

# INTEGRATION OF PROFILE IN OLAP SYSTEMS

Rezoug Nachida<sup>1</sup>, Omar Boussaid<sup>2</sup> and Fahima Nader<sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Science Faculty, Blida University, 42 Logts, Blida, Algeria

<sup>2</sup>Department of Computing Science, Lyon 2 University, Lyon, France

<sup>3</sup>ESI Institute, Algiers, Algeria

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**Abstract:** OLAP systems facilitate analysis by providing a multidimensional data space which decision makers explore interactively by a succession of OLAP operations. However, these systems are developed for a group of decision makers or topic analysis "subject-oriented", which are presumed, have identical needs. It makes them unsuitable for a particular use. Personalization aims to better take into account the user; first this paper presents a summary of all work undertaken in this direction with a comparative study. Secondly we developed a search algorithm for class association rules between query type and user (s) to deduce the profile of a particular user or a user set in the same category. These will be extracted from the log data file of OLAP server. For this we use a variant of prediction and explanation algorithms. These profiles then form a knowledge base. This knowledge base will be used to generate automatically a rule base (ACE), for assigning weights to the attributes of data warehouses by type of query and user preferences. More it will deduce the best contextual sequence of requests for eventual use in a recommended system.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

The OLAP applications are built to perform analytical tasks within large amount of multidimensional data. During working sessions with OLAP applications the working patterns can be various. Due to the large volumes of data the typical OLAP queries performed via OLAP operations by users may return too much information that sometimes makes further data exploration burdening or even impossible.

During an OLAP session, the user may not exactly know what she is looking for. The reasons behind a specific phenomenon or trend may be hidden, and finding those reasons by manually applying different combinations of OLAP operators may be very frustrating. Preferences enable users to specify the pattern she is searching for. Since preferences express soft constraints, the most similar data will be returned when no data exactly match that pattern. From this point of view, preference queries can be regarded as a basic OLAM (OnLine Analytical Mining) technique. How to deduce preferences of the user? That's the question? Unfortunately, until now user profile and more accurately preferences are expressed explicitly by

the user. Personalization has been intensively studied by information retrieval, information systems, and human-machine interface or in the contextual databases. In the context of data warehouses, this is an emerging theme.

### 1.1 Context and Motivations

Decision-support systems intend to help knowledge workers (executives, managers, etc.) make strategic business decisions. As enterprises face competitive pressure to increase the speed of decision making, the decision-support systems must evolve to support new initiatives, such as providing a personalized information access and helping users quickly find relevant data.

Personalization of Olap systems is one way to meet this need. It is the approach of providing an overall customized, individualized user experience by taking into account the needs, preferences and characteristics of a user or group of users (Ioannidis et al., 2005). A profile includes a set of characteristics used to configure (Explicit implication of user) or adapt (Implicit implication of user) the system to the user, to provide more appropriate responses (Korphage, 1997). It has been

proposed to characterize a profile according to user involvement and system functions (Bouzeghoub et al., 2005). If explicit involvement, the user must make interactions with the system while in an implicit involvement, the system automatically adapts to the user. The system functions related to the profile are to define the profile, then exploit it for a better consideration of the user. From these characteristics, the following figure describes the principles involved in personalization.

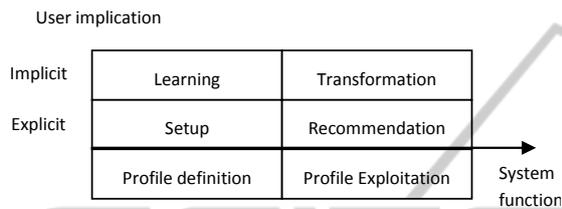


Figure 1: Personalization principles.

Exploitation of profile can require explicit user intervention which changes the system by choosing recommendations, or induce an automatic transformation system.

While personalization has been the subject of various studies in information retrieval and databases (Ioannidis et al., 2005), very few proposals aimed at personalize OLAP systems (Rizzi, 2007); (Bentayeb et al., 2009). The following table provides an overview of some existing works.

Table 1: Research summary of personalization on Olap systems.

References	Profile Definition	Profile Exploitation
(Sapia et al., 2000)	Explicit	Transformation
(Espil et al., 2001)	Explicit	Transformation
(Favre et al., 2007)	Explicit	Transformation
(Bentayeb et al., 2007)	Explicit	Transformation
(Bellatreche et al., 2005)	Explicit	Transformation
(Giacometti et al., 2008)	Implicit	Recommendation
(Jerbi et al., 2008)	Explicit	Recommendation

We note that the most of the works aim the transformation of OLAP system based on user preferences explicitly collected. Only work of (Giacometti et al., 2008) recommends queries using

the history of navigation performed by a group of users.

Several OLAP approaches provide personalized views to the decision makers focusing on different aspects (see Sect. 3 for details). However, none of them personalize schemas at the conceptual level. This may cause several problems like difficult maintenance, no independence of the target platform, evolution of the information requirements, etc. Furthermore, none of these approaches allows to apply personalization at runtime taking into account the user behaviour, but only preferences over data stated at design time. Also, current commercial OLAP tools (e.g., Oracle Discoverer or Pentaho Mondrian) take the whole multidimensional schema of the underlying data warehouse as an input and allow designers to customize it by specifying which elements of a sort are preferred over their peers.

The main drawback of this way of proceeding is that designers have to customize the schema manually, being prone to mistakes and time consuming.

To meet the challenges of more user-centered decision-support systems, OLAP tools are to be extended with preference mining techniques for detecting partial preferences in user log. These techniques must: 1) elicit user preferences; and 2) discover mappings that associate the user preferences to their related analysis contexts.

## 1.2 Aims and Contributions

In order to make the analysis easy for a user, we attend to inject in the analysis process his preferences implicitly. Then, the problem we address in this paper: how to help the user to design his preferences without his intervention.

As an answer, we propose to exploit his or the other user former navigations in the cube, and to use this information as basis for extracting his preferences in term of attributes or dimensions. To this we present a personalized OLAP system that uses both the log server, i.e., the set of former sessions on the cube, and the sequence of queries of the current session.

The personalized OLAP system relies on the following process:

- Partitioning the log to classes where witch of them contains the queries of users having same preferences or grouped sessions of the same user.
- Predicting his preferences for each dimensions and type of analysis query (display, rotate, drill-down, rollup ..... ) with using data mining methods.

- Integration of his preferences in queries of current session with using rule base basis on ECA.
- Execution of personalized queries.

Our contributions include the presentation of how deducing contextual minimum weight of each attribute per type of analysis query. These weights depend on user context analysis (per fact, dimension, and hierarchy). That is going to introduce a model of user preferences in OLAP that depend on the analysis.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows: section 2 presents the formal definitions; section 3 present an overview of personalized approaches in Olap system; section 4 introduces our personalized Olap system. Section 5 presents our experimental results. Finally section 6 concludes the paper with directions for future research.

## 2 BASIC DEFINITIONS

In this section we give the basic definitions underlying our approach. Let  $R$  be a relation instance of schema  $sh$

### 2.1 Cube and Dimensions

An  $N$ -Dimensional cube  $C$  is a tuple  $C = \langle D_1, \dots, D_n, F \rangle$  where:

- For  $i \in [1, N]$ ,  $D_i$  is a dimension of schema  $sch(D_i) = \{L_i^j, \dots, L_i^{d_i}\}$ . For every dimension  $i \in [1, N]$ , each attributes  $L_i^j$  describes a level of hierarchy,  $j$  being the depth of this level.

- $F$  is a fact table of schema  $sch(F) = \{L_1^0, \dots, L_N^0, m\}$  where  $m$  is a measure of attribute.

In the following, note that the name of a dimension  $D_i$ ,  $i \in [1, N]$  is also used to denote an attribute of active domain  $Adom(D_i) = \cup_{j=0}^{d_i} adom(L_i^j)$ . For every  $i \in [1, N]$ ,  $Adom(D_i)$  is the set of all members of dimensions  $D_i$ .

### 2.2 Cell Reference

Given an  $N$ -dimensional cube  $C$ , a cell reference (reference for short) is an  $N$ -tuple  $\langle r_1, \dots, r_N \rangle$  where  $r_i \in adom(D_i)$  for all  $i \in [1, N]$ .

Given a cube  $C$ , we denote by  $ref(C) \times ref(C)$  the set of all references of  $C$ .

### 2.3 Distance between References

Given a cube  $C$ , a distance between cell references in  $ref(C)$  is a function from  $ref(C) \times ref(C)$  to the set of real numbers.

### 2.4 Query

In this paper first, we consider simple MDX queries, viewed as set of references. Let  $= \langle D_1, \dots, D_n, F \rangle$ , be a  $N$ -dimensional cube and  $R_i \subseteq adom(D_i)$  be a set of members of dimension  $D_i$  for all. A query over an  $N$ -dimensional cube  $C$  is the set of references  $R_1 \times \dots \times R_N$ .

Given a cube  $C$ , we denote by  $query(C)$  the set of possible queries over  $C$ .

In the second way we consider an analysis query which is used by Olap system like Display, Rotate, Drill-down, Roll-up.... This type of query will be designed in the following by analysis query.

### 2.5 Distance between Queries

Given a cube  $C$ , a distance between queries in  $query(C)$  is a function from  $query(C) \times query(C)$  to the set of real numbers.

### 2.6 User Session

Given a cube  $C$ , a user session  $s = \langle q_1, \dots, q_p \rangle$  over  $C$  is a finite sequence of queries of  $query(C)$ . We denote by  $query(s)$  the set of queries of a session  $s$ , by  $session(C)$  the set of all sessions over a cube  $C$  and by  $s[i]$  the  $i^{th}$  query of the session  $s$ .

### 2.7 Database Log

Given a cube  $C$ , a database log (log for short) is a finite set of sessions. We denote by  $query(L)$  the set of queries of a log  $L$ .

### 2.8 Class of Queries

Given a cube  $C$ , a class of queries is a set  $Q \subseteq query(C)$ .

### 2.9 Class Representative

Given a cube  $C$ , a class representative is a function from  $2^{query(C)}$  to  $query(C)$ .

### 2.10 Query Set Partitioning

Given a cube  $C$  and a distance between queries, a

query set partitioning is a function  $p$  from  $2^{query(c)}$  to  $2^{query(c)}$  such or all  $QC query(C)$  computes a partition of  $Q$  under the form of a set  $P$  of pairwise disjoint classes of queries.

**2.11 Query Classifier**

Given a cube  $C$  a query classifier  $cl$  is a function from  $query(C) \times 2^{query(c)}$  to  $2^{query(c)}$  such that if  $q \in query(C)$  is a query,  $P \subseteq 2^{query(c)}$  is a set of classes then  $cl(q, P) \in P$ . We say that  $cl(q, P)$  is the class of  $q$ .

**2.12 Explanation and Prediction Methods**

These methods are aimed to define a predictive or explanatory model from available data. They can highlight a relationship between particular attributes that you want to predict and predictive attributes (Kotsiantis, 2006).

**2.13 Generalized Session**

Given a session  $s$  and a set of classes of queries, the generalized session of  $s$  is the sequence of classes of each query of  $s$  is turn. Formally, given a cube  $C$ , a set of classes of queries  $P$ , a query classifier  $cl$  and  $s = \langle q_1, \dots, q_p \rangle$  a session over  $C$ , the generalized session  $gs$  of  $s$  is the sequence  $(c_1, \dots, c_p)$  where

- $c_i = cl(q_i, P)$  is the class of  $q_i$  for all  $i \in [1, p]$ .
- $\forall i, c_i \in P$ .
- $\forall i, q_i \in query(C)$ .

We denote by  $gs[i]$  the  $i^{th}$  of the generalized session  $gs$ .

**2.14 Analysis**

An analysis is a set of queries related to each other by pointers. Note that a query session is a special case of analysis where the complaints are related to each other by pointers representing the sequencing of requests.

**2.15 Analysis Base**

A basic analysis is a set of tests. Note that a query log sessions is considered as particular case of analysis base.

**2.16 Association Rule Mining**

Let  $I = \{I_1, I_2, \dots, I_m\}$  be a set of  $m$  distinct attributes,  $T$  be transaction that contain a set of items such that  $T \subseteq I$ ,  $D$  be a database with different transaction records  $Ts$ . An association rule is an implication in the form of  $X \Rightarrow Y = \emptyset$ .  $X$  is called antecedent while  $Y$  is called consequent, the rule means  $X$  implies  $Y$ . There are two important basic measures for association rules, support (s) and confidence(c). Since the database is large and users concern about only those frequently purchased items, usually thresholds of support and confidence are predefined by users to drop those rules that are not so interesting or useful. The two thresholds are called minimal support and minimum confidence respectively. Support(s) of an association rule is defined as the percentage/fraction of records that contains  $X \cup Y$  to the total number of records in the database. Suppose the support of an item is 0.1%, it means only 0.1 percent contain purchasing of this item.

Confidence of an association rule is defined as the percentage/fraction that contain  $X \cup Y$  to the total number of records that contain  $X$ . Confidence is a measure of strength of the association rules, suppose the confidence of the association rule  $X \Rightarrow Y$  is 80%, it means that 80% of the transactions that contain  $X$  also contain  $Y$  together (Kotsiantis, 2006).

**2.17 Association Rule Class**

The method of association rules involves the extraction of classes and classification rules by using these rules. Such methods derived from extracting association rules methods (Kotsiantis, 2006).

**3 RELATED WORK**

Information personalization is a major challenge for the computer industry; it was introduced especially in the following technologies: HCI, information retrieval and databases. Indeed, much work has been performed in the latter, since the user has been introduced in process cycles of access to information.

Whatever the technology field, information personalization can be operated in two modes of management: by query or recommendation.

Recommender systems exploit user profiles or communities to disseminate targeted offers on the interests and preferences of the latter. This

procedure is also called the push mode.

Personalization in request is to adapt the evaluation of the request with the characteristics and preferences of the user who issued it. In this context, the system reacts to a specific user request in fulfilling his request to make it more precise in choosing the line of data obtained in function of the quality user requirements (context), or by customizing displaying results. This procedure is also called pull mode. We consider in this paper all research conducted in the personalization data warehouses.

To do this it was proposed to classify this research: manufacturers of preferences, personalization the schema level, Olap visual recommendation by analyzing user profiles, recommendation by analyzing user sessions, the profile model or the research that combine several topical.

1. Data warehouses can be personalized on the scheme, indeed (Garrigos et al., 2009) have designed a conceptual model for personalization, it captures information specific to users (see figure 2), and specifies a set of personalization rules (ECA: Event-Condition-Action).

This approach creates a data cube in two types of personalization: static (various cubes Olap for various users are created in design-time) and dynamic (a cube of data is created for each user during the run-time in taking into account the needs and actions taken by the user), for this he uses rule base (ECA) of (Thalhammer et al., 2001); (Garrigos et al., 2006)

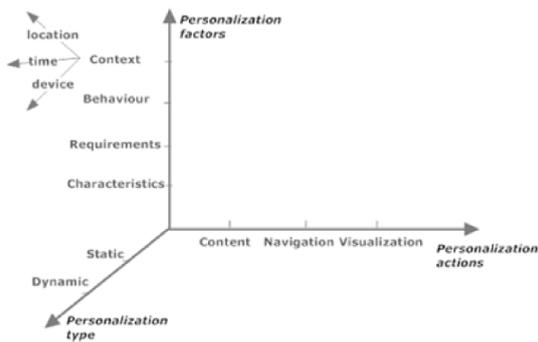


Figure 2: OLAP Personalization Dimensions.

This model brings a lot to personalized Olap, it offers the possibility of integrating the features of the user (profile) in the synthesis of OLAP. But this approach does not take into account the part of adaptation. In addition, the system contains a set of simple rules, and personalization should contain

complex events (sequences of operations OLAP) to better adapt the OLAP system to its context of use.

Finally, the model is not strengthened by a validation system of the approach, the basic rule is defined based on conditions, they are identified explicitly by the user, to make the model more objective it is imperative to minimize in the maximum user intervention and intercept features via its interactions with the system.

2. A second approach discussed is to express user preferences in Olap queries (Golfarelli et al., 2009), to be, algebra of preferences was introduced, which can be expressed with numerical data, categorical or in fact aggregations. This algebra includes database manufacturers in preference attributes, hierarchies and measures and another composed of several builders called "Pareto".

The originality of this algebra is a statement of preferences in the group-by clause of the query. This algebra is not the first in the literature, P-Cube was a first attempt introduced by (Xin et al., 2008), but here the expression of preferences is only effective for calculating boolean predicates, or expression affected only the digital data, and they are not supported in aggregations. Also in (Koutrika et al., 2008), preferences are expressed on a hierarchy of concepts, but the information is always sought the best level of detail and preferences can be expressed in the diagram. Thus (Golfarelli et al., 2009) could take several types of data, and the expression of preference has reduced the size of query sequence which indicates the decision maker so that the analysis is faster.

3. Personalization has also affected the visual representation of data, the outstanding work that is mentioned here (Mansmann et al., 2007), he presented a hierarchical visualization technique. Indeed, these authors have designed a new user interface for exploring multidimensional data in an OLAP environment. Users navigate through dimensional hierarchies via a browser based on the diagram (Fig 3). The results are represented as trees increased decomposition; they finally offer multiple models of layout of trees, integrated and optimized visualization techniques to meet different criteria (visual evolution, intelligibility and recognition of outliers).

4. One of the ways to personalize OLAP systems, to provide recommended queries for users of data warehouses based on their preferences. It was suggested in this context by (Giacometti and al, 2008), a generic Framework (can be instantiated) (see Fig. 4) a recommended system for users of

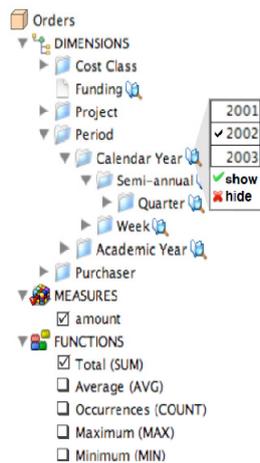


Figure 3: Navigation hierarchical-based schema.

OLAP. The main idea of this system is to recommend to the current user data found in previous sessions and which resembles the data requested in this session. The key idea of this Framework is to deduct from the OLAP server log, data sought by previous users. Finally the deductions were used as a basis to guide and assist the user in navigation on the data cube.

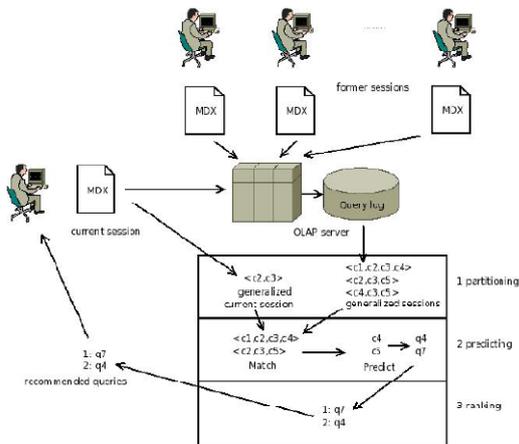


Figure 4: Overview of the generic framework.

5. Another approach has been discussed in personalization is that designing a recommendation system based on user preferences. In the work proposed by (Jerbi et al., 2009), a Framework offering three scenarios of recommendations: 1) assist the user to compose his query, 2), 3) provide alternatives and anticipated contextual analysis.

Indeed, the authors are mainly based on the anticipated recommendation process, offering to that effect to the analyst's analysis step ahead. It was defined then an approach based on user preferences

to generate the anticipated recommendations. The crucial step of this approach is to adapt the context regardless of structure visualization (done on the internal view). The various recommendations are classified, such as the best recommendation is delivered with simple annotations makers of previous sessions. Another approach has been used for personalization in the MDB and this by using a predefined dashboard. The solutions studied in (Thalhammer et al., 2001) presented asset data warehouse. This approach aims to model set scripts using automatic mechanisms, for example, the authors illustrate their approach through weekly dashboards.

Other research (Cabanac et al., 2007) in the field of recommender systems aim to integrate the expertise of decision makers in a MDB. This approach allowed us to associate zero or more imposed information called annotations for each element of multidimensional data. These annotations stored makers' remarks. These annotations help users in their analysis embodying their personal comments. In addition, annotations can share the expertise of decision makers to facilitate analysis and collaborative decisions. However, all these solutions are based solely on the presentation and explanation of the data.

They do not specify a subset of data dedicated to a particular maker.

It exists in the literature other approaches that combine two or more axes in their research, may be mentioned for this purpose, the Framework designed by (Bellatreche et al., 2005), which supports presentation of the structure on the one hand and secondly its visualization.

This is to adapt the data displayed in a data cube based on constraints (limits imposed by the device used to regulate the display format) and user preferences (ranking of tuples in the cube). These are expressed explicitly by the user. The approach used to calculate the part of the query that satisfies the constraints and preferences. In addition to, a display structure is proposed. This approach considers only one attribute in dimension, only works with the select clause, and a predefined order of members of user preferences. This Framework would be more interesting if we work with all elements of OLAP, the fact table, measures and aggregations.

Further examples of interesting work of (Ravat and al, 2009) who proposed a conceptual model, a query model and a personalize MDB. This model is based on the basic concepts of multidimensional (fact, dimension, hierarchy, measurement, weight attribute) and personalization rules. The rules are

based on the formalism of event-condition-action and affect the weight of priority to the multidimensional schema attributes (quantitative approach); it was defined as new OLAP operators (display, rotate, rollup, drilldown) specific to personalized OLAP system.

Personalization influence the classic performance since it changes in the displayed data in order to provide only the relevant analysed data. Finally a personalized system of multidimensional database has been proposed (Fig. 5); All these contributions have been implemented in a prototype that allows users to define rules for personalization and query a personalized MDB.

The personalization approach is only a first step for a more complete Framework, because the work is proposed as a first step towards an adaptive database, where personalization of the constellation (definition rules) should be generated automatically from the data access frequencies based on users' interactions with the system.

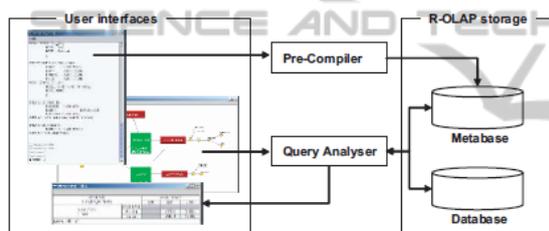


Figure 5: System Architecture.

The approach proposed by (Ravat et al., 2009) is more complete than (Bellatreche et al., 2005) since it allows personalization of all components of multidimensional databases and visualization is not limited to a single attribute, Jerbi et al (Jerbi et al., 2008) proposed a model of context-aware preferences OLAP, OLAP preferences are defined in a MDB schema, and they are modelled through a qualitative approach and depend on its context of use. Indeed, a conceptual model has been defined as elements analysis tree (personalized Framework Olap). But personalization here includes only the user preferences and which are incorporated subsequently in the initial user application (selection of user preferences and increase the query with these preferences). The tree contains two types of nodes: 1) structure of the node (node to the fact table, one for each analysed indicator (measurement), a node for each analysis axis (selected dimensions) and finally a node for each selected attribute) 2) value of the node or instance of each attribute or measure. Preferences are defined here as a set of nodes having

the most profound way (which has more detail in the selection). This model is a first step to an adaptive Olap system where it should save user information inserted explicitly or implicitly (obtained through user interactions with the system) and presents the results according to user preferences and context.

Another line of work in the personalization has touched the modelling of user profile that is not new in the world of research for example Bouzeghoub defined a generic profile in the IR (Bouzeghoub et al., 2005). The novelty of these authors is a model that supports the specific aspect of data warehouses. Indeed it has been proposed a set of attributes describing the profile based on the Framework of Zackman (Zachman, 2003), a description of the profile and made answers to questions (what, where, when), then a collection of profile attributes from multiple sources is made.

We see through works presented in this section that in the majority of them, the profile or user preferences are operating in either the scheme or the recommendations or at the level of data visualization. But among all the research cited above they identify the profile or user preferences explicitly, it would be best to minimize the maximum user intervention in the description of his profile, by examining its interactions with the system and therefore implicitly infer his profile or more precisely preferences.

We propose in the next section an approach for extracting knowledge, indeed we will analyze the data in the log file of OLAP server, and therefore deduce user preferences in terms of attributes.

## 4 PROPOSED APPROACH

Ravat et al., 2009, affect weights to attributes of constellation in order to express user preferences. These weights are static (stored in database see Fig 5), the values of these are explicitly expressed by end users. Their expression is subjective. Our goal is to achieve an adaptive system to present all essential data through predefined reports to makers, limiting the various operations commonly carried out by them. The adaptive system automatically generates rules to personalize the system to adjust to the customs of each decision maker.

In this section we detail the proposed personalized OLAP system. This system uses both the sequence of queries of the current session, and the query log of OLAP server. It consists of four following steps as illustrated in Fig. 6.

1. The first step consists in using a query set partitioning to partition the query log in order to compute all the generalized sessions of the log or grouped session user.
2. Predicting for each type of analysis query the minimum accepted weight of each attribute. Therefore we deduce automatically which attribute are frequently used and those rarely used for each user. This information is used as base to construct a knowledge base( user profiles)
3. Selection of preferences. In this step we take only attributes having weights above accepted minimum weight. To do this we generate automatically a rule base (ECA), witch create a set of rules for selecting the appropriate attributes.
4. The last step consists in integration the preferences in queries of current session and executes them.

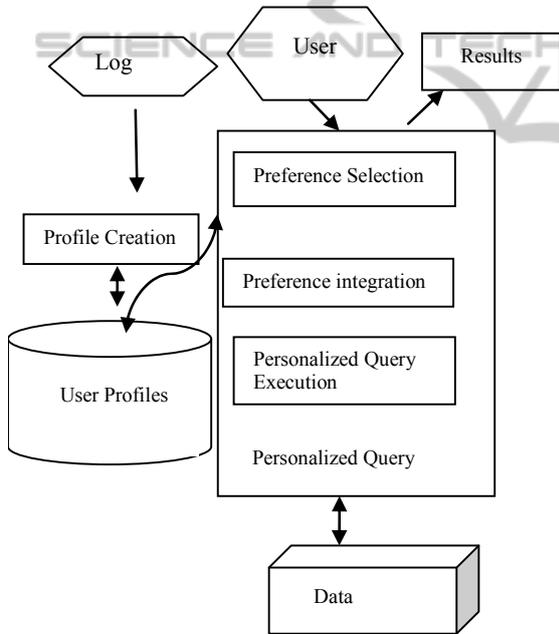


Figure 6: Personalized OLAP System.

How to create a profile? To do this, and for the problems cited above, it was proposed to extract knowledge from data (KDD) contained in the log file. KDD (Knowledge Discovery from Data) usually passes through three steps: pre-processed, processed and post-processed (see Fig 7). In what follows we will explain all three steps.

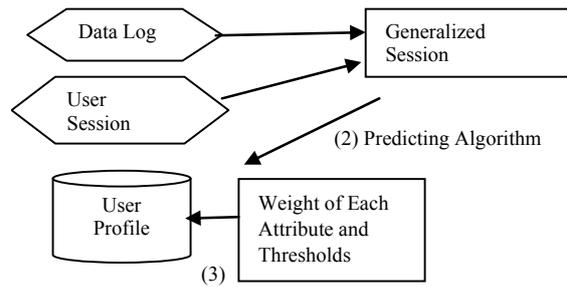


Figure 7: Profile Creation.

#### 4.1 Pre-processed Step

The log can be very large, albeit not as large as the cube itself. In addition, the various users may have different interests, thus their queries may navigate very different parts of the cube. It means that it may be unlikely to find a given query more than once in the log. Thus the log can be both large and sparse. In order to cope with largeness, the queries in the log can be grouped into classes; so as to partition the log. The pretreatment will be carried out by using a parameter that is none other than the partitioning.

This allows either: 1) to group similar queries, using a distance between queries to determine partitions. The distance was computed with Hausdorff distance (Giocametti et al., 2008), where

$$d_H(q_1, q_2) = \max\{\max_{r_1 \in q_1} \min_{r_2 \in q_2} d(r_1, r_2), \max_{r_2 \in q_2} \min_{r_1 \in q_1} d(r_1, r_2)\}.$$

Where  $q_1$  and  $q_2$  are queries, i.e, set of references and distance,  $d$  used is the hamming distance. This distance relies on computation of distance between the elements of sets (references). The result is simply a set of queries grouped in a set of classes where each query belongs to one class, or 2) group sessions per user. For any partitioning of the test depends on the mass of information contained in the log if it is dense for user we partition per user class if not by similar queries.

Partitioning the set of queries can be done by using a clustering algorithm like K-medoids (Giacometti et al., 2008). In that case for the query classifier can associate the query with class for which the class representative is the closet to the query.

If we now subdivide the log by user, we regroup all the session for each user in the same class. Each class is identified by an identifier  $CU_j$  that is the ID of the user.

After the preprocessed log file, we should now detect from data contained in each base class (identified for each category of user or a particular user), the occurrence frequency of each attribute for

each analysis query type (display, rotate, drill-down, drill up, slice and dice). This step is part of the second phase of KDD which will be explained in the next section.

### 4.2 Treatment Step

Indeed, this step will allow us to discover frequencies of queries analysis attributes for each type of request and then, their rate of occurrence.

The latter will be compared to a threshold if it is higher then we automatically know that it is an attribute often used by the user.

Due to the constraint of the number of pages we limited our study to case where the log is pre-processed by user class. For a better view of our approach we use a standard example of a constellation given by (see Fig 8).

The aim of our approach is to predict for each user, its preferred attributes and those he rarely used. Indeed, it is recommended to set from the training set (preprocessed log file) a set of class association rules (in our case class is the query type) that will extract the frequency use of each attribute for each type of query and beyond be able to assign a priority. That in the future will be used by the system to create a base rule having type ECA (Event, Condition, Action). It is generated automatically using the results obtained by our approach. For this we use a variant of the APRIORI algorithm, but it will be adapt for our study context, we begin by defining the basic algorithm, then we will define our approach and we end up with a case study for understand our approach.

In the APRIORI algorithm (Kotsiantis, 2006), for discovering frequent items, several courses of all instances are needed. At first pass, the support of each item is calculated and only the frequent items are kept thereafter. For each run, the items or itemsets found above are used to generate new itemsets. This procedure is repeated until no longer find frequent itemsets.

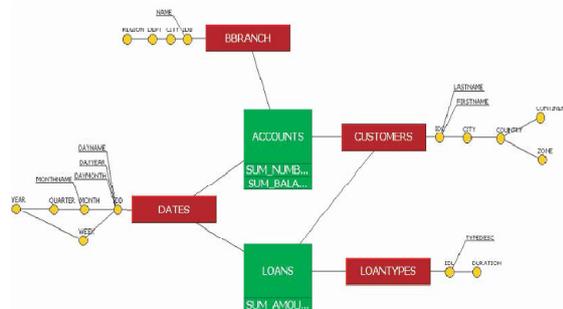


Figure 8: Constellation Example.

Before presenting our algorithm, it is imperative that some notations are specified in advance:

- B : data set in knowledge base (log file).
- CUj : user class.
- BRI : data rules set Ri.
- RCOMRi : common rules set removed from BRI
- REXCEPRi : exception rules removed from BRI.
- E<sub>f</sub> : frequent attributes set.
- E<sub>r</sub> : rare attributes sets.
- BRI(r) : data set covered by the rule(r).
- RBRi=RCOMRiUREXCEPRi
- BRI(RBRi) : data set covered by RBRi

It is proposed the following algorithm to determine the attributes commonly used by a defined query and a user with the ID CUj :

**Predicting user profile algorithm:**

- For each user in log file.
- For each fact table Example: ACCOUNT, LOANS)
- For each analysis query type Ri(display, Rotate, Drill-down, Roll-up, .....)
- 1. Generation of E<sub>f</sub> et E<sub>r</sub> from BRI.
- 2. Generation of common rules.
- For each X<sub>1</sub>CE<sub>f</sub> et X<sub>2</sub>CE<sub>r</sub>
- $RCOMRi \leftarrow \langle X_1 \cup X_2 \rightarrow Ri \rangle$
- if  $Suplocal(X_1 \cup X_2 \rightarrow Ri) \geq f_{threshold1}^{Ri}$
- 3. Generation of exception rules.
- For each X<sub>1</sub>CE<sub>f</sub> et X<sub>2</sub>CE<sub>r</sub>
- $REXCEPRi \leftarrow \langle X_1 \cup X_2 \rightarrow Ri \rangle$
- if  $Suplocal(X_1 \cup X_2 \rightarrow Ri) \geq f_{threshold2}^{Ri}$
- 4. Purge redundant rules of RBRi:
- Delete (X' → Ri) Si BRI(X' → Ri) CBRi(X → Ri) et X ⊆ X'.
- 5. BBRi ← BBRi - RBRi
- 6. Repeat 1,3,4,5 until BBRi = ∅.

We explain in the following each of the six steps:

- 1<sup>st</sup> step: generate two sets and thresholds:
  - E<sub>f</sub> set contain attributes commonly used for each type of query.
  - E<sub>r</sub> set contain attributes rarely used for each type of query
  - Two thresholds are generated ( $f_{threshold1}^{Ri}$  and  $f_{threshold2}^{Ri}$ ) to classify the association rules per class. Where  $f_{threshold2}^{Ri}$  design for each user the minimum of tolerance of frequent attribute.

These two thresholds are determined as follows: The thresholds are values that can declare that an attribute is often or seldom used. To not prescribe in advance what this threshold as was the case in the work of (Ravat et al., 2009) we will use the theory of fuzzy sets. This will automatically set a threshold for each class BRI in our learning base (data log).

Indeed with the method of Zadeh (Zadeh, 1975) we will interpret the linguistic variable frequency of occurrence of an attribute associated with rare and frequent .Linguistic variable is defined as (v,T(v),U); where :1) v is the name of linguistic variable « apparition frequency»; 2) T(v) is terms set associated to linguistic value {rare, frequent} ; 3) U definition domain={r∈ BRi|Suplocal} for BRi class, it correspond to all local supports of rules BRi where Suplocal(A → Ri) =  $\frac{|{t \in BRi | A \subseteq t}|}{|BRi|}$ . The T(v) terms are characterized by fuzzy set defined by membership functions K of all centroids fuzzy sets obtained by FCM (Fuzzy c-means) (Giacometti et al., 2009) applied to U and  $K = \{f_{rare}, f_{frequent}\}$ .

Where  $\mu_{Ri,rare}(f)$  = membership function of rare linguistic term and is calculated as follows

$$\mu_{Ri,rare}(f) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } f \leq f_{rare} \\ 1 - \frac{f - f_{rare}}{(f_{frequent} - f_{rare})} & \text{if } f_{rare} < f \leq f_{frequent} \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

And  $\mu_{Ri,frequent}(f)$  = membership function of frequent linguistic term and is calculated as follows:

$$\mu_{Ri,frequent}(f) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{si } f \leq f_{rare} \\ 1 - \frac{f - f_{frequent}}{(f_{frequent} - f_{rare})} & \text{if } f_{rare} < f \leq f_{frequent} \\ 1 & \text{else} \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

Once the membership functions defined, Figure 9 defines for us how to calculate  $f_{threshold1}^{Ri}$  et  $f_{threshold2}^{Ri}$ :

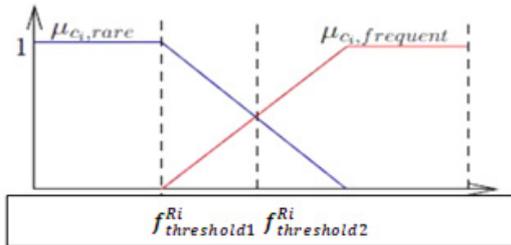


Figure 9: How to compute  $f_{threshold1}^{Ri}$ ,  $f_{threshold2}^{Ri}$ .

2<sup>nd</sup> step allow us to combine between attributes in  $E_f$ : rule results from this combination have the « **local threshold** >  $f_{Seuil1}^{Ri}$  », are stored as common rules and those between  $f_{threshold1}^{Ri}$  and  $f_{threshold2}^{Ri}$  constitute exception rules.

3<sup>rd</sup> step: we can generate other exception rules only with combination of attributes  $E_f$  and of  $E_r$  between themselves. This rules have « **threshold** >  $f_{Seuil2}^{Ri}$  »

4<sup>th</sup> step : purge redundant rules.

5<sup>th</sup> step : allow us to remove from learning base data covered by the rules previously generated.

6<sup>th</sup> step : repeat steps 1,3,4 ,5 until learning base is empty.

No better than a case study to understand our approach, we restrict ourselves to the circumstances at fact table “Accounts” with three dimension tables Customers, BBranch et Dates and two kind of analysis request «Display et Drill-down », following abbreviations  $a_1, a_2, a_3, b_1, b_2, b_3, b_4, b_5, c_1, c_2, c_3, c_4, c_5, c_6$ : replace respectively attributes : Idc, City, country, idB, Name, City, Dept, Region, DD, Dayname, Month, Quarter, Week, Year, and Display, Drill-Down by A and B. Let the learning base described in Table 2 for a user CUi.

Table 2: Learning Base (log file).

Number of duplicates	Customers	BBranch	Dates	BRi
8	a <sub>1</sub> a <sub>2</sub>	b <sub>1</sub>	c <sub>1</sub>	A
4	a <sub>1</sub> a <sub>2</sub>	b <sub>1</sub>	c <sub>2</sub>	A
3	a <sub>1</sub> a <sub>2</sub>	b <sub>1</sub>	c <sub>3</sub>	A
4	a <sub>1</sub> a <sub>2</sub>	b <sub>2</sub>	c <sub>3</sub>	A
2	a <sub>1</sub> a <sub>2</sub>	b <sub>2</sub>	c <sub>4</sub>	A
2	a <sub>1</sub> a <sub>2</sub>	b <sub>3</sub>	c <sub>4</sub>	A
2	a <sub>3</sub>	b <sub>5</sub>	c <sub>4</sub>	A
4	a <sub>1</sub>	b <sub>1</sub>	c <sub>1</sub>	B
5	a <sub>1</sub>	b <sub>1</sub>	c <sub>2</sub>	B
1	a <sub>1</sub>	b <sub>2</sub>	c <sub>3</sub>	B
3	a <sub>2</sub>	b <sub>3</sub>	c <sub>4</sub>	B
3	a <sub>2</sub>	b <sub>3</sub>	c <sub>2</sub>	B
3	a <sub>2</sub>	b <sub>3</sub>	c <sub>4</sub>	B
4	a <sub>2</sub>	b <sub>4</sub>	c <sub>4</sub>	B
1	a <sub>3</sub>	b <sub>5</sub>	c <sub>5</sub>	B

By applying our Predictive algorithm and equation (1) and (2), we get the following results:

- 1)  $f_{threshold1}^A = 0,31$ ;
- 2)  $f_{threshold2}^A = 0,23$ ;  $f_{threshold1}^B = 0,29$ ;  $f_{threshold2}^B = 0,17$ .

3) Rules generated for the type query Display are specified in table 2

Table 3: Rules generated from instances of class A.

	Id	Rule	Suplocal	Confidence
1 <sup>st</sup> threshold	1	$a_1 a_2 \rightarrow A$	23/25	1
	2	$a_1 a_2 b_1 \rightarrow A$	15/25	1
	3	$a_1 a_2 b_1 c_1 \rightarrow A$	8/25	1
2 <sup>nd</sup> threshold	4	$a_1 a_2 b_2 \rightarrow A$	6/25	1
	5	$a_1 a_2 c_4 \rightarrow A$	6/25	1

We deduce from table 2 that attributes  $\{a_1, a_2, b_1, c_1\}$  are frequently used with the Display query

(these attributes have  $suplocal > f_{threshold2}^{Ri}$  and confidence=1) and combinations,  $a_1 a_2 b_1, a_1 a_2 b_1 c_1$  with a lesser degree.

Therefore, we deduce also that  $b_3, a_1$  are rarely used with analysis query display because there  $suplocal < f_{threshold1}^{Ri}$ .

This algorithm allows us to have weight of each attribute or a set of attribute. Even this algorithm also allows us to generate subsequently the rules base (ECA) automatically for each user. Indeed, once the frequency and the threshold defined, we can build the rule base as that developed by (Ravat and al,2009) since all the parameters that determine rule base are available (threshold of tolerance for each attribute and for each table individually or collectively). By using the example of table 2 the following rule can be created:

```
CREATE RULE HGeo_Rule
ON Customers.HGeo
WHEN DISPLAYED
IF isCurrent('Accounts') THEN
BEGIN setWeight('IdC', 0.92);0.92=Suplocal of IdC
setWeight('Firstname', 0);
setWeight('Lastname', 0);
setWeight('City', 0.92);
setWeight('Country', 0.08);
setWeight('Continent', 0);
END;
```

This rule show us that only City and Country are the favorite attributes for this user because its  $suplocal >>> Minsuplocal(f_{threshold2}^{Ri})$ . The others are rarely or never used like firstname and lastname.

We can generate many rules for MDB (for each fact, dimension,...);it depends the type number of queries excitant in user session.

The second threshold ( $f_{threshold1}^{Ri}$ ). allows us to determine the exception rules; they combine between frequent and infrequent attributes and have a high level of confidence. And thus allow new instances which are not yet processed by the system. This kind of rules allows us to deduce new user needs. This change in need (change some settings in profile) can be justified for example by changing the work environment.

The same steps are repeated for the type of query drill-down. Once association rules defined, you can have for each type of query that has the highest support. And from there we can have a classification association rules for all classes. This could be used to determine the best sequence query for a user. Several readings can be made from the predicting algorithm which is summarized by the following points:

1. Determine the minimum threshold of an attribute.
2. Constitute a set of common and rare attributes for each type of query and each table (dimension or fact)
3. Constitute a set of common attribute combinations for each type of query and a set of tables.
4. Constitute the best query sequence by scheduling the association rules for all classes.
5. Generate a rule base automatically which define for each query type and each table or set of tables the supported attributes. Note that the generation of rules base is the phase of post-processed in KDD.

Our approach is the first in the literature which can deduct the user profile implicitly in Olap system.

## 5 EXPERIMENTATIONS

In this section, we present the results of experiments we have conducted to assess the capabilities of our system. Our prototype and generator are developed with java and Mondrian OLAP engine. We first generate the cube and sessions. The cube has 4 dimensions, 2 facts, 4 levels per dimension and a maximum of 50 values per dimensions, first experiment assesses the efficiency of our system to generate queries for a user. The performance is presented in figure 11. We change in the size of log. To do this we have change in the number of sessions and the number of queries per session. We compute the time taken for generates user generalized session or user grouped sessions, prediction of weights, generation of rules, preference integration and execution of queries. The figure 10 shows us that the time taken to generate response for queries is acceptable.

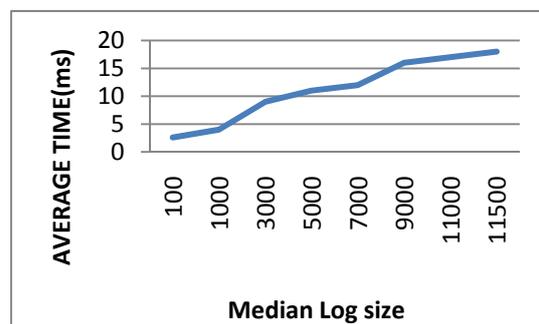


Figure 10: Performance of the query generation.

Fig 11 shows us that it is better to adapt the number of clusters to the log size in order to obtain

good query quality. We notice that quality increases periodically according to the median number of queries in each cluster. This period increases when the number of cluster falls.

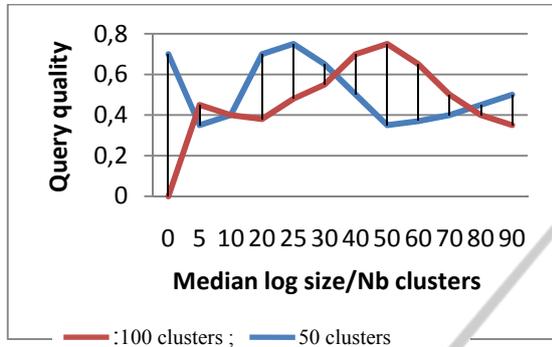


Figure 11: Quality of query.

We conducted another series of tests that will examine the gain of time obtained after personalization of queries. Indeed, we conducted tests on queries from different users and those that will be augmented by the preferences obtained by our rule base. For this, we took five sessions for various current users. Each session contains an average of 8 queries, which return an average of 30, 130, 670, 2000, 2600, 4000, 5000, 6000 cells. We calculated their average execution time before and after customization (Figure 12). We used the advantage that the Mondrian generator uses the cache. We find that the gain of time after customization is considerable.

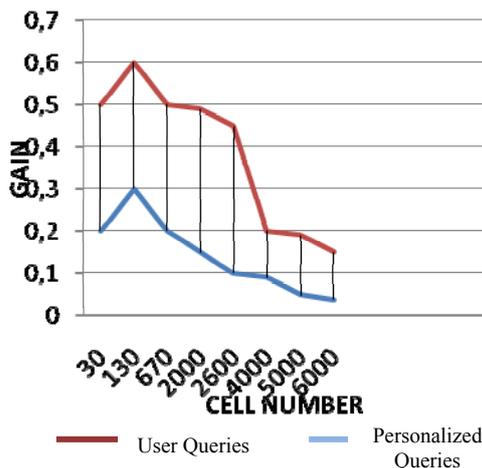


Figure 12: Gain with cache.

## 6 CONCLUSIONS

This paper has allowed us first to make a synthesis of work undertaken for the personalization of OLAP systems. For this we classified the searches per axis (manufacturer's preferences, personalization the schema level, OLAP visual recommendation by analyzing user profiles, recommendation by analyzing user sessions, the profile model ...). In the second part we focused on our approach. Indeed, we planned to analyze the log file server OLAP, which led us to use for this purpose a variant of the prediction algorithm "APRIORI. Our approach has overcome or complements the work of (Bellatreche et al., 2005); (Ravat et al., 2007). In fact we got to predict for each user's preferred attributes for each table or set of tables and also for each type of query. Determine for each user's query sequence preferred by ordering the rules of association. And ultimately, generate a rules base automatically, it will use for this purpose the results obtained by our algorithm ( $J_{threshold1}^{Ri}$ , local supports, association rules). Our objective was to define a system OLAP adaptive to each user. This was achieved by our approach because it enabled automatically integrate their preferences in the process of personalization. These results can also be used by any system recommended to give the best query sequence for a particular user. We present the results of some experiments we have conducted that shows that quality of query is acceptable and the added process of research the knowledge have not affect a time of execution of the user query. We expect in the near future to go a little further by scanning in predicting not only the attributes but more the values of these attributes and deduct the value preferences of a user. We try also to validate our approach by testing it on real data.

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