

# Efficient Evidence Accumulation Clustering for large datasets

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**Abstract:** The unprecedented collection and storage of data in electronic format has given rise to an interest in automated analysis for generation of knowledge and new insights. Cluster analysis is a good candidate since it makes as few assumptions about the data as possible. A vast body of work on clustering methods exist, yet, typically, no single method is able to respond to the specificities of all kinds of data. Evidence Accumulation Clustering (EAC) is a robust state of the art ensemble algorithm that has shown good results. However, this robustness comes with higher computational cost. Currently, its application is slow or restricted to small datasets. The objective of the present work is to scale EAC, allowing its applicability to big datasets, with technology available at a typical workstation. Three approaches for different parts of EAC are presented: a parallel GPU K-Means implementation, a novel strategy to build a sparse CSR matrix specialized to EAC and Single-Link based on Minimum Spanning Trees using an external memory sorting algorithm. Combining these approaches, the application of EAC to much larger datasets than before was accomplished.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

The amount and variety of data that exists today has sparked the interest in automated analysis for generation of knowledge. Thus, clustering algorithms are useful to explore the structure of data by organizing it into clusters. Many clustering algorithms exist (Jain, 2010), but usually they are data dependent. Inspired by the work on sensor fusion and classifier combination, ensemble approaches (Fred, 2001; Strehl and Ghosh, 2002) have been proposed to address the challenge of clustering a wider spectrum of datasets.

The present work builds on the Evidence Accumulation Clustering (EAC) framework presented by (Fred and Jain, 2005). The underlying idea of EAC is to take a collection of partitions, a *clustering ensemble* (CE), and combine it into a single partition of better quality. EAC has three steps: the **production** of the CE, by applying e.g. K-Means, varying number of clusters (within an interval  $[K_{min}, K_{max}]$ ) to create diversity; the **combination** of the CE into a co-association matrix (based on co-occurrences in CE's clusters), which can be interpreted as a proximity matrix; and, the **recovery** of the final partition. Single-Link (SL) and Average-Link have been used for the recovery, as they operate over dissimilarity matrices.

EAC is robust, but its computational complexity

restricts its application to small datasets. Two approaches for addressing the space complexity of EAC have been proposed: (1) exploiting the sparsity of the co-association matrix (Lourenço et al., 2010) and (2) consider only the  $k$ -Nearest Neighbors of each pattern in the co-association matrix. The present work aims to scale the EAC method to large datasets, using technology found on a typical workstation, which means optimize both speed and memory usage. Hence, we speed-up the production of the CE by using the power of Graphics Processing Units (GPU), deal with the space complexity of the co-association matrix by extending the work of (Lourenço et al., 2010) and use SL to speed-up the recovery, making it applicable to large datasets by using external memory algorithms.

## 2 PRODUCTION

We used NVIDIA's Compute Unified Device Architecture (CUDA) to implement a parallel version of K-Means for GPUs.

### 2.1 Programming for GPUs with CUDA

A GPU is comprised by multiprocessors. Each multiprocessor contains several simpler cores, which exe-

cute a *thread*, the basic unit of computation in CUDA. Threads are grouped into *blocks* which are part of the block *grid*. The number of threads in a block is typically higher than the number of cores in a multiprocessor, so the threads from a block are divided into smaller batches, called *warps*. The computation of one block is independent from other blocks and each block is scheduled to one multiprocessor, where several warps may be active at the same time. CUDA employs a *single-instruction multiple-thread* execution model (Lindholm et al., 2008), where all threads in a block execute the same instruction at any time.

GPUs have several memories, depending on the model. Accessible to all cores are the global memory, constant memory and texture memory, of which the last two are read-only. Blocks share a smaller but significantly faster memory called shared memory, which resides inside the multiprocessor to which all threads in a block have access to. Finally, each thread has access to local memory, which resides in global memory space and has the same latency for read and write operations.

## 2.2 Parallel K-Means

Several parallel implementations of K-Means for GPU exist in the literature (Zechner and Granitzer, 2009; Sirotkovi et al., 2012) and all report speed-ups relative to their sequential counterparts. Our implementation was programmed in Python using the Numba CUDA API, following the version of Zechner and Granitzer (2009), with the difference that we do not use shared memory. We parallelize the labeling step, which was further motivated from empirical data suggesting that, on average, 98% of the time was spent in the labeling step. Our implementation starts by transferring the data to the GPU (pattern set and initial centroids) and allocates space in the GPU for the labels and distances from patterns to their closest centroids. Initial centroids are chosen randomly from the dataset and the dataset is only transferred once. As shown in Algorithm 1, each GPU thread will compute the closest centroid to each point of its corresponding set,  $X_{ThreadID}$ , of 2 data points (2 points per thread proved to yield the highest speed-up). The labels and corresponding distances are stored in arrays and sent back to the host afterwards for the computation of the new centroids. The implementation of the centroid recomputation, in the CPU, starts by counting the number of patterns attributed to each centroid. Afterwards, it checks if there are any "empty" clusters. Dealing with empty clusters is important because the target use expects that the output number of clusters be the same as defined in the input param-

eter. Centroids corresponding to empty clusters will be the patterns that are furthest away from their centroids. Any other centroid  $c_j$  will be the mean of the patterns that were labeled  $j$ . In our implementation several parameters can be adjusted by the user, such as the grid topology and the number of patterns that each thread processes.

**Input:** dataset, centroids  $c_j$ , ThreadID

**Output:** labels, distances

```
forall the  $x_i \in X_{ThreadID}$  do
     $labels_i \leftarrow \arg \min D(x_i, c_j)$ ;
     $distances_i \leftarrow D(x_i, c_{labels_i})$ ;
end
```

**Algorithm 1:** GPU kernel for the labeling phase.

## 3 COMBINATION

Space complexity is the main challenge building the co-association matrix. A complete pair-wise  $n \times n$  co-association matrix has  $O(n^2)$  complexity but can be reduced to  $O(\frac{n(n-1)}{2})$  without loss of information, due to its symmetry. Still, these complexities are rather high when large datasets are contemplated, since it becomes infeasible to fit these co-association matrices in the main memory of a typical workstation. (Loureço et al., 2010) approaches the problem by exploiting the sparse nature of the co-association matrix, but does not cover the efficiency of building a sparse matrix or the overhead associated with sparse data structures. The effort of the present work was focused on further exploiting the sparse nature of EAC, building on previous insights and exploring the topics that literature has neglected so far.

Building a non-sparse matrix is easy and fast since the memory for the whole matrix is allocated and indexing the matrix is direct. When using sparse matrices, neither is true. In the specific case of EAC, there is no way to know what is the number of associations the co-association matrix will have which means it is not possible to pre-allocate the memory to the correct size of the matrix. This translates in allocating the memory gradually which may result in fragmentation, depending on the implementation, and more complex data structures, which incurs significant computational overhead. For building a matrix, the DOK (Dictionary of Keys) and LIL (List of Lists) formats are recommended in the documentation of the SciPy (Jones et al., 2001) scientific computation library. These were briefly tested on simple EAC problems and not only was their execution time several orders of magnitude higher than a traditional fully allo-

cated matrix, but the overhead of the sparse data structures resulted in a space complexity higher than what would be needed to process large datasets. For operating over a matrix, the documentation recommends converting from one of the previous formats to CSR (Compressed Sparse Row). Building with the CSR format had a low space complexity but the execution time was much higher than any of the other formats. Failing to find relevant literature on efficiently building sparse matrices, we designed and implemented a novel strategy for building a CSR matrix specialized to the EAC context, the **EAC CSR**.

### 3.1 Underlying structure of EAC CSR

EAC CSR starts by making an initial assumption on the maximum number of associations *max\_assocs* that each pattern can have. A possible rule is  $3 \times bgs$  where *bgs* is the biggest cluster size in the ensemble. The biggest cluster size is a good heuristic for trying to predict the number of associations, since it is the limit of how many associations each pattern will have in any partition of the clustering ensemble. Furthermore, one would expect that the neighbors of each pattern will not vary significantly, i.e. the same neighbors will be clustered together repeatedly in many partitions. This scheme for building the matrix uses 4 supporting arrays (*n* is the number of patterns):

- **indices** - stores the columns of each non-zero value of the matrix;
- **data** - stores all the non-zero association values;
- **indptr** - the *i*-th element is the pointer to the first non-zero value of the *i*-th row;
- **degree** - stores the number of non-zero values of each row.

The first two arrays have a length of  $n \times max\_assocs$ , while the last two have a length of *n*. Each pattern (row) has a maximum of *max\_assocs* pre-allocated that it can use to fill with new associations and discards associations that exceed it. The *degree* array keeps track of the number of associations of each pattern. Throughout this section, the interval of the *indices* array corresponding to a specific pattern is referred to as that pattern's *indices* interval. The end of the *indices* interval refers to the beginning of the part of the interval that is free for new associations. The term "indices" can refer to the aforementioned array (*indices*) or the plural of index (indices). Furthermore, this method assumes that the clusters received come sorted in an increasing order.

### 3.2 Updating the matrix with partitions

The first partition is inserted in a special way. Since it is the first and the clusters are sorted, it is a matter of copying the cluster to the *indices* interval of each of its member patterns, excluding self-associations. The *data* array is set to 1 on the positions where the associations were added. Because it is the fastest partition to be inserted, when the whole ensemble is provided at once, the first partition is picked to be the one with the least amount of clusters (more patterns per cluster) so that each pattern gets the most amount of associations in the beginning (on average). This increases the probability that any new cluster will have more patterns that correspond to established associations.

For the remaining partitions, the process is different. For each pattern in a cluster it is necessary to add or increment the association to every other pattern in the cluster. However, before adding or incrementing any new association, it is necessary to check if it already exists. This is done using a binary search in the *indices* interval. This is necessary because it is not possible to index directly a specific position of a row in the CSR format. Since a binary search is performed  $(ns - 1)^2$  times for each cluster, where *ns* is the number of patterns in any given cluster, the indices of each pattern must be in a sorted state at the beginning of each partition insertion.

### 3.3 Keeping the *indices* sorted

The implemented strategy results from the observation that, if one could know in which position each new association should be inserted, it would be possible to move all old associations to their final sorted positions and insert the new ones in an efficient manner with minimum number of comparisons (and thus branches in the execution of the code). For this end, the implemented binary search returns the index of the searched value (key) if it is found or the index for a sorted insertion of the key in the array, if it is not found. New associations are stored in two auxiliary arrays of size *max\_assocs*: one (*new\_assoc\_ids*) for storing the patterns of the associations and the other (*new\_assoc\_idx*) to store the indices where the new associations should be inserted (the result of the binary search). This is illustrated with an example in Fig. 1.

The binary search operation requires each pattern's *indices* interval to be sorted. Accordingly, new associations corresponding to each pattern are added in a sorted manner. The sorting mechanism looks at the insertion indices of two consecutive new associations in the *new\_assoc\_idx* array, starting from the end. Whenever two consecutive insertion indices are

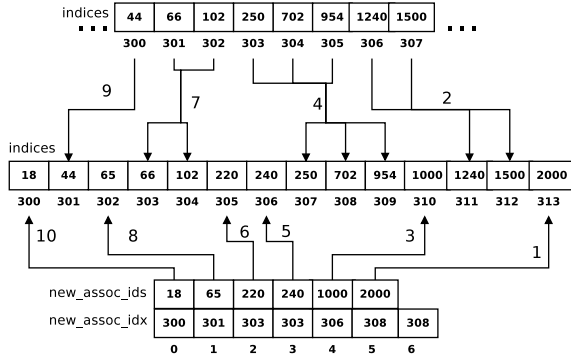


Figure 1: Inserting a cluster from a partition in the co-association matrix. The arrows indicate to where the indices are moved. The numbers indicate the order of the operation.

not the same, it means that old associations must be moved as seen in the example. More specifically, if the  $i$ -th element of the *new\_assoc\_idx* array,  $a$ , is greater than the  $(i-1)$ -th element,  $b$ , then all the old associations in the index interval  $[a, b]$  are shifted to the right by  $i$  positions. The  $i$ -th element will never be smaller than the  $(i-1)$ -th because clusters are sorted. Afterwards, or when two consecutive insertion indices are the same, the  $(i-1)$ -th element of the *new\_assoc\_ids* is inserted in the position indicated by a pointer, *o\_ptr*. The *o\_ptr* pointer is initialized with the number of old associations plus the number of new associations and is decremented anytime an association is moved or inserted. This showed to be roughly twice as fast as using an implementation of *quicksort*.

### 3.4 EAC CSR Condensed

A further reduction of space complexity in the EAC CSR scheme is possible by building only the upper triangular, since this completely describes the co-association matrix. Thus, the amount of associations decreases as one goes further down the matrix. Instead of pre-allocating the same amount of associations for each pattern, the pre-allocation follows the same pattern of the number of associations, effectively reducing the space complexity. The strategy used was a linear one, where the first 5% of patterns have access to 100% of the estimated maximum number of associations, the last pattern has access to 5% of that value and the number available for the patterns in between decreases linearly from 100% to 5%.

## 4 RECOVERY

We used Single-Link (SL) for the recovery of the final partition. SL typically works over a pair-wise dis-

similarity matrix. An interesting property of SL is its equivalence with a Minimum Spanning Tree (MST) (Gower and Ross, 1969). In the context of EAC, the edges of the MST are the co-associations between the patterns and the vertices are the patterns themselves. An MST contains all the information necessary to build a SL dendrogram. One of the advantages of using an MST based clustering is that it processes only non-zero values while a typical SL algorithm will process all pair-wise proximities, even if they are null.

### 4.1 Kruskal's algorithm

Kruskal's algorithm was used for computing the MST. Kruskal (1956) described three constructs for finding a MST, one of which is implemented efficiently in the SciPy library (Jones et al., 2001): "Among the edges of  $G$  not yet chosen, choose the shortest edge which does not form any loops with those edges already chosen. Clearly the set of edges eventually chosen must form a spanning tree of  $G$ , and in fact it forms a shortest spanning tree." This is done as many times as possible and if the graph  $G$  is connected, the algorithm will stop before processing all edges when  $|V| - 1$  edges are added to the MST, where  $V$  is the set of edges. This implementation works on a CSR matrix.

One of the main steps of the implementation is computing the order of the edges of the graph without sorting the edges themselves, an operation called *argsort*. The *argsort* operation on the array  $[4, 5, 2, 1, 3]$  would yield  $[3, 2, 4, 0, 1]$  since the smallest element is at position 3 (starting from 0), the second smallest at position 2, etc. This operation is much less time intensive than computing the shortest edge at each iteration. However, the total space used is typically 8 times larger for EAC since the data type of the weights uses only one byte and the number of associations is very large, forcing the use of an 8 byte integer for the *argsort* array. This motivated the storage of the co-association matrix in disk and usage of an external sorting algorithm.

### 4.2 External memory variant

The *PyTables* library (Alted et al., 2002), was used for storing the co-association matrix in graph format, performing the external sorting for the *argsort* operation and loading the graph in batches for processing. This implementation starts by storing the CSR graph to disk. However, instead of saving the *indptr* array directly, it stores an expanded version of the same length as the *indices* array, where the  $i$ -th element contains the origin vertex (or row) of the  $i$ -th edge. This way, a binary search for discovering

the origin vertex becomes unnecessary. Afterwards, the *argsort* operation is performed by building a completely sorted index (CSI) of the *data* array of the CSR matrix. It should be noted that the arrays themselves are not sorted. Instead, the CSI allows for a fast indexing of the arrays in a sorted manner (according to the order of the edges). The process of building the CSI has a low main memory usage and can be disregarded in comparison to the co-association matrix.

The SciPy implementation of Kruskal’s algorithm was modified to work in batches. This was implemented by making the data structures used in the building of the MST persistent between iterations. The new variant loads the graph in batches and in a sorted manner, starting with the shortest edges. Each batch is processed sequentially since the edges must be processed in a sorted manner, which means there is no possibility for parallelism. Typically, the batch size is a very small fraction of the size of the edges, so the total memory usage for building the MST is overshadowed by the size of the co-association matrix. As an example, for a 500 000 vertex graph the SL-MST approach took 54.9 seconds while the external memory approach took 2613.5 seconds - 2 orders of magnitude higher.

## 5 RESULTS

Results presented here are originated from one of three machines, that will be referred to as Alpha, Bravo and Charlie. The main specifications of each machine are as follows:

- **Alpha:** 4 GBs of main memory, a 2 core Intel i3-2310M 2.1GHz and a NVIDIA GT520M;
- **Bravo:** 32 GBs of main memory, a 6 core Intel i7-4930K 3.4GHz and a NVIDIA Quadro K600;
- **Charlie:** 32 GBs of main memory, a 4 core Intel i7-4770K 3.5GHz and a NVIDIA K40c;

### 5.1 GPU Parallel K-Means

Both sequential and parallel versions of K-Means were executed over a wide spectrum of datasets varying number of patterns, features and centroids. All tests were executed on machine Charlie and the block size was maintained constant at 512. The sequential version used a single thread.

Observing Figures 2A and 2B, it is clear that the number of patterns, features and clusters influence the speed-up. For the simple case of 2 dimensions (Fig 2A), the speed-up increases with the number of patterns. However, there is no speed-up when the overall

complexity of the datasets is low. As the complexity of the problem increases (more centroids and patterns), the speed-up also increases. The reason for this is that the total amount of work increases linearly with the number of clusters but is diluted by the number of threads that can execute simultaneously.

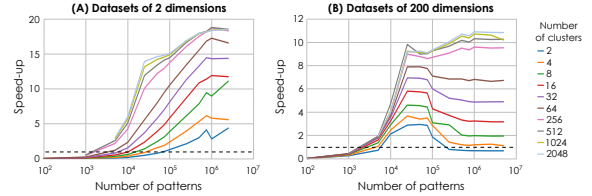


Figure 2: Speed-up of the labeling phase for datasets of (A) 2 dimensions and (B) 200 dimensions, when varying the number of patterns and clusters. The dotted black line represents a speed-up of one.

For 200 dimensions (Fig. 2B), the speed-up increased with both the number of patterns and clusters, as previously. The speed-up obtained is lower than the low dimensional case, which is consistent with literature (Zechner and Granitzer, 2009). The speed-up decreased with an increase of the number of patterns for a reduced number of clusters. We believe the reason for this might be related to the implementation itself. Our implementation does not use shared memory, which is fast.

### 5.2 Validation with original

The results of the original version of EAC, implemented in Matlab, are compared with those of the proposed solution. Several small datasets, chosen from the datasets used in (Lourenço et al., 2010) and taken from the UCI Machine Learning repository (Lichman, 2013), were processed by the two versions of EAC. Both versions are processed from the same ensembles since production is probabilistic, which guarantees that the combination and recovery phases are equivalent. All processing was done in machine Alpha. Table 1 presents the difference between the accuracies of the two versions. It is clear that the difference is minimal, most likely due to the original version using Matlab and the proposed using Python. Moreover, a speed-up as low as 6 and as high as 200 was obtained over the original version in the various steps.

### 5.3 Large dataset testing

The dataset used in the following results consists of a mixture of 6 Gaussians, where 2 pairs are overlapped and 1 pair is touching. This dataset was sampled into smaller datasets to analyze different dataset sizes.

Table 1: Difference between accuracy of the two implementations of EAC, using the same ensemble. Accuracy was measured using the H-index (Meila, 2003).

Dataset	Number of clusters scheme	
	Fixed	Lifetime
breast_cancer	4.94e-06	2.82e-06
ionosphere	1.65e-06	1.45e-06
iris	3.33e-06	3.33e-06
isolet	1.03e-07	4.08e-07
optdigits	3.79e-06	1.48e-06
pima_norm	4.16e-07	4.16e-07
wine_norm	1.12e-07	1.91e-06

Several rules for computing the  $K_{min}$  (see Table 2 for details), co-association matrix formats and approaches for the final clustering will be mentioned. The co-association matrix formats are: *full* (for fully allocated  $n \times n$  matrix), *full condensed* (for a fully allocated  $\frac{n(n-1)}{2}$  array to build the upper triangular matrix), *sparse complete* (for EAC CSR), *sparse condensed const* (for EAC CSR building only the upper triangular matrix) and *sparse condensed linear* (for EAC CSR condensed). The approaches for the final clustering are *SLINK* (Sibson, 1973), *SL-MST* (for using the Kruskal implementation in SciPy) and *SL-MST-Disk* for a disk-based variant.

Table 2: Different rules for  $K_{min}$  and  $K_{max}$ .  $n$  is the number of patterns and  $sk$  is the number of patterns per cluster.

Rule	$K_{min}$	$K_{max}$
$sqrt$	$\frac{\sqrt{n}}{2}$	$\sqrt{n}$
$2sqrt$	$\sqrt{n}$	$2\sqrt{n}$
$sk=sqrt2$	$sk = \frac{\sqrt{n}}{2}$	$1.3K_{min}$
$sk=300$	$sk = 300$	$1.3K_{min}$

A clustering ensemble was produced for each of the smaller datasets and for each of the rules. From each ensemble, co-association matrices were built. A matrix format was not applicable if it could not fit in main memory. The final clustering was done for each of the matrix formats. The number of clusters was chosen with the lifetime criteria (Fred and Jain, 2005). SL-MST was not executed if its space complexity was too big to fit in main memory. Furthermore, the combination and recovery phases were repeated several times, so as to make the influence of any background process less salient. For big datasets, the execution times are big enough that the influence of background processes is negligible. All processing was done in machine Bravo. Similar conclusions were drawn for a dataset with separated Gaussians.

### 5.3.1 Execution times

Execution times are related with the  $K_{min}$  parameter, whose evolution is presented in Fig. 3. Rules  $sqrt$ ,  $2sqrt$  and  $sk=sqrt2$  never intersect but rule  $sk = 300$  intersects the others, finishing with the highest  $K_{min}$ . Observing Fig. 4A, one can see that the same thing happens to the production execution time associated with the  $sk = 300$  rule and the inverse happens to the combination time (Fig. 4B). A higher  $K_{min}$  means more centroids for each K-Means run to compute, so it is not surprising that the execution time for computing the ensemble increases as  $K_{min}$  increases.

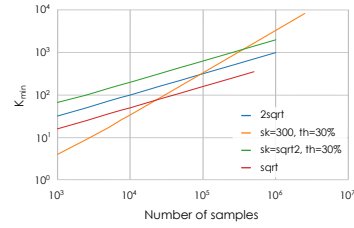


Figure 3: Evolution of  $K_{min}$  with the number of patterns for different rules.

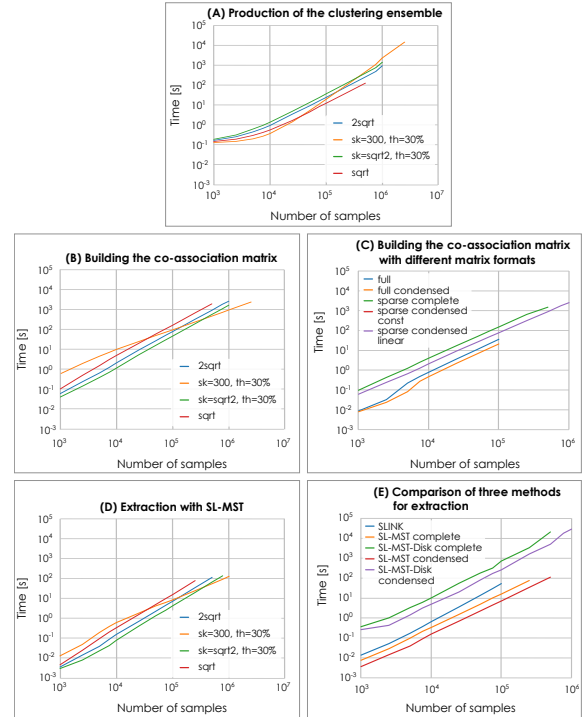


Figure 4: Execution time with different rules and variants for: (A) production of the clustering ensemble; (B,C) building the co-association matrix; and (D,E) extraction of the final partition with SL.

Fig. 4C shows the execution times on a longitudinal study for optimized matrix formats. It is clear

that the sparse formats are significantly slower than the fully allocated ones, specially for smaller datasets. The *full condensed* usually takes around half the time than the *full*, since it performs half the operations. Idem for both *sparse condensed* compared to the *sparse complete*. The discrepancy between the sparse and full formats is due to the fact that the former needs to do a binary search at each association update and keep the internal sparse data structure sorted.

The clustering times of the different methods of SL discussed previously (SLINK, SL-MST and SL-MST-Disk) are presented in Figures 4D and 4E. As expected, the SL-MST-Disk method is significantly slower than any of the other methods, since it uses the hard drive which has very slow access times compared to main memory. SL-MST is faster than SLINK, since it processes zero associations while SL-MST takes advantage of a graph representation and only processes the non-zero associations. In resemblance to what happened with combination times, the condensed variants take roughly half the time as their complete counterparts, since SL-MST and SL-MST-Disk over condensed co-association matrices only process half the number of associations. Although this is not depicted, SLINK takes roughly the same time for every rule, which means  $K_{min}$  has no influence because SLINK processes the whole matrix, regardless of its association sparsity. The same rationale can be applied to SL-MST, where different rules can influence execution times, since they change the total number of associations. As with the combination phase, the  $sk=300$  rule started with the greatest execution time and decreased as the number of patterns increased until it was the fastest.

The total execution times presented in Fig. 5 are for the *sparse condensed linear* format but the others follow the same pattern. When using the SL-MST method in the recovery phase, the execution time for three of the rules do not differ much. This is due to a balancing between a slow down of the production phase and a speed up of the combination and recovery phases as  $K_{min}$  increases at a higher rate for  $sk=300$  than for other rules. This is not observed for the *sqrt* rule as  $K_{min}$  is always low enough that the total time is always dominated by the combination and recovery phases. However, when using the SL-MST-Disk method, the total time is dominated by the recovery phase. This is clear, since the results in Fig. 5B follow the tendency presented in Fig. 4D.

### 5.3.2 Association density

The aforementioned sparse nature of EAC is clear in Fig. 6A. This figure shows the association density, i.e. number of associations relative to the  $n^2$  associations

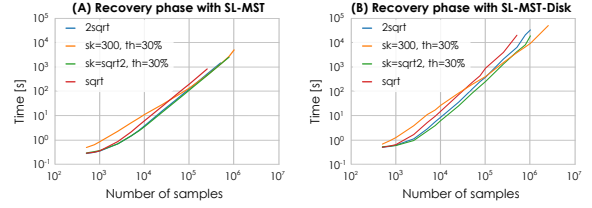


Figure 5: Execution times for all phases combined, using (A) SL-MST and (B) SL-MST-Disk in the recovery phase.

in a full matrix. The *full condensed* has, roughly, a constant density of 50%. Idem for all *sparse* formats, as long as no associations are discarded. The density should decrease as the number of patterns of the dataset increases, since the *full* matrix grows quadratically. Besides, it would be expected that the same associations would be grouped together more frequently in partitions and make previous connections stronger instead of creating new ones, if the relationship between the number of patterns and  $K_{min}$  is constant.

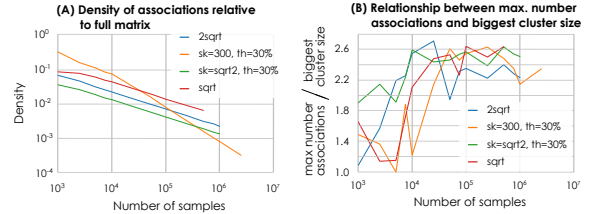


Figure 6: (A) Density of associations relative to the full co-association matrix, which hold  $n^2$  associations. (B) Maximum number of associations of any pattern divided by the number of patterns in the biggest cluster of the ensemble.

Predicting the number of associations is useful for designing combination schemes that are both memory and speed efficient. Fig. 6B presents the ratio between the biggest cluster size and the maximum number of associations of any pattern. This ratio increases with the number of patterns, but never exceeds 3. However, the number of features of the used datasets is small. It might be the case that this ratio would increase with the number of features, since there would be more degrees where the clusters might include other neighbors. Thus, further studies with a wider spectrum of datasets should yield more enlightening conclusions.

### 5.3.3 Space complexity

The allocated space for the space formats is based on a prediction that uses the biggest cluster size of the ensemble. This allocated space is usually more than what is necessary to store the total number of associations, to keep a safety margin. Furthermore, the CSR format, on which the EAC CSR strategy is based, requires an array of the same size of the predicted number of associations. Still, the allocated number of as-



sociations becomes a very small fraction compared to the *full* matrix as the dataset complexity increases, which is the typical case for using a sparse format. The actual memory used is presented in Fig. 7. The data types influence significantly the required memory. The associations can be stored in a single byte, since the number of partitions is usually less than 255. This means that the memory used by the fully allocated formats is  $n^2$  and  $\frac{n(n-1)}{2}$  Bytes for the complete and condensed versions, respectively. In the sparse formats, the values of the associations are also stored in an array of unsigned integers of 1 Byte. However, an array of integers of 4 bytes of the same size must also be kept to keep track of the destination pattern each association belongs to. One other array of integers of 8 bytes is kept but it is negligible compared to the other two arrays. The impact of the data types can be seen for smaller datasets where the total memory used is actually significantly higher than that of the *full* matrix. It should be noted that this discrepancy is not as high for other rules as for  $sk = 300$ . Still, the sparse formats, and in particular the condensed sparse format, are preferred since the memory used for large datasets is a small fraction of what would be necessary if using any of the fully allocated formats.

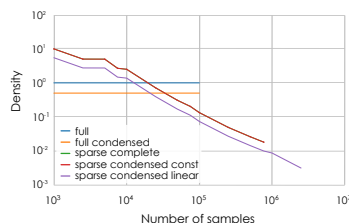


Figure 7: Memory used relative to the full  $n^2$  matrix. The *sparse complete* and *sparse condensed const* curves are overlapped.

## 6 CONCLUSIONS

The main goal of scaling the EAC method for larger datasets than was previously possible was achieved. The EAC method is composed by three steps and, to scale the whole method, each step was optimized separately. In the process, EAC was also optimized for smaller datasets. In essence, the main contributions to the EAC method, by step, were the GPU parallel K-Means, the EAC CSR strategy and the SL-MST-Disk. New rules for  $K_{min}$  were tested and the effects that these rules have on other properties of EAC were studied. Together, these contributions allow for the application of EAC to datasets whose complexity was not handled by the original implementation.

Further work involves a thorough evaluation in real world problems. Additional work may include further optimization of the Parallel GPU K-means by using shared memory and a better sorting of the co-association graph in *SL-MST-Disk*.

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