

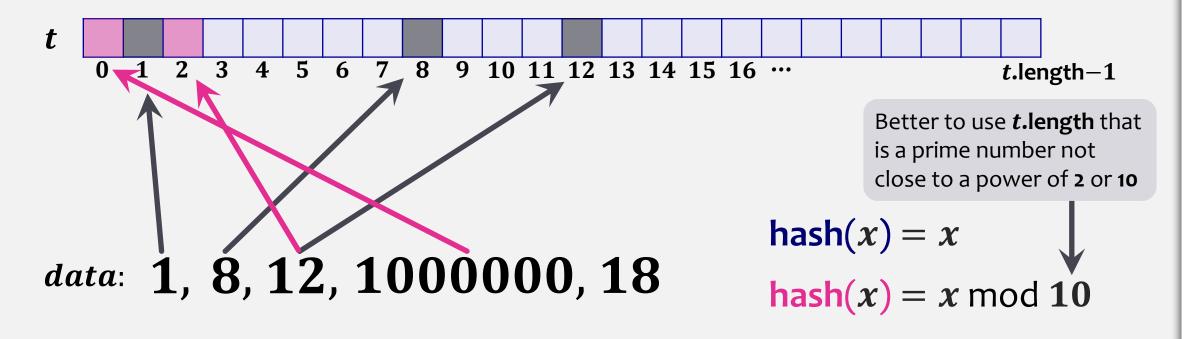
Intro

$$x = 1001110101$$

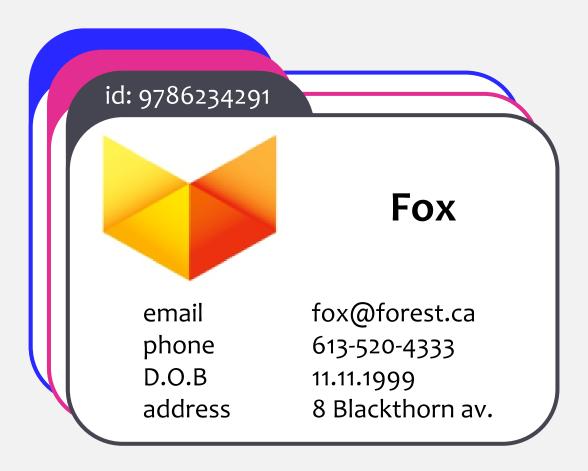
 $x \mod 2^7 = 1110101$

Hash Tables are data structures with very fast insertion and retrieval data.





Intro



with every object there is an associated integer (like id)

Intro – Open addressing

Linear Probing

$$hash(x, l) = (hash(x, 0) + l) \mod t.length$$

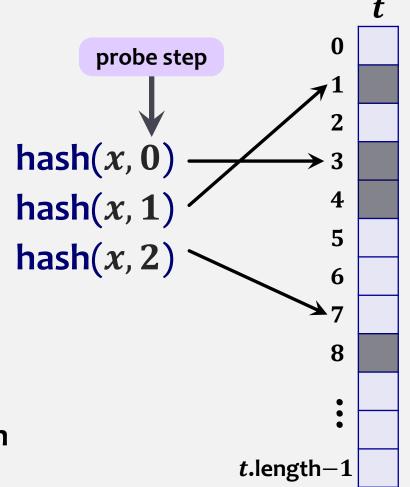
Problem: clustering of items

Quadratic Probing

$$hash(x, l) = (hash(x, 0) + l^2) \mod t.length$$

Double Hashing

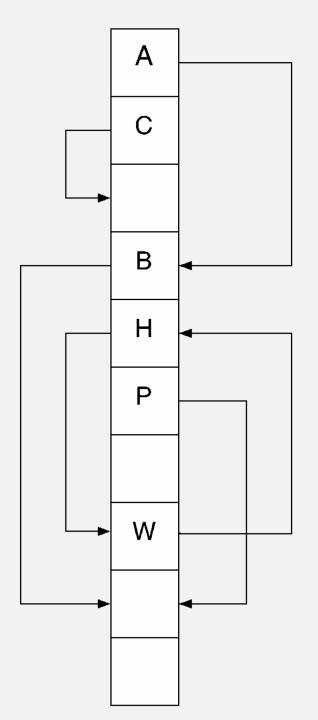
$$hash(x, l) = (hash_1(x) + l \cdot hash_2(x)) \mod t.length$$



Problem: deleting an item is not very straightforward

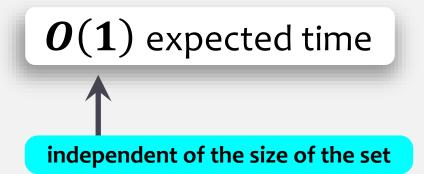
Intro – Open addressing

Cuckoo hashing



Hash Tables

- One of the most used data structuring techniques.
- Largely misunderstood (the most problematic area is computer security)
- Implement **Set** (and **Map**) interface:
 - add(x)
 - remove(*x*)
 - contains(*x*)



Make some internal random choices.

Hash Tables

- Hash tables are an efficient method of storing a small number of integers from a large range.
- Very often hash tables store types of data that are **not integers**:
 - Given an object, you associate it with an integer that is suitable for storing in a hash table. In Java: x.hashCode()
 - 2. Hash Table will store that integer (together with a reference to x)

Object x x.hashCode() x.hashCode

hashCode()
method (class
Object) returns
a hash code of
the object x

Common Mistake

If two or more objects are equal according to the **equals** method (Object class), then their hashes should be equal too:

if x.equals(y) then x.hashCode() == y.hashCode()

If you override the **equals** method, it is crucial to override the **hashCode** method as well.

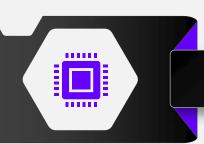
Object z

Hash Table

Object y

Note: If two objects are **not equal**, we want their hashes to be **not equal**.

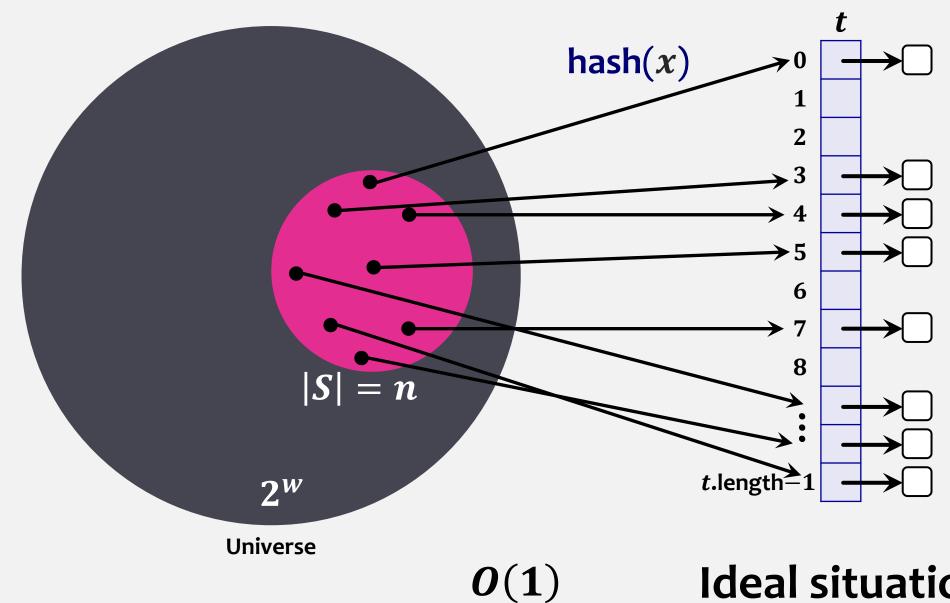
But in reality, they can be equal or unequal.



Passwords.java & Hashes.java

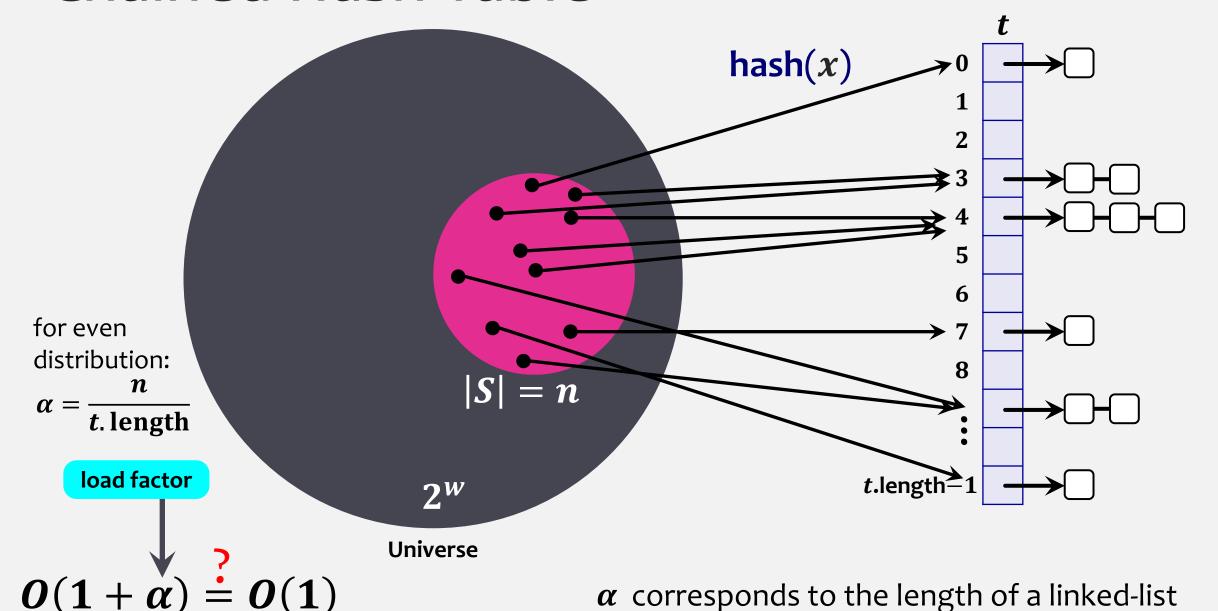
Object x

Chained Hash Table



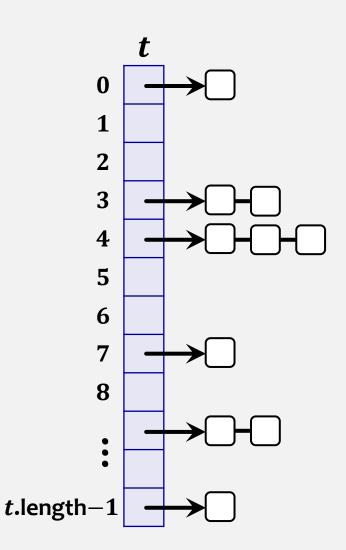
Ideal situation

Chained Hash Table



Chained Hash Table

- Assume: the set of objects we're trying to store is a **set of integers** that are all **distinct**.
- Hash table is an array t of lists.
- n is the total number of items in all lists.
- All items with hash value i are stored in the list at t[i].
- function hash(x) returns the hash value of a data item x; x is a w-bit integer (for now): $x \in \{0, 1, ..., 2^w 1\}$; hash value i is in the range $\{0, 1, 2, ..., t.length 1\}$.
- for lists not to get too long, we maintain $n \leq t$.length
- average number of elements stored in one of these lists is \boldsymbol{n}



contains(x)

We perform a linear search on the list t[hash(x)]:

```
T contains(x):

i = hash(x);

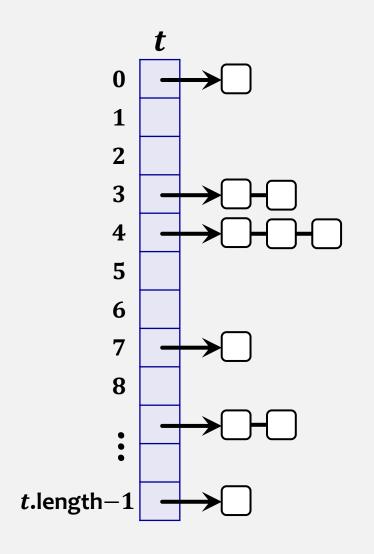
list = t[i];

for each (y in list)

if (y.equals(x)) then

return y;

return null;
```





Where $n_{hash(x)}$ is the size of the list t[hash(x)]

add(x)

the cost of growing is only constant when amortized over a sequence of insertions

- $\overline{m{O}(m{n})}$ If the length of $m{t}$ needs to be increased, then grow $m{t}$.
- $\mathbf{0}(\mathbf{1})$ hash x to get an integer $i \in \{0, 1, 2, ..., t.length 1\}$
- O(1) append x to the list t[i]

remove this if you want to store the same x again

boolean add(x):

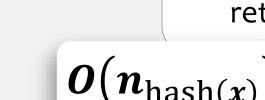
if $(contains(x) \neq null)$ then return false;

if (n + 1 > t.length) then resize();

 $t[\mathsf{hash}(x)].\mathsf{add}(x);$

n++;

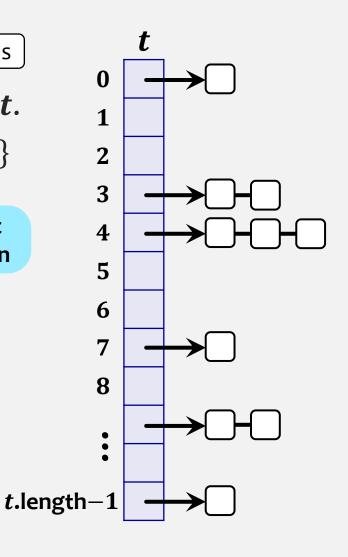
return true;



i = hash(x);

list = t[i];

list.add(x);



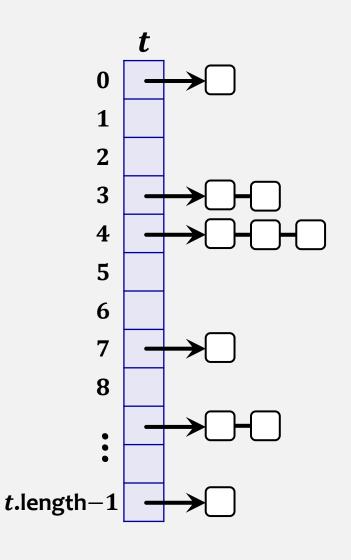
remove(x)

- hash x to get an integer $i \in \{0, 1, 2, ..., t.length 1\}$
- iterate over the list t[i] until you find x, and remove it
- (optional) if the length of **t** needs to be decreased, then shrink **t**.

T remove(x):

if (contains(x) = null) then return null; y = t[hash(x)].remove(x); n - -;if (4n < t.length) then resize();

return y;



$$O(n_{hash(x)})$$

Where $n_{hash(x)}$ is the size of the list t[hash(x)]

Hash Functions - Good & Bad

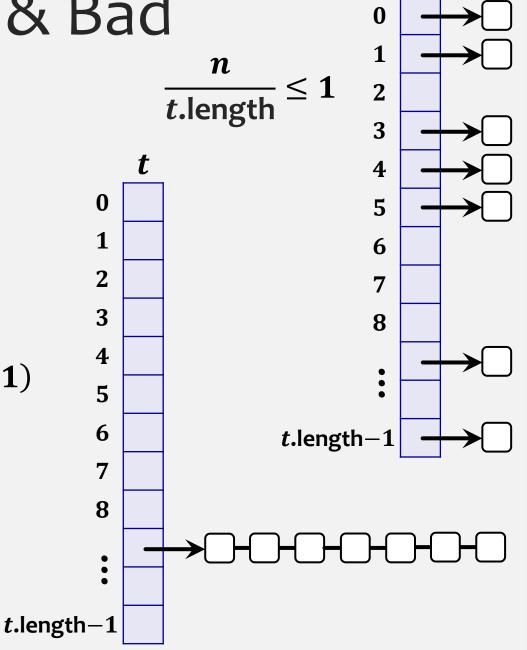
The performance of a hash table depends on the choice of the hash function.

 A good hash function will spread the elements evenly among the t.length lists, so the expected size of the list t[hash(x)] is

$$O\left(\frac{n}{t.\text{length}}\right) = O(1)$$

good hash function should not depend on patterns in the data

• A **bad** hash function will hash all values (including x) to the same table location, so the size of the list t[hash(x)] will be n.



Universal Hashing

We select a hash function at random from a family of hash functions with a certain mathematical property. This guarantees a low number of collisions in expectation.

We want for any
$$x, y \in \{0, ..., 2^w - 1\}, x \neq y$$

$$Pr(\mathsf{hash}(x) = \mathsf{hash}(y)) \leq \frac{1}{t. \, \mathsf{length}}$$

Example of a family of hash functions:

Let z be a random number in $\{0, ..., 2^w - 1\}$, and let t. length be a prime number.

Then the formula for hashing an integer x is

Carter & Wegman - 1979 hash
$$(x) = (z \cdot x) \mod t$$
. length expensive

Family of hash functions

$$hash(x) = (z \cdot x) \mod t$$
. length

Improvement: let t.length be 2^k (for some integer k)

 $y \mod 2^k \equiv \text{last } k \text{ bits of } y$

Problem: there are certain sets of integers that are hashed with lots of collisions. With this hash function you can get lists of logarithmic length.