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Source material acknowledgement

These lecture slides are built on the [source material] developed by [Lloyd Allison].

FIT2004 S1/2017: Algorithms and Data Structures

Prerequisite material: **(1) Hashing – Linear and Quadratic probing**
(2) Binary search trees

Faculty of Information Technology, Monash University

What is covered in these slides?

Prerequisites covered already in FIT1008

- Collision resolution using Linear chaining
- Collision resolution using Linear and Quadratic probing
- Binary search trees and basic operations on them.

Recommended reading

- Hashing:
<http://www.csse.monash.edu.au/~lloyd/tildeAlgDS/Table/>
- Weiss “Data Structures and Algorithm Analysis” (Chapter 4&5’s relevant sections)
- Search Trees part of
<http://www.csse.monash.edu.au/~lloyd/tildeAlgDS/Tree/>

Closed-addressing using **Linear chaining**

One form of collision resolution requires putting keys that collide in a linear **list** associated with index.

```
/*LINEAR CHAINING EXAMPLE ON SOME FIRSTNAMES
```

```
  N (number of keys) = 27, M (table size) = 11
```

```
  hash function used:
```

```
  hash("ARUN") =
```

```
  (((ascii('A')*3 + ascii('R'))*3 + ascii('U'))*3 + ascii('N'))*3 % M
```

```
*/
```

```
0: WILLIAM --> JASON
```

```
1: BENJAMIN --> SOPHIA --> BENJAMIN
```

```
2: DANIEL --> CAMPBELL --> DANIEL --> LACHLAN
```

```
3: MAXIMILIAN --> SITGGEN --> JESSE
```

```
4: SAMUEL --> LUIZA --> PETER
```

```
5: EMMANUEL --> CHRISTOPHER --> ADITI
```

```
6: JOSHUA
```

```
7: ALI --> ALEXANDER
```

```
8:
```

```
9: MATTHEW --> DEMETRIOS --> MATTHEW
```

```
10: LAWSON --> JEREMY --> MARTIN
```

Closed-addressing using **Linear chaining**

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/*LINEAR CHAINING EXAMPLE ON SOME FIRSTNAMES
  N (number of keys) = 27, M (table size) = 11
  hash function used:
  hash("ARUN") =
  (((ascii('A')*3 + ascii('R'))*3 + ascii('U'))*3 + ascii('N'))*3 % M
*/

0: WILLIAM --> JASON
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8:
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```

What is the worst-case time complexity for standard operations on hash-tables: **insert("key")**, **delete("key")**, **lookup("key")**?

Open-addressing using **Linear probing**

- Linear probing is the simplest probing strategy.
- Generalized formula for i th probe after **collision**

$$\text{hash}(\text{"key"}, i) = (\text{hash}(\text{"key"}) + c_1 i) \pmod{M}$$

where, c_1 is the increment or step-size of probe
 M is the size of the hash table.

Linear probing example

$M = 8$

Empty hash table

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
????	????	????	????	????	????	????	????

Linear probing example

$M = 8$

Empty hash table

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
????	????	????	????	????	????	????	????

insert("fred"); Let **hash("fred") = 6**

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
????	????	????	????	????	????	fred	????

Linear probing example

$M = 8$

Empty hash table

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
????	????	????	????	????	????	????	????

`insert("fred");` Let `hash("fred") = 6`

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
????	????	????	????	????	????	fred	????

`insert("anne");` Let `hash("anne") = 2`

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
????	????	anne	????	????	????	fred	????

Linear probing example

$M = 8$

Empty hash table

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
????	????	????	????	????	????	????	????

insert("fred"); Let $\text{hash}(\text{"fred"}) = 6$

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
????	????	????	????	????	????	fred	????

insert("anne"); Let $\text{hash}(\text{"anne"}) = 2$

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
????	????	anne	????	????	????	fred	????

insert("jim"); Let $\text{hash}(\text{"jim"}) = 2$ -- collision!

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
????	????	anne jim	????	????	????	fred	????

Linear probing example – cont'd

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
????	????	anne jim	????	????	????	fred	????

Linear probing example – cont'd

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
????	????	anne jim	????	????	????	fred	????

probe for empty **hash+1, hash+2, ...** (mod M)

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
????	????	anne	jim	????	????	fred	????

Linear probing example – cont'd

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
????	????	anne jim	????	????	????	fred	????

probe for empty $\text{hash}+1, \text{hash}+2, \dots \pmod{M}$

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
????	????	anne	jim	????	????	fred	????

$\text{insert}(\text{"jill"})$; Let $\text{hash}(\text{"jill"}) = 2$ -- collision!

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
????	????	anne jill	jim	????	????	fred	????

Linear probing example – cont'd

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
????	????	anne jim	????	????	????	fred	????

probe for empty **hash+1, hash+2, ... (mod M)**

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
????	????	anne	jim	????	????	fred	????

insert("jill"); Let **hash("jill") = 2** -- **collision!**

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
????	????	anne jill	jim	????	????	fred	????

probe... **collision!**

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
????	????	anne	jim jill	????	????	fred	????

Linear probing example – cont'd

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
????	????	anne jim	????	????	????	fred	????

probe for empty **hash+1, hash+2, ... (mod M)**

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
????	????	anne	jim	????	????	fred	????

insert("jill"); Let **hash("jill") = 2** -- **collision!**

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
????	????	anne jill	jim	????	????	fred	????

probe... **collision!**

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
????	????	anne	jim jill	????	????	fred	????

probe further...

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
????	????	anne	jim	jill	????	fred	????

Problem with Linear chaining

The problem with linear probing is that collisions from **nearby hash values** tend to merge into **big blocks**, and therefore the lookup can degenerate into a linear $O(N)$ search.

Quadratic probing is a more sophisticated probing strategy!

$$\text{hash}(\text{"key"}, i) = (\text{hash}(\text{"key"}) + c_1 i + c_2 i^2) \pmod{M}$$

When $c_1 = c_2 = \frac{1}{2}$, the probe sequence after collision is **+1, +3, +6, ...**
Note, when $c_2 = 0$, this becomes linear probing!

Quadratic probing is not guaranteed to probe every location in the table – an insert could fail while there is still an empty location. However hash tables are rarely allowed to get full – we will see this in a later slide. **The same probing strategy is used in the associated search routine!**

Advantage of Quadratic probing over linear

- The virtue of quadratic probing is that the probe locations for two near-miss keys, as opposed to two colliding keys, are not closely related.
- this reduces the likelihood of large collision blocks forming, which is a big problem with linear probing that slows down the search process.
- For example, if one set of keys all hash to '6' and another set hash to '7' then the collision blocks of these sets will over-run and merge with each other under linear-probing.
- With quadratic probing on the other hand, the probes after 6 are at positions 7, 9, 12, 16, ... and the probes after 7 are at positions 8, 10, 13, 17, This tends to give small disjoint blocks.

Testing the performance of linear and quadratic probing

Simulations give an estimate of the performance of a hash table based on its **Load** (ratio of number of hashed keys to table size). The time taken by **insert** and **lookup** depends on **collisions/lookup**.

Linear probing		Quadratic probing	
Load	collisions/lookup	Load	collisions/lookup
10%	0.04	10%	0.04
20%	0.09	20%	0.10
30%	0.15	30%	0.15
40%	0.27	40%	0.25
50%	0.39	50%	0.38
60%	0.68	60%	0.53
70%	0.92	70%	0.67
80%	1.72	80%	1.09
90%	2.29	90%	1.40

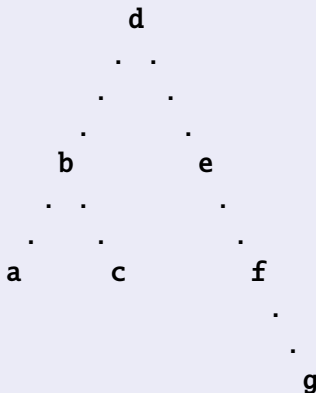
Results here use hash keys that are uniform random numbers. This is the best possible case; Performance in real setting is actually worse.

Binary Search Trees (BST): Introduction

- The empty tree is a BST
- If the tree is not empty,
 - 1 the elements in the **left subtree** are **LESS THAN** the element in the root
 - 2 the elements in the **right subtree** are **GREATER THAN** the element in the root
 - 3 the **left subtree is a BST**
 - 4 the **right subtree is a BST**

Note! **Don't forget last two conditions!**

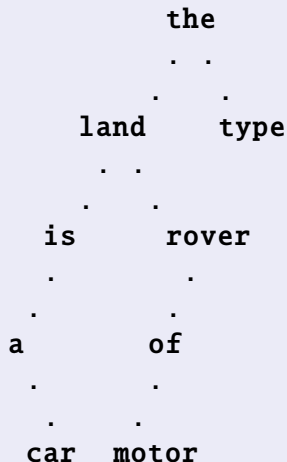
BST example



Binary Search Trees (BST): Introduction

BST example

*/*Input:*/* the land rover is a type of motor car



Searching for some **x** in the BST

```
1 // BST implemented here as a tree data structure
2 //     T = fork(e, L, R)
3
4 function search(x,T)
5     if (T == nilTree)
6         return false    // not present!
7
8     else if ( x < e ) // search x in Left subtree
9         search( x , L )
10
11    else if ( x > e ) // search x in Right subtree
12        search( x , R )
13
14    else return true      // found!
```

Inserting **x** into a BST

```
1 // BST implemented here as a tree data structure
2 //      T = fork(e, L, R)
3 function insert( x , T )
4     if (T == nilTree) // Insert here as leaf node
5         T = fork( x , nilTree , nilTree )
6
7     else if ( x < e ) // Traverse and insert ...
8         insert( x, L ); // along the Left subtree
9
10
11     else if (x > e ) // Traverse and insert ...
12         insert( x , R ) // along the Right subtree
13
14     else // x == e
15         ... it depends ... // [discussed in lecture]
16 return
```

Delete **x** from a BST

First lookup **x** in *T* // *Check if x is present in T*

Assuming **x** found, there are three cases:

case 1

No children, **x** is a leaf node.

Easy case! freeup leaf;

set subtree to nilTree;

case 2

x has One child

Fairly easy case!

case 3

x has Two children.

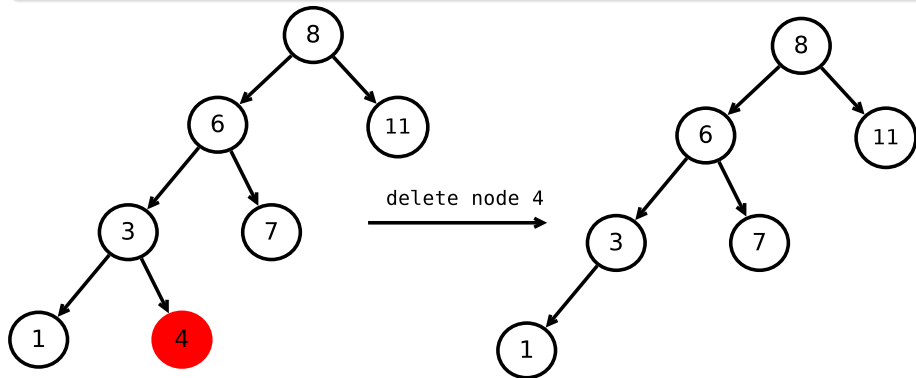
Tricky case!

Delete **x** from a BST – Case 1 (example)

Case 1

No children, **x** is a leaf node.

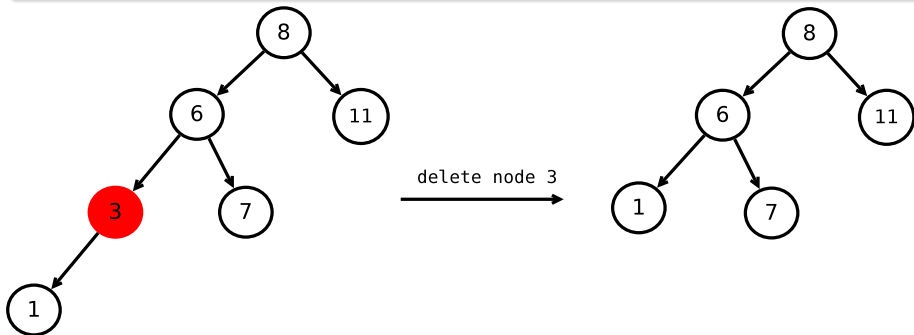
Easy **case**! freeup leaf; set subtree to nilTree;



Delete **x** from a BST – Case 2 (example)

Case 2

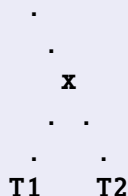
One child
fairly easy . . .



Delete **x** from a BST – Case 3

Case 3

Two Children



Deleting node **x** requires some thought ...

Find smallest element, **y**, in right tree, T2
[OR greatest element, **y**, in left tree, T1]

overwrite **x** with **y**,

delete **y** from T2! [or **y** from T1!]

Delete **x** from a BST – Case 3 (example)

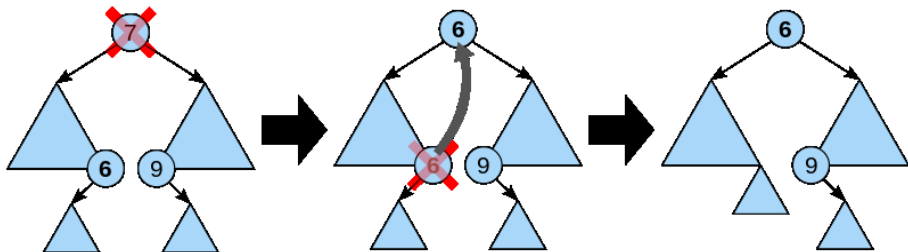


Image source: wikipedia

Delete **x** from a BST – pseudocode

```
1  // BST implemented here as a tree data structure
2  //    T = fork(e, L, R)
3  Tree delete(x, T)
4      if(T != nilTree)
5          if( x < e )          L = delete(x, L);
6          else if( x > e )    R = delete(x, R);
7          else /* found x: e == x */
8              if(L == nilTree) /* left tree is empty */
9                  T=R;
10             else if(R == nilTree) /* right tree is empty */
11                 T=L;
12             else /* neither subtree is empty */
13                 findAndDel(T); /* described in next slide */
14     }
15 return T; /* also see over page . . . */
```

Delete **x** from a BST – pseudocode

```
1  // BST implemented here as a tree data structure
2  //      T = fork(e, L, R); T.elc  = root node/element
3  //                      T.right = right subtree
4  //                      T.left  = left subtree
5  function findAndDel(T)
6  /* find smallest element in right subtree, copy it
7   to the root node and delete the original. */
8   Tree R = T.right;
9   /* one step right, then */
10  while( R.left != null )
11  /* as far left as possible */
12     R = R.left;
13  T.elc = R.elc;           /* copy */
14  T.right = delete(T.elc, T.right); /* delete original! */
15  return;
16 }
```

BST summary

- BST is a kind of **Lookup table** – previously we studied hash table
- A lookup table is an Abstract Data Type that supports operations like **search/lookup, insert, delete, ...**
- Complexity
 - ▶ **lookup, insert, delete** proportional to height of the tree
 - ▶ $O(n)$ -time, **worst-case**
- Note: **Minimum element, y**, is the **left-most** in BST
- Note: **Maximum element, y**, is the **right-most** in BST