# Analysis of Algorithms 

Hash Tables

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## Outline

(1) Basic Data Structures and Operations

- The Basics
(2) Hash tables
- Concepts
- The Small and Large Universe of Keys
- Collisions and Chaining
- Analysis of hashing under Chaining
- The Successful and Unsuccessful Search
(3) Hashing Methods
- Which Hash Function?
- The Division Method
- The Multiplication Method
- Clustering Analysis of Hashing Functions
- First, Enforcing the Uniform Hash Distribution
- Second, There is no Uniform Hash Distribution
- A Possible Solution, Universal Hashing
- Universal Hash Functions
- Example by a Posteriori Idea
(4) Open Addressing
- Introduction
- Hashing Methods
- Linear Probing
- Linear Probing, Insertion and Deletion - Now, A Problem
- Quadratic Probing
- Double Hashing
- Analysis of Open Addressing


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## About Basic Data Structures

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## Yes

If you think them as ADT

## Examples

## Search (S,k)

Example: Search in a BST


## Examples

## Insert(S, x)

Example: Insert in a linked list


## And Again

## Delete( $\mathrm{S}, \mathrm{x}$ )

Example: Delete in a BST


## Basic data structures and operations.

## Therefore

This are basic structures, it is up to you to read about them.

- Chapter 10 Cormen's book


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However, If you have a large number of keys, $U$

- Then, it is impractical to store a table of the size of $|U|$.
- Thus, you can use a hash function $h: U \rightarrow\{0,1, \ldots, m-1\}$


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## Problem

With a large enough universe $U$, two keys can hash to the same value

- This is called a collision.


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## You still have the problem of collisions

Possible Solutions to the problem:

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(2) Open Addressing

Hash tables: Chaining

## A Possible Solution

Insert the elements that hash to the same slot into a linked list.


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## Analysis of hashing with Chaining: Assumptions

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- We have a load factor $\alpha=\frac{n}{m}$, where $m$ is the size of the hash table $T$, and $n$ is the number of elements to store.


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To simplify the analysis, you need to consider two cases

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- Successful search.


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- Searching
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## It is clear that we have two possibilities

Finding the key or not finding the key

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## Therefore

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## For this, we have the following theorems

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In a hash table in which collisions are resolved by chaining, an unsuccessful search takes average-case time $\Theta(1+\alpha)$, under the assumption of simple uniform hashing.

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## Theorem 11.2

In a hash table in which collisions are resolved by chaining, a successful search takes average-case time $\Theta(1+\alpha)$ under the assumption of simple uniform hashing.

Analysis of hashing: Constant time.

## Finally

These two theorems tell us that if $n=O(m)$

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Or search time is constant.

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Exercises

## Analysis of hashing: Which hash function?

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Good hash functions should maintain the property of simple uniform hashing!

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What should we use?

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## Then:

What should we use?

- If we know how the keys are distributed uniformly at the following interval $0 \leq k<1$ then $h(k)=\lfloor k m\rfloor$.


## What if...

## Question:

What about something with keys in a normal distribution?


Possible hash functions when the keys are natural numbers

The division method

- $h(k)=k \bmod m$.

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- $h(k)=\lfloor m(k A \bmod 1)\rfloor$ with $0<A<1$.
- The value of $m$ is not critical.
- Easy to implement in a computer.

When they are not, we need to interpreting the keys as natural numbers

Keys interpreted as natural numbers
Given a string "pt", we can say $\mathrm{p}=112$ and $\mathrm{t}=116$ (ASCII numbers)

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This is highly dependent on the origins of the keys!!!

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* We can use $m=701$ because it is near to $2000 / 3$ but not near a power of two.


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Then, select an $s$ in the range $0<s<2^{w}$ and assume $A=\frac{s}{2^{w}}$.

## Third

Now, we multiply $k$ by the number $s=A 2^{w}$.

## Example

## Fourth

The result of that is $r_{1} 2^{w}+r_{0}$, a $2 w$-bit value word, where the first $p$-most significative bits of $r_{0}$ are the desired hash value.

## Example

## Fourth

The result of that is $r_{1} 2^{w}+r_{0}$, a $2 w$-bit value word, where the first $p$-most significative bits of $r_{0}$ are the desired hash value.

## Graphically



## Outline

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- The Basics
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Exercises

## However

## Sooner or Latter

We can pick up a hash function that does not give us the desired uniform randomized property

## However

## Sooner or Latter

We can pick up a hash function that does not give us the desired uniform randomized property

## Thus

We are required to analyze the possible clustering of the data by the hash function

## However

## Unfortunately

Hash table do not give a way to measure clustering

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Hash table do not give a way to measure clustering
Thus, table designers
They should provide some clustering estimation as part of the interface.

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Hash table do not give a way to measure clustering

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They should provide some clustering estimation as part of the interface.

## Thus

The clustering measure needs an estimate of the variance of the distribution of bucket sizes.

## Measuring Clustering through a metric $C$

Definition<br>If bucket $i$ contains $n_{i}$ elements, then

## Measuring Clustering through a metric $C$

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If bucket $i$ contains $n_{i}$ elements, then

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## Properties

(1) If $C=1$, then you have uniform hashing.

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(1) If $C=1$, then you have uniform hashing.
(2) If $C>1$, it means that the performance of the hash table is slowed down by clustering by approximately a factor of $C$.

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## Properties

(1) If $C=1$, then you have uniform hashing.
(2) If $C>1$, it means that the performance of the hash table is slowed down by clustering by approximately a factor of $C$.
(3) If $C<1$, the spread of the elements is more even than uniform!!! Not going to happen!!!

## Thus

## First

If clustering is occurring, some buckets will have more elements than they should, and some will have fewer.

## Thus

## First

If clustering is occurring, some buckets will have more elements than they should, and some will have fewer.

## Second

There will be a wider range of bucket sizes than one would expect from a random hash function.

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## Analysis of $C$

Consider the following random variable
Consider bucket $i$ containing $n_{i}$ elements, with $X_{i j}=I\{$ element $j$ lands in bucket $i$ \}

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## Analysis of $C$

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Consider bucket $i$ containing $n_{i}$ elements, with $X_{i j}=I\{$ element $j$ lands in bucket $i\}$

Then, given

$$
\begin{equation*}
n_{i}=\sum_{j=1}^{n} X_{i j} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

We have, given the unifrom hash property that

$$
\begin{equation*}
E\left[X_{i j}\right]=\frac{1}{m}, E\left[X_{i j}^{2}\right]=\frac{1}{m} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

We look at the Variance of $X_{i j}$

We look at the dispersion of $X_{i j}$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Var}\left[X_{i j}\right]=E\left[X_{i j}^{2}\right]-\left(E\left[X_{i j}\right]\right)^{2}=\frac{1}{m}-\frac{1}{m^{2}} \tag{5}
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$$

What about the expected number of elements at each bucket?

$$
\begin{equation*}
E\left[n_{i}\right]=E\left[\sum_{j=1}^{n} X_{i j}\right]=\frac{n}{m}=\alpha \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then, we have given independence of $\left\{X_{i j}\right\}$

Because independence of $\left\{X_{i j}\right\}$, the scattering of $n_{i}$

$$
\operatorname{Var}\left[n_{i}\right]=\operatorname{Var}\left[\sum_{j=1}^{n} X_{i j}\right]
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What about the dispersion of possible number of elements at each bucket?

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\operatorname{Var}\left[n_{i}\right]=E\left[n_{i}^{2}\right]-\left(E\left[n_{i}\right]\right)^{2}
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## But, we have that

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\begin{equation*}
E\left[n_{i}^{2}\right]=E\left[\sum_{j=1}^{n} X_{i j}^{2}+\sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1, k \neq j}^{n} X_{i j} X_{i k}\right] \tag{7}
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Or

$$
\begin{equation*}
E\left[n_{i}^{2}\right]=\frac{n}{m}+\sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1, k \neq j}^{n} \frac{1}{m^{2}} \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

## Thus

## We re-express the range on term of expected values of $n_{i}$

$$
\begin{equation*}
E\left[n_{i}^{2}\right]=\frac{n}{m}+\frac{n(n-1)}{m^{2}} \tag{9}
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\operatorname{Var}\left(n_{i}\right)=E\left[n_{i}^{2}\right]-E\left[n_{i}\right]^{2}=\frac{n}{m}+\frac{n(n-1)}{m^{2}}-\frac{n^{2}}{m^{2}}
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& =\frac{n}{m}-\frac{n}{m^{2}} \\
& =\alpha-\frac{\alpha}{m}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Then, we have that

Now we build an estimator of the mean of $n_{i}^{2}$ which is part of
$C=\frac{m}{n-1}\left[\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{m} n_{i}^{2}}{n}-1\right]$

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Thus, we ask what is the expected value of the mean of the variances

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E\left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{m} n_{i}^{2}\right]=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{m} E\left[n_{i}^{2}\right]
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& =\frac{1}{\alpha}\left[\alpha\left(1-\frac{1}{m}\right)+\alpha^{2}\right] \\
& =1-\frac{1}{m}+\alpha
\end{aligned}
$$

Finally, we analyze the Expected Value of $C$ under uniform hashing

## We can plug back on $C$ using the expected value

$$
E[C]=\frac{m}{n-1}\left[E\left[\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{m} n_{i}^{2}}{n}\right]-1\right]
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& =\frac{m}{n-1}\left[\frac{n}{m}-\frac{1}{m}\right] \\
& =\frac{m}{n-1}\left[\frac{n-1}{m}\right] \\
& =1
\end{aligned}
$$

## Explanation

Using a hash table that enforce a uniform distribution in the buckets

- We get that $C=1$ or the best distribution of keys


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Now, we have a really horrible hash function $\equiv$ It hits only one of every $b$ buckets
Thus

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\begin{equation*}
E\left[X_{i j}\right]=E\left[X_{i j}^{2}\right]=\frac{b}{m} \tag{11}
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Then, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
E\left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{m} n_{i}^{2}\right] & =\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{m} E\left[n_{i}^{2}\right] \\
& =\alpha b-\frac{b}{m}+1
\end{aligned}
$$

## Finally

We can plug back on $C$ using the expected value

$$
E[C]=\frac{m}{n-1}\left[E\left[\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{m} n_{i}^{2}}{n}\right]-1\right]
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& =\frac{m}{n-1}\left[\frac{n b}{m}-\frac{b}{m}\right] \\
& =\frac{m}{n-1}\left[\frac{b(n-1)}{m}\right] \\
& =b
\end{aligned}
$$

## Explanation

## Using a hash table that enforce a uniform distribution in the buckets

- We get that $C=b>1$ or a really bad distribution of the keys!!!


## Explanation

Using a hash table that enforce a uniform distribution in the buckets

- We get that $C=b>1$ or a really bad distribution of the keys!!!

Thus, you only need the following to evaluate a hash function

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{m} n_{i}^{2} \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

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## A Possible Solution, Universal Hashing

## Issues

- In practice, keys are not randomly distributed.


## A Possible Solution, Universal Hashing

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- Any fixed hash function might yield retrieval $\Theta(n)$ time.


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## Goal

To find hash functions that produce uniform random table indexes irrespective of the keys.

## A Possible Solution, Universal Hashing

## Issues

- In practice, keys are not randomly distributed.
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## Goal

To find hash functions that produce uniform random table indexes irrespective of the keys.

## Idea

To select a hash function at random from a designed class of functions at the beginning of the execution.

## Universal hashing

## Example


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## Definition of Universal Hash Functions

## Definition

Let $H=\{h: U \rightarrow\{0,1, \ldots, m-1\}\}$ be a family of hash functions. $H$ is called a universal family if

$$
\begin{equation*}
\forall x, y \in U, x \neq y: \underset{h \in H}{\operatorname{Pr}}(h(x)=h(y)) \leq \frac{1}{m} \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

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$$

## Main result

With universal hashing the chance of collision between distinct keys $k$ and $l$ is no more than the $\frac{1}{m}$ chance of collision if locations $h(k)$ and $h(l)$ were randomly and independently chosen from the set $\{0,1, \ldots, m-1\}$.

## Universal Hashing

## Theorem 11.3

- Suppose that a hash function $h$ is chosen randomly from a universal collection of hash functions and has been used to hash $n$ keys into a table $T$ of size $m$, using chaining to resolve collisions.


## Universal Hashing

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- Suppose that a hash function $h$ is chosen randomly from a universal collection of hash functions and has been used to hash $n$ keys into a table $T$ of size $m$, using chaining to resolve collisions.
- If key $k$ is not in the table, then the expected length $E\left[n_{h(k)}\right]$ of the list that key $k$ hashes to is at most the load factor $\alpha=\frac{n}{m}$. If key $k$ is in the table, then the expected length $E\left[n_{h(k)}\right]$ of the list containing key $k$ is at most $1+\alpha$.


## Universal Hashing

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- Suppose that a hash function $h$ is chosen randomly from a universal collection of hash functions and has been used to hash $n$ keys into a table $T$ of size $m$, using chaining to resolve collisions.
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## Corollary 11.4

Using universal hashing and collision resolution by chaining in an initially empty table with $m$ slots, it takes expected time $\Theta(n)$ to handle any sequence of $n$ INSERT, SEARCH, and DELETE operations $O(m)$ INSERT operations.

## Example of Universal Hash

## Proceed as follows:

- Choose a primer number $p$ large enough so that every possible key $k$ is in the range $[0, \ldots, p-1$ ]


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## Example of Universal Hash

## Proceed as follows:

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## Important

- $a$ and $b$ are chosen randomly at the beginning of execution.
- The class $H_{p, m}$ of hash functions is universal.


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Exercises

## Example

## Example

- $p=977, m=50, a$ and $b$ random numbers
- $h_{a, b}(k)=((a k+b) \bmod p) \bmod m$


## Example of key distribution

## Example, mean $=488.5$ and dispersion $=5$



## Example with 10 keys

## Universal Hashing Vs Division Method




## Example with 50 keys

## Universal Hashing Vs Division Method




## Example with 100 keys

## Universal Hashing Vs Division Method




## Example with 200 keys

## An example of $P(\Theta \mid X)=P(X \mid \Theta) P(\Theta)$




## Another Example: Matrix Method

## Then

- Let us say keys are $u$-bits long.


## Another Example: Matrix Method

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- Say the table size $M$ is power of 2 .


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- Pick $h$ to be a random $b$-by- $u 0 / 1$ matrix, and define $h(x)=h x$ where after the inner product we apply mod 2


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## Example

$$
b\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
\begin{array}{ccc}
1 & 0 & 0
\end{array} & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
1 & 1 & 1 & 0
\end{array}\right] \quad\left[\begin{array}{c}
1 \\
0 \\
1 \\
0
\end{array}\right]=\begin{gathered}
h(x) \\
{\left[\begin{array}{l}
1 \\
1 \\
0
\end{array}\right]}
\end{gathered}
$$

## First than anything

## What is the meaning of multiply $h$ by $x$

- We can think of it as adding some of the columns of $h$ where the 1 bits in indicate which to add


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(1) $l_{i} \neq m_{i} \Rightarrow$ for example $l_{i}=0$ and $m_{i}=1$
(2) $l_{j}=m_{j} \forall j \neq i$


## Now Proof of being a Universal Family

## Thus

- The column $i$ does not contribute to the final answer of $h(l)$ because of the zero!!!

$$
b \begin{gathered}
h \\
{\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
1 & \mathbf{0} & 0 & 0 \\
0 & \mathbf{1} & 1 & 1 \\
1 & \mathbf{1} & 1 & 0
\end{array}\right]}
\end{gathered}\left[\begin{array}{c}
x \\
u \\
\mathbf{0} \\
1 \\
0
\end{array}\right]=\begin{aligned}
& h(x) \\
& {\left[\begin{array}{l}
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\left.\left.\begin{array}{c}
h \\
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h(x) \\
\mathbf{0} \\
0
\end{array}\right]=\begin{array}{l}
1 \\
1 \\
0
\end{array}\right]
$$

## Now

- Imagine that we fix all the other columns in $h$, and we allow the $i^{\text {th }}$ column you have free choices

Now, we do something strange

But having $x_{i}=0$ make $h(x)$ to have a fix value, for example

$$
\left[\begin{array}{llll}
1 & 0 & \mathbf{0} & 0 \\
0 & 1 & \mathbf{1} & 1 \\
1 & 1 & \mathbf{1} & 0
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}
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1 \\
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1
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1 \\
0 \\
1
\end{array}\right]
$$

In the contrary, we have $y$ and with respect to a specific flipping column of $h$

$$
\left[\begin{array}{llll}
1 & 0 & \mathbf{0} & 0 \\
0 & 1 & \mathbf{1} & 1 \\
1 & 1 & \mathbf{1} & 0
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}
1 \\
1 \\
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$$

## We have others

## For example

$$
\left[\begin{array}{llll}
1 & 0 & \mathbf{1} & 0 \\
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1
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{l}
0 \\
0 \\
1
\end{array}\right]
$$

How many of them, when flipping on the $i^{\text {th }}$ column $2^{b}$

## Even the one that looks like

We have

$$
\left[\begin{array}{llll}
1 & 0 & \mathbf{0} & 0 \\
0 & 1 & \mathbf{0} & 1 \\
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$$

What is the probability of getting the same values i.e.

$$
h(l)=h(m)
$$

## Quite easy

Thus, given the randomness of the zeros and ones

- The probability that we get equality is

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P(h(l)=h(m))=\frac{1}{2^{b}}
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## Quite easy

Thus, given the randomness of the zeros and ones

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P(h(l)=h(m))=\frac{1}{2^{b}}
$$

Or more formally

$$
P(h(l)=h(m)) \leq \frac{1}{2^{b}}
$$

## Implementation of the column*vector $\bmod 2$

## Code

```
int product(int row,int vector){
    int i = row & vector;
    i=i - ((i >> 1) & 0 < 55555555 );
    i=(i & 0x33333333) + ((i >> 2) & 0x33333333);
    i = (((i + (i >> 4)) & 0x0F0F0F0F) * 0x01010101) >> 24;
    return i & i & 0x00000001;
```

\}

## Advantages of universal hashing

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- Universal hashing provides good results on average, independently of the keys to be stored.
- Guarantees that no input will always elicit the worst-case behavior.
- Poor performance occurs only when the random choice returns an inefficient hash function; this has a small probability.


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## Open addressing

Definition
All the elements occupy the hash table itself.

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## What is it?

We systematically examine table slots until either we find the desired element or we have ascertained that the element is not in the table.

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We systematically examine table slots until either we find the desired element or we have ascertained that the element is not in the table.

## Advantages <br> The advantage of open addressing is that it avoids pointers altogether.

## Insert in Open addressing

## Extended hash function to probe

- Instead of being fixed in the order $0,1,2, \ldots, m-1$ with $\Theta(n)$ search time.


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- This gives the probe sequence $\langle h(k, 0), h(k, 1), \ldots, h(k, m-1)\rangle$.
- A permutation of $\langle 0,1,2, \ldots, m-1\rangle$


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Hashing methods in Open Addressing

## HASH-INSERT( $T, k$ )

(1) $i=0$

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\text { if } T[j]==N I L
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0
-

$$
\text { if } \begin{gathered}
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T[j]=k
\end{gathered}
$$

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$\bigcirc$
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$$
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$$

$\bigcirc$
return $j$

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(1) $i=0$
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(4)
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$$

$$
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return $j$
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else $i=i+1$

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else $i=i+1$
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$$

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$$

$$
T[j]=k
$$

6) return $j$

- $\quad$ else $i=i+1$
- until $i==m$
- error "Hash Table Overflow"

Hashing methods in Open Addressing

## HASH-SEARCH(T,k)

(1) $i=0$

Hashing methods in Open Addressing

## HASH-SEARCH(T,k) <br> - $i=0$ <br> © repeat

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(1) $i=0$
© repeat

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0
if $T[j]==k$
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$\bullet$

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\text { if } T[j]==k
$$

return $j$

- $\quad i=i+1$
(0) until $T[j]==N I L$ or $i==m$
- return NIL


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## Linear probing: Definition and properties

## Hash function

- Given an ordinary hash function $h^{\prime}: U \rightarrow\{0,1, \ldots, m-1\}$ for $i=0,1, \ldots, m-1$, we get the extended hash function

$$
\begin{equation*}
h(k, i)=\left(h^{\prime}(k)+i\right) \quad \bmod m \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
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## Sequence of probes

Given key $k$, we first probe $T\left[h^{\prime}(k)\right]$, then $T\left[h^{\prime}(k)+1\right]$ and so on until $T[m-1]$. Then, we wrap around $T[0]$ to $T\left[h^{\prime}(k)-1\right]$.

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## Distinct probes

Because the initial probe determines the entire probe sequence, there are $m$ distinct probe sequences.

## Linear probing: Definition and properties

## Disadvantages

- Linear probing suffers of primary clustering.


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## Linear probing: Definition and properties

## Disadvantages

- Linear probing suffers of primary clustering.
- Long runs of occupied slots build up increasing the average search time.
- Long runs of occupied slots tend to get longer, and the average search time increases.


## Why?

Clusters arise because an empty slot preceded by $i$ full slots gets filled next with probability $\frac{i+1}{m}$.


## Why?

Clusters arise because an empty slot preceded by $i$ full slots gets filled next with probability $\frac{i+1}{m}$.


## Thus

The probability of getting a collision increases dramatically after each insertion.

## Example

Example using keys uniformly distributed
It was generated using the division method

## Example

## Example using keys uniformly distributed

It was generated using the division method

## Then



## Example

## Example using Gaussian keys

It was generated using the division method

## Example

## Example using Gaussian keys

It was generated using the division method
Then


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## Linear Probing, Insertion and Deletion

## Constraints

- Divisor $=m$ (number of buckets) $=17$.
- Home bucket $=$ key $\% 17$.


## Linear Probing, Insertion and Deletion

## Constraints

- Divisor $=m$ (number of buckets) $=17$.
- Home bucket $=$ key $\% 17$.


## Then

Put in pairs whose keys are $6,12,34,29,28,11,23,7,0,33,30,45$

## We have

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## Linear Probing - Remove

## Example

| 0 |  |  | 4 |  |  |  | 8 |  |  | 12 |  |  |  |  | 16 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 0 | 45 |  |  | 6 | 23\| | 7 |  |  | $28 \mid 12$ | 29 | 11 | 1 | 30 | 33 |

## Linear Probing - Remove

## Example



## remove(0)



## Linear Probing - Remove

## Example


remove(0)


## Compact Cluster

Search cluster for pair (if any) to fill vacated bucket.


## Linear Probing - remove(34)

## Example



## Linear Probing - remove(34)

## Example



## remove(34)


cinyestay

## Linear Probing - remove(34)

## Example


remove(34)


## Compact Cluster

Search cluster for pair (if any) to fill vacated bucket.


## Linear Probing - remove(29)

## Example

| 0 | 4 |  |  |  | 8 |  | 12 |  |  |  | 16 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 34 | 0 | 45 |  | 6 | 23 | 7 | $28 \mid 12$ | 29\| | 11 | 30 | 33 |
| 0 |  | 4 |  |  | 8 |  | 12 |  |  |  | 16 |
| 34 | 0 | 45 |  | 6 | 23 | 7 | $28 \mid 12$ |  | 11 | 30 | 33 |

## Linear Probing - remove(29)

## Example

| 0 |  | 4 |  |  | 8 |  | 12 |  |  |  | 16 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 34 | 0 | \| 45 |  | 6 | 23\| | 7 | $28 \mid 12$ |  | 11 | 30 | 33 |
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## Compact Cluster

Search cluster for pair (if any) to fill vacated bucket.


## Code for Removing

## We have the following

```
public void remove(key)\{
    int positionsChecked \(=1\);
    int \(\mathrm{i}=\) FindSlot (Key) ;
    if (Table[i] = null)
                return; // key is not in the table
\(\mathrm{j}=\mathrm{i}\);
while(positionsChecked \(<=\) Table. Iength) \{
    \(j=(j+1) \%\) Table. Iength ;
    if (Table[j] = null) break;
    \(\mathrm{k}=\) Hashing (Table[j]. key) ;
    if \(\begin{aligned} &(\mathrm{i}\mathrm{i} \text { j \&\& }(\mathrm{k}<=\mathrm{i} \quad \| \mathrm{k}>\mathrm{j})) \\ &(\mathrm{j}<\mathrm{i} \& \&(\mathrm{k}<=\mathrm{i} \& \& \mathrm{k}>\mathrm{j}))\end{aligned}\)
    Table[i] \(=\) Table[j];
        \(\mathrm{i}=\mathrm{j}\);
    \}
    positionChecked++;
\}
Table[i] \(=\) null;

\section*{Explanation}

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For all records in a cluster, there must be no vacant slots between their natural hash position and their current position (else lookups will terminate before finding the record).

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- \(k\) is the raw hash where the record at \(j\) would naturally land in the hash table if there were no collisions.

\section*{Thus}

This test is asking if the record at \(j\) is invalidly positioned with respect to the required properties of a cluster now that \(i\) is vacant.

\section*{Case 1}

We have the following
Case 1

we have \(i<j\)
- If \(i<k \leq j\) then moving \(j\) to the \(i\) position will be incorrect... Why?

\section*{Case 2}

We have the following
Case 2


We have \(j<i\)
- If \(k \leq j<\) or \(i<k\) then moving \(j\) to the \(i\) position will be incorrect... Why?

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\section*{Quadratic probing: Definition and properties}

\section*{Hash function}
- Given an auxiliary hash function \(h^{\prime}: U \rightarrow\{0,1, \ldots, m-1\}\) for \(i=0,1, \ldots, m-1\), we get the extended hash function

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\[
\begin{equation*}
h(k, i)=\left(h^{\prime}(k)+c_{1} i+c_{2} i^{2}\right) \quad \bmod m, \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
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\section*{Sequence of probes}
- Given key \(k\), we first probe \(T\left[h^{\prime}(k)\right]\), later positions probed are offset by amounts that depend in a quadratic manner on the probe number \(i\).

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\section*{Sequence of probes}
- Given key \(k\), we first probe \(T\left[h^{\prime}(k)\right]\), later positions probed are offset by amounts that depend in a quadratic manner on the probe number \(i\).
- The initial probe determines the entire sequence, and so only \(m\) distinct probe sequences are used.

\section*{Quadratic probing: Definition and properties}

\section*{Advantages}

This method works much better than linear probing, but to make full use of the hash table, the values of \(c_{1}, c_{2}\), and \(m\) are constrained.

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\section*{Disadvantages}

If two keys have the same initial probe position, then their probe sequences are the same, since \(h\left(k_{1}, 0\right)=h\left(k_{2}, 0\right)\) implies \(h\left(k_{1}, i\right)=h\left(k_{2}, i\right)\). This property leads to a milder form of clustering, called secondary clustering.

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\section*{Sequence of probes}
- Given key \(k\), we first probe \(T\left[h_{1}(k)\right]\), successive probe positions are offset from previous positions by the amount \(h_{2}(k) \bmod m\).
- Thus, unlike the case of linear or quadratic probing, the probe sequence here depends in two ways upon the key \(k\), since the initial probe position, the offset, or both, may vary.

\section*{Definition and properties}

\section*{Advantages}
- When \(m\) is prime or a power of 2 , double hashing improves over linear or quadratic probing in that \(\Theta\left(m^{2}\right)\) probe sequences are used, rather than \(\Theta(m)\) since each possible \(\left(h_{1}(k), h_{2}(k)\right)\) pair yields a distinct probe sequence.

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- The performance of double hashing appears to be very close to the performance of the "ideal" scheme of uniform hashing.

\section*{Example}

\section*{Jumping around to insert 14 with \(h_{1}(k)=k \bmod 13\) and \(h_{2}(k)=1+(k \bmod 11)\)}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline 0 & \\
\hline 1 & 79 \\
\hline 2 & \\
\hline 3 & \\
\hline 4 & 69 \\
\hline 5 & 98 \\
\hline 6 & \\
\hline 7 & 72 \\
\hline 8 & \\
\hline 9 & 14 \\
\hline 10 & \\
\hline 11 & 50 \\
\hline 12 & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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\section*{Analysis of Open Addressing}

\section*{Theorem 11.6}

Given an open-address hash table with load factor \(\alpha=\frac{n}{m}<1\), the expected number of probes in an unsuccessful search is at most \(\frac{1}{1-\alpha}\) assuming uniform hashing.

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\section*{Corollary}

Inserting an element into an open-address hash table with load factor, requires at most \(\frac{1}{1-\alpha}\) probes on average, assuming uniform hashing.

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Inserting an element into an open-address hash table with load factor, requires at most \(\frac{1}{1-\alpha}\) probes on average, assuming uniform hashing.

\section*{Theorem 11.8}

Given an open-address hash table with load factor \(\alpha<1\), the expected number of probes in a successful search is at most \(\frac{1}{\alpha} \ln \frac{1}{1-\alpha}\) assuming uniform hashing and assuming that each key in the table is equally likely to be searched for.

\section*{Exercise's}

\section*{From Cormen's book, chapters 11}
- 11.1-2
- 11.2-1
- 11.2-2
- 11.2-3
- 11.3-1
- 11.3-3```

