

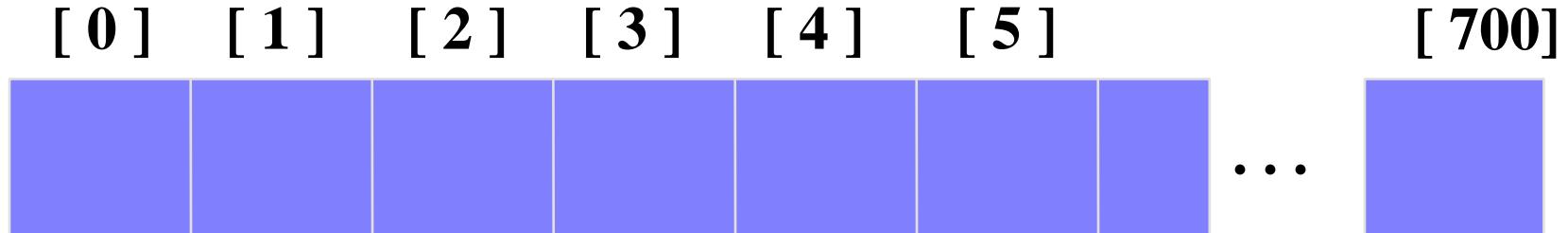
Hash Tables

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 ?

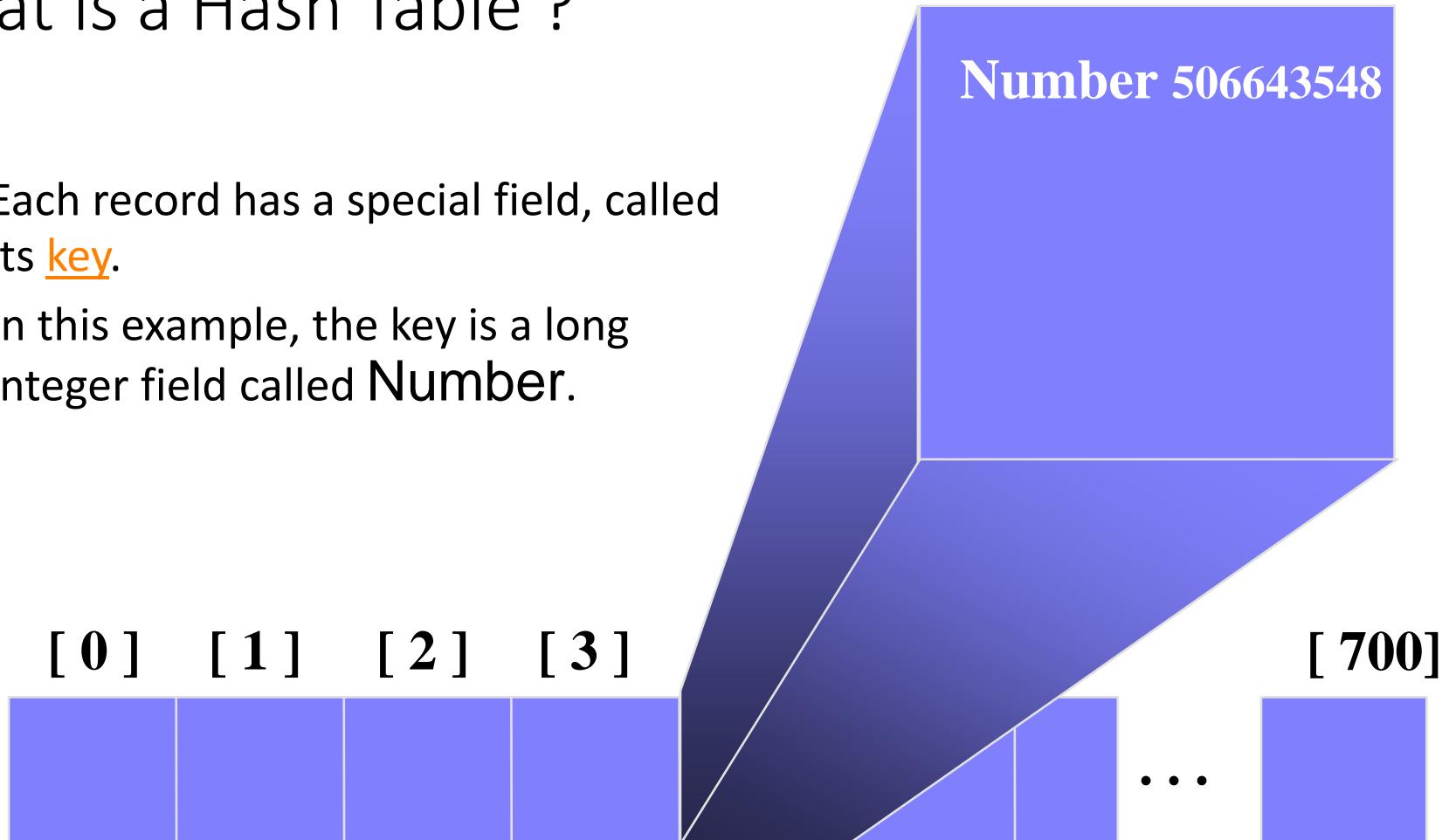
- The simplest kind of hash table is an array of records.
- This example has 701 records.
- Hash function is in our example is:
 - **MOD size**



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**.



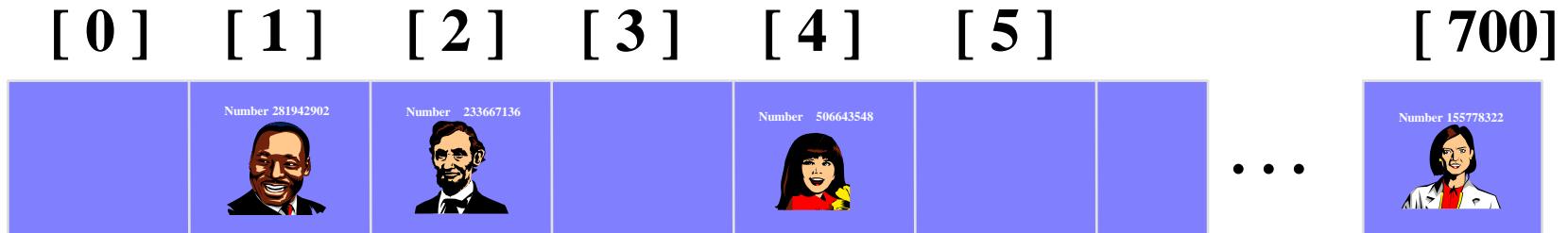
What is a Hash Table ?

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



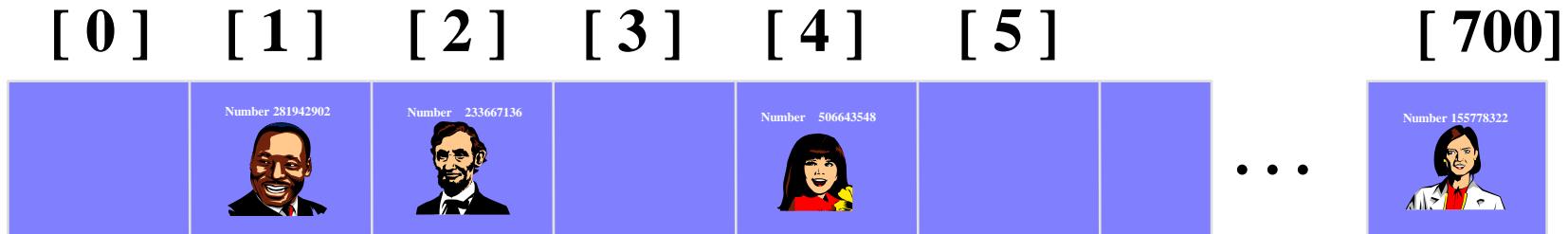
What is a Hash Table ?

- 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.



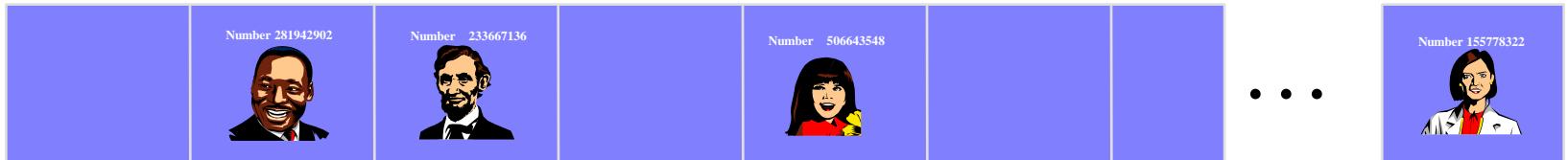
Inserting a New Record

- Typical way to create a hash value:



What is $(580625685 \% 701)$?

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



Inserting a New Record

- Typical way to create a hash value:



3

What is $(580625685 \% 701)$?

[0]

[1]

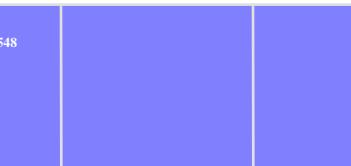
[2]

[3]

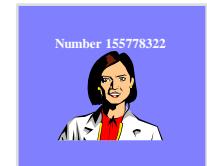
[4]

[5]

[700]

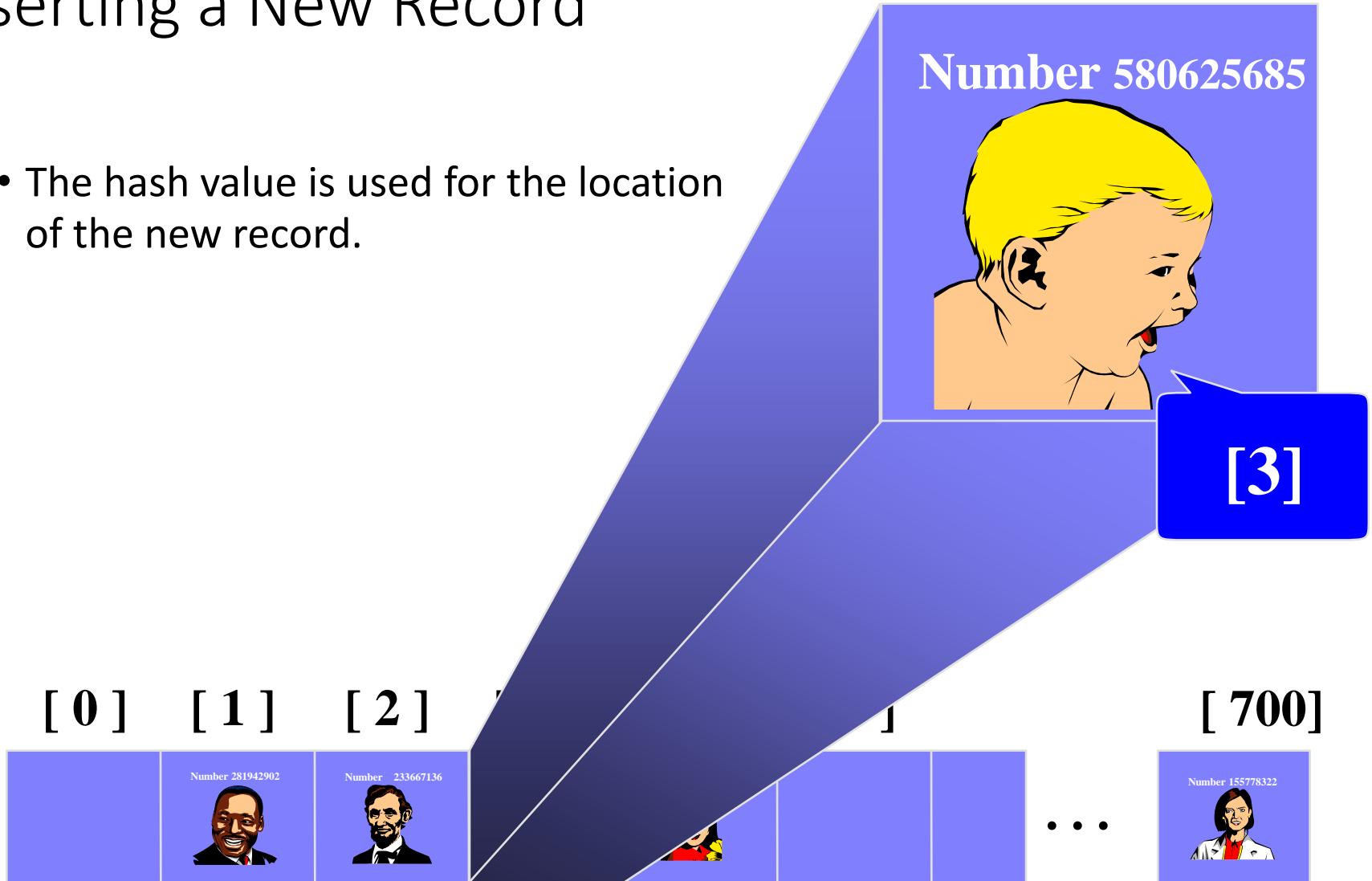


...



Inserting a New Record

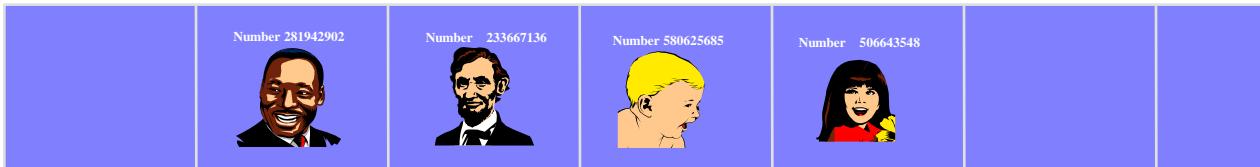
- The hash value is used for the location of the new record.



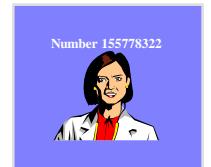
Inserting a New Record

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

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



...



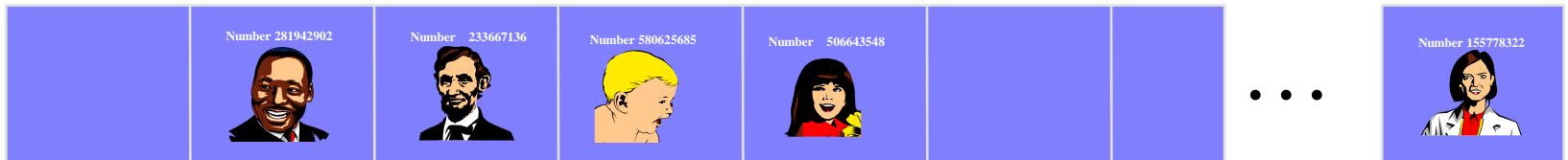
Collisions

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



My hash
value is [2].

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



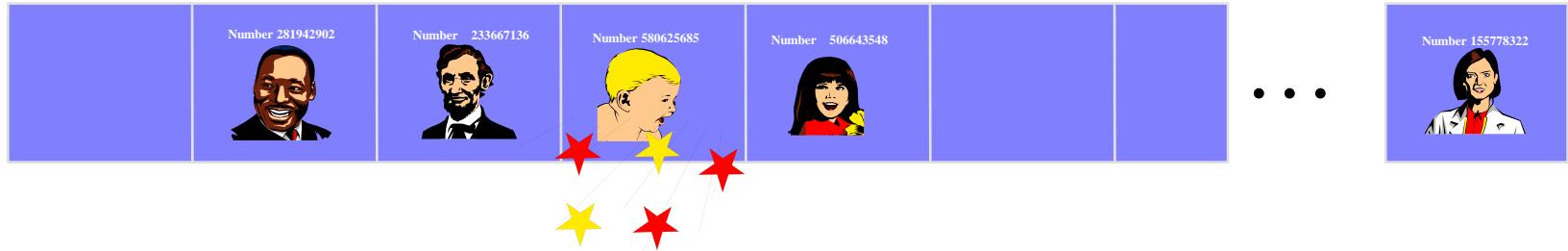
Collisions

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



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

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

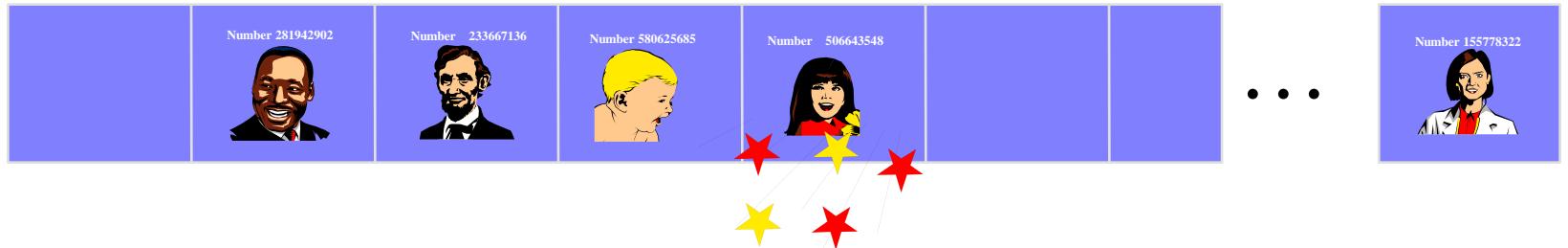


Collisions

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

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

[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,
move forward until you
find an empty spot.

[0]

[1]

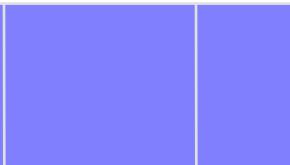
[2]

[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.

[0]

[1]

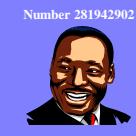
[2]

[3]

[4]

[5]

[700]



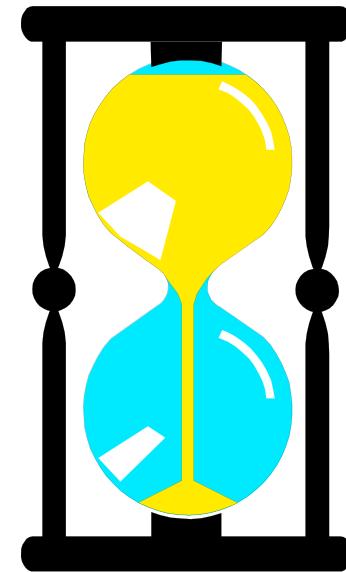
...



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



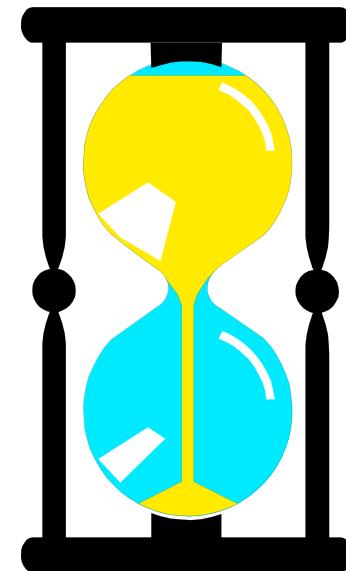
A small Quiz

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

• • •



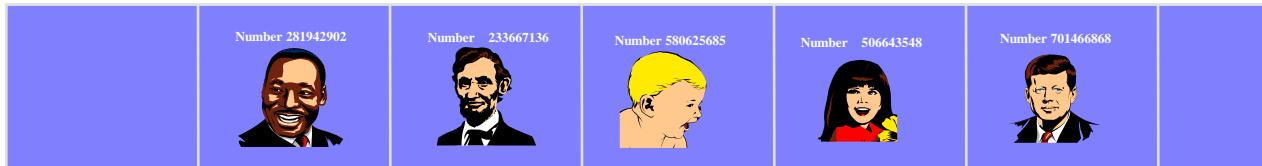
Number 155778322

Searching for a Key

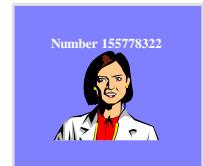
- The data that's attached to a key can be found fairly quickly.

Number 701466868

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



...



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]

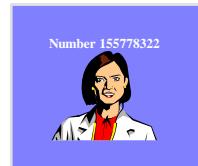
[4]

[5]

[700]



...



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]

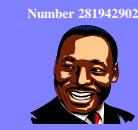
[2]

[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].

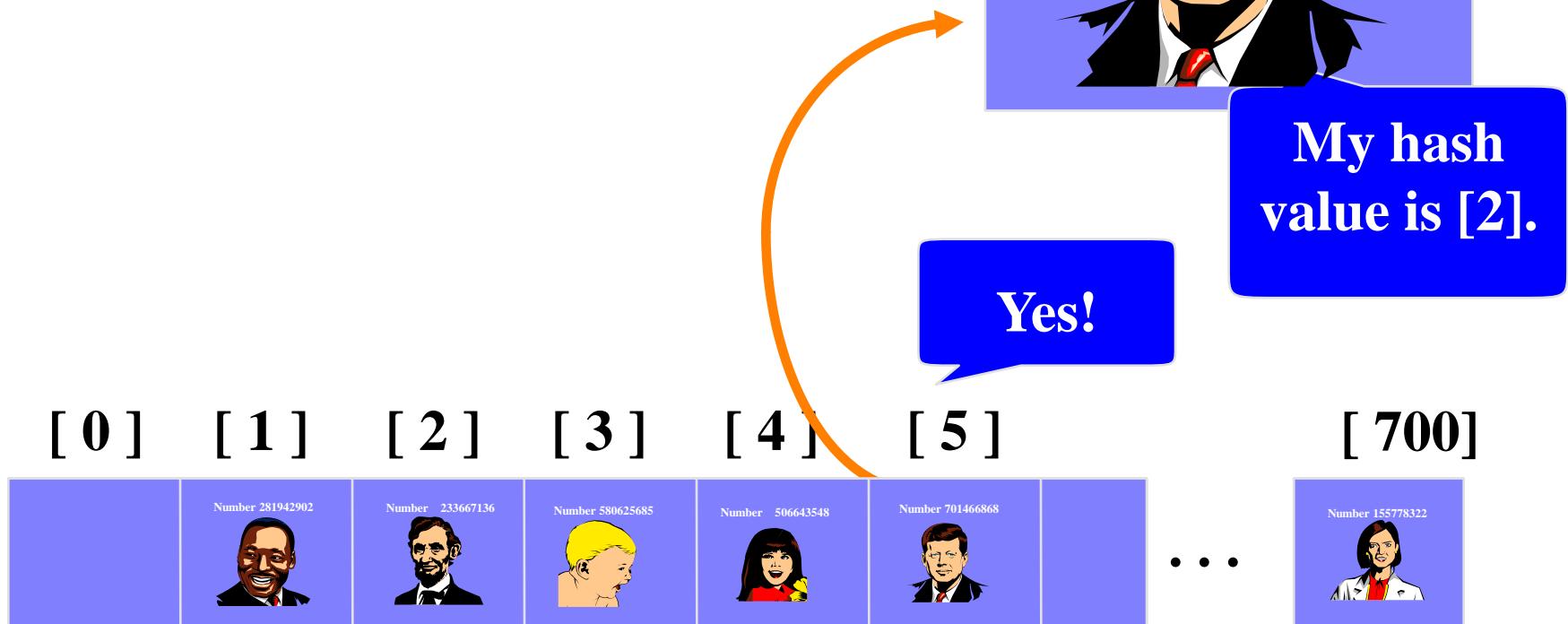
Yes!

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



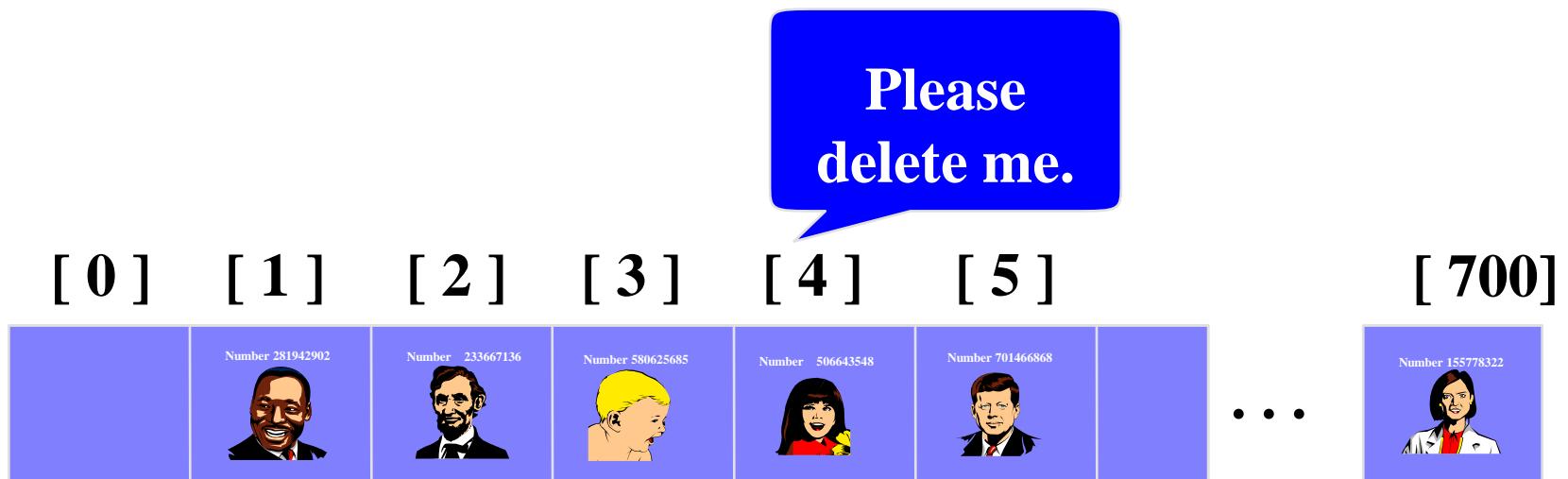
Searching for a Key

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



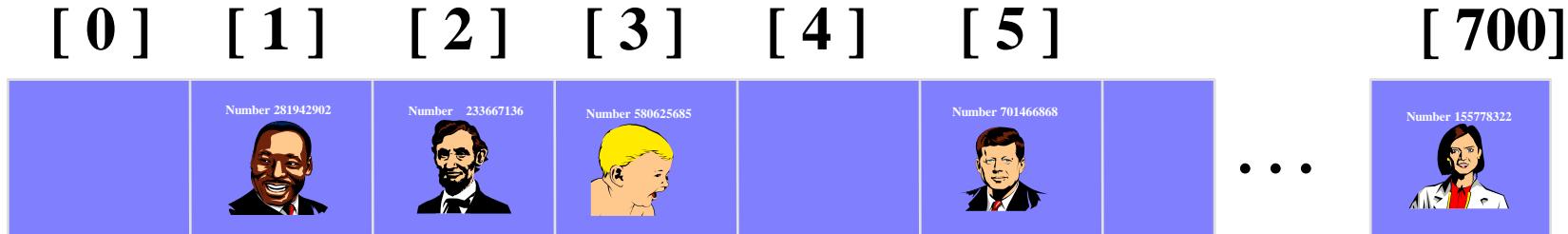
Deleting a Record

- Records may also be deleted from a hash table.



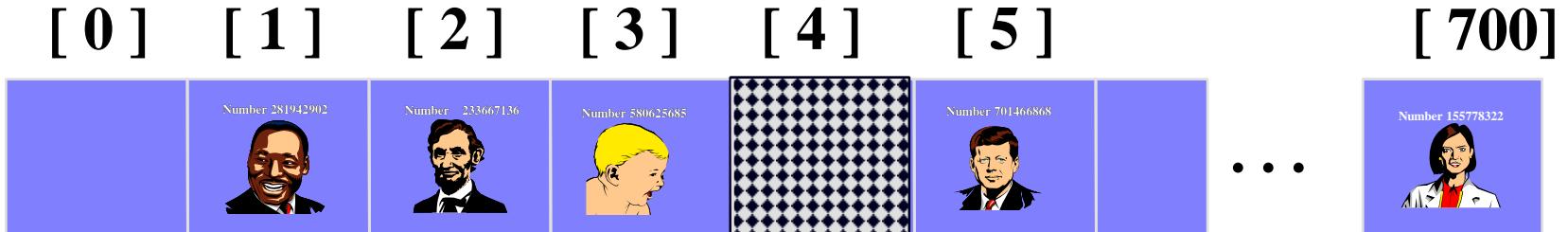
Deleting a Record

- 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

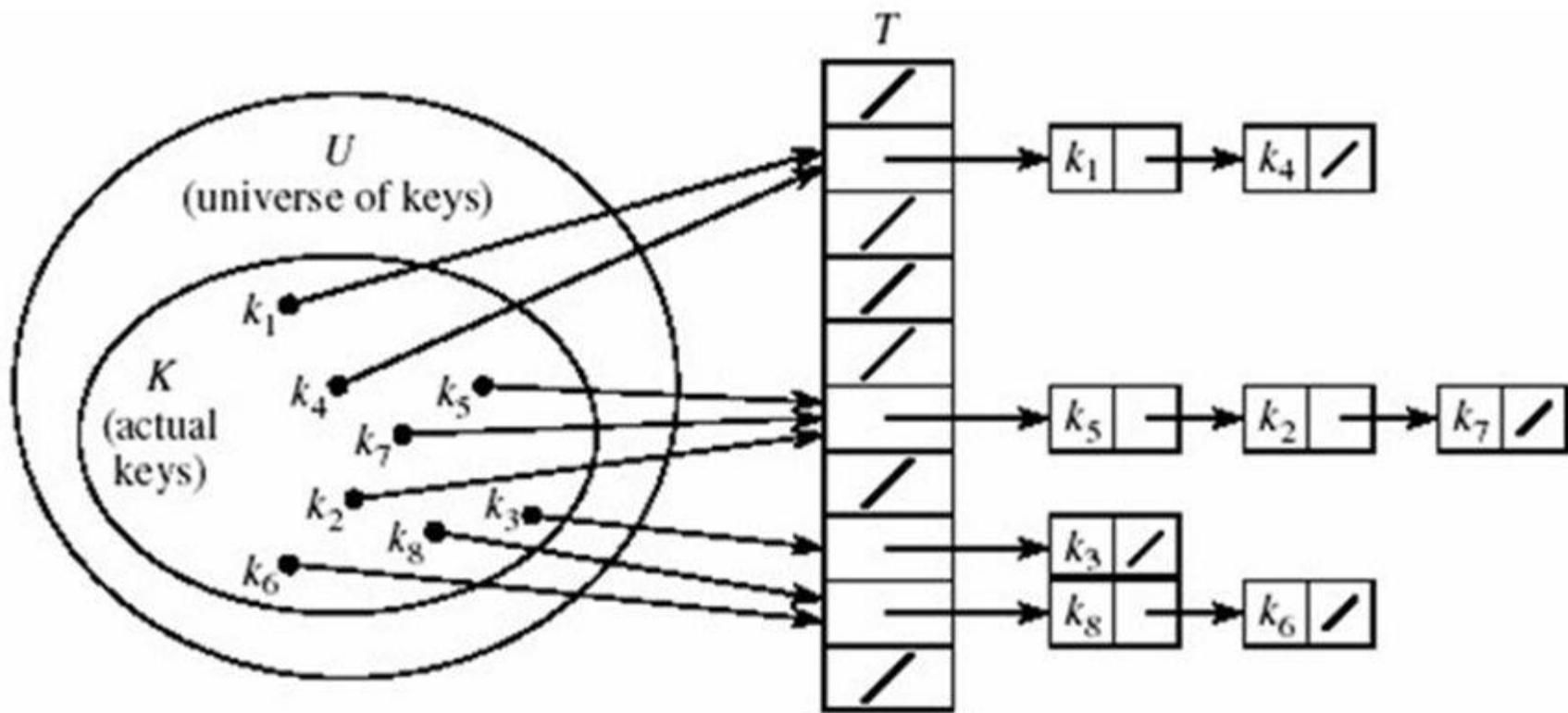
- Collision Resolution Techniques
- Separate Chaining
 - Separate Chaining with String Keys
 - The class hierarchy of Hash Tables
 - Implementation of Separate Chaining
- Introduction to Collision Resolution using Open Addressing
 - Linear Probing
 - Quadratic Probing
 - Double Hashing
 - Rehashing
- 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, r , 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: $h(key) = key \% 7$

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

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

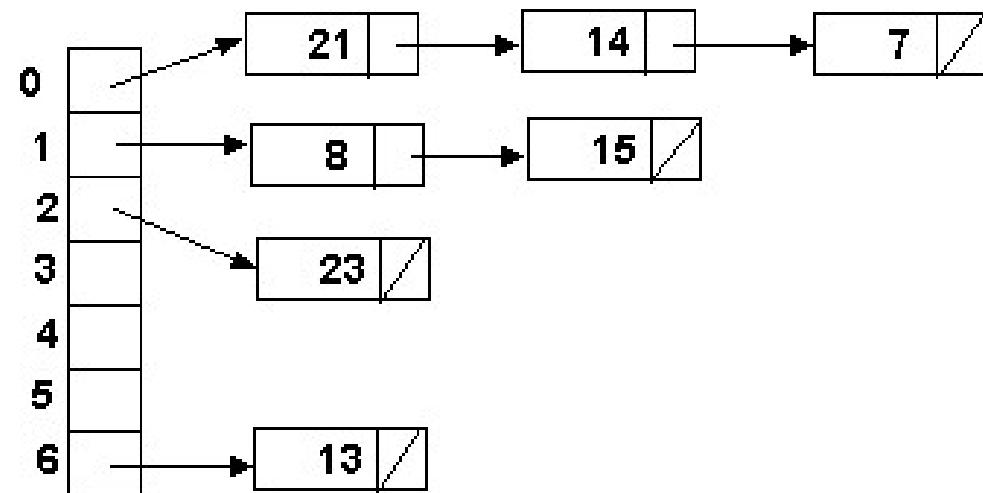
$$h(21) = 21 \% 7 = 0$$

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

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

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

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



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 $h(key)$, 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 | $i * h_p(key)$ |

where $h_p(key)$ 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: $h(key) = key \% 13$:

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:

$$h_i(key) = (h(key) + i) \% 13 \quad i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, 12$$

Linear Probing (cont'd)

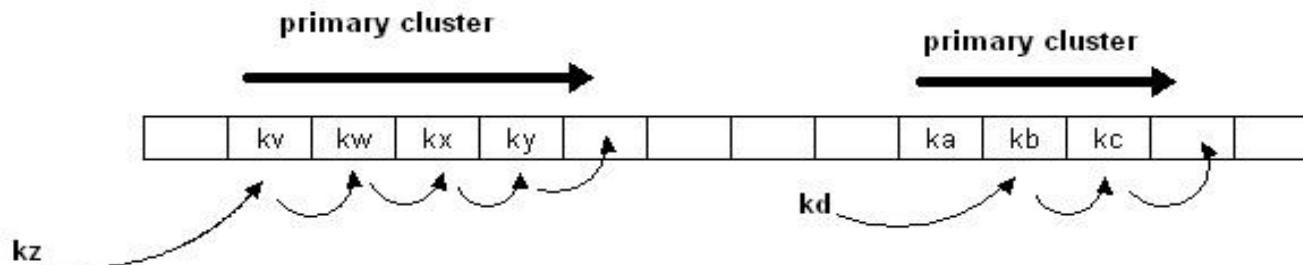
a

| 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 Empty 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 Empty status |
| withdraw(35) | $h_0(35) = (35 \% 13) \% 13 = 9$ | SUCCESS because location 9 contains 35 and the status is Occupied . The status is changed to Deleted ; 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 Deleted |
| | $h_1(9) = (9+1) \% 13 = 10$ | 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 Deleted |

| 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 $c(i) = i$:

$$h(18) = 5$$

$$h(41) = 2$$

$$h(22) = 9$$

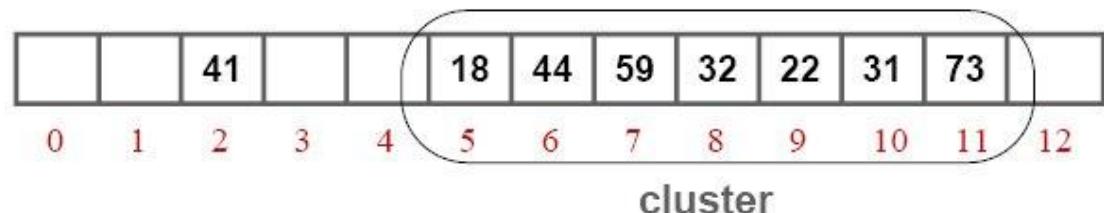
$$h(44) = 5+1$$

$$h(59) = 7$$

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

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

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



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: $h(key) = key \% 7$
- The required probe sequences are given by:

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

Quadratic Probing (cont'd)

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

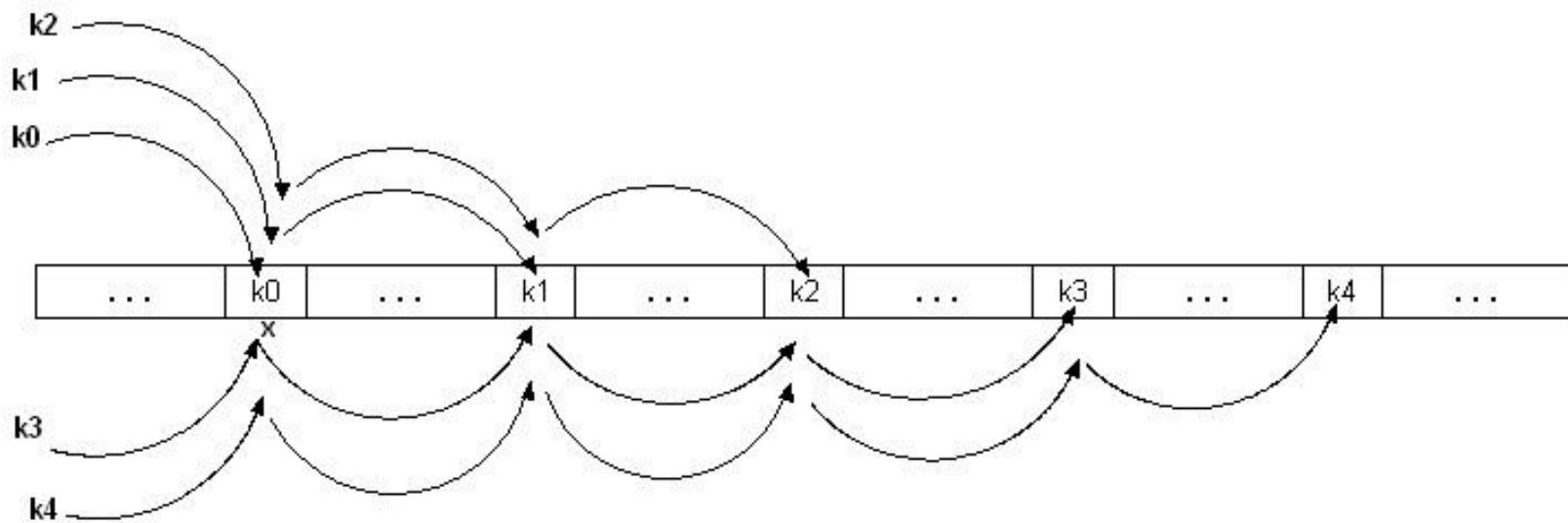
$$h_3(15) = (1 + 3^2) \% 7 = 3$$

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

| | | |
|---|---|----|
| 0 | O | 21 |
| 1 | O | 14 |
| 2 | O | 23 |
| 3 | O | 15 |
| 4 | O | 7 |
| 5 | O | 8 |
| 6 | O | 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.
- $c(i) = i * h_p(\text{key}) \quad \text{for } i = 0, 1, \dots, \text{tableSize} - 1$
where h_p (or h_2) is another hash function.
- The probing sequence is:
$$h_i(\text{key}) = [h(\text{key}) + i * h_p(\text{key})] \% \text{tableSize} \quad \text{for } i = 0, 1, \dots, \text{tableSize} - 1$$
- 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 :
 - $h_p(\text{key}) = 1 + \text{key \% (tableSize - 1)}$
 - $h_p(\text{key}) = q - (\text{key \% q})$ 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:

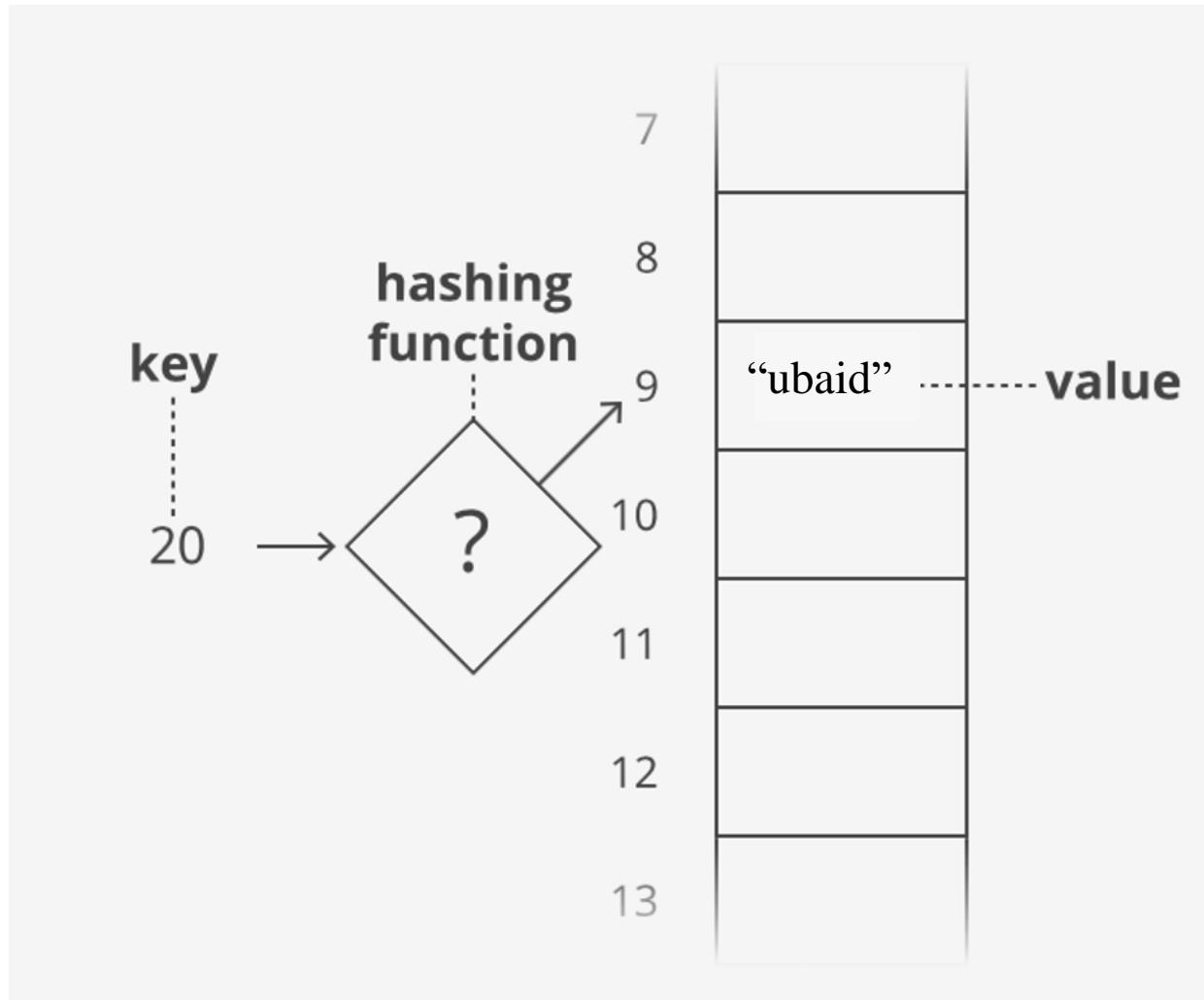
- It requires the implementation of a separate data structure for chains, and code to manage it.
- The main cost of chaining is the extra space required for the linked lists.
- For some languages, creating new nodes (for linked lists) is expensive and slows down the system.

unordered_map<key, mappedValue>
STL

unordered_map<int, string>

Example:

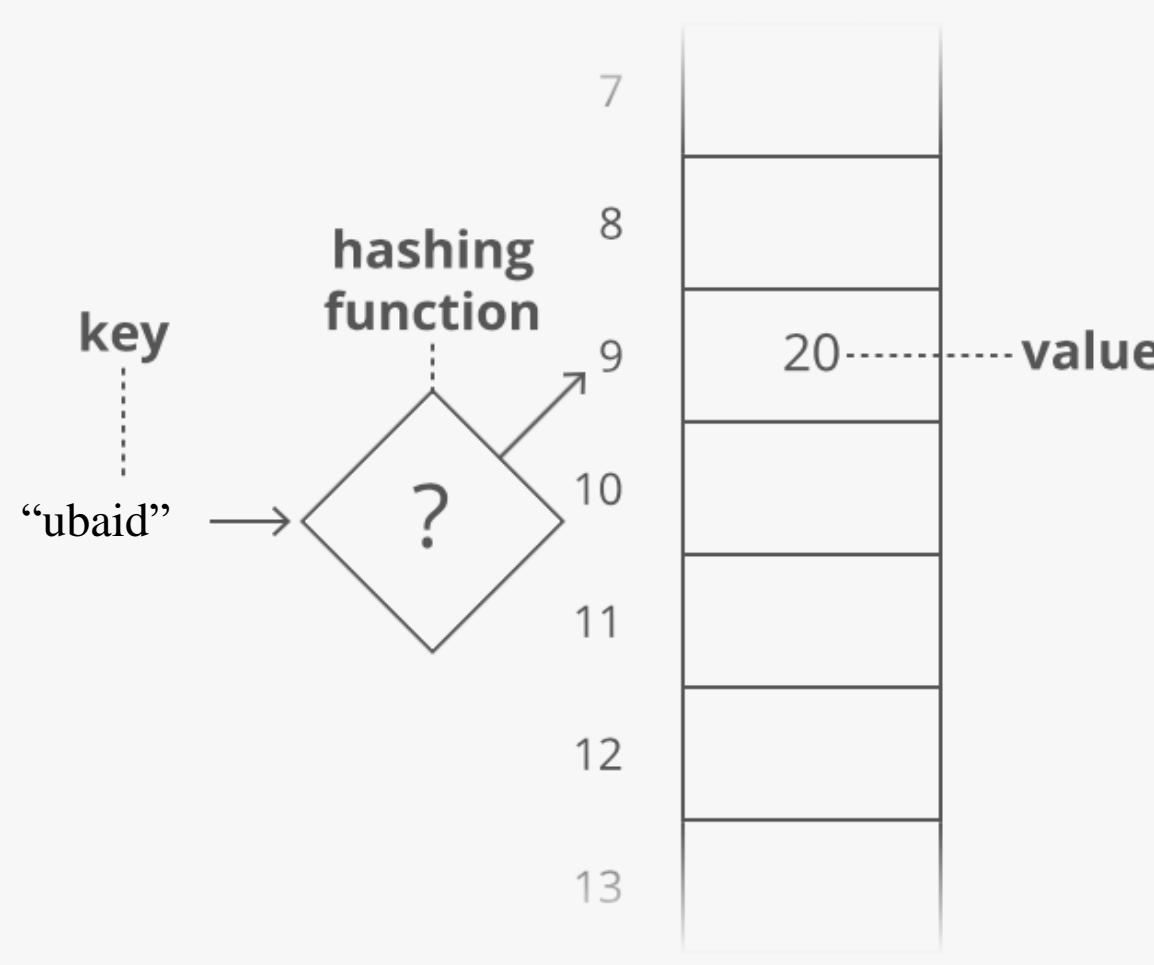
- key = 20
- mapped_value = “ubaid”



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)