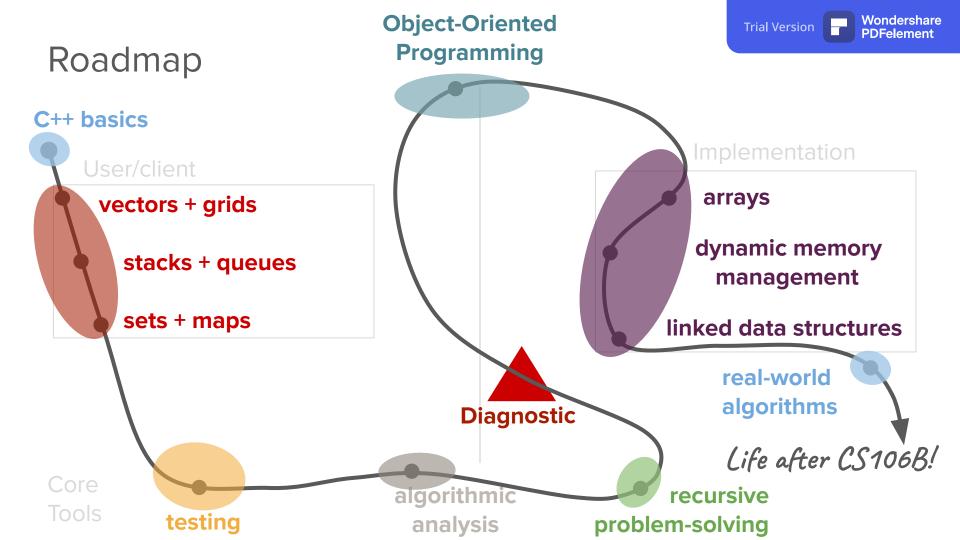
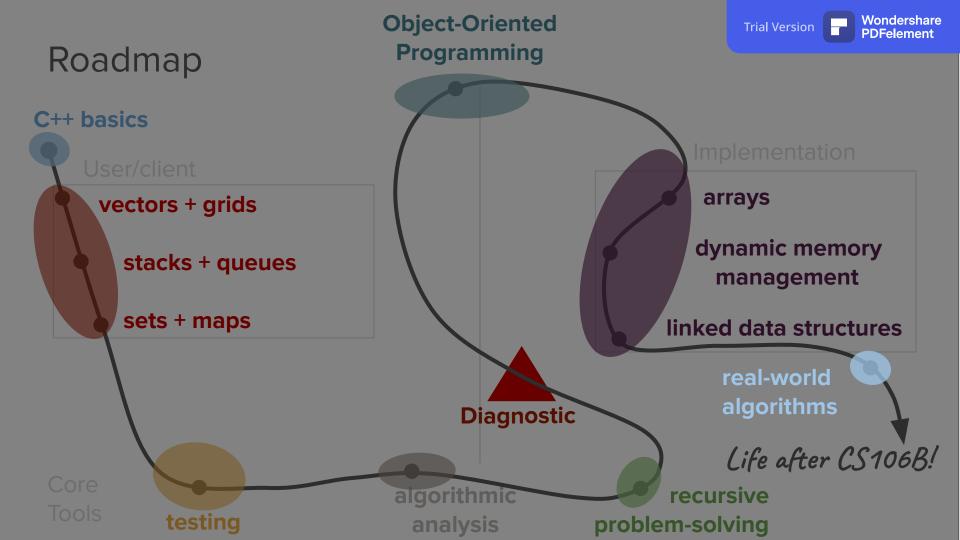
# Hashing

What's an example of compression being used that you've seen when using technology?

(put your answers the chat)







# Today's question

How does hashing apply to a variety of computational tasks and real-world problems?



# Today's topics

1. What is a hash function?

2. Hashing in ADTs

3. Real-world applications of hashing (Hashzam!)

# Review

[Huffman coding]

#### Why we use compression

- Storing data using the ASCII encoding is portable across systems, but is not ideal in terms of space usage.
- Building custom codes for specific strings might let us save space.
- **Idea:** Use this approach to build a **compression algorithm** to reduce the amount of space needed to store text.
  - o In particular, we are interested in algorithms that provide lossless compression.
  - Compression algorithms identify patterns in data and take advantage of those patterns to come up with more efficient representations of that data!

### Taking advantage of redundancy

- Not all letters have the same frequency in KIRK'S DIKDIK.
- The frequencies of each letter are shown to the right.
- So far, we've given each letter a code of the same length.
- Key Question: Can we give shorter encodings to more common characters?

character	frequency
K	4
Ι	3
D	2
R	1
-	1
S	1
C .	1

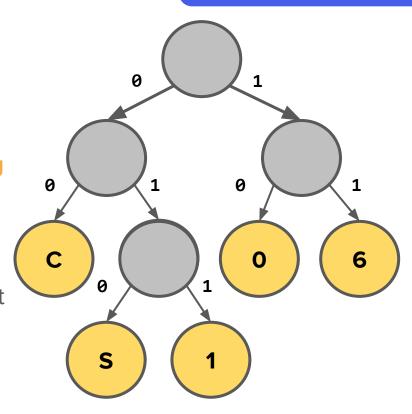
#### Prefix codes

- A prefix code is an encoding system in which no code is a prefix of another code.
- Here's a sample prefix code for the letters in KIRK'S DIKDIK.

character	code
K	10
I	01
D	111
R	001
-	000
S	1101
	1100

## Coding trees

- Main Insight: We can represent a prefix coding scheme with a binary tree! This special type of binary tree is called a coding tree.
- A coding tree is valid if all the letters are stored at the leaves, with internal nodes just doing the routing.
- Goal: Find the best coding tree for a string.



### Huffman coding

- Huffman coding is an algorithm for generating a coding tree for a given piece
  of data that produces a provably minimal encoding for a given pattern of
  letter frequencies.
- Different data (different text, different images, etc.) will each have their own personalized Huffman coding tree.
- The Huffman coding algorithm is a flexible, powerful, adaptive algorithm for data compression. And you will implement it on assignment 6!

### Huffman coding pseudocode

- To generate the optimal encoding tree for a given piece of text:
  - Build a frequency table that tallies the number of times each character appears in the text.
  - Initialize an empty priority queue that will hold partial trees (represented as TreeNode\*)
  - Create one leaf node per distinct character in the input string. Add each new leaf node to the priority queue. The weight of that leaf is the frequency of the character.
  - While there are two or more trees in the priority queue:
    - Dequeue the two trees with the smallest weight from the priority queue.
    - Combine them together to form a new tree whose weight is the sum of the weights of the two trees.
    - Add that tree back to the priority queue.

# Try it yourself!

Build a Huffman tree



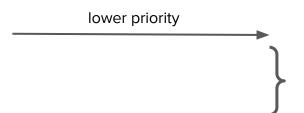
## 1) Build the frequency table

Input Text: MEMES!

char	frequency
М	2
Е	2
S	1
!	1

### 2) Initialize the priority queue

higher priority

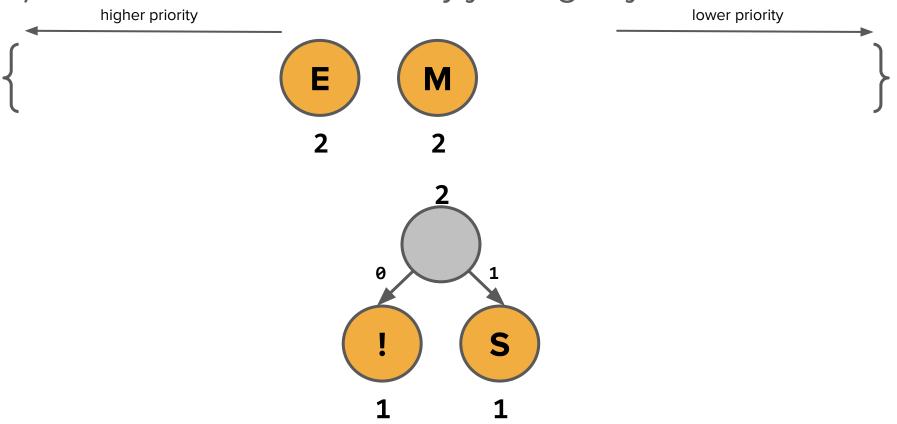


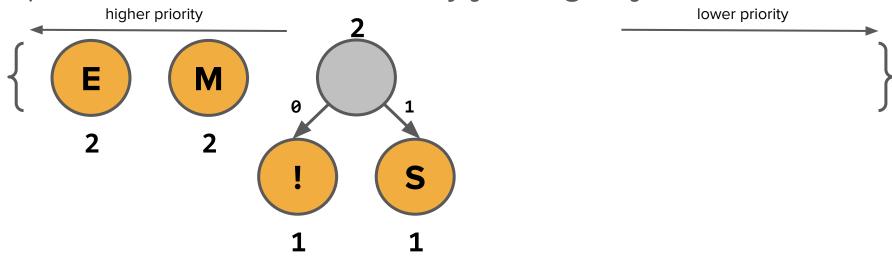


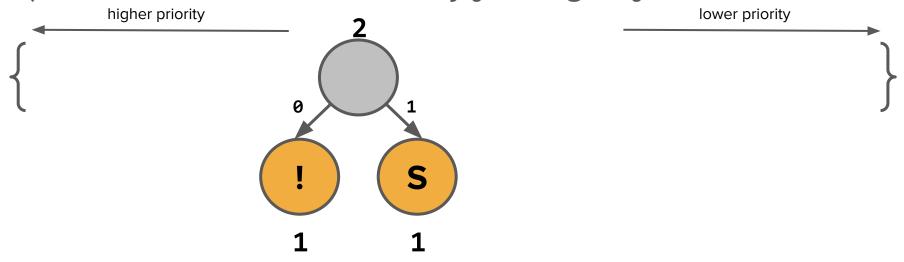
#### 3) Add all unique characters as leaf nodes to queue

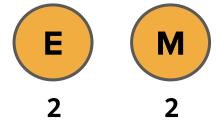


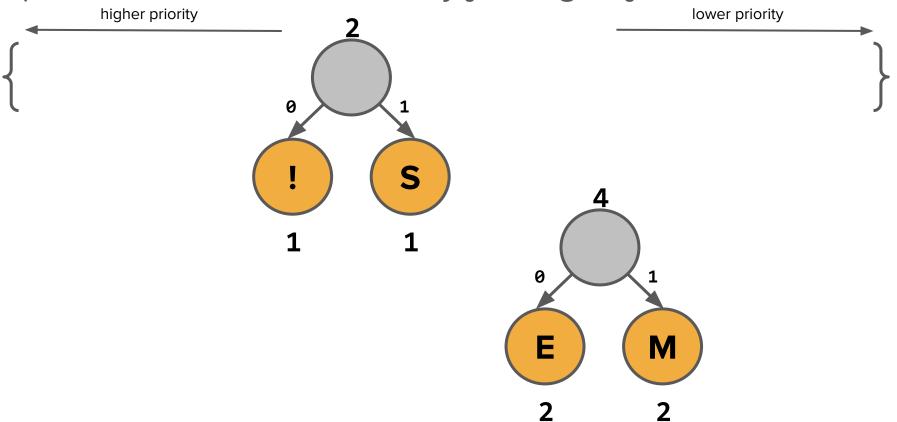
char	frequency
M	2
Е	2
S	1
!	1

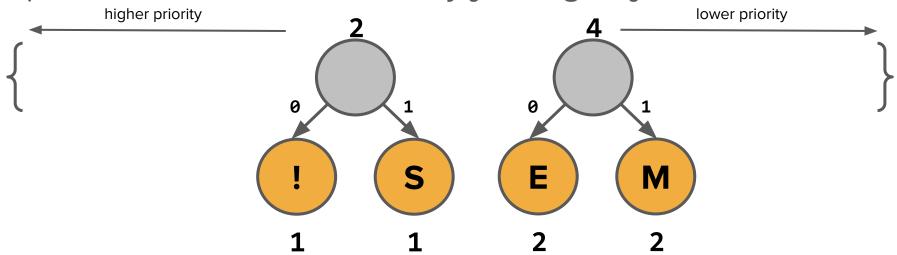


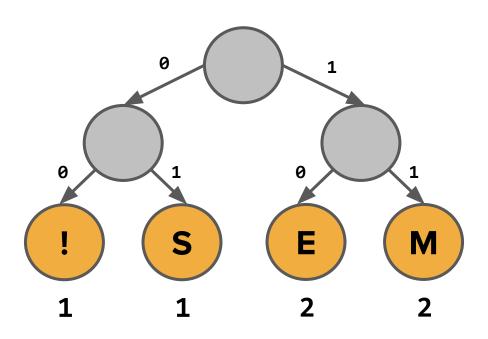




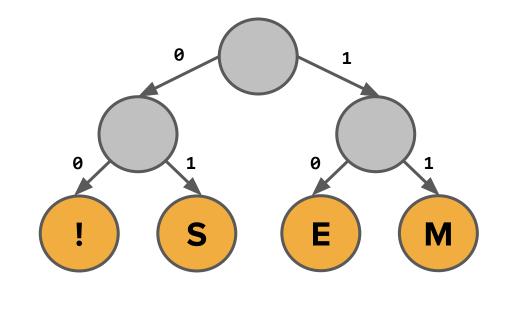




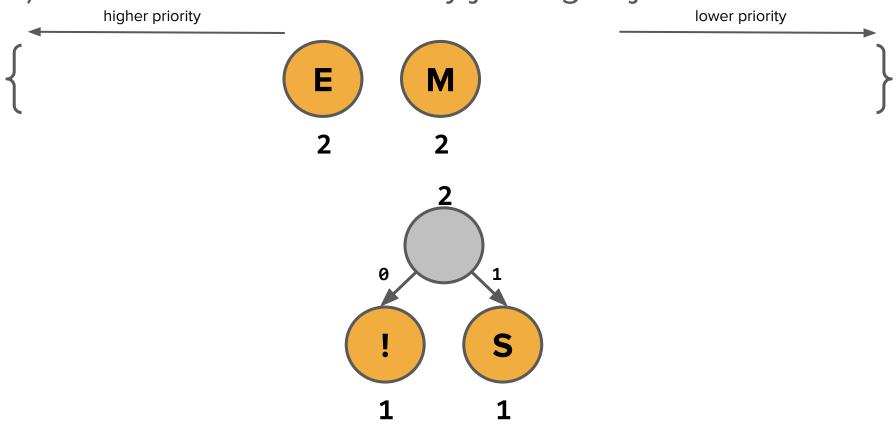


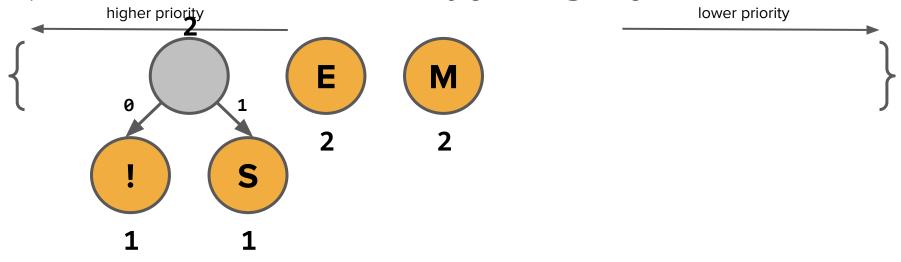


character	code
М	11
Е	10
S	01
!	00

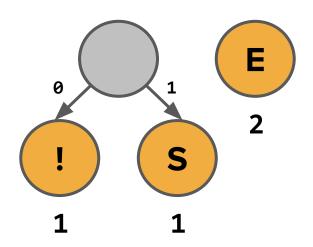


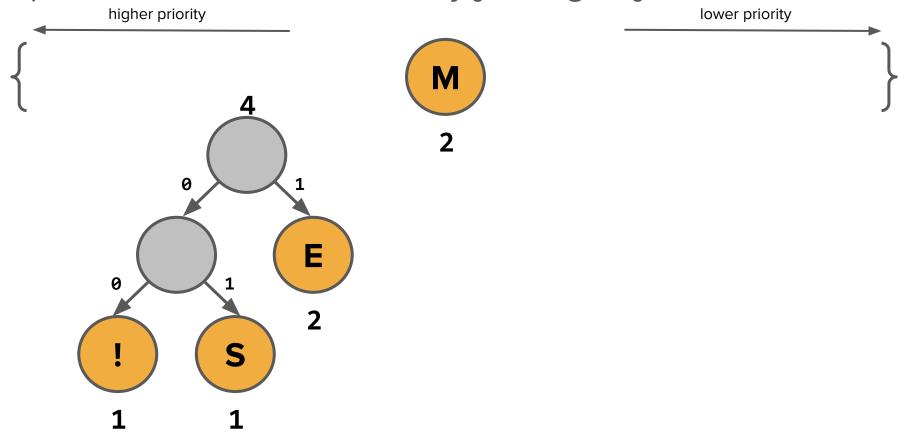
Other valid trees are possible!

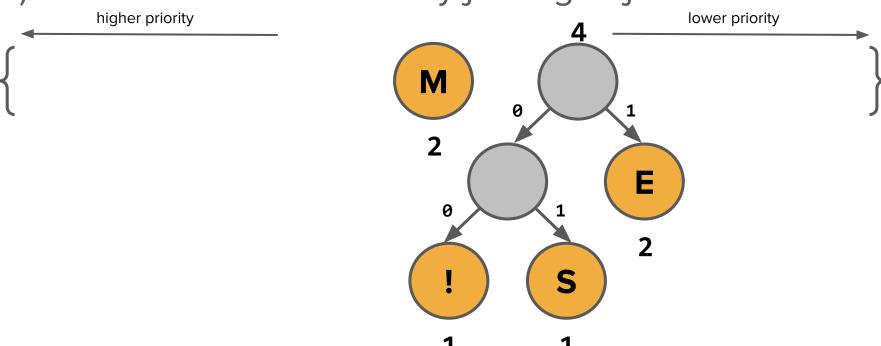


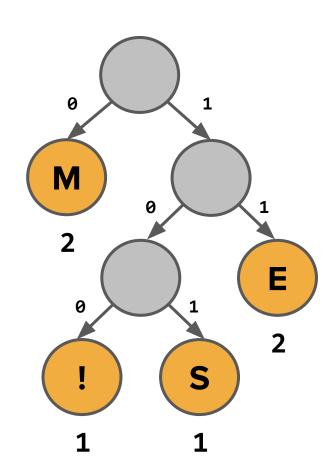








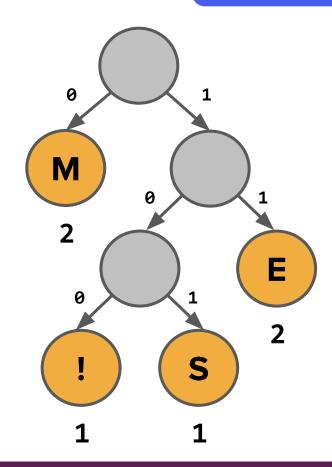






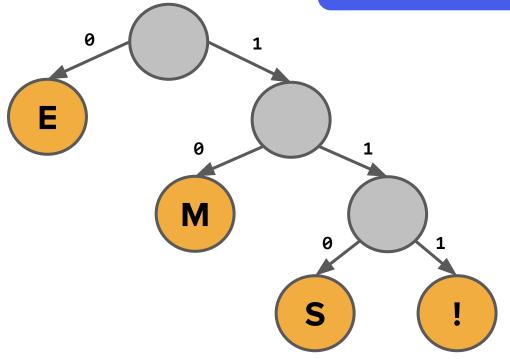
#### A second tree!

character	code
М	0
Е	11
S	101
!	100



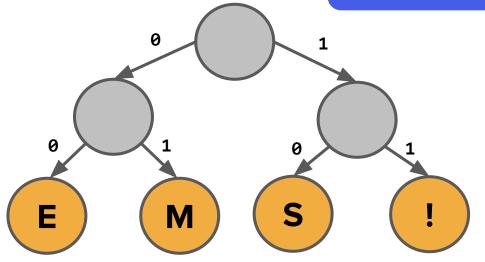
## More options!

character	code
М	10
Е	0
S	110
!	111



## More options!

character	code
M	01
Е	00
S	10
!	11



#### Huffman encoding summary

- Data compression is a very important real-world problem that relies on patterns in data to find efficient, compact data representations schemes.
- In order to support variable-length encodings for data, we must use prefix coding schemes. Prefix coding schemes can be modeled as binary trees.
- Huffman encoding uses a greedy algorithm to construct encodings by building a tree from the bottom up, putting the most frequent characters higher up in the coding tree.
- We need to send the encoding table with the compressed message.

# What is hashing?

#### **ADT Big-O Matrix**

#### Vectors

- .size() O(1)
- o .add() 0(1)
- $\circ$  v[i] O(1)
- o .insert() O(n)
- o .remove() O(n)
- o .clear() O(n)
- o traversal O(n)

#### Grids

- .numRows()/.numCols()- O(1)
- g[i][j] O(1)
- o .inBounds() 0(1)
- o traversal O(n²)

#### Queues

- .size() O(1)
- o .peek() 0(1)
- .enqueue() O(1)
- .dequeue() O(1)
- o .isEmpty() O(1)
- o traversal O(n)

#### Stacks

- o .size() O(1)
- .peek() O(1)
- .push() O(1)
- .pop() O(1)
- .isEmpty() O(1)
- o traversal O(n)

#### Sets

- .size() O(1)
- .isEmpty() O(1)
- o .add() O(log(n))
- o .remove() O(log(n))
- o .contains() O(log(n))
- o traversal O(n)

#### Maps

- .size() O(1)
- .isEmpty() O(1)
- o m[key] O(log(n))
- o .contains() O(log(n))
- o traversal O(n)

#### **ADT Big-O Matrix**

- Vectors
- .size() O(1)
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- o.remove() o(n
- o .clear() 0(n)
- o traversal 0(r
- Grids
- o .numRows()/.numCols()
   - O(1)
- og[i][j] O(1)
- o .inBounds() O(1)
- o traversal O(n²)

- Queues
- .size() O(1)
- .peek() O(1)
- .enqueue() O(1)
- o .dequeue() 0(1)
- $\circ$  .isEmpty()  $\circ$  (1)

- Sets
- .size() O(1)
- .isEmpty() O(1)
- o .add() O(log(n))
  - remove() O(log(n))
- contains() O(log(n))

O(n)

- Can we do better???
  - Stacks
  - o.size() 0(1)
  - .peek() O(1)
  - o .push() O(1)
  - $\circ$  .pop() 0(1)
  - o .isEmpty() O(1)
  - o traversal O(n)

- Maps
- .size() 5(1)
- .isEmpty() O(1)
- o m[key] O(log(n))
- o .contains() O(log(n))
- o traversal O(n)

# Can we get constant runtime? (0(1))

#### An idea...

• Use an array implementation for the set, and when the user adds a value **i** to your set, store it at index **i** in the array.

```
set.add(7);
set.add(1);
set.add(9);
...
```

index	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
value	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	7	0	9
size	3	capacity			10					

# Can we get constant runtime? (0(1))

An idea...

- Use an array implementation for the set, and when the user adds a value **i** to your set, store it at index **i** in the array.
- This would give us constant time lookup!

What are the problems with this approach...?

set.add(1000);

index	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
value	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	7	0	9
size	3	capacity			10					

Key Idea: Can we get 0(1) runtime for lookup operations while only using a fixed amount of space?

# Hash functions

# Definition

#### hash function

A function that takes in arbitrary inputs and maps them to a fixed set of outputs.

#### Remember nameHash?

```
int nameHash(string first, string last){
    static const int kLargePrime = 16908799;
    static const int kSmallPrime = 127;
    int hashVal = 0;
    /* Iterate across all the characters in the first name, then the last name */
   for (char ch: first + last) {
       ch = tolower(ch);
        hashVal = (kSmallPrime * hashVal + ch) % kLargePrime;
   return hashVal;
```

This is a hash function!

#### What is a hash function?

- Given an input of a particular type (e.g. string), returns a corresponding hash value (usually a number).
  - The values returned by a hash function are called "hash values," "hash codes," or "hashes."
- Two important properties
  - 1. If given the same input, the hash function must return the same output. (This is also called a **deterministic** function.)
  - 2. Two different inputs will (usually) produce different outputs, even if the inputs are very similar.



#### What is a hash function?

- Given an input of a particular type (e.g. string), returns a corresponding hash value (usually a number).
  - The values returned by a hash function are called "hash values," "hash codes," or "hashes."
- Two important properties
  - 1. If given the same input, the hash function must return the same output. (This is also called a **deterministic** function.)
  - 2. Two different inputs will (usually) produce different outputs, even if the inputs are very similar.
- Designing hash functions is beyond the scope of CS106B! But in the second half of this lecture, we'll discuss how to use them.

# Announcements

#### **Announcements**

Assignment 6 has been released and is due on Wednesday, August 12 at 11:59pm PDT. This is a hard deadline – there is no grace period, and no submissions will be accepted after this time.

Final project reports are due on Sunday, August 9 at 11:59pm PDT. You will
have the opportunity to schedule your final presentation time after submitting.
Reports should be submitted to Paperless, and time slot sign-ups will also
happen through Paperless.



# Hashing and ADTs

# **ADT Big-O Matrix**

- Vectors
- .size() O(1)
- o .add() 0(1)
- $\circ$  v[i] O(1)
- o .insert() 0(n)
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- Queues
- .size() O(1)
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- o .dequeue() 0(1)
- $\circ$  .isEmpty()  $\circ$  (1)

- Sets
- .size() O(1)
- .isEmpty() O(1)
- o .add() O(log(n))
  - remove() O(log(n))
- contains() O(log(n))

O(n)

- Can we do better???
  - Stacks
  - o.size() 0(1)
  - .peek() O(1)
  - o .push() O(1)
  - $\circ$  .pop() 0(1)
  - o .isEmpty() O(1)
  - o traversal O(n)

- Maps
- .size() 5(1)
- .isEmpty() O(1)
- o m[key] O(log(n))
- o .contains() O(log(n))
- o traversal O(n)

(HashSets, HashMaps)



How is our data organized?

(hash table)

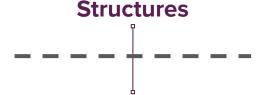


What stores our data? (arrays, linked lists)



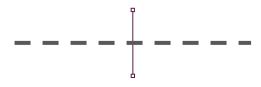
How is data represented electronically? (RAM)





Data Organization Strategies





**Computer Hardware** 

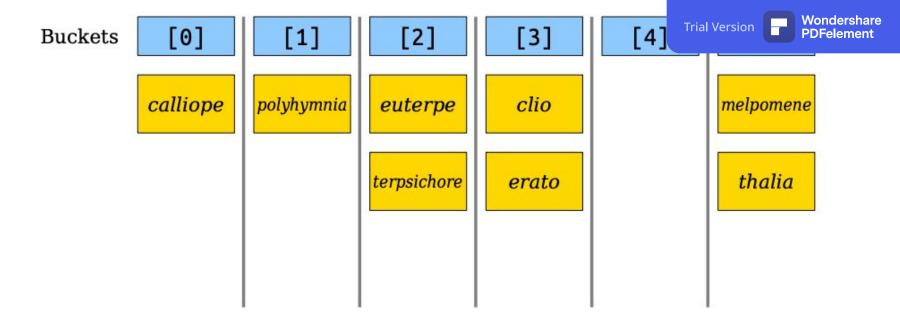
# Creating a hash table for data organization



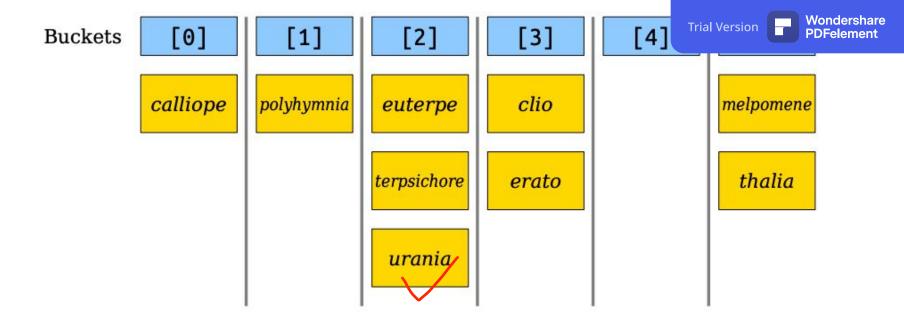


# Creating a hash table for data organization

- Maintain a large number of small collections called buckets (think drawers).
  - Put together, the buckets form a hash table!
- Find a rule that lets us tell where each object should go (think knowing which drawer is which).
   Use a hash function!
- To find something, only look in the bucket assigned to it (think looking for socks).



Our bucket rule:



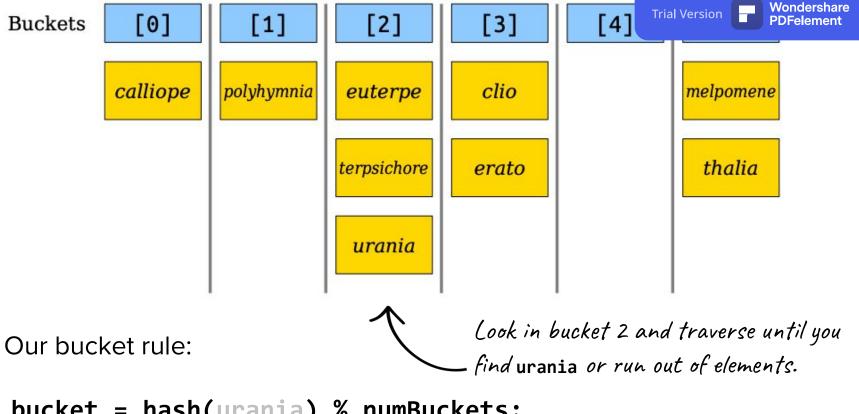
Our bucket rule:

bucket = hash(input) % numBuckets;

## Creating a hash table for data organization

- Maintain a large number of small collections called buckets (think drawers).
  - Put together, the buckets form a hash table!
- Find a **rule** that lets us tell where each object should go (think knowing which drawer is which).
- To find something, only look in the bucket assigned to it (think looking for socks).

We can use the same rule for lookup!



bucket = hash(urania) % numBuckets;

set.contains(urania)

# Creating a hash table for data organization

- Maintain a large number of small collections called buckets (think drawers).
  - Put together, the buckets form a hash table!
- Find a rule that lets us tell where each object should go (think knowing which drawer is which).
- To find something, only look in the bucket assigned to it (think looking for socks).

- Each hash table operation:
  - Chooses a bucket and jumps there
  - Potentially scans everything in the bucket
- Claim: The efficiency of our hash table depends on how well-spread-out the elements are.
  - If we want O(1) lookup operations, we want our buckets to have a size of ~1 element on average.

- Let's suppose we have a "strong" hash function that distributes elements fairly evenly.
  - Recall our two hash function properties:
    - 1. If given the same input, the hash function must return the same output. (This is also called a **deterministic** function.)
    - 2. Two different inputs will (usually) produce different outputs, even if the inputs are very similar.

- Let's suppose we have a "strong" hash function that distributes elements fairly evenly.
  - Recall our two hash function properties:
    - 1. If given the same input, the hash function must return the same output. (This is also called a **deterministic** function.)
    - Any given input value will give a "random" output → this creates a relatively equal distribution across buckets.

- Let's suppose we have a "strong" hash function that distributes elements fairly evenly.
- Imagine we have b buckets and n elements in our table.
- On average, how many elements will be in a bucket?

The expected cost of an insertion, deletion, or lookup is therefore:

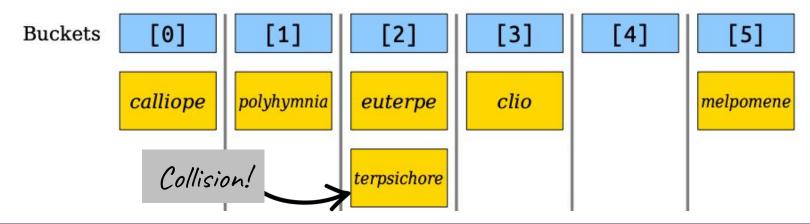
$$0(1 + n / b)$$

#### Load factor

- We call  $\alpha = n / b$  our load factor.
- If  $\alpha$  gets too big, the hash table will be too slow.
- If  $\alpha$  gets too low, the hash table will waste too much space.
- Idea: If  $\alpha$  gets too big, we need to resize our underlying buckets array and rehash the values to new buckets in the larger array.
  - We double our number of buckets when we hit a particular threshold for our load factor. (We'll use the threshold of  $\alpha >= 2$ .)
  - Very similar to resizing our priority queue!

#### A note about collisions...

- In reality, our hash function will not distribute inputted elements exactly evenly across all buckets.
  - This gives us "collisions"!
- A collision occurs when two or more elements map to the same bucket.



#### A note about collisions...

- In reality, our hash function will not distribute inputted elements exactly evenly across all buckets.
  - This gives us "collisions"!
- A collision occurs when two or more elements map to the same bucket.
- To handle collisions, we use a strategy called **chaining**, in which each bucket stores a linked list of elements that point to one another.

# Implementing a HashSet

```
class HashSet {
                                                                 struct HashNode {
public:
                                                                     int data;
    HashSet();
                                                                     HashNode* next;
    ~HashSet();
                                                                 };
    void add(int value);
    void clear();
    bool contains(int value) const;
private:
    HashNode** elements; // an array of HashNode* (an array of pointers!)
    int mysize;
    int capacity;
    int getIndexOf(int value) const;
    void rehash();
```



```
#include "HashSet.h"
// Initialize our member variables in the constructor
HashSet::HashSet() {
    capacity = 10;
   mysize = 0;
    elements = new HashNode*[capacity](); // all are initialized to nullptr using ()
// Private helper for calculating the bucket of a given a value
int HashSet::getIndexOf(int value) const {
    return hash(value) % capacity;
```

```
// Add a given value to our set
void HashSet::add(int value) {
    if (!contains(value)) {
        int bucket = getIndexOf(value);
        // insert at the front of the list in that bucket
        elements[bucket] = new HashNode(value, elements[bucket]);
        mysize++;
    }
    // We'll add rehashing here later...
}
```

```
Trial Version Wondershare PDFelement
```

```
// Check if a value is inside our set
bool HashSet::contains(int value) const {
    HashNode* curr = elements[getIndexOf(value)];
    while (curr != nullptr) {
        if (curr->data == value) {
            return true;
        curr = curr->next;
    return false;
```

```
HashSet::~HashSet() {
    clear();
                            // Remove all elements
    delete[] elements; // Also delete the array itself
// Remove all elements in our set so all buckets in our array are nullptr
void HashSet::clear() {
    for (int i = 0; i < capacity; i++) {</pre>
        // free list in bucket i
        while (elements[i] != nullptr) {
            HashNode* curListNode = elements[i];
            elements[i] = elements[i]->next;
            delete curListNode;
    mysize = 0;
```

```
void HashSet::rehash() {
   HashNode** oldElements = elements;
    int oldCapacity = capacity;
    capacity *= 2;
    elements = new HashNode*[capacity]();
    for (int i = 0; i < oldCapacity; i++) {</pre>
       HashNode* curr = oldElements[i];
       while (curr != nullptr) {     // iterate over old bucket
           HashNode* prev = curr;
           curr = curr->next;  // don't lose access to rest of old bucket
            int newBucket = getIndexOf(prev->data);
            prev->next = elements[newBucket]; // put prev node at front of new bucket
           elements[newBucket] = prev;  // update new bucket pointer
    delete[] oldElements;
```



```
// Add a given value to our set
void HashSet::add(int value) {
    if (!contains(value)) {
        int bucket = getIndexOf(value);
        // insert at the front of the list in that bucket
        elements[bucket] = new HashNode(value, elements[bucket]);
        mysize++;
    if (mysize / capacity >= 2) {
        rehash();
```

# **HashSet** takeaways

- When implementing HashSets or HashMaps, we use an array to store pointers.
  - o Each bucket in the array stores a pointer to a linked list in case of collisions.
  - To create a HashMap instead of a HashSet, your node struct would just include both a key and a value (instead of just one field for data).
- Our hash function tells us what bucket in the array our elements should go in.
- Because we can just add new nodes to the front of the linked list at the bucket indicated by its hash value, adding to a HashSet is O(1).
- Functions that require lookup are also constant time (i.e. O(1)) if the load
   factor for our hash table is small!



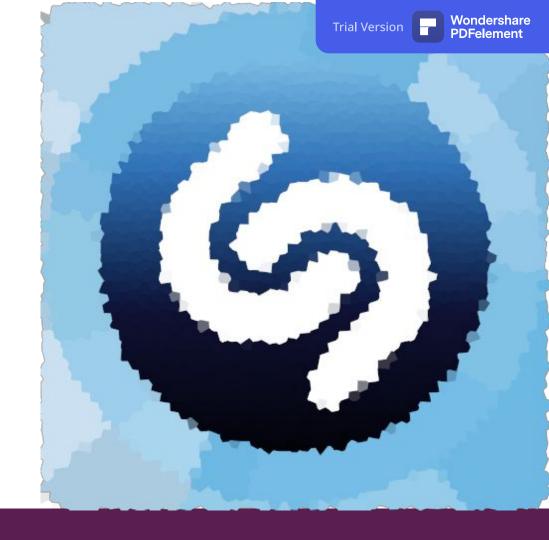
# Applications of Hashing

# Hashing is used everywhere!

- In addition to creating hash tables, hash functions themselves are used in a variety of different applications.
- Applications hash your passwords before storing them to obscure the actual contents.
- Hashing is used in cryptography for secure (encrypted) communication and maintaining data integrity.
  - o For example, when you communicate over a WiFi network: Is this website secure? Is the this document actually from the person it says it's from? Did your message get tampered with between when you sent it and when the recipient got it?

# Hashzam!

(demo courtesy of Chris Piech)

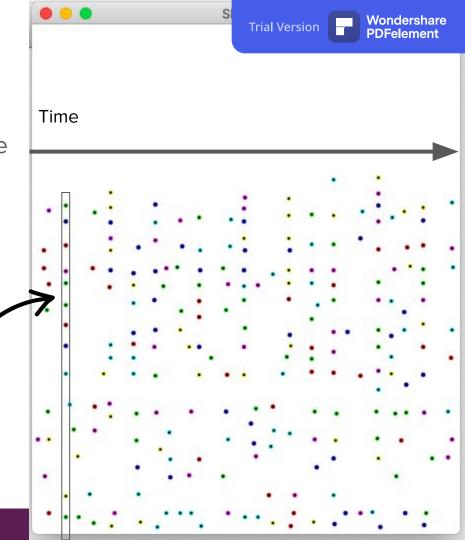


- Attempt #1: Compare at all notes at every time stamp.
- This would require storing all notes at every timestep, i.e. storing entire song files!

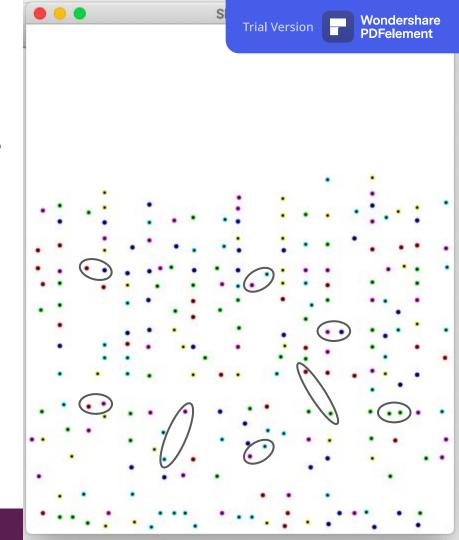


 Instead, look at notes that appear close to one another in time.

All notes at a given timestamp (stacked by pitch).



 Instead, look at notes that appear close to one another in time.



- Instead, look at notes that appear close to one another in time.
- Attempt #2: Store a frequency map of hashed values for each song.
  - For all notes within a certain timestep of one another throughout a given song,
     store the hash(noteA, noteB, timeDelta).
  - This gives you a frequency map of the hashed values for the song (i.e. hash values and their counts).
  - Compare the song's frequency map to stored maps to find the closest match.
- You only have to store a database of frequency maps, which is more space efficient and enables easier comparison between songs!

# What's next?

