

# Introduction to Sets & Maps

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Maintaining collections of distinct elements/keys with sets and maps.

Language: Python ▾

Edit This Page 

- Prerequisites
- [Bronze - Introduction to Sorting](#)

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

Introduction

Sets

- Sorted Sets
- Hashsets
- Solution - Distinct Numbers
  - Method 1 - Sorted Set
  - Method 2 - Hashset
  - Method 3 - Sorting

Maps



- Iterating Over Maps
- Solution - Associative Array

Problems

Quiz

## Introduction

### RESOURCES

<a href="#">IUSACO</a>	4.4 - Sets & Maps	module is based off this	
<a href="#">CPH</a>	4.2, 4.3 - Sets, Maps	covers similar material	

A **set** is a collection of unique elements. Sets have three primary methods:

- one to add an element
- one to remove an element
- one to check whether an element is present

A **map** is a collection of entries, each consisting of a **key** and a **value**. In a map, all keys are required to be unique (i.e., they will form a set), but values can be repeated. Maps have three primary methods:

- one to add a specified key-value pairing

- one to remove a key-value pairing
- one to retrieve the value for a given key

C++ and Java both have two implementations of sets and maps; one uses **sorting** while the other uses **hashing**. Python's implementation of sets and maps uses hashing.


## Sets

### Distinct Numbers

CSES - Easy

⋮

Focus Problem – try your best to solve this problem before continuing!

[View Internal Solution](#) 

## Sorted Sets

Sorted sets store elements in sorted order. All primary methods (adding, removing, and checking) run in  $\mathcal{O}(\log N)$  worst-case time, where  $N$  is the number of elements in the set.

 **Warning!**

Ignore this section, as Python doesn't implement sorted sets.

## Hashsets

Hashsets store elements using hashing. Roughly, a hashset consists of some number of buckets  $B$ , and each element is mapped to a bucket via a hash function. If  $B \approx N$  and the hash function independently maps each distinct element to a uniformly random bucket, then no bucket is expected to contain many elements, and all primary methods will all run in  $\mathcal{O}(1)$  expected time.

 **Warning!**

In the worst case, hashsets in Python may take proportional to  $N$  time per operation. This will be demonstrated later in the module.

Python's built-in `set` uses hashing to support  $\mathcal{O}(1)$  insertion, deletion, and searches. Some operations on a Python `set` named `s` include:

- `s.add(x)` : adds element `x` to `s` if not already present
- `s.remove(x)` : removes an element `x` from `set` if present
- `x in s` : checks whether `s` contains the element `x`

```

1 s = set()
2 s.add(1) # {1}
3 s.add(4) # {1, 4}
4 s.add(2) # {1, 4, 2}
5 s.add(1) # {1, 4, 2}
6 # the add method did nothing because 1 was already in the set
7 print(1 in s) # True
8 s.remove(1) # {4, 2}
9 print(5 in s) # False
10 s.remove(0) # {4, 2}
11 # if the element to be removed does not exist, nothing happens

```

[Copy](#) [PYTHON](#)

## Solution - Distinct Numbers

This problem asks us to calculate the number of distinct values in a given list.

## Method 1 - Sorted Set

Because sets only store one copy of each value, we can insert all the numbers into a set, and then print out the size of the set.

 Warning!

Ignore this section, as Python doesn't implement sorted sets.

## Method 2 - Hashset

```
1 n = int(input()) # unused
2 nums = [int(x) for x in input().split()]
3 distinct_nums = set(nums)
4 print(len(distinct_nums))
```

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Or we can do this more concisely by skipping the creation of the list, and use a set comprehension directly:

```
1 n = int(input()) # unused
2 distinct_nums = {int(x) for x in input().split()}
3 print(len(distinct_nums))
```

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However, it is possible to construct a test case that causes the above solution to run in  $\Theta(N^2)$  time, so this solution does *not* receive full credit.

➤ Hack Case Generator

One way to get around this with high probability is to incorporate randomness; see [this comment](#) for more information.


```
1 import random
2
3 RANDOM = random.randrange(2**62)
4
5
6 def Wrapper(x):
7     return x ^ RANDOM
8
9
10 n = int(input()) # unused
11 distinct_nums = {Wrapper(int(x)) for x in input().split()}
12 print(len(distinct_nums))
```

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Another (less efficient) way is to use strings instead of integers since the hash function for strings is randomized.

```
1 n = int(input()) # unused
2 distinct_nums = set(input().split())
3 print(len(distinct_nums))
```

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 Should I worry about anti-hash tests in USACO?

No - historically, no USACO problem has included an anti-hash test. However, these sorts of tests often appear in Codeforces, especially in educational rounds, where open hacking is allowed.

## Method 3 - Sorting

Check out the [solution](#) involving sorting.

# Maps

## Associative Array

YS - Easy



Focus Problem – try your best to solve this problem before continuing!

In sorted maps, the pairs are sorted in order of key. As with sorted sets, all primary methods run in  $\mathcal{O}(\log N)$  worst-case time, where  $N$  is the number of pairs in the map.

In hashmaps, the pairs are hashed to buckets by the key, and as with hashsets, all primary methods run in  $\mathcal{O}(1)$  expected time under some assumptions about the hash function.

Colloquially, hashmaps are referred to as **dicts** in python.

```
1 d = {}
2 d[1] = 5 # {1: 5}
3 d[3] = 14 # {1: 5, 3: 14}
4 d[2] = 7 # {1: 5, 2: 7, 3: 14}
5 del d[2] # {1: 5, 3: 14}
6 print(d[1]) # 5
7 print(7 in d) # False
8 print(1 in d) # True
```

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PYTHON

## Iterating Over Maps

To iterate over dict s, there are three options, all of which involve for loops. Dicts will be returned in the same order of insertion in **Python 3.6+**. You can iterate over the keys:

```
1 for key in d:
2     print(key)
```

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Over the values:

```
1 for value in d.values():
2     print(value)
```

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And even over key-value pairs:

```
1 for key, value in d.items():
2     print(key, value)
```

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PYTHON

It's also possible to change the values while iterating over the keys (or over the values themselves, if they're mutable):

```
1 for key in d:
2     d[key] = 1234 # Change all values to 1234
```

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PYTHON

While you are free to change the *values* in a map when iterating over it (as demonstrated above), it is generally a bad idea to insert or remove elements of a map while iterating over it.

For example, the following code attempts to remove every entry from a map, but results in a runtime error.

```
1 d = {i: i for i in range(10)}
2
3 for i in d:
4     del d[i]
```

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PYTHON

```
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "test.py", line 3, in <module>
```

```
for i in d:
RuntimeError: dictionary changed size during iteration
```

One way is to get around this is to create a new map.

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```
1 d = {i: i for i in range(10)}
2
3 # only includes every third element
4 d_new = dict(item for i, item in enumerate(d.items()) if i % 3 == 0)
5
6 print("new dict:", d_new) # new dict: {0: 0, 3: 3, 6: 6, 9: 9}
```

Another is to maintain a list of all the keys you want to remove and remove them after the iteration finishes:

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```
1 d = {i: i for i in range(10)}
2
3 # removes every third element
4 to_remove = {key for i, key in enumerate(d) if i % 3 == 0}
5
6 for key in to_remove:
7     del d[key]
8
9 print("new dict:", d) # new dict: {1: 1, 2: 2, 4: 4, 5: 5, 7: 7, 8: 8}
```

## Solution - Associative Array

To solve this problem efficiently, we need a data structure that can:

- Assign a value to any index  $k$  (where  $k$  can be as large as  $10^{18}$ ).
- Retrieve the value at any index  $k$  quickly.

A regular array won't work because the indices can be extremely large, making it impossible to allocate enough memory. However, since all values are initially  $0$  and only a small subset of indices will ever be set or queried, we can use a **map** (also called an associative array or dictionary) to store only the indices that have been assigned a value.

- When we receive a  $0 \ k \ v$  query, we set  $a[k] = v$  in the map.
- When we receive a  $1 \ k$  query, we print  $a[k]$  if it exists in the map, or  $0$  otherwise.

This approach is efficient because both operations are fast in maps, and we only store the keys that are actually used.

Note that we use 64-bit integers since  $k$  and  $v$  may be large.

Unfortunately, the straightforward solution fails a few tests specifically designed to make Python `dict`s run slowly:

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```
1 a = dict() # Dictionary to store assigned indices
2 for _ in range(int(input())):
3     nums = list(map(int, input().split()))
4     if nums[0] == 0:
5         a[nums[1]] = nums[2]
6     elif nums[0] == 1:
7         # Print a[k] if present, else 0
8         print(a.get(nums[1], 0))
```

To pass all the tests, we can use one of the workarounds mentioned for `set`.

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```

5
6 def wrap(x):
7     return x ^ RANDOM
8
9
10 a = dict() # Dictionary to store assigned indices

```

## Problems

Some of these problems can be solved by sorting alone, though sets or maps could make their implementation easier.

STATUS	SOURCE	PROBLEM NAME	DIFFICULTY	TAGS	
	<a href="#">CSES</a>	Sum of Two Values	Easy	► Show Tags Map	⋮
	<a href="#">Bronze</a>	★ Where Am I?	Easy	► Show Tags Set	⋮
	<a href="#">Bronze</a>	Team Tic Tac Toe	Normal	► Show Tags Set, Simulation	⋮
	<a href="#">Bronze</a>	Year of the Cow	Normal	► Show Tags Map	⋮
	<a href="#">Bronze</a>	★ Don't Be Last!	Normal	► Show Tags Map, Sorting	⋮
	<a href="#">Silver</a>	Cities & States	Normal	► Show Tags Map	⋮
	<a href="#">CF</a>	Jury Marks	Normal	► Show Tags Prefix Sums, Set	⋮
	<a href="#">Bronze</a>	It's Mooin' Time	Hard	► Show Tags Maps, Set	⋮
	<a href="#">AC</a>	Made Up	Hard	► Show Tags Map	⋮
	<a href="#">CF</a>	Into Blocks	Hard	► Show Tags Map, Set	⋮

## Quiz

What is the worst-case time complexity of insertions, deletions, and searches in a `set` of size  $N$ ?

- ①  $\mathcal{O}(1)$
- ②  $\mathcal{O}(N \log N)$
- ③  $\mathcal{O}(N)$
- ④  $\mathcal{O}(\log N)$