Chapter 5 Frequent Patterns and Association Rule Mining

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Outline

- Frequent Itemsets and Association Rule
- APRIORI
- Post-processing
- Applications

Transactional Data

Tid	Items bought			
10	Beer, Nuts, Diaper			
20	Beer, Coffee, Diaper			
30	Beer, Diaper, Eggs			
40	Nuts, Eggs, Milk			
50	Nuts, Coffee, Diaper, Eggs, Milk			

Definitions:

- An item: an article in a basket, or an attribute-value pair
- A transaction: set of items purchased in a basket; it may have TID (transaction ID)
- A transactional dataset. A set of transactions

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Itemsets & Frequent Itemsets

- itemset: A set of one or more items
- k-itemset $X = \{x_1, ..., x_k\}$
- (absolute) support, or, support count of X: Frequency or occurrence of an itemset X
- (relative) support, s, is the fraction of transactions that contains X (i.e., the probability that a transaction contains X)
- An itemset X is *frequent* if X's support is no less than a *minsup* threshold

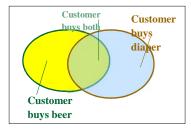
Association Rule

- Find all the rules X → Y with minimum support and confidence
 - - $s = P(X \hat{a} Y)$
 - = support count ($X \hat{a} Y$) / number of all transactions
 - confidence, c, conditional probability that a transaction having X also contains Y
 - c = P(X|Y)
 - = support count (X \cup Y) / support count (X)

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Example

Tid	Items bought		
10	Beer, Nuts, Diaper		
20	Beer, Coffee, Diaper		
30	Beer, Diaper, Eggs		
40	Nuts, Eggs, Milk		
50	Nuts, Coffee, Diaper, Eggs, Milk		



- Let minsup = 50%, minconf = 50%
 - □ Number of all transactions = 5 & Min. support count = 5*50%=2.5 3
 - Items: Beer, Nuts, Diaper, Coffee, Eggs, Milk
 - □ Freq. Pat.: {Beer}:3, {Nuts}:3, {Diaper}:4, {Eggs}:3, {Beer, Diaper}:3
- Association rules (support, confidence):
 - □ Beer → Diaper (60%, 100%)
 - Diaper → Beer (60%, 75%)

Use of Association Rules

- Association rules do not necessarily represent causality or correlation between the two itemsets.
 - □ XØ Y does not mean X causes Y, no Causality
 - \square $X \varnothing Y$ can be different from $Y \varnothing X$, unlike correlation
- Association rules assist in Basket data analysis, crossmarketing, catalog design, sale campaign analysis, Web log (click stream) analysis, and DNA sequence analysis.
 - What products were often purchased together?— Beer and diapers?!
 - What are the subsequent purchases after buying a PC?
 - What kinds of DNA are sensitive to this new drug?
 - Can we automatically classify web documents?

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Computational Complexity of Frequent Itemset Mining

- How many itemsets are potentially to be generated in the worst case?
 - The number of frequent itemsets to be generated is senstive to the minsup threshold
 - When minsup is low, there exist potentially an exponential number of frequent itemsets
 - □ The worst case is close to M^N where M: # distinct items, and N: max length of transactions when M is large.
- The worst case complexty vs. the expected probability
 - Ex. Suppose Walmart has 10⁴ kinds of products
 - The chance to pick up one product 10⁻⁴
 - The chance to pick up a particular set of 10 products: ~10⁻⁴⁰
 - What is the chance this particular set of 10 products to be frequent 10³ times in 10⁵ transactions?

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Association Rule Mining

- Major steps in association rule mining
 - □ Frequent itemsets computation
 - Rule derivation
- Use of support and confidence to measure strength

APRIORI

Method:

- □ Initially, scan DB once to get frequent 1-itemset
- □ Generate length (k+1) candidate itemsets (C_{k+1}) from length k frequent itemsets (L_k)
- □ Test the candidates against DB
- Terminate when no frequent or candidate set can be generated

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Implementation of Apriori

- How to generate candidates C_k?
 - □ Step 1: self-joining L_{k-1}
 - Step 2: pruning

Self-joining

- C_k is generated by joining L_{k-1} with itself
 - Apriori assumes that items within a transaction or itemset are sorted in lexicographic order.
 - I_1 from $L_{k-1} = \{I_1[1], I_1[2], ..., I_1[k-2], I_1[k-1]\}$
 - $\ \, \square \ \, I_2 \ \text{from} \ \, L_{k-1} = \{I_2[1], \ I_2[2], \ldots, \ I_2[k-2], \ I_2[k-1] \, \}$
 - □ Only when first **k-2** items of I_1 and I_2 are in common, and $I_1[k-1] < I_2[k-1]$, these two itemsets are joinable

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Example of Self-joining

- *L*₃={{*a*,*b*,*c*}, {*a*,*b*,*d*}, {*a*,*c*,*d*}, {*a*,*c*,*e*}, {*b*,*c*,*d*}}
- Self-joining: L₃*L₃
 - □ abcd from abc and abd
 - □ acde from acd and ace

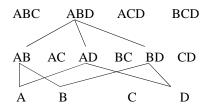
The Downward Closure Property

- The downward closure property of frequent patterns
 - Any subset of a frequent itemset must be frequent
 - If {beer, diaper, nuts} is frequent, so is {beer, diaper}
 - i.e., every transaction having {beer, diaper, nuts} also contains {beer, diaper}

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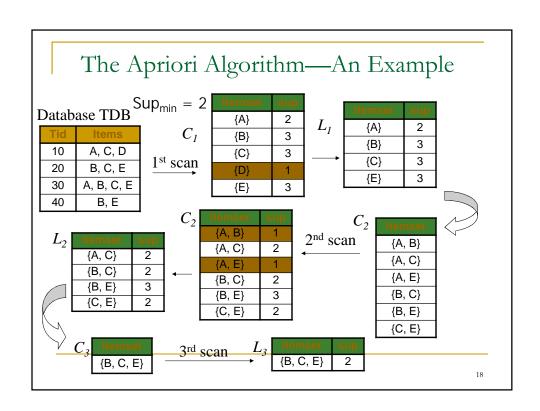
Apriori: A Candidate Generation & Test Approach

- A frequent (used to be called large) itemset is an itemset whose support (S) is minSup.
- Apriori pruning principle:
 - If there is any itemset which is infrequent, its superset should not be generated/tested!



Pruning Example

- *L*₃={{*a*,*b*,*c*}, {*a*,*b*,*d*}, {*a*,*c*,*d*}, {*a*,*c*,*e*}, {*b*,*c*,*d*}}
- Self-joining: L₃*L₃
 - abcd from abc and abd
 - acde from acd and ace
- Pruning:
 - \Box abcd is kept since abc, abd, acd, and bcd are in L_3
 - \Box acde is removed because cde and ade are not in L_3
- C₄ = {abcd}



The Apriori 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 != \varnothing; 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 min_support

end
```

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Further Improvement of the Apriori Method

Major computational challenges

return $\cup_k L_k$;

- Multiple scans of transaction database
- Huge number of candidates
- Tedious workload of support counting for candidates
- Improving Apriori: general ideas
 - Reduce passes of transaction database scans
 - Shrink number of candidates
 - Facilitate support counting of candidates
- Completeness: any association rule mining algorithm should get the same set of frequent itemsets.

Partition: Scan Database Only Twice

- Any itemset that is potentially frequent in DB must be frequent in at least one of the partitions of DB
 - Scan 1: partition database and find local frequent patterns
 - Since the sub-database is relatively smaller than original database, all frequent itemsets are tested in one scan.
 - Scan 2: consolidate global frequent patterns
- A. Savasere, E. Omiecinski, and S. Navathe. An efficient algorithm for mining association in large databases. In VLDB'95

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DHP: Reduce the Number of Candidates

- A k-itemset whose corresponding hashing bucket count is below the threshold cannot be frequent
 - □ Candidates: a, b, c, d, e
 - □ Frequent 1-itemset: a, b, d, e
 - Using some hash function, get hash entries: {ab, ad, ae} with bucket count as 3, {bd, bd, be, de} with bucket count as 4...
 - ab is not a candidate 2-itemset if the count of bucket {ab, ad, ae}
 is below support threshold
- J. Park, M. Chen, and P. Yu. An effective hash-based algorithm for mining association rules. In SIGMOD'95

Transaction Reduction

- A transaction that does not contain any frequent k-itemsets cannot contain any frequent (k+1)-itemsets.
- Such a transaction could be marked or removed from further consideration of (k+1)-itemsets.
 - Less support counting

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Sampling for Frequent Patterns

- Select a sample of original database, mine frequent patterns within sample using Apriori with a lower support count threshold than min. support.
- Scan database once to verify frequent itemsets found in sample, only *borders* of closure of frequent patterns are checked
 - Example: check abcd instead of ab, ac, ..., etc.
- Scan database again to find missed frequent patterns
- H. Toivonen. Sampling large databases for association rules. In VLDB'96

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Derive rules from frequent itemsets

- Frequent itemsets != association rules
- One more step is required to find association rules
- For each frequent itemset X,
 For each proper nonempty subset A of X,
 - \Box Let B = X A
 - □ A ⇒B is an association rule if
 - Confidence (A ⇒ B) minConf, where support (A ⇒ B) = support (AB) and confidence (A ⇒ B) = support (AB) / support (A)

Example – deriving rules from frequent itemsets

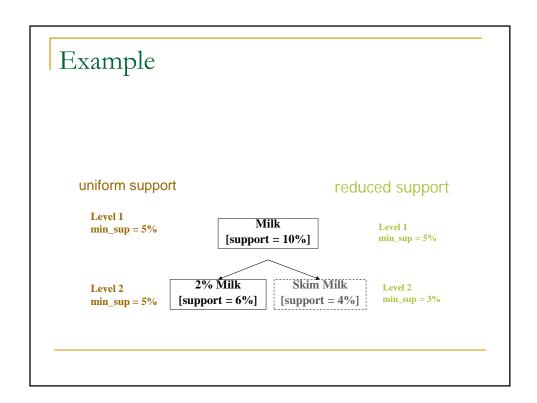
- Suppose {2,3,4} is frequent, with supp=50%
 - □ Proper nonempty subsets: {2,3}, {2,4}, {3,4}, {2},
 {3}, {4}, with supp = 50%, 50%, 75%, 75%, 75%,
 75% respectively
 - These generate these association rules:
 - 2,3 => 4, confidence=100%
 - 2,4 => 3, confidence=100%
 - 3,4 => 2, confidence=67%
 - 2 => 3,4, confidence=67%
 - 3 => 2,4, confidence=67%
 - 4 => 2,3, confidence=67%
 - All rules have support = 50%

Mining Various Kinds of Association Rules

- Mining multilevel association
- Miming multidimensional association
- Mining quantitative association

Mining Multiple-Level Association Rules

- Items often form hierarchies
- A Top-down strategy is employed, any algorithm could be used for mining at each level.
- Flexible support settings
 - Uniform minimum support for all levels.
 - Items at the lower level are expected to have lower support.
 - Set up user-specific, item or group-based minimum support.
 - Setting particularly low support thresholds for laptop computers and flash drives.



Mining Multi-Dimensional Association

Single-dimensional rules:

```
buys(X, "milk") \Rightarrow buys(X, "bread")
```

- Multi-dimensional rules: ≥ 2 dimensions or predicates
 - Inter-dimension assoc. rules (no repeated predicates)
 age(X,"19-25") ∧ occupation(X,"student") ⇒ buys(X, "coke")
 - □ hybrid-dimension assoc. rules (repeated predicates)
 age(X,"19-25") ∧ buys(X, "popcorn") ⇒ buys(X, "coke")

Mining Quantitative Associations

- Categorical Attributes and Quantitative Attributes
- Techniques can be categorized by how numerical attributes, such as age or salary are treated
 - Static discretization based on predefined concept hierarchies
 - Dynamic discretization based on data distribution.
 - Clustering: Distance-based association.
 - One dimensional clustering then association

ld	Age	Income	Student	Credit_Rating	Buy_Computer
1	27	75,000	No	600	No
2	25	72,000	No	730	No
3	33	88,000	No	640	Yes
4	50	55,000	No	620	Yes
5	52	34,000	Yes	640	Yes
6	45	30,000	Yes	720	No
7	32	25,000	Yes	740	Yes
8	25	54,000	No	630	No
9	22	35,000	Yes	640	Yes
10	48	67,000	Yes	660	Yes
11	24	64,000	Yes	715	Yes
12	37	62,000	No	710	Yes
13	33	90,000	Yes	650	Yes
14	45	59,000	No	705	No

age	income	studen	tredit_ratin	_com
<=30	high	no	fair	no
<=30	high	no	excellent	no
3140	high	no	fair	yes
>40	medium	no	fair	yes
>40	low	yes	fair	yes
>40	low	yes	excellent	no
3140	low	yes	excellent	yes
<=30	medium	no	fair	no
<=30	low	yes	fair	yes
>40	medium	yes	fair	yes
<=30	medium	yes	excellent	yes
3140	medium	no	excellent	yes
3140	high	yes	fair	yes
>40	medium	no	excellent	no

age	income	student	credit_rating	buy_computer
1	3	0	1	0
1	3	0	2	0
2	3	0	1	1
3	2	0	1	1
3	1	1	1	1
3	1	1	2	0
2	1	1	2	1
1	2	0	1	0
1	1	1	1	1
3	2	1	1	1
1	2	1	2	1
2	2	0	2	1
2	3	1	1	1
3	2	0	2	0

Interestingness Measure: Correlations (Lift)

- The occurrence of itemset A is independent of the occurrence of itemset B if P(AUB)=P(A)P(B); otherwise, itemsets A and B are dependent and correlated as events.
- Measure of dependent/correlated events: lift

$$lift = \frac{P(A \cup B)}{P(A)P(B)}$$

- □ < 1, A is negatively correlated with B.
- □ > 1, A and B are positively correlated.
- □ = 1, A and B are independent.

Interestingness Measure: Correlations (Lift)

- play basketball ⇒ eat cereal [40%, 66.7%] is misleading
 The overall % of students eating cereal is 75% > 66.7%.
- play basketball ⇒ not eat cereal [20%, 33.3%] is more accurate, although with lower support and confidence

$$lift(B,C) = \frac{2000/5000}{3000/5000*3750/5000} = 0.89$$
$$lift(B,\neg C) = \frac{1000/5000}{3000/5000*1250/5000} = 1.33$$

	Basketbal I	Not basketball	Sum (row)
Cereal	2000	1750	3750
Not cereal	1000	250	1250
Sum(col.)	3000	2000	5000

Reference

 "The application of Association Rule Mining to Remotely Sensed Data", J. Dong, W. Perrizo, Q. Ding and J. Zhou, SAC'2000.