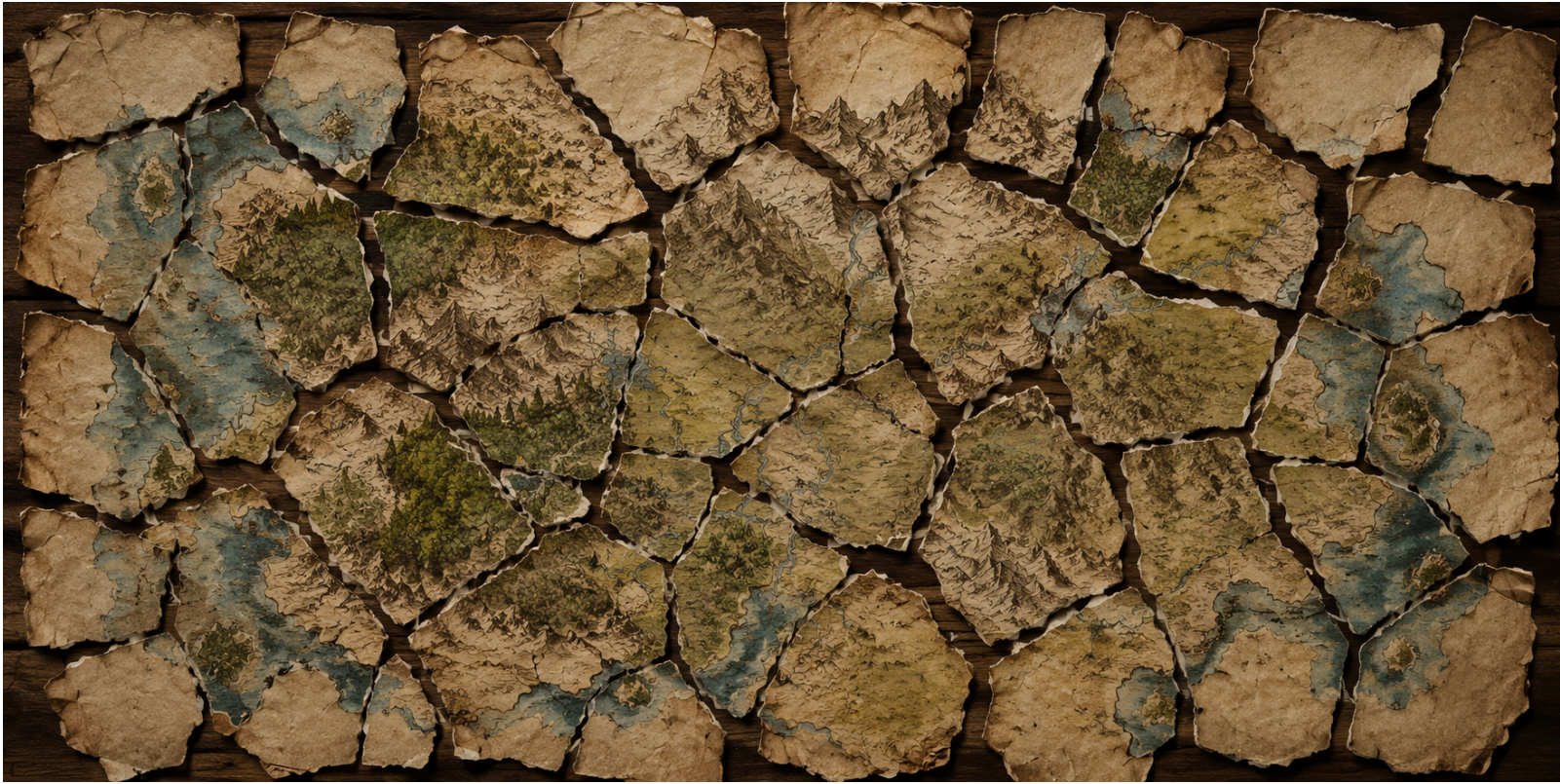
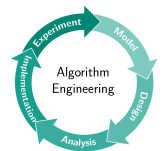




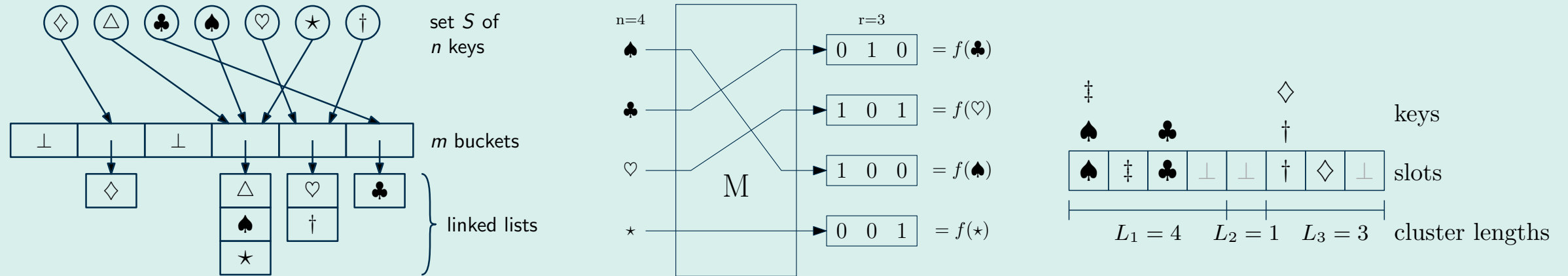
# Hash Tables I

Stefan Walzer, Ragnar Groot Koerkamp, [Stefan Hermann](#) | compiled on 6. Juli 2026

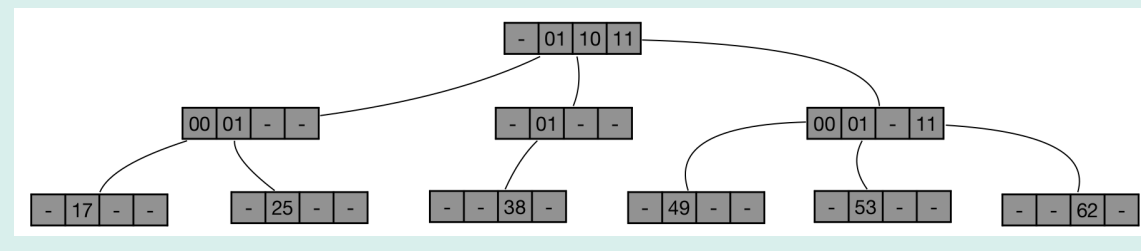


# Plan For The Next Three Lectures

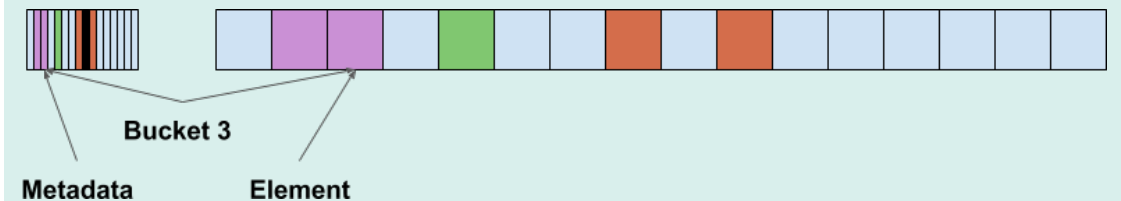
## Today: high-level



## Next Lecture: Hash table theory



## Finally: Highly engineered hash tables



# Plan For The Next Three Lectures

## Today: high-level

- Overview of techniques for hash tables
- Doing theoretical analysis of hash tables ...
- ... and see how close the theory is to actual experiments
- Compare Hash Tables to similar data structures (that are not well known)
- Some overlap with the probability and computing lecture

## Next lecture: Deep dive into the theory world

- Hash Tables with extraordinary guarantees
- Fun with surprising data structure
- But quite unpractical

## Last but not least: Deep dive into highly engineered hash tables

- Googles SwissTable
- Vectorization

# Hash Functions

## Terminology

$D$ : Universe of keys

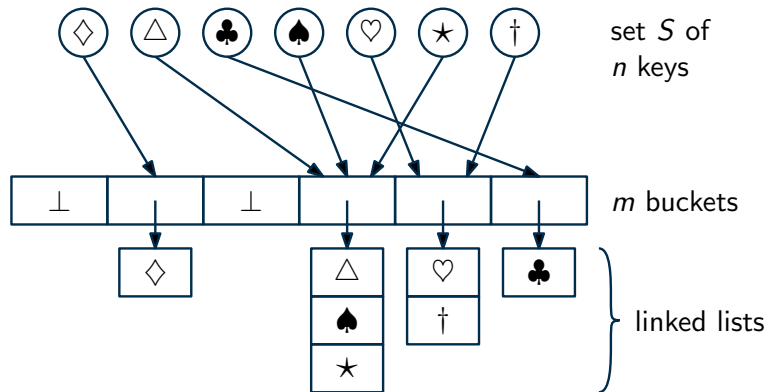
$S \subseteq D$ : set of  $n$  keys (possibly with associated data)

$h : D \rightarrow [m]$ : hash function

$\alpha = \frac{n}{m}$ : load factor,  $\alpha = \mathcal{O}(1)$

## Hash Table with Chaining

Operations in time  $t$  with  $\mathbb{E}[t] = \mathcal{O}(1)$ .



# Hash Functions

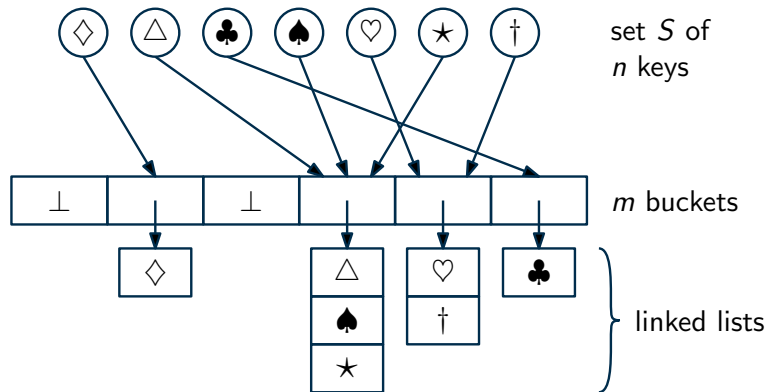
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## Hash Table with Chaining

Operations in time  $t$  with  $\mathbb{E}[t] = \mathcal{O}(1)$ .

Randomness comes from the hash function.

## Ideal Hash Functions

Ideally, every function from  $D$  to  $[n]$  is equally likely to be  $h$ :

$$h \sim \mathcal{U}([m]^D).$$

# Hash Functions

## In Theory

In this lecture:

We use the *Simple Uniform Hashing Assumption*, i.e. we assume  $h \sim \mathcal{U}([m]^D)$

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## In Practice

- 1 sample a seed  $\sim \mathcal{U}([2^{64}])$
- 2 use e.g. GxHash (the following is very simplified)  

```
__m256i gxHash(__m256i seed, __m256i* ptr, __m256i* end) {  
    __m256i state = seed;  
    while (ptr < end) {  
        __m256i next = _mm256_loadu_si256(ptr++);  
        state = _mm256_aesenc_epu128(state, next);  
    }  
    return state;  
}
```

The result is a vector of  
(hopefully uniformly distributed) integers.



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- 3 map a uniformly distributed `uint64_t` hash to a uniformly distributed value in  $[m]$

# Hash Functions

## In Theory

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We use the *Simple Uniform Hashing Assumption*, i.e. we assume  $h \sim \mathcal{U}([m]^D)$

## Middle Ground (not here)

E.g. Universal or independent hash functions

- amenable to analysis (but more difficult)
- still uncommon in practice

## In Practice

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The result is a vector of (hopefully uniformly distributed) integers.

- 3 map a uniformly distributed `uint64_t` hash to a uniformly distributed value in  $[m]$

```
// slow mod
return hash % m;

// "fast range"
return (uint64_t)((((__uint128_t)hash * (__uint128_t)m) >> 64);
```

# Hash table overview

## Metrics

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| Technique | Avg. Positive Query | Negative Query | Insertion | Bits per Key |
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| Chaining  |                     |                |           |              |

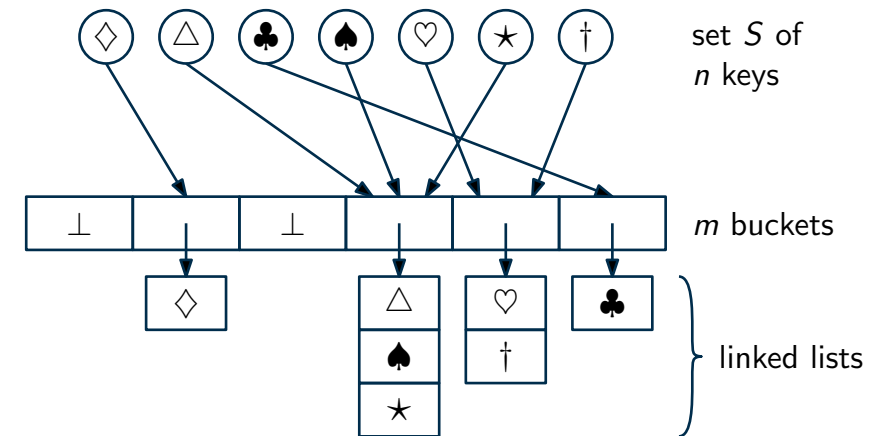
# Negative Queries for Hash Tables using Chaining

## Goal

- For chaining, we use the number of pointers that we have to look at as a model for the query time.
- What is the query time of a key  $x \notin S$ ?

## Negative query time

- A negative query will go through the entire chain: It first looks at the pointer of the bucket  $h(x)$ , and then at one additional pointer for each key  $y$  mapped to the same bucket  $h(y) = h(x)$ .
- Using the simple uniform hashing assumption, the  $n$  keys are uniformly distributed among the  $m$  buckets.
- The expected number of keys in a bucket is therefore  $\frac{n}{m} = \alpha$ .
- This gives us an expected query time of  $1 + \alpha$ .



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---

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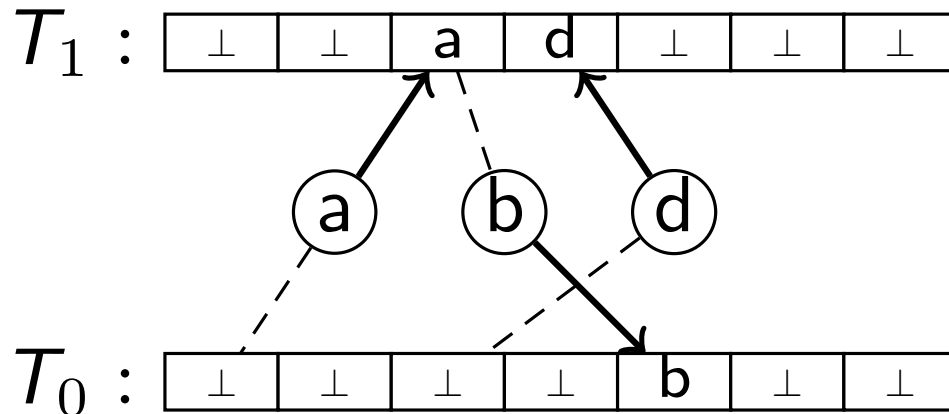
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| Cuckoo Hashing | $\leq 2$                  | 2                     | $\mathcal{O}(1)$ expected | $b/\alpha$         |

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# Classic Cuckoo Hashing

## Setup

$S \subseteq D$  key set of size  $n$   
 $T_0, T_1$  two tables of size  $m/2$  each  
 $h_0, h_1$  two hash functions  
 $\alpha = \frac{n}{m}$ : load factor



**Algorithm** lookup( $x$ ):

└ **return**  $x \in \{T_0[h_0(x)], T_1[h_1(x)]\}$

**Algorithm** insert( $x$ ):

└ **for**  $i = 0$  **to** LIMIT **do**

└  $b \leftarrow i \bmod 2$

└ swap( $x, T_b[h_b(x)]$ )

└ **if**  $x = \perp$  **then**

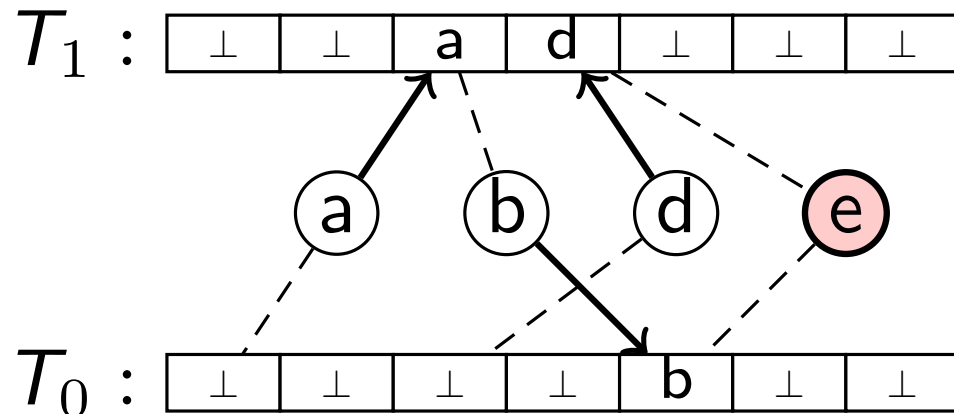
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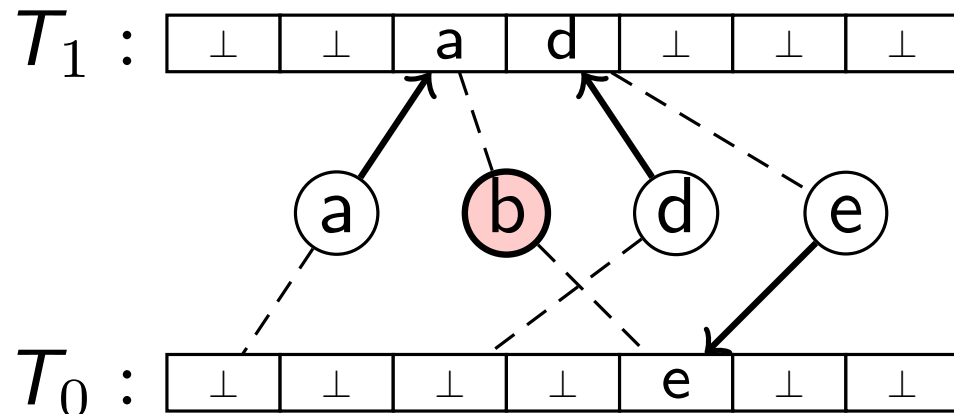
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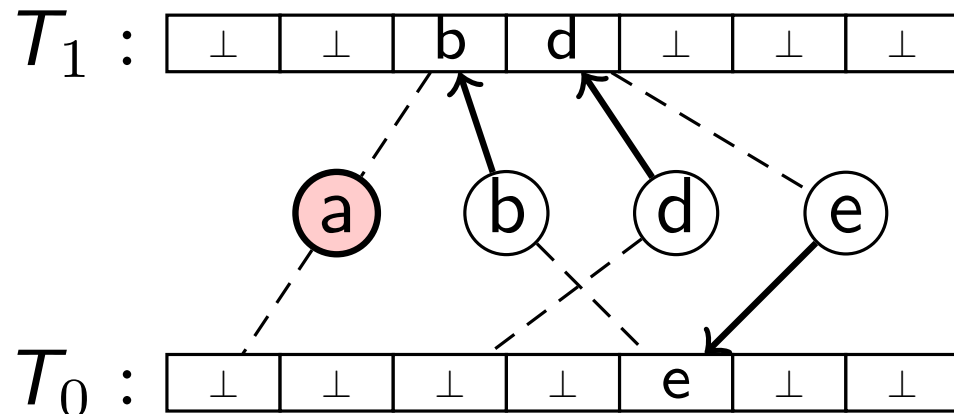
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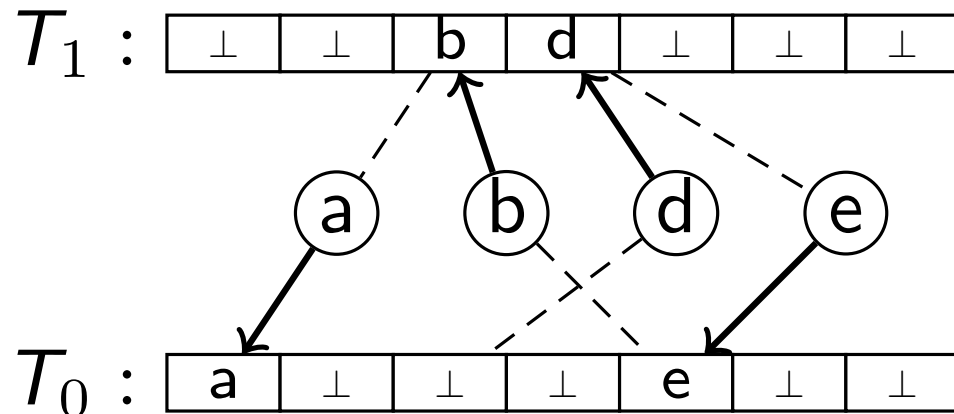
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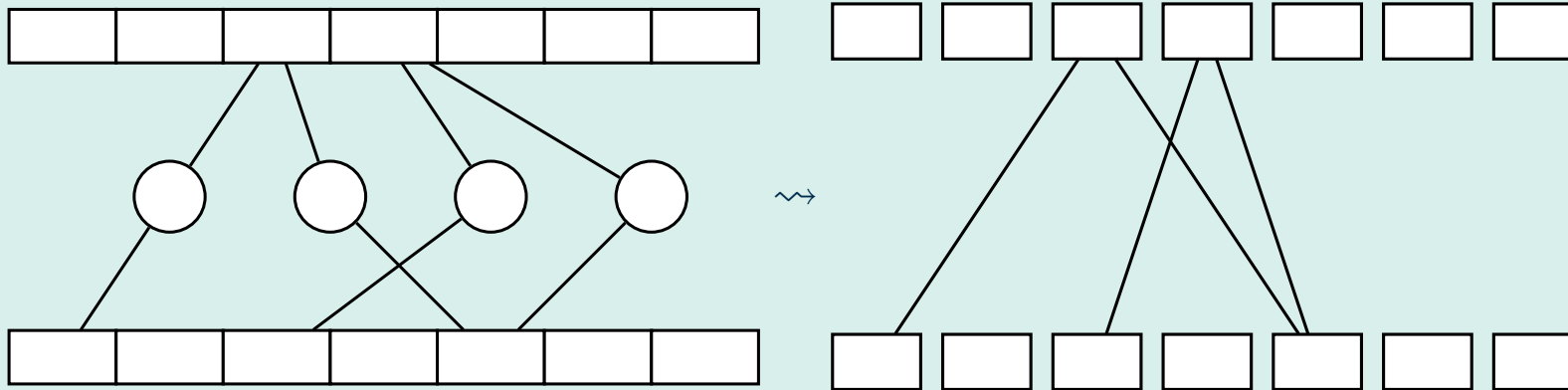
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# Classic Cuckoo Hashing

## The Cuckoo Graph

Consider the *cuckoo graph*: a slot corresponds to a node and a key  $x$  corresponds to an edge  $(h_0(x), h_1(x))$ .





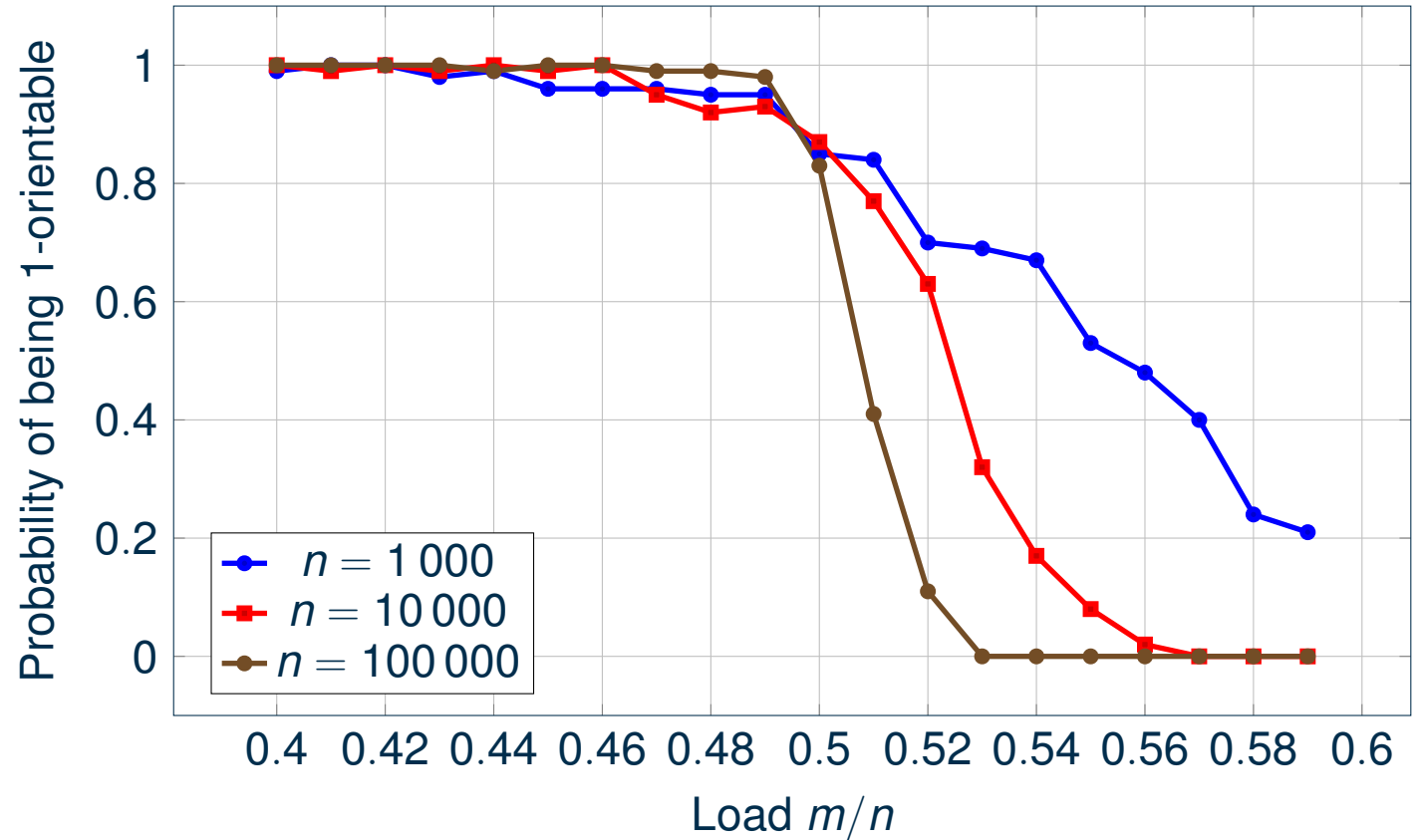
# Classic Cuckoo Hashing

## Experiment

It's always a good idea to make an experiment to get an idea of what is going on. Here we observe the probability that the cuckoo graph is 1-orientable for different loads and different  $n$ .

## Observation

For large  $n$ , the graph appears to converge to being 1-orientable exactly for loads  $< 0.5$ .



# Classic Cuckoo Hashing // Intuition: Galton–Watson tree

## Idealized model

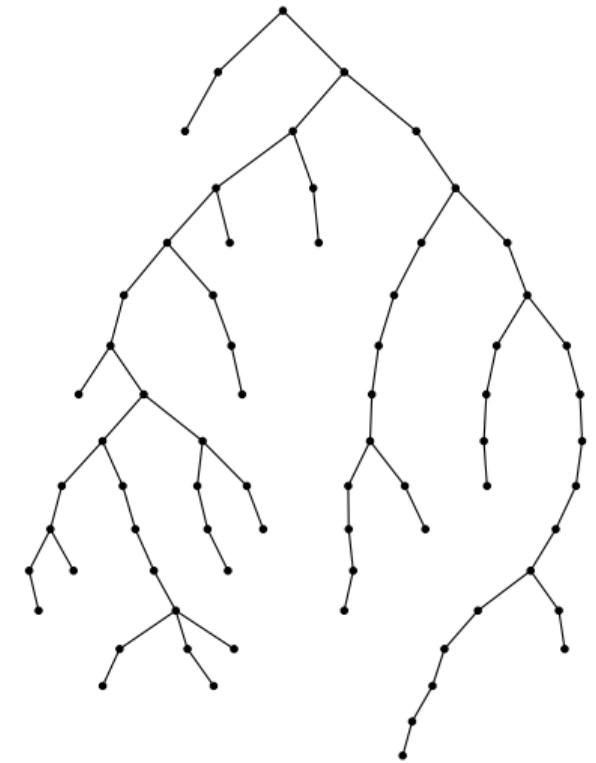
Look at some node. The node is connected to a random number  $X$  of other nodes. The random variable  $X$  follows a Binomial distribution  $\text{Bin}(n, \frac{2}{m})$ . The connected nodes are in turn connected with a random number of other node. Those random variables follow the the same distribution but they are (slightly) dependent on each other. However, for simplicity we assume independence here.

## Definition

The process describes above results in a Galton-Watson tree: A Galton–Watson tree is a random rooted tree in which each node has a random number of children  $X$  drawn independently from the same *offspring distribution* ( $\text{Bin}(n, \frac{2}{m})$  in our case).

## Intuition about the $\alpha = 0.5$ threshold

The expected number of children of each node is  $2\alpha$ . For  $\alpha < 0.5$ , the “population goes extinct” (birthrate below 1 per person). For  $\alpha > 0.5$ , the “population likely explodes”, a component’s size becomes  $\mathcal{O}(n)$ , almost surely containing  $>1$  cycles.



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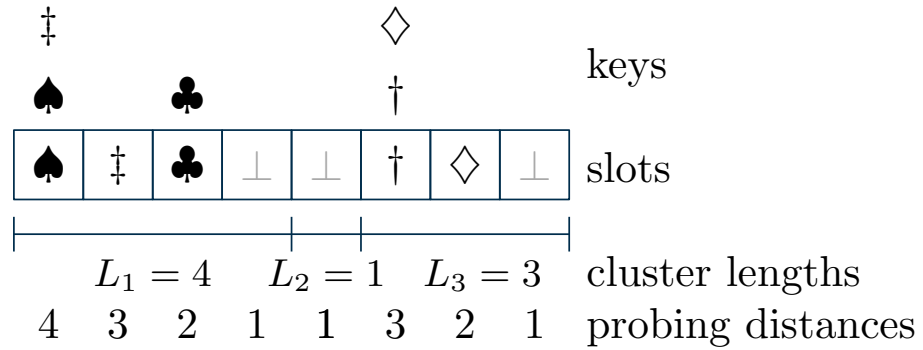
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| Cuckoo Hashing | $\leq 2$                                       | 2                                                  | $\mathcal{O}(1)$ expected | $b/\alpha$         |
| Linear Probing | $\frac{1}{2}(1 + \frac{1}{1-\alpha})$ expected | $\frac{1}{2}(1 + \frac{1}{(1-\alpha)^2})$ expected | = neg. query              | $b/\alpha$         |

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# Negative Queries in Linear Probing Hash Table



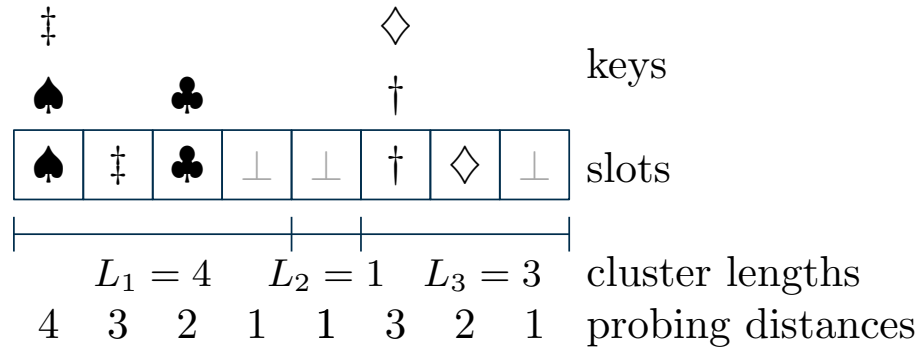
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The *probing distance* of a query is the number of slots a query has to look at.

## Definition

A *cluster* is an interval beginning with the first occupied slot after a free slot and ending with the next free slot.

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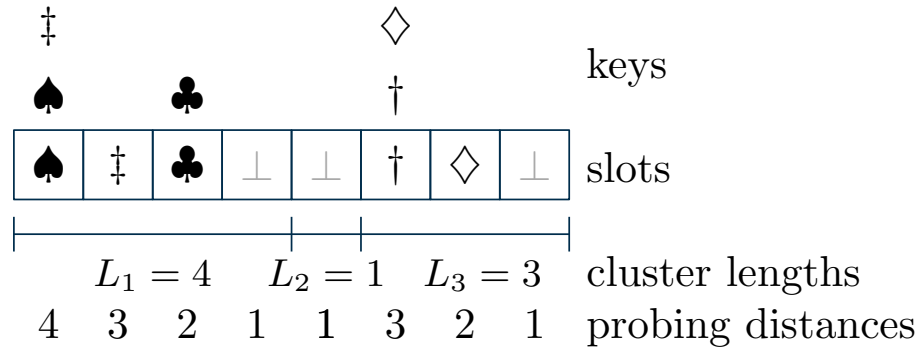
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There are  $m - n$  free slots and therefore  $m - n$  clusters.

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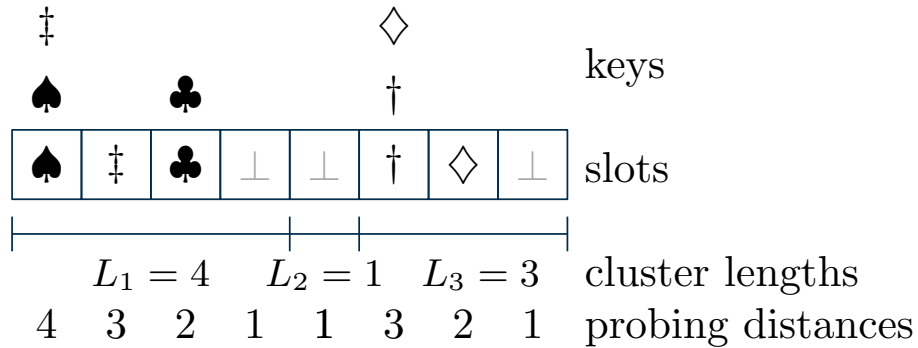
## Observation

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## Goal

Let  $L_1, \dots, L_{m-n}$  be the random variables describing the length of the clusters (e.g.  $L_1$  for the cluster that ends on the first free slot of the table). Each slot is queried with equal probability. Hence, the expected probing distance for a negative query  $T^-$  is the average probing distance of a slot.

# Negative Queries in Linear Probing Hash Table



## Identities

$$1 \quad \mathbb{E}(A + B) = \mathbb{E}(A) + \mathbb{E}(B)$$

$$2 \quad \sum_{i=1}^n i = \frac{n+n^2}{2}$$

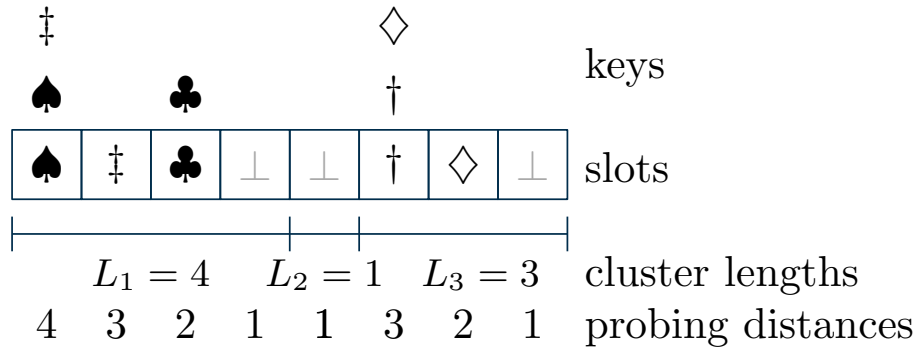
## Definition

For brevity we define  $L := L_1$

## Average slot probing distance

$$\mathbb{E}[T^-] = \mathbb{E} \left[ \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m-n} \sum_{d=1}^{L_i} d \right] \text{ // use 1. identity}$$

# Negative Queries in Linear Probing Hash Table



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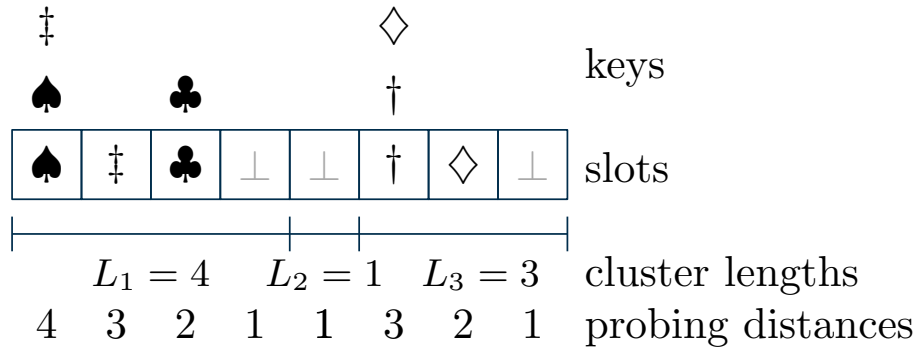
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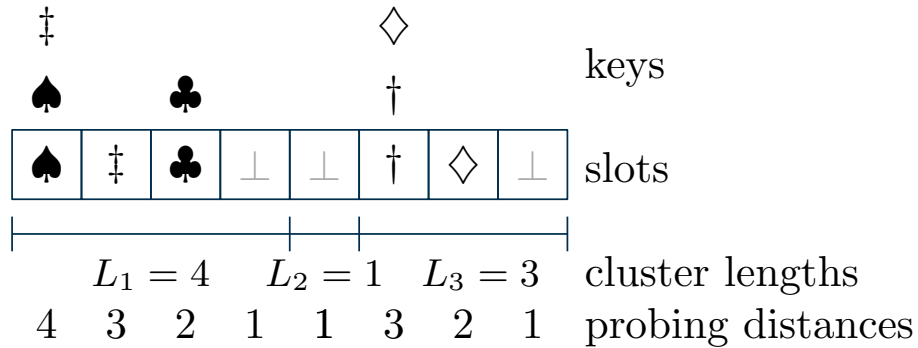
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 &= \frac{1}{m} (m-n) \cdot \mathbb{E} \left[ \sum_{d=1}^L d \right] // \text{use 2. then 1. identity}
 \end{aligned}$$

# Negative Queries in Linear Probing Hash Table



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 &= \frac{1}{m} (m-n) \cdot \mathbb{E} \left[ \sum_{d=1}^L d \right] // \text{use 2. then 1. identity} \\
 &= (1-\alpha) \cdot \mathbb{E} \left[ \frac{L + L^2}{2} \right] = \frac{1-\alpha}{2} (\mathbb{E}[L] + \mathbb{E}[L^2])
 \end{aligned}$$



# Negative Queries in Linear Probing Hash Table

$\mathbb{E}[L]$

The expected cluster length  $\mathbb{E}[L]$  is just the number of slots over the number of clusters:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}[L] &= \frac{m}{m-n} \quad // \text{ divide everything by } m \\ &= \frac{1}{1-\alpha}\end{aligned}$$

# Negative Queries in Linear Probing Hash Table

## Approach to understand $L$ and to obtain $\mathbb{E}[L^2]$

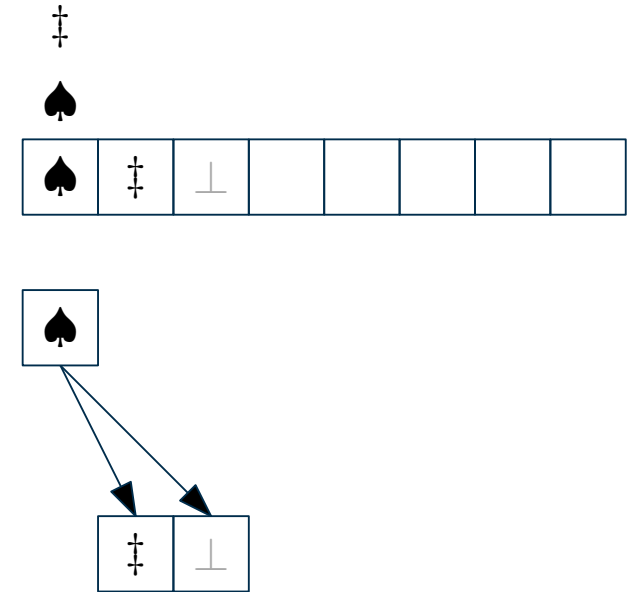
Let  $X$  be the random variable describing the number of keys that hash to the first slot of the first cluster.  $X$  follows a the distribution  $\text{Bin}(n, \frac{1}{m})$ . Each of the  $X$  keys has to be accommodated in an additional slot. Hence, the cluster grows by  $X$  slots. Now there may be other keys hashing to those new slots, which in turn have to be accommodated in this cluster, resulting in a recursive structure.



# Negative Queries in Linear Probing Hash Table

## Approach to understand $L$ and to obtain $\mathbb{E}[L^2]$

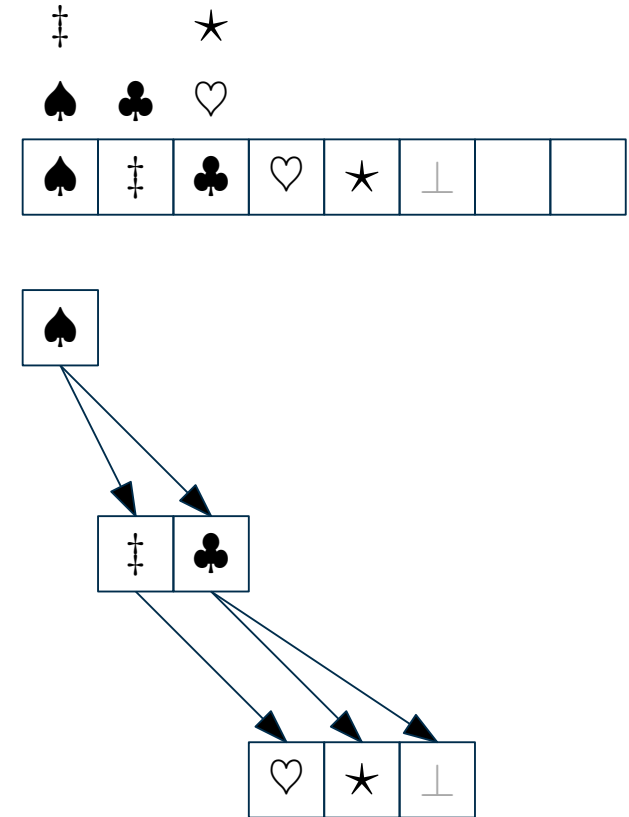
Let  $X$  be the random variable describing the number of keys that hash to the first slot of the first cluster.  $X$  follows a the distribution  $\text{Bin}(n, \frac{1}{m})$ . Each of the  $X$  keys has to be accommodated in an additional slot. Hence, the cluster grows by  $X$  slots. Now there may be other keys hashing to those new slots, which in turn have to be accommodated in this cluster, resulting in a recursive structure.



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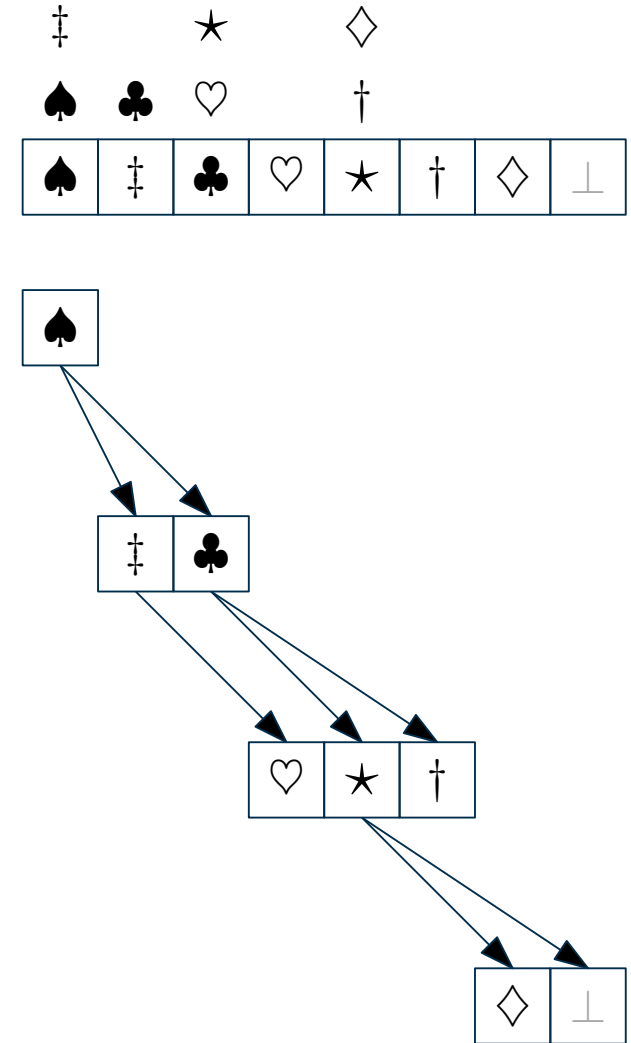
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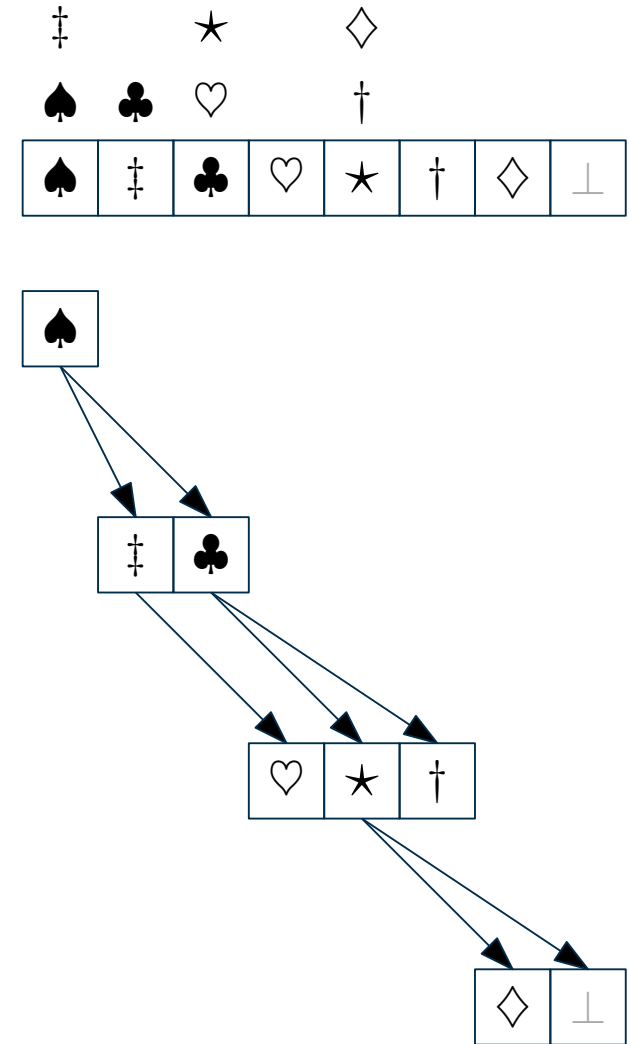
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## The surprise appearance

This is again a Galton-Watson tree with offspring distribution  $X$ . Let  $L'_i$  describe the number of nodes in the sub-tree below the  $i$ -th child of the root. The cluster length  $L$  corresponds to the number of nodes of the tree, which is 1 + the nodes in the sub-trees:

$$L = 1 + \sum_{i=1}^X L'_i \quad // \text{ where the } L'_i \text{ follow the same distribution as } L$$



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## Useful identities for $\mathbb{E}[L^2]$

$$\mathbb{E}[L^2] = \text{Var}(L) + \mathbb{E}[L]^2$$

$$\text{Var}(L) = \mathbb{E}[\text{Var}(L \mid X)] + \text{Var}(\mathbb{E}[L \mid X])$$

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## $\mathbb{E}[\text{Var}(L \mid X)]$

$$\text{Var}(L \mid X) = \text{Var}\left(\sum_{i=0}^X L'_i \mid X\right) \text{ // independence of } L'_i$$



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$$\mathbb{E}[\text{Var}(L \mid X)] = \mathbb{E}[X \cdot \text{Var}(L)] = \alpha \text{Var}(L)$$

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$$\text{Var}(cA) = c^2 \text{Var}(A) \text{ // constant } c$$

## $\text{Var}(\mathbb{E}[L \mid X])$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[L \mid X] &= \mathbb{E} \left[ 1 + \sum_{i=1}^X L'_i \mid X \right] \text{ // independence of } L'_i \text{ and } X \\ &= 1 + X \cdot \mathbb{E}[L] \end{aligned}$$

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$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(\mathbb{E}[L \mid X]) &= \text{Var}(X \cdot \mathbb{E}[L]) \\ &= \mathbb{E}[L]^2 \cdot \text{Var}(X) \\ &= \mathbb{E}[L]^2 \cdot \alpha \end{aligned}$$

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$\mathbb{E}[L^2]$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var}(L) &= \mathbb{E}[\text{Var}(L \mid X)] + \text{Var}(\mathbb{E}[L \mid X]) \\ &= \alpha \text{Var}(L) + \mathbb{E}[L]^2 \cdot \alpha\end{aligned}$$

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Solving for  $\text{Var}(L)$  gives:

$$\text{Var}(L) = \frac{\alpha \cdot \mathbb{E}[L]^2}{1 - \alpha}$$



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Finally:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}[L^2] &= \text{Var}(L) + \mathbb{E}[L]^2 = \frac{\alpha \cdot \mathbb{E}[L]^2}{1 - \alpha} + \mathbb{E}[L]^2 \\ &= \frac{\alpha}{(1 - \alpha)^3} + \frac{1}{(1 - \alpha)^2} = \frac{\alpha}{(1 - \alpha)^3} + \frac{1 - \alpha}{(1 - \alpha)^3} \\ &= \frac{1}{(1 - \alpha)^3}\end{aligned}$$

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$\mathbb{E}[T^-]$

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}[T^-] &= \frac{1 - \alpha}{2} (\mathbb{E}[L] + \mathbb{E}[L^2]) \\ &= \frac{1 - \alpha}{2} \left( \frac{1}{1 - \alpha} + \frac{1}{(1 - \alpha)^3} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{(1 - \alpha)^2} \right)\end{aligned}$$

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## Remark

We assumed that the number of keys in each slot are independent random variables. This is not entirely true, but for large  $n$  we can come arbitrarily close to this ideal.

# Hash table overview

## Metrics

- Exact query time, i.e. counting the number of probes
  - Positive: Query an existing key (we only consider the average over all existing keys)
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| Cuckoo Hashing | $\leq 2$                                       | 2                                                  | $\mathcal{O}(1)$ expected | $b/\alpha$         |
| Linear Probing | $\frac{1}{2}(1 + \frac{1}{1-\alpha})$ expected | $\frac{1}{2}(1 + \frac{1}{(1-\alpha)^2})$ expected | = neg. query              | $b/\alpha$         |

<sup>1</sup>even in the worst-case if we can assume the key does not exist yet then we can insert at the beginning of the list

# Positive Queries in Linear Probing Hash Table

## Observation

Start with an empty hash table of  $m$  slots and insert  $n$  keys one after another. Then, the number of probes when querying a key corresponds exactly to the number of probes that were needed to insert it. Hence, the expected number of probes for a positive query at load  $\alpha$  is the average number of probes over all insertions.

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## Average expected positive query probes $T^+$

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}[T^+] &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \frac{1}{2} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{(1 - i/m)^2} \right) \quad \text{use } x := i/m, n \rightarrow \infty \\ &= \frac{1}{\alpha} \int_0^\alpha \frac{1}{2} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{(1 - x)^2} \right) dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{1 - \alpha} \right)\end{aligned}$$

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## Does this hold even after deletions?

Yes.

The order of keys within clusters does not effect the average probing distance. The observation applies at any moment.

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## Does this hold even after deletions?

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The order of keys within clusters does not effect the average probing distance. The observation applies at any moment.

## Beware

The result is only a average over all keys. E.g., querying the key that was just inserted will take the same number of probes as the insertions:

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



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# trade-off: space and negative queries

## trade-off

We know for each technique how the number of probes depends on the load  $\alpha$ .

But that does not give a meaningful way to compare the techniques.

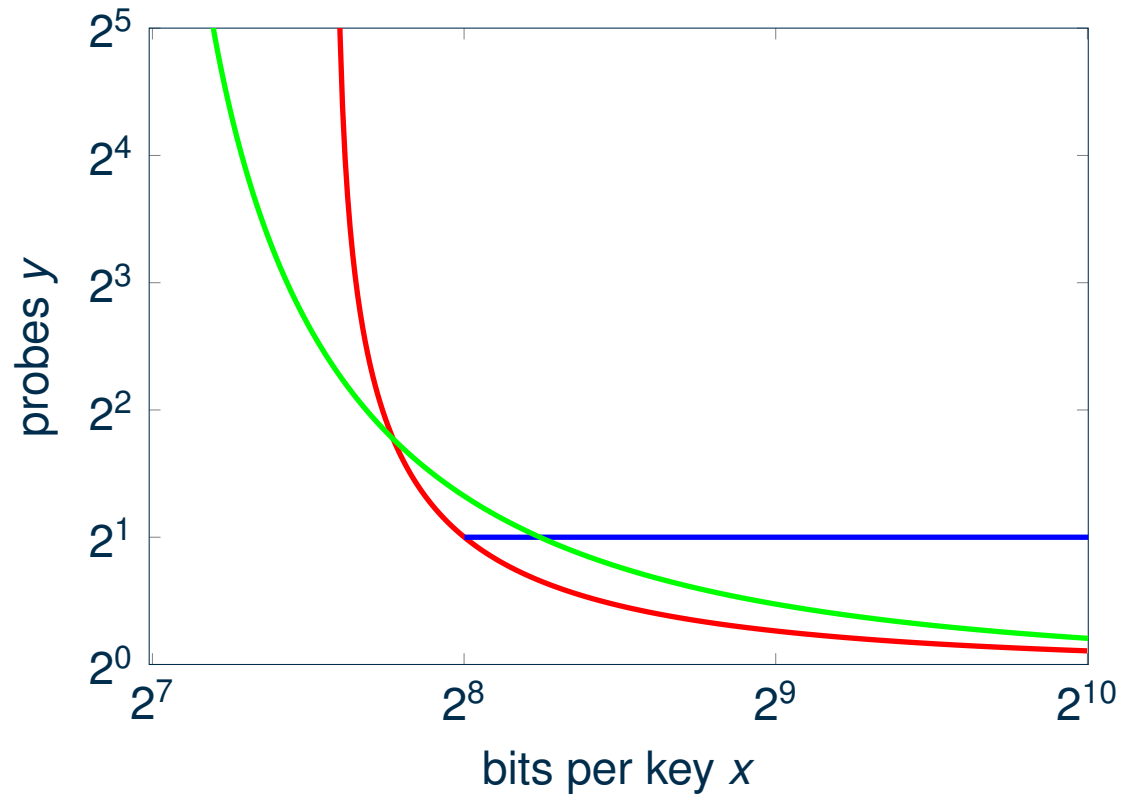
So let's compare the techniques for equal space consumption instead.

Let  $x(\alpha)$  be the space in bits per key and  $y(\alpha)$  the expected number of probes of a negative query.

We invert  $x(\alpha)$  to obtain  $y(x)$ .

| Technique                             | Negative Query $y(\alpha)$                         | Bits per Key $x(\alpha)$ | $\alpha(x)$       | $y(x)$                                          |
|---------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------|--------------------------|-------------------|-------------------------------------------------|
| Chaining ( $0 < \alpha$ )             | $1 + \alpha$ expected                              | $p/\alpha + b + p$       | $\frac{p}{x-b+p}$ | $1 + \frac{p}{x-b+p}$ expected                  |
| Cuckoo Hashing ( $0 < \alpha < 1/2$ ) | 2                                                  | $b/\alpha$               | $b/x$             | 2                                               |
| Linear Probing ( $0 < \alpha < 1$ )   | $\frac{1}{2}(1 + \frac{1}{(1-\alpha)^2})$ expected | $b/\alpha$               | $b/x$             | $\frac{1}{2}(1 + \frac{1}{(1-b/x)^2})$ expected |

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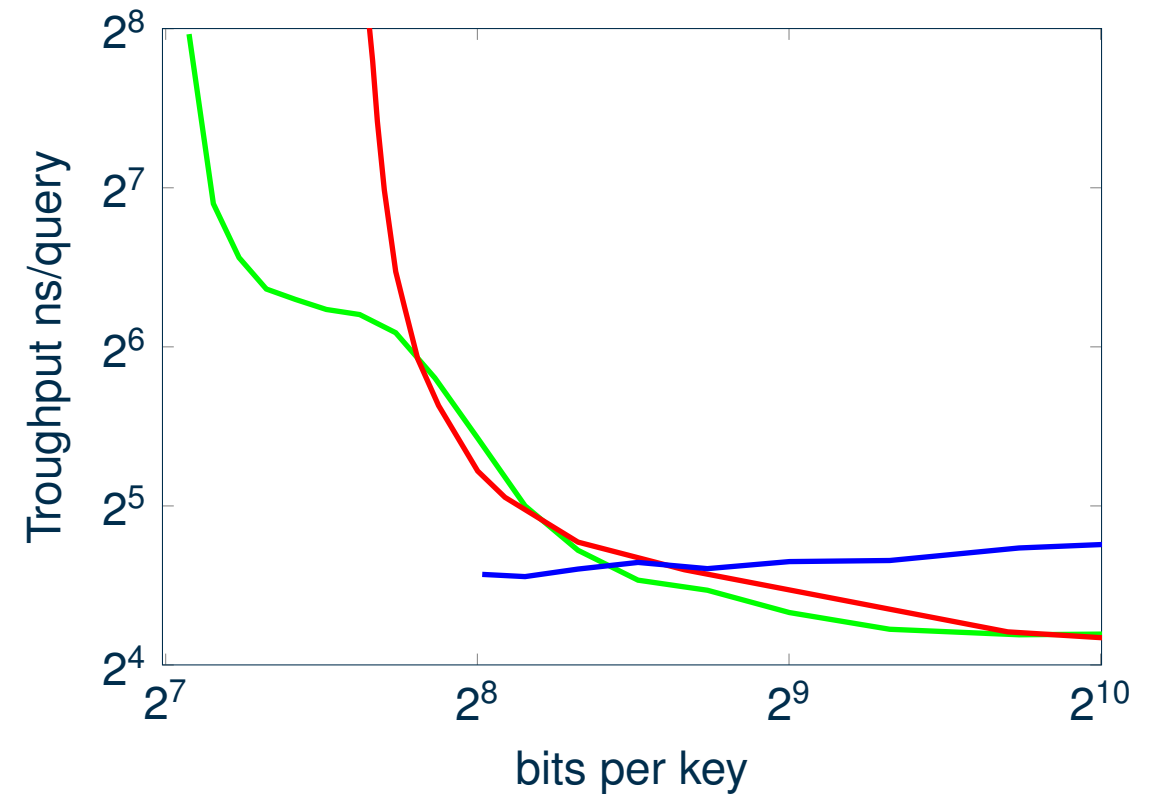
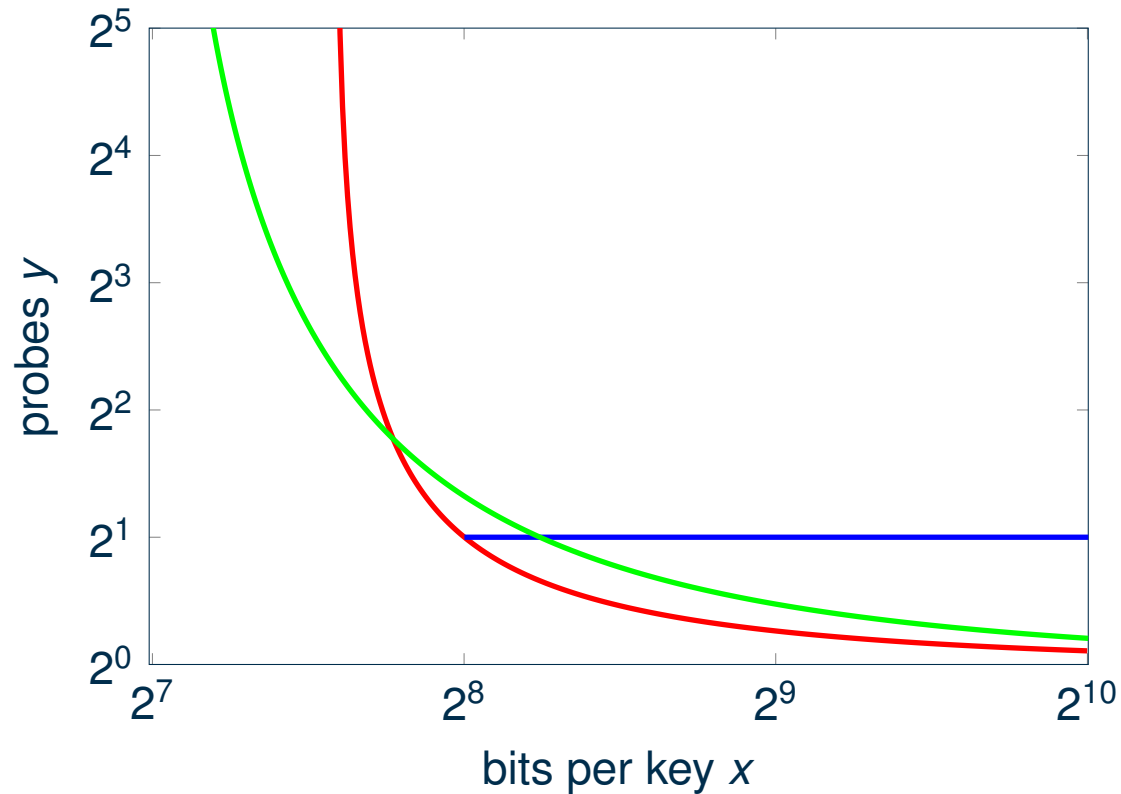


- Chaining  $y = 1 + \frac{64}{x - (128 + 64)}$
- Cuckoo Hashing  $y = 2$
- Linear Probing  $y = \frac{1}{2} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{(1 - 128/x)^2} \right)$

## Benchmark

$n = 1\,000\,000$ ,  $p = 64$  bit pointer and  $b = 128$  bit (e.g. a hash set on 128 bit keys or a hash map on 64 bit keys and 64 bit values).

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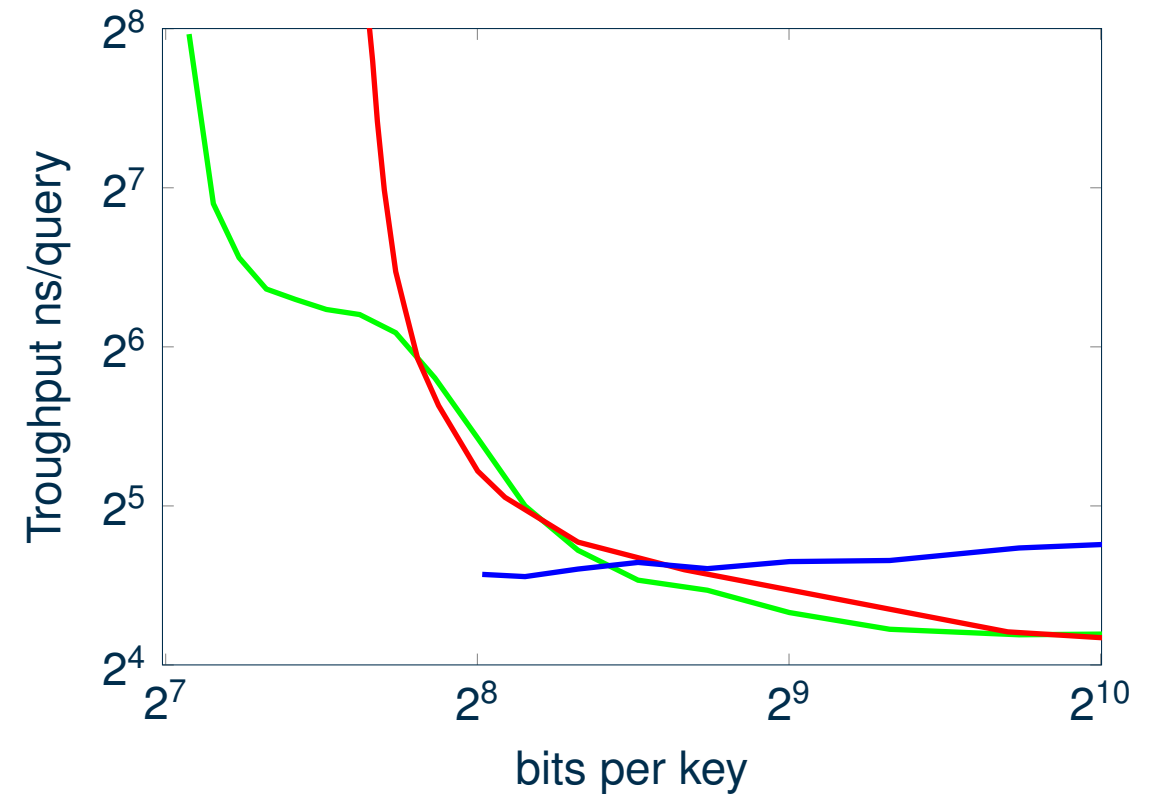
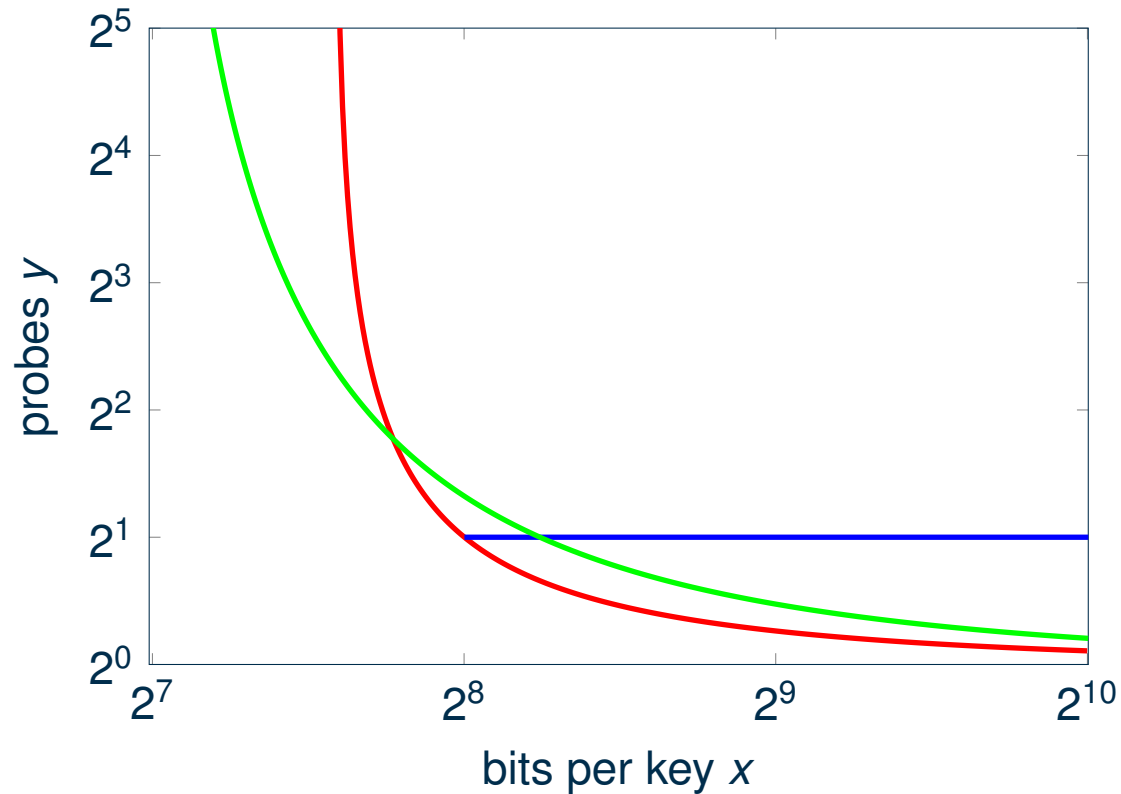


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## Observations

- Chaining performs worse than predicted.
- What is that bump in the probing curve?

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| Cuckoo Hashing | $\leq 2$                                       | 2                                                  | $\mathcal{O}(1)$ expected | $b/\alpha$         | worst-case $\mathcal{O}(1)$ queries! |
| Linear Probing | $\frac{1}{2}(1 + \frac{1}{1-\alpha})$ expected | $\frac{1}{2}(1 + \frac{1}{(1-\alpha)^2})$ expected | = neg. query              | $b/\alpha$         | cache friendliness                   |

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|-------------------|------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|--------------------|--------------------------------------|
| Chaining          | $\mathcal{O}(1)$ expected                      | $1 + \alpha$ expected                              | = neg. query <sup>1</sup>           | $p/\alpha + b + p$ | Stable                               |
| Cuckoo Hashing    | $\leq 2$                                       | 2                                                  | $\mathcal{O}(1)$ expected           | $b/\alpha$         | worst-case $\mathcal{O}(1)$ queries! |
| Linear Probing    | $\frac{1}{2}(1 + \frac{1}{1-\alpha})$ expected | $\frac{1}{2}(1 + \frac{1}{(1-\alpha)^2})$ expected | = neg. query                        | $b/\alpha$         | cache friendliness                   |
| Quadratic Probing | $\mathcal{O}(\log \frac{1}{1-\alpha})^2$       | $\mathcal{O}(\frac{1}{1-\alpha})^2$                | $\mathcal{O}(\frac{1}{1-\alpha})^2$ | $b/\alpha$         | current research (for decades)       |

<sup>1</sup>even in the worst-case if we can assume the key does not exist yet then we can insert at the beginning of the list

<sup>2</sup>Conjectured

# Hash table overview

## Metrics

- Exact query time, i.e. counting the number of probes
  - Positive: Query an existing key (we only consider the average over all existing keys)
  - Negative: Query a non-existing key (today's focus)
- Insertion time
- Space: Memory needed by the hash table ( $b$  bit elements and  $p$  bit pointers)

| Technique         | Avg. Positive Query                            | Negative Query                                     | Insertion                           | Bits per Key       | Comment                              |
|-------------------|------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|--------------------|--------------------------------------|
| Chaining          | $\mathcal{O}(1)$ expected                      | $1 + \alpha$ expected                              | = neg. query <sup>1</sup>           | $p/\alpha + b + p$ | Stable                               |
| Cuckoo Hashing    | $\leq 2$                                       | 2                                                  | $\mathcal{O}(1)$ expected           | $b/\alpha$         | worst-case $\mathcal{O}(1)$ queries! |
| Linear Probing    | $\frac{1}{2}(1 + \frac{1}{1-\alpha})$ expected | $\frac{1}{2}(1 + \frac{1}{(1-\alpha)^2})$ expected | = neg. query                        | $b/\alpha$         | cache friendliness                   |
| Quadratic Probing | $\mathcal{O}(\log \frac{1}{1-\alpha})^2$       | $\mathcal{O}(\frac{1}{1-\alpha})^2$                | $\mathcal{O}(\frac{1}{1-\alpha})^2$ | $b/\alpha$         | current research (for decades)       |
| Next Lecture      | $\mathcal{O}(1)$ worst-case                    | $\mathcal{O}(1)$ worst-case                        | $\mathcal{O}(1)$ whp <sup>3</sup>   | $(1 + o(1))b$      | strong simultaneous guarantees       |

<sup>1</sup>even in the worst-case if we can assume the key does not exist yet then we can insert at the beginning of the list

<sup>2</sup>Conjectured

<sup>3</sup>by with high probability (whp) we mean with probability  $1 - 1/\text{poly}(n)$



# Robin Hood Hashing

## Robin Hood Hashing

On the next slide, Stefan Walzer explained Robin Hood hashing on the board, resulting in  $\mathcal{O}\left(\frac{1}{1-\alpha}\right)$  query time (positive and negative).

# Ordered Linear Probing & History Independence

## Assumptions

- Table stores  $S$  of size  $n = |S| = \underbrace{(1-\epsilon) \cdot m}_\alpha$
- no deletions.

We have seen:

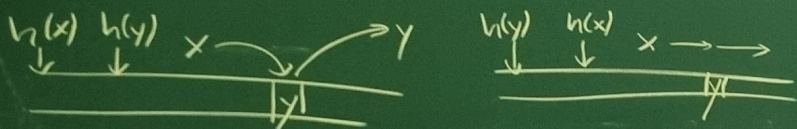
avg positive query time is  $O(1/\epsilon)$  in exp.

neg " " "  $O(1/\epsilon^2)$  in exp.

Goal: all query times  $O(1/\epsilon)$  in exp.

## Robin Hood Ordering

If  $x$  probes slot occupied by  $y$   
whoever comes from further away stays  
the other key keeps probing.

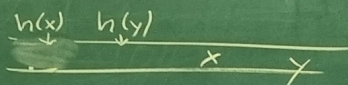


Tie-Breaking via some other hash function.

Def A dynamic data structure is history independent if its binary representation only depends on the data it currently stores.

## Note

- prevents leaking information about past states.
- perfect space efficiency requires HI
- normal Lin prob is not HI

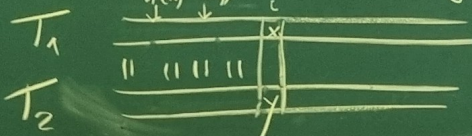


"looks" that  $x$  was inserted before  $y$ .

Claim Robin Hood Linear Probing is HI.

Proof Simplified with assumption:  
"no wrap around"

Assume for contradiction. Two insertion orders result in distinct states.  
Let  $i$  be first differing slot



wlog  $x$  has priority over  $y$

$x$  must have probed  $i$  in  $T_2$ .  
the reason it's not placed there is  
some other key  $z$  with priority over  $x$ .  
priorities of keys placed in  $T_2[i]$   
can only increase over time.

$\hookrightarrow y$  was placed there eventually.

Consequence of HI:

$\hookrightarrow \forall x \in S$ : exp query time of  $x$  is  $O(1/\epsilon)$

We can modify the query algo  
to stop when finding a key  
that the queried key has  
priority over.

Consider  $y \notin S$ .

its query time is equal to  
the query it would have if  
we inserted it now.

$\hookrightarrow$  that's a positive query time  
so  $O(1/\epsilon)$ .

# Possible Exam Questions

- What is a hash function? What is random in a hash table?
- What is the negative query time of chaining? Can you derive it?
- When is the intuition behind the threshold behavior at  $\alpha = 0.5$  in cuckoo hashing?
- How did we derive the negative query time of linear probing? (The exact calculations are not required)
- Based on the negative query time, how did we obtain the average positive query time?
- What are advantages of chaining, linear probing and cuckoo hashing over the respective other two techniques?
- What is history independence?
- Why does Robin Hood hashing improve the expected query time?