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## Hash Tables

**Problem:** Storing a large number of elements (e.g. dictionary, symbol table)

**Operations:** Insert, Search, [Delete]

**Solution:** Use a linked list

Insert =  $\Theta(1)$

Search =  $\Theta(n)$

Delete =  $\Theta(n)$

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## Better Solution

Better Solution: \_\_\_\_\_

$\Theta(1)$  operations

$\Theta(n)$  memory (at least)

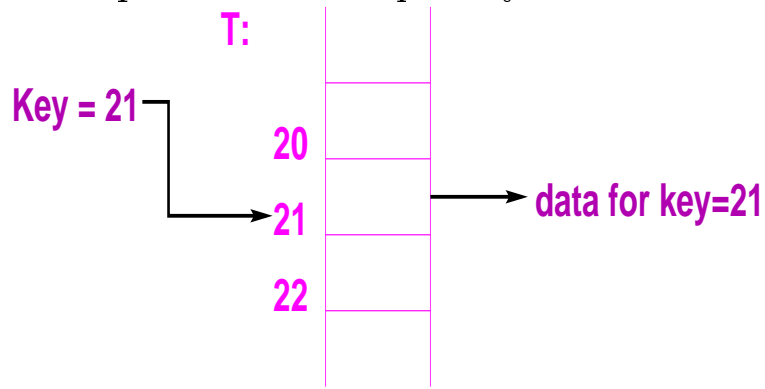
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## Direct-Address Tables

If the number of possible keys is \_\_\_\_\_ and they are \_\_\_\_\_, then the table can be a BIG array.

Let the universe of  $m$  possible keys be  $U = \{0, 1, \dots, m-1\}$ .

Direct-Address Table  $T[0, \dots, m-1]$  is an array. Each slot (array element) corresponds to a unique key.



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## Operations

Insert( $T, x$ )

$T[\text{key}(x)] = x$

Search( $T, x$ )

return( $T[\text{key}(x)]$ )

Delete( $T, x$ )

$T[\text{key}(x)] = \text{NIL}$

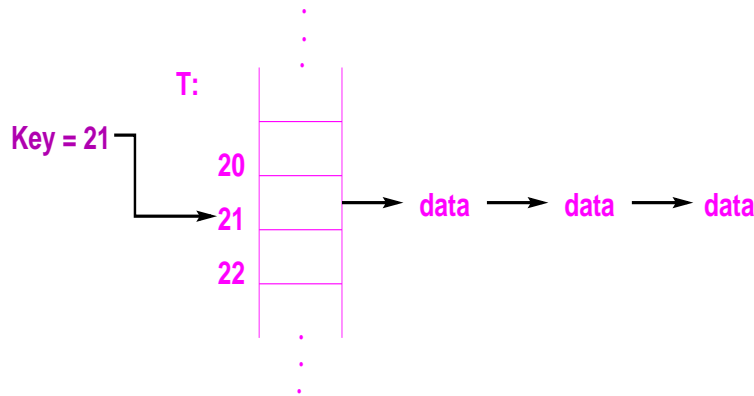
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**What if the keys are not unique?**

**Solution 1:** Insert implies Replace

**Solution 2:** \_\_\_\_\_

If we assume a uniform distribution over keys, a  $\Theta(1)$  search is maintained.



If we can maintain  $\Theta(1)$  performance for multiple entries for the same key, perhaps we can do the same while mapping multiple keys into the same array element.

In other words, use **Hash Tables**.

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## Hash Tables

Problem with Direct Addressing: \_\_\_\_\_

For example, consider a compiler symbol table. Symbols here are up to 30 alphabetic characters.

$$|U| = 26 \cdot 26 \cdot 26 \cdot \dots \cdot 26 = 26^{30} = 2 \times 10^{42} \text{ bits.}$$

Note that 1 gigabyte is only  $10^9$  bits.

Let  $K$  = set of actual keys occurring.

For large  $|U|$ ,  $|K|$  is typically  $\ll |U|$ .

Define Table T of size  $|K|$   
(T is a **hash table**, where we have chopped up U).

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## Analysis

**Memory:**  $\Theta(|K|)$

**Performance:**  $\Theta(1)$  average case,  $\Theta(n)$  worst case

Instead of key k being stored in slot T[k], it is now stored in slot \_\_\_\_\_.

The function  $h(k)$  is the hash function.

The value of  $h(k)$  is the hash value of key k.

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## Example

Consider an example where  $|U| = 100$ ,  $|K| = 10$ , and  $h(k) = k \bmod 10$ .

$$U = \{0, \dots, 99\}$$

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## Problem

**Collisions:** Two keys hash to the same slot.

**Reduce collisions** by using a \_\_\_\_\_ hash function.

However, collisions are still possible.

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## Collision Resolution by Chaining

Data corresponding to keys with same hash values are stored in a linked list (as shown in the figure above).

$$\text{Insert} = \Theta(1)$$

$$\text{Search} = \Theta(l)$$

where  $l$  is the length of the chain

$$\text{Delete} = \Theta(l)$$

for a singly-linked list

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## Analysis of Chaining

Let the **load factor**  $\alpha$  be calculated as number of keys stored / number of slots =  $n/m$ . For our earlier example,  $\alpha = \frac{100}{10} = 10$ .

$\alpha$  represents the \_\_\_\_\_ of the chain.

The performance of Search is relative to the performance of the hash function computation and the length of the chain, or  $\Theta(1 + \alpha)$ , both for successful and unsuccessful searches.

Thus, if  $m$  is proportional to  $n$ , then  $\alpha$  is a constant, and all operations are  $\Theta(1)$ .

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## Question:

Would it help to keep chains sorted?

In this case,

$$\text{Insert} = \Theta(1 + \alpha)$$

$$\text{Search} = \Theta(1 + \alpha)$$

$$\text{Delete} = \Theta(1 + \alpha)$$

Asymptotically, \_\_\_\_\_ This reduces constant on search, but increases constant for Insert. Delete is the same as before.

Basically, \_\_\_\_.

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## Hash Functions

### Good Hash Functions:

- If key distribution  $P$  is known, then the hash function should satisfy

$$\sum_{k: h(k) = j} P(k) = \frac{1}{m} \quad \text{for } j = 0, \dots, m - 1$$

- Heuristics
    - Design hash function such that similar keys map to different slots (e.g. name1, name2)
    - Hash value should be independent of data patterns
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## Division Method

$$h(k) = k \bmod m$$

k is a natural number  
m is the number of slots

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## Choice of m

m should not be a power of 2, because h(k) would be the p lowest-order bits of k ( $m = 2^p$ )

avoid powers of 10 for decimal keys, because not all digits will be used  
good values include primes not too close to powers of 2

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## Example

n=100, want  $\alpha = 3$

Ideally, m = 33 (not prime, so try m = 31).

However, 31 is close to  $32 = 2^5$ , so try m = 29 or m = 37 (select m = 37).

$$h(k) = k \bmod 37$$

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## Multiplication Method

$$h(k) = \lfloor m(kA \bmod 1) \rfloor, \text{ where } 0 < A < 1$$

(kA mod 1) returns the \_\_\_\_\_ part of kA.

In this case the choice of  $m$  is less critical. Typically choose a power of  $2$  to simplify arithmetic.

However, the choice of  $A$  does matter. A recommendation is to use

$$A = \frac{\sqrt{5} - 1}{2} = 0.6180339887\dots$$

The worst choice is  $0$ , because in this case every key hashes to  $\lfloor \frac{m}{2} \rfloor$  or  $0$ .

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## Universal Hashing

Any fixed hash function will have  $\Theta(n)$  worst case time.

Choose hash function  $h$ , independent of the keys to be stored.

Choice at  $h$  prevents worst case behavior on multiple runs.

Suppose we want the hash function to uniformly distribute hash values over the hash table of size  $m$ .

Given  $h(x)$ , we want  $P(h(x) = h(y)) = \frac{1}{m}$ .

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## Universal Hash Functions

We want to select from a set of hash functions  $H$  with reasonable certainty that the above property is true.

Thus, the number of functions  $|f|$  in  $H$  such that  $h(x) = h(y)$  for  $x, y \in U$  must satisfy

$$\frac{|f|}{|H|} = \frac{1}{m} \longrightarrow |f| = \frac{|H|}{m}$$



**Definition:** A \_\_\_\_\_ collection of hash functions  $H$  contains exactly  $|H|/m$  hash functions such that  $h(x) = h(y)$  for  $x, y \in U$ .

$$h_a(x) = \sum_{i=0}^r a_i x_i \text{ mod } m$$

where key  $x = \langle x_0, x_1, \dots, x_r \rangle$  is decomposed into  $r+1$  bytes  $a = \langle a_0, a_1, \dots, a_r \rangle$ , each chosen randomly from  $\{0, 1, \dots, m-1\}$ .

$H = \cup_a \{h_a\}$  is a universal collection of hash functions.

Thus, we want to randomly select “a” each time.

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## Open Addressing

All elements are stored in the hash table (no pointers).

If a hash slot is full, then \_\_\_\_\_ other slots using the \_\_\_\_\_ until a slot is found or no slot can be found (overflow).

The hash function now becomes \_\_\_\_\_, where  $i$  ranges over  $\{0, 1, \dots, m-1\}$ .

$h(k, i)$  returns the  $i$ th probe in the probe sequence.

The entire probe sequence must be a permutation of  $\{0, 1, \dots, m-1\}$ .

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## Pseudocode

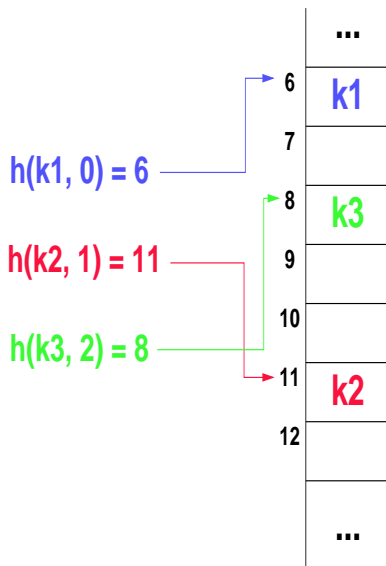
```
Insert(T, k)
  i = 0
  repeat
```

```
    j = h(k,i)
    if T[j] = NIL
    then T[j] = k
        return j
    else i = i + 1
until i = m
error "hash table overflow"
```

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## Pseudocode

```
Search(T,k)
  i = 0
  repeat
    j = h(k,i)
    if T[j] = k
    then return j
    else i = i + 1
  until (T[j] = NIL) or (i = m)
  return NIL
```



Delete(k,i) is more difficult, because replacement by NIL may break a possible probe sequence.

**Solution:** replace deleted key by special symbol. However, in this case search time no longer depends on  $\alpha$ .

**Solution:** use \_\_\_\_\_ when deletions are required.

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## Generating Probe Sequence

**Uniform Hashing:** Each key is equally likely to generate any of the  $m!$  permutations.

This is difficult in practice.

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## Linear Probing

Given an ordinary hash function  $h(k)$ :  $h(k,i) = \underline{\hspace{10em}}$ .

Sequence:

$$\begin{array}{c} h(k) \\ h(k) + 1 \\ h(k) + 2 \\ \dots \\ m-1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 2 \\ \dots \\ h(k) - 1 \end{array}$$

There are only  $m$  ( $\ll m!$ ) possible sequences, but these are simple to compute.

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## Problem with Linear Probing:

Primary Clustering.

Long sequences of filled slots increase search and insert time.

Long sequences are more likely to get even longer.

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## Quadratic Probing

$$h(k,i) = (h(k) + c_1i + c_2i^2) \bmod m$$

- Only certain combination of  $c_1$ ,  $c_2$ , and  $m$  use the entire hash table.
- $h(k_1,0) = h(k_2,0)$  implies  $h(k_1,i) = h(k_2,i)$ . This leads to secondary clustering.

- There are only  $m$  ( $\ll m!$ ) distinct probe sequences.

### Example

$$h(k_1, i) = (h(k) + i + i^2) \bmod m, c_1 = c_2 = 1$$

In this example, the probe sequence is

$$\begin{aligned} &h(k) \\ &h(k) + 2 \\ &h(k) + 6 \\ &h(k) + 12 \\ &\dots \end{aligned}$$

What if  $m = 20$ ?

## Double Hashing

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

where  $h_1$  and  $h_2$  are auxiliary hash functions.

- If  $h_2(k)$  and  $m$  have a common divisor, then not all of the table is probed.
- Let  $m = 2^p$  and  $h_2(k) = \text{odd number}$
- $m = \text{prime number}$ ,  $h_2(k) \in \{0, 1, \dots, m-1\}$ .  
For example,  $h_1(k) = k \bmod m$   
 $h_2(k) = 1 + (k \bmod m')$  where  $m' = m - 1$ .
- Since each pair  $h_1(k), h_2(k)$  yields different probe sequences, the number of sequences is  $\Theta(m^2)$ , which is closer to ideal.

## Example

Given input (9371, 3723, 9873, 9769, 8679, 1239, 4584), and a hash function  $h(x) = x \bmod 10$ , show the resulting open-addressed hash table using

1. linear probing

```
+-----+
0 |8679|  h(9371, 0) = 1
+-----+
1 |9371|  h(3723, 0) = 3
+-----+
2 |1239|  h(9873, 0) = 3 COLLISION!  h(9873, 1) = 4
+-----+
3 |3723|  h(9769, 0) = 9
+-----+
4 |9873|  h(8679, 0) = 9 COLLISION!  h(8679, 1) = 0
+-----+
5 |4584|  h(1239, 0) = 9 COLLISION!  h(1239, 1) = 0 COLLISION!
+-----+          h(1239, 2) = 1 COLLISION!  h(1239, 3) = 2
6 |    |
+-----+  h(4584, 0) = 4
7 |    |
+-----+
8 |    |
+-----+
9 |9769|
+-----+
```

2. double hashing with hash function  $h_2(x) = (x \bmod 5)$

Note that 10 is a multiple of 5, so this is not an effective choice for a secondary hash function.

```

          h(9371, 0) = 1 + 0 = 1
+-----+
0 |    | h(3723, 0) = 3 + 0 = 3
+-----+
1 |9371| h(9873, 0) = 3 + 0 = 3 COLLISION!
+-----+   h(9873, 1) = ((3 + 1*(9873 mod 5)) mod 10) = 3
2 |    |
+-----+ h(9769, 0) = 9 + 0 = 9
3 |3723|
+-----+ h(8679, 0) = 9 + 0 = 9 COLLISION!
4 |4584|   h(8679, 1) = ((9 + 1*(8679 mod 5)) mod 10) = (9
+-----+   COLLISION!
5 |1239|   h(8679, 2) = ((9 + 2*(8679 mod 5)) mod 10) = (9
+-----+
6 |9873| h(1239, 0) = 9 + 0 = 9 COLLISION!
+-----+   h(1239, 1) = ((9 + 1*(1239 mod 5)) mod 10) = (9
7 |8679|   COLLISION!
+-----+   h(1239, 2) = ((9 + 2*4) mod 10) = (9 + 8) mod 10
8 |    |   h(1239, 3) = ((9 + 3*4) mod 10) = (9 + 12) mod 10
+-----+   h(1239, 4) = ((9 + 4*4) mod 10) = (9 + 16) mod 10
9 |9769|
+-----+ h(4584, 0) = 4 + 0 = 4

```

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## Analysis of Open Addressing

Let  $n$  be the number of elements in the table,  
 $m$  is the size of the table.

$$n \leq m$$

$$\alpha = \text{---} \leq 1$$

Assume uniform hashing (each sequence is equally likely).

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### Theorem 12.5

The expected number of probes in an unsuccessful search is at most  $1/(1-\alpha)$ .

For example, if the table is half full,  $\alpha = 0.5$ , the number of probes is ---.

If the table is 90% full,  $\alpha = 0.9$ , the number of probes is ---.

If  $\alpha$  is constant, the performance of an unsuccessful search is -----.

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### Corollary 12.6

On average, the number of probes for Insert is  $\leq 1/(1-\alpha)$ .

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### Theorem 12.7

The expected number of probes in a successful search is at most

$$\frac{1}{\alpha} \ln \frac{1}{1-\alpha} + \frac{1}{\alpha}.$$

For example, if the table is half full,  $\alpha = 0.5$ , the expected number of probes is -----.

If the table is 90% full,  $\alpha = 0.9$ , the expected number of probes is -----.

If  $\alpha$  is constant, the performance of a successful search is -----.



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## Applications