CIS 635 Knowledge Discovery & Data Mining

Introduction to Linear Algebra

Survey results and project groups

- Summary of the Background survey
- Final project groups formation:
 - Each group will be comprised of two (2) students
 - You are welcome to form your own group, or we will assign groups based on your survey response (background, area of interest, and programming efficiency). Please respond to the survey if you haven't already.
 - If you want to form your group, please let us know by: **09/04/2024**. The point of contact on the following TA: **Sridevi Bommidi** (bommidis@mail.gvsu.edu)

Outline

- Proximity vs Distance Metric
- k-NN, our first ML model
- Concept of Vectors and Vector operations
- Digital data, their encodings, and their representations through Vectors
- NumPy basics

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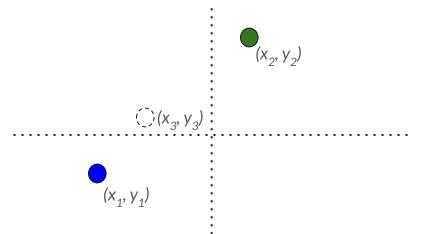
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 Visually, it looks to be closer to the blue, dot; but how do we quantify it?

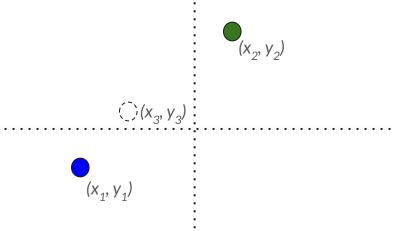
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- We can use a proximity or distance metric.

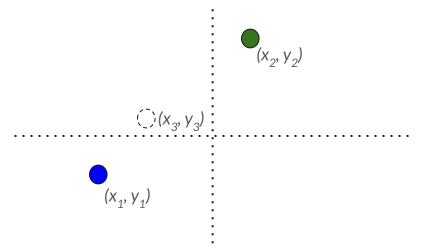
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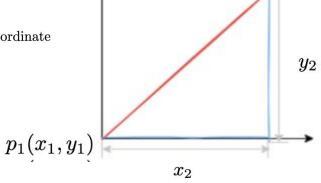
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- We can use the **Cartesian coordinate system** to quantify the location, and measure their distance; more specifically the Euclidean distance that we learned in our high-school math.
- The Euclidean distance is also known as L2 distance in the DS community



L2 (or Euclidean) distance: The L2 distance between point $p_1(x_1,y_1)$ and $p_2(x_2,y_2)$ is:

$$\sqrt{(x_2-x_1)^2+(y_2-y_1)^2}$$
 = $\sqrt{x_2^2+y_2^2}$ given that $p_1(x_1,y_1)=(0,0)$, the origin of the coordinate

I.e. **L2 distance** is the **diagonal** side of a triangle at the right, also known as **Euclidean distance**



 $p_2(x_2, y_2)$

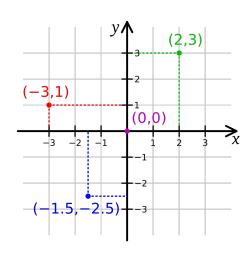
• L2 (or Euclidean) distance:

- L2 distance between vectors [2, 3] and [0, 0] is:

$$\sqrt{(2-0)^2 + (3-0)^2} = \sqrt{13} = 3.61$$

- L2 distance between vectors [2, 3] and [-3, 1] is:

$$\sqrt{(2 - (-3)^2 + (3 - 1)^2} = \sqrt{29} = 5.39$$



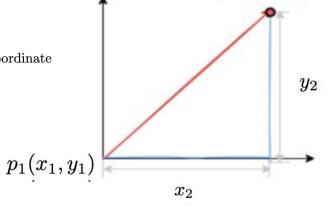
- We have other distance metrics, such as
- L1 distance

L1 distance: The L1 distance between point $\,p_1(x_1,y_1)\,$ and $\,p_2(x_2,y_2)\,$ is :

$$|x_2 - x_1| + |y_2 - y_1|$$

$$=x_2+y_2$$
 given that $p_1(x_1,y_1)=(0,0)$, the origin of the coordinate

I.e. L1 distance is the summation of the **horizontal** and the **vertical** sides of a triangle at the right.



 $p_2(x_2, y_2)$

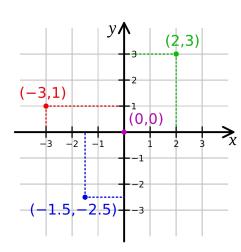
• L1 distance

- L1 distance between vectors [2, 3] and [0, 0] is:

$$|2-0| + |3-0| = 5$$

- L1 distance between vectors [2, 3] and [-3, 1] is:

$$|2 - (-3)| + |3 - 1| = 5 + 2 = 7$$

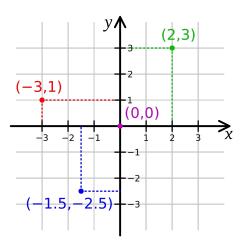


Our first ML Model

- k-NN

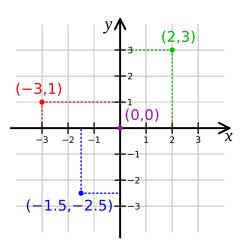
k-NN model

- k-nearest neighbors (k-NN)
 - Supervised learning



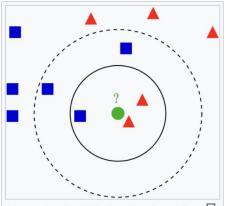
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k-NN model

- k-nearest neighbors (k-NN)
 - Supervised learning
 - Non parametric (distance based method)
 - Both for Classification and Regression solutions

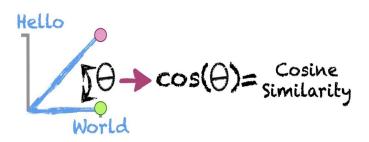


Example of k-NN classification. The test sample (green dot) should be classified either to blue squares or to red triangles. If k = 3 (solid line circle) it is assigned to the red triangles because there are 2 triangles and only 1 square inside the inner circle. If k = 5 (dashed line circle) it is assigned to the blue squares (3 squares vs. 2 triangles inside the outer circle).

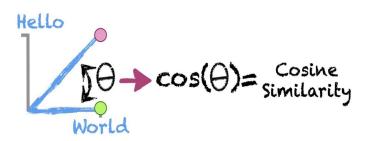
Another unique Distance metric

- We have other distance metrics, such as
- L1 distance, and
- Cosine distance

Cosine distance



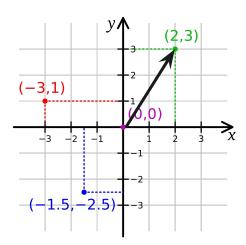
$$\cos \theta = \frac{\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b}}{\|\vec{a}\| \|\vec{b}\|}$$
$$\|\vec{a}\| = \sqrt{a_1^2 + a_2^2 + a_3^2 + \dots + a_n^2}$$
$$\|\vec{b}\| = \sqrt{b_1^2 + b_2^2 + b_3^2 + \dots + b_n^2}$$



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• Distances: L1, L2, Cosine

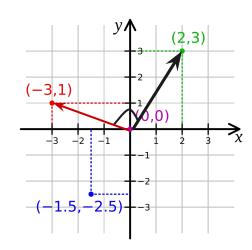
- Cosine distance between vectors [2, 3] and [0, 0] is: 0.00



• Distances: L1, L2, Cosine

- Cosine distance between vectors [2, 3] and [-3, 1] is:

$$\frac{-3}{\sqrt{13}\sqrt{10}} = -0.26$$

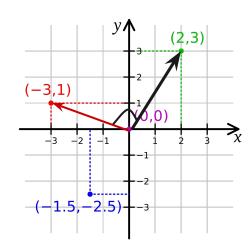


• Distances: L1, L2, Cosine

- Cosine distance between vectors [2, 3] and [-3, 1] is:

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- Negative distance

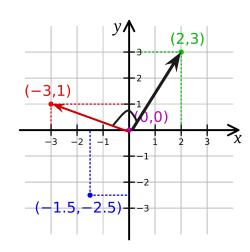


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- Negative distance, which is unique

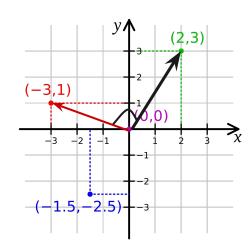


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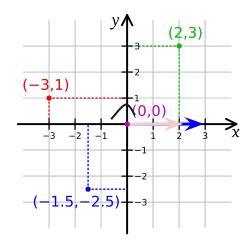
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What's your interpretation of negative distances?

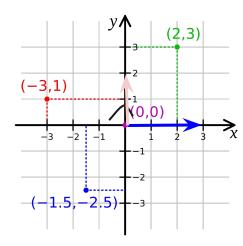
• Distances: L1, L2, Cosine

- Cosine distance range (-1, +1)
- Two <u>proportional vectors</u> (same direction) have a cosine similarity of 1; [3, 0], [2, 0]



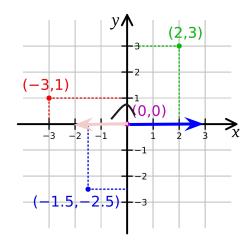
• Distances: L1, L2, Cosine

- Cosine distance range (-1, +1)
- Two orthogonal vectors have a cosine similarity of 0; [3, 0], [0, 2]



• Distances: L1, L2, Cosine

- Cosine distance range (-1, +1)
- Two opposite vectors have a cosine similarity of
 -1; [3, 0], [-2, 0]



Break!

We are aware of Scalars: A person's

Height (1.72m)

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Height (1.72m) Weight (72kg)

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Height (1.72m) Weight (72kg) Salary (100K)

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• • • •

A closed form definition of a person through some features

[Height (1.72m), Weight (72kg), Salary (100K)]

A closed form definition of a person through some features

- no explicit unit mentions

[1.72, 72, 100]

A closed form definition of a person through some features

- no explicit unit mentions

[1.72, 72, 100]

Is a vectoried representation of the person through some attributes: height, weight, salary

We are aware of Scalars: A person's height, weight, salary

1. Vectors

We begin by defining a mathematical abstraction known as a **vector space**. In linear algebra the fundamental concepts relate to the *n***-tuples** and their algebraic properties.

Definition: An ordered *n*-tuple is considered as a sequence of *n* terms (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) , where *n* is a positive integer.

We see that an ordered *n*-tuple has terms whereas a set has members.

Example: A sequence (5) is called an ordered 1-tuple. A 2-tuple, for example (3, 6) (where 6 appears after 3) is called an ordered pair, and 3-tuple is called an ordered triple. A sequence (9, 3, 4, 4, 1) is called an ordered 5-tuple.

Let us denote the set of all ordered 1-tuples of real numbers by \mathbb{R} . We will write for example $(3.5) \in \mathbb{R}$.

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}$$

We are aware of Scalars: A person's height, weight, salary

Physics vector: velocity (scalar value + direction)

Algebraic vector (in general): Common representation of an entity (1 to n dimension):

- A person's (height, weight, salary), say [1.78, 72, 100]: once defined, we have to follow it.

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}$$

One hot encoding: Important DS/ML concept (an example application)

Vector operation rules

```
1. \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}

2. \alpha \cdot \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}

3. \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{n} (commutativity)

4. \alpha \cdot (\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) = \alpha \cdot \mathbf{x} + \alpha \cdot \mathbf{y} (distributivity)

5. (\alpha + \beta) \cdot \mathbf{x} = \alpha \cdot \mathbf{x} + \beta \cdot \mathbf{x} (distributivity)

6. (\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) + \mathbf{z} = \mathbf{x} + (\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{z}) (associativity)

7. (\alpha\beta) \cdot \mathbf{x} = \alpha \cdot (\beta \cdot \mathbf{x}) (associativity)
```

Vector Operation

1.1.2. Vector Addition

Addition of vectors is defined:

$$\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 + y_1 \\ x_2 + y_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n + y_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Example:

$$\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 6 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 9 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Vector Operation

1.1.4. Zero Vector

The **zero** vector **sometimes denoted 0** is a vector having all elements equal to zero, e.g., the 2-dimensional **0** vector:

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \tag{A.7}$$

Vector Operation

1.1.9. Inner Product

The inner or dot product of two vectors x and y of the same dimension is a scalar defined by:

$$\mathbf{x}^T \cdot \mathbf{y} = (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = x_1 y_1 + x_2 y_2 + \dots + x_n y_n = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i$$
 (A.11)

Note that the inner product of vector \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} requires that a transposed vector \mathbf{x} be multiplied by the \mathbf{y} vector. Sometimes the inner product is denoted simply by juxtaposition of the vectors x and y, for example, as $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle$ or (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) .

Example: The inner product of two vectors $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 1 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\mathbf{x}^{T}\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \ 1 \ 7 \end{bmatrix}^{T} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix} = 4 \cdot 0 + 1 \cdot 2 + 7 \cdot (-3) = 19$$

Vector Operation

1.1.10. Orthogonal Vectors

Two vectors \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} are said to be **orthogonal** if their inner product is equal to zero

$$\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y} = 0 \tag{A.12}$$

here 0 is a scalar.

Example: Two vectors $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$ and are orthogonal, since their inner product is equal to zero

$$\mathbf{x}^T \cdot \mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}^T = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \ 2 \end{bmatrix} = 4 \cdot 0 + 0 \cdot 2 = 0$$

Vector Operation

1.1.11. Vector Norm

The magnitude of a vector may be measure in different ways. One method, called the vector **norm**, is a function from \mathbb{R}^n into \mathbb{R} for \mathbf{x} an element of \mathbb{R}^n . It is denoted $||\mathbf{x}||$ and satisfies the following conditions:

- 1. $||\mathbf{x}|| \ge 0$, and the equality holds if and only if $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$
- 2. $||\alpha \mathbf{x}|| = |\alpha| \cdot ||\mathbf{x}||$, where $|\alpha|$ is the absolute value of scalar α

and is defined as:

$$||\mathbf{x}|| = \sqrt{\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}} = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \dots + x_n^2}$$
 (A.13)

Example: For the vector $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$ the norm is

$$||\mathbf{x}|| = \sqrt{\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}} = \sqrt{4^2 + 3^2} = 5$$