

# Big Data Analytics

Lecture 2: Computation and Memory

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**Updates** 

# Suggested Learning Procedure

- Get familiar with Git/GitHub (create an account if you do not have one yet).
- Clone/fork the course's GitHub-repository.
- During class, use the Rmd-file of the slide-set as basis for your notes.
- After class, enrich/merge/extend your notes with the lecture notes.

# **Group Examinations**

- Make sure to build teams of 3 (exception: 2).
- · Register your team (and all members) here.
- Team name: important for handing out team assignments via GitHub Classroom.

Recap Week 1

#### Focus in This Course

- How to use the existing machinery most efficiently for large amounts of data?
- How to approach the analysis of large amounts of data with econometrics?
  - 1. Compute 'usual' statistics based on large dataset (many observations).
  - 2. Practical handling of large data sets for applied econometrics (gathering, storage, preparation, etc.)

# R used in two ways

- · A tool to analyze problems posed by large datasets.
  - For example, memory usage (in R).
- A practical tool for Big Data Analytics.

### Naïve approach (ignorant of R)

```
# Naïve approach (ignorant of R)
deflator <- 1.05 # define deflator
# iterate through each observation
pce real <- list()</pre>
n obs <- length(economics$pce)</pre>
time elapsed <-</pre>
     system.time(
         for (i in 1:n obs) {
               pce real <- c(pce real, economics$pce[i]/deflator)</pre>
})
time_elapsed
##
      user system elapsed
     0.091
             0.004
                      0.095
##
```

#### Consider memory allocation

```
# Improve memory allocation (still somewhat ignorant of R)
deflator <- 1.05 # define deflator
n obs <- length(economics$pce)</pre>
pce real <- list()</pre>
# allocate memory beforehand
# tell R how long the list will be
length(pce real) <- n obs</pre>
# iterate through each observation
time elapsed <-</pre>
     system.time(
         for (i in 1:n obs) {
               pce real[[i]] <- economics$pce[i]/deflator</pre>
})
time elapsed
      user system elapsed
##
     0.005
            0.000
                      0.005
##
```

#### Fastest implementation (vectorization)

```
library(microbenchmark)
# measure elapsed time in microseconds (avg.)
time_elapsed <-
    summary(microbenchmark(pce_real <- economics$pce/deflator))$mean
# per row (in sec)
time_per_row <- (time_elapsed/n_obs)/10^6</pre>
```

Fastest implementation (vectorization)

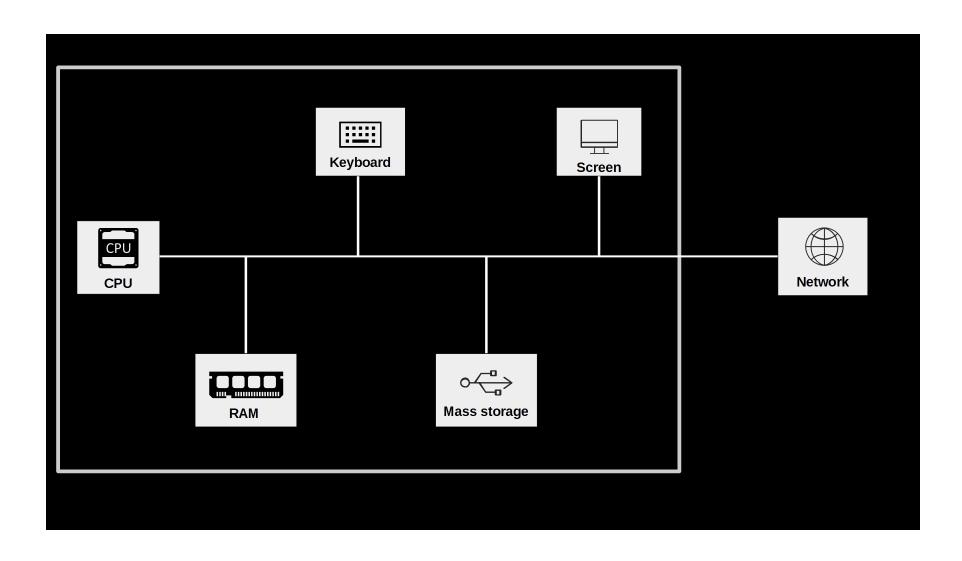
```
# in seconds
(time_per_row*100^4)
## [1] 0.1354656
# in minutes
(time_per_row*100^4)/60
## [1] 0.00225776
# in hours
(time_per_row*100^4)/60^2
## [1] 3.762933e-05
```

**Computation and Memory** 

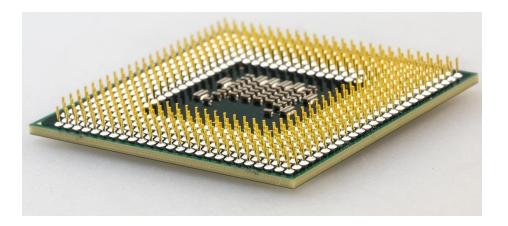
# **Goals of Today**

- Know the core components of a computer
- Understand the very basics of information processing on a computer
- Have a basic idea of how to think about and approach computational challenges
  - From a statistics/applied econometrics perspective
  - From a computational/programmatic perspective
- · Repetition of econometrics concepts: OLS, Monte Carlo, clustered SEs

# Components of a standard computing environment



# Central Processing Unit



# Random Access Memory



# Mass storage: hard drive



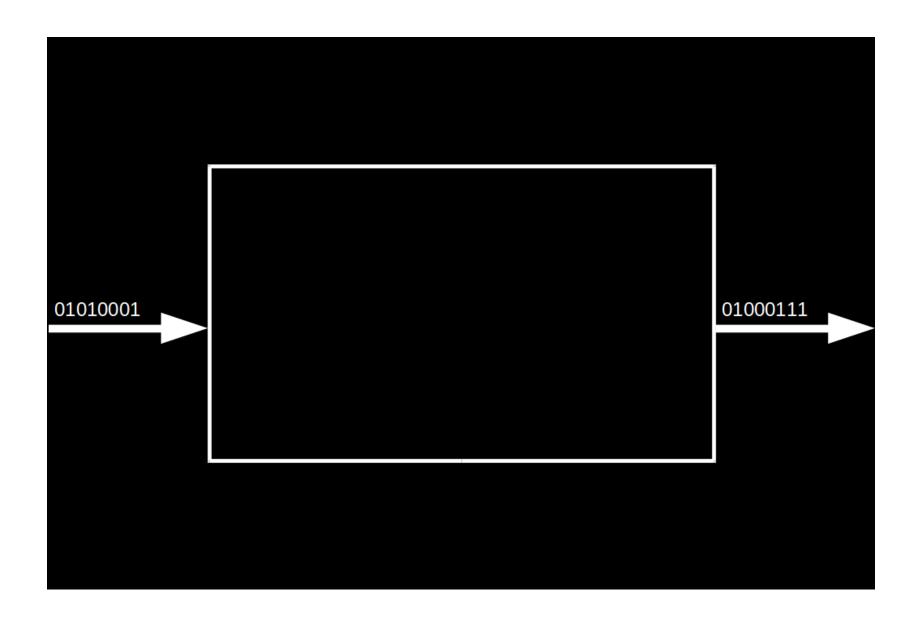
• **Big Data Analytics**: The amount of data to be analyzed is not compatible with the standard usage of one or several of the computing environment's hardware components (the components fail or work very inefficiently).

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  - CPU: Parallel processing (use all cores available)
  - RAM: Efficient memory allocation and usage
  - RAM + Mass Storage: Virtual memory, efficient swapping

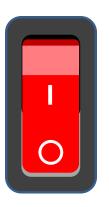
- Big Data Analytics: The amount of data to be analyzed is not compatible with the standard usage of one or several of the computing environment's hardware components (the components fail or work very inefficiently).
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  - RAM: Efficient memory allocation and usage
  - RAM + Mass Storage: Virtual memory, efficient swapping
- Make use of alternative/faster statistical procedures

Units of information/data storage



Microprocessors can only represent two signs (states):

- 'Off' = 0
- 'On' = 1



- · Only two signs: 0, 1.
- · Base 2.
- Columns:  $2^0 = 1$ ,  $2^1 = 2$ ,  $2^2 = 4$ , and so forth.

What is the decimal number 139 in the binary counting frame?

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· Solution:

$$(1 \times 2^7) + (1 \times 2^3) + (1 \times 2^1) + (1 \times 2^0) = 139.$$

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· Solution:

$$(1 \times 2^7) + (1 \times 2^3) + (1 \times 2^1) + (1 \times 2^0) = 139.$$

More precisely:

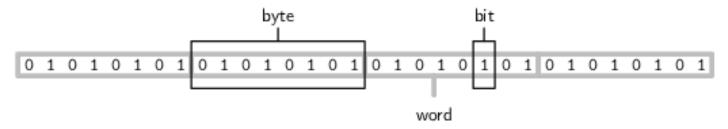
$$(1 \times 2^{7}) + (0 \times 2^{6}) + (0 \times 2^{5}) + (0 \times 2^{4}) + (1 \times 2^{3}) + (0 \times 2^{2}) + (1 \times 2^{1}) + (1 \times 2^{0}) = 139.$$

• That is, the number 139 in the decimal system corresponds to 10001011 in the binary system.

# Units of information storage

- Smallest unit (a 0 or a 1): bit (from binary digit; abbrev. 'b').
- Byte (1 byte = 8 bits; abbrev. 'B')
  - For example, 10001011 (139)
- (4 bytes (or 32 bits) are called a word.)

# Units of information storage



Bit, Byte, Word. Figure by Murrell (2009) (licensed under CC BY-NC-SA 3.0 NZ)

# Units of information storage

Bigger units for storage capacity usually build on bytes:

- 1 kilobyte (KB) =  $1000^1 \approx 2^{10}$  bytes
- 1 megabyte (MB) =  $1000^2 \approx 2^{20}$  bytes
- 1 gigabyte (GB) =  $1000^3 \approx 2^{30}$  bytes
- 1 terabyte (TB) =  $1000^4 \approx 2^{40}$  bytes
- 1 petabyte (PB) =  $1000^5 \approx 2^{50}$  bytes
- 1 exabyte (EB) =  $1000^6 \approx 2^{60}$  bytes
- 1 zettabyte (ZB) =  $1000^7 \approx 2^{70}$  bytes

# Information storage and data types

- · Binary code can be interpreted in different ways
- · As text, number, etc.
- Depending on the data type of a string of symbols such as 139, more or less bytes are needed to represent it.

# Example Size of R Objects

```
object.size("139")
## 112 bytes
object.size(139)
## 56 bytes
```

**Computation in Applied Econometrics** 

# Computational burden

- How to identify bottle-necks?
- Two aspects
  - How is a statistic computed?
  - How does the program/software/language implement this computation?

# Two ways of approaching the burden

- 1. Consider alternative statistical procedures that happen to be more efficient (here: computationally efficient in contrast to statistically efficient). To compute a given statistic based on large amounts of data.
- 2. Given the statistical procedure, how to implement it **efficiently** in your computing environment?

## What if this is not enough?

- Already using all components most efficiently?
- Scale up ('vertical scaling')
- Scale out ('horizontal scaling')

**Faster Statistical Procedures** 

## **Example: Fast Least Squares Regression**

- · Classical approach to estimating linear models: OLS.
- · Alternative: The **Uluru** algorithm (Dhillon et al. 2013).

## OLS as a point of reference

Recall the OLS estimator in matrix notation, given the linear model  $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\beta + \epsilon$ :

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{OLS} = (\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{y}.$$

#### Computational bottleneck of OLS

- $\hat{\beta}_{OLS}$  depends on  $(\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{X})^{-1}$ .
- · Large cross-product if the number of observations is large (X is of dimensions  $n \times p$ )
- · (Large) matrix inversions are computationally demanding.
- OLS has a  $O(np^2)$  running time.

#### OLS in R

```
beta_ols <-
   function(X, y) {

    # compute cross products and inverse
        XXi <- solve(crossprod(X,X))
        Xy <- crossprod(X, y)

    return( XXi %*% Xy )
}</pre>
```

#### Monte Carlo study

Parameters and pseudo data

```
# set parameter values
n <- 100000000
p <- 4

# Generate sample based on Monte Carlo
# generate a design matrix (~ our 'dataset') with four variables and 10000 observations
X <- matrix(rnorm(n*p, mean = 10), ncol = p)
# add column for intercept
X <- cbind(rep(1, n), X)</pre>
```

## Monte Carlo study

Model and model output

```
# MC model 
y <- 2 + 1.5*X[,2] + 4*X[,3] - 3.5*X[,4] + 0.5*X[,5] + rnorm(n)
```

#### Monte Carlo study

· Performance of OLS

```
# apply the ols estimator
beta_ols(X, y)

## [,1]
## [1,] 1.9966035
## [2,] 1.5001925
## [3,] 3.9999142
## [4,] -3.4998863
## [5,] 0.5001352
```

## The Uluru algorithm as an alternative to OLS

Following Dhillon et al. (2013), we compute  $\hat{\beta}_{Uluru}$ :

$$\hat{\beta}_{Uluru} = \hat{\beta}_{FS} + \hat{\beta}_{correct}$$

, where

$$\hat{\beta}_{FS} = (\mathbf{X}_{subs}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{X}_{subs})^{-1} \mathbf{X}_{subs}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{y}_{subs}$$

, and

$$\hat{\beta}_{correct} = \frac{n_{subs}}{n_{rem}} \cdot (\mathbf{X}_{subs}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{X}_{subs})^{-1} \mathbf{X}_{rem}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{R}_{rem}$$

, and

$$\mathbf{R}_{rem} = \mathbf{Y}_{rem} - \mathbf{X}_{rem} \cdot \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{FS}$$

.

## The Uluru algorithm as an alternative to OLS

- Key idea: Compute  $(\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{X})^{-1}$  only on a sub-sample  $(X_{subs}, \text{ etc.})$
- If the sample is large enough (which is the case in a Big Data context), the result is approximately the same.

#### Uluru algorithm in R (simplified)

```
# simple version of the Uluru algorithm
beta uluru <-
     function(X subs, y subs, X rem, y rem) {
          # compute beta fs (this is simply OLS applied to the subsample)
          XXi subs <- solve(crossprod(X subs, X subs))</pre>
          Xy subs <- crossprod(X subs, y subs)</pre>
          b fs <- XXi subs %*% Xy subs
          # compute \mathbf{R} {rem}
          R rem <- y rem - X rem %*% b fs
          # compute \hat{\beta} {correct}
          b correct <- (nrow(X subs)/(nrow(X rem))) * XXi subs %*% crossprod(X_rem, R_rem)</pre>
          # beta uluru
          return(b fs + b correct)
```

### Uluru algorithm in R (simplified)

Test it with the same input as above:

```
# set size of subsample
n subs <- 1000
# select subsample and remainder
n obs <- nrow(X)
X subs <- X[1L:n subs,]</pre>
y_subs <- y[1L:n_subs]</pre>
X rem <- X[(n subs+1L):n obs,]</pre>
y_rem <- y[(n_subs+1L):n obs]</pre>
# apply the uluru estimator
beta uluru(X subs, y subs, X rem, y rem)
##
               [,1]
## [1,] 1.9634975
## [2,] 1.5016897
## [3,] 3.9974782
## [4,] -3.4992864
## [5,] 0.5034944
```

```
# define subsamples
n subs sizes < seq(from = 1000, to = 500000, by=10000)
n runs <- length(n subs_sizes)</pre>
# compute uluru result, stop time
mc results <- rep(NA, n runs)</pre>
mc times <- rep(NA, n runs)</pre>
for (i in 1:n runs) {
     # set size of subsample
     n subs <- n subs sizes[i]</pre>
     # select subsample and remainder
     n obs <- nrow(X)
     X subs <- X[1L:n subs,]</pre>
     y subs <- y[1L:n subs]
     X \text{ rem } \leftarrow X[(n \text{ subs+1L}):n \text{ obs,}]
     y rem <- y[(n subs+1L):n obs]</pre>
     mc results[i] <- beta uluru(X subs, y subs, X rem, y rem)[2] # the first element is the interce
     mc times[i] <- system.time(beta uluru(X subs, y subs, X rem, y rem))[3]</pre>
}
```

```
# compute ols results and ols time
ols_time <- system.time(beta_ols(X, y))
ols_res <- beta_ols(X, y)[2]</pre>
```

· Visualize comparison with OLS.

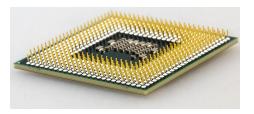
#### 1. Computation time.

#### 1. Precision

**Efficient Use of Resources** 

#### 1) Parallel processing: CPU/core

- · A CPU on any modern computer has several cores.
- The OS usually assigns automatically which tasks/processes should run on which core.
- We can explicitly instruct the computer to dedicate *N* cores to a specific computational task: **parallel processing**.



## 2) Memory allocation: RAM

- · Standard computation procedures happen in-memory: data needs to be loaded into RAM.
- Default lower-level procedures to allocate memory might not be optimal for large data sets.
- · We can explicitly use **faster** memory allocation procedures for a specific big data task.



#### 3) Beyond RAM: virtual memory

- · What if we run out of RAM?
- The OS deals with this by using part of the hard disk as virtual memory.
- By explicitly instructing the computer how to use virtual memory for specific big data tasks, we can speed things up.

We start with importing the data into R.

```
url <- "https://vincentarelbundock.github.io/Rdatasets/csv/carData/MplsStops.csv"
stopdata <- data.table::fread(url) # skipNul avoids running into encoding issues with this data set</pre>
```

First, let's remove observations with missing entries (NA) and code our main explanatory variable and the dependent variable.

```
# remove incomplete obs
stopdata <- na.omit(stopdata)
# code dependent var
stopdata$vsearch <- 0
stopdata$vsearch[stopdata$vehicleSearch=="YES"] <- 1
# code explanatory var
stopdata$white <- 0
stopdata$white[stopdata$race=="White"] <- 1</pre>
```

We specify our baseline model as follows.

model <- vsearch ~ white + factor(policePrecinct)</pre>

And estimate the linear probability model via OLS (the lm function).

```
fit <- lm(model, stopdata)</pre>
summary(fit)
##
## Call:
## lm(formula = model, data = stopdata)
##
## Residuals:
       Min
                 10 Median
                                  30
                                          Max
## -0.13937 -0.06329 -0.05473 -0.04227 0.97729
##
## Coefficients:
                           Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
##
## (Intercept)
                          0.054733
                                     0.005154 10.619 < 2e-16 ***
## white
                                     0.004465 -4.380 1.19e-05 ***
                          -0.019553
## factor(policePrecinct)2 0.008556
                                     0.006757 1.266
                                                      0.2054
## factor(policePrecinct)3 0.003409 0.006483 0.526 0.5990
## factor(policePrecinct)4 0.084639 0.006232 13.582 < 2e-16 ***
## factor(policePrecinct)5 -0.012465
                                     0.006371 -1.956 0.0504 .
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## Residual standard error: 0.254 on 19078 degrees of freedom
```

Compute bootstrap clustered standard errors.

```
# load packages
library(data.table)
# set the 'seed' for random numbers (makes the example reproducible)
set.seed(2)
# set number of bootstrap iterations
B < -10
# get selection of precincts
precincts <- unique(stopdata$policePrecinct)</pre>
# container for coefficients
boot coefs <- matrix(NA, nrow = B, ncol = 2)
# draw bootstrap samples, estimate model for each sample
for (i in 1:B) {
     # draw sample of precincts (cluster level)
     precincts i <- sample(precincts, size = 5, replace = TRUE)</pre>
     # get observations
     bs i <- lapply(precincts i, function(x) stopdata[stopdata$policePrecinct==x,])
     bs i <- rbindlist(bs i)</pre>
     # estimate model and record coefficients
     boot coefs[i,] <- coef(lm(model, bs i))[1:2] # ignore FE-coefficients</pre>
```

Finally, let's compute  $SE_{boot}$ .

#### Parallel implementation...

```
# install.packages("doSNOW", "parallel")
# load packages for parallel processing
library(doSNOW)
# set the 'seed' for random numbers (makes the example reproducible)
set.seed(2)
# get the number of cores available
ncores <- parallel::detectCores()</pre>
# set cores for parallel processing
ctemp <- makeCluster(ncores) #</pre>
registerDoSNOW(ctemp)
# set number of bootstrap iterations
B < -10
# get selection of precincts
precincts <- unique(stopdata$policePrecinct)</pre>
# container for coefficients
boot coefs <- matrix(NA, nrow = B, ncol = 2)
# bootstrapping in parallel
boot coefs <-
     foreach(i = 1:B, .combine = rbind, .packages="data.table") %dopar% {
          # draw sample of precincts (cluster level)
```

As a last step, we compute again  $SE_{boot}$ .

Inspect the memory usage.

```
# SET UP -----
# fix variables
DATA PATH <- "../data/flights.csv"
# load packages
library(pryr)
## Registered S3 method overwritten by 'pryr':
    method
                from
    print.bytes Rcpp
##
## Attaching package: 'pryr'
## The following object is masked from 'package:data.table':
##
      address
##
# check how much memory is used by R (overall)
mem used()
```

'Collect the garbage'...

```
gc()
```

```
## used (Mb) gc trigger (Mb) max used (Mb)
## Ncells 1063841 56.9 1759040 94.0 1759040 94.0
## Vcells 126661755 966.4 213343342 1627.7 211037840 1610.1
```

Alternative approach (via memory mapping).

```
# load packages
library(data.table)
# DATA TMPORT -----
flights <- fread(DATA PATH, verbose = TRUE)
##
    OpenMP version (OPENMP)
                                 201511
    omp get num procs()
                                 12
    R DATATABLE NUM PROCS PERCENT unset (default 50)
    R DATATABLE NUM THREADS
                             unset
    R DATATABLE THROTTLE
                          unset (default 1024)
##
    omp get thread limit() 2147483647
    omp_get_max_threads()
    OMP THREAD LIMIT
                       unset
    OMP NUM THREADS
                                unset
    RestoreAfterFork
                                 true
    data.table is using 6 threads with throttle==1024. See ?setDTthreads.
## Input contains no \n. Taking this to be a filename to open
## [01] Check arguments
    Using 6 threads (omp get max threads()=12, nth=6)
##
    NAstrings = [<<NA>>]
##
    None of the NAstrings look like numbers.
    show progress = 0
##
    0/1 column will be read as integer
```

Alternative approach (via memory mapping).

```
# SET UP -----
# fix variables
DATA PATH <- "../data/flights.csv"
# load packages
library(pryr)
library(data.table)
# housekeeping
flights <- NULL
gc()
             used (Mb) gc trigger (Mb) max used (Mb)
##
## Ncells 1052878 56.3 1759040 94.0 1759040
                                                    94.0
## Vcells 123496007 942.2 213343342 1627.7 211037840 1610.1
# check the change in memory due to each step
# DATA IMPORT -----
mem change(flights <- fread(DATA PATH))</pre>
```

#### References

Dhillon, Paramveer, Yichao Lu, Dean P. Foster, and Lyle Ungar. 2013. "New Subsampling Algorithms for Fast Least Squares Regression." In Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems 26, 360–68.

Murrell, Paul. 2009. Introduction to Data Technologies. London, UK: CRC Press.