

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

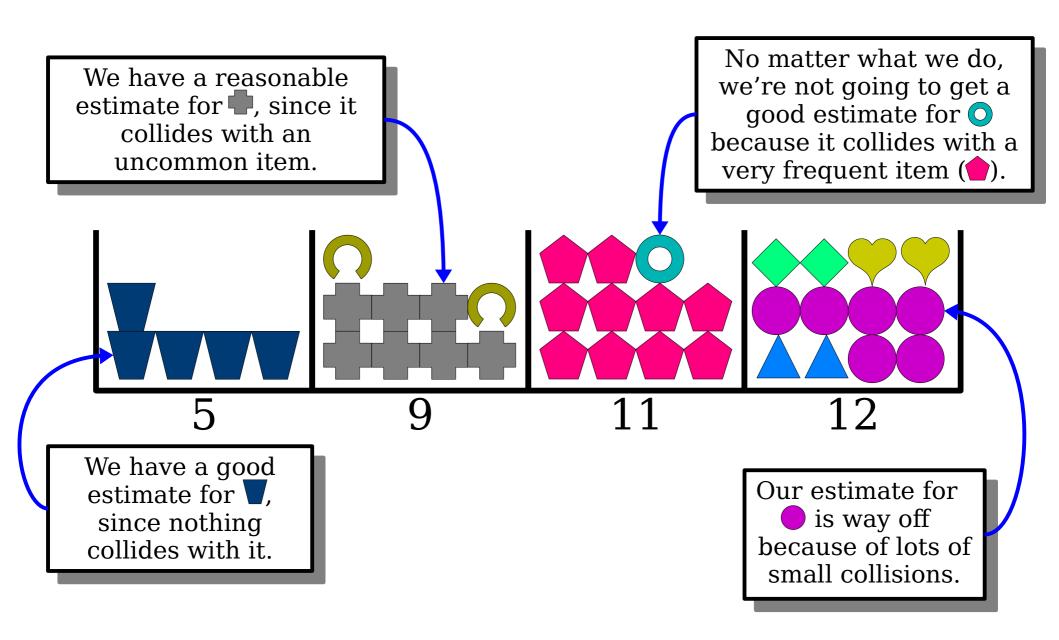
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Revisiting Count-Min



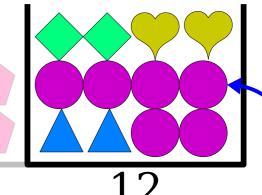
Revisiting Count-Min

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 ().

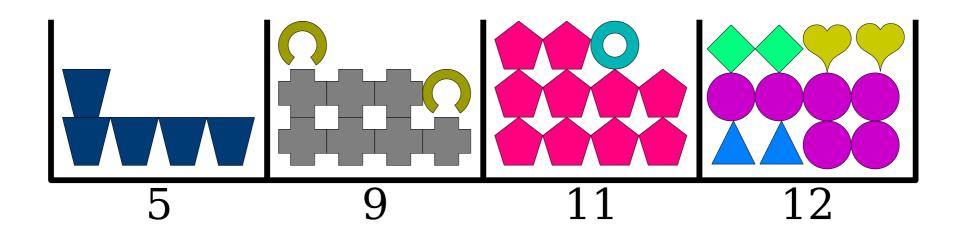
We have a good estimate for , since nothing collides with it.

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

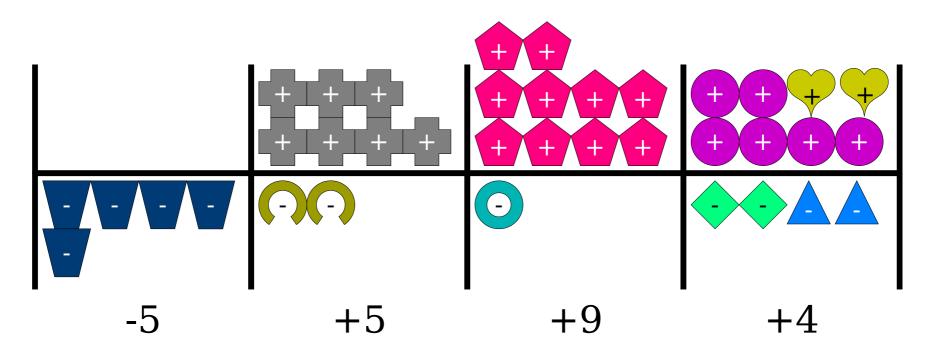


Our estimate for is way off because of lots of small collisions.

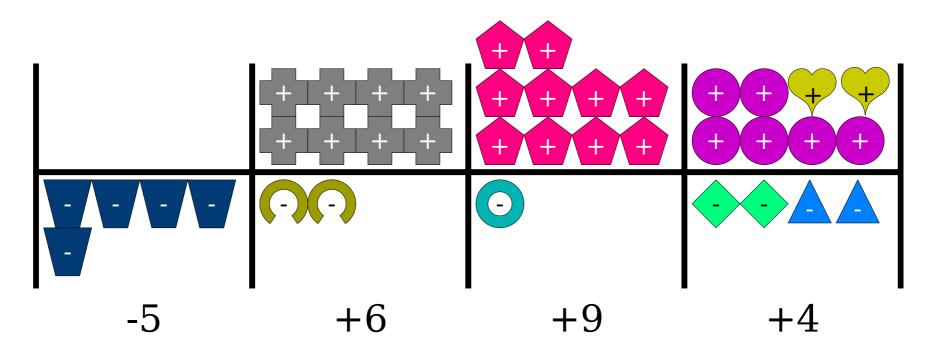
- As before, create an array of counters and assign each item a counter.
- **Key New Step:** For each item x, assign x either +1 or -1.



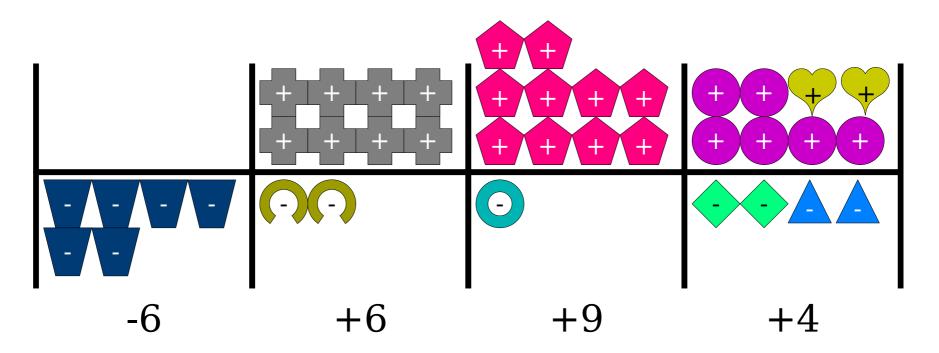
- As before, create an array of counters and assign each item a counter.
- **Key New Step:** For each item x, assign x either +1 or -1.
 - To *increment*(x), go to count[h(x)] and add ± 1 as appropriate.
 - To *estimate*(x), return count[h(x)], multiplied by ± 1 as appropriate.



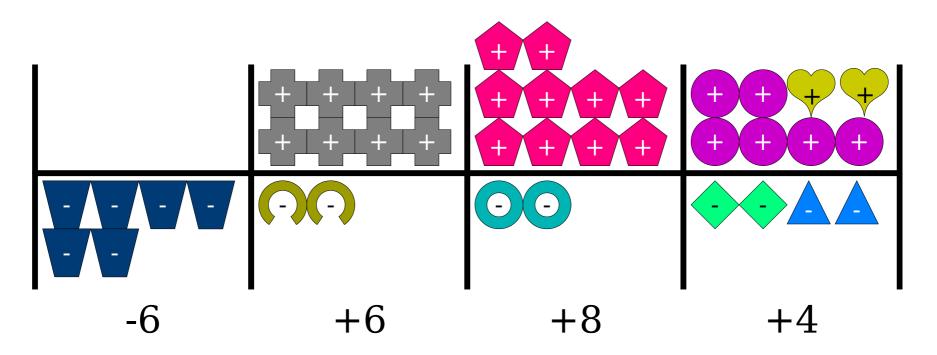
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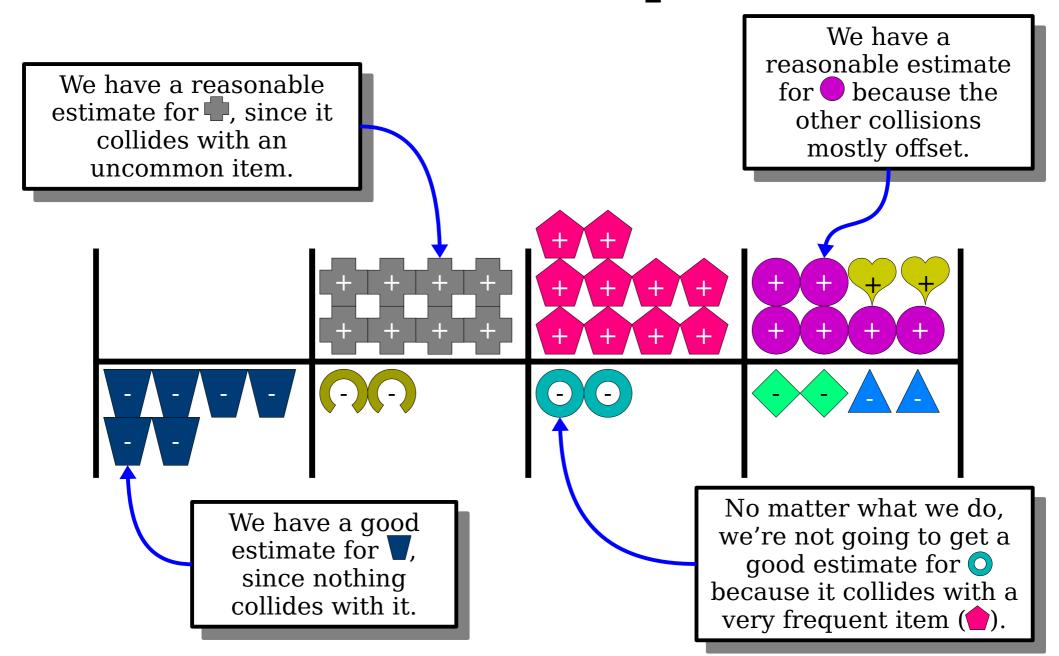


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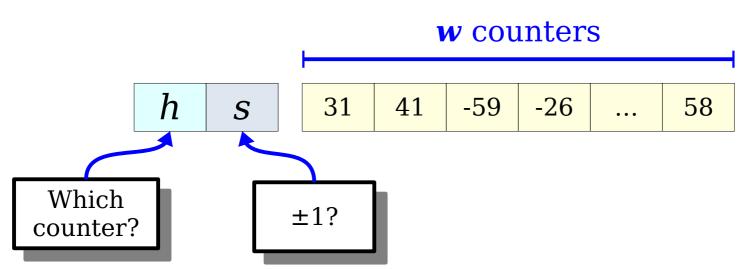
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Formalizing This

- 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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- 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?

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

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_i = \sum_j \boldsymbol{a}_j s(x_i) s(x_j) \boldsymbol{X}_j$$

This is how much the collision impacts our estimate.

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

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

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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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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.

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

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

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

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

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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!

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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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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$$X_j^2 = \begin{cases} 1^2 & \text{if } h(x_i) = h(x_j) \\ 0^2 & \text{if } h(x_i) \neq h(x_j) \end{cases}$$

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

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

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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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This is the square of the magnitude of the vector!

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

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

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

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

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This is the square of the mag

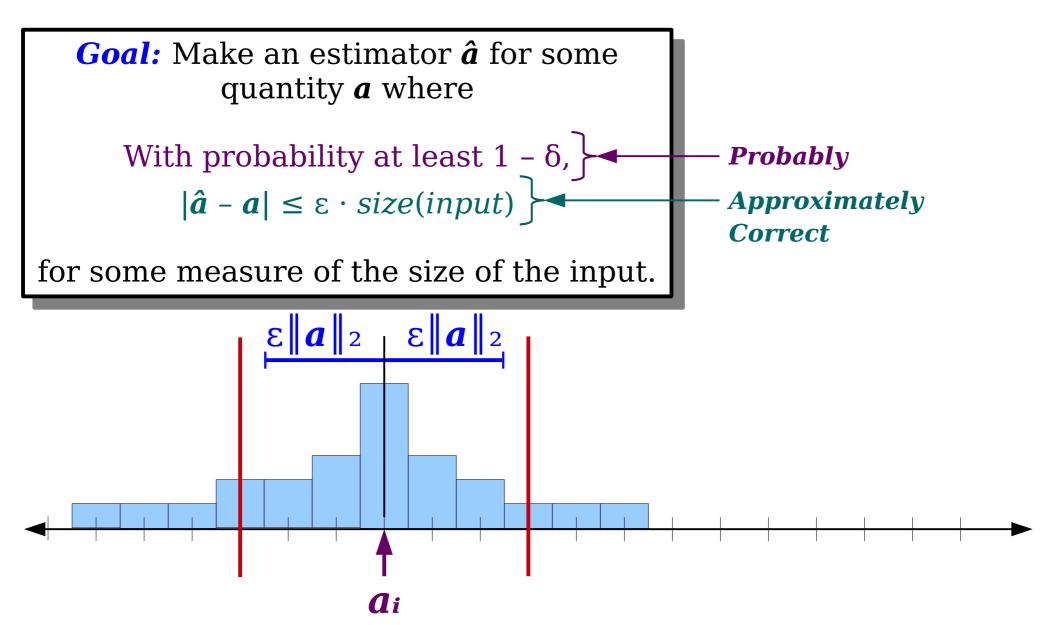
is denoted

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

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

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

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



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

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

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

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

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

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

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.

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

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

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

Probably

Approximately Correct

We now have a single estimator with a not-so-great 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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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 high.
- **Question:** How do you know which one?

Estimator 1:

137

Estimator 2:

271

Estimator 3:

166

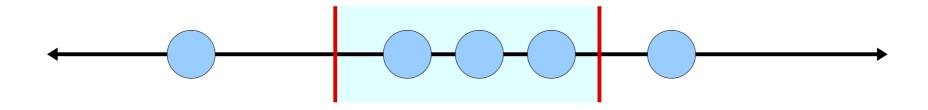
Estimator 4:

103

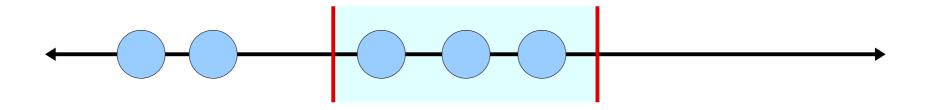
Estimator 5:

261

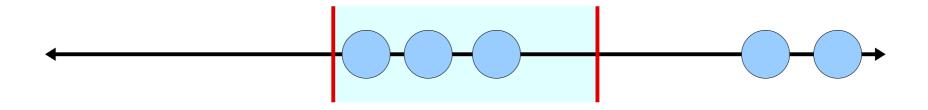
- *Claim:* If we output the median estimate given by the data structures, we have high probability of giving the right answer.
- *Intuition:* The only way that the median isn't in the "good" area is if *at least half* the estimates are in the "bad" area.
- Each individual data structure has a "reasonable"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



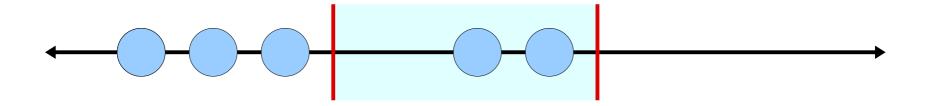
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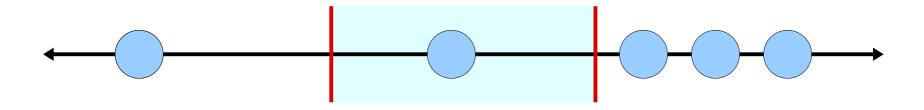
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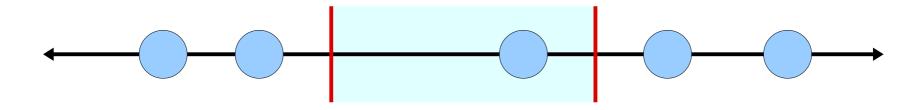
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The Setup

- Let D 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 $\frac{1}{4}$, we can upper-bound 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 < 1/2, then

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

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.

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• 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 $d = 8 \log 6^{-1}$ 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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Step Four: Replicate to Boost Confidence	Take min; only fails if all estimates are bad.	Take median; only can fail if half of estimates are wrong; use Chernoff.

$$w = [4 \cdot \varepsilon^{-1}]$$

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

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h_2	S 2
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•••					
69	-31	47	-18	•••	59

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

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h_2	S 2
hз	S 3
• • •	• • •
h_d	S_d

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

$$w = [4 \cdot \varepsilon^{-1}]$$

h_1	S_1
h_2	S 2
hз	S 3
• • •	• • •
h_d	S_d

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

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58
31
           -59
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                  -18
```

 \boldsymbol{q}

 $[8 \ln \delta^{-1}]$

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increment(x):
   for i = 1 ... d:
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```

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

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d

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

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

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

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

Count Sketch

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

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

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

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

Bloom Filters

Exact Membership Queries

- Suppose you're in a memory-constrained environment where every bit of memory counts, and you want to store a set of *n* items drawn from some universe *U*.
- Examples:
 - You're working on an embedded device with some maximum amount of working RAM.
 - You're working with large n (say, $n = 10^9$) on a modern machine.
 - You're building a consumer application like a web browser and don't want to hog all system resources.
- *Question:* How many bits of memory are needed to do this?

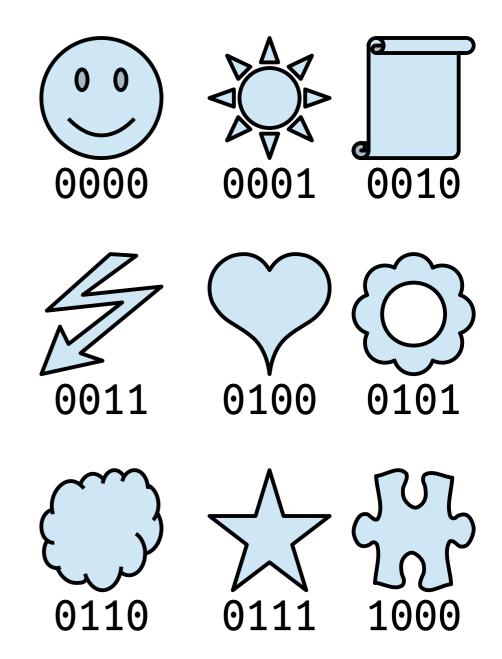
A Quick Detour

Goal: Design a simple data structure that can hold a single one of the objects shown to the right.

What is the minimum number of *bits* (not *words*) required for this data structure in the worst case?

We can get away with four bits by numbering each item and just storing the number.

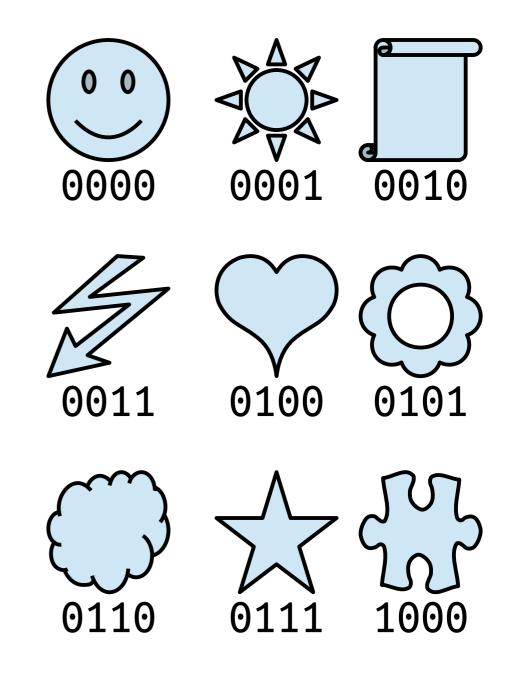
Question: Can we do better?



Goal: Design a simple data structure that can hold a single one of the objects shown to the right.

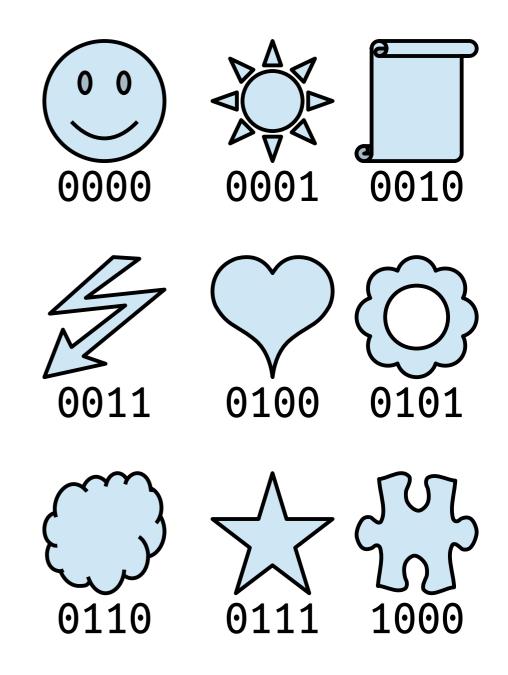
Claim: Every data structure for this problem must use at least four bits of memory in the worst case.

Proof: If we always use three or fewer bits, there are at most $2^3 = 8$ combinations of those bits, not enough to uniquely identify one of the nine different items.



Theorem: A data structure that stores one object out of a set of *k* possibilities must use at least lg *k* bits in the worst case.

Proof: Using fewer than $\lg k$ bits means there are fewer than $2^{\lg k} = k$ possible combinations of those bits, not enough to uniquely identify each item out of the set.



Question: How much memory is needed to solve the exact membership query problem?

Suppose we want to store a set $S \subseteq U$ of size n. How many bits of memory do we need?

Number of *n*-element subsets of universe *U*:

$$\begin{pmatrix} |U| \\ n \end{pmatrix}$$

Bits needed: $\Omega(n \lg |U| - n \lg n)$

$$\log \binom{|U|}{n}$$

$$= \lg \left(\frac{|U|!}{n!(|U|-n)!} \right)$$

$$\geq \lg \left(\frac{(|U|-n)^n}{n^n} \right)$$

$$= n \lg \left(\frac{|U|-n}{n} \right)$$

$$= n \lg \left(\frac{|U|}{n} - 1\right)$$

$$\geq n \lg \left(\frac{|U|}{n}\right) - n$$

$$\geq n \lg |U| - n \lg n - n$$

$$= \Omega(n \lg |U| - n \lg n)$$

Bitten by Bits

- Assuming $|U| \gg n$, we need $\Omega(n \log |U|)$ bits to encode a solution to the exact membership query problem.
- If we're resource-constrained, this might be way too many bits for us to fit things in memory.
 - Think $n = 10^8$ and U is the set of all possible URLs or human genomes.
- Can we do better?

Approximate Membership Queries

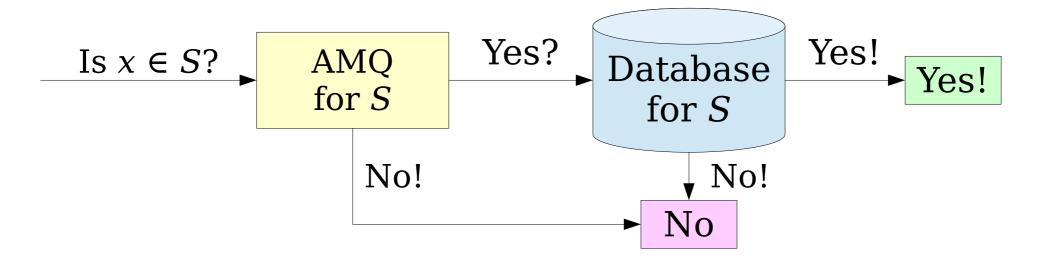
• The *approximate membership query* problem is the following:

Maintain a set S in a way that gives approximate answers to queries of the form "is $x \in S$?"

- Questions we need to answer:
 - How do you give an "approximate" answer to the question "is $x \in S$?"
 - Does this relaxation let us save memory?
- We'll address each of these in turn.

Our Model

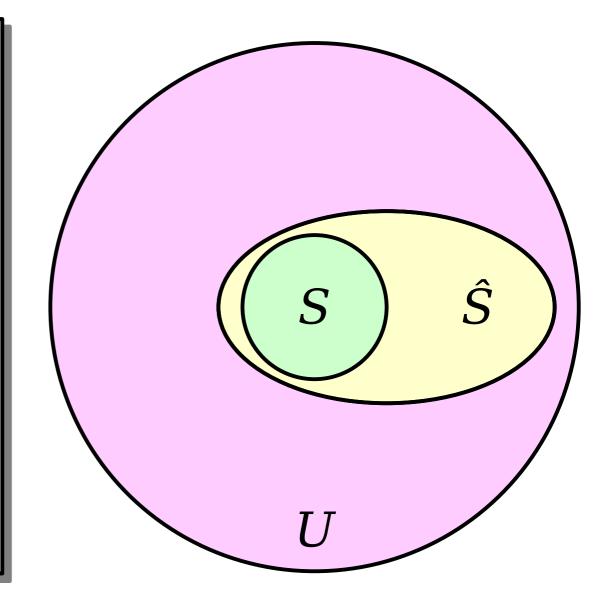
- *Goal:* Design our data structures to allow for false positives but not false negatives.
- That is:
 - if $x \in S$, we always return true, but
 - if $x \notin S$, we have a small probability of returning true.
- This is often a good idea in practice.



Our Model

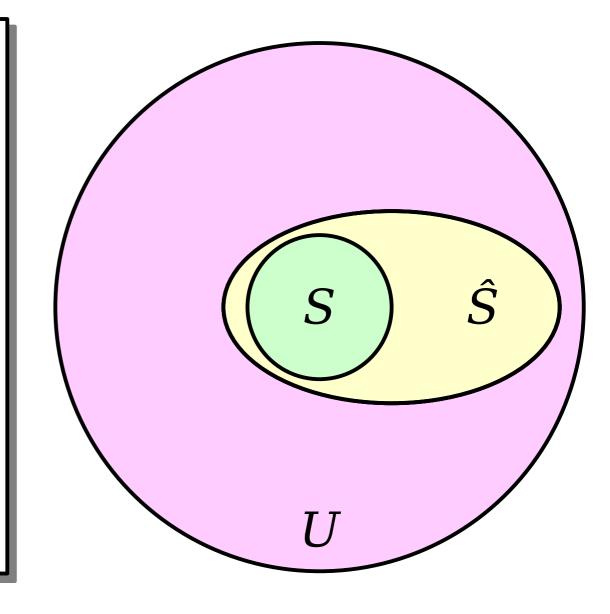
- Let's assume we have a tunable accuracy parameter $\varepsilon \in (0, 1)$.
- Goal: Design our data structure so that
 - if $x \in S$, we always return true;
 - if $x \notin S$, we return false with probability at least 1ε ; and
 - the amount of space we need depends only on n and ϵ , not on the size of the universe.
- Is this even possible?

Intuition: An AMQ structure stores a set \hat{S} : S plus approximately $\epsilon |U|$ extra elements due to the error rate.



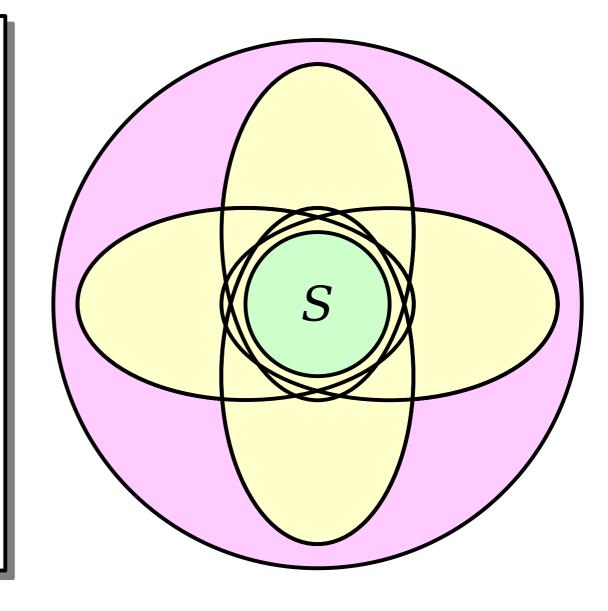
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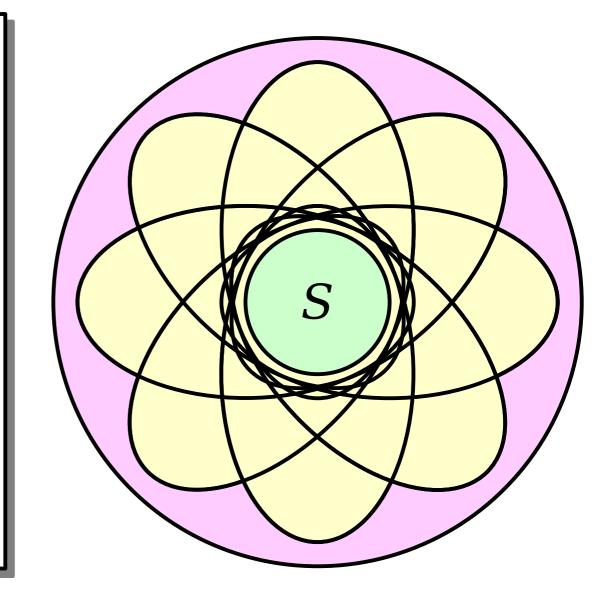
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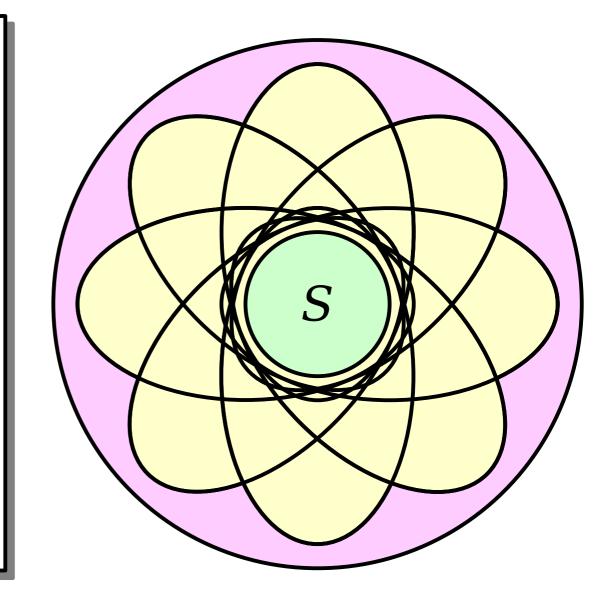
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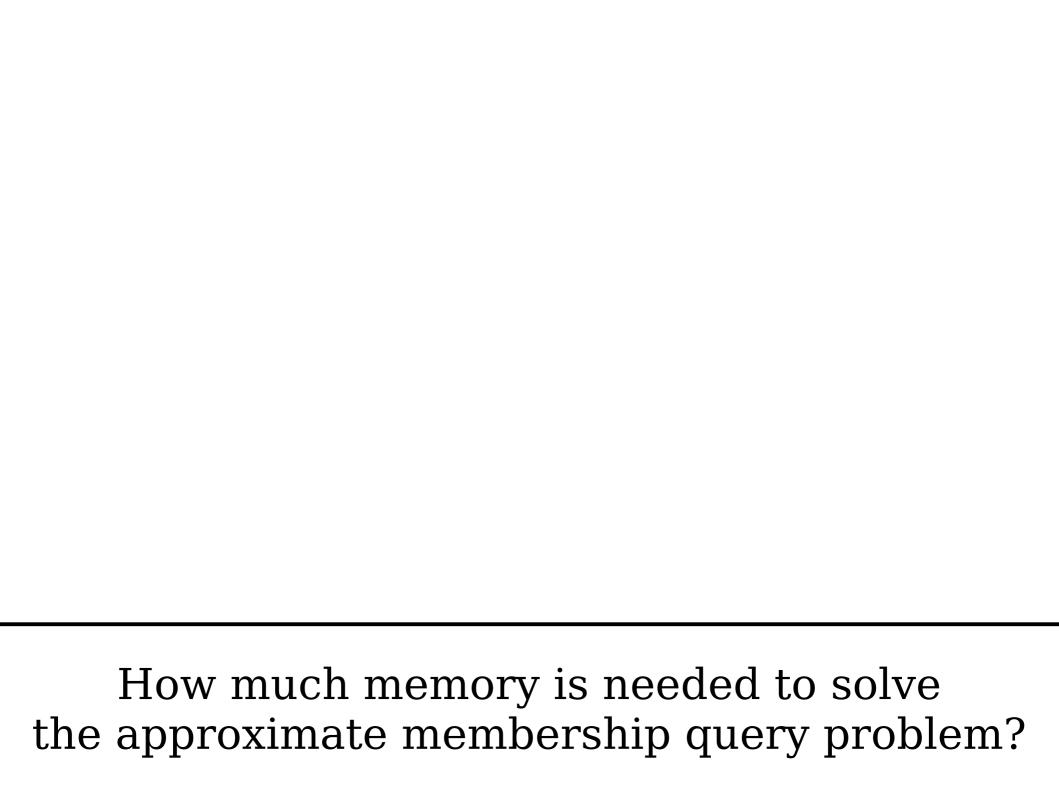


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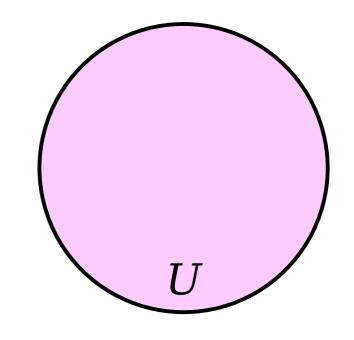
How does that affect our lower bound?



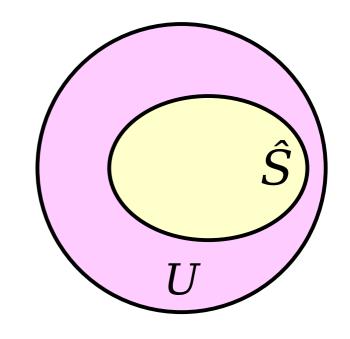


With b bits, write down an AMQ structure. This describes a set $\hat{S} \subseteq U$ of size around $\epsilon |U|$.

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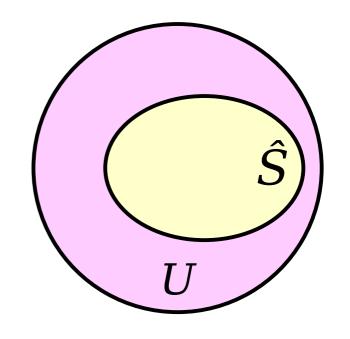


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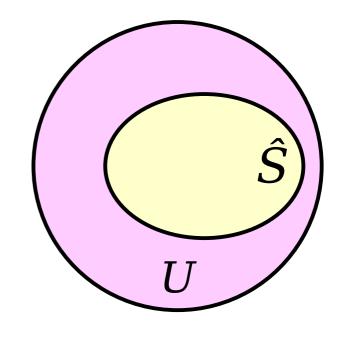
Write down some more bits to identify which n elements in \hat{S} make up the set S.



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Write down some more bits to identify which n elements in \hat{S} make up the set S. Bits needed:

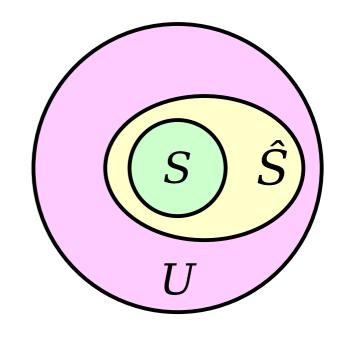
$$\lg \binom{\varepsilon |U|}{n}$$



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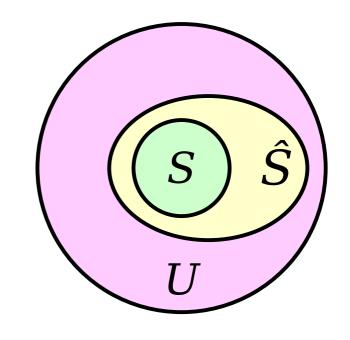
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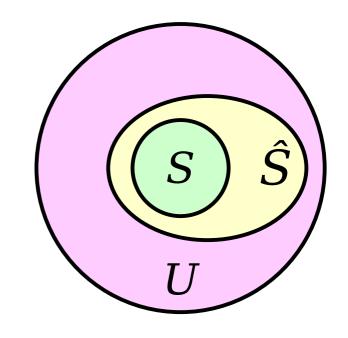


$$b + \lg \left(\frac{\varepsilon |U|}{n}\right)$$

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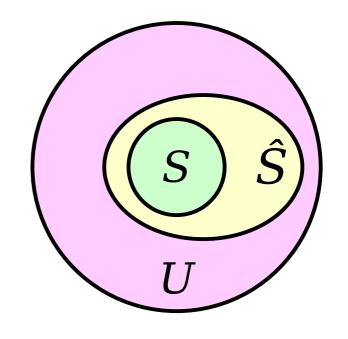
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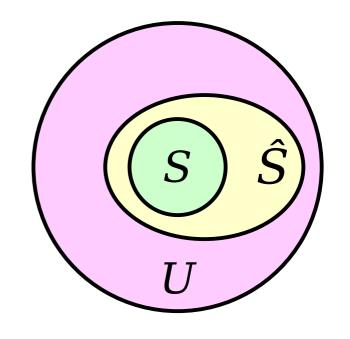
$$b + \lg \binom{\varepsilon |U|}{n} \geq \lg \binom{|U|}{n}$$

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$$\lg \binom{\varepsilon |U|}{n}$$



$$b + \lg \binom{\varepsilon |U|}{n} \geq \lg \binom{|U|}{n}$$

(Number of bits needed to describe S.)

(Lower bound on number of bits needed.)

Theorem: Assuming $\varepsilon |U| \gg n$, any AMQ structure needs at least approximately $n \lg \varepsilon^{-1}$ bits in the worst case.

This lower bound suggests we should aim for $\Theta(n \mid g \epsilon^{-1})$ bits of storage space.

How might we use them?

The math, if you're curious:

$$b \geq \lg \left| \frac{\binom{|U|}{n}}{\binom{\varepsilon |U|}{n}} \right|$$

$$\approx \lg \left(\frac{|U|^n / n!}{(\varepsilon |U|)^n / n!} \right)$$

$$= \lg \varepsilon^{-n}$$

$$= n \lg \varepsilon^{-1}$$

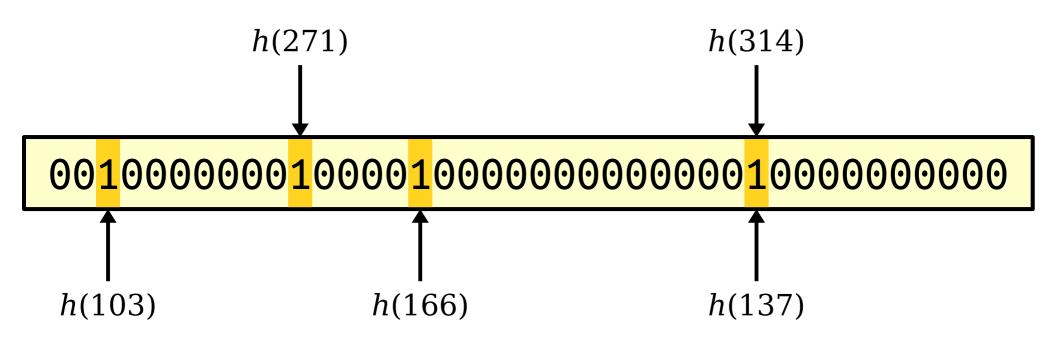
Bloom Filters

As an example, let's have $S = \{103, 137, 166, 271, 314\}$

Number of bits: $cn \lg \varepsilon^{-1}$ (We'll pick c later.)

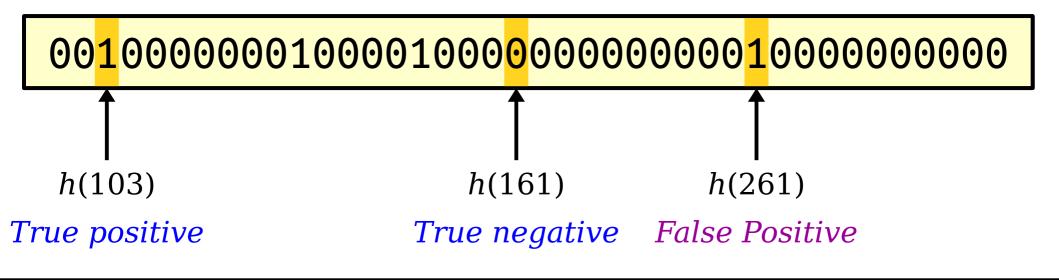
How can we approximate a set in a small number of bits and with a low error rate?

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How can we approximate a set in a small number of bits and with a low error rate?

Suppose we store a set of n elements in collection of $cn \lg \varepsilon^{-1}$ bits.

Question: What is our false positive rate?

Intuition: At most n of our cn lg ε^{-1} bits will be 1. We only have false positives if we see a 1. So our false positive rate will be about 1 / c lg ε^{-1} . That's not great.

How can we approximate a set in a small number of bits and with a low error rate?

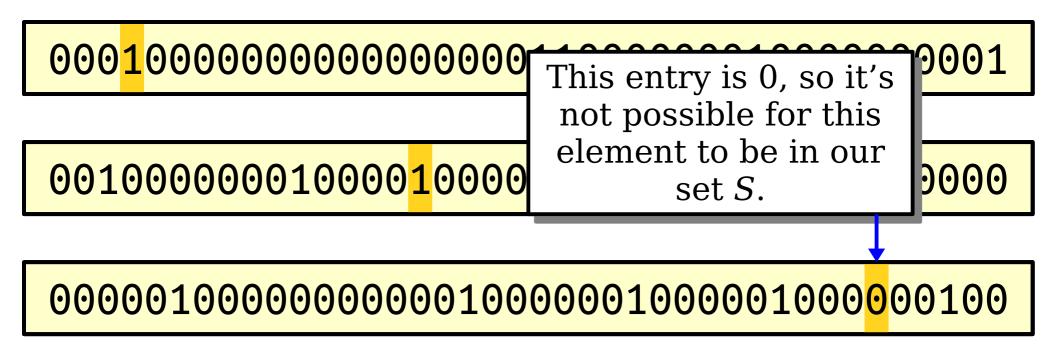
Make several copies of the previous data structure, each with a random hash function.

000100000000000000011000000010000000001

00100000010000100000000000001000000000

0000010000000000100000100000100000100

Question: Each copy provides its own estimate. Which one should we pick?



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 $00010000000000000001100 \\ \hline{0}000010000000001$

000001000000<mark>0</mark>00001000000100000100000100

Question: Each copy provides its own estimate. Which one should we pick?

00010000000000000001100000001000000001

00000100000000001000000<mark>1</mark>000001000000100

Question: Each copy provides its own estimate. Which one should we pick?

00000100000000000<mark>1</mark>00000010000

We only say "yes" if all bits are 1's.

We have some fixed number of bits to use. How should we split them across these copies?

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001001000010000100010

100110000100000001000

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0010001100100100

0101000010001010

0000011100000010

We have some fixed number of bits to use. How should we split them across these copies?

001000110010

001000110010

010100001000

000001110000

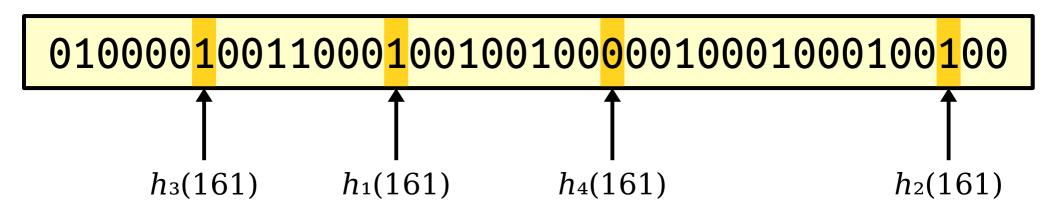
More copies means fewer bits per copy. The error rate per copy is higher, but there's more copies.

Approach: Use one giant array. Have all hash functions edit and read that array.

This is called a **Bloom filter**, named after its inventor.

Assume we use *k* hash functions, each of which is chosen independently of the others. We'll pick *k* later on.

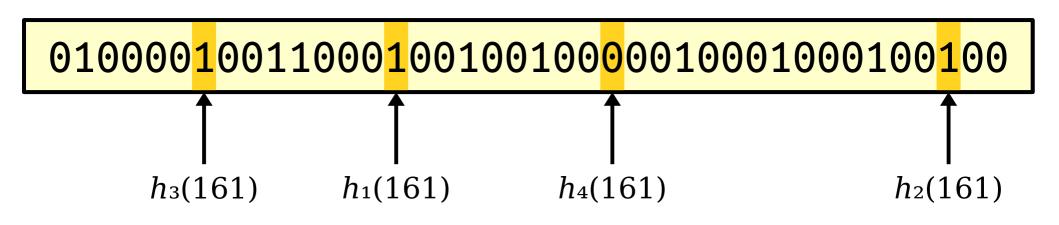
(In this example, k = 4.)



create(S): Select k
hash functions. Hash
each element with all
hash functions and
set the indicated bits
to 1.

query(x): Hash x
with all k hash
functions.

Return whether all the indicated bits are 1.



Intuition: If c is too low, we'll get too many false positives. If c is too large, we'll use too much memory.

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10001000100011001010100001000101

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110011001111000111000101

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111111

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0000001001000010000000000000000100000100

Intuition: If *k* is either too low *or* too high, we'll get too many false positives.

Question: How do we tune *k*, the number of hash functions?

In what follows, let's have

 $m = cn \lg \varepsilon^{-1}$

be the number of bits in our array.

Question: In what circumstance do we get a false positive?

Answer: Each of the element's bits are set, but the element isn't in the set S.

Question:

What is the probability that this happens?

 $010000 \frac{1}{1}0011000 \frac{1}{1}00100 \frac{1}{1}0000010001000 \frac{1}{1}00100$

001101010<mark>0</mark>0101000

Focus on a bit at index i.

001101010<mark>0</mark>0101000

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Pick some $x \in S$ and hash function h.

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Answer: $1 - \frac{1}{m}$.

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What's the probability that, across all *n* elements and *k* hash functions, bit *i* isn't set?

Answer: $(1 - 1/m)^{kn}$.

001101010<mark>0</mark>0101000

Useful fact: $(1 - 1/p)^p \approx e^{-1}$.

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Probability that bit *i* is unset after inserting *n* elements:

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Probability that bit *i* is unset after inserting *n* elements:

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$$= \left(\left(1 - \frac{1}{m} \right)^m \right)^{\frac{kn}{m}}$$

001101010<mark>0</mark>0101000

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$$\approx e^{-\frac{kn}{m}}$$

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$$(1 - \frac{1}{m})^{kn}$$

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$$\approx e^{-\frac{kn}{m}}$$

$$= e^{-k/c \lg \varepsilon^{-1}}$$

00110101000101000

Probability that a fixed bit is 1 after *n* elements have been added:

$$\approx 1 - e^{-k/c \lg \varepsilon^{-1}}$$

00110101000101000

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False positive probability is approximately

001<mark>1</mark>010<mark>1</mark>000<mark>1</mark>01000

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001<mark>1</mark>010<mark>1</mark>000<mark>1</mark>01000

This value isn't exactly correct because certain bits being 1 decrease the probability that other bits are 1. With a more advanced analysis we can show that this is very close to the true value.

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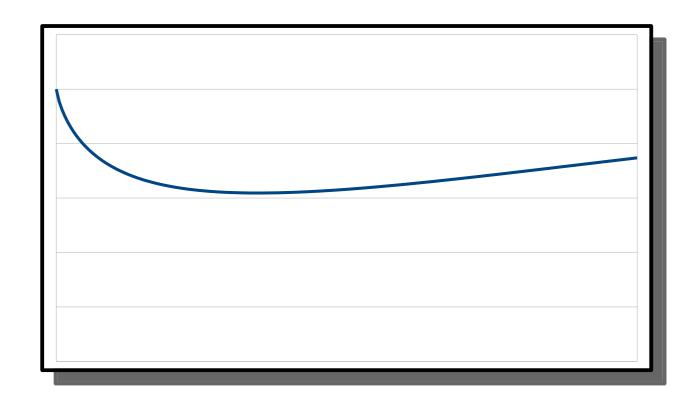
$$\approx 1 - e^{-k/c \lg \varepsilon^{-1}}$$

False positive probability is approximately

$$-(1-e^{-k/c\lg \varepsilon^{-1}})^k$$

Question: What choice of *k* minimizes this expression?

Goal: Pick
$$k$$
 to minimize
$$(1 - e^{-k/c \lg \varepsilon^{-1}})^k.$$



Goal: Pick *k* to minimize

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.

Claim: This expression is minimized when

$$k = c \lg \varepsilon^{-1} \ln 2$$
.

You can show this using some symmetry arguments or calculus.

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Good exercise: This claim is often repeated and seldom proved. Confirm I am not perpetuating lies.

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.

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.

You can show this using some symmetry arguments or calculus.

Good exercise: This claim is often repeated and seldom proved. Confirm I am not perpetuating lies.

Challenge: Give an explanation for this result that is "immediately obvious" from the original expression.

The false positive rate is

$$(1 - e^{-k/c \lg \varepsilon^{-1}})^k$$
.

and we know to pick

$$k = c \lg \varepsilon^{-1} \ln 2$$
.

Plugging this value into the expression gives a false positive rate of

$$\mathcal{E}^{c \ln 2}$$

(The derivation, for those of you who are curious.)

$$(1 - e^{-k/c \lg \varepsilon^{-1}})^{k}$$

$$= (1 - e^{-c \lg \varepsilon^{-1} \ln 2/c \lg \varepsilon^{-1}})^{k}$$

$$= (1 - e^{-\ln 2})^{k}$$

$$= (1 - \frac{1}{2})^{k}$$

$$= 2^{-k}$$

$$= 2^{-c \lg \varepsilon^{-1} \ln 2}$$

$$= 2^{\lg \varepsilon^{c \ln 2}}$$

$$= \varepsilon^{c \ln 2}$$

Knowing what we know now, how many bits do we need to get a false positive rate of ε ?

Our false positive rate, as a function of c, is

$$\varepsilon^{c \ln 2}$$
.

Our goal is to get a false positive rate of ϵ .

To do so, pick

$$c = 1 / \ln 2$$

$$= \lg e$$

Which is about 1.44.

Knowing what we know now, how many bits do we need to get a false positive rate of ε ?

Given a number of elements n and an error rate ϵ , pick

$$m = cn \lg \varepsilon^{-1}$$

 $k = c \lg \varepsilon^{-1} \ln 2$.

Optimal c:

$$c = \lg e$$

How did we do overall?

Given a number of elements n and an error rate ϵ , pick

$$m = n \lg \varepsilon^{-1} \lg e$$

 $k = \lg \varepsilon^{-1}$

Optimal c:

$$c = \lg e$$

How did we do overall?

Given a number of elements n and an error rate ϵ , pick

$$m = n \lg \varepsilon^{-1} \lg e$$

 $k = \lg \varepsilon^{-1}$

Space usage: $\Theta(n \log \varepsilon^{-1})$. (Within a factor of 1.44 of optimal!)

Query time: $O(\log \varepsilon^{-1})$.

More recent data structures, like the *quotient filter* and *cuckoo filter*, push this coefficient down and are still viable in practice.

We know that it's possible to reduce this coefficient to 1 + o(1) (*Pagh, Pagh, and Rao's optimal AMQ structure*), though this is currently only of theoretical interest.

How did we do overall?

To Summarize

- *Chebyshev's inequality* is a useful concentration inequality for two-sided errors. It involves bounding the variance of the underlying variable.
- To simplify variance expressions, look for pairwise independence.
- Some random variables (±1 variables, indicator variables, etc.) simplify nicely when squared.
- Taking the median of many estimators with two-sided error is a good way to amplify success probabilities. The *Chernoff* bound is helpful for showing how effective this strategy is.
- Information-theoretic lower bounds can be helpful in determining how much progress can be made with a data structure.

Next Time

- Cuckoo Hashing
 - Hashing with worst-case O(1) lookups.
- Random Graph Theory
 - Properties of random bipartite graphs.