## Unit II DATA MINING

## KINDS OF PATTERNS

The kinds of patterns that can be discovered depend upon the data mining tasks employed. By and large, there are two types of data mining tasks: *descriptive data mining* tasks that describe the general properties of the existing data, and *predictive data mining* tasks that attempt to do predictions based on inference on available data.

The data mining functionalities and the variety of knowledge they discover are briefly presented in the following list:

- Characterization: Data characterization is a summarization of general features of objects in a target class and produces what is called *characteristic rules*. The data relevant to a user-specified class are normally retrieved by a database query and run through a summarization module to extract the essence of the data at different levels of abstractions. For example, one may want to characterize the OurVideoStore customers who regularly rent more than 30 movies a year. With concept hierarchies on the attributes describing the target class, the *attribute-oriented induction* method can be used, for example, to carry out data summarization. Note that with a data cube containing summarization of data, simple OLAP operations fit the purpose of data characterization.
- **Discrimination**: Data discrimination produces what are called *discriminant rules* and is basically the comparison of the general features of objects between two classes referred to as the *target class* and the *contrasting class*. For example, one may want to compare the general characteristics of the customers who rented more than 30 movies in the last year with those whose rental account is lower than 5. The techniques used for data discrimination are very similar to the techniques used for data characterization with the exception that data discrimination results include comparative measures.
- Association analysis: Association analysis is the discovery of what are commonly called association rules. It studies the frequency of items occurring together in transactional databases, and based on a threshold called support, identifies the frequent item sets. Another threshold, confidence, which is the conditional probability than an item appears in a transaction when another item appears, is used to pinpoint association rules. Association analysis is commonly used for market basket analysis. For example, it could be useful for the OurVideoStore manager to know what movies are often rented together or if there is a relationship between renting a certain type of movies and buying

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popcorn or pop. The discovered association rules are of the form: P -> Q [s,c], where P and Q are conjunctions of attribute value-pairs, and s (for support) is the probability that P and Q appear together in a transaction and c (for confidence) is the conditional probability that Q appears in a transaction when P is present. For example, the hypothetic association "13-19") -> RentType(X,"game") AND Age(X,Buys(X,"pop") [s=2%, c=55%]would indicate that 2% of the transactions considered are of customers aged between 13 and 19 who are renting a game and buying a pop, and that there is a certainty of 55% that teenage customers who rent a game also buy pop.

- Classification: Classification analysis is the organization of data in given classes. Also known as *supervised classification*, the classification uses given class labels to order the objects in the data collection. Classification approaches normally use a *training set* where all objects are already associated with known class labels. The classification algorithm learns from the training set and builds a model. The model is used to classify new objects. For example, after starting a credit policy, the OurVideoStore managers could analyze the customers behaviours vis-à-vis their credit, and label accordingly the customers who received credits with three possible labels "safe", "risky" and "very risky". The classification analysis would generate a model that could be used to either accept or reject credit requests in the future.
- Prediction: Prediction has attracted considerable attention given the potential implications of successful forecasting in a business context. There are two major types of predictions: one can either try to predict some unavailable data values or pending trends, or predict a class label for some data. The latter is tied to classification. Once a classification model is built based on a training set, the class label of an object can be foreseen based on the attribute values of the object and the attribute values of the classes. Prediction is however more often referred to the forecast of missing numerical values, or increase/ decrease trends in time related data. The major idea is to use a large number of past values to consider probable future values.
- Clustering: Similar to classification, clustering is the organization of data in classes. However, unlike classification, in clustering, class labels are unknown and it is up to the clustering algorithm to discover acceptable classes. Clustering is also called *unsupervised classification*, because the classification is not dictated by given class labels. There are many clustering approaches all based on the principle of maximizing the similarity between objects in a same class (*intra-class similarity*) and minimizing the similarity between objects of different classes (*inter-class similarity*).

- Outlier analysis: Outliers are data elements that cannot be grouped in a given class or cluster. Also known as *exceptions* or *surprises*, they are often very important to identify. While outliers can be considered noise and discarded in some applications, they can reveal important knowledge in other domains, and thus can be very significant and their analysis valuable.
- Evolution and deviation analysis: Evolution and deviation analysis pertain to the study of time related data that changes in time. Evolution analysis models evolutionary trends in data, which consent to characterizing, comparing, classifying or clustering of time related data. Deviation analysis, on the other hand, considers differences between measured values and expected values, and attempts to find the cause of the deviations from the anticipated values.

It is common that users do not have a clear idea of the kind of patterns they can discover or need to discover from the data at hand. It is therefore important to have a versatile and inclusive data mining system that allows the discovery of different kinds of knowledge and at different levels of abstraction. This also makes interactivity an important attribute of a data mining system.

## Is all that is discovered interesting and useful?

Data mining allows the discovery of knowledge potentially useful and unknown. Whether the knowledge discovered is new, useful or interesting, is very subjective and depends upon the application and the user. It is certain that data mining can generate, or discover, a very large number of patterns or rules. In some cases the number of rules can reach the millions. One can even think of a meta-mining phase to mine the oversized data mining results.

To reduce the number of patterns or rules discovered that have a high probability to be non-interesting, one has to put a measurement on the patterns. However, this raises the problem of completeness. The user would want to discover *all* rules or patterns, *but only* those that are *interesting*. The measurement of how interesting a discovery is, often called *interestingness*, can be based on quantifiable objective elements such as *validity* of the patterns when tested on new data with some degree of *certainty*, or on some subjective depictions such as *understandability* of the patterns, *novelty* of the patterns, or *usefulness*.

Discovered patterns can also be found interesting if they confirm or validate a hypothesis sought to be confirmed or unexpectedly contradict a common belief. This brings the issue of describing what is interesting to discover, such as meta-rule guided discovery that describes forms of rules before the discovery process, and interestingness refinement languages that interactively query the results for interesting patterns

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after the discovery phase. Typically, measurements for interestingness are based on thresholds set by the user. These thresholds define the completeness of the patterns discovered.

Identifying and measuring the interestingness of patterns and rules discovered, or to be discovered, is essential for the evaluation of the mined knowledge and the KDD process as a whole. While some concrete measurements exist, assessing the interestingness of discovered knowledge is still an important research issue.

## How do we categorize data mining systems?

There are many data mining systems available or being developed. Some are specialized systems dedicated to a given data source or are confined to limited data mining functionalities, other are more versatile and comprehensive. Data mining systems can be categorized according to various criteria among other classification are the following:

- Classification according to the type of data source mined: this classification categorizes data mining systems according to the type of data handled such as spatial data, multimedia data, timeseries data, text data, World Wide Web, etc.
- Classification according to the data model drawn on: this classification categorizes data mining systems based on the data model involved such as relational database, object-oriented database, data warehouse, transactional, etc.
- Classification according to the king of knowledge discovered: this classification categorizes data mining systems based on the kind of knowledge discovered or data mining functionalities, such as characterization, discrimination, association, classification, clustering, etc. Some systems tend to be comprehensive systems offering several data mining functionalities together.
- Classification according to mining techniques used: Data mining systems employ and provide different techniques. This classification categorizes data mining systems according to the data analysis approach used such as machine learning, neural networks, genetic algorithms, statistics, visualization, database-oriented or data warehouse-oriented, etc. The classification can also take into account the degree of user interaction involved in the data mining process such as query-driven systems, interactive exploratory systems, or autonomous systems. A comprehensive system would provide a wide variety of data mining techniques to fit different situations and options, and offer different degrees of user interaction.

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