$\square$

### 16.070

## Introduction to Computers \& Programming

Hashing: breaking the $\log \boldsymbol{n}$ barrier

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## Hashing and Hash Tables

- Represent a table of names
- Set aside an array big enough to contain one element for each possible string of letters
- Convert from names to integers
- Tells where person's phone number is immediately


## Katherine

Stefano
Julie
Alan
Megan
Richard
Jaclyn

- Dictionary operations
- Insert / delete /search

```
(check, a restraint)
(check, examination)
(check, a bill)
(check, a pattern)
(check, a small crack)
(check, move in chess)
```


Today

- Dictionary operations
- Insert / delete /search

1. Sequential search through $\mathbf{n}$ records

## O(n)

2. $\mathbf{n}$ records are specially ordered or stored in a tre $\mathbf{O}(\mathbf{l g} \mathbf{n})$
3. Certain information from each record is used to generate a memory address

O(1)

"hashing"

- Direct-access table
- Hash table
- Hash function
- Collision resolution
- Chaining
- Open addressing


## Direct Addressing

- Direct addressing is a simple technique that works well when the universe $U$ of keys is reasonably small
- Assume we have:
- Application needs a dynamic set
- All elements of dynamic set have keys, from Universe $\boldsymbol{U}=\{0,1, \ldots, m-1\}$ of keys, associated with them
- $m$ is not too large
- No two elements have the same key
- Direct-address tables
- Implement a dynamic set as an array (direct-address table), T[0 .. m-1]
- Each slot corresponds to a key in $U$
- Slot $k$ points to an element in dynamic set with key $k$
- If dynamic set contains no element with key $k$ then $\mathrm{T}[\mathrm{k}]=$ NIL


## Direct Addressing

- Dictionary operations
- Insert
- direct_access_insert (T, x)

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{T}[\operatorname{key}[\mathrm{x}]]:=\mathrm{x} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

- Delete
- direct_access_ delete (T, x)

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{T}[\operatorname{key}[\mathrm{x}]]:=\mathrm{NIL} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

- Search
- direct_access_ search (T, k)
return $\mathrm{T}[\mathrm{k}]$


## Direct Addressing


$\qquad$

$\square$

## Hash tables

- The differences are:
- Searching for an element using hashing requires $\Theta(1)$ on average
- Searching for an element using direct-addressing requires $\Theta(1)$ in the worst-case
- Direct-addressing stores an element with key k in slot (also called a bucket) k
- Hashing stores an element in slot $\mathrm{h}(\mathrm{k})$, where $\mathrm{h}(\mathrm{k})$ is a hash function h used to compute the slot from the key k
$\qquad$


Using a hash function $h$ to map keys to hash-table slots. Keys $\mathrm{k}_{2}$ and $\mathrm{k}_{5}$ map to the same slot, so they collide
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## Desired properties of a Hash Function

- An ideal hash function should avoid collisions entirely
- The "birthday paradox" makes this improbable
- What is the probability that at least 2 people in a room of 23 will have the same birthday?
- A hash function must be deterministic, in that a given input $k$ should always produce the same $\mathrm{h}(\mathrm{k})$ output
- Since $|U|>m$, there must be 2 keys that have the same hash value
- A well designed random output hash function may minimize collisions, but we need a mechanism for handling collisions
- In chaining we put all the elements that hash to the same slot in a linked list.
- Slot $j$ contains a pointer to the head of the list of all stored elements that hash to $j$.
- If no element hashes to $j$, then $j$ contains NIL


## Chaining



Collision resolution by chaining. Each hash-table slot $T[j]$ contains a linked list of all the keys whose hash value is $j$. For example, $h\left(k_{1}\right)=h\left(k_{4}\right)$ and $h\left(k_{7}\right)=h\left(k_{5}\right)=h\left(k_{2}\right)$. 16.070 - March 3112003 - Prof. I. . . Lundqyist - kristina@mit.edu

Analysis of hashing with chaining

- Insert
- chained_hash_insert (T, x)
insert $x$ at head of list $T[h(\operatorname{key}[x])]$
worst-case runtime $\mathbf{O}(1)$
- Delete
- chained_hash_delete (T, x)
delete x from list $\mathrm{T}[\mathrm{h}(\mathrm{key}[\mathrm{x}])]$
worst-case runtime $\mathbf{O}(1)$ if lists are doubly-linked
- Search
- chained_hash_search (T, k)
search for element with key $k$ in list $\mathrm{T}[\mathrm{h}(\mathrm{k})]$
worst-case runtime $\mathbf{O}(1)$
- If the number of hash table slots $n$ is at least proportional
to the number of elements in the table m or $\mathrm{n}=\mathbf{O}(\mathrm{m})$
- So that $\alpha=\mathrm{n} / \mathrm{m}=\mathrm{O}(\mathrm{m}) / \mathrm{m}=\mathrm{O}(1)$


## Analysis of hashing with chaining

## - Average-case behaviour

- Depends on how well the hash function $\boldsymbol{h}$ distributes the set of keys to be stored among the $\boldsymbol{m}$ slots, on the average
- Assume simple uniform hashing
- Assume the hash value $h(k)$ can be computed in $\mathbf{O}(1)$ time
- Must examine the number of elements in the list $\mathrm{T}[\mathrm{h}(\mathrm{k})$ ] that are checked to see if their keys are equal to $k$.
- Two cases
- The search is unsuccessful. No element in the table has key $k$
- The search successfully finds an element with key $k$.
- Hash tables are not used for their worst-case performance
- Theorem: In a hash table in which collisions are resolved by chaining, an unsuccessful search takes expected time $\Theta(1+\alpha)$, under the assumption of simple uniform hashing.
- Proof: Under the assumption of simple uniform hashing, any key k not already stored in the table is equally likely to hash to any of the $m$ slots. The expected time to search unsuccessfully for a key k is the expected time to search to the end of list $\mathrm{T}[\mathrm{h}(\mathrm{k})]$, which has expected length $=\alpha$. Thus, the expected number of elements examined in an unsuccessful search is $\alpha$, and the total time required (including the time for computing $h(k))$ is $\Theta(1+\alpha)$.
- Theorem: In a hash table in which collisions are resolved by chaining, a successful search takes time $\Theta(1+\alpha)$, on the average, under the assumption of simple uniform hashing.
- $\therefore$ If the number of hash-table slots is at least proportional to the number of elements in the table, we have $\mathrm{n}=\mathrm{O}(\mathrm{m})$ and, consequently, $\alpha=\mathrm{n} / \mathrm{m}=\mathrm{O}(\mathrm{m}) / \mathrm{m}=\mathrm{O}(1)$. Thus, searching takes constant time on average. Since insertion takes O(1) worst-case time and deletion takes $\mathrm{O}(1)$ worst-case time when the lists are doubly linked, all dictionary operations can be supported in $O(1)$ time on average.
- The best possible hash function would hash $n$ keys into $m$ "buckets" with no more than $\lceil n / m\rceil$ keys per bucket. Such a function is called a perfect hash function
- What is the big picture?
- A hash function which maps an arbitrary key to an integer turns searching into array access, hence $\mathrm{O}(1)$
- To use a finite sized array means two different keys will be mapped to the same place. Thus we must have some way to handle collisions
- A good hash function must spread the keys uniformly, or else we have a linear search
- Map key $k$ into one of $m$ slots by taking the remainder of $k$ divided by $m$.
- We use the hash function
$-h(k)=k \bmod m$
- We avoid certain values of $m$, such as $m=\mathbf{2}^{\mathbf{p}}$ for binary $k$ and $m=\mathbf{1 0}^{\text {p }}$ for decimal $k$
- We chose $m$ as primes not close to $2^{\text {p }}$
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Hash functions: The Multiplication Method

- Operates in two steps:
- Multiply the key $k$ by a constant $A$ in the range $0<A<1$, and extract the fractional part of $k A$.
- Multiply this value by $m$ and take the floor of the result.
- Resulting hash function is:

$$
h(k)=\lfloor m(k A \bmod 1)\rfloor
$$

where $k A \bmod 1$ returns the fractional part of $k A$, the same as $k A-\lfloor k A\rfloor$

- Advantage of the multiplication method is that the value of $m$ is not critical. Typically chose it to be a power of 2 .
- Suppose that the word size of the machine is $w$ bits and that $k$ fits into a single word. We restrict $A$ to be a fraction of the form $\mathrm{s} / 2^{\mathrm{w}}$, where $s$ is an integer in the range $0<s<2^{\mathrm{w}}$.

- First multiply $k$ by the $w$-bit integer $s=\mathrm{A} 2^{\mathrm{w}}$. The result is a $2 w$-bit value $r_{1} 2^{w}+r_{0}$, where $r_{1}$ is the high-order word of the product and $r_{0}$ is the low-order word of the product. The desired $p$-bit hash values consists of the $p$ most significant bits of $\mathrm{r}_{0}$.
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Universal hashing

- Suppose we have $k=123456, p=14, m=2^{14}=16384$, and $w=32$.
- Choose $A$ to be the fraction of the form $\mathrm{s} / 2^{32}$ that is closest to $(\sqrt{5}-1) / 2$ so that $A=2654435769 / 2^{32}$.
- Then $k s=327706022297664$ $=(76300 * 232)+17612864$,
- and so $r_{1}=76300$ and $r_{0}=17612864$.
- The 14 most significant bits of $\mathrm{r}_{0}$ yields the value $h(k)=67$.


## Universal hashing

- The worst case scenario is when $n$ keys all hash to the same slot. This requires a $\Theta(\mathrm{n})$ retrieval time. Any fixed hash function is vulnerable to the possibility of the worst case. The only effective counter measure is $t$ choose the hash function randomly in a way that is independent of the keys that are actually going to be stored. This method, known as universal hashing yields good performance on average.
- Let $\mathbf{H}$ be a finite collection of hash functions so that
- For every $\mathrm{h} \in \mathbf{H}$, we have $\mathrm{h}: \mathrm{U} \rightarrow\{0,1, \ldots, \mathrm{~m}-1\}$
- This collection $\mathbf{H}$ is universal
- If for each pair of distinct keys $x, y \in U$, the number of hash functions $\mathrm{h} \in \mathbf{H}$ where $\mathrm{h}(\mathrm{x})=\mathrm{h}(\mathrm{y})$ is $\mid \mathrm{H} / \mathrm{m}$
- We interpret this to mean that:
- Given hash function $\mathrm{h} \in \mathbf{H}$ chosen randomly
- The probability of a collision between $x$ and $y$ when $x \neq y$ is $1 / \mathrm{m}$
- This is exactly the probability of a collision of $\mathrm{h}(\mathrm{x})$ and $h(y)$ are randomly chosen from $\{0,1, \ldots, m-1\}$

[^0]- Two approaches
- Separate chaining
- m much smaller than n
- $\sim \mathrm{n} / \mathrm{m}$ keys per table position
- Put keys that collide in a list
- Need to search lists
- Open addressing (linear probing, double hashing)
- m much larger than $n$
- Plenty of empty table slots
- When a new key collides, find an empty slot
- Complex collision patterns
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To perform insertion using open addressing we probe the hash table to find an empty slot in which to put the key. Instead of being fixed in the order $0,1, \ldots, m-1$ (requiring $\Theta(n)$ time), the sequence of positions is probed depending upon the key being inserted.


- Advantages:
- Do not use pointers, which speed up addressing schemes,
frees up space
- Faster retrieval times
- Reduces the number of collisions
- May store a larger table with more slots for the same memory
- Compute the sequence of slots to be examined
- Extend the hash function to also include the probe number (starting from 0 ) as a second input.
- h: $U^{*}\{0,1, \ldots, \mathrm{~m}-1\} \rightarrow\{0,1, \ldots, \mathrm{~m}-1\}$
- For open addressing, we require that for every key k , the probe sequence
$\langle h(k, 0), h(k, 1), \ldots, h(k, m-1)>$ be a permutation of $\langle 0,1, \ldots, m-1\rangle$, so that every hash-table position is eventually considered as a slot for a new key as the table fills up.
- Assume that the elements in the hash table T are keys with no satellite information; the key $k$ is identical to the element containing key $k$. Each slot contains either a key or NIL (if slot is empty).
hash_insert(T, k)
i $:=0$
repeat $j:=h(k, i)$
if $\mathrm{T}[\mathrm{j}]=\mathrm{NIL}$
then $T[j]:=k$
else i := i+1
until $i=m$
error "hash table overflow"
- The algorithm for searching for key $k$ probes the same sequence of slots that the insertion algorithm examined when key $k$ was inserted. Therefore, the search can terminate (unsuccessfully) when it finds an empty slot, since $k$ would have been inserted there and not later in its probe sequence. (this argument assumes that keys are not deleted from the hash table.) The procedure hash_search takes as input a hash table T and a key $k$, returning $j$ if slot $j$ is found to contain key $k$, or NIL of key $k$ is not present in table T.
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## deletion

- Deletion from an open-address hash table is difficult. When we delete a key from slot $i$, we cannot simply mark that slot as empty by storing NIL in it. Doing so might make it impossible to retrieve any key $k$ during whose insertion we had probed slot $i$ and found it occupied.
- Solution: mark the slot by storing in it the special value DELETED instead of NIL.
$\rightarrow$ modify the procedure hash_insert to treat such a slot as empty so that a new key can be inserted.
No modification of hash_search is needed, since it will pass over DELETED values while searching.
- When special value is used, search times no longer dependent on the load factor $\alpha$, and for this reason chaining is more commonly selected as a collision resolution technique when keys must be deleted.


## Open Addressing

## Open Addressing

- Assume: uniform hashing instead of simple uniform hashing.
- The hash function in uniform hashing produces a hash sequence
- Each key is equally likely to have any of $m$ ! permutations of $\{0,1, \ldots, m-1\}$ as its probe sequence
- Deletion is difficult and a modification to hash_search is necessary to continue to search if a slot is marked deleted instead of NIL.
- Chaining may be needed

- Four techniques for computing probe sequences for open addressing

1. Sequential probing: $h, h+1, h+2, h+3, \ldots$
2. Linear probing : $\mathrm{h}, \mathrm{h}+\mathrm{k}, \mathrm{h}+2 \mathrm{k}, \mathrm{h}+3 \mathrm{k}, \ldots$
3. Quadratic probing: $h, h+1^{2}, h+2^{2}, h+3^{2}, \ldots$
4. Double hashing: $\mathrm{h}(\mathrm{k}, \mathrm{i})=\left(\mathrm{h}_{1}(\mathrm{k})+\mathrm{ih}_{2}(\mathrm{k})\right) \bmod \mathrm{m}$ , where $h_{1}$ and $h_{2}$ are auxiliary hash functions.

- All generate $<\mathrm{h}(\mathrm{k}, 0), \mathrm{h}(\mathrm{k}, 1), \ldots, \mathrm{h}(\mathrm{k}, \mathrm{m}-1)>$ as a permutation of $, 0,1, \ldots, m-1>$
- None can generate more than m 2 different probe sequences as uniform hashing requires $m$ ! different probe sequences (permutations)
- Double hashing has the greatest number and may give the best results


## Analysis of Open Addressing

- Theorem: given an open-address hash table with load factor $\alpha=\mathrm{n} / \mathrm{m}<1$, the expected number of probes in an unsuccessful search is at most

$$
\frac{1}{1-\alpha}
$$

assuming uniform hashing

- Corollary: Inserting an element into an open-address hash table with load factor $\alpha$ requires at most

$$
\frac{1}{1-\alpha}
$$

probes on average, assuming uniform hashing

- Theorem: Given an open-address hash table with load factor $\alpha<1$, the expected number of probes in a successful search is at most

$$
\frac{1}{\alpha} \ln \frac{1}{1-\alpha} \frac{1}{\alpha}
$$

assuming uniform hashing and assuming that each key in the table is equally likely to be searched for.

- If the hash table is half full, then the expected number of probes is less than 3.38629. If it is ninety percent full, we have less than 3.66954 probes.


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