Fast top-k frequent itemset mining under Local Differential Privacy*

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***Abstract*—This is the abstract.**

***Index Terms*—This is the keywords**

I. Introduction

Differential privacy (DP) [7] is the state-of-the-art approach that is used to protect individual privacy in the process of data collection, which has been named one of the world's top 10 breakthrough technologies in 2020 by the MIT technology review. It is a means in cryptography that aims to provide a way to maximize the accuracy of data queries when querying from statistical databases while minimizing the chances of identifying their records. Meanwhile, as a mathematical technique, it can add noise to the data while quantifying the extent of the increase in privacy, thus making the process of adding "noise" more rigorous.

Due to its unique advantages, DP has been widely studied by the academia and industry. For example, Google, Microsoft, apple and other companies use this technology to protect users' privacy, and at the same time, mobile phones aggregate data, so as to improve service quality. And the U.S. government is to complete a census of 330 million U.S. residents by 2020, keeping their identities secret, in what would be the largest application of DP ever.

There are two types of differential privacy - Centralized differential privacy (CDP) and Local differential privacy (LDP). Compared with CDP, the LDP does not require the assumptions of a trusted third party and provides stronger privacy guarantees. DP's research has involved many aspects, in recent years, the work in mining frequent itemsets has attracted the attention, which is one of the most important techniques because of its ability to locate the repeating relationships between different items in a data set and plays an essential role in mining association rules [9]. Formally, let $\mathcal{X} = \{x_1, x_2, ..., x_d\}$ be the global domain of items with size is d and $\mathcal{T} = \langle T_1, T_2, ..., T_n \rangle$ denote a transaction database for n users, where $T_i (i \in [1...n])$ denotes a transaction that is a subset of $\mathcal{X}$. For example, a sample of transational data is shown in Table I. The support of an itemset X, where $X \subseteq \mathcal{X}$ is a set of items, is the number of transactions containing X in $\mathcal{T}$. Then, given a minimum support threshold δ, the problem of finding the complete set of frequent itemsets that supports no less than δ is called the frequent itemset mining (FIM) problem.

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TABLE I
Sample of transactional data.

TID	List of items
T01	a, f, c, g, p
T02	a, b, c, f, l, o
T03	b, f, h, o
T04	b, c, p
T05	f, a, c, l, p, n

A lot of work [3]–[6] has been done to solve DM problems in CDP. However, since the analyst holds the user's raw data in CDP setting, its main job is to add noise to the results to satisfy the DP definition.

In this paper, we consider the $top-k$ FIM problem in transaction databases under LDP. Although LDP is similar to CDP, the LDP has no reliance on third party. The data analyst wants to find k itemsets with highest support while while users are sensitive and unwilling to answer their real infomation. The main challenge is that the analyst does not hold the user's original sensitive information, which makes it quite difficult to mine useful information with sanitized data. Qin et al. [1] point out that if utlize directly existing FIM algorithm (e.g. Apriori [9], [10], FP-growth [8], Eclat [13]) would result in accumulation of dramatic noise because of multi-iteration between users and analyst.

Specifically for FIM in the local setting, Qin et al. [1] leave it as a future work but there is no clear solution. Wang et al. [2] solves the $top-k$ frequent itemset mining (FIM) task for the first time with **padding-and-sampling-based frequency oracle** (PSFO). In [2], the Set-Value Item Mining (SVIM) protocol is proposed to handles set values under the LDP setting, with the purpose of finding the k most frequent items and their frequencies. To mine frequent itemsets , a core technique is "Guessing Frequency (GF)". That is, the analyst first calculated the frequency of a given itemset X for all candidate itemsets by

$$\mathbb{G}(X) = \prod_{x \in X} \mu(x), \mu(x) = \frac{0.9 \times \tilde{\theta}(x)}{\max_{x \in S'} \tilde{\theta}(x)} \quad (1)$$

where $\mathbb{G}(X)$ represents the guessing frequency of itemset X, S' and $\tilde{\theta}(x)$ are denoted separately the $top-k$ frequent items set and the frequency of a given item x. Then $2k$ itemsets with highest guessing frequencies are selected to construct candidate set IS. Finally, it utilizes SVIM protocol again with the domain IS to mine $top-k$ itemsets. We observe that, the size of candidate set to construct IS increase significantly with k. As a result, it is computationally expensive when k is large (e.g., $k = 100$).

Inspiringly, to reduce the expensive computational cost caused by guessing frequencies of exponentially possible itemsets, we introduce the frequent-pattern tree (FP-tree) [8] structure to store compactly sensitive transactions, and then FP-growth [8] is awakened to mine frequent itemsets over the tree. Summarily, we propose Frequent-Pattern-based miner (fpminer) protocol for discovering $top-k$ most frequent itemsets and their frequencies under LDP. It has five steps. First, the SVIM protocol is used to estimate the k most frequent items and their frequencies. Second, users report the number of frequent items they have; the analyst estimates the distribution user reported and figure out the right M as the maximum iteration of the tree. Third, users interact with the analyst to build effectively the FP-tree [8]. Fourth, the analyst optimizes and mines the FP-tree. Fifth, the analyst publishes $top-k$ itemsets.

Experimental results show that minefp outperforms SVSM in that it identifies quickly frequent itemsets as well as estimates the frequencies more accurately. Notably, when k is large, it provides significantly lower computation overhead as well as similar accuracy than existing SVSM protocol .

To summarize, the main contributions of this paper are:

- We study the application of FP-growth algorithm and design the FP-tree-based-mine (minefp) protocol to find frequent itemsets as well as their frequencies in the LDP setting. Experimental results on real-world datasets show the significant improvement over previous techniques.
- We investigate GF to construct candidate set and point out that it is beneficial to build hierarchically FP-tree.

Roadmap.

II. Preliminaries

A. Local Differential Privacy (LDP)

In the local setting, there is no trusted third party and an aggregator wants to gather information from users, where each user possesses an input t. The privacy of the data contributor is protected by perturbing her/his original data at the data contributor's side; thus, the agregator cannot access the original data, but is still able to obtain population statistics.

Formally, let $\mathcal{T}$ denote the whole transaction databases. ϵ-local differential privacy (or ϵ-LDP) is defined on an algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ and a privacy budget $\epsilon \geq 0$ as follows.

Definition 1: ($\epsilon-LDP$). A randomized algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ satisfies ϵ-local differential privacy (ϵ-LDP), if and only if for (1) all pairs of input $t_i, t_j \in \mathcal{T}$, and (2) any possible output $\mathcal{O}$ of $\mathcal{A}$, we have:

$$\frac{\mathbf{Pr}[\mathcal{A}(t_i) = \mathcal{O}]}{\mathbf{Pr}[\mathcal{A}(t_j) = \mathcal{O}]} \leq e^{\epsilon}$$

$Sequential\ composability$ [12] and $post-processing$ [14] are vitally important properties of differential privacy. The former allows each user to divide privacy budget into multiple portions and use each portion to execute independent LDP protocols on the same input while the sequential executions provide $\sum \epsilon_i$-LDP; the latter guarantees that any processing of the noisy data do not disclose the privacy.

Theorem 2.1: ($sequential\ composability$). Given m randomized algorithms $\mathcal{A}_i (1 \leq i \leq m)$, each of which satisfies ϵ_i-local differential privacy. Then the sequence of $\mathcal{A}_i$ collectively provides $(\sum_{i=1}^{m} \epsilon_i)$-local differential privacy.

Theorem 2.2: ($post-processing$). For any method ϕ which works on the output of a ϵ-LDP algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ without accessing the raw data, the procedure $\phi(\mathcal{A}(\cdot))$ remains ϵ-LDP.

B. Frequency Oracle in the LDP setting

A frequency oracle (FO) protocol under LDP enables aggregator to estimate the frequency of any given value $t \in \mathcal{X}$ from all sanitized data recived from the users. A fundamental FO protocol is Randomized Response (RR) [15], which is a traditional technique for estimating unbiasedly a population proprotion. It is the building block of many sophisticated LDP protocols, such as RAPPOR [16], GRR and OLH [11]. Suppose the respondents were asked to answer a sensitive Boolean question (e.g. have you ever cheated on your partner?) in a survey, then RR makes provisions for each person to be interviewed. That is, each respondent gives the raw answer with probability p and gives the opposite answer with probabilit $q = 1 - p$. Specially, to satisfy ϵ-LDP, the probability p is set to $\frac{e^{\epsilon}}{1+e^{\epsilon}}$.

Then, the agregator calculates the estimated percentage of "Yes" (denote as $\tilde{\theta}$) as example from all sanitized answers, which is unbiased, as follows:

$$\tilde{\theta}_{RR}(Yes) = \frac{\mathcal{C}(answer = Yes) - nq}{p - q}$$

where n is the total number of respondents and $\mathcal{C}(answer = Yes)$ denotes the number of occurrences respondents answered "Yes". Accordingly, the variance of it is

$$Var[\tilde{\theta}_{RR}(Yes)] =$$

However, the RR protocol only applies to binary Boolean problems, which greatlt limits its application. Therefore, in [11], two effective protocols, Generalized Random Response (GRR) and Optimized Local Hash (OLH), are proposed for the purpose of solving problems with large domain size $d = |\mathcal{X}|$.

$Generalized\ Random\ Response\ (GRR)$ [11]: GRR extends the RR protocol in case of $d \neq 2$ by setting probability

$p = \frac{e^\epsilon}{e^\epsilon+d-1}$ to give the raw answer $y = t$ and probability $q = \frac{1-p}{d-1}$ (i.e. $q = \frac{1}{e^\epsilon+d-1}$) to give the perturbed answer $y \neq t$. Specially, it has been shown that RR is the special case while $d = 2$. The shortage of GRR is that its estimated variance is linear with d, which makes poor perform when d is large:

$$Var\big[\tilde{\theta}_{GRR}(t)\big] = n \cdot \frac{d-2+e^\epsilon}{(e^\epsilon-1)^2} \tag{2}$$

$Optimized\ Local\ Hashing\ (OLH)$ [11]: In order to deal with a large domain size d as well as reduce the communication cost, OLH protocol applys a hash function to map each input value into a value in $[g]$, where $g \geq 2$ and $g \ll d$. Then randomized response is used to the hashed value in the smaller domain. In [11], the optimal choice of the parameter g is $\lceil e^\epsilon + 1 \rceil$ which meets the minimal variance.

Let H is randomly chosen from a family of hash functions that outputs a value in $[g]$ and $x = H(t)$. The perturbing protocol in OLH is $Perturb_{OLH}\big(\langle H, x\rangle\big) = \langle H, y\rangle$, where

$$\forall_{i\in[g]}\mathbf{Pr}[y=i] = \begin{cases} p = \frac{e^\epsilon}{e^\epsilon+g-1}, & \text{if } x = i \\ q = \frac{1}{e^\epsilon+g-1}, & \text{if } x \neq i \end{cases}$$

Accordingly, the aggregator first calculates the number of perturbed values that "supports" that the input is t (denote as $\mathcal{C}(t)$), then transforms $\mathcal{C}(t)$ to its unbiased estimation

$$\tilde{\theta}_{OLH}(t) := \frac{\mathcal{C}(t) - n/g}{p - 1/g} \tag{3}$$

The variance of this estimation is

$$Var\big[\tilde{\theta}_{OLH}(t)\big] = n \cdot \frac{4e^\epsilon}{(e^\epsilon-1)^2} \tag{4}$$

Intuitively, OLH has a variance that does not depend on d. In [11], it suggests that when domain size $d < 3e^\epsilon + 2$, GRR is the best among all approaches; but for large d, OLH meets high accuracy as well as low communication cost

$-------------$ In [11], the two best performing FO protocols are Generalized Random Response (GRR) and Optimized Local Hash (OLH). The former extends the randomized response (RR) technique [15], which is an old technique developed for the interviewees in a survey to give random answer to a sensitive boolean question so that they can achieve plausible deniability; the latter deals with a large domain size $|I|$ by hashing a large domain size $|I|$ to a smaller size g and applying RR to the hashed value. It was found that GRR offers the best accuracy than OLH when $|I| < 3e^\epsilon + 2$, where $|I|$ is the size of the domain of items under consideration. Therefore, in [2], an adaptive FO protocol can be proposed from the known I as well as ϵ.

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C. FP-growth algorithm

Frequent pattern growth (FP-growth) [8] is an algorithm that mines the complete set of frequent patterns without a costly candidate generation process, which based on the frequent pattern tree (FP-tree) structure that is an extended prefix-tree structure for storing compressed, crucial information about frequent patterns. The FP-Tree is further divided into a set of Conditional FP-Trees for each frequent item so that they can be mined separately. An example of the FP-Tree that represents the frequent items is shown in Fig. 1, where the minimum support threshold is set to 3.

The FP-growth algorithm solves the problem of identifying long frequent itemsets by searching through smaller conditional FP-tree repeatedly. The conditional pattern base is a "sub-database" which consists of every prefix path in the FP-Tree that co-occurs with every frequent length-1 itemset. It is used to construct the conditional FP-tree and generate all the frequent patterns related to the length-1 items. In this way, the cost of searching for the frequent patterns is substantially reduced.

Definition 2: $(length - \alpha\ itemset)$. is this necessary?

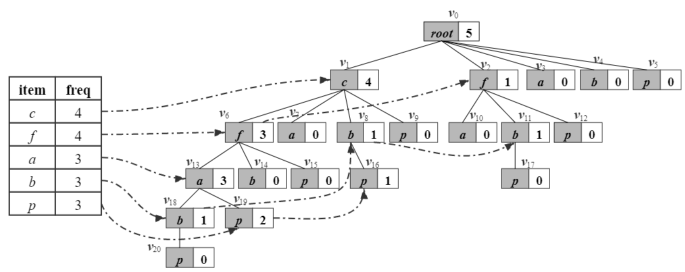

Fig. 1. Frequrnt pattern tree(FP-tree).

III. Problem Overview

A. Problem Definition

In this paper, we study the FIM problem while fully considering users' personal privacy. Or rather, we look at privacy preserving frequent itemset mining under the LDP setting. In general, let $\mathcal{X} = \{x_1, x_2, ..., x_d\ \}$ denote the whole domain of items, X is a length-$|X|$ itemset where $X \subseteq \mathcal{X}$ is a subset of $\mathcal{X}$ and $|X|$ denote the cardinality of it.

There are n users, and each user has a sensitive transaction, which is a subset of $\mathcal{X}$. Formally, the transaction of i-th user is $T_i(i \in [1, n])$ and $\mathcal{T} = \langle T_1, T_2, ..., T_n\rangle$ denote the whole transaction database. An untrusted data analyst (or aggregator) is going to mining $top - k$ most tfrequent itemsets and their frquencies among all users under ϵ-LDP. More specifically, we aim to mine k length-α itemset with highest frequencies, where $\alpha \geq 2$.

Table II lists the notations used in this paper

B. Existing Approaches to FIM under LDP

Since Qin et al. [1] first introduce set-valued data to differential privacy in the local setting for the purpose of discovering heavy hitters as well as their frequencies, it has been a challenge that mining frequent itemsets from all sanitized data. To the best of our konwledge, only SVSM [2] protocol that implements effectively FIM task in context of LDP. Particularly, it focuses on mining $top - k$ most frequent length-α $(\alpha > 1)$ itemsets while utilizing SVIM [2] protocol

TABLE II
NOTATIONS.

Symbol	Description
n	the number of users
X	the itemset
$\|X\|$	the cardinality of itemset X
$\mathcal{T}$	the transaction database
T_i	the transaction of user i
$\mathcal{X}$	the set of items
d	the number of items, $d = \|\mathcal{X}\|$

that obtains the frequent items (or length-1 itemsets) as initial condition to construct candidate set. Details as follows.

$Set-Value\ Item\ Mining\ (SVIM)$: SVIM is a PSFO protocol with the same problem setting as LDPMiner [1], which aimming at discovering the k frequent items with highest frequencies. It has four steps and splits the privacy budget ϵ into three parts.

1. Prune the Domain ($\epsilon_1 - LDP$). The goal is to identify a candidate set for items so that it can reduce the domian size into $2k$, which is greatly less than the domain d. In this step, each user uses FO to perturb a randomly sampled item from his raw data. Then, the analyst estimates the frequency of each value in the domain and selects the $2k$ frequent items with highest frequencies. The analyst broadcasts the domain set S pruned to all users.

2. Size Estimation ($\epsilon_2 - LDP$). To further estimate the frequency of the set S, it is necessary to approximate the distribution of the number of frequent items that users hold. Thus, the perturbing data of each user is the size of the raw data intersected with the set S. After the perturbing of users finishes, the alalyst estimates the length distribution and calculates the $\beta = 90\%$ length L by

$$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{L}\tilde{\theta}(i)}{\sum_{i=1}^{2k}\tilde{\theta}(i)} > \beta \tag{5}$$

3. Frequencies Estimation ($\epsilon_3 - LDP$). Once the analyst gets S and L, it will use PSFO protocol to precisely estimate the frequencies of the items in small domian S. That is, each user in this step first pads his pruned data, which is the raw data intersected with S, to length L, then utilizes FO protocol for perturbing the item that randomly choose to report.

Finally, the analyst estimates the frequency of each item in S from all sanitized data. To ensure the estimation is unbiased, the estimated frequency needs to be multiplied by the length L.

4. Estimation Update. Due to the length is the 90th percentile length, which may lead to an underestimate. In order to improve the accuracy of the estimations, an update factor $u(L)$ is defined for correcting this under estimation. Practically, in this step, every frequency estimated is multiplied with the update factor,

$$u(L) := \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{2k}\tilde{\theta}(i)}{\sum_{i=1}^{2k}\tilde{\theta}(i) - \sum_{i=L+1}^{2k}\tilde{\theta}(i)(i-L)}$$

TABLE III
PREPROCESSED TRANSACTIONAL DATA.

TID	List of items
T01	c, f, a, p
T02	c, f, a, b
T03	f, b
T04	c, b, p
T05	c, f, a, p

where $\tilde{\theta}(i)$ is the length distribution of length i estimated from step two.

Additionally, it is important to note that this step is the post-processing (Theorem 2.2) in differential privacy and does not consume the privacy budget because informations are obtained from previous steps and there is no user involved.

When all the steps are done, the k items with highest frequencies are selected with high confidence.

$Set-Value\ itemSet\ Mining\ (SVSM)$: As mentioned above, SVSM protocol needs to know the $top-k$ frequent items, denoted by S'. Then, to constructe candidate set, the guessing frequency of each exponentially possible itemset that made up of items in S' is calculated by (1), and the domain IS is the constructed set that selects $top-2k$ itemsets with highest guessing frequencies.

While the domain of candidate itemsets is pruned, it may use following steps (two to four) for mining frequent itemsets. In particular, every user's sensitive data in SVSM is the power set of his raw data, which consist of a set of itemsets.

IV. A BASELINE FP-TREE-BASED APPROACH

In this section, we first introduce a simple FP-tree-based approach to discover $top-k$ most frequent itemsets under LDP. The main challenge is that the analyst is unable to access users' raw data so that it is rather difficult to accurately construct a FP-tree. In [8], the FP-tree is constructed by scanning each user's transaction and updating nodes with frequent items that user holds in a depth-first manner. We observe that it enables to construct the FP-tree in a breadth-first manner if the count of nodes in each layer is known, which may be implemented through the FO protocols. Inspired by this, we propose a breadth-first approach called BLmine for costructing FP-tree layer by layer under LDP setting. Specifically, let L_m is the longest transaction length, and $S' = \left[x^1 : \tilde{f}(x^1), x^2 : \tilde{f}(x^2), ..., x^k : \tilde{f}(x^k)\right]$ denote the sorted sequence of k frequent items as well as their frequencies, where $\tilde{f}(x^i)$ denote the frequency of a frequent item x^i and for any $i > j$, it has $\tilde{f}(x^i) \geq \tilde{f}(x^j)$.

The BLmine approach has two phase:

Phase I Preprocessing. All participating users first delete infrequent items in their transactions and then rearrange the rest in order of items in S', that is $x_1 \succ x_2 \succ \cdots \succ x_k$, where $x_i \succ x_{i+1}$ means that x_i is more frequent than x_{i+1}. For example, the frequent items in Table I is order by $c \succ f \succ a \succ b \succ p$ while the minimum support threshold is set to 3, and then the preprocessed transactional data is shown in Table III.

Additionally, after the preprocessing step finishes, when $k \ll d$, there are many infrequent items discarded, which reduces significantly the size of candidate sets and achieves good performance because of the Apriori property [10]: $only\ the\ length - \alpha\ itemset\ is\ frequent,\ its\ length - (\alpha + 1)\ superset\ is\ likely\ to\ be\ frequent.$

Phase II Constructing the FP-tree In contrast to FP-growth, we propose a breadth-first approach to construct the FP-tree layer by layer in the local setting. Algorithm 1 introduces the specific process in detail. We remark on the main points.

- A node v in the FP-tree has two fields: $v.item$ and $v.count$, where denote the indicated item of node v and the number of its prefix $pre(v)$ in transactions respectively.
- We arrange items in users' transactions in a given order of frequnet items identified, which is similar to the original algorithm.
-

Algorithm 1 BLmine(ϵ, S', L_m)

Randomly and evenly divide all users into L_m groups $g_1, g_2, ..., g_{L_m}$ with $n_g = \lfloor \frac{n}{L_m} \rfloor$ users each;
Initialize the tree with a root node v_r containing the dummy value;
Initialize the count of v_r is n_g and mark it as valid;
Preprocess transactions of all participating users;
for $l = 1$ to L_m **do**
    while there exists a valid node v with count is great than 0 **do**
        Initialize a candidate prefix set $C_l = \emptyset$;
        Mark v as unvalid;
        for each item $x \in S'$ and $v.item \succ x.item$ **do**
            Add a child v_c of v with item is x and count is 0;
            Mark v_c as valid and compute its prefix $pre(v_c)$;
            Add the $pre(v_c)$ to candidate prefix set C_l;
        end for
    end while
    if C_l is $\emptyset$ **then**
        Break;
    end if
    for each users in group g_l **do**
        Perturbe his first l items with OLH protocol for collecting and updating an estimation count $\tilde{\theta}(v)$ of each node v, whose prefix is in C_l;
    end for
end for
return The root node v_r.

V. Ease of Use

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- Avoid combining SI and CGS units, such as current in amperes and magnetic field in oersteds. This often leads to confusion because equations do not balance dimensionally. If you must use mixed units, clearly state the units for each quantity that you use in an equation.
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Number equations consecutively. To make your equations more compact, you may use the solidus (/), the exp function, or appropriate exponents. Italicize Roman symbols for quantities and variables, but not Greek symbols. Use a long dash rather than a hyphen for a minus sign. Punctuate equations with commas or periods when they are part of a sentence, as in:

$$a + b = \gamma \tag{6}$$

Be sure that the symbols in your equation have been defined before or immediately following the equation. Use "(6)", not "Eq. (6)" or "equation (6)", except at the beginning of a sentence: "Equation (6) is . . ."

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Please use "soft" (e.g., `\eqref{Eq}`) cross references instead of "hard" references (e.g., `(1)`). That will make it possible to combine sections, add equations, or change the order of figures or citations without having to go through the file line by line.

Please don't use the `{eqnarray}` equation environment. Use `{align}` or `{IEEEeqnarray}` instead. The `{eqnarray}` environment leaves unsightly spaces around relation symbols.

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- The subscript for the permeability of vacuum μ_0, and other common scientific constants, is zero with subscript formatting, not a lowercase letter "o".
- In American English, commas, semicolons, periods, question and exclamation marks are located within quotation marks only when a complete thought or name is cited, such as a title or full quotation. When quotation marks are used, instead of a bold or italic typeface, to highlight a word or phrase, punctuation should appear outside of the quotation marks. A parenthetical phrase or statement at the end of a sentence is punctuated outside of the closing parenthesis (like this). (A parenthetical sentence is punctuated within the parentheses.)
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- In your paper title, if the words "that uses" can accurately replace the word "using", capitalize the "u"; if not, keep using lower-cased.
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- Do not confuse "imply" and "infer".
- The prefix "non" is not a word; it should be joined to the word it modifies, usually without a hyphen.
- There is no period after the "et" in the Latin abbreviation "et al.".
- The abbreviation "i.e." means "that is", and the abbreviation "e.g." means "for example".

An excellent style manual for science writers is [23].

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Text heads organize the topics on a relational, hierarchical basis. For example, the paper title is the primary text head because all subsequent material relates and elaborates on this one topic. If there are two or more sub-topics, the next level head (uppercase Roman numerals) should be used and, conversely, if there are not at least two sub-topics, then no subheads should be introduced.

H. Figures and Tables

a) Positioning Figures and Tables: Place figures and tables at the top and bottom of columns. Avoid placing them in the middle of columns. Large figures and tables may span across both columns. Figure captions should be below the figures; table heads should appear above the tables. Insert figures and tables after they are cited in the text. Use the abbreviation "Fig. 2", even at the beginning of a sentence.

Figure Labels: Use 8 point Times New Roman for Figure labels. Use words rather than symbols or abbreviations when writing Figure axis labels to avoid confusing the reader. As an

TABLE IV
TABLE TYPE STYLES

Table Head	Table Column Head		
	Table column subhead	***Subhead***	***Subhead***
copy	More table copy[a]		

[a]Sample of a Table footnote.

Fig. 2. Example of a figure caption.

example, write the quantity "Magnetization", or "Magnetization, M", not just "M". If including units in the label, present them within parentheses. Do not label axes only with units. In the example, write "Magnetization (A/m)" or "Magnetization {A[m(1)]}", not just "A/m". Do not label axes with a ratio of quantities and units. For example, write "Temperature (K)", not "Temperature/K".

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The preferred spelling of the word "acknowledgment" in America is without an "e" after the "g". Avoid the stilted expression "one of us (R. B. G.) thanks ...". Instead, try "R. B. G. thanks...". Put sponsor acknowledgments in the unnumbered footnote on the first page.

REFERENCES

Please number citations consecutively within brackets [17]. The sentence punctuation follows the bracket [18]. Refer simply to the reference number, as in [19]—do not use "Ref. [19]" or "reference [19]" except at the beginning of a sentence: "Reference [19] was the first ..."

Number footnotes separately in superscripts. Place the actual footnote at the bottom of the column in which it was cited. Do not put footnotes in the abstract or reference list. Use letters for table footnotes.

Unless there are six authors or more give all authors' names; do not use "et al.". Papers that have not been published, even if they have been submitted for publication, should be cited as "unpublished" [20]. Papers that have been accepted for publication should be cited as "in press" [21]. Capitalize only the first word in a paper title, except for proper nouns and element symbols.

For papers published in translation journals, please give the English citation first, followed by the original foreign-language citation [22].

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