

## **UNIT V**

### **Algorithms for Streaming and Big Data**

#### **Introduction**

Modern data science systems deal with continuous, massive, fast-moving data known as data streams.

Examples include:

- Website logs
- Sensor data
- Clickstream data
- Telemetry data

Traditional algorithms fail because:

- Data size is too large
- Data arrives continuously
- Storing all data is impossible

Streaming and Big Data algorithms are designed to work with limited memory, one pass, and approximate answers.

#### **Data Stream Model**

##### **Introduction**

The Data Stream Model is a computational model used to process continuous, high-speed, and massive data that arrives sequentially over time.

In this model:

- Data elements arrive one by one
- The total data size may be infinite
- Storing the entire data is not feasible

Hence, algorithms must process data in real time using limited memory.

##### **Why Data Stream Model is Needed**

Traditional algorithms assume:

- All data fits in memory

- Multiple passes over data are possible

✗ These assumptions fail for:

- Web logs
- Sensor data
- Network traffic
- Clickstream data

✓ The data stream model addresses these challenges.

### Key Characteristics

- Single or few passes over data
- Limited memory
- Fast processing
- Approximate answers
- Order-sensitive

### Formal Definition

A data stream is a sequence:

$$x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n$$

where:

- Each element must be processed immediately
- Past elements cannot be revisited

### Constraints in Data Stream Model

1. **Memory constraint** – cannot store entire stream
2. **Time constraint** – each element processed quickly
3. **Pass constraint** – usually one-pass

## 6. Types of Data Streams

1. **Insert-only stream**  
(elements only added)
2. **Turnstile stream**  
(elements added and removed)
3. **Sliding window stream**  
(only recent data considered)

## Approximation in Data Streams

Exact answers are often impossible.

Data stream algorithms provide:

- Approximate results
- Error bounds
- High probability correctness

## Common Data Stream Algorithms

Algorithm	Purpose
Count-Min Sketch	Frequency estimation
Reservoir Sampling	Random sampling
Flajolet–Martin	Distinct counting
Misra–Gries	Frequent elements
Approximate Quantiles	Percentile estimation

## Applications

- Log processing
- Clickstream analysis
- Network monitoring
- IoT telemetry
- Financial tick data

## Advantages

- ✓ Scalable
- ✓ Memory efficient
- ✓ Real-time processing

## **12. Limitations**

- ✗ Approximate results
- ✗ Algorithm design complexity
- ✗ Sensitive to parameter tuning

## **One-Pass Algorithms**

### **Meaning**

A one-pass algorithm:

- Reads each data element only once
- Does not revisit previous elements

### **Why One-Pass?**

- Streams cannot be stored
- Multiple passes are infeasible

### **Examples**

- Counting approximate frequencies
- Finding maximum/minimum
- Estimating distinct elements

### **Advantages**

- ✓ Low memory
- ✓ Fast processing
- ✓ Real-time capability

## **Count-Min Sketch (CMS)**

### **Introduction**

The Count–Min Sketch is a probabilistic data stream algorithm used to estimate the frequency of elements in massive data streams using very small memory.

It is widely used when:

- The stream is too large to store
- Exact frequency counting is infeasible
- Approximate answers with error bounds are acceptable

## Problem Statement

Given a data stream:

$$x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n$$

Estimate the frequency of any element  $x$  using:

- One pass
- Limited memory

## Key Idea

- Use multiple hash functions
- Maintain a 2D array of counters
- Hash collisions may occur, but taking the minimum reduces error

## Data Structure

### Structure

- A table of size  $d \times w$
- $d$  = number of hash functions (rows)
- $w$  = number of counters per row (columns)

Each row has an independent hash function.

## Working of Count–Min Sketch

### Step 1: Initialization

- Initialize all counters to **0**

## Step 2: Update (Insert Element)

For each incoming element  $x$ :

1. Apply each hash function  $h_i(x)$
2. Increment the counter at position  $(i, h_i(x))$

## Step 3: Query (Estimate Frequency)

To estimate frequency of element  $x$ :

$$\text{freq}(x) = \min_{i=1}^d \text{table}[i][h_i(x)]$$

## Why Take the Minimum?

- Collisions can only increase counts
- The minimum value gives the closest estimate to the true frequency

## Example

### Stream

a, b, a, c, a, b

### Estimated Frequency

Element	Actual	Estimated
a	3	3
b	2	2
c	1	1

(Approximation depends on hash collisions)

## Error Guarantee

With appropriate parameters:

$$\text{Estimated frequency} \leq \text{True frequency} + \epsilon N$$

With probability:

$$1 - \delta$$

Where:

- $N$  = total stream size
- $\epsilon$  = error factor
- $\delta$  = failure probability

### Parameter Selection

$$w = \lceil e/\epsilon \rceil$$
$$d = \lceil \ln(1/\delta) \rceil$$

### Advantages

- ✓ One-pass algorithm
- ✓ Very memory efficient
- ✓ Fast updates and queries
- ✓ Simple implementation

### Limitations

- ✗ Overestimates frequency
- ✗ Approximate results
- ✗ Depends on hash quality

### Applications

- Network traffic monitoring
- Log processing
- Query frequency estimation
- Clickstream analysis
- Heavy hitter detection

### Reservoir Sampling

## What is Reservoir Sampling?

Reservoir Sampling is a randomized algorithm used to select  $k$  random items from a stream of unknown size  $n$  (or very large  $n$ ) in a single pass.

- **Key Idea:** You don't know the total number of items in advance, so you can't store everything to sample later. Reservoir sampling allows you to maintain a representative sample while reading the data sequentially.
- **Applications:**
  - Selecting random logs from a large log file.
  - Randomly picking users from a stream of events.
  - Big data analytics when storing all data is impossible.

## Problem Setup

- Input: A stream of items  $S = s_1, s_2, s_3, \dots, s_n$
- Goal: Pick  $k$  items uniformly at random from  $n$ , without knowing  $n$  in advance.
- Output: A random sample of  $k$  items, each with probability  $\frac{k}{n}$  of being included.

## Algorithm (for $k = 1$ )

Let's start with the simplest case: pick **1 item** from a stream.

1. Initialize  $res$  = first item of the stream.
2. For the  $i$ -th item ( $i \geq 2$ ):
  - Pick it with probability  $\frac{1}{i}$ .
  - If chosen, replace  $res$  with the current item.
3. Continue until the end of the stream.
4.  $res$  will now be **1 item chosen uniformly at random** from the stream.

**Why it works:** Each item has a probability  $1/i$  of replacing the current item. By induction, every item has equal probability  $1/n$  at the end.

## Algorithm (for $k > 1$ )

If we want  **$k$  items**:

1. Initialize an array  $reservoir[1..k]$  with the first  $k$  items of the stream.



2. For the  $i$ -th item ( $i > k$ ):
  - Pick a random index  $j$  from 1 to  $i$ .
  - If  $j \leq k$ , replace `reservoir[j]` with the  $i$ -th item.
3. Continue until the end of the stream.
4. The reservoir array now contains  **$k$  random items**, each with equal probability  $k/n$ .

### Example

Suppose you want  $k = 2$  samples from the stream [10, 20, 30, 40].

1. Take first two items: `reservoir` = [10, 20].
2. Item 3 (30):
  - Pick random  $j \in [1,3]$ . Suppose  $j=2 \rightarrow$  replace `reservoir[2]`  $\rightarrow$  [10, 30].
3. Item 4 (40):
  - Pick random  $j \in [1,4]$ . Suppose  $j=3 \rightarrow$  do nothing ( $j > k$ ).
4. Final `reservoir` = [10, 30] (one of the possible combinations with equal probability).

### Properties

- **Single-pass algorithm** – suitable for streaming data.
- **Memory efficient** – only need to store  $k$  items.
- **Uniform probability** – each item has exactly  $k/n$  chance of being selected.

### Use Cases

1. **Big Data / Streaming**
  - Sampling logs or events when  $n$  is huge.
2. **Machine Learning**
  - Creating a random subset for training without loading all data.
3. **Online Systems**
  - Randomly selecting users for A/B testing from a live event stream.

### Approximate Quantiles

## What are Quantiles?

Quantiles are values that divide a dataset into equal-sized intervals. They help summarize the distribution of data.

- Median = 0.5-quantile (divides data into two equal parts)
- Quartiles = divide data into 4 equal parts
- Deciles = divide data into 10 equal parts
- Percentiles = divide data into 100 equal parts

Formally:

- The  $\phi$ -quantile ( $0 \leq \phi \leq 1$ ) is the value  $x$  such that  $\phi$  fraction of data  $\leq x$ .

## Why Approximate Quantiles?

In big data or streaming data, computing exact quantiles is costly because:

- Data size  $n$  may be huge or infinite (streaming data).
- Sorting the whole data to get exact quantiles is impractical.

**Solution:** Use approximate quantiles algorithms that:

- Provide a value close to the true quantile
- Use limited memory
- Work in one pass over the data

## Problem Statement

Given:

- Stream of  $n$  numbers:  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$
- Quantile  $\phi$  ( $0 \leq \phi \leq 1$ )

Goal: Find a value  $v$  such that the rank of  $v$  is approximately  $\phi * n$ , i.e.,

$$(\phi - \epsilon) * n \leq \text{rank}(v) \leq (\phi + \epsilon) * n$$

Where  $\epsilon$  is the tolerance (error bound).

## Basic Approaches

### Sorting (Exact)

- Store all data  $\rightarrow$  sort  $\rightarrow$  pick quantiles
- Memory & time intensive  $\rightarrow O(n \log n)$
- Not feasible for streams

### Reservoir Sampling + Sorting (Approximate)

- Maintain a random sample of the stream (size  $k$ )
- Sort the sample  $\rightarrow$  pick  $\phi$ -quantile from sample
- Works well if  $k \ll n$
- Memory-efficient, but approximation depends on sample size

### GK Algorithm (Greenwald-Khanna)

One of the most popular streaming algorithms for approximate quantiles:

- Maintains a summary of the stream: list of tuples (value,  $g$ ,  $\delta$ )
  - value = observed number
  - $g$  = gap (how many elements between previous tuple and this one)
  - $\delta$  = allowable error in rank
- Ensures that the rank of any value can be estimated within  $\epsilon \cdot n$
- Memory usage:  $O(1/\epsilon * \log(\epsilon \cdot n)) \rightarrow$  very efficient

### Q-digest (for integers)

- Works for integer streams
- Uses tree-based summaries
- Merges counts to compress data while maintaining approximate ranks

### Example (Approximate Median)

Stream: [3, 1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6]

Goal: Approximate 0.5-quantile (median)

- Keep a **sample of size 4**  $\rightarrow$  [3, 1, 5, 2]
- Sort sample  $\rightarrow$  [1, 2, 3, 5]

- Median  $\approx 2.5 \rightarrow$  close to exact median 3

As the stream grows, the approximation becomes closer to the true quantile.

### Properties of Approximate Quantiles

- Memory-efficient  $\rightarrow$  only store summary or sample
- Single-pass / streaming-friendly
- $\epsilon$ -approximation guarantees that the error in rank is bounded
- Can compute multiple quantiles simultaneously

### Applications

1. **Big Data Analytics:** Percentiles of response times, log data, or transactions
2. **Monitoring Systems:** Latency monitoring  $\rightarrow$  approximate 95th percentile
3. **Databases:** Fast percentile queries without full sorting
4. **Machine Learning:** Feature binning, normalization

## Frequent Elements (Heavy Hitters)

### What are Frequent Elements (Heavy Hitters)?

Frequent elements (or heavy hitters) are items in a data stream or dataset that appear more than a certain threshold.

Formally:

- Given a stream of elements:  $S = s_1, s_2, \dots, s_n$
- A frequency threshold  $\phi$  ( $0 < \phi \leq 1$ )
- Heavy hitters = items that appear more than  $\phi * n$  times in the stream

### Example:

- Stream: [a, b, a, c, a, b, d]
- Threshold  $\phi = 0.3 \rightarrow 0.3 * 7 = 2.1$
- Heavy hitters: a (appears 3 times,  $> 2.1$ )

### Why Heavy Hitters?

- In big data or streaming, storing all items to count frequencies is impractical.
- Applications:
  - Detecting popular search queries in real-time
  - Monitoring network traffic for frequently accessed IPs
  - Identifying hot items in recommendation systems

## Challenges in Streams

1. **Unknown size ( $n$ )** → cannot compute exact frequency threshold in advance
2. **Memory limitation** → cannot store all distinct elements
3. **Single-pass requirement** → must process each element **once**

## Algorithms for Frequent Elements

### Misra-Gries Algorithm (Counter-Based)

**Idea:** Keep  **$k$  counters** to track potential heavy hitters.

- Initialize  $k = 1/\phi$  counters
- For each incoming element  $x$ :
  1. If  $x$  is already in counters → increment its count
  2. Else if counter has empty slot → add  $x$  with count = 1
  3. Else → decrement **all counters by 1**
- At the end, counters **may contain all heavy hitters**
- Final pass: check actual frequencies of candidates

**Memory:**  $O(1/\phi)$  → very efficient

### Example:

- Stream: [a, b, a, c, a, b, d]
- $\phi = 0.3$  →  $k = 3$  counters
- Final counters: {a:2, b:1, c:0} → heavy hitter = a

### Count-Min Sketch (Approximate, Hash-Based)

- Uses hash functions and a 2D array to approximate counts

- For each element, increment counters in hash-based rows
- Query approximate count  $\rightarrow$  error bounded by  $\epsilon \cdot n$
- Very memory-efficient  $\rightarrow$  works well for high-speed streams

### Space-Saving Algorithm

- Similar to Misra-Gries but always replaces the smallest counter if a new element arrives
- Often more accurate than Misra-Gries

### Properties

- **Single-pass algorithms**  $\rightarrow$  suitable for streams
- **Memory-efficient**  $\rightarrow$  track only potential heavy hitters, not all elements
- **Approximate counts**  $\rightarrow$  some algorithms give approximate frequency with error bounds

### Applications

1. **Networking:** Detect heavy IPs causing congestion
2. **Web analytics:** Find trending search terms or hashtags
3. **E-commerce:** Identify frequently sold products
4. **Fraud detection:** Detect unusual transaction patterns

### Scalable MapReduce-like Algorithm Design

#### What is MapReduce?

A programming model for processing huge datasets in parallel.

#### Phases

1. **Map** – process input data and produce key-value pairs
2. **Shuffle** – group values by key
3. **Reduce** – aggregate results

## Why MapReduce?

- Handles petabytes of data
- Fault tolerant
- Scalable

## Examples

- Word count
- Log aggregation
- Click analysis

## Applications

### 1. Log Processing

#### What it is:

- Systems and applications generate logs continuously: errors, user actions, server metrics.
- Logs are often high-volume and unbounded, so storing all logs is impractical.

#### How streaming algorithms help:

Algorithm	Application in Logs
<b>Reservoir Sampling</b>	Select a random subset of log entries for inspection or debugging without storing the entire log.
<b>Approximate Quantiles</b>	Monitor response times, request sizes, or latency. For example, approximate 95th percentile response time helps detect performance bottlenecks.
<b>Frequent Elements (Heavy Hitters)</b>	Identify the most frequent error codes or IPs causing failures in the system.

#### Example:

- Detect top 10 most frequent 500-error pages in a web server log in real-time.

### 2. Clickstream Analysis

#### What it is:

- Clickstream = sequence of user actions (clicks, page visits) on a website or app.

- Helps understand user behavior and improve UX or personalization.

#### How streaming algorithms help:

Algorithm	Application in Clickstreams
<b>Reservoir Sampling</b>	Randomly select user sessions for A/B testing or behavior analysis.
<b>Approximate Quantiles</b>	Measure time spent on pages or scroll depth: approximate median or 90th percentile helps identify anomalies.
<b>Frequent Elements (Heavy Hitters)</b>	Track the most clicked pages, buttons, or search queries in real-time.

#### Example:

- Detect trending products or pages that users are clicking most frequently today.

### 3. Telemetry / Sensor Data

#### What it is:

- Telemetry = continuous stream of measurements from devices (IoT, satellites, vehicles).
- Data is high-velocity, high-volume, and often unbounded.

#### How streaming algorithms help:

Algorithm	Application in Telemetry
<b>Reservoir Sampling</b>	Sample sensor readings to detect unusual events without storing all raw data.
<b>Approximate Quantiles</b>	Monitor temperature, pressure, or latency metrics: approximate percentiles help detect anomalies.
<b>Frequent Elements (Heavy Hitters)</b>	Detect sensors that frequently report unusual values, or most common events in a time window.

#### Example:

- In a smart city, detect the roads with the most frequent traffic congestion events in real-time using