# Data mining: rule mining algorithms

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## Introduction /1

Data mining also known as Knowledge
Discovery in Databases or KDD (Piatesky-Shapiro 1991), is the process of extracting useful hidden information from very large databases in an unsupervised manner.

#### Introduction /2

#### Central themes of data mining are:

- Classification
- Cluster analysis
- Associations analysis
- Outlier analysis
- Evolution analysis

# ARM /1 (association rules mining)

- Formally introduced in 1993 by Agrawal, Imielinski and Swami (AIS) in connection with *market basket analysis*
- Formalizes statements of the form:

What is the percentage of customers that together with cheese buy beer?

#### ARM/2

- ◆ We have a set of items I={i1,i2,...}, and a set of transaction T={t1,t2...}. Each transaction (like a supermarket bill) is a set of items (or better as it is called an **itemset**)
- If U and V are disjoint itemsets, we call **support** of U=>V the fraction of transactions that contain  $U \cup V$  and we indicate this with s(U=>V)
- We say that an itemset is **frequent** if its support is greater than a chosen threshold called **minsupp**.
- If A and B are disjoint itemsets, we call **confidence** of A=>B and indicate with c(A=>B), the fraction of transactions containing A that contain also B. This is also called the Bayesian or conditional probability p(B|A).
- We say that a rule is **strong** if its confidence is greater than a threshold called **minconf**.

#### ARM/3

ARM can then be formulated as:

Given a set I of **items** and a set T of **transactions** over I, produce in an automated manner all association rules that are more than x% **frequent** and more than y% **strong**.

#### ARM /4

On the right we have 6
transactions $T = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$
on a set of 5 items
$I=\{A,B,C,D,E\}$

The itemset BC is present in the transactions  $\{1,2,3,4,5\}$  so its support s(B=>C) = 5/6

The confidence of B=>C, given that BC is present in 5 transactions and B is present in all 6 transactions, is c(B=>C) = s(B=>C)/s(B)=5/6

Trans	Itemset
1	BCDE
2	ABC
3	BCDE
4	ABCE
5	ABCDE
6	ABD

Horizontal format

	I
Item	Transactions
Α	2456
В	123456
C	12345
D	1356
E	1345

Vertical format

#### ARM /5

Another possible representation is the **matrix representation**, that can combine the properties of the so called horizontal and vertical format.

	Items					
Transaction	Α	В	С	D	Е	
1		1	1	1	1	
2	1	1	1			
3		1	1	1	1	
4	1	1	1		1	
5	1	1	1	1	1	
6	1	1		1		

#### Matrix representation

#### ARM/6

All algorithms divide the search in two phases:

- Find frequent itemsets
- Find the strong association rules for each frequent itemset

#### ARM/7

The second phase can in principle be quite simple.

To find the strong association rules associated with an itemset U, simply:

```
for each proper subset A of U :
    If s(U)/s(A) is more than minconf then
        the rule A=>(U-A) is strong
```

For this reason, in what follows, only the search for frequent itemsets will be investigated.

## Quantitative rules mining

It is possible to consider the case where an attribute is not boolean (true or false), but assumes a value. For example **age** in census data is such an attribute.

It is possible to reduce this case to the case of boolean attributes **binning** the range of the attribute value. For example age can be translated to the following boolean attributes:

- Young (age 0-30)
- Adult (31-65)
- Old (66-)

The expression level of a gene (0-255) can be represented by :

- Low (0-50)
- Medium(51-205)
- High(206-)

## Sequential mining /1

In this case the database rows are **eventsets** with a timestamp:

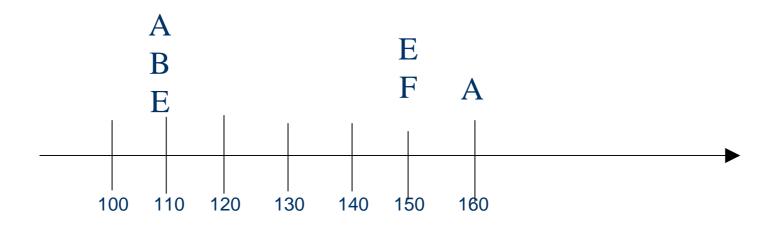
- 110 A,B,E
- 150 E,F
- 160 A

We are interested in frequent **episodes** (sequences of eventsets), like:

 $\blacksquare$  (A,(B,E),F)

(where (B,E) is an eventset) occurring in a **time window**: event A precedes the eventset (B,E) that precedes F.

# Sequential mining /2



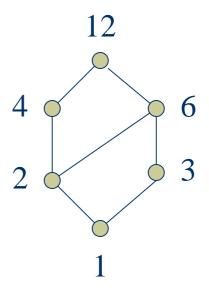
## Sequential mining /3

- It's been applied for example to the alarms of the finnish telephone network
- It can be applied to temporal series of gene expression

#### Posets /1

Given a set U, a binary relation ≤ reflexive, antisymmetric and transititve, is called a **partial order** (or an **order** *tout-court*), and (U,≤) is called a **partially ordered set** ( or a **poset**)

A poset is frequently represented with a **Hasse diagram**, a diagram in which if  $a \le b$ , then there is an ascending path from a to b. The binary relation on **N**, is divisor of (usually represented with |) is a partial order on **N**.



Hasse diagram of the divisors of 12

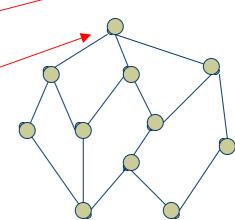
#### Posets /2

In a poset, an element that is not less than any other is said to be maximal. Clearly, there can be many maximal elements.

If a maximal element is comparable with all other elements, then it is the only **maximum**.

Maximal elements

Minimal elements



Maximum

### Posets /3

anti-

homo

morphism

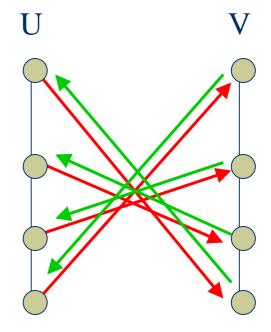
If  $(U, \leq)$  and  $(V, \leq)$  are two posets, a pair of functions f:U->V and g:V->U such that  $(u,u'\in U;\,v,v'\in V):$ 

- if  $u \le u$ ' then  $f(u') \le f(u)$  •
- if  $v \le v$ ' then  $g(v') \le g(v)$  •
- $u \le g(f(u))$
- $v \le f(g(v))$

are said to be a **Galois connection** between the two posets.

From the above properties we can deduce:

$$f(g(f(u))) = f(u)$$
 and  $g(f(g(v)))=g(v)$ 



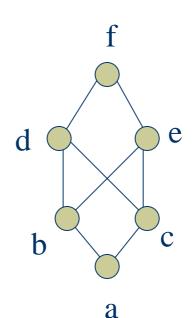
In this example U and V are linear orders

#### Lattices /1

A poset in which for each pair of elements u, v it exists an element z that is the least upper bound (or join or lub) and an element w that is the greatest lower bound (or meet or glb) is said to be a lattice.

This allows us to define 2 binary operators:

$$z = join(u,v) = u \cup v$$
  
 $w = meet(u,v) = u \cap v$ 



This poset is not a lattice because there is no lub for (b,c)

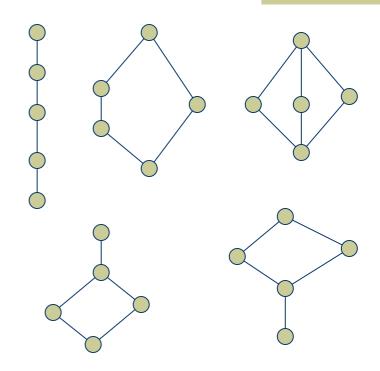
### Lattices /2

We say that a lattice is **complete** if it has glb and lub for each subset. Every finite lattice is complete.

A poset is called a **join semilattice** (**meet semilattice**) if only the join
(meet) exists.

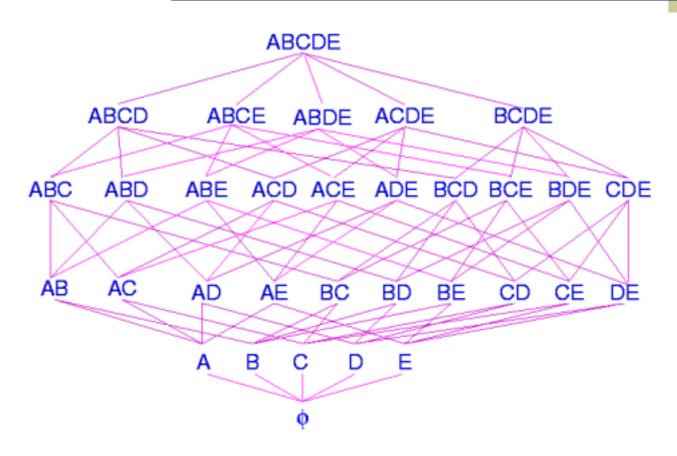
The powerset of a set ordered by inclusion is a complete lattice.

Frequent sets are only a meetsemilattice.



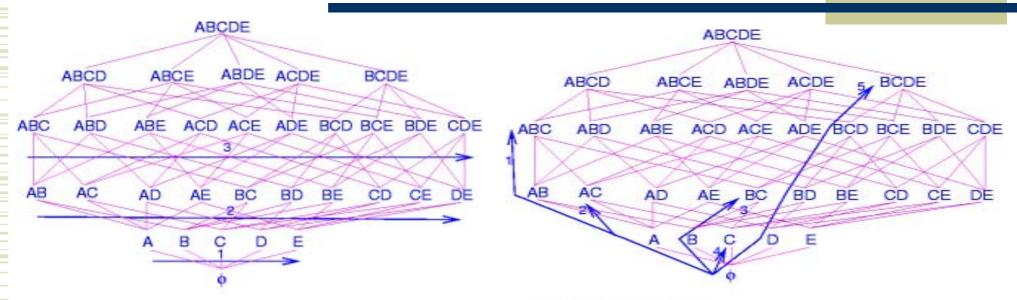
All lattices of order 5 (up to ismorphism)

#### Lattices /3



Hasse diagram of the powerset of  $\{A,B,C,D,E\}$  ordered by inclusion

## Algorithmic families /1



Breadth first algorithms (or level wise)

Depth first algorithms

There are two ways in which you can run over the lattice of subsets in bottom-up order.

These ways correspond to two families of algorithms:

- breadth first
- depth first

## Algorithmic families /2

*Infrequent itemsets*, have the property that all their supersets are also infrequent. Infrequent itmesets form a join semilattice. Minimal infrequent itemsets are sufficient to completely specify the semilattice.

So it makes sense to run over the lattice also in top-down order. Or better, as in **hybrid** algorithms, mixing bottom-up with top-down.

Furthermore the search can be performed for :

- all frequent itemsets
- only maximal frequent itemsets
- *closed frequent itemsets* (will be defined later)

Presented by Agrawal and Srikant in 1994.

**Fast algorithms for mining Association Rules** 

(IBM Almaden Research Center)

essentially based on the hereditary property that:

All subsets of a frequent itemset are also frequent

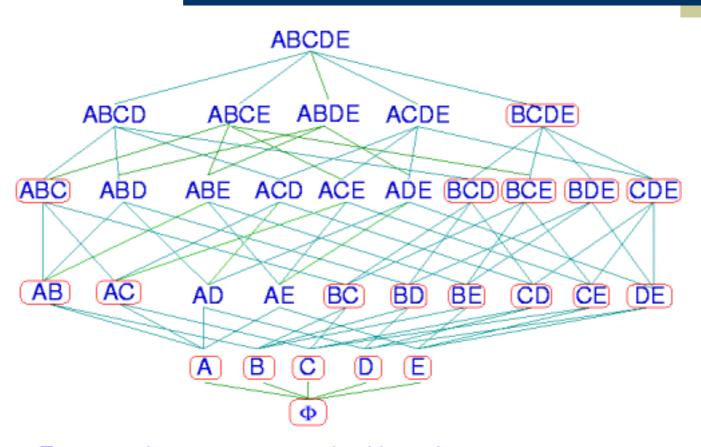
It performs a breadth first search.

If *l* is the maximum length of frequent itemsets then it performs *l* scans of the database.

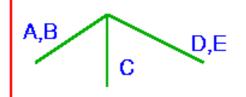
```
F(1) = { frequent 1-itemsets}
for (k=2; F(k-1) \text{ not empty; } k++) {
   C(k) = generate candidates(F(k-1));
   forall transactions t in T {
      Ct = subset(C(k),t); // Ct are the C(k)
                              // candidates present in t
      forall candidates c in Ct { c.count++: }
   F(k) = \{c \text{ in } C(k) \text{ and } c \cdot count >= minsup}\}
Answer = \{all F(k)\}
```

24

```
generate_candidates(F(k-1) {
   join:
     for each pair 11,12 in F(k-1){
       if 11 and 12 are (k-1)-itemsets pairs in F(k-1) that differ just in the last item then
            11 \cup 12 is a k-itemset candidate
   pruning:
     foreach k-itemset candidate {
           if one of its (k-1)-subsets is not frequent then
                 prune it
```



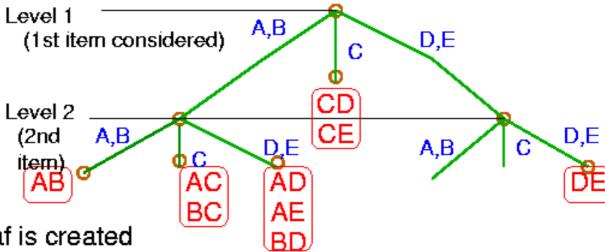
Frequent itemsets are marked in red



#### **Hash function:**

h(A)=h(B)=left edge h(C)=center h(D)=h(E)=right edge C(k) candidates are kept in an Hash tree

#### Hash tree



When an interior node is overflowed a new leaf is created and candidates are redistributed according to their l-th item

- To find a frequent k-itemset it requires k passes over the database
- Frequent itemsets of over 50-60 items are not feasible. Apriori needs to run over all 2^60-1 frequent subsets
- Just a small example : find all itemsets with minsup=0.5 in the 2 transactions:

```
(a1,a2,....,a100)
(a1,a2,....,a100,a101,...,a200)
```

#### Partition /1

Presented by Savasere, Omiecinski, Navathe in VLDB conference 1995, it requires 2 passes over the database

- It partitions the database into a number of non-overlapping partitions
- Each partition is read and **vertical** *tidlist* (lists of transaction ids) are formed for each item
- Then all locally (local to the partition) frequent itemsets are generated via tidlist intersection
- After having scanned all partitions, all local frequent itemsets are merged to form the global candidates
- Itemsets frequent over all partitions are clearly frequent and so eliminated from the following pass
- A new scan of the database is performed, it is transformed in the tidlist format and counts of the global candidates are performed using tidlist intersection

#### Partition /2

This algorithm uses the vertical format (tidlists).

It performs only 2 scans of the database.

Partitions are calculated in such a way to be able to keep all their tidlists in memory.

Presented by Han, Pei, Yin in 2000.

This method does'nt require candidate generation, but stores in an efficient novel structure, an **FP-tree** (a Frequent Pattern tree, a version of a **prefix tree**), the transaction database.

It scans the database once to find frequent items. Frequent items F are then sorted in descending support count and kept in a list L.

Another scan of the databases is then performed, and for each transaction: infrequent items are suppressed and the remaining items are sorted in L-order and inserted in the FP-tree.

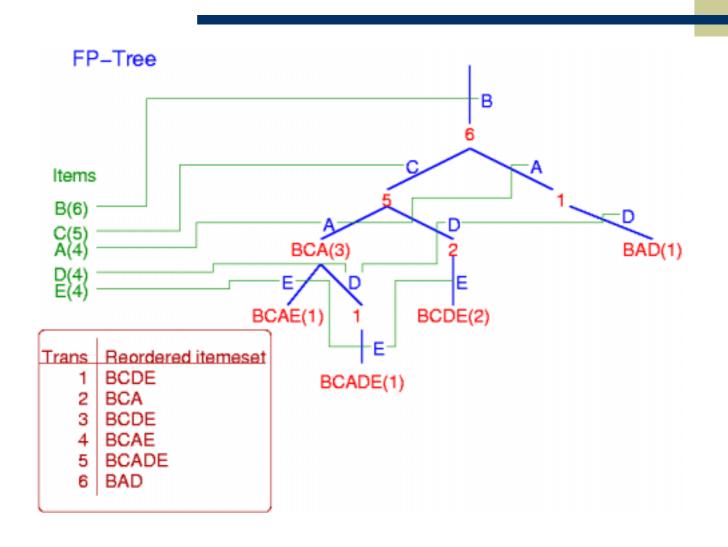
```
A null root node is created. Then for each normalized (w/o
   infrequent items and sorted in L-order) transaction t:
insert_tree(t,tree) {
   if tree has a child node equal to head(t) then
      increment the child count by 1
   else
      create a new child node and set its count to 1
   if rest(t) is non empty then
      insert_tree(rest(t),tree.child(head(t)))
}
```

During the construction of the FP-tree, for each frequent item, a list linking all its presences in the FP-tree is kept updated.

Now all the information needed to mine frequent patterns is available in the FP-tree.

Having sorted the items inside transactions in L order, increases the probability to share prefixes.

It often happens that the FP-tree is much more compact than the original database.

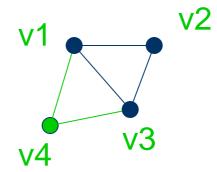


```
Now, for each frequent item alpha (in reversed L-order):
FP-growth(alpha,tree) {
 If tree has a single path P:
    for each combination U of nodes in P:
        form alpha ∪ U with support equal to the minsupport
                of items in U
  else:
    for each child c of tree:
        form beta = c \cup alpha with support supp(c)
        construct the tree of prefixes FP-tree(beta)
        if FP-tree(beta) is not empty:
                FP-growth(beta,FP-tree(beta)
```

## Graphs /1

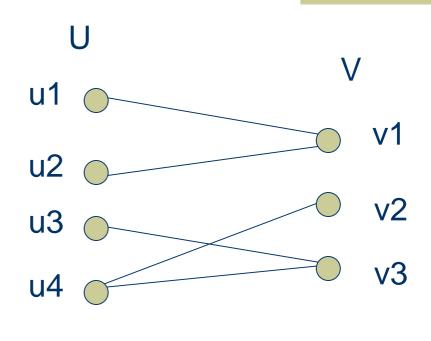
- A graph has a set of vertices
   V, and a set of edges E
- A subgraph G' of a graph G has part of the vertices of G and part of the edges G has between those vertices

```
G=(V,E)
V={v1,v2,v3,v4}
E={(v1,v2),(v2,v3),(v3,v4),
(v4,v1),(v1,v3)}
```



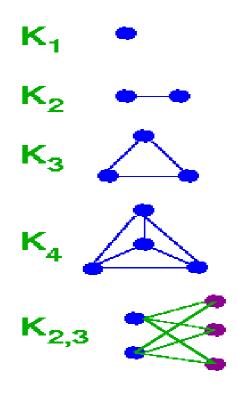
G'=(V',E') (blue subgraph) V'={v1,v2,v3) E'={(v1,v2),(v2,v3),(v3,v1)}

A bi-partite graph is a graph in which the vertices can be partitioned into two sets U and V (with void intersection) and all the edges of the graph have a vertex in U and one in V (there are no edges between vertices in U or in V)

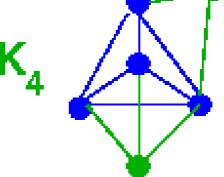


A bi-partite graph (U,V,E)

- A graph is said to be
   complete if for each pair
   of vertices there is an edge
   connecting them
- Complete graphs are usually indicated by K
- A bi-partite graph is said to be complete if ...



- A complete subgraph is said to be a clique
- A clique that is not contained in another is said to be a maximal clique

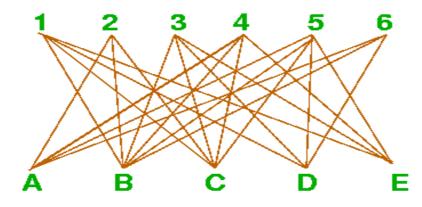


The blue subgraph is a maximal clique

There is an edge between a transaction and an item if the item is present in the transaction.

#### **Transactions**

Bi-partite graph



#### Maximal cliques:

$$K_{3,3} = \binom{2}{A} \binom{4}{B} \binom{5}{C}$$

$$K_{3,4} = (^{1}_{B} ^{3}_{C} ^{5}_{D}^{5}_{E})$$

#### **Items**

maximal frequent itemsets are maximal cliques of the bi-partite graph

Finding the maximal cliques in a bi-partite graph is a known NP-complete problem.

Presented by M.Zaki, Parthasarathy, Ogihara, Li in 1997.

It computes frequent 1-itemsets and 2-itemsets as Apriori.

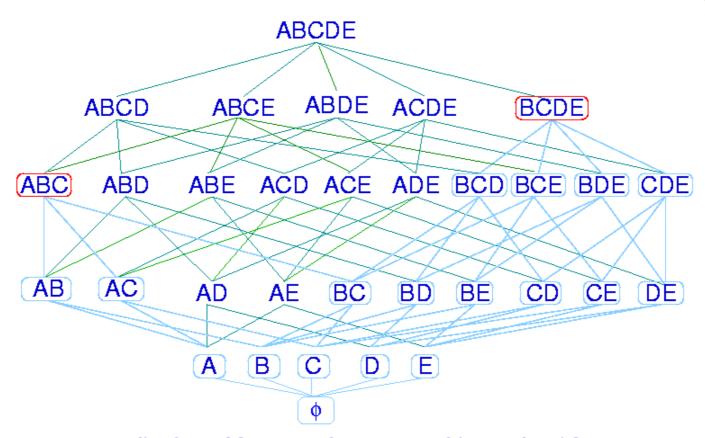
But then it tries to find only all maximal frequent itemsets.

A maximal frequent itemset is a frequent itemset not contained in another frequent itemset.

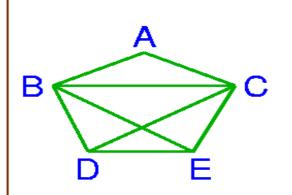
All frequent itemsets are subsets of a maximal frequent itemset.

This algorithm is a depth-first algorithm.

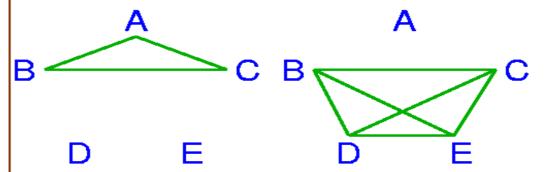
It uses the vertical format (tidlists)



meet semilattice of frequent itemsets, with maximal frequent itemsets ABC and BCDE in red.



Graph of frequent 2-itemsets: two items are joined if the pair is frequent



Maximal cliques K<sub>3</sub>: ABC K<sub>4</sub>: BCDE

Maximal cliques are candidate maximal frequent itemsets: in our case the 2 cliques are in effect maximal frequent itemsets

Maximal clique generation algorithms are well known and the following can be used :

- Mulligan and Corneil,1972 (modified Bierstone's) JACM
- Bron & Kerbosch 1973,CACM
- Chiba & Nishizeki, 1985, SIAM JC
- Tsukiyama et al. 1977,SIAM JC

After having found the maximal cliques, their support is to be checked to verify that they are really frequent.

# Closure operators/systems

If  $(A, \leq)$  is a complete lattice and we have a function :

cl: A -> A

such that  $(u, v \in A)$ :

- if  $u \le v$  then  $cl(u) \le cl(v)$
- $u \le cl(u)$
- cl(cl(u)) = cl(u)

we say that cl is a **closure operator** and cl(u) is said to be the **closure** of u.

If u = cl(u), we say that u is **close**.

(Topological closure is a special case.)

For any Galois connection G=(f,g) between the complete lattices  $(P,\leq)$  and  $(Q,\leq)$ , the mapping  $cl=f \circ g$  is a closure on P and  $cl'=g \circ f$  is a closure operator on O.

The restriction of f to cl-closed elements is a bijection between cl-closed elements of P and cl'-closed elements of Q.

- Introduced by Rudolf Wille around 1982, Darmstadt (Germany)
- It is an application of *lattice theory*
- Re-flourished in the last 6/7 years
- The name refers to the fact that the method applies mainly to the *analysis* of data, using a mathematical abstraction of *concept* (this is the reason behind the *formal* prefix)

Given a set of **Objects O**, a set of **Attributes A**, and a binary relation  $I \subseteq O x$  **A**, we say that :

(O,A,I) is a formal context

# Objects Attributes O<sub>1</sub> O<sub>2</sub> O<sub>3</sub> O<sub>4</sub> O<sub>5</sub> Attributes A<sub>1</sub> and A<sub>3</sub> apply to the object O<sub>1</sub>

Through the binary relation  $I \subseteq O \times A$  we can define two functions f and g such that for each subset U of O:

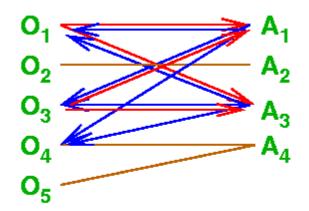
f(U) = {attributes that apply to
 all objects in U}

and conversely for each subset V of A:

g(V) = {objects for which all attributes in V apply}

The pair (f,g) is also called the **polarity** on O and A determined by I.

#### Objects Attributes



U= {O1,O3} f(U)={A1,A3} (red lines) g(f(U))={O1,O3,O4} (blue lines)

It can be easily demonstrated that the polarity (f, g) of a relation is a **Galois** connection between the powerset of O and the powerset of A, ordered by inclusion.

#### Furthermore, called:

- $h = g \bullet f$
- $h' = f \bullet g$

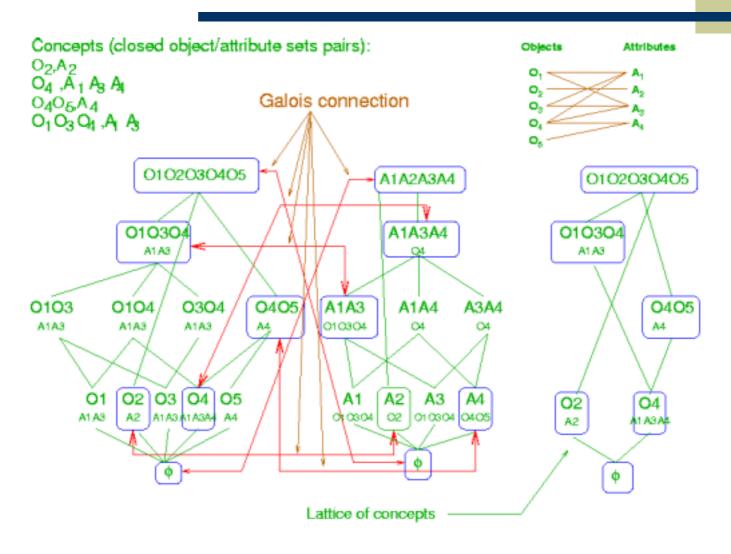
we have that h is a **closure operator** on O and h' is a **closure operator** on A.

The Galois connection establishes a duality between the two closure systems on O and A.

It is a bijective map between closed subsets of O and closed subsets of A.

A **concept** is a pair (U,V) that comprise a closed set of objects U, together with a closed set of attributes connected by the Galois connection.

U is called the **extent** (or **extension**) of the concept and V is called the **intent** (or **intension**) of the concept.



Concepts form a lattice : the **lattice of concepts**.

If (U,V) is a concept, then you can't extend the **extension** U of the concept in such a way that all the attributes of V apply, and conversely, you can't extend the **intension** V such that it applies to all objects in U.

In the previous slide the sets of objects having an empty set of attributes, and the sets of attributes having an empty set of objects are not displayed. Their situation in the Hasse diagram is very simple: they are connected only to the empty set and to the complete set. Their closure is the complete set of objects/attributes.

Proposed by Pasquier, Bastide, Taouil, Lakhal in 1999.

It is based on Formal Concept Analysis. Let us think to the set of items as the set of objects and the set of transactions as the set of attributes. Then, an **itemset is closed** if there is no superset of it that appears in the same set of transactions.

Conversely, a set of transaction is closed if it's not contained in a superset of transactions containing the same items.

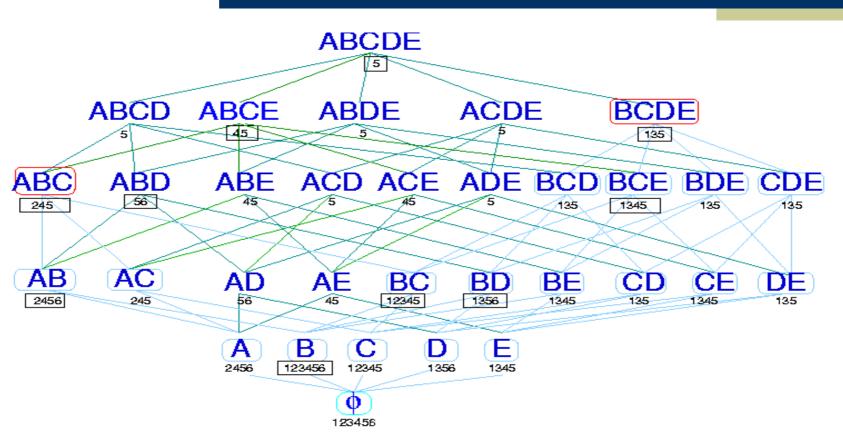
What is important is that the support of an itemset is the same as that of its closure:

$$s(A) = s(cl(A))$$

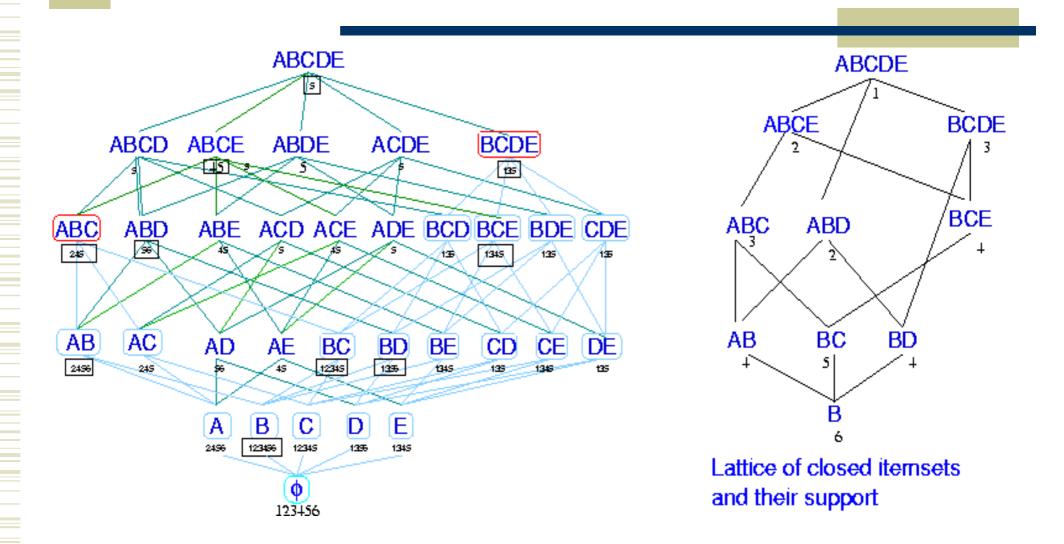
Therefore, you need to *remember only the closed itemsets* and their support, to be able to count the support of any itemset.

Further, if you are interested only in frequent itemsets, then you need only to remember the support of frequent closed itemsets.

In fact maximal frequent itemsets are closed.



Closed itemsets have their tidlist in a black box



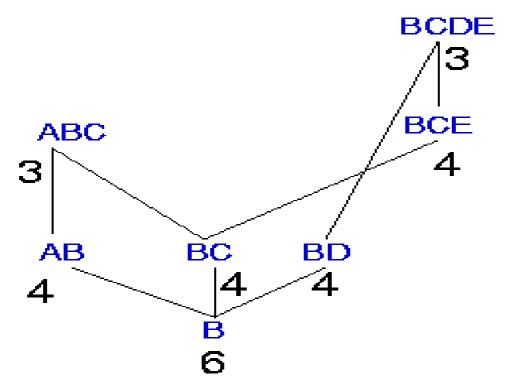
From the lattice of closed itemsets it is easy to count the support of every subset.

For example

$$s(A)=s(cl(A))=s(AB)=4$$

and

$$s(BDE)=s(cl(BDE))=s(BCDE)=3$$



Closed frequent itemsets meet semilattice

#### **CHARM**

An efficient algorithm for mining closed frequent sets, was proposed by Zaki and Hsiao in 2001.

- It enumerates closed itemsets using a dual itemset/tidset search tree, and a hybrid search algorithm
- It uses *diffsets* to reduce memory requirements

#### Parallel algorithms

- Count distribution : counts are performed locally and re-distributed between processors
- Candidate distribution: candidates are generated locally and redistributed
- **Data distribution:** transaction are re-distributed
- Parallel frequent closed prefix-tree: what we are implementing

# Summary

- Summary
- Discussion

# Bibliography

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