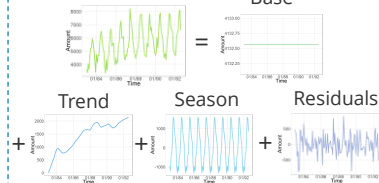


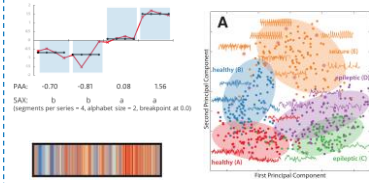
Summary

- Architecture of Database Systems
- Transaction Management
- Modern Database Technology
- Data Warehouses and OLAP
- Data Mining
- Big Data Analytics

Time Series & TS Decomposition

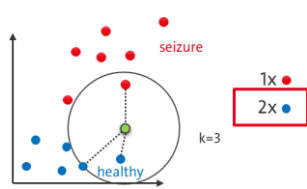


Data Preprocessing for Time Series

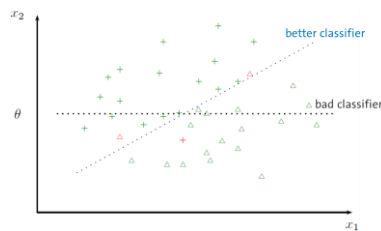


Data Mining Applications: Classification

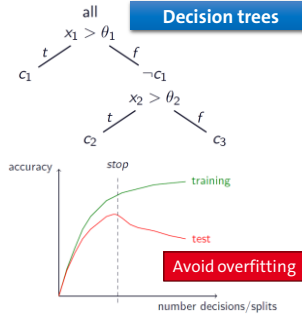
kNN



Threshold based



Decision trees



Evaluation of Classifications

Basic idea: Reserve some labelled data for evaluation

Held out data

- 30-50% of the data is reserved for testing
- Error estimation depends on partitioning → repeat the measurement with different partitionings and average the results

Leave one out

- Use $n - 1$ samples for training and evaluate on the n -th one
- Repeat with all n samples
- Extremely expensive

N-fold cross validation

- Combines hold-out and leave-one-out
- Divide data set into p partitions
- Use $p - 1$ partitions for training; evaluate on the remaining one
- Repeat with different partitionings

Error rate

$$e = \frac{|M|}{|S|}$$

Misclassified test objects
Test set

Accuracy

$$a = 1 - e = \frac{|S| - |M|}{|S|}$$

Contrastive analysis: comparison with a baseline case

- Absolute improvement/degradation:

$$\Delta_{\text{abs}} a = a_n - a_{n-1}$$

$$\Delta_{\text{abs}} e = e_n - e_{n-1}$$

- Relative improvement/degradation:

$$\Delta_{\text{rel}} a = (a_n - a_{n-1}) / a_{n-1}$$

$$\Delta_{\text{rel}} e = (e_n - e_{n-1}) / e_{n-1}$$

- Essential difference between absolute and relative improvement/degradation
- Often used manipulation:
 - Relative improvement for positive effects
 - Absolute improvement for negative (adverse) effects
- There are more error measures, e.g. weighted error measures

Further important quality aspects

- Compactness, e.g. size of the decision tree (size determines classification time)
- Interpretability (how many insights can be imparted by the classifier to the user?)
- Efficiency of the construction process and application of the constructed

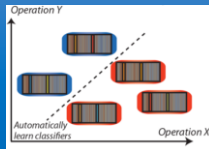
classifier

- Scalability with respect to large data sets (construction as well as application)
- Robustness against noise and missing values

Data Mining Applications

Classification

- Detect characteristics that describe different classes, such that objects can be assigned to classes
- Find a mapping $f: D \rightarrow C$ that assigns objects to classes



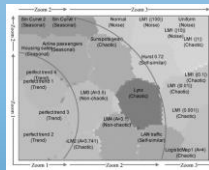
Forecasting (time series)

- Fit a model to a given time series and other influences
- Extrapolate series for prediction



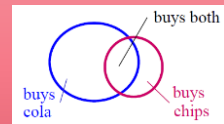
Clustering

- Automatic identification of a finite set of categories, classes, or groups (clusters) in the given data
- Data points are grouped according to their inherent structure



Association Rules/Dependency Mining

- Prediction of events commonly occurring together, e.g. which items are often purchased together
- Not applicable to time series



- Definition of the optimal clustering depends on
 - Application domain (i.e. structure/semantics of the data, meaning of distance)
 - Data mining target (i.e. object correlations that should be detected)
- Computing the optimal clustering is computationally infeasible → greedy, sub-optimal approaches
- Different clustering algorithms might lead to different clustering results

Clustering of Time Series

Goal

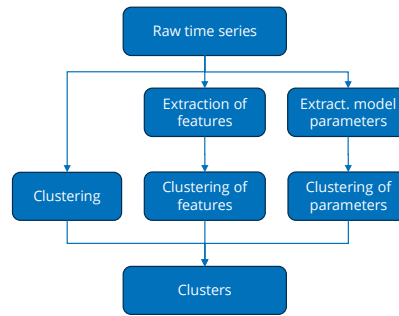
Partition a set of time series into groups in such a way that homogenous time series are grouped together

Challenges

- Often too large to fit in main memory
- Highly dimensional and it is difficult for clustering algorithms to handle them
- Homogeneity strongly depends on the selected similarity measure

Applications

- Which patterns appear frequently?
- Which patterns appear surprisingly?

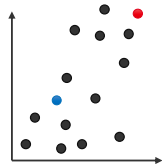


5

- Raw-value-based approach
 - Raw time series is matched as well as possible
 - Usage of stretching and contraction
- Feature-based approach
 - Reduce time series to feature vector
 - Similarity of vector, usually by Euclidean distance
- Model-based approach
 - Fit a model to each given time series
 - Time series distances are calculated based on model parameters

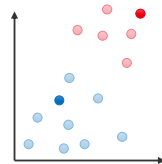
Clustering Methods

K-Means



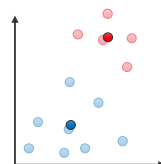
Step 1: Randomly choose k centroids

Canopy Clustering



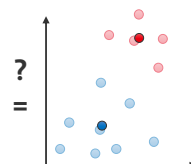
Step 2: Assign all elements to the cluster of the nearest centroid

Hierarchical Clustering



Step 3: Compute centroid of each cluster, e.g. arithmetic mean

Incremental Clustering



Step 4: Does the new centroid change clustering?
Yes: Done
No: Go to step 2

Other possible termination criteria:

- Number of iterations
- Clustering changes only minimally
- ...



Data Mining

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- Also works with 1 dimension or more than 2 dimensions (if an according distance measure exists)

Problems:

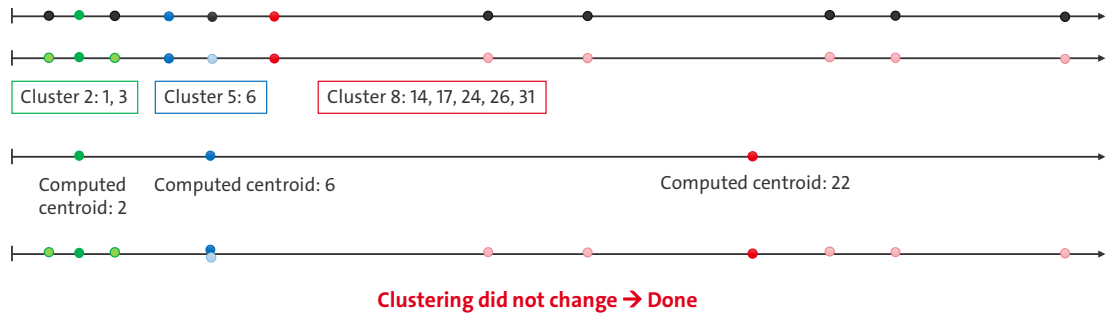
- Converges to local minima, i.e. the clustering is not necessarily optimal
- Workaround: Start the algorithm several times
- Relatively high effort to compute distances and cluster centroids

Example K-Means

1, 3, 6, 14, 17, 24, 26, 31

$K=3$

Randomly chosen centroids: 2, 5, 8



Exercise K-Means

- Clustering of the numbers 1, 3, 6, 14, 17, 24, 26, 31
- $k=3$
- Centroids randomly chosen in step 1: 10, 21, 29



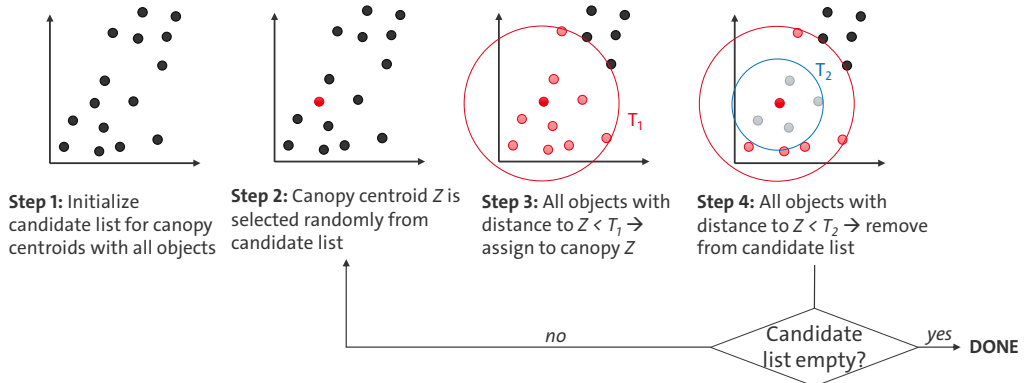
Clustering Methods

K-Means

Canopy Clustering

Hierarchical Clustering

Incremental Clustering



10

Data Mining

Construction of overlapping clusters (canopies)

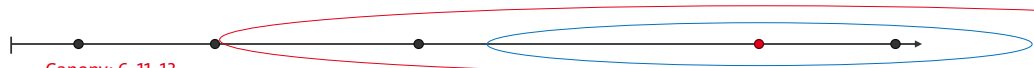
- Non-Partitioning Clustering
- Often used as a first step in a multi-step analysis approach
- Scalable for large data sets
- Can be used for string data
- Requires distance function and 2 thresholds T_1 and T_2 ($T_1 > T_2$)

Canopy Clustering Example

Clustering of the numbers 1, 3, 6, 11, 13

$T_1 = 8, T_2 = 4$

Randomly selected centroid: 11



Canopy: 6, 11, 13

Remove 11 and 13 from the candidate list → candidate list: 1, 3, 6

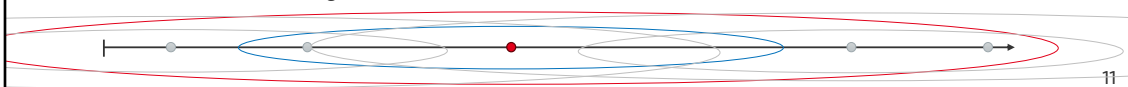
→ Randomly selected centroid from candidate list: 1



Canopy: 1, 3, 6

Remove 1 and 3 from the candidate list → candidate list: 6

→ Select last remaining centroid from candidate list: 6



Canopy: 1, 3, 6, 11, 13 → No candidates left → Done

11



Data Mining

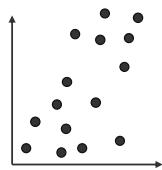
Clustering Methods

K-Means

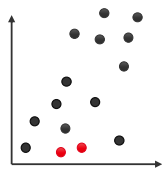
Canopy Clustering

Hierarchical Clustering

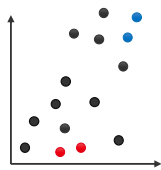
Incremental Clustering



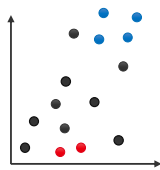
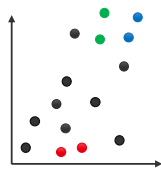
Step 1: Each data point is an individual cluster



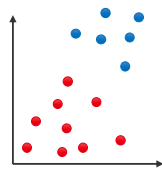
Step 2: Merge least distant clusters into a new cluster



Step 3: Repeat



...



Step 4: Stop if all clusters have been merged or the minimal cluster distance exceeds a predefined threshold

Clustering Methods

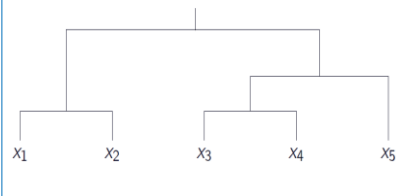
K-Means

Canopy Clustering

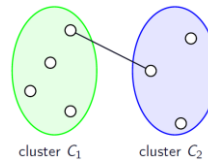
Hierarchical Clustering

Incremental Clustering

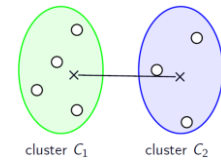
Results can be displayed as a dendrogram



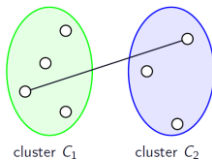
Distance measures for clusters



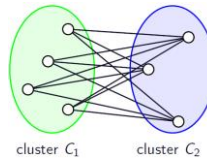
Single link
Minimal distance between two data points



Canonical entity
Distance between two cluster representatives (e.g. the centroids)

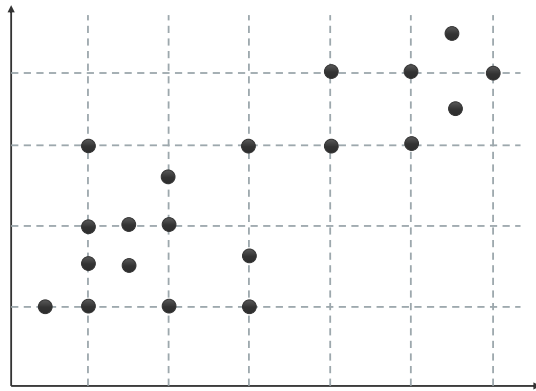


Complete link
Maximal distance between two data points



Average link
Average distance between two data points

Exercise: Hierarchical Clustering



- Distance: Complete link
- Stop when minimal cluster distance > 4

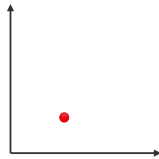
Clustering Methods

K-Means

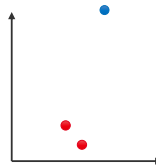
Canopy Clustering

Hierarchical Clustering

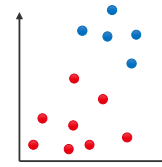
Incremental Clustering



Step 1: Assign first data point(s) to the first cluster(s)



Step 2: Assign new data points to an existing cluster or create a new cluster



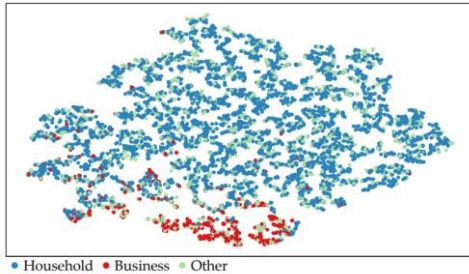
Step 3: Recompute cluster description and continue until all data points were processed

- Is a concept to enable the use of clustering algorithms, e.g. k-means, with large data sets, i.e. data sets which do not fit into main memory
- Problem: Result depends on the order in which data points are processed

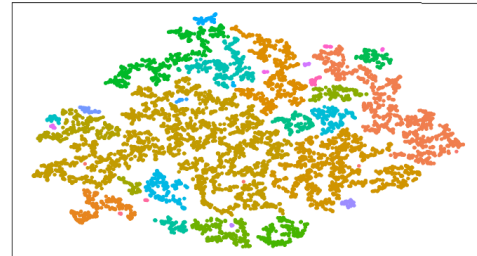
Cluster description consists at least of

- Centroid
- Number of data points in the cluster
- “Radius” of the cluster (e.g. the maximal distance of a point to the centroid)

Clustering Time Series



(a) Class-based



(b) Feature-based

[1]

Metering Dataset

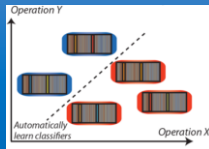
[1] Source: Feature-based Time Series Analytics, Lars Kegel, 2020

Class-based: Dataset provides class labels

Data Mining Applications

Classification

- Detect characteristics that describe different classes, such that objects can be assigned to classes
- Find a mapping $f: D \rightarrow C$ that assigns objects to classes



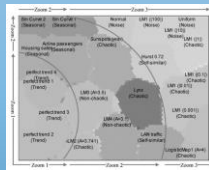
Forecasting (time series)

- Fit a model to a given time series and other influences
- Extrapolate series for prediction



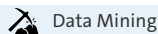
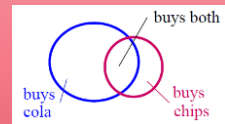
Clustering

- Automatic identification of a finite set of categories, classes, or groups (clusters) in the given data
- Data points are grouped according to their inherent structure



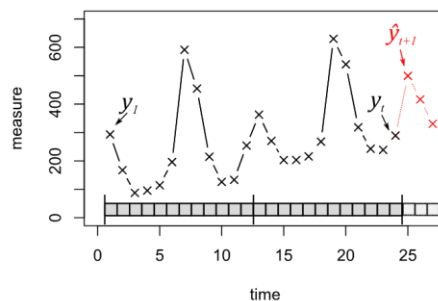
Association Rules/Dependency Mining

- Prediction of events commonly occurring together, e.g. which items are often purchased together
- Not applicable to time series

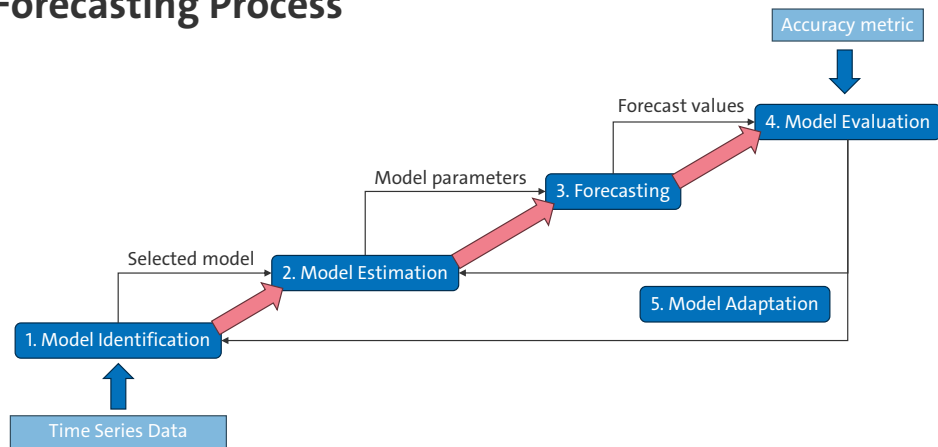


Forecast Models

- One model represents one time series
- Trend (long-term changes)
- Season (regular reoccurring changes)
- Accuracy is the only requirement

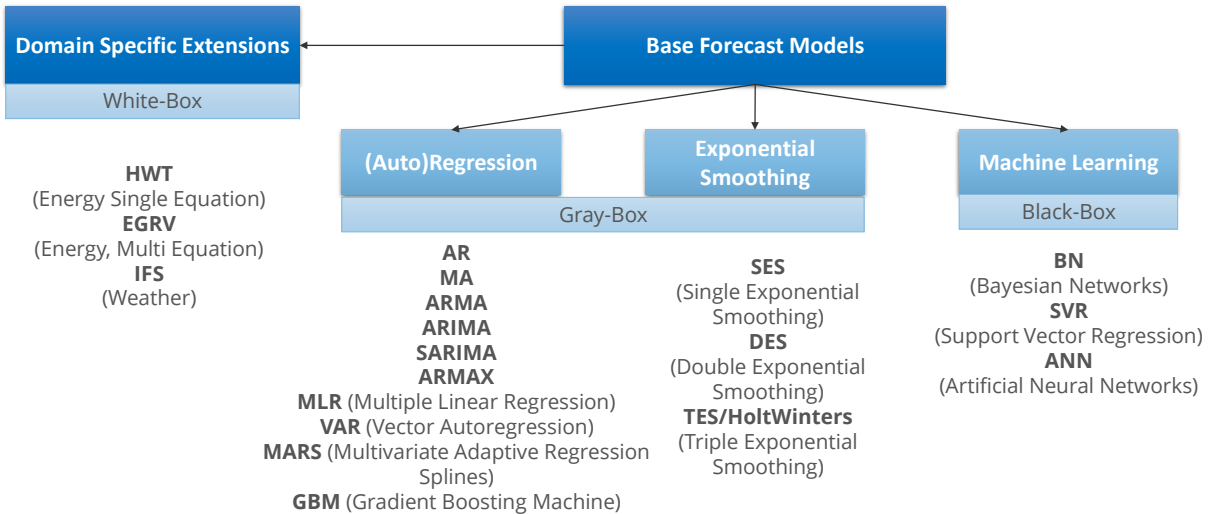


The Forecasting Process



1. **Model Identification** – Choose the optimal model type
2. **Model Estimation** – Instantiation of the model by training its model parameters
3. **Forecasting** – Usage of the model to calculate the next time series values
4. **Model Evaluation** – Compare the model's results with real time series values using an error measure
5. **Model Adaption** – Adaption of the model parameters or the model type

Model Types



Exponential Smoothing

Weight time series values with smoothing factor

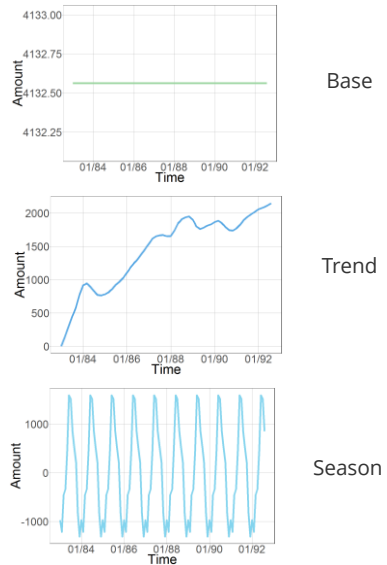
- Declines exponentially for older time series values

Model variants

- Simple Exponential Smoothing (SESM): Base
- Double Exponential Smoothing (DESM): Base, Trend
- Triple Exponential Smoothing (TESM): Base, Trend, Season Holt-Winters-Model

Example Base:

$$\begin{aligned}x_1^* &= x_1 \\x_t^* &= \alpha \cdot x_t + (1 - \alpha) \cdot x_{t-1}^* \\ \hat{x}_{t+1}^* &= x_t^*\end{aligned}$$



Further Reading

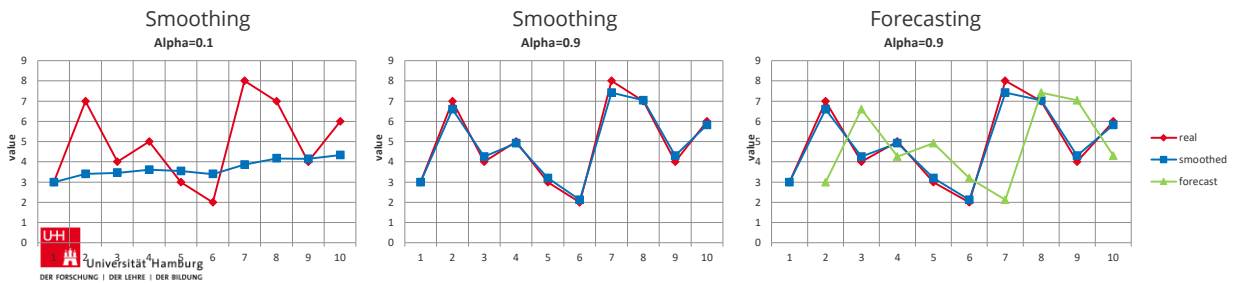
Holt, C. C. (2004). Forecasting seasonals and trends by exponentially weighted moving averages. *International Journal of Forecasting*, 20(1).

Exponential Smoothing

Example Single Exponential Smoothing

Base: $x_1^* = x_1$
 $x_t^* = \alpha \cdot x_t + (1 - \alpha) \cdot x_{t-1}^*$ Smoothing
 $\hat{x}_{t+1} = x_t^*$ Forecasting

t	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
x_t	3	7	4	5	3	2	8	7	4	6
x_t^* ($\alpha=0.9$)	3	6.6	4.26	4.926	3.19	2.12	7.412	7.041	4.304	5.83



- Often bad results for data with a trend → double/triple exponential smoothing
- Double exponential smoothing: Include the difference between data points and smooth it
- Triple exponential smoothing: Include and smooth seasonal correction factors, different smoothing factors for base, trend, and season possible