Introduction to Data Structures

The Search Problem

- Find items with keys matching a given search key
 - Given an array A, containing n keys, and a search key x, find the index i such as x=A[i]
 - As in the case of sorting, a key could be part of a large record.

example of a record

Key other data

Hashing

- Aimed towards faster search performance
- Search techniques covered
 - Linear/sequential search
 - Binary search
- When log(n) is just too big...
 - air traffic control
 - packet routing
- What hashing does
 - Storage location depends on the item

Hashing: Usefulness

- Some other examples where hashing helps
 - Click count of webpages
 - Number of connections from a url
 - Reservations in a given flight
 - Unique terms from a book
 - List of visited cells/nodes in an application
- Basic idea: item itself determines (narrows down) where the element can be found
 - H:Item domain->set of storage locations
 - i=h(k) is where the item is present
 - (Not always true, but provides starting point)

The Search Problem

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Key	other data
	i

Direct Addressing

Assumptions:

- Key values are distinct
- Each key is drawn from a universe $U = \{0, 1, ..., m 1\}$

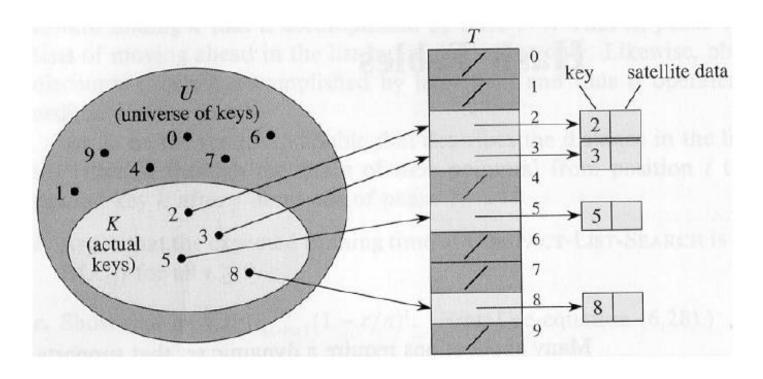
• Idea:

Store the items in an array, indexed by keys

Direct-address table representation:

- An array T[0 . . . m 1]
- Each slot, or position, in T corresponds to a key in U
- For an element x with key k, a pointer to x (or x itself) will be placed in location T[k]
- If there are no elements with key k in the set, T[k] is empty, represented by NIL

Direct Addressing (cont'd)



(insert/delete in O(1) time)

Operations

Alg.: DIRECT-ADDRESS-SEARCH(T, k) return T[k]

Alg.: DIRECT-ADDRESS-INSERT(T, x) $T[key[x]] \leftarrow x$

Alg.: DIRECT-ADDRESS-DELETE(T, x) $T[key[x]] \leftarrow NIL$

• Running time for these operations: O(1)

Examples Using Direct Addressing

Example 1:

- (i) Suppose that the keys are integers from 1 to 100 and that there are about 100 records
- (ii) Create an array A of 100 items and store the record whose key is equal to i in A[i]
- (i) Suppose that the keys are nine-digit social security numbers
- (ii) We can use the same strategy as before but it very inefficient now: an array of 1 billion items is needed to store 100 records!!

- |U| can be very large
- |K| can be much smaller than |U|

Hash Tables

- When K is much smaller than U, a hash table requires much less space than a direct-address table
 - Can reduce storage requirements to |K|
 - Can still get O(1) search time, but on the <u>average</u> case, not the worst case

Hash Tables

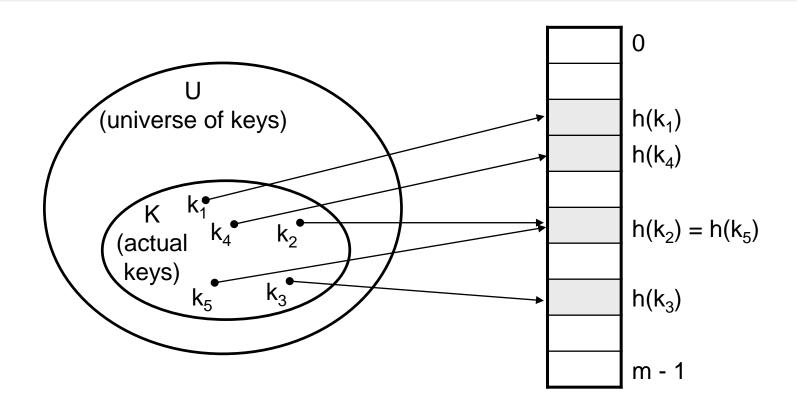
Idea:

- Use a function h to compute the slot for each key
- Store the element in slot h(k)
- A hash function h transforms a key into an index in a hash table T[0...m-1]:

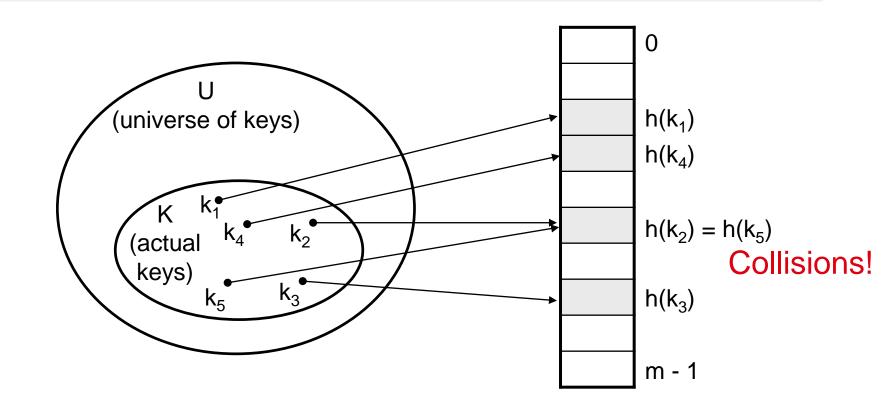
$$h: U \to \{0, 1, ..., m-1\}$$

- We say that k hashes to slot h(k)
- Advantages:
 - Reduce the range of array indices handled: m instead of U
 - Storage is also reduced

Example: HASH TABLES



Problems with this approach



Collisions

- Two or more keys hash to the same slot!!
- For a given set K of keys
 - If $|K| \le m$, collisions may or may not happen, depending on the hash function
 - If |K| > m, collisions will definitely happen (i.e., there must be at least two keys that have the same hash value)
- Avoiding collisions completely is hard, even with a good hash function

Handling Collisions

- We will review the following methods:
 - Open addressing
 - Linear probing
 - Quadratic probing
 - Double hashing
 - Chaining

Hash Functions

- A hash function transforms a key into a table address
- What makes a good hash function?
 - (1) Easy to compute
 - (2) Approximates a random function: for every input, every output is equally likely (simple uniform hashing)
- In practice, it is very hard to satisfy the simple uniform hashing property
 - i.e., we don't know in advance the probability distribution that keys are drawn from

Good Approaches for Hash Functions

- Minimize the chance that closely related keys hash to the same slot
 - Strings such as pt and pts should hash to different slots
- Derive a hash value that is independent from any patterns that may exist in the distribution of the keys

Properties of Good Hash Functions

- Must return number 0, ..., tablesize
- Should be efficiently computable O(1) time
- Should not waste space unnecessarily
 - For every index, there is at least one key that hashes to it
 - Load factor lambda λ = (number of keys / TableSize)
- Should minimize collisions
 - = different keys hashing to same index

Integer Keys

- Hash(x) = x % TableSize
- Good idea to make TableSize prime. Why?

Integer Keys

- Hash(x) = x % TableSize
- Good idea to make TableSize prime. Why?
 - Because keys are typically not randomly distributed, but usually have some pattern
 - mostly even
 - mostly multiples of 10
 - in general: mostly multiples of some k
 - If k is a factor of TableSize, then only (TableSize/k) slots will ever be used!
 - Since the only factor of a prime number is itself, this phenomena only hurts in the (rare) case where k=TableSize

Strings as Keys

If keys are strings, can get an integer by adding up ASCII values of characters in key

- **Problem 1**: What if *TableSize* is 10,000 and all keys are 8 or less characters long?
- **Problem 2**: What if keys often contain the same characters ("abc", "bca", etc.)?

Hashing Strings

Basic idea: consider string to be a integer (base 32):
 Hash("abc") = ('a'*32² + 'b'*32¹ + 'c') % TableSize

```
    Horner's Rule
```

```
int hash(char s[]) {
  h = 0;
  for (i = strlen(s) - 1; i >= 0; i--) {
    h = (s[i] + h<<5) % tableSize;
  }
  return h;
}</pre>
```

How Can You Hash...

- A set of values (name, birthdate) ?
 (Hash(name) ^ Hash(birthdate))% tablesize
- An arbitrary pointer in C? ((int)p) % tablesize

IP address?

 a.b.c.d
 Concatenate a, b, c, d to get s
 Treat s as an integer and use h(s)%tablesize

The Multiplication Method

Idea:

- Multiply key k by a constant A, where 0 < A < 1
- Extract the fractional part of kA
- Multiply the fractional part by m
- Take the floor of the result

- Disadvantage: Slower than division method
- Advantage: Value of m is not critical, e.g., typically 2^p

Example – Multiplication Method

```
- The value of m is not critical now (e.g., m = 2^p)
    assume m = 2^3
       .101101 (A)
110101 (k)
    1001010.0110011 (kA)
    discard: 1001010
    shift .0110011 by 3 bits to the left
        011.0011
    take integer part: 011
    thus, h(110101)=011
```

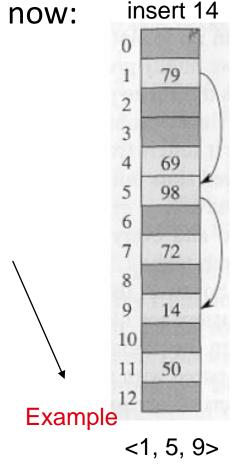
Generalize hash function notation:

A hash function contains two arguments now:
 (i) Key value, and (ii) Probe number

$$h(k,p), p=0,1,...,m-1$$

Probe sequences

- Must be a permutation of <0,1,...,m-1>
- There are m! possible permutations
- Good hash functions should be able to produce all m! probe sequences



Common Open Addressing Methods

- Linear probing
- Quadratic probing
- Double hashing

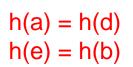
Alternative Strategy: Closed Hashing

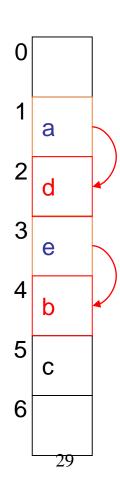
Problem with separate chaining:

Memory consumed by pointers – 32 (or 64) bits per key!

What if we only allow one Key at each entry?

- two objects that hash to the same spot can't both go there
- first one there gets the spot
- next one must go in another spot
- Properties
 - $\lambda \leq 1$
 - performance degrades with difficulty of finding right spot





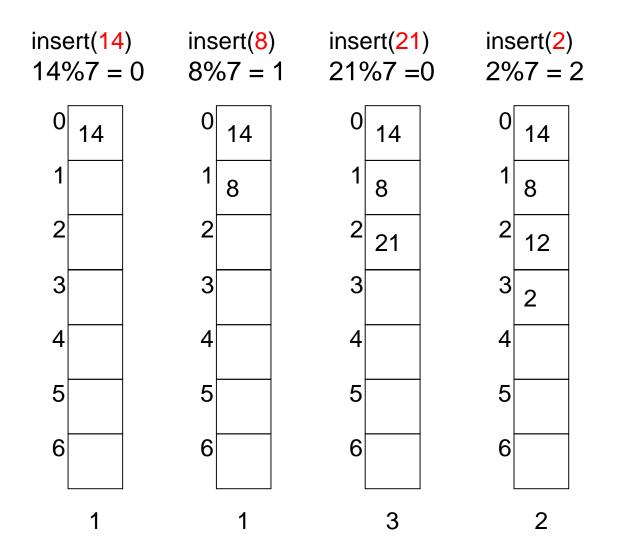
Collision Resolution by Closed Hashing

- Given an item X, try cells h(X, 0), h(X, 1), h(X, 2), ..., h(X, i)
- $h(X,i) = (Hash(X) + F(i)) \mod TableSize$
 - Define F(0) = 0
- F is the *collision resolution* function. Some possibilities:
 - Linear: F(i) = i
 - Quadratic: $F(i) = i^2$
 - Double Hashing: $F(i) = i * Hash_2(X)$

Closed Hashing I: Linear Probing

- Main Idea: When collision occurs, scan down the array one cell at a time looking for an empty cell
 - $h(X,i) = (Hash(X) + i) \mod TableSize$ (i = 0, 1, 2, ...)
 - Compute hash value and increment it until a free cell is found

Linear Probing Example



probes:

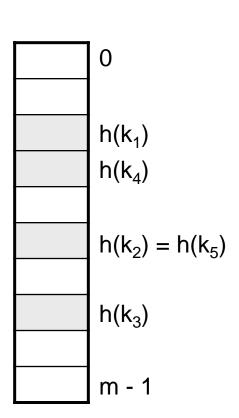
Drawbacks of Linear Probing

- Works until array is full, but as number of items N approaches *TableSize* ($\lambda \approx 1$), access time approaches O(N)
- Very prone to cluster formation (as in our example)
 - If a key hashes anywhere into a cluster, finding a free cell involves going through the entire cluster – and making it grow!
 - Primary clustering clusters grow when keys hash to values close to each other
- Can have cases where table is empty except for a few clusters
 - Does not satisfy good hash function criterion of distributing keys uniformly

Linear probing: Searching for a key

Three cases:

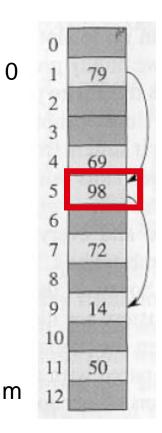
- (1) Position in table is occupied with an element of equal key
- (2) Position in table is empty
- (3) Position in table occupied with a different element
- Case 3: probe the next higher index until the element is found or an empty position is found
- The process wraps around to the beginning of the table



Linear probing: Deleting a key

Problems

- Cannot mark the slot as empty
- Impossible to retrieve keys inserted after that slot was occupied
- Solution
 - Mark the slot with a sentinel value DELET!
- The deleted slot can later be used for insertion
- Searching will be able to find all the keys.

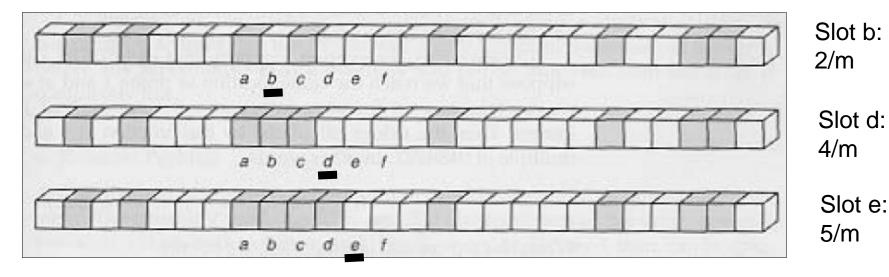


Primary Clustering Problem

- Some slots become more likely than others
- Long chunks of occupied slots are created

 \Rightarrow search time increases!!

initially, all slots have probability 1/m



Quadratic probing

$$h(k, i) = (h'(k) + c_1 i + c_2 i^2)$$
 med, med, where $h': U - - > (0, 1, ..., m - 1)$

- Clustering problem is less serious but still an issue (secondary clustering)
- How many probe sequences quadratic probing generate? *m* (the initial probe position determines the probe sequence)