Decision Rules and Dependencies

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Abstract. We proposed in this paper to use some ideas of Jan Łukasiewicz, concerning independence of logical formulas, to study dependencies in databases.

1 Introduction

This paper concerns the application of some ideas given by Jan Łukasiewicz in [1], in connection with his study of logic and probability – to data mining and data analysis. The relationship between implication and decision rules is formulated and studied along the lines proposed by the author in [2, 3]. Moreover, the independence of propositional functions, introduced by Łukasiewicz, is generalized and used to characterization of decision rules – leading to a new look on dependencies in databases. The proposed approach seems to give a new tool to discovering patterns in data.

2 Decision rules

Let $U$ be a non empty finite set, called the universe and let $\Phi$, $\Psi$ be logical formulas. The meaning of $\Phi$ in $U$, denoted by $|\Phi|$, is the set of all elements of $U$, that satisfies $\Phi$ in $U$. The truth value of $\Phi$ denoted $\text{val}(\Phi)$ is defined as $\text{card}(\Phi) / \text{card}(U)$.

A decision rule is an expression $\Phi \rightarrow \Psi$, read if $\Phi$ then $\Psi$, where $\Phi$ and $\Psi$ are referred to as conditions and decisions of the rule, respectively.

The number $\text{supp}(\Phi, \Psi) = \text{card}(|\Phi \land \Psi|)$ will be called the support of the rule $\Phi \rightarrow \Psi$. We will consider non void decision rules only, i.e., rules such that $\text{supp}(\Phi, \Psi) \neq 0$.

With every decision rule $\Phi \rightarrow \Psi$ we associate its strength defined as

$$\text{str}(\Phi, \Psi) = \frac{\text{supp}(\Phi, \Psi)}{\text{card}(U)}.$$
Moreover, with every decision rule \( \Phi \rightarrow \Psi \) we associate the certainty factor defined as

\[
\text{cer}(\Phi, \Psi) = \frac{\text{str}(\Phi, \Psi)}{\text{val}(\Phi)}
\]  

(1)

and the coverage factor of \( \Phi \rightarrow \Psi \)

\[
\text{cov}(\Phi, \Psi) = \frac{\text{str}(\Phi, \Psi)}{\text{val}(\Psi)},
\]  

(2)

where \( \text{val}(\Phi) \neq 0 \) and \( \text{val}(\Psi) \neq 0 \).

If a decision rule \( \Phi \rightarrow \Psi \) uniquely determines decisions in terms of conditions, i.e., if \( \text{cer}(\Phi, \Psi) = 1 \), then the rule is certain, otherwise the rule is uncertain.

If a decision rule \( \Phi \rightarrow \Psi \) covers all decisions, i.e., if \( \text{cov}(\Phi, \Psi) = 1 \) then the decision rule is total, otherwise the decision rule is partial.

Immediate consequences of (1) and (2) are:

\[
\text{cer}(\Phi, \Psi) = \frac{\text{cov}(\Phi, \Psi) \text{val}(\Psi)}{\text{val}(\Phi)},
\]  

(3)

\[
\text{cov}(\Phi, \Psi) = \frac{\text{cer}(\Phi, \Psi) \text{val}(\Phi)}{\text{val}(\Psi)}.
\]  

(4)

Note, that (3) and (4) are Bayes’ formulas. This relationship first was observed by Lukasiewicz [1].

3 Decision rules and inference rules

Let \( \Phi \rightarrow \Psi \) be a decision rule. We have

\[
\text{val}(\Psi) = \frac{\text{val}(\Phi) \text{cer}(\Phi, \Psi)}{\text{cov}(\Phi, \Psi)} = \frac{\text{str}(\Phi, \Psi)}{\text{cov}(\Phi, \Psi)}
\]  

(5)

and

\[
\text{val}(\Phi) = \frac{\text{val}(\Psi) \text{cov}(\Phi, \Psi)}{\text{cer}(\Phi, \Psi)} = \frac{\text{str}(\Phi, \Psi)}{\text{cer}(\Phi, \Psi)}.
\]  

(6)

Formulas (5) and (6) are direct consequences of (3) and (4), respectively and consequently they are Bayes’ rules, too.

It is easily seen that formulas resemble well known modus ponens and modus tollens inference rules, which have the form

\[
\text{if } \Phi \rightarrow \Psi \text{ is true and } \Phi \text{ is true then } \Psi \text{ is true}
\]

and
if $\Phi \rightarrow \Psi$ is true

and $\sim \Psi$ is true

then $\sim \Phi$ is true

respectively.

Inference rules allow us to obtain true consequences from true premises. In reasoning about data (data analysis) the situation is slightly different. Instead of true propositions we consider propositional functions, which are true to a "degree", i.e., they assume truth values which lie between 0 and 1, in other words, they are probable, not true \cite{1}.

Let us formulate this idea more exactly.

We can write

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{if} & \quad \Phi \rightarrow \Psi \\
\text{and} & \quad \Phi \text{ is true to a degree } \text{val}(\Phi) \\
\text{then} & \quad \Psi \text{ is true to a degree } \text{val}(\Psi) = \alpha \text{val}(\Phi)
\end{align*}
\]

and

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{if} & \quad \Phi \rightarrow \Psi \\
\text{and} & \quad \Psi \text{ is true to a degree } \text{val}(\Psi) \\
\text{then} & \quad \Phi \text{ is true to a degree } \text{val}(\Phi) = \alpha^{-1} \text{val}(\Psi)
\end{align*}
\]

where

\[
\alpha = \frac{\text{cer}(\Phi, \Psi)}{\text{cov}(\Phi, \Psi)}.
\]

The above inference rules can be considered as counter-parts of modus ponens and modus tollens for data analysis.

4 Independence in decision rules

Independence of logical formulas considered in this section first was proposed by Lúkasiewicz \cite{1}.

Let $\Phi \rightarrow \Psi$ be a decision rule. Formulas $\Phi$ and $\Psi$ are independent on each other if

\[
\text{str}(\Phi, \Psi) = \text{val}(\Phi)\text{val}(\Psi).
\]

Consequently

\[
\frac{\text{str}(\Phi, \Psi)}{\text{val}(\Phi)} = \text{cer}(\Phi, \Psi) = \text{val}(\Psi),
\]

and

\[
\frac{\text{str}(\Phi, \Psi)}{\text{val}(\Psi)} = \text{cov}(\Phi, \Psi) = \text{val}(\Phi).
\]
If
\[ cer(\Phi, \Psi) > val(\Psi), \]
or
\[ cov(\Phi, \Psi) > val(\Phi), \]
then \( \Phi \) and \( \Psi \) depend positively on each other. Similarly, if
\[ cer(\Phi, \Psi) < val(\Psi), \]
or
\[ cov(\Phi, \Psi) < val(\Phi), \]
then \( \Phi \) and \( \Psi \) depend negatively on each other.

Let us observe that relations of independency and dependences are symmetric ones, and are analogous to that used in statistics.

**Example 1.** Let \( U = \{1, 2, \ldots, 6\} \), \( x \in U \) and let \( \Phi_1 \) denote "\( x \) is divisible by 2", \( \Phi_0 = "x \) is not divisible by 2". Similarly, \( \Psi_1 \) stands for "\( x \) is divisible by 3" and \( \Psi_0 = "x \) is not divisible by 3". Because there are 50% elements divisible by 2 and 50% elements not divisible by 2 in \( U \), therefore we have \( val(\Phi_1) = 1/2 \) and \( val(\Phi_0) = 1/2 \). Similarly, \( val(\Psi_1) = 1/3 \) and \( val(\Psi_0) = 2/3 \), respectively. The situation is presented in Fig. 1.

**Formula**
\[ \text{cer}(\Phi_0, \Psi_0) = 1/3 \quad \text{cov}(\Phi_0, \Psi_0) = 1/2 \]
\[ \text{cer}(\Phi_1, \Psi_0) = 1/3 \quad \text{cov}(\Phi_1, \Psi_0) = 1/2 \]
\[ \text{cer}(\Phi_0, \Psi_1) = 2/3 \quad \text{cov}(\Phi_0, \Psi_1) = 1/2 \]
\[ \text{cer}(\Phi_1, \Psi_1) = 2/3 \quad \text{cov}(\Phi_1, \Psi_1) = 1/2 \]

**Fig. 1.** Divisibility by "2" and "3"

Formulas \( \Phi_0 \) and \( \Psi_0 \), \( \Phi_0 \) and \( \Psi_1 \), \( \Phi_1 \) and \( \Psi_0 \), \( \Phi_1 \) and \( \Psi_1 \) are pair-wise independent on each other, because, e.g., \( \text{cer}(\Phi_0, \Psi_0) = \text{val}(\Psi_0)(\text{cov}(\Phi_0, \Psi_0) = \text{val}(\Phi_0)). \)

**Example 2.** Let \( U = \{1, 2, \ldots, 8\} \), \( x \in U \) and \( \Phi_1 \) stand for "\( x \) is divisible by 2", \( \Phi_0 = "x \) is not divisible by 2". \( \Psi_1 = "x \) is divisible by 4" and \( \Psi_0 = "x \) is not
divisible by 4”. As in the previous example \(\text{val}(\Phi_0) = 1/2\) and \(\text{val}(\Psi_1) = 1/2\); \(\text{val}(\Psi_0) = 3/4\) and \(\text{val}(\Psi_1) = 1/4\) because there are 75% elements not divisible by 4 and 25% divisible by 4 in \(U\).

The situation is shown in Fig. 2.

The pairs of formulas \(\Phi_0\) and \(\Psi_0\), \(\Phi_1\) and \(\Psi_0\), \(\Phi_0\) and \(\Phi_1\) are dependent. Pairs of formulas \(\Phi_0\) and \(\Psi_0\), \(\Phi_1\) and \(\Psi_1\) are positively dependent on each other, because \(\text{cer}(\Phi_0, \Psi_0) > \text{val}(\Psi_0)(\text{cov}(\Phi_0, \Psi_0) > \text{val}(\Phi_0))\) and \(-\text{cer}(\Phi_1, \Psi_1) > \text{val}(\Psi_1)(\text{cov}(\Phi_1, \Psi_1) > \text{val}(\Phi_1))\). Formulas \(\Phi_1\) and \(\Psi_0\) are negatively dependent on each other, because \(\text{cer}(\Phi_1, \Psi_0) < \text{val}(\Psi_0)(\text{cov}(\Phi_1, \Psi_0) < \text{val}(\Phi_1))\).

Example 3. Consider a population in which 20% are blond, 80% are dark haired, 40% have blue eyes and 60% have hazel eyes. The relationship between color of hair and eyes is shown in Fig. 3.

It can be seen that blond hair and blue eyes are positively dependent on each other, as well as dark hair and hazel eyes. However, dark hair and blue eyes, and negatively dependent on each other in this population.

5 Dependency factor

For every decision rule \(\Phi \rightarrow \Psi\) we define a dependency factor \(\eta(\Phi, \Psi)\) defined as

\[
\eta(\Phi, \Psi) = \frac{\text{cer}(\Phi, \Psi) - \text{val}(\Psi)}{\text{cer}(\Phi, \Psi) + \text{val}(\Psi)} = \frac{\text{cov}(\Phi, \Psi) - \text{val}(\Phi)}{\text{cov}(\Phi, \Psi) + \text{val}(\Phi)}.
\]

It is easy to check that if \(\eta(\Phi, \Psi) = 0\), then \(\Phi\) and \(\Psi\) are independent on each other, if \(-1 < \eta(\Phi, \Psi) < 0\), then \(\Phi\) and \(\Psi\) are negatively dependent and if \(0 < \eta(\Phi, \Psi) < 1\) then \(\Phi\) and \(\Psi\) are positively dependent on each other. Thus the dependency factor expresses a degree of dependency, and can be seen as a counterpart of correlation coefficient used in statistics.
For example, for situation presented in Fig. 1 we have: $\eta(\Phi_0, \Psi_0) = 0$, $\eta(\Phi_1, \Psi_1) = 0$, and $\eta(\Phi_2, \Psi_0) = 0$. However, for Fig. 2 we have $\eta(\Phi_0, \Psi_0) = 1/7$, $\eta(\Phi_1, \Psi_0) = -1/5$ and $\eta(\Phi_1, \Psi_1) = 1/3$. The meaning of the above results is obvious.

For example 3 results are shown in Fig. 3.

Another dependency factor has been proposed in [4].

6 Summary

We proposed in this paper a new look on dependencies in databases based on some ideas of Łukasiewicz proposed in his study of logic and probability.

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References