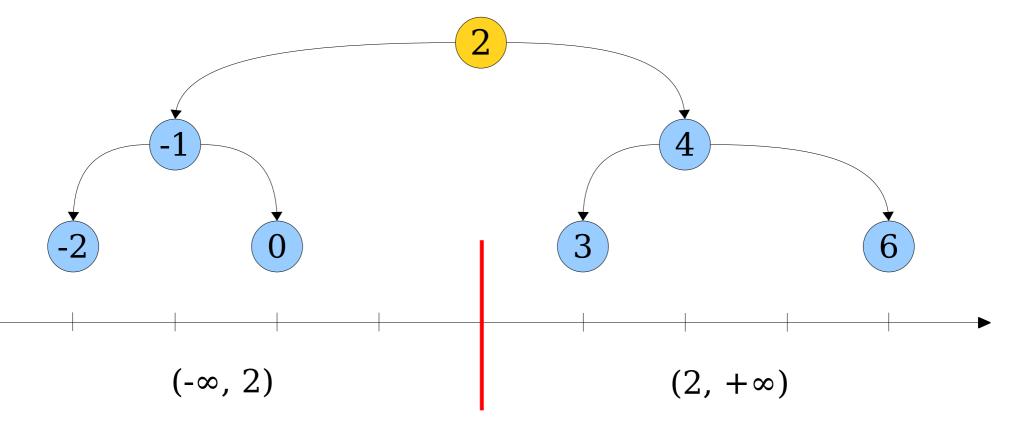
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B-Trees

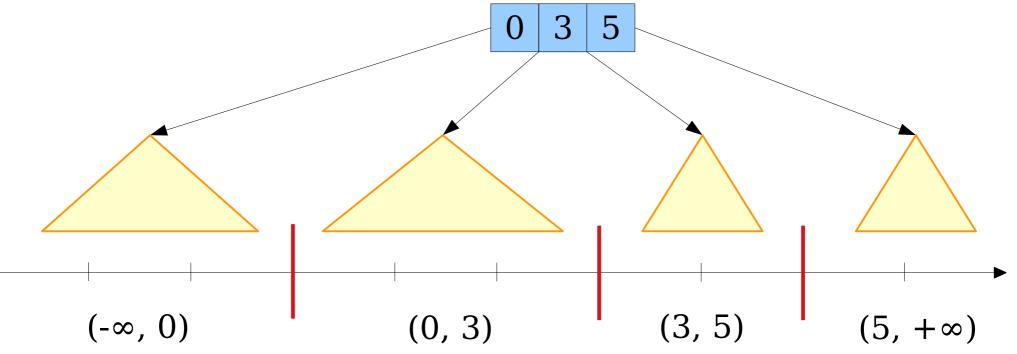
Generalizing BSTs

- In a binary search tree, each node stores a single key.
- That key splits the "key space" into two pieces, and each subtree stores the keys in those halves.



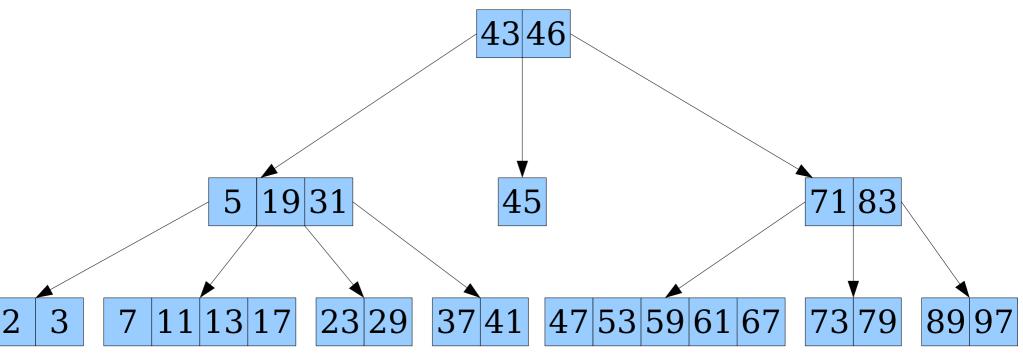
Generalizing BSTs

- In a *multiway search tree*, each node stores an arbitrary number of keys in sorted order.
- A node with k keys splits the key space into k+1 regions, with subtrees for keys in each region.



Generalizing BSTs

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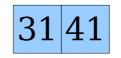
• Surprisingly, it's a bit easier to build a balanced multiway tree than it is to build a balanced BST. Let's see how.

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- We can always just cram more keys into a single node!

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 At a certain point, this stops being a good idea – it's basically just a sorted array. What does "balance" even mean here?

• What could we do if our nodes get too big?

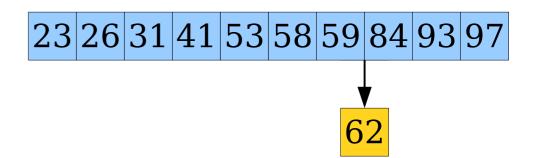
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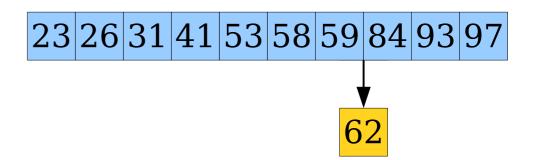
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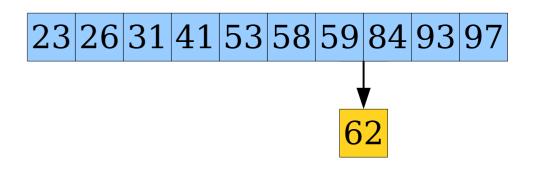
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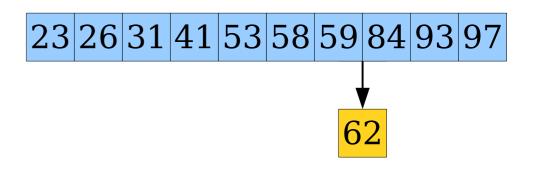


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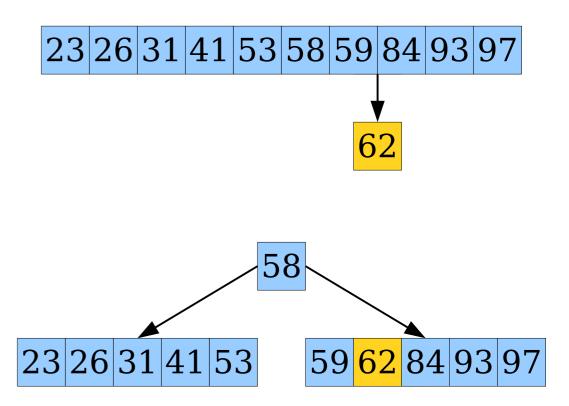
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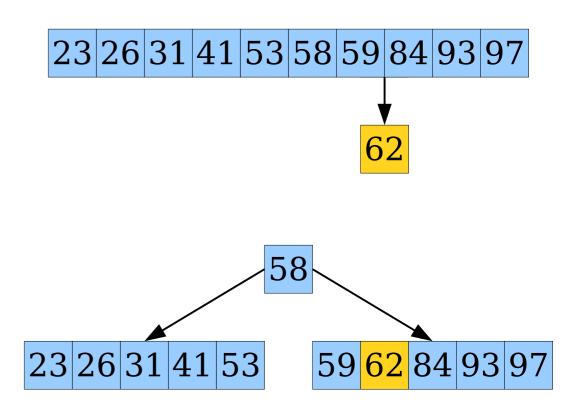


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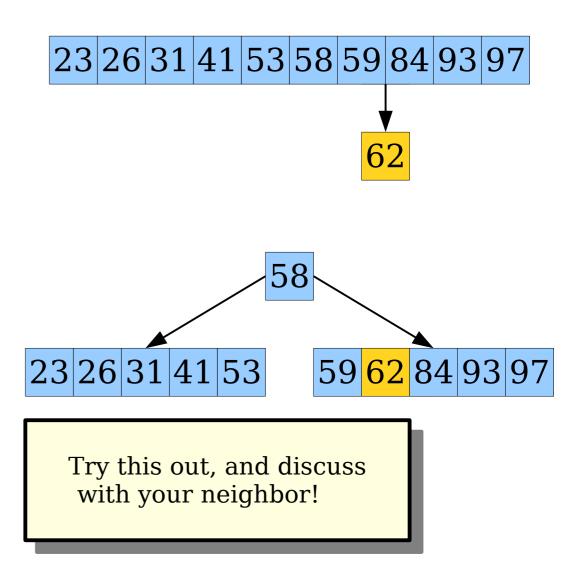
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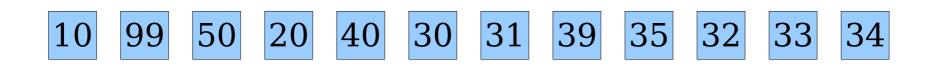
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 - Simple to implement.
 - Can lead to tree imbalances.

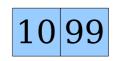


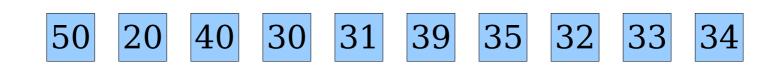
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 - Can lead to tree imbalances.





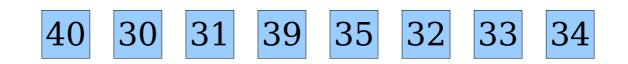
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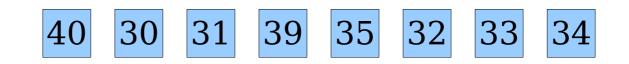
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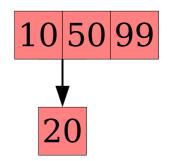


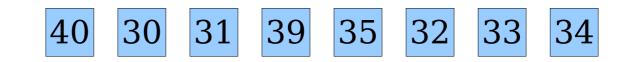
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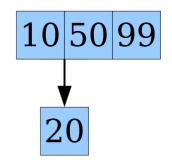


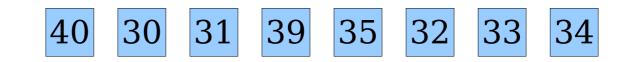
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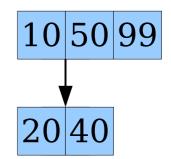


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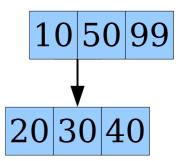


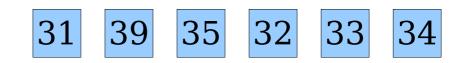
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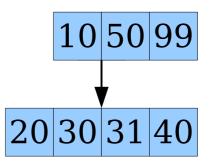


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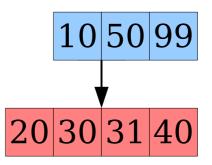


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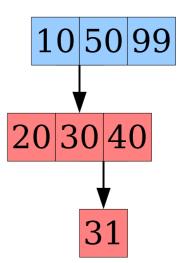


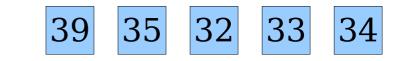
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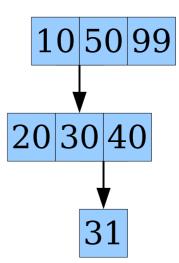


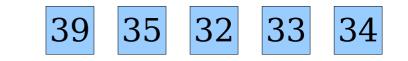
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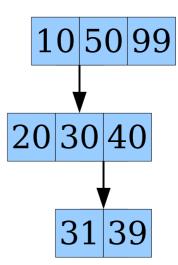


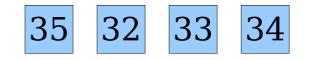
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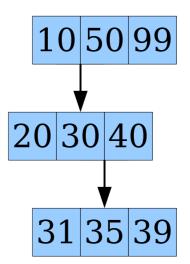


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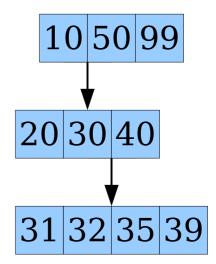


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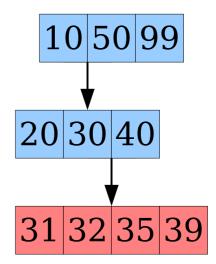


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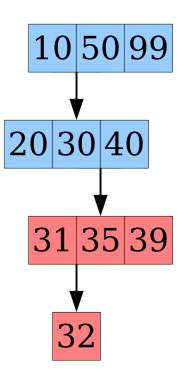


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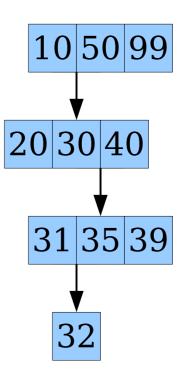


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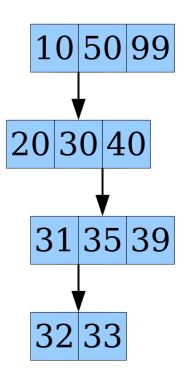


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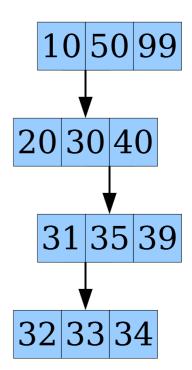


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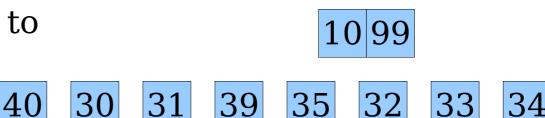
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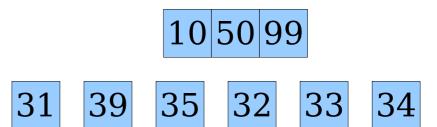
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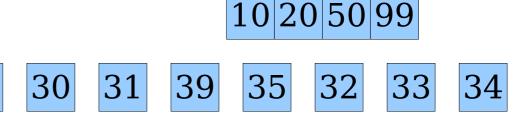
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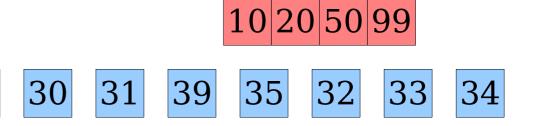
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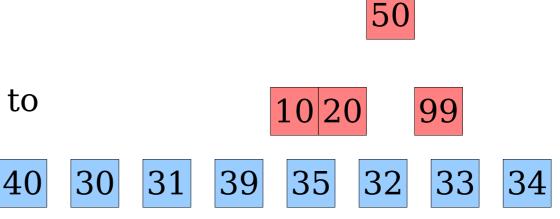
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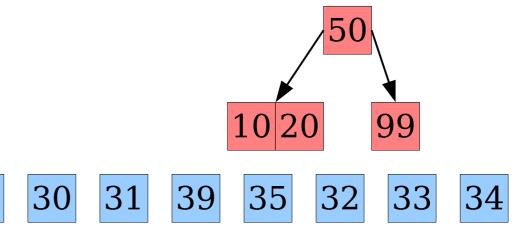
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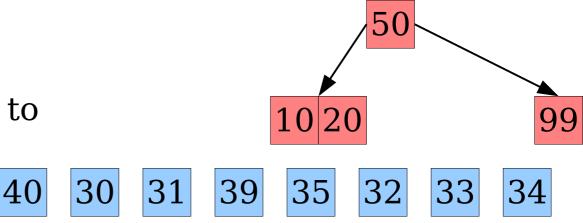
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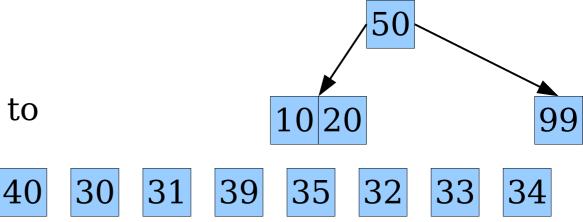
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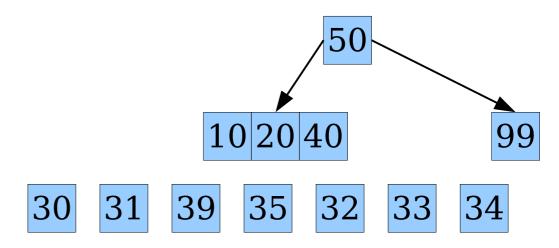
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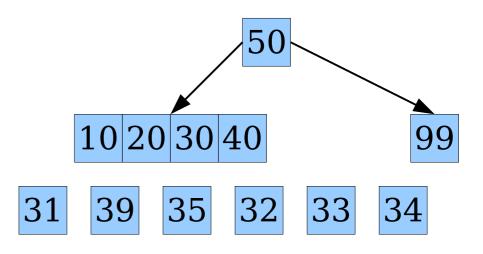
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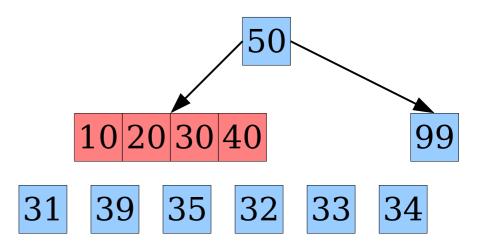
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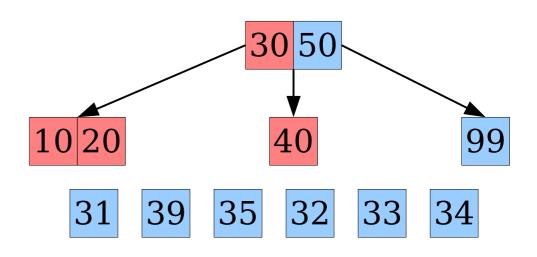
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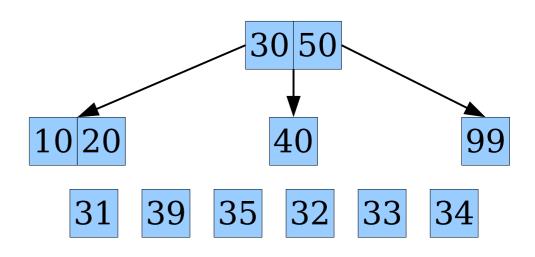
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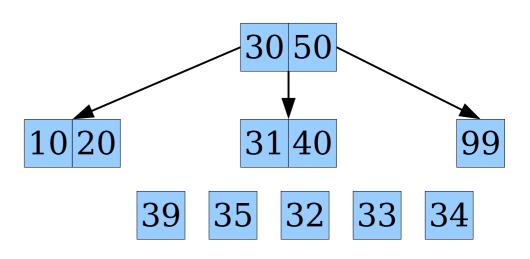
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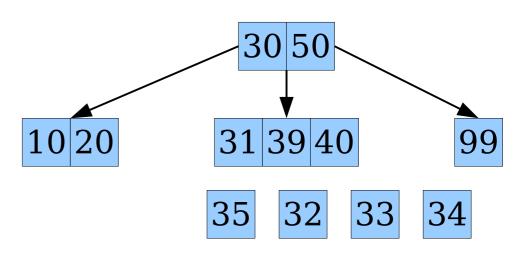
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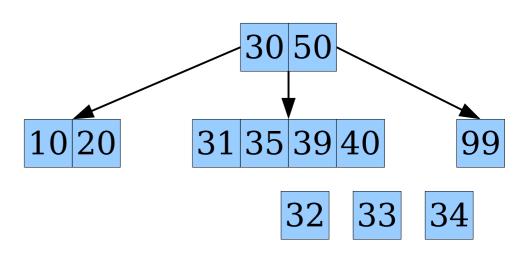
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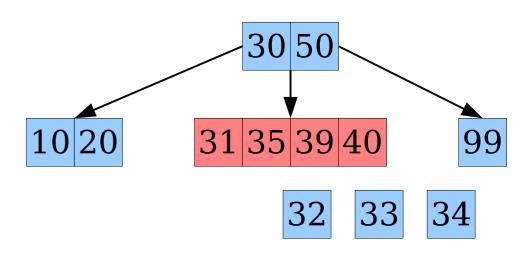
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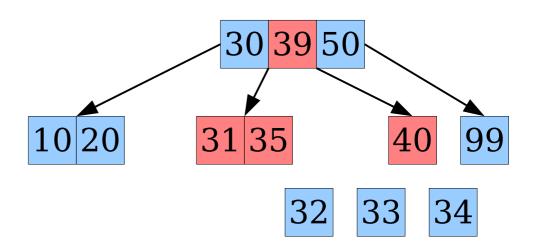
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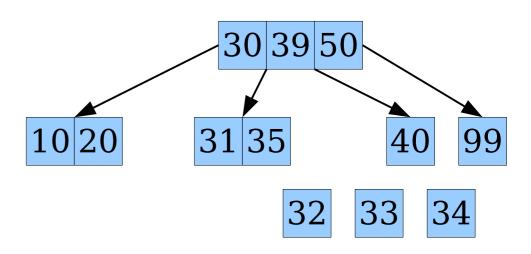
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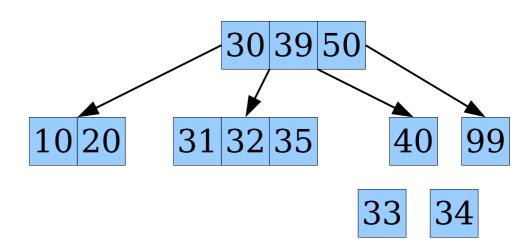
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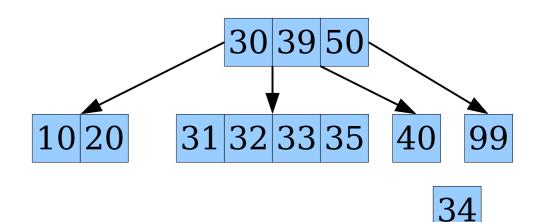
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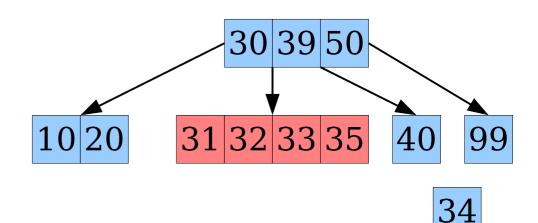
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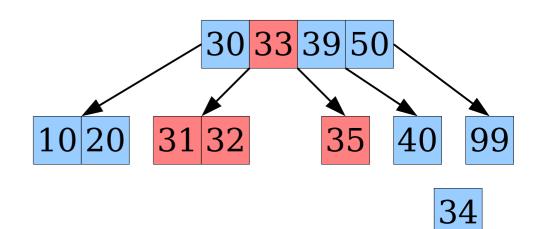
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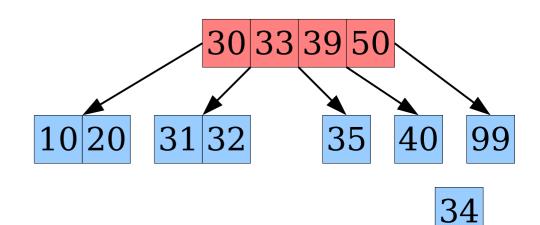
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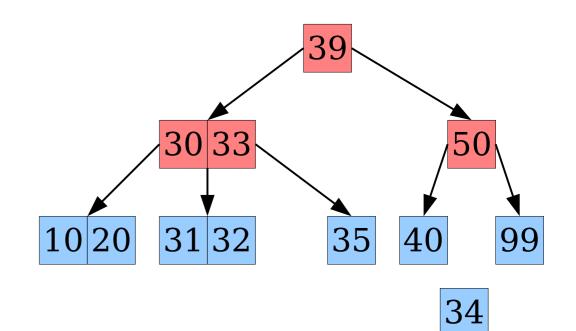
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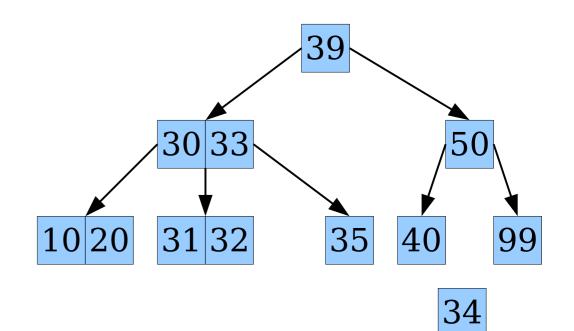
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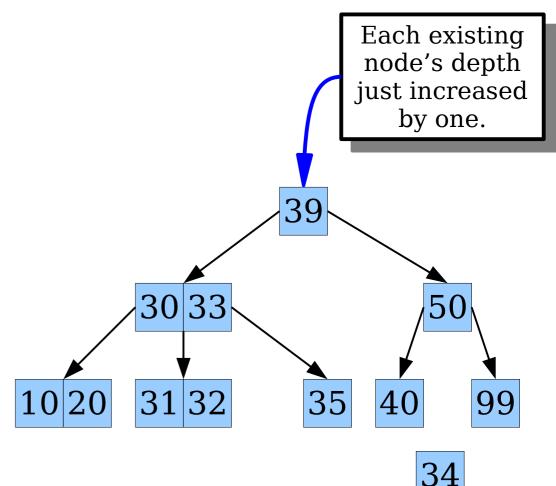
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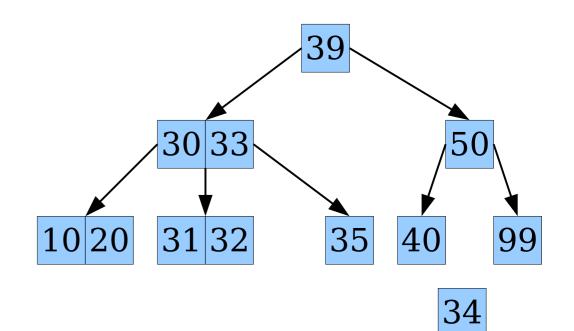
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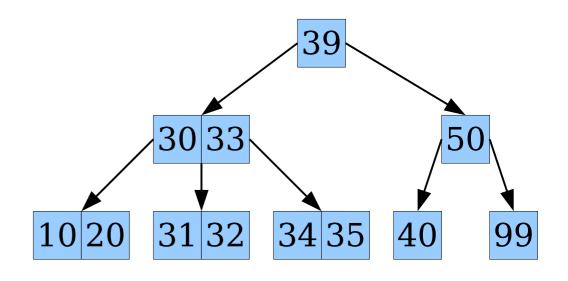
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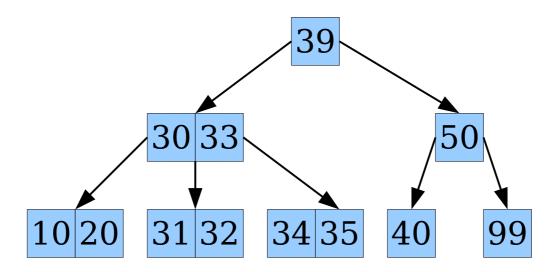
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• *General idea:* Cap the maximum number of keys in a node. Add keys into leaves. Whenever a node gets too big, split it and kick one key higher up the tree.

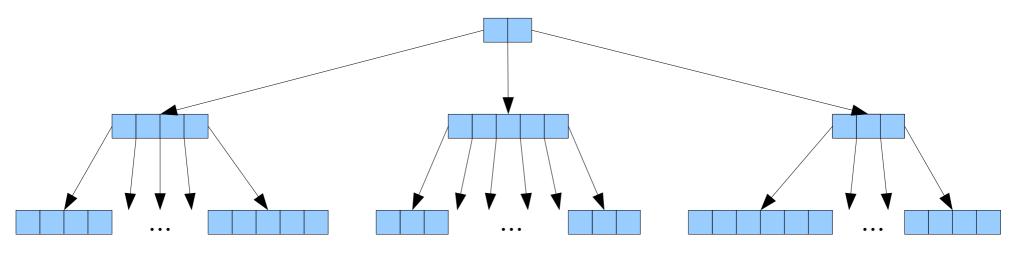


- **Advantage 1:** The tree is always balanced.
- Advantage 2: Insertions and lookups are pretty fast.

- We currently have a *mechanical description* of how these balanced multiway trees work:
 - Cap the size of each node.
 - Add keys into leaves.
 - Split nodes when they get too big and propagate the splits upward.
- We currently don't have an *operational definition* of how these balanced multiway trees work.
 - e.g. "A Cartesian tree for an array is a binary tree that's a min-heap and whose inorder traversal gives back the original array."

B-Trees

- A *B-tree of order b* is a multiway search tree where
 - each node has between *b*-1 and 2*b*-1 keys, except the root, which may have between 1 and 2*b*-1 keys;
 - each node is either a leaf or has one more child than key; and
 - all leaves are at the same depth.
- Different authors give different bounds on how many keys can be in each node. The ranges are often [*b*-1, 2*b*-1] or [*b*, 2*b*]. For the purposes of today's lecture, we'll use the range [*b*-1, 2*b*-1] for the key limits, just for simplicity.



Analyzing B-Trees

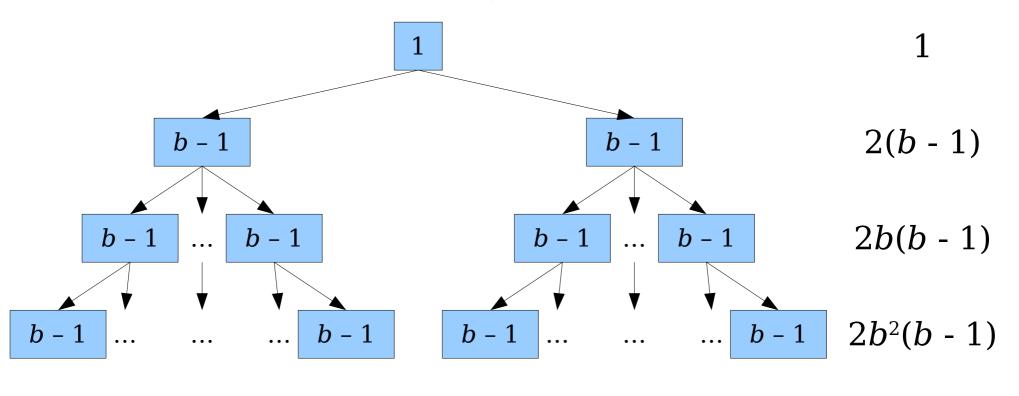
The Height of a B-Tree

• What is the maximum possible height of a B-tree of order *b* that holds *n* keys?

Intuition: The branching factor of the tree is at least b, so the number of keys per level grows exponentially in b. Therefore, we'd expect something along the lines of $O(\log_b n)$.

The Height of a B-Tree

• What is the maximum possible height of a B-tree of order *b* that holds *n* keys?



b – 1 *b* – 1

b - 1 $2b^{h-1}(b - 1)$

The Height of a B-Tree

- Theorem: The maximum height of a B-tree of order b containing n keys is O(log_b n).
- **Proof:** Number of keys *n* in a B-tree of height *h* is guaranteed to be at least

 $1 + 2(b-1) + 2b(b-1) + 2b^{2}(b-1) + ... + 2b^{h-1}(b-1)$

 $= 1 + 2(b-1)(1 + b + b^{2} + ... + b^{h-1})$

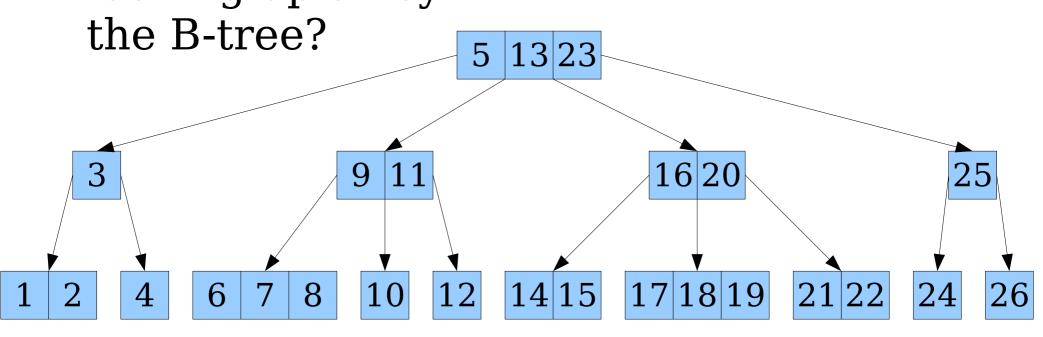
$$= 1 + 2(b-1)((b^{h} - 1) / (b-1))$$

 $= 1 + 2(\mathbf{b}^{h} - 1) = 2\mathbf{b}^{h} - 1.$

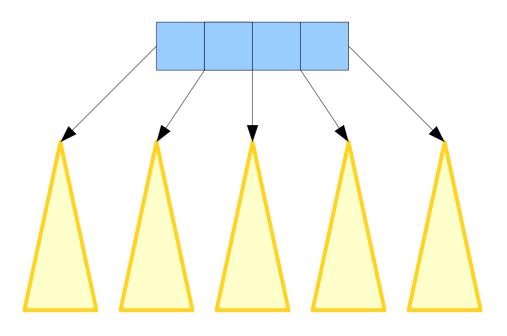
Solving $n = 2b^h - 1$ yields $h = \log_b ((n + 1) / 2)$, so the height is $O(\log_b n)$.

- Suppose we have a B-tree of order b.
- What is the worstcase runtime of looking up a key in the B-tree?

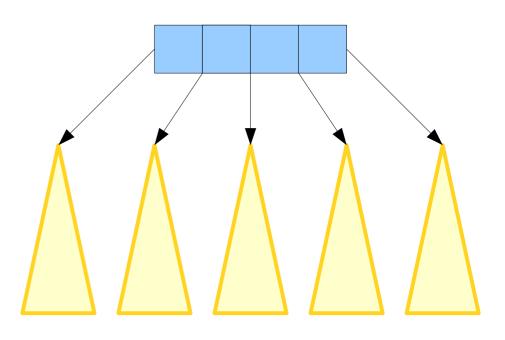
Formulate a hypothesis, and discuss with your neighbor!



- Suppose we have a B-tree of order b.
- What is the worstcase runtime of looking up a key in the B-tree?
- **Answer:** It depends on how we do the search!

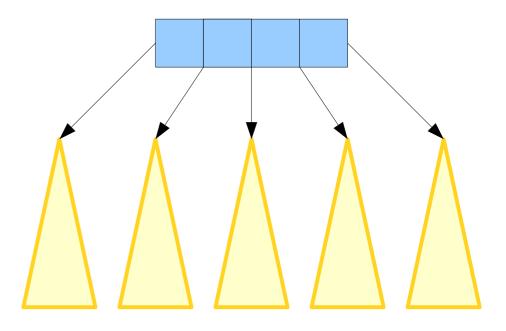


- To do a lookup in a B-tree, we need to determine which child tree to descend into.
- This means we need to compare our query key against the keys in the node.
- **Question:** How should we do this?



- **Option 1:** Use a linear search!
- Cost per node: O(b).
- Nodes visited: $O(\log_b n)$.
- Total cost:

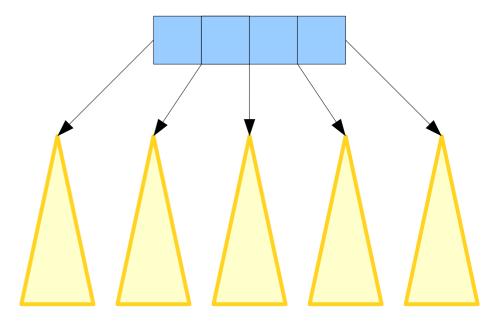
 $O(b) \cdot O(\log_b n)$ $= O(b \log_b n)$



- **Option 2:** Use a binary search!
- Cost per node: O(log *b*).
- Nodes visited: $O(\log_b n)$.
- Total cost:

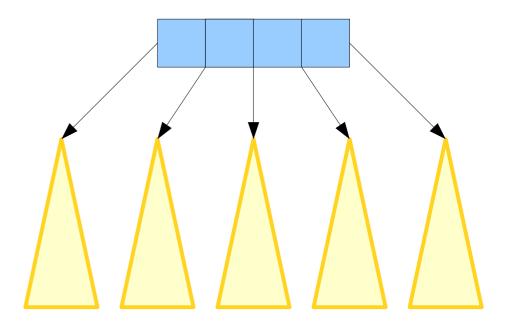
 $O(\log b) \cdot O(\log_b n)$

- $= O(\log b \cdot \log_b n)$
- $= O(\log b \cdot (\log n) / (\log b))$
- = **O(log** *n*).



Intuition: We can't do better than O(log *n*) for arbitrary data, because it's the information-theoretic minimum number of comparisons needed to find something in a sorted collection!

- Suppose we have a B-tree of order *b*.
- What is the worst-case runtime of inserting a key into the B-tree?
- Each insertion visits O(log_b n) nodes, and in the worst case we have to split every node we see.
- **Answer:** $O(b \log_b n)$.



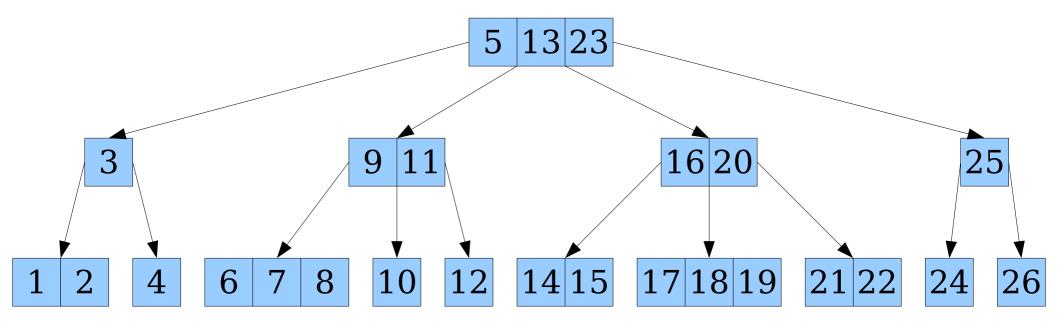
- The cost of an insertion in a B-tree of order b is $O(b \log_b n)$.
- What's the best choice of *b* to use here?
- Note that

 $b \log_b n$ = b (log n / log b) = (b / log b) log n. **Fun fact:** This is the same time bound you'd get if you used a *b*-ary heap instead of a binary heap for a priority queue.

- What choice of *b* minimizes *b* / log *b*?
- **Answer:** Pick b = e. (Or rather, $b = \lfloor e \rfloor = 2$.)

2-3-4 Trees

- A **2-3-4** *tree* is a B-tree of order 2. Specifically:
 - each node has between 1 and 3 keys;
 - each node is either a leaf or has one more child than key; and
 - all leaves are at the same depth.
- You actually saw this B-tree earlier! It's the type of tree from our insertion example.



The Story So Far

- A B-tree supports
 - lookups in time $O(\log n)$, and
 - insertions in time $O(b \log_b n)$.
- Picking *b* to be around 2 or 3 makes this optimal in Theoryland.
 - The 2-3-4 tree is great for that reason.
- **Plot Twist:** In practice, you most often see choices of *b* like 1,024 or 4,096.
- **Question:** Why would anyone do that?



The Memory Hierarchy

Memory Tradeoffs

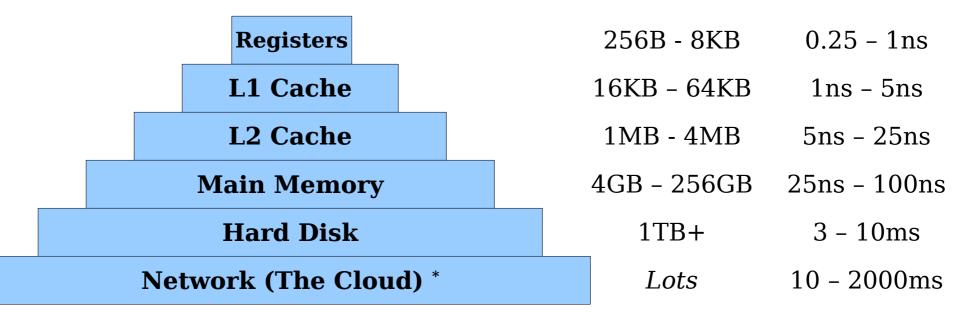
- There is an enormous tradeoff between *speed* and *size* in memory.
- SRAM (the stuff registers are made of) is fast but very expensive:
 - Can keep up with processor speeds in the GHz.
 - SRAM units can't be easily combined together; increasing sizes require better nanofabrication techniques (difficult, expensive!)
- Hard disks are cheap but very slow:
 - As of 2021, you can buy a 4TB hard drive for about \$70.
 - As of 2021, good disk seek times for magnetic drives are measured in ms (about two to four million times slower than a processor cycle!)

The Memory Hierarchy

• **Idea:** Try to get the best of all worlds by using multiple types of memory.

The Memory Hierarchy

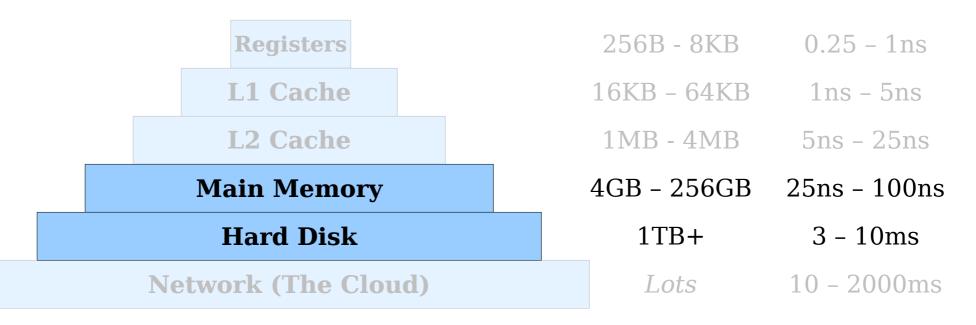
• **Idea:** Try to get the best of all worlds by using multiple types of memory.



* in some data centers, it's faster store all data in RAM and access it over the network than to use magnetic disks!

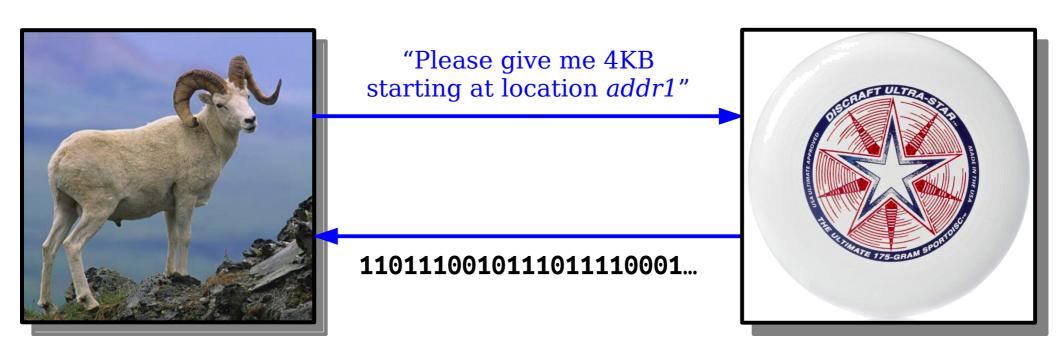
The Memory Hierarchy

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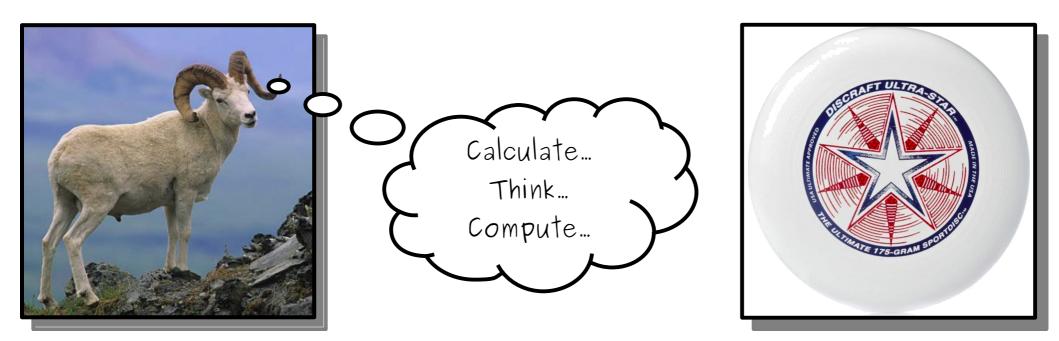


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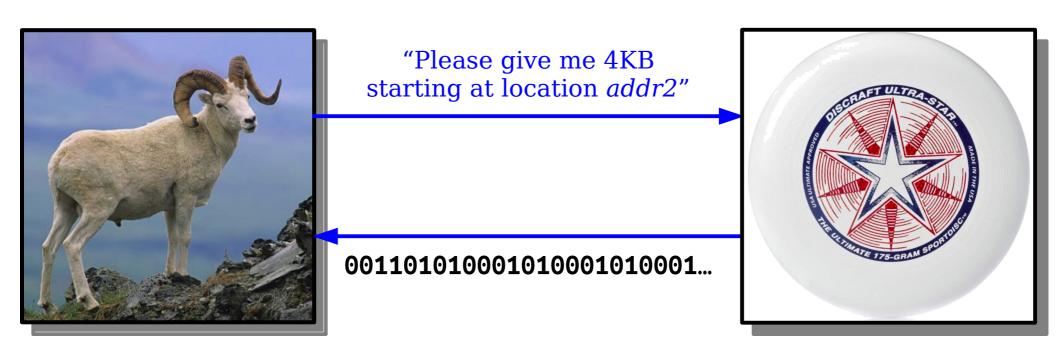
- Suppose you have a data set that's *way* too big to fit in RAM.
- The data structure is on disk and read into RAM as needed.
- Data from disk doesn't come back one *byte* at a time, but rather one *page* at a time.
- *Goal:* Minimize the number of disk reads and writes, not the number of instructions executed.



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Analyzing B-Trees

- Suppose we tune *b* so that each node in the B-tree fits inside a single disk page.
- We *only* care about the number of disk pages read or written.
 - It's so much slower than RAM that it'll dominate the runtime.
- *Question:* What is the cost of a lookup in a B-tree in this model?
- *Question:* What is the cost of inserting into a B-tree in this model?

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 - Answer: The height of the tree, $O(\log_b n)$.
- *Question:* What is the cost of inserting into a B-tree in this model?
 - Answer: The height of the tree, $O(\log_b n)$.

- Because B-trees have a huge branching factor, they're great for on-disk storage.
 - Disk block reads/writes are slow compared to CPU operations.
 - The high branching factor minimizes the number of blocks to read during a lookup.
 - Extra work scanning inside a block offset by these savings.
- Major use cases for B-trees and their variants (B⁺-trees, H-trees, etc.) include
 - databases (huge amount of data stored on disk);
 - file systems (ext4, NTFS, ReFS); and, recently,
 - in-memory data structures (due to cache effects).

Analyzing B-Trees

- The cost model we use will change our overall analysis.
- Cost is number of operations:
 O(log n) per lookup, O(b log_b n) per insertion.
- Cost is number of blocks accessed:
 O(log_b n) per lookup, O(log_b n) per insertion.
- Going forward, we'll use operation counts as our cost model, though there's a ton of research done on designing data structures that are optimal from a cache miss perspective!

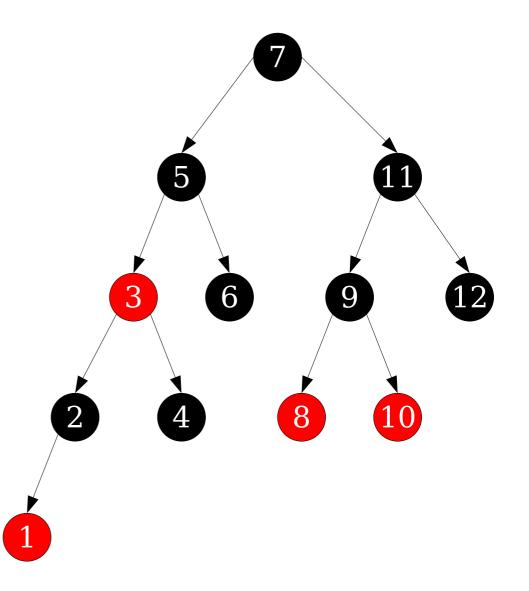
The Story So Far

- We've just built a simple, elegant, balanced multiway tree structure.
- We can use them as balanced trees in main memory (2-3-4 trees).
- We can use them to store huge quantities of information on disk (B-trees).
- We've seen that different cost models are appropriate in different situations.

So... red/black trees?

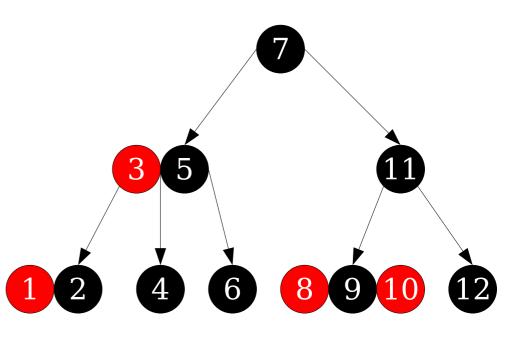
Red/Black Trees

- A *red/black tree* is a BST with the following properties:
 - Every node is either red or black.
 - The root is black.
 - No red node has a red child.
 - Every root-null path in the tree passes through the same number of black nodes.



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 - No red node has a red child.
 - Every root-null path in the tree passes through the same number of black nodes.
- After we hoist red nodes into their parents:
 - Each "meta node" has 1, 2, or 3 keys in it. (No red node has a red child.)
 - Each "meta node" is either a leaf or has one more child than key. (Rootnull path property.)
 - Each "meta leaf" is at the same depth. (Root-null path property.)



This is a 2-3-4 tree!

Data Structure Isometries

- Red/black trees are an *isometry* of 2-3-4 trees; they represent the structure of 2-3-4 trees in a different way.
- Many data structures can be designed and analyzed in the same way.
- *Huge advantage:* Rather than memorizing a complex list of red/black tree rules, just think about what the equivalent operation on the corresponding 2-3-4 tree would be and simulate it with BST operations.

Next Time

- Deriving Red/Black Trees
 - Figuring out rules for red/black trees using our isometry.
- Tree Rotations
 - A key operation on binary search trees.
- Augmented Trees
 - Building data structures on top of balanced BSTs.