Hash Tables

CS 2860: Algorithms and Complexity

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Recap: Hash tables

- Hash tables: "Almost perfect" data structure for unordered Sets/Maps
- ► Map: Stores mappings (associations) (key → value)
- ► Constant (O(1)) average time for basic operations (get, put, remove, membership test)
- ► Does not support any ordering operations (no fast min, no fast successor, iteration in "unknown order" only)

The plan

- ► Saw:
 - Implementation
 - ► Hash buckets, collision strategies
- ► Today:
 - ► Hash functions
 - ► The hashCode/equals contract
 - ► Other hash applications

- Cryptographic hash functions convert file (sequence/block of bytes) to "fingerprint" bitstring
 - ▶ Different inputs should practically always give different hashes
 - ▶ Ideally infeasible to find even single pair with same hash value
 - Ideally uninvertible: Cannot guess input from hash value; data fully scrambled, differences exaggerated
- Applications:
 - Digital signatures: use short signature from trusted source to verify nature of large files from untrusted sources
 - ▶ Detect whether file has been changed/corrupted
 - File identifiers git, svn, backup systems

- Our hashes are not cryptographic
- Compared to cryptographic hashes, what we need is weaker:
 - Our hashes are 32 bits, not (say) 256 bits
 - ▶ Collisions are annoying, but no disasters
 - Computation should be fast
- ► Another difference:
 - Cryptographic hash depends on bit-level raw data
 - ▶ Our hashes depend on logical structure of data
 - (See hashCode/equals contract, later)

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- ▶ The number of 32-bit hashes is 2³²
- ► For most types of data, collisions are unavoidable:
 - ▶ The number of 10-character strings made from letters a—z is

$$26^{10} \approx 2^{47}$$

- ▶ There are at least $2^{15} > 30,000$ different 10-letter words that all map to the same hash code (no matter what hash function
- ► The number of files of 1,024 bytes is

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- ► The number of different 1K-files with the same hash code is unimaginably large, no matter what hash function you use
- ► Most of these strings/files/...will never be created
 - 1. If we have an adversary, they may maliciously craft colliding strings (e.g., as a part of a DoS-attack against a web server)
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- ▶ At what value of *n* does each of the following occur?
 - 1. The first collision:
 - 2. Table half-full:
 - 3. Table 90% full:
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- ▶ The "longest run" when n = m is probably $O(\log n)$, but most slots are short (0/1/2 elements)
- ▶ Common strategy: Move to larger table at n = 0.7m

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The hashCode/equals contract

hashCode and equals

- ► Fact: All objects in Java have the following two methods:
 - object.hashCode(): return hash value
 - object1.equals(object2): equivalence test
- ► There's an important contract between these two:
 - 1. If you change one of these methods (e.g., equals), you also need to change the other!
 - 2. If you do, your methods must be consistent with each other!
- ► Why?

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- Consistency:
 - If x.equals(y) then x.hashCode()==y.hashCode()!
 - Converse: If x.hashCode()!=y.hashCode(), then !x.equals(y).

- ► Recall: Want to test (for Strings, Sets, Arrays...) whether two distinct objects have equivalent contents
- Example: Two different strings both contain "rabbit"
- Example: Two different Sets contain the same items (but in different orders in the tree/in the hash buckets!)
- So to test whether two Sets are equal, we cannot use "bit-level identity" (as a cryptographic hash code would give us). We have to do:

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 - 1. If set1.size != set2.size, they are different
 - 2. Otherwise, for every object x in set1:
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- ► So since a Set must implement its own equals code, it must also implement a new hashCode function

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Default operations

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- ► Consistent?

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- Consistent? Yes.
- ▶ But it's also a very "boring" equality test.
- If you subclass directly from Object, this is your default functionality

- Recall:
 - String objects test equality by character-by-character comparisons
 - 2. Every character in a String maps to a unicode code page (a number 0–2³², usually 0–255)
- ▶ What about the following hash code for strings?
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- Hash code is low-quality on common use patterns, because English text contains many anagrams
- Also, it "throws away" the dependency on order

- A common programming trick is to make objects immutable unchangeable
- ► Example String objects:
 - Cannot change one character inside a String
 - ► Can return a different String with one character changed
- Consequence for hashes:
 - Once we have computed a hashCode value, we may remember the hash value in a member variable and never compute it again
- (Caching hash values is also possible for mutable objects, if you're careful to forget the hash every time it changes)
- Note: Computing hashCode should take at least $\Omega(n)$ time (but hopefully not more)

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Mutable/immutable

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- ▶ Necessarily mutable: Array, Set, Map. . .
- Easily immutable: Single-linked lists (with some programming discipline)
- Same principle for binary trees without parent links

Mutable key types

- ► Many objects (String, Integer, ...) are immutable: They cannot be modified after creation
 - ► You cannot change the value of 3 to 5, only "rebind" a single variable from 3 to 5; similarly with strings
- However, some modifiable data types (e.g., arrays/lists) are still usable as hash table key types
- Modifying these after insertion is a bug!

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Immutable keys warning explained

- Lookup procedure: Consider call lookup(item)
 - 1. Let hash1 = item.hashCode()
 - Compute hash bucket bucket = (hash1 % m) (table capacity m)
 - 3. For each element item2 stored in slot bucket:
 - 3.1 If item2.hashCode() != hash1: Continue to next object
 - 3.2 If item2.hashCode() == hash1, test item2.equals(item)
 - 3.3 If positive, return YES (found a copy of item in the hash table)
- What happens if the "old" item item2 was modified after insertion?
 - ► The new and the old versions can have different hash codes: The item would be in the wrong place!
 - Even a test hashtable.contains(item2) would fail after modification!

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- ▶ Integer: hash(i)=i
- ► Single character: hash(c)=Unicode code point of c
- ▶ String S, length *n*:

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 s[0]·31ⁿ⁻¹ + s[1]·31ⁿ⁻² + ...+ s[n-1]· 1

- ► Array/ordered collection A:
 - ▶ $hash(A[0])*31^{n-1} + hash(A[1])*31^{n-2} + ...$
- ▶ Unordered collection (set) S:
 - ▶ Sum of hash(x) over all x in S

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Other hash applications (v. briefly)

- 1. To speed up equivalence testing (if hashCode has been cached)
- 2. More clever string comparison (Rabin-Karp algorithm)
 - 2.1 Compute hash(pattern) length m
 - 2.2 Compute hash(string[0 . . . m-1]); compare hash values
 - 2.3 Update to hash(string[1 . . . m]); compare values
 - 2.4 Update to hash(string[2 . . . m]); compare values . . .

3. Bloom filters

- 3.1 When working with very large objects, instead of a full hash table, implement only the Boolean array solution
- 3.2 Can (probabilistically!) answer question "have I seen this object before?"
- 3.3 Space O(n) for n objects of size S, much better than $n \cdot S$
- 3.4 Example: "Does computer ... in my distributed network have a copy of this file?"

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 - 3.3 Space O(n) for n objects of size S, much better than $n \cdot S$
 - 3.4 Example: "Does computer ... in my distributed network have a copy of this file?"

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- 2. More clever string comparison (Rabin-Karp algorithm)
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 - 2.2 Compute hash(string[0 ... m-1]); compare hash values
 - 2.3 Update to hash(string[1 ... m]); compare values
 - 2.4 Update to hash(string[2 . . . m]); compare values . . .
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Summary

We saw:

- Properties of hash functions and random numbers
- ▶ The hashCode/equals contract
- ► A few samples of "other algorithmic applications" of hash functions (may return to these)