Finding Similar Sets

Applications
Shingling
Minhashing
Locality-Sensitive Hashing

Mining of Massive Datasets
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Applications of Set-Similarity

Many data-mining problems can be expressed as finding "similar" sets:

1. Pages with similar words, e.g., for classification by topic.
2. NetFlix users with similar tastes in movies, for recommendation systems.
3. Dual: movies with similar sets of fans.
4. Entity resolution.

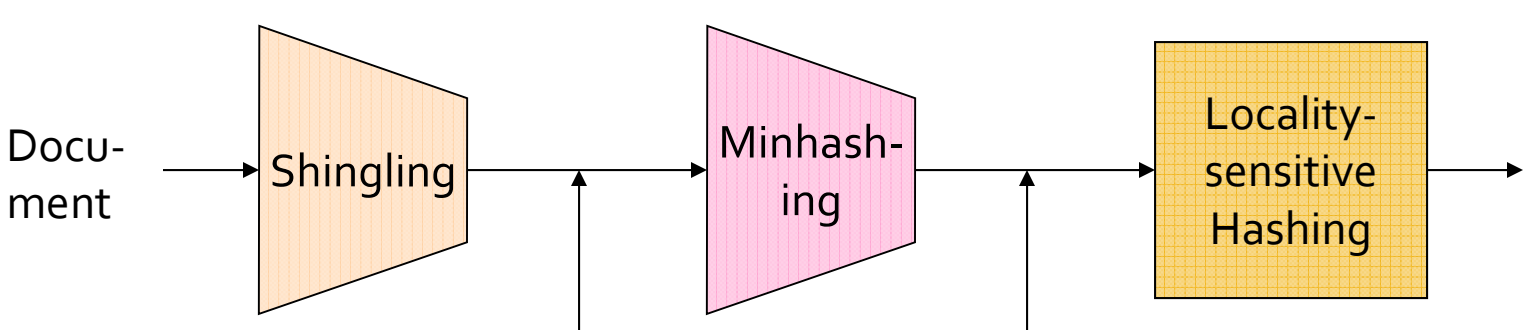
Similar Documents

- Given a body of documents, e.g., the Web, find pairs of documents with a lot of text in common, such as:
  - Mirror sites, or approximate mirrors.
    - Application: Don't want to show both in a search.
  - Plagiarism, including large quotations.
  - Similar news articles at many news sites.
    - Application: Cluster articles by "same story."

Three Essential Techniques for Similar Documents

1. *Shingling* : convert documents, emails, etc., to sets.
2. *Minhashing* : convert large sets to short signatures, while preserving similarity.
3. *Locality-sensitive hashing* : focus on pairs of signatures likely to be similar.

The Big Picture



The set of strings of length *k* that appear in the doc-ument

Signatures : short integer vectors that represent the sets, and reflect their similarity

Candidate pairs : those pairs of signatures that we need to test for similarity.

Shingles

- A *k* -shingle (or *k* -gram) for a document is a sequence of *k* characters that appears in the document.
- Example: k=2; doc = abcab. Set of 2-shingles = {ab, bc, ca}.
- Represent a doc by its set of *k*-shingles.

Shingles and Similarity

- Documents that are intuitively similar will have many shingles in common.
- Changing a word only affects k-shingles within distance k from the word.
- Reordering paragraphs only affects the 2k shingles that cross paragraph boundaries.
- Example: k=3, "The dog which chased the cat" versus "The dog that chased the cat".
  - Only 3-shingles replaced are g_w, _wh, whi, hic, ich, ch_, and h_c.

Shingles: Compression Option

- To compress long shingles, we can hash them to (say) 4 bytes.
  - Called *tokens*.
- Represent a doc by its tokens, that is, the set of hash values of its *k*-shingles.
- Two documents could (rarely) appear to have shingles in common, when in fact only the hash-values were shared.

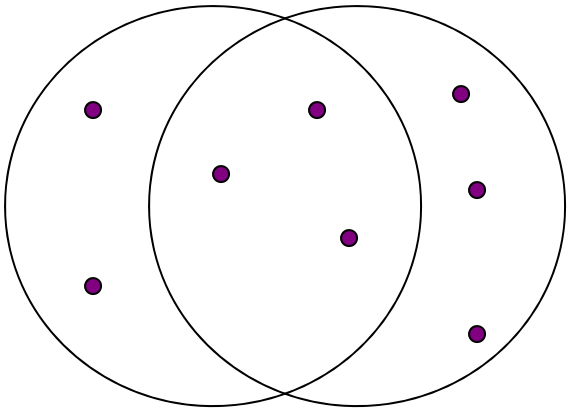
Minhashing

Jaccard Similarity Measure
Constructing Signatures

Jaccard Similarity

- The *Jaccard similarity* of two sets is the size of their intersection divided by the size of their union.
- $Sim(C_1, C_2) = |C_1 \cap C_2| / |C_1 \cup C_2|$.

Example: Jaccard Similarity



3 in intersection.
8 in union.
Jaccard similarity
= 3/8

From Sets to Boolean Matrices

- Rows = elements of the universal set.
  - Example: the set of all k-shingles.
- Columns = sets.
- 1 in row *e* and column *S* if and only if *e* is a member of *S*.
- Column similarity is the Jaccard similarity of the sets of their rows with 1.
- Typical matrix is sparse.

Example: Column Similarity

C_1	C_2		
0	1		*
1	0		*
1	1	*	*
0	0		
1	1	*	*
0	1		*

$Sim(C_1, C_2) =$

$2/5 = 0.4$

Four Types of Rows

- Given columns C_1 and C_2, rows may be classified as:

	C_1	C_2
a	1	1
b	1	0
c	0	1
d	0	0

- Also, *a* = # rows of type *a* , etc.
- Note $Sim(C_1, C_2) = a/(a + b + c)$.

Minhashing

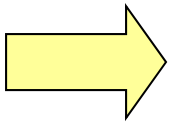
- Imagine the rows permuted randomly.
- Define *minhash function* $h(C)$ = the number of the first (in the permuted order) row in which column C has 1.
- Use several (e.g., 100) independent hash functions to create a signature for each column.
- The signatures can be displayed in another matrix – the *signature matrix* – whose columns represent the sets and the rows represent the minhash values, in order for that column.

Minhashing Example

Input matrix

1	4	3	
3	2	4	
7	1	7	
6	3	6	
2	6	1	
5	7	2	
4	5	5	

1	0	1	0
1	0	0	1
0	1	0	1
0	1	0	1
0	1	0	1
1	0	1	0
1	0	1	0



Signature matrix *M*

2	1	2	1
2	1	4	1
1	2	1	2

Surprising Property

- The probability (over all permutations of the rows) that $h(C_1) = h(C_2)$ is the same as $Sim(C_1, C_2)$.
- Both are $a/(a+b+c)$!
- Why?
  - Look down the permuted columns C_1 and C_2 until we see a 1.
  - If it's a type-a row, then $h(C_1) = h(C_2)$. If a type-b or type-c row, then not.

Similarity for Signatures

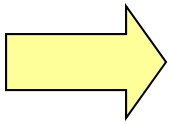
- The *similarity of signatures* is the fraction of the minhash functions in which they agree.
  - Thinking of signatures as columns of integers, the similarity of signatures is the fraction of rows in which they agree.
- Thus, the expected similarity of two signatures equals the Jaccard similarity of the columns or sets that the signatures represent.
  - And the longer the signatures, the smaller will be the expected error.

Min Hashing – Example

Input matrix

1	4	3
3	2	4
7	1	7
6	3	6
2	6	1
5	7	2
4	5	5

1	0	1	0
1	0	0	1
0	1	0	1
0	1	0	1
0	1	0	1
1	0	1	0
1	0	1	0



Signature matrix *M*

2	1	2	1
2	1	4	1
1	2	1	2

	1-3	2-4	1-2
Col/Col	0.75	0.75	0
Sig/Sig	0.67	1.00	0

Locality-Sensitive Hashing

Focusing on Similar Minhash Signatures
Other Applications Will Follow

Locality-Sensitive Hashing

- General idea: Generate from the collection of all elements (signatures in our example) a small list of *candidate pairs*: pairs of elements whose similarity must be evaluated.
- For signature matrices: Hash columns to many buckets, and make elements of the same bucket candidate pairs.

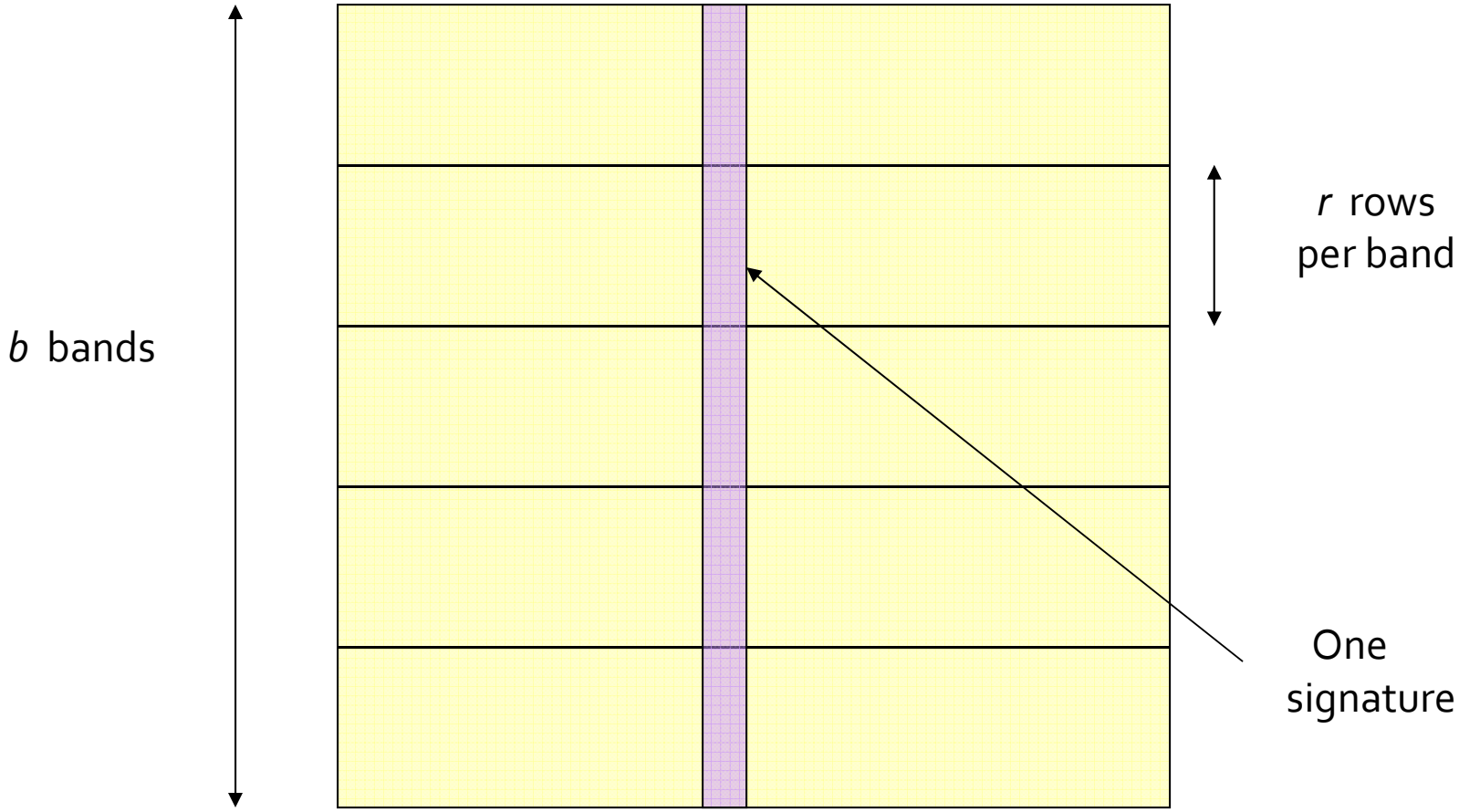
Candidate Generation From Minhash Signatures

- Pick a similarity threshold *t*, a fraction < 1.
- We want a pair of columns *c* and *d* of the signature matrix M to be a *candidate pair* if and only if their signatures agree in at least fraction *t* of the rows.
  - I.e., $M(i, c) = M(i, d)$ for at least fraction *t* values of *i*.

LSH for Minhash Signatures

- Big idea: hash columns of signature matrix *M* several times.
- Arrange that (only) similar columns are likely to hash to the same bucket.
- Candidate pairs are those that hash at least once to the same bucket.

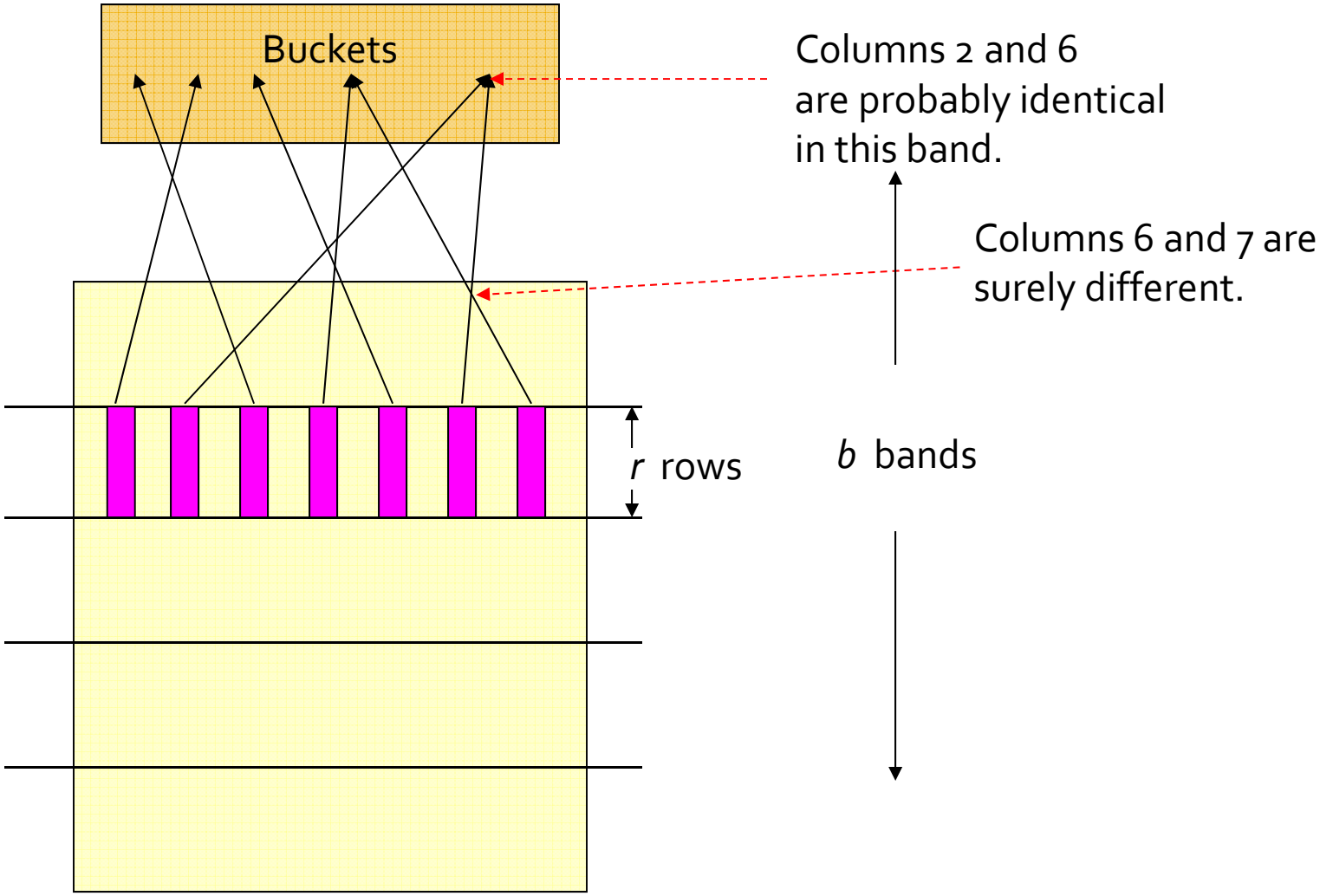
Partition Into Bands



Partition into Bands – (2)

- Divide matrix *M* into *b* bands of *r* rows.
- For each band, hash its portion of each column to a hash table with *k* buckets.
  - Make *k* as large as possible.
- *Candidate* column pairs are those that hash to the same bucket for ≥ 1 band.
- Tune *b* and *r* to catch most similar pairs, but few nonsimilar pairs.

Hash Function for One Bucket



Example – Bands

- Suppose 100,000 columns.
- Signatures of 100 integers.
- Therefore, signatures take 40Mb.
- Want all 80%-similar pairs of documents.
- 5,000,000,000 pairs of signatures can take a while to compare.
- Choose 20 bands of 5 integers/band.

Suppose C_1, C_2 are 80% Similar

- Probability C_1, C_2 identical in one particular band: $(0.8)^5 = 0.328$.
- Probability C_1, C_2 are *not* similar in any of the 20 bands: $(1\text{-}0.328)^{20} = .00035$.
  - i.e., about 1/3000th of the 80%-similar underlying sets are false negatives.

LSH Summary

- Tune to get almost all pairs with similar signatures, but eliminate most pairs that do not have similar signatures.
- Check that candidate pairs really do have similar signatures.
- Optional: In another pass through data, check that the remaining candidate pairs really represent similar *sets* .

Applications of LSH

Entity Resolution
Fingerprints
Similar News Articles

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Entity Resolution

- The *entity-resolution* problem is to examine a collection of records and determine which refer to the same entity.
  - *Entities* could be people, events, etc.
- Typically, we want to merge records if their values in corresponding fields are similar.

Matching Customer Records

- I once took a consulting job solving the following problem:
  - Company A agreed to solicit customers for Company B, for a fee.
  - They then argued over how many customers.
  - Neither recorded exactly which customers were involved.

Customer Records – (2)

- Each company had about 1 million records describing customers that might have been sent from A to B.
- Records had name, address, and phone, but for various reasons, they could be different for the same person.

Customer Records – (3)

- Step 1: Design a measure ("*score* ") of how similar records are:
  - E.g., deduct points for small misspellings ("Jeffrey" vs. "Jeffery") or same phone with different area code.
- Step 2: Score all pairs of records that the LSH scheme identified as candidates; report high scores as matches.

Customer Records – (4)

- Problem: (1 million)^2 is too many pairs of records to score.
- Solution: A simple LSH.
  - Three hash functions: exact values of name, address, phone.
    - Compare iff records are identical in at least one.
  - Misses similar records with a small differences in all three fields.

Aside: Hashing Names, Etc.

- How do we hash strings such as names so there is one bucket for each string?
- Answer: Sort the strings instead.
- Another option was to use a few million buckets, and deal with buckets that contain several different strings.

Aside: Validation of Results

- We were able to tell what values of the scoring function were reliable in an interesting way.
- Identical records had a creation date difference of 10 days.
- We only looked for records created within 90 days of each other, so bogus matches had a 45-day average.

Validation – (2)

- By looking at the pool of matches with a fixed score, we could compute the average time-difference, say x, and deduce that fraction (45-x)/35 of them were valid matches.
- Alas, the lawyers didn't think the jury would understand.

Validation – Generalized

- Any field not used in the LSH could have been used to validate, provided corresponding values were closer for true matches than false.
- Example: if records had a height field, we would expect true matches to be close, false matches to have the average difference for random people.

Backup

Implementation of Minhashing

- Suppose 1 billion rows.
- Hard to pick a random permutation of 1…billion.
- Representing a random permutation requires 1 billion entries.
- Accessing rows in permuted order leads to thrashing.

Implementation – (2)

- A good approximation to permuting rows: pick, say, 100 hash functions.
- For each column c and each hash function h_i, keep a "slot" $M(i, c)$.
- Intent: $M(i, c)$ will become the smallest value of $h_i(r)$ for which column c has 1 in row r.
  - I.e., $h_i(r)$ gives order of rows for i^{th} permutation.

Implementation – (3)

for each row *r* **do begin**
  for each hash function h_i **do**
    compute $h_i(r)$;
  for each column *c*
    if c has 1 in row *r*
      for each hash function h_i **do**
        if $h_i(r)$ is smaller than $M(i, c)$ **then**
          $M(i, c) := h_i(r)$;
end;

Example

Row	C1	C2
1	1	0
2	0	1
3	1	1
4	1	0
5	0	1

$h(x) = x \bmod 5$
$g(x) = (2x+1) \bmod 5$

	Sig1	Sig2
$h(1) = 1$	1	∞
$g(1) = 3$	3	∞
$h(2) = 2$	1	2
$g(2) = 0$	3	0
$h(3) = 3$	1	2
$g(3) = 2$	2	0
$h(4) = 4$	1	2
$g(4) = 4$	2	0
$h(5) = 0$	1	0
$g(5) = 1$	2	0

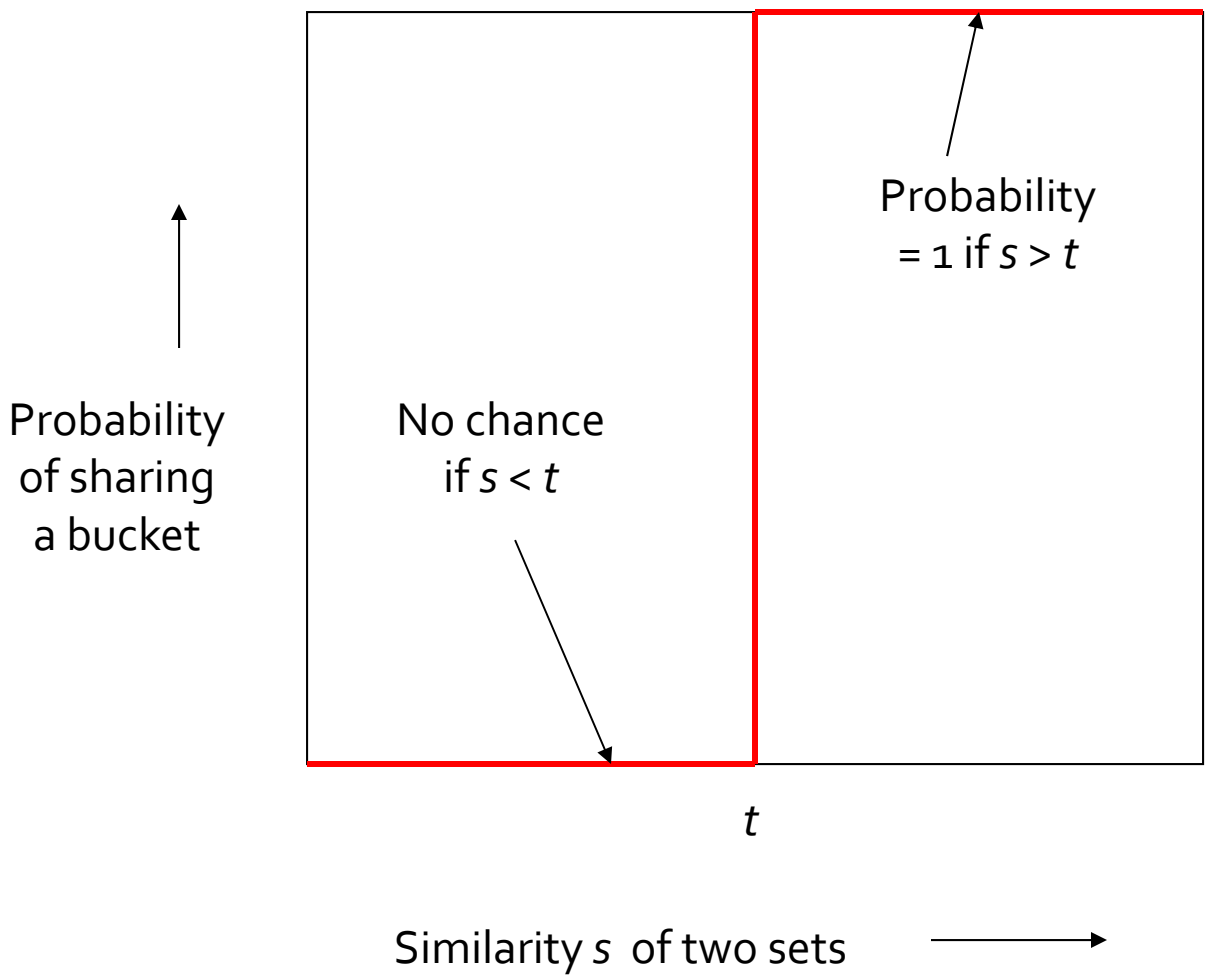
Implementation – (4)

- Often, data is given by column, not row.
  - Example: columns = documents, rows = shingles.
- If so, sort matrix once so it is by row.

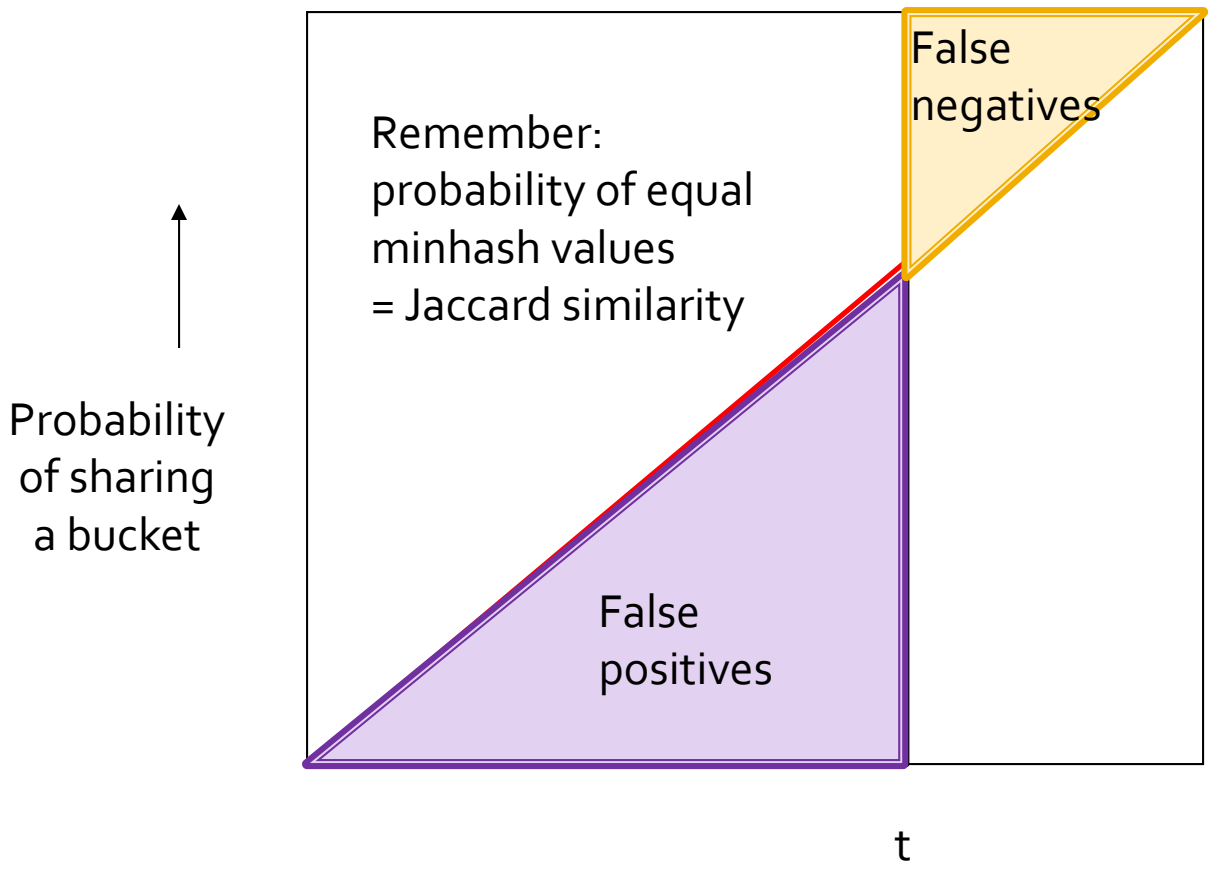
Suppose C_1, C_2 Only 40% Similar

- Probability C_1, C_2 identical in any one particular band: $(0.4)^5 = 0.01$.
- Probability C_1, C_2 identical in $\geq$ 1 of 20 bands: $\leq 20 * 0.01 = 0.2$.
- But false positives much lower for similarities << 40%.

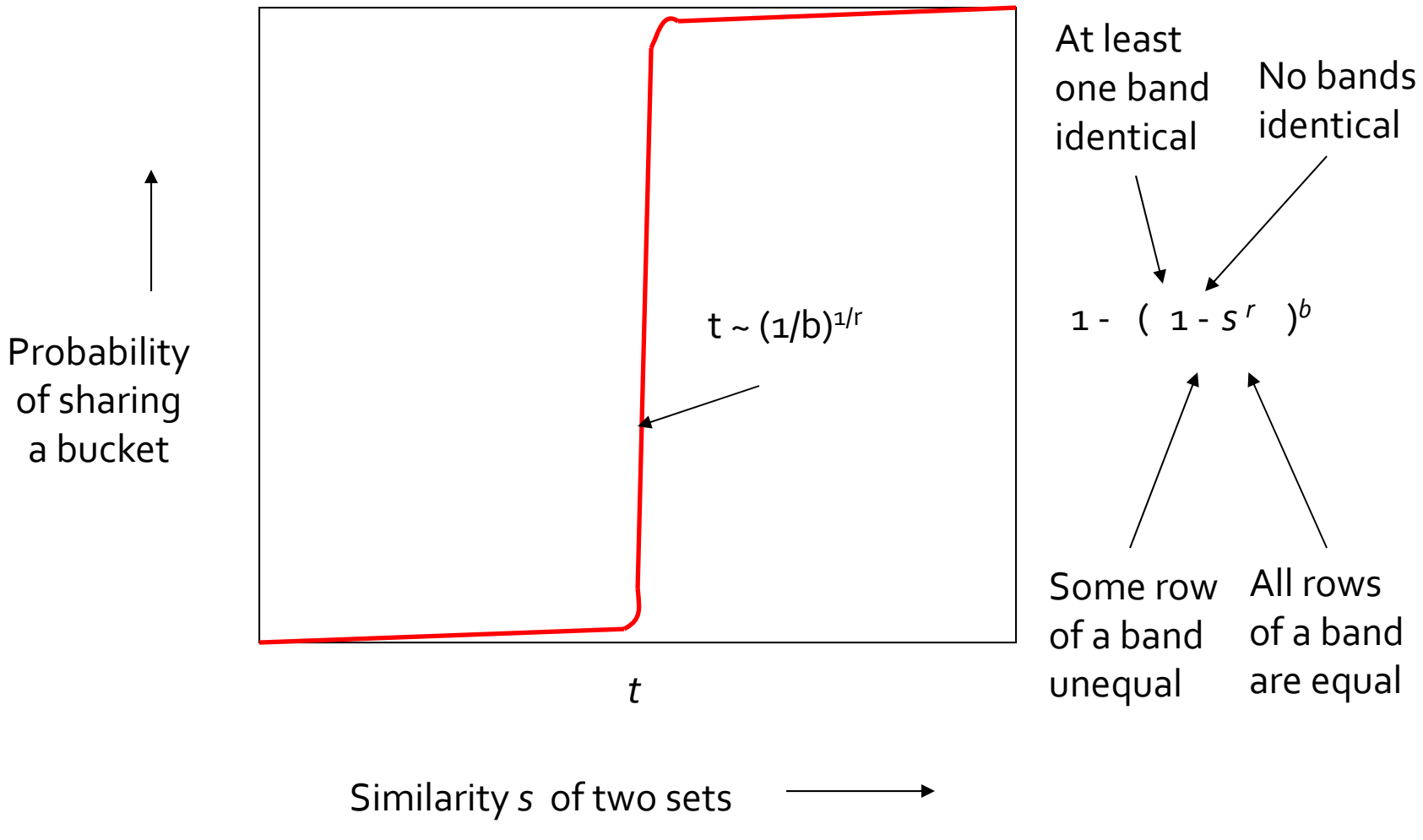
Analysis of LSH – What We Want



What One Band of One Row Gives You



What *b* Bands of *r* Rows Gives You



Example: $b = 20$; $r = 5$

s	$1-(1-s^r)^b$
.2	.006
.3	.047
.4	.186
.5	.470
.6	.802
.7	.975
.8	.9996