Carnegie Mellon University

Hash Tables





ADMINISTRIVIA

Project #1 is due Sunday, Sept 26th @11:59pm

Homework #2 is due Sunday, Oct 3rd @11:59pm



PLAGIARISM WARNING

Your project implementation must be your own work.

- → You may **not** copy source code from other groups or the web.
- → Do **not** publish your implementation on GitHub.

Plagiarism will <u>not</u> be tolerated.
See <u>CMU's Policy on Academic</u>
Integrity for additional information.





UPCOMING DATABASE TALKS

Google Napa

→ Today @4:30pm



TileDB

→ Monday, Sept 27th @4:30pm



BodoSQL

→ Monday, Oct 4th @4:30pm





COURSE STATUS

We are now going to talk about how to support the DBMS's execution engine to read/write data from pages.

Two types of data structures:

- → Hash Tables
- \rightarrow Trees

Query Planning

Operator Execution

Access Methods

Buffer Pool Manager

Disk Manager



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We are now going to talk about how to support the DBMS's execution engine to read/write data from pages.

Two types of data structures:

- → Hash Tables
- \rightarrow Trees

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DATA STRUCTURES

Internal Meta-data

Core Data Storage

Temporary Data Structures

Table Indexes



DESIGN DECISIONS

Data Organization

→ How we layout data structure in memory/pages and what information to store to support efficient access.

Concurrency

→ How to enable multiple threads to access the data structure at the same time without causing problems.



HASH TABLES

A <u>hash table</u> implements an unordered associative array that maps keys to values.

It uses a <u>hash function</u> to compute an offset into the array for a given key, from which the desired value can be found.

Space Complexity: **O(n)**

Time Complexity:

- \rightarrow Average: O(1)
- \rightarrow Worst: O(n)



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Space Complexity: **O(n)**

Time Complexity: Need to care about constants!

- \rightarrow Average: O(1)
- \rightarrow Worst: O(n)



Allocate a giant array that has one slot for <u>every</u> element you need to store.

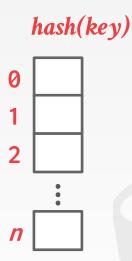
To find an entry, mod the key by the number of elements to find the offset in the array.





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hash(key)

0 abc

Ø

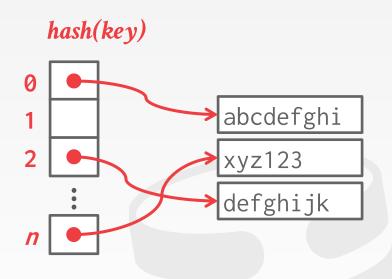
2 def

n xyz



Allocate a giant array that has one slot for <u>every</u> element you need to store.

To find an entry, mod the key by the number of elements to find the offset in the array.





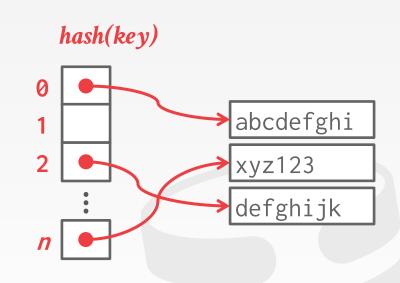
ASSUMPTIONS

You know the number of elements ahead of time.

Each key is unique.

Perfect hash function.

→ If key1≠key2, then hash(key1)≠hash(key2)





HASH TABLE

Design Decision #1: Hash Function

- \rightarrow How to map a large key space into a smaller domain.
- → Trade-off between being fast vs. collision rate.

Design Decision #2: Hashing Scheme

- \rightarrow How to handle key collisions after hashing.
- → Trade-off between allocating a large hash table vs. additional instructions to find/insert keys.



TODAY'S AGENDA

Hash Functions

Static Hashing Schemes

Dynamic Hashing Schemes



HASH FUNCTIONS

For any input key, return an integer representation of that key.



HASH FUNCTIONS

For any input key, return an integer representation of that key.

We do <u>not</u> want to use a cryptographic hash function for DBMS hash tables.

We want something that is fast and has a low collision rate.



HASH FUNCTIONS

CRC-64 (1975)

→ Used in networking for error detection.

MurmurHash (2008)

→ Designed as a fast, general-purpose hash function.

Google CityHash (2011)

 \rightarrow Designed to be faster for short keys (<64 bytes).

Facebook XXHash (2012)

 \rightarrow From the creator of zstd compression.

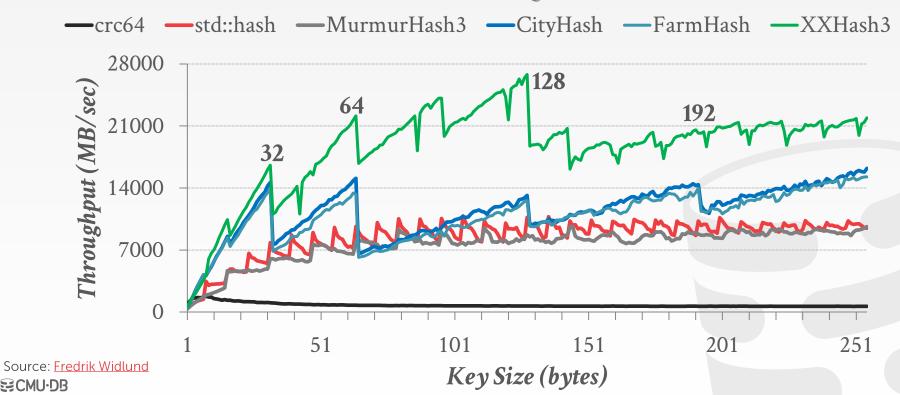
Google FarmHash (2014)

→ Newer version of CityHash with better collision rates.



HASH FUNCTION BENCHMARK

Intel Core i7-8700K @ 3.70GHz



STATIC HASHING SCHEMES

Approach #1: Linear Probe Hashing

Approach #2: Robin Hood Hashing

Approach #3: Cuckoo Hashing



Single giant table of slots.

Resolve collisions by linearly searching for the next free slot in the table.

- → To determine whether an element is present, hash to a location in the index and scan for it.
- → Must store the key in the index to know when to stop scanning.
- → Insertions and deletions are generalizations of lookups.



hash(key)

A

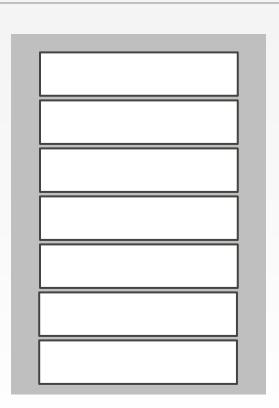
B

C

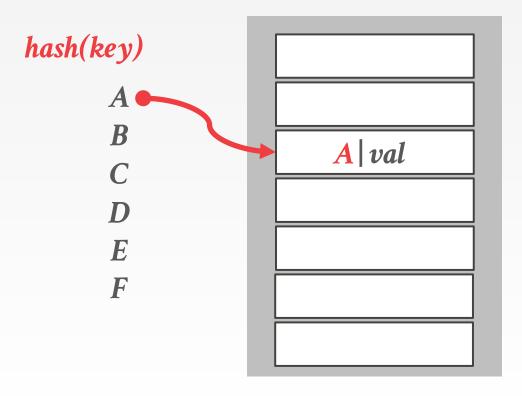
D

E

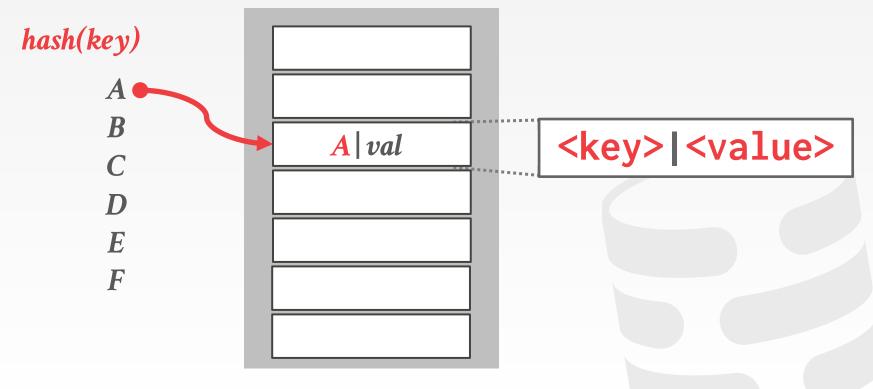
F



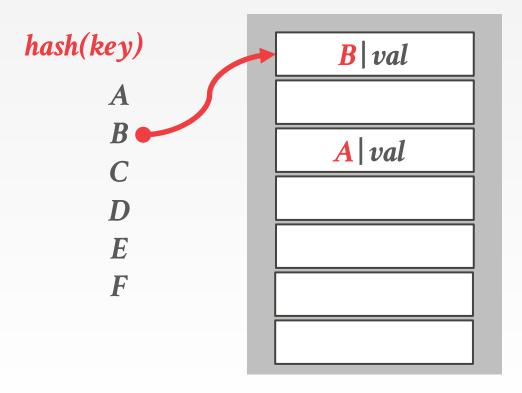




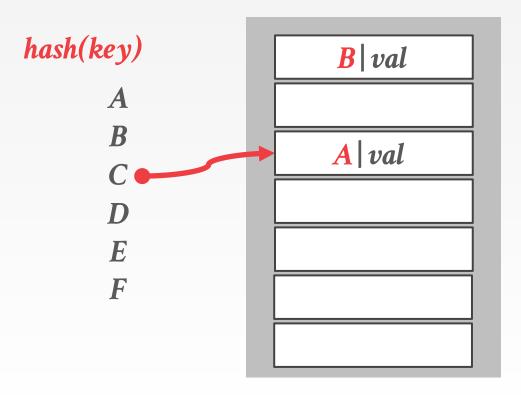




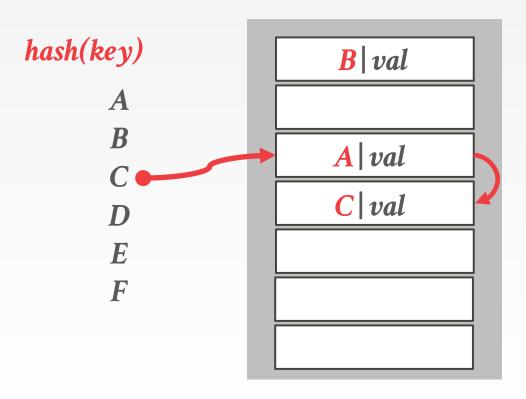




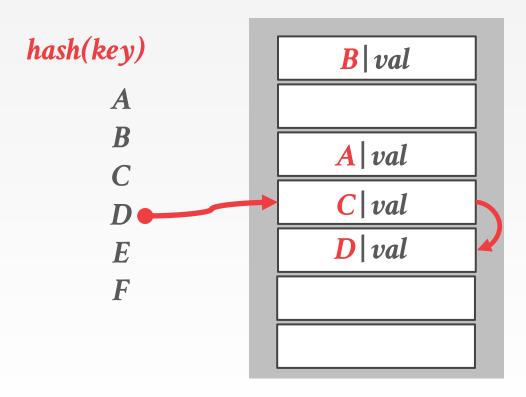




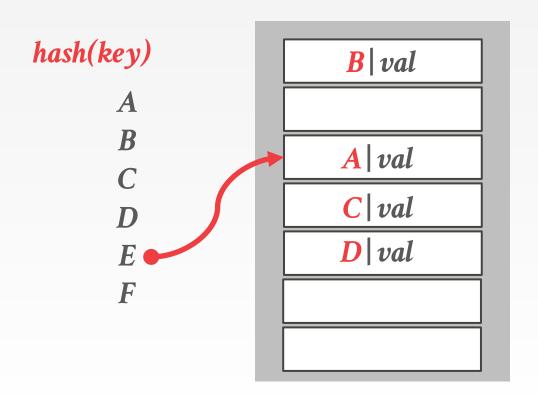




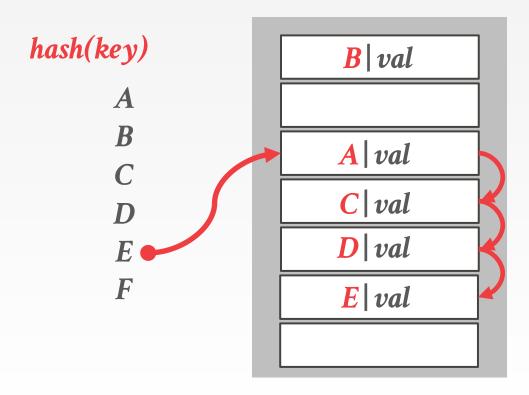




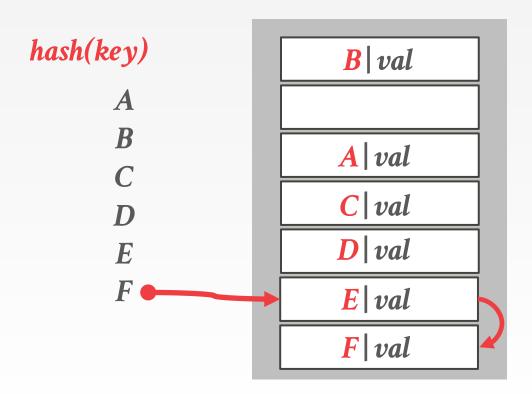














LINEAR PROBE HASHING - DELETES

hash(key)

A

B

C

D

E

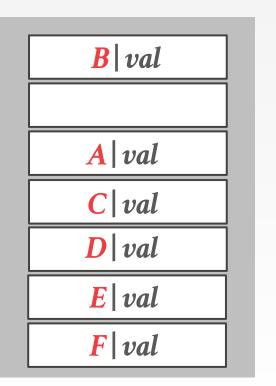
F

B | valA | val C | val D|valE | valF|val



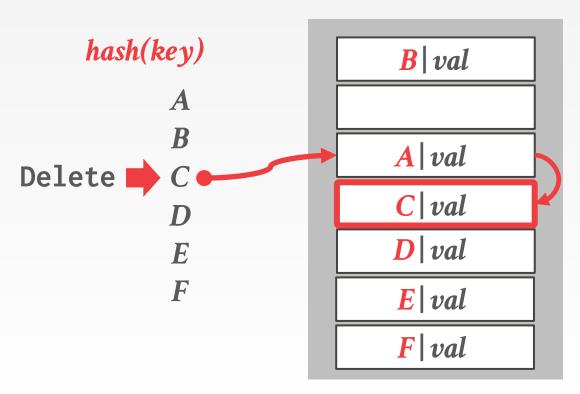
LINEAR PROBE HASHING - DELETES

$\begin{array}{c} hash(key) \\ A \\ B \\ Delete \longrightarrow C \\ D \\ F \end{array}$

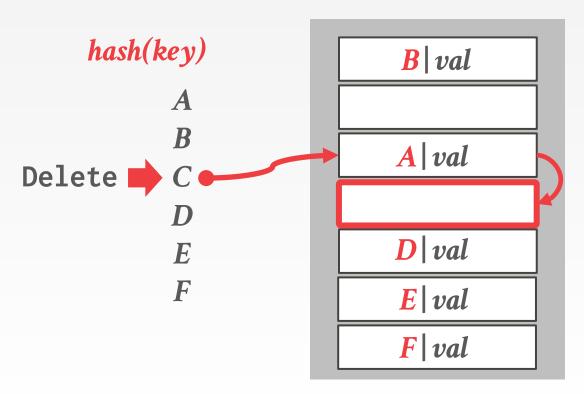




LINEAR PROBE HASHING - DELETES









hash(key)

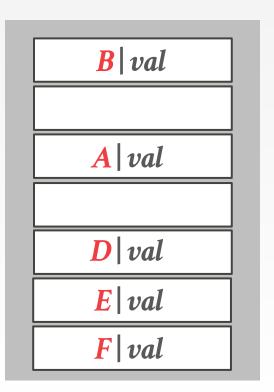
A

B

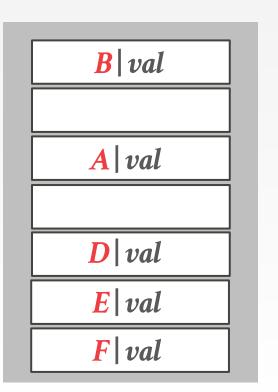
D

E

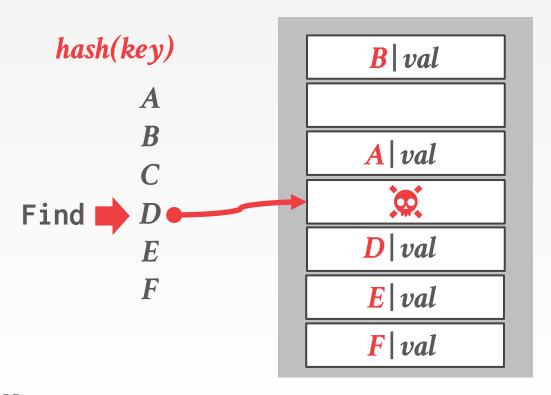
F



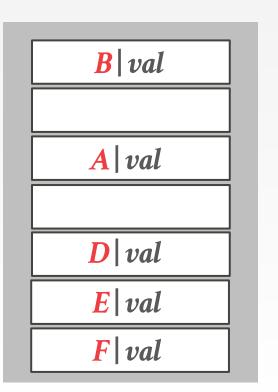






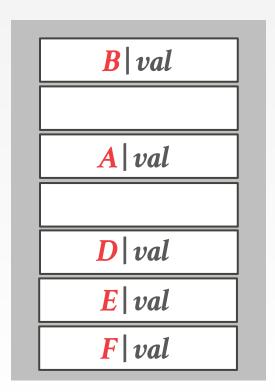








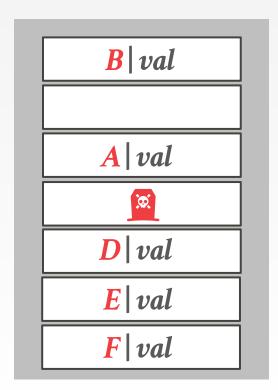
$\begin{array}{c} hash(key) \\ A \\ B \\ C \\ Find \longrightarrow D \\ E \\ - \end{array}$



Approach #1: Tombstone

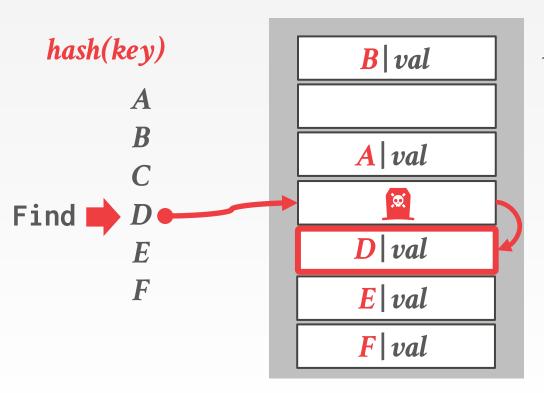


$\begin{array}{c} hash(key) \\ A \\ B \\ C \\ Find \longrightarrow D \\ E \end{array}$



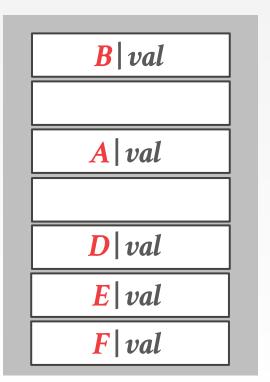
Approach #1: Tombstone





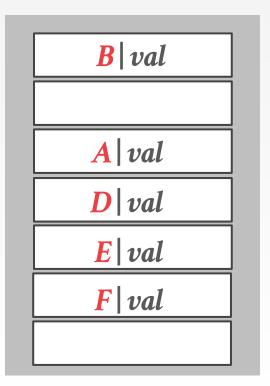
Approach #1: Tombstone





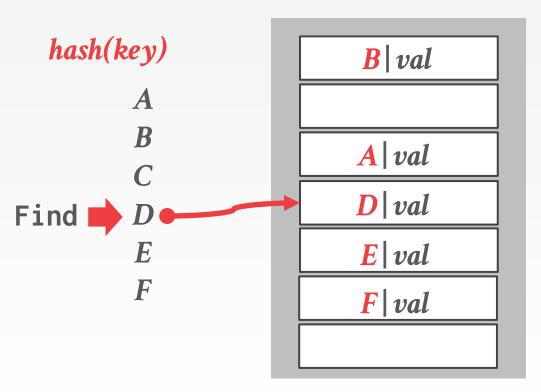
Approach #1: Tombstone





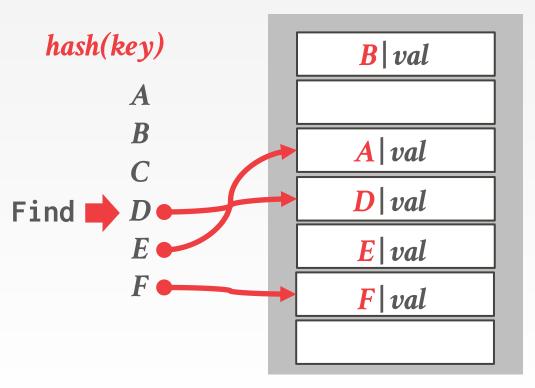
Approach #1: Tombstone





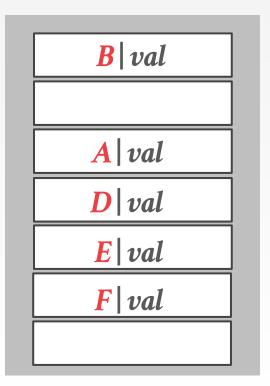
Approach #1: Tombstone





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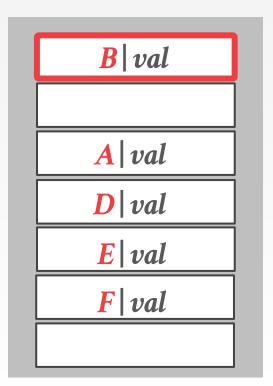




Approach #1: Tombstone



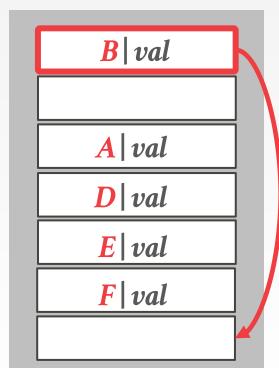
$\begin{array}{c} hash(key) \\ A \\ B \\ C \\ Find \longrightarrow D \\ E \end{array}$



Approach #1: Tombstone

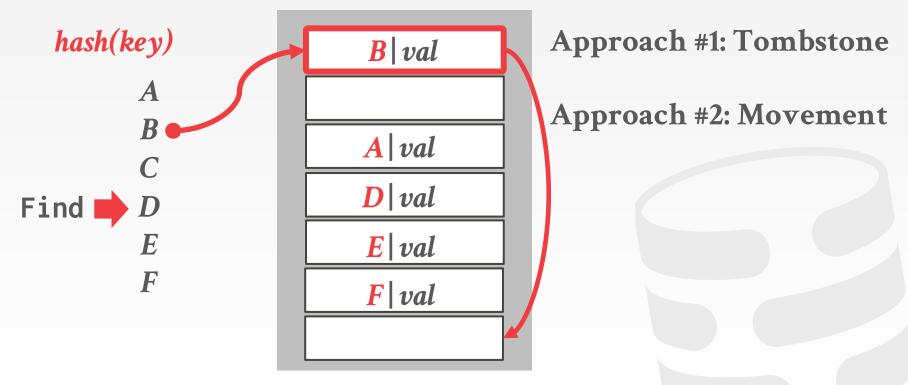


$\begin{array}{c} hash(key) \\ A \\ B \\ C \\ Find \stackrel{\blacktriangleright}{\blacktriangleright} D \\ E \end{array}$

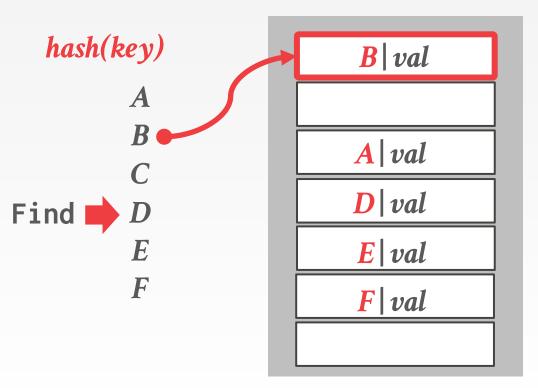


Approach #1: Tombstone









Approach #1: Tombstone



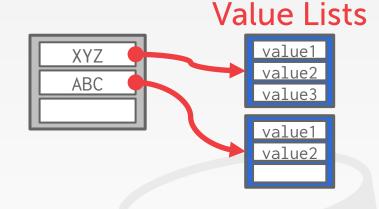
Choice #1: Separate Linked List

→ Store values in separate storage area for each key.



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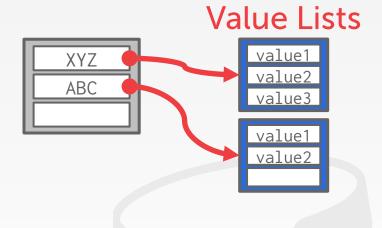


Choice #1: Separate Linked List

→ Store values in separate storage area for each key.

Choice #2: Redundant Keys

→ Store duplicate keys entries together in the hash table.



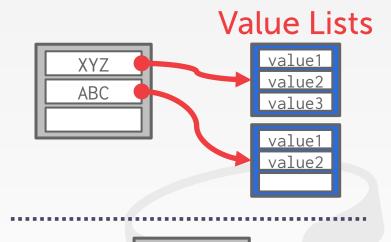


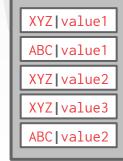
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Variant of linear probe hashing that steals slots from "rich" keys and give them to "poor" keys.

- → Each key tracks the number of positions they are from where its optimal position in the table.
- → On insert, a key takes the slot of another key if the first key is farther away from its optimal position than the second key.



hash(key)

A

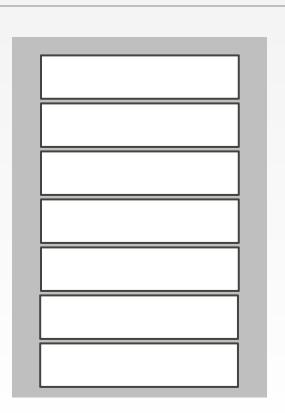
B

 \boldsymbol{C}

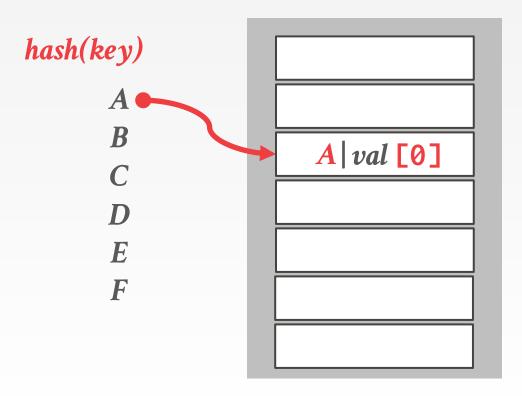
D

E

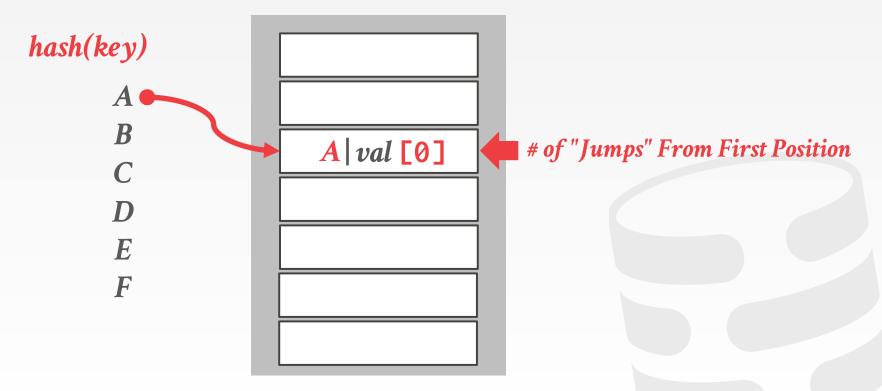
F



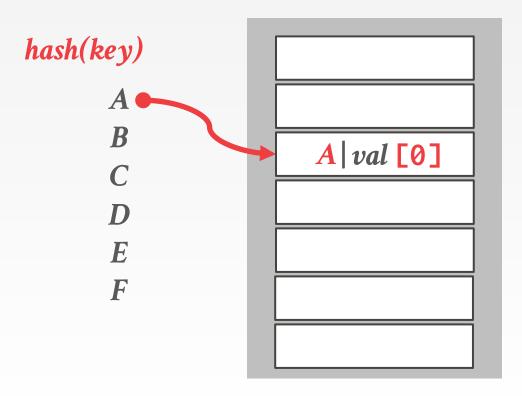




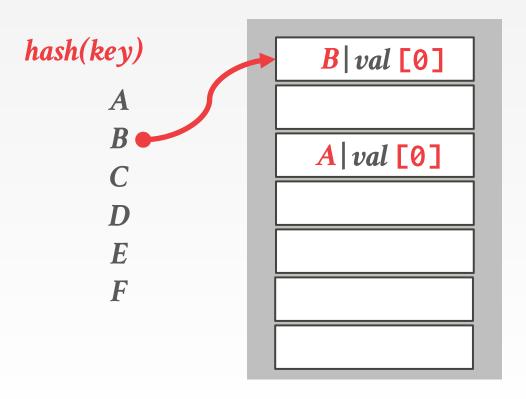




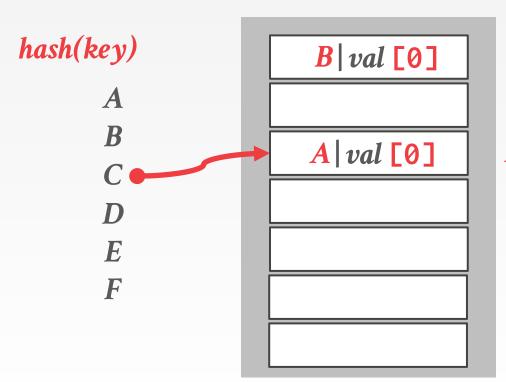






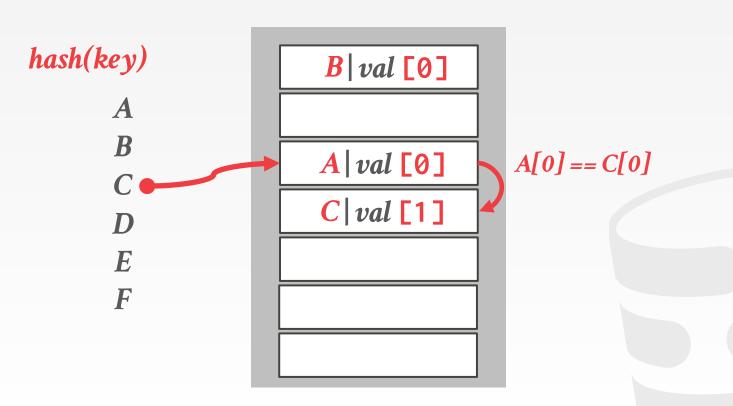




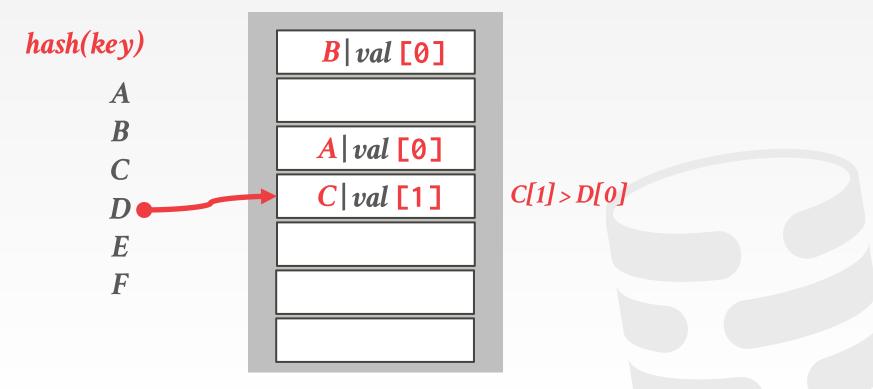


A[0] == C[0]

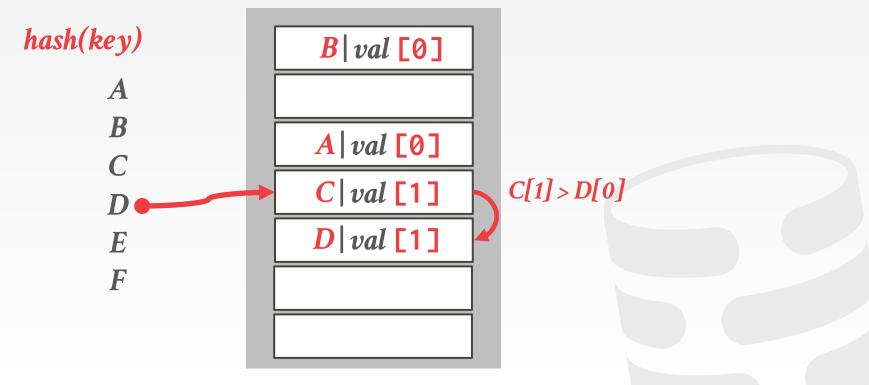




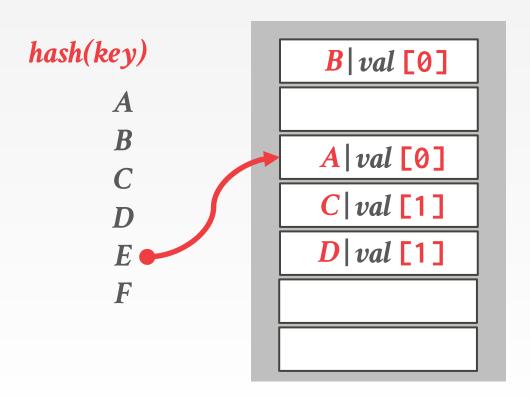




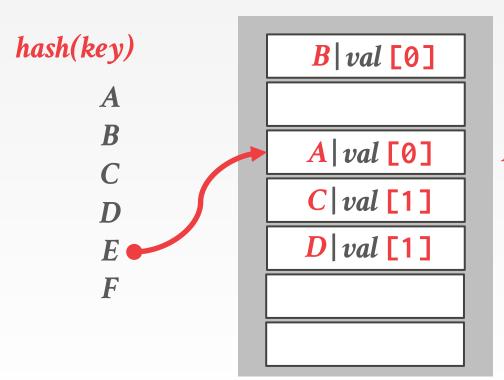






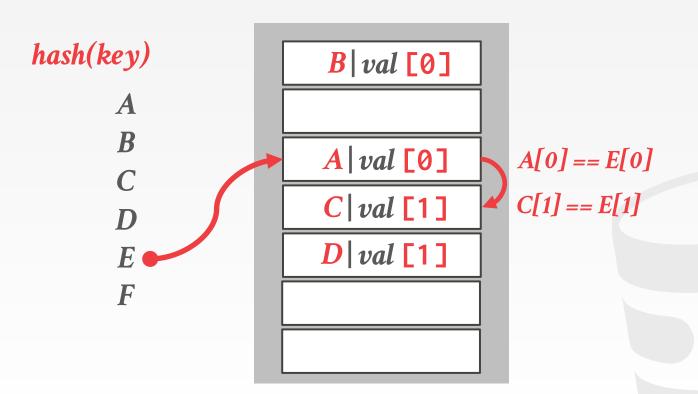




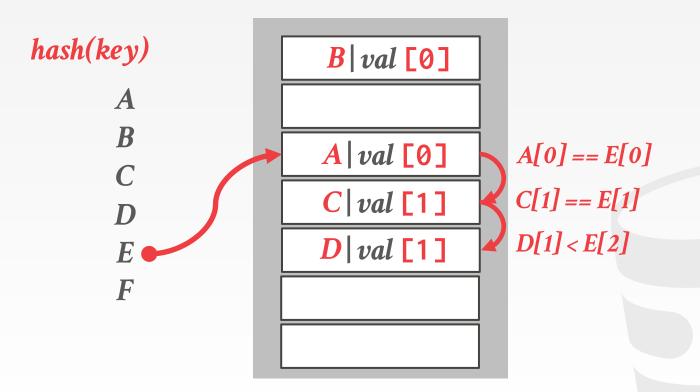


A[0] == E[0]

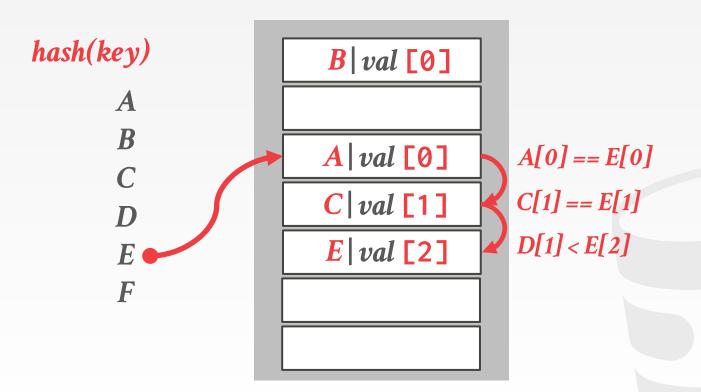






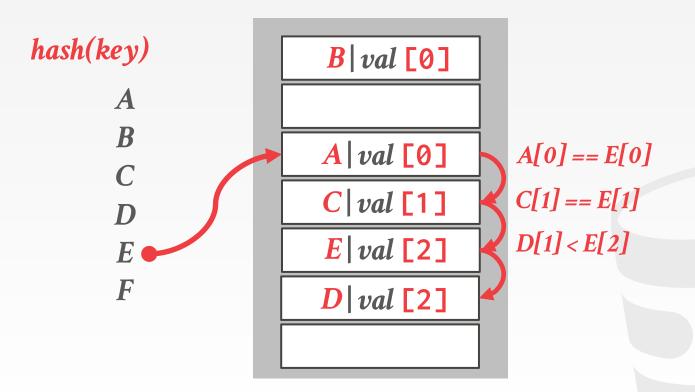






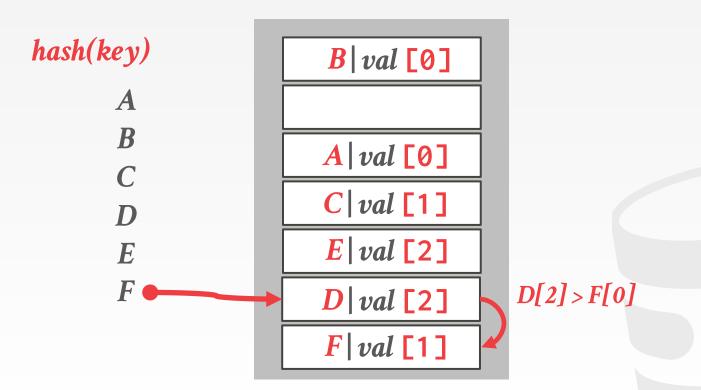


ROBIN HOOD HASHING





ROBIN HOOD HASHING





Use multiple hash tables with different hash function seeds.

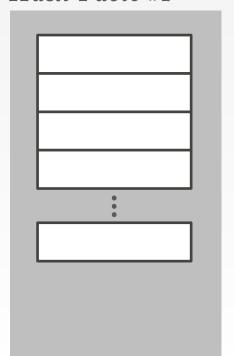
- → On insert, check every table and pick anyone that has a free slot.
- → If no table has a free slot, evict the element from one of them and then re-hash it find a new location.

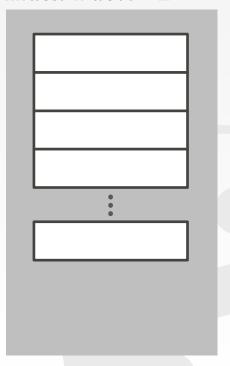
Look-ups and deletions are always **O(1)** because only one location per hash table is checked.

Best open-source implementation is from CMU.



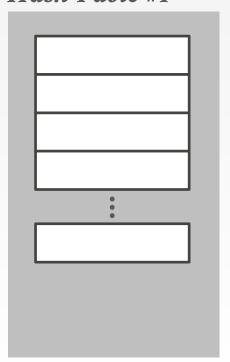
Hash Table #1



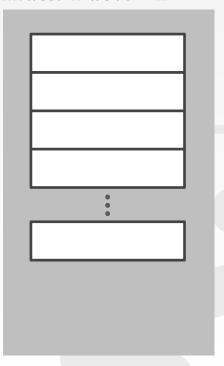




Hash Table #1

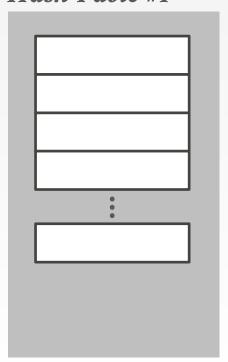


Insert A

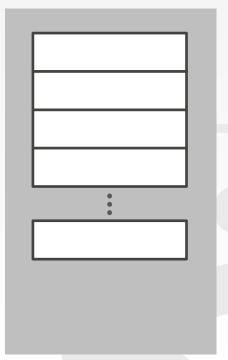




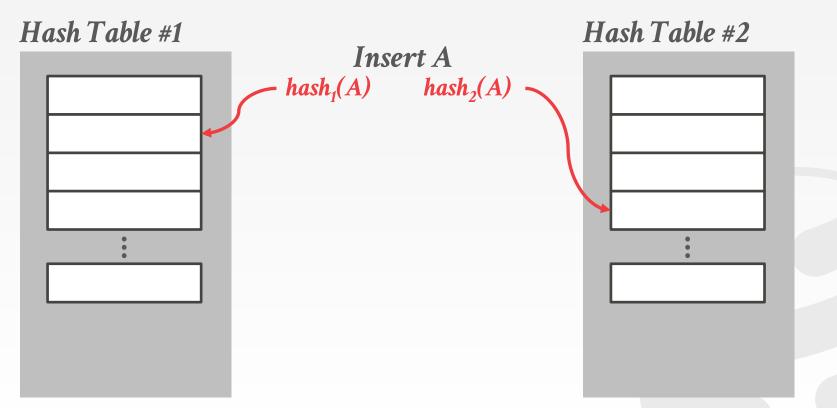
Hash Table #1



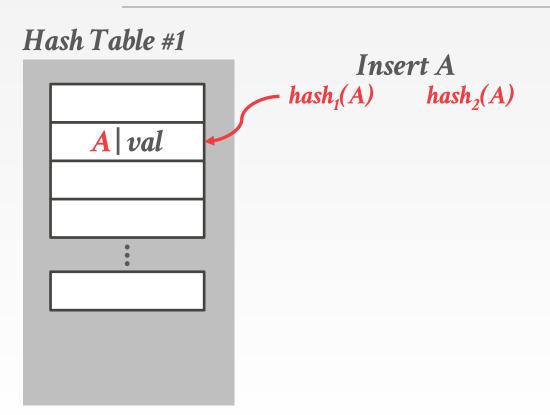
Insert A
hash₁(A) hash₂(A)

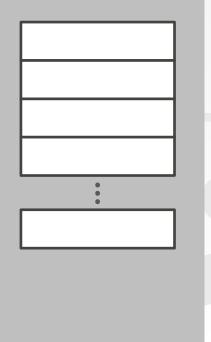






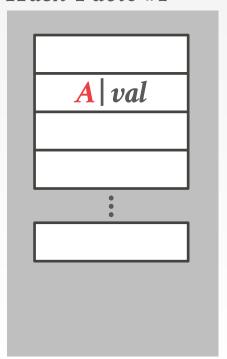






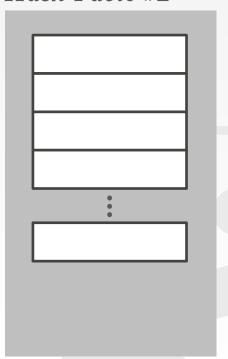


Hash Table #1

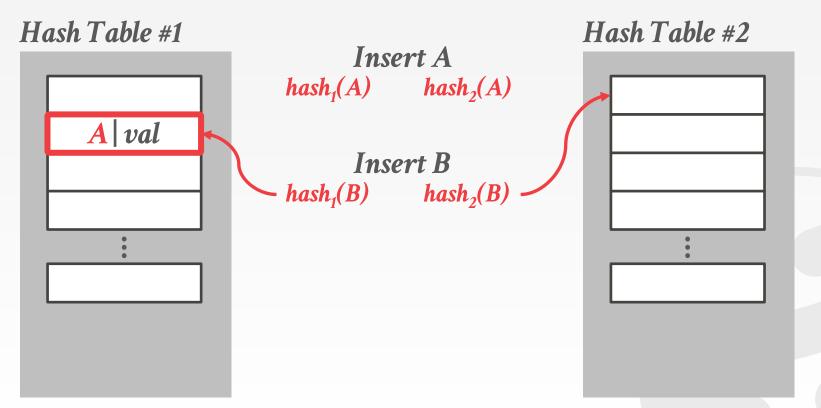


Insert A hash₁(A) hash₂(A)

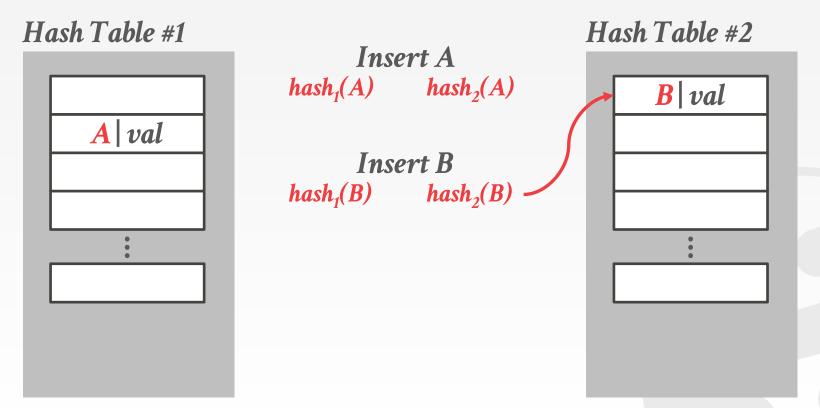
Insert B
hash₁(B) hash₂(B)





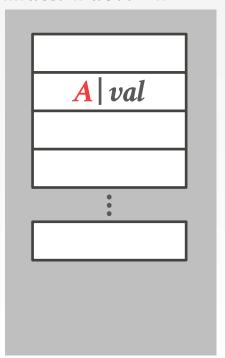








Hash Table #1



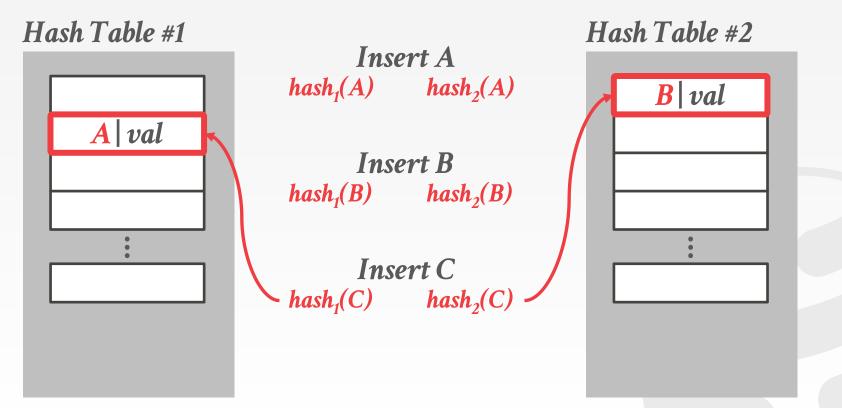
Insert A hash₁(A) hash₂(A)

Insert B
hash₁(B) hash₂(B)

Insert C hash₁(C) hash₂(C)

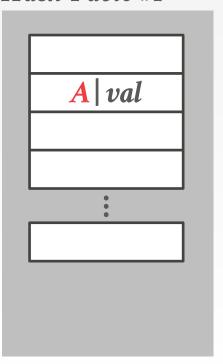
С	B val	
L		
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	•	1







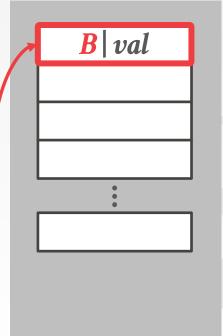
Hash Table #1



Insert A hash₁(A) hash₂(A)

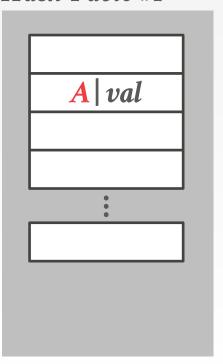
Insert B
hash₁(B) hash₂(B)

Insert C hash₁(C) hash₂(C)





Hash Table #1

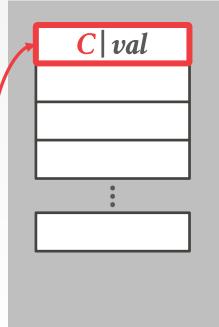


Insert A

 $hash_1(A)$ $hash_2(A)$

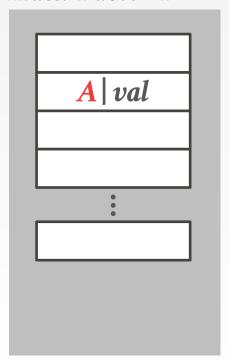
Insert B
hash₁(B) hash₂(B)

Insert C hash₁(C) hash₂(C)





Hash Table #1



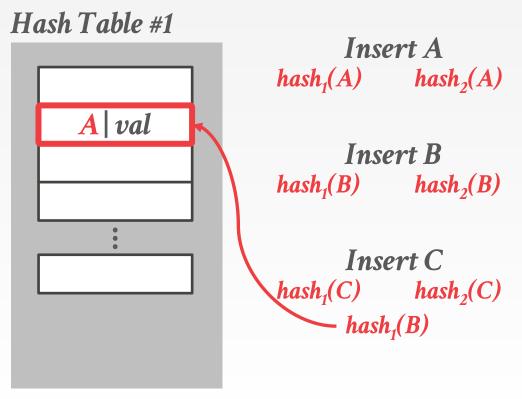
Insert A
hash₁(A) hash₂(A)

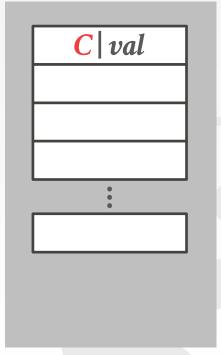
Insert B
hash₁(B) hash₂(B)

Insert C hash₁(C) hash₂(C) hash₁(B)

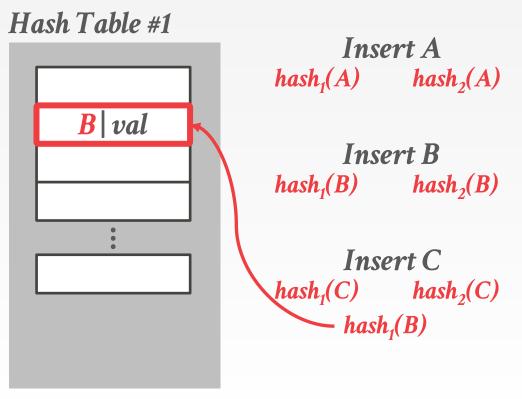
C val	

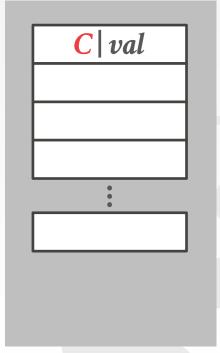






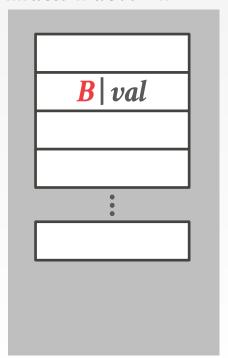








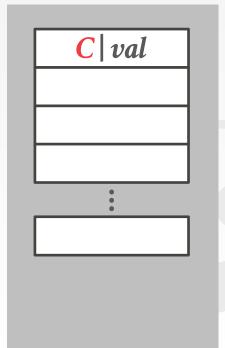
Hash Table #1



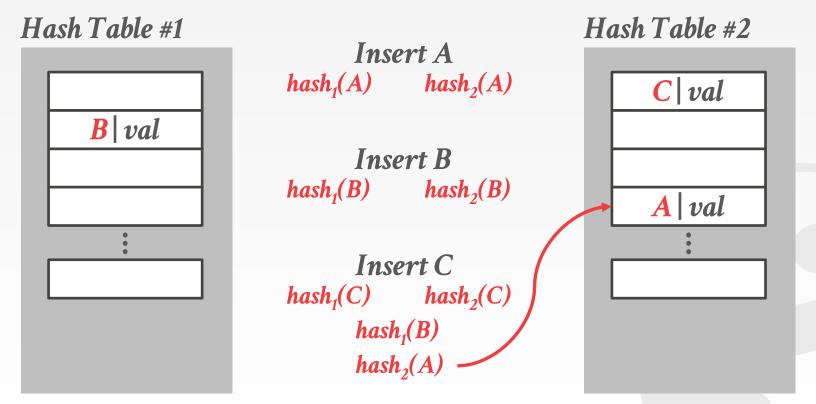
Insert A hash₁(A) hash₂(A)

Insert B
hash₁(B) hash₂(B)

Insert C
hash₁(C) hash₂(C)
hash₁(B)
hash₂(A)









OBSERVATION

The previous hash tables require the DBMS to know the number of elements it wants to store.

→ Otherwise, it must rebuild the table if it needs to grow/shrink in size.



OBSERVATION

The previous hash tables require the DBMS to know the number of elements it wants to store.

→ Otherwise, it must rebuild the table if it needs to grow/shrink in size.

Dynamic hash tables resize themselves on demand.

- → Chained Hashing
- → Extendible Hashing
- → Linear Hashing



Maintain a linked list of <u>buckets</u> for each slot in the hash table.

Resolve collisions by placing all elements with the same hash key into the same bucket.

- → To determine whether an element is present, hash to its bucket and scan for it.
- → Insertions and deletions are generalizations of lookups.



hash(key)

 \boldsymbol{A}

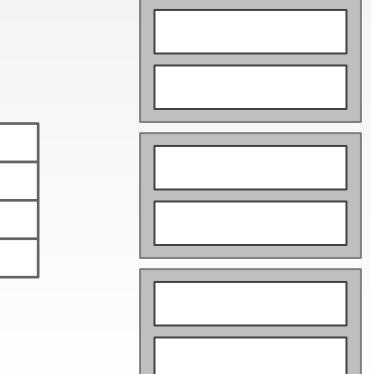
B

 \boldsymbol{C}

 \boldsymbol{D}

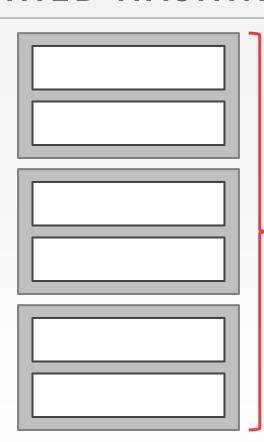
E

F



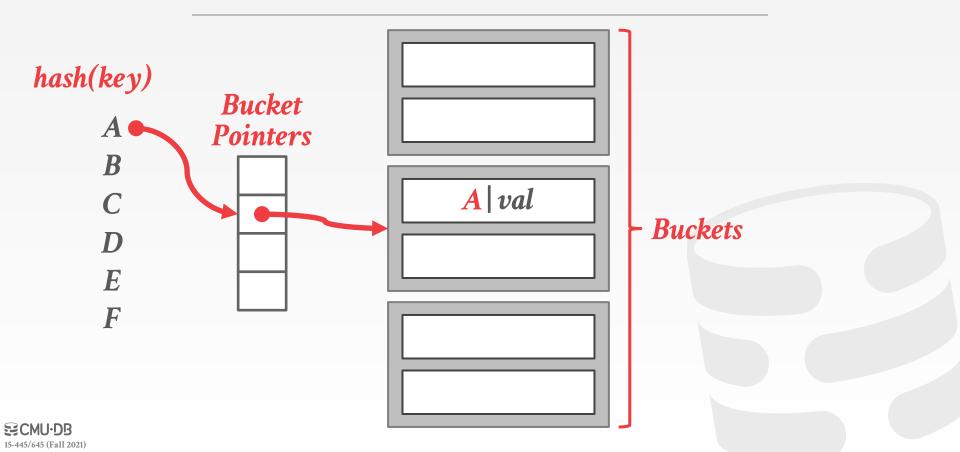


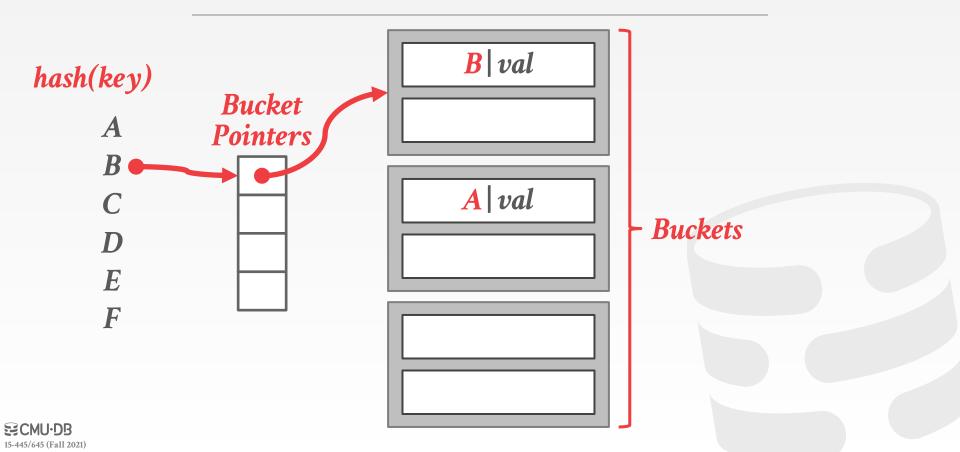
hash(key) Bucket **Pointers** F

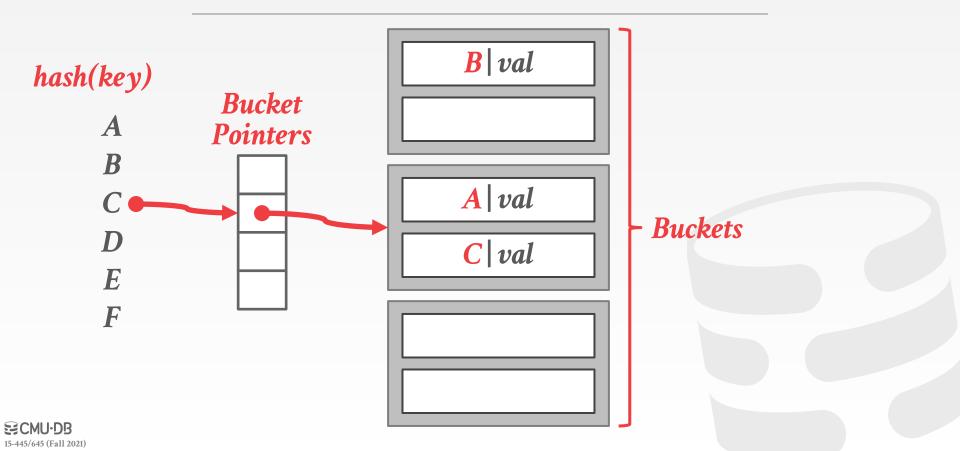


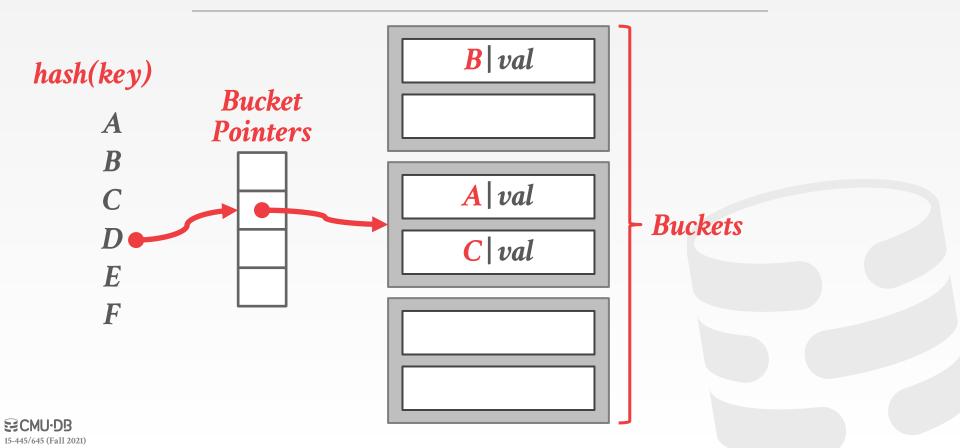
Buckets

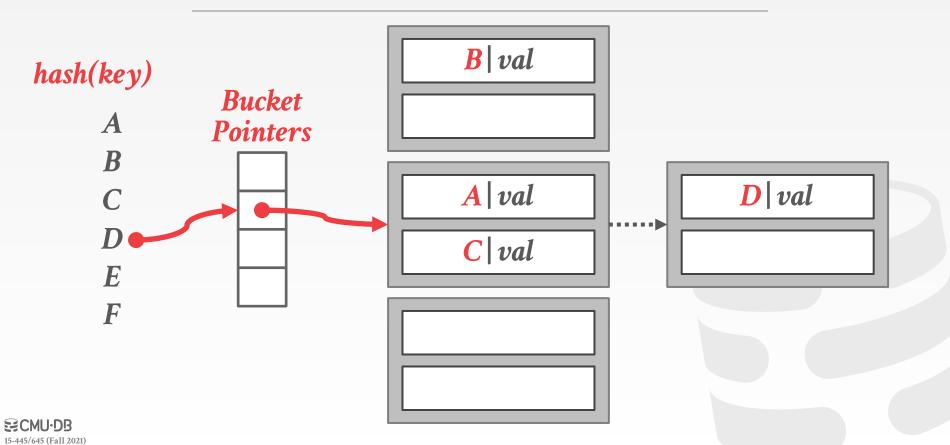


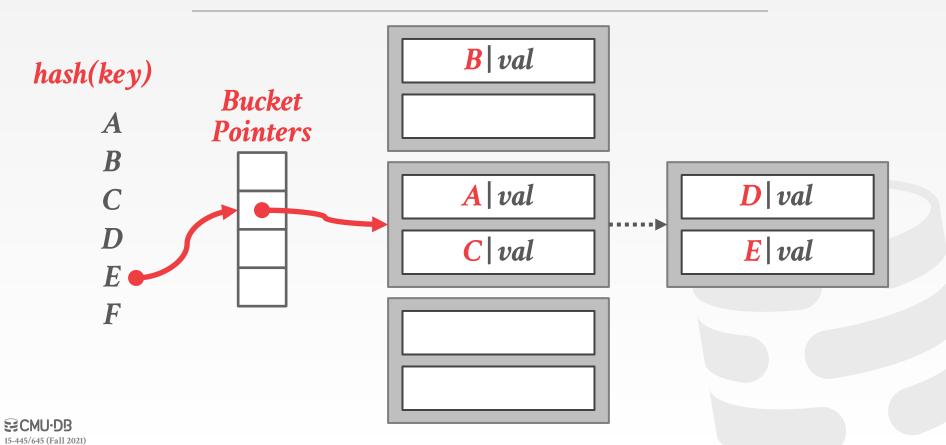


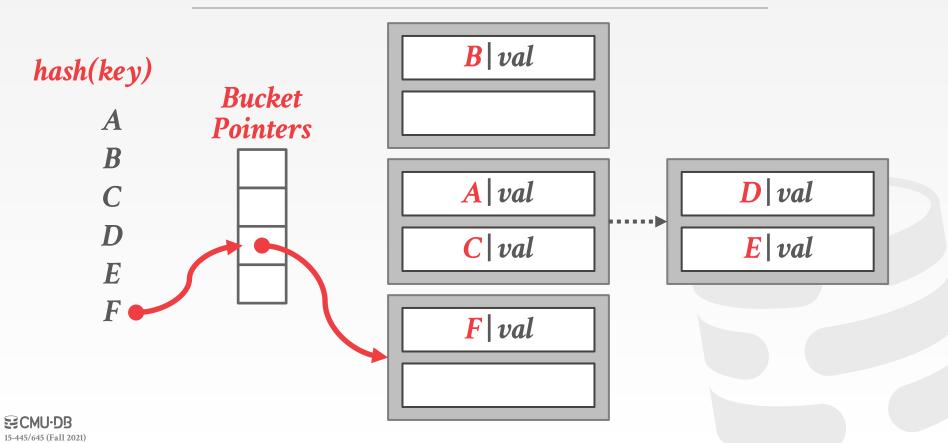












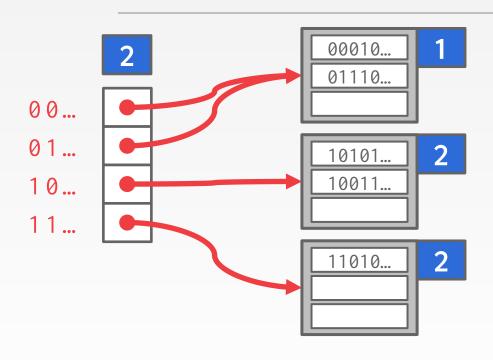
Chained-hashing approach where we split buckets instead of letting the linked list grow forever.

Multiple slot locations can point to the same bucket chain.

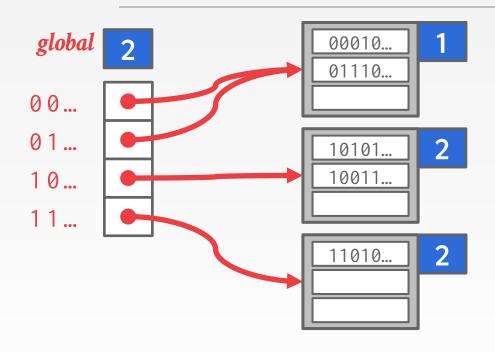
Reshuffle bucket entries on split and increase the number of bits to examine.

→ Data movement is localized to just the split chain.

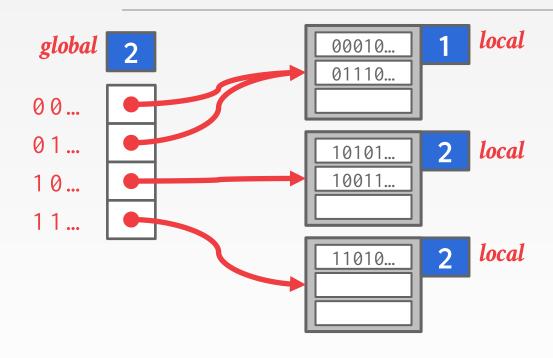




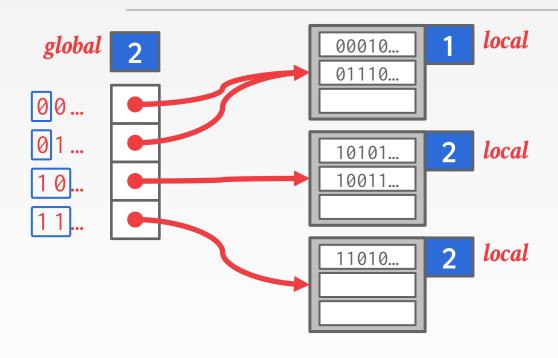




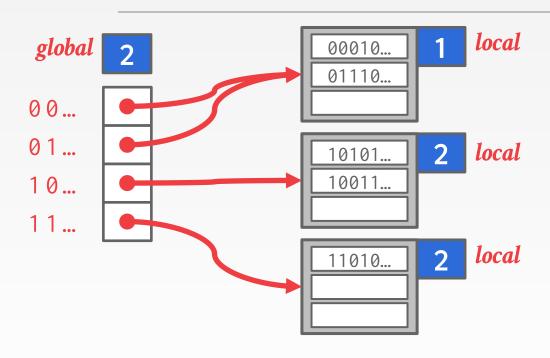






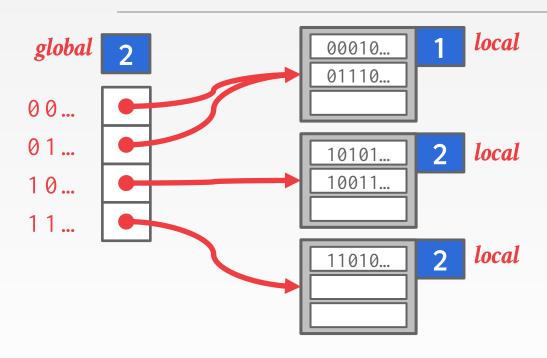






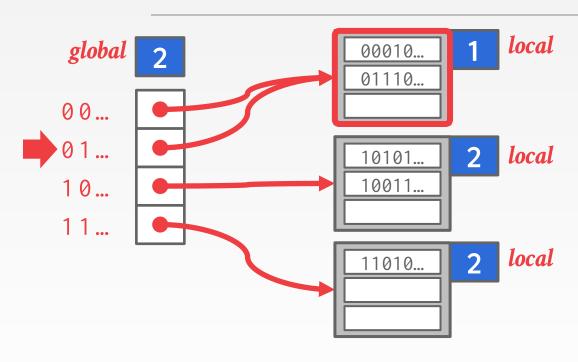
Find A hash(A) = 01110...





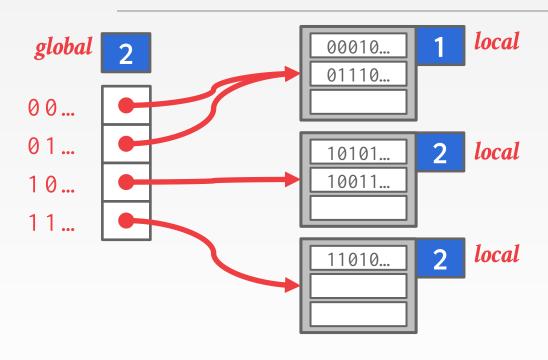
Find A
$$hash(A) = 01110...$$





Find A
$$hash(A) = 01110...$$

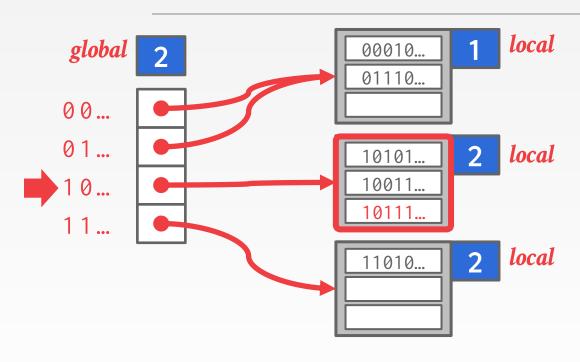




Find A
$$hash(A) = 01110...$$

Insert B
$$hash(B) = 10111...$$

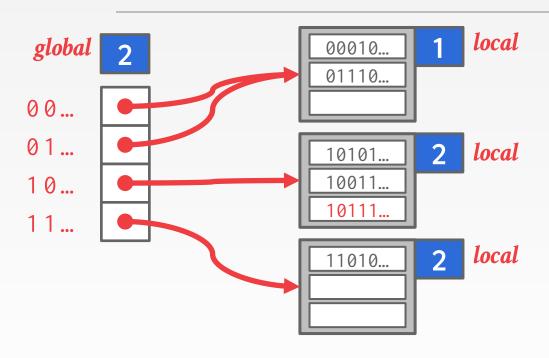




Find A
$$hash(A) = 01110...$$

Insert B
$$hash(B) = 10111...$$



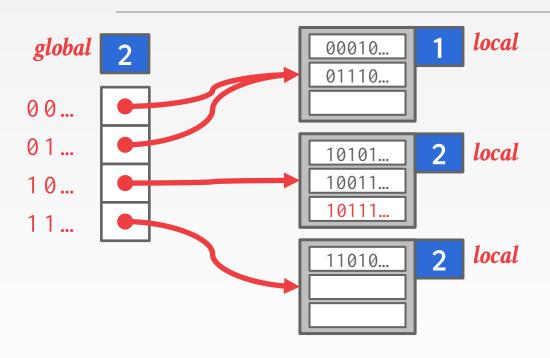


Find A hash(A) = 01110...

Insert B hash(B) = 10111...

Insert C hash(C) = 10100...

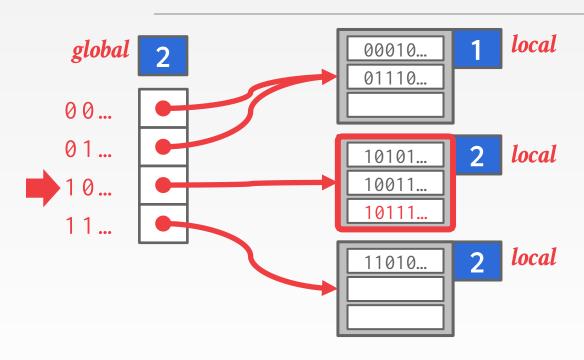




Find A hash(A) = 01110...

Insert B hash(B) = 10111...

Insert C
$$hash(C) = 10100...$$

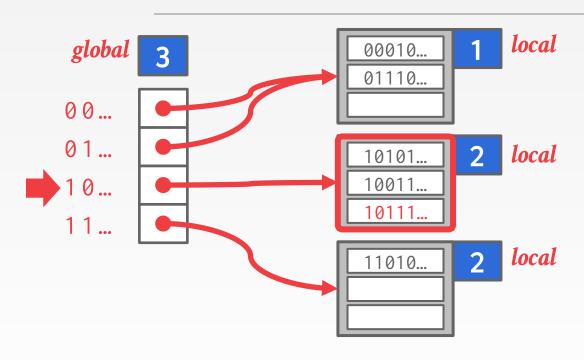


Find A
$$hash(A) = 01110...$$

Insert B
$$hash(B) = 10111...$$

Insert C
$$hash(C) = 10100...$$



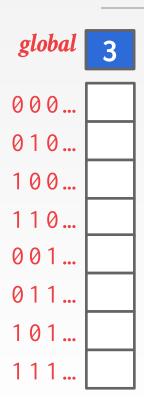


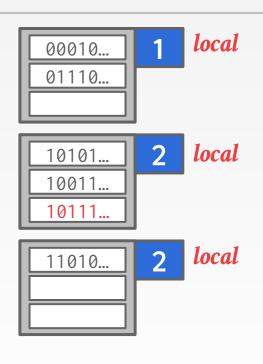
Find A
$$hash(A) = 01110...$$

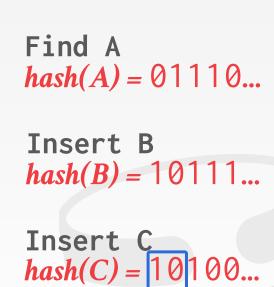
Insert B
$$hash(B) = 10111...$$

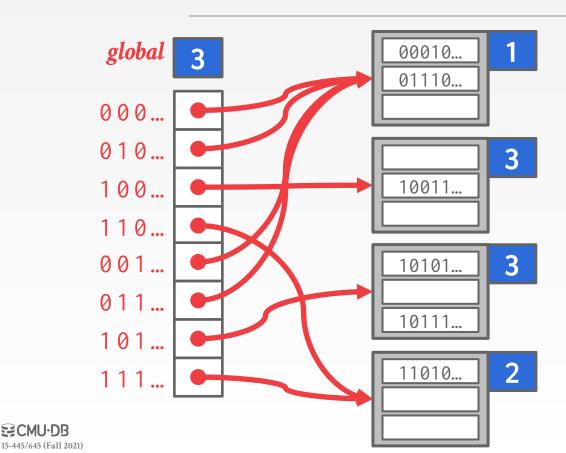
Insert C
$$hash(C) = 10100...$$







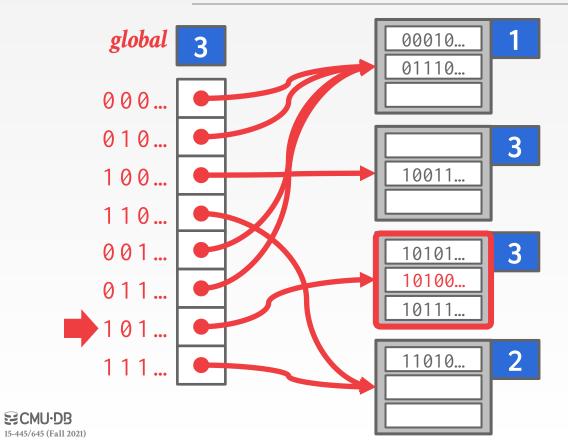




Find A hash(A) = 01110...

Insert B hash(B) = 10111...

Insert C hash(C) = 10100...



Find A hash(A) = 01110...

Insert B hash(B) = 10111...

Insert C hash(C) = 10100...

The hash table maintains a <u>pointer</u> that tracks the next bucket to split.

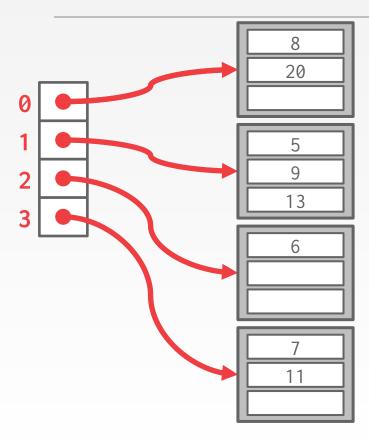
→ When <u>any</u> bucket overflows, split the bucket at the pointer location.

Use multiple hashes to find the right bucket for a given key.

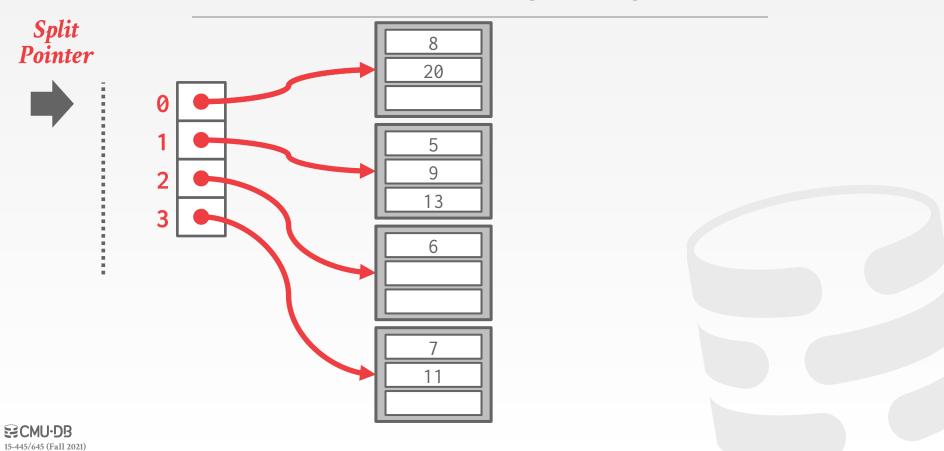
Can use different overflow criterion:

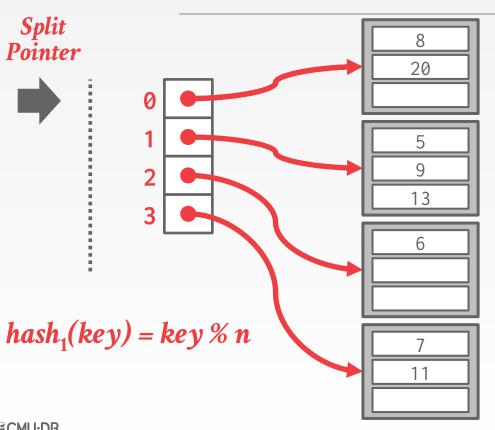
- → Space Utilization
- → Average Length of Overflow Chains



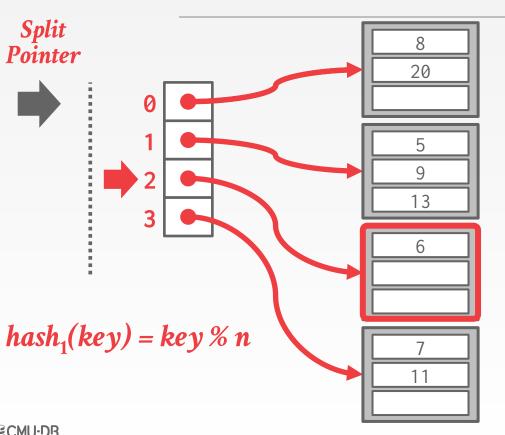






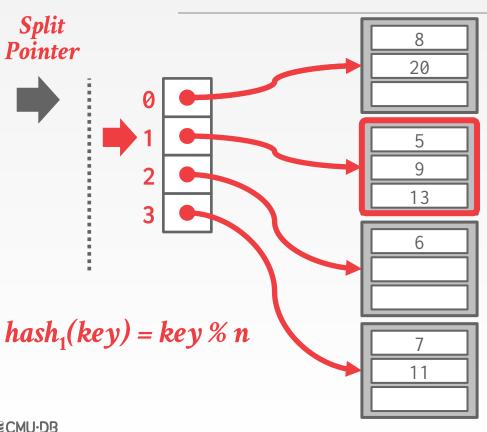






Find 6 hash₁(6) = 6 % 4 = 2

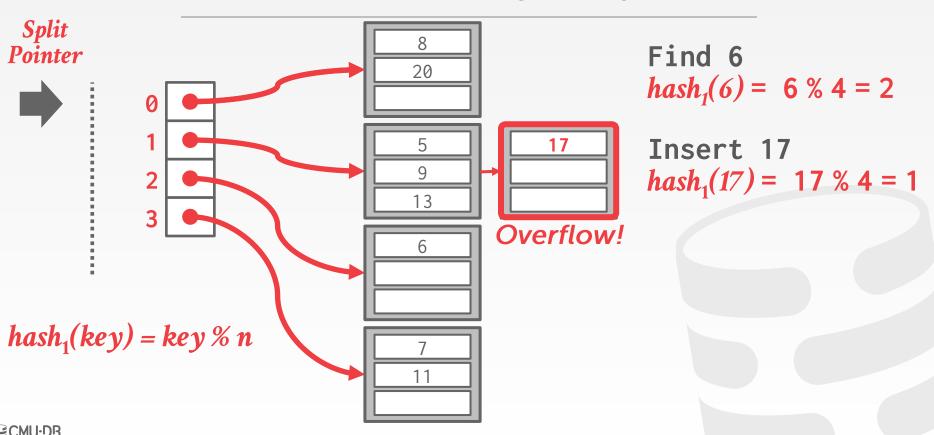




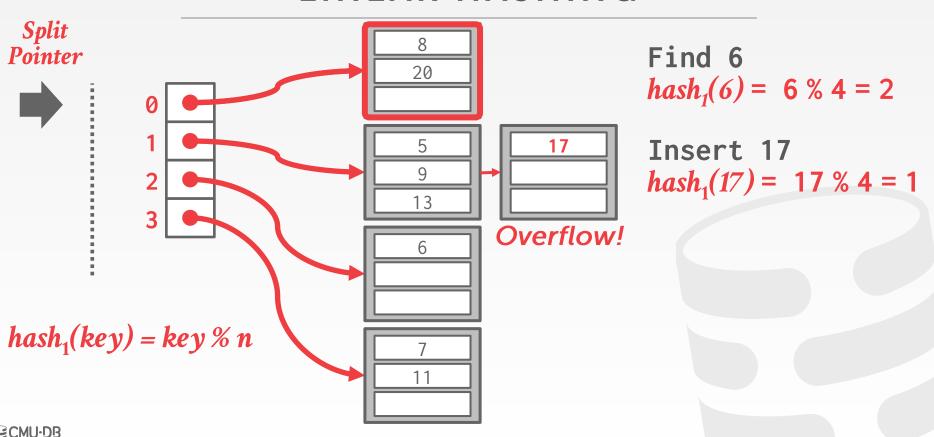
Find 6
$$hash_1(6) = 6 \% 4 = 2$$

Insert 17
$$hash_1(17) = 17 \% 4 = 1$$

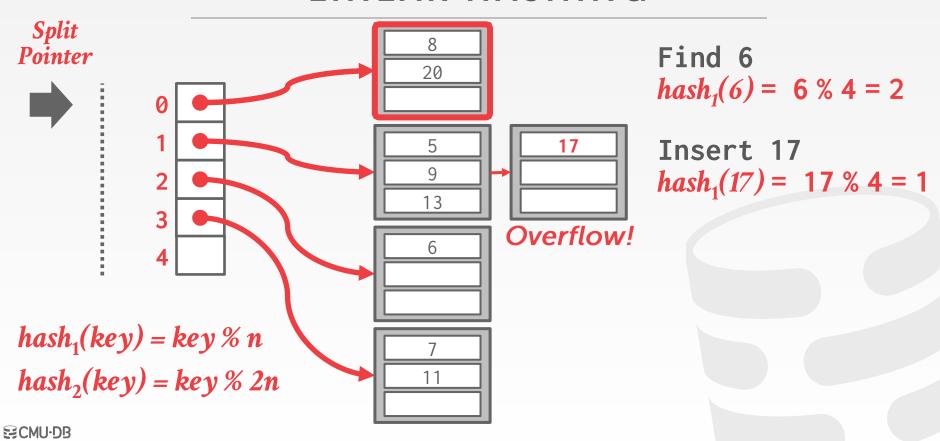




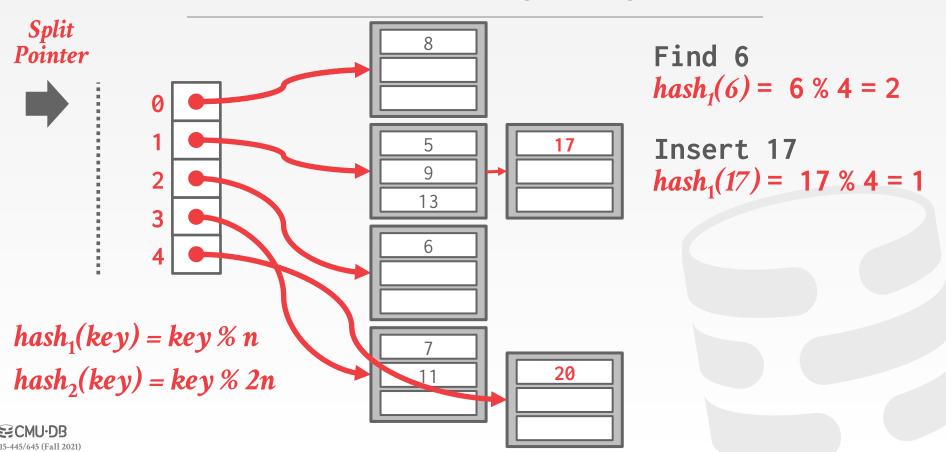
15-445/645 (Fall 2021)

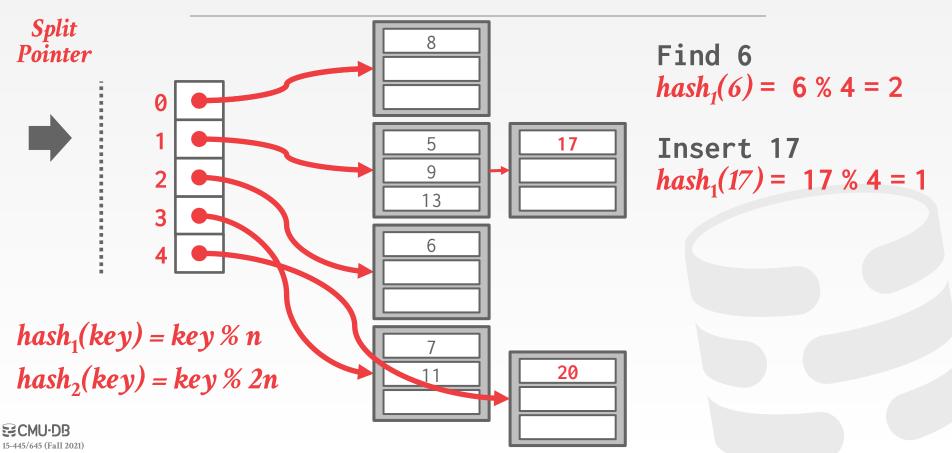


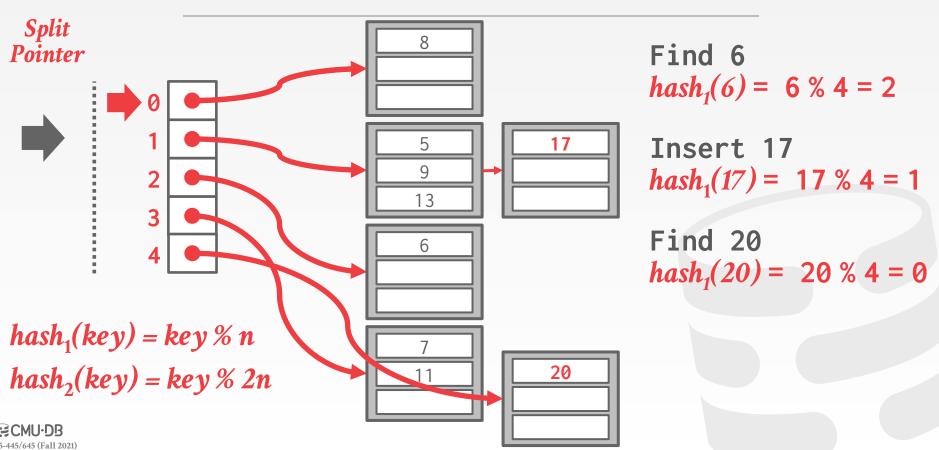
15-445/645 (Fall 2021)

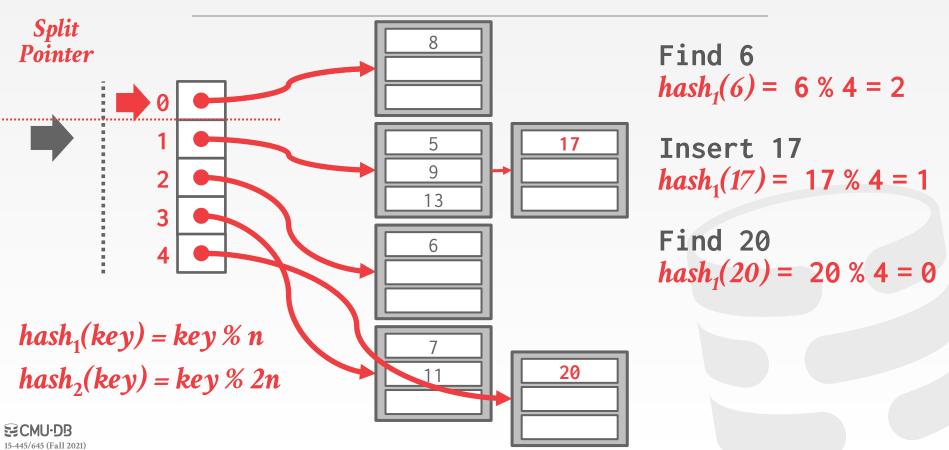


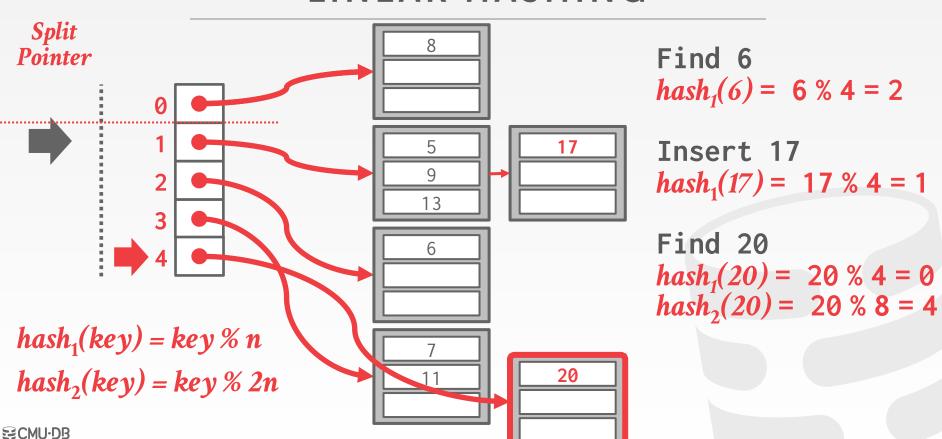
15-445/645 (Fall 2021)

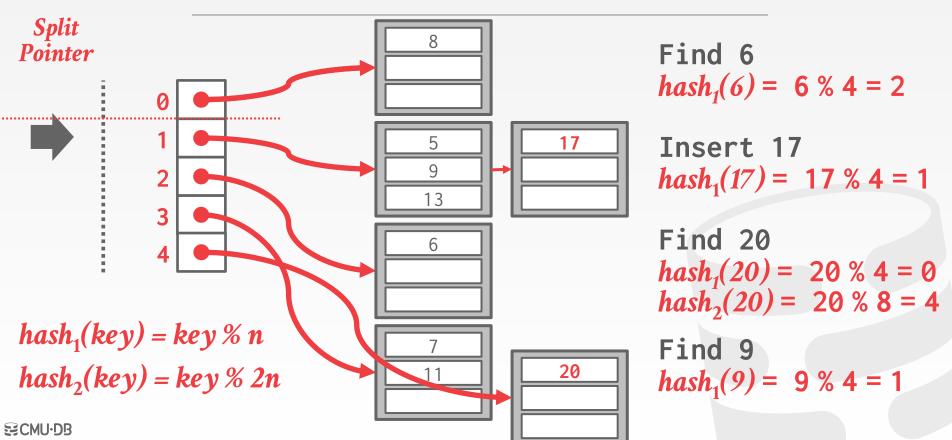


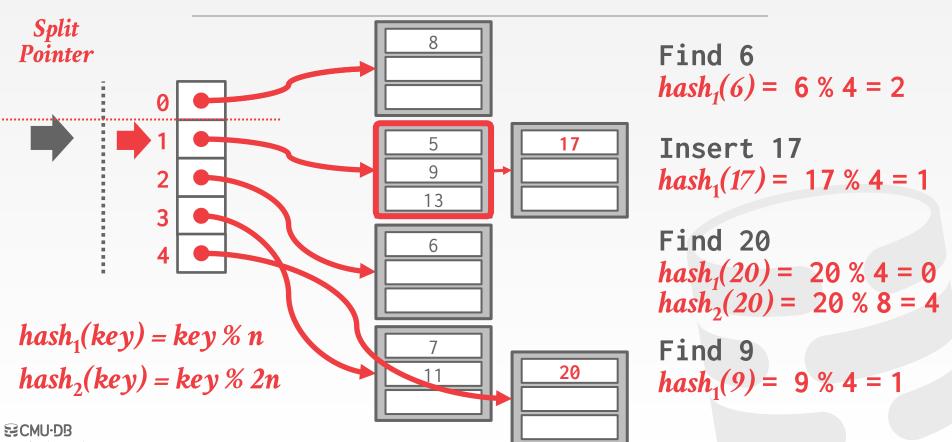












Splitting buckets based on the split pointer will eventually get to all overflowed buckets.

→ When the pointer reaches the last slot, delete the first hash function and move back to beginning.



CONCLUSION

Fast data structures that support **O(1)** look-ups that are used all throughout DBMS internals.

→ Trade-off between speed and flexibility.

Hash tables are usually **not** what you want to use for a table index...



NEXT CLASS

B+Trees

→ aka "The Greatest Data Structure of All Time"

