7 Dictionary

Dictionary:

- ▶ $S.\textbf{insert}(x)$: Insert an element x.
- ▶ $S.\textbf{delete}(x)$: Delete the element pointed to by x.
- ▶ $S.\textbf{search}(k)$: Return a pointer to an element e with $\text{key}[e] = k$ in S if it exists; otherwise return null.

7.1 Binary Search Trees

An (internal) binary search tree stores the elements in a binary tree. Each tree-node corresponds to an element. All elements in the left sub-tree of a node v have a smaller key-value than $\text{key}[v]$ and elements in the right sub-tree have a larger-key value. We assume that all key-values are different.

(External Search Trees store objects only at leaf-vertices)
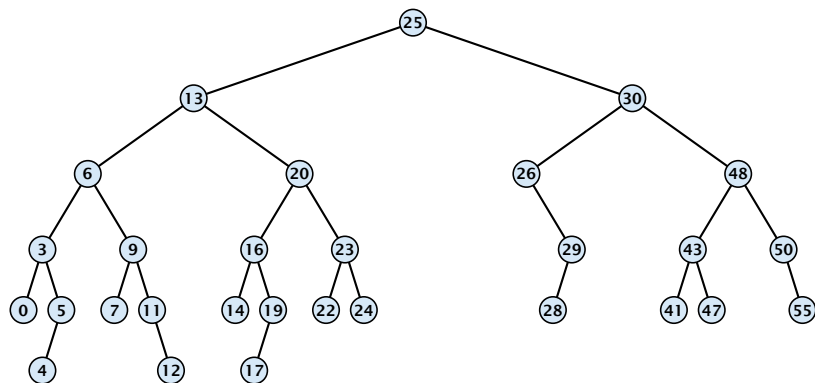
Examples:
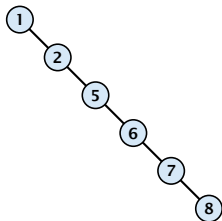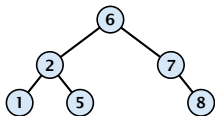
7.1 Binary Search Trees

We consider the following operations on binary search trees. Note that this is a super-set of the dictionary-operations.

- ▶ $T.\,\text{insert}(x)$
- ▶ $T.\,\text{delete}(x)$
- ▶ $T.\,\text{search}(k)$
- ▶ $T.\,\text{successor}(x)$
- ▶ $T.\,\text{predecessor}(x)$
- ▶ $T.\,\text{minimum}()$
- ▶ $T.\,\text{maximum}()$
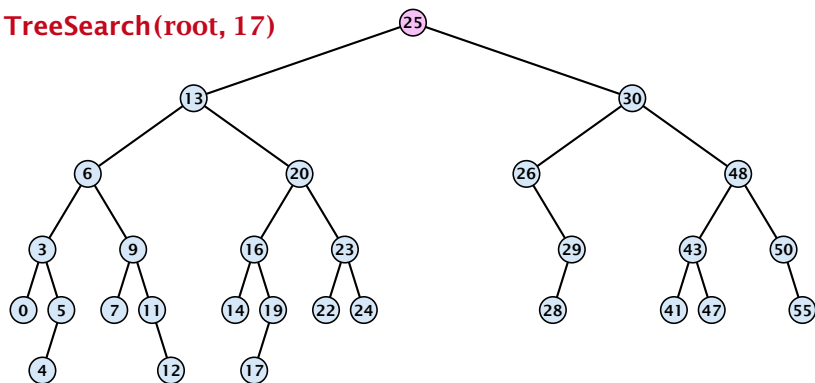
Binary Search Trees: Searching

Algorithm 1 TreeSearch(x, k)

1: **if** x = null **or** k = key[x] **return** x
2: **if** k < key[x] **return** TreeSearch(left[x], k)
3: **else return** TreeSearch(right[x], k)

Binary Search Trees: Searching

TreeSearch(root, 17)

Algorithm 1 TreeSearch(x, k)
1: **if** $x =$ null **or** $k =$ key[x] **return** x
2: **if** $k <$ key[x] **return** TreeSearch(left[x], k)
3: **else return** TreeSearch(right[x], k)

Binary Search Trees: Searching
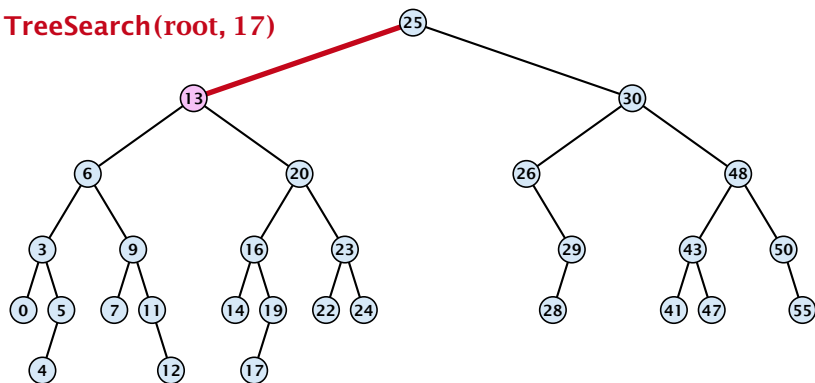

TreeSearch(root, 17)

Algorithm 1 TreeSearch(x, k)
1: **if** x = null **or** k = key[x] **return** x
2: **if** $k <$ key[x] **return** TreeSearch(left[x], k)
3: **else return** TreeSearch(right[x], k)

Binary Search Trees: Searching

Algorithm 1 TreeSearch(x, k)
1: **if** $x = $ null **or** $k = $ key$[x]$ **return** x
2: **if** $k < $ key$[x]$ **return** TreeSearch(left$[x], k$)
3: **else return** TreeSearch(right$[x], k$)
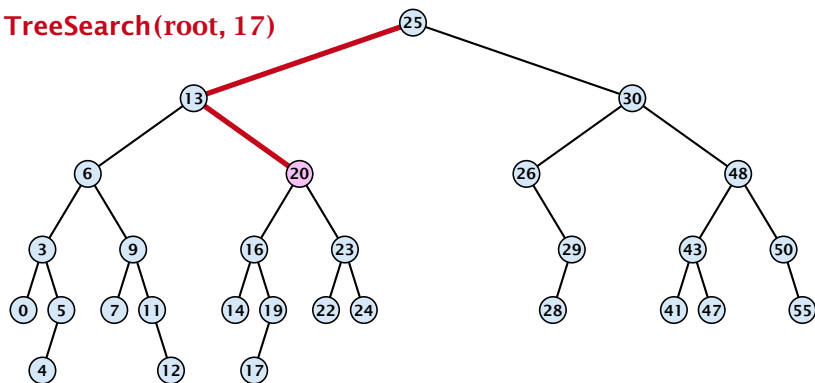
Binary Search Trees: Searching

TreeSearch(root, 17)

Algorithm 1 TreeSearch(x, k)
1: **if** $x = $ null **or** $k = $ key[x] **return** x
2: **if** $k < $ key[x] **return** TreeSearch(left[x], k)
3: **else return** TreeSearch(right[x], k)

Binary Search Trees: Searching

TreeSearch(root, 17)

Algorithm 1 TreeSearch(x, k)

1: **if** x = null **or** k = key[x] **return** x
2: **if** $k <$ key[x] **return** TreeSearch(left[x], k)
3: **else return** TreeSearch(right[x], k)

Binary Search Trees: Searching
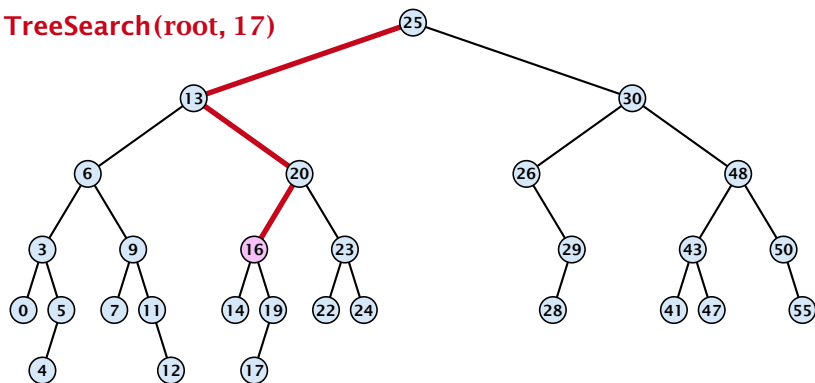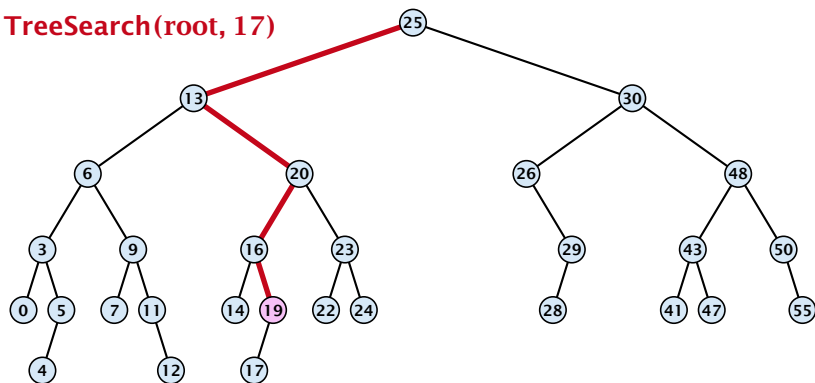

TreeSearch(root, 17)

Algorithm 1 TreeSearch(x, k)

1: **if** $x = $ null **or** $k = $ key$[x]$ **return** x
2: **if** $k < $ key$[x]$ **return** TreeSearch(left$[x], k$)
3: **else return** TreeSearch(right$[x], k$)

Binary Search Trees: Searching

Algorithm 1 TreeSearch(x, k)

1: **if** x = null **or** k = key[x] **return** x
2: **if** k < key[x] **return** TreeSearch(left[x], k)
3: **else return** TreeSearch(right[x], k)

Binary Search Trees: Searching
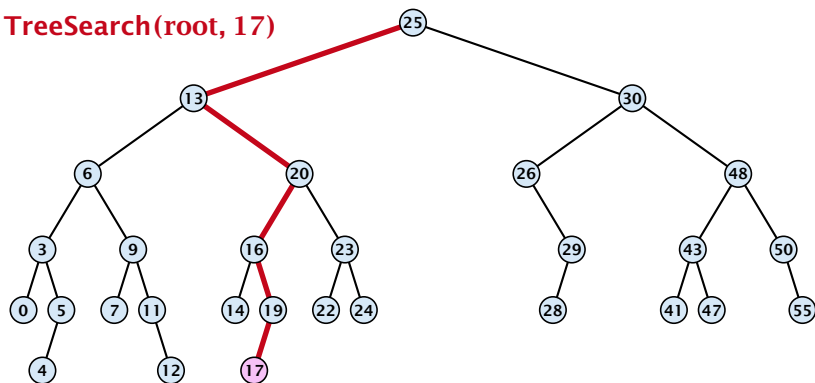
TreeSearch(root, 8)

Algorithm 1 TreeSearch(x, k)
1: **if** x = null **or** k = key[x] **return** x
2: **if** k < key[x] **return** TreeSearch(left[x], k)
3: **else return** TreeSearch(right[x], k)

Binary Search Trees: Searching

TreeSearch(root, 8)

Algorithm 1 TreeSearch(x, k)
1: **if** $x =$ null **or** $k = $ key$[x]$ **return** x
2: **if** $k < $ key$[x]$ **return** TreeSearch(left$[x], k)$
3: **else return** TreeSearch(right$[x], k)$
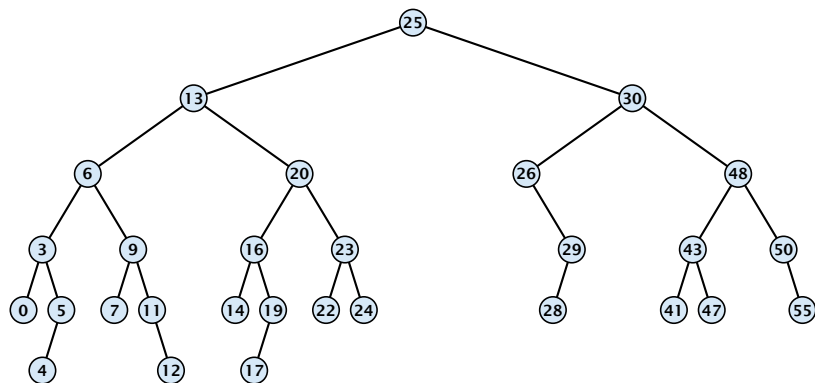
Binary Search Trees: Searching

TreeSearch(root, 8)

Algorithm 1 TreeSearch(x, k)
1: **if** x = null **or** k = key[x] **return** x
2: **if** $k <$ key[x] **return** TreeSearch(left[x], k)
3: **else return** TreeSearch(right[x], k)
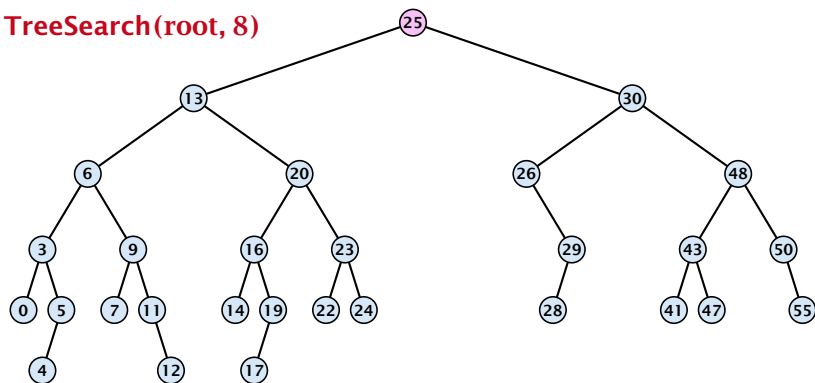
Binary Search Trees: Searching
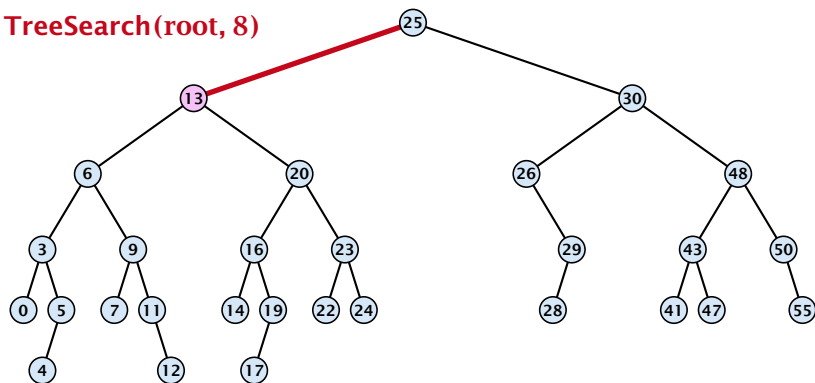

TreeSearch(root, 8)

Algorithm 1 TreeSearch(x, k)
1: **if** $x = $ null **or** $k = $ key$[x]$ **return** x
2: **if** $k < $ key$[x]$ **return** TreeSearch(left$[x], k$)
3: **else return** TreeSearch(right$[x], k$)

Binary Search Trees: Searching

Algorithm 1 TreeSearch(x, k)

1: **if** $x = $ null **or** $k = $ key[x] **return** x
2: **if** $k < $ key[x] **return** TreeSearch(left[x], k)
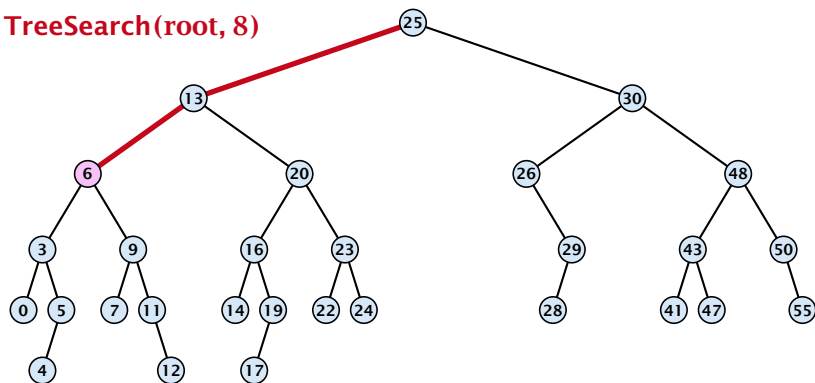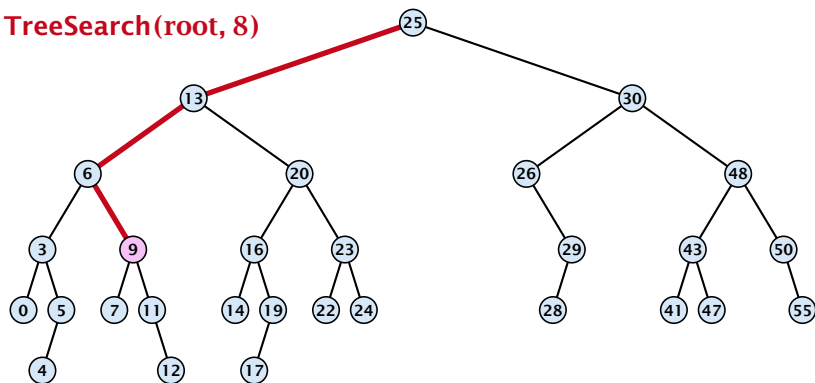3: **else return** TreeSearch(right[x], k)

Binary Search Trees: Searching

Algorithm 1 TreeSearch(x, k)
1: **if** x = null **or** k = key[x] **return** x
2: **if** k < key[x] **return** TreeSearch(left[x], k)
3: **else return** TreeSearch(right[x], k)

Binary Search Trees: Minimum

Algorithm 2 TreeMin(x)

1: **if** x = null **or** left[x] = null **return** x
2: **return** TreeMin(left[x])

Binary Search Trees: Minimum

Algorithm 2 TreeMin(x)

1: **if** x = null **or** left[x] = null **return** x
2: **return** TreeMin(left[x])

Binary Search Trees: Minimum

Algorithm 2 TreeMin(x)

1: **if** x = null **or** left[x] = null **return** x

2: **return** TreeMin(left[x])

Binary Search Trees: Minimum

Algorithm 2 TreeMin(x)

1: **if** x = null **or** left[x] = null **return** x
2: **return** TreeMin(left[x])

Binary Search Trees: Minimum

Algorithm 2 TreeMin(x)

1: **if** x = null **or** left[x] = null **return** x
2: **return** TreeMin(left[x])

Binary Search Trees: Minimum

Algorithm 2 TreeMin(x)

1: **if** x = null **or** left[x] = null **return** x

2: **return** TreeMin(left[x])

Binary Search Trees: Successor

Algorithm 3 TreeSucc(x)

1: **if** right[x] $\neq$ null **return** TreeMin(right[x])
2: $y \leftarrow$ parent[x]
3: **while** $y \neq$ null **and** $x =$ right[y] **do**
4:     $x \leftarrow y; y \leftarrow$ parent[x]
5: **return** y;

Binary Search Trees: Successor

Algorithm 3 TreeSucc(x)

1: **if** right[x] ≠ null **return** TreeMin(right[x])
2: $y \leftarrow$ parent[x]
3: **while** y ≠ null **and** $x =$ right[y] **do**
4:     $x \leftarrow y; y \leftarrow$ parent[x]
5: **return** y;

Binary Search Trees: Successor

Algorithm 3 TreeSucc(x)
1: **if** right[x] $\neq$ null **return** TreeMin(right[x])
2: $y \leftarrow$ parent[x]
3: **while** $y \neq$ null **and** x = right[y] **do**
4: $\quad$ $x \leftarrow y; y \leftarrow$ parent[x]
5: **return** y;

Binary Search Trees: Successor

Algorithm 3 TreeSucc(x)

1: **if** right[x] $\neq$ null **return** TreeMin(right[x])
2: $y \leftarrow$ parent[x]
3: **while** $y \neq$ null **and** $x =$ right[y] **do**
4: $\qquad x \leftarrow y; y \leftarrow$ parent[x]
5: **return** y;

Binary Search Trees: Successor

Algorithm 3 TreeSucc(x)
1: **if** right[x] $\neq$ null **return** TreeMin(right[x])
2: $y \leftarrow$ parent[x]
3: **while** $y \neq$ null **and** $x =$ right[y] **do**
4:     $x \leftarrow y; y \leftarrow$ parent[x]
5: **return** y;

Binary Search Trees: Successor

Algorithm 3 TreeSucc(x)

1: **if** right[x] ≠ null **return** TreeMin(right[x])
2: $y \leftarrow$ parent[x]
3: **while** $y \neq$ null **and** $x =$ right[y] **do**
4: $\quad x \leftarrow y; y \leftarrow$ parent[x]
5: **return** y;

Binary Search Trees: Successor

Algorithm 3 TreeSucc(x)

1: **if** right[x] ≠ null **return** TreeMin(right[x])
2: $y \leftarrow$ parent[x]
3: **while** $y \neq$ null **and** $x =$ right[y] **do**
4: $\quad x \leftarrow y; y \leftarrow$ parent[x]
5: **return** y;

Binary Search Trees: Insert

Algorithm 4 TreeInsert(x, z)

1: **if** x = null **then**
2:      root[T] ← z; parent[z] ← null;
3:      **return**;
4: **if** key[x] > key[z] **then**
5:      **if** left[x] = null **then**
6:          left[x] ← z; parent[z] ← x;
7:      **else** TreeInsert(left[x], z);
8: **else**
9:      **if** right[x] = null **then**
10:         right[x] ← z; parent[z] ← x;
11:     **else** TreeInsert(right[x], z);

Binary Search Trees: Insert

Insert element **not** in the tree.

Algorithm 4 TreeInsert(x, z)

1: **if** x = null **then**
2:      root$[T] \leftarrow z$; parent$[z] \leftarrow$ null;
3:      **return**;
4: **if** key$[x] >$ key$[z]$ **then**
5:      **if** left$[x]$ = null **then**
6:          left$[x] \leftarrow z$; parent$[z] \leftarrow x$;
7:      **else** TreeInsert(left$[x], z$);
8: **else**
9:      **if** right$[x]$ = null **then**
10:          right$[x] \leftarrow z$; parent$[z] \leftarrow x$;
11:      **else** TreeInsert(right$[x], z$);

Binary Search Trees: Insert

Insert element **not** in the tree.

Search for z. At some point the search stops at a null-pointer. This is the place to insert z.

Algorithm 4 TreeInsert(x, z)

1: **if** x = null **then**
2:      root$[T] \leftarrow z$; parent$[z] \leftarrow$ null;
3:      **return**;
4: **if** key$[x] >$ key$[z]$ **then**
5:      **if** left$[x]$ = null **then**
6:          left$[x] \leftarrow z$; parent$[z] \leftarrow x$;
7:      **else** TreeInsert(left$[x], z$);
8: **else**
9:      **if** right$[x]$ = null **then**
10:         right$[x] \leftarrow z$; parent$[z] \leftarrow x$;
11:      **else** TreeInsert(right$[x], z$);

Binary Search Trees: Insert

Insert element **not** in the tree.

TreeInsert(root, 20)

Search for z. At some point the search stops at a null-pointer. This is the place to insert z.

Algorithm 4 TreeInsert(x, z)

1: **if** x = null **then**
2:      root[T] ← z; parent[z] ← null;
3:      **return**;
4: **if** key[x] > key[z] **then**
5:          **if** left[x] = null **then**
6:              left[x] ← z; parent[z] ← x;
7:          **else** TreeInsert(left[x], z);
8: **else**
9:          **if** right[x] = null **then**
10:             right[x] ← z; parent[z] ← x;
11:         **else** TreeInsert(right[x], z);

Binary Search Trees: Insert

Insert element **not** in the tree.

TreeInsert(root, 20)

Search for z. At some point the search stops at a null-pointer. This is the place to insert z.

Algorithm 4 TreeInsert(x, z)

1: **if** x = null **then**
2:      root[T] ← z; parent[z] ← null;
3:      **return**;
4: **if** key[x] > key[z] **then**
5:      **if** left[x] = null **then**
6:          left[x] ← z; parent[z] ← x;
7:      **else** TreeInsert(left[x], z);
8: **else**
9:      **if** right[x] = null **then**
10:       right[x] ← z; parent[z] ← x;
11:      **else** TreeInsert(right[x], z);

Binary Search Trees: Insert

Insert element **not** in the tree.

TreeInsert(root, 20)

Search for z. At some point the search stops at a null-pointer. This is the place to insert z.

Algorithm 4 TreeInsert(x, z)

1: **if** x = null **then**
2:      root[T] ← z; parent[z] ← null;
3:      **return**;
4: **if** key[x] > key[z] **then**
5:      **if** left[x] = null **then**
6:         left[x] ← z; parent[z] ← x;
7:      **else** TreeInsert(left[x], z);
8: **else**
9:      **if** right[x] = null **then**
10:        right[x] ← z; parent[z] ← x;
11:      **else** TreeInsert(right[x], z);

Binary Search Trees: Insert

Insert element **not** in the tree.

TreeInsert(root, 20)

Search for z. At some point the search stops at a null-pointer. This is the place to insert z.

Algorithm 4 TreeInsert(x, z)

1: **if** x = null **then**
2:       root[T] ← z; parent[z] ← null;
3:       **return**;
4: **if** key[x] > key[z] **then**
5:       **if** left[x] = null **then**
6:           left[x] ← z; parent[z] ← x;
7:       **else** TreeInsert(left[x], z);
8: **else**
9:       **if** right[x] = null **then**
10:         right[x] ← z; parent[z] ← x;
11:       **else** TreeInsert(right[x], z);

Binary Search Trees: Insert

Insert element **not** in the tree.

TreeInsert(root, 20)

Search for z. At some point the search stops at a null-pointer. This is the place to insert z.

Algorithm 4 TreeInsert(x, z)

1: **if** x = null **then**
2:      root[T] ← z; parent[z] ← null;
3:      **return**;
4: **if** key[x] > key[z] **then**
5:      **if** left[x] = null **then**
6:          left[x] ← z; parent[z] ← x;
7:      **else** TreeInsert(left[x], z);
8: **else**
9:      **if** right[x] = null **then**
10:         right[x] ← z; parent[z] ← x;
11:     **else** TreeInsert(right[x], z);

Binary Search Trees: Insert

Insert element **not** in the tree.

TreeInsert(root, 20)

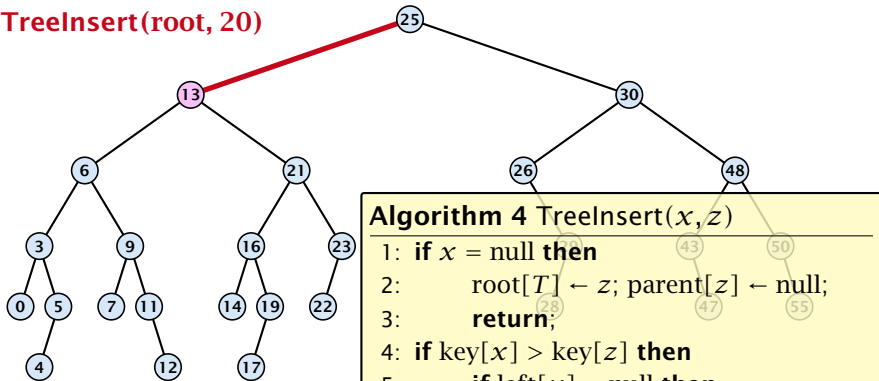Search for z. At some point the search stops at a null-pointer. This is the place to insert z.

Algorithm 4 TreeInsert(x, z)

1: **if** x = null **then**
2:     root[T] ← z; parent[z] ← null;
3:     **return**;
4: **if** key[x] > key[z] **then**
5:     **if** left[x] = null **then**
6:         left[x] ← z; parent[z] ← x;
7:     **else** TreeInsert(left[x], z);
8: **else**
9:     **if** right[x] = null **then**
10:        right[x] ← z; parent[z] ← x;
11:     **else** TreeInsert(right[x], z);

Binary Search Trees: Delete

Binary Search Trees: Delete

Case 1:

Element does not have any children

▶ Simply go to the parent and set the corresponding pointer to null.

Binary Search Trees: Delete

Case 1:

Element does not have any children

▶ Simply go to the parent and set the corresponding pointer to null.

Binary Search Trees: Delete

Case 1:
Element does not have any children

▶ Simply go to the parent and set the corresponding pointer to null.

Binary Search Trees: Delete

Case 2:

Element has exactly one child

▶ Splice the element out of the tree by connecting its parent to
  its successor.

Binary Search Trees: Delete

Case 2:

Element has exactly one child

▶ Splice the element out of the tree by connecting its parent to its successor.

Binary Search Trees: Delete

Case 2:

Element has exactly one child

▶ Splice the element out of the tree by connecting its parent to its successor.

Binary Search Trees: Delete

Case 3:

Element has two children

- ▶ Find the successor of the element
- ▶ Splice successor out of the tree
- ▶ Replace content of element by content of successor

Binary Search Trees: Delete

Case 3:

Element has two children

- ▶ Find the successor of the element
- ▶ Splice successor out of the tree
- ▶ Replace content of element by content of successor

Binary Search Trees: Delete

Case 3:

Element has two children

- ▶ Find the successor of the element
- ▶ Splice successor out of the tree
- ▶ Replace content of element by content of successor

Binary Search Trees: Delete

Case 3:

Element has two children

▶ Find the successor of the element

▶ Splice successor out of the tree

▶ Replace content of element by content of successor

Binary Search Trees: Delete

Case 3:

Element has two children

- ▶ Find the successor of the element
- ▶ Splice successor out of the tree
- ▶ Replace content of element by content of successor

Binary Search Trees: Delete

Case 3:

Element has two children

- ▶ Find the successor of the element
- ▶ Splice successor out of the tree
- ▶ Replace content of element by content of successor

Binary Search Trees: Delete

Algorithm 9 TreeDelete(z)

1: **if** left[z] = null **or** right[z] = null
2:     **then** $y \leftarrow z$ **else** $y \leftarrow$ TreeSucc(z);   select y to splice out
3: **if** left[y] $\neq$ null
4:     **then** $x \leftarrow$ left[y] **else** $x \leftarrow$ right[y]; x is child of y (or null)
5: **if** $x \neq$ null **then** parent[x] $\leftarrow$ parent[y];   parent[x] is correct
6: **if** parent[y] = null **then**
7:     root[T] $\leftarrow$ x
8: **else**
9:     **if** y = left[parent[y]] **then**
10:         left[parent[y]] $\leftarrow$ x
11:     **else**
12:         right[parent[y]] $\leftarrow$ x
13: **if** $y \neq z$ **then** copy y-data to z

fix pointer to x

Balanced Binary Search Trees

Balanced Binary Search Trees

All operations on a binary search tree can be performed in time $\mathcal{O}(h)$, where h denotes the height of the tree.

Balanced Binary Search Trees

All operations on a binary search tree can be performed in time $\mathcal{O}(h)$, where h denotes the height of the tree.

However the height of the tree may become as large as $\Theta(n)$.

Balanced Binary Search Trees

All operations on a binary search tree can be performed in time $\mathcal{O}(h)$, where h denotes the height of the tree.

However the height of the tree may become as large as $\Theta(n)$.

Balanced Binary Search Trees
With each insert- and delete-operation perform local adjustments to guarantee a height of $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$.

Balanced Binary Search Trees

All operations on a binary search tree can be performed in time $\mathcal{O}(h)$, where h denotes the height of the tree.

However the height of the tree may become as large as $\Theta(n)$.

Balanced Binary Search Trees
With each insert- and delete-operation perform local adjustments to guarantee a height of $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$.

AVL-trees, Red-black trees, Scapegoat trees, 2-3 trees, B-trees, AA trees, Treaps

similar: SPLAY trees.

7.2 Red Black Trees

Definition 1

A red black tree is a balanced binary search tree in which each internal node has two children. Each internal node has a color, such that

7.2 Red Black Trees

Definition 1

A red black tree is a balanced binary search tree in which each internal node has two children. Each internal node has a color, such that

1. The root is black.

7.2 Red Black Trees

Definition 1

A red black tree is a balanced binary search tree in which each internal node has two children. Each internal node has a color, such that

1. The root is black.
2. All leaf nodes are black.

7.2 Red Black Trees

Definition 1

A red black tree is a balanced binary search tree in which each internal node has two children. Each internal node has a color, such that

1. The root is black.
2. All leaf nodes are black.
3. For each node, all paths to descendant leaves contain the same number of black nodes.

7.2 Red Black Trees

Definition 1

A red black tree is a balanced binary search tree in which each internal node has two children. Each internal node has a color, such that

1. The root is black.
2. All leaf nodes are black.
3. For each node, all paths to descendant leaves contain the same number of black nodes.
4. If a node is red then both its children are black.

7.2 Red Black Trees

Definition 1

A red black tree is a balanced binary search tree in which each internal node has two children. Each internal node has a color, such that

1. The root is black.

2. All leaf nodes are black.

3. For each node, all paths to descendant leaves contain the same number of black nodes.

4. If a node is red then both its children are black.

The null-pointers in a binary search tree are replaced by pointers to special null-vertices, that do not carry any object-data

Red Black Trees: Example
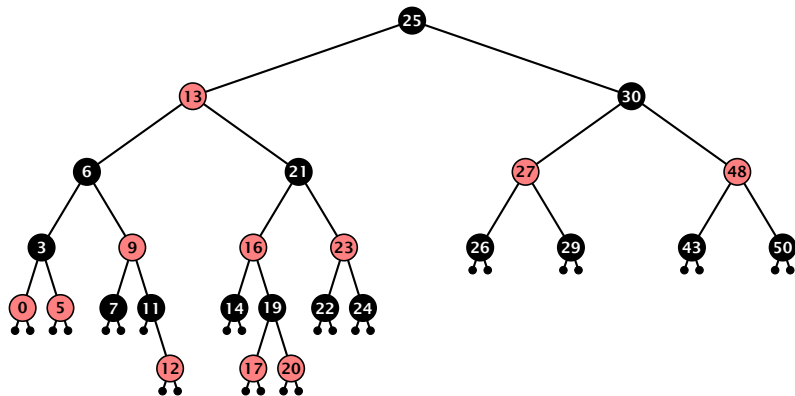
7.2 Red Black Trees

Lemma 2

A red-black tree with n internal nodes has height at most $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$.

7.2 Red Black Trees

Lemma 2

A red-black tree with n internal nodes has height at most $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$.

Definition 3

The black height $\mathrm{bh}(v)$ of a node v in a red black tree is the number of black nodes on a path from v to a leaf vertex (not counting v).

7.2 Red Black Trees

Lemma 2

A red-black tree with n internal nodes has height at most $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$.

Definition 3

The black height $\mathrm{bh}(v)$ of a node v in a red black tree is the number of black nodes on a path from v to a leaf vertex (not counting v).

We first show:

Lemma 4

A sub-tree of black height $\mathrm{bh}(v)$ in a red black tree contains at least $2^{\mathrm{bh}(v)} - 1$ internal vertices.

7.2 Red Black Trees

Proof of Lemma 4.

7.2 Red Black Trees

Proof of Lemma 4.

Induction on the height of v.

7.2 Red Black Trees

Proof of Lemma 4.

Induction on the height of v.

base case ($\text{height}(v) = 0$)

▶ If $\text{height}(v)$ (maximum distance btw. v and a node in the sub-tree rooted at v) is 0 then v is a leaf.

7.2 Red Black Trees

Proof of Lemma 4.

Induction on the height of v.

base case ($\text{height}(v) = 0$)

▶ If $\text{height}(v)$ (maximum distance btw. v and a node in the sub-tree rooted at v) is 0 then v is a leaf.

▶ The black height of v is 0.

7.2 Red Black Trees

Proof of Lemma 4.

Induction on the height of v.

base case ($\text{height}(v) = 0$)

- ▶ If $\text{height}(v)$ (maximum distance btw. v and a node in the sub-tree rooted at v) is 0 then v is a leaf.
- ▶ The black height of v is 0.
- ▶ The sub-tree rooted at v contains $0 = 2^{\text{bh}(v)} - 1$ inner vertices.

7.2 Red Black Trees

Proof (cont.)

7.2 Red Black Trees

Proof (cont.)

induction step

► Supose v is a node with $\text{height}(v) > 0$.

7.2 Red Black Trees

Proof (cont.)

induction step

- ▶ Supose v is a node with $\mathrm{height}(v) > 0$.
- ▶ v has two children with strictly smaller height.

7.2 Red Black Trees

Proof (cont.)

induction step

- ▶ Supose v is a node with $\mathrm{height}(v) > 0$.
- ▶ v has two children with strictly smaller height.
- ▶ These children (c_1, c_2) either have $\mathrm{bh}(c_i) = \mathrm{bh}(v)$ or $\mathrm{bh}(c_i) = \mathrm{bh}(v) - 1$.

7.2 Red Black Trees

Proof (cont.)

induction step

▶ Supose v is a node with $\text{height}(v) > 0$.

▶ v has two children with strictly smaller height.

▶ These children (c_1, c_2) either have $\text{bh}(c_i) = \text{bh}(v)$ or $\text{bh}(c_i) = \text{bh}(v) - 1$.

▶ By induction hypothesis both sub-trees contain at least $2^{\text{bh}(v)-1} - 1$ internal vertices.

7.2 Red Black Trees

Proof (cont.)

induction step

▶ Supose v is a node with $\text{height}(v) > 0$.

▶ v has two children with strictly smaller height.

▶ These children (c_1, c_2) either have $\text{bh}(c_i) = \text{bh}(v)$ or $\text{bh}(c_i) = \text{bh}(v) - 1$.

▶ By induction hypothesis both sub-trees contain at least $2^{\text{bh}(v)-1} - 1$ internal vertices.

▶ Then T_v contains at least $2(2^{\text{bh}(v)-1} - 1) + 1 \geq 2^{\text{bh}(v)} - 1$ vertices.

☐

Proof of Lemma 2.

7.2 Red Black Trees

Proof of Lemma 2.

Let h denote the height of the red-black tree, and let P denote a path from the root to the furthest leaf.

7.2 Red Black Trees

Proof of Lemma 2.

Let h denote the height of the red-black tree, and let P denote a path from the root to the furthest leaf.

At least half of the node on P must be black, since a red node must be followed by a black node.

7.2 Red Black Trees

Proof of Lemma 2.

Let h denote the height of the red-black tree, and let P denote a path from the root to the furthest leaf.

At least half of the node on P must be black, since a red node must be followed by a black node.

Hence, the black height of the root is at least $h/2$.

7.2 Red Black Trees

Proof of Lemma 2.

Let h denote the height of the red-black tree, and let P denote a path from the root to the furthest leaf.

At least half of the node on P must be black, since a red node must be followed by a black node.

Hence, the black height of the root is at least $h/2$.

The tree contains at least $2^{h/2} - 1$ internal vertices. Hence, $2^{h/2} - 1 \leq n$.

7.2 Red Black Trees

Proof of Lemma 2.

Let h denote the height of the red-black tree, and let P denote a path from the root to the furthest leaf.

At least half of the node on P must be black, since a red node must be followed by a black node.

Hence, the black height of the root is at least $h/2$.

The tree contains at least $2^{h/2} - 1$ internal vertices. Hence, $2^{h/2} - 1 \le n$.

Hence, $h \le 2 \log(n+1) = \mathcal{O}(\log n)$. ☐

7.2 Red Black Trees

Definition 1

A red black tree is a balanced binary search tree in which each internal node has two children. Each internal node has a color, such that

1. The root is black.
2. All leaf nodes are black.
3. For each node, all paths to descendant leaves contain the same number of black nodes.
4. If a node is red then both its children are black.

The null-pointers in a binary search tree are replaced by pointers to special null-vertices, that do not carry any object-data.

7.2 Red Black Trees

We need to adapt the insert and delete operations so that the red black properties are maintained.

Rotations

The properties will be maintained through rotations:

LeftRotate(x)

RightRotate(z)

Red Black Trees: Insert

Insert:

▶ first make a normal insert into a binary search tree

▶ then fix red-black properties

Red Black Trees: Insert

RB-Insert(root, 18)

Insert:

▶ first make a normal insert into a binary search tree

▶ then fix red-black properties

Red Black Trees: Insert

RB-Insert(root, 18)

Insert:

▶ first make a normal insert into a binary search tree
▶ then fix red-black properties

Red Black Trees: Insert

Insert:

▶ first make a normal insert into a binary search tree

▶ then fix red-black properties

Red Black Trees: Insert

Insert:

▶ first make a normal insert into a binary search tree

▶ then fix red-black properties

Red Black Trees: Insert

RB-Insert(root, 18)

Insert:

▶ first make a normal insert into a binary search tree

▶ then fix red-black properties

Red Black Trees: Insert

RB-Insert(root, 18)

Insert:

▶ first make a normal insert into a binary search tree

▶ then fix red-black properties

Red Black Trees: Insert

RB-Insert(root, 18)

Insert:

- ▶ first make a normal insert into a binary search tree
- ▶ then fix red-black properties

Red Black Trees: Insert

Insert:

▶ first make a normal insert into a binary search tree

▶ then fix red-black properties

Red Black Trees: Insert

Invariant of the fix-up algorithm:

▶ z is a red node

Red Black Trees: Insert

Invariant of the fix-up algorithm:

▶ z is a red node

▶ the black-height property is fulfilled at every node

Red Black Trees: Insert

Invariant of the fix-up algorithm:

▶ z is a red node

▶ the black-height property is fulfilled at every node

▶ the only violation of red-black properties occurs at z and $\mathrm{parent}[z]$

Red Black Trees: Insert

Invariant of the fix-up algorithm:

▶ z is a red node

▶ the black-height property is fulfilled at every node

▶ the only violation of red-black properties occurs at z and parent[z]

  ▶ either both of them are red
    (most important case)

Red Black Trees: Insert

Invariant of the fix-up algorithm:

▶ z is a red node

▶ the black-height property is fulfilled at every node

▶ the only violation of red-black properties occurs at z and parent$[z]$

    ▶ either both of them are red
       (most important case)

    ▶ or the parent does not exist
       (violation since root must be black)

Red Black Trees: Insert

Invariant of the fix-up algorithm:

- ▶ z is a red node
- ▶ the black-height property is fulfilled at every node
- ▶ the only violation of red-black properties occurs at z and parent[z]
  - ▶ either both of them are red (most important case)
  - ▶ or the parent does not exist (violation since root must be black)

If z has a parent but no grand-parent we could simply color the parent/root black; however this case never happens.

Red Black Trees: Insert

Algorithm 10 InsertFix(z)
1: **while** parent[z] $\neq$ null **and** col[parent[z]] = red **do**
2: **if** parent[z] = left[gp[z]] **then**
3:    *uncle* $\leftarrow$ right[grandparent[z]]
4:    **if** col[*uncle*] = red **then**
5:      col[p[z]] $\leftarrow$ black; col[u] $\leftarrow$ black;
6:      col[gp[z]] $\leftarrow$ red; $z \leftarrow$ grandparent[z];
7:    **else**
8:      **if** z = right[parent[z]] **then**
9:        $z \leftarrow$ p[z]; LeftRotate(z);
10:     col[p[z]] $\leftarrow$ black; col[gp[z]] $\leftarrow$ red;
11:     RightRotate(gp[z]);
12: **else** same as then-clause but right and left exchanged
13: col(root[T]) $\leftarrow$ black;

Red Black Trees: Insert

Algorithm 10 InsertFix(z)
1: **while** parent[z] ≠ null **and** col[parent[z]] = red **do**
2:     **if** parent[z] = left[gp[z]] **then**   *z in left subtree of grandparent*
3:         *uncle* ← right[grandparent[z]]
4:         **if** col[*uncle*] = red **then**
5:             col[p[z]] ← black; col[u] ← black;
6:             col[gp[z]] ← red; z ← grandparent[z];
7:         **else**
8:             **if** z = right[parent[z]] **then**
9:                 z ← p[z]; LeftRotate(z);
10:             col[p[z]] ← black; col[gp[z]] ← red;
11:             RightRotate(gp[z]);
12:     **else** same as then-clause but right and left exchanged
13: col(root[T]) ← black;

Red Black Trees: Insert

Algorithm 10 InsertFix(z)
1: **while** parent[z] $\neq$ null **and** col[parent[z]] = red **do**
2:     **if** parent[z] = left[gp[z]] **then**
3:         *uncle* $\leftarrow$ right[grandparent[z]]
4:         **if** col[*uncle*] = red **then**   Case 1: uncle red
5:             col[p[z]] $\leftarrow$ black; col[u] $\leftarrow$ black;
6:             col[gp[z]] $\leftarrow$ red; z $\leftarrow$ grandparent[z];
7:         **else**
8:             **if** z = right[parent[z]] **then**
9:                 z $\leftarrow$ p[z]; LeftRotate(z);
10:             col[p[z]] $\leftarrow$ black; col[gp[z]] $\leftarrow$ red;
11:             RightRotate(gp[z]);
12:     **else** same as then-clause but right and left exchanged
13: col(root[T]) $\leftarrow$ black;

Red Black Trees: Insert

Algorithm 10 InsertFix(z)
1: **while** parent[z] ≠ null **and** col[parent[z]] = red **do**
2:     **if** parent[z] = left[gp[z]] **then**
3:         *uncle* ← right[grandparent[z]]
4:         **if** col[*uncle*] = red **then**
5:             col[p[z]] ← black; col[u] ← black;
6:             col[gp[z]] ← red; z ← grandparent[z];
7:         **else**   Case 2: uncle black
8:             **if** z = right[parent[z]] **then**
9:                 z ← p[z]; LeftRotate(z);
10:            col[p[z]] ← black; col[gp[z]] ← red;
11:            RightRotate(gp[z]);
12:    **else** same as then-clause but right and left exchanged
13: col(root[T]) ← black;

Red Black Trees: Insert

Algorithm 10 InsertFix(z)
1: **while** parent[z] ≠ null **and** col[parent[z]] = red **do**
2:     **if** parent[z] = left[gp[z]] **then**
3:         *uncle* ← right[grandparent[z]]
4:         **if** col[*uncle*] = red **then**
5:             col[p[z]] ← black; col[u] ← black;
6:             col[gp[z]] ← red; z ← grandparent[z];
7:         **else**
8:             **if** z = right[parent[z]] **then**   2a: z right child
9:                 z ← p[z]; LeftRotate(z);
10:            col[p[z]] ← black; col[gp[z]] ← red;
11:            RightRotate(gp[z]);
12:     **else** same as then-clause but right and left exchanged
13: col(root[T]) ← black;

Red Black Trees: Insert

Algorithm 10 InsertFix(z)
1: **while** parent[z] ≠ null **and** col[parent[z]] = red **do**
2:     **if** parent[z] = left[gp[z]] **then**
3:         _uncle_ ← right[grandparent[z]]
4:         **if** col[_uncle_] = red **then**
5:             col[p[z]] ← black; col[u] ← black;
6:             col[gp[z]] ← red; z ← grandparent[z];
7:         **else**
8:             **if** z = right[parent[z]] **then**
9:                 z ← p[z]; LeftRotate(z);
10:            col[p[z]] ← black; col[gp[z]] ← red; 2b: _z left child_
11:            RightRotate(gp[z]);
12:     **else** same as then-clause but right and left exchanged
13: col(root[T]) ← black;
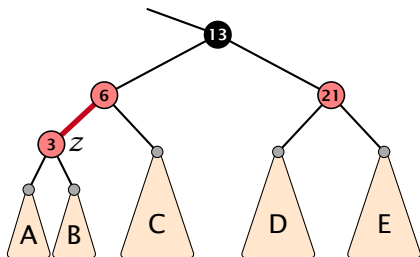
Case 1: Red Uncle

Case 1: Red Uncle

[tikzpicture optimized away because it does not contribute to exp
PDF]

Case 1: Red Uncle

Uncle

[this picture no optimized away because it does not contribute to text PDF] [PDF exported PDF]

Case 1: Red Uncle

uncle

[this picture re optimized away away be it ause it does not contribute to text PDF exported PDF]

1. recolour

Case 1: Red Uncle

[link: picture optimized away because it does not contribute to context. PDF exported PDF]
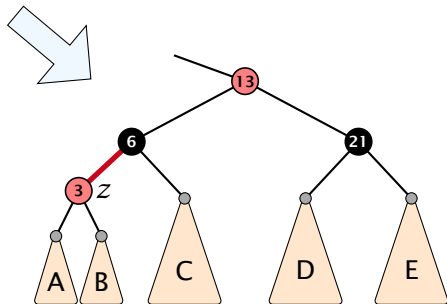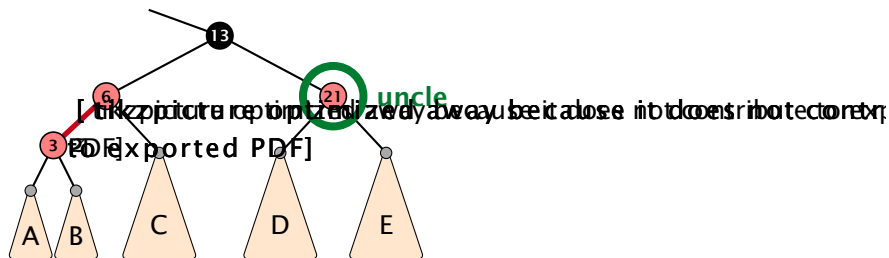
1. recolour

Case 1: Red Uncle
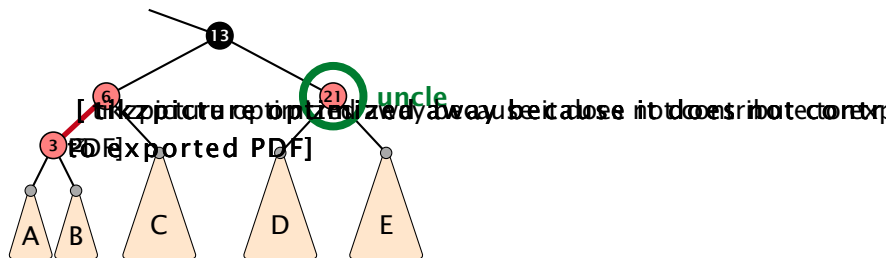
1. recolour
2. move z to grand-parent

Case 1: Red Uncle

z uncle

[the picture optimized away because it does not contribute to context. PDF exported PDF]
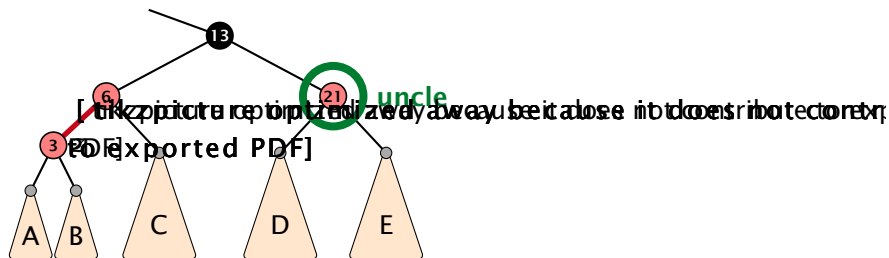
1. recolour
2. move z to grand-parent
3. invariant is fulfilled for new z

Case 1: Red Uncle

[this picture optimized away because it does not contribute to exported PDF]
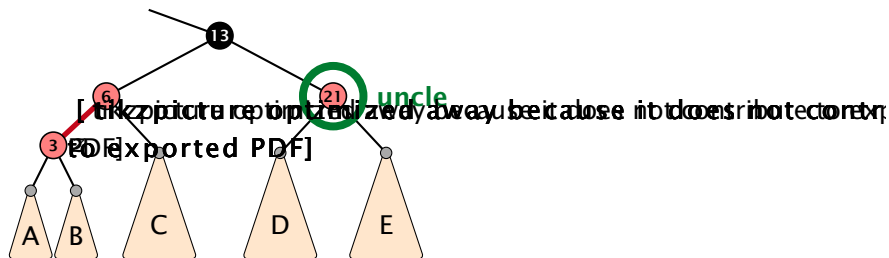
1. recolour
2. move z to grand-parent
3. invariant is fulfilled for new z
4. you made progress
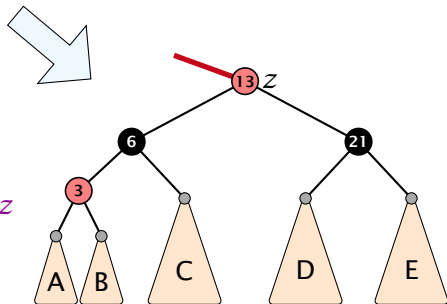
Case 2b: Black uncle and z is left child
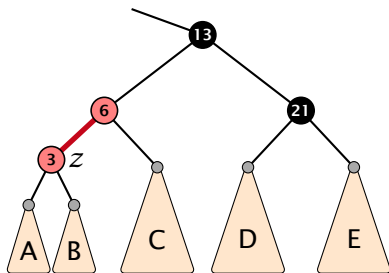
Case 2b: Black uncle and z is left child

[tikzpicture optimized away because it does not contribute to exp PDF]
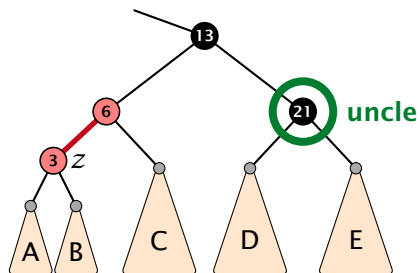
Case 2b: Black uncle and z is left child

1. rotate around grandparent

[tikz picture reproptimized away because it does not contribute to exported PDF]

Case 2b: Black uncle and z is left child

1. rotate around grandparent
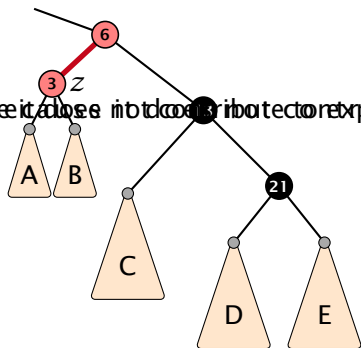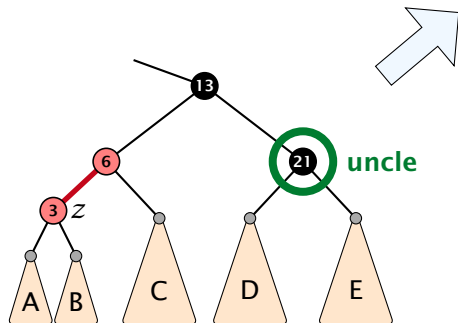
2. [recolor to ensure that red-black property holds] exchange the colors of z and its grandparent [this ensures that the black height property holds]

Case 2b: Black uncle and z is left child

1. rotate around grandparent
2. [recolor to ensure red black tree] ~~exchange the colors of grandparent and parent~~ [recolor properties already hold because it does not change any black height PROP]
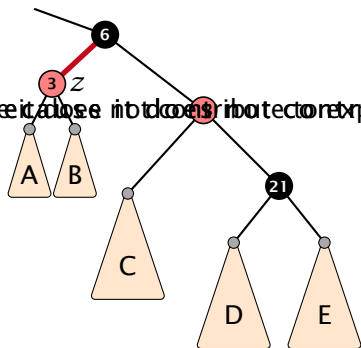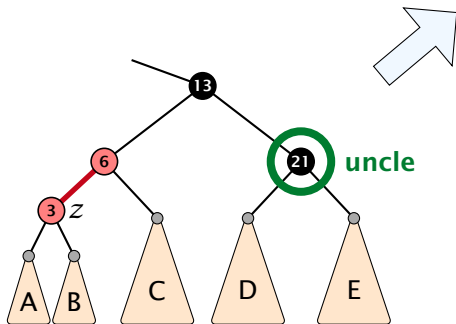
   re-color properties holds
3. you have a red black tree
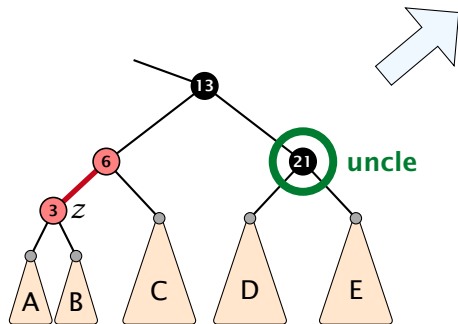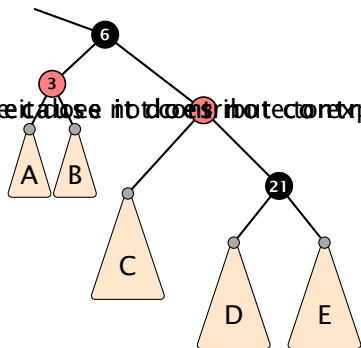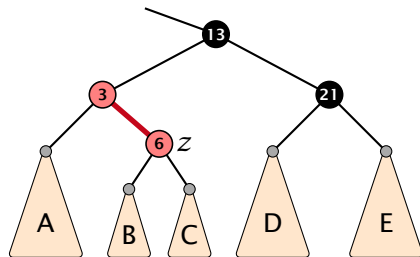
Case 2a: Black uncle and z is right child

[tikzpicture optimized away because it does not contribute to ex PDF]
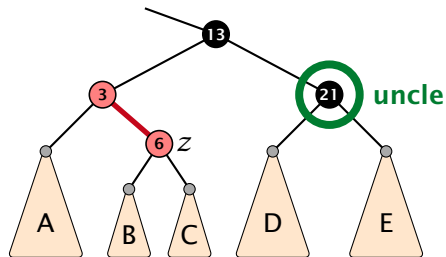
Case 2a: Black uncle and *z* is right child

1. rotate around parent

[tikz picture reptimized away because tikz external tocontext PDF]
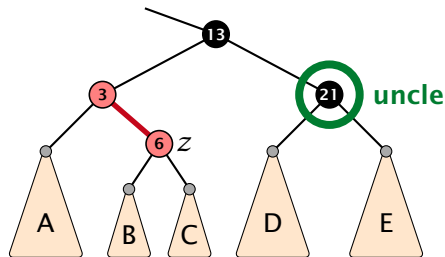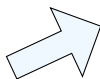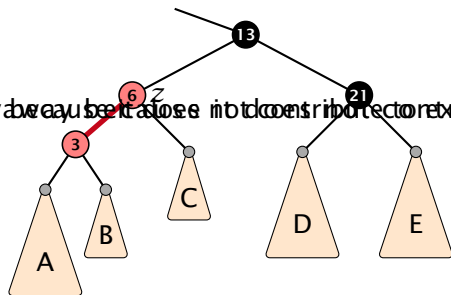
Case 2a: Black uncle and z is right child

1. rotate around parent

2. [might not work; normalized away because it does not render correctly in exported PDF]
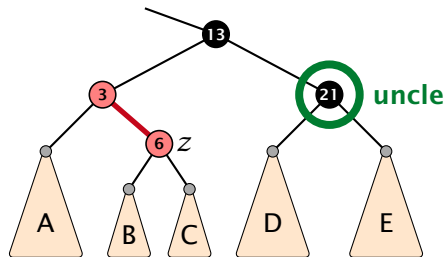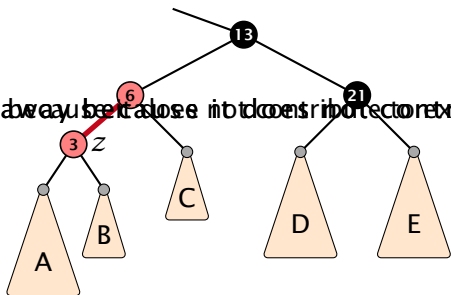
Case 2a: Black uncle and z is right child

1. rotate around parent

2. [make parent of previous z black because it does not...]

3. [You have Case 2b.]
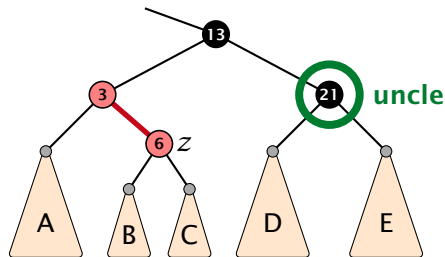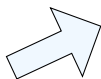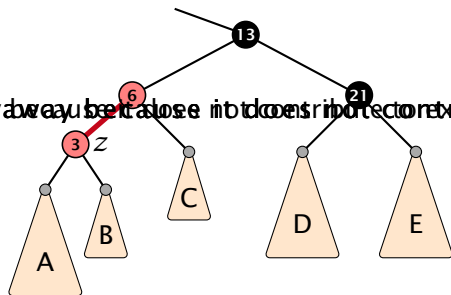
Red Black Trees: Insert

Running time:

▶ Only Case 1 may repeat; but only $h/2$ many steps, where h is the height of the tree.

Red Black Trees: Insert

Running time:

- ▶ Only Case 1 may repeat; but only $h/2$ many steps, where h is the height of the tree.
- ▶ Case 2a → Case 2b → red-black tree

Red Black Trees: Insert

Running time:

▶ Only Case 1 may repeat; but only $h/2$ many steps, where h is the height of the tree.

▶ Case 2a → Case 2b → red-black tree

▶ Case 2b → red-black tree

Red Black Trees: Insert

Running time:

▶ Only Case 1 may repeat; but only $h/2$ many steps, where h is the height of the tree.

▶ Case 2a → Case 2b → red-black tree

▶ Case 2b → red-black tree

Performing Case 1 at most $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$ times and every other case at most once, we get a red-black tree. Hence $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$ re-colorings and at most 2 rotations.

Red Black Trees: Delete

Red Black Trees: Delete

First do a standard delete.

Red Black Trees: Delete

First do a standard delete.

If the spliced out node x was red everything is fine.

Red Black Trees: Delete

First do a standard delete.

If the spliced out node x was red everything is fine.

If it was black there may be the following problems.

Red Black Trees: Delete

First do a standard delete.

If the spliced out node x was red everything is fine.

If it was black there may be the following problems.

- ▶ Parent and child of x were red; two adjacent red vertices.

Red Black Trees: Delete

First do a standard delete.

If the spliced out node x was red everything is fine.

If it was black there may be the following problems.

- ▶ Parent and child of x were red; two adjacent red vertices.
- ▶ If you delete the root, the root may now be red.

Red Black Trees: Delete

First do a standard delete.

If the spliced out node x was red everything is fine.

If it was black there may be the following problems.

- ▶ Parent and child of x were red; two adjacent red vertices.
- ▶ If you delete the root, the root may now be red.
- ▶ Every path from an ancestor of x to a descendant leaf of x changes the number of black nodes. Black height property might be violated.

Red Black Trees: Delete

Red Black Trees: Delete

Case 3:

Element has two children

- ▶ do normal delete
- ▶ when replacing content by content of successor, don't change color of node

Red Black Trees: Delete

Case 3:

Element has two children

- ▶ do normal delete
- ▶ when replacing content by content of successor, don't change color of node

Red Black Trees: Delete

Case 3:

Element has two children

- ▶ do normal delete
- ▶ when replacing content by content of successor, don't change color of node

Red Black Trees: Delete

Case 3:

Element has two children

- ▶ do normal delete
- ▶ when replacing content by content of successor, don't change color of node

Red Black Trees: Delete

Case 3:

Element has two children

- ▶ do normal delete
- ▶ when replacing content by content of successor, don't change color of node

Red Black Trees: Delete

Delete:

▶ deleting black node messes up black-height property

Red Black Trees: Delete
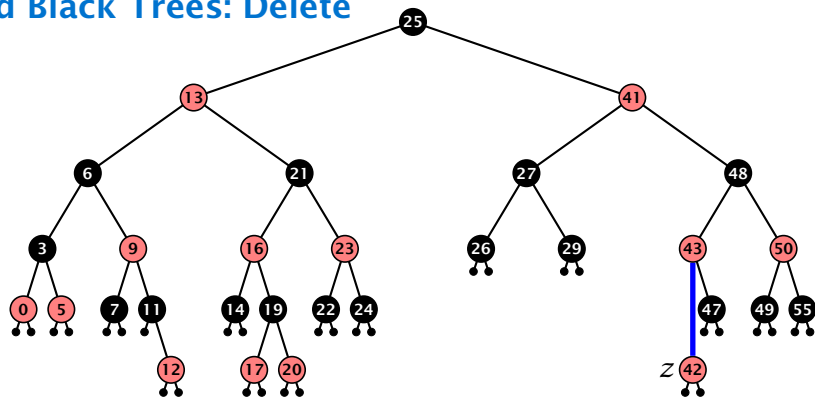
Delete:

▶ deleting black node messes up black-height property

▶ if z is red, we can simply color it black and everything is fine

Red Black Trees: Delete
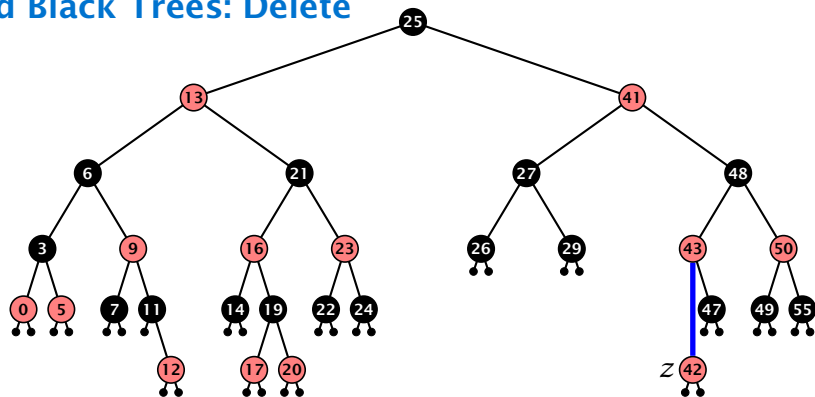
Delete:

▶ deleting black node messes up black-height property

▶ if z is red, we can simply color it black and everything is fine

▶ the problem is if z is black (e.g. a dummy-leaf); we call a fix-up procedure to fix the problem.

Red Black Trees: Delete

Invariant of the fix-up algorithm

▶ the node z is black

Red Black Trees: Delete

Invariant of the fix-up algorithm

- ▶ the node z is black
- ▶ if we "assign" a fake black unit to the edge from z to its parent then the black-height property is fulfilled

Red Black Trees: Delete

Invariant of the fix-up algorithm

▶ the node z is black

▶ if we "assign" a fake black unit to the edge from z to its parent then the black-height property is fulfilled

Goal: make rotations in such a way that you at some point can remove the fake black unit from the edge.
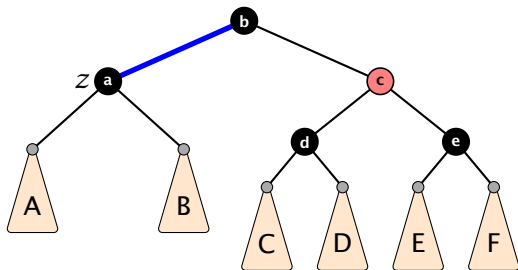
Case 1: Sibling of z is red

Case 1: Sibling of z is red

[tikzpicture optimized away because it does not contribute to expr
PDF]
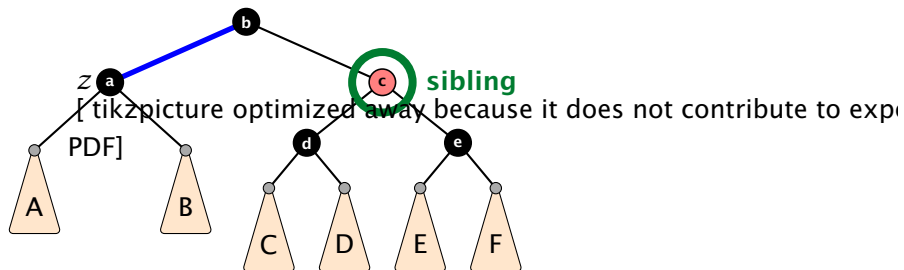
Case 1: Sibling of *z* is red
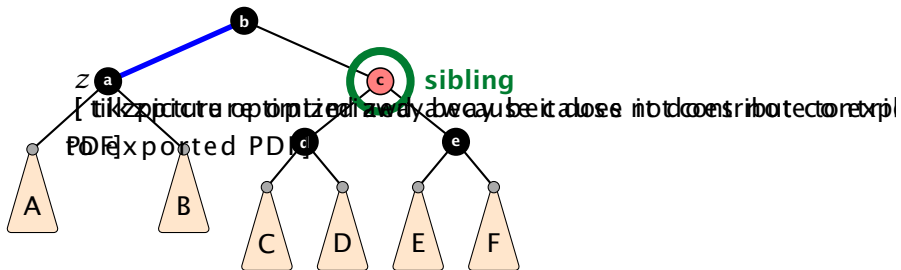
1. left-rotate around parent of *z*
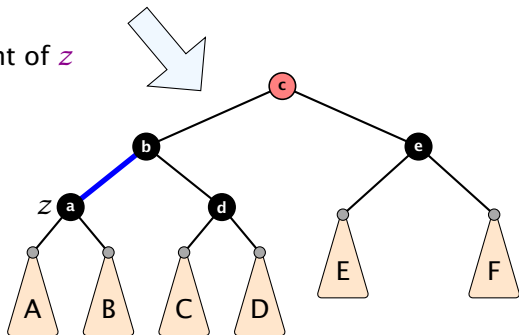
Case 1: Sibling of z is red
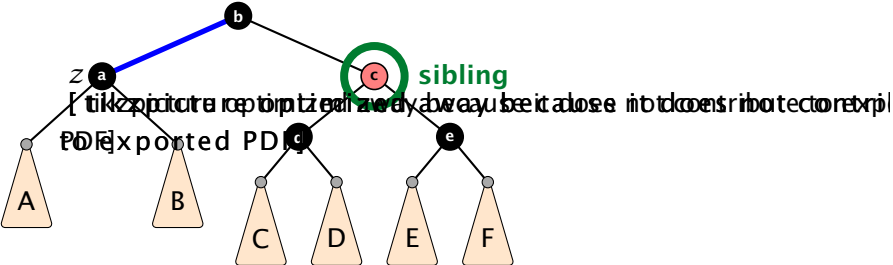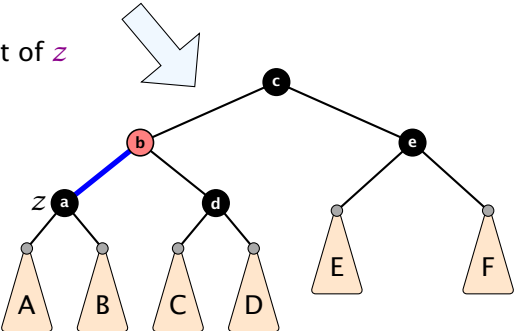
1. left-rotate around parent of z
2. recolor nodes b and c

Case 1: Sibling of z is red
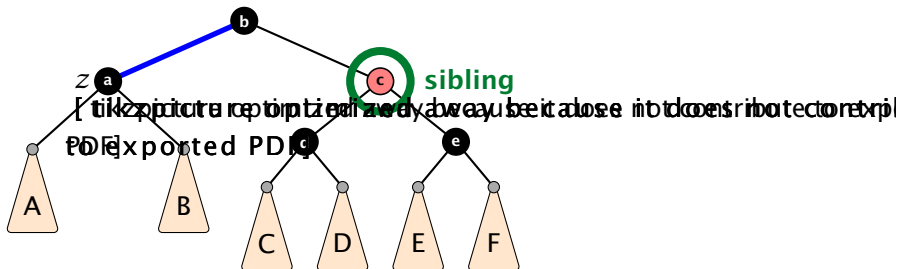
z sibling

[tikz-picture optimized away, because it does not contribute to the exported PDF]

1. left-rotate around parent of z
2. recolor nodes b and c
3. the new sibling is black
   (and parent of z is red)
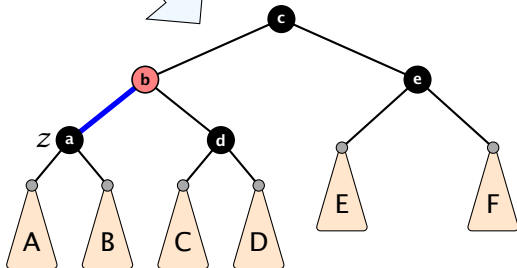
Case 1: Sibling of z is red
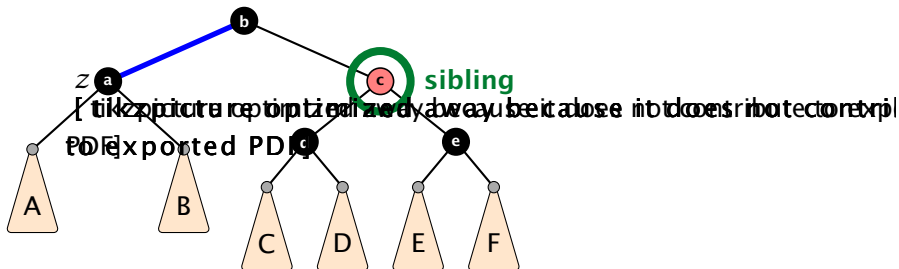
1. left-rotate around parent of z
2. recolor nodes b and c
3. the new sibling is black
   (and parent of z is red)
4. Case 2 (special),
   or Case 3, or Case 4
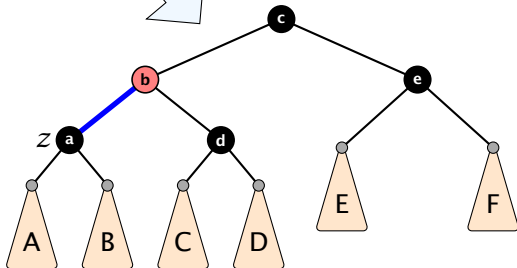
Case 2: Sibling is black with two black children
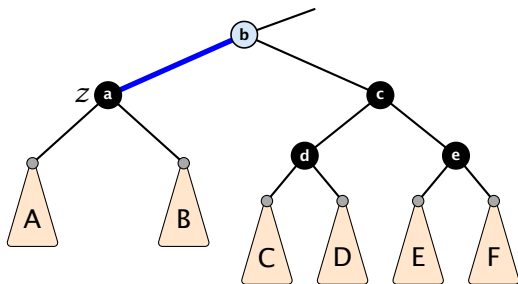
Case 2: Sibling is black with two black children
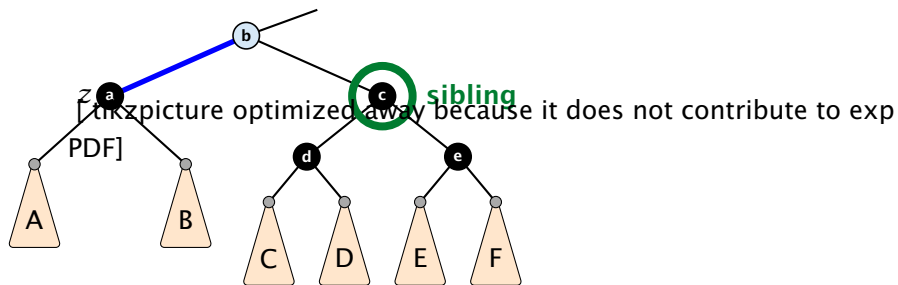
Case 2: Sibling is black with two black children
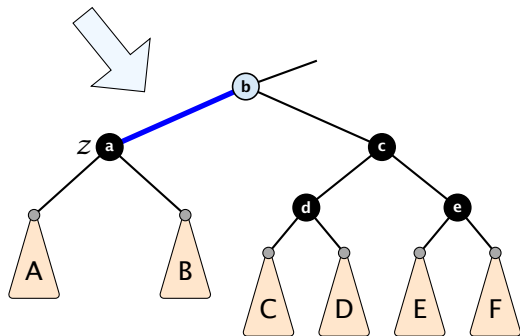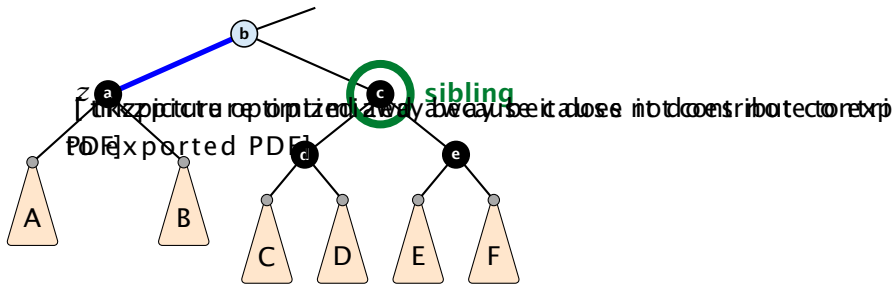
Case 2: Sibling is black with two black children
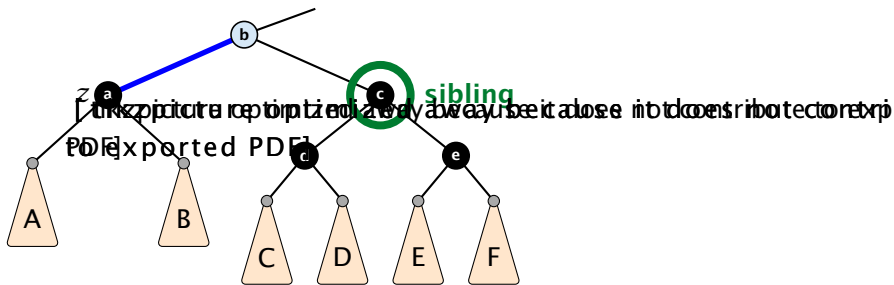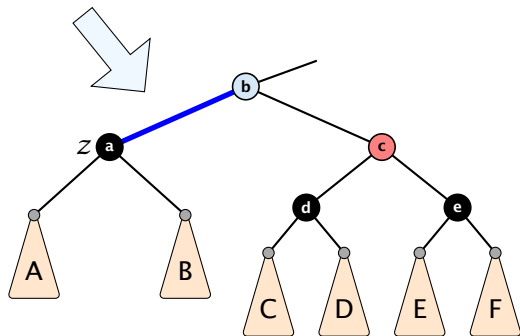
1. re-color node c

Case 2: Sibling is black with two black children
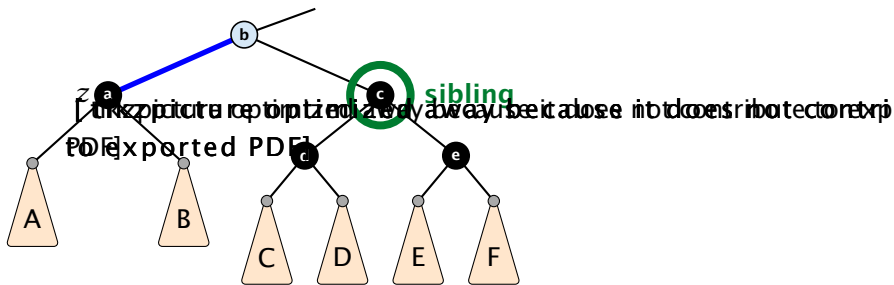
1. re-color node c
2. move fake black unit upwards
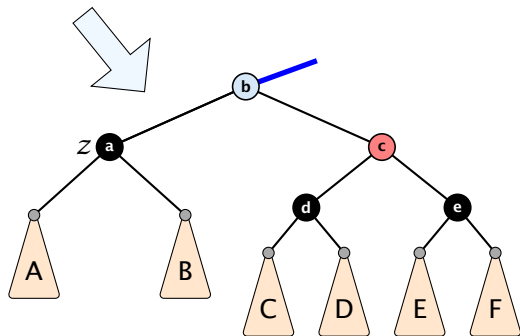
Case 2: Sibling is black with two black children
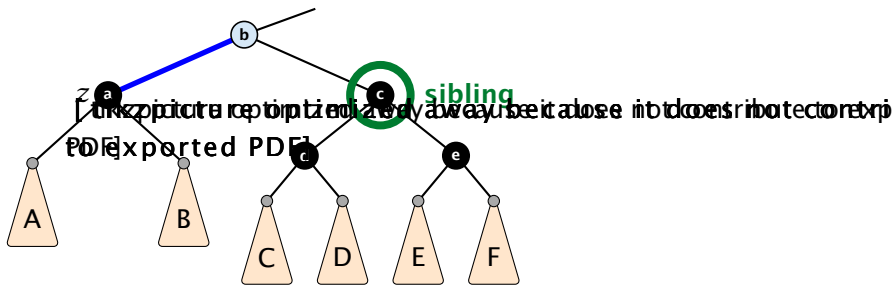
1. re-color node c
2. move fake black unit upwards
3. move z upwards
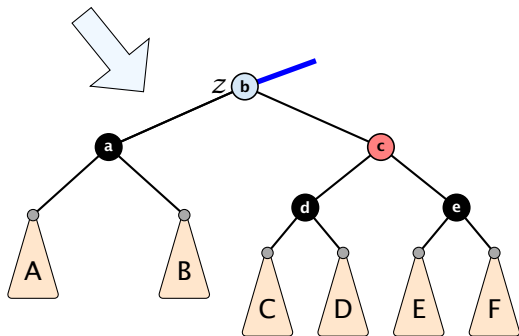
Case 2: Sibling is black with two black children
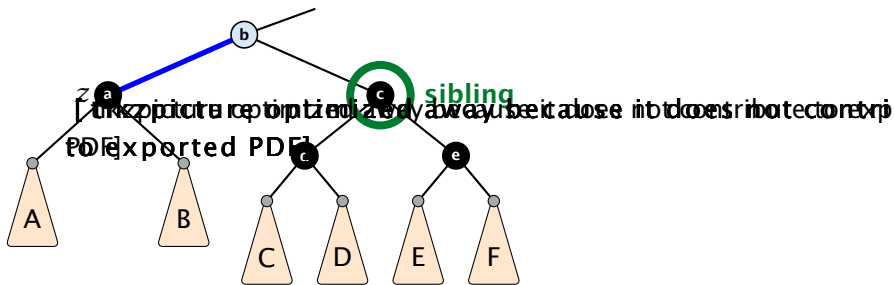
1. re-color node c
2. move fake black unit upwards
3. move z upwards
4. we made progress
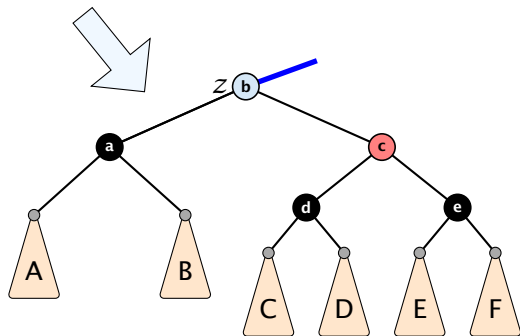
Case 2: Sibling is black with two black children
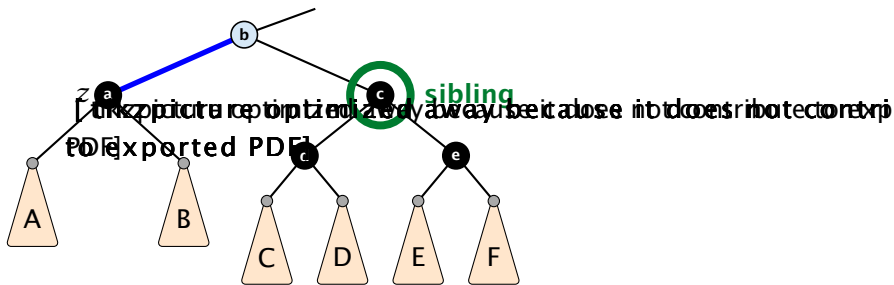
1. re-color node c
2. move fake black unit upwards
3. move z upwards
4. we made progress
5. if b is red we color it black and are done
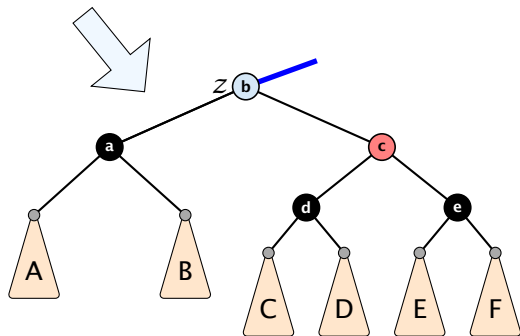
Case 3: Sibling black with one black child to the right
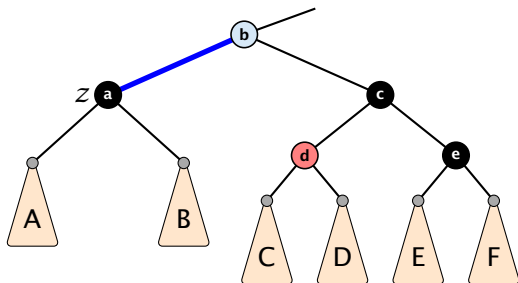
Case 3: Sibling black with one black child to the right

[tikzpicture optimized away because it does not contribute to exp PDF]
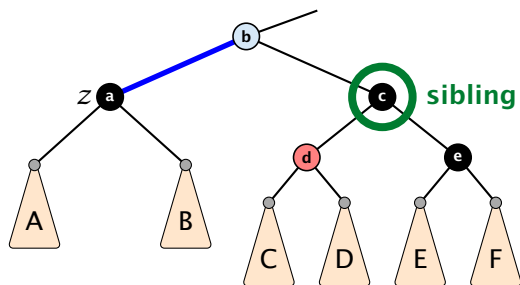
Case 3: Sibling black with one black child to the right

1. do a right-rotation at sibling

[tikz picture reoptimized away because it does not contribute to exported PDF]
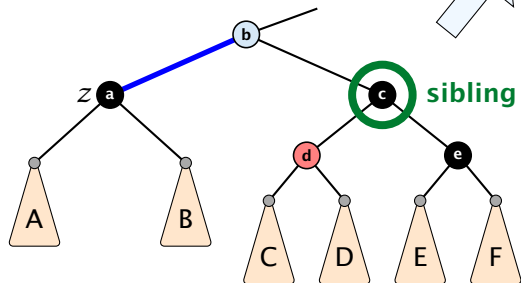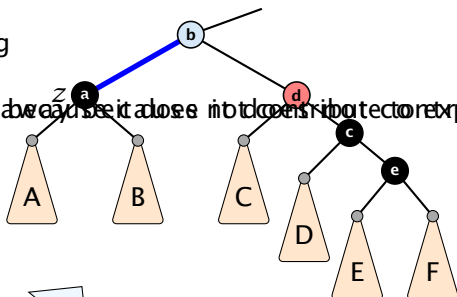
Case 3: Sibling black with one black child to the right

1. do a right-rotation at sibling
2. recolor c and d

[tikz picture optimized away because it does not contribute to the PDF exported PDF]

Case 3: Sibling black with one black child to the right

1. do a right-rotation at sibling

2. recolor c and d

   [tikz picture optimized away because it does not contribute to exported PDF]

3. new sibling is black with red right child (Case 4)
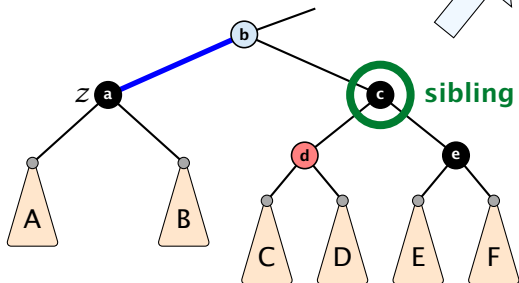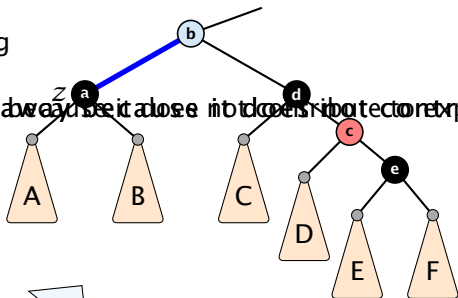
Case 4: Sibling is black with red right child
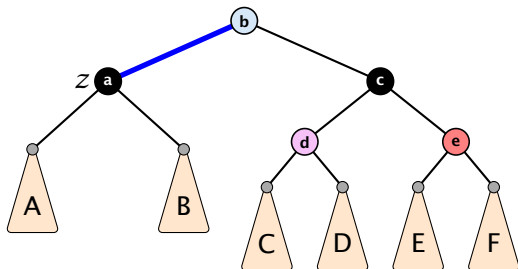
Case 4: Sibling is black with red right child
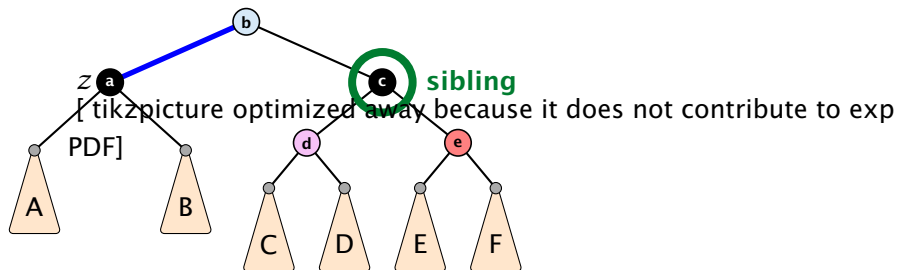
Case 4: Sibling is black with red right child
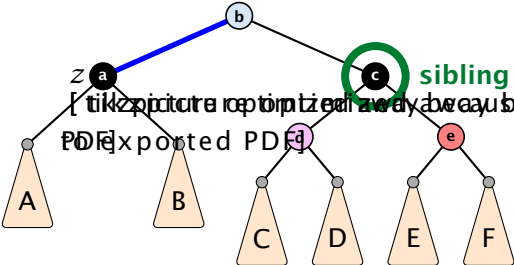
1. left-rotate around b

Case 4: Sibling is black with red right child
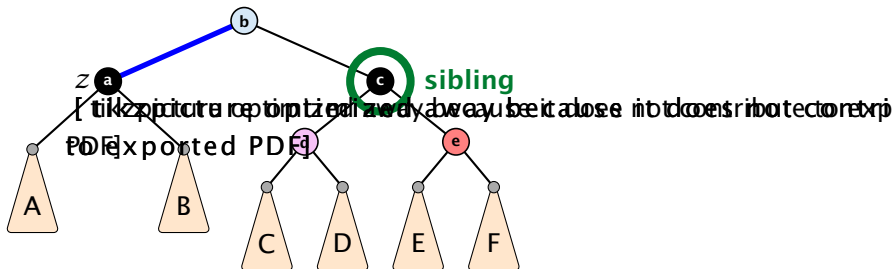
1. left-rotate around b
2. remove the fake black unit
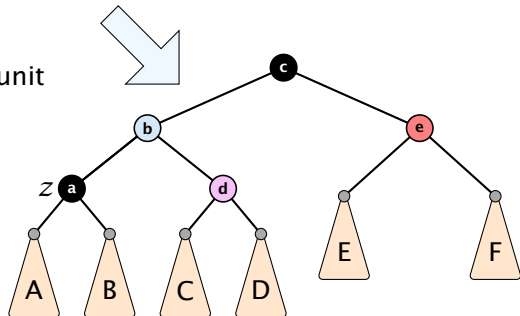
Case 4: Sibling is black with red right child
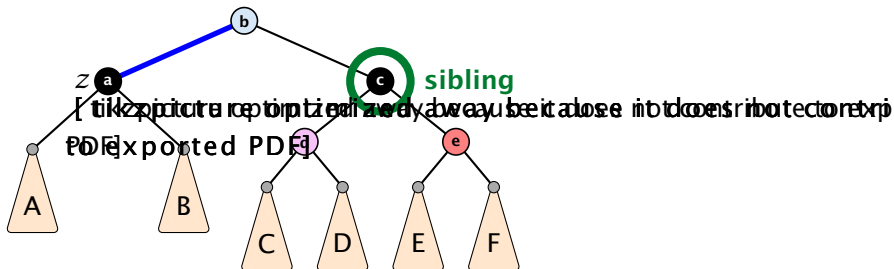
1. left-rotate around b
2. remove the fake black unit
3. recolor nodes b, c, and e

Case 4: Sibling is black with red right child

z **a**   **b**   **c**   **sibling**

[tikzpicture optimized away because it does not contribute to exported PDF]
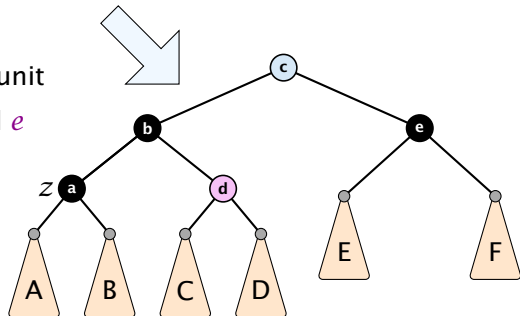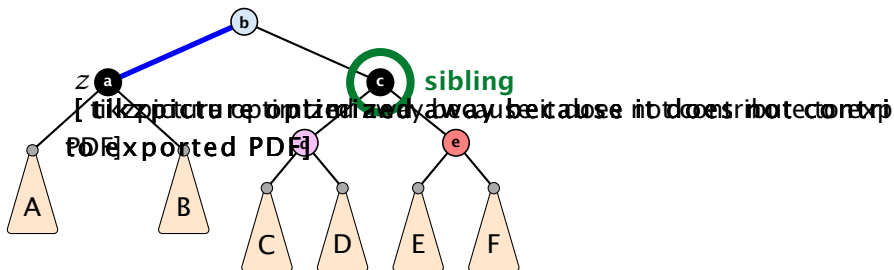
1. left-rotate around *b*
2. remove the fake black unit
3. recolor nodes *b*, *c*, and *e*
4. you have a valid red black tree
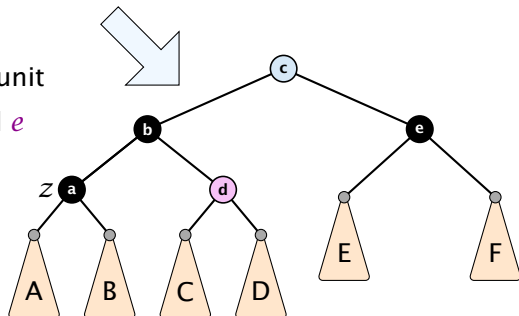
Running time:

▶ only Case 2 can repeat; but only h many steps, where h is the height of the tree

Running time:

- ▶ only Case 2 can repeat; but only h many steps, where h is the height of the tree

- ▶ Case 1 → Case 2 (special) → red black tree
  Case 1 → Case 3 → Case 4 → red black tree
  Case 1 → Case 4 → red black tree

Running time:

- only Case 2 can repeat; but only h many steps, where h is the height of the tree

- Case 1 → Case 2 (special) → red black tree
  Case 1 → Case 3 → Case 4 → red black tree
  Case 1 → Case 4 → red black tree

- Case 3 → Case 4 → red black tree

Running time:

▶ only Case 2 can repeat; but only h many steps, where h is the height of the tree

▶ Case 1 → Case 2 (special) → red black tree
  Case 1 → Case 3 → Case 4 → red black tree
  Case 1 → Case 4 → red black tree

▶ Case 3 → Case 4 → red black tree

▶ Case 4 → red black tree

Running time:

▶ only Case 2 can repeat; but only h many steps, where h is the height of the tree

▶ Case 1 → Case 2 (special) → red black tree
  Case 1 → Case 3 → Case 4 → red black tree
  Case 1 → Case 4 → red black tree

▶ Case 3 → Case 4 → red black tree

▶ Case 4 → red black tree

Performing Case 2 at most $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$ times and every other step at most once, we get a red black tree. Hence, $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$ re-colorings and at most 3 rotations.

Splay Trees

Disadvantage of balanced search trees:

Splay Trees

Disadvantage of balanced search trees:

– worst case; no advantage for easy inputs

Splay Trees

Disadvantage of balanced search trees:

- worst case; no advantage for easy inputs
- additional memory required

Splay Trees

Disadvantage of balanced search trees:

– worst case; no advantage for easy inputs

– additional memory required

– complicated implementation

Splay Trees

Disadvantage of balanced search trees:

- – worst case; no advantage for easy inputs
- – additional memory required
- – complicated implementation

Splay Trees:

Splay Trees

Disadvantage of balanced search trees:

- worst case; no advantage for easy inputs

- additional memory required

- complicated implementation

Splay Trees:

+ after access, an element is moved to the root; splay(x) repeated accesses are faster

Splay Trees

Disadvantage of balanced search trees:

- worst case; no advantage for easy inputs
- additional memory required
- complicated implementation

Splay Trees:

- + after access, an element is moved to the root; $\text{splay}(x)$ repeated accesses are faster
- only amortized guarantee

Splay Trees

Disadvantage of balanced search trees:

- − worst case; no advantage for easy inputs
- − additional memory required
- − complicated implementation

Splay Trees:

- + after access, an element is moved to the root; splay(x) repeated accesses are faster
- − only amortized guarantee
- − read-operations change the tree

Splay Trees

find(x)

- ▶ search for x according to a search tree
- ▶ let $\bar{x}$ be last element on search-path
- ▶ splay($\bar{x}$)

Splay Trees

insert(x)

- ▶ search for x; $\bar{x}$ is last visited element during search (successer or predecessor of x)
- ▶ splay($\bar{x}$) moves $\bar{x}$ to the root
- ▶ insert x as new root
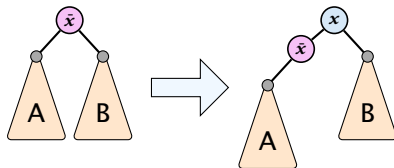
Splay Trees

delete(x)

- ▶ search for x; splay(x); remove x
- ▶ search largest element $\bar{x}$ in A
- ▶ splay($\bar{x}$) (on subtree A)
- ▶ connect root of B as right child of $\bar{x}$
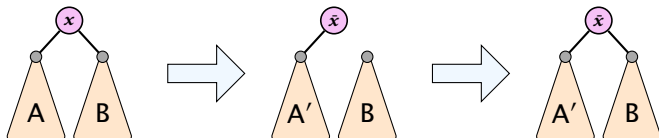
Move to Root
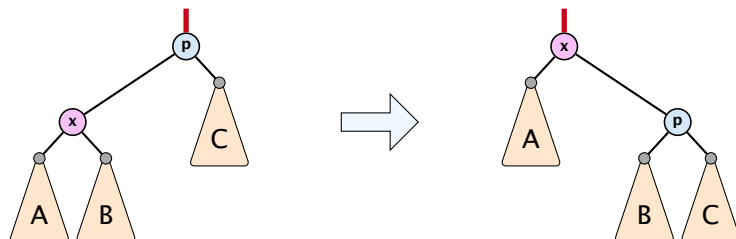
How to bring element to root?

▶ one (bad) option: moveToRoot(x)

▶ iteratively do rotation around parent of x until x is root

▶ if x is left child do right rotation otw. left rotation
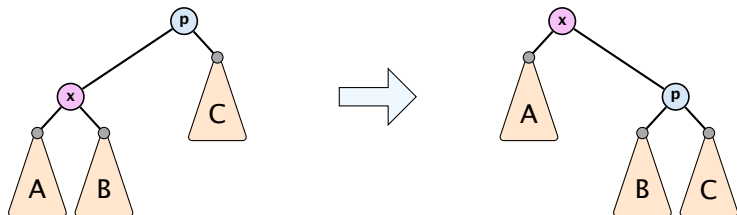
better option splay(x):

▶ zig case: if x is child of root do left rotation or right rotation around parent

Splay: Zigzag Case
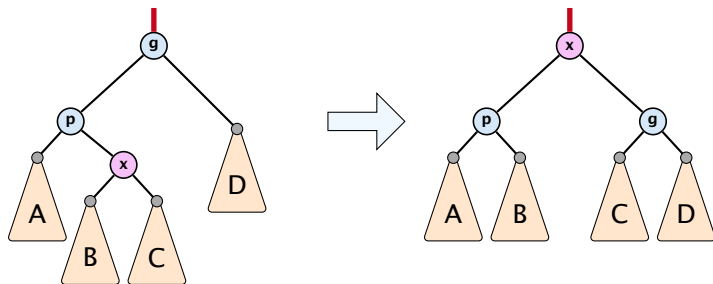
better option splay(x):

▶ zigzag case: if x is right child and parent of x is left child (or x left child parent of x right child)

▶ do double right rotation around grand-parent (resp. double left rotation)

Double Rotations
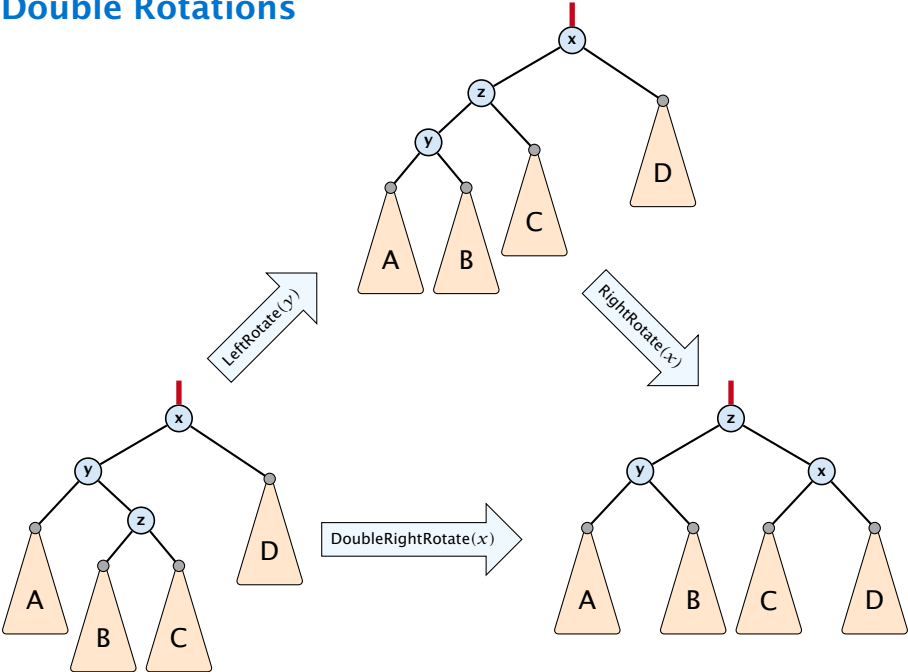
Splay: Zigzig Case
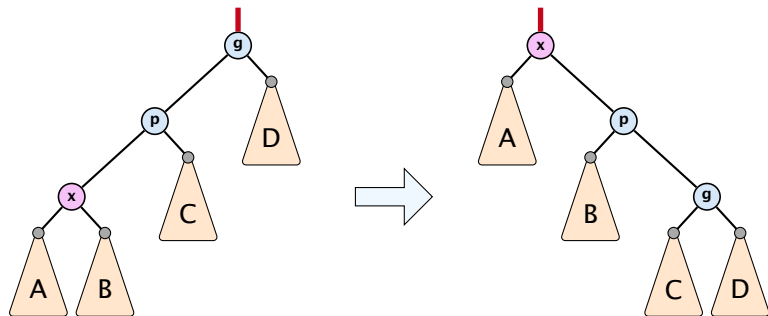
better option splay(*x*):

▶ zigzig case: if x is left child and parent of x is left child (or x right child, parent of x right child)

▶ do right roation around grand-parent followed by right rotation around parent (resp. left rotations)

Splay vs. Move to Root
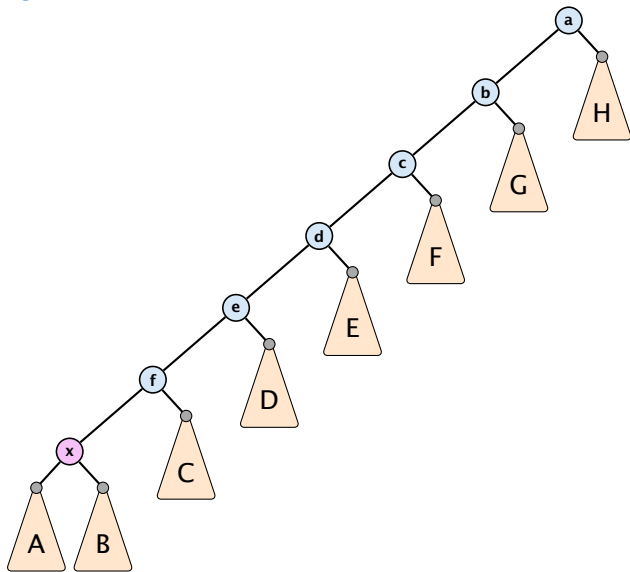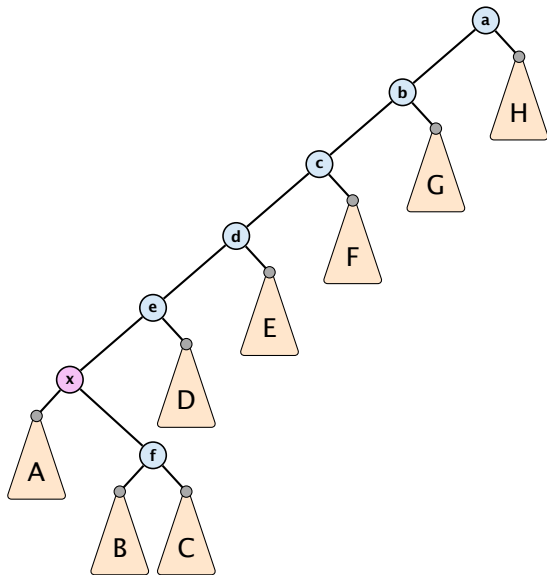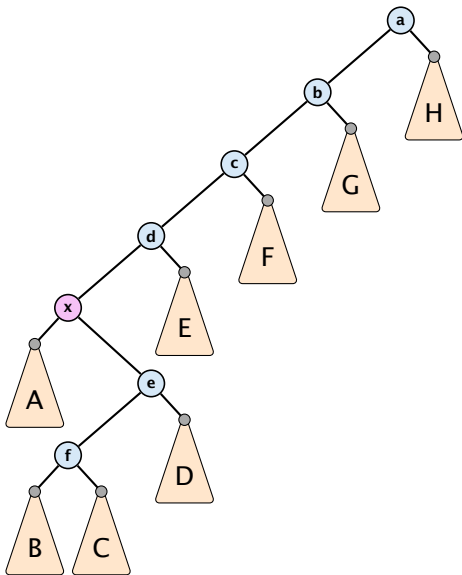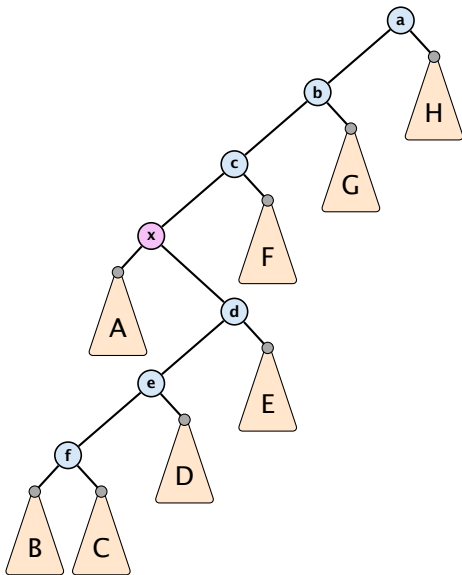
Splay vs. Move to Root

Splay vs. Move to Root

Splay vs. Move to Root
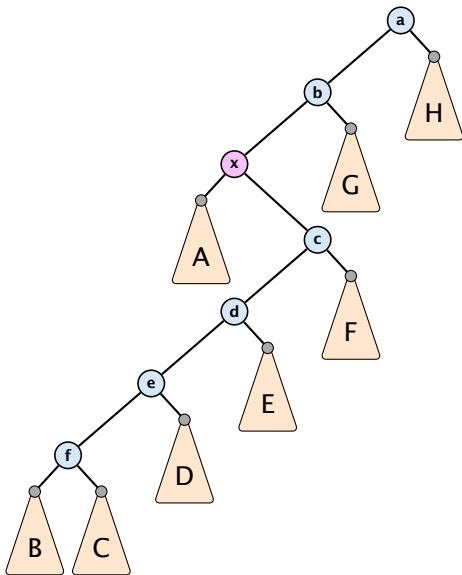
Splay vs. Move to Root
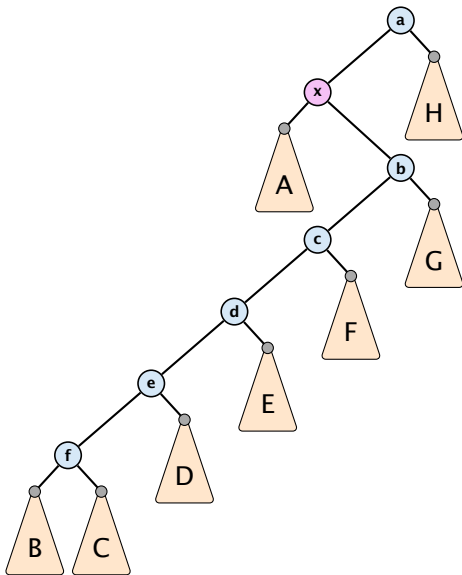
Splay vs. Move to Root
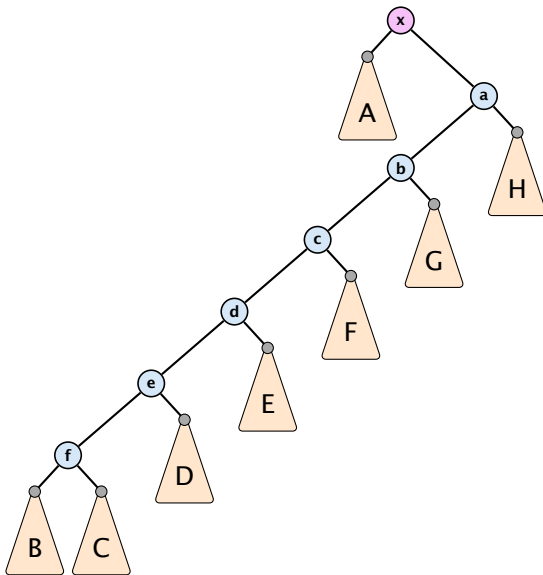
Splay vs. Move to Root
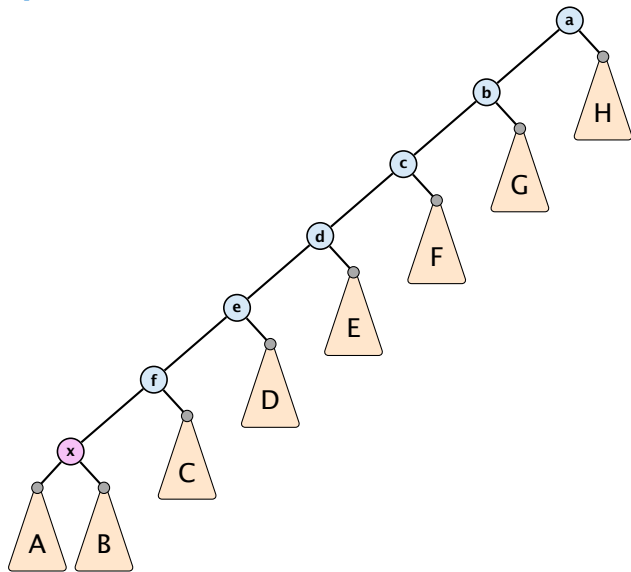
Splay vs. Move to Root
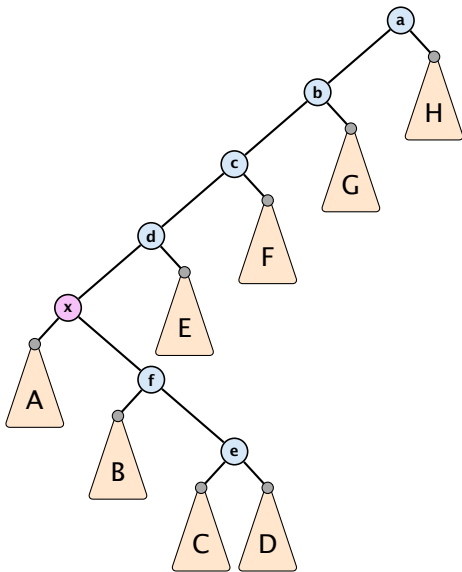
Splay vs. Move to Root
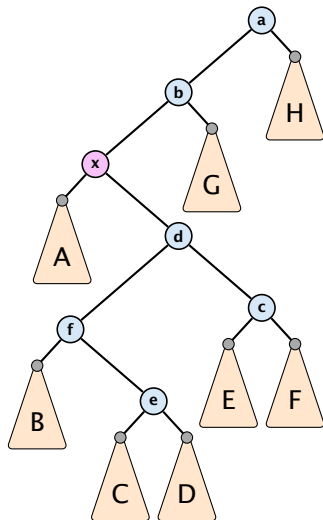
Splay vs. Move to Root
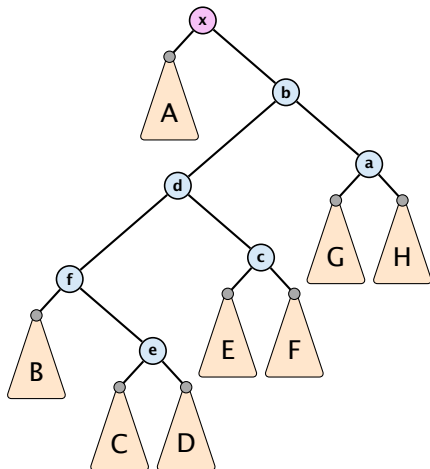
Static Optimality

Suppose we have a sequence of m find-operations. find(x) appears h_x times in this sequence.

The cost of a static search tree T is:

$$\text{cost}(T) = m + \sum_x h_x \, \text{depth}_T(x)$$

The total cost for processing the sequence on a splay-tree is $\mathcal{O}(\text{cost}(T_{\min}))$, where $T_{\min}$ is an optimal static search tree.

Dynamic Optimality

Let S be a sequence with m find-operations.

Let A be a data-structure based on a search tree:

▶ the cost for accessing element x is $1 + \text{depth}(x)$;

▶ after accessing x the tree may be re-arranged through rotations;

Conjecture:
A splay tree that only contains elements from S has cost $\mathcal{O}(\text{cost}(A, S))$, for processing S.

Lemma 5

Splay Trees have an amortized running time of $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$ for all operations.

Amortized Analysis

Definition 6

A data structure with operations $\mathrm{op}_1(), \ldots, \mathrm{op}_k()$ has amortized running times $t_1, \ldots, t_k$ for these operations if the following holds.

Suppose you are given a sequence of operations (starting with an empty data-structure) that operate on at most n elements, and let k_i denote the number of occurences of $\mathrm{op}_i()$ within this sequence. Then the actual running time must be at most $\sum_i k_i \cdot t_i(n)$.

Potential Method

Introduce a potential for the data structure.

Potential Method

Introduce a potential for the data structure.

▶ $\Phi(D_i)$ is the potential after the i-th operation.

Potential Method

Introduce a potential for the data structure.

- $\Phi(D_i)$ is the potential after the i-th operation.
- Amortized cost of the i-th operation is

$$\hat{c}_i = c_i + \Phi(D_i) - \Phi(D_{i-1}) \enspace .$$

Potential Method

Introduce a potential for the data structure.

▶ $\Phi(D_i)$ is the potential after the i-th operation.

▶ Amortized cost of the i-th operation is

$$\hat{c}_i = c_i + \Phi(D_i) - \Phi(D_{i-1}) \ .$$

▶ Show that $\Phi(D_i) \geq \Phi(D_0)$.

Potential Method

Introduce a potential for the data structure.

▶ $\Phi(D_i)$ is the potential after the i-th operation.

▶ Amortized cost of the i-th operation is

$$\hat{c}_i = c_i + \Phi(D_i) - \Phi(D_{i-1}) \ .$$

▶ Show that $\Phi(D_i) \geq \Phi(D_0)$.

Then

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k} c_i$$

Potential Method

Introduce a potential for the data structure.

- ▶ $\Phi(D_i)$ is the potential after the i-th operation.
- ▶ Amortized cost of the i-th operation is

$$\hat{c}_i = c_i + \Phi(D_i) - \Phi(D_{i-1}) \ .$$

- ▶ Show that $\Phi(D_i) \geq \Phi(D_0)$.

Then

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k} c_i \leq \sum_{i=1}^{k} c_i + \Phi(D_k) - \Phi(D_0)$$

Potential Method

Introduce a potential for the data structure.

- ▶ $\Phi(D_i)$ is the potential after the i-th operation.
- ▶ Amortized cost of the i-th operation is

$$\hat{c}_i = c_i + \Phi(D_i) - \Phi(D_{i-1}) \ .$$

- ▶ Show that $\Phi(D_i) \geq \Phi(D_0)$.

Then

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k} c_i \leq \sum_{i=1}^{k} c_i + \Phi(D_k) - \Phi(D_0) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \hat{c}_i$$

This means the amortized costs can be used to derive a bound on the total cost.

Example: Stack

Stack

- ▶ $S.\,\textbf{push()}$
- ▶ $S.\,\textbf{pop()}$
- ▶ $S.\,\textbf{multipop}(k)$: removes k items from the stack. If the stack currently contains less than k items it empties the stack.
- ▶ The user has to ensure that pop and multipop do not generate an underflow.

Example: Stack

Stack

- ▶ $S.\,\textbf{push()}$
- ▶ $S.\,\textbf{pop()}$
- ▶ $S.\,\textbf{multipop}(k)$: removes k items from the stack. If the stack currently contains less than k items it empties the stack.
- ▶ The user has to ensure that pop and multipop do not generate an underflow.

Actual cost:

- ▶ $S.\,\textbf{push()}$: cost 1.
- ▶ $S.\,\textbf{pop()}$: cost 1.
- ▶ $S.\,\textbf{multipop}(k)$: cost $\min\{\text{size}, k\} = k$.

Example: Stack

Use potential function $\Phi(S) =$ number of elements on the stack.

Example: Stack

Use potential function $\Phi(S) =$ number of elements on the stack.

Amortized cost:

▶ $S.\textbf{push}()$: cost

$$\hat{C}_{\text{push}} = C_{\text{push}} + \Delta\Phi = 1 + 1 \leq 2 \ .$$

Example: Stack

Use potential function $\Phi(S)$ = number of elements on the stack.

Amortized cost:

▶ $S.\,\text{push}()$: cost

$$\hat{C}_{\text{push}} = C_{\text{push}} + \Delta\Phi = 1 + 1 \le 2 \ .$$

▶ $S.\,\text{pop}()$: cost

$$\hat{C}_{\text{pop}} = C_{\text{pop}} + \Delta\Phi = 1 - 1 \le 0 \ .$$

Example: Stack

Use potential function $\Phi(S) =$ number of elements on the stack.

Amortized cost:

▶ $S.\textbf{push}()$: cost

$$\hat{C}_{\text{push}} = C_{\text{push}} + \Delta\Phi = 1 + 1 \leq 2 \ .$$

▶ $S.\textbf{pop}()$: cost

$$\hat{C}_{\text{pop}} = C_{\text{pop}} + \Delta\Phi = 1 - 1 \leq 0 \ .$$

▶ $S.\textbf{multipop}(k)$: cost

$$\hat{C}_{\text{mp}} = C_{\text{mp}} + \Delta\Phi = \min\{\text{size}, k\} - \min\{\text{size}, k\} \leq 0 \ .$$

Example: Binary Counter

Incrementing a binary counter:
Consider a computational model where each bit-operation costs one time-unit.

Example: Binary Counter

Incrementing a binary counter:
Consider a computational model where each bit-operation costs one time-unit.

Incrementing an n-bit binary counter may require to examine n-bits, and maybe change them.

Example: Binary Counter

Incrementing a binary counter:
Consider a computational model where each bit-operation costs one time-unit.

Incrementing an n-bit binary counter may require to examine n-bits, and maybe change them.

Actual cost:

▶ Changing bit from 0 to 1: cost 1.

▶ Changing bit from 1 to 0: cost 1.

▶ Increment: cost is $k + 1$, where k is the number of consecutive ones in the least significant bit-positions (e.g, 001101 has $k = 1$).

Example: Binary Counter

Example: Binary Counter

Choose potential function $\Phi(x) = k$, where k denotes the number of ones in the binary representation of x.

Amortized cost:

Example: Binary Counter

Choose potential function $\Phi(x) = k$, where k denotes the number of ones in the binary representation of x.

Amortized cost:

▶ Changing bit from 0 to 1:

$$\hat{C}_{0 \to 1} = C_{0 \to 1} + \Delta\Phi = 1 + 1 \leq 2 \ .$$

Example: Binary Counter

Choose potential function $\Phi(x) = k$, where k denotes the number of ones in the binary representation of x.

Amortized cost:

▶ Changing bit from 0 to 1:

$$\hat{C}_{0 \to 1} = C_{0 \to 1} + \Delta\Phi = 1 + 1 \leq 2 \ .$$

▶ Changing bit from 1 to 0:

$$\hat{C}_{1 \to 0} = C_{1 \to 0} + \Delta\Phi = 1 - 1 \leq 0 \ .$$

Example: Binary Counter

Choose potential function $\Phi(x) = k$, where k denotes the number of ones in the binary representation of x.

Amortized cost:

▶ Changing bit from 0 to 1:

$$\hat{C}_{0 \to 1} = C_{0 \to 1} + \Delta\Phi = 1 + 1 \le 2 \ .$$

▶ Changing bit from 1 to 0:

$$\hat{C}_{1 \to 0} = C_{1 \to 0} + \Delta\Phi = 1 - 1 \le 0 \ .$$

▶ Increment: Let k denotes the number of consecutive ones in the least significant bit-positions. An increment involves k $(1 \to 0)$-operations, and one $(0 \to 1)$-operation.

Hence, the amortized cost is $k\hat{C}_{1 \to 0} + \hat{C}_{0 \to 1} \le 2$.

Splay Trees

potential function for splay trees:

- ▶ size $s(x) = |T_x|$
- ▶ rank $r(x) = \log_2(s(x))$
- ▶ $\Phi(T) = \sum_{v \in T} r(v)$

amortized cost = real cost + potential change

The cost is essentially the cost of the splay-operation, which is 1 plus the number of rotations.

Splay: Zig Case
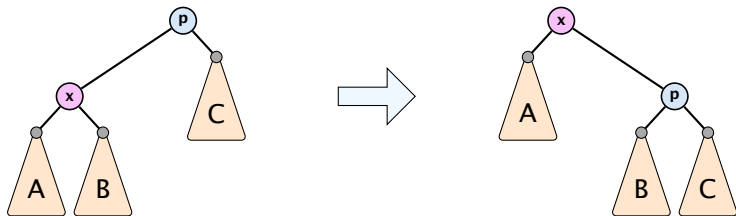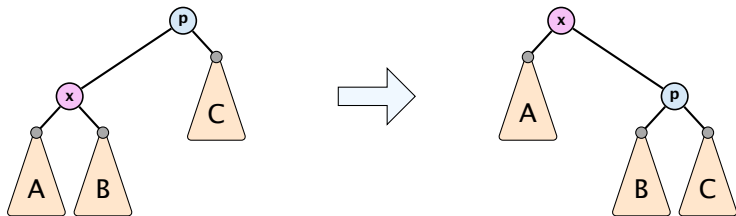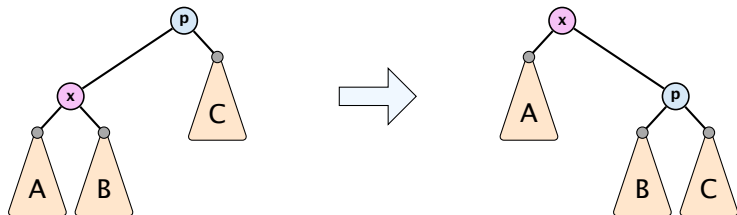
$$\Delta\Phi =$$
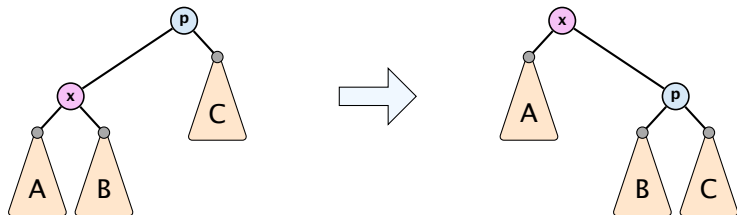
$$\Delta\Phi = r'(x) + r'(p) - r(x) - r(p)$$

$$\Delta\Phi = r'(x) + r'(p) - r(x) - r(p)$$
$$= r'(p) - r(x)$$

Splay: Zig Case
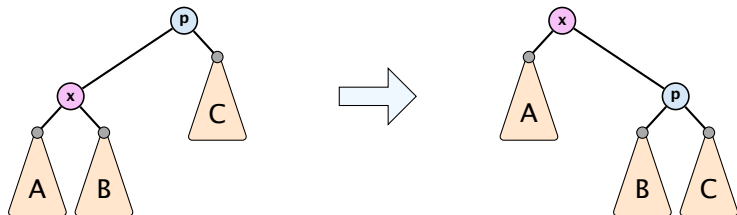
$$\Delta\Phi = r'(x) + r'(p) - r(x) - r(p)$$
$$= r'(p) - r(x)$$
$$\leq r'(x) - r(x)$$

Splay: Zig Case

$$\Delta\Phi = r'(x) + r'(p) - r(x) - r(p)$$
$$= r'(p) - r(x)$$
$$\leq r'(x) - r(x)$$

$$\text{cost}_{\text{zig}} \leq 1 + 3(r'(x) - r(x))$$

Splay: Zigzig Case

$\Delta\Phi =$
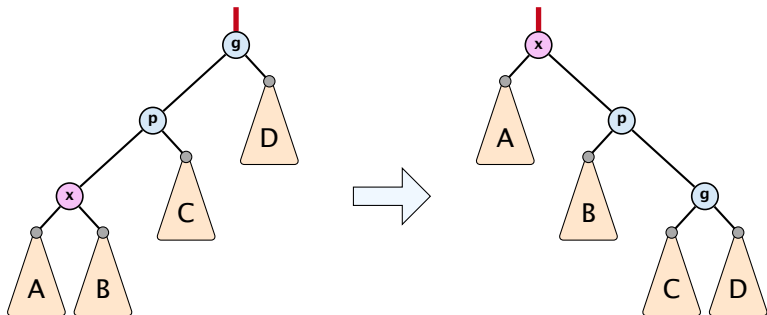
Splay: Zigzig Case
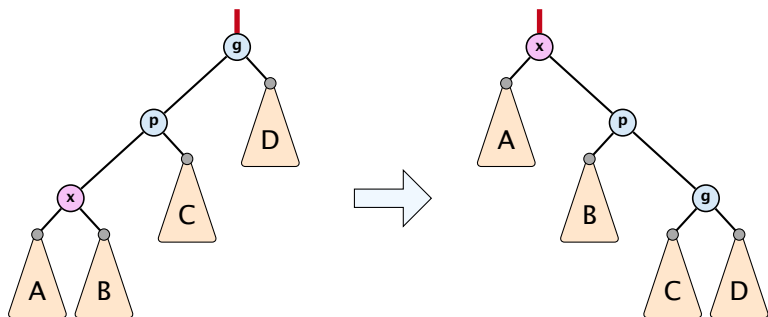
$$\Delta\Phi = r'(x) + r'(p) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(p) - r(g)$$

Splay: Zigzig Case

$$\Delta\Phi = r'(x) + r'(p) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(p) - r(g)$$
$$= r'(p) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(p)$$

Splay: Zigzig Case

$$\Delta\Phi = r'(x) + r'(p) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(p) - r(g)$$

$$= r'(p) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(p)$$

$$\leq r'(x) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(x)$$

Splay: Zigzig Case

$$\Delta\Phi = r'(x) + r'(p) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(p) - r(g)$$

$$= r'(p) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(p)$$

$$\leq r'(x) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(x)$$

$$= r'(x) + r'(g) + r(x) - 3r'(x) + 3r'(x) - r(x) - 2r(x)$$

Splay: Zigzig Case

$$\Delta\Phi = r'(x) + r'(p) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(p) - r(g)$$
$$= r'(p) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(p)$$
$$\leq r'(x) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(x)$$
$$= r'(x) + r'(g) + r(x) - 3r'(x) + 3r'(x) - r(x) - 2r(x)$$
$$= -2r'(x) + r'(g) + r(x) + 3(r'(x) - r(x))$$

Splay: Zigzig Case

$$\Delta\Phi = r'(x) + r'(p) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(p) - r(g)$$

$$= r'(p) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(p)$$

$$\leq r'(x) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(x)$$

$$= r'(x) + r'(g) + r(x) - 3r'(x) + 3r'(x) - r(x) - 2r(x)$$

$$= -2r'(x) + r'(g) + r(x) + 3(r'(x) - r(x))$$

$$\leq -2 + 3(r'(x) - r(x))$$

Splay: Zigzig Case

$$\Delta\Phi = r'(x) + r'(p) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(p) - r(g)$$

$$= r'(p) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(p)$$

$$\leq r'(x) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(x)$$

$$= r'(x) + r'(g) + r(x) - 3r'(x) + 3r'(x) - r(x) - 2r(x)$$

$$= -2r'(x) + r'(g) + r(x) + 3(r'(x) - r(x))$$

$$\leq -2 + 3(r'(x) - r(x)) \quad \Rightarrow \text{cost}_{\text{zigzig}} \leq 3(r'(x) - r(x))$$
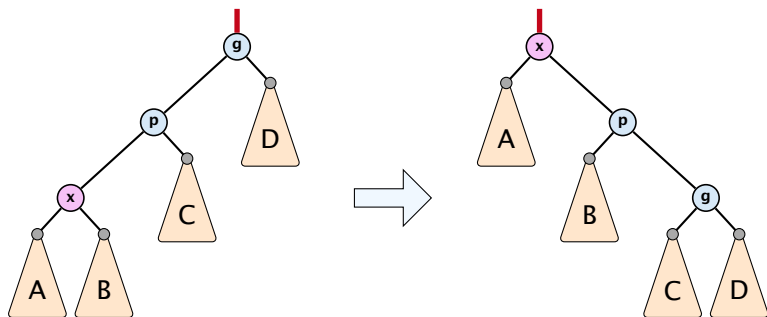
Splay: Zigzig Case

$$\frac{1}{2}\Big(r(x) + r'(g) - 2r'(x)\Big)$$

Splay: Zigzig Case

$$\frac{1}{2}\Big(r(x) + r'(g) - 2r'(x)\Big)$$
$$= \frac{1}{2}\Big(\log(s(x)) + \log(s'(g)) - 2\log(s'(x))\Big)$$

Splay: Zigzig Case

$$\frac{1}{2}\Big(r(x) + r'(g) - 2r'(x)\Big)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}\Big(\log(s(x)) + \log(s'(g)) - 2\log(s'(x))\Big)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}\log\left(\frac{s(x)}{s'(x)}\right) + \frac{1}{2}\log\left(\frac{s'(g)}{s'(x)}\right)$$

Splay: Zigzig Case

$$\frac{1}{2}\Big(r(x) + r'(g) - 2r'(x)\Big)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}\Big(\log(s(x)) + \log(s'(g)) - 2\log(s'(x))\Big)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}\log\Big(\frac{s(x)}{s'(x)}\Big) + \frac{1}{2}\log\Big(\frac{s'(g)}{s'(x)}\Big)$$

$$\leq \log\Big(\frac{1}{2}\frac{s(x)}{s'(x)} + \frac{1}{2}\frac{s'(g)}{s'(x)}\Big)$$

Splay: Zigzig Case

$$\frac{1}{2}\Big(r(x) + r'(g) - 2r'(x)\Big)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}\Big(\log(s(x)) + \log(s'(g)) - 2\log(s'(x))\Big)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}\log\left(\frac{s(x)}{s'(x)}\right) + \frac{1}{2}\log\left(\frac{s'(g)}{s'(x)}\right)$$

$$\leq \log\left(\frac{1}{2}\frac{s(x)}{s'(x)} + \frac{1}{2}\frac{s'(g)}{s'(x)}\right) \leq \log\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)$$

Splay: Zigzig Case

$$\frac{1}{2}\Big(r(x) + r'(g) - 2r'(x)\Big)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}\Big(\log(s(x)) + \log(s'(g)) - 2\log(s'(x))\Big)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}\log\Big(\frac{s(x)}{s'(x)}\Big) + \frac{1}{2}\log\Big(\frac{s'(g)}{s'(x)}\Big)$$

$$\le \log\Big(\frac{1}{2}\frac{s(x)}{s'(x)} + \frac{1}{2}\frac{s'(g)}{s'(x)}\Big) \le \log\Big(\frac{1}{2}\Big) = -1$$

$\Delta\Phi =$

Splay: Zigzag Case

$$\Delta\Phi = r'(x) + r'(p) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(p) - r(g)$$

Splay: Zigzag Case

$$\Delta\Phi = r'(x) + r'(p) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(p) - r(g)$$
$$= r'(p) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(p)$$

Splay: Zigzag Case

$$\Delta\Phi = r'(x) + r'(p) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(p) - r(g)$$
$$= r'(p) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(p)$$
$$\leq r'(p) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(x)$$

Splay: Zigzag Case

$$\Delta\Phi = r'(x) + r'(p) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(p) - r(g)$$
$$= r'(p) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(p)$$
$$\leq r'(p) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(x)$$
$$= r'(p) + r'(g) - 2r'(x) + 2r'(x) - 2r(x)$$
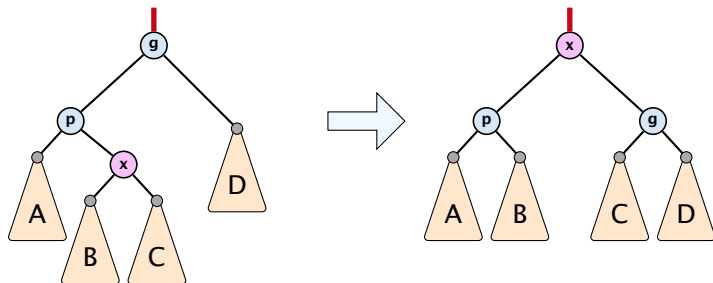
Splay: Zigzag Case

$$\Delta\Phi = r'(x) + r'(p) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(p) - r(g)$$
$$= r'(p) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(p)$$
$$\leq r'(p) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(x)$$
$$= r'(p) + r'(g) - 2r'(x) + 2r'(x) - 2r(x)$$
$$\leq -2 + 2(r'(x) - r(x))$$

Splay: Zigzag Case

$$\Delta\Phi = r'(x) + r'(p) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(p) - r(g)$$
$$= r'(p) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(p)$$
$$\leq r'(p) + r'(g) - r(x) - r(x)$$
$$= r'(p) + r'(g) - 2r'(x) + 2r'(x) - 2r(x)$$
$$\leq -2 + 2(r'(x) - r(x)) \quad \Rightarrow \text{cost}_{\text{zigzag}} \leq 3(r'(x) - r(x))$$

$$\frac{1}{2}\bigl(r'(p) + r'(g) - 2r'(x)\bigr)$$

$$\frac{1}{2}\Big(r'(p) + r'(g) - 2r'(x)\Big)$$
$$= \frac{1}{2}\Big(\log(s'(p)) + \log(s'(g)) - 2\log(s'(x))\Big)$$

Splay: Zigzag Case

$$\frac{1}{2}\Big(r'(p) + r'(g) - 2r'(x)\Big)$$
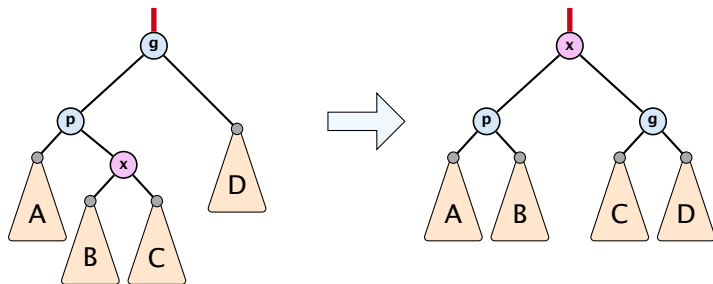
$$= \frac{1}{2}\Big(\log(s'(p)) + \log(s'(g)) - 2\log(s'(x))\Big)$$

$$\leq \log\Big(\frac{1}{2}\frac{s'(p)}{s'(x)} + \frac{1}{2}\frac{s'(g)}{s'(x)}\Big)$$

Splay: Zigzag Case

$$\frac{1}{2}\Big(r'(p) + r'(g) - 2r'(x)\Big)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}\Big(\log(s'(p)) + \log(s'(g)) - 2\log(s'(x))\Big)$$

$$\leq \log\Big(\frac{1}{2}\frac{s'(p)}{s'(x)} + \frac{1}{2}\frac{s'(g)}{s'(x)}\Big) \leq \log\Big(\frac{1}{2}\Big)$$

Splay: Zigzag Case

$$\frac{1}{2}\Big(r'(p) + r'(g) - 2r'(x)\Big)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}\Big(\log(s'(p)) + \log(s'(g)) - 2\log(s'(x))\Big)$$

$$\leq \log\Big(\frac{1}{2}\frac{s'(p)}{s'(x)} + \frac{1}{2}\frac{s'(g)}{s'(x)}\Big) \leq \log\Big(\frac{1}{2}\Big) = -1$$

Amortized cost of the whole splay operation:

$$\leq 1 + 1 + \sum_{\text{steps } t} 3(r_t(x) - r_{t-1}(x))$$

$$= 2 + 3(r(\text{root}) - r_0(x))$$

$$\leq \mathcal{O}(\log n)$$

7.4 Augmenting Data Structures

Suppose you want to develop a data structure with:

- ▶ **Insert(x):** insert element x.

- ▶ **Search(k):** search for element with key k.

- ▶ **Delete(x):** delete element referenced by pointer x.

- ▶ **find-by-rank(ℓ):** return the ℓ-th element; return "error" if the data-structure contains less than ℓ elements.

7.4 Augmenting Data Structures

Suppose you want to develop a data structure with:

- ▶ **Insert(x):** insert element x.
- ▶ **Search(k):** search for element with key k.
- ▶ **Delete(x):** delete element referenced by pointer x.
- ▶ **find-by-rank(ℓ):** return the ℓ-th element; return "error" if the data-structure contains less than ℓ elements.

Augment an existing data-structure instead of developing a new one.

7.4 Augmenting Data Structures

How to augment a data-structure

1. choose an underlying data-structure

7.4 Augmenting Data Structures

How to augment a data-structure

1. choose an underlying data-structure
2. determine additional information to be stored in the underlying structure

7.4 Augmenting Data Structures

How to augment a data-structure

1. choose an underlying data-structure
2. determine additional information to be stored in the underlying structure
3. verify/show how the additional information can be maintained for the basic modifying operations on the underlying structure.

7.4 Augmenting Data Structures

How to augment a data-structure

1. choose an underlying data-structure

2. determine additional information to be stored in the underlying structure

3. verify/show how the additional information can be maintained for the basic modifying operations on the underlying structure.

4. develop the new operations

7.4 Augmenting Data Structures

Goal: Design a data-structure that supports insert, delete, search, and find-by-rank in time $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$.

1. We choose a red-black tree as the underlying data-structure.

7.4 Augmenting Data Structures

Goal: Design a data-structure that supports insert, delete, search, and find-by-rank in time $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$.

1. We choose a red-black tree as the underlying data-structure.
2. We store in each node v the size of the sub-tree rooted at v.

7.4 Augmenting Data Structures

Goal: Design a data-structure that supports insert, delete, search, and find-by-rank in time $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$.

1. We choose a red-black tree as the underlying data-structure.

2. We store in each node v the size of the sub-tree rooted at v.

3. We need to be able to update the size-field in each node without asymptotically affecting the running time of insert, delete, and search. We come back to this step later...

7.4 Augmenting Data Structures

Goal: Design a data-structure that supports insert, delete, search, and find-by-rank in time $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$.

4. How does find-by-rank work?
   Find-by-rank(k) := Select(root, k) with

Algorithm 1 Select(x, i)

1: **if** $x = $ null **then return** error
2: **if** left[x] $\neq$ null **then** $r \leftarrow$ left[x].size $+1$ **else** $r \leftarrow 1$
3: **if** $i = r$ **then return** x
4: **if** $i < r$ **then**
5:     **return** Select(left[x], i)
6: **else**
7:     **return** Select(right[x], $i - r$)

Select(*x*, *i*)

Find-by-rank:
- decide whether you have to proceed into the left or right sub-tree
- adjust the rank that you are searching for if you go right

Select(x, i)

Find-by-rank:

▶ decide whether you have to proceed into the left or right sub-tree

▶ adjust the rank that you are searching for if you go right

Select(*x*, *i*)

Find-by-rank:

▶ decide whether you have to proceed into the left or right sub-tree

▶ adjust the rank that you are searching for if you go right

Select(x, i)

Find-by-rank:

▶ decide whether you have to proceed into the left or right sub-tree

▶ adjust the rank that you are searching for if you go right

Select(*x*, *i*)

Select(⑯, 5)

Find-by-rank:

- ▶ decide whether you have to proceed into the left or right sub-tree
- ▶ adjust the rank that you are searching for if you go right

Select(x, i)

Select(⑲, 3)

Find-by-rank:

▶ decide whether you have to proceed into the left or right sub-tree

▶ adjust the rank that you are searching for if you go right

Select(x, i)

Find-by-rank:

▶ decide whether you have to proceed into the left or right sub-tree

▶ adjust the rank that you are searching for if you go right

7.4 Augmenting Data Structures

Goal: Design a data-structure that supports insert, delete, search, and find-by-rank in time $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$.

3. How do we maintain information?

7.4 Augmenting Data Structures

Goal: Design a data-structure that supports insert, delete, search, and find-by-rank in time $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$.

3. How do we maintain information?

Search(k): Nothing to do.

7.4 Augmenting Data Structures

Goal: Design a data-structure that supports insert, delete, search, and find-by-rank in time $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$.

   3. How do we maintain information?

Search(k): Nothing to do.

Insert(x): When going down the search path increase the size field for each visited node. Maintain the size field during rotations.

7.4 Augmenting Data Structures

Goal: Design a data-structure that supports insert, delete, search, and find-by-rank in time $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$.

   3. How do we maintain information?

Search(k): Nothing to do.

Insert(x): When going down the search path increase the size field for each visited node. Maintain the size field during rotations.

Delete(x): Directly after splicing out a node traverse the path from the spliced out node upwards, and decrease the size counter on every node on this path. Maintain the size field during rotations.

Rotations

The only operation during the fix-up procedure that alters the tree and requires an update of the size-field:
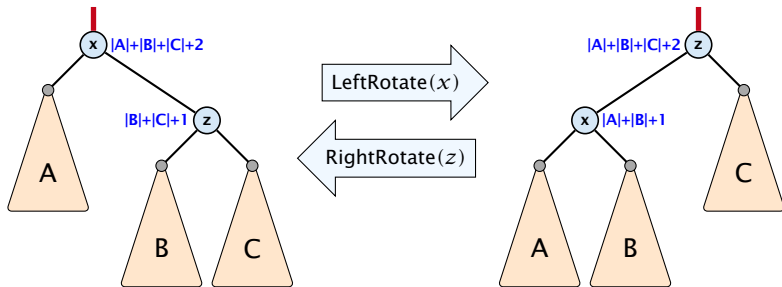
The nodes x and z are the only nodes changing their size-fields.

The new size-fields can be computed locally from the size-fields of the children.

7.5 Skip Lists

Why do we not use a list for implementing the ADT Dynamic Set?

7.5 Skip Lists

Why do we not use a list for implementing the ADT Dynamic Set?

- ▶ time for search $\Theta(n)$
- ▶ time for insert $\Theta(n)$ (dominated by searching the item)
- ▶ time for delete $\Theta(1)$ if we are given a handle to the object, otw. $\Theta(n)$

7.5 Skip Lists

Why do we not use a list for implementing the ADT Dynamic Set?

▶ time for search $\Theta(n)$

▶ time for insert $\Theta(n)$ (dominated by searching the item)

▶ time for delete $\Theta(1)$ if we are given a handle to the object, otw. $\Theta(n)$

7.5 Skip Lists

Why do we not use a list for implementing the ADT Dynamic Set?

▶ time for search $\Theta(n)$

▶ time for insert $\Theta(n)$ (dominated by searching the item)

▶ time for delete $\Theta(1)$ if we are given a handle to the object, otw. $\Theta(n)$

7.5 Skip Lists

Why do we not use a list for implementing the ADT Dynamic Set?

▶ time for search $\Theta(n)$

▶ time for insert $\Theta(n)$ (dominated by searching the item)

▶ time for delete $\Theta(1)$ if we are given a handle to the object, otw. $\Theta(n)$

7.5 Skip Lists

Why do we not use a list for implementing the ADT Dynamic Set?

▶ time for search $\Theta(n)$

▶ time for insert $\Theta(n)$ (dominated by searching the item)

▶ time for delete $\Theta(1)$ if we are given a handle to the object, otw. $\Theta(n)$

7.5 Skip Lists

Why do we not use a list for implementing the ADT Dynamic Set?

- time for search $\Theta(n)$
- time for insert $\Theta(n)$ (dominated by searching the item)
- time for delete $\Theta(1)$ if we are given a handle to the object, otw. $\Theta(n)$

7.5 Skip Lists

Why do we not use a list for implementing the ADT Dynamic Set?

- time for search $\Theta(n)$
- time for insert $\Theta(n)$ (dominated by searching the item)
- time for delete $\Theta(1)$ if we are given a handle to the object, otw. $\Theta(n)$

7.5 Skip Lists

Why do we not use a list for implementing the ADT Dynamic Set?

▶ time for search $\Theta(n)$

▶ time for insert $\Theta(n)$ (dominated by searching the item)

▶ time for delete $\Theta(1)$ if we are given a handle to the object, otw. $\Theta(n)$

7.5 Skip Lists

Why do we not use a list for implementing the ADT Dynamic Set?

▶ time for search $\Theta(n)$

▶ time for insert $\Theta(n)$ (dominated by searching the item)

▶ time for delete $\Theta(1)$ if we are given a handle to the object, otw. $\Theta(n)$

7.5 Skip Lists

Why do we not use a list for implementing the ADT Dynamic Set?

▶ time for search $\Theta(n)$

▶ time for insert $\Theta(n)$ (dominated by searching the item)

▶ time for delete $\Theta(1)$ if we are given a handle to the object, otw. $\Theta(n)$

7.5 Skip Lists

Why do we not use a list for implementing the ADT Dynamic Set?

▶ time for search $\Theta(n)$

▶ time for insert $\Theta(n)$ (dominated by searching the item)

▶ time for delete $\Theta(1)$ if we are given a handle to the object, otw. $\Theta(n)$

7.5 Skip Lists

How can we improve the search-operation?

7.5 Skip Lists

How can we improve the search-operation?

Add an express lane:

7.5 Skip Lists

How can we improve the search-operation?

Add an express lane:

7.5 Skip Lists

How can we improve the search-operation?

Add an express lane:

7.5 Skip Lists

How can we improve the search-operation?

Add an express lane:

7.5 Skip Lists

How can we improve the search-operation?

Add an express lane:

7.5 Skip Lists

How can we improve the search-operation?

Add an express lane:

7.5 Skip Lists

How can we improve the search-operation?

Add an express lane:

7.5 Skip Lists

How can we improve the search-operation?

Add an express lane:

7.5 Skip Lists

How can we improve the search-operation?

Add an express lane:

7.5 Skip Lists

How can we improve the search-operation?

Add an express lane:

7.5 Skip Lists

How can we improve the search-operation?

Add an express lane:

Let $|L_1|$ denote the number of elements in the "express lane", and $|L_0| = n$ the number of all elements (ignoring dummy elements).

7.5 Skip Lists

How can we improve the search-operation?
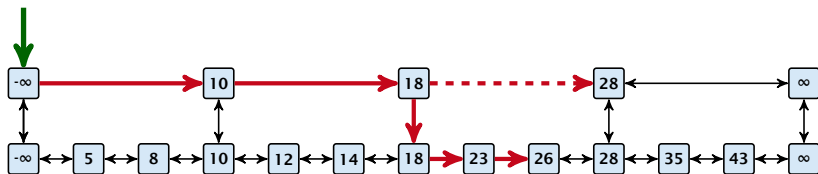
Add an express lane:

Let $|L_1|$ denote the number of elements in the "express lane", and $|L_0| = n$ the number of all elements (ignoring dummy elements).

Worst case search time: $|L_1| + \frac{|L_0|}{|L_1|}$ (ignoring additive constants)

7.5 Skip Lists

How can we improve the search-operation?
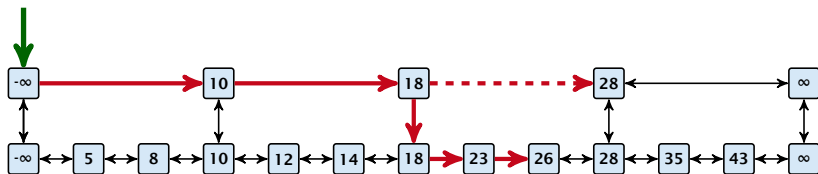
Add an express lane:

Let $|L_1|$ denote the number of elements in the "express lane", and $|L_0| = n$ the number of all elements (ignoring dummy elements).

Worst case search time: $|L_1| + \frac{|L_0|}{|L_1|}$ (ignoring additive constants)

Choose $|L_1| = \sqrt{n}$. Then search time $\Theta(\sqrt{n})$.

7.5 Skip Lists

Add more express lanes. Lane L_i contains roughly every $\frac{L_{i-1}}{L_i}$-th item from list L_{i-1}.

7.5 Skip Lists

Add more express lanes. Lane L_i contains roughly every $\frac{L_{i-1}}{L_i}$-th item from list L_{i-1}.

Search(x) ($k + 1$ lists $L_0, \ldots, L_k$)

7.5 Skip Lists

Add more express lanes. Lane L_i contains roughly every $\frac{L_{i-1}}{L_i}$-th item from list L_{i-1}.

Search(x) ($k + 1$ lists $L_0, \ldots, L_k$)

▶ Find the largest item in list L_k that is smaller than x. At most $|L_k| + 2$ steps.

7.5 Skip Lists

Add more express lanes. Lane L_i contains roughly every $\frac{L_{i-1}}{L_i}$-th item from list L_{i-1}.

Search(x) ($k + 1$ lists $L_0, \ldots, L_k$)

- ▶ Find the largest item in list L_k that is smaller than x. At most $|L_k| + 2$ steps.

- ▶ Find the largest item in list L_{k-1} that is smaller than x. At most $\lceil \frac{|L_{k-1}|}{|L_k|+1} \rceil + 2$ steps.

7.5 Skip Lists

Add more express lanes. Lane L_i contains roughly every $\frac{L_{i-1}}{L_i}$-th item from list L_{i-1}.

Search(x) ($k + 1$ lists $L_0, \ldots, L_k$)

▶ Find the largest item in list L_k that is smaller than x. At most $|L_k| + 2$ steps.

▶ Find the largest item in list L_{k-1} that is smaller than x. At most $\left\lceil \frac{|L_{k-1}|}{|L_k|+1} \right\rceil + 2$ steps.

▶ Find the largest item in list L_{k-2} that is smaller than x. At most $\left\lceil \frac{|L_{k-2}|}{|L_{k-1}|+1} \right\rceil + 2$ steps.

7.5 Skip Lists

Add more express lanes. Lane L_i contains roughly every $\frac{L_{i-1}}{L_i}$-th item from list L_{i-1}.

Search(x) ($k + 1$ lists $L_0, \ldots, L_k$)

▶ Find the largest item in list L_k that is smaller than x. At most $|L_k| + 2$ steps.

▶ Find the largest item in list L_{k-1} that is smaller than x. At most $\left\lceil \frac{|L_{k-1}|}{|L_k|+1} \right\rceil + 2$ steps.

▶ Find the largest item in list L_{k-2} that is smaller than x. At most $\left\lceil \frac{|L_{k-2}|}{|L_{k-1}|+1} \right\rceil + 2$ steps.

▶ ...

7.5 Skip Lists

Add more express lanes. Lane L_i contains roughly every $\frac{L_{i-1}}{L_i}$-th item from list L_{i-1}.

Search(x) ($k + 1$ lists $L_0, \ldots, L_k$)

- ▶ Find the largest item in list L_k that is smaller than x. At most $|L_k| + 2$ steps.
- ▶ Find the largest item in list L_{k-1} that is smaller than x. At most $\lceil \frac{|L_{k-1}|}{|L_k|+1} \rceil + 2$ steps.
- ▶ Find the largest item in list L_{k-2} that is smaller than x. At most $\lceil \frac{|L_{k-2}|}{|L_{k-1}|+1} \rceil + 2$ steps.
- ▶ . . .
- ▶ At most $|L_k| + \sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{L_{i-1}}{L_i} + 3(k + 1)$ steps.

7.5 Skip Lists

Choose ratios between list-lengths evenly, i.e., $\frac{|L_{i-1}|}{|L_i|} = r$, and, hence, $L_k \approx r^{-k}n$.

7.5 Skip Lists

Choose ratios between list-lengths evenly, i.e., $\frac{|L_{i-1}|}{|L_i|} = r$, and, hence, $L_k \approx r^{-k} n$.

Worst case running time is: $\mathcal{O}(r^{-k} n + kr)$.

7.5 Skip Lists

Choose ratios between list-lengths evenly, i.e., $\frac{|L_{i-1}|}{|L_i|} = r$, and, hence, $L_k \approx r^{-k}n$.

Worst case running time is: $\mathcal{O}(r^{-k}n + kr)$.
Choose $r = n^{\frac{1}{k+1}}$. Then

$$r^{-k}n + kr$$

7.5 Skip Lists

Choose ratios between list-lengths evenly, i.e., $\frac{|L_{i-1}|}{|L_i|} = r$, and, hence, $L_k \approx r^{-k}n$.

Worst case running time is: $\mathcal{O}(r^{-k}n + kr)$.
Choose $r = n^{\frac{1}{k+1}}$. Then

$$r^{-k}n + kr = \left(n^{\frac{1}{k+1}}\right)^{-k} n + kn^{\frac{1}{k+1}}$$

7.5 Skip Lists

Choose ratios between list-lengths evenly, i.e., $\frac{|L_{i-1}|}{|L_i|} = r$, and, hence, $L_k \approx r^{-k}n$.

Worst case running time is: $\mathcal{O}(r^{-k}n + kr)$.
Choose $r = n^{\frac{1}{k+1}}$. Then

$$r^{-k}n + kr = \left(n^{\frac{1}{k+1}}\right)^{-k} n + kn^{\frac{1}{k+1}}$$
$$= n^{1-\frac{k}{k+1}} + kn^{\frac{1}{k+1}}$$

7.5 Skip Lists

Choose ratios between list-lengths evenly, i.e., $\frac{|L_{i-1}|}{|L_i|} = r$, and, hence, $L_k \approx r^{-k}n$.

Worst case running time is: $\mathcal{O}(r^{-k}n + kr)$.
Choose $r = n^{\frac{1}{k+1}}$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
r^{-k}n + kr &= \left(n^{\frac{1}{k+1}}\right)^{-k}n + kn^{\frac{1}{k+1}} \\
&= n^{1-\frac{k}{k+1}} + kn^{\frac{1}{k+1}} \\
&= (k+1)n^{\frac{1}{k+1}} \ .
\end{aligned}
$$

7.5 Skip Lists

Choose ratios between list-lengths evenly, i.e., $\frac{|L_{i-1}|}{|L_i|} = r$, and, hence, $L_k \approx r^{-k} n$.

Worst case running time is: $\mathcal{O}(r^{-k} n + kr)$.
Choose $r = n^{\frac{1}{k+1}}$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
r^{-k} n + kr &= \left(n^{\frac{1}{k+1}} \right)^{-k} n + k n^{\frac{1}{k+1}} \\
&= n^{1 - \frac{k}{k+1}} + k n^{\frac{1}{k+1}} \\
&= (k+1) n^{\frac{1}{k+1}} \ .
\end{aligned}
$$

Choosing $k = \Theta(\log n)$ gives a logarithmic running time.

7.5 Skip Lists

How to do insert and delete?

7.5 Skip Lists

How to do insert and delete?

▶ If we want that in L_i we always skip over roughly the same number of elements in L_{i-1} an insert or delete may require a lot of re-organisation.

7.5 Skip Lists

How to do insert and delete?

▶ If we want that in L_i we always skip over roughly the same number of elements in L_{i-1} an insert or delete may require a lot of re-organisation.

Use randomization instead!

Insert:

7.5 Skip Lists

Insert:

▶ A search operation gives you the insert position for element x in every list.

7.5 Skip Lists

Insert:

- A search operation gives you the insert position for element x in every list.

- Flip a coin until it shows head, and record the number $t \in \{1, 2, \dots\}$ of trials needed.

7.5 Skip Lists

Insert:

- ▶ A search operation gives you the insert position for element x in every list.

- ▶ Flip a coin until it shows head, and record the number $t \in \{1, 2, \dots\}$ of trials needed.

- ▶ Insert x into lists $L_0, \dots, L_{t-1}$.

7.5 Skip Lists

Insert:

- A search operation gives you the insert position for element x in every list.
- Flip a coin until it shows head, and record the number $t \in \{1, 2, \dots\}$ of trials needed.
- Insert x into lists $L_0, \dots, L_{t-1}$.

Delete:

7.5 Skip Lists

Insert:

- ▶ A search operation gives you the insert position for element x in every list.
- ▶ Flip a coin until it shows head, and record the number $t \in \{1, 2, \dots\}$ of trials needed.
- ▶ Insert x into lists $L_0, \dots, L_{t-1}$.

Delete:

- ▶ You get all predecessors via backward pointers.

7.5 Skip Lists

Insert:

▶ A search operation gives you the insert position for element x in every list.

▶ Flip a coin until it shows head, and record the number $t \in \{1, 2, \dots\}$ of trials needed.

▶ Insert x into lists $L_0, \dots, L_{t-1}$.

Delete:

▶ You get all predecessors via backward pointers.

▶ Delete x in all lists it actually appears in.

7.5 Skip Lists

Insert:

▶ A search operation gives you the insert position for element x in every list.

▶ Flip a coin until it shows head, and record the number $t \in \{1, 2, \dots\}$ of trials needed.

▶ Insert x into lists $L_0, \dots, L_{t-1}$.

Delete:

▶ You get all predecessors via backward pointers.

▶ Delete x in all lists it actually appears in.

The time for both operations is dominated by the search time.

7.5 Skip Lists

Insert (35):
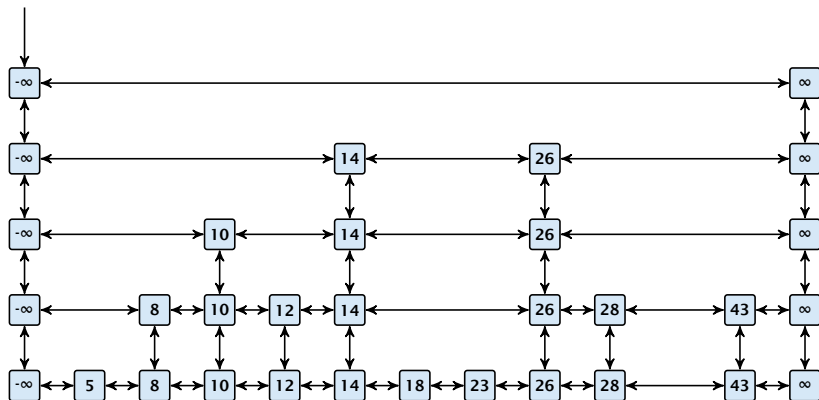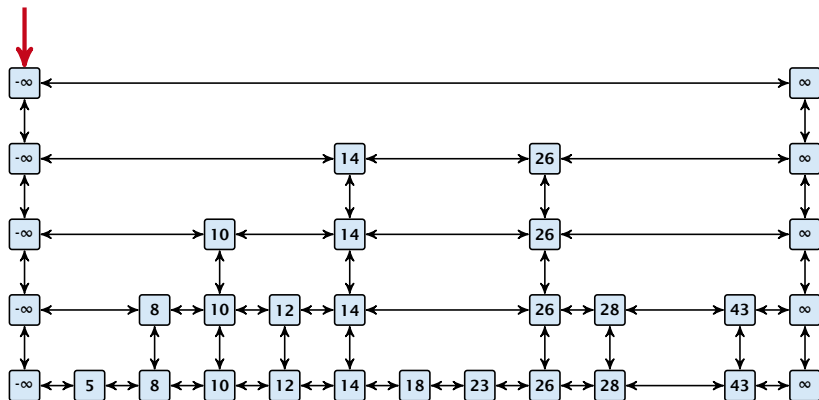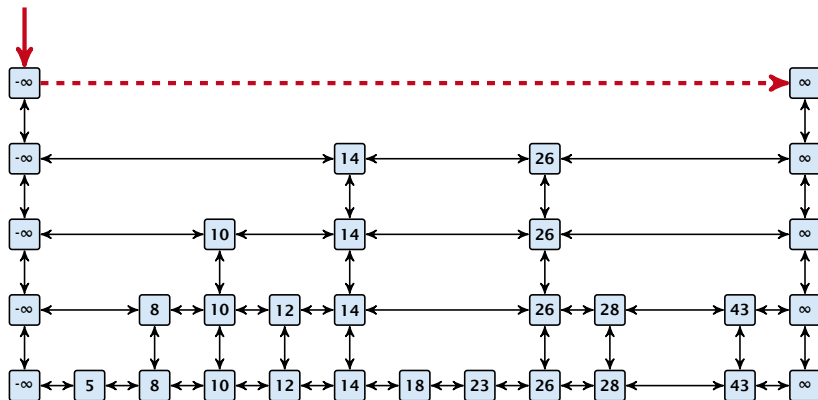
7.5 Skip Lists

Insert (35):

7.5 Skip Lists

Insert (35):
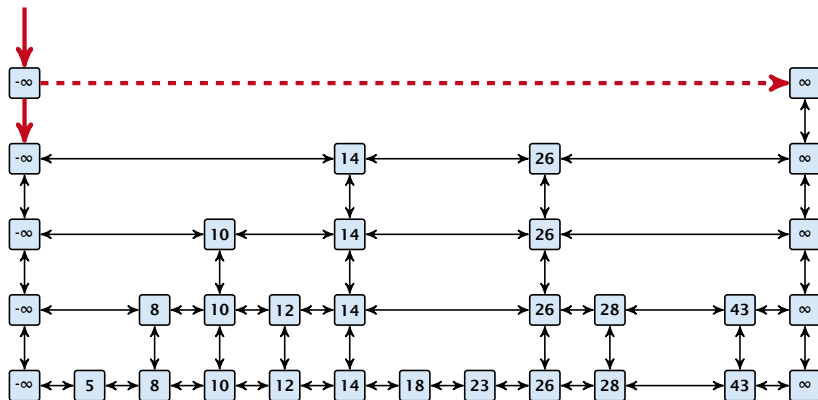
7.5 Skip Lists

Insert (35):
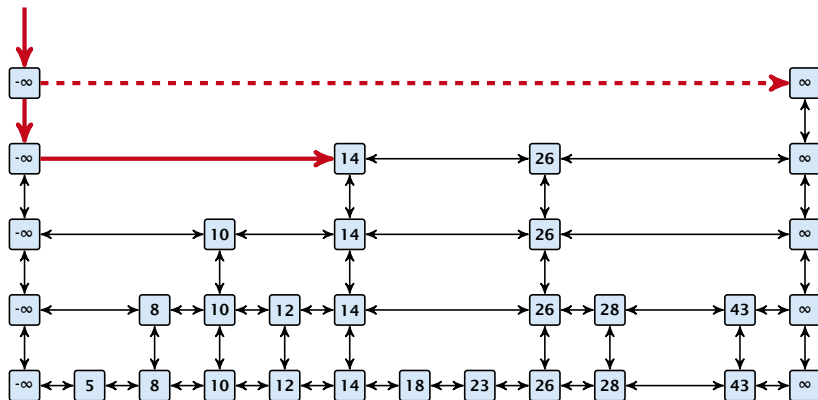
7.5 Skip Lists

Insert (35):
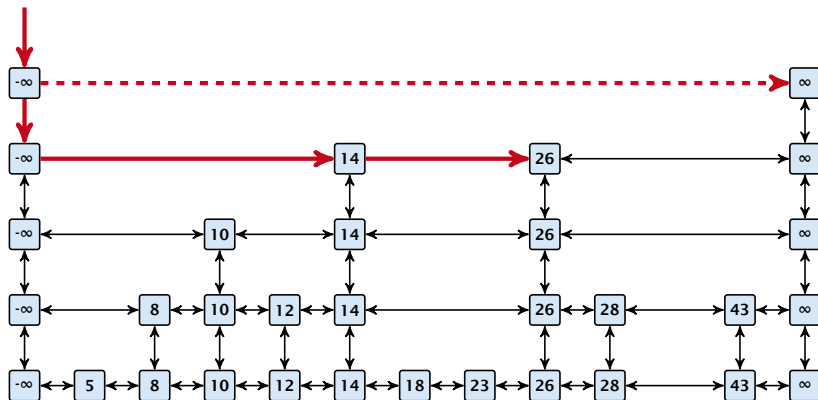
Insert (35):

7.5 Skip Lists
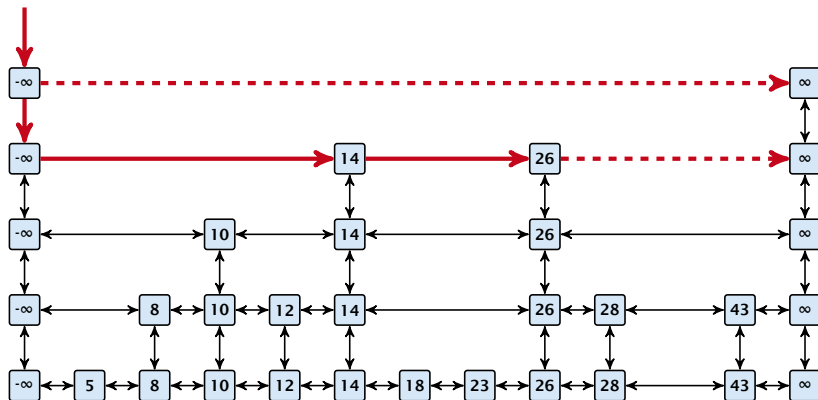
Insert (35):

7.5 Skip Lists
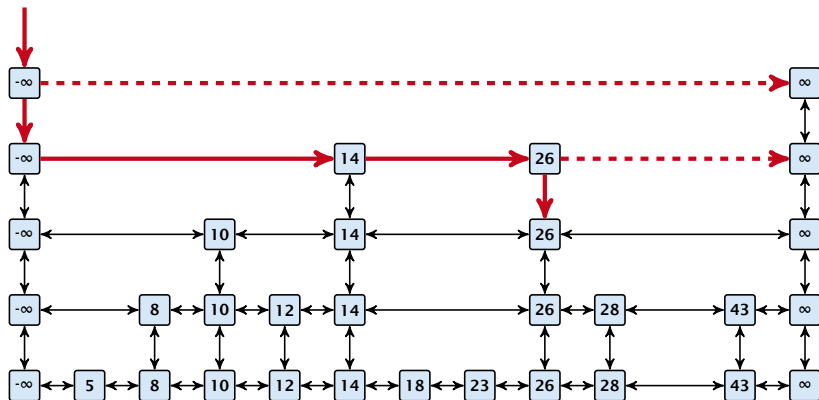
Insert (35):

Insert (35):

7.5 Skip Lists
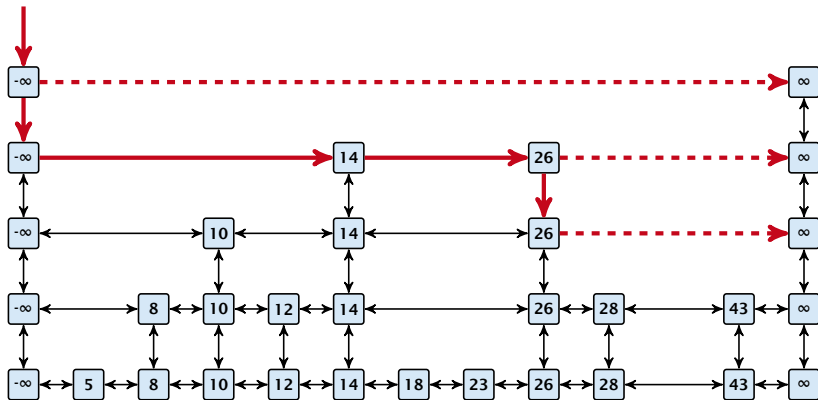
Insert (35):

7.5 Skip Lists
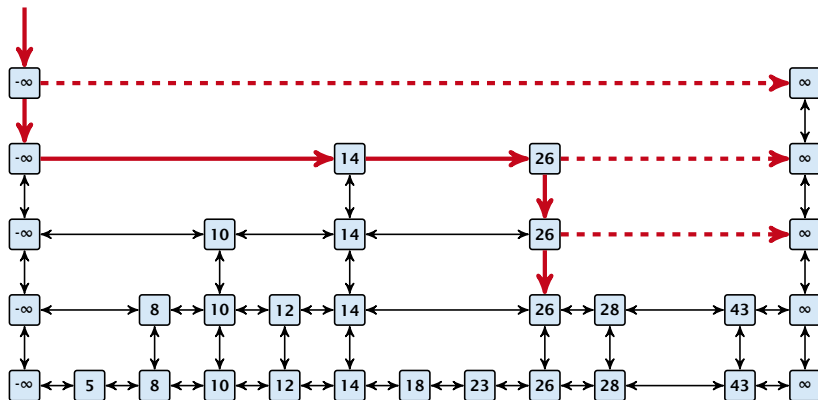
Insert (35):

7.5 Skip Lists
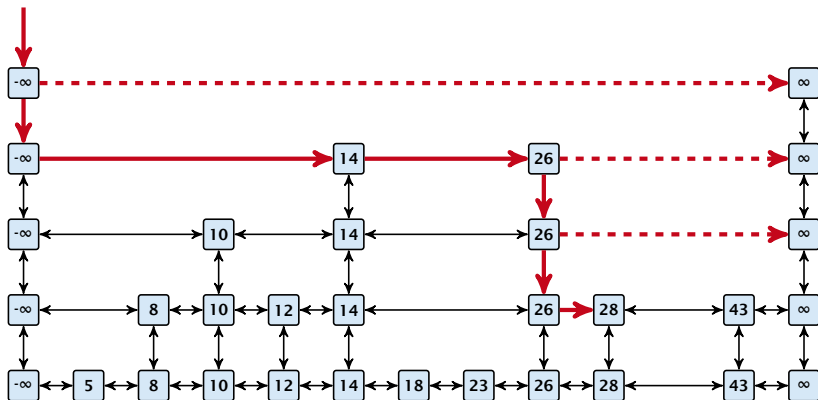
Insert (35):

7.5 Skip Lists
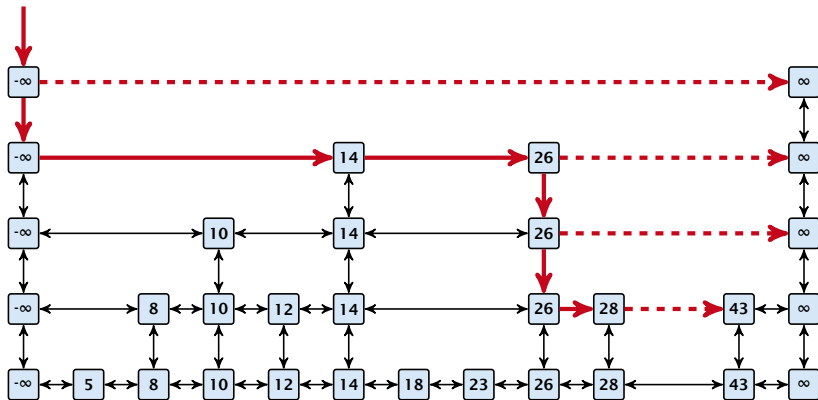
Insert (35):

7.5 Skip Lists
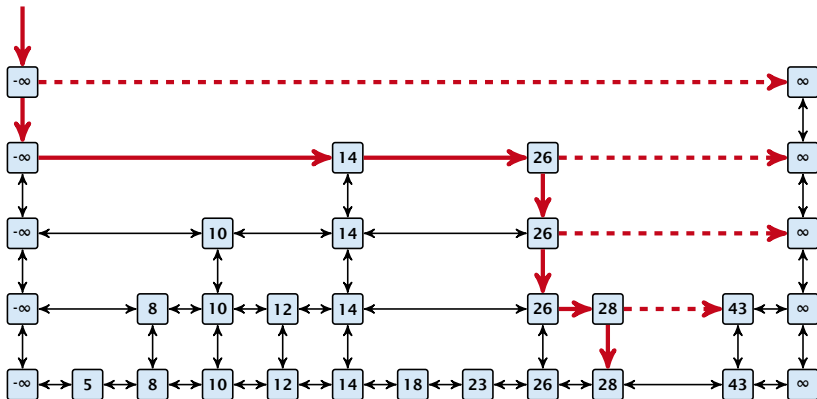
Insert (35):

7.5 Skip Lists
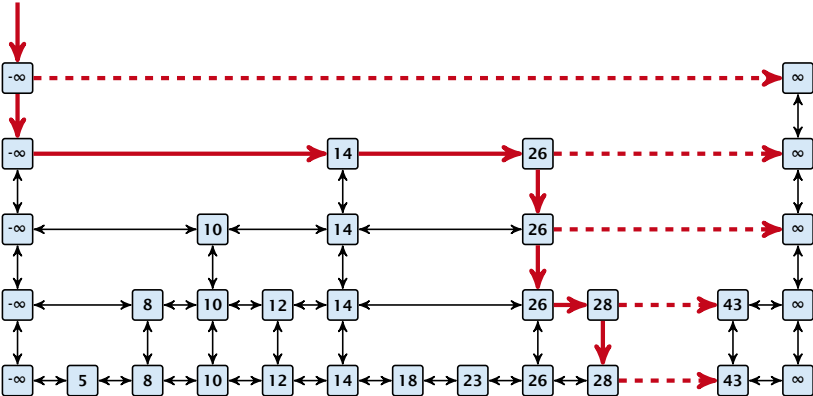
Insert (35):

7.5 Skip Lists

Insert (35):
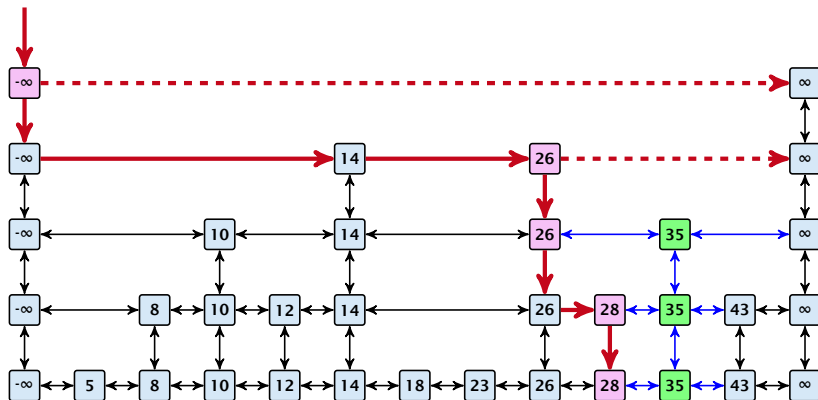
High Probability

Definition 7 (High Probability)

We say a **randomized** algorithm has running time $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$ with high probability if for any constant α the running time is at most $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$ with probability at least $1 - \frac{1}{n^\alpha}$.

High Probability

Definition 7 (High Probability)

We say a **randomized** algorithm has running time $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$ with high probability if for any constant α the running time is at most $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$ with probability at least $1 - \frac{1}{n^\alpha}$.

Here the $\mathcal{O}$-notation hides a constant that may depend on α.

High Probability

Suppose there are polynomially many events $E_1, E_2, \ldots, E_\ell$, $\ell = n^c$ each holding with high probability (e.g. E_i may be the event that the i-th search in a skip list takes time at most $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$).

High Probability

Suppose there are polynomially many events $E_1, E_2, \ldots, E_\ell$, $\ell = n^c$ each holding with high probability (e.g. E_i may be the event that the i-th search in a skip list takes time at most $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$).

Then the probability that all E_i hold is at least

$$\Pr[E_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge E_\ell]$$

High Probability

Suppose there are polynomially many events $E_1, E_2, \ldots, E_\ell$, $\ell = n^c$ each holding with high probability (e.g. E_i may be the event that the i-th search in a skip list takes time at most $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$).

Then the probability that all E_i hold is at least

$$\Pr[E_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge E_\ell] = 1 - \Pr[\bar{E}_1 \vee \cdots \vee \bar{E}_\ell]$$

High Probability

Suppose there are polynomially many events $E_1, E_2, \ldots, E_\ell$, $\ell = n^c$ each holding with high probability (e.g. E_i may be the event that the i-th search in a skip list takes time at most $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$).

Then the probability that all E_i hold is at least

$$\Pr[E_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge E_\ell] = 1 - \Pr[\bar{E}_1 \vee \cdots \vee \bar{E}_\ell]$$
$$\geq 1 - n^c \cdot n^{-\alpha}$$

High Probability

Suppose there are polynomially many events $E_1, E_2, \ldots, E_\ell$, $\ell = n^c$ each holding with high probability (e.g. E_i may be the event that the i-th search in a skip list takes time at most $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$).

Then the probability that all E_i hold is at least

$$\Pr[E_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge E_\ell] = 1 - \Pr[\bar{E}_1 \vee \cdots \vee \bar{E}_\ell]$$
$$\geq 1 - n^c \cdot n^{-\alpha}$$
$$= 1 - n^{c-\alpha} \ .$$

High Probability

Suppose there are polynomially many events $E_1, E_2, \ldots, E_\ell$, $\ell = n^c$ each holding with high probability (e.g. E_i may be the event that the i-th search in a skip list takes time at most $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$).

Then the probability that all E_i hold is at least

$$\Pr[E_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge E_\ell] = 1 - \Pr[\bar{E}_1 \vee \cdots \vee \bar{E}_\ell]$$
$$\geq 1 - n^c \cdot n^{-\alpha}$$
$$= 1 - n^{c-\alpha} \ .$$

This means $\Pr[E_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge E_\ell]$ holds with high probability.

7.5 Skip Lists

Lemma 8

A search (and, hence, also insert and delete) in a skip list with n elements takes time $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$ with high probability (w. h. p.).

7.5 Skip Lists

Backward analysis:
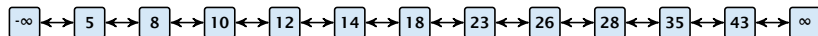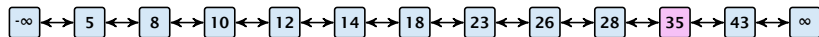
7.5 Skip Lists

Backward analysis:

| -∞ | ↔ | 5 | ↔ | 8 | ↔ | 10 | ↔ | 12 | ↔ | 14 | ↔ | 18 | ↔ | 23 | ↔ | 26 | ↔ | 28 | ↔ | 35 | ↔ | 43 | ↔ | ∞ |
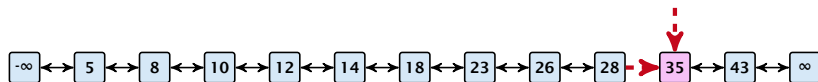
7.5 Skip Lists

Backward analysis:
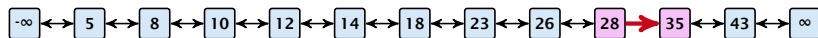
Backward analysis:

7.5 Skip Lists
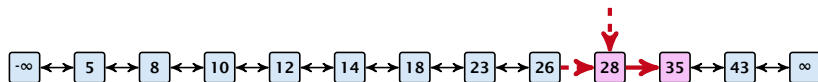
Backward analysis:

7.5 Skip Lists
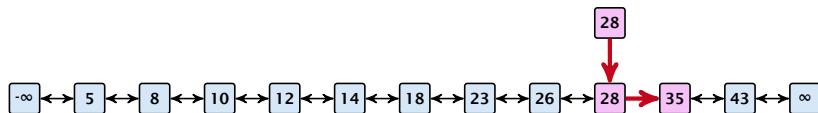
Backward analysis:

7.5 Skip Lists
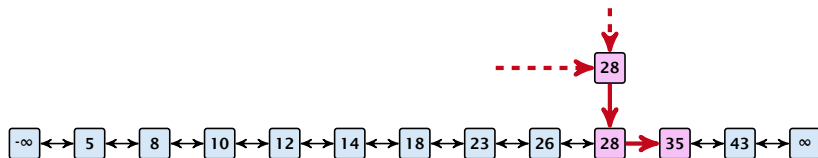
Backward analysis:

7.5 Skip Lists
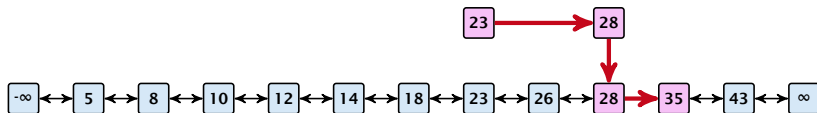
Backward analysis:

7.5 Skip Lists
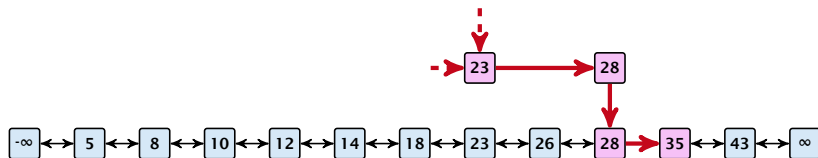
Backward analysis:

7.5 Skip Lists
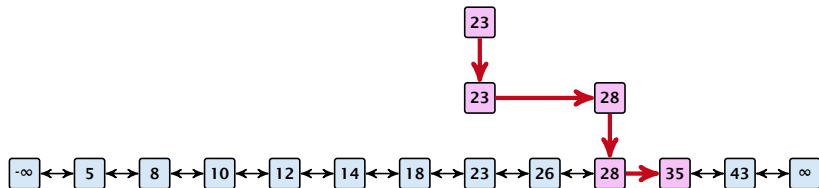
Backward analysis:

7.5 Skip Lists
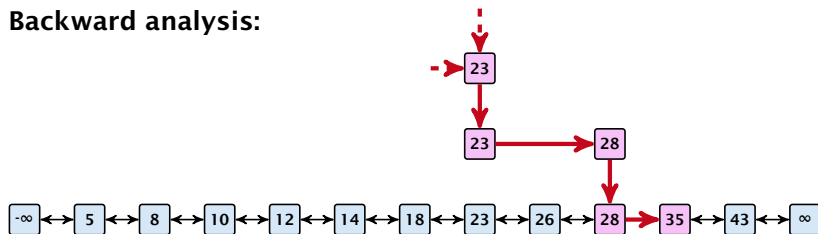
Backward analysis:

7.5 Skip Lists
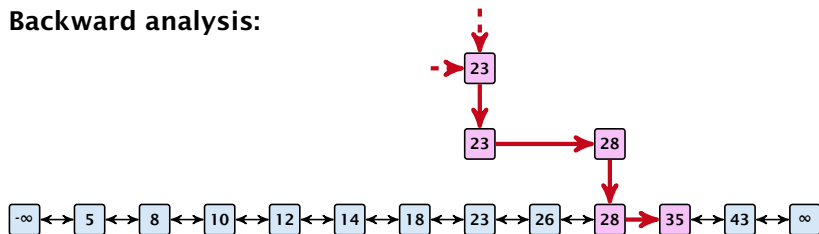
Backward analysis:

At each point the path goes up with probability $1/2$ and left with probability $1/2$.

7.5 Skip Lists

Backward analysis:
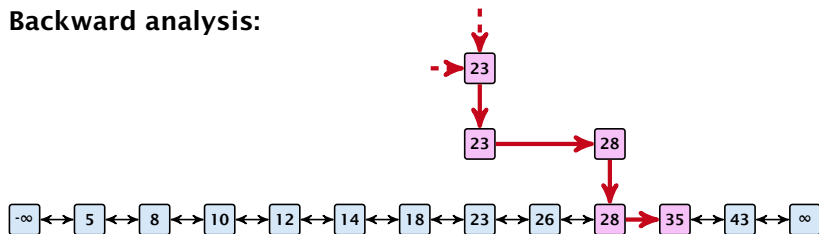
At each point the path goes up with probability $1/2$ and left with probability $1/2$.

We show that w.h.p:

▶ A "long" search path must also go very high.

7.5 Skip Lists

Backward analysis:
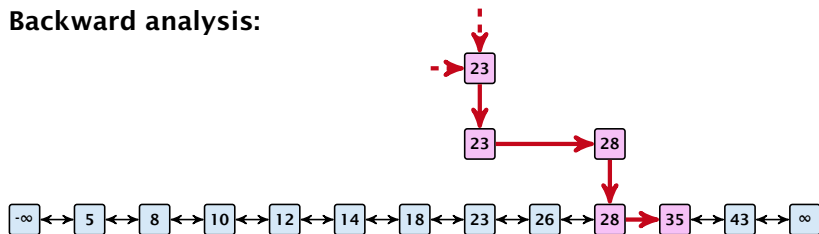
At each point the path goes up with probability $1/2$ and left with probability $1/2$.

We show that w.h.p:

▶ A "long" search path must also go very high.

▶ There are no elements in high lists.

7.5 Skip Lists

Backward analysis:
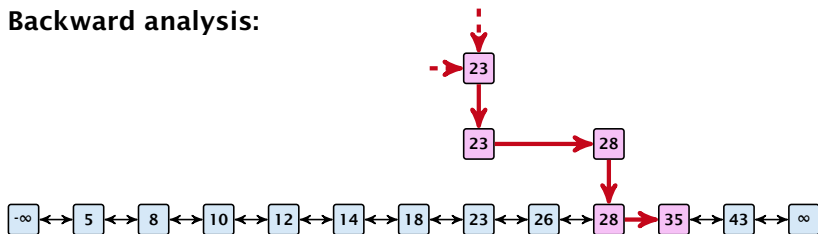
At each point the path goes up with probability $1/2$ and left with probability $1/2$.

We show that w.h.p:

▶ A "long" search path must also go very high.

▶ There are no elements in high lists.

From this it follows that w.h.p. there are no long paths.

7.5 Skip Lists

Estimation for Binomial Coefficients

$$\left(\frac{n}{k}\right)^k \leq \binom{n}{k} \leq \left(\frac{en}{k}\right)^k$$

7.5 Skip Lists

Estimation for Binomial Coefficients

$$\left(\frac{n}{k}\right)^k \le \binom{n}{k} \le \left(\frac{en}{k}\right)^k$$

$$\binom{n}{k}$$

7.5 Skip Lists

Estimation for Binomial Coefficients

$$\left(\frac{n}{k}\right)^k \leq \binom{n}{k} \leq \left(\frac{en}{k}\right)^k$$

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k! \cdot (n-k)!}$$

7.5 Skip Lists

Estimation for Binomial Coefficients

$$\left(\frac{n}{k}\right)^k \leq \binom{n}{k} \leq \left(\frac{en}{k}\right)^k$$

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k! \cdot (n-k)!} = \frac{n \cdot \ldots \cdot (n-k+1)}{k \cdot \ldots \cdot 1}$$

7.5 Skip Lists

Estimation for Binomial Coefficients

$$\left(\frac{n}{k}\right)^k \leq \binom{n}{k} \leq \left(\frac{en}{k}\right)^k$$

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k! \cdot (n-k)!} = \frac{n \cdot \ldots \cdot (n-k+1)}{k \cdot \ldots \cdot 1} \geq \left(\frac{n}{k}\right)^k$$

7.5 Skip Lists

Estimation for Binomial Coefficients

$$\left(\frac{n}{k}\right)^k \le \binom{n}{k} \le \left(\frac{en}{k}\right)^k$$

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k! \cdot (n-k)!} = \frac{n \cdot \ldots \cdot (n-k+1)}{k \cdot \ldots \cdot 1} \ge \left(\frac{n}{k}\right)^k$$

$$\binom{n}{k}$$

7.5 Skip Lists

Estimation for Binomial Coefficients

$$\left(\frac{n}{k}\right)^k \leq \binom{n}{k} \leq \left(\frac{en}{k}\right)^k$$

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k! \cdot (n-k)!} = \frac{n \cdot \ldots \cdot (n-k+1)}{k \cdot \ldots \cdot 1} \geq \left(\frac{n}{k}\right)^k$$

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n \cdot \ldots \cdot (n-k+1)}{k!}$$

7.5 Skip Lists

Estimation for Binomial Coefficients

$$\left(\frac{n}{k}\right)^k \leq \binom{n}{k} \leq \left(\frac{en}{k}\right)^k$$

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k! \cdot (n-k)!} = \frac{n \cdot \ldots \cdot (n-k+1)}{k \cdot \ldots \cdot 1} \geq \left(\frac{n}{k}\right)^k$$

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n \cdot \ldots \cdot (n-k+1)}{k!} \leq \frac{n^k}{k!}$$

7.5 Skip Lists

Estimation for Binomial Coefficients

$$\left(\frac{n}{k}\right)^k \leq \binom{n}{k} \leq \left(\frac{en}{k}\right)^k$$

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k! \cdot (n-k)!} = \frac{n \cdot \ldots \cdot (n-k+1)}{k \cdot \ldots \cdot 1} \geq \left(\frac{n}{k}\right)^k$$

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n \cdot \ldots \cdot (n-k+1)}{k!} \leq \frac{n^k}{k!} = \frac{n^k \cdot k^k}{k^k \cdot k!}$$

7.5 Skip Lists

Estimation for Binomial Coefficients

$$\left(\frac{n}{k}\right)^k \leq \binom{n}{k} \leq \left(\frac{en}{k}\right)^k$$

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k! \cdot (n-k)!} = \frac{n \cdot \ldots \cdot (n-k+1)}{k \cdot \ldots \cdot 1} \geq \left(\frac{n}{k}\right)^k$$

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n \cdot \ldots \cdot (n-k+1)}{k!} \leq \frac{n^k}{k!} = \frac{n^k \cdot k^k}{k^k \cdot k!}$$

$$= \left(\frac{n}{k}\right)^k \cdot \frac{k^k}{k!}$$

7.5 Skip Lists

Estimation for Binomial Coefficients

$$\left(\frac{n}{k}\right)^k \leq \binom{n}{k} \leq \left(\frac{en}{k}\right)^k$$

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k! \cdot (n-k)!} = \frac{n \cdot \ldots \cdot (n-k+1)}{k \cdot \ldots \cdot 1} \geq \left(\frac{n}{k}\right)^k$$

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n \cdot \ldots \cdot (n-k+1)}{k!} \leq \frac{n^k}{k!} = \frac{n^k \cdot k^k}{k^k \cdot k!}$$

$$= \left(\frac{n}{k}\right)^k \cdot \frac{k^k}{k!} \leq \left(\frac{n}{k}\right)^k \cdot \sum_{i \geq 0} \frac{k^i}{i!}$$

7.5 Skip Lists

Estimation for Binomial Coefficients

$$\left(\frac{n}{k}\right)^k \leq \binom{n}{k} \leq \left(\frac{en}{k}\right)^k$$

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k! \cdot (n-k)!} = \frac{n \cdot \ldots \cdot (n-k+1)}{k \cdot \ldots \cdot 1} \geq \left(\frac{n}{k}\right)^k$$

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n \cdot \ldots \cdot (n-k+1)}{k!} \leq \frac{n^k}{k!} = \frac{n^k \cdot k^k}{k^k \cdot k!}$$

$$= \left(\frac{n}{k}\right)^k \cdot \frac{k^k}{k!} \leq \left(\frac{n}{k}\right)^k \cdot \sum_{i \geq 0} \frac{k^i}{i!} = \left(\frac{en}{k}\right)^k$$

7.5 Skip Lists

7.5 Skip Lists

Let $E_{z,k}$ denote the event that a search path is of length z (number of edges) but does not visit a list above L_k.

7.5 Skip Lists

Let $E_{z,k}$ denote the event that a search path is of length z (number of edges) but does not visit a list above L_k.

In particular, this means that during the construction in the backward analysis we see at most k heads (i.e., coin flips that tell you to go up) in z trials.

7.5 Skip Lists

$\Pr[E_{z,k}]$

7.5 Skip Lists

$$\Pr[E_{z,k}] \le \Pr[\text{at most } k \text{ heads in } z \text{ trials}]$$

7.5 Skip Lists

$$\Pr[E_{z,k}] \leq \Pr[\text{at most } k \text{ heads in } z \text{ trials}]$$

$$\leq \binom{z}{k} 2^{-(z-k)}$$

7.5 Skip Lists

$$\Pr[E_{z,k}] \leq \Pr[\text{at most } k \text{ heads in } z \text{ trials}]$$

$$\leq \binom{z}{k} 2^{-(z-k)} \leq \left(\frac{ez}{k}\right)^k 2^{-(z-k)}$$

7.5 Skip Lists

$$\Pr[E_{z,k}] \leq \Pr[\text{at most } k \text{ heads in } z \text{ trials}]$$

$$\leq \binom{z}{k} 2^{-(z-k)} \leq \left(\frac{ez}{k}\right)^k 2^{-(z-k)} \leq \left(\frac{2ez}{k}\right)^k 2^{-z}$$

7.5 Skip Lists

$$\Pr[E_{z,k}] \leq \Pr[\text{at most } k \text{ heads in } z \text{ trials}]$$

$$\leq \binom{z}{k} 2^{-(z-k)} \leq \left(\frac{ez}{k}\right)^k 2^{-(z-k)} \leq \left(\frac{2ez}{k}\right)^k 2^{-z}$$

choosing $k = \gamma \log n$ with $\gamma \geq 1$ and $z = (\beta + \alpha)\gamma \log n$

7.5 Skip Lists

$\Pr[E_{z,k}] \le \Pr[\text{at most } k \text{ heads in } z \text{ trials}]$

$$\le \binom{z}{k} 2^{-(z-k)} \le \left(\frac{ez}{k}\right)^k 2^{-(z-k)} \le \left(\frac{2ez}{k}\right)^k 2^{-z}$$

choosing $k = \gamma \log n$ with $\gamma \ge 1$ and $z = (\beta + \alpha)\gamma \log n$

$$\le \left(\frac{2ez}{k}\right)^k 2^{-\beta k} \cdot n^{-\gamma \alpha}$$

7.5 Skip Lists

$$\Pr[E_{z,k}] \leq \Pr[\text{at most } k \text{ heads in } z \text{ trials}]$$

$$\leq \binom{z}{k} 2^{-(z-k)} \leq \left(\frac{ez}{k}\right)^k 2^{-(z-k)} \leq \left(\frac{2ez}{k}\right)^k 2^{-z}$$

choosing $k = \gamma \log n$ with $\gamma \geq 1$ and $z = (\beta + \alpha)\gamma \log n$

$$\leq \left(\frac{2ez}{k}\right)^k 2^{-\beta k} \cdot n^{-\gamma\alpha} \leq \left(\frac{2ez}{2^\beta k}\right)^k \cdot n^{-\alpha}$$

7.5 Skip Lists

$$\Pr[E_{z,k}] \le \Pr[\text{at most } k \text{ heads in } z \text{ trials}]$$

$$\le \binom{z}{k} 2^{-(z-k)} \le \left(\frac{ez}{k}\right)^k 2^{-(z-k)} \le \left(\frac{2ez}{k}\right)^k 2^{-z}$$

choosing $k = \gamma \log n$ with $\gamma \ge 1$ and $z = (\beta + \alpha)\gamma \log n$

$$\le \left(\frac{2ez}{k}\right)^k 2^{-\beta k} \cdot n^{-\gamma\alpha} \le \left(\frac{2ez}{2^\beta k}\right)^k \cdot n^{-\alpha}$$

$$\le \left(\frac{2e(\beta + \alpha)}{2^\beta}\right)^k n^{-\alpha}$$

7.5 Skip Lists

$$\Pr[E_{z,k}] \leq \Pr[\text{at most } k \text{ heads in } z \text{ trials}]$$

$$\leq \binom{z}{k} 2^{-(z-k)} \leq \left(\frac{ez}{k}\right)^k 2^{-(z-k)} \leq \left(\frac{2ez}{k}\right)^k 2^{-z}$$

choosing $k = \gamma \log n$ with $\gamma \geq 1$ and $z = (\beta + \alpha)\gamma \log n$

$$\leq \left(\frac{2ez}{k}\right)^k 2^{-\beta k} \cdot n^{-\gamma \alpha} \leq \left(\frac{2ez}{2^\beta k}\right)^k \cdot n^{-\alpha}$$

$$\leq \left(\frac{2e(\beta + \alpha)}{2^\beta}\right)^k n^{-\alpha}$$

now choosing $\beta = 6\alpha$ gives

7.5 Skip Lists

$$\Pr[E_{z,k}] \le \Pr[\text{at most } k \text{ heads in } z \text{ trials}]$$

$$\le \binom{z}{k} 2^{-(z-k)} \le \left(\frac{ez}{k}\right)^k 2^{-(z-k)} \le \left(\frac{2ez}{k}\right)^k 2^{-z}$$

choosing $k = \gamma \log n$ with $\gamma \ge 1$ and $z = (\beta + \alpha)\gamma \log n$

$$\le \left(\frac{2ez}{k}\right)^k 2^{-\beta k} \cdot n^{-\gamma\alpha} \le \left(\frac{2ez}{2^\beta k}\right)^k \cdot n^{-\alpha}$$

$$\le \left(\frac{2e(\beta + \alpha)}{2^\beta}\right)^k n^{-\alpha}$$

now choosing $\beta = 6\alpha$ gives

$$\le \left(\frac{42\alpha}{64^\alpha}\right)^k n^{-\alpha}$$

7.5 Skip Lists

$$\Pr[E_{z,k}] \le \Pr[\text{at most } k \text{ heads in } z \text{ trials}]$$

$$\le \binom{z}{k} 2^{-(z-k)} \le \left(\frac{ez}{k}\right)^k 2^{-(z-k)} \le \left(\frac{2ez}{k}\right)^k 2^{-z}$$

choosing $k = \gamma \log n$ with $\gamma \ge 1$ and $z = (\beta + \alpha)\gamma \log n$

$$\le \left(\frac{2ez}{k}\right)^k 2^{-\beta k} \cdot n^{-\gamma \alpha} \le \left(\frac{2ez}{2^\beta k}\right)^k \cdot n^{-\alpha}$$

$$\le \left(\frac{2e(\beta + \alpha)}{2^\beta}\right)^k n^{-\alpha}$$

now choosing $\beta = 6\alpha$ gives

$$\le \left(\frac{42\alpha}{64^\alpha}\right)^k n^{-\alpha} \le n^{-\alpha}$$

7.5 Skip Lists

$$\Pr[E_{z,k}] \leq \Pr[\text{at most } k \text{ heads in } z \text{ trials}]$$

$$\leq \binom{z}{k} 2^{-(z-k)} \leq \left(\frac{ez}{k}\right)^k 2^{-(z-k)} \leq \left(\frac{2ez}{k}\right)^k 2^{-z}$$

choosing $k = \gamma \log n$ with $\gamma \geq 1$ and $z = (\beta + \alpha)\gamma \log n$

$$\leq \left(\frac{2ez}{k}\right)^k 2^{-\beta k} \cdot n^{-\gamma \alpha} \leq \left(\frac{2ez}{2^\beta k}\right)^k \cdot n^{-\alpha}$$

$$\leq \left(\frac{2e(\beta + \alpha)}{2^\beta}\right)^k n^{-\alpha}$$

now choosing $\beta = 6\alpha$ gives

$$\leq \left(\frac{42\alpha}{64^\alpha}\right)^k n^{-\alpha} \leq n^{-\alpha}$$

for $\alpha \geq 1$.

7.5 Skip Lists

7.5 Skip Lists

So far we fixed $k = \gamma \log n$, $\gamma \geq 1$, and $z = 7\alpha\gamma \log n$, $\alpha \geq 1$.

7.5 Skip Lists

So far we fixed $k = \gamma \log n$, $\gamma \geq 1$, and $z = 7\alpha\gamma \log n$, $\alpha \geq 1$.

This means that a search path of length $\Omega(\log n)$ visits a list on a level $\Omega(\log n)$, w.h.p.

7.5 Skip Lists

So far we fixed $k = \gamma \log n$, $\gamma \geq 1$, and $z = 7\alpha\gamma \log n$, $\alpha \geq 1$.

This means that a search path of length $\Omega(\log n)$ visits a list on a level $\Omega(\log n)$, w.h.p.

Let A_{k+1} denote the event that the list L_{k+1} is non-empty. Then

7.5 Skip Lists

So far we fixed $k = \gamma \log n$, $\gamma \geq 1$, and $z = 7\alpha\gamma \log n$, $\alpha \geq 1$.

This means that a search path of length $\Omega(\log n)$ visits a list on a level $\Omega(\log n)$, w.h.p.

Let A_{k+1} denote the event that the list L_{k+1} is non-empty. Then

$$\Pr[A_{k+1}] \leq n2^{-(k+1)} \leq n^{-(\gamma-1)} \; .$$

7.5 Skip Lists

So far we fixed $k = \gamma \log n$, $\gamma \geq 1$, and $z = 7\alpha\gamma \log n$, $\alpha \geq 1$.

This means that a search path of length $\Omega(\log n)$ visits a list on a level $\Omega(\log n)$, w.h.p.

Let A_{k+1} denote the event that the list L_{k+1} is non-empty. Then

$$\Pr[A_{k+1}] \leq n2^{-(k+1)} \leq n^{-(\gamma-1)} \ .$$

For the search to take at least $z = 7\alpha\gamma \log n$ steps either the event $E_{z,k}$ or the event A_{k+1} must hold.

7.5 Skip Lists

So far we fixed $k = \gamma \log n$, $\gamma \geq 1$, and $z = 7\alpha\gamma \log n$, $\alpha \geq 1$.

This means that a search path of length $\Omega(\log n)$ visits a list on a level $\Omega(\log n)$, w.h.p.

Let A_{k+1} denote the event that the list L_{k+1} is non-empty. Then

$$\Pr[A_{k+1}] \leq n2^{-(k+1)} \leq n^{-(\gamma-1)} \ .$$

For the search to take at least $z = 7\alpha\gamma \log n$ steps either the event $E_{z,k}$ or the event A_{k+1} must hold.
Hence,

$$\Pr[\text{search requires } z \text{ steps}]$$

7.5 Skip Lists

So far we fixed $k = \gamma \log n$, $\gamma \geq 1$, and $z = 7\alpha\gamma \log n$, $\alpha \geq 1$.

This means that a search path of length $\Omega(\log n)$ visits a list on a level $\Omega(\log n)$, w.h.p.

Let A_{k+1} denote the event that the list L_{k+1} is non-empty. Then

$$\Pr[A_{k+1}] \leq n2^{-(k+1)} \leq n^{-(\gamma-1)} \ .$$

For the search to take at least $z = 7\alpha\gamma \log n$ steps either the event $E_{z,k}$ or the event A_{k+1} must hold.
Hence,

$$\Pr[\text{search requires } z \text{ steps}] \leq \Pr[E_{z,k}] + \Pr[A_{k+1}]$$

7.5 Skip Lists

So far we fixed $k = \gamma \log n$, $\gamma \geq 1$, and $z = 7\alpha\gamma \log n$, $\alpha \geq 1$.

This means that a search path of length $\Omega(\log n)$ visits a list on a level $\Omega(\log n)$, w.h.p.

Let A_{k+1} denote the event that the list L_{k+1} is non-empty. Then

$$\Pr[A_{k+1}] \leq n2^{-(k+1)} \leq n^{-(\gamma-1)} \ .$$

For the search to take at least $z = 7\alpha\gamma \log n$ steps either the event $E_{z,k}$ or the event A_{k+1} must hold.
Hence,

$$\Pr[\text{search requires } z \text{ steps}] \leq \Pr[E_{z,k}] + \Pr[A_{k+1}]$$
$$\leq n^{-\alpha} + n^{-(\gamma-1)}$$

7.5 Skip Lists

So far we fixed $k = \gamma \log n$, $\gamma \geq 1$, and $z = 7\alpha\gamma \log n$, $\alpha \geq 1$.

This means that a search path of length $\Omega(\log n)$ visits a list on a level $\Omega(\log n)$, w.h.p.

Let A_{k+1} denote the event that the list L_{k+1} is non-empty. Then

$$\Pr[A_{k+1}] \leq n2^{-(k+1)} \leq n^{-(\gamma-1)} \ .$$

For the search to take at least $z = 7\alpha\gamma \log n$ steps either the event $E_{z,k}$ or the event A_{k+1} must hold.
Hence,

$$\Pr[\text{search requires } z \text{ steps}] \leq \Pr[E_{z,k}] + \Pr[A_{k+1}]$$
$$\leq n^{-\alpha} + n^{-(\gamma-1)}$$

This means, the search requires at most z steps, w. h. p.

7.6 van Emde Boas Trees

Dynamic Set Data Structure S:

- ▶ $S.\text{insert}(x)$
- ▶ $S.\text{delete}(x)$
- ▶ $S.\text{search}(x)$
- ▶ $S.\text{min}()$
- ▶ $S.\text{max}()$
- ▶ $S.\text{succ}(x)$
- ▶ $S.\text{pred}(x)$

7.6 van Emde Boas Trees

For this chapter we ignore the problem of storing satellite data:

- ▶ $S.\operatorname{insert}(x)$: Inserts x into S.

- ▶ $S.\operatorname{delete}(x)$: Deletes x from S. Usually assumes that $x \in S$.

- ▶ $S.\operatorname{member}(x)$: Returns 1 if $x \in S$ and 0 otw.

- ▶ $S.\operatorname{min}()$: Returns the value of the minimum element in S.

- ▶ $S.\operatorname{max}()$: Returns the value of the maximum element in S.

- ▶ $S.\operatorname{succ}(x)$: Returns successor of x in S. Returns null if x is maximum or larger than any element in S. Note that x needs not to be in S.

- ▶ $S.\operatorname{pred}(x)$: Returns the predecessor of x in S. Returns null if x is minimum or smaller than any element in S. Note that x needs not to be in S.

7.6 van Emde Boas Trees

Can we improve the existing algorithms when the keys are from a restricted set?

In the following we assume that the keys are from $\{0, 1, \ldots, u - 1\}$, where u denotes the size of the universe.

Implementation 1: Array
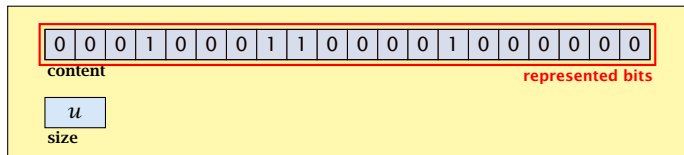
one array of u bits

Use an array that encodes the indicator function of the dynamic set.

Implementation 1: Array

> **Algorithm 1** array.insert(x)
> 1: content[x] ← 1;

> **Algorithm 2** array.delete(x)
> 1: content[x] ← 0;

> **Algorithm 3** array.member(x)
> 1: **return** content[x];

▶ Note that we assume that x is valid, i.e., it falls within the array boundaries.

▶ Obviously(?) the running time is constant.

Implementation 1: Array

Algorithm 4 array.max()

1: **for** ($i = $ size -1; $i \geq 0$; i--) **do**
2:      **if** content[i] $= 1$ **then return** i;
3: **return** null;

Implementation 1: Array

Algorithm 4 array.max()

1: **for** (i = size -1; $i \geq 0$; i−−) **do**
2:      **if** content[i] = 1 **then return** i;
3: **return** null;

Algorithm 5 array.min()

1: **for** (i = 0; i < size; i++) **do**
2:      **if** content[i] = 1 **then return** i;
3: **return** null;

Implementation 1: Array

Algorithm 4 array.max()

1: **for** $(i = \text{size} - 1;\ i \geq 0;\ i\text{--})$ **do**
2:      **if** content$[i] = 1$ **then return** i;
3: **return** null;

Algorithm 5 array.min()

1: **for** $(i = 0;\ i < \text{size};\ i\text{++})$ **do**
2:      **if** content$[i] = 1$ **then return** i;
3: **return** null;

▶ Running time is $\mathcal{O}(u)$ in the worst case.

Implementation 1: Array

Algorithm 6 array.succ(x)

1: **for** ($i = x + 1$; $i <$ size; i++) **do**
2:     **if** content[i] = 1 **then return** i;
3: **return** null;

Algorithm 7 array.pred(x)

1: **for** ($i = x - 1$; $i \geq 0$; i--) **do**
2:     **if** content[i] = 1 **then return** i;
3: **return** null;

▶ Running time is $\mathcal{O}(u)$ in the worst case.

Implementation 2: Summary Array
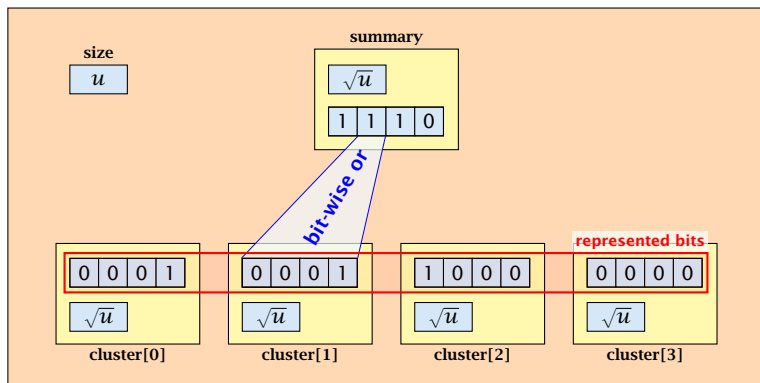
- $\sqrt{u}$ cluster-arrays of $\sqrt{u}$ bits.
- One summary-array of $\sqrt{u}$ bits. The i-th bit in the summary array stores the bit-wise or of the bits in the i-th cluster.

Implementation 2: Summary Array

Implementation 2: Summary Array

The bit for a key x is contained in cluster number $\left\lfloor \frac{x}{\sqrt{u}} \right\rfloor$.

Implementation 2: Summary Array

The bit for a key x is contained in cluster number $\left\lfloor \frac{x}{\sqrt{u}} \right\rfloor$.

Within the cluster-array the bit is at position $x \bmod \sqrt{u}$.

Implementation 2: Summary Array

The bit for a key x is contained in cluster number $\left\lfloor \frac{x}{\sqrt{u}} \right\rfloor$.

Within the cluster-array the bit is at position $x \bmod \sqrt{u}$.

For simplicity we assume that $u = 2^{2k}$ for some $k \geq 1$. Then we can compute the cluster-number for an entry x as $\text{high}(x)$ (the upper half of the dual representation of x) and the position of x within its cluster as $\text{low}(x)$ (the lower half of the dual representation).

Implementation 2: Summary Array

> **Algorithm 8** member(x)
>
> 1: **return** cluster[high(x)]. member(low(x));

Implementation 2: Summary Array

Algorithm 8 member(x)
1: **return** cluster[high(x)]. member(low(x));

Algorithm 9 insert(x)
1: cluster[high(x)]. insert(low(x));
2: summary . insert(high(x));

Implementation 2: Summary Array

> **Algorithm 8** member(x)
> 1: **return** cluster[high(x)]. member(low(x));

> **Algorithm 9** insert(x)
> 1: cluster[high(x)]. insert(low(x));
> 2: summary . insert(high(x));

▶ The running times are constant, because the corresponding array-functions have constant running times.

Implementation 2: Summary Array

Algorithm 10 delete(x)

1: cluster[high(x)]. delete(low(x));
2: **if** cluster[high(x)]. min() = null **then**
3:     summary . delete(high(x));

Implementation 2: Summary Array

> **Algorithm 10** delete(x)
>
> 1: cluster[high(x)].delete(low(x));
> 2: **if** cluster[high(x)].min() = null **then**
> 3:   summary.delete(high(x));

▶ The running time is dominated by the cost of a minimum computation on an array of size $\sqrt{u}$. Hence, $\mathcal{O}(\sqrt{u})$.

Implementation 2: Summary Array

Algorithm 11 max()

1: *maxcluster* ← summary . max();
2: **if** *maxcluster* = null **return** null;
3: *offs* ← cluster[*maxcluster*]. max()
4: **return** *maxcluster* ∘ *offs*;

Implementation 2: Summary Array

Algorithm 11 max()
1: *maxcluster* ← summary . max();
2: **if** *maxcluster* = null **return** null;
3: *offs* ← cluster[*maxcluster*]. max()
4: **return** *maxcluster* ∘ *offs*;

Algorithm 12 min()
1: *mincluster* ← summary . min();
2: **if** *mincluster* = null **return** null;
3: *offs* ← cluster[*mincluster*]. min();
4: **return** *mincluster* ∘ *offs*;

Implementation 2: Summary Array

Algorithm 11 max()
1: *maxcluster* ← summary . max();
2: **if** *maxcluster* = null **return** null;
3: *offs* ← cluster[*maxcluster*]. max()
4: **return** *maxcluster* ∘ *offs*;

The operator ∘ stands for the concatenation of two bitstrings. This means if $x = 0111_2$ and $y = 0001_2$ then $x \circ y = 01110001_2$.

Algorithm 12 min()
1: *mincluster* ← summary . min();
2: **if** *mincluster* = null **return** null;
3: *offs* ← cluster[*mincluster*]. min();
4: **return** *mincluster* ∘ *offs*;

▶ Running time is roughly $2\sqrt{u} = \mathcal{O}(\sqrt{u})$ in the worst case.

Implementation 2: Summary Array

Algorithm 13 succ(x)

1: $m \leftarrow$ cluster[high(x)] . succ(low(x))
2: **if** $m \neq$ null **then return** high(x) $\circ$ m;
3: *succcluster* $\leftarrow$ summary . succ(high(x));
4: **if** *succcluster* $\neq$ null **then**
5:     *offs* $\leftarrow$ cluster[*succcluster*] . min();
6:     **return** *succcluster* $\circ$ *offs*;
7: **return** null;

Implementation 2: Summary Array

Algorithm 13 succ(x)

1: $m \leftarrow \text{cluster}[\text{high(x)}].\text{succ}(\text{low}(x))$

2: **if** $m \neq$ null **then return** $\text{high}(x) \circ m$;

3: $succcluster \leftarrow \text{summary}.\text{succ}(\text{high}(x))$;

4: **if** $succcluster \neq$ null **then**

5:      $offs \leftarrow \text{cluster}[succcluster].\text{min}()$;

6:      **return** $succcluster \circ offs$;

7: **return** null;

▶ Running time is roughly $3\sqrt{u} = \mathcal{O}(\sqrt{u})$ in the worst case.

Implementation 2: Summary Array

Algorithm 14 pred(x)

1: $m \leftarrow \text{cluster}[\text{high(x)}].\text{pred}(\text{low}(x))$
2: **if** $m \neq \text{null}$ **then return** $\text{high}(x) \circ m$;
3: *predcluster* $\leftarrow$ summary.pred(high(x));
4: **if** *predcluster* $\neq$ null **then**
5:      *offs* $\leftarrow$ cluster[*predcluster*].max();
6:      **return** *predcluster* $\circ$ *offs*;
7: **return** null;

▶ Running time is roughly $3\sqrt{u} = \mathcal{O}(\sqrt{u})$ in the worst case.

Implementation 3: Recursion

Instead of using sub-arrays, we build a recursive data-structure.

$S(u)$ is a dynamic set data-structure representing u bits:
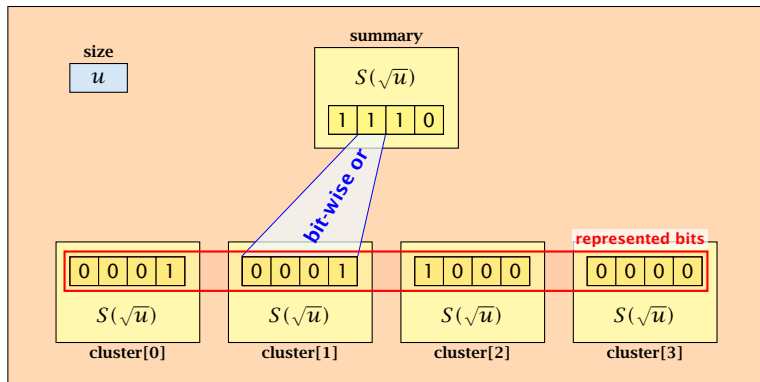
Implementation 3: Recursion

We assume that $u = 2^{2^k}$ for some k.

The data-structure $S(2)$ is defined as an array of 2-bits (end of the recursion).

Implementation 3: Recursion

Implementation 3: Recursion

The code from Implementation 2 can be used unchanged. We only need to redo the analysis of the running time.

Implementation 3: Recursion

The code from Implementation 2 can be used unchanged. We only need to redo the analysis of the running time.

Note that in the code we do not need to specifically address the non-recursive case. This is achieved by the fact that an $S(4)$ will contain $S(2)$'s as sub-datastructures, which are arrays. Hence, a call like $\mathrm{cluster}[1].\min()$ from within the data-structure $S(4)$ is not a recursive call as it will call the function $\mathrm{array}.\min()$.

Implementation 3: Recursion

The code from Implementation 2 can be used unchanged. We only need to redo the analysis of the running time.

Note that in the code we do not need to specifically address the non-recursive case. This is achieved by the fact that an $S(4)$ will contain $S(2)$'s as sub-datastructures, which are arrays. Hence, a call like $\mathrm{cluster}[1].\min()$ from within the data-structure $S(4)$ is not a recursive call as it will call the function $\mathrm{array}.\min()$.

This means that the non-recursive case is been dealt with while initializing the data-structure.

Implementation 3: Recursion

Algorithm 15 member(x)

1: **return** cluster[high(x)]. member(low(x));

▶ $T_{\text{mem}}(u) = T_{\text{mem}}(\sqrt{u}) + 1$.

Implementation 3: Recursion

Algorithm 16 insert(x)

1: cluster[high(x)].insert(low(x));
2: summary.insert(high(x));

▶ $T_{\text{ins}}(u) = 2T_{\text{ins}}(\sqrt{u}) + 1$.

Implementation 3: Recursion

> **Algorithm 17** delete(x)
>
> 1: cluster[high(x)]. delete(low(x));
> 2: **if** cluster[high(x)]. min() = null **then**
> 3:   summary . delete(high(x));

▶ $T_{\text{del}}(u) = 2T_{\text{del}}(\sqrt{u}) + T_{\min}(\sqrt{u}) + 1$.

Implementation 3: Recursion

> **Algorithm 18** min()
> 1: *mincluster* ← summary . min();
> 2: **if** *mincluster* = null **return** null;
> 3: *offs* ← cluster[*mincluster*] . min();
> 4: **return** *mincluster* ∘ *offs*;

▶ $T_{\min}(u) = 2T_{\min}(\sqrt{u}) + 1$.

Implementation 3: Recursion

Algorithm 19 succ(x)

1: $m \leftarrow$ cluster[high(x)]. succ(low(x))
2: **if** $m \neq$ null **then return** high(x) $\circ$ m;
3: *succcluster* $\leftarrow$ summary . succ(high(x));
4: **if** *succcluster* $\neq$ null **then**
5:     *offs* $\leftarrow$ cluster[*succcluster*]. min();
6:     **return** *succcluster* $\circ$ *offs*;
7: **return** null;

▶ $T_{\mathrm{succ}}(u) = 2T_{\mathrm{succ}}(\sqrt{u}) + T_{\min}(\sqrt{u}) + 1.$

Implementation 3: Recursion

$$T_{\text{mem}}(u) = T_{\text{mem}}(\sqrt{u}) + 1:$$

Implementation 3: Recursion

$T_{\mathrm{mem}}(u) = T_{\mathrm{mem}}(\sqrt{u}) + 1$:

Set $\ell := \log u$ and $X(\ell) := T_{\mathrm{mem}}(2^{\ell})$.

Implementation 3: Recursion

$T_{\mathrm{mem}}(u) = T_{\mathrm{mem}}(\sqrt{u}) + 1$:

Set $\ell := \log u$ and $X(\ell) := T_{\mathrm{mem}}(2^\ell)$. Then

Implementation 3: Recursion

$T_{\text{mem}}(u) = T_{\text{mem}}(\sqrt{u}) + 1$:

Set $\ell := \log u$ and $X(\ell) := T_{\text{mem}}(2^\ell)$. Then

$$X(\ell)$$

Implementation 3: Recursion

$T_{\mathrm{mem}}(u) = T_{\mathrm{mem}}(\sqrt{u}) + 1$:

Set $\ell := \log u$ and $X(\ell) := T_{\mathrm{mem}}(2^\ell)$. Then

$$X(\ell) = T_{\mathrm{mem}}(2^\ell)$$

Implementation 3: Recursion

$T_{\text{mem}}(u) = T_{\text{mem}}(\sqrt{u}) + 1$:

Set $\ell := \log u$ and $X(\ell) := T_{\text{mem}}(2^\ell)$. Then

$$X(\ell) = T_{\text{mem}}(2^\ell) = T_{\text{mem}}(u)$$

Implementation 3: Recursion

$T_{\mathrm{mem}}(u) = T_{\mathrm{mem}}(\sqrt{u}) + 1$:

Set $\ell := \log u$ and $X(\ell) := T_{\mathrm{mem}}(2^{\ell})$. Then

$$X(\ell) = T_{\mathrm{mem}}(2^{\ell}) = T_{\mathrm{mem}}(u) = T_{\mathrm{mem}}(\sqrt{u}) + 1$$

Implementation 3: Recursion

$T_{\mathrm{mem}}(u) = T_{\mathrm{mem}}(\sqrt{u}) + 1$:

Set $\ell := \log u$ and $X(\ell) := T_{\mathrm{mem}}(2^\ell)$. Then

$$X(\ell) = T_{\mathrm{mem}}(2^\ell) = T_{\mathrm{mem}}(u) = T_{\mathrm{mem}}(\sqrt{u}) + 1$$
$$= T_{\mathrm{mem}}(2^{\frac{\ell}{2}}) + 1$$

Implementation 3: Recursion

$T_{\text{mem}}(u) = T_{\text{mem}}(\sqrt{u}) + 1$:

Set $\ell := \log u$ and $X(\ell) := T_{\text{mem}}(2^\ell)$. Then

$$X(\ell) = T_{\text{mem}}(2^\ell) = T_{\text{mem}}(u) = T_{\text{mem}}(\sqrt{u}) + 1$$
$$= T_{\text{mem}}(2^{\frac{\ell}{2}}) + 1 = X\left(\frac{\ell}{2}\right) + 1 \ .$$

Implementation 3: Recursion

$T_{\text{mem}}(u) = T_{\text{mem}}(\sqrt{u}) + 1$:

Set $\ell := \log u$ and $X(\ell) := T_{\text{mem}}(2^\ell)$. Then

$$X(\ell) = T_{\text{mem}}(2^\ell) = T_{\text{mem}}(u) = T_{\text{mem}}(\sqrt{u}) + 1$$
$$= T_{\text{mem}}(2^{\frac{\ell}{2}}) + 1 = X(\tfrac{\ell}{2}) + 1 \ .$$

Using Master theorem gives $X(\ell) = \mathcal{O}(\log \ell)$, and hence $T_{\text{mem}}(u) = \mathcal{O}(\log \log u)$.

Implementation 3: Recursion

$$T_{\text{ins}}(u) = 2T_{\text{ins}}(\sqrt{u}) + 1.$$

Implementation 3: Recursion

$$T_{\text{ins}}(u) = 2T_{\text{ins}}(\sqrt{u}) + 1.$$

Set $\ell := \log u$ and $X(\ell) := T_{\text{ins}}(2^\ell)$.

Implementation 3: Recursion

$$T_{\text{ins}}(u) = 2T_{\text{ins}}(\sqrt{u}) + 1.$$

Set $\ell := \log u$ and $X(\ell) := T_{\text{ins}}(2^\ell)$. Then

Implementation 3: Recursion

$$T_{\text{ins}}(u) = 2T_{\text{ins}}(\sqrt{u}) + 1.$$

Set $\ell := \log u$ and $X(\ell) := T_{\text{ins}}(2^\ell)$. Then

$$X(\ell)$$

Implementation 3: Recursion

$$T_{\text{ins}}(u) = 2T_{\text{ins}}(\sqrt{u}) + 1.$$

Set $\ell := \log u$ and $X(\ell) := T_{\text{ins}}(2^\ell)$. Then

$$X(\ell) = T_{\text{ins}}(2^\ell)$$

Implementation 3: Recursion

$$T_{\text{ins}}(u) = 2T_{\text{ins}}(\sqrt{u}) + 1.$$

Set $\ell := \log u$ and $X(\ell) := T_{\text{ins}}(2^\ell)$. Then

$$X(\ell) = T_{\text{ins}}(2^\ell) = T_{\text{ins}}(u)$$

Implementation 3: Recursion

$$T_{\text{ins}}(u) = 2T_{\text{ins}}(\sqrt{u}) + 1.$$

Set $\ell := \log u$ and $X(\ell) := T_{\text{ins}}(2^\ell)$. Then

$$X(\ell) = T_{\text{ins}}(2^\ell) = T_{\text{ins}}(u) = 2T_{\text{ins}}(\sqrt{u}) + 1$$

Implementation 3: Recursion

$$T_{ins}(u) = 2T_{ins}(\sqrt{u}) + 1.$$

Set $\ell := \log u$ and $X(\ell) := T_{ins}(2^{\ell})$. Then

$$X(\ell) = T_{ins}(2^{\ell}) = T_{ins}(u) = 2T_{ins}(\sqrt{u}) + 1$$
$$= 2T_{ins}(2^{\frac{\ell}{2}}) + 1$$

Implementation 3: Recursion

$$T_{\text{ins}}(u) = 2T_{\text{ins}}(\sqrt{u}) + 1.$$

Set $\ell := \log u$ and $X(\ell) := T_{\text{ins}}(2^\ell)$. Then

$$X(\ell) = T_{\text{ins}}(2^\ell) = T_{\text{ins}}(u) = 2T_{\text{ins}}(\sqrt{u}) + 1$$
$$= 2T_{\text{ins}}(2^{\frac{\ell}{2}}) + 1 = 2X(\tfrac{\ell}{2}) + 1 \ .$$

Implementation 3: Recursion

$$T_{\text{ins}}(u) = 2T_{\text{ins}}(\sqrt{u}) + 1.$$

Set $\ell := \log u$ and $X(\ell) := T_{\text{ins}}(2^\ell)$. Then

$$X(\ell) = T_{\text{ins}}(2^\ell) = T_{\text{ins}}(u) = 2T_{\text{ins}}(\sqrt{u}) + 1$$
$$= 2T_{\text{ins}}(2^{\frac{\ell}{2}}) + 1 = 2X(\tfrac{\ell}{2}) + 1 \ .$$

Using Master theorem gives $X(\ell) = \mathcal{O}(\ell)$, and hence
$T_{\text{ins}}(u) = \mathcal{O}(\log u)$.

Implementation 3: Recursion

$T_{\text{ins}}(u) = 2T_{\text{ins}}(\sqrt{u}) + 1.$

Set $\ell := \log u$ and $X(\ell) := T_{\text{ins}}(2^\ell)$. Then

$$X(\ell) = T_{\text{ins}}(2^\ell) = T_{\text{ins}}(u) = 2T_{\text{ins}}(\sqrt{u}) + 1$$
$$= 2T_{\text{ins}}(2^{\frac{\ell}{2}}) + 1 = 2X(\tfrac{\ell}{2}) + 1 .$$

Using Master theorem gives $X(\ell) = \mathcal{O}(\ell)$, and hence
$T_{\text{ins}}(u) = \mathcal{O}(\log u)$.

The same holds for $T_{\max}(u)$ and $T_{\min}(u)$.

Implementation 3: Recursion

$$T_{\text{del}}(u) = 2T_{\text{del}}(\sqrt{u}) + T_{\min}(\sqrt{u}) + 1 \leq 2T_{\text{del}}(\sqrt{u}) + c\log(u).$$

Implementation 3: Recursion

$$T_{\text{del}}(u) = 2T_{\text{del}}(\sqrt{u}) + T_{\min}(\sqrt{u}) + 1 \le 2T_{\text{del}}(\sqrt{u}) + c\log(u).$$

Set $\ell := \log u$ and $X(\ell) := T_{\text{del}}(2^\ell)$.

Implementation 3: Recursion

$$T_{\text{del}}(u) = 2T_{\text{del}}(\sqrt{u}) + T_{\min}(\sqrt{u}) + 1 \leq 2T_{\text{del}}(\sqrt{u}) + c\log(u).$$

Set $\ell := \log u$ and $X(\ell) := T_{\text{del}}(2^\ell)$. Then

Implementation 3: Recursion

$$T_{\text{del}}(u) = 2T_{\text{del}}(\sqrt{u}) + T_{\min}(\sqrt{u}) + 1 \leq 2T_{\text{del}}(\sqrt{u}) + c\log(u).$$

Set $\ell := \log u$ and $X(\ell) := T_{\text{del}}(2^\ell)$. Then

$$X(\ell)$$

Implementation 3: Recursion

$$T_{\text{del}}(u) = 2T_{\text{del}}(\sqrt{u}) + T_{\min}(\sqrt{u}) + 1 \leq 2T_{\text{del}}(\sqrt{u}) + c\log(u).$$

Set $\ell := \log u$ and $X(\ell) := T_{\text{del}}(2^\ell)$. Then

$$X(\ell) = T_{\text{del}}(2^\ell)$$

Implementation 3: Recursion

$$T_{\text{del}}(u) = 2T_{\text{del}}(\sqrt{u}) + T_{\min}(\sqrt{u}) + 1 \le 2T_{\text{del}}(\sqrt{u}) + c\log(u).$$

Set $\ell := \log u$ and $X(\ell) := T_{\text{del}}(2^\ell)$. Then

$$X(\ell) = T_{\text{del}}(2^\ell) = T_{\text{del}}(u)$$

Implementation 3: Recursion

$$T_{\text{del}}(u) = 2T_{\text{del}}(\sqrt{u}) + T_{\min}(\sqrt{u}) + 1 \leq 2T_{\text{del}}(\sqrt{u}) + c\log(u).$$

Set $\ell := \log u$ and $X(\ell) := T_{\text{del}}(2^{\ell})$. Then

$$X(\ell) = T_{\text{del}}(2^{\ell}) = T_{\text{del}}(u) = 2T_{\text{del}}(\sqrt{u}) + c\log u$$

Implementation 3: Recursion

$$T_{\text{del}}(u) = 2T_{\text{del}}(\sqrt{u}) + T_{\min}(\sqrt{u}) + 1 \leq 2T_{\text{del}}(\sqrt{u}) + c\log(u).$$

Set $\ell := \log u$ and $X(\ell) := T_{\text{del}}(2^\ell)$. Then

$$X(\ell) = T_{\text{del}}(2^\ell) = T_{\text{del}}(u) = 2T_{\text{del}}(\sqrt{u}) + c\log u$$
$$= 2T_{\text{del}}(2^{\frac{\ell}{2}}) + c\ell$$

Implementation 3: Recursion

$$T_{\text{del}}(u) = 2T_{\text{del}}(\sqrt{u}) + T_{\min}(\sqrt{u}) + 1 \le 2T_{\text{del}}(\sqrt{u}) + c\log(u).$$

Set $\ell := \log u$ and $X(\ell) := T_{\text{del}}(2^\ell)$. Then

$$X(\ell) = T_{\text{del}}(2^\ell) = T_{\text{del}}(u) = 2T_{\text{del}}(\sqrt{u}) + c\log u$$
$$= 2T_{\text{del}}(2^{\frac{\ell}{2}}) + c\ell = 2X(\tfrac{\ell}{2}) + c\ell \ .$$

Implementation 3: Recursion

$$T_{\text{del}}(u) = 2T_{\text{del}}(\sqrt{u}) + T_{\min}(\sqrt{u}) + 1 \leq 2T_{\text{del}}(\sqrt{u}) + c\log(u).$$

Set $\ell := \log u$ and $X(\ell) := T_{\text{del}}(2^\ell)$. Then

$$X(\ell) = T_{\text{del}}(2^\ell) = T_{\text{del}}(u) = 2T_{\text{del}}(\sqrt{u}) + c\log u$$
$$= 2T_{\text{del}}(2^{\frac{\ell}{2}}) + c\ell = 2X(\tfrac{\ell}{2}) + c\ell \ .$$

Using Master theorem gives $X(\ell) = \Theta(\ell\log\ell)$, and hence
$T_{\text{del}}(u) = \mathcal{O}(\log u \log\log u)$.

Implementation 3: Recursion

$$T_{\text{del}}(u) = 2T_{\text{del}}(\sqrt{u}) + T_{\min}(\sqrt{u}) + 1 \leq 2T_{\text{del}}(\sqrt{u}) + c \log(u).$$

Set $\ell := \log u$ and $X(\ell) := T_{\text{del}}(2^\ell)$. Then

$$X(\ell) = T_{\text{del}}(2^\ell) = T_{\text{del}}(u) = 2T_{\text{del}}(\sqrt{u}) + c \log u$$
$$= 2T_{\text{del}}(2^{\frac{\ell}{2}}) + c\ell = 2X(\tfrac{\ell}{2}) + c\ell \ .$$

Using Master theorem gives $X(\ell) = \Theta(\ell \log \ell)$, and hence $T_{\text{del}}(u) = \mathcal{O}(\log u \log \log u)$.

The same holds for $T_{\text{pred}}(u)$ and $T_{\text{succ}}(u)$.

Implementation 4: van Emde Boas Trees
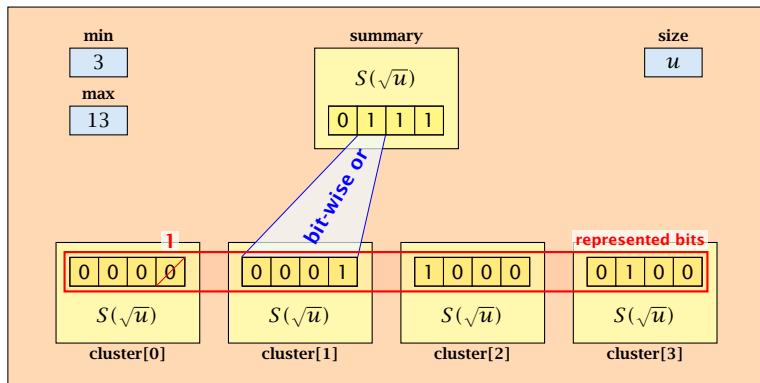
- The bit referenced by min is not set within sub-datastructures.

- The bit referenced by max is set within sub-datastructures (if max ≠ min).

Implementation 4: van Emde Boas Trees

Advantages of having max/min pointers:

Implementation 4: van Emde Boas Trees

Advantages of having max/min pointers:

▶ Recursive calls for min and max are constant time.

Implementation 4: van Emde Boas Trees

Advantages of having max/min pointers:

- ▶ Recursive calls for min and max are constant time.
- ▶ min = null means that the data-structure is empty.

Implementation 4: van Emde Boas Trees

Advantages of having max/min pointers:

▶ Recursive calls for min and max are constant time.

▶ min = null means that the data-structure is empty.

▶ min = max ≠ null means that the data-structure contains exactly one element.

Implementation 4: van Emde Boas Trees

Advantages of having max/min pointers:

- ▶ Recursive calls for min and max are constant time.

- ▶ min = null means that the data-structure is empty.

- ▶ min = max ≠ null means that the data-structure contains exactly one element.

- ▶ We can insert into an empty datastructure in constant time by only setting min = max = x.

Implementation 4: van Emde Boas Trees

Advantages of having max/min pointers:

▶ Recursive calls for min and max are constant time.

▶ min = null means that the data-structure is empty.

▶ min = max ≠ null means that the data-structure contains exactly one element.

▶ We can insert into an empty datastructure in constant time by only setting $\text{min} = \text{max} = x$.

▶ We can delete from a data-structure that just contains one element in constant time by setting min = max = null.

Algorithm 20 max()
 1: **return** max;

Algorithm 21 min()
 1: **return** min;

▶ Constant time.

Implementation 4: van Emde Boas Trees

> **Algorithm 22** member(x)
> ─────────────────────────────────
> 1: **if** x = min **then return** 1; // TRUE
> 2: **return** cluster[high(x)].member(low(x));

▶ $T_{\text{mem}}(u) = T_{\text{mem}}(\sqrt{u}) + 1 \Longrightarrow T(u) = \mathcal{O}(\log \log u)$.

Implementation 4: van Emde Boas Trees

Algorithm 23 $\text{succ}(x)$
1: **if** $\min \neq$ null $\wedge$ $x < \min$ **then return** $\min$;
2: *maxincluster* $\leftarrow$ $\text{cluster}[\text{high}(x)].\max()$;
3: **if** *maxincluster* $\neq$ null $\wedge$ $\text{low}(x) <$ *maxincluster* **then**
4:     offs $\leftarrow$ $\text{cluster}[\text{high}(x)].\text{succ}(\text{low}(x))$;
5:     **return** $\text{high}(x) \circ \text{offs}$;
6: **else**
7:     *succcluster* $\leftarrow$ $\text{summary}.\text{succ}(\text{high}(x))$;
8:     **if** *succcluster* = null **then return** null;
9:     offs $\leftarrow$ $\text{cluster}[\text{succcluster}].\min()$;
10:     **return** *succcluster* $\circ$ *offs*;

▶ $T_{\text{succ}}(u) = T_{\text{succ}}(\sqrt{u}) + 1 \implies T_{\text{succ}}(u) = \mathcal{O}(\log\log u)$.

Implementation 4: van Emde Boas Trees

Algorithm 35 insert(x)
1: **if** min = null **then**
2:      min = x; max = x;
3: **else**
4:      **if** $x <$ min **then** exchange x and min;
5:      **if** $x >$ max **then** max = x;
6:      **if** cluster[high(x)]. min = null; **then**
7:           summary . insert(high(x));
8:           cluster[high(x)]. insert(low(x));
9:      **else**
10:           cluster[high(x)]. insert(low(x));

▶ $T_{\text{ins}}(u) = T_{\text{ins}}(\sqrt{u}) + 1 \implies T_{\text{ins}}(u) = \mathcal{O}(\log \log u)$.

Implementation 4: van Emde Boas Trees

Note that the recusive call in Line 8 takes constant time as the if-condition in Line 6 ensures that we are inserting in an empty sub-tree.

The only non-constant recursive calls are the call in Line 7 and in Line 10. These are mutually exclusive, i.e., only one of these calls will actually occur.

From this we get that $T_{\text{ins}}(u) = T_{\text{ins}}(\sqrt{u}) + 1$.

Implementation 4: van Emde Boas Trees

▶ **Assumes that x is contained in the structure.**

Algorithm 36 delete(x)

 1: **if** min = max **then**
 2:      min = max = null;
 3: **else**
 4:      **if** x = min **then**
 5:          *firstcluster* ← summary . min();
 6:          *offs* ← cluster[*firstcluster*]. min();
 7:          x ← *firstcluster* ∘ *offs*;
 8:          min ← x;
 9:      cluster[high(x)]. delete(low(x));

<p style="text-align:center">continued...</p>

Implementation 4: van Emde Boas Trees

▶ **Assumes that x is contained in the structure.**

Algorithm 36 delete(x)

1: **if** min = max **then**
2:     min = max = null;
3: **else**
4:     **if** x = min **then**   find new minimum
5:         *firstcluster* ← summary. min();
6:         *offs* ← cluster[*firstcluster*]. min();
7:         x ← *firstcluster* ∘ *offs*;
8:         min ← x;
9:     cluster[high(x)]. delete(low(x));
                    continued...

Implementation 4: van Emde Boas Trees

▶ **Assumes that x is contained in the structure.**

Algorithm 36 delete(x)

1: **if** min = max **then**
2:     min = max = null;
3: **else**
4:     **if** x = min **then**
5:         *firstcluster* ← summary . min();
6:         *offs* ← cluster[*firstcluster*] . min();
7:         x ← *firstcluster* ∘ *offs*;
8:         min ← x;
9:     cluster[high(x)] . delete(low(x));   delete

                      continued...

Implementation 4: van Emde Boas Trees

Algorithm 36 delete(x)

<div align="center">...continued</div>

10: **if** cluster[high(x)] . min() = null **then**
11:      summary . delete(high(x));
12:      **if** x = max **then**
13:          *summax* ← summary . max();
14:          **if** *summax* = null **then** max ← min;
15:          **else**
16:              *offs* ← cluster[*summax*] . max();
17:              max ← *summax* ∘ *offs*
18: **else**
19:      **if** x = max **then**
20:          *offs* ← cluster[high(x)] . max();
21:          max ← high(x) ∘ *offs*;

Implementation 4: van Emde Boas Trees

Algorithm 36 delete(x)

| | ...continued | fix maximum |

10:     **if** cluster[high(x)]. min() = null **then**
11:         summary . delete(high(x));
12:         **if** x = max **then**
13:             *summax* ← summary . max();
14:             **if** *summax* = null **then** max ← min;
15:             **else**
16:                 *offs* ← cluster[*summax*]. max();
17:                 max ← *summax* ∘ *offs*
18:     **else**
19:         **if** x = max **then**
20:             *offs* ← cluster[high(x)]. max();
21:             max ← high(x) ∘ *offs*;

Implementation 4: van Emde Boas Trees

Note that only one of the possible recusive calls in Line 9 and Line 11 in the deletion-algorithm may take non-constant time.

To see this observe that the call in Line 11 only occurs if the cluster where x was deleted is now empty. But this means that the call in Line 9 deleted the last element in $\mathrm{cluster}[\mathrm{high}(x)]$. Such a call only takes constant time.

Hence, we get a recurrence of the form

$$T_{\mathrm{del}}(u) = T_{\mathrm{del}}(\sqrt{u}) + c \ .$$

This gives $T_{\mathrm{del}}(u) = \mathcal{O}(\log \log u)$.

7.6 van Emde Boas Trees

Space requirements:

▶ The space requirement fulfills the recurrence

$$S(u) = (\sqrt{u} + 1)S(\sqrt{u}) + \mathcal{O}(\sqrt{u}) \ .$$

▶ Note that we cannot solve this recurrence by the Master theorem as the branching factor is not constant.

▶ One can show by induction that the space requirement is $S(u) = \mathcal{O}(u)$. Exercise.

- Let the "real" recurrence relation be

$$S(k^2) = (k+1)S(k) + c_1 \cdot k;\ S(4) = c_2$$

- Replacing $S(k)$ by $R(k) := S(k)/c_2$ gives the recurrence

$$R(k^2) = (k+1)R(k) + ck;\ R(4) = 1$$

  where $c = c_1/c_2 < 1$.

- Now, we show $R(k) \leq k - 2$ for squares $k \geq 4$.
  - Obviously, this holds for $k = 4$.
  - For $k = \ell^2 > 4$ with ℓ integral we have

$$R(k) = (1 + \ell)R(\ell) + c\ell$$
$$\leq (1 + \ell)(\ell - 2) + \ell \leq k - 2$$

  - This shows that $R(k)$ and, hence, $S(k)$ grows linearly.

7.7 Hashing

Dictionary:

▶ $S.\,\text{insert}(x)$: Insert an element x.

▶ $S.\,\text{delete}(x)$: Delete the element pointed to by x.

▶ $S.\,\text{search}(k)$: Return a pointer to an element e with $\text{key}[e] = k$ in S if it exists; otherwise return null.

7.7 Hashing

Dictionary:

- ▶ $S.\mathbf{insert}(x)$: Insert an element x.
- ▶ $S.\mathbf{delete}(x)$: Delete the element pointed to by x.
- ▶ $S.\mathbf{search}(k)$: Return a pointer to an element e with $\mathrm{key}[e] = k$ in S if it exists; otherwise return null.

So far we have implemented the search for a key by carefully choosing split-elements.

7.7 Hashing

Dictionary:

▶ $S.\,\mathbf{insert}(x)$: Insert an element x.

▶ $S.\,\mathbf{delete}(x)$: Delete the element pointed to by x.

▶ $S.\,\mathbf{search}(k)$: Return a pointer to an element e with $\text{key}[e] = k$ in S if it exists; otherwise return null.

So far we have implemented the search for a key by carefully choosing split-elements.

Then the memory location of an object x with key k is determined by successively comparing k to split-elements.

7.7 Hashing

Dictionary:

- ▶ $S.\,\textbf{insert}(x)$: Insert an element x.
- ▶ $S.\,\textbf{delete}(x)$: Delete the element pointed to by x.
- ▶ $S.\,\textbf{search}(k)$: Return a pointer to an element e with $\text{key}[e] = k$ in S if it exists; otherwise return null.

So far we have implemented the search for a key by carefully choosing split-elements.

Then the memory location of an object x with key k is determined by successively comparing k to split-elements.

Hashing tries to directly compute the memory location from the given key. The goal is to have constant search time.

7.7 Hashing

Definitions:

▶ Universe U of keys, e.g., $U \subseteq \mathbb{N}_0$. U very large.

7.7 Hashing

Definitions:

- Universe U of keys, e.g., $U \subseteq \mathbb{N}_0$. U very large.
- Set $S \subseteq U$ of keys, $|S| = m \leq |U|$.

7.7 Hashing

Definitions:

▶ Universe U of keys, e.g., $U \subseteq \mathbb{N}_0$. U very large.

▶ Set $S \subseteq U$ of keys, $|S| = m \le |U|$.

▶ Array $T[0, \ldots, n-1]$ hash-table.

7.7 Hashing

Definitions:

- ▶ Universe U of keys, e.g., $U \subseteq \mathbb{N}_0$. U very large.
- ▶ Set $S \subseteq U$ of keys, $|S| = m \le |U|$.
- ▶ Array $T[0, \ldots, n-1]$ hash-table.
- ▶ Hash function $h : U \to [0, \ldots, n-1]$.

7.7 Hashing

Definitions:

- ▶ Universe U of keys, e.g., $U \subseteq \mathbb{N}_0$. U very large.
- ▶ Set $S \subseteq U$ of keys, $|S| = m \leq |U|$.
- ▶ Array $T[0, \ldots, n-1]$ hash-table.
- ▶ Hash function $h : U \to [0, \ldots, n-1]$.

The hash-function h should fulfill:

7.7 Hashing

Definitions:

▶ Universe U of keys, e.g., $U \subseteq \mathbb{N}_0$. U very large.

▶ Set $S \subseteq U$ of keys, $|S| = m \leq |U|$.

▶ Array $T[0, \ldots, n-1]$ hash-table.

▶ Hash function $h : U \to [0, \ldots, n-1]$.

The hash-function h should fulfill:

▶ Fast to evaluate.

7.7 Hashing

Definitions:

▶ Universe U of keys, e.g., $U \subseteq \mathbb{N}_0$. U very large.

▶ Set $S \subseteq U$ of keys, $|S| = m \leq |U|$.

▶ Array $T[0, \ldots, n-1]$ hash-table.

▶ Hash function $h : U \to [0, \ldots, n-1]$.

The hash-function h should fulfill:

▶ Fast to evaluate.

▶ Small storage requirement.

7.7 Hashing

Definitions:

- ▶ Universe U of keys, e.g., $U \subseteq \mathbb{N}_0$. U very large.
- ▶ Set $S \subseteq U$ of keys, $|S| = m \leq |U|$.
- ▶ Array $T[0, \dots, n-1]$ hash-table.
- ▶ Hash function $h : U \to [0, \dots, n-1]$.

The hash-function h should fulfill:

- ▶ Fast to evaluate.
- ▶ Small storage requirement.
- ▶ Good distribution of elements over the whole table.

Direct Addressing

Ideally the hash function maps all keys to different memory locations.
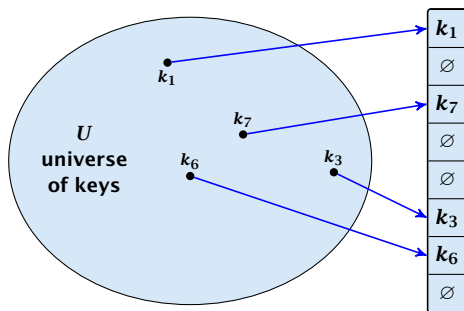
This special case is known as Direct Addressing. It is usually very unrealistic as the universe of keys typically is quite large, and in particular larger than the available memory.

Perfect Hashing

Suppose that we know the set S of actual keys (no insert/no delete). Then we may want to design a simple hash-function that maps all these keys to different memory locations.
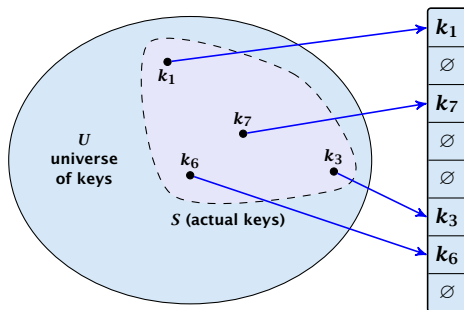
Such a hash function h is called a perfect hash function for set S.

Collisions

If we do not know the keys in advance, the best we can hope for is that the hash function distributes keys evenly across the table.

Collisions

If we do not know the keys in advance, the best we can hope for is that the hash function distributes keys evenly across the table.

Problem: Collisions
Usually the universe U is much larger than the table-size n.

Collisions

If we do not know the keys in advance, the best we can hope for is that the hash function distributes keys evenly across the table.

Problem: Collisions
Usually the universe U is much larger than the table-size n.

Hence, there may be two elements k_1, k_2 from the set S that map to the same memory location (i.e., $h(k_1) = h(k_2)$). This is called a collision.

Collisions

Typically, collisions do not appear once the size of the set S of actual keys gets close to n, but already when $|S| \geq \omega(\sqrt{n})$.

Collisions

Typically, collisions do not appear once the size of the set S of actual keys gets close to n, but already when $|S| \geq \omega(\sqrt{n})$.

Lemma 9

The probability of having a collision when hashing m elements into a table of size n under uniform hashing is at least

$$1 - e^{-\frac{m(m-1)}{2n}} \approx 1 - e^{-\frac{m^2}{2n}} \ .$$

Collisions

Typically, collisions do not appear once the size of the set S of actual keys gets close to n, but already when $|S| \geq \omega(\sqrt{n})$.

Lemma 9

The probability of having a collision when hashing m elements into a table of size n under uniform hashing is at least

$$1 - e^{-\frac{m(m-1)}{2n}} \approx 1 - e^{-\frac{m^2}{2n}} \ .$$

Uniform hashing:

Choose a hash function uniformly at random from all functions $f : U \rightarrow [0, \ldots, n-1]$.

Collisions

Proof.

Let $A_{m,n}$ denote the event that inserting m keys into a table of size n does not generate a collision. Then

Collisions

Proof.

Let $A_{m,n}$ denote the event that inserting m keys into a table of size n does not generate a collision. Then

$$\Pr[A_{m,n}]$$

Collisions

Proof.

Let $A_{m,n}$ denote the event that inserting m keys into a table of size n does not generate a collision. Then

$$\Pr[A_{m,n}] = \prod_{\ell=1}^{m} \frac{n - \ell + 1}{n}$$

Collisions

Proof.

Let $A_{m,n}$ denote the event that inserting m keys into a table of size n does not generate a collision. Then

$$\Pr[A_{m,n}] = \prod_{\ell=1}^{m} \frac{n-\ell+1}{n} = \prod_{j=0}^{m-1} \left(1 - \frac{j}{n}\right)$$

Collisions

Proof.

Let $A_{m,n}$ denote the event that inserting m keys into a table of size n does **not** generate a collision. Then

$$\Pr[A_{m,n}] = \prod_{\ell=1}^{m} \frac{n - \ell + 1}{n} = \prod_{j=0}^{m-1} \left(1 - \frac{j}{n}\right)$$

$$\leq \prod_{j=0}^{m-1} e^{-j/n}$$

Collisions

Proof.

Let $A_{m,n}$ denote the event that inserting m keys into a table of size n does not generate a collision. Then

$$\Pr[A_{m,n}] = \prod_{\ell=1}^{m} \frac{n - \ell + 1}{n} = \prod_{j=0}^{m-1} \left(1 - \frac{j}{n}\right)$$

$$\leq \prod_{j=0}^{m-1} e^{-j/n} = e^{-\sum_{j=0}^{m-1} \frac{j}{n}}$$

Collisions

Proof.

Let $A_{m,n}$ denote the event that inserting m keys into a table of size n does not generate a collision. Then

$$\Pr[A_{m,n}] = \prod_{\ell=1}^{m} \frac{n-\ell+1}{n} = \prod_{j=0}^{m-1} \left(1 - \frac{j}{n}\right)$$

$$\leq \prod_{j=0}^{m-1} e^{-j/n} = e^{-\sum_{j=0}^{m-1} \frac{j}{n}} = e^{-\frac{m(m-1)}{2n}} \ .$$

Collisions

Proof.

Let $A_{m,n}$ denote the event that inserting m keys into a table of size n does not generate a collision. Then

$$\Pr[A_{m,n}] = \prod_{\ell=1}^{m} \frac{n - \ell + 1}{n} = \prod_{j=0}^{m-1} \left(1 - \frac{j}{n}\right)$$

$$\leq \prod_{j=0}^{m-1} e^{-j/n} = e^{-\sum_{j=0}^{m-1} \frac{j}{n}} = e^{-\frac{m(m-1)}{2n}} \ .$$

Here the first equality follows since the ℓ-th element that is hashed has a probability of $\frac{n - \ell + 1}{n}$ to not generate a collision under the condition that the previous elements did not induce collisions. □

Collisions
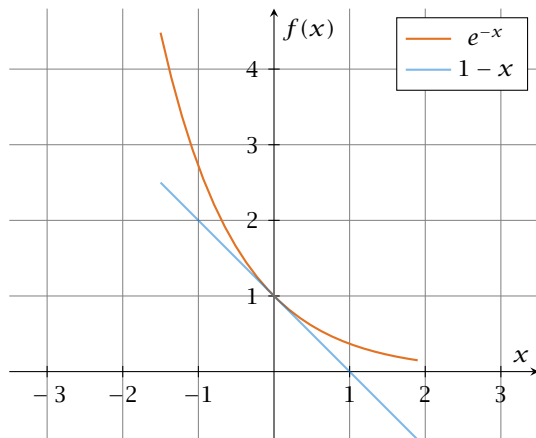
The inequality $1 - x \leq e^{-x}$ is derived by stopping the Taylor-expansion of e^{-x} after the second term.

Resolving Collisions

The methods for dealing with collisions can be classified into the two main types

- ▶ **open addressing**, aka. closed hashing
- ▶ **hashing with chaining**, aka. closed addressing, open hashing.

Resolving Collisions

The methods for dealing with collisions can be classified into the two main types

- ▶ **open addressing**, aka. closed hashing
- ▶ **hashing with chaining**, aka. closed addressing, open hashing.

There are applications e.g. computer chess where you do not resolve collisions at all.

Hashing with Chaining

Arrange elements that map to the same position in a linear list.

▶ Access: compute $h(x)$ and search list for $\text{key}[x]$.

▶ Insert: insert at the front of the list.
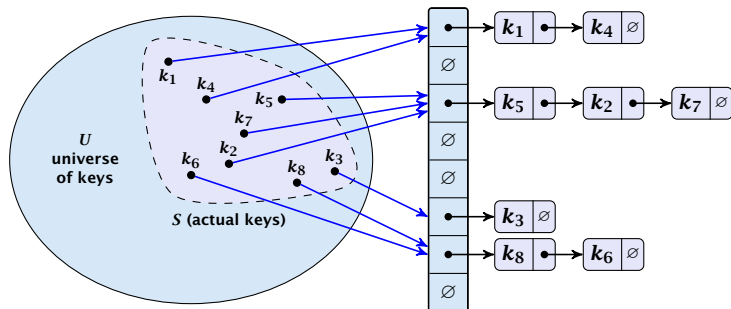
Hashing with Chaining

Let A denote a strategy for resolving collisions. We use the following notation:

Hashing with Chaining

Let A denote a strategy for resolving collisions. We use the
following notation:

- A^+ denotes the average time for a **successful** search when
  using A;

Hashing with Chaining

Let A denote a strategy for resolving collisions. We use the following notation:

▶ A^+ denotes the average time for a **successful** search when using A;

▶ A^- denotes the average time for an **unsuccessful** search when using A;

Hashing with Chaining

Let A denote a strategy for resolving collisions. We use the following notation:

▶ A^+ denotes the average time for a **successful** search when using A;

▶ A^- denotes the average time for an **unsuccessful** search when using A;

▶ We parameterize the complexity results in terms of $\alpha := \frac{m}{n}$, the so-called fill factor of the hash-table.

Hashing with Chaining

Let A denote a strategy for resolving collisions. We use the following notation:

▶ A^+ denotes the average time for a **successful** search when using A;

▶ A^- denotes the average time for an **unsuccessful** search when using A;

▶ We parameterize the complexity results in terms of $\alpha := \frac{m}{n}$, the so-called fill factor of the hash-table.

We assume uniform hashing for the following analysis.

Hashing with Chaining

The time required for an unsuccessful search is 1 plus the length of the list that is examined.

Hashing with Chaining

The time required for an unsuccessful search is 1 plus the length of the list that is examined. The average length of a list is $\alpha = \frac{m}{n}$.

Hashing with Chaining

The time required for an unsuccessful search is 1 plus the length of the list that is examined. The average length of a list is $\alpha = \frac{m}{n}$. Hence, if A is the collision resolving strategy "Hashing with Chaining" we have

$$A^- = 1 + \alpha \ .$$

Hashing with Chaining

For a successful search observe that we do **not** choose a list at random, but we consider a random key k in the hash-table and ask for the search-time for k.

Hashing with Chaining

For a successful search observe that we do **not** choose a list at random, but we consider a random key k in the hash-table and ask for the search-time for k.

This is 1 plus the number of elements that lie before k in k's list.

Hashing with Chaining

For a successful search observe that we do **not** choose a list at random, but we consider a random key k in the hash-table and ask for the search-time for k.

This is 1 plus the number of elements that lie before k in k's list.

Let k_ℓ denote the ℓ-th key inserted into the table.

Hashing with Chaining

For a successful search observe that we do **not** choose a list at random, but we consider a random key k in the hash-table and ask for the search-time for k.

This is 1 plus the number of elements that lie before k in k's list.

Let k_ℓ denote the ℓ-th key inserted into the table.

Let for two keys k_i and k_j, X_{ij} denote the indicator variable for the event that k_i and k_j hash to the same position. Clearly, $\Pr[X_{ij} = 1] = 1/n$ for uniform hashing.

Hashing with Chaining

For a successful search observe that we do **not** choose a list at random, but we consider a random key k in the hash-table and ask for the search-time for k.

This is 1 plus the number of elements that lie before k in k's list.

Let k_ℓ denote the ℓ-th key inserted into the table.

Let for two keys k_i and k_j, X_{ij} denote the indicator variable for the event that k_i and k_j hash to the same position. Clearly, $\Pr[X_{ij} = 1] = 1/n$ for uniform hashing.

The expected successful search cost is

$$\mathrm{E}\left[\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left(1 + \sum_{j=i+1}^{m} X_{ij}\right)\right]$$

Hashing with Chaining

For a successful search observe that we do **not** choose a list at random, but we consider a random key k in the hash-table and ask for the search-time for k.

This is 1 plus the number of elements that lie before k in k's list.

Let k_ℓ denote the ℓ-th key inserted into the table.

Let for two keys k_i and k_j, X_{ij} denote the indicator variable for the event that k_i and k_j hash to the same position. Clearly, $\Pr[X_{ij} = 1] = 1/n$ for uniform hashing.

The expected successful search cost is

$$\mathrm{E}\left[\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left(1 + \overbrace{\sum_{j=i+1}^{m} X_{ij}}^{\text{keys before } k_i}\right)\right]$$

Hashing with Chaining

For a successful search observe that we do **not** choose a list at random, but we consider a random key k in the hash-table and ask for the search-time for k.

This is 1 plus the number of elements that lie before k in k's list.

Let k_ℓ denote the ℓ-th key inserted into the table.

Let for two keys k_i and k_j, X_{ij} denote the indicator variable for the event that k_i and k_j hash to the same position. Clearly, $\Pr[X_{ij} = 1] = 1/n$ for uniform hashing.

The expected successful search cost is

$$\mathrm{E}\left[\frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}\left(1 + \underbrace{\sum_{j=i+1}^{m} X_{ij}}_{\text{cost for key } k_i}\right)\right]$$

Hashing with Chaining

$$\mathrm{E}\left[\frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}\left(1+\sum_{j=i+1}^{m}X_{ij}\right)\right]$$

Hashing with Chaining

$$\mathrm{E}\left[\frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}\left(1+\sum_{j=i+1}^{m}X_{ij}\right)\right] = \frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}\left(1+\sum_{j=i+1}^{m}\mathrm{E}\left[X_{ij}\right]\right)$$

Hashing with Chaining

$$\mathrm{E}\Big[\frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}\Big(1 + \sum_{j=i+1}^{m} X_{ij}\Big)\Big] = \frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}\Big(1 + \sum_{j=i+1}^{m} \mathrm{E}\left[X_{ij}\right]\Big)$$

$$= \frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}\Big(1 + \sum_{j=i+1}^{m} \frac{1}{n}\Big)$$

Hashing with Chaining

$$\mathrm{E}\left[\frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}\left(1+\sum_{j=i+1}^{m}X_{ij}\right)\right] = \frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}\left(1+\sum_{j=i+1}^{m}\mathrm{E}\left[X_{ij}\right]\right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}\left(1+\sum_{j=i+1}^{m}\frac{1}{n}\right)$$

$$= 1+\frac{1}{mn}\sum_{i=1}^{m}(m-i)$$

Hashing with Chaining

$$\mathrm{E}\left[\frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}\left(1+\sum_{j=i+1}^{m}X_{ij}\right)\right] = \frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}\left(1+\sum_{j=i+1}^{m}\mathrm{E}\left[X_{ij}\right]\right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}\left(1+\sum_{j=i+1}^{m}\frac{1}{n}\right)$$

$$= 1 + \frac{1}{mn}\sum_{i=1}^{m}(m-i)$$

$$= 1 + \frac{1}{mn}\left(m^2 - \frac{m(m+1)}{2}\right)$$

Hashing with Chaining

$$\mathrm{E}\Big[\frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}\Big(1+\sum_{j=i+1}^{m}X_{ij}\Big)\Big] = \frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}\Big(1+\sum_{j=i+1}^{m}\mathrm{E}\left[X_{ij}\right]\Big)$$

$$= \frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}\Big(1+\sum_{j=i+1}^{m}\frac{1}{n}\Big)$$

$$= 1+\frac{1}{mn}\sum_{i=1}^{m}(m-i)$$

$$= 1+\frac{1}{mn}\Big(m^2-\frac{m(m+1)}{2}\Big)$$

$$= 1+\frac{m-1}{2n}$$

Hashing with Chaining

$$\mathrm{E}\left[\frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}\left(1+\sum_{j=i+1}^{m}X_{ij}\right)\right] = \frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}\left(1+\sum_{j=i+1}^{m}\mathrm{E}\left[X_{ij}\right]\right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}\left(1+\sum_{j=i+1}^{m}\frac{1}{n}\right)$$

$$= 1 + \frac{1}{mn}\sum_{i=1}^{m}(m-i)$$

$$= 1 + \frac{1}{mn}\left(m^2 - \frac{m(m+1)}{2}\right)$$

$$= 1 + \frac{m-1}{2n} = 1 + \frac{\alpha}{2} - \frac{\alpha}{2m}\ .$$

Hashing with Chaining

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{E}\Big[\frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}\Big(1+\sum_{j=i+1}^{m}X_{ij}\Big)\Big] &= \frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}\Big(1+\sum_{j=i+1}^{m}\mathrm{E}\,[X_{ij}]\Big) \\
&= \frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}\Big(1+\sum_{j=i+1}^{m}\frac{1}{n}\Big) \\
&= 1+\frac{1}{mn}\sum_{i=1}^{m}(m-i) \\
&= 1+\frac{1}{mn}\Big(m^2-\frac{m(m+1)}{2}\Big) \\
&= 1+\frac{m-1}{2n} = 1+\frac{\alpha}{2}-\frac{\alpha}{2m} \ .
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence, the expected cost for a successful search is $A^+ \leq 1+\frac{\alpha}{2}$.

Hashing with Chaining

Disadvantages:

▶ pointers increase memory requirements

▶ pointers may lead to bad cache efficiency

Advantages:

▶ no à priori limit on the number of elements

▶ deletion can be implemented efficiently

▶ by using balanced trees instead of linked list one can also obtain worst-case guarantees.

Open Addressing

Open Addressing

All objects are stored in the table itself.

Open Addressing

All objects are stored in the table itself.

Define a function $h(k, j)$ that determines the table-position to be examined in the j-th step. The values $h(k, 0), \ldots, h(k, n-1)$ must form a permutation of $0, \ldots, n-1$.

Open Addressing

All objects are stored in the table itself.

Define a function $h(k, j)$ that determines the table-position to be examined in the j-th step. The values $h(k, 0), \ldots, h(k, n-1)$ must form a permutation of $0, \ldots, n-1$.

Search(k): Try position $h(k, 0)$; if it is empty your search fails; otw. continue with $h(k, 1), h(k, 2), \ldots$.

Open Addressing

All objects are stored in the table itself.

Define a function $h(k, j)$ that determines the table-position to be examined in the j-th step. The values $h(k, 0), \ldots, h(k, n-1)$ must form a permutation of $0, \ldots, n-1$.

Search(k): Try position $h(k, 0)$; if it is empty your search fails; otw. continue with $h(k, 1)$, $h(k, 2)$, ...

Insert(x): Search until you find an empty slot; insert your element there. If your search reaches $h(k, n-1)$, and this slot is non-empty then your table is full.

Open Addressing

Choices for $h(k, j)$:

▶ Linear probing:
$h(k, i) = h(k) + i \mod n$
(sometimes: $h(k, i) = h(k) + c\,i \mod n$).

Open Addressing

Choices for $h(k, j)$:

▶ Linear probing:
  $h(k, i) = h(k) + i \mod n$
  (sometimes: $h(k, i) = h(k) + ci \mod n$).

▶ Quadratic probing:
  $h(k, i) = h(k) + c_1 i + c_2 i^2 \mod n$.

Open Addressing

Choices for $h(k, j)$:

▶ Linear probing:
$h(k, i) = h(k) + i \mod n$
(sometimes: $h(k, i) = h(k) + ci \mod n$).

▶ Quadratic probing:
$h(k, i) = h(k) + c_1 i + c_2 i^2 \mod n$.

▶ Double hashing:
$h(k, i) = h_1(k) + i h_2(k) \mod n$.

Open Addressing

Choices for $h(k, j)$:

- ▶ Linear probing:
  $h(k, i) = h(k) + i \mod n$
  (sometimes: $h(k, i) = h(k) + ci \mod n$).

- ▶ Quadratic probing:
  $h(k, i) = h(k) + c_1 i + c_2 i^2 \mod n$.

- ▶ Double hashing:
  $h(k, i) = h_1(k) + i h_2(k) \mod n$.

For quadratic probing and double hashing one has to ensure that the search covers all positions in the table (i.e., for double hashing $h_2(k)$ must be relatively prime to n (teilerfremd); for quadratic probing c_1 and c_2 have to be chosen carefully).

Linear Probing

▶ Advantage: Cache-efficiency. The new probe position is very likely to be in the cache.

Linear Probing

▶ Advantage: Cache-efficiency. The new probe position is very likely to be in the cache.

▶ Disadvantage: Primary clustering. Long sequences of occupied table-positions get longer as they have a larger probability to be hit. Furthermore, they can merge forming larger sequences.

Linear Probing

▶ Advantage: Cache-efficiency. The new probe position is very likely to be in the cache.

▶ Disadvantage: Primary clustering. Long sequences of occupied table-positions get longer as they have a larger probability to be hit. Furthermore, they can merge forming larger sequences.

Lemma 10

Let L be the method of linear probing for resolving collisions:

$$L^+ \approx \frac{1}{2}\left(1 + \frac{1}{1-\alpha}\right)$$

$$L^- \approx \frac{1}{2}\left(1 + \frac{1}{(1-\alpha)^2}\right)$$

Quadratic Probing

- Not as cache-efficient as Linear Probing.
- Secondary clustering: caused by the fact that all keys mapped to the same position have the same probe sequence.

Quadratic Probing

- ▶ Not as cache-efficient as Linear Probing.
- ▶ Secondary clustering: caused by the fact that all keys mapped to the same position have the same probe sequence.

Lemma 11

Let Q be the method of quadratic probing for resolving collisions:

$$Q^+ \approx 1 + \ln\left(\frac{1}{1-\alpha}\right) - \frac{\alpha}{2}$$

$$Q^- \approx \frac{1}{1-\alpha} + \ln\left(\frac{1}{1-\alpha}\right) - \alpha$$

Double Hashing

▶ Any probe into the hash-table usually creates a cache-miss.

Double Hashing

▶ Any probe into the hash-table usually creates a cache-miss.

Lemma 12

Let D be the method of double hashing for resolving collisions:

$$D^+ \approx \frac{1}{\alpha} \ln\left(\frac{1}{1-\alpha}\right)$$

$$D^- \approx \frac{1}{1-\alpha}$$

Open Addressing

Some values:

α	Linear Probing		Quadratic Probing		Double Hashing	
	L^+	L^-	Q^+	Q^-	D^+	D^-
0.5	1.5	2.5	1.44	2.19	1.39	2
0.9	5.5	50.5	2.85	11.40	2.55	10
0.95	10.5	200.5	3.52	22.05	3.15	20

Open Addressing
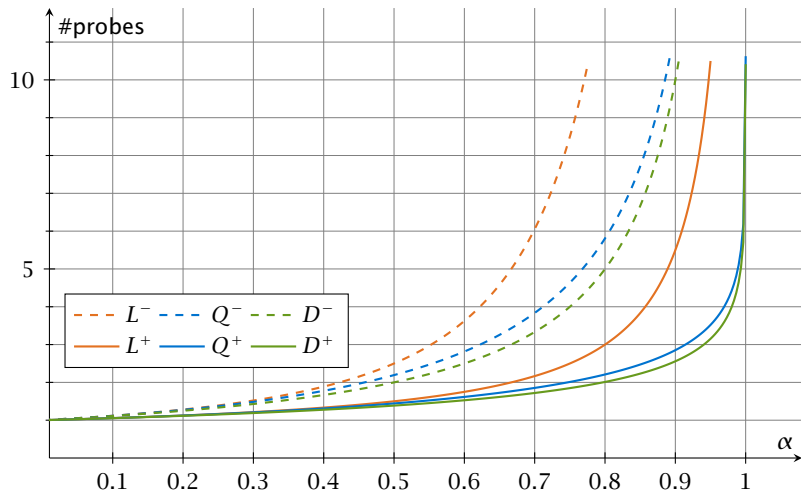
Analysis of Idealized Open Address Hashing

We analyze the time for a search in a very idealized Open Addressing scheme.

▶ The probe sequence $h(k, 0), h(k, 1), h(k, 2), \ldots$ is equally likely to be any permutation of $\langle 0, 1, \ldots, n-1 \rangle$.

Analysis of Idealized Open Address Hashing

Analysis of Idealized Open Address Hashing

Let X denote a random variable describing the number of probes in an unsuccessful search.

Analysis of Idealized Open Address Hashing

Let X denote a random variable describing the number of probes in an unsuccessful search.

Let A_i denote the event that the i-th probe occurs and is to a non-empty slot.

$$\Pr[A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \cdots \cap A_{i-1}]$$

Analysis of Idealized Open Address Hashing

Let X denote a random variable describing the number of probes in an unsuccessful search.

Let A_i denote the event that the i-th probe occurs and is to a non-empty slot.

$$\Pr[A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \cdots \cap A_{i-1}]$$
$$= \Pr[A_1] \cdot \Pr[A_2 \mid A_1] \cdot \Pr[A_3 \mid A_1 \cap A_2] \cdot$$
$$\ldots \cdot \Pr[A_{i-1} \mid A_1 \cap \cdots \cap A_{i-2}]$$

Analysis of Idealized Open Address Hashing

Let X denote a random variable describing the number of probes in an unsuccessful search.

Let A_i denote the event that the i-th probe occurs and is to a non-empty slot.

$$\Pr[A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \cdots \cap A_{i-1}]$$
$$= \Pr[A_1] \cdot \Pr[A_2 \mid A_1] \cdot \Pr[A_3 \mid A_1 \cap A_2] \cdot$$
$$\ldots \cdot \Pr[A_{i-1} \mid A_1 \cap \cdots \cap A_{i-2}]$$

$$\Pr[X \geq i]$$

Analysis of Idealized Open Address Hashing

Let X denote a random variable describing the number of probes in an unsuccessful search.

Let A_i denote the event that the i-th probe occurs and is to a non-empty slot.

$$\Pr[A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \cdots \cap A_{i-1}]$$
$$= \Pr[A_1] \cdot \Pr[A_2 \mid A_1] \cdot \Pr[A_3 \mid A_1 \cap A_2] \cdot$$
$$\ldots \cdot \Pr[A_{i-1} \mid A_1 \cap \cdots \cap A_{i-2}]$$

$$\Pr[X \geq i] = \frac{m}{n} \cdot \frac{m-1}{n-1} \cdot \frac{m-2}{n-2} \cdot \ldots \cdot \frac{m-i+2}{n-i+2}$$

Analysis of Idealized Open Address Hashing

Let X denote a random variable describing the number of probes in an unsuccessful search.

Let A_i denote the event that the i-th probe occurs and is to a non-empty slot.

$$\Pr[A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \cdots \cap A_{i-1}]$$
$$= \Pr[A_1] \cdot \Pr[A_2 \mid A_1] \cdot \Pr[A_3 \mid A_1 \cap A_2] \cdot$$
$$\ldots \cdot \Pr[A_{i-1} \mid A_1 \cap \cdots \cap A_{i-2}]$$

$$\Pr[X \geq i] = \frac{m}{n} \cdot \frac{m-1}{n-1} \cdot \frac{m-2}{n-2} \cdot \ldots \cdot \frac{m-i+2}{n-i+2}$$
$$\leq \left(\frac{m}{n}\right)^{i-1}$$

Analysis of Idealized Open Address Hashing

Let X denote a random variable describing the number of probes in an unsuccessful search.

Let A_i denote the event that the i-th probe occurs and is to a non-empty slot.

$$\Pr[A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \cdots \cap A_{i-1}]$$
$$= \Pr[A_1] \cdot \Pr[A_2 \mid A_1] \cdot \Pr[A_3 \mid A_1 \cap A_2] \cdot$$
$$\ldots \cdot \Pr[A_{i-1} \mid A_1 \cap \cdots \cap A_{i-2}]$$

$$\Pr[X \geq i] = \frac{m}{n} \cdot \frac{m-1}{n-1} \cdot \frac{m-2}{n-2} \cdot \ldots \cdot \frac{m-i+2}{n-i+2}$$

$$\leq \left(\frac{m}{n}\right)^{i-1} = \alpha^{i-1} \ .$$

$\mathrm{E}[X]$

Analysis of Idealized Open Address Hashing

$$E[X] = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \Pr[X \geq i]$$

Analysis of Idealized Open Address Hashing

$$E[X] = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \Pr[X \geq i] \leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \alpha^{i-1}$$

Analysis of Idealized Open Address Hashing

$$E[X] = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \Pr[X \geq i] \leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \alpha^{i-1} = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \alpha^{i}$$

Analysis of Idealized Open Address Hashing

$$\mathrm{E}[X] = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \Pr[X \ge i] \le \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \alpha^{i-1} = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \alpha^i = \frac{1}{1 - \alpha} \enspace .$$

Analysis of Idealized Open Address Hashing

$$E[X] = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \Pr[X \geq i] \leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \alpha^{i-1} = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \alpha^i = \frac{1}{1-\alpha} \ .$$

$$\frac{1}{1-\alpha} = 1 + \alpha + \alpha^2 + \alpha^3 + \ldots$$

Analysis of Idealized Open Address Hashing
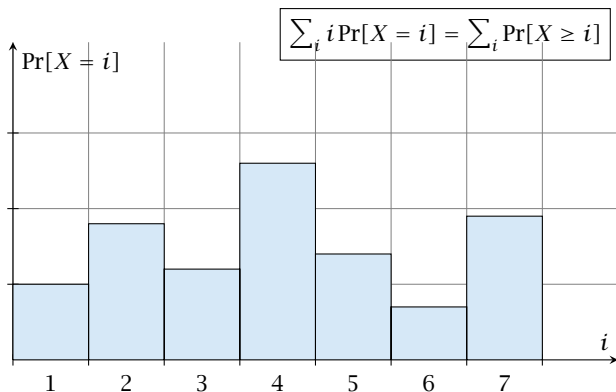
$$\sum_i i \Pr[X = i] = \sum_i \Pr[X \geq i]$$

$i = 1$

$$\sum_i i \Pr[X = i] = \sum_i \Pr[X \geq i]$$

Analysis of Idealized Open Address Hashing

$i = 2$

$$\sum_i i \Pr[X = i] = \sum_i \Pr[X \geq i]$$

$i = 3$

$$\sum_i i \Pr[X = i] = \sum_i \Pr[X \geq i]$$

Analysis of Idealized Open Address Hashing

$i = 4$

$i = 1$

$$\sum_i i \Pr[X = i] = \sum_i \Pr[X \geq i]$$

Analysis of Idealized Open Address Hashing

$i = 2$

$$\sum_i i \Pr[X = i] = \sum_i \Pr[X \geq i]$$

Analysis of Idealized Open Address Hashing

$i = 3$

$$\sum_i i \Pr[X = i] = \sum_i \Pr[X \geq i]$$

Analysis of Idealized Open Address Hashing

$i = 4$

$$\sum_i i \Pr[X = i] = \sum_i \Pr[X \geq i]$$

Analysis of Idealized Open Address Hashing

Analysis of Idealized Open Address Hashing

$$\sum_i i \Pr[X = i] = \sum_i \Pr[X \geq i]$$
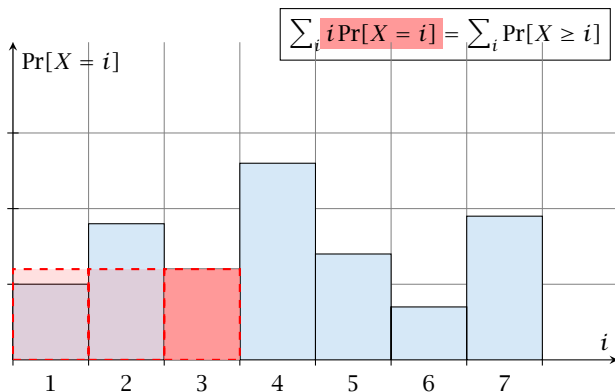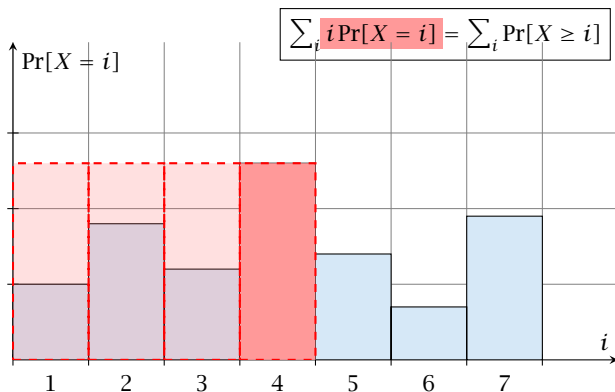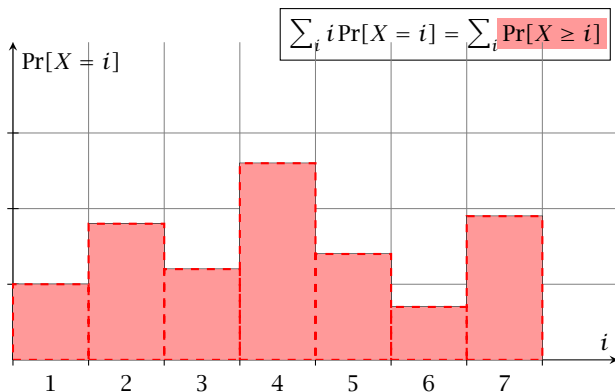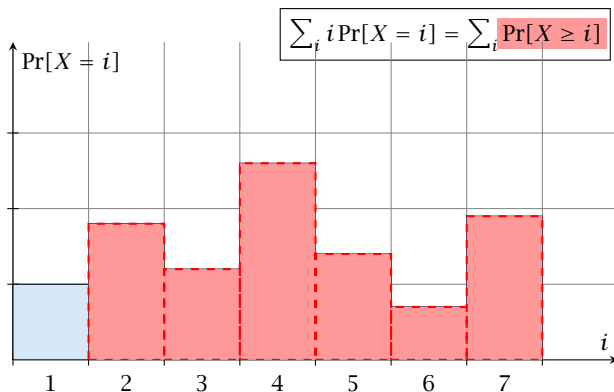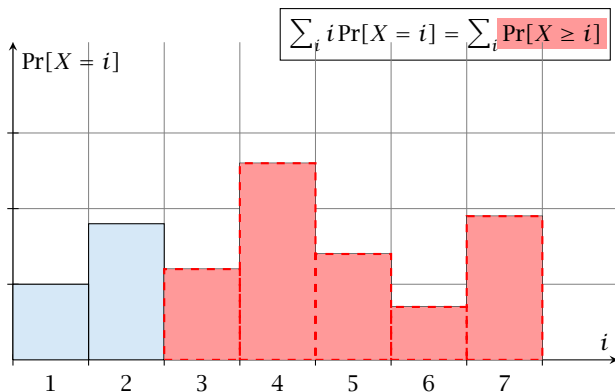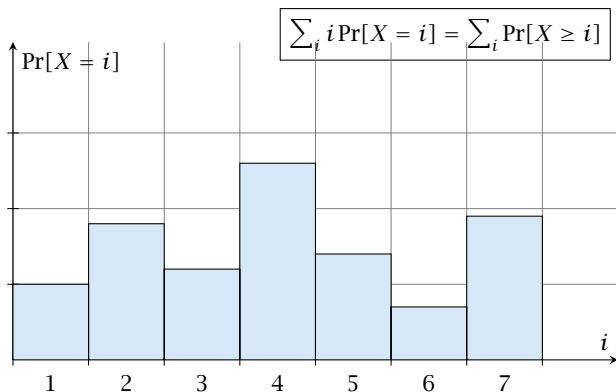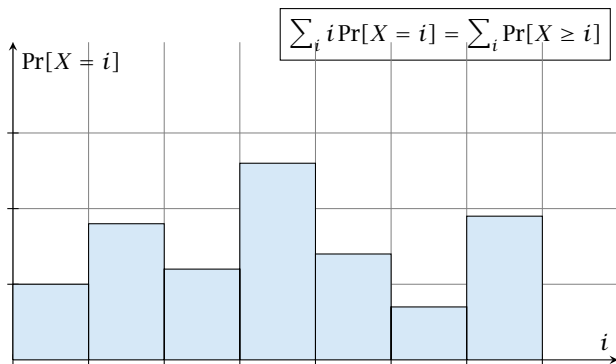
The j-th rectangle appears in both sums j times. (j times in the first due to multiplication with j; and j times in the second for summands $i = 1, 2, \ldots, j$)

Analysis of Idealized Open Address Hashing

Analysis of Idealized Open Address Hashing

The number of probes in a successful search for k is equal to the number of probes made in an unsuccessful search for k at the time that k is inserted.

Analysis of Idealized Open Address Hashing

The number of probes in a **successful** search for k is equal to the number of probes made in an unsuccessful search for k at the time that k is inserted.

Let k be the $i+1$-st element. The expected time for a search for k is at most $\frac{1}{1-i/n} = \frac{n}{n-i}$.

Analysis of Idealized Open Address Hashing

The number of probes in a **successful** search for k is equal to the number of probes made in an unsuccessful search for k at the time that k is inserted.

Let k be the $i+1$-st element. The expected time for a search for k is at most $\frac{1}{1-i/n} = \frac{n}{n-i}$.

$$\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \frac{n}{n-i}$$

Analysis of Idealized Open Address Hashing

The number of probes in a **successful** search for k is equal to the number of probes made in an unsuccessful search for k at the time that k is inserted.

Let k be the $i + 1$-st element. The expected time for a search for k is at most $\frac{1}{1 - i/n} = \frac{n}{n - i}$.

$$\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \frac{n}{n - i} = \frac{n}{m} \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \frac{1}{n - i}$$

Analysis of Idealized Open Address Hashing

The number of probes in a **successful** search for k is equal to the number of probes made in an unsuccessful search for k at the time that k is inserted.

Let k be the $i + 1$-st element. The expected time for a search for k is at most $\frac{1}{1 - i/n} = \frac{n}{n - i}$.

$$\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \frac{n}{n - i} = \frac{n}{m} \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \frac{1}{n - i} = \frac{1}{\alpha} \sum_{k=n-m+1}^{n} \frac{1}{k}$$

Analysis of Idealized Open Address Hashing

The number of probes in a **successful** search for k is equal to the number of probes made in an unsuccessful search for k at the time that k is inserted.

Let k be the $i+1$-st element. The expected time for a search for k is at most $\frac{1}{1-i/n} = \frac{n}{n-i}$.

$$\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \frac{n}{n-i} = \frac{n}{m} \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \frac{1}{n-i} = \frac{1}{\alpha} \sum_{k=n-m+1}^{n} \frac{1}{k}$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{\alpha} \int_{n-m}^{n} \frac{1}{x} \mathrm{d}x$$

Analysis of Idealized Open Address Hashing

The number of probes in a **successful** search for k is equal to the number of probes made in an unsuccessful search for k at the time that k is inserted.

Let k be the $i + 1$-st element. The expected time for a search for k is at most $\frac{1}{1 - i/n} = \frac{n}{n - i}$.

$$\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \frac{n}{n - i} = \frac{n}{m} \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \frac{1}{n - i} = \frac{1}{\alpha} \sum_{k=n-m+1}^{n} \frac{1}{k}$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{\alpha} \int_{n-m}^{n} \frac{1}{x} \mathrm{d}x = \frac{1}{\alpha} \ln \frac{n}{n - m}$$

Analysis of Idealized Open Address Hashing

The number of probes in a **successful** search for k is equal to the number of probes made in an unsuccessful search for k at the time that k is inserted.

Let k be the $i + 1$-st element. The expected time for a search for k is at most $\frac{1}{1 - i/n} = \frac{n}{n - i}$.

$$\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \frac{n}{n - i} = \frac{n}{m} \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \frac{1}{n - i} = \frac{1}{\alpha} \sum_{k=n-m+1}^{n} \frac{1}{k}$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{\alpha} \int_{n-m}^{n} \frac{1}{x} \mathrm{d}x = \frac{1}{\alpha} \ln \frac{n}{n - m} = \frac{1}{\alpha} \ln \frac{1}{1 - \alpha} \quad .$$

Analysis of Idealized Open Address Hashing

Deletions in Hashtables

How do we delete in a hash-table?

▶ For hashing with chaining this is not a problem. Simply search for the key, and delete the item in the corresponding list.

Deletions in Hashtables

How do we delete in a hash-table?

▶ For hashing with chaining this is not a problem. Simply search for the key, and delete the item in the corresponding list.

▶ For open addressing this is difficult.

Deletions in Hashtables

▶ Simply removing a key might interrupt the probe sequence of other keys which then cannot be found anymore.

Deletions in Hashtables

▶ Simply removing a key might interrupt the probe sequence of other keys which then cannot be found anymore.

▶ One can delete an element by replacing it with a deleted-marker.

Deletions in Hashtables

▶ Simply removing a key might interrupt the probe sequence of other keys which then cannot be found anymore.

▶ One can delete an element by replacing it with a deleted-marker.

▶ During an insertion if a deleted-marker is encountered an element can be inserted there.

Deletions in Hashtables

- Simply removing a key might interrupt the probe sequence of other keys which then cannot be found anymore.
- One can delete an element by replacing it with a deleted-marker.
    - During an insertion if a deleted-marker is encountered an element can be inserted there.
    - During a search a deleted-marker must not be used to terminate the probe sequence.

Deletions in Hashtables

- ▶ Simply removing a key might interrupt the probe sequence of other keys which then cannot be found anymore.
- ▶ One can delete an element by replacing it with a deleted-marker.
  - ▶ During an insertion if a deleted-marker is encountered an element can be inserted there.
  - ▶ During a search a deleted-marker must not be used to terminate the probe sequence.
- ▶ The table could fill up with deleted-markers leading to bad performance.

Deletions in Hashtables

▶ Simply removing a key might interrupt the probe sequence of other keys which then cannot be found anymore.

▶ One can delete an element by replacing it with a deleted-marker.

  ▶ During an insertion if a deleted-marker is encountered an element can be inserted there.
  ▶ During a search a deleted-marker must not be used to terminate the probe sequence.

▶ The table could fill up with deleted-markers leading to bad performance.

▶ If a table contains many deleted-markers (linear fraction of the keys) one can rehash the whole table and amortize the cost for this rehash against the cost for the deletions.

Deletions for Linear Probing

▶ For Linear Probing one can delete elements without using
  deletion-markers.

Deletions for Linear Probing

▶ For Linear Probing one can delete elements without using deletion-markers.

▶ Upon a deletion elements that are further down in the probe-sequence may be moved to guarantee that they are still found during a search.

Deletions for Linear Probing

Algorithm 37 delete(p)
1: $T[p] \leftarrow$ null
2: $p \leftarrow \text{succ}(p)$
3: **while** $T[p] \neq$ null **do**
4:     $y \leftarrow T[p]$
5:     $T[p] \leftarrow$ null
6:     $p \leftarrow \text{succ}(p)$
7:     insert(y)

p is the index into the table-cell that contains the object to be deleted.

Deletions for Linear Probing

Algorithm 37 delete(p)
1: $T[p] \leftarrow \text{null}$
2: $p \leftarrow \text{succ}(p)$
3: **while** $T[p] \neq \text{null}$ **do**
4: $\quad y \leftarrow T[p]$
5: $\quad T[p] \leftarrow \text{null}$
6: $\quad p \leftarrow \text{succ}(p)$
7: $\quad \text{insert}(y)$

p is the index into the table-cell that contains the object to be deleted.

Pointers into the hash-table become invalid.

Universal Hashing

Universal Hashing

Regardless, of the choice of hash-function there is always an input (a set of keys) that has a very poor worst-case behaviour.

Universal Hashing

Regardless, of the choice of hash-function there is always an input (a set of keys) that has a very poor worst-case behaviour.

Therefore, so far we assumed that the hash-function is random so that regardless of the input the average case behaviour is good.

Universal Hashing

Regardless, of the choice of hash-function there is always an input (a set of keys) that has a very poor worst-case behaviour.

Therefore, so far we assumed that the hash-function is random so that regardless of the input the average case behaviour is good.

However, the assumption of uniform hashing that h is chosen randomly from all functions $f : U \to [0, \ldots, n-1]$ is clearly unrealistic as there are $n^{|U|}$ such functions. Even writing down such a function would take $|U| \log n$ bits.

Universal Hashing

Regardless, of the choice of hash-function there is always an input (a set of keys) that has a very poor worst-case behaviour.

Therefore, so far we assumed that the hash-function is random so that regardless of the input the average case behaviour is good.

However, the assumption of uniform hashing that h is chosen randomly from all functions $f : U \to [0, \ldots, n-1]$ is clearly unrealistic as there are $n^{|U|}$ such functions. Even writing down such a function would take $|U| \log n$ bits.

Universal hashing tries to define a set $\mathcal{H}$ of functions that is much smaller but still leads to good average case behaviour when selecting a hash-function uniformly at random from $\mathcal{H}$.

Universal Hashing

Definition 13

A class $\mathcal{H}$ of hash-functions from the universe U into the set $\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$ is called universal if for all $u_1, u_2 \in U$ with $u_1 \neq u_2$

$$\Pr[h(u_1) = h(u_2)] \leq \frac{1}{n} \ ,$$

where the probability is w.r.t. the choice of a random hash-function from set $\mathcal{H}$.

Universal Hashing

Definition 13

A class $\mathcal{H}$ of hash-functions from the universe U into the set $\{0, \dots, n-1\}$ is called universal if for all $u_1, u_2 \in U$ with $u_1 \neq u_2$

$$\Pr[h(u_1) = h(u_2)] \leq \frac{1}{n} \ ,$$

where the probability is w. r. t. the choice of a random hash-function from set $\mathcal{H}$.

Note that this means that the probability of a collision between two arbitrary elements is at most $\frac{1}{n}$.

Universal Hashing

Definition 14

A class $\mathcal{H}$ of hash-functions from the universe U into the set
$\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$ is called 2-independent (pairwise independent) if
the following two conditions hold

▶ For any key $u \in U$, and $t \in \{0, \ldots, n-1\}$ $\Pr[h(u) = t] = \frac{1}{n}$,
  i.e., a key is distributed uniformly within the hash-table.

▶ For all $u_1, u_2 \in U$ with $u_1 \neq u_2$, and for any two
  hash-positions t_1, t_2:

$$\Pr[h(u_1) = t_1 \wedge h(u_2) = t_2] \leq \frac{1}{n^2} \ .$$

Universal Hashing

Definition 14

A class $\mathcal{H}$ of hash-functions from the universe U into the set $\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$ is called 2-independent (pairwise independent) if the following two conditions hold

▶ For any key $u \in U$, and $t \in \{0, \ldots, n-1\}$ $\Pr[h(u) = t] = \frac{1}{n}$, i.e., a key is distributed uniformly within the hash-table.

▶ For all $u_1, u_2 \in U$ with $u_1 \neq u_2$, and for any two hash-positions t_1, t_2:

$$\Pr[h(u_1) = t_1 \wedge h(u_2) = t_2] \leq \frac{1}{n^2} .$$

This requirement clearly implies a universal hash-function.

Universal Hashing

Definition 15

A class $\mathcal{H}$ of hash-functions from the universe U into the set $\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$ is called k-independent if for any choice of $\ell \leq k$ distinct keys $u_1, \ldots, u_\ell \in U$, and for any set of ℓ not necessarily distinct hash-positions $t_1, \ldots, t_\ell$:

$$\Pr[h(u_1) = t_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge h(u_\ell) = t_\ell] \leq \frac{1}{n^\ell} \ ,$$

where the probability is w.r.t. the choice of a random hash-function from set $\mathcal{H}$.

Universal Hashing

Definition 16

A class $\mathcal{H}$ of hash-functions from the universe U into the set $\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$ is called (μ, k)-independent if for any choice of $\ell \leq k$ distinct keys $u_1, \ldots, u_\ell \in U$, and for any set of ℓ not necessarily distinct hash-positions $t_1, \ldots, t_\ell$:

$$\Pr[h(u_1) = t_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge h(u_\ell) = t_\ell] \leq \frac{\mu}{n^\ell} \ ,$$

where the probability is w. r. t. the choice of a random hash-function from set $\mathcal{H}$.

Universal Hashing

Universal Hashing

Let $U := \{0, \ldots, p-1\}$ for a prime p. Let $\mathbb{Z}_p := \{0, \ldots, p-1\}$, and let $\mathbb{Z}_p^* := \{1, \ldots, p-1\}$ denote the set of invertible elements in $\mathbb{Z}_p$.

Universal Hashing

Let $U := \{0, \ldots, p-1\}$ for a prime p. Let $\mathbb{Z}_p := \{0, \ldots, p-1\}$, and let $\mathbb{Z}_p^* := \{1, \ldots, p-1\}$ denote the set of invertible elements in $\mathbb{Z}_p$.

Define
$$h_{a,b}(x) := (ax + b \bmod p) \bmod n$$

Universal Hashing

Let $U := \{0, \ldots, p-1\}$ for a prime p. Let $\mathbb{Z}_p := \{0, \ldots, p-1\}$, and let $\mathbb{Z}_p^* := \{1, \ldots, p-1\}$ denote the set of invertible elements in $\mathbb{Z}_p$.

Define
$$h_{a,b}(x) := (ax + b \bmod p) \bmod n$$

Lemma 17
The class
$$\mathcal{H} = \{h_{a,b} \mid a \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*, b \in \mathbb{Z}_p\}$$
is a universal class of hash-functions from U to $\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$.

Universal Hashing

Universal Hashing

Proof.

Let $x, y \in U$ be two distinct keys. We have to show that the probability of a collision is only $1/n$.

Universal Hashing

Proof.

Let $x, y \in U$ be two distinct keys. We have to show that the probability of a collision is only $1/n$.

▶ $ax + b \not\equiv ay + b \pmod{p}$

Universal Hashing

Proof.

Let $x, y \in U$ be two distinct keys. We have to show that the probability of a collision is only $1/n$.

- ▶ $ax + b \not\equiv ay + b \pmod{p}$

  If $x \neq y$ then $(x - y) \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$.

Universal Hashing

Proof.

Let $x, y \in U$ be two distinct keys. We have to show that the probability of a collision is only $1/n$.

▶ $ax + b \not\equiv ay + b \pmod{p}$

If $x \neq y$ then $(x - y) \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$.

Multiplying with $a \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ gives

$$a(x - y) \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$$

Universal Hashing

Proof.

Let $x, y \in U$ be two distinct keys. We have to show that the probability of a collision is only $1/n$.

▶ $ax + b \not\equiv ay + b \pmod{p}$

If $x \neq y$ then $(x - y) \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$.

Multiplying with $a \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ gives

$$a(x - y) \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$$

where we use that $\mathbb{Z}_p$ is a field (Körper) and, hence, has no zero divisors (nullteilerfrei).

Universal Hashing

▶ The hash-function does not generate collisions before the $(\bmod\ n)$-operation. Furthermore, every choice (a, b) is mapped to a different pair (t_x, t_y) with $t_x := ax + b$ and $t_y := ay + b$.

Universal Hashing

▶ The hash-function does not generate collisions before the $(\mod n)$-operation. Furthermore, every choice (a, b) is mapped to a different pair (t_x, t_y) with $t_x := ax + b$ and $t_y := ay + b$.

This holds because we can compute a and b when given t_x and t_y:

Universal Hashing

▶ The hash-function does not generate collisions before the $(\mod n)$-operation. Furthermore, every choice (a, b) is mapped to a different pair (t_x, t_y) with $t_x := ax + b$ and $t_y := ay + b$.

This holds because we can compute a and b when given t_x and t_y:

$$t_x \equiv ax + b \qquad\qquad (\mod p)$$
$$t_y \equiv ay + b \qquad\qquad (\mod p)$$

Universal Hashing

▶ The hash-function does not generate collisions before the $(\mathrm{mod}\ n)$-operation. Furthermore, every choice (a, b) is mapped to a different pair (t_x, t_y) with $t_x := ax + b$ and $t_y := ay + b$.

This holds because we can compute a and b when given t_x and t_y:

$$t_x \equiv ax + b \qquad\qquad (\mathrm{mod}\ p)$$
$$t_y \equiv ay + b \qquad\qquad (\mathrm{mod}\ p)$$

$$t_x - t_y \equiv a(x - y) \qquad\qquad (\mathrm{mod}\ p)$$
$$t_y \equiv ay + b \qquad\qquad (\mathrm{mod}\ p)$$

Universal Hashing

▶ The hash-function does not generate collisions before the $(\bmod\ n)$-operation. Furthermore, every choice (a, b) is mapped to a different pair (t_x, t_y) with $t_x := ax + b$ and $t_y := ay + b$.

This holds because we can compute a and b when given t_x and t_y:

$$t_x \equiv ax + b \qquad\qquad (\bmod\ p)$$
$$t_y \equiv ay + b \qquad\qquad (\bmod\ p)$$

$$t_x - t_y \equiv a(x - y) \qquad\qquad (\bmod\ p)$$
$$t_y \equiv ay + b \qquad\qquad (\bmod\ p)$$

$$a \equiv (t_x - t_y)(x - y)^{-1} \qquad\qquad (\bmod\ p)$$
$$b \equiv t_y - ay \qquad\qquad (\bmod\ p)$$

Universal Hashing

Universal Hashing

There is a one-to-one correspondence between hash-functions (pairs (a, b), $a \neq 0$) and pairs (t_x, t_y), $t_x \neq t_y$.

Universal Hashing

There is a one-to-one correspondence between hash-functions (pairs (a, b), $a \neq 0$) and pairs (t_x, t_y), $t_x \neq t_y$.

Therefore, we can view the first step (before the $\mod n$-operation) as choosing a pair (t_x, t_y), $t_x \neq t_y$ uniformly at random.

Universal Hashing

There is a one-to-one correspondence between hash-functions (pairs (a, b), $a \neq 0$) and pairs (t_x, t_y), $t_x \neq t_y$.

Therefore, we can view the first step (before the $\bmod\ n$-operation) as choosing a pair (t_x, t_y), $t_x \neq t_y$ uniformly at random.

What happens when we do the $\bmod\ n$ operation?

Universal Hashing

There is a one-to-one correspondence between hash-functions (pairs (a, b), $a \neq 0$) and pairs (t_x, t_y), $t_x \neq t_y$.

Therefore, we can view the first step (before the mod n-operation) as choosing a pair (t_x, t_y), $t_x \neq t_y$ uniformly at random.

What happens when we do the mod n operation?

Fix a value t_x. There are $p - 1$ possible values for choosing t_y.

Universal Hashing

There is a one-to-one correspondence between hash-functions (pairs (a, b), $a \neq 0$) and pairs (t_x, t_y), $t_x \neq t_y$.

Therefore, we can view the first step (before the mod n-operation) as choosing a pair (t_x, t_y), $t_x \neq t_y$ uniformly at random.

What happens when we do the mod n operation?

Fix a value t_x. There are $p - 1$ possible values for choosing t_y.

From the range $0, \ldots, p - 1$ the values $t_x, t_x + n, t_x + 2n, \ldots$ map to t_x after the modulo-operation. These are at most $\lceil p/n \rceil$ values.

Universal Hashing

Universal Hashing

As $t_y \neq t_x$ there are

$$\left\lceil \frac{p}{n} \right\rceil - 1$$

Universal Hashing

As $t_y \neq t_x$ there are

$$\left\lceil \frac{p}{n} \right\rceil - 1 \leq \frac{p}{n} + \frac{n-1}{n} - 1$$

Universal Hashing

As $t_y \neq t_x$ there are

$$\left\lceil \frac{p}{n} \right\rceil - 1 \leq \frac{p}{n} + \frac{n-1}{n} - 1 \leq \frac{p-1}{n}$$

Universal Hashing

As $t_y \neq t_x$ there are

$$\left\lceil \frac{p}{n} \right\rceil - 1 \leq \frac{p}{n} + \frac{n-1}{n} - 1 \leq \frac{p-1}{n}$$

possibilities for choosing t_y such that the final hash-value creates a collision.

Universal Hashing

As $t_y \neq t_x$ there are

$$\left\lceil \frac{p}{n} \right\rceil - 1 \leq \frac{p}{n} + \frac{n-1}{n} - 1 \leq \frac{p-1}{n}$$

possibilities for choosing t_y such that the final hash-value creates a collision.

This happens with probability at most $\frac{1}{n}$.

Universal Hashing

Universal Hashing

It is also possible to show that $\mathcal{H}$ is an (almost) pairwise independent class of hash-functions.

$$\Pr_{t_x \neq t_y \in \mathbb{Z}_p^2} \left[\begin{array}{c} t_x \bmod n = h_1 \\ t_y \bmod n = h_2 \end{array} \right]$$

Universal Hashing

It is also possible to show that $\mathcal{H}$ is an (almost) pairwise independent class of hash-functions.

$$\frac{\left\lfloor \frac{p}{n} \right\rfloor^2}{p(p-1)} \leq \mathrm{Pr}_{t_x \neq t_y \in \mathbb{Z}_p^2} \left[\begin{array}{c} t_x \bmod n = h_1 \\ t_y \overset{\wedge}{\bmod} n = h_2 \end{array} \right] \leq \frac{\left\lceil \frac{p}{n} \right\rceil^2}{p(p-1)}$$

Universal Hashing

It is also possible to show that $\mathcal{H}$ is an (almost) pairwise independent class of hash-functions.

$$\frac{\left\lfloor \frac{p}{n} \right\rfloor^2}{p(p-1)} \leq \Pr_{t_x \neq t_y \in \mathbb{Z}_p^2} \left[\begin{array}{c} t_x \bmod n = h_1 \\ \wedge \\ t_y \bmod n = h_2 \end{array} \right] \leq \frac{\left\lceil \frac{p}{n} \right\rceil^2}{p(p-1)}$$

Note that the middle is the probability that $h(x) = h_1$ and $h(y) = h_2$. The total number of choices for (t_x, t_y) is $p(p-1)$. The number of choices for t_x (t_y) such that $t_x \bmod n = h_1$ ($t_y \bmod n = h_2$) lies between $\lfloor \frac{p}{n} \rfloor$ and $\lceil \frac{p}{n} \rceil$.

Universal Hashing

Definition 18

Let $d \in \mathbb{N}$; $q \geq (d+1)n$ be a prime; and let $\bar{a} \in \{0, \ldots, q-1\}^{d+1}$.
Define for $x \in \{0, \ldots, q-1\}$

$$h_{\bar{a}}(x) := \Big(\sum_{i=0}^{d} a_i x^i \bmod q \Big) \bmod n \ .$$

Let $\mathcal{H}_n^d := \{h_{\bar{a}} \mid \bar{a} \in \{0, \ldots, q-1\}^{d+1}\}$. The class $\mathcal{H}_n^d$ is $(e, d+1)$-independent.

Note that in the previous case we had $d = 1$ and chose $a_d \neq 0$.

Universal Hashing

Universal Hashing

For the coefficients $\bar{a} \in \{0, \ldots, q-1\}^{d+1}$ let $f_{\bar{a}}$ denote the polynomial

$$f_{\bar{a}}(x) = \Big(\sum_{i=0}^{d} a_i x^i \Big) \bmod q$$

Universal Hashing

For the coefficients $\bar{a} \in \{0, \ldots, q-1\}^{d+1}$ let $f_{\bar{a}}$ denote the polynomial

$$f_{\bar{a}}(x) = \Big(\sum_{i=0}^{d} a_i x^i \Big) \bmod q$$

The polynomial is defined by $d + 1$ distinct points.

Universal Hashing

Universal Hashing

Fix $\ell \leq d + 1$; let $x_1, \ldots, x_\ell \in \{0, \ldots, q - 1\}$ be keys, and let $t_1, \ldots, t_\ell$ denote the corresponding hash-function values.

Universal Hashing

Fix $\ell \le d + 1$; let $x_1, \ldots, x_\ell \in \{0, \ldots, q-1\}$ be keys, and let $t_1, \ldots, t_\ell$ denote the corresponding hash-function values.

Let $A^\ell = \{h_{\vec{a}} \in \mathcal{H} \mid h_{\vec{a}}(x_i) = t_i \text{ for all } i \in \{1, \ldots, \ell\}\}$

Universal Hashing

Fix $\ell \le d + 1$; let $x_1, \ldots, x_\ell \in \{0, \ldots, q - 1\}$ be keys, and let $t_1, \ldots, t_\ell$ denote the corresponding hash-function values.

Let $A^\ell = \{h_{\bar{a}} \in \mathcal{H} \mid h_{\bar{a}}(x_i) = t_i \text{ for all } i \in \{1, \ldots, \ell\}\}$
Then

$$h_{\bar{a}} \in A^\ell \Leftrightarrow h_{\bar{a}} = f_{\bar{a}} \bmod n \text{ and}$$

$$f_{\bar{a}}(x_i) \in \underbrace{\{t_i + \alpha \cdot n \mid \alpha \in \{0, \ldots, \lceil \tfrac{q}{n} \rceil - 1\}\}}_{=: B_i}$$

Universal Hashing

Fix $\ell \leq d + 1$; let $x_1, \ldots, x_\ell \in \{0, \ldots, q-1\}$ be keys, and let $t_1, \ldots, t_\ell$ denote the corresponding hash-function values.

Let $A^\ell = \{h_{\vec{a}} \in \mathcal{H} \mid h_{\vec{a}}(x_i) = t_i \text{ for all } i \in \{1, \ldots, \ell\}\}$
Then

$\qquad h_{\vec{a}} \in A^\ell \Leftrightarrow h_{\vec{a}} = f_{\vec{a}} \bmod n$ and

$$f_{\vec{a}}(x_i) \in \underbrace{\{t_i + \alpha \cdot n \mid \alpha \in \{0, \ldots, \lceil \tfrac{q}{n} \rceil - 1\}\}}_{=: B_i}$$

In order to obtain the cardinality of A^ℓ we choose our polynomial by fixing $d + 1$ points.

Universal Hashing

Fix $\ell \leq d + 1$; let $x_1, \ldots, x_\ell \in \{0, \ldots, q - 1\}$ be keys, and let $t_1, \ldots, t_\ell$ denote the corresponding hash-function values.

Let $A^\ell = \{h_{\vec{a}} \in \mathcal{H} \mid h_{\vec{a}}(x_i) = t_i \text{ for all } i \in \{1, \ldots, \ell\}\}$
Then

$\qquad h_{\vec{a}} \in A^\ell \Leftrightarrow h_{\vec{a}} = f_{\vec{a}} \bmod n$ and

$$f_{\vec{a}}(x_i) \in \underbrace{\{t_i + \alpha \cdot n \mid \alpha \in \{0, \ldots, \lceil \tfrac{q}{n} \rceil - 1\}\}}_{=: B_i}$$

In order to obtain the cardinality of A^ℓ we choose our polynomial by fixing $d + 1$ points.

We first fix the values for inputs $x_1, \ldots, x_\ell$.

Universal Hashing

Fix $\ell \leq d + 1$; let $x_1, \ldots, x_\ell \in \{0, \ldots, q-1\}$ be keys, and let $t_1, \ldots, t_\ell$ denote the corresponding hash-function values.

Let $A^\ell = \{h_{\bar{a}} \in \mathcal{H} \mid h_{\bar{a}}(x_i) = t_i \text{ for all } i \in \{1, \ldots, \ell\}\}$
Then

$\quad h_{\bar{a}} \in A^\ell \Leftrightarrow h_{\bar{a}} = f_{\bar{a}} \bmod n$ and

$$f_{\bar{a}}(x_i) \in \underbrace{\{t_i + \alpha \cdot n \mid \alpha \in \{0, \ldots, \lceil \tfrac{q}{n} \rceil - 1\}\}}_{=: B_i}$$

In order to obtain the cardinality of A^ℓ we choose our polynomial by fixing $d + 1$ points.

We first fix the values for inputs $x_1, \ldots, x_\ell$.
We have

$$|B_1| \cdot \ldots \cdot |B_\ell|$$

possibilities to do this (so that $h_{\bar{a}}(x_i) = t_i$).

Universal Hashing

Now, we choose $d - \ell + 1$ other inputs and choose their value arbitrarily. We have $q^{d-\ell+1}$ possibilities to do this.

Universal Hashing

Now, we choose $d - \ell + 1$ other inputs and choose their value arbitrarily. We have $q^{d-\ell+1}$ possibilities to do this.

Therefore we have

$$|B_1| \cdot \ldots \cdot |B_\ell| \cdot q^{d-\ell+1} \leq \lceil \frac{q}{n} \rceil^\ell \cdot q^{d-\ell+1}$$

possibilities to choose $\bar{a}$ such that $h_{\bar{a}} \in A_\ell$.

Universal Hashing

Therefore the probability of choosing $h_{\bar{a}}$ from A_ℓ is only

$$\frac{\lceil \frac{q}{n} \rceil^\ell \cdot q^{d-\ell+1}}{q^{d+1}}$$

Universal Hashing

Therefore the probability of choosing $h_{\bar{a}}$ from A_ℓ is only

$$\frac{\lceil \frac{q}{n} \rceil^\ell \cdot q^{d-\ell+1}}{q^{d+1}} \leq \frac{(\frac{q+n}{n})^\ell}{q^\ell}$$

Universal Hashing

Therefore the probability of choosing $h_{\bar{a}}$ from A_ℓ is only

$$\frac{\lceil \frac{q}{n} \rceil^\ell \cdot q^{d-\ell+1}}{q^{d+1}} \le \frac{(\frac{q+n}{n})^\ell}{q^\ell} \le \left(\frac{q+n}{q}\right)^\ell \cdot \frac{1}{n^\ell}$$

Universal Hashing

Therefore the probability of choosing $h_{\bar{a}}$ from A_ℓ is only

$$\frac{\lceil \frac{q}{n} \rceil^\ell \cdot q^{d-\ell+1}}{q^{d+1}} \leq \frac{(\frac{q+n}{n})^\ell}{q^\ell} \leq \left(\frac{q+n}{q}\right)^\ell \cdot \frac{1}{n^\ell}$$

$$\leq \left(1 + \frac{1}{\ell}\right)^\ell \cdot \frac{1}{n^\ell}$$

Universal Hashing

Therefore the probability of choosing $h_{\bar{a}}$ from A_ℓ is only

$$\frac{\lceil \frac{q}{n} \rceil^\ell \cdot q^{d-\ell+1}}{q^{d+1}} \leq \frac{(\frac{q+n}{n})^\ell}{q^\ell} \leq \left(\frac{q+n}{q}\right)^\ell \cdot \frac{1}{n^\ell}$$

$$\leq \left(1 + \frac{1}{\ell}\right)^\ell \cdot \frac{1}{n^\ell} \leq \frac{e}{n^\ell} \quad .$$

Universal Hashing

Therefore the probability of choosing $h_{\bar{a}}$ from A_ℓ is only

$$\frac{\lceil \frac{q}{n} \rceil^\ell \cdot q^{d-\ell+1}}{q^{d+1}} \le \frac{(\frac{q+n}{n})^\ell}{q^\ell} \le \left(\frac{q+n}{q}\right)^\ell \cdot \frac{1}{n^\ell}$$

$$\le \left(1 + \frac{1}{\ell}\right)^\ell \cdot \frac{1}{n^\ell} \le \frac{e}{n^\ell} \ .$$

This shows that the $\mathcal{H}$ is $(e, d+1)$-universal.

The last step followed from $q \ge (d+1)n$, and $\ell \le d+1$.

Perfect Hashing

Suppose that we **know** the set S of actual keys (no insert/no delete). Then we may want to design a **simple** hash-function that maps all these keys to different memory locations.
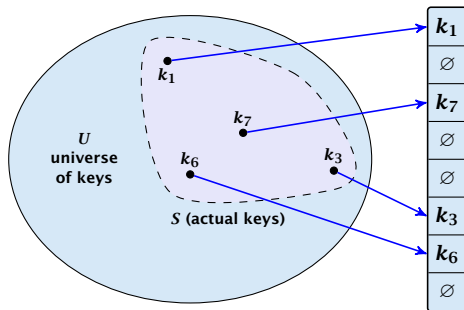
Perfect Hashing

Perfect Hashing

Let $m = |S|$. We could simply choose the hash-table size very large so that we don't get any collisions.

Perfect Hashing

Let $m = |S|$. We could simply choose the hash-table size very large so that we don't get any collisions.

Using a universal hash-function the expected number of collisions is

$$E[\#\text{Collisions}] = \binom{m}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{n} \ .$$

Perfect Hashing

Let $m = |S|$. We could simply choose the hash-table size very large so that we don't get any collisions.

Using a universal hash-function the expected number of collisions is

$$\mathrm{E}[\#\text{Collisions}] = \binom{m}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{n} \; .$$

If we choose $n = m^2$ the expected number of collisions is strictly less than $\frac{1}{2}$.

Perfect Hashing

Let $m = |S|$. We could simply choose the hash-table size very large so that we don't get any collisions.

Using a universal hash-function the expected number of collisions is

$$E[\#\text{Collisions}] = \binom{m}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{n} \ .$$

If we choose $n = m^2$ the expected number of collisions is strictly less than $\frac{1}{2}$.

Can we get an upper bound on the probability of having collisions?

Perfect Hashing

Let $m = |S|$. We could simply choose the hash-table size very large so that we don't get any collisions.

Using a universal hash-function the expected number of collisions is

$$\mathrm{E}[\text{\#Collisions}] = \binom{m}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{n} \ .$$

If we choose $n = m^2$ the expected number of collisions is strictly less than $\frac{1}{2}$.

Can we get an upper bound on the probability of having collisions?

The probability of having 1 or more collisions can be at most $\frac{1}{2}$ as otherwise the expectation would be larger than $\frac{1}{2}$.

Perfect Hashing

Perfect Hashing

We can find such a hash-function by a few trials.

Perfect Hashing

We can find such a hash-function by a few trials.

However, a hash-table size of $n = m^2$ is very very high.

Perfect Hashing

We can find such a hash-function by a few trials.

However, a hash-table size of $n = m^2$ is very very high.

We construct a two-level scheme. We first use a hash-function that maps elements from S to m buckets.

Perfect Hashing

We can find such a hash-function by a few trials.

However, a hash-table size of $n = m^2$ is very very high.

We construct a two-level scheme. We first use a hash-function that maps elements from S to m buckets.

Let m_j denote the number of items that are hashed to the j-th bucket. For each bucket we choose a second hash-function that maps the elements of the bucket into a table of size m_j^2. The second function can be chosen such that all elements are mapped to different locations.

Perfect Hashing
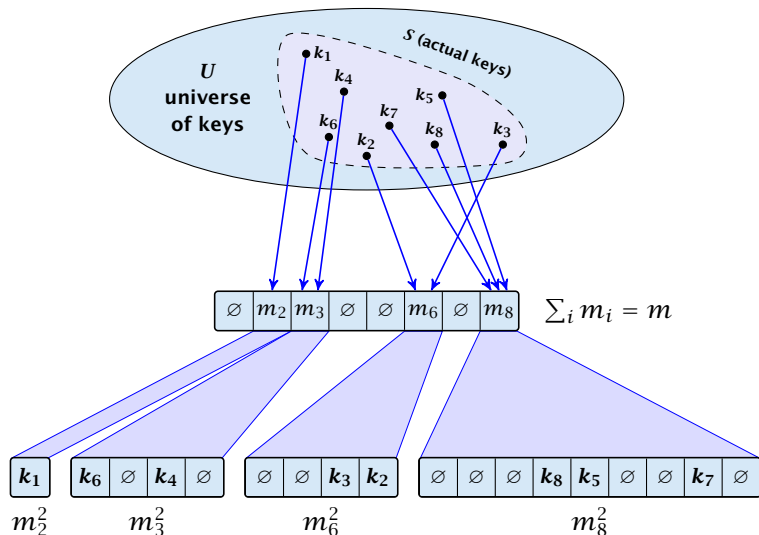
Perfect Hashing

Harald Räcke

Perfect Hashing

The total memory that is required by all hash-tables is $\mathcal{O}(\sum_j m_j^2)$.
Note that m_j is a random variable.

$$\mathrm{E}\left[\sum_j m_j^2 \right]$$

Perfect Hashing

The total memory that is required by all hash-tables is $\mathcal{O}(\sum_j m_j^2)$. Note that m_j is a random variable.

$$\mathrm{E}\left[\sum_j m_j^2\right] = \mathrm{E}\left[2\sum_j \binom{m_j}{2} + \sum_j m_j\right]$$

Perfect Hashing

The total memory that is required by all hash-tables is $\mathcal{O}(\sum_j m_j^2)$. Note that m_j is a random variable.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{E}\left[\sum_j m_j^2\right] &= \mathrm{E}\left[2\sum_j \binom{m_j}{2} + \sum_j m_j\right] \\
&= 2\,\mathrm{E}\left[\sum_j \binom{m_j}{2}\right] + \mathrm{E}\left[\sum_j m_j\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

Perfect Hashing

The total memory that is required by all hash-tables is $\mathcal{O}(\sum_j m_j^2)$. Note that m_j is a random variable.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{E}\left[\sum_j m_j^2\right] &= \mathrm{E}\left[2\sum_j \binom{m_j}{2} + \sum_j m_j\right] \\
&= 2\,\mathrm{E}\left[\sum_j \binom{m_j}{2}\right] + \mathrm{E}\left[\sum_j m_j\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

The first expectation is simply the expected number of collisions, for the first level. Since we use universal hashing we have

Perfect Hashing

The total memory that is required by all hash-tables is $\mathcal{O}(\sum_j m_j^2)$. Note that m_j is a random variable.

$$\mathrm{E}\left[\sum_j m_j^2\right] = \mathrm{E}\left[2\sum_j \binom{m_j}{2} + \sum_j m_j\right]$$

$$= 2\,\mathrm{E}\left[\sum_j \binom{m_j}{2}\right] + \mathrm{E}\left[\sum_j m_j\right]$$

The first expectation is simply the expected number of collisions, for the first level. Since we use universal hashing we have

$$= 2\binom{m}{2}\frac{1}{m} + m = 2m - 1 \ .$$

Perfect Hashing

We need only $\mathcal{O}(m)$ time to construct a hash-function h with $\sum_j m_j^2 = \mathcal{O}(4m)$, because with probability at least $1/2$ a random function from a universal family will have this property.

Then we construct a hash-table h_j for every bucket. This takes expected time $\mathcal{O}(m_j)$ for every bucket. A random function h_j is collision-free with probability at least $1/2$. We need $\mathcal{O}(m_j)$ to test this.

We only need that the hash-functions are chosen from a universal family!!!

Cuckoo Hashing

Cuckoo Hashing

Goal:

Try to generate a hash-table with constant worst-case search time in a dynamic scenario.

Cuckoo Hashing

Goal:

Try to generate a hash-table with constant worst-case search time in a dynamic scenario.

- Two hash-tables $T_1[0, \ldots, n-1]$ and $T_2[0, \ldots, n-1]$, with hash-functions h_1, and h_2.

Cuckoo Hashing

Goal:

Try to generate a hash-table with constant worst-case search time in a dynamic scenario.

▶ Two hash-tables $T_1[0, \ldots, n-1]$ and $T_2[0, \ldots, n-1]$, with hash-functions h_1, and h_2.

▶ An object x is either stored at location $T_1[h_1(x)]$ or $T_2[h_2(x)]$.

Cuckoo Hashing

Goal:

Try to generate a hash-table with constant worst-case search time in a dynamic scenario.

- Two hash-tables $T_1[0, \ldots, n-1]$ and $T_2[0, \ldots, n-1]$, with hash-functions h_1, and h_2.
- An object x is either stored at location $T_1[h_1(x)]$ or $T_2[h_2(x)]$.
- A search clearly takes constant time if the above constraint is met.

Cuckoo Hashing

Insert:

Cuckoo Hashing

Insert:

Cuckoo Hashing

Insert:

Cuckoo Hashing

Insert:

Insert:

Cuckoo Hashing

Algorithm 38 Cuckoo-Insert(x)

 1: **if** $T_1[h_1(x)] = x \lor T_2[h_2(x)] = x$ **then return**
 2: steps $\leftarrow 1$
 3: **while** steps $\leq$ maxsteps **do**
 4:    exchange x and $T_1[h_1(x)]$
 5:    **if** $x =$ null **then return**
 6:    exchange x and $T_2[h_2(x)]$
 7:    **if** $x =$ null **then return**
 8:    steps $\leftarrow$ steps $+1$
 9: rehash() // change hash-functions; rehash everything
10: Cuckoo-Insert(x)

Cuckoo Hashing

▶ We call one iteration through the while-loop a step of the
algorithm.

Cuckoo Hashing

▶ We call one iteration through the while-loop a step of the algorithm.

▶ We call a sequence of iterations through the while-loop without the termination condition becoming true a phase of the algorithm.

Cuckoo Hashing

▶ We call one iteration through the while-loop a step of the algorithm.

▶ We call a sequence of iterations through the while-loop without the termination condition becoming true a phase of the algorithm.

▶ We say a phase is successful if it is not terminated by the maxstep-condition, but the while loop is left because $x =$ null.

Cuckoo Hashing

Cuckoo Hashing

What is the expected time for an insert-operation?

Cuckoo Hashing

What is the expected time for an insert-operation?

We first analyze the probability that we end-up in an infinite loop (that is then terminated after maxsteps steps).

Cuckoo Hashing

What is the expected time for an insert-operation?

We first analyze the probability that we end-up in an infinite loop (that is then terminated after maxsteps steps).

Formally what is the probability to enter an infinite loop that touches s different keys?

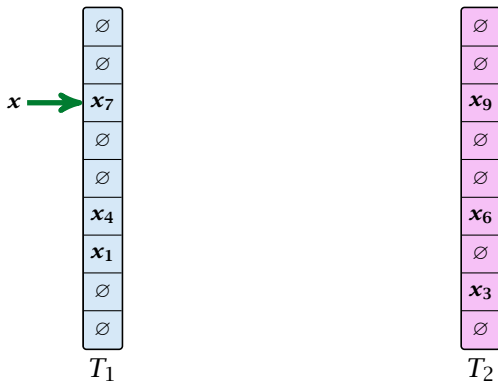# Cuckoo Hashing: Insert

T_1 T_2

Cuckoo Hashing: Insert

Cuckoo Hashing: Insert

Cuckoo Hashing: Insert

Cuckoo Hashing: Insert

Cuckoo Hashing: Insert
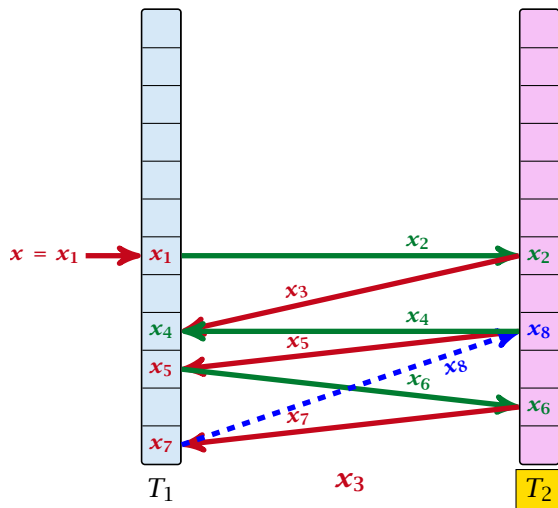
Cuckoo Hashing: Insert
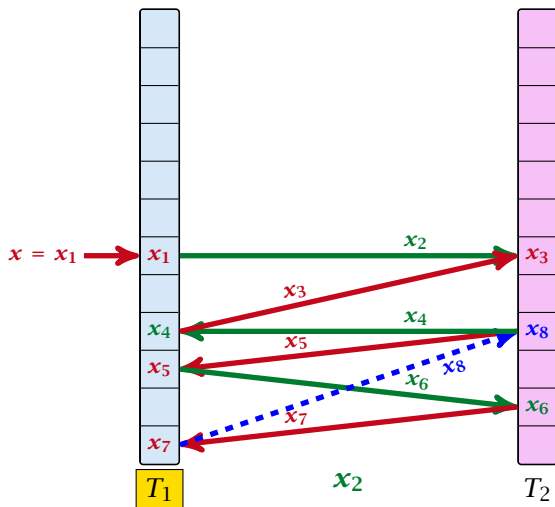
Cuckoo Hashing: Insert
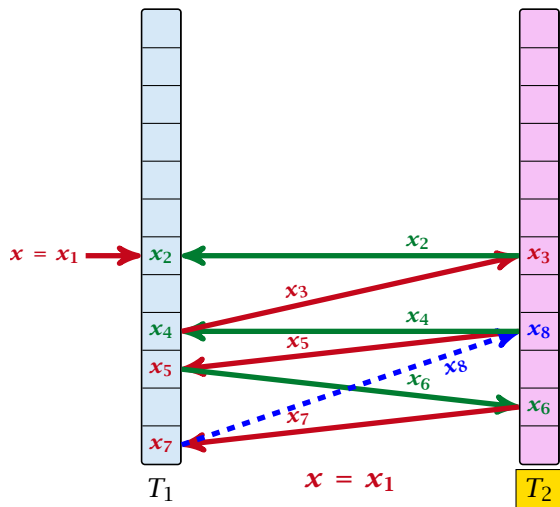
Cuckoo Hashing: Insert
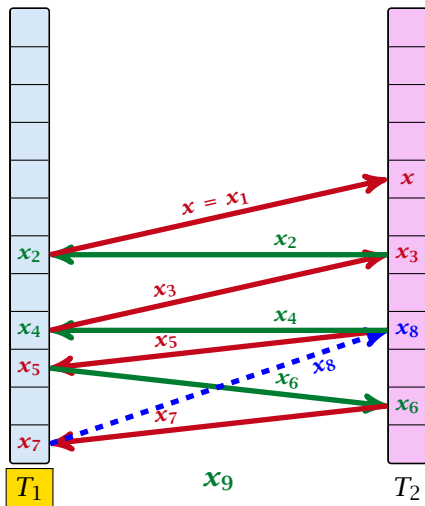
Cuckoo Hashing: Insert

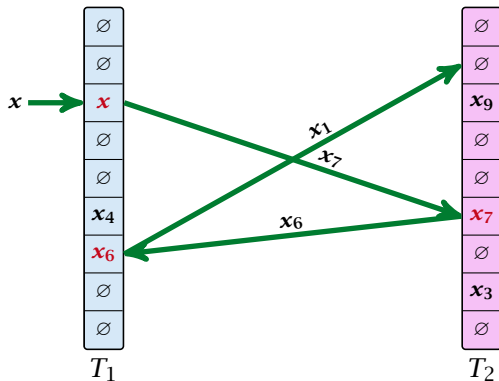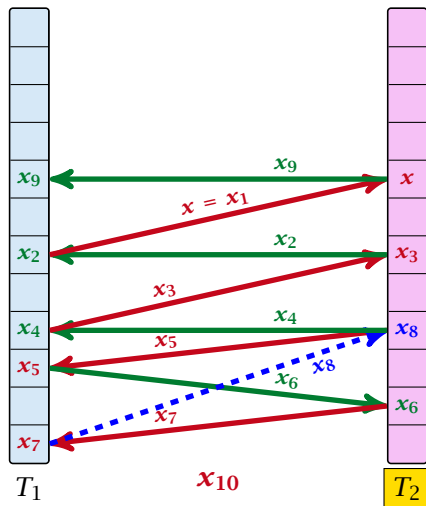# Cuckoo Hashing: Insert
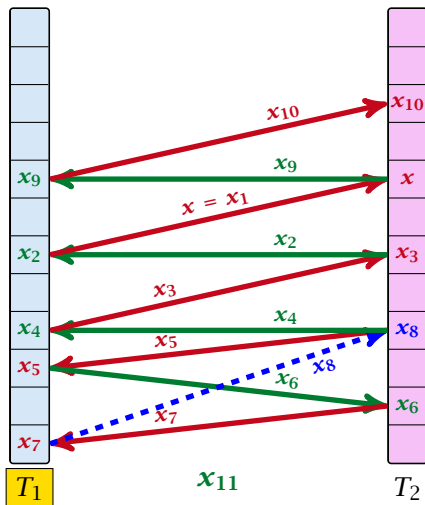
Cuckoo Hashing: Insert
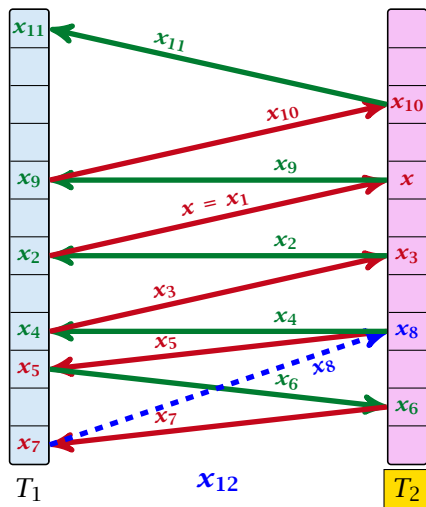
Cuckoo Hashing: Insert

Cuckoo Hashing: Insert
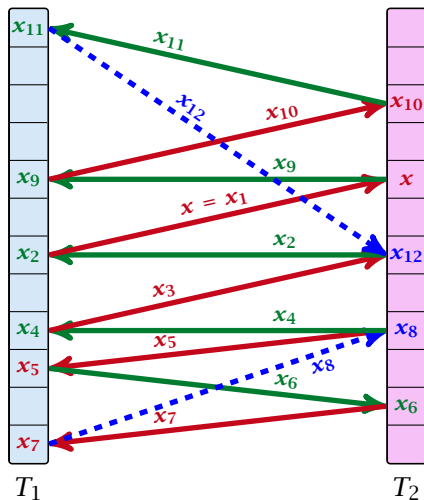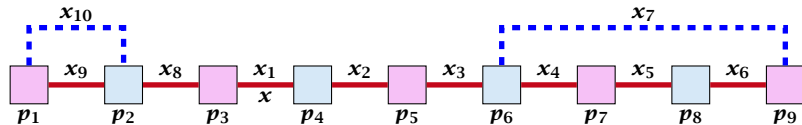
Cuckoo Hashing

A cycle-structure of size s is defined by

Cuckoo Hashing

A cycle-structure of size s is defined by

▶ $s - 1$ different cells (alternating btw. cells from T_1 and T_2).

Cuckoo Hashing

A cycle-structure of size s is defined by

▶ $s - 1$ different cells (alternating btw. cells from T_1 and T_2).

▶ s distinct keys $x = x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_s$, linking the cells.

Cuckoo Hashing
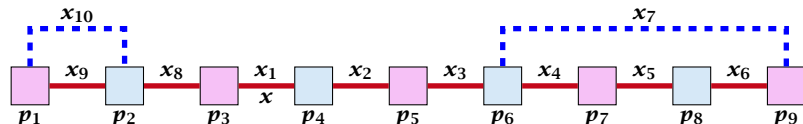
A cycle-structure of size s is defined by

▶ $s - 1$ different cells (alternating btw. cells from T_1 and T_2).

▶ s distinct keys $x = x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_s$, linking the cells.

▶ The leftmost cell is "linked forward" to some cell on the right.

Cuckoo Hashing
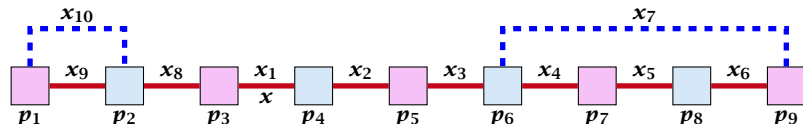
A cycle-structure of size s is defined by

▶ $s - 1$ different cells (alternating btw. cells from T_1 and T_2).

▶ s distinct keys $x = x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_s$, linking the cells.

▶ The leftmost cell is "linked forward" to some cell on the right.

▶ The rightmost cell is "linked backward" to a cell on the left.

Cuckoo Hashing
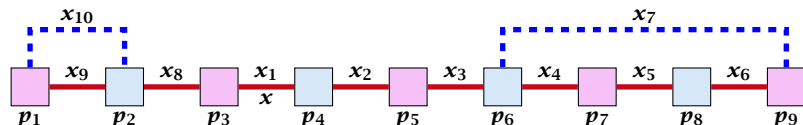
A cycle-structure of size s is defined by

▶ $s - 1$ different cells (alternating btw. cells from T_1 and T_2).

▶ s distinct keys $x = x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_s$, linking the cells.

▶ The leftmost cell is "linked forward" to some cell on the right.

▶ The rightmost cell is "linked backward" to a cell on the left.

▶ One link represents key x; this is where the counting starts.

Cuckoo Hashing

A cycle-structure is active if for every key x_ℓ (linking a cell p_i from T_1 and a cell p_j from T_2) we have

$$h_1(x_\ell) = p_i \qquad \text{and} \qquad h_2(x_\ell) = p_j$$

Cuckoo Hashing

A cycle-structure is active if for every key x_ℓ (linking a cell p_i from T_1 and a cell p_j from T_2) we have

$$h_1(x_\ell) = p_i \qquad \text{and} \qquad h_2(x_\ell) = p_j$$

Observation:
If during a phase the insert-procedure runs into a cycle there must exist an active cycle structure of size $s \geq 3$.

Cuckoo Hashing

What is the probability that all keys in a cycle-structure of size s correctly map into their T_1-cell?

Cuckoo Hashing

What is the probability that all keys in a cycle-structure of size s correctly map into their T_1-cell?

This probability is at most $\frac{\mu}{n^s}$ since h_1 is a (μ, s)-independent hash-function.

Cuckoo Hashing

What is the probability that all keys in a cycle-structure of size s correctly map into their T_1-cell?

This probability is at most $\frac{\mu}{n^s}$ since h_1 is a (μ, s)-independent hash-function.

What is the probability that all keys in the cycle-structure of size s correctly map into their T_2-cell?

Cuckoo Hashing

What is the probability that all keys in a cycle-structure of size s correctly map into their T_1-cell?

This probability is at most $\frac{\mu}{n^s}$ since h_1 is a (μ, s)-independent hash-function.

What is the probability that all keys in the cycle-structure of size s correctly map into their T_2-cell?

This probability is at most $\frac{\mu}{n^s}$ since h_2 is a (μ, s)-independent hash-function.

Cuckoo Hashing

What is the probability that all keys in a cycle-structure of size s correctly map into their T_1-cell?

This probability is at most $\frac{\mu}{n^s}$ since h_1 is a (μ, s)-independent hash-function.

What is the probability that all keys in the cycle-structure of size s correctly map into their T_2-cell?

This probability is at most $\frac{\mu}{n^s}$ since h_2 is a (μ, s)-independent hash-function.

These events are independent.

Cuckoo Hashing

The probability that a given cycle-structure of size s is active is at most $\frac{\mu^2}{n^{2s}}$.

Cuckoo Hashing

The probability that a given cycle-structure of size s is active is at most $\frac{\mu^2}{n^{2s}}$.

What is the probability that there exists an active cycle structure of size s?

Cuckoo Hashing

The number of cycle-structures of size s is at most

$$s^3 \cdot n^{s-1} \cdot m^{s-1} \ .$$

Cuckoo Hashing

The number of cycle-structures of size s is at most

$$s^3 \cdot n^{s-1} \cdot m^{s-1} .$$

▶ There are at most s^2 possibilities where to attach the forward and backward links.

Cuckoo Hashing

The number of cycle-structures of size s is at most

$$s^3 \cdot n^{s-1} \cdot m^{s-1} \ .$$

- ▶ There are at most s^2 possibilities where to attach the forward and backward links.
- ▶ There are at most s possibilities to choose where to place key x.

Cuckoo Hashing

The number of cycle-structures of size s is at most

$$s^3 \cdot n^{s-1} \cdot m^{s-1} \ .$$

- ▶ There are at most s^2 possibilities where to attach the forward and backward links.
- ▶ There are at most s possibilities to choose where to place key x.
- ▶ There are m^{s-1} possibilities to choose the keys apart from x.

Cuckoo Hashing

The number of cycle-structures of size s is at most

$$s^3 \cdot n^{s-1} \cdot m^{s-1} \ .$$

▶ There are at most s^2 possibilities where to attach the forward and backward links.

▶ There are at most s possibilities to choose where to place key x.

▶ There are m^{s-1} possibilities to choose the keys apart from x.

▶ There are n^{s-1} possibilities to choose the cells.

Cuckoo Hashing

The probability that there exists an active cycle-structure is therefore at most

$$\sum_{s=3}^{\infty} s^3 \cdot n^{s-1} \cdot m^{s-1} \cdot \frac{\mu^2}{n^{2s}}$$

Cuckoo Hashing

The probability that there exists an active cycle-structure is therefore at most

$$\sum_{s=3}^{\infty} s^3 \cdot n^{s-1} \cdot m^{s-1} \cdot \frac{\mu^2}{n^{2s}} = \frac{\mu^2}{nm} \sum_{s=3}^{\infty} s^3 \left(\frac{m}{n} \right)^s$$

Cuckoo Hashing

The probability that there exists an active cycle-structure is therefore at most

$$\sum_{s=3}^{\infty} s^3 \cdot n^{s-1} \cdot m^{s-1} \cdot \frac{\mu^2}{n^{2s}} = \frac{\mu^2}{nm} \sum_{s=3}^{\infty} s^3 \left(\frac{m}{n} \right)^s$$

$$\leq \frac{\mu^2}{m^2} \sum_{s=3}^{\infty} s^3 \left(\frac{1}{1+\epsilon} \right)^s$$

Cuckoo Hashing

The probability that there exists an active cycle-structure is therefore at most

$$
\sum_{s=3}^{\infty} s^3 \cdot n^{s-1} \cdot m^{s-1} \cdot \frac{\mu^2}{n^{2s}} = \frac{\mu^2}{nm} \sum_{s=3}^{\infty} s^3 \left(\frac{m}{n} \right)^s
$$

$$
\leq \frac{\mu^2}{m^2} \sum_{s=3}^{\infty} s^3 \left(\frac{1}{1+\epsilon} \right)^s \leq \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{1}{m^2} \right) \quad .
$$

Cuckoo Hashing

The probability that there exists an active cycle-structure is therefore at most

$$\sum_{s=3}^{\infty} s^3 \cdot n^{s-1} \cdot m^{s-1} \cdot \frac{\mu^2}{n^{2s}} = \frac{\mu^2}{nm} \sum_{s=3}^{\infty} s^3 \left(\frac{m}{n}\right)^s$$

$$\leq \frac{\mu^2}{m^2} \sum_{s=3}^{\infty} s^3 \left(\frac{1}{1+\epsilon}\right)^s \leq \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{1}{m^2}\right) \quad .$$

Here we used the fact that $(1+\epsilon)m \leq n$.

Cuckoo Hashing

The probability that there exists an active cycle-structure is therefore at most

$$\sum_{s=3}^{\infty} s^3 \cdot n^{s-1} \cdot m^{s-1} \cdot \frac{\mu^2}{n^{2s}} = \frac{\mu^2}{nm} \sum_{s=3}^{\infty} s^3 \left(\frac{m}{n}\right)^s$$

$$\leq \frac{\mu^2}{m^2} \sum_{s=3}^{\infty} s^3 \left(\frac{1}{1+\epsilon}\right)^s \leq \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{1}{m^2}\right) \ .$$

Here we used the fact that $(1 + \epsilon)m \leq n$.

Hence,

$$\Pr[\text{cycle}] = \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{1}{m^2}\right) \ .$$

Cuckoo Hashing

Now, we analyze the probability that a phase is not successful without running into a closed cycle.

Cuckoo Hashing
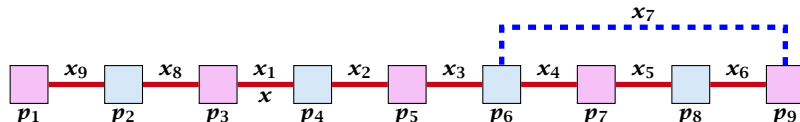
Sequence of visited keys:

$x = x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5, x_6, x_7, x_3, x_2, x_1 = x, x_8, x_9, \dots$

Cuckoo Hashing

Consider the sequence of not necessarily distinct keys starting with x in the order that they are visited during the phase.

Cuckoo Hashing

Consider the sequence of not necessarily distinct keys starting with x in the order that they are visited during the phase.

Lemma 19
If the sequence is of length p then there exists a sub-sequence of at least $\frac{p+2}{3}$ keys starting with x of *distinct* keys.

Cuckoo Hashing

Proof.
Let i be the number of keys (including x) that we see before the first repeated key. Let j denote the total number of distinct keys.

The sequence is of the form:

$$x = x_1 \rightarrow x_2 \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow x_i \rightarrow x_r \rightarrow x_{r-1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow x_1 \rightarrow x_{i+1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow x_j$$

As $r \leq i - 1$ the length p of the sequence is

$$p = i + r + (j - i) \leq i + j - 1 \ .$$

Cuckoo Hashing

Proof.
Let i be the number of keys (including x) that we see before the first repeated key. Let j denote the total number of distinct keys.

The sequence is of the form:

$$x = x_1 \to x_2 \to \cdots \to x_i \to x_r \to x_{r-1} \to \cdots \to x_1 \to x_{i+1} \to \cdots \to x_j$$

As $r \leq i - 1$ the length p of the sequence is

$$p = i + r + (j - i) \leq i + j - 1 \ .$$

Either sub-sequence $x_1 \to x_2 \to \cdots \to x_i$ or sub-sequence $x_1 \to x_{i+1} \to \cdots \to x_j$ has at least $\frac{p+2}{3}$ elements. $\qquad \square$
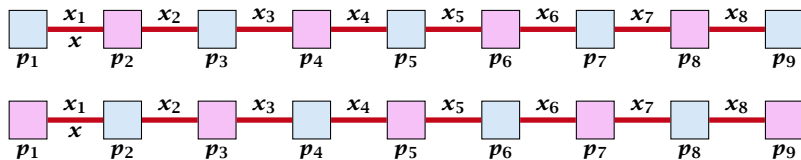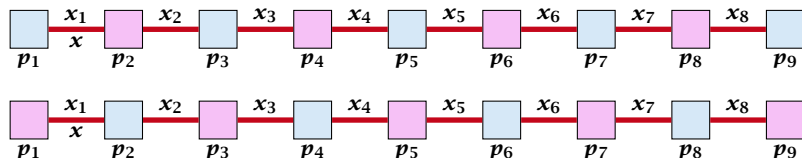
A path-structure of size s is defined by

Cuckoo Hashing

A path-structure of size s is defined by

▶ $s + 1$ different cells (alternating btw. cells from T_1 and T_2).
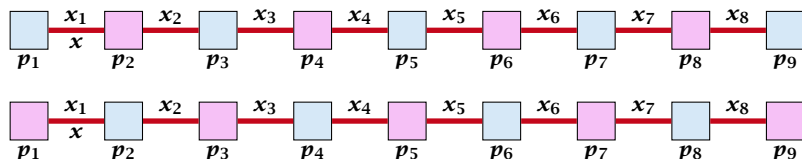
Cuckoo Hashing

A path-structure of size s is defined by

▶ $s + 1$ different cells (alternating btw. cells from T_1 and T_2).

▶ s distinct keys $x = x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_s$, linking the cells.
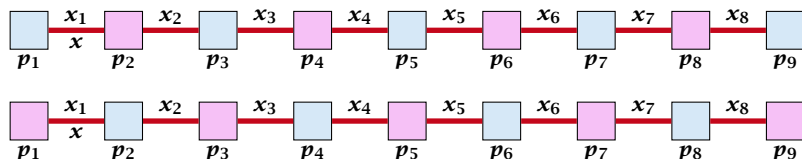
A path-structure of size s is defined by

▶ $s + 1$ different cells (alternating btw. cells from T_1 and T_2).

▶ s distinct keys $x = x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_s$, linking the cells.

▶ The leftmost cell is either from T_1 or T_2.

Cuckoo Hashing

A path-structure is active if for every key x_ℓ (linking a cell p_i from T_1 and a cell p_j from T_2) we have

$$h_1(x_\ell) = p_i \qquad \text{and} \qquad h_2(x_\ell) = p_j$$

Observation:
If a phase takes at least t steps without running into a cycle there must exist an active path-structure of size $(2t + 2)/3$.

Cuckoo Hashing

The probability that a given path-structure of size s is active is at most $\frac{\mu^2}{n^{2s}}$.

Cuckoo Hashing

The probability that a given path-structure of size s is active is at most $\frac{\mu^2}{n^{2s}}$.

The probability that there exists an active path-structure of size s is at most

$$2 \cdot n^{s+1} \cdot m^{s-1} \cdot \frac{\mu^2}{n^{2s}}$$

Cuckoo Hashing

The probability that a given path-structure of size s is active is at most $\frac{\mu^2}{n^{2s}}$.

The probability that there exists an active path-structure of size s is at most

$$2 \cdot n^{s+1} \cdot m^{s-1} \cdot \frac{\mu^2}{n^{2s}}$$
$$\leq 2\mu^2 \left(\frac{m}{n}\right)^{s-1}$$

Cuckoo Hashing

The probability that a given path-structure of size s is active is at most $\frac{\mu^2}{n^{2s}}$.

The probability that there exists an active path-structure of size s is at most

$$2 \cdot n^{s+1} \cdot m^{s-1} \cdot \frac{\mu^2}{n^{2s}}$$
$$\leq 2\mu^2 \left(\frac{m}{n}\right)^{s-1} \leq 2\mu^2 \left(\frac{1}{1+\epsilon}\right)^{s-1}$$

Cuckoo Hashing

The probability that a given path-structure of size s is active is at most $\frac{\mu^2}{n^{2s}}$.

The probability that there exists an active path-structure of size s is at most

$$2 \cdot n^{s+1} \cdot m^{s-1} \cdot \frac{\mu^2}{n^{2s}}$$
$$\leq 2\mu^2 \left(\frac{m}{n}\right)^{s-1} \leq 2\mu^2 \left(\frac{1}{1+\epsilon}\right)^{s-1}$$

Plugging in $s = (2t+2)/3$ gives

Cuckoo Hashing

The probability that a given path-structure of size s is active is at most $\frac{\mu^2}{n^{2s}}$.

The probability that there exists an active path-structure of size s is at most

$$2 \cdot n^{s+1} \cdot m^{s-1} \cdot \frac{\mu^2}{n^{2s}}$$

$$\leq 2\mu^2 \left(\frac{m}{n}\right)^{s-1} \leq 2\mu^2 \left(\frac{1}{1+\epsilon}\right)^{s-1}$$

Plugging in $s = (2t+2)/3$ gives

$$\leq 2\mu^2 \left(\frac{1}{1+\epsilon}\right)^{(2t+2)/3-1}$$

Cuckoo Hashing

The probability that a given path-structure of size s is active is at most $\frac{\mu^2}{n^{2s}}$.

The probability that there exists an active path-structure of size s is at most

$$2 \cdot n^{s+1} \cdot m^{s-1} \cdot \frac{\mu^2}{n^{2s}}$$
$$\leq 2\mu^2 \left(\frac{m}{n}\right)^{s-1} \leq 2\mu^2 \left(\frac{1}{1+\epsilon}\right)^{s-1}$$

Plugging in $s = (2t+2)/3$ gives

$$\leq 2\mu^2 \left(\frac{1}{1+\epsilon}\right)^{(2t+2)/3-1} = 2\mu^2 \left(\frac{1}{1+\epsilon}\right)^{(2t-1)/3} .$$

Cuckoo Hashing

We choose $\text{maxsteps} \geq 3\ell/2 + 1/2$.

Cuckoo Hashing

We choose $\text{maxsteps} \geq 3\ell/2 + 1/2$. Then the probability that a phase terminates unsuccessfully without running into a cycle is at most

$$\Pr[\text{unsuccessful} \mid \text{no cycle}]$$

Cuckoo Hashing

We choose $\text{maxsteps} \geq 3\ell/2 + 1/2$. Then the probability that a phase terminates unsuccessfully without running into a cycle is at most

$$\Pr[\text{unsuccessful} \mid \text{no cycle}]$$
$$\leq \Pr[\exists \text{ active path-structure of size at least } \tfrac{2\text{maxsteps}+2}{3}]$$

Cuckoo Hashing

We choose $\text{maxsteps} \geq 3\ell/2 + 1/2$. Then the probability that a phase terminates unsuccessfully without running into a cycle is at most

$$\Pr[\text{unsuccessful} \mid \text{no cycle}]$$
$$\leq \Pr[\exists \text{ active path-structure of size at least } \tfrac{2\text{maxsteps}+2}{3}]$$
$$\leq \Pr[\exists \text{ active path-structure of size at least } \ell + 1]$$

Cuckoo Hashing

We choose $\text{maxsteps} \geq 3\ell/2 + 1/2$. Then the probability that a phase terminates unsuccessfully without running into a cycle is at most

$\Pr[\text{unsuccessful} \mid \text{no cycle}]$

$\leq \Pr[\exists \text{ active path-structure of size at least } \frac{2\text{maxsteps}+2}{3}]$

$\leq \Pr[\exists \text{ active path-structure of size at least } \ell + 1]$

$\leq \Pr[\exists \text{ active path-structure of size exactly } \ell + 1]$

Cuckoo Hashing

We choose $\mathrm{maxsteps} \geq 3\ell/2 + 1/2$. Then the probability that a phase terminates unsuccessfully without running into a cycle is at most

$$\Pr[\text{unsuccessful} \mid \text{no cycle}]$$
$$\leq \Pr[\exists \text{ active path-structure of size at least } \tfrac{2\mathrm{maxsteps}+2}{3}]$$
$$\leq \Pr[\exists \text{ active path-structure of size at least } \ell + 1]$$
$$\leq \Pr[\exists \text{ active path-structure of size exactly } \ell + 1]$$
$$\leq 2\mu^2 \left(\frac{1}{1+\epsilon}\right)^{\ell}$$

Cuckoo Hashing

We choose $\text{maxsteps} \geq 3\ell/2 + 1/2$. Then the probability that a phase terminates unsuccessfully without running into a cycle is at most

$\Pr[\text{unsuccessful} \mid \text{no cycle}]$

$\leq \Pr[\exists \text{ active path-structure of size at least } \frac{2\text{maxsteps}+2}{3}]$

$\leq \Pr[\exists \text{ active path-structure of size at least } \ell + 1]$

$\leq \Pr[\exists \text{ active path-structure of size exactly } \ell + 1]$

$\leq 2\mu^2\left(\frac{1}{1+\epsilon}\right)^\ell \leq \frac{1}{m^2}$

Cuckoo Hashing

We choose $\text{maxsteps} \geq 3\ell/2 + 1/2$. Then the probability that a phase terminates unsuccessfully without running into a cycle is at most

$\Pr[\text{unsuccessful} \mid \text{no cycle}]$

$\qquad \leq \Pr[\exists \text{ active path-structure of size at least } \frac{2\text{maxsteps}+2}{3}]$

$\qquad \leq \Pr[\exists \text{ active path-structure of size at least } \ell + 1]$

$\qquad \leq \Pr[\exists \text{ active path-structure of size exactly } \ell + 1]$

$\qquad \leq 2\mu^2 \left(\frac{1}{1+\epsilon}\right)^\ell \leq \frac{1}{m^2}$

by choosing $\ell \geq \log\left(\frac{1}{2\mu^2 m^2}\right)/\log\left(\frac{1}{1+\epsilon}\right) = \log\left(2\mu^2 m^2\right)/\log\left(1+\epsilon\right)$

Cuckoo Hashing

We choose $\mathrm{maxsteps} \geq 3\ell/2 + 1/2$. Then the probability that a phase terminates unsuccessfully without running into a cycle is at most

$\Pr[\text{unsuccessful} \mid \text{no cycle}]$

$\qquad \leq \Pr[\exists \text{ active path-structure of size at least } \frac{2\mathrm{maxsteps}+2}{3}]$

$\qquad \leq \Pr[\exists \text{ active path-structure of size at least } \ell + 1]$

$\qquad \leq \Pr[\exists \text{ active path-structure of size exactly } \ell + 1]$

$\qquad \leq 2\mu^2 \left(\frac{1}{1+\epsilon}\right)^{\ell} \leq \frac{1}{m^2}$

by choosing $\ell \geq \log\left(\frac{1}{2\mu^2 m^2}\right)/\log\left(\frac{1}{1+\epsilon}\right) = \log\left(2\mu^2 m^2\right)/\log\left(1+\epsilon\right)$

This gives $\mathrm{maxsteps} = \Theta(\log m)$.

Cuckoo Hashing

So far we estimated

$$\Pr[\text{cycle}] \le \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{1}{m^2}\right)$$

and

$$\Pr[\text{unsuccessful} \mid \text{no cycle}] \le \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{1}{m^2}\right)$$

Cuckoo Hashing

So far we estimated

$$\Pr[\text{cycle}] \le \mathcal{O}\Big(\frac{1}{m^2}\Big)$$

and

$$\Pr[\text{unsuccessful} \mid \text{no cycle}] \le \mathcal{O}\Big(\frac{1}{m^2}\Big)$$

Observe that

$$\Pr[\text{successful}] = \Pr[\text{no cycle}] - \Pr[\text{unsuccessful} \mid \text{no cycle}]$$

Cuckoo Hashing

So far we estimated

$$\Pr[\text{cycle}] \le \mathcal{O}\Big(\frac{1}{m^2}\Big)$$

and

$$\Pr[\text{unsuccessful} \mid \text{no cycle}] \le \mathcal{O}\Big(\frac{1}{m^2}\Big)$$

Observe that

$$\Pr[\text{successful}] = \Pr[\text{no cycle}] - \Pr[\text{unsuccessful} \mid \text{no cycle}]$$
$$\ge c \cdot \Pr[\text{no cycle}]$$

Cuckoo Hashing

So far we estimated

$$\Pr[\text{cycle}] \le \mathcal{O}\Big(\frac{1}{m^2}\Big)$$

and

$$\Pr[\text{unsuccessful} \mid \text{no cycle}] \le \mathcal{O}\Big(\frac{1}{m^2}\Big)$$

Observe that

$$\Pr[\text{successful}] = \Pr[\text{no cycle}] - \Pr[\text{unsuccessful} \mid \text{no cycle}]$$
$$\ge c \cdot \Pr[\text{no cycle}]$$

for a suitable constant $c > 0$.

Cuckoo Hashing

The expected number of complete steps in the successful phase of an insert operation is:

Cuckoo Hashing

The expected number of complete steps in the successful phase of an insert operation is:

$$\mathrm{E}[\text{number of steps} \mid \text{phase successful}]$$

Cuckoo Hashing

The expected number of complete steps in the successful phase of an insert operation is:

$$\mathrm{E}[\text{number of steps} \mid \text{phase successful}]$$
$$= \sum_{t \geq 1} \Pr[\text{search takes at least } t \text{ steps} \mid \text{phase successful}]$$

Cuckoo Hashing

The expected number of complete steps in the successful phase of an insert operation is:

$$E[\text{number of steps} \mid \text{phase successful}]$$
$$= \sum_{t \geq 1} \Pr[\text{search takes at least } t \text{ steps} \mid \text{phase successful}]$$

We have

$$\Pr[\text{search at least } t \text{ steps} \mid \text{successful}]$$

Cuckoo Hashing

The expected number of complete steps in the successful phase of an insert operation is:

$E[\text{number of steps} \mid \text{phase successful}]$

$\quad = \sum_{t \geq 1} \Pr[\text{search takes at least } t \text{ steps} \mid \text{phase successful}]$

We have

$\Pr[\text{search at least } t \text{ steps} \mid \text{successful}]$

$\quad = \Pr[\text{search at least } t \text{ steps} \wedge \text{successful}] / \Pr[\text{successful}]$

Cuckoo Hashing

The expected number of complete steps in the successful phase of an insert operation is:

$E[$number of steps $|$ phase successful$]$

$\quad = \sum_{t \geq 1} \Pr[$search takes at least t steps $|$ phase successful$]$

We have

$\Pr[$search at least t steps $|$ successful$]$

$\quad = \Pr[$search at least t steps $\wedge$ successful$] / \Pr[$successful$]$

$\quad \leq \dfrac{1}{c} \Pr[$search at least t steps $\wedge$ successful$] / \Pr[$no cycle$]$

Cuckoo Hashing

The expected number of complete steps in the successful phase of an insert operation is:

$E[\text{number of steps} \mid \text{phase successful}]$

$$= \sum_{t \geq 1} \Pr[\text{search takes at least } t \text{ steps} \mid \text{phase successful}]$$

We have

$\Pr[\text{search at least } t \text{ steps} \mid \text{successful}]$

$$= \Pr[\text{search at least } t \text{ steps} \wedge \text{successful}] / \Pr[\text{successful}]$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{c} \Pr[\text{search at least } t \text{ steps} \wedge \text{successful}] / \Pr[\text{no cycle}]$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{c} \Pr[\text{search at least } t \text{ steps} \wedge \text{no cycle}] / \Pr[\text{no cycle}]$$

Cuckoo Hashing

The expected number of complete steps in the successful phase of an insert operation is:

$$E[\text{number of steps} \mid \text{phase successful}]$$
$$= \sum_{t \geq 1} \Pr[\text{search takes at least } t \text{ steps} \mid \text{phase successful}]$$

We have

$$\Pr[\text{search at least } t \text{ steps} \mid \text{successful}]$$
$$= \Pr[\text{search at least } t \text{ steps} \wedge \text{successful}] / \Pr[\text{successful}]$$
$$\leq \frac{1}{c} \Pr[\text{search at least } t \text{ steps} \wedge \text{successful}] / \Pr[\text{no cycle}]$$
$$\leq \frac{1}{c} \Pr[\text{search at least } t \text{ steps} \wedge \text{no cycle}] / \Pr[\text{no cycle}]$$
$$= \frac{1}{c} \Pr[\text{search at least } t \text{ steps} \mid \text{no cycle}] .$$

Cuckoo Hashing

Hence,

$\mathrm{E}[\text{number of steps} \mid \text{phase successful}]$

Cuckoo Hashing

Hence,

$$E[\text{number of steps} \mid \text{phase successful}]$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{c} \sum_{t \geq 1} \Pr[\text{search at least } t \text{ steps} \mid \text{no cycle}]$$

Cuckoo Hashing

Hence,

$\mathrm{E}[\text{number of steps} \mid \text{phase successful}]$

$\leq \dfrac{1}{c} \sum_{t \geq 1} \Pr[\text{search at least } t \text{ steps} \mid \text{no cycle}]$

$\leq \dfrac{1}{c} \sum_{t \geq 1} 2\mu^2 \Big(\dfrac{1}{1+\epsilon}\Big)^{(2t-1)/3}$

Cuckoo Hashing

Hence,

$\mathrm{E}[\text{number of steps} \mid \text{phase successful}]$

$\displaystyle \leq \frac{1}{c} \sum_{t \geq 1} \Pr[\text{search at least } t \text{ steps} \mid \text{no cycle}]$

$\displaystyle \leq \frac{1}{c} \sum_{t \geq 1} 2\mu^2 \left(\frac{1}{1+\epsilon}\right)^{(2t-1)/3} = \frac{1}{c} \sum_{t \geq 0} 2\mu^2 \left(\frac{1}{1+\epsilon}\right)^{(2(t+1)-1)/3}$

Cuckoo Hashing

Hence,

$\mathrm{E}[\text{number of steps} \mid \text{phase successful}]$

$$\leq \frac{1}{c} \sum_{t \geq 1} \Pr[\text{search at least } t \text{ steps} \mid \text{no cycle}]$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{c} \sum_{t \geq 1} 2\mu^2 \Big(\frac{1}{1+\epsilon}\Big)^{(2t-1)/3} = \frac{1}{c} \sum_{t \geq 0} 2\mu^2 \Big(\frac{1}{1+\epsilon}\Big)^{(2(t+1)-1)/3}$$

$$= \frac{2\mu^2}{c(1+\epsilon)^{1/3}} \sum_{t \geq 0} \Big(\frac{1}{(1+\epsilon)^{2/3}}\Big)^t$$

Cuckoo Hashing

Hence,

$\mathrm{E}[\text{number of steps} \mid \text{phase successful}]$

$$\leq \frac{1}{c} \sum_{t \geq 1} \Pr[\text{search at least } t \text{ steps} \mid \text{no cycle}]$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{c} \sum_{t \geq 1} 2\mu^2 \Big(\frac{1}{1+\epsilon}\Big)^{(2t-1)/3} = \frac{1}{c} \sum_{t \geq 0} 2\mu^2 \Big(\frac{1}{1+\epsilon}\Big)^{(2(t+1)-1)/3}$$

$$= \frac{2\mu^2}{c(1+\epsilon)^{1/3}} \sum_{t \geq 0} \Big(\frac{1}{(1+\epsilon)^{2/3}}\Big)^t = \mathcal{O}(1) \ .$$

Cuckoo Hashing

Hence,

$\mathrm{E}[\text{number of steps} \mid \text{phase successful}]$

$$\leq \frac{1}{c} \sum_{t \geq 1} \Pr[\text{search at least } t \text{ steps} \mid \text{no cycle}]$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{c} \sum_{t \geq 1} 2\mu^2 \left(\frac{1}{1+\epsilon}\right)^{(2t-1)/3} = \frac{1}{c} \sum_{t \geq 0} 2\mu^2 \left(\frac{1}{1+\epsilon}\right)^{(2(t+1)-1)/3}$$

$$= \frac{2\mu^2}{c(1+\epsilon)^{1/3}} \sum_{t \geq 0} \left(\frac{1}{(1+\epsilon)^{2/3}}\right)^t = \mathcal{O}(1) \ .$$

This means the expected cost for a successful phase is constant (even after accounting for the cost of the incomplete step that finishes the phase).

Cuckoo Hashing

Cuckoo Hashing

A phase that is not successful induces cost for doing a complete rehash (this dominates the cost for the steps in the phase).

Cuckoo Hashing

A phase that is not successful induces cost for doing a complete rehash (this dominates the cost for the steps in the phase).

The probability that a phase is not successful is $q = \mathcal{O}(1/m^2)$ (probability $\mathcal{O}(1/m^2)$ of running into a cycle and probability $\mathcal{O}(1/m^2)$ of reaching maxsteps without running into a cycle).

Cuckoo Hashing

A phase that is not successful induces cost for doing a complete rehash (this dominates the cost for the steps in the phase).

The probability that a phase is not successful is $q = \mathcal{O}(1/m^2)$ (probability $\mathcal{O}(1/m^2)$ of running into a cycle and probability $\mathcal{O}(1/m^2)$ of reaching maxsteps without running into a cycle).

A rehash try requires m insertions and takes expected constant time per insertion. It fails with probability $p := \mathcal{O}(1/m)$.

Cuckoo Hashing

A phase that is not successful induces cost for doing a complete rehash (this dominates the cost for the steps in the phase).

The probability that a phase is not successful is $q = \mathcal{O}(1/m^2)$ (probability $\mathcal{O}(1/m^2)$ of running into a cycle and probability $\mathcal{O}(1/m^2)$ of reaching maxsteps without running into a cycle).

A rehash try requires m insertions and takes expected constant time per insertion. It fails with probability $p := \mathcal{O}(1/m)$.

The expected number of unsuccessful rehashes is
$\sum_{i \geq 1} p^i = \frac{1}{1-p} - 1 = \frac{p}{1-p} = \mathcal{O}(p)$.

Cuckoo Hashing

A phase that is not successful induces cost for doing a complete rehash (this dominates the cost for the steps in the phase).

The probability that a phase is not successful is $q = \mathcal{O}(1/m^2)$ (probability $\mathcal{O}(1/m^2)$ of running into a cycle and probability $\mathcal{O}(1/m^2)$ of reaching maxsteps without running into a cycle).

A rehash try requires m insertions and takes expected constant time per insertion. It fails with probability $p := \mathcal{O}(1/m)$.

The expected number of unsuccessful rehashes is
$\sum_{i \geq 1} p^i = \frac{1}{1-p} - 1 = \frac{p}{1-p} = \mathcal{O}(p)$.

Therefore the expected cost for re-hashes is $\mathcal{O}(m) \cdot \mathcal{O}(p) = \mathcal{O}(1)$.

Formal Proof

Let Y_i denote the event that the i-th rehash occurs and does not lead to a valid configuration (i.e., one of the $m + 1$ insertions fails):

Formal Proof

Let Y_i denote the event that the i-th rehash occurs and does not lead to a valid configuration (i.e., one of the $m + 1$ insertions fails):

$$\Pr[Y_i | Z_i] \leq (m + 1) \cdot \mathcal{O}(1/m^2) \leq \mathcal{O}(1/m) =: p .$$

Formal Proof

Let Y_i denote the event that the i-th rehash occurs and does not lead to a valid configuration (i.e., one of the $m + 1$ insertions fails):

$$\Pr[Y_i | Z_i] \leq (m + 1) \cdot \mathcal{O}(1/m^2) \leq \mathcal{O}(1/m) =: p \ .$$

Let Z_i denote the event that the i-th rehash occurs:

Formal Proof

Let Y_i denote the event that the i-th rehash occurs and does not lead to a valid configuration (i.e., one of the $m + 1$ insertions fails):

$$\Pr[Y_i | Z_i] \leq (m + 1) \cdot \mathcal{O}(1/m^2) \leq \mathcal{O}(1/m) =: p \ .$$

Let Z_i denote the event that the i-th rehash occurs:

$$\Pr[Z_i] \leq \Pr[\wedge_{j=0}^{i-1} Y_j] \leq p^i$$

Formal Proof

Let Y_i denote the event that the i-th rehash occurs and does not lead to a valid configuration (i.e., one of the $m + 1$ insertions fails):

$$\Pr[Y_i | Z_i] \leq (m + 1) \cdot \mathcal{O}(1/m^2) \leq \mathcal{O}(1/m) =: p \ .$$

Let Z_i denote the event that the i-th rehash occurs:

$$\Pr[Z_i] \leq \Pr[\wedge_{j=0}^{i-1} Y_j] \leq p^i$$

Let X_i^s, $s \in \{1, \ldots, m + 1\}$ denote the cost for inserting the s-th element during the i-th rehash (assuming i-th rehash occurs):

$$\mathrm{E}[X_i^s]$$

Formal Proof

Let Y_i denote the event that the i-th rehash occurs and does not lead to a valid configuration (i.e., one of the $m + 1$ insertions fails):

$$\Pr[Y_i | Z_i] \leq (m + 1) \cdot \mathcal{O}(1/m^2) \leq \mathcal{O}(1/m) =: p \ .$$

Let Z_i denote the event that the i-th rehash occurs:

$$\Pr[Z_i] \leq \Pr[\wedge_{j=0}^{i-1} Y_j] \leq p^i$$

Let X_i^s, $s \in \{1, \ldots, m + 1\}$ denote the cost for inserting the s-th element during the i-th rehash (assuming i-th rehash occurs):

$$\mathrm{E}[X_i^s] = \mathrm{E}[\text{steps} \mid \text{phase successful}] \cdot \Pr[\text{phase sucessful}]$$
$$+ \text{maxsteps} \cdot \Pr[\text{not sucessful}]$$

Formal Proof

Let Y_i denote the event that the i-th rehash occurs and does not lead to a valid configuration (i.e., one of the $m + 1$ insertions fails):

$$\Pr[Y_i | Z_i] \leq (m + 1) \cdot \mathcal{O}(1/m^2) \leq \mathcal{O}(1/m) =: p .$$

Let Z_i denote the event that the i-th rehash occurs:

$$\Pr[Z_i] \leq \Pr[\wedge_{j=0}^{i-1} Y_j] \leq p^i$$

Let X_i^s, $s \in \{1, \ldots, m + 1\}$ denote the cost for inserting the s-th element during the i-th rehash (assuming i-th rehash occurs):

$$\mathrm{E}[X_i^s] = \mathrm{E}[\text{steps} \mid \text{phase successful}] \cdot \Pr[\text{phase sucessful}]$$
$$+ \text{maxsteps} \cdot \Pr[\text{not sucessful}] = \mathcal{O}(1) .$$

The expected cost for all rehashes is

$$\mathrm{E}\left[\sum_i \sum_s Z_i X_i^s\right]$$

The expected cost for all rehashes is

$$\mathrm{E}\left[\sum_i \sum_s Z_i X_i^s\right]$$

Note that Z_i is independent of X_j^s, $j \geq i$ (however, it is not independent of X_j^s, $j < i$). Hence,

$$\mathrm{E}\left[\sum_i \sum_s Z_i X_s^i\right] = \sum_i \sum_s \mathrm{E}[Z_i] \cdot \mathrm{E}[X_s^i]$$

7.7 Hashing

The expected cost for all rehashes is

$$\mathrm{E}\left[\sum_i \sum_s Z_i X_i^s\right]$$

Note that Z_i is independent of X_j^s, $j \geq i$ (however, it is not independent of X_j^s, $j < i$). Hence,

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{E}\left[\sum_i \sum_s Z_i X_s^i\right] &= \sum_i \sum_s \mathrm{E}[Z_i] \cdot \mathrm{E}[X_s^i] \\
&\leq \mathcal{O}(m) \cdot \sum_i p^i
\end{aligned}$$

7.7 Hashing

The expected cost for all rehashes is

$$\mathrm{E}\left[\sum_i \sum_s Z_i X_i^s\right]$$

Note that Z_i is independent of X_j^s, $j \geq i$ (however, it is not independent of X_j^s, $j < i$). Hence,

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{E}\left[\sum_i \sum_s Z_i X_s^i\right] &= \sum_i \sum_s \mathrm{E}[Z_i] \cdot \mathrm{E}[X_s^i] \\
&\leq \mathcal{O}(m) \cdot \sum_i p^i \\
&\leq \mathcal{O}(m) \cdot \frac{p}{1-p}
\end{aligned}$$

The expected cost for all rehashes is

$$\mathrm{E}\Big[\sum_i \sum_s Z_i X_i^s\Big]$$

Note that Z_i is independent of X_j^s, $j \geq i$ (however, it is not independent of X_j^s, $j < i$). Hence,

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{E}\Big[\sum_i \sum_s Z_i X_s^i\Big] &= \sum_i \sum_s \mathrm{E}[Z_i] \cdot \mathrm{E}[X_s^i] \\
&\leq \mathcal{O}(m) \cdot \sum_i p^i \\
&\leq \mathcal{O}(m) \cdot \frac{p}{1-p} \\
&= \mathcal{O}(1) \ .
\end{aligned}$$

Cuckoo Hashing

What kind of hash-functions do we need?

Cuckoo Hashing

What kind of hash-functions do we need?

Since maxsteps is $\Theta(\log m)$ the largest size of a path-structure or cycle-structure contains just $\Theta(\log m)$ different keys.

Cuckoo Hashing

What kind of hash-functions do we need?

Since maxsteps is $\Theta(\log m)$ the largest size of a path-structure or cycle-structure contains just $\Theta(\log m)$ different keys.

Therefore, it is sufficient to have $(\mu, \Theta(\log m))$-independent hash-functions.

Cuckoo Hashing

How do we make sure that $n \geq (1 + \epsilon)m$?

▶ Let $\alpha := 1/(1 + \epsilon)$.

Cuckoo Hashing

How do we make sure that $n \geq (1 + \epsilon)m$?

- ▶ Let $\alpha := 1/(1 + \epsilon)$.
- ▶ Keep track of the number of elements in the table. When $m \geq \alpha n$ we double n and do a complete re-hash (table-expand).

Cuckoo Hashing

How do we make sure that $n \geq (1 + \epsilon)m$?

▶ Let $\alpha := 1/(1 + \epsilon)$.

▶ Keep track of the number of elements in the table. When $m \geq \alpha n$ we double n and do a complete re-hash (table-expand).

▶ Whenever m drops below $\alpha n/4$ we divide n by 2 and do a rehash (table-shrink).

Cuckoo Hashing

How do we make sure that $n \geq (1 + \epsilon)m$?

▶ Let $\alpha := 1/(1 + \epsilon)$.

▶ Keep track of the number of elements in the table. When $m \geq \alpha n$ we double n and do a complete re-hash (table-expand).

▶ Whenever m drops below $\alpha n/4$ we divide n by 2 and do a rehash (table-shrink).

▶ Note that right after a change in table-size we have $m = \alpha n/2$. In order for a table-expand to occur at least $\alpha n/2$ insertions are required. Similar, for a table-shrink at least $\alpha n/4$ deletions must occur.

Cuckoo Hashing

How do we make sure that $n \geq (1 + \epsilon)m$?

▶ Let $\alpha := 1/(1 + \epsilon)$.

▶ Keep track of the number of elements in the table. When $m \geq \alpha n$ we double n and do a complete re-hash (table-expand).

▶ Whenever m drops below $\alpha n/4$ we divide n by 2 and do a rehash (table-shrink).

▶ Note that right after a change in table-size we have $m = \alpha n/2$. In order for a table-expand to occur at least $\alpha n/2$ insertions are required. Similar, for a table-shrink at least $\alpha n/4$ deletions must occur.

▶ Therefore we can amortize the rehash cost after a change in table-size against the cost for insertions and deletions.

Cuckoo Hashing

Lemma 20

Cuckoo Hashing has an expected constant insert-time and a worst-case constant search-time.

Cuckoo Hashing

Lemma 20

Cuckoo Hashing has an expected constant insert-time and a worst-case constant search-time.

Note that the above lemma only holds if the fill-factor (number of keys/total number of hash-table slots) is at most $\frac{1}{2(1+\epsilon)}$.