## Data Streams: Algorithms and Applications by S. Muthukrishnan

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# Formalism [Sec. 4]

We consider input streams, which represent underlying shorter signals. We will use  $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_t, \ldots$  to represent the input stream, where  $a_t$  arrives at time t. This stream describes some underlying signal, A[i]for  $i \in [1, N]$  for some dimensionality N, which we would like to query. There are three typical models used:

- Time Series:  $a_t = A[t]$
- Cash Register:  $a_t = (j, I_t)$ , and  $A_t[j] = A_{t-1}[j] + I_t$ , where  $I_t \ge 0$ .
- Turnstile: As above, but no restriction on  $I_t$ . In the strict turnstile model,  $A_t[j] \geq 0 \ \forall j \ \forall t$ .

## Basic Mathematical Techniques [Sec. 5] (continued)

## Random Projections

## Moments estimation

Here, we want to estimate the kth moment of a stream:  $F_k = \sum_i A[i]^k$ . This is useful in many practical settings, as we will see over the next few weeks. In this section, we focus on  $F_2$ .

We consider the random vectors  $\mathbf{X}_{ij}[i]$  of length N whose elements are  $\pm 1$  and fourwise independent. We

also define  $X_{ij} = \langle A, \mathbf{X}_{ij} \rangle = \sum_{\ell} A[\ell] \mathbf{X}_{ij}[\ell]$ . We can show  $\mathbb{E}[X_{ij}^2] = F_2$  by considering the square of the sum above, and noting that in expectation, the cross terms between  $\mathbf{X}_{ij}$  are 0. We can also show that  $\operatorname{var}(X_{ij}^2) \leq 2F_2^2$  using a similar approach for  $X_{ij}^4$ , the second moment of the random variable  $X_{ij}^2$ .

To obtain an approximation that lies within  $(1 \pm \epsilon)F_2$  with probability greater than  $(1 - \delta)$ , we consider i in the range  $\{1,\ldots,\frac{16}{\epsilon^2}\}$ , and j in the range  $\{1,\ldots,2\log\frac{1}{\delta}\}$ , and look at the average across j, called  $Y_i$ . By the Chebyshev inequality, this is bounded by a constant. We then take the median of the  $Y_i$ s. Unless more than half of the  $Y_i$ s deviate from  $F_2$  by  $\epsilon F_2$ , the median will be within the desired range. The probability of this error event occurring is given by the Chernoff bound as  $\delta$ , so with probability  $1-\delta$  we have the desired bounds on our estimate.

### Count-min sketch

We often want to keep track of A[i] for all i, but this violates our space constraints. So, instead of maintaining A[i] for all i, we instead maintain a 2-dimensional  $d \times w$  array called count, where  $w = \lceil \frac{e}{\epsilon} \rceil$  and  $d = \lceil \ln \frac{1}{\delta} \rceil$ . Associated with the array are d hash functions  $h_1, \ldots, h_d : \{1, \ldots, N\} \to \{1, \ldots, w\}$ . When we receive an update  $a_i = (j, I_i)$ , for each hash function  $h_k$ , we update count  $[k, h_k(j)]$  to be count  $[k, h_k(j)] + I_i$ ; that is, each cell maintains the cumulative sum of all updates whose index hashes to that value.

This allows us to efficiently solve the point-estimation problem, i.e. find A[i] for an arbitrary i. Our estimate is

$$\hat{A}[i] = \min_{j} \operatorname{count}[j, h_j(i)]$$

This is (certainly) bounded from below by A[i] and (with probability at least  $1-\delta$ ) from above by  $A[i] + \epsilon ||A||_1$ .

Note that  $\operatorname{count}[j, h_i(i)]$  has not only the  $I_k$ s corresponding to index i, but also the  $I_k$ s corresponding to any other index that hashes to the same value. So,  $\hat{A}[i]$  is bounded from below because of these "extra values." The upper bound comes from applying the Markov inequality to the probability  $\mathbb{P}(A[i] \geq A[i] + \epsilon ||A||_1)$ . This is equivalent to  $\mathbb{P}(\text{count}[j, h_j(i)] \geq A[i] + \epsilon ||A||_1 \forall j)$ . This is equivalent to the probability that the sum of the "extra values" is less than  $\epsilon ||A||_1$ . The expectation of this "extra weight" is  $||A||_1/w$ , and since they are pairwise independent, we can obtain a bound by multiplying their probabilities. Using the Markov inequality then gives the desired result.

Note that many of the problems expressed in earlier sections can be solved using this technique.

## Sampling

### **Estimating Number of Distinct Elements**

The problem is to estimate  $D = |\{i|A[i] \neq 0\}|$ . If A[i] is the number of occurrences of i in the stream, D is the number of distinct items. More generally, D is the size of the support of A[i].

One way of estimating D in the cash register model keeps a bit vector c of length  $\log_2 N$  and uses a hash function  $f:[1,N] \to \{1,2,\ldots,\log_2 N\}$  such that  $\mathbb{P}[f(i)=j]=2^{-j}$  and any update j to item i sets c[f(i)] to 1. An unbiased estimate of the number of distinct items is given by  $2^{k(c)}$ , where k(c) is the lowest index j such that c[j]=0. Intuitively, if the probability that any item is mapped into the counter at index j is  $2^{-j}$ , then if there are D distinct items, we expect D/2 of them to be mapped to c[1], D/4 to be mapped to c[2], etc. However, that relies on the existence of a fully random hash function, and so it has been extended to allow a hash function that can be stored in  $O((\frac{1}{\epsilon^2}\log\log m + \log m\log(1/\epsilon))\log(1/\delta))$ . For the turnstile model, the methods for estimating D uses  $L_p$ -sum estimation for small p.

# Basic Algorithmic Techniques [Sec. 6]

The Algorithmic Techniques section is differentiated from the Mathematical Techniques section in that it focuses on more deterministic settings in which the main innovations are in careful data structure planning.

#### Estimating wavelet coefficients

In the the time series model, consider the problem of approximating the signal by using the B largest Haar wavelet coefficients (see Figure 1 for a depiction of the Haar wavelets). Because of the time-localization of the Haar wavelets, we can essentially walk along the signal while keeping two data structures: a heap of the B largest coefficients so far, and a list of  $\log N$  straddling coefficients, i.e. the "in-progress" coefficients. The meaning of the straddling coefficients and the relationship of those structures is best visualized by drawing the Haar wavelets on a binary tree sitting on top of the signal.

Using the above method, we can compute the best B-term approximation to the signal in the Haar wavelet domain in  $O(B + \log N)$  space.

#### Deterministic heavy hitter with sparsity

Although we cannot deterministically solve the heavy hitters problem in the general case, we can if we impose a sparsity constraint over A: we assume that no more than k indices have nonzero values in A, and we want to find those k indices and/or their corresponding values in A.

Take the x consecutive primes  $p_1, \ldots, p_x$  larger than k, where  $x = (k-1) \log_k N + 1$ . For each prime  $p_j$ , construct a table  $T_j$  of size  $p_j$ . In each table, each index i is mapped to i mod  $p_j$ . Our update rule for an update  $(i, I_i)$  is

$$T_i[i \mod p_i] := T_i[i \mod p_i] + I_i$$

We then claim that each index will have at least one table where it is the only index in its entry. Two indices can share the same entry in at most  $\log_k N$  tables. Otherwise, their difference would be divisible by  $\log_k N$  primes. However, this would imply that the difference is larger than N (since it is the product of more than  $\log_k N$  numbers greater than k). We can repeat this argument for every pairing, requiring  $(k-1)\log_k N+1$  tables. We could estimate  $\hat{A}[i]$  by

$$\hat{A}[i] = \frac{1}{x} \sum_{i=1}^{x} T_j[i \mod p_j]$$

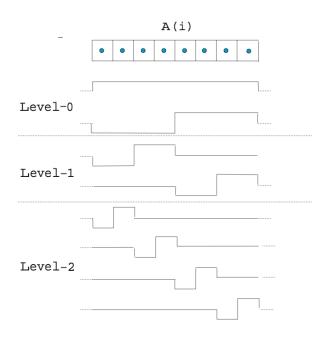


Figure 1: Set of Haar wavelets for a signal of length 8.