

2018 EE448, Big Data Mining, Lecture 2

Fundamentals of Data Science Know Your Data

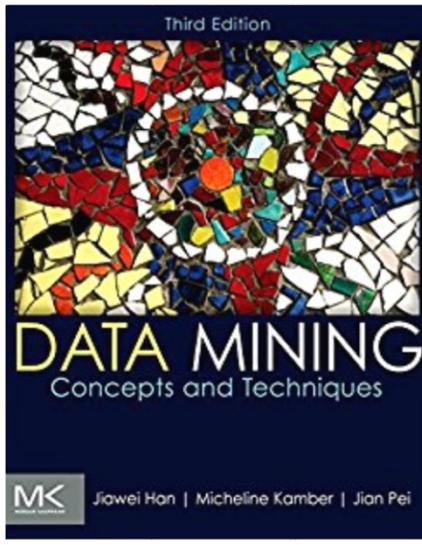
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Shanghai Jiao Tong University

<http://wnzhang.net>

<http://wnzhang.net/teaching/ee448/index.html>

References and Acknowledgement



- A large part of slides in this lecture are originally from Prof. Jiawei Han's book and lectures
 - http://hanj.cs.illinois.edu/bk3/bk3_slidesindex.htm
 - <https://wiki.cites.illinois.edu/wiki/display/cs512/Lectures>

Content

- Data Instances, Attributes and Types
- Basic Statistical Descriptions of Data
- Data Visualization
- Measuring Data Similarity and Dissimilarity

Data Instances

- Data sets are made up of data objects.
- A data object represents an entity.
- Examples:
 - sales database: *customers, store items, sales*
 - medical database: *patients, treatments*
 - university database: *students, professors, courses*
- Also called samples, examples, instances, data points, objects, tuples.
- Data objects are described by attributes.
- Database
 - rows -> data objects; columns -> attributes.

Data Instances

- A data instance represents an entity
 - Also called data points, data object



A news article



An image



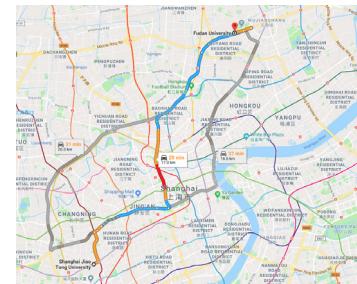
A song



A Facebook user profile



A transcript of a student



A trajectory of a car
from SJTU to FDU

Data Attributes

- Attribute (or dimensions, features, variables): a data field, representing a characteristic or feature of a data object.
 - E.g., `customer_ID`, `name`, `address`
- Attribute Types
 - Nominal
 - Binary
 - Ordinal
 - 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

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

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

Data Attributes

- A data attribute is a particular field of a data instance
 - Also called dimension, feature, variable in different literatures



The frequency of 'USA' in a news article



The upper left pixel RGB value of an image



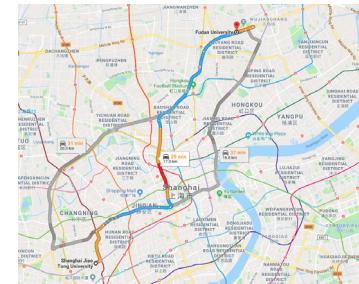
The pitch of the 320th frame of a song



The friend set of a Facebook user

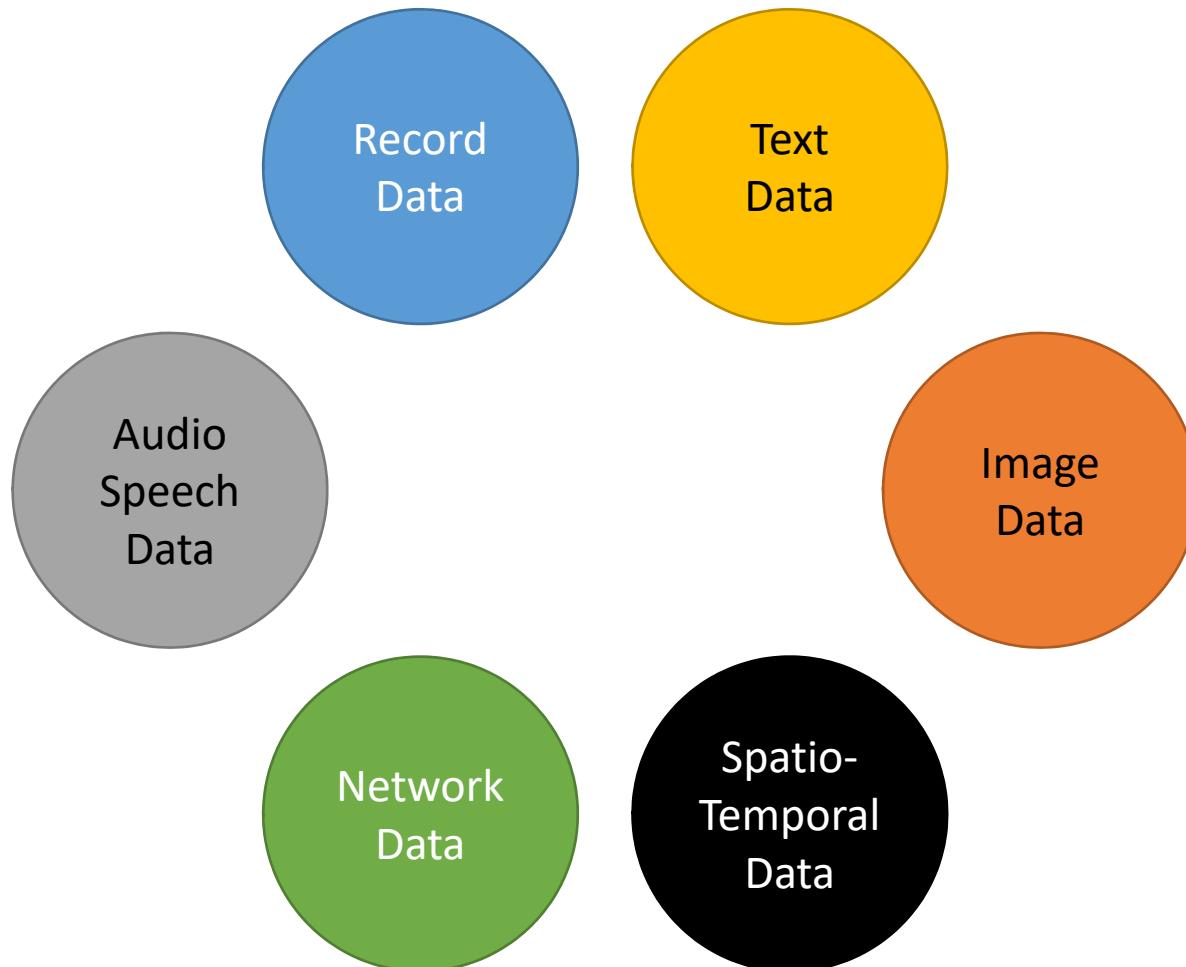
A photograph of a person's hand holding a blue pen, writing on a lined notebook. The notebook contains a grid of numbers, likely a student's transcript.

The Algebra score of a student's transcript



The time-location of the 3rd point of a trajectory

6 Major Data Types



Data Type 1: Record Data

- Very common in relational databases
 - Each row represents a data instance
 - Each column represents a data attribute

WEEKDAY	GENDER	AGE	CITY
TUESDAY	MALE	28	LONDON
MONDAY	FEMALE	24	NEW YORK
TUESDAY	FEMALE	36	HONG KONG
THURSDAY	MALE	17	TOKYO

JSON Format:

```
{  
    WEEKDAY: Monday;  
    GENDER: Female;  
    AGE: 24;  
    CITY: New York;  
}
```

- Term ‘KDD’: Knowledge discovery in databases

Data Type 2: Text Data

- A sequence of words/tokens that represents semantic meanings of human

Text mining, also referred to as text data mining, roughly equivalent to text analytics, is the process of deriving high-quality information from text.

Bag-of-Words Format:

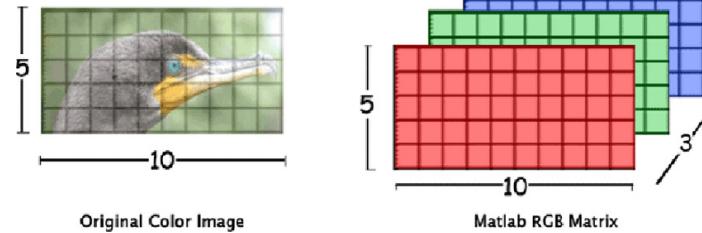
{

```
text: 4;  
mining: 2;  
also: 1;  
referred: 1;  
to: 2;  
as: 1;  
data: 1;  
roughly: 1;  
equivalent: 1;  
analytics: 1;  
is: 1;  
the: 1;  
process: 1;  
of: 1;  
deriving: 1;  
high-quality: 1;  
information: 1;  
from: 1;
```

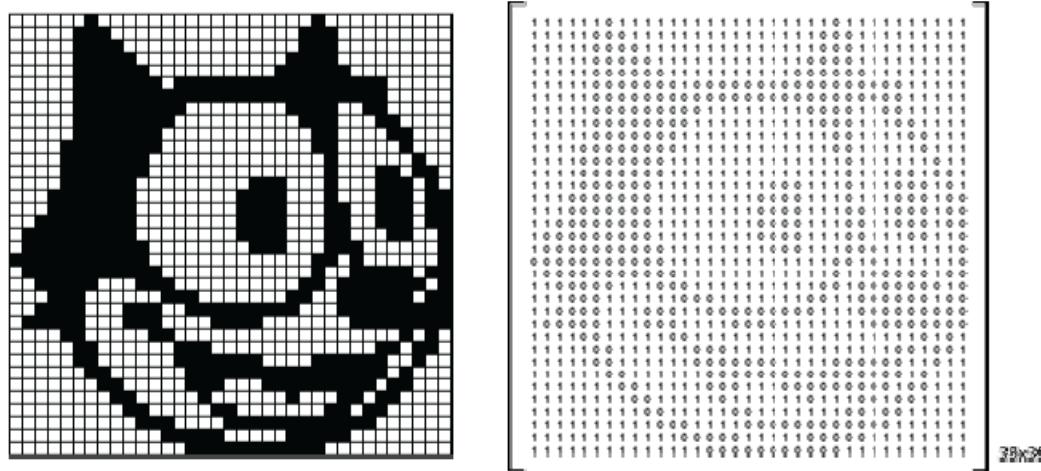
}

Data Type 3: Image Data

- A 3-layer matrix ($3 \times \text{height} \times \text{width}$) of [0,255] real value

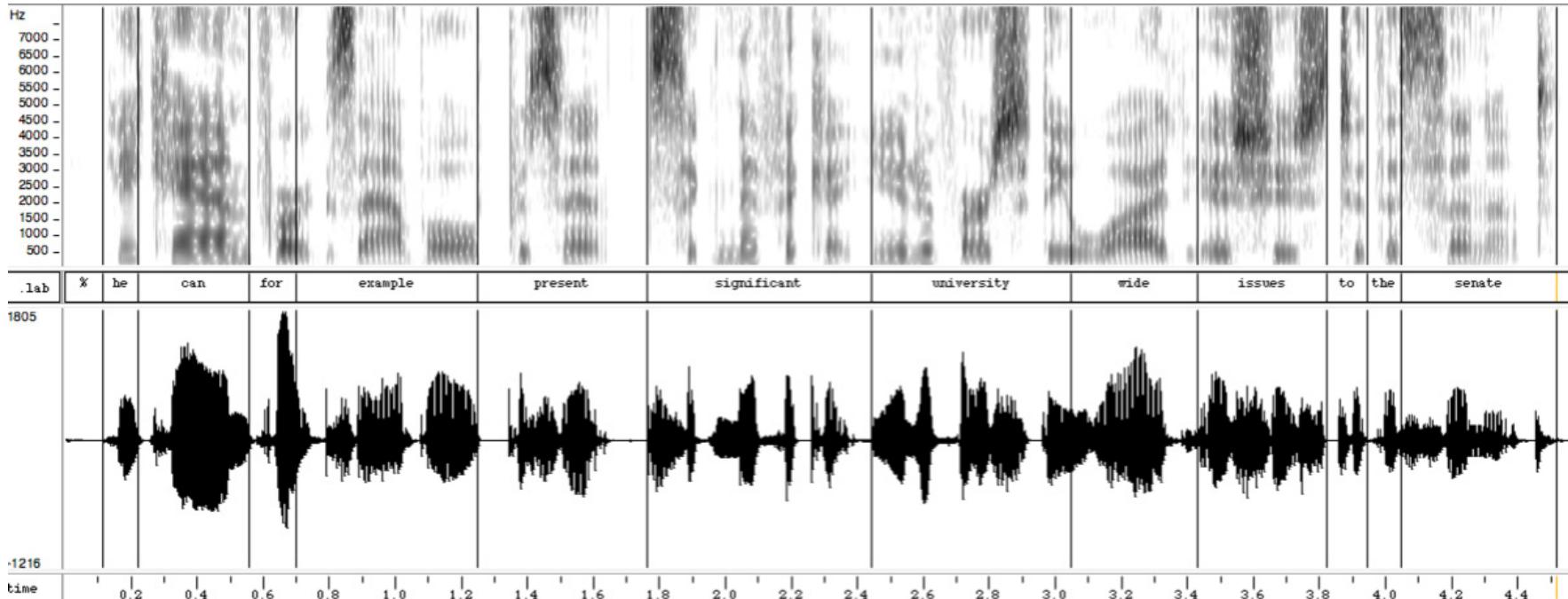


- A simple case: binary image
 - 1-layer matrix ($\text{height} \times \text{width}$) of {0,1} binary value



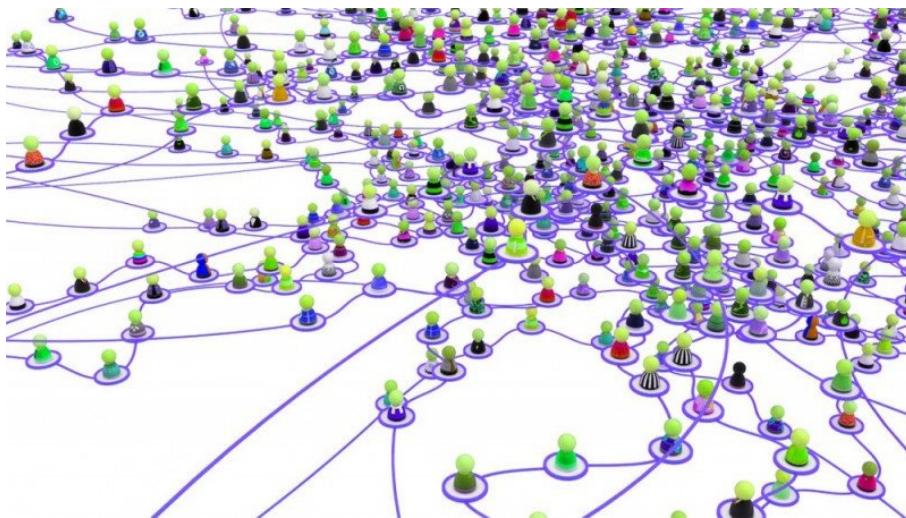
Data Type 4: Speech Data

- A sequence of multi-dimensional real vectors
 - Directly decoding from the audio/speech data



Data Type 5: Network Data

- A directed/undirected graph
 - Possibly with additional information for nodes and edges



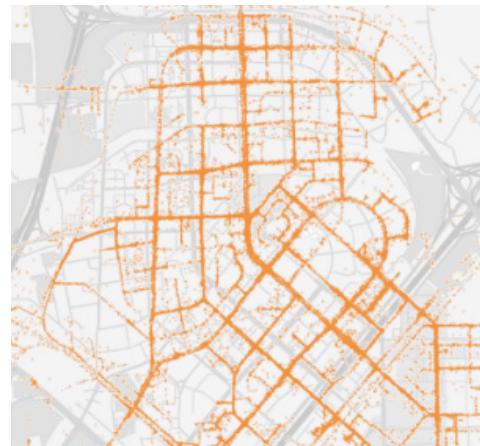
Friendship Format:

Alice	Bob
Bob	Carl
Carl	Victor
Bob	Victor
Alice	Victor
...	

Stanford network dataset collection: <https://snap.stanford.edu/data/>

Data Type 6: Spatio-Temporal Data

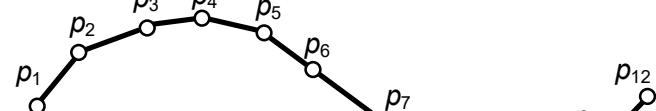
- A sequence of (time, location, info) tuples



- A spatio-temporal trajectory

$$p_1 \rightarrow p_2 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow p_n$$

$$p_i = (t, x, y, a)$$



- Time series data is a special case of ST data

- without location information $p_i = (t, a)$

Content

- Data Instances, Attributes and Types
- Basic Statistical Descriptions of Data
- Data Visualization
- Measuring Data Similarity and Dissimilarity

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

- Mean (algebraic measure) (sample vs. population)

$$\mu = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$$

- Weighted arithmetic mean:

$$\mu = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n w_i x_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n w_i}$$

- Trimmed mean: chopping extreme values

- Median

- Middle value if odd number of values, or average of the middle two values otherwise

- Example

- Five data points {1.2, 1.4, 1.5, 1.8, 10.2}
 - Mean: 3.22 Median: 1.5

Measuring the Central Tendency

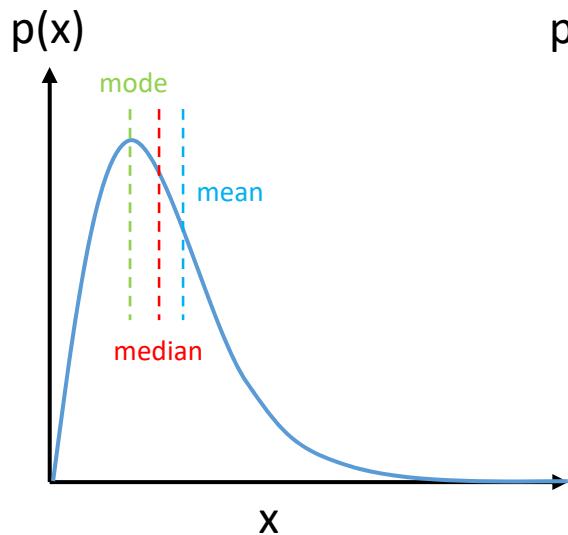
- Mode
 - Value that occurs most frequently in the data
 - Unimodal, bimodal, trimodal
 - Empirical formula:

$$\text{mean} - \text{mode} \simeq 3 \times (\text{mean} - \text{median})$$

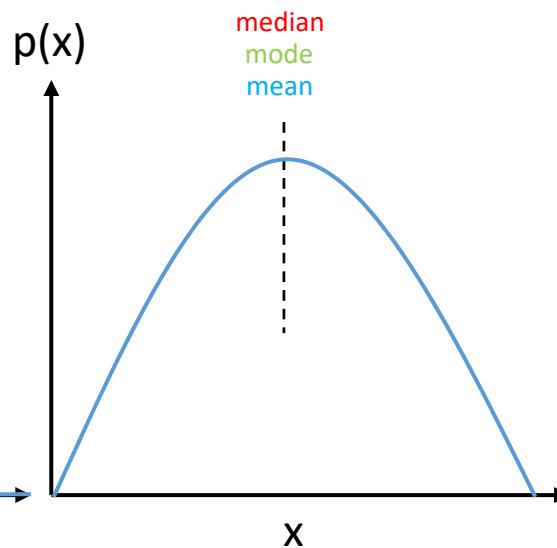
- Example
 - Five data points $\{1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 2, 2, 2, 3, 3\}$
 - Mean: 1.7 Median: 1.5 Mode: 1

Symmetric vs. Skewed Data

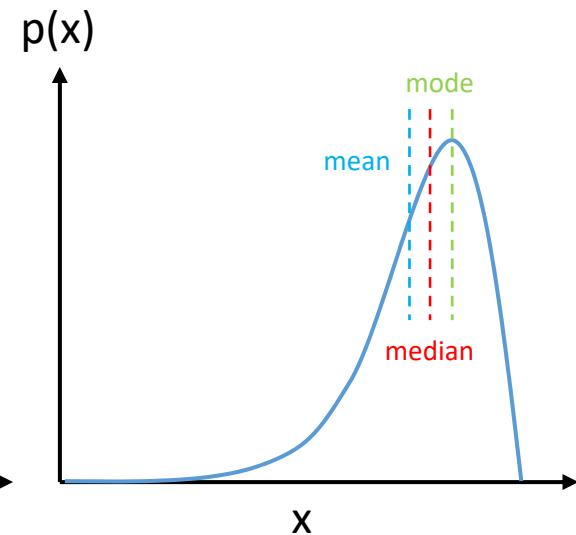
- Median, mean and mode of symmetric, positively and negatively skewed data



Positively skewed data
 $\text{mode} < \text{median}$



Symmetric data
 $\text{mode} = \text{median}$



Negatively skewed data
 $\text{mode} > \text{median}$

Measuring the Dispersion of Data

- Variance and standard deviation

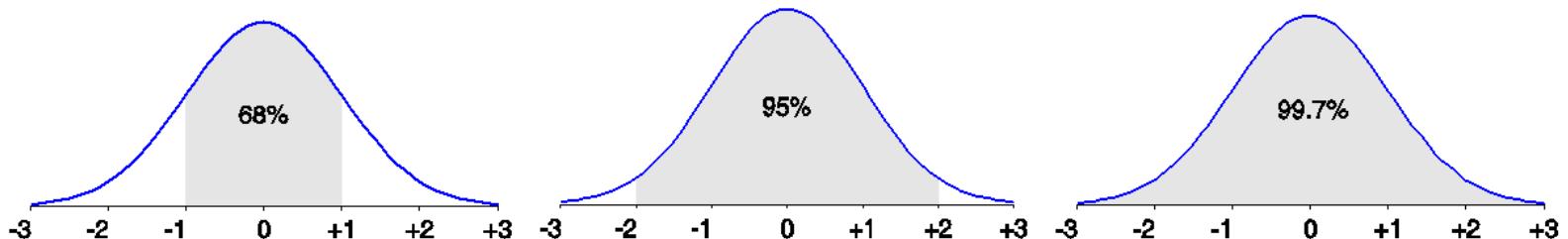
- Variance

$$\mu = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i = \mathbb{E}[x] \quad \sigma^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2 = \mathbb{E}[x^2] - \mathbb{E}[x]^2$$

- Standard deviation σ is the square root of variance σ^2

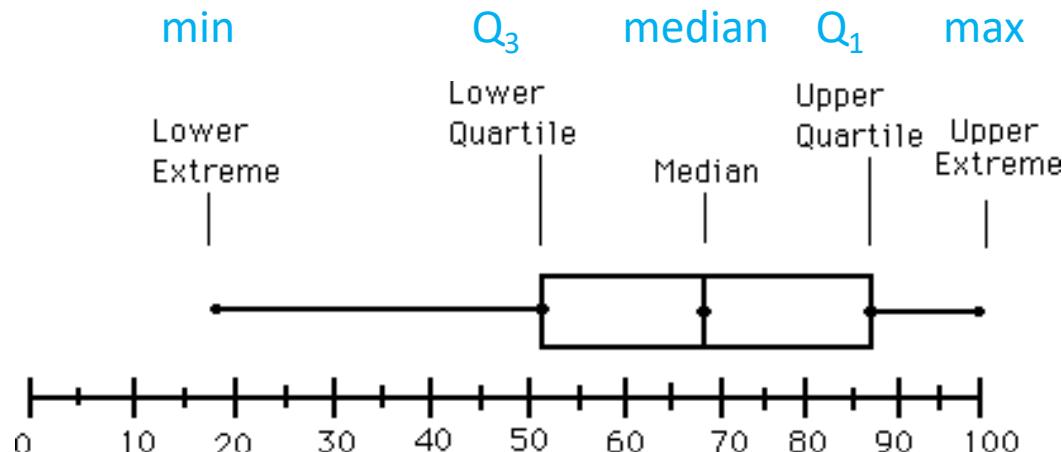
- The normal (distribution) curve

- From $\mu-\sigma$ to $\mu+\sigma$: contains about 68% of the measurements
 - From $\mu-2\sigma$ to $\mu+2\sigma$: contains about 95% of it
 - From $\mu-3\sigma$ to $\mu+3\sigma$: contains about 99.7% of it



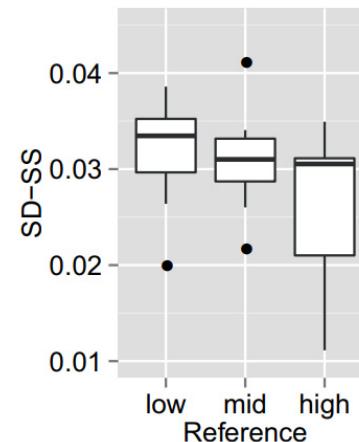
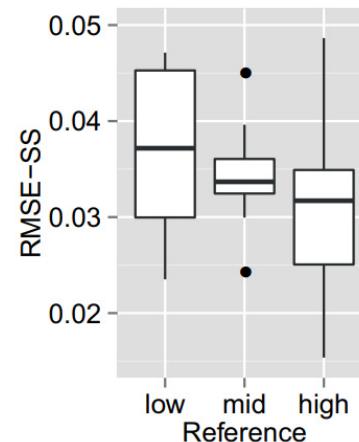
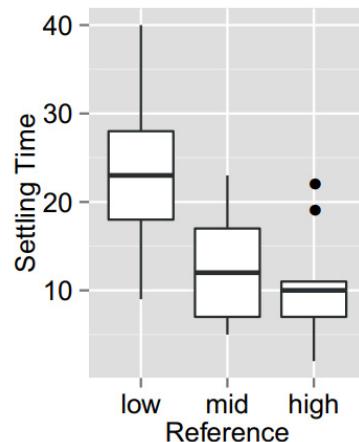
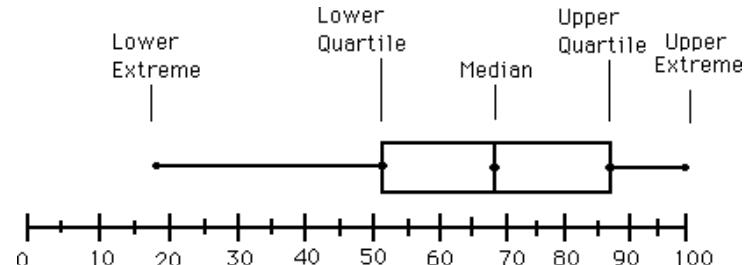
Measuring the Dispersion of Data

- Quartiles, outliers and boxplots
 - **Quartiles:** Q_1 (25th percentile), Q_3 (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 $1.5 \times IQR$



Boxplot Analysis

- 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



Content

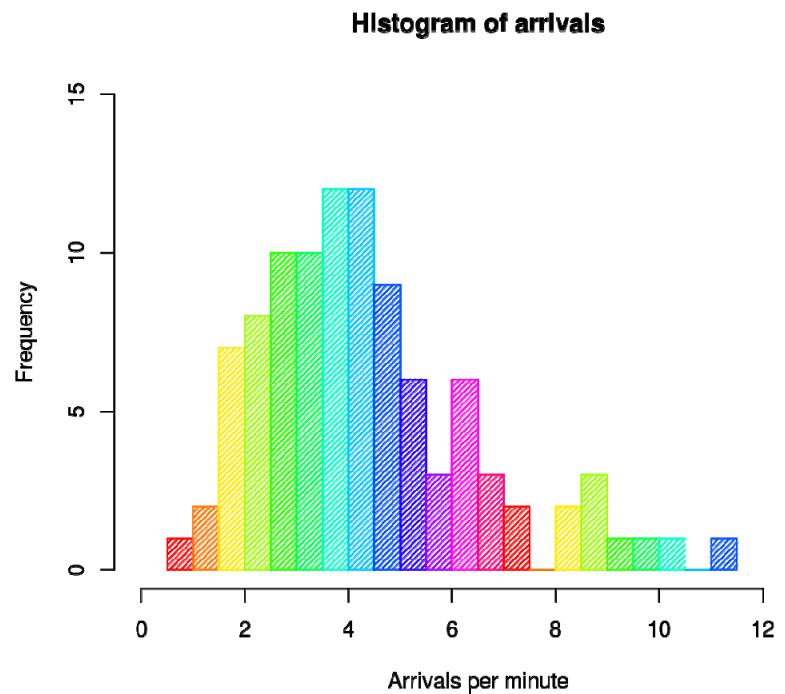
- Data Instances, Attributes and Types
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Graphic Displays of Basic Statistical Descriptions

- Boxplot: graphic display of five-number summary
- Histogram: x-axis are values, y-axis represents 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

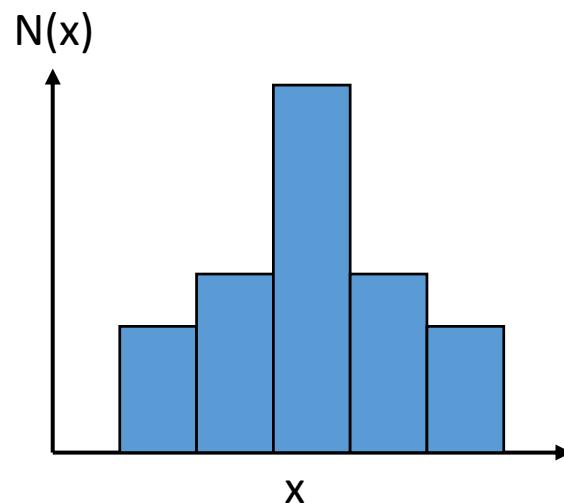
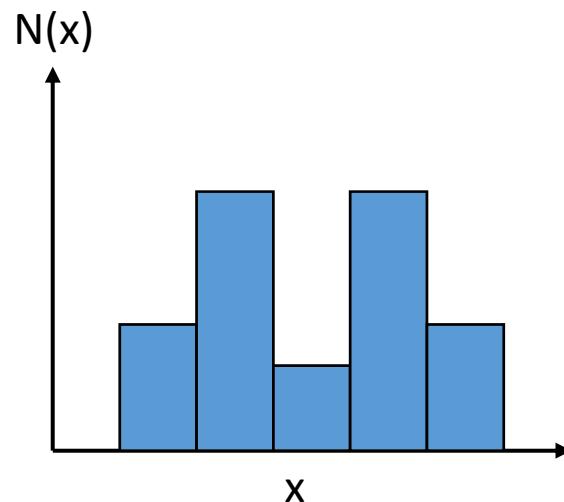
Histogram Analysis

- Histogram: Graph display of tabulated frequencies, shown as bars
- It shows what proportion of cases fall into each of several categories
- The categories are usually specified as non-overlapping intervals of some variable. The categories (bars) must be adjacent



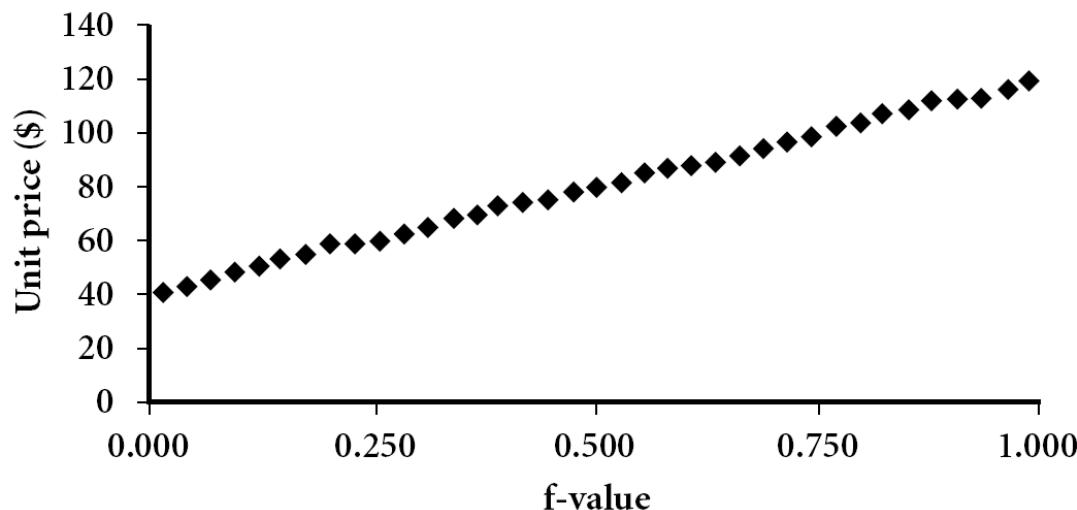
Histograms Often Tell More than Boxplots

- The two histograms shown on the right may have the same boxplot representation
- The same values for: min, Q_1 , median, Q_3 , max
- But they have rather different data distributions



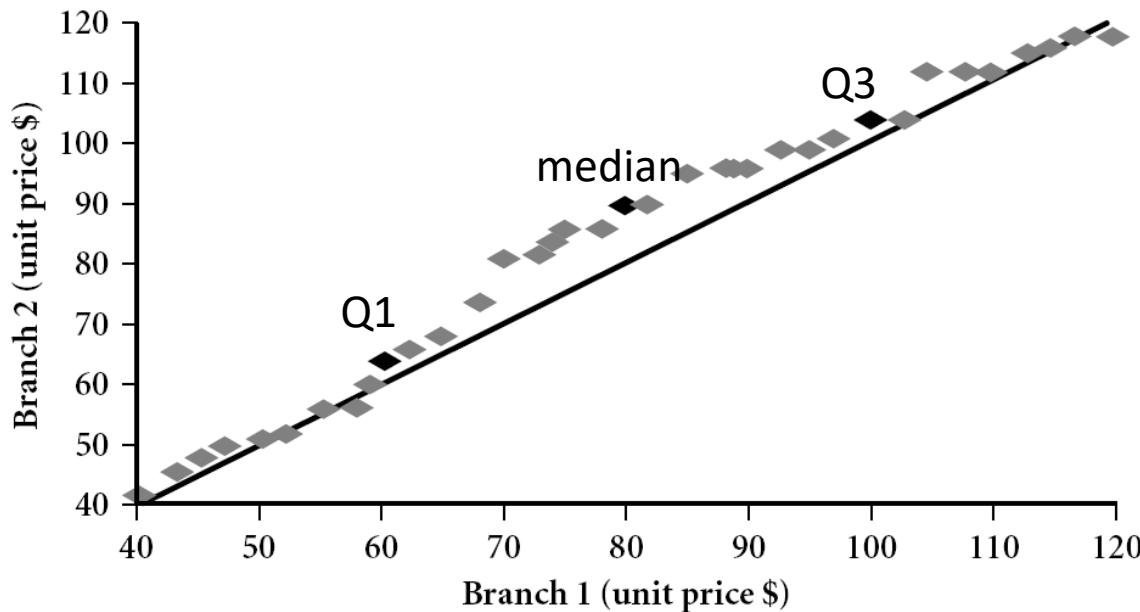
Quantile Plot

- Displays all of the data (allowing the user to assess both the overall behavior and unusual occurrences)
- Plots quantile information
- Each value x_i is paired with f_i , indicating that approximately $100 f_i\%$ of data $\leq x_i$



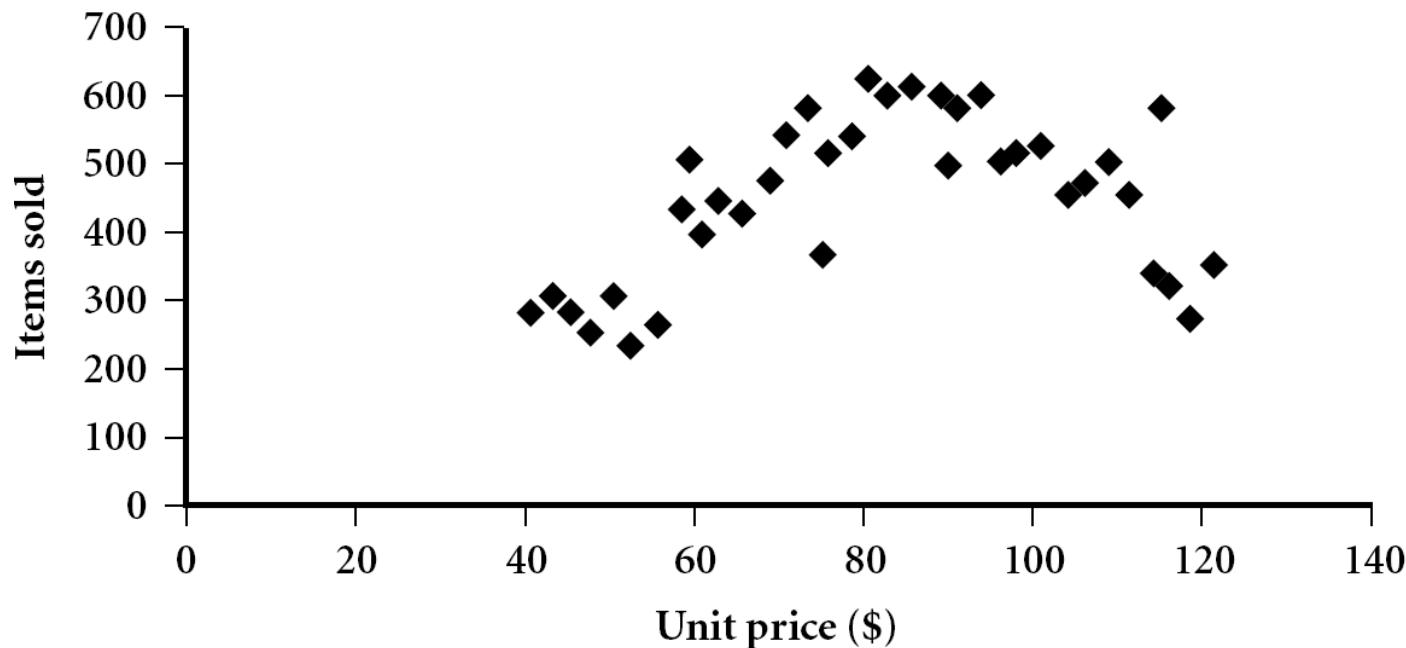
Quantile-Quantile (Q-Q) Plot

- 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.



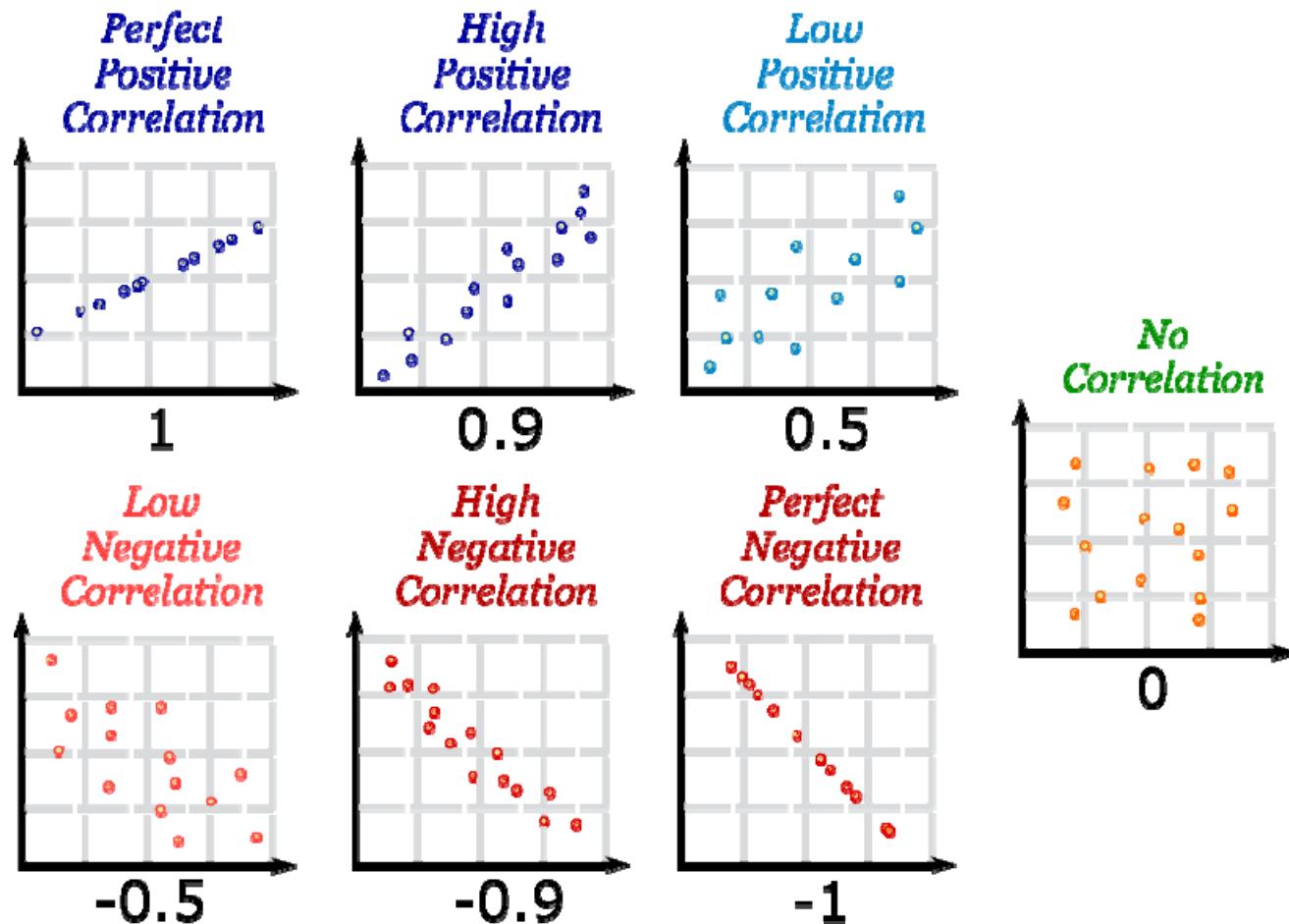
Scatter Plot

- 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

- One can also quickly check the correlation of the two variables by scatter data.



Data Visualization

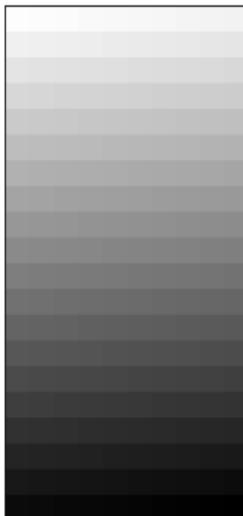
- Why data visualization?
 - Gain insight into an information space by mapping data onto graphical primitives
 - Provide qualitative overview of large data sets
 - Search for patterns, trends, structure, irregularities, relationships among data
 - Help find interesting regions and suitable parameters for further quantitative analysis
 - Provide a visual proof of computer representations derived

Data Visualization

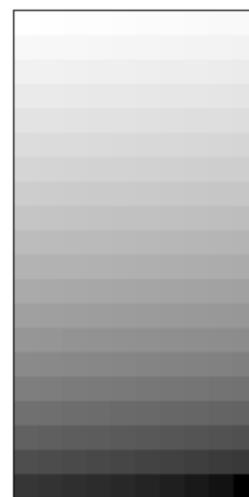
- Different visualization methods include
 - Pixel-oriented visualization techniques
 - Geometric projection visualization techniques
 - Icon-based visualization techniques
 - Hierarchical visualization techniques
 - Visualizing complex data and relations
 - Visualizing decision-making data
 - ...

Pixel-Oriented Visualization Techniques

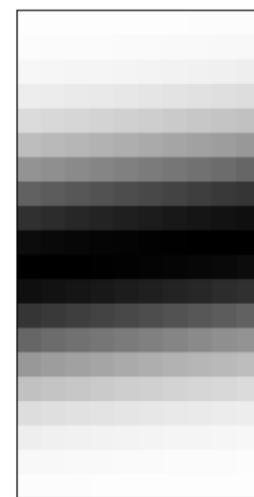
- For a data set of m dimensions, create m windows on the screen, one for each dimension
- The m dimension values of a record are mapped to m pixels at the corresponding positions in the windows
- The colors of the pixels reflect the corresponding values



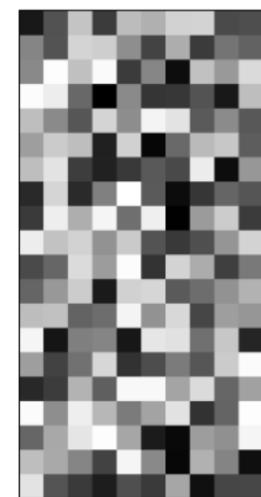
(a) Income



(b) Credit Limit



(c) Transaction volume



(d) Age

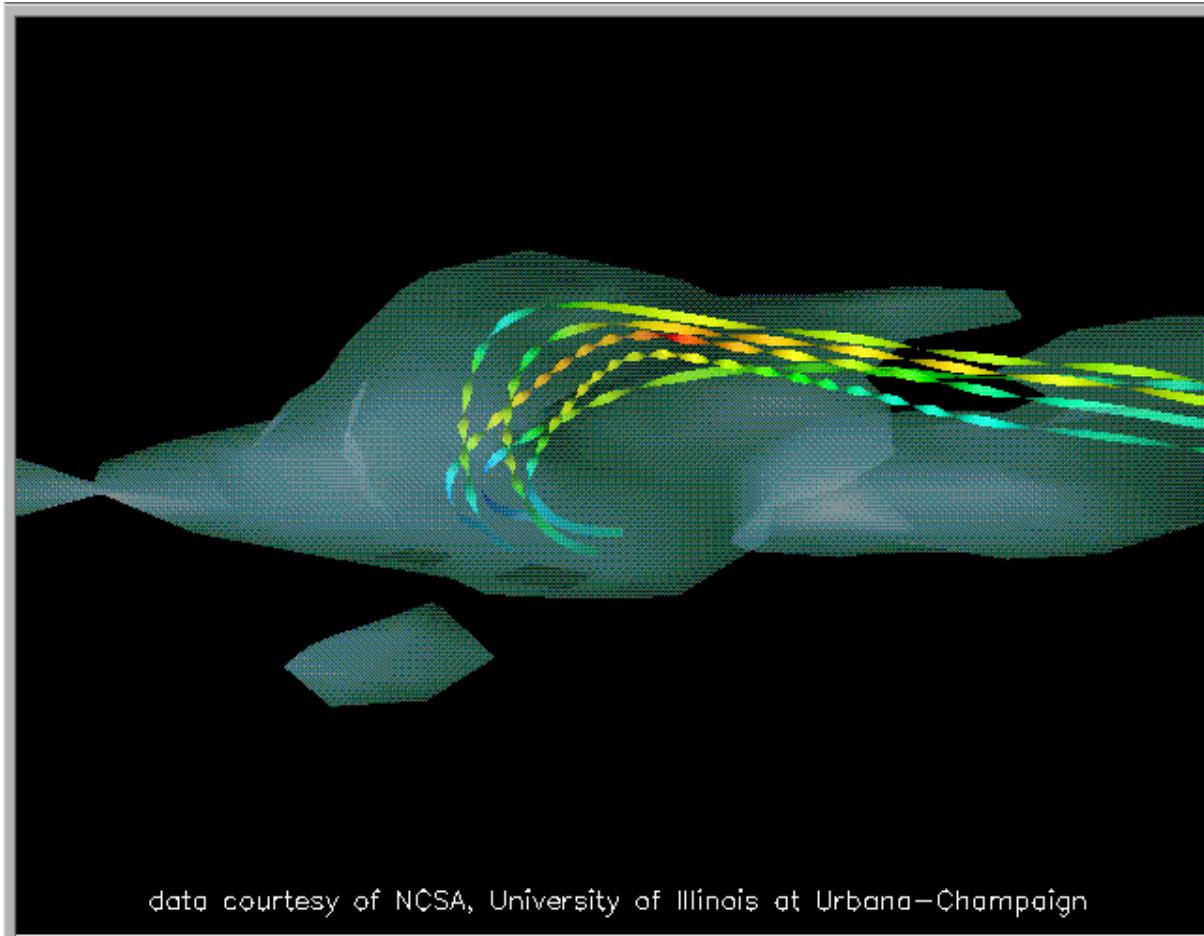
Note: here the m windows are arranged by income. We can check the correlations of other dimension data w.r.t. income.

Geometric Projection Visualization Techniques

- Visualization of geometric transformations and projections of the data
- Methods
 - Direct visualization
 - Scatterplot and scatterplot matrices
 - Landscapes
 - Projection pursuit technique: Help users find meaningful projections of multidimensional data
 - Prosection views
 - Hyperslice
 - Parallel coordinates

Direct Data Visualization

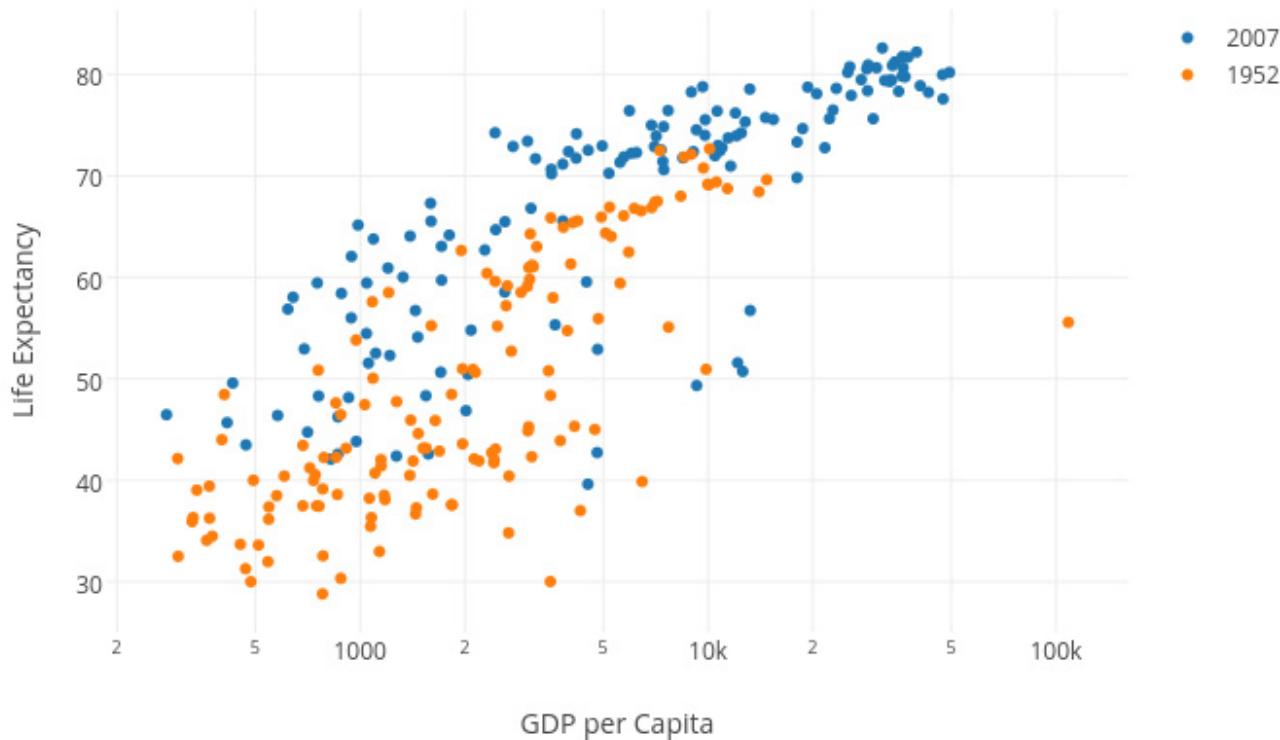
- Ribbons with Twists Based on Vorticity



data courtesy of NCSA, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

Scatter Plots

- Scatter plot with category of data points in colors

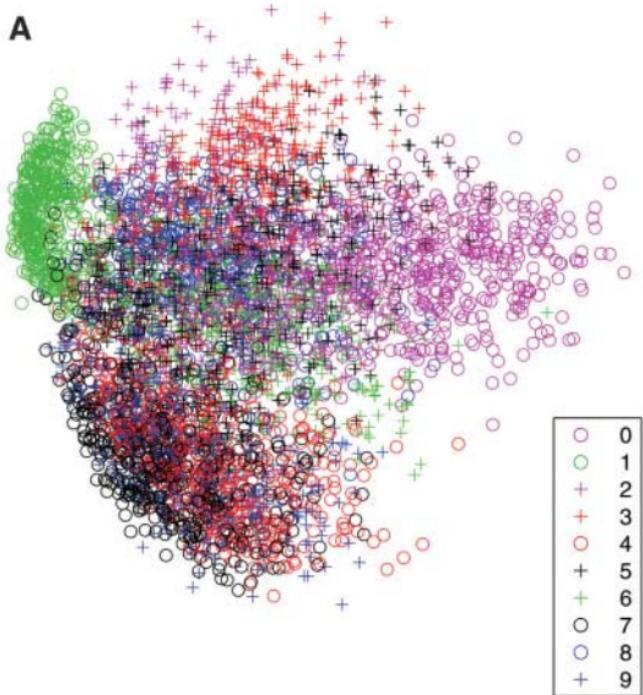


<https://plot.ly/pandas/line-and-scatter/>

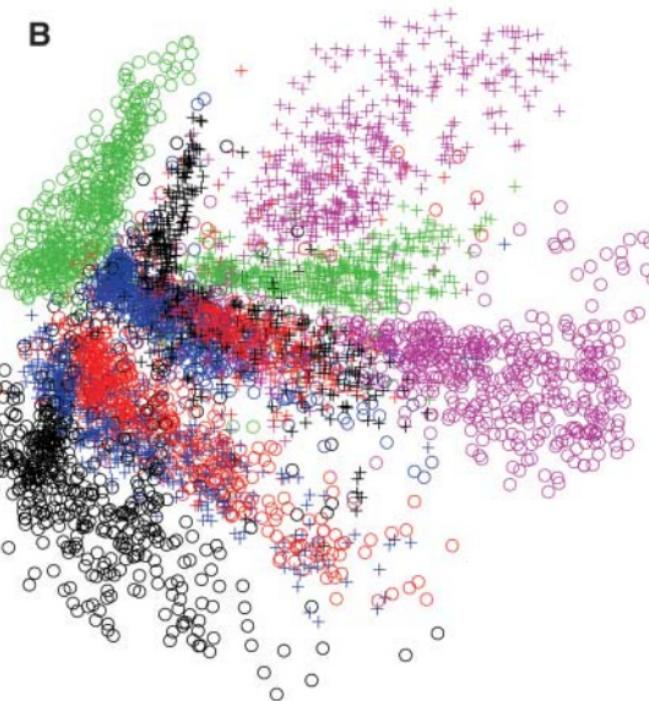
Scatter Plots

MNIST data of hand written numbers

- 60,000 training images
- 28×28 pixels for each image



(A) The two-dimensional codes for 500 digits of each class produced by taking the first two principal components

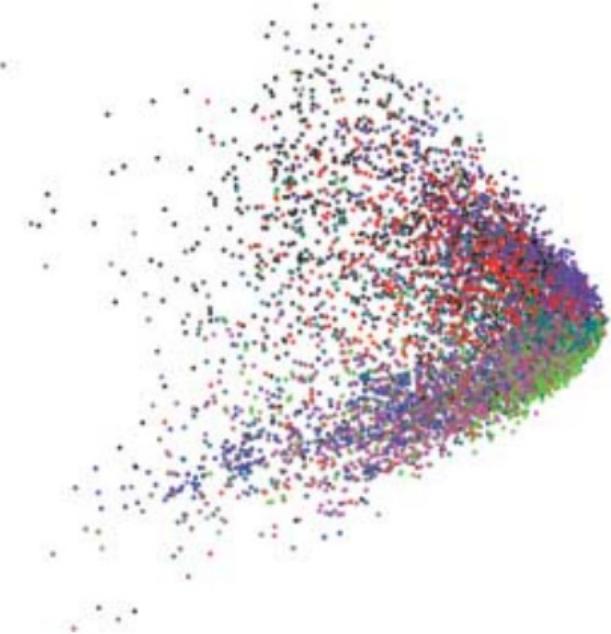


(B) The two-dimensional codes found by a 784-1000-500-250-2 autoencoder (a deep learning model).

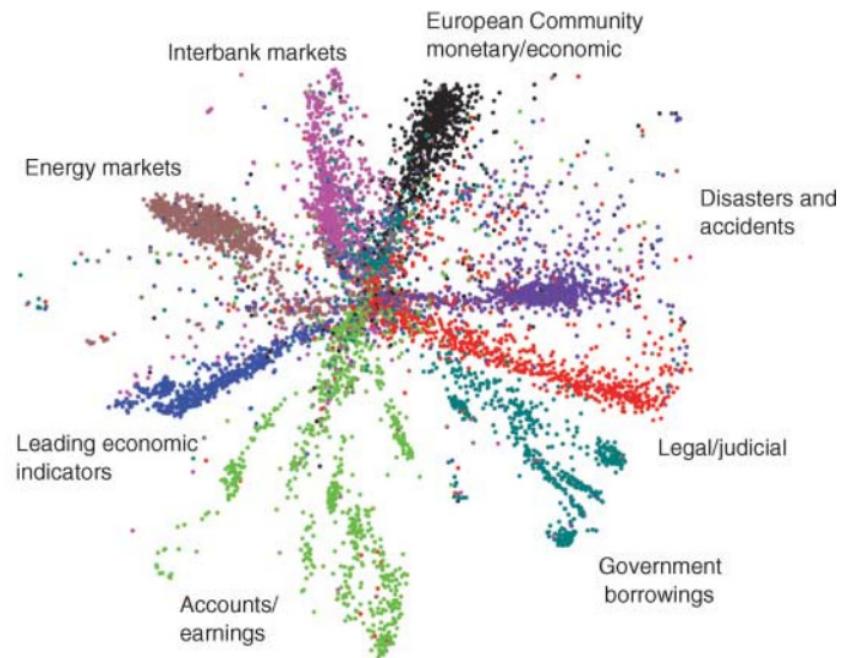
Scatter Plots

The Reuter Corpus Volume 2

- 804,414 newswire stories
- 2000 commonest word stems



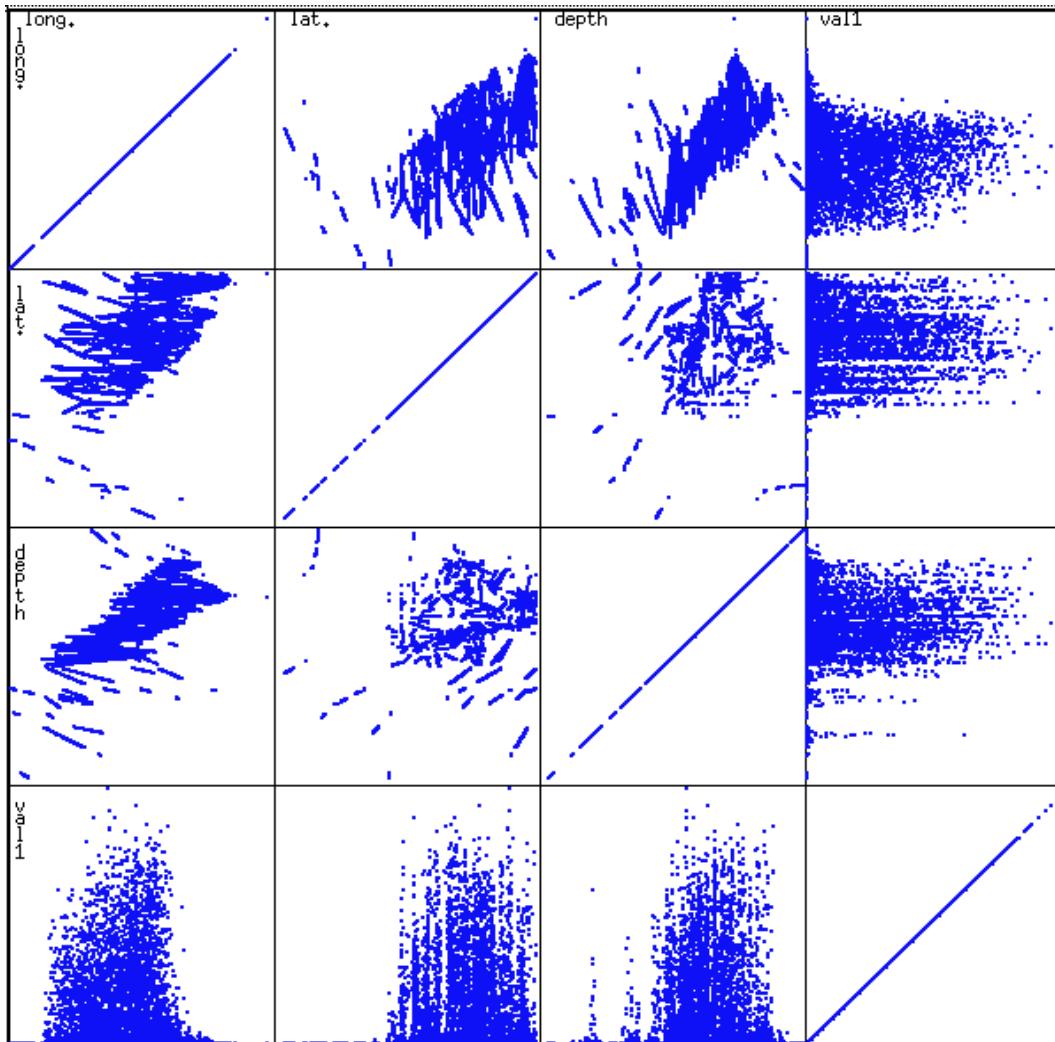
(A) The codes produced by two-dimensional latent semantic analysis (LSA).



(B) The codes produced by a 2000-500-250-125-2 autoencoder. (a deep learning model).

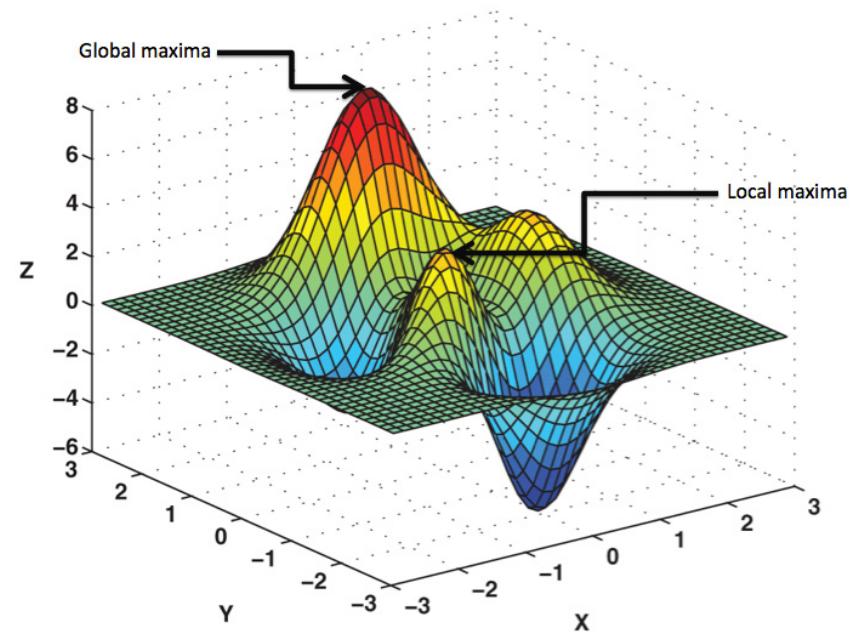
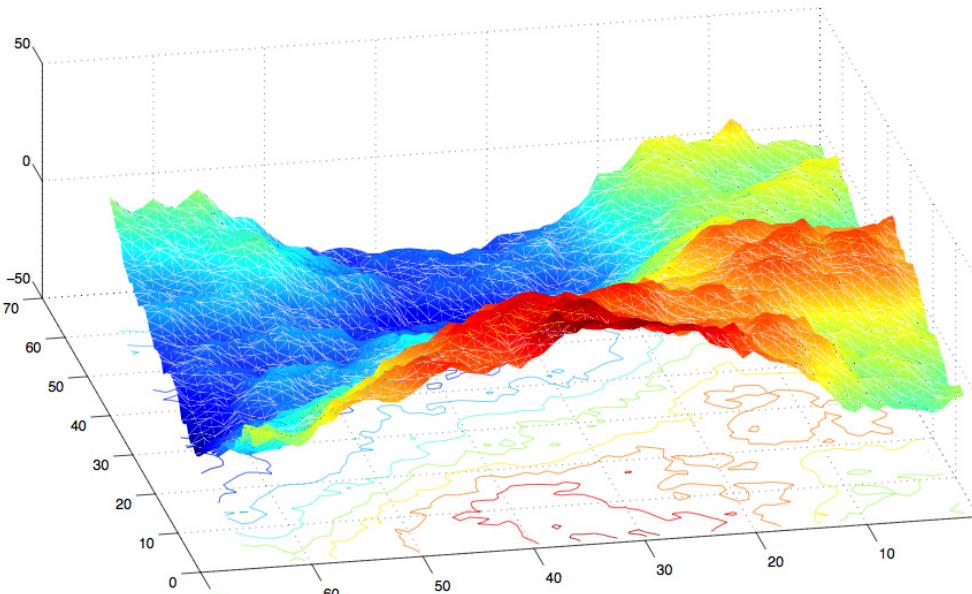
Scatterplot Matrices

Used by permission of M. Ward, Worcester Polytechnic Institute



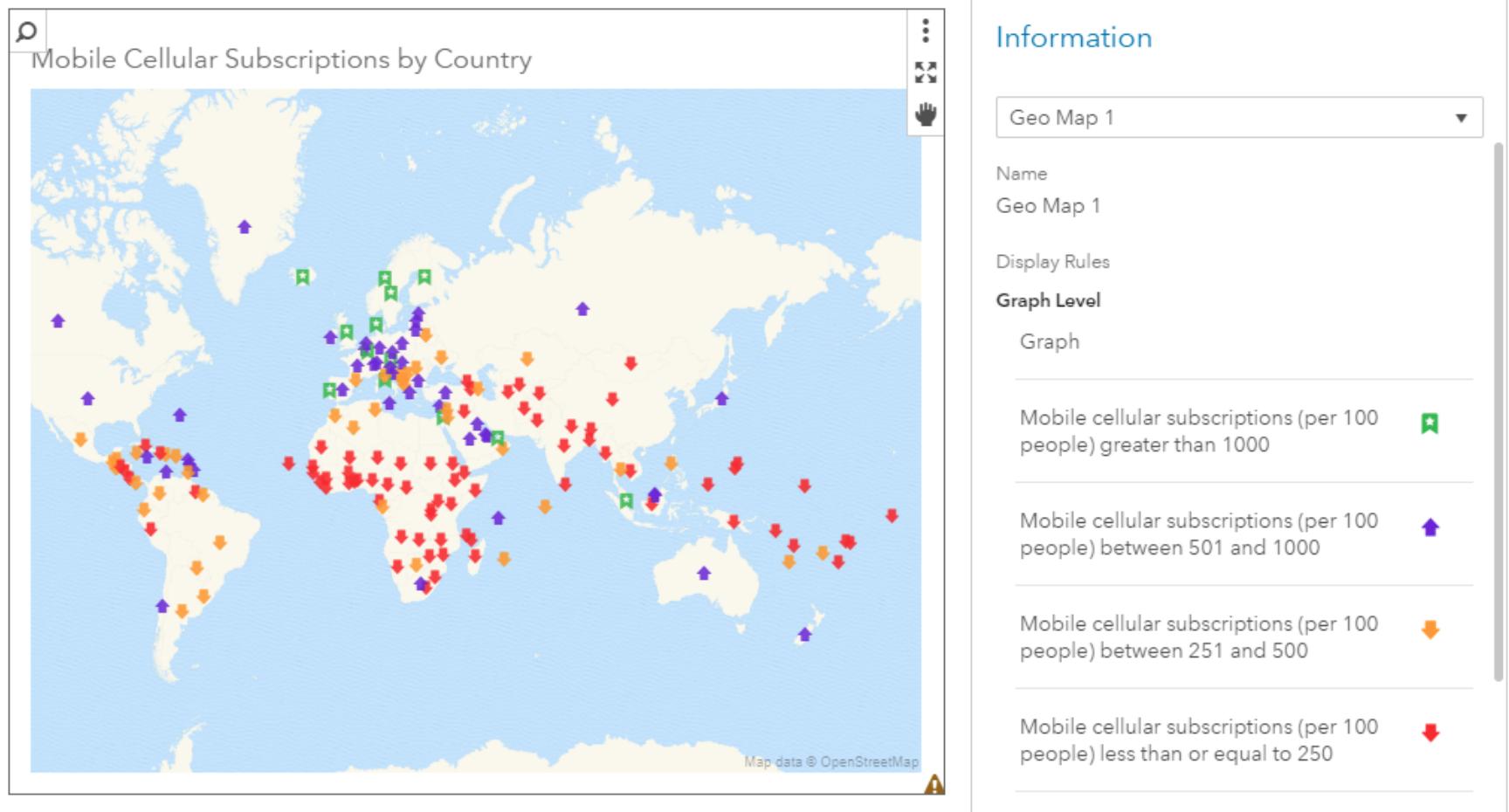
Matrix of scatterplots (x-y-diagrams) of the k-dimensional data

Landscapes



- Visualization of the data as perspective landscape
- The data needs to be transformed into a (possibly artificial) 2D spatial representation which preserves the characteristics of the data

Icon based Visualization

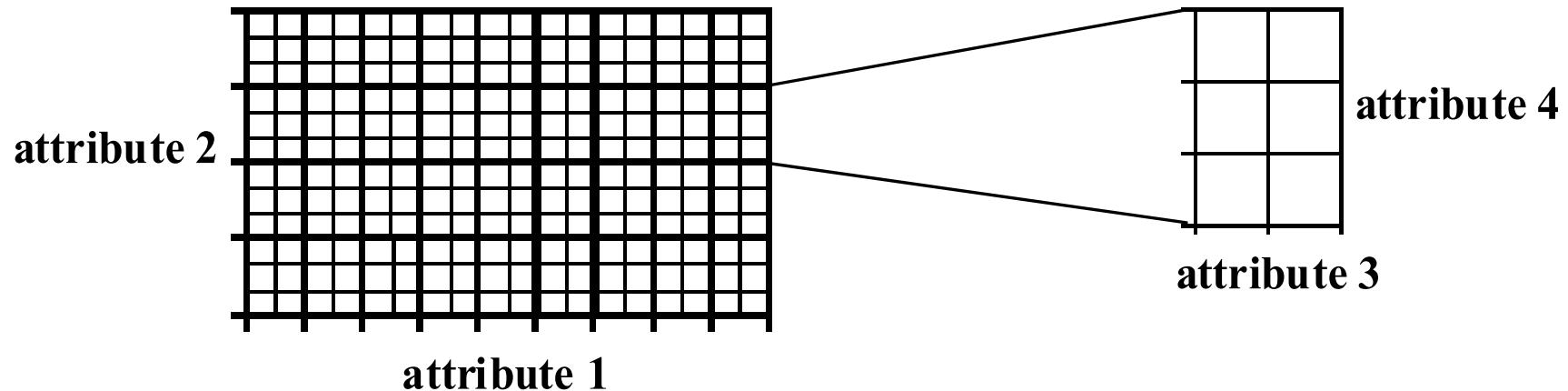


<https://blogs.sas.com/content/sgf/2018/02/06/jazz-geo-map-colorful-icon-based-display-rules/>

Hierarchical Visualization Techniques

- Visualization of the data using a hierarchical partitioning into subspaces
- Methods
 - Dimensional Stacking
 - Worlds-within-Worlds
 - Tree-Map
 - Cone Trees
 - InfoCube

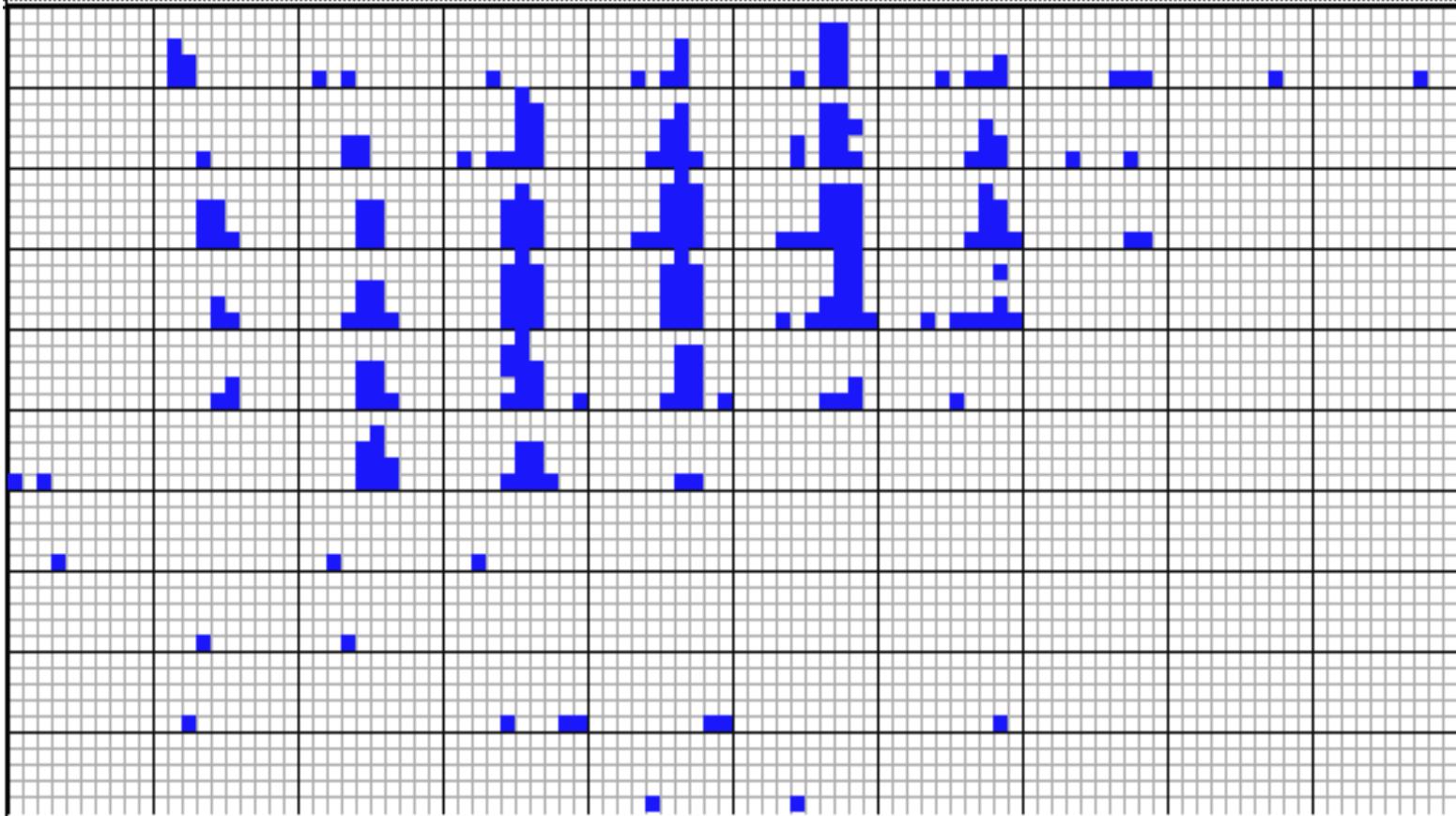
Dimensional Stacking



- Partitioning of the n -dimensional attribute space in 2-D subspaces, which are ‘stacked’ into each other
- Partitioning of the attribute value ranges into classes. **The important attributes should be used on the outer levels.**
- Adequate for data with ordinal attributes of low cardinality
- But, difficult to display more than nine dimensions
- Important to map dimensions appropriately

Dimensional Stacking

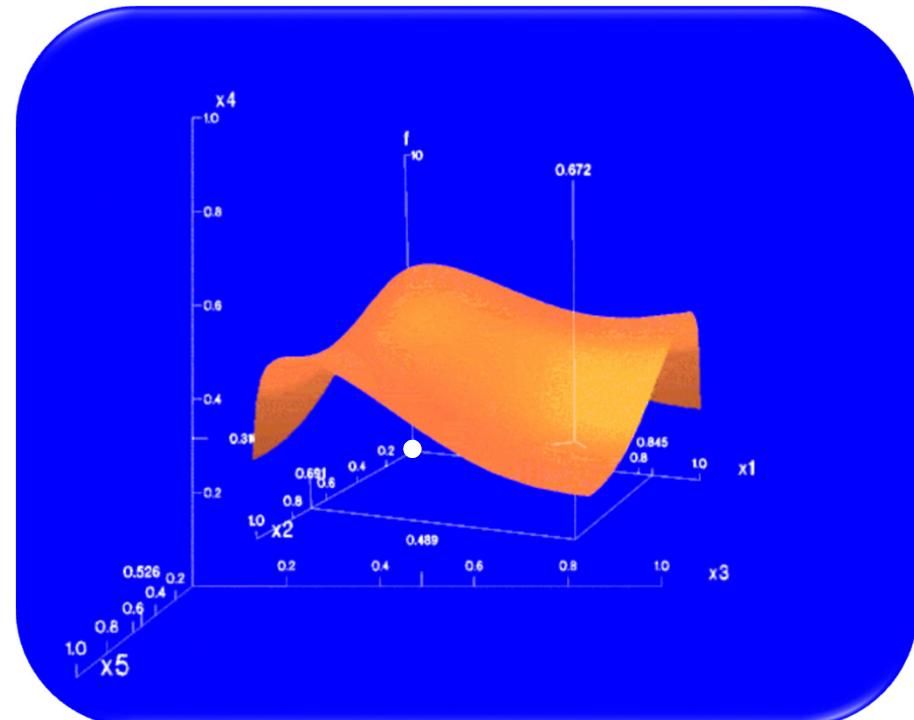
M. Ward, Worcester Polytechnic Institute



- Visualization of oil mining data with **longitude** and **latitude** mapped to the outer x-, y-axes and **ore grade** and **depth** mapped to the inner x-, y-axes

Worlds-within-Worlds Visualization

- Assign the function and two most important parameters to innermost world
- Fix all other parameters at constant values - draw other (1 or 2 or 3 dimensional worlds choosing these as the axes)
- Software that uses this paradigm
 - N-vision: Dynamic interaction through data glove and stereo displays, including rotation, scaling (inner) and translation (inner/outer)
 - Auto Visual: Static interaction by means of queries

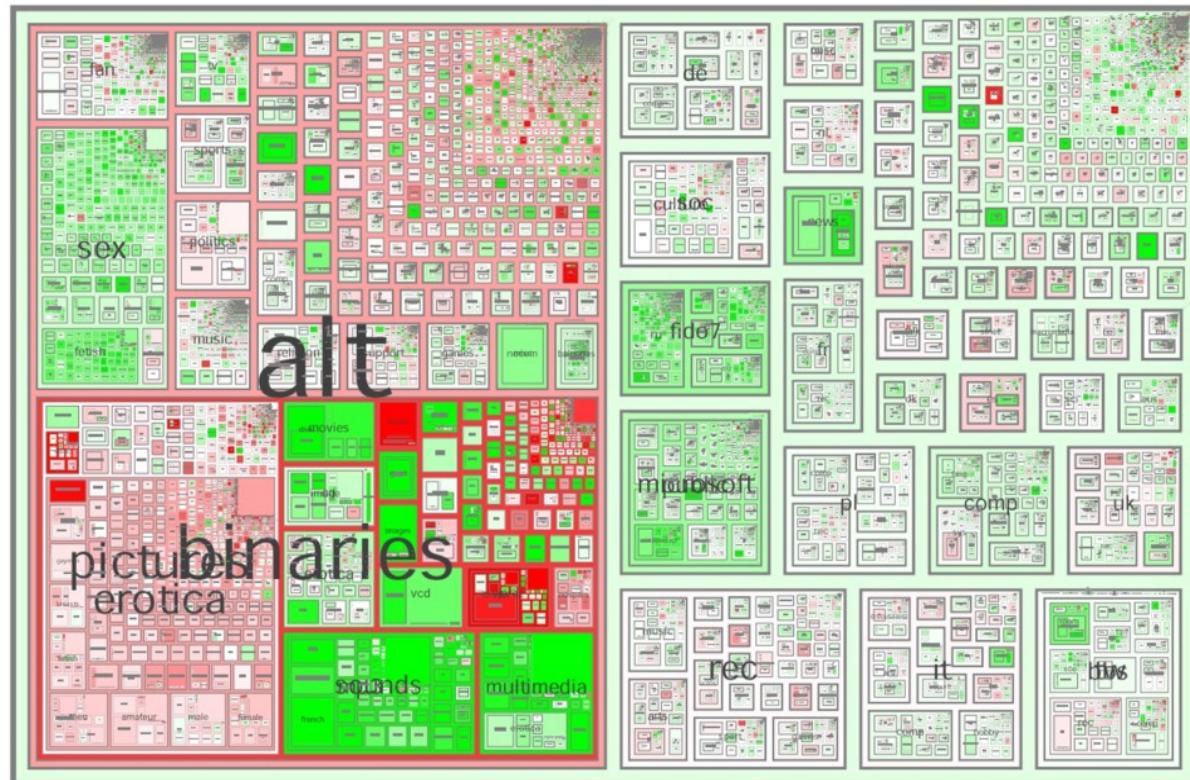


Tree-Map

<http://www.cs.umd.edu/hcil/treemap-history/>

- Screen-filling method which uses a hierarchical partitioning of the screen into regions depending on the attribute values
- The x- and y-dimension of the screen are partitioned alternately according to the attribute values (classes)

MSR
Netscan
Image



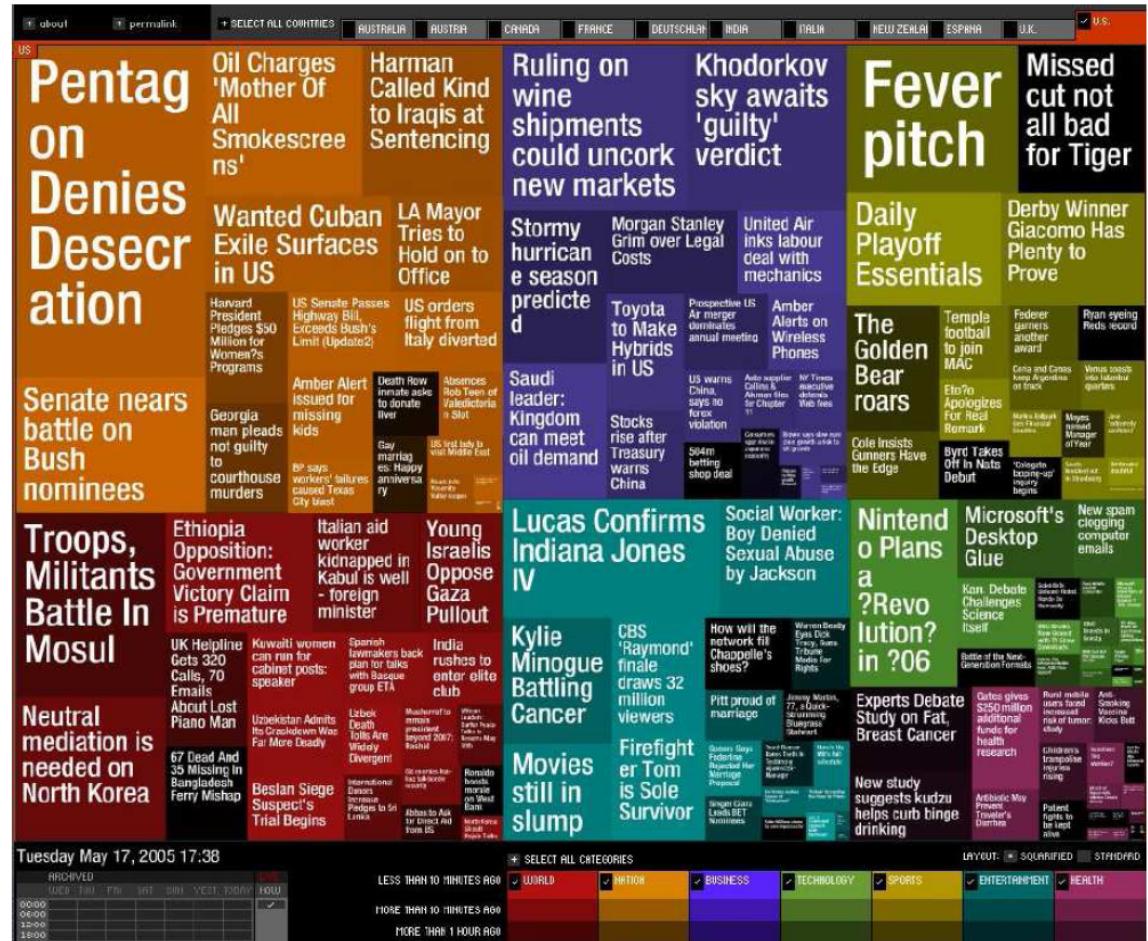
<http://www.cs.umd.edu/hcil/treemap-history/all102001.jpg>

Visualizing Complex Data and Relations

- Visualizing non-numerical data: text and social networks
 - Tag cloud: visualizing user-generated tags

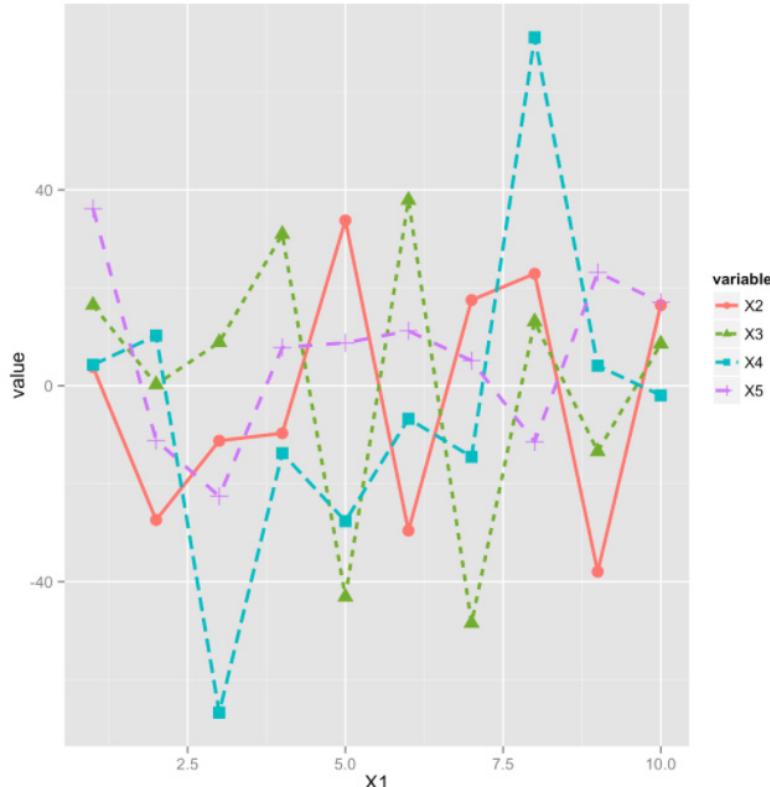
Google News output

- The importance of tag is represented by font size/color
 - Besides text data, there are also methods to visualize relationships, such as visualizing social networks



ggplot2 Data Visualization Code

```
ggplot(data, aes(x=X1, y=value, color=variable)) +  
  geom_line(aes(linetype=variable), size=1) +  
  geom_point(aes(shape=variable, size=4))
```



When a data scientist draws a plot, she just needs to differ the lines (color, line type) and points (color, shape) by a certain categorical variable instead of specifying particular style to each line and point.

Content

- Data Instances, Attributes and Types
- Basic Statistical Descriptions of Data
- Data Visualization
- Measuring Data Similarity and Dissimilarity

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
 - Row: objects
 - Column: attributes

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

- Dissimilarity matrix

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

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

- Similarity

$$\text{sim}(i, j) = 1 - d(i, j)$$

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

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

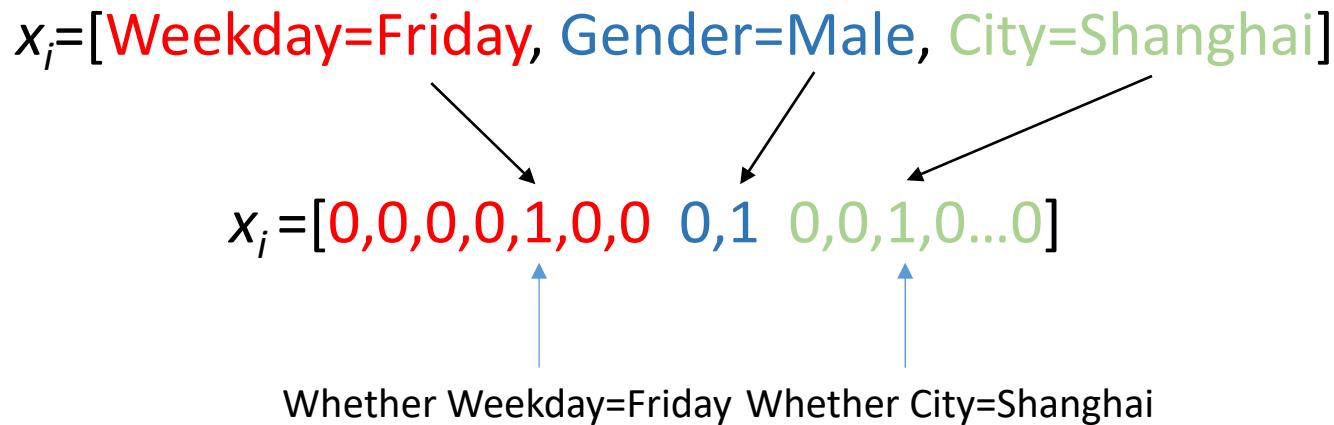
x_1 =[Weekday=Friday, Gender=Male, City=Shanghai]

x_2 =[Weekday=Friday, Gender=Female, City=Shanghai]

$$d(1, 2) = \frac{3 - 2}{3} = \frac{1}{3}$$

One-Hot Encoding for Nominal Attributes

- One-hot encoding: creating a new binary attribute for each of the p nominal states



- As such, we transform the nominal data instances into binary vectors, which can be fed into various functions
 - High dimensional sparse binary feature vector
 - Usually higher than 1M dimensions, even 1B dimensions
 - Extremely sparse

Proximity Measure for Binary Attributes

- A contingency table for binary data

		Object <i>j</i>		
		1	0	sum
		1	<i>q</i>	<i>r</i>
Object <i>i</i>	0	<i>s</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>s</i> + <i>t</i>
	sum	<i>q</i> + <i>s</i>	<i>r</i> + <i>t</i>	<i>p</i>

- Distance measure for symmetric binary variables:

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

- Distance measure for asymmetric binary variables:

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

- Jaccard coefficient (similarity measure for asymmetric binary variables):

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

- Note: Jaccard coefficient is the same as “coherence”:

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

Dissimilarity between Binary Variables

- Example data

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

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

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

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

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

		Object <i>j</i>		sum
		1	0	
Object <i>i</i>	1	<i>q</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>q + r</i>
	0	<i>s</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>s + t</i>
sum	<i>q + s</i>	<i>r + t</i>	<i>p</i>	

Standardizing Numeric Data

- Numeric data examples

$$x_1 = [1.2, 3.5, 1.1, 2.7, 123.9]$$

$$x_2 = [2.0, 1.5, 1.3, 3.1, 145.1]$$



This dimension may dominate the proximity calculation

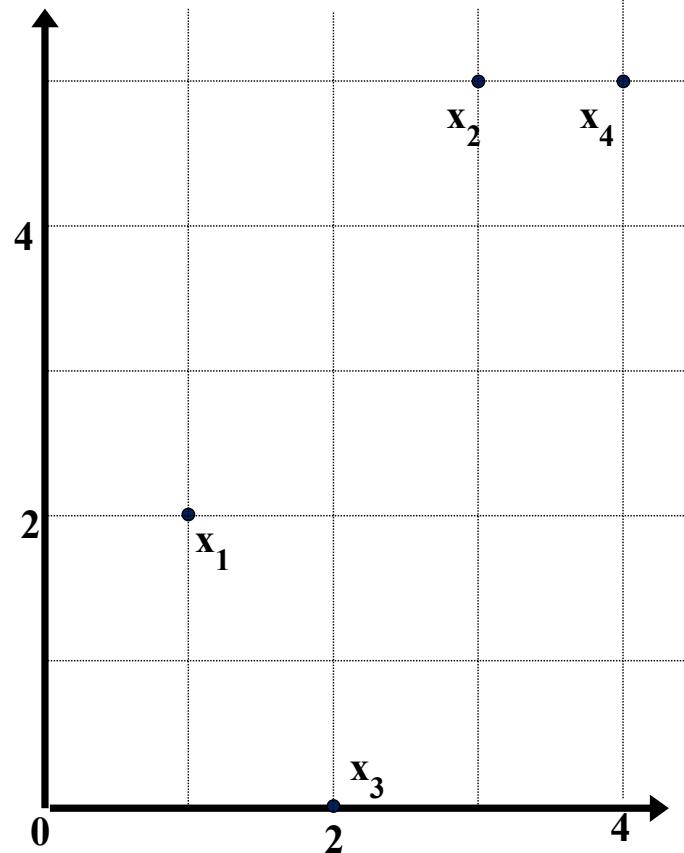
- Z-score: perform normalization for each dimension

$$z = \frac{x - \mu}{\sigma}$$

- x : raw score to be standardized, μ : mean of the population, σ : standard deviation
- The distance between the raw score and the population mean in units of the standard deviation
- Negative when the raw score is below the mean, positive when above

Example:

Data Matrix and Dissimilarity Matrix



point	attribute 1	attribute 2
x_1	1	2
x_2	3	5
x_3	2	0
x_4	4	5

Dissimilarity Matrix

(with Euclidean Distance)

	x_1	x_2	x_3	x_4
x_1	0			
x_2	3.61	0		
x_3	2.24	5.1	0	
x_4	4.24	1	5.39	0

Distance on Numeric Data: Minkowski Distance

- Minkowski distance: A popular distance measure

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

$$x_j = (x_{j1}, x_{j2}, \dots, x_{jp})$$

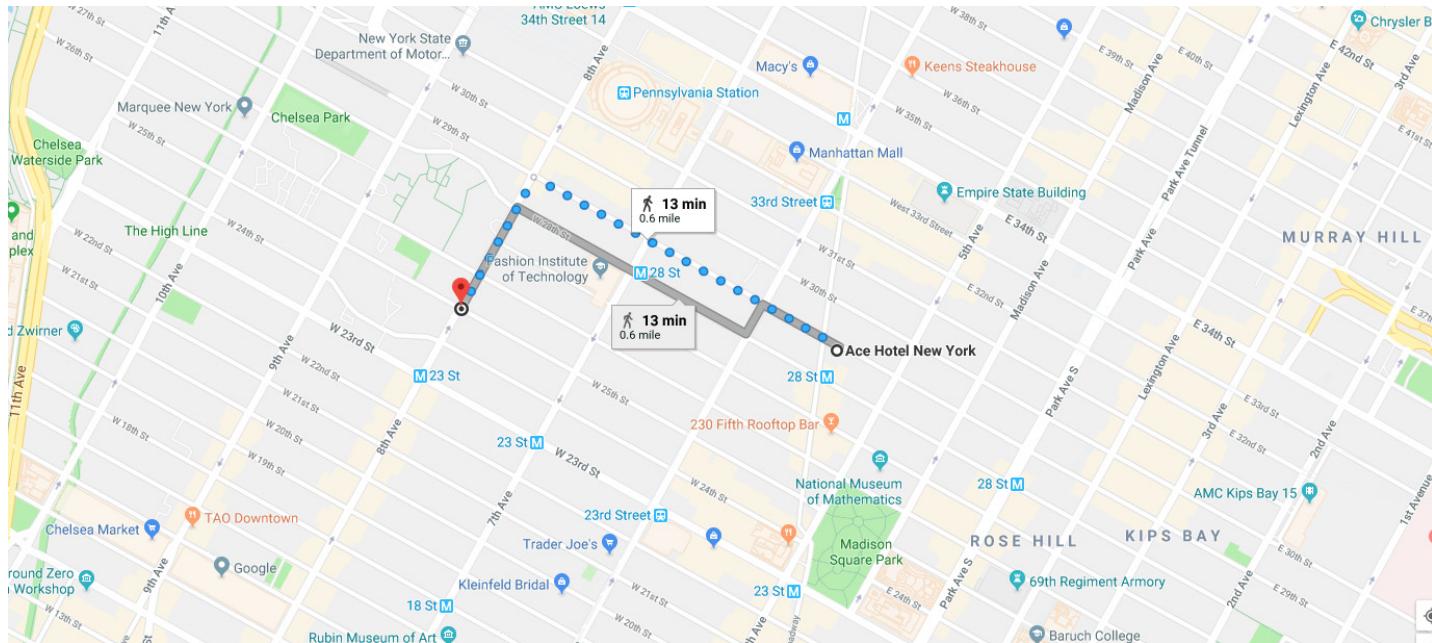
$$d(i, j) = (|x_{i1} - x_{j1}|^h + |x_{i2} - x_{j2}|^h + \dots + |x_{ip} - x_{jp}|^h)^{\frac{1}{h}}$$

- h is the order (the distance so defined is also called L- h norm)
- Properties
 - Positive definiteness: $d(i, j) > 0$ if $i \neq j$, and $d(i, i) = 0$
 - Symmetry: $d(i, j) = d(j, i)$
 - Triangle Inequality: $d(i, j) \leq d(i, k) + d(k, j)$
- A distance that satisfies these properties is a metric

Special Cases of Minkowski Distance

- $h = 1$: Manhattan (city block, L_1 norm) distance
 - E.g., the Hamming distance: the number of bits that are different between two binary vectors

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



Special Cases of Minkowski Distance

- $h = 2$: Euclidean (L_2 norm) distance

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

- $h \rightarrow \infty$: Supremum (L_{\max} norm) distance
 - This is the maximum difference between any component (attribute) of the vectors

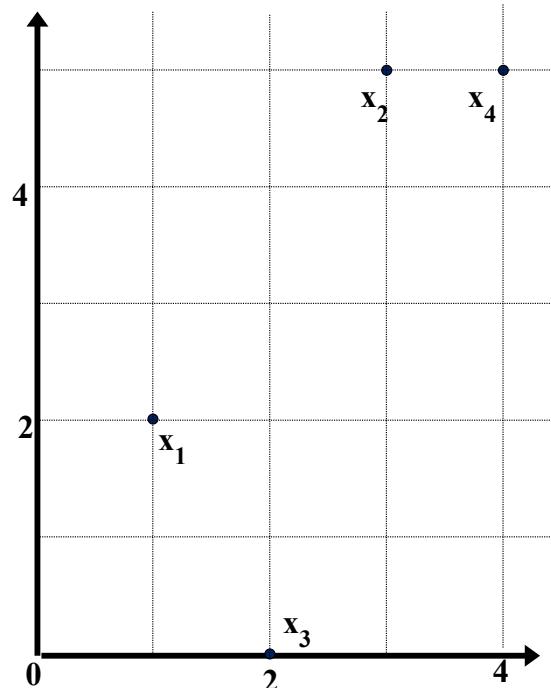
$$d(i, j) = \lim_{h \rightarrow \infty} \left(\sum_{f=1}^p |x_{if} - x_{jf}|^h \right)^{\frac{1}{h}} = \max_f |x_{if} - x_{jf}|$$

Example:

Minkowski Distances

Data Matrix

point	attribute 1	attribute 2
x_1	1	2
x_2	3	5
x_3	2	0
x_4	4	5



Dissimilarity Matrices

	x_1	x_2	x_3	x_4
x_1	0			
x_2	5	0		
x_3	3	6	0	
x_4	6	1	7	0

Mahantian (L_1)

	x_1	x_2	x_3	x_4
x_1	0			
x_2	3.61	0		
x_3	2.24	5.1	0	
x_4	4.24	1	5.39	0

Euclidean (L_2)

	x_1	x_2	x_3	x_4
x_1	0			
x_2	3	0		
x_3	2	5	0	
x_4	3	1	5	0

Supremum (L_{\max})

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
d1	5	0	3	0	2	0	0	2	0	0
d2	3	0	2	0	1	1	0	1	0	1
d3	0	7	0	2	1	0	0	3	0	0
d4	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

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

where \cdot indicates vector dot product, $\|d\|$ is the length of vector d

Example: Cosine Similarity

Document	Team	Coach	Hockey	Baseball	Soccer	Penalty	Score	Win	Loss	Season
d1	5	0	3	0	2	0	0	2	0	0
d2	3	0	2	0	1	1	0	1	0	1
d3	0	7	0	2	1	0	0	3	0	0
d4	0	1	0	0	1	2	2	0	3	0

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

- Ex: Find the similarity between documents 1 and 2.

$$d_1 = (5, 0, 3, 0, 2, 0, 0, 2, 0, 0)$$

$$d_2 = (3, 0, 2, 0, 1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1)$$

$$d_1 \cdot d_2 = 5 \times 3 + 0 \times 0 + 3 \times 2 + 0 \times 0 + 2 \times 1 + 0 \times 1 + 0 \times 1 + 2 \times 1 + 0 \times 0 + 0 \times 1 = 25$$

$$\|d_1\| = (5 \times 5 + 0 \times 0 + 3 \times 3 + 0 \times 0 + 2 \times 2 + 0 \times 0 + 0 \times 0 + 2 \times 2 + 0 \times 0 + 0 \times 0)^{0.5} = 42^{0.5} = 6.48$$

$$\|d_2\| = (3 \times 3 + 0 \times 0 + 2 \times 2 + 0 \times 0 + 1 \times 1 + 1 \times 1 + 0 \times 0 + 1 \times 1 + 0 \times 0 + 1 \times 1)^{0.5} = 17^{0.5} = 4.12$$

$$\cos(d_1, d_2) = 0.94$$

Ordinal Variables

- An ordinal variable can be discrete or continuous
- Order is important, e.g., rank
- Can be treated like interval-scaled
 - replace x_{if} by their rank $r_{if} \in \{1, \dots, M_f\}$
 - map the range of each variable onto $[0, 1]$ by replacing i -th object in the f -th variable by

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

- compute the dissimilarity using methods for interval-scaled variables
- Note: this is just a trivial solution

Attributes of Mixed Type

- A database may contain all attribute types
 - Nominal, symmetric binary, asymmetric binary, numeric, ordinal
 - Different fields may bring different level of importance
- One may use a weighted formula to combine their effects

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

- f is binary or nominal
 - $d_{ij}^{(f)} = 0$ if $x_{if} = x_{jf}$, or $d_{ij}^{(f)} = 1$ otherwise
- f is numeric: use the normalized distance
- f is ordinal

- Compute ranks r_{if} and
- Treat z_{if} as interval-scaled

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

Summary

- Data attribute types: nominal, binary, ordinal, interval-scaled, ratio-scaled
- 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.