ORIE 5270: BIG DATA TECHNOLOGIES HOMEWORK 3 – DUE: FRIDAY, 04/09/2021

Instructions. The deadline to submit is **Friday, April 9th** at **11:59pm (midnight) US EST)**. Submit your answers on **Gradescope**. Please submit a **single file per problem**.

Note 1: You may submit a Jupyter notebook for Problem 1.

Note 2: Clarifications have been added in blue color for your convenience.

Problem 1 (Solving sparse linear systems). Suppose you have a set of measurements

$$y_i = a_i^\mathsf{T} x_\sharp, \quad i = 1, \dots, m,$$

where $a_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$ are **known** design vectors and $x_{\sharp} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is an unknown signal you want to recover. In matrix-vector notation, this is equivalent to

$$y = Ax_{\sharp}, \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} a_1^\mathsf{T} \\ \vdots \\ a_m^\mathsf{T} \end{bmatrix}.$$

You are given than $m \ll n$, which means that the system is underdetermined. Without any assumptions, it is statistically impossible to recover x_{\sharp} , since there is an infinite number of solutions. One assumption that enables unique recovery is that that x_{\sharp} is **sparse**; this means that most of its elements are zero, i.e.,

$$\left|\left\{i \mid (x_{\sharp})_i \neq 0\right\}\right| = k \ll n.$$

An algorithm to recover x_{\sharp} is that of **iterative hard thresholding**, presented below. *The operation* $\mathcal{P}_k(\tilde{x}_t)$ *sets all but k largest elements (in magnitude) of* \tilde{x}_t *to zero.*

The following examples demonstrate the behavior of \mathcal{P}_k for different inputs and values of k:

P 2	10	=	10	, 993	(-1			0	
	0		0			-2		=	-2	
	-8		-8			-3			-3	•
	7		0			4			4	

1. Implement Algorithm 1 in Python (using NumPy). The function signature should be iht_solve(A, y, x_0, T, eta, k) and your function should return a single vector (the output x_T of Algorithm 1). If you wish, you can follow the outline given in the Assignments Page.

Algorithm 1 Iterative hard thresholding

Input: matrix *A*, measurements *y*, initial guess x_0 , iterations *T*, step $\eta > 0$, sparsity *k*. **for** t = 1, ..., T **do** $\tilde{x}_t := x_{t-1} - \eta A^T (A x_{t-1} - y)$ $x_t := \mathscr{P}_k(\tilde{x}_t) \triangleright$ Projection to set of sparse vectors **end for return** x_T

2. Try your algorithm on a few random instances with m = 100, n = 500, T = 500 and varying sparsity level $k \in \{2^h | h = 0, 1, ..., 5\}$. You can use the function genInstance from the Assignments Page to generate the instances; for example:

```
# here, m = 100, n = 500, k = 10
y, A, x_true = genInstance(100, 500, 10)
```

Write a Python script that generates an error plot with *k* in the *x*-axis and the approximation error $||x_T - x_{\sharp}||_2$ in the *y*-axis (use matplotlib for the plots).

The "trend" you should expect to observe is that larger values of *k* usually lead to the same or larger approximation error.

Note: The choice of initialization, x_0 , as well as the step size eta, are up to you. For example, you may pick x_0 to be the all-zeros vector or a random vector chosen uniformly on the unit sphere. The step size η should be small (at the order of 0.01 or 0.001), but you may have to try different values around that range until you get reasonable results.

Note: Since k will increase exponentially in these experiments, you should use a logplot with base 2 for x axis: use the matplotlib.pyplot.semilogx function for that purpose.

Problem 2 (All-pairs distances). Suppose you are given a set of vectors x_1, \ldots, x_N in \mathbb{R}^n and you want to compute

$$d_{ij} = ||x_i - x_j||_2^2, \quad \forall i, j \in \{1, \dots, N\}.$$

Write a Python function all_pairs_dist(X) that accepts a NumPy array $X \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times n}$ with each row being a vector x_i and computes a $N \times N$ matrix D with $D_{ij} = ||x_i - x_j||_2^2$. Your function cannot use loops, just Numpy operations and broadcasting.

Hint: use the fact that $D_{ij} = ||x_i - x_j||_2^2 = ||x_i||_2^2 + ||x_j||_2^2 - 2x_i^{\mathsf{T}}x_j$ and NumPy broadcasting.

In particular, you can first try to express the following matrix:

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1^{\mathsf{T}} x_1 & x_1^{\mathsf{T}} x_2 & \dots & x_1^{\mathsf{T}} x_N \\ x_2^{\mathsf{T}} x_1 & x_2^{\mathsf{T}} x_2 & \dots & x_2^{\mathsf{T}} x_N \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ x_N^{\mathsf{T}} x_1 & \dots & \dots & x_N^{\mathsf{T}} x_N \end{bmatrix}$$

using a NumPy matrix-matrix multiplication, and then use NumPy broadcasting for expressing the matrix

$\ x_1\ _2^2 + \ x_1\ _2^2$	 $ x_1 _2^2 + x_N _2^2$
$\ x_2\ _2^2 + \ x_1\ _2^2$	 $ x_2 _2^2 + x_N _2^2$
÷	:
$ x_N _2^2 + x_1 _2^2$	 $ x_N _2^2 + x_N _2^2$

as the sum of two NumPy arrays with appropriate shapes.

Problem 3 (Hashing and bloom filters). In class, we mentioned that constructing an *ideal* hash function that maps from $\{0, ..., m-1\}$ to $\{0, ..., k-1\}$ (i.e., a hash function h such that h(i) is drawn uniformly at random from $\{0, ..., k-1\}$) is impossible. However, since we usually only care about minimizing collision probabilities, we can build something called a **universal** hash function using the Algorithm 2 below.

Algorithm 2 Universal hash function

Input: input universe size *m*, output universe size *k*

1. Pick a prime number p > m.

2. Draw an integer $a \in \{1, ..., p-1\}$ uniformly at random.

3. Draw an integer $b \in \{0, ..., p-1\}$ uniformly at random.

return the function $h(x) := ((ax + b) \mod p) \mod k$.

Part I: Write a Python function genHash(m, k) that implements Algorithm 2. Your function should return a callable that is the function h(x) described in the algorithm. For example, the output hash below should itself be a function that can be used to map elements from the input universe to $\{0, ..., k-1\}$.

```
>>> hash = genHash(100, 10)
>>> hash(97)  # should return something in {0, 1, ..., 9}.
>>> hash(97)  # should return the same number
```

"Returning a callable" specifically means returning an object that can be stored and invoked as a function. Here is an example of defining such a callable:

```
>>> my_fun = lambda x: x + 1
>>> my_fun(1)
2
```

Note that my_fun can now be passed around as a variable, stored in an array, etc.

Note: You may use the next_prime() function, available from the assignments page. Calling next_prime(x) will return the next prime strictly larger than *x*.

Part II: Use the function you wrote in Part I to implement a Bloom filter. Bloom filters are efficient data structures for checking membership in a set. The cost of efficiency is a (small) probability of false positives. Here, we assume that our input universe is $\{0, ..., m-1\}$. A Bloom filter works as follows:

Bloom filter

- 1. Initialize a *k*-dimensional bit array (i.e. with values in 0 or 1), with all elements initially set to 0. Call this array *A*.
- 2. Generate *p* universal hash functions mapping from $\{0, ..., m-1\}$ to $\{0, ..., k-1\}$ using Algorithm 2. Call these functions $h_1, ..., h_p$.
- 3. **Insertion**: to "insert" some $x \in \{0, ..., m-1\}$ to the set, modify *A* as follows:

$$A[h_i(x)] = 1, \quad \forall i = 1, \dots, p.$$

- 4. Lookup: to check if some $y \in \{0, ..., m-1\}$ belongs to the set, return:
 - TRUE if $A[h_i(y)] = 1$ for all i = 1, ..., p.
 - FALSE otherwise.

Create a Python class called BloomFilter with a constructor that accepts the size of the input universe m, the number of elements n to insert to the filter, the number of bits k, and the number of hash functions p. If the user omits p, you should choose

$$p = \left\lceil \frac{k}{n} \ln 2 \right\rceil.$$

Note: *n* here is only used for determining the default number of hash functions *p* and is not used anywhere else. If the user specifies *p*, then *n*'s value does not matter.

Your class should support the following instance methods:

- empty(): clear the Bloom filter by setting the bit array A to zero.
- insert(x): insert an element x into the filter. It should update the state of the filter and return True if the element was added and False if it was already present.

• lookup(x): lookup an element *x*. It should return True if the element was found and False otherwise.

Problem 4 (Streams). In this problem, you will implement a couple of algorithms operating on data streams.

- 1. Implement a Python function randomStream(m, n) that returns a generator containing up to *n* random numbers from the set $\{0, ..., m-1\}$. You will use this function later to emulate a stream; note that a generator takes up way less space than e.g., calling np.random.randint, which would allocate the entire *n*-element list.
- 2. Write a Python function sample(stream, k) that implements the reservoir sampling algorithm for choosing k elements at random from a stream. Your function should use O(k) memory; you can assume that stream is a generator like the one you implemented in Part (1).
- 3. Suppose we now want to (approximately) find the f most frequent elements of a stream. An algorithm for doing that is the COUNTMINSKETCH algorithm, which approximates the frequency of each distinct element seen in the stream. The algorithm relies on the concept of a universal hash function from Problem 3 and operates as follows:

CountMinSketch

Below, we assume that the input "universe" is the set $\{0, ..., m-1\}$.

- **Initialize**: create a matrix *C* with *t* rows and *k* columns, and generate *t* universal hash functions $h_1, \ldots, h_t : \{0, \ldots, m-1\} \rightarrow \{0, \ldots, k-1\}$.
- **Insert**: if *x* is the new element of the stream, do the following:

 $C[i, h_i(x)] \leftarrow C[i, h_i(x)] + 1$, for all rows *i*.

• **Lookup**: to find the approximate frequency of an element $y \in \{0, ..., m-1\}$, return

$$\hat{c}_y := \min_{1 \le i \le t} C[i, h_i(y)]$$

Write a Python function countMinSketch(stream, m, t, k, f) that implements the above algorithm and uses it to find the f most frequent elements of an input stream. You can assume that stream is a Python generator like the one you wrote in Part (1), and you may use the universal hash function implementation from Problem 3.