Contents

Hashing

- Hashing with chaining
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Hashing with quadratic probing



Analysis of open addressing



Handling filled-up tables



Commutative rings and fields

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Section outline



- Introduction to hashing
- Hash functions
- Deletion from a hash table



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Introduction to hashing

- Insert, search, or delete from a table using address computation
- Given key is converted to an index for a position in the table

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- Multiple keys may be mapped to the same index collision
- Various collision resolution schemes
- Chaining
- Open addressing linear probing, quadratic probing and double hashing

Introduction to hashing

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Example (Hashing keys in a table of size 8 using the division hash function)

- Table size: 8
- $H: K \to K \mod 8$
- $36 \rightarrow 36 \mod 8 = 4$
- $18 \rightarrow 18 \mod 8 = 2$
- $72 \rightarrow 72 \mod 8 = 0$
- $43 \rightarrow 43 \mod 8 = 3$

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• $6 \rightarrow 6 \mod 8 = 6$





Critique

Hash functions

Some hash functions – table size n

Division hash

• $H(x) = x \mod n$

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Critique

Division hash

- If *n* is even, *x* and *H*(*x*) have the same parity
- If n = 2^k, only the last k bits serve as the hash

•
$$H(x+1) \equiv H(x) + 1 \mod n$$

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Some hash functions – table size n

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Modular multiplicative hashing (MMH)

H(*x*) = [(*ax* + *b*) mod *p*] mod *n*, *p* is a prime, *p* > *n*, *a*, *b* ∈ [0..*p* − 1], *a* ≠ 0

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Multiplication hash (FMH) – D E Knuth

•
$$H(x) = [n(ax - \lfloor ax \rfloor)], a = \frac{\sqrt{5} - 1}{2}$$

Binary multiplicative hashing (BMH)

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$$H(x) = \left\lfloor \frac{ax \mod 2^w}{2^{w-1}} \right\rfloor$$

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Multiplicative hash

- Maximal use of operand bits
- FMH with *a* = φ achieves optimal spacing between consecutive keys
- BMH uses middle *l*-bits of ax and is easy to compute

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Hashing strings: b = 128 for 7-bit ASCII

•
$$c_0 c_1 \ldots c_m \rightarrow \sum_{i=0}^m c_i b^i \mod n$$

Critique

Division hash

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Deletion from a hash table

- Probing requires stepping over table entries to find a vacant cell
- If a cell stepped over for entering a certain key is deleted, searching for that key will fail – unless it is filled with some other key
- Lazy deletion leaves behind an indication that a cell should be stepped over even if there is no key in it
- Avoids failure of searches

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Section outline



Method and example

 Analysis of hashing with chaining



Method and example

- When a collision happens, the new item is added to the existing items
- Items mapped to the same table entry may be maintained as a linked list
- For uniform distribution of *m* keys, expected number of items in collision in a table of size *m* is $\alpha = \frac{m}{n}$ the load factor
- Time complexities remain O(1) for low load factors

Example (Hashing keys in a table of size 8 using chaining)

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- $18 \rightarrow 18 \mod 8 = 2$
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- $43 \rightarrow 43 \mod 8 = 3$
- $6 \rightarrow 6 \mod 8 = 6$
- $5 \rightarrow 5 \mod 8 = 5$
- $15 \rightarrow 15 \mod 8 = 7$

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Analysis of hashing with chaining

- How many steps does it take to know that a key is absent?
- Any key, including the search key, is equally likely to be in any one of the *n* slots
- Length of the chain in any slot is $\frac{m}{n} = \alpha$
- For failure, after computing the hash function each of these α keys will have to be examined
- Total time needed for failure: $\Theta(1 + \alpha)$

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Analysis of hashing with chaining

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- Length of the chain in any slot is $\frac{m}{n} = \alpha$
- For failure, after computing the hash function each of these α keys will have to be examined
- Total time needed for failure: $\Theta(1 + \alpha)$
- The average time for searching in a chain is obtained as

•
$$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{\alpha} i}{\alpha} = \frac{1+\alpha}{2}$$

• Both are $O(1)$

Section outline



- Linear probing method
- Hashing with linear probing example

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Linear probing method

- **O** Calculate k = H(K), where H is the hash function and K is the key
- If position k is empty or contains K, the search is complete
- Otherwise, repeat earlier step setting

 $k = k + 1 \mod n$, where *n* is the table size

until the starting position is revisited

- Simple generalisation is to probe using the key sequence k + ai
- Probe updation will then be: k = k + a

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Hashing with linear probing example

Example (Hashing keys in a table of size 8)

0: 72 Add keys 10, 5 and
1: table
2: 18 • Table size: 8
3: 43 • $H: K \to K$ m
4: 36
5: • $10 \rightarrow 10 \mod$
$6: 6 \bullet 5 \rightarrow 5 \mod 8$
7: • $15 \rightarrow 15 \mod$

and 15 to the previous	0:
	1:
3	2:
mod 8	3:
	4:
od 8 = 2 $\xrightarrow{+3}$ 5	5:
$8 = 5 \xrightarrow{+2} 7$	6:
od 8 = 7 $\xrightarrow{+2}$ 2	7:

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15 18 43

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Section outline



Clustering

Primary and secondary

clustering

 Clustering problem with linear problem



Primary and secondary clustering

Definition (Primary clustering)

The tendency for a collision resolution scheme to create runs of filled slots near the hash function position of keys

Definition (Secondary clustering)

The tendency for a collision resolution scheme to create runs of filled slots away the hash function position of keys



Clustering problem with linear problem

- Two key sequences originating from k₁ and k₂ may come together so that H(k₁) + a_i = H(k₂) + a_j
- Thereafter, all subsequent probes turn out to be identical
- Collisions lead to clustering of keys
- Primary clustering results for a = 1
- Larger values of a lead to secondary clustering
- Increase in search time over the expected values where the distribution of keys is assumed to be truly random
- Problem is aggravated when the clusters are bridged with new keys

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Section outline

- Method of double hashing
- Example of double hashing





Method of double hashing

- Double is another solution to the primary and secondary clustering problem
- Another hash function is used along with the primary hash function
- In the event of a collision, the probing sequence used is
 z_i = H(K) + iH₂(K), i ≥ 0
- Required properties for the second hash function are:
 - it must never evaluate to 0
 - must ensure that all table entries can be probed
- An example of such a hash function is $H_2(K) = R (K \mod R)$, *R* being a prime number smaller than the size of the hash table – *R* is chosen prime to minimise the pitfalls of division hashing



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Example of double hashing

Example (Hashing keys in a table of size 10)





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Section outline

Hashing with quadratic probing

- Method and advantage over linear probing
- Example of hashing with quadratic probing
- Table coverage

- Period of a quadratic sequence
- Quadratic sequence with full table coverage
- Example of an aperiodic quadratic sequence
- Faster computation of quadratic probing sequence

Method and advantage over linear probing

- Calculate k = H(K), as before
- Probing loop is similar to linear probing
- However, probing sequence is $k + a_i + b_i^2 \mod n$, where *n* is the table size



Method and advantage over linear probing

- Calculate k = H(K), as before
- Probing loop is similar to linear probing
- However, probing sequence is $k + a_i + b_i^2 \mod n$, where *n* is the table size
- Primary clustering is avoided
- Elements that hash to the same address will always probe the same alternative cells, leading to secondary clustering
- Unlike in linear probing, once two sequences meet, they do not continue lock-step
- Table coverage is an issue

Example of hashing with quadratic probing



Table coverage

- Consider the sequence: $z_i = z_0 + a_i + b_i^2 \mod n$, where *n* is the table size
- Does this sequence cover all the entries in the table?



Table coverage

Some examples of quadratic sequences

Editor: Sample quadratic sequence

\$./quadHashPT 3 7 10 a=3, b=7, n=10 0: 0, 1: 0, 2: 4, 3: 2, 4: 4, 5: 0, 6: 0, 7: 4, 8: 2, 9: 4

Editor: Sample quadratic sequence

\$./quadHashPT 3 7 9 a=3, b=7, n=9 0: 0, 1: 1, 2: 7, 3: 0, 4: 7, 5: 1, 6: 0, 7: 4, 8: 4

Editor: Sample quadratic sequence

\$./quadHashPT 3 7 8 a=3, b=7, n=8 0: 0, 1: 2, 2: 2, 3: 0, 4: 4, 5: 6, 6: 6, 7: 4

Termination condition becomes difficult/inefficient with such sequences

Period of a quadratic sequence

- Repetition is not too simple
- For z_i = z₀ + ai + bi² mod n, consider whether there exists integers i and j such that

 $z_i = z_j$ and $0 \le i < j < n$ [by subtraction]

$$\therefore z_i = z_j \equiv (j-i)(a+b(i+j)) \equiv 0 \mod n$$

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- When *n* is prime, its residues of 0, 1, ..., n-1 form a field, where $a + bx \equiv 0 \mod n$ has a unique solution $b^{-1}(n-a) \mod n$ (= *w* say) for any *a* and *b* ($b \not\equiv 0 \mod n$)
- For any *i*, repetition starts at *j* satisfying $i + j \equiv w \mod n$ and $0 \le i < j < n$

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- For any *i*, repetition starts at *j* satisfying *i* + *j* ≡ *w* mod *n* and 0 ≤ *i* < *j* < *n*
- \therefore At most $\lceil \frac{n}{2} \rceil$ table slots are examined until repetition sets in
- A free slot is not found even if available can this be avoided?



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Quadratic sequence with full table coverage

- We want to avoid $a + b(i + j) \equiv 0 \mod n$ having a solution
- Need coefficients *a* and *b* for which *i* and *j*, 0 ≤ *i* < *j* < *n* don't exist to satisfy *a* + *b*(*i* + *j*) ≡ 0 mod *n*



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- Need coefficients *a* and *b* for which *i* and *j*, 0 ≤ *i* < *j* < *n* don't exist to satisfy *a* + *b*(*i* + *j*) ≡ 0 mod *n*
- Let $n = \prod_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} p_i^{\alpha_i}$, $\alpha_i \ge 1$, $\exists \alpha_i > 1$ and each p_i is prime,
- Let $B = \prod_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} p_i$ (st $p_i | n$), $A \in \mathbb{Z}$, $(A, B) = 1 // \operatorname{gcd}(A, B) = 1$
- Let a = A, b = BC, $C \in \mathbb{Z}$ and m = a + b(i + j)

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- Let $d = (m, n), :: d = \prod_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} p_i^{\beta_i}, \beta_i \ge 0$ // for d to divide n (d|n)

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- If $d \neq 1$, $\exists \beta_i \geq 1 \Rightarrow p_i \mid d \land p_i \mid B // p_i$ divides d and B



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- If $d \neq 1$, $\exists \beta_i \geq 1 \Rightarrow p_i \mid d \land p_i \mid B // p_i$ divides d and B
- $d = (m, n) \Rightarrow d \mid m \Rightarrow p_i \mid m$, but does $p_i \mid A + BC(i + j)$?

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- We want to avoid $a + b(i + j) \equiv 0 \mod n$ having a solution
- Need coefficients *a* and *b* for which *i* and *j*, 0 ≤ *i* < *j* < *n* don't exist to satisfy *a* + *b*(*i* + *j*) ≡ 0 mod *n*
- Let $n = \prod_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} p_i^{\alpha_i}$, $\alpha_i \ge 1$, $\exists \alpha_i > 1$ and each p_i is prime,
- Let $B = \prod_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} p_i$ (st $p_i | n$), $A \in \mathbb{Z}$, $(A, B) = 1 // \operatorname{gcd}(A, B) = 1$
- Let a = A, b = BC, $C \in \mathbb{Z}$ and m = a + b(i + j)
- Let $d = (m, n), :: d = \prod_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} p_i^{\beta_i}, \beta_i \ge 0$ // for d to divide n (d|n)
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- No! as $(A, B) = 1, \therefore (m, n) = 1$
- :. $(i j)m \equiv 0 \mod n$ or (i j)m = kn, $0 \le i < j < n$ has no solution
- ... Full table coverage is ensured

24/38

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- No! as $(A, B) = 1, \therefore (m, n) = 1$
- \therefore $(i j)m \equiv 0 \mod n$ or (i j)m = kn, $0 \le i < j < n$ has no solution
- ... Full table coverage is ensured
- Example: $z_i = z_0 + (2a+1)i + 2bi^2 \mod 2^k // \text{NB}(2a+1,2) = 1$
- C may be chosen as some H₂(K) ≠ 0 (encompassing the benefiting of double hashing) to reduce secondary clustering

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Example of an aperiodic quadratic sequence

Editor: Naive program for an aperiodic guadratic sequence

```
main(int argc, char **argv){
#define h(a,b,n,x) (((2*a+1) + 2*b*x)*x % n)
 int a = atoi(argv[1]);
 int b = atoi(argv[2]);
 int k = atoi(argv[3]);
 int i, n;
 for (n=1, i=0; i<k; i++) n*=2;
 printf("a=%d, b=%d, n=%dn", a, b, n);
 for (i=0;i<d;i++) printf("%d->%d, ", i, h(a,b,d,i));
```

Editor: Generated aperiodic guadratic sequence

\$./quadHashFT 3 7 3 a=3. b=7. n=8 0: 0, 1: 5, 2: 6, 3: 3, 4: 4, 5: 1, 6: 2, 7: 7

Faster computation of quadratic probing sequence

 Computation of the quadratic probing sequence z_i = z₀ + a_i + b_i² is simplified using the method of finite differences

•
$$z_0 = H(K)$$

•
$$\delta z = z_{i+1} - z_i = 2b_i + (a+b)$$

- Let R = a + b and Q = 2b; also $z_0 = k \leftarrow H(K), j \leftarrow R$
- If position k is empty or contains K, the search is complete
 Otherwise, repeat earlier step setting

 $k \leftarrow k + j, j \leftarrow j + Q \mod n$, where *n* is the table size until the starting position is revisited (for full table coverage)

•
$$z_0 = k = 9; j \leftarrow R = 8$$

•
$$z_1 = k \leftarrow k + j = 9 + 8 \equiv 7 \mod n; j \leftarrow j + Q = 8 + 10 \equiv 8 \mod n$$

- $z_2 = k \leftarrow k + j = 7 + 8 \equiv 5 \mod n; j \leftarrow j + Q = 8 + 10 \equiv 8 \mod n$
- $z_3 = k \leftarrow k + j = 5 + 8 \equiv 3 \mod n; j \leftarrow j + Q = 8 + 10 \equiv 8 \mod n$



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$$z_0 = k = 9; j \leftarrow R = 8$$

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Algorithms

Section outline



- Expected time for unsuccessful search
- Average time for successful search

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Expected time for unsuccessful search

Table size is taken as *n* and number of entries is *m*

Uniformity Each hash value of the probing sequence $h_i(x)$, $i \ge 0$ is equally likely to be any integer in the set $\{0, 1, 2, ..., n-1\}$

•
$$\Pr[T[h_0(x)]]$$
 is occupied = $\frac{m}{n}$

Independence After the first probe, on failure, the remaining probe sequence $h_i(x)$, $i \ge 1$ is equally likely to be any integer in the set $\{0, 1, 2, ..., n-1\} \setminus \{h_0(x)\}$

• $E[T(m, n)] = \begin{cases} 1 + \frac{m}{n} E[T(m-1, n-1)], m > 0, h_0(x) \text{ and beyond} \\ 1, m = 0, \text{ failure in empty table} \end{cases}$

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A unit cost of probing the cell in question is always incurred – irrespective of whether there are elements in the table or not

The term E[T(m-1, n-1)] is added with the probability of $\frac{m}{n}$ when the cell probed is not empty



Expected time for unsuccessful search

Table size is taken as *n* and number of entries is *m*

- **Uniformity** Each hash value of the probing sequence $h_i(x)$, $i \ge 0$ is equally likely to be any integer in the set $\{0, 1, 2, ..., n-1\}$
- $\Pr[T[h_0(x)]]$ is occupied = $\frac{m}{n}$

Independence After the first probe, on failure, the remaining probe sequence $h_i(x)$, $i \ge 1$ is equally likely to be any integer in the set $\{0, 1, 2, ..., n-1\} \setminus \{h_0(x)\}$

- $E[T(m, n)] = \begin{cases} 1 + \frac{m}{n} E[T(m-1, n-1)], m > 0, h_0(x) \text{ and beyond} \\ 1, m = 0, \text{ failure in empty table} \end{cases}$
- Assuming $E[T(m,n)] \le \frac{n}{n-m}$, inductively $[T(m-1, n-1) \Rightarrow T(m, n)]$ $E[T(m,n)] = 1 + \frac{m}{n}E[T(m-1, n-1)] \le 1 + \frac{m}{n}\frac{(n-1)}{(n-1)-(m-1)}$ $\le 1 + \frac{m}{n}\frac{n}{n-m} = \frac{n}{n-m} = \frac{1}{1-\frac{m}{n}} = \frac{1}{1-\alpha} \in O(1)$
- Expected time for an unsuccessful search is *O*(1), unless hash table is almost full; same for insertion

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Average time for successful search

- Average search time $\overline{T}_{m,n}$ for a successful search may be determined by averaging over all entries
- Successful search has the same probe sequence as when the element was inserted (an unsuccessful search)
- The search time for entry *i* is the load factor at the time of inserting that element: 1
 1 - *i* 1

•
$$\overline{T}_{m,n} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=0}^{i=m-1} \frac{1}{1-\frac{i}{n}}$$

 $\therefore \overline{T}_{m,n} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=0}^{i=m-1} \frac{n}{n-i}$
 $\therefore \overline{T}_{m,n} = \frac{n}{m} \sum_{i=0}^{i=m-1} \frac{1}{n-i} = \frac{n}{m} \sum_{i=n-m+1}^{n} \frac{1}{i} = \frac{1}{\alpha} (H_n - H_{n-m})$
• $\frac{1}{\alpha} \sum_{i=n-m+1}^{n} \frac{1}{i} \le \frac{1}{\alpha} \int_{n-m}^{n} \frac{dx}{x} = \frac{1}{\alpha} \ln \frac{n}{n-m} = \frac{1}{\alpha} \ln \frac{1}{1-\alpha}$

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Section outline

- 8
- Handling filled-up tables
 - Rehashing
 - Costing of rehashing



Rehashing

- When hash table has too many items, searches take longer and insertions may fail
- Load factor α of a hash table of size *n* with *m* elements is $\frac{m}{n}$
- Unless multiple items are present in the same table entry, as in chaining, $0 < \alpha < 1$
- New table of double size may be used to store older items and make place for newer items
- Older items cannot be just copied, but need to be hashed to the new table - rehashing
- Rehashing is often triggered once the load factor reaches 0.75
- Other triggers could be failure to insert or the table becoming full



Simplified algorithm:

- Let n = 1 be the initial table size
- Keep inserting until total elements m > n
- Ouble n, create table of size 2n
- Move elements to new table
- Ontinue inserting as before
 - Worst case cost of insert: O(m)
 - Not frequent, average cost?

•
$$c_i = \begin{cases} i & \text{if } (i-1) = 2^k \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Simplified algorithm:

- Let n = 1 be the initial table size
- 2 Keep inserting until total elements m > n
- Double *n*, create table of size 2*n*
- Move elements to new table
- Ontinue inserting as before
 - Worst case cost of insert: O(m)
 - Not frequent, average cost?

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$$c_i = \begin{cases} i & \text{if } (i-1) = 2^k \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



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Example (Cost of rehashing)



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Example (Cost of rehashing)

Ор	n	C_i	1
l(1)	1	1	2
Ins(2)	2	1 + 1	3
Ins(3)	4	1+2	

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Example (Cost of rehashing)

Ор	n	C_i	
l(1)	1	1	1
Ins(2)	2	1 + 1	2
Ins(3)	4	1+2	4
Ins(4)	4	1	5
Ins(5)	8	1 + 4	6
Ins(6)	8	1	7
Ins(7)	8	1	8
Ins(8)	8	1	
Ins(9)	16	1 + 8	
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Algorithms

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Ins(4)	4	1	5	
Ins(5)	8	1 + 4	6	
Ins(6)	8	1	7	
lns(7)	8	1	8	
Ins(8)	8	1	9	
Ins(9)	16	1 + 8		
	Total	24		
Average cost: $\frac{24}{9} = \frac{8}{3}$				

Aggregate analysis

• Cost of *n* insertions:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_{i} \leq n + \sum_{j=0}^{\lg n} 2^{j} = n + (2n - 1) < 3n$$

- Average cost of insertion: $\frac{3n-1}{n} < n$
- The cost of insertion amortised over all the insert operations is asymptotically a fixed value: O(1)

Image: A math

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Image: A math

Aggregate analysis

Accounting analysis

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Charge 3 units for each insertion



- Use 1 unit for inserting this item
- 2 Save 2 units for later use

Aggregate analysis

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Accounting analysis

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- When table is doubled from 2n to 4n:
 - n elements, each with a saving of 2 units were added since the previous doubling from n to 2n

2 2 2 2

Total saving of 2n units just enough to move the 2n elements, exhausing all savings



Aggregate analysis

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- Total saving of 2n units just enough to move the 2n elements, exhausing all savings
- All above operations are achieved by charging a fixed amount (3 units) per insert; thus, amortised cost is O(1)

Algorithms

Section outline



Commutative rings and fields

- Rings
- Commutative ring with identity
- Field



Rings

Definition (Ring)

A ring is a set *R* with two binary operations addition (denoted +) and multiplication (denoted \cdot). These operations satisfy the following axioms:

- Addition is associative: If $a, b, c \in R$, then a + (b + c) = (a + b) + c
- **2** There is an identity for addition, denoted 0. It satisfies 0 + a = a and a + 0 = a for all $a \in R$
- Every element of *R* has an additive inverse; that is, if *a* ∈ *R*, there is an element −*a* ∈ *R* which satisfies
 a + (−*a*) = 0 and (−*a*) + *a* = 0
- Addition is commutative: If $a, b \in R$, then a + b = b + a
- Solution is associative: If $a, b, c \in R$, then $a \cdot (b \cdot c) = (a \cdot b) \cdot c$
- Multiplication distributes over addition: If a, b, c ∈ R, then a · (b + c) = a · b + a · c

Commutative ring with identity

Definition (Commutative ring)

A ring *R* is commutative if the multiplication is commutative: For all $a, b \in R, a \cdot b = b \cdot a$

Definition (Ring with identity)

A ring *R* is a ring with identity if there is an identity for multiplication. There is an element $1 \in R$ such that $1 \cdot a = a$ and $a \cdot 1 = a$ for all $a \in R$

Definition (Commutative ring with identity)

A commutative ring which has an identity element is called a commutative ring with identity.



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Definition (Multiplicative inverse)

Let *R* be a ring with identity, and let $x \in R$. The multiplicative inverse of x is an element $x^{-1} \in R$ which satisifies $x \cdot x^{-1} = 1$ and $x^{-1} \cdot x = 1$

Definition (Field)

A field F is a commutative ring with identity in which $1 \neq 0$ and every non-zero element has a multiplicative inverse.



Field

Examples

Example (Commutative rings)

- \bullet The integers $\mathbb Z$
- $\bullet\,$ The rational numbers $\mathbb Q$
- The real numbers ${\mathbb R}$

Example (Integers modulo n)

- Let $n \ge 2$ be an integer, the integers modulo n is the set $\mathbb{Z}_n = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1\}$ called the residues of n
- $\bullet \ \mathbb{Z}_2 = \{0,1\} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbb{Z}_6 = \{0,1,2,3,4,5\}$
- *ℤ_n* becomes a commutative ring with identity under the operations of addition modulo *n* and multiplication modulo *n*
- \mathbb{Z}_n is a field if and only if *n* is prime

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