# Probabilistic Counting, Adding, and Dividing

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### 1 Introduction

The problem of approximate counting requires a data structure D which supports the following methods:

```
D.init(): initialize n to 0

D.update(): update n \leftarrow n+1

D.query(): return an estimate n
```

It is not difficult to show that if we require D.query() = n exactly, then D will need  $\log n$  bits. Traditionally, this problem has been studied in the setting where D.query() = n is required to have fixed  $\epsilon$  relative error with fixed probability  $1 - \delta$ . The optimal data structure in that setting is the Morris counter, and is equivalent to the following: let  $a = O(\epsilon^2/\log(1/\delta))$  and define the sequence

$$s_i = \begin{cases} i & i \le 1/a \\ (1+a)s_{i-1} & \text{o.w.} \end{cases}.$$

Then the data structure methods are implemented as

```
D.init(): initialize i to 0 D.update(): update i \leftarrow i+1 with probability (s_{i+1}-s_i)^{-1} D.query(): return s_i
```

The number of bits needed by D at any point in time is simply  $\log i$ , which in this case is the minimum of  $\log n$  and  $\log \log n + \log(1/a)$ . It can be shown that this the optimal number of bits up to a constant factor.

We extend this counter in three ways. First, we provide a generic way to construct a counter satisfying whatever kind of error bounds the user desires, not just fixed relative error. Second, a user may want to increase the counter by a large number all at once rather than repeatedly calling the update function; the structure should support this in O(1) time. Third, there is a limited sense in which decrements will be supported.

We tackle the first challenge first. Our data structure closely resembles the Morris counter; the only change is in the choice of  $s_i$ . We call the structure a 'probabilistic counter with range  $s_i$ '.

Intuitively, if  $s_i$  is fast growing, then  $s_i$  can reach n even for small i, so the bit requirement is small. On the other hand, the variance in number of updates before the data structure increments from i to i + 1 is  $(s_{i+1} - s_i)^2$ , which is large when  $s_i$  is fast growing, so the variance of D.query() will be larger.

We will show for arbitrary  $s_i$  that D.query() is an unbiased estimator of n, and we will furthermore give conditions on  $s_i$  under which D.query() is close to correct with high probability.

#### 2 Preliminaries

We will make use of the following tail bound.

**Lemma 1.** Let X be the sum of independent (but not necessarily identically distributed) geometric random variables with finite means. Let m be the largest of those means. Let  $\mathbb{E}[X] = \mu$ . Then for any  $\epsilon \geq 0$  we have

$$\Pr\left[X \le \lambda \mu\right] \le \exp\left(-\frac{\mu}{m} \left(\lambda - 1 - \log \lambda\right)\right).$$

for  $\lambda \leq 1$  and

$$\Pr\left[X \ge \lambda \mu\right] \le \exp\left(-\frac{\mu}{m} \left(\lambda - 1 - \log \lambda\right)\right).$$

for  $\lambda \geq 1$ .

*Proof.* Combine theorems 2.1 and 3.1 here http://www2.math.uu.se/~svante/papers/sj328.pdf.

The following observations will make it easier to get a handle on the exponent  $\frac{\mu}{m}(\lambda - 1 - \log \lambda)$  in the context of this problem.

**Observation 2.** For constants  $C_1 < C_2$ , the functions  $f_1, f_2$  given by

$$f_1(x) = (C_2 - x) \left( \frac{C_1}{C_2 - x} - 1 - \log \left( \frac{C_1}{C_2 - x} \right) \right),$$

$$f_2(x) = (C_1 + x) \left( \frac{C_2}{C_1 + x} - 1 - \log \left( \frac{C_2}{C_1 + x} \right) \right)$$

are strictly decreasing on  $[0, C_2 - C_1)$  and lower bounded by the linear functions

$$f_1(x) \ge -\log(C_2/C_1)x + (C_1 - C_2 + C_2\log(C_2/C_1)),$$

$$f_2(x) \ge -\log(C_2/C_1)x + (C_2 - C_1 + C_1\log(C_2/C_1)),$$

*Proof.* The first two derivatives of  $f_1, f_2$  are

$$f_1'(x) = -\log\left(\frac{C_2 - x}{C_1}\right)$$
 and  $f_1''(x) = \frac{1}{C_2 - x}$ ,

$$f_2'(x) = -\log\left(\frac{C_2}{C_1 + x}\right)$$
 and  $f_2''(x) = \frac{1}{C_1 + x}$ ,

so  $f_1, f_2$  are convex and strictly decreasing for  $x < C_2 - C_1$ . So,  $f_1, f_2$  are lower bounded by the linear functions tangent to them at 0.

The following definition will help in the application of Lemma 1.

**Definition 1.** Given an increasing sequence  $s_i$  of numbers, define their max-gap to be the monotone function

$$g(n) = \max(\max_{s_i \le n} s_i - s_{i-1}, \min_{s_i \le n} n - s_i).$$

### 3 Probabilistic Counter

In the following statements, let  $i_n$  be the value of i in an instance of D after n updates. Note that  $i_n$  is a random variable and that  $s_{i_n}$  is the result of calling D.query() at that point in time.

Proposition 3 (Correct expectation).

$$\mathbb{E}[s_{i_n}] = n.$$

*Proof.* Note that  $s_{i_0} = s_0 = 0$  exactly. Inductively,

$$\mathbb{E}[s_{i_n}] = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \Pr[i_{n-1} = j] \, \mathbb{E}[s_{i_n} | i_{n-1} = j]$$

$$= \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \Pr[i_{n-1} = j] \left( \left( 1 - \frac{1}{s_{j+1} - s_j} \right) s_j + \frac{1}{s_{j+1} - s_j} s_{j+1} \right)$$

$$= \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \Pr[i_{n-1} = j] \left( s_j + 1 \right)$$

$$= \mathbb{E}[s_{i_{n-1}}] + 1.$$

Thus  $\mathbb{E}[s_{i_n}] = n$  as desired.

**Theorem 4** (Concentration). Given a natural number n and an arbitrary interval  $[n_{lo}, n_{hi}]$  containing n, if the max-gap of  $s_i$  satisfies

$$g(n_{\rm hi}) < n \min \left( \frac{(n_{\rm hi}/n) \log{(n_{\rm hi}/n)} - n_{\rm hi}/n + 1}{\log(2/\delta) + \log(n_{\rm hi}/n)}, n_{\rm hi}/n - 1 \right)$$

and

$$g(n) < n \min \left( \frac{(n_{\text{lo}}/n) \log(n_{\text{lo}}/n) - n_{\text{lo}}/n + 1}{\log(2/\delta) + \log(n/n_{\text{lo}})}, 1 - n_{\text{lo}}/n \right)$$

then  $s_{i_n} \in [n_{lo}, n_{hi}]$  with probability  $1 - \delta$ .

Proof. Since  $g(n_{\rm hi}) < n_{\rm hi} - n$  and  $g(n) < n - n_{\rm lo}$ , we are guaranteed for some i, j that  $s_i \in [n_{\rm lo}, n)$  and  $s_j \in (n, n_{\rm hi}]$ . Let  $i_{\rm hi}$  be the largest index such that  $s_{i_{\rm hi}} \le n_{\rm hi}$  and  $i_{\rm lo}$  the smallest index such that  $n_{\rm lo} \le s_{i_{\rm lo}}$ . We have

$$n_{\text{lo}} \le s_{i_{\text{lo}}} \le n_{\text{lo}} + g(n) < n < n_{\text{hi}} - g(n_{\text{hi}}) \le s_{i_{\text{hi}}} \le n_{\text{hi}}.$$

Let N(i) be the smallest n' for which  $i_{n'} \geq i$ . Note the event  $s_{i_n} \geq s_i$  is equivalent to the event  $N(i) \leq n$ . Also note that N(i) is a sum of geometric random variables. Specifically, N(i+1) - N(i) is the number of updates before the counter increments from i to i+1, so is a geometric random variable with mean  $s_{i+1} - s_i$ . By linearity of expectation, we have  $\mathbb{E}[N(i)] = s_i$ . The largest mean of any of the geometric random variables comprising  $N(i_{\text{hi}})$  is  $g(s_{i_{\text{hi}}})$ , which is upper bounded by  $g(n_{\text{hi}})$ . Similarly the largest mean of any of the geometric random variables comprising  $N(i_{\text{lo}})$  is  $g(s_{i_{\text{lo}}})$ , which is upper bounded by g(n). Lemma 1 allows us to conclude N(i) is highly concentrated. We apply the bound for the upper and lower tails separately using Lemma 1 for each tail, and using Observation 2 twice for each tail.

$$\begin{split} \Pr[s_{i_n} \geq n_{\text{hi}}] &\leq \Pr[s_{i_n} \geq s_{i_{\text{hi}}}] \\ &= \Pr[N(i_{\text{hi}}) \leq n] \\ &= \Pr[N(i_{\text{hi}}) \leq \frac{n}{s_{i_{\text{hi}}}} s_{i_{\text{hi}}}] \\ &\leq \exp\left(-\frac{s_{i_{\text{hi}}}}{g(n_{\text{hi}})} \left(\frac{n}{s_{i_{\text{hi}}}} - 1 - \log\frac{n}{s_{i_{\text{hi}}}}\right)\right) \\ &\leq \exp\left(-\frac{n_{\text{hi}} - g(n_{\text{hi}})}{g(n_{\text{hi}})} \left(\frac{n}{n_{\text{hi}} - g(n_{\text{hi}})} - 1 - \log\frac{n}{n_{\text{hi}} - g(n_{\text{hi}})}\right)\right) \\ &\leq \exp\left(\log(n_{\text{hi}}/n) - \frac{(n_{\text{hi}}/n)\log(n_{\text{hi}}/n) - n_{\text{hi}}/n + 1}{g(n_{\text{hi}})}\right) \\ &\leq \delta/2 \end{split}$$

$$\begin{split} \Pr[s_{i_n} \leq n_{\text{lo}}] &\leq \Pr[s_{i_n} \leq s_{i_{\text{lo}}}] \\ &= \Pr[N(i_{\text{lo}}) \geq n] \\ &= \Pr[N(i_{\text{lo}}) \geq \frac{n}{s_{i_{\text{lo}}}} s_{i_{\text{lo}}}] \\ &\leq \exp\left(-\frac{s_{i_{\text{lo}}}}{g(n)} \left(\frac{n}{s_{i_{\text{lo}}}} - 1 - \log\frac{n}{s_{i_{\text{lo}}}}\right)\right) \\ &\leq \exp\left(-\frac{n_{\text{lo}} + g(n)}{g(n)} \left(\frac{n}{n_{\text{lo}} + g(n)} - 1 - \log\frac{n}{n_{\text{lo}} + g(n)}\right)\right) \\ &\leq \exp\left(\log\left(n/n_{\text{lo}}\right) - \frac{(n_{\text{lo}}/n)\log(n_{\text{lo}}/n) - n_{\text{lo}}/n + 1}{g(n)}n\right) \\ &\leq \delta/2. \end{split}$$

By union bound, the probability  $s_{i_n}$  misses  $[n_{\rm hi}, n_{\rm lo}]$  is thus at most  $\delta$ , as desired.

**Corollary 5.** For small  $\epsilon$ , the standard Morris counter with  $a = \frac{\epsilon^2/\log(2/\delta)}{2+\epsilon}$  satisfies for every n that  $|s_{i_n} - n| \le \epsilon n$  with probability  $1 - \delta$ .

*Proof.* Note that D is deterministically correct for  $n \leq 1/a$ , and  $s_i$  satisfies the hypothesis of Theorem 4 with  $n_{lo} = (1 - \epsilon)n$  and  $n_{hi} = (1 + \epsilon)n$  for every  $n \geq 1/a$ .

Corollary 6. The probabilistic counter implemented by Redis, for particular parameters, satisfies for every n that  $|s_{i_n} - n| \le cn^{0.75}$  with probability  $1 - \delta$ . It uses  $(0.5 + o(1))(\log n + \log \log(1/\delta) - \log c)$  bits.

Proof. Redis takes

$$s_i = \frac{a}{2}(i^2 + i),$$

which gives a max-gap of

$$g(n) = O(\sqrt{2an}).$$

We can therefore take  $n_{\rm lo} = n(1 - cn^{-0.25})$  and  $n_{\rm hi} = n(1 + cn^{-0.25})$ , and set the parameter  $a = c^4/(8\log^2(2/\delta))$ . These choices satisfies the hypothesis of Theorem 4. Note that taking logs of  $i \approx \sqrt{2n/a}$  gives the bit requirement.

Remark 7. Experimentally, the bounds in the above two corollaries appear to be tight up to a constant factor in the sense that if theory guarantees  $|s_{i_n}/n-1| < \epsilon$  with probability  $1-\delta$ , then for some C we will have  $|s_{i_n}/n-1| > C\epsilon$  with probability at least  $\delta$  in practice. With a very limited memory budget of 8 bits, Morris provides decent error on a huge range of n (roughly from  $n=2^{10}$  to  $n=2^{23}$ ) at the expense of worse 'peak' performance on a narrower range of n. Redis, for carefully selected parameter a, gives about twice as good relative error as Morris for a small range of n, (like  $2^k$  to  $2^{k+2}$ ), and absolutely atrocious error elsewhere.

## 4 Beyond counting

Say one wants to support large increments. One possibility is on increment by U, to simulate U steps of the standard probabilistic counter. However, this will take O(U) time, which is huge. We can support O(1) time.

Let D be the probabilistic counter with range  $s_i$  that satisfies the bound  $s_{i_n} \in [n-l(n), n+u(n)]$  with probability  $1-\delta$  for some monotonically increasing functions l, u. We construct D' supporting large updates that satisfies the same bound, where now n is the total value of the sum, not the number of increments. We require that the bound is satisfied for any sequence of updates summing to n, for any n.

D'.update(U):

Pick j to be the largest index such that  $s_j - s_i \leq U$ .

Let  $U_1 = s_j - s_i$  and  $U_2 = U - U_1$ . Update  $i \leftarrow j$ .

If  $U_2=0$ , end.

Else sample a geometric random variable r with parameter  $(s_{i+1}-s_i)^{-1}$ .

If  $r > U_2$  end.

Else update  $i \leftarrow i+1$  and call D'.update( $U_2-r$ ).

**Theorem 8.** The above update method satisfies the desired bound.

Proof. Say the current state of the data structure is i. Say we are given an update U which happens to be  $U = s_j - s_i$  for some  $j \ge i$ . Then since  $s_i \in [n - l(n), n + u(n)]$ , we automatically have  $s_j \in [n+U-l(n), n+U+u(n)] \subset [n+U-l(n+U), n+U+u(n+U)]$ , so we can simply increase i to j. For  $U \le s_{i+1} - s_i$ , we sample a geometric random variable r with mean  $s_{i+1} - s_i$ . The sequence of r-s sampled in each recursive call mimic the N(i+1) - N(i) in the proof of Theorem 4, so correctness follows from the correctness of D.

An alternative formulation of this problem is this: given a stream of positive numbers, approximate their sum. The standard solution to that problem is to use floats. An float f is represented as three non-negative integers  $b < 2^1, e < 2^8, F < 2^{23}$  with

$$f = (-1)^b \cdot 2^{e-127} \cdot \left(1 + \frac{F}{2^{23}}\right).$$

Floats satisfy the bound that if a+b=c exactly, then a+b according to float arithmetic will be c rounded to the nearest float, which is at most a factor of  $1\pm 2^{-23}$  off of the true value. As a consequence, the data structure that simply adds a stream of floats to an accumulating sum can have relative error as high as  $T/2^{23}$  where T is the number of items in the steam. Our probabilistic counter can remove the dependence on T. Note that

$$2^{127+23}f = 2^{23+e} + 2^e F$$

is an integer ranging from  $2^{23}$  (for e = F = 0) to  $2^{23+255} + 2^{255}(2^{23} - 1) = 2^{279} - 2^{255}$  (for  $e = 2^8 - 1$  and  $F = 2^{23} - 1$ ). We thus set

$$s_i = \begin{cases} i & i \le 2^{23} \\ 2^{150} f_{i-2^{23}} & \text{o.w.} \end{cases}$$

where  $f_i$  is the *i*th smallest positive float. The max-gap satisfies

$$g(n) \le \max(1, n/2^{23}).$$

Our structure can scale inputs by  $2^{150}$ , perform an update, then scale the output of query by  $2^{-150}$ . As a consequence, the probabilistic counter with range  $s_i$  will have < 0.1% error with probability > 99.9%. This will be true regardless of n or T. Contrast this with standard floating-point arithmetic. There, the accuracy degrades linearly with the number of operations performed. Machine precision is  $2^{-23}$  for floats, so after roughly  $2^{23}$  additions, the error may be huge.

# 5 Application to Caching

If one wants to implement a least-frequently-used (LFU) caching policy for a particular database, then one needs to estimate how frequently each item in the database is requested. We can use a probabilistic counter to do this with very little extra memory. We consider two models of requests. In the first model, we are given a stream of random requests, and the probability that each request is for a particular item obeys a fixed power-law distribution. In the second model, requests arrive as a Poisson point process whose rate may change over time. In both cases, one needs to figure out the distribution on the item that the next request will be for; the first model serves as kind of a warm-up, and the second model seems more realistic in practice.

#### 5.1 Model one

Say we have U items in a database and the probability of querying the xth item is proportional to 1/x. An ideal cache of size k+1 stores first k, giving a cache hit rate of approximately  $\log(k)/\log(U)$ . In practice, the probabilities may not be known in advance. So we must estimate them using empirical frequency. If the system correctly identifies the top  $k^{0.9}$  items and keeps them in cache, then the hit rate will be at least  $0.9 \log(k)/\log(U)$ . So the system need to differentiate between items that occur with probability more than  $1/k^{0.9}$  versus less than 1/k. For this task, a probabilistic counter can tolerate huge  $(k^{0.1})$  relative error and still be successful. If one lets  $s_i = (\log k)^i$ , then one only needs  $\log \log n - \log \log \log k$  bits.

Unfortunately, it's unclear if this model is very realistic. In reality, the probability of querying each item can change over time.

#### 5.2 Model two

Requests for a particular item come in as a Poisson point process with rate  $\lambda$ , which can depend on t, time. If one makes some assumption about how quickly  $\lambda$  can change, then it may be reasonable to estimate  $\lambda$  based on the the number of requests made in the last T seconds, for some parameter T. One can do the following with a deterministic counter:

- 1. Count the requests made in the first T+1 seconds.
- 2. Scale that number down by  $\frac{T}{T+1}$
- 3. Add the number of requests made in the next second and go to step 2.

If  $x_t$  is the value after step 2 after t seconds, then we have the recurrence

$$x_{t+1} = \frac{T}{T+1}(x_t + b_t)$$

where  $b_t$ , the number of items observed during [t, t+1), is a Poisson random variable with rate  $\lambda$ . Rearranging gives

$$x_{t+1} - \lambda T = \frac{T}{T+1}(x_t - \lambda T) + (b_t - \lambda).$$

Note that  $b_t - \lambda$  has mean zero and variance  $\lambda$ , so with high probability  $|x_t/T - \lambda|$  should exponentially quickly decrease to below  $O(\sqrt{\lambda}/T)$ .

Translating each of these steps to their probabilistic versions, steps 1 and 3 are fine. What about 2? If we use a Morris counter and it happens to be that  $(T+1)/T = (1+a)^d$  for some d, then one can decrement  $i \leftarrow i - d$ . Then  $s_i \in [(1-\epsilon)n, (1+\epsilon)n] \implies s_{i-d} \in [(1-\epsilon)n \frac{T}{T+1}, (1+\epsilon)n \frac{T}{T+1}]$  deterministically. If not, one can perturb the value of T slightly so that  $(T+1)/T = (1+a)^d$  exactly for some d. Because we only care about estimating  $\lambda$ , the exact value of T can be adjusted and  $x_t/T$  will still quickly approximate  $\lambda$ .