

# SEEM5020 Algorithms for Big Data

## Streaming Algorithms (I)

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## Definition 1 (Data Stream Model)

The data streaming model involves processing a finite sequence of  $n$  integers drawn from a finite domain of size  $m$ . However, unlike traditional datasets, this sequence is not readily available for random access. Instead, the data arrives incrementally in the form of a continuous 'stream,' with each integer being presented one at a time.

Main challenges:

- In the data streaming model, accessing the input sequence typically allows for only a small number of passes, most likely just once.
- The streaming algorithms are restricted to use a space that is *logarithmic or polylogarithmic* in  $m$  and  $n$ .

# Applications

Here, we list several applications.

- Query streams: Google/ChatGPT wants to know which queries are more frequent today than yesterday.
- Click streams: Wikipedia wants to know which pages have received unusual hits in the past hour.
- Social network post/update streams: trending topics on Twitter, TikTok, Facebook, etc.
- IP packet monitoring at a switch: Gather package receiving speed info and optimize the routing. Identify DDoS attacks.
- Sensor data collection: Identify the number of abnormal results.
- ...

# Table of Contents

- 1 Sampling from Data Streams
  - Reservoir Algorithm
- 2 Approximate Counting
  - Morris Algorithm
- 3 Distinct Element Counting
  - MinHash Algorithm
  - Bottom- $k$  Sketch Algorithm
  - More Solutions for Distinct Element Counting

# Uniform Sampling in a Stream

## Problem 1 (Uniform sampling in a stream)

*Given a stream of elements from the universe  $[m]$ , where  $[m]$  means the set of integers  $\{1, 2, 3, \dots, m\}$ , sample  $k$  elements from the stream uniformly at random.*

Assume that we have  $n$  elements in the sequence. Each element has  $k/n$  probability of being sampled. However, the main challenge is: the size  $n$  of the stream is usually unknown.

# Reservoir Sampling

The reservoir sampling algorithm achieves this goal without knowing the number  $n$  of elements in this sequence. It works as follows:

## Algorithm 1 (Reservoir Sampling)

1. Initialize an array  $A$  of size  $k$  (array index starting from 1) and include the first  $k$  elements in the stream. This array is the reservoir;
2. When the  $i$ -th element  $a_i$  comes ( $i > k$ ), we draw a random integer  $r$ ; if  $r \leq k$ , we update  $A[r]$  and set  $A[r] = a_i$ ;
3. When the stream ends, return  $A$ ;

It takes  $O(k \log m)$  bits to store the array.

# Correctness of Reservoir Sampling

## Theorem 1

*Algorithm 1 returns each element with a probability  $\frac{k}{n}$ .*

## Proof.

We prove this by induction. When  $n = k$ . It naturally holds.

**Inductive hypothesis:** When  $n > k$ , assume that the sample set  $A$  contains each element seen so far with probability  $\frac{k}{n}$ .

**Inductive step:** Now a new element  $e$  comes, we aim to prove that each element seen so far is sampled with probability  $\frac{k}{n+1}$ .

- For the new element  $e_{n+1}$ , according to Algorithm 1, it is added into  $A$  with probability  $\frac{k}{n+1}$ .
- For the remaining elements  $e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n$ , the probability is:

$$\mathbb{P}[e_i \in A_{n+1}] = \mathbb{P}[e_i \in A_n] \cdot \frac{n}{n+1} = \frac{k}{n} \cdot \frac{n}{n+1} = \frac{k}{n+1}.$$

Proof done. □

# Table of Contents

- 1 Sampling from Data Streams
  - Reservoir Algorithm
- 2 Approximate Counting
  - Morris Algorithm
- 3 Distinct Element Counting
  - MinHash Algorithm
  - Bottom- $k$  Sketch Algorithm
  - More Solutions for Distinct Element Counting



## Problem 2 (Counting Problem)

*Given a stream of events, the counting problem aims to count the number of events that occur thus far with as little space as possible.*

A straightforward solution: By maintaining a counter with  $O(\log n)$  bits. That is already the best we can do if we want to maintain the exact count.

Can we do better if we allow for some approximation?

# Approximate Counting: Morris Algorithm [1]

## Definition 2 ( $(\epsilon, \delta)$ -approximation)

Let  $\mu$  be the value of interest, e.g. the number of events in previous slides. Let  $\hat{\mu}$  be an estimation of  $\mu$ . Then, we say  $\hat{\mu}$  is an  $(\epsilon, \delta)$ -approximation of  $\mu$  if the following holds:

$$\mathbb{P}[|\mu - \hat{\mu}| > \epsilon \cdot \mu] \leq \delta.$$

A classic solution for approximate counting: Morris algorithm.

## Algorithm 2 (Morris Algorithm)

1. Initialize  $X$  as zero;
2. For each update, increment  $X$  with probability  $\frac{1}{2^X}$ ;
3. For a counting query, return  $\hat{n} = 2^X - 1$ ;

# Analysis of Morris Algorithm

## Lemma 1

$$\mathbb{E}[2^{X_n}] = n + 1.$$

## Proof.

We prove this by induction. It is easy to verify the base case. Assume that it holds for  $j \leq n$ . Then, taking the condition on  $X_n$ , we have that:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}[2^{X_{n+1}}] &= \sum_{j=0}^{+\infty} \mathbb{P}[X_n = j] \cdot \mathbb{E}[2^{X_{n+1}} | X_n = j] \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^{+\infty} \mathbb{P}[X_n = j] \cdot \left( 2^j \left( 1 - \frac{1}{2^j} \right) + 2^{j+1} \cdot \frac{1}{2^j} \right) \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^{+\infty} \mathbb{P}[X_n = j] \cdot 2^j + \sum_{j=0}^{+\infty} \mathbb{P}[X_n = j] = \mathbb{E}[2^{X_n}] + 1 = n + 2.\end{aligned}$$

Proof done. □

## Analysis of Morris Algorithm (Cont.)

We will further derive the variance of the Morris algorithm so as to apply the Chebyshev's inequality. Let  $\hat{n} = 2^{X_n} - 1$ . The variance  $\text{Var}[\hat{n}]$  is:

$$\mathbb{E}[(2^{X_n} - 1 - n)^2] = \mathbb{E}[2^{2X_n}] - (n + 1)^2.$$

### Lemma 2

$$\mathbb{E}[2^{2X_n}] = \frac{3}{2}n^2 + \frac{3}{2}n + 1.$$

The proof is left as a self exercise. Accordingly,  $\text{Var}[\hat{n}] = \frac{n(n-1)}{2}$ . Then, by applying the Chebyshev's inequality, we have that:

$$\mathbb{P}[|\hat{n} - n| > \epsilon \cdot n] \leq \frac{\text{Var}[\hat{n}]}{(\epsilon n)^2} < \frac{n^2/2}{\epsilon^2 n^2} = \frac{1}{2 \cdot \epsilon^2}.$$

However, this bound is loose and the inequality is almost useless if  $\epsilon \leq 1/\sqrt{2}$ .

Can we achieve a meaningful probability, say  $\delta = 1/3$ ?

- Key observation: the sum of Independent and identically distributed (i.i.d) random variables has degraded variance.
- Solution: Take  $t$  trials of Morris algorithm. Let their estimations be  $\hat{n}_1, \hat{n}_2, \dots, \hat{n}_t$ . Then, take the average of the  $t$  trials:  $\frac{\sum_{i=1}^t \hat{n}_i}{t}$ .
  - Variance:  $\frac{n(n-1)}{2t}$ .
  - Applying the Chebyshev's inequality again, we have:

$$\mathbb{P}\left[\left|\frac{\sum_{i=1}^t \hat{n}_i}{t} - n\right| > \epsilon \cdot n\right] \leq \frac{\text{Var}[\hat{n}]}{t \cdot (\epsilon n)^2} < \frac{1}{2t\epsilon^2}$$

- By setting  $t = \frac{3}{2\epsilon^2}$ , we have that  $\delta = \frac{1}{3}$ .

- To have a probability of  $\delta$ , Morris+ needs  $O(1/\delta)$  trials of Morris algorithm. Can we reduce the dependency to  $\delta$ ?
- Solution: Morris++ via Median trick.
  - Apply Morris+  $s$  times. Then, take the median as the estimation. The solution is Morris++.
  - Let  $Y$  be the random variable to indicate whether Morris+ succeeds. If it does succeed,  $Y = 1$  and otherwise 0. To make Morris++ fail, at least half of the estimators fail. Think why?
  - Then, Morris++ fails indicates  $\sum_{j=1}^s Y_j < \frac{s}{2}$ .

$$\mathbb{P}\left[\sum_{j=1}^s Y_j < \frac{s}{2}\right] = \mathbb{P}\left[\sum_{j=1}^s Y_j < \left(1 - \frac{1}{4}\right) \cdot \frac{2s}{3}\right] \leq \mathbb{P}\left[\sum_{j=1}^s Y_j < \left(1 - \frac{1}{4}\right)\mu\right]$$

Applying Chernoff bound, we have that:

$$\mathbb{P}\left[\sum_{j=1}^s Y_j < \left(1 - \frac{1}{4}\right)\mu\right] \leq e^{-\mu\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^2/2} \leq e^{-\mu\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^2/2} \leq e^{-\frac{s}{48}}.$$

- Setting  $s = 48 \log(1/\delta)$ , the dependency reduces to  $O(\log(1/\delta))$ .

# Space Cost of Morris++

What is the space cost to achieve  $(\epsilon, \delta)$ -guarantee for the Morris++ algorithm?

- Notice that the counter is a random variable. So is the space cost. Can we bound the space cost with a high probability?

Consider the case when  $X_n \geq c \cdot \log_2(n+1)$ . We have that:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{P}[X_n \geq c \cdot \log_2(n+1)] &= \mathbb{P}[2^{X_n} \geq 2^{c \cdot \log_2(n+1)}] \\ &\leq \frac{\mathbb{E}[2^{X_n}]}{2^{c \cdot \log_2(n+1)}} = \frac{n+1}{(n+1)^c} \leq \frac{1}{(n+1)^{c-1}}\end{aligned}$$

We have  $\frac{3}{2\epsilon^2} \cdot 48 \log(1/\delta)$  Morris counter. It is easy to bound the probability to  $\frac{72 \log(1/\delta)}{\epsilon^2 (n+1)^{c-1}}$ . With an appropriate  $c$ , this can be bounded with high probability. Thus, the space cost is bounded by  $O\left(\frac{\log(1/\delta) \log \log n}{\epsilon^2}\right)$  with high probability.

# Exercise

The above Morris++ algorithm is not effective in practice when  $\epsilon$  is no larger than 0.25. Also, the dependency to  $\log(1/\delta)$  is a multiplication factor over  $\log \log n$ . Can we reduce this dependency?

More generally, we can adopt a Morris( $a$ ) algorithm, where we increment the counter by the  $\frac{1}{(1+a)^X}$  probability. Then, we estimate  $\hat{N}$  as  $\frac{(1+a)^X - 1}{a}$ . If we set  $a = 0$ , we actually provide the actual count. If we set  $a = 1$ , we have the previous Morris algorithm. By choosing  $a$  between  $(0, 1)$ , we are gaining a balance between the accuracy and the space cost.

- Prove that  $\hat{N} = \frac{(1+a)^X - 1}{a}$  is an unbiased estimation of  $N$  and the variance is  $\frac{aN(N-1)}{2}$ .
- The space cost is bounded by  $O(\log \log n + \log(1/\delta) + \log(1/\epsilon))$  with high probability by setting  $a = 2\epsilon^2\delta$ .



# Table of Contents

- 1 Sampling from Data Streams
  - Reservoir Algorithm
- 2 Approximate Counting
  - Morris Algorithm
- 3 Distinct Element Counting
  - MinHash Algorithm
  - Bottom- $k$  Sketch Algorithm
  - More Solutions for Distinct Element Counting

# Distinct Element Counting

## Definition 3 (Distinct Element Counting)

Given a stream of integers  $e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n$  from  $[m]$  where elements might appear more than once in the stream, the goal of the distinct element counting problem is to output the number of *distinct* elements.

## Example 1

Assume that  $m = 5$  and the stream is 1, 2, 2, 1, 5, 4, 2, 2, 1. Then, the number of distinct elements (NDE) is 4.

Two naive solutions

- Store the entire universe with  $O(m)$  bits. Mark the  $i$ -th bit as 1 if  $i$  appears in the stream.
- Store a hash table or binary search tree to keep the distinct elements. This requires  $O(n \cdot \log m)$  bits, or more precisely  $O(NDE \cdot \log m)$  bits.

# MinHash Algorithm [2]

We now assume that we have the following idealized hash function  $h : [n] \rightarrow [0, 1]$  with an equal probability of hashing to each value in  $[0, 1]$ .

- Actually, we cannot afford a truly randomized hash function as it cannot be maintained in  $o(n)$  bits.

## Algorithm 3 (MinHash Algorithm)

1. When an element  $e_i$  arrives, derive the hash value  $h(e_i)$ ;
2. Maintain the minimum hash value  $X_{min}$  (Initially set as 1). If  $h(e_i) < X_{min}$ , update  $X_{min}$  as  $h(e_i)$ ;
3. When the stream ends, return  $\frac{1}{X_{min}} - 1$ ;

# Analysis of MinHash Algorithm

## Lemma 3

$$\mathbb{E}[X_{min}] = \frac{1}{NDE+1}.$$

Recap that for a continuous random variable  $X$ , we have the concept of probability density function  $f_X(x)$  and cumulative distribution function  $F_X(x)$ . The expectation of such a random variable is

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x \cdot f_X(x) dx.$$

For non-negative random variables, we further have that

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \int_0^{+\infty} (1 - F_X(x)) dx.$$

# Analysis of MinHash Algorithm (Cont.)

## Lemma 4

$$\mathbb{E}[X_{min}] = \frac{1}{NDE+1}.$$

## Proof.

Let  $F_X(x)$  be the cumulative distribution function  $F_X(x)$  that  $X_{min}$  is not larger than  $x$ . Then  $1 - F_X(x)$  is the probability that  $X_{min}$  is larger than  $x$ , which happens only when all distinct elements have a hash value greater than  $x$ . The probability is  $(1 - x)^{NDE}$  for  $0 \leq x \leq 1$ . Thus,

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}[X_{min}] &= \int_0^{+\infty} (1 - F_X(x)) dx = \int_0^1 (1 - x)^{NDE} dx \\ &= \frac{-(1 - x)^{NDE}}{NDE + 1} \Big|_0^1 = \frac{1}{NDE + 1}.\end{aligned}$$

Proof done. □

# Analysis of MinHash Algorithm (Cont.)

## Lemma 5

$$\mathbb{E}[X_{min}^2] = \frac{2}{(NDE+1)(NDE+2)}.$$

The proof is left as a self-exercise. We can derive the variance of  $X_{min}$ :

$$\text{Var}[X_{min}] = \mathbb{E}[X_{min}^2] - (\mathbb{E}[X_{min}])^2 = \frac{NDE}{(NDE+1)^2(NDE+2)}.$$

Denote **MinHash+** as the algorithm by applying  $s$  such hash functions and taking the average of these  $s$  results of  $X_{min}$ . The expectation is still unbiased. The variance is reduced to

$$\frac{NDE}{s(NDE+1)^2(NDE+2)} \leq \frac{1}{s(1+NDE)^2}$$

Setting  $s = \frac{3}{\epsilon^2}$  and applying the Chebyshev's inequality, we have:

$$\mathbb{P}\left[\left|\frac{1}{s} \sum_{j=1}^s X_{min,j} - \frac{1}{1+NDE}\right| \geq \frac{\epsilon}{1+NDE}\right] \leq \frac{1}{3} \quad (1)$$

## Analysis of MinHash Algorithm (Cont.)

It is easy to verify that if  $NDE \geq 2$  (which easily holds) and  $\epsilon < 0.5$ , the following holds:

$$\mathbb{P}\left[\left|\frac{1}{s} \sum_{j=1}^s X_{min,j} - 1 - NDE\right| \geq 2\epsilon NDE\right] \leq \frac{1}{3}$$

To reduce the failure probability from constant (here  $\frac{1}{3}$ ) to an arbitrarily small value  $\delta$ , we can apply the median trick as we have applied in Morris++ algorithm. This can be achieved with  $O(\log(1/\delta))$  trials of MinHash+. The final space is  $O\left(\frac{\log(1/\delta)}{\epsilon^2}\right)$ .

# Table of Contents

- 1 Sampling from Data Streams
  - Reservoir Algorithm
- 2 Approximate Counting
  - Morris Algorithm
- 3 Distinct Element Counting
  - MinHash Algorithm
  - Bottom- $k$  Sketch Algorithm
  - More Solutions for Distinct Element Counting



## Alternative to MinHash Algorithm: Bottom- $k$ Sketch [3]



The MinHash Algorithm applies multiple hash functions to reduce the variance. Any alternative method?

- The smallest value tends to have a large variance. Can we use other statistics?
- Intuition: As shown in previous solutions, the median tends to be a stable variable. However, maintaining the median is expensive.
- As an alternative, we maintain the  $k$  smallest hash values.
- Let  $X_{kth}$  be the  $k$ -th smallest hash value, we return  $\frac{k}{X_{kth}}$  as the estimation.

Is there any relationship between the  $k$ -th smallest hash value and NDE?

- Unfortunately, the relationship is not as explicit as that in MinHash<sup>1</sup>.
- We will need to analyze this in a different approach.

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<sup>1</sup>The  $k$ -th order statistics: [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Order\\_statistic](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Order_statistic)  

# Bottom- $k$ Sketch

Instead of a truly randomized hash function, bottom- $k$  sketch only needs a hash function that is **2-wise independent**, a.k.a, pairwise independent.

## Definition 4 ( $k$ -wise independent hash family)

A family  $\mathcal{H}$  of hash functions mapping from  $[a] \rightarrow [b]$  is  $k$ -wise independent if for any  $j_1, \dots, j_k \in [b]$  and any distinct  $i_1, \dots, i_k \in [a]$ ,

$$\mathbb{P}_{h \in \mathcal{H}}[h(i_1) = j_1 \wedge h(i_2) = j_2 \wedge \dots \wedge h(i_k) = j_k] = 1/b^k.$$

There are efficient solutions in finding a  $k$ -wise independent hash function.

## Example 2

Let  $P$  be a prime number greater than  $a$  (the input domain of  $h$ ). Choose  $a_i$  randomly from  $[P]$ . The following hash function is  $k$ -wise independent:

$$H(v) = \left( (a_0 + a_1 \cdot v^1 + \dots + a_{k-1} \cdot v^k) \bmod p \right) \bmod m$$

## Bottom- $k$ Sketch (Cont.)

How bottom- $k$  sketch algorithm works with pairwise independent hashing:

- First, set the range  $[b]$  with  $b = n^3$  so that we will have no collision with at least  $1 - \frac{1}{n}$  probability.
- When an element  $e$  comes, we compute the hash value  $h(e)$  of  $e$ .
- We maintain the set  $S_k$  of the  $k$  smallest hash values and denote the  $k$ -th smallest hash value as  $h_{kth}$ . If  $h(e)$  is smaller than  $h_{kth}$ , we remove  $h_{kth}$  from  $S_k$  and add  $h(e)$  to  $S_k$ .
- At the end, we retrieve  $h_{kth}$  from  $S_k$  and return an estimate of  $\frac{b \cdot k}{h_{kth}}$ .

# Analysis of Bottom- $k$ Sketch Algorithm

Our goal:  $(1 - \epsilon)NDE < \frac{b \cdot k}{h_{kth}} < (1 + \epsilon)NDE$

- We analyze for the probability of the bad event:  $\frac{b \cdot k}{h_{kth}} \geq (1 + \epsilon)NDE$ . The other side can be analyzed in a similar way.
- We define  $Y_i = 1$  if the  $i$ -th element has a hash value no larger than  $\frac{b \cdot k}{(1 + \epsilon)NDE}$  and otherwise 0. Define  $Y = \sum_{i=1}^{NDE} Y_i$ .
- Observe that:

$$\frac{b \cdot k}{h_{kth}} \geq (1 + \epsilon)NDE \Leftrightarrow \frac{b \cdot k}{(1 + \epsilon)NDE} \geq h_{kth} \Leftrightarrow \sum_{i=1}^{NDE} Y_i \geq k.$$

The goal is to bound the probability that  $\sum_{i=1}^{NDE} Y_i > k$ .

- $\mathbb{E}[Y_i] = \lfloor \frac{k}{(1 + \epsilon)NDE} \rfloor$  according to its definition. Thus:

$$\mathbb{E}[Y] = \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{i=1}^{NDE} Y_i\right] = NDE \cdot \lfloor \frac{k}{(1 + \epsilon)NDE} \rfloor \leq \frac{k}{(1 + \epsilon)}.$$

# Analysis of Bottom- $k$ Sketch Algorithm (Cont.)

The variance  $\text{Var}[Y]$  of  $Y$  is exactly  $\sum_{i=1}^{NDE} \text{Var}[Y_i]$  since  $Y_i$  are pairwise independent. More specifically:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}\left[\sum_{i=1}^{NDE} Y_i\right] &= \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\sum_{i=1}^{NDE} Y_i - \mathbb{E}[Y_i]\right)^2\right] = \sum_{i=1}^{NDE} \mathbb{E}\left[(Y_i - \mathbb{E}[Y_i])^2\right] + \\ &2\mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq NDE} (Y_i - \mathbb{E}[Y_i])(Y_j - \mathbb{E}[Y_j])\right] \end{aligned}$$

## Analysis of Bottom- $k$ Sketch Algorithm (Cont.)

The variance  $\text{Var}[Y]$  of  $Y$  is exactly  $\sum_{i=1}^{NDE} \text{Var}[Y_i]$  since  $Y_i$  are pairwise independent. More specifically:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var}\left[\sum_{i=1}^{NDE} Y_i\right] &= \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\sum_{i=1}^{NDE} Y_i - \mathbb{E}[Y_i]\right)^2\right] = \sum_{i=1}^{NDE} \mathbb{E}\left[(Y_i - \mathbb{E}[Y_i])^2\right] + \\ &2\mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq NDE} (Y_i - \mathbb{E}[Y_i])(Y_j - \mathbb{E}[Y_j])\right]\end{aligned}$$

As  $Y_i$  and  $Y_j$  are pairwise independent,

$$\mathbb{E}\left[(Y_i - \mathbb{E}[Y_i])(Y_j - \mathbb{E}[Y_j])\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[(Y_i - \mathbb{E}[Y_i])\right]\mathbb{E}\left[(Y_j - \mathbb{E}[Y_j])\right] = 0.$$

Thus,

$$\text{Var}\left[\sum_{i=1}^{NDE} Y_i\right] = \sum_{i=1}^{NDE} \mathbb{E}\left[(Y_i - \mathbb{E}[Y_i])^2\right] = \sum_{i=1}^{NDE} \text{Var}[Y_i] \leq \frac{k}{1 + \epsilon}.$$

# Analysis of Bottom- $k$ Sketch Algorithm (Cont.)

We further apply the Chebyshev's inequality.

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{P}[Y \geq k] &= \mathbb{P}[Y - \mathbb{E}[Y] \geq k - \mathbb{E}[Y]] \leq \mathbb{P}[|Y - \mathbb{E}[Y]| \geq k - \mathbb{E}[Y]] \\ &\leq \mathbb{P}[|Y - \mathbb{E}[Y]| \geq k - \frac{k}{(1+\epsilon)}] = \mathbb{P}[|Y - \mathbb{E}[Y]| \geq \frac{k\epsilon}{(1+\epsilon)}] \\ &\leq \frac{\text{Var}[Y]}{(k\epsilon/(1+\epsilon))^2} \leq \frac{k}{1+\epsilon} \cdot \frac{(1+\epsilon)^2}{k^2\epsilon^2} = \frac{1+\epsilon}{k\epsilon^2}\end{aligned}$$

Setting  $k = \lceil \frac{12}{\epsilon^2} \rceil$ , we have

$$\mathbb{P}[Y \geq k] \leq \frac{1+\epsilon}{12} \leq \frac{1}{6}.$$

The proof of the other side is left as a self-exercise. You may assume that  $\epsilon < \frac{1}{2}$  and the fact that  $b = n^3 \gg NDE \cdot \epsilon$ .

# Analysis of Bottom- $k$ Sketch Algorithm (Cont.)

Thus, we have that

$$\mathbb{P}\left[\left(1 - \epsilon\right)NDE < \frac{b \cdot k}{h_{kth}} < \left(1 + \epsilon\right)NDE\right] \geq \frac{2}{3}$$

We can further apply the median trick with  $\log(1/\delta)$  copies of the bottom- $k$  sketch to achieve a success probability of  $1 - \delta$ . The total space complexity is thus:  $O(k \cdot \log(1/\delta)) = O\left(\frac{\log(1/\delta)}{\epsilon^2}\right)$ .



# Table of Contents

- 1 Sampling from Data Streams
  - Reservoir Algorithm
- 2 Approximate Counting
  - Morris Algorithm
- 3 Distinct Element Counting
  - MinHash Algorithm
  - Bottom- $k$  Sketch Algorithm
  - More Solutions for Distinct Element Counting

# More Solutions for Distinct Element Counting

**FM Algorithm** [4]: First, we need a hash function  $h : [n] \rightarrow [2^L - 1]$  that maps the key  $x$  to each value in the range  $[2^L - 1]$  uniformly at random.

- For each element  $e$ , compute the hash value  $h(e)$ . Then, let  $r(e)$  be the number of trailing 0's in the binary representation of  $h(e)$ .
  - For example,  $h(e) = 12$  and  $12 = (1100)_2$  in binary. So,  $r(e) = 2$  since there are two zeros at the end of the binary representation of  $h(e)$ .
- When the stream ends, let  $R$  be the maximum of  $r(e)$  we have seen.
- Flajolet and Martin [4] prove that  $\mathbb{E}[R] \approx \log_2 \phi \cdot n$ , where  $\phi \approx 0.77351$ . The proof is rather involved and hence is omitted.
- According to the above analysis, FM algorithm estimates the number of distinct elements as  $2^R / \phi$ .
- How to derive more accurate results?

**HyperLogLog** [5]: Extension of FM algorithm by splitting the stream into numerous sub-streams. Use harmonic mean to derive the estimation.

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