## Hashing

## Hash Tables

- We'll discuss the hash table ADT which supports only a subset of the operations allowed by binary search trees.
- The implementation of hash tables is called hashing.
- Hashing is a technique used for performing insertions, deletions and finds in constant average time (i.e. $\mathrm{O}(1)$ )
- This data structure, however, is not efficient in operations that require any ordering information among the elements, such as findMin, findMax and printing the entire table in sorted order.


## General Idea

- The ideal hash table structure is merely an array of some fixed size, containing the items.
- A stored item needs to have a data member, called key, that will be used in computing the index value for the item.
- Key could be an integer, a string, etc
- e.g. a name or Id that is a part of a large employee structure
- The size of the array is TableSize.
- The items that are stored in the hash table are indexed by values from 0 to TableSize - 1 .
- Each key is mapped into some number in the range 0 to TableSize - 1 .
- The mapping is called a hash function.


## Example



Hash
Table



## Hash Function

- The hash function:
- must be simple to compute.
- must distribute the keys evenly among the cells.
- If we know which keys will occur in advance we can write perfect hash functions, but we don't.


## Hash function

## Problems:

- Keys may not be numeric.
- Number of possible keys is much larger than the space available in table.
- Different keys may map into same location
- Hash function is not one-to-one => collision.
- If there are too many collisions, the performance of the hash table will suffer dramatically.


## Hash Functions

- If the input keys are integers then simply Key mod TableSize is a general strategy.
- Unless key happens to have some undesirable properties. (e.g. all keys end in 0 and we use $\bmod 10)$
- If the keys are strings, hash function needs more care.
- First convert it into a numeric value.


## Some methods

- Truncation:
- e.g. 123456789 map to a table of 1000 addresses by picking 3 digits of the key.
- Folding:
- e.g. 123|456|789: add them and take mod.
- Key $\bmod \mathbf{N}$ :
- N is the size of the table, better if it is prime.
- Squaring:
- Square the key and then truncate
- Radix conversion:
- e.g. 1234 treat it to be base 11, truncate if necessary.


## Hash Function 1

- Add up the ASCII values of all characters of the key.

```
int hash(const string &key, int tableSize)
{
    int hasVal = 0;
    for (int i = 0; i < key.length(); i++)
        hashVal += key[i];
    return hashVal % tableSize;
}
```

- Simple to implement and fast.
- However, if the table size is large, the function does not distribute the keys well.
- e.g. Table size $=10000$, key length $<=8$, the hash function can assume values only between 0 and 1016


## Hash Function 2

- Examine only the first 3 characters of the key.

```
int hash (const string &key, int tableSize)
{
    return (key[0]+27 * key[1] + 729*key[2]) % tableSize;
}
```

- In theory, $\mathbf{2 6} * \mathbf{2 6} * \mathbf{2 6}=\mathbf{1 7 5 7 6}$ different words can be generated. However, English is not random, only 2851 different combinations are possible.
- Thus, this function although easily computable, is also not appropriate if the hash table is reasonably large.


## Hash Function 3

```
    KeySize-1
    hash(key)= 期 Key[KeySize-i-1].37 i
int hash (const string &key, int tableSize)
    int hashVal = 0;
    for (int i = 0; i < key.length(); i++)
        hashVal = 37 * hashVal + key[i];
    hashVal %=tableSize;
    if (hashVal < 0) /* in case overflows occurs */
        hashVal += tableSize;
    return hashVal;
};
```


## Hash function for strings:

$$
\stackrel{98}{9} \stackrel{108}{\uparrow} \stackrel{105}{\uparrow} \longrightarrow \mathrm{key}[\mathrm{i}]
$$



KeySize = 3;
hash("ali") $=\left(105 * 1+108 * 37+98 * 37^{2}\right) \% 10,007=8172$


## Collision Resolution

- If, when an element is inserted, it hashes to the same value as an already inserted element, then we have a collision and need to resolve it.
- There are several methods for dealing with this:
- Separate chaining
- Open addressing
- Linear Probing
- Quadratic Probing
- Double Hashing


## Separate Chaining

- The idea is to keep a list of all elements that hash to the same value.
- The array elements are pointers to the first nodes of the lists.
- A new item is inserted to the front of the list.
- Advantages:
- Better space utilization for large items.
- Simple collision handling: searching linked list.
- Overflow: we can store more items than the hash table size.
- Deletion is quick and easy: deletion from the linked list.


## Example

Keys: 0, 1, 4, 9, 16, 25, 36, 49, 64, 81

$$
\text { hash(key) = key \% } 10 .
$$



## Operations

- Initialization: all entries are set to NULL
- Find:
- locate the cell using hash function.
- sequential search on the linked list in that cell.
- Insertion:
- Locate the cell using hash function.
- (If the item does not exist) insert it as the first item in the list.
- Deletion:
- Locate the cell using hash function.
- Delete the item from the linked list.


## Analysis of Separate Chaining

- Collisions are very likely.
- How likely and what is the average length of lists?
- Load factor $\lambda$ definition:
- Ratio of number of elements (N) in a hash table to the hash TableSize.
- i.e. $\lambda=N /$ TableSize
- The average length of a list is also $\lambda$.
- For chaining $\lambda$ is not bound by 1 ; it can be $>1$.


## Cost of searching

- $\boldsymbol{C o s t}=$ Constant time to evaluate the hash function + time to traverse the list.
- Unsuccessful search:
- We have to traverse the entire list, so we need to compare $\lambda$ nodes on the average.
- Successful search:
- List contains the one node that stores the searched item +0 or more other nodes.
- Expected \# of other nodes $=x=(N-1) / \mathrm{M}$ which is essentially $\lambda$, since M is presumed large.
- On the average, we need to check half of the other nodes while searching for a certain element
- Thus average search cost $=1+\lambda / 2$


## Summary

- The analysis shows us that the table size is not really important, but the load factor is.
- TableSize should be as large as the number of expected elements in the hash table.
- To keep load factor around 1.
- TableSize should be prime for even distribution of keys to hash table cells.


# Hashing: Open Addressing 

## Collision Resolution with Open Addressing

- Separate chaining has the disadvantage of using linked lists.
- Requires the implementation of a second data structure.
- In an open addressing hashing system, all the data go inside the table.
- Thus, a bigger table is needed.
- Generally the load factor should be below 0.5.
- If a collision occurs, alternative cells are tried until an empty cell is found.


## Open Addressing

- More formally:
- Cells $h_{0}(x), h_{l}(x), h_{2}(x), \ldots$ are tried in succession where $h_{i}(x)=(\operatorname{hash}(x)+f(i)) \bmod$ TableSize, with $f(0)=0$.
- The function $f$ is the collision resolution strategy.
- There are three common collision resolution strategies:
- Linear Probing
- Quadratic probing
- Double hashing


## Linear Probing

- In linear probing, collisions are resolved by sequentially scanning an array (with wraparound) until an empty cell is found.
- i.e. $f$ is a linear function of $i$, typically $f(i)=i$.
- Example:
- Insert items with keys: $89,18,49,58,9$ into an empty hash table.
- Table size is 10 .
- Hash function is hash $(\mathrm{x})=\mathrm{x} \bmod 10$.

$$
\text { - } f(i)=i \text {; }
$$

Figure 20.4
Linear probing hash table after each insertion
hash $(89,10)=9$
hash $(18,10)=8$
hash $(49,10)=9$
hash $(58,10)=8$
hash $(9,10)=9$
After insert 89 After insert 18 After insert 49 After insert 58 After insert 9


| 49 |
| :--- |
| 58 |
|  |
|  |
|  |
| 18 |
| 89 |


| 49 |
| :---: |
| 58 |
| 9 |
|  |
|  |
|  |
| 18 |
| 89 |

## Find and Delete

- The find algorithm follows the same probe sequence as the insert algorithm.
- A find for 58 would involve 4 probes.
- A find for 19 would involve 5 probes.
- We must use lazy deletion (i.e. marking items as deleted)
- Standard deletion (i.e. physically removing the item) cannot be performed.
- e.g. remove 89 from hash table.


## Clustering Problem

- As long as table is big enough, a free cell can always be found, but the time to do so can get quite large.
- Worse, even if the table is relatively empty, blocks of occupied cells start forming.
- This effect is known as primary clustering.
- Any key that hashes into the cluster will require several attempts to resolve the collision, and then it will add to the cluster.


## Analysis of insertion

- The average number of cells that are examined in an insertion using linear probing is roughly

$$
\left(1+1 /(1-\lambda)^{2}\right) / 2
$$

- Proof is beyond the scope of text book.
- For a half full table we obtain 2.5 as the average number of cells examined during an insertion.
- Primary clustering is a problem at high load factors. For half empty tables the effect is not disastrous.


## Analysis of Find

- An unsuccessful search costs the same as insertion.
- The cost of a successful search of $X$ is equal to the cost of inserting X at the time X was inserted.
- For $\lambda=0.5$ the average cost of insertion is 2.5 . The average cost of finding the newly inserted item will be 2.5 no matter how many insertions follow.
- Thus the average cost of a successful search is an average of the insertion costs over all smaller load factors.


## Average cost of find

- The average number of cells that are examined in an unsuccessful search using linear probing is roughly $\left(1+1 /(1-\lambda)^{2}\right) / 2$.
- The average number of cells that are examined in a successful search is approximately $(1+1 /(1-\lambda)) / 2$.
- Derived from:

$$
\frac{1}{\lambda} \int_{\mathrm{x}=0}^{\lambda} \frac{1}{2}\left(1+\frac{1}{(1-x)^{2}}\right) d x
$$

## Linear Probing - Analysis -- Example

- What is the average number of probes for a successful search and an unsuccessful search for this hash table?
- Hash Function: $\mathrm{h}(\mathrm{x})=\mathrm{x} \bmod 11$


## Successful Search:

- 20: 9 -- 30: 8 -- $2: 2$-- 13:2,3 -- 25: 3,4
- 24: 2,3,4,5 -- 10: 10 -- 9: 9,10, 0

Avg. Probe for $S S=(1+1+1+2+2+4+1+3) / 8=15 / 8$

## Unsuccessful Search:

- We assume that the hash function uniformly distributes the keys.
- 0:0,1 -- 1: 1 -- 2: 2,3,4,5,6 -- 3: 3,4,5,6
- 4:4,5,6 -- 5:5,6 -- 6:6 -- 7:7 -- 8: 8,9,10,0,1
- 9: 9,10,0,1 -- 10: 10,0,1

Avg. Probe for US $=$

$$
(2+1+5+4+3+2+1+1+5+4+3) / 11=31 / 11
$$

| 0 | 9 |
| :---: | :---: |
| 1 |  |
| 2 | 2 |
| 3 | 13 |
| 4 | 25 |
| 5 | 24 |
| 6 |  |
| 7 |  |
| 8 | 30 |
| 9 | 20 |
| 10 | 10 |

## Quadratic Probing

- Quadratic Probing eliminates primary clustering problem of linear probing.
- Collision function is quadratic.
- The popular choice is $f(i)=i^{2}$.
- If the hash function evaluates to h and a search in cell h is inconclusive, we try cells $\mathrm{h}+1^{2}, \mathrm{~h}+2^{2}, \ldots$ $h+i^{2}$.
- i.e. It examines cells 1,4,9 and so on away from the original probe.
- Remember that subsequent probe points are a quadratic number of positions from the original probe point.


## Figure 20.6

A quadratic probing hash table after each insertion (note that the table size was poorly chosen because it is not a prime number).


| 49 |
| :---: |
|  |
| 58 |
|  |
|  |
| 18 |
| 89 |

After insert 9
After insert 89 After insert 18 After insert 49 After insert 58

| 49 |
| :---: |
|  |
| 58 |
| 9 |
|  |
|  |
| 18 |
| 89 |

## Quadratic Probing

- Problem:
- We may not be sure that we will probe all locations in the table (i.e. there is no guarantee to find an empty cell if table is more than half full.)
- If the hash table size is not prime this problem will be much severe.
- However, there is a theorem stating that:
- If the table size is prime and load factor is not larger than 0.5 , all probes will be to different locations and an item can always be inserted.


## Theorem

- If quadratic probing is used, and the table size is prime, then a new element can always be inserted if the table is at least half empty.


## Some considerations

- How efficient is calculating the quadratic probes?
- Linear probing is easily implemented. Quadratic probing appears to require * and \% operations.
- However by the use of the following trick, this is overcome:
- $\mathrm{H}_{\mathrm{i}}=\mathrm{H}_{\mathrm{i}-1}+2 \mathrm{i}-1(\bmod M)$


## Some Considerations

- What happens if load factor gets too high?
- Dynamically expand the table as soon as the load factor reaches 0.5 , which is called rehashing.
- Always double to a prime number.
- When expanding the hash table, reinsert the new table by using the new hash function.


## Analysis of Quadratic Probing

- Quadratic probing has not yet been mathematically analyzed.
- Although quadratic probing eliminates primary clustering, elements that hash to the same location will probe the same alternative cells. This is know as secondary clustering.
- Techniques that eliminate secondary clustering are available.
- the most popular is double hashing.


## Double Hashing

- A second hash function is used to drive the collision resolution.
$-f(i)=i * \operatorname{hash}_{2}(x)$
- We apply a second hash function to x and probe at a distance $\operatorname{hash}_{2}(x), 2 * \operatorname{hash}_{2}(x), \ldots$ and so on.
- The function $\operatorname{hash}_{2}(x)$ must never evaluate to zero.
- e.g. Let $\operatorname{hash}_{2}(x)=x \bmod 9$ and try to insert 99 in the previous example.
- A function such as $\operatorname{hash}_{2}(x)=R-(x \bmod R)$ with R a prime smaller than TableSize will work well.
- e.g. try $\mathrm{R}=7$ for the previous example. $(7-\mathrm{x}$ mode 7 )


## The relative efficiency of four collision-resolution methods




## Hashing Applications

- Compilers use hash tables to implement the symbol table (a data structure to keep track of declared variables).
- Game programs use hash tables to keep track of positions it has encountered (transposition table)
- Online spelling checkers.


## Summary

- Hash tables can be used to implement the insert and find operations in constant average time.
- it depends on the load factor not on the number of items in the table.
- It is important to have a prime TableSize and a correct choice of load factor and hash function.
- For separate chaining the load factor should be close to 1 .
- For open addressing load factor should not exceed 0.5 unless this is completely unavoidable.
- Rehashing can be implemented to grow (or shrink) the table.

