# COMPSCI 514: ALGORITHMS FOR DATA SCIENCE

Cameron Musco University of Massachusetts Amherst. Spring 2020. Lecture 7

- Problem Set 1 is due tomorrow at 8pm in Gradescope.
- No class next Tuesday (it's a Monday at UMass).
- **Talk Today:** Vatsal Sharan at 4pm in CS 151. Modern Perspectives on Classical Learning Problems: Role of Memory and Data Amplification.

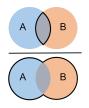
# Last Class: Hashing for Jaccard Similarity

- MinHash for estimating the Jaccard similarity.
- Locality sensitive hashing (LSH).
- Application to fast similarity search.

# This Class:

- $\cdot\,$  Finish up MinHash and LSH.
- The Frequent Elements (heavy-hitters) problem.
- Misra-Gries summaries.

# Jaccard Similarity: $J(A, B) = \frac{|A \cap B|}{|A \cup B|} = \frac{\# \text{ shared elements}}{\# \text{ total elements}}$ .



Two Common Use Cases:

- Near Neighbor Search: Have a database of *n* sets/bit strings and given a set *A*, want to find if it has high similarity to anything in the database. Naively  $\Omega(n)$  time.
- All-pairs Similarity Search: Have *n* different sets/bit strings. Want to find all pairs with high similarity. Naively  $\Omega(n^2)$  time.

### MINHASHING

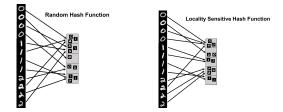
 $MinHash(A) = min_{a \in A} \mathbf{h}(a)$  where  $\mathbf{h} : U \to [0, 1]$  is a random hash.

**Locality Sensitivity:** Pr[MinHash(A) = MinHash(B)] = J(A, B).

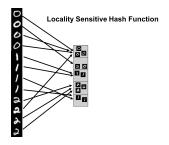
Represents a set with a single number that captures Jaccard similarity information!

Given a collision free hash function  $\mathbf{g}: [0,1] \rightarrow [m]$ ,

 $\Pr[g(MinHash(A)) = g(MinHash(B))] = J(A, B).$ 



What is Pr[g(MinHash(A)) = g(MinHash(B))] if g is not collision free? Will be a bit larger than J(A, B). When searching for similar items only search for matches that land in the same hash bucket.

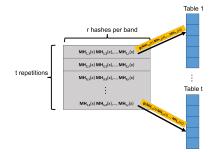


- False Negative: A similar pair doesn't appear in the same bucket.
- False Positive: A dissimilar pair is hashed to the same bucket.

Need to balance a small probability of false negatives (a high hit rate) with a small probability of false positives (a small query time.)

## BALANCING HIT RATE AND QUERY TIME

Balancing False Negatives/Positives with MinHash via repetition.



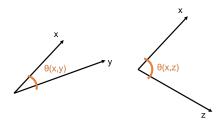
Create *t* hash tables. Each is indexed into not with a single MinHash value, but with *r* values, appended together. A length *r* signature:

 $MH_{i,1}(x), MH_{i,2}(x), \ldots, MH_{i,r}(x).$ 

**Hit Rate:** Given by the s-curve:  $1 - (1 - s^r)^t$ .

Repetition and s-curve tuning can be used for fast similarity search with any similarity metric, given a locality sensitive hash function for that metric.

• LSH schemes exist for many similarity/distance measures: hamming distance, cosine similarity, etc.

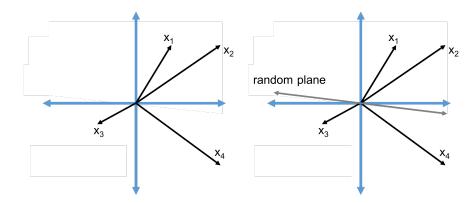


Cosine Similarity:  $\cos(\theta(x, y)) = \frac{\langle x, y \rangle}{\|x\|_2 \cdot \|y\|_2}$ .

•  $\cos(\theta(x, y)) = 1$  when  $\theta(x, y) = 0^{\circ}$  and  $\cos(\theta(x, y)) = 0$  when  $\theta(x, y) = 90^{\circ}$ , and  $\cos(\theta(x, y)) = -1$  when  $\theta(x, y) = 180^{\circ}$ 

### SIMHASH FOR COSINE SIMILARITY

SimHash Algorithm: LSH for cosine similarity.

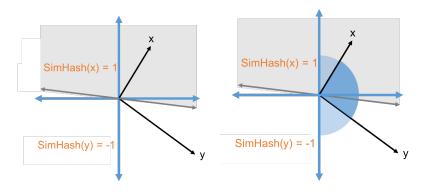


 $SimHash(x) = sign(\langle x, t \rangle)$  for a random vector t.

What is Pr[SimHash(x) = SimHash(y)]?

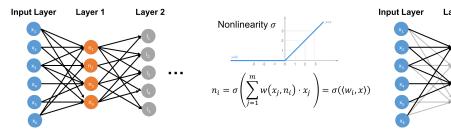
## What is Pr[SimHash(x) = SimHash(y)]?

 $SimHash(x) \neq SimHash(y)$  when the plane separates x from y.



- Pr [SimHash(x)  $\neq$  SimHash(y)] =  $\frac{\theta(x,y)}{\pi}$
- Pr [SimHash(x) = SimHash(y)] =  $1 \frac{\theta(x,y)}{\pi} \approx \frac{\cos(\theta(x,y))+1}{2}$

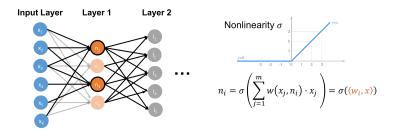
Many applications outside traditional similarity search. E.g., approximate neural net computation (Anshumali Shrivastava).



- Evaluating  $\mathcal{N}(x)$  requires  $|x| \cdot ||ayer 1| + ||ayer 1| \cdot ||ayer 2| + ...$ multiplications if fully connected.
- Can be expensive, especially on constrained devices like cellphones, cameras, etc.
- For approximate evaluation, suffices to identify the neurons in

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### HASHING FOR NEURAL NETWORKS



- · Important neurons have high activation  $\sigma(\langle w_i, x \rangle)$ .
- Since  $\sigma$  is typically monotonic, this means large  $\langle w_i, x \rangle$ .
- $\cos(\theta(w_i, x)) = \frac{\langle w_i, x \rangle}{\||w_i\|\|\|x\|}$ . Thus these neurons can be found very quickly using LSH for cosine similarity search.
- Store each weight vector *w<sub>i</sub>* (corresponding to each node) in a set of hash tables and check inputs *x* for similarity to these stored vectors.

Questions on MinHash and Locality Sensitive Hashing?

*k*-Frequent Items (Heavy-Hitters) Problem: Consider a stream of *n* items  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  (with possible duplicates). Return any item at appears at least  $\frac{n}{k}$  times.

X <sub>1</sub>	x <sub>2</sub>	X <sub>3</sub>	x <sub>4</sub>	<b>x</b> <sub>5</sub>	x <sub>6</sub>	х <sub>7</sub>	x <sub>8</sub>	x <sub>9</sub>	<b>x</b> <sub>1</sub>	
5	12	3	3	4	5	5	10	3	5	

- What is the maximum number of items that must be returned? At most k items with frequency  $\geq \frac{n}{k}$ .
- Trivial with O(n) space store the count for each item and return the one that appears  $\geq n/k$  times.
- Can we do it with less space? I.e., without storing all *n* items?
- · Similar challenge as with the distinct elements problem.

# Applications of Frequent Items:

- Finding top/viral items (i.e., products on Amazon, videos watched on Youtube, Google searches, etc.)
- Finding very frequent IP addresses sending requests (to detect DoS attacks/network anomalies).
- 'Iceberg queries' for all items in a database with frequency above some threshold.

Generally want very fast detection, without having to scan through database/logs. I.e., want to maintain a running list of frequent items that appear in a stream. **Association rule learning:** A very common task in data mining is to identify common associations between different events.



- Identified via frequent itemset counting. Find all sets of *k* items that appear many times in the same basket.
- Frequency of an itemset is known as its support.
- A single basket includes many different itemsets, and with many different baskets an efficient approach is critical. E.g., baskets are Twitter users and itemsets are subsets of who they follow.

**Majority:** Consider a stream of *n* items  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$ , where a single item appears a majority of the time. Return this item.

X <sub>1</sub>	x <sub>2</sub>	X <sub>3</sub>	x <sub>4</sub>	<b>X</b> 5	x <sub>6</sub>	х <sub>7</sub>	x <sub>8</sub>	x <sub>9</sub>	<b>x</b> <sub>10</sub>
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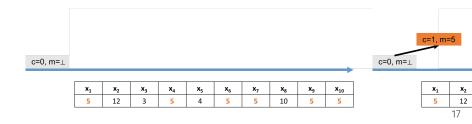
• Basically *k*-Frequent items for k = 2 (and assume a single item has a strict majority.)

### **BOYER-MOORE ALGORITHM**

Boyer-Moore Voting Algorithm: (our first deterministic algorithm)

- Initialize count c := 0, majority element  $m := \perp$
- For i = 1, ..., n
  - If c = 0, set  $m := x_i$  and c := 1.
  - Else if  $m = x_i$ , set c := c + 1.
  - Else if  $m \neq x_i$ , set c := c 1.

Just requires  $O(\log n)$  bits to store c and space to store m.



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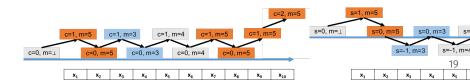
**Claim:** The Boyer-Moore algorithm always outputs the majority element, regardless of what order the stream is presented in (if it is a strict majority).

## Boyer-Moore Voting Algorithm:

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**Claim:** The Boyer-Moore algorithm always outputs the majority element, regardless of what order the stream is presented in.

**Proof:** Let *M* be the true majority element. Let s = c when m = M and s = -c otherwise (s is a 'helper' variable).



**Next Time:** Will see a variant on the Boyer-Moore algorithm – the Misra-Greis summary.

• Stores *k* top items at once and solves the Frequent Items problem.