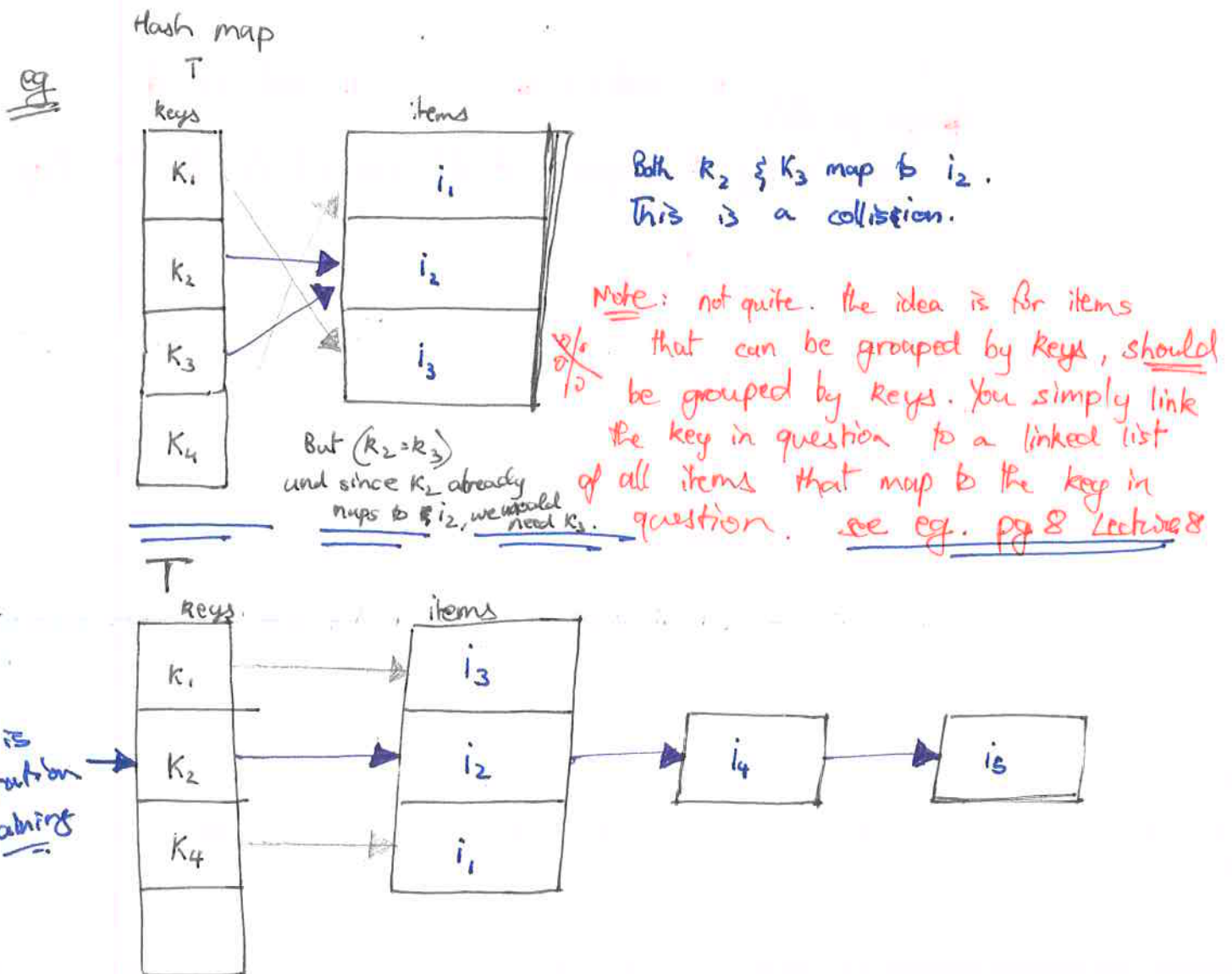


def: Collision Resolution: when a record to be inserted to a hash table map to an already occupied slot in the map, a collision occurs.

### 1. Chaining:

To manage this, we can use a technique called chaining, which "sets up an array of <sup>links</sup> ~~keys~~, to lists of items with the same key."



IMP %

## 20 Open Addressing

$\alpha = n/m$   
 $\Rightarrow$  load factor of a hash table  
m slots in the hash table  
holding n elements

- $\rightarrow$  All elements are stored in the hash table such that  $n \leq m$
- $\rightarrow$  Insertion systematically probes the table until an empty slot is found.
  - i.e. higher chance of the table filling up.
- $\rightarrow$  Modify the hash function to take the probe number  $i$  as the second parameter (depends on both the key and the probe number).

$$h: U \times \{0, 1, \dots, m-1\} \rightarrow \{0, 1, \dots, m-1\}$$

$\leftarrow$  probe num  $\rightarrow$  slot num  $\leftarrow$

$\rightarrow$  hash fn:  $h$

$\Rightarrow$  determining the sequence of slots examined for a given key.

$\rightarrow$  for a given key  $k$ ;

$\langle h(k, 0), h(k, 1), \dots, h(k, m-1) \rangle$  is a permutation of  $\langle 0, 1, \dots, m-1 \rangle$

There are two types/methods of open addressing:

- Linear Probing

i) if the current location is used, try the next table location.

$$h(k, i) = (h(k) + i) \bmod m$$

~~(pseudo-code & not)~~

Pseudo code:

Linear Probing Insert ( $k$ )

if (table is full) return error.

probe =  $h(k)$

while (table[probe] is occupied):

probe = (probe + 1) mod  $m$

table[probe] =  $k$

IMP %

IMP

## linear probing (cont'd)

(ii) Uses less memory than chaining.

↳ you don't have to store all the pointers/references if you use linear probing.

(iii) It is, however, slower than chaining.

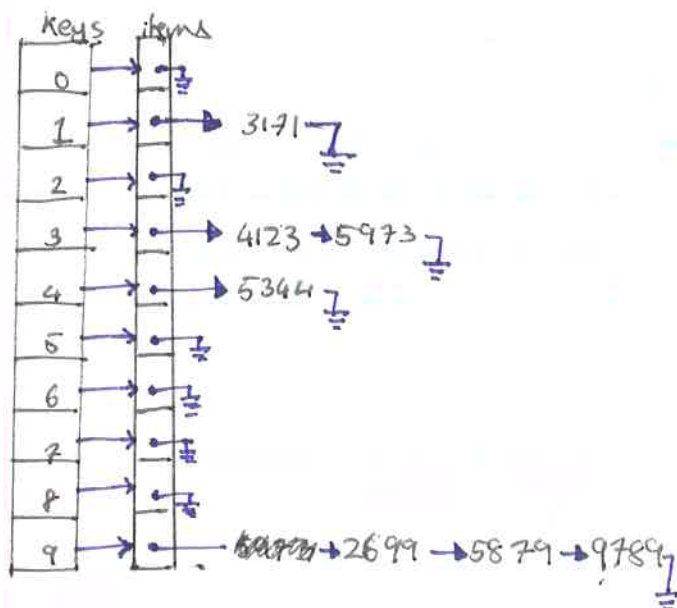
↳ it depends to heavily on ~~long~~ long the table is and has to traverse the whole table at worst-case.

eg. Show the hash tables for the following using both chaining & linear probing.

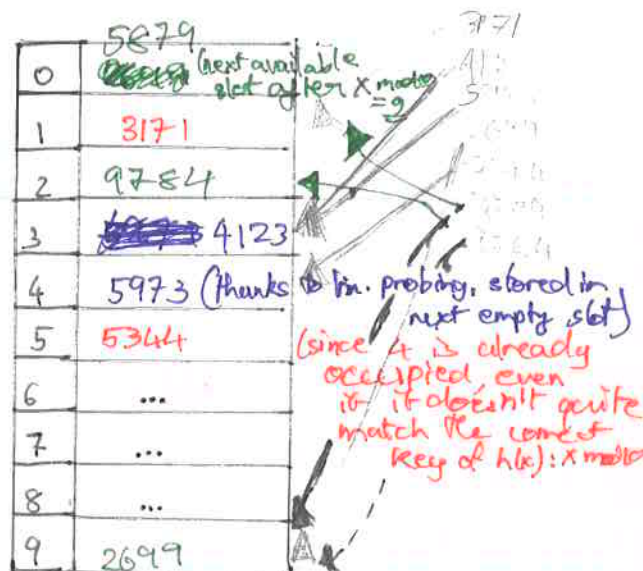
input: { 3171, 4123, 5973, 2699, 5344, 5879, 9789 }

using the hash function:  $h(x) = x \bmod 10$ .

### Chaining



### Linear Probing





- note:
- Double Hashing (tends to distribute keys more uniformly than linear probing)

$$h(k, i) = (h_1(k) + i \cdot h_2(k)) \bmod m.$$

Pseudo code:

% %  
 IMP  
 DoubleHashingInsert(k)  
 if (table is full) return error  
 probe =  $h_1(k)$   
 offset =  $h_2(k)$   
 while (table[probe] is occupied)  
     probe = (probe + offset) mod m.  
 table[probe] = k

Input {3171, 4123, 5973, 2699, 5344, 5879, 9789}

hash fn  $h_1(x) = x \bmod 10$

• For double hashing: the second hash fn is

$$h_2(x) = \lfloor x/10 \rfloor \bmod 10$$

Double hashing ↓

0	5973
1	3171 since slot is unoccupied, 3171 is easily inserted
2	
3	4123
4	5344
5	
6	5879
7	9789
8	
9	2699

5973 first collision

probe + offset results in these slots.

③ 5973 mod 10 = 3  
 ⑦ 597 mod 10 = 7

probe = (probe + offset) mod 10  
 (3 + 7) mod 10 = 10 = 0

## double hashing (cont.)

IMP

some thinking  
required  
before you start  
double hashing  
using ceiling

c)  $h_2(k)$  must be relative prime to  $m$  to guarantee that the probe sequences is a full permutation of  $\langle 0, 1, \dots, m-1 \rangle$

→ let  $m$  be prime such that  $1 < h_2(k) < m$

→ Choose  $m = 2^d$  and  $h_2$  to always produce an odd number  $> 1$ .

x x

### Expected number of probes:

- load factor  $\alpha < 1$  for probing <sup>off</sup> (i.e. you need empty slots in the table)
- Assuming that uniform hashing was used, analysis of probing gives us:

	unsuccessful	successful
<u>chaining</u>	<u><math>1 + \alpha</math></u>	<u><math>1 + \alpha</math></u>
<u>probing</u>	<u><math>1/(1-\alpha)</math></u>	<u><math>(1/\alpha) * \ln(1/(1-\alpha))</math></u>

x x

### HARD TO GUARANTEE SIMPLE UNIFORM HASHING

is Ensure you avoid any pitfalls, because in practice hashes are very useful.

or Should compute quickly pls

Hash function: • Division method Pg 11 } Lecture 9  
• Multiplication method. Pg 12 } notes

END OF HASHING

# TREES

Why did we need trees?

- the linear search time of a linked list (over  $O(n)$ ) is prohibitive...
- If we can reduce runtime of searching, inserts, delete etc down to  $O(\log n)$  we'll obviously save time :O

def:

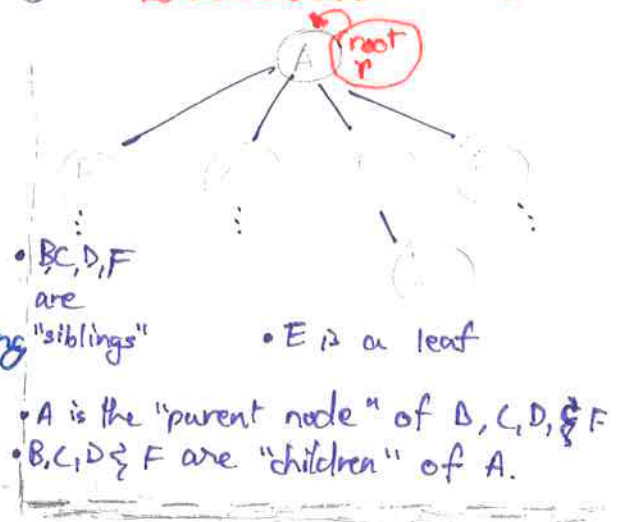
A tree is a collection of nodes.

- the collection can be empty
- (recursive definition) If not empty, a tree consists of a "distinguished" node (aka the root node  $r$ ) and some non-negative number of non-empty subtrees  $T_1, T_2, \dots, T_k$  each of whose roots are connected by a directed edge from  $r$ .

Terminology related to trees:

(i) Path: a sequence of nodes  $n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k$  such that  $(n_i)$  is the parent node of  $(n_{i+1})$  for  $1 \leq i \leq k$ .

(i.e. path nodes must be in increasing depth).



(ii) Length: number of edges on the path

(iii) Depth of a node: • length of the unique path from the root to that node.  
• The depth of a tree = the depth of the tree's deepest leaf.

(iii) Height of a node: • length of the longest path from that node to a leaf.  
• all leaves are at height 0. (zero).  
• The height of a tree = height of its root.

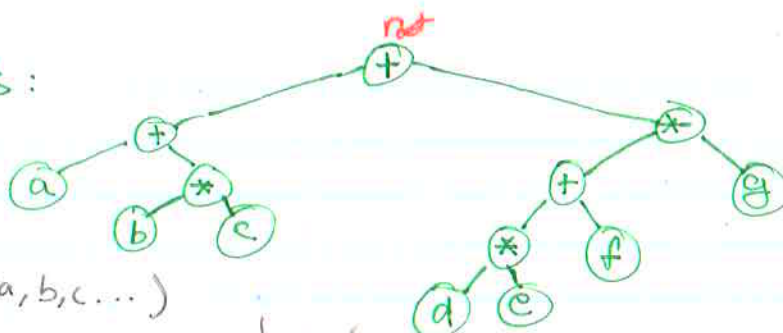


eg: the unix directory's structure is an example of a tree.

## BINARY TREES:

def: A tree in which no node can have more than two children is known as a Binary Tree.

### eg EXPRESSION TREES:



- The tree's leaves are operands (a, b, c, ...)
- Non-leaf nodes are operators (+, \* ... etc)
- If an operator was non-binary (ie. accepted more than two operands), then the tree would not be a binary tree anymore.)

## Traversing Trees:

def: Traversal is the process of visiting every node once (and only once?)

- 3 recursive techniques for traversing trees:
- the left subtree traversed recursively.
  - the right " " " "
  - the root is visited.



3 orders of traversal:

- Pre-order traversal:

→ Node, Left, Right Imp %

→ exp:  $(++a*bc*+*defg)$  → aka pre-fix expression

- Post-order traversal:

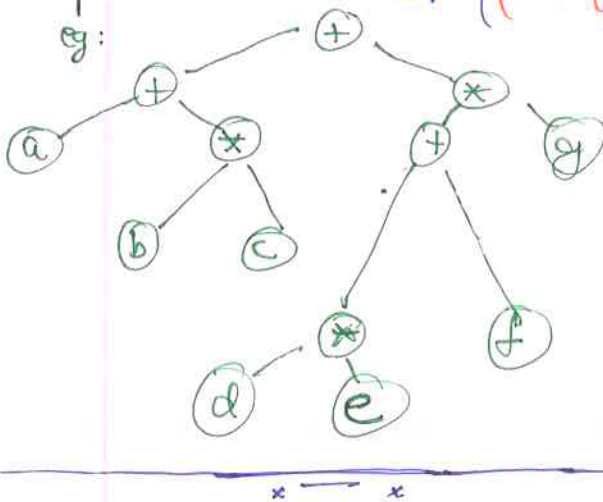
→ Left, Right, Node

→ exp: ~~++a\*bc\*+\*defg~~  $([de*] + [de*f + g*]) +$   
aka post-fix expression

- In-order traversal:

→ Left, Node, Right

→ exp:  $((a + (b * c)) + (((d * e) + f) * g))$   
aka infix expression (normal)



## IMP % Binary Tree ADT

- BinTree ADT:

→ Accessor functions:

- key(): int
- parent(): BinTree
- left(): BinTree
- right(): BinTree

→ Modifier functions:

- setKey(k: int)
- setParent(T: BinTree)
- setLeft(T: BinTree)
- setRight(T: BinTree)

(i) • Dictionary ADT : Search ( $S, k$ )    Insert ( $S, x$ )    Delete ( $S, x$ )

(ii) • Ordered Dictionary ADT : († all above methods)     $\min(S)$      $\max(S)$

Successor ( $S, x$ )    Predecessor ( $S, x$ )

↳ obvious, but both functions return pointers to the next element or the previous element respectively for a given  $x$  or NIL if the condition isn't met.

i.e. successor call on the last element returns NIL  
• etc..

(iii) • Unordered List:  $O(1)$  :  $\rightarrow$  insert, delete

$O(n)$  : min, max, predecessor, successor, search

(iv) • Ordered List:  $O(n)$  : search, insert, delete

$O(1)$  : min, max, predecessor, successor

## IMP % Binary Search

• Binary search is a searching algorithm for the item being searched is halved after every step, the length of the array is halved.

• Binary searches run in  $O(\log n)$  time.

• Search  $\rightarrow O(\log n)$

• Insert, Delete  $\rightarrow O(1)$

• min, max, predecessor, successor  $\rightarrow O(n)$

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## BINARY SEARCH TREES

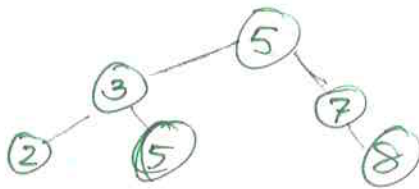
IMP  
%

def:

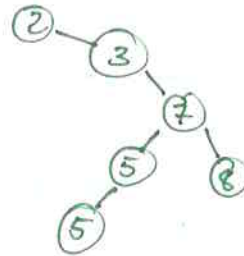
A binary search tree is a binary tree  $T$  such that:

- each internal node stores an item ( $k$ ) of a dictionary
- keys stored at nodes in the left subtree are less than or equal to  $k$ .
- keys stored at nodes in the right subtree are greater than or equal to  $k$ .

eg. Eg. sequence: 2, 3, 5, 5, 7, 8



OR



at root

Tree  $T$ :  
 $\begin{cases} \text{key}() \rightarrow \text{element} \\ \text{left}() \rightarrow \text{tree} \\ \text{right}() \rightarrow \text{tree} \end{cases}$

0%

### Searching in a BST

→ To find an element with key  $k$ , in a tree  $T$ :

- compare  $k$  with  $T.\text{key}()$
- if  $k < T.\text{key}()$  search for  $k$  recursively in  $T.\text{left}()$
- else, search for  $k$  recursively in  $T.\text{right}()$ .

→ can also be iteratively searched  
recursively. Both are equally good options.

Imp BST

\* Recursive BST search - pseudocode.

→ BSTSearch (T, k):

- if  $T == \text{NIL}$ : return NIL
- if  $k == T.\text{key}()$ : return T.
- if  $k < T.\text{key}()$ :
  - return BSTSearch (T.left(), k)
- else:
  - return BSTSearch (T.right(), k)

\* Iterative BST search - pseudocode

→ BSTSearch (T, k):

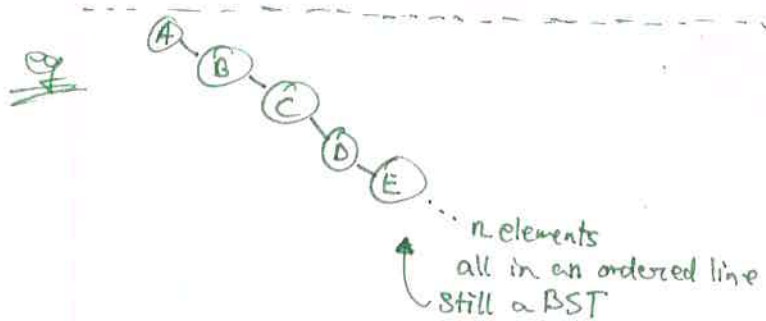
- let  $x = T$
- while  $((x \neq \text{NIL}) \wedge (k \neq x.\text{key}()))$ :
  - if  $(k < x.\text{key}())$ :
    - $x = x.\text{left}()$  (if  $k < x.\text{key}()$ , then  $k$  might lie in left BST node, if  $k < x.\text{key}()$ )
  - else:
    - $x = x.\text{right}()$
- return x





## Analysis of BST Searching:

- Worst-case run-time:



If all 'n' elements in a BST are arranged in some permutation of the structure shown on the left, then the worst-case running time is  $O(n)$

i.e. worst-case BST search =  $O(n)$

But in the above example: the height of the tree ( $h$ ) = the number of elements ( $n$ ) in the BST.

⇒ In a more "full" BST, it may be noted that worst-case run-time of a BST search is actually  $O(h)$  where  $h$  = height of the tree



## BST Functions:

- BST Successor: Given  $x$ ; find the node with the smallest key greater than  $x$ -key().

2 cases:

CASE 1: • if right subtree of  $x$  is non-empty.

def case 1:

- Successor: it is the leftmost node in the right subtree
- Can also be found by returning  $\text{treeMinimum}(x.\text{right}())$

CASE 2: • if the right subtree of  $x$  is empty.

def

case 2:

- Successor: it is the lowest "ancestor" of  $x$ , whose left child is also an ancestor of  $x$ .

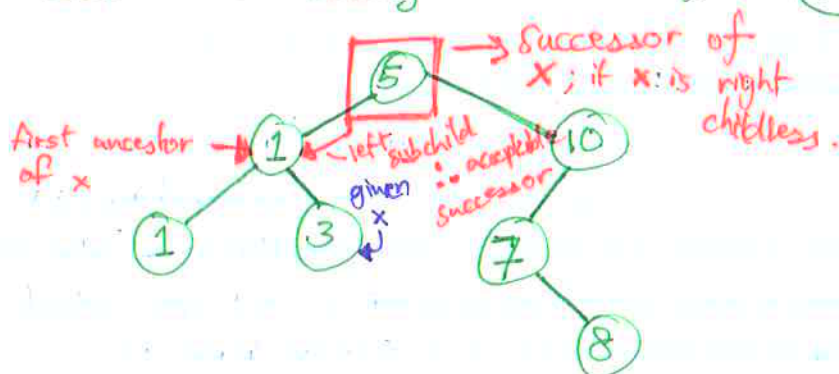


WHAT  
THE FULK

DOES THAT EVEN MEAN?? (see example 1 on p. 1)

case 2: Successor (cont'd)

eg Observe the following BST. Given  $x = 3$  when  $\text{BST Successor}(T, x)$  is called.



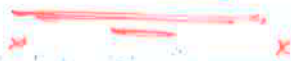
By the definitions of a node's successor, we can see that  $x$  has no child to the right. Therefore, we employ definition 2 of the successor of a node.

i.e. the lowest ancestor,  $\uparrow$  that is an ancestor to another ancestor of  $x$ .

- the "ground-ancestor" of  $x$  (if its grand-child  $x$  belong to its left subtree) is its successor if  $x$  has no right child.

Thus:

- first ancestor of  $x = 1$  (i.e.  $x$ 's parent node).
- the successor of  $x$ , is the lowest ancestor of  $x$ 's parent = 5 (in the example above)



## BST Successor Pseudocode

BSTSuccessor( $x$ ):

case 1: if  $x$  has a non-empty right subtree  
if implemented simply return the lowest key in  $x$ 's right subtree  
for case 1

check case 1: if  $(x.\text{right}()) \neq \text{NIL}$ : return TreeMinimum( $x.\text{right}()$ )

if not case 1, address: assign  $y = x.\text{parent}()$  → search for  $x$ 's parent/aka first ancestor.  
case 2

while  $((y \neq \text{NIL}) \wedge (x \neq y.\text{left}()))$  ensure the parent exists // ensure  $x$  is its parent's left child

CHECK WITH SOMEONE!!

once  $x$ 's parent has been found, we can assign  $x = y$   
assign  $y = y.\text{parent}()$   
now attempt to find  $x.\text{parent}()$ 's ancestor & confirm return  $y$ .  
that  $x.\text{parent}()$  is the "grand-ancestor's" left subtree.

Does  $x$  have to be the right child to its parent??

Thus the grand-ancestor is  $x$ 's successor.

CHECK THE CODE; IT DOESN'T SEEM CORRECT!!

End lecture 11

24/June/2019



25/June/2019

### • BST Insertion:

The following algorithm inserts a new element  $z$  into a BST  $T$ .

( $z$  is an element of the tree  $T$  whose left and right children are NIL)

- takes an element of a tree  $z$  (whose left and right children are NIL) and insert it into  $T$ .
- find place in  $T$  where  $z$  belongs (similar to searching for  $z$  key).
- i.e. compare  $z$ .key() with the root of the tree and find out where  $z$  can fit in the tree according to BST properties.

run-time :  $O(h)$   $h \rightarrow$  height of tree

### BST Insertion Pseudocode

#### - TreeInsert ( $T, z$ ):

- assign  $y = \text{NIL}$
- assign  $x = T$
- ~~if  $z$ .key()  $\leq$   $x$ .key():~~
- while ( $x \neq \text{NIL}$ ):
  - assign  $y = x$
  - if ( $z$ .key()  $<$   $x$ .key()):
    - assign  $x = x$ .left()
  - else:
    - assign  $x = x$ .right()



- $z \cdot \text{setParent}(y)$
- if  $(y \neq \text{NIL})$  :
  - if  $(z \cdot \text{key}() < y \cdot \text{key}())$  :
    - $y \cdot \text{setLeft}(z)$
    - else :
      - $y \cdot \text{setRight}(z)$
  - else :
    - $\text{assign } T = z$
- //end

• Sorting a Binary Search Tree:

•  $\text{TreeSort}(A)$ :

- assign  $T = \text{NIL}$
- for  $(\text{int } i = 1; i \leq n; i++)$  :
  - $\text{TreeInsert}(T, \text{BinTree}(A[i]))$

// sorted BST.

↳ Although, you called it something else.  
check against notes.

BST Deletion: delete node  $x$  from a tree  $T$

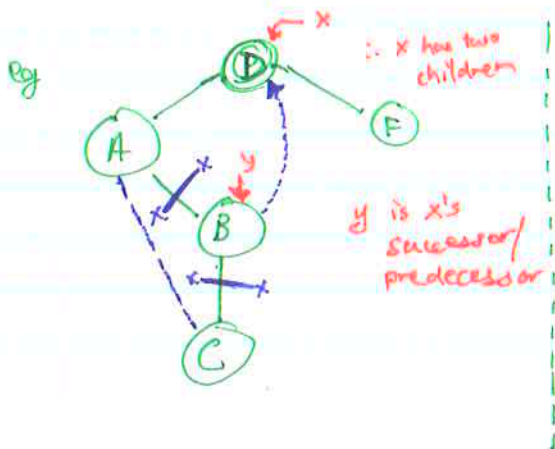
3 cases when considering deletion:

case 1  $\rightarrow$  if  $x$  has no children

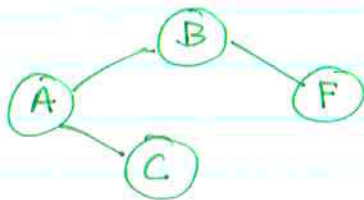
case 2  $\rightarrow$  if  $x$  has one child

case 3  $\rightarrow$  if  $x$  has both children

- Case 1: simply remove  $x$ , since it has no children and will not really affect other tree elements apart from its parent
- Case 2: if  $x$  has one child, then before deleting  $x$ , we make  $x.\text{parent}()$  point to  $x$ 's child instead of  $x$  itself.
- Case 3: if  $x$  has 2 children, then:
  - Find  $x$ 's successor (or predecessor)  $y$ .
  - remove  $y$  ( $y$  can ~~now~~ at most have only one child)  
 § (that way,  $y$ 's parent can then point to  $y$ 's child instead of  $y$ )
  - replace  $x$  with  $y$



After deletion:



## BST delete Pseudocode:

### • Tree Delete (T, z):

• if  $(z.\text{left}() == \text{NIL}) \vee (z.\text{right}() == \text{NIL})$ :

• assign  $y = z$

• else:

• assign  $y = \text{InSuccessor}(z)$

• if  $(y.\text{left}() \neq \text{NIL})$ :

• assign  $x = y.\text{left}()$

• else:

• assign  $x = y.\text{right}()$

• if  $(x \neq \text{NIL})$ :

•  $x.\text{setParent}(y.\text{parent}())$

• if  $(y.\text{parent}() == \text{NIL})$ :

• assign  $T = x$

• else if  $(y == y.\text{parent}().\text{left}())$ :

•  $y.\text{parent}().\text{setLeft}(x)$

• else:

•  $y.\text{parent}().\text{setRight}(x)$

• if  $z == y$ :

•  $z.\text{setKey}(y.\text{key})$

• return  $y$

~~Y~~ — ~~X~~

25/June/2019

Imp %

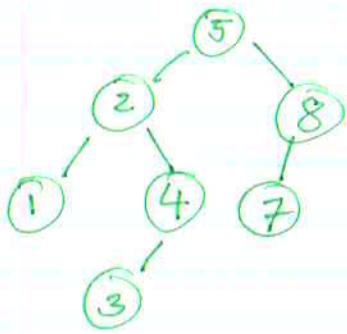
## BALANCED BINARY SEARCH TREE

- each node has two children (except the leaves)
- the height of the left & right subtrees are equal??
- All balanced binary BSTs have to be complete binary trees.

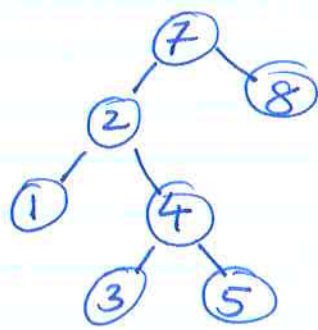
AVL TREE: aka [Adelson-Velskii and Landis Binary Search Tree]

- def:
- An AVL tree is a BST in which; for every node in the tree, the height of the left & right subtrees differ by at-most 1.

eg. AVL-Tree



Non-AVL tree





AVL trees can only have "certain" <sup>minimum</sup> ~~numbers~~ tree heights based on how many nodes their tree contains.

for example:

if  $n = 1$ , the tree's height = 0

if  $n = 2$ , the tree's height = 1

if  $n = 3$ , the tree's height = 1

similarly  $n = 4$ , height = 2

$\Rightarrow$  if,  $n = 5$ , height = 2

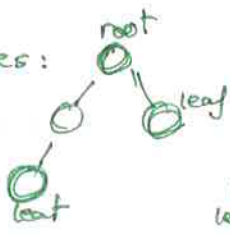
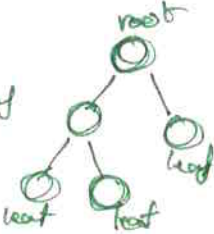
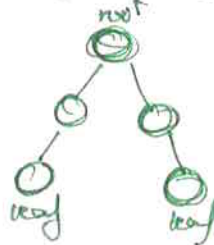
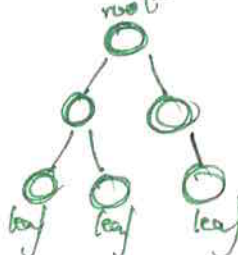
$\Rightarrow$  if,  $n = 6$ , height = 2

if  $n = 7$ , height = 3 etc, etc. See example trees below:

$n = 1$  tree:  height = 0

$n = 2$  trees:  height = 1

$n = 3$

$n = 4$  trees:    $n = 5$    $n = 6$  

etc, etc.

$$h = O(\log N)$$

$\Rightarrow$  most operations on an AVL tree will take  $O(\log N)$  time.

- When inserting a node to an AVL tree: <sup>regular</sup>  
→ insert a node as you would for a <sup>n</sup> BST

- if the AVL property gets violated, ~~remove~~ relocate the newly added node to ~~rest~~ restore the AVL property.

on the subtree

- Rebalance the tree at the deepest node to guarantee that the entire tree satisfies the AVL condition as expected.

IMP IF  $\alpha$  is the <sup>node/tree</sup> ~~node~~ that must be rebalanced:

Case 1: an insertion of a node into the left subtree of the left subchild of  $\alpha$ .

Case 2: an insertion of a node into the right subtree of the left subchild of  $\alpha$   
      $\alpha$

Case 3: an insertion of a node into the left subtree of the right subchild of  $\alpha$

Case 4: an insertion of a node into the right subtree of the right subchild of  $\alpha$   
      $\alpha$

## def: ROTATIONS

- the rebalance of an AVL tree can be done by "rotation"

How & when to rotate:

- 1) • Insertion occurs on the "outside" i.e. (the left-most/right-most) nodes and is fixed by "single rotation" of the tree.
- 2) • Insertion occurs on the "inside" nodes and is fixed by "double-rotation" of the tree.

## INSERTION ALGORITHM

→ Add new node like in a regular BST

→ Trace the path from \*newly inserted leaf to the root.

• At EACH encountered node,  $x$ ; check if heights of  $\text{left}(x)$  &  $\text{right}(x)$  differs at most by 1.

→ if yes, proceed to  $\text{parent}(x)$  ~~next node~~

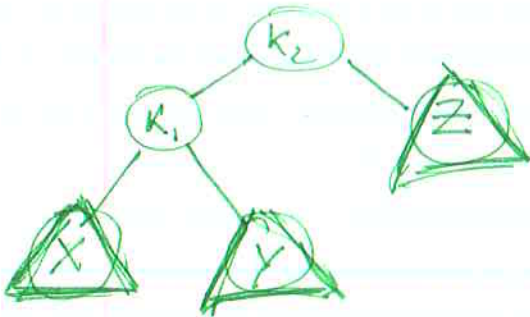
→ if not, restructure by performing either a single or double rotation.

AVL properties: • left subtree  $\overset{\text{right}}{= \pm 1}$

Single rotation for **case 1**:

~~AVL prop.~~

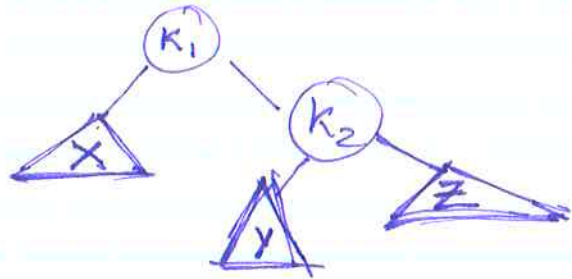
eg violation:



if subtree X gets an insertion, then at node  $(K_2)$ , height of left  $(K_2) \neq$  height of right  $(K_2)$

i.e. violates AVL property.

Solution: single rotation



eg Insert 3, 2, 1, 4, 5, 6 to an AVL tree, sequentially:

