Data Warehousing and Data Mining

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Slides are based on Prof. Han and Prof. Tan's works.

Chapter 2: Getting to Know Your Data

Data Objects and Attribute Types



- An Example of Clustering
- Basic Statistical Descriptions of Data
- Measuring Data Similarity and Dissimilarity
- Summary

What is Data?

- Collection of data objects and their attributes
- An attribute is a property or characteristic of an object
 - Examples: eye color of a person, temperature, etc.
 - Attribute is also known as variable, field, characteristic, or feature
 Objects
- A collection of attributes describe an object
 - Object is also known as record, point, case, sample, entity, or instance

Attributes

Tid	Refund	Marital Status	Taxable Income	Cheat
1	Yes	Single	125K	No
2	No	Married	100K	No
3	No	Single	70K	No
4	Yes	Married	120K	No
5	No	Divorced	95K	Yes
6	No	Married	60K	No
7	Yes	Divorced	220K	No
8	No	Single	85K	Yes
9	No	Married	75K	No
10	No	Single	90K	Yes

Attributes

- Attribute (or dimensions, features, variables): a data field, representing a characteristic or feature of a data object.
 - E.g., customer _ID, name, address
- Types:
 - Nominal
 - Binary
 - Numeric: quantitative
 - Interval-scaled
 - Ratio-scaled

Attribute Types

- Nominal: categories, states, or "names of things"
 - Hair_color = {auburn, black, blond, brown, grey, red, white}
 - marital status, occupation, ID numbers, zip codes

Binary

- Nominal attribute with only 2 states (0 and 1)
- Symmetric binary: both outcomes equally important
 - e.g., gender
- Asymmetric binary: outcomes not equally important.
 - e.g., medical test (positive vs. negative)
 - Convention: assign 1 to most important outcome (e.g., HIV positive)

Ordinal

- Values have a meaningful order (ranking) but magnitude between successive values is not known.
- Size = {small, medium, large}, grades, army rankings

Numeric Attribute Types

- Quantity (integer or real-valued)
- Interval
 - Measured on a scale of equal-sized units
 - Values have order
 - E.g., temperature in C°or F°, calendar dates
 - No true zero-point

Ratio

- Inherent zero-point
- We can speak of values as being an order of magnitude larger than the unit of measurement (10 K° is twice as high as 5 K°).
 - e.g., temperature in Kelvin, length, counts, monetary quantities

Properties of Attribute Values

The type of an attribute depends on which of the following properties it possesses:

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■ Distinctness: = ≠
```

```
Order: < >
```

- Addition: + -
- Multiplication: * /
- Nominal attribute: distinctness
- Ordinal attribute: distinctness & order
- Interval attribute: distinctness, order & addition
- Ratio attribute: all 4 properties

Attribute Type	Description	Examples	Operations
Nominal	The values of a nominal attribute are just different names, i.e., nominal attributes provide only enough information to distinguish one object from another. $(=, \neq)$	zip codes, employee ID numbers, eye color, sex: {male, female}	mode, entropy, contingency correlation, χ^2 test
Ordinal	The values of an ordinal attribute provide enough information to order objects. (<, >)	hardness of minerals, {good, better, best}, grades, street numbers	median, percentiles, rank correlation, run tests, sign tests
Interval	For interval attributes, the differences between values are meaningful, i.e., a unit of measurement exists. (+, -)	calendar dates, temperature in Celsius or Fahrenheit	mean, standard deviation, Pearson's correlation, <i>t</i> and <i>F</i> tests
Ratio	For ratio variables, both differences and ratios are meaningful. (*, /)	temperature in Kelvin, monetary quantities, counts, age, mass, length, electrical current	geometric mean, harmonic mean, percent variation

Attribute Level	Transformation	Comments
Nominal	Any permutation of values	If all employee ID numbers were reassigned, would it make any difference?
Ordinal	An order preserving change of values, i.e., $new_value = f(old_value)$ where f is a monotonic function.	An attribute encompassing the notion of good, better best can be represented equally well by the values {1, 2, 3} or by { 0.5, 1, 10}.
Interval	$new_value = a * old_value + b$ where a and b are constants	Thus, the Fahrenheit and Celsius temperature scales differ in terms of where their zero value is and the size of a unit (degree).
Ratio	new_value = a * old_value	Length can be measured in meters or feet.

Discrete vs. Continuous Attributes

Discrete Attribute

- Has only a finite or countably infinite set of values
 - E.g., zip codes, profession, or the set of words in a collection of documents
- Sometimes, represented as integer variables
- Note: Binary attributes are a special case of discrete attributes

Continuous Attribute

- Has real numbers as attribute values
 - E.g., temperature, height, or weight
- Practically, real values can only be measured and represented using a finite number of digits
- Continuous attributes are typically represented as floating-point variables

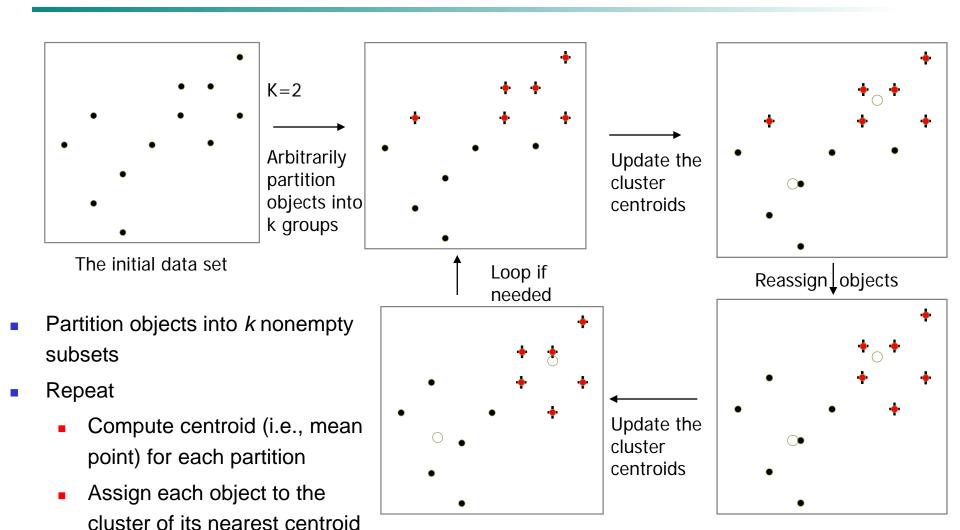
Chapter 2: Getting to Know Your Data

- Data Objects and Attribute Types
- An Example of Clustering



- Basic Statistical Descriptions of Data
- Measuring Data Similarity and Dissimilarity
- Summary

An Example of *K-Means* Clustering



Until no change

Chapter 2: Getting to Know Your Data

- Data Objects and Attribute Types
- An Example of Clustering
- Basic Statistical Descriptions of Data



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Basic Statistical Descriptions of Data

Motivation

- To better understand the data: central tendency, variation and spread
- Data dispersion characteristics
 - median, max, min, quantiles, outliers, variance, etc.
- Numerical dimensions correspond to sorted intervals
 - Data dispersion: analyzed with multiple granularities of precision
 - Boxplot or quantile analysis on sorted intervals
- Dispersion analysis on computed measures
 - Folding measures into numerical dimensions
 - Boxplot or quantile analysis on the transformed cube

Measuring the Central Tendency

- $\overline{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i \qquad \mu = \frac{\sum x}{N}$ Mean (algebraic measure) (sample vs. population): Note: *n* is sample size and *N* is population size.
 - Weighted arithmetic mean:
 - $\overline{x} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i x_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i}$ Trimmed mean: chopping extreme values
- <u>Median</u>:
 - Middle value if odd number of values, or average of the middle two values otherwise
 - Estimated by interpolation (for *grouped data*):

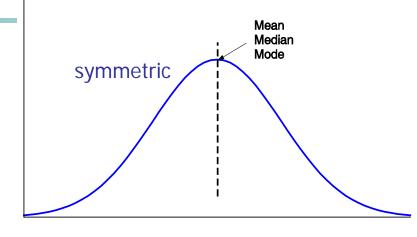
$median = L_1 + (\frac{n}{m})$	$2 - (\sum freq)l$	-)width
$mean - L_1 + ($	$\mathit{freq}_{\mathit{median}}$) w iairi

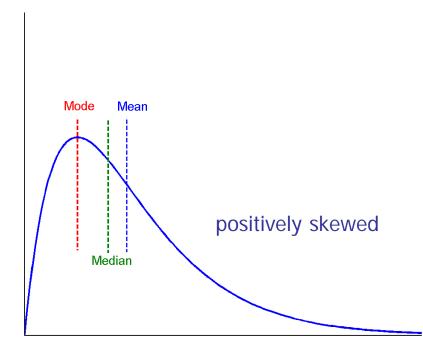
- Mode
 - Value that occurs most frequently in the data
 - Unimodal, bimodal, trimodal
 - Empirical formula: $mean - mode = 3 \times (mean - median)$

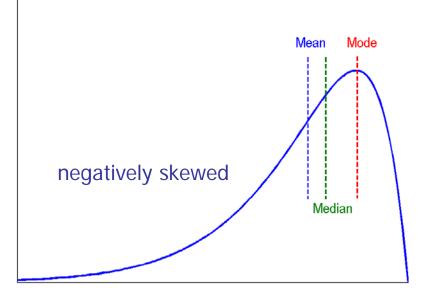
age	frequency
$\overline{1-5}$	200

Symmetric vs. Skewed Da

 Median, mean and mode of symmetric, positively and negatively skewed data







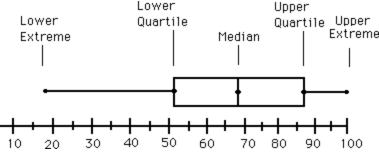
Measuring the Dispersion of Data

- Quartiles, outliers and boxplots
 - Quartiles: Q₁ (25th percentile), Q₃ (75th percentile)
 - Inter-quartile range: $IQR = Q_3 Q_1$
 - **Five number summary**: min, Q_1 , median, Q_3 , max
 - **Boxplot**: ends of the box are the quartiles; median is marked; add whiskers, and plot outliers individually
 - Outlier: usually, a value higher/lower than 1.5 x IQR
- Variance and standard deviation (sample: s, population: σ)
 - Variance: (algebraic, scalable computation)

$$s^{2} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \overline{x})^{2} = \frac{1}{n-1} \left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}^{2} - \frac{1}{n} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} \right)^{2} \right] \qquad \sigma^{2} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \mu)^{2} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}^{2} - \mu^{2}$$

Standard deviation s (or σ) is the square root of variance s^2 (or σ^2)

Boxplot Analysis

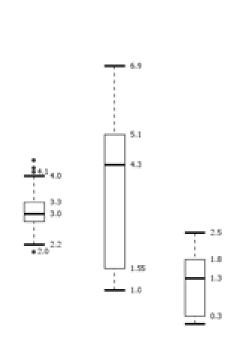


6.4

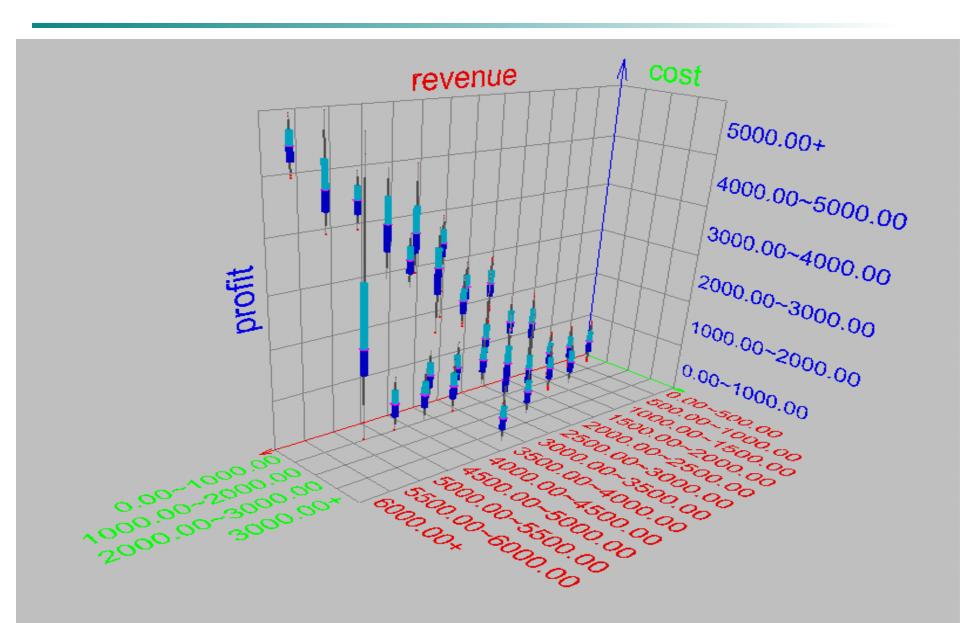
- Five-number summary of a distribution
 - Minimum, Q1, Median, Q3, Maximum

Boxplot

- Data is represented with a box
- The ends of the box are at the first and third quartiles, i.e., the height of the box is IQR
- The median is marked by a line within the box
- Whiskers: two lines outside the box extended to Minimum and Maximum
- Outliers: points beyond a specified outlier threshold, plotted individually

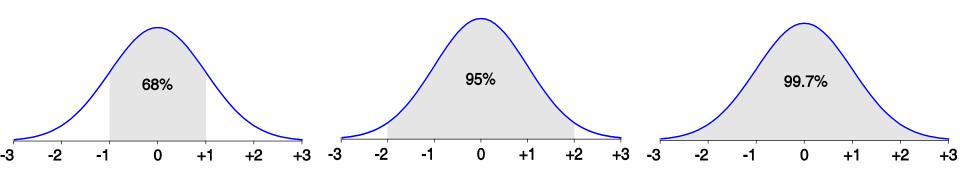


Visualization of Data Dispersion: 3-D Boxplots



Properties of Normal Distribution Curve

- The normal (distribution) curve
 - From μ – σ to μ + σ : contains about 68% of the measurements (μ : mean, σ : standard deviation)
 - From μ –2 σ to μ +2 σ : contains about 95% of it
 - From μ –3 σ to μ +3 σ : contains about 99.7% of it

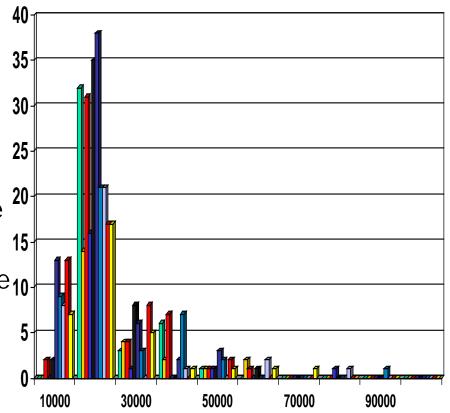


Graphic Displays of Basic Statistical Descriptions

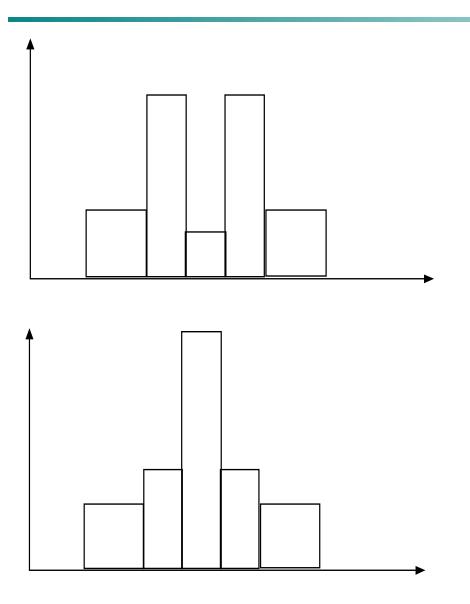
- Boxplot: graphic display of five-number summary
- Histogram: x-axis are values, y-axis repres. frequencies
- **Quantile plot**: each value x_i is paired with f_i indicating that approximately 100 f_i % of data are $\leq x_i$
- Quantile-quantile (q-q) plot: graphs the quantiles of one univariant distribution against the corresponding quantiles of another
- Scatter plot: each pair of values is a pair of coordinates and plotted as points in the plane

Histogram Analysis

- Histogram: Graph display of tabulated frequencies, shown as bars
- It shows what proportion of cases fall into each of several categories
- Differs from a bar chart in that it is the area of the bar that denotes the value, not the height as in bar charts, a crucial distinction when the tategories are not of uniform width
- The categories are usually specified as non-overlapping intervals of some variable. The categories (bars) must be adjacent



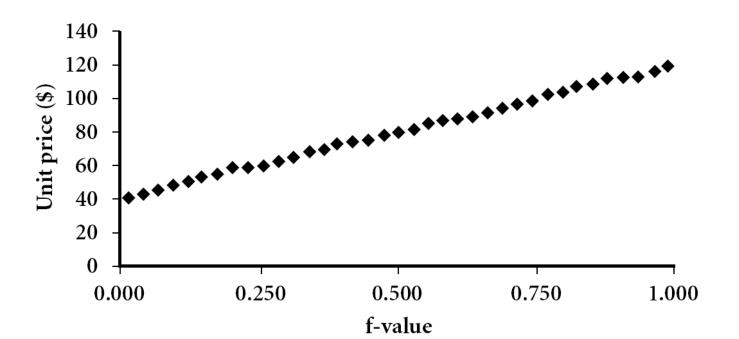
Histograms Often Tell More than Boxplots



- The two histograms shown in the left may have the same boxplot representation
 - The same values for: min, Q1, median, Q3, max
- But they have rather different data distributions

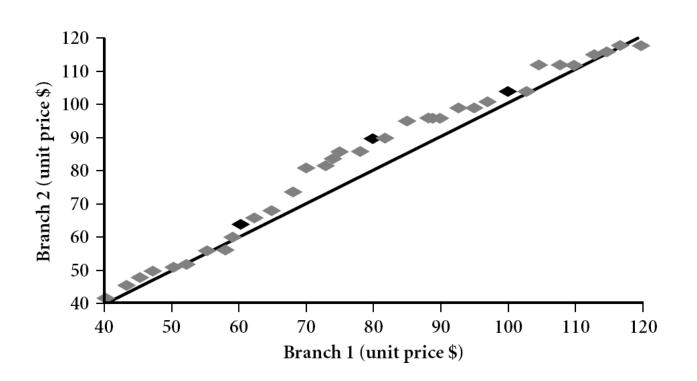
Quantile Plot

- Displays all of the data (allowing the user to assess both the overall behavior and unusual occurrences)
- Plots quantile information
 - For a data x_i data sorted in increasing order, f_i indicates that approximately 100 f_i% of the data are below or equal to the value x_i



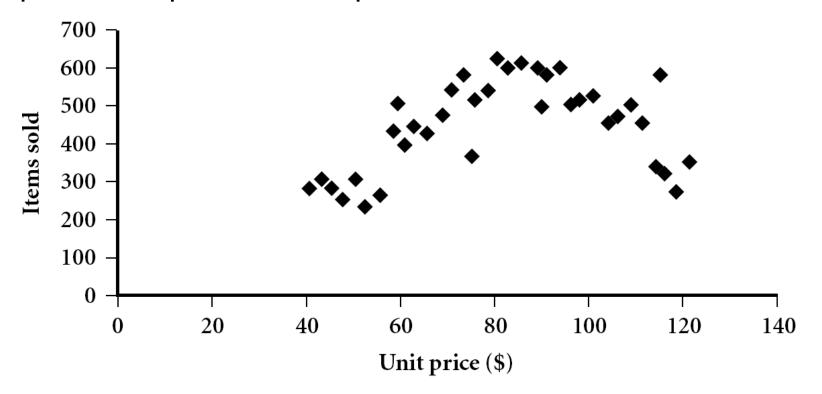
Quantile-Quantile (Q-Q) Plot

- Graphs the quantiles of one univariate distribution against the corresponding quantiles of another
- View: Is there is a shift in going from one distribution to another?
- Example shows unit price of items sold at Branch 1 vs. Branch 2 for each quantile. Unit prices of items sold at Branch 1 tend to be lower than those at Branch 2.

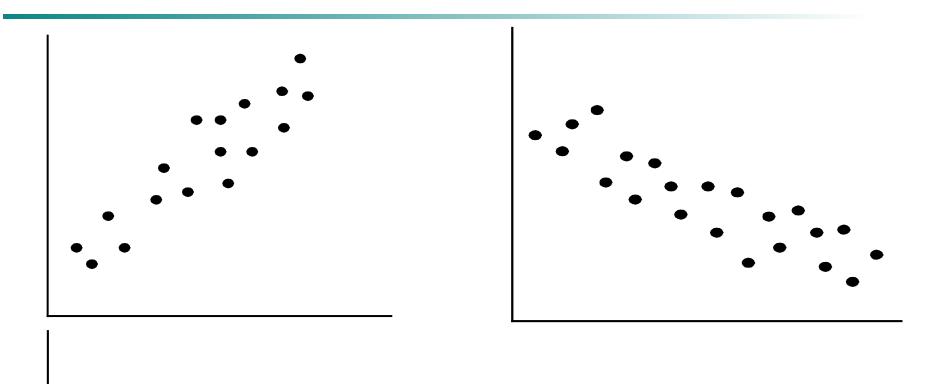


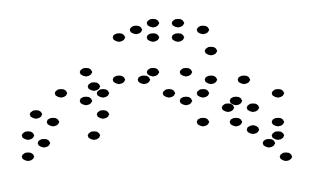
Scatter plot

- Provides a first look at bivariate data to see clusters of points, outliers, etc
- Each pair of values is treated as a pair of coordinates and plotted as points in the plane



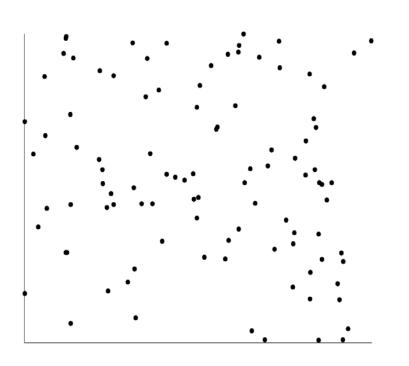
Positively and Negatively Correlated Data

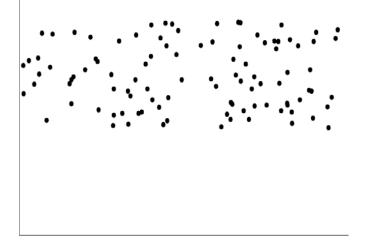


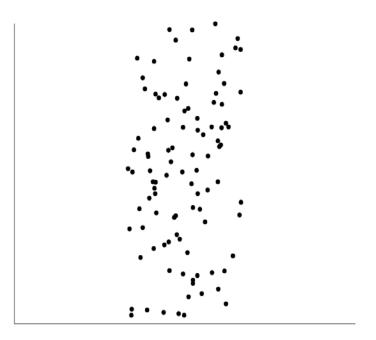


- The left half fragment is positively correlated
- The right half is negative correlated

Uncorrelated Data







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Summary

Similarity and Dissimilarity

Similarity

- Numerical measure of how alike two data objects are
- Value is higher when objects are more alike
- Often falls in the range [0,1]
- Dissimilarity (e.g., distance)
 - Numerical measure of how different two data objects are
 - Lower when objects are more alike
 - Minimum dissimilarity is often 0
 - Upper limit varies
- Proximity refers to a similarity or dissimilarity

Data Matrix and Dissimilarity Matrix

Data matrix

- n data points with p dimensions
- Two modes

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

Dissimilarity matrix

- n data points, but registers only the distance
- A triangular matrix
- Single mode

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

Proximity Measure for Nominal Attributes

- Can take 2 or more states, e.g., red, yellow, blue, green (generalization of a binary attribute)
- Method 1: Simple matching
 - m: # of matches, p: total # of variables

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

- Method 2: Use a large number of binary attributes
 - creating a new binary attribute for each of the *M* nominal states

Proximity Measure for Binary Attributes

- A contingency table for binary data
- Distance measure for symmetric binary variables:
- Distance measure for asymmetric binary variables:
- Jaccard coefficient (similarity measure for asymmetric binary variables):

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

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

$$sim_{Jaccard}(i, j) = \frac{q}{q + r + s}$$

Note: Jaccard coefficient is the same as "coherence":

$$coherence(i,j) = \frac{sup(i,j)}{sup(i) + sup(j) - sup(i,j)} = \frac{q}{(q+r) + (q+s) - q}$$

Dissimilarity between Binary Variables

Example

Name	Gender	Fever	Cough	Test-1	Test-2	Test-3	Test-4
Jack	M	Y	N	P	N	N	N
Mary	F	Y	N	P	N	P	N
Jim	M	Y	P	N	N	N	N

- Gender is a symmetric attribute
- The remaining attributes are asymmetric binary
- Let the values Y and P be 1, and the value N 0

Dissimilarity between Binary Variables

Example

Name	Gender	Fever	Cough	Test-1	Test-2	Test-3	Test-4
Jack	M	Y	N	P	N	N	N
Mary	F	Y	N	P	N	P	N
Jim	M	Y	P	N	N	N	N

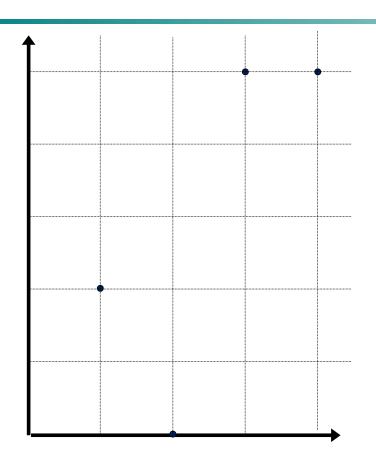
- Gender is a symmetric attribute
- The remaining attributes are asymmetric binary
- Let the values Y and P be 1, and the value N 0

$$d(jack, mary) = \frac{0+1}{2+0+1} = 0.33$$

$$d(jack, jim) = \frac{1+1}{1+1+1} = 0.67$$

$$d(jim, mary) = \frac{1+2}{1+1+2} = 0.75$$

Example: Data Matrix and Dissimilarity Matrix



Data Matrix

point	attribute1	attribute2
<i>x1</i>	1	2
<i>x</i> 2	3	5
<i>x3</i>	2	0
<i>x4</i>	4	5

Dissimilarity Matrix

(with Euclidean Distance)

	<i>x1</i>	<i>x</i> 2	<i>x3</i>	<i>x4</i>
<i>x1</i>	0			
<i>x</i> 2	3.61	0		
<i>x3</i>	5.1	5.1	0	
<i>x4</i>	4.24	1	5.39	0

Distance on Numeric Data: Minkowski Distance

Minkowski distance: A popular distance measure

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

where $i = (x_{i1}, x_{i2}, ..., x_{ip})$ and $j = (x_{j1}, x_{j2}, ..., x_{jp})$ are two p-dimensional data objects, and h is the order (the distance so defined is also called L-h norm)

- Properties
 - d(i, j) > 0 if $i \neq j$, and d(i, i) = 0 (Positive definiteness)
 - d(i, j) = d(j, i) (Symmetry)
 - d(i, j) ≤ d(i, k) + d(k, j) (Triangle Inequality)
- A distance that satisfies these properties is a metric

Special Cases of Minkowski Distance

- h = 1: Manhattan (city block, L₁ norm) distance
 - E.g., the Hamming distance: the number of bits that are different between two binary vectors

$$d(i,j) = |x_{i_1} - x_{j_1}| + |x_{i_2} - x_{j_2}| + ... + |x_{i_p} - x_{j_p}|$$

• h = 2: (L₂ norm) Euclidean distance

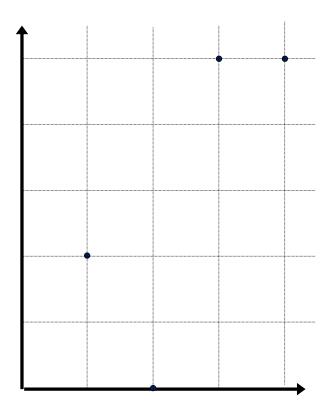
$$d(i,j) = \sqrt{(|x_{i1} - x_{j1}|^2 + |x_{i2} - x_{j2}|^2 + ... + |x_{ip} - x_{jp}|^2)}$$

- $h \to \infty$. "supremum" (L_{max} norm, L_{∞} norm) distance.
 - This is the maximum difference between any component (attribute) of the vectors

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

Example: Minkowski Distance

point	attribute 1	attribute 2
x1	1	2
x2	3	5
x 3	2	0
x4	4	5



Manhattan (L₁)

L	x1	x2	x3	x4
x1				
x2				
х3				
x4	V	_		V

Euclidean (L₂)

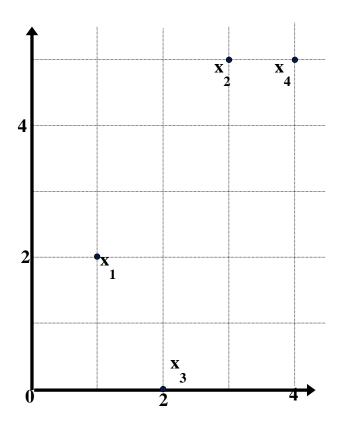
L2	x1	x2	x 3	x4
x1	0			
x2	3.61	0		
х3	2.24	5.1	0	
x4	4.24	1	5.39	0

Supremum

L_{∞}	x1	x2	х3	x4
x1				
x2				
x 3				
x4	_		_	

Example: Minkowski Distance

point	attribute 1	attribute 2
x1	1	2
x2	3	5
x 3	2	0
x4	4	5



Manhattan (L₁)

L	x1	x2	x 3	x4
x1	0			
x2	5	0		
x 3	3	6	0	
x4	6	1	7	0

Euclidean (L₂)

L2	x1	x2	x 3	x4
x1	0			
x2	3.61	0		
х3	2.24	5.1	0	
x4	4.24	1	5.39	0

Supremum

${ m L}_{\infty}$	x1	x2	x 3	x4
x1	0			
x2	3	0		
x 3	2	5	0	
x4	3	1	5	0

Distance between data

Comparison between Ordinal Attributes:

Questions:

- The grade of example have 5 levels such as A,B,C,D,E, how to judge the grade of two students in 5 courses
- There are 100 people participate in the election, and there are 20 juries, how to give the final results by integrating the results of these 20 juries?

2. Way Out:

- Convert the result of level into corresponding number
- Convert all different attributes which have different levels into [0,1]
- 3. Use the way to calculate the distance after converting all ordinal attributes to numeric attributes

Distance between data

Ordinal Attributes: Complex Examples

- In the given table, the three attributes is nominal, ordinal and numeric attribute, 1. and we need to calculate the distance
- Problem: we can calculate the distance for each individual attribute, but how to 2. integrate them? Since all attributes have different physical meanings
- Assuming fair=0, good=0.5, excellent=1

Table 2.2: A of mixed ty		table contair	ning attributes
object		$test-2 \ (ordinal)$	$test-3 \ (numeric\)$
1	code-A	excellent	45
2	code-B	fair	22

good

excellent

code-C

code-A

$$Dist(test - 1) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & & & \\ 1 & 0 & & \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$Dist(test - 2) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & & & \\ 1.0 & 0 & & \\ 0.5 & 0.5 & 0 & \\ 0 & 1.0 & 0.5 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$Dist(test - 3) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & & & \\ 0.55 & 0 & & \\ 0.45 & 1 & 0 & \\ 0.40 & 0.14 & 0.86 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Convert the distance of each dimension into [0,1], and then calculate the 4. weighted sum of all dimensions. Assuming the weight of each dimension is equivalent, we have D = (Dist(test - 1) + Dist(test - 2) + Dist(test - 2))

dimension?

3

How to determine the weight of each
$$3))/3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0.85 & 0 \\ 0.65 & 0.83 & 0 \\ 0.13 & 0.71 & 0.79 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Cosine Similarity

 A document can be represented by thousands of attributes, each recording the frequency of a particular word (such as keywords) or phrase in the document.

Document	team	coach	hockey	baseball	soccer	penalty	score	win	loss	season
Document1	5	0	3	0	2	0	0	2	0	0
Document2	3	0	2	0	1	1	0	1	0	1
Document3	0	7	0	2	1	0	0	3	0	0
Document4	0	1	0	0	1	2	2	0	3	0

- Other vector objects: gene features in micro-arrays, ...
- Applications: information retrieval, biologic taxonomy, gene feature mapping, ...
- Cosine measure: If d_1 and d_2 are two vectors (e.g., term-frequency vectors), then

$$cos(d_1, d_2) = (d_1 \cdot d_2) / ||d_1|| ||d_2||,$$

where • indicates vector dot product, ||d||: the length of vector d

Example: Cosine Similarity

- $cos(d_1, d_2) = (d_1 \cdot d_2) / ||d_1|| ||d_2||$, where • indicates vector dot product, ||d|: the length of vector d
- Ex: Find the similarity between documents 1 and 2.

$$d_{1} = (5, 0, 3, 0, 2, 0, 0, 2, 0, 0)$$

$$d_{2} = (3, 0, 2, 0, 1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1)$$

$$d_{1} \bullet d_{2} = 5*3+0*0+3*2+0*0+2*1+0*1+0*1+2*1+0*0+0*1 = 25$$

$$||d_{1}|| = (5*5+0*0+3*3+0*0+2*2+0*0+0*0+2*2+0*0+0*0)^{0.5} = (42)^{0.5}$$

$$= 6.481$$

$$||d_{2}|| = (3*3+0*0+2*2+0*0+1*1+1*1+0*0+1*1+0*0+1*1)^{0.5} = (17)^{0.5}$$

$$= 4.12$$

$$\cos(d_{1}, d_{2}) = 0.94$$

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Summary

- Data attribute types: nominal, binary, ordinal, interval-scaled, ratioscaled
- Many types of data sets, e.g., numerical, text, graph, Web, image.
- Gain insight into the data by:
 - Basic statistical data description: central tendency, dispersion, graphical displays
 - Data visualization: map data onto graphical primitives
 - Measure data similarity
- Above steps are the beginning of data preprocessing.
- Many methods have been developed but still an active area of research.

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