Frequency Estimators

Randomization

- Randomization opens up new routes for tradeoffs in data structures:
 - Trade worst-case guarantees for average-case guarantees.
 - Trade exact answers for approximate answers.
- These data structures are used *extensively* in practice. Each of the next four lectures is on something you're likely to encounter IRL.
- Each of the next four lectures explores powerful techniques that are useful in navigating the rivers of Theoryland.

Where We're Going

- Frequency Estimation (Today)
 - Can we count quantities without actually counting them?
- Hash Tables (Tuesday / Thursday)
 - Everyone agrees these are good ideas. How do you design fast hash tables, and why are they fast?
- Approximate Membership (Next Tuesday)
 - Squeezing as much value from our bits as possible.

Outline for Today

Hash Functions

Understanding our basic building blocks.

Count-Min Sketches

Estimating how many times we've seen something.

Concentration Inequalities

 "Correct on expectation" versus "correct with high probability."

Probability Amplification

Increasing our confidence in our answers.

Count Sketches

• These ideas transfer well. Here's another example.

Preliminaries: 2-Independent Hashing

Hashing in Theoryland

- In Theoryland, a hash function is a function from some domain called the *universe* (typically denoted ?!!) to some codomain.
- The codomain is usually a set of the form

$$[m] = \{0, 1, 2, 3, ..., m - 1\}$$

$$h: \mathcal{U} \rightarrow [m]$$

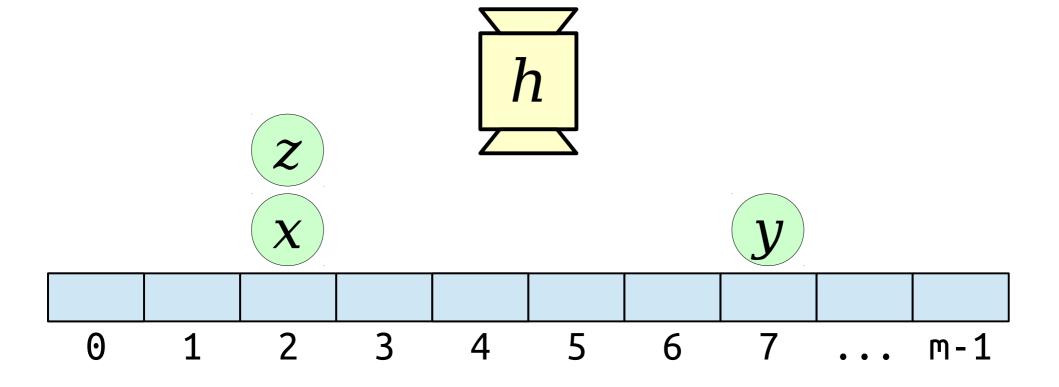
Families of Hash Functions

- A *family* of hash functions is a set \mathcal{H} of hash functions with the same domain and codomain.
- We'll usually sample hash functions uniformly and independently from a family as needed.
- **Key point:** The randomness in our data structures almost always derives from the random choice of hash functions, not from the data.
- Question: What makes a family of hash functions \mathcal{H} a "good" family of hash functions?

Goal: If we pick $h \in \mathcal{H}$ uniformly at random, then h should distribute elements uniformly randomly.

Problem: Representing a hash function for a sample of n elements from \mathcal{U} requires $\Omega(n \log m)$ bits.

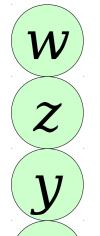
Question: Do we actually need true randomness? Or can we get away with something weaker?



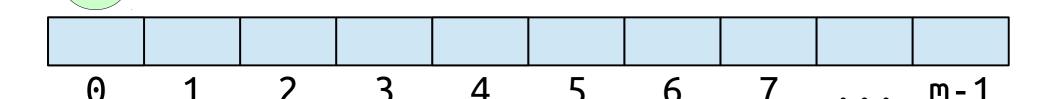
Distribution Property:

Each element should have an equal probability of being placed in each slot. For any $x \in \mathcal{U}$ and random $h \in \mathcal{H}$, the value of h(x) is uniform over [m].

Problem: This rule doesn't guarantee that elements are spread out.



X



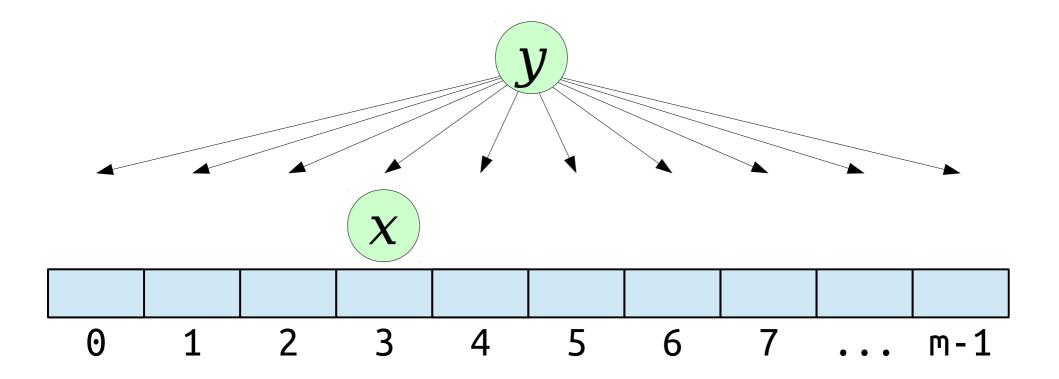
Distribution Property:

Each element should have an equal probability of being placed in each slot. For any $x \in \mathcal{U}$ and random $h \in \mathcal{H}$, the value of h(x) is uniform over [m].

Independence Property:

Where one element is placed shouldn't impact where a second goes.

For any distinct $x, y \in \mathcal{U}$ and random $h \in \mathcal{H}$, h(x) and h(y) are independent random variables.



Distribution Property:

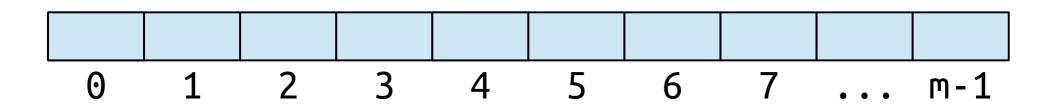
Each element should have an equal probability of being placed in each slot. For any $x \in \mathcal{U}$ and random $h \in \mathcal{H}$, the value of h(x) is uniform over [m].

Independence Property:

Where one element is placed shouldn't impact where a second goes.

For any distinct $x, y \in \mathcal{U}$ and random $h \in \mathcal{H}$, h(x) and h(y) are independent random variables.

A family of hash functions \mathcal{H} is called **2-independent** (or **pairwise independent**) if it satisfies the distribution and independence properties.



For any $x \in \mathcal{U}$ and random $h \in \mathcal{H}$, the value of h(x) is uniform over [m].

For any distinct $x, y \in \mathcal{U}$ and random $h \in \mathcal{H}$, h(x) and h(y) are independent random variables.

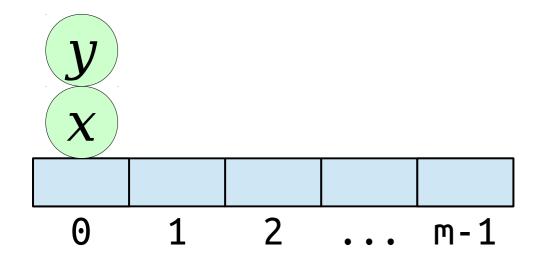
Intuition:

2-independence means any pair of elements is unlikely to collide.

$$\Pr[h(x) = h(y)]$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \Pr[h(x) = i \land h(y) = i]$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \Pr[h(x) = i] \cdot \Pr[h(y) = i]$$



For any $x \in \mathcal{U}$ and random $h \in \mathcal{H}$, the value of h(x) is uniform over [m].

For any distinct $x, y \in \mathcal{U}$ and random $h \in \mathcal{H}$, h(x) and h(y) are independent random variables.

Intuition:

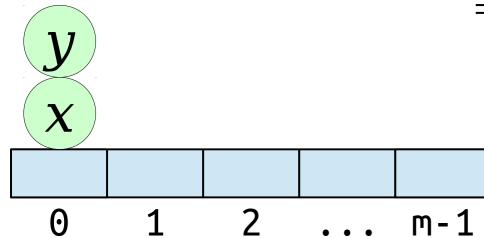
2-independence means any pair of elements is unlikely to collide.

$$\Pr[h(x) = h(y)]$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \Pr[h(x) = i \land h(y) = i]$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \Pr[h(x) = i] \cdot \Pr[h(y) = i]$$

$$=\sum_{i=0}^{m-1}\frac{1}{m^2}$$



For any $x \in \mathcal{U}$ and random $h \in \mathcal{H}$, the value of h(x) is uniform over [m].

For any distinct $x, y \in \mathcal{U}$ and random $h \in \mathcal{H}$, h(x) and h(y) are independent random variables.

Intuition:

2-independence means any pair of elements is unlikely to collide.

$$\Pr[h(x) = h(y)]$$
= $\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \Pr[h(x) = i \land h(y) = i]$
= $\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \Pr[h(x) = i] \cdot \Pr[h(y) = i]$
= $\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \frac{1}{m^2}$

This is the same as if *h* were a truly random function.

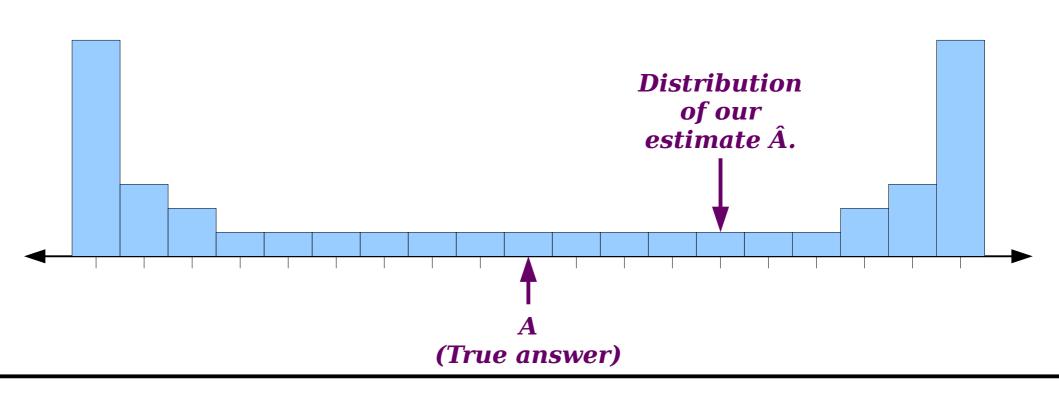
For more on hashing outside of Theoryland, check out *this Stack Exchange post*.

Approximating Quantities

What makes for a good "approximate" solution?

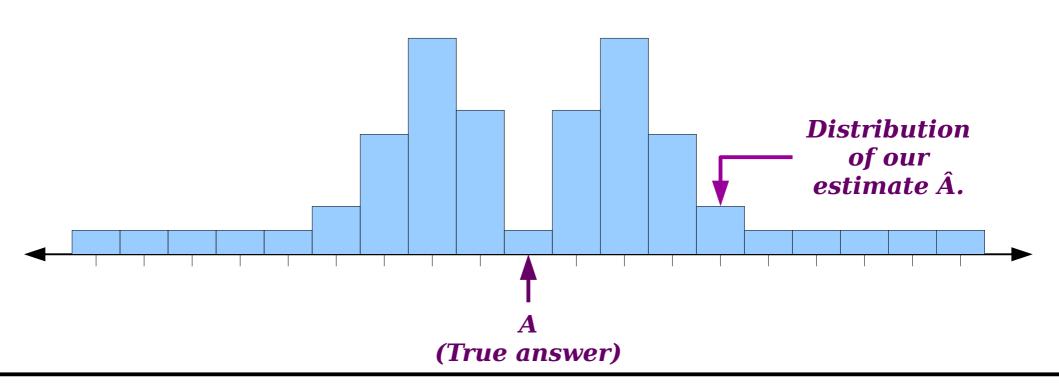
This would not make for a good estimate. However, we have $E[\hat{A}] = A$.

Observation 1: Being correct in expectation isn't sufficient.



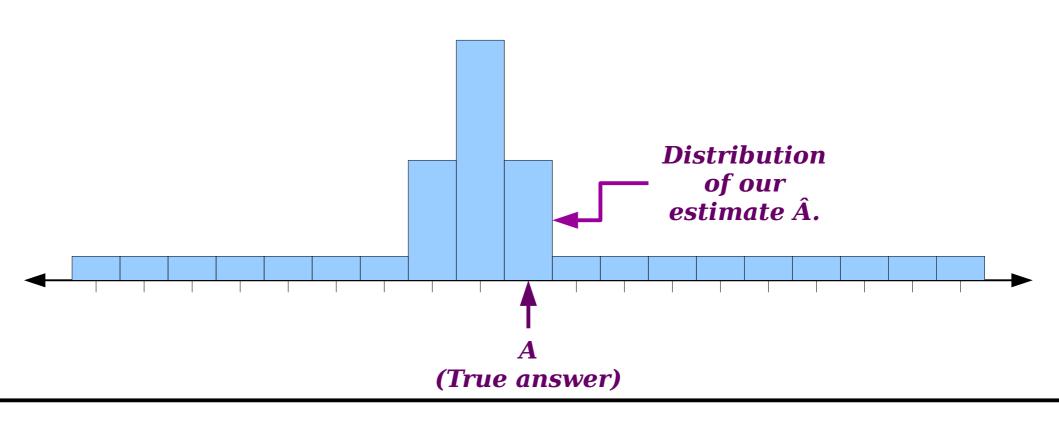
It's unlikely that we'll get the right answer, but we're probably going to be close.

Observation 2: The difference $|\hat{A} - A|$ between our estimate and the truth should ideally be small.



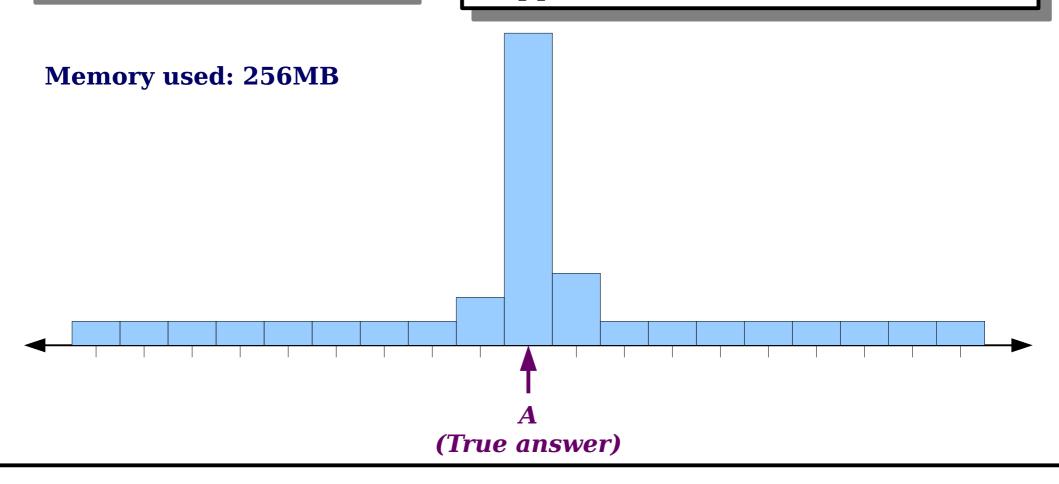
This estimate skews low, but it's very close to the true value.

Observation 3: An estimate doesn't have to be unbiased to be useful.



The more resources we allocate, the better our estimate should be.

Observation 4: A good approximation should be tunable.



Suppose there are two tunable values

$$\varepsilon \in (0, 1]$$
 $\delta \in (0, 1]$

where ϵ represents **accuracy** and δ represents **confidence**.

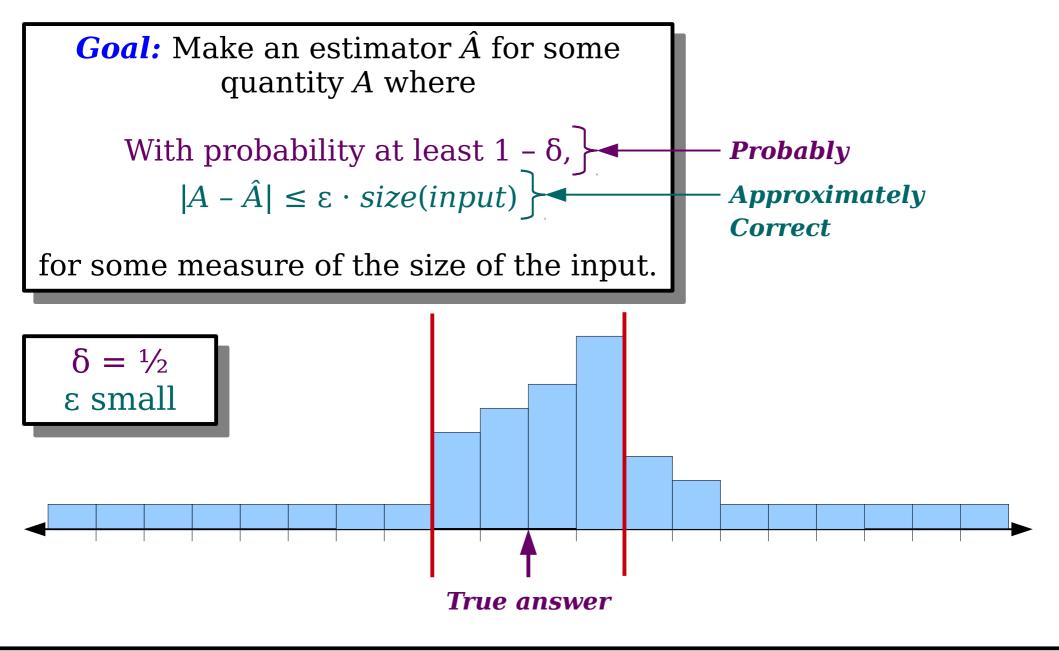
Goal: Make an estimator \hat{A} for some quantity A where

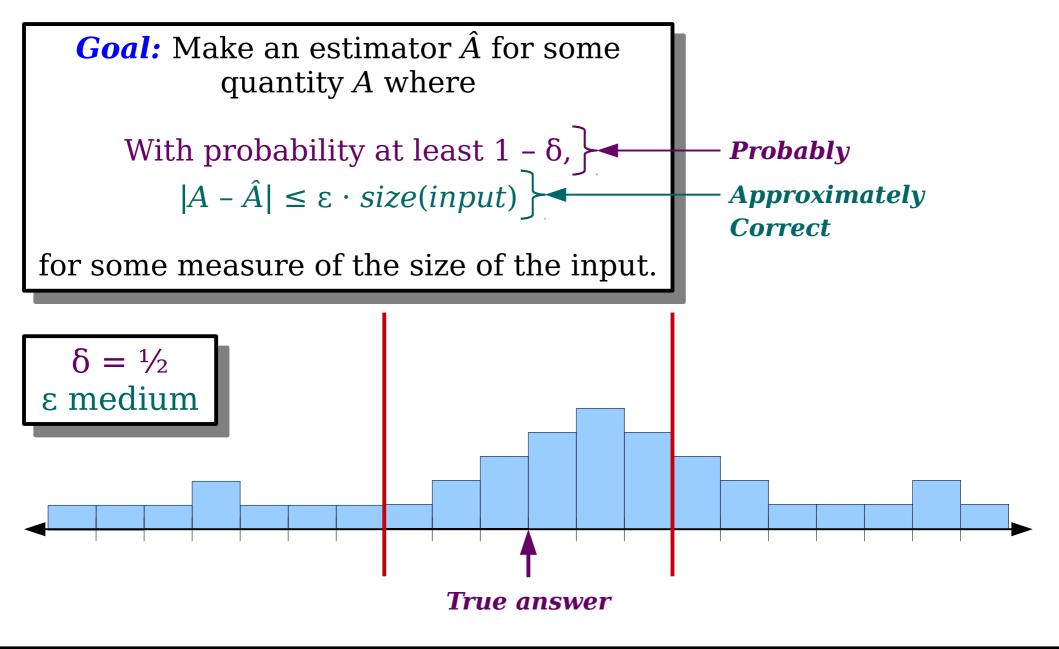
With probability at least $1 - \delta$, $|\hat{A} - A| \le \varepsilon \cdot size(input)$ Probably

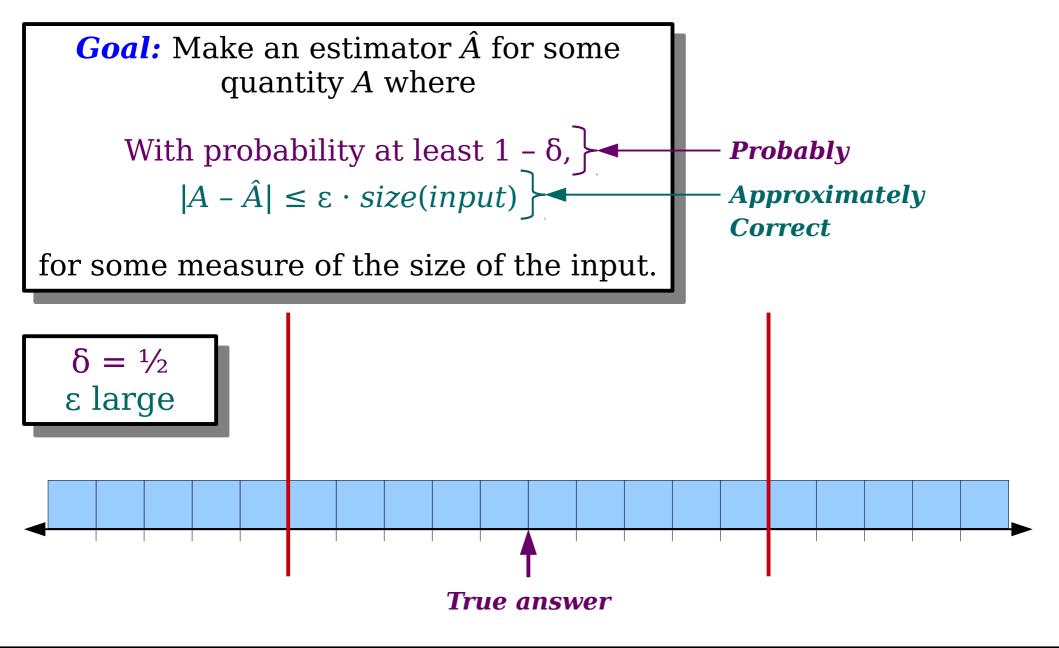
Approximately

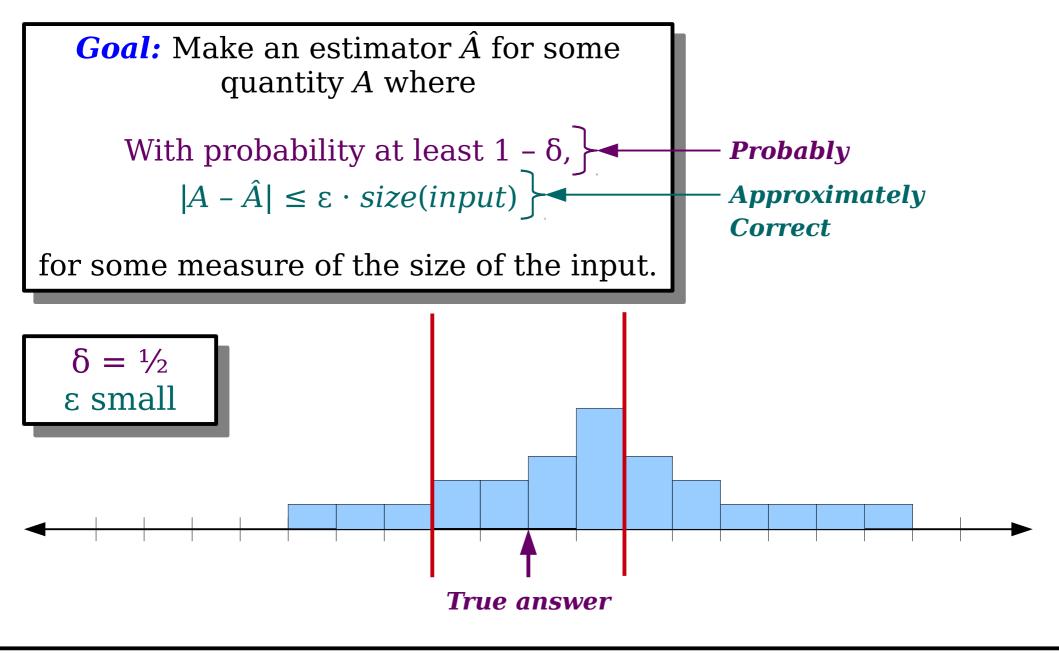
Correct

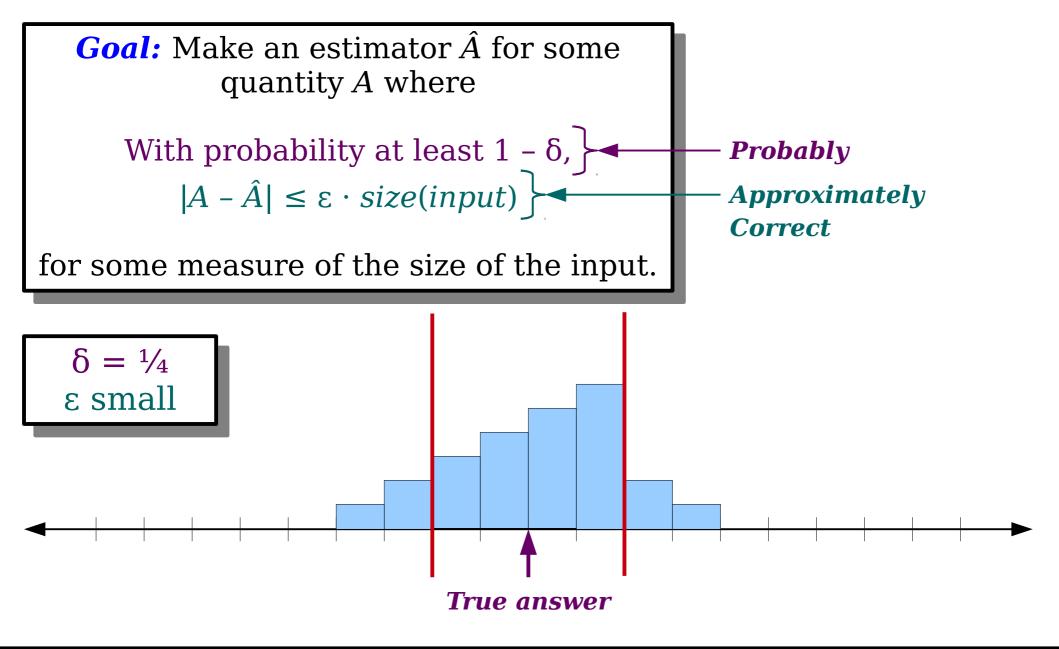
for some measure of the size of the input.

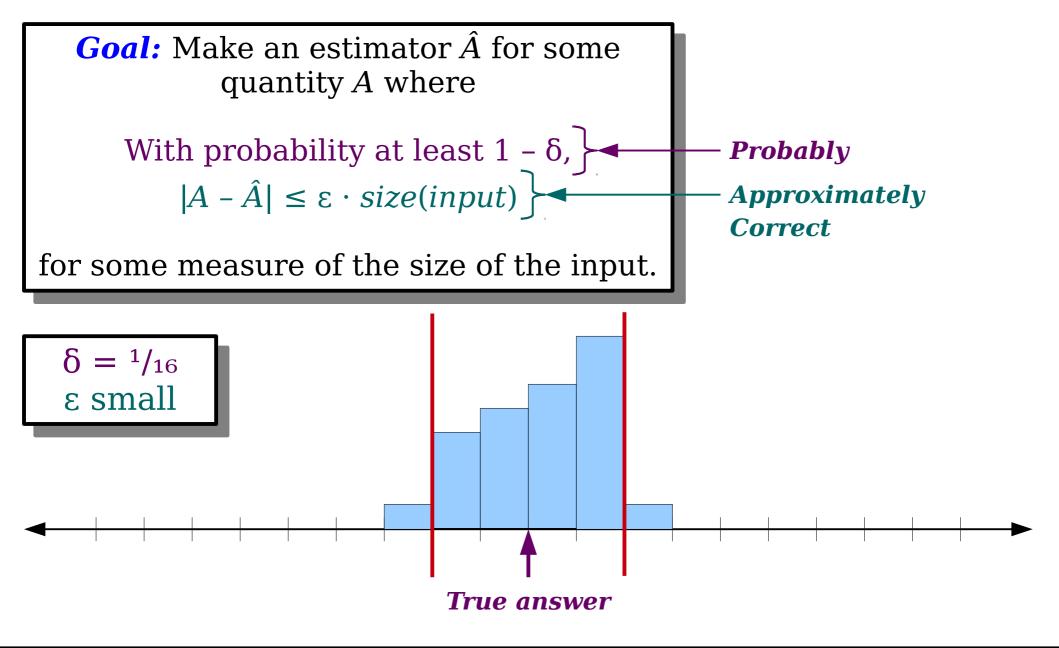












Frequency Estimation

Frequency Estimators

- A *frequency estimator* is a data structure supporting the following operations:
 - *increment*(*x*), which increments the number of times that *x* has been seen, and
 - *estimate*(x), which returns an estimate of the frequency of x.
- Using BSTs, we can solve this in space $\Theta(n)$ with worst-case $O(\log n)$ costs on the operations.
- Using hash tables, we can solve this in space $\Theta(n)$ with expected O(1) costs on the operations.

Frequency Estimators

- Frequency estimation has many applications:
 - Search engines: Finding frequent search queries.
 - Network routing: Finding common source and destination addresses.
- In these applications, $\Theta(n)$ memory can be impractical.
- *Goal:* Get *approximate* answers to these queries in sublinear space.

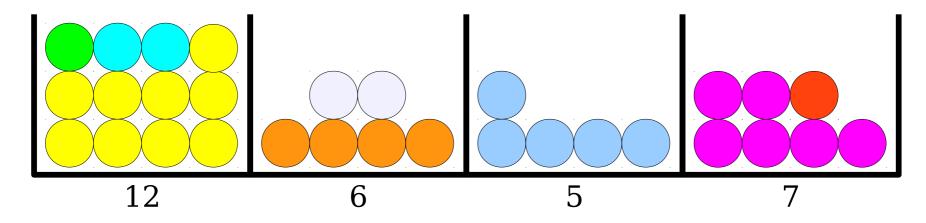
The Count-Min Sketch

How to Build an Estimator

- 1. Design a simple data structure that, intuitively, gives you a good estimate.
- 2. Use a *sum of indicator variables* and *linearity of expectation* to prove that, on expectation, the data structure is pretty close to correct.
- 3. Use a *concentration inequality* to show that the data structure's output is close to its expectation.
- 4. Run multiple copies of the data structure in parallel to amplify the success probability.

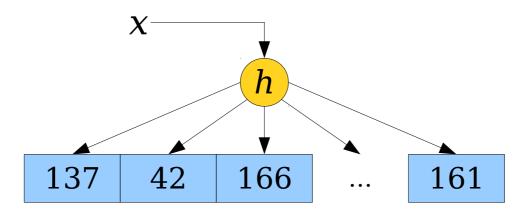
Revisiting the Exact Solution

- In the exact solution to the frequency estimation problem, we maintained a single counter for each distinct element. This is too space-inefficient.
- *Idea*: Store a fixed number of counters and assign a counter to each $x_i \in \mathcal{U}$. Multiple x_i 's might be assigned to the same counter.
- To *increment*(x), increment the counter for x.
- To *estimate*(x), read the value of the counter for x.



Our Initial Structure

- We can model "assigning each x_i to a counter" by using hash functions.
- Choose, from a family of 2-independent hash functions \mathcal{H} , a uniformly-random hash function $h: \mathcal{U} \to [w]$.
- Create an array count of w counters, each initially zero.
 - We'll choose w later on.
- To *increment*(x), increment count[h(x)].
- To **estimate**(x), return **count**[h(x)].



Analyzing our Structure

For each $x_i \in \mathcal{U}$, let \mathbf{a}_i denote the number of times we've seen x_i .

Similarly, let \hat{a}_i denote our estimated value of the frequency of x_i .

Goal: Show that the error in our estimate $(\hat{a}_i - a_i)$ is probably close to zero.

Idea: Think of our element frequencies a_1 , a_2 , a_3 , ... as a vector

$$a = [a_1, a_2, a_3, ...].$$

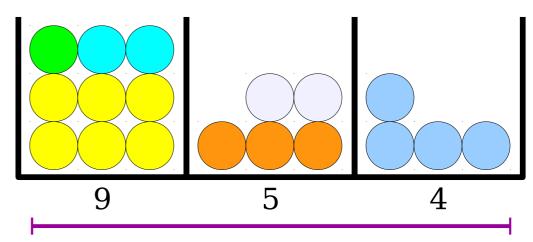
The total number of objects is the sum of the vector entries.

This is called the **L**₁ **norm** of a, and is denoted $||a||_{1}$:

$$\|\boldsymbol{a}\|_1 = \sum_i |\boldsymbol{a}_i|$$

There are $\|a\|_1$ total elements distributed across w buckets. We're using a 2-independent hash family.

Reasonable guess: each bin has $\|a\|_1$ / w elements in it, so $\hat{a}_i - a_i \le \|a\|_1$ / w



Number of buckets: w

Question: Intuitively, what should we expect our approximation error to be?

Analyzing this Structure

- Let's look at $\hat{a}_i = \text{count}[h(x_i)]$ for some choice of x_i .
- For each element x_j :
 - If $h(x_i) = h(x_j)$, then x_j contributes a_j to count $[h(x_i)]$.
 - If $h(x_i) \neq h(x_j)$, then x_j contributes 0 to **count**[$h(x_i)$].
- To pin this down precisely, let's define a set of random variables $X_1, X_2, ...,$ as follows:

$$X_{j} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } h(x_{i}) = h(x_{j}) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Each of these variables is called an *indicator* random variable, since it "indicates" whether some event occurs.

Analyzing this Structure

- Let's look at $\hat{a}_i = \text{count}[h(x_i)]$ for some choice of x_i .
- For each element x_j :
 - If $h(x_i) = h(x_j)$, then x_j contributes a_j to count $[h(x_i)]$.
 - If $h(x_i) \neq h(x_j)$, then x_j contributes 0 to **count**[$h(x_i)$].
- To pin this down precisely, let's define a set of random variables $X_1, X_2, ...,$ as follows:

$$X_{j} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } h(x_{i}) = h(x_{j}) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

• The value of $\hat{a}_i - a_i$ is then given by

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_i - \boldsymbol{a}_i = \sum_{j \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_j X_j$$

$$E[\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_i - \boldsymbol{a}_i] = E[\sum_{j \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_j X_j]$$
$$= \sum_{j \neq i} E[\boldsymbol{a}_j X_j]$$

This follows from *linearity*of expectation. We'll use
this property extensively
over the next few days.

$$E[\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_i - \boldsymbol{a}_i] = E[\sum_{j \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_j X_j]$$

$$= \sum_{j \neq i} E[\boldsymbol{a}_j X_j]$$

$$= \sum_{j \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_j E[X_j]$$

The values of a_j are not random. The randomness comes from our choice of hash function.

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{E}[\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_i - \boldsymbol{a}_i] &= \mathbf{E}[\sum_{j \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_j X_j] \\ &= \sum_{j \neq i} \mathbf{E}[\boldsymbol{a}_j X_j] \\ &= \sum_{j \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_j \mathbf{E}[X_j] \end{split}$$

$$E[X_j] = 1 \cdot Pr[h(x_i) = h(x_j)] + 0 \cdot Pr[h(x_i) \neq h(x_j)]$$

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{E}[\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{i} - \boldsymbol{a}_{i}] &= \mathbf{E}[\sum_{j \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_{j} \boldsymbol{X}_{j}] \\ &= \sum_{j \neq i} \mathbf{E}[\boldsymbol{a}_{j} \boldsymbol{X}_{j}] \\ &= \sum_{j \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_{j} \mathbf{E}[\boldsymbol{X}_{j}] \end{split}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{E}[X_j] &= \mathbf{1} \cdot \Pr[h(x_i) = h(x_j)] + \mathbf{0} \cdot \Pr[h(x_i) \neq h(x_j)] \\ &= \mathbf{1} \cdot \Pr[h(x_i) = h(x_j)] \end{aligned}$$

If X is an indicator variable for some event \mathcal{E} , then $\mathbf{E}[X] = \mathbf{Pr}[\mathcal{E}]$. This is really useful when using linearity of expectation!

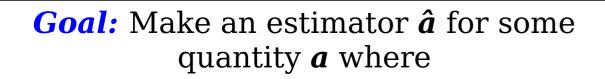
$$\begin{split} \mathbf{E}[\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{i} - \boldsymbol{a}_{i}] &= \mathbf{E}[\sum_{j \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_{j} X_{j}] \\ &= \sum_{j \neq i} \mathbf{E}[\boldsymbol{a}_{j} X_{j}] \\ &= \sum_{j \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_{j} \mathbf{E}[X_{j}] \\ &= \sum_{j \neq i} \frac{\boldsymbol{a}_{j}}{w} \end{split}$$

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{E}[X_j] &= 1 \cdot \Pr[h(x_i) = h(x_j)] + 0 \cdot \Pr[h(x_i) \neq h(x_j)] \\ &= 1 \cdot \Pr[h(x_i) = h(x_j)] \\ &= \frac{1}{W} \end{split}$$
 Hey, we saw this

earlier!

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{E}[\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{i} - \boldsymbol{a}_{i}] &= \mathbf{E}[\sum_{j \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_{j} X_{j}] \\ &= \sum_{j \neq i} \mathbf{E}[\boldsymbol{a}_{j} X_{j}] \\ &= \sum_{j \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_{j} \mathbf{E}[X_{j}] \\ &= \sum_{j \neq i} \frac{\boldsymbol{a}_{j}}{w} \\ &\leq \frac{\|\boldsymbol{a}\|_{1}}{w} \end{split}$$

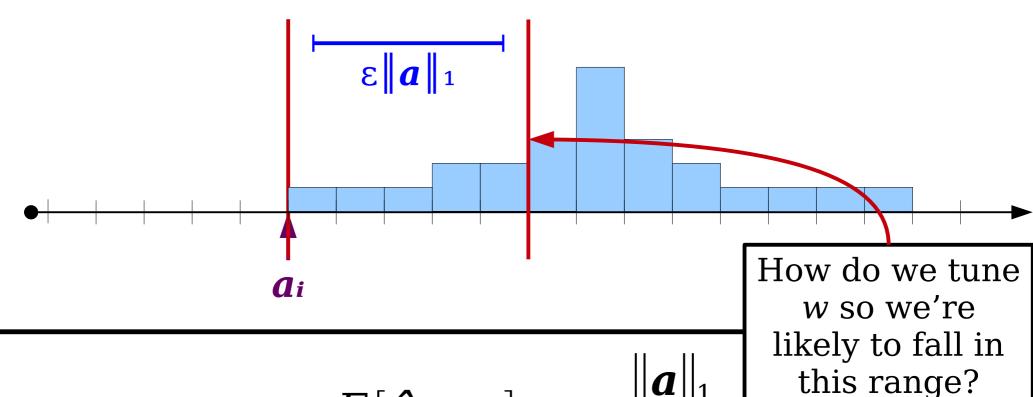
$$\begin{split} \mathbf{E}[X_j] &= \mathbf{1} \cdot \Pr[h(x_i) = h(x_j)] + \mathbf{0} \cdot \Pr[h(x_i) \neq h(x_j)] \\ &= \mathbf{1} \cdot \Pr[h(x_i) = h(x_j)] \\ &= \frac{1}{w} \end{split}$$



With probability at least
$$1 - \delta$$
, $|\hat{a} - a| \le \varepsilon \cdot size(input)$

for some measure of the size of the input.

- Probably - Approximately Correct



$$E[\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_i - \boldsymbol{a}_i] \leq \frac{\|\boldsymbol{a}\|_1}{w}$$

$$\Pr\left[\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{i} - \boldsymbol{a}_{i}\right] > \varepsilon \|\boldsymbol{a}\|_{1}$$

$$< \frac{E\left[\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{i} - \boldsymbol{a}_{i}\right]}{\varepsilon \|\boldsymbol{a}\|_{1}}$$

We don't know the exact distribution of this random variable.

However, we have a *one-sided error*: our estimate can never be lower than the true value. This means that $\hat{a}_i - a_i \ge 0$.

Markov's inequality says that if *X* is a nonnegative random variable, then

$$\Pr[X > c] < \frac{E[X]}{c}.$$

$$\Pr\left[\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{i} - \boldsymbol{a}_{i}\right] > \varepsilon \|\boldsymbol{a}\|_{1}$$

$$< \frac{\mathbb{E}\left[\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{i} - \boldsymbol{a}_{i}\right]}{\varepsilon \|\boldsymbol{a}\|_{1}}$$

$$\leq \frac{\|\boldsymbol{a}\|_1}{w} \cdot \frac{1}{\varepsilon \|\boldsymbol{a}\|_1}$$

$$E[\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_i - \boldsymbol{a}_i] \leq \frac{\|\boldsymbol{a}\|_1}{w}$$

$$\Pr\left[\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{i}-\boldsymbol{a}_{i}\right]>\varepsilon\|\boldsymbol{a}\|_{1}$$

$$< \frac{\mathbb{E}\left[\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{i} - \boldsymbol{a}_{i}\right]}{\varepsilon \|\boldsymbol{a}\|_{1}}$$

$$\leq \frac{\|\boldsymbol{a}\|_1}{w} \cdot \frac{1}{\varepsilon \|\boldsymbol{a}\|_1}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\varepsilon w}$$

Goal: Make an estimator \hat{a} for some quantity a where

With probability at least
$$1 - \delta$$
, $|\hat{a} - a| \le \varepsilon \cdot size(input)$

for some measure of input size.

- **Probably** - **Approximately**

Correct

$$\Pr[\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_i - \boldsymbol{a}_i > \varepsilon \|\boldsymbol{a}\|_1] \leq \frac{1}{\varepsilon w}$$

Initial Idea:

Pick $w = \varepsilon^{-1} \cdot \delta^{-1}$. Then

$$\Pr[\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_i - \boldsymbol{a}_i > \varepsilon ||\boldsymbol{a}||_1] < \delta$$

Suppose we're counting 1,000 distinct items.

If we want our estimate to be within $\varepsilon \| \boldsymbol{a} \|_1$ of the true value with 99.9% probability, how much memory do we need?

Answer: $1,000 \cdot \varepsilon^{-1}$.

Can we do better?

Goal: Make an estimator \hat{a} for some quantity a where

With probability at least
$$1 - \delta$$
, $|\hat{a} - a| \le \varepsilon \cdot size(input)$

for some measure of input size.

$$\Pr[\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_i - \boldsymbol{a}_i > \varepsilon \|\boldsymbol{a}\|_1] \leq \frac{1}{\varepsilon w}$$

Revised Idea: Pick

$$w = e \cdot \varepsilon^{-1}$$
. Then

$$\Pr[\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_i - \boldsymbol{a}_i > \varepsilon \|\boldsymbol{a}\|_1] < e^{-1}$$

This simple data structure, by itself, is likely to be wrong.

What happens if we run a bunch of copies of this approach in parallel?

Running in Parallel

- Let's suppose that we run *d* independent copies of this data structure. Each has its own independently randomly chosen hash function.
- To *increment*(x) in the overall structure, we call increment(x) on each of the underlying data structures.
- The probability that at least one of them provides a good estimate is quite high.
- **Question:** How do you know which one?

Estimator 1:

137

Estimator 2:

271

Estimator 3:

166

Estimator 4:

103

Estimator 5:

261

Recognizing the Answer

- *Recall:* Each estimate \hat{a}_i is the sum of two independent terms:
 - The actual value a_i .
 - Some "noise" terms from other elements colliding with x_i .
- Since the noise terms are always nonnegative, larger values of \hat{a}_i are less accurate than smaller values of \hat{a}_i .
- *Idea*: Take, as our estimate, the minimum value of \hat{a}_i from all of the data structures.

Recognizing the Answer

- Suppose we have *d* independent copies of our estimator.
- Let \hat{a}_{ij} be the estimate returned by the *j*th copy of the estimator.
- Our overall estimate is therefore

$$\min \{\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{ij}\}$$

• *Question:* How likely is this to be within our magic window around the true value?

$$\Pr\left[\min\left\{|\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{ij}|\right\} - \boldsymbol{a}_i > \varepsilon \|\boldsymbol{a}\|_1\right]$$

$$= \Pr\left[\bigwedge_{j} \left(\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{ij} - \boldsymbol{a}_{i} > \varepsilon \|\boldsymbol{a}\|_{1}\right)\right]$$

The only way the minimum estimate is inaccurate is if *every* estimate is inaccurate.

Let $\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{ij}$ be the estimate from the jth copy of the data structure.

$$\Pr\left[\min\left\{\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{ij}\right\} - \boldsymbol{a}_{i} > \varepsilon \|\boldsymbol{a}\|_{1}\right]$$

$$= \Pr\left[\bigwedge_{j} \left(\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{ij} - \boldsymbol{a}_{i} > \varepsilon \|\boldsymbol{a}\|_{1}\right)\right]$$

$$= \prod_{i} \Pr\left[\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{ij} - \boldsymbol{a}_{i} > \varepsilon \|\boldsymbol{a}\|_{1}\right]$$

Each copy of the data structure is independent of the others.

Let \hat{a}_{ij} be the estimate from the jth copy of the data structure.

$$\Pr\left[\min\left\{\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{ij}\right\} - \boldsymbol{a}_{i} > \varepsilon \|\boldsymbol{a}\|_{1}\right]$$

$$= \Pr\left[\bigwedge_{j} \left(\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{ij} - \boldsymbol{a}_{i} > \varepsilon \|\boldsymbol{a}\|_{1}\right)\right]$$

$$= \prod_{j} \Pr\left[\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{ij} - \boldsymbol{a}_{i} > \varepsilon \|\boldsymbol{a}\|_{1}\right]$$

$$< \prod_{j} e^{-1}$$

$$\Pr[\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_i - \boldsymbol{a}_i > \varepsilon \|\boldsymbol{a}\|_1] < e^{-1}$$

Let \hat{a}_{ij} be the estimate from the jth copy of the data structure.

$$\Pr\left[\min\left\{|\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{ij}|\right\} - \boldsymbol{a}_i > \varepsilon ||\boldsymbol{a}||_1\right]$$

$$= \Pr\left[\bigwedge_{j} \left(\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{ij} - \boldsymbol{a}_{i} > \varepsilon \|\boldsymbol{a}\|_{1}\right)\right]$$

$$= \prod_{i} \Pr \left[\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{ij} - \boldsymbol{a}_{i} > \varepsilon \|\boldsymbol{a}\|_{1} \right]$$

$$< \prod_{j} e^{-1}$$

$$= e^{-d}$$

Let $\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{ij}$ be the estimate from the jth copy of the data structure.

Goal: Make an estimator \hat{a} for some quantity a where

With probability at least
$$1 - \delta$$
, $|\hat{a} - a| \le \varepsilon \cdot size(input)$

for some measure of input size.

Probably

Approximately

Correct

$$\Pr[\min\{\hat{a}_{ij}\} - a_i > \varepsilon ||a||_1] < e^{-d}$$

Idea: Choose $d = -\ln \delta$. (Equivalently: $d = \ln \delta^{-1}$.) Then

$$\Pr[\min\{\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{ij}\} - \boldsymbol{a}_i > \varepsilon \|\boldsymbol{a}\|_1] < \delta$$

The Count-Min Sketch

- This data structure is called the *count-min sketch*.
- Given parameters ε and δ , choose

$$w = [e / \varepsilon]$$
 $d = [\ln \delta^{-1}]$

- Create an array **count** of size $w \times d$ and for each row i, choose a hash function $h_i : \mathcal{U} \rightarrow [w]$ uniformly and independently from a 2-independent family of hash functions \mathcal{H} .
- To *increment*(x), increment **count**[i][$h_i(x)$] for each row i.
- To *estimate*(x), return the minimum value of count[i][$h_i(x)$] across all rows i.

The Count-Min Sketch

- Update and query times are $\Theta(d)$, which is $\Theta(\log \delta^{-1})$.
- Space usage: $\Theta(\epsilon^{-1} \cdot \log \delta^{-1})$ counters.
 - This is a major improvement over our earlier approach that used $\Theta(\epsilon^{-1} \cdot \delta^{-1})$ counters.
 - This can be *significantly* better than just storing a raw frequency count!
- Provides an estimate to within $\varepsilon \| \boldsymbol{a} \|_1$ with probability at least 1δ .

Time-Out for Announcements!

Problem Sets

- Solutions to PS3 are now up on the course website.
 - Take a few minutes to read over them it never hurts to get a different perspective on the solutions to the problems!
- PS4 is due a week from Tuesday. We recommend starting early so you have time to think things over.

Project Checkpoints

- As a reminder, you should be working on the project checkpoint, which is due a week from today.
- Take some time to think through the questions we sent you. Some of them are fairly open-ended and might require you to go looking in the literature for future work. Let us know if you need any help!

Back to CS166!

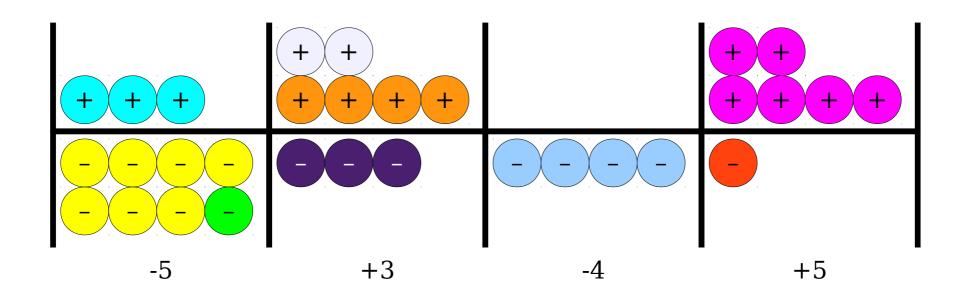
An Alternative: Count Sketches

The Motivation

- (Note: This is historically backwards; count sketches came before count-min sketches.)
- In a count-min sketch, errors arise when multiple elements collide.
- Errors are strictly additive; the more elements collide in a bucket, the worse the estimate for those elements.
- *Question:* Can we try to offset the "badness" that results from the collisions?

The Setup

- As before, for some parameter *w*, we'll create an array **count** of length *w*.
- As before, choose a hash function $h: \mathcal{U} \to [w]$ from a family \mathcal{H} .
- For each $x_i \in \mathcal{U}$, assign x_i either +1 or -1.
- To *increment*(x), go to count[h(x)] and add ± 1 as appropriate.
- To **estimate**(x), return **count**[h(x)], multiplied by ± 1 as appropriate.

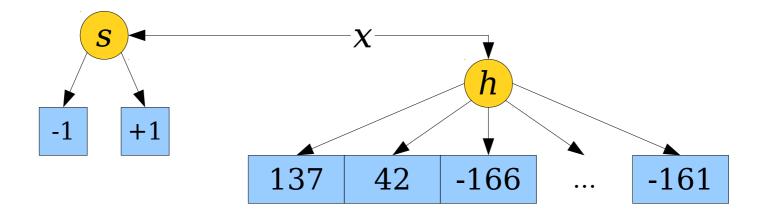


The Intuition

- Think about what introducing the ±1 term does when collisions occur.
- If an element *x* collides with a frequent element *y*, we're not going to get a good estimate for *x* (but we wouldn't have gotten one anyway).
- If *x* collides with multiple infrequent elements, the collisions between those elements will partially offset one another and leave a better estimate for *x*.

More Formally

- Let's have $h \in \mathcal{H}$ chosen uniformly at random from a 2-independent family of hash functions from \mathcal{U} . to w.
- Choose $s \in \mathcal{U}$ uniformly randomly and independently of h from a 2-independent family from \mathcal{U} to $\{-1, +1\}$.
- To *increment*(x), add s(x) to count[h(x)].
- To **estimate**(x), return s(x) · count[h(x)].



Formalizing the Intuition

- As before, define \hat{a}_i to be our estimate of a_i .
- As before, \hat{a}_i will depend on how the other elements are distributed. Unlike before, it now also depends on signs given to the elements by s.
- Specifically, for each other x_j that collides with x_i , the error contribution will be

$$s(x_i) \cdot s(x_j) \cdot a_j$$

- Why?
 - The counter for x_i will have $s(x_j)$ a_j added in.
 - We multiply the counter by $s(x_i)$ before returning it.

Formalizing the Intuition

- As before, define \hat{a}_i to be our estimate of a_i .
- As before, \hat{a}_i will depend on how the other elements are distributed. Unlike before, it now also depends on signs given to the elements by s.
- Specifically, for each other x_j that collides with x_i , the error contribution will be

$$s(x_i) \cdot s(x_j) \cdot \boldsymbol{a}_j$$

- Or:
 - If $s(x_i)$ and $s(x_j)$ point in the same direction, the terms add to the total.
 - If $s(x_i)$ and $s(x_j)$ point in different directions, the terms subtract from the total.

Formalizing the Intuition

• In our quest to learn more about \hat{a}_i , let's have X_j be a random variable indicating whether x_i and x_j collided with one another:

$$X_{j} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } h(x_{i}) = h(x_{j}) \\ 0 & \text{if } h(x_{i}) \neq h(x_{j}) \end{cases}$$

• We can then express \hat{a}_i in terms of the signed contributions from the items it collides with:

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{i} = \sum_{j} \boldsymbol{a}_{j} s(x_{i}) s(x_{j}) \boldsymbol{X}_{j} = \boldsymbol{a}_{i} + \sum_{j \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_{j} s(x_{i}) s(x_{j}) \boldsymbol{X}_{j}$$

This is how much the collision impacts our estimate.

We only care about items we collided with.

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{E}[\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_i] &= \mathbf{E}[\boldsymbol{a}_i + \sum_{j \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_j s(x_i) s(x_j) X_j] \\ &= \mathbf{E}[\boldsymbol{a}_i] + \mathbf{E}[\sum_{j \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_j s(x_i) s(x_j) X_j] \end{split}$$

Hey, it's linearity of expectation!

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{E}[\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_i] &= \mathbf{E}[\boldsymbol{a}_i + \sum_{j \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_j s(x_i) s(x_j) X_j] \\ &= \mathbf{E}[\boldsymbol{a}_i] + \mathbf{E}[\sum_{j \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_j s(x_i) s(x_j) X_j] \\ &= \boldsymbol{a}_i + \sum_{i \neq i} \mathbf{E}[\boldsymbol{a}_j s(x_i) s(x_j) X_j] \end{split}$$

Remember that \boldsymbol{a}_i and the like aren't random variables.

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{E}[\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{i}] &= \mathbf{E}[\boldsymbol{a}_{i} + \sum_{j \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_{j} s(\boldsymbol{x}_{i}) s(\boldsymbol{x}_{j}) \boldsymbol{X}_{j}] \\ &= \mathbf{E}[\boldsymbol{a}_{i}] + \mathbf{E}[\sum_{j \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_{j} s(\boldsymbol{x}_{i}) s(\boldsymbol{x}_{j}) \boldsymbol{X}_{j}] \\ &= \boldsymbol{a}_{i} + \sum_{j \neq i} \mathbf{E}[\boldsymbol{a}_{j} s(\boldsymbol{x}_{i}) s(\boldsymbol{x}_{j}) \boldsymbol{X}_{j}] \\ &= \boldsymbol{a}_{i} + \sum_{i \neq i} \mathbf{E}[s(\boldsymbol{x}_{i}) s(\boldsymbol{x}_{j})] \mathbf{E}[\boldsymbol{a}_{j} \boldsymbol{X}_{j}] \end{split}$$

We chose the hash functions h and s independently of one another.

$$X_{j} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } h(x_{i}) = h(x_{j}) \\ 0 & \text{if } h(x_{i}) \neq h(x_{j}) \end{cases}$$

$$E[\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{i}] = E[\boldsymbol{a}_{i} + \sum_{j \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_{j} s(x_{i}) s(x_{j}) X_{j}]$$

$$= E[\boldsymbol{a}_{i}] + E[\sum_{j \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_{j} s(x_{i}) s(x_{j}) X_{j}]$$

$$= \boldsymbol{a}_{i} + \sum_{j \neq i} E[\boldsymbol{a}_{j} s(x_{i}) s(x_{j}) X_{j}]$$

$$= \boldsymbol{a}_{i} + \sum_{j \neq i} E[s(x_{i}) s(x_{j})] E[\boldsymbol{a}_{j} X_{j}]$$

$$= \boldsymbol{a}_{i} + \sum_{j \neq i} E[s(x_{i})] E[s(x_{j})] E[\boldsymbol{a}_{j} X_{j}]$$

Since s is drawn from a 2-independent family of hash functions, we know $s(x_i)$ and $s(x_j)$ are independent random variables.

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{E}[\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{i}] &= \mathbf{E}[\boldsymbol{a}_{i} + \sum_{j \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_{j} s(\boldsymbol{x}_{i}) s(\boldsymbol{x}_{j}) \boldsymbol{X}_{j}] \\ &= \mathbf{E}[\boldsymbol{a}_{i}] + \mathbf{E}[\sum_{j \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_{j} s(\boldsymbol{x}_{i}) s(\boldsymbol{x}_{j}) \boldsymbol{X}_{j}] \\ &= \boldsymbol{a}_{i} + \sum_{j \neq i} \mathbf{E}[\boldsymbol{a}_{j} s(\boldsymbol{x}_{i}) s(\boldsymbol{x}_{j}) \boldsymbol{X}_{j}] \\ &= \boldsymbol{a}_{i} + \sum_{j \neq i} \mathbf{E}[s(\boldsymbol{x}_{i}) s(\boldsymbol{x}_{j})] \mathbf{E}[\boldsymbol{a}_{j} \boldsymbol{X}_{j}] \\ &= \boldsymbol{a}_{i} + \sum_{j \neq i} \mathbf{E}[s(\boldsymbol{x}_{i})] \mathbf{E}[s(\boldsymbol{x}_{j})] \mathbf{E}[\boldsymbol{a}_{j} \boldsymbol{X}_{j}] \\ &= \boldsymbol{a}_{i} + \sum_{j \neq i} \mathbf{0} \\ &= \boldsymbol{a}_{i} \end{split}$$

$$E[s(x_i)] = \frac{1}{2} \cdot (-1) + \frac{1}{2} \cdot (+1)$$

= 0

s is drawn from a 2-independent family of hash functions.

 $s(x_i)$ is uniform over $\{-1, +1\}$

$$Pr[s(x_i) = -1] = \frac{1}{2} \quad Pr[s(x_i) = +1] = \frac{1}{2}$$

A Hitch

- In the count-min sketch, we used Markov's inequality to bound the probability that we get a bad estimate.
- This worked because we had a *one-sided error*: the distance $\hat{a}_i a_i$ from the true answer was nonnegative.
- However, with the count sketch, we have a **two- sided error**: $\hat{a}_i a_i$ can be negative in the count sketch because collisions can *decrease* the estimate \hat{a}_i below the true value a_i .
- We'll need to use a different technique to bound the error.

Chebyshev to the Rescue

• Chebyshev's inequality states that for any random variable X with finite variance, given any c > 0, we have

$$\Pr[|X-E[X]| > c] < \frac{\operatorname{Var}[X]}{c^2}.$$

• If we can get the variance of \hat{a}_i , we can bound the probability that we get a bad estimate with our data structure.

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{Var}[\boldsymbol{\hat{a}}_i] &= \operatorname{Var}[\boldsymbol{a}_i + \sum_{j \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_j s(x_i) s(x_j) X_j] \\ &= \operatorname{Var}[\sum_{i \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_j s(x_i) s(x_j) X_j] \end{aligned}$$

$$Var[a + X] = Var[X]$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \operatorname{Var}[\boldsymbol{\hat{a}}_i] &= \operatorname{Var}[\boldsymbol{a}_i + \sum_{j \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_j s(x_i) s(x_j) \boldsymbol{X}_j] \\ &= \operatorname{Var}[\sum_{j \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_j s(x_i) s(x_j) \boldsymbol{X}_j] \\ &= \sum_{j \neq i} \operatorname{Var}[\boldsymbol{a}_j s(x_i) s(x_j) \boldsymbol{X}_j] \end{aligned}$$

In general, Var is *not* a linear operator.

However, if the terms in the sum are *pairwise uncorrelated*, then Var is linear.

Lemma: The terms in this sum are uncorrelated. (Prove this!)

$$\begin{aligned} & \operatorname{Var}[\boldsymbol{\hat{a}}_i] &= \operatorname{Var}[\boldsymbol{a}_i + \sum_{j \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_j s(x_i) s(x_j) X_j] \\ &= \operatorname{Var}[\sum_{j \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_j s(x_i) s(x_j) X_j] \\ &= \sum_{j \neq i} \operatorname{Var}[\boldsymbol{a}_j s(x_i) s(x_j) X_j] \\ &\leq \sum_{i \neq i} \operatorname{E}[(\boldsymbol{a}_j s(x_i) s(x_j) X_j)^2] \end{aligned}$$

$$Var[Z] = E[Z^2] - E[Z]^2$$

$$\leq E[Z^2]$$

$$Var[\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{i}] = Var[\boldsymbol{a}_{i} + \sum_{j \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_{j} s(x_{i}) s(x_{j}) X_{j}]$$

$$= Var[\sum_{j \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_{j} s(x_{i}) s(x_{j}) X_{j}]$$

$$- \sum_{j \neq i} Var[\boldsymbol{a}_{j} s(x_{j}) s(x_{j}) X_{j}]$$

$$= \sum_{j \neq i} \text{Var}[\boldsymbol{a}_j s(x_i) s(x_j) X_j]$$

$$\leq \sum_{j\neq i} \mathrm{E}[(\boldsymbol{a}_{j}s(x_{i})s(x_{j})X_{j})^{2}]$$

$$= \sum_{j\neq i} E[\boldsymbol{a}_j^2 s(x_i)^2 s(x_j)^2 X_j^2]$$

$$= \sum_{i \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_{j}^{2} \mathrm{E}[X_{j}^{2}]$$

$$s(x) = \pm 1,$$
so
$$s(x)^2 = 1$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \operatorname{Var}[\boldsymbol{\hat{a}}_i] &= \operatorname{Var}[\boldsymbol{a}_i + \sum_{j \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_j s(x_i) s(x_j) X_j] \\ &= \operatorname{Var}[\sum_{j \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_j s(x_i) s(x_j) X_j] \\ &= \sum_{j \neq i} \operatorname{Var}[\boldsymbol{a}_j s(x_i) s(x_j) X_j] \\ &\leq \sum_{j \neq i} \operatorname{E}[(\boldsymbol{a}_j s(x_i) s(x_j) X_j)^2] \\ &= \sum_{j \neq i} \operatorname{E}[\boldsymbol{a}_j^2 s(x_i)^2 s(x_j)^2 X_j^2] \\ &= \sum_{j \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_j^2 \operatorname{E}[X_j^2] \end{aligned}$$

Useful Fact: If X is an indicator, then $X^2 = X$.

$$X_{j}^{2} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } h(x_{i}) = h(x_{j}) \\ 0 & \text{if } h(x_{i}) \neq h(x_{j}) \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &\operatorname{Var}[\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_i] &= \operatorname{Var}[\boldsymbol{a}_i + \sum_{j \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_j s(x_i) s(x_j) X_j] \\ &= \operatorname{Var}[\sum_{j \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_j s(x_i) s(x_j) X_j] \\ &= \sum_{j \neq i} \operatorname{Var}[\boldsymbol{a}_j s(x_i) s(x_j) X_j] \\ &\leq \sum_{j \neq i} \operatorname{E}[(\boldsymbol{a}_j s(x_i) s(x_j) X_j)^2] \\ &= \sum_{j \neq i} \operatorname{E}[\boldsymbol{a}_j^2 s(x_i)^2 s(x_j)^2 X_j^2] \\ &= \sum_{j \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_j^2 \operatorname{E}[X_j^2] \\ &= \sum_{j \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_j^2 \operatorname{E}[X_j] \\ &= \frac{1}{w} \sum_{j \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_j^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\operatorname{Var}[\boldsymbol{\hat{a}}_i] = \operatorname{Var}[\boldsymbol{a}_i + \sum_{j \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_j s(x_i) s(x_j) X_j]$$

$$= \operatorname{Var}[\sum_{j \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_{j} s(x_{i}) s(x_{j}) X_{j}]$$

$$= \sum_{j \neq i} \text{Var}[\boldsymbol{a}_j s(x_i) s(x_j) X_j]$$

$$\leq \sum_{i \neq i} \mathrm{E}[(\boldsymbol{a}_{j}s(x_{i})s(x_{j})X_{j})^{2}]$$

$$= \sum_{i \neq j} E[\boldsymbol{a}_{j}^{2} s(x_{i})^{2} s(x_{j})^{2} X_{j}^{2}]$$

$$= \sum_{j \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_j^2 \mathrm{E}[X_j^2]$$

$$= \sum_{j \neq j} \boldsymbol{a}_{j}^{2} \mathrm{E}[X_{j}]$$

$$= \frac{1}{w} \sum_{i \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_{j}^{2}$$

I know this might look really dense, but many of these substeps end up being really useful techniques. These ideas generalize, I promise.

Think of $[a_1, a_2, a_3, ...]$ as a vector.

What does the following quantity represent?

$$\sum_{j} \boldsymbol{a}_{j}^{2}$$

This is the square of the magnitude of the vector!

The magnitude of a vector is called its L_2 *norm* and is denoted $\|\boldsymbol{a}\|_2$.

$$\|\boldsymbol{a}\|_2 = \sqrt{\sum_j \boldsymbol{a}_i^2}$$

Therefore, our above sum is $\|\boldsymbol{a}\|_2^2$.

$$\operatorname{Var}[\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_i] = \frac{1}{w} \sum_{j \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_j^2 \leq \frac{\|\boldsymbol{a}\|_2^2}{w}$$

Think of $[a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots]$ as a vector.

What does the following quantity represent?

This is the square of the mag that the L_2 norm of a

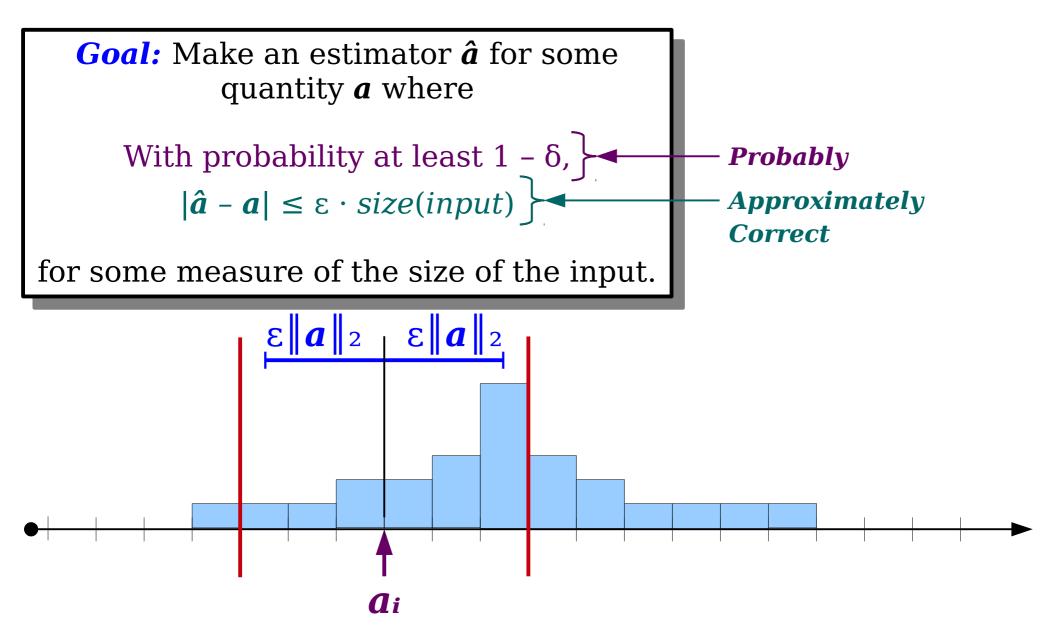
The magnitude of a vector is denoted $\begin{bmatrix} vector is never greater \\ than the <math>L_1$ norm.

Great exercise: Prove

$$\|\boldsymbol{a}\|_2 = \sqrt{\sum_j \boldsymbol{a}_i^2}$$

Therefore, our above sum is $\|\boldsymbol{a}\|_{2}^{2}$.

$$\operatorname{Var}[\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_i] = \frac{1}{w} \sum_{j \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_j^2 \leq \frac{\|\boldsymbol{a}\|_2^2}{w}$$



$$\operatorname{Var}[\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_i] \leq \frac{\|\boldsymbol{a}\|_2^2}{w}$$

$$\Pr[|\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{i} - \boldsymbol{a}_{i}| > \varepsilon ||\boldsymbol{a}||_{2}]$$

$$< \frac{\operatorname{Var}[\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{i}]}{(\varepsilon ||\boldsymbol{a}||_{2})^{2}}$$

Chebyshev's inequality says that

$$\Pr[|X - E[X]| > c] < \frac{\operatorname{Var}[X]}{c^2}.$$

$$\Pr[|\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{i} - \boldsymbol{a}_{i}| > \varepsilon ||\boldsymbol{a}||_{2}]$$

$$< \frac{\operatorname{Var}[\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{i}]}{(\varepsilon ||\boldsymbol{a}||_{2})^{2}}$$

$$\leq \frac{||\boldsymbol{a}||_{2}^{2}}{w} \cdot \frac{1}{(\varepsilon ||\boldsymbol{a}||_{2})^{2}}$$

$$\operatorname{Var}[\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_i] \leq \frac{\|\boldsymbol{a}\|_2^2}{w}$$

$$\Pr[|\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{i} - \boldsymbol{a}_{i}| > \varepsilon ||\boldsymbol{a}||_{2}]$$

$$< \frac{\operatorname{Var}[\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{i}]}{(\varepsilon ||\boldsymbol{a}||_{2})^{2}}$$

$$\leq \frac{||\boldsymbol{a}||_{2}^{2}}{w} \cdot \frac{1}{(\varepsilon ||\boldsymbol{a}||_{2})^{2}}$$

Goal: Make an estimator \hat{a} for some quantity a where

With probability at least
$$1 - \delta$$
, $|\hat{a} - a| \le \varepsilon \cdot size(input)$

for some measure of input size.

Approximately Correct

$$\Pr[|\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_i - \boldsymbol{a}_i| > \varepsilon ||\boldsymbol{a}||_2] \leq \frac{1}{w \varepsilon^2}$$

Pick $w = e \cdot \varepsilon^{-2}$. Then

$$\Pr[|\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_i - \boldsymbol{a}_i| > \varepsilon ||\boldsymbol{a}||_2] \leq e^{-1}.$$

We now have a single estimator with a not-so-great chance of giving a good estimate.

How do we fix this?

Running in Parallel

- Let's suppose that we run *d* independent copies of this data structure. Each has its own independently randomly chosen hash function.
- To *increment*(x) in the overall structure, we call increment(x) on each of the underlying data structures.
- The probability that at least one of them provides a good estimate is quite high.
- **Question:** How do you know which one?

Estimator 1:

137

Estimator 2:

271

Estimator 3:

166

Estimator 4:

103

Estimator 5:

261

Working with the Median

- *Claim:* If we output the median estimate given by the data structures, we have high probability of giving the right answer.
- *Intuition:* The only way we report an answer more than $\varepsilon||a||_2$ is if at least half of the data structures output an answer that is more than $\varepsilon||a||_2$ from the true answer.
- Each individual data structure is wrong with probability at most e^{-1} , so this is highly unlikely.

The Setup

- Let X denote a random variable equal to the number of data structures that produce an answer *not* within $\varepsilon ||\boldsymbol{a}||_2$ of the true answer.
- Since each independent data structure has failure probability at most 1 / *e*, we can upper-bound *X* with a Binom(*d*, 1 / *e*) variable.
- We want to know Pr[X > d / 2].
- How can we determine this?

Chernoff Bounds

• The *Chernoff bound* says that if $X \sim \text{Binom}(n, p)$ and p < 1/2, then

$$\Pr[X > n/2] < e^{\frac{-n(1/2-p)^2}{2p}}$$

• In our case, $X \sim \text{Binom}(d, 1/e)$, so we know that

$$\Pr[X > \frac{d}{2}] \leq e^{\frac{-d(1/2 - 1/e)^2}{2(1/e)}}$$

$$= e^{-k \cdot d} \quad (for some constant k)$$

- Therefore, choosing $d = k^{-1} \cdot \log \delta^{-1}$ ensures that $\Pr[X > d / 2] \le \delta$.
- Therefore, the success probability is at least 1δ .

Chernoff Bounds

• The *Chernoff bound* says that if $X \sim \text{Binom}(n, p)$ and p < 1/2, then

$$\Pr[X > n/2] < e^{\frac{-n(1/2-p)^2}{2p}}$$

The specific constant factor here matters, since it's an exponent! To implement this data structure, you'll need to work out the exact value.

1/e), so we know that $\frac{-d(1/2-1/e)^2}{2(1/e)}$

- $e^{-k \cdot d}$ (for some constant k)
- Therefore, choosing $d = k^{-1} \cdot \log \delta^{-1}$ ensures that $\Pr[X > d / 2] \le \delta$.
- Therefore, the success probability is at least 1δ .

The Overall Construction

- The *count sketch* is the data structure given as follows.
- Given ε and δ , choose

$$w = [e / \varepsilon^2]$$
 $d = \Theta(\log \delta^{-1})$

- Create an array **count** of $w \times d$ counters.
- Choose hash functions h_i and s_i for each of the d rows.
- To *increment*(x), add $s_i(x)$ to count[i][$h_i(x)$] for each row i.
- To *estimate*(x), return the median of $s_i(x)$ · count[i][$h_i(x)$] for each row i.

The Final Analysis

- With probability at least 1δ , all estimates are accurate to within a factor of $\varepsilon \| \boldsymbol{a} \|_2$.
- Space usage is $\Theta(w \cdot d)$, which we've seen to be $\Theta(\epsilon^{-2} \cdot \log \delta^{-1})$.
- Updates and queries run in time $\Theta(\delta^{-1})$.
- Trades factor of ε^{-1} space for an accuracy guarantee relative to $\|\boldsymbol{a}\|_2$ versus $\|\boldsymbol{a}\|_1$.
- Question to ponder: Which would you prefer if your elements are more uniform? Which would you prefer if a few elements are extremely common?

Next Time

• Hashing Strategies

• There are a lot of hash tables out there. What do they look like?

Linear Probing

The original hashing strategy!

• Analyzing Linear Probing

• ...is way, way more complicated than you probably would have thought. But it's beautiful! And a great way to learn about randomized data structures!