

CSE 5243 INTRO. TO DATA MINING

Mining Frequent Patterns and Associations: Basic Concepts

(Chapter 6)

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Apriori: Improvements and Alternatives

<1> Reduce passes of transaction database scans

- ▣ Partitioning (e.g., Savasere, et al., 1995)

<2> Shrink the number of candidates

- ▣ Hashing (e.g., DHP: Park, et al., 1995)

<3> Exploring Vertical Data Format: ECLAT (Zaki et al. @KDD'97)

<4> Mining Frequent Patterns by Pattern Growth

- Apriori: A *breadth-first search* mining algorithm
 - First find the complete set of frequent k -itemsets
 - Then derive frequent $(k+1)$ -itemset candidates
 - Scan DB again to find true frequent $(k+1)$ -itemsets

Two nontrivial costs:

- *It may still need to generate a huge number of candidate sets.* For example, if there are 10^4 frequent 1-itemsets, the Apriori algorithm will need to generate more than 10^7 candidate 2-itemsets.
- *It may need to repeatedly scan the whole database and check a large set of candidates by pattern matching.* It is costly to go over each transaction in the database to determine the support of the candidate itemsets.

<4> Mining Frequent Patterns by Pattern Growth

- Apriori: A *breadth-first search* mining algorithm
 - First find the complete set of frequent k -itemsets
 - Then derive frequent $(k+1)$ -itemset candidates
 - Scan DB again to find true frequent $(k+1)$ -itemsets
- Motivation for a different mining methodology
 - Can we mine the complete set of frequent patterns without such a costly generation process?
 - For a frequent itemset ρ , can subsequent search be confined to only those transactions that contain ρ ?
 - A *depth-first search* mining algorithm?
- Such thinking leads to a frequent pattern (FP) growth approach:
 - FPGrowth (J. Han, J. Pei, Y. Yin, “Mining Frequent Patterns without Candidate Generation,” SIGMOD 2000)

<4> High-level Idea of FP-growth Method

- ▶ **FP-Growth:** allows frequent itemset discovery without candidate itemset generation. Two step approach:
 - ▶ **Step 1:** Build a compact data structure called the *FP-tree*
 - ▶ Built using 2 passes over the data-set.
 - ▶ **Step 2:** Extracts frequent itemsets directly from the FP-tree
 - ▶ Traversal through FP-Tree

Required:

1. How to construct FP-tree?
2. What is a pattern's conditional database?

Example: Construct FP-tree from a Transaction DB

| TID | Items in the Transaction | Ordered, frequent itemlist |
|-----|-----------------------------------|----------------------------|
| 100 | { <i>f, a, c, d, g, i, m, p</i> } | |
| 200 | { <i>a, b, c, f, l, m, o</i> } | |
| 300 | { <i>b, f, h, j, o, w</i> } | |
| 400 | { <i>b, c, k, s, p</i> } | |
| 500 | { <i>a, f, c, e, l, p, m, n</i> } | |

1. Scan DB once, find single item frequent pattern:

Let min_support = 3

f:4, a:3, c:4, b:3, m:3, p:3

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1. Scan DB once, find single item frequent pattern:

Let min_support = 3

f:4, a:3, c:4, b:3, m:3, p:3

2. Sort frequent items in frequency descending order, F-list

F-list = f-c-a-b-m-p

Example: Construct FP-tree from a Transaction DB

| TID | Items in the Transaction | Ordered, frequent itemlist |
|-----|--------------------------|----------------------------|
| 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, w} | 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 |

1. Scan DB once, find single item frequent pattern:

Let min_support = 3

f:4, a:3, c:4, b:3, m:3, p:3

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| 200 | {a, b, c, f, l, m, o} | f, c, a, b, m |
| 300 | {b, f, h, j, o, w} | 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 |

After inserting the 1st frequent Itemlist: "f, c, a, m, p"

1. Scan DB once, find single item frequent pattern:

Let min_support = 3

f:4, a:3, c:4, b:3, m:3, p:3

2. Sort frequent items in frequency descending order, f-list

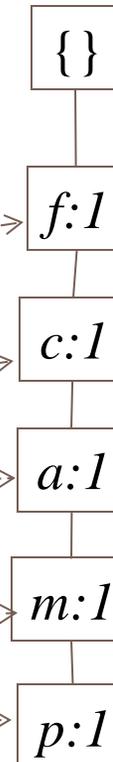
F-list = f-c-a-b-m-p

3. Scan DB again, construct FP-tree

- The frequent itemlist of each transaction is inserted as a branch, with shared sub-branches merged, counts accumulated

Header Table

| Item | Frequency | header |
|------|-----------|--------|
| f | 4 | |
| c | 4 | |
| a | 3 | |
| b | 3 | |
| m | 3 | |
| p | 3 | |



Example: Construct FP-tree from a Transaction DB

| TID | Items in the Transaction | Ordered, frequent itemlist |
|-----|--------------------------|----------------------------|
| 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, w} | 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 |

After inserting the 2nd frequent itemlist "f, c, a, b, m"

1. Scan DB once, find single item frequent pattern:

Let min_support = 3

f:4, a:3, c:4, b:3, m:3, p:3

2. Sort frequent items in frequency descending order, f-list

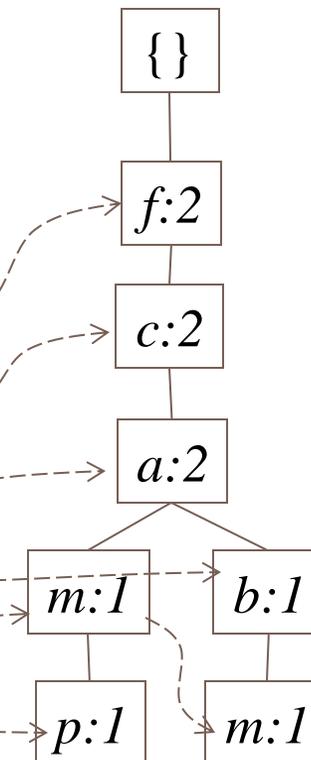
F-list = f-c-a-b-m-p

3. Scan DB again, construct FP-tree

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Header Table

| Item | Frequency | header |
|------|-----------|--------|
| f | 4 | → |
| c | 4 | → |
| a | 3 | → |
| b | 3 | → |
| m | 3 | → |
| p | 3 | → |



Example: Construct FP-tree from a Transaction DB

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|-----|--------------------------|----------------------------|
| 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, w} | 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 |

1. Scan DB once, find single item frequent pattern:

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F-list = f-c-a-b-m-p

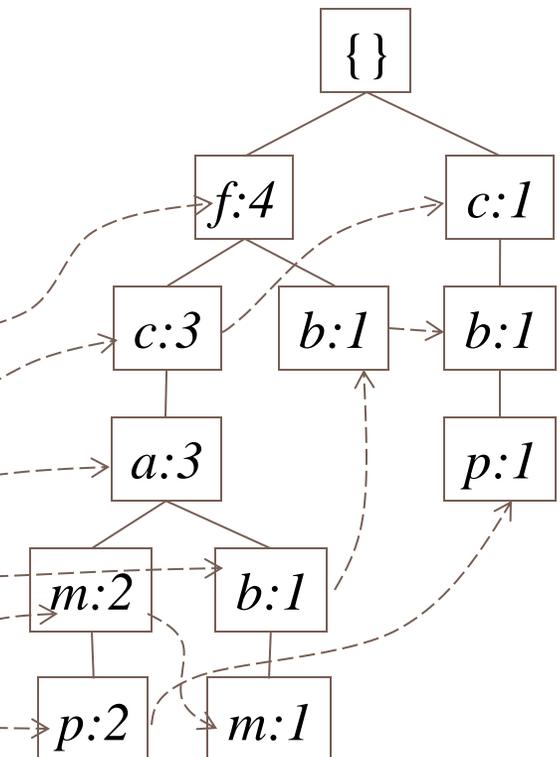
3. Scan DB again, construct FP-tree

- The frequent itemlist of each transaction is inserted as a branch, with shared sub-branches merged, counts accumulated

Header Table

| Item | Frequency | header |
|------|-----------|--------|
| f | 4 | → |
| c | 4 | → |
| a | 3 | → |
| b | 3 | → |
| m | 3 | → |
| p | 3 | → |

After inserting all the frequent itemlists



Mining FP-Tree: Divide and Conquer Based on Patterns and Data

Step 2: Frequent Itemset Generation

- ▶ FP-Growth extracts frequent itemsets from the FP-tree.
- ▶ Bottom-up algorithm – from the leaves towards the root
 - ▶ Divide and conquer: first look for frequent itemsets ending in e , then de , etc... then d , then cd , etc...

Mining FP-Tree: Divide and Conquer Based on Patterns and Data

Step 2: Frequent Itemset Generation

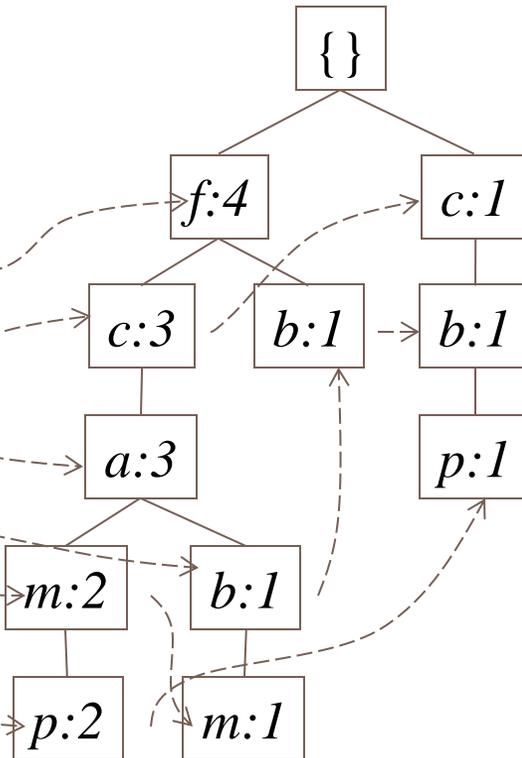
- ▶ FP-Growth extracts frequent itemsets from the FP-tree.
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Mining FP-Tree: Divide and Conquer Based on Patterns and Data

- Pattern mining can be partitioned according to current patterns
 - Patterns containing p : p 's **conditional database**: $fca:m:2, cb:1$
 - p 's conditional database (i.e., the database under the condition that p exists):
 - **transformed prefix paths** of item p
 - Patterns having m but no p : m 's conditional database: $fca:2, fcab:1$
 -

min_support = 3

| Item | Frequency | Header |
|------|-----------|--------|
| f | 4 | |
| c | 4 | |
| a | 3 | |
| b | 3 | |
| m | 3 | |
| p | 3 | |



Conditional database of each pattern

| <u>Item</u> | <u>Conditional database</u> |
|-----------------|-------------------------------|
| <i>c</i> | <i>f:3</i> |
| <i>a</i> | <i>fc:3</i> |
| <i>b</i> | <i>fca:1, f:1, c:1</i> |
| <i>m</i> | <i>fca:2, fcab:1</i> |
| <i>p</i> | <i>fcam:2, cb:1</i> |

Mine Each Conditional Database Recursively

min_support = 3

Conditional Data Bases

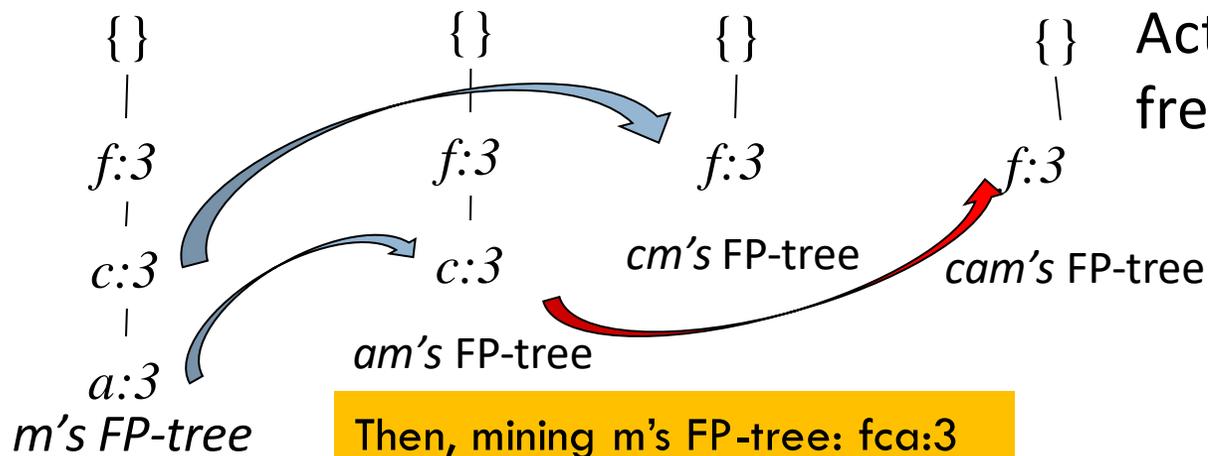
| item | cond. data base |
|------|-----------------|
| c | f:3 |
| a | fc:3 |
| b | fca:1, f:1, c:1 |
| m | fca:2, fcab:1 |
| p | fcam:2, cb:1 |

- For each conditional database
 - ▣ Mine single-item patterns
 - ▣ Construct its FP-tree & mine it

p's conditional DB: **fcam:2, cb:1** → c: 3

m's conditional DB: **fca:2, fcab:1** → fca: 3

b's conditional DB: **fca:1, f:1, c:1** → ϕ



Actually, for single branch FP-tree, all the frequent patterns can be generated in one shot

m: 3
fm: 3, cm: 3, am: 3
fcm: 3, fam:3, cam: 3
fcam: 3

FPGrowth: Mining Frequent Patterns by Pattern Growth

- Essence of frequent pattern growth (FPGrowth) methodology
 - ▣ Find frequent single items and partition the database based on each such single item pattern (**FP-tree construction**)
 - ▣ Recursively grow frequent patterns by doing the above for **each partitioned database (also called the pattern's conditional database)**
 - ▣ To facilitate efficient processing, an efficient data structure, FP-tree, can be constructed
- Mining becomes
 - ▣ Recursively construct and mine (conditional) FP-trees
 - ▣ Until the resulting FP-tree is empty, or until it contains only one path—single path will generate all the combinations of its sub-paths, each of which is a frequent pattern

Chapter 6: Mining Frequent Patterns, Association and Correlations: Basic Concepts and Methods

- Basic Concepts
- Efficient Pattern Mining Methods
- Pattern Evaluation 
- Summary

Pattern Evaluation

- Limitation of the Support-Confidence Framework
- Interestingness Measures: Lift and χ^2
- Null-Invariant Measures
- Comparison of Interestingness Measures

- 
- Pattern mining will generate a large set of patterns/rules
 - ▣ Not all the generated patterns/rules are interesting

How to Judge if a Rule/Pattern Is Interesting?

- Pattern-mining will generate a large set of patterns/rules
 - ▣ Not all the generated patterns/rules are interesting
- Interestingness measures: **Objective** vs. **subjective**

How to Judge if a Rule/Pattern Is Interesting?

- Pattern-mining will generate a large set of patterns/rules
 - ▣ Not all the generated patterns/rules are interesting
- Interestingness measures: **Objective** vs. **subjective**
 - ▣ **Objective** interestingness measures
 - Support, confidence, correlation, ...
 - ▣ **Subjective** interestingness measures:
 - Different users may judge interestingness differently
 - Let a user specify
 - Query-based: Relevant to a user's particular request
 - Judge against one's knowledge base
 - unexpected, freshness, timeliness

Limitation of the Support-Confidence Framework

- Are s and c interesting in association rules: “ $A \Rightarrow B$ ” [s, c]?

Limitation of the Support-Confidence Framework

- Are s and c interesting in association rules: “ $A \Rightarrow B$ ” [s, c]?
- Example: Suppose one school may have the following statistics on # of students who may play basketball and/or eat cereal:

| | play-basketball | not play-basketball | sum (row) |
|----------------|-----------------|---------------------|-----------|
| eat-cereal | 400 | 350 | 750 |
| not eat-cereal | 200 | 50 | 250 |
| sum(col.) | 600 | 400 | 1000 |

2-way contingency table

Limitation of the Support-Confidence Framework

- Are s and c interesting in association rules: “ $A \Rightarrow B$ ” [s, c]?
- Example: Suppose one school may have the following statistics on # of students who may play basketball and/or eat cereal:

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2-way contingency table

- Association rule mining may generate the following:
 - ▣ *play-basketball* \Rightarrow *eat-cereal* [40%, 66.7%] (higher s & c)
- But this strong association rule is misleading: The overall % of students eating cereal is 75% > 66.7%, a more telling rule:
 - \neg *play-basketball* \Rightarrow *eat-cereal* [35%, 87.5%] (high s & c)

Interestingness Measure: Lift

- Measure of dependent/correlated events: **lift**

$$\text{lift}(B, C) = \frac{c(B \rightarrow C)}{s(C)} = \frac{s(B \cup C)}{s(B) \times s(C)}$$

Lift is more telling than s & c

| | B | ¬B | Σ _{row} |
|-------------------|-----|-----|------------------|
| C | 400 | 350 | 750 |
| ¬C | 200 | 50 | 250 |
| Σ _{col.} | 600 | 400 | 1000 |

Interestingness Measure: Lift

Lift is more telling than s & c

- Measure of dependent/correlated events: **lift**

$$\text{lift}(B, C) = \frac{c(B \rightarrow C)}{s(C)} = \frac{P(B \cup C)}{P(B) \times P(C)}$$

- Lift(B, C) may tell how B and C are correlated
 - Lift(B, C) = 1: B and C are independent
 - > 1: positively correlated
 - < 1: negatively correlated

| | B | ¬B | Σ _{row} |
|-------------------|-----|-----|------------------|
| C | 400 | 350 | 750 |
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Interestingness Measure: Lift

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- Measure of dependent/correlated events: **lift**

$$\text{lift}(B, C) = \frac{c(B \rightarrow C)}{s(C)} = \frac{s(B \cup C)}{s(B) \times s(C)}$$

| | B | $\neg B$ | Σ_{row} |
|------------------------|-----|----------|-----------------------|
| C | 400 | 350 | 750 |
| $\neg C$ | 200 | 50 | 250 |
| $\Sigma_{\text{col.}}$ | 600 | 400 | 1000 |

- Lift(B, C) may tell how B and C are correlated

- Lift(B, C) = 1: B and C are independent
- > 1: positively correlated
- < 1: negatively correlated

- In our example,

$$\text{lift}(B, C) = \frac{400/1000}{600/1000 \times 750/1000} = 0.89$$

$$\text{lift}(B, \neg C) = \frac{200/1000}{600/1000 \times 250/1000} = 1.33$$

- Thus, B and C are negatively correlated since $\text{lift}(B, C) < 1$;
 - B and $\neg C$ are positively correlated since $\text{lift}(B, \neg C) > 1$

Interestingness Measure: χ^2

- Another measure to test correlated events: χ^2

$$\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(\text{Observed} - \text{Expected})^2}{\text{Expected}}$$

| | B | $\neg B$ | Σ_{row} |
|-----------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------------------|
| C | 400 (450) | 350 (300) | 750 |
| $\neg C$ | 200 (150) | 50 (100) | 250 |
| Σ_{col} | 600 | 400 | 1000 |

Expected value

Observed value

Interestingness Measure: χ^2

- Another measure to test correlated events: χ^2

$$\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(\text{Observed} - \text{Expected})^2}{\text{Expected}}$$

| | B | $\neg B$ | Σ_{row} |
|-----------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------------------|
| C | 400 (450) | 350 (300) | 750 |
| $\neg C$ | 200 (150) | 50 (100) | 250 |
| Σ_{col} | 600 | 400 | 1000 |

- For the table on the right,

$$\chi^2 = \frac{(400 - 450)^2}{450} + \frac{(350 - 300)^2}{300} + \frac{(200 - 150)^2}{150} + \frac{(50 - 100)^2}{100} = 55.56$$

- By consulting a table of critical values of the χ^2 distribution, one can conclude that the chance for B and C to be independent is very low (< 0.01)
- χ^2 -test shows B and C are negatively correlated since the expected value is 450 but the observed is only 400
- Thus, χ^2 is also more telling than the support-confidence framework

Expected value

Observed value

Lift and χ^2 : Are They Always Good Measures?

- Null transactions: Transactions that contain neither B nor C
- Let's examine the new dataset D
 - ▣ BC (100) is much rarer than B-C (1000) and -BC (1000), but there are many -B-C (100000)
 - ▣ **Unlikely B & C will happen together!**
- But, $\text{Lift}(B, C) = 8.44 \gg 1$ (Lift shows B and C are strongly positively correlated!)
- $\chi^2 = 670$: Observed(BC) \gg expected value (11.85)
- *Too many null transactions may "spoil the soup"!*



| | B | $\neg B$ | Σ_{row} |
|------------------------|------|----------|-----------------------|
| C | 100 | 1000 | 1100 |
| $\neg C$ | 1000 | 100000 | 101000 |
| $\Sigma_{\text{col.}}$ | 1100 | 101000 | 102100 |

null transactions

Contingency table with expected values added

| | B | $\neg B$ | Σ_{row} |
|------------------------|---------------|----------|-----------------------|
| C | 100 (11.85) | 1000 | 1100 |
| $\neg C$ | 1000 (988.15) | 100000 | 101000 |
| $\Sigma_{\text{col.}}$ | 1100 | 101000 | 102100 |

Interestingness Measures & Null-Invariance

- **Null invariance:** Value does not change with the # of null-transactions
- A few interestingness measures: Some are null invariant

| Measure | Definition | Range | Null-Invariant? |
|--------------------|--|---------------|-----------------|
| $\chi^2(A, B)$ | $\sum_{i,j} \frac{(e(a_i, b_j) - o(a_i, b_j))^2}{e(a_i, b_j)}$ | $[0, \infty]$ | No |
| $Lift(A, B)$ | $\frac{s(A \cup B)}{s(A) \times s(B)}$ | $[0, \infty]$ | No |
| $Allconf(A, B)$ | $\frac{s(A \cup B)}{\max\{s(A), s(B)\}}$ | $[0, 1]$ | Yes |
| $Jaccard(A, B)$ | $\frac{s(A \cup B)}{s(A) + s(B) - s(A \cup B)}$ | $[0, 1]$ | Yes |
| $Cosine(A, B)$ | $\frac{s(A \cup B)}{\sqrt{s(A) \times s(B)}}$ | $[0, 1]$ | Yes |
| $Kulczynski(A, B)$ | $\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{s(A \cup B)}{s(A)} + \frac{s(A \cup B)}{s(B)} \right)$ | $[0, 1]$ | Yes |
| $MaxConf(A, B)$ | $\max\left\{ \frac{s(A \cup B)}{s(A)}, \frac{s(A \cup B)}{s(B)} \right\}$ | $[0, 1]$ | Yes |

χ^2 and lift are not null-invariant

Jaccard, cosine, AllConf, MaxConf, and Kulczynski are null-invariant measures

Null Invariance: An Important Property

- Why is null invariance crucial for the analysis of massive transaction data?
 - ▣ Many transactions may contain neither milk nor coffee!

milk vs. coffee contingency table

| | | | |
|----------------|-------------------|-------------------|----------------|
| | <i>milk</i> | $\neg milk$ | Σ_{row} |
| <i>coffee</i> | <i>mc</i> | $\neg mc$ | <i>c</i> |
| $\neg coffee$ | <i>m</i> $\neg c$ | $\neg m$ $\neg c$ | $\neg c$ |
| Σ_{col} | <i>m</i> | $\neg m$ | Σ |

- Lift and χ^2 are not null-invariant: not good to evaluate data that contain **too many or too few null transactions!**
- Many measures are not null-invariant!

Null-transactions
w.r.t. *m* and *c*

| Data set | <i>mc</i> | $\neg mc$ | <i>m</i> $\neg c$ | $\neg m$ $\neg c$ | χ^2 | <i>Lift</i> |
|----------|-----------|-----------|-------------------|-------------------|----------|-------------|
| D_1 | 10,000 | 1,000 | 1,000 | 100,000 | 90557 | 9.26 |
| D_2 | 10,000 | 1,000 | 1,000 | 100 | 0 | 1 |
| D_3 | 100 | 1,000 | 1,000 | 100,000 | 670 | 8.44 |
| D_4 | 1,000 | 1,000 | 1,000 | 100,000 | 24740 | 25.75 |
| D_5 | 1,000 | 100 | 10,000 | 100,000 | 8173 | 9.18 |
| D_6 | 1,000 | 10 | 100,000 | 100,000 | 965 | 1.97 |

Comparison of Null-Invariant Measures

- Not all null-invariant measures are created equal
- Which one is better?
 - ▣ D_4 — D_6 differentiate the null-invariant measures
 - ▣ Kulc (Kulczynski 1927) holds firm and is in balance of both directional implications

2-variable contingency table

| | | | |
|----------------------|--------------------------|---------------------------------|-----------------|
| | <i>milk</i> | \neg <i>milk</i> | Σ_{row} |
| <i>coffee</i> | <i>mc</i> | \neg <i>mc</i> | <i>c</i> |
| \neg <i>coffee</i> | <i>m</i> \neg <i>c</i> | \neg <i>m</i> \neg <i>c</i> | \neg <i>c</i> |
| Σ_{col} | <i>m</i> | \neg <i>m</i> | Σ |

All 5 are null-invariant

| Data set | <i>mc</i> | \neg <i>mc</i> | <i>m</i> \neg <i>c</i> | \neg <i>m</i> \neg <i>c</i> | <i>AllConf</i> | Jaccard | <i>Cosine</i> | <i>Kulc</i> | <i>MaxConf</i> |
|----------|-----------|------------------|--------------------------|---------------------------------|----------------|---------|---------------|-------------|----------------|
| D_1 | 10,000 | 1,000 | 1,000 | 100,000 | 0.91 | 0.83 | 0.91 | 0.91 | 0.91 |
| D_2 | 10,000 | 1,000 | 1,000 | 100 | 0.91 | 0.83 | 0.91 | 0.91 | 0.91 |
| D_3 | 100 | 1,000 | 1,000 | 100,000 | 0.09 | 0.05 | 0.09 | 0.09 | 0.09 |
| D_4 | 1,000 | 1,000 | 1,000 | 100,000 | 0.5 | 0.33 | 0.5 | 0.5 | 0.5 |
| D_5 | 1,000 | 100 | 10,000 | 100,000 | 0.09 | 0.09 | 0.29 | 0.5 | 0.91 |
| D_6 | 1,000 | 10 | 100,000 | 100,000 | 0.01 | 0.01 | 0.10 | 0.5 | 0.99 |

Subtle: They disagree on those cases

Imbalance Ratio with Kulczynski Measure

- IR (Imbalance Ratio): measure the imbalance of two itemsets A and B in rule implications:

$$IR(A, B) = \frac{|s(A) - s(B)|}{s(A) + s(B) - s(A \cup B)}$$

- Kulczynski and Imbalance Ratio (IR) together present a clear picture for all the three datasets D_4 through D_6
 - ▣ D_4 is neutral & balanced; D_5 is neutral but imbalanced
 - ▣ D_6 is neutral but very imbalanced

| Data set | mc | $\neg mc$ | $m\neg c$ | $\neg m\neg c$ | Jaccard | <i>Cosine</i> | <i>Kulc</i> | IR |
|----------|--------|-----------|-----------|----------------|---------|---------------|-------------|------|
| D_1 | 10,000 | 1,000 | 1,000 | 100,000 | 0.83 | 0.91 | 0.91 | 0 |
| D_2 | 10,000 | 1,000 | 1,000 | 100 | 0.83 | 0.91 | 0.91 | 0 |
| D_3 | 100 | 1,000 | 1,000 | 100,000 | 0.05 | 0.09 | 0.09 | 0 |
| D_4 | 1,000 | 1,000 | 1,000 | 100,000 | 0.33 | 0.5 | 0.5 | 0 |
| D_5 | 1,000 | 100 | 10,000 | 100,000 | 0.09 | 0.29 | 0.5 | 0.89 |
| D_6 | 1,000 | 10 | 100,000 | 100,000 | 0.01 | 0.10 | 0.5 | 0.99 |

What Measures to Choose for Effective Pattern Evaluation?

- Null value cases are predominant in many large datasets
 - ▣ Neither milk nor coffee is in most of the baskets; neither Mike nor Jim is an author in most of the papers;
- *Null-invariance* is an important property
- Lift, χ^2 and cosine are good measures if null transactions are not predominant
 - ▣ Otherwise, *Kulczynski + Imbalance Ratio* should be used to judge the interestingness of a pattern

Chapter 6: Mining Frequent Patterns, Association and Correlations: Basic Concepts and Methods

- Basic Concepts
- Efficient Pattern Mining Methods
- Pattern Evaluation
- Summary 

Summary

- Basic Concepts
 - What Is Pattern Discovery? Why Is It Important?
 - Basic Concepts: Frequent Patterns and Association Rules
 - Compressed Representation: Closed Patterns and Max-Patterns
- Efficient Pattern Mining Methods
 - The Downward Closure Property of Frequent Patterns
 - The Apriori Algorithm
 - Extensions or Improvements of Apriori
 - FPGrowth: A Frequent Pattern-Growth Approach
- Pattern Evaluation
 - Interestingness Measures in Pattern Mining
 - Interestingness Measures: Lift and χ^2
 - Null-Invariant Measures
 - Comparison of Interestingness Measures

Recommended Readings (Basic Concepts)

- R. Agrawal, T. Imielinski, and A. Swami, “Mining association rules between sets of items in large databases”, in Proc. of SIGMOD'93
- R. J. Bayardo, “Efficiently mining long patterns from databases”, in Proc. of SIGMOD'98
- N. Pasquier, Y. Bastide, R. Taouil, and L. Lakhal, “Discovering frequent closed itemsets for association rules”, in Proc. of ICDT'99
- J. Han, H. Cheng, D. Xin, and X. Yan, “Frequent Pattern Mining: Current Status and Future Directions”, Data Mining and Knowledge Discovery, 15(1): 55-86, 2007

Recommended Readings (Efficient Pattern Mining Methods)

- R. Agrawal and R. Srikant, “Fast algorithms for mining association rules”, VLDB'94
- A. Savasere, E. Omiecinski, and S. Navathe, “An efficient algorithm for mining association rules in large databases”, VLDB'95
- J. S. Park, M. S. Chen, and P. S. Yu, “An effective hash-based algorithm for mining association rules”, SIGMOD'95
- S. Sarawagi, S. Thomas, and R. Agrawal, “Integrating association rule mining with relational database systems: Alternatives and implications”, SIGMOD'98
- M. J. Zaki, S. Parthasarathy, M. Ogihara, and W. Li, “Parallel algorithm for discovery of association rules”, Data Mining and Knowledge Discovery, 1997
- J. Han, J. Pei, and Y. Yin, “Mining frequent patterns without candidate generation”, SIGMOD'00
- M. J. Zaki and Hsiao, “CHARM: An Efficient Algorithm for Closed Itemset Mining”, SDM'02
- J. Wang, J. Han, and J. Pei, “CLOSET+: Searching for the Best Strategies for Mining Frequent Closed Itemsets”, KDD'03
- C. C. Aggarwal, M.A., Bhuiyan, M. A. Hasan, “Frequent Pattern Mining Algorithms: A Survey”, in Aggarwal and Han (eds.): Frequent Pattern Mining, Springer, 2014

Recommended Readings (Pattern Evaluation)

- C. C. Aggarwal and P. S. Yu. A New Framework for Itemset Generation. PODS'98
- S. Brin, R. Motwani, and C. Silverstein. Beyond market basket: Generalizing association rules to correlations. SIGMOD'97
- M. Klemettinen, H. Mannila, P. Ronkainen, H. Toivonen, and A. I. Verkamo. Finding interesting rules from large sets of discovered association rules. CIKM'94
- E. Omiecinski. Alternative Interest Measures for Mining Associations. TKDE'03
- P.-N. Tan, V. Kumar, and J. Srivastava. Selecting the Right Interestingness Measure for Association Patterns. KDD'02
- T. Wu, Y. Chen and J. Han, Re-Examination of Interestingness Measures in Pattern Mining: A Unified Framework, Data Mining and Knowledge Discovery, 21(3):371-397, 2010

Chapter 7 : Advanced Frequent Pattern Mining

- Mining Diverse Patterns 
- Constraint-Based Frequent Pattern Mining
- Sequential Pattern Mining
- Graph Pattern Mining
- Pattern Mining Application: Mining Software Copy-and-Paste Bugs
- Summary

Mining Diverse Patterns



- Mining Multiple-Level Associations
- Mining Multi-Dimensional Associations
- Mining Negative Correlations
- Mining Compressed and Redundancy-Aware Patterns

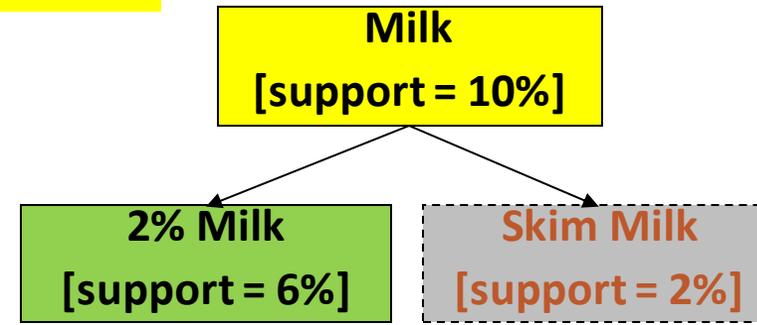
Mining Multiple-Level Frequent Patterns

- Items often form hierarchies
 - Ex.: Dairyland 2% milk; Wonder wheat bread
- How to set min-support thresholds?

Uniform support

Level 1
min_sup = 5%

Level 2
min_sup = 5%



- Uniform min-support across multiple levels (reasonable?)

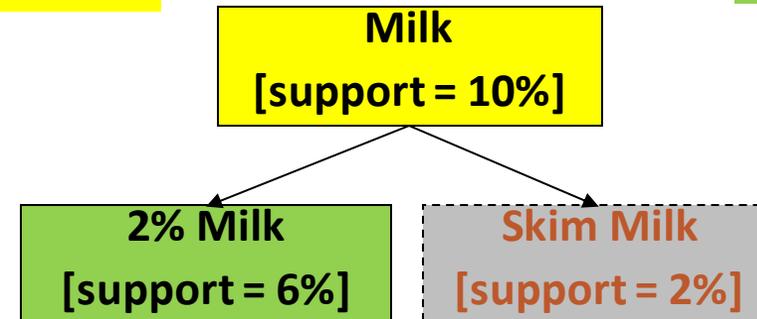
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Reduced support

Level 1
min_sup = 5%

Level 2
min_sup = 1%

- Uniform min-support across multiple levels (reasonable?)
- **Level-reduced min-support: Items at the lower level are expected to have lower support**

ML/MD Associations with Flexible Support Constraints

- Why flexible support constraints?
 - ▣ Real life occurrence frequencies vary greatly
 - Diamond, watch, pens in a shopping basket
 - ▣ Uniform support may not be an interesting model
- A flexible model
 - ▣ The lower-level, the more dimension combination, and the long pattern length, usually the smaller support
 - ▣ General rules should be easy to specify and understand
 - ▣ Special items and special group of items may be specified individually and have higher priority

Multi-level Association: Redundancy Filtering

- Some rules may be redundant due to “ancestor” relationships between items.
- Example
 - ▣ milk \Rightarrow wheat bread [support = 8%, confidence = 70%]
 - ▣ 2% milk \Rightarrow wheat bread [support = 2%, confidence = 72%]
 - ▣ Given the 2% milk sold is about $\frac{1}{4}$ of milk sold
- We say the first rule is an ancestor of the second rule.
- A rule is redundant if its support is close to the “expected” value, based on the rule’s ancestor.

Multi-Level Mining: Progressive Deepening

- A top-down, progressive deepening approach:
 - First mine high-level frequent items:
milk (15%), bread (10%)
 - Then mine their lower-level “weaker” frequent itemsets:
2% milk (5%), wheat bread (4%)
- Different min_support threshold across multi-levels lead to different algorithms:
 - If adopting the same min_support across multi-levels
then toss t if any of t 's ancestors is infrequent.
 - If adopting reduced min_support at lower levels
then examine only those descendents whose ancestor's support is frequent/non-negligible.

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Mining Multi-Dimensional Associations

- Single-dimensional rules (e.g., items are all in “product” dimension)
 - ▣ $\text{buys}(X, \text{“milk”}) \Rightarrow \text{buys}(X, \text{“bread”})$
- Multi-dimensional rules (i.e., items in ≥ 2 dimensions or predicates)
 - ▣ Inter-dimension association rules (*no repeated predicates*)
 - $\text{age}(X, \text{“18-25”}) \wedge \text{occupation}(X, \text{“student”}) \Rightarrow \text{buys}(X, \text{“coke”})$
 - ▣ Hybrid-dimension association rules (*repeated predicates*)
 - $\text{age}(X, \text{“18-25”}) \wedge \text{buys}(X, \text{“popcorn”}) \Rightarrow \text{buys}(X, \text{“coke”})$

Mining Rare Patterns vs. Negative Patterns

- Rare patterns
 - ▣ Very low support but interesting (e.g., buying Rolex watches)
 - ▣ How to mine them? Setting individualized, group-based min-support thresholds for different groups of items

Mining Rare Patterns vs. Negative Patterns

- Rare patterns
 - ▣ Very low support but interesting (e.g., buying Rolex watches)
 - ▣ How to mine them? Setting individualized, group-based min-support thresholds for different groups of items
- Negative patterns
 - ▣ **Negatively correlated: Unlikely to happen together**
 - ▣ Ex.: Since it is unlikely that the same customer buys both a **Ford Expedition** (an SUV car) and a **Ford Fusion** (a hybrid car), buying a **Ford Expedition** and buying a **Ford Fusion** are likely negatively correlated patterns
 - ▣ How to define negative patterns?

Defining Negative Correlated Patterns

- A (relative) support-based definition
 - If itemsets A and B are both frequent but rarely occur together, i.e., $\text{sup}(A \cup B) \ll \text{sup}(A) \times \text{sup}(B)$
 - Then A and B are negatively correlated

Defining Negative Correlated Patterns

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- Is this a good definition for large transaction datasets?

Does this remind you the definition of *lift*?

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- Is this a good definition for large transaction datasets?
- Ex.: Suppose a store sold two needle packages A and B 100 times each, but only one transaction contained both A and B
 - ▣ When there are in total 200 transactions, we have
 - $s(A \cup B) = 0.005, s(A) \times s(B) = 0.25, s(A \cup B) \ll s(A) \times s(B)$
 - ▣ But when there are 10^5 transactions, we have
 - $s(A \cup B) = 1/10^5, s(A) \times s(B) = 1/10^3 \times 1/10^3, s(A \cup B) > s(A) \times s(B)$

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 - $s(A \cup B) = 1/10^5, s(A) \times s(B) = 1/10^3 \times 1/10^3, s(A \cup B) > s(A) \times s(B)$
 - ▣ What is the problem?—Null transactions: The support-based definition is not null-invariant!

Defining Negative Correlation: Need Null-Invariance in Definition

- A good definition on negative correlation should take care of the null-invariance problem
 - Whether two itemsets A and B are negatively correlated should not be influenced by the number of null-transactions

Which measure should we use? Recall last lectures....

Defining Negative Correlation: Need Null-Invariance in Definition

- A good definition on negative correlation should take care of the null-invariance problem
 - Whether two itemsets A and B are negatively correlated should not be influenced by the number of null-transactions
- A **Kulczynski measure-based** definition
 - If itemsets A and B are frequent but
$$(s(A \cup B)/s(A) + s(A \cup B)/s(B))/2 < \epsilon,$$
where ϵ is a negative pattern threshold, then A and B are negatively correlated
- For the same needle package problem:
 - No matter there are in total 200 or 10^5 transactions
 - If $\epsilon = 0.02$, we have
$$(s(A \cup B)/s(A) + s(A \cup B)/s(B))/2 = (0.01 + 0.01)/2 < \epsilon$$

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Backup slides

Expressing Patterns in Compressed Form: Closed Patterns

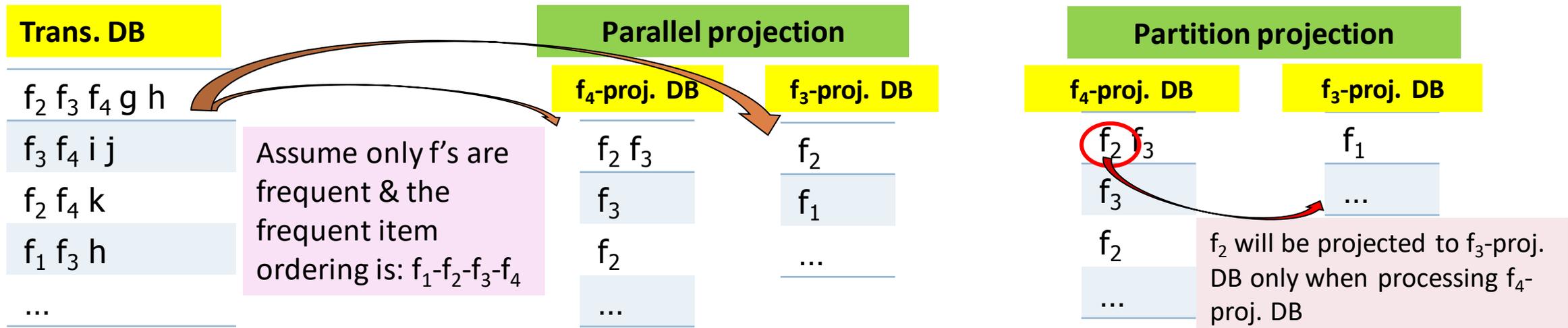
- How to handle such a challenge?
- Solution 1: **Closed patterns:** A pattern (itemset) X is closed if X is frequent, and there exists no super-pattern $Y \supset X$, with the same support as X
 - ▣ Let Transaction DB TDB_1 : $T_1: \{a_1, \dots, a_{50}\}; T_2: \{a_1, \dots, a_{100}\}$
 - ▣ Suppose $minsup = 1$. How many closed patterns does TDB_1 contain?
 - Two: $P_1: \{a_1, \dots, a_{50}\}: 2$; $P_2: \{a_1, \dots, a_{100}\}: 1$
- Closed pattern is a lossless compression of frequent patterns
 - ▣ Reduces the # of patterns but does not lose the support information!
 - ▣ You will still be able to say: $\{a_2, \dots, a_{40}\}: 2$, $\{a_5, a_{51}\}: 1$

Expressing Patterns in Compressed Form: Max-Patterns

- **Solution 2: Max-patterns:** A pattern X is a maximal frequent pattern or max-pattern if X is frequent and there exists no frequent super-pattern $Y \supset X$
- Difference from close-patterns?
 - ▣ Do not care the real support of the sub-patterns of a max-pattern
 - ▣ Let Transaction DB TDB_1 : $T_1: \{a_1, \dots, a_{50}\}$; $T_2: \{a_1, \dots, a_{100}\}$
 - ▣ Suppose $minsup = 1$. How many max-patterns does TDB_1 contain?
 - One: $P: \{\{a_1, \dots, a_{100}\}: 1\}$
- Max-pattern is a lossy compression!
 - ▣ We only know $\{a_1, \dots, a_{40}\}$ is frequent
 - ▣ But we do not know the real support of $\{a_1, \dots, a_{40}\}$, ..., any more!
 - ▣ Thus in many applications, close-patterns are more desirable than max-patterns

Scaling FP-growth by Item-Based Data Projection

- What if FP-tree cannot fit in memory?—Do not construct FP-tree
 - ▣ “Project” the database based on frequent single items
 - ▣ Construct & mine FP-tree for each projected DB
- **Parallel projection** vs. **partition projection**
 - ▣ Parallel projection: Project the DB on each frequent item
 - Space costly, all partitions can be processed in parallel
 - ▣ Partition projection: Partition the DB in order
 - Passing the unprocessed parts to subsequent partitions



Analysis of DBLP Coauthor Relationships

- DBLP: Computer science research publication bibliographic database
 - > 3.8 million entries on authors, paper, venue, year, and other information

| ID | Author <i>A</i> | Author <i>B</i> | $s(A \cup B)$ | $s(A)$ | $s(B)$ | Jaccard | <i>Cosine</i> | <i>Kulc</i> |
|----|----------------------|----------------------|---------------|--------|--------|------------|---------------|-------------|
| 1 | Hans-Peter Kriegel | Martin Ester | 28 | 146 | 54 | 0.163 (2) | 0.315 (7) | 0.355 (9) |
| 2 | Michael Carey | Miron Livny | 26 | 104 | 58 | 0.191 (1) | 0.335 (4) | 0.349 (10) |
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| 4 | Christos Faloutsos | Spiros Papadimitriou | 20 | 162 | 26 | 0.119 (7) | 0.308 (10) | 0.446 (7) |
| 5 | Hans-Peter Kriegel | Martin Pfeifle | 18 | 146 | 18 | 0.123 (6) | 0.351 (2) | 0.562 (2) |
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| 7 | Divyakant Agrawal | Wang Hsiung | 16 | 120 | 16 | 0.133 (5) | 0.365 (1) | 0.567 (1) |
| 8 | Elke Rundensteiner | Murali Mani | 16 | 104 | 20 | 0.148 (4) | 0.351 (3) | 0.477 (6) |
| 9 | Divyakant Agrawal | Oliver Po | 12 | 120 | 12 | 0.100 (10) | 0.316 (6) | 0.550 (3) |
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Advisor-advisee relation: Kulc: high, Jaccard: low, cosine: middle

- Which pairs of authors are strongly related?
 - Use Kulc to find Advisor-advisee, close collaborators

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- Exercise: Mining research collaborations from research bibliographic data
 - ▣ Find a group of frequent collaborators from research bibliographic data (e.g., DBLP)
 - ▣ Can you find the likely advisor-advisee relationship and during which years such a relationship happened?
 - ▣ Ref.: C. Wang, J. Han, Y. Jia, J. Tang, D. Zhang, Y. Yu, and J. Guo, "Mining Advisor-Advisee Relationships from Research Publication Networks", KDD'10