EE2331 Data Structures and Algorithms

Hashing

Outline

- Hash Functions
 - Perfect Hash
 - Minimal Hash
- Collisions Resolution
 - Chaining buckets
 - Linear probing
 - Quadratic probing
 - Double hashing
- Design of Hash Function

Indexing

- What is the purpose of the index in a book?
 - ■To help you to search the pages (that contain the keyword) quicker
- What happens if there is no index?
 - Probably you have to search the entire book page by page, line by line and word by word (sequential search!)

A Practical Problem

- Given a set of data/records, how can you locate a record by the Student ID?
 - How do you sort?
 - ■quick sort O(nlogn): n is the total number of records
 - How do you search?
 - ■Binary search O(*log n*)

Student Records





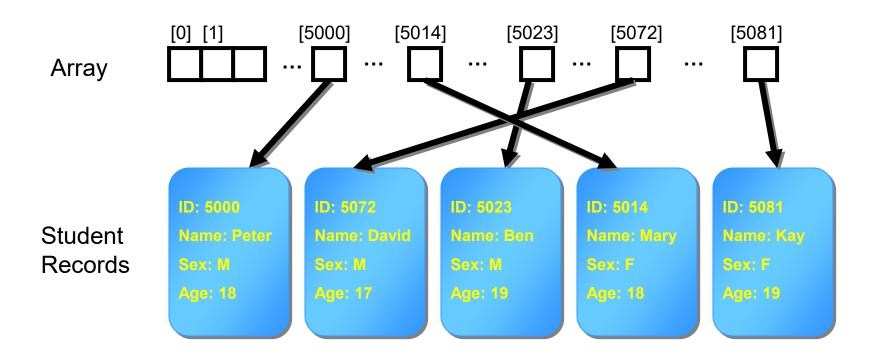






Indexing Data Record

- Using an array to hold pointers to the records
 - Use **Student ID** to index the records (ID = positions)
 - What is the time complexity now?
 - But waste too much space...

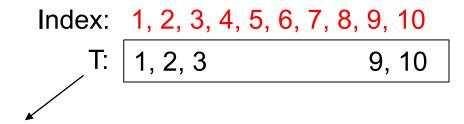


Hashing

- The term "hash" means to chop and mix!
- The objectives
 - Build an index for a set of elements/records
 - To allow fast **search** (also **insert**, **delete**) operations
 - How fast? Constant time (independent of the element size!)
 - Common operations:
 - search, insert, delete and hash

Hashing: decide the positions

■ E.g. A set of keys: 1, 9, 2, 3, 10

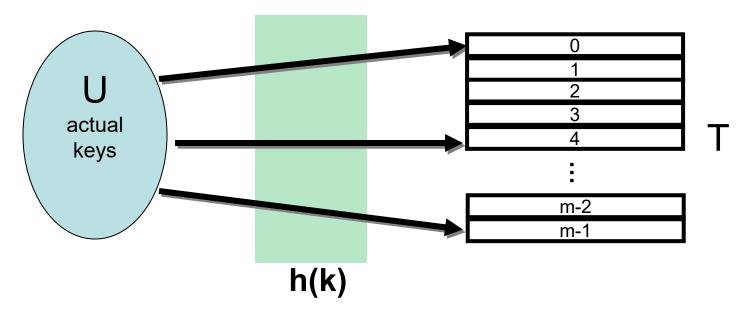


Direct-addressing table: an element with key k is stored at location k

Problem: The range of keys can be large...2⁶⁴

Hashing

- Store an element with key k in slot h(k)
- h(k): maps the universe U of keys into the slots of a hash table.



^{*:} h(k) is called the hash function.

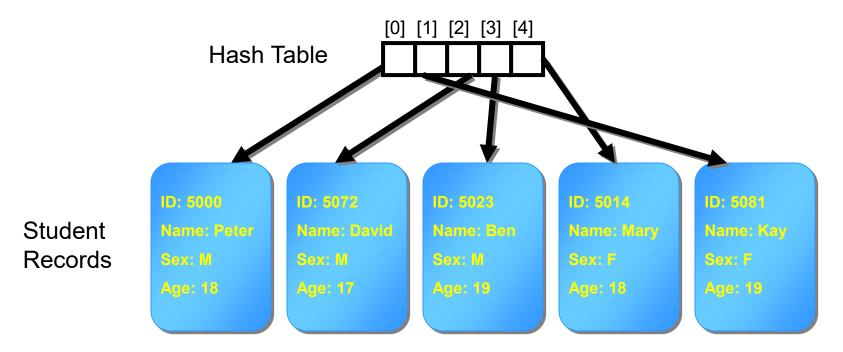
Hash Function

- A hash function is a well-defined procedure or mathematical function which converts a large, possibly variable-sized amount of data into a small range of index (positions)
- The values returned by a hash function are called hash values, hash codes, hash sums, or simply hashes
- The hash value is usually a single integer that may serve as an index to an array

A Simple Hash Function

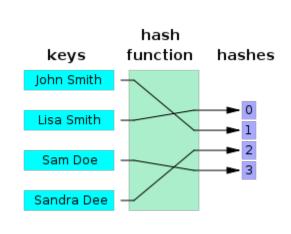
To enhance the memory utilization of the previous example, we can apply the following hash function to the key (Student ID) of the records:

$$h(k) = k \% 5$$

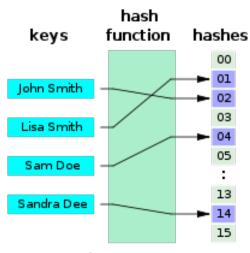


The Hashing Approach

- By using the new hash values to index the records, we can reduce the array size to 5. A hash function maps each valid input to a different hash value is said to be perfect
 - With such a perfect hash function one can directly locate the desired entry in a hash table, without any additional searching
- A hash function for n keys is said to be minimal if it outputs n consecutive hash values



Minimal Perfect Hashing



Perfect Hashing

Hash Collision

- E.g. A set of keys: 1, 7, 6, 4, 5, 9
 - h(k) = k % 10

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	1			4	5	6	7		9

- h(1) = 1 % 10 = 1, h(4) = 4 % 10 = 4, h(5) = 5 % 10 = 5h(6) = 6 % 10 = 6, h(7) = 7 % 10 = 7, h(9) = 9 % 10 = 9
- If we have a key = 44: h(44) = 44 % 10 = 4
- Then we have h(44)==h(4), and this is a hash collision.

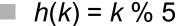
Hash Collision

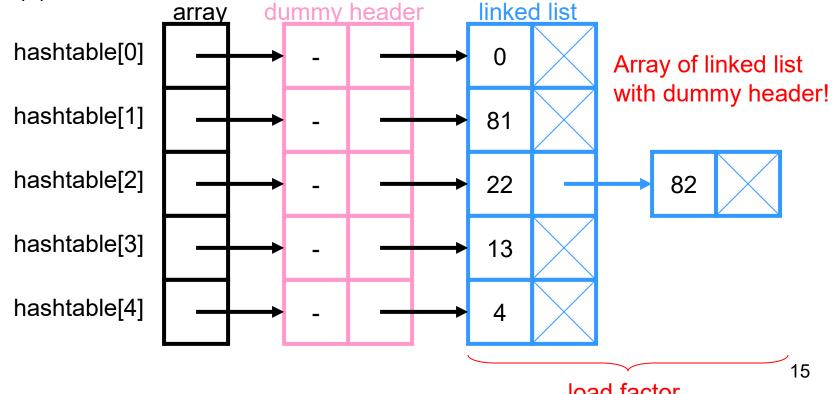
- A collision is a situation that occurs when two distinct pieces of data have the same hash value
- Collisions are unavoidable whenever members of a very large set (such as all possible person names, or all possible computer files) are mapped to a relatively short bit string
- Two types of collision resolution:
 - Closing addressing
 - Chaining buckets
 - Opening addressing
 - Linear probing, Quadratic probing, Double hashing
- Any collision in a hash table increases the average cost of lookup operations

Closing Addressing

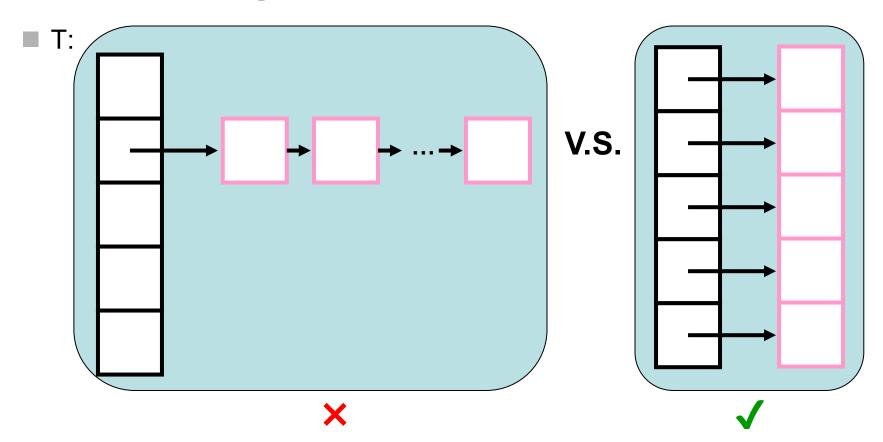
Place the key in the same slot even when collisions has occurred

- Example: store 0, 4, 13, 22, 81 and 82 into the hash table using the chaining buckets
- For simplicity, let the key be the same as the element





- CHAINED-HASH-INSERT (T, x) // x: key, T: hash table
 Insert x into the head of list T(h(x)):
 O(1)
- CHAINED-HASH-SEARCH (T, x)
 - Search for an element with key x in list T(h(x)):O(|T(hx)|) // size of the chain at h(x)
- CHAINED-HASH-DELETION (T, x)
 - Delete an element with key x in list T(h(x)):
 O(|T(hx)|)



- Average case analysis of chaining
 - Assumption: Simple uniform hashing
 - Each key $k \in U$ is equally likely to be hashed to any slot of table T, independent of where other keys are hashed
 - Probability h(k1) = h(k2): 1/m (m: the size of T)

Let n be the number of keys, and m be the size of T, define the load factor of T to be

$$\alpha = \frac{n}{m}$$
 = average number of keys per slot

- Search cost
 - The expected time for an unsuccessful search is $\theta(1+\alpha)$

Hash Search for function the list

 \blacksquare Expected search time = $\theta(1)$ if $\alpha = O(1)$

Opening Addressing

Place the key in other free slot when collisions has occurred

Opening Addressing (v.s. chaining)

- No storage is used outside of the hash table itself
- Insertion systematically probes the table until an empty slot is found
- The hash function depends on both the key and the probe number

```
h: U x \{0, 1, ..., m-1\} \rightarrow \{0, 1, 2, ..., m-1\} // m is the hash table size
```

■ The probe sequence <h(k, 0), h(k, 1), h(k, 2), ..., h(k, m-1)> should be a permutation of {0, 1, ..., m-1}

Linear Probing

- Place the key in the next free slot when collisions has occurred (i.e. sequentially search the hash table for a free location)
 - h(k, i) = (h(k) + i) % n
 - where i is the step size, n is the table size and h(k) is the original hash function
- If the slot of h(k) mod n has been used, try
 - \blacksquare (h(k) + 1) % n
- If unlucky that the new slot has also been used, try
 - \blacksquare (h(k) + 2) % n
- And so on until a free slot has been found

Linear Probing - Eg-1

- Given an ordinary hash function h'(k), linear probing was the hash function
 - h(k, i) = (h'(k) + i) % n
- If h'(k) = k % 11, h(k, i) = ((k % 11) + i) % 11
 - Insert 15
 - $\blacksquare k=15, h'(15) = 15 \% 11 = 4, h(15, 0) = 4$

0 : 4

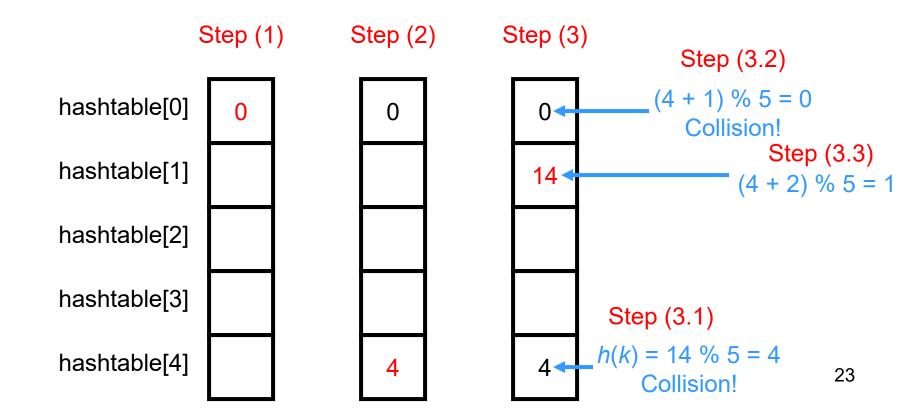
16

- 4 15
 - 4
- 6

- Insert 4
 - $\blacksquare k=4, h'(4)=4\% 11=4, h(k, i)=h(4, 0)=4$
 - $\blacksquare h(k, i+1) = h(4, 1) = (4+1) \% 11 = 5$
- Insert 16
 - \blacksquare k=16, h'(16) = 16 % 11 = 5, h(16, 0) = (5+0) % 11 = 5
 - $\blacksquare h(16,1) = (5+1) \% 11 = 6$

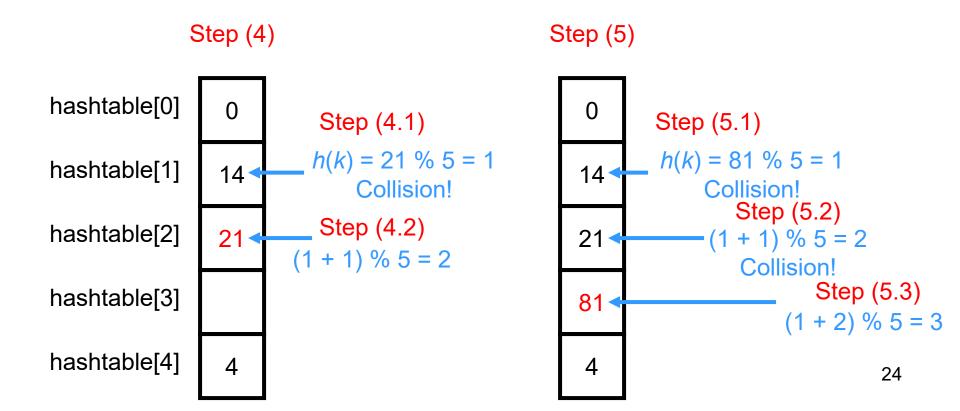
Linear Probing - Eg-2

Store 0, 4, 14, 21 and 81 into hash table using linear probing. Let h(k) = k % 5



Linear Probing - Eg-2

Store 0, 4, 14, 21 and 81 into hash table using linear probing. Let h(k) = k % 5





Exercise

■ Show the final hash table for input 100, 20, 28, 31, 33, 80, 98, 42 using chaining and linear probing, respectively. h(i)=i % 10. The hash table size is 10.

Analysis

- The 1st element, key 0, located in its home position
- The 2nd element, key 4, also located in its home position
- The 3rd element, key 14, tried 3 positions before finding an empty slot
- The 4th element, key 21, tried 2 positions
- The last element, key 81, tried 3 positions
- The total number of comparisons required to search for all these 5 entities is

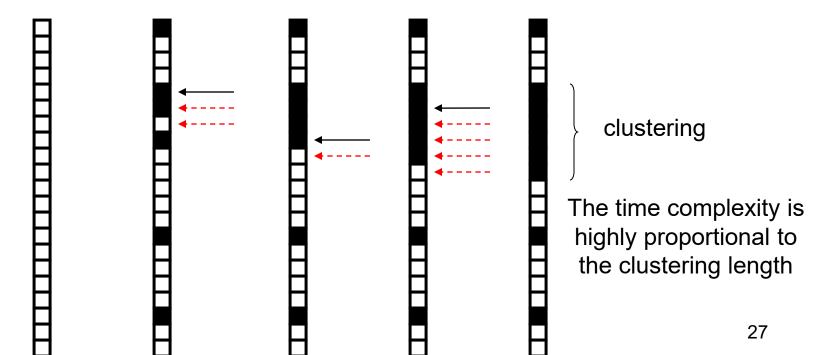
$$\blacksquare$$
 1 + 1 + 3 + 2 + 3 = 10

Average number of comparisons for a successful search

$$\blacksquare$$
 = 10 / 5 = 2

Another Problem of Linear Probing

- Overflow addresses tends to group in a region of the array
- Called clustering

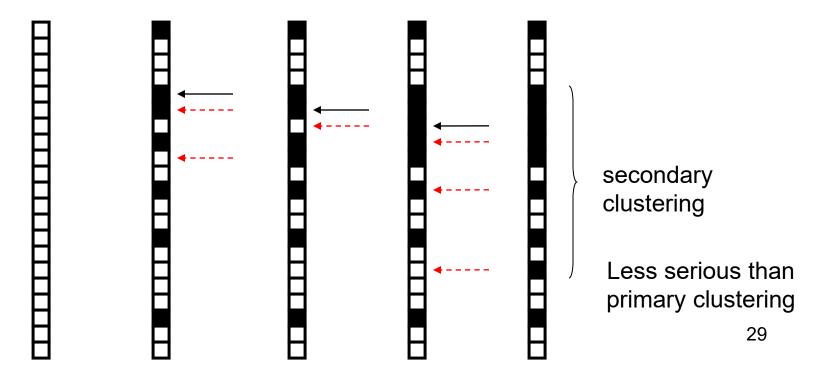


Solution of Clustering

- Instead of using linear probing, try Quadratic Probing
 - \blacksquare $h(k, i) = (h(k) + i^2) \% n$
 - where i is the step size, n is the table size and h(k) is the original hash function
- So the try sequence is
 - $\blacksquare h(k) \% n$
 - \blacksquare $(h(k) + 1^2) \% n$ Jump 1 slot
 - $\blacksquare (h(k) + 2^2) \% n \qquad \text{Jump 3 slots more}$
 - \blacksquare $(h(k) + 3^2) \% n$ Jump 5 slots more again
 - And so on until a free slot is found
- To "jump" away from clustering

Problem of Quadratic Probing

- Quadratic probing eliminate primary clustering
- But produce secondary clustering



To Avoid Clustering

- Double hashing: design 2 independent hash functions h1() and h2()
 - h(k, i) = (h1(k) + i * h2(k)) % n
 - \blacksquare where *i* is the step size and *n* is the table size
- So the try sequence is
 - = h1(k) % n
 - \blacksquare (h1(k) + h2(k)) % n
 - \blacksquare (h1(k) + 2 * h2(k)) % n
 - \blacksquare (h1(k) + 3 * h2(k)) % n
 - And so on until a free slot has been found
- The jump interval is decided using a second, independent hash function. So values mapping to the same location have different jump sequences
- This minimizes repeated collisions and the effects of clustering
- The trade off: cost more time to compute new hash value

Double hashing

Double hashing: Given ordinary hash function, h1(k) and h2(k), double hash is

T(m = 13)

79

69

14

9

50

0

3

5

8

9

10 11

12

- h(k, i) = (h1(k) + i * h2(k)) % m // m is the table size
- Insert 14:
 - \blacksquare h1(14) = 14 % 13 = 1, h2(14) = 1+ (14 % 11) = 4
 - $\blacksquare h(14, 0) = (h1(14) + 0 * h2(14)) % 13 = 1 % 13 = 1$
 - \blacksquare h(14, 1) = (h1(14) + 1 * h2(14)) % 13 = (1 + 4) % 13 = 5
- Delete 72:
 - $\blacksquare h(72, 0) = 7$
- Delete 98:
 - $\blacksquare h(98, 0) = 7, h(98, 1) = ?, ..., h(98, 2), ..., h(98, 12)$
- A hash table of size m is used to store n items with n ≤ m/2, opening address is used for collision resolution. Assume uniform hashing, show that for i = 1, 2, ..., n, the probability that the ith insertion requires strictly more than k probs is at most 2-k

Exercise

- Store 90 100 89 88 67 30 23 33 in a hash table T of size 10 using double hashing.
 - \blacksquare h1(i) = i % 10, h2(i)=1+i%11
 - $\blacksquare h(k, i) = (h1(k) + i * h2(k)) \% m$

Design of Hash Function

Division Method Mid-Square Folding Method

Design of Hash Function

- An ideal hash function should have the following properties
 - Low Cost
 - Easy and fast to compute
 - Variable Range
 - Able to transform words, symbols into numbers
 - Uniformity
 - Distributes the keys evenly
 - Minimize the chance of collisions



1) Division Method

- Easy to implement and fast to compute
 - Division: key % tablesize
 - Use prime number as the hash table size to reduce collisions
- How about the key is not an integer?
 - Transform into integer

2) Mid-Square

- Step 1. Transform to integer
- Step 2. Square the number
- Step 3. Select some digits from the middle
- E.g. Put these keys into a table of size 5

key	key ²	hash(key)
281	78 <mark>96</mark> 1	96 mod 5 = 1
99	9801	80 mod 5 = 0
123	15 <mark>12</mark> 9	12 mod 5 = 2

3) Folding Method

- Step 1. Split the key into several parts
- Step 2. Sum the folded the key
- \blacksquare E.g. key = 245769908



■Define
$$f_1 = 245$$
, $f_2 = 769$, $f_3 = 908$

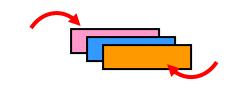
$$\blacksquare h(k) = (f_1 + f_2 + f_3) \text{ mod size}$$

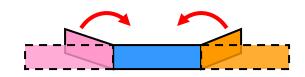


■ Define
$$f_1 = 542$$
, $f_2 = 769$, $f_3 = 809$

$$\blacksquare h(k) = (f_1 + f_2 + f_3) \text{ mod size}$$







Design of Hash Function

■ Examples: A company with 100 employers. The access key is a nine-digit number (SSN). The hash table is indexed from 0 to 99.

$$\blacksquare$$
 h(d₁d₂...d₉) = (d₄d₅) % 100

$$\blacksquare$$
 h(d₁d₂...d₉) = (d₁...d₉) % 100

$$\blacksquare$$
 h(d₁d₂...d₉) = $\sum_{i=1}^{9} d_i$ % 100

Better



Applications

- Hash functions are mostly used to speed up table lookup or data comparison tasks such as finding items in a database, detecting duplicated or similar records in a large file
- Determine if there are any duplicated numbers from the following sequence of numbers:
 - **■** {52, **61**, 18, 70, **39**, 48, 28, 57, **61**, **39**, 43}
 - 61 and 39 repeated twice
- Can you suggest an algorithm to find the duplicated numbers?

Applications

- Pattern matching / string search. For a string sub, test whether it is a substring of another (longer) string S.
 - |sub| = m, |S| = n
 - E.g. sub = "ACGT", h(ACGT) == h(ACGT)

Algorithm 1 Use of hashing for substring search function RabinKarp(String S[1, ..., n], String sub[1, ..., m])

```
1: hsub = hash(sub[1, ..., m])

2: hs = hash(S[1, ..., n])

3: for i = 1 to n - m + 1 do

4: if hs == hsub then

5: if S[i, ..., i + m - 1] == sub then \triangleright String comparison

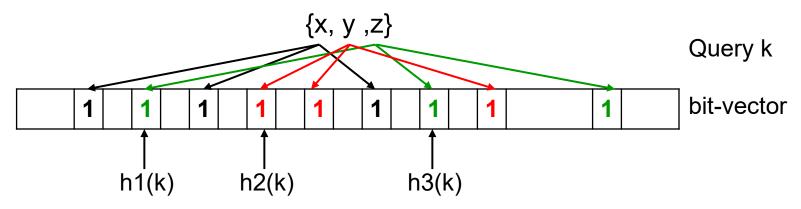
6: return i

7: hs = hash(S[i+1, ..., i+m))

8: return not found
```

Applications

- Bloom-filter "set membership detection"
 - Burton. H. Bloom, 1970
 - A space-efficient data structure that is used to test whether an element is a member of a set



E.g. 3 hash functions. Allow false positives, not false negatives. Probably "yes", definitely "no"!