

From Data to Classification Rules and Actions

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Abstract. Action rules (or actionable patterns) describe possible transitions of objects from one state to another with respect to a distinguished attribute. Strategies for discovering them can be divided into two types: rule-based and object-based. Rule-based actionable patterns are built on the foundations of pre-existing rules. This approach consists of two main steps: (1) a standard learning method is used to detect interesting patterns in the form of classification rules, association rules, or clusters; (2) the second step is to use an automatic or semi-automatic strategy to inspect such results and derive possible action strategies. These strategies provide an insight of how values of some attributes need to be changed so the desirable objects can be shifted to a desirable group. Object-based approach assumes that actionable patterns are extracted directly from a database. System *DEAR*, presented in this paper, is an example of a rule-based approach. System *ARD* and system for association rules mining are examples of an object-based approach. Music Information Retrieval (MIR) is taken as an application domain. We show how to manipulate the music score using action rules.

1 Introduction

Modeling actionability in a domain-independent manner is a new learning approach that traditional learning methods, such as mining for classification, clustering, and association rules, are not designed to handle. For example, consider the following application, a bank manager who is monitoring a dataset may want to analyze the data thoroughly to improve his or her understanding of the customers and seek specific actions to improve services such as providing some additional services to retain their royalty. Segmentation is one of widely used method to analyze the loyalty [24]; it is very useful to identify customers who have a high probability to move to other banks but it may be insufficient to provide recommendations that might help retain customer's loyalty. In general, a learning method is designed to capture the interesting characteristics of similar objects in the data. The classical methods can learn rules that summarize the data, but not the rules that change the state of the data [23]. One of the main issues is that most existing methods treat populations separately. However, each individual population is not likely to be interesting, but a group of them together can represent an important piece of knowledge.

Based on construction methods, action rules discovery can be divided into two types: rule-based and object-based approach. Rule-based actionable patterns [16], [21],

[22], [18], [10], [20] are built on the foundations of pre-existing rules. This approach consists of two main steps: (1) in the first step, a standard learning method is used to detect interesting patterns in the form of classification rules, association rules, or clusters and (2) the second step is to use an automatic or semi-automatic strategy to inspect such results and derive possible action strategies. These strategies provide an insight of how values of some attributes need to be changed so the desirable objects can be shifted to a desirable group. However, the standard data mining methods such as *LERS* [4] or *ERID* [2] (which is used for incomplete data sets) extract only the shortest or close to the shortest rules. Therefore, by following this approach, some meaningful action patterns can be easily missed.

To be more precise, an action rule is a rule extracted from a decision system that describes a possible transition of objects from one state to another with respect to a distinguished attribute called a decision attribute [16]. We assume that attributes used to describe objects are partitioned into stable and flexible. Values of flexible attributes can be changed. This change can be influenced and controlled by users. Action rules mining initially was based on comparing profiles of two groups of targeted objects - those that are desirable and those that are undesirable [16]. An action rule is formed as a term $[(\omega) \star (\alpha \rightarrow \beta)] \Rightarrow (\phi \rightarrow \psi)$, where ω is a conjunction of fixed condition features shared by both groups, $(\alpha \rightarrow \beta)$ represents proposed changes in values of flexible features, and $(\phi \rightarrow \psi)$ is a desired effect of the action. Symbol \star is interpreted as logical *and*. The discovered knowledge provides an insight of how relationships should be managed so the undesirable objects can be changed to desirable. For example, in society, one would like to find a way to improve his or her salary from a low-income to a high-income. Another example in business area is when an owner would like to improve his or her company's profits by going from a high-cost, low-income business to a low-cost, high-income business.

Action rules have been introduced in [16] and further investigated in [13][17][14]. Paper [5] was probably the first attempt towards formally introducing the problem of mining action rules without pre-existing classification rules. Authors explicitly formulated it as a search problem in a support-confidence-cost framework. The proposed algorithm is similar to *Apriori* [1]. Their definition of an action rule allows changes on stable attributes. Changing the value of an attribute, either stable or flexible, is associated with a cost [19]. In order to rule out action rules with undesired changes on stable attributes, authors have assigned very high cost to such changes. However, that way, the cost of action rules discovery is getting unnecessarily increased. Also, they did not take into account the dependencies between attribute values which are naturally linked with the cost of rules used either to accept or reject a rule. Algorithm *ARED*, presented in [6], is based on Pawlak's model of an information system S [11]. The goal is to identify certain relationships between granules defined by the indiscernibility relation on its objects. Some of these relationships uniquely define action rules for S .

This paper presents two strategies for discovering action rules directly from a decision system. In the first one, action rules are built from atomic expressions following an algorithm similar to *ERID* [2] and in the second one following a strategy similar to *Apriori* [1].

2 Background and Objectives

In this section we introduce the notion of an information system, a decision system, stable attribute, flexible attribute, and give some examples.

By an information system [11] we mean a triple $S = (X, A, V)$, where:

1. X is a nonempty, finite set of objects
2. A is a nonempty, finite set of attributes, i.e.
 $a : U \longrightarrow V_a$ is a function for any $a \in A$, where V_a is called the domain of a
3. $V = \bigcup\{V_a : a \in A\}$.

For example, Table 1 shows an information system S with a set of objects $X = \{x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5, x_6, x_7, x_8\}$, set of attributes $A = \{a, b, c, d\}$, and a set of their values $V = \{a_1, a_2, b_1, b_2, c_1, c_2, d_1, d_2\}$.

	a	b	c	d
x_1	a_1	b_1	c_1	d_1
x_2	a_2	b_1	c_1	d_1
x_3	a_2	b_2	c_1	d_2
x_4	a_2	b_2	c_2	d_2
x_5	a_2	b_1	c_1	d_1
x_6	a_2	b_2	c_1	d_2
x_7	a_2	b_1	c_2	d_2
x_8	a_1	b_2	c_2	d_1

Table 1. Information System S

We say that an information system $S = (X, A, V)$ is a decision system, if $A = A_{St} \cup A_{Fl} \cup \{d\}$, where d is a distinguished attribute called the decision. Attributes in A_{St} are called *stable* and attributes in A_{Fl} are called *flexible*. They jointly form the set of conditional attributes. “Date of birth” is an example of a stable attribute. “Interest rate” for each customer account is an example of a flexible attribute.

In earlier works (see [13][16][17]), action rules have been constructed from classification rules. This means that we either use pre-existing classification rules or generate them by a rule discovery algorithm, such as *LERS* [4] or *ERID* [2], then, construct action rules either from certain pairs of classification rules or from a single classification rule. For instance, algorithm *ARAS* [17] generates sets of terms (built from values of attributes) around classification rules and constructs action rules directly from them.

In the following sections, we recall *DEAR* algorithm for constructing action rules from pre-existing classification rules and present two different methods for constructing action rules directly from a decision system. The first one, called *ARD*, follows an algorithm similar to *ERID* and the second one is similar to *Apriori* [1].

3 Action Rules

In this section we give a definition of action terms, action rules, and we propose their interpretation which we call standard. Also, we present system *DEAR* for action rules construction.

Let $S = (X, A \cup \{d\}, V)$ be a decision system, where $V = \bigcup\{V_a : a \in A\}$. First, we introduce the notion of an action term.

By an *atomic action term* we mean an expression $(a, a_1 \rightarrow a_2)$, where a is an attribute and $a_1, a_2 \in V_a$. If $a_1 = a_2$, then a is called stable on a_1 .

For simplicity reason, we will often write (a, a_1) instead of $(a, a_1 \rightarrow a_1)$.

By a set of *action terms* we mean a smallest set such that:

1. If t is an atomic action term, then t is an action term.
2. If t_1, t_2 are action terms, then $t_1 \star t_2$ is an action term.
3. If t is an action term containing $(a, a_1 \rightarrow a_2), (b, b_1 \rightarrow b_2)$ as its sub-terms, then $a \neq b$.

By the domain of an action term t , denoted by $\text{Dom}(t)$, we mean the set of all attribute names listed in t .

By an *action rule* we mean an expression $r = [t_1 \Rightarrow t_2]$, where t_1 is an action term and t_2 is an atomic action term. Additionally, we assume that $\text{Dom}(t_2) = \{d\}$ and $\text{Dom}(t_1) \subseteq A$. The domain $\text{Dom}(r)$ of action rule r is defined as $\text{Dom}(t_1) \cup \text{Dom}(t_2)$.

Now, let us give an example of action rule assuming that the decision system S is represented by Table 1, a is stable and b, c are flexible attributes. Expressions $(a, a_2 \rightarrow a_2), (b, b_1 \rightarrow b_2), (c, c_2 \rightarrow c_2), (d, d_1 \rightarrow d_2)$ are examples of atomic action terms. Expression $(b, b_1 \rightarrow b_2)$ means that the value of attribute b is changed from b_1 to b_2 . Expression $(c, c_2 \rightarrow c_2)$ means that the value c_2 of attribute c remains unchanged. Expression $r = [[(a, a_2 \rightarrow a_2) \star (b, b_1 \rightarrow b_2)] \Rightarrow (d, d_1 \rightarrow d_2)]$ is an example of an action rule. The rule says that if value a_2 remains unchanged and value b will change from b_1 to b_2 , then it is expected that the value d will change from d_1 to d_2 . Clearly, $\text{Dom}(r) = \{a, b, d\}$.

Standard interpretation N_S of action terms in $S = (X, A, V)$ is defined as follow:

1. If $(a, a_1 \rightarrow a_2)$ is an atomic action term, then

$$N_S((a, a_1 \rightarrow a_2)) = [\{x \in X : a(x) = a_1\}, \{x \in X : a(x) = a_2\}].$$
2. If $t_1 = (a, a_1 \rightarrow a_2) \star t$ and $N_S(t) = [Y_1, Y_2]$, then

$$N_S(t_1) = [Y_1 \cap \{x \in X : a(x) = a_1\}, Y_2 \cap \{x \in X : a(x) = a_2\}].$$

Now, let us define $[Y_1, Y_2] \cap [Z_1, Z_2]$ as $[Y_1 \cap Z_1, Y_2 \cap Z_2]$ and assume that $N_S(t_1) = [Y_1, Y_2]$ and $N_S(t_2) = [Z_1, Z_2]$. Then, $N_S(t_1 \star t_2) = N_S(t_1) \cap N_S(t_2)$.

Let $r = [t_1 \Rightarrow t_2]$ be an action rule, where $N_S(t_1) = [Y_1, Y_2]$, $N_S(t_2) = [Z_1, Z_2]$. Support and confidence of r are defined as follow:

1. $sup(r) = \min\{card(Y_1 \cap Z_1), card(Y_2 \cap Z_2)\}.$
2. $conf(r) = [\frac{card(Y_1 \cap Z_1)}{card(Y_1)}] \cdot [\frac{card(Y_2 \cap Z_2)}{card(Y_2)}].$

The definition of a confidence requires that $card(Y_1) \neq 0$, $card(Y_2) \neq 0$, $card(Y_1 \cap Z_1) \neq 0$, and $card(Y_2 \cap Z_2) \neq 0$. Otherwise, the confidence of action rule is zero.

Coming back to the example of S given in Table 1, we can find many action rules associated with S . Let us take $r = [(a, a_2 \rightarrow a_2) * (b, b_1 \rightarrow b_2)] \Rightarrow (d, d_1 \rightarrow d_2)$ as an example of the action rule. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} N_S((a, a_2 \rightarrow a_2)) &= [\{x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5, x_6, x_7\}, \{x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5, x_6, x_7\}], \\ N_S((b, b_1 \rightarrow b_2)) &= [\{x_1, x_2, x_5, x_7\}, \{x_3, x_4, x_6, x_8\}], \\ N_S((d, d_1 \rightarrow d_2)) &= [\{x_1, x_2, x_5, x_8\}, \{x_3, x_4, x_6, x_7\}], \\ N_S((a, a_2 \rightarrow a_2) * (b, b_1 \rightarrow b_2)) &= [\{x_2, x_5, x_7\}, \{x_3, x_4, x_6\}]. \end{aligned}$$

Clearly, $sup(r) = 2$ and $conf(r) = \frac{2}{3} \cdot 1 = \frac{2}{3}$.

4 DEAR: From Classification Rules to Action Rules

In this section we recall the Action-Tree algorithm for discovering action rules which was implemented as one of the modules in system *DEAR* [18]. Assume that $S = (X, A_{St} \cup A_{Fl} \cup \{d\})$, where A_{St} is a set of stable attributes, A_{Fl} is a set of flexible attributes and, $V_d = \{d_1, d_2, \dots, d_k\}$ is a set of decision values.

Action-tree algorithm for extracting action rules from decision system S is as follows:

i. Build Action-Tree

a. Divide the rule table, R , taking into consideration all stable attributes

1. Find the domain $Dom(w)$ of each attribute $w \in A_{St}$ from the initial table.
2. Assuming that the number of values in $Dom(w)$ is the smallest, partition the current table into sub-tables each of which contains only rules supporting values of stable attributes in the corresponding sub-table.
3. Determine if a new table contains minimum two different decision values and minimum two different values for each flexible attribute. If it does, go to step 2, otherwise there is no need to split the table further and we place a mark.

b. Divide each lowest level sub-table into new sub-tables each of which contains rules having the same decision value.

c. Represent each leaf as a set of rules which do not contradict on stable attributes and also define decision value d_i . The path from the root to that leaf gives the description of objects supported by these rules.

ii. Generate action rules

a. Form action rules by comparing all unmarked leaf nodes of the same parent.

b. Calculate the support and the confidence of a new-formed rule. If its support and confidence meet the requirements, print it.

The algorithm starts with all extracted classification rules at the root node of the tree. A stable attribute is selected to partition these rules. For each value of the attribute a branch is created, and the corresponding subset of rules that have the attribute value specified by the branch is moved to the newly created child node. Now the process is repeated recursively for each child node. When we are done with stable attributes, the last split is based on a decision attribute for each branch. If at any time all instances at a node have the same decision value, then we stop developing that part of the tree. The only thing left to build the tree is to decide how to determine which of the stable attributes to split, given a set of rules with different classes. The node selection is based on the stable attributes with the smallest number of possible values among all the remaining stable attributes.

An action tree has two types of nodes: a leaf node and a non-leaf node. At a non-leaf node in the tree, the set of rules is partitioned along the branches and each child node gets its corresponding subset of rules. Every path to the decision attribute node, one level above the leaf node, in the action tree represents a subset of the extracted classification rules when the stable attributes have the same value. Each leaf represents a set of rules, which do not contradict on stable attributes and also define decision value d_i . The path from the root to that leaf gives the description of objects supported by these rules.

	a	b	c	d
x_1	2	1	2	L
x_2	2	1	2	L
x_3	1	1	0	H
x_4	1	1	0	H
x_5	2	3	2	H
x_6	2	3	2	H
x_7	2	1	1	L
x_8	2	1	1	L
x_9	2	2	1	L
x_{10}	2	3	0	L
x_{11}	1	1	2	H
x_{12}	1	1	1	H

Table 2. Decision System

Let us take Table 2 as an example of a decision system S . We assume that a, c are stable attributes and b, d are flexible. Assume now that our goal is to re-classify some objects from the class $d^{-1}(\{d_i\})$ into the class $d^{-1}(\{d_j\})$. In our example, we assume that $d_i = (d, L)$ and $d_j = (d, H)$.

First, we represent the set R of certain rules extracted from S as a table (see Table 3). The first column of this table shows objects in S supporting the rules from R (each row represents a rule). The construction of an action tree starts with the set R as a table

Objects	a	b	c	d
$\{x_3, x_4, x_{11}, x_{12}\}$	1			H
$\{x_1, x_2, x_7, x_8\}$	2	1		L
$\{x_7, x_8, x_9\}$	2		1	L
$\{x_3, x_4\}$		1	0	H
$\{x_5, x_6\}$		3	2	H

Table 3. Set of rules R with supporting objects

(see Table 3) at the root of the tree (T_1 in Fig. 1). The root node selection is based on a stable attribute with the smallest number of states among all stable attributes. The same strategy is used for the child node selection. After putting all stable attributes on the tree, the tree is split based on the value of the decision attribute. Referring back to the example in Table 2, we use stable attribute a to split that table into two sub-tables defined by values $\{1, 2\}$ of attribute a . The domain of attribute a is $\{1, 2\}$ and the domain of attribute c is $\{0, 1, 2\}$. Clearly, $\text{card}[V_a]$ is less than $\text{card}[V_c]$ so we divide the table into two: one table with rules containing $a = 1$ and another with rules containing $a = 2$. Each corresponding edge is labeled by the value of attribute a . Next, all objects in the sub-table T_2 have the same decision value. We can not generate any action rules from this sub-table so it is not divided any further. Because sub-table T_3 contains different decision values and stable attribute, it is divided into three, one with rules containing $c=0$, one with rules containing $c=1$, and one with rules containing $c=2$. At this step, each sub-table does not contain any stable attributes. Table T_6 can not be split any further for the same reason as sub-table T_2 . All objects in sub-table T_4 have the same value of flexible attribute b , so the table is not partitioned any further. The remaining table T_5 is partitioned into two sub-tables. Each leaf represents a set of rules which do not contradict on stable attributes and also define decision value d_i .

The path from the root to that leaf gives the description of objects supported by these rules. Following the path labeled by value $[a = 2]$, $[c = 2]$, and $[d = L]$, we get table T_7 . Following the path labeled by value $[a = 2]$, $[c = 2]$, and $[d = H]$, we get table T_8 . Because T_7 and T_8 are sibling nodes, we can directly compare pairs of rules belonging to these two tables and construct one action rule such as:

$$[(a, 2) \star (b, 1 \rightarrow 3)] \Rightarrow (d, L \rightarrow H).$$

After the rule is formed, we evaluate it by checking its support and its confidence. We have discovered the action rule given below:

$$\begin{aligned} r &= [(a, 2) \star (b, 1 \rightarrow 3)] \Rightarrow (d, L \rightarrow H) \text{ with} \\ \text{sup}(r) &= \min\{4, 2\} = 2, \text{conf}(r) = 1 \cdot \frac{2}{3} = \frac{2}{3}. \end{aligned}$$

5 ARD: From Data to Action Rules

Algorithm *ARD* for discovering action rules directly from a decision system is presented in this section. The algorithm is of agglomerative type and because of its similarity to *LERS* [4], it is sufficient to explain how the positive/negative marks are assigned to

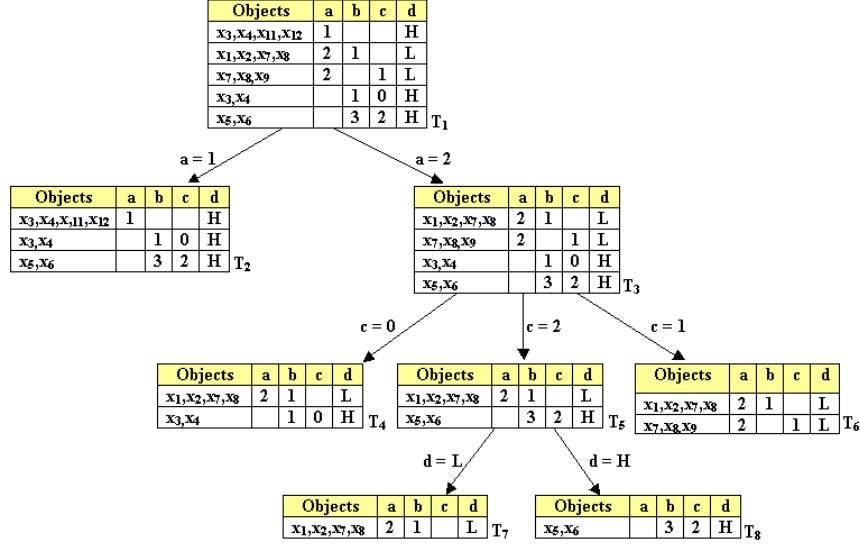


Fig. 1. Action tree

atomic action terms and how the terms of length greater than one are built. Only positive marks yield action rules. Action terms of length k are built from unmarked action terms of length $k - 1$ and unmarked atomic action terms of length one. Marking strategy for terms of any length is the same as for action terms of length one.

Now, let us assume that $S = (X, A \cup \{d\}, V)$ is a decision system and λ_1, λ_2 denote minimum support and confidence, respectively. Each $a \in A$ uniquely defines the set $C_S(a) = \{N_S(t_a) : t_a \text{ is an atomic action term built from elements in } V_a\}$. By t_d we mean an atomic action term built from elements in V_d . Also, we assume that $L([Y, Z]) = Y$ and $R([Y, Z]) = Z$.

Marking strategy for atomic action terms

For each $N_S(t_a) \in C_S(a)$ **do**

if $L(N_S(t_a)) = \emptyset$ or $R(N_S(t_a)) = \emptyset$ or $L(N_S(t_a \star t_d)) = \emptyset$ or $R(N_S(t_a \star t_d)) = \emptyset$,
then t_a is **marked negative**.

if $L(N_S(t_a)) = R(N_S(t_a))$ **then** t_a **stays unmarked**

if $\text{card}(L(N_S(t_a \star t_d))) < \lambda_1$ **then** t_a is **marked negative**

if $\text{card}(L(N_S(t_a \star t_d))) \geq \lambda_1$ and $\text{conf}(t_a \rightarrow t_d) < \lambda_2$ **then** t_a **stays unmarked**

if $\text{card}(L(N_S(t_a \star t_d))) \geq \lambda_1$ and $\text{conf}(t_a \rightarrow t_d) \geq \lambda_2$ **then** t_a is **marked positive** and the action rule $[t_a \rightarrow t_d]$ is printed.

Now, to clarify ARD (Action Rules Discovery) strategy for constructing action rules, we go back to our example with S defined by Table 1 and with $A_{St} = \{b\}$,

$A_{Fl} = \{a, c, d\}$. We are interested in action rules which may reclassify objects from the decision class d_1 to d_2 . Additionally, we assume that $\lambda_1 = 2$, $\lambda_2 = 1/4$.

All atomic action terms for S are listed below:

For Decision Attribute in S : $t_{12} = (d, d_1 \rightarrow d_2)$.

$$N_S(t_{12}) = [\{x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5, x_7\}, \{x_6\}]$$

For Classification Attributes in S :

$$\begin{aligned} t_1 &= (b, b_1 \rightarrow b_1), t_2 = (b, b_2 \rightarrow b_2), t_3 = (b, b_3 \rightarrow b_3), t_4 = (a, a_1 \rightarrow a_2), \\ t_5 &= (a, a_1 \rightarrow a_1), t_6 = (a, a_2 \rightarrow a_2), t_7 = (a, a_2 \rightarrow a_1), t_8 = (c, c_1 \rightarrow c_2), \\ t_9 &= (c, c_2 \rightarrow c_1), t_{10} = (c, c_1 \rightarrow c_1), t_{11} = (c, c_2 \rightarrow c_2). \end{aligned}$$

Following the first loop of *ARD* algorithm we get:

$$\begin{aligned} N_S(t_1) &= [\{x_1, x_2, x_4, x_6\}, \{x_1, x_2, x_4, x_6\}] \text{ Not Marked } /Y_1 = Y_2/ \\ N_S(t_2) &= [\{x_3, x_7, x_8\}, \{x_3, x_7, x_8\}] \text{ Marked } "-" /card(Y_2 \cap Z_2) = 0/ \\ N_S(t_3) &= [\{x_5\}, \{x_5\}] \text{ Marked } "-" /card(Y_2 \cap Z_2) = 0/ \\ N_S(t_4) &= [\{x_1, x_6, x_7, x_8\}, \{x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5\}] \text{ Marked } "-" /card(Y_2 \cap Z_2) = 0/ \\ N_S(t_5) &= [\{x_1, x_6, x_7, x_8\}, \{x_1, x_6, x_7, x_8\}] \text{ Not Marked } /Y_1 = Y_2/ \\ N_S(t_6) &= [\{x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5\}, \{x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5\}] \text{ Marked } "-" /card(Y_2 \cap Z_2) = 0/ \\ N_S(t_7) &= [\{x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5\}, \{x_1, x_6, x_7, x_8\}] \text{ Marked } "+" \\ /\text{rule } r_1 &= [t_7 \Rightarrow t_{12}] \text{ has } conf = 1/2 \geq \lambda_2, sup = 2 \geq \lambda_1/ \\ N_S(t_8) &= [\{x_1, x_4, x_8\}, \{x_2, x_3, x_5, x_6, x_7\}] \text{ Not Marked } \\ /\text{rule } r_1 &= [t_8 \Rightarrow t_{12}] \text{ has } conf = [2/3] \cdot [1/5] < \lambda_2, sup = 2 \geq \lambda_1/ \\ N_S(t_9) &= [\{x_2, x_3, x_5, x_6, x_7\}, \{x_1, x_4, x_8\}] \text{ Marked } "-" /card(Y_2 \cap Z_2) = 0/ \\ N_S(t_{10}) &= [\{x_1, x_4, x_8\}, \{x_1, x_4, x_8\}] \text{ Marked } "-" /card(Y_2 \cap Z_2) = 0/ \\ N_S(t_{11}) &= [\{x_2, x_3, x_5, x_6, x_7\}, \{x_2, x_3, x_5, x_6, x_7\}] \text{ Not Marked } /Y_1 = Y_2/ \end{aligned}$$

Now, we build action terms of length two from unmarked action terms of length one.

$$\begin{aligned} N_S(t_1 \star t_5) &= [\{x_1, x_6\}, \{x_1, x_6\}] \text{ Not Marked } /Y_1 = Y_2/ \\ N_S(t_1 \star t_8) &= [\{x_1, x_4\}, \{x_2, x_6\}] \text{ Marked } "+" \\ /\text{rule } r_1 &= [[t_1 \star t_8] \Rightarrow t_{12}] \text{ has } conf = 1/2 \geq \lambda_2, sup = 2 \geq \lambda_1/ \\ N_S(t_1 \star t_{11}) &= [\{x_2, x_6\}, \{x_2, x_6\}] \text{ Not Marked } /Y_1 = Y_2/ \\ N_S(t_5 \star t_8) &= [\{x_1, x_8\}, \{x_6, x_7\}] \text{ Marked } "-" \\ /\text{rule } r_1 &= [[t_5 \star t_8] \Rightarrow t_{12}] \text{ has } conf = 1/2 \geq \lambda_2, sup = 1 < \lambda_1/ \\ N_S(t_5 \star t_{11}) &= [\{x_6, x_7\}, \{x_6, x_7\}] \text{ Not Marked } /Y_1 = Y_2/ \\ N_S(t_8 \star t_{11}) &= [\emptyset, \{x_2, x_3, x_5, x_6, x_7\}] \text{ Marked } "+" /card(Y_1) = 0/ \end{aligned}$$

Finally (there are only 3 classification attributes in S), we build action terms of length three from unmarked action terms of length one and length two.

Only, the term $t_1 \star t_5 \star t_8$ can be built. It is an extension of $t_5 \star t_8$ which is already marked as negative. So, the algorithm *ARD* stops and two action rules are constructed: $[(b, b_1 \rightarrow b_1) \star (c, c_1 \rightarrow c_2)] \Rightarrow (d, d_1 \rightarrow d_2)$, $[(a, a_2 \rightarrow a_1) \Rightarrow (d, d_1 \rightarrow d_2)]$.

Following the notation used in previous papers on action rules mining (see [6], [17], [16], [13]), the first of the above two action rules will be presented as $[(b, b_1) \star (c, c_1 \rightarrow c_2)] \Rightarrow (d, d_1 \rightarrow d_2)$.

6 Association Action Rules

In this section, *atomic action set* has the same meaning as *atomic action term* and *action set* has the same meaning as *action term*.

Now, let us assume that $S = (X, A, V)$ is an information system and λ_1, λ_2 denote minimum support and minimum confidence assigned to action rules, respectively. The algorithm for constructing frequent action sets is similar to Agrawal's algorithm in [1].

Generating frequent action sets

Let t_a be an atomic action set, where $N_S(t_a) = [Y_1, Y_2]$ and $a \in A$. We say that t_a is called frequent if $\text{card}(Y_1) \geq \lambda_1$ and $\text{card}(Y_2) \geq \lambda_1$.

The operation of generating $(k + 1)$ -element candidate action sets from frequent k -element action sets is performed in two steps:

Merging Step: Merge pairs (t_1, t_2) of frequent k -element action sets into $(k + 1)$ -element candidate action set if all elements in t_1 and t_2 are the same except the last elements.

Pruning Step: Delete each $(k + 1)$ -element candidate action set t if either it is not an action set or some k -element subset of t is not a frequent k -element action set.

Now, if t is a $(k + 1)$ -element candidate action set, $N_S(t) = [Y_1, Y_2]$, $\text{card}(Y_1) \geq \lambda_1$, and $\text{card}(Y_2) \geq \lambda_1$, then t is a frequent $(k + 1)$ -element action set.

We say that t is a frequent action set in S if t is a frequent k -element action set in S , for some k . Assume now that the expression $[t - t_1]$ denotes the action set containing all atomic action sets listed in t but not listed in t_1 .

The set $AAR_S(\lambda_1, \lambda_2)$ of association action rules in S is constructed in the following way:

Let t be a frequent action set in S and t_1 is its subset. Any action rule $r = [(t - t_1) \Rightarrow t_1]$ is an association action rule in $AAR_S(\lambda_1, \lambda_2)$ if $\text{conf}(r) \geq \lambda_2$.

An Example

Lets us assume that an information system S is represented by Table 1 with $\{a, c\}$ as stable attributes. We take $\lambda_1 = 2$ and $\lambda_2 = 4/9$. The following frequent action sets can be constructed: (a, a_1) - support 2

- (a, a_2) - support 6
- (b, b_1) - support 4
- (b, b_2) - support 4
- $(b, b_1 \rightarrow b_2)$ - support 4

$(b, b_2 \rightarrow b_1)$ - support 4
 (c, c_1) - support 5, (c, c_2) - support 3
 (d, d_1) - support 4, (d, d_2) - support 4
 $(d, d_1 \rightarrow d_2)$ - support 4
 $(d, d_2 \rightarrow d_1)$ - support 4
 $(a, a_1) \star (b, b_1)$ - support 1 (not frequent)
 $(a, a_1) \star (b, b_2)$ - support 1 (not frequent)
 $(a, a_1) \star (b, b_1 \rightarrow b_2)$ - support 1 (not frequent)
 $(a, a_1) \star (b, b_2 \rightarrow b_1)$ - support 1 (not frequent)
 $(a, a_1) \star (c, c_1)$ - support 1 (not frequent)
 $(a, a_1) \star (c, c_2)$ - support 1 (not frequent)
 $(a, a_1) \star (d, d_1)$ - support 2
 $(a, a_1) \star (d, d_2)$ - support 0 (not frequent)
 $(a, a_1) \star (d, d_1 \rightarrow d_2)$ - support 0 (not frequent)
 $(a, a_1) \star (d, d_2 \rightarrow d_1)$ - support 0 (not frequent)

 $(a, a_2) \star (b, b_1)$ - support 3
 $(a, a_2) \star (b, b_2)$ - support 3
 $(a, a_2) \star (b, b_1 \rightarrow b_2)$ - support 3
 $(a, a_2) \star (b, b_2 \rightarrow b_1)$ - support 3
 $(a, a_2) \star (c, c_1)$ - support 4
 $(a, a_2) \star (c, c_2)$ - support 2
 $(a, a_2) \star (d, d_1)$ - support 2
 $(a, a_2) \star (d, d_2)$ - support 4
 $(a, a_2) \star (d, d_2 \rightarrow d_1)$ - support 2
 $(a, a_2) \star (d, d_1 \rightarrow d_2)$ - support 2

 $(b, b_1) \star (c, c_1)$ - support 3
 $(b, b_1) \star (c, c_2)$ - support 1 (not frequent)
 $(b, b_1) \star (d, d_1)$ - support 3
 $(b, b_1) \star (d, d_2)$ - support 1 (not frequent)

 $(b, b_2) \star (c, c_1)$ - support 2
 $(b, b_2) \star (c, c_2)$ - support 2
 $(b, b_2) \star (d, d_1)$ - support 1 (not frequent)
 $(b, b_2) \star (d, d_2)$ - support 3

 $(b, b_1 \rightarrow b_2) \star (c, c_1)$ - support 2
 $(b, b_1 \rightarrow b_2) \star (c, c_2)$ - support 1 (not frequent)
 $(b, b_1 \rightarrow b_2) \star (d, d_1)$ - support 1 (not frequent)
 $(b, b_1 \rightarrow b_2) \star (d, d_2)$ - support 1 (not frequent)
 $(b, b_1 \rightarrow b_2) \star (d, d_2 \rightarrow d_1)$ - support 1 (not frequent)
 $(b, b_1 \rightarrow b_2) \star (d, d_1 \rightarrow d_2)$ - support 3

$(b, b_2 \rightarrow b_1) \star (c, c_1)$ - support 2
 $(b, b_2 \rightarrow b_1) \star (c, c_2)$ - support 1 (not frequent)
 $(b, b_2 \rightarrow b_1) \star (d, d_1)$ - support 1 (not frequent)
 $(b, b_2 \rightarrow b_1) \star (d, d_1 \rightarrow d_2)$ - support 1 (not frequent)
 $(b, b_2 \rightarrow b_1) \star (d, d_2 \rightarrow d_1)$ - support 3

$(c, c_1) \star (d, d_1)$ - support 3
 $(c, c_1) \star (d, d_2)$ - support 2
 $(c, c_1) \star (d, d_2 \rightarrow d_1)$ - support 2
 $(c, c_1) \star (d, d_1 \rightarrow d_2)$ - support 2
 $(c, c_2) \star (d, d_1)$ - support 1 (not frequent)
 $(c, c_2) \star (d, d_2)$ - support 2
 $(c, c_2) \star (d, d_2 \rightarrow d_1)$ - support 1 (not frequent)
 $(c, c_2) \star (d, d_1 \rightarrow d_2)$ - support 1 (not frequent)

$(a, a_2) \star (b, b_1) \star (c, c_1)$ - support 2
 $(a, a_2) \star (b, b_1) \star (c, c_2)$ - support 1 (not frequent)
 $(a, a_2) \star (b, b_1) \star (d, d_1)$ - support 2
 $(a, a_2) \star (b, b_1) \star (d, d_2)$ - support 1 (not frequent)
 $(a, a_2) \star (b, b_1) \star (d, d_1 \rightarrow d_2)$ - support 1 (not frequent)
 $(a, a_2) \star (b, b_2) \star (c, c_1)$ - support 2
 $(a, a_2) \star (b, b_2) \star (c, c_2)$ - support 1 (not frequent)
 $(a, a_2) \star (b, b_2) \star (d, d_1)$ - support 0 (not frequent)
 $(a, a_2) \star (b, b_2) \star (d, d_2)$ - support 3
 $(a, a_2) \star (b, b_2) \star (d, d_1 \rightarrow d_2)$ - support 0 (not frequent)
 $(a, a_2) \star (b, b_1 \rightarrow b_2) \star (c, c_1)$ - support 2
 $(a, a_2) \star (b, b_1 \rightarrow b_2) \star (c, c_2)$ - support 1 (not frequent)
 $(a, a_2) \star (b, b_1 \rightarrow b_2) \star (d, d_1)$ - support 0 (not frequent)
 $(a, a_2) \star (b, b_1 \rightarrow b_2) \star (d, d_2)$ - support 1 (not frequent)
 $(a, a_2) \star (b, b_1 \rightarrow b_2) \star (d, d_1 \rightarrow d_2)$ - support 2
 $(a, a_2) \star (b, b_2 \rightarrow b_1) \star (c, c_1)$ - support 2
 $(a, a_2) \star (b, b_2 \rightarrow b_1) \star (c, c_2)$ - support 1 (not frequent)
 $(a, a_2) \star (b, b_2 \rightarrow b_1) \star (d, d_1)$ - support 0 (not frequent)
 $(a, a_2) \star (b, b_2 \rightarrow b_1) \star (d, d_2)$ - support 1 (not frequent)
 $(a, a_2) \star (b, b_2 \rightarrow b_1) \star (d, d_1 \rightarrow d_2)$ - support 0 (not frequent)
.....
.....
.....

$(a, a_2) \star (b, b_1 \rightarrow b_2) \star (c, c_1) \star (d, d_1 \rightarrow d_2)$ - support 2

Association action rules can be constructed from frequent action sets. For instance, we can generate association action rule

$$[(a, a_2) \star (b, b_1 \rightarrow b_2)] \rightarrow [(c, c_1) \star (d, d_1 \rightarrow d_2)]$$

from the last frequent action set. Its confidence is 4/9.

7 Representative Association Action Rules

The concept of representative association rules was introduced by Kryszkiewicz [7]. They form a small subset of association rules from which the remaining association rules can be generated. Similar approach is proposed for association action rules.

By a cover C of association action rule $r = [t_1 \Rightarrow t]$ we mean $C(t_1 \Rightarrow t) = \{t_1 \star t_2 \rightarrow t_3 : t_2, t_3 \text{ are not overlapping subterms of } t\}$.

For example, let us assume that $r = [(e, e_1 \rightarrow e_2) \Rightarrow (b, b_1 \rightarrow b_2) \star (c, c_1 \rightarrow c_2) \star (d, d_1 \rightarrow d_2)]$ is an association action rule. Then, $[(e, e_1 \rightarrow e_2) \star (b, b_1 \rightarrow b_2) \Rightarrow (c, c_1 \rightarrow c_2)] \in C(r)$.

Property 1. If $r \in AAR_S(\lambda_1, \lambda_2)$, then each rule $r_1 \in C(r)$ also belongs to $AAR_S(\lambda_1, \lambda_2)$.

Proof: From the definition of $AAR_S(\lambda_1, \lambda_2)$ we have, $\text{sup}(r) \geq \lambda_1$, and $\text{conf}(r) \geq \lambda_2$. Let $r_1 = [t_1 \star t_2 \rightarrow t_4]$, $r = [t_1 \rightarrow t_2 \star t_3 \star t_4]$, and $N_S(t_i) = [Y_i, Z_i]$, for $i = 1, 2, 3, 4$. Now, since $\frac{\text{card}[Y_1 \cap Y_2 \cap Y_3 \cap Y_4]}{\text{card}[Y_1]} \geq \lambda_1$, then $\frac{\text{card}[Y_1 \cap Y_2 \cap Y_4]}{\text{card}[Y_1 \cap Y_2]} \geq \lambda_1$ because $\text{card}(Y_1) \geq \text{card}(Y_1 \cap Y_2)$ and $\text{card}(Y_1 \cap Y_2 \cap Y_4) \geq \text{card}(Y_1 \cap Y_2 \cap Y_3 \cap Y_4)$.

In a similar way we show that $\frac{\text{card}[Z_1 \cap Z_2 \cap Z_4]}{\text{card}[Z_1 \cap Z_2]} \geq \lambda_1$. The same, $\text{sup}(r_1) \geq \lambda_1$.

Now, assume that $\text{conf}(r) = \frac{\text{card}(Y_1 \cap Y_2 \cap Y_3 \cap Y_4)}{\text{card}(Y_1)} \cdot \frac{\text{card}(Z_1 \cap Z_2 \cap Z_3 \cap Z_4)}{\text{card}(Z_1)} \geq \lambda_2$. Clearly, $\frac{\text{card}(Y_1 \cap Y_2 \cap Y_4)}{\text{card}(Y_1 \cap Y_2)} \cdot \frac{\text{card}(Z_1 \cap Z_2 \cap Z_4)}{\text{card}(Z_1 \cap Z_2)} \geq \lambda_2$. The same $\text{conf}(r_1) \geq \lambda_2$.

By a set of representative association action rules, with minimum support λ_1 and minimum confidence λ_2 we mean

$$RAAR_S(\lambda_1, \lambda_2) = \{r \in AAR_S(\lambda_1, \lambda_2) : \sim (\exists r_1) \in AAR_S(\lambda_1, \lambda_2) [[r_1 \neq r] \wedge [r \in C(r_1)]]\}.$$

Property 2. Representative association action rules $RAAR_S(\lambda_1, \lambda_2)$ form a least set of association action rules that covers all association action rules $AAR_S(\lambda_1, \lambda_2)$.

Proof: Let us assume that $r \in RAAR_S(\lambda_1, \lambda_2)$ and there exists $r_1 = [t_1 \Rightarrow t] \in AAR_S(\lambda_1, \lambda_2)$ such that $r_1 \neq r$ and $r \in C(r_1)$. Now, since $r \in C(r_1)$, then r is not in $RAAR_S(\lambda_1, \lambda_2)$.

Property 3. All association action rules $AAR_S(\lambda_1, \lambda_2)$ can be derived from representative association action rules $RAAR_S(\lambda_1, \lambda_2)$ by means of cover operator.

Proof: Assume that $r = [t \Rightarrow s] \in AAR_S(\lambda_1, \lambda_2)$ and $t = t_1 \star t_2 \star \dots \star t_k$, where t_i is an atomic action set for $1 \leq i \leq k$. It means that $\text{conf}(r) \geq \lambda_2$ and $\text{sup}(r) \geq \lambda_1$. Let $r_i(t) = [[t - t_i] \Rightarrow s \star t_i]$ for any atomic action set t_i in t . Clearly, $\text{sup}(r_i(t)) = \text{sup}(r)$ and $\text{conf}(r_i(t)) \leq \text{conf}(r)$.

Now, we show how to construct representative association action rule from which r can be generated. First, we follow Procedure I:

- (1) Find t_i in t such that $\text{conf}(r_i(t)) \geq \lambda_2$,
- (2) If succeeded, then $t := [t - t_i]$, $s := s \star t_i$,
go back to (1). Otherwise procedure stops.

Procedure II will extend the decision part of the rule generated by Procedure I. Assume that $[t \Rightarrow s]$ is that rule and $T = \{t_1, t_2, \dots, t_m\}$ is a set of all atomic action terms not listed in s . Procedure II:

- (1) Find t_i in T such that $\text{sup}(t \Rightarrow s \star t_i) \geq \lambda_1$,
- (2) If succeeded, then $s := s \star t_i$, $T := T - \{t_i\}$,
go back to (1). Otherwise procedure stops.

Now, the resulting association action rule is a representative rule from which the initial rule r can be generated.

8 Simple Association Action Rules

In this section we recall the notion of a simple association action rule [14], the cost of association action rule, and give a strategy to construct simple association action rules of lowest cost.

Let $(a, a_1 \rightarrow a_2)$ be an atomic action set. We assume that the cost of changing attribute a from a_1 to a_2 is denoted by $\text{cost}_S((a, a_1 \rightarrow a_2))$ [19]. For simplicity reason, the subscript S will be omitted if this does not lead to a confusion. Let $t_1 = (a, a_1 \rightarrow a_2)$, $t_2 = (b, b_1 \rightarrow b_2)$ be two atomic action sets. We say that t_1 , t_2 are positively correlated if change t_1 supports change t_2 and change t_2 supports change t_1 . Saying another words, change t_1 implies change t_2 and change t_2 implies change t_1 .

Now, assume that action set t is constructed from atomic action sets $T = \{t_1, t_2, \dots, t_m\}$. We introduce a binary relation \simeq on T defined as: $t_i \simeq t_j$ iff t_i and t_j are positively correlated.

Relation \simeq is an equivalence relation and it partitions T into m equivalence classes ($T = T_1 \cup T_2 \cup \dots \cup T_m$), for some m . Now, in each equivalence class T_i , an atomic action set $a(T_i)$ of the lowest cost is identified. The cost of t is defined as: $\text{cost}(t) = \sum\{\text{cost}(a(T_i)) : 1 \leq i \leq m\}$.

Now, assume that $r = [t_1 \Rightarrow t]$ is an association action rule. We say that r is simple if $\text{cost}(t_1 \star t) = \text{cost}(t_1)$ and there are no atomic action sets in t_1 which are positively correlated. The cost of r is defined as $\text{cost}(t_1)$.

We assume that user gives three threshold values, λ_1 - minimum support, λ_2 - minimum confidence, λ_3 - maximum cost. Let t be a frequent action set in S and t_1 is its subset. Any association action rule $r \in AAR_S(\lambda_1, \lambda_2)$ is called association action rule of acceptable cost if $\text{cost}(r) \leq \lambda_3$. Similarly, frequent action set t is called a frequent action set of acceptable cost if $\text{cost}(t) \leq \lambda_3$.

Now, in order to construct simple association action rules of a lowest cost, we built frequent action sets of acceptable cost following the strategy presented in Section 6 enhanced by additional constraint which requires to verify the cost of frequent action

sets being produced. Any frequent action set which cost is higher than λ_3 , is removed. Now, if t is a frequent action set of acceptable cost and $\{a(T_i) : i \leq m\}$ is a collection of atomic action sets constructed by following the strategy presented in this section, then $\Pi\{a(T_i) : i \leq m\} \Rightarrow [t - \{a(T_i) : i \leq m\}]$ is a simple association action rule of acceptable cost assuming that its confidence is not greater than λ_2 . By $\Pi\{a(T_i) : i \leq m\}$ we mean $a(T_1) \star a(T_2) \star \dots \star a(T_m)$.

9 Application Domain and Experiment

Music Information Retrieval (*MIR*) is chosen as the application area for our research. In [15], authors present the system *MIRAI* for automatic indexing of music by instruments and emotions. When *MIRAI* receives a musical waveform, it divides that waveform into segments of equal size and then its classifiers identify the most dominating musical instruments and emotions associated with each segment and finally with the musical waveform. In [8], [9] authors follow another approach and present a Basic Score Classification Database (*BSCD*) which describes associations between different scales, regions, genres, and jumps. This database is used to automatically index a piece of music by emotions. In this section, we show how to use action rules extracted from *BSCD* assuming that we need to change the emotion either from the retrieved or submitted piece of music by minimally changing its score. By a score, in *MIR* area, we mean a written form of a musical composition.

To introduce the problem, let's start with Figure 2 showing an example of a score of a Pentatonic Minor Scale played in the key of *C* on a piano. As we can see, 8 notes are played: $A\sharp, G, A\sharp, F, D\sharp, G, C$ and C . The ordered sequence of the same notes without repetitions $[A\sharp, C, D\sharp, F, G]$ uniquely represents that score. Now, we explain the process of computing its numeric representation $[2, 3, 2, 2]$. The score is played in the key of $A\sharp$ which becomes the root. Its second note C is 2 tones up from $A\sharp$. The third note $D\sharp$ is three tones up from C . The fourth note F is two tones up from $D\sharp$, and finally G is two tones up from F . This is how the sequence of jumps $[2, 3, 2, 2]$ with root $A\sharp$ is generated.

Essentially any combination of notes $A\sharp, C, D\sharp, F, G$ can be played while still remaining within the constraints of a *C* Pentatonic Minor Scale on a piano. This scale is illustrated in Figure 3. Accordingly one plays the root, plays 3 tones up, then 2 tones up then 2 tones up, and then 3 tones up (*m* means *mode*). The first note, or in musical terms, the "Root" is a *C* note. It means that the remaining four notes are all in the key of *C* Pentatonic Minor Scale on a piano. However, from the score itself, we have no idea about its key or scale. We can only discern the jumps between the notes and the repeated notes.

To tackle the above problem, authors in [8] built a Basic Score Classification Database (*BSCD*) which describes associations between different scales, regions, genres, and jumps (see Table 4). The attribute J_i means i -th jump. When a music piece is submitted to *QAS* associated with *BSCD*, each note one by one, is drawn into the array of incoming signals. Assuming that the score is represented by Figure 2, *QAS* will generate five optional sequences:

J_1	J_2	J_3	J_4	J_5	Scale	Region	Genre	Emotion	sma
2	2	3	2		Pentatonic Major	Western	Blues	melancholy	s
3	2	1	1	2	Blues Major	Western	Blues	depressive	s
3	2	2	3		Pentatonic Minor	Western	Jazz	melancholy	s
3	2	1	1	3	Blues Minor	Western	Blues	dramatic	s
3	1	3	1	3	Augmented	Western	Jazz	feel-good	s
2	2	2	2	2	Whole Tone	Western	Jazz	push-pull	s
1	2	4	1		Balinese	Balinese	ethnic	neutral	s
2	2	3	2		Chinese	Chinese	ethnic	neutral	s
2	3	2	3		Egyptian	Egyptian	ethnic	neutral	s
1	4	1	4		Iwato	Iwato	ethnic	neutral	s
1	4	2	1		Japanese	Japanese	Asian	neutral	s
2	1	4	1		Hirajoshi	Hirajoshi	ethnic	neutral	s
1	4	2	1		Kumoi	Japanese	Asian	neutral	s
2	2	3	2		Mongolian	Mongolian	ethnic	neutral	s
1	2	4	3		Pelog	Western	neutral	neutral	s
2	2	3	2		Pentatonic Majeur	Western	neutral	happy	m
2	3	2	3		Pentatonic 2	Western	neutral	neutral	m
3	2	3	2		Pentatonic 3	Western	neutral	neutral	m
2	3	2	2		Pentatonic 4	Western	neutral	neutral	m
2	2	3	3		Pentatonic Dominant	Western	neutral	neutral	m
3	2	2	3		Pentatonic Minor	Western	neutral	sonorous	m
1	3	3	2		Altered Pentatonic	Western	neutral	neutral	m
3	2	1	1	2	Blues	Western	Blues	depressive	m
4	3				Major	neutral	neutral	sonorous	a
3	4				Minor	neutral	neutral	sonorous	a
4	3	4			Major 7th Major	neutral	neutral	happy	a
4	3	3			Major 7th Minor	neutral	neutral	not happy	a
3	4	4			Minor 7th Major	neutral	neutral	happy	a
3	4	3			Minor 7th Minor	neutral	neutral	not happy	a
2	2	3	3		Major 9th	neutral	neutral	happy	a
2	1	4	3		Minor 9th	neutral	neutral	not happy	a
2	2	1	2	3	Major 11th	neutral	neutral	happy	a
2	1	2	2	3	Minor 11th	neutral	neutral	not happy	a
4	4				Augmented	neutral	neutral	happy	a
3	3	3			Diminished	neutral	neutral	not happy	a

Table 4. Basic Score Classification Database



Fig. 2. Example score of a Pentatonic Minor Scale played in the key of C

Scale	sma	ii	iii	iv	v	vi	vii	viii	ix	x	xi	xii	#
Pentatonic Minor	m	3	2	2	3								4

Fig. 3. Representation of a Pentatonic Minor Scale

$[A\sharp, C, D\sharp, F, G]$, $[G, A\sharp, C, D\sharp, F]$, $[F, G, A\sharp, C, D\sharp]$, $[D\sharp, F, G, A\sharp, C]$, or $[C, D\sharp, F, G, A\sharp]$.

In the first case $A\sharp$ is the root, in the second G is the root, in the third F , in the fourth $D\sharp$, and in the fifth C is the root. Clearly, at this point, *QAS* has no idea which note is the root and the same which sequence out of the 5 is a representative one for the input sequence of notes $A\sharp, G, A\sharp, F, D\sharp, G, C$ and C . Table 5 gives numeric representation of these five sequences.

Root	J_1	J_2	J_3	J_4
$A\sharp$	2	3	2	2
G	3	2	3	2
F	2	3	2	3
$D\sharp$	2	2	3	2
C	3	2	2	3

Table 5. Possible Representative Jump Sequences for the Input Sequence

Paper [9] presents a heuristic strategy for identifying which sequence out of these five sequences is a representative one for the input score. The same, on the basis of associations between sequences of jumps and emotions which can be extracted from *BSCD*, we can identify the emotion which invokes in most of us the above input score.

What about changes to the input score so the scale associated with that score will change the way user wants. Action rules extracted from *BSCD* can be used for that purpose and they guarantee the smallest number of changes needed to achieve the goal. Example of an action rule extracted from *BSCD* is given below:

$$[(J_1, 3 \rightarrow 2) * (J_2, 2 \rightarrow 3)] \Rightarrow (Scale, \text{PentatonicMinor} \rightarrow \text{Egyptian}).$$

For instance, this rule can be applied to a music score represented by a sequence of 25 notes (Figure 4). They are



Fig. 4. Example of a Music Score

The ordered sequence of the same 25 notes without repetitions $[A\sharp, C, D, D\sharp, F, G]$ uniquely represents that score. Assume now, that the score is played in the key of G . So, $[3, 2, 2, 1, 2]$ is its numeric representation.

The classifier trained on Table 4, based on Levenshtein's distance [9], identified the sequence [3, 2, 2, 3] as the closest one to [3, 2, 2, 1, 2]. Action rule $[(J_1, 3 \rightarrow 2) * (J_2, 2 \rightarrow 3)] \Rightarrow (Scale, PentatonicMinor \rightarrow Egyptian)]$, extracted from Table 4, converts that score to

[A \sharp , G, A, C, C, D \sharp , D, C, C, F, C, A, C, A \sharp , G, A, G, G, D \sharp , G, C, D \sharp , A, C, C]. Please notice that A \sharp is changing to A only if the note C follows it in the input score.

This example shows how to use action rules to manipulate the music score. Following the same approach, we can manipulate music emotions, genre, and region.

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11 Conclusion and Future Work

We presented three different algorithms for discovering action rules from a decision table. Rule-based strategies generate less number of action rules than object-based strategies. During the experiment with several data sets, we also noticed that the flexibility of attributes is not equal. For example, the social conditions are less flexible than the health conditions in several data sets used in our experiment, and this fact can be described by

assigning weights to changes of values of attributes. Future work should address this issue jointly with a cost associated with such changes.

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