
Data Cleaning using Probabilistic Models of Integrity Constraints

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Abstract

1 In data cleaning, data quality rules provide a valuable tool for enforcing the correct
2 application of semantics on a dataset. Traditional rule discovery techniques assume
3 a reasonably clean dataset, and fail when faced with a dirty one. Enforcement of
4 these rules for error detection is much less effective when mined on dirty data.

5 In the databases literature, a popular and expressive type of logic-based data quality
6 rule (or Integrity Constraint) is the *constant Conditional Functional Dependency*
7 (cCFD) [Fan et al., 2011], which can be easily understood by a data analyst.

8 We introduce a probabilistic model that combines error detection and rule induction
9 (cCFDs), we show that this methodology performs better than just traditional
10 logic-based error detection. Moreover, after inference is performed, we provide a
11 set of rules which is statistically sound and with low redundancy. To the best of
12 our knowledge this is the first work to combine statistical anomaly detection with
13 logic-based approaches to data cleaning.

14 1 Introduction

15 In practical machine learning, usually a data scientist has to spend 80% of his time wrangling and
16 checking consistency of the data [Kandel et al., 2012]. In industry, most of the data usually comes in
17 tabular (e.g. CSV files, Excel sheets), or from a different perspective, relational form (e.g. relational
18 database systems).

19 The most common data science pipeline starts with raw data, often dirty. Error detection is an
20 important step in data cleaning. Dirty data usually has a number of issues, and data quality rules have
21 to be enforced and updated constantly in order to keep value to the business, such that predictions are
22 made on solid foundation.

23 In fact, there is a need to infer, apply and monitor data quality rules, particular those for tabular
24 datasets. Data repairing, often uses these rules that are either inferred automatically, by a data analyst
25 or knowledge expert. Moreover, these rules are often part of the schema (i.e. blueprint) of relational
26 databases. In reality, it is unrealistic to expect a human to perform rule discovery for data quality,
27 particularly without any tools given the intricacy and the size of today’s datasets.

28 We tackled this problem from a probabilistic point-of-view, trying to provide an algorithm for error
29 detection, and robust rule induction for cCFDs - by removing redundant and spurious rules from a
30 candidate set. Traditional approaches for CFD and cCFD induction are defined in [Fan et al., 2011].

31 Our probabilistic model (graphical model) was implemented using *Structural Expectation Maxi-*
32 *mization* (SEM) in [Friedman, 1998]. We attempt robust rule induction, and show that traditional
33 discovery techniques do not perform as well.

34 We obtained good results for error detection with our model: both with the set of rules induced, and
 35 directly from the model itself. The final set of induced rules was reduced, thus less redundant. We
 36 obtain better results than traditional techniques under significant noise.

37 2 Related work

38 In the data cleaning pipeline, one of the first steps towards cleaning the dataset is to detect errors.
 39 Often, error detection can be reduced to the problem of anomaly detection, particularly in tabular
 40 datasets. In tabular datasets, quantitative or logic-based methods can be used to detect anomalies. The
 41 quantitative approach is statistically inspired, meanwhile the logic-based can use integrity constraints
 42 or data quality rules, as well as user-defined data transformations.

43 Formally, error detection using integrity constraints (ICs) usually involves detecting the tuples (rows)
 44 that violate a set of constraints seen as describing the dataset. Recently, two good surveys have been
 45 published [Ilyas and Chu, 2015] and [Fan, 2015] on data cleaning, mostly focusing on logic-based
 46 approaches.

47 On the other hand, in quantitative error detection, there has been considerable work in outlier
 48 detection for quantitative data, as seen in survey [Hellerstein, 2008]. Most of this work is based on
 49 robust estimators, and methods for univariate and multivariate outlier detection, but it also contains
 50 observations on relational data. A tutorial on outlier detection can be found in [Kriegel et al., 2009].
 51 Methods have also been developed for distributional change detection in [Dasu et al., 2009].

52 3 Preliminary Definitions

53 Let R be a relational schema, and I an instance of that schema. A relational schema usually refers
 54 to the organization of a dataset as a blueprint of how an overall database is constructed, that is the
 55 number of tables and the number of columns and domain of each column. This can involve rules
 56 called integrity constraints, on the type of data accepted - formatting and values.

57 For instance, one can have rules on the behaviour of single columns of a table (features of a dataset), or
 58 rules that mix multiple columns. Attributes (features) of R are denoted as $attr(R) = \{A_1, \dots, A_m\}$,
 59 and for each attribute A in R , let $dom(A)$ denote the domain of A . I consists of a set of tuples (rows
 60 in a table, or examples in dataset), each of which belongs to the domain $dom(A_1) \times \dots \times dom(A_m)$.
 61 One also assumes that there is a unique tuple identifier associated with each tuple $t \in I$. Further, one
 62 can denote a cell of attribute A of a tuple t in I by $I(t[A])$, or by simply writing $t[A]$.

63 3.1 Definition and Discovery of constant CFDs

64 A Functional Dependency (FD) $s = X \rightarrow Y$, where $X \subseteq attr(R)$ and $Y \subseteq attr(R)$ are sets of
 65 attributes (features), define a dependency between attributes. A dataset I with schema R supports
 66 FD s if for any two tuples t_α, t_β in I if $t_\alpha[X] = t_\beta[X]$ then $t_\alpha[Y] = t_\beta[Y]$ is true. Relevant rule
 67 induction algorithms for FDs include TANE ([Huhtala et al., 1999]) and FastFD ([Wyss et al., 2001]).

68 This means that for any two tuples sharing the same value for attributes X , but different values
 69 for attribute(s) Y , there must be an error in either tuple. Usually, one denotes X as being the
 70 left-hand-side LHS(s) and Y as being the right-hand-side RHS(s).

71 A constant Conditional Functional Dependency (cCFD) s over R is a pair $(X \rightarrow Y, t_p)$. $X \rightarrow Y$ is a
 72 standard FD. The pattern tuple t_p with attributes (features) in X and Y , where for each $B \in X \cup Y$,
 73 is such that $t_p[B]$ is a set of constants $a \in dom(B)$. Moreover, one could enforce $|Y| = 1$, i.e.
 74 RHS(s) has one attribute (feature) only. Traditional logic-only induction algorithms for mining CFDs
 75 are defined in [Fan et al., 2011], where the author defines an extension to both TANE and FastFD,
 76 meanwhile CFDMiner (for cCFDs only) builds upon concepts of *Association Rule* mining. These
 77 traditional methods assume that rules to be mined have confidence level 1 (100 %), i.e. I completely
 78 supports s . Note however that a confidence level 1 assumption is not always true for cCFD induction
 79 in a dirty dataset I .

80 cCFDs can be obtained for a dataset I using non-redundant *Association Rule* mining techniques like
 81 [Szathmary et al., 2007], and then splitting their RHS(s) such that only rules with $|RHS(s)| = 1$ are
 82 obtained. These mined cCFDs can then be used as candidate rules to be selected by our model.

83 4 Generative Model of the Dataset

84 We present a probabilistic model for a tuple $t \in N$ in dataset I , with $N = |I|$, assuming a known set
85 of cCFDs named \mathcal{S} . The graphical model in Figure 1 defines our approach.

86 The generative story for our graphical model can be defined for each tuple (example) $t \in N$ and
87 attribute (feature) A , such that each cell value $x_{t[A]} \in \mathbf{x}_t$ can be drawn from either: $P_{data}(x_{t[A]})$ the
88 clean data model (e.g. density model, belief network); or $P_{noise}(x_{t[A]})$ noise model (e.g. uniform
89 distribution for standard outlier detection); or $\mathcal{F}_s(\mathbf{x}_{t[v]}|u_{ts}, \mathbf{z}_{t[v]})$ a deterministic factor for each cCFD
90 rule $s \in \mathcal{S}$ that is defined as 1 if the rule exists or is not violated in t , 0 otherwise.

91 This approach can be seen as a mixture of experts with binary gating functions, selecting between the
92 model of clean data, the deterministic factor(s) of the logical rule(s) available in \mathcal{S} , or a noise model
93 defining an outlier. For this purpose, two different indicator variables \mathbf{z}_t and \mathbf{u}_t are defined.

94 Variable $z_{t[A]} \in \mathbf{z}_t$ defines whether attribute (feature) in t is considered clean with $z_{t[A]} = 1$, or dirty
95 with $z_{t[A]} = 0$. One can define a Bernoulli prior on $z_{t[A]}$, such that $z_{t[A]} \sim \text{Bern}(\theta_A)$, with θ_A how
96 clean attribute (feature) A is.

97 Further, the model is learning the set of cCFD rules \mathcal{S} , and it provides an indicator variable u_{ts} for the
98 support of each rule $s \in \mathcal{S}$ by tuple t , allowing multiple rules to generate $x_{t[A]}$. We say that a cCFD
99 rule is supported by t if for rule $s = (X \rightarrow Y, t_p)$, given attributes $v \in X \cup Y$, the pattern tuple of s
100 supports the attributes in t , such that their values $t_p[v] = x_{t[v]}$, and associated hidden variables $z_{t[v]}$
101 are considered clean ($= 1$) for all in v . The factor $\mathcal{F}_s(\mathbf{x}_{t[v]}|u_{ts}, \mathbf{z}_{t[v]})$ is defined as follows:

$$\mathcal{F}_s(\mathbf{x}_{t[v]}|u_{ts}, \mathbf{z}_{t[v]}) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } u_{ts} = 1, \mathbf{z}_{t[v]} = 1, \text{ and } \mathbf{x}_{t[X]} = t_p[X], \text{ and } \mathbf{x}_{t[Y]} \neq t_p[Y] \\ 1, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

102 Intuitively, $\mathcal{F}_s(\mathbf{x}_{t[v]}|u_{ts}, \mathbf{z}_{t[v]})$ is 0 only if t violates rule s , except that $\mathcal{F}_s(\mathbf{x}_{t[v]}|u_{ts}, \mathbf{z}_{t[v]})$ is disabled
103 if any of u_{ts} or \mathbf{z}_t is zero. Note that $\mathbf{x}_{t[X]} = t_p[X]$ means tuple t supports the values of LHS(s), and
104 $\mathbf{x}_{t[Y]} \neq t_p[Y]$ means that t does not support values of RHS(s).

105 One can now define the joint distribution of the hidden variables $z_{t[A]} \in \mathbf{z}_t$, $u_{ts} \in \mathbf{u}_t$ and visible
106 variable $x_{t[A]} \in \mathbf{x}_t$, given the Bernoulli parameters $\theta = \{\theta_A\}_1^{\text{attr}(R)}$ for each attribute (feature)
107 $A \in \text{attr}(R)$:

$$P(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{z}_t, \mathbf{u}_t | \theta) \propto \prod_{A \in \text{attr}(R)} [\theta_A P_{data}(x_{t[A]})]^{z_{t[A]}} [(1 - \theta_A) P_{noise}(x_{t[A]})]^{1 - z_{t[A]}} \prod_{s' \in \mathcal{S}} (1 - u_{ts'}) \prod_{s \in \mathcal{S}} \mathcal{F}_s(\mathbf{x}_{t[v]}|u_{ts}, \mathbf{z}_{t[v]})^{u_{ts}}$$

108 This model can be learnt using Viterbi Expectation Maximization (Hard-EM) for variables \mathbf{z}_t and \mathbf{u}_t
109 (E-Step), along with parameter θ (M-Step). Periodically, after a set of iterations of Hard-EM, we test
110 if a new rule s can be accepted into \mathcal{S} depending on whether the likelihood of the model increases,
111 otherwise candidate cCFD s is rejected. This last structural M-Step defines the Structural Expectation
112 Maximization (SEM) algorithm [Friedman, 1998], which is used to infer the whole model. Hence,
113 the model is concurrently and iteratively learning set \mathcal{S} . $P_{data}(x_{t[A]})$ can either be given, or obtained
114 as the algorithm progresses by only using clean data (i.e. $z_{t[A]} = 1$).

115 5 Results

116 For our experiments we used the Adult dataset (UCI Machine Learning Repository), with both
117 categorical and continuous features, injected with random errors (outliers and typos). Further,
118 our model (Prob-Log) used density estimation for $P_{data}(x_{t[A]})$, and a uniform distribution for
119 $P_{noise}(x_{t[A]})$, hence performing outlier detection. Our model uses the variables $z_{t[A]}$ for cell error
120 detection, and thus tuple error detection.

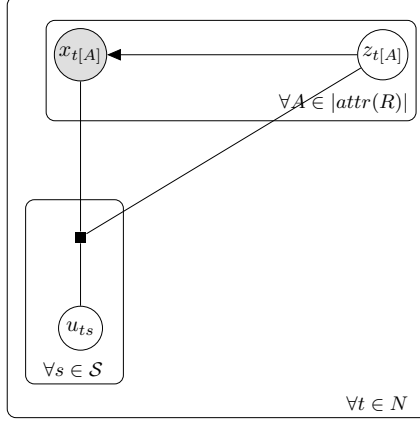


Figure 1: Graphical model for joint Error Detection and Rule Learning. Note that $x_{t[A]}$ is the only visible variable, representing the values of cells in dataset I

121 We compared our model (Prob-Log) to two other methods in error detection and rule induction
 122 (cCFDs) performance. The first traditional method, which assumes a moderately clean dataset is
 123 CFDMiner, mines for rules with confidence 1, in the *Association Rule* sense. The second is ZART
 124 which is a non-redundant *Association Rule* mining algorithm that was modified to obtain cCFDs,
 125 its definition allows for us to mine rules with confidence less than 1, thus more robust to noise.
 126 Intuitively, error detection with CFDMiner and ZART can be achieved by searching for the tuples in
 127 the dataset that violate their induced set of cCFD rules.

128 We present results for both number of rules induced (Table 1), and F-Measure for the error detection
 129 process (Figure 2). The noise is injected at random from 0 % to 20 % of the cells in the dataset. In
 130 Table 1 *low_conf* are rules mined with ZART which exhibit poor confidence in the dataset, in the
 131 *Association Rule* sense, whilst *high_conf* are high confidence rules (near 1).

132 Results in Figure 2 show that our model (Prob-Log, in purple) obtained good error detection perfor-
 133 mance, against rule-based detection using the set of cCFDs mined by ZART (Candidate Set fed into
 134 Prob-Log, in blue), CFDMiner (Ground-Truth, in red), and the rule set \mathcal{S} induced by our model (in
 135 green). Note that CFDMiner had access to the clean dataset to induce its cCFDs, thus we name it
 136 Ground-Truth.

137 Finally, results in Table 1 suggest that Prob-Log offers substantial reduction in number of cCFDs
 138 (less redundancy) without much loss in error detection performance. Particularly when the rules are
 139 more spurious (less confidence), tagged *low_conf* (Table 1).

Corruption Level	Candidate Type	ZART (Candidate Set)	Prob-Log (Set \mathcal{S})	CFDMiner
0.1 %	high_conf	58	43	1352
1 %	high_conf	46	38	538
1 %	low_conf	265	115	538
3 %	high_conf	58	48	19
5 %	high_conf	69	59	0
5 %	low_conf	248	133	0
7 %	high_conf	71	58	0
10 %	high_conf	70	54	0
10 %	low_conf	265	156	0
15 %	high_conf	66	48	0
15 %	low_conf	270	169	0
20 %	high_conf	128	86	0

Table 1: Number of Rules generated per method, for each injected noise level in Adult dataset - from 0.1% to 20 % erroneous cells, corrupted at random. Ground-Truth cCFD rules using CFDMiner registers 611 rules on the clean dataset.

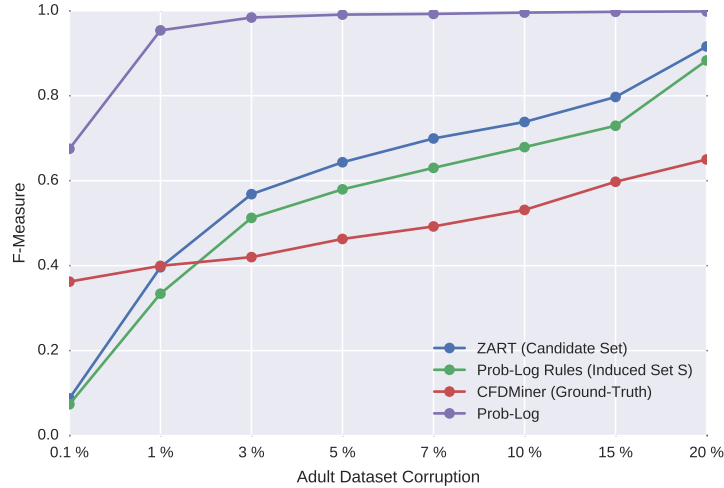


Figure 2: F-Measure of error detection per method, for each injected noise level in Adult dataset - from 0.1% to 20 % erroneous cells, corrupted at random.

Acknowledgments

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