Data Exploration

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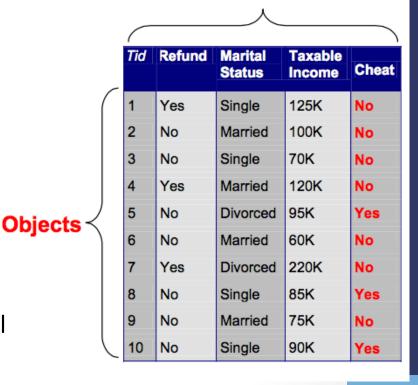
Outline

- Data Exploration
 - Data Objects and Attribute Types
 - Basic Statistical Descriptions of Data
 - Data Visualization
 - Measuring Data Similarity and Dissimilarity
 - Useful thing to know: Document representation and similarity measure between documents.

- Data sets are made of data objects, such as person, customer, items.
 - Data objects can also be referred to as samples, instances, data points, etc.

- An attribute represents a characteristic or feature of a data object.
 - Example: eye color of a person, marital status, etc.
 - Attributes can also be called dimensions, features, variables.

Attributes



- Types of attributes
 - Nominal attribute: the values are symbols or names of things
 - Example: hair color; marital status
 - Binary attribute is a nominal attribute with only two categories or states (0 or 1)
 - Example: gender; medical_test_result (positive/negative)
 - Symmetric vs Asymmetric
 - Ordinal attribute is an attribute with possible values that have a meaningful order or ranking among them.
 - Example: grade (A+, A, A-, B+, etc.)
 - Ordinal attributes are useful for registering subjective assessments of qualities that are difficult to be measured objectively.

- Types of attributes
 - Numeric Attribute is quantitative, i.e., it is a measurable quantity represented in integer or real values.
 - Interval-scaled attributes:
 - Example: temperature in Celsius, the unit of temperature is 1/100 of the difference between the melting temperature and the boiling temperature.
 - Ratio-scaled attributes is a numeric attribute with an inherent zeropoint.
 - Example: temperature in Kelvin, length, time, time, counts

- Properties of Attribute Values
 - The type of an attribute depends on which of the following properties it possesses:

Distinctness: = ≠

• Order: < >

• Addition: + -

Multiplication: × ÷

- Nominal attribute: distinctness.
- Ordinal attribute: distinctness & order.
- Interval attribute: distinctness, order and addition.
- Ratio attribute: all 4 properties.

Discrete vs Continuous Attribute

- Discrete attributes have finite or countably infinite number of values
 - Example: hair_color; smoker, medical_test, drink_size, zip codes, customer_id
- Continuous attributes: if an attribute is not discrete, it is continuous.
 - Numeric attribute and continuous attribute are often used interchangeably in the literature.

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- Basic statistical descriptions can be used to identify properties of the data.
 - Measures of central tendency
 - The Dispersion of the data.

- Measuring the Central Tendency: Mean, Median and Mode
 - Mean: Let X be some attribute with N observed values $x_1, x_2, ..., x_N$

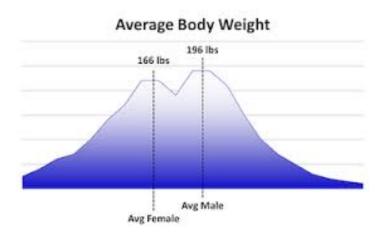
$$\bar{x} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} x_i}{N} = \frac{x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_N}{N}.$$

- Means are not robust measurements, i.e. they are sensitive to noises or outliers. Trimmed means can be obtained by removing extreme values.
- Means are used only for numeric attributes (or continuous attributes).

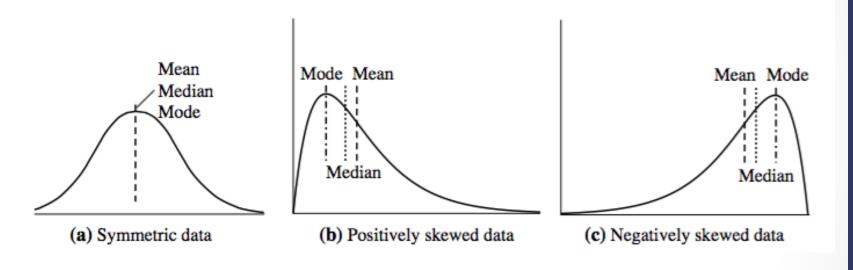
- Measuring the Central Tendency: Mean, Median and Mode
 - Median
 - More robust than means, can be applied to numeric, and may extend to use for ordinal attributes.

- If the number of values is even, then the median is the two middlemost values and any value in between. If the attribute is numeric, the median is taken as the average of the two middlemost values.
- The median is expensive to compute when we have a large number of observations.

- Measuring the Central Tendency: Mean, Median and Mode
 - Mode: the mode for a set of data is the value that occurs most frequently in the set.
 - Modes can be used for both nominal and numeric attributes.
 - Data sets with one, two, or three modes are respectively called unimodal, bimodal, and trimodal.

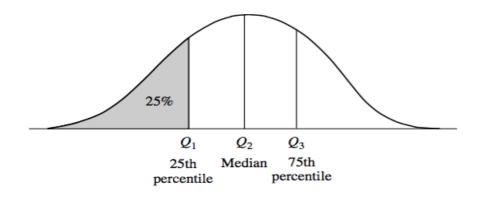


Unimodal: symmetric vs asymmetric



- Measuring the Dispersion of Data:
 - Range, Quartiles, and Interquartile Range
 - Let $x_1, x_2, ..., x_N$ be a set of observations for some numeric attribute, X.
 - Range: the difference between the largest (max) and smallest (min)
 - Quantiles: sort values of X in increasing order.
 - The k-th q-quantiles for a given data distribution is the value x such that at most k/q of the data values are less than x, and at most (q-k)/q of the data values are more than x (0 < k < q)

- Measuring the Dispersion of Data:
 - Range, Quartiles, and Interquartile Range
 - Percentiles: 100-quantiles
 - Quartiles: 4-quanties.
 - Interquartile range (IQR):
 - IQR = Q3 Q1
 - Q3: third quartile, is the 75th percentile; and Q1 is the first quartile, or 25% percentile.



- Measuring the Dispersion of Data:
 - Variance: The variance of N observations for a numeric attribute
 X is:

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (x_i - \bar{x})^2 = \left(\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} x_i^2\right) - \bar{x}^2,$$

where \bar{x} is the mean value. The **standard deviation**, σ is the square root of the variance.

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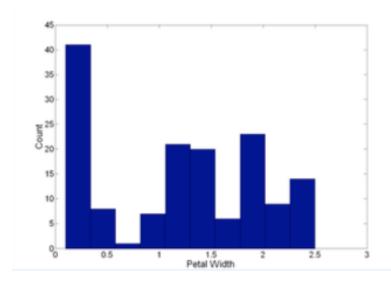
Iris Sample Data set

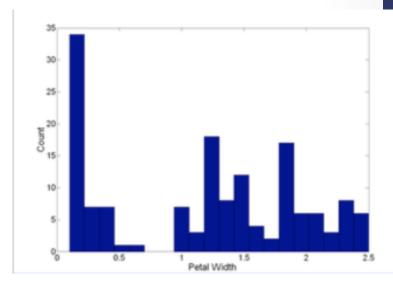
- Data Visualization is illustrated with the Iris Plant data set.
- Can be obtained from the UCI Machine Learning Repository http://www.ics.uci.edu/~mlearn/MLRepository.html
- From the statistician Sir. Ronal Fisher.
- Three flower types (classes):
 - Setosa
 - Virginica
 - Versicolour
- Four (non-class) attributes
 - Sepal width and length
 - Petal width and length



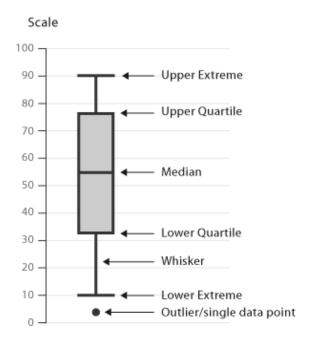
Virginica. Robert H. Mohlenbrock. USDA NRCS. 1995. Northeast wetland flora: Field office guide to plant species. Northeast National Technical Center, Chester, PA. Courtesy of USDA NRCS Wetland Science Institute.

- Histogram
 - Usually shows the distribution of values of a single attribute.
 - Divide the values into bins and show a bar plot of the objects in each bin.
 - The height of each bar indicates the number of objects
 - Shape of histogram depends on the number of bins
- Example: Petal Width (10 and 20 bins, respectively)



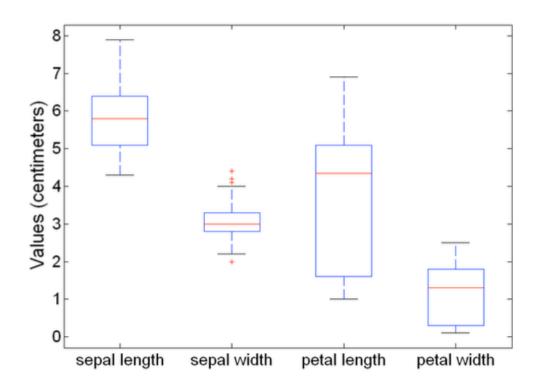


- Box Plots
 - Invented by J. Tukey
 - Another way of displaying the distribution of data
 - Following figure shows the basic part of a box plot



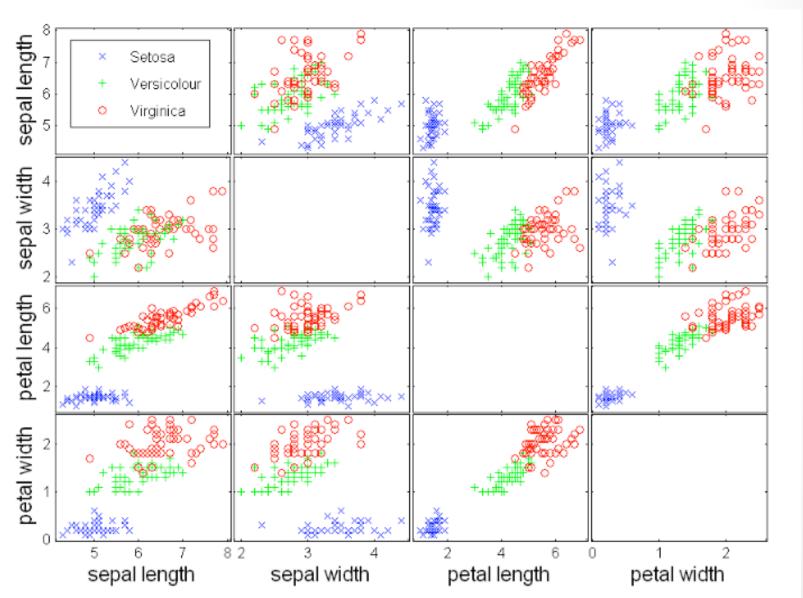
Example of Box Plots

Box Plots can be used to compare attributes



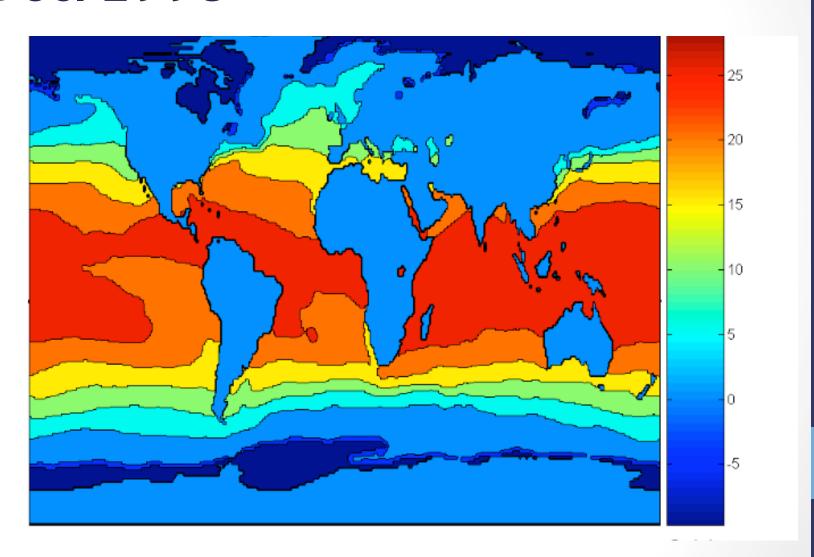
- Scatter Plots
 - Attributes values determine the position
 - Two-dimensional scatter plots most common, but can have threedimensional scatter plots
 - Often additional attributes can be displayed by using the size,
 shape and color of the markers that represent the objects
 - It is useful to have arrays of scatter plots can compactly summarize the relationships of several pairs of attributes
 - See example on the next slide.

Scatter Plot Array of Iris Attributes



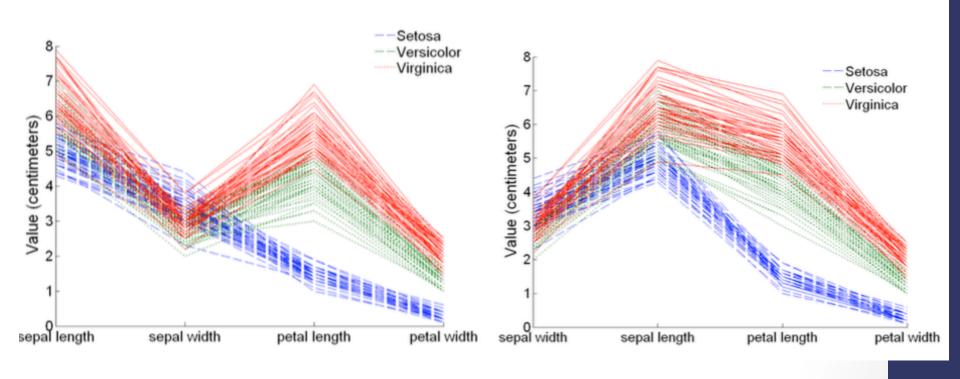
- Contour plots
 - Useful when a continuous attribute is measured on a spatial grid.
 - They partition the plane into regions of similar values
 - The contour lines that form the boundaries of these regions connect points with equal values.
 - The most common example is contour maps of evaluation
 - Can also display temperature, rainfall, air pressure, etc.
 - An example for Sea Surface Temperature (SST) is provided on the next slide

Contour Plot Example: SST Dec. 1998



- Parallel Coordinates
 - Used to plot the attribute values of high-dimensional data
 - Instead of using perpendicular axes, use a set of parallel axes
 - The attribute values of each object are plotted as a point on each corresponding coordinate axis and the points are connected by a line
 - Thus, each object is represented as a line
 - Often, the lines representing a distinct class of objects group together, at least for some attributes
 - Ordering of attributes is important in seeing such groupings

Parallel Coordinates Plots for Iris Data.



Other Visualization Techniques

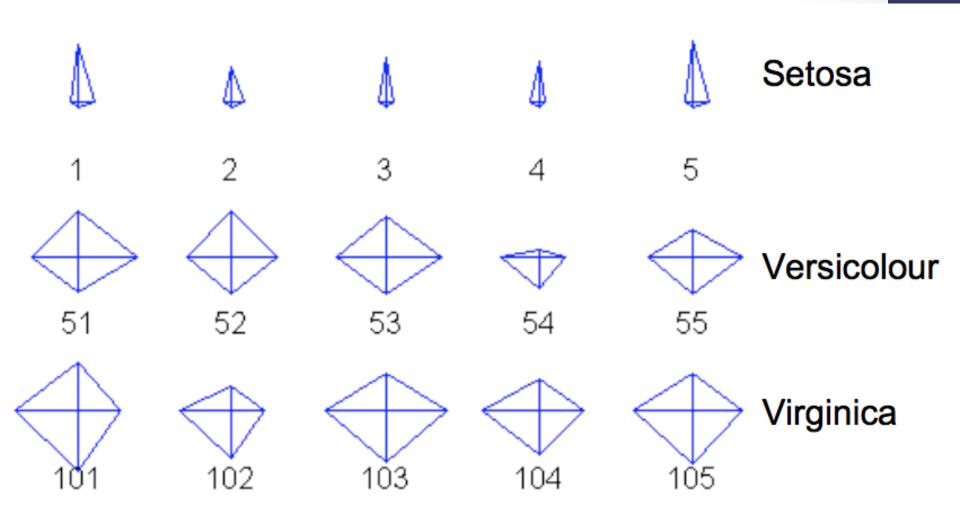
Star Plots

- Similar approach to parallel coordinates, but axes radiate from a central point
- The line connecting the values of an object is a polygon

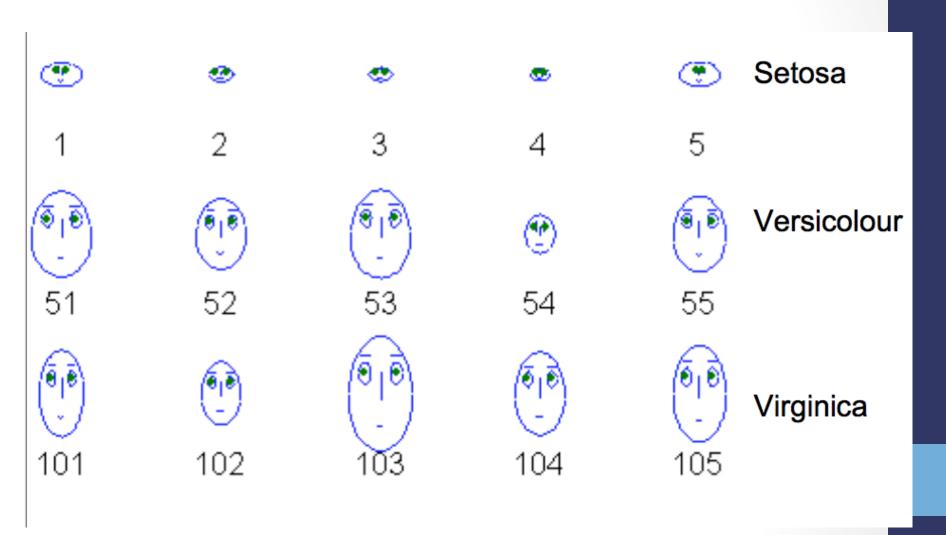
Chernoff Faces

- Approach created by Herman Chernoff
- This approach associates each attribute with a characteristic of a face
- The values of each attribute determine the appearance of the corresponding facial characteristic
- Each object becomes a separate face
- Relies on human's ability to distinguish faces

Star Plots for Iris Data



Chernoff Faces for Iris Data



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Data Matrix and Dissimilarity matrix

- Objects described by multiple attributes
 - An object (e.g. a person) x_i has **p** attributes

$$x_i = (x_{i1}, x_{i2}, ..., x_{ip})$$

 A data set with n objects can be represented by a n-by-p data matrix:

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & \cdots & x_{1f} & \cdots & x_{1p} \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ x_{i1} & \cdots & x_{if} & \cdots & x_{ip} \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ x_{n1} & \cdots & x_{nf} & \cdots & x_{np} \end{bmatrix}$$

Data Matrix and Dissimilarity matrix

 Dissimilarity matrix (or object-by object structure) stores a collections of proximities for all pairs of n objects, which is represented by n-by-n matrix:

```
\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ d(2,1) & 0 \\ d(3,1) & d(3,2) & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ d(n,1) & d(n,2) & \cdots & 0 \end{bmatrix}
```

Proximity Measures for Nominal Attributes

- A nominal attribute can take on M states
 - Example: map_color has 5 states (red, yellow, green, pink, and blue).
- Dissimilarity between two objects xi and xj with nominal attributes can be computed based on the ratio of mismatches:

$$d(i,j) = \frac{p-m}{p}$$

p: the total number of attributes

m: the number of attributes **k** that $x_{ik} = x_{jk}$

Proximity Measures for Nominal Attributes

 Example: A Sample Data Table Containing Attributes of Mixed Type

Object	test-l	test-2	test-3
ldentifier	(nominal)	(ordinal)	(numeric)
1	code A	excellent	45
2	code B	fair	22
3	code C	good	64
4	code A	excellent	28

Dissimilarity Matrix based on test-1 attribute:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & & & \\ 1 & 0 & & \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Proximity Measures for Binary Attributes

- Recall:
 - Binary attributes have 2 states (0, 1)
 - A binary attribute can be symmetric or asymmetric.
- Assume that all binary attributes have the same weights, we have 2x2 contingency table:

	Object j				
		1	0	sum	
	1	9	r	q+r	
Object i	0	S	t	s+t	
	sum	q+s	r+t	p	

q: the number of attributes that equal 1 for both i,j r (s): the number of attributes that equal 1 for i (j); and 0 for j (i) t: the number of attributes that equal 0 for both i and j.

Proximity Measures for Binary Attributes

The dissimilarity between i and j is:

$$d(i,j) = \frac{r+s}{q+r+s+t}.$$

 The asymmetric binary dissimilarity (for asymmetric binary attributes):

$$d(i,j) = \frac{r+s}{q+r+s}.$$

The similarity between the objects i and j can be computed as:

$$sim(i,j) = 1 - d(i,j)$$

(Jaccard coefficient)

Proximity Measures for Binary Attributes

Example: Relational Table Where Patients Are Described by Binary Attributes

name	gender	fever	cough	test-l	test-2	test-3	test-4
Jack	M	Y	N	P	N	N	N
Jim	M	Y	Y	N	N	N	N
Mary	F	Y	N	P	N	P	N
:	÷	÷	÷	:	:	:	:

The distances between each pair of the three patients:

$$d(Jack, Jim) = \frac{1+1}{1+1+1} = 0.67,$$

$$d(Jack, Mary) = \frac{0+1}{2+0+1} = 0.33,$$

$$d(Jim, Mary) = \frac{1+2}{1+1+2} = 0.75.$$

Dissimilarity of Numeric Data

- Distance measures that are commonly used for numeric attributes. Let $x_i = (x_{i1}, x_{i2}, ..., x_{ip})$ and $x_j = (x_{j1}, x_{j2}, ..., x_{jp})$ be two objects described by **p** numeric attributes.
- The Euclidean distance between i and j is:

$$d(i,j) = \sqrt{(x_{i1}-x_{j1})^2 + (x_{i2}-x_{j2})^2 + \cdots + (x_{ip}-x_{jp})^2}.$$

The Manhattan (or city block) distance:

$$d(i,j) = |x_{i1} - x_{j1}| + |x_{i2} - x_{j2}| + \cdots + |x_{ip} - x_{jp}|.$$

 The Minkowski distance is the generalization of the two above distances:

$$d(i,j) = \sqrt[h]{|x_{i1} - x_{j1}|^h + |x_{i2} - x_{j2}|^h + \cdots + |x_{ip} - x_{jp}|^h}$$

Dissimilarity of Numeric Data

- Minkowski distance
 - When h=2, we have Euclidean distance (or L2 distance)
 - When h=1, we have Manhattan distance (L1 distance/ L1 norm)
 - The **Supremum distance** (also L_{max} or L_{∞} , or Chebyshev distance):

$$d(i,j) = \lim_{h \to \infty} \left(\sum_{f=1}^{p} |x_{if} - x_{jf}|^h \right)^{\frac{1}{h}} = \max_{f} |x_{if} - x_{jf}|.$$

Proximity Measures for Ordinal Attributes

- The values of ordinal attribute have a meaningful order or ranking among them
 - Example: size attribute with values (small, medium, large)
- Suppose that f is an attribute from a set of ordinal attributes describing n objects; f has M_f values with ranks 1, ..., M_f
 - Replace each x_{if} by its corresponding rank r_{if}
 - Normalize to the range [0,1] to make all the ordinal attributes have the same weights:

$$z_{if}=\frac{r_{if}-1}{M_f-1}.$$

• Dissimilarity can be computed on normalized values z_{if} using distances for numeric attributes

Proximity Measures for Ordinal Attributes

 Example: A Sample Data Table Containing Attributes of Mixed Type

Object	test-l	test-2	test-3	
ldentifier	(nominal)	(ordinal)	(numeric)	
1	code A	excellent	45	
2	code B	fair	22	
3	code C	good	64	
4	code A	excellent	28	

Dissimilarity Matrix based on test-2 attribute:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1.0 & 0 \\ 0.5 & 0.5 & 0 \\ 0 & 1.0 & 0.5 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Dissimilarity for Attributes of Mixed Types

- How to compute the dissimilarity between objects described by mixed attributes?
- Suppose that the data set contains p attributes of mixed type.
 The dissimilarity between i and j is:

$$d(i, j) = \frac{\sum_{f=1}^{p} \delta_{ij}^{(f)} d_{ij}^{(f)}}{\sum_{f=1}^{p} \delta_{ij}^{(f)}}$$

- The indicator $\delta_{ij}^{(f)}$
 - 0 if x_{if} or x_{jf} are missing; or $x_{if} = x_{jf} = 0$ and attribute f is asymmetric binary;
 - 1 otherwise.

Dissimilarity for Attributes of Mixed Types

- The contribution of attribute f to the dissimilarity is computed dependent on its type.
 - If f is numeric: $d_{ij}^{(f)} = \frac{|x_{if} x_{jf}|}{max_h x_{hf} min_h x_{hf}}$ where h runs over all nonmissing objects for attribute f.
 - If f is nominal or binary: $d_{ij}^{(f)} = 0$ if $x_{if} = x_{jf}$; otherwise, $d_{ij}^{(f)} = 1$.
 - If f is ordinal: compute the ranks and normalized, then treat the resulted value as numeric.

Dissimilarity for Attributes of Mixed Types

Example: A Sample Data Table Containing Attributes of Mixed Type

Object Identifier	test-l (nominal)	test-2 (ordinal)	test-3 (numeric)
1	code A	excellent	45
2	code B	fair	22
3	code C	good	64
4	code A	excellent	28

Dissimilarity Matrix based on **test-3 attribute**:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0.55} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0.45} & \mathbf{1.00} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0.40} & \mathbf{0.14} & \mathbf{0.86} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \quad d(1,2) = \frac{|45 - 22|}{|64 - 22|} \approx 0.55$$

Dissimilarity for Attributes of Mixed Types

- Note that $\,\delta^{(f)}_{ij}=1\,$ for all i,j, f
- Recall:
 - Dissimilarity matrix based on test-1 and test-2 attribute

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & & & \\ 1 & 0 & & \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}. \qquad \begin{bmatrix} 0 & & & \\ 1.0 & 0 & & \\ 0.5 & 0.5 & 0 & \\ 0 & 1.0 & 0.5 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Dissimilarity based on 3 attributes:

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Document Representation: TF.IDF

- TF.IDF (Term Frequency times Inverse Document Frequency)
 - Let f_{ik} to be the frequency (number of occurances) of term (word) k in document i; define the term frequency to be:

$$TF_{ik} = \frac{f_{ik}}{\max_l f_{lk}}$$

- The IDF for a term is defined as follows:
 - Suppose term k appears in n_k of N documents. Then

$$IDF_k = \log_2(N/n_k)$$

Measuring similarity between documents

- Term vector (using TF or TFIDF) are sparse
- Cosine similarity:

$$sim(x, y) = \frac{x \cdot y}{||x|| ||y||},$$

•
$$||x|| = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \cdots + x_p^2}$$
.

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