# Comparing Rule Measures for Predictive Association Rules\*

Paulo J. Azevedo $^1$  and Alípio M.  $Jorge^{2,3}$ 

<sup>1</sup> CCTC, Departamento de Informática, Universidade do Minho pja@di.uminho.pt
<sup>2</sup> Faculdade de Economia, Universidade do Porto amjorge@fep.up.pt
<sup>3</sup> LIAAD, INESC PORTO L.A.

Abstract. We study the predictive ability of some association rule measures typically used to assess descriptive interest. Such measures, namely conviction, lift and  $\chi^2$  are compared with confidence, Laplace, mutual information, cosine, Jaccard and  $\phi$ -coefficient. As prediction models, we use sets of association rules. Classification is done by selecting the best rule, or by weighted voting. We performed an evaluation on 17 datasets with different characteristics and conclude that conviction is on average the best predictive measure to use in this setting. We also provide some meta-analysis insights for explaining the results.

### 1 Introduction

Association rule mining is primarily used for exploratory data mining. In that setting it is useful to discover relations between sets of variables, which may represent products in an on-line store, disease symptoms, keywords, demographic characteristics, to name a few. To guide the data analyst identifying interesting rules, many objective interestingness rule measures have been proposed in the literature [10]. Although these measures have descriptive aims, we will evaluate their use in predictive tasks. One of these measures, conviction, will be shown as particularly successful in classification.

The general idea of classification based on association rules [7] is to generate a set of association rules with a fixed class attribute in the consequent and then use subsets of these rules to classify new examples. This approach has the advantage of searching a larger portion of the rule version space, since no search heuristics are employed, in contrast to decision tree and traditional classification rule induction. The extra search is done in a controlled manner enabled by the good computational behavior of association rule discovery algorithms. Another advantage is that the produced rich rule set can be used in a variety of ways without relearning, which can be used to improve the classification accuracy [5].

 $<sup>^\</sup>star$  Supported by Fundação Ciência e Tecnologia, Project Site-o-matic, FEDER e Programa de Financiamento Plurianual de Unidades de I & D.

J.N. Kok et al. (Eds.): ECML 2007, LNAI 4701, pp. 510-517, 2007.© Springer-Verlag Berlin Heidelberg 2007

### 2 The Measures

We now describe the measures used in this work (Table 1), after introducing some notation. Let r be a rule of the form  $A \to C$  where A and C are sets of items. In a classification setting, each item in A is a pair  $\langle attribute = value \rangle$ , and C has one single pair  $\langle class|attribute = class|value \rangle$ . The rules are obtained from a dataset D of size N.

Measure	Definition	Range
confidence	$conf(A \to C) = \frac{sup(A \cup C)}{sup(A)}$	[0, 1]
Laplace	$lapl(A \to C) = \frac{sup(A \cup C) + 1}{sup(A) + 2}$	[0, 1[
lift	$lift(A \to C) = \frac{conf(A \to C)}{sup(C)}$	$[0,+\infty[$
conviction	$conv(A \rightarrow C) = \frac{1 - sup(C)}{1 - conf(A \rightarrow C)}$	$[0.5, +\infty[$
leverage	$leve(A \rightarrow C) = sup(A \cup C) - sup(A) \times sup(C)$	[-0.25, 0.25]
$\chi^2$	$\chi^2(A \to C) = N \times \sum_{X \in \{A, \neg A\}, Y \in \{C, \neg C\}} \frac{(sup(X \cup Y) - sup(X) \cdot sup(Y))^2}{sup(X) \times sup(Y)}$	$[0,+\infty[$
Jaccard	$jacc(A \to C) = \frac{sup(A \cup C)}{sup(A) + sup(C) - sup(A \cup C)}$	[0, 1]
cosine	$cos(A \rightarrow C) = \frac{sup(A \cup C)}{\sqrt{sup(A) \times sup(C)}}$	[0, 1]
$\phi$ -coeff	$\phi(A \to C) = \frac{leve(A \to C)}{\sqrt{(sup(A) \times sup(C)) \times (1 - sup(A)) \times (1 - sup(C))}}$	[-1, 1]
mutual inf.	$MI(A \rightarrow C) = \frac{\sum_{i} \sum_{j} sup(A_{i} \cup C_{j}) \times log(\frac{sup(A_{i} \cup C_{j})}{sup(A_{i}) \times sup(C_{j})})}{min(\sum_{i} - sup(A_{i}) \times log(sup(A_{i})), \sum_{j} - sup(C_{j}) \times log(sup(C_{j})))}$	[0, 1]

Table 1. Measures

In association rule discovery, Confidence (of  $A \to C$ ) is a standard measure. It is an estimate of  $\Pr(C \mid A)$ , the probability of observing C given A. After obtaining a rule set, one can immediatly use confidence as a basis for classifying one new case x. Of all the rules that apply to x (i.e., the rules whose antecedent is true in x), we choose the one with highest confidence. Laplace is a measure mostly used in classification. It is a confidence estimator that takes support into account, becoming more pessimistic as the support of A decreases.

Confidence alone (or Laplace) is not be enough to assess the descriptive interest of a rule. Rules with high confidence may occur by chance. Such spurious rules can be detected by determining whether the antecedent and the consequent are statistically independent. This inspired a number of measures for association rule interest. One of them is Lift which measures how far from independence are A and C. Values close to 1 imply that A and C are independent and the rule is not interesting. Lift measures co-occurrence only (not implication) and is symmetric with respect to antecedent and consequent.

Conviction [3] measures the degree of implication of a rule, but also assesses the independence between A and C. Its value is 1 in case of independence and is infinite for logical implications (confidence 1). Unlike lift, it is sensitive to rule direction  $(conv(A \to C) \neq conv(C \to A))$ . Unlike confidence, the support of both antecedent and consequent are considered in conviction. Leverage was recovered by Webb for the Magnus Opus system [11], but previously proposed by Piatetsky-Schapiro [9]. The idea is to measure, through a difference, how much

A and C deviate from independence (from zero). The definite way for measuring the statistical independence between antecedent and consequent is the  $\chi^2$  test. As stated in [2],  $\chi^2$  does not assess the strength of correlation between antecedent and consequent. It only assists in deciding about the independence of these items which suggests that the measure is not feasible for ranking purposes. Our results will corroborate these claims.

The following measures evaluate the degree of overlap between the cases covered by A and C. The Jaccard coefficient is the binary similarity between the sets of cases covered by both sides of the rule, whereas Cosine views A and C as two binary vectors. In both cases, higher values mean similarity The  $\phi$ -coefficient is analogous to the discrete case of the Pearson correlation coeficient. In [10], it is shown that  $\phi^2 = \frac{\chi^2}{N}$ . The last measure,  $Mutual\ Information$ , measures the amount of reduction in uncertainty of the consequent when the antecedent is known [10]. In the definition (table 1),  $A_i \in \{A, \neg A\}$  and  $C_j \in \{C, \neg C\}$ . Notice that measures lift, leverage,  $\chi^2$ , Jaccard, cosine,  $\phi$  and MI are symmetric, whereas confidence, Laplace and conviction are asymmetric. We will see that this makes all the difference in terms of prediction. Other measures could have been considered, but we focused mainly on the ones used in association rules.

#### 2.1 Prediction

The simplest approach for prediction with association rules is *Best Rule*, where we choose, among the rules that apply to a new case, the one with the highest value of the chosen predictive measure. Ties can be broken by support [7]. A kind of best rule strategy, combined with a coverage rule generation method, provided encouraging empirical results when compared with state of the art classifiers on some datasets from UCI [8]. Our implementation of Best Rule follows closely the rules ordering described in CMAR [6]:

```
R_1 \prec R_2 if meas(R_1) > meas(R_2) or meas(R_1) = meas(R_2) \land sup(R1) > sup(R2) or meas(R_1) = meas(R_2) \land sup(R1) = sup(R2) \land ant(R1) < ant(R2).
```

where meas is the used interest measure and ant is the length of the antecedent. For prediction, we have also tried  $Weighted\ Voting$ . This strategy combines the rules F(x) that fire upon a case x. The answer of each rule is a vote, and the final decision is obtained by assigning a specific weight to each vote.

$$pred_{wv} = arg \max_{g \in G} \sum_{x' \in antec(F(x))} vote(x', g). \max meas(x' \to g).$$

## 3 Experiments

We have tested the effects of each measure on benchmark datasets. For that, we ran CAREN [1] using "Best Rule" and "Weighted Voting". For reference we show the results of the rpart and the c4.5 TDIDT algorithms (see [5] for more details). Stratified 10 fold cross-validation was used to estimate error rates (Table 3) and to derive algorithm ranking (Table 4). The datasets used for evaluation (table 2) have varied sizes, number of attributes and classes and were obtained

Dataset	nick	#examples	#classes	#attr	#numerics	norm. Gini	norm. entropy
australian	aus	690	2	14	6	0.99	0.99
breast	bre	699	2	9	8	0.90	0.93
pima	pim	768	2	8	8	0.91	0.93
yeast	yea	1484	10	8	8	0.86	0.75
flare	fla	1066	2	10	0	0.61	0.70
cleveland	cle	303	5	13	5	0.81	0.80
heart	hea	270	2	13	13	0.99	0.99
hepatitis	hep	155	2	19	4	0.66	0.73
german	ger	1000	2	20	7	0.84	0.88
house-votes	hou	435	2	16	0	0.95	0.96
segment	seg	2310	7	19	19	1.00	1.00
vehicle	veh	846	4	18	18	1.00	1.00
adult	adu	32561	2	14	6	0.73	0.80
lymphography	lym	148	4	18	0	0.71	0.61
sat	sat	6435	6	36	36	0.97	0.96
shuttle	shu	58000	7	9	9	0.41	0.34
w.n.v.ofo.ww	******	5000	2	91	21	1.00	1.00

Table 2. Datasets used for the empirical evaluation

Table 3. Error rates (in percent) for rpart, c4.5 and the different CAREN variants

	aus	bre	pim	yea	fla	cle	hea	hep	ger	hou	seg	veh	adu	lym	sat	shu	wav
rpart	16.23	6.15	24.72	43.27	17.73	46.16	20.00	26.00	25.20	4.87	8.31	31.76	15.55	25.27	19.04	0.53	26.64
c4.5	13.92		24.36							3.25		25.96					22.73
BR.conf	14.21		22.78									38.74					17.40
BR.lift	36.09	18.88	41.66	44.57	21.66	44.09	31.48	47.51	63.80	46.67	9.91	43.92	36.49	47.75	34.51	21.74	29.82
BR.conv	14.35		22.38									38.63					17.42
BR.chi	32.89	14.02	33.71	45.10	21.66	44.09	27.04	47.51	63.30	40.95	31.77	46.21	36.49	47.08	32.43	20.59	21.04
BR.lapl	14.22		25.25							6.48	10.61	39.22	15.70	18.00	19.86	0.47	17.34
BR.lev		11.58										48.82					26.82
BR.jacc	14.51	19.45	34.89	44.81	18.86	45.70	38.15	20.58	30.00	5.55	34.03	48.81	24.08	34.32	42.14	15.58	26.74
BR.cos	14.51	23.17	34.89	55.80	18.86	45.70	44.44	20.58	30.00	5.55	33.94	49.75	24.08	43.62	42.75	15.58	32.16
BR.phi	14.51		27.85									49.06					26.46
BR.MI	25.81	5.85	24.20	46.14	17.90	44.09	27.04	19.99	29.90	15.88	14.50	37.90	17.41	45.76	35.29	6.04	28.52
Voting.conf	16.24	3.57	22.64	42.61	18.47	45.70	17.41	16.27	24.10	13.35	15.11	35.43	16.35	27.37	35.17		17.28
	15.37									14.73							17.24
Voting.conv	18.40	4.72	22.77	41.87	18.56	45.70	19.63	17.45	26.50	13.80	20.22	36.04	15.07	22.50	23.17	0.60	28.42
Voting.chi	16.10									13.81							17.12
	16.39									13.35							17.22
Voting.Lev	15.82	4.58	24.72	46.04	18.56	45.70	17.78	14.12	24.40	14.50	22.34	39.00	17.04	32.72	36.60	2.69	19.72
Voting.Jacc	17.41									14.26						2.55	19.96
	16.98									13.57						2.14	18.30
	15.52									14.50							17.98
Voting.MI	77.84	49.08	34.36	45.03	18.66	45.70	73.33	80.09	66.00	80.63	97.71	74.69	34.88	93.25	84.38	40.84	90.90

Table 4. Ranks

	mean		bre	pim	yea	fla	cle	hea	hep	ger	hou	seg	veh	adu	lym	sat	shu	wav
BR.conv	6.35	4	6	1	4	20	3.5	11.5	8	10	8.5	4	11	2	2.5	3	2	7
BR.conf	7.18	2	8	5	1	17	13.5	10	11.5	12	8.5	4	12	3	1	4	3.5	6
Voting.conf	7.44	14	4.5	2	6	7	13.5	6	6.5	2	10.5	8.5	3	7	7.5	12.5	12	4
Voting.lapl	7.47	15	4.5	3.5	5	6	13.5	6	6.5	1	10.5	10	4.5	8	7.5	12.5	11	2
c4.5	7.65	1	12	9	12	1	22	15	16	18	1	1	1	1	5	1	1	13
rpart	8.74	13	15	11.5	9	2	21	14	18	6	2	2	2	5	6	2	5	15
BR.lapl	8.79	3	14	13	13	13	13.5	3	14	13	7	6	15	6	2.5	5	3.5	5
Voting.Cos	9	16	7	6	11	4	13.5	3	2	4	12	13	10	9	11.5	14	8	9
Voting.conv	9.38	18	10	3.5	2	8.5	13.5	13	10	9	13	14	7	4	4	6	6	18
Voting.chi	10	12	2.5	14.5	8	16	13.5	3	3	7	14	11	6	15	14.5	16	13	1
Voting.Phi	10	10	2.5	10	7	15	13.5	6	5	8	16.5	12	9	13	11.5	9	14	8
Voting.lift	10.03	9	1	14.5	3	19	13.5	1	9	11	18	8.5	4.5	16	14.5	8	17	3
Voting.Jacc	10.65	17	11	7	10	5	13.5	8.5	4	4	15	15	13	14	13	11	9	11
Voting.Lev	11.56	11	9	11.5	19	8.5	13.5	8.5	1	4	16.5	16	14	10	16	18	10	10
BR.MI	13.15	19	13	8	20	3	3.5	17.5	11.5	15	19	7	8	11	19	15	15	19
BR.phi	13.82	6.5	16		14	18	3.5	11.5	19	19	4.5	18	20	12	10	17	16	14
BR.lev	14.03	6.5	17	17	21	11	3.5	16	17	14	4.5	21	19	17	9	21	7	17
BR.jacc	15.97	6.5	20	20.5	16	13	13.5	20	14	16.5	4.5	20	18	18.5	17	19	18.5	16
BR.cos	16.97	6.5	21	20.5	22	13	13.5	21	14	16.5	4.5	19	21	18.5	18	20	18.5	21
BR.chi	17.15	20	18	18	18	21.5	3.5	17.5	20.5	20	20	17	17	21.5	20	7	20	12
BR.lift	17.47	21	19	22	15	21.5	3.5	19	20.5	21	21	4	16	21.5	21	10	21	20
Voting.MI	20.21	22	22	19	17	10	13.5	22	22	22	22	22	22	20	22	22	22	22

from [8]. Since the existence of minority classes may be important to explain the results, we have also measured class balancing. For that, we use normalized Gini, defined as  $\sum_i p_i^2/(1-nclasses^{-1})$ , where  $p_i$  is the proportion of class i,

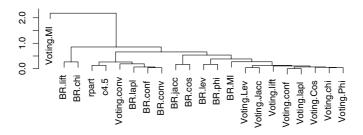
and normalized entropy,  $-\sum_i p_i log_2(p_i)/log_2(nclasses)$ . Both measures equal 1 when the classes are balanced and tend to 0 otherwise. The two measures are not very different in value for these 17 datasets.

We have preprocessed numerical attributes using Fayyad and Irani's supervised discretization method [4]. Minimal support was set to 0.01 or 10 training cases. The only exception was the sat dataset, where we used 0.02 for computational reasons. Minimal improvement was 0.01 and minimal confidence 0.5. We have also used the  $\chi^2$  filter to eliminate potentially trivial rules. C4.5 and rpart were ran using the original raw data.

### 4 Discussion

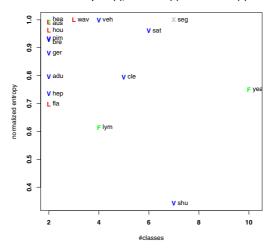
The first observation is that conviction gets the best mean rank. This confirms the experiments in [5] which motivated the present study of this measure. We observe that, using a t-test with 5% significance, conviction has 2 out of 17 significant wins over confidence and 3 over Laplace (and loses none). This seems to be a marginal but consistent advantage, which is not observed for the Voting strategy. The second observation is that the other 7 measures do not produce competitive classifiers. Notice that these are the symmetric rule interest measures. Using the error rate arrays, we can group the pairs strategy-measure using hierarchical clustering. The distance between strategies was measured using plain Euclidean distance and the clusters were aggregated using complete linkage. The obtained clustering (Fig. 1) indicates the predictive proximity of confidence, conviction and Laplace (the three symmetric measures employed), when used with best rule. Almost all Voting strategies are clustered together, except for Voting.conv (which is clustered with the top performing best rule approaches) and Voting.MI which performs particularly poorly. Other expected pairs of measures also cluster together. These are Jaccard and cosine (for best rule), lift and  $\chi^2$ , leverage and  $\phi$  and also rpart and C4.5.

We now try to study if some features of the data set (meta features) may indicate whether to use either conviction, confidence or laplace. As meta features



 ${f Fig.\,1.}$  Clustering measures and strategies using complete linkage and Euclidean distance



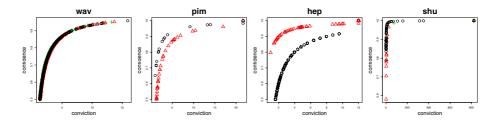


**Fig. 2.** Meta exploration of the results. The chart plots the datasets in a two dimensional space. Each dataset is represented by the symbol corresponding to the best performing measure. Ties are represented by "X".

we have selected nclasses, the number of classes and n.entropy, normalized class entropy, which measures the balance of class distribution. Given the relatively small number of datasets, we performed visual exploration using 2-dimensional xy-plots. In Fig. 2 we can see which of the three measures performed better with a best rule approach. The chart represents the datasets in the "number of classes"  $\times$  "class distribution" space. Each dataset is represented by the measure that performed better within the considered pool. Conviction is represented by "V", confidence by "F" and Laplace by "L". When there is a tie between the two best ones the dataset point is signaled by an "X".

As we observe, there is no clear pattern explaining the success of each measure. Conviction dominates in general. Confidence is successful with the yeast dataset (10 classes, relatively unbalanced), and with two other. Laplace has a visible but not dominating presence in datasets with 2 or 3 classes. Regarding class balancing, there is no visible tendency. We observe, however, that the most unbalanced dataset is won by conviction.

Confidence and conviction differ in the rule ranking they produce when rules of different classes are involved. For rules of the same class, or of classes with the same support, conviction preserves the ordering given by confidence. This is because conviction (table 1) has the same numerator for rules with classes with the same support. The denominator increases when confidence of the rule decreases and vice-versa. The datasets considered are never exactly balanced (The values of normalized entropy and Gini shown in table 2 are 1.00 only because of rounding). In Fig. 3 we can compare the rule rankings provided by confidence and conviction for some datasets. These charts were built by generating a rule set



**Fig. 3.** Visualization of the comparison of the rule rankings produced by conviction and confidence. Each point represents one rule generated for the respective dataset. Different rule classes are represented with different characters.

for each dataset, and plotting each rule on a 2 dimensional space defined by confidence and conviction. For the almost balanced datasets (segment, vehicle and waveform), the ranking is practically preserved. This explains the almost equal error values of BR.conf and BR.conv (Table 3). For datasets with normalized entropy above 0.9 and two classes (australian, pima, heart and house-votes) we can observe two different curves, one for each class (each class is represented with a different marker). Despite the small difference between class supports, the different effects of conviction and confidence are quite visible. However, in these cases, the difference in error is still very small. The two significant wins of BR.conv over BR.conf are in datasets adult and hepatitis. These are datasets with mid-range entropy and 2 classes. In the case of hepatitis we can see that confidence tends to rank first the rules of one of the classes, whereas conviction tends to interleave rules of the two classes. The dataset with lowest entropy (highly unbalanced) is shuttle. It has 7 classes, but only rules for 3 of the classes were derived. For this dataset, conviction has advantage over confidence. In summary, what we observe is that conviction favours rules with less frequent classes, and ranks the rules differently from confidence. This is relatively innocuous for most of the datasets, although more frequently advantageous to conviction. When there is a significant difference it is in favour of BR.conv.

### 5 Conclusion

We have compared conviction with a few different measures and concluded that it shows a systematic advantage with best rule classifier. Compared to confidence, conviction favours low frequency classes and produces different rule orderings. This is mainly visible with unbalanced datasets. Besides conviction, confidence and Laplace, all the other yielded uninteresting results for best rule. In the case of Voting confidence and Laplace ranked relatively high, whereas conviction ranked amid the other measures. However Voting.conviction clustered close to the top performing best rule approaches. The negative results of conviction with the voting strategy may be due to the fact that rule ordering is diluted by the combined effect of voting rules. Another difficulty in using conviction with a

voting strategy may be related with its overly stretched value range. Asymmetric measures obtained superior results with respect to symmetric ones. For future work it would be worthwhile to combine different measures to produce ensembles of classifiers.

### References

- 1. Azevedo, P.J.: A data structure to represent association rules based classifiers. Technical report, Universidade do Minho, Departamento de Informática (2005)
- Brin, S., Motwani, R., Silverstein, C.: Beyond market baskets: Generalizing association rules to correlations. In: Peckham, J. (ed.) SIGMOD Conference, pp. 265–276.
   ACM Press, New York (1997)
- Brin, S., Motwani, R., Ullman, J.D., Tsur, S.: Dynamic itemset counting and implication rules for market basket data. In: Peckham, J. (ed.) Proceedings of the 1997 ACM SIGMOD International Conference on Management of Data, Tucson, Arizona, 13–15 June 1997, pp. 255–264. ACM Press, New York (1997)
- Fayyad, U.M., Irani, K.B.: Multi-interval discretization of continuous-valued attributes for classification learning. In: IJCAI, pp. 1022–1029 (1993)
- Jorge, A., Azevedo, P.J.: An experiment with association rules and classification: Post-bagging and conviction. In: Hoffmann, A., Motoda, H., Scheffer, T. (eds.) DS 2005. LNCS (LNAI), vol. 3735, pp. 137–149. Springer, Heidelberg (2005)
- Li, W., Han, J., Pei, J.: Cmar: Accurate and efficient classification based on multiple class-association rules. In: Cercone, N., Lin, T.Y., Wu, X. (eds.) ICDM, pp. 369– 376. IEEE Computer Society Press, Los Alamitos (2001)
- Liu, B., Hsu, W., Ma, Y.: Integrating classification and association rule mining. In: KDD '98: Proceedings of the fourth ACM SIGKDD International Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining, pp. 80–86. ACM Press, New York (1998)
- 8. Merz, C.J., Murphy, P.: UCI repository of machine learning database (1996) http://www.cs.uci.edu/~mlearn
- 9. Piatetsky-Shapiro, G.: Discovery, analysis, and presentation of strong rules. In: Knowledge Discovery in Databases, pp. 229–248. AAAI/MIT Press (1991)
- Tan, P.-N., Kumar, V., Srivastava, J.: Selecting the right objective measure for association analysis. Inf. Syst. 29(4), 293–313 (2004)
- Webb, G.I.: Efficient search for association rules. In: KDD '00: Proceedings of the sixth ACM SIGKDD international conference on Knowledge discovery and data mining, pp. 99–107. ACM Press, New York (2000)