

Parallel and Optimization Aggregation in SQL To Organize Data sets for Data Mining Analysis

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ABSTRACT:

Preparing a data set for analysis is generally the most time consuming task in a data mining project, requiring many complex SQL queries, joining tables, and aggregating columns. Existing SQL aggregations have limitations to prepare data sets because they return one column per aggregated group. In general, a significant manual effort is required to build data sets, where a horizontal layout is required. We propose simple, yet powerful, methods to generate SQL code to return aggregated columns in a horizontal tabular layout, returning a set of numbers instead of one number per row.

This new class of functions is called horizontal aggregations. Horizontal aggregations build data sets with a horizontal denormalized layout (e.g., point-dimension, observation variable, instance-feature), which is the standard layout required by most data mining algorithms. We propose three fundamental methods to evaluate horizontal aggregations: CASE: Exploiting the programming CASE construct; SPJ: Based on standard relational algebra operators (SPJ queries); PIVOT: Using the PIVOT operator, which is offered by some DBMSs.

KEY WORDS:

Initial data Analysis, Characteristics of data sample, SQL Code generation, Main data Analysis, Properties.

INTRODUCTION:

Horizontal aggregation is a new class of function to return aggregated columns in a horizontal layout. Most algorithms require datasets with horizontal layout as input with several records and one variable or dimensions per columns.

Managing large data sets without DBMS support can be a difficult task. Trying different subsets of data points and dimensions is more flexible, faster and easier to do inside a relational database with SQL queries than outside with an alternative tool. Horizontal aggregation can be performed by using the operator, it can easily be implemented inside a query processor, much like a select, project and join.

PIVOT operator on tabular data that exchange rows, enable data transformations useful in data modelling, data analysis, and data presentation. There are many existing functions and operators for aggregation in Structured Query Language. The most commonly used aggregation is the sum of a column and other aggregation operators return the average, maximum, minimum or row count over groups of rows. All operations for aggregation have many limitations to build large data sets for data mining purposes. Database schemas are also highly normalized for On-Line Transaction Processing (OLTP) systems where data sets that are stored in a relational database or data warehouse.

SQL CODE GENERATION:

Our main goal is to define a template to generate SQL code combining aggregation and transposition (pivoting). A second goal is to extend the SELECT statement with a clause that combines transposition with aggregation. Consider the following GROUP BY query in standard SQL that takes a subset $L_1; \dots; L_m$ from $D_1; \dots; D_p$:
`SELECT L1; ::; Lm, sum(A) FROM FG GROUP BY L1; \dots; Lm;`
 This aggregation query will produce a wide table with $m + 1$ columns (automatically determined), with one group for each unique combination of values $L_1; \dots; L_m$ and one aggregated value per group (sum(A) in this case).

In order to evaluate this query the query optimizer takes three input parameters: 1) the input table F, 2) the list of grouping columns $L_1; \dots; L_m$, 3) the column to aggregate (A). The basic goal of a horizontal aggregation is to transpose (pivot) the aggregated column A by a column subset of $L_1; \dots; L_m$; for simplicity assume such subset is $R_1; \dots; R_k$ where $k < m$. In other words, we partition the GROUP BY list into two sublists: one list to produce each group (j columns $L_1; \dots; L_j$) and another list (k columns $R_1; \dots; R_k$) to transpose aggregated values, where $fL_1; \dots; L_j \setminus fR_1; \dots; R_k \frac{1}{4}$;

Each distinct combination of $fR_1; \dots; R_k$ will automatically produce an output column. In particular, if $k \frac{1}{4} 1$ then there are $j_R_1 \delta FP_j$ columns (i.e., each value in R_1 becomes a column storing one aggregation). Therefore, in a horizontal aggregation there are four input parameters to generate SQL code: 1. the input table F, 2. the list of GROUP BY columns $L_1; \dots; L_j$, 3. the column to aggregate (A), 4. The list of transposing columns $R_1; \dots; R_k$. Horizontal aggregations preserve evaluation semantics of standard (vertical) SQL aggregations. The main difference will be returning a table with a horizontal layout, possibly having extra nulls. The SQL code generation aspect is Example.

In the Fig.1 there is a common field K in F1 and F2. In F2, D2 consist of only two distinct values X and Y and is used to transpose the table. The aggregate operation is used in this issue (Σ). The values within D1 are repeated, 1 appears 3 times, for row 3, 4 and, and for row 3 & 4 value of D2 is X & Y. So D2X and D2Y is newly generated columns in FH.

K	D ₁	D ₂
1	3	X
2	2	Y
3	1	Y
4	1	Y
5	2	X
6	1	X
7	3	X
8	2	X

K	A
1	9
2	6
3	10
4	0
5	1
6	Null
7	8
8	7

D ₁	D ₂ X	D ₂ Y
1	Null	10
2	8	6
3	17	null

Fig 1. An example of Horizontal aggregation Commonly using Query Evaluation methods in Horizontal aggregation functions. Data mining (the analysis step of the "Knowledge Discovery in Databases" process, or KDD), a field at the intersection of computer science and statistics, is the process that attempts to discover patterns in large datasets.

It utilizes methods at the intersection of artificial intelligence, machine learning, statistics, and database systems. The overall goal of the data mining process is to extract information from a data set and transform it into an understandable structure for further use. Aside from the raw analysis step, it involves database and data management aspects, data preprocessing, model and inference considerations, interestingness metrics, complexity considerations, post-processing of discovered structures, visualization, and online updating. The term is a buzzword, and is frequently misused to mean any form of large-scale data or information processing (collection, extraction, warehousing, analysis, and statistics) but is also generalized to any kind of computer decision support system, including artificial intelligence, machine learning, and business intelligence. In the proper use of the word, the key term is discovery, commonly defined as "detecting something new".]

Even the popular book "Data Mining: Practical machine learning tools and techniques with Java" (which covers mostly machine learning material) was originally to be named just "Practical machine learning", and the term "data mining" was only added for marketing reasons. Often the more general terms "(large scale) data analysis", or "analytics" – or when referring to actual methods, artificial intelligence and machine learning – are more appropriate. The actual data mining task is the automatic or semiautomatic analysis of large quantities of data to extract previously unknown interesting patterns such as groups of data records (cluster analysis), unusual records (anomaly detection) and dependencies (association rule mining).

This usually involves using database techniques such as spatial indexes. These patterns can then be seen as a kind of summary of the input data, and may be used in further these security expenditures are seen as wasteful because success is too invisible". However, Schneider assures one that, despite the lack of visible results, the need to secure information still exists. Active attacks attempt to modify system resources or network functionality. Examples of these attacks are message modification, message replay, impersonation and denial of service attacks. For example, in machine learning and predictive analytics. For example, the data mining step might identify multiple groups in the data, which can then be used to obtain more accurate prediction results by a decision support system.

Neither the data collection, data preparation, nor result interpretation and reporting are part of the data mining step, but do belong to the overall KDD process as additional steps.

Initial Data Analysis:

The most important distinction between the initial data analysis phase and the main analysis phase, is that during initial data analysis one refrains from any analysis that aimed at answering the original research question. The initial data analysis phase is guided by the following four questions:

Quality of Data:

The quality of the data should be checked as early as possible. Data quality can be assessed in several ways, using different types of analyses: frequency counts, descriptive statistics (mean, standard deviation, median), normality (skewness, kurtosis, frequency histograms, normal probability plots), associations (correlations, scatter plots).

Other initial data quality checks are:

- Checks on data cleaning: have decisions influenced the distribution of the variables? The distribution of the variables before data cleaning is compared to the distribution of the variables after data cleaning to see whether data cleaning has had unwanted effects on the data.
- Analysis of missing observations: are there many missing values, and are the values missing at random? The missing observations in the data are analyzed to see whether more than 25% of the values are missing, whether they are missing at random (MAR), and whether some form of imputation is needed.

Quality of measurements:

The quality of the measurement instruments should only be checked during the initial data analysis phase when this is not the focus or research question of the study. One should check whether structure of measurement instruments corresponds to structure reported in the literature.

There are two ways to assess measurement quality:

- Confirmatory factor analysis
- Analysis of homogeneity (internal consistency), which gives an indication of the reliability of a measurement instrument. During this analysis, one inspects the variances of the items and the scales, the Cronbach's α of the scales, and the change in the Cronbach's α when an item would be deleted from a scale.
- Initial transformations

After assessing the quality of the data and of the measurements, one might decide to impute missing data, or to perform initial transformations of one or more variables, although this can also be done during the main analysis phase.

Possible transformations of variables are:

- Square root transformation (if the distribution differs moderately from normal)
- Log-transformation (if the distribution differs substantially from normal)
- Inverse transformation (if the distribution differs severely from normal)
- Make categorical (ordinal / dichotomous) (if the distribution differs severely from normal, and no transformations help)

Characteristics of Data Sample:

In any report or article, the structure of the sample must be accurately described. It is especially important to exactly determine the structure of the sample (and specifically the size of the subgroups) when subgroup analyses will be performed during the main analysis phase.

The characteristics of the data sample can be assessed by looking at:

- Basic statistics of important variables.
- Scatter plots.

- Correlations
- Cross-tabulations

Final stage of the initial data analysis

During the final stage, the findings of the initial data analysis are documented, and necessary, preferable, and possible corrective actions are taken. Also, the original plan for the main data analyses can and should be specified in more detail and/or rewritten. In order to do this, several decisions about the main data analyses can and should be made:

- In the case of non-normals: should one transform variables; make variables categorical (ordinal/dichotomous); adapt the analysis method?
- In the case of missing data: should one neglect or impute the missing data; which imputation technique should be used?
- In the case of outliers: should one use robust analysis techniques?
- In case items do not fit the scale: should one adapt the measurement instrument by omitting items, or rather ensure comparability with other (uses of the) measurement instrument(s)?

Analysis phase:

Several analyses can be used during the initial data analysis

- Univariate statistics
 - Bivariate associations (correlations)
 - Graphical techniques (scatter plots)
- It is important to take the measurement levels of the variables into account for the analyses, as special statistical techniques are available for each level:
- Nominal and ordinal variables
 - o Frequency counts (numbers and percentages)
 - o Associations

circumambulations (cross-tabulations)
hierarchical loglinear analysis (restricted to a maximum of 8 variables)

loglinear analysis (to identify relevant/important variables and possible confounders)

- o Exact tests or bootstrapping (in case subgroups are small)
- o Computation of new variables
- Continuous variables
 - o Distribution

Statistics (M, SD, variance, skewness, kurtosis)
Stem-and-leaf displays
Box plots

Main Data Analysis:

In the main analysis phase analyses aimed at answering the research question are performed as well as any other relevant analysis needed to write the first draft of the research report. Exploratory and confirmatory approaches In the main analysis phase either an exploratory or confirmatory approach can be adopted. Usually the approach is decided before data is collected. In an exploratory analysis no clear hypothesis is stated before analyzing the data, and the data is searched for models that describe the data well. In a confirmatory analysis clear hypotheses about the data are tested. Exploratory data analysis should be interpreted carefully.

When testing multiple models at once there is a high chance on finding at least one of them to be significant, but this can be due to a type 1 error. It is important to always adjust the significance level when testing multiple models with, for example, a Bonferroni correction. Also, one should not follow up an exploratory analysis with a confirmatory analysis in the same dataset. An exploratory analysis is used to find ideas for a theory, but not to test that theory as well. When a model is found exploratory in a dataset, then following up that analysis with a confirmatory analysis in the same dataset could simply mean that the results of the confirmatory analysis are due to the same type 1 error that resulted in the exploratory model in the first place.

The confirmatory analysis therefore will not be more informative than the original exploratory analysis. A data set (or dataset) is a collection of data, usually presented in tabular form. Each column represents a particular variable. Each row corresponds to a given member of the data set in question. It lists values for each of the variables, such as height and weight of an object. Each value is known as a datum. The data set may comprise data for one or more members, corresponding to the number of rows. Non-tabular data sets can take the form of marked up strings of characters, such as an XML file.

Properties: A data set has several characteristics which define its structure and properties. These include the number and types of the attributes or variables and the various statistical measures which may be applied to them such as standard deviation and kurtosis. In the simplest case, there is only one variable, and then the data set consists of a single column of values, often represented as a list. In spite of the name, such a univariate data set is not a set in the usual mathematical sense, since a given value may occur multiple times. Usually the order does not matter, and then the collection of values may be considered to be a multiset rather than an (ordered) list.

The values may be numbers, such as real numbers or integers, for example representing a person's height in centimeters, but may also be nominal data (i.e., not consisting of numerical values), for example representing a person's ethnicity. More generally, values may be of any of the kinds described as a level of measurement. For each variable, the values will normally all be of the same kind. However, there may also be "missing values", which need to be indicated in some way. In statistics, data sets usually come from actual observations obtained by sampling a statistical population, and each row corresponds to the observations on one element of that population.

Data sets may further be generated by algorithms for the purpose of testing certain kinds of software. Some modern statistical analysis software such as SPSS still present their data in the classical data set fashion. Classic data sets: Several classic data sets have been used extensively in the statistical literature:

- Iris flower data set - multivariate data set introduced by Ronald Fisher (1936)

- Categorical data analysis - Data sets used in the book, *An Introduction to Categorical Data Analysis*, by Agresti, are provided on-line by StatLib.

- Robust statistics - Data sets used in *Robust Regression and Outlier Detection* (Rousseeuw and Leroy, 1986). are provided on-line at the University of Cologne.

- Time series - Data used in Chatfield's book, *The Analysis of Time Series*, are provided on-line by StatLib.

- Extreme values - Data used in the book, *An Introduction to the Statistical Modeling of Extreme Values* are provided on-line by Stuart Coles, the book's author. [Dead link]

- Bayesian Data Analysis - Data used in the book are provided on-line by Andrew Gelman, one of the book's authors.

- The Bupa liver data, used in several papers in the machine learning (data mining) literature.

- Anscombe's quartet - Small dataset illustrating the importance of graphing the data to avoid statistical fallacies

CONCLUSION:

This system extended the horizontal aggregations with k-means algorithm to cluster the aggregated column which help preparing datasets for data mining related work. Optimized k-means is significantly faster because of small data set run clustering outside the DBMS. Input to the system is data from multiple tables rather than single table used in traditional horizontal aggregation. Include Euclidean distance computation, pivoting a table to have one dimension value per row. Data manipulating operator Pivot is easy to compute for wide set of values. Pivot is an extension of GroupBy with unique restrictions and optimization opportunities, and this makes it easy to introduce incrementally on top of existing grouping implementation.

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