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### Hash Codes in Python

The standard mechanism for computing hash codes in Python is a built-in function with signature `hash(x)` that returns an integer value that serves as the hash code for object `x`. However, only immutable data types are deemed hashable in Python. This restriction is meant to ensure that a particular object's hash code remains constant during that object's lifespan. This is an important property for an object's use as a key in a hash table. A problem could occur if a key were inserted into the hash table, yet a later search were performed. Among Python's built-in data types, the immutable `int`, `float`, `str`, `tuple`, and `frozenset` classes produce robust hash codes, via the `hash` function, using techniques similar to those discussed earlier in this section. Hash codes for character strings are well crafted based on the algorithm of David Wheeler. Hash codes for tuples are computed with a similar technique based upon a combination of the hash codes of the individual elements of the tuple. When hashing a `frozenset`, the order of the elements should be irrelevant, and so a natural option is to compute the exclusive-or of the individual hash codes. For an instance `x` of a mutable type, such as a list, a `TypeError` is raised. Instances of user-defined classes are treated as unhashable by default, with a `TypeError` raised by the `hash` function. However, a function that computes hash codes can be implemented in the form of a special method named

`hash`

within

a class. The returned hash code should reflect the immutable attributes of an instance. It is common to return a hash code composed of three numeric red, green, and blue components might implement the method as:

```
def
```

```
hash
```

```
(self):
```

```
    return hash( ( self.
```

```
red, self.
```

```
green, self.
```

```
blue) ) # hash combined tuple
```

An important rule to obey is that if a class defines equivalence through

```
eq
```

```
,
```

then any implementation of

```
hash
```

must be consistent, in that if `x == y`, then

`hash(x) == hash(y)`. This is important because if two instances are considered

to be equivalent and one is used as a key in a hash table, a search for the second instance should result in the dictionary. If `hash` is not consistent, it ensures that `hash(5)` and `hash(5.0)` are the same.

**Hash Codes**

The first action that a hash function performs is to take an arbitrary key  $k$  in our map and compute an integer that is called the hash code for  $k$ ; this integer need not be in the range  $[0, N-1]$ , and may even be negative. We desire that the set of hash codes assigned to our keys should avoid collisions as much as possible. For if the hash codes of our keys cause collisions, then there is no hope for our compression function to avoid them. In this subsection, we begin by discussing the theory of hash codes. Following that, we discuss treating the bit representation as an integer.

To begin, we note that, for any data type  $X$  that is represented using at most as many bits as our integer hash codes, we can simply take as a hash code for  $x$  an integer interpretation of its bits. For example, the hash code for key 314 could simply be 314. The hash code for a floating-point number such as 3.14 could be based upon an interpretation of the bits of the floating-point representation as an integer.

For a type whose bit representation is longer than a desired hash code, the above scheme is not immediately applicable. For example, Python relies on 32-bit hash codes. If a floating-point number uses a 64-bit representation, its bits cannot be viewed directly as a hash code. One possibility is to use only the high-order 32 bits (or the low-order 32 bits). This hash code, of course, ignores half of the information present in the original key, and is thus not ideal.

A better approach is to combine in some way the high-order and low-order portions of a 64-bit key to form a 32-bit hash code, which takes all the original bits into consideration. A simple implementation is to view the binary representation as an  $n$ -tuple  $(x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{n-1})$  of 32-bit integers, for example, by forming a hash code for  $x$  as

$$h(x) = x_0 \oplus x_1 \oplus \dots \oplus x_{n-1},$$

where the  $\oplus$ -symbol represents the bitwise exclusive-or operation (which is in Python).

**Polynomial Hash Codes**

The summation and exclusive-or hash codes, described above, are not good choices for character strings or other sequences of characters. For example, consider a 16-bit hash code for a character string  $s$  that sums the Unicode values of the characters in  $s$ . This hash code unfortunately produces lots of unwanted

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### 10.2.1 Hash Functions

The goal of a hash function,  $h$ , is to map each key  $k$  to an integer in the range  $[0, N-1]$ , where  $N$  is the capacity of the bucket array for a hash table. Equipped with such a hash function,  $h$ , the main idea of this approach is to use the hash function value,  $h(k)$ , as an index into our bucket array,  $A$ , instead of the key  $k$  (which may not be appropriate for direct use as an index). That is, we store the item  $(k, v)$  in the bucket  $A[h(k)]$ .

If there are two or more keys with the same hash value, then two different items will be mapped to the same bucket in  $A$ . In this case, we say that a collision has occurred. To be sure, there are ways of dealing with collisions, which we will discuss later, but the best strategy is to be fast and easy to compute.

It is common to view the evaluation of a hash function,  $h(k)$ , as consisting of two portions—a hash code that maps a key  $k$  to an integer, and a compression function that maps the hash code to an integer within a range of indices,  $[0, N-1]$ , for a bucket array. (See Figure 10.5.)

-1 hash code

120 -2... ..

compression function

120N - 1 ...Arbitrary Objects

Figure 10.5: Two parts of a hash function: a hash code and a compression function.

The advantage of separating the hash function into two such components is that the hash code portion of that computation is independent of a specific hash table size. This allows the development of a general hash code for each object that can be used for a hash table of any size currently stored in the map. (See Section 10.2.3.)

## Compression Functions

The hash code for a key  $k$  will typically not be suitable for immediate use with a bucket array, because the integer hash code may be negative or may exceed the capacity of the bucket array. Thus, once we have determined an integer hash code for a key object  $k$ , there is still the issue of mapping that integer into the range  $[0, N-1]$ . This computation, known as a compression function, is the second action performed as part of an overall hash function. A good compression function is one that minimizes the number of collisions for a given set of distinct hash codes.

## The Division Method

A simple compression function is the division method, which maps an integer  $h$  to  $h \bmod N$ ,

where  $N$ , the size of the bucket array, is a fixed positive integer. Additionally, if we take  $N$  to be a prime number, then this compression function helps spread out the distribution of hashed values. Indeed, if  $N$  is not prime, then there is greater risk

that patterns in the distribution of hash codes will be repeated in the distribution of hash values, thereby causing collisions. For example, if the hash codes  $\{200, 205, 210, 215, 220, \dots, 600\}$  are mapped into a bucket array of size 100, then each hash code will collide with three others. But if we use a bucket array of size 101, then there will be no collisions. If a hash function is chosen well, it should ensure that the probability of two different keys having the same hash code is small. Choosing  $N$  to be a prime number is not always enough, however, for if there is a repeated pattern of hash codes of the form  $pN + q$  for several different  $p$ 's, then there will still be collisions.

## The MAD Method

A more sophisticated compression function, which helps eliminate repeated patterns in a set of integer keys, is the MAD method.

This method maps an integer  $h$  to

$$[(a \cdot h + b) \bmod p] \bmod N,$$

where  $N$  is the size of the bucket array,  $p$  is a prime number larger than  $N$ ,  $a$  and  $b$  are integers chosen at random from the interval  $[0, p-1]$ , with  $a > 0$ . This

compression function is chosen in order to eliminate repeated patterns in the set of hash codes and get us closer to the same as we would have if these keys were thrown into a uniformly at random.

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collisions for common groups of strings. In particular, "temp01" and "temp10" collide using this function, as do "stop", "tops", "pots", and "spot". A better hash code should somehow take into consideration the positions of the  $x_i$ 's. An alternative hash code, which does exactly this, is to choose a nonzero constant,  $a$ , and use as a hash code the value  $x_0a^{n-1} + x_1a^{n-2} + \dots + x_{n-2}a + x_{n-1}$ .

Mathematically speaking, this is simply a polynomial in  $a$  that takes the components  $(x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{n-1})$  of an object  $x$  as its coefficients. This hash code is therefore called a polynomial hash code. By Horner's rule (see Exercise C-3.50), this polynomial can be computed as  $x_{n-1} + a(x_{n-2} + a(x_{n-3} + \dots + a(x_2 + a(x_1 + ax_0)) \dots))$ .

Intuitively, a polynomial hash code uses multiplication by different powers as a way to spread out the influence of each component across the resulting hash code.

Of course, on a typical computer, evaluating a polynomial will be done using the finite bit representation for a hash code; hence, the value will periodically overflow the bits used for an integer. One should be mindful that such overflows are occurring and choose the constant  $a$  so that it has some nonzero, low-order bits, which will serve to preserve some of the information content even as we overflow. We have done some experimental studies that suggest that 33, 37, 39, and 41 are particularly good choices for  $a$  when working with character strings that are English words. In fact, in a list of over 50,000 English words formed as the union of the word lists provided in two of the previous chapters, 37, 39, or 41 produced less than 7 collisions in each case!

### Cyclic-Shift Hash Codes

A variant of the polynomial hash code replaces multiplication by  $a$  with a cyclic shift of a partial sum by a certain number of bits. For example, a 5-bit cyclic shift of the 32-bit value 00111101100101101010100010101000 is achieved by taking the leftmost five bits and placing those on the rightmost side of the representation, resulting in 10110010110101010001010100000111. While this operation has little natural meaning in terms of arithmetic, it accomplishes the goal of varying the bits of the calculation. In Python, a 32-bit integer.

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Operation

List

Hash Table

expected

worst case

getitem

$O(n)$

$O(1)$

$O(n)$

setitem

$O(n)$

$O(1)$

$O(n)$

delitem

$O(n)$

$O(1)$

$O(n)$

len

$O(1)$

$O(1)$

$O(1)$

iter

$O(n)$

$O(n)$

$O(n)$

Table 10.2: Comparison of the running times of the methods of a map realized by means of an unsorted list (as in Section 10.1.5) or a hash table. We let  $n$  denote the number of items in the map, and we assume that the bucket array supporting the hash table is maintained such that its capacity is proportional to the number of items in the map.

In practice, hash tables are among the most efficient means for implementing a map, and it is essentially taken for granted by programmers that their core operations run in constant time. Python's dict class is implemented with hashing, and the Python interpreter relies on dictionaries to retrieve an object that is referenced by an identifier in a given namespace. (See Sections 1.10 and 2.5.) The basic command `c=a+b` involves two calls to `getitem`

in the dictionary for the local

namespace to retrieve the values identified as `a` and `b`, and a call to

`setitem`

to store the result associated with name `c` in that namespace. In our own algorithm analysis, we simply presume that such dictionary operations run in constant time, independent of the number of entries in the dictionary.

In a 2003 academic paper [31], researchers discuss the possibility of exploiting a hash table's worst-case performance to cause a denial-of-service (DoS) attack of Internet technologies. For many years, they note that an attacker could precompute a very large number of moderate-length strings that all hash to the identical 32-bit hash code. (Recall that by any of the hashing schemes we describe, other than separate chaining, the hash code is used to index the bucket array.)

In late 2011, another team of researchers demonstrated an implementation of just such an attack [61]. Web servers allow a series of key-value parameters to be embedded in a URL using a syntax like `http://www.example.com/?key=value&key=value`.

Typically, those key-value pairs are immediately stored in a map by the server, and a limit is placed on the length and number of such parameters presuming that storage time in the map will be linear in the number of entries. If all keys were to collide, that storage requires quadratic time in the number of entries.

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### 10.2.3 Load Factors, Rehashing, and Efficiency

In the hash table schemes described thus far, it is important that the load factor,  $\alpha = n/N$ , be kept below 1. With separate chaining, as  $\alpha$  gets very close to 1, the probability of a collision greatly increases, which adds overhead to our operations, since we must revert to linear-time list-based methods in buckets that have collisions.

Experiments and average-case analyses suggest that we should maintain  $\alpha < 0.9$  for hash tables with separate chaining.

With open addressing, on the other hand, as the load factor  $\alpha$  grows beyond 0.5

and starts approaching 1, clusters of entries in the bucket array start to grow as well. These clusters cause the probability of a collision to increase significantly.

Experiments suggest that we should maintain  $\alpha < 0.5$  for an open addressing scheme with linear

probing, and perhaps only a bit higher for other open addressing schemes (for example, Python's implementation).

If an insertion causes the load factor of a hash table to go above the specified

threshold, then it is common to resize the table (to regain the specified load factor)

and to reinsert all objects into this new table. Although we need not define a new

hash code for each object, we do need to reapply a new compression function that takes into consideration the size of the new bucket array.

When rehashing to a new table, it is a good requirement for the new hash function to

scatter the items throughout the new bucket array. Indeed, if we always double the size of the table with each rehashing operation, then

we can amortize the cost of rehashing all the entries in the table against the time used to insert them in the first place.

Efficiency of Hash Tables

Although the details of the average-case analysis of hashing are beyond the scope of this book, its probabilistic behavior is well understood.

Thus, to store  $n$  entries, the expected number of keys in a bucket would be  $n/N$ , which is  $O(1)$  if  $n$  is  $O(N)$ .

The costs associated with a periodic rehashing, to resize a table after occasional

insertions or deletions can be accounted for separately, leading to an additional

$O(1)$  amortized cost for

setitem

and

getitem

.

In the worst case, a poor hash function could map every item to the same bucket.

This would result in linear-time performance for the core map operations with separate

chaining, or with any open addressing model in which the secondary sequence of probes depends only on the primary hash value.

Table 10.2.

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### 10.6 Exercises

For help with exercises, please visit the site, [www.wiley.com/college/goodrich](http://www.wiley.com/college/goodrich).

#### Reinforcement

R-10.1 Give a concrete implementation of the `popmethod` in the context of the `MutableMapping` class, relying only on the `·ve` primary abstract methods of that class.

R-10.2 Give a concrete implementation of the `items()` method in the context of the `MutableMapping` class, relying only on the `·ve` primary abstract methods of that class. What would its running time be if directly applied to the `UnsortedTableMap` subclass?

R-10.3 Give a concrete implementation of the `items()` method directly within the `UnsortedTableMap` class, ensuring that the entire iteration runs in  $O(n)$  time.

R-10.4 What is the worst-case running time for inserting  $n$  key-value pairs into an initially empty map  $M$  that is implemented with the `UnsortedTableMap` class?

R-10.5 Reimplement the `UnsortedTableMap` class from Section 10.1.5, using the `PositionalList` class from Section 7.4 rather than a Python list.

R-10.6 Which of the hash table collision-handling schemes could tolerate a load factor above 1 and which could not?

R-10.7 Our `Position` classes for lists and trees support the `eq` method so that

two distinct position instances are considered equivalent if they refer to the same underlying node in a structure.

hash

method that

is consistent with this notion of equivalence. Provide such a

hash

method.

R-10.8 What would be a good hash code for a vehicle identification number that is a string of numbers and letters?

R-10.9 Draw the 11-entry hash table that results from using the hash function,  $h(i) = (3i + 5) \bmod 11$ , to hash the keys 16, and 5, assuming collisions are handled by chaining.

R-10.10 What is the result of the previous exercise, assuming collisions are handled by linear probing?

R-10.11 Show the result of Exercise R-10.9, assuming collisions are handled by quadratic probing, up to the point where the method fails.



## 10.2 Hash Tables

In this section, we introduce one of the most practical data structures for implementing a map, and the one that is used by Python's own implementation of the dict class. This structure is known as a hash table.

Intuitively, a map  $M$  supports the abstraction of using keys as indices with a syntax such as  $M[k]$ . As a mental warm-up, consider a restricted setting in which a map with  $n$  items uses keys that are known to be integers in a range from 0 to  $N-1$  for some  $N$ . In this case, we can represent the map using a lookup table of length  $N$ , as diagrammed in Figure 10.3.

```
0 123456789 10
D Z C Q
```

Figure 10.3: A lookup table with length 11 for a map containing items (1,D), (3,Z), (6,C), and (7,Q).

In this representation, we store the value associated with key  $k$  at index  $k$  of the table (presuming that we have a distinct way to represent an empty slot). Basic map operations of

```
,
getitem
, and
delitem
can be implemented in
O(1) worst-case time.
```

There are two challenges in extending this framework to the more general setting of a map. First, we may not wish to devote an array of length  $N$  if it is the case that  $N \gg n$ . Second, we do not in general require that a map's keys be integers.

The novel concept for a hash table is the use of a hash function to map general keys to corresponding indices in a table. Ideally, keys will be well distributed in the range from 0 to  $N-1$  by a hash function that maps distinct keys to distinct indices. As a result, we will conceptualize our table as a bucket array, as shown in Figure 10.4, in which each bucket may manage a collection of items that are sent to a specific index by the hash function.

(To save space, an empty bucket may be replaced by None.)

```
0 123456789 10
(1,D) (25,C)
(3,F)
(14,Z) (39,C) (6,A) (7,Q)
```

Figure 10.4: A bucket array of capacity 11 with items (1,D), (25,C), (3,F), (14,Z), (6,A), (39,C), and (7,Q), using a simple hash function.

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### 10.2.2 Collision-Handling Schemes

The main idea of a hash table is to take a bucket array,  $A$ , and a hash function,  $h$ , and use them to implement a map by storing each item  $(k, v)$  in the bucket  $A[h(k)]$ .

This simple idea is challenged, however, when we have two distinct keys,  $k_1$  and  $k_2$ , such that  $h(k_1) = h(k_2)$ . The existence of such collisions prevents us from simply inserting a new item  $(k, v)$  directly into the bucket  $A[h(k)]$ . It also complicates our procedure for performing insertion, search, and deletion operations.

#### Separate Chaining

A simple and efficient way for dealing with collisions is to have each bucket  $A[j]$  store its own secondary container, holding items  $(k, v)$  such that  $h(k) = j$ . A natural choice for the secondary container is a small map instance implemented using a list, as described in Section 10.1.5. This collision resolution rule is known as separate chaining, and is illustrated in Figure 10.6.

A 123456789 10 01 112

123825

9054

28413618 10

Figure 10.6: A hash table of size 13, storing 10 items with integer keys, with collisions resolved by separate chaining. The compression function is  $h(k) = k \bmod 13$ .

For simplicity, we do not show the values associated with the keys.

In the worst case, operations on an individual bucket take time proportional to the size of the bucket. Assuming we use a good hash function to index the items of our map in a bucket array of capacity  $N$ , the expected size of a bucket is  $n/N$ .

Therefore, if given a good hash function, the core map operations run in  $O(n/N)$ .

The ratio  $\alpha = n/N$ , called the load factor of the hash table, should be bounded by a small constant, preferably below 1. As long as  $\alpha$  is  $O(1)$ , the core operations on the hash table run in  $O(1)$  expected time.