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Definitions:

- Universe U of keys, e.g., $U \subseteq \mathbb{N}_0$. U very large.
- Set $S \subseteq U$ of keys, $|S| = m \leq |U|$.
- Array $T[0, \ldots, n-1]$ hash-table.
- ► Hash function $h: U \rightarrow [0, ..., n-1]$.

The hash-function *h* should fulfill:

- Fast to evaluate.
- Small storage requirement.
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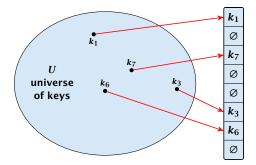
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Direct Addressing

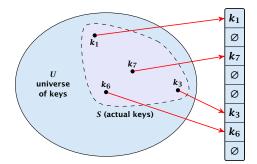
Ideally the hash function maps all keys to different memory locations.



This special case is known as Direct Addressing. It is usually very unrealistic as the universe of keys typically is quite large, and in particular larger than the available memory.

Perfect Hashing

Suppose that we know the set S of actual keys (no insert/no delete). Then we may want to design a simple hash-function that maps all these keys to different memory locations.



Such a hash function *h* is called a perfect hash function for set *S*.

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If we do not know the keys in advance, the best we can hope for is that the hash function distributes keys evenly across the table.

Problem: Collisions Usually the universe *U* is much larger than the table-size *n*.

Hence, there may be two elements k_1, k_2 from the set S that map to the same memory location (i.e., $h(k_1) = h(k_2)$). This is called a collision.



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Typically, collisions do not appear once the size of the set S of actual keys gets close to n, but already when $|S| \ge \omega(\sqrt{n})$.

Lemma 1

The probability of having a collision when hashing m elements into a table of size n under uniform hashing is at least

$$1 - e^{-\frac{m(m-1)}{2n}} \approx 1 - e^{-\frac{m^2}{2n}}$$
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Uniform hashing:

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7.7 Hashing

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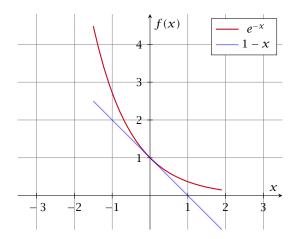
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Here the first equality follows since the ℓ -th element that is hashed has a probability of $\frac{n-\ell+1}{n}$ to not generate a collision under the condition that the previous elements did not induce collisions.





The inequality $1 - x \le e^{-x}$ is derived by stopping the Taylor-expansion of e^{-x} after the second term.

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Resolving Collisions

The methods for dealing with collisions can be classified into the two main types

- open addressing, aka. closed hashing
- hashing with chaining, aka. closed addressing, open hashing.

There are applications e.g. computer chess where you do not resolve collisions at all.



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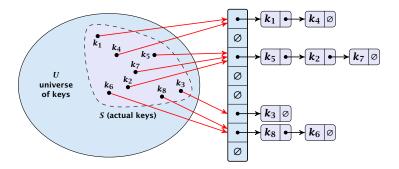
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There are applications e.g. computer chess where you do not resolve collisions at all.



Arrange elements that map to the same position in a linear list.

- Access: compute h(x) and search list for key[x].
- Insert: insert at the front of the list.





Let A denote a strategy for resolving collisions. We use the following notation:

- A⁺ denotes the average time for a successful search when using A;
- A⁻ denotes the average time for an unsuccessful search when using A;
- We parameterize the complexity results in terms of $\alpha := \frac{m}{n}$, the so-called fill factor of the hash-table.

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$$A^- = 1 + \alpha \; .$$

For a successful search observe that we do **not** choose a list at random, but we consider a random key k in the hash-table and ask for the search-time for k.

This is 1 plus the number of elements that lie before k in k's list.

Let k_{ℓ} denote the ℓ -th key inserted into the table.

Let for two keys k_i and k_j , X_{ij} denote the indicator variable for the event that k_i and k_j hash to the same position. Clearly, $\Pr[X_{ij} = 1] = 1/n$ for uniform hashing.

The expected successful search cost is

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}\left(1+\sum_{j=i+1}^{m}X_{ij}\right)\right]$$



7.7 Hashing

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Hence, the expected cost for a successful search is $A^+ \leq 1 + \frac{\alpha}{2}$.

Disadvantages:

- pointers increase memory requirements
- pointers may lead to bad cache efficiency

Advantages:

- no à priori limit on the number of elements
- deletion can be implemented efficiently
- by using balanced trees instead of linked list one can also obtain worst-case guarantees.



All objects are stored in the table itself.

Define a function h(k, j) that determines the table-position to be examined in the *j*-th step. The values $h(k, 0), \ldots, h(k, n - 1)$ must form a permutation of $0, \ldots, n - 1$.

Search(k): Try position h(k, 0); if it is empty your search fails; otw. continue with h(k, 1), h(k, 2),

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Choices for h(k, j):

Linear probing:

 $h(k, i) = h(k) + i \mod n$ (sometimes: $h(k, i) = h(k) + ci \mod n$).

Quadratic probing:

 $h(k,i) = h(k) + c_1 i + c_2 i^2 \mod n.$

Double hashing:

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Choices for h(k, j):

Linear probing:

 $h(k, i) = h(k) + i \mod n$ (sometimes: $h(k, i) = h(k) + ci \mod n$).

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Linear Probing

- Advantage: Cache-efficiency. The new probe position is very likely to be in the cache.
- Disadvantage: Primary clustering. Long sequences of occupied table-positions get longer as they have a larger probability to be hit. Furthermore, they can merge forming larger sequences.

Lemma 2

Let *L* be the method of linear probing for resolving collisions:

$$L^{+} \approx \frac{1}{2} \left(1 + \frac{1}{1 - \alpha} \right)$$
$$L^{-} \approx \frac{1}{2} \left(1 + \frac{1}{(1 - \alpha)^{2}} \right)$$



7.7 Hashing

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Quadratic Probing

- Not as cache-efficient as Linear Probing.
- Secondary clustering: caused by the fact that all keys mapped to the same position have the same probe sequence.

Lemma 3

Let Q be the method of quadratic probing for resolving collisions:

$$Q^{+} \approx 1 + \ln\left(\frac{1}{1-\alpha}\right) - \frac{\alpha}{2}$$
$$Q^{-} \approx \frac{1}{1-\alpha} + \ln\left(\frac{1}{1-\alpha}\right) - \alpha$$



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7.7 Hashing

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Double Hashing

Any probe into the hash-table usually creates a cache-miss.

Lemma 4

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$$D^+ \approx \frac{1}{\alpha} \ln\left(\frac{1}{1-\alpha}\right)$$

$$D^- \approx \frac{1}{1-\alpha}$$

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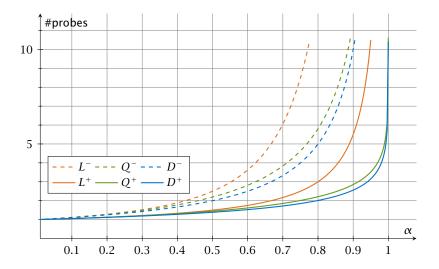
$$D^{+} pprox rac{1}{lpha} \ln\left(rac{1}{1-lpha}
ight)$$
 $D^{-} pprox rac{1}{1-lpha}$

Some values:

α	Linear Probing		Quadratic Probing		Double Hashing	
	L^+	L^{-}	Q^+	Q^-	D^+	D^-
0.5	1.5	2.5	1.44	2.19	1.39	2
0.9	5.5	50.5	2.85	11.40	2.55	10
0.95	10.5	200.5	3.52	22.05	3.15	20



Open Addressing



We analyze the time for a search in a very idealized Open Addressing scheme.

► The probe sequence h(k, 0), h(k, 1), h(k, 2),... is equally likely to be any permutation of (0, 1,..., n - 1).



Let X denote a random variable describing the number of probes in an unsuccessful search.



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Let A_i denote the event that the *i*-th probe occurs and is to a non-empty slot.

 $\Pr[A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \cdots \cap A_{i-1}]$



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$$\Pr[A_1] \cdot \Pr[A_2 \mid A_1] \cdot \Pr[A_3 \mid A_1 \cap A_2] \cdot \dots \cdot \Pr[A_{i-1} \mid A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_{i-2}]$$



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$$\Pr[X \ge i] = \frac{m}{n} \cdot \frac{m-1}{n-1} \cdot \frac{m-2}{n-2} \cdot \ldots \cdot \frac{m-i+2}{n-i+2}$$



7.7 Hashing

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7.7 Hashing

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$$\leq \left(\frac{m}{n}\right)^{i-1} = \alpha^{i-1} .$$



7.7 Hashing

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 $\mathbb{E}[X]$



7.7 Hashing

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$$\mathsf{E}[X] = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \Pr[X \ge i]$$



7.7 Hashing

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$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \Pr[X \ge i] \le \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \alpha^{i-1}$$



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7.7 Hashing

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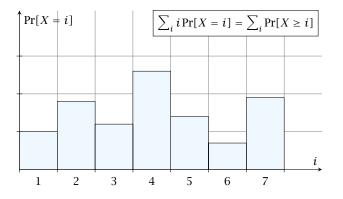
$$E[X] = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \Pr[X \ge i] \le \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \alpha^{i-1} = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \alpha^i = \frac{1}{1-\alpha}$$
$$\frac{1}{1-\alpha} = 1 + \alpha + \alpha^2 + \alpha^3 + \dots$$



7.7 Hashing

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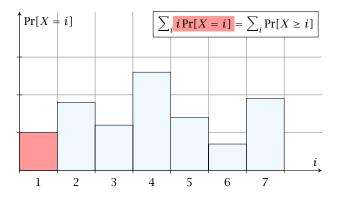
.





7.7 Hashing

i = 1

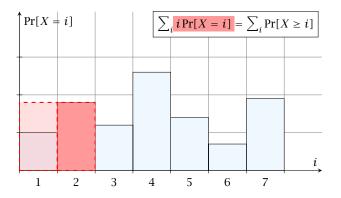




7.7 Hashing

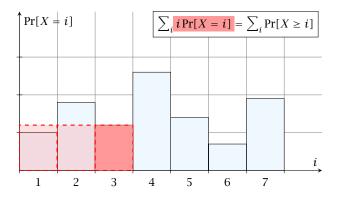
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i = 2



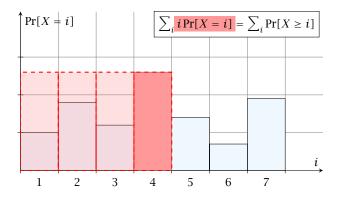
7.7 Hashing

i = 3



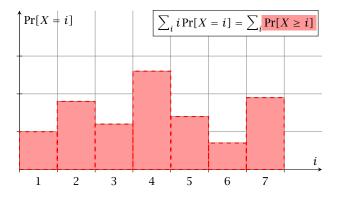
7.7 Hashing

i = 4



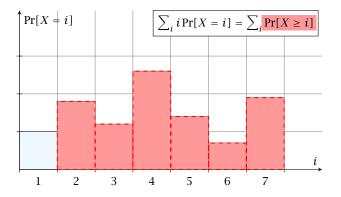
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i = 1



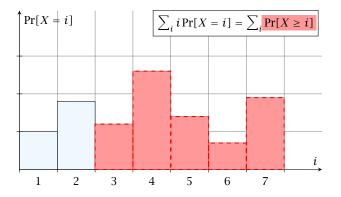
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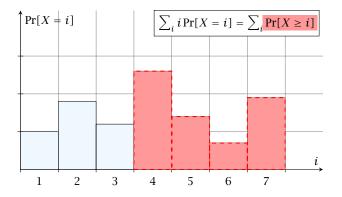
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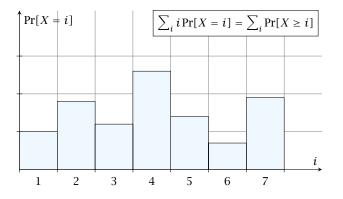
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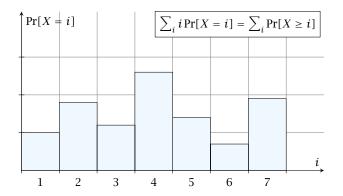


7.7 Hashing





7.7 Hashing



The *j*-th rectangle appears in both sums *j* times. (*j* times in the first due to multiplication with *j*; and *j* times in the second for summands i = 1, 2, ..., j)





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7.7 Hashing

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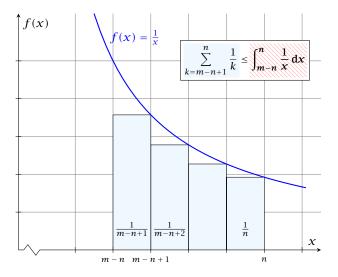
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Analysis of Idealized Open Address Hashing





How do we delete in a hash-table?

- For hashing with chaining this is not a problem. Simply search for the key, and delete the item in the corresponding list.
- For open addressing this is difficult.



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- Simply removing a key might interrupt the probe sequence of other keys which then cannot be found anymore.
- One can delete an element by replacing it with a deleted-marker.
 - During an insertion if a deleted-marker is encountered an element can be inserted there.
 During a search a deleted-marker must not be used to
 - terminate the probe sequence.
- The table could fill up with deleted-markers leading to bad performance.
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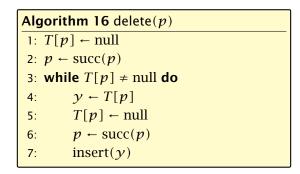


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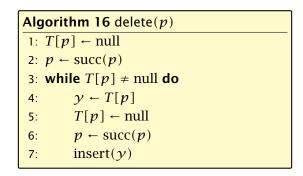


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Therefore, so far we assumed that the hash-function is random so that regardless of the input the average case behaviour is good.

However, the assumption of uniform hashing that h is chosen randomly from all functions $f: U \to [0, ..., n-1]$ is clearly unrealistic as there are $n^{|U|}$ such functions. Even writing down such a function would take $|U| \log n$ bits.

Universal hashing tries to define a set $\mathcal H$ of functions that is much smaller but still leads to good average case behaviour when selecting a hash-function uniformly at random from $\mathcal H$.

EADS © Ernst Mayr, Harald Räcke

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Definition 5

A class \mathcal{H} of hash-functions from the universe U into the set $\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$ is called universal if for all $u_1, u_2 \in U$ with $u_1 \neq u_2$

$$\Pr[h(u_1) = h(u_2)] \le \frac{1}{n}$$
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where the probability is w.r.t. the choice of a random hash-function from set \mathcal{H} .

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Definition 6

A class \mathcal{H} of hash-functions from the universe U into the set $\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$ is called 2-independent (pairwise independent) if the following two conditions hold

- For any key $u \in U$, and $t \in \{0, ..., n-1\}$ $\Pr[h(u) = t] = \frac{1}{n}$, i.e., a key is distributed uniformly within the hash-table.
- For all $u_1, u_2 \in U$ with $u_1 \neq u_2$, and for any two hash-positions t_1, t_2 :

$$\Pr[h(u_1) = t_1 \land h(u_2) = t_2] \le \frac{1}{n^2} .$$

This requirement clearly implies a universal hash-function.

Definition 6

A class \mathcal{H} of hash-functions from the universe U into the set $\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$ is called 2-independent (pairwise independent) if the following two conditions hold

- For any key $u \in U$, and $t \in \{0, ..., n-1\}$ $\Pr[h(u) = t] = \frac{1}{n}$, i.e., a key is distributed uniformly within the hash-table.
- For all $u_1, u_2 \in U$ with $u_1 \neq u_2$, and for any two hash-positions t_1, t_2 :

$$\Pr[h(u_1) = t_1 \wedge h(u_2) = t_2] \le \frac{1}{n^2} .$$

This requirement clearly implies a universal hash-function.

Definition 7

A class \mathcal{H} of hash-functions from the universe U into the set $\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$ is called *k*-independent if for any choice of $\ell \leq k$ distinct keys $u_1, \ldots, u_\ell \in U$, and for any set of ℓ not necessarily distinct hash-positions t_1, \ldots, t_ℓ :

$$\Pr[h(u_1) = t_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge h(u_\ell) = t_\ell] \leq \frac{1}{n^\ell} ,$$

where the probability is w.r.t. the choice of a random hash-function from set \mathcal{H} .

Definition 8

A class \mathcal{H} of hash-functions from the universe U into the set $\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$ is called (μ, k) -independent if for any choice of $\ell \leq k$ distinct keys $u_1, \ldots, u_\ell \in U$, and for any set of ℓ not necessarily distinct hash-positions t_1, \ldots, t_ℓ :

$$\Pr[h(u_1) = t_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge h(u_\ell) = t_\ell] \leq \frac{\mu}{n^\ell} ,$$

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Let $U := \{0, \dots, p-1\}$ for a prime p. Let $\mathbb{Z}_p := \{0, \dots, p-1\}$, and let $\mathbb{Z}_p^* := \{1, \dots, p-1\}$ denote the set of invertible elements in \mathbb{Z}_p .

Define

 $h_{a,b}(x) := (ax + b \mod p) \mod n$

Lemma 9

The class

 $\mathcal{H} = \{h_{a,b} \mid a \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*, b \in \mathbb{Z}_p\}$

is a universal class of hash-functions from U to $\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$.

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7.7 Hashing

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Proof.

Let $x, y \in U$ be two distinct keys. We have to show that the probability of a collision is only 1/n.

 $ax + b \neq ay + b \pmod{p}$



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    ax + b ≠ ay + b (mod p)
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    Multiplying with a ≠ 0 (mod p) gives

            a(a = g) ≠ 0 (mod p)
            where we use that Z<sub>p</sub> is a field (Korper) and, hence, has no zero divisors (nultederine).
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\bullet ax + b \not\equiv ay + b \pmod{p}
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If $x \neq y$ then $(x - y) \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$.

Multiplying with $a \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ gives

 $a(x-y) \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$

where we use that \mathbb{Z}_p is a field (Körper) and, hence, has no zero divisors (nullteilerfrei).

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The hash-function does not generate collisions before the (mod n)-operation. Furthermore, every choice (a, b) is mapped to a different pair (t_x, t_y) with t_x := ax + b and t_y := ay + b.

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This holds because we can compute *a* and *b* when given t_x and t_y :

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 $t_x \equiv ax + b \qquad \pmod{p}$

$$t_{\mathcal{Y}} \equiv a\mathcal{Y} + b \qquad \pmod{p}$$

$$t_{x} - t_{y} \equiv a(x - y) \qquad (\text{mod } p)$$
$$t_{y} \equiv ay + b \qquad (\text{mod } p)$$

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 $t_x \equiv ax + b \pmod{p}$

$$t_{\mathcal{Y}} \equiv a\mathcal{Y} + b \qquad \pmod{p}$$

- $t_x t_y \equiv a(x y) \pmod{p}$ $t_y \equiv ay + b \pmod{p}$
 - $a \equiv (t_x t_y)(x y)^{-1} \pmod{p}$ $b \equiv t_y - ay \pmod{p}$

There is a one-to-one correspondence between hash-functions (pairs (a, b), $a \neq 0$) and pairs (t_x, t_y) , $t_x \neq t_y$.

Therefore, we can view the first step (before the mod *n*operation) as choosing a pair (t_x, t_y) , $t_x \neq t_y$ uniformly at random.

What happens when we do the mod n operation?

Fix a value t_x . There are p - 1 possible values for choosing t_y .

From the range $0, \ldots, p-1$ the values $t_x, t_x + n, t_x + 2n, \ldots$ map to t_x after the modulo-operation. These are at most $\lceil p/n \rceil$ values.



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Fix a value t_x . There are p - 1 possible values for choosing t_y .

From the range 0, ..., p - 1 the values $t_x, t_x + n, t_x + 2n, ...$ map to t_x after the modulo-operation. These are at most $\lceil p/n \rceil$ values.

As $t_y \neq t_x$ there are

$\left| \frac{p}{n} \right| = 1 \leq \frac{p}{n} + \frac{n-1}{n} = 1 \leq \frac{p-1}{n}$

possibilities for choosing t_y such that the final hash-value creates a collision.

This happens with probability at most $\frac{1}{n}$.



As $t_{\mathcal{Y}} \neq t_{\mathcal{X}}$ there are

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It is also possible to show that ${\mathcal H}$ is an (almost) pairwise independent class of hash-functions.

$$\Pr_{t_{x} \neq t_{y} \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}^{2}} \begin{bmatrix} t_{x} \mod n = h_{1} \\ f_{y} \mod n = h_{2} \end{bmatrix}$$



It is also possible to show that ${\mathcal H}$ is an (almost) pairwise independent class of hash-functions.

$$\frac{\left\lfloor \frac{p}{n} \right\rfloor^2}{p(p-1)} \le \Pr_{t_x \neq t_y \in \mathbb{Z}_p^2} \left[\begin{array}{c} t_x \mod n = h_1 \\ t_y \mod n = h_2 \end{array} \right] \le \frac{\left\lceil \frac{p}{n} \right\rceil^2}{p(p-1)}$$

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Note that the middle is the probability that $h(x) = h_1$ and $h(y) = h_2$. The total number of choices for (t_x, t_y) is p(p-1). The number of choices for t_x (t_y) such that $t_x \mod n = h_1$ $(t_y \mod n = h_2)$ lies between $\lfloor \frac{p}{n} \rfloor$ and $\lceil \frac{p}{n} \rceil$.

Definition 10

Let $d \in \mathbb{N}$; $q \ge (d+1)n$ be a prime; and let $\tilde{a} \in \{0, \dots, q-1\}^{d+1}$. Define for $x \in \{0, \dots, q-1\}$

$$h_{\bar{a}}(x) := \left(\sum_{i=0}^{d} a_i x^i \mod q\right) \mod n \; .$$

Let $\mathcal{H}_n^d := \{h_{\bar{a}} \mid \bar{a} \in \{0, \dots, q-1\}^{d+1}\}$. The class \mathcal{H}_n^d is (e, d+1)-independent.

Note that in the previous case we had d = 1 and chose $a_d \neq 0$.

For the coefficients $\bar{a} \in \{0, ..., q-1\}^{d+1}$ let $f_{\bar{a}}$ denote the polynomial

$$f_{\bar{a}}(x) = \left(\sum_{i=0}^{d} a_i x^i\right) \mod q$$

The polynomial is defined by d + 1 distinct points.



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The polynomial is defined by d + 1 distinct points.



Fix $\ell \le d + 1$; let $x_1, \dots, x_\ell \in \{0, \dots, q-1\}$ be keys, and let t_1, \dots, t_ℓ denote the corresponding hash-function values.

Let $A^{\ell} = \{h_{\tilde{a}} \in \mathcal{H} \mid h_{\tilde{a}}(x_i) = t_i \text{ for all } i \in \{1, \dots, \ell\}\}$ Then

$$h_{\tilde{a}} \in A^{\ell} \Leftrightarrow h_{\tilde{a}} = f_{\tilde{a}} \mod n$$
 and

$$f_{\bar{a}}(x_i) \in \underbrace{\{t_i + \alpha \cdot n \mid \alpha \in \{0, \dots, \lceil \frac{q}{n} \rceil - 1\}\}}_{=:B_i}$$

In order to obtain the cardinality of A^{ℓ} we choose our polynomial by fixing d + 1 points.

We first fix the values for inputs $x_1,\ldots,x_\ell.$ We have

$$|B_1| \cdot \ldots \cdot |B_\ell|$$

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We first fix the values for inputs x_1, \ldots, x_ℓ . We have

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Now, we choose $d - \ell + 1$ other inputs and choose their value arbitrarily. We have $q^{d-\ell+1}$ possibilities to do this.

Therefore we have

$$|B_1| \cdot \ldots \cdot |B_\ell| \cdot q^{d-\ell+1} \le \left\lceil \frac{q}{n} \right\rceil^\ell \cdot q^{d-\ell+1}$$

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Therefore the probability of choosing $h_{\tilde{a}}$ from A_{ℓ} is only

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Therefore the probability of choosing $h_{\tilde{a}}$ from A_{ℓ} is only

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\lceil \frac{q}{n} \rceil^{\ell} \cdot q^{d-\ell+1}}{q^{d+1}} &\leq \frac{\left(\frac{q+n}{n}\right)^{\ell}}{q^{\ell}} \leq \left(\frac{q+n}{q}\right)^{\ell} \cdot \frac{1}{n^{\ell}} \\ &\leq \left(1 + \frac{1}{\ell}\right)^{\ell} \cdot \frac{1}{n^{\ell}} \end{aligned}$$



Universal Hashing

Therefore the probability of choosing $h_{\tilde{a}}$ from A_{ℓ} is only

$$\begin{split} \frac{\lceil \frac{q}{n} \rceil^{\ell} \cdot q^{d-\ell+1}}{q^{d+1}} &\leq \frac{(\frac{q+n}{n})^{\ell}}{q^{\ell}} \leq \left(\frac{q+n}{q}\right)^{\ell} \cdot \frac{1}{n^{\ell}} \\ &\leq \left(1 + \frac{1}{\ell}\right)^{\ell} \cdot \frac{1}{n^{\ell}} \leq \frac{e}{n^{\ell}} \end{split}$$



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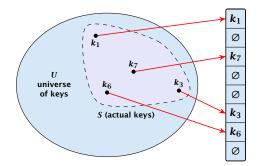
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This shows that the \mathcal{H} is (e, d + 1)-universal.

The last step followed from $q \ge (d+1)n$, and $\ell \le d+1$.



Suppose that we **know** the set S of actual keys (no insert/no delete). Then we may want to design a **simple** hash-function that maps all these keys to different memory locations.





Let m = |S|. We could simply choose the hash-table size very large so that we don't get any collisions.

Using a universal hash-function the expected number of collisions is

$$\mathbf{E}[\texttt{\#Collisions}] = \binom{m}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{n} \ .$$

If we choose $n = m^2$ the expected number of collisions is strictly less than $\frac{1}{2}$.

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We can find such a hash-function by a few trials.

However, a hash-table size of $n = m^2$ is very very high.

We construct a two-level scheme. We first use a hash-function that maps elements from S to m buckets.

Let m_j denote the number of items that are hashed to the *j*-th bucket. For each bucket we choose a second hash-function that maps the elements of the bucket into a table of size m_j^2 . The second function can be chosen such that all elements are mapped to different locations.



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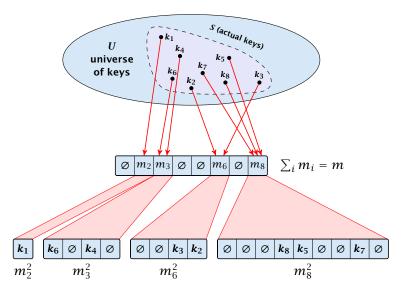
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7.7 Hashing

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$$= 2\binom{m}{2}\frac{1}{m} + m = 2m - 1 \quad .$$



We need only $\mathcal{O}(m)$ time to construct a hash-function h with $\sum_j m_j^2 = \mathcal{O}(4m)$, because with probability at least 1/2 a random function from a universal family will have this property.

Then we construct a hash-table h_j for every bucket. This takes expected time $\mathcal{O}(m_j)$ for every bucket. A random function h_j is collision-free with probability at least 1/2. We need $\mathcal{O}(m_j)$ to test this.

We only need that the hash-functions are chosen from a universal family!!!



Goal:

Try to generate a hash-table with constant worst-case search time in a dynamic scenario.

- Two hash-tables $T_1[0, ..., n-1]$ and $T_2[0, ..., n-1]$, with hash-functions h_1 , and h_2 .
- An object x is either stored at location $T_1(h_1(x))$ or $T_2(h_2(x))$.
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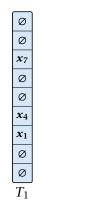
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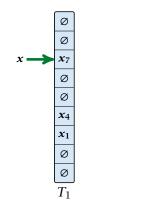
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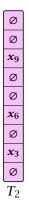






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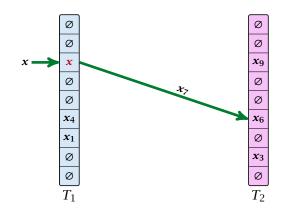




7.7 Hashing

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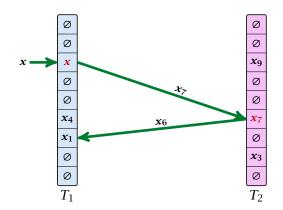




7.7 Hashing

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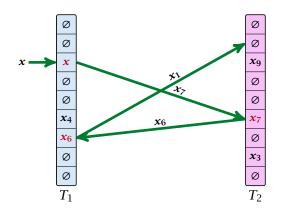




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Insert:





7.7 Hashing

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```
Algorithm 17 Cuckoo-Insert(x)
```

```
1: if T_1[h_1(x)] = x \lor T_2[h_2(x)] = x then return
```

```
2: steps ← 1
```

```
3: while steps \leq maxsteps do
```

```
4: exchange x and T_1[h_1(x)]
```

```
5: if x = null then return
```

```
6: exchange x and T_2[h_2(x)]
```

```
7: if x = null then return
```

```
8: steps \leftarrow steps +1
```

```
9: rehash() // change hash-functions; rehash everything
```

```
10: Cuckoo-Insert(x)
```

- We call one iteration through the while-loop a step of the algorithm.
- We call a sequence of iterations through the while-loop without the termination condition becoming true a phase of the algorithm.
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We first analyze the probability that we end-up in an infinite loop (that is then terminated after maxsteps steps).

Formally what is the probability to enter an infinite loop that touches *s* different keys?



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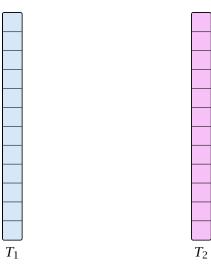


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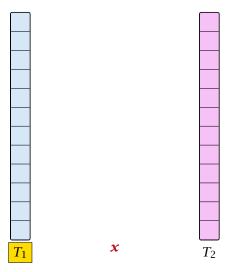
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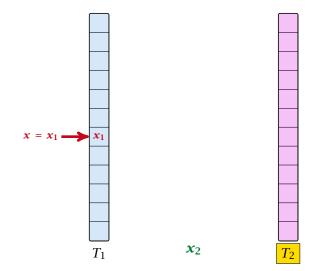








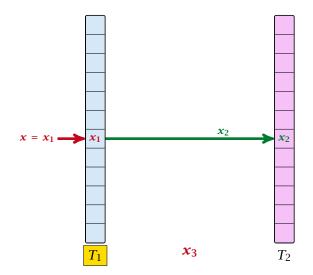






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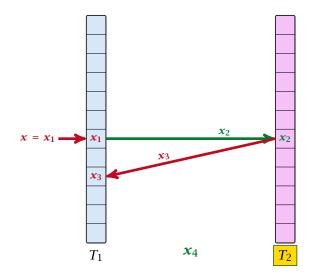
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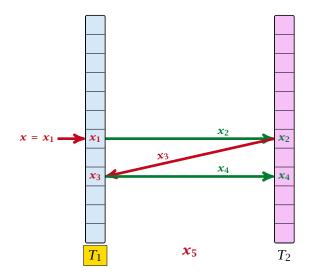
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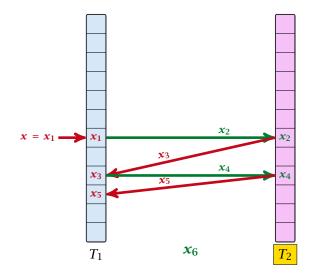
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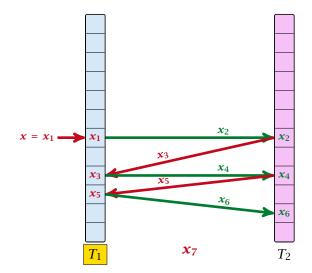
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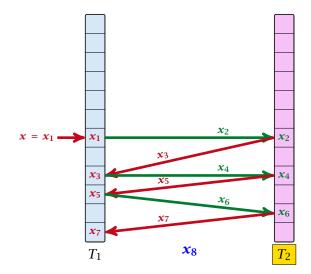
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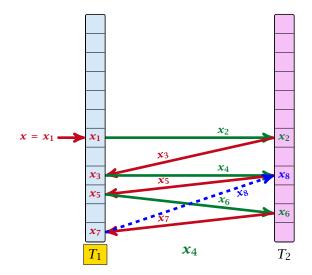
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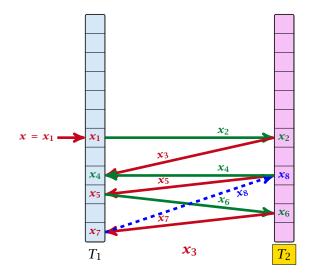
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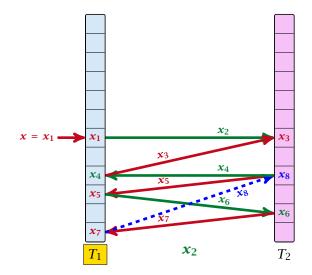
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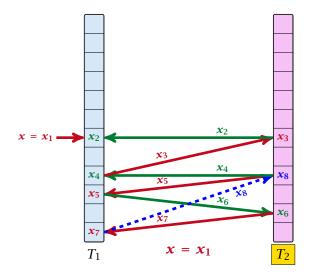
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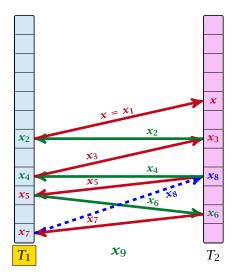
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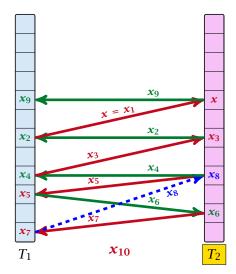


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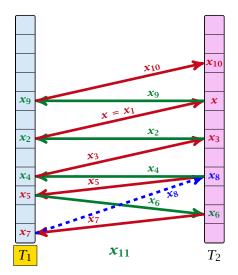




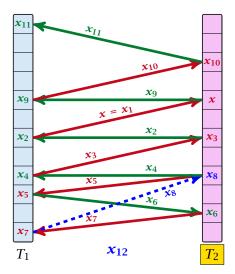


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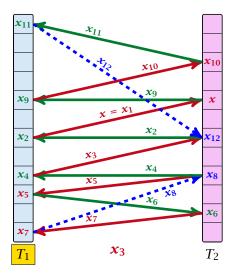
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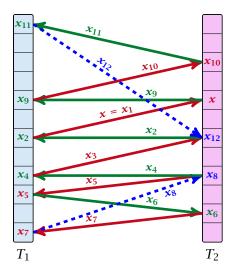




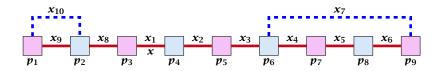












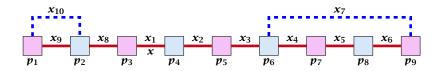
A cycle-structure of size *s* is defined by

- s = 1 different cells (alternating btw. cells from $T_{\rm P}$ and $T_{\rm P}$).
- $\sim s$ distinct keys $x = x_0, x_2, \dots, x_n$ linking the cells.
- The leftmost cell is "linked forward" to some cell on the right.
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 One link represents key x; this is where the counting starts.



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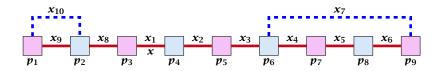
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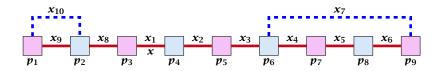




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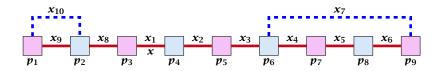




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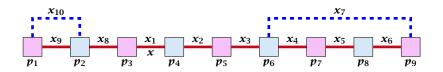




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$$h_1(x_\ell) = p_i$$
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Observation:

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What is the probability that all keys in a cycle-structure of size s correctly map into their T_1 -cell?

This probability is at most $rac{\mu}{n^s}$ since h_1 is a (μ,s) -independent hash-function.

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These events are independet.



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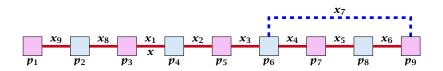
Hence,

$$\Pr[\mathsf{cycle}] = \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{1}{m^2}\right)$$
 .



Now, we analyze the probability that a phase is not successful without running into a closed cycle.





Sequence of visited keys:

 $x = x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5, x_6, x_7, x_3, x_2, x_1 = x, x_8, x_9, \dots$



Consider the sequence of not necessarily distinct keys starting with x in the order that they are visited during the phase.

Lemma 11

If the sequence is of length p then there exists a sub-sequence of at least $\frac{p+2}{3}$ keys starting with x of distinct keys.



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Proof.

Let i be the number of keys (including x) that we see before the first repeated key. Let j denote the total number of distinct keys.

The sequence is of the form:

 $x = x_1 \rightarrow x_2 \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow x_i \rightarrow x_r \rightarrow x_{r-1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow x_1 \rightarrow x_{i+1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow x_j$

As $r \leq i - 1$ the length p of the sequence is

$$p=i+r+(j-i)\leq i+j-1$$
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Either sub-sequence $x_1 \rightarrow x_2 \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow x_i$ or sub-sequence $x_1 \rightarrow x_{i+1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow x_j$ has at least $\frac{p+2}{3}$ elements.



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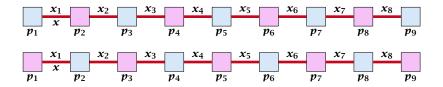
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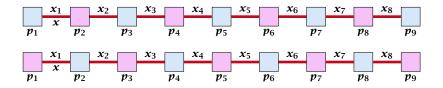




A path-structure of size *s* is defined by

- s + 1 different cells (alternating btw. cells from T_1 and T_2).
- $x = x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$ linking the cells.
- The leftmost cell is either from T_1 or T_2 .

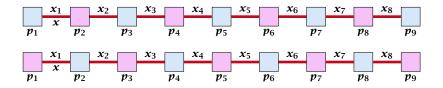




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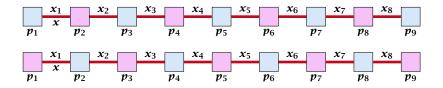




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A path-structure is active if for every key x_{ℓ} (linking a cell p_i from T_1 and a cell p_j from T_2) we have

$$h_1(x_\ell) = p_i$$
 and $h_2(x_\ell) = p_j$

Observation:

If a phase takes at least t steps without running into a cycle there must exist an active path-structure of size (2t + 2)/3.

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This gives maxsteps = $\Theta(\log m)$.

So far we estimated

$$\Pr[\mathsf{cycle}] \le \mathcal{O}\Big(\frac{1}{m^2}\Big)$$

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A phase that is not successful induces cost $\mathcal{O}(m)$ for doing a complete rehash (this dominates the cost for the steps in the phase).

The probability that a phase is not successful is $p = O(1/m^2)$ (probability $O(1/m^2)$ of running into a cycle and probability $O(1/m^2)$ of reaching maxsteps without running into a cycle).

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Since maxsteps is $\Theta(\log m)$ the largest size of a path-structure or cycle-structure contains just $\Theta(\log m)$ different keys. Therefore, it is sufficient to have $(\mu, \Theta(\log m))$ -independent hash-functions.



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Therefore, it is sufficient to have $(\mu, \Theta(\log m))$ -independent hash-functions.



- Let $\alpha := 1/(1 + \epsilon)$.
- ► Keep track of the number of elements in the table. When $m \ge \alpha n$ we double n and do a complete re-hash (table-expand).
- Whenever *m* drops below $\alpha n/4$ we divide *n* by 2 and do a rehash (table-shrink).
- Note that right after a change in table-size we have m = αn/2. In order for a table-expand to occur at least αn/2 insertions are required. Similar, for a table-shrink at least αn/4 deletions must occur.
- Therefore we can amortize the rehash cost after a change in table-size against the cost for insertions and deletions.

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Lemma 12 *Cuckoo Hashing has an expected constant insert-time and a worst-case constant search-time.*

Note that the above lemma only holds if the fill-factor (number of keys/total number of hash-table slots) is at most $\frac{1}{2(1+\epsilon)}$.



Lemma 12

Cuckoo Hashing has an expected constant insert-time and a worst-case constant search-time.

Note that the above lemma only holds if the fill-factor (number of keys/total number of hash-table slots) is at most $\frac{1}{2(1+\epsilon)}$.

