CSCI 104L Lecture 26 : Hash Tables

Question 1. A company has assigned a unique 3-digit ID to each of its 1000 employees. We want to design a data structure so that you can input an employee ID and quickly bring up their employee record. How should we implement this?

Question 2. Does something similar work if we want to do this from USC student ID to student records? Why or why not?

Question 3. What if we want to store the English dictionary as a set of strings, so we can quickly look up if something is a word or not. Can we do something like this for non-integer keys?

A hash function takes a valid input (in the case of the last question, a word in the English language) and outputs the entry in the array to store it. To be a good hash function it must:

- be efficient to calculate
- distribute the inputs well
- be consistent

Question 4. Is \( h(k) = 0 \) a good hash function? Why or why not?

Question 5. Is \( h(k) = k \mod m \), where \( m \) is the size of the table, a good hash function? Why or why not?

Question 6. Is \( h(k) = a \text{ random integer between } 0 \text{ and } m-1 \), where \( m \) is the size of the table, a good hash function? Why or why not?

The goal is to design a hash function where the probability of collision is \( \leq \frac{1}{m} \). Any “good” hash function that satisfies this is called a “Universal Hash Function.”

Question 7. What do we mean when we say that a good hash function is pseudo-random?

Question 8. How can a good hash function be used to store passwords?

Question 9. Suppose we make a hash table to implement the set or map ADT. What is the worst case running time for create, insert, delete, contains?

Question 10. Suppose we make a hash table to implement the set or map ADT, and use a Universal Hash Function. What is the expected running time for create, insert, delete, contains?

Of course, for that to be useful, we need a Universal Hash Function. Here you go: assume that all inputs are base \( p \), for some prime \( p \). \( p \) will be the size of our Hash Table. Now, English words are base 26, but we can translate them to base \( p \) quite easily. So an English word will be \( w = w_1 w_2 ... w_x, 0 \leq w_i < p \).

Suppose that the longest english word has length \( x \). Then we will choose a random number (base \( p \)) \( a = a_1 a_2 ... a_x \). We choose this random number ONCE when we create our hash table, and then keep that random number until we delete the hash table. The hash function is then this:

\[
h(w) = (\sum a_i w_i) \mod p.
\]
Collision Resolution

One way to handle collisions is to not have them. That’s nice if it happens, but it’s rare at best.

Another way is to have each element in the hash table be a linked list. This is called chaining. There’s still the issue that this makes the memory requirements much larger than they would be if we could just use an array.

The alternative is probing, wherein we just have an array of either key/value pairs (no linked lists). There are many variants.

In linear probing, if \( h(k) = i \) and \( A[i] \) is taken, we try \( A[i+1] \) and then \( A[i+2] \) and so on. If you reach the end of the array, you loop back to the beginning.

That is, \( h(k, i) = (h(k) + i) \mod m \), where \( i \) is the number of failed inserts, and \( m \) is the size of our hash table.

**Question 11.** What problems can you see arising when using linear probing?

**Quadratic Probing**

As before, if \( h(k) = i \) and \( A[i] \) is taken, try somewhere else. Except now, \( A[i+1] \) is followed by an attempt at \( A[i+4] \), then \( A[i+9] \) and so on. As before, loop back to the beginning if you hit the end of the array.

That is, \( h(k, i) = (h(k) + i^2) \mod m \).

Two different items mapped to \( i \) and \( i+1 \) respectively will follow very different paths. We don’t get primary clumping as we did for Linear Probing.

Secondary clumping will only occur amongst all of the items which were originally mapped to index \( i \). Note that chaining has this form of clumping as well.

**Question 12.** Using the hash function \( h(k) = k \mod 10 \), determine the contents of the hash table after inserting \( 1, 11, 2, 21, 12, 31, 41 \).

The load factor of a hash table is the number of stored elements divided by the number of indices.

When you use chaining, you generally try to keep the load factor below 1.0. If you load factor becomes too large, you should resize the array and rehash the contents (and possibly use a new hash function).

When you use probing, you **must** make sure the load factor of the hash table is reasonable. If the hash table is completely full, you simply cannot add new elements. As you approach completely full, operations take ridiculously long. Usually you’ll want to keep the load factor below 0.5.

In fact, if your load factor is above 0.5, you cannot guarantee that quadratic probing will find an empty bucket, even if the hash table size is prime.

**Question 13.** Using the hash function \( h(k) = k \mod 7 \), determine what happens after inserting \( 14, 8, 21, 2, 7 \).

If the table size is not prime, the problem is even worse.

**Question 14.** Using the hash function \( h(k) = k \mod 9 \), determine what happens after inserting \( 36, 27, 18, 9, 0 \).

If your hash table has a prime size, then the first \( \frac{m}{2} \) probes are guaranteed to go to distinct locations, meaning that you will find a location if the load factor is no more than 0.5.