# CS2040 Notes

# Koh Jia Xian

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## 1 Definitions

## 1.1 Time and Space Complexity

Space Complexity = **Total** space ever allocated

#### 1.1.1 Big O

$$T(n) = O(f(n))$$
 if:

- 1. There exists a constant c > 0
- 2. and a constant  $n_0 > 0$

such that for all  $n > n_0$ ,

$$T(n) \le cf(n)$$

ie) An upper bound above a certain size n; Always try to get the tightest bound

## 1.1.2 Big Omega

$$T(n) = \Omega(f(n))$$
 if:

- 1. There exists a constant c > 0
- 2. and a constant  $n_0 > 0$

such that for all  $n > n_0$ ,

$$T(n) \geq c f(n)$$

ie) A lower bound above a certain size n

## 1.2 Pre and Post-conditions

**Precondition** Fact that is true when the function begins **Postcondition** Fact that is true when the function ends

#### 1.3 Invariants

Invariants Relationship between variables that is always true.

**Loop Invariants** Relationship between variables that is true at the beginning (or end) of each iteration of a loop.

## 1.4 Stability and In-Place sorting

When 2 of the same keys are sorted:

- If its value becomes out of order, **Unstable**
- Stability: Preserving order of repeated elements

General Rule-of-Thumb, if got swap here-swap there (ie NOT IN-PLACE), it is unstable

#### 1.5 Probability and Expected Value

- $E[X] = e_1p_1 + e_2p_2 + \dots + e_kp_k$
- E(A + B) = E(A) + E(B)

#### 1.6 Trees

Successor

Next largest value in the tree.

Height

Number of edges on longest path from root to leaf.

• h(v) = 0 if v is a leaf

• h(v) = max(h(v.left), h(v.right)) + 1

# 2 Binary Search

For a sorted array, take middle, compare to key: search LHS or RHS of mid.

```
int search(A, key, n)
  begin = 0
  end = n-1
  while begin < end do:
    mid = begin + (end-begin)/2;
    if key <= A[mid] then
        end = mid
    else begin = mid+1
  return (A[begin]==key) ? begin : -1</pre>
```

Functionality	<ul> <li>If element not in array, return index</li> <li>If element not in array, return -1</li> </ul>
Precondition	<ul><li>Array is of size n</li><li>Array is sorted</li></ul>
Postcondition	If element is in the array: $A[begin] = key$
Invariant (Correctness)	$A[begin] \le key \le A[end]$ • The key is in the range of the Array
Invariant (Speed)	$(end - begin) \le n/2^k$ in iteration k

### Not just for searching Arrays:

- 1. Assuming a complicated function,
  - Assume function is always increasing: complicatedFunction(i) < complicatedFunction(i+1)
  - :: Find minimum value j such that complicatedFunction(j) > 100
- 2. Peak Finding (1 or 2 Dimensions)
- 3. QuickSelect

## 2.1 Peak Finding

```
Want to find an index i such that arr[i] \geq arr[i-1] & arr[i] \leq arr[i+1]
```

```
FindPeak(A, n)
    //Recurse on right
    if A[n/2+1] > A[n/2] then
        FindPeak(A[n/2+1..n], n/2)

    //Recurse on left
    else if A[n/2{1] > A[n/2] then
        FindPeak(A[1..n/2-1], n/2)

    else A[n/2] is a peak; return n/2
```

Functionality	On an unsorted array, find A peak: local minimum or maximum (not a specific key)	
Invariants (Correctness)	• There exists a peak in the range $[begin, end]$ Every peak in $[begin, end]$ is a peak in $[1, n]$ .	
Running Time	$T(n) = T(n/2) + \theta(1)$ Recurse for $log 2(n)$ times $\therefore O(log n)$	

## 2.2 Steep Peaks

Want to find a peak such that its left and right side are strictly lower than it.

Functionality On an unsorted array, find A peak: local minimum or maximum (not a specific both sides are the same as mid, recurse both sides		
Running Time	$T(n) = 2T(n/2) + \theta(1)$ = 16T(n/16) + 8 + 4 + 2 + 1	
	$= nT(1) + n/2 + n/4 + + 1$ $= O(n) $ Sum of Geometric Progression	

## 2.3 QuickSelect

Find kth smallest element

Makes use of QuickSort's partition to ensure that the kth smallest element is before or after the randomly selected pivot

```
Select(A[1..n], n, k)
  if (n == 1) then return A[1];
  else Choose random pivot index pIndex.
    p = partition(A[1..n], n, pIndex)
    if (k == p) then return A[p];
    else if (k < p) then
        return Select(A[1..p{1], k)
    else if (k > p) then
        return Select(A[p+1], k { p)
```

Recurrence: T(n) = T(n/2) + O(n)

Time Complexity: O(n) (Sum of G.P.)

### 2.3.1 Paranoid Select

```
Repeatedly partition until at least n/10 in each half of partition E[T(n)] \leq E[T(9n/10)] + E[numofpartitions](n) \\ \leq E[T(9n/10)] + 2n \\ \leq O(n)
```

# 3 Sorting

## 3.1 Bubble Sort

Iteratively swap largest values to the top.

```
\label{eq:bubbleSort(A, n)} \begin{tabular}{ll} \begin{tabular}{
```

Loop Invariant	At the end of iteration j, the biggest j items are correctly sorted in the <b>final j positions</b> of the array.
Invariant (Correctnness)	Sorted after n iterations
Running Time  Best Case  Average Case  Worst Case	O(n) [Already Sorted] $O(n^2)$ $O(n^2)$ [n iterations]
Space Consumption	O(1)
Stability	Stable, only swap elements that are different

## 3.2 Selection Sort

Find minimum element and swap it directly with the front.

```
SelectionSort(A, n)
  for j <- 1 to n-1:
     find minimum element A[j] in A[j..n]
     swap(A[j], A[k])</pre>
```

Loop Invariant	At the end of iteration j: the smallest j items are correctly sorted in the <b>first j positions</b> of the array.
Running Time	$n + (n-1) + (n-2) + \dots + 1$
	$=\frac{n(n-1)}{2}$ (Sum of A.P.)
	$=O(n^2)$
• Best Case	$O(n^2)$ [If already Sorted, will swap anyway]
• Average Case	$O(n^2)$
• Worst Case	$O(n^2)$ [n swaps]
Space Consumption	O(1)
Stability	Unstable, swap changes order

### 3.3 Insertion Sort

Iteratively swaps the current element into its rightful place in the sorted left side of the array.

```
InsertionSort(A, n)
  for j <- 2 to n
    key <- A[j]
    i <- j-1
    while (i > 0) and (A[i] >key)
        A[i+1] <- A[i]
        i <- i-1
        A[i+1] <- key</pre>
```

Loop Invariant	At the end of iteration j: the <b>first j items</b> in the array are in sorted order.
Running Time	$1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + n$ $= \frac{n(n-1)}{2} \text{ (Sum of A.P.)}$ $= O(n^2)$
<ul><li>Best Case</li><li>Average Case</li><li>Worst Case</li></ul>	O(n) [Already Sorted] $O(n^2)$ $O(n^2)$ [Inverse Sorted]
Space Consumption	O(1)
Stability	Stable, swap doesn't change order, as long as implemented properly $(A[i] > key)$

Insertion Sort can be fast(er than MergeSort!) if List is mostly sorted

#### 3.4 MergeSort

Divide-and-Conquer, sort two halves, merge two sorted halves

```
Running Time
Running Time of Merge
                          Given A and B of sizes n/2, O(n) to move each element back into list
                          T(n) = O(1) \text{ (if } n = 1)
                          =2T(n/2)+cn \text{ (if } n>1)
                          \therefore Height of recursion tree h = logn, every level cn operations
                          T(n) = cnlogn, O(n) = nlogn
• Best Case
                          O(nlogn)
• Average Case
                          O(nlogn)
• Worst Case
                          O(nlogn)
Space Consumption
                          O(n) [Using 1 temporary array, Switch the order of A and B at every recursive call.]
Stability
                          Stable
```

MergeSort can be slower for Smaller number of items to sort

## 3.5 QuickSort

Separate larger and smaller than a chosen **pivot** (Partitioning), recursively sort both sub-arrays.

```
QuickSort(A[1..n], n)
    if (n==1) then return;
    else
        Choose pivot index pIndex
        p = partition(A[1..n], n, pIndex)
        x = QuickSort(A[1..p-1], p-1)
        y = QuickSort(A[p+1..n], n-p)
//Returns the index of the pivot
partition(A[1..n], n, pIndex)
                                    // Assume no duplicates, n>1
   pivot = A[pIndex];
                                    // pIndex is the index of pivot
    swap(A[1], A[pIndex]);
                                    // store pivot in A[1]
    low = 2;
                                    // start after pivot in A[1]
   high = n+1;
                                    // Define: A[n+1] = Infinity
    while (low < high)
        while (A[low] < pivot) and (low < high) do low++;
        while (A[high] > pivot) and (low < high) do high{ { ;</pre>
        if (low < high) then swap(A[low], A[high]);
    swap(A[1], A[low{1]);
    return low{1;
```

Invariants	• For every $i \ge high : A[i] > pivot$
	• For every $1 < j < low : A[j] < pivot$
Running Time	
Running Time of Partition	O(n)
• Best Case	O(nlogn)
• Average Case	O(nlogn)
• Worst Case	$O(n^2)$ [eg All elements duplicates]
Space Consumption	O(1)
	Extra Memory allows QuickSort to be stable
Stability	Unstable

## 3.6 QuickSort Optimisations

#### 3.6.1 Base Case?

- Unoptimized: Recurse to single-element arrays
- Switch to Insertion Sort for small arrays (Relies on fact that InsertionSort is fast for small arrays)
- Halt Recursion early, leaving small arrays unsorted. Then perform InsertionSort on entire array

### 3.6.2 3-Way Partitioning

Deal with duplicates in arrays

#### Option 1 2-pass Partitioning

- 1. Regular Partition
- 2. Pack Duplicates (of pivot) together

#### Option 2 1-pass Partitioning

- Standard Solution
- Mantain Four Regions of Array (See Fig 1)

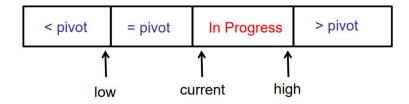


Figure 1: 1-pass Partitioning

If bmA[current] < pivot low++

Swap A[current], A[low]

 $\operatorname{current} + +$ 

If bmA[current] == pivot current++

 $\textbf{If} \ bmA[current] > pivot \qquad \text{Swap} \ A[current], \ A[high]$ 

high-

#### 3.6.3 Choice of Pivot

In the worst case(s),

 $\begin{array}{ll} \textbf{First Element} & A[1] \\ \textbf{Last Element} & A[n] \\ \textbf{Middle Element} & A[n/2] \\ \end{array}$ 

Median of first, last and middle Median of the above 3

are equally bad, if **n** executions of partition, sorting 1 element each:

$$T(n) = T(n-1) + T(1) + n$$
(From Quielrort of n.1 elem

(From Quicksort of n-1 elements + QuickSort on 1 element + Cost of partition on n elements)  $\therefore O(n^2)$  time.

If can choose Median: Good Performance O(nlogn)

If could split array (1:10): (9:10): Good Performance O(nlogn)

 $\therefore$  A pivot is **good** if divides array into 2 pieces, each of which is size **at least** n/10

## Choose pivot at random: PARANOID QUICKSORT

Repeat partition until p > (1/10)n and p < (9/10)n,

Expected number of times to choose a good pivot:  $10/8 \approx 2$ 

T(n) = T(n-1) + T(1) + 2n (Expected no. of iterations to repeat is 2)

Hence, worst-case expected time = O(nlogn)

# 4 Sorting Summary

Name	Best Case	Average Case	Worst Case	Extra Memory	Stable
Bubble Sort	O(n)	$O(n^2)$	$O(n^2)$	O(1)	Yes
SelectionSort	$O(n^2)$	$O(n^2)$	$O(n^2)$	O(1)	No
Insertion Sort	O(n)	$O(n^2)$	$O(n^2)$	O(1)	Yes
Merge Sort	O(nlogn)	O(nlogn)	O(nlogn)	O(n)	Yes
Quick Sort	O(nlogn)	O(nlogn)	$O(n^2)$	O(1)	No

## 4.1 Remarks

• BubbleSort vs InsertionSort: InsertionSort faster for almost-sorted arrays

- Paranoid Quicksort Worstcase: O(nlogn)

• Any others?

## 4.2 Invariants

Name	Invariant	
Bubble Sort	At the end of iteration j, the biggest j items are correctly sorted	
	in the final j positions of the array.	
SelectionSort	At the end of iteration j: the smallest j items are correctly sorted	
	in the first <b>j</b> positions of the array.	
Insertion Sort	At the end of iteration j: the <b>first j items</b> in the array	
	are in sorted order.	
Merge Sort	idk lmfao probably something about at the end of iteration j of merge	
	every $2^j$ group of items are in sorted order, where $2^j < n$ (???)	
	just pulling something out of my ass:)	
Quick Sort	• For every $i \ge high: A[i] > pivot$	
	• For every $1 < j < low : A[j] < pivot$	

## 5 Trees

Data Structure: Implementing a Dictionary, for eg

## 5.1 Binary (Search) Trees

- Binary Tree is either: 1) Empty, 2) A node pointing to 2 binary trees.
- Binary Tree is height balanced if every node in the tree is height-balanced.
- A height-balanced tree with n nodes has height h < 2log(n),  $\therefore O(logn)$ .

Time Complexity of search(key) in BST: Height of tree

- O(logn) if balanced
- Else, worst-case O(n)

### 5.2 Tree Traversal

```
In-Order: Visit left sub-tree, then SELF, then right sub-tree
Pre-Order: Visit SELF, then left sub-tree, then right sub-tree
Post-Order: Visit left sub-tree, then right sub-tree, then SELF
Level-Order Visit EVERY node at that height, then go lower level
O(n) Time Complexity (∵ Visit each node once)
```

## 5.3 Successor Finding

• O(height) Time Complexity

## 5.4 Insertion/Deletion

#### Insertion trivial:

If less than node, node.left == null, insert at left else recurse left.

If more than node, node.right == null, insert at right, else recurse right.

3 Cases for delete(v):	
No Children	Remove v
1 Child	Remove v, connect child(v) to parent(v)
2 Children	1. x = successor(v)
	2. delete(x) (which may cause more calls of delete)
	3. remove(v)
	4. connect x to $left(v)$ , $right(v)$ , $parent(v)$

- NOTE: Successor of deleted node has at most 1 child! (A right node)
- ullet O(height) Time Complexity (BOTH insertion and deletion)

### 5.5 Balance

A BST is balanced if  $h = O(\log n)$ 

### How to get a Balanced Tree:

1. Define good property of tree [AUGMENT]

2. Show that if property holds, tree is balanced. [DEFINE BALANCE CONDITION]

3. Every insertion/deletion, make sure good property still holds: [INVARIANT]

-If not, fix it [MAINTAIN BALANCE]

## 5.6 AVL Trees

- Every node, store height h = max(left.height, right.height) + 1
- On insert & delete, update height
- ullet node v is height-balanced if  $|v.left.height-v.right.height| \leq 1$  ullet Maintains balance using Tree-Rotations

### 5.6.1 Rotations

- A is LEFT-heavy if left.height ¿ right.height
- A is RIGHT-heavy if right.height; left.height.

Assuming node v is Left-Heavy	
• v.left is balanced:	right-rotate(v)
• v.left is left-heavy:	right-rotate(v)
• v.left is right-heavy:	1. left-rotate(v.left)
	2. $right-rotate(v)$
If v is <b>Right-Heavy:</b>	Symmetric 3 cases

Size of tree doesn't matter, O(1) time.

#### 5.6.2 Insertion

- 1. Insert tree in BST
- 2. Walk up tree:
- At every step, check for balance:
- If out-of-balance, use rotations to rebalance

Only need 2 Rotations (Since in all cases, only need to reduce height of sub-tree by 1)

#### 5.6.3 Deletion

0a. If v has no child, just delete

0b. If v has 1 child, connect child to parent

- 1. If v has 2 children, swap it with its successor.
- 2. Delete node v from binary tree (and reconnect children)
- Since successor has at most 1 (right) child, will only have to reconnect 1 node
- 3. For every ancestor of the deleted node:
- Check if it is height-balanced
- If not, perform a rotation
- Continue to the root

(Deletion may take up to O(logn) rotations)

# 5.6.4 Graphical Interpretation

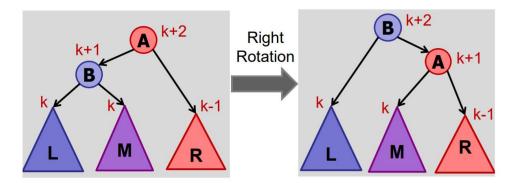


Figure 2: v.left balanced: right-rotate(v)

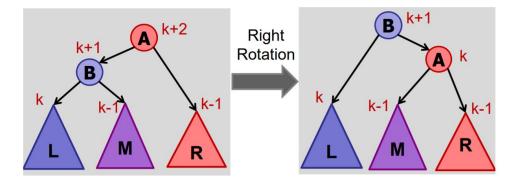


Figure 3: v.left left-heavy: right-rotate(v)  $\,$ 

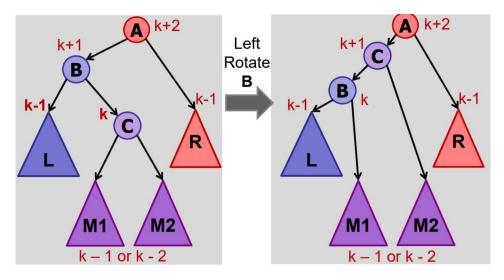


Figure 4: v.left right-heavy: First left-rotate(v.left)

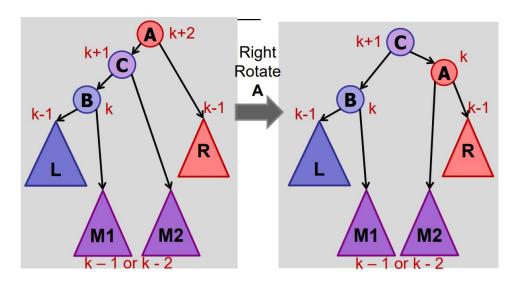


Figure 5: v.left right-heavy: then right-rotate(v)

# 6 Other (Augmented) Trees

### 6.1 Tries

Store each letter of a String as a node, using a special flag to represent the end of a word. Cost to search a string of length L: O(L)

Trie tends to be faster compared to normal BST with strings

- Does not depend on size of total text
- Does not depend on number of strings (Esp if string not in trie)

Trie uses more space (in terms of more nodes)

#### 6.2 Order Statistics

- To know the order of the node (ie rank of the key in the data structure)
- Store size of sub-tree in every node
- select(k): finds node with rank k
- rank(v): Computes rank at node v
- During insertion, maintain weight during rotation

```
select(k)
    rank = left.weight + 1;
    if (k == rank) then
        return v;
    else if (k < rank) then
        return left.select(k);
    else if (k > rank) then
        return right.select(k{rank);
rank(node)
    rank = node.left.weight + 1;
    while (node != null) do
        if node is left child then
            do nothing
        else if node is right child then
            rank += node.parent.left.weight + 1;
        node = node.parent;
    return rank;
```

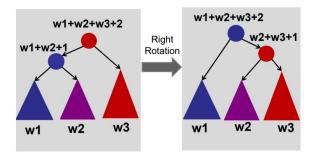


Figure 6: Update weights during insertion

## 6.3 Interval Trees

Find an interval containing a value

- Each node is an interval, sorted by left endpoint
- $\bullet~$  Each node contains the maximum~endpoint~in~subtree
- Running time of search simply O(log n)

```
//Find interval containing x
interval-search(x)
    c = root;
    while (c != null and x is not in c.interval) do
        if (c.left == null) then
            c = c.right;
        else if (x > c.left.max) then
            c = c.right;
        else c = c.left;
    return c.interval;
```

Search find an overlapping interval, if it exists.

- If search goes right: No overlap in left-subtree
- ∴ key is in right subtree or it is not in tree
- If search goes left and no overlap, then key < every interval in right sub-tree.
- : Either finds key in left subtree or it is not in the tree

## 6.4 Range Trees/Orthogonal Range Searching

#### Find everyone between a certain range

- Stores all points in the **leaves** (Internal nodes store copies)
- Internal node v stores max(v.left)
- First find the 'split node': Is node between specified range?
- ... Do both Left and Right traversal at split node to get all nodes within range

```
FindSplit(low, high)
    v = root;
    done = false;
    while !done {
        if (high <= v.key) then v=v.left;</pre>
        else if (low > v.key) then v=v.right;
        else (done = true);
    }
    return v;
RightTraversal(v, low, high)
    if (v.key <= high) {</pre>
                                          //Still within range
        all-leaf-traversal(v.left);
        RightTraversal(v.right, low, high);
    } else {
                                         //Left max larger than range, just go left
        RightTraversal(v.left, low, high);
LeftTraversal(v, low, high)
    if (low \le v.key) {
                                          //Still within range
        all-leaf-traversal(v.right);
        LeftTraversal(v.left, low, high);
    } else {
                                          //Left max smaller than range, just go right
        LeftTraversal(v.right, low, high);
    }
```

- Finding split node: O(log n)
- Traversals recurse at most O(log n) times,

outputting all (all-leaf-traversal()) is O(k), where k is number of items found.

- : Query time complexity = O(log n + k)
- Preprocessing (buildtree) time complexity: O(nlogn)

(Split into left and right, take highest value of left and put as key

If numofelements==1, then set as leaf)

- Space Complexity: O(n)
- If just want to know the count: keep count of num of nodes in each sub-tree, and retreive that instead of all-leaf-traversal.

Related: kd-trees (k-dimension)

## 7 Hashing

Standard symbol table supports:

- void insert(key, value)
- value search(key)
- void delete(key)
- bool contains(key)
- int size()

Costs of Search and Insert/Delete, and other functions required: See specifications

- AVL Tree: O(logn) each
- Symbol Table: O(1) each, but extra functionality, eg Sorting  $(O(nlogn) \text{ vs } O(n^2)$
- Symbol Table also no prede/successor queries Since Symbol Tables are not comparison-based

## 7.1 Hash Functions & Collisions

Direct Access Tables take too much space (Number of possible keys very large)

### Map keys to buckets using Hash Functions

Assume m buckets, n entries, and h is the hash function,

- 2 distinct keys **collide** if:  $h(k_1) = h(k_2)$
- Collisions unavoidable by Pigeonhole Principle (Table Size < Universe Size)

## 7.2 Collision Handling: Chaining

Put both items in same bucket, using linked List of items.

Total Space:	O(m+n)
Insertion:	Find hash value, add to head of linked list $\therefore O(1 + cost(h))$
Search:	Find hash value, search through linked list Worst case all values go to same bucket (emphasizing importance of good hash function) $\therefore O(n + cost(h))$

## 7.2.1 Simple Uniform Hashing Assumption

Assume "random" mapping:

- Every key is equally likely to map to every bucket
- Keys mapped independently
- : As long as enough buckets, won't get too many keys in one bucket

If X(i,j) = 1 if item i is put in bucket j, and 0 otherwise,

- P(X(i,j) == 1) = 1/m
- E(X(i,j)) = 1/m
- Thus, expected number of items per bucket  $= E(\Sigma_i X(i,b)) \\ = \Sigma_i E(X(i,b)) \\ = \Sigma_i 1/m \\ = n/m$
- : load(hashtable) = average number of items per bucket = 1 + n/m

Therefore, for a Hashtable with chaining under SUHA assumption:

Search time: • Expected • Worst-case	1 + n/m (Hash function + linked list traversal) $O(1)$ (Assuming $m = \Omega(n)$ buckets, eg $m = 2n$ ) O(n)
Worst-Case Insertion:	O(1) if allow duplicates, preventing duplicate requires searching
Expected max linked-list length/cost	$O(logn)$ or $\Theta(logn/loglogn)$

## 7.3 Collision Handling: Open-Addressing

- All data directly stored in the table, one item per slot.
- On collision, probe sequence of buckets until empty one found
- When m == n, table is full, cannot insert any more items; cannot search efficiently
- Redefined Hash Function: h(key, i), where i = number of collisions
- Linear Probing: Keep checking the next bucket,  $h(k, 1) + (i \mod m)$

```
hash-insert(key, data)
int i = 1;
while (i \le m):
                                         // Try every bucket
    int bucket = h(key, i);
    if (T[bucket] == null):
                                        // Found an empty bucket
        T[bucket] = {key, data};
                                        // Insert key/data
                                        // Return
        return success;
throw new TableFullException();
                                        // bucket full
hash-search(key)
    int i = 1;
    while (i <= m):
        int bucket = h(key, i);
        if (T[bucket] == null) return key-not-found;
                                                             // Empty bucket!
        if (T[bucket].key == key) return T[bucket].data;
                                                             // Full bucket
        i++:
    return key-not-found;
                                                             // Exhausted entire table.
```

delete(key): Find key to delete, set bucket to DELETED (A tombstone value)

- Cannot set as NULL, since search may then fail to find a key after that bucket.
- When insert(key) comes to DELETED, overwrite deleted cell.

## 7.3.1 Properties of good Hash Functions

- 1. h(key, i) enumerates all possible buckets
- $\forall$  bucket  $j, \exists i : h(key, i) = j$
- The hash function is permutation of 1...m
- If not, may return table-full when still have space left

#### 2. Uniform Hashing Assumption

- Every key is equally likely to be mapped to every **permutation of buckets**, independent of every other key.
- Linear Probing does NOT fulfill this criteria: Clustering can reach  $\Theta(logn)$ , ruins constant time performance In practice though, linear probing is desirable due to caching
- Achieved through double hashing
- Using 2 hash functions g(k), f(k),  $h(k,i) = [f(k) + ig(k)] \mod m$  for some large m Specifically, if g(k) is relatively prime to m, then h(k, i) hits all buckets

## 7.3.2 Resizing

# 8 Other Data Structures

- 8.1 B-trees
- 8.2 ab-trees
- 8.3 Skip Lists
- 8.4 Merkle Trees