

# Searching

## SFWRENG 2CO3: Data Structures and Algorithms

Jelle Hellings

Department of Computing and Software  
McMaster University



Winter 2024

## 2-3 search trees: Toward balanced binary search trees

*Balanced tree*: any path from the root to a leaf has length  $\lceil \log_2(N + 1) \rceil$  (in terms of the number of nodes on the path).

## 2-3 search trees: Toward balanced binary search trees

*Balanced tree*: any path from the root to a leaf has length  $\lceil \log_2(N + 1) \rceil$   
(in terms of the number of nodes on the path).

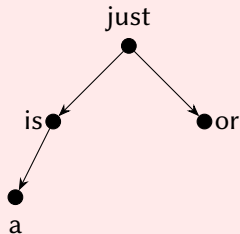
Maintaining *perfect* balance during additions and removals sounds highly expensive:  
Do we have to check the lengths of all paths and correct?

## 2-3 search trees: Toward balanced binary search trees

*Balanced tree*: any path from the root to a leaf has length  $\lceil \log_2(N + 1) \rceil$  (in terms of the number of nodes on the path).

Maintaining *perfect* balance during additions and removals sounds highly expensive: Do we have to check the lengths of all paths and correct?

*A balanced* binary search tree with  $N = 4$  nodes



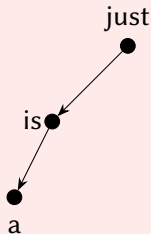
Consider removing “or”.

## 2-3 search trees: Toward balanced binary search trees

*Balanced tree*: any path from the root to a leaf has length  $\lceil \log_2(N + 1) \rceil$  (in terms of the number of nodes on the path).

Maintaining *perfect* balance during additions and removals sounds highly expensive: Do we have to check the lengths of all paths and correct?

A *balanced* binary search tree with  $N = 4$  nodes



Consider removing “or”: *paths are now too long!*

## 2-3 search trees: Toward balanced binary search trees

## 2-3 search trees: Toward balanced binary search trees

With a bit of flexibility, we can keep trees balanced-enough when adding or removing  $v$  by *only* making changes *locally* along a path from root to the node holding  $v$ .

## 2-3 search trees: Toward balanced binary search trees

With a bit of flexibility, we can keep trees balanced-enough when adding or removing  $v$  by *only* making changes *locally* along a path from root to the node holding  $v$ .

### 2-3 search trees

In a 2-3 tree, there are two types of nodes:

**Two-nodes** that hold one key value  $k$  and two children  $l$  and  $r$ .

**Three-nodes** that hold two key values  $k_1, k_2$  and three children  $c_0, c_1$ , and  $c_2$ .

Furthermore, all leaf nodes in a 2-3 tree must have the *same* distance to the root.



## 2-3 search trees: Toward balanced binary search trees

With a bit of flexibility, we can keep trees balanced-enough when adding or removing  $v$  by *only* making changes *locally* along a path from root to the node holding  $v$ .

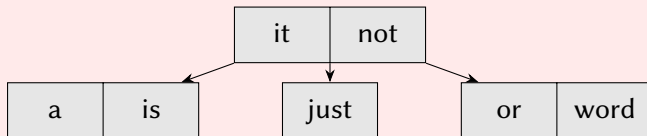
### 2-3 search trees

In a 2-3 tree, there are two types of nodes:

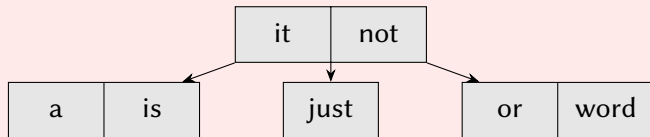
**Two-nodes** that hold one key value  $k$  and two children  $l$  and  $r$ .  
 $l$  holds values  $< k$  and  $r$  holds values  $> k$ .

**Three-nodes** that hold two key values  $k_1, k_2$  and three children  $c_0, c_1$ , and  $c_2$ .  
 $c_0$  holds values  $< k_1$ ,  $c_1$  holds values  $> k_1, < k_2$ , and  $c_2$  holds values  $> k_2$ .

Furthermore, all leaf nodes in a 2-3 tree must have the *same* distance to the root.

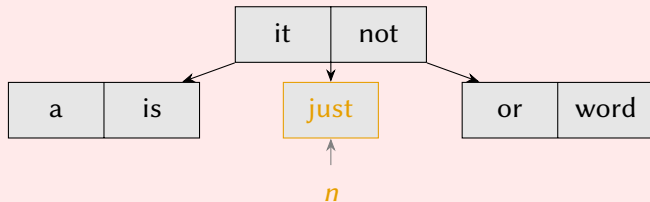


## 2-3 search trees: Toward balanced binary search trees



Consider adding “juice”, “bee”, and “zoo”

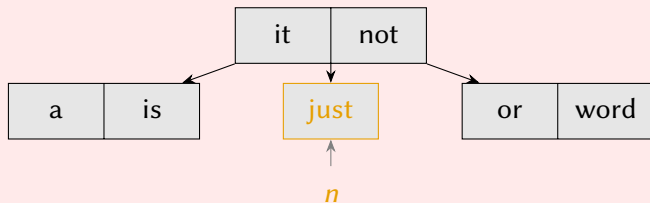
## 2-3 search trees: Toward balanced binary search trees



Consider adding “juice”, “bee”, and “zoo”

1. Search for “juice”: we find the leaf *two-node* *n* holding “just”.

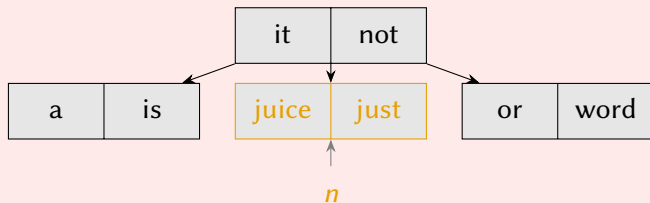
## 2-3 search trees: Toward balanced binary search trees



Consider adding “juice”, “bee”, and “zoo”

1. Search for “juice”: we find the leaf *two-node* *n* holding “just”.
2. We can turn node *n* into a *three-node*.

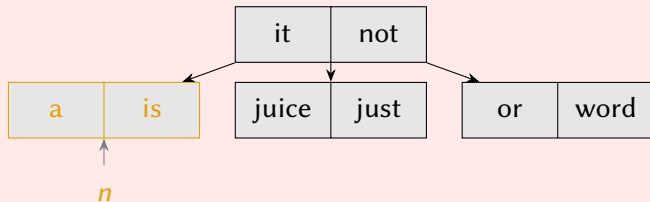
## 2-3 search trees: Toward balanced binary search trees



Consider adding “juice”, “bee”, and “zoo”

1. Search for “juice”: we find the leaf *two-node* *n* holding “just”.
2. We can turn node *n* into a *three-node*.

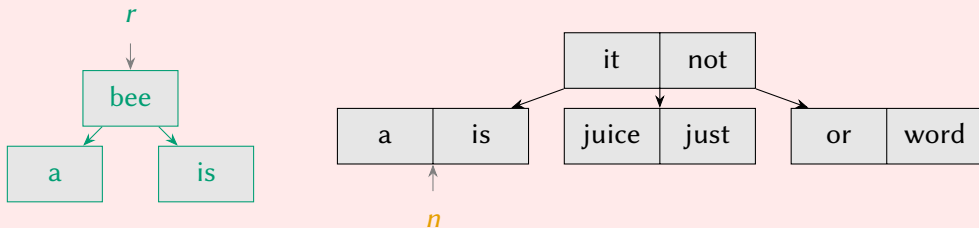
## 2-3 search trees: Toward balanced binary search trees



Consider adding “juice”, “**bee**”, and “zoo”

1. Search for “bee”: we find the leaf *three-node* *n* holding “a” and “is”.

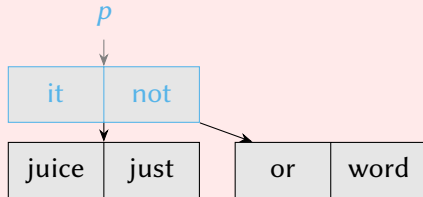
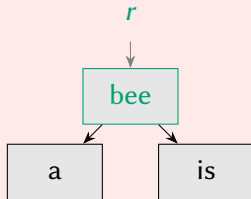
## 2-3 search trees: Toward balanced binary search trees



Consider adding “juice”, “bee”, and “zoo”

1. Search for “bee”: we find the leaf *three-node*  $n$  holding “a” and “is”.
2. We can turn the key values “a”, “bee”, “is” into a tree of two-nodes with root  $r$ .

## 2-3 search trees: Toward balanced binary search trees

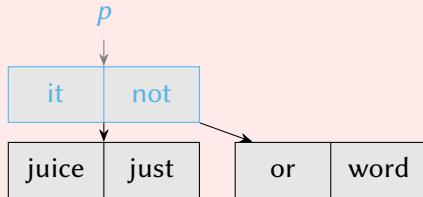
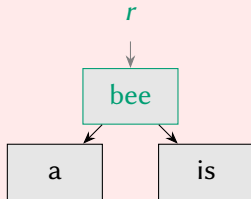


Consider adding “juice”, “bee”, and “zoo”

1. Search for “bee”: we find the leaf *three-node* *n* holding “a” and “is”.
2. We can turn the key values “a”, “bee”, “is” into a tree of two-nodes with root *r*.
3. Remove *n* and merge root *r* with the parent *p* of *n*:  
the *merged node* will have three key values “bee”, “it”, “not”.



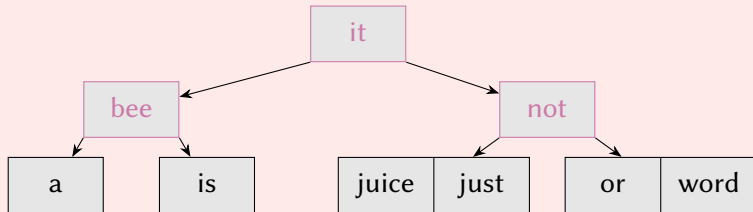
## 2-3 search trees: Toward balanced binary search trees



Consider adding “juice”, “bee”, and “zoo”

1. Search for “bee”: we find the leaf *three-node* *n* holding “a” and “is”.
2. We can turn the key values “a”, “bee”, “is” into a tree of two-nodes with root *r*.
3. Remove *n* and merge root *r* with the parent *p* of *n*:  
the *merged node* will have three key values “bee”, “it”, “not”.
4. Represent these keys by a tree of two-nodes.

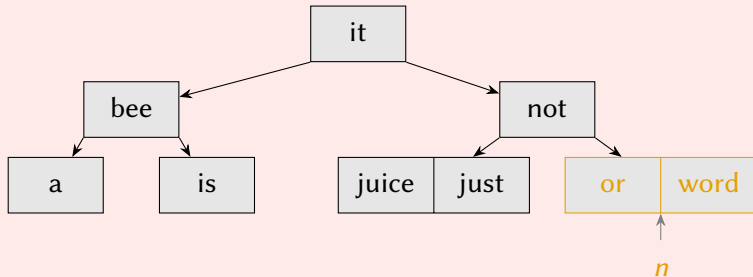
## 2-3 search trees: Toward balanced binary search trees



Consider adding “juice”, “bee”, and “zoo”

1. Search for “bee”: we find the leaf *three-node* *n* holding “a” and “is”.
2. We can turn the key values “a”, “bee”, “is” into a tree of two-nodes with root *r*.
3. Remove *n* and merge root *r* with the parent *p* of *n*:  
the *merged node* will have three key values “bee”, “it”, “not”.
4. Represent these keys by a tree of two-nodes.

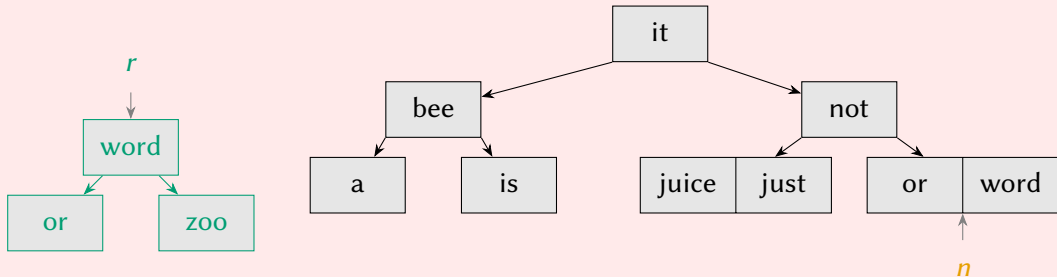
## 2-3 search trees: Toward balanced binary search trees



Consider adding “juice”, “bee”, and “zoo”

1. Search for “zoo”: we find the leaf *three-node* *n* holding “or” and “word”.

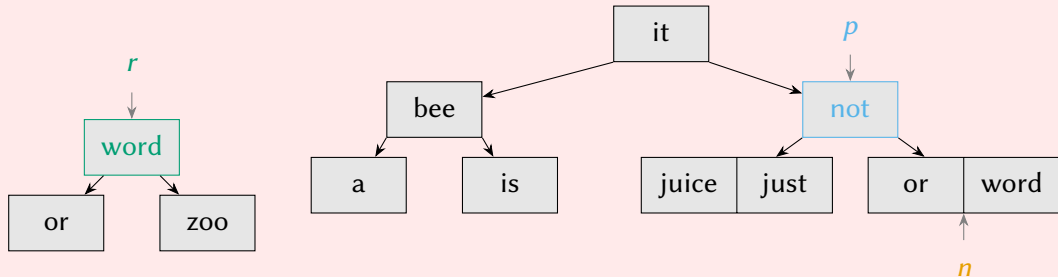
## 2-3 search trees: Toward balanced binary search trees



Consider adding “juice”, “bee”, and “zoo”

1. Search for “zoo”: we find the leaf *three-node* *n* holding “or” and “word”.
2. We can turn the key values “or”, “word”, “zoo” into a tree of two-nodes with root *r*.

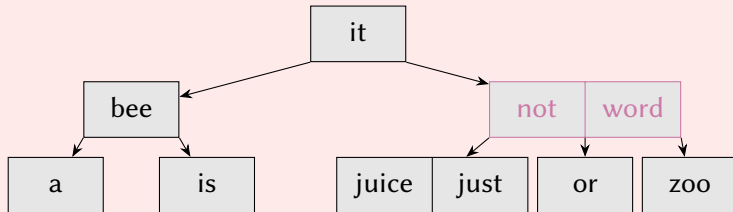
## 2-3 search trees: Toward balanced binary search trees



Consider adding “juice”, “bee”, and “zoo”

1. Search for “zoo”: we find the leaf *three-node* *n* holding “or” and “word”.
2. We can turn the key values “or”, “word”, “zoo” into a tree of two-nodes with root *r*.
3. Remove *n* and merge root *r* with the parent *p* of *n*:  
the *merged node* will have two key values “not” and “word”.

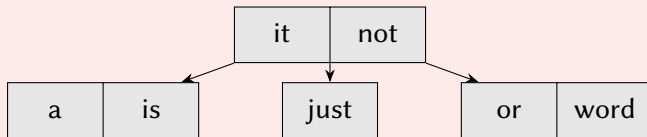
## 2-3 search trees: Toward balanced binary search trees



Consider adding “juice”, “bee”, and “zoo”

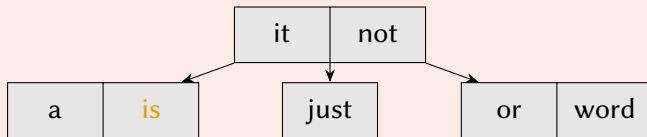
1. Search for “zoo”: we find the leaf *three-node* *n* holding “or” and “word”.
2. We can turn the key values “or”, “word”, “zoo” into a tree of two-nodes with root *r*.
3. Remove *n* and merge root *r* with the parent *p* of *n*:  
the *merged node* will have two key values “not” and “word”.

## 2-3 search trees: Toward balanced binary search trees



Deleting values from a 2-3 tree

## 2-3 search trees: Toward balanced binary search trees

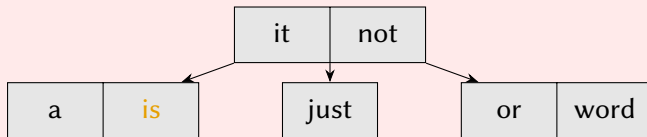


### Deleting values from a 2-3 tree

1. Deleting a value from a leaf three-node  $n$ .



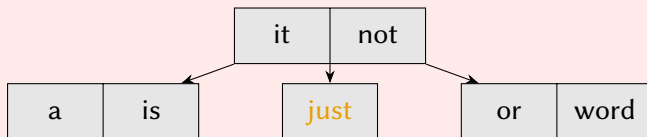
## 2-3 search trees: Toward balanced binary search trees



### Deleting values from a 2-3 tree

1. Deleting a value from a leaf three-node  $n$ .  
Straightforward: replace the node  $n$  by a two-node.

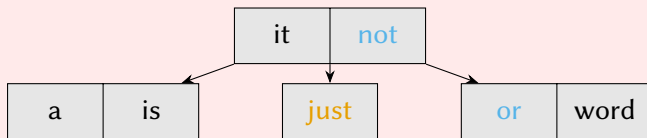
## 2-3 search trees: Toward balanced binary search trees



### Deleting values from a 2-3 tree

1. Deleting a value from a leaf three-node  $n$ .  
Straightforward: replace the node  $n$  by a two-node.
2. Deleting a value from a leaf two-node.

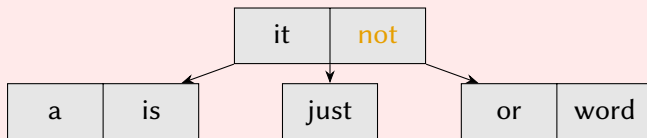
## 2-3 search trees: Toward balanced binary search trees



### Deleting values from a 2-3 tree

1. Deleting a value from a leaf three-node  $n$ .  
Straightforward: replace the node  $n$  by a two-node.
2. Deleting a value from a leaf two-node.  
Complex: borrow an **adjacent value** from the parent, *recursively* if the parent itself is a two-node.

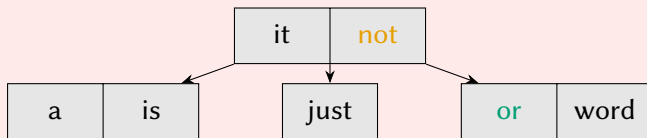
## 2-3 search trees: Toward balanced binary search trees



### Deleting values from a 2-3 tree

1. Deleting a value from a leaf three-node  $n$ .  
Straightforward: replace the node  $n$  by a two-node.
2. Deleting a value from a leaf two-node.  
Complex: borrow an **adjacent value** from the parent, *recursively* if the parent itself is a two-node.
3. Deleting an internal value.

## 2-3 search trees: Toward balanced binary search trees



### Deleting values from a 2-3 tree

1. Deleting a value from a leaf three-node  $n$ .  
Straightforward: replace the node  $n$  by a two-node.
2. Deleting a value from a leaf two-node.  
Complex: borrow an **adjacent value** from the parent, *recursively* if the parent itself is a two-node.
3. Deleting an internal value.  
Complex: replace value by the **succeeding value** (a leaf value), remove that leaf value.

## 2-3 search trees in practice

2-3 trees have *at least* two children per internal node:

2-3 trees can be *compacter* (in their height) than balanced search trees!

## 2-3 search trees in practice

2-3 trees have *at least* two children per internal node:

2-3 trees can be *compacter* (in their height) than balanced search trees!

2-3 trees require *complex* tree algorithms, however:

e.g., separate code to deal with two-nodes and three-nodes.

## 2-3 search trees in practice

2-3 trees have *at least* two children per internal node:

2-3 trees can be *compacter* (in their height) than balanced search trees!

2-3 trees require *complex* tree algorithms, however:

e.g., separate code to deal with two-nodes and three-nodes.

2-3 trees are *costly* for very large values:

when adding or removing values, other values are moved around in memory!



## 2-3 search trees in practice

2-3 trees have *at least* two children per internal node:

2-3 trees can be *compacter* (in their height) than balanced search trees!

2-3 trees require *complex* tree algorithms, however:

e.g., separate code to deal with two-nodes and three-nodes.

2-3 trees are *costly* for very large values:

when adding or removing values, other values are moved around in memory!

2-3 trees can be generalized to  $(k - 2k)$ -trees that are even compacter:

these  $(k - 2k)$ -trees are at the basis of external memory data structures,

e.g., B+trees that are widely used in file systems and large-scale databases.

## From 2-3 trees to *left-leaning* red-black trees

Question: How can we simplify 2-3 trees?

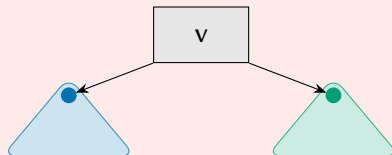
Idea: Turn 2-3 tree nodes into binary search tree structures.

## From 2-3 trees to *left-leaning* red-black trees

Question: How can we simplify 2-3 trees?

Idea: Turn 2-3 tree nodes into binary search tree structures.

- ▶ Two-nodes are already binary search tree nodes.



## From 2-3 trees to *left-leaning* red-black trees

Question: How can we simplify 2-3 trees?

Idea: Turn 2-3 tree nodes into binary search tree structures.

- ▶ Two-nodes are already binary search tree nodes.

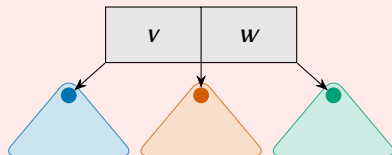


# From 2-3 trees to *left-leaning* red-black trees

Question: How can we simplify 2-3 trees?

Idea: Turn 2-3 tree nodes into binary search tree structures.

- ▶ Two-nodes are already binary search tree nodes.
- ▶ Three-nodes can be replaced by a binary search tree structure with two nodes.

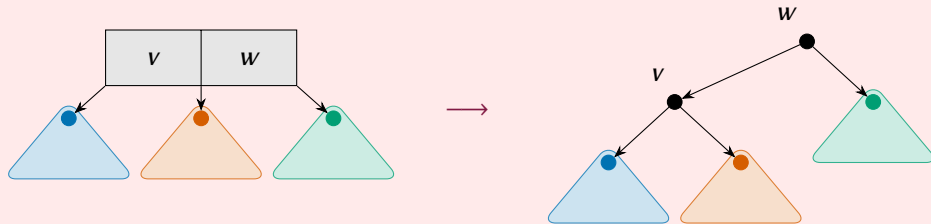


# From 2-3 trees to *left-leaning* red-black trees

Question: How can we simplify 2-3 trees?

Idea: Turn 2-3 tree nodes into binary search tree structures.

- ▶ Two-nodes are already binary search tree nodes.
- ▶ Three-nodes can be replaced by a binary search tree structure with two nodes.

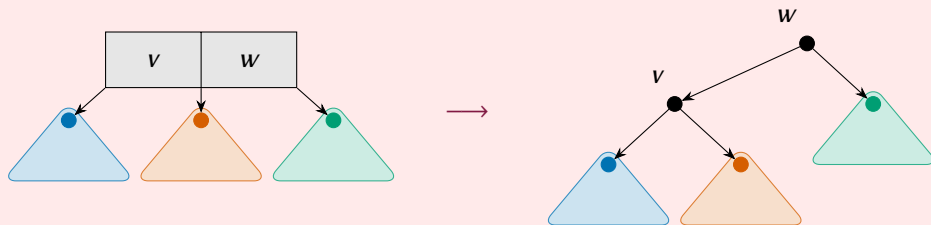


## From 2-3 trees to *left-leaning* red-black trees

Question: How can we simplify 2-3 trees?

Idea: Turn 2-3 tree nodes into binary search tree structures.

- ▶ Two-nodes are already binary search tree nodes.
- ▶ Three-nodes can be replaced by a binary search tree structure with two nodes.



Reusing the addition and removal algorithms from 2-3 trees

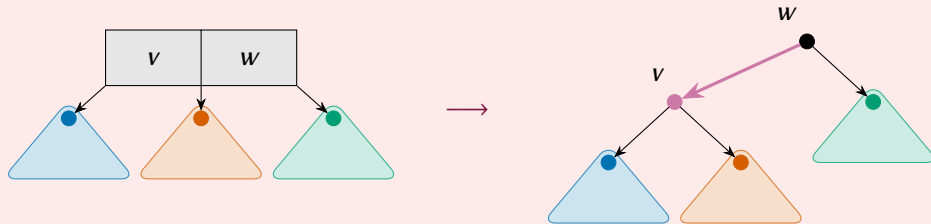
We need some way to identify when a binary search tree structure *represents* a three-node.

# From 2-3 trees to *left-leaning* red-black trees

Question: How can we simplify 2-3 trees?

Idea: Turn 2-3 tree nodes into binary search tree structures.

- ▶ Two-nodes are already binary search tree nodes.
- ▶ Three-nodes can be replaced by a binary search tree structure with two nodes.



Reusing the addition and removal algorithms from 2-3 trees

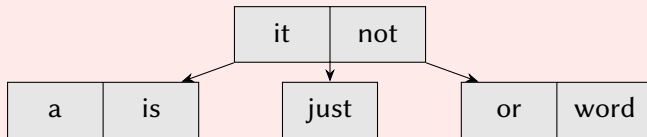
We need some way to identify when a binary search tree structure *represents* a three-node.

→ Mark the added left-leaning node (with the color red).

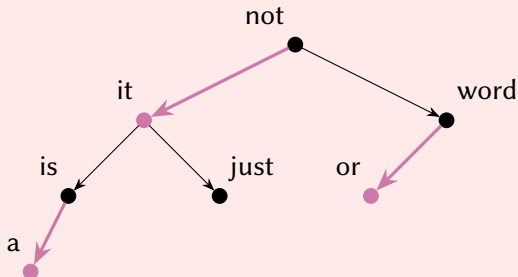


# From 2-3 trees to *left-leaning* red-black trees

A 2-3 tree

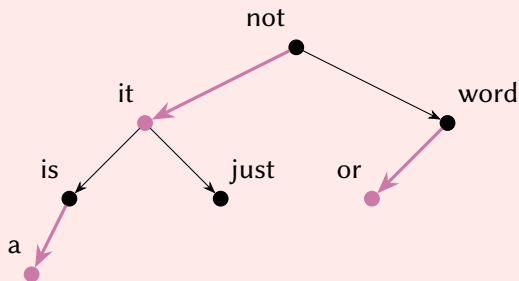


An equivalent *left-leaning* red-black tree



# From 2-3 trees to *left-leaning* red-black trees

An equivalent *left-leaning* red-black tree

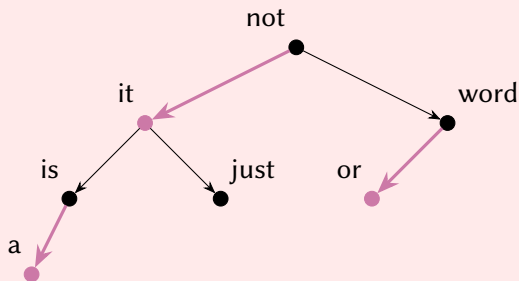


## Some usefull properties

1. Every path from root to leaf has at-most  $\log_2(N)$  unmarked nodes.
2. Every path from root to leaf has the same number of *unmarked* nodes.
3. No marked nodes “touch” each other.

# From 2-3 trees to *left-leaning* red-black trees

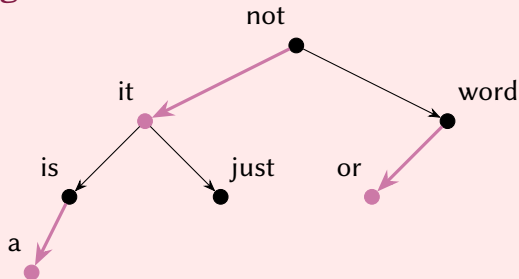
An equivalent *left-leaning* red-black tree



Some usefull properties (that we have to maintain)

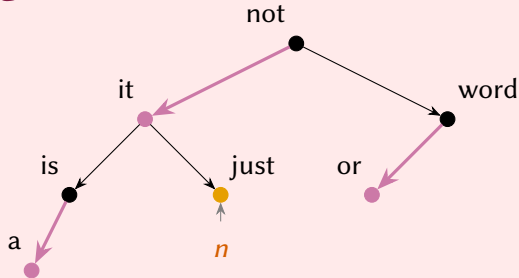
1. Every path from root to leaf has at-most  $\log_2(N)$  unmarked nodes.
2. Every path from root to leaf has the same number of *unmarked* nodes.
3. No marked nodes “touch” each other.

## Adding to *left-leaning* red-black trees



Consider adding “juice”, “kid”, “ism”, “bee”, and “now”

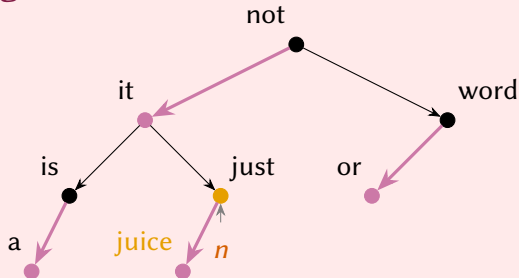
## Adding to *left-leaning* red-black trees



Consider adding “juice”, “kid”, “ism”, “bee”, and “now”

1. Search for “juice”: we find the leaf *two-node* *n* holding “just”.

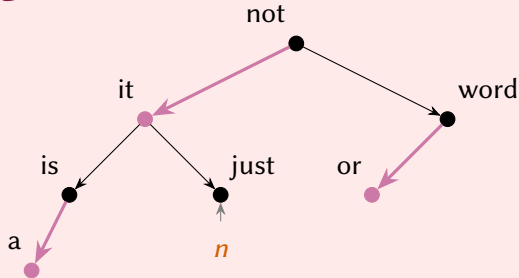
## Adding to *left-leaning* red-black trees



Consider adding “juice”, “kid”, “ism”, “bee”, and “now”

1. Search for “juice”: we find the leaf *two-node* *n* holding “just”.
2. We can turn node *n* into a *three-node*.

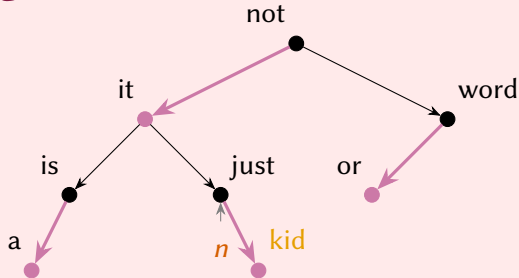
## Adding to *left-leaning* red-black trees



Consider adding “juice”, “**kid**”, “ism”, “bee”, and “now”

1. Search for “kid”: we find the leaf *two-node* **n** holding “just”.

## Adding to *left-leaning* red-black trees

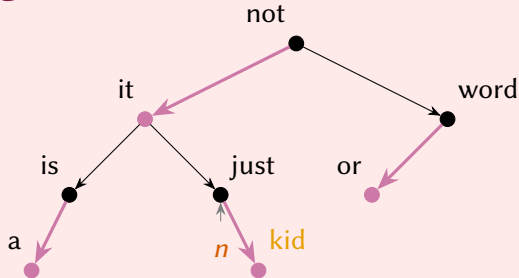


Consider adding “juice”, “**kid**”, “ism”, “bee”, and “now”

1. Search for “kid”: we find the leaf *two-node* **n** holding “just”.
2. We can turn node **n** into a *three-node*, but simply adding “kid” will not do so!



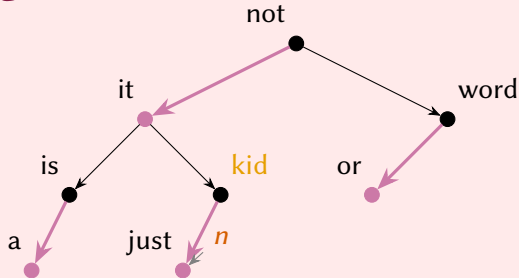
## Adding to *left-leaning* red-black trees



Consider adding “juice”, “**kid**”, “ism”, “bee”, and “now”

1. Search for “kid”: we find the leaf *two-node* **n** holding “just”.
2. We can turn node **n** into a *three-node*, but simply adding “kid” will not do so!
3. We can *rotate left* around **n** to make a proper three-node.

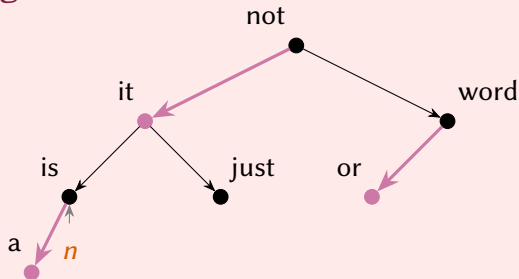
## Adding to *left-leaning* red-black trees



Consider adding “juice”, “**kid**”, “ism”, “bee”, and “now”

1. Search for “kid”: we find the leaf *two-node* **n** holding “just”.
2. We can turn node **n** into a *three-node*, but simply adding “kid” will not do so!
3. We can *rotate left* around **n** to make a proper three-node.

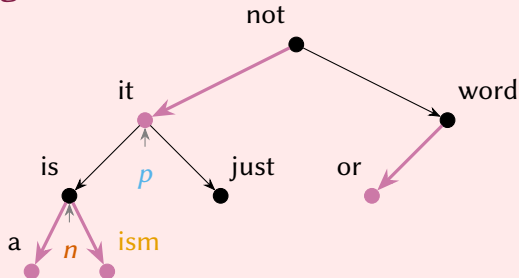
## Adding to *left-leaning* red-black trees



Consider adding “juice”, “kid”, “ism”, “bee”, and “now”

1. Search for “ism”: we find the node *n* holding “is” (part of a *three-node*).

## Adding to *left-leaning* red-black trees

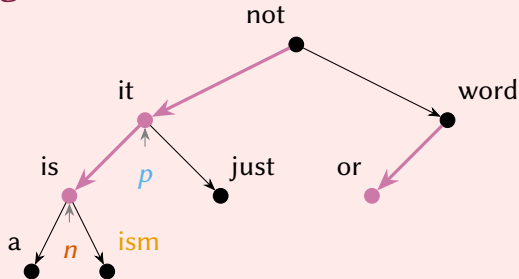


Consider adding “juice”, “kid”, “ism”, “bee”, and “now”

1. Search for “ism”: we find the node *n* holding “is” (part of a *three-node*).
2. We can turn node *n* into a *three-node*, but simply adding “ism” will not do so!



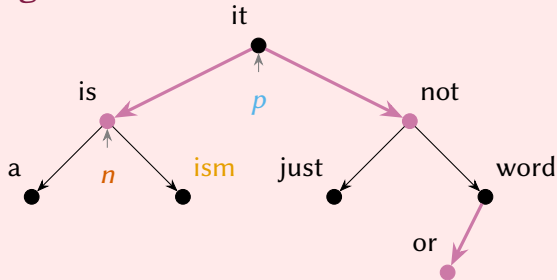
## Adding to *left-leaning* red-black trees



Consider adding “juice”, “kid”, “ism”, “bee”, and “now”

1. Search for “ism”: we find the node *n* holding “is” (part of a *three-node*).
2. We can turn node *n* into a *three-node*, but simply adding “ism” will not do so!
3. Push color toward parent *p* of *n*: now marked nodes “touch” each other.
4. We can *rotate right* around the parent of *p* toward fixing the marked nodes.

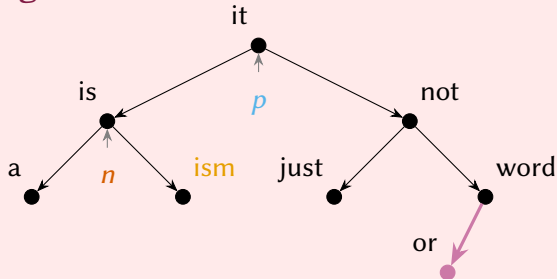
## Adding to *left-leaning* red-black trees



Consider adding “juice”, “kid”, “ism”, “bee”, and “now”

1. Search for “ism”: we find the node *n* holding “is” (part of a *three-node*).
2. We can turn node *n* into a *three-node*, but simply adding “ism” will not do so!
3. Push color toward parent *p* of *n*: now marked nodes “touch” each other.
4. We can *rotate right* around the parent of *p* toward fixing the marked nodes.

## Adding to *left-leaning* red-black trees

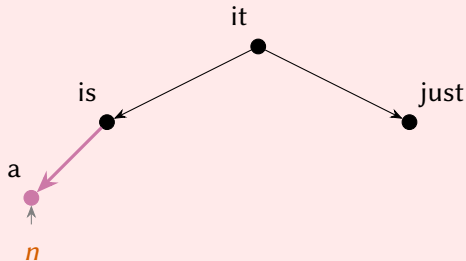


Consider adding “juice”, “kid”, “ism”, “bee”, and “now”

1. Search for “ism”: we find the node *n* holding “is” (part of a *three-node*).
2. We can turn node *n* into a *three-node*, but simply adding “ism” will not do so!
3. Push color toward parent *p* of *n*: now marked nodes “touch” each other.
4. We can *rotate right* around the parent of *p* toward fixing the marked nodes.
5. Push color toward parent of *p* (roots stay unmarked).



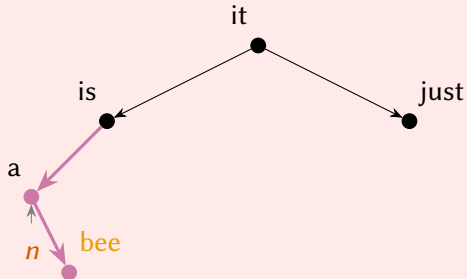
## Adding to *left-leaning* red-black trees



Consider adding “juice”, “kid”, “ism”, “bee”, and “now”

1. Search for “bee”: we find the node *n* holding “a” (part of a *three-node*).

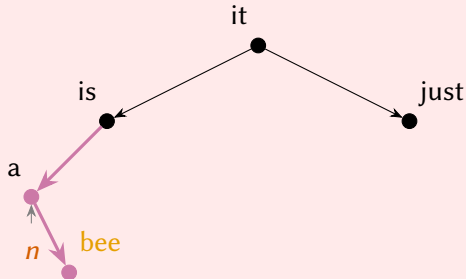
## Adding to *left-leaning* red-black trees



Consider adding “juice”, “kid”, “ism”, “bee”, and “now”

1. Search for “bee”: we find the node *n* holding “a” (part of a *three-node*).
2. Simply adding “bee” invalidates the entire structure.

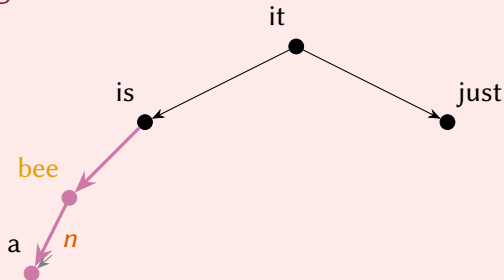
## Adding to *left-leaning* red-black trees



Consider adding “juice”, “kid”, “ism”, “bee”, and “now”

1. Search for “bee”: we find the node *n* holding “a” (part of a *three-node*).
2. Simply adding “bee” invalidates the entire structure.
3. We can *rotate left* around *n* to turn this case into a previous case!

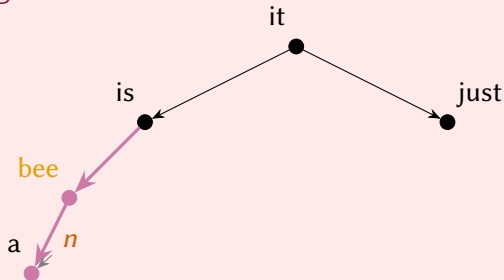
## Adding to *left-leaning* red-black trees



Consider adding “juice”, “kid”, “ism”, “bee”, and “now”

1. Search for “bee”: we find the node *n* holding “a” (part of a *three-node*).
2. Simply adding “bee” invalidates the entire structure.
3. We can *rotate left* around *n* to turn this case into a previous case!

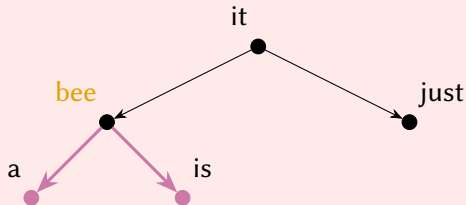
## Adding to *left-leaning* red-black trees



Consider adding “juice”, “kid”, “ism”, “bee”, and “now”

1. Search for “bee”: we find the node *n* holding “a” (part of a *three-node*).
2. Simply adding “bee” invalidates the entire structure.
3. We can *rotate left* around *n* to turn this case into a previous case!
4. Marked nodes “touch” each other: we *rotate right* around the node holding “is”.

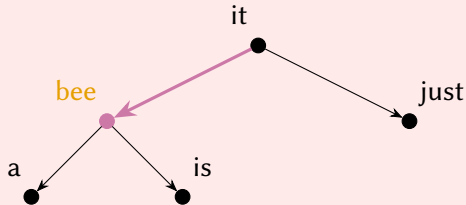
## Adding to *left-leaning* red-black trees



Consider adding “juice”, “kid”, “ism”, “bee”, and “now”

1. Search for “bee”: we find the node *n* holding “a” (part of a *three-node*).
2. Simply adding “bee” invalidates the entire structure.
3. We can *rotate left* around *n* to turn this case into a previous case!
4. Marked nodes “touch” each other: we *rotate right* around the node holding “is”.

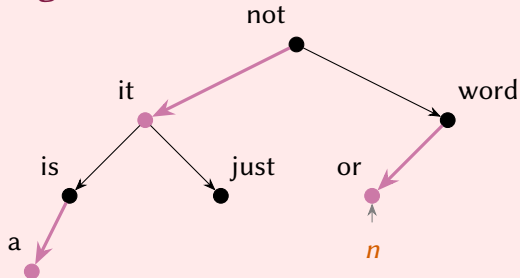
## Adding to *left-leaning* red-black trees



Consider adding “juice”, “kid”, “ism”, “bee”, and “now”

1. Search for “bee”: we find the node *n* holding “a” (part of a *three-node*).
2. Simply adding “bee” invalidates the entire structure.
3. We can *rotate left* around *n* to turn this case into a previous case!
4. Marked nodes “touch” each other: we *rotate right* around the node holding “is”.
5. Push color toward parent.

## Adding to *left-leaning* red-black trees

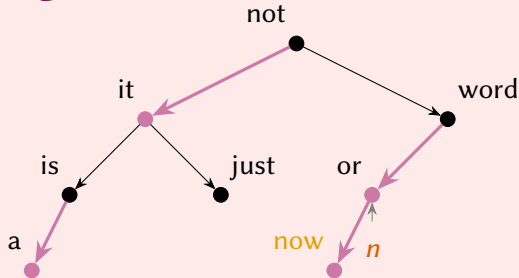


Consider adding “juice”, “kid”, “ism”, “bee”, and “**now**”

1. Search for “nor”: we find the node **n** holding “or” (part of a *three-node*).



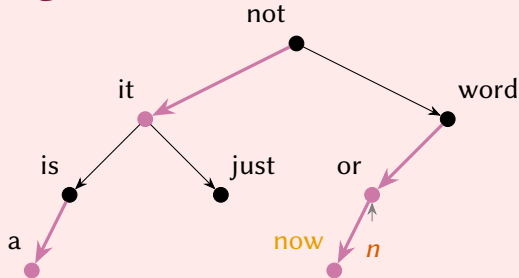
## Adding to *left-leaning* red-black trees



Consider adding “juice”, “kid”, “ism”, “bee”, and “**now**”

1. Search for “nor”: we find the node **n** holding “or” (part of a *three-node*).
2. Simply adding “nor” invalidates the entire structure.

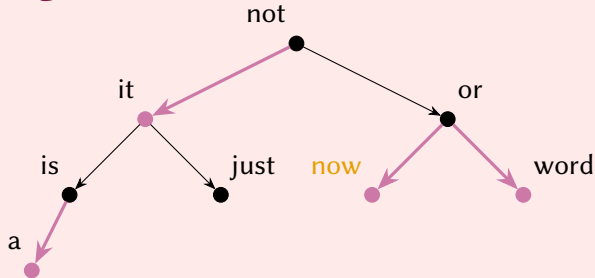
## Adding to *left-leaning* red-black trees



Consider adding “juice”, “kid”, “ism”, “bee”, and “**now**”

1. Search for “nor”: we find the node **n** holding “or” (part of a *three-node*).
2. Simply adding “nor” invalidates the entire structure.
3. This is a previous case: *rotate right*.

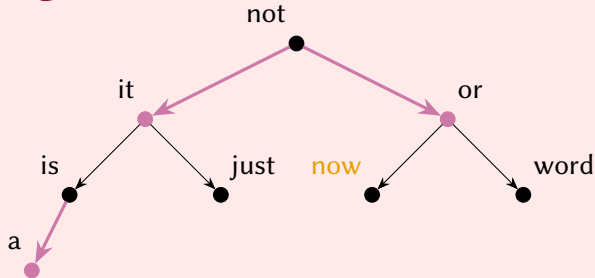
## Adding to *left-leaning* red-black trees



Consider adding “juice”, “kid”, “ism”, “bee”, and “**now**”

1. Search for “nor”: we find the node **n** holding “or” (part of a *three-node*).
2. Simply adding “nor” invalidates the entire structure.
3. This is a previous case: *rotate right*.

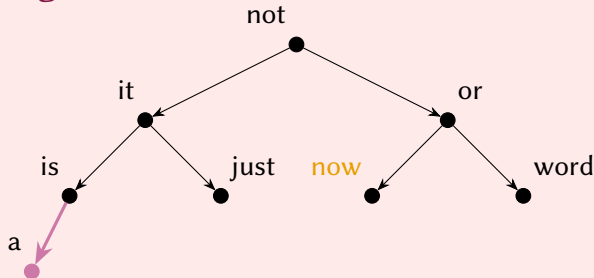
## Adding to *left-leaning* red-black trees



Consider adding “juice”, “kid”, “ism”, “bee”, and “**now**”

1. Search for “nor”: we find the node **n** holding “or” (part of a *three-node*).
2. Simply adding “nor” invalidates the entire structure.
3. This is a previous case: *rotate right*.
4. Push color up.

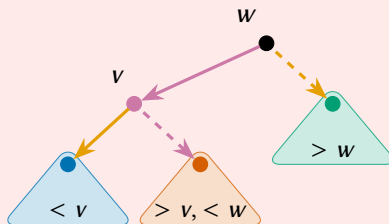
## Adding to *left-leaning* red-black trees



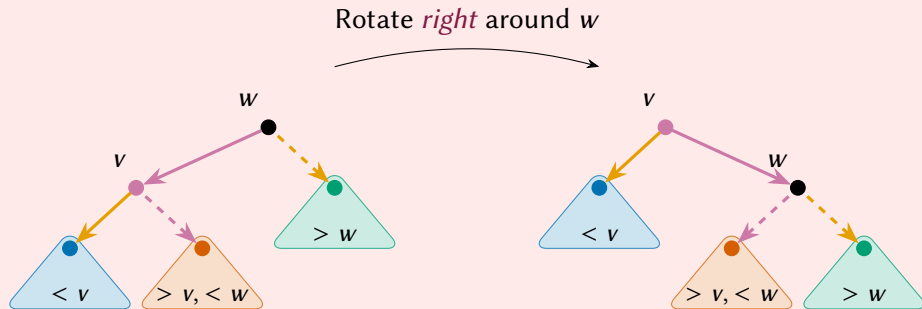
Consider adding “juice”, “kid”, “ism”, “bee”, and “**now**”

1. Search for “nor”: we find the node **n** holding “or” (part of a *three-node*).
2. Simply adding “nor” invalidates the entire structure.
3. This is a previous case: *rotate right*.
4. Push color up.
5. Push color up (roots stay unmarked).

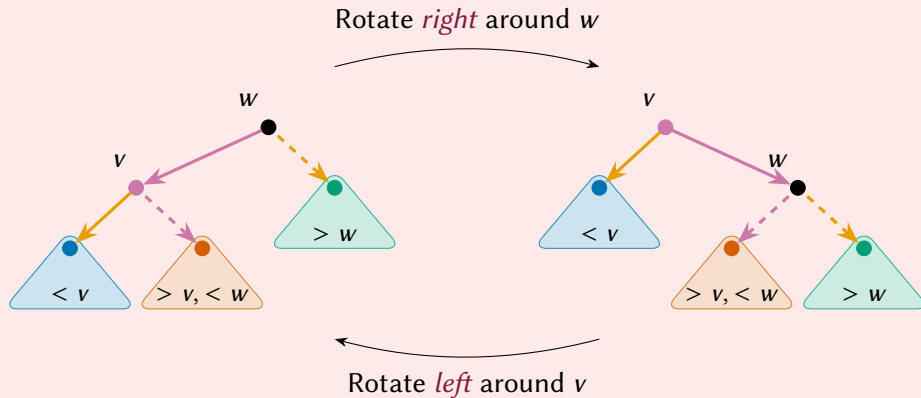
## The *rotate left* and *rotate right* operations



## The *rotate left* and *rotate right* operations

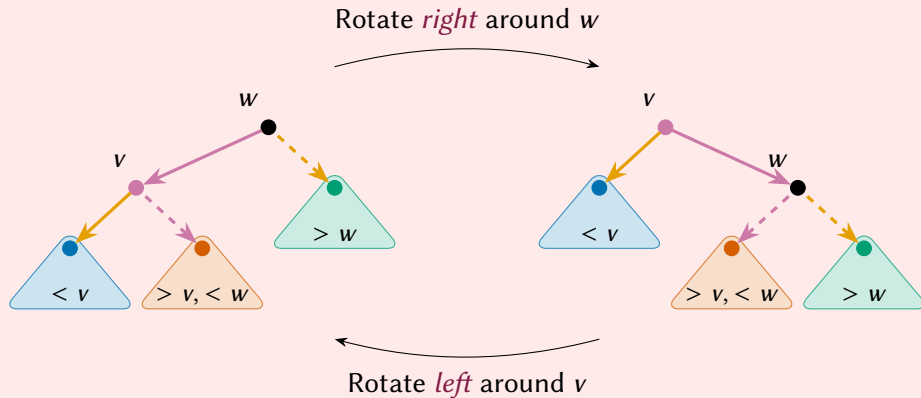


# The *rotate left* and *rotate right* operations





# The *rotate left* and *rotate right* operations

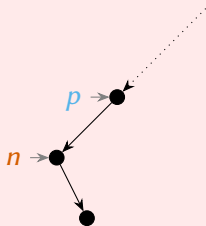


Rotate operations *affect node markings*.

Can be implemented using *only* pointer manipulation.

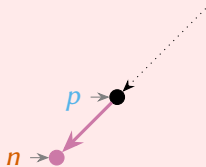
## Removing values from *left-leaning* red-black trees (sketch)

Consider a minimum value  $v$  at node  $n$  with parent  $p$



# Removing values from *left-leaning* red-black trees (sketch)

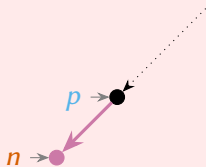
Consider a minimum value  $v$  at node  $n$  with parent  $p$



- $n$  is marked and has no children.

## Removing values from *left-leaning* red-black trees (sketch)

Consider a minimum value  $v$  at node  $n$  with parent  $p$

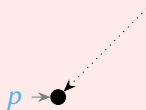


- ▶  $n$  is marked and has no children.

Simple: Removing has zero consequences on the structure of the tree.

# Removing values from *left-leaning* red-black trees (sketch)

Consider a minimum value  $v$  at node  $n$  with parent  $p$

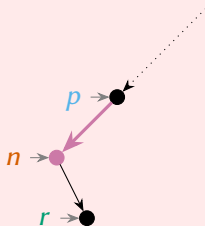


- ▶  $n$  is marked and has no children.

Simple: Removing has zero consequences on the structure of the tree.

# Removing values from *left-leaning* red-black trees (sketch)

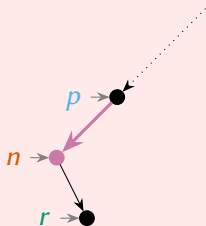
Consider a minimum value  $v$  at node  $n$  with parent  $p$



- ▶  $n$  is marked and has no children.  
Simple: Removing has zero consequences on the structure of the tree.
- ▶  $n$  is marked and has one (right) child node  $r$ .

# Removing values from *left-leaning* red-black trees (sketch)

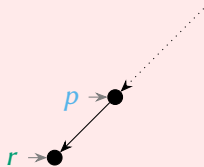
Consider a minimum value  $v$  at node  $n$  with parent  $p$



- ▶  $n$  is marked and has no children.  
Simple: Removing has zero consequences on the structure of the tree.
- ▶  $n$  is marked and has one (right) child node  $r$ .  
Simple: Replace  $n$  by  $r$ , which has zero consequences on the structure of the tree.

# Removing values from *left-leaning* red-black trees (sketch)

Consider a minimum value  $v$  at node  $n$  with parent  $p$

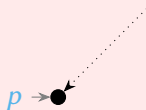


- ▶  $n$  is marked and has no children.  
Simple: Removing has zero consequences on the structure of the tree.
- ▶  $n$  is marked and has one (right) child node  $r$ .  
Simple: Replace  $n$  by  $r$ , which has zero consequences on the structure of the tree.



# Removing values from *left-leaning* red-black trees (sketch)

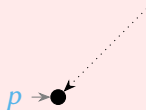
Consider a minimum value  $v$  at node  $n$  with parent  $p$



- ▶  $n$  is marked and has no children.  
Simple: Removing has zero consequences on the structure of the tree.
- ▶  $n$  is marked and has one (right) child node  $r$ .  
Simple: Replace  $n$  by  $r$ , which has zero consequences on the structure of the tree.
- ▶  $n$  is *not* marked.

# Removing values from *left-leaning* red-black trees (sketch)

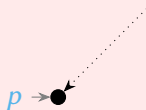
Consider a minimum value  $v$  at node  $n$  with parent  $p$



- ▶  $n$  is marked and has no children.  
Simple: Removing has zero consequences on the structure of the tree.
- ▶  $n$  is marked and has one (right) child node  $r$ .  
Simple: Replace  $n$  by  $r$ , which has zero consequences on the structure of the tree.
- ▶  $n$  is *not* marked  $\rightarrow$  Complex: Removing  $n$  invalidates the structure of the tree.

# Removing values from *left-leaning* red-black trees (sketch)

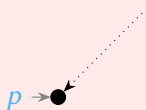
Consider a minimum value  $v$  at node  $n$  with parent  $p$



- ▶  $n$  is marked and has no children.  
Simple: Removing has zero consequences on the structure of the tree.
- ▶  $n$  is marked and has one (right) child node  $r$ .  
Simple: Replace  $n$  by  $r$ , which has zero consequences on the structure of the tree.
- ▶  $n$  is *not* marked  $\rightarrow$  Complex: Removing  $n$  invalidates the structure of the tree.  
*Idea:* Ensure that  $n$  is marked.

# Removing values from *left-leaning* red-black trees (sketch)

Consider a minimum value  $v$  at node  $n$  with parent  $p$

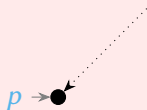


*Idea:* Ensure that  $n$  is marked.

- ▶ We can *introduce* marked nodes at the root of the tree.
- ▶ We can push marked nodes down the tree using *rotates* toward the minimum value.

# Removing values from *left-leaning* red-black trees (sketch)

Consider a minimum value  $v$  at node  $n$  with parent  $p$



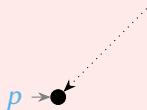
*Idea:* Ensure that  $n$  is marked.

- ▶ We can *introduce* marked nodes at the root of the tree.
- ▶ We can push marked nodes down the tree using *rotates* toward the minimum value.

We have seen the reverse while *adding* values.

# Removing values from *left-leaning* red-black trees (sketch)

Consider a minimum value  $v$  at node  $n$  with parent  $p$

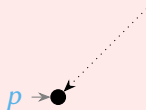


Generalization: Remove arbitrary values.

- ▶ Replace arbitrary values by their successor.
- ▶ Removing successor: generalize the methods to remove the minimum from a tree.

## Removing values from *left-leaning* red-black trees (sketch)

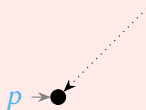
Consider a minimum value  $v$  at node  $n$  with parent  $p$



Removal is possible with only local tree modifications along the path from root to value.

## Removing values from *left-leaning* red-black trees (sketch)

Consider a minimum value  $v$  at node  $n$  with parent  $p$



Removal is possible with only local tree modifications along the path from root to value.

Many minute details to deal with in a plethora of cases.



# Conclusion: Left-leaning red-black trees

## Some usefull properties (that we can maintain)

1. Every path from root to leaf has at-most  $\log_2(N)$  unmarked nodes.
2. Every path from root to leaf has the same number of *unmarked* nodes.
3. No marked nodes “touch” each other.

# Conclusion: Left-leaning red-black trees

## Some usefull properties (that we can maintain)

1. Every path from root to leaf has at-most  $\log_2(N)$  unmarked nodes.
2. Every path from root to leaf has the same number of *unmarked* nodes.
3. No marked nodes “touch” each other.

Paths from root to leafs have length *at-most*  $2 \log_2(N)$ :  
all operations of interest in worst-case  $\Theta(\log_2(N))$ .

## Final notes on binary search trees

We looked at *left-leaning* red-black trees.

In practice, one typically uses ordinary red-black trees:

Very similar, just *more cases* to consider when adding or removing values.

# Final notes on binary search trees

We looked at *left-leaning* red-black trees.

In practice, one typically uses ordinary red-back trees:

Very similar, just *more cases* to consider when adding or removing values.

	C++	Java
Set	<code>std::set</code>	<code>java.util.TreeSet</code>
Dictionary	<code>std::map</code>	<code>java.util.TreeMap</code>
Set (duplicates)	<code>std::multiset</code>	
Dictionary (duplicates)	<code>std::multimap</code>	

# Final notes on binary search trees

We looked at *left-leaning* red-black trees.

In practice, one typically uses ordinary red-back trees:

Very similar, just *more cases* to consider when adding or removing values.

	C++	Java
Set	<code>std::set</code>	<code>java.util.TreeSet</code>
Dictionary	<code>std::map</code>	<code>java.util.TreeMap</code>
Set (duplicates)	<code>std::multiset</code>	
Dictionary (duplicates)	<code>std::multimap</code>	

Variants of search trees are used *everywhere*: file systems, database systems, ...

# Faster sets and dictionaries: beyond $\log_2(N)$

Consider the following variant of WORDCOUNT

## Algorithm GRADECOUNT(*stream*):

**Input:** *stream* is a sequence of grades, each in  $0, \dots, 10$ .

- 1: *grades* :=  $[0 \mid 0 \leq i \leq 10]$ .
- 2: **for all** grade *g* from *stream* **do**
- 3:   *grades*[*g*] := *grades*[*g*] + 1.
- 4: output each pair  $(i \mapsto \textit{grades}[i]), 0 \leq i \leq 10$ .

**Result:** output a histogram of the grades in *stream*.

# Faster sets and dictionaries: beyond $\log_2(N)$

Consider the following variant of WORDCOUNT

## Algorithm GRADECOUNT(*stream*):

**Input:** *stream* is a sequence of grades, each in  $0, \dots, 10$ .

- 1: *grades* :=  $[0 \mid 0 \leq i \leq 10]$ .
- 2: **for all** grade *g* from *stream* **do**
- 3:   *grades*[*g*] := *grades*[*g*] + 1.
- 4: output each pair  $(i \mapsto \textit{grades}[i])$ ,  $0 \leq i \leq 10$ .

**Result:** output a histogram of the grades in *stream*.

*grades* is an *array* that essentially serves as a *dictionary*  
in which *grades* are keys and a grade-count is the associated value.

# Faster sets and dictionaries: beyond $\log_2(N)$

Consider the following variant of WORDCOUNT

## Algorithm GRADECOUNT(*stream*):

**Input:** *stream* is a sequence of grades, each in  $0, \dots, 10$ .

- 1:  $grades := [0 \mid 0 \leq i \leq 10]$ .
- 2: **for all** grade  $g$  from *stream* **do**
- 3:    $grades[g] := grades[g] + 1$ .
- 4: output each pair  $(i \mapsto grades[i]), 0 \leq i \leq 10$ .

**Result:** output a histogram of the grades in *stream*.

*grades* is an *array* that essentially serves as a *dictionary* in which *grades* are keys and a grade-count is the associated value.

Worst-case complexity only  $\Theta(|stream|)$ .



## Toward using arrays as dictionaries

An array  $L[0 \dots N)$  maps *positions*  $0, \dots, N$  onto values.

For sets: the value could be the key itself.

## Toward using arrays as dictionaries

An array  $L[0 \dots N)$  maps *positions*  $0, \dots, N$  onto values.

For sets: the value could be the key itself.

Very restrictive: most *keys* are not integers in a very small range.

For example, keys could be strings “a”, “word”, “is”, “just”, “or”, “it”, “not”.

## Toward using arrays as dictionaries

An array  $L[0 \dots N)$  maps *positions*  $0, \dots, N$  onto values.

For sets: the value could be the key itself.

Very restrictive: most *keys* are not integers in a very small range.

For example, keys could be strings “a”, “word”, “is”, “just”, “or”, “it”, “not”.

### Generalizing array-dictionaries

Given an arbitrary set of *keys*  $\mathcal{K}$ , we need a function  $h : \mathcal{K} \rightarrow \{0, \dots, N - 1\}$  that maps these keys to array positions.

## Toward using arrays as dictionaries

An array  $L[0 \dots N)$  maps *positions*  $0, \dots, N$  onto values.

For sets: the value could be the key itself.

Very restrictive: most *keys* are not integers in a very small range.

For example, keys could be strings “a”, “word”, “is”, “just”, “or”, “it”, “not”.

### Generalizing array-dictionaries

Given an arbitrary set of *keys*  $\mathcal{K}$ , we need a function  $h : \mathcal{K} \rightarrow \{0, \dots, N - 1\}$  that maps these keys to array positions  $\rightarrow$  a *hash function*.

## Toward using arrays as dictionaries

$L[0 \dots 10)$ :

0:	
1:	
2:	
3:	
4:	
5:	
6:	
7:	
8:	
9:	

# Toward using arrays as dictionaries

Consider  $h : \text{Strings} \rightarrow \{0, \dots 9\}$  with

First character	$h(v)$
'a', 'k', 'u'	0
'b', 'l', 'v'	1
'c', 'm', 'w'	2
'd', 'n', 'x'	3
'e', 'o', 'y'	4
'f', 'p', 'z'	5
'g', 'q'	6
'h', 'r'	7
'i', 's'	8
'j', 't'	9

$L[0 \dots 10)$ :

0:	
1:	
2:	
3:	
4:	
5:	
6:	
7:	
8:	
9:	

# Toward using arrays as dictionaries

Consider  $h : \text{Strings} \rightarrow \{0, \dots, 9\}$  with

First character	$h(v)$
'a', 'k', 'u'	0
'b', 'l', 'v'	1
'c', 'm', 'w'	2
'd', 'n', 'x'	3
'e', 'o', 'y'	4
'f', 'p', 'z'	5
'g', 'q'	6
'h', 'r'	7
'i', 's'	8
'j', 't'	9

$w$	$h(w)$
"a"	
"word"	
"is"	
"just"	
"or"	
"it"	
"not"	

$L[0 \dots 10)$ :

0:	
1:	
2:	
3:	
4:	
5:	
6:	
7:	
8:	
9:	

# Toward using arrays as dictionaries

Consider  $h : \text{Strings} \rightarrow \{0, \dots, 9\}$  with

First character	$h(v)$
'a', 'k', 'u'	0
'b', 'l', 'v'	1
'c', 'm', 'w'	2
'd', 'n', 'x'	3
'e', 'o', 'y'	4
'f', 'p', 'z'	5
'g', 'q'	6
'h', 'r'	7
'i', 's'	8
'j', 't'	9

$w$	$h(w)$
"a"	0
"word"	
"is"	
"just"	
"or"	
"it"	
"not"	

$L[0 \dots 10)$ :

0:	a
1:	
2:	
3:	
4:	
5:	
6:	
7:	
8:	
9:	



# Toward using arrays as dictionaries

Consider  $h : \text{Strings} \rightarrow \{0, \dots, 9\}$  with

First character	$h(v)$
'a', 'k', 'u'	0
'b', 'l', 'v'	1
'c', 'm', 'w'	2
'd', 'n', 'x'	3
'e', 'o', 'y'	4
'f', 'p', 'z'	5
'g', 'q'	6
'h', 'r'	7
'i', 's'	8
'j', 't'	9

$w$	$h(w)$
"a"	0
"word"	2
"is"	
"just"	
"or"	
"it"	
"not"	

$L[0 \dots 10)$ :

0:	a
1:	
2:	word
3:	
4:	
5:	
6:	
7:	
8:	
9:	

# Toward using arrays as dictionaries

Consider  $h : \text{Strings} \rightarrow \{0, \dots, 9\}$  with

First character	$h(v)$
'a', 'k', 'u'	0
'b', 'l', 'v'	1
'c', 'm', 'w'	2
'd', 'n', 'x'	3
'e', 'o', 'y'	4
'f', 'p', 'z'	5
'g', 'q'	6
'h', 'r'	7
'i', 's'	8
'j', 't'	9

$w$	$h(w)$
"a"	0
"word"	2
"is"	8
"just"	
"or"	
"it"	
"not"	

$L[0 \dots 10)$ :

0:	a
1:	
2:	word
3:	
4:	
5:	
6:	
7:	
8:	is
9:	

# Toward using arrays as dictionaries

Consider  $h : \text{Strings} \rightarrow \{0, \dots 9\}$  with

First character	$h(v)$
'a', 'k', 'u'	0
'b', 'l', 'v'	1
'c', 'm', 'w'	2
'd', 'n', 'x'	3
'e', 'o', 'y'	4
'f', 'p', 'z'	5
'g', 'q'	6
'h', 'r'	7
'i', 's'	8
'j', 't'	9

$w$	$h(w)$
"a"	0
"word"	2
"is"	8
"just"	9
"or"	
"it"	
"not"	

$L[0 \dots 10)$ :

0:	a
1:	
2:	word
3:	
4:	
5:	
6:	
7:	
8:	is
9:	just

# Toward using arrays as dictionaries

Consider  $h : \text{Strings} \rightarrow \{0, \dots, 9\}$  with

First character	$h(v)$
'a', 'k', 'u'	0
'b', 'l', 'v'	1
'c', 'm', 'w'	2
'd', 'n', 'x'	3
'e', 'o', 'y'	4
'f', 'p', 'z'	5
'g', 'q'	6
'h', 'r'	7
'i', 's'	8
'j', 't'	9

$w$	$h(w)$
"a"	0
"word"	2
"is"	8
"just"	9
"or"	4
"it"	
"not"	

$L[0 \dots 10)$ :

0:	a
1:	
2:	word
3:	
4:	or
5:	
6:	
7:	
8:	is
9:	just

# Toward using arrays as dictionaries

Consider  $h : \text{Strings} \rightarrow \{0, \dots, 9\}$  with

First character	$h(v)$
'a', 'k', 'u'	0
'b', 'l', 'v'	1
'c', 'm', 'w'	2
'd', 'n', 'x'	3
'e', 'o', 'y'	4
'f', 'p', 'z'	5
'g', 'q'	6
'h', 'r'	7
'i', 's'	8
'j', 't'	9

$w$	$h(w)$
"a"	0
"word"	2
"is"	8
"just"	9
"or"	4
"it"	8
"not"	

$L[0 \dots 10)$ :

0:	a
1:	
2:	word
3:	
4:	or
5:	
6:	
7:	
8:	is
9:	just

it?

# Toward using arrays as dictionaries

Consider  $h : \text{Strings} \rightarrow \{0, \dots, 9\}$  with

First character	$h(v)$
'a', 'k', 'u'	0
'b', 'l', 'v'	1
'c', 'm', 'w'	2
'd', 'n', 'x'	3
'e', 'o', 'y'	4
'f', 'p', 'z'	5
'g', 'q'	6
'h', 'r'	7
'i', 's'	8
'j', 't'	9

$w$	$h(w)$
"a"	0
"word"	2
"is"	8
"just"	9
"or"	4
"it"	8
"not"	

$L[0 \dots 10)$ :

0:	a
1:	
2:	word
3:	
4:	or
5:	
6:	
7:	
8:	is
9:	just

it? ← a *collision*!

## Toward using arrays as dictionaries

Consider  $h : \text{Strings} \rightarrow \{0, \dots, 9\}$  with

First character	$h(v)$
'a', 'k', 'u'	0
'b', 'l', 'v'	1
'c', 'm', 'w'	2
'd', 'n', 'x'	3
'e', 'o', 'y'	4
'f', 'p', 'z'	5
'g', 'q'	6
'h', 'r'	7
'i', 's'	8
'j', 't'	9

$w$	$h(w)$
"a"	0
"word"	2
"is"	8
"just"	9
"or"	4
"it"	8
"not"	3

$L[0 \dots 10)$ :

0:	a
1:	
2:	word
3:	not
4:	or
5:	
6:	
7:	
8:	is
9:	just

## Toward using arrays as dictionaries

An array  $L[0 \dots N)$  maps *positions*  $0, \dots, N$  onto values.

For sets: the value could be the key itself.

Very restrictive: most *keys* are not integers in a very small range.

For example, keys could be strings “a”, “word”, “is”, “just”, “or”, “it”, “not”.

### Generalizing array-dictionaries

Given an arbitrary set of *keys*  $\mathcal{K}$ , we need a function  $h : \mathcal{K} \rightarrow \{0, \dots, N - 1\}$  that maps these keys to array positions  $\rightarrow$  a *hash function*.

We want to *prevent collisions*



# Toward using arrays as dictionaries

An array  $L[0 \dots N)$  maps *positions*  $0, \dots, N$  onto values.

For sets: the value could be the key itself.

Very restrictive: most *keys* are not integers in a very small range.

For example, keys could be strings “a”, “word”, “is”, “just”, “or”, “it”, “not”.

## Generalizing array-dictionaries

Given an arbitrary set of *keys*  $\mathcal{K}$ , we need a function  $h : \mathcal{K} \rightarrow \{0, \dots, N - 1\}$  that maps these keys to array positions  $\rightarrow$  a *hash function*.

## We want to *prevent collisions*

- What if  $|\mathcal{K}|$  is very large?

For example, the number of strings is infinite.

- What if  $N$  is very small?

For example, to save memory when we only aim to store a few keys.

# Toward using arrays as dictionaries

An array  $L[0 \dots N)$  maps *positions*  $0, \dots, N$  onto values.

For sets: the value could be the key itself.

Very restrictive: most *keys* are not integers in a very small range.

For example, keys could be strings “a”, “word”, “is”, “just”, “or”, “it”, “not”.

## Generalizing array-dictionaries

Given an arbitrary set of *keys*  $\mathcal{K}$ , we need a function  $h : \mathcal{K} \rightarrow \{0, \dots, N - 1\}$  that maps these keys to array positions  $\rightarrow$  a *hash function*.

## We want to *prevent collisions*

- What if  $|\mathcal{K}|$  is very large?

For example, the number of strings is infinite.

- What if  $N$  is very small?

For example, to save memory when we only aim to store a few keys.

We also want “*cheap*” hash functions to maximize performance.

# Toward using arrays as dictionaries

An array  $L[0 \dots N)$  maps *positions*  $0, \dots, N$  onto values.

For sets: the value could be the key itself.

Very restrictive: most *keys* are not integers in a very small range.

For example, keys could be strings “a”, “word”, “is”, “just”, “or”, “it”, “not”.

## Generalizing array-dictionaries

Given an arbitrary set of *keys*  $\mathcal{K}$ , we need a function  $h : \mathcal{K} \rightarrow \{0, \dots, N - 1\}$  that maps these keys to array positions  $\rightarrow$  a *hash function*.

## We have to deal with collisions

- What if  $|\mathcal{K}|$  is very large?

For example, the number of strings is infinite.

- What if  $N$  is very small?

For example, to save memory when we only aim to store a few keys.

We also want “*cheap*” hash functions to maximize performance.

# Hash tables

A *hash table* is a data structure that uses a *hash function* that maps *values* to array positions that can *hold that value*.

# Hash tables

A *hash table* is a data structure that uses a *hash function* that maps *values* to array positions that can *hold that value*.

The way a hash table *holds values* is determined by how the table deals with *collisions*: Typically determines the design of the data structure.

# Hash tables

A *hash table* is a data structure that uses a *hash function* that maps *values* to array positions that can *hold that value*.

The way a hash table *holds values* is determined by how the table deals with *collisions*: Typically determines the design of the data structure.

We will look at two main flavors of hash tables:

**Chaining** Use a linked list to store *collisions*.

**Linear probing** Store *collisions* consecutively in the array.

## The *uniform hashing* assumption

Let  $h : \mathcal{K} \rightarrow \{0, \dots, N - 1\}$  be a hash function.

We *assume* that the hash function distributes the values in  $\mathcal{K}$  *uniformly and independently* among the positions  $\{0, \dots, N - 1\}$ .

## The *uniform hashing* assumption

Let  $h : \mathcal{K} \rightarrow \{0, \dots, N - 1\}$  be a hash function.

We *assume* that the hash function distributes the values in  $\mathcal{K}$  *uniformly and independently* among the positions  $\{0, \dots, N - 1\}$ .

For any two distinct values  $v_1, v_2 \in \mathcal{K}$ , we have  $h(v_1) = h(v_2)$  with a probability of  $\frac{1}{N}$ .



# The *uniform hashing* assumption

Let  $h : \mathcal{K} \rightarrow \{0, \dots, N - 1\}$  be a hash function.

We *assume* that the hash function distributes the values in  $\mathcal{K}$  *uniformly and independently* among the positions  $\{0, \dots, N - 1\}$ .

For any two distinct values  $v_1, v_2 \in \mathcal{K}$ , we have  $h(v_1) = h(v_2)$  with a probability of  $\frac{1}{N}$ .

Using this assumption, we can analyze the *expected behavior* of hash tables.

# The *uniform hashing* assumption

Let  $h : \mathcal{K} \rightarrow \{0, \dots, N - 1\}$  be a hash function.

We *assume* that the hash function distributes the values in  $\mathcal{K}$  *uniformly and independently* among the positions  $\{0, \dots, N - 1\}$ .

For any two distinct values  $v_1, v_2 \in \mathcal{K}$ , we have  $h(v_1) = h(v_2)$  with a probability of  $\frac{1}{N}$ .

Using this assumption, we can analyze the *expected behavior* of hash tables.

Some settings allow a collision-free hash function: *perfect hashing*.

For example: the hash function  $h(i) = i$  we used in GRADECOUNT.

# Hashing with chaining

*Idea:* the hash table is an array of linked lists,  
the  $i$ -th linked list holding all values  $v$  with  $h(v) = i$ .

# Hashing with chaining

*Idea:* the hash table is an array of linked lists,  
the  $i$ -th linked list holding all values  $v$  with  $h(v) = i$ .

**Contains value  $v$**  Look up the linked list  $S$  at  $L[h(v)]$ ,  
search  $v$  in  $S$  (e.g., using a LINEARSEARCH variant).

**Adding value  $v$**  Look up the linked list  $S$  at  $L[h(v)]$ ,  
add  $v$  to  $S$  if  $v \notin S$  (sets do not have duplicates).

**Removing value  $v$**  Look up the linked list  $S$  at  $L[h(v)]$ ,  
remove  $v$  from  $S$  if  $v \in S$ .

# Hashing with chaining

*Idea:* the hash table is an array of linked lists,  
the  $i$ -th linked list holding all values  $v$  with  $h(v) = i$ .

$h : \text{Strings} \rightarrow \{0, \dots, 6\}$

First character	$h(v)$
'a', 'h', 'o', 'v'	0
"b", 'i', 'p', 'w'	1
"c", 'j', 'q', 'x'	2
"d", 'k', 'r', 'y'	3
"e", 'l', 's', 'z'	4
"f", 'm', 't'	5
"g", 'n', 'u'	6

$w$	$h(w)$
"a"	
"word"	
"is"	
"just"	
"or"	
"it"	
"not"	

$L[0 \dots 7]:$

0:	@null
1:	@null
2:	@null
3:	@null
4:	@null
5:	@null
6:	@null

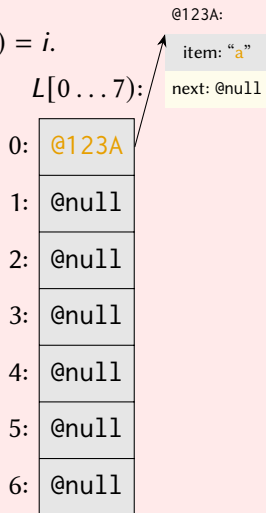
# Hashing with chaining

*Idea:* the hash table is an array of linked lists,  
the  $i$ -th linked list holding all values  $v$  with  $h(v) = i$ .

$$h : \text{Strings} \rightarrow \{0, \dots, 6\}$$

First character	$h(v)$
'a', 'h', 'o', 'v'	0
"b", 'i', 'p', 'w'	1
"c", 'j', 'q', 'x'	2
"d", 'k', 'r', 'y'	3
"e", 'l', 's', 'z'	4
"f", 'm', 't'	5
"g", 'n', 'u'	6

$w$	$h(w)$
"a"	0
"word"	
"is"	
"just"	
"or"	
"it"	
"not"	



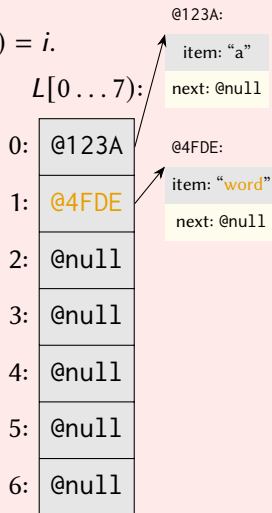
# Hashing with chaining

*Idea:* the hash table is an array of linked lists,  
the  $i$ -th linked list holding all values  $v$  with  $h(v) = i$ .

$h : \text{Strings} \rightarrow \{0, \dots, 6\}$

First character	$h(v)$
'a', 'h', 'o', 'v'	0
"b", 'i', 'p', 'w'	1
"c", 'j', 'q', 'x'	2
"d", 'k', 'r', 'y'	3
"e", 'l', 's', 'z'	4
"f", 'm', 't'	5
"g", 'n', 'u'	6

$w$	$h(w)$
"a"	0
"word"	1
"is"	
"just"	
"or"	
"it"	
"not"	



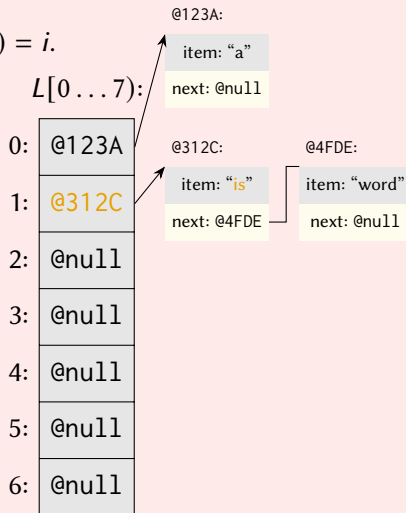
# Hashing with chaining

*Idea:* the hash table is an array of linked lists,  
the  $i$ -th linked list holding all values  $v$  with  $h(v) = i$ .

$h : \text{Strings} \rightarrow \{0, \dots, 6\}$

First character	$h(v)$
'a', 'h', 'o', 'v'	0
"b", 'i', 'p', 'w'	1
"c", 'j', 'q', 'x'	2
"d", 'k', 'r', 'y'	3
"e", 'l', 's', 'z'	4
"f", 'm', 't'	5
"g", 'n', 'u'	6

$w$	$h(w)$
"a"	0
"word"	1
"is"	1
"just"	
"or"	
"it"	
"not"	





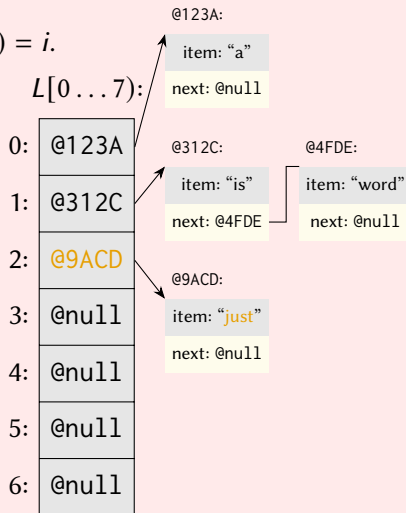
# Hashing with chaining

*Idea:* the hash table is an array of linked lists,  
the  $i$ -th linked list holding all values  $v$  with  $h(v) = i$ .

$h : \text{Strings} \rightarrow \{0, \dots, 6\}$

First character	$h(v)$
'a', 'h', 'o', 'v'	0
"b", 'i', 'p', 'w'	1
"c", 'j', 'q', 'x'	2
"d", 'k', 'r', 'y'	3
"e", 'l', 's', 'z'	4
"f", 'm', 't'	5
"g", 'n', 'u'	6

$w$	$h(w)$
"a"	0
"word"	1
"is"	1
"just"	2
"or"	
"it"	
"not"	



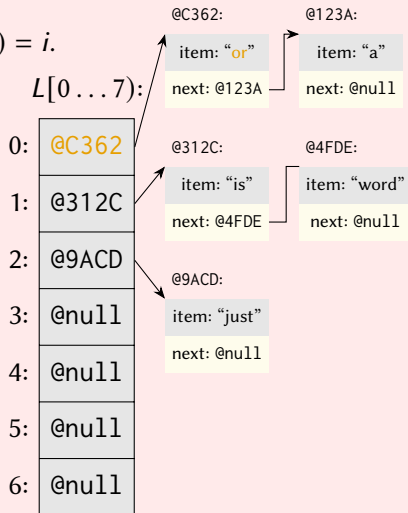
# Hashing with chaining

*Idea:* the hash table is an array of linked lists,  
the  $i$ -th linked list holding all values  $v$  with  $h(v) = i$ .

$$h : \text{Strings} \rightarrow \{0, \dots, 6\}$$

First character	$h(v)$
'a', 'h', 'o', 'v'	0
"b", 'i', 'p', 'w'	1
"c", 'j', 'q', 'x'	2
"d", 'k', 'r', 'y'	3
"e", 'l', 's', 'z'	4
"f", 'm', 't'	5
"g", 'n', 'u'	6

$w$	$h(w)$
"a"	0
"word"	1
"is"	1
"just"	2
"or"	0
"it"	5
"not"	6



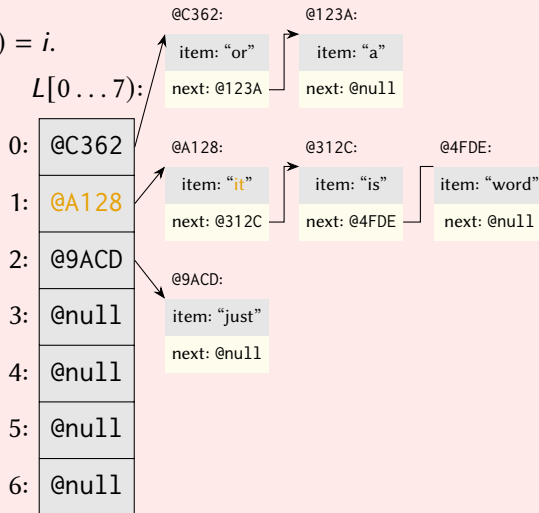
# Hashing with chaining

*Idea:* the hash table is an array of linked lists,  
the  $i$ -th linked list holding all values  $v$  with  $h(v) = i$ .

$$h : \text{Strings} \rightarrow \{0, \dots, 6\}$$

First character	$h(v)$
'a', 'h', 'o', 'v'	0
"b", 'i', 'p', 'w'	1
"c", 'j', 'q', 'x'	2
"d", 'k', 'r', 'y'	3
"e", 'l', 's', 'z'	4
"f", 'm', 't'	5
"g", 'n', 'u'	6

$w$	$h(w)$
"a"	0
"word"	1
"is"	1
"just"	2
"or"	0
"it"	1
"not"	



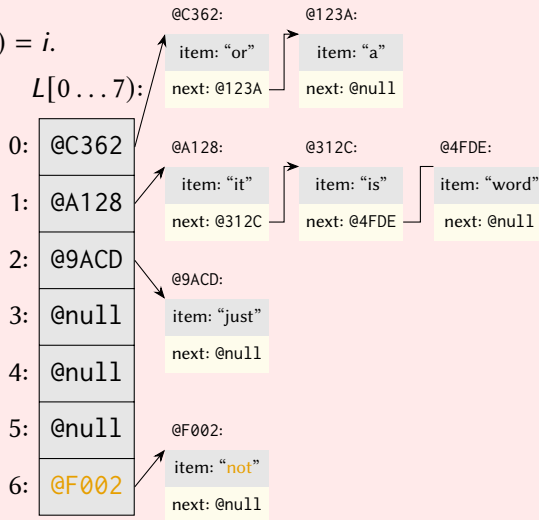
# Hashing with chaining

*Idea:* the hash table is an array of linked lists,  
the  $i$ -th linked list holding all values  $v$  with  $h(v) = i$ .

$$h : \text{Strings} \rightarrow \{0, \dots, 6\}$$

First character	$h(v)$
'a', 'h', 'o', 'v'	0
"b", 'i', 'p', 'w'	1
"c", 'j', 'q', 'x'	2
"d", 'k', 'r', 'y'	3
"e", 'l', 's', 'z'	4
"f", 'm', 't'	5
"g", 'n', 'u'	6

$w$	$h(w)$
"a"	0
"word"	1
"is"	1
"just"	2
"or"	0
"it"	1
"not"	6



# Hashing with chaining

*Idea:* the hash table is an array of linked lists,  
the  $i$ -th linked list holding all values  $v$  with  $h(v) = i$ .

## Analysis

Consider a hash table with  $N$  positions, holding  $M$  values.

# Hashing with chaining

*Idea:* the hash table is an array of linked lists, the  $i$ -th linked list holding all values  $v$  with  $h(v) = i$ .

## Analysis

Consider a hash table with  $N$  positions, holding  $M$  values.

- ▶ On average, each linked list holds  $\frac{M}{N}$  values.

# Hashing with chaining

*Idea*: the hash table is an array of linked lists,  
the  $i$ -th linked list holding all values  $v$  with  $h(v) = i$ .

## Analysis

Consider a hash table with  $N$  positions, holding  $M$  values.

- ▶ On average, each linked list holds  $\frac{M}{N}$  values.
- ▶ *If* the uniform hashing assumption holds,  
*then* adding or removing random values will cost an expected  $\Theta\left(1 + \frac{M}{N}\right)$ .

# Hashing with chaining

*Idea*: the hash table is an array of linked lists,  
the  $i$ -th linked list holding all values  $v$  with  $h(v) = i$ .

## Analysis

Consider a hash table with  $N$  positions, holding  $M$  values.

- ▶ On average, each linked list holds  $\frac{M}{N}$  values.
- ▶ *If* the uniform hashing assumption holds,  
*then* adding or removing random values will cost an expected  $\Theta\left(1 + \frac{M}{N}\right)$ .
- ▶ Worst-case:  $\Theta(N)$  (all values end up in a single linked list).



# Hashing with chaining

*Idea*: the hash table is an array of linked lists,  
the  $i$ -th linked list holding all values  $v$  with  $h(v) = i$ .

## Analysis

Consider a hash table with  $N$  positions, holding  $M$  values.

- ▶ On average, each linked list holds  $\frac{M}{N}$  values.
- ▶ *If* the uniform hashing assumption holds,  
*then* adding or removing random values will cost an expected  $\Theta\left(1 + \frac{M}{N}\right)$ .
- ▶ Worst-case:  $\Theta(N)$  (all values end up in a single linked list).
- ▶ For somewhat decent hash functions and  $N > M$ ,  
adding and removing values are  $\Theta(1)$  in practice.

# Hashing with chaining

*Idea:* the hash table is an array of linked lists,  
the  $i$ -th linked list holding all values  $v$  with  $h(v) = i$ .

## Analysis

Consider a hash table with  $N$  positions, holding  $M$  values.

- ▶ On average, each linked list holds  $\frac{M}{N}$  values.
- ▶ *If* the uniform hashing assumption holds,  
*then* adding or removing random values will cost an expected  $\Theta\left(1 + \frac{M}{N}\right)$ .
- ▶ Worst-case:  $\Theta(N)$  (all values end up in a single linked list).
- ▶ For somewhat decent hash functions and  $N > M$ ,  
adding and removing values are  $\Theta(1)$  in practice.
- ▶ Bad hash functions exist.  
For example, the hash function we used in our examples.

# Hashing with linear probing

*Idea:* the hash table holds all values directly,  
the value  $v$  will be stored at the first free position at-or-after  $h(v) = i$ .

# Hashing with linear probing

*Idea*: the hash table holds all values directly,  
the value  $v$  will be stored at the first free position at-or-after  $h(v) = i$ .  
At-or-after with *wrap around*: position 0 comes right after the last position.

# Hashing with linear probing

*Idea:* the hash table holds all values directly,  
the value  $v$  will be stored at the first free position at-or-after  $h(v) = i$ .  
At-or-after with *wrap around*: position 0 comes right after the last position.

**Contains value  $v$**  Inspect each consecutive non-free position  $j$  starting at  $h(v)$ ,  
return if  $L[j] = v$  holds for any such position.

**Adding value  $v$**  Look up the first free position  $j \geq h(v)$  in  $L$ ,  
set  $L[j] := v$  if we did not find  $v$  in any of the inspected positions.

# Hashing with linear probing

*Idea:* the hash table holds all values directly,  
the value  $v$  will be stored at the first free position at-or-after  $h(v) = i$ .  
At-or-after with *wrap around*: position 0 comes right after the last position.

**Contains value  $v$**  Inspect each consecutive non-free position  $j$  starting at  $h(v)$ ,  
return if  $L[j] = v$  holds for any such position.

**Adding value  $v$**  Look up the first free position  $j \geq h(v)$  in  $L$ ,  
set  $L[j] := v$  if we did not find  $v$  in any of the inspected positions.

**How to remove a value?**

Removing values breaks consecutive sequences of non-free positions!

# Hashing with linear probing

*Idea:* the hash table holds all values directly,  
the value  $v$  will be stored at the first free position at-or-after  $h(v) = i$ .

At-or-after with *wrap around*: position 0 comes right after the last position.

$h : \text{Strings} \rightarrow \{0, \dots, 6\}$

First character	$h(v)$
'a', 'h', 'o', 'v'	0
'b', 'i', 'p', 'w'	1
'c', 'j', 'q', 'x'	2
'd', 'k', 'r', 'y'	3
'e', 'l', 's', 'z'	4
'f', 'm', 't'	5
'g', 'n', 'u'	6

$w$	$h(w)$
"a"	
"word"	
"just"	
"is"	
"or"	
"not"	
"now"	

$L[0 \dots 7)$ :

0:	
1:	
2:	
3:	
4:	
5:	
6:	

# Hashing with linear probing

*Idea:* the hash table holds all values directly,  
the value  $v$  will be stored at the first free position at-or-after  $h(v) = i$ .  
At-or-after with *wrap around*: position 0 comes right after the last position.

$h : \text{Strings} \rightarrow \{0, \dots, 6\}$

First character	$h(v)$
'a', 'h', 'o', 'v'	0
'b', 'i', 'p', 'w'	1
'c', 'j', 'q', 'x'	2
'd', 'k', 'r', 'y'	3
'e', 'l', 's', 'z'	4
'f', 'm', 't'	5
'g', 'n', 'u'	6

$w$	$h(w)$
"a"	0
"word"	
"just"	
"is"	
"or"	
"not"	
"now"	

$L[0 \dots 7)$ :

0:	"a"
1:	
2:	
3:	
4:	
5:	
6:	



# Hashing with linear probing

*Idea:* the hash table holds all values directly,  
the value  $v$  will be stored at the first free position at-or-after  $h(v) = i$ .

At-or-after with *wrap around*: position 0 comes right after the last position.

$h : \text{Strings} \rightarrow \{0, \dots, 6\}$

First character	$h(v)$
'a', 'h', 'o', 'v'	0
'b', 'i', 'p', 'w'	1
'c', 'j', 'q', 'x'	2
'd', 'k', 'r', 'y'	3
'e', 'l', 's', 'z'	4
'f', 'm', 't'	5
'g', 'n', 'u'	6

$w$	$h(w)$
"a"	0
"word"	1
"just"	
"is"	
"or"	
"not"	
"now"	

$L[0 \dots 7)$ :

0:	"a"
1:	"word"
2:	
3:	
4:	
5:	
6:	

# Hashing with linear probing

*Idea:* the hash table holds all values directly,  
the value  $v$  will be stored at the first free position at-or-after  $h(v) = i$ .

At-or-after with *wrap around*: position 0 comes right after the last position.

$h : \text{Strings} \rightarrow \{0, \dots, 6\}$

First character	$h(v)$
'a', 'h', 'o', 'v'	0
'b', 'i', 'p', 'w'	1
'c', 'j', 'q', 'x'	2
'd', 'k', 'r', 'y'	3
'e', 'l', 's', 'z'	4
'f', 'm', 't'	5
'g', 'n', 'u'	6

$w$	$h(w)$
"a"	0
"word"	1
"just"	2
"is"	
"or"	
"not"	
"now"	

$L[0 \dots 7)$ :

0:	"a"
1:	"word"
2:	"just"
3:	
4:	
5:	
6:	

# Hashing with linear probing

*Idea:* the hash table holds all values directly,  
the value  $v$  will be stored at the first free position at-or-after  $h(v) = i$ .

At-or-after with *wrap around*: position 0 comes right after the last position.

$h : \text{Strings} \rightarrow \{0, \dots, 6\}$

First character	$h(v)$
'a', 'h', 'o', 'v'	0
'b', 'i', 'p', 'w'	1
'c', 'j', 'q', 'x'	2
'd', 'k', 'r', 'y'	3
'e', 'l', 's', 'z'	4
'f', 'm', 't'	5
'g', 'n', 'u'	6

$w$	$h(w)$
"a"	0
"word"	1
"just"	2
"is"	1
"or"	
"not"	
"now"	

$L[0 \dots 7)$ :

0:	"a"	} Occupied!
1:	"word"	
2:	"just"	
3:	"is"	
4:		
5:		
6:		

# Hashing with linear probing

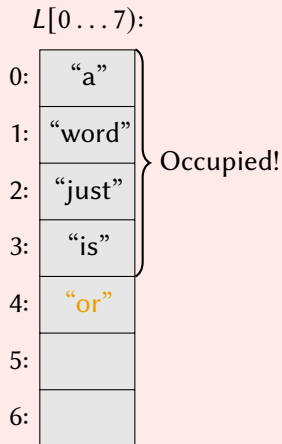
*Idea:* the hash table holds all values directly,  
the value  $v$  will be stored at the first free position at-or-after  $h(v) = i$ .

At-or-after with *wrap around*: position 0 comes right after the last position.

$h : \text{Strings} \rightarrow \{0, \dots, 6\}$

First character	$h(v)$
'a', 'h', 'o', 'v'	0
'b', 'i', 'p', 'w'	1
'c', 'j', 'q', 'x'	2
'd', 'k', 'r', 'y'	3
'e', 'l', 's', 'z'	4
'f', 'm', 't'	5
'g', 'n', 'u'	6

$w$	$h(w)$
"a"	0
"word"	1
"just"	2
"is"	1
"or"	0
"not"	
"now"	



# Hashing with linear probing

*Idea:* the hash table holds all values directly,

the value  $v$  will be stored at the first free position at-or-after  $h(v) = i$ .

At-or-after with *wrap around*: position 0 comes right after the last position.

$h : \text{Strings} \rightarrow \{0, \dots, 6\}$

First character	$h(v)$
'a', 'h', 'o', 'v'	0
'b', 'i', 'p', 'w'	1
'c', 'j', 'q', 'x'	2
'd', 'k', 'r', 'y'	3
'e', 'l', 's', 'z'	4
'f', 'm', 't'	5
'g', 'n', 'u'	6

$w$	$h(w)$
"a"	0
"word"	1
"just"	2
"is"	1
"or"	0
"not"	6
"now"	

$L[0 \dots 7)$ :

0:	"a"
1:	"word"
2:	"just"
3:	"is"
4:	"or"
5:	
6:	"not"

# Hashing with linear probing

*Idea:* the hash table holds all values directly,  
the value  $v$  will be stored at the first free position at-or-after  $h(v) = i$ .

At-or-after with *wrap around*: position 0 comes right after the last position.

$$h : \text{Strings} \rightarrow \{0, \dots, 6\}$$

First character	$h(v)$
'a', 'h', 'o', 'v'	0
"b", 'i', 'p', 'w'	1
"c", 'j', 'q', 'x'	2
"d", 'k', 'r', 'y'	3
"e", 'l', 's', 'z'	4
"f", 'm', 't'	5
"g", 'n', 'u'	6

$w$	$h(w)$
"a"	0
"word"	1
"just"	2
"is"	1
"or"	0
"not"	6
"now"	6

$L[0 \dots 7)$ :

0:	"a"	Occupied! ( <i>wrap around</i> )
1:	"word"	
2:	"just"	
3:	"is"	
4:	"or"	Occupied!
5:	"nor"	
6:	"not"	

# Hashing with linear probing

*Idea:* the hash table holds all values directly,

the value  $v$  will be stored at the first free position at-or-after  $h(v) = i$ .

At-or-after with *wrap around*: position 0 comes right after the last position.

$h : \text{Strings} \rightarrow \{0, \dots 6\}$

First character	$h(v)$
'a', 'h', 'o', 'v'	0
"b", 'i', 'p', 'w'	1
"c", 'j', 'q', 'x'	2
"d", 'k', 'r', 'y'	3
"e", 'l', 's', 'z'	4
"f", 'm', 't'	5
"g", 'n', 'u'	6

Consider removing “word”,  
by simply erasing the value.

$L[0 \dots 7)$ :

0:	“a”
1:	“word”
2:	“just”
3:	“is”
4:	“or”
5:	“nor”
6:	“not”

# Hashing with linear probing

*Idea:* the hash table holds all values directly,  
the value  $v$  will be stored at the first free position at-or-after  $h(v) = i$ .  
At-or-after with *wrap around*: position 0 comes right after the last position.

$h : \text{Strings} \rightarrow \{0, \dots, 6\}$

First character	$h(v)$
'a', 'h', 'o', 'v'	0
"b", 'i', 'p', 'w'	1
"c", 'j', 'q', 'x'	2
"d", 'k', 'r', 'y'	3
"e", 'l', 's', 'z'	4
"f", 'm', 't'	5
"g", 'n', 'u'	6

Consider removing “word”,  
by simply erasing the value.

$L[0 \dots 7)$ :

0:	“a”
1:	
2:	“just”
3:	“is”
4:	“or”
5:	“nor”
6:	“not”



# Hashing with linear probing

*Idea:* the hash table holds all values directly,  
the value  $v$  will be stored at the first free position at-or-after  $h(v) = i$ .  
At-or-after with *wrap around*: position 0 comes right after the last position.

$h : \text{Strings} \rightarrow \{0, \dots, 6\}$

First character	$h(v)$
'a', 'h', 'o', 'v'	0
"b", 'i', 'p', 'w'	1
"c", 'j', 'q', 'x'	2
"d", 'k', 'r', 'y'	3
"e", 'l', 's', 'z'	4
"f", 'm', 't'	5
"g", 'n', 'u'	6

Consider removing “word”,  
by simply erasing the value.

How can we find  
“just”, “is”, “or”, “nor”?

$L[0 \dots 7]$ :

0:	“a”	} At wrong positions!
1:		
2:	“just”	
3:	“is”	
4:	“or”	
5:	“nor”	
6:	“not”	

# Hashing with linear probing

*Idea:* the hash table holds all values directly,  
the value  $v$  will be stored at the first free position at-or-after  $h(v) = i$ .  
At-or-after with *wrap around*: position 0 comes right after the last position.

**Contains value  $v$**  Inspect each consecutive non-free position  $j$  starting at  $h(v)$ ,  
return if  $L[j] = v$  holds for any such position.

**Adding value  $v$**  Look up the first free position  $j \geq h(v)$  in  $L$ ,  
set  $L[j] := v$  if we did not find  $v$  in any of the inspected positions.

## How to remove a value at position $j$ ?

Removing values breaks consecutive sequences of non-free positions!

**Option 1** reinsert all values in non-free positions following position  $j$ .

**Option 2** set  $L[j] := \text{REMOVED}$  with **REMOVED** a special-purpose value.  
When searching: **REMOVED** is unequal to any value.

# Hashing with linear probing

*Idea:* the hash table holds all values directly,  
the value  $v$  will be stored at the first free position at-or-after  $h(v) = i$ .  
At-or-after with *wrap around*: position 0 comes right after the last position.

**Contains value  $v$**  Inspect each consecutive non-free position  $j$  starting at  $h(v)$ ,  
return if  $L[j] = v$  holds for any such position.

**Adding value  $v$**  Look up the first free position  $j \geq h(v)$  in  $L$ ,  
set  $L[j] := v$  if we did not find  $v$  in any of the inspected positions.

## How to remove a value at position $j$ ?

Removing values breaks consecutive sequences of non-free positions!

**Option 1** reinsert all values in non-free positions following position  $j$ .

**Option 2** set  $L[j] := \text{REMOVED}$  with **REMOVED** a special-purpose value.  
When searching: **REMOVED** is unequal to any value.

Option 1 is costlier during removal, but cheaper afterwards.

# Hashing with linear probing

*Idea:* the hash table holds all values directly,  
the value  $v$  will be stored at the first free position at-or-after  $h(v) = i$ .  
At-or-after with *wrap around*: position 0 comes right after the last position.

$h : \text{Strings} \rightarrow \{0, \dots, 6\}$

First character	$h(v)$
'a', 'h', 'o', 'v'	0
"b", 'i', 'p', 'w'	1
"c", 'j', 'q', 'x'	2
"d", 'k', 'r', 'y'	3
"e", 'l', 's', 'z'	4
"f", 'm', 't'	5
"g", 'n', 'u'	6

Consider removing “word”,  
by simply erasing the value.

How can we find  
“just”, “is”, “or”, “nor”?

Option 1.  
We reinsert these three values.

$L[0 \dots 7)$ :

0:	“a”
1:	
2:	“just”
3:	“is”
4:	“or”
5:	“nor”
6:	“not”

# Hashing with linear probing

*Idea:* the hash table holds all values directly,  
the value  $v$  will be stored at the first free position at-or-after  $h(v) = i$ .  
At-or-after with *wrap around*: position 0 comes right after the last position.

$h : \text{Strings} \rightarrow \{0, \dots, 6\}$

First character	$h(v)$
'a', 'h', 'o', 'v'	0
"b", 'i', 'p', 'w'	1
"c", 'j', 'q', 'x'	2
"d", 'k', 'r', 'y'	3
"e", 'l', 's', 'z'	4
"f", 'm', 't'	5
"g", 'n', 'u'	6

Consider removing “word”,  
by simply erasing the value.

How can we find  
“just”, “is”, “or”, “nor”?

Option 1.  
We reinsert these three values.

$L[0 \dots 7)$ :

0:	“a”
1:	“is”
2:	“just”
3:	“or”
4:	“nor”
5:	
6:	“not”

# Hashing with linear probing

*Idea*: the hash table holds all values directly,  
the value  $v$  will be stored at the first free position at-or-after  $h(v) = i$ .  
At-or-after with *wrap around*: position 0 comes right after the last position.

## Analysis

Consider a hash table with  $N$  positions, holding  $M$  values. Let  $\alpha = \frac{M}{N}$  be the *fill factor*.

# Hashing with linear probing

*Idea*: the hash table holds all values directly,  
the value  $v$  will be stored at the first free position at-or-after  $h(v) = i$ .  
At-or-after with *wrap around*: position 0 comes right after the last position.

## Analysis

Consider a hash table with  $N$  positions, holding  $M$  values. Let  $\alpha = \frac{M}{N}$  be the *fill factor*.

- *If* the uniform hashing assumption holds,  
*then* the  $i$ -th position holds a value with probability  $\alpha$ .

# Hashing with linear probing

*Idea*: the hash table holds all values directly,  
the value  $v$  will be stored at the first free position at-or-after  $h(v) = i$ .  
At-or-after with *wrap around*: position 0 comes right after the last position.

## Analysis

Consider a hash table with  $N$  positions, holding  $M$  values. Let  $\alpha = \frac{M}{N}$  be the *fill factor*.

- *If* the uniform hashing assumption holds,  
*then* the  $i$ -th position holds a value with probability  $\alpha$   
*and* the probability that  $j$  consecutive positions hold a value is at-most  $\alpha^j$ .



# Hashing with linear probing

*Idea*: the hash table holds all values directly,  
the value  $v$  will be stored at the first free position at-or-after  $h(v) = i$ .  
At-or-after with *wrap around*: position 0 comes right after the last position.

## Analysis

Consider a hash table with  $N$  positions, holding  $M$  values. Let  $\alpha = \frac{M}{N}$  be the *fill factor*.

- ▶ *If* the uniform hashing assumption holds,  
*then* the  $i$ -th position holds a value with probability  $\alpha$   
*and* the probability that  $j$  consecutive positions hold a value is at-most  $\alpha^j$ .
- ▶ To find a non-existing value (*adding*), we expect to inspect at-most

$$1 + \alpha + \alpha^2 + \alpha^3 + \cdots + \alpha^N$$

positions.

# Hashing with linear probing

*Idea*: the hash table holds all values directly,  
the value  $v$  will be stored at the first free position at-or-after  $h(v) = i$ .  
At-or-after with *wrap around*: position 0 comes right after the last position.

## Analysis

Consider a hash table with  $N$  positions, holding  $M$  values. Let  $\alpha = \frac{M}{N}$  be the *fill factor*.

- ▶ *If* the uniform hashing assumption holds,  
*then* the  $i$ -th position holds a value with probability  $\alpha$   
*and* the probability that  $j$  consecutive positions hold a value is at-most  $\alpha^j$ .
- ▶ To find a non-existing value (*adding*), we expect to inspect at-most

$$1 + \alpha + \alpha^2 + \alpha^3 + \cdots + \alpha^N \leq \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \alpha^i$$

positions.

# Hashing with linear probing

*Idea*: the hash table holds all values directly,  
the value  $v$  will be stored at the first free position at-or-after  $h(v) = i$ .  
At-or-after with *wrap around*: position 0 comes right after the last position.

## Analysis

Consider a hash table with  $N$  positions, holding  $M$  values. Let  $\alpha = \frac{M}{N}$  be the *fill factor*.

- ▶ *If* the uniform hashing assumption holds,  
*then* the  $i$ -th position holds a value with probability  $\alpha$   
*and* the probability that  $j$  consecutive positions hold a value is at-most  $\alpha^j$ .
- ▶ To find a non-existing value (*adding*), we expect to inspect at-most

$$1 + \alpha + \alpha^2 + \alpha^3 + \cdots + \alpha^N \leq \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \alpha^i = \frac{1}{1 - \alpha}$$

positions.

# Hashing with linear probing

*Idea*: the hash table holds all values directly,  
the value  $v$  will be stored at the first free position at-or-after  $h(v) = i$ .  
At-or-after with *wrap around*: position 0 comes right after the last position.

## Analysis

Consider a hash table with  $N$  positions, holding  $M$  values. Let  $\alpha = \frac{M}{N}$  be the *fill factor*.

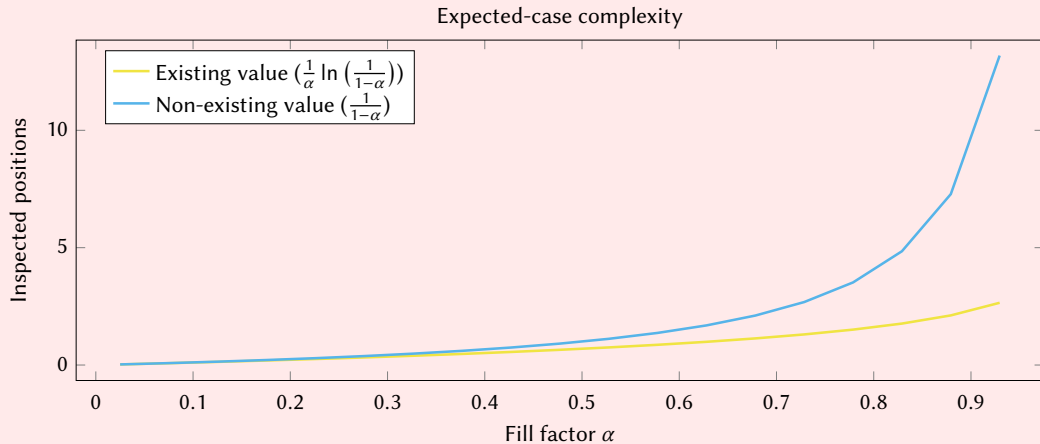
- ▶ If the uniform hashing assumption holds,  
then the  $i$ -th position holds a value with probability  $\alpha$   
and the probability that  $j$  consecutive positions hold a value is at-most  $\alpha^j$ .
- ▶ To find a non-existing value (*adding*), we expect to inspect at-most

$$1 + \alpha + \alpha^2 + \alpha^3 + \cdots + \alpha^N \leq \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \alpha^i = \frac{1}{1 - \alpha}$$

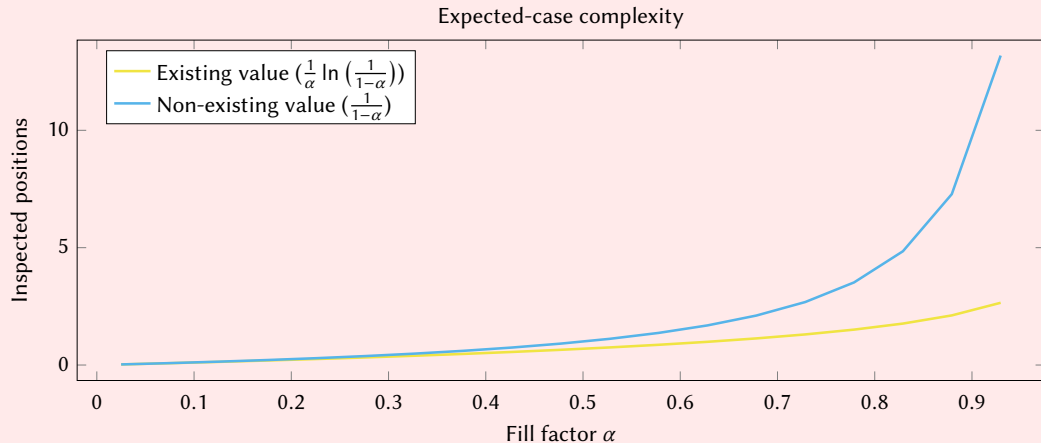
positions.

- ▶ To find an existing value (*removing*), we expect to inspect at-most  $\frac{1}{\alpha} \ln \left( \frac{1}{1 - \alpha} \right)$  positions.

# Hashing with linear probing



# Hashing with linear probing



For somewhat decent hash functions and  $N \gg M$ ,  
adding and removing values are  $\Theta(1)$  in practice.

# Hash tables and functions in practice

Hash tables provide a balance between memory usage and runtime cost:

- ▶ With mostly-empty tables (high memory usage), collisions are expected to be rare (low runtime cost).
- ▶ With mostly-full tables (low memory usage), collisions are expected to be frequent (high runtime cost).

# Hash tables and functions in practice

Hash tables provide a balance between memory usage and runtime cost:

- ▶ With mostly-empty tables (high memory usage), collisions are expected to be rare (low runtime cost).
- ▶ With mostly-full tables (low memory usage), collisions are expected to be frequent (high runtime cost).

In practice, one typically *resizes* the hash table when it gets too full.



# Hash tables and functions in practice

Hash tables provide a balance between memory usage and runtime cost:

- ▶ With mostly-empty tables (high memory usage), collisions are expected to be rare (low runtime cost).
- ▶ With mostly-full tables (low memory usage), collisions are expected to be frequent (high runtime cost).

In practice, one typically *resizes* the hash table when it gets too full.

This requires a *family of hash functions*  $h_N : \mathcal{K} \rightarrow \{0, \dots, N - 1\}$ .

# Hash tables and functions in practice

Hash tables provide a balance between memory usage and runtime cost:

- ▶ With mostly-empty tables (high memory usage), collisions are expected to be rare (low runtime cost).
- ▶ With mostly-full tables (low memory usage), collisions are expected to be frequent (high runtime cost).

In practice, one typically *resizes* the hash table when it gets too full.

This requires a *family of hash functions*  $h_N : \mathcal{K} \rightarrow \{0, \dots, N - 1\}$ .

Let  $M$  be the *maximum size* of arrays in your system.

Let  $h : \mathcal{K} \rightarrow \{0, \dots, M - 1\}$  be a hash function. One way to obtain  $h_N$ ,  $0 \leq N \leq M$ , is via

$$h_N(i) = h(i) \bmod N.$$

## Final notes on hash tables

Most dynamic hash tables are implemented on top of dynamic arrays using *chaining*.  
*Linear probing* is especially usefull for *constant tables*.

# Final notes on hash tables

Most dynamic hash tables are implemented on top of dynamic arrays using *chaining*. *Linear probing* is especially usefull for *constant tables*.

	C++	Java
Set	<code>std::unordered_set (C++11)</code>	<code>java.util.HashSet</code>
Dictionary	<code>std::unordered_map (C++11)</code>	<code>java.util.HashMap</code>
Set (duplicates)	<code>std::unordered_multiset (C++11)</code>	
Dictionary (duplicates)	<code>std::unordered_multimap (C++11)</code>	

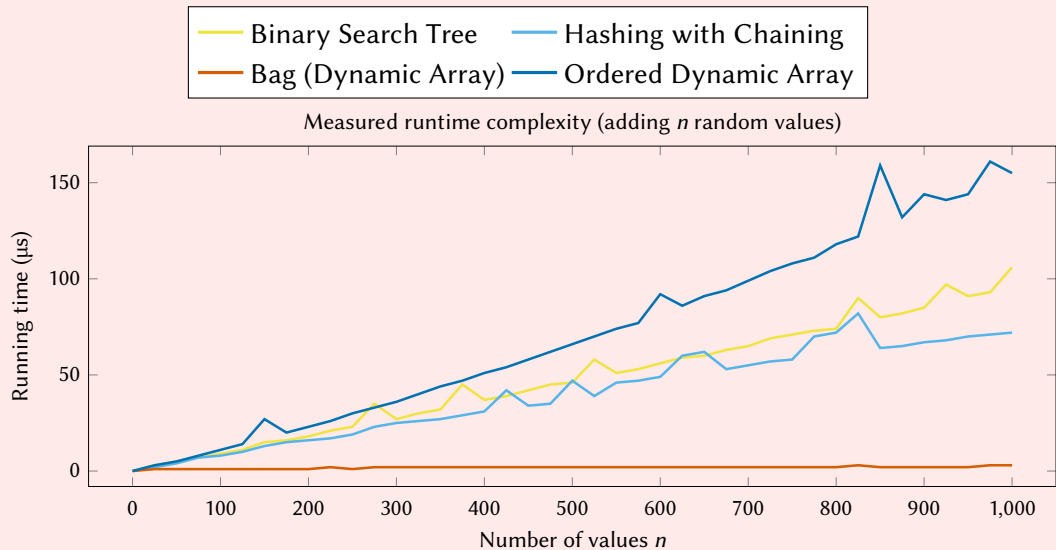
# Sets and dictionaries in practice

	Cost	Ordered	Principle
Dynamic Arrays	$\Theta(N)$	No	BINARYSEARCH
Ordered Dynamic Array <sup>a</sup>	$\Theta(\log_2(N)), \Theta(N)$	Yes	
Binary Search Trees	$\Theta(\log_2(N))$	Yes	Red-Black Trees.
Hash Tables	Expected $\Theta(1)$ <sup>b</sup>	No	Chaining.

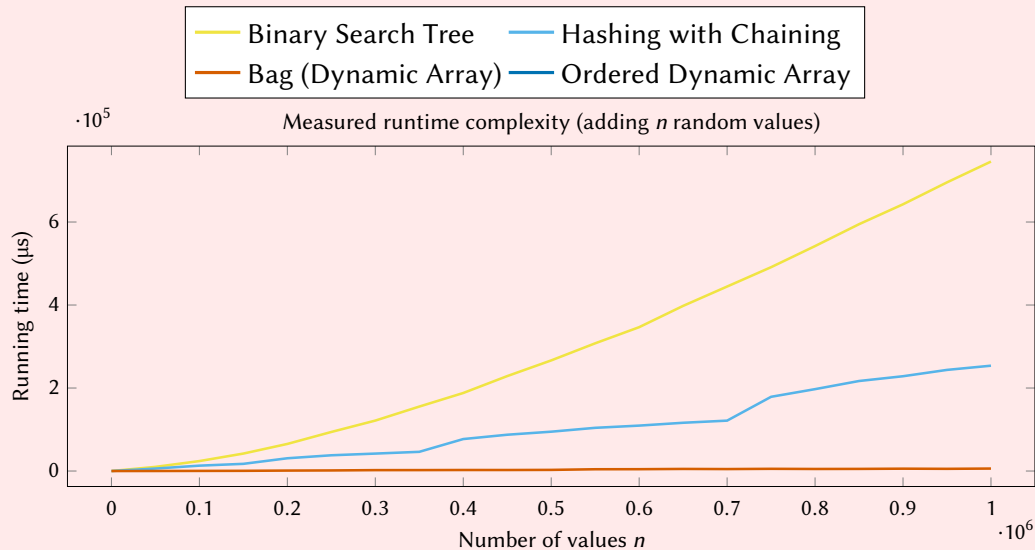
<sup>a</sup>Supported in C++23 via `std::flat_set` (set), `std::flat_map` (dictionary), `std::flat_multiset` (set, with duplicates), and `std::flat_multimap` (dictionary, with duplicates).

<sup>b</sup>For somewhat decent hash functions and large enough hash table.

# Sets and dictionaries in practice



# Sets and dictionaries in practice



# Sets and dictionaries in practice

