Mining Massive Datasets

Lecture 3

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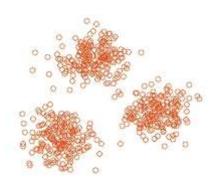
Note on Slides

A substantial part of these slides come (either verbatim or in a modified form) from the book Mining of Massive Datasets by Jure Leskovec, Anand Rajaraman, Jeff Ullman (Stanford University). For more information, see the website accompanying the book: http://www.mmds.org.

Hierarchical Clustering

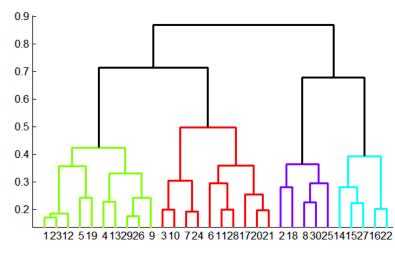
Overview: Methods of Clustering

- Partitioning approaches (e.g. k-means):
 - Iteratively find k cluster "centers"
 - Points belong to "nearest" center



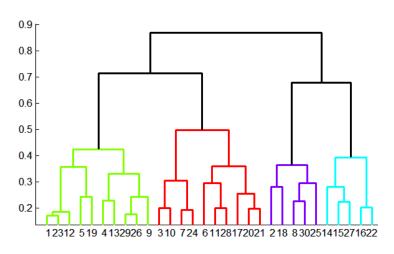
Hierarchical:

- Create a hierarchy of subdivisions by merging or splitting clusters
- Agglomerative (bottom up):
 - Initially, each point is a cluster
 - Repeatedly <u>combine the two</u> <u>"nearest" clusters</u> into one
- Divisive (top down):
 - Start with one cluster and recursively split it



Agglomerative Clustering

Key operation:
 Repeatedly combine
 two nearest clusters

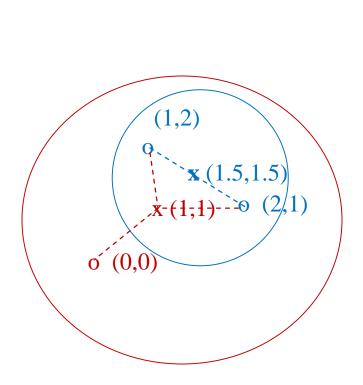


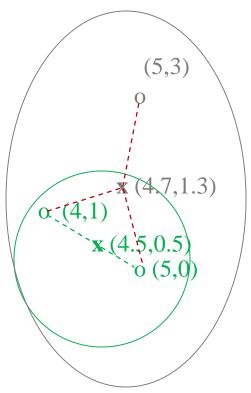
Three important questions:

- How do you represent a cluster of more than one point? => centroids, clustroids
- 2. How do you determine the "nearness" of clusters?
- 3. When to stop combining clusters?

```
centroid = average of cluster's (data) points (seen as vectors)
clustroid = (data) point "closest" to other points in the cluster
```

Example: Hierarchical clustering

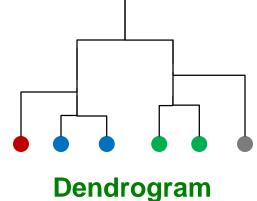




Data:

o ... data point

x ... centroid



Pseudocode P. 1: Merge Clusters

- def (outCluster:list, outMerged:pair) = merge(inCluster:list):
 - Compute pairwise <u>distances</u> between all clusters in inCluster # define distance later
 - Find <u>a</u> pair (P, Q) of clusters with <u>the</u> smallest distance
 - Merge P and Q into cluster R
 - outCluster = (inCluster \ {P, Q}) ∪ {R}
 - outMerged = (P, Q) (or indices of P, Q)
 - return (outCluster, outMerged)

Pseudocode Part 2: Main Loop

main():

- inCluster = RDD with pairs (point_index, point)
- merged:list = []
- while inCluster.count() > 1:
 - outCluster:list, outMerged:pair = merge(inCluster)
 - merged.append(outMerged)
 - inCluster = outCluster # safe: RDDs are read-only
- print merged

Defining "Nearness" of Clusters

- How do you determine the distance of clusters?
 - Approach 1 (centroid distance):
 - Measure cluster distances by distances of centroids
 - Approach 2 (intercluster distance):
 - Single-linkage method: minimum of the distances between any two points, one from each cluster
 - Complete-linkage method: maximum of ...
 - Approach 3 (cohesion quality):

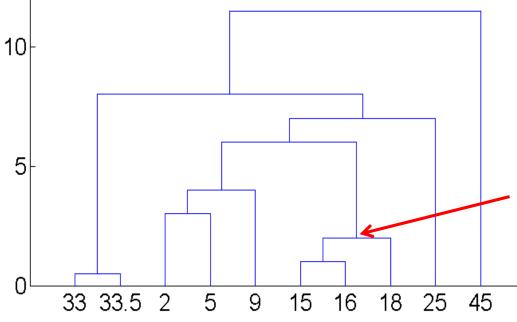
Zusammenhang, Zusammenhalt

- Pick a notion of a "cohesion" of clusters
 - e.g., a maximum distance from the clustroid
 - clustroid = (real) point "closest" to other points in the cluster
- Merge clusters whose <u>union</u> is most cohesive

Example: Single-Linkage

Agglomerative, single-linkage, Euclidean distance metrics

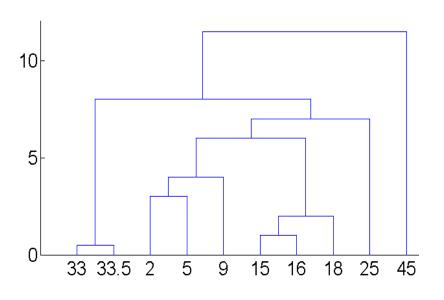
- ... = <u>Minimum</u> of the distances between any two points
- Data: [2; 5; 9; 15; 16; 18; 25; 33; 33.5; 45]; dim d=1, N = 10
 - Which clusters are created first?



Dendrogram: y-axis shows the <u>distance</u> at which two clusters have been merged

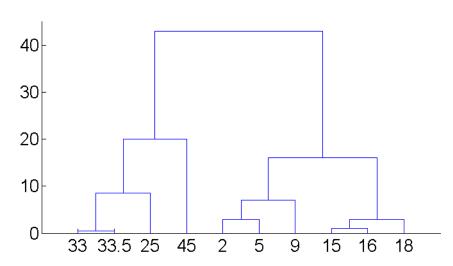
Clusters {15, 16} and {18} merged at distance = 2

Comparison Single-Linkage vs. Complete-Linkage



Single-Linkage

= <u>minimum</u> of the distances between any two points



Complete-Linkage

= <u>maximum</u> of the distances between any two points

Cohesion Metrics: Option

- Approach 3.1: Use the diameter of the merged cluster = maximum distance between points in the cluster
- Approach 3.2: Use the average distance between points in the cluster
- Approach 3.3: Use a density-based approach
 - Take the diameter or avg. distance, e.g., and divide by the number of points in the cluster

Runtime - Sequential Version

- What is the (sequential) runtime in O()-notation?
 - Assume that each cluster is represented by a centroid
 - Count distance computation d(*, *) as one step
 - * = point or centroid
- At each of O(N) merge-steps ...
- ... compute pairwise distances between all O(N²)
 pairs of clusters, then merge a pair
- \blacksquare => in total, $O(N^3)$
- Careful implementation using priority queue can reduce time to $O(N^2 \log N)$
 - Still too expensive for really big datasets!

Hierarchical Clustering in Spark

Implementing Subroutine merge

Recall: Subr. Merge (Adapted)

- def (outCluster:list, outMerged:pair) = merge(inCluster:list):
 - Compute <u>pairwise</u> distances between all clusters now: <u>centroids</u> in inCluster
 - Find a pair of centroids (p, q) with the smallest distance (the centroids are P, Q)
 - Compute centroid r of cluster R = P ∪ Q
 - outCluster = (inCluster \ $\{p, q\}$) $\cup \{r\}$
 - outMerged = (p, q) (or indices of them)
 - return (outCluster, outMerged)

Merge in Spark: Step 1 of 4

- 1. Compute pairwise distances between all centroids in inCluster
- 2. Find a pair (p,q) of centroids with the smallest distance
 - Assume that inCluster is an RDD with pairs (centroid_index, centroid), i.e. (0,centroid0); (1; centroid1) (2; c2), ...
 - Compute RDD distances with triples: (D(p,q), (p,q), (ip,iq))
 - where ip = centroid_index of p; iq = ... of q

```
N = inCluster.count()
distances = sc.parallelize([])
for clndex in range(N):
```

A bit better approach in: "Pairwise Element Computation with MapReduce" by T. Kiefer, P.B. Volk, W. Lehner, HPDC'10, 2010, goo.gl/58HESM

```
iq, q = inCluster.filter(lambda idx, p: clndex==idx ).collect()
partialDistances = inCluster.map(lambda ip, p: ( D(p,q), (p,q), (ip,iq) ) )
partialDistances = partialDistances.filter(lambda d, arg2, arg3: d > 0)
distances = distances.union(partialDistances)
Remove pairs (p, p)
with distance = 0.0
```

Merge in Spark: Step 2 of 4

- 1. Compute pairwise distances between all centroids in inCluster
- 2. Find a pair (p,q) of centroids with the smallest distance

- We need to find in distances a pair of different centroids with the smallest distance d (but d > 0.0)
- First solution (A):

```
bestPair = distances.sortBy ( lambda x: x[0] ).first()
# See Docs
```

Output is a triple (D(p,q), (p,q), (ip,iq))

Merge in Spark: Step 2 of 4

- 1. Compute pairwise distances between all centroids in inCluster
- 2. Find a pair (p,q) of centroids with the smallest distance
 - We need to find in distances a pair of different centroids with the smallest distance
 - Other solution (B): compute without sorting

```
def getMin (left, right):
    # left and right are each ( D(p,q), (p,q), (ip,iq) )
    d0, pair0, indices0 = left  # unwrap tuple
    d1, pair1, indices1 = right  # unwrap tuple
    result = left if d0 <= d1 else right
    return result  # output: ( D(p,q), (p,q), (ip,iq) )</pre>
```

Merge: Step 3 of 4

Simple version: if we just need the dendrogram, but no cluster membership

- 3. Compute centroid r of cluster $R = P \cup Q$
- 4. outCluster = (inCluster \ $\{p, q\}$) $\cup \{r\}$
- We know bestPair = a triple (D(p,q), (p,q), (ip,iq))
 - = > So we know centroids (vectors!) p and q
- Is r' = (p + q)/2 a centroid of $R = P \cup Q$? (vector +)
- No! E.g. if P has 1 point, and Q many points
- Better:
 - Store each p, q as a pair: (sum, count), i.e. (vector sum of points in cluster, #points in cluster)
- Then:
 - r = (p.sum + q.sum)/(p.count + q.count)
 - We store:
 - r.sum = p.sum + q.sum; r.count = p.count + q.count

Merge: Step 3 of 4

Simple version: if we just need the dendrogram, but no cluster membership

- 3. Compute centroid r of cluster $R = P \cup Q$
- 4. outCluster = (inCluster \ $\{p, q\}$) $\cup \{r\}$
- We know bestPair = a triple (D(p,q), (p,q), (ip,iq))
- Store each p, q as a pair: (sum, count), i.e. (vector sum of points in cluster, #points in cluster)
- Code:

```
d, (p,q), (ip,iq) = bestPair # and p, q are each (sum, count)
```

```
• sum = p[0] + q[0] # vector +
```

• count =
$$p[1] + q[1]$$
 # scalar +

r = (sum, count) # r is also (sum, count)

Merge: Step 4 of 4

Simple version: if we just need the dendrogram, but no cluster membership

- 3. Compute centroid r of cluster $R = P \cup Q$
- 4. outCluster = (inCluster \ $\{p, q\}$) $\cup \{r\}$
- Recall: inCluster is RDD of (centroid_index, centroid)
- We know bestPair = a pair (p, q) of centroids
- We computed r = (sum, count) = (p[0]+q[0], p[1]+q[1])
- Code for outCluster = (inCluster \ $\{p, q\}$) $\cup \{r\}$:
 - d, (p,q), (ip,iq) = bestPair
 - inCluster = inCluster.filter(lambda idx, p: (idx! = ip) and (idx != iq))
 - <Pseudocode: Re-number centroid_index in inCluster</p>
 - From 0 to N := inCluster.count()-1 >
 - outCluster = inCluster.union(sc.parallelize((N+1, r)))

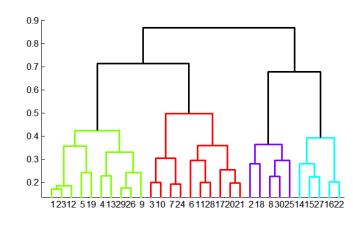
Main Loop in Spark: Problem Set

main():

- inCluster = RDD with pairs (point_index, point)
- merged:list = []
- while inCluster.count() > 1:
 - outCluster:list, outMerged:pair = merge(inCluster)
 - merged.append(outMerged)
 - inCluster = outCluster # safe: RDDs are read-only
- print merged

Scalability: Bad News, Good News

- Does this algorithm scale?
- In practice, no: we need $O(N^2)$ RDDs partialDistances
 - For N > 10⁴, there are better sequential algorithms
- In general, algorithms with runtime $O(N^2)$ or worse (here: $O(N^3)$) are hopeless for "big data"
- Good news: hierarchical clustering on large data is <u>pointless</u>
 - Usually done for the dendrogram, but how to show a tree with >10⁶ leaves?
 - Better: run parallel k-means for k = 100...1000, then run sequential hierarchical clustering on centroids



Clustering: Metrics and Evaluation

Distance Metrics

We have been using the Euclidean distance

$$D_2(x, y) = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{d} (x_i - y_i)^2\right)^{1/2}$$

"City block"/"Manhattan" Metric L₁

$$D_1(x, y) = \sum_{i=1}^{d} |x_i - y_i|$$

Generalization of both: Minkowski-Metric

$$D_{p}(x, y) = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{d} |x_{i} - y_{i}|^{p}\right)^{1/p}$$

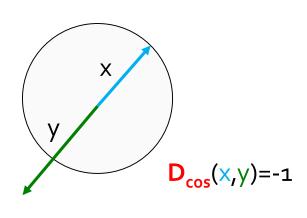
Other Metrics

Hamming distance D_H

- For vectors x, y of 0/1s, then $D_H(x, y)$ is the number of divergent components in x, y
- This is one of the previous metrics D_x which one?

Cosine similarity metric D_{cos}

$$D_{\cos}(x, y) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{d} x_i \cdot y_i}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{d} x_i^2 \sum_{i=1}^{d} y_i^2}}$$



- Measures the degree of (geometric) parallelism of vectors x, y
- 1, if y = cx, constant c > 0; and -1, if y = cx, c < 0

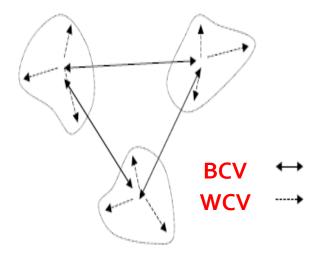
Metrics for Partitioning Quality

- We used for k-means termination:
 - Sum of squared distances by which each centroid has "moved" between iterations
- Alternative: sum of squared errors (SSE)
 - SSE is sum of squared distances between each sample in cluster C_i and its centroid M_i, summed over all clusters
 - Formal definition: (C_i is cluster, M_i its centroid)

$$SSE = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \sum_{s \in C_i} D(s, M_i)^2$$

Evaluating Partitioning Quality

- Intuitively, in clustering we want to:
 - Maximize the distance between clusters
 - Minimize the variance (of distance)
 within each cluster
- => BCV: between-cluster variation
- => WCV: within-cluster variation
- So the quotient BCV/WCV can be used for estimating the quality of partitioning (= result of clustering)



Computing BCV/WCV

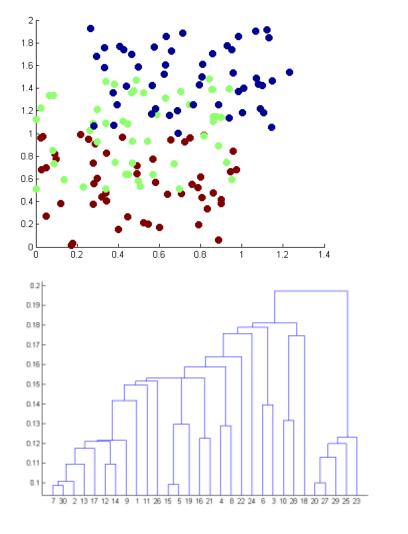
- Approximating BCV/WCV (M_i = Centroid of cluster C_i):
 - BCV: We use sum of squared distances between centroids

$$BCV = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \sum_{j>i}^{k} D(M_i, M_j)^2$$

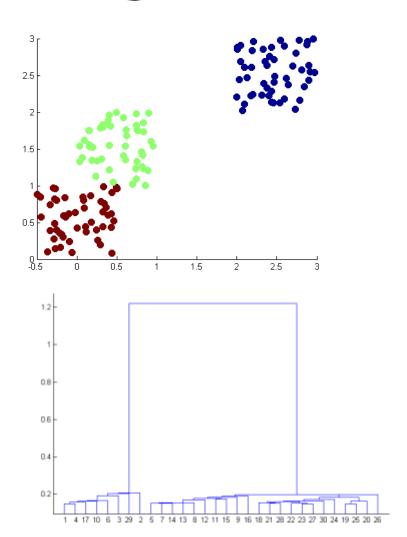
- And WCV?
- We use SSE (sum of squared distances between a sample in C_i and its centroid M_i, over all clusters)
 - "Error" is the distance between sample and centroid

$$WCV = SSE = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \sum_{s \in C_i} D(s, M_i)^2$$

Evaluating with Dendrograms /1



Samples are hard to separate

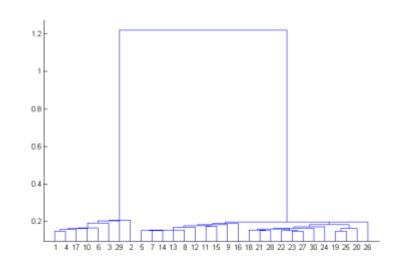


Samples are well separable

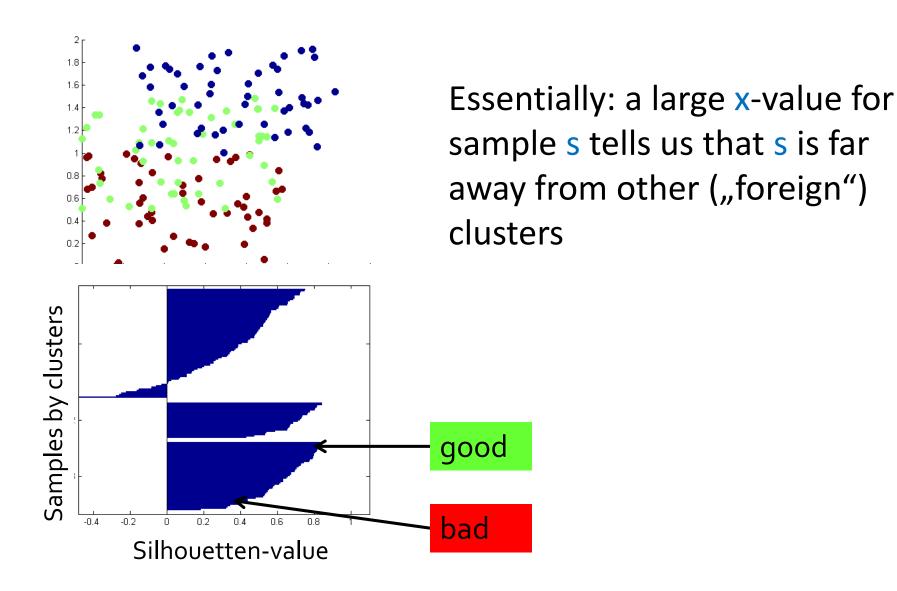
Evaluating with Dendrograms /2

- Samples are hard to separate
 - Tree is "uniformly distributed" at the y-axis
 - I.e. small incremental distances between merge levels
 - 0.20.190.180.170.160.150.140.130.120.11-

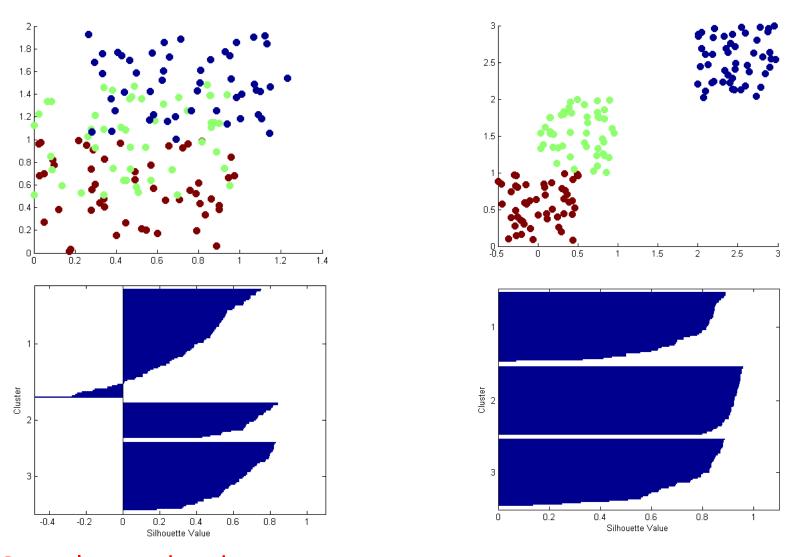
- Samples are well separable
 - Tree is "dense" at bottom and "thin" at the top



Evaluating with Silhouetten-Plots



Evaluating with Silhouetten-Plots



Samples are hard to separate

Samples are well separable

Crash Course on NumPy

What is NumPy?

- NumPy: an extension of the programming language Python
 - Initiated in 2005 by Jim Hugnin (<u>Link</u>)
- Provides efficient data structures and operations for numerical matrices
 - Technically: C-code with Python-wrappers => fast!
- Syntax/programming: similar to Matlab
- Base for further extensions like <u>SciPy</u>, <u>matplotlib</u> or <u>Pandas</u>

NumPy /1

NumPy

from numpy import *

- a = array ([[1.0, 2.0],
- **1** ... [3.0, 4.0]])
- b = arange(10)
- c = zeros(4)
- = d = zeros((2, 3))
- = d = zeros(6).reshape(2,3)
- \bullet e = ones((3,4))

- a = matrix with rows [1.0,2.0] and [3.0, 4.0]
- b = vector 0,1,...,9
- c = row vec. with 4 zeros
- d = a 2-by-3 matrix with zeros
- e = a 3-by-4 matrix with 1s

- f = linspace(0, 2, 5)
 - = => array ([0., 0.5, 1., 1.5, 2.])
- f = 5 "equidistant" numbers between 0 and 2

NumPy /2

NumPy: Operators work element-wise

- g = 3 * ones((2, 2))
- = h = 2 * ones((2, 2))
- print g * h
 - = => array ([[6., 6.] , [6., 6.]])
- Matrix-mult: dot()
- print dot(g, h)
 - => array([[12., 12.],
 - **[** 12., 12.]])
- print sqrt(g), exp(h)

- g = a 2-by-2 matrix of 3.0s
- h = a 2-by-2 matrix of 2.0s
- "" multiplies matrices element-wise!
- dot(g, h) yields the "classical" matrix multiplication
- sqrt(g): square root, exp(h): e^h

NumPy/3

NumPy: Indexing

$$a = linspace(10, 60, 6)$$

$$a[:] = 2.0$$

- a.fill(0.0)
- a.shape = (2, 3)
- print a[:, 1] => 2nd col
- print a[1, [0, 2]]
- a[:,0] = 0.0

- **a** = 10, 20, 30, .., 60
- First index is "0"
- "-j" is j-th el. from the end
- Set 40, 50, 60 to 33
- Set all el's > 30 to 1.0
- Set all el's to 2.0
- Set all el's to 0.0
- Change a to a 2-by-3 matrix
- Gives column with index 1
- Gives two el's from 2nd row
- Set whole first col to 0.0

NumPy – Useful Idioms

- In-place operations (*=, -=, /=, +=, **=)
 - a = 3*a 1 creates 2 temp arrays (3*a, 3*a-1)
 - Faster and saves memory: a *= 3; a -= 1;
 - Alternative: a[:] = 3*a -1 (a = 3*a -1 creates a new object)
- Dimension-related operations (let be a = zeros([2, 3]))
 - a.ndim => 2 (number of dimensions)
 - a.shape => (2, 3) (tuple with all dimensions)
 - a.size => 6 (number of elements)
 - a.sum (axis = 0) => sum of each column elem's (=1 for rows)
- Creating a matrix with a function
 - def myfun (i, j):
 - return (i+1)*(j+4-i)
 - a = fromfunction (myfun, (3, 6)) => a 3-by-6 matrix

NumPy vs. Matlab/1

NumPy

from numpy import *

- \bullet a = array ([[1.0, 2.0],
- **3.0, 4.0]])**
- b = zeros(4)
- $\mathbf{c} = \operatorname{arange}(10)$
- = d = zeros((2, 3))
- d = zeros(6).reshape(2,3)
- \bullet e = ones((3,4))
- f = linspace(0, 2, 5)
 - = => array ([0., 0.5, 1., 1.5, 2.])

Matlab

- a = [1 2; 3 4];
- b = zeros(1,4);
- c = 0.9;
- d = zeros(2,3);
- \bullet e = ones(3,4);
- f = linspace(0,2,5)

NumPy vs. Matlab /2

```
NumPy: Operators work element-wise
```

- g = 3 * ones((2, 2))
- h = 2 * ones((2, 2))
- print g * h
 - => array ([[6., 6.] , [6., 6.]])
- Matrix-product: dot()
- print dot(g, h)
 - = => array([[12., 12.],
 - **•** [12., 12.]])
- print sqrt(g), exp(h)

Matlab: Operators work vector-wise

- g = 3.* ones(2, 2);
- h = 2.* ones(2, 2);
- display g .* h
 - •••
- Matrix-product: *
- display g * h
 - •
 - In ML: dot() scalar-product!
- display sqrt(g), exp(h)

NumPy vs. Matlab /3

```
NumPy: Indexing
                           Matlab: Indexing
a = linspace(10, 60, 6)
                            a = 10:10:60;
                            a(1) = 10;
■ a[0] => 10
■ a[-1] => 60
                            a(end) => 60
a[3:5] = -1
                            a(4:6) = -1;
                            \bullet a (a < 0) = 1;
■ a[a < 0] = 1.0
                            a(:) = 2;
a[:] = 2
a.fill(0)
                            a = reshape(a, 2, 3);
a.shape = (2, 3)
print a[:, 1] => 2nd col
                            a(:, 2)
                            a(2, [1 3])
print a[1, [0, 2]]
                            a(:,1) = zeros(2,1);
a[:,0] = 0
```

Thank you.

Questions?