

# Hashing and Sketching

## Part One

# Outline for Today

- ***Hash Functions***
  - Understanding our basic building blocks.
- ***Frequency Estimation***
  - 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.

Preliminaries: ***Hash Functions***

# Hashing in Practice

- Hash functions are used extensively in programming and software engineering:
  - They make hash tables possible: think C++ `std::hash`, Python's `__hash__`, or Java's `Object.hashCode()`.
  - They're used in cryptography: SHA-256, HMAC, etc.
- **Question:** When we're in Theoryland, what do we mean when we say “hash function?”

# Hashing in Theoryland

- In Theoryland, a hash function is a function from some domain called the **universe** (typically denoted  $\mathcal{U}$ ) to some codomain.
- The codomain is usually a set of the form  
 $[m] = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots, m - 1\}$

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

# Hashing in Theoryland

- **Intuition:** No matter how clever you are with designing a specific hash function, that hash function isn't random, and so there will be pathological inputs.
  - You can formalize this with the pigeonhole principle.
- **Idea:** Rather than finding the One True Hash Function, we'll assume we have a collection of hash functions to pick from, and we'll choose which one to use randomly.

# Families of Hash Functions

- A **family** of hash functions is a set  $\mathcal{H}$  of hash functions with the same domain and codomain.
- We can then introduce randomness into our data structures by sampling a random hash function from  $\mathcal{H}$ .
- **Key Point:** The randomness in our data structures almost always derives from the random choice of hash functions, not from the data.

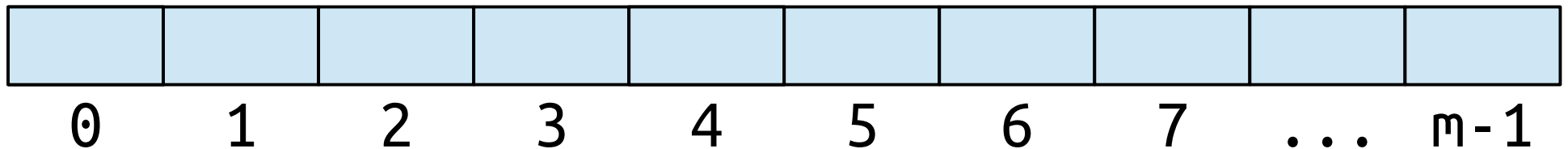
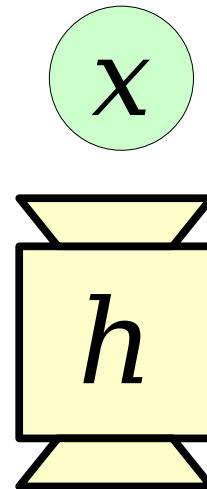


***Data is adversarial.***

***Hash function selection is random.***

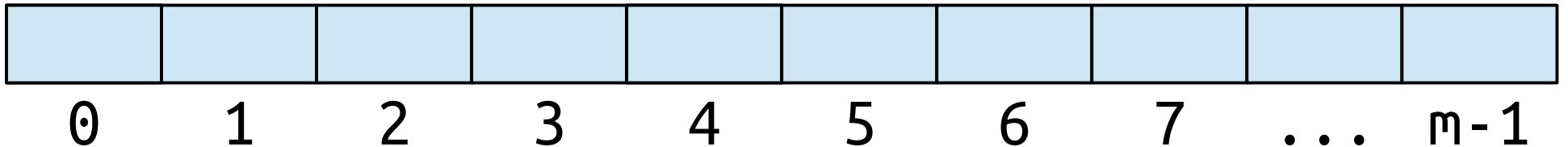
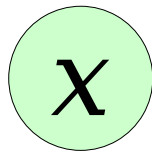
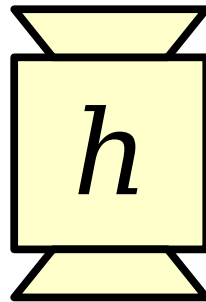
- **Question:** What makes a family of hash functions  $\mathcal{H}$  a “good” family of hash functions?

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

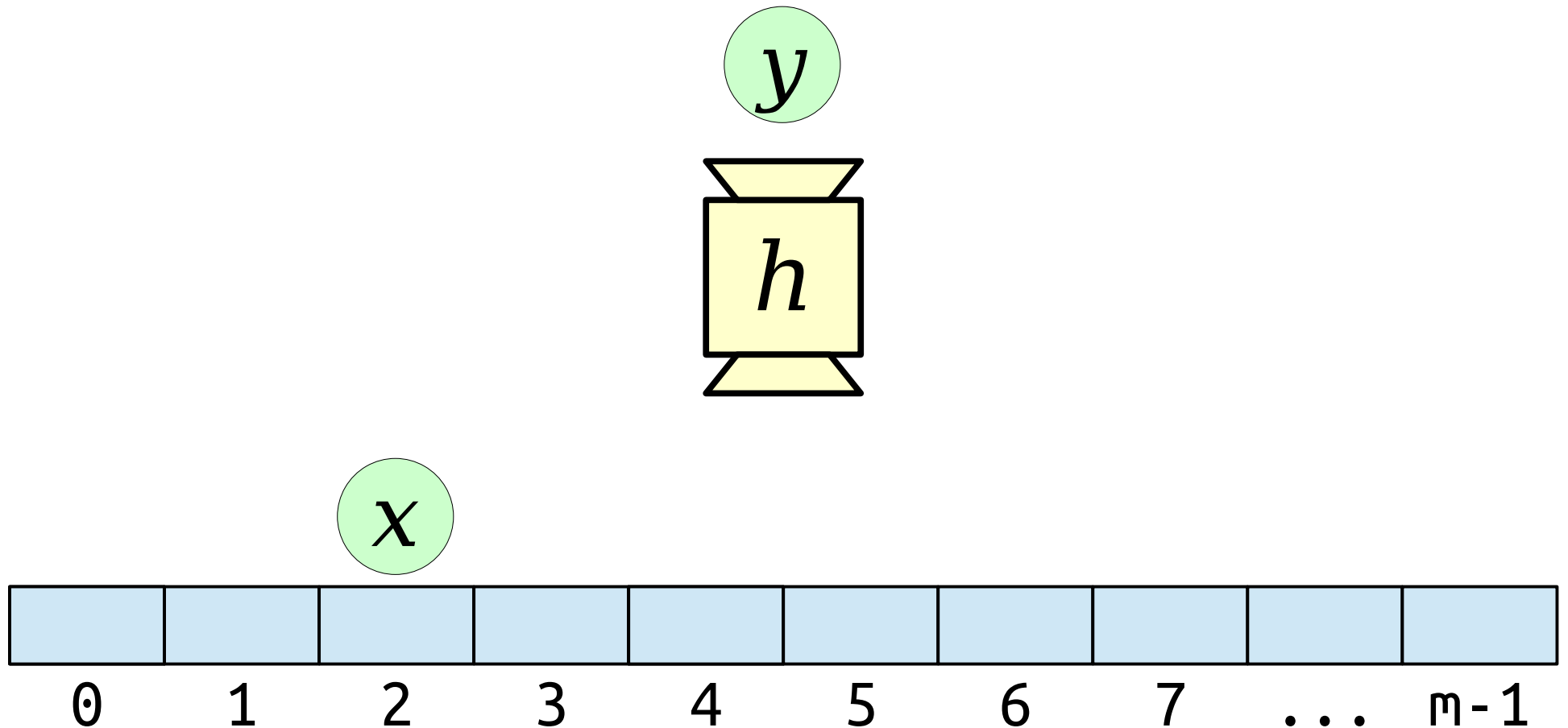




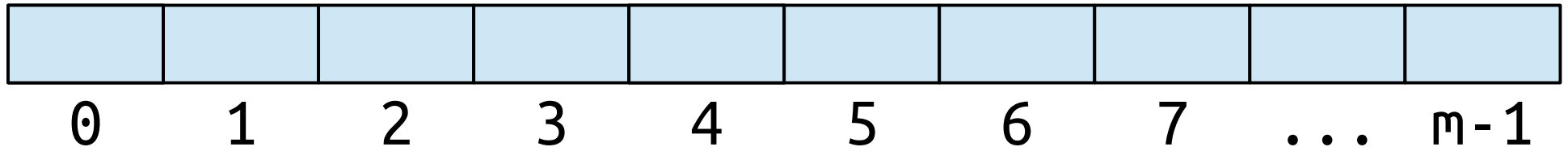
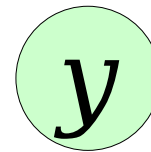
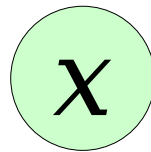
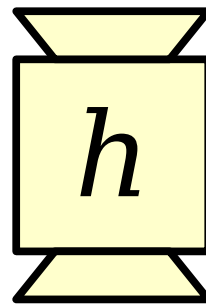
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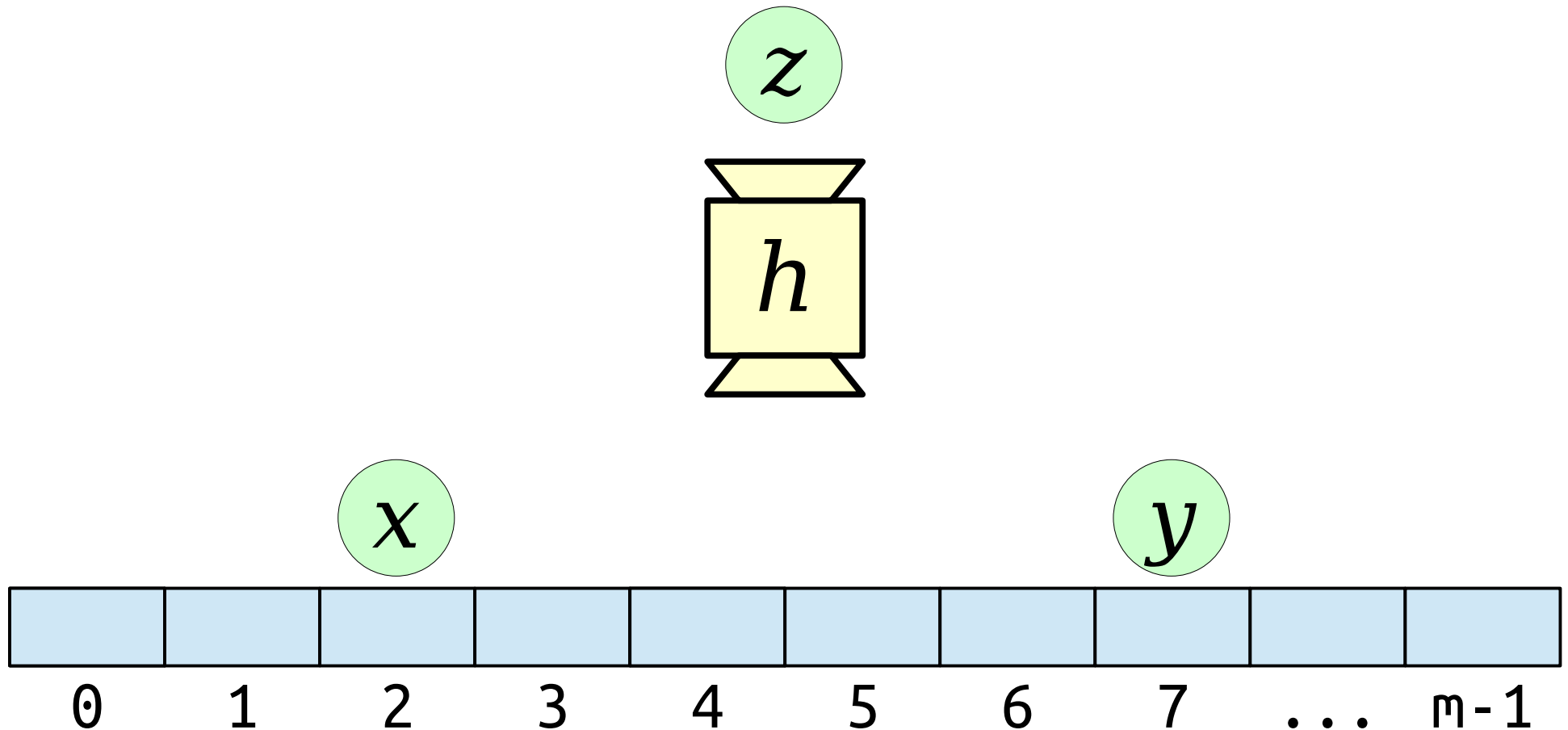
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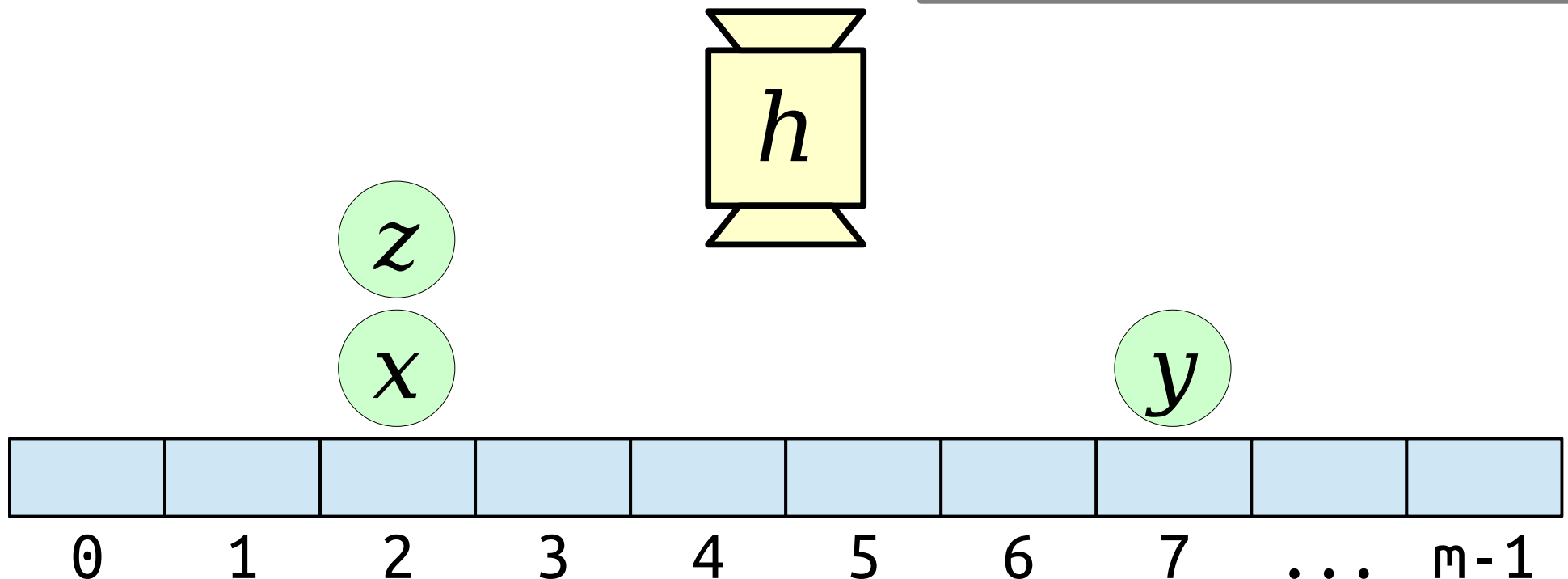
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**Problem:** A hash function that distributes  $n$  elements uniformly at random over  $[m]$  requires  $\Omega(n \log m)$  space in the worst case.

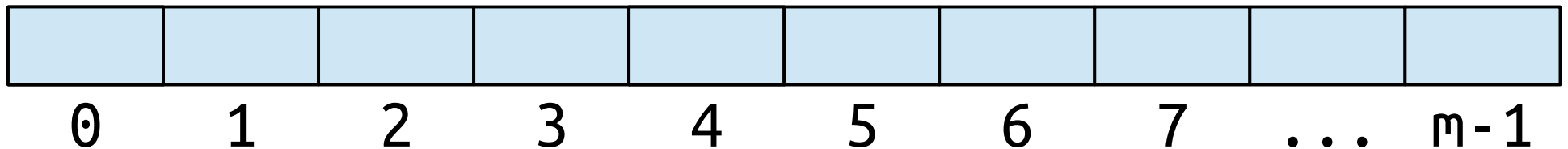
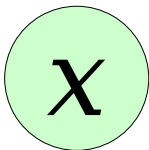
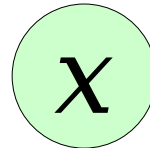
**Question:** Do we actually need true randomness? Or can we get away with something weaker?



***Distribution Property:***

Each element should have an equal probability of being placed in each slot.

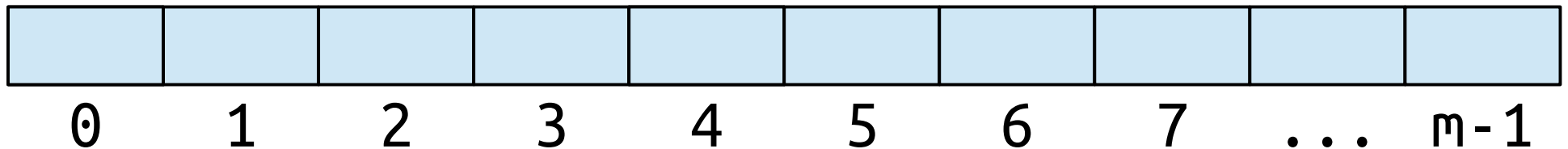
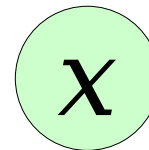
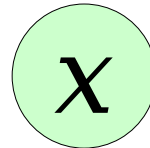
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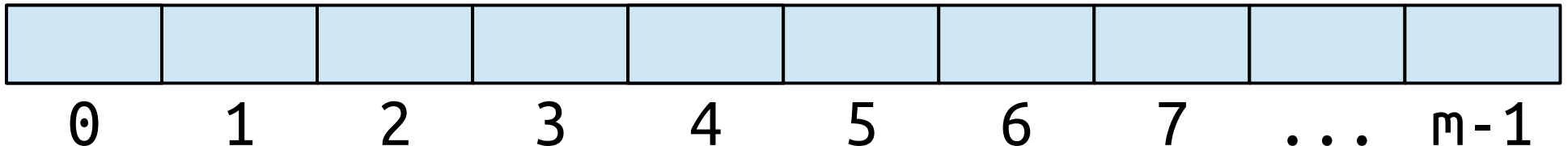
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Find an “obviously bad” family of hash functions that satisfies the distribution property.

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





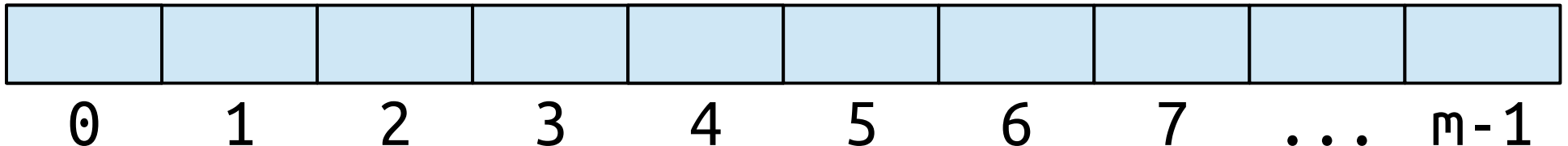
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Now, ***private chat me your best guess.*** Not sure? Just answer “??”.

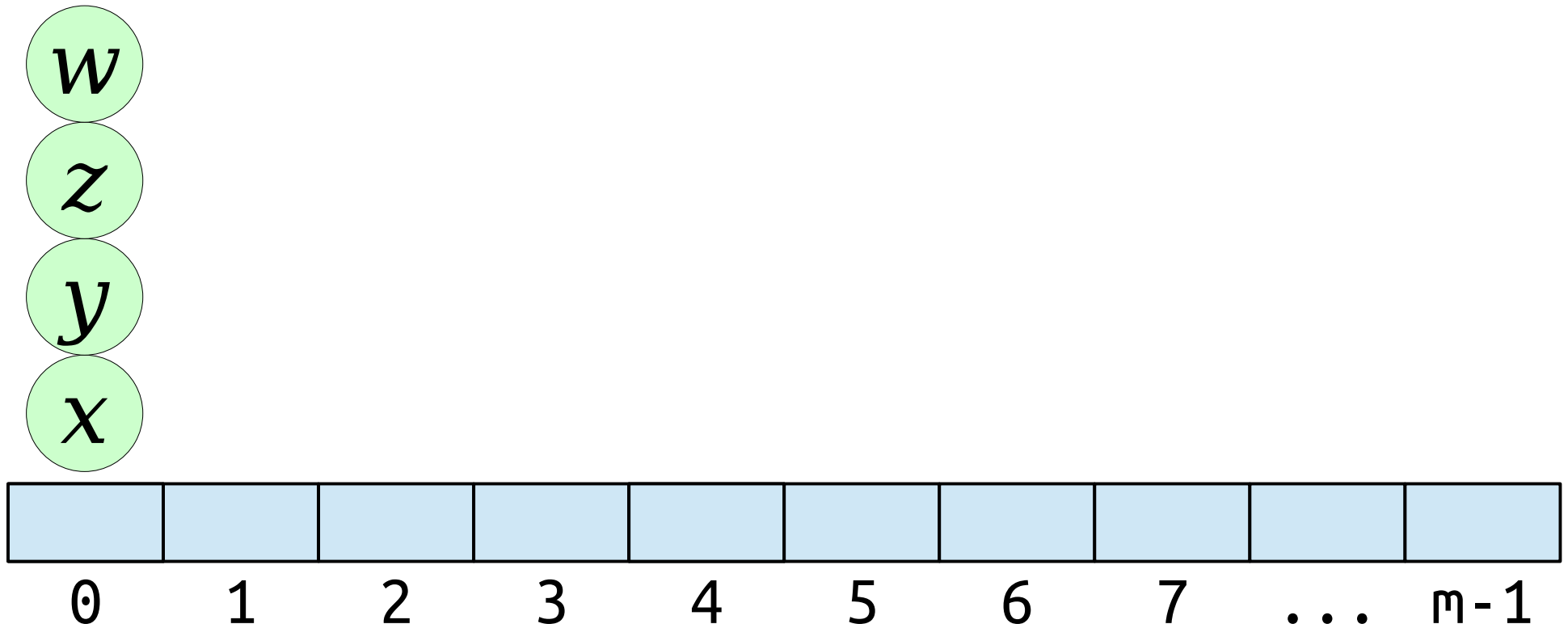


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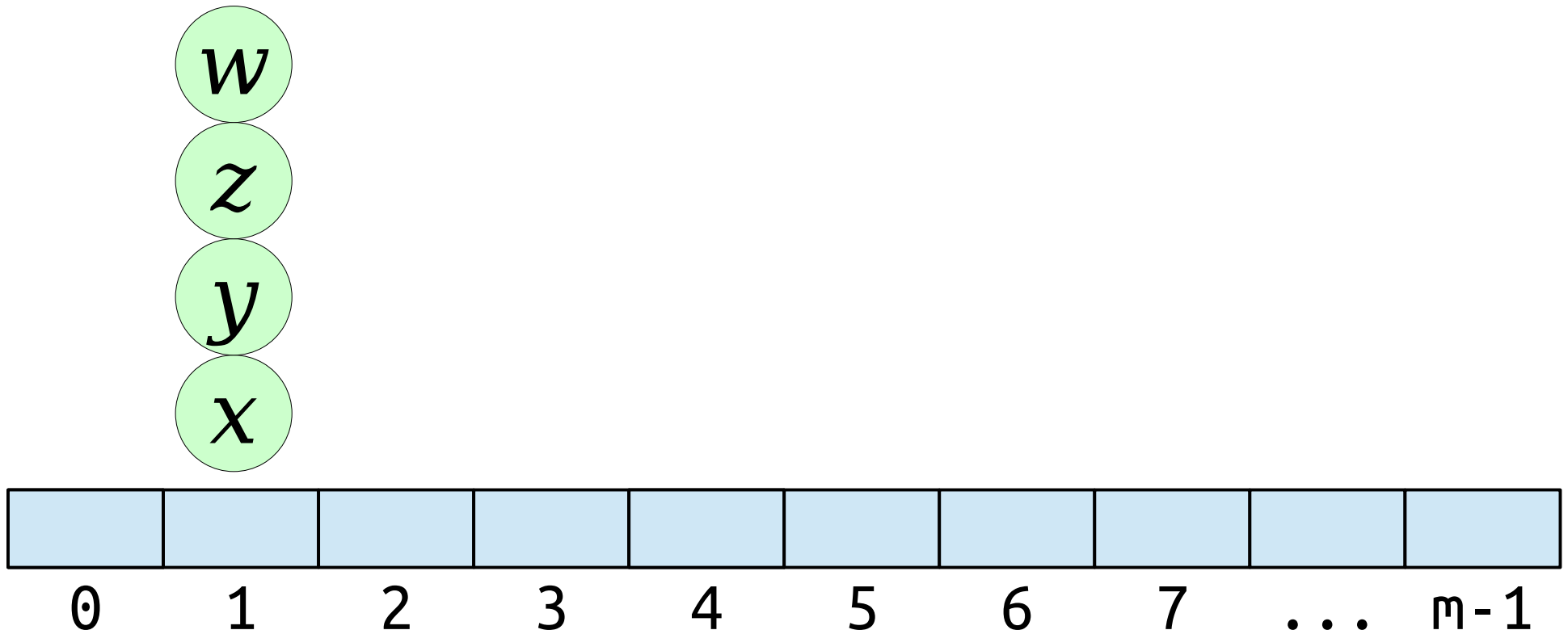


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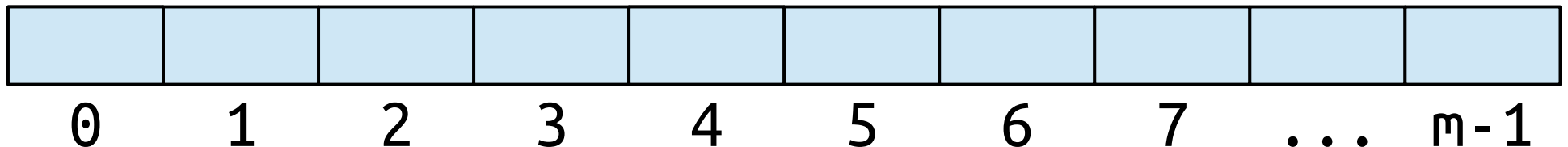
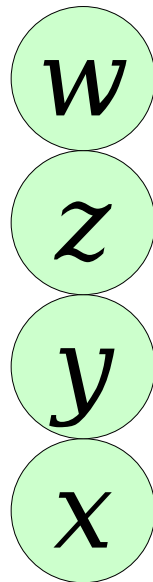


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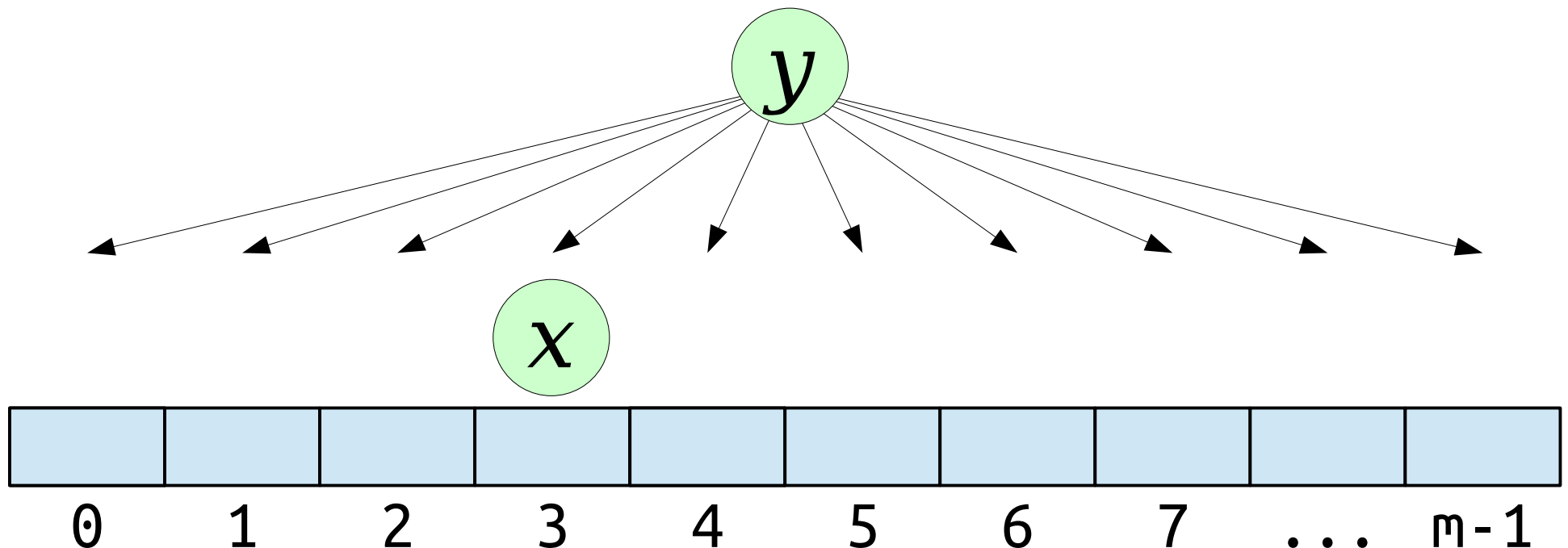
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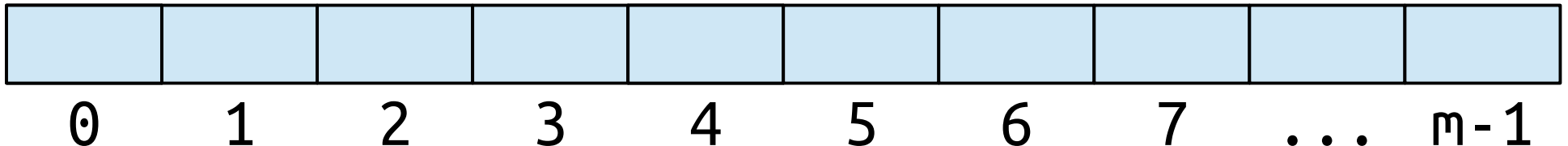
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A family of hash functions  $\mathcal{H}$  is called ***2-independent*** (or ***pairwise independent***) if it satisfies the distribution and independence properties.

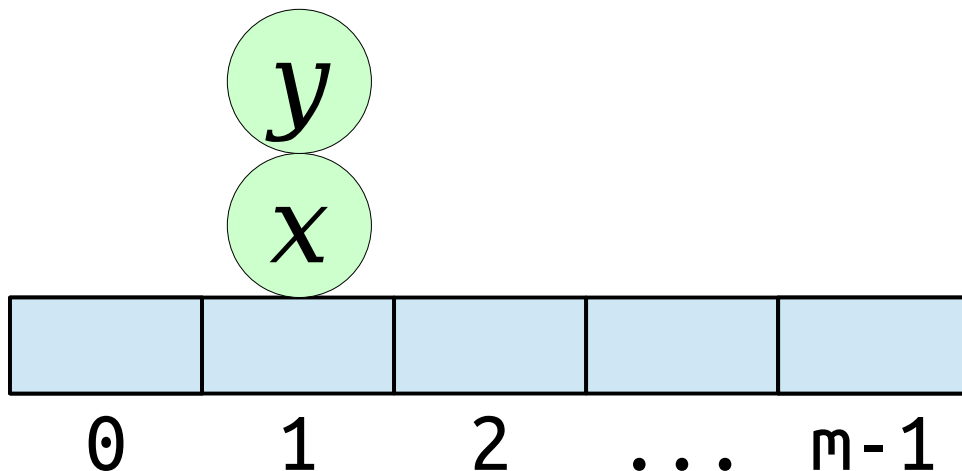


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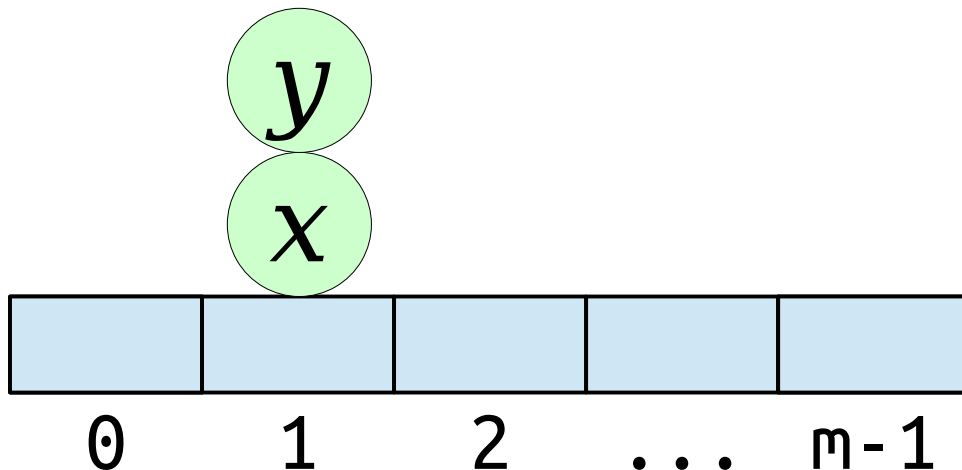
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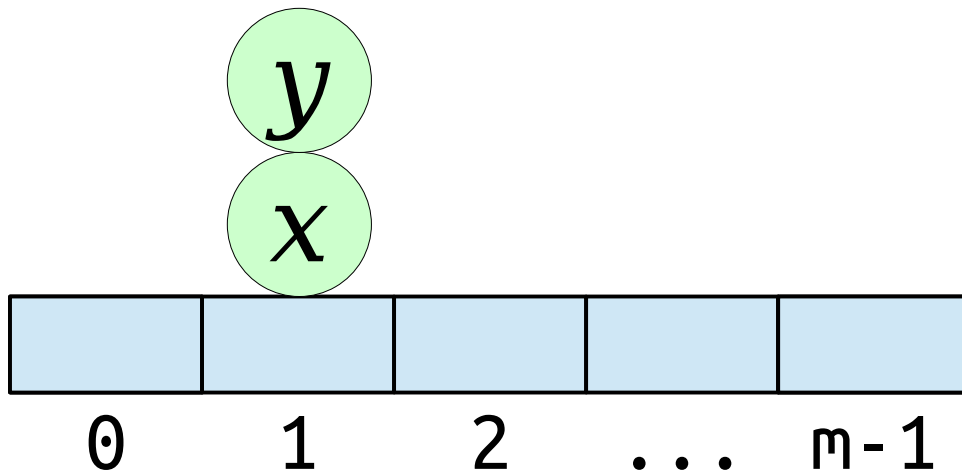
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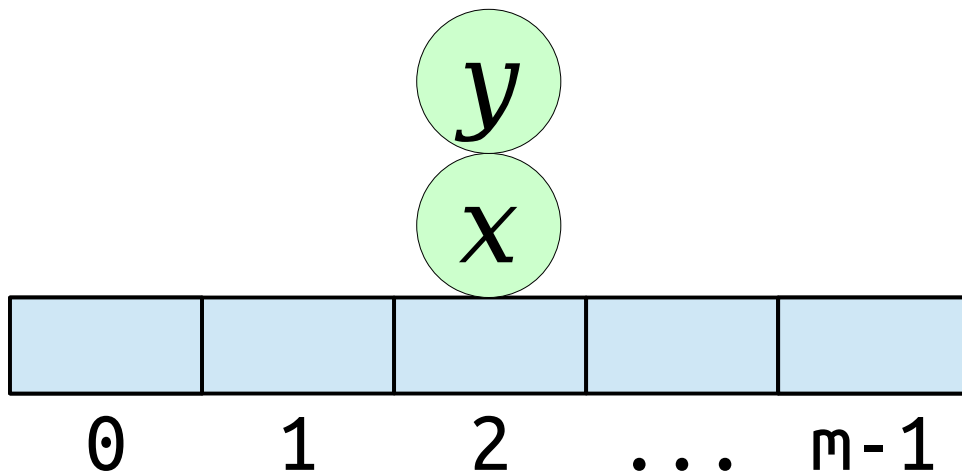
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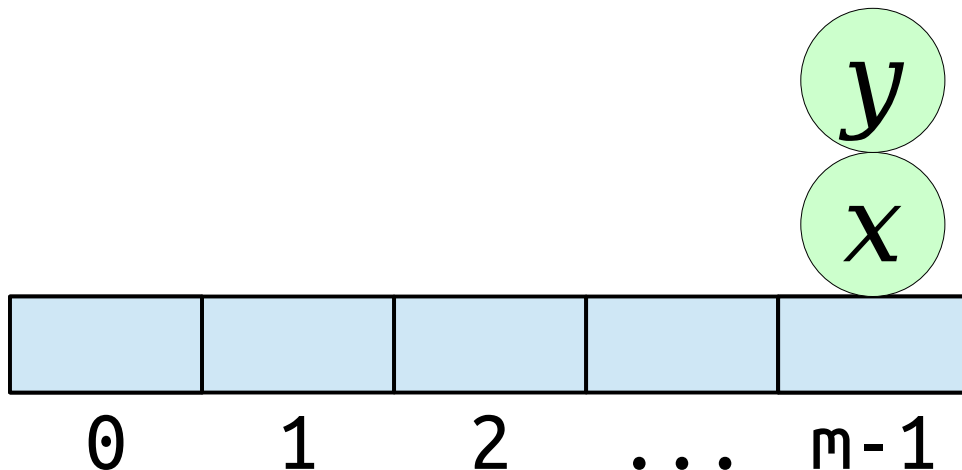
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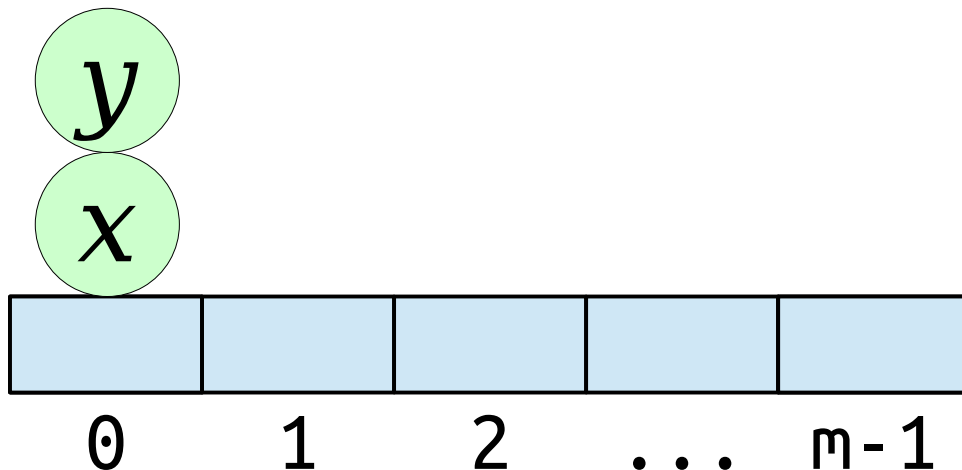
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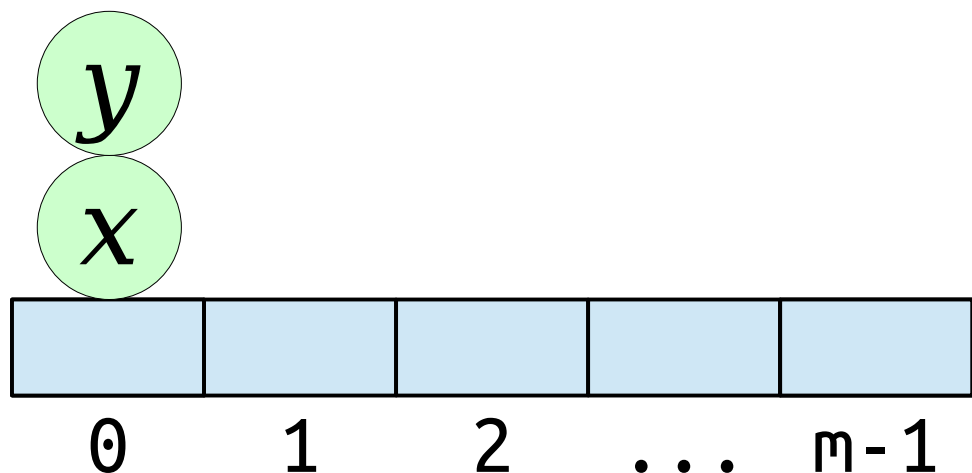
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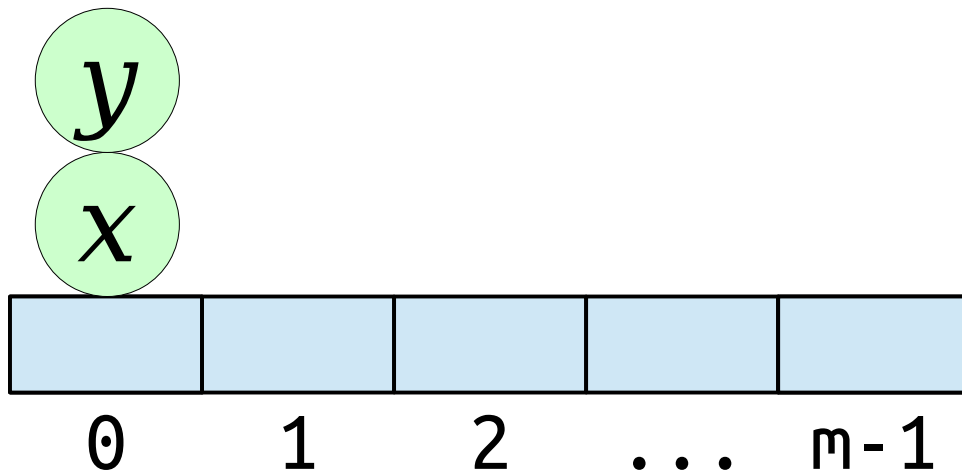
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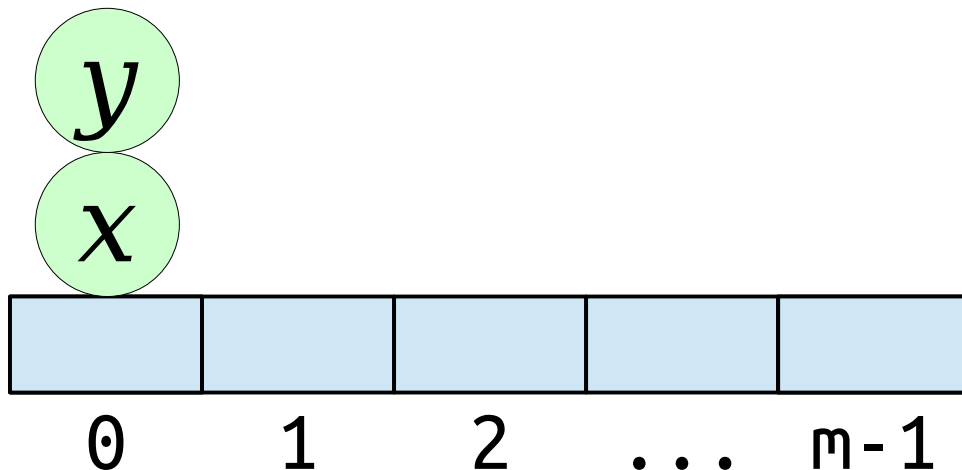
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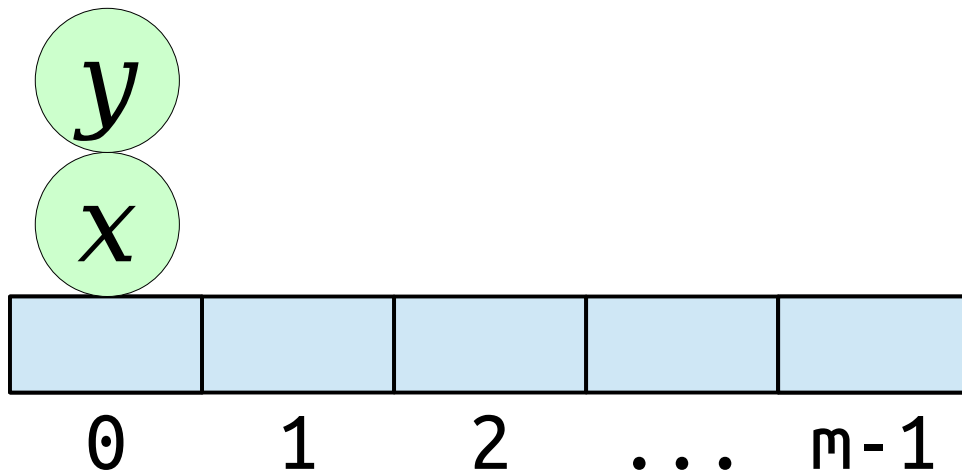
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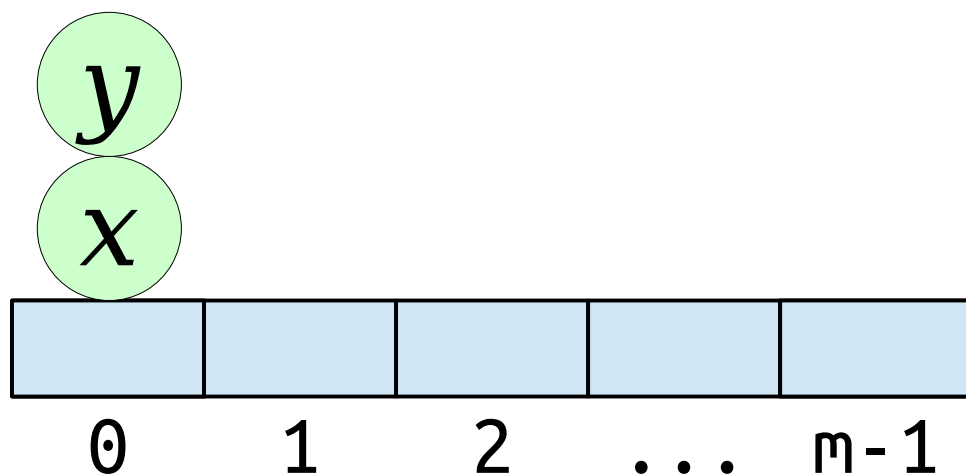
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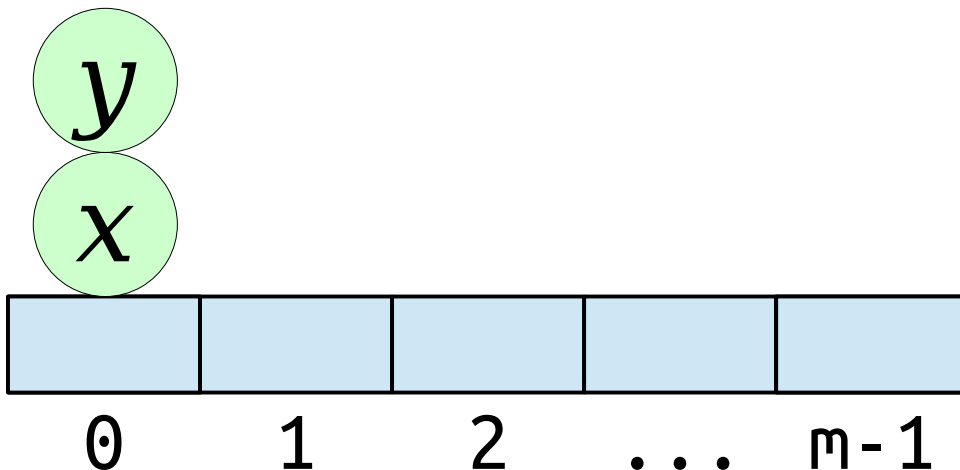
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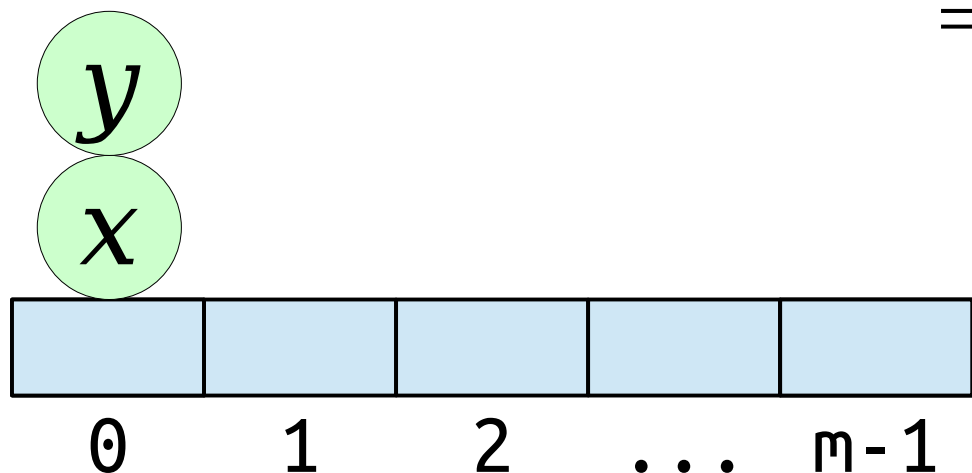
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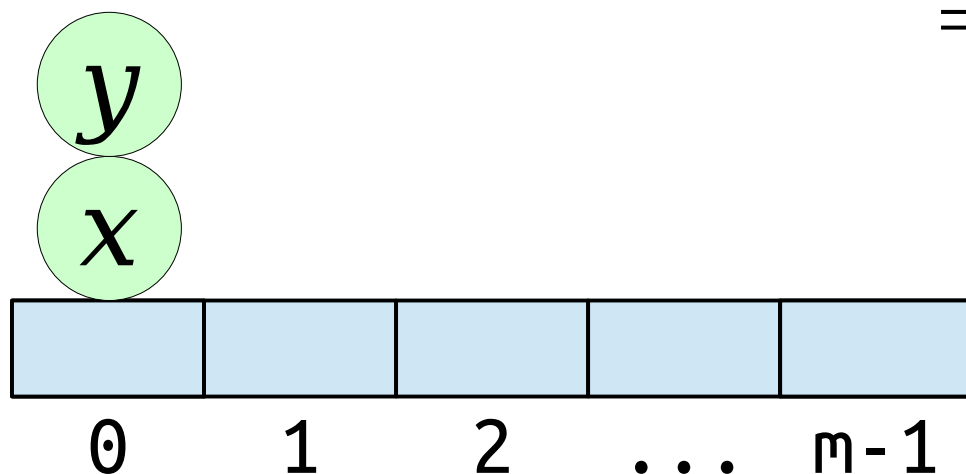
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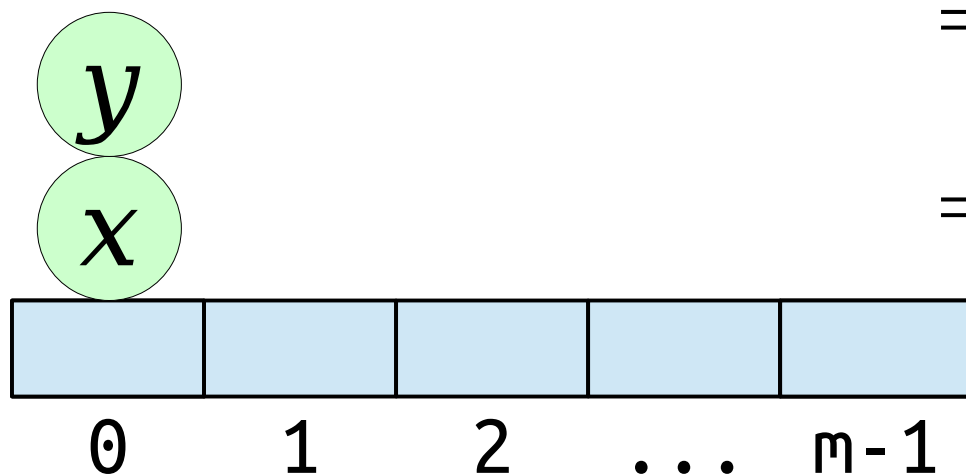
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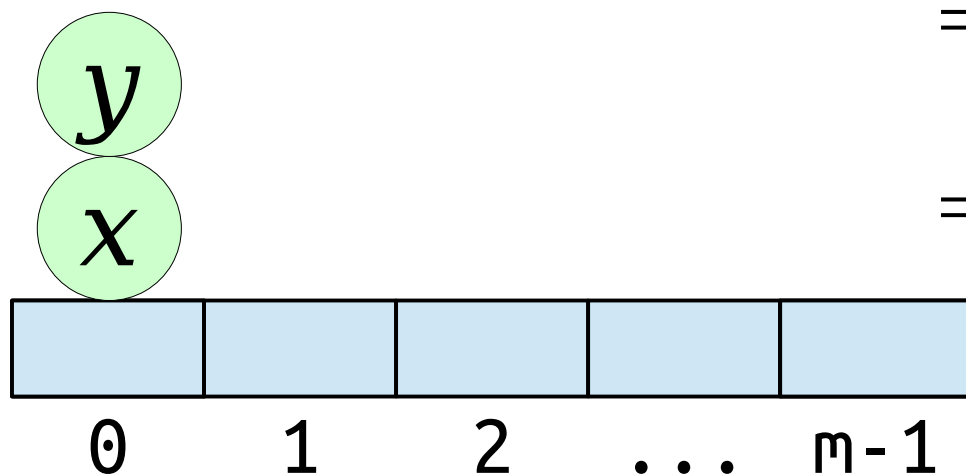


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***Intuition:***

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



$$\begin{aligned} & \Pr[h(x) = h(y)] \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \Pr[h(x) = i \wedge h(y) = i] \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \Pr[h(x) = i] \cdot \Pr[h(y) = i] \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \frac{1}{m^2} \\ &= \frac{1}{m} \end{aligned}$$

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

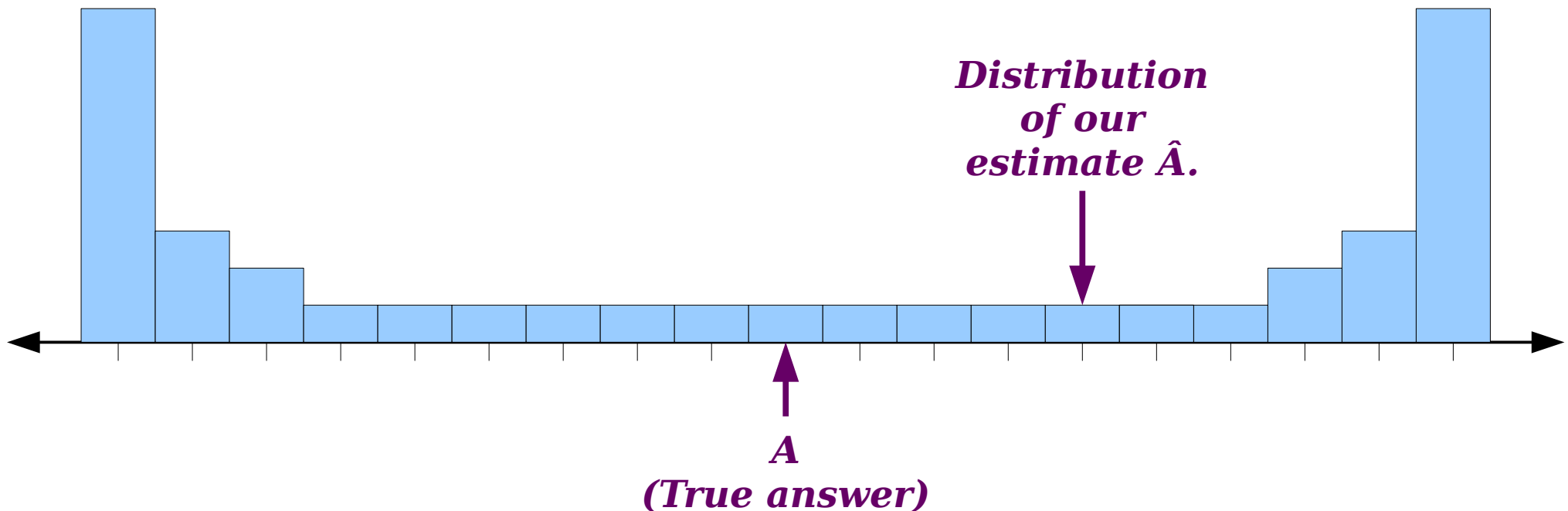


What makes for a good  
“approximate” solution?

Let  $A$  be the true answer. Let  $\hat{A}$  be a random variable denoting our estimate.

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

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

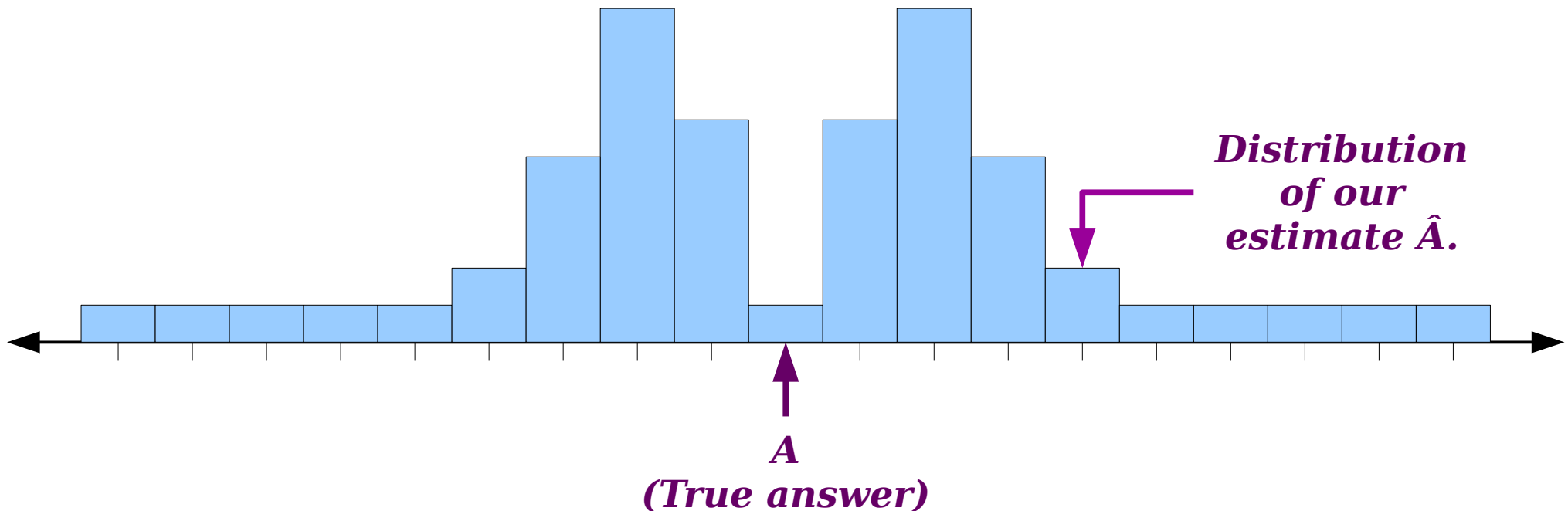


What does it mean for an approximation to be “good”?

Let  $A$  be the true answer. Let  $\hat{A}$  be a random variable denoting our estimate.

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.

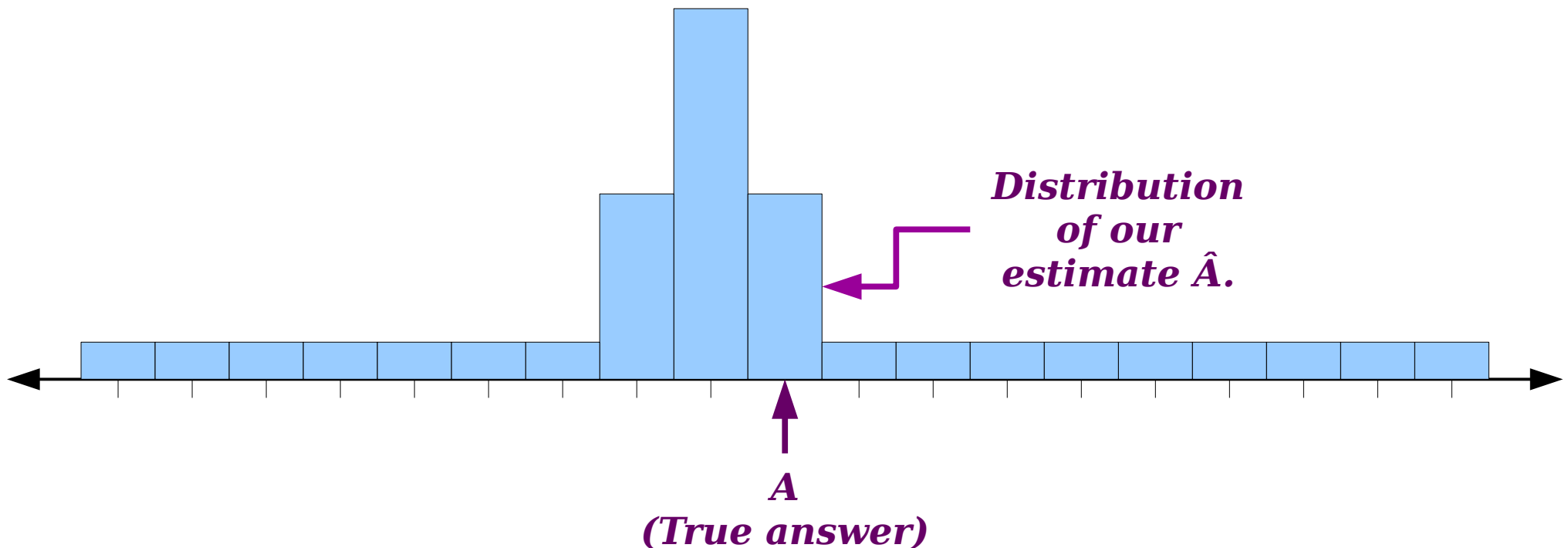


What does it mean for an approximation to be “good”?

Let  $A$  be the true answer. Let  $\hat{A}$  be a random variable denoting our estimate.

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

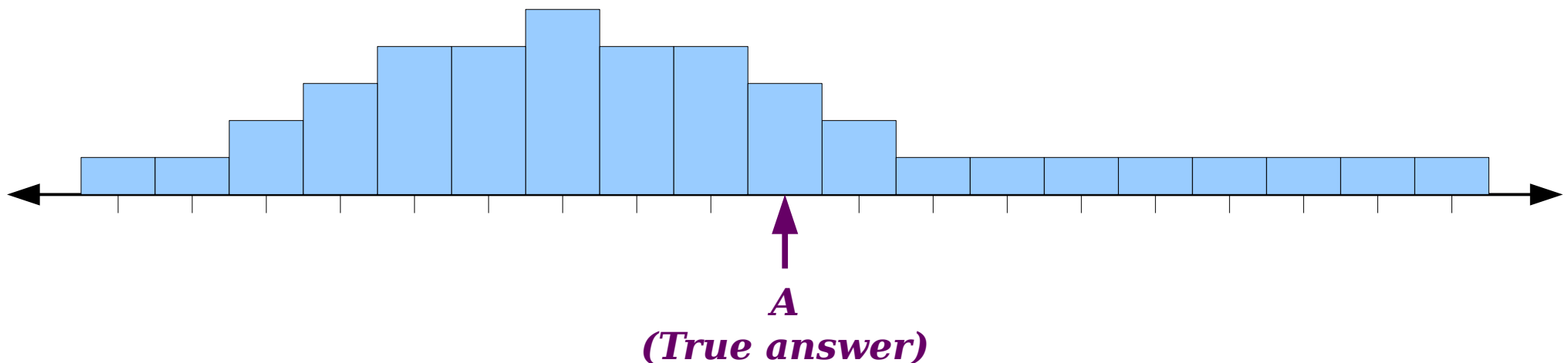
**Observation 3:** An estimate doesn't have to be unbiased to be useful.



What does it mean for an approximation to be “good”?

Let  $A$  be the true answer. Let  $\hat{A}$  be a random variable denoting our estimate.

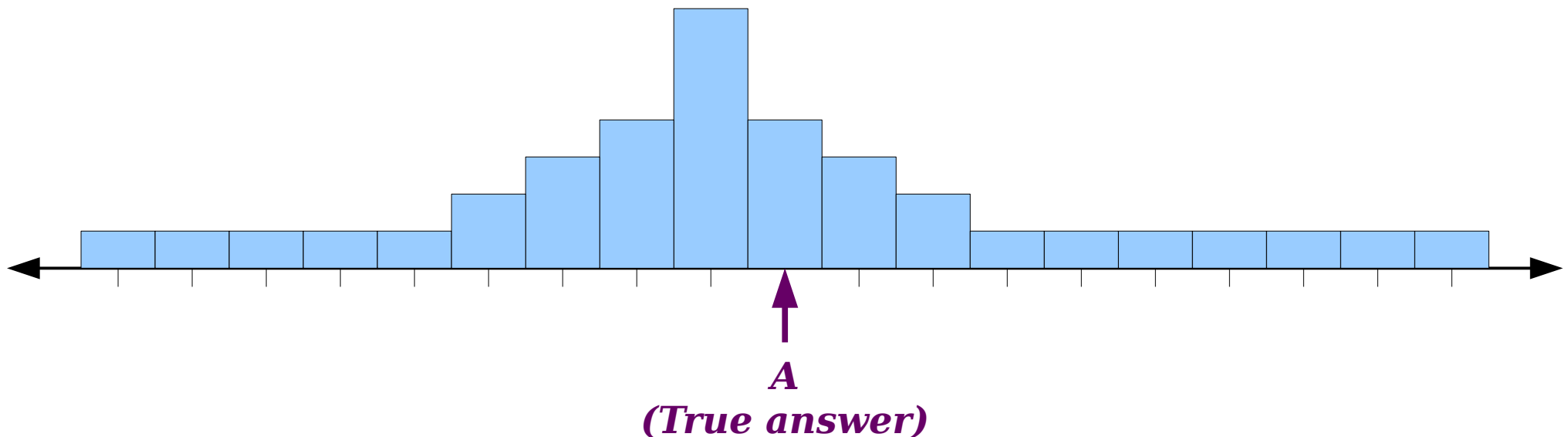
**Memory used: 16MB**



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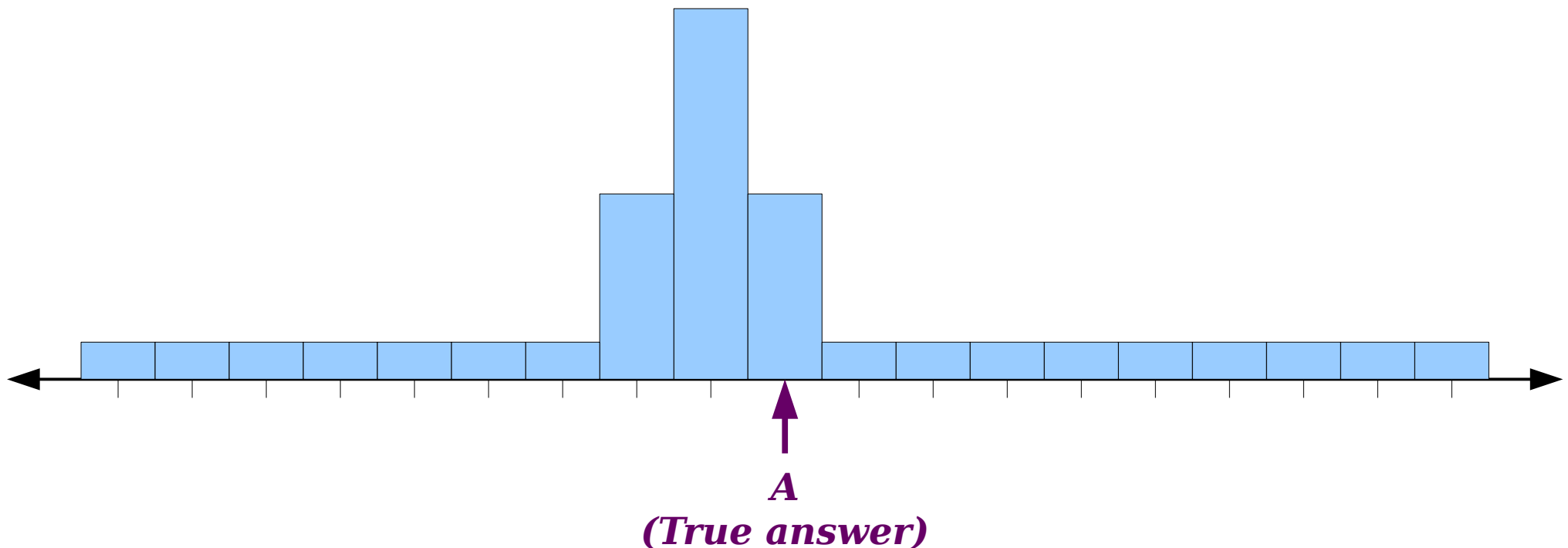
**Memory used: 32MB**



What does it mean for an approximation to be “good”?

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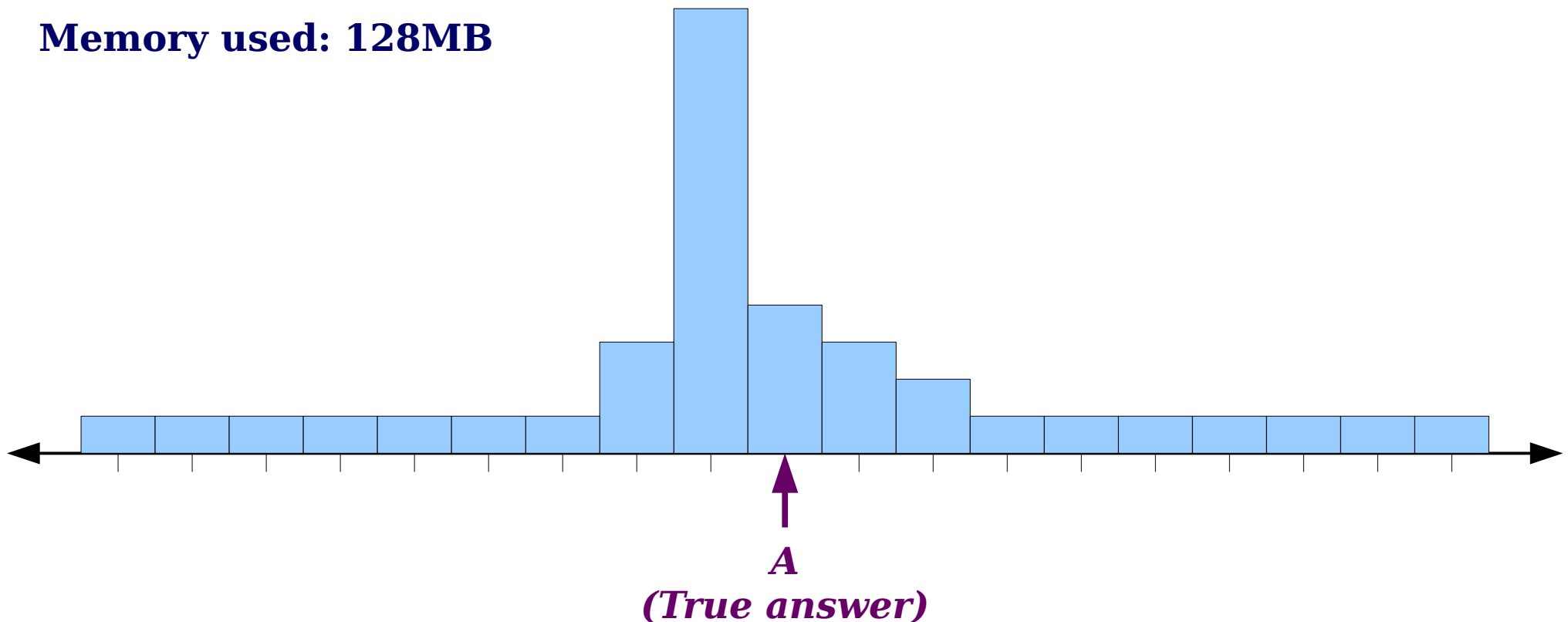
**Memory used: 64MB**



What does it mean for an approximation to be “good”?

Let  $A$  be the true answer. Let  $\hat{A}$  be a random variable denoting our estimate.

**Memory used: 128MB**



What does it mean for an approximation to be “good”?

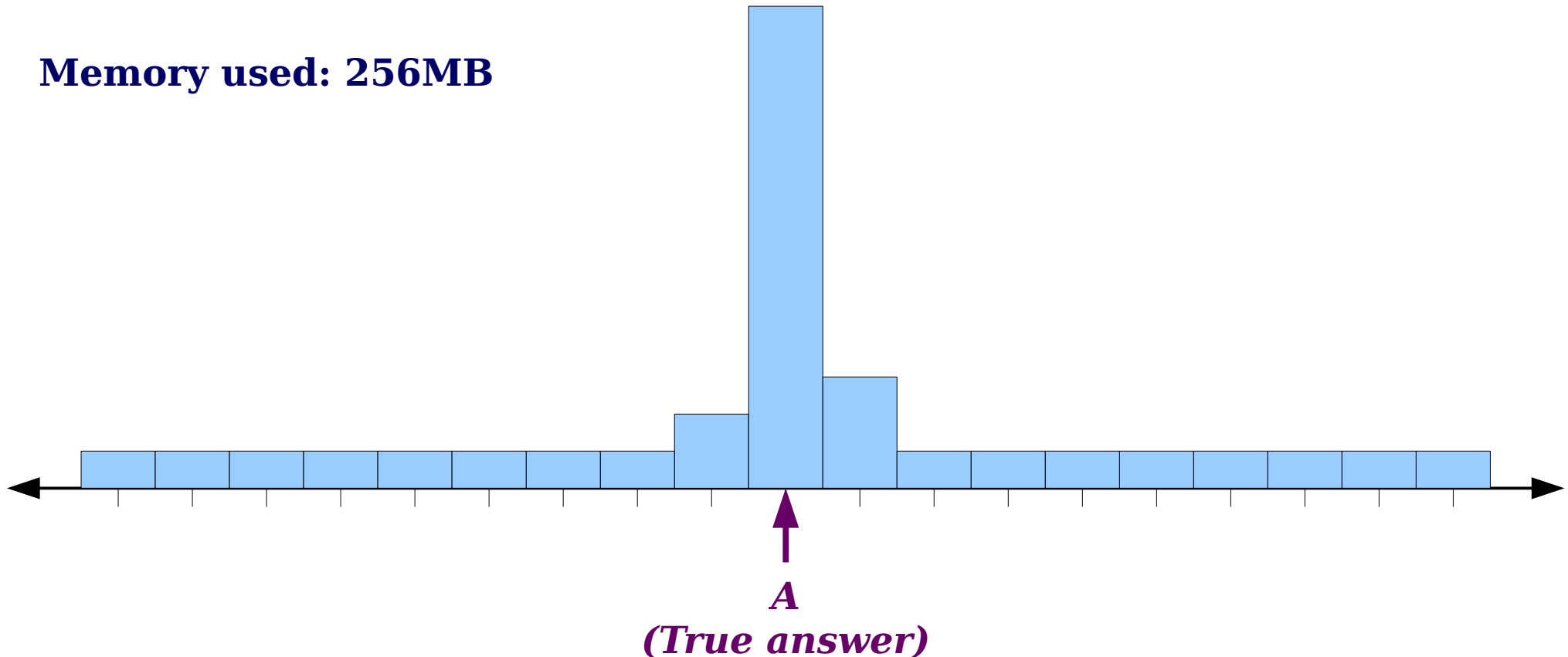


Let  $\mathbf{A}$  be the true answer. Let  $\hat{\mathbf{A}}$  be a random variable denoting our estimate.

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

**Observation 4:** A good approximation should be tunable.

**Memory used: 256MB**



What does it mean for an approximation to be “good”?

We have two user-provided values

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

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

where  $\varepsilon$  represents **accuracy** and  $\delta$  represents **confidence**.

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

With probability at least  $1 - \delta$ ,

$$|\hat{A} - A| \leq \varepsilon \cdot \text{size}(\text{input})$$

for some measure of the size of the input.

---

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**Approximately  
Correct**

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*Approximately Correct*

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$\delta = 1/2$   
 $\varepsilon$  small

---

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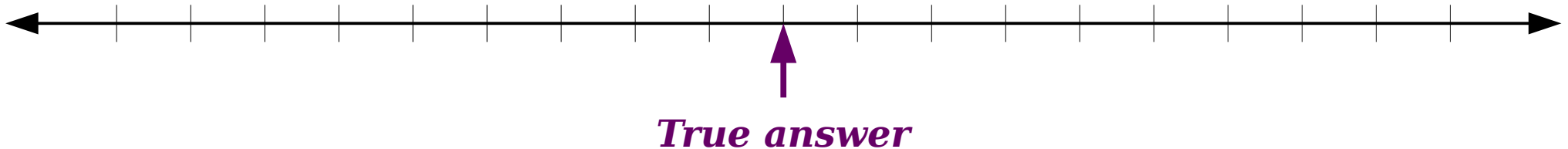
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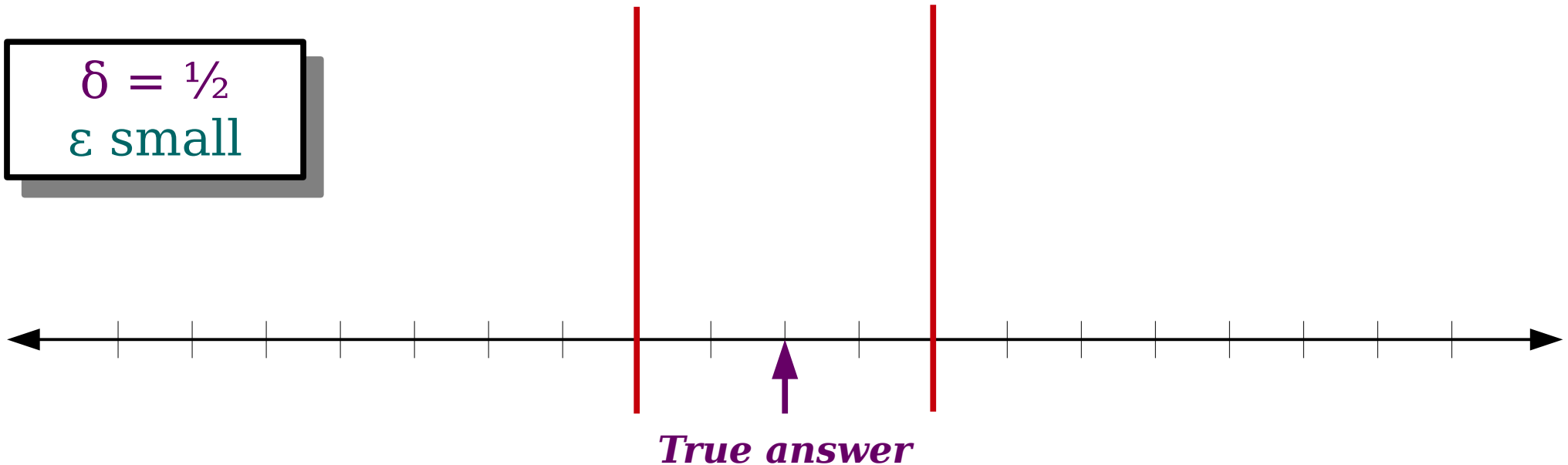
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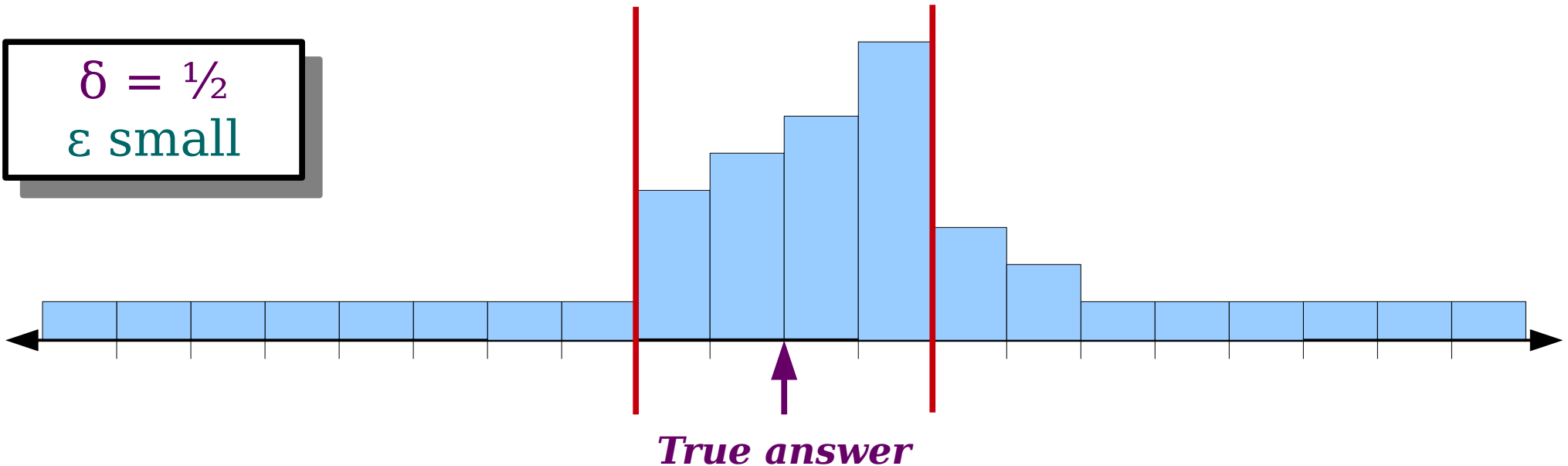
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$\delta = 1/2$   
 $\varepsilon$  small



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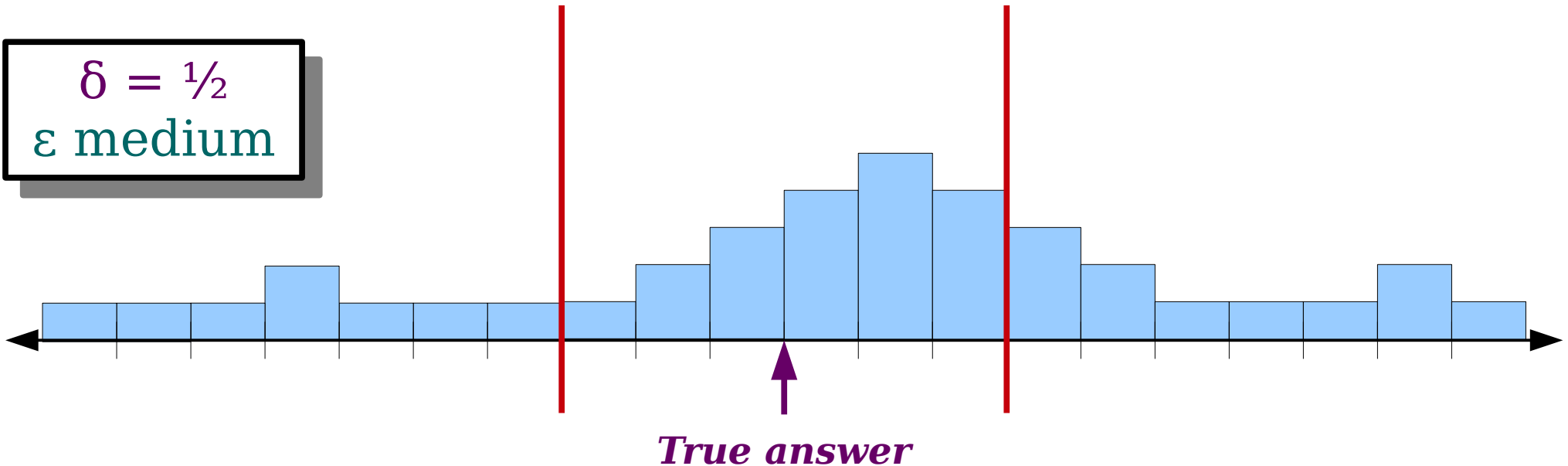
$$|A - \hat{A}| \leq \varepsilon \cdot \text{size}(\text{input})$$

*Probably*

*Approximately Correct*

for some measure of the size of the input.

$\delta = 1/2$   
 $\varepsilon$  medium



What does it mean for an approximation to be “good”?

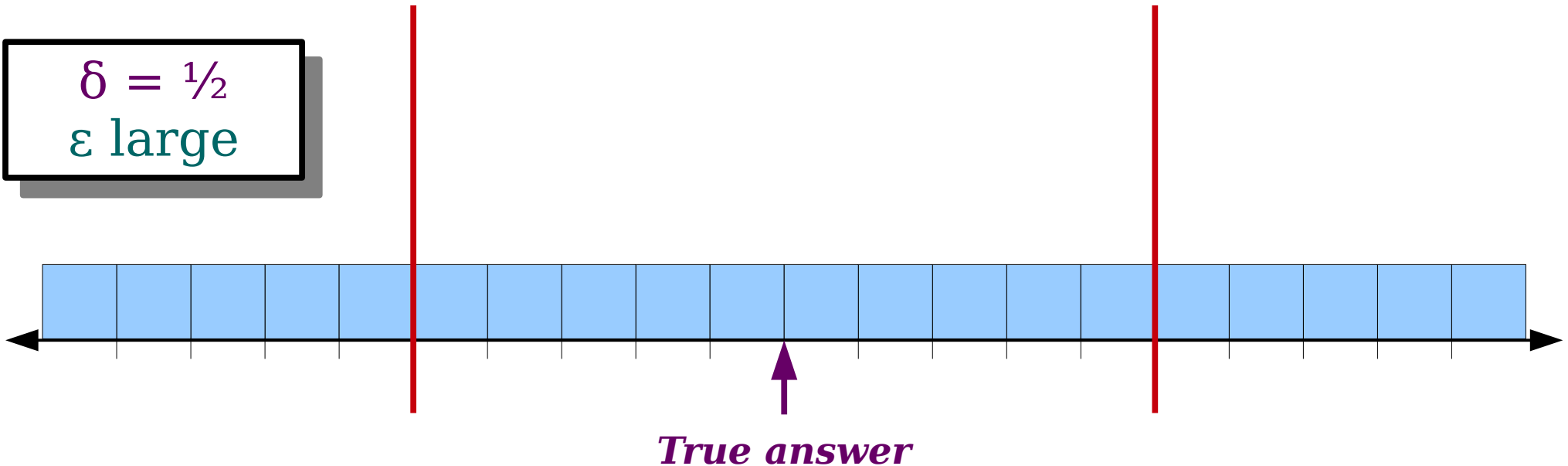
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$\delta = 1/2$   
 $\varepsilon$  large



What does it mean for an approximation to be “good”?

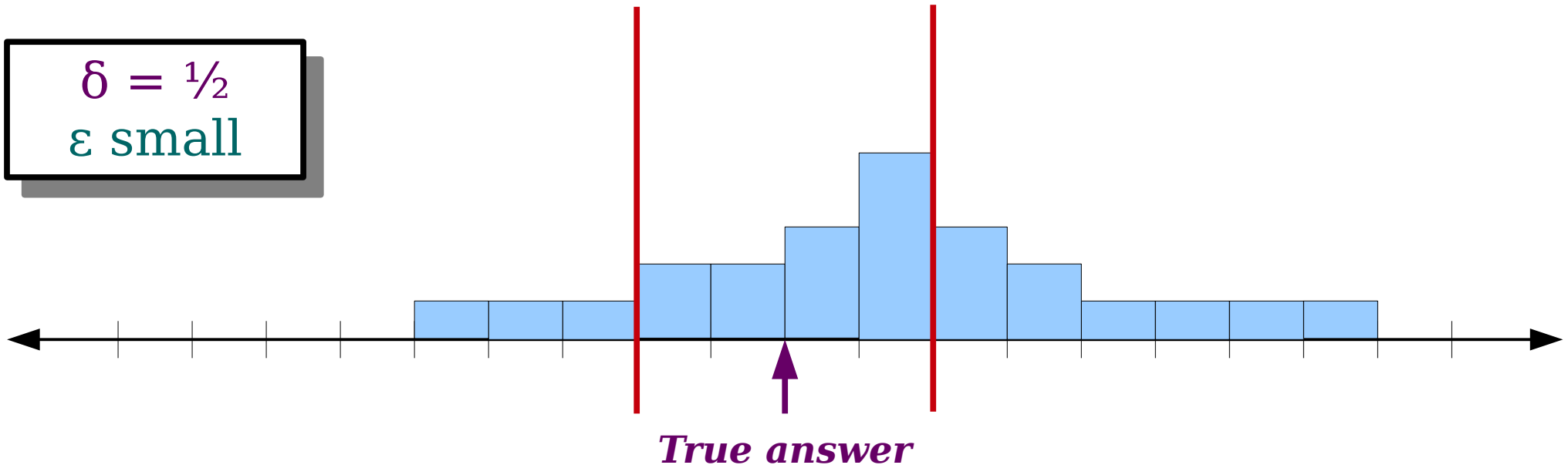
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*Probably*  
*Approximately Correct*

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$\delta = 1/2$   
 $\varepsilon$  small



What does it mean for an approximation to be “good”?

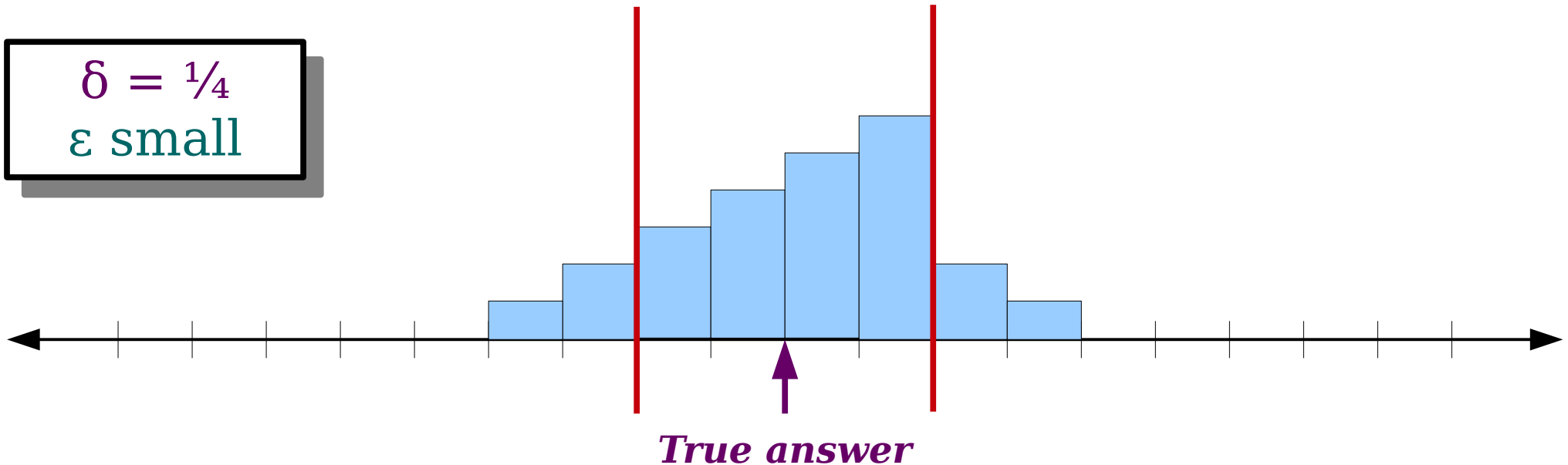
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*Probably*  
*Approximately Correct*

for some measure of the size of the input.

$\delta = 1/4$   
 $\varepsilon$  small



What does it mean for an approximation to be “good”?

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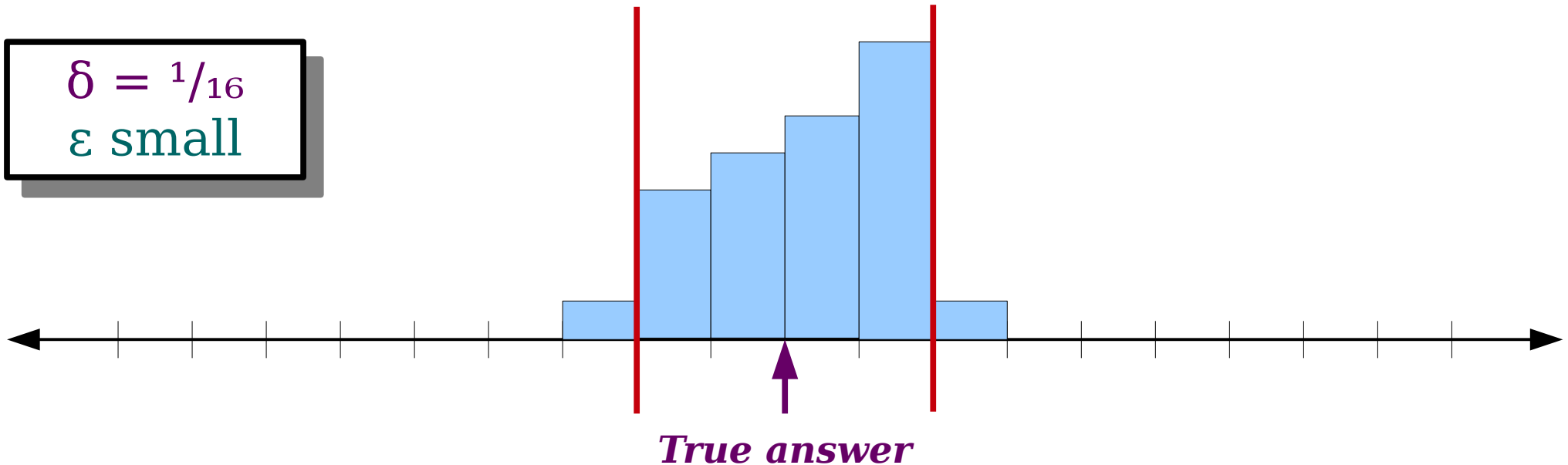
With probability at least  $1 - \delta$ ,  
 $|A - \hat{A}| \leq \varepsilon \cdot \text{size}(\text{input})$

*Probably*

*Approximately  
Correct*

for some measure of the size of the input.

$\delta = 1/16$   
 $\varepsilon$  small



What does it mean for an approximation to be “good”?

# 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

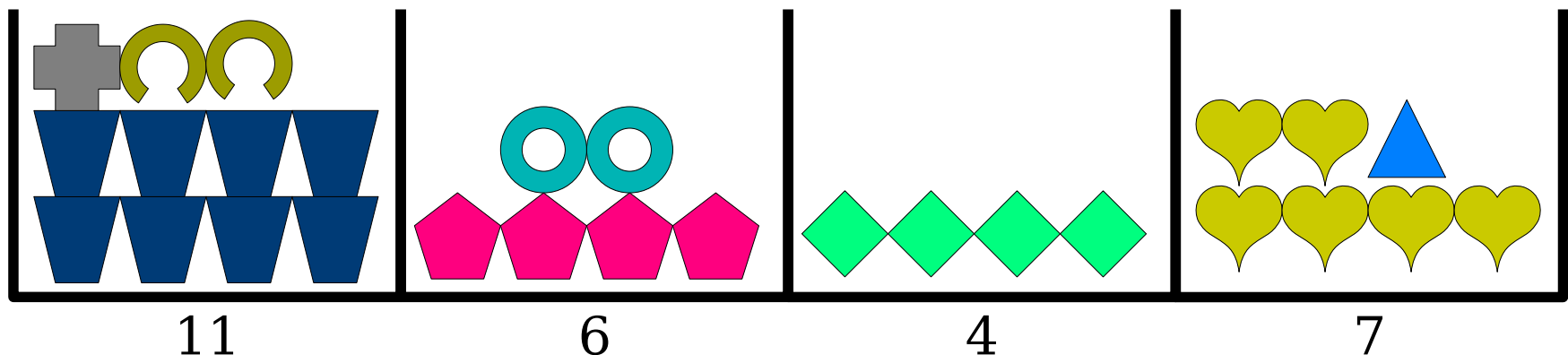
1. Design a simple data structure that, intuitively, gives you a good estimate.
2. Use a ***sum of indicator variables*** and ***linearity of expectation*** to prove that, on expectation, the data structure is pretty close to correct.
3. Use a ***concentration inequality*** to show that, with decent probability, 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.

# How to Build an Estimator

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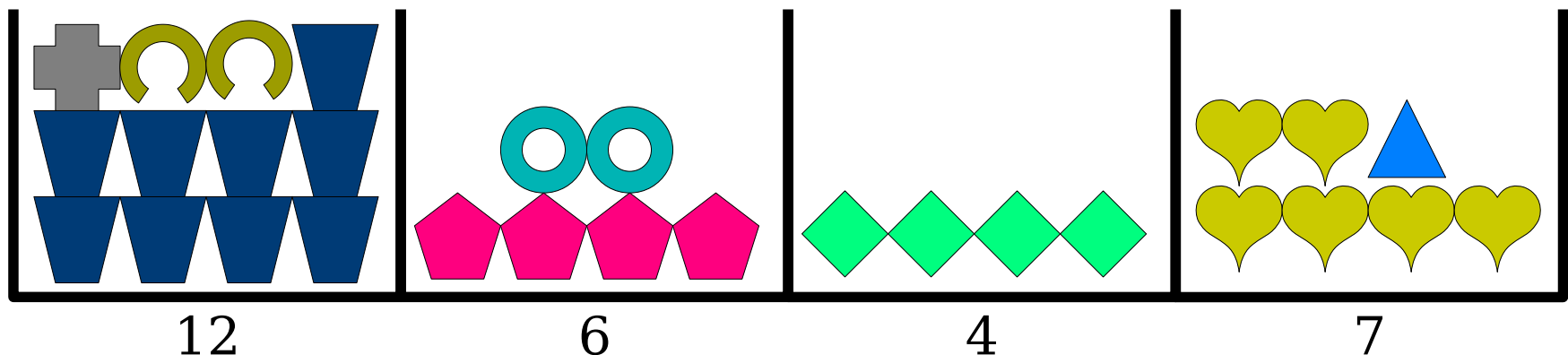
# Revisiting the Exact Solution

- 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  $x$ .



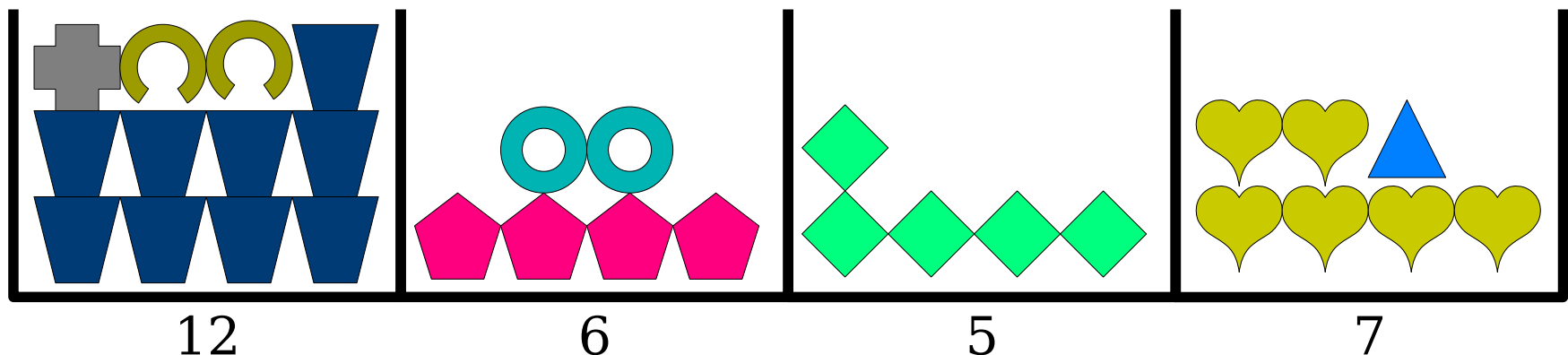
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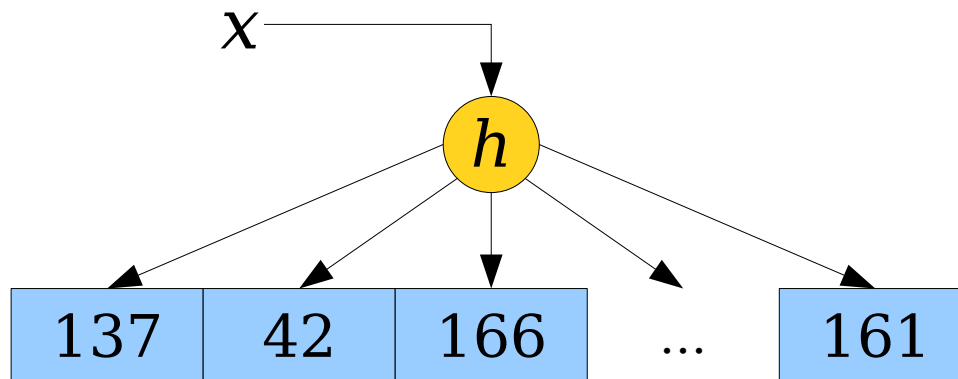
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# Our Initial Structure

- 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  $h : \mathcal{U} \rightarrow [w]$ .
- 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  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}_i$  denote our estimated value of the frequency of  $x_i$ .

**Goal:** Bound the probability that the error  $(\hat{\mathbf{a}}_i - \mathbf{a}_i)$  is too high.

**Idea:** Think of our element frequencies  $\mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{a}_2, \mathbf{a}_3, \dots$  as a vector

$$\mathbf{a} = [\mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{a}_2, \mathbf{a}_3, \dots].$$

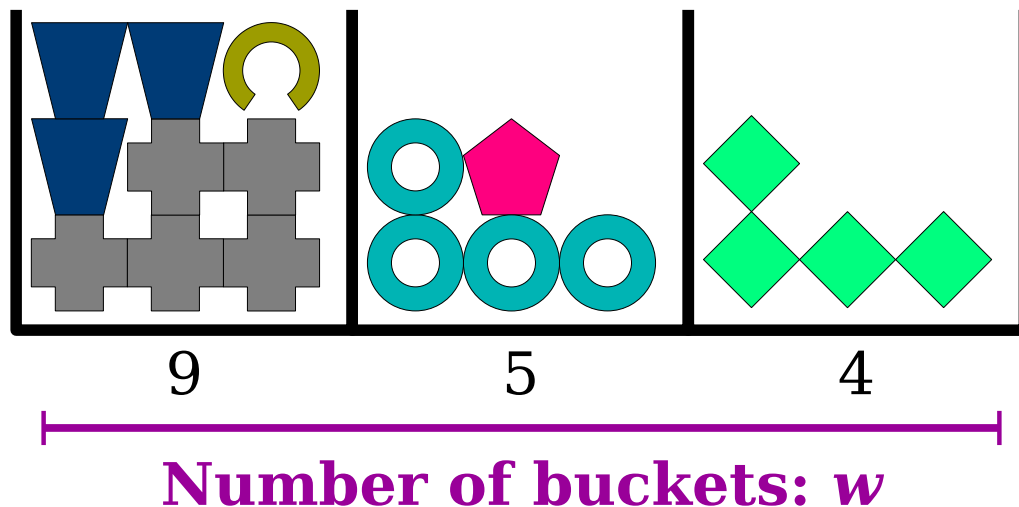
The total number of objects is the sum of the vector entries.

This is called the  **$L_1$  norm** of  $\mathbf{a}$ , and is denoted  $\|\mathbf{a}\|_1$ :

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

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

**Reasonable guess:** each bin has  $\|\mathbf{a}\|_1 / w$  elements in it, so

$$\hat{\mathbf{a}}_i - \mathbf{a}_i \leq \|\mathbf{a}\|_1 / w$$


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

# 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.
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# Analyzing this Structure

- Let's look at  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}_i = \text{count}[h(x_i)]$  for some choice of  $x_i$ .
- For each element  $x_j$ :
  - If  $h(x_i) = h(x_j)$ , then  $x_j$  contributes  $\mathbf{a}_j$  to  $\text{count}[h(x_i)]$ .
  - If  $h(x_i) \neq h(x_j)$ , then  $x_j$  contributes 0 to  $\text{count}[h(x_i)]$ .

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- To pin this down precisely, let's define a set of random variables  $X_1, X_2, \dots$ , as follows:

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



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

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

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

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

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}[\hat{\mathbf{a}}_i - \mathbf{a}_i] &= \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{j \neq i} \mathbf{a}_j X_j\right] \\ &= \sum_{j \neq i} \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{a}_j X_j]\end{aligned}$$

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

$$\mathbb{E}[\hat{\mathbf{a}}_i - \mathbf{a}_i] = \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{j \neq i} \mathbf{a}_j X_j\right]$$

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&= \sum_{j \neq i} \mathbf{a}_j \mathbb{E}[X_j]
\end{aligned}$$

The values of  $\mathbf{a}_j$  are not random. ***The randomness comes from our choice of hash function.***

$$\mathbb{E}[\hat{\mathbf{a}}_i - \mathbf{a}_i] = \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{j \neq i} \mathbf{a}_j X_j\right]$$

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$$\mathbb{E}[X_j] =$$

$$X_j = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } h(\mathbf{x}_i) = h(\mathbf{x}_j) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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&= \sum_{j \neq i} \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{a}_j X_j] \\
&= \sum_{j \neq i} \mathbf{a}_j \mathbb{E}[X_j]
\end{aligned}$$

---


$$\mathbb{E}[X_j] = 1 \cdot \Pr[h(\mathbf{x}_i) = h(\mathbf{x}_j)] + 0 \cdot \Pr[h(\mathbf{x}_i) \neq h(\mathbf{x}_j)]$$

$$X_j = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } h(\mathbf{x}_i) = h(\mathbf{x}_j) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E}[\hat{\mathbf{a}}_i - \mathbf{a}_i] &= \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{j \neq i} \mathbf{a}_j X_j\right] \\
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If  $X$  is an indicator variable for some event  $\mathcal{E}$ , then  **$\mathbb{E}[X] = \Pr[\mathcal{E}]$** . This is really useful when using linearity of expectation!

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# 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, with decent probability, 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.

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

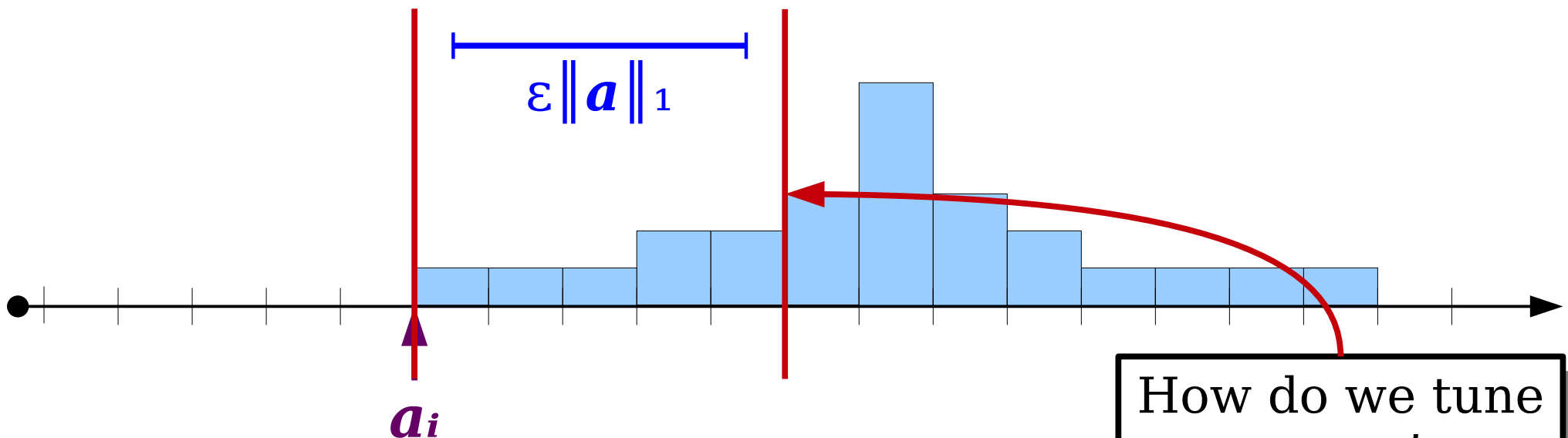
With probability at least  $1 - \delta$ ,

$$|\hat{\mathbf{a}} - \mathbf{a}| \leq \varepsilon \cdot \text{size}(\text{input})$$

*Probably*

*Approximately Correct*

for some measure of the size of the input.



How do we tune  $w$  so we're likely to fall in this range?

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

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



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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  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}_i - \mathbf{a}_i \geq 0$ .

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

$$\Pr[X \geq c] \leq \frac{\mathbb{E}[X]}{c}.$$

$$\Pr [\hat{\mathbf{a}}_i - \mathbf{a}_i > \varepsilon \|\mathbf{a}\|_1] \\ \leq \frac{\mathbb{E} [\hat{\mathbf{a}}_i - \mathbf{a}_i]}{\varepsilon \|\mathbf{a}\|_1}$$

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

$$\leq \frac{\mathbb{E} \left[ \hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_i - \boldsymbol{a}_i \right]}{\varepsilon \left\| \boldsymbol{a} \right\|_1}$$

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\end{aligned}$$

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

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Suppose we're counting 1,000 distinct items.

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

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

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

**Can we do better?**

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

**Revised Idea:** Pick  $w = e \cdot \varepsilon^{-1}$ . Then

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

We could choose  $w = k \cdot \varepsilon^{-1}$  for any constant  $k$  to get a failure probability of at most  $k^{-1}$ . The choice of  $e$  is (mostly) arbitrary.

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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 run ***d*** copies of our data structure in parallel with one another.
- Each row has its hash function sampled uniformly at random from our hash family.
- Each time we ***increment*** an item, we perform the corresponding ***increment*** operation on each row.

$w = \lceil e \cdot \varepsilon^{-1} \rceil$

$h_1$	31	41	59	26	53	...	58
$h_2$	27	18	28	18	28	...	45
$h_3$	16	18	3	39	88	...	75
...	...						
$h_d$	69	31	47	18	5	...	59

$d = p$

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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



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Now, *private chat me your best guess*. Not sure? Just answer “??”.

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**Intuition:** The smallest estimate returned has the least “noise,” and that’s the best guess for the frequency.

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Let  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}_{ij}$  be the  
estimate from the  
 $j$ th copy of the data  
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Our final estimate is  
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Each copy of the data structure is independent of the others.

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&= \Pr \left[ \bigwedge_{j=1}^d \left( \hat{\mathbf{a}}_{ij} - \mathbf{a}_i > \varepsilon \|\mathbf{a}\|_1 \right) \right] \\
&= \prod_{j=1}^d \Pr [\hat{\mathbf{a}}_{ij} - \mathbf{a}_i > \varepsilon \|\mathbf{a}\|_1]
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&= \Pr \left[ \bigwedge_{j=1}^d \left( \hat{\mathbf{a}}_{ij} - \mathbf{a}_i > \varepsilon \|\mathbf{a}\|_1 \right) \right] \\
&= \prod_{j=1}^d \Pr [\hat{\mathbf{a}}_{ij} - \mathbf{a}_i > \varepsilon \|\mathbf{a}\|_1]
\end{aligned}$$

Let  $\hat{\mathbf{a}}_{ij}$  be the estimate from the  $j$ th copy of the data structure.

Our final estimate is  $\min \{ \hat{\mathbf{a}}_{ij} \}$

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

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

*Probably*  
*Approximately Correct*

for some measure of input size.

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

**Idea:** Choose  $d = -\ln \delta$ .

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

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

# The Count-Min Sketch

$$w = \lceil e \cdot \varepsilon^{-1} \rceil$$

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$h_1$	31	41	59	26	53	...	58
$h_2$	27	18	28	18	28	...	45
$h_3$	16	18	3	39	88	...	75
...	...						
$h_d$	69	31	47	18	5	...	59

$d = \lceil \ln \delta^{-1} \rceil$

Sampled uniformly and independently from a 2-independent family of hash functions

# The Count-Min Sketch

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

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# The Count-Min Sketch

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

# Major Ideas From Today

- ***2-independent hash families*** are useful when we want to keep collisions low.
- A “good” approximation of some quantity should have tunable ***confidence*** and ***accuracy*** parameters.
- ***Sums of indicator variables*** are useful for deriving expected values of estimators.
- ***Concentration inequalities*** like ***Markov's inequality*** are useful for showing estimators don't stay too much from their expected values.
- Good estimators can be built from multiple parallel copies of weaker estimators.

# Next Time

- ***Count Sketches***
  - An alternative frequency estimator with different time/space bounds.
- ***Cardinality Estimation***
  - Estimating how many different items you've seen in a data stream.