

CS303 - Algorithms and Data Structures

Lecture 7 Linear Sorting

Professor : Mahmut Unan – UAB CS

Agenda

- Comparison Sorts
- Sorting in Linear Time
- Counting Sort
- Radix Sort
- Bucket Sort
- ~Data Structures

Some Good News

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This Southern school has the best cybersecurity master's program in the country—here's why

BY SYDNEY LAKE

January 23, 2023, 10:31 AM



UNIVERSITY HALL AT THE UNIVERSITY OF ALABAMA—BIRMINGHAM. (COURTESY OF THE UNIVERSITY OF ALABAMA—BIRMINGHAM)



One might immediately associate cybersecurity with jobs and research in Silicon Valley and the Washington, D.C. area—both of which are major tech and defense hubs, respectively. However, the [best in-person cybersecurity master's program](#) in the country, as ranked by *Fortune*, sits down south at the [University of Alabama—Birmingham](#) (UAB).

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- Each event participation : 1 bonus points
 - Participation means "Participation" not showing up
- Up to 10 bonus points

Comparison Sorts

- The only operation that may be used to gain order information about a sequence is comparison of pairs of elements.
- All sorts seen so far are comparison sorts: insertion sort, merge sort, heapsort, quicksort
- Comparison sorts use $\Omega(n \lg n)$ comparisons in the best case to sort n elements
- Merge sort and Heapsort are asymptotically optimal comparison sorts

Sorting in Linear Time

- Sorting algorithms that run in linear time
 - counting sort
 - radix sort
 - bucket sort
- These algorithms use operations other than comparisons to determine the sorted order

Counting Sort

- Depends on a key assumption: numbers to be sorted are integers in the range 0 to k
- Input: $A[1..n]$ where $A[j]$ is an integer in the range 0 to k for $j = 1..n$
- Output: $B[1..n]$ – sorted
- Auxiliary Storage: $C[0..k]$

```
COUNTING-SORT( $A, B, n, k$ )  
  let  $C[0..k]$  be a new array  
  for  $i = 0$  to  $k$   
     $C[i] = 0$   
  for  $j = 1$  to  $n$   
     $C[A[j]] = C[A[j]] + 1$   
  for  $i = 1$  to  $k$   
     $C[i] = C[i] + C[i - 1]$   
  for  $j = n$  downto  $1$   
     $B[C[A[j]]] = A[j]$   
     $C[A[j]] = C[A[j]] - 1$ 
```

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
A	2	5	3	0	2	3	0	3
	0	1	2	3	4	5		
C	2	0	2	3	0	1		

(a)

	0	1	2	3	4	5
C	2	2	4	7	7	8

(b)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
B							3	
	0	1	2	3	4	5		
C	2	2	4	6	7	8		

(c)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
B		0					3	
	0	1	2	3	4	5		
C	1	2	4	6	7	8		

(d)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
B		0				3	3	
	0	1	2	3	4	5		
C	1	2	4	5	7	8		

(e)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
B	0	0	2	2	3	3	3	5

(f)

Counting Sort

- Counting sort is ***stable*** (numbers with the same value appear in the output array in the same order as they do in the input array)
- Overall time is $\Theta(k+n) = \Theta(n)$, when $k = O(n)$
- Counting sort is often used in radix sort due to its stability property

Example 1

Arr = [1, 4, 1, 2, 7, 5, 2]

Example 2

Arr = [6, 0, 2, 0, 1, 3, 4, 6, 1, 3, 2]

Radix Sort

- Algorithm originally used by the card-sorting machines
- Key idea: **sort least significant digits first**
- To sort d digits:

RADIX_SORT (A, d)

for $i = 1$ **to** d

use a stable sort to sort array A on
digit i

- Time taken to sort n d -digit numbers in the range 0 to k is $\Theta(d(n+k))$ if the stable sort used takes $\Theta(n+k)$ time

329
457
657
839
436
720
355



720
355
436
457
657
329
839



720
329
436
839
355
457
657



329
355
436
457
657
720
839

Example 3

Arr = [53, 89, 150, 36, 633, 233]

Example 4

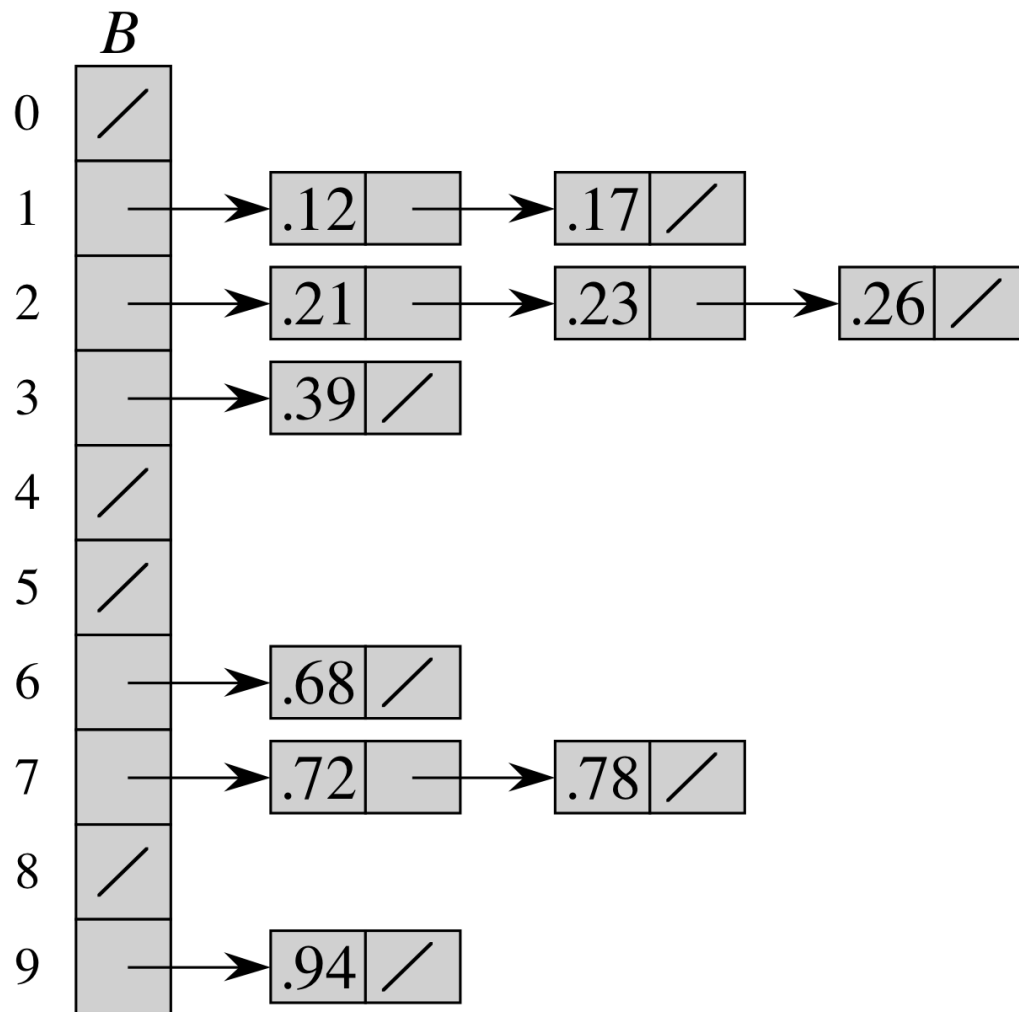
Arr = [COW, DOG, SEA, RUG, ROW, MOB, TAB, TEA]

Bucket Sort

- Assumes the input is generated by a random process that distributes elements uniformly over the interval $[0,1)$
- *Algorithm*
 - Divide the interval $[0,1)$ into n equal-sized *buckets*.
 - Distribute the n input values into the buckets.
 - Sort each bucket.
 - Then go through buckets in order, listing elements in each one.

	<i>A</i>
1	.78
2	.17
3	.39
4	.26
5	.72
6	.94
7	.21
8	.12
9	.23
10	.68

(a)



(b)

BUCKET-SORT(A, n)

let $B[0 \dots n - 1]$ be a new array

for $i = 1$ **to** $n - 1$

 make $B[i]$ an empty list

for $i = 1$ **to** n

 insert $A[i]$ into list $B[\lfloor n \cdot A[i] \rfloor]$

for $i = 0$ **to** $n - 1$

 sort list $B[i]$ with insertion sort

concatenate lists $B[0], B[1], \dots, B[n - 1]$ together in order

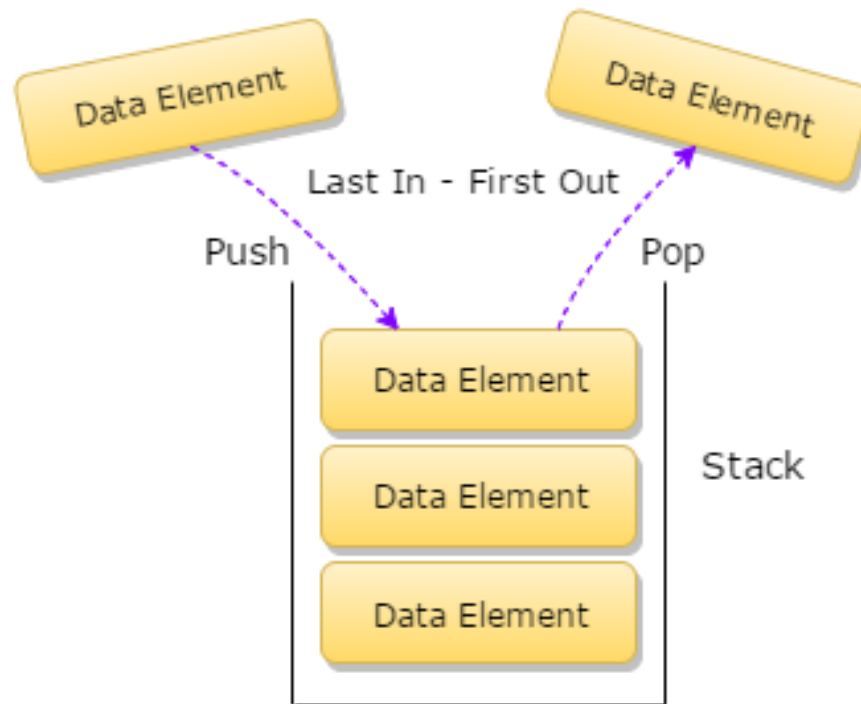
return the concatenated lists

Example 5

Arr = [0.18, 0.37, 0.29, 0.66, 0.3, 0.941, 0.121,
0.12, 0.73, 0.788]

Stacks and Queues

- Dynamic sets in which the element removed from the set by the DELETE operation is prespecified
- Stack
 - element deleted is the one most recently inserted
 - implements a **last-in, first-out (LIFO)** policy
 - INSERT operation is often called PUSH
 - DELETE operation is often called POP





Stacks and Queues

- Queue
 - element deleted is the one that has been in the set for the longest time
 - implements a first-in, first-out (FIFO) policy
 - INSERT operation is often called ENQUEUE
 - DELETE operation is often called DEQUEUE
- Deque – double-ended queue
 - a queue that allows insertion and deletion at both ends





Queue

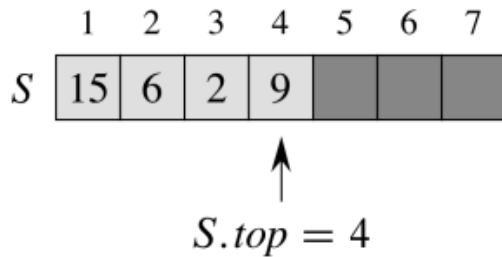
Insertion and Deletion
happen on different ends



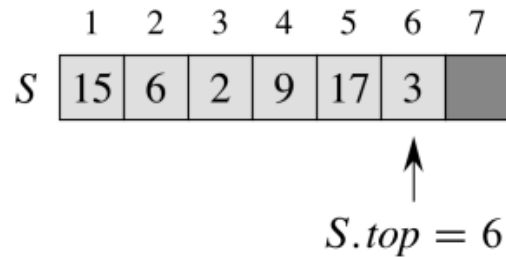
First in, first out

Implementing a stack using arrays

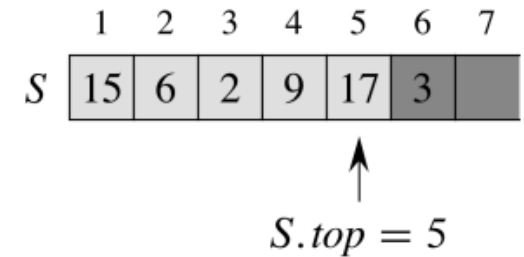
$S[1..n]$ - array



(a)



(b)



(c)

After
 $PUSH(S, 17)$
 $PUSH(S, 3)$

After
 $POP(S)$

STACK-EMPTY(S)

```
1  if  $S.top == 0$   
2      return TRUE  
3  else return FALSE
```

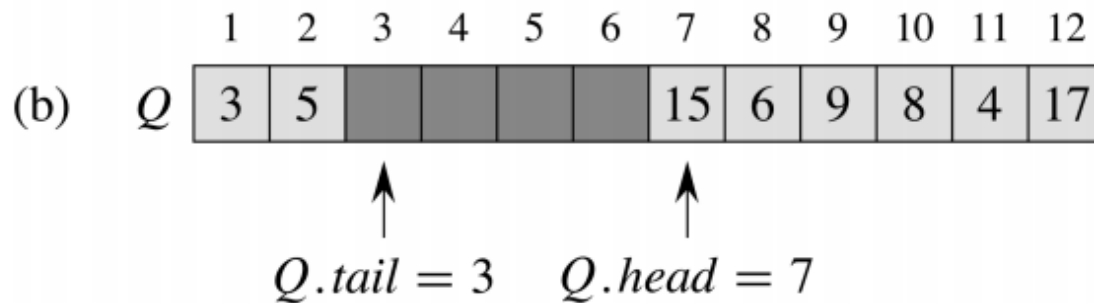
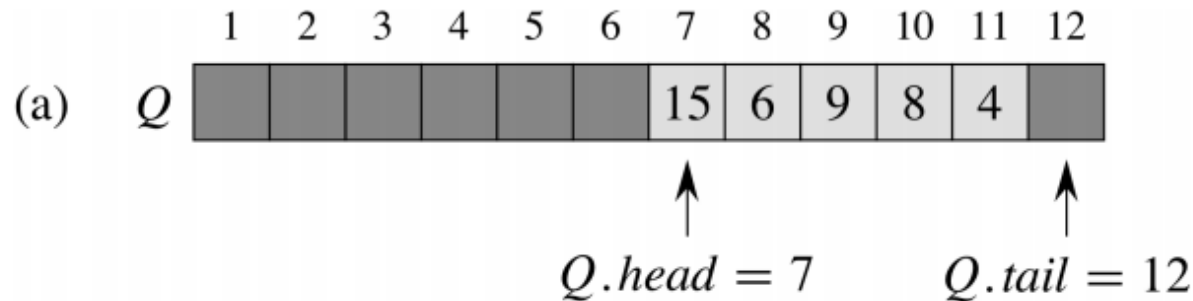
PUSH(S, x)

```
1   $S.top = S.top + 1$       // overflow not shown  
2   $S[S.top] = x$ 
```

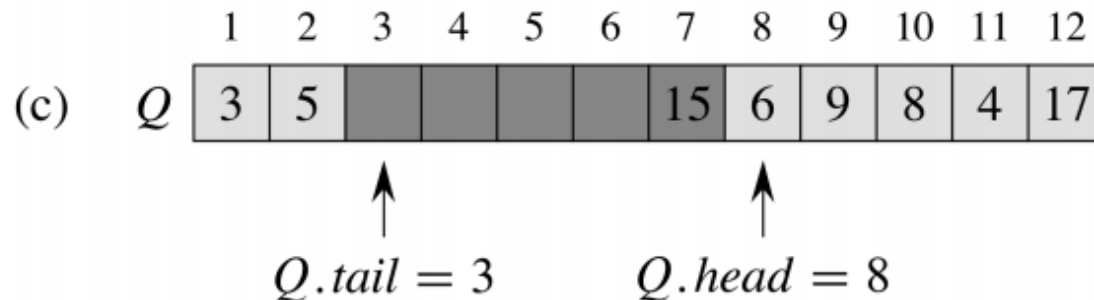
POP(S)

```
1  if STACK-EMPTY( $S$ )  
2      error “underflow”  
3  else  $S.top = S.top - 1$   
4      return  $S[S.top + 1]$ 
```

Implementing a queue using arrays



After
ENQUEUE(Q, 17)
ENQUEUE(Q, 3)
ENQUEUE(Q, 5)



After
DEQUEUE(Q)

// overflow and underflow not shown

ENQUEUE(Q, x)

```
1   $Q[Q.tail] = x$   
2  if  $Q.tail == Q.length$   
3       $Q.tail = 1$   
4  else  $Q.tail = Q.tail + 1$ 
```

DEQUEUE(Q)

```
1   $x = Q[Q.head]$   
2  if  $Q.head == Q.length$   
3       $Q.head = 1$   
4  else  $Q.head = Q.head + 1$   
5  return  $x$ 
```

Python Stack Implementation

```
In [13]: stack=[]
```

```
In [14]: stack.append("UAB")  
stack.append("CS")  
stack.append("303")  
print(stack)  
  
[ 'UAB', 'CS', '303' ]
```

```
In [15]: print(stack.pop())
```

303

```
In [16]: print(stack.pop())
```

CS

```
In [17]: print(stack.pop())
```

UAB

Python Queue

```
In [22]: queue=[ ]
```

```
In [23]: queue.append( "UAB" )  
queue.append( "CS" )  
queue.append( "303" )  
print(queue)
```

```
[ 'UAB', 'CS', '303' ]
```

```
In [25]: print(queue.pop(0))
```

```
UAB
```

```
In [26]: print(queue.pop(0))
```

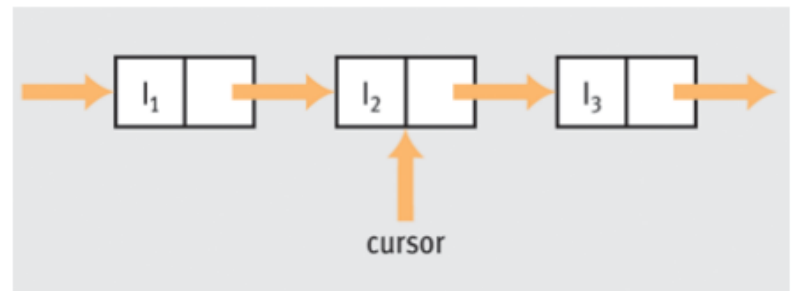
```
CS
```

```
In [27]: print(queue.pop(0))
```

```
303
```

Linked Lists

- Linked Lists provide a simple, flexible representation for dynamic sets
 - the order in a linked list is determined by a pointer in each object
 - retrieval, insertion, deletion allowed anywhere within the structure
- **List** – ordered collection of zero or more **nodes**
- Nodes contain two **fields**
 - **Information** field (**data** field)
 - **Pointer** field (**next** field)



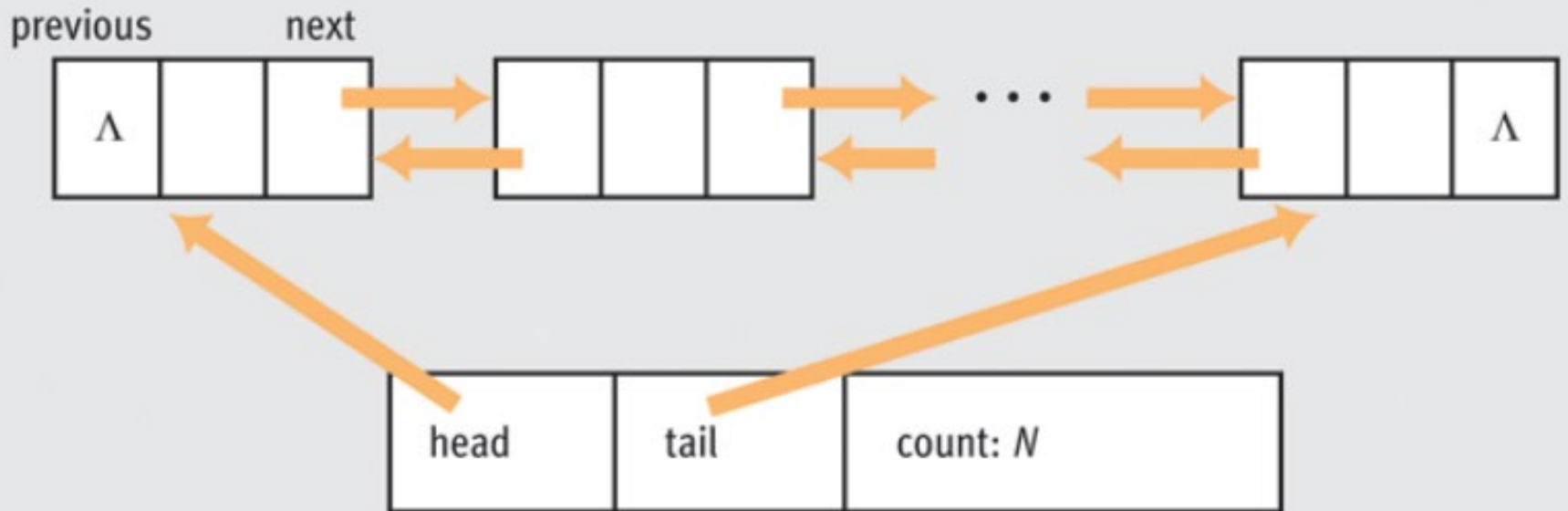
Implementations of Lists

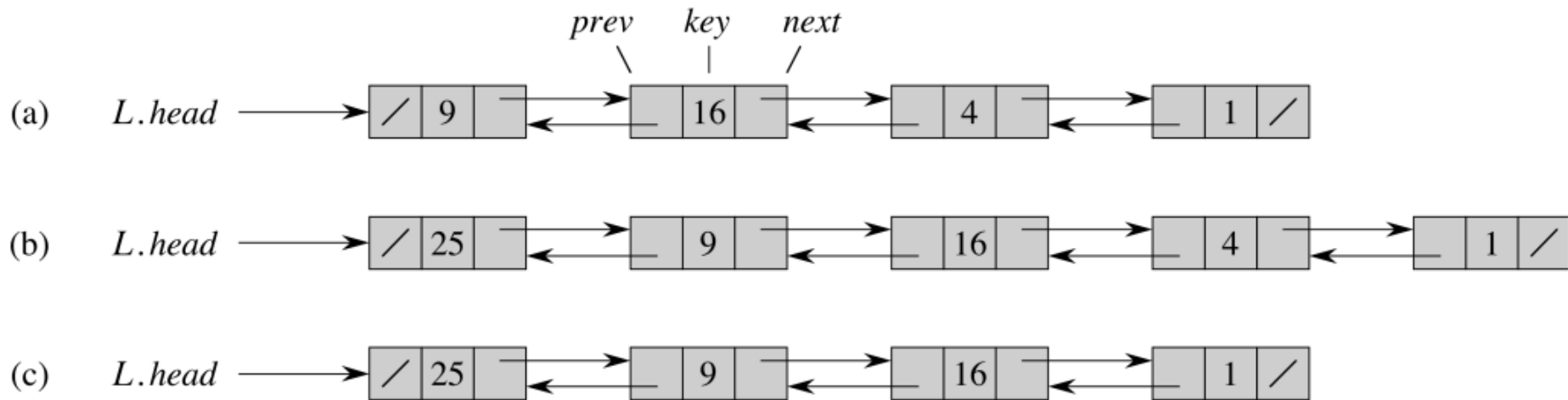
- Insert a node at the cursor:
 - Allocating space for the node
 - Assign the next field to the successor of the cursor
 - Assign the node to the next field of the cursor
 - Update total node count
- Adding a node is $O(1)$ time complexity
- Many operations are $O(1)$ because cursor points to the location, not using physical adjacency

Doubly Linked Lists

- **Singly linked list** – each node has a pointer to its successor
- **Doubly linked list** – nodes have a pointer to successor and predecessor
 - head and last nodes, cursor, and count
- Time complexity to search an element $O(n)$
 - Doubly linked list, list insertion/deletion time complexity $O(1)$

Doubly linked list data structure





(b) After `LIST_INSERT(L, 25)`

(c) After `LIST_DELETE(L, 4)`

LIST-INSERT(*L*, *x*)

```

1  x.next = L.head
2  if L.head ≠ NIL
3      L.head.prev = x
4  L.head = x
5  x.prev = NIL

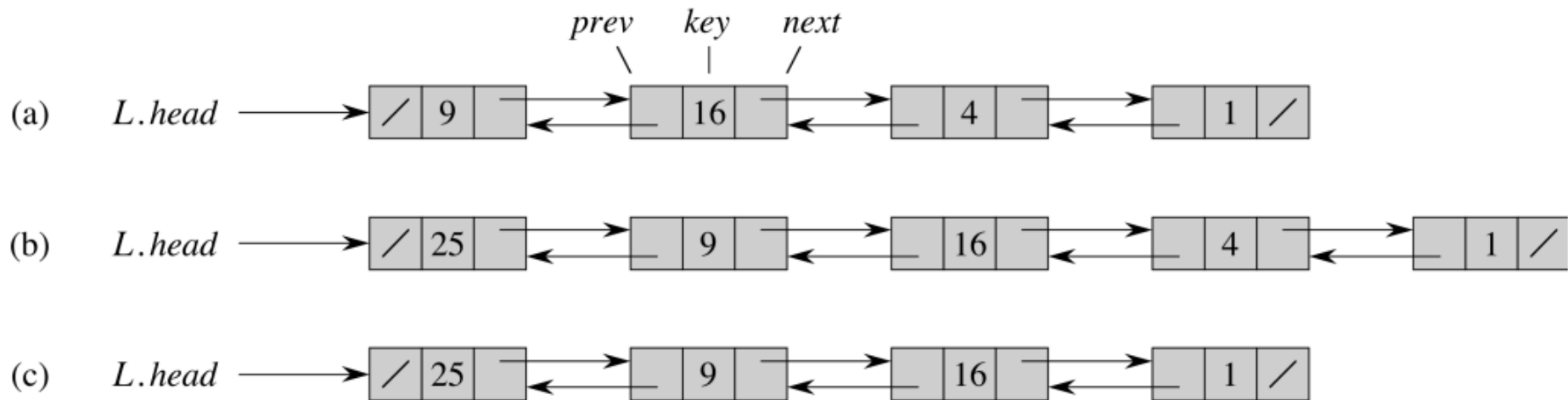
```

LIST-DELETE(*L*, *x*)

```

1  if x.prev ≠ NIL
2      x.prev.next = x.next
3  else L.head = x.next
4  if x.next ≠ NIL
5      x.next.prev = x.prev

```



LIST-SEARCH(L, k)

```

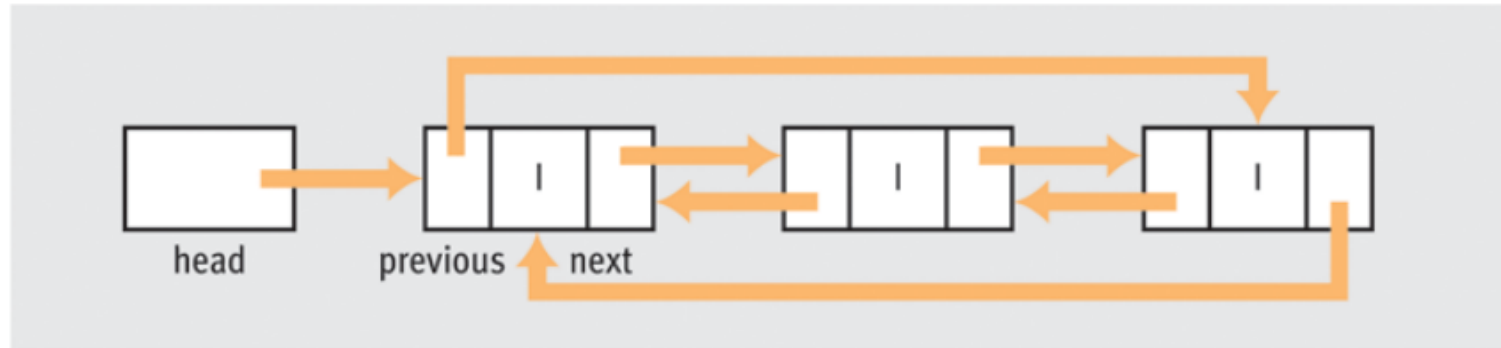
1   $x = L.head$ 
2  while  $x \neq \text{NIL}$  and  $x.key \neq k$ 
3       $x = x.next$ 
4  return  $x$ 

```

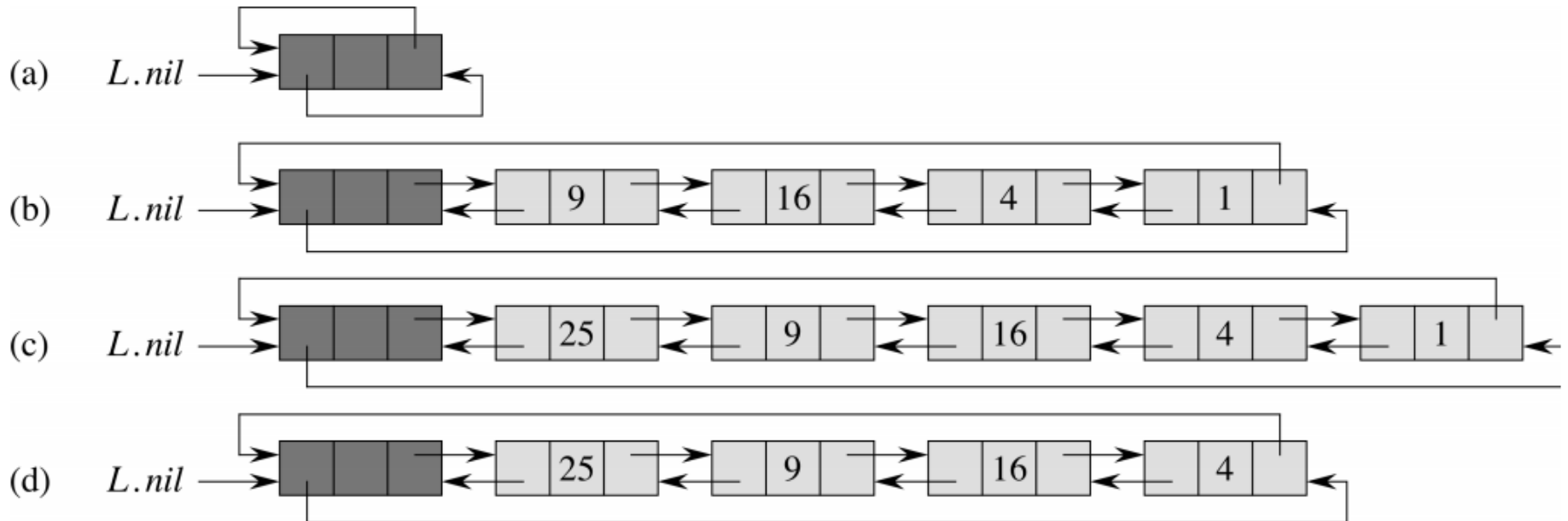
Circular Lists

- **Singly linked circular list (ring)**
 - last node next field points to the head of the list
 - No special case at ends of list
 - next() operation on last node returns first node
 - previous() operation on first node returns last node
- **Doubly linked circular list**
 - Last node successor points to the head node
 - Head node predecessor points to last node

Circular, doubly linked list



Circular, doubly linked list with a sentinel



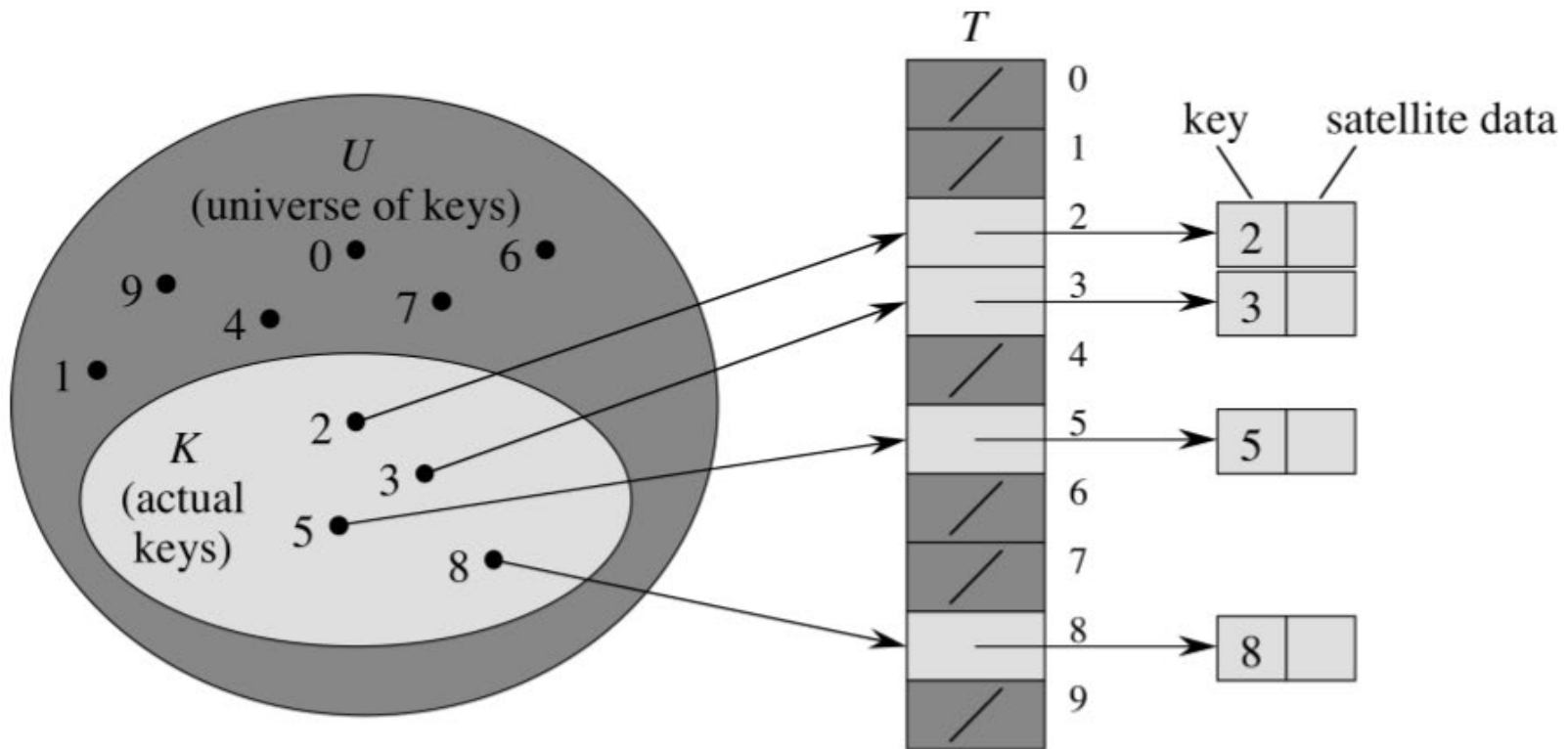
Why Hash tables / Hashing ?

- Suppose we want to design a system for storing employee records keyed using phone numbers. And we want following queries to be performed efficiently:
 - Insert a phone number and corresponding information.
 - Search a phone number and fetch the information.
 - Delete a phone number and related information.

- We can think of using the following data structures to maintain information about different phone numbers.
 - Array of phone numbers and records.
 - Linked List of phone numbers and records.
 - Balanced binary search tree with phone numbers as keys.
 - Direct Access Table.

- **Direct Access Table:** here we make a big array and use phone numbers as index in the array.
- An entry in array is NIL if phone number is not present, else the array entry stores pointer to records corresponding to phone number.
- Time complexity wise this solution is the best among all, we can do all operations in $O(1)$ time
-
- Need a huge storage 😞

Direct-address tables

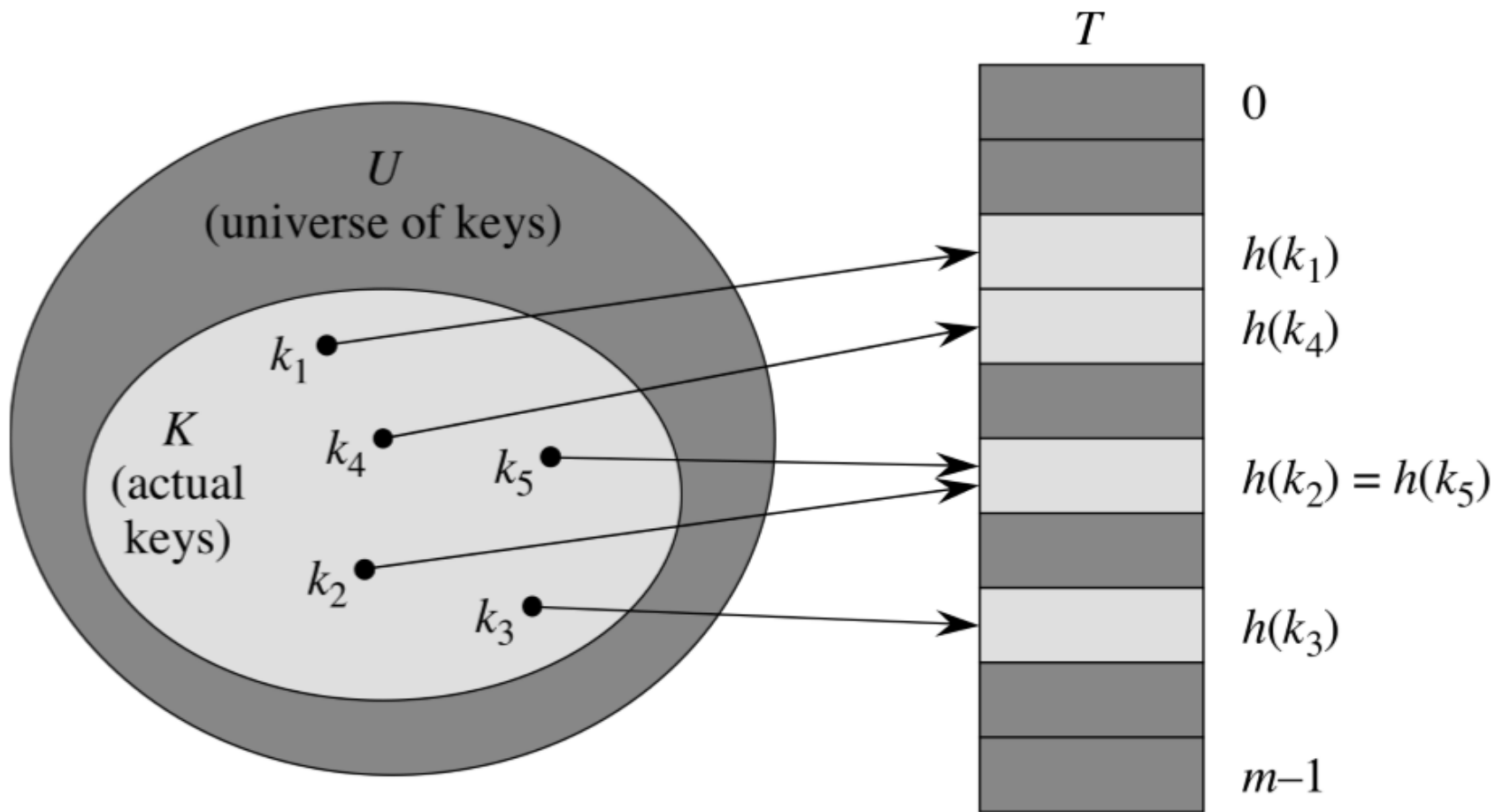


DIRECT-ADDRESS-SEARCH(T, k)
return $T[k]$

DIRECT-ADDRESS-INSERT(T, x)
 $T[key[x]] = x$

DIRECT-ADDRESS-DELETE(T, x)
 $T[key[x]] = \text{NIL}$

Hash Tables

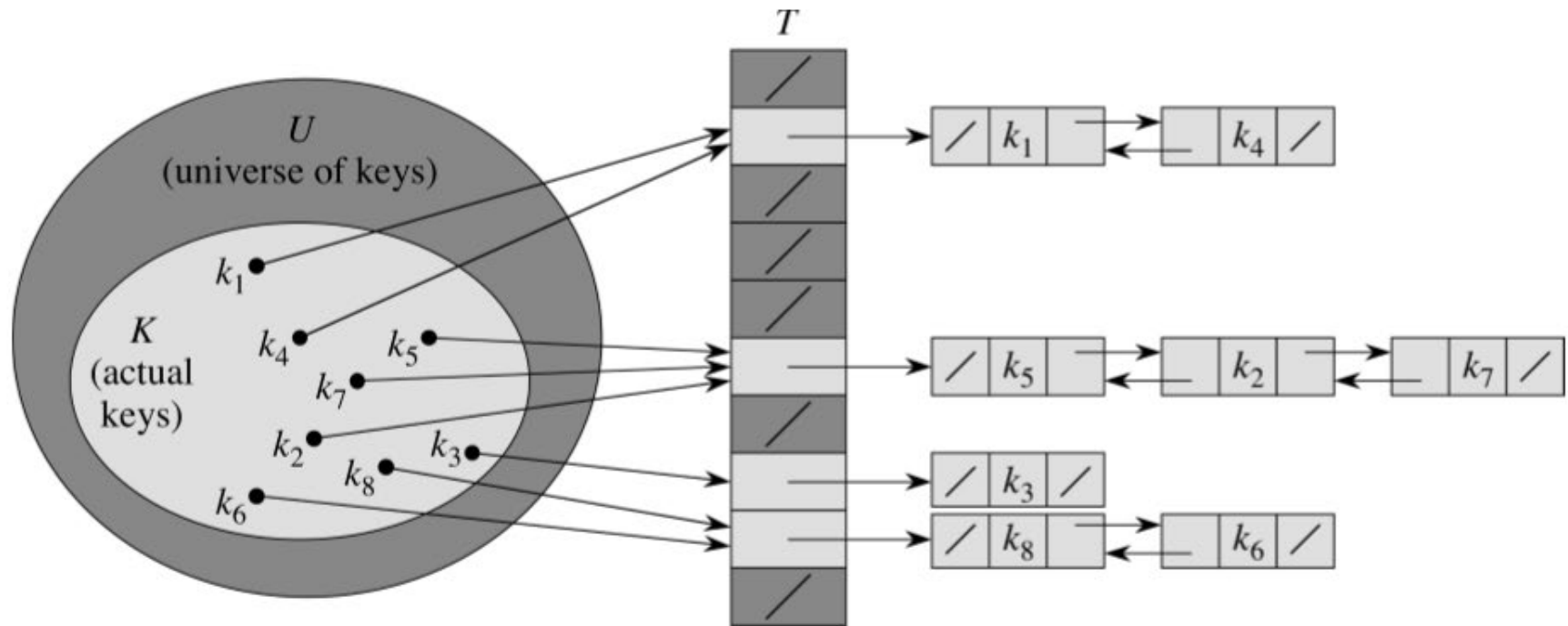


$$h : U \rightarrow \{0, 1, \dots, m-1\}$$

Problem ?

- There is one hitch: two keys may hash to the same slot, we call this situation a **collision**
- Fortunately, we have effective techniques for resolving the conflict created by collisions. For example; chaining
- **In chaining:** we place all elements that hash to the same slot into the same linked list.

Collision resolution by chaining



CHAINED-HASH-INSERT(T, x)

insert x at the head of list $T[h(\text{key}[x])]$

CHAINED-HASH-DELETE(T, x)

delete x from the list $T[h(\text{key}[x])]$

CHAINED-HASH-SEARCH(T, k)

search for an element with key k in list $T[h(k)]$

Time Complexity

	Average	Worst Case
space	$O(n)$	$O(n)$
insert	$O(1)$	$O(n)$
lookup	$O(1)$	$O(n)$
delete	$O(1)$	$O(n)$

Hash Function

- A function that converts a given big phone number to a small practical integer value. The mapped integer value is used as an index in hash table. In simple terms, a hash function maps a big number or string to a small integer that can be used as index in hash table.
- A good hash function should have following properties
 - 1) Efficiently computable.
 - 2) Should uniformly distribute the keys (Each table position equally likely for each key)
- For example for phone numbers a bad hash function is to take first three digits. A better function is consider last three digits. Please note that this may not be the best hash function. There may be better ways.

Hash Functions

- A good hash function satisfies the assumption of a simple uniform hashing (each key is likely to hash to any of the m slots, independently of where any other key has hashed up)
- Heuristic approaches:
 - hashing by division
 - hashing by multiplication
- Randomization:
 - universal hashing, provides better performance on average

Hash Functions

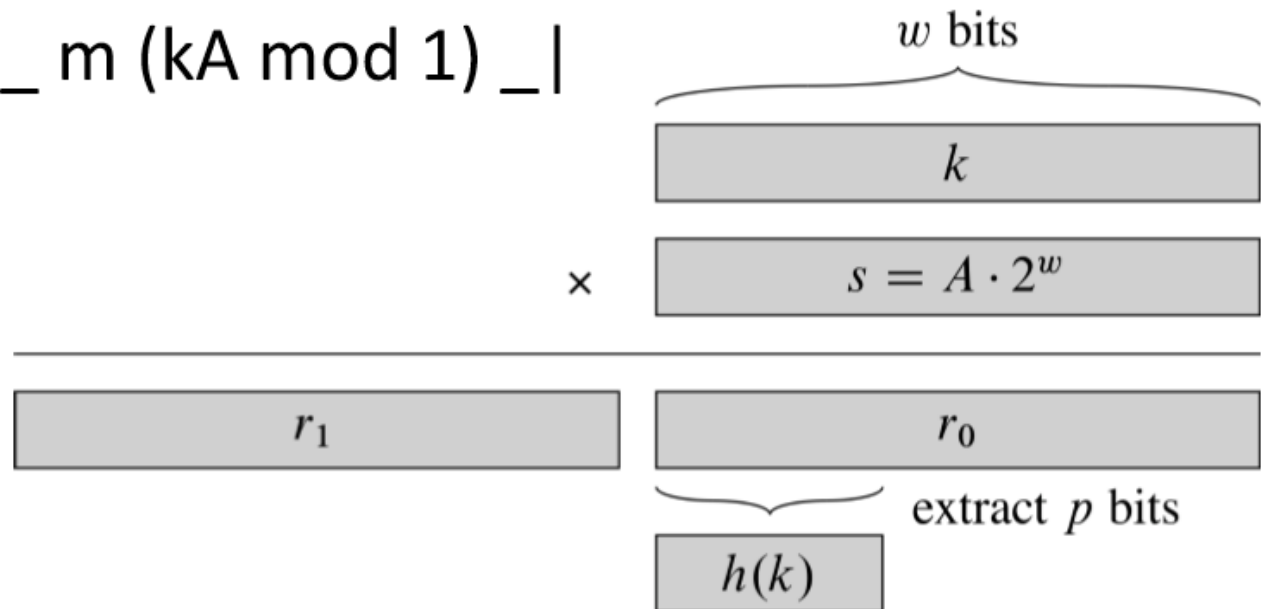
- A good hash function should satisfy the following three key requirements
 - Deterministic- equal keys should produce the same hash value
 - efficient to compute
 - Uniformly distribute the keys

Division Method

- Map a key k into one of m slots by taking the remainder of k divided by m : $h(k) = k \bmod m$
- A prime number not too close to an exact power of 2 is often a good choice for m
- What happens if m is a power of 2 ($m = 2^p$) ?
- Consider inserting the keys 10, 22, 31, 4, 15, 28, 17, 88, 59 into a hash table that has 11 slots. Demonstrate what happens when the keys are inserted into a hash table with collisions resolved by chaining and the hash function $h(k) = k \bmod 11$.

Multiplication Method of Hashing

- Step 1: multiply the key by a constant A ($0 < A < 1$) and extract the fractional part of kA
- Step 2: multiply the above value by m and take the floor of the result
- $h(k) = \lfloor m (kA \bmod 1) \rfloor$



Universal hashing

- If a malicious adversary chooses the keys to be hashed by some fixed hash function, then the adversary can choose n keys that all hash to the same slot, yielding an average retrieval time of Big Theta (n).
- Any fixed hash function is vulnerable to such terrible worst-case behavior; the only effective way to improve the situation is to choose the hash function **randomly** in a way that is **independent** of the keys that are actually going to be stored.
- This approach, called **universal hashing**, can yield provably good performance on average, no matter which keys the adversary chooses.

Open Addressing

- All elements occupy the hash table itself, no lists and no elements stored outside the table
- Avoids pointers altogether, instead of following pointers, the slots to be examined are ***computed***
- To insert a key into the hash table successively examine, or ***probe***, the hash table until an empty slot is found
- The sequence of positions probed *depends upon the key being inserted*

Open Addressing

- To determine which slots to probe, the hash function is extended to include the probe number (starting from 0) as a second input
- The extended hash function is:
$$h: U \times \{0, 1, \dots, m-1\} \rightarrow \{0, 1, \dots, m-1\}$$
- For every key k , the probe sequence
 $\langle h(k,0), h(k,1), \dots, h(k, m-1) \rangle$
will be a permutation of $\langle 0, 1, \dots, m-1 \rangle$
- Commonly used techniques to compute the probe sequences:
 - linear probing
 - quadratic probing
 - double hashing

Linear Probing

- Given an auxiliary hash function, $h' : U \rightarrow \{0, 1, \dots, m-1\}$, linear probing uses the hash function $h(k,i) = (h'(k) + i) \bmod m$, for $i = 0, 1, \dots, m-1$
- Given key k , linear probing works as follows:
 - first probe $T[h'(k)]$, i.e., the slot given by the auxiliary hash function
 - next probe slot $T[h'(k)+1]$, and so on up to slot $T[m-1]$
 - then wrap around to slots $T[0]$, $T[1]$, ... until we finally probe slot $T[h'(k)-1]$
- Disadvantage: primary clustering – long runs of occupied slots tend to get longer and the average search time increases

Quadratic Probing

- Uses a hash function of the form
$$h(k,i) = (h'(k) + c_1i + c_2i^2) \bmod m,$$
where h' is an auxiliary hash function, c_1 and c_2 are positive auxiliary constants, and $i=0,1,\dots,m-1$
- The initial position probed is $T[h'(k)]$, later positions probed are offset by amounts that depend in a quadratic manner on the probe number i
- As in linear probing, the initial probe determines the entire sequence, and so only m distinct probe sequences are used

Double hashing

- Uses a hash function of the form
$$h(k,i) = (h_1(k) + ih_2(k)) \bmod m,$$
where h_1 and h_2 are auxiliary hash functions
- Initial probe goes to position $T[h_1(k)]$ (since $i=0$)
- Successive probe positions are offset from previous positions by the amount $h_2(k) \bmod m$
- Unlike linear or quadratic probing, the probe sequence here depends in two ways upon the key k , since the initial probe position, the offset, or both, may vary

Exercise

Jan	Tim	Mia	Sam	Leo	Ted	Bea	Lou	Ada	Max	Zoe
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

Search Ada ?

Ada

Find Ada Ada = 8

myData = Array(8)

Mia	M	77	i	105	a	97	279	4
Tim	T	84	i	105	m	109	298	1
Bea	B	66	e	101	a	97	264	0
Zoe	Z	90	o	111	e	101	302	5
Jan	J	74	a	97	n	110	281	6
Ada	A	65	d	100	a	97	262	9
Leo	L	76	e	101	o	111	288	2
Sam	S	83	a	97	m	109	289	3
Lou	L	76	o	111	u	117	304	7
Max	M	77	a	97	x	120	294	8
Ted	T	84	e	101	d	100	285	10

Bea	Tim	Leo	Sam	Mia	Zoe	Jan	Lou	Max	Ada	Ted
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

Index number = $\text{sum ASCII codes} \text{ Mod } \text{size of array}$

Find Ada $\text{Ada} = (65 + 100 + 97) = 262$

Find Ada $262 \text{ Mod } 11 = 9$

`myData = Array(9)`

Bea	Tim	Leo	Sam	Mia	Zoe	Jan	Lou	Max	Ada	Ted
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

Hash Tables are used to store objects

Bea 27/01/1941 English Astronomer	Tim 08/06/1955 English Inventor	Leo 31/12/1945 American Mathematician	Sam 27/04/1791 American Inventor	Mia 20/02/1986 Russian Space Station	Zoe 19/06/1978 American Actress	Jan 13/02/1956 Polish Logician	Lou 27/12/1822 French Biologist	Max 23/04/1858 German Physicist	Ada 10/12/1815 English Mathematician	Ted 17/06/1937 American Philosopher
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

Open Addressing – Linear Probing

Mia	M	77	i	105	a	97	279	4
Tim	T	84	i	105	m	109	298	1
Bea	B	66	e	101	a	97	264	0
Zoe	Z	90	o	111	e	101	302	5
Sue	S	83	u	117	e	101	301	4
Len	L	76	e	101	n	110	287	1
Moe	M	77	o	111	e	101	289	3
Lou	L	76	o	111	u	117	304	7
Rae	R	82	a	97	e	101	280	5
Max	M	77	a	97	x	120	294	8
Tod	T	84	o	111	d	100	295	9

Bea	Tim	Len	Moe	Mia	Zoe	Sue	Lou	Rae	Max	Tod
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10



Find Rae $280 \text{ Mod } 11 = 5$

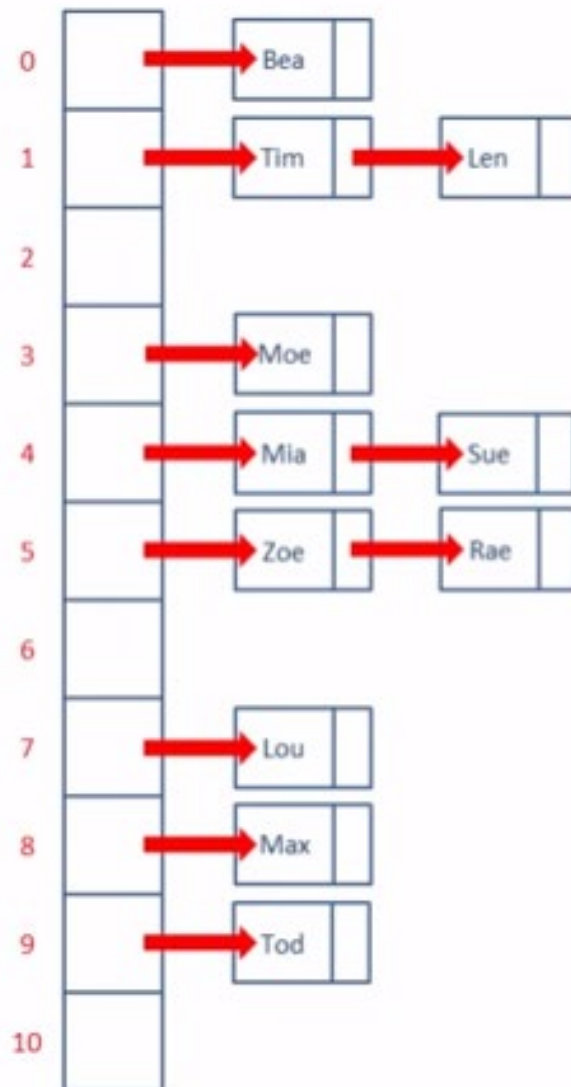
Rae

myData = Array(5)

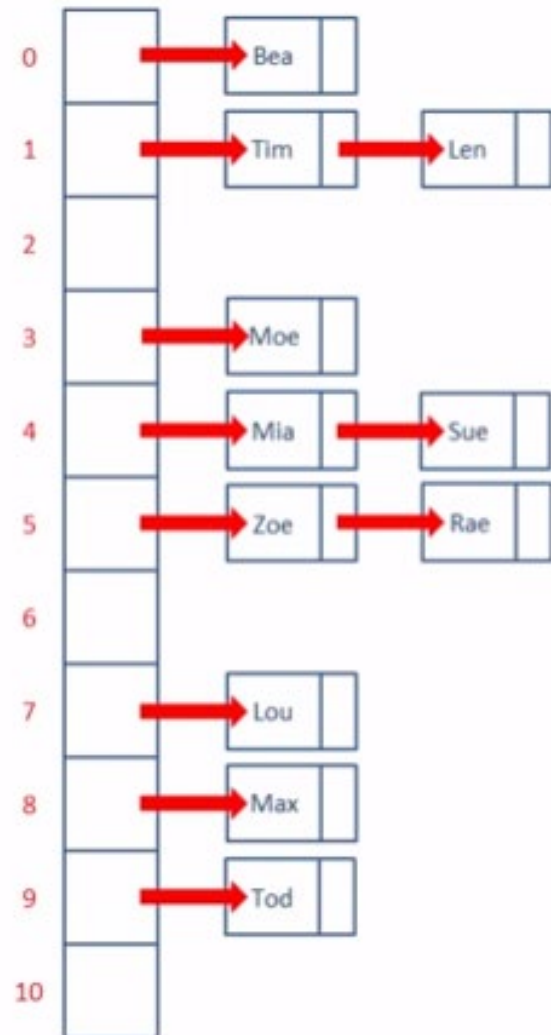
Bea	Tim	Len	Moe	Mia	Zoe	Sue	Lou	Rae	Max	Tod
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10



Chaining



Mia	M	77	i	105	a	97	279	4
Tim	T	84	i	105	m	109	298	1
Bea	B	66	e	101	a	97	264	0
Zoe	Z	90	o	111	e	101	302	5
Sue	S	83	u	117	e	101	301	4
Len	L	76	e	101	n	110	287	1
Moe	M	77	o	111	e	101	289	3
Lou	L	76	o	111	u	117	304	7
Rae	R	82	a	97	e	101	280	5
Max	M	77	a	97	x	120	294	8
Tod	T	84	o	111	d	100	295	9



Find Rae $280 \text{ Mod } 11 = 5$

`myData = Array(5)`

Rae

Exercise (Textbook 11.4-1)

- Consider inserting the keys 10, 22, 31, 4, 15, 28, 17, 88, 59 into a hash table of length $m = 11$ using open addressing with the primary hash function $h'(k) = k \bmod m$.
- Illustrate the result of inserting these keys using linear probing, using quadratic probing with $c_1 = 1$ and $c_2 = 3$, and using double hashing with $h_2(k) = 1 + (k \bmod (m - 1))$.

Linear Probing

- $h(k, i) = (k + i) \bmod 11$.

index	linear probing
0	22
1	88
2	
3	
4	4
5	15
6	28
7	17
8	59
9	31
10	10

10 $k = 10, i = 0, h(10, 0) = (10 + 0) \bmod 11 = 10$

22 $k = 22, i = 0, h(22, 0) = (22 + 0) \bmod 11 = 0$

31 $k = 31, i = 0, h(31, 0) = (31 + 0) \bmod 11 = 9$

4 $k = 4, i = 0, h(4, 0) = (4 + 0) \bmod 11 = 4$

15 $k = 15, i = 0, h(15, 0) = (15 + 0) \bmod 11 = 4$, collision!
 $k = 15, i = 1, h(15, 1) = (15 + 1) \bmod 11 = 5$

28 $k = 28, i = 0, h(28, 0) = (28 + 0) \bmod 11 = 6$

17 $k = 17, i = 0, h(17, 0) = (17 + 0) \bmod 11 = 6$, collision!
 $k = 17, i = 1, h(17, 1) = (17 + 1) \bmod 11 = 7$

88 $k = 88, i = 0, h(88, 0) = (88 + 0) \bmod 11 = 0$, collision!
 $k = 88, i = 1, h(88, 1) = (88 + 1) \bmod 11 = 1$

59 $k = 59, i = 0, h(59, 0) = (59 + 0) \bmod 11 = 4$, collision!
 $k = 59, i = 1, h(59, 1) = (59 + 1) \bmod 11 = 5$, collision!
 $k = 59, i = 2, h(59, 2) = (59 + 2) \bmod 11 = 6$, collision!
 $k = 59, i = 3, h(59, 3) = (59 + 3) \bmod 11 = 7$, collision!
 $k = 59, i = 4, h(59, 4) = (59 + 4) \bmod 11 = 8$

Quadratic Probing

$$h(k, i) = (k + i + 3i^2) \bmod 11.$$

index	quadratic probing
0	22
1	
2	88
3	17
4	4
5	
6	28
7	59
8	15
9	31
10	10

10 $k = 10, i = 0, h(10, 0) = (10 + 0 + 0) \bmod 11 = 10$

22 $k = 22, i = 0, h(22, 0) = (22 + 0 + 0) \bmod 11 = 0$

31 $k = 31, i = 0, h(31, 0) = (31 + 0 + 0) \bmod 11 = 9$

4 $k = 4, i = 0, h(4, 0) = (4 + 0 + 0) \bmod 11 = 4$

15 $k = 15, i = 0, h(15, 0) = (15 + 0 + 0) \bmod 11 = 4$, collision!

$k = 15, i = 1, h(15, 1) = (15 + 1 + 3) \bmod 11 = 8$

28 $k = 28, i = 0, h(28, 0) = (28 + 0 + 0) \bmod 11 = 6$

17 $k = 17, i = 0, h(17, 0) = (17 + 0 + 0) \bmod 11 = 6$, collision!

$k = 17, i = 1, h(17, 1) = (17 + 1 + 3) \bmod 11 = 10$, collision!

$k = 17, i = 2, h(17, 2) = (17 + 2 + 12) \bmod 11 = 9$, collision!

$k = 17, i = 3, h(17, 3) = (17 + 3 + 27) \bmod 11 = 3$

88 $k = 88, i = 0, h(88, 0) = (88 + 0 + 0) \bmod 11 = 0$, collision!

$k = 88, i = 1, h(88, 1) = (88 + 1 + 3) \bmod 11 = 4$, collision!

$k = 88, i = 2, h(88, 2) = (88 + 2 + 12) \bmod 11 = 3$, collision!

$k = 88, i = 3, h(88, 3) = (88 + 3 + 27) \bmod 11 = 8$, collision!

$k = 88, i = 4, h(88, 4) = (88 + 4 + 48) \bmod 11 = 8$, collision!

$k = 88, i = 5, h(88, 5) = (88 + 5 + 75) \bmod 11 = 3$, collision!

$k = 88, i = 6, h(88, 6) = (88 + 6 + 108) \bmod 11 = 4$, collision!

$k = 88, i = 7, h(88, 7) = (88 + 7 + 147) \bmod 11 = 0$, collision!

$k = 88, i = 8, h(88, 8) = (88 + 8 + 192) \bmod 11 = 2$

59 $k = 59, i = 0, h(59, 0) = (59 + 0 + 0) \bmod 11 = 4$, collision!

$k = 59, i = 1, h(59, 1) = (59 + 1 + 3) \bmod 11 = 8$, collision!

$k = 59, i = 2, h(59, 2) = (59 + 2 + 12) \bmod 11 = 7$

Double hashing

$$h(k, i) = (k + i(1 + (k \bmod 10))) \bmod 11.$$

index	double hashing
0	22
1	
2	59
3	17
4	4
5	15
6	28
7	88
8	
9	31
10	10

10 $k = 10, i = 0, h(10, 0) = 10$

22 $k = 22, i = 0, h(22, 0) = 0$

31 $k = 31, i = 0, h(31, 0) = 9$

4 $k = 4, i = 0, h(4, 0) = 4$

15 $k = 15, i = 0, h(15, 0) = 4$, collision!

$k = 15, i = 1, h(15, 1) = 10$, collision!

$k = 15, i = 2, h(15, 2) = 5$

28 $k = 28, i = 0, h(28, 0) = 6$

17 $k = 17, i = 0, h(17, 0) = 6$, collision!

$k = 17, i = 1, h(17, 1) = 3$

88 $k = 88, i = 0, h(88, 0) = 0$, collision!

$k = 88, i = 1, h(88, 1) = 9$, collision!

$k = 88, i = 2, h(88, 2) = 7$

59 $k = 59, i = 0, h(59, 0) = 4$, collision!

$k = 59, i = 1, h(59, 1) = 3$, collision!

$k = 59, i = 2, h(59, 2) = 2$