

# CS 240 – Data Structures and Data Management

## Module 8: Range-Searching in Dictionaries for Points

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Based on lecture notes by many previous cs240 instructors

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References: Goodrich & Tamassia 21.1, 21.3

# Outline

## 1 Range-Searching in Dictionaries for Points

- Range Searches
- Multi-Dimensional Data
- Quadtrees
- kd-Trees
- Range Trees
- Conclusion

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  - Multi-Dimensional Data
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  - Range Trees
  - Conclusion

## Range searches

- So far: *search*( $k$ ) looks for *one* specific item.
- New operation **RangeSearch**: look for *all* items that fall within a given range.
  - ▶ Input: A **range**, i.e., an interval  $I = (x, x')$   
It may be open or closed at the ends.
  - ▶ Want: Report all KVPs in the dictionary whose key  $k$  satisfies  $k \in I$

**Example:**

5	10	11	17	19	33	45	51	55	59
---	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----

*RangeSearch*((18,45]) should return {19, 33, 45}

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*RangeSearch*((18,45]) should return {19, 33, 45}

- Let  $s$  be the **output-size**, i.e., the number of items in the range.
- We need  $\Omega(s)$  time simply to report the items.
- Note that sometimes  $s = 0$  and sometimes  $s = n$ ; we therefore keep it as a separate parameter when analyzing the run-time.

## Range searches in existing dictionary realizations

**Unsorted list/array/hash table:** Range search requires  $\Omega(n)$  time: We have to check for each item explicitly whether it is in the range.

**Sorted array:** Range search in  $A$  can be done in  $O(\log n + s)$  time:

*RangeSearch*((18,45])

5	10	11	17	19	33	45	51	55	59
			$\uparrow i$			$\uparrow i'$			

- Using binary search, find  $i$  such that  $x$  is at (or would be at)  $A[i]$ .
- Using binary search, find  $i'$  such that  $x'$  is at (or would be at)  $A[i']$
- Report all items  $A[i+1\dots i'-1]$
- Report  $A[i]$  and  $A[i']$  if they are in range

**BST:** Range searches can similarly be done in time  $O(\text{height}+s)$  time. We will see this in detail later.

# Outline

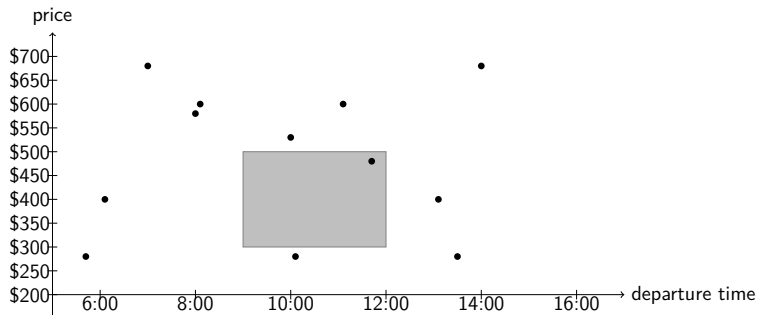
## 1 Range-Searching in Dictionaries for Points

- Range Searches
- **Multi-Dimensional Data**
- Quadtrees
- kd-Trees
- Range Trees
- Conclusion

## Multi-Dimensional Data

Range searches are of special interest for **multi-dimensional data**.

**Example:** flights that leave between 9am and noon, and cost \$300-\$500



- Each item has  $d$  **aspects** (coordinates):  $(x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{d-1})$
- Aspect values  $(x_i)$  are numbers
- Each item corresponds to a point in  $d$ -dimensional space
- We concentrate on  $d = 2$ , i.e., points in Euclidean plane



# Multi-dimensional Range Search

(Orthogonal) ***d*-dimensional range search**: Given a **query rectangle**  $A$ , find all points that lie within  $A$ .

The time for range searches depends on how the points are stored.

- Could store a 1-dimensional dictionary (where the key is some combination of the aspects.)  
Problem: Range search on one aspect is not straightforward
- Could use one dictionary for each aspect  
Problem: inefficient, wastes space
- **Better idea**: Design new data structures specifically for points.
  - ▶ Quadtrees
  - ▶ kd-trees
  - ▶ range-trees

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# Quadtrees

We have  $n$  points  $S = \{(x_0, y_0), (x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_{n-1}, y_{n-1})\}$  in the plane.

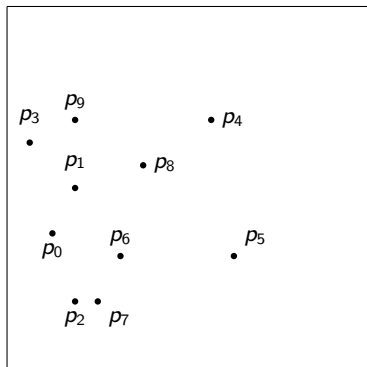
We need a **bounding box**  $R$ : a square containing all points.

- Can find  $R$  by computing minimum and maximum  $x$  and  $y$  values in  $S$
- The width/height of  $R$  should be a power of 2

**Structure** (and also how to *build* the quadtree that stores  $S$ ):

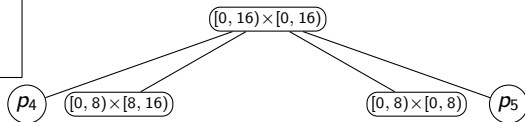
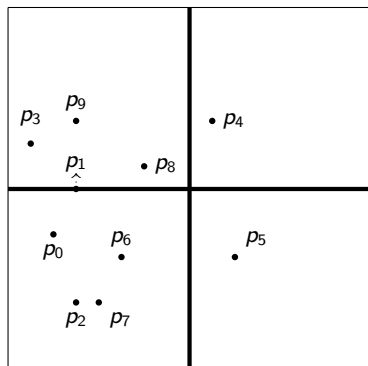
- Root  $r$  of the quadtree is associated with region  $R$
- If  $R$  contains 0 or 1 points, then root  $r$  is a leaf that stores point.
- Else *split*: Partition  $R$  into four equal subsquares (**quadrants**)  
 $R_{NE}, R_{NW}, R_{SW}, R_{SE}$
- Partition  $S$  into sets  $S_{NE}, S_{NW}, S_{SW}, S_{SE}$  of points in these regions.
  - ▶ **Convention**: Points on split lines belong to right/top side
- Recursively build tree  $T_i$  for points  $S_i$  in region  $R_i$  and make them children of the root.

# Quadtrees example

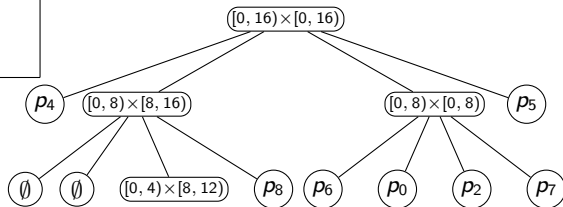
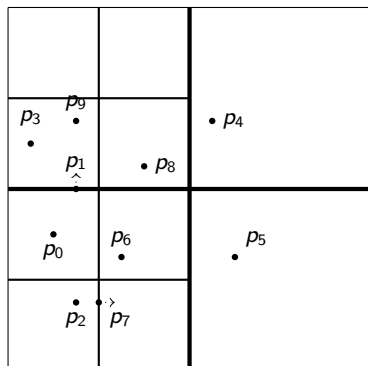


$[0, 16) \times [0, 16)$

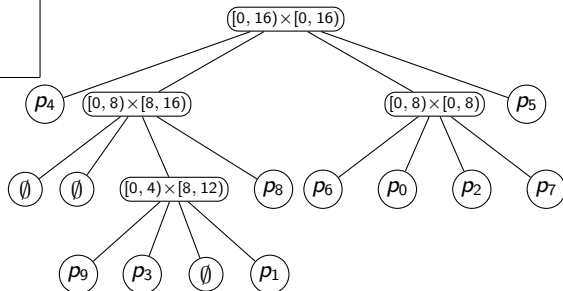
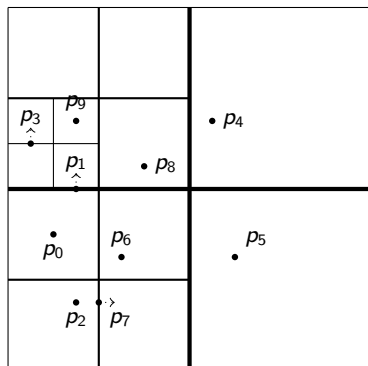
# Quadtrees example



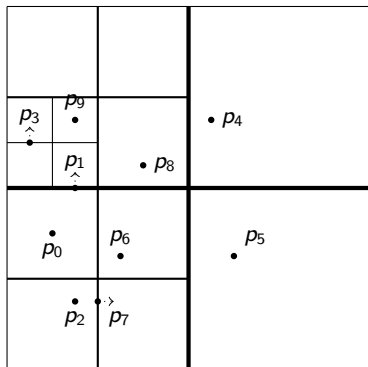
# Quadtrees example



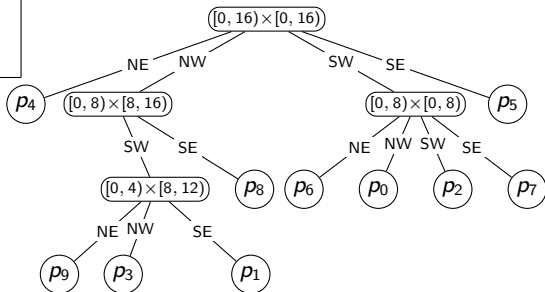
# Quadtrees example



# Quadtrees example



Easier for humans: omit empty subtrees, label edges

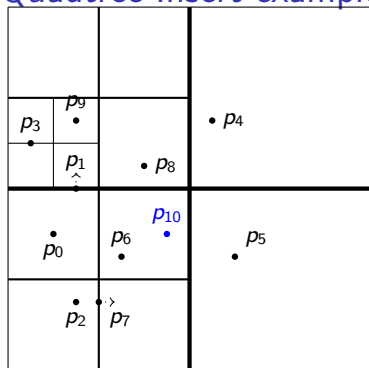




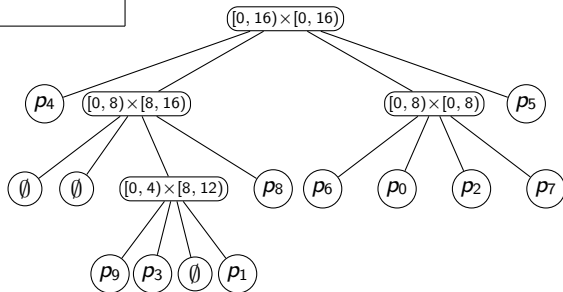
# Quadtree Dictionary Operations

- *search*: Analogous to binary search trees and tries
- *insert*:
  - ▶ Search for the point
  - ▶ Split the leaf while there are two points in one region
- *delete*:
  - ▶ Search for the point
  - ▶ Remove the point
  - ▶ If its parent has only one point left: delete parent (and recursively all ancestors that have only one point left)

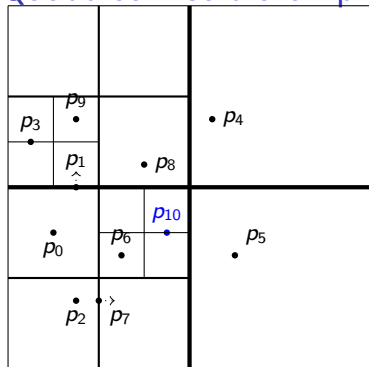
# Quadtree Insert example



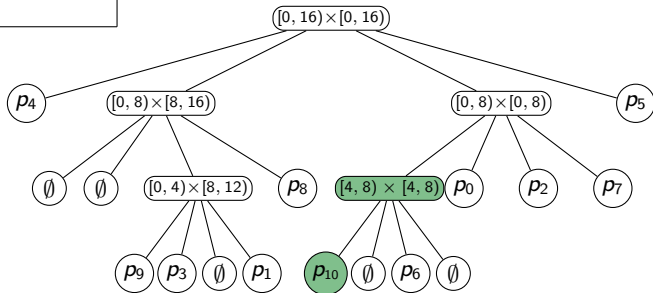
*insert*( $p_{10}$ )



# Quadtree Insert example



*insert*( $p_{10}$ )

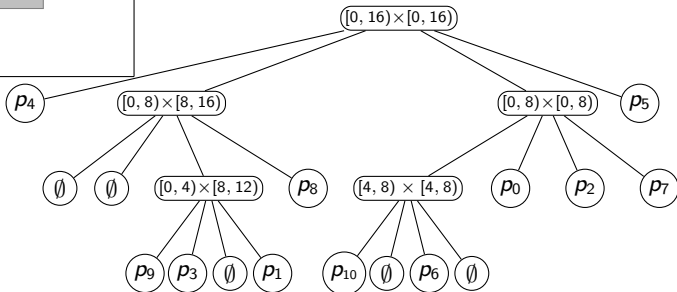
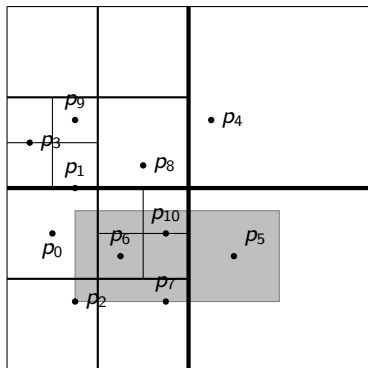


## Quadtree Range Search

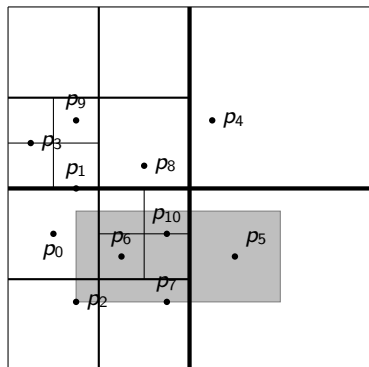
```
QTree::RangeSearch( $r \leftarrow \text{root}, A$ )  
 $r$ : The root of a quadtree,  $A$ : Query-rectangle  
1.  $R \leftarrow$  region associated with node  $r$   
2. if ( $R \subseteq A$ ) then // inside node  
3.     report all points below  $r$ ; return  
4. if ( $R \cap A$  is empty) then // outside node  
5.     return  
    // The node is a boundary node, recurse  
6. if ( $r$  is a leaf) then  
7.      $p \leftarrow$  point stored at  $r$   
8.     if  $p$  is in  $A$  return  $p$   
9.     else return  
10. for each child  $v$  of  $r$  do  
11.     QTree::RangeSearch( $v, A$ )
```

Note: We assume here that each node of the quadtree stores the associated square. Alternatively, these could be re-computed during the search (space-time tradeoff).

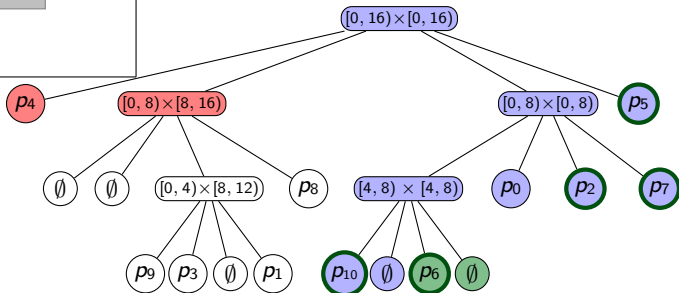
# Quadtree range search example



## Quadtree range search example

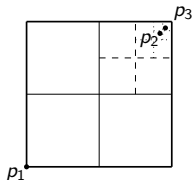


- Red: Search stopped due to  $R \cap A = \emptyset$ .
- Green: Search stopped due to  $R \subseteq A$ .
- Blue: Must continue search in children / evaluate.



# Quadtree Analysis

- Crucial for analysis: what is the height of a quadtree?
  - ▶ Can have very large height for bad distributions of points



- ▶ **spread factor** of points  $S$ :

$$\beta(S) = \frac{\text{sidelength of } R}{\text{minimum distance between points in } S}$$

- ▶ Can show: height  $h$  of quadtree is in  $\Theta(\log \beta(S))$
- Complexity to build initial tree:  $\Theta(nh)$  worst-case
- Complexity of range search:  $\Theta(nh)$  worst-case even if the answer is  $\emptyset$
- But in practice much faster.

## Quadtrees in other dimensions

- Quad-tree of 1-dimensional points:

“Points:”      0                      9            12            14                                      24            26            28



## Quadtrees in other dimensions

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“Points:”	0	9	12	14	24	26	28
(in base-2)	00000	01001	01100	01110	11000	11010	11100

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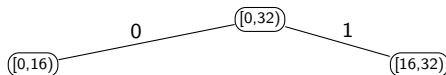
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(0,32)

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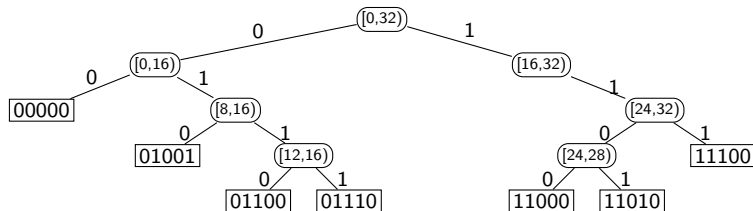
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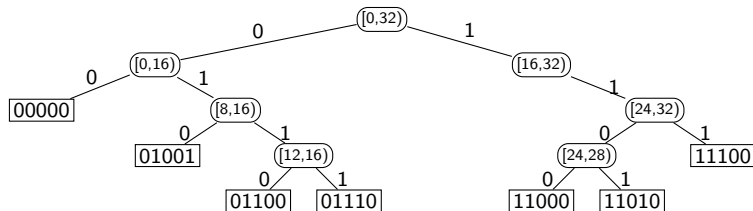


Same as a trie (with splitting stopped once key is unique)

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- Quadtrees also easily generalize to higher dimensions (octrees, *etc.* ) but are rarely used beyond dimension 3.

## Quadtree summary

- Very easy to compute and handle
- No complicated arithmetic, only divisions by 2 (bit-shift!) if the width/height of  $R$  is a power of 2
- Space potentially wasteful, but good if points are well-distributed
- Variation: We could stop splitting earlier and allow up to  $S$  points in a leaf (for some fixed bound  $S$ ).
- Variation: Store pixelated images by splitting until each region has the same color.

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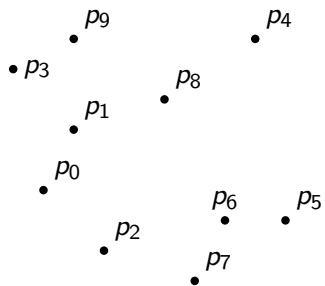
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## kd-trees

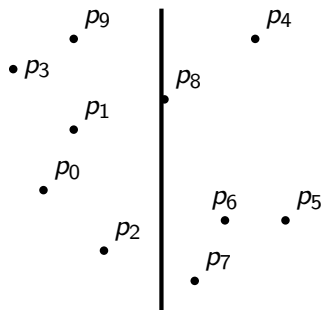
- We have  $n$  points  $S = \{(x_0, y_0), (x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_{n-1}, y_{n-1})\}$
  - Quadtrees split square into quadrants regardless of where points are
  - (Point-based) kd-tree idea: Split the region such that (roughly) half the point are in each subtree
  - Each node of the kd-tree keeps track of a **splitting line** in one dimension (2D: either vertical or horizontal)
  - **Convention:** Points on split lines belong to right/top side
  - Continue splitting, switching between vertical and horizontal lines, until every point is in a separate region
- (There are alternatives, e.g., split by the dimension that has better aspect ratios for the resulting regions. No details.)



## kd-tree example

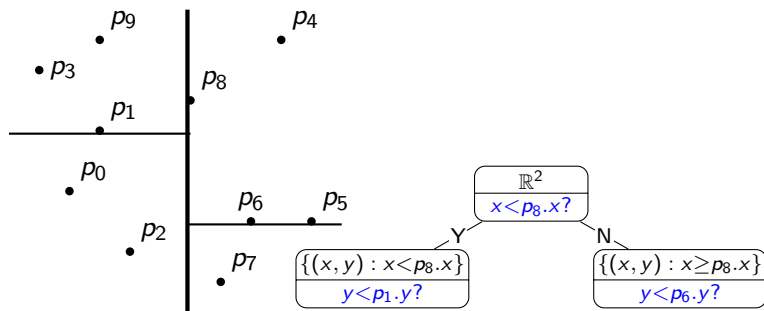


## kd-tree example

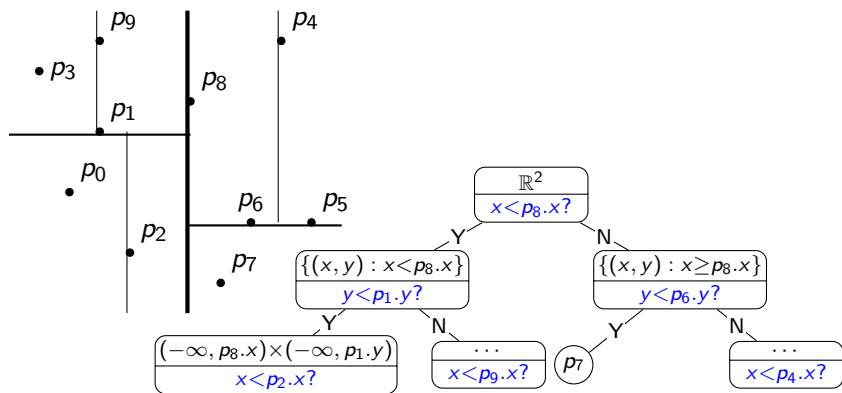


$$\frac{\mathbb{R}^2}{x < p_8.x?}$$

## kd-tree example

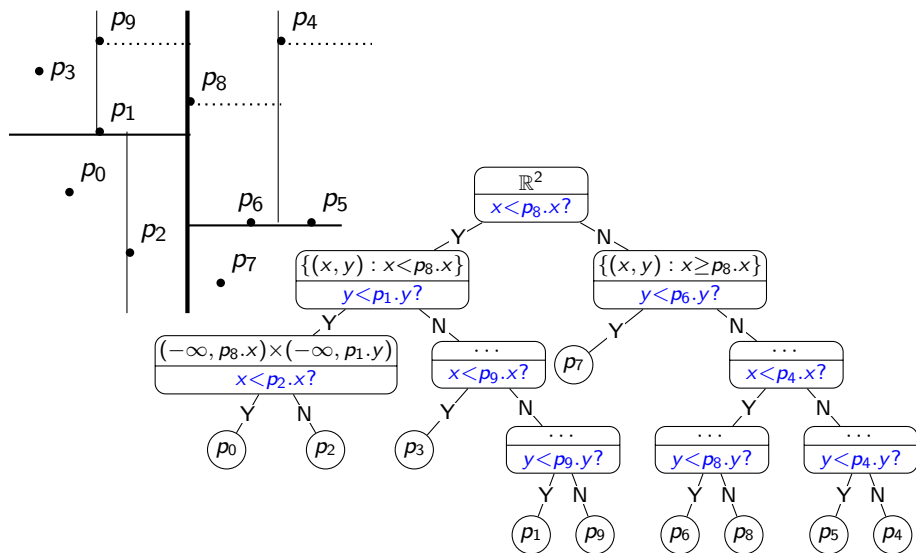


## kd-tree example



For ease of drawing, we will usually not show the associated regions.

## kd-tree example



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## Constructing kd-trees

Build kd-tree with initial split by  $x$  on points  $S$ :

- If  $|S| \leq 1$  create a leaf and return.
- Else  $X := \text{quick-select}(S, \lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor)$  (select by  $x$ -coordinate)
- Partition  $S$  by  $x$ -coordinate into  $S_{x < X}$  and  $S_{x \geq X}$
- Create left subtree recursively (splitting by  $y$ ) for points  $S_{x < X}$ .
- Create right subtree recursively (splitting by  $y$ ) for points  $S_{x \geq X}$ .

Building with initial  $y$ -split symmetric.

### Run-time:

- Find  $X$  and partition  $S$  in  $\Theta(n)$  expected time.
- $\Theta(n)$  expected time on each level in the tree
- Total is  $\Theta(\text{height} \cdot n)$  expected time
- This can be reduced to  $\Theta(n \log n + \text{height} \cdot n)$  *worst-case* time by pre-sorting (no details).

## kd-tree height

Assume first that the points are in **general position** (no two points have the same  $x$ -coordinate or  $y$ -coordinate).

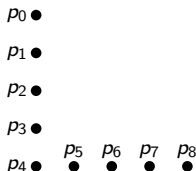
- Then the split always puts  $\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor$  points on one side and  $\lceil \frac{n}{2} \rceil$  points on the other.
- So height  $h(n)$  satisfies the sloppy recurrence  $h(n) \leq h(\frac{n}{2}) + 1$ .
- This resolves to  $h(n) \in O(\log n)$
- So can build the  $kd$ -tree in  $\Theta(n \log n)$  time and  $O(n)$  space.

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- This resolves to  $h(n) \in O(\log n)$
- So can build the  $kd$ -tree in  $\Theta(n \log n)$  time and  $O(n)$  space.

If points share coordinates, then height can be infinite!



This could be remedied by modifying the splitting routine. (No details.)



## kd-tree Dictionary Operations

- *search* (for single point): as in binary search tree using indicated coordinate
- *insert*: search, insert as new leaf.
- *delete*: search, remove leaf.

**Problem:** After insert or delete, the split might no longer be at exact median and the height is no longer guaranteed to be  $O(\log n)$  even for points in general position.

This can be remedied by allowing a certain imbalance and re-building the entire tree when it becomes too unbalanced. (No details.)

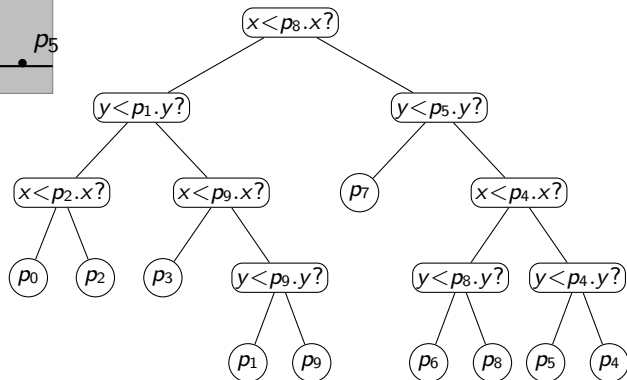
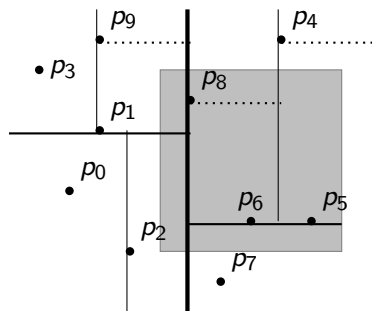
## kd-tree Range Search

- Range search is *exactly* as for quad-trees, except that there are only two children.

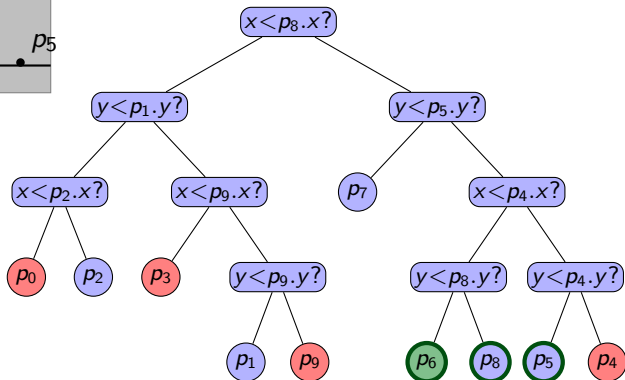
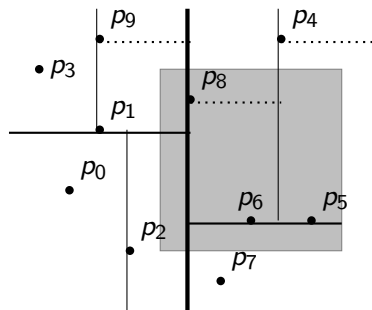
```
kdTree::RangeSearch( $r \leftarrow \text{root}$ ,  $A$ )  
 $r$ : The root of a kd-tree,  $A$ : Query-rectangle  
1.  $R \leftarrow$  region associated with node  $r$   
2. if ( $R \subseteq A$ ) then report all points below  $r$ ; return  
3. if ( $R \cap A$  is empty) then return  
4. if ( $r$  is a leaf) then  
5.      $p \leftarrow$  point stored at  $r$   
6.     if  $p$  is in  $A$  return  $p$   
7.     else return  
8. for each child  $v$  of  $r$  do  
9.     kdTree::RangeSearch( $v$ ,  $A$ )
```

- We assume again that each node stores its associated region.
- To save space, we could instead pass the region as a parameter and compute the region for each child using the splitting line.

# kd-tree: Range Search Example



# kd-tree: Range Search Example



Red: Search stopped due to  $R \cap A = \emptyset$ . Green: Search stopped due to  $R \subseteq A$ .

# kd-tree: Range Search Complexity

- The complexity is  $O(s + Q(n))$  where
  - ▶  $s$  is the output-size
  - ▶  $Q(n)$  is the number of “boundary” nodes (blue):
    - ★ `kdTree::RangeSearch` was called.
    - ★ Neither  $R \subseteq A$  nor  $R \cap A = \emptyset$
- **Can show:**  $Q(n)$  satisfies the following recurrence relation (no details):
$$Q(n) \leq 2Q(n/4) + O(1)$$
- This solves to  $Q(n) \in O(\sqrt{n})$
- Therefore, the complexity of range search in kd-trees is  $O(s + \sqrt{n})$

## kd-tree: Higher Dimensions

- kd-trees for  $d$ -dimensional space:
  - ▶ At the root the point set is partitioned based on the first coordinate
  - ▶ At the subtrees of the root the partition is based on the second coordinate
  - ▶ At depth  $d - 1$  the partition is based on the last coordinate
  - ▶ At depth  $d$  we start all over again, partitioning on first coordinate
- **Storage:**  $O(n)$
- **Height:**  $O(\log n)$
- **Construction time:**  $O(n \log n)$
- **Range search time:**  $O(s + n^{1-1/d})$

This assumes that points are in general position and  $d$  is a constant.

# Outline

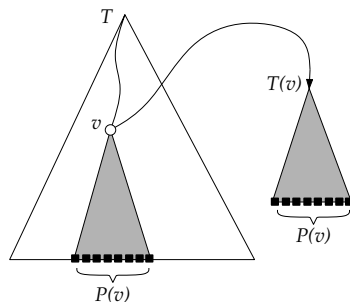
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# Towards Range Trees

- Both Quadtrees and kd-trees are intuitive and simple.
- But: both may be very slow for range searches.
- Quadtrees are also potentially wasteful in space.

New idea: **Range trees**



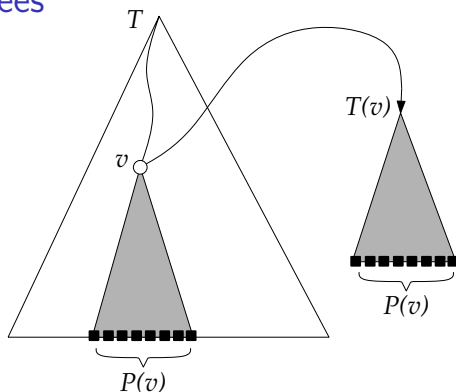
- Somewhat wasteful in space, but much faster range search.
- **Tree of trees** (a *multi-level* data structure)



## 2-dimensional Range Trees

### Primary structure:

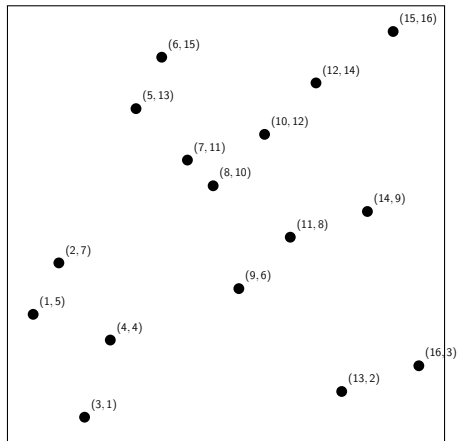
Balanced binary search tree  $T$  that stores  $P$  and uses *x-coordinates* as keys.



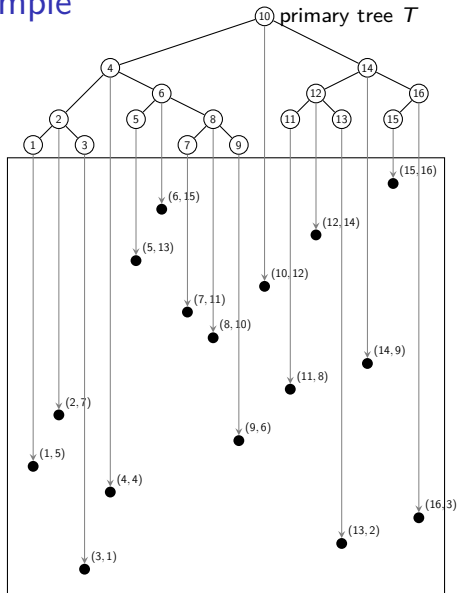
Each node  $v$  of  $T$  stores an **associate structure**  $T(v)$ :

- Let  $P(v)$  be all points in subtree of  $v$  in  $T$  (including point at  $v$ )
- $T(v)$  stores  $P(v)$  in a balanced binary search tree, using the *y-coordinates* as key
- Note:  $v$  is not necessarily the root of  $T(v)$

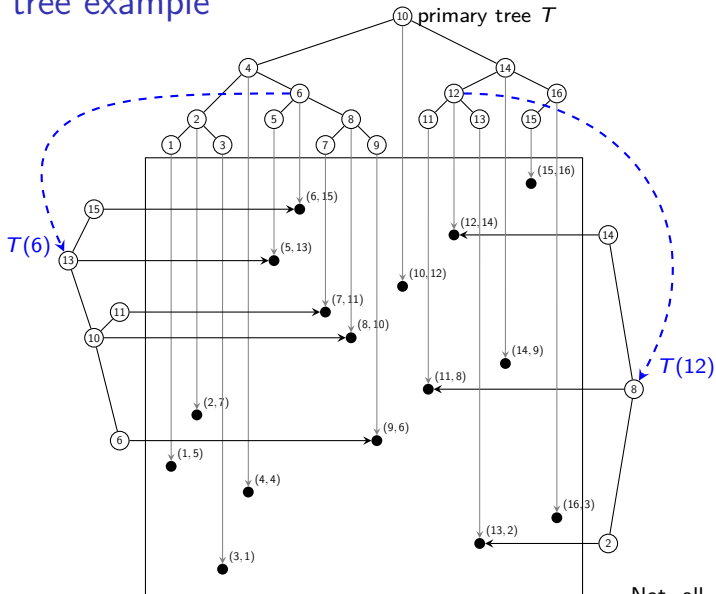
# Range tree example



# Range tree example



# Range tree example



Not all associate trees are shown.

# Range Tree Space Analysis

- Primary tree uses  $O(n)$  space.
- Associate tree  $T(v)$  uses  $O(|P(v)|)$  space  
(where  $P(v)$  are the points at descendants of  $v$  in  $T$ )
- **Key insight:**  $w \in P(v)$  means that  $v$  is an ancestor of  $w$  in  $T$ 
  - ▶ Every node has  $O(\log n)$  ancestors in  $T$
  - ▶ Every node belongs to  $O(\log n)$  sets  $P(v)$
  - ▶ So  $\sum_v |P(v)| \leq n \cdot O(\log n)$

**Therefore:** A range-tree with  $n$  points uses  $O(n \log n)$  space.

# Range Trees Operations

- *search*: search by  $x$ -coordinate in  $T$  (handling duplicates suitably)
- *insert*: First, insert point by  $x$ -coordinate into  $T$ .  
Then, walk back up to the root and insert the point by  $y$ -coordinate in *all* associate trees  $T(v)$  of nodes  $v$  on path to the root.
- *delete*: analogous to insertion
- **Problem**: We want the binary search trees to be balanced.
  - ▶ This makes *insert/delete* very slow if we use AVL-trees.  
(A rotation at  $v$  changes  $P(v)$  and hence requires a re-build of  $T(v)$ .)
  - ▶ This can be resolved by using other balancing methods (no details)

# Range Trees Operations

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(A rotation at  $v$  changes  $P(v)$  and hence requires a re-build of  $T(v)$ .)
  - ▶ This can be resolved by using other balancing methods (no details)
- *range-search*: search by  $x$ -range in  $T$ .  
Among found points, search by  $y$ -range in some associated trees.
- Must understand first: How to do (1-dimensional) range search in binary search tree?

## BST Range Search

```
BST::RangeSearch( $r \leftarrow \text{root}, x_1, x_2$ )  
 $r$ : root of a binary search tree,  $x_1, x_2$ : search keys  
Returns keys in subtree at  $r$  that are in range  $[x_1, x_2]$   
1.   if  $r = \text{NIL}$  then return  
2.   if  $x_1 \leq r.\text{key} \leq x_2$  then  
3.        $L \leftarrow \text{BST::RangeSearch}(r.\text{left}, x_1, x_2)$   
4.        $R \leftarrow \text{BST::RangeSearch}(r.\text{right}, x_1, x_2)$   
5.       return  $L \cup r.\{\text{key}\} \cup R$   
6.   if  $r.\text{key} < x_1$  then  
7.       return  $\text{BST::RangeSearch}(r.\text{right}, x_1, x_2)$   
8.   if  $r.\text{key} > x_2$  then  
9.       return  $\text{BST::RangeSearch}(r.\text{left}, x_1, x_2)$ 
```

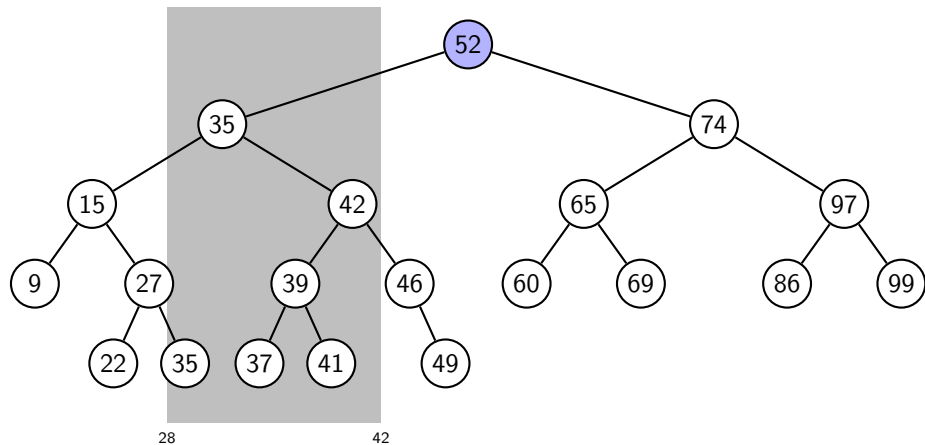
Keys are reported in in-order, i. e., in sorted order.

Note: If there are *duplicates*, then this finds all copies that are in range. (Normally dictionaries do not contain duplicates, but we will soon apply this as part of range-trees where duplicates may occur.)



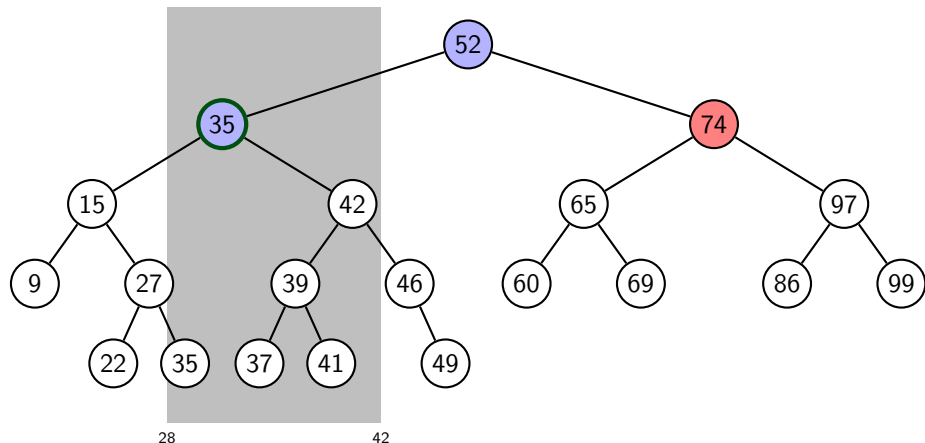
## BST Range Search example

*BST::RangeSearch*( $T$ , 28, 42)



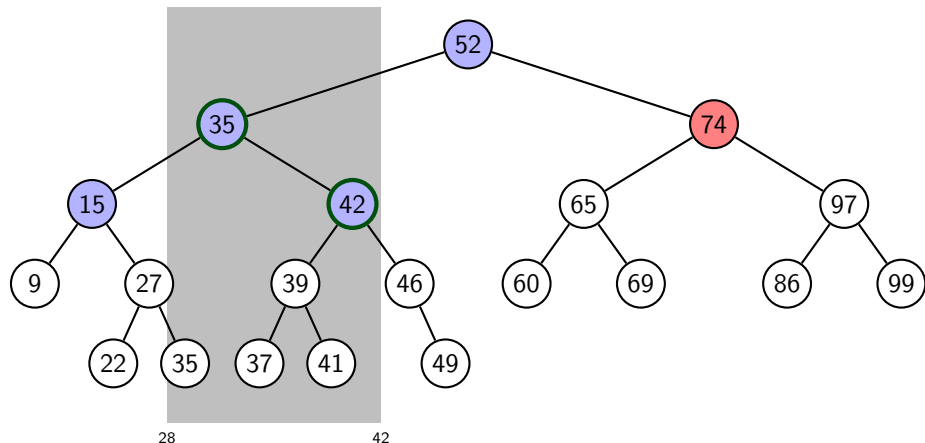
# BST Range Search example

*BST::RangeSearch*( $T$ , 28, 42)



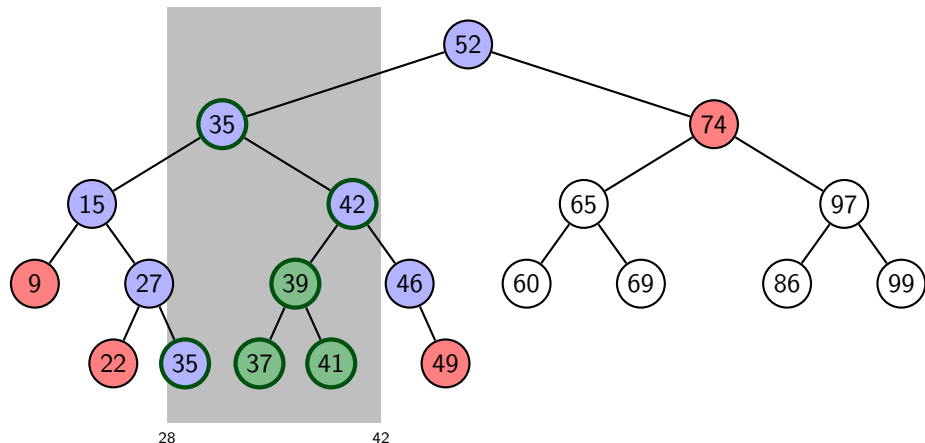
# BST Range Search example

*BST::RangeSearch*( $T$ , 28, 42)



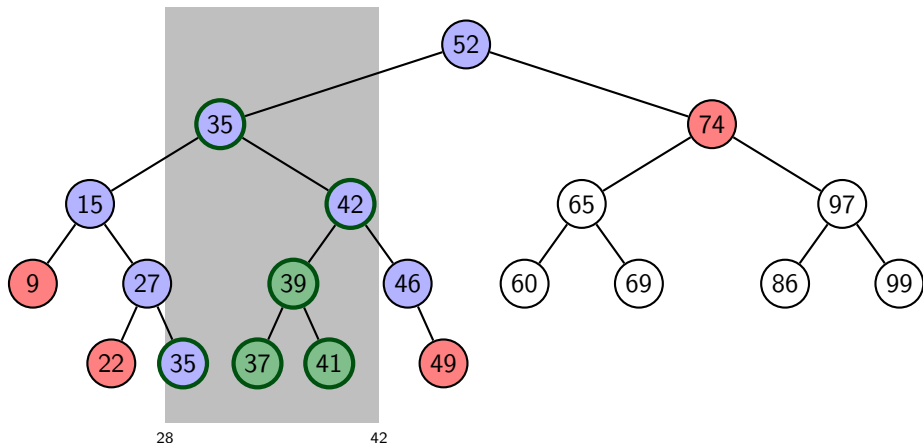
# BST Range Search example

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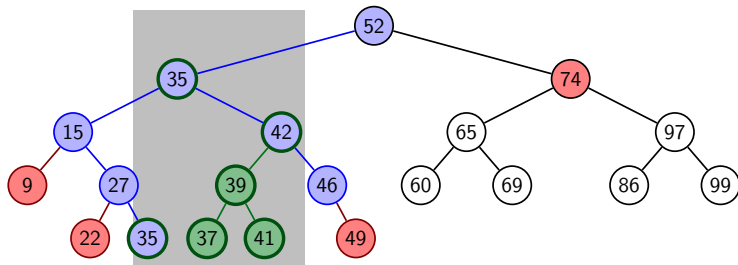
# BST Range Search example

*BST::RangeSearch*( $T$ , 28, 42)



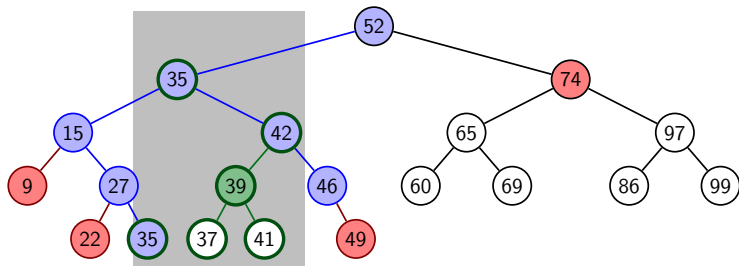
Note: Search from 39 was unnecessary: *all* its descendants are in range.

## BST Range Search re-phrased



- Search for left boundary  $x_1$ : this gives path  $P_1$   
In case of equality, go *left* to ensure that we find all duplicates.
- Search for right boundary  $x_2$ : this gives path  $P_2$   
In case of equality, go *right* to ensure that we find all duplicates.
- This partitions  $T$  into three groups: outside, on, or between the paths.

## BST Range Search re-phrased

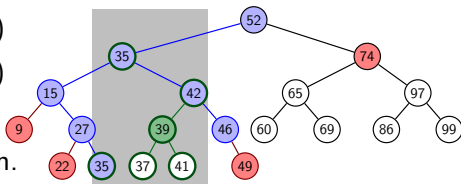


- **boundary nodes:** nodes in  $P_1$  or  $P_2$ 
  - ▶ For each boundary node, test whether it is in the range.
- **outside nodes:** nodes that are left of  $P_1$  or right of  $P_2$ 
  - ▶ These are *not* in the range, we stop the search at the topmost.
- **inside nodes:** nodes that are right of  $P_1$  and left of  $P_2$ 
  - ▶ We stop the search at the topmost inside node.
  - ▶ All descendants of such a node are *in* the range.  
For a 1d range search, report them.

# BST Range Search analysis

Assume that the binary search tree is balanced:

- Search for path  $P_1$ :  $O(\log n)$
- Search for path  $P_2$ :  $O(\log n)$
- $O(\log n)$  boundary nodes
- We spend  $O(1)$  time on each.

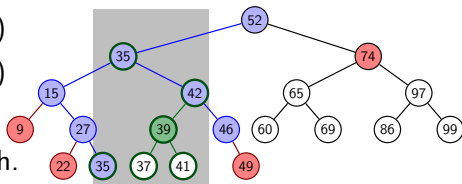




## BST Range Search analysis

Assume that the binary search tree is balanced:

- Search for path  $P_1$ :  $O(\log n)$
- Search for path  $P_2$ :  $O(\log n)$
- $O(\log n)$  boundary nodes
- We spend  $O(1)$  time on each.



- We spend  $O(1)$  time per **topmost outside node**.
  - ▶ They are children of boundary nodes, so this takes  $O(\log n)$  time.
- We spend  $O(1)$  time per **topmost inside node**  $v$ .
  - ▶ They are children of boundary nodes, so this takes  $O(\log n)$  time.
- For 1d range search, also report the descendants of  $v$ .
  - ▶ We have  $\sum_v \text{topmost inside } \#\{\text{descendants of } v\} \leq s$  since subtrees of topmost inside nodes are disjoint. So this takes time  $O(s)$  overall.

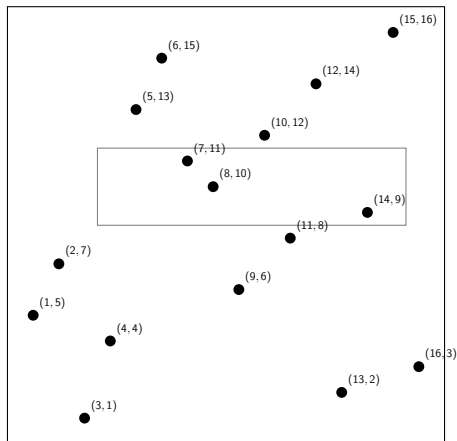
Run-time for 1d range search:  $O(\log n + s)$ . This is no faster overall, but topmost inside nodes will be important for 2d range search.

# Range Trees: Range Search

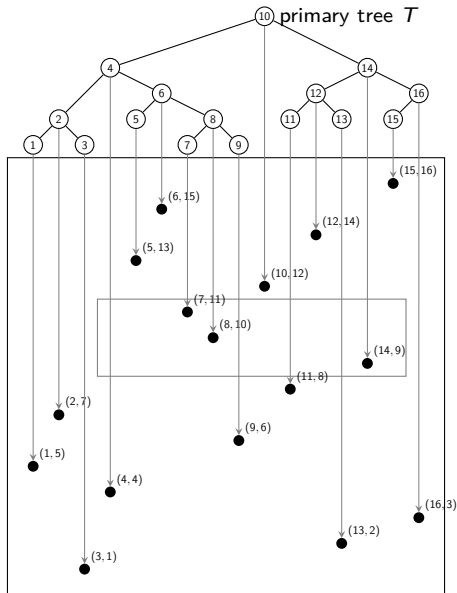
Range search for  $A = [x_1, x_2] \times [y_1, y_2]$  is a two stage process:

- Perform a range search (on the  $x$ -coordinates) for the interval  $[x_1, x_2]$  in primary tree  $T$  ( $BST::RangeSearch(T, x_1, x_2)$ )
- Get **boundary**, **topmost outside** and **topmost inside** nodes as before.
- For every **boundary node**, test to see if the corresponding point is within the region  $A$ .
- For every **topmost inside node**  $v$ :
  - ▶ Let  $P(v)$  be the points in the subtree of  $v$  in  $T$ .
  - ▶ We know that all  $x$ -coordinates of points in  $P(v)$  are within range.
  - ▶ Recall:  $P(v)$  is stored in  $T(v)$ .
  - ▶ To find points in  $P(v)$  where the  $y$ -coordinates are within range as well, perform a range search in  $T(v)$ :  $BST::RangeSearch(T(v), y_1, y_2)$

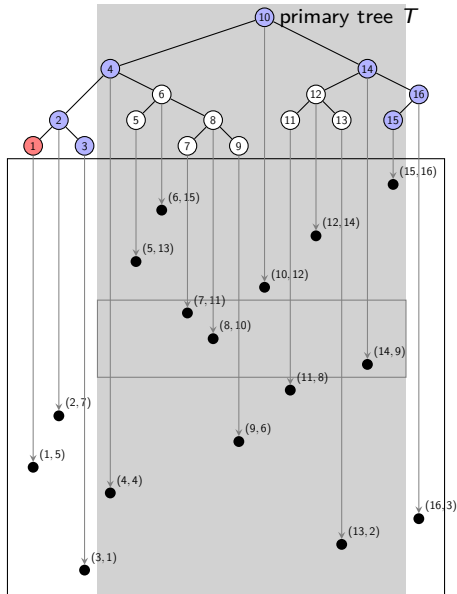
# Range tree range search example



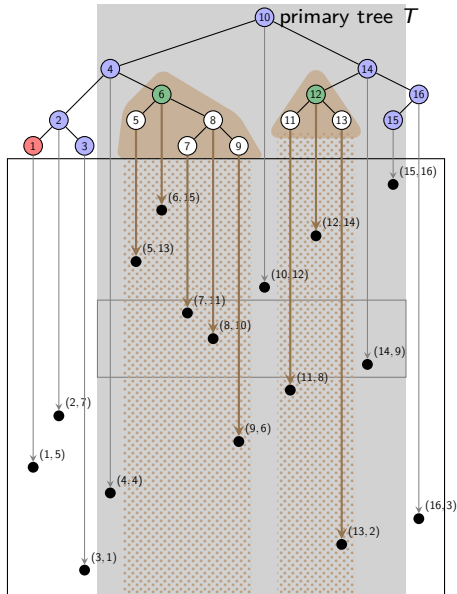
# Range tree range search example



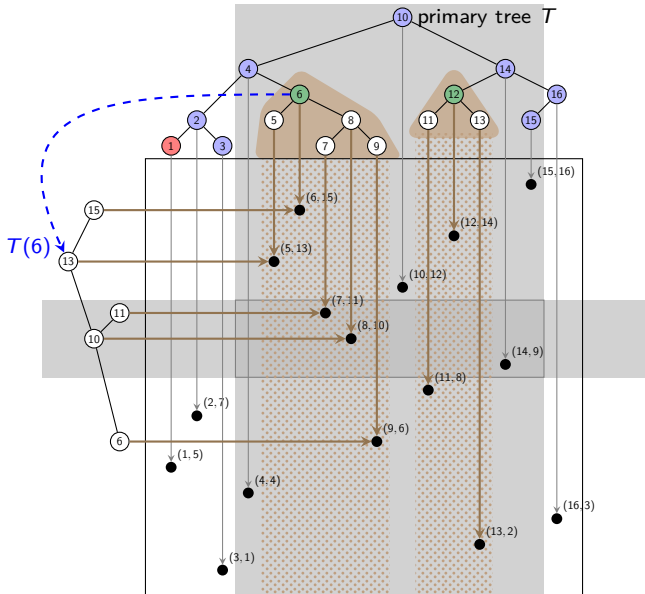
# Range tree range search example



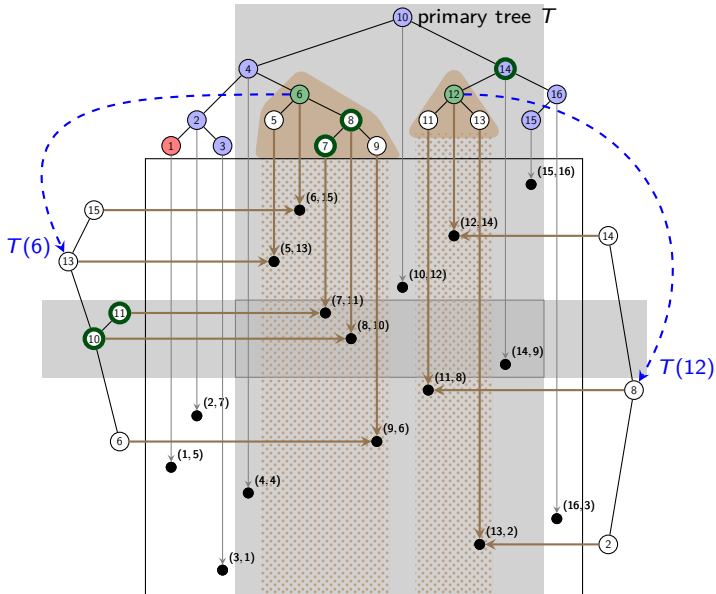
# Range tree range search example



# Range tree range search example



# Range tree range search example





## Range Trees: Range Search Run-time

- $O(\log n)$  time to find boundary and topmost inside nodes in primary tree.
- There are  $O(\log n)$  such nodes.
- $O(\log n + s_v)$  time for each topmost inside node  $v$ , where  $s_v$  is the number of points in  $T(v)$  that are reported
- Two topmost inside nodes have no common point in their trees  
⇒ every point is reported in at most one associate structure  
⇒  $\sum_v \text{topmost inside } s_v \leq s$

Time for range search in range-tree is proportional to

$$\sum_{v \text{ topmost inside}} (\log n + s_v) \in O(\log^2 n + s)$$

(There are ways to make this even faster. No details.)

## Range Trees: Higher Dimensions

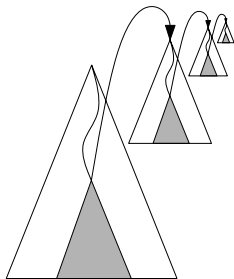
- Range trees can be generalized to  $d$ -dimensional space.

**Space**  $O(n (\log n)^{d-1})$

**Construction time**  $O(n (\log n)^d)$

**Range search time**  $O(s + (\log n)^d)$

(Note:  $d$  is considered to be a constant.)



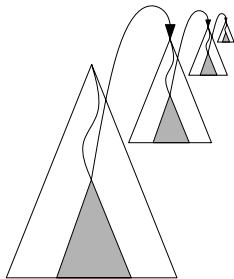
## Range Trees: Higher Dimensions

- Range trees can be generalized to  $d$ -dimensional space.

<b>Space</b>	$O(n (\log n)^{d-1})$	kd-trees: $O(n)$
<b>Construction time</b>	$O(n (\log n)^d)$	kd-trees: $O(n \log n)$
<b>Range search time</b>	$O(s + (\log n)^d)$	kd-trees: $O(s + n^{1-1/d})$

(Note:  $d$  is considered to be a constant.)

- Space/time trade-off compared to kd-trees.



# Outline

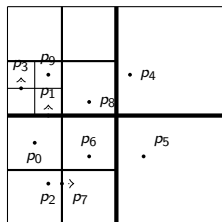
## 1 Range-Searching in Dictionaries for Points

- Range Searches
- Multi-Dimensional Data
- Quadtrees
- kd-Trees
- Range Trees
- **Conclusion**

# Range search data structures summary

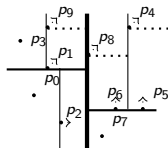
- Quadtrees

- ▶ simple (also for dynamic set of points)
- ▶ work well only if points evenly distributed
- ▶ wastes space for higher dimensions



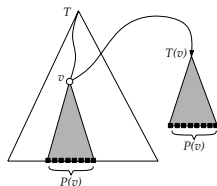
- kd-trees

- ▶ linear space
- ▶ range search time  $O(\sqrt{n} + s)$
- ▶ inserts/deletes destroy balance
- ▶ care needed if not in general position



- range-trees

- ▶ range search time  $O(\log^2 n + s)$
- ▶ wastes some space
- ▶ inserts/deletes destroy balance



**Convention:** Points on split lines belong to right/top side.