On-Line Analytical Processing with Conceptual Information Systems

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Abstract. A Conceptual Information System consists of a database together with conceptual hierarchies. The management system TOSCANA visualizes arbitrary combinations of conceptual hierarchies by nested line diagrams and allows an on-line interaction with a database to analyze data conceptually. The paper describes the conception of Conceptual Information Systems and discusses the use of their visualization techniques for On-Line Analytical Processing (OLAP).

1 Introduction

A Conceptual Information System consists of a (relational) database together with conceptual hierarchies. These hierarchies, called conceptual scales, are used to support navigation through the data. An important factor for the success of Conceptual Information Systems is the visualization of conceptual scales by line diagrams. By combining conceptual scales in nested line diagrams, a large variety of perspectives can be generated interactively, in which relationships and dependencies can be investigated. The management system TOSCANA allows an on-line interaction with a database to analyze and explore data conceptually.

On-Line Analytical Processing (OLAP) relies on the metaphor of a (high-dimensional) cube containing the data. For dimensions which are not structured hierarchically, the cube metaphor provides a good intuitive understanding of multidimensional data. But an essential feature of OLAP dimensions is that they are ordered hierarchically: days roll up into months, months into quarters and years, products into product groups and product lines. Often they are trees (simple hierarchies), but they may be any arbitrary partially ordered set (multiple hierarchy). In this setting, the cube metaphor which reflects the mathematical construction of a direct product of linear vector spaces is not the most natural way, since the hierarchies have to be forced into a flat linear form. Instead of listing the hierarchies on (one-dimensional) axes, we suggest to visualize them by line diagrams. By using nested line diagrams, arbitrary dimensions can be combined for ad hoc analysis.

2 Conceptual Information Systems

Conceptual Information Systems are based on the mathematical theory of Formal Concept Analysis. The aim of Formal Concept Analysis (cf. [11], [2]) is a mathematical formalization of the concept 'concept'. It reflects the philosophical understanding of concepts as units of thought consisting of two parts: the extension containing all
objects which belong to the concept and the intension containing the attributes shared by all those objects. This is modeled by formal concepts that are derived from a formal context.

**Definition.** A (formal) context is a triple $\mathbb{K} := (G, M, I)$ where $G$ and $M$ are sets and $I$ is a relation between $G$ and $M$. The elements of $G$ and $M$ are called objects and attributes, respectively, and $gIm$ is read "the object $g$ has the attribute $m$". Now a (formal) concept is a pair $(A, B)$ such that $A \subseteq G$ and $B \subseteq M$ are maximal with $A \times B \subseteq I$. The set $A$ is called the extent and the set $B$ the intension of the concept. The hierarchical subconcept superconcept relation of concepts is formalized by $(A, B) \leq (C, D) : \iff A \subseteq C \land B \supseteq D$. The set of all concepts of the context $\mathbb{K}$ together with this order relation is a complete lattice that is called the concept lattice of $\mathbb{K}$ and is denoted by $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{K})$.

**Example.** In Figure 1, a formal context of the Richter Harps produced by Hohner Inc. is given. The relation $gIm$ is read as ‘harp $g$ is available with feature $m$’. In the line diagram, the circles stand for the concepts. A concept is a subconcept of another, if there is an ascending path of straight line segments from the former to the latter. The extent [intension] of each concept contains all objects [attributes] which can be reached from the concept on a descending [ascending] path.

If we are for example interested in a wooden harp tuned in D major, then we
take the largest concept that has Wood and D major in its intent. This concept is represented by the circle just above the label 28 tongues. The extent of this concept contains Marine Band SBS, Marine Band, and Auto Valve Harp so there are exactly the harps available in wood and D major. The intent of this concept contains beside Wood and D major the features A, F, G, and C Major, so these are exactly the harps available in these tunings also. This corresponds to a functional dependency in database theory.

In many applications, attributes are not one-valued as in the previous example, but allow a range of values. This is modelled by many-valued contexts. In order to obtain a concept lattice, many-valued contexts are “translated” into one-valued contexts by conceptual scales.

**Definition.** A many-valued context is a tuple \((G, M, (W_m)_{m \in M}, I)\) where \(G\) and \(M\) are sets of objects and attributes, resp., \(W_m\) is a set of values for each \(m \in M\), and \(I \subseteq G \times \bigcup_{m \in M} \{m\} \times W_m\) such that \((g, m, w_1) \in I\) and \((g, m, w_2) \in I\) imply \(w_1 = w_2\). A conceptual scale for an attribute \(m \in M\) is a context \(S_m := (G_m, M_m, I_m)\) with \(W_m \subseteq G_m\). The context \((G, M_m, J)\) with \(g J n \iff \exists w \in W_m: (g, m, w) \in I \land (w, n) \in I_m\) is called the realized scale for the attribute \(m\).

Conceptual Information Systems consist of a many-valued context together with a collection of conceptual scales. The many-valued context is implemented as a relational database. The collection of the scales is called conceptual scheme. It is written in the description language CONSCRIPT ([9]). Beside the contexts of the conceptual scales, the conceptual scheme also contains the layout of their line diagrams. The layout has to be provided in advance, since experience showed that well readable line diagrams in general cannot be generated fully automatically. For Conceptual Information Systems, the management system TOSCANA ([3], [10]) has been developed. Based on the paradigm of conceptual landscapes of knowledge ([14]), TOSCANA supports the navigation through the data by using the conceptual scales like maps which are designed for different purposes and in different granularities.

**Example.** Figure 2 shows a realized scale of a Conceptual Information System on pipelines ([8]). The many-valued context consists of 3961 pipes, fittings, etc., and of 54 many-valued attributes. It shall support the engineer by choosing suitable parts for a projected pipeline system. Since there are almost 4000 objects, the scale does not display their names, but the contingents only. One can for instance see, that 52 + ... + 27 = 348 of the 3961 different parts are flanges (German: Flansche) which are differentiated further according to the German Industrial Standards (DIN). By zooming into this concept, one can see the distribution of the 348 flanges according to another conceptual scale, e.g., the inner diameter or the wall thickness.

For the exploration of relationships between different attributes, it is desirable to visualize more than one conceptual scale at a time. Nested line diagrams are used to show the direct product of the scales. We introduce them in the next section where we also discuss their role for On-Line Analytical Processing.

### 3 On-Line Analytical Processing

On-Line Analytical Processing (OLAP) has become almost synonymous with multi-dimensional data. OLAP addresses many topics, like data preprocessing and efficient
data storage for supporting the analysis process (cf., e.g., [5]). Here, we focus on the visualization of the data.

**Definition.** A *dimension* is a set \( D \), its elements are called its *members*. Let \( \mathcal{D} := \{ D_1, D_2, \ldots, D_n \} \) be a set of dimensions. Each tuple of \( \mathcal{X}D := D_1 \times D_2 \times \ldots \times D_n \) is called a *member combination*. It addresses a single data point called a *cell*. A *variable* is a partial function \( \nu: \mathcal{X}D \to V \) where \( V \) is a set. \( \nu(d_1, \ldots, d_n) \) is the *value of the cell addressed by the member combination* \( (d_1, \ldots, d_n) \). The set \( \mathcal{D} \) together with one or more variables is called the *data cube*.

**Example.** Our example is about sales data of a (fictional) soft-drink wholesale company. Suppose that we want to examine the sales of beverage in dependence of time, region and type of product. Thus we have three dimensions: \( \text{REGION, PRODUCT, and TIME} \). Let’s say that they consist of the members \( D_{\text{REGION}} := \{ \text{TOTAL, EUROPE, AMERICA, NORTH AMERICA, SOUTH AMERICA, ASIA} \} \), \( D_{\text{PRODUCT}} := \{ \text{TOTAL, MINERAL WATER, JUICE, ORANGE JUICE, APPLE JUICE, COLA} \} \), \( D_{\text{TIME}} := \{ 1996, 1\text{st QUARTER }1996, 2\text{nd QUARTER }1996, 3\text{rd QUARTER }1996, 4\text{th QUARTER }1996, 1997, 1\text{st QUARTER }1997, 2\text{nd QUARTER }1997, 3\text{rd QUARTER }1997, 4\text{th QUARTER }1997 \} \). In a real application, there will of course be more dimensions, and a much finer granularity, for instance down to city or shop level for \( \text{REGION} \), or to day (or even hour) level for \( \text{TIME} \). The sales (in million gallons) are represented by a function \( \text{sales}: D_{\text{REGION}} \times D_{\text{PRODUCT}} \times D_{\text{TIME}} \to \mathbb{R}^+ \). We can imagine the sales as stored in a three-dimensional cube, where the edges are labeled with the members of \( \text{REGION, PRODUCT, and TIME} \), resp. Most OLAP tools display the data in a spreadsheet as in Fig. 3. For instance, we see that \( \text{sales} = \text{COLA, NORTH AMERICA,} \)
### Table: Sales Data for Different Products

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Product</th>
<th>1997</th>
<th>1Q7</th>
<th>2Q7</th>
<th>3Q7</th>
<th>4Q7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mineral Water</td>
<td>837</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>274</td>
<td>171</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cola</td>
<td>1523</td>
<td>364</td>
<td>378</td>
<td>405</td>
<td>376</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Juice</td>
<td>816</td>
<td>189</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>223</td>
<td>204</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Fig. 3.** Visualization of the data cube in a spreadsheet (nested diagram)

**1st quarter 1997** = 89.

**Definition.** A hierarchy on a dimension $D$ is a partially ordered set $H := (D, \leq)$. It is called a simple hierarchy, if it is a tree. Otherwise it is called a multiple hierarchy (within the dimension $D$).

Typically, aggregation follows the hierarchy from bottom to top. The type of aggregation depends on the type of variable. For most variables (like, e.g., budget or sales) the values will be summed up. But other ways of aggregation are in use as well. For instance, for share prices or inventory numbers, usually the average is computed.

**Example.** The hierarchies of the three dimensions product, region, and time are shown in Figure 4. They are all simple hierarchies (trees). The sales are aggregated by summation in all dimensions. Orange juice and apple juice roll up to juice, and mineral water and cola roll up to total.

In OLAP terminology, diagrams as in Fig. 3 are called nested diagrams. In this section, we examine how nested line diagrams of Conceptual Information Systems can be used as an alternative method of data visualization.

Figure 5 shows how the data cube is composed as direct product of the dimensions, where the members of each dimension are ordered in a linear way. Many tools indicate the hierarchies on the dimensions additionally like a PC file manager displays the folder/subfolder hierarchy. But the basically linear arrangement is essential for the cube metaphor. Since the hierarchies model the basic understanding of the conceptual view of the analyst on the data, they should play a prominent role in the visualization. Indeed, they are often used for displaying one single hierarchy, as in Figure 4. But if two or more hierarchies occur simultaneously, then this visualization technique is dropped.
In Conceptual Information Systems, nested line diagrams are used for displaying line diagrams of large partially ordered sets (especially conceptual scales). Hierarchical dimensions roughly correspond to conceptual scales, so OLAP analysis tools can roughly be seen as special Conceptual Information Systems. Nested line diagrams can be used for drawing direct products of the dimensions. In contrast to nested diagrams, they do not only provide all member combinations, but also reflect the derived order.

**Definition.** Let \( H_i := (D_i, \leq_i), \ i = 1, \ldots, n, \) be hierarchies. Then the derived order on the direct product \( H := (D, \leq) \) with \( D := D_1 \times D_2 \times \ldots \times D_n \) is defined by \( (d_1, \ldots, d_n) \leq (e_1, \ldots, e_n) : \iff \forall i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}: d_i \leq_i e_i. \)

**Example.** The nested line diagram of the direct product of the three dimensions REGION, PRODUCT, and TIME (see Fig. 5) is displayed in Figure 6. The derived order can be read by following ascending paths. Hereby the lines of the outer two levels have to be replaced by sheaves of \( 4 \) and \( 5 \times 4 = 20 \) parallel lines, resp., linking corresponding elements. For instance, \((\text{South America}, 3\text{rd quarter}, \text{Mineral Water}) \leq (\text{America}, \text{Total}, \text{Mineral Water}), \) since the cell addressed by the former member combination can be reached by an ascending path from the latter one. For finding out how much Cola was sold in North America in the first quarter of 1997, we have a look in the lower left ellipse (labeled with NORTH) in Fig. 6. In the leftmost ellipse (1. Q.), we find the entry 89 in the right box (Cola).

Clearly this representation needs more space than the one in Fig. 3. Its advantage is the clear structuring along the most important from the analyst’s actual point of view dimension (which is chosen as outermost hierarchy). Figure 6 shows that displaying a partially ordered set with 120 elements is close to the boundaries of the system. The spreadsheet can display even larger data volumes, and still look neat at a first glance. But, as in typography, the most important aim is not to provide a neat representation, but one that supports easy reading ([17]). TOSCANA is designed for a more general approach, allowing more complicate scales than the
dimensions typically used in OLAP applications, which often are just trees. In particular, TOSCANA supports arbitrary partially ordered sets, although (concept) lattices are the standard. In standard TOSCANA applications, not all elements of the hierarchy are labeled, but there may be more than one label for each element. Considering the special features of OLAP data, some improvements on the lay-out are conceivable. They will be discussed in Section 5.

4 Slice & Dice

Slicing, pivoting, drill-down, and drill-up are the interactive ways of accessing the data stored in a data cube. This section describes them, and presents the corresponding activities for nested line diagrams. These activities can all be performed by interacting with the diagrams, no manipulation language is needed.

**Slicing.** A *slice* of a data cube is a subset of the data cube, where one or more dimensions are restricted to one single member. For instance, if the analyst is interested in the development of the sales of the different product lines over time, then only the data given in the slice determined by the condition \( \text{REGION} = \text{TOTAL} \) is of interest. In Fig. 3, this turns out to show only the left most column (which of course will then be displayed by a two-dimensional spreadsheet). In nested line diagrams, slicing the cube corresponds to *zooming* in one of the ellipses of the outer level. For instance, the condition \( \text{REGION} = \text{TOTAL} \) is obtained by zooming into the top element of the outer hierarchy in Fig. 6. The result is a two-level nested line diagram on full screen size. This feature is fully supported by TOSCANA. If the user chooses only some of the hierarchies to be displayed, then this corresponds to zooming in the top elements of all other hierarchies, hence the most general aggregation is applied in the corresponding dimensions.
### Drill-Down

Restricting the number of dimensions means that one can look at them in more detail. Instead of only examining the top level of their hierarchies, one wants to see a finer granularity. This unfolding of the hierarchies is called drill-down. Figure 7 shows the result of zooming into the top element of the outer hierarchy. Additionally, the time dimension has been extended to two years.

At the moment, TOSCA NA does not support this way of drill-down very well. The hierarchies have to be prepared in advance and cannot be changed on the fly, forced by the unsolved problem of a satisfying automatic lay-out algorithm.
Fig. 7. Zooming with drill-down

for partially ordered sets. In the next section, we discuss how this problem can be encountered. The actual solution is to provide scales with different levels of granularity between which the analyst can choose.

Another way of drill-down is to refer to external information sources, e.g., databases of the transaction systems or Internet sites. In TOSCANA, such references can be attached to each data cell. By mouse-click, a report generated by the database or a Web browser will be opened.

**Pivoting.** Different questions request different views on the data. In a spreadsheet display, this means that the dimensions listed on the vertical and horizontal axis are interchanged. This operation is called pivoting or rotating. For nested line diagrams, it corresponds to permuting the inner and the outer hierarchies. The diagram in Fig. 7 can be used to examine the question “How does the composition of sold products change over time?”, while the pivoted version is more adequate for investigating “How do the sales evolve in time for each product?”. Pivoting of hierarchies is implemented in TOSCANA.

5 Further developments

How can TOSCANA be fine-tuned for the specific structure of OLAP data? TOSCANA is originally not designed for OLAP. In its main applications, there are more
than one label attached to the nodes in the diagram, but typically, not all nodes are labeled. TOSCANA usually displays the list of labels beside the nodes. In diagrams as in Fig. 6, this would lead to an over full diagram. But in OLAP applications, each node has exactly one label. Hence the label can be written directly in the node. In the figures in this paper, this had to be done manually, since this feature is not yet supported by TOSCANA. The readability can be improved further by adapting the layout of the labels to this characteristic.

Drill-down requires techniques for extending and pruning hierarchies on the fly. For arbitrary hierarchies (and even for lattices), the development of fully automatic algorithms providing satisfying diagrams is an open challenge. But most OLAP hierarchies are trees, which can be drawn automatically. Beside supporting drill-down, an automatic layout routine can solve the problem of efficiently exploiting the whole screen space.

Data cubes are usually only sparsely populated. Often less than 10% of the cells contain data. For the visualization this implies that not the whole direct product of the hierarchies needs to be displayed. In this case local scaling ([16]) can be used for automatic pruning. It is considered to be implemented in TOSCANA.

References