

Motivation

Arrays provide an indirect way to access a set.

Many times we need an association between two sets, or a set of keys and associated data.

Ideally we would like to access this data directly with the keys.

We would like a data structure that supports fast search, insertion, and deletion.

Do not usually care about sorting.

The abstract data type is usually called a Dictionary or Partial Map

Applications are in Symbol table ,Direct Access files.

2

1

Dictionaries What is the best way to implement this? Linked Lists? Double Linked Lists? Queues? Stacks? Multiple indexed arrays (e.g., data[key[i]])? To answer this, ask what is the complexity of the : Insertion Deletion Search operations.

Direct Addressing

Let's look at an easy case, suppose:

The range of keys is 0..m-1Keys are distinct

Possible solution

Set up an array T[0..m-1] in which T[i] = x If $x \in T$ and key[x] = i T[i] = NULL otherwise

This is called a direct-address table

Operations take O(1) time!

So what's the problem?

Direct Addressing

- ☐ Direct addressing works well when the range *m* of keys is relatively small
- ☐ But what If the keys are 32-bit integers?
 - Problem 1: direct-address table will have 2³² entries, more than 4 billion
 - Problem 2: even If memory is not an issue, the time to initialize the elements to NULL may be
- \square Solution: map keys to smaller range 0..p-1
 - Desire $p = \mathbf{O}(m)$.

5

Hash Tables- overview

- ☐ All search structures so far
 - Relied on a comparison operation
 - Linear Performance O(n)
 - Non linear $O(\log n)$
 - Assume I have a function
 - $\blacksquare f(key) \rightarrow integer$

I.e. one that maps a key to an integer

□ What performance might I expect now?

6

Hash Table

Key - DBWs

- A hash table is a list in which each member is accessed through a key.
- The key is used to determine where to store the value in the table.
- The function that produces a location from the key is called the *hash* function.
- For example, if it were a hash table of strings, the hash function might compute the sum of the ASCII values of the first 5 characters of the string, modulo the size of the table.

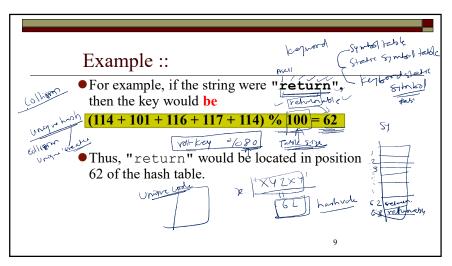
Hashing

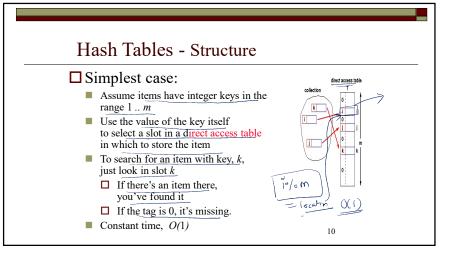
8

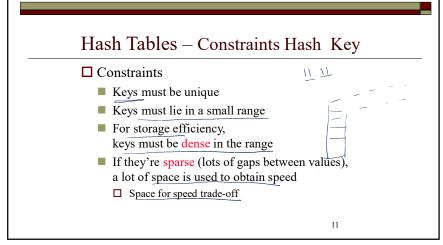
- □ Component of Hashing
- ☐ Hash key: Unique attribute from data set.
- ☐ Hash function: maps key K into an address.(integer value)
- ☐ Hash Table : Array / linked list

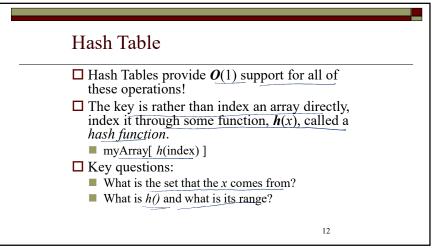
8

7

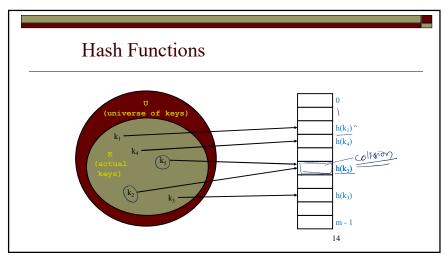


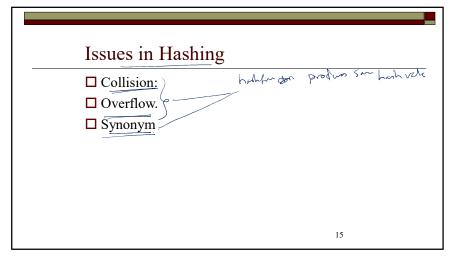


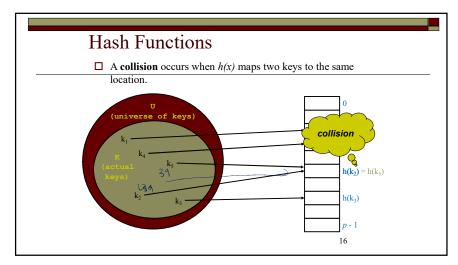


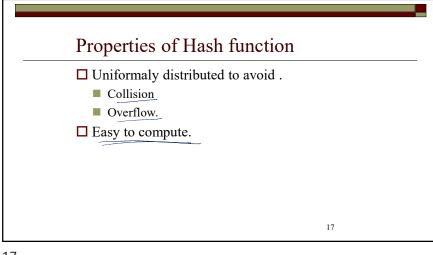


Hash Functions A hash function, h, maps keys of a given type to integers in a fixed interval [0, N-1]Example: $h(x) = x \mod N$ is a hash function for integer keys The integer h(x) is called the hash value of x. A hash table for a given key type consists of Hash function hArray (called table) of size NThe goal is to store item (k, o) at index i = h(k)





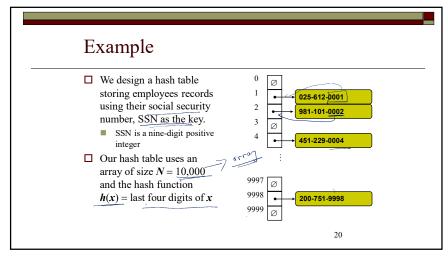


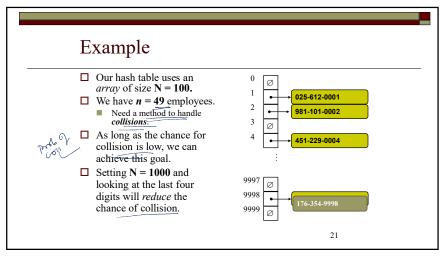


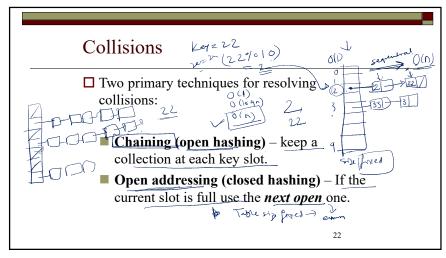
Hash table

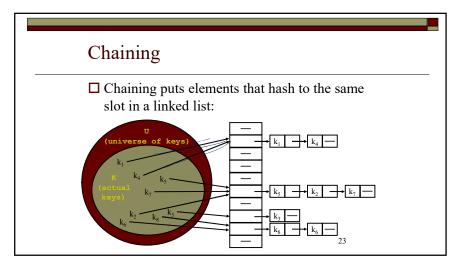
Array of buckets.

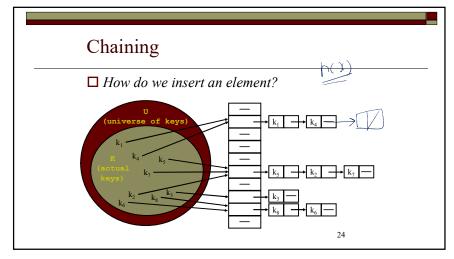
Buckets of size 1: max -1.

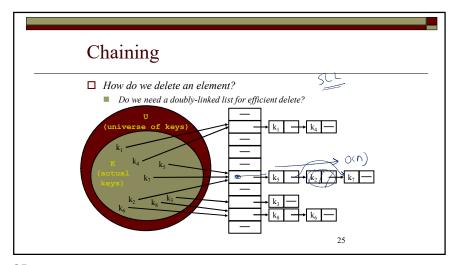


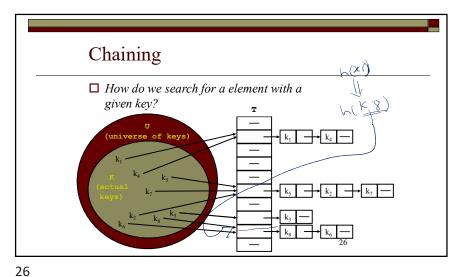


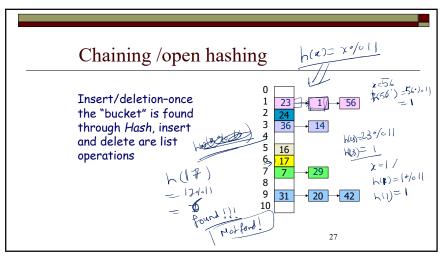


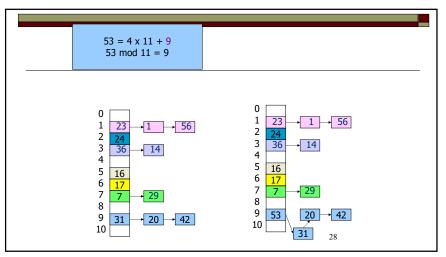


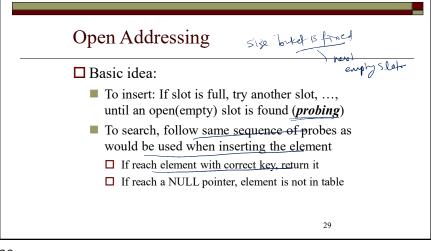












Open Addressing

□ The colliding item is placed in a different cell of the same table.

■ No dynamic memory.

■ Fixed Table size.

■ To pace the item in next available slot probing is used.

□ Load factor: n/N, where n is the number of items to store and N the size of the hash table.

■ Cleary, n ≤ N, or n/N ≤ 1.

□ To get a reasonable performance, n/N < 0.5.30

29 30

Collision solving techniques in closed hashing ::

They key question is what should the next cell to try be?

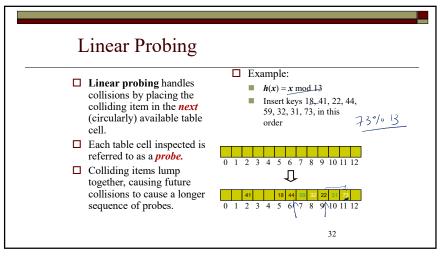
Random would be great, but we need to be able to Repeat it.

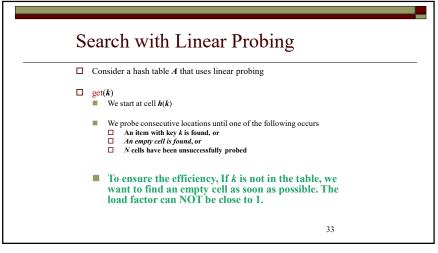
Three common techniques:

Linear Probing (useful for discussion only)

Quadratic Probing

Double Hashing





Linear Probing ☐ Search for key=20. ☐ Example: $h(20)=20 \mod 13 = 7.$ Go through rank 8, 9, ..., 12, ■ Insert keys 18, 41, 22, 44, 59, 32, 31, 73, 12, 20 in this order ☐ Search for key=15 ■ h(15)=15 mod 13=2. ■ Go through rank 2, 3 and 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 return null. 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 34

33

Updates with Linear Probing \square Insert (k, o)☐ To handle insertions and deletions, we introduce a special ■ We throw an exception If the object, called AVAILABLE, table is full which replaces deleted elements We start at cell h(k)■ We probe consecutive cells until one of the following We search for an entry with key A cell i is found that is either ■ If such an entry (k, o) is found, empty or stores AVAILABLE, we replace it with the special item AVAILABLE and we N cells have been unsuccessfully probed return element o■ Have to modify other methods We store entry (k, o) in cell ito skip available cells. 35

If collision happens, alternative

cells are tried until an empty cell

is found.

Linear probing:

Try next available position

2 24

4 4

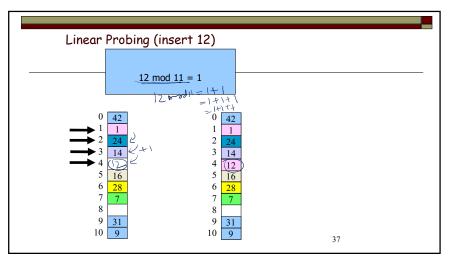
6 28

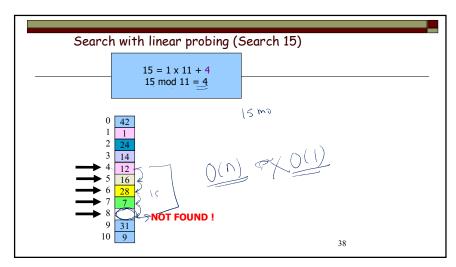
7 7

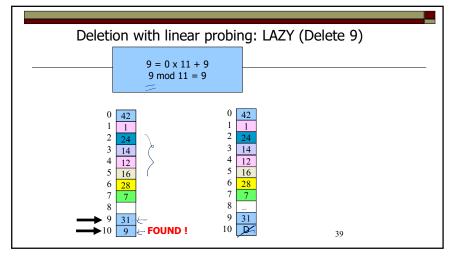
7 7

10 9

31







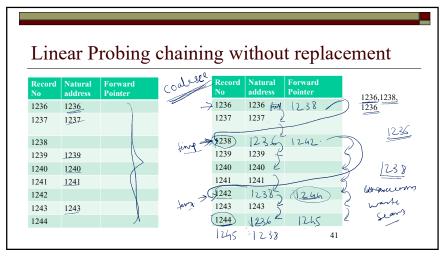
Load Factor in Linear Probing

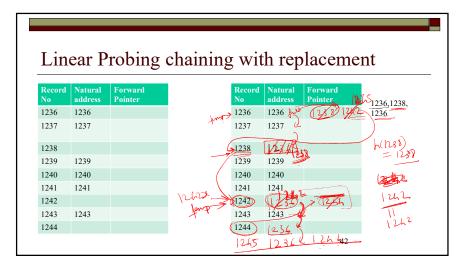
- For any $\lambda < 1$, linear probing will find an empty slot
- Search cost (for large table sizes)
 - successful search: $\frac{1}{2}\left(1+\frac{1}{(1-1)}\right)$

- unsuccessful search: $\frac{1}{2} \left(1 + \frac{1}{(1-\lambda)^2} \right)$

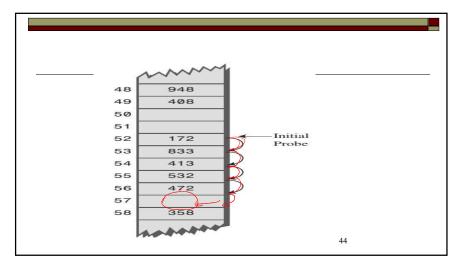
- Linear probing suffers from primary clustering
- Performance quickly degrades for $\lambda > 1/2$

40





Primary Clustering □ Phenomenon in which two keys that hashes into different values compete with each other in successive rehashes is called Primary clustering. □ One way of eliminating primary clustering is to allow rehash function to depend on the number of times that the function is applied to a particular hash function. □ Ex. Rh(i,j) (i+j) % tablesize



Quadratic Probing

- ☐ Primary clustering occurs with linear probing because the same linear pattern:
- ☐ Instead of searching forward in a linear fashion, consider searching forward using a quadratic function

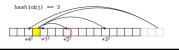
45

Quadratic Probing

- ☐ Suppose that an element should appear in bin *h*:
 - If bin *h* is occupied, Then check the following sequence of bins:

$$h+1^2$$
, $h+2^2$, $h+3^2$, $h+4^2$, $h+5^2$, ...
 $h+1$, $h+4$, $h+9$, $h+16$, $h+25$, ...

 \square For example, with M = 17:



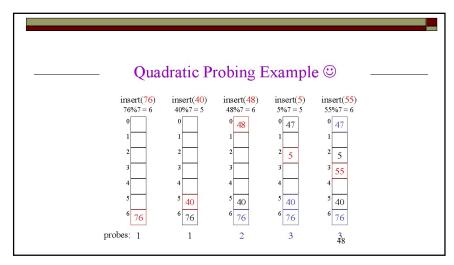
46

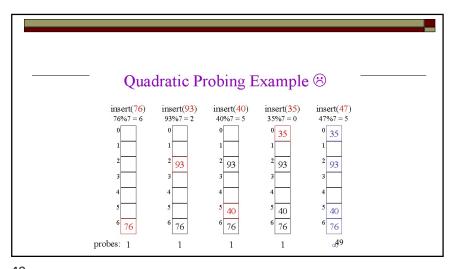
45 46

Quadratic Probing

- ☐ For example, suppose an element was to be inserted in bin 23 in a hash table with 31 bins
- ☐ The sequence in which the bins would be checked is:

 $23,\,24,\,27,\,1,\,8,\,17,\,28,\,10,\,25,\,11,\,30,\,20,\,12,\,6,\,2,\,0$





Quadratic Probing

- ☐ Even If two bins are initially close, the sequence in which subsequent bins are checked varies greatly
- ☐ Again, with M = 31 bins, compare the first 16 bins which are checked starting with 22 and 23:

22, 23, 26, 0, 7, 16, 27, 9, 24, 10, 29, 19, 11, 5, 1, 30 23, 24, 27, 1, 8, 17, 28, 10, 25, 11, 30, 20, 12, 6, 2, 0

50

49

Quadratic Probing

- ☐ Thus, quadratic probing solves the problem of primary clustering
- ☐ Unfortunately, there is a second problem which must be dealt with
- \square Suppose we have M = 8 bins:

$$1^2 \equiv 1, 2^2 \equiv 4, 3^2 \equiv 1$$

 \square In this case, we are checking bin h+1 twice having checked only one other bin

51

Quadratic Probing

☐ Unfortunately, there is no guarantee that

$$h + i^2 \mod M$$

will cycle through 0, 1, ..., M-1

☐ Solution:

50

- require that M be prime
- in this case, $h \pm i^2 \mod M$ for i = 0, ..., (M-1)/2 will cycle through exactly (M+1)/2 values before repeating

52

Quadratic Probing

- \square Example with M = 11:
 - $0, 1, 4, 9, 16 \equiv 5, 25 \equiv 3, 36 \equiv 3$
- \square With M = 13:
 - $0, 1, 4, 9, 16 \equiv 3, 25 \equiv 12, 36 \equiv 10, 49 \equiv 10$
- \square With M = 17:
 - $0, 1, 4, 9, 16, 25 \equiv 8, 36 \equiv 2, 49 \equiv 15, 64 \equiv 13, 81 \equiv 13$
- ☐ Thus, quadratic probing avoids primary clustering
- ☐ Unfortunately, we are not guaranteed that we will use all the slots.

Load Factor in Quadratic Probing

- For any $\lambda \leq \frac{1}{2}$, quadratic probing will find an empty slot; for greater λ , quadratic probing may find a slot
- · Quadratic probing does not suffer from primary clustering
- Quadratic probing does suffer from secondary clustering
 - How could we possibly solve this?

54

53 54

Secondary Clustering

- Secondary Clustering is the tendency for a collision resolution scheme such as quadratic probing to create long runs of filled slots away from the hash position of keys.
- If the primary hash index is x, probes go to x+1, x+4, x+9, x+16, x+25 and so on, this results in Secondary Clustering.
- Secondary clustering is less severe in terms of performance hit than primary clustering, and is an attempt to keep clusters from forming by using Quadratic Probing. The idea is to probe more widely separated cells, instead of those adjacent to the primary hash site.

mm Initial 10 12 13 14 15 16 898 17 18 56

55

55

Secondary Clustering

- ☐ The phenomenon of primary clustering will not occur with quadratic probing
- ☐ However, If multiple items all hash to the same initial bin, the same sequence of numbers will be followed. This is termed secondary clustering
- ☐ The effect is less significant than that of primary clustering

57

Double Hashing (Solution Of secondary clustering)

Use two hash functions

If M is prime, eventually will examine every position in the table

double_hash_insert(K)
{

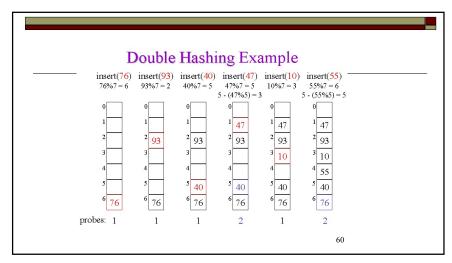
if(table is full) error
probe = h1(K)
offset = h2(K)
while (table[probe] occupied)
probe = (probe + offset) mod M
table[probe] = K
}

57 58

Double Hashing

- ☐ Many of same (dis)advantages as linear probing
- ☐ Distributes keys more uniformly than linear probing does
- ☐ Notes:
 - \blacksquare h2(x) should never return zero.
 - M should be prime.

59



Load Factor in Double Hashing

- For any λ < 1, double hashing will find an empty slot (given appropriate table size and hash₂)
- Search cost appears to approach optimal (random hash):
 - successful search: $\frac{1}{\lambda} \ln \frac{1}{1-\lambda}$
 - unsuccessful search: $\frac{1}{1-\lambda}$
- · No primary clustering and no secondary clustering
- · One extra hash calculation

61

Open Addressing Summary

☐ In general, the hash function contains two arguments now:

■ Key value

■ Probe number h(k,p), p=0,1,...,m-1

☐ Probe sequences

 $\langle h(k,0), h(k,1), ..., h(k,m-1) \rangle$

■ Should be a permutation of <0,1,...,m-1>

There are m! possible permutations

Good hash functions should be able to produce all ml probe sequences

62

61

Open Addressing Summary

- \square None of the methods discussed can generate more than m^2 different probing sequences.
- ☐ Linear Probing:
 - Clearly, only m probe sequences.
- ☐ Quadratic Probing:
 - The initial key determines a fixed probe sequence, so
 - only m distinct probe sequences.
- □ Double Hashing
 - Each possible pair $(h_1(k),h_2(k))$ yields a distinct probe, so m^2 permutations.

63

Algorithm for separate chaining

```
typedef struct node
{
   int data;
   struct node *next;
}Node;

Node *hasht(100);
```

64

Contd..

Procedure INITIALIZE(A, N):A is an array of pointers. N is max. size

- 1. I**←**0
- 1. Repeat thru step 3 while I<N
 A[I]=NULL
- 3. I← I+1

65

INSERTION IN HASHTABLE(chaining) PROCEDURE INSERTH(A, N, KEY) 1.LOC ← KEY % N 2.P ← A[LOC] 3.Repeat while (P!=NULL AND KEY!=DATA(P)) P←NEXT(P) 4. if(P=NULL) Then Q <= NODE DATA(Q)← X NEXT(Q) ← A[LOC] A[LOC] ← Q 5. RETURN 66

65

SEARCH FROM HASHTABLE(chaining)

FUNCTION SEARCH(A, N, KEY):

- 1. LOC←KEY % N
- 1. $P \leftarrow A[LOC]$
- Repeat while (P!=NULL AND X!=DATA(P))
 P ← NEXT(P)
- 4. RETURN P

67

Algorithm for Linear Probing

Procedure initializeL (FLAG, N):FLAG is an array of Integers. N is max. size

- □ I←0
- □ Repeat thru step 3 while I<N FLAG[I]=0
- □ I← I+1

68

```
Insertion (Linear probing without replacement without chaining)

PROCEDURE INSERTHL(A, FLAG, N, KEY):

AND FLAG ARE INTEGER ARRAY OF SIZE N. KEY IS A KEY VALUE TO BE INSERTED

1. J ← KEY % N

I ← 0

2. Repeat while I<N

If (FLAG[J] = 0)

Then A[J] = KEY

FLAG[J] = 1

BREAK

Else

I ← 1+1

J ← (J+1)%KEY

3. RETURN

69
```

```
Insertion (Linear probing with replacement without chaining)

PROCEDURE INSERTHL(A, FLAG, N, KEY):

AAND FLAG ARE INTEGER ARRAY OF SIZE N. KEY IS A KEY VALUE TO BE INSERTED

1. LOC← KEY % N

I←0

2. If (FLAG[LOC] = 0)

Then A|LOC| ← KEY

FLAG|LOC| ← 1

RETURN

3. I←0

J←LOC

Repeat while I<N AND FLAG[J] = 1

J←(J+1) % N

I←I+1

71
```

```
CONTD..

4. If I=N
Then WRITE('TABLE IS FULL')
Else If (A[LOC] \% N != LOC)
Then A[J] \leftarrow A[LOC]
FLAG[J] \leftarrow 1
A[LOC] \leftarrow KEY
FLAG[LOC] \leftarrow 1
Else
A[J] \leftarrow KEY
FLAG[J] \leftarrow 1
5. RETURN
```

Three situation (with replacement with chaining)

- 1. Hashed location is empty
- 1. Hashed location is occupied by an element which is not a synonym of the current element (mapped location contains an element which belongs to a different chain)
- 1. Hashed location is occupied by an element which is synonym of the current element.

74

73 74

```
Structure of Hashtable

Struct ht

{
    int DATA;
    int FLAG;
    int CHAIN;
};
Struct ht A[10];
```

```
Algorithm for Linear Probing (with chaining)

Procedure initializeL (A, N):

□ I←0

□ Repeat thru step 3 While I<N
FLAG(A[I])=0
CHAIN(A[I])=-1

□ I← I+1
```

```
Insertion (Linear probing with replacement with chaining)
PROCEDURE INSERTHL(A, N, KEY):
1. LOC← KEY % N
    I←0
    If (FLAG(A[LOC]) = 0)
                                 (1st situation)
     Then DATA(A[LOC]) ← KEY
        FLAG (A[LOC]) ←1
        RETURN

 I← 0

    J←LOC
    Repeat while I<N AND FLAG(A[J]) =1
         J←(J+1) % N
          I←I+1
                                                    77
```

```
CONTD..
4. If I=N
         Then WRITE('TABLE IS FULL')
            RETURN
                                                                                   (2nd situation)
5. If (DATA(A[LOC]) % N != LOC)
         Then I←DATA(A[LOC]) % N
                   Repeat while(CHAIN( A[I] )!=LOC)
                  I←CHAIN(A[I])
CHAIN(A[I]) ←CHAIN(A[LOC])
                  Repeat while (CHAIN(A[I] != -1)
I←CHAIN(A[I])
                  CHAIN(A[I]) \leftarrow J
                 \begin{aligned} & \operatorname{DATA}(A[J]) \bigstar \operatorname{DATA}(A[\operatorname{LOC}]) \\ & \operatorname{FLAG}(A[J]) \bigstar 1 \\ & \operatorname{CHAIN}(A[J]) \bigstar - 1 \\ & \operatorname{DATA}(A[\operatorname{LOC}]) \bigstar \operatorname{KEY} \end{aligned}
                  FLAG(A[LOC])← 1
                                                                                                                        78
                  CHAIN(A[LOC]) ← -1
```

```
CONTD..
                  6. If (DATA(A[LOC]) \% N = LOC)
                                                                 (3rd situation)
                       Then DATA(A[J]) ←KEY
                             FLAG(A[J]) \leftarrow 1
                             CHAIN(A[J]) \leftarrow -1
                             I←LOC
                             Repeat while (CHAIN(A[I] != -1)
                                   I ← CHAIN(A[I])
                             CHAIN(A[I] ) ← J
                        RETURN
                  7. RETURN
                                                                               79
79
```

```
Search \ ({\scriptstyle \tt Linear\ probing\ with\ replacement\ with\ chaining}\ )
FUNCTION SEARCH(A, N, KEY):
1. I←0
LOC←KEY % N
    Repeat while (I<N AND FLAG(A[LOC])=1 AND DATA(A[LOC]) %N!=LOC)
       LOC←(LOC+1)%N
    IF(FLAG(A[LOC] != 1 OR I=N)
     Then RETURN -1
        Repeat while LOC != -1
           If (DATA(A[LOC])=KEY)
               RETURN LOC
               LOC←CHAIN(A[LOC])
                                                             80
    RETURN -1
```

Choosing A Hash Function

- ☐ Clearly choosing the hash function well is crucial.
- ☐ What are desirable characteristics of the good hash function?
 - Should distribute keys uniformly into slots
 - Should minimize number of collisions
 - Should be easy to compute
- An essential requirement of the hash function is to map equal keys to equal indices

81

Popular Compression Maps

- 1. Division Method
- 1. Multiplicative Method
- 1. Midsquare Method
- 1. Folding Method

82

81

DIVISION METHOD

□ Division

• Use a mod function

 $h(k) = k \mod m$

 \blacksquare Choice of m?

□Powers of 2 are generally not good!

²ⁿ 0110010111000011010

 $h(k) = k \mod 2^n$ selects last *n* bits of *k*

oits of K

All combinations are not generally equally likely

■ Prime numbers close to 2^n seem to be good choices

eg want ~4000 entry table, choose m = 4093

83

k mod 28 selects these bits

The Multiplication Method

■ This method is based on obtaining an address of a key based on multiplication value. If K is a non negative key and constant A(0 < A < 1) Then compute KA mod 1 which is fractional part of KA. Multiply this fractional part by m and take floor value to get the address (index). i.e

 \square For a constant A, 0 < A < 1 and $0 \le h(k) \le m$

 \square h(k) = $\lfloor m (kA \mod 1) \rfloor$

What does this term represent?

84

The Multiplication Method

- Multiply the key by constant, A, 0 < A < 1
- Extract the fractional part of the product $(kA \lfloor kA \rfloor)$
- Multiply this by *m*

 $h(k) = \lfloor m * (kA - \lfloor kA \rfloor) \rfloor$

- Now m is not critical and a power of 2 can be chosen
- So this procedure is fast on a typical digital computer
 - \square Set $m = 2^p$
 - \square Multiply k (w bits) by $\lfloor A \cdot 2^w \rfloor \square 2w$ bit product
 - \square Extract p most significant bits of lower half
 - \Box A = $\frac{1}{2}(\sqrt{5} 1)$ seems to be a good choice (see Knuth)

85

Midsquare method

- ☐ Square the value of key and take the number of digits required to form an address from the middle position of squared value.
- ☐ Ex. Suppose a key value is 16 Then its square is 256. now If we want address of one digit Then select the address 5.
- ☐ Poor performance compared to previous two methods.

86

85

Folding Method

- ☐ Break up a key into several segments that are added or exclusive-ored together to form a hash value
- □ Ex. Suppose internal bit representation of key is: 0101110010101010 and 5 bits are allowed in index Then divide string into group of 5 bits i.e. 01011 10010 10110 make exclusive or which will produce 01111 which is 15 as a binary integer.
- ☐ Two keys ,in which both keys consist of the same group of k bits in different order, hashes into same k bit value i.e generates collision.

87

Hash Tables - Load factor

- □ *simple uniform hashing*: each key in table is equally likely to be hashed to any slot.
- ☐ Collisions are very probable!
- ☐ Table load factor

 $\alpha = \frac{n}{m}$ n = number of itemsm = number of slots

must be kept low

- ☐ Separate chaining
 - linked lists attached to each slot gives best performance

but uses more space!

88

Hash Tables - General Design

- ☐ Choose the table size
 - · Large tables reduce the probability of collisions!
 - Table size, m
 - n items
 - Collision probability $\alpha = n/m$
- ☐ Choose a table organisation
 - · Does the collection keep growing?
 - · Linked lists
 - · Size relatively static?
 - · Re-hash
- ☐ Choose a Good hash function

89

Analysis of Open Addressing

- \square Consider the load factor, α , and assume each key is uniformly hashed.
- \square Probability that we hit an occupied cell is Then α .
- Probability that the next probe hits an occupied cell is also α.
- \square Will terminate If an unoccupied cell is hit: $\alpha(1-\alpha)$.
- □ From Theorem 11.6, the expected number of probes in an *unsuccessful* search is at most $1/(1-\alpha)$.
- ☐ Theorem 11.8: Expected number of probes in a successful search is at most:

$$\frac{1}{\alpha} \ln \left(\frac{1}{1-\alpha} \right)$$

91

Analysis of Chaining

- □ What will be the average cost of an unsuccessful search for a key? = O(1+ α)
- □ What will be the **average** cost of a successful search? = $O(1 + \alpha/2) = O(1 + \alpha)$
- \square So the cost of searching = $O(1 + \alpha)$
- \square If the number of keys n is proportional to the number of slots in the table, what is α ?

 $\alpha = O(1)$

90

In other words, we can make the expected cost of searching constant If we make α constant

90