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Knowledge Discovery in Databases II Winter Term 2014/2015

Lecture 7: Volume: Large Object Cardinalities: Privacy Preserving Data Mining, Sampling and Summarization

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Knowledge Discovery in Databases II: Large Object Cardinalities





- 1. Solutions for Large Object Cardinalities
- 2. Parallel and Distributed Data Mining
- 3. Privacy Preserving Data Mining
- 4. Sampling and Summarization



Conclusion:

Why it is important?



Why is privacy preservation important ?

- A lot of data is only provided by the data owners if the privacy is saved
 - Example: Analyze clickstreams from web browsers
- Data mining should not be used as a excuse to collect data.
- Protection from misuse of the provided information by third parties.
 - Example: Publication of results about the surfing behavior is used to personalize spam mails and fishing attempts.

nothing about an individual should be learnable from the database that cannot be learned without access to the database T. Dalenius, 1977

- Data Mining does not necessarily violate privacy constraints.
- Results are *general* patterns which should not contain object specific information.
- The same patterns can be derived from different samples drawn from the data distribution.



Privacy Preservation



- Idea: Change data in a way that patterns are preserved but object-specific information is removed
- Solutions depend on the way the data is *generalized* in the given data mining method:

overfitting patterns have the tendency to contain too specific information

 \Rightarrow generality of the patterns is complementary to privacy preservation

Privacy protection is achieved through different ways:

- Changing data objects (data perturbation)
- Use a general model for the data (distribution functions)
- Generate new data following the same distribution (sampling from distribution functions)



Basic Techniques: Discretization



Discretization:

- Disjunctive distribution of the value set into several discrete subsets
- Actual values are replaced by an interval of values

Example:

- original *information*: Person A earns 42.213 € p.a.
- *discrete information*: Person A earns between 35.000 € and 55.000 € p.a.

Problem:

- Information is weaker but still detectable
- If the number of objects in any interval is too small, possible privacy breach
- \Rightarrow Uniform distribution of the number of objects per interval





Data Perturbation:

- Add a noise component to the original data
- Instead of the original value x_i, transmit the sum of the original value x_i and a number r drawn from an error distribution f, i.e, : x_i +r
- Distributions *f* for *r* :
 - Uniform distribution [- α ,.., α] $\alpha \in IR^+$
 - Normal distribution with 0 mean and standard deviation $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$
- The intent is to allow legitimate users the ability to access important aggregate statistics (such as mean, correlations, etc.) from the entire database while 'protecting' the individual identify of a record.





- Indicates how closely the sensitive information, that has been hidden, can still be estimated.
- **Definition privacy level:** if it can be estimated with c% confidence that a value x lies in the interval [x₁, x₂], then the width of the interval (x₂- x₁) defines the amount of privacy at c% confidence level.
- input: the changed feature values y_i, constructed from the original feature values and the noise component, x_i + r. the error distribution
- output: Breadth of the interval [y-v, y+v] in which the original value x is contained with c % probability. (Privacy Level=2v)



- Privacy level = 2a
- With c=50 % confidence,
 - Privacy level = α
- General formula:
 - $v = c\% * 2\alpha$
 - Privacy increases with a



• error *r* is uniformly distributed in $[-\alpha,..,\alpha]$.













Given the noise distribution functions f_{y} and the pertubed data set x_1+y_1 , x_2+y_2 , x_n+y_n , one could reconstruct the original dataset's distribution f_{x} (but not actual data values)

Input: The set of perturbated data $W = \{w_1, ..., w_n\}$, where $w_i = x_i + y_i$

and the probability density functions of noise f_{y} .

Output: Approximation of the original distribution f_X

Solution: Iterative approximation algorithms (initialize f_x with uniform)







- Data swapping = the values across different records are swapped
 - \Rightarrow original feature vectors cannot be reconstructed
 - ⇒ Well-suited for algorithms assuming independent features like Naïve Bayes
 - \Rightarrow Patterns depending on feature correlation are destroyed







Idea:

- Data owners provide local patterns/distributions instead of instances
- Patterns/Distributions must be general enough to preserve the privacy

Possible solutions:

- distribution function
- explicit cluster models (centroids covariance matrix)
- locally frequent patterns





- Distributed mining is based on sharing data for a special purpose
- Privacy breach when the shared data is used for other purposes
- Generally patterns, functions, models are not a problem for privacy if generalization is performed well-enough
- Data mining algorithms can be made aware of this problems and can be tuned to allow a certain level of privacy

Caution:

 Data Mining can be used to learn private information (e.g. link prediction, predict unknown values from available information)





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- 1. Solutions for Large Object Cardinalities
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- 4. Sampling and Summarization





- If data mining algorithms have a super linear complexity, parallel processing and hardware can help, but do not solve the problem
- In such cases, runtimes can only be reduced by limiting the number of input objects
- Solution:
 - reduce the input data to a smaller set of objects
 - perform data mining on the reduced set
- \Rightarrow Results may vary from using the complete data set
- \Rightarrow Parallel processing can be used for this preprocessing step





Methods for reducing large data sets:

- Sampling
 - Select a subset of the input dataset
 - Use the subset, instead of the original dataset, for mining
- Summarization
 - Summarize the input dataset through appropriate summaries.
 - Use the summaries, instead of the original raw data, for mining.





- Idea: Select a limited subset from the original dataset.
- It is important that the group selected be *representative* of the population, and not biased in a systematic manner
- Sampling approaches:
 - Random sampling: draw k times from the data set and remove the drawn elements
 - Bootstrapping: draw k times from the input data set but do not exclude the drawn elements from the set
 - Stratified sample: Draw a sample which maintains a distribution w.r.t. to some attributes (e.g., class labels)



Random sampling



- Each instance of the input dataset is chosen entirely by chance.
- Each instance has an equal chance of being included in the sample.
- Procedure: if you want to select *k* out of *n* instances (*n*: the cardinality of the input dataset):
 - Generate an independent random integer i, $1 \le i \le n$
 - Draw instance *i*, if not already selected
 - Repeat k times



Random sampling (R)



> index<-	sample(1:nro	ow(iris),15,1	replace=FALSE	I)		
> index						
[1] 74	122 92 53	41 94 142	90 58 43	145 77	35 13 3	
> iris[in	idex,]					
Sepal	.Length Sepa	al.Width Peta	al.Length Pet	al.Width	Species	
74	6.1	2.8	4.7	1.2	versicolor	
122	5.6	2.8	4.9	2.0	virginica	
92	6.1	3.0	4.6	1.4	versicolor	
53	6.9	3.1	4.9	1.5	versicolor	
41	5.0	3.5	1.3	0.3	setosa	
94	5.0	2.3	3.3	1.0	versicolor	
142	6.9	3.1	5.1	2.3	virginica	
90	5.5	2.5	4.0	1.3	versicolor	
58	4.9	2.4	3.3	1.0	versicolor	
43	4.4	3.2	1.3	0.2	setosa	
145	6.7	3.3	5.7	2.5	virginica	
77	6.8	2.8	4.8	1.4	versicolor	
35	4.9	3.1	1.5	0.2	setosa	
13	4.8	3.0	1.4	0.1	setosa	
3	4.7	3.2	1.3	0.2	setosa	
>						



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Bootstrapping



- Random sampling with replacement
- Procedure: if you want to select *k* out of *n* instances (*n*: the cardinality of the input dataset):
 - Generate an independent random integer i, $1 \le i \le n$
 - Draw instance *i*
 - Repeat until k instances have been drawn.
- Difference to random sampling: The already drawn elements are not excluded from future selection.



Bootstrap sampling (R)



a la consola	-					
> data(i	ris)					· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
> index<-	-sample(1:nro	v(iris),15,re	eplace=TRUE)			
> index						
[1] 131	12 126 48	11 91 59	67 86 47 1	4 91 28 34 1	35	
> iris[in	ndex,]					
Sepa	al.Length Sep	al.Width Peta	al.Length Peta	l.Width Spec	ies	
131	7.4	2.8	6.1	1.9 virgin	ica	
12	4.8	3.4	1.6	0.2 set	osa	
126	7.2	3.2	6.0	1.8 virgin	ica	
48	4.6	3.2	1.4	0.2 set	osa	
11	5.4	3.7	1.5	0.2 set	osa	
91	5.5	2.6	4.4	1.2 versico	lor	
59	6.6	2.9	4.6	1.3 versico	lor	
67	5.6	3.0	4.5	1.5 versico	lor	
86	6.0	3.4	4.5	1.6 versico	lor	
47	5.1	3.8	1.6	0.2 set	osa	
14	4.3	3.0	1.1	0.1 set	osa	
91.1	5.5	2.6	4.4	1.2 versico	lor	
28	5.2	3.5	1.5	0.2 set	osa	
34	5.5	4.2	1.4	0.2 set	osa	
135	6.1	2.6	5.6	1.4 virgin	ica	
> plot(i)	ris[index,]\$S	pecies)				
>						
1						5





Stratified sampling



- Stratification is the process of dividing the initial dataset into homogeneous subgroups (*strata*) before sampling.
 - Every instance is assigned to only one stratum
 - No instance is excluded
- Apply random sampling, within each stratum.
- It ensures the presence of key subgroups in the sample
 - Even small groups are represented
- Class labels is a typical way to define the strata.
 - Stratified sampling to deal with unbalanced data classification
- Other (sets of) dimensions can be also used, e.g., demographics



Stratified sampling example (R)



R R	Console						[- •	×
> i	ds <- strata	a(iris. :	strata	names="Species"	. size=c(5	.5.5). method=	="srswor")		1
> i	ds				,	-,-,,	,		
· •	Species	ID unit	Prob	Stratum					
22	setosa	22	0.1	1					
24	setosa	24	0.1	1					
33	setosa	33	0.1	1					
44	setosa	44	0.1	1					
46	setosa	46	0.1	1					
52	versicolor	52	0.1	2					
67	versicolor	67	0.1	2					
69	versicolor	69	0.1	2					
77	versicolor	77	0.1	2					
80	versicolor	80	0.1	2					
109	virginica	109	0.1	3					
131	virginica	131	0.1	3					
133	virginica	133	0.1	3					
144	virginica	144	0.1	3					
146	virginica	146	0.1	3					
> i	ndex<-iris[i	ids\$ID_u	nit,]						
> i	ndex								
	Sepal.Lengt	th Sepal	.Width	Petal.Length P	etal.Width	Species			
22	5.	.1	3.7	1.5	0.4	setosa			
24	5.	.1	3.3	1.7	0.5	setosa			
33	5.	.2	4.1	1.5	0.1	setosa			
44	5.	.0	3.5	1.6	0.6	setosa			
46	4.	.8	3.0	1.4	0.3	setosa			
52	• •	. 4 . c	3.2	4.5	1.5	versicolor			
60		.0	3.0	1.0	1.5	versicolor			
77	6	.2	2.2	1.5	1.5	versicolor			
80		-0	2.0	1.0	1.1	versicolor			
100		- 7	2.0	5.9	1.0	versicolor			
131	7	4	2.0	6.1	1.0	virginica			
133	6	4	2.8	5.6	2.2	virginica			
144	6	. 8	3.2	5.9	2.3	virginica			
146	6	.7	3.0	5.2	2.3	virginica			
ΣÎ			0.0	0.2	2.0				
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Knowledge Discovery in Databases II: Large Object Cardinalities





Index-based sampling [EstKriXu95]

- Random sampling is problematic in spatial data
- Use spatial index structures to estimate spatial distributions
 - index structures obtain a coarse pre-clustering; neighboring objects are stored on the same / a neighboring disk block
 - index structures are efficient to construct (sometimes are already there)
 - allow fast access methods for similarity queries



Spatial Sampling 2/2



Method

- build an R*-tree
- sample a set of objects from all leaf nodes



Structure of an R*tree





- Instead of selecting a subset of the input dataset, summarize the input data into a set of summaries.
- "Forget" the raw data, apply data mining algorithms upon the summaries afterwards
- Cluster feature vectors/ BIRCH algorithm
- Data bubbles





BIRCH (Balanced Iterative Reducing and Clustering using Hierarchies) [ZhaRamLiv96]

BIRCH overview

- Build a compact description of the dataset using cluster feature (CF) vector summaries
- Organize custer features in a tree structure (CF-tree)
- The leaves of the tree have a maximal expansion which control how tight these summaries are.
- Use leaves as data objects for data mining algorithms
- BIRCH is the first approach for clustering large scale data
- BIRCH introduced the idea of cluster feature vectors
 - also known as microclusters (more on this in the stream clustering lecture)





Given N d-dimensional points in a cluster C, the cluster feature (CF) vector of C is defined as a triple:

 $CF = (N, \overrightarrow{LS}, SS)$

where

- N = |C|, the number of points in C
- $\overrightarrow{LS} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \overrightarrow{X}_{i}$, the linear sum of the N data points
- $SS = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \vec{X}_{i}^{2} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \langle X_{i}, X_{i} \rangle$, the square sum of the N data points



CF vector example



Example:





CF vector properties 1/2



The CF vector is not only *efficient*, as it compresses the input dataset, but also *accurate*, as it is sufficient to compute several measures we need for clustering.

• the centroid of C:
$$\vec{X0} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} \vec{X_i}}{N} \implies \frac{LS}{N}$$

• the radius of C (avg distance to the centroid):

$$R = \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (\vec{X_i} - \vec{X_0})^2}{N}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \implies \sqrt{\frac{SS}{n} - \left(\frac{LS}{n}\right)^2}$$

• the diameter of C (avg pairwise distance within a cluster)

$$D = \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} (\vec{X}_i - \vec{X}_j)^2}{N(N-1)}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad \Longrightarrow \qquad \text{Homework!}$$

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CF vector properties 2/2



• CF additivity property: Let two disjoint clusters C_1 und C_2 . The CF vector of the cluster that is formed by merging the two disjoint clusters, is:

 $CF(C_1 \cup C_2) = CF(C_1) + CF(C_2) = (N_1 + N_2, LS_1 + LS_2, QS_1 + QS_2)$

 CF incremental property: The updated CF of a cluster C₁ after the addition of a new point p, is:

 $CFT(C_1 \cup p) = CFT(C_1) + p$

- Based on CFs several distance functions can be supported:
 - $D_1 = V_0^2$
- Why CFs?

$$D1 = |\vec{X}\vec{0}_1 - \vec{X}\vec{0}_2| = \sum_{i=1}^d |\vec{X}\vec{0}_1^{(i)} - \vec{X}\vec{0}_2^{(i)}|$$

 $D0 = ((X\vec{0}_1 - X\vec{0}_2)^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}$

Centroid Euclidean distance

Centroid Manhattan distance

- Summarize info for a single cluster
- Easy merge of clusters based on the additivity property
- Easy incorporation of new points based on the incremental property



CF-tree

2 parameters

DATABASE SYSTEMS GROUP



 A non-ledf hode, contains at most B entries of the form [CF_i,child_i], i=1:B, where CF_i is the CF vector of the subcluster represented by the ith child.

A CF tree is a height balanced tree with

- A *leaf node* contains at most L entries of the form [CF_i].
 - The diameter (or radius) of all contained entries is less than the threshold T
 - Each leaf has two pointers previous and next to a allow sequential access



Root node

Non-leaf node

CF

Leaf node

CF₁

CF₂

CF.

CF

Leaf node

CF₁

CF₂

CF.

CF

CF

Leaf node

CF₁

CF₂

CF.

CF





CF



A very compact representation of the dataset: Each leaf entry is not a single point but a subcluster which absorbs many data points with diameter (or radius) under the threshold T.



CF-tree construction



Construction of a CF-tree (analogue to constructing a B⁺-tree)

- For each point p in the initial dataset $(CF_p = (1, p, p^2))$
- *Identify the proper leaf node*: Starting from root and traversing the CF tree by choosing the closest child based on distance function (e.g., D0, D1)
- Modifying the lead node: Find its closest leaf entry L and check the threshold T in L after addition of p
- If T is not violated,
 - CF_p is absorved into M
- else
 - A new entry for p is added to the leaf
 - If there is space for the new entry OK, otherwise, we must split the leaf node
 - select the pair of CFs having the largest distance as seeds
 - assign the remaining CFs to their closest seeds
- *Modifying the path to the leaf:* The addition of p should be reflected in the path





Put the first point in its own cluster A





CF-tree example 2/4



When a new point arrives, find the closest cluster (A) and check whether its radius exceeds the threshold *T*.

• If T is not violated, the new point is absorbed by the cluster (A)





CF-tree example 3/4



 If T is violated, the cluster is split into two clusters and the points are redistributed.





CF-tree example 4/4



At each node of the tree, CF vectors are maintained which are adequate for all the node-related operations.









Phase 1

• construct a CF-tree by successively adding new points \rightarrow B₁

Phase 2 [Optional]

• if B_1 is to big, scan its leaf entries and build smaller CF-tree (B_2) by merging subclusters and removing outliers

Phase 3

- Cluster all leaf entries through some clustering algorithm
- Each subcluster can be treated as a single point (the centroid)
 - Or, the cardinality of the clusters can be also considered
- The clustering algorithm can use special distance measures on CFs (e.g., D0, D1)



Cluster feature vectors discussion



Advantages:

- Compression rate is adjustable
- The tree is a function of T: larger $T \rightarrow$ smaller tree
- Scans the whole dataset only once (to build the CF tree)
 - Additional passes are optional to refine the result.
- Handles outliers

Disadvantages:

- results depend on insertion order
- only suitable for numerical vector spaces
- More suitable for spherical clusters (uses radius/ diameter to control the boundary of a cluster)





- CF vectors of BIRCH are effective for k-means type of clustering
- For hierarchical clustering though, their success is limited
- Hierarchical clustering is based on distances between points which are not represented well by the distances between representative objects, especially if the compression rate is high
 - The structural distortion problem
- Below, based only on centroids: dist(rA,rB)=dist(rC,rD).





Data bubbles definition



Data Bubbles: add more information to the representation

A generic definition for data bubbles:

Let $X = \{X_i\}$ be a set of *n* objects. The data bubble B w.r.t. X is defined as a tuple:

B=(rep,n, extent, nnDist)

- rep is a representative point for X (not necessarily a X_i)
- n is the number of points
- extent is a real number such that "most" objects of X are located within a radius "extent" around rep
- nnDist(k,B) is a function denoting the estimated avg kNN distance within X for some value k.





• Let B, C be two data bubbles, their distance is given as follows

$$dist(B, C) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } B = C \\ dist(rep_{B}, rep_{C}) - (e_{B} + e_{C}) + nn\text{D}ist(1, B) + nn\text{D}ist(1, C) \\ & \text{if } dist(rep_{B}, rep_{C}) - (e_{\overline{I}} + e_{2}) \ge 0 \\ max(nn\text{D}ist(1, B), nn\text{D}ist(1, C)) \text{ otherwise} \end{cases}$$







Definition: Let $X = \{X_i\}$ be a set of n objects. The data bubble B w.r.t. X is defined as a tuple:

B=(rep,n, extent, nnDist)

• rep is the center of X

$$M = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i\right) / n$$
$$r = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} (X_i - X_j)^2}{n \cdot (n-1)}}$$

• extent is the radius of X

• nnDist

$$nnDist(k,B) = \left(\frac{k}{n}\right)^d \bullet r$$

 Expected kNN distance in X (assuming a uniform distribution of the points inside the sphere with center M and radius r)





Clustering using data bubbles



- Data bubbles can be generated in different ways
 - from m sampled objects and by assigning the rest instances to their closest objects
 - from the leaf nodes of a CF-tree
- Apply clustering over the data bubbles
 - e.g., a classical hierarchical clustering algorithm like single link
 - e.g., OPTICS





- Often, the same results can be achieved on much smaller samples
- Both sampling and summarization try to approximate the data distribution by a smaller subset of the data
- It is important that the sample is representative of the input dataset
- There are similar approaches for instance selection in classification
 - Select samples from each class which allow to approximate the class margins
 - Samples being very "typical" for a class might be useful to learn a discrimination function of a good classifier.
 - Similar to the concept of support vectors in SVMs



Literature



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