COMP 421: Files & Databases

Lecture 8: Hash Tables

UNC
DEPARTMENT OF
COMPUTER SCIENCE

Announcements

Project #1 is due Sept 29th @ 11:59pm

Project #2 released later today

Midterm Exam:

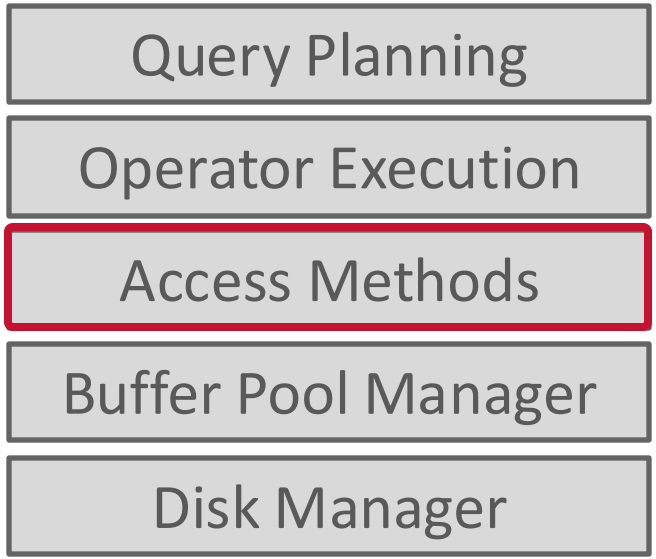
Because of the missed class, the midterm will be Monday, 10/20. This should resolve a couple of exam conflicts for 1 or 2 students.

The midterm will include material up to and including "joins (10/13)"

Course Outline

We are now going to talk about how to support the DBMS's execution engine to read/write data from pages.

Two types of data structures:
→ Hash Tables (Unordered)
→ Trees (Ordered)



Today's Agenda

Background

Hash Functions

Static Hashing Schemes

Dynamic Hashing Schemes

Data Structures

Internal Meta-data

Core Data Storage

Temporary Data Structures

Table Indexes

Design Decisions

Data Organization

→ How we layout data structure in memory/pages and what information to store to support efficient access.

Concurrency

→ How to enable multiple threads to access the data structure at the same time without causing problems.

Hash Tables

A **hash table** implements an unordered associative array that maps keys to values.

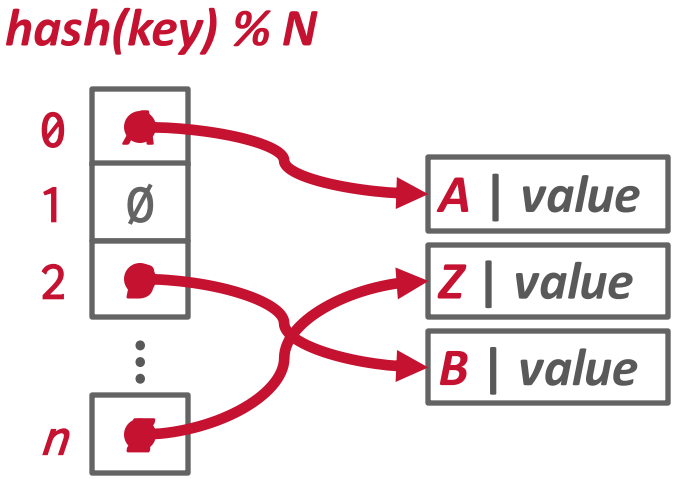
It uses a **hash function** to compute an offset into this array for a given key, from which the desired value can be found.

Space Complexity: **O(n)**
Time Complexity:
→ Average: **O(1)** ⬅ ***Databases care about constants!***
→ Worst: **O(n)**

Static Hash Table

Allocate a giant array that has one slot for every element you need to store.

To find an entry, mod the key by the number of elements to find the offset in the array.



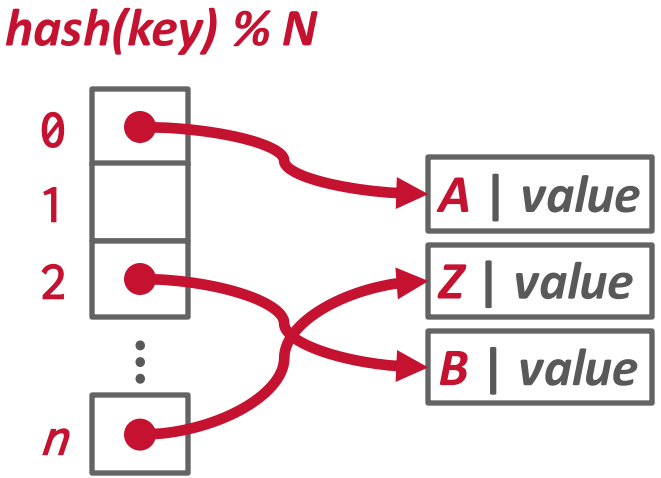
Unrealistic Assumptions

Assumption #1: Number of elements is known ahead of time and fixed.

Assumption #2: Each key is unique.

Assumption #3: Perfect hash function guarantees no collisions.

→ If key1≠key2, then hash(key1)≠hash(key2)



Hash Table

Design Decision #1: Hash Function

→ How to map a large key space into a smaller domain.
→ Trade-off between being fast vs. collision rate.

Design Decision #2: Hashing Scheme

→ How to handle key collisions after hashing.
→ Trade-off between allocating a large hash table vs. additional instructions to get/put keys.

Hash Functions

For any input key, return an integer representation of that key.

→ Converts arbitrary byte array into a fixed-length code.

We want something that is fast and has a low collision rate.

We do not want to use a cryptographic hash function for DBMS hash tables (e.g., SHA-2).

Hash Functions

smhasher

SMhasher

Linux Build status build passing build failing

Hash function	MiB/sec	cycl./hash	cycl./map	size
donothing32	11149460.06	4.00	-	13
donothing64	11787676.42	4.00	-	13
donothing128	11745060.76	4.06	-	13
NOP_OAAT_read64	11372846.37	14.00	-	4
BadHash	769.94	73.97	-	4
sumhash	10699.57	29.53	-	36
sumhash32	42877.79	23.12	-	8
multiply_shift	8026.77	26.05	226.80 (8)	3
pair_multiply_shift	3716.95	40.22	186.34 (3)	6
crc32	383.12	134.21	257.50 (11)	
md5_32	350.53	644.31	894.12 (10)	4

Summary

I added some SSE assisted hashes and fast intel/arm CRC32-C, AES and SHA HW variants. See also the old https://github.com/aappleby/smhasher/wiki, the improved, but unmaintained fork https://github.com/demerphq/smhasher, and the new improved version SMHasher3 https://gitlab.com/fwojcik/smhasher3.

So the fastest hash functions on x86_64 without quality problems are:

- rapidhash (an improved wyhash)
- xxh3low
- wyhash
- umash (even universal!)
- ahash64
- t1ha2_atonce
- komihash
- FarmHash (*not portable, too machine specific: 64 vs 32bit, old gcc, ...*)
- halftime_hash128
- Spooky32
- pengyhash
- nmhash32
- mx3
- MUM/mir (*different results on 32/64-bit archs, lots of bad seeds to filter out*)
- fasthash32

Static Hashing Schemes

Approach #1: Linear Probe Hashing

Approach #2: Cuckoo Hashing

←**Open Addressing**

There are several other schemes covered in the Advanced DB course:

→ Robin Hood Hashing
→ Hopscotch Hashing
→ Swiss Tables

Linear Probe Hashing

Single giant table of fixed-length slots.

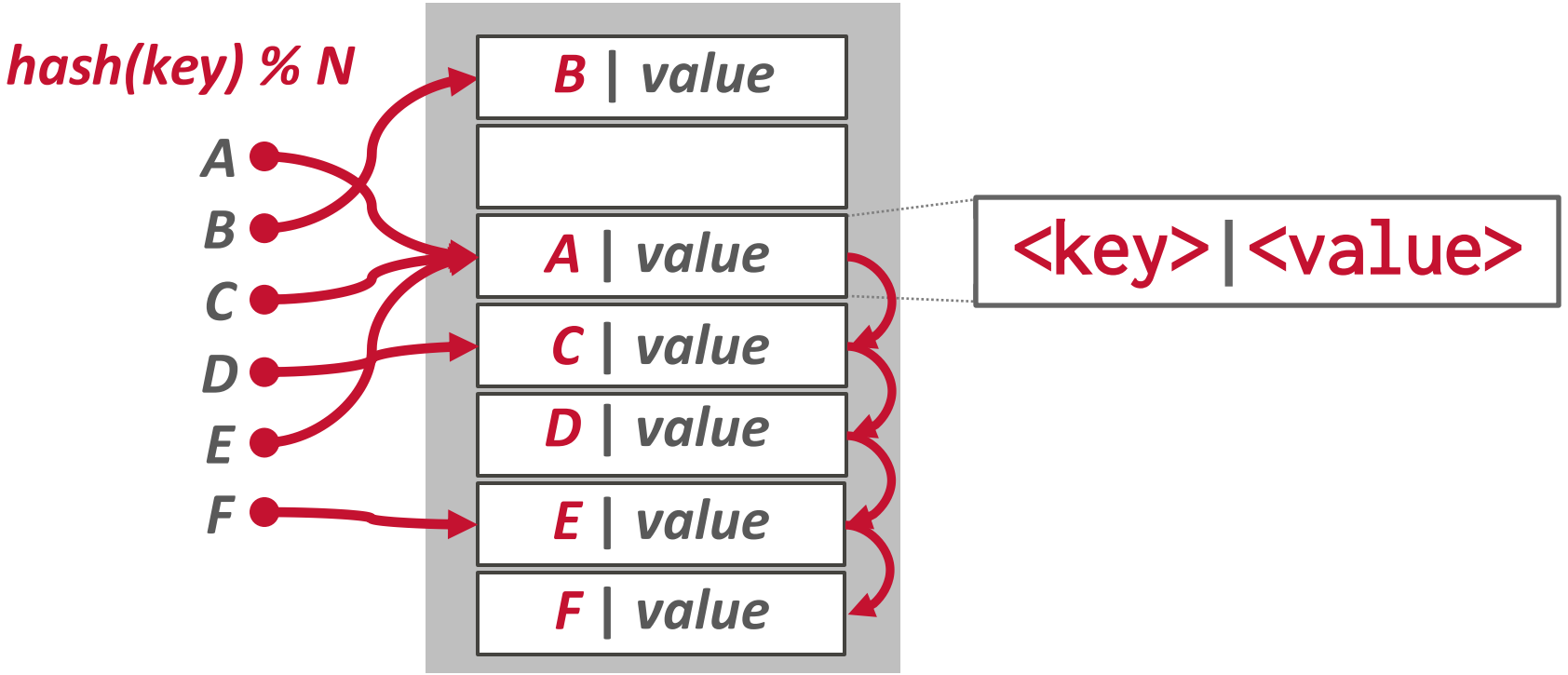
Resolve collisions by linearly searching for the next free slot in the table.

→ To determine whether an element is present, hash to a location in the table and scan for it.
→ Store keys in table to know when to stop scanning.
→ Insertions and deletions are generalizations of lookups.

The table's **load factor** determines when it is becoming too full and should be resized.

→ Allocate a new table twice as large and rehash entries.

Linear Probe Hashing

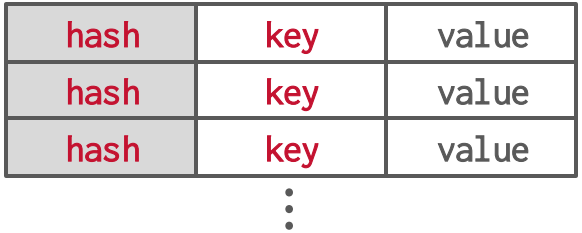


Hash Table – Key/Value Entries

Fixed-length Key/Values:

→ Store inline within the hash table pages.

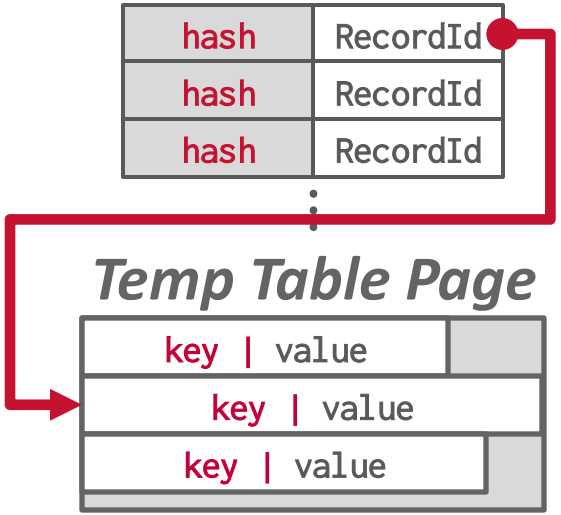
→ Optional: Store the key's hash with the key for faster comparisons.



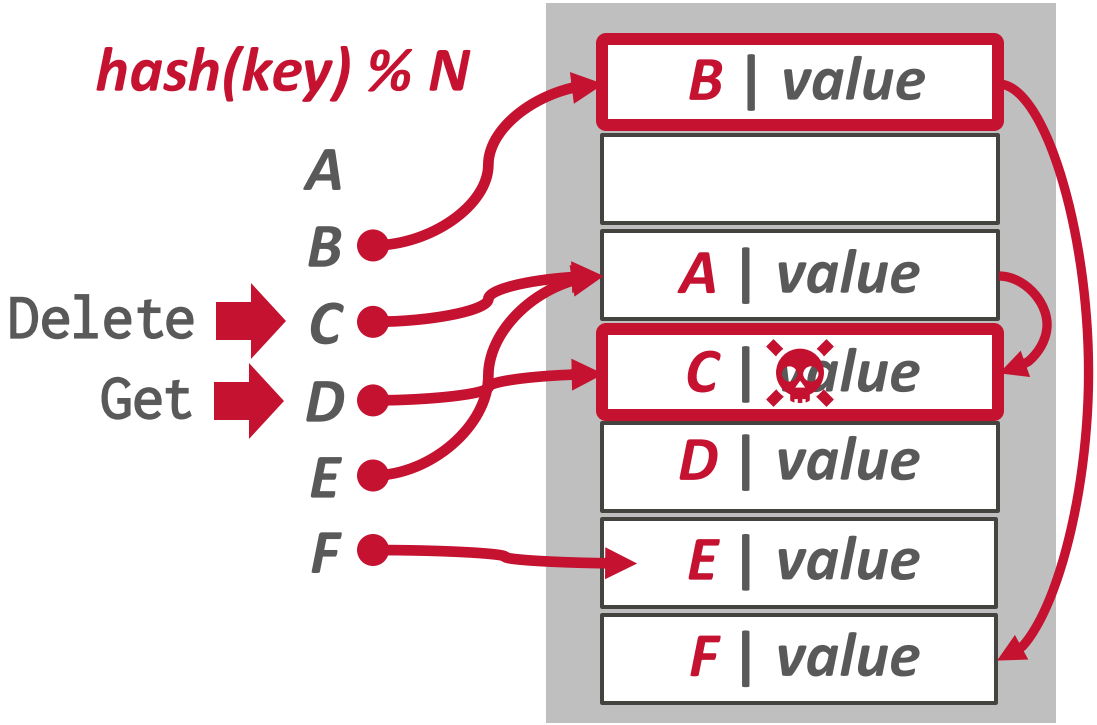
Variable-length Key/Values:

→ Insert key/value data in separate a private temporary table.

→ Store the hash as the key and use the record id pointing to its corresponding entry in the temporary table as the value.



Linear Probe Hashing – Deletes



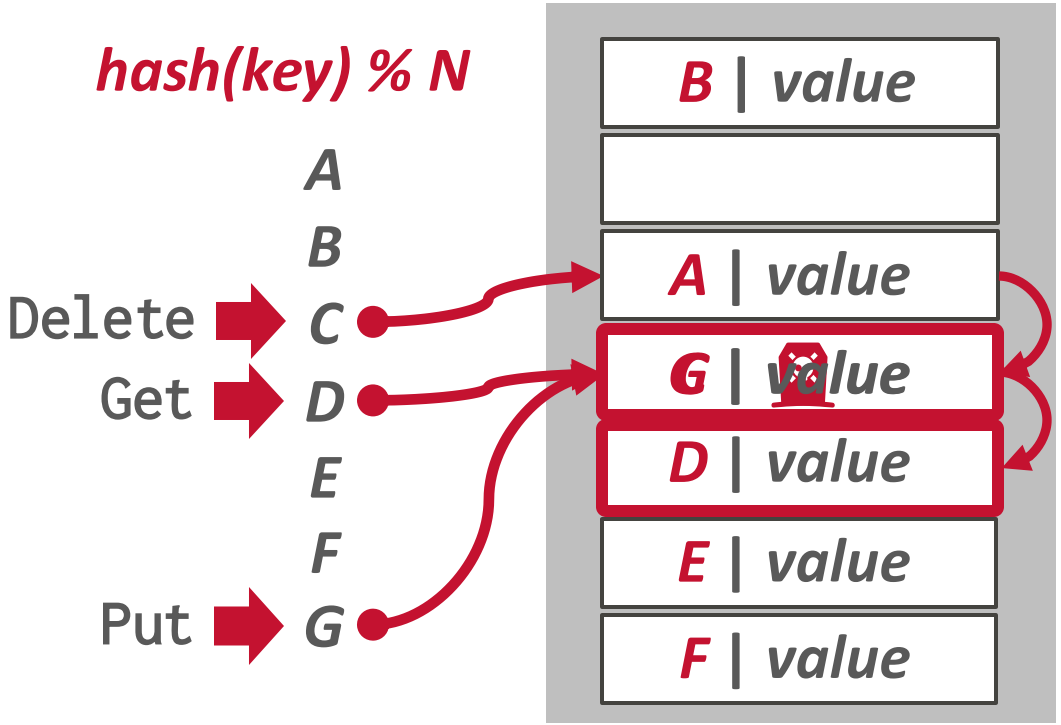
Approach #1: Movement

→ Rehash keys until you find the first empty slot.

→ Expensive! May need to reorganize the entire table.

→ No DBMS does this.

Linear Probe Hashing – Deletes



Approach #2: Tombstone

→ Maintain separate bit map to indicate that the entry in the slot is logically deleted.

→ Reuse the slot for new keys.

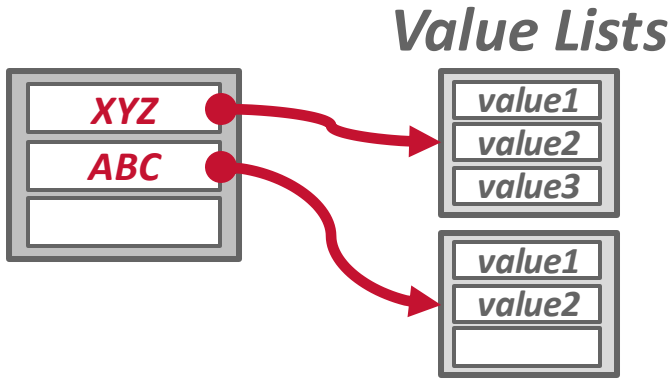
→ May need periodic garbage collection.

Hash Table – Non-unique Keys

Choice #1: Separate Linked List

→ Store values in separate storage area for each key.

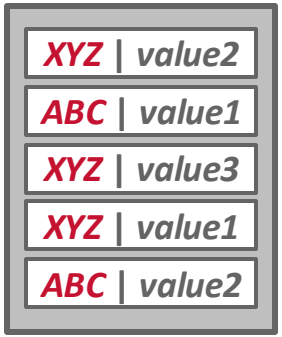
→ Value lists can overflow to multiple pages if the number of duplicates is large.



Choice #2: Redundant Keys

→ Store duplicate keys entries together in the hash table.

→ This is what most systems do.



Optimizati

Specialized hash table implen
key type(s) and sizes.

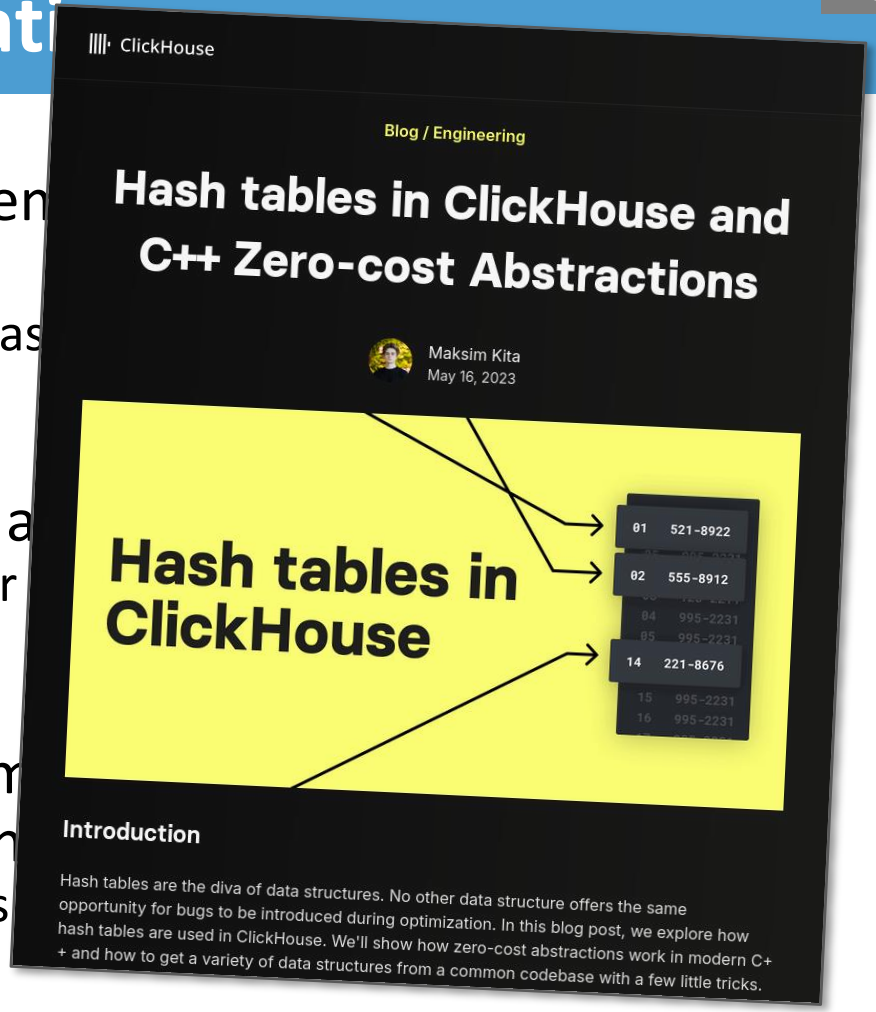
→ Example: Maintain multiple has
string sizes for a set of keys.

Store metadata separate in a

→ Packed bitmap tracks whether
empty/tombstone.

Use table + slot versioning m
invalidate all entries in the h

→ Example: If table version does
then treat the slot as empty.



Source: Maksim Kita

Cuckoo Hashing

Use multiple hash functions to find multiple locations in the hash table to insert records.

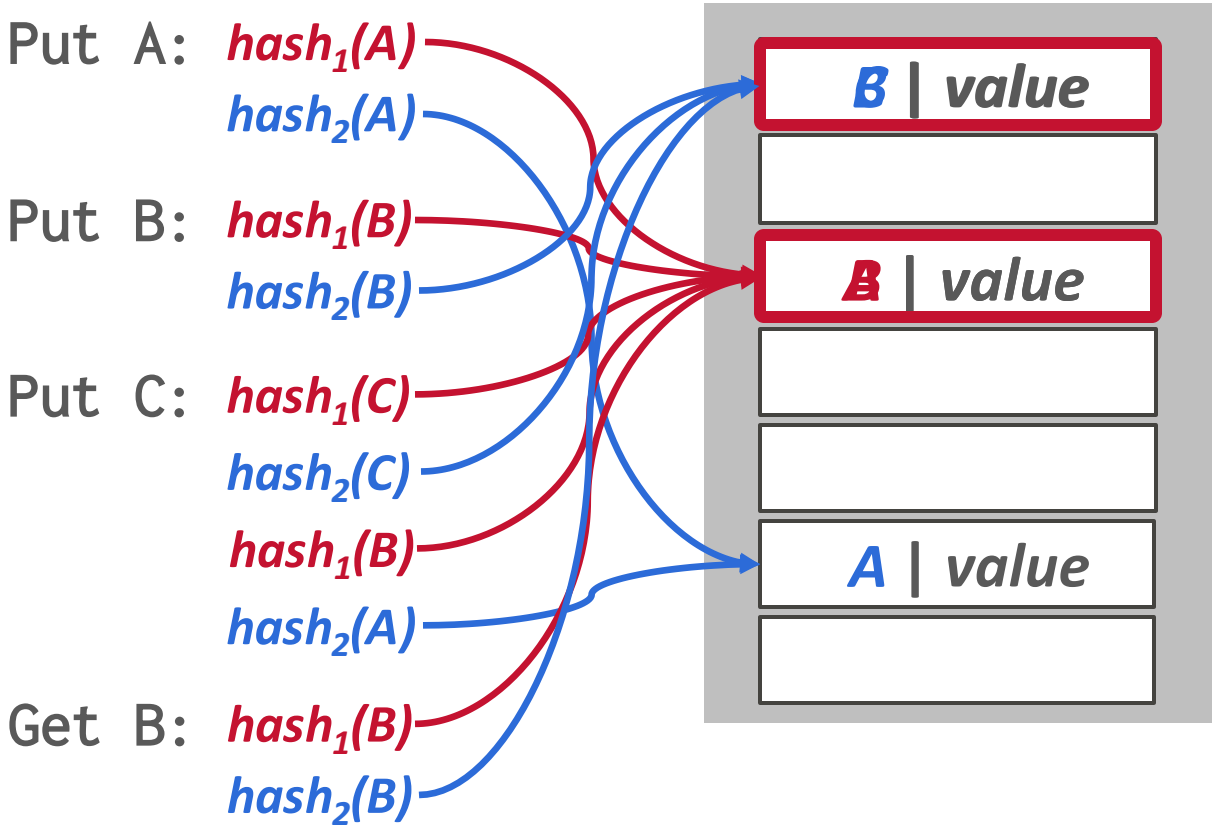
→ On insert, check multiple locations and pick the one that is empty.

→ If no location is available, evict the element from one of them and then re-hash it find a new location.

Look-ups and deletions are always **O(1)** because only one location per hash table is checked.

Best open-source implementation is from CMU.

Cuckoo Hashing



Observation

The previous hash tables require the DBMS to know the number of elements it wants to store.

→ Otherwise, it must rebuild the table if it needs to grow/shrink in size.

Dynamic hash tables incrementally resize themselves as needed.

→ Chained Hashing
→ Extendible Hashing
→ Linear Hashing

Chained Hashing

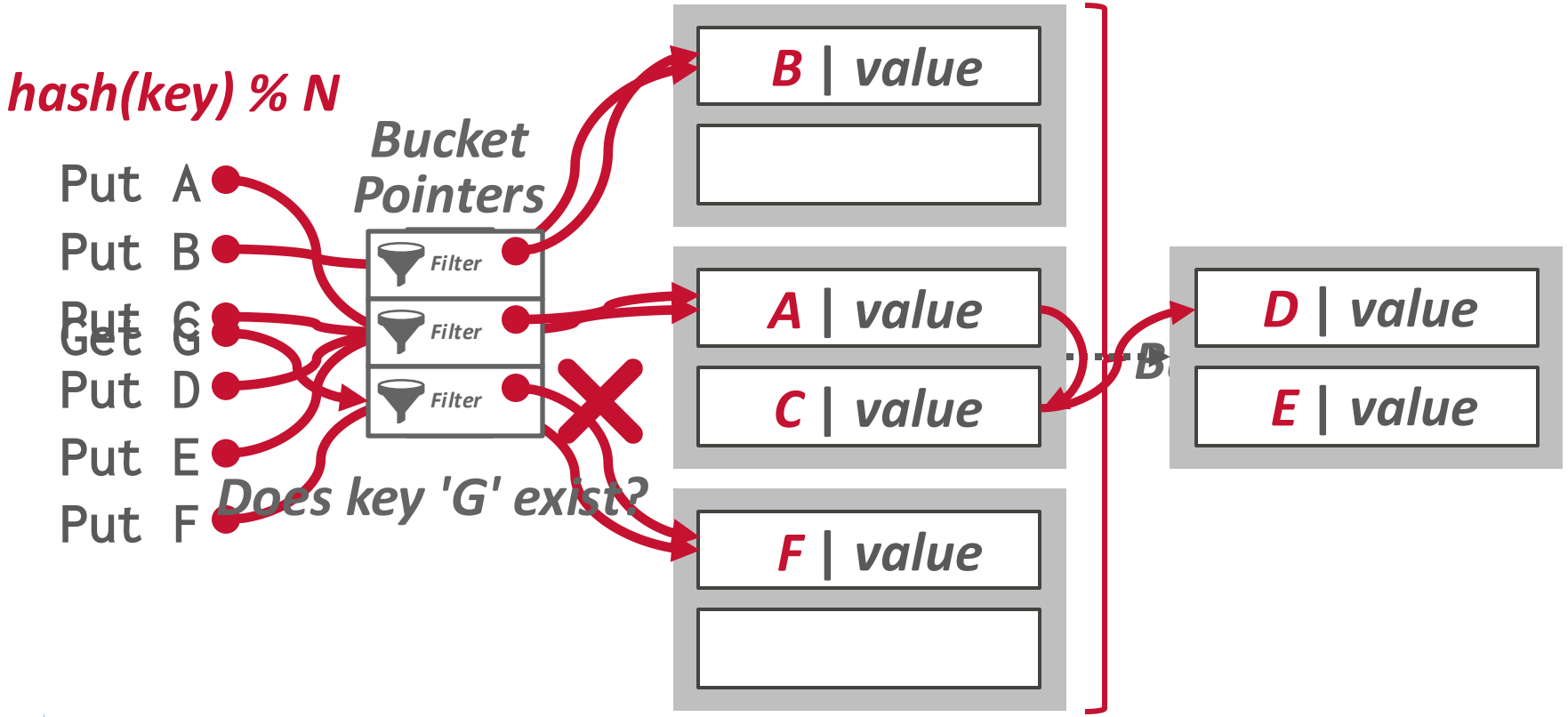
Maintain a linked list of buckets for each slot in the hash table.

Resolve collisions by placing all elements with the same hash key into the same bucket.

→ To determine whether an element is present, hash to its bucket and scan for it.

→ Insertions and deletions are generalizations of lookups.

Chained Hashing



Extendible Hashing

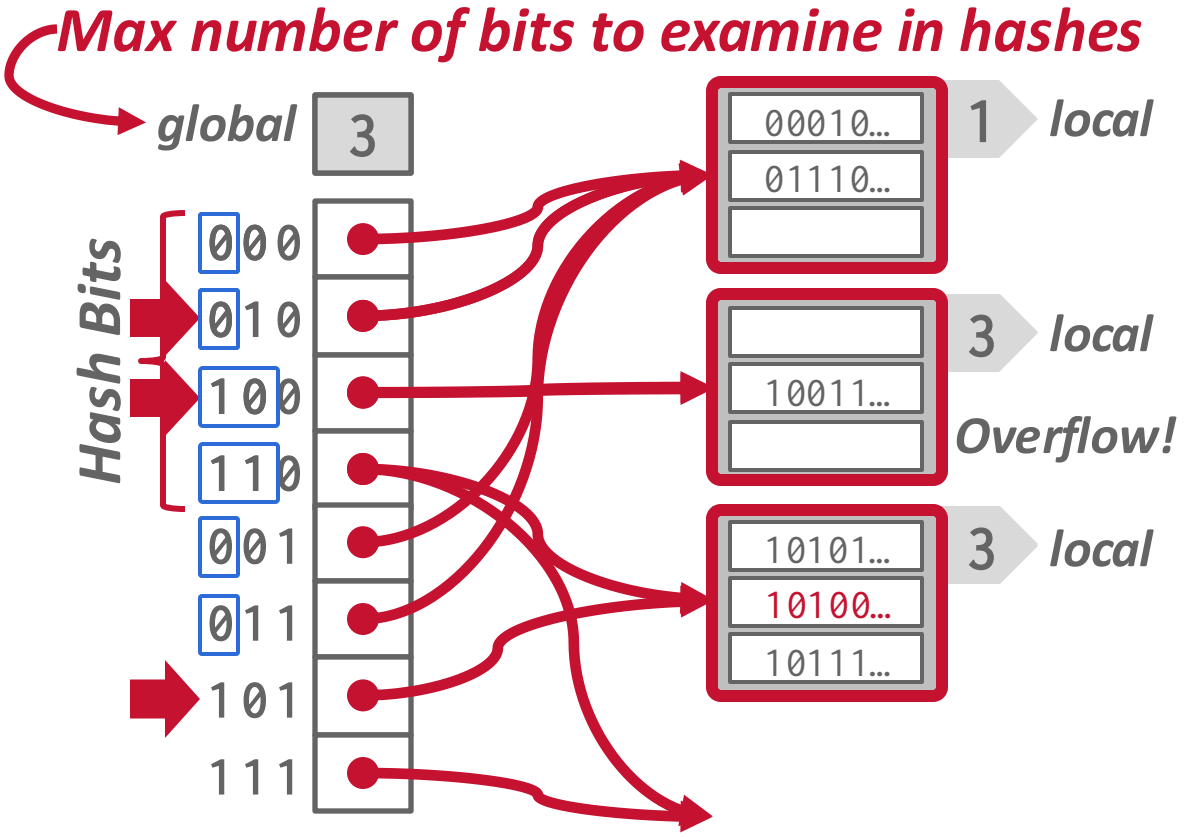
Chained-hashing approach that splits buckets incrementally instead of letting the linked list grow forever.

Multiple slot locations can point to the same bucket chain.

Reshuffle bucket entries on split and increase the number of bits to examine.

→ Data movement is localized to just the split chain.

Extendible Hashing



Get A
hash(A) = 01110...

Put B
hash(B) = 10111...

Put C
hash(C) = 10100...

Linear Hashing

The hash table maintains a pointer that tracks the next bucket to split.

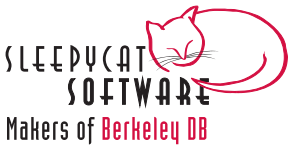
→ When any bucket overflows, split the bucket at the pointer location.

Use multiple hashes to find the right bucket for a given key.

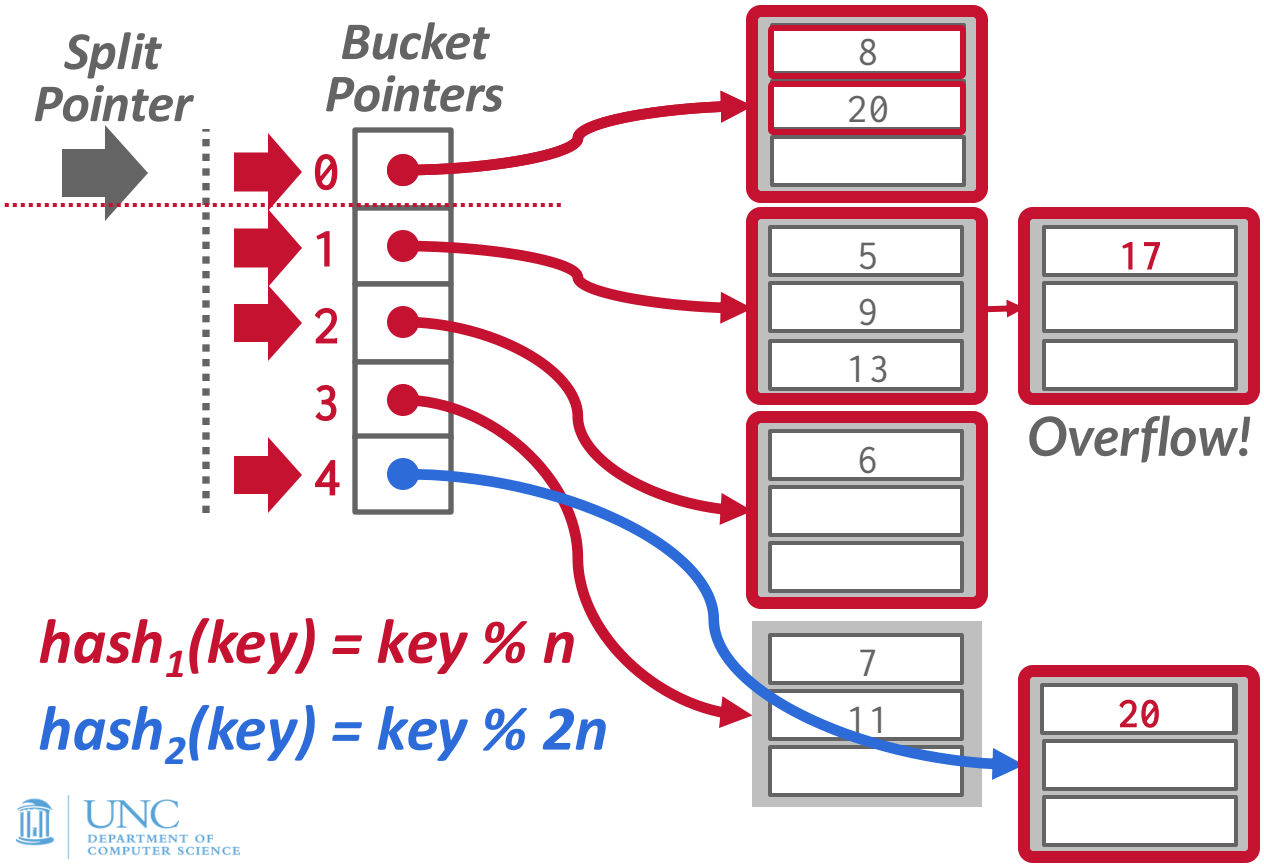
Can use different overflow criterion:

→ Space Utilization

→ Average Length of Overflow Chains



Linear Hashing



Get 6

$hash_1(6) = 6 \% 4 = 2$

Put 17

$hash_1(17) = 17 \% 4 = 1$

$hash_2(8) = 8 \% 8 = 0$

$hash_2(20) = 20 \% 8 = 4$

Get 20

$hash_1(20) = 20 \% 4 = 0$

$hash_2(20) = 20 \% 8 = 4$

Get 9

$hash_1(9) = 9 \% 4 = 1$

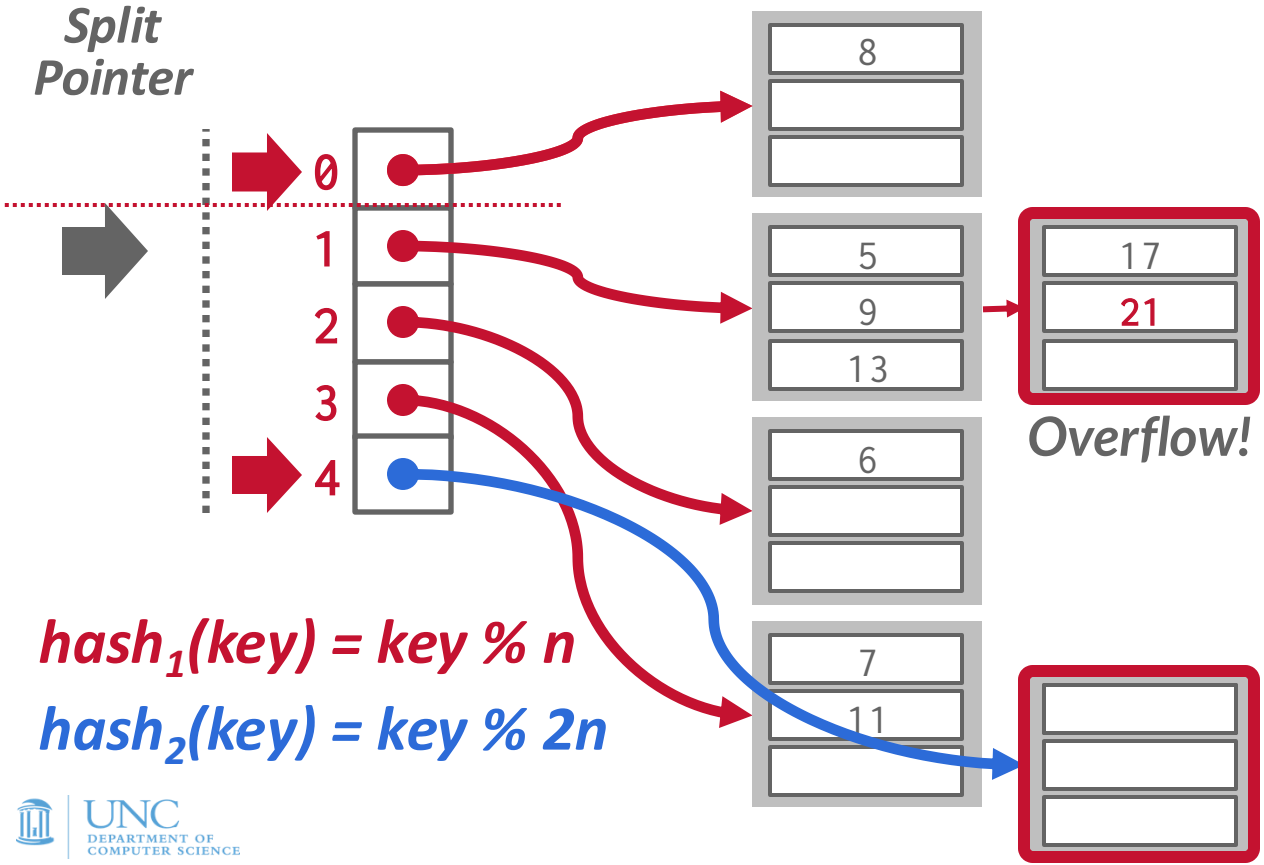
Linear Hashing – Resizing

Splitting buckets based on the split pointer will eventually get to all overflowed buckets.

→ When the pointer reaches the last slot, remove the first hash function and move pointer back to beginning.

If the "highest" bucket below the split pointer is empty, the hash table could remove it and move the splinter pointer in reverse direction.

Linear Hashing – Deletes



Delete 20

$hash_1(20) = 20 \% 4 = 0$

$hash_2(20) = 20 \% 8 = 4$

Put 21

$hash_1(21) = 21 \% 4 = 1$

Conclusion

Fast data structures that support **O(1)** look-ups that are used all throughout DBMS internals.
→ Trade-off between speed and flexibility.

Hash tables are usually **not** what you want to use for a table index…

PostgreSQL

```
CREATE INDEX ON xxx (val);
CREATE INDEX ON xxx USING BTREE (val);
CREATE INDEX ON xxx USING HASH (val);
```

Next Class

Sorting…