Hashing and Sketching

Part Two

Outline for Today

- Recap from Last Time
 - Where are we, again?
- Count Sketches
 - A frequency estimator that shows off several key mathematical techniques.
- Cardinality Estimators
 - How many different items have you seen?

Recap from Last Time

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.

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 $1 - \delta$, $|\hat{A} - A| \leq \epsilon \cdot size(input)$ Approximately Correct

for some measure of the size of the input.

What does it mean for an approximation to be "good"?

How to Build an Estimator

| | Count-Min Sketch |
|---|--|
| Step One: Build a Simple Estimator | Hash items to counters; add +1 when item seen. |
| Step Two: Compute Expected Value of Estimator | Sum of indicators; 2-independent hashes have low collision rate. |
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| Step Four: Replicate to Boost Confidence | Take min; only fails if all estimates are bad. |

New Stuff!

The Count Sketch



Frequency Estimation

- *Recall:* A frequency estimator is a data structure that supports
 - *increment*(*x*), which increments the number of times that we've seen *x*, and
 - estimate(x), which returns an estimate of how many times we've seen x.
- *Notation:* Assume that the elements we're processing are $x_1, ..., x_n$, and that the true frequency of element x_i is \boldsymbol{a}_i .
- Remember that the frequencies are not random variables – we're assuming that they're not under our control. Any randomness comes from hash functions.

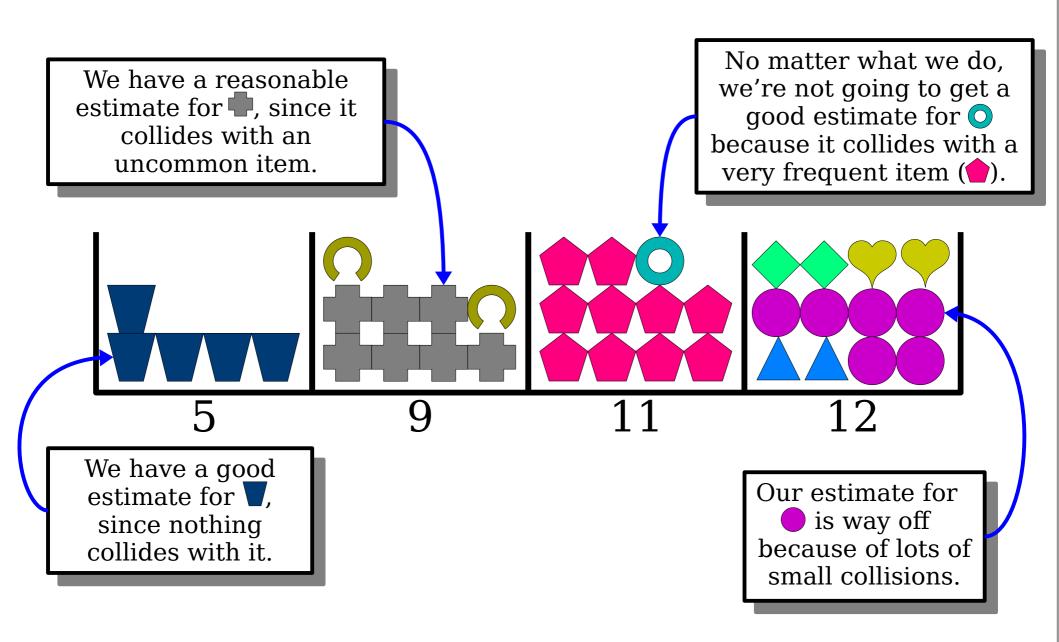
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Revisiting Count-Min



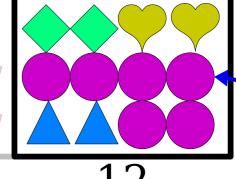
Revisiting Count-Min

We have a reasonable estimate for , since it collides with an uncommon item.

No matter what we do, we're not going to get a good estimate for because it collides with a very frequent item ().

We have a good estimate for , since nothing collides with it.

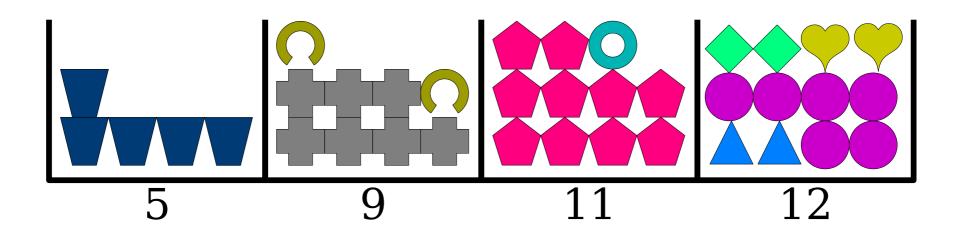
Question: Can we mitigate the impact of collisions with lots of infrequent elements?



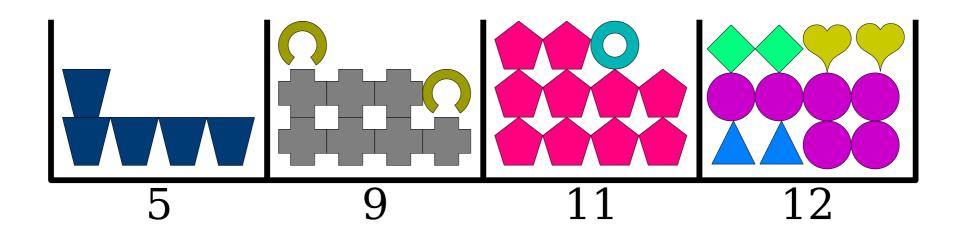
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Our estimate for is way off because of lots of small collisions.

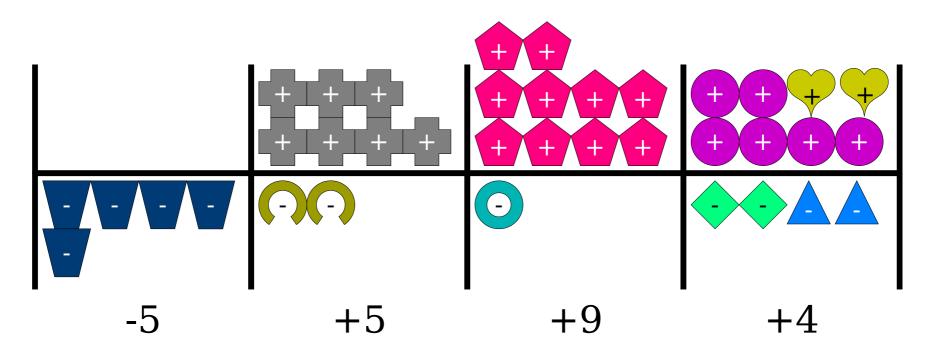
• As before, create an array of counters and assign each item a counter.



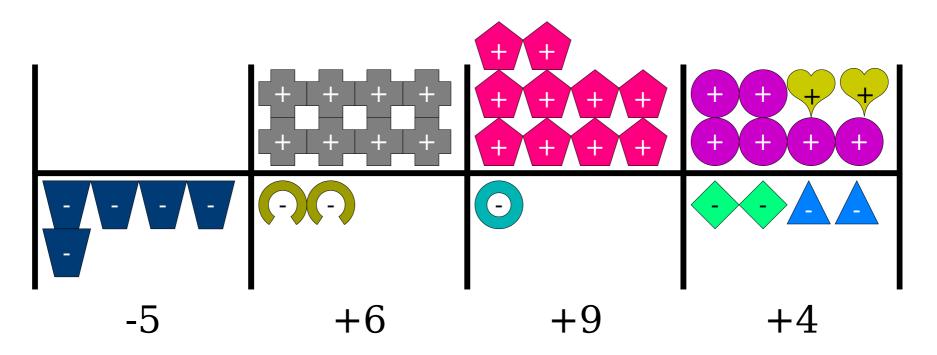
- As before, create an array of counters and assign each item a counter.
- **Key New Step:** For each item x, assign x either +1 or -1.



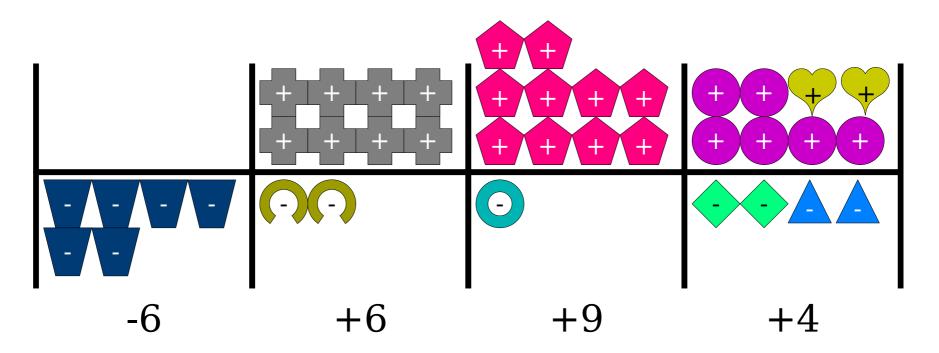
- As before, create an array of counters and assign each item a counter.
- **Key New Step:** For each item x, assign x either +1 or -1.
 - To *increment*(x), go to count[h(x)] and add ± 1 as appropriate.
 - To *estimate*(x), return count[h(x)], multiplied by ± 1 as appropriate.



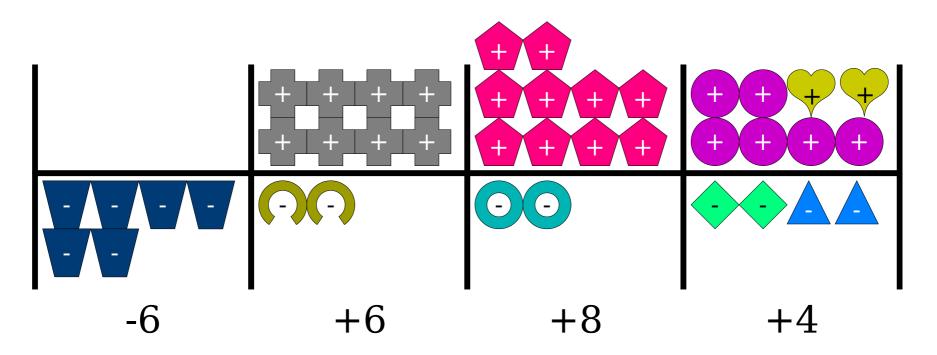
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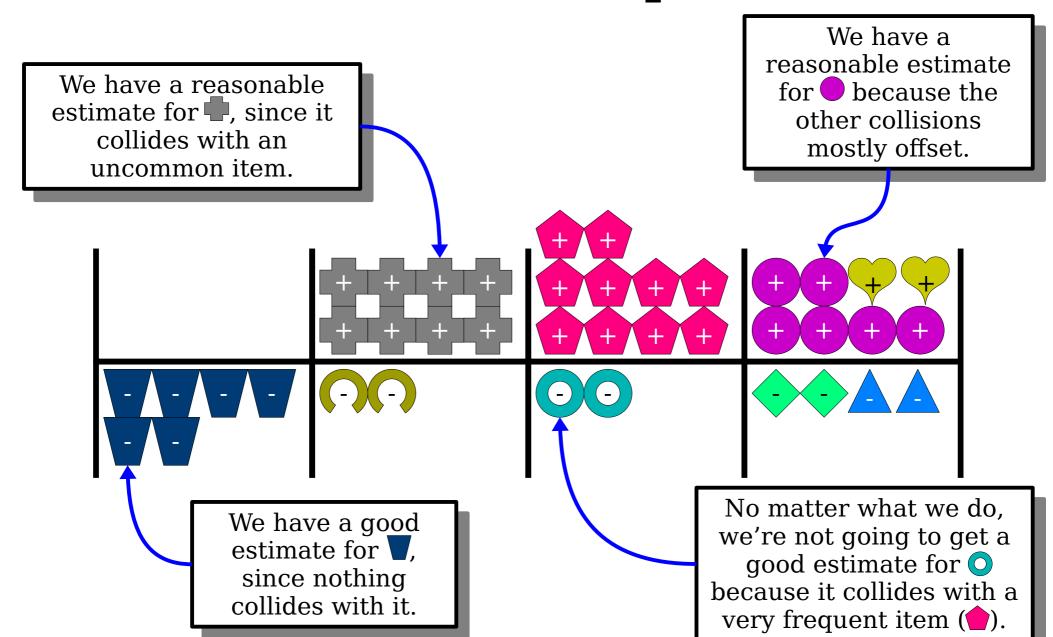


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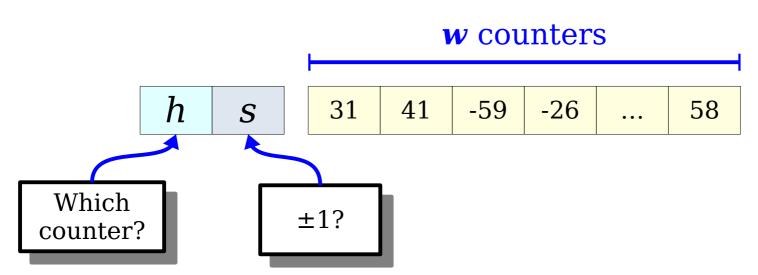
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Formalizing This

- Maintain an array of counters of length *w*.
- Pick $h \in \mathcal{H}$ chosen uniformly at random from a 2-independent family of hash functions from \mathcal{U} . to w.
- Pick $s \in \mathcal{U}$ uniformly randomly and independently of h from a 2-independent family from \mathcal{U} to $\{-1, +1\}$.
- increment(x): count[h(x)] += s(x).
- **estimate**(x), return s(x) · **count**[h(x)].



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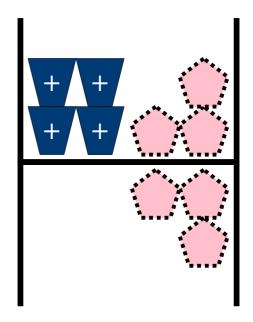
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The Expectation, Intuitively

- Focus on any element x_i whose frequency we're estimating.
- Think about any element that collides with us.
- With 50% probability, it *increases* our estimate.
- With 50% probability, it *decreases* our estimate.
- *Intuition:* The expected value weights both options equally, so our estimator will be unbiased.



- Define $\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_i$ to be our estimate of \boldsymbol{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 estimate \hat{a}_i includes an error term of

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

• Why?

Formulate a hypothesis, but *don't post anything in chat just yet*.

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• Why?

Now, private chat me your best guess. Not sure? Just answer "??".

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- 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.

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- Why?
 - 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.

• 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:

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

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Hey, it's linearity of expectation!

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

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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.

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$$E[s(x_i)] =$$

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

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How to Build an Estimator

| | Count-Min Sketch | Count Sketch |
|---|--|---|
| Step One: Build a Simple Estimator | Hash items to counters; add +1 when item seen. | Hash items to counters; add ±1 when item seen. |
| Step Two: Compute Expected Value of Estimator | Sum of indicators; 2-independent hashes have low collision rate. | 2-independence breaks up products; ±1 variables have zero expected value. |
| Step Three: Apply Concentration Inequality | One-sided error; use expected value and Markov's inequality. | |
| Step Four: Replicate to Boost Confidence | Take min; only fails if all estimates are bad. | |

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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.
- 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

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

• 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.

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

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

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

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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!*)

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

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The "Sum-o'-Var" Samovar!

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

What does the following quantity represent?

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

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

What does the following quantity represent?

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

This is the square of the magnitude of the vector!

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

$$\|\boldsymbol{a}\|_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{j} \boldsymbol{a}_{j}^2}$$

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

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

What does the following quantity represent?

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This is the square of the mag

The magnitude of a vector is d is denoted

Great exercise: Prove that the L_2 norm of a vector is never greater than the L_1 norm.

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

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

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

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

With probability at least $1 - \delta$, Probably
$$|\hat{a} - a| \le \varepsilon \cdot size(input)$$
 Approximately Correct for some measure of the size of the input.

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Approximately

Correct

for some measure of the size of the input.

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

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

With probability at least $1 - \delta$,

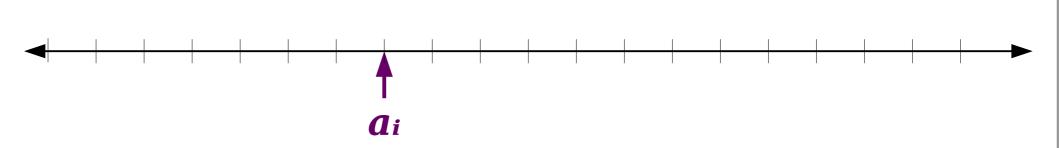
 $|\hat{a} - a| \le \epsilon \cdot size(input)$

Probably

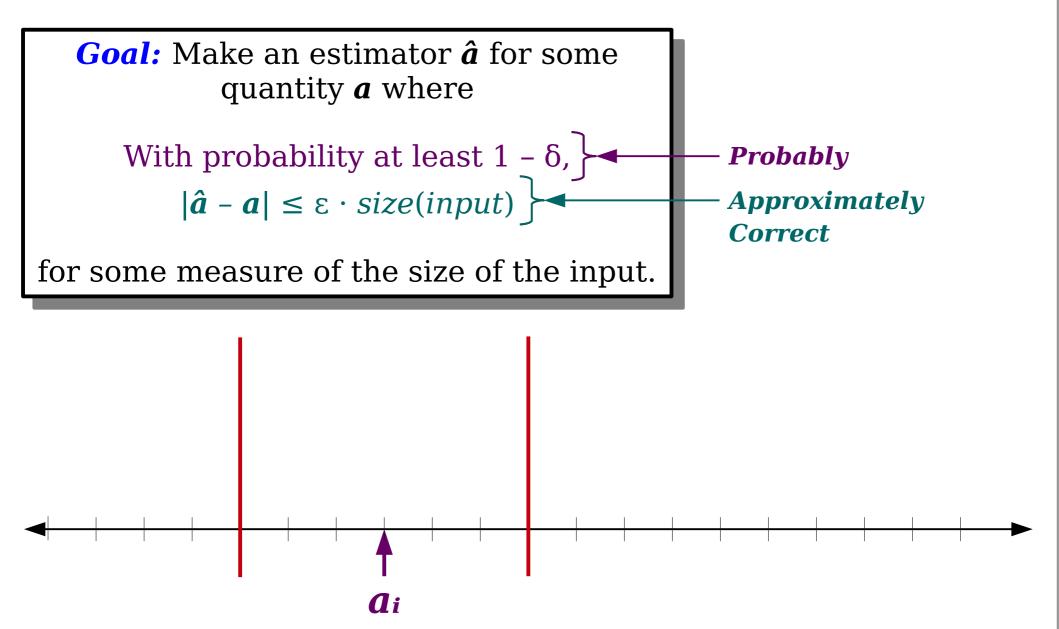
Approximately

Correct

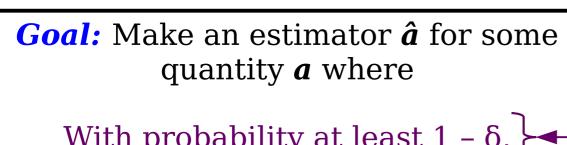
for some measure of the size of the input.



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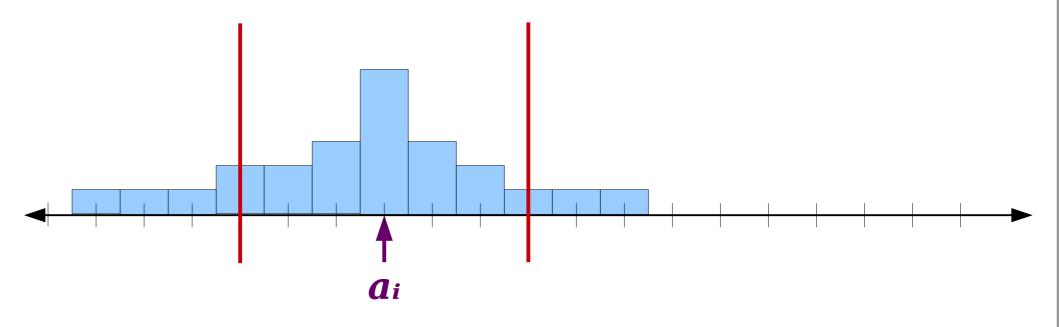


With probability at least $1 - \delta$, $|\hat{a} - a| \le \varepsilon \cdot size(input)$

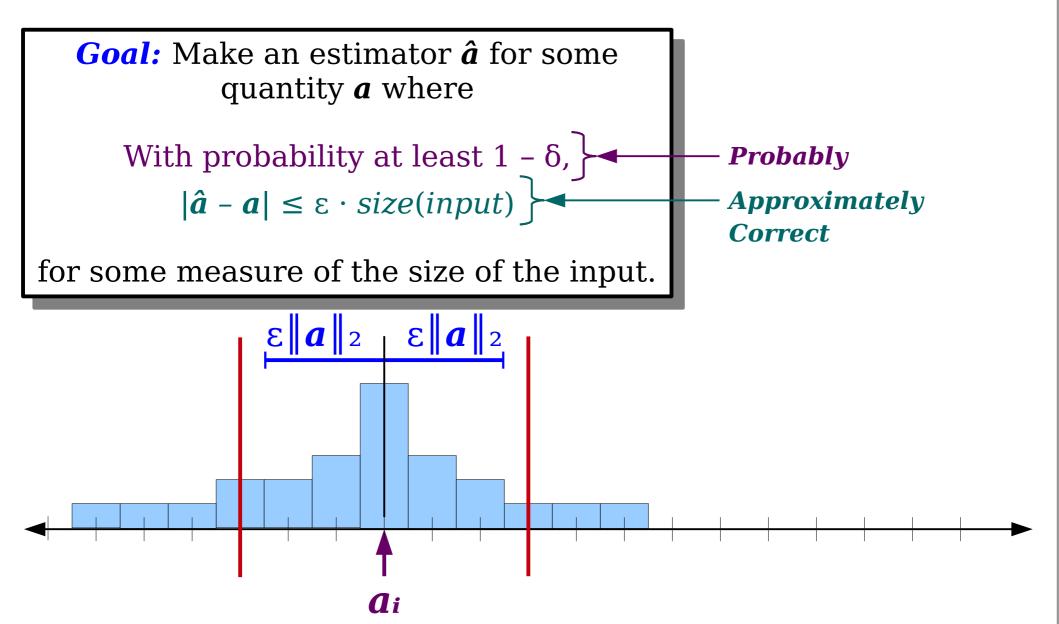
$$|\hat{a} - a| \le \varepsilon \cdot size(input)$$

for some measure of the size of the input.





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



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

$$\Pr[|\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_i - \boldsymbol{a}_i| > \varepsilon ||\boldsymbol{a}||_2]$$

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Chebyshev's inequality says that

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

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

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

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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.

Correct

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

Pick $w = 4 \cdot \epsilon^{-2}$. Then

$$\Pr[|\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_i - \boldsymbol{a}_i| > \varepsilon ||\boldsymbol{a}||_2] \leq \frac{1}{4}.$$

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

How do we fix this?

How to Build an Estimator

| | Count-Min Sketch | Count Sketch |
|---|--|---|
| Step One: Build a Simple Estimator | Hash items to counters; add +1 when item seen. | Hash items to counters; add ±1 when item seen. |
| Step Two: Compute Expected Value of Estimator | Sum of indicators; 2-independent hashes have low collision rate. | 2-independence breaks up products; ±1 variables have zero expected value. |
| Step Three: Apply Concentration Inequality | One-sided error; use expected value and Markov's inequality. | Two-sided error; compute variance and use Chebyshev's inequality. |
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- Imagine we call estimate(x) on each of our estimators and get back these estimates.
- We need to give back a single number.

• *Question:* How should we aggregate these numbers into a single estimate?

Formulate a hypothesis, but don't post anything in chat just yet.

Estimator 1:

137

Estimator 2:

271

Estimator 3:

166

Estimator 4:

103

Estimator 5:

261

- Imagine we call estimate(x) on each of our estimators and get back these estimates.
- We need to give back a single number.

• *Question:* How should we aggregate these numbers into a single estimate?

Now, private chat me your best guess. Not sure? Just answer "??".

Estimator 1:

137

Estimator 2:

271

Estimator 3:

166

Estimator 4:

103

Estimator 5:

261

- Imagine we call estimate(x) on each of our estimators and get back these estimates.
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Estimator 1:

137

Estimator 2:

271

Estimator 3:

166

Estimator 4:

103

Estimator 5:

261

- Unlike last time, we have a two-sided error, so taking the minimum would be a Very Bad Thing.
- Two reasonable options come to mind:
 - Take the **mean** of the estimates.
 - Take the **median** of the estimates.
- **Question:** Which should we pick?

Estimator 1: 137

Estimator 2: 2.71

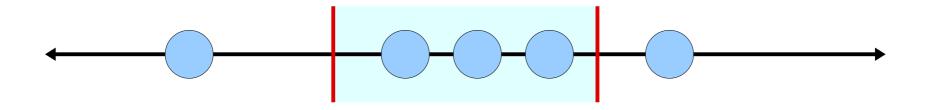
Estimator 3: 166

Estimator 4: 103

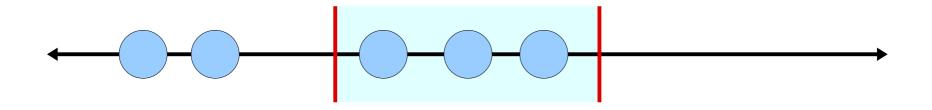
Estimator 5: 261

- *Claim:* Taking the mean of multiple estimators does increase our probability of being close to the expected value, but not very quickly.
- *Intuition:* Not all outliers are created equal, and outliers far from the target range skew the estimate.
- *The Math:* Averaging *d* copies of an estimator decreases the variance by a factor of *d*. (Prove this!) By Chebyshev, that decreases the probability of getting a bad answer by a factor of *d*. We'd like something that decays exponentially in *d*.

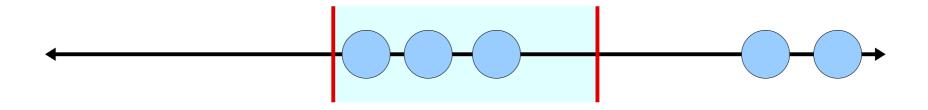
- *Claim:* If we output the median estimate given by the data structures, we have high probability of giving an acceptably close answer.
- *Intuition:* The only way that the median isn't in the "good" area is if *at least half* the estimates are in the "bad" area.
- Each individual data structure has a "reasonable" chance to be good, so this is very unlikely.



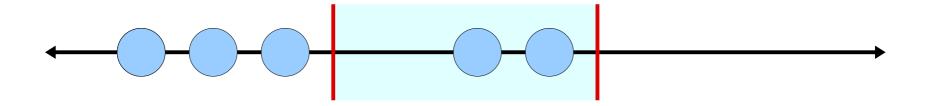
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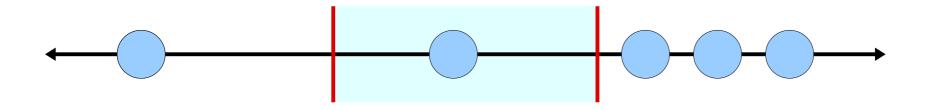


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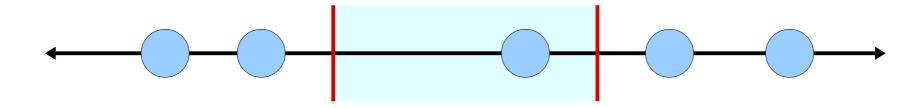
Working With Medians

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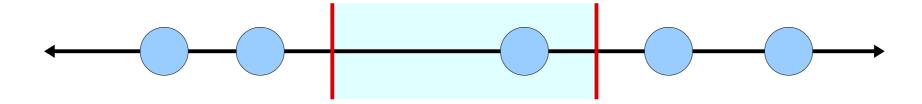
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Working With Medians

- Let D denote a random variable equal to the number of data structures that produce an answer *not* within $\varepsilon ||a||_2$ of the true answer.
- Since each independent data structure has failure probability at most $\frac{1}{4}$, we can upperbound D with a Binom $(d, \frac{1}{4})$ variable.
- We want to know Pr[D > d / 2].
- How can we determine this?



Chernoff Bounds

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

$$\Pr[X \geq \frac{n}{2}] < e^{-n \cdot z(p)}$$

where $z(p) = (\frac{1}{2} - p)^2 / 2p$.

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where $z(p) = (\frac{1}{2} - p)^2 / 2p$.

Intuition: For any fixed value of *p*, this quantity decays exponentially quickly as a function of *n*. It's extremely unlikely that more than half our estimates will be bad.

Chernoff Bounds

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where $z(p) = (\frac{1}{2} - p)^2 / 2p$.

• In our case, $D \sim \text{Binom}(d, \frac{1}{4})$, so we know that

$$\Pr[D \ge \frac{d}{2}] \le e^{-n \cdot z(1/4)} = e^{-d/8}$$

• Therefore, choosing $d = 8 \ln \delta^{-1}$ ensures that

$$\Pr[|\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_i - \boldsymbol{a}_i| > \varepsilon ||\boldsymbol{a}||_2] \leq \Pr[D \geq \frac{d}{2}] \leq \delta$$

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$$w = [4 \cdot \varepsilon^{-2}]$$

| h_1 | S ₁ |
|-------|----------------|
| h_2 | S 2 |
| hз | S 3 |
| • • • | • • • |
| h_d | S_d |

| 31 | 41 | -59 | -26 | ••• | 58 |
|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| 27 | -18 | 28 | -18 | ••• | -45 |
| 16 | -18 | -3 | 39 | ••• | -75 |
| ••• | | | | | |
| 69 | -31 | 47 | -18 | ••• | 59 |

Sampled uniformly and independently from 2-independent families of hash functions

$$w = [4 \cdot \varepsilon^{-2}]$$

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```
increment(x):
   for i = 1 ... d:
      count[i][hi(x)] += si(x)
```

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| h_1 | S_1 |
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| hз | S 3 |
| • • • | • • • |
| h_d | S_d |

| 31 | 40 | -59 | -26 | ••• | 58 |
|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
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```
increment(x):
    for i = 1 ... d:
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```

$$w = [4 \cdot \varepsilon^{-2}]$$

| h_1 | <i>S</i> 1 |
|-------|------------|
| h_2 | S 2 |
| hз | S 3 |
| • • • | • • • |
| h_d | S_d |

| 40 | -59 | -26 | ••• | 58 | |
|-----|------------|------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|--|
| -18 | 28 | -19 | ••• | -45 | |
| 1.0 | 2 | 40 | | 75 | |
| -18 | -3 | 40 | ••• | -75 | |
| ••• | | | | | |
| -31 | 47 | -18 | ••• | 58 | |
| | -18 -18 | -18 28 -18 -3 | -18 28 -19 -18 -3 40 | -18 28 -19 -18 -3 40 | |

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| • • • | • • • |
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```
58
31
           -59
                 -26
      40
27
     -18
            28
                 -19
                              -45
     -18
            -3
                              -75
16
                  40
69
     -31
            47
                              58
                  -18
```

```
d = [8 \ln \delta^{-1}]
```

```
increment(x):
   for i = 1 ... d:
      count[i][hi(x)] += si(x)
```

```
estimate(x):
   options = []
   for i = 1 ... d:
      options += count[i][hi(x)] * si(x)
   return medianOf(options)
```

$$w = [4 \cdot \varepsilon^{-2}]$$

| h_1 | <i>S</i> 1 |
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 ∞

 $\ln \delta^{-1}$

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```

The Final Analysis

- Here's a comparison of these two structures.
- Question to ponder: When is a count-min sketch better than a count sketch, and viceversa?

Count-Min Sketch

Space: $\Theta(\epsilon^{-1} \cdot \log \delta^{-1})$

increment: $\Theta(\log \delta^{-1})$

estimate: $\Theta(\log \delta^{-1})$

Accuracy: within $\varepsilon ||a||_1$.

Count Sketch

Space: $\Theta(\epsilon^{-2} \cdot \log \delta^{-1})$

increment: $\Theta(\log \delta^{-1})$

estimate: $\Theta(\log \delta^{-1})$

Accuracy: within $\varepsilon ||a||_2$

Major Ideas Here

- Concentration inequalities are useful tools for showing the right thing probably happens.
 - For one-sided errors, try Markov's inequality.
 - For two-sided errors, try Chebyshev's inequality.
 - To bound the probability that lots of things all go wrong, use Chernoff bounds.
 - For more on different mathematical tools like these, check out this blog post by Scott Aaronson.
- Modest success probability can be amplified by running things in parallel.
 - For one-sided errors, try using the min or max.
 - For two-sided errors, try using the median.
- We can estimate quantities using significantly less space than storing those quantities exactly if we're okay with approximate answers.

Cardinality Estimation

Cardinality Estimation

- A *cardinality estimator* is a data structure supporting the following operations:
 - see(x), which records that x has been seen, and
 - *estimate()*, which returns an estimate of the number of *distinct* values we've seen.
- In other words, they estimate the cardinality of the set of all items that have been seen.
- These data structures are widely deployed in practice.
 - Databases use them to select which of many different algorithms to run, based on the number of items to process.
 - Websites use them to estimate how many different people have visited the site in a given time window.



















Cardinality Estimation

- As with frequency estimation, we can solve the cardinality estimation problem exactly using hash tables or binary search trees using $\Omega(n)$ space.
- To be useful in large-scale data applications, cardinality estimators need to use significantly less space than this.
- **Question:** How low can we go?



















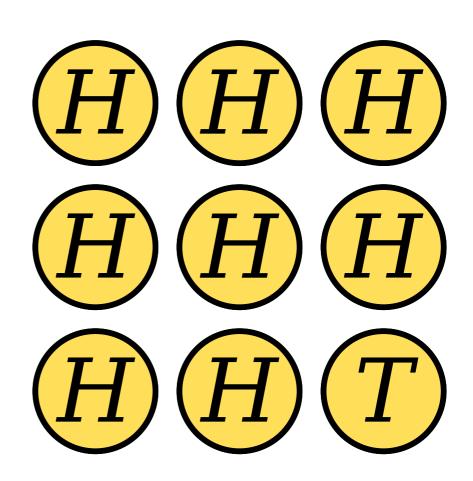
- Here's a game: I'm going to flip a coin until I get tails. My score is the number of heads that I flip.
- The probability of flipping k or more consecutive heads is 2^{-k} , so it's pretty unlikely that I'm going to flip lots of heads in a row.



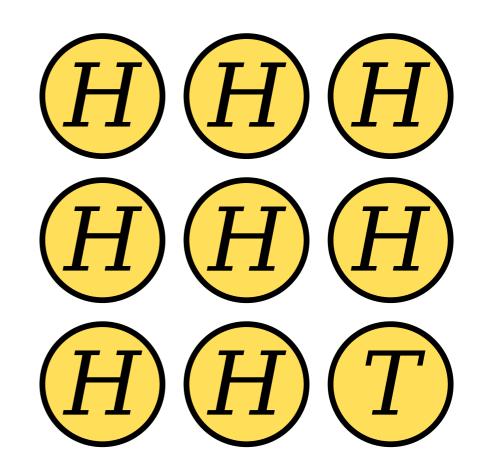




- Suppose I show you the following clip of me playing this game.
- Which is more likely?
 - I played the game once and got really lucky.
 - I played the game 256 times and showed you my best run.
- Probability you see this after one game: 1/512.
- Probability this is the best you see after 256 games: approximately 23.3%.



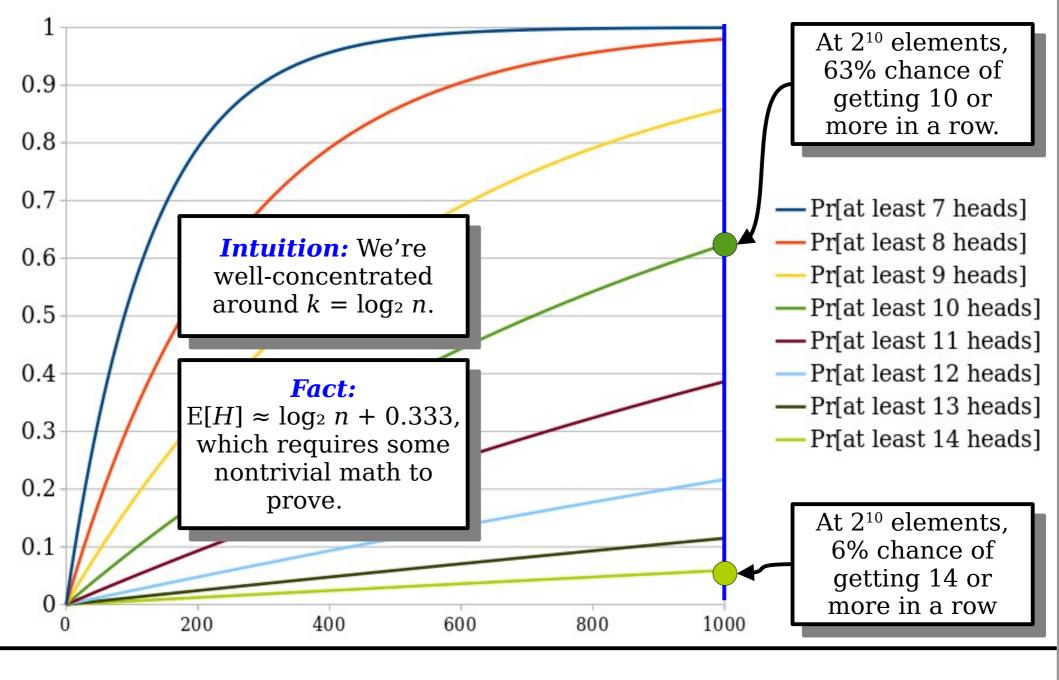
- Intuition: Play this game multiple times and track the maximum number of heads you get in a row.
- If the maximum number of heads we see is H, estimate that we played 2^H times.
- **Question:** How good of an estimate is this?



 Suppose we play this game n times. What's the probability we see at least k consecutive heads at least once?

Pr[see at least *k* heads in *n* games]

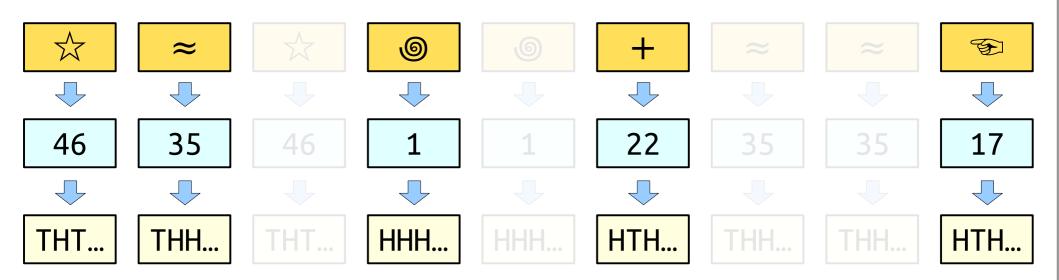
- = 1 Pr[never see k heads in n games]
- $= 1 Pr[never see k heads in one game]^n$
- $= 1 (1 2^{-k})^n$
- What does this function look like?



Play this game *n* times. What is the probability that our maximum score is *k* or more?

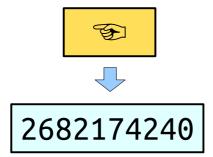
From Coins to Cardinality

- Ultimately, we're interested in building a cardinality estimator. How does this help us?
- *Idea*: Hash each item in the data stream, and use each hash as the random source for the coin-flipping game.
- Duplicate items give duplicate hashes, which provide duplicate games, which function as if they never happened.



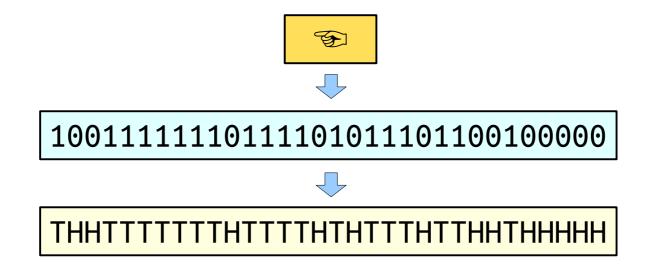
From Coins to Cardinality

- We need some way of going from hash codes to sequences of coin tosses.
- *Idea*: Treat the hash as a sequence of bits. 0 means heads, 1 means tails.



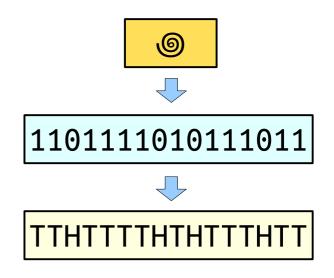
From Coins to Cardinality

- We need some way of going from hash codes to sequences of coin tosses.
- *Idea*: Treat the hash as a sequence of bits. 0 means heads, 1 means tails.
- Then, count how many 0 bits appear consecutively at the end of the number.



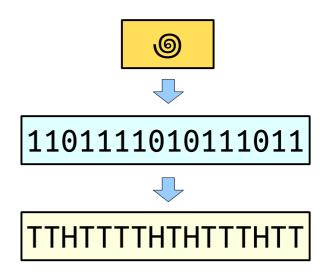
A Simple Estimator

- Keep track of a value H, initially zero, that records the maximum number of zero bits seen at the end of a number.
- To **see** an item:
 - Compute a hash code for that item.
 - Compute the number of trailing zeros.
 - Update *H* if this is a new record.
- To *estimate* the number of distinct elements:
 - Return 2^H .



A Simple Estimator

- How much space does this single estimator need?
- Assume we have an upper bound U on the maximum cardinality. Our hashes never need more than $\Theta(\log U)$ bits.
- Bits required to write down the position of a bit in that hash: $\Theta(\log \log U)$.
- That is an *absolutely tiny* amount of space compared to storing the elements!



Improving the Estimator

- The current estimator has a few weaknesses.
 - It always outputs a size that's a power of two, so we're likely to be off by a full binary order of magnitude.
 - It tends to skew high, since a single unexpected run of heads pushes the whole total up.
- But we have already seen some techniques for improving estimators:
 - Run lots of copies in parallel to reduce the likelihood of any one of them being bad.
 - Use some creative strategy to combine those individual estimates into one really good one.
- And in fact, folks have done just that.

HyperLogLog

- The *HyperLogLog* estimator uses many independent copies of this estimator to produce a very high-quality estimate.
 - Run m copies of the estimator, using a hash function to distribute items to estimators, so that each copy gets roughly a $^{1}/_{m}$ fraction of the items.
 - Compute the *harmonic mean* of the estimates to mitigate outliers while smoothing between powers of two.
 - Multiply in a debiasing term to mitigate the skew from both the original estimates and the harmonic mean.
- This estimator is used extensively in practice; with about 768 bytes of memory, it can estimate cardinalities for any real-world data stream to about 3% accuracy.
- It's widely used in database systems, and many opensource implementations are available.

HyperLogLog

- The analysis of HyperLogLog from the original paper is exceedingly difficult, and I haven't been able to follow along with all the details.
- Hopefully, this intuitive explanation of how it works is enough for you.
- (*Probably?*) *Open problem:* Find a significantly simpler and cleaner rigorous analysis of HyperLogLog than the original.

Major Ideas We've Seen

- You can build a great estimator by running lots of weak estimators in parallel and aggregating the results.
- Indicator variables and linearity of expectation are powerful tools when analyzing sketches.
- Markov's and Chebyshev's inequalities are useful for bounding probabilities involving hashing.
- The Chernoff bound is a great tool for showing it's unlikely for lots of things to go wrong.

Next Time

- Computational Geometry
 - Data structures for points in space.
- Orthogonal Range Searching
 - Finding all points in a box.
- Geometric Cascading
 - Saving time when doing binary searches.