Artificial Intelligence and Machine Learning

Association Analysis

What Is Association?

- Association rule:
  - Finding frequent patterns, associations, correlations, or causal structures among sets of items or objects in transaction databases, relational databases, and other information repositories.
  - Frequent patterns and Associations: Given a set of transactions, find rules that will predict the occurrence of an item based on the occurrences of other items in the transaction

Definition: Frequent Itemset

- **Itemset**
  - A collection of one or more items
    - Example: {Milk, Bread, Diaper}
  - k-itemset
    - An itemset that contains k items
- **Support count (σ)**
  - Frequency of occurrence of an itemset
  - E.g. σ({Milk, Bread,Diaper}) = 2
- **Support**
  - Fraction of transactions that contain an itemset
  - E.g. s({Milk, Bread, Diaper}) = 2/5
- **Frequent Itemset**
  - An itemset whose support is greater than or equal to a *minsup* threshold

Definition: Association Rule

- **Association Rule**
  - An implication expression of the form X → Y, where X and Y are itemsets
  - Meaning: if a basket contains X then it is likely to contain Y.
- Examples.
  - Rule form:
    "Body → Head [support, confidence]".
  - buys(x, "diapers")
    → buys(x, "beers") [0.5%, 60%]
  - major(x, "CS") ^ takes(x, "DB")
    → grade(x, "A") [1%, 75%]

Rule Evaluation Metrics : Support and Confidence

- Support (S)
  - Fraction of transactions that contain both X and Y
- Confidence (C)
  - Measures how often items in Y appear in transactions that contain X
- Interest (I)
  - The interest of an association rule X->Y is the absolute value of the amount by which the confidence differs from the probability of Y.

Relationships Among Measures

- Rules with high support and confidence may be useful even if they are not "interesting."
  - We don't care if buying bread causes people to buy milk, or whether simply a lot of people buy both bread and milk.
- But high interest suggests a cause that might be worth investigating.

Example

TID	***Items***
1	**Bread, Milk**
2	**Bread, Diaper, Beer, Eggs**
3	**Milk, Diaper, Beer, Coke**
4	**Bread, Milk, Diaper, Beer**
5	**Bread, Milk, Diaper, Coke**

$$\{\text{Milk}, \text{Diaper}\} \Rightarrow \text{Beer}$$

S = σ(Milk, Diaper, Beer)/|T|
= 2/5 = 0.4

C = σ(Milk, Diaper, Beer)
/ σ(Milk, Diaper)
= 2/3 = 0.67

I = |C - σ(Beer)/|T| |
= | 0.67 – 3/5 |
= 0.07

Association Task

- Given:
  - A large set of transactions
  - Each transaction is a list of items (purchased by a customer in a transaction)
- Find: all rules having
  - support ≥ *minsup* threshold
  - confidence ≥ *minconf* threshold

The Market-Basket Model

- A large set of items, e.g., things sold in a supermarket.
- A large set of baskets, each of which is a small set of the items, e.g., the things one customer buys in one transaction.

Applications --- (1)

- Real market baskets: chain stores keep terabytes of information about what customers buy together.
  - Tells how typical customers navigate stores, lets them position tempting items.
  - Suggests tie-in “tricks,” e.g., run sale on diapers and raise the price of beer.

Applications --- (2)

- "Baskets" = documents; "items" = words in those documents.
  - Lets us find words that appear together unusually frequently, i.e., linked concepts.
- "Baskets" = sentences, "items" = documents containing those sentences.
  - Items that appear together too often could represent plagiarism.

Applications --- (3)

- “Baskets” = Web pages; “items” = linked pages.
  - Pairs of pages with many common references may be about the same topic.
- “Baskets” = Web pages p ; “items” = pages that link to p .
  - Pages with many of the same links may be mirrors or about the same topic.

Important Point

- "Market Baskets" is an abstraction that models any many-many relationship between two concepts: "items" and "baskets."
  - Items need not be "contained" in baskets.
- The only difference is that we count co-occurrences of items related to a basket, not vice-versa.

Association Approaches

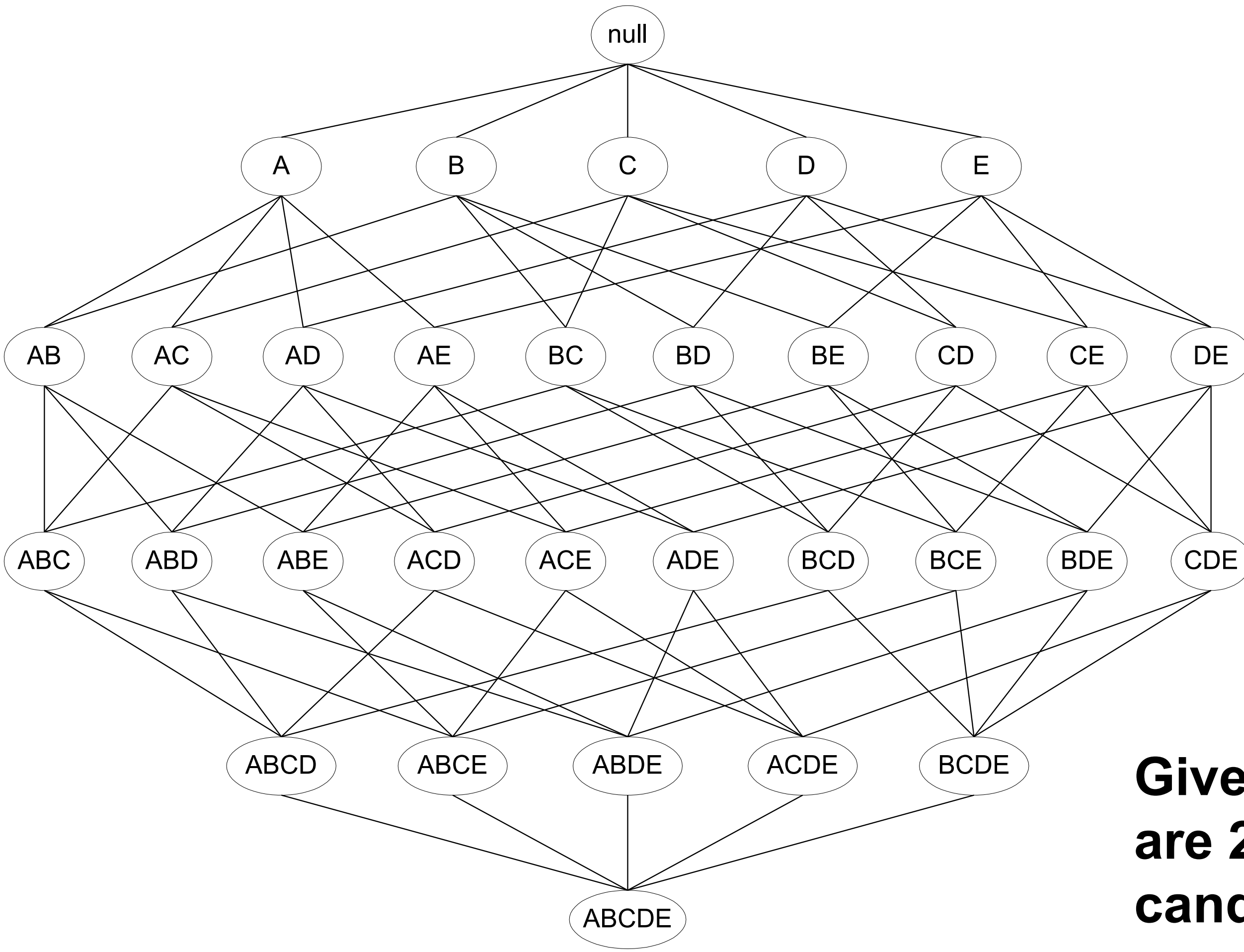
- Brute-force approach:
  - List all possible association rules
  - Compute the support and confidence for each rule
  - Prune rules that fail the *minsup* and *minconf* thresholds

  ⇒ Computationally prohibitive!

Association Approaches

- Two-step approach:
  - Frequent Itemset Generation
    - Generate all itemsets whose support $\geq$ minsupport
  - Rule Generation
    - Generate high confidence rules from each frequent itemset, where each rule is a binary partitioning of a frequent itemset
- Frequent itemset generation is still computationally expensive

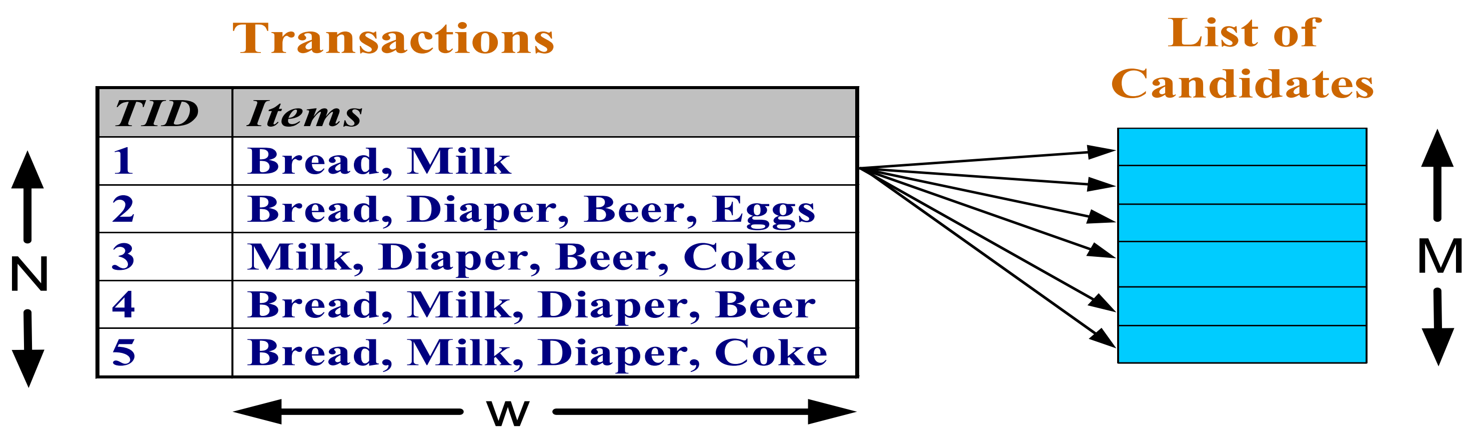
Frequent Itemset Generation



Given d items, there are 2^d possible candidate itemsets

Frequent Itemset Generation

- Brute-force approach:
  - Each itemset in the lattice is a candidate frequent itemset
  - Count the support of each candidate by scanning the database or the files



TID	Items
1	Bread, Milk
2	Bread, Diaper, Beer, Eggs
3	Milk, Diaper, Beer, Coke
4	Bread, Milk, Diaper, Beer
5	Bread, Milk, Diaper, Coke

  - Match each transaction against every candidate

Computation Model

- Typically, data is kept in a "flat file" rather than a database system.
  - Stored on disk.
  - Stored basket-by-basket.
  - Expand baskets into pairs, triples, etc. as you read baskets.
- The true cost of using disk-resident data is usually the number of disk I/O's.
- In practice, association-rule algorithms read the data in passes --- all baskets read in turn.
- Thus, we measure the cost by the number of passes an algorithm takes.

Main-Memory Bottleneck

- For many frequent-itemset algorithms, main memory is the critical resource.
  - As we read baskets, we need to count something, e.g., occurrences of pairs.
  - The number of different things we can count is limited by main memory.
  - Swapping counts in/out is a disaster.

Naive Algorithm (of Counting Pairs)

- Read file once, counting in main memory the occurrences of each pair.
  - Expand each basket of n items into its n (n -1)/2 pairs.
- Fails if (#items)^2 exceeds main memory.
  - Remember: #items can be 100K (Wal-Mart) or 10B (Web pages).

Details of Main-Memory Counting

- Two approaches:
  1. Count all item pairs, using a triangular matrix.
  2. Keep a table of triples [i, j, c] = the count of the pair of items {i,j } is c.
- 1 requires only (say) 4 bytes/pair.
- 2 requires 12 bytes, but only for those pairs with count > 0.

Frequent Itemset Generation Strategies

- Complexity ~ O(NMw) => Expensive since $M = 2^d$!!!
- Reduce the number of candidates (M)
  - Complete search: $M=2^d$
  - Use pruning techniques to reduce M
- Reduce the number of transactions (N)
  - Reduce size of N as the size of itemset increases
  - Data sampling
- Reduce the number of comparisons (NM)
  - Use efficient data structures to store the candidates or transactions
  - No need to match every candidate against every transaction

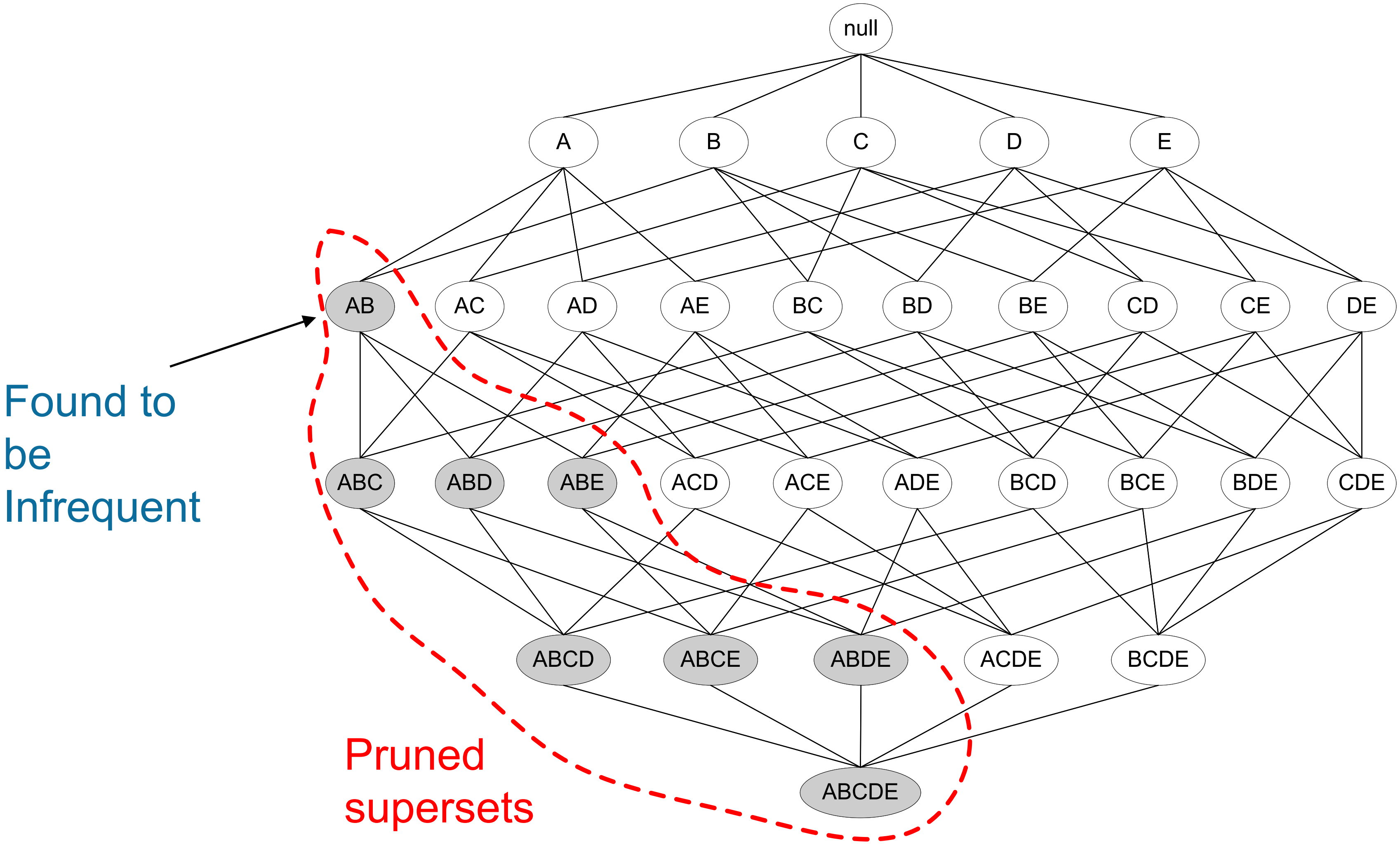
Reducing Number of Candidates

- A-Priori Algorithm
  - If an itemset is frequent, then all of its subsets must also be frequent
- A-Priori principle holds due to the following property of the support measure:

$$\forall X, Y : (X \subseteq Y) \Rightarrow s(X) \geq s(Y)$$

  - Support of an itemset never exceeds the support of its subsets
  - This is known as the anti-monotone property of support

Illustrating A-Priori Principle



A-Priori Algorithm

- A two-pass approach.
- Pass 1: Read baskets and count in main memory the occurrences of each item.
  - Requires only memory proportional to #items.
- Pass 2: Read baskets again and count in main memory only those pairs both of which were found in Pass 1 to be frequent.
  - Requires memory proportional to square of frequent items only.

A-Priori Algorithm

- Method:
  - Let k=1
  - Generate frequent itemsets of length 1
  - Repeat until no new frequent itemsets are identified
    - Generate length (k+1) candidate itemsets from length k frequent itemsets (Candidate generation step)
    - Prune candidate itemsets containing subsets of length k that are infrequent (Candidate pruning step)
    - Count the support of each candidate by scanning the DB
    - Eliminate candidates that are infrequent, leaving only those that are frequent

A-Priori Algorithm

- Pseudo-code:

C_k: Candidate itemset of size k
L_k : frequent itemset of size k

L_1 = {frequent items};
for (k = 1; L_k !=∅; k++) **do**
 begin
  C_{k+1} = candidates generated from L_k;
  for each transaction t in database do
    increment the count of all candidates in C_{k+1}
     that are contained in t
  L_{k+1} = candidates in C_{k+1} with more than min_support
  end
return $\cup_k L_k$;

The bottleneck of *A-Priori*

- candidate generation and support counting
  - Use frequent (*k* – 1)-itemsets to generate candidate frequent *k*-itemsets
  - Use database scan and pattern matching to collect counts for the candidate itemsets
  - Huge candidate sets:
    - 10^4 frequent 1-itemset will generate 10^7 candidate 2-itemsets
    - To discover a frequent pattern of size 100, e.g., $\{a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_{100}\}$, one needs to generate $2^{100} \approx 10^{30}$ candidates.
  - Multiple scans of database:
    - Needs $(n+1)$ scans, n is the length of the longest pattern

Reducing Number of Comparisons

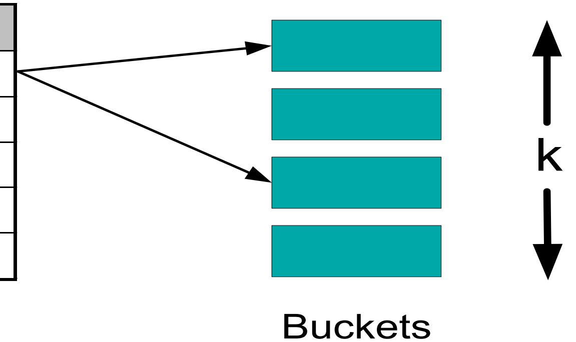
- Candidate counting:
  - Scan the database of transactions to determine the support of each candidate itemset
  - To reduce the number of comparisons, store the candidates in a hash structure
    - Instead of matching each transaction against every candidate, match it against candidates contained in the hashed buckets

Transactions

N

TID	*Items*
1	Bread, Milk
2	Bread, Diaper, Beer, Eggs
3	Milk, Diaper, Beer, Coke
4	Bread, Milk, Diaper, Beer
5	Bread, Milk, Diaper, Coke

Hash Structure



Generate Hash Tree

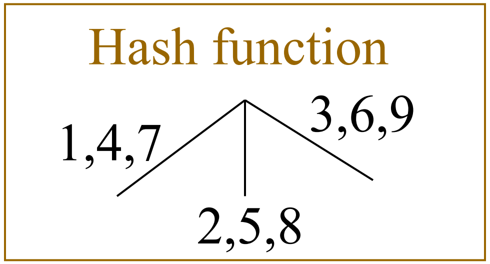
Suppose we have 15 candidate itemsets of length 3:

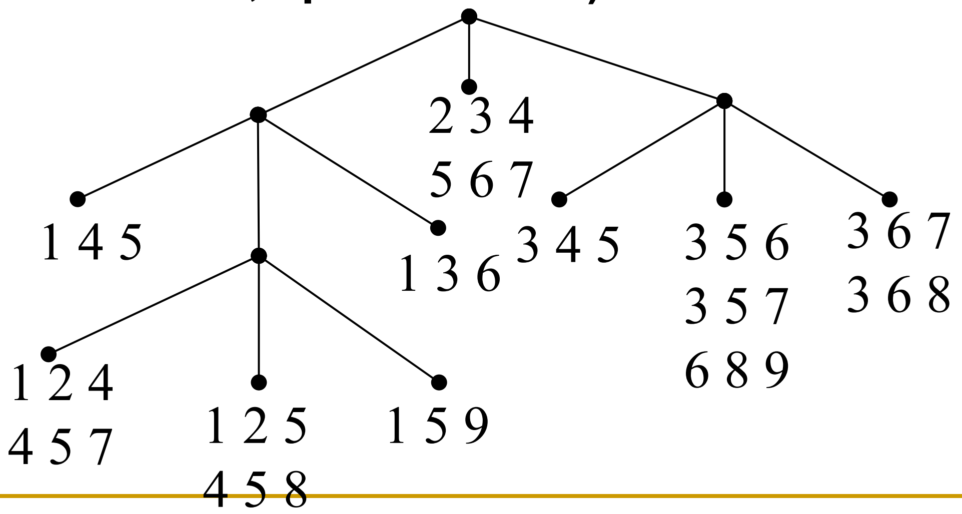
{1 4 5}, {1 2 4}, {4 5 7}, {1 2 5}, {4 5 8}, {1 5 9}, {1 3 6}, {2 3 4}, {5 6 7}, {3 4 5}, {3 5 6}, {3 5 7}, {6 8 9}, {3 6 7}, {3 6 8}

Suppose we have one transaction of length 5 contains: {1, 2, 4, 6, 8}

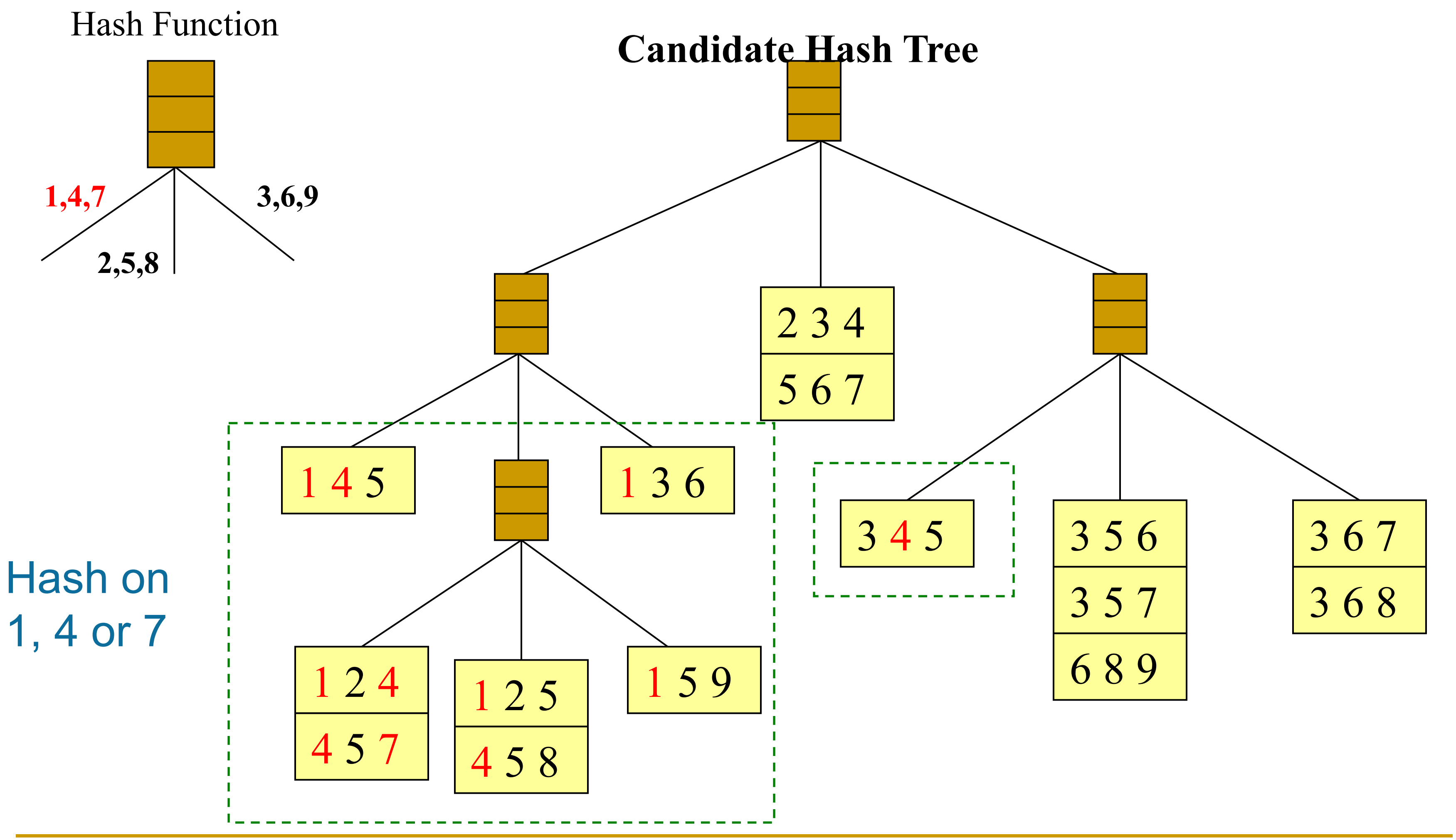
You need:

- **Hash function**
- **Max leaf size: max number of itemsets stored in a leaf node (if number of candidate itemsets exceeds max leaf size, split the node)**





Association Rule Discovery: Hash tree



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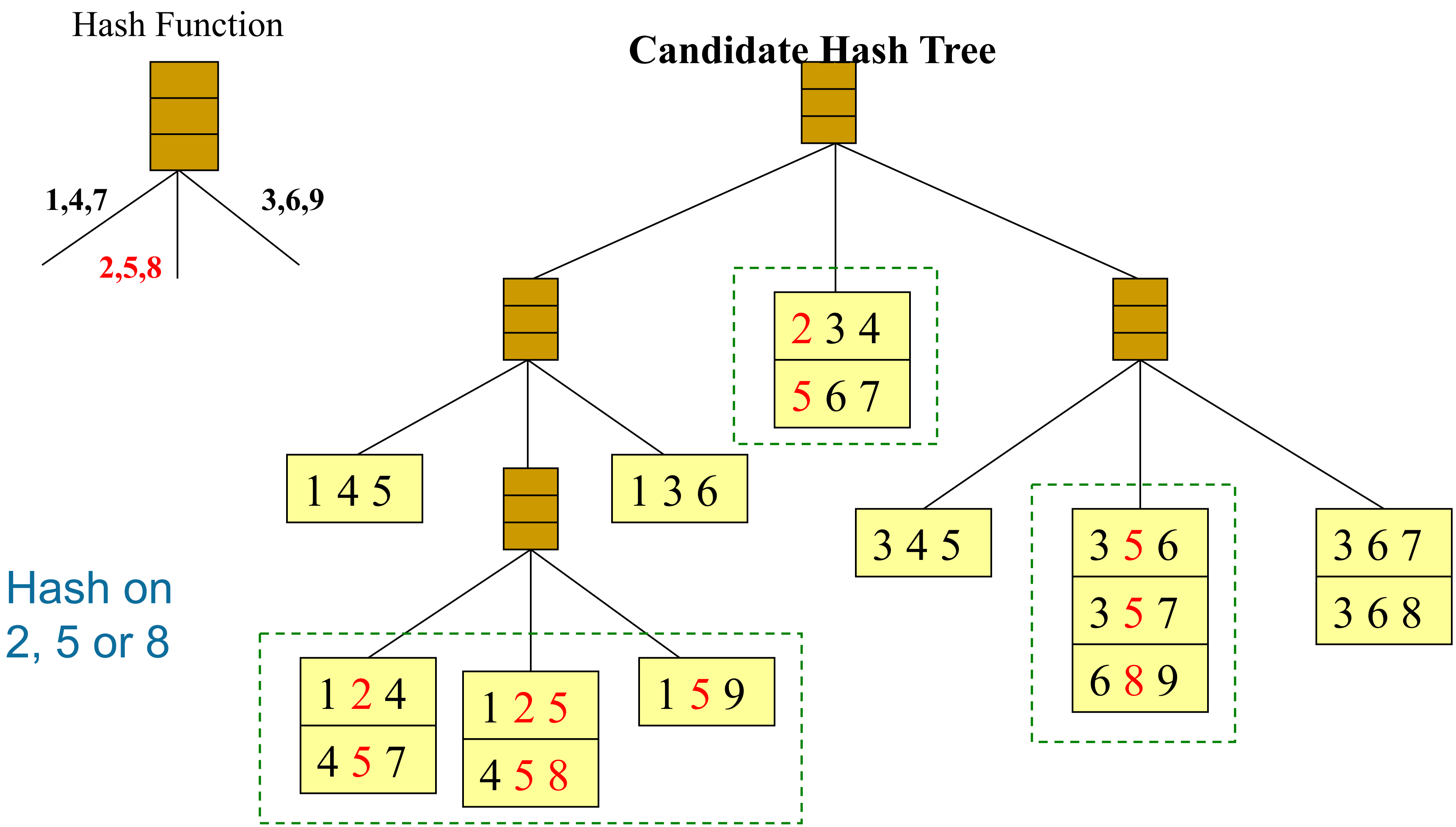
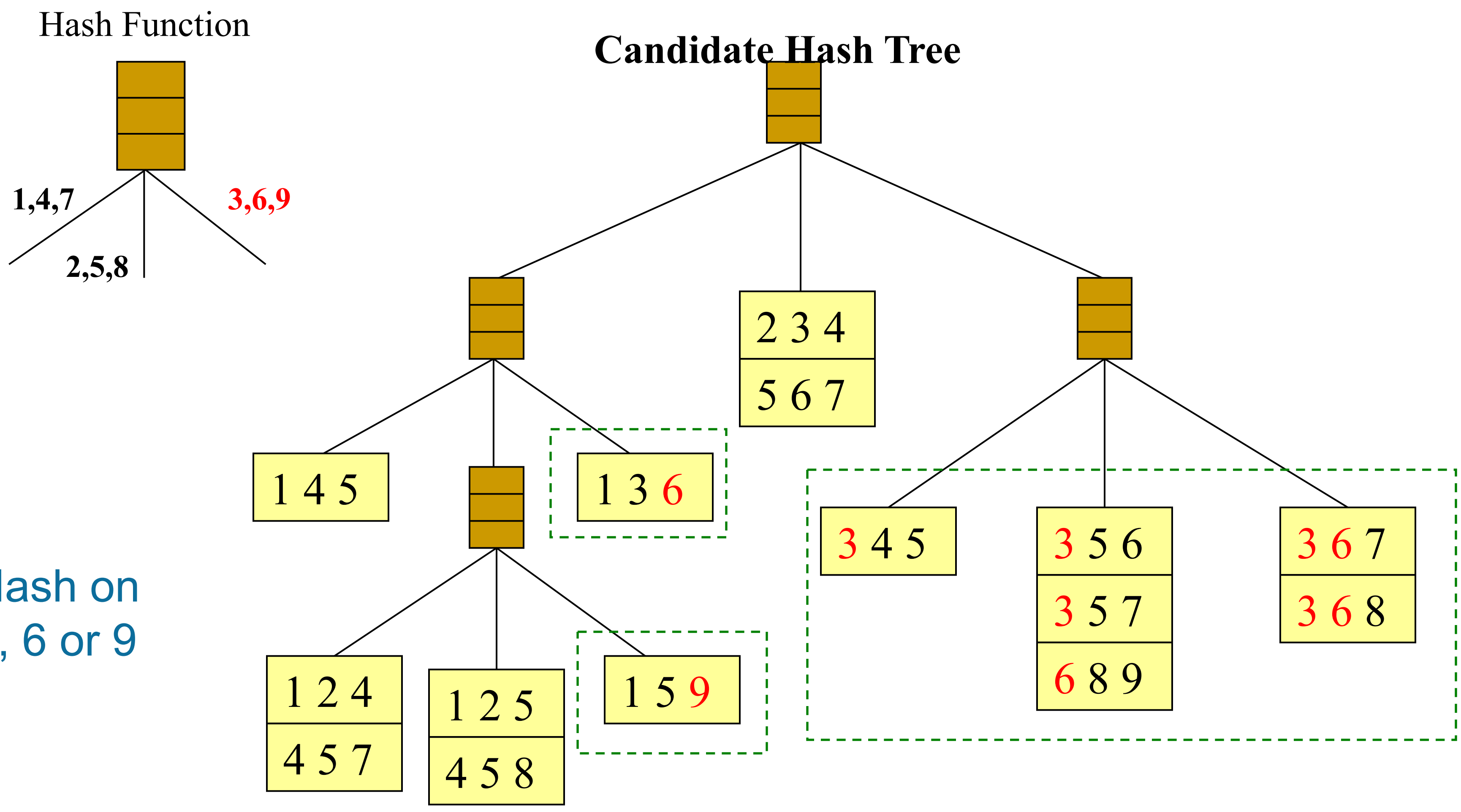


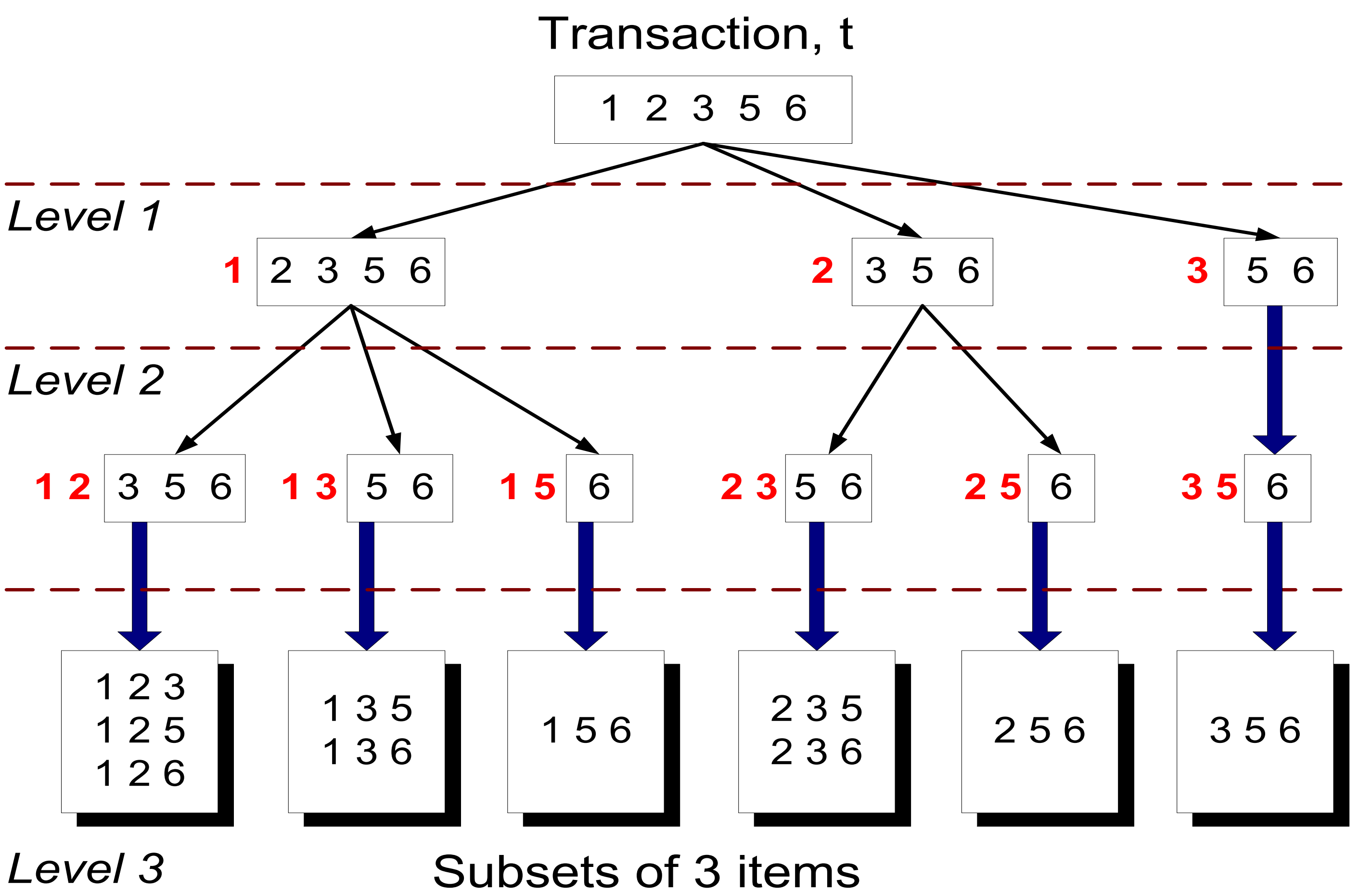
Association Rule Discovery: Hash tree



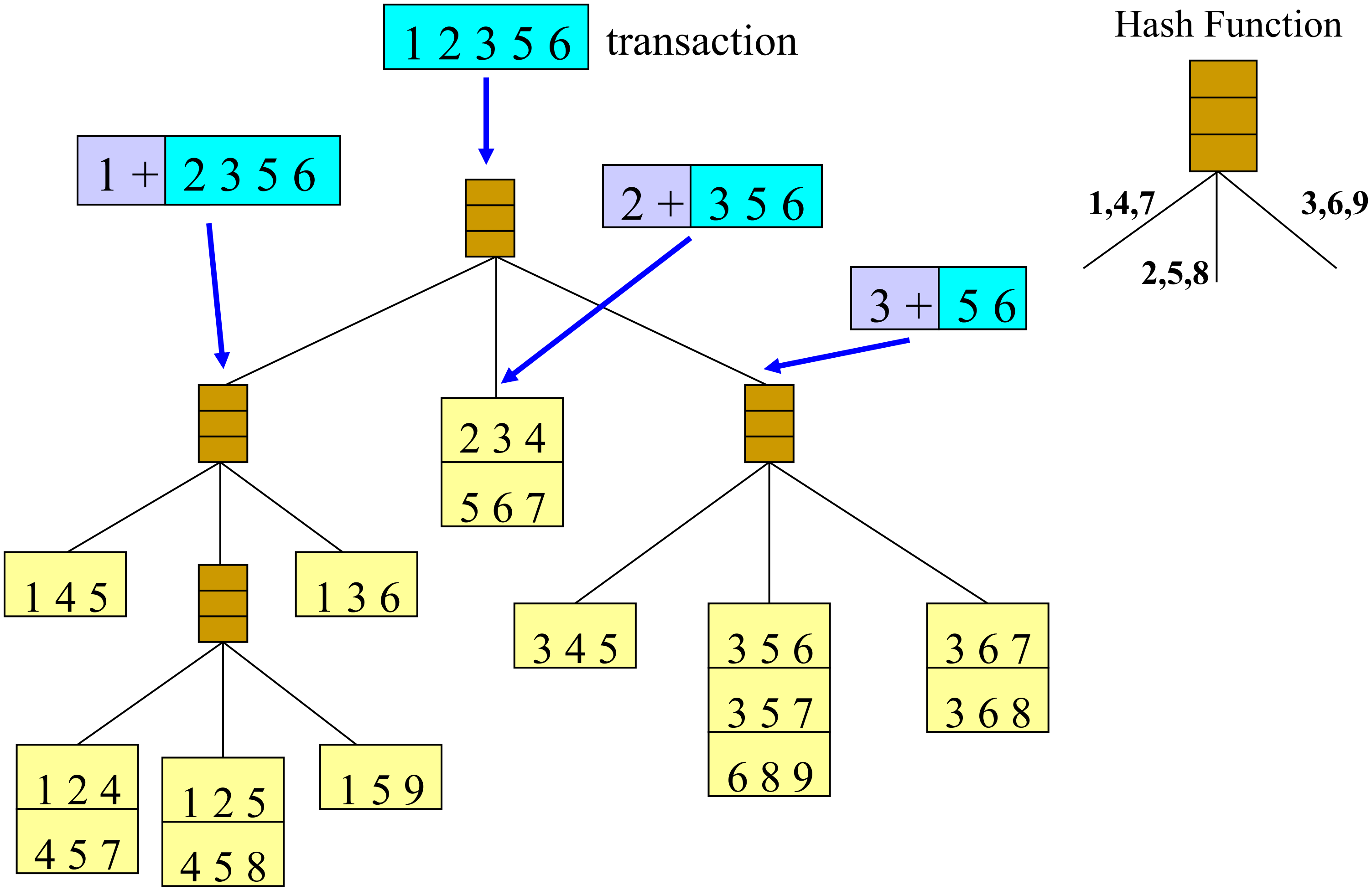
Hash on
3, 6 or 9

Subset Operation

Given a transaction t, what are the possible subsets of size 3?



Subset Operation Using Hash Tree



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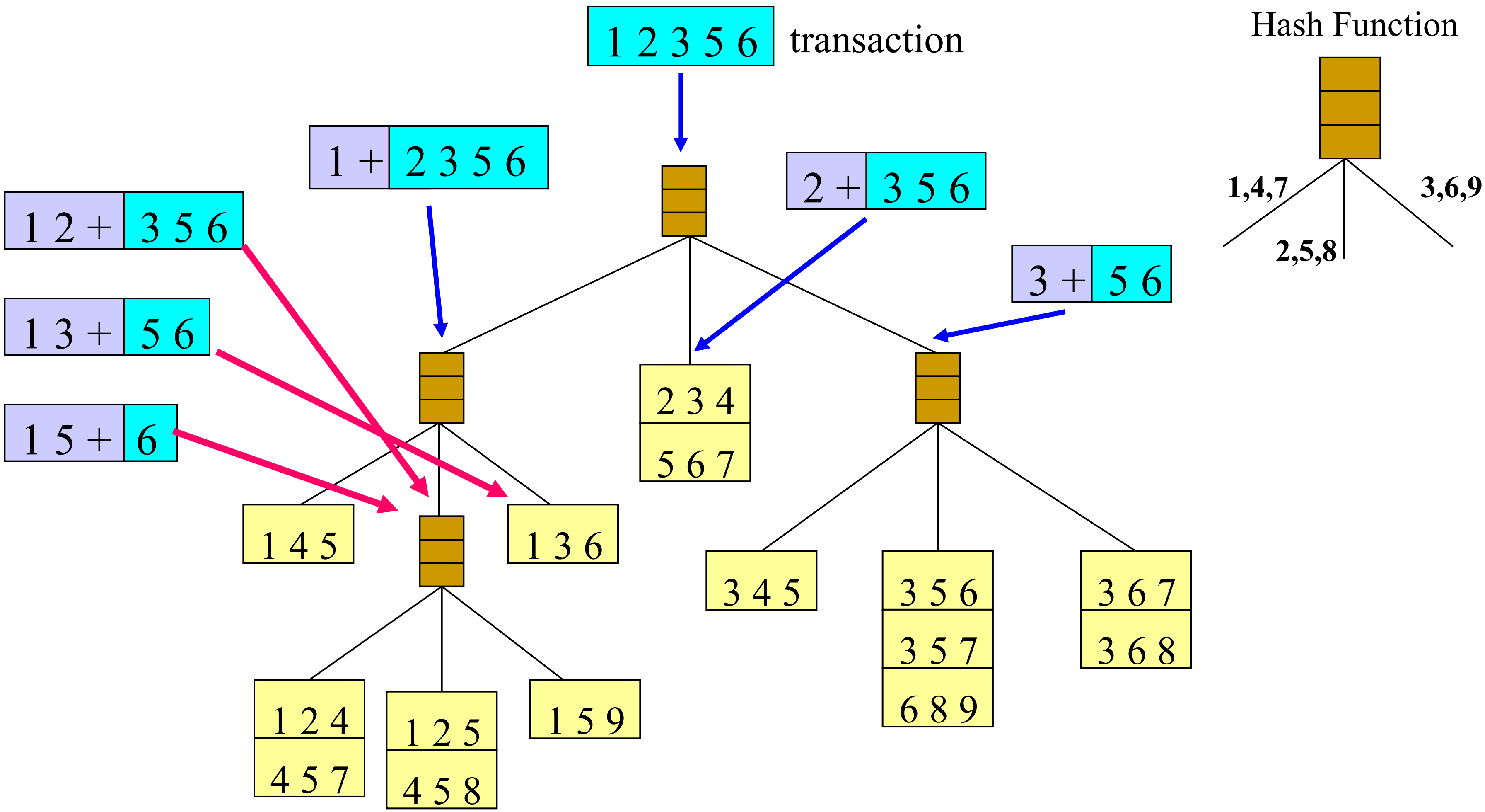
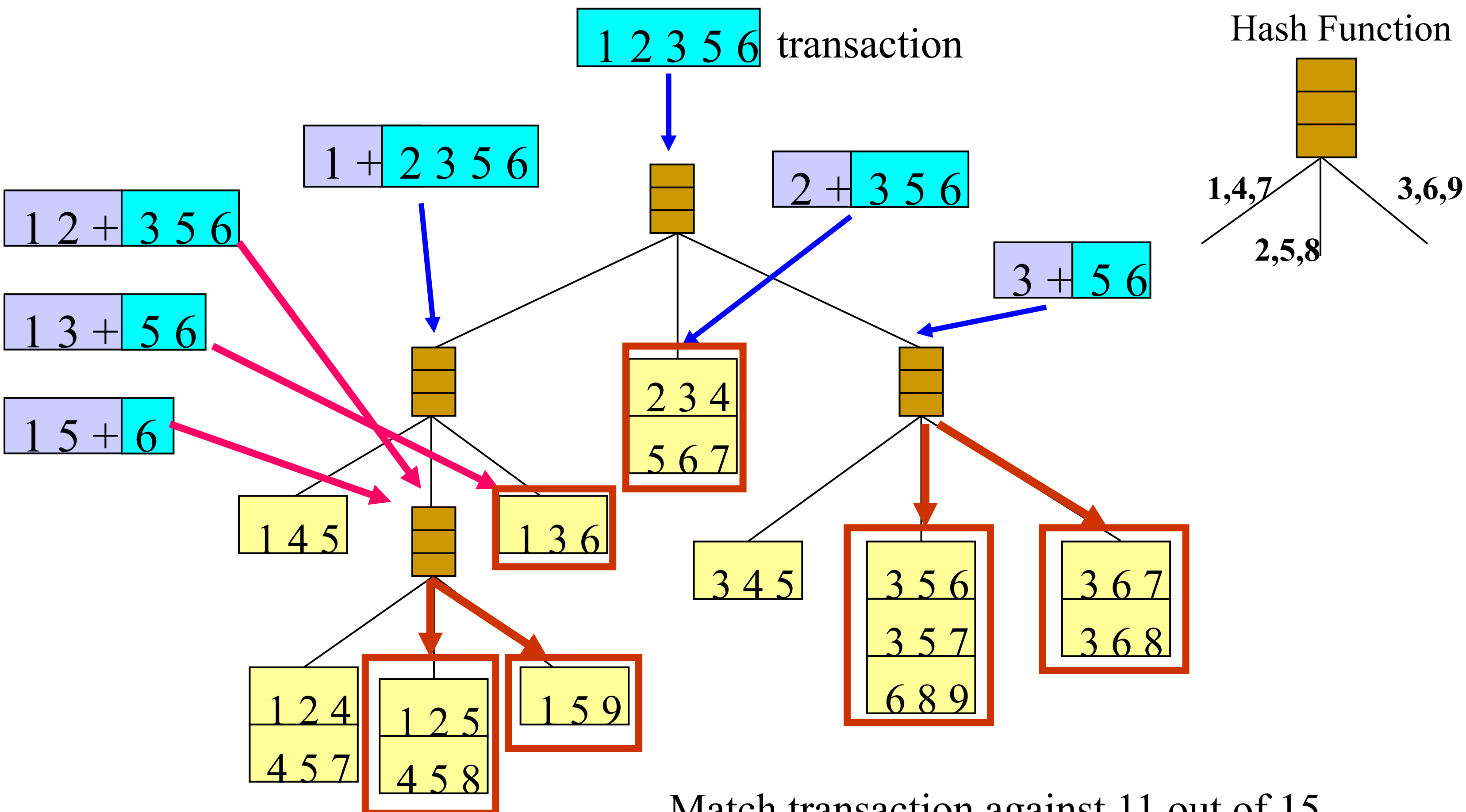


Subset Operation Using Hash Tree



Match transaction against 11 out of 15 candidates

Factors Affecting Complexity (I)

- Choice of minimum support threshold
  - Lowering support threshold results in more frequent itemsets
  - This may increase number of candidates and max length of frequent itemsets
- Dimensionality (number of items) of the data set
  - More space is needed to store support count of each item
  - If number of frequent items also increases, both computation and I/O costs may also increase

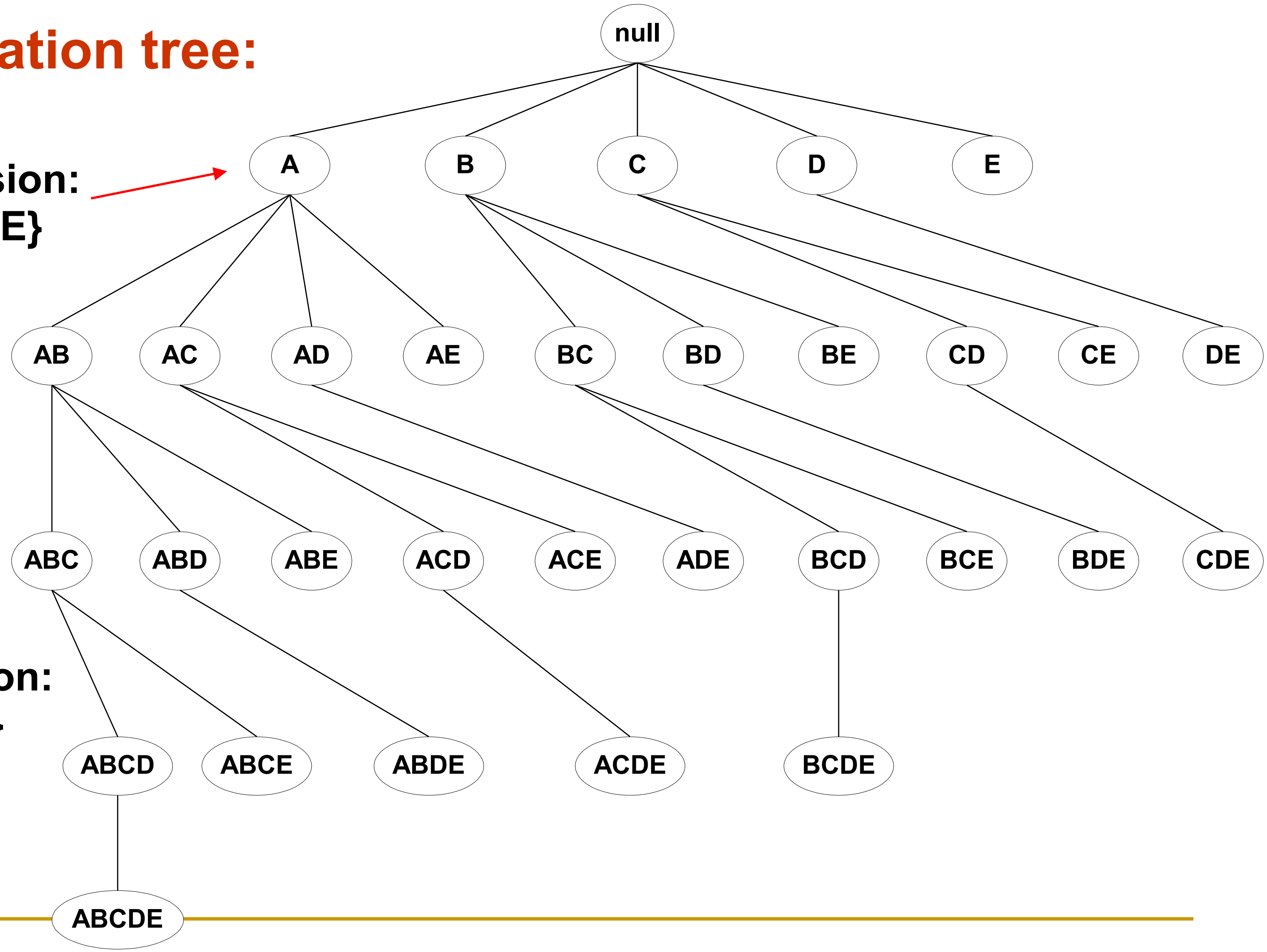
Factors Affecting Complexity (II)

- Size of database
  - Since A-priori makes multiple passes, run time of algorithm may increase with number of transactions
- Average transaction width
  - Transaction width increases with denser data sets
  - This may increase max length of frequent itemsets and traversals of hash tree (number of subsets in a transaction increases with its width)

Alternative: Tree Projection

Set enumeration tree:

Possible Extension:
E(A) = {B,C,D,E}



Possible Extension:
E(ABC) = {D,E}

Tree Projection

- Items are listed in lexicographic order
- Each node P stores the following information:
  - Itemset for node P
  - List of possible lexicographic extensions of P: E(P)
  - Pointer to projected database of its ancestor node
  - Bitvector containing information about which transactions in the projected database contain the itemset

Projected Database

Original Database:

TID	Items
1	{A,B}
2	{B,C,D}
3	{A,C,D,E}
4	{A,D,E}
5	{A,B,C}
6	{A,B,C,D}
7	{B,C}
8	{A,B,C}
9	{A,B,D}
10	{B,C,E}

Projected Database for node A:

TID	Items
1	{B}
2	{}
3	{C,D,E}
4	{D,E}
5	{B,C}
6	{B,C,D}
7	{}
8	{B,C}
9	{B,D}
10	{}

For each transaction T, projected transaction at node A is $T \cap E(A)$

ECLAT

- For each item, store a list of transaction ids (tids)

Horizontal Data Layout

TID	Items
1	A,B,E
2	B,C,D
3	C,E
4	A,C,D
5	A,B,C,D
6	A,E
7	A,B
8	A,B,C
9	A,C,D
10	B

Vertical Data Layout

A	B	C	D	E
1	1	2	2	1
4	2	3	4	3
5	5	4	5	6
6	7	8	9	
7	8	9		
8	10			
9				

TID-list

ECLAT

- Determine support of any k-itemset by intersecting tid-lists of two of its (k-1) subsets.

A
1
4
5
6
7
8
9

$\wedge$

B
1
2
5
7
8
10

$\rightarrow$

AB
1
5
7
8

- Advantage: very fast support counting
- Disadvantage: intermediate tid-lists may become too large for memory

Alternative Method for Generating Frequent Itemset --- FP-Growth

- Compress a large database into a compact, Frequent-Pattern tree (FP-tree) structure
  - highly condensed, but complete for frequent pattern finding
  - avoid costly database scans
- Develop an efficient, FP-tree-based frequent pattern finding method
  - A divide-and-conquer methodology
  - Avoid candidate generation

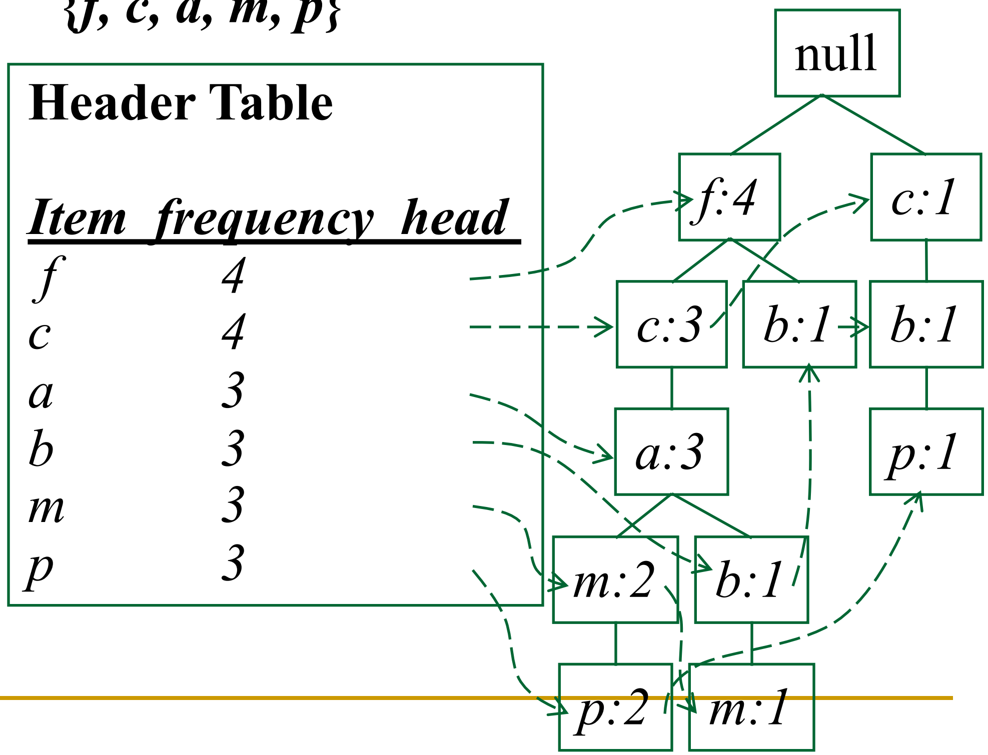
FP-tree construction

TID	*Items bought*	*(ordered) frequent items*
100	***{f, a, c, d, g, i, m, p}***	***{f, c, a, m, p}***
200	***{a, b, c, f, l, m, o}***	***{f, c, a, b, m}***
300	***{b, f, h, j, o}***	***{f, b}***
400	***{b, c, k, s, p}***	***{c, b, p}***
500	***{a, f, c, e, l, p, m, n}***	***{f, c, a, m, p}***

min_support = 0.5

Steps:

1. Scan DB once, find frequent 1-itemset (single item pattern)
2. Order frequent items in frequency descending order
3. Scan DB again, construct FP-tree



Benefits of the FP-tree Structure

- Completeness:
  - never breaks a long pattern of any transaction
  - preserves complete information for frequent pattern finding
- Compactness
  - reduce irrelevant information—infrequent items are gone
  - frequency descending ordering: more frequent items are more likely to be shared
  - never be larger than the original database (if not count node-links and counts)

Finding Frequent Patterns Using FP-tree

- General idea (divide-and-conquer)
  - Recursively grow frequent pattern path using the FP-tree
- Method
  - For each item, construct its conditional pattern-base, and then its conditional FP-tree
  - Repeat the process on each newly created conditional FP-tree
  - Until the resulting FP-tree is empty, or it contains only one path (single path will generate all the combinations of its sub-paths, each of which is a frequent pattern)

Major Steps to Construct FP-tree

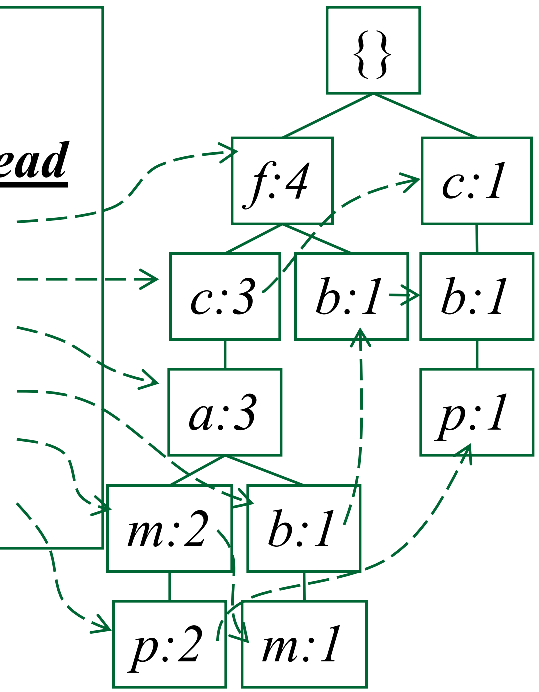
1) Construct conditional pattern base for each node in the FP-tree
2) Construct conditional FP-tree from each conditional pattern-base
3) Recursively construct conditional FP-trees and grow frequent patterns obtained so far
    - If the conditional FP-tree contains a single path, simply enumerate all the patterns

Step 1: From FP-tree to Conditional Pattern Base

- Starting at the frequent header table in the FP-tree
- Traverse the FP-tree by following the link of each frequent item
- Accumulate all of transformed prefix paths of that item to form a conditional pattern base

Header Table

Item	*frequency*	*head*
f	4	
c	4	
a	3	
b	3	
m	3	
p	3	



Conditional **pattern bases**

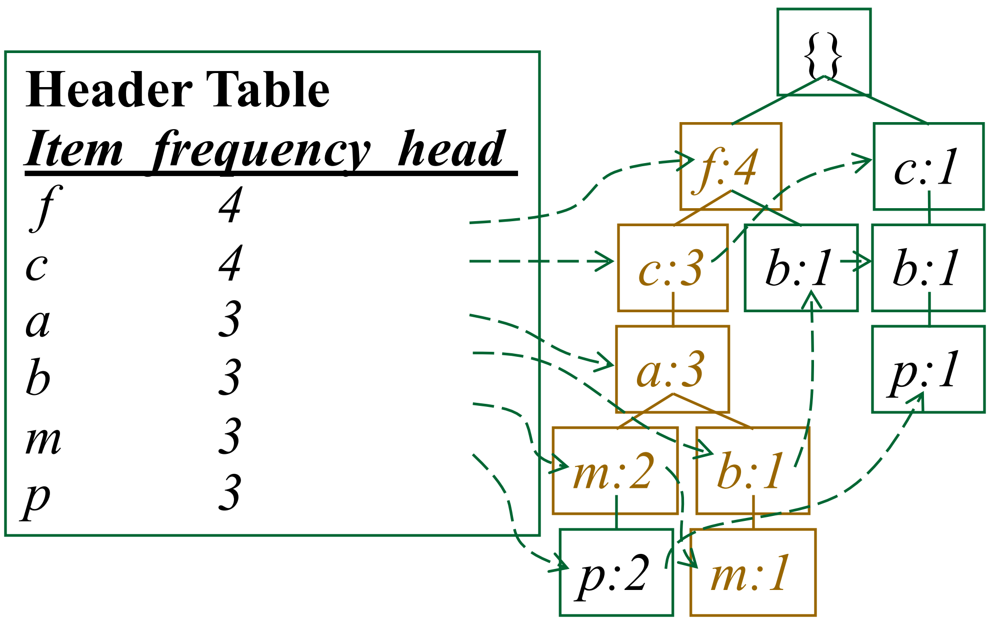
item	***cond. pattern base***
c	***f:3***
a	***fc:3***
b	***fca:1, f:1, c:1***
m	***fca:2, fcab:1***
p	***fcam:2, cb:1***

Properties of FP-tree for Conditional Pattern Base Construction

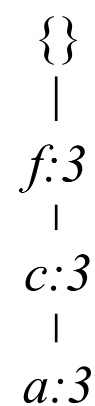
- Node-link property
  - For any frequent item a_i, all the possible frequent patterns that contain a_i can be obtained by following a_i's node-links, starting from a_i's head in the FP-tree header
- Prefix path property
  - To calculate the frequent patterns for a node a_i in a path *P*, only the prefix sub-path of a_i in *P* need to be accumulated, and its frequency count should carry the same count as node a_i.

Step 2: Construct Conditional FP-tree

- For each pattern-base
  - Accumulate the count for each item in the base
  - Construct the FP-tree for the frequent items of the pattern base



***m-conditional* pattern base:**
fca:2, fcab:1



***m-conditional* FP-tree**

All frequent patterns concerning *m*

m,
fm, cm, am,
fcm, fam, cam,
fcam

Finding Frequent Patterns by Creating Conditional Pattern-Bases

Item	Conditional pattern-base	Conditional FP-tree
p	{(fcam:2), (cb:1)}	{(c:3)}|p
m	{(fca:2), (fcab:1)}	{(f:3, c:3, a:3)}|m
b	{(fca:1), (f:1), (c:1)}	Empty
a	{(fc:3)}	{(f:3, c:3)}|a
c	{(f:3)}	{(f:3)}|c
f	Empty	Empty

Step 3: Recursively Construct the conditional FP-tree

{}
|
f:3
|
c:3
|
a:3

m-conditional **FP-tree**

Cond. pattern base of "am": (fc:3)

{}
|
f:3
|
c:3

am-conditional **FP-tree**

Cond. pattern base of "cm": (f:3)

{}
|
f:3

cm-conditional **FP-tree**

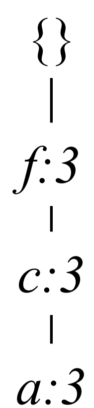
Cond. pattern base of "cam": (f:3)

{}
|
f:3

cam-conditional **FP-tree**

Single FP-tree Path Generation

- Suppose an FP-tree T has a single path P
- The complete set of frequent pattern of T can be generated by enumeration of all the combinations of the sub-paths of P



➔

All frequent patterns concerning *m*

***m*,**

***fm*, *cm*, *am*,**

***fcm*, *fam*, *cam*,**

fcam

***m-conditional* FP-tree**

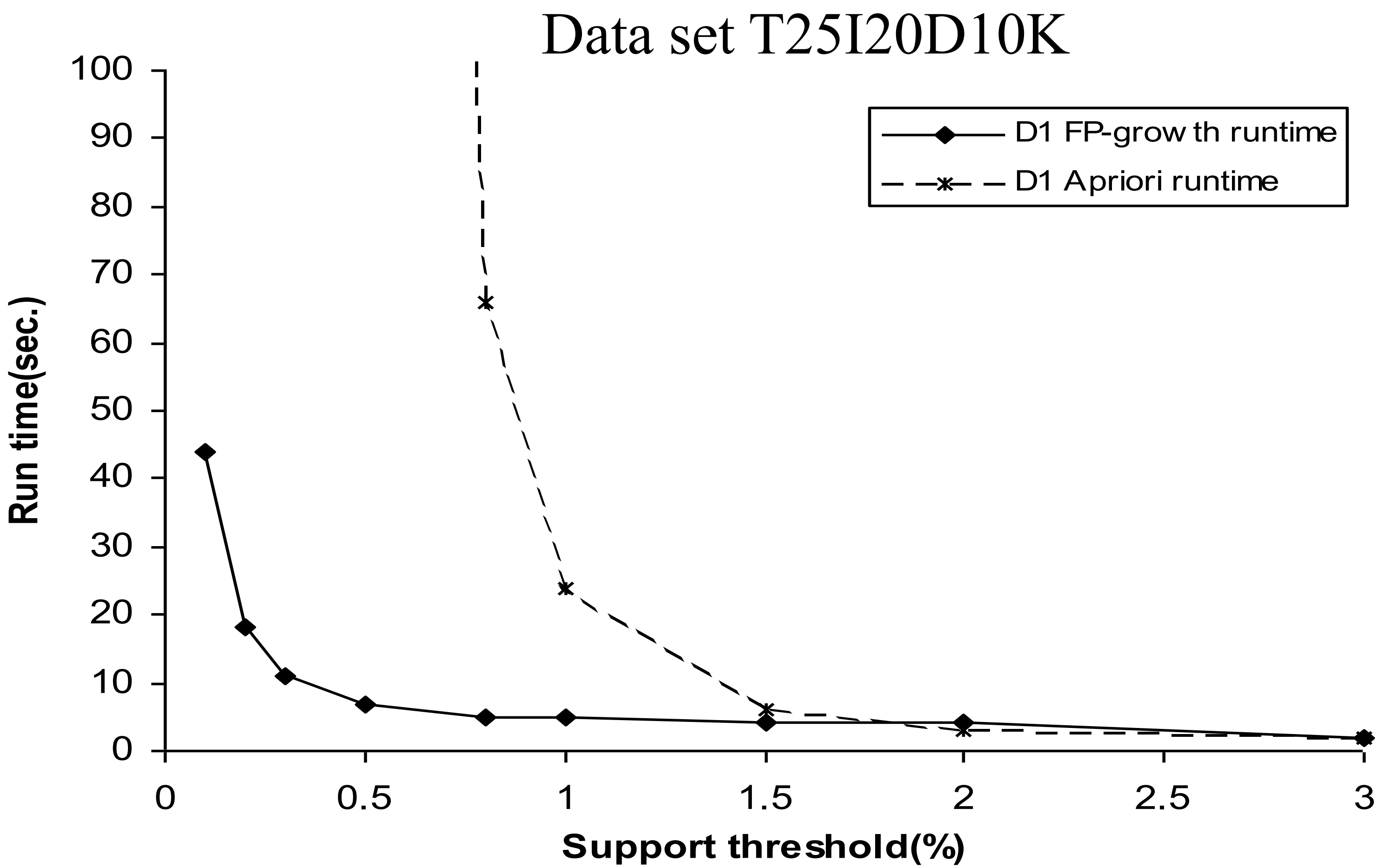
Principles of Frequent Pattern Growth

- Pattern growth property
  - Let α be a frequent itemset in DB, B be α's conditional pattern base, and β be an itemset in B. Then $\alpha \cup \beta$ is a frequent itemset in DB iff β is frequent in B.
- "*abcdef* " is a frequent pattern, if and only if
  - "*abcde* " is a frequent pattern, and
  - "*f* " is frequent in the set of transactions containing "*abcde*"

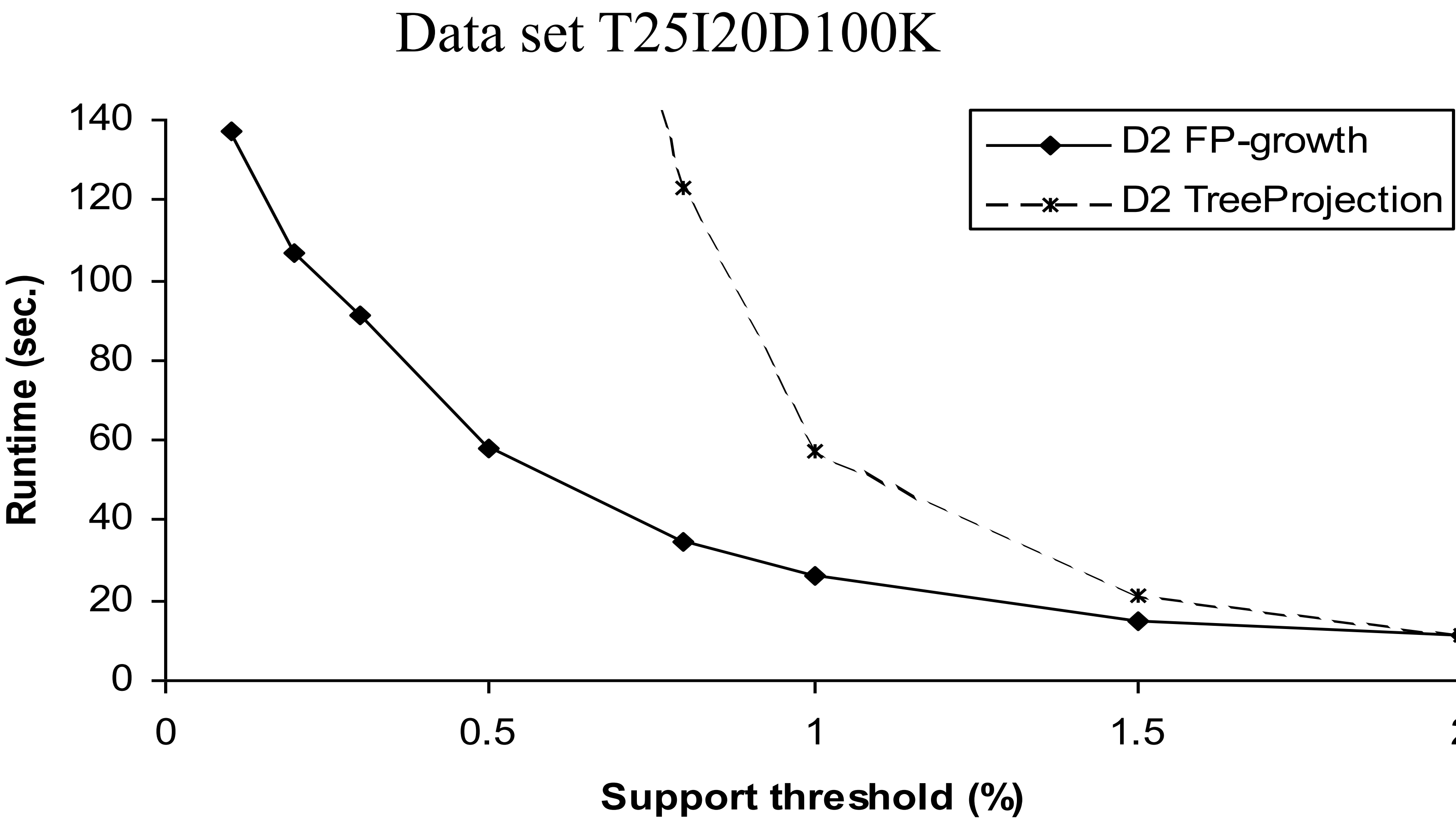
Why Is FP Growth Fast?

- Our performance study shows
  - FP-growth is an order of magnitude faster than Apriori, and is also faster than tree-projection
- Reasoning
  - No candidate generation, no candidate test
  - Use compact data structure
  - Eliminate repeated database scan
  - Basic operation is counting and FP-tree building

FP-growth vs. Apriori: Scalability With the Support Threshold



FP-growth vs. Tree-Projection: Scalability with Support Threshold



Rule Generation

- Given a frequent itemset L, find all non-empty subsets $f \subset L$ such that $f \to L - f$ satisfies the minimum confidence requirement
  - If {A,B,C,D} is a frequent itemset, candidate rules:

    ABC →D, ABD →C, ACD →B, BCD →A,
    A →BCD, B →ACD, C →ABD, D →ABC
    AB →CD, AC → BD, AD → BC, BC →AD,
    BD →AC, CD →AB,

- If |L| = k, then there are $2^k - 2$ candidate association rules (ignoring $L \to \emptyset$ and $\emptyset \to L$)

Rule Generation

- How to efficiently generate rules from frequent itemsets?
  - In general, confidence does not have an anti-monotone property

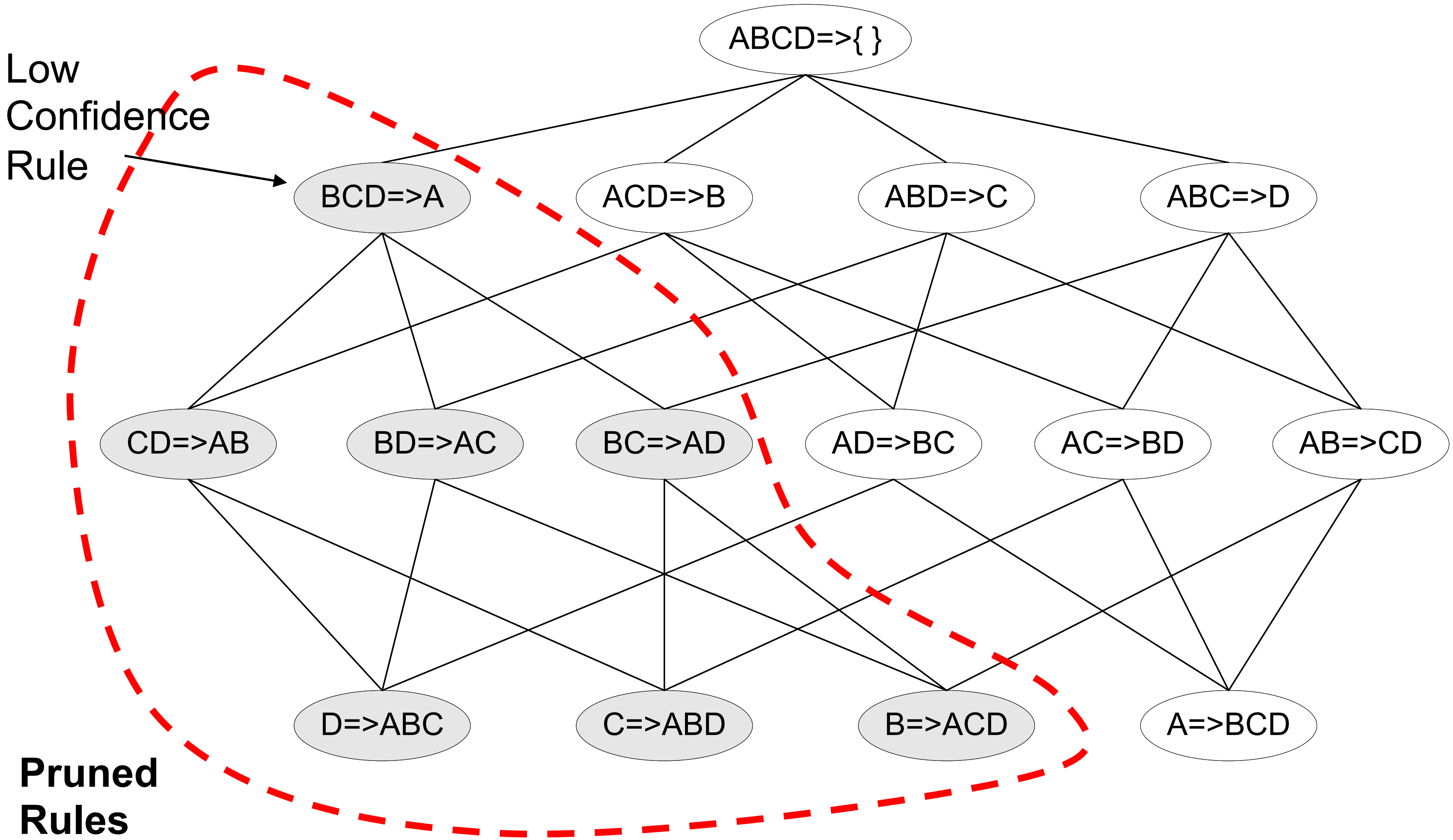
    $c(ABC \rightarrow D)$ can be larger or smaller than $c(AB \rightarrow D)$
  - But confidence of rules generated from the same itemset has an anti-monotone property
  - e.g., $L = \{A,B,C,D\}$:

    $$c(ABC \rightarrow D) \geq c(AB \rightarrow CD) \geq c(A \rightarrow BCD)$$

    - Confidence is anti-monotone w.r.t. number of items on the RHS of the rule

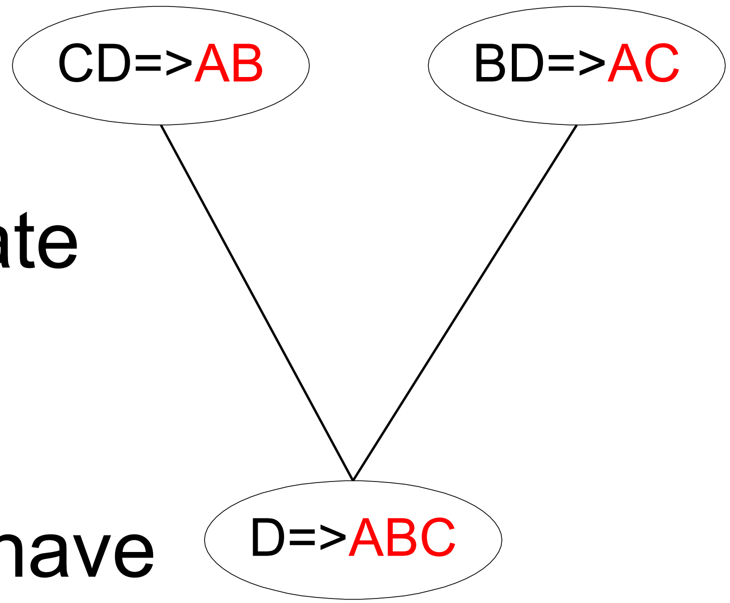
Rule Generation for A-Priori Algorithm

Lattice of rules



Rule Generation for A-Priori Algorithm

- Candidate rule is generated by merging two rules that share the same prefix in the rule consequent
- join(CD=>AB,BD=>AC) would produce the candidate rule D => ABC
- Prune rule D=>ABC if its subset AD=>BC does not have high confidence

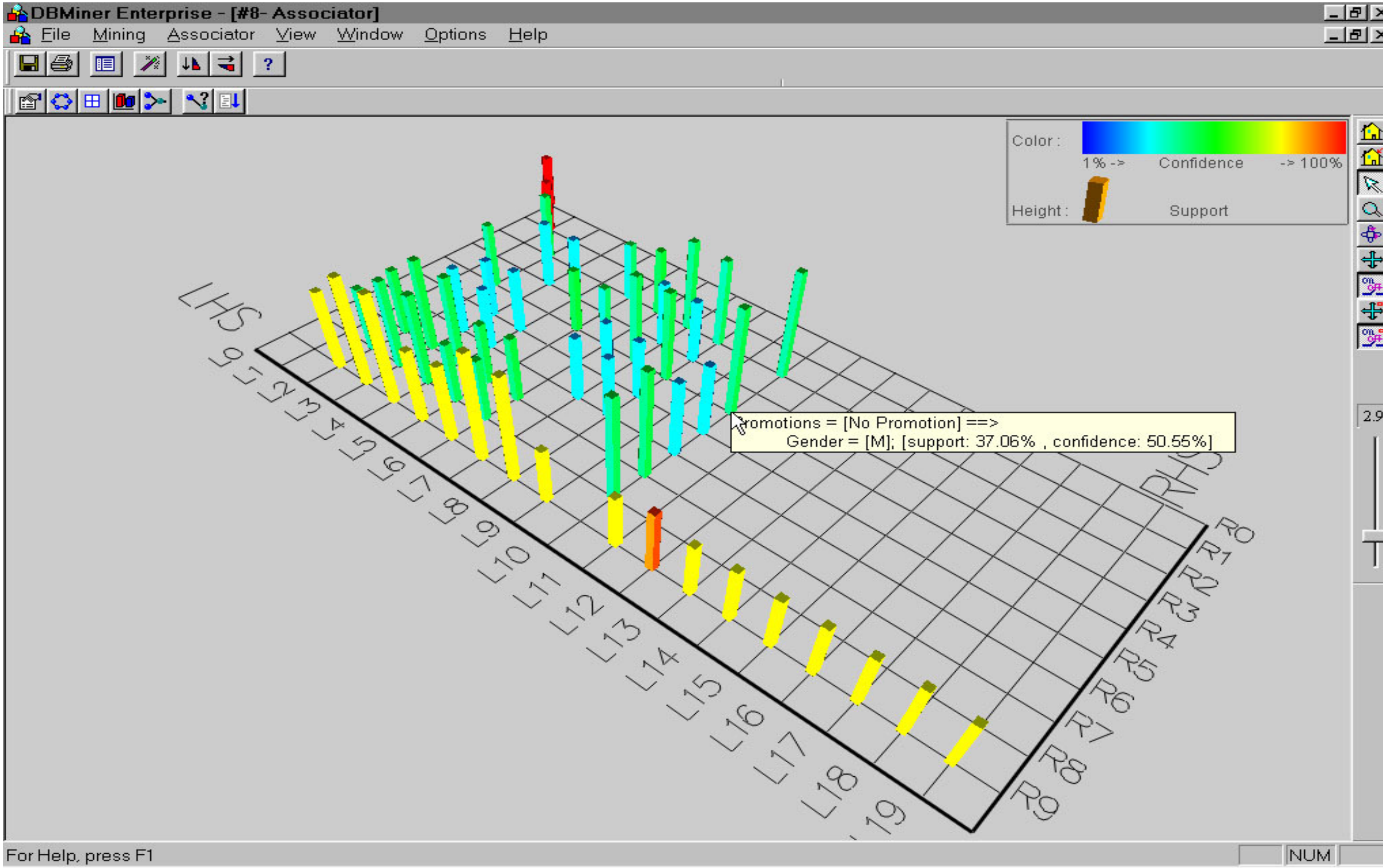


Presentation of Association Rules (Table Form)

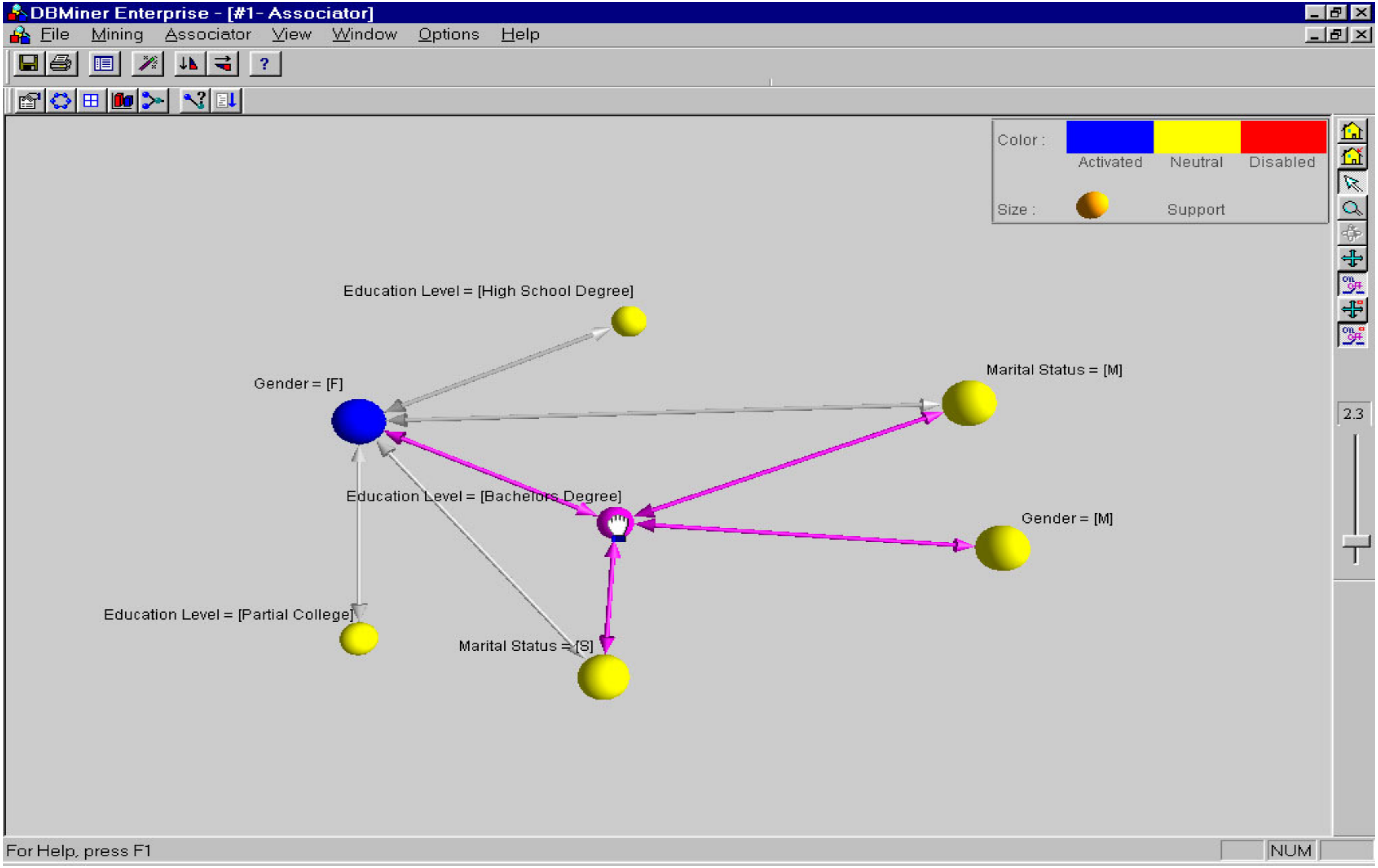
	Body	Implies	Head	Supp (%)	Conf (%)	F	G	H	I
1	cost(x) = '0.00~1000.00'	==>	revenue(x) = '0.00~500.00'	28.45	40.4				
2	cost(x) = '0.00~1000.00'	==>	revenue(x) = '500.00~1000.00'	20.46	29.05				
3	cost(x) = '0.00~1000.00'	==>	order_qty(x) = '0.00~100.00'	59.17	84.04				
4	cost(x) = '0.00~1000.00'	==>	revenue(x) = '1000.00~1500.00'	10.45	14.84				
5	cost(x) = '0.00~1000.00'	==>	region(x) = 'United States'	22.56	32.04				
6	cost(x) = '1000.00~2000.00'	==>	order_qty(x) = '0.00~100.00'	12.91	69.34				
7	order_qty(x) = '0.00~100.00'	==>	revenue(x) = '0.00~500.00'	28.45	34.54				
8	order_qty(x) = '0.00~100.00'	==>	cost(x) = '1000.00~2000.00'	12.91	15.67				
9	order_qty(x) = '0.00~100.00'	==>	region(x) = 'United States'	25.9	31.45				
10	order_qty(x) = '0.00~100.00'	==>	cost(x) = '0.00~1000.00'	59.17	71.86				
11	order_qty(x) = '0.00~100.00'	==>	product_line(x) = 'Tents'	13.52	16.42				
12	order_qty(x) = '0.00~100.00'	==>	revenue(x) = '500.00~1000.00'	19.67	23.88				
13	product_line(x) = 'Tents'	==>	order_qty(x) = '0.00~100.00'	13.52	98.72				
14	region(x) = 'United States'	==>	order_qty(x) = '0.00~100.00'	25.9	81.94				
15	region(x) = 'United States'	==>	cost(x) = '0.00~1000.00'	22.56	71.39				
16	revenue(x) = '0.00~500.00'	==>	cost(x) = '0.00~1000.00'	28.45	100				
17	revenue(x) = '0.00~500.00'	==>	order_qty(x) = '0.00~100.00'	28.45	100				
18	revenue(x) = '1000.00~1500.00'	==>	cost(x) = '0.00~1000.00'	10.45	96.75				
19	revenue(x) = '500.00~1000.00'	==>	cost(x) = '0.00~1000.00'	20.46	100				
20	revenue(x) = '500.00~1000.00'	==>	order_qty(x) = '0.00~100.00'	19.67	96.14				
21									
22									
23	cost(x) = '0.00~1000.00'	==>	revenue(x) = '0.00~500.00' AND order_qty(x) = '0.00~100.00'	28.45	40.4				
24	cost(x) = '0.00~1000.00'	==>	revenue(x) = '0.00~500.00' AND order_qty(x) = '0.00~100.00'	28.45	40.4				
25	cost(x) = '0.00~1000.00'	==>	revenue(x) = '500.00~1000.00' AND order_qty(x) = '0.00~100.00'	19.67	27.93				
26	cost(x) = '0.00~1000.00'	==>	revenue(x) = '500.00~1000.00' AND order_qty(x) = '0.00~100.00'	19.67	27.93				
27	cost(x) = '0.00~1000.00' AND order_qty(x) = '0.00~100.00'	==>	revenue(x) = '500.00~1000.00'	19.67	33.23				

Sheet1

Visualization of Association Rule Using Plane Graph



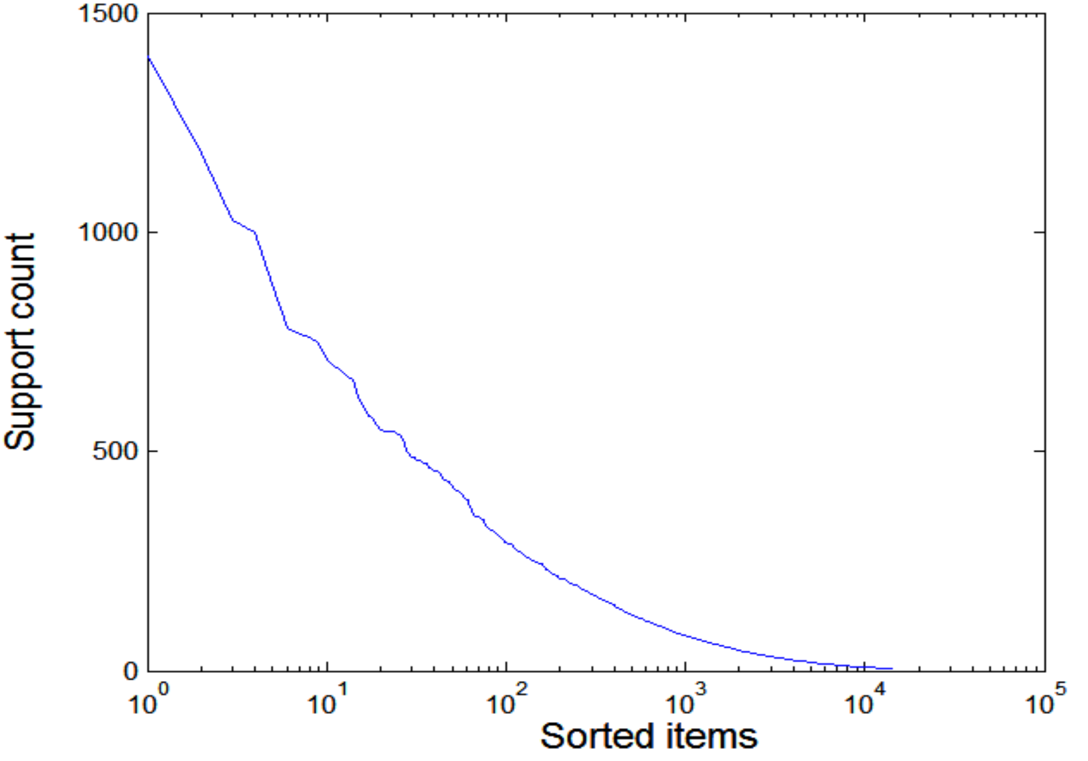
Visualization of Association Rule Using Rule Graph



Effect of Support Distribution

- Many real data sets have skewed support distribution

Support distribution of a retail data set



Effect of Support Distribution

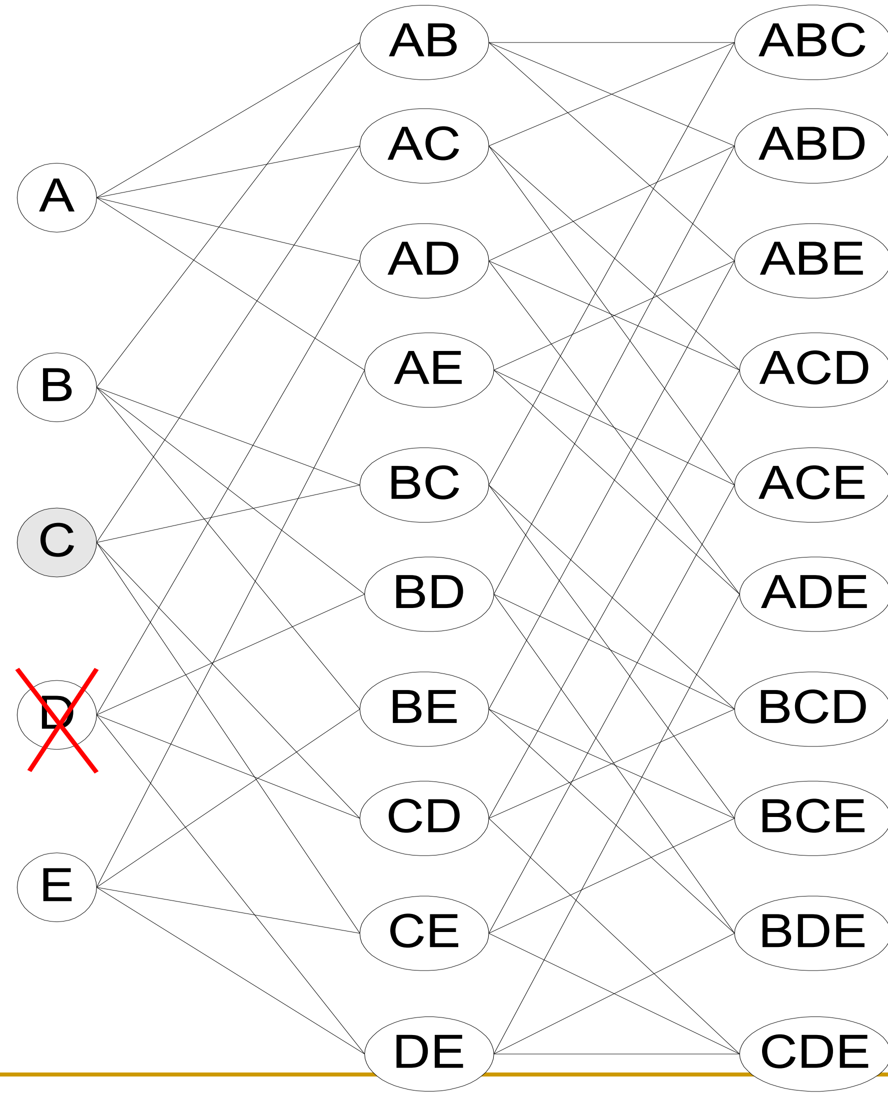
- How to set the appropriate *minsup* threshold?
  - If *minsup* is set too high, we could miss itemsets involving interesting rare items (e.g., expensive products)
  - If *minsup* is set too low, it is computationally expensive and the number of itemsets is very large
- Using a single minimum support threshold may not be effective

Multiple Minimum Support

- How to apply multiple minimum supports?
  - MS(i): minimum support for item i
  - e.g.: MS(Milk)=5%, MS(Coke) = 3%, MS(Broccoli)=0.1%, MS(Salmon)=0.5%
  - MS({Milk, Broccoli}) = min (MS(Milk), MS(Broccoli)) = 0.1%
  - Challenge: Support is no longer anti-monotone
    - Suppose: Support(Milk, Coke) = 1.5% and Support(Milk, Coke, Broccoli) = 0.5%
    - {Milk,Coke} is infrequent but {Milk,Coke,Broccoli} is frequent

Multiple Minimum Support

Item	MS(I)	Sup(I)
A	0.10%	0.25%
B	0.20%	0.26%
C	0.30%	0.29%
D	0.50%	0.05%
E	3%	4.20%



Multiple Minimum Support

Item	MS(I)	Sup(I)
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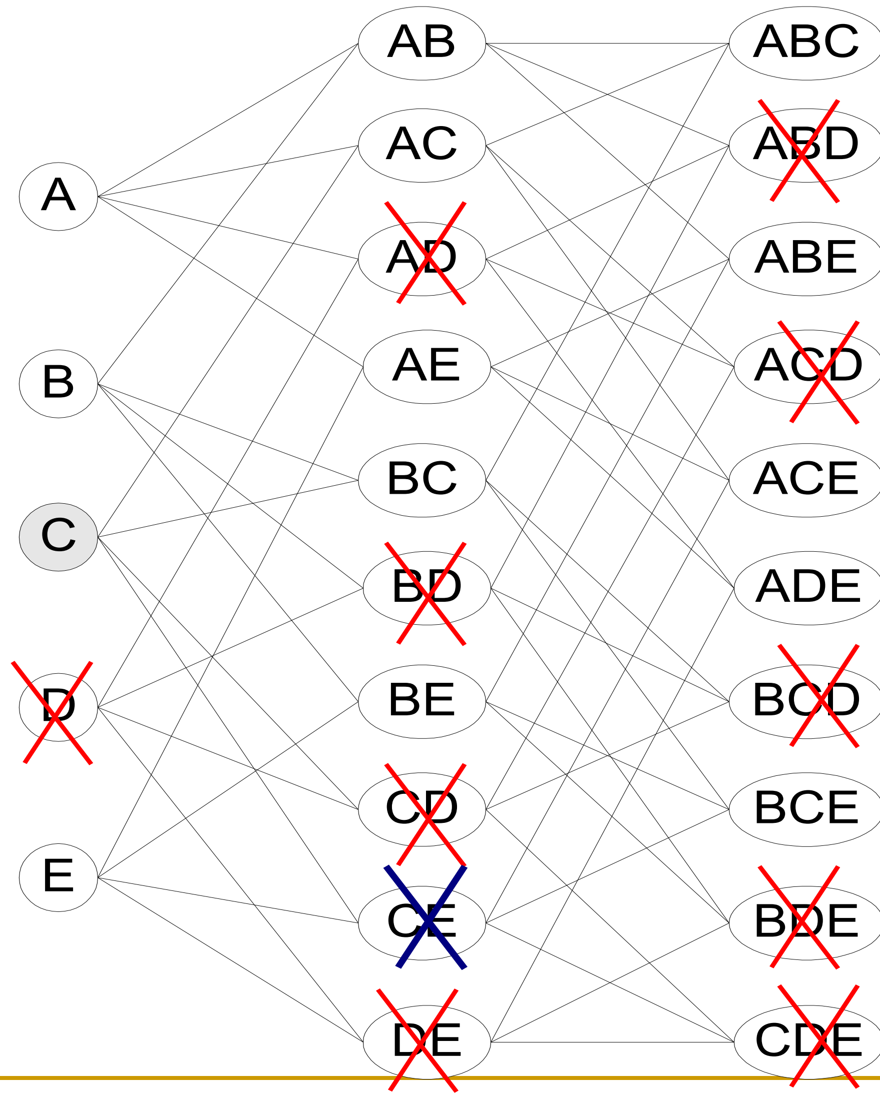
E	3%	4.20%



Multiple Minimum Support

- Order the items according to their minimum support (in ascending order)
  - e.g.: MS(Milk)=5%, MS(Coke) = 3%, MS(Broccoli)=0.1%, MS(Salmon)=0.5%
  - Ordering: Broccoli, Salmon, Coke, Milk
- Need to modify A-Priori such that:
  - L_1 : set of frequent items
  - F_1 : set of items whose support is ≥ MS(1) where MS(1) is $\min_i$(MS(i))
  - C_2 : candidate itemsets of size 2 is generated from F_1 instead of L_1

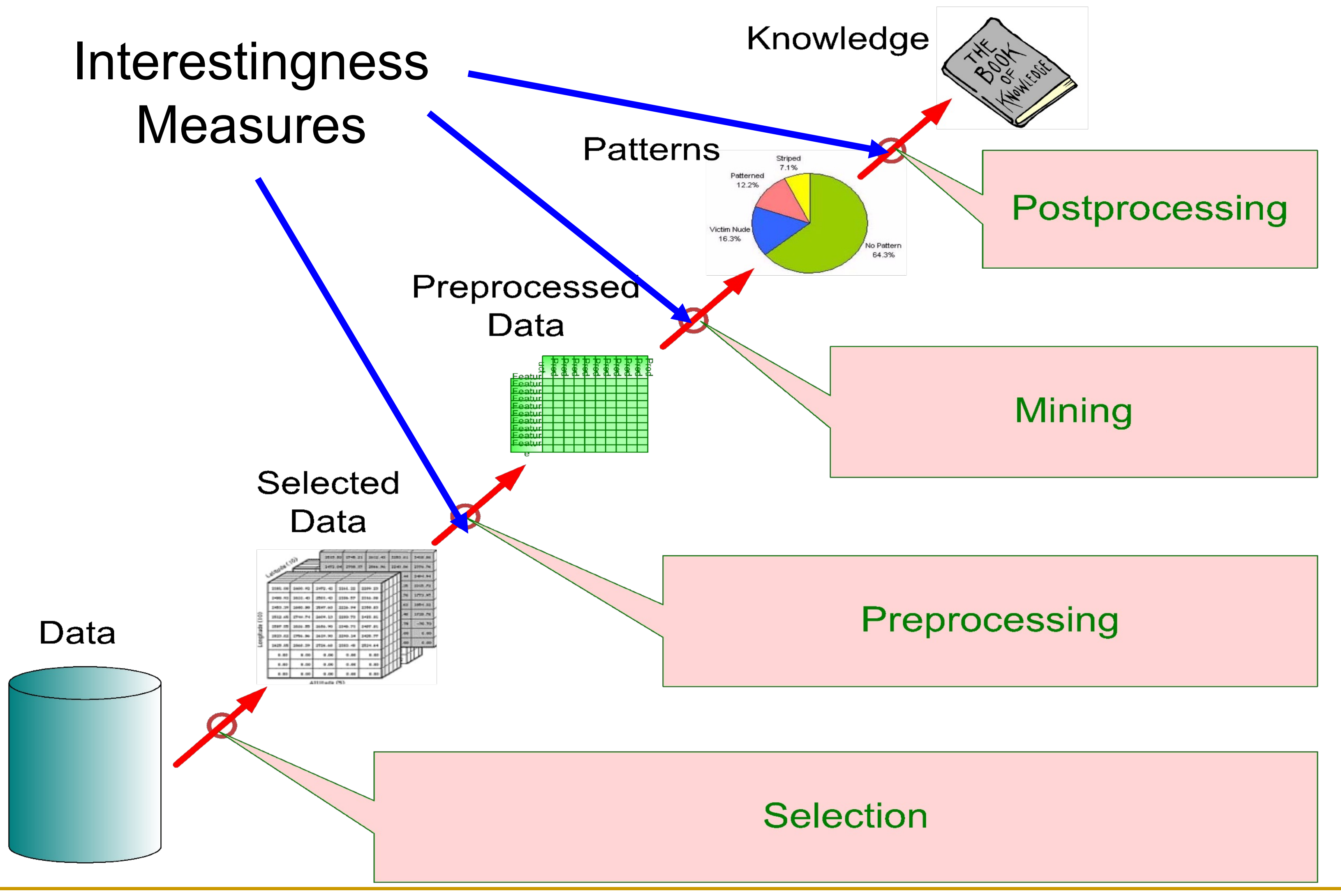
Multiple Minimum Support

- Modifications to A-Priori:
  - In traditional A-Priori,
    - A candidate (k+1)-itemset is generated by merging two frequent itemsets of size k
    - The candidate is pruned if it contains any infrequent subsets of size k
  - Pruning step has to be modified:
    - Prune only if subset contains the first item
    - e.g.: Candidate={Broccoli, Coke, Milk}
      (ordered according to minimum support)
    - {Broccoli, Coke} and {Broccoli, Milk} are frequent but {Coke, Milk} is infrequent
      - Candidate is not pruned because {Coke,Milk} does not contain the first item, i.e., Broccoli.

Pattern Evaluation

- Association rule algorithms tend to produce too many rules
  - many of them are uninteresting or redundant
  - Redundant if {A,B,C} $\rightarrow$ {D} and {A,B} $\rightarrow$ {D} have same support & confidence
- Interestingness measures can be used to prune/rank the derived patterns
- In the original formulation of association rules, support & confidence are the only measures used

Application of Interestingness Measure



Computing Interestingness Measure

- Given a rule $X \rightarrow Y$, information needed to compute rule interestingness can be obtained from a contingency table

Contingency table for $X \rightarrow Y$

	Y	$\overline{Y}$	
X	f_{11}	f_{10}	f_{1+}
$\overline{X}$	f_{01}	f_{00}	f_{o+}
	f_{+1}	f_{+0}	$\|T\|$

f_{11}: support of X and Y
f_{10}: support of X and $\overline{Y}$
f_{01}: support of $\overline{X}$ and Y
f_{00}: support of $\overline{X}$ and $\overline{Y}$

Used to define various measures

- support, confidence, lift, Gini, J-measure, etc.

Drawback of Confidence

	Coffee	$\overline{\text{Coffee}}$	
$\underline{\text{Tea}}$	15	5	20
Tea	75	5	80
	90	10	100

Association Rule: Tea → Coffee

Confidence= P(Coffee|Tea) = 0.75

but P(Coffee) = 0.9

⇒ Although confidence is high, rule is misleading

⇒ P(Coffee|$\overline{\text{Tea}}$) = 0.9375

Statistical Independence

- Population of 1000 students
  - 600 students know how to swim (S)
  - 700 students know how to bike (B)
  - 420 students know how to swim and bike (S,B)

  - $P(S \wedge B) = 420/1000 = 0.42$
  - $P(S) \times P(B) = 0.6 \times 0.7 = 0.42$

  - $P(S \wedge B) = P(S) \times P(B)$ => Statistical independence
  - $P(S \wedge B) > P(S) \times P(B)$ => Positively correlated
  - $P(S \wedge B) < P(S) \times P(B)$ => Negatively correlated

Statistical-based Measures

- Measures that take into account statistical dependence

$$Lift = \frac{P(Y \mid X)}{P(Y)}$$

$$Interest = \frac{P(X,Y)}{P(X)P(Y)}$$

$$PS = P(X,Y) - P(X)P(Y)$$

$$\phi - coefficient = \frac{P(X,Y) - P(X)P(Y)}{\sqrt{P(X)[1-P(X)]P(Y)[1-P(Y)]}}$$

Example: Lift/Interest

	Coffee	$\overline{\text{Coffee}}$	
Tea	15	5	20
$\overline{\text{Tea}}$	75	5	80
	90	10	100

Association Rule: Tea $\rightarrow$ Coffee

Confidence= P(Coffee|Tea) = 0.75

but P(Coffee) = 0.9

$\Rightarrow$ Lift = 0.75/0.9= 0.8333 (< 1, therefore is negatively associated)

Drawback of Lift & Interest

	Y	$\overline{Y}$	
X	10	0	10
$\overline{X}$	0	90	90
	10	90	100

$$Lift = \frac{0.1}{(0.1)(0.1)} = 10$$

	Y	$\overline{Y}$	
X	90	0	90
$\overline{X}$	0	10	10
	90	10	100

$$Lift = \frac{0.9}{(0.9)(0.9)} = 1.11$$

Statistical independence:

If P(X,Y)=P(X)P(Y) => Lift = 1

Properties of A Good Measure

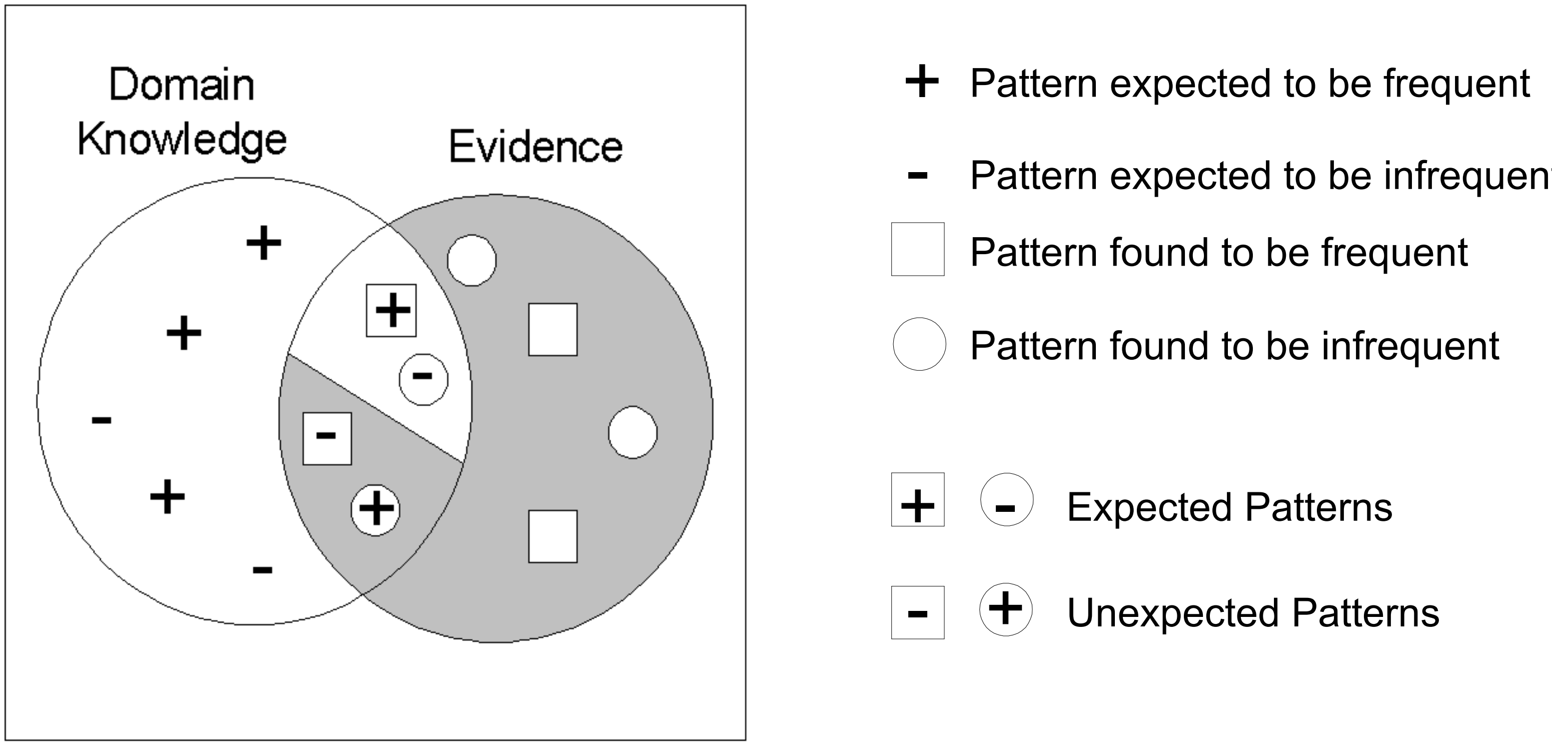
- There are lots of measures proposed in the literature
- Piatetsky-Shapiro:
  3 properties a good measure M must satisfy:
  - M(A,B) = 0 if A and B are statistically independent
  - M(A,B) increase monotonically with P(A,B) when P(A) and P(B) remain unchanged
  - M(A,B) decreases monotonically with P(A) [or P(B)] when P(A,B) and P(B) [or P(A)] remain unchanged

Subjective Interestingness Measure

- Objective measure:
  - Rank patterns based on statistics computed from data
  - e.g., 21 measures of association (support, confidence, Laplace, Gini, mutual information, Jaccard, etc).
- Subjective measure:
  - Rank patterns according to user's interpretation
    - A pattern is subjectively interesting if it contradicts the expectation of a user
    - A pattern is subjectively interesting if it is actionable

Interestingness via Unexpectedness

- Need to model expectation of users (domain knowledge)



- Need to combine expectation of users with evidence from data (i.e., extracted patterns)