Data Structures and Algorithms

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Chapter 7

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Data Structures and Algorithms Week 7

- 1. Dictionaries
- 2. Hashing
- 3. Hash Functions
- 4. Collisions
- 5. Performance Analysis

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Dictionary

- *Dictionary* a dynamic data structure with methods:
 - Search(S, k) an access operation that returns a pointer x to an element where x.key = k
 - Insert(S, x) a manipulation operation that adds the element pointed to by x to S
 - **Delete(S, x)** a manipulation operation that removes the element pointed to by x from S
- An element has a *key* part and a *satellite data* part.

Dictionaries

- Dictionaries store elements so that they can be located quickly using **keys**.
- A dictionary may hold bank accounts.
 - Each account is an object that is identified by an account number.
 - Each account stores a lot of additional information.
 - An application wishing to operate on an account would have to provide the account number as a search key.

Dictionaries/2

- If order (methods such as *min, max, successor, predecessor*) is not required, it is enough to check for **equality**.
- Operations that require ordering are still possible, but cannot use the dictionary access structure.
 - Usually all elements must be compared, which is slow.
 - Can be OK if it is rare enough

Dictionaries/3

- Dictionaires can be realized by different data structures
 - arrays
 - linked lists
 - hash tables
 - binary trees
 - red/black trees
 - B-trees
- In Java:
 - java.util.Map interface defining Dictionary ADT

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The Problem

- XY Telecom, a large phone company, wants to provide a caller ID capability:
 - given a phone number, return the caller's name
 - phone numbers range from 0 to $r = 10^8 1$
 - do this as efficiently as possible

The Problem/2

- Two suboptimal ways to design this dictionary
 - direct addressing: an array indexed by key:
 - Requires O(1) time,
 - Requires O(r) space huge amount of wasted space

	(null)	(null)	Jens	(null)	(null)	
	0000-	0000-	9635-	9635-	9999-	
	0000	0001	8904	8905	9999	
_	a linked list: requires $O(n)$ time, $O(n)$ space					



Another Solution: Hashing

- We can do better, with a **Hash table** *of size m*.
- Like an array, but with a **function** to map the large range into one which we can manage.
 - e.g., take the original key, modulo the (relatively small) size of the table, and use that as an index
- Insert (9635-8904, Jens) into a hash table with, say, five slots (m = 5)
 - 96358904 mod 5 = 4

	(null)	(null)	(null)	(null)	Jens		
	0	1	2	3	4		
O(1) expected time, $O(n+m)$ space							

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Hash Functions

- Need to choose a good hash function (HF)
 - quick to compute
 - distributes keys uniformly throughout the table
- How to deal with hashing non-integer keys:
 - find some way of turning the keys into integers
 - in our example, remove the hyphen in 9635-8904 to get 96358904
 - for a string, add up the ASCII values of the characters of your string (e.g., java.lang.String.hashCode())
 - then use a standard hash function on the integers

HF: Division Method

- Use the remainder: $h(k) = k \mod m$
 - k is the key, m the size of the table
- Need to choose *m*
- $m = b^e$ (bad)
 - if *m* is a power of 2, h(k) gives the *e* least significant bits of *k*
 - all keys with the same ending go to the same place
- *m* prime **(good)**
 - helps ensure uniform distribution
 - primes not too close to exact powers of 2 are best

HF: Division Method/2

- Example 1
 - hash table for n = 2000 character strings, ok to investigate an average of three attempts/search
 - -m = 701
 - a prime near 2000/3
 - but not near any power of 2
- Further examples

$$-m = 13$$

•
$$h(3) = 3$$

•
$$h(12) = 12$$

•
$$h(13) = 0$$

HF: Multiplication Method

- Use $h(k) = \lfloor m (k A \mod 1) \rfloor$
 - k is the key
 - m the size of the table
 - -A is a constant 0 < A < 1
 - (k A mod 1): the fractional part of k A
- The steps involved
 - map $0...k_{max}$ into $0...k_{max}A$
 - take the fractional part (mod 1)
 - map it into 0...*m*-1

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HF: Multiplication Method/2

• Choice of *m* and *A*

- Value of *m* is not critical: typically, for some p use $m = 2^{p}$
- Optimal choice of *A* depends on the characteristics of the data

• Knuth says use
$$A = \frac{\sqrt{5} - 1}{2} = 0.618033988$$

HF: Multiplication Method/3

- Assume 7-bit binary keys, $0 \le k < 128$
- $m = 64 = 2^6$, p = 6
- A = 89/128 = .1011001, k = 107 = 1101011
- Computation of h(k):

.1011001 A 1101011 k 1001010.0110011 kA .0110011 kA mod 1 011001.1 m(kA mod 1)

• Thus, h(k) = 25

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Collisions

- Assume a key is mapped to an already occupied table location
 - what to do?
- Use a **collision handling** technique
- 3 techniques to deal with collisions:
 - chaining
 - open addressing/linear probing
 - open addressing/double hashing

Chaining

• **Chaining** maintains a table of links, indexed by the keys, to **lists** of items with the same key



Open Addressing

- All elements are stored in the hash table (can fill up), i.e., $n \le m$
- Each table entry contains either an element or null
- When searching for an element, systematically probe table slots
- Modify hash function to take probe number *i* as second parameter

h: U x { 0, 1, ..., m-1 } \rightarrow { 0, 1, ..., m-1 }

Open Addressing/2

- Hash function, *h*, determines the sequence of slots examined for a given key
- Probe sequence for a given key *k* given by
 (h(k,0), h(k,1), ..., h(k,m-1))

a permutation of (0, 1, ..., m-1)

Linear Probing

LinearProbingInsert(k)

01 if (table is full) error

```
02 probe = h(k)
```

```
03 while (table[probe] occupied)
```

```
04 probe = (probe+1) mod m
```

```
05 \text{ table[probe]} = k
```

- If the current location is used, try the next table location:
 h(key,i) = (h1(key)+i) mod m
- Lookups walk along the table until the key or an empty slot is found
- Uses less memory than chaining
 - one does not have to store all those links
- Slower than chaining
 - one might have to probe the table for a long time

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Linear Probing/2

- Problem "primary clustering": long lines of occupied slots
 - A slot preceded by i full slots has a high probability of getting filled: (i+1)/m
- Alternatives: (quadratic probing,) double hashing
- Example:
 - $-h(k) = k \bmod{13}$
 - insert keys: 18 41 22 44 59 32 31 73

Double Hashing

• Use two hash functions:

 $h(key,i) = (h1(key) + i*h2(key)) \bmod m, i=0,1,\dots$

DoubleHashingInsert(k)

- 01 **if** (table is full) error
- 02 probe = h1(k)

```
03 offset = h2(k)
```

```
03 while (table[probe] occupied)
```

```
04 probe = (probe + offset) mod m
```

```
05 table[probe] = k
```

• Distributes keys much more uniformly than linear probing.

Double Hashing/2

• *h*2(*k*) must be relative prime to *m* to search the entire hash table

- Suppose $h_2(k) = k^*a$ and $m = w^*a$, a > 1

- Two ways to ensure this:
 - m is power of 2, h2(k) is odd
 - *m*: prime, $h_2(k)$: positive integer < *m*
- Example
 - $-h_1(k) = k \mod 13, \ h_2(k) = 8 (k \mod 8)$
 - insert keys: 18 41 22 44 59 32 31 73

Open addressing: delete

- Complex to delete from
 - A slot may be reached from different points
 - We cannot simply store "NIL": we'd loose the information necessary to retrieve other keys
 - Possible solution: mark the deleted slot as "deleted", insert also on "deleted"
 - Drawback: retrieval time no more depending on load factor: potentially lots of "jumps" on "deleted" slots
- When deletion admitted/frequent, chaining preferred

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Analysis of Hashing:

- An element with key k is stored in slot h(k) (instead of slot k without hashing)
- The hash function *h* maps the universe *U* of keys into the slots of hash table *T*[0...*m*-1]
 h: U → {0, 1, ..., m-1}
- Assumption: Each key is equally likely to be hashed into any slot (bucket):
 simple uniform hashing
- Given hash table *T* with *m* slots holding *n* elements, the **load factor** is defined as α=n/m

Analysis of Hashing/2

- Assume time to compute h(k) is $\Theta(1)$
- To find an element
 - using h, look up its position in table T
 - search for the element in the linked list of the hashed slot
 - *uniform* hashing yields an average list length $\alpha = n/m$
 - expected number of elements to be examined $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$
 - search time $O(1+\alpha)$

Analysis of Hashing/3

Assuming the number of hash table slots is proportional to the number of elements in the table
 n = O(m)

$$\alpha = n/m = O(m)/m = O(1)$$

- searching takes constant time on average
- insertion takes O(1) worst-case time
- deletion takes O(1) worst-case time (pass the element not key, lists are doubly-linked)

Expected Number of Probes

- Load factor $\alpha < 1$ for probing
- Analysis of probing uses *uniform hashing* assumption – any permutation is equally likely

	Unsuccessful	Successful
Chaining	$O(1+\alpha)$	$O(1 + \alpha)$
Probing	$O(\frac{1}{1-\alpha})$	$O(\frac{1}{\alpha}\ln\frac{1}{1-\alpha})$

- Chaining: 1 (α =0%), 1.5 (α =50%), 2 (α =100%), n (α =n)
- Probing, unsucc: 1.25 (α =20%), 2 (α =50%), 5 (α =80%), 10 (α =90%)
- Probing, succ: 0.28 (α=20%), 1.39 (α=50%), 2.01 (α=80%), 2.56 (α=90%)

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Expected Number of Probes/2



Summary

- Hashing is very efficient (not obvious, probability theory).
- Its functionality is limited (printing elements sorted according to key is not supported).
- The size of the hash table may not be easy to determine.
- A hash table is not really a dynamic data structure.

Suggested exercises

- Implement a Hash Table with the different techniques
- With paper & pencil, draw the evolution of a hash table when inserting, deleting and searching for new element, with the different techniques
- See also exercises of CLRS

Next Part

- Graphs:
 - Representation in memory
 - Breadth-first search
 - Depth-first search
 - Topological sort