

Hashing II

Rehashing

- **Rehashing** is a technique used to resolve collisions and handle the increased load factor in hash tables.
- When the table becomes too full (usually defined by a load factor threshold), a new hash function is applied, and all elements are reinserted into a larger table.
- **Load factor**(α) =
$$\frac{\text{number of elements}}{\text{table size}}$$
- When α exceeds a threshold (commonly 0.7) rehashing is triggered.

Rehashing : steps

- Create a new, larger table
 - Usually double the size or next prime number
- Apply a new hash function
- Reinsert all existing elements into the new table

Advantages	Disadvantages
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Reduces collisions.• Improves efficiency for insertion, deletion, and search.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Expensive operation because all keys must be rehashed.• Increased memory usage temporarily during rehashing.

Rehashing : Example

- Hash table size (m) = 7
- Load factor threshold = 0.7
- Hash function $h(k) = k \bmod m$
- Keys to insert : 10,22,31,40,42,52,55

Rehashing : Example

- Hash table size = 7
- Load factor threshold = 0.7
- Hash function $h(k) = k \bmod m$
- Keys to insert : 10,22,31,40,42,52,55
- $h(10) = 10 \bmod 7 = 3$
- $h(22) = 22 \bmod 7 = 1$
- $h(31) = 31 \bmod 7 = 3$, collision , resolve using quadratic probing $= (3+1^2) \bmod 7 = 4$
- $h(40) = 40 \bmod 7 = 5$
- $h(42) = 42 \bmod 7 = 0$  When inserting element 42, load factor exceeds 0.71
- $h(52) = 52 \bmod 7 = 3$, collision $= (3+1^2) \bmod 7 = 4$ collision, $= (3+2^2) \bmod 7 = 0$, collision $= (3+3^2) \bmod 7 = 5$ collision, $= (3+4^2) \bmod 7$, collision, $= (3+5^2) \bmod 7 = 0$ collision, $= (3+6^2) \bmod 7 = 4$ collision $= (3+7^2) \bmod 7$ cannot insert due to over crowding
- $h(55) = 55 \bmod 7 = 6$
- compute **Load factor**(α) = $\frac{\text{number of elements}}{\text{table size}}$ = $5/7 \sim 0.71$

Rehashing : Example

Rehashing

- Create a new table of size 14 (double the old size)
- New hash function $h'(k) = k \bmod 14$
- Reinsert all keys
- $h(10) = 10 \bmod 14 = 10$
- $h(22) = 22 \bmod 14 = 8$
- $h(31) = 31 \bmod 14 = 3$
- $h(40) = 40 \bmod 14 = 12$
- $h(42) = 42 \bmod 14 = 0$

Double Hashing

- **Double hashing** is one of the best methods for dealing with collisions.
- Double Hashing is a collision resolution method in open addressing. When a collision occurs, a second hash function is used to determine the step size for probing.
 - If the slot is full, then a second hash function is calculated and combined with the first hash function.
 - $h'(k,i) = (h(k) + i.h_2(k)) \text{ mod } m$
 - $h(k)$: primary hash function
 - $h_2(k)$: secondary hash function
 - i : probe attempt number ($i=0,1,2,3,\dots$)
 - m : table size

Double hashing

- Table size = 7
- Hash function
 - Primary $h(k) = k \bmod 7$
 - Secondary $h_2(k) = 5 - (k \bmod 5)$
- Keys : 10,22,31,40,52

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

Double hashing

- Table size = 7
- Hash function
 - Primary $h(k) = k \bmod 7$
 - Secondary $h_2(k) = 5 - (k \bmod 5)$
- Keys : 10,22,31,40,52
- $h(10) = 10 \bmod 7 = 3$
- $h(22) = 22 \bmod 7 = 1$
- $h(31) = 31 \bmod 7 = 3$ collision \rightarrow use double hashing $(3 + 1.(5 - (31 \bmod 5))) = 3 + (5-1) = 7 \bmod 7 = 0$
- $h(40) = 40 \bmod 7 = 5$
- $h(52) = 52 \bmod 7 = 3$ Collision \rightarrow double hashing $(3 + 1.(5 - (52 \bmod 5))) = 3 + 5-2 = 6 \bmod 7 = 6$

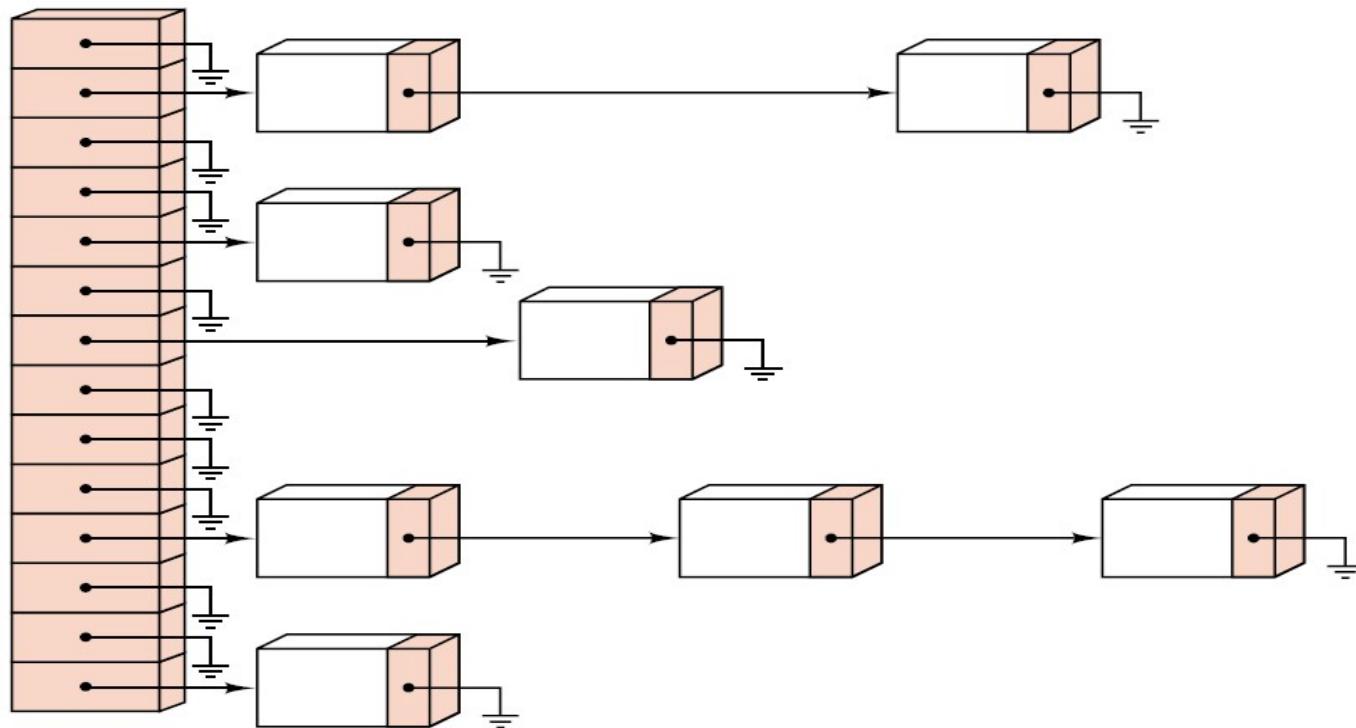
$$h'(k,i) = (h(k) + i.h_2(k)) \bmod m$$

Data Structure for Chaining

```
#define MAX_CHAR 10
#define TABLE_SIZE 13
#define IS_FULL(ptr) (!(ptr))
typedef struct {
    char key[MAX_CHAR];
    /* other fields */
} element;
typedef struct list *list_pointer;
typedef struct list {
    element item;
    list_pointer link;
};
list_pointer hash_table[TABLE_SIZE];
```

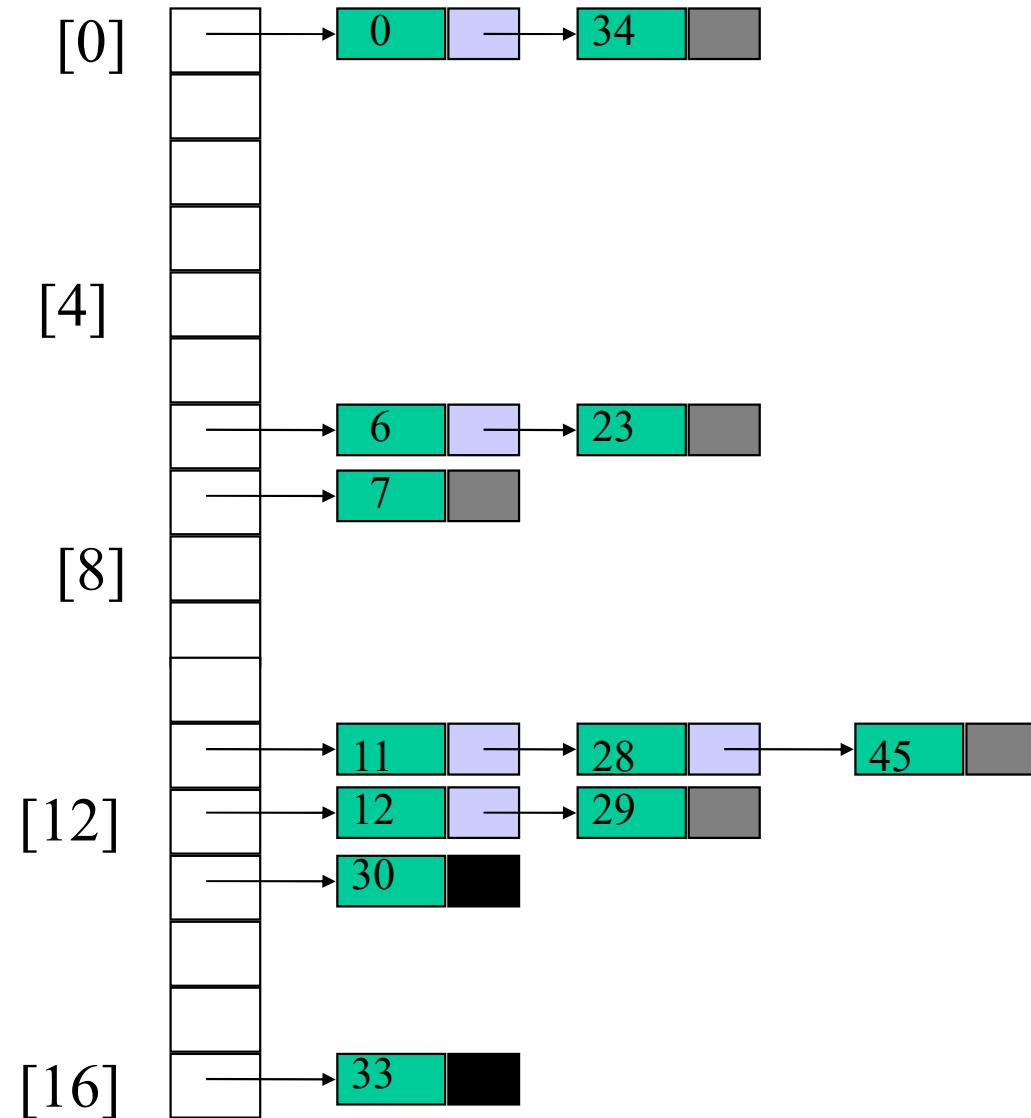
The idea of **Chaining** is to combine the linked list and hash table to solve the overflow problem.

Figure of Chaining



Sorted Chains

- Put in pairs whose keys are 6, 12, 34, 29, 28, 11, 23, 7, 0, 33, 30, 45
- Bucket = key % 17.



Theory of Hashing

- Theorem : For any hash function $h: U \rightarrow \{0, 1, \dots, M\}$, there exists a set S of n keys that all map to the same location assuming $|U| > nM$.
 - So, in worst case, no hash function can avoid linear search complexity.

Proof:

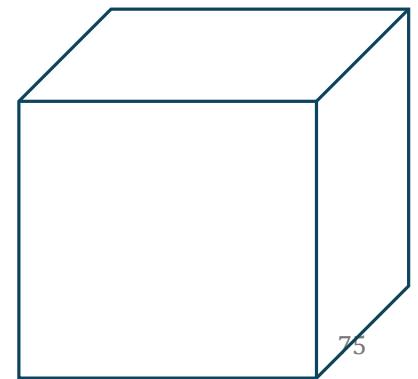
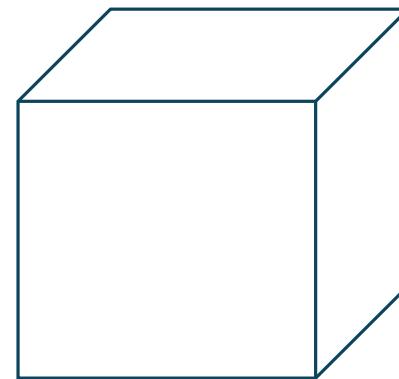
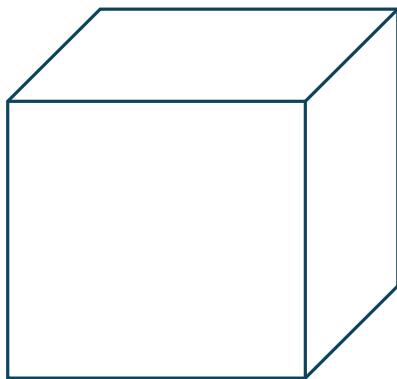
- Take any hash function h you wish to consider
- Map all the keys of U using h to the table of size M
- By the **pigeonhole principle**, at least one table entry will have n keys.
- Choose those n keys as input set S .
 - Now h will maps the entire set S to a single location, for worst example of hashing

Pigeonhole Principle



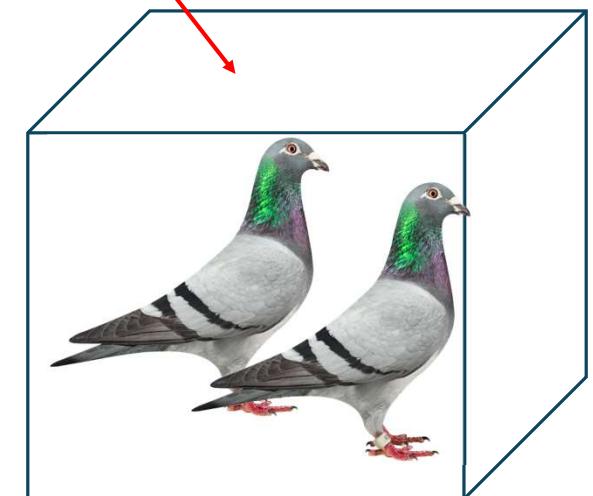
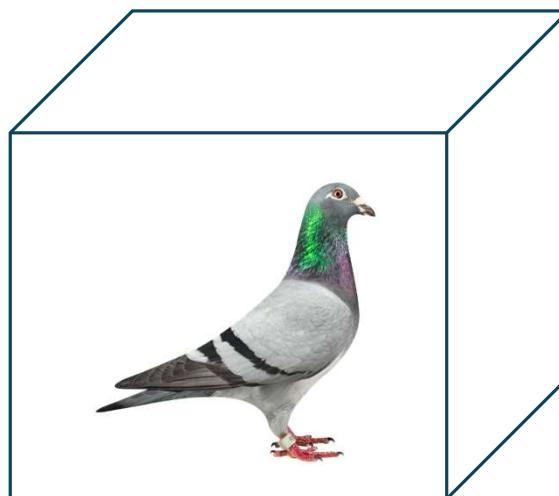
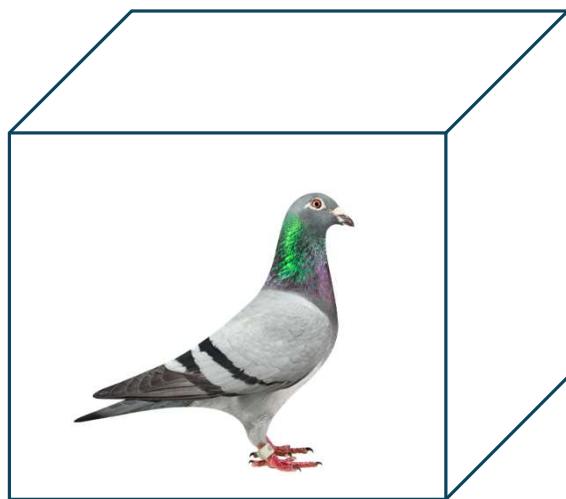


4 pigeons



3 pigeonholes

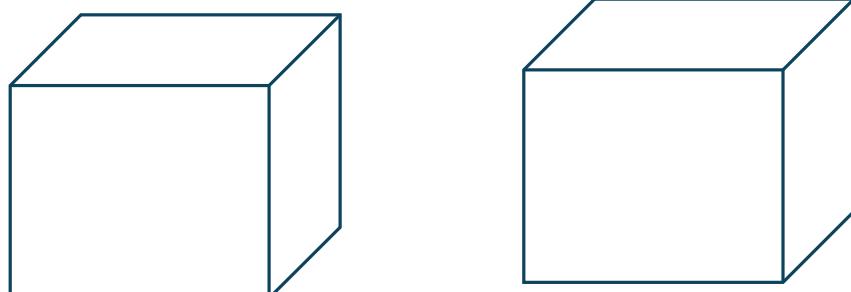
A pigeonhole must fit at least two pigeons.



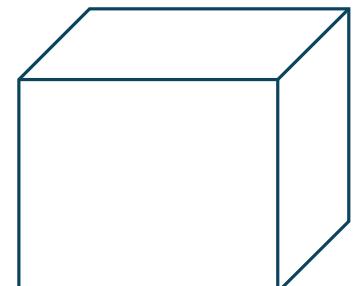
n pigeons



m pigeonholes



$n > m$



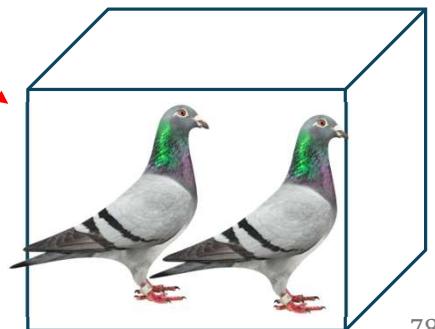
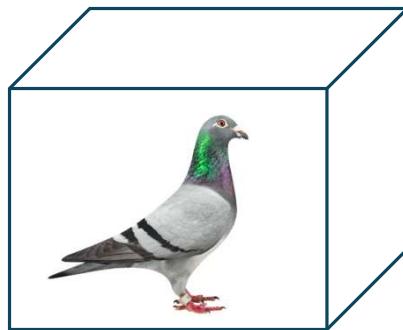
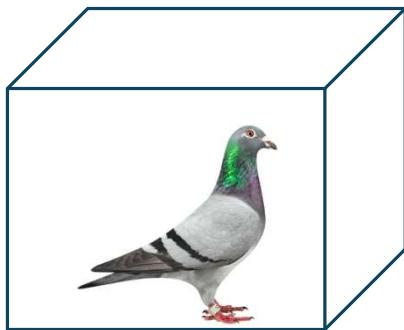
The Pigeonhole Principle

n pigeons

m pigeonholes

$n > m$

There is a pigeonhole
with at least 2 pigeons



Theory of Hashing

- Theorem : For any hash function $h: U \rightarrow \{0, 1, \dots, M\}$, there exists a set S of n keys that all map to the same location assuming $|U| > nM$.
 - So, in worst case, no hash function can avoid linear search complexity.
- Proof:
- Take any hash function h you wish to consider
- Map all the keys of U using h to the table of size M
- By the **pigeonhole principle**, at least one table entry will have n keys.
- Choose those n keys as input set S .
 - Now h will maps the entire set S to a single location, for worst example of hashing

Theory of Hashing: Birthday Paradox

- Suppose birth days are chance events:
 - Date of birth is purely random
 - Any day of the year just as likely as another
- What are the chances that in a group of 30 people, at least two have the same birthday?
- How many people will be needed to have at least 50% chance of same birthday?
- Its called a paradox because the answer appears to be counter-intuitive.
- There are 365 different birthdays, so for 50% chance, you expect at least 182 people.

Birthday Paradox : math behind !

Suppose 2 people in the room.

- What is the probability that they have the same birthday ?
- Answer is $1/365$
- All birthdays are equally likely, so B's birthday falls on A's birthday 1 in 365 times.

Birthday Paradox : math behind !

Now suppose there are k people in the room.

- Its more convenient to calculate the probability X that no two have the same birthday is $(1-x)$ (the probability of at least one match).
- Let P (no two have the same birthday) = X then
- P (at least one match) = $1-X$

Calculating X: Probability of No Shared Birthdays

- For k people, X can be computed as :
- For the first person, any birthday is fine $\frac{365}{365}$
- For the second person, their birthday must not match the first person $\frac{364}{365}$
- For the third person, their birthday must not match either of the first two $\frac{363}{365}$
- Continue this pattern for k people
- $X = \frac{365}{365} \times \frac{364}{365} \times \frac{363}{365} \times \dots \times \frac{365-k+1}{365}$
- $X = \prod_{i=0}^{k-1} \frac{365-i}{365} = e^{\frac{-k^2}{2n}}$
- For k = 23, $e^{-0.69} \leq 0.4999$

Key insight :

- For $k = 23$, probability of at least one shared birthday is approximately 50%
 - Even $23 << 365$
- Results show how collisions (shared birthdays) occur much sooner than intuitively expected, a concept directly relevant to hashing.

Universal Hash function

- A universal hash function : To a family of hash functions H with the following key property:
 - for any two distinct elements x and y in the universe U
 - the probability that a randomly chosen hash function $h \in H$ maps them to the same slot in the hash table is at most where M is the number of slots in the hash table.
- A set of hash functions H is universal if the likelihood of a collision between two distinct keys x and y is bounded by $1/M$.

$$P(h(x) = h(y)) \leq \frac{1}{M}, \quad \forall x, y \in U, x \neq y$$

Universal Hash function – expected search time

- When using a random hash function h from a universal family:
- The expected search time in the hash table is $O(1 + \frac{n}{M})$.
 - n is the number of elements in the hash table.
 - M is the number of slots in the table.
 - $O(1)$ corresponds to the average cost of probing the hash table, while
 - n/M accounts for the expected collisions when $n > M$

Perfect Hashing : Worst – Case $O(1)$ lookup

- Universal hashing assures us that hashing has expected $O(1)$ search time, assuming n/M is at most a constant.
- But what about worst case?
- There remains a small, but non-zero, prob. of unlucky random draw.
- A more sophisticated theory of Perfect Hashing shows that one can even achieve $O(1)$ worst-case result, using a 2-level hashing table.

Perfect Hashing

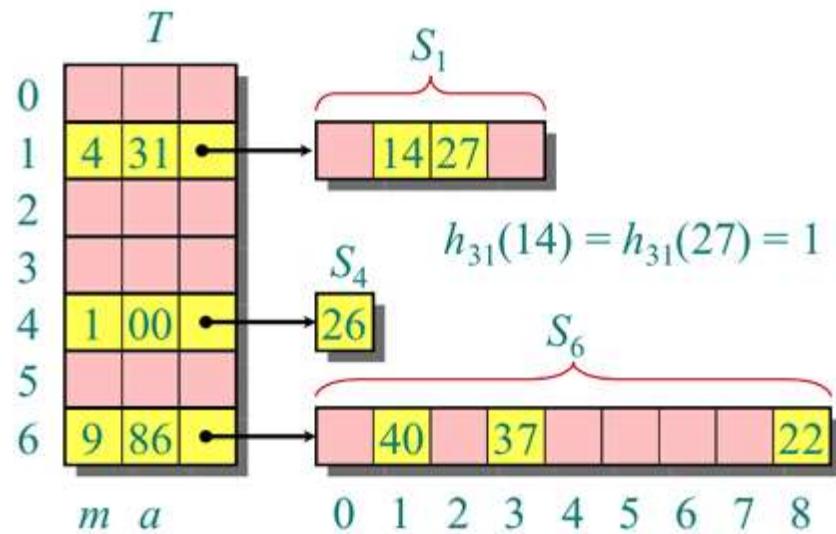
1. First-level hashing

- Use a hash function h_1 to divide keys into n buckets.
- Each bucket i contains k_i keys such that:
- $h_1(x) = i$
- If the number of collisions in a bucket is small, resolving them in the second level becomes easier

Perfect Hashing

2. Second-level hashing

- For each bucket, design a second-level hash function h_2 such that all k_i keys are mapped uniquely within that bucket.
- The second-level table size is often proportional to k^2 , ensuring a collision-free mapping.



Perfect Hashing

- Algorithm (input: N data elements)
- Set the primary hash table size to $M \geq N$, choose primary hash function h_1 : hash all elements into the primary table.
- For each bucket i , in the hash table that contains $b_i > 1$ data elements,
 - Build a secondary hash table with a size of b_i^2
 - Find a hash function h_i^2 that makes no collisions in the secondary hash table
 - Hash all b_i elements into the secondary hash table : record h_i^2

Perfect Hashing : Applications

- Compiler Design:
 - For keyword lookup, where the set of keywords is fixed.
- Databases:
 - For static datasets, such as indexing a fixed set of keys.
- Networking:
 - In routing tables, where the set of routes is known in advance.

Example 1: Static Perfect Hashing

- Suppose we have a fixed set of keys :

Data
bat
cat
dog

$$h(\text{key}) = g[h(\text{first_letter}) + h(\text{second_letter})] \% 3$$

Index	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26
Letter	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	i	j	k	l	m	n	o	p	q	r	s	t	u	v	w	x	y	z
value (g)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26

Example 1: Static Perfect Hashing

- Suppose we have a fixed set of keys :

$$h(\text{key}) = g[h(\text{first_letter}) + h(\text{second_letter})] \% 3$$

$$h(\text{bat}) = g[h(\text{b}) + h(\text{a})] \% 3 = (2+1)\%3 = 0$$

$$h(\text{cat}) = (3+1) \% 3 = 1$$

$$H(\text{dog}) = (4+15) \% 3 = 1 \rightarrow \text{Collision}$$

Data
bat
cat
dog

Index	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26
Letter	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	i	j	k	l	m	n	o	p	q	r	s	t	u	v	w	x	y	z
value (g)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26

Example 1: Static Perfect Hashing

- Suppose we have a fixed set of keys :

$$h(\text{key}) = g[h(\text{first_letter}) + h(\text{second_letter})] \% 3$$

$$h(\text{bat}) = g[h(\text{b}) + h(\text{a})] \% 3 = (2+1)\%3 = 0$$

$$h(\text{cat}) = (3+1) \% 3 = 1$$

$$H(\text{dog}) = (5+15) \% 3 = 2 \rightarrow \text{fixed!}$$

Data	index
bat	0
cat	1
dog	2

Index	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26
Letter	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	i	j	k	l	m	n	o	p	q	r	s	t	u	v	w	x	y	z
value (g)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26

Example 2: Perfect Hashing

- Hash the numbers 2,12,4,5,23,13,3
- Choose M = 10; $h_1 = x \bmod M$

1. $2 \bmod 10 = 2$
2. $12 \bmod 10 = 2$
3. $4 \bmod 10 = 4$
4. $5 \bmod 10 = 5$
5. $23 \bmod 10 = 3$
6. $13 \bmod 10 = 3$
7. $3 \bmod 10 = 4$

0	
1	
2	2,12
3	23,13,3
4	4
5	5
....	
9	

Example 2: Perfect Hashing

- Hash the numbers 2,12,4,5,23,13,3
- Choose M = 10; $h_1 = x \bmod M$

1. $2 \bmod 10 = 2$
2. $12 \bmod 10 = 2$
3. $4 \bmod 10 = 4$
4. $5 \bmod 10 = 5$
5. $23 \bmod 10 = 3$
6. $13 \bmod 10 = 3$
7. $3 \bmod 10 = 4$

Handling collisions

0	
1	
2	2,12
3	23,13,3
4	4
5	5
....	
9	

Example 2: Perfect Hashing

Handling collisions

0	
1	
2	2,12
3	23,13,3
4	4
5	5
....	
9	

- Bucket 2 hash two elements ($b_2 = 2$).
- We will make secondary hash table with a size of 4 ($b_2^2 = 4$) for this bucket.
- Secondary hash function $h_2^2 = x \bmod b_2^2 = x \% 4$
- Secondary hash function $h_3^2 = x \bmod b_3^2 = x \% 9$

Example 2: Perfect Hashing

Handling collisions

0	
1	
2	$x \bmod 4$
3	$x \bmod 9$
4	4
5	5
....	
9	

- $2 \bmod 4 = 2$
- $12 \bmod 4 = 0$
- $23 \bmod 9 = 5$
- $13 \bmod 9 = 4$
- $3 \bmod 9 = 3$

0	12
1	
2	2
3	

0	
1	
3	$x \bmod 4$
3	13
4	23
5	5
....	
8	

Dynamic hashing: Extendible hashing

- Fagin, R.; Nievergelt, J.; Pippenger, N.; Strong, H. R., "Extendible Hashing - A Fast Access Method for Dynamic Files", *ACM Transactions on Database Systems* **4** (3): 315–344, September, 1979.
- For a good overview, read:
http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Extendible_hashing