

# Hashtables

## Implementations for dictionaries and sets

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See <https://github.com/parr/msds692/blob/master/notes/hashtable.ipynb> and  
<https://github.com/parr/msds692/blob/master/notes/dict.ipynb>

# Speed matters

- In data science, data sets are often very large
- Being able to find elements of interest quickly is more challenging in this environment
- Searching through all elements can be prohibitively slow
- We will need to trade some increased complexity and set up time for a data structure in exchange for increased look up speed

# How to search big collections quickly

- *Hashtables* are data structures that efficiently implement search/lookup operations for sets and dictionaries
- Sets and dictionaries are abstract data structures, hashtables are concrete implementations of those structures
- Simple lists of elements and lists of tuples work but are slow
- Hashtable's **key idea**: partition the search space into well-defined regions so we don't have to search linearly through the entire collection to find an element
- We use a (hash) function of the values to partition into buckets

# Review: Sets

- A set is just an unordered, unique collection of elements; here is an example using integers:  
ids = {100, 103, 121, 102, 113, 113, 113, 113}
- We can do lots of fun set arithmetic:

```
{100, 102}.union({109})
```

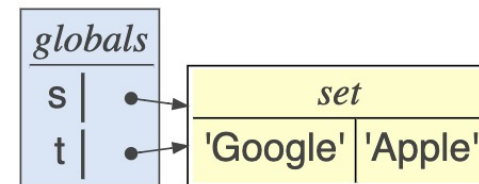
```
{100, 102, 109}
```

```
{100, 102}.intersection({100, 119})
```

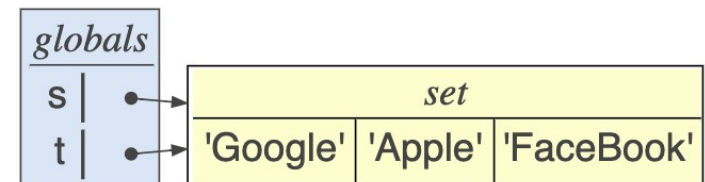
```
{100}
```

Watch out for aliasing!

```
s = {"Apple", "Google"}  
t = s
```



```
s.add("FaceBook")
```



# Review: Dictionaries map keys to values

- If we arrange two lists side-by-side and kind of glue them together, we get a *dictionary* (type is **dict**)
- Dictionaries map one value to another, just like a dictionary in the real world maps a word to a definition
- Here is a sample dictionary:

```
movies = {'Amadeus':1984, 'Witness':1985}
```

|                  |
|------------------|
| 'Amadeus' → 1984 |
| 'Witness' → 1985 |

- Index by key to get the value; e.g., `movies[ 'Amadeus' ]`

# List implementation for sets

```
import numpy as np
n = 5_000_000
A = list(np.random.randint(low=0, high=1_000_000, size=n))
A[0:10]
```

[509385, 571020, 998421, 173251, 567339, 229005, 614066, 89806, 878866, 496601]

```
def lsearch(A,x):
    for a in A:
        if a==x:
            return True
    return False
```

Searching linearly is pretty slow

```
%time lsearch(A, 999)
```

CPU times: user 362 ms, sys: 8.02 ms, total: 370 ms  
Wall time: 378 ms  
True

```
%time for a in range(50): lsearch(A, a)
```

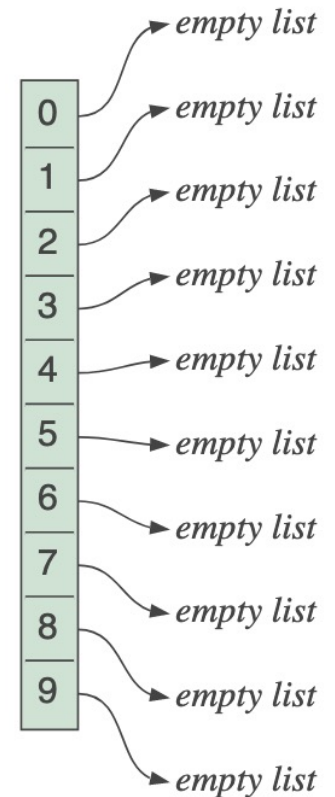
CPU times: user 8.65 s, sys: 102 ms, total: 8.75 s  
Wall time: 8.9 s

# Can we do better than linear search?

- Rather than search through every element, let's partition the set of integers into 10 buckets so that, on average, we only need to search 1/10 of the elements
- We partition with a *hash* function that operates on set values
- We are effectively using something about the value to hint at the location (which bucket)
- E.g., where does Eric Erickson live in US? Imagine a hash function that gave the postal code given a name (set value). Faster to search a postal code region than entire country

# Partitioning requires a new data structure

- Rather than a list of set values, we break the set into smaller groups, buckets, where each bucket is a list of values
- The hash of a value leads to the bucket index (this is a simplification and not technically correct)
- For sets of integers, let's use the value modulo 10 to uniquely place values into one of 10 buckets, indexed 0..9



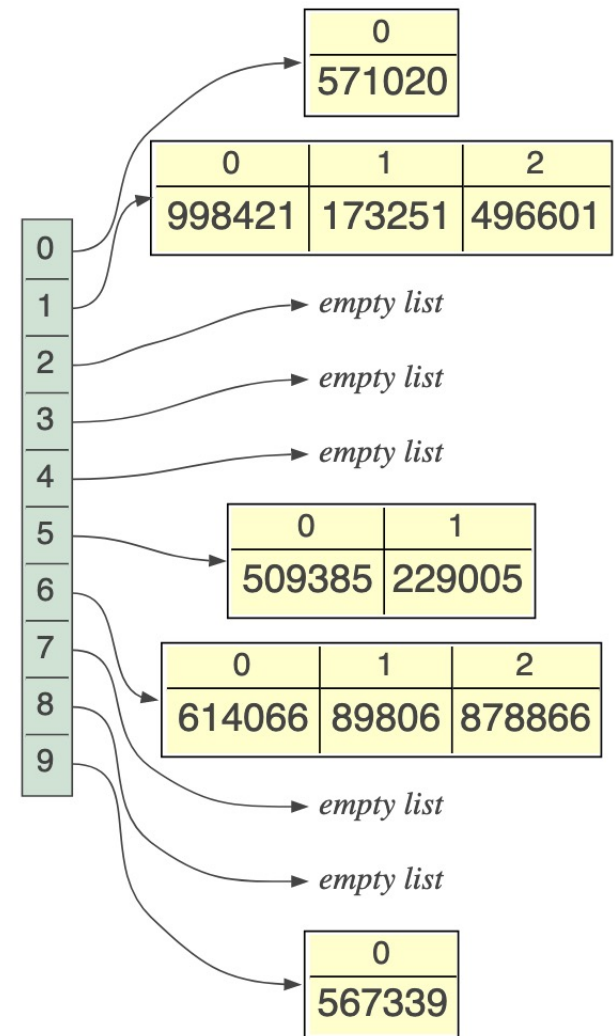


# Partitioning with modulo hash

```
def hash(x):  
    return x % 10  
  
[(a, hash(a)) for a in A[0:10]]
```

```
[(509385, 5),  
 (571020, 0),  
 (998421, 1),  
 (173251, 1),  
 (567339, 9),  
 (229005, 5),  
 (614066, 6),  
 (89806, 6),  
 (878866, 6),  
 (496601, 1)]
```

We don't care about the meaning of the mapping from key to bucket except that it evenly distributes and is reproducible



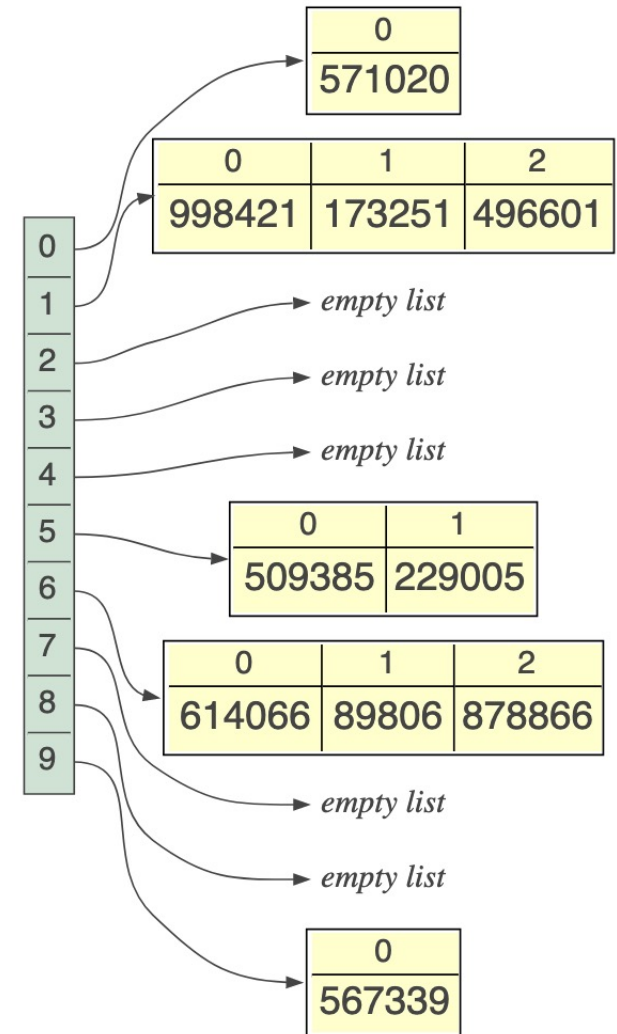
# Hashtable construction

- Make 10 empty buckets (lists)
- Add each set element to correct bucket
- Amounts to appending each element to one of 10 lists

```
def htable(A):  
    "Build hashtable for integer values"  
    buckets = [[] for i in range(10)]  
    for a in A:  
        buckets[hash(a)].append(a)  
    return buckets
```

```
buckets = htable(A)
```

```
def hash(x):  
    return x % 10
```



# Searching hashtable set implementation

- To find  $x$ , look in the bucket indicated by  $\text{hash}(x)$

## Linear

```
def lsearch(A, x):  
    for a in A:  
        if a == x:  
            return True  
    return False
```

```
%time lsearch(A, 999)
```

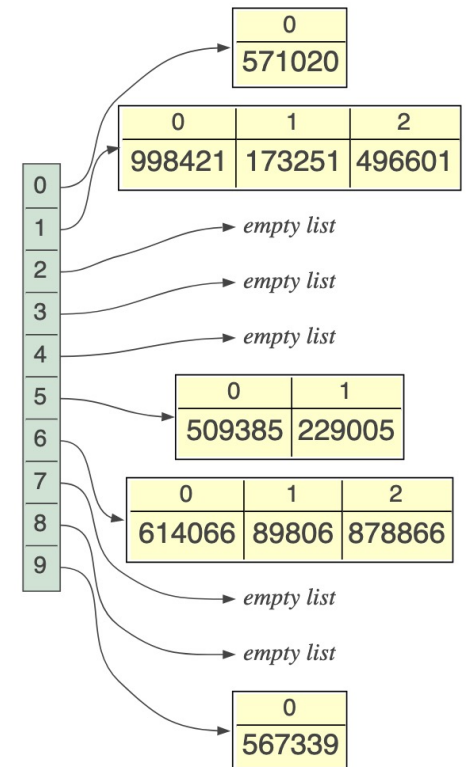
CPU times: user 190 ms, sys:  
Wall time: 209 ms

## Hashtable

```
def hsearch(buckets, x):  
    i = hash(x)  
    for a in buckets[i]:  
        if a == x:  
            return True  
    return False
```

```
buckets = htable(A)  
%time hsearch(buckets, 999)
```

CPU times: user 18 ms, sys:  
Wall time: 18.7 ms



# Speed difference is dramatic

## Linear

```
%time for a in range(50): lsearch(A, a)
```

CPU times: user 6.97 s, sys: 93.9 ms, total: 7.06 s

Wall time: 7.38 s

## Hashtable

```
%time for a in range(50): hsearch(buckets, a)
```

CPU times: user 823 ms, sys: 14.3 ms, total: 837 ms

Wall time: 861 ms

# Exercise

- What would happen if we used a hash function like these?

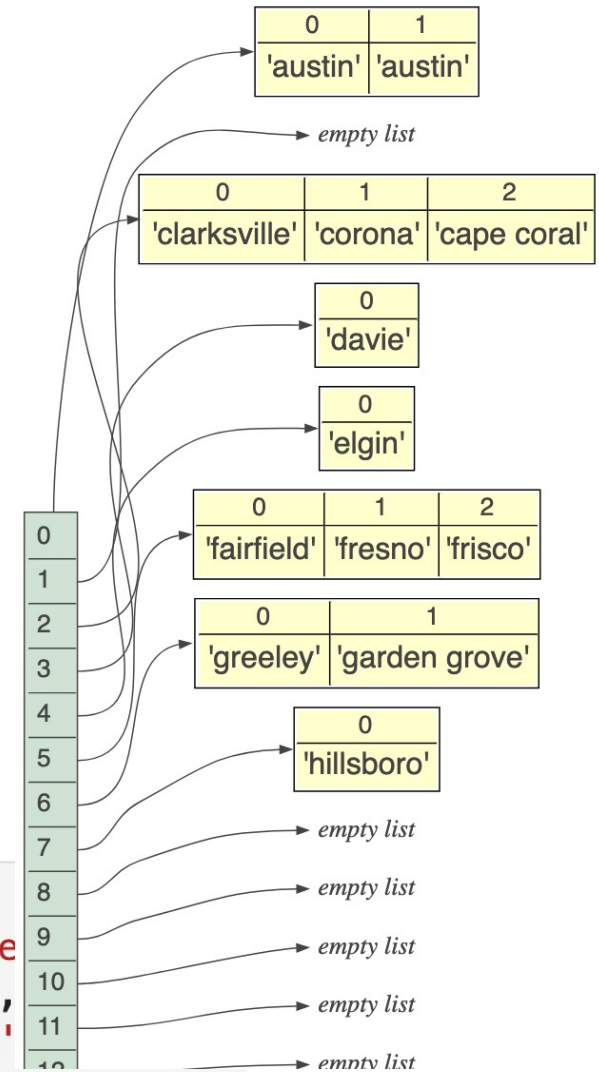
```
def hash(x):  
    return x % 2
```

```
def hash(x):  
    return 0
```

# Sets of strings

- Hashtables work for any type of value for which we can define a good hash function, one that partitions the space evenly
- What key→bucket mapping am I using here?  
Distance of char code from 'a's code

```
cities = ['elgin', 'tyler', 'austin', 'hillsboro', 'greeley',
          'davie', 'rockford', 'orange', 'sandy springs', 'garde',
          'paterson', 'clarksville', 'fairfield', 'victorville',
          'palmdale', 'frisco', 'corona', 'austin', 'cape coral']
```

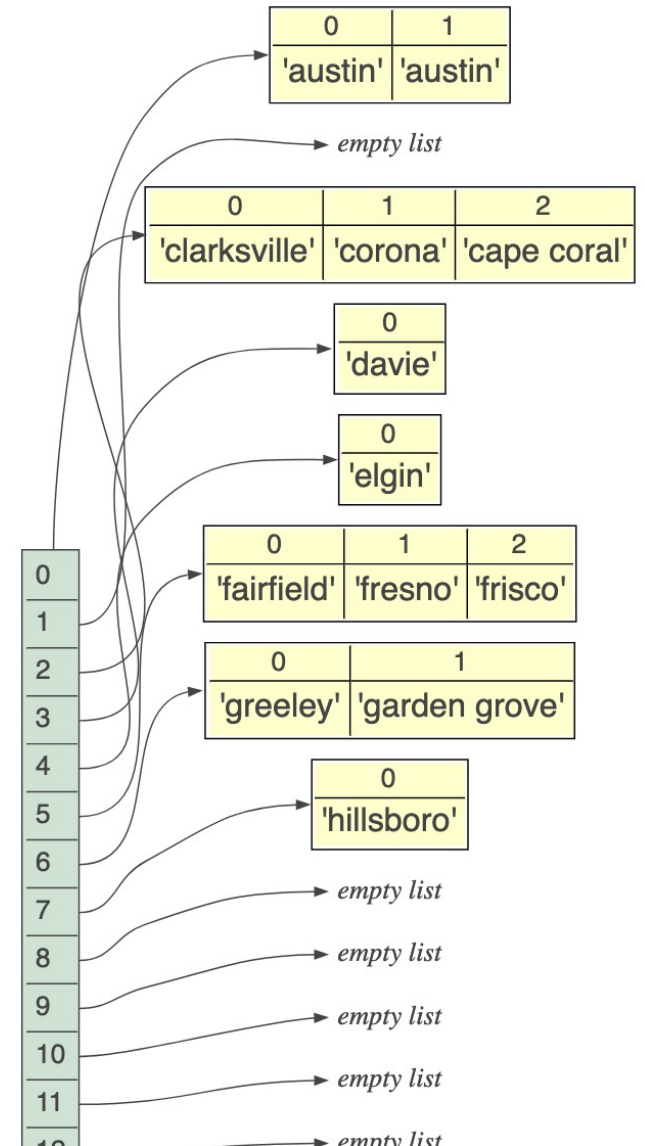


# Hashing strings

```
def hash(s):
    # convert first char to int in [0,25]
    return ord(s[0]) - ord('a')

[(c, hash(c)) for c in cities[0:10]]
```

```
[('elgin', 4),
 ('tyler', 19),
 ('austin', 0),
 ('hillsboro', 7),
 ('greeley', 6),
 ('davie', 3),
 ('rockford', 17),
 ('orange', 14),
 ('sandy springs', 18),
 ('garden grove', 6)]
```





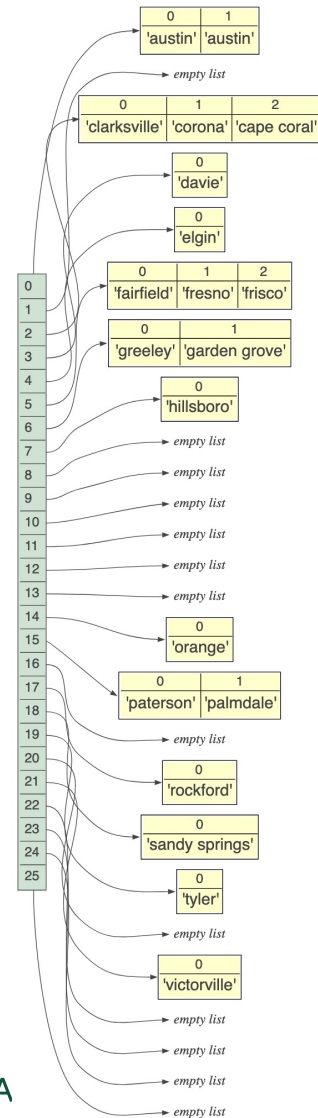
# This impl of hashtable for strings vs ints differs only in number of buckets

```
def htable(A):  
    buckets = [[] for i in range(26)]  
    for a in A:  
        buckets[hash(a)].append(a)  
    return buckets
```

```
def hsearch(buckets, x):  
    i = hash(x)  
    for a in buckets[i]:  
        if a == x:  
            return True  
    return False
```

```
buckets = htable(cities)  
%time hsearch(buckets, "austin")
```

CPU times: user 5 µs, sys: 0 ns, total: 5 µs  
Wall time: 7.15 µs





# An important implementation detail

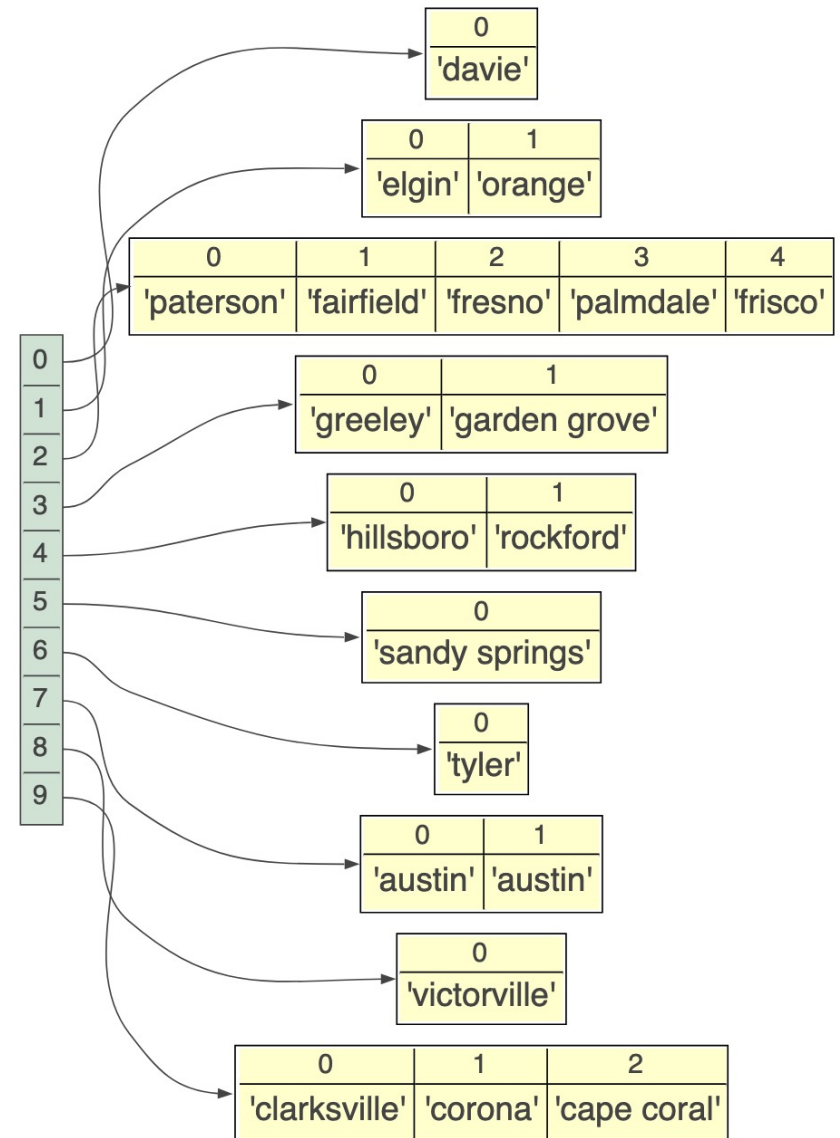
- The hash function does not directly give the bucket index: it converts values to integers, then we make sure that the hash value fits into the table by doing modulo the number of buckets
- For our int sets, the  $\text{hash}(x)$  is just  $x$ ; the modulo 10 just puts it in one of 10 buckets, but we can use any number of buckets
- Same for strings; the  $\text{hash}(x)$  could be simply the character code for the first character, but we could squeeze all 26 English chars into 10 buckets by taking modulo 10

# Hash vs bucket index

- Compute the hash and mod with the number of buckets we have

```
def hash(s):  
    return ord(s[0])  
  
def htable(A):  
    buckets = [[] for i in range(10)]  
    for a in A:  
        # fit in 10 buckets  
        b = hash(a) % 10  
        buckets[b].append(a)  
    return buckets
```

Previously: `buckets[hash(a)].append(a)`



# How much faster are hash tables?

- With a uniform distribution, we would expect roughly  $N/B$  associations in each bucket for  $B$  buckets and  $N$  total elements in the dictionary
- A complexity of  $N/B$  is much better than  $N$  and, with sufficiently large  $B$ , we would say that  $N/B$  approaches 1, giving complexity  $O(1)$  versus  $O(n)$

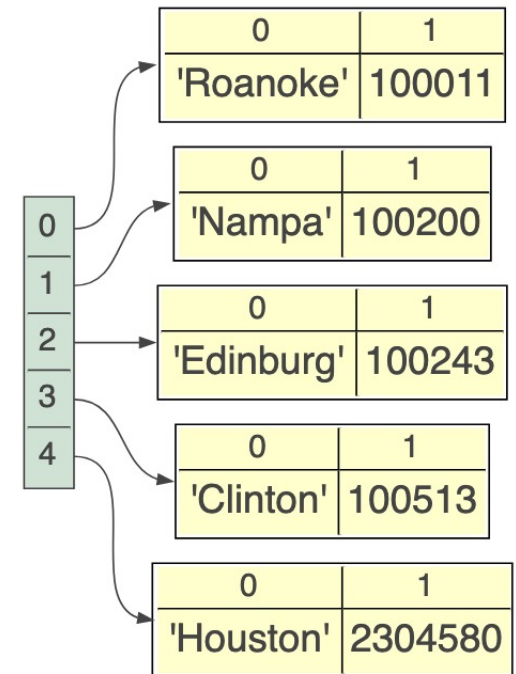
# Dictionary implementations

# A simple dictionary implementation

- Let's represent the set of key→value pairs as a list of tuples:

```
pop = [  
    ('Roanoke', 100011),  
    ('Nampa', 100200),  
    ('Edinburg', 100243),  
    ('Clinton', 100513),  
    ('Houston', 2304580)  
]
```

- The key operation is to look up a value by key
- How would you implement this?



Linearly search through the list of tuples and compare the first value and the tuple to the key of interest; return the associated value if key is found

# Linear lookup

- Looking for a key is a simple matter of examining the first element of every tuple stored in the list
- Return None if the key is not found

```
def llookup(A,x):  
    for k,v in A:  
        if k==x:  
            return v  
    return None
```

```
llookup(pop, 'Clinton')
```

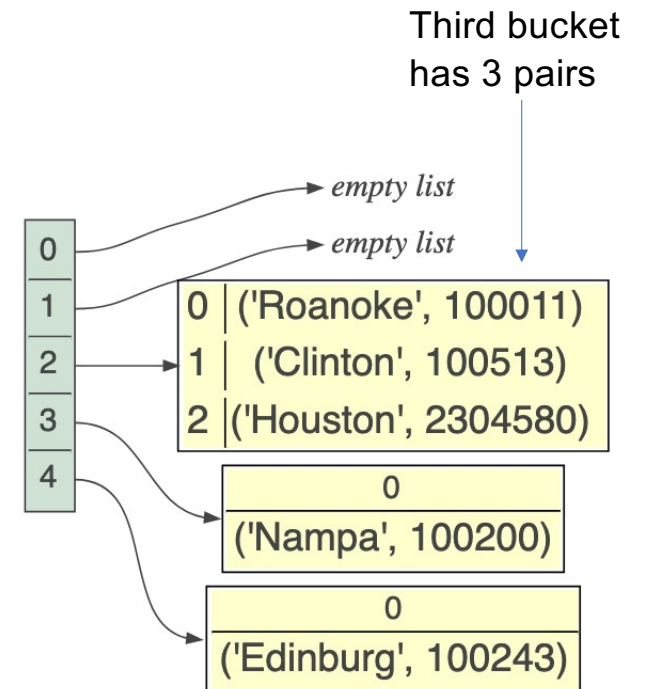
```
100513
```

```
llookup(pop, 'SF')
```

# Hashtable dictionary implementation

- Split pairs into, say, 5 buckets (use our string hash function)

```
def hash(s):  
    return ord(s[0])  
  
def htable_dict(A, nbuckets):  
    buckets = [[] for i in range(nbuckets)]  
    for k, v in A:  
        b = hash(k) % nbuckets  
        buckets[b].append((k, v))  
    return buckets
```



# Hashtable key look up

- Compute the hash, modulo the number of buckets, to get the bucket index
- Linear search within the bucket
- If key found, return value
- Else return None

```
def hlookup(buckets,x,nbuckets):  
    i = hash(x) % nbuckets  
    for k,v in buckets[i]:  
        if k==x:  
            return v  
    return None
```

```
buckets = htable_dict(pop, 3)
```

```
hlookup(buckets, 'Clinton', nbuckets=3)
```

```
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```

```
hlookup(buckets, 'SF', nbuckets=3)
```



# Degenerate case of one bucket

- With only one bucket, all pairs hash to the same bucket, which means doing a linear search of all elements to look up a key

```
buckets = htable_dict(pop, 1)
```

|   |                      |
|---|----------------------|
| 0 | ('Roanoke', 100011)  |
| 1 | ('Nampa', 100200)    |
| 2 | ('Edinburg', 100243) |
| 3 | ('Clinton', 100513)  |
| 4 | ('Houston', 2304580) |

One and only bucket

# Some details relevant to the search project

# Review: tuples

- A tuple is an *immutable* list and uses parentheses rather than square brackets for notation
- Tuples are often used to group related elements:

```
me = ('parrt', 607)
userid, office = me
print(userid)
print(office)
print(me[0], me[1])
```

```
parrt
607
parrt 607
```

```
me = ('parrt', 607)
me[1] = 525 # change office
```

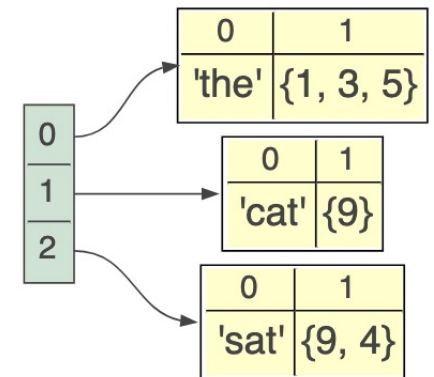
```
-----
TypeError                                Traceback (most recent call last)
<ipython-input-36-e02b2267f45c> in <module>
      1 me = ('parrt', 607)
----> 2 me[1] = 525 # change office

TypeError: 'tuple' object does not support item assignment
```

# Values can be anything including sets

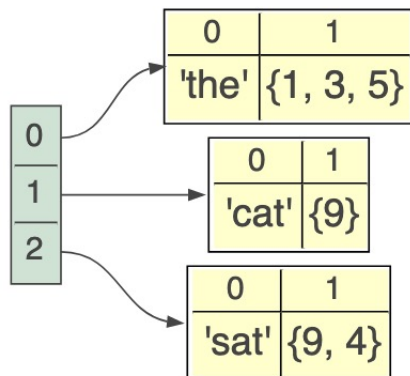
- The tuples used to represent key and value pairs are immutable, but the pair's value can point at a mutable data structures such as a set
- Consider a simple list of tuples implementation that maps words to sets of integers

```
words = [('the', {3,1,5}), ('cat',{9}), ('sat',{4,9})]
```



# Modifying dictionary set values

- If you extract a mutable value from a data structure, you can modify it without having to delete and add an updated version



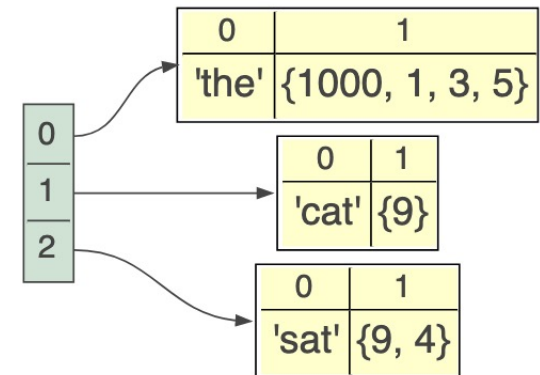
```
the = lookup(words, 'the')  
the
```

```
{1, 3, 5}
```

```
the.add(1000)
```

```
lookup(words, 'the')
```

```
{1, 3, 5, 1000}
```



# Summary

- Dictionaries and sets are typically implemented with a form of hashtable because the key lookup operation is so much faster
- The speed comes from a partitioning of the search space into a large number of small regions, which are searched linearly
- If we make enough buckets so that at most there are three keys in each bucket, lookup takes three operations no matter how many keys have been added to the dictionary