

Lecture 7: Dictionaries (Maps)

Sequential Unfoldment of Knowledge

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Wholeness Statement

The Dictionary ADT stores a searchable collection of *key-value* items that represents either an unordered or an ordered collection. Hashing solves the problem of item-lookup by providing a table whose size is not unreasonably large, yet it can store a large range of keys such that the element associated with each key can be accessed quickly ($O(1)$). SCI provides systematic techniques for accessing and experiencing total knowledge of the Universe to enhance individual life.

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The Dictionary ADT

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Two Types of Dictionaries

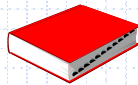
1. Unordered (§2.5.1)
2. Ordered (§3.1)

- ◆ Both use a key to identify a specific element/value
- ◆ Stores items, i.e., key-value pairs
- ◆ For the sake of generality, multiple items can have the same key

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Unordered Dictionary ADT (§2.5.1)



- ◆ The dictionary ADT models a searchable collection of key-element items
- ◆ The main operations of a dictionary are searching, inserting, and deleting items
- ◆ Multiple items with the same key are allowed
- ◆ Applications:
 - address book
 - credit card authorization
 - mapping host names (e.g., cs16.net) to internet addresses (e.g., 128.148.34.101)

- ◆ Dictionary ADT methods:
 - **findValue(k)**: if the dictionary has an item with key *k*, returns its element, else, returns the special element NO_SUCH_KEY
 - **insertItem(k, o)**: inserts item (*k*, *o*) into the dictionary
 - **removeItem(k)**: if the dictionary has an item with key *k*, removes it from the dictionary and returns its element, else returns the special element NO_SUCH_KEY
 - **size()**, **isEmpty()**
 - **keys()**, **values()**, **items()**

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Log Files (§2.5.1)

- ◆ A log file (or audit trail) is a dictionary implemented by means of an unsorted sequence
 - Items are stored in the dictionary in a sequence in arbitrary order
 - Based on doubly-linked lists or a circular array
- ◆ Performance:
 - **insertItem** takes $O(1)$ time since we can insert the new item at the beginning or at the end of the sequence
 - **findValue** and **removeItem** take $O(n)$ time since in the worst case (the item is not found) we traverse the entire sequence to look for an item with the given key

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Log File

- ◆ Effective only for dictionaries of small size or
- ◆ For dictionaries on which insertions are the most common operations, while searches and removals are rarely performed (e.g., historical record of logins to a workstation)
- ◆ What do we do if we need to do frequent searches and removals in a large dictionary?

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Hash Tables

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Hash Tables and Hash Functions (§2.5.2)



- ◆ A **hash table** for a given key type consists of
 - Hash function h
 - Array (called table) of size N
- ◆ A **hash function** h maps keys of a given type to integers in a fixed interval $[0, N - 1]$
- ◆ Example:

$$h(k) = k \bmod N$$
 is a hash function for integer keys
- ◆ The integer $h(k)$ is called the **hash value** of key k

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Goals of Hash Functions

1. Store item (k, o) at index $i = h(k)$ in the table
2. Avoid collisions as much as possible
 - Collisions occur when two keys hash to the same index i
 - The average performance of hashing depends on how well the hash function distributes the set of keys (i.e., avoids collisions)

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Example

- ◆ Design a hash table for a dictionary storing items (SSN, Name), where SSN (social security number) is a nine-digit positive integer
- ◆ Our hash table uses an array of size $N = 10,000$ and the hash function $h(x) = \text{last four digits of } x$

0	⊘	
1	→	025-612-0001
2	→	981-101-0002
3	⊘	
4	→	451-229-0004
⋮		
9997	⊘	
9998	→	200-751-9998
9999	⊘	

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Hash Functions (§ 2.5.3)



- ◆ A hash function is usually specified as the composition of two functions:

Hash code map:

h_1 : keys \rightarrow integers

Compression map:

h_2 : integers $\rightarrow [0, N - 1]$

- ◆ The hash code map is applied first, and the compression map is applied next on the result, i.e.,

$$h(x) = h_2(h_1(x))$$

- ◆ The goal of the hash function is to "disperse" the keys in an apparently random way

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Hash Code Maps (§2.5.3)



Memory address:

- We reinterpret the memory address of the key object as an integer
 - (default hash code of all Java objects)
- Good in general, except for numeric and string keys

Integer cast:

- We reinterpret the bits of the key as an integer
- Suitable for keys of length less than or equal to the number of bits of the integer type (e.g., byte, short, int, and float in Java)

Component sum:

- We partition the bits of the key into components of fixed length (e.g., 16 or 32 bits)
- Then we sum the components (ignoring overflows)
- Suitable for numeric keys of fixed length greater than or equal to the number of bits of the integer type (e.g., long and double in Java)

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Hash Code Maps (cont.)



Polynomial accumulation:

- We partition the bits of the key into a sequence of components of fixed length (e.g., 8, 16 or 32 bits)

$$a_0 a_1 \dots a_{n-1}$$
- We evaluate the polynomial

$$p(z) = a_0 + a_1 z + a_2 z^2 + \dots + a_{n-1} z^{n-1}$$
 at a fixed value z , ignoring overflows
- Especially suitable for strings (e.g., the choice $z = 33$ gives at most 6 collisions on a set of 50,000 English words)

Polynomial $p(z)$ can be evaluated in $O(n)$ time using Horner's rule:

- The following polynomials are successively computed, each from the previous one in $O(1)$ time

$$p_0(z) = a_{n-1}$$

$$p_i(z) = a_{n-i-1} + z p_{i-1}(z) \quad (i = 1, 2, \dots, n-1)$$

We have $p(z) = p_{n-1}(z)$

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Compression Maps (§2.5.4)



Division:

- $h_2(y) = y \bmod N$
- The size N of the hash table is usually chosen to be a prime
 - The reason has to do with number theory and is beyond the scope of this course

Multiply, Add and Divide (MAD):

- $h_2(y) = (ay + b) \bmod N$
- a and b are nonnegative integers such that

$$a \bmod N \neq 0$$
- Otherwise, every integer would map to the same value b

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Main Point

1. The hash function solves the problem of fast table-lookup, i.e., it allows the element associated with each key to be accessed quickly (in $O(1)$ time). A hash function is composed of a hash code function and a compression function that transforms (in constant time) each key into a specific location in the table.

Science of Consciousness: Through a process of self-referral, the unified field transforms itself into all the values of creation without making mistakes.

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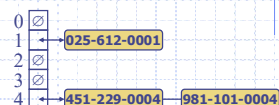
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Collision Handling (§2.5.5)



- ◆ Collisions occur when different elements are mapped to the same cell

- ◆ **Chaining:** let each cell in the table point to a linked list of elements that map there



- ◆ Chaining is simple, but requires additional memory outside the table

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Linear Probing (§2.5.5)



- ◆ **Open addressing:** the colliding item is placed in a different cell of the table
- ◆ **Linear probing** handles collisions by placing the colliding item in the next (circularly) available table cell
- ◆ Each table cell inspected is referred to as a "probe"
- ◆ Colliding items lump together, causing future collisions to cause a longer sequence of probes

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Linear Probing (§2.5.5)



Exercise:

- $h(x) = x \bmod 13$
- Insert keys 18, 41, 22, 44, 59, 32, 31, 73, in this order



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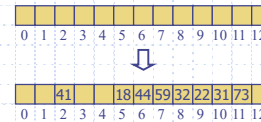
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Linear Probing (§2.5.5)



Example:

- $h(x) = x \bmod 13$
- Insert keys 18, 41, 22, 44, 59, 32, 31, 73, in this order



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Search with Linear Probing



- ◆ Consider a hash table A that uses linear probing

findValue(k)

- We start at cell $h(k)$
- We probe consecutive locations until one of the following occurs
 - An item with key k is found, or
 - An empty cell is found, or
 - N cells have been unsuccessfully probed

```

Algorithm findValue( $k$ )
    item ← findItem( $k$ )
    return item.element()

Algorithm findItem( $k$ )
     $i \leftarrow h(k)$ 
    while  $p < N$  do
         $x \leftarrow (i + p) \bmod N$ 
        item ←  $A[x]$ 
        if item =  $\emptyset$  then
            return NO_SUCH_KEY
        else if item.key() =  $k$  then
            return item
        else
             $p \leftarrow p + 1$ 
    return NO_SUCH_KEY
    
```

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Updates with Linear Probing

- ◆ To handle insertions and deletions, we introduce a special object, called *AVAILABLE*, which replaces deleted elements

removeItem(k)

- We search for an item with key k (findItem(k))
- If such an item (k, o) is found, we replace it with the special item *AVAILABLE* and we return element o
- Else, we return *NO_SUCH_KEY*

insert Item(k, o)

- We throw an exception if the table is full
- We start at cell $h(k)$
- We probe consecutive cells until one of the following occurs
 - A cell i is found that is either empty or stores *AVAILABLE*, or
 - N cells have been unsuccessfully probed
- We store item (k, o) in cell i

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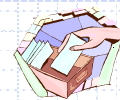
Quadratic Probing

- ◆ Start with the hash value $i = h(k)$,
- ◆ Then search $A[(i + j^2) \bmod N]$ for $j = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ until an empty slot is found
- ◆ Disadvantages
 - Complicates removal even more
 - Secondary clustering

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Double Hashing



- ◆ Double hashing uses a secondary hash function $d(k)$ and handles collisions by placing an item in the first available cell of the series $(i + j * d(k)) \bmod N$ for $j = 0, 1, \dots, N - 1$
- ◆ The secondary hash function $d(k)$ cannot have zero values
- ◆ The table size N must be a prime to allow probing of all the cells

- ◆ Common choice of compression map for the secondary hash function: $d(k) = q - (k \bmod q)$

where

- $q < N$
- q is a prime

- ◆ The possible values for $d(k)$ are $1, 2, \dots, q$

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Example of Double Hashing

- Consider a hash table storing integer keys that handles collision with double hashing

- $N = 13$
- $h(k) = k \bmod 13$
- $d(k) = 7 - (k \bmod 7)$

- Insert keys 18, 41, 22, 44, 59, 32, 31, 73, in this order

k	h(k)	d(k)	Probes
18	5	3	5
41	2	1	2
22	9	6	9
44	5	5	5 10
59	7	4	7
32	6	3	6
31	5	4	5 9 0
73	8	4	8

31	41					18	32	59	73	22	44	
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12

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Linear Probing

```

Algorithm findItem(k)
i ← h(k)
p ← 0
while p < N do
  x ← (i + p) mod N
  item ← A[x]
  if item = ∅ then
    return NO_SUCH_KEY
  else if item.key() = k then
    return item
  else
    p ← p + 1
return NO_SUCH_KEY
    
```

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Probing Algorithms

Quadratic Probing

```

Algorithm findItem(k)
i ← h(k)
p ← 0
while p < N do
  x ← (i + p2) mod N
  item ← A[x]
  if item = ∅ then
    return NO_SUCH_KEY
  else if item.key() = k then
    return item
  else
    p ← p + 1
return NO_SUCH_KEY
    
```

Double Hashing

```

Algorithm findItem(k)
i ← h(k)
p ← 0
while p < N do
  x ← (i + p * d(k)) mod N
  item ← A[x]
  if item = ∅ then
    return NO_SUCH_KEY
  else if item.key() = k then
    return item
  else
    p ← p + 1
return NO_SUCH_KEY
    
```

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Load Factors and Rehashing

- Load factor is n/N where n is the number items in the table and N is the table size
- When the load factor goes above .75, the table is resized and the items are rehashed

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Performance of Hashing

- In the worst case, searches, insertions and removals on a hash table take $O(n)$ time
- The worst case occurs when all the keys inserted into the dictionary collide
- The load factor $\alpha = n/N$ affects the performance of a hash table
- Assuming that the hash values are like random numbers, it can be shown that the expected number of probes for an insertion with open addressing is $1 / (1 - \alpha)$

- The expected running time of all the dictionary ADT operations in a hash table is $O(1)$
- In practice, hashing is very fast provided the load factor is not close to 100%
- Applications of hash tables:
 - small databases
 - compilers
 - browser caches

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Universal Hashing

- If allowed to pick the keys to be hashed, then a malicious adversary can choose n keys that all hash to the same slot
 - Any fixed hash function is vulnerable to this sort of worst-case behavior
- The only effective way to improve the situation
 - Choose the hash function randomly in a way that is independent of the keys to be stored
- This approach is called universal hashing
 - The hash function is chosen randomly at beginning of execution
- Yields good performance no matter what keys are chosen by an adversary

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Universal Hashing (§ 2.5.6)



- ◆ A family of hash functions is **universal** if, for any $0 \leq j, k \leq M-1$, $\Pr(h(j)=h(k)) \leq 1/N$.

- ◆ Keys are in the range $[0, M-1]$
- ◆ A hash function maps to the range $[0, N-1]$

- ◆ **Theorem:** The set of all functions, h , as defined here, is universal.

- ◆ Choose p as a prime between M and $2M$.
- ◆ Randomly select $0 < a < p$ and $0 \leq b < p$, and define $h(k) = (ak + b \bmod p) \bmod N$

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Main Point

2. A hash table is an example of a highly efficient implementation of an unordered Dictionary ADT (its operations have complexity $O(1)$). However, efficiency is only possible if the issues related to implementation are handled, e.g., resizing, handling collisions.

Science of Consciousness: Access to Pure Consciousness is simple, effortless, easy, and spontaneous through the introduction of the proper techniques.

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Ordered Dictionaries

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Ordered Dictionaries



- ◆ Keys are assumed to come from a total order, i.e., the keys can be sorted.
- ◆ Constraints of iterator operations:
 - **keys()**
Returns an iterator of the keys in sorted order
 - **values()**
Returns the element of the items in key-sorted order
 - **items()**
Returns the (k, e) items in sorted order by key (k) of the item

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Lookup Tables (§3.1.1)



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Lookup Table (§3.1.1)

A dictionary implemented by means of a sorted sequence

- store the items of the dictionary in an array-based sequence, sorted by key
- use an external comparator for the keys

When would a table like this be useful?

- only useful if primarily used for lookup and rarely updated with added items or removals
- when the input to the table is processed or comes in in sorted order

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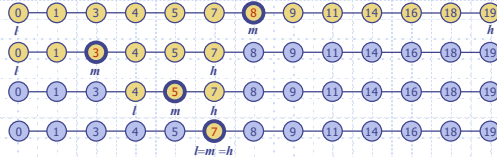
Binary Search (§3.1.1)



Binary search performs operation **findValue(k)** on a dictionary implemented by means of an array-based sequence, sorted by key

- similar to the high-low game
- at each step, the number of candidate items is halved
- terminates after $O(\log n)$ steps

Example: **findValue(7)**



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Binary Search Algorithm (recursive)

Algorithm BinarySearch(S, k, low, high):

Input: An ordered vector S storing n items, accessed by keys()

Output: An element of S with key k and rank between low & high.

```

if low > high then
    return NO_SUCH_KEY
else
    mid ← (low + high)/2
    if k = key(mid) then
        return elem(mid)
    else if k < key(mid) then
        return BinarySearch(S, k, low, mid-1)
    else
        return BinarySearch(S, k, mid + 1, high)
    
```

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Running Time of Binary Search

Running time proportional to number of recursive calls performed.

Recurrence equation:

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} b & \text{if } n = 0 \\ T(n/2) + b & \text{else,} \end{cases}$$

Exercise: solve this recurrence equation (use the master method).

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Running Time of Binary Search

Recurrence equation:

$$T(n) \leq \begin{cases} b & \text{if } n < 2 \\ T(n/2) + b & \text{else,} \end{cases}$$

Guess: $T(n)$ is $O(\log n)$

Assume $T(n/2) \leq c \log n/2$

$$\begin{aligned}
 T(n) &\leq c \log n/2 + b \\
 &= c (\log n - \log 2) + b \\
 &= c (\log n - 1) + b \\
 &= c \log n - c + b \\
 &\leq c \log n \quad \text{for } b \leq c
 \end{aligned}$$

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Binary Search Algorithm (iterative) for use in a Lookup Table

Algorithm BinarySearch(S, k):

Input: An ordered Sequence S storing n items, ordered by keys()

Output: The rank in S where key k is stored; if not in table, then the rank where an item containing k should be inserted.

```

low ← 0
high ← S.size() - 1
while low < high do
    mid ← (low + high)/2
    item ← S.elemAtRank(mid)
    if item.key() < k then // only one key comparison per iteration
        low ← mid + 1
    else // item.key() ≥ k (mid is not eliminated yet)
        high ← mid
return low // the rank where an item with key k is located or should be
           // inserted because every item at rank < low, the item.key() < k
    
```

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findValue using a Binary Search to find an item in a Lookup Table

Algorithm findValue(k):

Input: An ordered (by keys()) Sequence S storing n items is a private internal field inside the Lookup Table

Output: the element associated with k in the sequence of items in S if it is in the table.

```

rank ← binarySearch(S, k)
if S.size() ≤ rank then return NO_SUCH_KEY // handles empty S
item ← S.elemAtRank(rank)
if k = item.key() then
    return item.value()
else // key k is not in the Dictionary
    return NO_SUCH_KEY
    
```

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insertItem using a Binary Search to find where to insert new item

Algorithm **insertItem**(*k*, *e*):

Input: An ordered (by keys()) Sequence *S* storing *n* items is a private internal field inside the Lookup Table

Output: the element associated with *k* in the sequence of items in *S* if it is in the table.

```
rank ← binarySearch(S, k)
if rank = S.size() then // also handles the case when S is empty
    S.insertLast( (k, e) )
    return e
item ← S.elemAtRank(rank)
if k = item.key() then // key k is in the Dictionary, so replace item
    old ← item.value() // element/value of the old item to be returned
    S.replaceElement( (k, e) ) // replace old item with the new one
    return old
else // key k is not in the Dictionary, so insert the new item
    S.insertAtRank(rank, (k, e) )
    return e
```

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removeItem using Binary Search to find where to remove

Algorithm **removeItem**(*k*):

Input: An ordered (by keys()) Sequence *S* storing *n* items as a private internal field inside the Lookup Table

Output: the item containing *k* in the sequence of items in *S* is removed from the table if it exists.

```
rank ← binarySearch(S, k)
if S.size() ≤ rank then return NO_SUCH_KEY // handles empty S
item ← S.elemAtRank(rank)
if k = item.key() then // key k is in the Dictionary
    old ← item.value() // element of the old item is to be returned
    S.removeAtRank(rank) // remove old item
    return old
else // key k is not in the Dictionary
    return NO_SUCH_KEY
```

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Lookup Table (§3.1.1)

- ◆ A dictionary implemented by means of a sorted sequence
 - store the items of the dictionary in an array-based sequence, sorted by key
 - use an external comparator for the keys
- ◆ Performance:
 - **findValue**(*k*)
 - **insertItem**(*k*, *e*)
 - **removeItem**(*k*)

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Lookup Table (§3.1.1)

- ◆ A dictionary implemented by means of a sorted sequence
 - store the items of the dictionary in an array-based sequence, sorted by key
 - use an external comparator for the keys
- ◆ Performance:
 - **findValue** takes $O(\log n)$ time, using binary search
 - **insertItem** takes $O(n)$ time since in the worst case we have to shift *n* items to make room for the new item
 - **removeItem** take $O(n)$ time since in the worst case we have to shift $n/2$ items to compact the items after the removal

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Lookup Table (§3.1.1)

- ◆ Effective only
 - for dictionaries of small size or
 - for dictionaries on which
 - searches are the most common operation, and
 - insertions and removals are rarely performed
 - (e.g., credit card authorizations)

◆ What do we do if this is not the case?

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Main Point

3. A lookup table is an example of an ordered Dictionary ADT allowing elements to be efficiently accessed in order by key. When implemented as an ordered sequence, searching for a key is relatively efficient, $O(\log n)$, but insertion and deletion are not, $O(n)$.
Science of Consciousness: The unified field of natural law always operates with maximum efficiency.

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Connecting the Parts of Knowledge with the Wholeness of Knowledge

1. A hash table is a very efficient way of implementing an unordered Dictionary ADT; the running time of search, insertion, and deletion is expected $O(1)$ time.
2. To achieve efficient behavior of the hash table operations takes a careful choice of table size, load factor, hash function, and handling of collisions.

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3. **Transcendental Consciousness** is the silent field of perfect efficiency and frictionless flow for coordinating all activity in the universe.
4. **Impulses within Transcendental Consciousness:** The dynamic natural laws within this unbounded field create and maintain the order and balance in creation, all spontaneously without effort.
5. **Wholeness moving within itself:** In Unity Consciousness, the diversity of creation is experienced as waves of intelligence, perfectly efficient fluctuations of one's own self-referral consciousness.

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