Intro to Machine Learning

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Using MLlib

One of the reasons we use spark is for easy access to powerful data analysis tools. The MLlib library gives us a machine learning library that is easy to use and utilizes the scalability of the Spark system.

It has supported APIs for Python (with NumPy), R, Java and Scala.

We will use the Python version in a generic manner that looks very similar to any of the above implementations.

There are good example documents for the clustering routine we are using, as well as alternative clustering algorithms, here:

<http://spark.apache.org/docs/latest/mllib-clustering.html>

I suggest you use these pages for your Spark work.

Clustering

Clustering is a very common operation for finding grouping in data and has countless applications. This is a very simple example, but you will find yourself reaching for a clustering algorithm frequently in pursuing many diverse machine learning objectives, sometimes as one part of a pipeline.

Coin Sorting

Weight

Clustering

As intuitive as clustering is, it presents challenges to implement in an efficient and robust manner.

We will start with 5000 2D points. We want to figure out how many clusters there are, and their centers. Let's fire up pyspark and get to it…

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<u>Indeperse</u>

le. Otherwise, Spark is dangerously quiet when you textFile() a file that does not exist. It is "lazy" and you won't find out that you have missing data until a later error.

Finding Our Way

```
>>> rdd1 = sc.textFile("5000_points.txt")
>>> rdd1.count()
5000
\gg> rdd1.take(4)
[' 664159 550946', ' 665845 557965', ' 597173 575538', ' 618600 551446']
>>> rdd2 = rdd1.map(lambda x:x.split())>>> rdd2.take(4)
[['664159', '550946'], ['665845', '557965'], ['597173', '575538'], ['618600', '551446']]
>>> rdd3 = rdd2.map(lambda x: [int(x[0]), int(x[1])])>>> rdd3.take(4)
[[664159, 550946], [665845, 557965], [597173, 575538], [618600, 551446]]
>>>
```

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>>>
>>> rdd1 = sc.textFile("5000_points.txt")
>>>
\Rightarrow \Rightarrow \text{rdd2} = \text{rdd1.map}(\text{lambda } x:\overline{x}.\text{split}())>>> rdd3 = rdd2.\text{map}(lambda x: [int(x[0]), int(x[1])])>>>
>>> from pyspark.mllib.clustering import KMeans
>>>
\gg for clusters in range(1,30):
... model = KMeans.train(rdd3, clusters)
... print (clusters, model.computeCost(rdd3))
... 
                                                                   Let's see results for 1-30 cluster tries
```
1 5.76807041184e+14 2 3.43183673951e+14 3 2.23097486536e+14 4 1.64792608443e+14 5 1.19410028576e+14 6 7.97690150116e+13 7 7.16451594344e+13 8 4.81469246295e+13 9 4.23762700793e+13 10 3.65230706654e+13 11 3.16991867996e+13 12 2.94369408304e+13 13 2.04031903147e+13 14 1.37018893034e+13 15 8.91761561687e+12 16 1.31833652006e+13 17 1.39010717893e+13 18 8.22806178508e+12 19 8.22513516563e+12 20 7.79359299283e+12 21 7.79615059172e+12 22 7.70001662709e+12 23 7.24231610447e+12 24 7.21990743993e+12 25 7.09395133944e+12 26 6.92577789424e+12 27 6.53939015776e+12 28 6.57782690833e+12 29 6.37192522244e+12

Right Answer?

Find the Centers

best result cing range

int it out[.]

Fit?

16 Clusters

We are closer to leading edge science than you might think.

The LIGO gravitational wave detector was able to confirm the collision of two neutron stars with both a gamma ray satellite and optical and other electromagnetic spectrum telescopes. For these transient events, it requires rapid real-time signal analysis to steer other instruments to the proper celestial coordinates. The 2 second gamma-ray burst was detected 1.7 seconds after the GW merger signal. 70 observatories were able to mine signatures in the following days. Even so, the refined location alert took a long time, and much improvement lies ahead.

This rapid processing requirement will only become more extreme as the Square Kilometer Array comes fully on-line. It will generate over an Exabyte of data a day. It will require extreme real-time processing to classify and compress this data down to an archivable size.

Strange, repeating radio signal near the center of the Milky Way has scientists stum

This article (www.livescience.com/strangeradio-source-milky-way-center) is summary of the pape (arxiv.org/pdf/2109.00652.pdf) that looks an awful lot like what we are doing.

In April 2020, astronomers picked up some bursts of activity, in the X-ray band of the spectrum, a "run-of-the-mill" magnetar. But the team found that, shortly after the magnetar burst in the X-ray band, CHIME picked up two sharp staccato peaks in the radio band, within several milliseconds of each other, signaling a fast radio burst. The researchers were able to track the radio bursts to a point in the sky that was within a fraction of a degree of SGR 1935+2154 — the same magnetar that was blasting out X-rays around the same time. The team used calibration data from other astrophysical sources to estimate the magnetar's brightness. They calculated that the magnetar, in the fraction of a second that the FRB flashed, was 3,000 times brighter than any other magnetar radio signal that has yet been observed. Happening in our own galaxy, thousands of times brighter than any other pulse we've ever seen.

Dimensionality Reduction

We are going to find a recurring theme throughout machine learning:

- Our data naturally resides in higher dimensions
- Reducing the dimensionality makes the problem more tractable
- And simultaneously provides us with insight

This last two bullets highlight the principle that "learning" is often finding an effective compressed representation.

As we return to this theme, we will highlight these slides with our Dimensionality Reduction badge so that you can follow this thread and appreciate how fundamental it is.

Why all these dimensions?

The problems we are going to address, as well as the ones you are likely to encounter, are naturally highly dimensional. If you are new to this concept, lets look at an intuitive example to make it less abstract.

This is a 2900 dimensional vector.

Why all these dimensions?

If we apply our newfound clustering expertise, we might find we have 80 clusters (with an acceptable error).

People spending on "child's toys " and "children's clothing" might cluster with "child's books" and, less obvious, "cameras (Dashcams, baby monitors and security cams)", because they buy new cars and are safety conscious. We might label this cluster "Young Parents". We also might not feel obligated to label the clusters at all. We can now represent any customer by their distance from these 80 clusters.

We have now accomplished two things:

- we have compressed our data
- learned something about our customers (who to send a dashcam promo to).

Curse of Dimensionality

This is a good time to point out how our intuition can lead us astray as we increase the dimensionality of our problems - which we will certainly be doing - and to a great degree. There are several related aspects to this phenomenon, often referred to as the *Curse of Dimensionality*. One root cause of confusion is that our notion of Euclidian distance starts to fail in higher dimensions.

These plots show the distributions of pairwise distances between randomly distributed points within differently dimensioned unit hypercubes. Notice how all the points start to be about the same distance apart.

One can imagine this makes life harder on a clustering algorithm!

There are other surprising effects: random vectors are almost all orthogonal; the unit sphere takes almost no volume in the unit square. These cause all kinds of problems when generalizing algorithms from our lowly 3D world.

Most common misuse of this term is to note that points are sparser in a high number of features. This is true, but not this effect.

Metrics

Even the definition of distance (the *metric*) can vary based upon application. If you are solving chess problems, you might find the Manhattan distance (or taxicab metric) to be most useful.

For comparing text strings, we might choose one of dozens of different metrics. For spell checking you might want one that is good for phonetic distance, or maybe edit distance. For natural language processing (NLP), you probably care more about tokens.

For genomics, you might care more about string sequences.

Some useful measures don't even qualify as metrics (usually because they fail the triangle inequality: $a + b \ge c$).

Everybody's Favorite DR: Principal Component Analysis

3D Data Set Maybe mostly 1D!

Alternative DR: Principal Component Analysis

Flatter 2D-ish Data Set View down the 1st Princ. Comp.

Principal Component Analysis plot for 354 Y-chromosome haplotypes from the public Ysearch database, identified as belonging to Y-DNA Haplogroup J and its subgroups. Data represent first and second most significant components calculated from 37 Y-STR markers. The different J1, J2 and J2b subhaplogroups are resolved clearly into different clusters. Additional structure can be revealed by calculating further PCAs for each of the subgroup memberships separately. The labels J1 C37 and J2 C37 identify haplotypes often associated with Cohen lineages. View down the 1st Princ. Comp. *This is a Wikipedia example of a PCA use case.*

Principal Component *Analysis*

Very often, PCA users get fixated on the *Analysis* part of PCA, and get confused at to the very basic information that PCA actually extracts from the data, the Principal Components.

While we are often inputting large and complex data-sets, and the visible end result is usually a 2D graph (because we all like a nice 2D graph), this is really just one application of the more fundamental principle components.

Principal Components

But, don't let yourself get distracted by all the dots! The knowledge of the algorithm is completely described by a set of vectors of the same dimensionality as the input data. If you have 6D data, you get back 6 6D vectors. The data is 3D in the case at left.

Those vectors have a magnitude proportional to the explained variance. That is useful guidance as to how much you can reduce the dimensionality.

If you tell the algorithm to project the data down to some lower dimension (2D or 3D typically, if not always meaningfully), those vectors give us the linear transform we use to do so.

What can't the components tell you?

If you have very "uncentered" data, your first principle component is likely to correspond to the mean of the data. So, you probably want to center your data first.

Similarly, if you have very different scales for your axis, it will be difficult to get meaningful results. So, you may want to rescale. However, be aware that your results are now scaled!

And, if your axis have different units (say temperature and mass), you need to be very thoughtful. Switching from Fahrenheit to Celsius would give different results!

What can't the components tell you?

And ask yourself what you expect PCA to do with it's limited output of vectors. If you have a split, or very non-linear distribution, how do you expect it to respond? It there isn't a good answer, then you need to reconsider your approach. Or at least have some suspicion of your results.

Everything casts shadows! Those shadows can be very deceiving.

From the fun channel of Hideki Tsuiki

in.

Shadow Showtime!

Why So Many Alternatives?

Let's look at one more example today. Suppose we are tying to do a Zillow type of analysis and predict home values based upon available factors. We may have an entry (vector) for each home that captures this kind of data:

There may be some opportunities to reduce the dimension of the vector here. Perhaps clustering on the geographical coordinates...

Principal Component Analysis Fail

1st Component Off Data Not Very Linear

D x W Is Not Linear But (DxW) Fits Well

Why the fascination with linear techniques?

The Streetlight Effect

This is a very real and powerful force throughout the sciences.

It is not because practitioners are dumb.

But, it is also very often neither explained nor justified.

Which leads to great confusion.

Why Would An Image Have 784 Dimensions?

 10

greyscale images

Central Hypothesis of Modern DL

Data Lives On A Lower Dimensional Manifold

Maybe Very Contiguous

Maybe A Small Set Of Disconnected

Images from Wikipedia

Testing These Ideas With Scikit-learn

import numpy as np import matplotlib.pyplot as plt from sklearn import (datasets, decomposition, manifold, random_projection) def draw(X, title): plt.figure() p]t.xlim(X.min(0)[0],X.max(0)[0]); p]t.ylim(X.min(0)[1],X.max(0)[1]) plt.xticks([]); plt.yticks([]) plt.title(title) for i in range(X.shape[0]): plt.text(X[i, 0], X[i, 1], str(y[i]), color=plt.cm.Set1(y[i] / 10.))

digits = datasets.load_digits(n_class=6) $x =$ digits.data y = digits.target

rp = random_projection.SparseRandomProjection(n_components=2, random_state=42) X projected = rp.fit transform (X) draw(X_projected, "Sparse Random Projection of the digits")

 $X_pca = decomposition.PCA(n_components=2) . fit_transform(X)$ draw(X_pca, "PCA (Two Components)")

tsne = manifold.TSNE(n_components=2, init='pca', random_state=0) X_t tsne = tsne.fit_transform (X) draw(X_tsne, "t-SNE Embedding")

plt.show()

How does all this fit together?

The Journey Ahead

As the Data Scientist wanders across the ill-defined boundary between Data Science and Machine Learning, in search of the fabled land of Artificial Intelligence, they find that the language changes from programming to a creole of linear algebra and probablity and statistics.