A Fast Algorithm For Data Mining

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Abstract

In the past few years, there has been a keen interest in mining frequent itemsets in large data repositories. Frequent itemsets correspond to the set of items that occur frequently in transactions in a database. Several novel algorithms have been developed recently to mine closed frequent itemsets - these itemsets are a subset of the frequent itemsets. These algorithms are of practical value: they can be applied to real-world applications to extract patterns of interest in data repositories. However, prior to using an algorithm in practice, it is necessary to know its performance as well implementation issues. In this project, we address such a need for the algorithm “Using Attribute Value Lattice to Find Frequent Itemsets” that was developed by [Lin2003]. We clarify some aspects of the algorithm, develop an implementation of the algorithm, and present the results of a performance study. In our experiments we find that the running time of the algorithm for certain input datasets grows exponentially. To address this problem, we develop a novel procedure for binning the data. Our results show that with binned data, the running time of the algorithm grows linearly. This allows one to obtain trends for the dataset.
1. Introduction

Mining large data repositories to find frequent itemsets has been studied for over fifteen years [Agarwal1994]. During the past five years, there has been a renewed interest in mining frequent itemsets [Burdick2001, Lin2003, Pei2000, Zaki2002]. Frequent itemsets correspond to the set of items that occur frequently in transactions in a database. Several novel algorithms have been developed recently to mine closed frequent itemsets---these itemsets are a subset of the frequent itemsets. These algorithms are of practical value: they can be applied to real-world applications to extract patterns of interest in data repositories. However, prior to using an algorithm in practice, it is necessary to know its performance as well as implementation issues. The goal of this project is to address such a need for the algorithm “Using Attribute Value Lattice to Find Frequent Itemsets” that was developed by [Lin2003]. Before we describe our contributions, we provide a brief overview of the problem space.

Mining large data repositories to identify interesting patterns is a challenging problem. The volume of data to be processed is large (several hundred GB to a few TB in size) and hence, requires designing efficient algorithms to
identify patterns that occur frequently. To illustrate, suppose a user is buying a book at Amazon.com’s web-site. When the user chooses a book, the Amazon.com site also shows related books that would be of potential interest to the user. By doing so, this has the effect of increasing the revenue. Given the large number of book titles, it is non-trivial to manually generate the list of related books. However, such related books are inferred from the buying habits of Amazon.com’s customers. That is, determining the set of related books that are bought frequently.

To illustrate the problem of data mining of frequent occurring patterns, consider a sample database of transactions shown in Figure 1. The set of items for a given transaction could be the buying habits of users, such as, books written by Jane Austen, Agatha Christie, Sir Arthur Conan Doyle, etc.

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Transaction</th>
<th>Items</th>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>ACTW</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>CDW</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>ACTWHG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>ACDWHF</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The database consists of seven transactions with twelve different items. Let \( \emptyset \) denote the set of items in the database. A set \( N \subseteq \emptyset \) consisting of items from the database is called an itemset. For example, \( N = \{A, C, D\} \) is an itemset. For notational convenience, we will write ACD to denote the itemset \( N \) consisting of items A, C, and D. Suppose that one is interested in identifying the itemsets that occur in at least 2 transactions (i.e., the set of authors whose books are commonly bought). Given the sample database, the itemsets are A, C, D, H, F, K, Q, R. A commonly used terminology in the data mining literature to denote the number of transactions in which an itemset occurs as a subset is support. The problem of finding patterns in the database can be restated as: identify the itemsets that have at least the user-specified level of support. The user-specified level of support is known as
*minimum support* (or *minsup* for short) and itemsets that satisfy *minsup* are known as *frequent itemsets*.

Devising algorithms for mining frequently occurring patterns in large databases is an area of active research [Survey]. Some of the challenges common to algorithms for mining frequently occurring patterns in large data repositories are [Survey]:

1. Identifying the set (possibly complete) of patterns that satisfy user-specified thresholds, such as, *minsup*
2. Minimize the number of scans over the database
3. Be computationally efficient

An algorithm that satisfies the above requirements is “Using Attribute Value Lattice to Find Closed Frequent Itemsets” [Lin2003]. This thesis builds on their algorithm. In particular, we make the following contributions:

1. We identified correctness issues with the algorithm’s pseudo-code and rewrote the algorithm for clarity.
2. We developed an implementation of their algorithm. As part of the implementation, we identify issues with the algorithm and propose solutions.
3. We use our implementation to analyze the performance of the algorithm using synthetically generated data-sets.

4. We use data binning mechanisms to improve the run-time performance of the algorithm for certain data-sets.

The remainder of this document is organized as follows. In Chapter 2, we provide an overview of algorithms for mining frequent itemsets. In Chapter 3, we describe the algorithm “Using Attribute Value Lattice to Find Closed Frequent Itemsets” which is the basis for our work. In Chapter 4, we describe our implementation and present the results of our experiments. Finally, Chapter 5 concludes.
2. Background and Related Work

The classical algorithm for mining frequent itemsets is the APRIORI algorithm [Agarwal1994]. Given a database of itemsets and a user specified minsup value, the algorithm finds frequent itemsets using a “bottom up” approach. That is, the algorithm starts with set of frequent itemsets of length 1 (i.e., the cardinality of the number of items in a frequent itemset is 1) and it attempts to find frequent itemsets of length 2. It does so by extending the frequent itemsets of length 1 with one item at a time. This step of extending a frequent itemset with one item is known as candidate generation. A candidate is tested to see if it satisfies the minsup threshold before it is added to the set of frequent itemsets. This process is repeated for increasing values on the length of frequent itemsets. During each iteration, candidate itemsets of length \( k \) are generated by combining two frequent itemsets of length \( k-1 \). The algorithm terminates when no further extensions of the frequent itemset are possible.

For computational efficiency, the Apriori algorithm prunes the set of candidates using a downward closure lemma [Agarwal1994]. Given an itemset sequence \( N \), if \( N \) is not frequent, then any itemset that contains \( N \) is
also not frequent. We illustrate the effectiveness of this lemma using an example. This example has been adapted from [Survey].

As shown in Figure 2, the possible number of candidates of length-2 is 36.

With the optimization used by Apriori, as Figure 3 shows, the number of
candidates of length-2 is 15. For this example, Apriori prunes 58% of the exploration space.

Several frequent itemset mining algorithms based on Apriori have been developed [Bastide2000, Brin1997, Sarasere1995]. These papers also show that Apriori provides good run-time performance when the length of frequent itemsets is small. However, the performance of Apriori is impacted by two factors:

1. **Pruning efficiency**: If the database consists of datasets with many frequently occurring patterns, then pruning becomes less efficient. For instance, it has been observed that if \( S \) consists of frequent itemsets of length \( k \), there could be up to \( 2^{|S|} - 2 \) candidates of length \( k+1 \) [Zaki2002]. This is because the set of candidates consists of the subsets of \( S \). As a result, the computation can become CPU bound.

2. **Number of database scans**: The number of database scans is proportional to the length of the longest frequent itemset. As the length increases, the number of scans also increases. As noted in [Bayardo1998] for real world problems such as patterns in biosequences, itemsets of length 30 or higher is typical.
To address the limitations of Apriori for mining long patterns, alternate approaches have been considered in the literature [Lin2002, Lin2003]. One approach is to mine the database for closed frequent itemsets. A frequent itemset N is said to be closed if and only if there does not exist another frequent itemset of which N is a subset. If $F$ denotes the set of frequent itemsets and $C$ denotes the set of closed frequent itemsets, then $C \subseteq F$. It is generally believed that the cardinality of $C$ is much less than $F$ [Zaki2002]. Therefore, if closed frequent itemsets can be efficiently determined, then identifying frequent itemsets is straightforward: for instance, given $C$, then $F$ consists of all possible subsets of the itemsets in $C$. Alternately, given $C$, we can determine if an itemset N is frequent by checking if N is a subset of an itemset in $C$. Recently, several algorithms for mining closed frequent itemsets have been developed [Zaki2002, Bastide2000, Pei2000, Burdick2001, Lin2003]. In our work, we study one of the algorithms, Using Attribute Value Lattice to Find Frequent Itemsets,[Lin2003] in depth. In the next chapter, we describe the algorithm in detail.
In this chapter, we describe the algorithm of Lin, Hu, and Louie [Lin2003] that we have implemented for our work. We begin by describing some preliminaries and then discuss the algorithm.

### 3.1 Data Representation

The transactions database can be viewed as a two-dimensional matrix: the rows represent individual transactions and the columns represent items. For designing data mining algorithms, the data can be represented in either a *horizontal* view or a *vertical* view [Lin2003]:

- **Horizontal view** consists of representing each row with a unique transaction identifier and a bitmap to represent the items involved in the transaction. For example, if there could be 10 items involved in a transaction, then the bit-string 1000100010 means that items 1, 5, and 9 were involved.

- **Vertical view** consists of assigning a unique identifier to each column (i.e., item) and a bitmap that represents the transactions in which that particular item is involved. For example, if there are
10 transactions that involve a particular item, then the bitstring 1000100010 means that transactions 1, 5, and 9 are involved.

In their paper, Lin et. al [Lin2003] suggest that a vertical representation is a natural choice for mining frequent itemsets. This is because the vertical representation allows operating on only those itemsets that are frequent. Furthermore, for itemsets that are not frequent, their associated bitmap representation can be discarded, thereby leading to a reduced memory footprint. Consequently, Lin et. al use a vertical representation in their algorithm.

In the literature the vertical representation of an item in the database is known as a granule [Lin2000, Lin2002, Lin2003-2, Louie2000, Louie2000-2]. The granule is implemented as a bitmap since it allows fast bit-manipulation operations.

### 3.2 Frequent Itemsets and Lattice

A binary relation ⊕ that satisfies reflexive, symmetric, and transitive relationships on a set P is said to be a partial order [Press]. That is, ∀ a, b, c ∈ P,
• **Reflexive:** $a \oplus a$

• **Symmetric:** $a \oplus b \land b \oplus a \Rightarrow a = b$

• **Transitive:** $a \oplus b \land b \oplus c \Rightarrow a \oplus c$

The set $\mathcal{P}$ under the relation $\oplus$ is a partially ordered set (commonly referred to as *poset*). It is also well known that a poset can be represented as a directed acyclic graph in which the nodes are elements from the set and a path exists from $a$ to $b$ if and only if $a \oplus b$. A poset is as a *lattice* if all non-empty finite subsets have a *greatest lower bound* and a *least upper bound*.

Let $S \subseteq \mathcal{P}$ and $u, l \in \mathcal{P}$. Then,

• $u$ is the least upper bound if and only if, $\forall s \in S, s \oplus u$

• $l$ is the greatest upper bound if and only if, $\forall s \in S, l \oplus s$

In terms of frequent itemset mining algorithms, the set consisting of granules from the database with the $\subseteq$ relationship defined on the bitmaps is a partial order. To illustrate, if $a, b, c$ are granules from the database, then it is easy to see that,

• **Reflexive:** $a \subseteq a$

• **Symmetric:** $a \subseteq b \land b \subseteq a \Rightarrow a = b$

• **Transitive:** $a \subseteq b \land b \subseteq c \Rightarrow a \subseteq c$
If we restrict the set of granules to those corresponding to frequent itemsets, then that set under the $\subseteq$ relation is a lattice. If we represent the lattice as a directed acyclic graph, then a path in the graph from a node that is a least upper bound to a node that is a greatest upper bound identifies a closed frequent itemset: the nodes (i.e., items) in the path are the members of a closed frequent itemset.

3.3 The Algorithm

Briefly, in designing their algorithm, [Lin2003] first construct a lattice of attribute values with the granules that correspond to frequent itemsets. Subsequently, they use the lattice to identify closed frequent itemsets. They do so by generating candidate itemsets from the lattice in a bottom-up breadth-first approach. During candidate generation, the algorithm uses the transitive property of the lattice to prune redundant frequent itemsets that do not result in new closed frequent itemsets. The algorithm, therefore, has two phases:

1. Phase 1 consists of constructing the attribute value lattice
2. Phase 2 consists of exploring the lattice to determine closed frequent itemsets.
3.3.1 Constructing the Lattice

The procedure for constructing an attribute value lattice for items in a database D is shown in Figure 4 below.

The main idea behind this phase of the algorithm is as follows. The database is parsed to get a bitmap for each frequent itemset in the database. Initially the level of each of the itemsets is set at 1. Nodes are constructed, such that each node stores the level and its corresponding bitmap. The nodes we are interested in are only those whose cardinality is greater than minsup. The nodes are sorted based on the bitcount in descending order. These are placed in a priority queue where the priority is set as \((2^L)\times B\), where \(L\) is the level and \(B\) is the bitcount.

The nodes constructed above are then traversed to obtain the attribute value lattice. For traversal, the set of nodes are ordered based on the bitcount. Every node is compared with each node following it and this leads to the generation of the attribute value lattice. The bitmap of the node \((I)\) is intersected with the bitmap of the nodes \((J)\) following it. If such an intersection yields a bitmap whose cardinality is greater than the minsup, then the node \((I)\) is compared with the node \((J)\) in one of three ways.
As outlined in the paper [Lin2003], the three cases are:

1. if \( B(I_i) = B(I_j) \), then \( B(I_i \cup I_j) = B(I_i) \cap B(I_j) = B(I_i) = B(I_j) \) 

   [Lin2003]. Consequently, \( I_i \) can be replaced by \( I_i \cup I_j \). \( I_j \) is no longer used for the algorithm as it has the same closure as \( I_i \cup I_j \).

2. if \( B(I_i) \subset B(I_j) \), then \( B(I_i \cup I_j) = B(I_i) \); however, \( B(I_i) \neq B(I_j) \) 

   This implies that an edge can be drawn from \( I_i \) to \( I_j \) because they always occur together. However, since the bitmaps \( B(I_i) \neq B(I_j) \) differ from each other, unlike the previous case, \( I_j \) would have a different closure and removing \( I_j \) will cause the algorithm to lose some closed frequent itemsets.

3. if \( B(I_i) \supset B(I_j) \), then \( B(I_i \cup I_j) = B(I_i) \); however, \( B(I_i) \neq B(I_j) \). This is similar to the previous case, except that an edge is created from \( I_j \) to \( I_i \).
Phase One()

1. Construct the bitmap $B(I)$ for each frequent itemset $(I)$ in the database.

2. Set level number $L$ of each $I$ to 1

3. Construct the set of nodes, $N$, that contains $I$, $L$ and $B(I)$ where $B(I) > \text{minSup}$

4. Sort the nodes based on level and bitcount. Have these in a priority queue where the priority is set as $(2^L)*B(I)$.

5. For each node $I_i$ in Nodes

   5.1 For each sibling $I_j$ after $I_i$ in Nodes

      5.1.1 $I = I_i \cup I_j$ and $B_{\text{comb}} = B(I_i) \cap B(I_j)$

      5.1.2 If $B_{\text{comb}} > \text{minSup}$

          5.1.2.1 If $B(I_i) = B(I_j)$

              5.1.2.1.1 Remove $I_j$ from Nodes

              5.1.2.1.2 Replace all $I_j$ with $I$ (i.e $I_i \cup I_j$)

          5.1.2.2 Else, if $B(I_j) \subset B(I_i)$

              5.1.2.2.1 Create an edge from $I_i$ to $I_j$

              5.1.2.2.2 $L_j = \text{Max} (L_j, L_i + 1)$

          5.1.2.3 Else, if $B(I_j) \subset B(I_i)$

This pseudo code has been taken verbatim from [Lin 2003].

Figure 4 Constructing Attribute Value Lattice
We illustrate the steps in the algorithm using the example from Figure 1.

With a minsup of 3, we have:

- \( B(A) = 1011100000 \)
- \( B(D) = 0101100000 \)
- \( B(T) = 1010100000 \)
- \( B(K) = 0000111100 \)
- \( B(Q) = 0000011111 \)

\( N = {} \)

\( C = {} \)

Iteration 1:

\( I = \{ AD \} \)

\( B_{comb} = 0001100000 \)

\( | B_{comb} | = 2 < 3. \)

//\( N \) contains A’s parents

\( N = \{ WC \} \)

Iteration 2:

\( I = \{ AT \} \)

\( B_{comb} = 1010100000 \)

\( | B_{comb} | = 3 \)

\( N = \{ AD \} \)
Figure 4 shows resulting the lattice that corresponds to the sample database from Figure 1. For this lattice, we used a minsup of 3 (i.e., an item appears in 30% of the transactions).

![Attribute Value Lattice](Figure 5 Attribute Value Lattice)

### 3.3.2 Identifying Closed Frequent Itemsets

The procedure for identifying closed frequent itemsets from the lattice is shown in Figure 6 below. In this phase of the algorithm, we build on the lattice by using the set of nodes at the same level for candidate generation: the nodes are sorted in decreasing order of bitcount; each node is combined with its siblings in a breadth-first manner. Then, expansion is performed on the set of candidates in increasing order of levels in a bottom-up approach.
That is, starting with the level-1 leaf nodes of the lattice corresponding to the set of frequent itemsets.

We describe the workings of the algorithm using the attribute value lattice from Figure 5. The algorithm starts with nodes in the order A, D, T, K, Q. Next, when AD is combined, we find that AD is not-frequent. Since WD could be frequent, the algorithm adds W to the set of nodes for next round expansion. The algorithm then considers AT, AK, AQ in that order. After the siblings of A are exhausted, the algorithm then considers DT, DK, DQ in that order and so on. Since A, D, T, K, Q are frequent itemsets, they are added to F. After level-1 nodes are exhausted, the algorithm then uses the level-2 nodes for next round of expansion. This process continues until there are no further nodes for expansion.

This expansion phase of the algorithm could be viewed as augmenting the lattice with additional frequent itemsets constructed using the nodes of the lattice itself. At the end of this phase, we have the lattice setup for finding the closed frequent itemsets: To illustrate, as pointed out earlier, let us use the directed acyclic graph view of the lattice. Then, a path in the graph from the leaf node to the root represents a closed frequent itemset. The overall
procedure that combines the various phases and returns the set of closed frequent itemsets is shown in Figure 7.

![Figure 6 Revised Algorithm](image.png)

Procedure ExpandFreqItemSet(Nodes, minsup)

1. For every node $I_i \in$ Nodes
   1.1 NewNodes = $\emptyset$, $I = I_i$
   1.2 For each sibling $I_j$ after $I_i$ in Nodes
      1.2.1 $I = I_i \cup I_j$ and $B_{\text{comb}} = B(I_i) \cap B(I_j)$
      1.2.2 If $B_{\text{comb}} > \text{minSup}$
         1.2.2.1 Add $I \times B_{\text{comb}}$ to the NewNode
      1.2.3 Else add $I_i$’s parents to the NewNode
   1.3 $F = F \cup I$

2. If NewNodes $\neq \emptyset$, then ExpandFreqItemSet(NewNodes, minsup)

Figure 6 Revised Algorithm
3.4 Issues In Implementing the Algorithm

We faced the following issues in implementing the algorithm:

1. In Phase 1, the sorting of the nodes was just based on the cardinality of the bitmaps as defined in the paper. We modified this to include both the level and the cardinality and set this to $(2^L) \ast B$. This will improve the speed of the algorithm because the new nodes are not added to the end of the list. Instead, it is inserted based on a priority and therefore can be fetched faster.

2. The indentation of the algorithm for Phase 2 was incorrect. In particular, line 8 should be in the loop of statement 2; in the pseudo-code in the paper, it is outside the loop (see Figure 8).
3. The specification for Phase 2 of the algorithm in the paper by
[Lin2003] is imprecise. For instance, in the original specification, line
3 says “continue the expanding”, when it actually means a recursive
call to a procedure. The specification presented in Figure 6 addresses
the issues.

| 1. Nodes = all the greatest lower bounds items of the lattice |
| 2. For every node $I_i$ in Nodes |
| 2.1 $\text{NewNodes} = \emptyset$, $I = I_i$ |
| 2.2 For each sibling $I_j$ after $I_i$ in the nodes |
| 2.2.1 $I = I_i \cup I_j$ and $B_{\text{comb}} = B(I_i) \cap B(I_j)$ |
| 2.2.2 If $|B_{\text{comb}}| > \text{minsup}$ |
| 2.2.2.1 Add $I_{*} B_{\text{comb}}$ to the $\text{NewNode}$ |
| 2.2.3 Else |
| 2.2.3.1 Add $I$’s parents to the $\text{NewNode}$ |
| 2.2.4 If $\text{NewNodes} \neq \emptyset$, then continue the expanding |
| 3. /* expand the frequent nodes */ |
| 4. $C = C \cup I$ |
| 5. For every node $C_i \in C$, replace it by its ancestor set |

This pseudo code has been taken verbatim from [Lin 2003].

Figure 8 Original Algorithm
4. In line 1.2.2.1, we add $I * B_{comb}$ to the set of nodes for expansion. However, the specification does not define what the parents of the newly combined node should be. This is noteworthy because the parents of a node are used to identify additional frequent itemsets. We addressed this issue by setting the parent of a combined node $I$ to be $P(I_i) \cup P(I_j)$.

5. In line 1.2.2.1, we add $I_i$’s parents to the set of nodes for expansion. Observe that, the specification does not include $I_j$ in that set. This could have the effect of not generating some closed frequent itemsets from the algorithm. For instance, for the lattice in Figure 5, if AD is not frequent, then only W is added to the new node set, but D is not. As a result, the algorithm does generate WD as a candidate frequent itemset (note that, it is possible that WD is a frequent itemset). In our implementation, we considered $I_j$ to the new node set. For some datasets explored in our work, adding $I_j$ significantly increased the running time of the algorithm to the point that the algorithm continued to execute for several hours without terminating. Hence, we did not change this line of the algorithm in our implementation. That is, we implemented this line of the algorithm as specified in the paper [Lin2003].
4. Experimental Evaluation

4.1 Implementation

We implemented the algorithm described in the previous chapter using the Java programming language. In addition to Java classes for implementing the algorithm, we implemented helper classes for doing buffered I/O and fast bit-manipulation operations. The Java classes used for this algorithm are the following: lattice.java, NodeInfo.java, ItemSetInfo.java, and AttrValueLattice.java. The helper classes for this include BitClass.java, DiskReader.java, and Timer.java. Details of the Java classes are as follows:

**BitClass.java:**

For constructing granules using bitmaps, we had two choices: use Java’s BitSet class or develop a custom implementation given the characteristics of our dataset. For common bit manipulation operations such as “and”, “or”, “cardinality”, “set”, and “clear”, we timed the native implementation and our implementation and for the most part, our implementation was faster than Java’s BitSet class.
**DiskReader.java:**
This program simulates disk-reads by reading in data from a file into memory in 4K chunks. The 4K chunk of data in memory is used to build the Granular model directly. Once this is built, the next 4K chunk is fetched from disk. This ensures that we use memory judiciously, especially when we are dealing with large datasets.

**ItemSetInfo.java:**
This program implements the data structure for holding the bitmaps corresponding to each unique value in a column.

**Algorithm.java:**
In this program, we set a variable maxValsPerColumn that keeps track of the maximum number of \((n - 1)\) large itemsets before we move on to \(n -\) large itemsets. Limiting the number of \((n-1)\) large itemsets is beneficial because we can index into an array to generate the \(n\) large array by intersecting the \((n-1)\) large and 1-large itemsets. This array is a two dimensional array in which the first dimension keeps track of which large itemset we are building and the second dimension keeps track of the values obtained by intersecting 2 columns. This dimension has a maximum index which limits how many
values we generate. Though limiting the number of values hinders completeness of results, it ensures better scalability by reducing memory usage.

**Lattice.java:**

This is the driver class and reads from an input file. An object of the class AttrValueLattice is instantiated here which then makes the bitmap, makes the nodes based on the minSup, combines nodes and finds the closed frequent itemsets.

**AttrValueLattice.java:**

This class implements both phases of the lattice algorithm as elicited by the pseudocode shown in Figure 4, Figure 5 and Figure 6. The main functions of this class is to MakeNodes (to create nodes with their bitcount and parent information), CombineNodes (to combine a pair of nodes by intersecting their bitmaps and taking a union of their set of parents), ExpandItemSets (for generating candidate frequent itemsets), and FindClosedFrequentItemSets.
4.2 Experimental Setup

The experiments were done on an Apple Powerbook laptop with 1GB RAM. The input file for each experiment was stored on the laptop’s disk (i.e., local disk). Data was read in from disk for building the bitmaps when constructing the lattice and then discarded. This helped reduce the memory footprint for our implementation.

4.3 Data Characteristics

In this thesis, we study the performance of the algorithm using synthetic data. We model the occurrence of an item in a transaction based on mathematical distributions. For each distribution, we generate a dataset that consists of numbers to represent items, where the numbers are based on the distribution. That is, when items in the database are modeled using a particular distribution, this means that the probability of an item being in a transaction depends on the characteristics of that distribution. Since the size of the dataset could have an impact on the running time of the algorithm, we also study the performance of the algorithm for datasets of varying sizes. The distributions we considered in our work are:
• **Normal distribution**: The probability density function (Figure 9) for the normal distribution is:

\[
F(x; \mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-(x-\mu)^2 / (2\sigma^2)}
\]

[Wikipedia]

• **Exponential distribution**: The probability density function for this (Figure 10) distribution is:

\[
F(x; \lambda) = \lambda e^{-\lambda x}, \text{ when } x \geq 0 \text{ and } 0 \text{ when } x < 0
\]

[Wikipedia]

• **Zipf distribution**: The Zipf law was proposed by a Harvard University linguist George Zipf. This law was put forth as it applied to language, i.e., the frequency of some words in any language is much higher than the frequency of others. When such a frequency is plotted against the rank of such a parameter, the rank and frequency become inversely proportional. Another observation typical of such a dataset is that, when drawn to logarithmic scales, the most frequently occurring and the least frequently occurring data lie close to the axes of the graph. Zipf’s law (Figure 11) is given by the following:

\[
F(k; s, N) = \left( \frac{1}{k^s} \right) / \left( \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{1}{n^s} \right)
\]

where,

N is the number of elements, k is the rank, and s is the exponent characterizing the distribution [Wikipedia].
4.4 Results

For each distribution, there are two parameters that impact the running time of the algorithm:

1. **Input data size:** What is the impact of increasing the dataset size

2. **Minsup value:** How does changing the minsup affect the running time

In our results, we present the running times and also show the line of best fit for the data. Also, we present the number of closed frequent itemsets identified by the algorithm.

Non-linear regression was used for fitting the curves in Figures 12 - 19. We used GraphPad Prism Software version 4.03 [Trial], February 02, 2005. GraphPad Software is located at San Diego USA, [www.graphpad.com](http://www.graphpad.com).
4.4.1 Normal Distribution

![Normal Distribution Graph](image)

Figure 12 Run Time Vs File Size – Normal Data

\[
F(x; \mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}
\] [Wikipedia]

**Best-fit values**
- Slope \(0.04767 \pm 0.007099\)
- Y-intercept when X=0.0 \(32.47 \pm 49.93\)
- X-intercept when Y=0.0 \(-681.2\)
- 1/slope \(20.98\)

**95% Confidence Intervals**
- Slope \(0.02508\) to \(0.07026\)
- Y-intercept when X=0.0 \(-126.4\) to \(191.3\)
- X-intercept when Y=0.0 \(-7263\) to \(1890\)

**Goodness of Fit**
- \(r^2\) \(0.9376\)
- \(Sy.x\) \(51.38\)
The graphs are shown in Figure 12 and Figure 13. From the figures, we make the following observations:
1. As we increase the size of the input dataset, the running time increases almost linearly.

2. As we increase the minsup value, for a given dataset, running time decreases. This is to be expected because as minsup is increased, the number of frequent itemsets decreases. Conversely, for a given minsup, as we increase the size of the dataset, the number of closed frequent itemsets increases. This is also expected----as the size of dataset increases, there are more transactions, and hence, the number of frequent itemsets increases.
4.4.2 Exponential Distribution

Exponential data

![Graph showing exponential data]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>File Size 'kB'</th>
<th>run Time 's'</th>
<th>closed frequent itemsets</th>
<th>minSup</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>395.317</td>
<td>19.294</td>
<td>1267</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>790.526</td>
<td>67.599</td>
<td>1900</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>890.821</td>
<td>138.392</td>
<td>1978</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1430.603</td>
<td>342.775</td>
<td>3198</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1670.086</td>
<td>534.528</td>
<td>3968</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 14 Run Time Vs File Size – Exponential Data

Exponential growth
Best-fit values
START 18.54
K 0.002019
Doubling Time 343.3

Std. Error
START 5.400
K 0.0001848

95% Confidence Intervals
START 1.360 to 35.73
K 0.001431 to 0.002607
Doubling Time 265.9 to 484.4

Goodness of Fit
Degrees of Freedom 3
R² 0.9898
Absolute Sum of Squares 1871
Sy.x 24.98
expData-samefile (file-size = 890.821 kB)

![Graph showing Run Time vs MinSup - Exponential Data](image)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>minSup</th>
<th>runtime 's'</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>1530</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>13603</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>67599</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>207478</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>543597</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 15 Run Time Vs Minsup – Exponential Data

\[ F(x; \lambda) = \lambda e^{-\lambda x} \]  
[Wikipedia]

One phase exponential decay

Best-fit values
- SPAN: 3.870e+006
- K: 0.1946
- PLATEAU: -7627
- HalfLife: 3.561

Std. Error
- SPAN: 266957
- K: 0.006876
- PLATEAU: 4133

95% Confidence Intervals
- SPAN: 3.129e+006 to 4.611e+006
- K: 0.1755 to 0.2137
- PLATEAU: -19100 to 3845
- HalfLife: 3.243 to 3.948

Goodness of Fit
- Degrees of Freedom: 4
The graphs are shown in Figure 14 and Figure 15. From the figures, we make the following observations:

1. As we increase the size of the input dataset, the running time increases exponentially.

2. As we increase the minsup value, for a given dataset, running time decreases with an exponential decay. The reasons for this are similar to the behavior of normal distribution dataset:
   a. For a given dataset, as we increase minsup, the number of closed frequent itemsets decreases.
   b. For a given minsup, as we increase the size of input data, the number of closed frequent itemsets increases.
4.4.3 Zipf Distribution

![Zipf-runtime](image)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>file size in kB</th>
<th>time in s</th>
<th>closed freq-itemsets</th>
<th>minSup</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>33.925</td>
<td>0.071</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>67.979</td>
<td>0.105</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>136.163</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>635.486</td>
<td>568.612</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>879.23</td>
<td>1760.606</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1099.067</td>
<td>1847.93</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8971.779</td>
<td>2257.052</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>750</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 16 Run Time Vs File Size – Zipf Data

Polynomial: Second Order \( Y=A + B*X + C*X^2 \)

Best-fit values

A  -202.4  
B   2.058  
C  -0.0001989  

Std. Error

A  180.0  
B   0.3157  
C   3.378e-005  

95% Confidence Intervals

A  -702.2 to 297.3  
B   1.182 to 2.935  
C  -0.0002926 to -0.0001051  

Goodness of Fit

Degrees of Freedom  4  
R²  0.9450  
Absolute Sum of Squares  330808  
Sy.x    287.6
F(k; s, N) = \left( \frac{1}{k^s} \right) / \left( \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{1}{n^s} \right) \text{ [Wikipedia]}

One phase exponential decay

Best-fit values

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SPAN</td>
<td>363.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K</td>
<td>0.3318</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLATEAU</td>
<td>-0.4363</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HalfLife</td>
<td>2.089</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Std. Error

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SPAN</td>
<td>25.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K</td>
<td>0.01425</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLATEAU</td>
<td>0.5399</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

95% Confidence Intervals

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SPAN</td>
<td>283.8 to 442.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K</td>
<td>0.2865 to 0.3771</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLATEAU</td>
<td>-2.154 to 1.282</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HalfLife</td>
<td>1.838 to 2.420</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Goodness of Fit

| Degrees of Freedom | 3 |

Figure 17 Run Time Vs Minsup – Zipf Data
The graphs are shown in Figure 16 and Figure 17. From the figures, we make the following observations:

1. As we increase the size of the input dataset, the running time increases and then stabilizes. This is because of the characteristics of Zipf data: there are very few unique values in a Zipf distribution; as we increase the dataset the number of itemsets for a given minsup stabilize and hence, there is not a noticeable increase in running time.

2. As we increase the minsup value, for a given dataset, running time decreases as an exponential decay. This is again due to the characteristics of the Zipf distribution.

4.5 Discussion

Of the three distributions we studied, our results showed that Zipf data performs better compared to the other two. This is because with Zipf-distributed data, the numbers are clustered around a few values (i.e., very few items in the database appear in most of the transactions). On the other hand, with the remaining distributions, the data is unlikely to be clustered. For instance, with normal distribution, every item can appear in every
transaction with uniform probability. As a result, the number of frequent itemsets for such distributions can be large.

While the procedure for finding closed frequent itemsets tries to provide accurate answers, there are datasets for which the running time is exponential. Rather than obtain accurate answers, it may be worthwhile to obtain an approximate answer and then refine the search. For example, suppose there is a merchant who sells millions of items. To answer a query such as, find the top hundred frequently bought items, we need to determine closed frequent itemsets over the data with a minsup of 100. If such a set is large, we could instead represent the data into categories and then try to find the top n-categories. From such a frequent category set, we could find the desired closed frequent itemsets. Note that this procedure is lossy: since we are restricting the search to the top categories, we may miss closed frequent itemsets that are not in the top categories. Procedures such as the one outlined in this example are data binning techniques.

Of the distributions studied, Zipf distribution has polynomial run-time and is faster than the other two. Hence, we develop a method to bin data such that the resulting binned data resembles a Zipf distribution. We illustrate our
ideas using an example. Consider data from a normal distribution that is binned into bins of equal width. We construct a histogram from the data for each bin. We then place histogram buckets with the same frequency into the same bin. The resulting distribution is like Zipfian.

To apply our idea to input data, we use Chi-square test [Press] to see which distribution the data matches closely. That is, we evaluate column-wise (i.e., granule) the characteristics of the input data. For each column, we compute a chi-square for the distribution for that column using non-linear least squares method of Levenberg-Marquardt. The recipe for this procedure is defined in pages 683 - 687 of the Numerical Analysis text [Press]. The resulting chi-square value is compared to the chi-square of known distributions such as Normal, Exponential, and Zipf to identify degree of similarity. Then, if the data resembles exponential or normal distribution, binning is required. For Zipf data, binning is not required---as our results showed, the running time of the algorithm for Zipf distribution is polynomial.

The procedure for binning the data is as follows. From the input data, we construct a histogram for each granule. For the histogram, we divide the
data into uniform sized bins of a given bin width. We then make another pass over the data and for each input value, we compute the logarithm of the frequency of its bin. Now, if this computed value is above a threshold, this computed value is used to represent the data; otherwise, the original value is used as is. This has the effect of transforming the data from a large set of values to a few values and thereby mimics Zipf data. As a result of binning in this manner, the number of level-1 nodes in the lattice is significantly reduced.

As proof of concept, we performed experiments using two used sets of data for binning. First, we use data from exponential distribution as input to the binning procedure. The procedure identifies the data as being exponentially distributed (as expected) and we then bin it. This experiment serves to validate our binning procedure i.e., provide input from known distribution and it should be mapped to the same distribution. Second, we then apply the procedure to a “mixed” data set---one that contains data from both exponential and Zipf. As expected, the procedure only bins columns that belong to the exponential distribution. The results are explained in the next section.
4.6 Results

4.6.1 Exponential binned data

From the figures, we make the following observations:

1. As we increase the size of the input dataset, the running time is nearly constant: This is very similar to the results of the Zipf distribution.

2. As we change the minsup value, for a given dataset, running time decreases rapidly (again, very similar to that of the Zipf distribution).

This experiment serves to verify our methodology: our idea was transform the input data to something that mimics Zipf distribution and thereby reduce running time of the algorithm. These graphs validate our ideas. We now consider mixed data sets: data sets that contain a mix of Zipf, normal, and exponentially distributed data. We apply our methodology and bin only the columns in the input dataset that closely resemble either normal or exponentially distributed data based on the procedure outlined in the previous section. Our results follow.
4.6.1.1 Binned Exponential Data

![Binned Exponential Data](image)

Best-fit values
- Slope: $-0.3191 \pm 0.1565$
- Y-intercept when $X=0.0$: $3868 \pm 195.7$
- X-intercept when $Y=0.0$: 12120
- $1/slope$: -3.134

95% Confidence Intervals
- Slope: -0.9927 to 0.3545
- Y-intercept when $X=0.0$: 3025 to 4710
- X-intercept when $Y=0.0$

Goodness of Fit
- $r^2$: 0.6750
- $Sy.x$: 114.8
4.6.2 Mixed Data

The results for the mixed data sets without binning are shown in Figure

From the graphs in Figure 19, Figure 20, Figure 23 and Figure 24, we make the following observations:

1. As we increase minsup, running time decreases. This is to be expected as there is a decrease in the number of closed frequent itemsets.

2. As we increase the size of the input dataset, the running time of the algorithm increases. The rate of increase depends on the input distribution: For instance, if the input data is a mix of Zipf and Normal distributions, the rate of decrease is similar to that of the normal distribution. A similar result holds for a mix of Zipf and exponentially distributed dataset.

The results for three mixed data sets with binning are shown in Figure 21, Figure 22, Figure 25 and Figure 26. From the graphs, we make the following observations:

1. As we increase minsup, running time decreases. This is to be expected as there is a decrease in the number of closed frequent itemsets.
2. As we increase the size of the input dataset, the running time of the algorithm is nearly constant. That is, the results are very similar to that of the Zipf distribution. Since our procedure only bins data in the columns corresponding to either Exponential or Normal distribution, the transforms the input dataset to a dataset that closely resembles Zipf distribution.

### 4.6.2.1 Unbinned Zipf Exponential Data

![Graph showing unbinning Zipf Exponential Data](image)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>file size in kB</th>
<th>time in s</th>
<th>closed freq.itemsets</th>
<th>minSup</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>57.552</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>104.127</td>
<td>2.22</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>214.33</td>
<td>4.346</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>306.008</td>
<td>11.609</td>
<td>991</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>675.213</td>
<td>50.213</td>
<td>1100</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>987.08</td>
<td>854.138</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>250</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 19 Run Time Vs File Size – Zipf Exponential Data (Unbinned)

Exponential growth
Best-fit values
START 0.1153
K 0.009027
Doubling Time 76.79

Std. Error
START 0.03789
K 0.0003332

95% Confidence Intervals
START 0.01012 to 0.2205
K 0.008102 to 0.009952
Doubling Time 69.65 to 85.55

Goodness of Fit
Degrees of Freedom 4
R² 0.9998
Absolute Sum of Squares 113.5
Sy.x 5.328

zipf-exp (file-size = 214.440kB)

Figure 20 Run Time Vs Minsup – Zipf Exponential Data (Unbinned)

One phase exponential decay
Best-fit values
SPAN 49833
K 0.5685
PLATEAU 1.433
HalfLife 1.219
Std. Error
SPAN 23793
K 0.03986
PLATEAU 0.8443
95% Confidence Intervals
SPAN -25880 to 125542
K 0.4417 to 0.6953
PLATEAU -1.254 to 4.119
HalfLife 0.9968 to 1.569
Goodness of Fit
Degrees of Freedom 3
R² 0.9983
Absolute Sum of Squares 4.112
Sy.x 1.171

4.6.2.2 Binned Zipf Exponential Data

![Graph showing run time vs file size for Zipf Exponential Data (Binned)](zipf-exp-binned)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>file-size (kB)</th>
<th>time in 's'</th>
<th>closed freq.itemsets</th>
<th>minSup</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>37.468</td>
<td>0.065</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>74.169</td>
<td>0.2497</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>148.366</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>236.316</td>
<td>5.44</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>550.213</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>783.48</td>
<td>9.34</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>250</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 21: Run Time Vs File Size – Zipf Exponential Data (Binned)
Best-fit values
Slope 0.01302 ± 0.002379
Y-intercept when X=0.0 -0.2386 ± 0.9718
X-intercept when Y=0.0 18.33
1/slope 76.81
95% Confidence Intervals
Slope 0.006416 to 0.01962
Y-intercept when X=0.0 -2.936 to 2.459
X-intercept when Y=0.0 -333.8 to 171.8
Goodness of Fit
r² 0.8822
Sy.x 1.584

zipf-exp-binned (file-size=783.480 kB)

Figure 22 Run Time Vs Minsup – Zipf Exponential Data (Binned)

One phase exponential decay
Best-fit values
SPAN 4596
K 0.04192
PLATEAU 0.8708
HalfLife 16.54
Std. Error
SPAN 592.2
K 0.001315
PLATEAU 0.3484
95% Confidence Intervals
SPAN -2929 to 12121
K 0.02521 to 0.05862
PLATEAU -3.555 to 5.297
HalfLife 11.82 to 27.49
Goodness of Fit
Degrees of Freedom 1
R² 0.9999
Absolute Sum of Squares 0.1771
Sy.x 0.4208

4.6.2.3 Unbinned Zipf Normal Data

Exponential growth
Best-fit values
START 0.0006259
K  0.009728
Doubling Time  71.26
Std. Error
START  0.0003320
K  0.0004527
95% Confidence Intervals
START  -0.0002959 to 0.001548
K   0.008471 to 0.01098
Doubling Time  63.10 to 81.83
Goodness of Fit
Degrees of Freedom  4
R²  0.9998
Absolute Sum of Squares  0.5110
Sy.x  0.3574

Zipf-normal (file-size=228.947 kB)

Figure 24 Run Time Vs Minsup – Zipf Normal Data (Unbinned)

One phase exponential decay
Best-fit values
SPAN  1538
4.6.2.4 Binned Zipf Normal Data

Figure 25 Run Time Vs File Size – Zipf Normal Data (Binned)
Best-fit values
- Slope: $0.005426 \pm 0.0005855$
- Y-intercept when $X=0.0$: $-0.03618 \pm 0.2892$
- X-intercept when $Y=0.0$: 6.668
- $1/\text{slope}$: 184.3

95% Confidence Intervals
- Slope: 0.003801 to 0.007051
- Y-intercept when $X=0.0$: -0.8389 to 0.7665
- X-intercept when $Y=0.0$: -187.6 to 127.9

Goodness of Fit
- $r^2$: 0.9555
- $Sy.x$: 0.4579

**Zipf-Normal binned (file-size = 89.863 kB)**

![Graph showing run time vs min Sup for Zipf Normal binned data.]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>min Sup</th>
<th>run time in 's'</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>130.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>96.243</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.788</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.085</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.048</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 26 Run Time Vs Minsup – Zipf Normal Data (Binned)

One phase exponential decay
Best-fit values
- SPAN: 796.1
- $K$: 0.5156
- PLATEAU: -32.34
- HalfLife: 1.344
- Std. Error
4.7 Discussion

The experiments with binning show significant improvements in the running time of the algorithm. For instance, without binning and with mixed data, the running time of the algorithm increases at a rapid rate (either polynomial or exponential); with binning, the running time is nearly constant (i.e., it is very similar to the results of a Zipf distributed data). Note that binning only provides an approximation to the number of closed frequent itemsets in the input data. Using the results of binning, further analysis maybe performed on a restricted set of the input data.

Without binning, exponential data has an exponential run time growth. With binning, the run time becomes polynomial. So, we increase our chances of arriving at the solutions of the lattice with binning. For mixed data, we found
that we were not able to get the program to complete in less than an hour's time for unbinned data and hence had to terminate the run.

As pointed out earlier, it helps in determining trends in data. Since binning is lossy, based on the results further analysis may be performed.
5. Conclusion

In this thesis, we studied the problem of mining closed frequent itemsets in large data repositories. We used the algorithm of [Lin2003] as the basis for our implementation. As part of the implementation, we identified several issues with the algorithm and proposed solutions for them. We then implemented the algorithm and used it to a performance study. Our results showed that for certain datasets (such as, dataset that is derived from an exponential distribution), the running time of the algorithm grows exponentially. To improve the running time of the algorithm, we developed a novel mechanism for binning data. Our binning procedure transforms data from exponential/normal distributions to Zipf distributed data. Our experiments with the binned data showed significant performance improvement: The running time of exponentially distribute data grows exponentially; in contrast, the running time of the binned data is nearly constant in the size of input.

Some possible future effort can build upon our work are:

- **Suggestion server**: For instance, consider the example we have used in this thesis related to buying books. We can mine the set of
transactions to identify the set of closed frequent itemsets corresponding to authors whose books are frequently bought. This set can be used as the basis for constructing a recommendation list.

Furthermore, whenever one of these authors writes a new book, that book could be a candidate for inclusion in this recommendation list. Other characteristics such as the quality of reviews can also be used as candidate signals. Similar suggestions servers can be constructed for other domains such as video rentals as well.

- **Performance comparison:** Compare the performance of the algorithm we implemented with others published in the literature such as Charm [Zaki2002], Closet[Pei2000], Mafia [Burdick2001], Pascal[Bastide2000].
6. References


[Survey] Association Rule Mining.
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