Course: Design and Analysis of Algorithms

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Inventing Harmonious Future

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Previously Studied

- Array and Linked List to store a Set of elements.
- Insertion Time: O(1) in Both
- Search Time: O(N) in Both
- Deletion Time: O(N) (As it requires to search before deletion)

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Question: How to reduce search time?



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- Solution: Hash Table
- An Effective data structure for dictionaries

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- Solution: Hash Table
- An Effective data structure for dictionaries
- It stores a value/element having some key: we say them key-value pair
- E.g.: To store a document: Content can be value while filePath is the key
- E.g.: In real dictionary: word => key and meaning => value
- In blockchain: block => value, blockhash => key

Direct Addressing

• A hash table generalizes the simpler notion of an ordinary array

When works? Universe of keys is small.

How?

- Suppose key $k \in U = \{0, 1, \dots, m-1\}$
- Take an array T of size m.

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Then what?

- Insert: value x with k as T[k] = x. (O(1)) time.
- Search: just return T[k]. (O(1)) time.

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Large Universe

- What if key universe is large?
- Suppose want to store Aadhaar info where key is 16-digit Aadhaar No.
- requires table of size $10^{16} \approx 2^{58}$
- Too large: Impractical
- Actual Number of Data: 2³²

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For Large Universe

There may be collision



What to do for large universe:

- Consider Aadhaar Data:
- Take table of 2³² size.
- We require a function that maps keys to the indices of T.
- domain size (2^{58}) is larger than co-domain $(2^{32}) =>$ Collision

How to implement with collision

• Mixing Array and linked list => Chaining

Hash Table: Example



Figure 11.3 Collision resolution by chaining. Each hash-table slot T[j] contains a linked list of all the keys whose hash value is j. For example, $h(k_1) = h(k_4)$ and $h(k_5) = h(k_7) = h(k_2)$.

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Collision

What about: Insertion & Search complexities?

Worst case

• Insertion: O(1), • Search: Worst case O(N), unsuccessful search

Average case

- choice of function matters
- Each element in co-domain should have equal number of pre-images.
- Simple Uniform hashing
- Complexity of Successful search
 - Insertion: O(1); Search: Worst case O(N/m)



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Next Class:

- Open addressing:
- Linear probing:
- Quadratic probing
- Double hashing
- Analysis of open-address hashing
- Universal Hashing
- Perfect hashing



Deletion in a Hash Table

Deletion in Chaining

- Process: Just delete the node from the linked list
- Complexity: worst case O(N)
- For uniform distribution, average case- O(N)/O(M)

Deletion in Open Addressing

- Process: mark as deleted -No actual deletion
- Complexity- worst case O(N)
- For uniform distribution ...average case- O(N)/O(M)

Chaining or Open Addressing: What to choose?

Implementation

- Chaining: Linked list and Array– Each node in a linked list stores (key,value, nextPtr)– Array stores heads
- Open addressing: Only Array. Array contains (key,value)

chaining is preferred when

- the expected number of collisions is high or
- when the data is unpredictable and unevenly distributed

open addressing is preferred when

- memory usage is a concern
- when the data is uniformly distributed

Probing in Open Addressing:

 $H(key, 0), H(key, 1), \ldots, H(key, n-1)$.. Until we find an empty slot Where H(key, 0) = h(key)//h is the actual hash function.

Linear Probing

- H(key, i) = h(key) + i
- Cluster Problem:

Quadratic probing

- $H(key, i) = h(key) + c_1 \cdot i + c_2 \cdot i^2$, c_1, c_2 constants
- Cluster reduced: cache problem increased

Double hashing

- $H(key, i) = h_1(key) + i \cdot h_2(key)$, h_1, h_2 on same co-domain
- Cluster reduced further: cache problem increased further

Selecting Good Hash Function

How to improve: **Collision reduction** Good hash function selection: How?

- What makes a hash function good?
- Simple Uniform hashing:
- Example: $h(k) = \lfloor km \rfloor$: When $0 \le k < 1$



Selecting Good Hash Function

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Most hash function assumes key k as a Natural Number

- If not we find a way.
- 2 E.g., string key "tcg" –represented as $116.128^2 + 99.128 + 103$

Division Method

$$h(k) = k \mod m$$

Discussion

- When $m = 2^p$, h(k) is just the p lowest-order bits of k
- Good choice of m: A prime not too close to an exact power of 2



Multiplication Method

$$h(k) = \lfloor m(kA - \lfloor kA \rfloor) \rfloor$$
 where $0 < A < 1$



Figure 11.4 The multiplication method of hashing. The *w*-bit representation of the key *k* is multiplied by the *w*-bit value $s = A \cdot 2^w$. The *p* highest-order bits of the lower *w*-bit half of the product form the desired hash value h(k).

- It is solving choice of *m* problem
- m can be chosen as 2^p form. It actually helps. How?



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Universal class of hash functions

- What if some adversary chooses key such a way that all falls in a single bucket?
- Fixing some hash function is not enough.

Universal Hashing

A collection of hash functions that maps universe \mathcal{U} of keys to [n].

- For any pair $k_1.k_2 \in U$, The number of hash function for which $h(k_1) = h(k_2)$ is at most U/m.
- Hint: assume H_i is collection for which h(k) = h(l) = i.

Complexities while Chaining

- initially empty table with m slots
- any sequence of n INSERT, SEARCH, DELETE ->
- complexity-> $\Theta(n)$ where n = O(m).

Example: Designing universal class of hashing

Example:

- p(>m) is a large prime so that $0 \le k < p$ every key
- $\mathbb{Z}_p = \{0, 1, \dots, p-1\}; \mathbb{Z}_p^* = \{1, 2, \dots, p-1\};$
- choose $a \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ and $b \in \mathbb{Z}_p$
- Define $H_{ab}(k) = ((ak + b) \mod p) \mod m$
- $H_{ab}: \mathbb{Z}_p \to \mathbb{Z}_m$: count = p(p-1)

Other Example:

$$h_k(x) = (k[0] + k[1]x + k[2]x^2 + ... + k[n-1]x(n-1)) \mod p$$

mod m; m >> N; k[i] is an integer in some range [0, N - 1]

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Proof

- To prove that H is universal, we need to show that for any two distinct keys k1 and k2, the probability that h(k1) = h(k2) for a randomly chosen hash function h in H is at most 1/m.
- Let's assume that k1 and k2 are two distinct keys. We want to compute the probability that h(k1) = h(k2) for a randomly chosen hash function h in H.
- We can express this probability as follows:
- P(h(k1) = h(k2)) = P((ak1 + b) mod p mod m = (ak2 + b) mod p mod m)
- Let's define $c = (ak1 + b) \mod pandd = (ak2 + b) \mod p$.

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Proof: Part-II

- Note that c and d are both random integers chosen from the range [0, p − 1]. Since p is prime and k1 is not equal to k2, we know that c and d are distinct with probability at least (p − 2)/p.
- Now, let's consider two cases:
- Case 1: $c \mod m = d \mod m$
- If c mod m = d mod m, thenwehaveh(k1) = h(k2). The probability of this event is:
- $P(c \mod m = d \mod m) = \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} P(c \mod p = i \text{ AND } d \mod p = i) = \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} P(c \mod p = i) * P(d \mod p = i) = \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} (1/p) * (1/p) \text{ (since } c \text{ and } d \text{ are chosen independently)} = m * (1/p^2)$

Proof: Part-III

- Since p > m, we know that 1/p² < 1/m, so the probability of h(k1) = h(k2) in this case is at most 1/m.
- Case 2: $c \mod m \neq d \mod m$
- If $c \mod m \neq d \mod m$, then we have $h(k1) \neq h(k2)$. The probability of this event is:
- $P(c \mod m \neq d \mod m) = \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} P(c \mod p = iANDd \mod p \neq i) + \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} P(c \mod p \neq iANDd \mod p = i)$ = $2 * \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} P(c \mod p = i) * (1 - P(d \mod p = i))$ = $2 * \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} (1/p) * (1 - 1/p)$ (since c and d are chosen independently) = $2 * m * ((p - 1)/p^2)$
- Since p > m, we know that $(p-1)/p^2 < 1/p$, so the probability of h

Perfect hashing

Question

Can we achieve O(1) memory accesses are required to perform a search in the worst case.

- Yes: When the set of keys is static.
- Once the keys are stored in the table, the set of keys never changes.

Description

- $\bullet\,$ Use two levels of hashing, with universal hashing at each level- primary & secondary
- Expected amount of memory used overall- O(N) How?

How to choose sizes?

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