

Search 3

Meaning of Collision in Computer Science:

A collision in computer science refers to a situation where two different inputs result in the same output in a system that expects unique results.

Where Collisions Happen:

1. Hashing:

- Two different values produce the same hash.
- Example:
hash("dog") → 4567
hash("cat") → 4567 ← *collision!*

2. Networking:

- Two devices try to send data at the same time, causing a data collision.
- Happens in older Ethernet networks.

3. Cryptography:

- Two different messages create the same digital signature or hash.
This is dangerous because it can break security.

Solutions to Handle Collisions

1. Separate Chaining (Linked Lists)

- How it works: Each bucket stores a linked list of entries. Colliding keys are appended to the list.

- Example:

```
table[3] = ["Alice"] → ["Alice", "Bob"] # After collision
```

- Best for: Databases (e.g., Java HashMap).
- Drawback: Poor cache locality (pointer chasing).

2. Open Addressing (Probing)

- How it works: If a bucket is occupied, probe the next available slot using:

- Linear Probing: $(\text{hash}(\text{key}) + i) \% \text{size}$
- Quadratic Probing: $(\text{hash}(\text{key}) + i^2) \% \text{size}$
- Double Hashing: $(\text{hash1}(\text{key}) + i * \text{hash2}(\text{key})) \% \text{size}$

- Example:

```
table[3] = "Alice" → table[4] = "Bob" # Linear probing
```

- Best for: Memory-constrained systems (e.g., Python dict).
- Drawback: Clustering (long probe sequences).

3. Robin Hood Hashing (Variant of Open Addressing)

- How it works: Prioritize entries with shorter probe distances. If a new key has a longer probe distance, it "steals" the slot from an existing key.
- Example:
 - "Alice" (probe=0) stays at index 3.
 - "Bob" (probe=1) moves to index 4.
- Best for: Real-time systems (predictable latency).
- Drawback: Complex insertion logic.

4. Cuckoo Hashing

- How it works: Use two hash functions. If a collision occurs, evict the existing key and reinsert it into the second table.
- Example:

```
table1[3] = "Alice" → table2[5] = "Bob" # If both collide
```
- Best for: High-performance lookups (e.g., Linux kernel).
- Drawback: Rehashing on cycles.

5. Hopscotch Hashing

- How it works: Each bucket has a "neighborhood" (e.g., 32 slots). Colliding entries must land within this range.
- Example:
 - Bucket 3's neighborhood: slots 3–6.
 - "Bob" collides at 3 → placed at 5 (within neighborhood).
- Best for: Multicore systems (reduces lock contention).
- Drawback: Limited by neighborhood size.

6. Dynamic Perfect Hashing

- How it works: Two-level hashing:
 1. First level: Buckets with collisions.
 2. Second level: Mini hash tables for each colliding bucket.

- Example:

```
table1[3] = SubTable["Alice", "Bob"] # SubTable uses a different hash
```

- Best for: Static datasets (e.g., compiler symbol tables).
- Drawback: High memory overhead.

7. Coalesced Chaining

- How it works: Hybrid of chaining and open addressing. Colliding entries chain within the main table.
- Example:

```
table[3] = "Alice" → table[3].next = 7 → table[7] = "Bob"
```

- Best for: Embedded systems (no external memory).
- Drawback: Degrades to linear probing under high load.

8. Extendible Hashing

- How it works: Uses a directory to point to buckets. Buckets split when full.
- Example:
 - Directory maps `hash(key)` to bucket pages.

- Buckets split when full.
- Best for: Disk-based storage (e.g., databases like MySQL).
- Drawback: Directory indirection overhead.

Time Complexity Table Array

Operation	At First	At Index (i)	At End	Notes
Insert	$O(n)$	$O(n)$	$O(1)^*$	Insertion at the beginning or middle requires shifting elements; at the end is $O(1)$ if space is available.
Delete	$O(n)$	$O(n)$	$O(1)$	Deletion from beginning or middle requires shifting elements; deleting from the end is $O(1)$.
Search (by value)	$O(n)$	$O(n)$	$O(n)$	Search requires scanning all elements.
Update (by index)	$O(1)$	$O(1)$	$O(1)$	Direct access to any index, so update is constant time.
Access (by index)	$O(1)$	$O(1)$	$O(1)$	Arrays provide constant time access by index.
Sort	$O(n \log n)$	$O(n \log n)$	$O(n \log n)$	Sorting requires algorithms like Merge Sort or Quick Sort.

Explanation:

- **Insert at First or Middle: $O(n)$** because elements need to be shifted to make room for the new element.
- **Insert at End: $O(1)$** if there's space, but **$O(n)$** if resizing the array is necessary.
- **Delete at First or Middle: $O(n)$** because elements need to be shifted.
- **Delete at End: $O(1)$** , since no shifting is required.
- **Search, Update, and Access by Index:** These are **$O(n)$** or **$O(1)$** depending on the operation, as arrays allow random access.
- **Sort:** Sorting an array typically requires **$O(n \log n)$** time, depending on the algorithm.

Time Complexity Table Singly Linked List

Operation	At First	At Index (i)	At End	Notes
Insert	$O(1)$	$O(n)$	$O(n)$	Inserting at the beginning is quick, while at index/end requires traversal.
Delete	$O(1)$	$O(n)$	$O(n)$	Deleting the first node is fast, but deleting at index/end requires traversal.
Search (by value)	$O(n)$	$O(n)$	$O(n)$	You need to search through the list for a value.
Update (by index)	$O(n)$	$O(n)$	$O(n)$	You need to find the index to update the value.
Access (by index)	$O(n)$	$O(n)$	$O(n)$	Requires traversing to the specified index.
Sort	$O(n \log n)$	$O(n \log n)$	$O(n \log n)$	Sorting usually involves algorithms like Merge Sort or Quick Sort.

Explanation:

- **Insert at First: $O(1)$** because you only need to change the head pointer.
- **Insert at Index or End: $O(n)$** because you need to traverse the list to find the position.
- **Delete at First: $O(1)$** because you only need to update the head pointer.
- **Delete at Index or End: $O(n)$** because you need to find the previous node to adjust pointers.
- **Search, Update, and Access by Index:** These operations all require **$O(n)$** time because you need to traverse the list.

Time Complexity Table Doubly Linked List Operations

Operation	At First	At Index (i)	At End	Notes
Insert	$O(1)$	$O(n)$	$O(1)$	Insertion at the beginning and end is $O(1)$ if tail pointer is available. Inserting at an index requires traversal.
Delete	$O(1)$	$O(n)$	$O(1)$	Deletion at the beginning and end is $O(1)$; deletion at an index requires finding the previous node.
Search (by value)	$O(n)$	$O(n)$	$O(n)$	No direct access, requires traversal from head or tail.
Update (by index)	$O(n)$	$O(n)$	$O(n)$	Need to traverse to the index (from head or tail).
Access (by index)	$O(n)$	$O(n)$	$O(n)$	Need to traverse from head or tail for access.
Sort	$O(n \log n)$	$O(n \log n)$	$O(n \log n)$	Sorting typically involves algorithms like Merge Sort or Quick Sort.

Explanation:

- Insert at First or End: $O(1)$ since you can update the head or tail directly. If a tail pointer is maintained, insertion at the end is also $O(1)$.
- Insert at Index: $O(n)$ because you may need to traverse to the desired position.
- Delete at First or End: $O(1)$ because you can update the head or tail pointers directly.
- Delete at Index: $O(n)$ as you need to find the node before the deletion point.
- Search and Access by Index: These operations require $O(n)$ time, as you may need to traverse either from the head or tail.
- Update: Requires $O(n)$ time to traverse to the index and update the value.
- Sort: Sorting a doubly linked list typically takes $O(n \log n)$, depending on the sorting algorithm (e.g., Merge Sort).

Time Complexity Comparison: Array vs Singly Linked List vs Doubly Linked List

Operation	Array	Singly Linked List	Doubly Linked List	Notes
Insert at First	$O(n)$	$O(1)$	$O(1)$	Array requires shifting; Linked lists just update head/tail.
Insert at End	$O(1)^*$	$O(n)$	$O(1)$	Array is $O(1)$ if there's space left; Linked list needs traversal.
Insert at Index (i)	$O(n)$	$O(n)$	$O(n)$	Both types of linked lists require traversal; Arrays need shifting.
Delete at First	$O(n)$	$O(1)$	$O(1)$	Array requires shifting; Linked lists just update head/tail.
Delete at End	$O(1)$	$O(n)$	$O(1)$	Array is $O(1)$ if no shifting is needed; Linked list requires traversal.
Delete at Index (i)	$O(n)$	$O(n)$	$O(n)$	All need traversal to find the previous node.
Search (by value)	$O(n)$	$O(n)$	$O(n)$	No direct access in any of the structures, requires full scan.
Update (by index)	$O(1)$	$O(n)$	$O(n)$	Arrays provide direct access; Linked lists need traversal.
Access (by index)	$O(1)$	$O(n)$	$O(n)$	Arrays provide direct access, while linked lists require traversal.
Sort	$O(n \log n)$	$O(n \log n)$	$O(n \log n)$	Sorting algorithms like Merge Sort or Quick Sort are commonly used.