

INF421, Lecture 5

Hashing

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Course

- **Objective:** to teach you some data structures and associated algorithms
- **Evaluation:** TP noté en salle info le 16 septembre, Contrôle à la fin.
Note: $\max(CC, \frac{3}{4}CC + \frac{1}{4}TP)$
- **Organization:** fri 26/8, 2/9, 9/9, 16/9, 23/9, 30/9, 7/10, 14/10, 21/10,
amphi 1030-12 (Arago), TD 1330-1530, 1545-1745 (SI31,32,33,34)
- **Books:**
 1. Ph. Baptiste & L. Maranget, *Programmation et Algorithmique*, Ecole Polytechnique (Polycopié), 2006
 2. G. Dowek, *Les principes des langages de programmation*, Editions de l'X, 2008
 3. D. Knuth, *The Art of Computer Programming*, Addison-Wesley, 1997
 4. K. Mehlhorn & P. Sanders, *Algorithms and Data Structures*, Springer, 2008
- **Website:** `www.enseignement.polytechnique.fr/informatique/INF421`
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Lecture summary

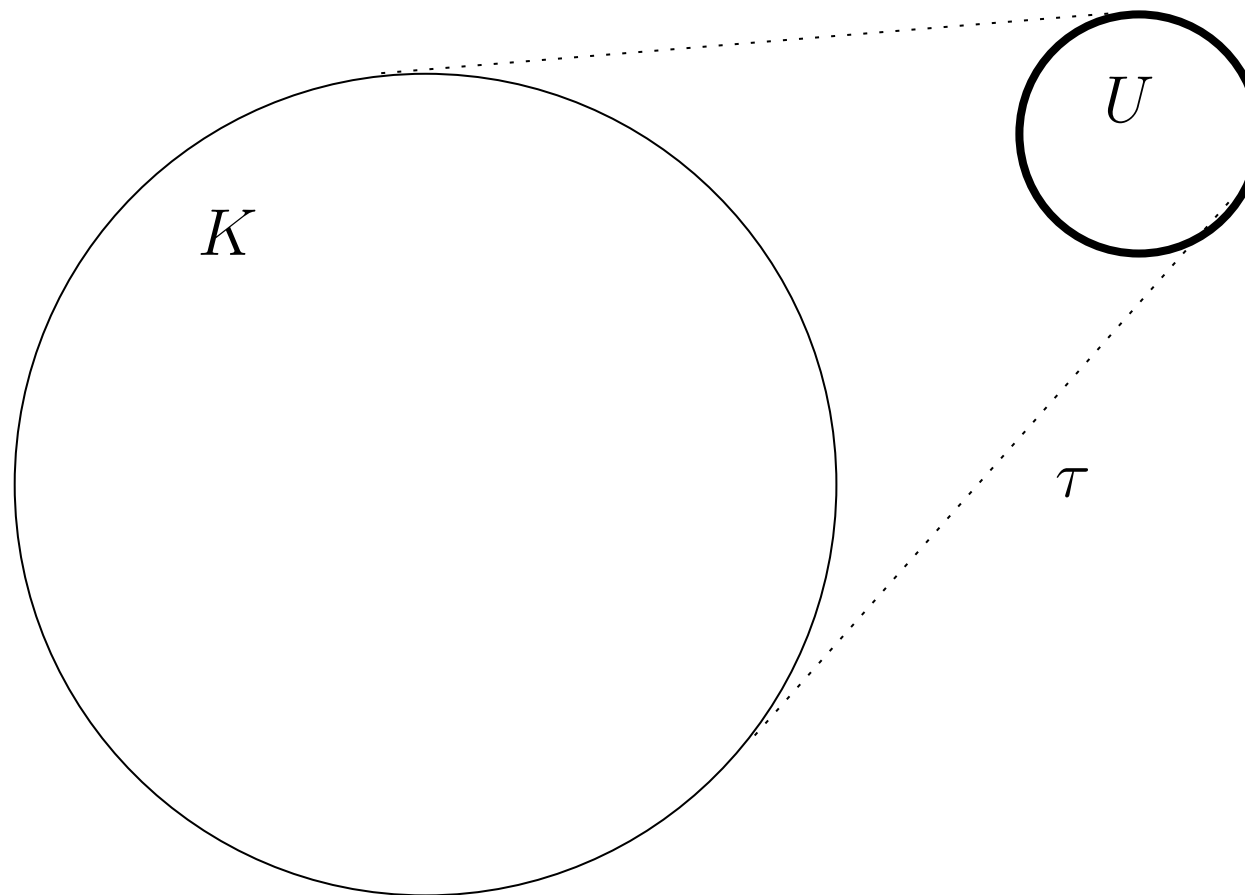
- Searching
- Tables
- Hashing
- Collisions
- Implementation

Why?

- Address book:
 1. each page corresponds to a character
 2. page with character k contains all names beginning with k
 3. easy to search: immediately find the correct page, then scan the list, which is at most as long as the page
- Can we use a list of pairs (name,telephone)?
Slow to search
- Can we use a table name \rightarrow telephone?
Difficult to extend its size

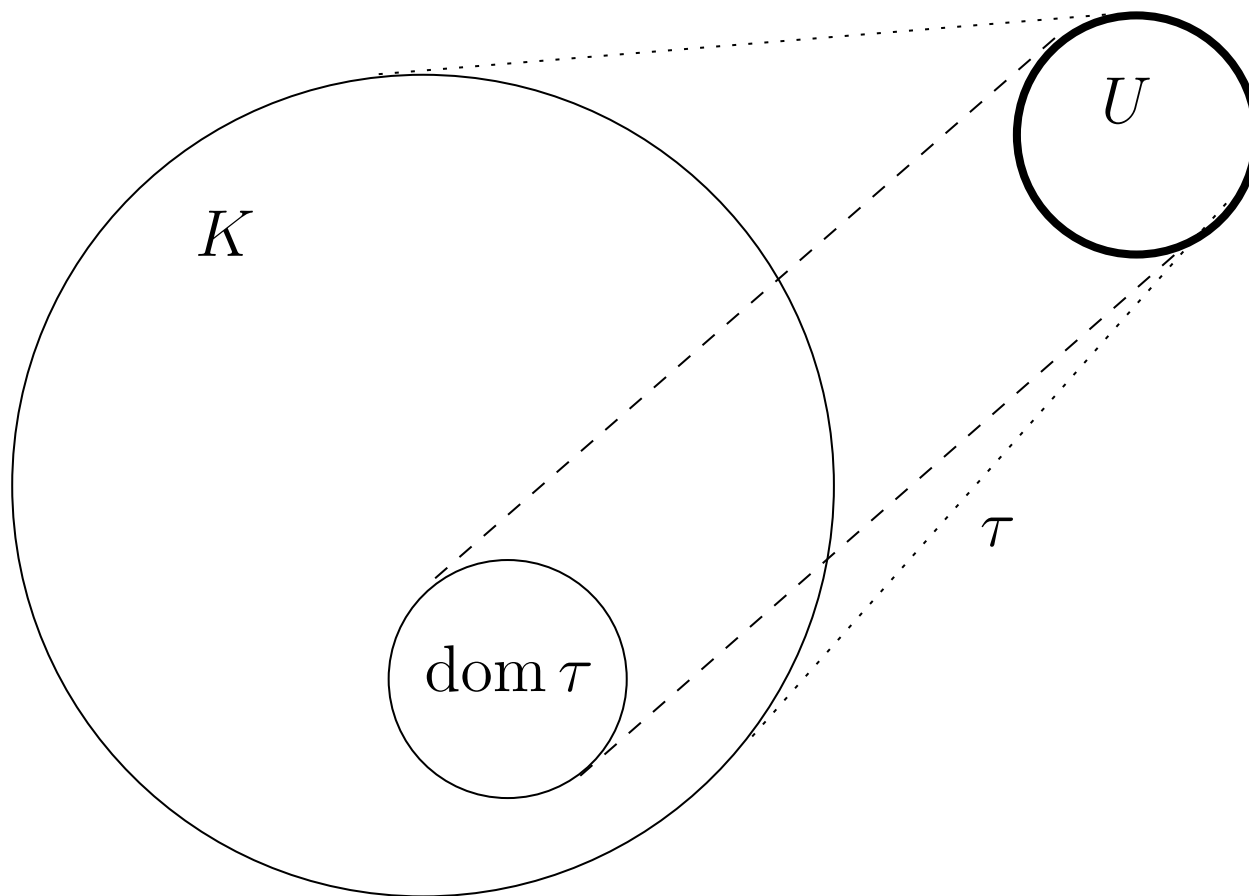
Hash tables are the appropriate data structures

The minimal knowledge



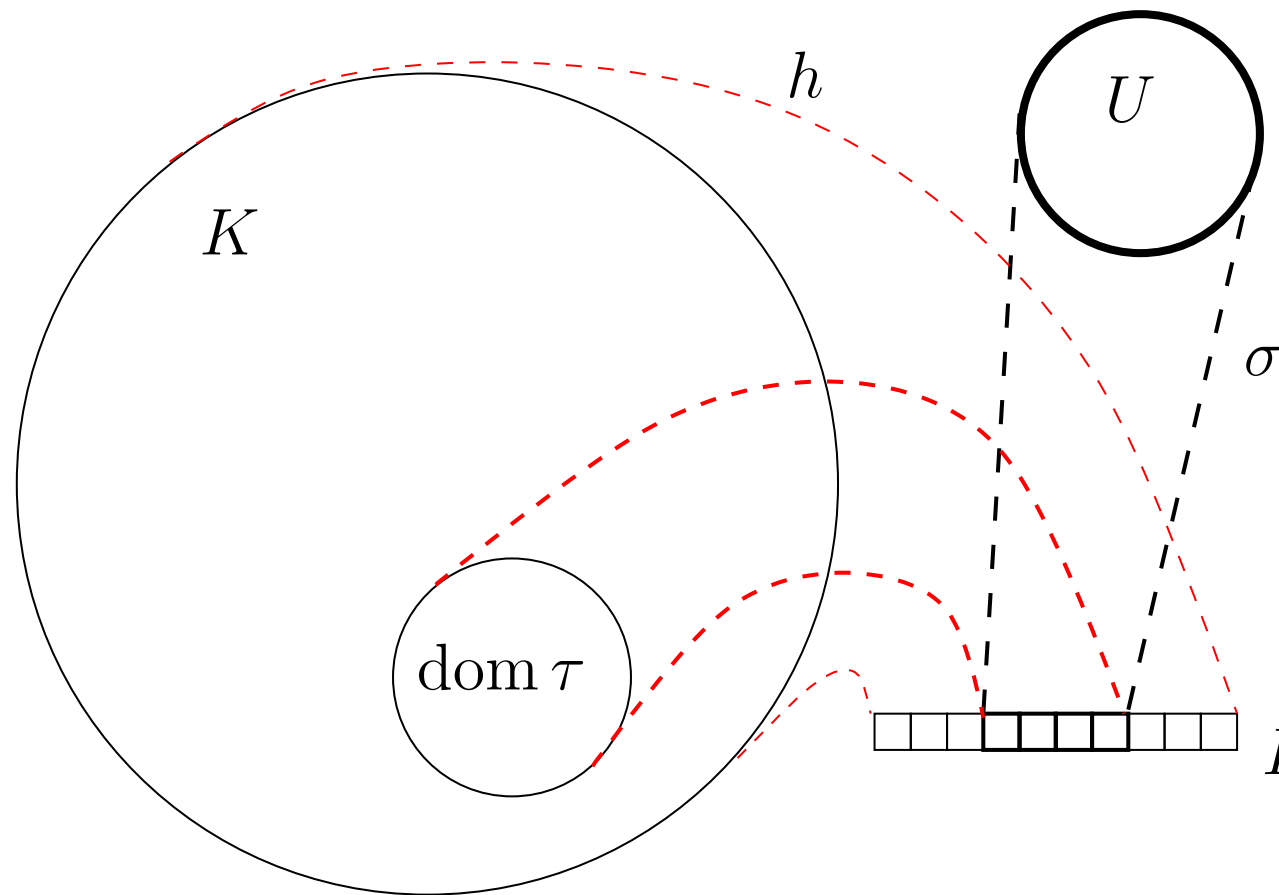
- K a very large set of keys; U : a set of objects; $\tau : K \rightarrow U$: a table
- Assume K too large to store, but $\text{dom } \tau$ is small
- Find a function $h : K \rightarrow I$ with $I = \{0, 1, \dots, p - 1\}$ and $|I| \approx |U|$, then store $u = \tau(k)$ at $\sigma(i)$ where $i = h(k)$

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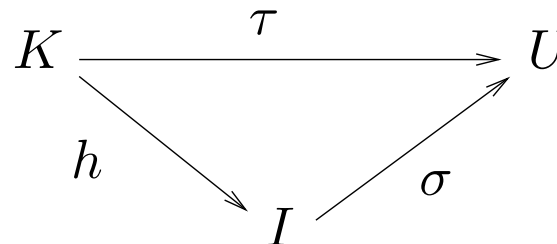
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Minimal technical knowledge

- $K = \text{keys}$, $U = \text{records}$
- Associate some keys with records
- Get an injective *table function* $\tau : K \rightarrow U$, with $\text{dom } \tau \subsetneq K$
- Given a key $k \in K$, determine whether $k \in \text{dom } \tau$
- If τ was an array, $\tau(k) = u$ if $k \in \text{dom } \tau$ or \perp if $k \notin \text{dom } \tau$: $O(1)$
- However, $|K|$ too large to be in an array
- Use *hash table* $\sigma : I \rightarrow U$ on an *index set* I with $|I| \approx |\text{dom } \tau| \ll |K|$
- Need a *hash function* $h : K \rightarrow I$ to map keys to indices
- Store record u in σ at position $h(k)$: get $\sigma(h(k)) = u$
- Maps σ, h, τ must be such that $\tau = \sigma \circ h$:



- If this holds, then $k \in \text{dom } \tau \Leftrightarrow h(k) \in I$
- Look $h(k)$ up in array σ in $O(1)$
- Scheme only works if h is injective, otherwise get *collisions*
- One way to address collisions is to let $\sigma(i) = \{u \in U \mid h(\tau^{-1}(u)) = i\}$

Searching

The set element problem

SET ELEMENT PROBLEM (SEP). Given a set U , a set $V \subseteq U$ and an element $u \in U$, determine whether $u \in V$

- Fundamental problem in computer science (and mathematics)
- Also known as the *searching problem*, the *find problem*, in some context the *feasibility problem*, and no doubt in several other ways too
- For computer implementations, one often also requires the index of u in V if the answer to the SEP is YES

Sequential search

- If the set V is stored as a sequence (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n) , can perform **sequential search**:

```
1: for  $i \leq n$  do  
2:   if  $v_i = u$  then  
3:     return  $i$ ; // found  
4:   end if  
5: end for  
6: return  $n + 1$ ; // not found
```

- If seq. search returns $n + 1$, $u \notin V$, otherwise $u \in V$ and the return value is the *index of u in V*
- Worst-case complexity: $O(n)$

Eliminate a test

```
1: Let  $v_{n+1} = u$ 
2: for  $i \in \mathbb{N}$  do
3:   if  $v_i = u$  then
4:     return  $i$ ;
5:   end if
6: end for
```

Gets rid of test $i \leq n$ at each iteration

This “trick” already seen in Lecture 1

Self-organizing search

Each time $u \in V$ at position i , swap $u = v_i$ and v_1 :

```
1: Let  $v_{n+1} = u$ 
2: for  $i \in \mathbb{N}$  do
3:   if  $v_i = u$  then
4:     if  $i \leq n$  then
5:       swap( $v, 1, i$ );
6:       return 1;
7:     else
8:       return  $n + 1$ ;
9:     end if
10:  end if
11: end for
```

Elements that are sought for most often take fewer iterations to be found

Still $O(n)$ worst-case complexity

Binary search

Assume $V = (v_1, \dots, v_n)$ is ordered ($i < j \rightarrow v_i \leq v_j$)

```
1:  $i = 1$ ;  
2:  $j = n$ ;  
3: while  $i \leq j$  do  
4:    $\ell = \lfloor \frac{i+j}{2} \rfloor$ ;  
5:   if  $u < v_\ell$  then  
6:      $j = \ell - 1$ ;  
7:   else if  $u > v_\ell$  then  
8:      $i = \ell + 1$ ;  
9:   else  
10:    return  $\ell$ ; // found  
11:  end if  
12: end while  
13: return  $n + 1$ ; // not found
```

Worst-case complexity: $O(\log n)$ (by INF311)

Tables

The data structure

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 - `insert(u)`: insert a new record u in the table
 - `find(k)`: determine if a given key k appears in the table
 - `remove(k)`: delete a record with key k from the table

Searching tables

- Searching a table for a given key is an extremely important problem (also known as *table look-up problem*)
- Needs to be solved as efficiently as possible
- E.g. in Lecture 2, I stated that we could find whether an arc was in a certain table (in BFS) in $O(1)$
- However:
 - Sequential search: $O(n)$
 - Binary search: $O(\log n)$
- How do we look a key up in $O(1)$?

Motivating examples

Telephone directory

- τ maps the set K of all personal names to a set U of telephone numbers
- Clearly, not all names are mapped, but only those of existing people having telephones: $|\text{dom } \tau| \ll |K|$
- Two trivial solutions:
 - a table $\tau : K \rightarrow U$ (which lists all possible names, and $\tau(k) = \perp$ if k is not the name of an existing person with a telephone)
 - a table $\tau' : \text{dom } \tau \rightarrow U$ which only lists existing people with telephones
- τ : $O(1)$ find but $O(|K|)$ space (impractical)
- τ' : $O(|\text{dom } \tau|)$ find if K is unsorted, $O(\log |\text{dom } \tau|)$ if sorted (we want $O(1)$)

Comparing Java objects

- An object could occupy a fairly large chunk of memory (e.g. a whole database table)
- Sometimes we wish to test whether two objects a , b in memory are equal
- Requires a byte comparison: $O(\max(|a|, |b|))$: inefficient
- How do we do it in $O(1)$?

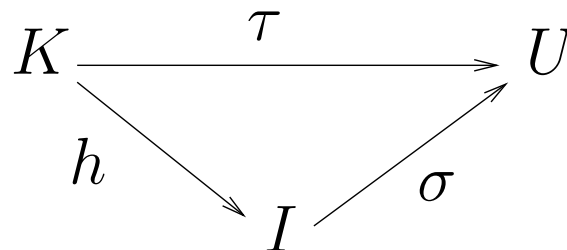
Back to tables

Tables in arrays

- Usually, $|K|$ is monstrously large
 - **nameserver**: K = set of fully qualified domain names
 - **database**: K = set of all possible entries from an index field
- Trivial implementation — array of size $|K|$: **impossible**
- Notice that $|\text{dom } \tau|$ is usually *much smaller* than $|K|$
- Consider a map $h : K \rightarrow I$ where I is a set of *indices* (which could be integers, or memory addresses), and a **hash table** $\sigma : I \rightarrow U$
- Then, if $u = \tau(k)$, u is stored in σ at index $h(k)$
- Look-up in σ rather than τ

Clarification I

- We're concerned with *three sets*:
 - U is the set of records
 - K is the set of keys
 - I is the set of indices
- ... and *three maps*:
 - $\tau : K \rightarrow U$: given a $k \in K$, is it in $\text{dom } \tau$?
 - $h : K \rightarrow I$: maps keys to a smaller set of indices
 - $\sigma : I \rightarrow U$: table actually used for storing records



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Where am I cheating?

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- If $K = \{0, 1, \dots, 10^{50} - 1\}$ and $\text{dom } \tau = \{0, 10^{50} - 1\}$, the fact that $|\text{dom } \tau| = 2$ is useless: we must index the array over the whole of K

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- If $K = \{0, 1, \dots, 10^{50} - 1\}$ and $\text{dom } \tau = \{0, 10^{50} - 1\}$, the fact that $|\text{dom } \tau| = 2$ is useless: we must index the array over the whole of K
- However, by defining $I = \{0, 1\}$ and $h(k) = k \bmod 2$, we can really use an array of length 2

A very special case

- $K = I = \{0x0, 0x1, 0x2, 0x3, 0x4\}$ (set of addresses)
- $\text{dom } \tau = \{0x0, 0x3, 0x4\}$

$I = K$	U
0x0	1
0x1	0
0x2	0
0x3	1
0x4	1

- Let $h : K \rightarrow I$ be the identity function
- To find whether $k \in K$ is in $\text{dom } \tau$, look at $\sigma(h(k))$:
 $k \in \text{dom } \tau$ iff it is 1 (answer in time $O(1)$)

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$u = 0x0 \in \text{dom } \tau$

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$$u = \mathbf{0x1} \notin \text{dom } \tau$$

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How far can we generalize this concept?

Address book again

- In an address book, K is the set of all names
- I is the set of all (capital) letters
- h maps a surname to its initial letter
- Assuming all our names start with a different letter, we're in business
- Otherwise, we have collisions (see later)

Hashing

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- **Idea**
Construct each index from the corresponding key
- For example, if the key is the string `Leo`, we could take the ASCII codes of all characters and sum them together
- This gives $h(\text{Leo}) = 76 + 101 + 111 = 288$: we store `Leo` in the table σ at position 288
- If we use the same rule for every key, we have an implementation of h



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We initialize σ to the “not found” value \perp

We store $u = \tau(k)$ in σ at position $h(k)$

Hash speed

- How fast should h be in order to define a useful hash function?
- We assume the maximum size ℓ of the memory taken to store an element of K to be **constant with respect to** $|\text{dom } \tau|$
- In other words: **keys have the same size ℓ independently of how many we store in τ**
- We require h to run in time proportional to some function of ℓ
- This means h runs in $O(1)$ with respect to $|\text{dom } \tau|$

Example with names

- Consider the set of names {Tim, John, Leo}
- We store names as `char` arrays using ASCII codes:

Tim	54	69	6D
Jon	4A	6F	6E
Leo	4C	65	6F

- We now form the map h as follows:

$$h(\text{Tim}) = 0x0054696D$$

$$h(\text{John}) = 0x004A6F6E$$

$$h(\text{Leo}) = 0x004C656F$$

- For $k \in K$ we can store $\tau(k)$ in σ at the address $h(k)$

Requires large hash table, but computing h is $O(1)$



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- Each byte holds an integer in the range $0, \dots, 255$
- Hence, we can assume K to be a set of m finite integer sequences (with m large)

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- Each byte holds an integer in the range $0, \dots, 255$
- Hence, we can assume K to be a set of m finite integer sequences (with m large)
- We also assume that all sequences in $k = (k_1, \dots, k_\ell) \in K$ have the same length ℓ (if not, pad shorter sequences with initial zeroes)

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- p : smallest prime $\geq |U|$, let $I = \{0, \dots, p-1\}$
- For each $a \in I^\ell$, the following is a hash function:

$$h_a(k) = ak \bmod p \tag{6}$$

- ak is the scalar product $\sum_{j \leq \ell} a_j k_j$ of a and k
- h_a maps K to I ,
- computing h_a is $O(\ell)$ as required, and very fast in practice

Some hash functions

- Up to now, we've seen four types of hash functions
 - The identity $h(k) = k$ (first example with $K = I$)
 - The projection $h(k) = k_j$ for some $j \leq |k|$ (address book)
 - The base change $h((u_1, \dots, u_n)) = \sum_{j \leq n} u_j b^{j-1}$,
where b is “large enough” (table of first names)
 - The scalar product by $a \in \mathbb{N}^n$ modulo p :

$$h_a((k_1, \dots, k_n)) = \left(\sum_{j \leq n} a_j k_j \right) \bmod p$$

- Identity and base change are **not** often used:
- Projection and scalar product modulo p are used in practice

Collisions

What can go wrong

- Consider the scalar product modulo p with $a = (2, 3, 5)$ and $p = 7$
- Let $k = (1, 1, 1)$ and $k' = (3, 2, 1)$
- We have:

$$h_a(k) = 2 + 3 + 5 \bmod 7 = 3 = 6 + 6 + 5 \bmod 7 = h_a(k')$$

- **How can we store both k and k' at index 3 in σ ?**
- This is called a *collision*
- It happens when hash functions are not injective

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- If h fails to be injective on $\{k, k'\}$, there is an $i \in I$ such that $h(k) = i = h(k')$

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- This means that both u, u' should both be stored at $\sigma(i)$
- Impossible as long as the hash table σ is implemented as an array



Hashes do not inject



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- If $|I| \geq |K|$:
 - there are $|I|$ ways to choose the image of the first element of K ,
 - $|I| - 1$ ways to choose the second, and so on
 - get $\binom{|I|}{|K|}$ injective functions $K \rightarrow I$

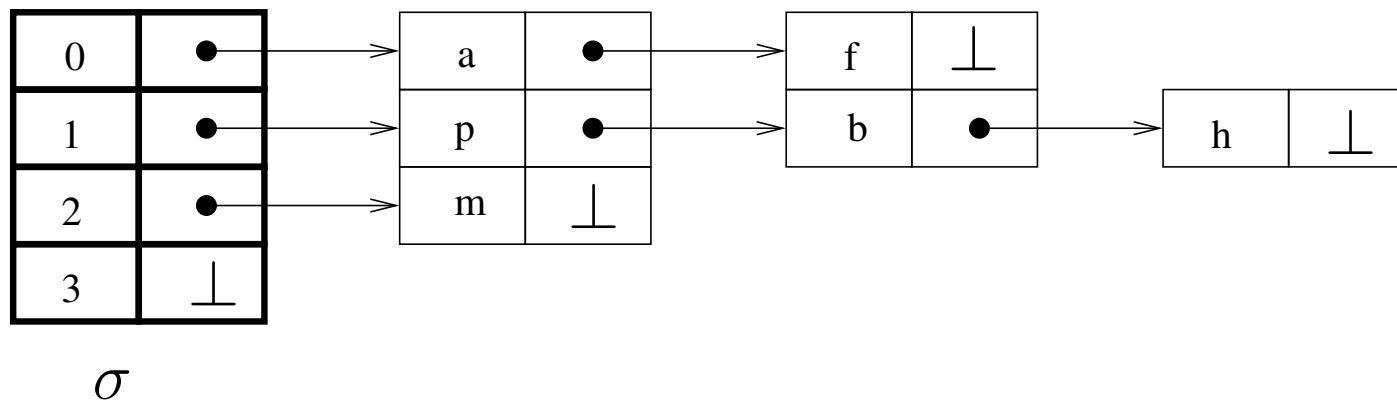
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 - get $\binom{|I|}{|K|}$ injective functions $K \rightarrow I$
- If $|K| = 31$ and $|I| = 41$, there are around 10^{50} functions, only 10^{43} of which are injective (*one in ten million: rare*)

Thanks to D. Knuth for this calculation

Resolving collisions: chaining

- The array σ maps I to the *power set* of U
- I.e. $\sigma(i)$ stores the set of all $u \in U$ having keys which all hash to i
- In this context, such sets are also called *buckets*
- We can implement these sets as lists



$$h(a) = h(f) = 0$$

$$h(p) = h(b) = h(h) = 1$$

$$h(m) = 2$$

\perp stands for the `null` reference

Implementation

Implementation: `find`

```
● find(k) {  
     $i = h(k)$   
    if  $\sigma(i) = \perp$  then  
        return  $\perp$ ; // not found  
    else  
        return  $\sigma(i).find(u)$ ;  
    end if  
}
```

Note: the list's `find` returns a reference to list element containing u or \perp if u is not in the list

Implementation: insert

```
● insert( $u$ ) {  
     $\sigma(h(\tau^{-1}(u))).\text{add}(u)$ ; // uses the list's add  
}  
  
● remove( $k$ ) {  
     $t = \text{find}(k)$ ;  
    if  $t \neq \perp$  then  
         $\sigma(h(k)).\text{remove}(t)$ ; //  $t$  points to the list node with  $u$   
    end if  
}
```

Complexity

- All the table methods employ the underlying list methods
- In particular, `find` is $O(\text{list.size}())$ and is used by all three methods
- However, if there are no collisions, the lists all have size 1, so methods are $O(1)$ as required
- Choose h so that the probability of collisions is low
- Collisions are “evenly spread” over the keys
- Aim to have short lists of similar size

Can show that avg. case complexity is $O(1 + \alpha)$

where $\alpha = |\text{ran } \tau|/|I|$

Hash function implementation

- Above code assumes h to be available
- Designing good hash functions is very difficult
- So difficult, in fact, as to require several clock cycles
- This computer work, as any useful work, is worth some money

<http://bitcoin.org/>

- Moreover, this work prevents spam

<http://hashcash.org/>

- Java provides a ready-made method `hashCode()` which applies to all classes
- However, an ad-hoc implementation is often needed

Testing Java object equality

Perfect hash

- Let a, b are Java (or C++) objects of a class C
- Suppose they have a large size when stored in memory
- Suppose also you want to test whether $a=b$
- Byte-comparison takes $O(\max(|a|, |b|))$ (too long)
- Consider a hash function $h : K \rightarrow I$ where $K = C$ and I are integers modulo a given prime p
- Since we can never allow $h(a) = h(b)$ whenever $a \neq b$, h must be injective
- An injective hash function is also known as a *perfect hash function*
- A perfect hash function is *minimal* (MPHF) if $|\text{dom } \tau| = |I|$
- MPHFs can be found in time $O(|\text{dom } \tau|)$ [Czech, Majewski, 1992]
- This requires $\text{dom } \tau$ to be known in advance: impractical for transient memory objects

Or else...

- Use normal hash functions
- Design them so that the chances of a collision are as low as possible
- Only test for *difference* rather than equality
- If $h(a) \neq h(b)$, then certainly $a \neq b$
- If $h(a) = h(b)$, it may be because $a = b$ or because of a collision
- Only perform lengthy byte comparisons whenever $h(a) = h(b)$
- Remark that there are $|I|$ pairs $i, j \in I$ such that $i = j$ but $\frac{|I|(|I|-1)}{2}$ unordered pairs with $i \neq j$
- Probability that $h(a) = h(b)$: $\frac{2}{|I|-1}$
- Most comparisons are expected to take $O(1)$, $O(\frac{1}{|I|})$ are expected to take $O(\max(|a|, |b|))$

Appendix

The obvious won't work

Why $h(k)$ should be computed in function of k

- Let K = all words and $\text{dom } \tau = \{\text{Leo}, \text{Jon}, \text{Tim}, \text{Joe}, \dots\}$
- Why not let $h(\text{Leo}) = 1$, $h(\text{Jon}) = 2$ and so on?
- Store “Joe” in $\sigma(h(\text{Joe})) = \sigma(4)$
- Find if “Joe” is in $\text{dom } \tau$: see if $\sigma(4) = \perp$ or not
- **Trouble:** for a key $k \in \text{dom } \tau$, how do you find the value of $h(k)$?
- Have to search the sequence of pairs $((\text{Leo}, 1), (\text{Jon}, 2), \dots)$
- $O(n)$ if sequence unsorted, $O(\log n)$ if sorted

Process fails to be $O(1)$

Open addressing

- Often, $\text{dom } \sigma \subsetneq I$
- \Rightarrow some hash values in I are never used
- \Rightarrow hash table has unused entries
- Can use them to store colliding keys
- If $h(k) = h(k') = i$ with $k \neq k'$, store $\tau(k) = u$ at $\sigma(i)$ and $\tau(k') = u'$ at first unused hash table entry after the i -th one

Open addressing: collision

\vdots	
$i - 1$	
i	
$i + 1$	w
$i + 2$	
\vdots	

Open addressing: collision

\vdots	
$i - 1$	
i	u
$i + 1$	w
$i + 2$	
\vdots	

Open addressing: collision

\vdots	
$i - 1$	
i	u
$i + 1$	w
$i + 2$	u'
\vdots	

Open addressing: insert

```
● insert( $u$ )  
   $i = h(\tau^{-1}(u));$   
   $c = 0;$   
  while  $c < |\sigma| \wedge \sigma(i) \neq \perp$  do  
     $i \leftarrow (i + 1) \bmod |\sigma|;$   
     $c \leftarrow c + 1;$   
  end while  
  if  $c \geq |\sigma|$  then  
    error: hash table full;  
  else  
     $\sigma(i) = u;$   
  end if
```

Open addressing: find



find(k)

$i = h(k);$

$c = 0;$

while $c < |\sigma| \wedge \tau^{-1}(\sigma(i)) \neq k$ **do**

$i \leftarrow (i + 1) \bmod |\sigma|;$

$c \leftarrow c + 1;$

end while

if $c \geq |\sigma|$ **then**

return $\perp;$

else

return $\sigma(i);$

end if

remove is not easy to implement

An implementation secret

- In the pseudocodes, I've been referring to $\tau(k)$ and $\tau^{-1}(u)$ as if they'd be easy to compute
- That is *mathematical notation*: I simply meant “the record associated with the key k ” and “the key associated with the record u ”
- In an implementation, record pairs $\langle k, u \rangle$ in the hash table
- Then $\sigma : I \rightarrow K \times U$
- Pseudocode adapts perfectly: τ, τ^{-1} simply mean “the other element of the pair”

End of Lecture 5