

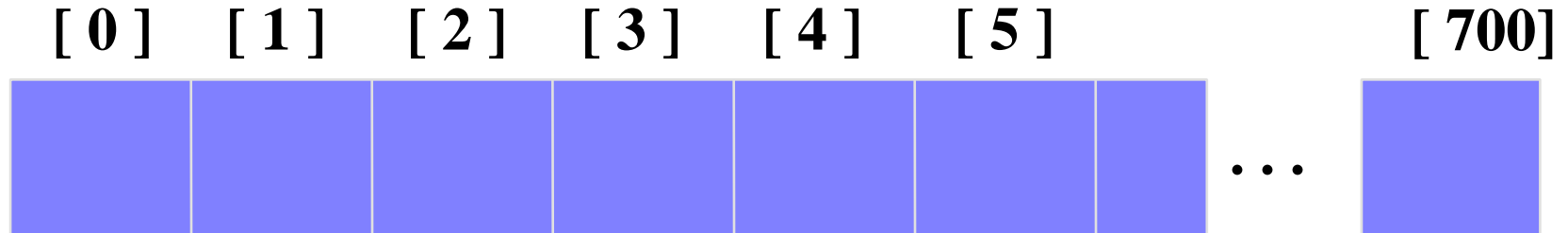
# Hash Tables

# Introduction

- Hash tables store a collection of records with **keys**.
- The location (index) of a record depends on the **hash value** of the record's key.
- The hash-value (index location) is calculated based on HASH FUNCTIONS

# What is a Hash Table ?

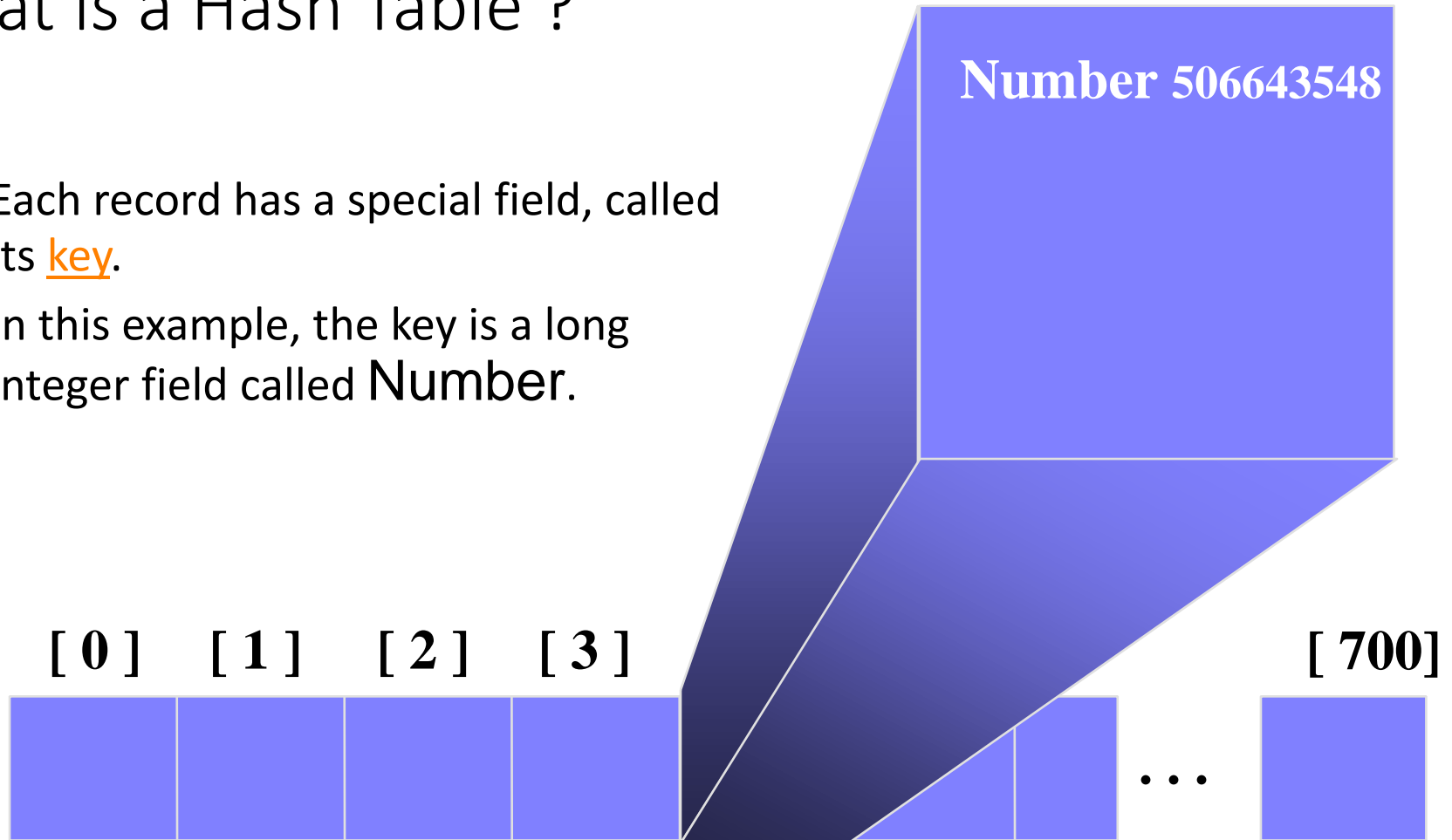
- The simplest kind of hash table is an array of records.
- This example has 701 records.
- Hash function is in our example is:
  - `MOD size`



**An array of records**

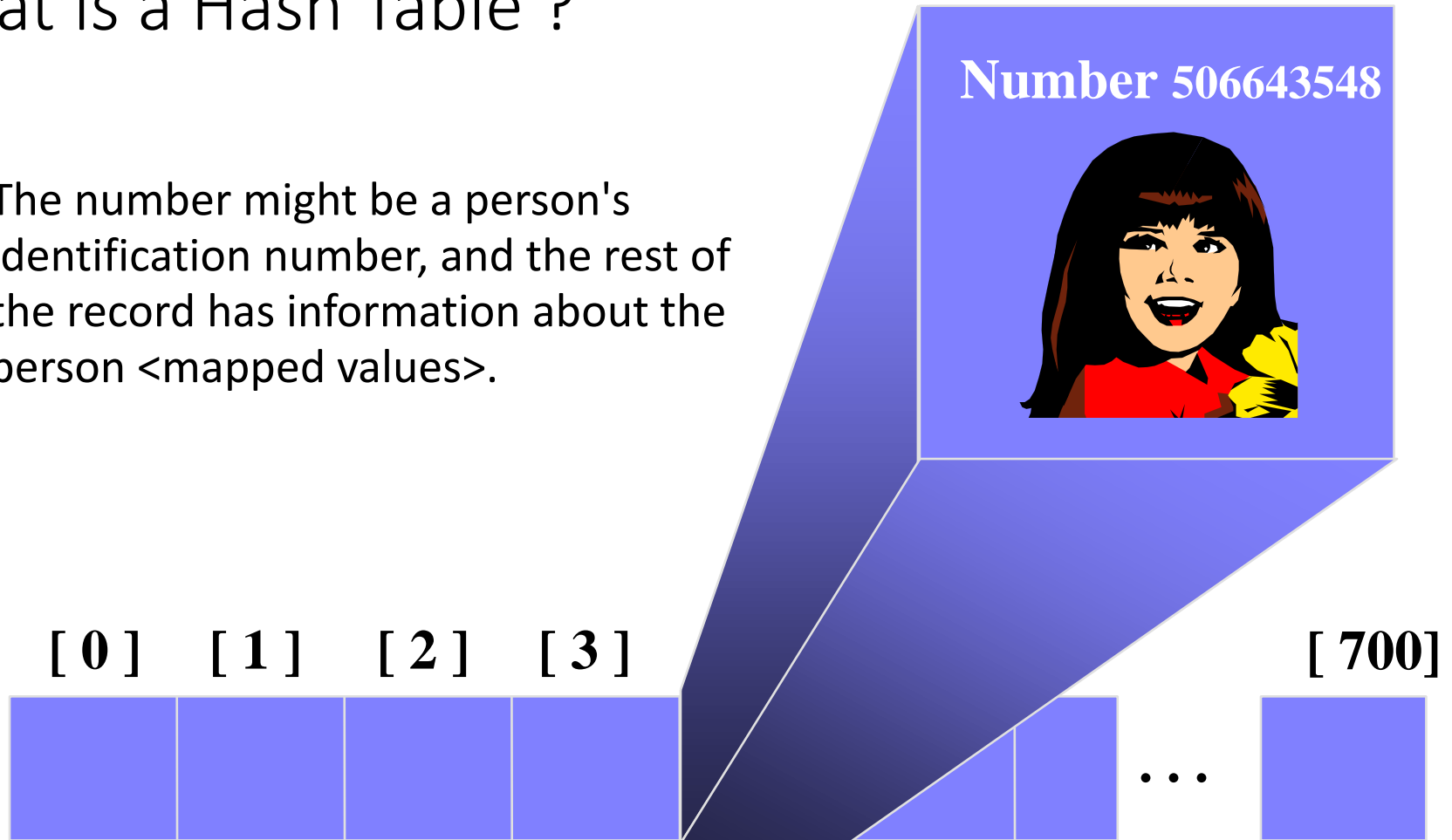
# What is a Hash Table ?

- Each record has a special field, called its key.
- In this example, the key is a long integer field called **Number**.



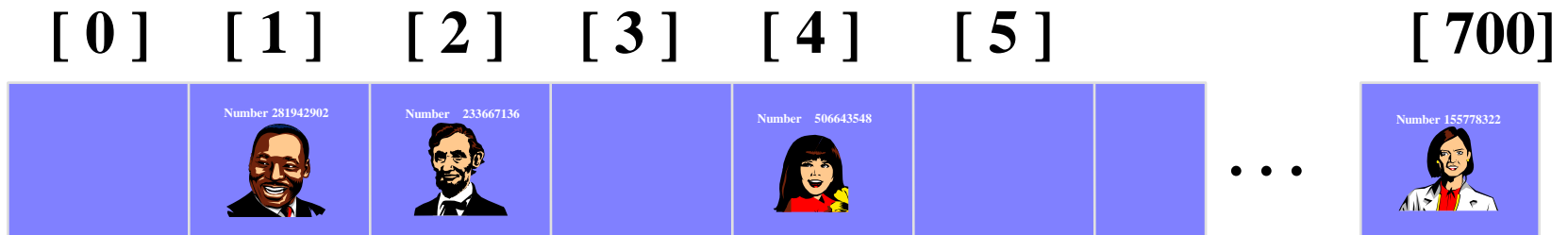
# What is a Hash Table ?

- The number might be a person's identification number, and the rest of the record has information about the person <mapped values>.



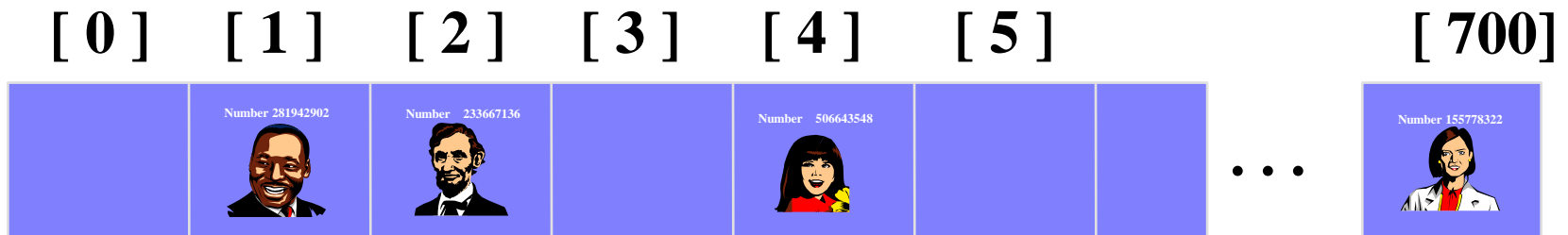
# What is a Hash Table ?

- When a hash table is in use, some spots contain valid records, and other spots are "empty".



# Inserting a New Record

- In order to insert a new record, the key must somehow be converted to an array index
- Index is found using a ***HASH FUNCTION***
- The index is called the hash value of the key.

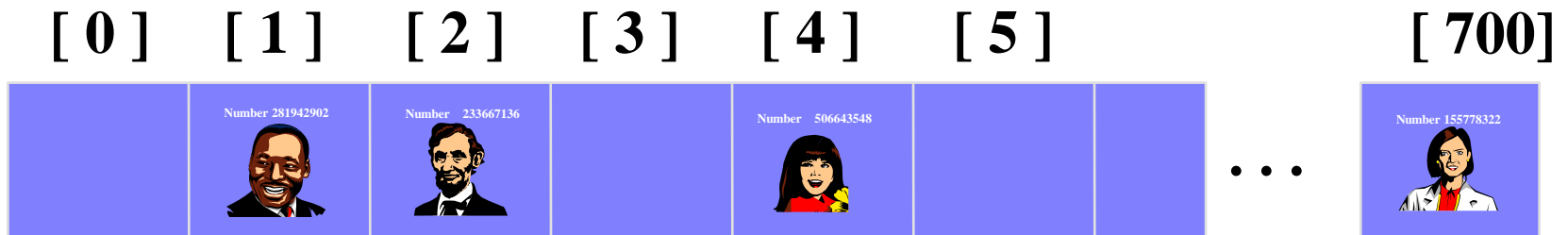


# Inserting a New Record

- Typical way to create a hash value:



What is  $(580625685 \% 701)$  ?



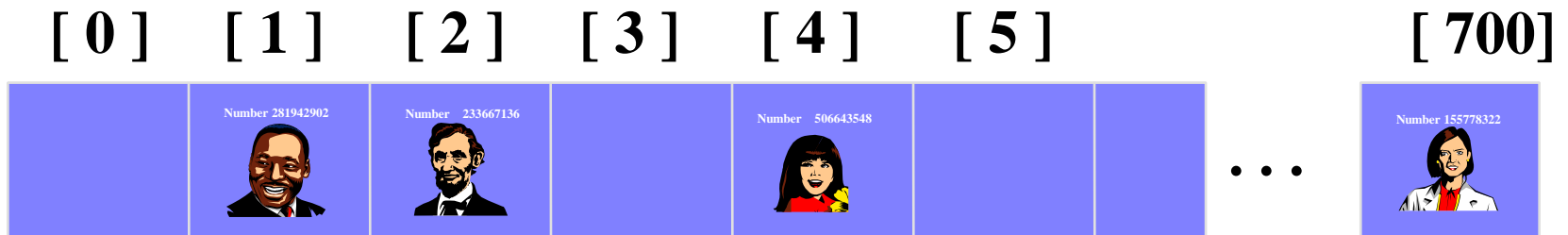


# Inserting a New Record

- Typical way to create a hash value:

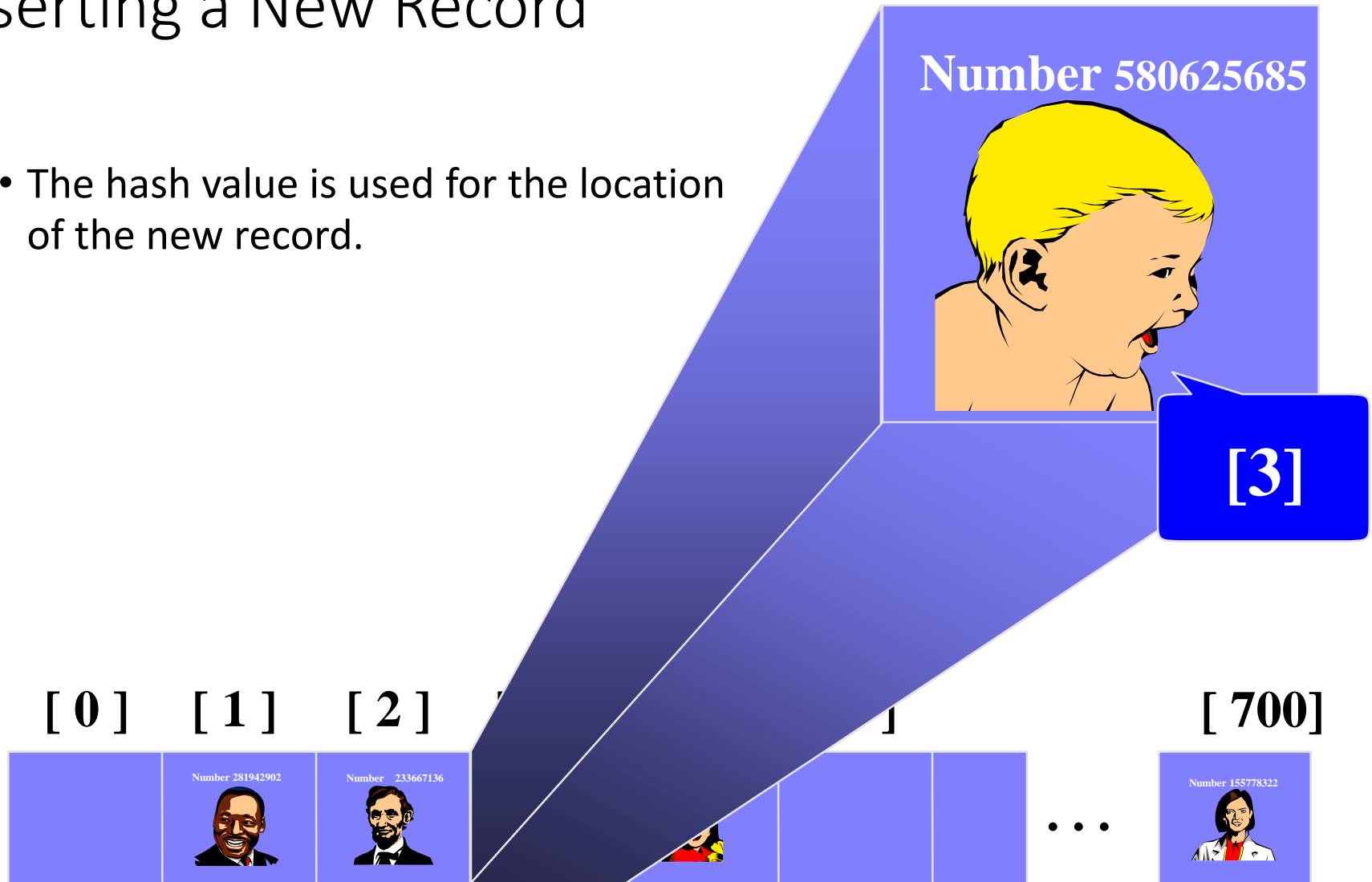


What is  $(580625685 \% 701)$  ?



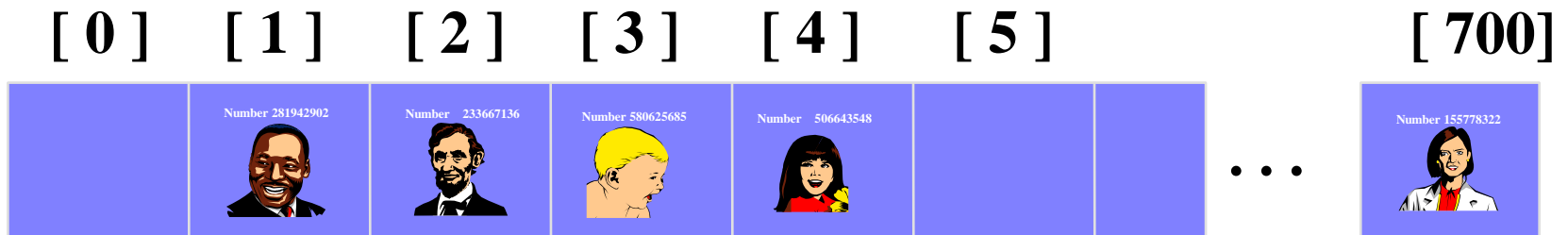
# Inserting a New Record

- The hash value is used for the location of the new record.



# Inserting a New Record

- The hash value is used for the location of the new record.

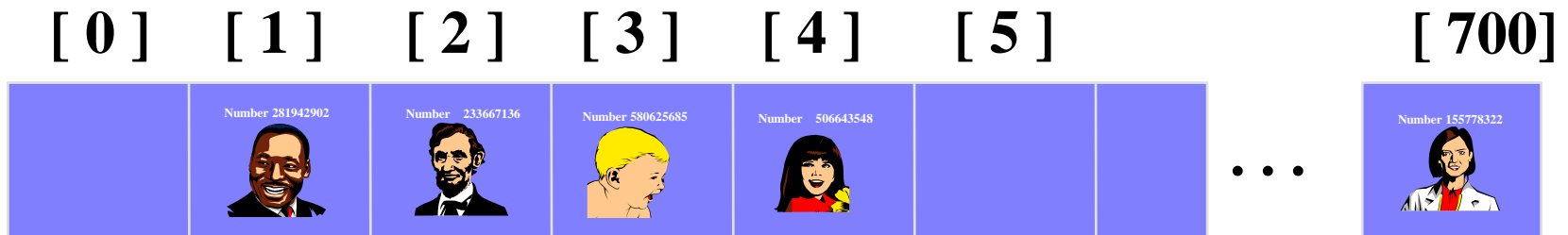


# Collisions

- Here is another new record to insert, with a hash value of 2.



My hash value is [2].



# Collisions

- This is called a collision, because there is already another valid record at [2].

When a collision occurs,  
move forward until you  
find an empty spot.

Number 701466868



[ 0 ]

[ 1 ]

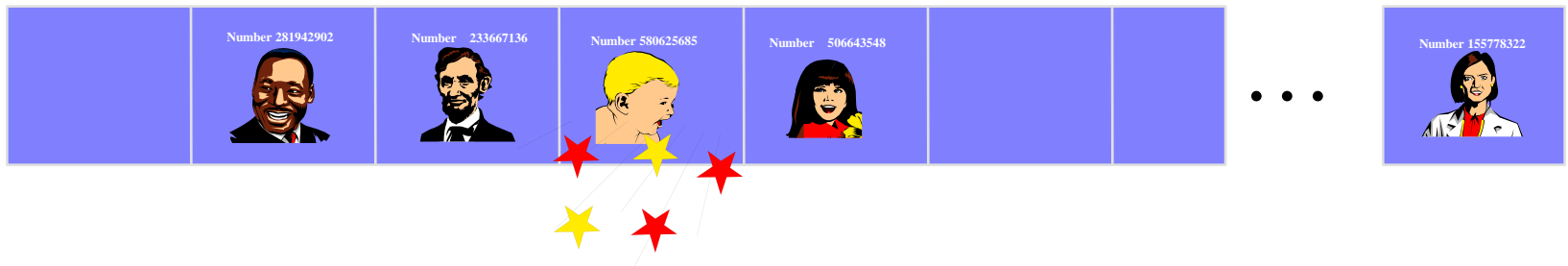
[ 2 ]

[ 3 ]

[ 4 ]

[ 5 ]

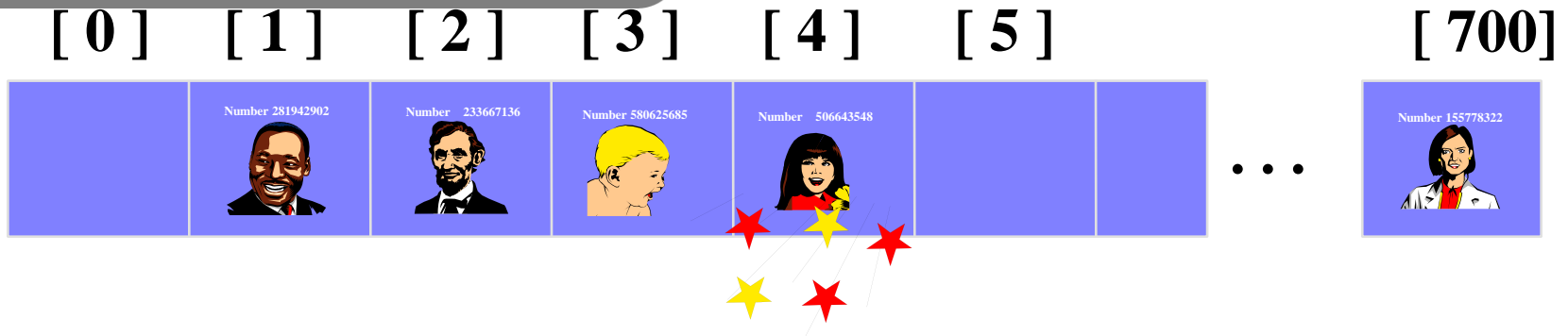
[ 700 ]



# Collisions

- This is called a **collision**, because there is already another valid record at [2].

When a collision occurs,  
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# Collisions

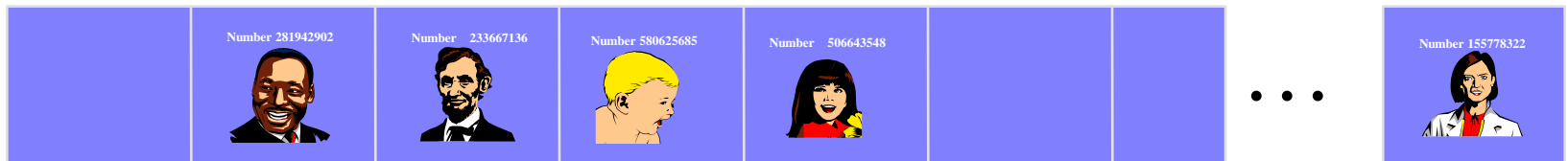
- This is called a **collision**, because there is already another valid record at [2].

When a collision occurs,  
move forward until you  
find an empty spot.

Number 701466868



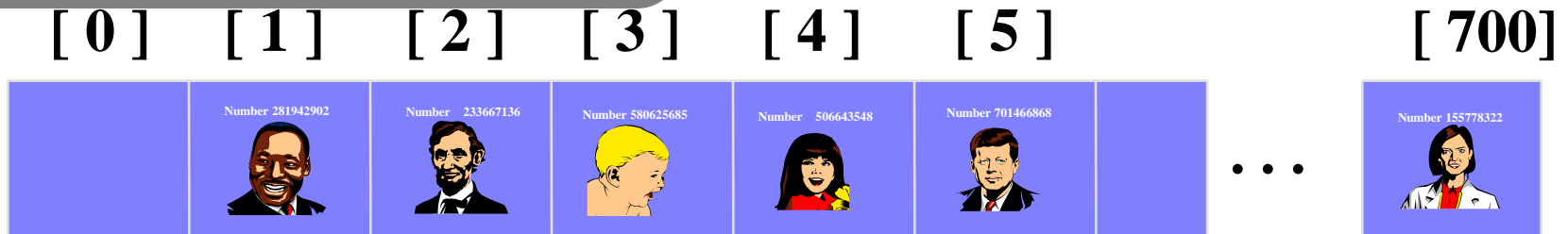
[ 0 ]   [ 1 ]   [ 2 ]   [ 3 ]   [ 4 ]   [ 5 ]   ...   [ 700 ]



# Collisions

- This is called a collision, because there is already another valid record at [2].

The new record goes  
in the empty spot.

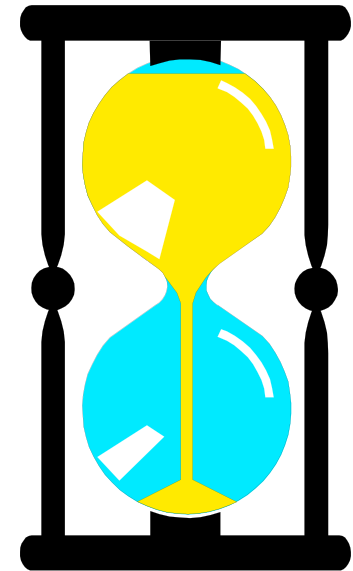










# A small Quiz

**At what index would you be  
placed in this table, if your  
NUMBER is 281942201**

*all slots from 6 to 699 are empty*



[ 0 ]	[ 1 ]	[ 2 ]	[ 3 ]	[ 4 ]	[ 5 ]	...					[ 700 ]
	Number 281942902 	Number 233667136 	Number 580625685 	Number 506643548 	Number 701466868 						Number 155778322 

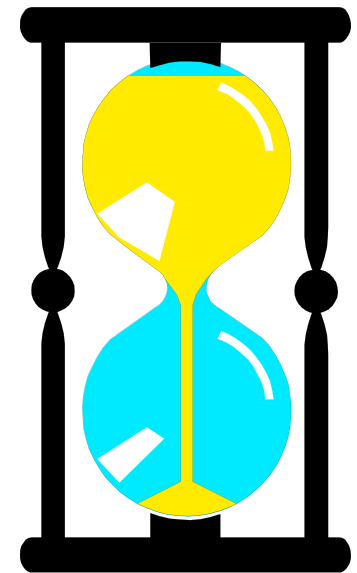
# A small Quiz







**At what index would you be placed in this table, if your NUMBER is 281942201**

*all slots from 6 to 699 are empty*

**ANSWER = [6]**

**Explanation:**  $281942201 \% 701$  is [1], but due to collision, next available space is [6]

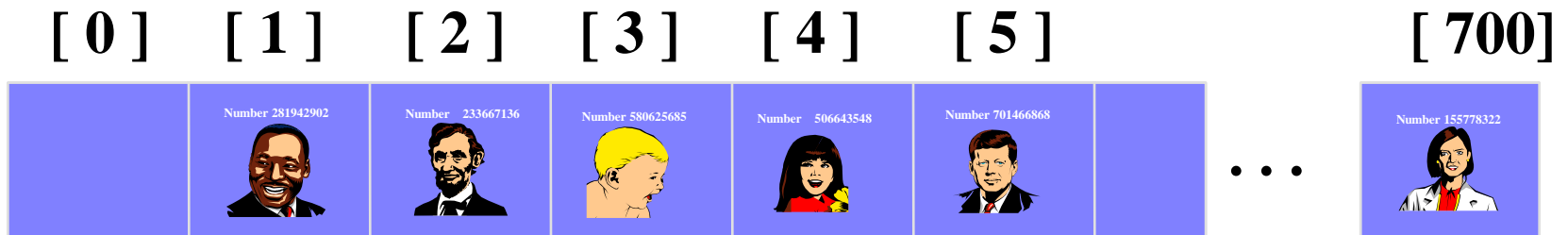


[ 0 ]	[ 1 ]	[ 2 ]	[ 3 ]	[ 4 ]	[ 5 ]	[ 700 ]			
	Number 281942902 	Number 233667136 	Number 580625685 	Number 506643548 	Number 701466868 	... 			

# Searching for a Key

- The data that's attached to a key can be found fairly quickly.

**Number 701466868**



# Searching for a Key

- Calculate the hash value.
- Check that location of the array for the key.

Number 701466868

My hash value is [2].

Not me.

[ 0 ]

[ 1 ]







[ 2 ]

[ 3 ]

[ 4 ]

[ 5 ]

[ 700 ]

	Number 281942902 	Number 233667136 	Number 580625685 	Number 506643548 	Number 701466868 	...	Number 155778322 
--	---	---	---	--	---	-----	---

# Searching for a Key

- Keep moving forward until you find the key, or you reach an empty spot.

Number 701466868

My hash value is [2].

Not me.

[ 0 ]

[ 1 ]

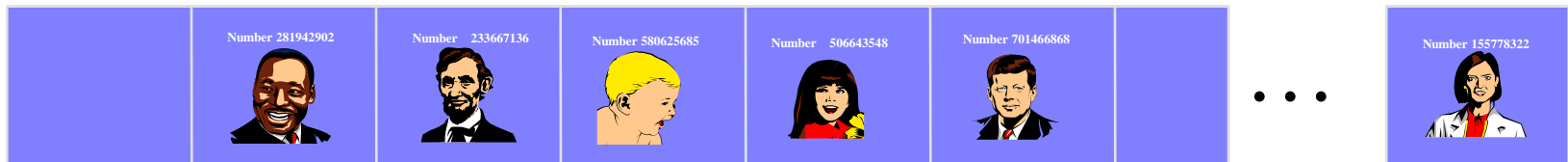
[ 2 ]

[ 3 ]

[ 4 ]

[ 5 ]

[ 700 ]



# Searching for a Key

- Keep moving forward until you find the key, or you reach an empty spot.

Number 701466868

My hash value is [2].

Not me.

[ 0 ]

[ 1 ]

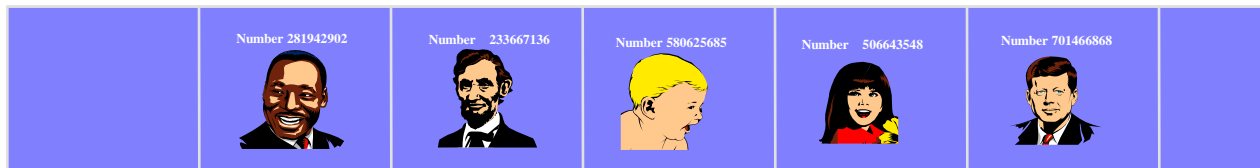
[ 2 ]

[ 3 ]

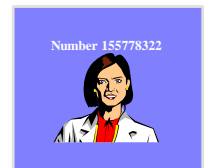
[ 4 ]

[ 5 ]

[ 700 ]



...



# Searching for a Key







- Keep moving forward until you find the key, or you reach an empty spot.

Number 701466868

My hash value is [2].

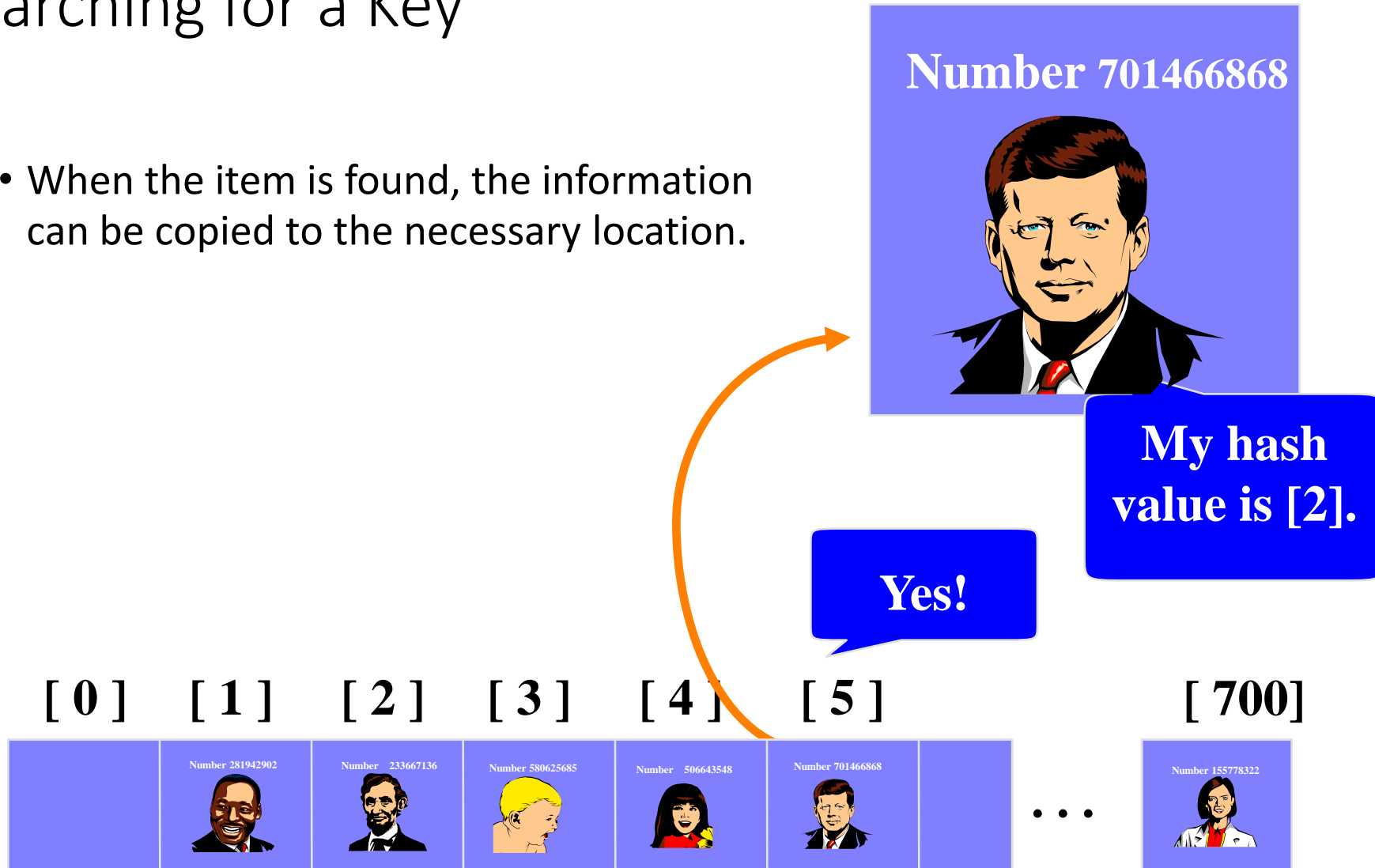
Yes!

[ 0 ]   [ 1 ]   [ 2 ]   [ 3 ]   [ 4 ]   [ 5 ]   ...   [ 700 ]

	Number 281942902 	Number 233667136 	Number 580625685 	Number 506643548 	Number 701466868 		...	Number 155778322 
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# Searching for a Key

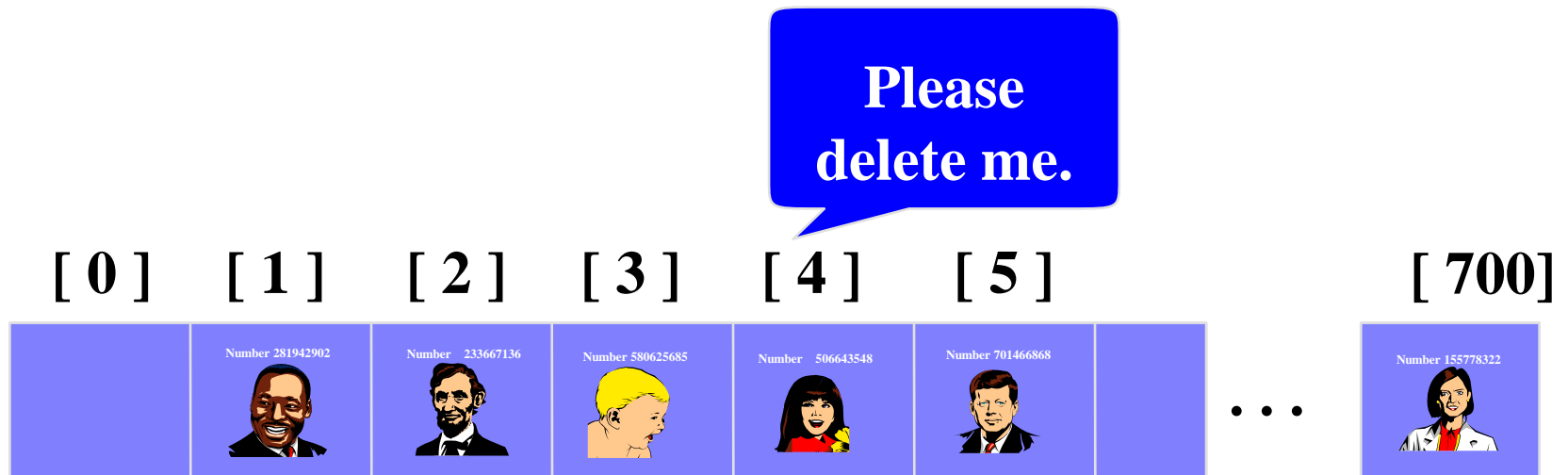
- When the item is found, the information can be copied to the necessary location.





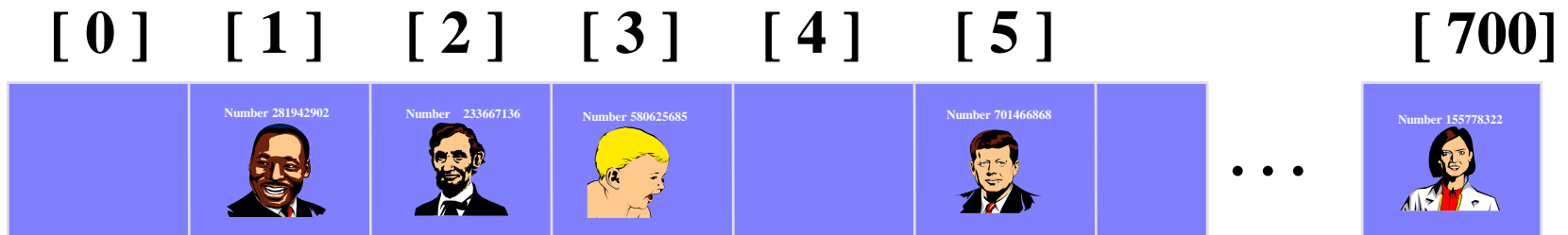
# Deleting a Record

- Records may also be deleted from a hash table.



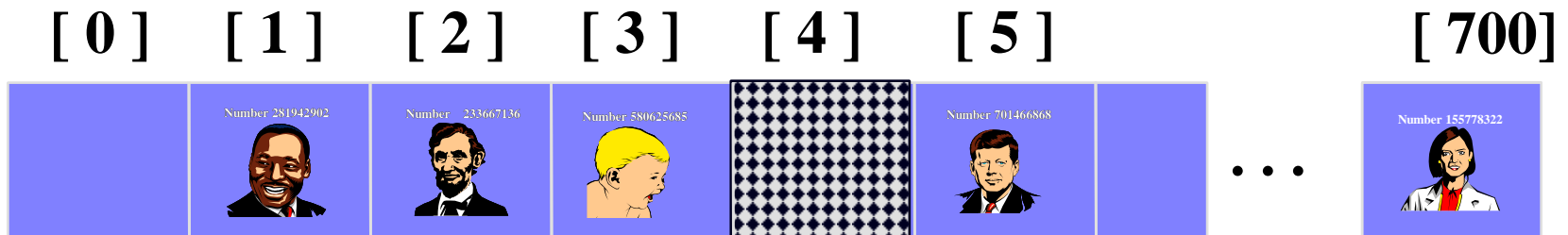
# Deleting a Record

- Records may also be deleted from a hash table.
- But the location must not be left as an ordinary "empty spot" since that could interfere with searches.



# Deleting a Record

- Records may also be deleted from a hash table.
- But the location must not be left as an ordinary "empty spot" since that could interfere with searches.
- The location must be marked in some special way so that a search can tell that the spot used to have something in it.



# Hashing: Collision Resolution Schemes

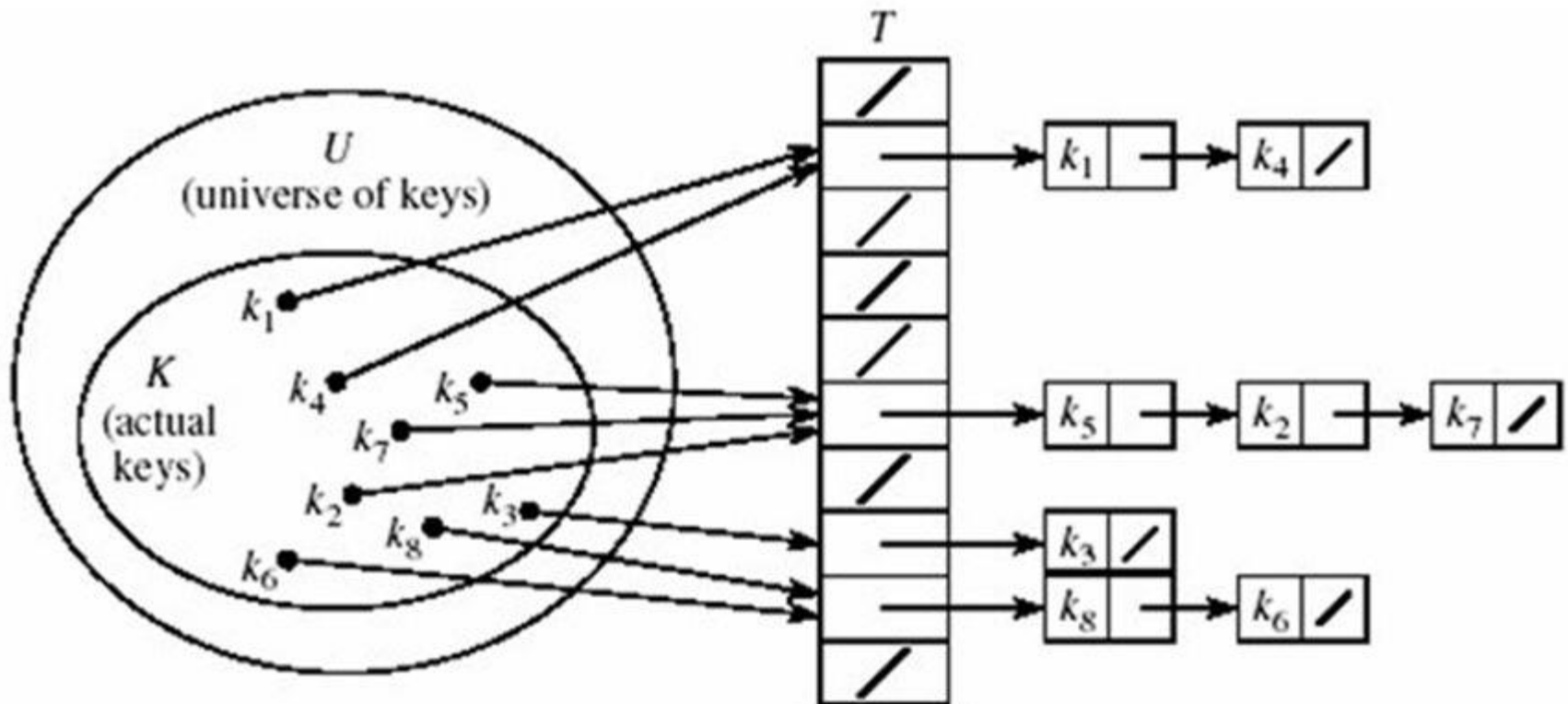
- Collision Resolution Techniques
- Separate Chaining
  - Separate Chaining with String Keys
  - The class hierarchy of Hash Tables
  - Implementation of Separate Chaining
- Introduction to Collision Resolution using Open Addressing
  - Linear Probing
  - Quadratic Probing
  - Double Hashing
  - Rehashing
- Algorithms for insertion, searching, and deletion in Open Addressing
- Separate Chaining versus Open-addressing

# Collision Resolution Techniques

- There are two broad ways of collision resolution:
  1. **Separate Chaining:** An array of linked list implementation.
  2. **Open Addressing:** Array-based implementation.
    - (i) Linear probing (linear search)
    - (ii) Quadratic probing (nonlinear search)
    - (iii) Double hashing (uses two hash functions)

# Separate Chaining

- The hash table is implemented as an array of linked lists.
- Inserting an item,  $x$ , that hashes at index  $i$  is simply insertion into the linked list at position  $i$ .
- Synonyms are chained in the same linked list.



## Separate Chaining (cont'd)

- Retrieval of an item, **r**, with hash address, **i**, is simply retrieval from the linked list at position **i**.
- Deletion of an item, **r**, with hash address, **i**, is simply deleting **r** from the linked list at position **i**.
- Example:** Load the keys **23, 13, 21, 14, 7, 8, and 15**, in this order, in a hash table of size **7** using separate chaining with the hash function:  **$h(\text{key}) = \text{key} \% 7$**

$$h(23) = 23 \% 7 = 2$$

$$h(13) = 13 \% 7 = 6$$

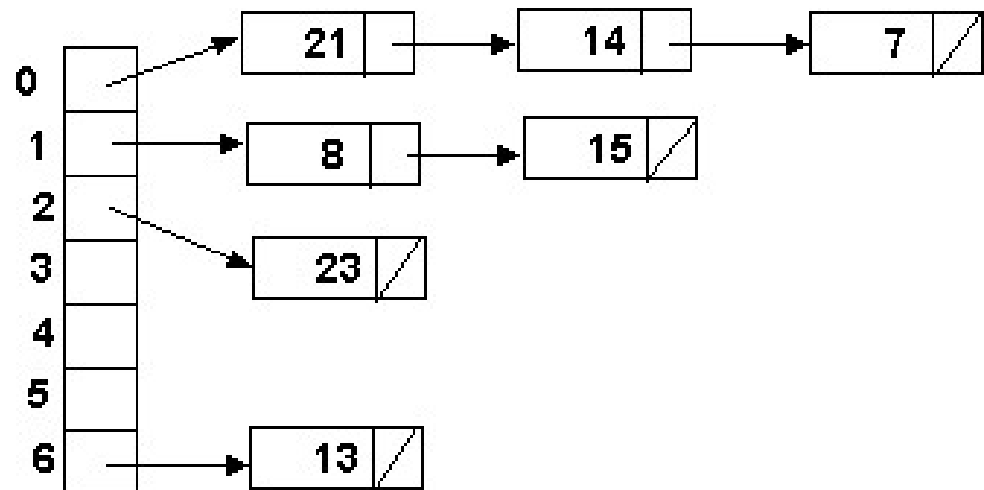
$$h(21) = 21 \% 7 = 0$$

$$h(14) = 14 \% 7 = 0 \quad \text{collision}$$

$$h(7) = 7 \% 7 = 0 \quad \text{collision}$$

$$h(8) = 8 \% 7 = 1$$

$$h(15) = 15 \% 7 = 1 \quad \text{collision}$$



# Introduction to Open Addressing

- All items are stored in the hash table itself.
- In addition to the cell data (if any), each cell keeps one of the three states: EMPTY, OCCUPIED, DELETED.
- While inserting, if a collision occurs, alternative cells are tried until an empty cell is found.
- **Deletion:** (lazy deletion): When a key is deleted the slot is marked as DELETED rather than EMPTY otherwise subsequent searches that hash at the deleted cell will fail.
- **Probe sequence:** A probe sequence is the sequence of array indexes that is followed in searching for an empty cell during an insertion, or in searching for a key during find or delete operations.
- The most common probe sequences are of the form:  
$$h_i(\text{key}) = [h(\text{key}) + c(i)] \% n, \quad \text{for } i = 0, 1, \dots, n-1.$$
where **h** is a hash function and **n** is the size of the hash table
- The function **c(i)** is required to have the following two properties:  
**Property 1:**  $c(0) = 0$   
**Property 2:** The set of values  $\{c(0) \% n, c(1) \% n, c(2) \% n, \dots, c(n-1) \% n\}$  must be a permutation of  $\{0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1\}$ , that is, it must contain every integer between **0** and **n - 1** inclusive.



# Introduction to Open Addressing (cont'd)

- The function  $c(i)$  is used to resolve collisions.
- To insert item  $r$ , we examine array location  $h_0(r) = h(r)$ . If there is a collision, array locations  $h_1(r), h_2(r), \dots, h_{n-1}(r)$  are examined until an empty slot is found.
- Similarly, to find item  $r$ , we examine the same sequence of locations in the same order.
- **Note:** For a given hash function  $h(\text{key})$ , the only difference in the open addressing collision resolution techniques (linear probing, quadratic probing and double hashing) is in the definition of the function  $c(i)$ .
- Common definitions of  $c(i)$  are:

Collision resolution technique	$c(i)$
Linear probing	$i$
Quadratic probing	$\pm i^2$
Double hashing	$i * h_p(\text{key})$

where  $h_p(\text{key})$  is another hash function.

## Introduction to Open Addressing (cont'd)

- **Advantages of Open addressing:**

- All items are stored in the hash table itself. There is no need for another data structure.
- Open addressing is more efficient storage-wise.

- **Disadvantages of Open Addressing:**

- The keys of the objects to be hashed must be distinct.
- Dependent on choosing a proper table size.
- Requires the use of a three-state (Occupied, Empty, or Deleted) flag in each cell.

# Open Addressing Facts

- In general, primes give the best table sizes.
- With any open addressing method of collision resolution, as the table fills, there can be a severe degradation in the table performance.
- Load factors between 0.6 and 0.7 are common.
- Load factors  $> 0.7$  are undesirable.
- The search time depends only on the load factor, *not* on the table size.
- We can use the desired load factor to determine appropriate table size:

$$\text{table size} = \text{smallest prime} \geq \frac{\text{number of items in table}}{\text{desired load factor}}$$

# Open Addressing: Linear Probing

- $c(i)$  is a linear function in  $i$  of the form  $c(i) = a*i$ .
- Usually  $c(i)$  is chosen as:

$$c(i) = i \quad \text{for } i = 0, 1, \dots, \text{tableSize} - 1$$

- The probe sequences are then given by:

$$h_i(\text{key}) = [h(\text{key}) + i] \% \text{tableSize} \quad \text{for } i = 0, 1, \dots, \text{tableSize} - 1$$

- For  $c(i) = a*i$  to satisfy Property 2,  $a$  and  $n$  must be relatively prime.

## Linear Probing (cont'd)

**Example:** Perform the operations given below, in the given order, on an initially empty hash table of size **13** using linear probing with  **$c(i) = i$**  and the hash function:  **$h(\text{key}) = \text{key} \% 13$** :

insert(18), insert(26), insert(35), insert(9), find(15), find(48),  
delete(35), delete(40), find(9), insert(64), insert(47), find(35)

- The required probe sequences are given by:

$$h_i(\text{key}) = (h(\text{key}) + i) \% 13 \qquad i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, 12$$

# Linear Probing (cont'd)

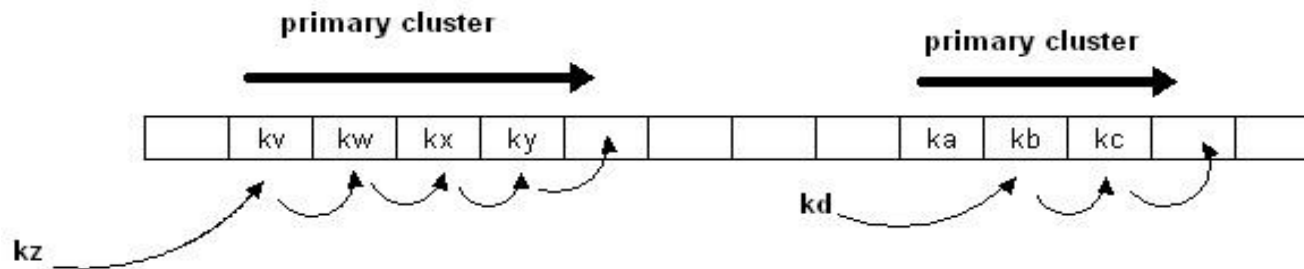
a

OPERATION	PROBE SEQUENCE	COMMENT
insert(18)	$h_0(18) = (18 \% 13) \% 13 = 5$	SUCCESS
insert(26)	$h_0(26) = (26 \% 13) \% 13 = 0$	SUCCESS
insert(35)	$h_0(35) = (35 \% 13) \% 13 = 9$	SUCCESS
insert(9)	$h_0(9) = (9 \% 13) \% 13 = 9$	COLLISION
	$h_1(9) = (9+1) \% 13 = 10$	SUCCESS
find(15)	$h_0(15) = (15 \% 13) \% 13 = 2$	FAIL because location 2 has <b>Empty</b> status
find(48)	$h_0(48) = (48 \% 13) \% 13 = 9$	COLLISION
	$h_1(48) = (9 + 1) \% 13 = 10$	COLLISION
	$h_2(48) = (9 + 2) \% 13 = 11$	FAIL because location 11 has <b>Empty</b> status
withdraw(35)	$h_0(35) = (35 \% 13) \% 13 = 9$	SUCCESS because location 9 contains 35 and the status is <b>Occupied</b> . The status is changed to <b>Deleted</b> ; but the key 35 is not removed.
find(9)	$h_0(9) = (9 \% 13) \% 13 = 9$	The search continues, location 9 does not contain 9; but its status is <b>Deleted</b>
	$h_1(9) = (9+1) \% 13 = 10$	SUCCESS
insert(64)	$h_0(64) = (64 \% 13) \% 13 = 12$	SUCCESS
insert(47)	$h_0(47) = (47 \% 13) \% 13 = 8$	SUCCESS
find(35)	$h_0(35) = (35 \% 13) \% 13 = 9$	FAIL because location 9 contains 35 but its status is <b>Deleted</b>

Index	Status	Value
0	O	26
1	E	
2	E	
3	E	
4	E	
5	O	18
6	E	
7	E	
8	O	47
9	D	35
10	O	9
11	E	
12	O	64

# Disadvantage of Linear Probing: Primary Clustering

- Linear probing is subject to a primary clustering phenomenon.
- Elements tend to cluster around table locations that they originally hash to.
- Primary clusters can combine to form larger clusters. This leads to long probe sequences and hence deterioration in hash table efficiency.



**Example of a primary cluster:** Insert keys: **18, 41, 22, 44, 59, 32, 31, 73**, in this order, in an originally empty hash table of size **13**, using the hash function  $h(\text{key}) = \text{key} \% 13$  and  $c(i) = i$ :

$$h(18) = 5$$

$$h(41) = 2$$

$$h(22) = 9$$

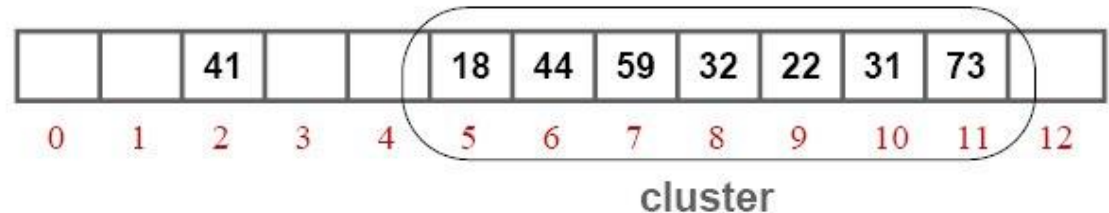
$$h(44) = 5+1$$

$$h(59) = 7$$

$$h(32) = 6+1+1$$

$$h(31) = 5+1+1+1+1+1$$

$$h(73) = 8+1+1+1$$



# Open Addressing: Quadratic Probing

- Quadratic probing eliminates primary clusters.
- $c(i)$  is a quadratic function in  $i$  of the form  $c(i) = a*i^2 + b*i$ . Usually  $c(i)$  is chosen as:

$$c(i) = i^2 \quad \text{for } i = 0, 1, \dots, \text{tableSize} - 1$$

or

$$c(i) = \pm i^2 \quad \text{for } i = 0, 1, \dots, (\text{tableSize} - 1) / 2$$

- The probe sequences are then given by:

$$h_i(\text{key}) = [h(\text{key}) + i^2] \% \text{tableSize} \quad \text{for } i = 0, 1, \dots, \text{tableSize} - 1$$

or

$$h_i(\text{key}) = [h(\text{key}) \pm i^2] \% \text{tableSize} \quad \text{for } i = 0, 1, \dots, (\text{tableSize} - 1) / 2$$

- Note for Quadratic Probing:

- Hashtable size should not be an even number; otherwise Property 2 will not be satisfied.
- Ideally, table size should be a prime of the form  $4j+3$ , where  $j$  is an integer. This choice of table size guarantees Property 2.



## Quadratic Probing (cont'd)

- Example: Load the keys **23, 13, 21, 14, 7, 8, and 15**, in this order, in a hash table of size **7** using quadratic probing with  $c(i) = \pm i^2$  and the hash function:  **$h(\text{key}) = \text{key} \% 7$**
- The required probe sequences are given by:

$$h_i(\text{key}) = (h(\text{key}) \pm i^2) \% 7 \quad i = 0, 1, 2, 3$$

# Quadratic Probing (cont'd)

$$h_0(23) = (23 \% 7) \% 7 = 2$$

$$h_0(13) = (13 \% 7) \% 7 = 6$$

$$h_0(21) = (21 \% 7) \% 7 = 0$$

$$h_0(14) = (14 \% 7) \% 7 = 0 \quad \text{collision}$$

$$h_1(14) = (0 + 1^2) \% 7 = 1$$

$$h_0(7) = (7 \% 7) \% 7 = 0 \quad \text{collision}$$

$$h_1(7) = (0 + 1^2) \% 7 = 1 \quad \text{collision}$$

$$h_{-1}(7) = (0 - 1^2) \% 7 = -1$$

$$\text{NORMALIZE: } (-1 + 7) \% 7 = 6 \quad \text{collision}$$

$$h_2(7) = (0 + 2^2) \% 7 = 4$$

$$h_0(8) = (8 \% 7) \% 7 = 1 \quad \text{collision}$$

$$h_1(8) = (1 + 1^2) \% 7 = 2 \quad \text{collision}$$

$$h_{-1}(8) = (1 - 1^2) \% 7 = 0 \quad \text{collision}$$

$$h_2(8) = (1 + 2^2) \% 7 = 5$$

$$h_0(15) = (15 \% 7) \% 7 = 1 \quad \text{collision}$$

$$h_1(15) = (1 + 1^2) \% 7 = 2 \quad \text{collision}$$

$$h_{-1}(15) = (1 - 1^2) \% 7 = 0 \quad \text{collision}$$

$$h_2(15) = (1 + 2^2) \% 7 = 5 \quad \text{collision}$$

$$h_{-2}(15) = (1 - 2^2) \% 7 = -3$$

$$\text{NORMALIZE: } (-3 + 7) \% 7 = 4 \quad \text{collision}$$

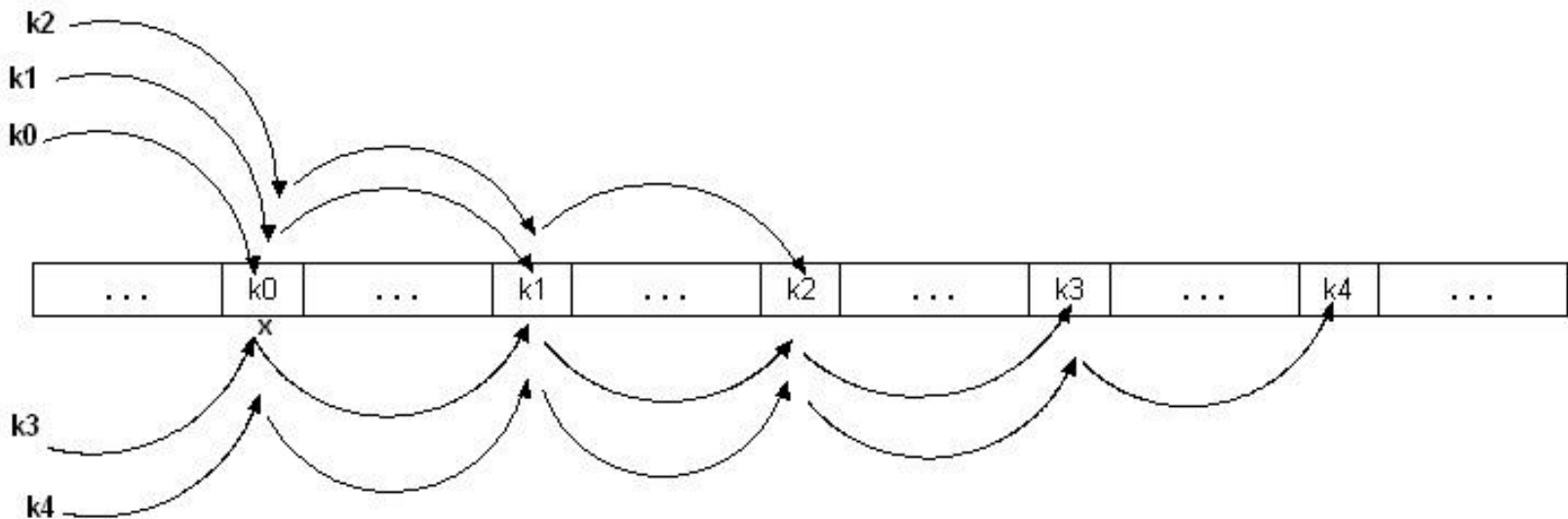
$$h_3(15) = (1 + 3^2) \% 7 = 3$$

$$h_i(\text{key}) = (h(\text{key}) \pm i^2) \% 7 \quad i = 0, 1, 2, 3$$

0	0	21
1	0	14
2	0	23
3	0	15
4	0	7
5	0	8
6	0	13

# Secondary Clusters

- Quadratic probing is better than linear probing because it eliminates primary clustering.
- However, it may result in **secondary clustering**: if  $h(k_1) = h(k_2)$  the probing sequences for  $k_1$  and  $k_2$  are exactly the same. This sequence of locations is called a **secondary cluster**.
- Secondary clustering is less harmful than primary clustering because secondary clusters do not combine to form large clusters.
- **Example of Secondary Clustering:** Suppose keys  $k_0, k_1, k_2, k_3$ , and  $k_4$  are inserted in the given order in an originally empty hash table using **quadratic probing** with  $c(i) = i^2$ . Assuming that each of the keys hashes to the same array index  $x$ . A secondary cluster will develop and grow in size:



# Double Hashing

- To eliminate secondary clustering, synonyms must have different probe sequences.
- Double hashing achieves this by having two hash functions that both depend on the hash key.
- $c(i) = i * h_p(\text{key})$       **for  $i = 0, 1, \dots, \text{tableSize} - 1$**   
where  $h_p$  (or  $h_2$ ) is another hash function.
- The probing sequence is:  
 $h_i(\text{key}) = [h(\text{key}) + i * h_p(\text{key})] \% \text{tableSize}$       **for  $i = 0, 1, \dots, \text{tableSize} - 1$**
- The function  $c(i) = i * h_p(r)$  satisfies Property 2 provided  $h_p(r)$  and **tableSize** are relatively prime.
- To guarantee Property 2, **tableSize** must be a prime number.
- Common definitions for  $h_p$  are :
  - $h_p(\text{key}) = 1 + \text{key} \% (\text{tableSize} - 1)$
  - $h_p(\text{key}) = q - (\text{key} \% q)$       where **q** is a prime less than **tableSize**
  - $h_p(\text{key}) = q * (\text{key} \% q)$       where **q** is a prime less than **tableSize**

## Double Hashing (cont'd)

Performance of Double hashing:

- Much better than linear or quadratic probing because it eliminates both primary and secondary clustering.
- BUT requires a computation of a second hash function  $h_p$ .

**Example:** Load the keys **18, 26, 35, 9, 64, 47, 96, 36, and 70** in this order, in an empty hash table of size **13**

- (a) using double hashing with the first hash function:  $h(\text{key}) = \text{key} \% 13$  and the second hash function:  $h_p(\text{key}) = 1 + \text{key} \% 12$
- (b) using double hashing with the first hash function:  $h(\text{key}) = \text{key} \% 13$  and the second hash function:  $h_p(\text{key}) = 7 - \text{key} \% 7$

**Show all computations.**

# Double Hashing (cont'd)

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
26			70		18	9	96	47	35	36		64

$$h_0(18) = (18 \% 13) \% 13 = 5$$

$$h_0(26) = (26 \% 13) \% 13 = 0$$

$$h_0(35) = (35 \% 13) \% 13 = 9$$

$$h_0(9) = (9 \% 13) \% 13 = 9 \quad \text{collision}$$

$$h_p(9) = 1 + 9 \% 12 = 10$$

$$h_1(9) = (9 + 1 * 10) \% 13 = 6$$

$$h_0(64) = (64 \% 13) \% 13 = 12$$

$$h_0(47) = (47 \% 13) \% 13 = 8$$

$$h_0(96) = (96 \% 13) \% 13 = 5 \quad \text{collision}$$

$$h_p(96) = 1 + 96 \% 12 = 1$$

$$h_1(96) = (5 + 1 * 1) \% 13 = 6 \quad \text{collision}$$

$$h_2(96) = (5 + 2 * 1) \% 13 = 7$$

$$h_0(36) = (36 \% 13) \% 13 = 10$$

$$h_0(70) = (70 \% 13) \% 13 = 5 \quad \text{collision}$$

$$h_p(70) = 1 + 70 \% 12 = 11$$

$$h_1(70) = (5 + 1 * 11) \% 13 = 3$$

$$h_i(\text{key}) = [h(\text{key}) + i * h_p(\text{key})] \% 13$$

$$h(\text{key}) = \text{key} \% 13$$

$$h_p(\text{key}) = 1 + \text{key} \% 12$$

## Double Hashing (cont'd)

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
26	9				18	70	96	47	35	36		64

$$h_0(18) = (18\%13)\%13 = 5$$

$$h_0(26) = (26\%13)\%13 = 0$$

$$h_0(35) = (35\%13)\%13 = 9$$

$$h_0(9) = (9\%13)\%13 = 9 \quad \text{collision}$$

$$h_p(9) = 7 - 9\%7 = 5$$

$$h_1(9) = (9 + 1*5)\%13 = 1$$

$$h_0(64) = (64\%13)\%13 = 12$$

$$h_0(47) = (47\%13)\%13 = 8$$

$$h_0(96) = (96\%13)\%13 = 5 \quad \text{collision}$$

$$h_p(96) = 7 - 96\%7 = 2$$

$$h_1(96) = (5 + 1*2)\%13 = 7$$

$$h_0(36) = (36\%13)\%13 = 10$$

$$h_0(70) = (70\%13)\%13 = 5 \quad \text{collision}$$

$$h_p(70) = 7 - 70\%7 = 7$$

$$h_1(70) = (5 + 1*7)\%13 = 12 \quad \text{collision}$$

$$h_2(70) = (5 + 2*7)\%13 = 6$$

$$h_i(\text{key}) = [h(\text{key}) + i * h_p(\text{key})] \% 13$$

$$h(\text{key}) = \text{key} \% 13$$

$$h_p(\text{key}) = 7 - \text{key} \% 7$$

# Separate Chaining versus Open-addressing

## **Separate Chaining has several advantages over open addressing:**

- Collision resolution is simple and efficient.
- The hash table can hold more elements without the large performance deterioration of open addressing (The load factor can be 1 or greater)
- The performance of chaining declines much more slowly than open addressing.
- Deletion is easy - no special flag values are necessary.
- Table size need not be a prime number.
- The keys of the objects to be hashed need not be unique.

## **Disadvantages of Separate Chaining:**

- It requires the implementation of a separate data structure for chains, and code to manage it.
- The main cost of chaining is the extra space required for the linked lists.
- For some languages, creating new nodes (for linked lists) is expensive and slows down the system.

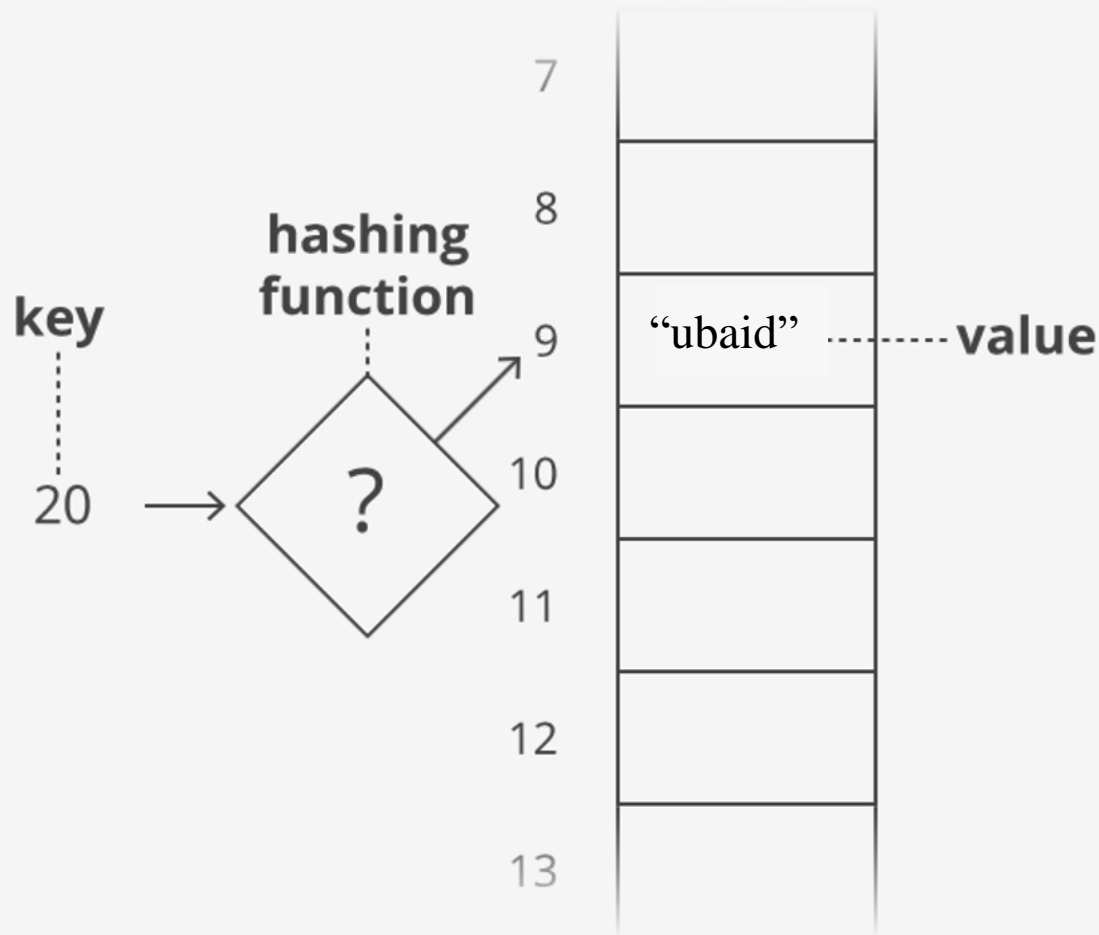


`unordered_map<key, mappedValue>`  
STL

# unordered\_map<int, string>

Example:

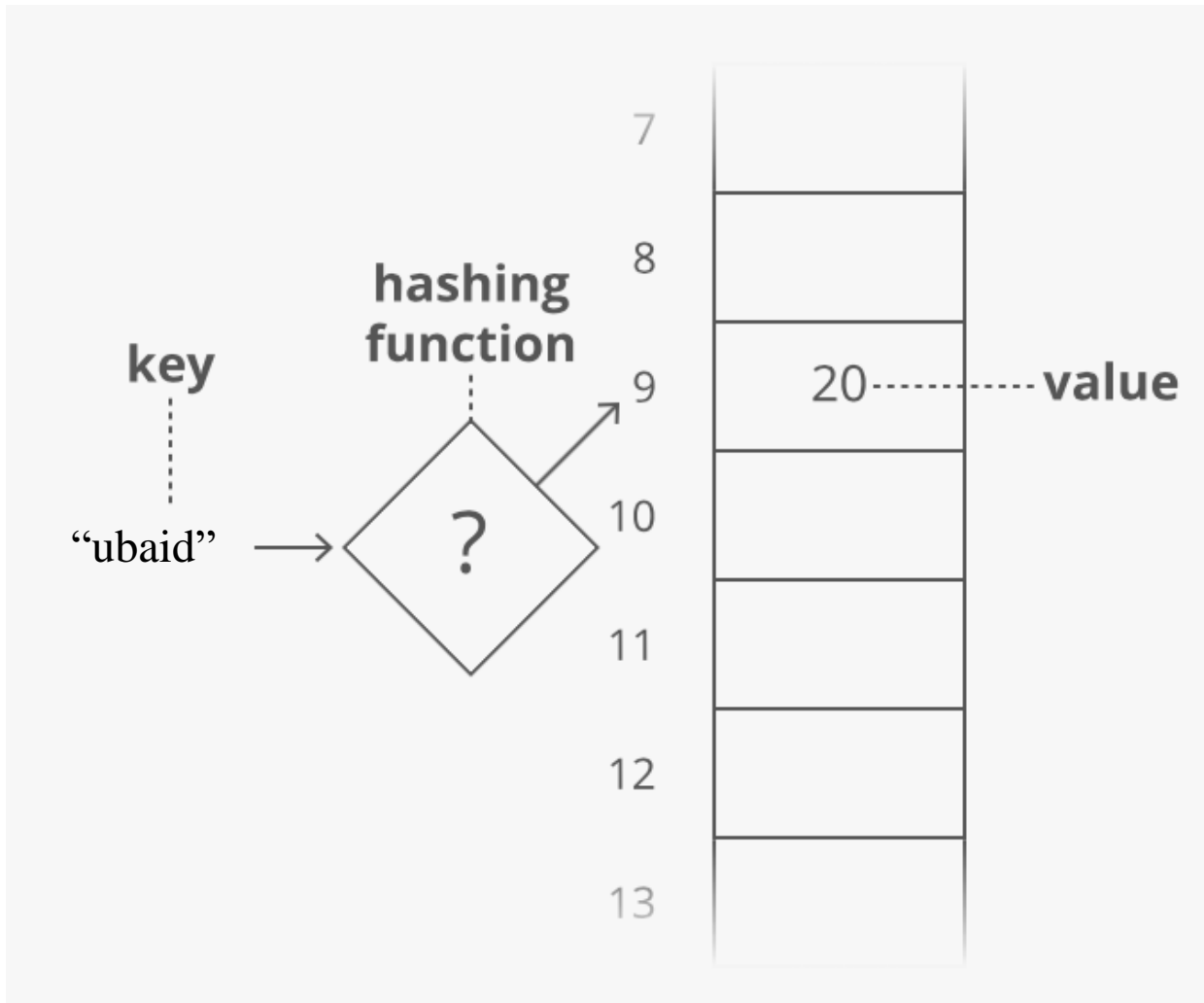
- key = 20
- mapped\_value = "ubaid"



# unordered\_map<string, int>

Example:

- key = "ubaid"
- mapped\_value = 20



# Part 2

Hash Functions

# Implementations So Far

	unsorted list	sorted array	Trees BST – average R-B – worst case
Search	$O(n)$	$O(\log_2 n)$	$O(\log_2 n)$

# Properties of Good Hash Functions

- Must return an index number:  
0, 1, 2 ..., [tablesize-1]
- Should be efficiently computable:  
O(1) time
- Should not waste space unnecessarily  
Load factor lambda  $\lambda = (\text{no of keys} / \text{TableSize})$
- Should minimize collisions

# Integer Keys

- $\text{Hash}(x) = x \% \text{TableSize}$
- Good idea to make TableSize *prime?* Why?

Suppose

data stored in hash table: 7160, 493, 60, 55, 321, 900, 810

tableSize = 10

data hashes to 0, 3, 0, 5, 1, 0, 0

tableSize = 11

data hashes to 10, 9, 5, 0, 2, 9, 7

# Integer Keys

- $\text{Hash}(x) = x \% \text{TableSize}$
- Good idea to make TableSize *prime?* *Why?*
- There is a high probability that collision will be avoided (it will not be eliminated however)