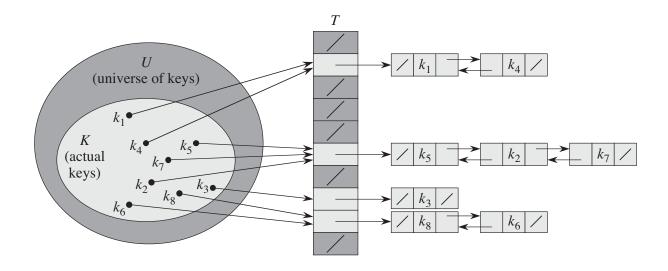
Data Structures and Algorithm Analysis (CSC317)

Hash tables (part2)

Hash table

- We have elements with key and satellite data
- Operations performed: Insert, Delete, Search/lookup
- We don't maintain order information
- We'll see that all operations on average O(1)
- But worse case can be O(n)

Review: Collision resolution by chaining



• Worst case: all n elements map to one slot (one big linked list...).

O(n)

Average case: Define:

m = number of slots

n = number elements (keys) in hash table

What was n in previous diagram? (answer: 8)

alpha = load factor: $\alpha = \frac{n}{m}$

Intuitively, alpha is average number elements per linked list.

Define:

- Unsuccessful search: new key searched for doesn't exist in hash table (we are searching for a new friend, Sarah, who is not yet in hash table)
- Successful search: key we are searching for already exists in hash table (we are searching for Tom, who we have already stored in hash table)

Theorem:

 Assuming simple uniform hashing, search takes on average O(alpha + 1)
 Here the actual search time is O(alpha) and the added 1 is the constant time to compute a hash function on the key that is being searched

Note: we'll prove for unsuccessful search, but successful search cannot be worse.

Theorem interpretation:

- n=m $\Theta(1+1) = \Theta(1)$
- n=2m $\Theta(2+1) = \Theta(1)$
- n= m^3 $\Theta(m^2+1) \neq \Theta(1)$
- Summary: we say constant time on average when n and m similar order, but not generally guaranteed

Theorem:

 Intuitively: Search for key k, hash function will map onto slot h(k). We need to search through linked list in the slot mapped to, up until the end of the list (because key is not found = unsuccessful search). For n=2m, on average linked list is length 2. More generally, on average length is alpha, our load factor.

Proof with indicator random variables:

 Consider keys j in hash table (n of them), and key k not in hash table that we are searching for. For each j:

$$X_j = {1 \atop 0} {\text{if key x hashes to same slot as key j} \atop 0 \text{ otherwise}}$$

Proof with indicator random variables:

 Consider keys j in hash table (n of them), and key k not in hash table that we are searching for. For each j:

$$X_j = {1 \text{ if } h(x) = h(j) \text{ (same as before, just as equation)} \atop 0 \text{ otherwise}}$$

Proof with indicator random variables:

As with indicator (binary) random variables:

$$E[X_j] = 1 \Pr(X_j = 1) + 0 \Pr(X_j = 0) = P \operatorname{r}(X_j = 1)$$

By our definition of the random variable:

$$= \Pr(h(x) = h(j))$$

Since we assume simple uniform hashing:

$$=\frac{1}{m}$$

Proof with indicator random variables:

• We want to consider key x with regards to every possible key j in hash table:

$$E[\sum_{j=1}^{n} X_{j}] =$$

Linearity of expectations:

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{n} E[X_j] = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \frac{1}{m} = \frac{n}{m} = \alpha$$

 We've proved that average search time is O(alpha) for unsuccessful search and uniform hashing. It is O(alpha+1) if we also count the constant time of mapping a hash function for a key

Theorem:

- Assuming simple uniform hashing, successful search takes on average O(alpha + 1)
 Here the actual search time is O(alpha)
 and the added 1 is the constant time to compute a hash function on the key that is being searched
- Intuitively, successful search should take less than unsuccessful. Proof in book with indicator random variables; more involved than before; we won't prove here.

What makes a good hash function?

- Simple uniform hashing: Each key equally likely to hash to each of m slots (1/m probability)
- Could be hard in practice: we don't always know the distributions of keys we will encounter and want to store – could be biased
- We would like to choose hash functions that do a good job in practice at distributing keys evenly

Example 1 for potential bias

Key = phone number

Key1 = 305 6215985 Key2 = 305 7621088Key3 = 786 7447721

- Bad hash function: First three digits of phone number (eg, what if all friends in Miami, and in any case likely to have patterns of regularity)
- Better although could still have patterns: last 3 digits of phone number

Example 2 for potential bias

- Hash function: h(k) = k mod 100 with k the key
- Keys happen to be all even numbers
- Key1 = 1986
 Key1 mod 100 = 86
 Key2 = 2014
 key2 mod 100 = 14
- Pattern: keys all map to even values.
 All odd slots of hash table unused!

How do we determine the hash function?

We'll discuss:

• Division method – simple, fast, implementation

Division method

- h(k) = k mod mm = number of slotsk = key
- Example: m=20; k=91
 h(k) = k mod m = 11

Division method: pros

- Any key will indeed map to one of m slots
 (as we want from a hash function, mapping a key to one of m slots)
- Fast and simple

Division method: cons and important to pay attention to...

 Need to avoid certain values of m to avoid bias (as in the even number example)

Good to do:

Often chosen in practice: m that is a prime number and not too close to base of 2 or 10

Resolution to collisions

- We discussed resolution by chaining
- Another approach: open addressing

Open addressing hash tables

- Only one object per slot allowed
- As a result: $\alpha = \frac{n}{m} \le 1$ $(n \le m)$

(as before alpha is load factor, n number keys in Table, and m number slots)

- No pointers or linked list
- Good approach if space is important
- Deleting keys turns out more tricky than chaining

Open addressing

Only one object per slot allowed

• As a result:
$$\alpha = \frac{n}{m} \le 1$$

 $(n \le m)$

(as before alpha is load factor, n number keys in Table, and m number slots)

Main approach: If collision, keep probing hash table until empty slot is found. Hash function is now a sequence...

Open addressing

We'll discuss two types:

- Linear probing
- Double hashing (next class)

When inserting into hash table (also when searching)-

 If hash function results in collision, try the next available slot; if that results in collision try the next slot after that, and so on (if slot 3 is full, try slot 4, then slot 5, then slot 6, and so on)

More formally:

- h(k,0) hash function for key k and first probe (= first time try to put in table)
- h(k,1) hash function for key k and second probe (= second time try to put in table)
- h(k,2) hash function for key k and 3rd probe (= third time try to put in table)

More formally: $h(k,i) = (h(k) + i) \mod m$

h(k) is a regular hash function, like before

i indicates number slots to skip for probe i (e.g., attempt to insert in the i time)

mod m is to make sure it is mapped overall to one of m slots in the hash table

Example:
$$h(k,i) = (h(k)+i) \mod m$$

$$h(k) = k \mod 7$$

- Insert keys 2; 6; 9; 16
- On the board ...

(keys 9 and 16 should result in collision and choosing next available slots)

- Pro: easy to implement
- Con: can result in primary clustering keys can cluster by taking adjacent slots in hash table, since each time searching for next available slot when there is collision
 - = longer search time

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What to do? Make offset determined by another key function – double hashing!

Analysis open addressing

Theorem: assuming uniform hashing (each probe sequence equally likely) and load factor $\alpha = \frac{n}{m} < 1$ the expected number of probes of an unsuccessful search is $\frac{1}{1-\alpha}$

Analysis open addressing

Example: $\alpha = .5$

- Table is half full
- Two probes on average:

$$\frac{1}{1-\alpha} = \frac{1}{1-.5} = 2$$

Analysis open addressing

Example: $\alpha = .9$

Ten probes on average:

$$\frac{1}{1-\alpha} = \frac{1}{1-.9} = 10$$

- Average number probes increases as alpha increases
- What happens when alpha close to 1?

(we won't formally prove, but provide the main intuitions)

Probability that first probe leads to a slot in the hash table that is occupied:

Prob(first probe slot occupied) $\frac{n}{m} = \alpha$

Probability that first and second probes lead to a slot in the hash table that is occupied:

Prob(first and second probe occupied)

$$\frac{n}{m} \frac{n-1}{m-1}$$

(because from first probe one slot is surely occupied, so m-1 slots left with n-1 keys)

Probability that first and second probes lead to a slot in the hash table that is occupied:

Prob(first and second probe occupied)

$$\frac{n}{m}\frac{n-1}{m-1} < \alpha^2$$

Putting this together, expected number of probes:

- We always make the first probe:
- Prob first probe in occupied slot: $\frac{n}{m} = \alpha$
- Prob first and second probe in occupied slot:

$$\frac{n}{m}\frac{n-1}{m-1} < \alpha^2$$

Putting this together, expected number of probes:

- We always make the first probe: 1
- Prob first probe in occupied slot: $\frac{n}{m} = \alpha$
- Prob first and second probe in occupied slot:

$$\frac{n}{m}\frac{n-1}{m-1} < \alpha^2$$

Putting this together, expected number of probes bounded above by:

$$1+\alpha^2+\alpha^3+...$$

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Putting this together, expected number of probes bounded above by:

$$1+\alpha^2+\alpha^3+...$$

alpha smaller than one and bounded above by infinite geometric series...

$$1 + \alpha^2 + \alpha^3 + \dots = \frac{1}{1 - \alpha}$$

Analysis open addressing

Successful search: more involved, but can't be worse than unsuccessful search

(we won't analyze)

Analysis open addressing

Does $\frac{1}{1-\alpha}$ expected number probes always hold

In practice?

Answer: No.

Depends on open addressing approach and whether uniform hashing assumption is achieved.

Double hashing is in practice better than linear probing.

Universal hashing

- Not for assignments/quiz
- If adversary learns hash function, then can exploit the system by sending data that all map to same slot in hash table (slow down or halt a system)
- Solutions: (1) Cryptographic hash function that is very hard to decipher; (2) Randomly choose hash functions from a whole family of hash functions, so that adversary doesn't know which random function was chosen

Universal hashing

- There are practical ways of designing so-called universal hash functions, in a way that the keys spread evenly into the slots and average probes of $\frac{1}{1-\alpha}$ holds
- Example:

$$h(k) = [(ak + b) \bmod p] \bmod m$$

a, b are random; p prime number bigger than universe of keys