CSE 312 Foundations of Computing II

Lecture 9: Variance and Independence of RVs (continued) Lecture 10: Bloom Filters

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Announcements

- PSet 3 due today
- PSet 2 returned yesterday
- PSet 4 posted this evening
 - <u>Last PSet prior to midterm (midterm is in exactly two weeks from</u> now)
 - Midterm info will follow soon
 - PSet 5 will only come <u>after</u> the midterm in two weeks

Recap Variance – Properties

Definition. The variance of a (discrete) RV X is $Var(X) = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])^2] = \sum_{x} p_X(x) \cdot (x - \mathbb{E}[X])^2 \ge 0$

Theorem. For any $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, $Var(a \cdot X + b) = a^2 \cdot Var(X)$

Theorem. $Var(X) = \mathbb{E}[X^2] - \mathbb{E}[X]^2$

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Variance

Theorem. $Var(X) = \mathbb{E}[X^2] - \mathbb{E}[X]^2$

Proof: $\operatorname{Var}(X) = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])^2]$ $= \mathbb{E}[X^2 - 2\mathbb{E}[X] \cdot X + \mathbb{E}[X]^2]$ $= \mathbb{E}(X^2) - 2\mathbb{E}[X]\mathbb{E}[X] + \mathbb{E}[X]^2$ $= \mathbb{E}[X^2] - \mathbb{E}[X]^2$ (linearity of expectation!) $\mathbb{E}[X^2] \text{ and } \mathbb{E}[X]^2$ are different !

Variance of Indicator Random Variables

Suppose that X_A is an indicator RV for event A with P(A) = p so $\mathbb{E}[X_A] = P(A) = p$ Since X_A only takes on values 0 and 1, we always have $X_A^2 = X_A$ so $\mathbb{Var}(X_A) = \mathbb{E}[X_A^2] - \mathbb{E}[X_A]^2 = \mathbb{E}[X_A] - \mathbb{E}[X_A]^2 = p - p^2 = p(1-p)$ In General, $Var(X + Y) \neq Var(X) + Var(Y)$ $Var(X) = \mathbb{H}[X^2] - \mathbb{H}[X]$ Proof by counter-example:

- Let X be a r.y. with pmf P(X = 1) = P(X = -1) = 1/2- What is $\mathbb{E}[X]$ and Var(X)?
- Let $\underline{Y} = -X$ - What is $\mathbb{E}[Y]$ and Var(Y)? What is Var(X + Y)? $\widehat{\nabla}$ $\widehat{\nabla}$ $\widehat{\nabla}$ $\widehat{\nabla}$ $\widehat{\nabla}$ $\widehat{\nabla}$ $\widehat{\nabla}$

Agenda

- Variance
- Properties of Variance
- Independent Random Variables
- Properties of Independent Random Variables
- An Application: Bloom Filters!

Random Variables and Independence

Comma is shorthand for AND

Definition. Two random variables *X*, *Y* are (mutually) independent if for all *x*, *y*, $P(X = x, Y = y) = P(X = x) \cdot P(Y = y)$ **Intuition:** Knowing *X* doesn't help you guess *Y* and vice versa **Definition.** The random variables $X_1, ..., X_n$ are (mutually) independent if for all $x_1, ..., x_n$, $P(X_1 = x_1, ..., X_n = x_n) = P(X_1 = x_1) \cdots P(X_n = x_n)$

Note: No need to check for all subsets, but need to check for all outcomes!

Example

Let *X* be the number of heads in *n* independent coin flips of the same coin. Let $Y = X \mod 2$ be the parity (even/odd) of *X*. Are *X* and *Y* independent?

$$p_{v}(x=0) \neq 0 p_{v}(x=1) \neq 0 p_{v}(x=0 \quad 4 \cdot y=1) = 0$$

Poll: pollev.com/paulbeameo28

Example

Make 2n independent coin flips of the same coin. Let X be the number of heads in the first n flips and Y be the number of heads in the last n flips.

Are *X* and *Y* independent?

Poll: pollev.com/paulbeameo28

A. Yes B. No

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Important Facts about Independent Random Variables

Theorem. If *X*, *Y* independent, $\mathbb{E}[X \cdot Y] = \mathbb{E}[X] \cdot \mathbb{E}[Y]$

Theorem. If *X*, *Y* independent, Var(X + Y) = Var(X) + Var(Y)



Example – Coin Tosses

We flip *n* independent coins, each one heads with probability *p*



$$Var(Z) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} Var(X_i) \neq n \cdot p(1-p)$$
Note $Var(X_i) = p(1-p)$

(Not Covered) Proof of $\mathbb{E}[X \cdot Y] = \mathbb{E}[X] \cdot \mathbb{E}[Y]$

Theorem. If *X*, *Y* independent, $\mathbb{E}[X \cdot Y] = \mathbb{E}[X] \cdot \mathbb{E}[Y]$

Proof

Let
$$x_i, y_i, i = 1, 2, ...$$
 be the possible values of X, Y .

$$\mathbb{E}[X \cdot Y] = \sum_i \sum_j x_i \cdot y_j \cdot P(X = x_i \land Y = y_j)$$
independence
$$= \sum_i \sum_j x_i \cdot y_i \cdot P(X = x_i) \cdot P(Y = y_j)$$

$$= \sum_i x_i \cdot P(X = x_i) \cdot \left(\sum_j y_j \cdot P(Y = y_j)\right)$$

$$= \mathbb{E}[X] \cdot \mathbb{E}[Y]$$
Note: NOT true in general; see earlier example $\mathbb{E}[X^2] \neq \mathbb{E}[X]^2$

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(Not Covered) Proof of Var(X + Y) = Var(X) + Var(Y)

Theorem. If *X*, *Y* independent, Var(X + Y) = Var(X) + Var(Y)

Proof

$$Var(X + Y)$$

$$= \mathbb{E}[(X + Y)^{2}] - (\mathbb{E}[X + Y])^{2}$$

$$= \mathbb{E}[X^{2} + 2XY + Y^{2}] - (\mathbb{E}[X] + \mathbb{E}[Y])^{2}$$

$$= \mathbb{E}[X^{2}] + 2 \mathbb{E}[XY] + \mathbb{E}[Y^{2}] - (\mathbb{E}[X]^{2} + 2 \mathbb{E}[X] \mathbb{E}[Y] + \mathbb{E}[Y]^{2})$$

$$= \mathbb{E}[X^{2}] - \mathbb{E}[X]^{2} + \mathbb{E}[Y^{2}] - \mathbb{E}[Y]^{2} + 2 \mathbb{E}[XY] - 2 \mathbb{E}[X] \mathbb{E}[Y]$$

$$= Var(X) + Var(Y) + 2 \mathbb{E}[XY] - 2 \mathbb{E}[X] \mathbb{E}[Y]$$

$$= Var(X) + Var(Y)$$
equal by independence



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Basic Problem

Problem: Store a subset *S* of a <u>large</u> set *U*.

Example. U = set of 128 bit strings $|U| \approx 2^{128}$ S = subset of strings of interest $|S| \approx 1000$

Two goals:

- **1.** Very fast (ideally constant time) answers to queries "Is $x \in S$?" for any $x \in U$.
- 2. Minimal storage requirements.



Storage: Require storing 2^{128} bits, even for small *S*.

Naïve Solution II – Small Storage

Idea: Represent *S* as a list with *S* entries.

$$S = \{0, 2, \dots, K\}$$

Storage: Grows with *S* only

Membership test: Check $x \in S$ requires time linear in |S|

(Can be made logarithmic by using a tree)



Hash Table

Idea: Map elements in *S* into an array *A* of size *m* using a hash function **h**

Membership test: To check $x \in S$ just check whether $A[\mathbf{h}(x)] = x$

Storage: *m* elements (size of array)



Hash Table

Idea: Map elements in *S* into an array *A* of size *m* using a hash function **h**

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Hashing: collisions

Collisions occur when h(x) = h(y) for some distinct $x, y \in S$, i.e., two elements of set map to the same location

 Common solution: <u>chaining</u> – at each location (bucket) in the table, keep linked list of all elements that hash there.



Good hash functions to keep collisions low

- The hash function **h** is good iff it
 - distributes elements uniformly across the *m* array locations so that
 - pairs of elements are mapped independently
 - "Universal Hash Functions" see CSE 332

Hashing: summary

Hash Tables

- They store the data itself
- With a good hash function, the data is well distributed in the table and lookup times are small.
- However, they need at least as much space as all the data being stored,
 i.e., m = Ω(|S|)

In some cases, *S* is huge, or not known a-priori ...

Can we do better!?

Bloom Filters

to the rescue

(Named after Burton Howard Bloom)

Bloom Filters – Main points

- <u>Probabilistic</u> data structure.
- Close cousins of hash tables.
 - But: <u>Ridiculously</u> space efficient
- <u>Occasional</u> errors, specifically false positives.

Bloom Filters

- Stores information about a set of elements $S \subseteq U$. ٠
- Supports two operations: ٠
 - 1 add(x) adds $x \in U$ to the set *S*
 - 2. **contains**(x) ideally: true if $x \in S$, false otherwise

Instead, relaxed guarantees:

- False → definitely not in S
 True → possibly in S

[i.e. we could have *false positives*]

Bloom Filters – Why Accept False Positives?

- **Speed** both **add** and **contains** very very fast.
- Space requires a miniscule amount of space relative to storing all the actual items that have been added.
 Often just 8 bits per inserted item!
- Fallback mechanism can distinguish false positives from true positives with extra cost
 - Ok if mostly negatives expected + low false positive rate

Bloom Filters: Application

- Google Chrome has a database of malicious URLs, but it takes a long time to query.
- Want an in-browser structure, so needs to be efficient and be spaceefficient
- Want it so that can check if a URL is in structure:
 - If return False, then definitely not in the structure (don't need to do expensive database lookup, website is safe)
 - If return True, the URL may or may not be in the structure. Have to perform expensive lookup in this rare case.

Bloom Filters – More Applications

- Any scenario where space and efficiency are important.
- Used a lot in networking
- In distributed systems when want to check consistency of data across different locations, might send a Bloom filter rather than the full set of data being stored.
- Google BigTable uses Bloom filters to reduce disk lookups
- Internet routers often use Bloom filters to track blocked IP addresses.
- And on and on...

What you can't do with Bloom filters

- There is no delete operation
 - Once you have added something to a Bloom filter for *S*, it stays
- You can't use a Bloom filter to name any element of *S*

But what you *can* do makes them very effective!

Bloom Filters – Ingredients

Basic data structure is a $k \times m$ binary array "the Bloom filter"

- $k \text{ rows } t_1, \dots, t_k$, each of size m
- Think of each row as an *m*-bit vector



k different hash functions $\mathbf{h}_1, \dots, \mathbf{h}_k: U \to [m]$

Bloom Filters – Three operations

• Set up Bloom filter for $S = \emptyset$

function INITIALIZE(k, m) **for** i = 1, ..., k: **do** t_i = new bit vector of m 0s

• Update Bloom filter for $S \leftarrow S \cup \{x\}$

function ADD(x) for i = 1, ..., k: do $t_i[h_i(x)] = 1$

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• Check if $x \in S$

function CONTAINS(x) **return** $t_1[h_1(x)] == 1 \land t_2[h_2(x)] == 1 \land \dots \land t_k[h_k(x)] == 1$

Bloom Filters - Initialization

