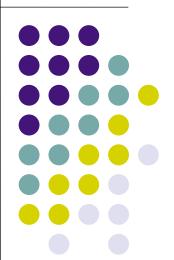
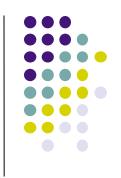
COMP20003 Algorithms and Data Structures Hash Tables

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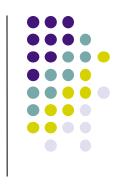


So far...



- Dictionary search has been based on key comparisons.
 - Linked list (sorted and unsorted)
 - Array (sorted and unsorted)
 - Binary Search Tree
 - Balanced Trees

This section



A way of going directly to the desired item.

- Hash tables:
 - Search usually takes only 1 (or few) operations.
 - (on average)
 - (if managed well)
 - (but very bad worst case)
- Probabilistic data structure.

Textbook

Skiena: Chapter 3, Section 3.7

Direct storage and search (a hypothetical fast method)



- Task: Store in dictionary items with keys within the range 0 to RANGE-1.
- Data structure: array:

```
itemtype A[RANGE];
```

Operations:

```
initialize(A)
    {for(i=0;i<RANGE;i++) A[i] = NULL;}
insert(item) {A[item->key] = item;}
search(key) {return A[key];}
```

Direct storage and search (a hypothetical fast method)



• Create table and initialize:

```
#define RANGE 10000
#define EXAMPLEKEY 8179
struct item{int key; char *info;} item;
item *A[RANGE];
item *newitem;

for(i=0;i<RANGE; i++) A[i] = NULL;</pre>
```

Direct storage and search (a hypothetical fast method)



• Insert item with key=EXAMPLEKEY:

```
newitem = (item *)malloc.....
newitem->key = EXAMPLEKEY;
newitem->info = ...malloc....strcpy...
A[EXAMPLEKEY] = newitem;
```

Search for item with key=EXAMPLEKEY:

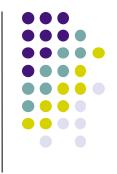
```
return A[EXAMPLEKEY];
```

Limitations?



- Key range is often not known.
- RANGE might be too large to be a practical array size.
- We have assumed that keys are unique.

Use the idea: make it practical



- Size:
 - Squash the keys to fit into an array:
 - A[100]
 - Store key in A[key%100]
- Collisions
 - If key1 = 200 and key2 = 400, both map to A[0].
 - Collisions are always possible, so must have a plan.
- Patterns
 - Use more complicated mapping of keys to disrupt patterns.





Key = Input % modulo

Input	Modulo 8	Modulo 7
0		
4		
8		
12		
16		
20		
24		
28		





Input	Mod	8 olub	Modulo 7
0	0	0	
4	4	4	
8	0	1	
12	4	5	
16	0	2	
20	4	6	
24	0	3	
28	4	0	

Use more complicated mapping and prime numbers to disrupt patterns.

Hash Functions



- hash (key)
- Hash function maps the item's key to an array slot.
 - A[hash(item->key)] = item;
- Desirable features and requirements of a hash function:
 - Must output value within bounds of the array.
 - Should minimize collisions, as far as possible.
 - Should spread, items, throughout the table,

Hash Functions



- Some bad hash functions
 - A[100]; hash(key) = key%10
 - A[100]; hash(key) = key%100
- Better:
 - A[97]; hash(key) = (key*BIGPRIME)%97
- Prime numbers help disrupt patterns in the data and spread it throughout the table.



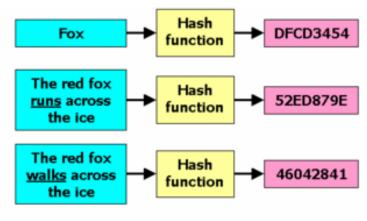


Student numbers example:

- 3 first numbers
- 3 last numbers
- 0-9 buckets







Record with string key s, array dictionary size **SIZE** might be stored in location:

Example:



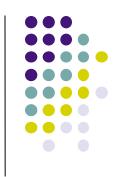


 Skiena (p.89) shows mapping strings to number, base alphabet size:

$$H(S) = \sum_{i=0}^{|S|-1} \alpha^{|S|-(i+1)} \times char(s_i)$$

- \bullet H("cat") = $26^2 * 3 + 26 * 1 + 1 * 20$
- Does this work for longer strings?
- Is this efficient?

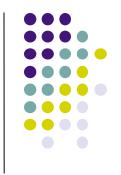




- More efficient:
- Use a power of 2 instead of alphabet size:

```
\bullet H("cat") = 32^2 * 3 + 32 * 1 + 1 *
 20;
 hashcat = (('c')*(1<<10)) +
             (('a')*(1<<5)) +
               ('t'))%TABLESIZE;
  hashcat = (('c' << 10) +
               ('a' <<5) +
               ('t'))%TABLESIZE;
```





- More efficient and prevent overflow:
- Use a power of 2 instead of alphabet size:

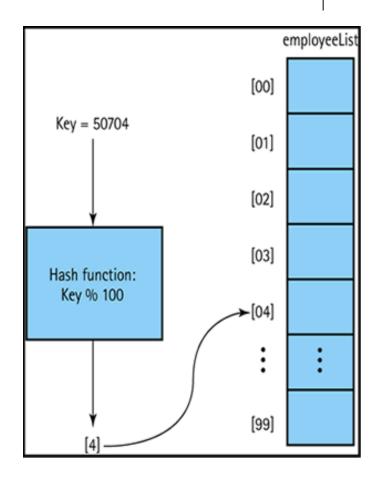
Principle:

$$(a+b) \bmod n = ((a \bmod n) + (b \bmod n)) \bmod n$$





- Huge range of possible keys
 - e.g. space of possible surnames: 26ⁿ
 - $26^{10} = 141,167,095,653,376$
- Map to a smaller set of array indexes, 0..m-1
 - hash function: h
 - easily computed
 - even distribution



Collisions



- Collision: Two keys map to the same array index
 - $\bullet h(k_1) == h(k_2)$
- Where array SIZE < number of records, there will definitely be collisions.
- Where array SIZE > number of records, there will often still be collisions – and we *must* handle them.
- Good hash functions have fewer collisions
 - but we can never assume there will be none.

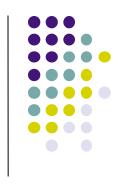
Collision Resolution Methods

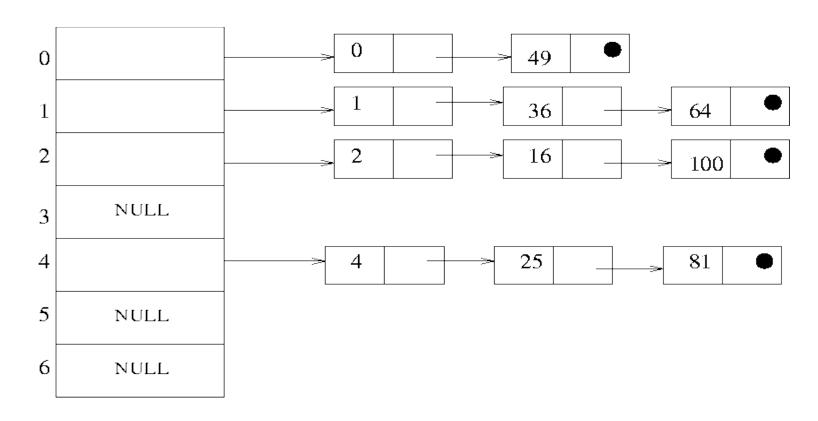




- Chaining
- Open adressing methods
 - Linear probing
 - Double hashing

Chaining







```
insert(HT,item)
  new newnode = /* make a list node */
   /* put item in the list node */
  index = hash(item->key);
  if (HT[index] == NULL) HT[index] = newnode;
  else
       newnode->next = HT[index]->node;
       HT[index] = newnode;
```





- What happens if you forget to null the table in the beginning?
- What happens if all the items hash to the same location?
- What happens if the number of items is much bigger than the table?

Chaining: analysis

- Insertion:
 - Best case
 - Worst case
 - Average Case
- Search
 - Best case
 - Worst case
 - Average Case





- Average case: fast lookup when table is not heavily loaded.
- Performance degrades gracefully when table gets crowded.
- Eventually degenerates to a linked lists.

Extra time and space for pointers.

Open addressing: Linear probing



If there is a collision, put the item in the next available slot:

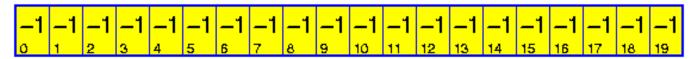
```
while (HT[index] != NULL)
    index= (index+1)%TABLESIZE
/* only get out of this loop when
    get to a vacant spot */
```

Open addressing: linear probing

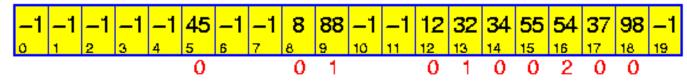


$$m = 20$$
, $f(k) = k \% m$

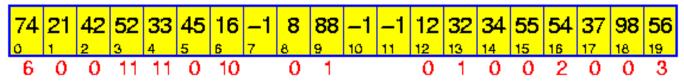
Initial Situation



After inserting 34, 55, 12, 8, 45, 37, 32, 88, 98, 54



After inserting 21, 42, 56, 74, 52, 33, 16





- What happens when:
 - HT lightly loaded?
 - HT heavily loaded?
 - HT full?

Linear probing: Biggest problems



- Catastrophic failure when table full.
- Clustering. Once things start to go bad in part of the table...





- Choose a second hash function.
- Reduces clustering.

```
jumpnum = hash2(key);
while (HT[index] != NULL)
  index=(index+jumpnum)%TABLESIZE
Example hash2 function:
hash2(key) = key%SMALLNUMBER + 1;
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```



- Consider load factor α
 - for n keys
 - in m cells
 - $\bullet \alpha = n/m$



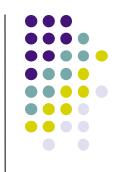
- Average case:
- Under some simplifying assumptions, expected time for insertion is:
 - Double hashing: $1/(1-\alpha)$
 - Linear probing: $1/(1-\alpha)^2$
 - Example: α = 0.75
 - Double hash insertion: 4 probes
 - Linear probing insertion: 16 probes
 - A nice explanation of the assumptions, by Tim Roughgarden:
 - https://class.coursera.org/algo-004/lecture/70?s=e



- Average case lookup:
 - Double hash ~ $\frac{1}{2}(1 + \frac{1}{(1-\alpha)})$
 - Linear probing ~ $\frac{1}{2}(1 + \frac{1}{(1-\alpha)^2})$

Double hash Linear probe

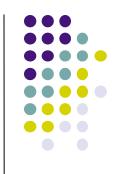
α	$\frac{1}{2}(1+\frac{1}{1-\alpha})$	$\frac{1}{2}(1+\frac{1}{(1-\alpha)^2})$
50%	1.5	2.5
75%	2.5	8.5
90%	5.5	50.5



 Severely degraded performance as table nears full.

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75%	2.5	8.5
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- Catastrophic failure when table full.
- Performance depends on α (n/m), so choice of table size must be appropriate.



 Severely degraded performance as table nears full.

α	$\frac{1}{2}(1+\frac{1}{1-\alpha})$	$\frac{1}{2}(1+\frac{1}{(1-\alpha)^2})$
50%	1.5	2.5
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- Catastrophic failure when table full.
- How and why do people use open addressing? COMP 20003 Algorithms and Data Structures



 Severely degraded performance as table nears full.

α	$\frac{1}{2}(1+\frac{1}{1-\alpha})$	$\frac{1}{2}(1+\frac{1}{(1-\alpha)^2})$
50%	1.5	2.5
75%	2.5	8.5
90%	5.5	50.5

- Catastrophic failure when table full.
- How might you prevent degraded performance?





- O(1) lookup!!
 - But only on average.
 - lacksquare And only for small lpha
 - Some bad worst cases:
 - Table full (open addressing)
 - Table near full (open addressing)
 - Everything hashes to same/similar slot (all)

Hash tables: Summary



- Performance degrades:
 - For linear chaining, degrades gracefully.
 - For open address chaining, degrades, then can fail catastrophically.
- Cannot retrieve items in sorted order.
- A nice review of hashing, including some advanced topics:
- http://courses.csail.mit.edu/6.006/fall10/lectures/lecture5.pdf
- http://courses.csail.mit.edu/6.006/fall10/lectures/lecture6.pdf
- http://courses.csail.mit.edu/6.006/fall10/lectures/lecture7.pdf





- Hash tables show fast lookup.
 - O(1) lookup.
 - Better than log n.
- Used in non-time critical applications.
- Often used in CS applications.





- Duplicate detection, e.g. for documents.
 - If hash signatures are different, documents can't be duplicates. Only have to thoroughly check a few documents.
- Plagiarism detection.