



HAL
open science

Joining Distributed Database Summaries

Mounir Bechchi, Guillaume Raschia, Nouredine Mouaddib

► **To cite this version:**

Mounir Bechchi, Guillaume Raschia, Nouredine Mouaddib. Joining Distributed Database Summaries. [Research Report] RR-6768, INRIA. 2008, pp.29. inria-00346528

HAL Id: inria-00346528

<https://inria.hal.science/inria-00346528>

Submitted on 11 Dec 2008

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.



INSTITUT NATIONAL DE RECHERCHE EN INFORMATIQUE ET EN AUTOMATIQUE

Joining Distributed Database Summaries

Mounir Bechchi — Guillaume Raschia — Noureddine Mouaddib

N° 6768

2008

Thème SYM



*R*apport
de recherche

Joining Distributed Database Summaries

Mounir Bechchi^{*}, Guillaume Raschia^{*}, Nouredine Mouaddib[†]

Thème SYM — Systèmes symboliques
Équipe-Projet Atlas

Rapport de recherche n° 6768 — 2008 — 26 pages

Abstract: The database summarization system coined SAINTETIQ provides multi-level summaries of tabular data stored into a centralized database. Summaries are computed online with a conceptual hierarchical clustering algorithm. However, in many companies, data are distributed among several sites, either homogeneously (i.e., sites contain data for a common set of features) or heterogeneously (i.e., sites contain data for different features). Consequently, the current centralized version of SAINTETIQ is either not feasible or even not desirable due to privacy or resource issues.

In this paper, we propose two new algorithms for summarizing heterogeneously distributed data without a prior "unification" of the data sources: *Subspace-Oriented Join Algorithm (SOJA)* and *Tree Aligement-based Join Algorithm (TAJA)*. The main idea of such algorithms consists in applying innovative *joins* on two local models, computed over two disjoint sets of features, to provide a global summary over the full feature set without scanning the raw data. *SOJA* takes one of the two input trees as the base model and the other one is processed to complete the first one, whereas *TAJA* rearranges summaries by levels in a top-down manner.

Then, we propose a consistent quality measure to quantify how good our joined hierarchies are. Finally, an experimental study, using synthetic data sets, shows that our joining processes (*SOJA* and *TAJA*) result in high quality clustering schemas of the entire distributed data and are very efficient in terms of computational time w.r.t. the centralized approach.

Key-words: Database Summary, Distributed Clustering

^{*} Atlas-Grim, INRIA/LINA-Université de Nantes

[†] Université Internationale de Rabat

La Jointure des Résumés Distribués d'une Base de Données

Résumé : Le système SaintEtiQ permet de construire, à partir d'une table relationnelle, une hiérarchie de concepts résumant cette relation. Les résumés sont générés via un algorithme de classification incrémental et chacun d'entre eux fournit une représentation concise par le biais d'un ensemble de descripteurs linguistiques sur chaque attribut d'une partie des n-uplets de la relation résumée. Les multiples niveaux de granularité qu'offre la structure hiérarchique permettent, a posteriori, d'exhiber une forme résumée de la relation à un niveau de précision voulu.

Actuellement, dans les grandes organisations, les données sont géographiquement distribuées sur plusieurs sites de manière homogène (i.e. , fragmentation horizontale) ou hétérogènes (i.e. , fragmentation verticale). La répartition des données rend inapplicable la procédure de classification conceptuelle telle que définie par SaintEtiQ puisqu'elle exige que les données soient disponibles sur le serveur des résumés; cette hypothèse étant techniquement non satisfiable (i.e. , bande passante, espace de stockage, performance, etc.) ou trop intrusive (i.e. , confidentialité).

Ce travail propose deux algorithmes pour résumer deux relations hétérogènes sans accéder aux données d'origine: SOJA (Subspace-Oriented Join Algorithm) et TAJA (Tree Aligement-based Join Algorithm). Ces deux algorithmes prennent en entrée deux résumés générés localement et de manière autonome sur deux sites distincts et les combinent pour en produire un résumant la relation correspondante à la jointure des deux relations locales. Les résultats expérimentaux montrent que SOJA et TAJA sont plus performants que l'approche centralisée (i.e. , SaintEtiQ appliqué aux relations après regroupement et jointure sur un même site) et produisent des hiérarchies semblables à celles que produit l'approche centralisée.

Mots-clés : Résumé de données, Classification distribuée

1 Introduction

Because of the ever increasing amount of information stored each day into databases, users can no longer have an exploratory approach for visualizing, querying and analyzing their data without facing the problem often referred to as "Information Overload". Means to circumvent those problems include data reduction techniques and, among them, the SAINTETIQ [19] database summarization model which is considered in this paper.

SAINTETIQ enables classification and clustering of structured data stored into a database. It applies a conceptual clustering algorithm for partitioning the incoming data in an incremental and dynamic way. The algorithm takes a relational table as input and produces a hierarchical data structure that shows how clusters are related. By cutting the hierarchy at a desired level, a partitioning of data items into disjoint groups are obtained. Thus, the main concern in the clustering process is to reveal the organization of patterns into "sensible" groups, which allow us to discover similarities and differences, as well as to derive useful conclusions about them. This idea is applicable in many fields [8], such as life sciences, medical sciences and engineering.

Actually, data are often distributed across institutional, geographical and organizational boundaries rather than being stored in a centralized location. Data can be distributed by separating objects or attributes: in the homogeneous case, sites contain subsets of objects with all attributes, while in the heterogeneous case sites contain subsets of attributes for all objects. Because of concerns related to confidentiality, storage, communication bandwidth and/or power limitation, the current centralized version of SAINTETIQ is not appropriate for such an environment. For instance, in medical database, only anonymous and statistical information is available since individual information (such as name, address and phone number) can violate patient confidentiality. Even if privacy is not an obstacle, transmitting the entire local data set to a central site and performing the clustering is, in some application areas, quite difficult if not almost impossible. In astronomy, for instance, data sets gathered by telescopes and satellites, spread all over the world, are measured in gigabytes and even terabytes.

The requirement to extract useful information from these databases, without pooling the whole data, has led to the new research area of Distributed Knowledge Discovery [16]. In this paper, we propose two new algorithms for summarizing heterogeneously¹ distributed data: *Subspace-Oriented Join Algorithm (SOJA)* and *Tree Alignment-based Join Algorithm (TAJA)*. Given two hierarchical clustering schemas (local models) computed over two disjoint sets of features, the main idea of such algorithms consists in applying innovative *joins* on local models in order to provide a single summary hierarchy over the full feature set without scanning the raw data.

The main concern of this work is to introduce and compare those approaches and list the pros and cons of each one. This raises some questions:

1. How can we define the set of the best representatives (or summaries) of a given data set according to the partial summaries?

¹The homogeneous case has been addressed in our previous work [2].

2. What are the main criteria (time complexity, model consistency, etc.) that need to be taken care of in order to ensure that the join process overcomes the SAINTETIQ limitations in distributed systems?
3. How good are the joined hierarchies?

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In the next section we present the SAINTETIQ model and discuss how our proposal can be extended to any grid-based hierarchical clustering algorithm. Then, in Section 3 we define the problem of summarizing distributed heterogeneous data and present some straightforward approaches to address such problem. Two alternative approaches that overcome straightforward approaches limitations are presented in Section 4. Section 5 introduces how to evaluate the correctness of joining algorithm results using an appropriate and consistent clustering validity index. Moreover, an experimental study is detailed in Section 6. Section 7 presents the related work. Finally, in Section 8, we give concluding remarks and future directions of our work.

2 Overview of the SAINTETIQ System

Our work relies on the summaries provided by the SAINTETIQ system described in [19]. In this section, we introduce the main ideas of the summary model and give useful definitions and properties regarding our proposal. Then, we discuss how our proposal can be extended to any grid-based hierarchical clustering algorithm.

2.1 A Two-Step Process

SAINTETIQ (SEQ) is an incremental process that takes tabular data as input and produces multi-resolution summaries of records. Each record, which goes through a mapping step followed by a summarization step, contributes in progressively building the final hierarchy of summaries.

2.1.1 Mapping Service (\mathcal{M}_{SEQ})

SAINTETIQ system relies on Zadeh's fuzzy set theory [25], and more specifically on linguistic variables [14] and fuzzy partitions [15], to represent data in a concise form. The fuzzy set theory is used to translate records in accordance with a *Knowledge Base (KB)* provided by the user. Basically, the operation replaces the original values of each record in the table by a set of linguistic descriptors defined in the *KB*. For instance, with a linguistic variable on the attribute INCOME (Figure 1), a value $t.INCOME = 440.86\text{€}$ is mapped to $\{0.3/tiny, 0.7/very\ small\}$ where 0.3 is a membership grade that tells how well the label *tiny* describes the value 440.86. Extending this mapping to all the attributes of a relation could be seen as mapping the records to a grid-based multidimensional space. The grid is provided by the *KB* and corresponds to the user's perception of the domain.

Thus, tuples of table 1 are mapped into two distinct grid-cells denoted by c_1 and c_2 in table 2. *young* is a fuzzy label a priori provided by the *KB* on the attribute AGE and it perfectly matches (with degree 1) the [19,24] range

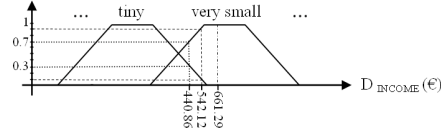


Figure 1: Fuzzy linguistic partition defined on the attribute INCOME

of raw values. The "tuple count" column gives the proportion of records in R that belong to the cell and $0.3/tiny$ says that *tiny* fits the data only with a small degree (0.3). It is computed as the maximum of all membership grades of tuple values to *tiny* in c_1 .

Table 1: Raw data (R)

ID	AGE	INCOME
t_1	22	440, 86
t_2	19	542, 12
t_3	24	661, 29

Table 2: Grid-cells mapping

Cell	AGE	INCOME	Extent	tuple count
c_1	<i>young</i>	$0.3/tiny$	t_1, t_2	0.4
c_2	<i>young</i>	<i>very small</i>	t_1, t_2, t_3	2.6

Flexibility in the vocabulary definition of KB permits to express any single value with more than one fuzzy descriptor and avoid threshold effect thanks to a smooth transition between two descriptors. The mapping of all tuples leads to the point where some tuples become indistinguishable when read using the descriptors. They are then grouped into the multidimensional grid-cells such that there are finally many more records than cells. Each new (coarser) tuple stores a record count and attribute-dependant measures (min, max, mean, standard deviation, etc.). It is then called a *summary*.

It is worth noticing that a grid of relatively small cells will lead to a greater precision in the summary description. However, the larger the size of a cell, the smaller the precision, hence the difficulty to approximate the exact values of the database records that are represented by any particular cell.

2.1.2 Summarization Service (C_{SEQ})

Summarization service is the last and the most sophisticated step of the SAINTETIQ system. It takes *grid-cells* as input and outputs a collection of summaries hierarchically arranged from the most generalized one (the root) to the most specialized ones (the leaves). Summaries are clusters of grid-cells, defining hyperrectangles in the multidimensional space. In the basic process, leaves are grid-cells themselves and the clustering task is performed on L cells rather than n tuples ($L \ll n$).

From the mapping step, cells are introduced continuously in the hierarchy with a top-down approach inspired of D.H. Fisher’s Cobweb, a conceptual clustering algorithm [22]. Then, they are incorporated into best fitting nodes descending the tree. Three more operators could be apply, depending on partition’s score U , that are *create*, *merge* and *split* nodes. They allow developing the tree and updating its current state. U is a combination of two well-known measures: *typicality* [18] and *contrast* [23]. Those measures maximize between-summary dissimilarity and within-summary similarity. Figure 2 represents the summary hierarchy built from the cells c_1 and c_2 .

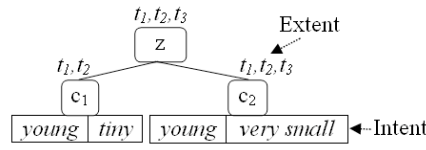


Figure 2: Example of SEQ hierarchy

2.2 Features of the Summaries

Definition 1 Summary Let R be a relation defined over a set $E = \{A_1, \dots, A_N\}$ of attributes. Each attribute $A_i \in E$ is defined on a domain D_{A_i} . Assume that the N -dimensional space $A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots \times A_N$ is equipped with a grid $\mathcal{G}[E]$ that defines basic N -dimensional areas, called cells, in E . The cells are obtained by partitioning every initial feature domain into several sub-domains using linguistic labels from the KB. A summary z (denoted by $z \subseteq E$) of a relation R is the bounding box of a cluster of cells populated by records of R .

The above definition is constructive since it proposes to build generalized summaries (hyperrectangles) from cells that are specialized ones. In fact, it is equivalent to performing an *addition* on cells such that:

$$z = c_1 + c_2 + \dots + c_m$$

where $c_i \in \mathcal{G}[E]$ is the set of the m cells (summaries) covered by z .

A summary z is then an *intentional description* associated with a set of tuples R_z as its *extent* and a set of cells $L_z \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{G}[E])$, that are populated by records of R_z . $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{G}[E])$ is the set of subsets of $\mathcal{G}[E]$. Hereafter, we shall use L_{R_z} and L_z interchangeably to denote the set of cells populated by records of R_z .

Thus, summaries are areas of E with hyperrectangle shapes provided by KB. They are nodes of the summary tree built by the SAINTETIQ system.

Definition 2 Summary Tree A summary tree H_R over R is a collection \mathcal{Z} of summaries verifying:

- $\forall z, z' \in \mathcal{Z}, \quad z \preceq z' \iff R_z \subseteq R_{z'}$;
- $\exists! z \in \mathcal{Z}$ such that $R_z = \bigcup_{z' \in \mathcal{Z}} R_{z'}$.

The relation over \mathcal{Z} (i.e. \leq) provides a generalization-specialization relationship between summaries. And assuming summaries are hyperrectangles in a multidimensional space, the partial ordering defines *nested summaries* from the larger one to single cells themselves.

In order to provide the end-user with a reduced set of representatives from the data, we need to extract a subset of the summaries in the tree. The straightforward way of performing such a task is to define a summary partitioning.

Definition 3 Summary Partitioning *The set P of leaves of every rooted sub-tree of the summary hierarchy H_R provides a partitioning of relation R .*

We denote by P_z the top-level partition of z in the summary tree. It is then the most general partitioning of R_z we can provide from the tree. Note that the most specialized one is the set of cells covering R_z , that is L_z . A partitioning can be obtained *a posteriori* to set the compression rate depending on user needs. For instance, general trends in the data could be identified in the very first levels of the tree, whereas precise information has to be looked for around leaf-level. Moreover, such partitioning verifies two basic properties: disjunction and coverage.

Property 1 Disjunction

Summaries z and z' are disjoint iff $\exists i \in [1..N], z.A_i \cap z'.A_i = \emptyset$.

According to this property, summaries of a partition do not overlap with each other, if we except the overlapping of fuzzy cells borders.

Property 2 Coverage

$$R = \cup_{z \in P} R_z$$

A partition P guarantees complete coverage of relation R since, by definition, representatives of every branch are included into P .

2.3 Time complexity of SAINTETIQ

In this section, we discuss the efficiency of the SAINTETIQ process and specifically, its summarization service C_{SEQ} . The mapping service \mathcal{M}_{SEQ} will not be further discussed as it is a straightforward rewriting process.

The time cost $T_{C_{SEQ}}$ of C_{SEQ} process can be expressed as:

$$T_{C_{SEQ}}(L) = k_{SEQ} \cdot L \cdot \log_d L$$

where L is the number of cells of the output hierarchy, d its average width and $\log_d L$ an estimation of its average depth. In the above formula, coefficient k_{SEQ} corresponds to the set of operations performed to find the best learning operator to apply at each level of the hierarchy.

Note that the number of leaves L is bounded by p^N (i.e. , the size of the grid-based multidimensional space) where p represents the average number of descriptors defined for each feature in E . Of course, the exact number will greatly depend on the data set, and more specifically, on the existing correlations between attribute values. For example, in a car database with attributes product and price, it is likely that we will not find the combination of Ferrari and Cheap.

2.4 The General Case

In the remainder of this paper, we adopt the SAINTETIQ system (SEQ) to illustrate our joining algorithms of local models. However, our proposal can be generalized to any clustering technique (e.g., STING [24], CLIQUE [1]) that is based upon two main functions: a mapping function \mathcal{M} and a hierarchical clustering function \mathcal{C} .

Definition 4 Mapping (\mathcal{M})

Let $E = \{A_1, \dots, A_N\}$ be a set of features and assume that the N -dimensional space $A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots \times A_N$ is equipped with a grid $\mathcal{G}[E]$ that defines basic N -dimensional areas called cells in E . The cells are obtained by partitioning each initial feature domain into several sub-domains. A mapping \mathcal{M} is defined as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{M}: I(\mathcal{R}[E]) &\rightarrow \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{G}[E]) \\ R &\mapsto \mathcal{M}(R) = L_R \end{aligned}$$

where $I(\mathcal{R}[E])$ is the set of instances of the relational schema $\mathcal{R}(A_1, \dots, A_N)$ and, for $R \in I(\mathcal{R}[E])$, L_R is the set of cells populated by records of R .

Definition 5 Hierarchical clustering function (\mathcal{C})

A hierarchical clustering function \mathcal{C} takes a set of cells X as input and outputs a set of subsets of X . \mathcal{C} is defined as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{C}: \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{G}[E]) &\rightarrow \mathcal{P}^2(\mathcal{G}[E]) \\ X &\mapsto \mathcal{C}(X) \end{aligned}$$

where $\mathcal{C}(X)$ verifies the following conditions: (1) $X \in \mathcal{C}(X)$; (2) $\emptyset \notin \mathcal{C}(X)$; (3) $\forall x \in X, \{x\} \in \mathcal{C}(X)$; (4) $\forall c, c' \in \mathcal{C}(X), c \cap c' \in \{c, c', \emptyset\}$. Finally, for every inner node c of the hierarchy, c is defined w.r.t. the objective function of \mathcal{C} and the control strategy used to search in the features space.

Assume X is the result of a mapping process over a relation R (i.e., $X = \mathcal{M}(R)$), then the elements of $\mathcal{C} \circ \mathcal{M}(R)$ are nodes of the grid-based hierarchical clustering schema built by \mathcal{C} over R .

As one can observe, SAINTETIQ is an instance of $\mathcal{C} \circ \mathcal{M}$. Indeed, \mathcal{M} is the mapping service \mathcal{M}_{SEQ} defined in Section 2.1.1, whereas \mathcal{C} is the summarization service \mathcal{C}_{SEQ} of Section 2.1.2 (i.e., $SEQ = \mathcal{C}_{SEQ} \circ \mathcal{M}_{SEQ}$).

Note that SAINTETIQ provides a near-optimal partitioning schema for a given data set R since the tree is updated locally every time a new cell is incorporated. However, the best partitioning schema H_R of R can be obtained by substituting the summarization service \mathcal{C}_{SEQ} by the following greedy algorithm \mathcal{C}_{OPT} :

1. search for optimal partitioning P_{best} of L_R ; P_{best} is then the top-level partition in the tree H_R and is connected to the root z ;
2. for each $z' \in P_{best}$ do
 - nothing if z' is a leaf, else
 - repeat from step 1 with $L_R \leftarrow L_{z'}$; $H_R \leftarrow H_{R_{z'}}$; $z \leftarrow z'$;

We define here the optimality of P_{best} as the result of performing the following process (the *search strategy*) on a set of summaries \mathcal{Z} : (1) compute the partition lattice \mathcal{L} of \mathcal{Z} ; (2) for each partition $P \in \mathcal{L}$, build summary descriptions (hyperrectangles) from clusters of cells; (3) filter from \mathcal{L} the set of candidate summary partitions P that satisfy the disjunction property (coverage is trivial); (4) the optimal partitioning of \mathcal{Z} is the partition $P_{best} \in \mathcal{P}$ with the highest U value. U is a heuristic objective function, the partition utility (or quality), based on contrast and typicality of summary descriptions [19].

C_{OPT} provides optimal hierarchy by construction but it is exponential w.r.t. the number L of cells in the output hierarchy since it relies on finding the best partition P_{best} of various data sets with nesting constraints. This principle requires to explore all the possible partitions each time. The time complexity of C_{OPT} verifies $T_{C_{OPT}}(L) = k_{OPT} \cdot B_L$, where k_{OPT} is a constant factor and B is the L th Bell number². Thus, $T_{C_{OPT}}$ is $O(2^L)$ and consequently C_{OPT} is inappropriate for scaling.

C_{SEQ} and C_{OPT} differ in the *control strategy* used to explore the features space, but the *objective function* U is the same.

In the following section, we formally define the problem of summarizing distributed heterogeneous data and we introduce a running example that will be used throughout this document. Then, we describe the very first ideas to address such a problem and we present their limitations.

3 Problem Analysis

3.1 Problem Statement

To keep things simple, in what follows, we assume that there exist two relational database tables R_1 and R_2 located respectively on distant sites S_1 and S_2 . R_1 and R_2 are defined respectively on disjoint feature sets $E_1 = \{A_1, \dots, A_{N_1}\}$ and $E_2 = \{A_{N_1+1}, \dots, A_{N_1+N_2}\}$. Furthermore, we assume that there is a common feature ID, accessible to S_1 and S_2 , that can be used to associate a given sub-tuple in site S_1 to a corresponding sub-tuple in site S_2 . Note that the latter assumption is required for a reasonable solution to the distributed clustering problem and is not overly restrictive. Indeed, any entity resolution method could give such association [3, 20].

Definition 6 Problem Definition We define the problem of heterogeneous distributed data clustering for a clustering algorithm $C \circ \mathcal{M}_{SEQ}$ as follows. Let $R_1 \bowtie R_2$ be the natural³ join of R_1 and R_2 . The problem is to find the global hierarchical clustering schema $H_{R_1 \bowtie R_2}$ of data located at S_1 and S_2 over the full feature set $E = E_1 \cup E_2$, such that:

(i) $H_{R_1 \bowtie R_2} = C_{OPT} \circ \mathcal{M}_{SEQ}(R_1 \bowtie R_2)$ (consistency requirement)

(ii) The entire data transfer is avoided (limited data access requirement)

² $B_L = \sum_{i=0}^{L-1} (C_i^{L-1} \cdot \mathcal{B}_i)$ gives the number of partitions of a set \mathcal{Z} with L elements according to the usual definition.

³The join of R_1 and R_2 over the common feature ID (i.e. $R_1 \bowtie_{ID} R_2$)

In addition to requirements (i) and (ii), the proposed solution must also scale well with respect to the number of records and the number of dimensions in large data sets (efficiency requirement).

The traditional solution to the above problem is to transfer R_1 and R_2 to one centralized site where the join $R_1 \bowtie R_2$ is performed, and then the global hierarchy is computed by applying $C_{OPT} \circ M_{SEQ}$ over $R_1 \bowtie R_2$. Such an approach does not satisfy the (ii) and efficiency requirements. Indeed, it uses raw data and it causes high response times since $T_{C_{OPT}} \in O(2^L)$ where L is the number of cells populated by records of $R_1 \bowtie R_2$. We therefore discuss new algorithms which take two local models (i.e., H_{R_1} and H_{R_2}) as input instead of the raw data (i.e., R_1 and R_2) and output a single summary tree $H_{R_1 \bowtie R_2}$ based on the two local models.

3.2 Running Example

To illustrate our proposal, we introduce two relations $R_1(A, B)$ and $R_2(C)$ defined respectively on feature sets $E_1 = \{A, B\}$ and $E_2 = \{C\}$. We consider that $\{a_1, a_2, a_3\}$, $\{b_1, b_2, b_3\}$ and $\{c_1, c_2, c_3\}$ are sets of linguistic labels defined respectively on the attributes A , B and C . Furthermore, we assume the existence of unique indices ID to link R_1 and R_2 records. Applying SAINTETIQ on each of the two relations leads to the summary trees shown on Figure 3.

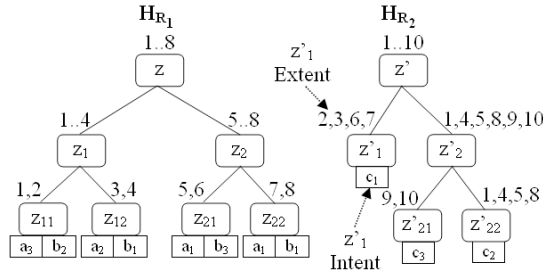


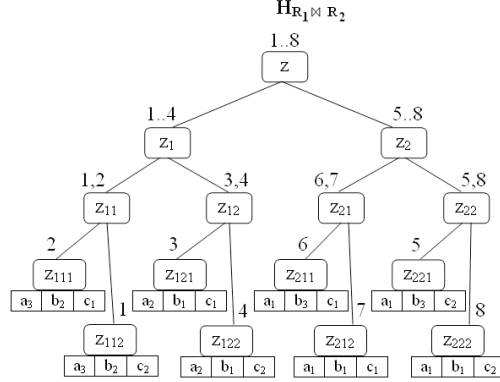
Figure 3: H_{R_1} and H_{R_2}

$M_{SEQ}(R_1)$ and $M_{SEQ}(R_2)$ as well as their relationship are shown on Table 3.

Table 3: Relationship between R_1 and R_2

IDs	$M_{SEQ}(R_1)$	IDs	$M_{SEQ}(R_2)$
1, 2	$\langle a_3, b_2 \rangle$	2, 3, 6, 7	$\langle c_1 \rangle$
3, 4	$\langle a_2, b_1 \rangle$	9, 10	$\langle c_3 \rangle$
5, 6	$\langle a_1, b_3 \rangle$	1, 4, 5, 8	$\langle c_2 \rangle$
7, 8	$\langle a_1, b_1 \rangle$		

Figure 4 shows the summary hierarchy $H_{R_1 \bowtie R_2}$ provided by SAINTETIQ when performed on $R_1 \bowtie R_2$ (i.e. the centralized data set).

Figure 4: SEQ on $R_1 \bowtie R_2$

3.3 Basic Approaches

In this section, we discuss the first ideas for *joining* two summary hierarchies and describe their drawbacks. But before proceeding further, we define new operators that will be used in the following.

Join Operators

Definition 7 Summary Join Operator ($\widetilde{\bowtie}$) Let z_1 and z_2 be respectively summaries of E_1 and E_2 (i.e., $z_1 \subseteq E_1$ and $z_2 \subseteq E_2$). We define a join operator for z_1 and z_2 as:

$$z^* = z_1 \widetilde{\bowtie} z_2 \iff R_{z^*} = R_{z_1} \bowtie R_{z_2}$$

z^* is area of $E = E_1 \cup E_2$. Its extent contains records of the restricted natural join between R_{z_1} and R_{z_2} . It is worth noticing that the summary join could be empty (i.e., $z^* = \emptyset$) as soon as R_{z_1} and R_{z_2} have no common values on the ID attribute (i.e., $R_{z_1} \bowtie R_{z_2} = \emptyset$).

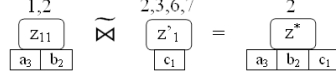
Definition 8 Partition Join Operator ($\widehat{\bowtie}$) Let P_1 be a partitioning of R_1 and P_2 a partitioning of R_2 . The join of P_1 and P_2 is defined as:

$$P_1 \widehat{\bowtie} P_2 = \{z_1 \widetilde{\bowtie} z_2 \mid z_1 \widetilde{\bowtie} z_2 \neq \emptyset \wedge (z_1 \in P_1) \wedge (z_2 \in P_2)\}$$

$P_1 \widehat{\bowtie} P_2$ is a partitioning of $R_1 \bowtie R_2$. Indeed, we can easily check that $P_1 \widehat{\bowtie} P_2$ verifies the disjunction and coverage properties. We denote by $P_1 \widehat{\bowtie} P_2$ the set of summaries of P_1 such that for each $z_1 \in P_1 \widehat{\bowtie} P_2$ there exists $z_2 \in P_2$ such $z_1 \widetilde{\bowtie} z_2 \in P_1 \widehat{\bowtie} P_2$.

The intentional content of each joint summary $z^* = z_1 \widetilde{\bowtie} z_2$ can be obtained without any mapping process (Section 2.1.1). Indeed, if z_1 and z_2 are both cells, their intents can be appended to form z^* intent (e.g. see figure 5). Otherwise, the intentional description of z^* is computed from both sets of cells covered by z_1 and z_2 as follows:

$$z^* = \sum_{c \in (L_{z_1} \widehat{\bowtie} L_{z_2})} c.$$

Figure 5: $z^* = z_{11} \widetilde{\bowtie} z'_1$

Note that the exact values of attribute-dependent (e.g. , mean, maximum, minimum and standard deviation) and attribute-independent (e.g. , record count) statistical information of each joint cell $c \widetilde{\bowtie} c'$ cannot be computed without either centralization of data or communication between sites since such parameters are calculated directly from data. However, if univariate-distribution laws (e.g. , normal, uniform, etc.) of attributes values in c and c' are known (e.g. , STING [24]), an approximation of $c \widetilde{\bowtie} c'$ attribute-dependent measures can be calculated. An approximation of $c \widetilde{\bowtie} c'$ attribute-independent parameters is a bit more complicated, but not impossible. First, the multivariate-distribution law is approximated using the univariate-distribution laws. Then, it could be used to estimate $c \widetilde{\bowtie} c'$ attribute-independent measures.

As a consequence to the above definitions, the mapping function \mathcal{M}_{SEQ} verifies the following property:

Property 3

$$\mathcal{M}_{SEQ}(R_1 \bowtie R_2) = L_{R_1} \widetilde{\bowtie} L_{R_2} = \mathcal{M}_{SEQ}(R_1) \widetilde{\bowtie} \mathcal{M}_{SEQ}(R_2).$$

According to this property, the set of cells of $H_{R_1 \bowtie R_2}$ can be obtained from both sets of cells of local models H_{R_1} and H_{R_2} . It means no mapping process is needed.

Greedy Joining Algorithm (GJA)

The straightforward way of building a global hierarchical clustering schema of $R_1 \bowtie R_2$ without scanning the raw data is to use \mathcal{M}_{SEQ} property (property 3) to compute $C_{OPT} \circ \mathcal{M}_{SEQ}(R_1 \bowtie R_2)$ and consequently avoid the explicit mapping process:

$$C_{OPT} \circ \mathcal{M}_{SEQ}(R_1 \bowtie R_2) = C_{OPT}(\mathcal{M}_{SEQ}(R_1) \widetilde{\bowtie} \mathcal{M}_{SEQ}(R_2))$$

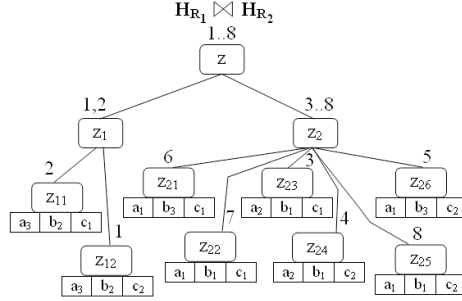
For instance, Figure 6 illustrates the joined hierarchy obtained from summary trees shown in Figure 3 according to the Greedy Joining Algorithm.

GJA provides the optimal hierarchy and does not require scanning of raw data. However, it does not satisfy the efficiency requirement. Indeed, when assuming $|L_{R_1}| \simeq |L_{R_2}| \simeq l$, T_{GJA} is defined as:

$$T_{GJA}(l) = k_{GJA} \cdot l^2 + T_{C_{OPT}}(l^2)$$

where k_{GJA} is a constant factor and $T_{C_{OPT}}(l^2)$ is the time cost required to process $L_{R_1} \widetilde{\bowtie} L_{R_2}$ using C_{OPT} (see Section 2.4). In the above formula, l^2 gives the maximum number of cells populated by records of $R_1 \bowtie R_2$.

Hence, T_{GJA} is $O(2^L)$, where L is the number of cells populated by records of $R_1 \bowtie R_2$ and consequently GJA is inappropriate for scaling.

Figure 6: GJA on H_{R_1} and H_{R_2}

It is worth noticing that there is no efficient method for computing the optimal hierarchy. A search strategy cannot be both computationally inexpensive and construct clusters of high quality. Thus, in the following, our problem's consistency requirement is relaxed by requiring only an approximation of the optimal joined hierarchy. The counterpart is that we must provide evidences of the quality of the approximate solution (see Section 5.2).

SAINTETIQ -based Join Algorithm (SEQ-JA)

One direction to overcome the GJA limitation is to process $\mathcal{M}_{SEQ}(R_1) \bowtie \mathcal{M}_{SEQ}(R_2)$ using C_{SEQ} (Section 2.1.2) instead of C_{OPT} .

The joined hierarchy of summary trees from Figure 3 according to SEQ-JA is the same than the one provided by SAINTETIQ when performed on $R_1 \bowtie R_2$ (Figure 4). Note that this is not always the case since different sorts of the cells may yield different clustering schemas.

The time complexity of SEQ-JA, when considering $|L_{R_1}| \simeq |L_{R_2}| \simeq l$, is given by:

$$T_{SEQ-JA}(l) = k_{SEQ-JA} \cdot l^2 + T_{C_{SEQ}}(l^2)$$

where k_{SEQ-JA} is a constant factor and $T_{C_{SEQ}}(l^2)$ is the time cost required to process $L_{R_1} \bowtie L_{R_2}$ using C_{SEQ} (see Section 2.3).

Hence, T_{SEQ-JA} is $O(L \cdot \log L)$, where L is the number of cells populated by records of $R_1 \bowtie R_2$.

Note that SEQ-JA considers all the dimensions of the centralized data set in attempt to build the global schema. Indeed, it does not exploit existing hierarchical partitioning schemas that are pre-computed locally; it takes a set of cells as input and builds the global schema from scratch. Thus, SEQ-JA is expected to break down rapidly as the number of dimensions increases since T_{SEQ-JA} is quasi-linear w.r.t. the number of cells (i.e., the size of the grid-based multidimensional space), which depends on the number of features.

The following alternatives try to achieve high quality clustering schemas of the entire distributed data set as well as to enhance join process performance, exploiting the full capacity of all distributed resources.

4 Alternative approaches

In this section, we present three alternative algorithms in order to overcome the limitations of basic approaches. The *Subspace-Oriented Join Algorithm* (SOJA) and the *SOJA with Rearrangements* (SOJA-RA) modify one of the two input trees, called the base model, according to the other one to build a single tree. The last approach, so-called *Tree Alignment-based Join Algorithm* (TAJA), relies on a recursive processing that performs a join of summary partitions guided by levels of the input hierarchies.

4.1 Subspace-Oriented Join Algorithm

Howto

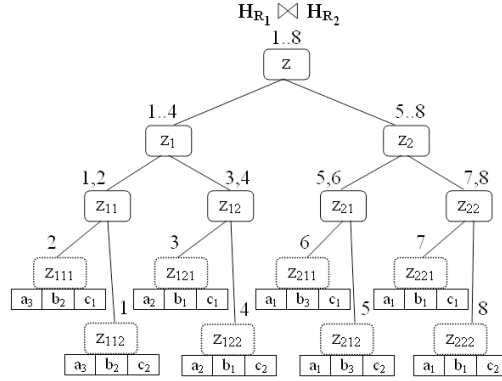
The main idea of this approach is rather simple. It starts from an existing hierarchical clustering schema within a subspace of the whole data set. Then, once items become indistinguishable from one-another according to this subspace, it proceeds with a sequence of refinements on the existing clusters according to the complementary subspace. More precisely, *SOJA* assumes one of the two input trees as the base model (e.g., H_{R_1}) and the other one (e.g., H_{R_2}) is processed to refine cells (or leaves) of the first one.

Thus, *SOJA*_{1→2} (i.e., H_{R_1} is the base model) computes the hierarchy $H_{R_1 \bowtie R_2}$ from H_{R_1} and H_{R_2} as follows:

1. for each cell c_1 of H_{R_1} , compute $L_{R_2} \widehat{\bowtie} \{c_1\}$ and do
 - a. if $L_{R_2} \widehat{\bowtie} \{c_1\} = \emptyset$ (i.e., $R_{c_1} \bowtie R_2 = \emptyset$): remove c_1 from H_{R_1} since it is populated by records that are not in $R_1 \bowtie R_2$ and then, if the parent of c_1 has one single child, replace it by the child itself, else
 - b. if $L_{R_2} \widehat{\bowtie} \{c_1\} = \{c_2\}$ (i.e., is a singleton): replace c_1 with $c_1 \widetilde{\bowtie} c_2$, else
 - c. process the set of cells $L_{R_2} \widehat{\bowtie} \{c_1\}$ using C_{SEQ} and replace each node z of the hierarchy $C_{SEQ}(L_{R_2} \widehat{\bowtie} \{c_1\})$ by $c_1 \widetilde{\bowtie} z$ then, replace c_1 with the result tree;
2. build intent, extent and statistical information on the overall features set for each node z of the result hierarchy (the tree obtained once all cells of H_{R_1} have been processed) based on leaves (cells) of the sub-tree rooted by z (i.e., $z = \sum_{c \in L_z} c$).

The computation of $L_{R_2} \widehat{\bowtie} \{c_1\}$ is based on a depth-first search and relies on a strong property of the hierarchy: the generalization step in the SAINTÉTIQ model guarantees that a tuple is absent from a summary's extent if and only if it is absent from any partition of this summary. This property of the hierarchy permits branch cutting as soon as it is known that no result will be found. Regarding the cell (of the base tree) processed, only a part of the hierarchy is explored.

For instance, Figure 7 illustrates the joined hierarchy obtained from summary trees shown in Figure 3 according to *SOJA*_{1→2}.

Figure 7: $SOJA_{1 \rightarrow 2}$ on H_{R_1} and H_{R_2}

Discussion

Assume that $|L_{R_1}| \simeq |L_{R_2}| \simeq l$. The time complexity T_{SOJA} of this approach is defined as follows:

$$T_{SOJA}(l) = l \cdot [k_{SOJA} \cdot \frac{l-1}{d-1} + T_{C_{SEQ}}(l)] + k'_{SOJA} \cdot \frac{l^2-1}{d-1}$$

where k_{SOJA} and k'_{SOJA} are constant factors and d is the average width of H_{R_1} and H_{R_2} . In the above formula, $[k_{SOJA} \cdot \frac{l-1}{d-1} + T_{C_{SEQ}}(l)]$ is the time cost required to process each cell of the base tree (*search* for cells from the second tree that would join with current cell and *cluster* them using C_{SEQ}), whereas $k'_{SOJA} \cdot \frac{l^2-1}{d-1}$ gives an estimation of the time required to update description of the joined tree summaries.

As one can see, the computational complexity of $SOJA$ is in the same order of magnitude (i.e., $O(L \cdot \log L)$, where L is the number of cells populated by records of $R_1 \bowtie R_2$) than that of $SEQ-JA$ (see Section 3.3). However, performance enhancement is truly remarkable (see Section 6) since all required clustering schemas are computed within a low-dimensional feature space.

In the next section, we propose an original algorithm that rearranges cells of $L_{R_2} \widehat{\bowtie} \{c_1\}$ based on the hierarchical structure of H_{R_2} .

4.2 SOJA with Rearrangements

Howto

At step 1. *c.* of the $SOJA$ algorithm (Section 4.1), we can also use the existing hierarchy H_{R_2} to provide a hierarchical clustering schema of $L_{R_2} \widehat{\bowtie} \{c_1\}$. Indeed, starting from the set of cells $L_{R_2} \widehat{\bowtie} \{c_1\}$, we can produce a sequence of nested partitions with a decreasing number of clusters. Each partition results from the previous one by merging the "closest" clusters into a single one. Similar clusters are identified thanks to the hierarchical structure of the pre-computed clustering schema H_{R_2} . The general assumption is that summaries which are closely related have a common ancestor lower in the hierarchy, whereas the common ancestor of unrelated summaries is near to the root. This process

stops when it reaches a single hyperrectangle (the root z^*). It is worth noticing that z^* is built at the same time we search for cells from H_{R_2} that would join with c_1 . It means that no clustering at all would have to be performed: we prune the tree H_{R_2} by retaining only leaves that belong to $L_{R_2} \widehat{\bowtie} \{c_1\}$ and inner nodes that have two or more cells from $L_{R_2} \widehat{\bowtie} \{c_1\}$ as descendant nodes.

For example, Figure 8 gives the result hierarchy of summary trees from Figure 3 according to this approach (i.e., $SOJA-RA_{2 \rightarrow 1}$).

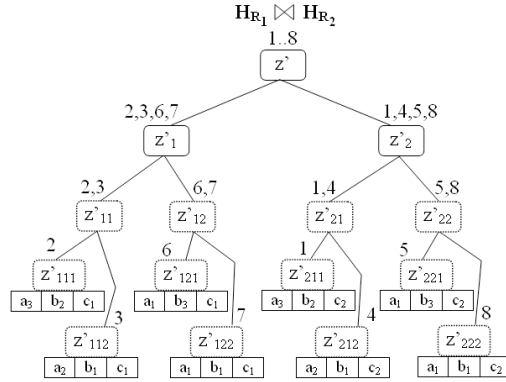


Figure 8: $SOJA-RA_{2 \rightarrow 1}$ on H_{R_1} and H_{R_2}

Discussion

The computational complexity $T_{SOJA-RA}$ of $SOJA$ when using the above process (*Rearranging Summaries Algorithm*) is given by:

$$T_{SOJA-RA}(l) = k_{SOJA-RA} \cdot l \cdot \frac{l-1}{d-1} + k'_{SOJA-RA} \cdot \frac{l^2-1}{d-1}$$

where $k_{SOJA-RA}$ and $k'_{SOJA-RA}$ are constant factors and $|L_{R_1}| \simeq |L_{R_2}| \simeq l$.

$SOJA-RA$ is more efficient than $SOJA$. Indeed, its computational cost is $O(L)$, whereas for $SOJA$ the cost is $O(L \cdot \log L)$, where L is the number of cells populated by records of $R_1 \bowtie R_2$. This is due to the fact that $SOJA-RA$ fully reuses the existing hierarchies, whereas $SOJA$ reuses only the base model.

Note that $SOJA$ and $SOJA-RA$ are asymmetrical. Indeed, they assume one of the two input trees as the base model and the other one is processed to refine leaves (cells) of the first one. Thus, clusters are discovered first based on the feature set of the base model (the upper part of the tree) and then based on the complementary feature set (the lower part). The following approach aims to discover clusters in terms of simultaneous closeness on all features.

4.3 Tree Alignment-based Join Algorithm

Howto

The *Tree Alignment-based Join Algorithm (TAJA)* consists in a recursive processing that performs joins of summary partitions guided by levels of the input hierarchies H_{R_1} and H_{R_2} in order to produce the global hierarchy $H_{R_1 \bowtie R_2}$.

The result hierarchy $H_{R_1 \bowtie R_2}$ is built from trees H_{R_1} and H_{R_2} as follows:

1. the root node z^* of $H_{R_1 \bowtie R_2}$ is the join of the roots of H_{R_1} and H_{R_2} ;
2. the top-level partition of z^* is the join of the top-level partitions of H_{R_1} and H_{R_2} ;
3. for each node $z \bowtie z'$ of the top-level partition of z^* do:
 - nothing if z and z' are both leaves, else
 - join the rooted trees z and z' ;
4. build intent, extent and statistical information on the overall features set, of every inner node (a subtree) z of the result hierarchy based on leaves (cells) of the sub-tree rooted by z (i.e. $z = \sum_{c \in L_z} c$).

Figure 9 represents the *TAJA* hierarchy of the input hierarchies shown on Figure 3, where we denote by $z^{i,j} = z_i \bowtie z'_j$ the join of z_i and z'_j .

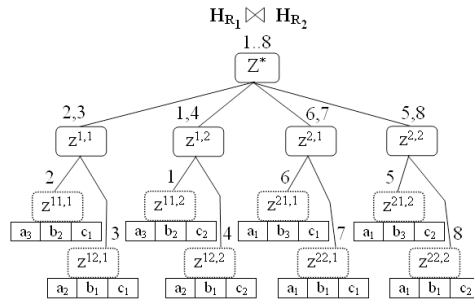


Figure 9: TAJA on H_{R_1} and H_{R_2}

Discussion

Assume that $|L_{R_1}| \simeq |L_{R_2}| \simeq l$. The time complexity T_{TAJA} of *TAJA* is given by:

$$T_{TAJA} = k_{TAJA} \cdot \frac{l^2 - 1}{d^2 - 1} \cdot d^2 + k'_{TAJA} \cdot \frac{l^2 - 1}{d^2 - 1}$$

where d is the average width of H_{R_1} and H_{R_2} , d^2 is an estimation of the average width of the joined tree and l^2 its number of cells. k_{TAJA} and k'_{TAJA} are constant factors.

Hence, T_{TAJA} is $O(L)$, where L is the number of cells populated by records of $R_1 \bowtie R_2$.

To sum up so far, we have proposed five algorithms for *joining* two summary hierarchies. *GJA* has exponential computational complexity w.r.t. the number of cells of the joined hierarchy, whereas *SEQ-JA* and *SOJA* have a quasi-linear one. However, *SOJA* is expected to be more efficient since the clustering task is performed within a low-dimensional feature space. The last two approaches, *SOJA-RA* and *TAJA*, have linear computational complexity w.r.t. the number of cells in the joined hierarchy.

Finally, note that we obtain different hierarchies according to the performed process (*GJA*, *SEQ-JA*, *SOJA*, *SOJA-RA* or *TAJA*). Indeed, in *GJA*, *SEQ-JA* and *TAJA*, summaries are discovered in terms of simultaneous closeness on all features, whereas *SOJA* and *SOJA-RA* provide a subspace-oriented schema where discrimination between summaries, from the root to the leaves, is first based on the feature set of the base model and once they become indistinguishable from one-another according to this subspace, they are distinguished regarding the other one. If efficiency is not crucial, none of them is preferred to the other and third-party application or user's requirements are key factors to selecting the appropriate one. Consider a bank database with two relations: a relation *Customers* (R_1) with attributes "Id_customer", "Age" and "Income" and, a relation *Banking_products* (R_2) with attribute "Id_customer", "Number_of_accounts" and "Number_of_credit_cards". For instance, a banker who is looking to substitute an entire summary partition to the original data set $R_1 \bowtie_{\text{Id_customer}} R_2$ has to use *GJA*, *SEQ-JA* or *TAJA*. However, $SOJA_{2 \rightarrow 1}$ or $SOJA-RA_{2 \rightarrow 1}$ (i.e., H_{R_2} is the base model) are more relevant choice given the following banker's request "how customers with many credit cards and only one account are clustered according to their age and income?".

In the following, we discuss an important issue for joining processes regarding the quality assessment of the results.

5 Joining validity assessment

5.1 Background

In this work, we aim at joining two hierarchical clustering schemas, and then the final result requires an evaluation. The question we wish to answer is *how good are our joined hierarchies?*

In [8], a number of clustering techniques and algorithms have been reviewed. These algorithms behave in different ways depending on the features of the data set (geometry and density distribution of clusters) and/or the input parameter values (e.g. number of clusters, diameter or radius of each cluster). Thus, the quality of clustering results depends on the setting of these parameters.

The soundness of clustering schemas is checked using validity measures (indices) available in the literature [8]. Indices are classified into three categories: external, internal, and relative. The first two rely on statistical measurements and aim at evaluating the extent to which a clustering schema maps a pre-specified structure known about the data set. The third category of indices aims at finding the best clustering schema that an algorithm can provide under some given assumptions and parameters. As one can observe, these indices

give information about the validity of the clustering parameters for a given data set and thus may be viewed as data dependent measures.

Recall that we try to evaluate the validity of the joining processes. Therefore usual validity measures do not apply since the main purpose of the evaluation is to compare the distributed summary construction process with the centralized approach, everything else being equal (objective function, parameters, grid and data set). Thus, there is a need for a summary tree quality measure.

A valid and useful quality measure must be data independent (i.e., it is not built according to pre-specified data structure, assumptions and parameters) and maximum for the hierarchy provided by the *Greedy Join Algorithm*.

In the following, we define a new measure that verifies these requirements.

5.2 Summary Tree Quality

The basic idea is to study the summary utility per node (i.e., locally) as the *GJA* (or *C_{OPT}*) does. For a given hierarchy H_R , we then define as many partitions as there are nodes; each node z covers a part R_z of relation R , and provides a partitioning P_z of R_z (i.e., the top-level of the sub-tree rooted by z in H_R , except for the leaves). Thus, we associate to each non-leaf node z the utility value $U(P_z)$ of the related partition P_z . Consequently, we obtain as many utility values as there are (non-leaf) nodes in H_R .

Then, we define σ_k of H_R as follows:

$$\sigma_k(H_R) = \frac{\sum_{z \in k\text{-nodes}} U(P_z)}{|k\text{-nodes}|}$$

where k -nodes is the set of nodes in H_R with depth less or equal than k . Note that $\sigma_0(H_R)$ is the utility value of the top-level partition in H_R since $0\text{-nodes} = \{root\}$.

The above measure allows us to evaluate how well the local optimization objective is fulfilled. Table 4 gives σ_k values according to every approach, with k value ranging from 0 to 2.

Table 4: σ -values

$k \setminus H$	GJA	worst	SEQ	SOJA _{1→2}	SOJA-RA _{2→1}	TAJA
0	0.911	0.179	0.717	0.709	0.700	0.730
1	0.762	0.179	0.455	0.432	0.434	0.473
2	0.762	0.179	0.354	0.328	0.314	0.473

H_{worst} is the hierarchy provided by *GJA* with choice of the worst (instead of the best) partition at each step on the process. According to the example described in Section 3.2, H_{worst} has only two levels: one root level and one cells level.

This measure is semantically consistent. Indeed, it reaches its maximum and minimum values on H_{GJA} and H_{worst} respectively. Thus, we will use it to evaluate the validity of our joining processes (Section 6).

6 Experimental Results

This section presents experimental results achieved with the *SOJA*, *SOJA-RA* and *TAJA* processes. We first introduce the data set, then we provide an analysis based on observations of various parameters.

6.1 Data Set

We used a data set generator (DatGen⁴) to generate synthetic data sets with different number of records. Each record is defined over $N = 20$ attributes with values from a set of 10 nominal values and has a primary key *ID*. To perform our joining processes, we previously computed two couples of hierarchies using the summarization service (without any mapping). The first set contains couples (G_1, G_2) such that $D = R_{G_1} \bowtie_{ID} R_{G_2}$ maps 200, 400, ..., 4000 cells and G_1 summarizes D over the first 2 attributes, whereas G_2 summarizes it over the remaining features. Thus, the number of cells of G_2 that would join with each cell of G_1 is high. Let D' be a set of tuples that maps 10000 cells. The second set contains couples (H_1, H_2) such that H_1 summarizes D' over the first N_1 attributes, whereas H_2 summarizes D' over the last $N - N_1$ attributes, where N_1 ranges from 1 to 19. For each couple (G_1, G_2) (resp. (H_1, H_2)), G_{join} (resp. H_{join}) is the result of joining G_1 (resp. H_1) and G_2 (resp. H_2). For every couple (G_1, G_2) (resp. (H_1, H_2)) we also process the join of R_{G_1} (resp. R_{H_1}) and R_{G_2} (resp. R_{H_2}) to provide the hierarchy G_{SEQ} (resp. H_{SEQ}) with the centralized approach.

All experiments were done on a 2.0GHz P4-based computer with 768MB memory.

6.2 Results

In this section, we validate our joining processes concerning performance (computation times), structural properties (number of nodes and leaves, average depth and average width) and σ_k measure.

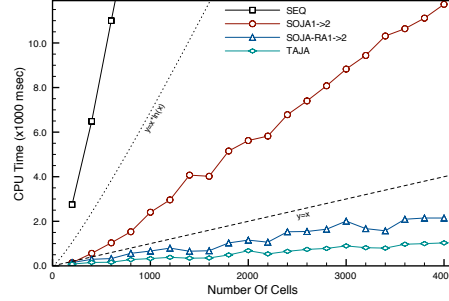
6.2.1 Quantitative Analysis

From the analysis of theoretical complexities, we claim that *TAJA*, *SOJA*_{1→2} and *SOJA-RA*_{1→2} are much faster than the *SEQ* process performed on $R_{G_1} \bowtie R_{G_2}$. That is the main result of Figure 10 that shows the performance evolution according to the number of cells populated by $R_{G_1} \bowtie R_{G_2}$. Furthermore, *SOJA-RA*_{1→2} and *TAJA* are much more efficient than *SOJA*_{1→2}. This is due to the fact that $\frac{N_1}{N} \ll 1$ and consequently there exist high correlations between R_{G_1} and R_{G_2} records. Note that, in real life data set, correlations will be less high.

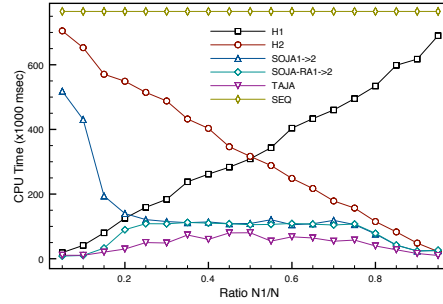
As one can observe, the *SOJA-RA*_{1→2} and *TAJA* are linear (i.e., $O(L)$) in number of cells L of the joined hierarchy whereas *SOJA*_{1→2} and *SEQ* are quasi-linear (i.e., $O(L \cdot \log(L))$).

In this experiment (Figure 11), we use the second set of couples (i.e., (H_1, H_2)) to show how CPU time of every joining process varies with changing

⁴www.datasetgenerator.com

Figure 10: Time cost comparison - (G_1, G_2)

the fragmentation rate ($\frac{N_1}{N}$). Observe that *TAJA* is a bit more efficient than *SOJA-RA_{1→2}*. Further, as expected, the time cost of *SOJA_{1→2}* is quite similar to that of *SOJA-RA_{1→2}*, except for $\frac{N_1}{N} \leq 0.20$ since high correlations exist then between H_1 and H_2 (the base model H_1 is very small compared to H_2).

Figure 11: Time cost comparison - (H_1, H_2)

Thus, the joining processes are able to drastically reduce the time cost of the summarization task of a very large data set. This is achieved by vertical fragmentation into several sub-relations that would be summarized separately and then joined.

6.2.2 Qualitative Analysis

In the following, the average depth, average width and σ_k measure of joined hierarchies are reported, according to the fragmentation rate ($\frac{N_1}{N}$).

As expected, Figure 12 shows that the average depths of the joined hierarchies of H_1 and H_2 provided by *SOJA_{1→2}* and *SOJA-RA_{1→2}* are greater than that of the hierarchy provided by *SEQ*. The latter is also deeper than the one provided by *TAJA*.

In Figure 13, we can observe that hierarchies provided by *TAJA* are wider than those generated with *SEQ*. However, hierarchies provided by *SEQ* are wider than those provided by *SOJA_{1→2}* and *SOJA-RA_{1→2}*.

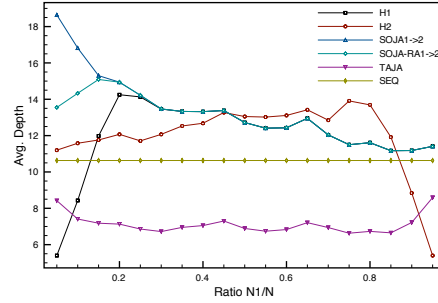


Figure 12: Average depth comparison

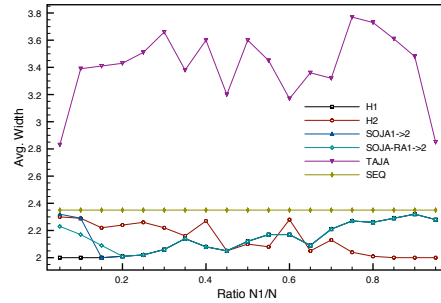


Figure 13: Average width comparison

We can also see that the number of nodes is quite similar for $SOJA_{1 \rightarrow 2}$, $SOJA-RA_{1 \rightarrow 2}$ and SEQ hierarchies and is greater than that of the hierarchy provided by $TAJA$.

Note that for $\frac{N_1}{N} \geq 0.30$, H_1 and hierarchies provided by $SOJA_{1 \rightarrow 2}$ and $SOJA-RA_{1 \rightarrow 2}$ are the same from a structure point of view (i.e., they have the same average depth, average width and number of nodes) since each cell of the base model H_1 is joined with exactly 1 cell of H_2 .

Finally, observe that σ_k values (Table 5) of the hierarchies provided by $SOJA_{1 \rightarrow 2}$ and $SOJA-RA_{1 \rightarrow 2}$ are in the same order of magnitude than that of hierarchies provided by the centralized approach. Furthermore, σ_k values of hierarchies provided by $TAJA$ is greater than that of the hierarchies produced by SEQ . This is due to the fact that SEQ as well as many existing incremental clustering algorithms suffer from ordering effects. The initial objects in an ordering establish initial clusters that "attract" the remaining objects and consequently, the quality of the generated clustering depends heavily on the initial choice of those clusters. This problem becomes more acute in the case of high dimensional data sets since it is common for all of the objects to be nearly equidistant from each other, completely masking well-defined starting clusters. However, $TAJA$ joins well-defined clusters (from diverse areas of the object-description space) since the dimensionality of the data is reduced. Thus, each cluster of a joined partition is populated by objects that are close to each other and consequently, more similar on the full set of their attributes. On the

other hand, objects belonging to different clusters of a joined partition are well separated regarding the full space since they are highly separated regarding the two subspaces.

Table 5: σ_k -values

$\frac{N_1}{N}$	k	SEQ	SOJA _{1→2}	SOJA-RA _{1→2}	TAJA
0.20	3	0.61	0.59	0.57	0.68
0.20	7	0.59	0.57	0.56	0.64
0.50	3	0.61	0.60	0.59	0.65
0.50	7	0.59	0.55	0.53	0.63
0.80	3	0.61	0.58	0.54	0.67
0.80	7	0.59	0.58	0.52	0.66

This analysis allows us to conclude that *SOJA*, *SOJA-RA* and *TAJA* provide well-founded summary trees.

Thus, those experimental results validate the theoretical hypotheses that our joining algorithms are very efficient, produce hierarchies with almost the same structural properties and achieve high quality results.

7 Related work

Extracting useful knowledge from large, distributed data is a very difficult task when such data cannot be directly centralized or unified as a single file or database due to a variety of constraints. So a new field called Distributed Knowledge Discovery (DKD) has emerged to handle the problem [16]. A common classification of DKD algorithms in the literature separates them depending on the nature of the data: homogeneously distributed data (horizontally partitioned) or heterogeneously distributed data (vertically partitioned).

There exist many different distributed clustering algorithms for analyzing data from homogeneous sites using different clustering notions, e.g. distribution (or model) based [13, 7], density based [9, 12] or grid based [2]. However, our proposal is focused on vertically distributed data.

The problem of analyzing heterogeneously distributed data has been investigated in many previous works. In [11], the authors develop a collective principal components analysis (PCA)-based clustering technique for vertically distributed data. Works in [21, 6, 17] report methods for combining clusterings in a centralized setting without accessing the features or algorithms that determined these partitions. Thus, these approaches can be adapted to heterogeneously distributed data. In contrast to our proposal, the above approaches do not offer a solution to the distributed hierarchical clustering problem; they are based on partitioning techniques and generate a flat clustering of the data.

Johnson and Kargupta propose in [10] a tree clustering approach to build a global dendrogram from individual dendrograms that are computed at local data sites. The algorithm first computes the element-wise intersection of all the most specialized clusters of sites to provide the most specialized partition of the whole data set, and then applies a single link clustering algorithm to compute the global dendrogram. This approach is similar to our *SEQ-JA* algorithm, but is less efficient since it is based on an agglomerative hierarchical clustering method. Indeed, its computational cost is $O(n^2)$, whereas for *SEQ-JA* it is

$O(n \cdot \log n)$ where n is the size of the entire data set. In [4] (respectively [5]), authors address decision tree (respectively bayesian network) learning from distributed heterogenous data. Both [4, 5] approaches are based on basic *directed* acyclic graph properties (the inner node specifies some test on a *single attribute*, the leaf node indicates the class, and the arc encodes conditional independencies between attributes). Since SAINTETIQ summaries are *multidimensional* and *unordered* trees, such algorithms cannot be used to join them.

As far as we know, there are no multidimensional grid-based clustering algorithms for analyzing data from heterogeneous sites.

8 Conclusions

In this communication, we propose new algorithms for joining summary hierarchies obtained from two sets of database records with disjoint schemas. The *Subspace-Oriented Join Algorithm* assumes one of the two input trees as the base model and the other one is processed to complete the first one, whereas *Tree Aligment-based Join Algorithm* rearranges summaries by levels in a top-down manner. We show that *SOJA*, *SOJA-RA* and *TAJA* processes provide a good-quality joined hierarchy while being very efficient in terms of computational time.

As future work, we plan to generalize the proposed approaches to deal with overlapping schemas of different hierarchies, especially those that are semantically heterogeneous (with different fuzzy partitions) on their overlapping attributes.

References

- [1] Rakesh Agrawal, Johannes Gehrke, Dimitrios Gunopulos, and Prabhakar Raghavan. Automatic subspace clustering of high dimensional data for data mining applications. *SIGMOD Rec.*, 27(2):94–105, 1998.
- [2] Mounir Bechchi, Guillaume Raschia, and Nouredine Mouaddib. Merging distributed database summaries. In *CIKM '07*, pages 419–428, Lisbon, Portugal, 2007.
- [3] Indrajit Bhattacharya, Lise Getoor, and Louis Licamele. Query-time entity resolution. In *KDD '06*, pages 529–534, New York, NY, USA, 2006.
- [4] D. Caragea, A. Silvescu, and V. Honavar. Decision tree induction from distributed heterogeneous autonomous data sources, 2003.
- [5] R. Chen, K. Sivakumar, and H. Kargupta. Collective mining of bayesian networks from distributed heterogeneous data. *Knowl. Inf. Syst.*, 6(2):164–187, 2004.
- [6] Ana L. N. Fred. Data clustering using evidence accumulation. In *ICPR '02*, page 40276, Washington, DC, USA, 2002.
- [7] Joydeep Ghosh and Srujana Merugu. Distributed clustering with limited knowledge sharing, 2003.

-
- [8] Maria Halkidi, Yannis Batistakis, and Michalis Vazirgiannis. On clustering validation techniques. *Journal of Intelligent Information Systems*, 17(2-3):107–145, 2001.
- [9] Eshref Januzaj, Hans-Peter Kriegel, and Martin Pfeifle. Towards effective and efficient distributed clustering, 2003.
- [10] Erik L. Johnson and Hillol Kargupta. Collective, hierarchical clustering from distributed, heterogeneous data. In *Large-Scale Parallel Data Mining*, pages 221–244, 1999.
- [11] Hillol Kargupta, Weiyun Huang, Krishnamoorthy Sivakumar, and Erik Johnson. Distributed clustering using collective principal component analysis. *Knowl. Inf. Syst.*, 3(4):422–448, 2001.
- [12] M. Klusch, S. Lodi, and G. Moro. Distributed clustering based on sampling local density estimates, 2003.
- [13] Hans-Peter Kriegel, Peer Kroger, Alexey Pryakhin, and Matthias Schubert. Effective and efficient distributed model-based clustering. In *ICDM '05: Proceedings of the Fifth IEEE International Conference on Data Mining*, pages 258–265, Washington, DC, USA, 2005.
- [14] L.A.Zadeh. Concept of a linguistic variable and its application to approximate reasoning. *Information and Systems*, 1:119–249, 1975.
- [15] L.A.Zadeh. Fuzzy sets as a basis for a theory of possibility. *Fuzzy Sets and Systems*, 100:9–34, 1999.
- [16] Kun Liu, Hillol Kargupta, Jessica Ryan, and Kanishka Bhaduri. Distributed data mining bibliography, 2004.
- [17] N. NICOLOYANNIS P. E. JOUVE. A new method for combining partitions, applications for distributed clustering, 2003.
- [18] E. Rosch and C.B. Mervis. Family resemblances: studies in the internal structure of categories. *Cognitive Psychology*, 7:573–605, 1975.
- [19] Regis Saint-Paul, Guillaume Raschia, and Nouredine Mouaddib. General purpose database summarization. In *VLDB '05*, pages 733–744, 2005.
- [20] Parag Singla and Pedro Domingos. Entity resolution with markov logic. In *ICDM '06*, pages 572–582, Washington, DC, USA, 2006.
- [21] Alexander Strehl and Joydeep Ghosh. Cluster ensembles: a knowledge reuse framework for combining partitionings. In *Eighteenth national conference on Artificial intelligence*, pages 93–98, Menlo Park, CA, USA, 2002.
- [22] K. Thompson and P. Langley. Concept formation in structured domains. In *Concept formation: Knowledge and experience in unsupervised learning*, pages 127–161. Kaufmann, San Mateo, CA, 1991.
- [23] A. Tversky. Features of similarity. *Psychol. Rev.*, 84(4):327–352, 1977.

- [24] Wei Wang, Jiong Yang, and Richard R. Muntz. STING: A statistical information grid approach to spatial data mining. In *Twenty-Third International Conference on Very Large Data Bases*, pages 186–195, Athens, Greece, 1997. Morgan Kaufmann.
- [25] L. A. Zadeh. Fuzzy sets. *Information and Control*, 8:338–353, 1965.

Contents

1	Introduction	3
2	Overview of the SAINTETIQ System	4
2.1	A Two-Step Process	4
2.1.1	Mapping Service (M_{SEQ})	4
2.1.2	Summarization Service (C_{SEQ})	5
2.2	Features of the Summaries	6
2.3	Time complexity of SAINTETIQ	7
2.4	The General Case	8
3	Problem Analysis	9
3.1	Problem Statement	9
3.2	Running Example	10
3.3	Basic Approaches	11
4	Alternative approaches	14
4.1	Subspace-Oriented Join Algorithm	14
4.2	SOJA with Rearrangements	15
4.3	Tree Alignment-based Join Algorithm	17
5	Joining validity assessment	18
5.1	Background	18
5.2	Summary Tree Quality	19
6	Experimental Results	20
6.1	Data Set	20
6.2	Results	20
6.2.1	Quantitative Analysis	20
6.2.2	Qualitative Analysis	21
7	Related work	23
8	Conclusions	24



Centre de recherche INRIA Rennes – Bretagne Atlantique
IRISA, Campus universitaire de Beaulieu - 35042 Rennes Cedex (France)

Centre de recherche INRIA Bordeaux – Sud Ouest : Domaine Universitaire - 351, cours de la Libération - 33405 Talence Cedex
Centre de recherche INRIA Grenoble – Rhône-Alpes : 655, avenue de l'Europe - 38334 Montbonnot Saint-Ismier
Centre de recherche INRIA Lille – Nord Europe : Parc Scientifique de la Haute Borne - 40, avenue Halley - 59650 Villeneuve d'Ascq
Centre de recherche INRIA Nancy – Grand Est : LORIA, Technopôle de Nancy-Brabois - Campus scientifique
615, rue du Jardin Botanique - BP 101 - 54602 Villers-lès-Nancy Cedex
Centre de recherche INRIA Paris – Rocquencourt : Domaine de Voluceau - Rocquencourt - BP 105 - 78153 Le Chesnay Cedex
Centre de recherche INRIA Saclay – Île-de-France : Parc Orsay Université - ZAC des Vignes : 4, rue Jacques Monod - 91893 Orsay Cedex
Centre de recherche INRIA Sophia Antipolis – Méditerranée : 2004, route des Lucioles - BP 93 - 06902 Sophia Antipolis Cedex

Éditeur
INRIA - Domaine de Voluceau - Rocquencourt, BP 105 - 78153 Le Chesnay Cedex (France)
<http://www.inria.fr>
ISSN 0249-6399