Recap

- Hashing
 - Hash function
 - Hash table
- Collision
 - Collision resolution
 - Linear probing

Considerations

- If the table is sparsely populated, searching is fast since we'd expect to perform one or two probes.
- If the table is nearly full, we will be spending most of our time resolving collisions. What is the worst case?
 - Probing for <u>an open slot</u> handles collisions, but won't help if we run out of slots.
- Collision tend to form groups of items
 - We call these groups clusters.
- Clusters tend to grow quickly. (Snowball effect)

Load Factor

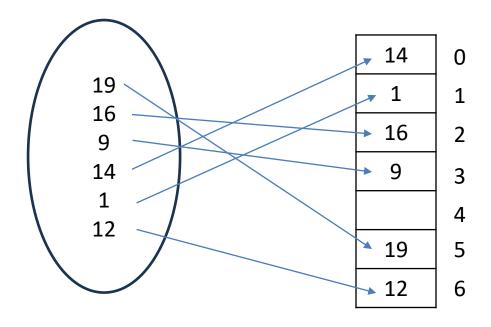
 Load Factor = (Items in table)/(Size of the hash table)

- The current value of load factor affects the performance significantly
 - Let's define a hit as finding an item.
 - Let's define a miss as discovering that an item doesn't exist.

Simple Example

• Hash function: H(k)=k%7

Number of probes = 1 + 1 + 2 + 1 + 1 + 2 = 8



Load Factor = 6/7 = 0.86

Knuth's Formulas

- Show how probing is directly related to the load factor x, for a non-full table.
- Average number of probes for a hit: $\frac{1+\frac{1}{1-x}}{\frac{1}{x}}$

• Average number of probes for a miss: $\frac{1+\frac{1}{(1-x)^2}}{2}$

$$\frac{1+\frac{1}{(1-x)^2}}{2}$$

Knuth's Formulas

Load Factor (%)	Probe hits	Probe misses
5	1.03	1.05
10	1.09	1.12
20	1.13	1.28
30	1.21	1.52
40	1.33	1.89
50	1.50	2.50
60	1.75	3.62
70	2.17	6.06
80	3.00	13.00
90	5.50	50.50
95	10.5	200.50

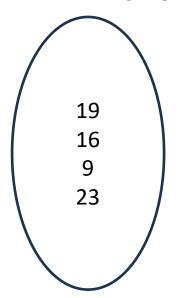
- The fundamental problem with linear probing is that all of the probes trace the same sequence.
- Quadratic probing: 1, 4, 9, 16, 25, etc.
- Pseudo-random probing: Probe by a random value
 - Must use key as the seed to ensure repeatability
- Double hashing: Use another hash function to determine the probe sequence.
 - Hash function: P(K), primary hash gives starting point (index)
 - Probe function: S(K), second hash gives the stride (offset for subsequent probes)

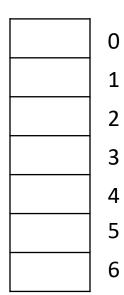
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- Index from the hash function:

$$y, y+1, y+2^2, y+3^2 \dots$$

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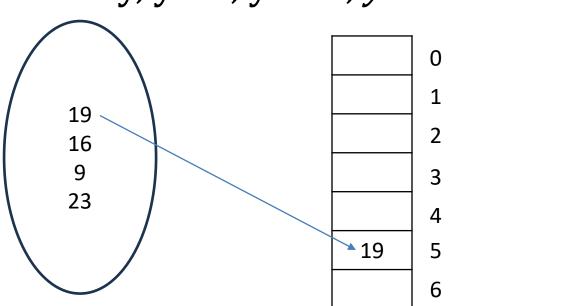
$$y, y+1, y+2^2, y+3^2 \dots$$





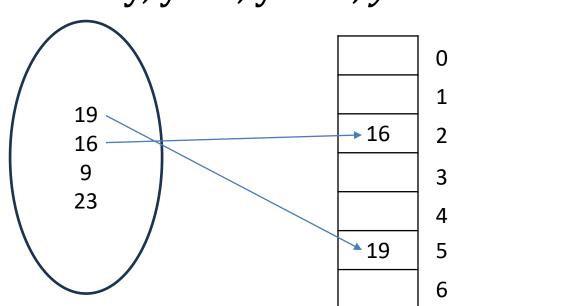
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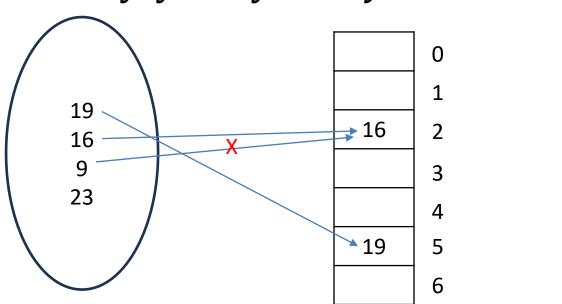
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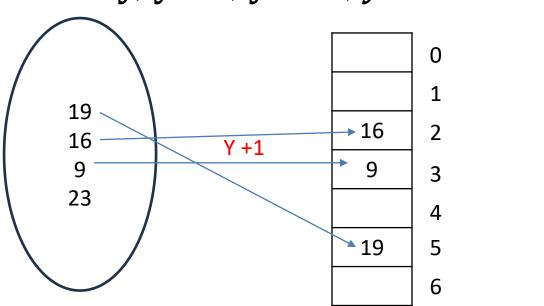
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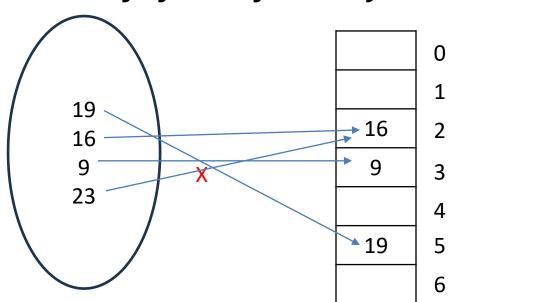
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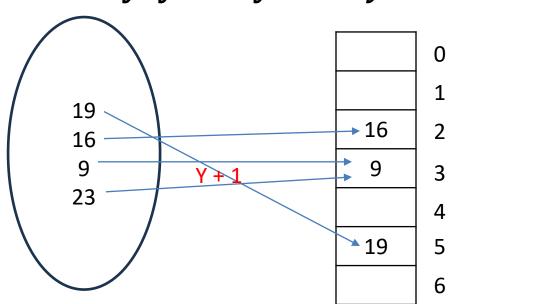
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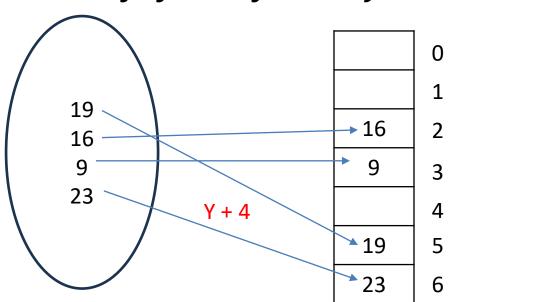
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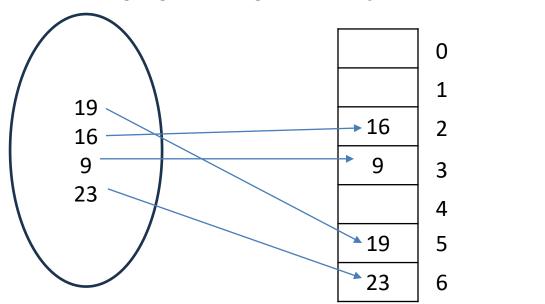
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Number of probes = 1 + 1 + 2 + 3 = 7

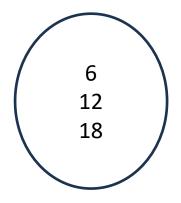
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 - Must use key as the seed to ensure repeatability

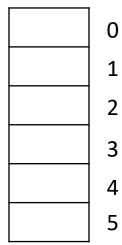
- Double hashing: Use another hash function to determine the probe sequence.
 - Hash function: P(K), primary hash gives starting point (index)
 - Probe function: S(K), second hash gives the stride (offset for subsequent probes)

- P(k) is the primary Hash function and is computed once for searches.
- S(k) is the Secondary Hash and is computed once only if there was a collision with P(k).
- First probe is just for the primary hash: P(k)
- Second probe: P(k) + S(k)
- Third probe: P(k) + 2S(k)
- Fourth probe: P(k) + 3S(k), etc.

$$h(x) = x \% 6$$

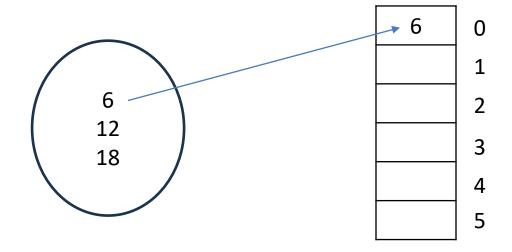
$$g(x)=(x\%5)+1$$





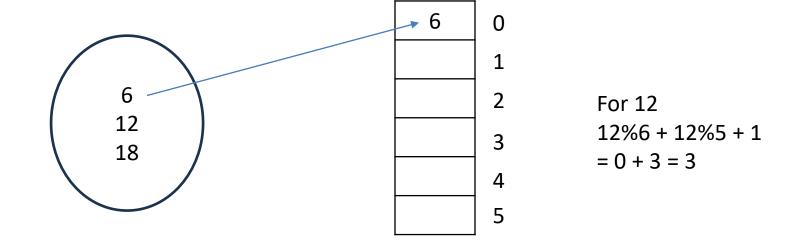
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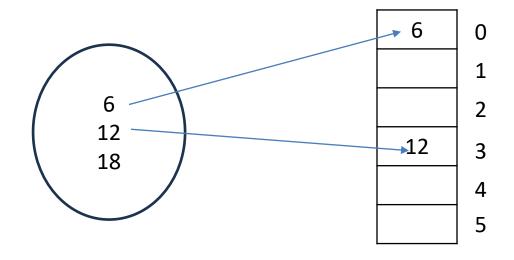
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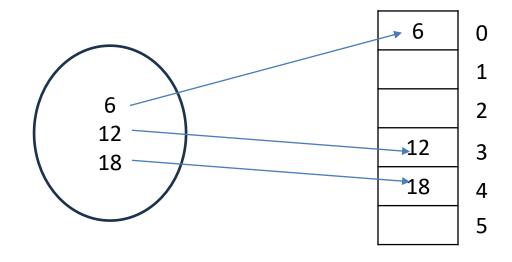
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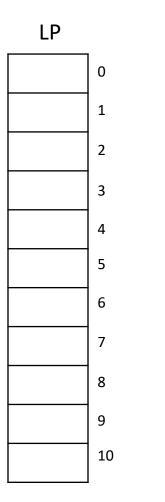
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$$g(x)=(x\%5)+1$$



- Insert the following keys into a hash table of size 11, using P(k)=k%11
 - Linear probing
 - Quadratic probing
 - Double hashing S(k)=k%7+1

• 11,22,33,12,13,25,18



QP	
	0
	1
	2
	3
	4
	5
	6
	7
	8
	9
	10
I	

DH	
	0
	1
	2
	3
	4
	5
	6
	7
	8
	9
	10
	I

$$h(x) = x \% 11$$

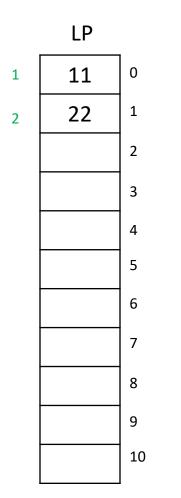
 $g(x)=(x\%7)+1$

11,22,33,12,13,25,18

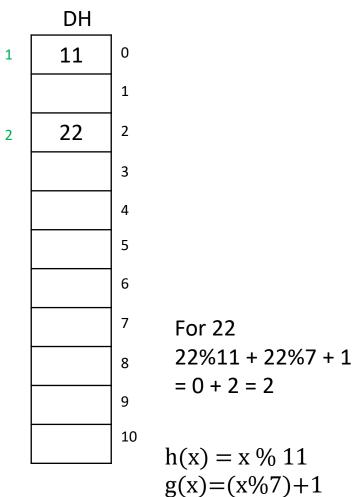
QP			
1	11	0	
		1	
		2	
		3	
		4	
		5	
		6	
		7	
		8	
		9	
		10	

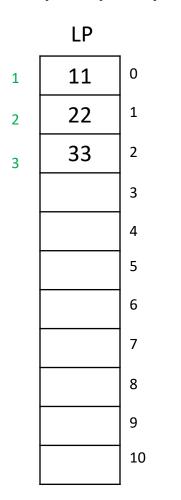
DH		
11	0	
	1	
	2	
	3	
	4	
	5	
	6	
	7	
	8	
	9	
	10	
	l	

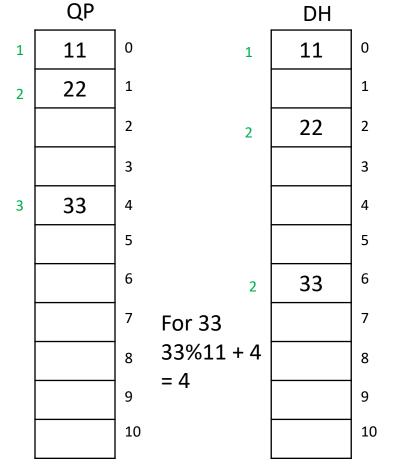
h(x) = x % 11g(x)=(x%7)+1



QP			
1	11	0	
2	22	1	
		2	
		3	
		5	
		6	
		7	
		8	
		9	
		10	
		1	

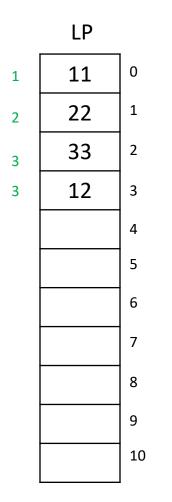






$$h(x) = x \% 11$$

 $g(x)=(x\%7)+1$



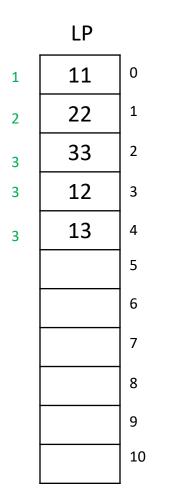
QP			
1	11	0	
2	22	1	
2	12	2	
		3	
3	33	4	
		5	
		6	
		7	
		8	
		9	
		10	
		I	

	DH	
1	11	0
1	12	1
2	22	2
		3
		4
		5
2	33	6
		7
		8
		9
		10
		l

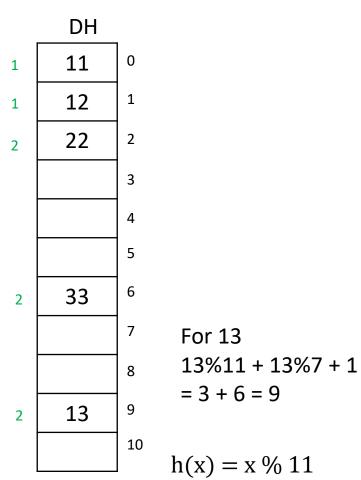
$$h(x) = x \% 11$$

 $g(x)=(x\%7)+1$

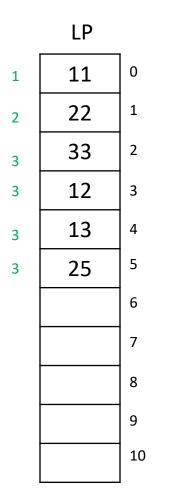
11,22,33,12,13,25,18



	QP	
1	11	0
2	22	1
2	12	2
2	13	3
3	33	4
		5
		6
		7
		8
		9
		10
3	33	5 6 7 8



g(x)=(x%7)+1



	QP	_		DH	
1	11	0	1	11	0
2	22	1	1	12	1
2	12	2	2	22	2
2	13	3	1	25	3
3	33	4			4
		5			5
		6	2	33	6
3	25	7	For 25		7
		8	25%11 + 4		8
		9	= 3 + 4 = 7 ₂	13	9
		10			10
		•			JI.

$$h(x) = x \% 11$$

 $g(x)=(x\%7)+1$

LP				
1	11	0		
2	22	1		
3	33	2		
3	12	3		
3	13	4		
3	25	5		
		6		
1	18	7		
		8		
		9		
		10		
		l		

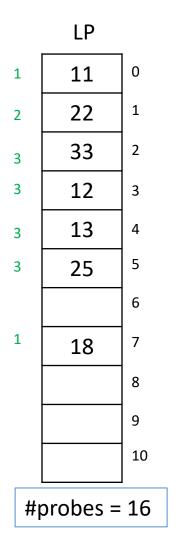
QP			
1	11	0	
2	22	1	
2 2 2	12	2	
2	13	3	
3	33	4	
		5	
		6	
3	25	7	
2	18	8	
		9	
		10	
		•	

	DH	
1	11	0
1	12	1
2	22	2
1	25	3
		4
		5
2	33	6
1	18	7
		8
2	13	9
		10

$$h(x) = x \% 11$$

 $g(x)=(x\%7)+1$

11,22,33,12,13,25,18



	QP	
1	11	0
2	22	1
2	12	2
2	13	3
3	33	4
		5
		6
3	25	7
2	18	8
		9
		10

#probes = 15

	DH	
1	11	0
1	12	1
2	22	2
1	25	3
		4
		5
2	33	6
1	18	7
		8
2	13	9
		10
		4.0

#probes = 10

Performance of Double Hashing

• Average number of probes for a hit: $\frac{1}{x} \ln \left(\frac{1}{1-x} \right)$

• Average number of probes for a miss: $\frac{1}{1-r}$

Recall the formulae in linear probing:

$$\frac{1+\frac{1}{1-x}}{2}$$

$$\frac{1+\frac{1}{1-x}}{2} \qquad \frac{1+\frac{1}{(1-x)^2}}{2}$$

Performance of Double Hashing

Load Factor (%)	Probe hits	Probe miss
5	1.03	1.05
10	1.05	1.11
20	1.12	1.25
30	1.19	1.43
40	1.28	1.67
50	1.39	2.00
60	1.53	2.50
70	1.72	3.33
80	2.01	5.00
90	2.56	10.00
95	3.15	20.00

Probe hits	Probe misses
1.03	1.05
1.09	1.12
1.13	1.28
1.21	1.52
1.33	1.89
1.50	2.50
1.75	3.62
2.17	6.06
3.00	13.00
5.50	50.50
10.5	200.50

Linear v.s. Double Probing

- If the table is sparse (and memory is available), linear probing is very fast, however
 - Performance can degrade rapidly once clusters start forming.
- Double hashing uses memory more efficiently (smaller table or more full), costs a little more to compute secondary hash.
- For sparse tables, linear probing and double hashing require about the same number of probes, but double hashing will take more time since it must compute a second hash.
- For nearly full tables, double hashing is better than linear probing due to the less likelihood of collisions.

Expanding the Hash Table

- The performance of the hash table algorithms depend on the load factor of the table.
- Tables must not get full (or near full) or performance degrades.
- If we cannot determine the amount of data we expect, we may need to grow it at runtime.
 - This essentially means creating a new table and reinserting all of the items.
 - Expanding the table is costly, but is done infrequently.
 - The cost is amortized over the run time of the algorithm

Deletion From Hash Table

Deleting items: Linear Probing Hash Table

Insert(SPINAL)

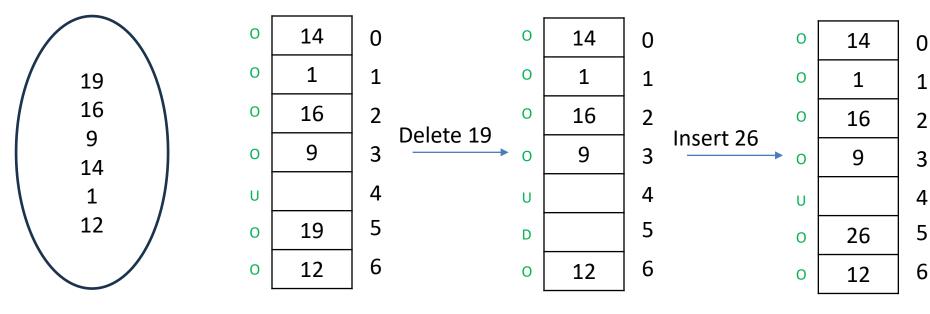
```
-h(S_{19}) = 5
-h(P_{16}) = 2
-h(I_9) = 2
                                    2
- h(N_{14}) = 0
- h(A_1) = 1
                   delete(S)
                             Ν
- h(L_{12}) = 5
                                    2
                                        3
                             0
                                           4
                             Ν
                                    2
                                        3
                                           4
                             0
                           find(L) = NOT FOUND???
```

 Deleting an item from a cluster presents a problem as the deleted item could be part of a linear probe sequence.

- Marking slots as deleted (MARK)
- Each slot can be in one of three states:
 - Occupied
 - Unoccupied
 - Deleted.
- Search until we find the item or encounter the first unoccupied slot.
 - Insert at first deleted or unoccupied slot
 - Need to remember where first deleted slot is when we insert an item
- Load factor is decreased when a slot is marked as deleted.

19, 16, 9, 14, 1, 12

$$h(k) = k\%7$$



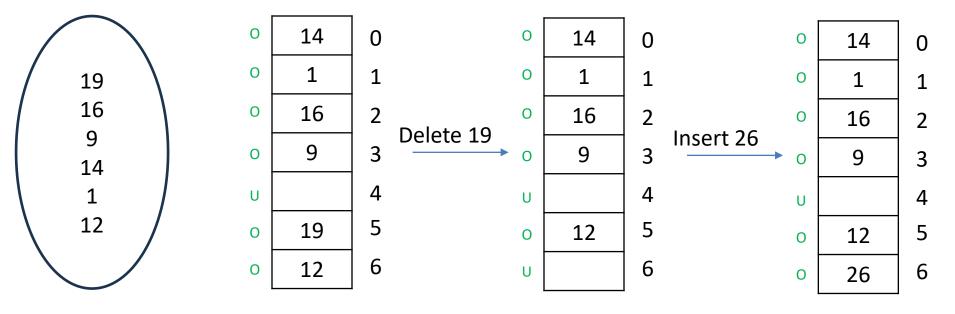
Adjust the table (PACK) after a deletion.

 For each item after the deleted item that <u>is in</u> the <u>cluster</u>, mark its slot unoccupied and insert it back into the table.

 Works well for relatively sparse tables because the number of re-insertions is small.

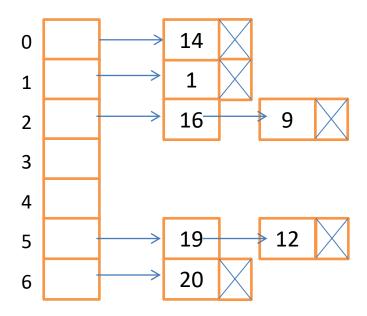
19, 16, 9, 14, 1, 12

$$h(k) = k\%7$$



- With the open-addressing scheme, the data is stored in the hash table itself.
- In this scheme, the data is stored outside of the hash table.
- This method is called chaining (or separate chaining).
 - Instead of storing items in the hash table (in the slot indexed by the hashed key), we store them on a linked list.
 - The hash table simply contains pointers to the first item in each list.

Insert the following keys into the hash table:
 19, 16, 9, 14, 1, 12, 20



- Our data structure has been somewhat reduced to a singly linked list.
- Where do we insert into the list?
 - Front? Back? Middle?
- Should the list be sorted?

Splay (caching) hash tables?

Considerations on Chaining

- We never run out of space (subject to the available memory).
- Implementing insert and delete is trivial compared to open-addressing above.
- Since we must ensure there are no duplicates, we must always look for an item before adding (inserting it).
 - Most time is spent searching through the linked lists.

Complexity of Chaining

Recall the performance of linear probing:

$$\frac{1 + \frac{1}{1 - x}}{2} \qquad \frac{1 + \frac{1}{(1 - x)^2}}{2}$$

$$\frac{1+\frac{1}{(1-x)^2}}{2}$$

- With linear probing we minimize probing by keeping the hash table below 2/3 full.
 - An average of 2 probes for a successful search and 3 for an unsuccessful one (average cluster size of 3)
- Note that these are constants, not related to the number of elements in the table. O(k)

Complexity of Chaining

• There is no concept of "2/3" full.

 Load factor is still computed the same as before, but now it is likely to be greater than 1.

 Think of the load factor as being the average lengths of the lists

Advantages of Chaining

- Has the potential benefit that removing an item is trivial.
- Trivial to implement (linked list algorithms readily available).
- Node allocation can be expensive, but can be implemented efficiently with a memory manager(ObjectAllocator).
- Degrades gracefully as the average length of each lists grows. (No snowballing effect, i.e. clustering)
- Lists could be sorting using a BST or other data structure.

More Hashing

Summary

- There are two parts to hash-based algorithms that implementations must deal with:
 - Computing the hash function to produce an index from a key.
 - Dealing with the inevitable collisions
- Hash tables rely on the fact that the data is uniformly and randomly distributed
 - Since we cannot control the data that is provided from the user, we must ensure that it is randomly distributed by hashing it.
- Hashing algorithms are used in other areas as well (e.g. cryptography)

Interesting Links

- Hash function performance and distribution
- Performance of various hash functions
- Various hash-related information
- More from Bob Jenkins
- Fowler / Noll / Vo (FNV) Hash
- GNU perfect hash function generator
- C Minimal Perfect Hashing Library