# Hashing and Sketching <br> Part One 

## Randomized Data Structures

- Randomization is a powerful tool for improving efficiency and solving problems under seemingly impossible constraints.
- Over the next three lectures, we'll explore a sampler of data structures that give a feel for the breadth of what's out there.
- You can easily spend an entire academic career just exploring this space; take CS265 for more on randomized algorithms!


## Where We're Going

- Hashing and Sketching (Thursday/ Tuesday)
- Using hash functions to count without counting.
- Cuckoo Hashing (Next Thursday)
- Hashing with worst-case O(1) lookups, along with a splash of random hypergraph theory.


## Outline for Today

- Hash Functions
- Understanding our basic building blocks.
- Frequency Estimation
- Estimating how many times we've seen something.
- Probabilistic Techniques
- Standard but powerful tools for reasoning about randomized data structures.


## 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 थ) to some codomain.
- The codomain is usually a set of the form

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

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

## 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 $\mathscr{H}$ 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 $\mathscr{H}$.
- 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 $\mathscr{H}$ a "good" family of hash functions?

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


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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.

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


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

## Answer at

 https://pollev.com/cs166spr23

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

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

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


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

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

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

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


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Question: Where did these elements collide with one another?

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

## Intuition:

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


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\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \begin{array}{l}
y \\
y \\
x
\end{array} \\
& \begin{array}{|l|l|l|l|l|}
\hline & & & & \\
\hline 0 & 1 & 2 & \ldots & m-1 \\
\hline
\end{array}
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| $y$ |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $x$ |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | $\ldots$ | $\mathrm{~m}-1$ |

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

## 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 $\mathrm{O}(\log n)$ costs on the operations.
- Using hash tables, we can solve this in space $\Theta(n)$ with expected $\mathrm{O}(1)$ 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



## 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 $x \in \mathscr{U}$. Multiple objects 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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## Our Initial Structure

- Create an array of counters, all initially 0, called count. It will have $w$ elements for some $w$ we choose later.
- Choose, from a family of 2-independent hash functions $\mathscr{H}$, a uniformly-random hash function $h: \mathscr{U} \rightarrow[w]$.
- To increment( $x$ ), increment count[ $h(x)$ ].
- To estimate( $x$ ), return count[h(x)].



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## How to Build an Estimator



## Some Notation

- Let $\chi_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, \ldots$ denote the list of distinct items whose frequencies are being stored.
- Let $\boldsymbol{a}_{1}, \boldsymbol{a}_{2}, \boldsymbol{a}_{3}, \ldots$ denote the frequencies of those items.
- e.g. $\boldsymbol{a}_{i}$ is the true number of times $x_{i}$ is seen.
- Let $\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{1}, \hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{2}, \hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{3}, \ldots$ denote the estimate our data structure gives for the frequency of each item.
- e.g. $\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{i}$ is our estimate for how many times $\chi_{i}$ has been seen.
- Important detail: the $\boldsymbol{a}_{i}$ values are not random variables (data are chosen adversarially), while the $\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{i}$ values are random variables (they depend on a randomly-sampled hash function).
- In what follows, imagine we're querying the frequency of some specific element $x_{i}$. We want to analyze $\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{i}$.


## Analyzing our Estimator

- We're interested in learning more about $\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{i}$. A good first step is to work out $\mathrm{E}\left[\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{i}\right]$.
- $\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{i}$ will be equal to $\boldsymbol{a}_{i}$, plus some "noise" terms from colliding elements.
- Each of those elements is very unlikely to collide with us, though. (There's a ${ }^{1 / w}$ chance of a collision for any one other element.)
- Reasonable guess: $\mathrm{E}\left[\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{i}\right]=\boldsymbol{a}_{i}+\sum_{j \neq i} \frac{\boldsymbol{a}_{j}}{w}$



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Frequency of each other item, scaled to account for chance of a collision.


## Making Things Formal

- Let's make this more rigorous.
- For each element $\chi_{j}$ :
- If $h\left(x_{i}\right)=h\left(x_{j}\right)$, then $\chi_{j}$ contributes $\boldsymbol{a}_{j}$ to count $\left[h\left(x_{i}\right)\right]$.
- If $h\left(x_{i}\right) \neq h\left(x_{j}\right)$, then $x_{j}$ contributes 0 to count $\left[h\left(x_{i}\right)\right]$.


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- To pin this down precisely, let's define a set of random variables $X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots$, as follows:

$$
X_{j}= \begin{cases}1 & \text { if } h\left(x_{i}\right)=h\left(x_{j}\right) \\ 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 $\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{i}-\boldsymbol{a}_{i}$ is then given by

$$
\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{i}-\boldsymbol{a}_{i}=\sum_{j \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_{j} X_{j}
$$

$\mathrm{E}\left[\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{i}-\boldsymbol{a}_{i}\right]=\mathrm{E}\left[\sum_{j \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_{j} X_{j}\right]$

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

$$
\begin{aligned}
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The values of $\boldsymbol{a}_{j}$ are not random. The randomness comes from our choice of hash function.

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& =\sum_{j \neq i} \boldsymbol{a}_{j} \mathrm{E}\left[X_{j}\right]
\end{aligned}
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$$
\mathrm{E}\left[X_{j}\right]=1 \cdot \operatorname{Pr}\left[h\left(x_{i}\right)=h\left(x_{j}\right)\right]+0 \cdot \operatorname{Pr}\left[h\left(x_{i}\right) \neq h\left(x_{j}\right)\right]
$$

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

0 otherwise

$$
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\end{aligned}
$$

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

$$
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Idea: Think of our element frequencies
$\boldsymbol{a}_{1}, \boldsymbol{a}_{2}, \boldsymbol{a}_{3}, \ldots$ as a vector $\boldsymbol{a}=\left[\boldsymbol{a}_{1}, \boldsymbol{a}_{2}, \boldsymbol{a}_{3}, \ldots\right]$

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

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

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\|\boldsymbol{a}\|_{1}=\sum_{i}|\boldsymbol{a}|
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## How to Build an Estimator



## On Expected Values

- We know that $E\left[\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{i}-\boldsymbol{a}_{i}\right] \leq\|\boldsymbol{a}\|_{1} / w$. This means that the expected overestimate is low.
- Claim: This fact, in isolation, is not very useful.
- Below is a probability distribution for a random variable whose expected value is 9 that never takes values near 9 .
- If this is the sort of distribution we get for $\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{i}$, then our estimator is not very useful!



## On Expected Values

- We're looking for a way to say something like the following:
"Not only is our estimate's expected value pretty close to the real value, our estimate has a high probability of being close to the real value."
- In other words, if the true frequency is 9 , we want the distribution of our estimate to kinda sorta look like this:

If the true frequency is 9 , why isn't there any probability mass below 9 ?

Answer at
https://pollev.com/cs166spr23

## On Expected Values

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"Not only is our estimate's expected value pretty close to the real value, our estimate has a high probability of being close to the real value."
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## How Close is Close?

- In some applications, we might be okay overshooting by a larger amount (e.g. roughly estimating which restaurants people are visiting).
- In others, it's really bad if we overestimate by too much (e.g. polling for an election).
- Idea: Allow the client of the estimator to pick some value $\varepsilon$ between 0 and 1 indicating how close they want to be to the true value. The closer $\varepsilon$ is to 0 , the better the approximation we want.



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## How Close is Close?

- Our overestimate is related to $\|\boldsymbol{a}\|_{1}$.
- We'll formalize how $\varepsilon$ works as follows: we'll say we're okay with any estimate that's within $\varepsilon\|a\|_{1}$ of the true value.
- This is okay for high-frequency elements, but not so great for low-frequency elements. (Why?)
- But that's okay. In practice, we are most interested in finding the high-frequency items.



## Making Things Formal

- We know that

$$
\mathrm{E}\left[\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{i}-\boldsymbol{a}_{i}\right] \leq \frac{\|\boldsymbol{a}\|_{1}}{w}
$$

- We want to bound this quantity:

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

- Let's run the numbers!


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

$$
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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 $\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{i}-\boldsymbol{a}_{i} \geq 0$.

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

$$
\operatorname{Pr}[X \geq c] \leq \frac{\mathrm{E}[X]}{c}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Pr}\left[\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{i}-\boldsymbol{a}_{i}>\varepsilon\|\boldsymbol{a}\|_{1}\right] \\
\leq & \frac{\mathrm{E}\left[\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{i}-\boldsymbol{a}_{i}\right]}{\varepsilon\|\boldsymbol{a}\|_{1}}
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= & \frac{1}{\varepsilon w}
\end{aligned}
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## Interpreting this Result

- Here's what we just proved:

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

- What does this tell us?
- Increasing $w$ decreases the chance of an overestimate. Decreasing $w$ increases the chance of an overestimate.
- As the user decreases $\varepsilon$, we have to proportionally increase $w$ for this bound to tell us anything useful.
- Idea: Choose $w=e \cdot \varepsilon^{-1}$.
- The choice of $e$ is "somewhat" arbitrary in that any constant will work - but I peeked ahead and there's a good reason to choose $e$ here.


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## The Story So Far

- The user chooses a value $\varepsilon \in(0,1)$. We pick $w=e \cdot \varepsilon^{-1}$.
- Create an array count of $w$ counters, each initially zero.
- Choose, from a family of 2-independent hash functions $\mathscr{H}$, a uniformly-random hash function $h: \mathscr{U} \rightarrow[w]$.
- To increment( $x$ ), increment count[h(x)].
- To estimate ( $x$ ), return count[ $h(x)$ ].
- With probability at least $1-\frac{1}{e} e$, the estimate for the frequency of item $\chi_{i}$ is within $\varepsilon \cdot\|a\|_{1}$ of the true frequency.



## How to Build an Estimator



## The Story So Far

- We now have a simple estimator where

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

- This means we have a decent chance of getting an estimate we're happy with.
- Problem: We probably want to be more confident than this.
- In some applications, maybe it's okay to have a 63\% success rate.
- In others (say, election polling) we'll need to be a lot more confident than this.
- Question: How do you define "confident enough"?


## The Parameter $\delta$

- The user already can select a parameter $\varepsilon$ tuning the accuracy of the estimator: how close we want to be to the true value.
- Let's have them also select a parameter $\delta$ tuning the confidence of the estimator: how likely it is that we achieve this goal.
- $\delta$ ranges from 0 to 1 . Lower $\delta$ means a higher chance of getting a good estimate.



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## Our Goal

- Right now, we have this statement:

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

- We want to get to this one:

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

- How might we achieve this?


## A Key Technique

It's super unlikely that you'll miss the center of the target every
 single time!

## 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.

|  | $w=\left\lceil e \cdot \varepsilon^{-1}\right\rceil$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $h_{1}$ | 31 | 41 | 59 | 26 | 53 | $\ldots$ | 58 |
| $h_{2}$ | 27 | 18 | 28 | 18 | 28 | ... | 45 |
| $h_{3}$ | 16 | 18 | 3 | 39 | 88 | ... | 75 |
| ... | ... |  |  |  |  |  |  |
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| $h_{1}$ | 32 | 41 | 59 | 26 | 53 | $\ldots$ | 58 |
| $h_{2}$ | 27 | 18 | 29 | 18 | 28 | $\ldots$ | 45 |
| $h_{3}$ | 16 | 18 | 3 | 40 | 88 | $\ldots$ | 75 |
| ... | ... |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $h_{d}$ | 69 | 31 | 47 | 18 | 5 | $\ldots$ | 60 |

## Running in Parallel

- 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?

Answer at
https://pollev.com/cs166spr23


Estimator 5:
261

## Running in Parallel

- 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?


Estimator 5:
261

## Running in Parallel

- Imagine we call estimate( $x$ ) on each of our estimators and get back these estimates.
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Estimator 5:
261

## Running in Parallel

- 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 aggr Intuition: The smallest into a single estimate?
estimate returned has the least "noise," and that's the best guess for the frequency.


Estimator 5:
261

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left[\min \left\{\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{i j}\right\}-\boldsymbol{a}_{i}>\varepsilon\|\boldsymbol{a}\|_{1}\right]
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Let $\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{i j}$ be the estimate from the $j$ th copy of the data structure.

Our final estimate is $\min \left\{\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{i j}\right\}$

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

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

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

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

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& \operatorname{Pr}\left[\min \left\{\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{i j}\right\}-\boldsymbol{a}_{i}>\varepsilon\|\boldsymbol{a}\|_{1}\right] \\
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> Each copy of the data structure is independent of the others.

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\operatorname{Pr}\left[\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{i}-\boldsymbol{a}_{i} \geq \varepsilon\|\boldsymbol{a}\|_{1}\right] \leq e^{-1}
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& \quad \begin{array}{c}
\text { Let } \hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{i j} \text { be the } \\
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j \text { th copy of the data } \\
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\end{array}
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\end{array}
\end{array}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Finishing Touches

- We now see that

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left[\hat{\boldsymbol{a}}_{i}-\boldsymbol{a}_{i}>\varepsilon\|\boldsymbol{a}\|_{1}\right] \leq e^{-d}
$$

- We want to reach this goal:

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

- So set $\boldsymbol{d}=\ln \boldsymbol{\delta}^{-1}$.


## The Count-Min Sketch

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

| $h_{1}$ |
| :---: |
| $h_{2}$ |
| $h_{3}$ |
| $\ldots$ |
| $h_{d}$ |


| 31 | 41 | 59 | 26 | 53 | $\ldots$ | 58 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 27 | 18 | 28 | 18 | 28 | $\ldots$ | 45 |
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| $\ldots$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 69 | 31 | 47 | 18 | 5 | $\ldots$ | 59 |

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

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)]++
```


## The Count-Min Sketch

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estimate(x):
    result = \infty
    for i = 1 ... d:
        result = min(result, count[i][hi(x)])
    return result
```


## The Count-Min Sketch

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## The Count-Min Sketch

- Update and query times are $\Theta$ ( $\log \delta^{-1}$ ).
- That's the number of replicated copies, and we do $O(1)$ work at each.
- Space usage: $\Theta\left(\varepsilon^{-1} \cdot \log \delta^{-1}\right)$ counters.
- Each individual estimator has $\Theta\left(\varepsilon^{-1}\right)$ counters, and we run $\Theta\left(\log \delta^{-1}\right)$ copies in parallel.
- Provides an estimate to within $\varepsilon\|\boldsymbol{a}\|_{1}$ with probability at least 1 - $\delta$.
- This can be significantly better than just storing a raw frequency count - especially if your goal is to find items that appear very frequently.


## How to Build an Estimator

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

## 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.

