

# CS 240 – Data Structures and Data Management

## Module 7: Dictionaries via Hashing

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Based on lecture notes by many previous cs240 instructors

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Spring 2022

# Outline

- 7 Dictionaries via Hashing
  - Hashing Introduction
  - Hashing with Chaining
  - Probe Sequences
  - Cuckoo hashing
  - Hash Function Strategies

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# Direct Addressing

**Special situation:** For a known  $M \in \mathbb{N}$ , every key  $k$  is an integer with  $0 \leq k < M$ .

We can then implement a dictionary easily: Use an array  $A$  of size  $M$  that stores  $(k, v)$  via  $A[k] \leftarrow v$ .

0	
1	
2	dog
3	
4	
5	
6	cat
7	
8	pig

- *search*( $k$ ): Check whether  $A[k]$  is NIL
- *insert*( $k, v$ ):  $A[k] \leftarrow v$
- *delete*( $k$ ):  $A[k] \leftarrow \text{NIL}$

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*Bucket Sort*

# Hashing

Two disadvantages of direct addressing:

- It cannot be used if the keys are not integers.
- It wastes space if  $M$  is unknown or  $n \ll M$ .

**Hashing idea:** Map (arbitrary) keys to integers in range  $\{0, \dots, M-1\}$  and then use direct addressing.

Details:

- **Assumption:** We know that all keys come from some **universe**  $U$ . (Typically  $U =$  non-negative integers, sometimes  $|U|$  finite.)
- We design a **hash function**  $h : U \rightarrow \{0, 1, \dots, M-1\}$ . (Commonly used:  $h(k) = k \bmod M$ . We will see other choices later.)
- Store dictionary in **hash table**, i.e., an array  $T$  of size  $M$ .
- An item with key  $k$  should ideally be stored in **slot**  $h(k)$ , i.e., at  $T[h(k)]$ .

## Hashing example

$U = \mathbb{N}$ ,  $M = 11$ ,  $h(k) = k \bmod 11$ .

The hash table stores keys 7, 13, 43, 45, 49, 92. (Values are not shown).

0	
1	45
2	13
3	
4	92
5	49
6	
7	7
8	
9	
10	43

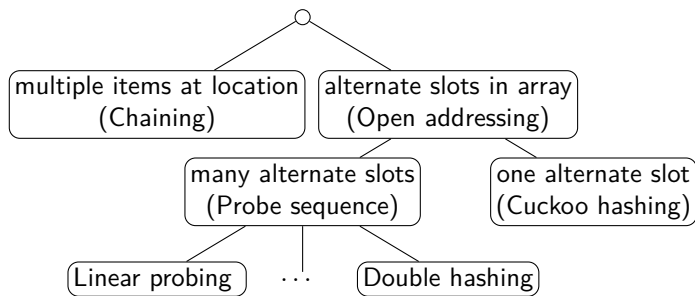


# Collisions

- Generally hash function  $h$  is not injective, so many keys can map to the same integer.
  - ▶ For example,  $h(46) = 2 = h(13)$  if  $h(k) = k \bmod 11$ .
- We get **collisions**: we want to insert  $(k, v)$  into the table, but  $T[h(k)]$  is already occupied.

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- We get **collisions**: we want to insert  $(k, v)$  into the table, but  $T[h(k)]$  is already occupied.
- There are many strategies to resolve collisions:



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# Hashing with Chaining

Simplest collision-resolution strategy: Each slot stores a **bucket** containing 0 or more KVPs.

- A bucket could be implemented by any dictionary realization (even another hash table!).
- The simplest approach is to use unsorted linked lists for buckets. This is called collision resolution by **chaining**.

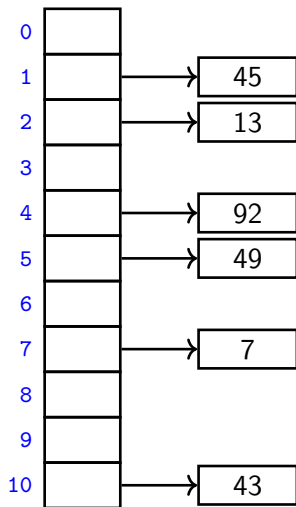
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- A bucket could be implemented by any dictionary realization (even another hash table!).
- The simplest approach is to use unsorted linked lists for buckets. This is called collision resolution by **chaining**.
- *search*( $k$ ): Look for key  $k$  in the list at  $T[h(k)]$ .  
Apply MTF-heuristic!
- *insert*( $k, v$ ): Add  $(k, v)$  to the front of the list at  $T[h(k)]$ .
- *delete*( $k$ ): Perform a search, then delete from the linked list.

## Chaining example

$$M = 11, \quad h(k) = k \bmod 11$$

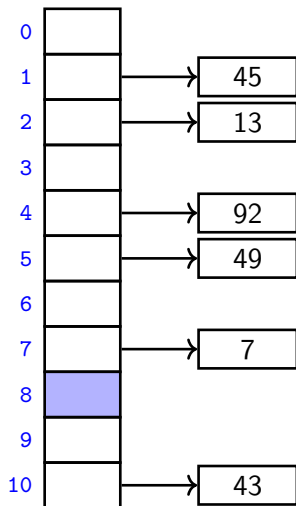


## Chaining example

$$M = 11, \quad h(k) = k \bmod 11$$

*insert*(41)

$$h(41) = 8$$

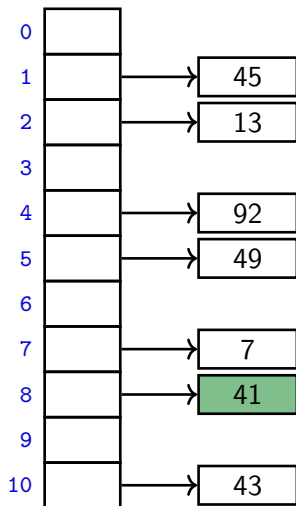


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$$M = 11, \quad h(k) = k \bmod 11$$

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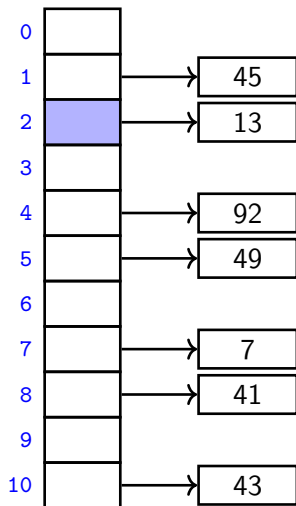
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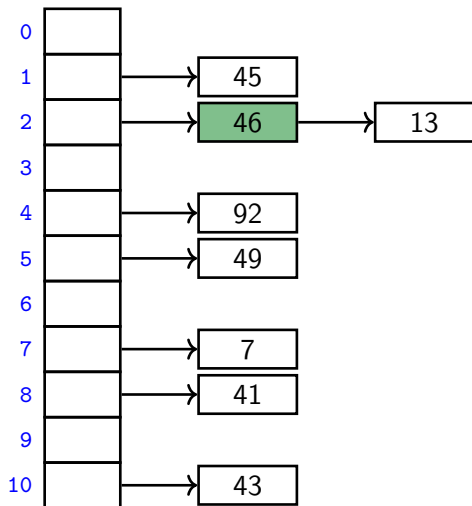
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*insert*(46)

$$h(46) = 2$$

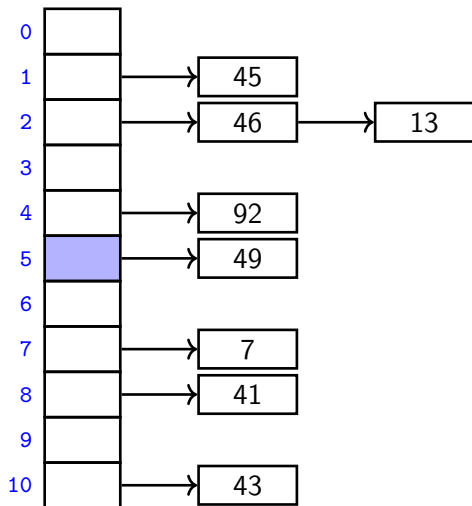


## Chaining example

$$M = 11, \quad h(k) = k \bmod 11$$

*insert*(16)

$$h(16) = 5$$

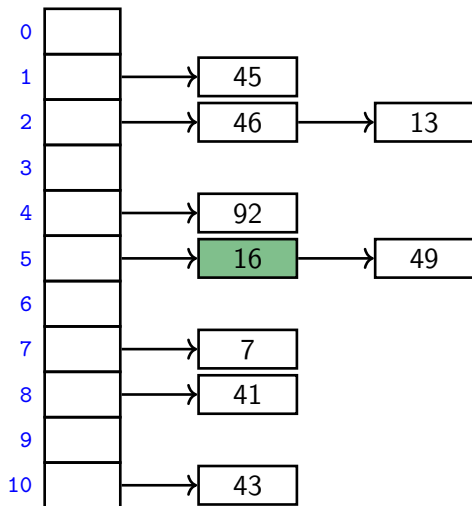


## Chaining example

$$M = 11, \quad h(k) = k \bmod 11$$

*insert*(16)

$$h(16) = 5$$

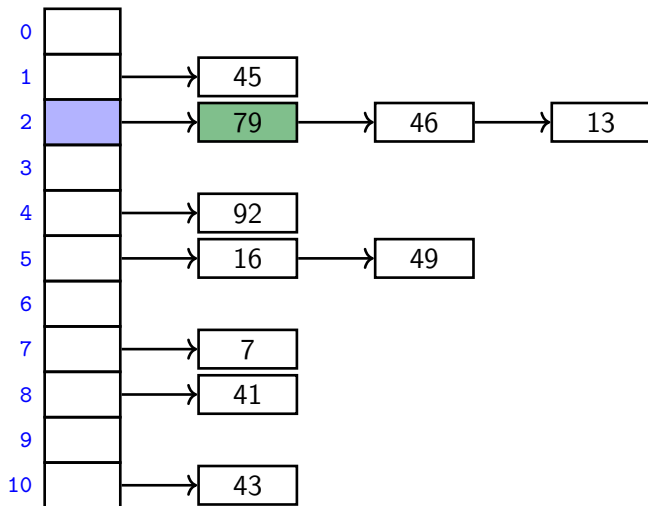


## Chaining example

$$M = 11, \quad h(k) = k \bmod 11$$

*insert*(79)

$$h(79) = 2$$



## Complexity of chaining

**Run-times:** *insert* takes time  $\Theta(1)$ .

*search* and *delete* have run-time  $\Theta(1 + \text{size of bucket } T[h(k)])$ .

- The *average* bucket-size is  $\frac{n}{M} =: \alpha$ .  
( $\alpha$  is also called the **load factor**.)
- However, this does not imply that the *average-case* cost of *search* and *delete* is  $\Theta(1 + \alpha)$ .  
(If all keys hash to the same slot, then the average bucket-size is still  $\alpha$ , but the operations take time  $\Theta(n)$  on average.)
- We need some assumptions on the hash-functions and the keys!

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- How can we randomize?

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Assume that the *hash-function* is chosen randomly.
- **Uniform Hashing Assumption**: Any possible hash-function is equally likely to be chosen as hash-function.  
(This is not at all realistic, but the assumption makes analysis possible.)



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(This is not at all realistic, but the assumption makes analysis possible.)
- Can show:
  - ▶  $P(h(k) = i) = \frac{1}{M}$  for any key  $k$  and slot  $i$ ,
  - ▶ Hash-values of any two keys are independent of each other.

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- Can show:
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  - ▶ Hash-values of any two keys are independent of each other.
- Under this assumption, each key in dictionary is expected to collide with  $\frac{n-1}{M}$  other keys and the expected cost of *search* and *delete* is hence  $\Theta(1 + \alpha)$ .

## Load factor and re-hashing

- For all collision resolution strategies, the run-time evaluation is done in terms of the *load factor*  $\alpha = n/M$ .
- We keep the load factor small by **rehashing** when needed:
  - ▶ Keep track of  $n$  and  $M$  throughout operations
  - ▶ If  $\alpha$  gets too large, create new (twice as big) hash-table, new hash-function(s) and re-insert all items in the new table.
- Rehashing costs  $\Theta(M + n)$  but happens rarely enough that we can ignore this term when amortizing over all operations.
- We should also re-hash when  $\alpha$  gets too small, so that  $M \in \Theta(n)$  throughout, and the space is always  $\Theta(n)$ .

**Summary:** If we maintain  $\alpha \in \Theta(1)$ , then (under the uniform hashing assumption) the expected cost for hashing with chaining is  $O(1)$  and the space is  $\Theta(n)$ .

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## Open addressing

**Main idea:** Avoid the links needed for chaining by permitting only one item per slot, but allowing a key  $k$  to be in multiple slots.

*search* and *insert* follow a **probe sequence** of possible locations for key  $k$ :  $\langle h(k, 0), h(k, 1), h(k, 2), \dots \rangle$  until an empty spot is found.

*delete* becomes problematic:

- Cannot leave an empty spot behind; the next search might otherwise not go far enough.
- Idea 1: Move later items in the probe sequence forward.
- Idea 2: **lazy deletion**: Mark spot as *deleted* (rather than NIL) and continue searching past deleted spots.

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Simplest method for open addressing: *linear probing*  
 $h(k, i) = (h(k) + i) \bmod M$ , for some hash function  $h$ .

## Linear probing example

$M = 11$ ,  $h(k) = k \bmod 11$ ,  $h(k, i) = (h(k) + i) \bmod 11$ .

0	
1	45
2	13
3	
4	92
5	49
6	
7	7
8	
9	
10	43

## Linear probing example

$$M = 11, \quad h(k) = k \bmod 11, \quad h(k, i) = (h(k) + i) \bmod 11.$$

*insert*(41)

$$h(41, 0) = 8$$

0	
1	45
2	13
3	
4	92
5	49
6	
7	7
8	41
9	
10	43



## Linear probing example

$$M = 11, \quad h(k) = k \bmod 11, \quad h(k, i) = (h(k) + i) \bmod 11.$$

*insert*(84)

$$h(84, 0) = 7$$

0	
1	45
2	13
3	
4	92
5	49
6	
7	7
8	41
9	
10	43

## Linear probing example

$$M = 11, \quad h(k) = k \bmod 11, \quad h(k, i) = (h(k) + i) \bmod 11.$$

*insert*(84)

$$h(84, 1) = 8$$

0	
1	45
2	13
3	
4	92
5	49
6	
7	7
8	41
9	
10	43

## Linear probing example

$$M = 11, \quad h(k) = k \bmod 11, \quad h(k, i) = (h(k) + i) \bmod 11.$$

*insert*(84)

$$h(84, 2) = 9$$

0	
1	45
2	13
3	
4	92
5	49
6	
7	7
8	41
9	84
10	43

## Linear probing example

$$M = 11, \quad h(k) = k \bmod 11, \quad h(k, i) = (h(k) + i) \bmod 11.$$

*insert*(20)

$$h(20, 0) = 9$$

0	
1	45
2	13
3	
4	92
5	49
6	
7	7
8	41
9	84
10	43

## Linear probing example

$$M = 11, \quad h(k) = k \bmod 11, \quad h(k, i) = (h(k) + i) \bmod 11.$$

*insert*(20)

$$h(20, 1) = 10$$

0	
1	45
2	13
3	
4	92
5	49
6	
7	7
8	41
9	84
10	43

## Linear probing example

$$M = 11, \quad h(k) = k \bmod 11, \quad h(k, i) = (h(k) + i) \bmod 11.$$

*insert*(20)

$$h(20, 2) = 0$$

0	20
1	45
2	13
3	
4	92
5	49
6	
7	7
8	41
9	84
10	43

## Linear probing example

$$M = 11, \quad h(k) = k \bmod 11, \quad h(k, i) = (h(k) + i) \bmod 11.$$

0	20
1	45
2	13
3	
4	92
5	49
6	
7	7
8	41
9	84
10	<i>deleted</i>

*delete*(43)

$$h(43, 0) = 10$$

## Linear probing example

$$M = 11, \quad h(k) = k \bmod 11, \quad h(k, i) = (h(k) + i) \bmod 11.$$

*search*(63)

$$h(63, 0) = 8$$

0	20
1	45
2	13
3	
4	92
5	49
6	
7	7
8	41
9	84
10	<i>deleted</i>



## Linear probing example

$$M = 11, \quad h(k) = k \bmod 11, \quad h(k, i) = (h(k) + i) \bmod 11.$$

*search*(63)

$$h(63, 1) = 9$$

0	20
1	45
2	13
3	
4	92
5	49
6	
7	7
8	41
9	84
10	<i>deleted</i>

## Linear probing example

$$M = 11, \quad h(k) = k \bmod 11, \quad h(k, i) = (h(k) + i) \bmod 11.$$

*search*(63)

$$h(63, 2) = 10$$

0	20
1	45
2	13
3	
4	92
5	49
6	
7	7
8	41
9	84
10	<i>deleted</i>

## Linear probing example

$$M = 11, \quad h(k) = k \bmod 11, \quad h(k, i) = (h(k) + i) \bmod 11.$$

*search*(63)

$$h(63, 3) = 0$$

0	20
1	45
2	13
3	
4	92
5	49
6	
7	7
8	41
9	84
10	<i>deleted</i>

## Linear probing example

$$M = 11, \quad h(k) = k \bmod 11, \quad h(k, i) = (h(k) + i) \bmod 11.$$

*search*(63)

$$h(63, 4) = 1$$

0	20
1	45
2	13
3	
4	92
5	49
6	
7	7
8	41
9	84
10	<i>deleted</i>

## Linear probing example

$$M = 11, \quad h(k) = k \bmod 11, \quad h(k, i) = (h(k) + i) \bmod 11.$$

*search*(63)

$$h(63, 5) = 2$$

0	20
1	45
2	13
3	
4	92
5	49
6	
7	7
8	41
9	84
10	<i>deleted</i>

## Linear probing example

$$M = 11, \quad h(k) = k \bmod 11, \quad h(k, i) = (h(k) + i) \bmod 11.$$

0	20
1	45
2	13
3	
4	92
5	49
6	
7	7
8	41
9	84
10	<i>deleted</i>

*search*(63)

$$h(63, 6) = 3$$

not found

## Probe sequence operations

*probe-sequence::insert*( $T, (k, v)$ )

1. **for** ( $j = 0; j < M; j++$ )
2.     **if**  $T[h(k, j)]$  is NIL or “deleted”
3.          $T[h(k, j)] = (k, v)$
4.     **return** “success”
5. **return** “failure to insert”     // need to re-hash

*probe-sequence-search*( $T, k$ )

1. **for** ( $j = 0; j < M; j++$ )
2.     **if**  $T[h(k, j)]$  is NIL
3.         **return** “item not found”
4.     **else if**  $T[h(k, j)]$  has key  $k$
5.         **return**  $T[h(k, j)]$
6.     // ignore “deleted” and keep searching
7. **return** “item not found”

# Independent hash functions

- Some hashing methods require *two* hash functions  $h_0, h_1$ .
- These hash functions should be *independent* in the sense that the random variables  $P(h_0(k) = i)$  and  $P(h_1(k) = j)$  are independent.
- Using two modular hash-functions may often lead to dependencies.



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- Using two modular hash-functions may often lead to dependencies.
- Better idea: Use *multiplication method* for second hash function:  
$$h(k) = \lfloor M(kA - \lfloor kA \rfloor) \rfloor,$$
  - ▶  $A$  is some floating-point number with  $0 < A < 1$
  - ▶  $kA - \lfloor kA \rfloor$  computes fractional part of  $kA$ , which is in  $[0, 1)$
  - ▶ Multiply with  $M$  to get floating-point number in  $[0, M)$
  - ▶ Round down to get integer in  $\{0, \dots, M - 1\}$

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  - ▶ Multiply with  $M$  to get floating-point number in  $[0, M)$
  - ▶ Round down to get integer in  $\{0, \dots, M - 1\}$
- Some observations/suggestions:
  - ▶ Multiplying with  $A$  is used to scramble the keys.
  - ▶ Good scrambling is achieved with  $A = \varphi = \frac{\sqrt{5}-1}{2} \approx 0.618033988749\dots$
  - ▶ We should use at least  $\log |U| + \log |M|$  bits of  $A$ .

# Double Hashing

- Assume we have two hash independent functions  $h_0, h_1$ .
- Assume further that  $h_1(k) \neq 0$  and that  $h_1(k)$  is relative prime with the table-size  $M$  for all keys  $k$ .
  - ▶ Choose  $M$  prime.
  - ▶ Modify standard hash-functions to ensure  $h_1(k) \neq 0$   
E.g. modified multiplication method:  $h(k) = 1 + \lfloor (M-1)(kA - \lfloor kA \rfloor) \rfloor$
- **Double hashing**: open addressing with probe sequence

$$h(k, i) = (h_0(k) + i \cdot h_1(k)) \bmod M$$

- *search, insert, delete* work just like for linear probing, but with this different probe sequence.

## Double hashing example

$$M = 11, \quad h_0(k) = k \bmod 11, \quad h_1(k) = \lfloor 10(\varphi k - \lfloor \varphi k \rfloor) \rfloor + 1$$

0	
1	45
2	13
3	
4	92
5	49
6	
7	7
8	
9	
10	43

## Double hashing example

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*insert*(41)

$$h_0(41) = 8$$

$$h(41, 0) = 8$$

0	
1	45
2	13
3	
4	92
5	49
6	
7	7
8	41
9	
10	43

## Double hashing example

$$M = 11, \quad h_0(k) = k \bmod 11, \quad h_1(k) = \lfloor 10(\varphi k - \lfloor \varphi k \rfloor) \rfloor + 1$$

*insert*(194)

$$h_0(194) = 7$$

$$h(194, 0) = 7$$

0	
1	45
2	13
3	
4	92
5	49
6	
7	7
8	41
9	
10	43

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*insert*(194)

$$h_0(194) = 7$$

$$h(194, 0) = 7$$

$$h_1(194) = 9$$

$$h(194, 1) = 5$$

0	
1	45
2	13
3	
4	92
5	49
6	
7	7
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9	
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*insert*(194)

$$h_0(194) = 7$$

$$h(194, 0) = 7$$

$$h_1(194) = 9$$

$$h(194, 1) = 5$$

$$h(194, 2) = 3$$

0	
1	45
2	13
3	194
4	92
5	49
6	
7	7
8	41
9	
10	43



# Outline

- 7 Dictionaries via Hashing
  - Hashing Introduction
  - Hashing with Chaining
  - Probe Sequences
  - Cuckoo hashing
  - Hash Function Strategies

# Cuckoo hashing

We use two independent hash functions  $h_0, h_1$  and two tables  $T_0, T_1$ .

**Main idea:** An item with key  $k$  can *only* be at  $T_0[h_0(k)]$  or  $T_1[h_1(k)]$ .

- *search* and *delete* then take constant time.
- *insert always* initially puts a new item into  $T_0[h_0(k)]$

If  $T_0[h_0(k)]$  is occupied: “kick out” the other item, which we then attempt to re-insert into its alternate position  $T_1[h_1(k)]$

This may lead to a loop of “kicking out”. We detect this by aborting after too many attempts.

In case of failure: rehash with a larger  $M$  and new hash functions.

*insert* may be slow, but is expected to be constant time if the load factor is small enough.

## Cuckoo hashing insertion

```
cuckoo::insert( $k, v$ )
1.    $i \leftarrow 0$ 
2.   do at most  $2n$  times:
3.       if  $T_i[h_i(k)]$  is NIL
4.            $T_i[h_i(k)] \leftarrow (k, v)$ 
5.           return "success"
6.       swap(( $k, v$ ),  $T_i[h_i(k)]$ )
7.        $i \leftarrow 1 - i$ 
8.   return "failure to insert"    // need to re-hash
```

After  $2n$  iterations, there definitely was a loop in the “kicking out” sequence (why?)

In practice, one would stop the iterations much earlier already.

## Cuckoo hashing example

$$M = 11,$$

$$h_0(k) = k \bmod 11,$$

$$h_1(k) = \lfloor 11(\varphi k - \lfloor \varphi k \rfloor) \rfloor$$

$T_0$

0	44
1	
2	
3	
4	59
5	
6	
7	
8	
9	
10	

$T_1$

0	
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	
7	
8	
9	92
10	

## Cuckoo hashing example

$$M = 11,$$

$$h_0(k) = k \bmod 11,$$

$$h_1(k) = \lfloor 11(\varphi k - \lfloor \varphi k \rfloor) \rfloor$$

*insert*(51)

$$i = 0$$
$$k = 51$$

$$h_0(k) = 7$$

$$h_1(k) = 5$$

$T_0$

0	44
1	
2	
3	
4	59
5	
6	
7	
8	
9	
10	

$T_1$

0	
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	
7	
8	
9	92
10	

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$T_0$

0	44
1	
2	
3	
4	59
5	
6	
7	51
8	
9	
10	

$T_1$

0	
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	
7	
8	
9	92
10	

## Cuckoo hashing example

$$M = 11,$$

$$h_0(k) = k \bmod 11,$$

$$h_1(k) = \lfloor 11(\varphi k - \lfloor \varphi k \rfloor) \rfloor$$

*insert*(95)

$$i = 0$$

$$k = 95$$

$$h_0(k) = 7$$

$$h_1(k) = 7$$

$T_0$

0	44
1	
2	
3	
4	59
5	
6	
7	51
8	
9	
10	

$T_1$

0	
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	
7	
8	
9	92
10	

## Cuckoo hashing example

$$M = 11,$$

$$h_0(k) = k \bmod 11,$$

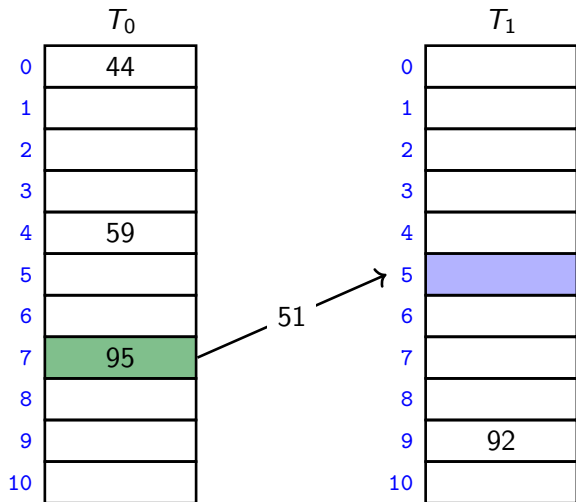
$$h_1(k) = \lfloor 11(\varphi k - \lfloor \varphi k \rfloor) \rfloor$$

*insert*(95)

$$i = 1$$
$$k = 51$$

$$h_0(k) = 7$$

$$h_1(k) = 5$$





## Cuckoo hashing example

$$M = 11,$$

$$h_0(k) = k \bmod 11,$$

$$h_1(k) = \lfloor 11(\varphi k - \lfloor \varphi k \rfloor) \rfloor$$

*insert*(95)

$$i = 1$$
$$k = 51$$

$$h_0(k) = 7$$

$$h_1(k) = 5$$

$T_0$

0	44
1	
2	
3	
4	59
5	
6	
7	95
8	
9	
10	

$T_1$

0	
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	51
6	
7	
8	
9	92
10	

## Cuckoo hashing example

$$M = 11,$$

$$h_0(k) = k \bmod 11,$$

$$h_1(k) = \lfloor 11(\varphi k - \lfloor \varphi k \rfloor) \rfloor$$

*insert*(26)

$$i = 0$$

$$k = 26$$

$$h_0(k) = 4$$

$$h_1(k) = 0$$

$T_0$

0	44
1	
2	
3	
4	59
5	
6	
7	95
8	
9	
10	

$T_1$

0	
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	51
6	
7	
8	
9	92
10	

## Cuckoo hashing example

$$M = 11,$$

$$h_0(k) = k \bmod 11,$$

$$h_1(k) = \lfloor 11(\varphi k - \lfloor \varphi k \rfloor) \rfloor$$

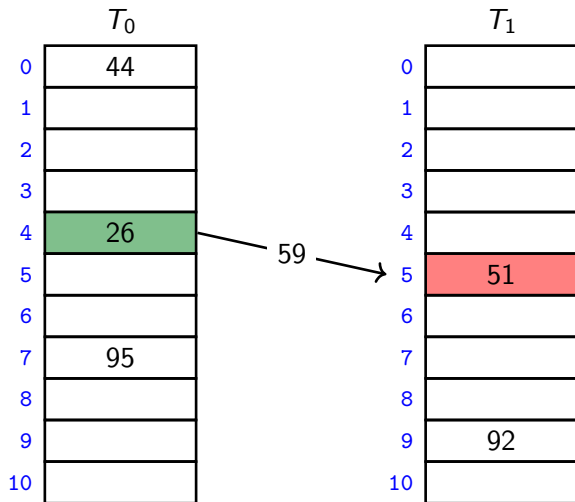
*insert*(26)

$$i = 1$$

$$k = 59$$

$$h_0(k) = 4$$

$$h_1(k) = 5$$



## Cuckoo hashing example

$$M = 11,$$

$$h_0(k) = k \bmod 11,$$

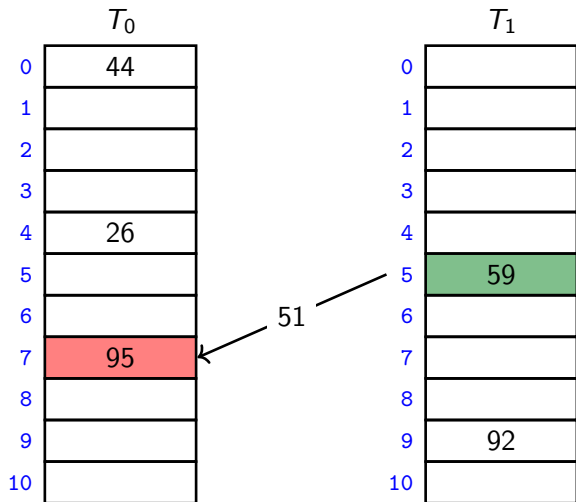
$$h_1(k) = \lfloor 11(\varphi k - \lfloor \varphi k \rfloor) \rfloor$$

*insert*(26)

$$i = 0$$
$$k = 51$$

$$h_0(k) = 7$$

$$h_1(k) = 5$$



## Cuckoo hashing example

$$M = 11,$$

$$h_0(k) = k \bmod 11,$$

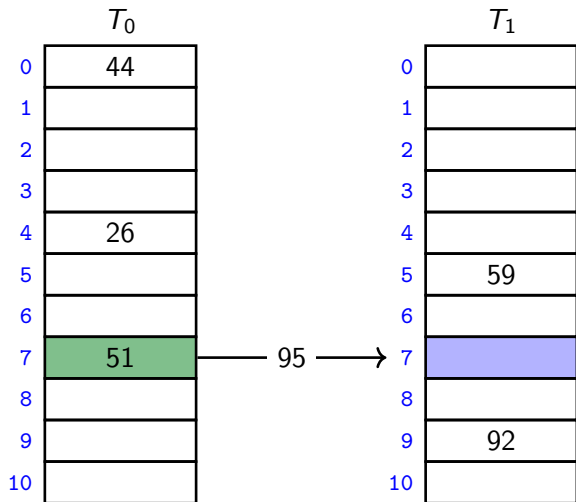
$$h_1(k) = \lfloor 11(\varphi k - \lfloor \varphi k \rfloor) \rfloor$$

*insert*(26)

$$i = 1$$
$$k = 95$$

$$h_0(k) = 4$$

$$h_1(k) = 7$$



## Cuckoo hashing example

$$M = 11,$$

$$h_0(k) = k \bmod 11,$$

$$h_1(k) = \lfloor 11(\varphi k - \lfloor \varphi k \rfloor) \rfloor$$

*insert*(26)

$$i = 1$$
$$k = 95$$

$$h_0(k) = 4$$

$$h_1(k) = 7$$

$T_0$

0	44
1	
2	
3	
4	26
5	
6	
7	51
8	
9	
10	

$T_1$

0	
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	59
6	
7	95
8	
9	92
10	

## Cuckoo hashing example

$$M = 11,$$

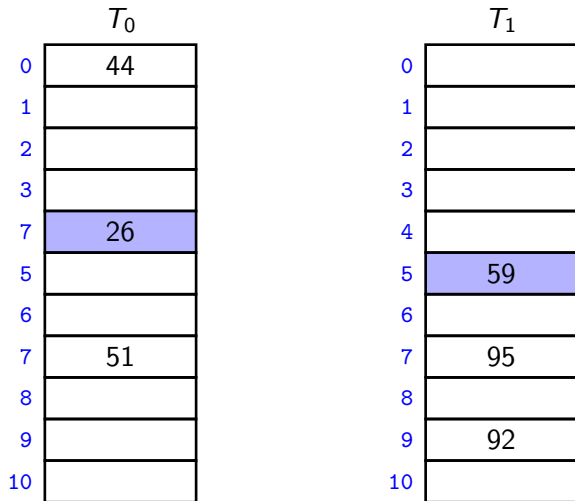
$$h_0(k) = k \bmod 11,$$

$$h_1(k) = \lfloor 11(\varphi k - \lfloor \varphi k \rfloor) \rfloor$$

*search*(59)

$$h_0(59) = 4$$

$$h_1(59) = 5$$



## Cuckoo hashing example

$$M = 11,$$

$$h_0(k) = k \bmod 11,$$

$$h_1(k) = \lfloor 11(\varphi k - \lfloor \varphi k \rfloor) \rfloor$$

*delete*(59)

$$h_0(59) = 4$$

$$h_1(59) = 5$$

$T_0$

0	44
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	
7	26
8	
9	
10	

$T_1$

0	
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	
7	95
8	
9	92
10	



# Cuckoo hashing discussions

- The two hash-tables need not be of the same size.
- *Load factor*  $\alpha = n / (\text{size of } T_0 + \text{size of } T_1)$
- One can argue: If the load factor  $\alpha$  is small enough then insertion has  $O(1)$  expected run-time.
- This crucially requires  $\alpha < \frac{1}{2}$ .

## Cuckoo hashing discussions

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- One can argue: If the load factor  $\alpha$  is small enough then insertion has  $O(1)$  expected run-time.
- This crucially requires  $\alpha < \frac{1}{2}$ .

There are many possible variations:

- The two hash-tables could be combined into one.
- Be more flexible when inserting: Always consider both possible positions.
- Use  $k > 2$  allowed locations (i.e.,  $k$  hash-functions).

## Complexity of open addressing strategies

For any open addressing scheme, we *must* have  $\alpha \leq 1$  (why?).

For the analysis, we require  $\alpha < 1$  and Cuckoo hashing requires  $\alpha < 1/2$ .

Expected # probes $\leq$	<i>search</i> ( <i>unsuccessful</i> )	<i>insert</i>	<i>search</i> ( <i>successful</i> )
Linear Probing	$\frac{1}{(1-\alpha)^2}$	$\frac{1}{(1-\alpha)^2}$	$\frac{1}{1-\alpha}$ (on avg. over keys)
Double Hashing	$\frac{1}{1-\alpha} + o(1)$	$\frac{1}{1-\alpha} + o(1)$	$\frac{1}{1-\alpha} + o(1)$
Cuckoo Hashing	1 (worst-case)	$\frac{\alpha}{(1-2\alpha)^2}$	1 (worst-case)

**Summary:** All operations have  $O(1)$  expected run-time if hash-function chosen uniformly and  $\alpha$  is kept sufficiently small.

But for fixed hash-function the worst-case run-time is (usually)  $\Theta(n)$ .

# Outline

- 7 Dictionaries via Hashing
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  - Hash Function Strategies

## Choosing a good hash function

- Satisfying the uniform hashing assumption is impossible: There are too many hash functions; we would not know how to look up  $h(k)$ .
- We need to compromise:
  - ▶ Choose a hash-function that is easy to compute.
  - ▶ But aim for  $P(h(k) = i) = \frac{1}{M}$  w.r.t. key-distribution.

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- We need to compromise:
  - ▶ Choose a hash-function that is easy to compute.
  - ▶ But aim for  $P(h(k) = i) = \frac{1}{M}$  w.r.t. key-distribution.
- If all keys are used equally often, then this is easy. But in practice keys are not used equally often.
- We can get good performance by choosing a hash-function that is
  - ▶ unrelated to any possible patterns in the data, and
  - ▶ depends on all parts of the key.
- We saw two basic methods for integer keys:
  - ▶ **Modular method:**  $h(k) = k \bmod M$ .  
We should choose  $M$  to be a prime.
  - ▶ **Multiplicative method:**  $h(k) = \lfloor M(kA - \lfloor kA \rfloor) \rfloor$ ,  
for some constant floating-point number  $A$  with  $0 < A < 1$ .

# Carter-Wegman's universal hashing

**Even better:** Randomization that uses easy-to-compute hash-functions.

- Requires: all keys are in  $\{0, \dots, p - 1\}$  for some (big) prime  $p$ .
- Choose  $M < p$  arbitrarily, power of 2 is ok.
- Choose two *random* numbers  $a, b$  in  $\{0, \dots, p - 1\}$ ,  $a \neq 0$
- Use as hash-function

$$h(k) = ((ak + b) \bmod p) \bmod M$$

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$$h(k) = ((ak + b) \bmod p) \bmod M$$

- Clearly  $h(k)$  can be computed in  $O(1)$  time.
- Choosing  $h$  in this way does not satisfy uniform hashing assumption, but we can prove that two keys collide with probability at most  $\frac{1}{M}$ .
- This is enough to prove the expected run-time bounds for chaining.



## Multi-dimensional Data

What if the keys are multi-dimensional, such as strings in  $\Sigma^*$ ?

Standard approach is to *flatten* string  $w$  to integer  $f(w) \in \mathbb{N}$ , e.g.

$$\begin{aligned} A \cdot P \cdot P \cdot L \cdot E &\rightarrow (65, 80, 80, 76, 69) \quad (\text{ASCII}) \\ &\rightarrow 65R^4 + 80R^3 + 80R^2 + 76R^1 + 69R^0 \\ &\quad (\text{for some radix } R, \text{ e.g. } R = 255) \end{aligned}$$

We combine this with a modular hash function:  $h(w) = f(w) \bmod M$

To compute this in  $O(|w|)$  time without overflow, use Horner's rule and apply mod early. For example,  $h(\text{APPLE})$  is

$$\left( \left( \left( \left( \left( \left( (65R+80) \bmod M \right) R+80 \right) \bmod M \right) R+76 \right) \bmod M \right) R+69 \right) \bmod M$$

# Hashing vs. Balanced Search Trees

## Advantages of Balanced Search Trees

- $O(\log n)$  worst-case operation cost
- Does not require any assumptions, special functions, or known properties of input distribution
- Predictable space usage (exactly  $n$  nodes)
- Never need to rebuild the entire structure
- Supports ordered dictionary operations (rank, select etc.)

## Advantages of Hash Tables

- $O(1)$  operation cost (if hash-function random and load factor small)
- We can choose space-time tradeoff via load factor
- Cuckoo hashing achieves  $O(1)$  worst-case for search & delete