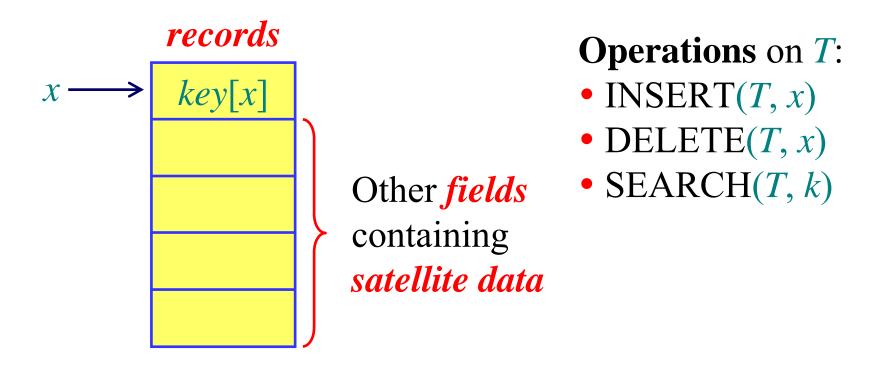
## Data Structures and Algorithm

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### Dictionary problem

Dictionary *T* holding *n records*:



How should the data structure *T* be organized?

### Assumptions

#### **Assumptions:**

- The set of keys is  $K \subseteq U = \{1, 2, \dots, u-1\}$
- Keys are distinct

What can we do?

#### Direct access table

Create a table  $T[0 \dots u-1]$ :

$$T[k] = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } k \in K \text{ and } key[x] = k, \\ \text{NIL} & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

#### Benefit:

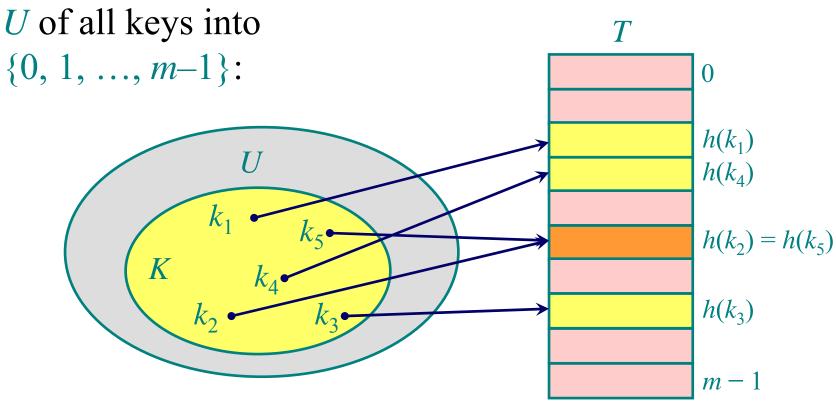
Each operation takes constant time

#### Drawbacks:

- The range of keys can be large:
  - 64-bit numbers (which represent 18,446,744,073,709,551,616 different keys),
  - character strings (even larger!)

#### Hash functions

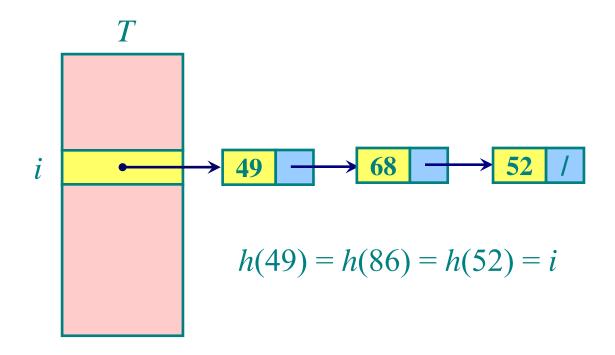
**Solution:** Use a *hash function h* to map the universe



When a record to be inserted maps to an already occupied slot in T, a *collision* occurs.

### Collisions resolution by chaining

Records in the same slot are linked into a list.



#### Hash functions

Designing good functions is quite nontrivial

For now, we assume they exist. Namely, we assume *simple uniform hashing*:

- Each key  $k \in K$  of keys is equally likely to be hashed to any slot of table T, independent of where other keys are hashed.

## Analysis of chaining

Let *n* be the number of keys in the table, and let *m* be the number of slots.

Define the *load factor* of *T* to be

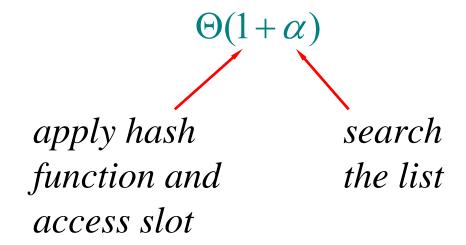
 $\alpha = n/m$ 

= average number of keys per slot.

The number of elements examined during a successful search for an element x is 1 more that the number of elements that appear before x in x's list.

#### Search cost

Expected time to search for a record with a given key



Expected search time =  $\Theta(1)$  if  $\alpha = O(1)$ , or equivalently, if n = O(m).

### Analysis of successful search

Let  $x_i$  denote the *i*th element inserted into the table, for i = 1, 2, ..., n, and let  $k_i = key[x_i]$ .

For keys  $k_i$  and  $k_j$ , we define the indicator variable  $X_{ij} = I\{h(k_i) = h(k_j)\}$ 

Under the assumption of simple uniform hashing, we have:

$$pr\{h(k_i) = h(k_j)\} = m \cdot (\frac{1}{m} \cdot \frac{1}{m}) = \frac{1}{m}$$

### Analysis of successful search

The expected number of elements examined in a successful search is

$$E\left[\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(1+\sum_{j=i+1}^{n}X_{ij}\right)\right] = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(1+\sum_{j=i+1}^{n}E\left[X_{ij}\right]\right)$$

$$=\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(1+\sum_{j=i+1}^{n}\frac{1}{m}\right)$$

$$=1+\frac{1}{nm}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(n-i\right)$$

$$=1+\frac{1}{nm}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n}n-\sum_{i=1}^{n}i\right)$$

### Analysis of successful search (cont.)

The expected number of elements examined in a successful search is

$$E\left[\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(1+\sum_{j=i+1}^{n}X_{ij}\right)\right] = 1 + \frac{1}{nm}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n}n-\sum_{i=1}^{n}i\right)$$

$$= 1 + \frac{1}{nm}\left(n^2 - \frac{n(n+1)}{2}\right)$$

$$= 1 + \frac{n-1}{2m}$$

$$= 1 + \frac{\alpha}{2} - \frac{\alpha}{2n}$$

$$= \Theta(1+\alpha)$$

### Operation of hash table

#### CHAINED-HASH-INSERT(T, x)

1. insert x at the head of list T[h(key[x])]

Running time:  $\Theta(1)$ 

#### CHAINED-HASH-SEARCH(T, k)

1. search for an element with key k in list T[h(k)]

**Running time:**  $\Theta(1+\alpha)$ 

#### CHAINED-HASH-DELETE(T, x)

1. delete x from the list T[h(key[x])]

**Running time:**  $\Theta(1+\alpha)$ 

### Dealing with wishful thinking

- A good hash function satisfies the (approximately) assumption of *simple uniform hashing*: each key is equally likely to hash to any of the *m* slots, independently of where any other key has hashed to.
- □ The assumption of simple uniform hashing is hard to guarantee, but several common techniques tend to work well in practice as long as their deficiencies can be avoided.

#### Division method

#### **Define**

$$h(k) = k \mod m$$
.

**Deficiency:** Don't pick an *m* that has a small divisor *d*. A preponderance of keys that are congruent modulo *d* can adversely affect uniformity.

Extreme deficiency: If  $m = 2^r$ , then the hash doesn't even depend on all the bits of k:

• If  $k = 1011000111 1011010_2$  and r = 6, then  $h(k) = 011010_2$ .

### Division method (cont.)

$$h(k) = k \mod m$$
.

Pick *m* to be a prime.

This method is popular, although the next method we'll see is usually superior.

### Multiplication method

Assume that all keys are integers,  $m = 2^r$ , and our computer has w-bit words. Define

$$h(k) = (A \cdot k \mod 2^w) \operatorname{rsh}(w - r),$$

where rsh is the "bit-wise right-shift" operator and A is an odd integer in the range  $2^{w-1} < A < 2^w$ .

- Don't pick A too close to  $2^w$ .
- Multiplication modulo  $2^w$  is fast.
- The rsh operator is fast.

### Multiplication method example

$$h(k) = (A \cdot k \mod 2^w) \operatorname{rsh}(w - r),$$

Suppose that  $m = 8 = 2^3$  and that our computer has w = 7-bit words:

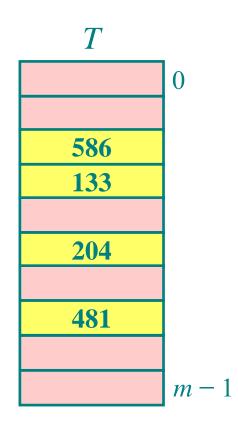
### Open addressing

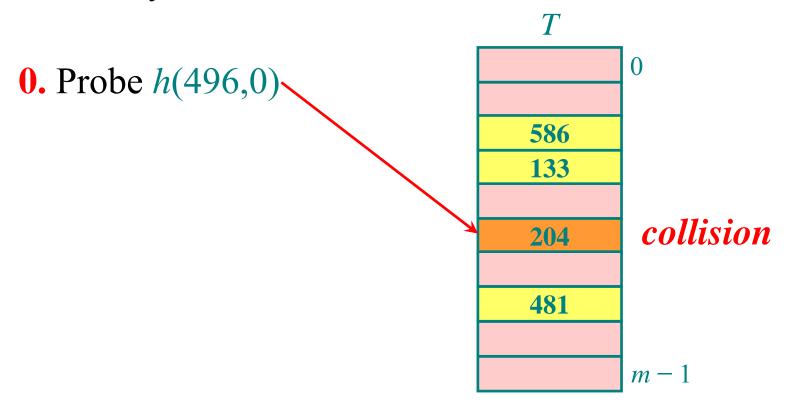
All elements are stored in the hash table itself.

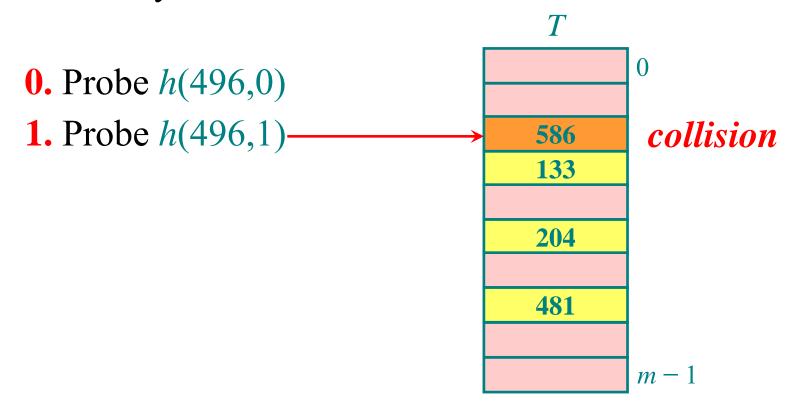
- Insertion systematically probes the table until an empty slot is found.
- The hash function depends on both the key and probe number:

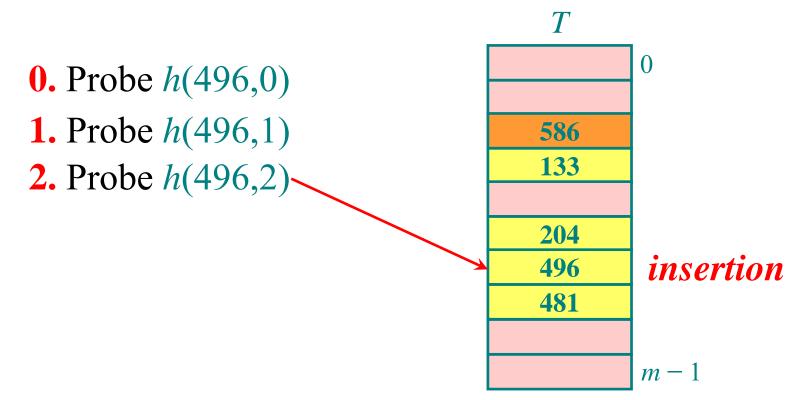
```
h: U \times \{0, 1, ..., m-1\} \rightarrow \{0, 1, ..., m-1\}.
```

- The *probe sequence*  $\langle h(k,0), h(k,1), ..., h(k,m-1) \rangle$  should be a permutation of  $\{0, 1, ..., m-1\}$ .
- The table may fill up, and deletion is difficult (one solution is to mark the slot by storing in it the special value DELETED instead of NIL)

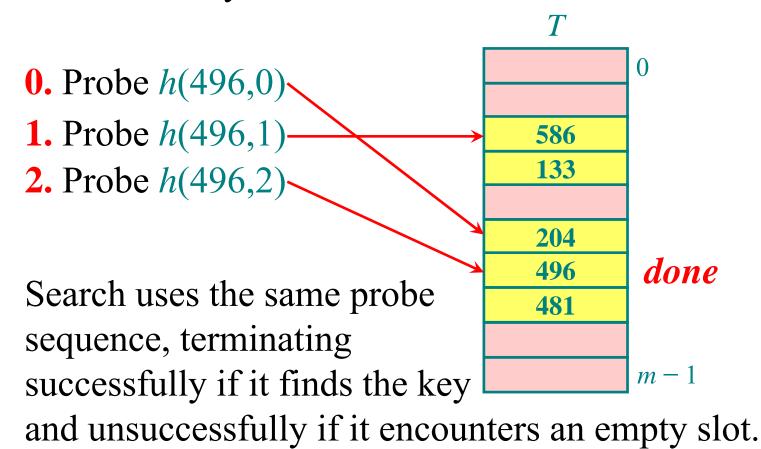








Search for key k = 496:



### Probing strategies

#### **Linear probing:**

Given an ordinary hash function h'(k), linear probing uses the hash function

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

This method, though simple, suffers from *primary clustering*, where long runs of occupied slots build up, increasing the average search time. Moreover, the long runs of occupied slots tend to get longer.

### Probing strategies

#### **Quadratic probing:**

Given an ordinary hash function h'(k), quadratic probing uses the hash function

$$h(k,i) = (h'(k) + c_1i + c_2i^2) \mod m$$
.

If two keys have the same initial probe position, then their probe sequences are the same, since  $h(k_1, 0) = h(k_2, 0)$  implies  $h(k_1, i) = h(k_2, i)$ . this property leads to a milder form of clustering, called *secondary clustering*.

## Probing strategies

#### **Double hashing:**

Given two ordinary hash functions  $h_1(k)$  and  $h_2(k)$ , double hashing uses the hash function

$$h(k,i) = (h_1(k) + i \cdot h_2(k)) \mod m$$
.

This method generally produces excellent results, but  $h_2(k)$  must be relatively prime to m. One way is to make m a power of 2 and design  $h_2(k)$  to produce only odd numbers.

## Analysis of open addressing

We make the assumption of *uniform hashing*:

• Each key is equally likely to have any one of the *m*! permutations as its probe sequence.

**Theorem.** Given an open-addressed hash table with load factor  $\alpha = n/m < 1$ , the expected number of probes in an unsuccessful search is at most  $1/(1-\alpha)$ .

#### Proof of the theorem

Define the random variable X to be the number of probes made in an unsuccessful search, and also define the event  $A_i$ , for i = 1, 2, ..., to be the event that there is an ith probe and it is to an occupied slot.

$$\Pr\{X \ge i\} = \Pr\{A_{1} \cap A_{2} \cap \dots \cap A_{i-1}\}$$

$$= \Pr\{A_{1}\} \cdot \Pr\{A_{2} \mid A_{1}\} \cdot \Pr\{A_{3} \mid A_{1} \cap A_{2}\} \cdots$$

$$\Pr\{A_{i-1} \mid A_{1} \cap A_{2} \cap \dots \cap A_{i-2}\}$$

$$= \frac{n}{m} \cdot \frac{n-1}{m-1} \cdot \frac{n-2}{m-2} \cdots \frac{n-i+2}{m-i+2}$$

$$\le (n/m)^{i-1}$$

$$= \alpha^{i-1}$$

### Proof of the theorem (cont.)

$$E[X] = \sum_{i=0}^{n} i \Pr[X = i]$$

$$\leq \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} i \Pr[X = i]$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} i \left( \Pr\{X \ge i\} - \Pr\{X \ge i + 1\} \right)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \Pr\{X \ge i\}$$

$$\leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \alpha^{i-1}$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \alpha^{i}$$

$$= \frac{1}{1 - \alpha^{i}}$$

### Analysis of open addressing

**Theorem.** Given an open-addressed hash table with load factor  $\alpha = n/m < 1$ , the expected number of probes in an successful search is at most .

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

If k was the (i + 1)st key inserted into the hash table, the expected number of probes made in a search for k is at most 1/(1 - i/m) = m/(m - i).

#### Proof of the theorem

Averaging over all n keys in the hash table gives us the average number of probes in a successful search:

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \frac{m}{m-i} = \frac{m}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \frac{1}{m-i}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\alpha} \sum_{k=m-n+1}^{m} \frac{1}{k}$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{\alpha} \int_{m-n}^{m} (1/x) dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{\alpha} \ln \frac{m}{m-n}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\alpha} \ln \frac{1}{1-\alpha}$$

# Any question?

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