

Objective Measures Ensemble in Associative Classifiers

Maicon Dall’Agnol and Veronica Oliveira de Carvalho^a

Universidade Estadual Paulista (Unesp), Instituto de Geociências e Ciências Exatas, Rio Claro, Brazil

Keywords: Associative Classifier, Interestingness Measures, Ranking, Classification, Association Rules.


Abstract: Associative classifiers (ACs) are predictive models built based on association rules (ARs). Model construction occurs in steps, one of them aimed at sorting and pruning a set of rules. Regarding ordering, usually objective measures (OMs) are used to rank the rules. The aim of this work is exactly sorting. In the proposals found in the literature, the OMs are generally explored separately. The only work that explores the aggregation of measures in the context of ACs is (Silva and Carvalho, 2018), where multiple OMs are considered at the same time. To do so, (Silva and Carvalho, 2018) use the aggregation solution proposed by (Bouker et al., 2014). However, although there are many works in the context of ARs that investigate the aggregate use of OMs, all of them have some bias. Thus, this work aims to evaluate the aggregation of measures in the context of ACs considering another perspective, that of an ensemble of classifiers.

1 INTRODUCTION

Right now, people are generating and storing data. This huge amount of data stores valuable information that companies can use to better understand their customers, improve their budgets, and so on. For this, it is important to use techniques that automatically discover interesting patterns in the domain. Classification and association rules (ARs) are among these techniques. Associative Classifiers (ACs) are rule-based classifiers that are built using association rules. ACs have the advantage of exploring the search space in a broader view, compared to, for example, C4.5, which does a greedy search. AC yields good results compared to other machine learning algorithms (Yang and Cui, 2015; Abdellatif et al., 2018b), especially decision trees, rule induction and probabilistic approaches (Abdellatif et al., 2018a). According to (Yang and Cui, 2015), one of the main advantages of ACs is that the output is represented in simple if-then rules, making it interpretable for the end-user. Besides, according to (Kannan, 2010) ACs naturally deal with missing values and outliers, as they only manipulate statistically significant associations and ensure that no assumption is made about attribute dependence or independence. Some domain applications that use ACs can be seen in (Nandhini et al., 2015; Singh et al., 2016; Moreno et al., 2016; Shao et al., 2017; Alwidian et al., 2018; Yin et al., 2018).

Many ACs exist, as seen in (Thabtah, 2007; Abdelhamid and Thabtah, 2014), which provide a good review of the topic. The first and generally the one used as baseline in the literature works is CBA (Liu et al., 1998). In general, three steps are necessary to build an AC: (a) extraction of a set of association rules where the consequents contains only labels; (b) model building through sorting and pruning; (c) prediction. ACs algorithms differ in how they perform each step, especially steps (b) and (c). Regarding step (b), one way to sort the rules to choose which ones will be in the model is through objective measures (OMs). Step (b) is important because many rules can be extracted from step (a) and, in general, many of them are not relevant to the model. Therefore, an efficient evaluation of ARs is an essential need (Yang and Cui, 2015; Abdellatif et al., 2019). This work contributes to step (b). According to (Abdelhamid et al., 2016), one of the challenges related to ACs is sorting, because choosing the appropriate ranking criterion is a critical task that impacts the accuracy of the classifier.

In the proposals found in the literature, OMs are generally explored separately in ACs (see Section 2.3). The only work that explores the aggregation of measures in the context of ACs is (Silva and Carvalho, 2018), where multiple OMs are considered at the same time. To do so, (Silva and Carvalho, 2018) use the aggregation solution proposed by (Bouker et al., 2014). However, although there are many works in the context of ARs that investigate the aggregate use of OMs (see Section 2.2), all of them

^a  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1741-1618>

have some bias.

Considering the above, this work aims to evaluate the aggregation of measures in the context of ACs considering another perspective, that of an ensemble of classifiers. Ensemble classifiers, such as random forest, build several classifiers and then combine their classifications to decide to which class label a given object belongs to. Using this idea it is possible to consider many OMs at the same time, each of them generating an AC that can be combined later. Good results were obtained compared to those presented by (Silva and Carvalho, 2018), indicating that an ensemble of OMs ACs can be a suitable solution.

This work is structured as follows: Section 2 reviews some concepts and discusses related works. Section 3 describes the ensemble approach, which is followed by experiments (Section 4), results and discussion (Section 5). Section 6 concludes the paper with conclusions and future works.

2 REVIEW AND RELATED WORKS

This section presents some concepts needed to understand the current work (Section 2.1), as well, some related works (Section 2.3) and approaches used to aggregate OMs (Section 2.2).

2.1 Associative Classifier

An associative classifier (AC) aims to obtain a predictive model based on a process that uses class association rules (CARs). A class association rule $A \Rightarrow c$ is a special case of an association rule in which the consequent only contains a class label. Formally, given D a dataset containing a set of items $I = \{i_1, \dots, i_n\}$, a set of class labels $R = \{c_1, \dots, c_p\}$ and a set of transactions $T = \{t_1, \dots, t_m\}$, where each transaction $t_i \in T$ contains a subset of items $A \subseteq I$ and one class label $c \in R$ such that $t_i = A \cup c$. A class association rule is a relation $A \Rightarrow c$, in which $A \subseteq I$ and $c \in R$. Rule $A \Rightarrow c$ occurs in the set of transactions T with *confidence* $conf$ and *support* sup , where $P(Ac)$ represents rule support (probability of $A \cup c$ occurrence) and $P(c|A)$ rule confidence (conditional probability of c given A).

In this context, items in I are usually <attribute, value> pairs, because CARs are extracted from relational tables containing m objects (instances) described by k attributes (features), where each object O_i is associated with one of the p known class labels to be predicted. Each object O_i is, therefore, described by a vector $O_i = [v_{i1}, v_{i2}, \dots, v_{ik}, c_i]$, where v_{ij} is a <attribute, value> pair representing the value of

object i in attribute j and c_i the class label associated with O_i .

As mentioned in the introduction, among the many ACs algorithms, CBA (Liu et al., 1998) is generally the most commonly used as baseline. Briefly, the algorithm works as follows: first a set of CARs is obtained (step (a)). After that, CARs are sorted according to three criteria: confidence, support and order of generation. Based on these criteria, a rule r_i precedes a rule r_j , in a sorted list, if $confidence(r_i) > confidence(r_j)$; if the confidences are the same, but $support(r_i) > support(r_j)$; if the supports are the same, but r_i was generated before r_j . This is where this work contributes. Considering this sorting pruning occurs. For each rule r it is checked the transactions it covers and if it correctly covers at least one transaction. In this case, the rule is selected to be included in the model and all transactions covered by it are removed from the dataset. Pruning completes step (b). Regarding step (c), given an unseen object, the class label associated with the first rule that matches the object is the one to which it will be classified.

As can be observed, sorting affects the whole process. It is based on the sorted rule list that pruning is performed. Therefore, depending on the criteria used in sorting a different classifier is obtained.

2.2 Aggregation Approaches

A common way used by ACs algorithms to sort the rules in step (b) is through objective measures, as support and confidence. An OM is used to compute a value that express the relevance of a rule by only considering the information available in the dataset. Generally, the higher the value the better the rule. Based on these values, it is possible to create a sorted rule list. 61 OMs are defined and discussed in (Tew et al., 2014), presenting a good review on the topic; therefore, these measures are not described here.

As many OMs exist, solutions have been proposed to help the user to decide which one to choose/use. A review discussing some of these solutions can be seen in (Bong et al., 2014). Among them there are some solutions that aim to aggregate the values of two or more OMs so that the user does not have to select a specific one to order the rules as in (Nguyen Le et al., 2009) and (Yang et al., 2009). The first uses Choquet Integral to aggregate, while the second uses genetic network programming (GNP) to solve the problem, being necessary to set several parameters that influence the results.

(Bouker et al., 2014) propose an aggregation solution that, because it is deterministic and based solely on the information contained in the data, was chosen

for use in the work of (Silva and Carvalho, 2018). There are other works based on the same ideas of (Bouker et al., 2014) as that of (Dahbi et al., 2016). To sort rules, (Bouker et al., 2014) use the concept of rule dominance. It is defined that a rule r_i dominates a rule r_j ($r_i \succ r_j$) when all OMs values in r_i are greater than or equal to the OMs values in r_j – if the values are all the same, the rules are considered equivalent, i.e., to have dominance, the value of at least one measure must be greater. Comparisons where there is no dominance of one of the rules, they are considered as undominated among themselves.

To get the sorted list, an algorithm called *SkyRule* is executed iteratively, which returns at each execution a set of undominated rules, i.e., a set of rules that are not dominated by any other rule. The *SkyRule* algorithm is loop-based, so that at each iteration the rules most similar to the *reference rule* (r^\perp) that are also undominated are extracted. These rules are called r^* . Similarity is computed through normalized Manhattan distance, i.e., through the arithmetic mean of the normalized differences. The *reference rule* represents the aggregation of the computed OMs for all rules, storing the best value obtained for each OM in the rule set. The rules returned by *SkyRule* are added to a E_i set and removed from the rule set (i indicates the iteration in which the rules were extracted). The process repeats until the rule set be empty. At the end of the process there is a set of sets that make up the sorting. Note that the idea is that less dominated rules are considered better.

Table 1: Example of some rules evaluated by some measures. Adapted from (Bouker et al., 2014).

Rule	OM-1	OM-2	OM-3
r_1	0.2	0.67	0.02
r_2	0.1	0.50	0.00
r_3	0.1	0.50	0.02
r_4	0.2	0.40	0.10
r_5	0.2	0.33	0.02
r_6	0.2	0.33	0.10
r_7	0.1	0.20	0.01
r_8	0.1	0.17	0.02

Consider, for example, 8 rules evaluated by 3 OMs, as seen in Table 1. Here, $r^\perp = \{0.20, 0.67, 0.10\}$. In the first iteration of the first *SkyRule* execution r_1 is the first rule to be considered as r^* (the most similar to r^\perp); therefore, it is added in the return set. Since r_1 dominates r_2, r_3, r_5, r_7 and r_8 , they are discard form this *SkyRule* execution, remaining only r_4 and r_6 . Next, r_4 is chosen as r^* and is also added in the return set, which removes r_6 from the current execution, finishing the search for undominated rules. Af-

ter the first *SkyRule* execution, $E_1 = \{r_1, r_4\}$. These rules are removed from the original rule set and, in the next iteration, *SkyRule* is executed without considering them, which in turn results in $E_2 = \{r_3, r_6\}$. Repeating the process it is obtained in the third iteration $E_3 = \{r_5, r_2\}$ and in the fourth $E_4 = \{r_7, r_8\}$, thus establishing the sorting of the 8 rules. Finally, to visualize the results obtained through the ranking process, it is possible to build a graph showing the sequence of creation of the sets, as seen in Figure 1. Therefore, the final ranking is as follows: $r_1, r_4, r_3, r_6, r_2, r_5, r_7$ and r_8 .

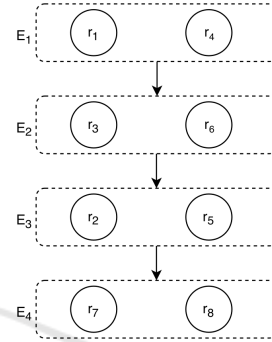


Figure 1: Visualization of the sequence of creation of the sets used to sort the rules presented in Table 1. Adapted from (Bouker et al., 2014).

Finally, it is important to mention that if there is more than one rule in the same E_p set, a tiebreaker is performed by similarity of the rules to the reference rule – the most similar ones are ranked first. In cases where there are still ties, the tie is broken by order of generation, giving preference to the rules that were first generated, as in CBA.

2.3 Related Works

Although there is much work on associative classification, few explore the effect of OMs on the sorting process. (Azevedo and Jorge, 2007) explore the use of 10 OMs in 17 datasets regarding sorting and prediction in ACs and conclude that *Conviction* is the most appropriate OM to be used.

(Jalali-Heravi and Zaiiane, 2010) assess the impact of 53 OMs on each phase of the ACs construction (steps (a), (b) and (c)). Regarding step (b) the authors explore the sorting with and without pruning. Regarding step (c) the authors explore two strategies: (i) select the best ranked rule that covers the instance and (ii) divide all the rules that cover the instance into groups, according to the class label, and perform the average of the values of the OM in analysis in each group; in this case, the group with the best average

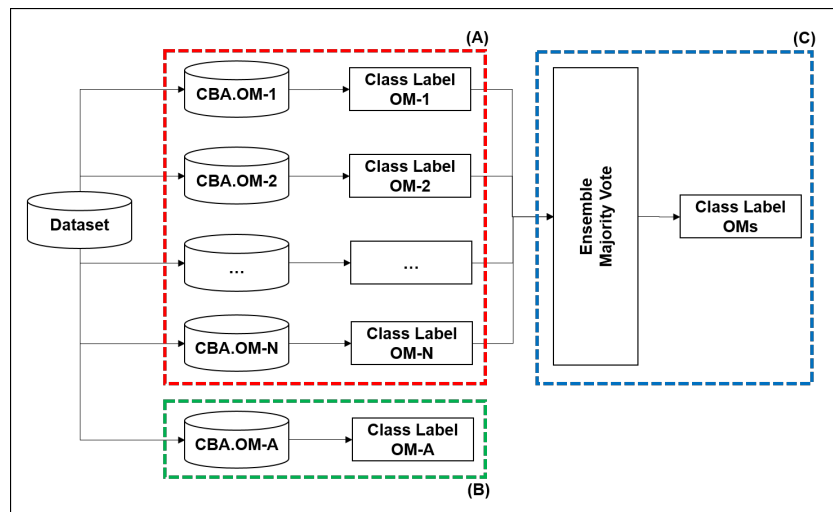


Figure 2: Ranking views: individual, aggregate and ensemble.

defines the class label. Regarding the sorting criteria, the following precedences are used: value of the measure being analyzed, support and rule size (general rules are preferred over the specific ones). The analysis is done on 20 datasets. The authors conclude that many of the analyzed OMs improve classifier performance. However, there is no measure that is best suited for all datasets or for all classifier steps.

(Kannan, 2010) assess the influence of 39 OMs on pruning and sorting. The authors test 3 sorting alternatives: (i) only a given measure, (ii) a given measure plus tiebreaker criteria, as in CBA (confidence, support, and rule generated first) and (iii) sorting by a given measure, followed by reordering, through strategy (ii), of the best k rules selected. The study was conducted on a single dataset for students from a distance learning program. The authors conclude that AC accuracy can be improved by using appropriate OM for pruning and ordering.

(Yang and Cui, 2015) aim to improve the performance of ACs in unbalanced datasets by studying 55 OMs in 9 datasets. The authors point out that this is a relevant problem, as OMs can be applied in different steps, such as rule generation, pruning and sorting. Two types of analysis are performed: (i) one to find similar OMs groups in unbalanced datasets; (ii) the other to identify the most appropriate OMs to be used in the presented context. With respect to (i), the authors use graph-based clustering as well as frequent pattern mining. Regarding (ii), the authors use CBA to compute its performance, via AUC (area under the ROC curve), when sorting is performed by each of the OMs individually. In conclusion, it is suggested to use 26 OMs divided into two groups: one focused on extremely unbalanced datasets and the other focused on

slightly unbalanced datasets.

Unlike the above works, (Silva and Carvalho, 2018) explore the aggregation of OMs in the context of ACs, where multiple OMs are considered at the same time. To do so, they used the aggregation solution proposed by (Bouker et al., 2014) (see Section 2.2). To this end, the authors modified step (b) of CBA, specifically sorting, as follows: a rule r_i precedes a rule r_j , in a sorted list, if the aggregated OMs values in r_i are greater than r_j ; in the event of a tie, r_i was generated before r_j . In other words, the sorting follows the list generated by applying (Bouker et al., 2014) approach. The authors noted that aggregation tends to improve the accuracy of ACs, compared to the use of individual OMs, as done in other works. However, aggregation approaches may present some problems, as discussed below (Section 3).

3 ENSEMBLE APPROACH

It can be seen from the works of Section 2.3 that the problem presented here is relevant, since the most modifiable CBA step is that of sorting, as it can be done using many OMs; the other steps have more predefined procedures. The revised works can be basically divided into two views, as shown in Figure 2: those that explore the OMs individually (view (A) in red) and those that explore the OMs at the same time (view (B) in green). In the latter case, only one was found. Unlike the literature, this current work intends to explore the problem from another perspective, that of an ensemble of classifiers (view (C) in blue). As noted by (Silva and Carvalho, 2018), aggregate measures provide, on average, better results. The ensem-

ble view has the advantage of using many OMs at the same time, regardless of which one is best suited for a given dataset, which is what happens in the individual view. However, in general, aggregation approaches have some bias that generates problems, such as the one presented in (Bouker et al., 2014) and used by (Silva and Carvalho, 2018).

In works that use the concept of dominance, such as (Bouker et al., 2014) and (Dahbi et al., 2016), the greater the number of OMs to be aggregated the greater the likelihood that an OM will cause a rule r to be undominated. This fact only generates a complete set of undominated rules, resulting in only one iteration of *RankRule*. That is, a single E_p containing all the rules is obtained. In this way, the final sorting is done, in fact, only by the similarity of the rules in relation to the *reference rule*, or even, in case of a tie, by the rule ID (generated first), thus losing the purpose of searching by undominated rules. As mentioned before, similarity is computed through normalized Manhattan distance, i.e., through the arithmetic mean of the normalized differences.

For a better understanding of the problem, consider two rules associated with 10 OMs: $OMs_{r_i}=\{0.9, 0.98, 0.89, 0.88, 0.95, 0.99, 0.79, 0.8, 0.79, 0.96\}$ and $OMs_{r_j}=\{0.1, 0.10, 0.08, 0.20, 0.11, 0.03, 0, 0.3, 0.15, 0.98\}$. It is remarkable that r_i is better than r_j in almost all values; however, because measure 10 in OMs_{r_j} is greater than measure 10 in OMs_{r_i} (0.98×0.96), there would be no dominance between them and therefore both would belong to the same E_p set. Expanding to a set of more rules and more OMs, the problem begins to get worse, because if a measure in one rule is greater than in another rule, the problem will occur.

Due to the above problems, the focus here is to assess the impact of using many OMs at the same time considering an ensemble of classifiers. Thus, as seen in Figure 2, the process works as follows:

- i. Generate an individual classifier for each OM. To this end, step (b) of CBA is modified, specifically sorting, as follows: a rule r_i precedes a rule r_j , in a sorted list, if the individual OM value in r_i is greater than r_j ; in the event of a tie, r_i was generated before r_j ;
- ii. Label the new unseen object by each individual OM classifier and then realize a majority vote to decide the class label to which the instance will belong. In case of a tie, the majority class associated with the dataset is considered.

4 EXPERIMENTAL EVALUATION

Experiments were performed to evaluate the proposed approach. For this, the necessary requirements for the experiments are presented. The proposed approach was compared with those found in the literature, as shown in Figure 2: individual OMs (view (A)) and aggregate OMs (view (B)). Note that the aggregation approach to be used could be any other available in the literature. However, it was chosen to use (Bouker et al., 2014) approach as it was the one used by (Silva and Carvalho, 2018). Future work intends to expand the analysis to include other aggregation approaches in order to make a broader comparison with the ensemble approach proposed here. Finally, it was chosen to use the same settings used by (Silva and Carvalho, 2018) to make a fair comparison.

Datasets. 8 datasets available in UCI¹ were used, which are presented in Table 2 – in the total number of features the identification columns are being disregarded and the one associated with the class labels is considered. Discretization was performed by the algorithm proposed by (Fayyad and Irani, 1993) available in Weka². Data were preprocessed to fit the datasets to the input format used in the CBA implementation adopted here (available in (Coenen, 2004)). Missing values and features without distinct values after discretization were ignored.

Table 2: Datasets used in experiments: Australian Credit Approval (Australian); Breast Cancer Wisconsin (Breast-C-W); Glass Identification (Glass); Heart; Iris; Tic-Tac-Toe; Wine; Vehicle Silhouettes (Vehicle). Acronyms mean: #Transactions (#T); #Features (#F); #Distinct Items (#D-I); #Class Labels (#C-L).

Dataset	#T	#F	#D-I	#C-L
<i>Australian</i>	690	15	51	2
<i>Breast-C-W</i>	699	10	38	2
<i>Glass</i>	241	10	29	7
<i>Heart</i>	270	14	30	2
<i>Iris</i>	150	5	17	3
<i>Tic-Tac-Toe</i>	958	10	29	2
<i>Wine</i>	178	14	41	3
<i>Vehicle</i>	946	19	36	4

Objective Measures. 19 OMs were considered: *Support*, *Prevalence*, *K-Measure*, *Least Contradiction*, *Confidence*, *EIII*, *Leverage*, *DIR*, *Certainty Factor*, *Odds Ratio*, *Dilated Q2*, *Added Value*, *Cosine*, *Lift*, *J-Measure*, *Recall*, *Specificity*, *Conditional Entropy* and

¹<https://archive.ics.uci.edu/ml>.

²<https://www.cs.waikato.ac.nz/ml/weka/>.

Coverage. This choice was made based on the work of (Tew et al., 2014), as described in (Silva and Carvalho, 2018).

Parameters Setting. Minimum support and minimum confidence were set, respectively, to 5% and 50%. The values were empirically defined. In addition, the following limits were considered in the implementation of CBA used here (available in (Coenen, 2004)): (i) maximum amount of antecedent items: 6; (ii) maximum amount of frequent itemsets to be obtained: 5.000.000; (iii) maximum amount of rules to be extracted: 10.000.

Evaluation Criterion. Accuracy was used as a measure of performance. For this, a 10-fold stratified cross-validation was performed 10 times. Therefore, the accuracy values presented here represent the average of 10 runs. Aiming at the fairness of the results, the same training and testing sets were used for a given i iteration in each of the 10 times the 10-fold stratified cross-validation was performed, i.e., in all configurations, in the n th iteration, the training and test sets were the same.

Experimental Configuration Overview. Each dataset was executed in 22 different configurations, as follows: (1°) *CBA*, (2°) *Support*, (3°) *Prevalence*, (4°) *K-Measure*, (5°) *Least Contradiction*, (6°) *Confidence*, (7°) *EIII*, (8°) *Leverage*, (9°) *DIR*, (10°) *Certainty Factor*, (11°) *Odds Ratio*, (12°) *Dilated Q2*, (13°) *Added Value*, (14°) *Cosine*, (15°) *Lift*, (16°) *J-Measure*, (17°) *Recall*, (18°) *Specificity*, (19°) *Conditional Entropy*, (20°) *Coverage*, (21°) *OMs.Aggregate* (OMs.A) and (22°) *Ensemble* (OMs.E). Number “1” refers to CBA without any modification; Number “2” to “20” to CBA modified to sort the rules according to a specific OM (individual OMs (view (A) in Figure 2)); Number “21” to CBA modified to sort the rules according to the aggregate approach proposed by (Bouker et al., 2014) (aggregate OMs (view (B) in Figure 2)); Number “22” to the ensemble approach presented here (view (C) in Figure 2). Note that these “22” configurations cover the three views presented in Figure 2.

5 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To better understand the results the analysis was divided considering different views. The first, shown in Table 3, compares the obtained accuracies in the Ensemble approach (OMs.E) with CBA. The best value

obtained in each dataset is highlighted. For example, considering the Australian dataset, the best accuracy (86.58%) occurred in the Ensemble approach. Note that OMs.E performs better on 5 datasets (62.50%), providing a good solution, as each OM in the ensemble evaluates each rule in a different way. The second, shown in Table 4, compares the obtained accuracies in the Ensemble approach with the aggregate approach proposed by (Bouker et al., 2014) (OMs.A). The best value obtained in each dataset is highlighted. It can be seen that OMs.E perform better on 4 datasets (50.0%), tying with OMs.A (50.0%). Also, as mentioned in Section 3, as many OMs are used in the (Bouker et al., 2014) approach, the final sorting is done, in fact, only by the similarity of the rules in relation to the *reference rule*. In all cases here, only one E_p set was generated ($E_p = 1$), which means that a simple similarity yields good results and no search for undominated rules is required, as the process can be simplified. Future work intends to use these results to propose another aggregation approach.

Table 3: Comparison of results between CBA and Ensemble.

Dataset	CBA	Ensemble
Australian	86.04	86.58
Breast-C-W	96.07	95.95
Glass	64.85	65.14
Heart	80.67	82.19
Iris	95.67	96.00
Tic-Tac-Toe	100.00	98.59
Wine	98.87	95.11
Vehicle	58.76	59.07

Table 4: Comparison of results between Ensemble and OMs.A.

Dataset	Ensemble	OMs.A
Australian	86.58	85.17
Breast-C-W	95.95	93.71
Glass	65.14	66.23
Heart	82.19	83.15
Iris	96.00	97.07
Tic-Tac-Toe	98.59	90.40
Wine	95.11	98.87
Vehicle	59.07	58.26

Evaluating the results in a general view, the obtained accuracies among CBA, OM (view (A) in Figure 2), OMs.A (view (B) in Figure 2) and Ensemble (view (C) in Figure 2) were compared, as shown in Table 5. The OM column presents the best accuracy obtained among the 19 OMs used in the experiments (the name(s) of the OM(s), regarding each value,

is(are) mentioned on the figure label). The best value obtained in each dataset is highlighted. It can be noted that:

- CBA performs best on 2 datasets (25%, counting the tie), OM at 2 (25%), OMs.A at 4 (50%, counting the tie) and OMs.E at 1 (12.50%). As seen, solutions that use multiple OMs perform better than individual OMs, in this case 62.50% (5 occurrence).

Table 5: Comparison of results among CBA, OM, OMs.A and Ensemble. *Best OMs accuracies: Australian: Added Value; Breast-C-W: J-Measure; Glass: J-Measure, Odds Ratio; Heart: J-Measure; Iris: Dilated Q2; Tic-Tac-Toe: Odds Ratio, Confidence; Wine: J-Measure; Vehicle: K-Measure.

Dataset	CBA	OM*	OMs.A	Ensemble
Australian	86.04	86.29	85.17	86.58
Breast-C-W	<u>96.07</u>	96.32	93.71	<u>95.95</u>
Glass	64.85	66.08	66.23	65.14
Heart	80.67	82.93	83.15	82.19
Iris	95.67	96.07	97.07	96.00
Tic-Tac-Toe	100.00	99.99	90.40	<u>98.59</u>
Wine	98.87*	96.94	98.87*	95.11
Vehicle	58.76	61.89	58.26	<u>59.07</u>

- Looking at cases where the Ensemble approach does not have the best values, such as those presented in Table 4, where OMs.A wins, it is interesting to note that in two of them (Breast-C-W and Vehicle) it loses to the best OM, which is a good result, as it performs close to the best OM. This means that Ensemble is incorporating its effect in the result. This is why their values are underlined. In the latter case (Tic-Tac-Toe), although CBA presents the best performance, the same pattern occurs, i.e., it performs close to the best OM (underlined value). Considering this, Ensemble wins 4 times (50.0%) and OMs.A 4 (50.0%), as already shown in Table 4. In addition, Table 6 complements Table 5 by presenting the differences between OMs.A and Ensemble with respect to the best accuracy observed in each dataset. The highlighted values correspond to the smallest difference between the best accuracy and the respective setting. As seen, Ensemble wins 4 times (50.0%) and OMs.A 4 (50.0%), with differences in Ensemble smaller than OMs.A (an average of 1.44 vs 2.16).
- Only 6 OMs appeared in Table 5, which means that 13 of 19 did not show good values in any of the datasets. These OMs may be negatively influencing the accuracy of solutions that use multiple OMs. Therefore, an in-depth study of the most appropriate OMs to be aggregated into the pre-

Table 6: Differences between OMs.A and Ensemble regarding the best accuracy observed in each dataset.

Dataset	OMs.A	Ensemble
Australian	1.41	0.00
Breast-C-W	2.61	0.37
Glass	0.00	1.09
Heart	0.00	0.96
Iris	0.00	1.07
Tic-Tac-Toe	9.60	1.41
Wine	0.00	3.76
Vehicle	3.63	2.82

sented approaches (aggregate, ensemble) should be undertaken.

6 CONCLUSIONS

This work presented an ensemble solution to consider many OMs, at the same time, in the sort step of CBA to improve its accuracy. According to the obtained results, it was noted that solutions that use multiple OMs perform better than individual OMs. Regarding the Ensemble approach, it was found to be a good solution, especially when the best accuracy is related to the best OM. However, the Ensemble approach achieved the same performance as OMs.A, each winning 50% of the times. Thus, both presented themselves as good solutions, each one better in one specific situation, even OMs.A having the bias previously explained.

In order to improve results as well as analyzes, future works should be done: (i) consider more datasets; (ii) explore other aggregation approaches beyond that considered here (Bouker et al., 2014); (iii) find ways to automatically select the most appropriate OMs to be aggregated in the presented approaches (aggregated, ensemble).

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We wish to thank Fapesp, process number 2019/04923-2, for the financial aid.

REFERENCES

- Abdelhamid, N., Jabbar, A. A., and Thabtah, F. (2016). Associative classification common research challenges. In *45th International Conference on Parallel Processing Workshops*, pages 432–437.
- Abdelhamid, N. and Thabtah, F. A. (2014). Associative classification approaches: Review and comparison.

- Journal of Information & Knowledge Management*, 13(3).
- Abdellatif, S., Ben Hassine, M. A., and Ben Yahia, S. (2019). Novel interestingness measures for mining significant association rules from imbalanced data. In *Web, Artificial Intelligence and Network Applications*, pages 172–182.
- Abdellatif, S., Ben Hassine, M. A., Ben Yahia, S., and Bouzeghoub, A. (2018a). ARCID: A new approach to deal with imbalanced datasets classification. In *SOFSEM: Theory and Practice of Computer Science*, pages 569–580.
- Abdellatif, S., Yahia, S. B., Hassine, M. A. B., and Bouzeghoub, A. (2018b). Fuzzy aggregation for rule selection in imbalanced datasets classification using choquet integral. In *IEEE International Conference on Fuzzy Systems*, page 7p.
- Alwidian, J., Hammo, B. H., and Obeid, N. (2018). WCBA: Weighted classification based on association rules algorithm for breast cancer disease. *Applied Soft Computing*, 62:536–549.
- Azevedo, P. J. and Jorge, A. M. (2007). Comparing rule measures for predictive association rules. In *Machine Learning: ECML*, pages 510–517.
- Bong, K. K., Joest, M., Quix, C., Anwar, T., and Manickam, S. (2014). Selection and aggregation of interestingness measures: A review. *Journal of Theoretical and Applied Information Technology*, 59(1):146–166.
- Bouker, S., Saidi, R., Yahia, S. B., and Nguifo, E. M. (2014). Mining undominated association rules through interestingness measures. *International Journal on Artificial Intelligence Tools*, 23(4):22p.
- Coenen, F. (2004). LUCS KDD implementation of CBA. <http://cgi.csc.liv.ac.uk/~frans/KDD/Software/CBA/cba.html>.
- Dahbi, A., Jabri, S., Balouki, Y., and Gadi, T. (2016). A new method for ranking association rules with multiple criteria based on dominance relation. In *ACS/IEEE 13th International Conference of Computer Systems and Applications*, page 7p.
- Fayyad, U. M. and Irani, K. B. (1993). Multi-interval discretization of continuous-valued attributes for classification learning. In *International Joint Conference on Artificial Intelligence*, pages 1022–1029.
- Jalali-Heravi, M. and Zaïane, O. R. (2010). A study on interestingness measures for associative classifiers. In *Proceedings of the 2010 ACM Symposium on Applied Computing*, pages 1039–1046.
- Kannan, S. (2010). *An Integration of Association Rules and Classification: An Empirical Analysis*. PhD thesis, Madurai Kamaraj University.
- Liu, B., Hsu, W., and Ma, Y. (1998). Integrating classification and association rule mining. In *Proceedings of the 4th International Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining*, pages 80–86.
- Moreno, M. N., Segreña, S., López, V. F., Muñoz, M. D., and Sánchez, A. L. (2016). Web mining based framework for solving usual problems in recommender systems. A case study for movies' recommendation. *Neurocomputing*, 176:72–80.
- Nandhini, M., Sivanandam, S. N., Rajalakshmi, M., and Sidheswaran, D. (2015). Enhancing the spam email classification accuracy using post processing techniques. *International Journal of Applied Engineering Research*, 10(15):35125–35130.
- Nguyen Le, T. T., Huynh, H. X., and Guillet, F. (2009). Finding the most interesting association rules by aggregating objective interestingness measures. In *Knowledge Acquisition: Approaches, Algorithms and Applications*, pages 40–49.
- Shao, Y., Liu, B., Li, G., and Wang, S. (2017). Software defect prediction based on class-association rules. In *2nd International Conference on Reliability Systems Engineering*, page 5p.
- Silva, M. F. and Carvalho, V. O. (2018). Aggregating interestingness measures in associative classifiers. In *Anais do XV Encontro Nacional de Inteligência Artificial e Computacional*, pages 70–81.
- Singh, J., Kamra, A., and Singh, H. (2016). Prediction of heart diseases using associative classification. In *5th International Conference on Wireless Networks and Embedded Systems*, page 7p.
- Tew, C., Giraud-Carrier, C., Tanner, K., and Burton, S. (2014). Behavior-based clustering and analysis of interestingness measures for association rule mining. *Data Mining and Knowledge Discovery*, 28(4):1004–1045.
- Thabtah, F. (2007). A review of associative classification mining. *Knowledge Engineering Review*, 22(1):37–65.
- Yang, G. and Cui, X. (2015). A study of interestingness measures for associative classification on imbalanced data. In *Trends and Applications in Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining*, pages 141–151.
- Yang, G., Shimada, K., Mabu, S., and Hirasawa, K. (2009). A nonlinear model to rank association rules based on semantic similarity and genetic network programming. *IEEJ Transactions on Electrical and Electronic Engineering*, 4(2):248–256.
- Yin, C., Guo, Y., Yang, J., and Ren, X. (2018). A new recommendation system on the basis of consumer initiative decision based on an associative classification approach. *Industrial Management and Data Systems*, 118(1):188–203.