

# Algorithms and Data Structures

Optimal Search Trees; Tries

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#### Content of this Lecture

- Optimal Search Trees
  - Definition
  - Construction
  - Analysis
- Searching Strings: Tries

### Static Key Sets, Varying Access Frequencies

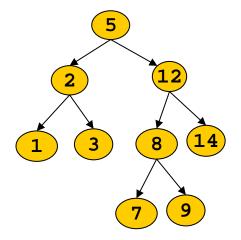
- Sometimes, the set of keys is "fixed"
  - Streets of a city, cities in a country, keywords of a prog. lang., ...
- Often, searches are much more frequent than updates
  - We may spent more effort for reorganizing the tree after updates
- Example: Large-scale web search engines
  - Recall: A search engine creates a dictionary; every word has a link to the set of documents containing it
  - The dictionary must be accessed very fast, changes are rare
  - Often, engines build complex structures to optimally support searching over the current set of documents considered as static
    - Defer updates: Changes are buffered and bulk-inserted periodically
    - Search either searches two data structures, or misses are accepted

#### Scenario

- Assume a set K of keys and a bag R of requests (workload)
  - Every request searches a k∈K; k's may appear multiple times in R
  - In contrast to SOL, we now don't care about the order of requests
  - Like SOL with fixed access frequencies but now we consider trees
- Naïve approach
  - Build an AVL tree over K
  - Every r∈R costs O(log(|K|)), i.e., we need O(|R|\*log(|K|))
  - This is optimal, if every k∈K appears with the same frequency in R
- What if R is highly skewed?
  - Skewed: k's are not equally distributed in R
  - Rather the norm than the exception in real life (Zipf, ...)
  - In contrast to SOL, finding an optimal search tree for R is not trivial

### Example

- $K = \{1,2,3,5,7,8,9,12,14\}$
- We build an AVL tree
- $R_1 = \{2,5,8,7,3,12,1,8,8\}$ - 2+1+3+4+3+2+3+3=31 comparisons
- $R_2 = \{9,9,1,9,2,9,5,3,9,1\}$ - 4+4+3+4+2+4+1+3+4+3=32 comparisons



### Example

- Let's optimize the tree for R<sub>2</sub>
  - Not a AVL tree any more
- $R_2 = \{9,9,1,9,2,9,5,3,9,1\}$ =  $\{9,9,9,9,9,1,1,2,5,3\}$ 
  - 9 and 1 should be high in the tree

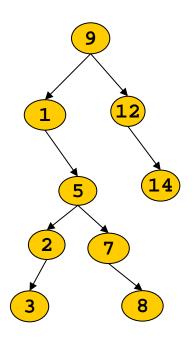
$$-1+1+1+1+1+2+2+4+3+5=21$$

- Versus 32
- Not good for R<sub>1</sub>

$$-R_1 = \{2,5,8,7,3,12,1,8,8\}$$

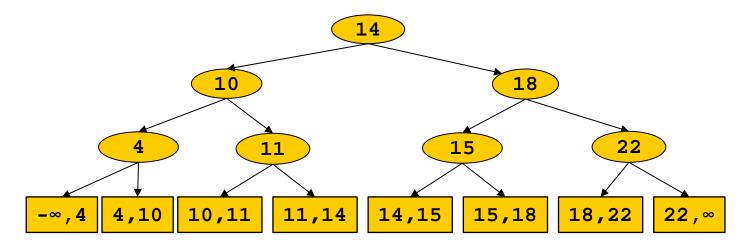
$$-4+3+5+4+5+2+2+5+5=35$$

- Versus 31
- Is this truly the optimal search tree for R<sub>2</sub>?



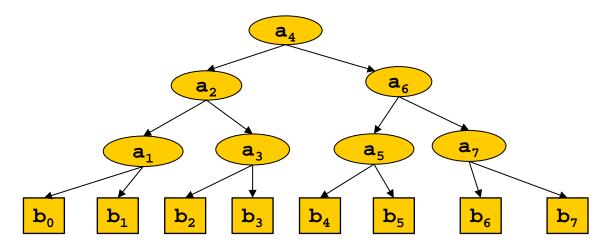
### Request Model

- Assume an (ordered) set K of keys, K={k<sub>1</sub>, k<sub>2</sub>, ..., k<sub>n</sub>}
- Every k is searched with frequency a<sub>1</sub>, a<sub>2</sub>, ..., a<sub>n</sub>
- No-key intervals  $]-\infty, k_1[, ]k_1, k_2[, ..., ]k_{n-1}, k_n[, ]k_n, +\infty[$  are searched with frequencies  $b_0, b_1, ..., b_n$ 
  - We need to consider costs of searches that fail
- Together:  $R = \{a_1, a_2, ..., a_n, b_0, b_1, ..., b_n\}$



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### **Optimal Search Trees**

Definition

Let T be a search tree for K and R a workload. The cost P(T) of T for R is defined as

$$P(T) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( depth(k_i) + 1 \right) * a_i + \sum_{j=0}^{n} \left( depth(jk_j, k_{j+1}[) + 1 \right) * b_j$$

Definition
 Let K be a set of keys and R a workload. A search tree T
 over K is optimal for R iff

$$P(T) = \min\{P(T') \mid T' \text{ is search tree for } K\}$$

#### One More Definition

Definition
 Let T be a search tree over K and R a workload. The weight W(T) of T for R is:

$$W(T) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i + \sum_{j=0}^{n} b_j$$

- Thus, the weight of T is simply |R|
- We will need this definition for subtrees

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## Finding the Optimal Search Tree

- Bad news: There are exponentially many search trees
  - We cannot enumerate all search trees, compute their cost, and then choose the cheapest
  - Proof omitted
- Good news: We don't need to look at all possible search trees
  - We can use a divide & conquer approach
  - Dynamic programming: Build large solutions from smaller ones
    - Recall max\_subarray etc.
    - Here: Build larger optimal search trees from smaller optimal STs

#### General Idea

- Observation: We can define P(T) recursively
  - Let  $k_r$  be root of T and  $T_{lr}$ =leftChild( $k_r$ ),  $T_{rr}$ =rightChild( $k_r$ )
    - "Ir: Left-of-r"; "rr: Right-of-r"
  - Clearly:  $P(T) = P(T_{lr}) + P(T_{rr}) + a_r + W(T_l) + W(T_{rr})$ =  $P(T_{lr}) + P(T_{rr}) + W(T)$
  - Since W(T) is the same for every possible search tree, the cost of a tree only depends on the cost of its subtrees
- Problem: We do not know k<sub>r</sub>, but we need to find it
  - k<sub>r</sub> divides T into a left part (T<sub>Ir</sub>) and a right part (T<sub>rr</sub>)
  - Both T<sub>Ir</sub> and T<sub>rr</sub> are smaller than T
  - Assume we knew  $P(T_{lr})$  and  $P(T_{rr})$  for every possible  $k_r$ 
    - Both are smaller, so we can compute T<sub>I</sub>/T<sub>r</sub> values bottom-up
  - We can test all n different  $k_r$ 's and find the one maximizing the term  $P(T_{lr}) + P(T_{rr}) + W(T)$

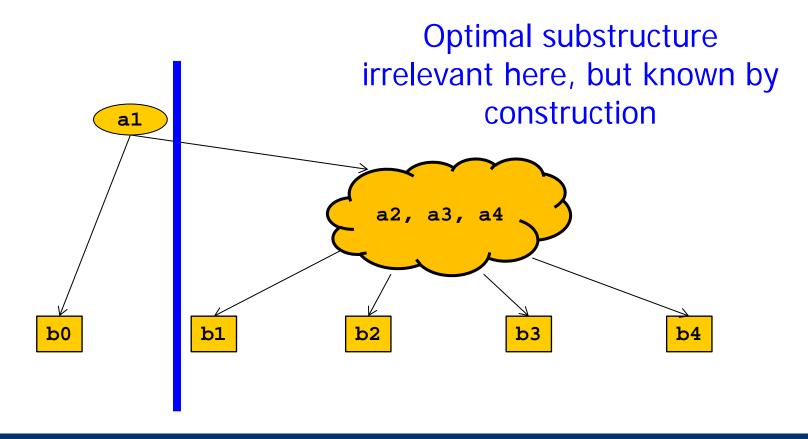
### Example

- We want to compute the optimal search tree T for the keys a1-a4 and no-key ranges b0-b5
- One of the keys a1, a2, a3, a4, must be the root



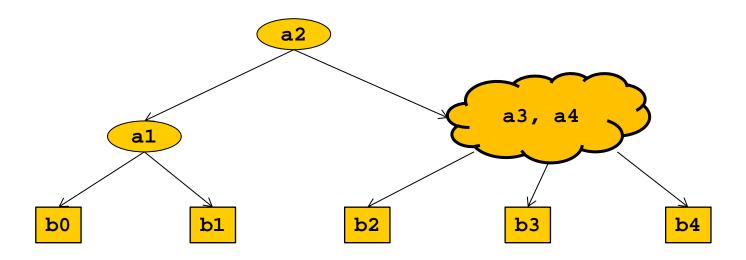
### **Example Continued**

 If a1 would be the "optimal root", the cost of P(T) would be P(b2)+P(b1...b4)+W(T)



### **Example Continued**

 If a2 would be the "optimal root", the cost of P(T) would be P(b0..b1)+P(b2..b4)+W(T)



### Formal: A Divide & Conquer Approach

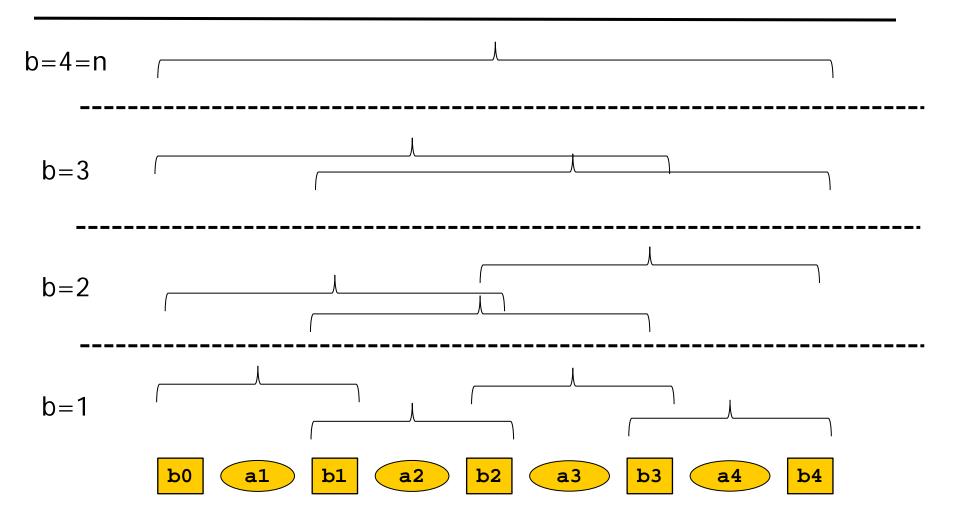
- Consider a range R(i,j) of keys and intervals
  - $R(i,j) = \{ ]k_i, k_{i+1}[, k_{i+1}, ]k_{i+1}, k_{i+2}[, k_{i+2}, ... k_j, ]k_j, k_{j+1}[ \}$
- Assume that R(i,j) is represented as subtree T(i,j) of T(1,n)
  - That's not the case in all topologies for T; the "left" part of R could lie in a different subtree than the "right" part
- One of the  $k_r \in R(i,j)$  must be the root of this subtree
- Thus, k<sub>r</sub> divides R(i,j) in two halves R(i,r-1), R(r,j)
- Assume we know the optimal trees for all sub-ranges
   R(i,i+1), R(i,i+2), ..., R(i,j-1), R(i+1,j), ..., R(j-1, j)
- Then, we find the r creating the optimal tree T(i,j) using

$$P(T(i,j)) = W(T(i,j)) + \min_{r=i+1...j} (P(T(i,r-1)) + P(T(r,j)))$$

### **Bottom-Up Computation**

- We systematically enumerate smaller R(i,j) and puzzle them together to larger ones
- Let P(i,j) be the cost of the optimal search tree for R(i,j)
- To compute P(i,j), we (1) need the P and W-values of all possible enclosed subtrees and we (2) need to find the optimal value of r
- We perform induction over the breadth b of intervals: All intervals of breadth 0, 2 ... n (and we are done)
  - Breadth of an interval: Number of keys contained

### Illustration



#### **Induction Start**

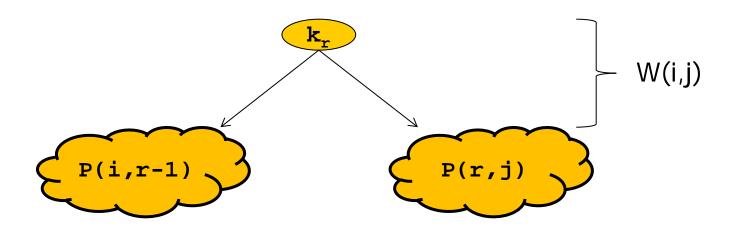
- b=0; all subintervals (i,i)
  - This is a leaf (an interval without keys), no root selection required

$$- \forall 0 \le i < n+1: W(i,i) = b_i$$
$$P(i,i) = W(i,i)$$

- b=1; all subintervals (i,i+1)
  - The root is always k<sub>i+1</sub>
    - The only key in this interval; l=i+1
  - $\forall$ 0≤i<n: W(i,i+1) = b<sub>i</sub> + a<sub>i+1</sub> + b<sub>i+1</sub> P(i,i+1) = P(i,i) + W(i,i+1) + P(i+1,i+1)

#### Induction

- General case: b>1, subintervals (i,j) with j-i=b>1
  - Induction hypothesis: We know W, P for all intervals of breadth<b/li>
  - Find the index r for the optimal root of the subtrees
  - Then compute:  $W(i,j) = W(i,r-1) + a_i + W(r,j)$ P(i,j) = P(i,r-1) + W(i,j) + P(r,j)

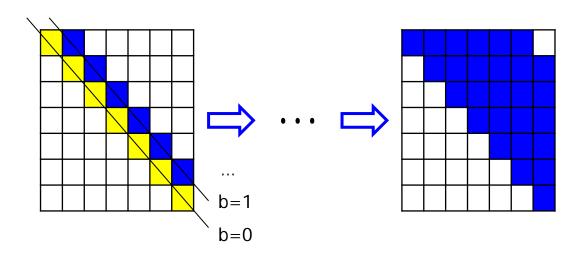


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### **Implementation**

- There are only (n+1)\*(n+1) different pairs i,j
- We essentially fill a quadratic matrix of size (n+1)\*(n+1) for W and one for P
  - Since j≥i, we actually only need half of each matrix
- Both matrixes are iteratively filled from the main diagonal to the upper-right corner



### **Analysis**

### Space

- We need 2 arrays of size O(n\*n)
- Space complexity: O(n²)

#### Time

- Cases b=0 and b=1 are O(n)
- We enumerate breadths from 2 to n
- For each b, we consider all possible start positions: O(n-b) many
- In each range, we need to find the optimal I this is O(b)
- A range has max size n-1
- Together: O(n³)

```
    initialize W(i,i);

2. initialize P(i,i);
   initialize W(i,i+1);
   initialize P(i,i+1);
5. for b = 2 to n do
     for i = 0 to (n-b) do
7.
       j := i+b;
       find optimal 1 in [i,j];
       W(i,j) := ...
9.
       P(i,j) := ...
10.
11.
     end for:
12. end for;
```

## Constructing the tree

- We only showed how to compute the cost of the optimal tree, but not how to build the tree itself
- But this is simple since we never revise decisions
- We can "grow" the tree whenever we have computed a new optimal root I
- For instance, we can define a r(i,j):=I in every step; the sequence of computed I-values fully determine the tree

#### Relevance

- Nice and instructive
- Runtime can actually be reduced to O(n²)
- But: O(n²) is still quite expensive for large n
- Fortunately, one can compute "almost" optimal search trees in linear time
  - Not this lecture

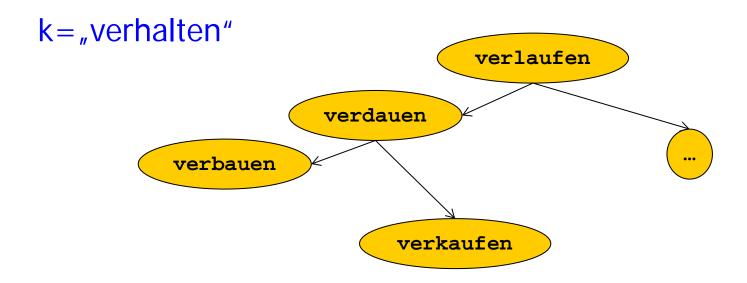
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### Keys that are Strings

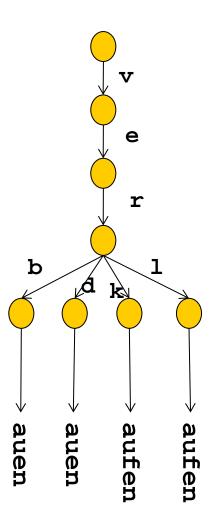
- Assume K is a set of strings of maximal length m
- We can build an AVL tree over K
- Searching requires O(log(n)) key comparisons
- But: Each string-comp requires m char-comps in WC
  - Very pessimistic, but we do WC analysis
- Together: We need O(|k|\*log(n)) character comparisons for searching a key k
- Observation
  - "Similar" strings will be close neighbors in the tree
  - These will share prefixes (the longer, the more similar)
  - These prefixes are compared again and again

# Example



#### **Tries**

- Tries are edge-labeled trees of order |Σ|
  - Developed for Information Retrieval
- Edges are labeled with chars from ∑
- Idea: Common prefixes of keys are represented only once
- Problem: If "verl" is a key?
  - Trick: Add a "\$" (not in Σ) to every string
  - Then every and only leaves represent keys



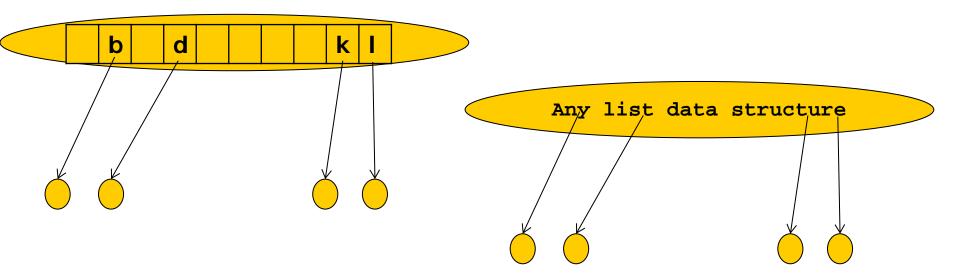
### Analysis

- Construction of a trie over K?
  - Let len(K) be the sum of all key lengths in K
  - We start with an empty tree and iteratively add all k∈K
  - To add a key k, we char-match k in the tree as long as possible
  - As soon as no continuation is found, we build a new branch
  - This requires O(|k|) operations (char-comps or node creations)
  - It follows: Construction is in O(len(K))
- Searching a key k (which maybe in K or not in K)
  - We match k from root down the tree
  - When k is exhausted and we are in a leaf: k∈K
  - If no continuation is found or we end in an inner node: k∉K
  - It follows: Searching is in O(|k|)
  - But ...

### **Space Complexity**

- We have at most len(K) edges and len(K)+1 nodes
  - Shared prefixes make the actual number smaller
- But we also need pointer to children
- To achieve our search complexity, choosing the right pointer must be in O(1)
- This adds O(len(K)\*|∑|) pointers
- Too much for any non-trivial alphabet
  - Digital tries are a popular data structure in coding theory
  - There,  $|\Sigma|=2$ , so the pointers don't matter much
  - But beware the trees get very deep
- Furthermore, most of the pointers will be null
  - Depending on  $|\Sigma|$ , |K|, and lengths of shared prefixes

#### **Alternatives**

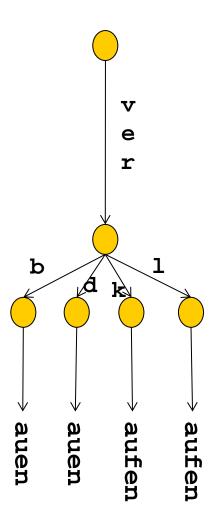


- Full array for children ptr
- Advantage: O(|k|) search
- Disadvantage: Excessive space consumption

- Dense array for children ptr
- Advantage: O(len(K)) space
- Disadvantage: Search is O(|k|\*log(|Σ|))

### Compressed Tries = Patricia Trees

- We can save further space
- A patricia tree (or radix tree) is a trie where edges are labeled with (sub-)strings, not with characters
- All sequences S=<node, edge>
   which do not branch are compressed
   into a single edge labeled with the
   concatenation of the labels in S
- More compact, less pointer
- Slightly more complicated implementation
  - E.g. insert requires splitting of labels



### **Exemplary Questions**

- Recall the definition of a trie. Give in implementation (in pseudo code) for (a) searching a key k and (b) building a trie for a string set K. You may presuppose a data structure "list" with operations add(c, p) for adding a pair of character and pointer and retrieve(c), which returns the pointer associated to c or nil.
- Build an optimal search tree for K={5,12,15,20} and R={6,2,3,8,11,5,2,1,4}. Show the complete tables for W and P
- Prove that all tries for any permutation of a set of strings are identical