



# CSE332: Data Abstractions

## Lecture 11: Hash Tables

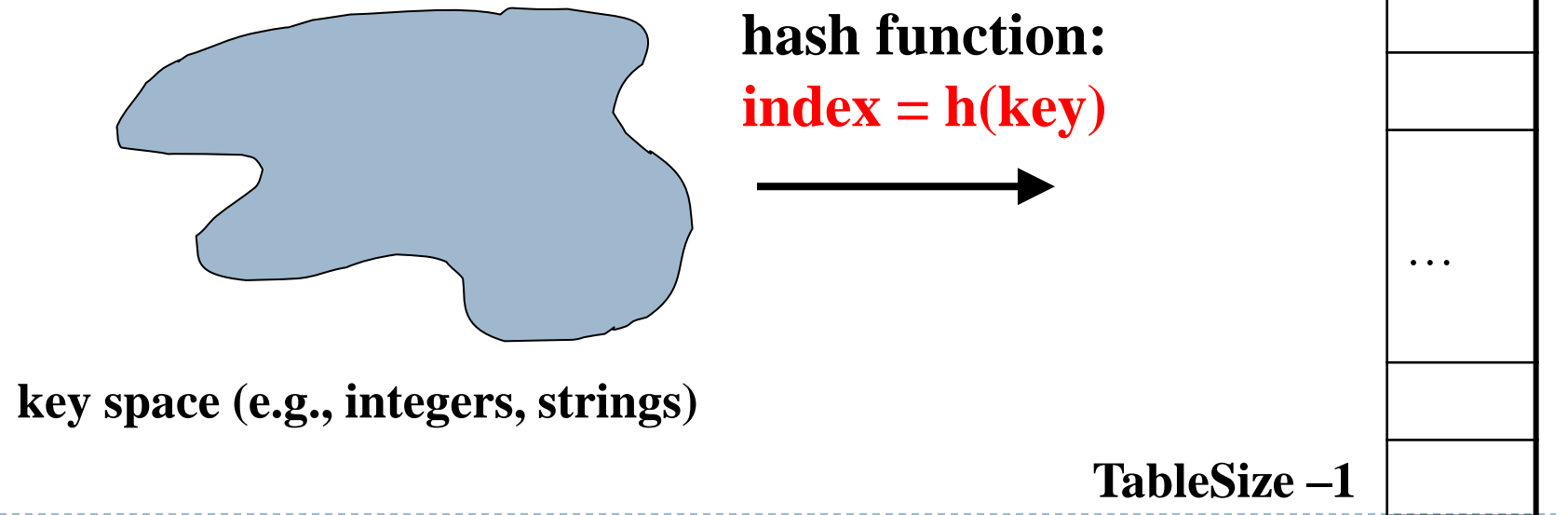
Tyler Robison

Summer 2010

# Hash Table: Another dictionary

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- ▶ Aim for constant-time (i.e.,  $O(1)$ ) **find**, **insert**, and **delete**
  - ▶ “On average” under some reasonable **assumptions**
- ▶ A hash table is an array of some fixed size
- ▶ Define a mapping from each key to a location in table
- ▶ Basic idea:



# Hash tables

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- ▶ There are  $m$  possible keys ( $m$  typically large, even infinite) but we expect our table to have only  $n$  items where  $n$  is much less than  $m$  (often written  $n \ll m$ )

Many dictionaries have this property

- ▶ Compiler: All possible identifiers allowed by the language vs. those used in some file of one program
- ▶ Database: All possible student names vs. students enrolled
- ▶ AI: All possible chess-board configurations vs. those considered by the current player

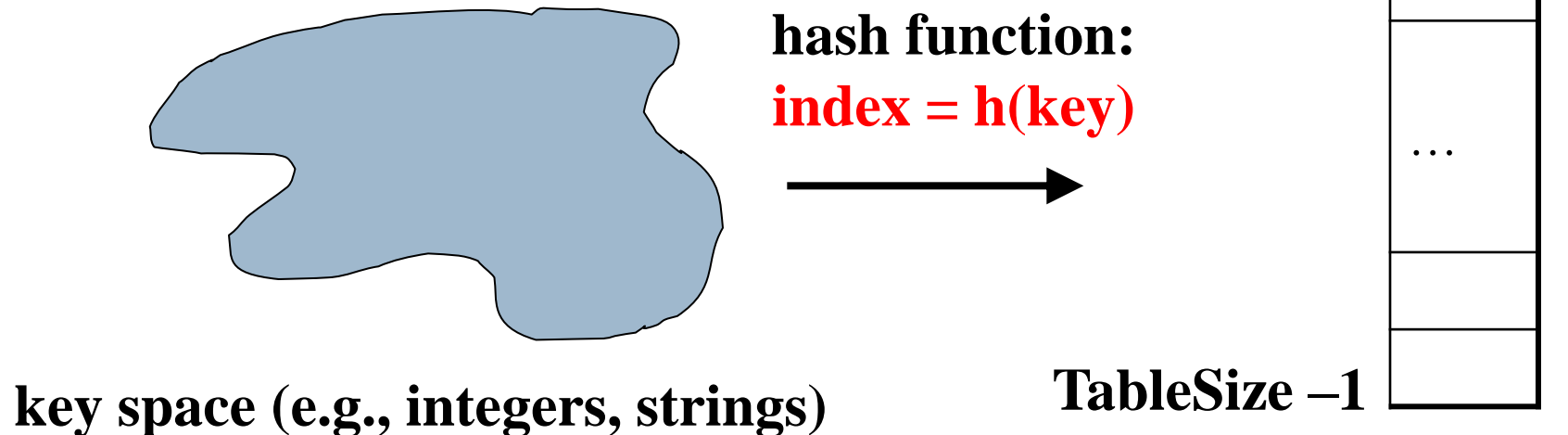
# Hash functions

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Hash function: Our key to index mapping

An ideal hash function:

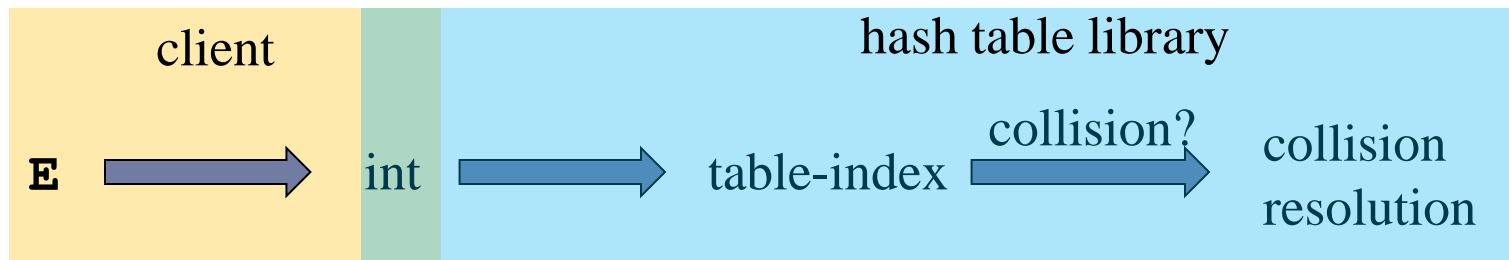
- ▶ Is fast to compute
- ▶ “Rarely” hashes two “used” keys to the same index
  - ▶ Often impossible in theory; easy in practice
  - ▶ Will handle *collisions* a bit later



# Who hashes what?

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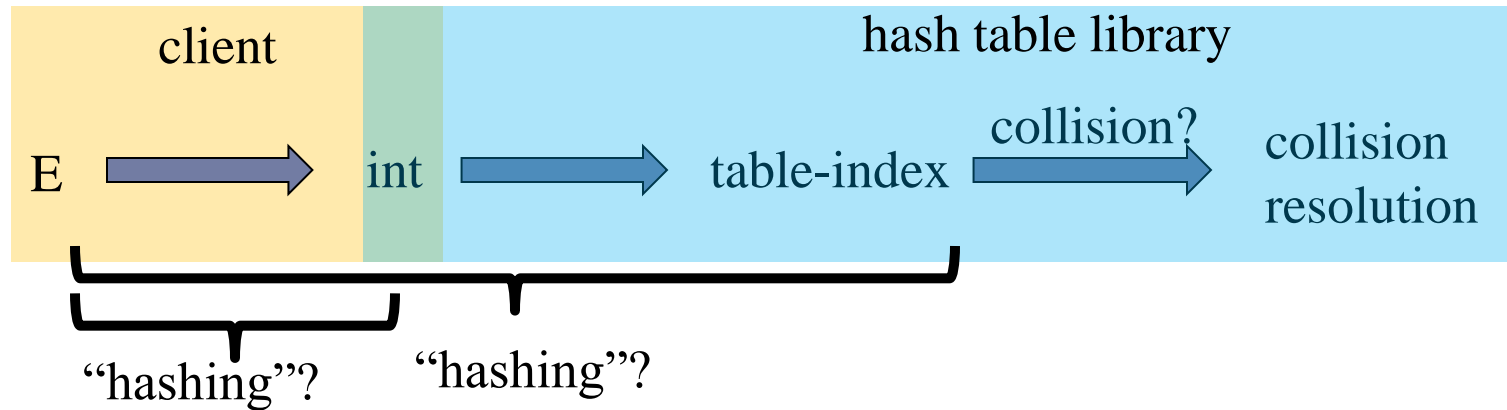
- ▶ Hash tables can be generic
  - ▶ To store elements of type  $\mathbf{E}$ , we just need  $\mathbf{E}$  to be:
    1. Comparable: order any two  $\mathbf{E}$  (like with all dictionaries)
    2. Hashable: convert any  $\mathbf{E}$  to an `int`
- ▶ When hash tables are a reusable library, the division of responsibility generally breaks down into two roles:



- We will learn both roles, but most programmers “in the real world” spend more time on the client side, while still having an understanding of the library

# More on roles

Some ambiguity in terminology on which parts are “hashing”



Two roles must both contribute to minimizing collisions

- Client should aim for different ints for expected items
  - Avoid “wasting” any part of **E** or the 32 bits of the **int**
- Library should aim for putting “similar” **ints** in different indices
  - conversion to index is almost always “mod table-size”
  - using prime numbers for table-size is common

# What to hash?

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In lecture we will consider the two most common things to hash: integers and strings

- ▶ If you have objects with several fields, it is usually best to have most of the “identifying fields” contribute to the hash to avoid collisions

- ▶ Example:

```
class Person {
    String first; String middle; String
last;
    int age;
}
```

# Hashing integers

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- ▶ key space = integers
  - ▶ Useful for examples
- ▶ Simple hash function:
  - $h(\text{key}) = \text{key} \% \text{TableSize}$
  - ▶ Client:  $f(x) = x$
  - ▶ Library  $g(x) = x \% \text{TableSize}$
  - ▶ Fairly fast and natural
- ▶ Example:
  - ▶ TableSize = 10
  - ▶ Insert 7, 18, 41, 34, 10
  - ▶ (As usual, ignoring data “along for the ride”)
  - ▶ What could go wrong?
    - ▶ Now insert 20....

0	10
1	41
2	
3	
4	34
5	
6	
7	7
8	18
9	



# Collision-avoidance

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- ▶ Collision: Two keys map to the same index
- ▶ With “ $x \% \text{TableSize}$ ” the number of collisions depends on
  - ▶ the ints inserted
  - ▶ **TableSize**
- ▶ Larger table-size tends to help, but not always
  - ▶ Example: Insert 12, 22, 32 with **TableSize** = 10 vs. **TableSize** = 6
- ▶ Technique: Pick table size to be prime. Why?
  - ▶ Real-life data tends to have a pattern, and “multiples of 61” are probably less likely than “multiples of 60”
  - ▶ Later we’ll see that one collision-handling strategy does provably better with prime table size
  - ▶ Usually use something like 10 for examples though

0	12
1	
2	32
3	
4	22
5	

# More arguments for a prime table size

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If **TableSize** is 60 and...

- ▶ Lots of data items are multiples of 5, wasting 80% of table
- ▶ Lots of data items are multiples of 10, wasting 90% of table
- ▶ Lots of data items are multiples of 2, wasting 50% of table

If **TableSize** is 61...

- ▶ Collisions can still happen, but 5, 10, 15, 20, ... will fill table
- ▶ Collisions can still happen but 10, 20, 30, 40, ... will fill table
- ▶ Collisions can still happen but 2, 4, 6, 8, ... will fill table

In general, if **x** and **y** are “co-prime” (means  $\text{gcd}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) == 1$ ), then

$$(\mathbf{a} * \mathbf{x}) \% \mathbf{y} == (\mathbf{b} * \mathbf{x}) \% \mathbf{y} \text{ if and only if } \mathbf{a} \% \mathbf{y} == \mathbf{b} \% \mathbf{y}$$

- ▶ So, given table size **y** and keys as multiples of **x**, we'll get a decent distribution if **x** & **y** are co-prime
- ▶ Good to have a **TableSize** that has not common factors with any “likely pattern” **x**

# What if we don't have ints as keys?

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- ▶ If keys aren't **ints**, the client must convert to an **int**
  - ▶ Trade-off: speed and distinct keys hashing to distinct **ints**

- ▶ Very important example: Strings

- ▶ Key space  $K = s_0s_1s_2\dots s_{m-1}$ 
  - ▶ Where  $s_i$  are chars:  $s_i \in [0,51]$  or  $s_i \in [0,255]$  or  $s_i \in [0,2^{16}-1]$
- ▶ Some choices: Which avoid collisions best?

1.  $h(K) = s_0 \% \text{TableSize}$

**Anything w/ same first letter**

2.  $h(K) = \left( \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} s_i \right) \% \text{TableSize}$

**Any rearrangement of letters**

3.  $h(K) = \left( \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} s_i \cdot 37^i \right) \% \text{TableSize}$

**Hmm... not so clear**

What causes collisions for each?

# Java-esque String Hash

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- ▶ Java characters in Unicode format;  $2^{16}$  bits

$$h = s[0] * 31^{n-1} + s[1] * 31^{n-2} + \dots + s[n-1]$$

- ▶ Can compute efficiently via a trick called Horner's Rule:
  - ▶ Idea: Avoid expensive computation of  $31^k$
  - ▶ Say  $n=4$
  - ▶  $h = ((s[0]*31 + s[1])*31 + s[2])*31 + s[3]$

# Specializing hash functions

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How might you hash differently if all your strings were web addresses (URLs)?



# Combining hash functions

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A few rules of thumb / tricks:

1. Use all 32 bits (careful, that includes negative numbers)
2. When smashing two hashes into one hash, use bitwise-xor
  - ▶ Problem with Bitwise AND?
    - ▶ Produces too many 0 bits
  - ▶ Problem with Bitwise OR?
    - ▶ Produces too many 1 bits
3. Rely on expertise of others; consult books and other resources
4. If keys are known ahead of time, choose a *perfect hash*

# Additional operations

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- ▶ How would we do the following in a hashtable?
  - ▶ findMin()
  - ▶ findMax()
  - ▶ predecessor(key)
- ▶ Hashtables really not set up for these; need to search everything,  $O(n)$  time
- ▶ Could try a hack:
  - ▶ Separately store max & min values; update on insert & delete
  - ▶ What about '2<sup>nd</sup> to max value', predecessor, in-order traversal, etc; those are fast in an AVL tree

# Hash Tables: A Different ADT?

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- ▶ In terms of a Dictionary ADT for just **insert**, **find**, **delete**, hash tables and balanced trees are just different data structures
  - ▶ Hash tables  $O(1)$  on average (*assuming* few collisions)
  - ▶ Balanced trees  $O(\log n)$  worst-case
  
- ▶ Constant-time is better, right?
  - ▶ Yes, but you need “hashing to behave” (collisions)
  - ▶ Yes, but **findMin**, **findMax**, **predecessor**, and **successor** go from  $O(\log n)$  to  $O(n)$ 
    - ▶ Why your textbook considers this to be a different ADT
    - ▶ Not so important to argue over the definitions



# Collision resolution

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## Collision:

When two keys map to the same location in the hash table

We try to avoid it, but number-of-keys exceeds table size

So we can resolve collisions in a couple of different ways:

- ▶ Separate chaining
- ▶ Open addressing

# Separate Chaining

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0	/
1	/
2	/
3	/
4	/
5	/
6	/
7	/
8	/
9	/

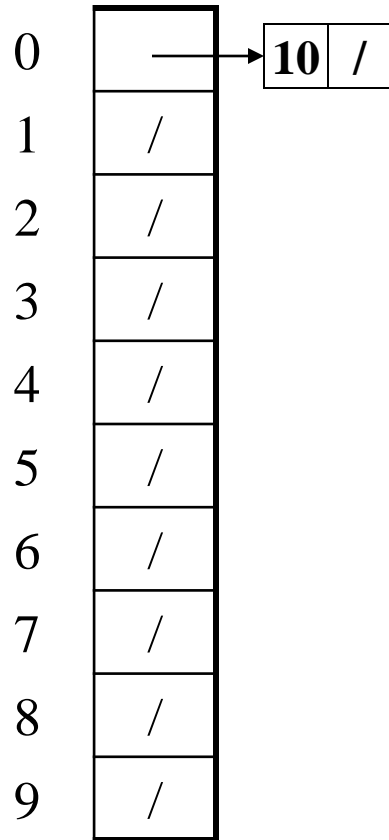
Chaining: All keys that map to the same table location are kept in a list (a.k.a. a “chain” or “bucket”)

As easy as it sounds

Example: insert 10, 22, 107, 12, 42 with mod hashing and **TableSize = 10**

# Separate Chaining

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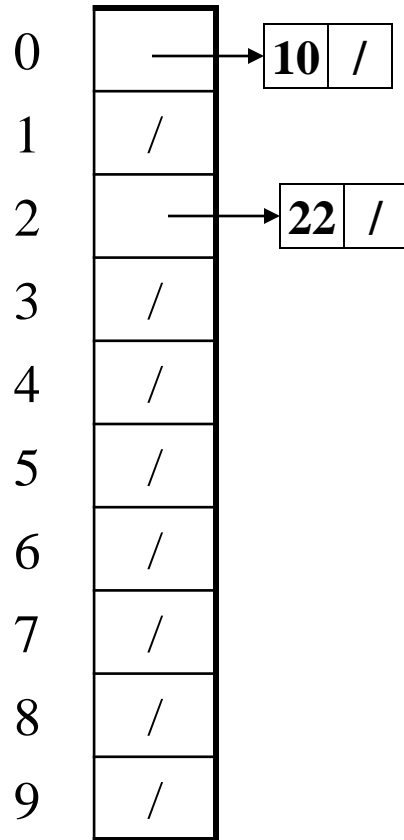
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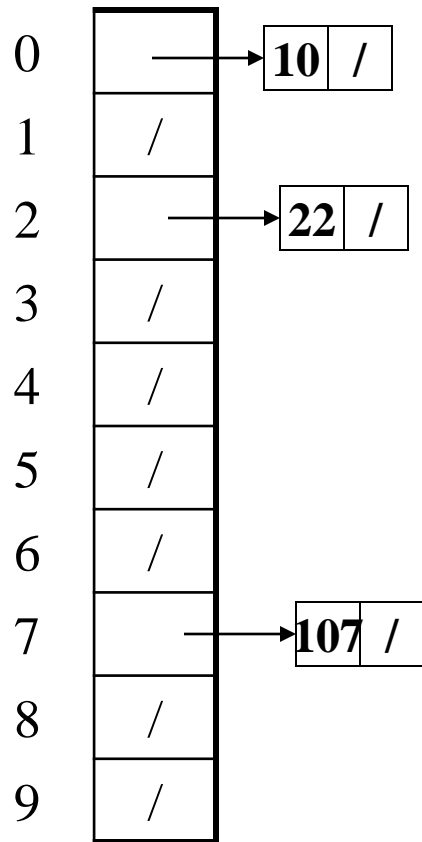
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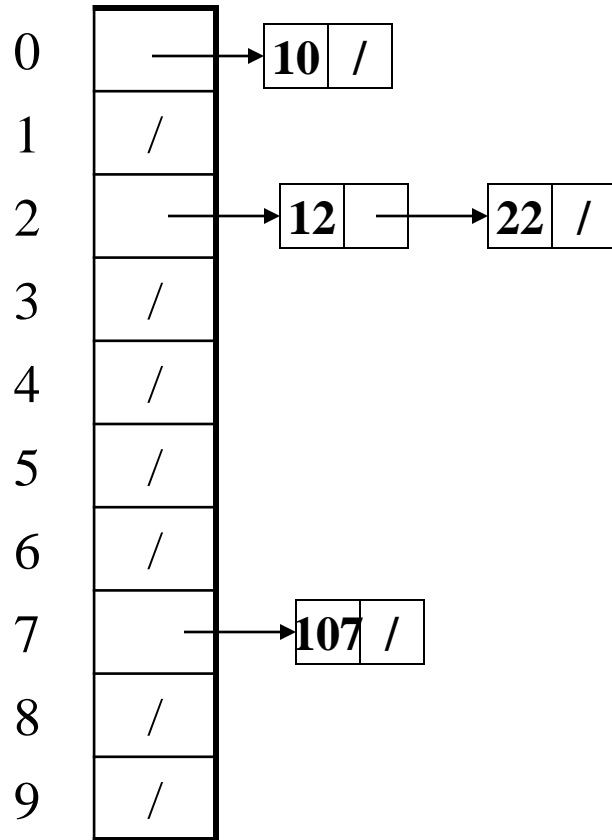
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# Separate Chaining

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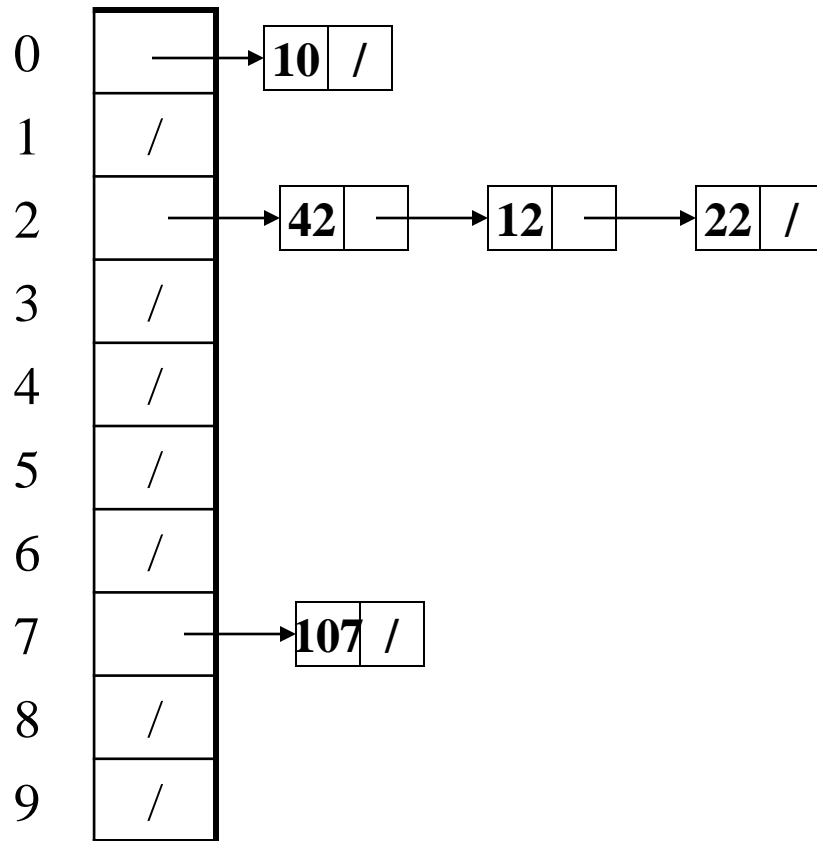


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# Separate Chaining



Chaining: All keys that map to the same table location are kept in a list (a.k.a. a “chain” or “bucket”)

As easy as it sounds

Example: insert 10, 22, 107, 12, 42 with mod hashing and **TableSize = 10**

Why put them at the front?  
Handling duplicates?

# Thoughts on chaining

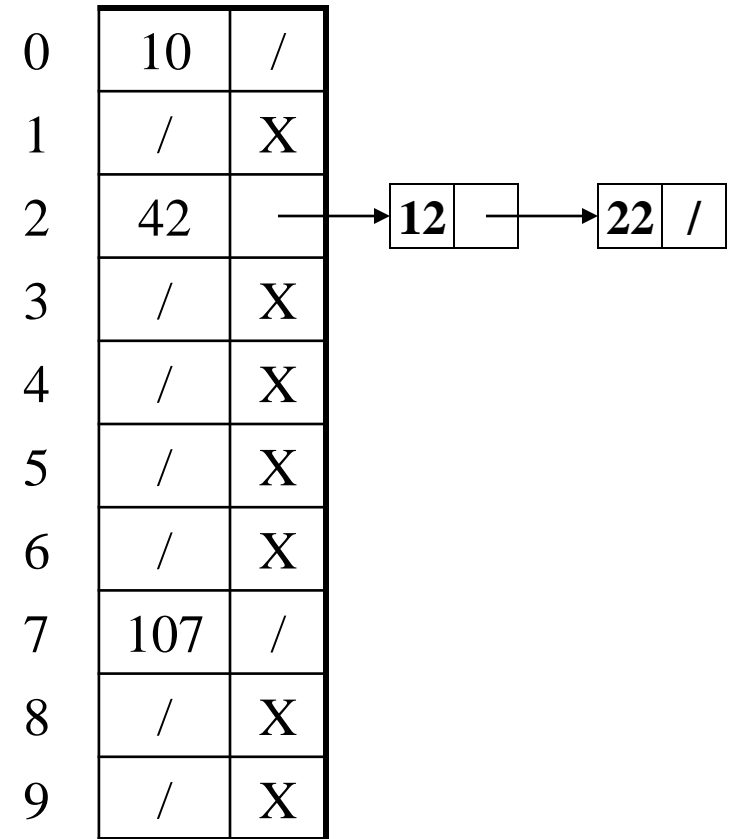
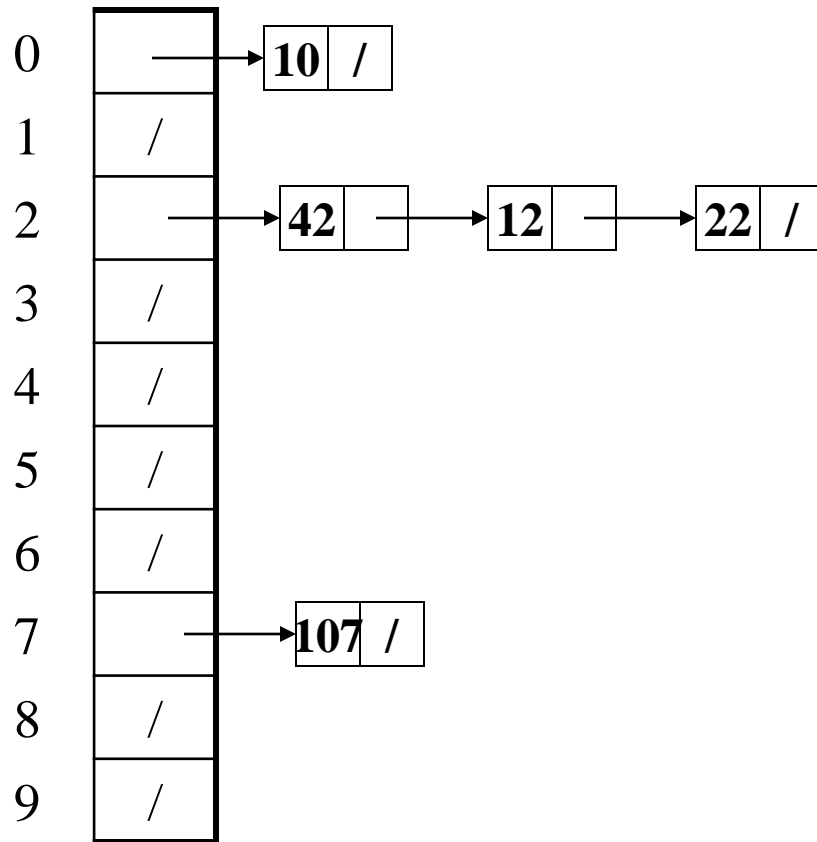
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- ▶ Worst-case time for **find**?
  - ▶ Linear
  - ▶ But only with really bad luck or bad hash function
  - ▶ So not worth avoiding (e.g., with balanced trees at each bucket)
    - ▶ Keep # of items in each bucket small
    - ▶ Overhead of AVL tree, etc. not worth it for small  $n$
- ▶ Beyond asymptotic complexity, some “data-structure engineering” may be warranted
  - ▶ Linked list vs. array or a hybrid of the two
  - ▶ Move-to-front (part of Project 2)
  - ▶ Leave room for 1 element (or 2?) in the table itself, to optimize constant factors for the common case
    - ▶ A time-space trade-off...



# Time vs. space (constant factors only here)

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# A more rigorous chaining analysis

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Definition: The **load factor**,  $\lambda$ , of a hash table is

$$\lambda = \frac{N}{\text{TableSize}} \quad \mathbf{N}=\mathbf{\text{number of elements}}$$

Under separate chaining, the average number of elements per bucket is...?

$\lambda$

So if some inserts are followed by *random* finds, then on average:

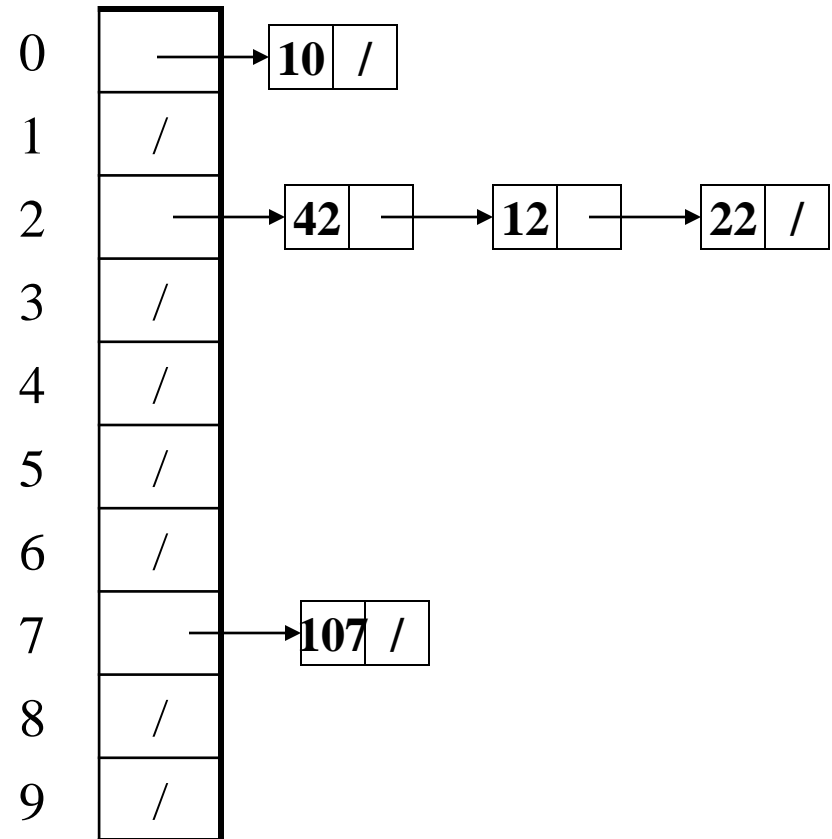
- Each unsuccessful **find** compares against  $\lambda$  items
- Each successful **find** compares against  $\lambda/2$  items
- If  $\lambda$  is low, find & insert likely to be  $O(1)$
- We like to keep  $\lambda$  around 1 for separate chaining



# Separate Chaining Deletion

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- ▶ Not too bad
  - ▶ Find in table
  - ▶ Delete from bucket
- ▶ Say, delete 12
- ▶ Similar run-time as insert



# An Alternative to Separate Chaining: Open Addressing

- ▶ Store directly in the array cell (no linked list)
- ▶ How to deal with collisions?
- ▶ If  $h(\text{key})$  is already full,
  - ▶ Try  $(h(\text{key}) + 1) \% \text{TableSize}$
- ▶ That's full too?
  - ▶ Try  $(h(\text{key}) + 2) \% \text{TableSize}$
- ▶ How about
  - ▶ Try  $(h(\text{key}) + 3) \% \text{TableSize}$
- ▶ ...
- ▶ Example: insert 38, 19, 8, 109, 10

0	/
1	/
2	/
3	/
4	/
5	/
6	/
7	/
8	38
9	/

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0	8
1	/
2	/
3	/
4	/
5	/
6	/
7	/
8	38
9	19

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0	8
1	109
2	/
3	/
4	/
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6	/
7	/
8	38
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- ▶ ...
- ▶ Example: insert 38, 19, 8, 109, 10

0	8
1	109
2	10
3	/
4	/
5	/
6	/
7	/
8	38
9	19



# Open addressing: Storing in the table

---

- ▶ This is *one example* of open addressing
  - ▶ More generally, we just need to describe where to check next when one attempt fails (cell already in use)
  - ▶ Each version of open addressing involves specifying a sequence of indices to try
- ▶ Trying the next spot is called **probing**
  - ▶ In the above example, our  $i^{\text{th}}$  probe was  $(h(\text{key}) + i) \% \text{TableSize}$ 
    - ▶ To get the next index to try, we just added 1 (mod the Tablesize)
    - ▶ This is called **linear probing**
  - ▶ More generally we have some **probe function  $f$**  and use
$$(h(\text{key}) + f(i)) \% \text{TableSize}$$
for the  $i^{\text{th}}$  probe (start at  $i=0$ )
    - ▶ For **linear probing**,  $f(i)=i$

# More about Open Addressing

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- ▶ Find works similarly:
  - ▶ Keep probing until we find it
  - ▶ Or, if we hit null, we know it's not in the table
- ▶ How does open addressing work with high load factor ( $\lambda$ )
  - ▶ Poorly
  - ▶ Too many probes means no more  $O(1)$
  - ▶ So want larger tables
  - ▶ Find with  $\lambda=1$ ?
- ▶ Deletion? How about we just remove it?
  - ▶ Take previous example, delete 38
  - ▶ Then do a find on 8
  - ▶ Hmm... this isn't going to work
  - ▶ Stick with lazy deletion

0	8
1	109
2	/
3	/
4	/
5	/
6	/
7	/
8	38
9	19

# Terminology

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We and the book use the terms

- ▶ “chaining” or “separate chaining”: Linked list in each bucket

vs.

- ▶ “open addressing”: Store directly in table

Very confusingly,

- ▶ “open hashing” is a synonym for “chaining”

vs.

- ▶ “closed hashing” is a synonym for “open addressing”

# Primary Clustering

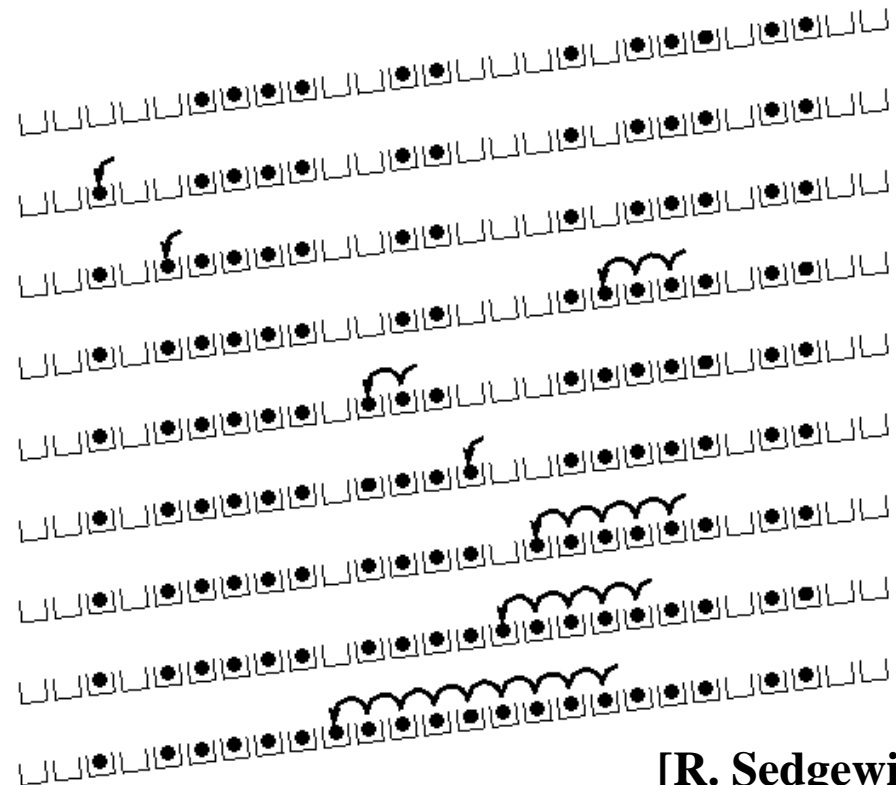
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It turns out linear probing is a *bad idea*, even though the probe function is quick to compute (a good thing)

Tends to produce *clusters*, which lead to long probing sequences

Saw this happening in earlier example

- Called **primary clustering**



[R. Sedgewick]

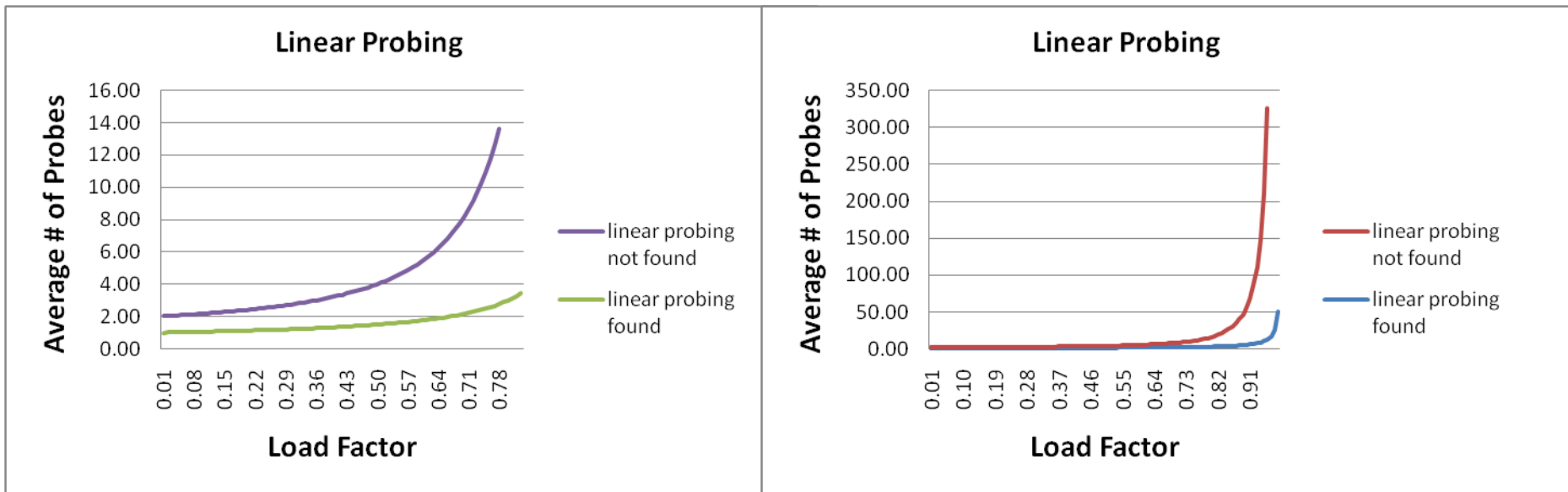
# Analysis of Linear Probing

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- ▶ Trivial fact: For any  $\lambda < 1$ , linear probing will find an empty slot
  - ▶ It is “safe” in this sense: no infinite loop unless table is full
- ▶ Non-trivial facts we won’t prove:  
Average # of probes given  $\lambda$  (limit as **TableSize**  $\rightarrow \infty$ )
  - ▶ Unsuccessful search: 
$$\frac{1}{2} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{(1-\lambda)^2} \right)$$
  - ▶ Successful search: 
$$\frac{1}{2} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{(1-\lambda)} \right)$$
- ▶ This is pretty bad: need to leave sufficient empty space in the table to get decent performance

# In a chart

- ▶ Linear-probing performance degrades rapidly as table gets full
  - ▶ (Formula assumes “large table”)
- ▶ By comparison, chaining performance is linear in  $\lambda$  and has no trouble with  $\lambda > 1$



# Open Addressing: Quadratic probing

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- ▶ We can avoid primary clustering by changing the probe function
- ▶ A common technique is quadratic probing:
  - ▶  $f(i) = i^2$
  - ▶ So probe sequence is:
    - ▶ 0<sup>th</sup> probe:  $h(\text{key}) \% \text{TableSize}$
    - ▶ 1<sup>st</sup> probe:  $(h(\text{key}) + 1) \% \text{TableSize}$
    - ▶ 2<sup>nd</sup> probe:  $(h(\text{key}) + 4) \% \text{TableSize}$
    - ▶ 3<sup>rd</sup> probe:  $(h(\text{key}) + 9) \% \text{TableSize}$
    - ▶ ...
    - ▶  $i^{\text{th}}$  probe:  $(h(\text{key}) + i^2) \% \text{TableSize}$
- ▶ Intuition: Probes quickly “leave the neighborhood”

# Quadratic Probing Example

---

0	
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	
7	
8	
9	

**TableSize=10**

**Insert:**

**89**

**18**

**49**

**58**

**79**



# Quadratic Probing Example

---

0	
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	
7	
8	
9	89

**TableSize=10**

**Insert:**

**89**

**18**

**49**

**58**

**79**

# Quadratic Probing Example

---

0	
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	
7	
8	18
9	89

**TableSize=10**

**Insert:**

**89**

**18**

**49**

**58**

**79**

# Quadratic Probing Example

---

0	49
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	
7	
8	18
9	89

**TableSize=10**

**Insert:**

**89**

**18**

**49**

**58**

**79**

# Quadratic Probing Example

---

0	49
1	
2	58
3	
4	
5	
6	
7	
8	18
9	89

**TableSize=10**

**Insert:**

**89**

**18**

**49**

**58**

**79**

# Quadratic Probing Example

---

0	49
1	
2	58
3	79
4	
5	
6	
7	
8	18
9	89

**TableSize=10**

**Insert:**

**89**

**18**

**49**

**58**

**79**

**How about 98?**

# Another Quadratic Probing Example

---

<b>0</b>	
<b>1</b>	
<b>2</b>	
<b>3</b>	
<b>4</b>	
<b>5</b>	
<b>6</b>	

**TableSize = 7**

**Insert:**

**76**            **(76 % 7 = 6)**

**40**            **(40 % 7 = 5)**

**48**            **(48 % 7 = 6)**

**5**             **( 5 % 7 = 5)**

**55**            **(55 % 7 = 6)**

**47**            **(47 % 7 = 5)**

# Another Quadratic Probing Example

---

<b>0</b>	
<b>1</b>	
<b>2</b>	
<b>3</b>	
<b>4</b>	
<b>5</b>	
<b>6</b>	76

**TableSize = 7**

**Insert:**

**76**            **(76 % 7 = 6)**

**40**            **(40 % 7 = 5)**

**48**            **(48 % 7 = 6)**

**5**             **( 5 % 7 = 5)**

**55**            **(55 % 7 = 6)**

**47**            **(47 % 7 = 5)**

# Another Quadratic Probing Example

---

<b>0</b>	
<b>1</b>	
<b>2</b>	
<b>3</b>	
<b>4</b>	
<b>5</b>	40
<b>6</b>	76

**TableSize = 7**

**Insert:**

**76**            **(76 % 7 = 6)**

**40**            **(40 % 7 = 5)**

**48**            **(48 % 7 = 6)**

**5**             **( 5 % 7 = 5)**

**55**            **(55 % 7 = 6)**

**47**            **(47 % 7 = 5)**





# Another Quadratic Probing Example

---

<b>0</b>	48
<b>1</b>	
<b>2</b>	
<b>3</b>	
<b>4</b>	
<b>5</b>	40
<b>6</b>	76

**TableSize = 7**

**Insert:**

**76**            **(76 % 7 = 6)**

**40**            **(40 % 7 = 5)**

**48**            **(48 % 7 = 6)**

**5**             **( 5 % 7 = 5)**

**55**            **(55 % 7 = 6)**

**47**            **(47 % 7 = 5)**

# Another Quadratic Probing Example

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# Another Quadratic Probing Example

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1	
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3	55
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**55**            **(55 % 7 = 6)**

**47**            **(47 % 7 = 5)**

**Uh-oh: For all  $n$ ,  $((n*n) + 5) \% 7$  is 0, 2, 5, or 6**

- Proof uses induction and  $(n^2+5) \% 7 = ((n-7)^2+5) \% 7$ 
  - In fact, for all  $c$  and  $k$ ,  $(n^2+c) \% k = ((n-k)^2+c) \% k$

# From bad news to good news

---

- ▶ For all  $c$  and  $k$ ,  $(n^2+c) \% k = ((n-k)^2+c) \% k$
- ▶ The bad news is: After **TableSize** quadratic probes, we will just cycle through the same indices
- ▶ The good news:
  - ▶ Assertion #1: If **T = TableSize** is *prime* and  $\lambda < 1/2$ , then quadratic probing will find an empty slot in at most **T/2** probes
  - ▶ Assertion #2: For prime **T** and  $0 \leq i, j \leq T/2$  where  $i \neq j$ ,  
 **$(h(\text{key}) + i^2) \% T \neq (h(\text{key}) + j^2) \% T$**   
That is, if **T** is prime, the first **T/2** quadratic probes map to different locations
  - ▶ Assertion #3: Assertion #2 is the “key fact” for proving Assertion #1
- ▶ So: If you keep  $\lambda < 1/2$ , no need to detect cycles

# Clustering reconsidered

---

- ▶ Quadratic probing does not suffer from primary clustering: quadratic nature quickly escapes the neighborhood
- ▶ But it's no help if keys initially hash to the same index
  - ▶ Called secondary clustering
  - ▶ Any 2 keys that hash to the same value will have the same series of moves after that
- ▶ Can avoid secondary clustering with a probe function that depends on the key: double hashing

# Open Addressing: Double hashing

---

## ▶ Idea:

- ▶ Given two good hash functions  $h$  and  $g$  & 2 different keys  $k_1$  &  $k_2$ , it is very unlikely that  $h(k_1) == h(k_2)$  &  $g(k_1) == g(k_2)$
- ▶ So make the probe function  $f(i) = i * g(key)$
- ▶ That is, check  $h(key)$ , then  $h(key) + g(key)$ , then  $h(key) + 2 * g(key)$ , ...
- ▶ Even if  $h(key_1) = h(key_2)$ , they'll most likely go different places for the next probe

## ▶ Probe sequence:

- ▶ 0<sup>th</sup> probe:  $h(key) \% TableSize$
- ▶ 1<sup>st</sup> probe:  $(h(key) + g(key)) \% TableSize$
- ▶ 2<sup>nd</sup> probe:  $(h(key) + 2 * g(key)) \% TableSize$
- ▶ 3<sup>rd</sup> probe:  $(h(key) + 3 * g(key)) \% TableSize$
- ▶ ...
- ▶  $i$ <sup>th</sup> probe:  $(h(key) + i * g(key)) \% TableSize$

## ▶ Detail: Make sure $g(key)$ isn't 0

- ▶ Why?
- ▶ Also, shouldn't be a multiple of `TableSize`

# Double-hashing analysis

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- ▶ Intuition: Since each probe is “jumping” by  $g(\text{key})$  each time, we “leave the neighborhood” *and* “go different places from other initial collisions”
  - ▶ Say  $h(x)=h(y)$ ; it’s unlikely that  $g(x)=g(y)$
- ▶ But we could still have a problem like in quadratic probing where we are not “safe” (infinite loop despite room in table)
  - ▶ No guarantee that  $i * g(\text{key})$  will let us try all/most indices
  - ▶ It is known that this infinite loop, despite space available, cannot happen in at least one case:
    - ▶  $h(\text{key}) = \text{key} \% p$
    - ▶  $g(\text{key}) = q - (\text{key} \% q)$
    - ▶  $2 < q < p$
    - ▶  $p$  and  $q$  are prime



# Yet another reason to use a prime Tablesize

---

- ▶ So, for double hashing
$$i^{\text{th}} \text{ probe: } (\mathbf{h(\text{key})} + \mathbf{i * g(\text{key})}) \% \mathbf{TableSize}$$
- ▶ Say  $g(\text{key})$  divides Tablesize
  - ▶ That is, there is some integer  $x$  such that  $x * g(\text{key}) = \text{TableSize}$
  - ▶ After  $x$  probes, we'll be back to trying the same indices as before
- ▶ Ex:
  - ▶ Tablesize=50
  - ▶  $g(\text{key})=25$
  - ▶ Probing sequence:
    - ▶  $h(\text{key})$
    - ▶  $h(\text{key})+25$
    - ▶  $h(\text{key})+50=h(\text{key})$
    - ▶  $h(\text{key})+75=h(\text{key})+25$
- ▶ Only 1 & itself divide a prime

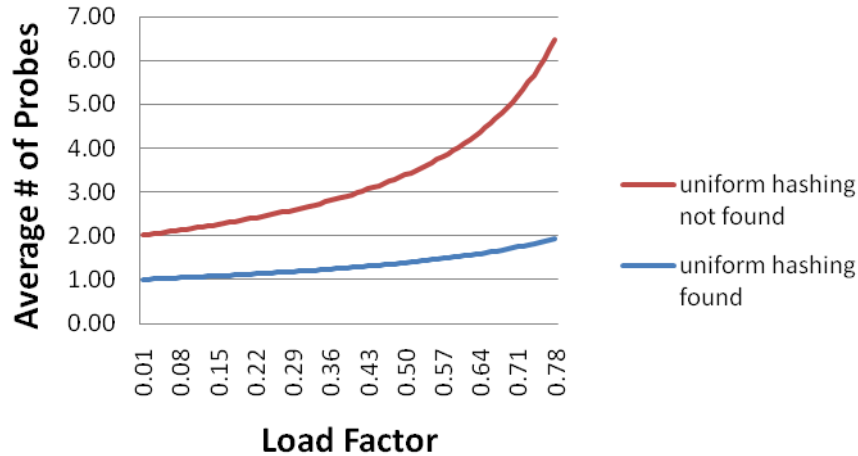
# More double-hashing facts

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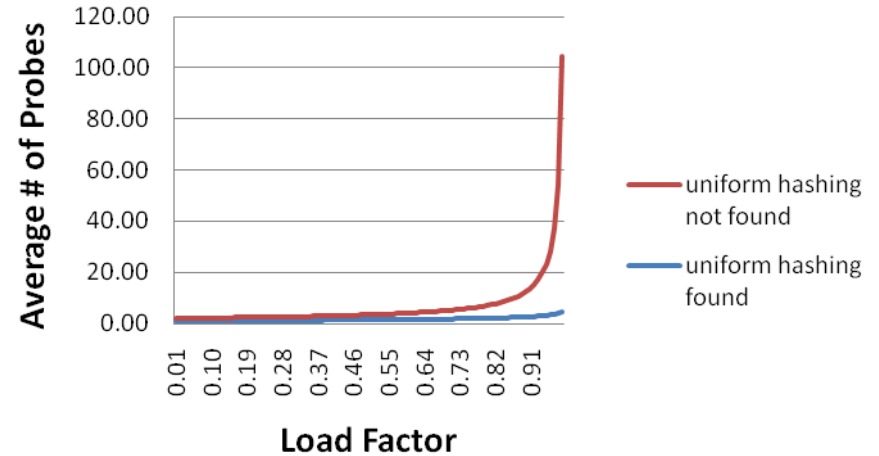
- ▶ Assume “uniform hashing”
  - ▶ Means probability of  $g(\text{key1}) \% p == g(\text{key2}) \% p$  is  $1/p$
- ▶ Non-trivial facts we won't prove:  
Average # of probes given  $\lambda$  (in the limit as **TableSize**  $\rightarrow \infty$ )
  - ▶ Unsuccessful search (intuitive):  $\frac{1}{1-\lambda}$
  - ▶ Successful search (less intuitive):  $\frac{1}{\lambda} \log_e \left( \frac{1}{1-\lambda} \right)$
- ▶ Bottom line: unsuccessful bad (but not as bad as linear probing), but successful is not nearly as bad

# Charts: Double hashing (w/ uniform hashing) vs. Linear probing

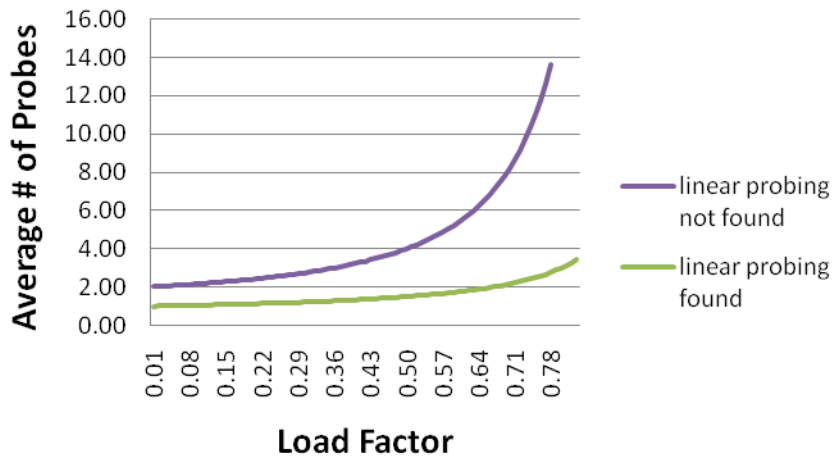
### Uniform Hashing



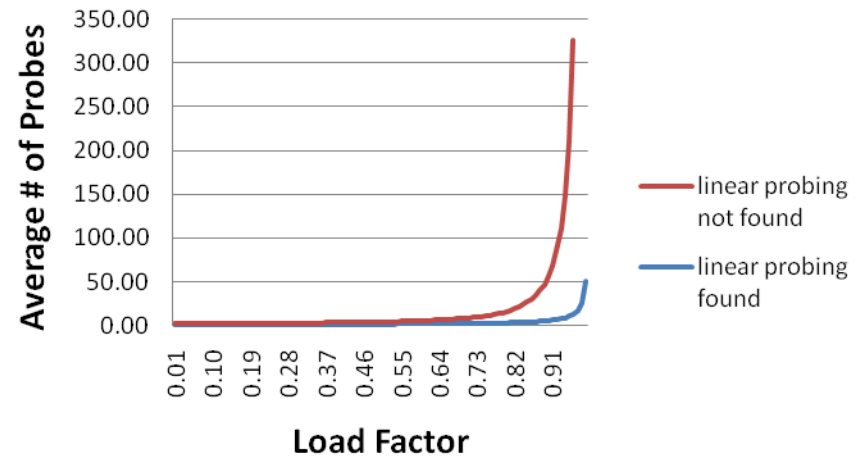
### Uniform Hashing



### Linear Probing



### Linear Probing



# We've explored different methods of collision detection

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- ▶ Chaining is easy
  - ▶ `find`, `delete` proportion to load factor on average; insert constant
- ▶ Open addressing uses probe functions, has clustering issues as table gets full
  - ▶ Why use it:
    - ▶ Less memory allocation
    - ▶ Some run-time overhead for allocating linked list (or whatever) nodes; open addressing could be faster
    - ▶ Arguably easier data representation
- ▶ Now:
  - ▶ Growing the table when it gets too full: Called 'rehashing'
  - ▶ Relation between hashing/comparing and connection to Java

# Rehashing

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- ▶ Like with array-based stacks/queues/lists, if table gets too full, create a bigger table and copy everything over
- ▶ With chaining, we get to decide what “too full” means
  - ▶ Keep load factor reasonable (e.g.,  $< 1$ )?
  - ▶ Consider average or max size of non-empty chains?
- ▶ For open addressing, half-full is a good rule of thumb
- ▶ New table size
  - ▶ Twice-as-big is a good idea, except...
    - ▶ That won't be prime!
  - ▶ So go *about* twice-as-big
  - ▶ Can have a list of prime numbers in your code since you won't grow more than 20-30 times
  - ▶ If you do need more primes, not too bad to calculate

# More on rehashing

---

- ▶ What if we copy all data to the same indices in the new table?
  - ▶ Not going to work; calculated index based on TableSize – we may not be able to find it later
- ▶ Go through current table, do standard insert for each into new table; run-time?
  - ▶  $O(n)$ : Iterate through table
- ▶ But resize is an  $O(n)$  operation, involving  $n$  calls to the hash function (1 for each insert in the new table)
  - ▶ Is there some way to avoid all those hash function calls again?
  - ▶ Space/time tradeoff: Could store  $h(\text{key})$  with each data item, but since rehashing is rare, this is probably a poor use of space
    - ▶ And growing the table is still  $O(n)$ ; only helps by a constant factor

# Hashing and comparing

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- ▶ For insert/find, as we go through the chain or keep probing, we have to *compare* each item we see to the key we're looking for
  - ▶ We need to have a comparator (or key's type needs to be comparable)
  - ▶ Don't actually need < & >; just =
- ▶ So a hash table needs a hash function and a comparator
  - ▶ In Project 2, you'll use two function objects
  - ▶ The Java standard library uses a more OO approach where each object has an `equals` method and a `hashCode` method:

```
class Object {
    boolean equals(Object o) {...}
    int hashCode() {...}
    ...
}
```

# Equal objects must hash the same

---

- ▶ The Java library (and your project hash table) make a very important assumption that clients must satisfy...
- ▶ OO way of saying it:  
If `a.equals(b)`, then we must require  
`a.hashCode() == b.hashCode()`
- ▶ Function object way of saying it:  
If `c.compare(a,b) == 0`, then we must require  
`h.hash(a) == h.hash(b)`
- ▶ What would happen if we didn't do this?



# Java bottom line

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- ▶ Lots of Java libraries use hash tables, perhaps without your knowledge
- ▶ So: If you ever override `equals`, you need to override `hashCode` also in a consistent way

# (Incorrect) Example

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- ▶ Think about using a hash table holding points

```
class PolarPoint {
    double r = 0.0;
    double theta = 0.0;
    void addToAngle(double theta2) { theta+=theta2; }
    ...
    boolean equals(Object otherObject) {
        if(this==otherObject) return true;
        if(otherObject==null) return false;
        if(getClass()!=other.getClass()) return false;
        PolarPoint other = (PolarPoint)otherObject;
        double angleDiff =
            (theta - other.theta) % (2*Math.PI);
        double rDiff = r - other.r;
        return Math.abs(angleDiff) < 0.0001
            && Math.abs(rDiff) < 0.0001;
    }
    // wrong: must override hashCode!
}
```

## Aside: Comparable/Comparator have rules too

---

Comparison must impose a consistent, total ordering:

For all **a**, **b**, and **c**,

- ▶ If `compare(a, b) < 0`, then `compare(b, a) > 0`
- ▶ If `compare(a, b) == 0`, then `compare(b, a) == 0`
- ▶ If `compare(a, b) < 0` and `compare(b, c) < 0`, then `compare(a, c) < 0`

What would happen if `compareTo()` just randomly returned -1, 0 or 1?

# Final word on hashing

---

- ▶ The hash table is one of the most important data structures
  - ▶ Supports only **find**, **insert**, and **delete** efficiently
  - ▶ FindMin, FindMax, predecessor, etc.: not so efficiently
  - ▶ Most likely data-structure to be asked about in interviews; many real-world applications
- ▶ Important to use a good hash function
  - ▶ Good distribution
  - ▶ Uses enough of key's values
- ▶ Important to keep hash table at a good size
  - ▶ Prime #
  - ▶ Preferable  $\lambda$  depends on type of table
- ▶ Side-comment: hash functions have uses beyond hash tables
  - ▶ Examples: Cryptography, check-sums