# CS2040C Data Structures and Algorithms

# Hashing

For efficient look-up in a table

#### Outline

- Direct Addressing
- What is hashing?
- Hash Table/Hash Function
- What is collision?
- How to resolve collision?
- Primary clustering and secondary clustering
- STL hash table

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## Lookup Table

- Most applications require a data structure to:
  - Store a number of items
  - Delete a particular item
  - Search for one particular item using a special piece of information (key)
- Lookup Table is an abstraction that captures the requirements above
  - Many different implementations possible!

## Lookup Table: Example Implementations

Operations	Unsorted Array / Linked List	Sorted Array	Sorted Linked List
Insert	O(1)	O(N)	O(N)
Delete	O(N)	O(N)	O(N)
Search	O(N)	O(log <sub>2</sub> N)	O(N)

 Confirm your understanding by verifying the complexity required for each of the operations

# Direct Addressing Table

A simplified version of hash table

## Example: The SBS Bus Problem

- Consider a system to manage information about bus services for the bus company SBS
- The main operations are:
  - We assume bus service number is an integer

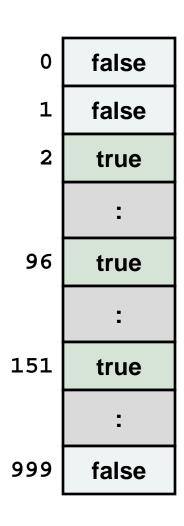
Operations	Functionality
Find(N)	Does bus service N exists?
Insert(N)	Add bus service N
Delete(N)	Remove bus service N

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#### Observations: The SBS Bus Problem

 The bus service are indicated by an integer between [1 ... 999]

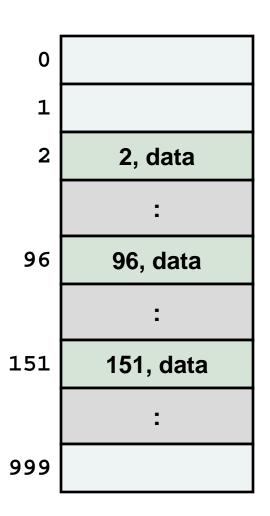
- Efficient Solution:
  - Use a boolean array of 1000 elements
  - Element at index *N* represents the bus service *N*
    - True == exists, False == not exist
- Known as direct addressing table



## Direct Addressing Table

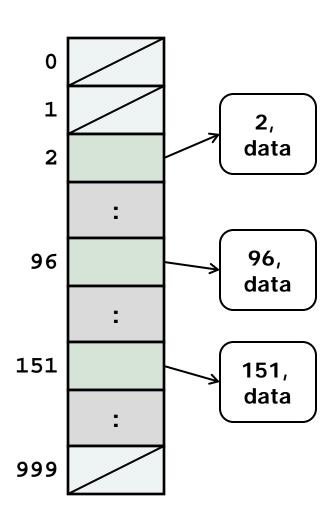
- Additional information can be stored
  - E.g. route, interval, number of buses serving for a particular bus service

- Instead of a single boolean value:
  - We can store a structure/object at each location



## Direct Addressing Table

- Alternatively, we can store a reference to object in each location
  - Invalid bus service stores aNULL



## Generalized Direct Addressing Table

The generalized set of operations for direct addressing table are:

Operations	Basic Steps	Big-O
Find(N)	return a[N]	O(1)
Insert(N,data)	a[N] = data	O(1)
Delete(N)	a[N] = NULL	O(1)

## Direct Addressing Table: Summary

- Direct addressing table is very efficient
- However, there are many restrictions
  - Key must be integer (what about bus no 95A or NR30?)
  - Range of keys must be small
    - E.g. what if keys are telephone numbers?
  - Keys must be dense
    - Most keys in the range are valid
    - Not many "gaps" in the key values

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## What is Hashing?

- Hashing (system) uses a hash function, a hash table, and a conflict (collision) resolution scheme to implement a table ADT
- A conflict resolution scheme is the action taken to resolve the conflict between two keys that have been assigned the same address by the hash function

#### Generalized Idea:

- Use a conversion function to map:
  - Non-integer to integer
  - Sparse integers in a large range into a dense integers in a smaller range
- This conversion function is known as hash function
  - The fundamental idea behind hash table!
  - Hash Table
    - = Direct Addressing Table + Hash Function

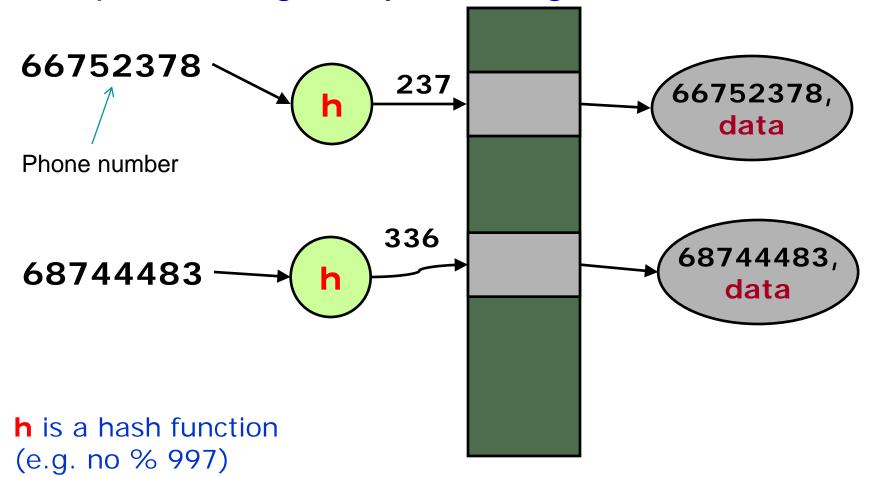
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# Hash Table

A generalization of direct addressing table, to remove its restrictions

#### Hash table

- Map large integers to smaller integers
- Map non-integer keys to integers



## Hash Table: Operations

- One additional step:
  - Apply hash function h() to the key value first
  - h(key) gives the home address of the key value

Operations	Basic Steps	
Find(N)	return a[ h(N) ]	
Insert(N,data)	a[ h(N) ] = data	
Delete(N)	a[h(N)] = NULL	

Time complexity now depends on the performance of the hash function h()

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#### Hash Tables: Problems

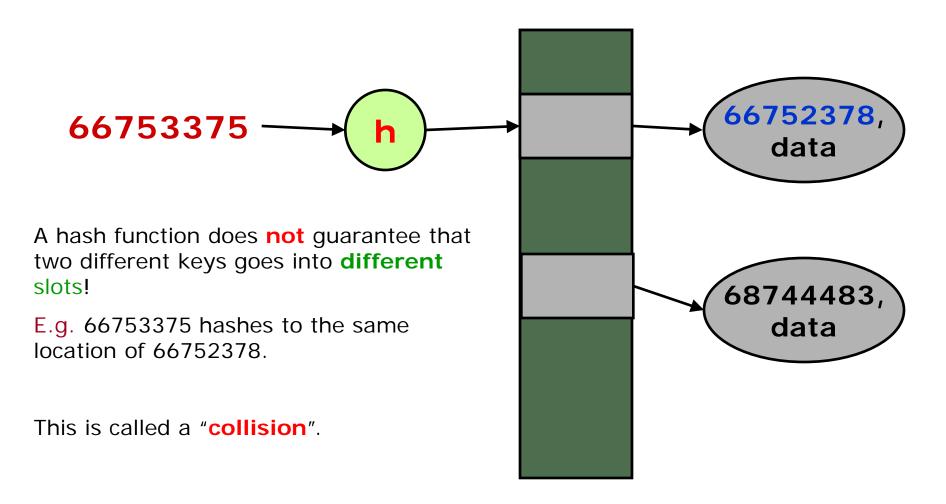
- If the result of the hash function is unique, each key is mapped to a different home address (array index)
  - known as perfect hash function
- This is not always the case
  - Given two different keys, it is possible for a hash function to give the same result
  - but key1 != key2
- This problem is known as collision
  - Need to find ways to resolve them

## Hashing Collision

Given the hash function:

$$h(\text{key}) = \text{key} % 17$$

#### Hash table



## Hash Table: Important Issues

- How to define a good hash function?
  - What are the properties of a good hash function?

How to resolve collision?

## Hash Functions

## Good Hash Function: Properties

- A good hash function should:
  - Be fast to compute ( should be O(1) )
  - Scatter keys evenly throughout the hash table
  - Result in few or none collisions
  - Allow the hash table to be small

 These properties should be evaluated in the context of the potential key range

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## Counter Example

- Selecting digits from several positions usually make poor hashing function
  - □ E.g. Hash(  $d_0d_1d_2...d_7$ ) =  $d_3d_7$
  - $\rightarrow$  Hash( 667**5**437**8** ) = **58**
  - → Hash( 634**5**909**8** ) = **58**
- What if we select the first three digits from Singapore phone numbers as the hash value?

#### Perfect Hash Function

- Perfect Hash Function:
  - One-to-one mapping between the keys and array indices
  - → NO collision
- It is possible if we know all keys in advance
- Example:

 When a compiler searches for keywords or reserved words

#### How to Define a Hash Function?

- Uniform hash function
- Division method
- Multiplication method
- Hashing of strings

#### Uniform Hash Function

- Uniform Hash Function:
  - Distribute the keys evenly throughout the hash table

- Formal definition:
  - Given K keys and M locations in a hash table
  - □ H(K) is uniform if each location receives no more than  $\left\lceil \frac{K}{M} \right\rceil$  keys

#### Uniform Hash Function

- Given:
  - Keys are integers uniformly distributed in [0,X)
  - □ Hash table of size *m* ( m < X )</p>

We can hash the keys uniformly into the table by:

$$k \in [0, X)$$

$$hash(k) = \left\lfloor \frac{km}{X} \right\rfloor$$

#### Modulo Method

- Given a hash table of m slots
  - We can use the modulo operator "%" to map an integer to a value between 0 and m-1:

$$hash(k) = k \% m$$

- One of the most popular methods
- Behaviour of the hash function depends on:
  - Key distribution
  - □ Table size m

## Modulo Method: Table Size m

- Generally, we want the hash function to generate "random-like" home addresses even if the keys are in continuous range
- Some table size should be avoided in modulo method due to commonly encountered key sequence

#### Example:

- $\Box$  m = 10<sup>n</sup>
  - Hash function returns the last n digits of the key!
- $\square$  m = 2<sup>n</sup>
  - Hash function returns the last n bits of the key!

## Modulo Method: Table Size m

#### Rule of thumb:

 Choose table size to be a large prime number close to a power of 2

#### Several reasons:

We can get a "shuffling" effect by first multiplying the key with another prime number q:

$$hash(k) = (k * q) \% m$$

 Prime table size allows effective collision resolution method (more later)

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## Multiplicative Method

- Hash function takes the following form:
  - Multiply key with a real number A between [0..1]
  - 2. Extract the fractional part
  - з. Multiply by hash table size, **m**

$$hash(k) = \lfloor m(kA - \lfloor kA \rfloor) \rfloor$$

- Rationale:
  - Fraction part of multiplication is "random-like" even for continuous key range
- A common choice for A is the reciprocal of **golden ratio**:  $A = \frac{\sqrt{5}-1}{A}$

## Hashing of Strings

- For non-integer keys:
  - We first convert the key into an integer, then apply hash function on the result
- Let us use string as illustration

```
int HashString( string str )
{
   int sum = 0;

for ( i = 0; i < str.size(); i++ )
     sum += str[i];

return sum % tableSizeM;
}</pre>
```

Convert **str** into an integer **sum** 

Perform the actual hashing. Modulo method is used here as example.

## Hashing of Strings: Problems

- The method used is not very good:
  - Many strings converted to the same sum
  - → Results in large number of collisions

#### Example:

- HashString("abc") == HashString("bac") == HashString("cba")
- Problem:
  - The conversion fails to take the position of each character into account
  - Permutation of a string gives the same sum!

## Hashing of Strings: Problems

#### HashString ("Tan Ah Teck")

```
"A" + "h" + " " +
 "T" + "e" + "c" + "k") % 11 // hash table size is 11
= (84 + 97 + 110 + 32 +
 65 + 104 + 32 +
 84 + 101 + 99 + 107) \% 11
= 825 % 11
= 0
```

## Hashing of Strings: Problems

- Lee Chin Tan
- Chen Le Tian
- Chan Tin Lee

All 3 strings above have the same hash value! Why?

 Problem: The hash code produced does not depend on positions of characters! – Bad

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## Hashing Strings: Better Conversion

#### Idea:

- Associate a weight to each position in string
- Common approach:
  - Multiply each position by X<sup>position</sup>, for a chosen X

#### Example:

- $\Box$  Let's take X = 17
- □ Hash( "abc" ) =  $97*17^2 + 98*17^1 + 99*17^0 = 29798$
- Check whether "bac", "cba" etc gives different sum?

#### Hashing Strings: Better Conversion

- The idea can be implemented efficiently:
  - Using Horner's Rule

```
int HashString( string str )
{
   int sum = 0;

   for ( i = 0; i < str.size(); i++ )
      sum = (17*sum) + str[i];

   return sum % tableSizeM;
}</pre>
```

 In actual implementations, popular choice of X is 31 or 37

#### Hash Function: Summary

- First convert non-integer key into integer
  - Quality of conversion affects the hashing
- Perform hashing using the integer key
  - Take note of the range and characteristics of the input when designing hash function
  - Try to meet the qualities of a good hash function

 Modulo method is one of the most common choices for hash function

# Collision Resolution

### Probability of Collision (1/2)

von Mises Paradox (The Birthday Paradox): "How many people must be in a room before the probability that some share a birthday, ignoring the year and leap days, becomes at least 50 percent?"

Q(n) = Probability of unique birthday for n people

$$= \frac{364}{365} \times \frac{363}{365} \times \frac{362}{365} \dots \frac{365 - n + 1}{365}$$

P(n) = Probability of collisions (same birthday) for n people = 1 - Q(n)

$$P(23) = 0.507$$

### Probability of Collision (2/2)

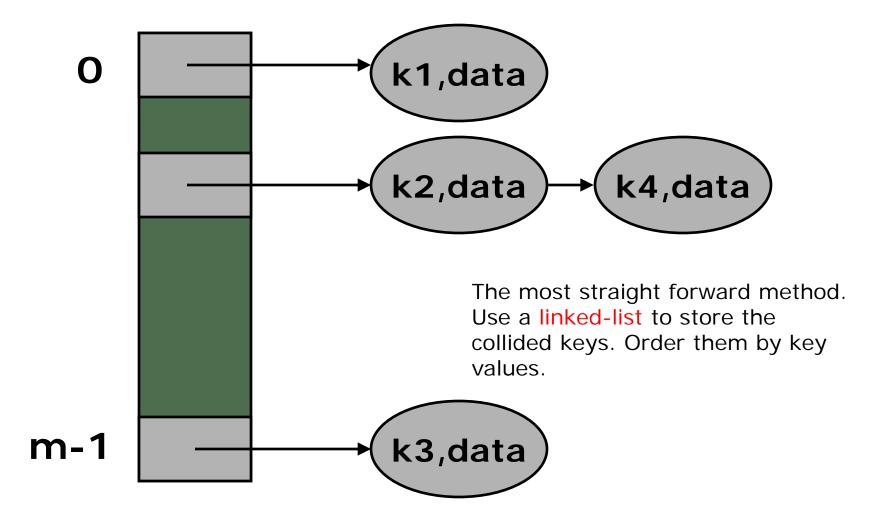
- This means that if there are 23 people in a room, the probability that some people share a birthday is 50.7%.
- So, if we insert 23 keys in to a table with 365 slots, more than half of the time we get collisions. Such a result is counter-intuitive to many.
- So, collision is very likely!

#### How to resolve collisions?

#### Conflict resolution schemes commonly used:

- Separate Chaining
- Linear Probing
- Quadratic Probing
- Double Hashing

### Separate chaining



#### Hash table (separate chaining)

#### insert (key, data)

insert data into the list a[h(key)]

#### delete (key)

delete data from the list a[h(key)]

#### find (key)

find key from the list a[h(key)]

#### Load Factor

- n: number of keys in the hash table
- m: size of the hash table number of slots
- Define the load factor  $\alpha$

$$\alpha = n/m$$

a measure of how full the hash table is.

(Note:  $\alpha$  can be >= 1)

If table size is the number of linked lists, then  $\alpha$  is the average length of the linked lists.

# Average Running Time

- Find  $O(1 + \alpha)$
- Insert O(1)
- Delete  $O(1 + \alpha)$

- Note that α affects the performance of find and delete operations.
- If  $\alpha$  is bounded by some constant, then all three operations are O(1).

#### Reconstructing hash table

- To keep α bounded, we may need to reconstruct the whole table when the load factor exceeds the bound.
- Whenever the load factor exceeds the bound, we need to rehash all keys into a bigger table (increase m to reduce α), say double the table size.

### Open Addressing

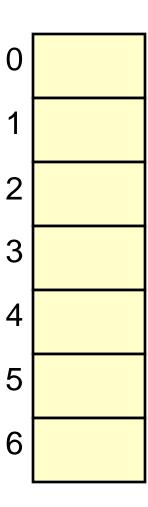
- Separate chaining is a close addressing system as the address given to a key is fixed
- When the hash address given to a key is open (not fixed), the hashing is an open addressing system
- Open Addressing:
  - Hashed items are in a single array
  - Hash code gives the home address
  - Collision is resolved by checking multiple positions
  - Each check is called a probe into the table

### Linear Probing

#### $hash(k) = k \mod 7$

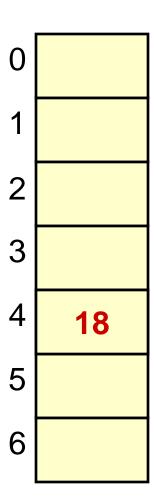
Here the table size m=7

Note: 7 is a prime number



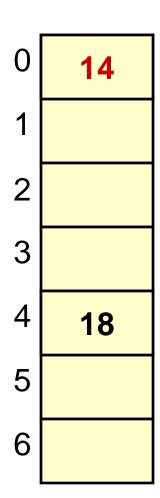
In linear probing, when there is a collision, we scan forward for the the next empty slot (wrapping around when we reach the last slot)

```
hash(k) = k mod 7
hash(18)
= 18 mod 7
```



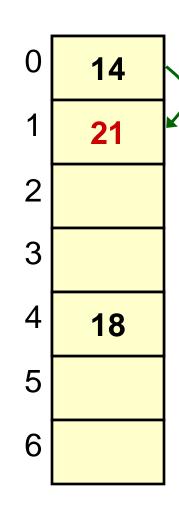
 $hash(k) = k \mod 7$ 

hash(14) = 14 mod 7 = 0



 $hash(k) = k \mod 7$ 

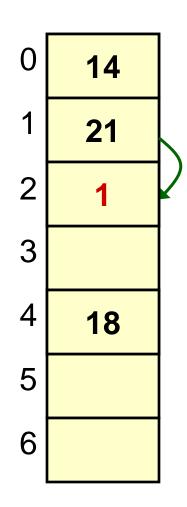
hash(21) = 21 mod 7 = 0



Collision occurs!
Look for next empty slot

 $hash(k) = k \mod 7$ 

hash(1) = 1 mod 7 - 1



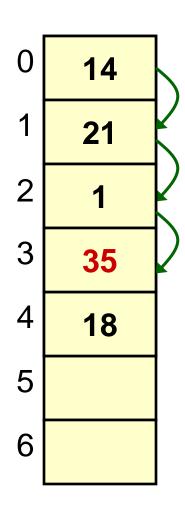
Collides with 21 (hash value 0). Look for next empty slot

 $hash(k) = k \mod 7$ 

hash(35)

 $= 35 \mod 7$ 

= 0

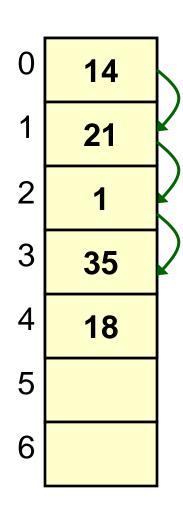


Collision, need to check next 3 slots

#### Linear Probing: Find 35

 $hash(k) = k \mod 7$ 

hash(35) = 0

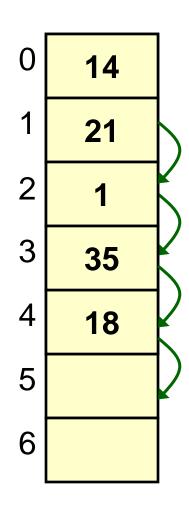


Found 35, after 4 probes

#### Linear Probing: Find 8

 $hash(k) = k \mod 7$ 

hash(8) = 1

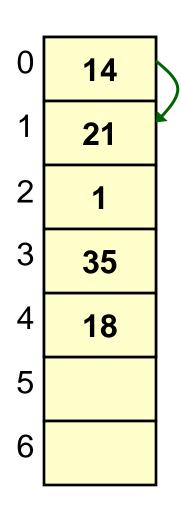


8 NOT found. Need 5 probes!

# Linear Probing: Delete 21

 $hash(k) = k \mod 7$ 

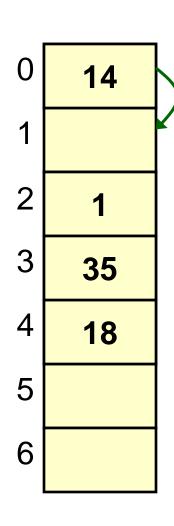
hash(21) = 0



#### Linear Probing: Find 35

 $hash(k) = k \mod 7$ 

hash(35) = 0



35 NOT found! Incorrect!

We cannot simply remove a value, because it can affect find()!

#### How to delete?

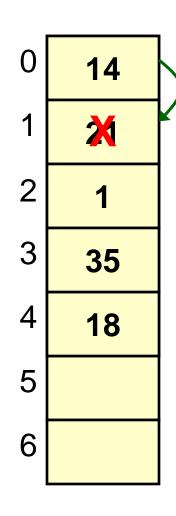
- Lazy Deletion
- Use three different states of a slot
  - Occupied
  - Deleted
  - Empty
- When a value is removed from linear probed hash table, we just mark the status of the slot as "deleted", Instead of emptying the slot
- Need to use a state array the same size as the hash table

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### Linear Probing: Delete 21

 $hash(k) = k \mod 7$ 

hash(21) = 0

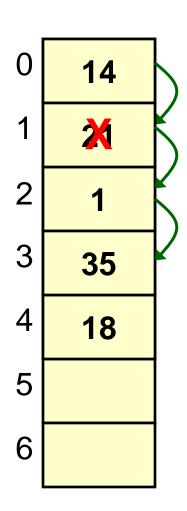


Slot 1 is occupied but now marked as deleted.

### Linear Probing: Find 35

 $hash(k) = k \mod 7$ 

hash(35) = 0



Found 35
Now we can find 35

$$hash(k) = k \mod 7$$

hash(15) = 1

Note: We continue to search for 15, and found that 15 is not in the hash table (total 5 probes).



15 is inserted into the slot 1 which was marked as deleted

We can insert a new value into a slot that has been marked as deleted.

#### Performance of Hash Table

Load factor	Number of Probes	
	Linear Probing	Chaining
0	1.00	1.00
0.25	1.17	1.13
0.5	1.50	1.25
0.75	2.50	1.38
0.83	3.38	1.43
0.9	5.50	1.45
0.95	10.50	1.48

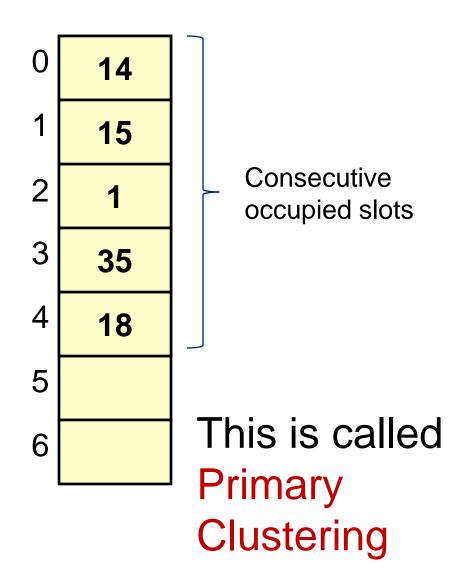
For successful search, the number of probes is

Linear probing:  $\frac{1}{2}(1 + \frac{1}{(1 - \alpha)})$ 

Separate chaining:  $1 + \alpha/2$ 

#### Problem of Linear Probing

- A cluster is a collection of consecutive occupied slots
- A cluster that covers the home address of a key is called a primary cluster of the key
- Linear probing can create large primary clusters that will increase the running time of find/insert/delete operations



#### Problem of Linear Probing

The probe sequence of linear probing is:

```
hash (key) // first probe, the home (hash(key) + 1) % m // second probe (hash(key) + 2) % m // third probe (hash(key) + 3) % m // fourth probe
```

- If there is an empty slot, we are sure to find it.
- When an empty slot is found, conflict is resolved, but the primary cluster of the key is expanded as a result
- The size of the resulting primary cluster may be very big due to the annexation of the neighbouring cluster

#### Modified Linear Probing

Q: How to modify linear probing to avoid primary clustering? We can modify the probe sequence as follows:

hash(key) ( hash(key) + 1 \* d ) % m ( hash(key) + 2 \* d ) % m ( hash(key) + 3 \* d ) % m

where d is some constant integer >1 and is co-prime to m. Note: Since d and m are co-primes, the probe sequence covers all the slots in the hash table.

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#### Quadratic Probing

To escape from the primary cluster quickly, use quadratic probing to look for an empty slot.

The probe sequence is

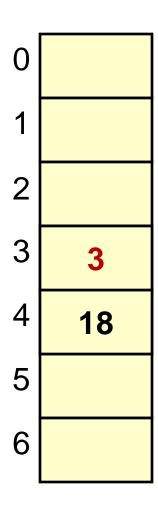
```
hash(key)
( hash(key) + 1 ) % m jump 1<sup>2</sup>
( hash(key) + 4 ) % m jump 2<sup>2</sup>
( hash(key) + 9 ) % m jump 3<sup>2</sup>
:
```

```
Distance from
previous probe
+1
+3
+5
+7
...
+2j-1 for j<sup>th</sup> probe
from home
```

### Quadratic Probing: Insert 3, 18

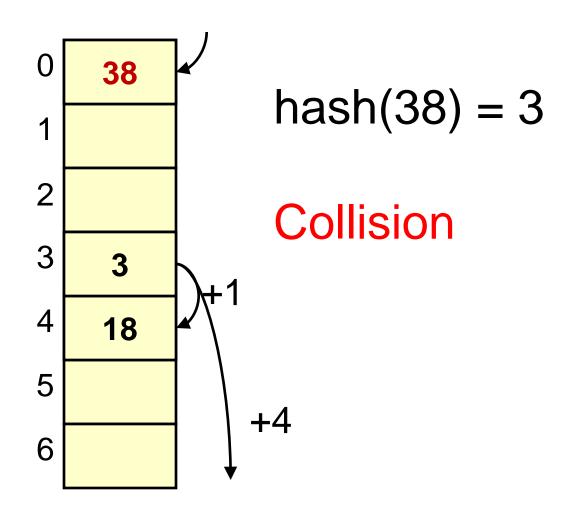
$$hash(k) = k \mod 7$$

hash(3) = 3hash(18) = 4



### Quadratic Probing: Insert 38

 $hash(k) = k \mod 7$ 



#### Can quadratic probing always find a free slot?

Insert 12 into the previous example, followed by 10.

what happens?

#### **Theorem**

If  $\alpha$  < 0.5, and m is prime, then we can always find an empty slot.

(m is the table size and  $\alpha$  is the load factor)

When quadratic probing is used, in the worst case, 50% of the hash table is wasted.

### Secondary Clustering

- In quadratic probing, clusters are formed along the path of probing, instead of around the home location
- These clusters are called secondary clusters
- Secondary clusters are formed as a result of using the same pattern in probing by all keys

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#### Double Hashing

- To resolve the secondary clustering problem, we have to break the probing pattern of quadratic hashing
- We may use another hash function hash<sub>2</sub> to generate different probe sequences for different keys

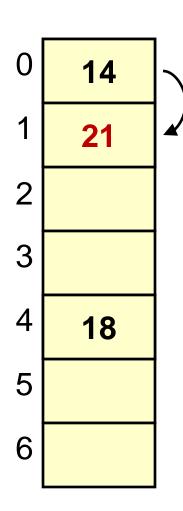
```
hash(key)
(hash(key) + 1*hash<sub>2</sub>(key)) % m
(hash(key) + 2*hash<sub>2</sub>(key)) % m
(hash(key) + 3*hash<sub>2</sub>(key)) % m
:
```

hash<sub>2</sub> is called the secondary hash function, the no of slots to jump each time a collision occurs

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#### After Inserting 14 and 18, Insert 21

 $hash(k) = k \mod 7$  $hash_2(k) = k \mod 5$ 

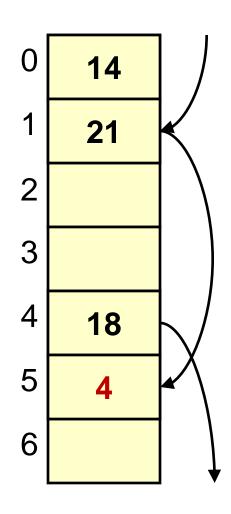


hash(21) =21 mod 7 = 0

hash<sub>2</sub>(21) = 21 mod 5 = 1

# Double Hashing: Insert 4

 $hash(k) = k \mod 7$  $hash_2(k) = k \mod 5$ 



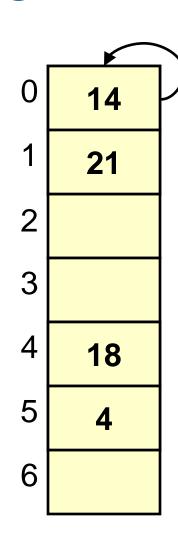
If we insert 4, the probe sequence is 4 (home), 8, 12, ...

hash
$$(4) = 4$$
  
hash $_{2}(4) = 4$ 

### Double Hashing: Insert 35

 $hash(k) = k \mod 7$  $hash_2(k) = k \mod 5$ 

hash(35) = 0 $hash_2(35) = 0$ 



But if we insert 35, the probe sequence is **0**, **0**, **0**, ...

What is wrong? Since  $hash_2(35)=0$ . Not acceptable!

# Warning

- Secondary hash function must not evaluate to 0!
- To solve this problem, simply change hash<sub>2</sub>(key) in the above example to:

$$hash_2(key) = 5 - (key \% 5)$$

Note: If  $hash_2(k) = 1$ , then it is the same as linear probing.

If  $hash_2(k) = d$ , where d is a constant and d > 1, then it is the same as modified linear probing.

#### Good Collision Resolution Method

- Small cluster size
- Always find an empty slot if it exists
- Give different probe sequences when 2 keys collide (i.e. no secondary clustering)
- Fast

#### Rehash

- Time to rehash:
  - When table is getting full, the operations are getting slow
  - For quadratic probing, inserts might fail when the table is more than half full
- Rehash operation:
  - Build another table about twice as big with a new hash function
  - Scan the original table, for each key, compute the new hash
     value and insert the data into the new table
  - Delete the original table
- The load factor used to decide the time to rehash:
  - For open addressing: 0.5
  - For closed addressing: 1

#### STL unordered\_map

- STL unordered\_map implements a Hash Table with separate chaining:
- Associate containers that store elements formed by the combination of a key value and a mapped value, and which allows for fast retrieval of individual elements based on their keys
- https://en.cppreference.com/w/cpp/container/ unordered\_map

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#### unordered\_map example

```
// std::unordered_map
#include <bits/stdc++.h>
int main()
  // Unordered map
  std::unordered_map<int, int> order;
  // Mapping values to keys
  order[5] = 10;
  order[3] = 5;
  order[20] = 100;
  order[1] = 1;
  // Iterating the map and printing unordered values
  for (auto i = order.begin(); i != order.end(); i++) {
    std::cout << i->first << " : " << i->second << '\n';
```

#### Output:

1:1

3 : 5

20:100

5:10

#### STL unordered\_set

- There is also an unordered\_set if key->value pairs are not required
- Implemented using hash table where keys are stored in any order
- https://en.cppreference.com/w/cpp/container/ unordered\_set

#### unordered\_set example

```
// C++ program to demonstrate various function of unordered_set
#include <bits/stdc++.h>
using namespace std;
int main()
  // declaring set for storing string data-type
  unordered_set<string> stringSet;
  // inserting various string, same string will be stored
  // once in set
  stringSet.insert("code");
  stringSet.insert("in");
  stringSet.insert("c++");
  stringSet.insert("is");
  stringSet.insert("fast");
  string key = "slow";
```

# Example (cont'd)

```
find returns end iterator if key is not found,
// else it returns iterator to that key
if (stringSet.find(key) == stringSet.end())
  cout << key << " not found\n\n";</pre>
else
  cout << "Found " << key << endl << endl;
key = "c++";
if (stringSet.find(key) == stringSet.end())
  cout << key << " not found\n";
else
  cout << "Found " << key << endl;
// now iterating over whole set and printing its
// content
cout << "\nAll elements : ";</pre>
unordered_set<string> :: iterator itr;
for (itr = stringSet.begin(); itr != stringSet.end(); itr++)
  cout << (*itr) << endl;
```

Output: slow not found

Found c++

All elements:
is
fast
c++
in
code

#### Summary

- How to hash? Criteria for good hash functions?
- How to resolve collision?
  Collision resolution techniques:
  - separate chaining
  - linear probing
  - quadratic probing
  - double hashing
- Problem on deletions
- Primary clustering and secondary clustering
- STL unordered\_map, unordered\_set

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