

ECS 32B - Hashing

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Overview

- How a hash table works. Hash function.
- Collision resolution.
 - Separate chaining.
 - Open addressing.
 - Linear probing.
 - Quadratic probing.
 - Double hashing.
- Deletion; lazy deletion.
- Analysis. Worst-case time complexity. Table size.
- Rehashing.
- Hash table vs. self-balancing BST.

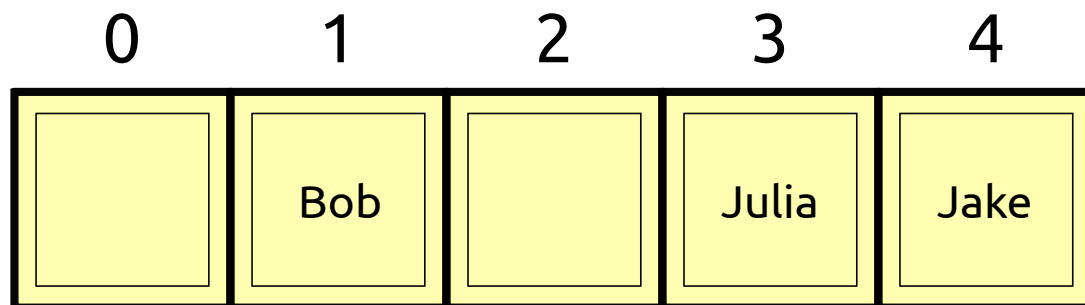
Hash Table

Description

- Support less operations than self-balancing BST in exchange for speed; sorted order of elements isn't maintained.
- Hash table's underlying implementation is Python list of m slots/buckets.
- As with BSTs, location of element is influenced by its key.
- Hash function maps key to some number in range $[0, m - 1]$.

Example

- Keys are names (strings).
- Hash function:
 - Maps "Bob" to 1, i.e. "Bob" *hashes* to 1.
 - Maps "Julia" to 3, i.e. "Julia" *hashes* to 3.
 - Maps "Jake" to 4, i.e. "Jake" *hashes* to 4.



Hash Function

Description

- Range of possible keys usually much larger than m (number of slots/buckets).
- Want to distribute keys as evenly as possible.
- Assume keys are always integers for now \Rightarrow typical hash function is $hash(x) = x \% m$.

Example (Insertions)

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

insert(14) \rightarrow place at $14 \% 10 = 4$:

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
				14					

insert(67) \rightarrow place at $67 \% 10 = 7$:

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
				14			67		

insert(40) \rightarrow place at $40 \% 10 = 0$:

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
40				14			67		

Hash Function

- Can find an element by using hash function.

Example: Found

find(97) -> check $97 \% 10 = 7$ -> **97 is there.**

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	21		13			16	97		

Example: Not Found

find(46) -> check $46 \% 10 = 6$ -> **46 is not there.**

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	21		13			16	97		

Collision Resolution

Motivation

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	21		13			16	97		

insert(53) -> $53 \% 10 = 3$ -> but 13 is already there...

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	21		13			16	97		

- We must resolve this **collision**.

Collision Resolution

- Two¹ ways to handle collision:
 1. Separate chaining.
 2. Open addressing.
 - Linear probing.
 - Quadratic probing.
 - Double hashing.

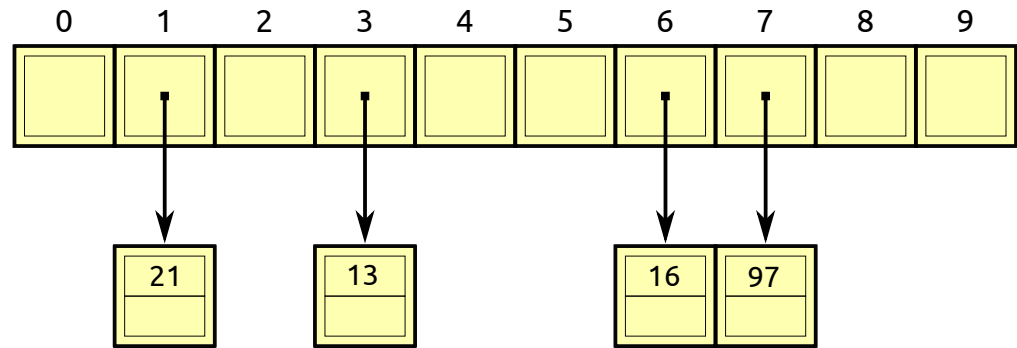
Collision Resolution

Separate Chaining

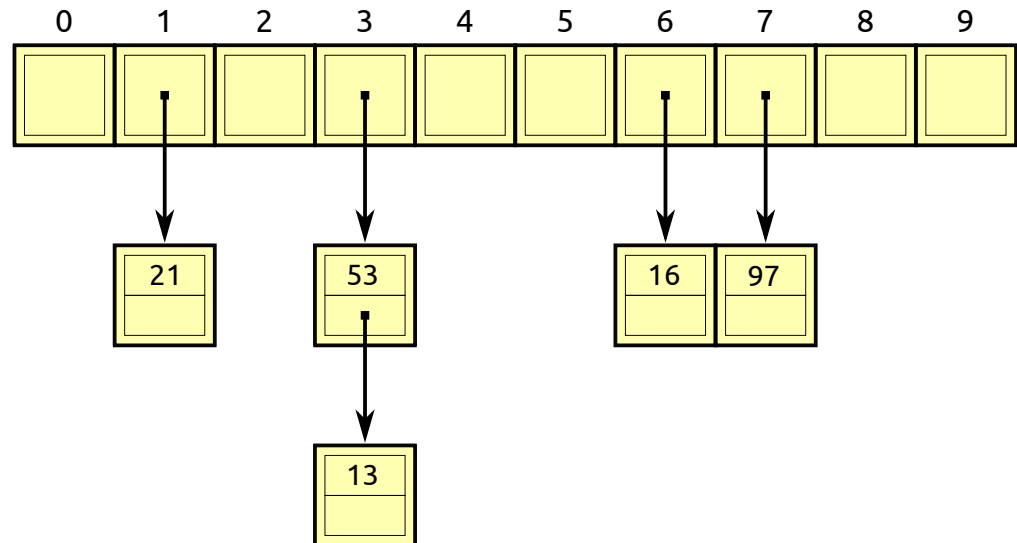
Description

- Each bucket contains a linked list.
- Use hash function to determine which list to check.

Example



insert(53) -> $53 \% 10 = 3$

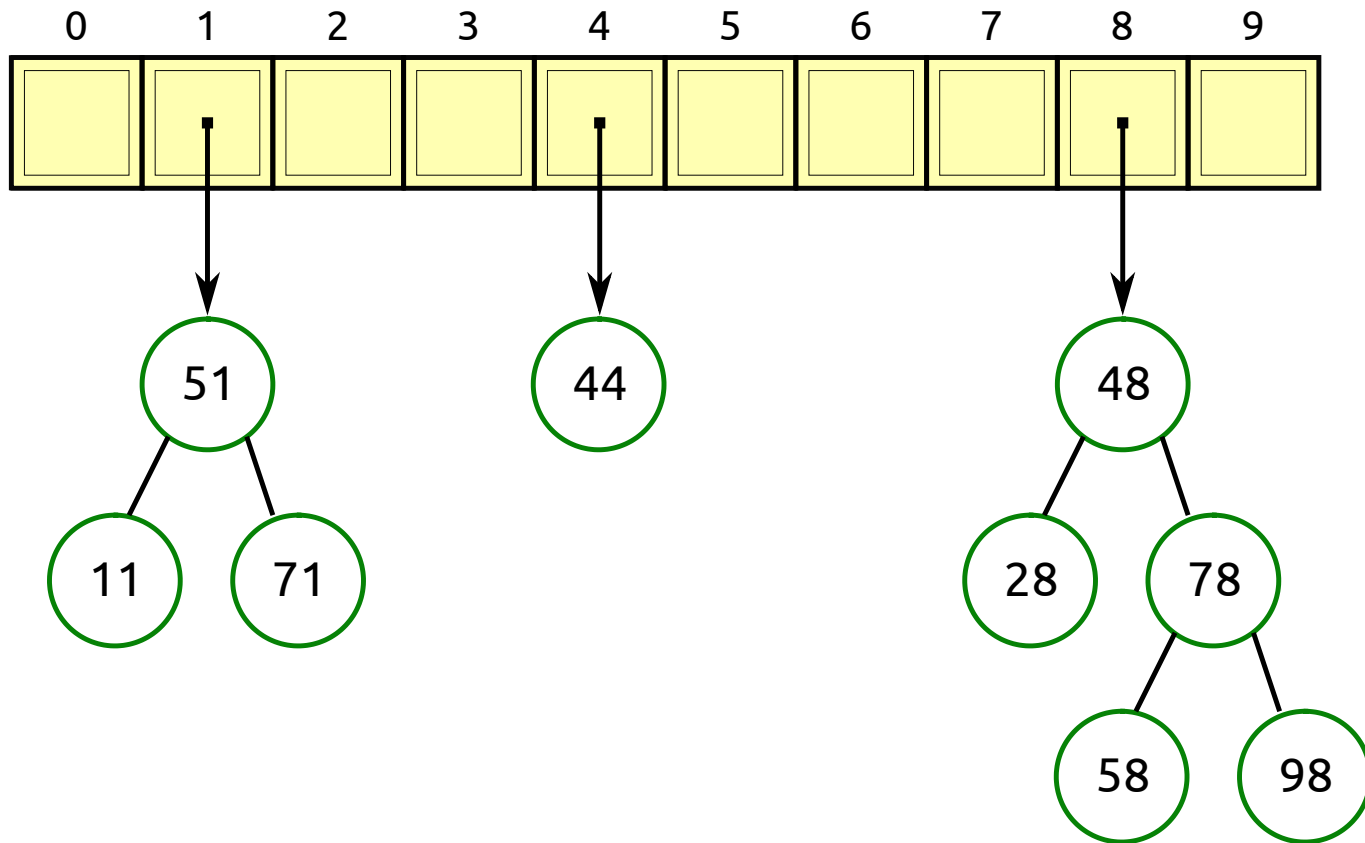


Collision Resolution

Separate Chaining

- Doesn't have to use linked lists, but probably should since elements per bucket is small if large table and good hash function.

Example



Collision Resolution

Separate Chaining: Analysis

- **load factor** ($\lambda = \frac{n}{m}$): ratio of number of elements in hash table to table size.
- Average length of list is λ .
- Search involves: find list-to-traverse (takes constant time) and traverse said list.
 - On average, unsuccessful search checks λ nodes.
- For separate chaining, load factor is more directly important than table size.

Side Note: Prime Table Size

- Should keep m as a prime number.
- Helps distribution of keys.

Collision Resolution

Open Addressing

- No linked lists.
- If collision occurs, try to place key at another bucket as determined by open addressing scheme. Repeat until successful.
- Three kinds:
 - Linear probing.
 - Quadratic probing.
 - Double hashing.

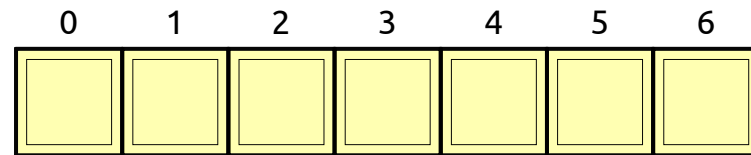
Collision Resolution

Open Addressing: Linear Probing

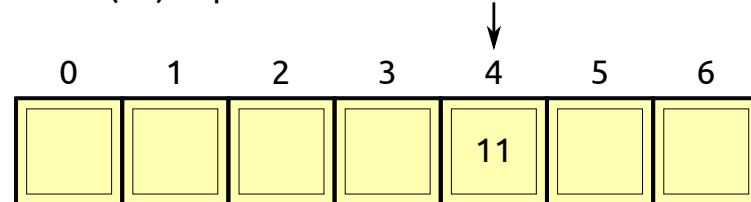
Description

- If can't place key at bucket, try to place at next bucket (with wraparound). If that doesn't work, try next bucket. And so on...

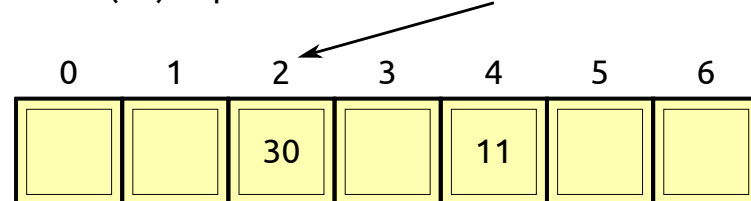
Example



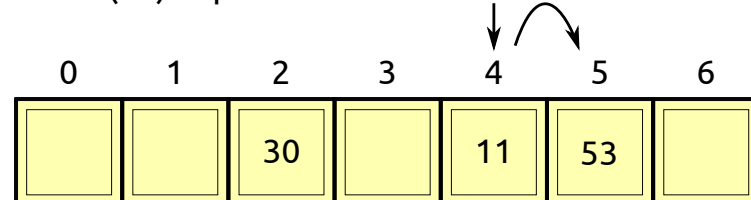
insert(11) -> place at $11 \% 7 = 4$:



insert(30) -> place at $30 \% 7 = 2$:



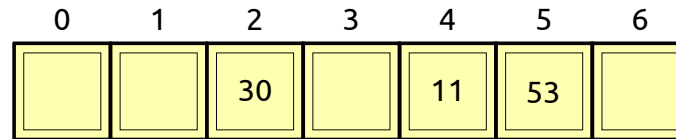
insert(53) -> place at $53 \% 7 = 4$:



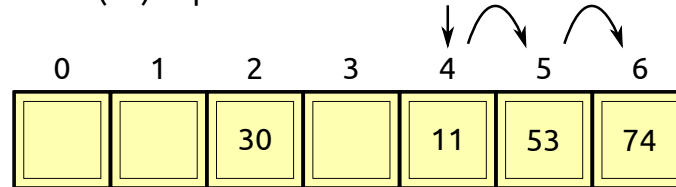
Collision Resolution

Open Addressing: Linear Probing

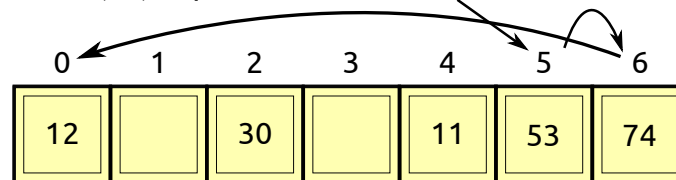
Example (Continued)



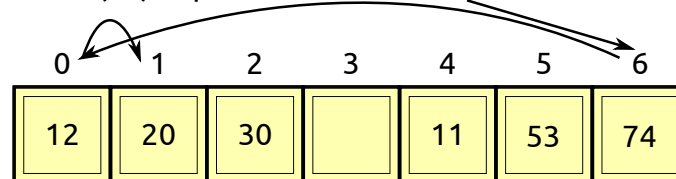
insert(74) -> place at $74 \% 7 = 4$:



insert(12) -> place at $12 \% 7 = 5$:



insert(20) -> place at $20 \% 7 = 6$:



- By the way, $\lambda = \frac{6}{7}$ (bad) at end.

Collision Resolution

Open Addressing: Linear Probing

Example of Find Operation

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	20	30		11	53	74

find(74) -> check $74 \% 7 = 4$:

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	20	30		11	53	74

Keep checking until found or empty spot

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	20	30		11	53	74

Collision Resolution


Open Addressing: Linear Probing

Example of Failed Find Operation

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	20	30		11	53	74


find(8) -> check $8 \% 7 = 1$:

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	20	30		11	53	74



Keep checking until found or empty spot

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	20	30		11	53	74



Collision Resolution

Open Addressing: Linear Probing

Deletion: Bad Way

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	20	30		11	53	74

delete(11) -> check $11 \% 7 = 4$:

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	20	30		11	53	74

find(53) -> check $53 \% 7 = 4$

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	20	30			53	74

Not
found!

- Falsely reports not found.

Collision Resolution

Open Addressing: Linear Probing

Deletion: Good Way (Lazy Deletion)

- Mark that 11 is deleted.
 - Needn't actually remove it.
(Save time.)
- Lazily deleted node can be replaced.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	20	30		11	53	74

delete(11) -> check $11 \% 7 = 4$:

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	20	30		11	53	74

find(53) -> check $53 \% 7 = 4$

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	20	30		11	53	74

insert(25) -> check $25 \% 7 = 4$

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	20	30		25	53	74

Collision Resolution

Open Addressing: Linear Probing

Weaknesses

- **primary clustering:** Blocks of nearby occupied buckets tend to form.
- New key may take several collision resolution attempts (and then adds to the cluster).

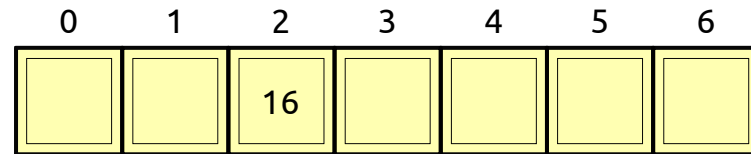
Collision Resolution

Open Addressing: Quadratic Probing

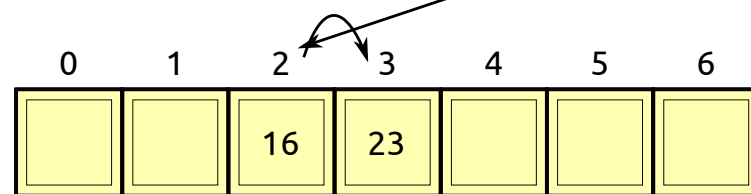
Description

- Eliminates primary clustering issue.
- If can't place key at bucket u , try to place at bucket $1^2 = 1$ after that one. If that doesn't work, try to place at bucket $2^2 = 4$ after u . If that doesn't work, try to place at bucket $3^2 = 9$ after u . And so on... (wraparound when appropriate).
- Alternative way of thinking: check next bucket, then check 3 buckets later, then check 5 buckets later, then check 7 buckets later, etc.

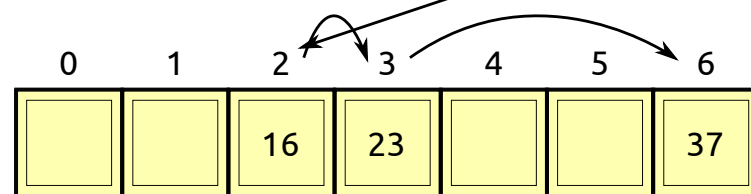
Example



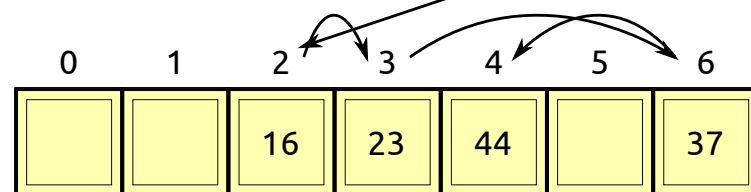
insert(23) -> check $23 \% 7 = 2$:



insert(37) -> check $37 \% 7 = 2$:



insert(44) -> check $44 \% 7 = 2$:



Collision Resolution

Open Addressing: Quadratic Probing

Example (Continued)

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
		16	23	44		37

insert(10) -> check $10 \% 7 = 3$:

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
10		16	23	44		37

delete(23) -> check $23 \% 7 = 2$:

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
10		16	23	44		37

find(44) -> check $44 \% 7 = 2$:

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
		16	23	44		37

Collision Resolution

Open Addressing: Quadratic Probing

Analysis

- For linear probing, high λ degraded performance.
- For quadratic probing, $\lambda > \frac{1}{2}$ can make it **impossible** to find empty bucket.
 - If table size not *prime*, can happen *even with* $\lambda \leq \frac{1}{2}$.
 - Example: If insert 8 into below table, will check indices 0, 1, and 4 forever.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	25			84			

- Can *prove* that if table is half empty and table size is prime, guaranteed to find empty bucket¹.
- Vulnerable to secondary clustering²: elements hashed to same location will probe same buckets.

1. See p.204 of *Data Structures and Algorithm Analysis in C++* by Mark Allen Weiss (Fourth Edition) for proof.

2. Weiss' book says this isn't a big concern.

Collision Resolution

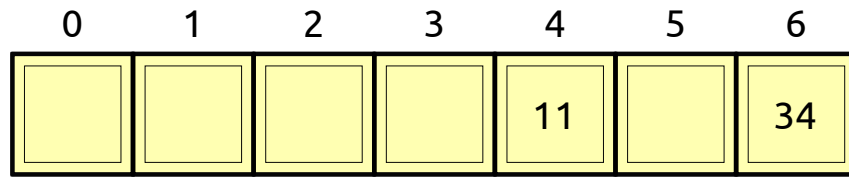
Open Addressing: Double Hashing

Description

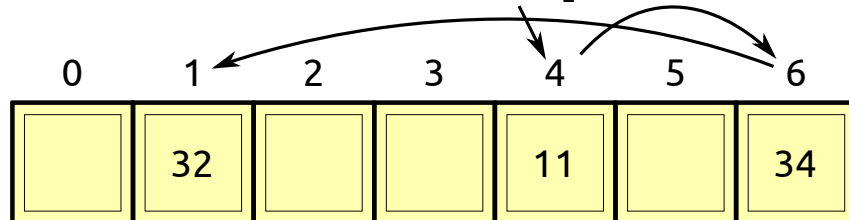
- Can eliminate secondary clustering issue.
- Requires second hash function $h_2(x)$.
- If can't place key k at bucket, try to place $h_2(k)$ spots later. If doesn't work there, try $h_2(k)$ spots later. And so on... (wraparound when appropriate).
- Slower than quadratic probing in practice, because second hash function.

Example

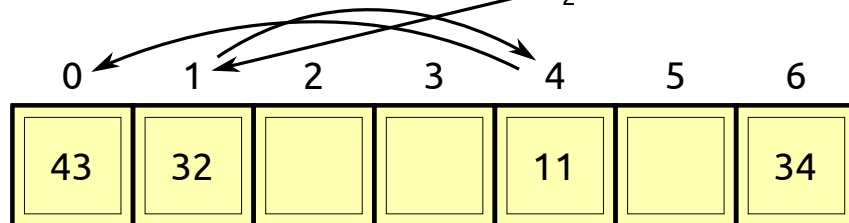
$$h_2(x) = x \% 5$$



insert(32) -> check $32 \% 7 = 4$; $h_2(32) = 32 \% 5 = 2$



insert(43) -> check $43 \% 7 = 1$; $h_2(43) = 43 \% 5 = 3$



Rehashing

Description

- If λ too high, can **rehash**.
- Steps: (let m be old table size, m' new table size)
 1. Create new table of size $m' = \text{nextPrime}(2m)$, where $\text{nextPrime}(x)$ returns lowest prime number above x .
 2. Insert each element in old table into new table, using new hash function, $h_1(k) = k \% m'$.

Example

- Rehash when $\lambda \geq \frac{1}{2}$.

(Using linear probing.)

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
		51	10	18		

insert(27) -> We'll rehash first.

insert(27) -> $27 \% 17 = 10$

insert(51) -> $51 \% 17 = 0$

insert(10) -> $10 \% 17 = 10$

insert(18) -> $18 \% 17 = 1$

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
51	18									27	10					

Usage

In Python

- Set and dictionary.
- Why `in` operator takes constant time.

Worst-Case Time Complexity

- Find/insert/delete:
 - $\Theta(n)$.
 - Rehashing.
 - Amortized $\Theta(1)$.
 - Rehashing occurs infrequently.
 - **To be clear:** a hash table is the first data structure you should consider when a normal Python list doesn't suffice.
- Can use number of buckets m for rehash time; analysis is similar.

Usage

vs. Other Data Structures

	Find	Insert	Delete
Unordered linked list	$\Theta(n)$	$\Theta(1)$	$\Theta(n)$
Ordered/sorted linked list	$\Theta(n)$	$\Theta(n)$	$\Theta(n)$
Unordered Python list	$\Theta(n)$	$\Theta(1)$ (amortized)	$\Theta(n)$
Ordered/sorted Python list	See Conceptual HW 2.	$\Theta(n)$	$\Theta(n)$
Hash Table	$\Theta(1)$ (amortized)	$\Theta(1)$ (amortized)	$\Theta(1)$ (amortized)
BST	$\Theta(n)$	$\Theta(n)$	$\Theta(n)$
AVL Tree	$\Theta(\lg n)$	$\Theta(\lg n)$	$\Theta(\lg n)$
Splay Tree	$\Theta(\lg n)$ (amortized)	$\Theta(\lg n)$ (amortized)	$\Theta(\lg n)$ (amortized)

Usage

vs. Self-Balancing BST

	Find	Insert	Delete
Hash Table	$\Theta(1)$ (amortized)	$\Theta(1)$ (amortized)	$\Theta(1)$ (amortized)
AVL Tree	$\Theta(\lg n)$	$\Theta(\lg n)$	$\Theta(\lg n)$
Splay Tree	$\Theta(\lg n)$ (amortized)	$\Theta(\lg n)$ (amortized)	$\Theta(\lg n)$ (amortized)

- Why bother using a BST?
- Hash tables are bad at any operation involving the ordering of the keys.
 - Examples:
 - Find min.
 - Find max.
 - Find all keys within a certain range.
 - Print keys in sorted order.

Hashing Strings

- Harder to choose a hash function for strings.

Approach #1: ASCII Values¹

- Each character has an ASCII/integer value².

Dec	Hex	Name	Char	Ctrl-char	Dec	Hex	Char	Dec	Hex	Char	Dec	Hex	Char
0	0	Null	NUL	CTRL-@	32	20	Space	64	40	@	96	60	`
1	1	Start of heading	SOH	CTRL-A	33	21	!	65	41	A	97	61	a
2	2	Start of text	STX	CTRL-B	34	22	"	66	42	B	98	62	b
3	3	End of text	ETX	CTRL-C	35	23	#	67	43	C	99	63	c
4	4	End of xmit	EOT	CTRL-D	36	24	\$	68	44	D	100	64	d
5	5	Enquiry	ENQ	CTRL-E	37	25	%	69	45	E	101	65	e
6	6	Acknowledge	ACK	CTRL-F	38	26	&	70	46	F	102	66	f
7	7	Bell	BEL	CTRL-G	39	27	'	71	47	G	103	67	g
8	8	Backspace	BS	CTRL-H	40	28	(72	48	H	104	68	h
9	9	Horizontal tab	HT	CTRL-I	41	29)	73	49	I	105	69	i
10	0A	Line feed	LF	CTRL-J	42	2A	*	74	4A	J	106	6A	j
11	0B	Vertical tab	VT	CTRL-K	43	2B	+	75	4B	K	107	6B	k
12	0C	Form feed	FF	CTRL-L	44	2C	,	76	4C	L	108	6C	l
13	0D	Carriage feed	CR	CTRL-M	45	2D	-	77	4D	M	109	6D	m
14	0E	Shift out	SO	CTRL-N	46	2E	.	78	4E	N	110	6E	n
15	0F	Shift in	SI	CTRL-O	47	2F	/	79	4F	O	111	6F	o
16	10	Data line escape	DLE	CTRL-P	48	30	0	80	50	P	112	70	p
17	11	Device control 1	DC1	CTRL-Q	49	31	1	81	51	Q	113	71	q
18	12	Device control 2	DC2	CTRL-R	50	32	2	82	52	R	114	72	r
19	13	Device control 3	DC3	CTRL-S	51	33	3	83	53	S	115	73	s
20	14	Device control 4	DC4	CTRL-T	52	34	4	84	54	T	116	74	t
21	15	Neg acknowledge	NAK	CTRL-U	53	35	5	85	55	U	117	75	u
22	16	Synchronous idle	SYN	CTRL-V	54	36	6	86	56	V	118	76	v
23	17	End of xmit block	ETB	CTRL-W	55	37	7	87	57	W	119	77	w
24	18	Cancel	CAN	CTRL-X	56	38	8	88	58	X	120	78	x
25	19	End of medium	EM	CTRL-Y	57	39	9	89	59	Y	121	79	y
26	1A	Substitute	SUB	CTRL-Z	58	3A	:	90	5A	Z	122	7A	z
27	1B	Escape	ESC	CTRL-[59	3B	;	91	5B	[123	7B	{
28	1C	File separator	FS	CTRL-\	60	3C	<	92	5C	\	124	7C	
29	1D	Group separator	GS	CTRL-]	61	3D	=	93	5D]	125	7D	}
30	1E	Record separator	RS	CTRL-^	62	3E	>	94	5E	^	126	7E	~
31	1F	Unit separator	US	CTRL-`	63	3F	?	95	5F	_	127	7F	DEL

1. The two discussed approaches are directly from Weiss' book, but the code is translated from C++ to Python.

2. In C programming languages, characters (and booleans) *are* integers!

Hashing Strings

Approach #1: ASCII Values

- In Python, can translate between character and ASCII value.

```
>>> ord("A")
65
>>> ord("a")
97
>>> ord("y")
121
>>> chr(121)
'y'
>>> chr(97)
'a'
>>> ord('5')
53
```

Hashing Strings

Approach #1: ASCII Values

- Possible hash function using ASCII values:

```
def hash(s, table_size):  
    hash_val = 0  
    for c in s:  
        hash_val += ord(c)  
    return hash_val % table_size
```

```
>>> hash("abc", 17)  
5
```

- Bad if `table_size` too big.

Hashing Strings

Approach #2

- Only consider first three characters.
 - 27 represents number of characters in English alphabet plus blank.

```
def hash(s, table_size):  
    return (ord(s[0]) + 27 * ord(s[1]) + 729 * ord(s[2])) % table_size
```

Examples

- `hash("abc", 17)` $\Rightarrow 97 + 27 \cdot 98 + 729 \cdot 99 = 97 + 2646 + 72171 = 74914$
 $\Rightarrow 74914 \% 17 = 12$.

```
>>> hash("abc", 17)  
12  
>>> hash("abc", 10000)  
4914
```

- $26^3 = 17576$ combinations seems good.
- If check dictionary, find that only 2851 of the combinations are used.

References / Further Reading

- Chapter 5 of *Data Structures and Algorithm Analysis in C++* by Mark Allen Weiss (Fourth Edition).
 - I removed *extendible hashing* from the course content because it's hard to appreciate its purpose without learning a lower level language like C. You can read about it in section 5.9.
- Section 6.5 of *Problem Solving with Algorithms and Data Structures using Python* by Brad Miller and David Ranum.