

**Caveat Lector:** This is an early draft version of these notes, which omit many details and are certain to contain bugs.

*Casus ubique valet; semper tibi pendeat hamus:*

*Quo minime credas gurgite, piscis erit.*

*[Luck affects everything. Let your hook always be cast.*

*Where you least expect it, there will be a fish.]*

— Publius Ovidius Naso [Ovid], *Ars Amatoria*, Book III (2 AD)

*There is no sense being precise*

*when you don't even know what you're talking about.*

— Attributed to John von Neumann

## 12½ Extensions and Variants of Hashing



Introduce “Monte Carlo” randomized algorithms: always fast, but small probability of incorrect output. Previous randomized algorithms are “Las Vegas”: always correct, but small probability of being slow. More generally we are interested in *tradeoffs* between the (expected) running time of the algorithm and the probability that the algorithm is incorrect.

(The adjectives “Las Vegas” and “Monte Carlo” are now found almost exclusively in textbooks. According to Wikipedia, a few authors have also studied “Atlantic City” algorithms, which are both probably fast and probably correct, but I have never seen the phrase “Atlantic City algorithm” in the wild, except as a joke.)

Specifically, we introduce a **false positive rate**  $\delta$  and analyze the running time required to guarantee the output is correct with probability  $1 - \delta$ . For “high probability” correctness, we need  $\delta < 1/n^c$  for some constant  $c$ . In practice, it may be sufficient (or even necessary) to set  $\delta$  to a small constant; for example, setting  $\delta = 1/1000$  means the algorithm will be correct 99.9% of the time.

### 12½.1 Bloom Filters

Bloom filters are a natural variant of hashing first proposed by Burton Bloom in 1970 as a mechanism for supporting membership queries in sets. Specifically, a Bloom filter for a set  $X$  of  $n$  items from some universe  $\mathcal{U}$  allows one to test whether a given item  $x \in \mathcal{U}$  is an element of  $X$ . Of course we can already do this with hash tables in  $O(1)$  expected time, using  $O(n)$  space. Bloom observed that by allowing false positives—occasionally reporting  $x \in X$  when in fact  $x \notin X$ —we can still answer queries in  $O(1)$  expected time using considerably less space. False positives make Bloom filters unsuitable as an exact membership data structure, but because of their speed and low false positive rate, they are commonly used as filters or sanity checks for more complex data structures.

A Bloom filter consists of an array  $B[0..m-1]$  of bits, together with  $k$  hash functions  $h_1, h_2, \dots, h_k: \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \{0, 1, \dots, m-1\}$ . For purposes of theoretical analysis, we assume the hash functions  $h_i$  are mutually independent, ideal random functions. This assumption is of course unsupportable in practice, but may be necessary to guarantee theoretical performance. Unlike many other types of hashing, nobody knows whether the same theoretical guarantees can be achieved using practical hash functions with more limited independence.<sup>1</sup> Fortunately, the actual

<sup>1</sup>PhD thesis, anyone?

real-world behavior of Bloom filters appears to be consistent with this unrealistic theoretical analysis.

A Bloom filter for a set  $X = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$  is initialized by setting the bit  $B[h_j(x_i)]$  to 1 for all indices  $i$  and  $j$ . Because of collisions, some bits may be set more than once, but that's fine.

```

MAKEBLOOMFILTER( $X$ ):
  for  $h \leftarrow 0$  to  $m - 1$ 
     $B[h] \leftarrow 0$ 
  for  $i \leftarrow 1$  to  $n$ 
    for  $j \leftarrow 1$  to  $k$ 
       $B[h_j(x_i)] \leftarrow 1$ 
  return  $B$ 

```

Given a new item  $y$ , the Bloom filter determines whether  $y \in X$  by checking each bit  $B[h_j(y)]$ . If any of those bits is 0, the Bloom filter correctly reports that  $y \notin X$ . However, if all bits are 1, the Bloom filter reports that  $y \in X$ , although this is not necessarily correct.

```

BLOOMMEMBERSHIP( $B, y$ ):
  for  $j \leftarrow 1$  to  $k$ 
    if  $B[h_j(y)] = 0$ 
      return FALSE
  return MAYBE

```

One nice feature of Bloom filters is that the various hash functions  $h_i$  can be evaluated in parallel on a multicore machine.

## 12½.2 False Positive Rate

Let's estimate the probability of a false positive, as a function of the various parameters  $n$ ,  $m$ , and  $k$ . For all indices  $h$ ,  $i$ , and  $j$ , we have  $\Pr[h_j(x_i) = h] = 1/m$ , so ideal randomness gives us

$$\Pr[B[h] = 0] = \left(1 - \frac{1}{m}\right)^{kn} \approx e^{-kn/m}$$

for every index  $h$ . Using this exact probability is rather unwieldy; to keep things sane, we will use the close approximation  $p := e^{-kn/m}$  instead.

The expected number of 0-bits in the Bloom filter is approximately  $mp$ ; moreover, Chernoff bounds imply that the number of 0-bits is close to  $mp$  with very high probability. Thus, the probability of a false positive is very close<sup>2</sup> to

$$(1 - p)^k = (1 - e^{-kn/m})^k.$$

If all other parameters are held constant, then the false positive rate increases with  $n$  (the number of items) and decreases with  $m$  (the number of bits). The dependence on  $k$  (the number of hash functions) is a bit more complicated, but we can derive the best value of  $k$  for given  $n$  and  $m$  as follows. Consider the logarithm of the false-positive rate:

$$\ln((1 - p)^k) = k \ln(1 - p) = -\frac{m}{n} \ln p \ln(1 - p).$$

By symmetry, this expression is minimized when  $p = 1/2$ . We conclude that, the optimal number of hash functions is  $k = \ln 2 \cdot (m/n)$ , which would give us the false positive rate

<sup>2</sup>This analysis, originally due to Bloom, assumes that certain events are independent even though they are not; as a result, the estimate given here is slightly below the true false positive rate.

$(1/2)^{-\ln 2(m/n)} \approx (0.61850)^{m/n}$ . Of course, in practice,  $k$  must be an integer, so we cannot achieve precisely this rate, but we can get reasonably close (at least if  $m \gg n$ ).

Finally, the previous analysis implies that we can achieve any desired false positive rate  $\delta > 0$  using a Bloom filter of size

$$m = \left\lceil \frac{\lg(1/\delta)}{\ln 2} n \right\rceil = \Theta(n \log(1/\delta))$$

that uses with  $k = \lceil \lg(1/\delta) \rceil$  hash functions. For example, we can achieve a 1% false-positive rate using a Bloom filter of size  $10n$  bits with 7 hash functions; in practice, this is *considerably* fewer bits than we would need to store all the elements of  $S$  explicitly. With a  $32n$ -bit table (equivalent to one integer per item) and 22 hash functions, we get a false positive rate of just over  $2 \cdot 10^{-7}$ .

### 12½.3 Stream Processing



Write this; keep it short and simple. Only explicitly consider the simplest model where items arrive one at a time. Maybe mention cash registers and turnstiles in passing.

### 12½.4 Estimating Distinct Items



Write this. AMS estimator:  $2^{z+1/2}$  where  $z = \max\{\text{zeros}(x) \mid x \in S\}$ . Median amplification. Maaaybe discuss the BJKST estimator.

### 12½.5 The Count-Min Sketch

The data structure consists of a  $w \times d$  array of counters (all initially zero) and  $d$  hash functions, which remarkably only need to be 2-universal, not ideal random.

CMINCREMENT( $x$ ):

```
for  $i \leftarrow 1$  to  $d$ 
   $j \leftarrow h_i(x)$ 
   $\text{Count}[i, j] \leftarrow \text{Count}[i, j] + 1$ 
```

CMESTIMATE( $x$ ):

```
 $est \leftarrow \infty$ 
for  $i \leftarrow 1$  to  $d$ 
   $j \leftarrow h_i(x)$ 
   $est \leftarrow \min\{est, \text{Count}[i, j]\}$ 
return  $est$ 
```

If we set  $w := \lceil e/\epsilon \rceil$  and  $d := \lceil \ln(1/\delta) \rceil$ , then the data structure uses  $O(\frac{1}{\epsilon} \log \frac{1}{\delta})$  space and processes updates and queries in  $O(\log \frac{1}{\delta})$  time.

Let  $f_x$  be the true frequency (number of occurrences) of  $x$ , and let  $\hat{f}_x$  be the value returned by CMESTIMATE. It is easy to see that  $f \leq \hat{f}_x$ ; we can never return a value smaller than the actual number of occurrences of  $x$ . We claim that  $\Pr[\hat{f}_x > f + \epsilon N] < \delta$ , where  $N$  is the total number of calls to CMINCREMENT. In other words, our estimate is never too small, and with high probability, it isn't a significant overestimate either. (Notice that the error here is additive; the estimates or truly infrequent items may be much larger than their true frequencies.)

For any items  $x \neq y$  and any index  $j$ , we define an indicator variable  $X_{i,x,y} = [h_i(x) = h_i(y)]$ ; because the hash functions  $h_i$  are universal, we have

$$\mathbb{E}[X_{i,x,y}] = \Pr[h_i(x) = h_i(y)] = \frac{1}{w}.$$

Let  $X_{i,x} := \sum_{y \neq x} X_{i,x,y} \cdot f_y$  denote the total number of collisions with  $x$  in row  $i$  of the table. Then we immediately have

$$\text{Count}[i, h_i(x)] = f_x + X_{i,x} \geq f_x.$$

On the other hand, linearity of expectation implies

$$\mathbb{E}[X_{i,x}] = \sum_{y \neq x} \mathbb{E}[X_{i,x,y}] \cdot f_y = \frac{1}{w} \sum_{y \neq x} f_y \leq \frac{N}{w}.$$

Now Markov's inequality implies

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[\hat{f}_x > f_x + \varepsilon N] &= \Pr[X_{i,x} > \varepsilon N \text{ for all } i] && \text{[definition]} \\ &= \Pr[X_{1,x} > \varepsilon N]^d && \text{[independence of } h_i\text{'s]} \\ &\leq \left( \frac{\mathbb{E}[X_{1,x}]}{\varepsilon N} \right)^d && \text{[Markov's inequality]} \\ &\leq \left( \frac{N/w}{\varepsilon N} \right)^d = \left( \frac{1}{w\varepsilon} \right)^d && \text{[derived earlier]} \end{aligned}$$

Now setting  $w = \lceil e/\varepsilon \rceil$  and  $d = \lceil \ln(1/\delta) \rceil$  gives us  $\Pr[\hat{a}_x > a_x + \varepsilon N] \leq (1/e)^{\ln(1/\delta)} = \delta$ , as claimed.

## Exercises

1. **Reservoir sampling** is a method for choosing an item uniformly at random from an arbitrarily long stream of data; for example, the sequence of packets that pass through a router, or the sequence of IP addresses that access a given web page. Like all data stream algorithms, this algorithm must process each item in the stream quickly, using very little memory.

```

GETONESAMPLE(stream S):
  ℓ ← 0
  while S is not done
    x ← next item in S
    ℓ ← ℓ + 1
    if RANDOM(ℓ) = 1
      sample ← x      (*)
  return sample

```

At the end of the algorithm, the variable  $\ell$  stores the length of the input stream  $S$ ; this number is *not* known to the algorithm in advance. If  $S$  is empty, the output of the algorithm is (correctly!) undefined. In the following, consider an arbitrary non-empty input stream  $S$ , and let  $n$  denote the (unknown) length of  $S$ .

- (a) Prove that the item returned by  $\text{GETONESAMPLE}(S)$  is chosen uniformly at random from  $S$ .
- (b) What is the *exact* expected number of times that  $\text{GETONESAMPLE}(S)$  executes line (\*)?
- (c) What is the *exact* expected value of  $\ell$  when  $\text{GETONESAMPLE}(S)$  executes line (\*) for the *last* time?

- (d) What is the *exact* expected value of  $\ell$  when either `GETONESAMPLE(S)` executes line  $(\star)$  for the *second* time (or the algorithm ends, whichever happens first)?
- (e) Describe and analyze an algorithm that returns a subset of  $k$  distinct items chosen uniformly at random from a data stream of length at least  $k$ . The integer  $k$  is given as part of the input to your algorithm. Prove that your algorithm is correct.

For example, if  $k = 2$  and the stream contains the sequence  $\langle \spadesuit, \heartsuit, \diamondsuit, \clubsuit \rangle$ , the algorithm should return the subset  $\{\diamondsuit, \spadesuit\}$  with probability  $1/6$ .