

Recruitment Neighborhoods

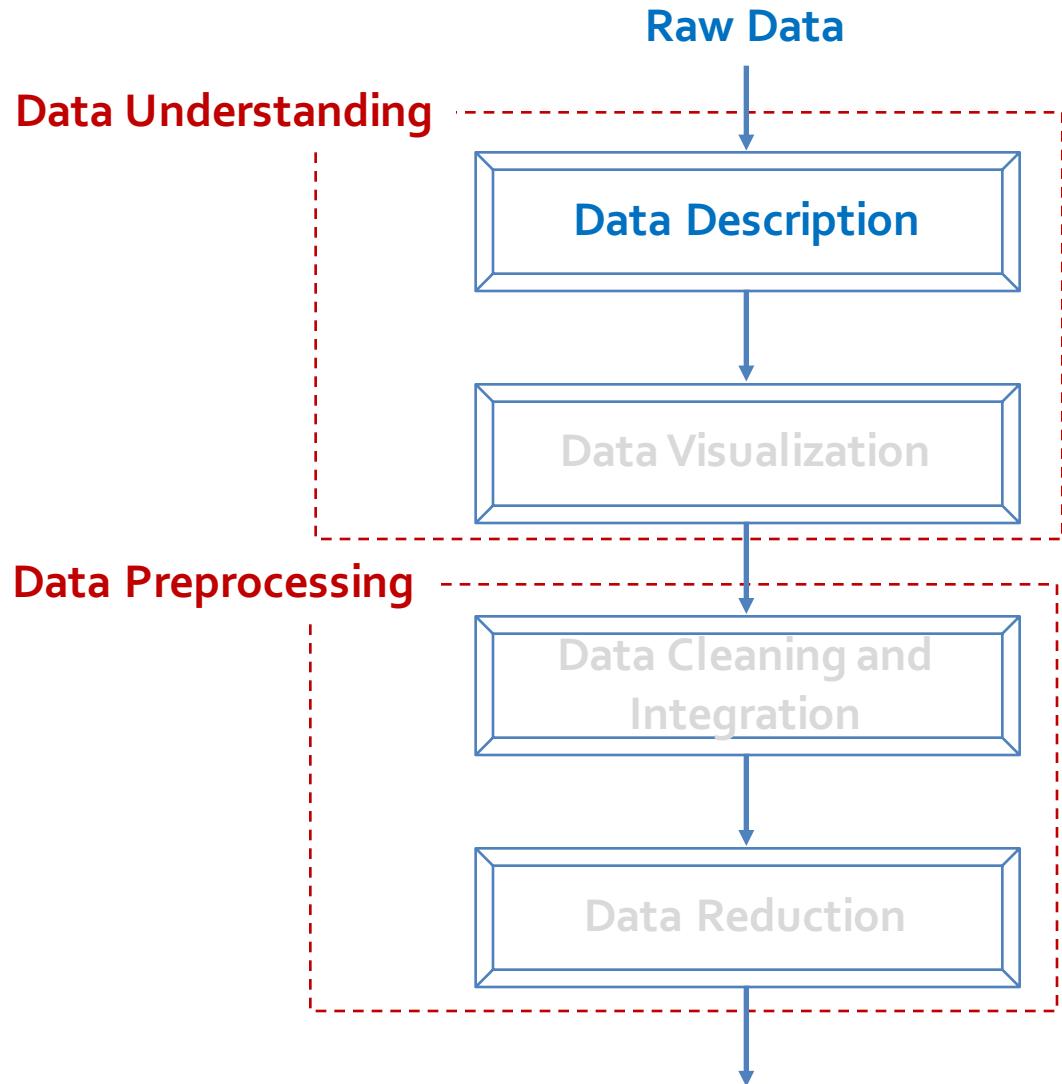
The Overlapping Turf of the Top 25 College Football Programs

Chapter 2. Data Preprocessing: Data Visualization

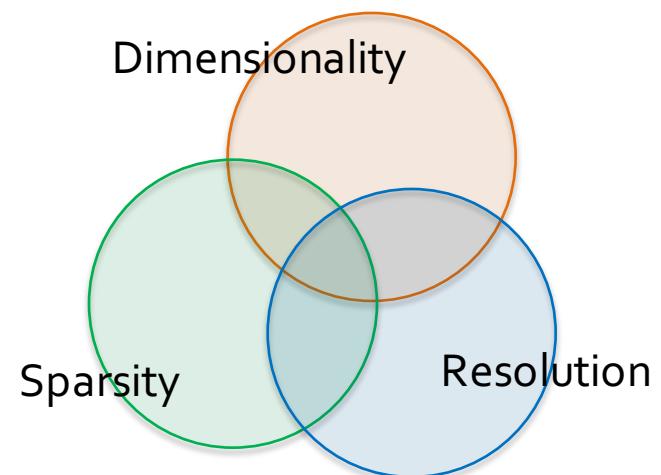
Meng Jiang
Data Science

Hourly Drive-Time Areas

John Nelson | @john_m_nelson
Drive Times | Esri Service Area Tool
Imagery | NASA Visible Earth



Describing data:

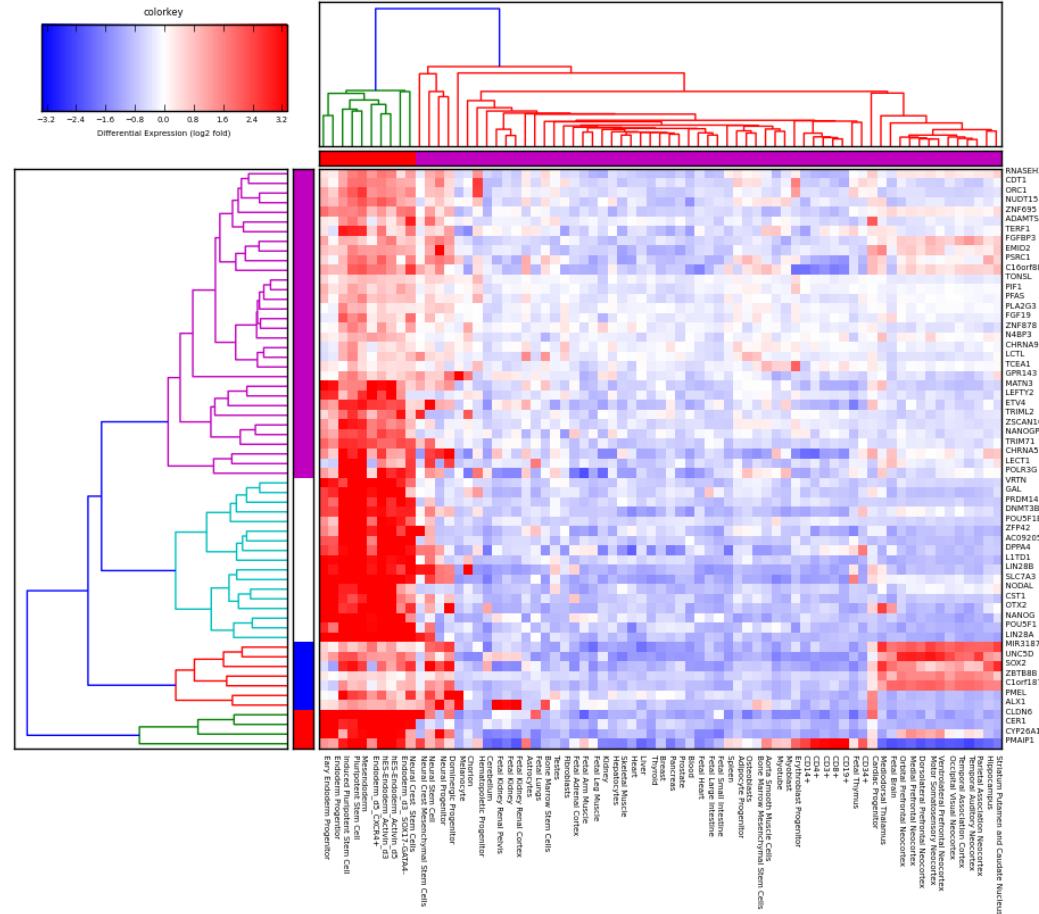


Describing Data

- Dimensionality
 - How many features are there in the data?
- Sparsity
 - Does the data contain many empty values?
- Resolution
 - Is the data granular or coarse?

Dimensionality

- The number of features that the entities or objects in the dataset possesses.
- Datasets with few dimensions tend to be qualitatively different than those with many dimensions.



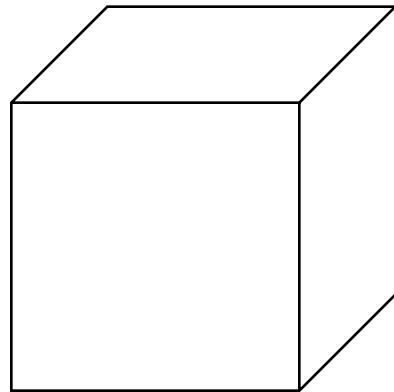
A Quick Aside

Are more dimensions (i.e., features) always helpful?

| Data Objects (instances) | Input Features: X (attributes) | | | | | Class: Y (label) |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------------|-------|-----|-------|--|---------------------|
| | x_1 | x_2 | ... | x_m | | |
| | 1 | | | | | |
| | 2 | | | | | |
| | ... | | | | | |
| | n | | | | | |

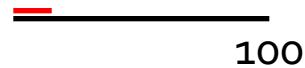
Curse of Dimensionality

- Suppose we have 100 instances uniformly distributed in a unit hypercube.



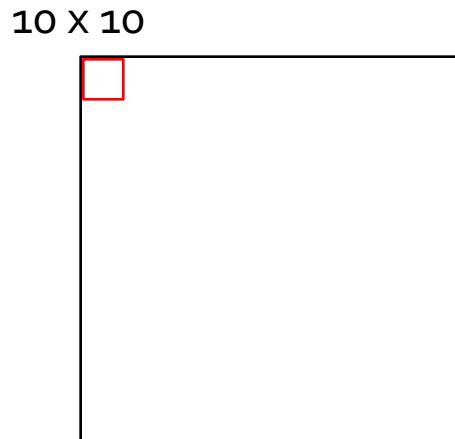
Curse of Dimensionality

- In 1 dimension, we must go a distance of $1/100 = 0.01$ on average to reach our nearest neighbor.



Curse of Dimensionality

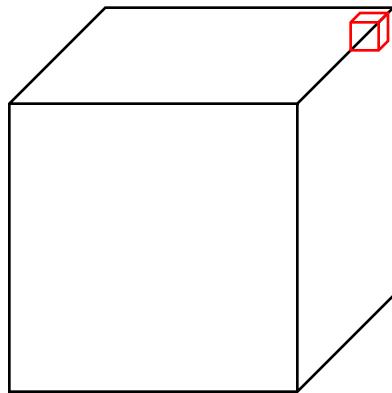
- In 2 dimensions, we must go a distance of $(0.01)^{1/2} = 0.1$ on average to reach our nearest neighbor.



Curse of Dimensionality

- In 3 dimensions, we must go a distance of $(0.01)^{1/3} \approx 0.215$ on average to reach our nearest neighbor.

$$4.64 \times 4.64 \times 4.64$$



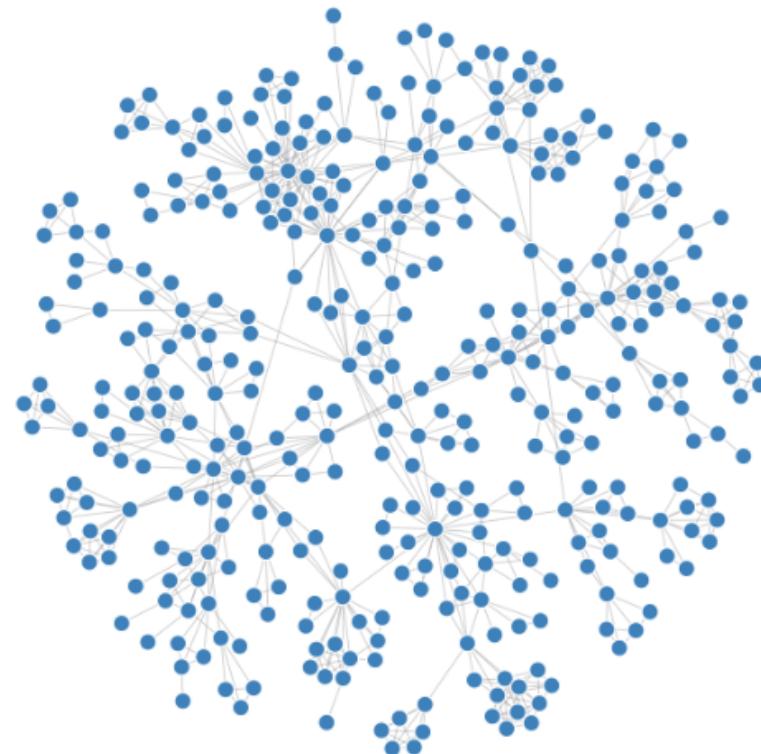
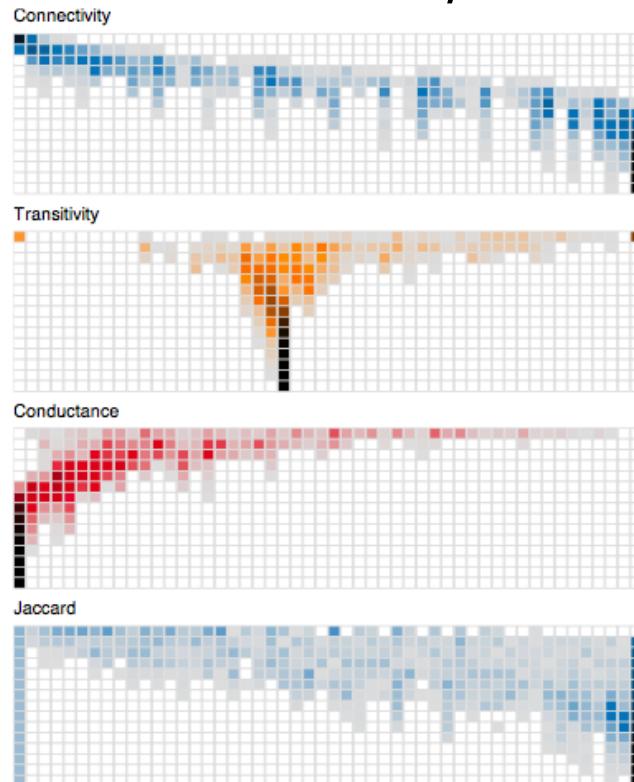
Curse of Dimensionality

- In d dimensions, we must go a distance of $(0.01)^{1/d}$ on average to reach our nearest neighbor.
- As d increases, this distance approaches 1 (the entire length of the hypercube)!

Dimension Reduction

Data Sparsity

- When the distance between the data becomes large, we call the data **sparse**.
- For some datasets, most features have values of zero.



Data Sparsity

- Can be a problem for many methods
 - Can create statistical bias due to small samples
 - Can reduce the meaningfulness of distance calculations
- Can also be an advantage
 - Requires less storage

| A | B | C | D |
|------|---|-------|---------|
| Rank | Institution | Count | Faculty |
| 1 | http://csrankings.org/ | | |
| 2 | Institution | | |
| 3 | 1 ▶ Carnegie Mellon University • | 18.5 | 150 |
| 4 | 2 ▶ Massachusetts Institute of Technology • | 12.2 | 82 |
| 5 | 3 ▶ Stanford University • | 10.9 | 54 |
| 6 | 3 ▶ University of California - Berkeley • | 10.9 | 81 |
| 7 | 5 ▶ Univ. of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign • | 9.9 | 84 |
| 8 | 6 ▶ Cornell University • | 8.7 | 68 |
| 9 | 7 ▶ University of Michigan • | 8.6 | 63 |
| 10 | 8 ▶ University of Washington • | 8.3 | 56 |
| 11 | 9 ▶ University of California - San Diego • | 6.9 | 54 |
| 12 | 10 ▶ Georgia Institute of Technology • | | |
| 13 | 11 ▶ University of Wisconsin-Madison • | | |
| 14 | 12 ▶ Columbia University • | | |
| 15 | 13 ▶ University of Texas at Austin • | | |
| 16 | 14 ▶ University of Pennsylvania • | | |
| 17 | 15 ▶ Princeton University • | | |
| 18 | 16 ▶ University of Texas at Austin • | 5.2 | 42 |
| 19 | 16 ▶ University of Maryland - College Park • | 5.2 | 44 |
| 20 | 18 ▶ University of California - Los Angeles • | 5 | 37 |
| 21 | 19 ▶ Northeastern University • | 4.8 | 54 |
| 22 | 19 ▶ Purdue University • | 4.8 | 51 |
| 23 | 21 ▶ University of Massachusetts Amherst • | 4.7 | 50 |
| 24 | 22 ▶ New York University • | 4.5 | 47 |
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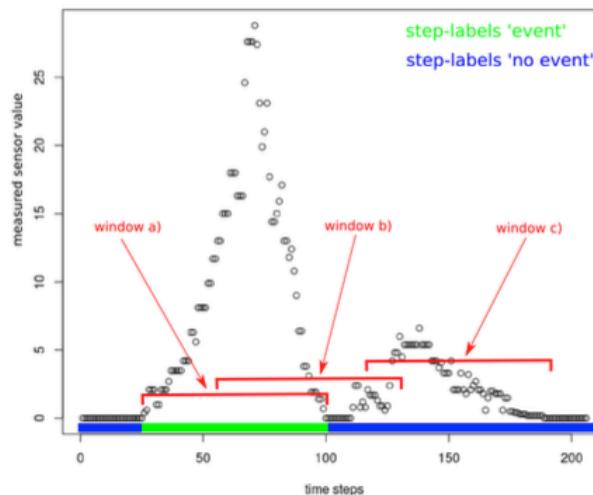
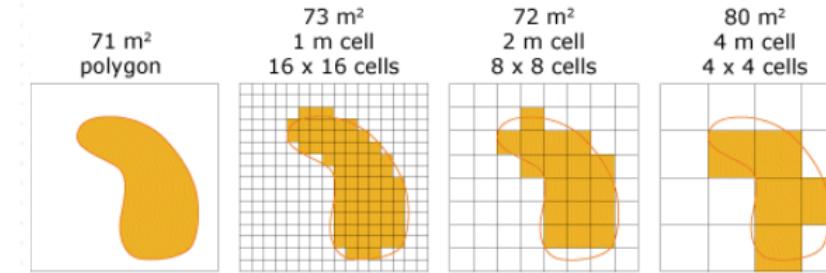
126 institutions

▶ Cornell University •
Cornell University - Ithaca, NY

Data Cleaning and
Integration

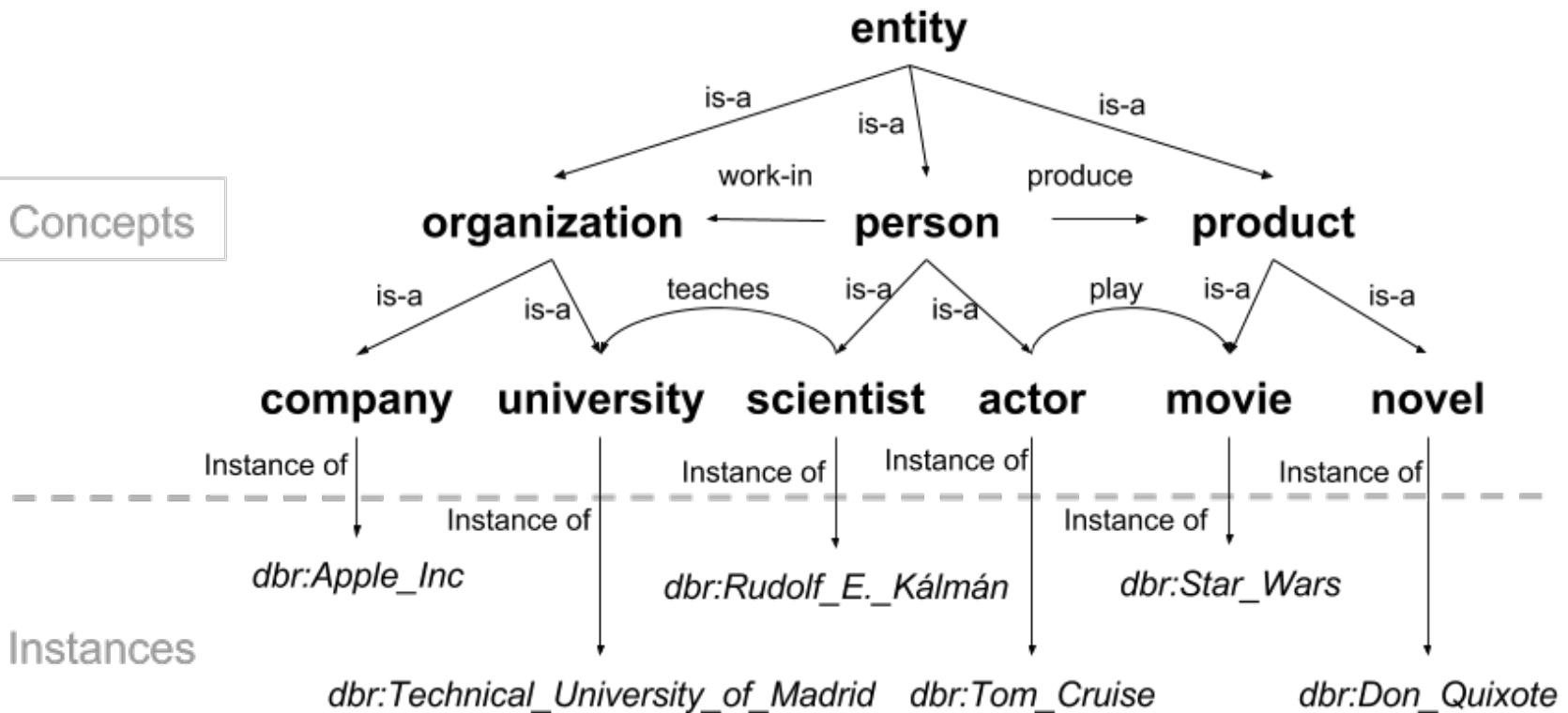
Data Resolution

- Different resolutions reveal different patterns.
- If the resolution is too fine, a pattern may be buried in noise.
- If the resolution is too coarse, the pattern may disappear.



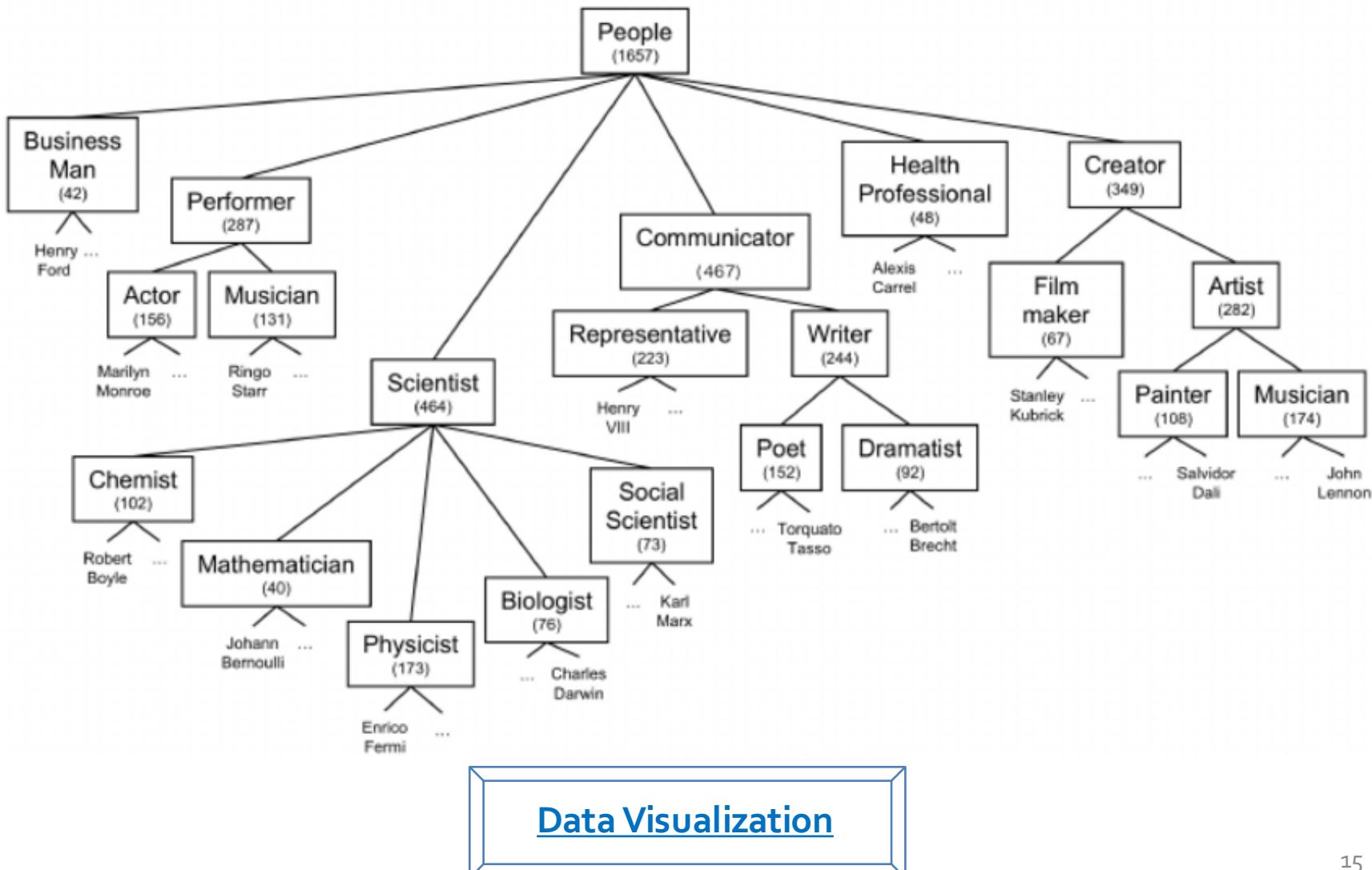
Data Resolution

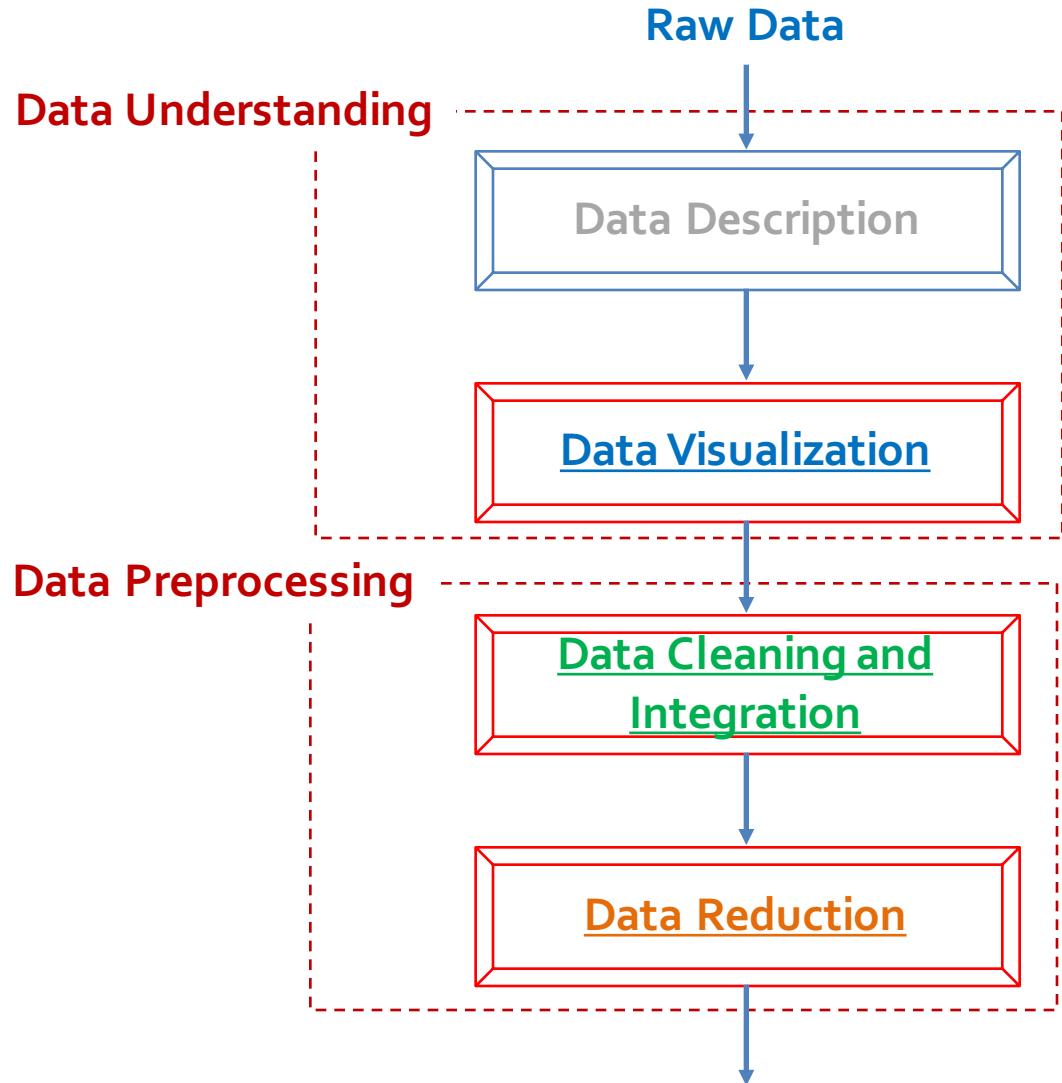
Concepts



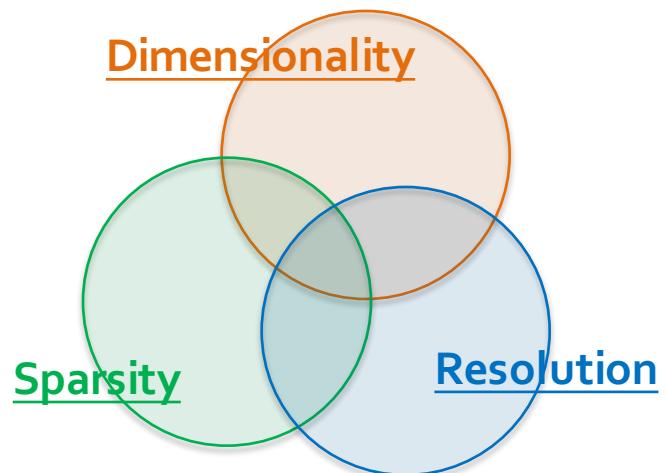
Instances

Data Resolution





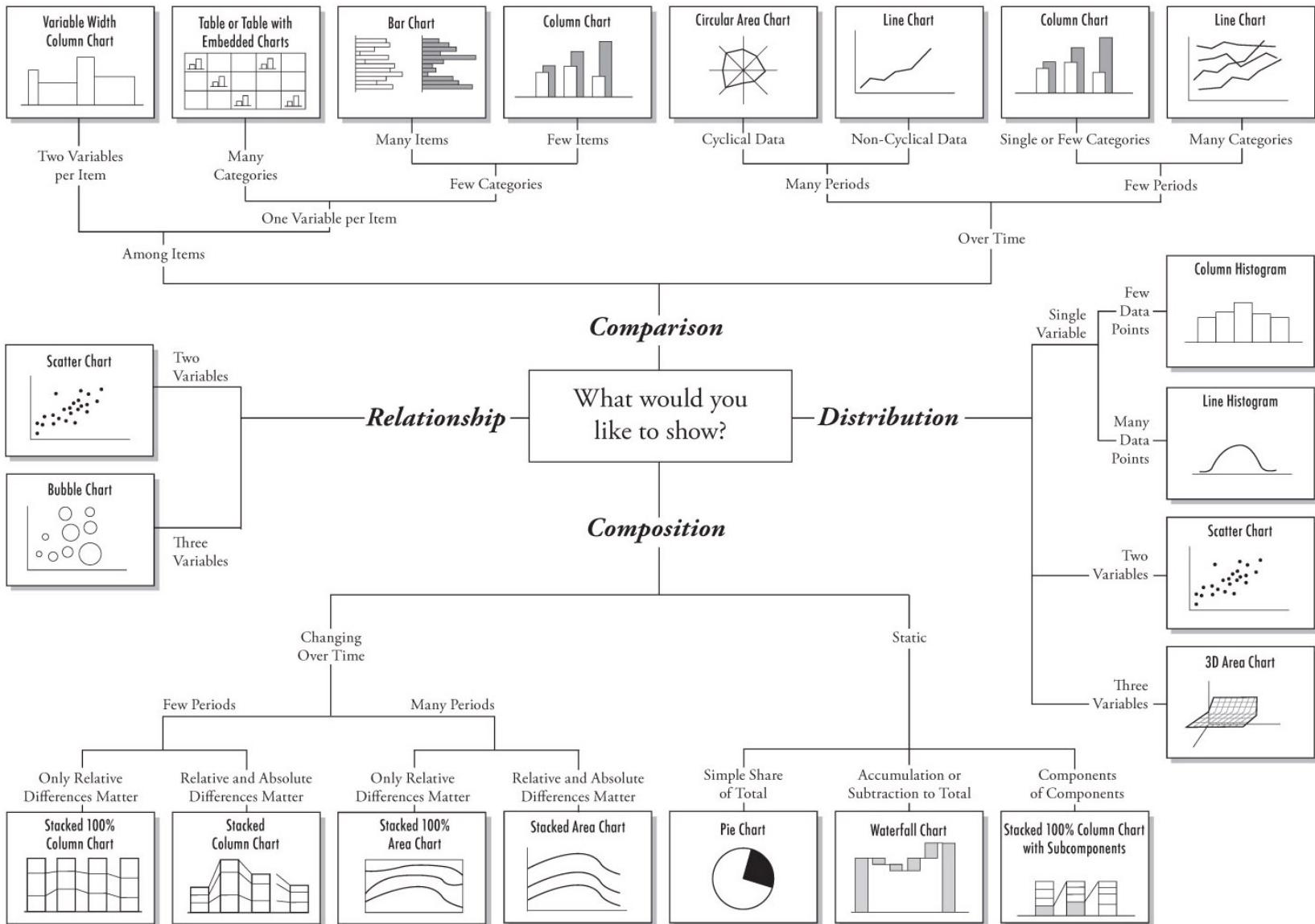
Describing data:



Today: Data Visualization

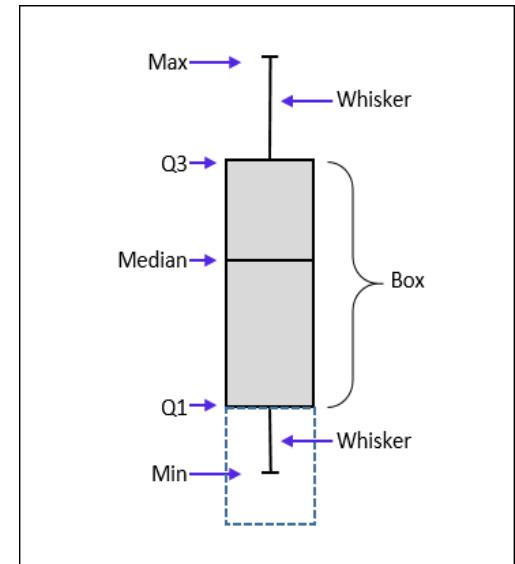
- Understand dimensionality, sparsity, and resolution
- Describe and generate plots
 - **Boxplot, histogram, bar chart**
 - **Quantile plot, Q-Q plot**
 - **Scatter plot**
- Understand graphical integrity
- Describe data proximity
 - Describe **data dissimilarity**: Calculate three Minkowski distance measures
 - Describe **data similarity**: Calculate Jaccard similarity, cosine similarity, and KL divergence

Chart Suggestions—A Thought-Starter



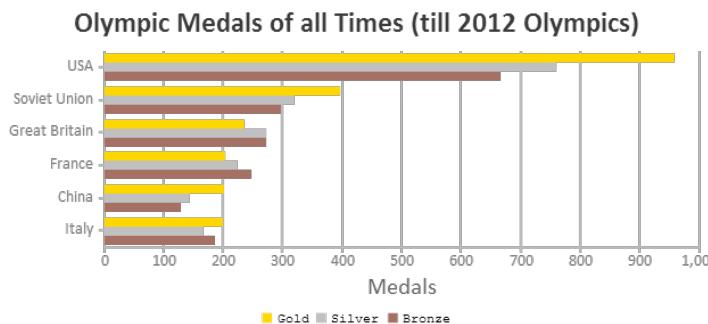
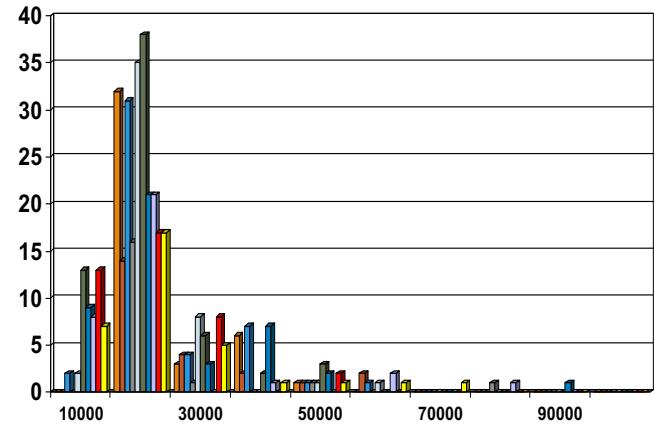
Quartiles & Boxplots

- **Quartiles:** Q_1 (25^{th} percentile), Q_3 (75^{th} percentile)
- **Inter-quartile range:** $\text{IQR} = Q_3 - Q_1$
- **Five number summary:** min, Q_1 , median, Q_3 , max
- **Boxplot:** Data is represented with a box
 - Q_1 , Q_3 , IQR: The ends of the box are at the first and third quartiles, i.e., the height of the box is IQR
 - Median (Q_2) is marked by a line within the box
 - Whiskers: Two lines outside the box extended to Minimum and Maximum



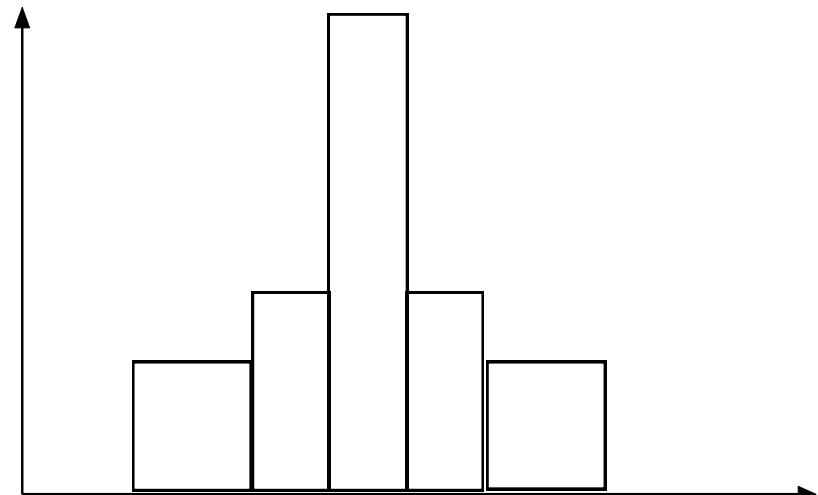
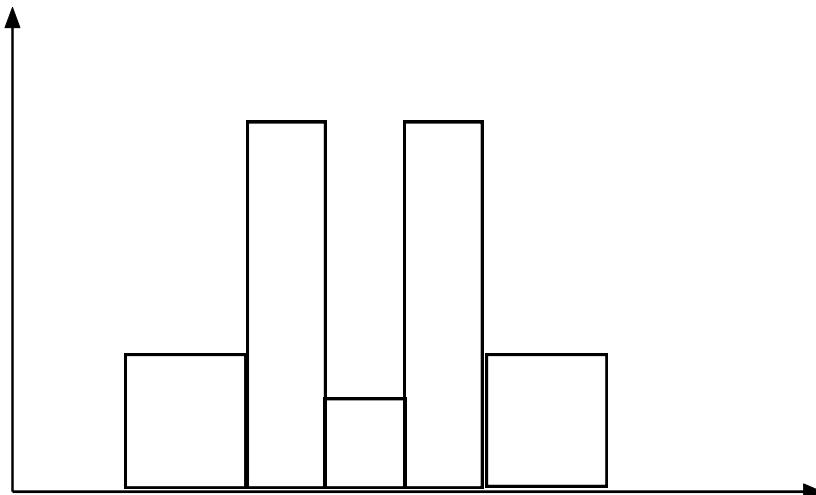
Histograms

- **Histogram:** Graph display of tabulated frequencies, shown as bars
- Between histograms and **bar charts**
 - Histograms are used to show distributions of variables while bar charts are used to compare variables
 - Histograms plot binned quantitative data while bar charts plot categorical data
 - Bars can be reordered in bar charts but not in histograms



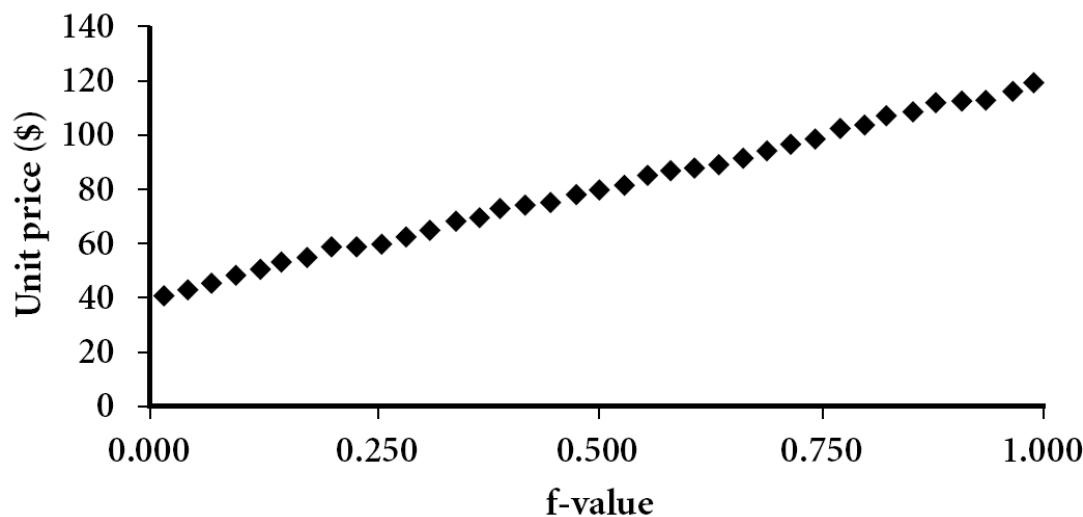
Histograms Often Tell More than Boxplots

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



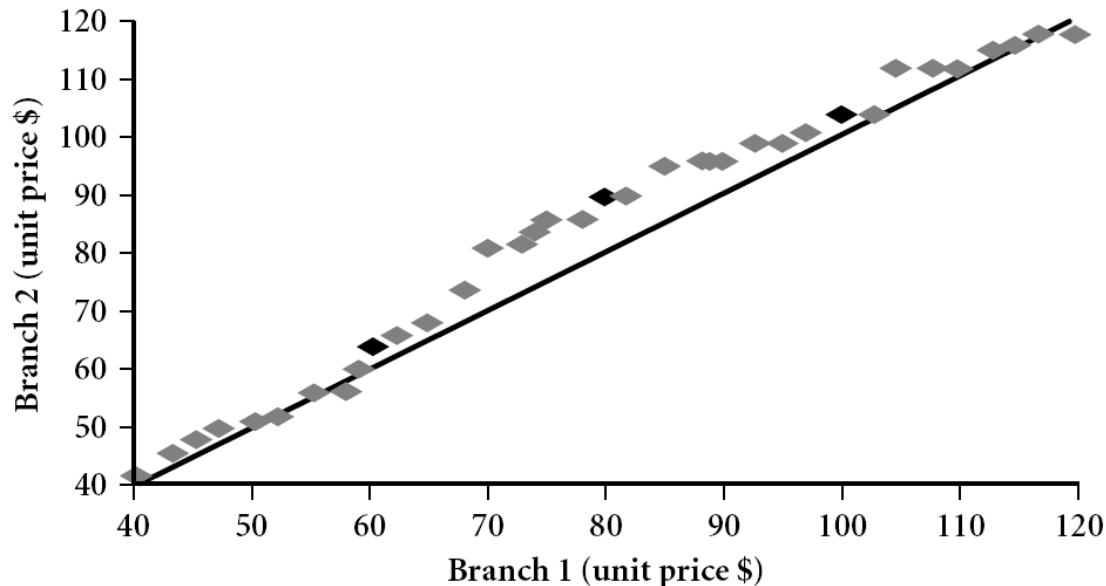
Quantile Plot

- 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



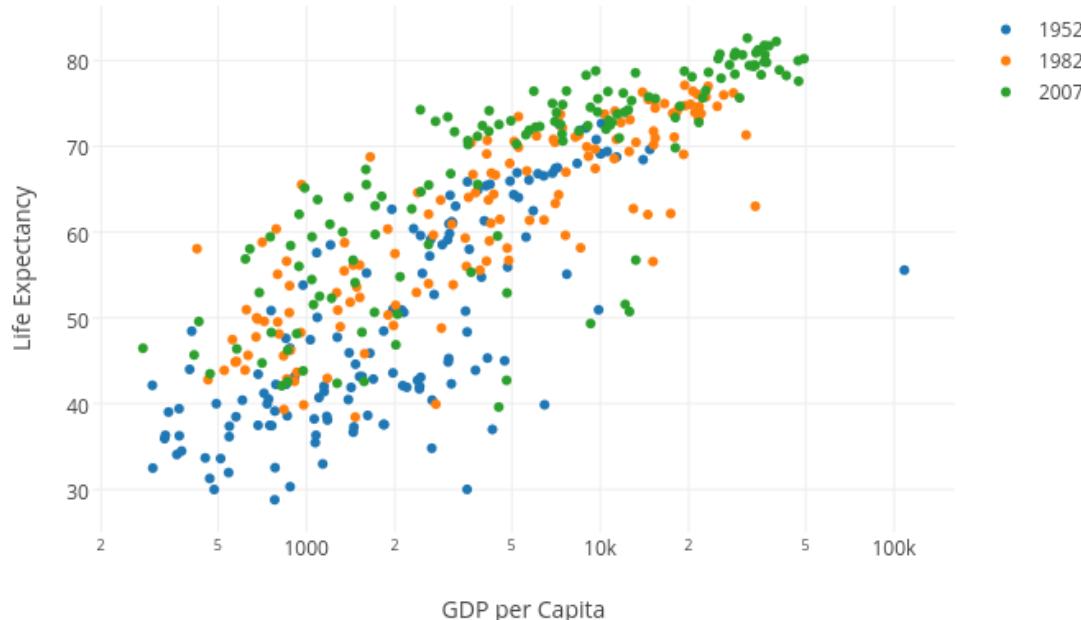
Quantile-Quantile (Q-Q) Plot

- Graphs the quantiles of one univariate distribution against the corresponding quantiles of another
- 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 data to see clusters of points, outliers
- Each pair of values is treated as a pair of coordinates and plotted as points in the plane



Summary: Graphic Displays of Basic Statistical Descriptions

- **Boxplot:** graphic display of five-number summary
- **Histogram:** x-axis are values, y-axis representative frequencies
- **Quantile plot:** each value x_i is paired with f_i indicating that approximately $100f_i\%$ 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

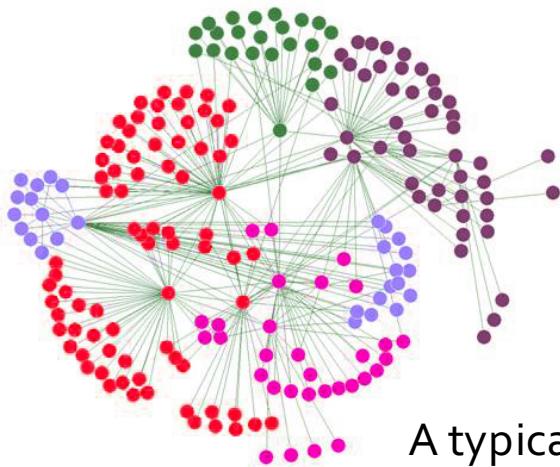
Other Visualization: Tag Cloud

KDD 2013 Research Paper Title

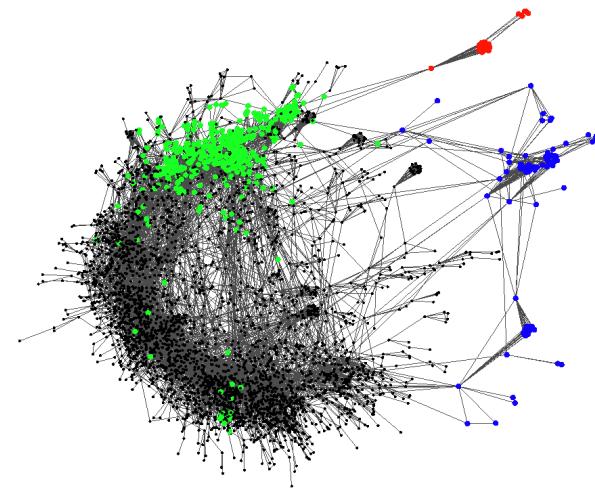


Newsmap: Google News Stories in 2005

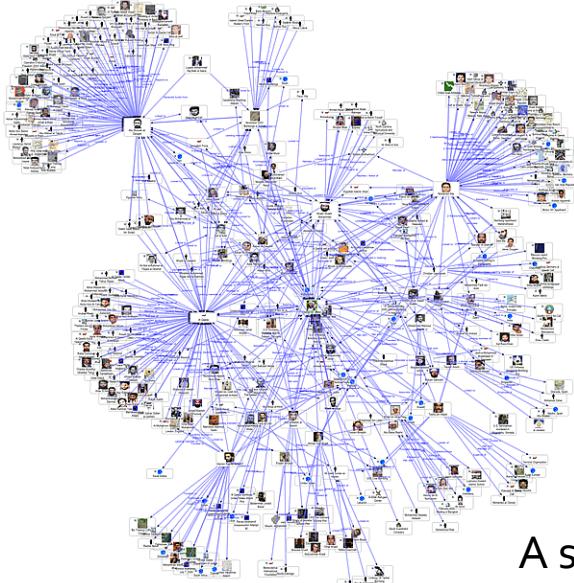
Other Visualization: Networks



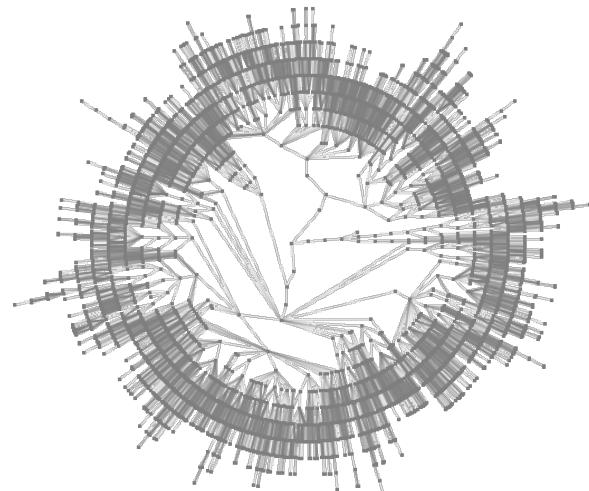
A typical network structure



organizing information networks



A social network

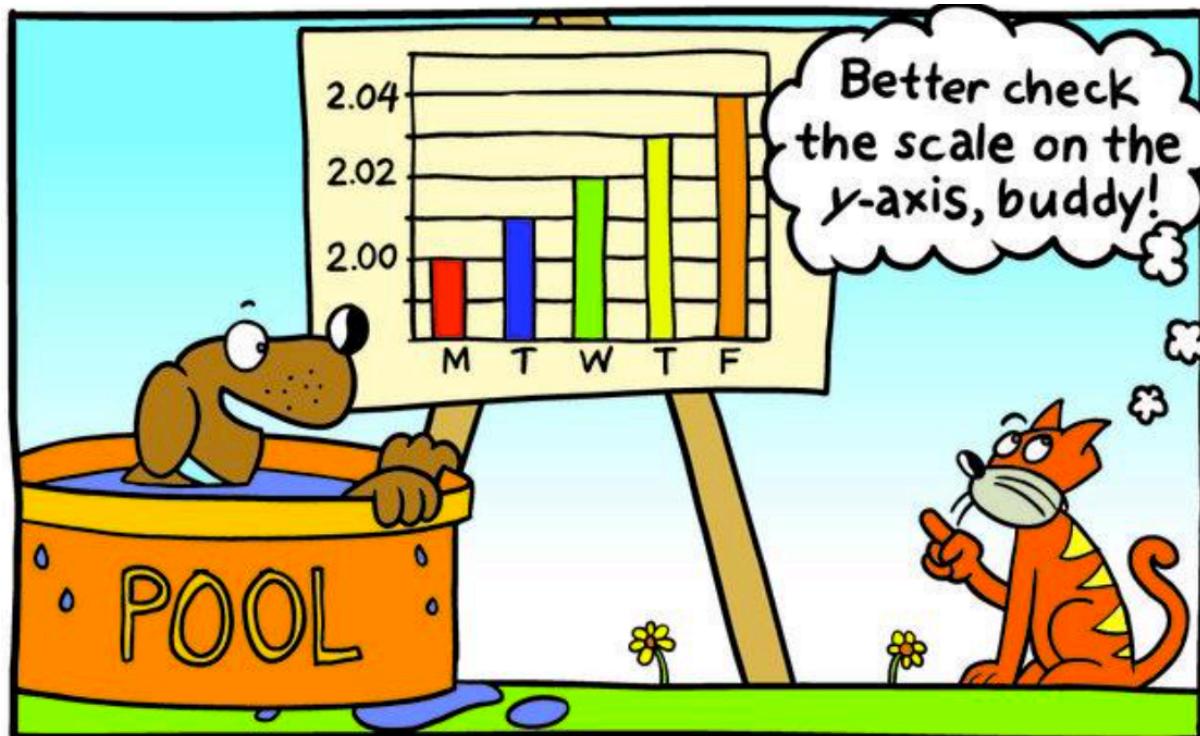


iPython (I)

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126 institutions

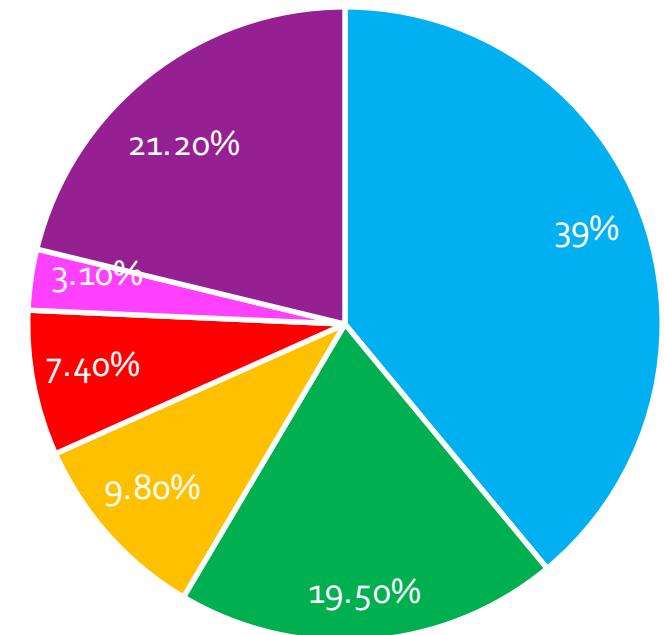
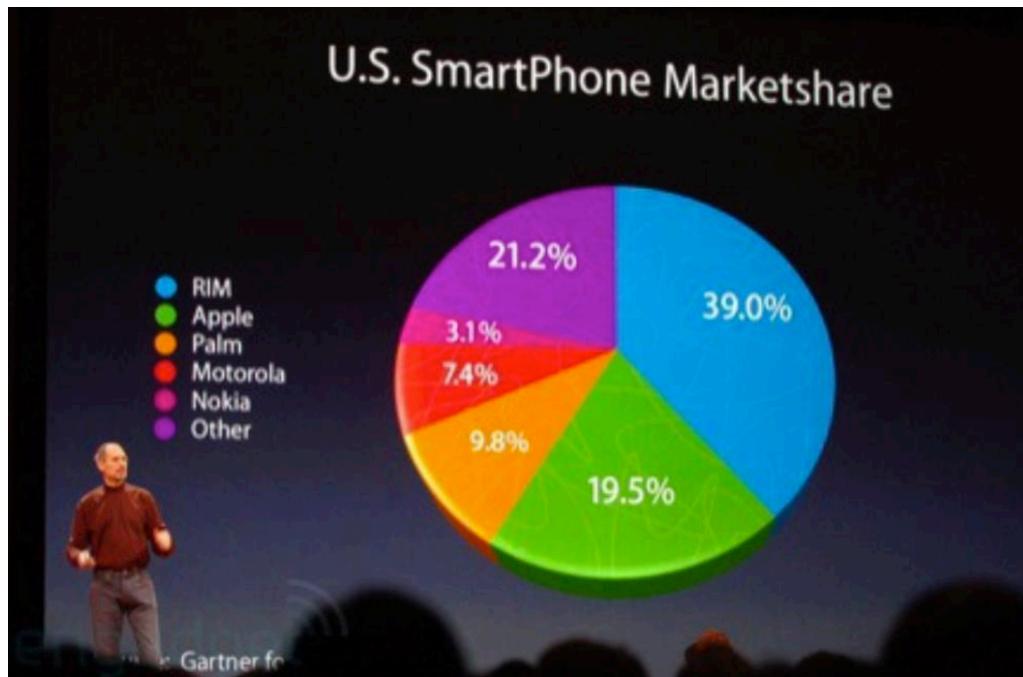
Graphical Integrity



"Wow. The number of minutes I can dog paddle is growing like crazy!"

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Graphical Integrity



The Lie Factor

- Coined by Edward Tufte, the Lie Factor is defined to be a measure of the amount of “distortion” in a graph. That is

$$\text{Lie Factor} = \frac{\text{Size of effect shown in graph}}{\text{Size of effect shown in data}}, \text{ where}$$

$$\text{Size of effect} = \frac{|\text{second value} - \text{first value}|}{\text{first value}}$$

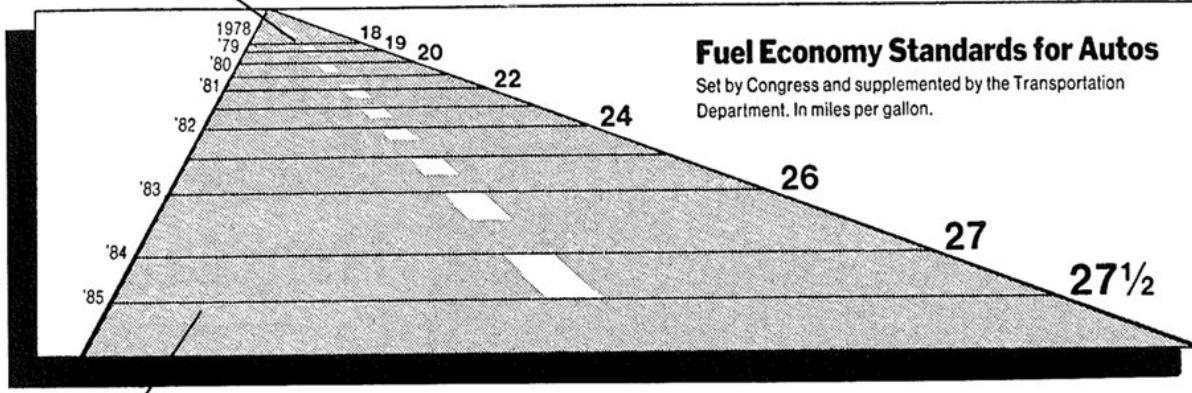
- If the lie factor is greater than 1, the graph is exaggerating the size of the effect.

The Lie Factor

Lie factor: 14.8

This line, representing 18 miles per gallon in 1978, is 0.6 inches long.

$$(5.3-0.6)/0.6 \quad / \quad (27.5-18)/18 = 14.8$$



This line, representing 27.5 miles per gallon in 1985, is 5.3 inches long.

Line increase: 783%

Actual increase: 53%

New York Times, 9th August 1978, p D-2

Data Proximity

- Understand dimensionality, sparsity, and resolution.
- Describe and generate plots
 - Boxplot, histogram, bar chart
 - Quantile plot, Q-Q plot
 - Scatter plot
- Understand graphical integrity
- Describe data proximity
 - Describe **data dissimilarity**: Calculate three Minkowski distance measures
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Similarity and Dissimilarity

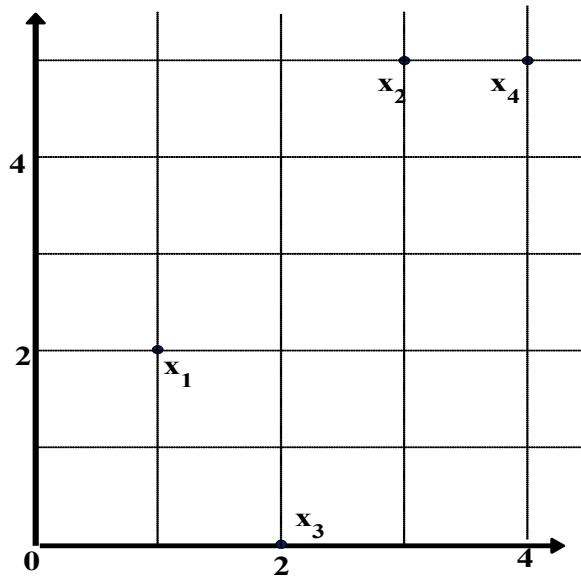
- Similarity measure or similarity function
 - A real-valued function that quantifies the similarity between two objects
 - Measure how two data objects are alike: The higher value, the more alike
 - Often falls in the range $[0,1]$: 0: no similarity; 1: completely similar
- Dissimilarity (or distance) measure
 - Numerical measure of how different two data objects are
 - In some sense, the inverse of similarity: The lower, the more alike
 - Minimum dissimilarity is often 0 (i.e., completely similar)
 - Range $[0, 1]$ or $[0, \infty)$, depending on the definition

Data Matrix and Dissimilarity Matrix

- Data matrix
 - A data matrix of n data points with l dimensions
- Dissimilarity (distance) matrix
 - n data points, but registers only the distance $d(i, j)$
 - Usually symmetric, thus a triangular matrix
 - Distance functions are usually different for real, boolean, categorical, ordinal variables
 - Weights can be associated with different variables based on applications and data semantics

$$D = \begin{pmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} & \dots & x_{1l} \\ x_{21} & x_{22} & \dots & x_{2l} \\ & & \ddots & \\ x_{n1} & x_{n2} & \dots & x_{nl} \end{pmatrix}$$
$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ d(2,1) & 0 \\ & \ddots \\ d(n,1) & d(n,2) & \dots & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Example: Euclidean Distance



Data Matrix

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

Dissimilarity Matrix (by 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 |

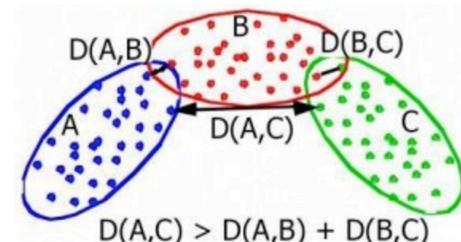
Minkowski Distance

- Minkowski distance: A popular distance measure

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

where $i = (x_{i1}, x_{i2}, \dots, x_{il})$ and $j = (x_{j1}, x_{j2}, \dots, x_{jl})$ are two l -dimensional data objects, and p is the order (the distance so defined is called **L-p norm**)

- Properties
 - $d(i, j) > 0$ if $i \neq j$, and $d(i, i) = 0$ (Positivity)
 - $d(i, j) = d(j, i)$ (**Symmetry**)
 - $d(i, j) \leq d(i, k) + d(k, j)$ (**Triangle Inequality**)
- A distance that satisfies these properties is a **metric**
- Note: There are nonmetric dissimilarities, e.g., *set difference*



Special Cases of Minkowski Distance

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

$$d(i, j) = |x_{i1} - x_{j1}| + |x_{i2} - x_{j2}| + \dots + |x_{il} - x_{jl}|$$

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

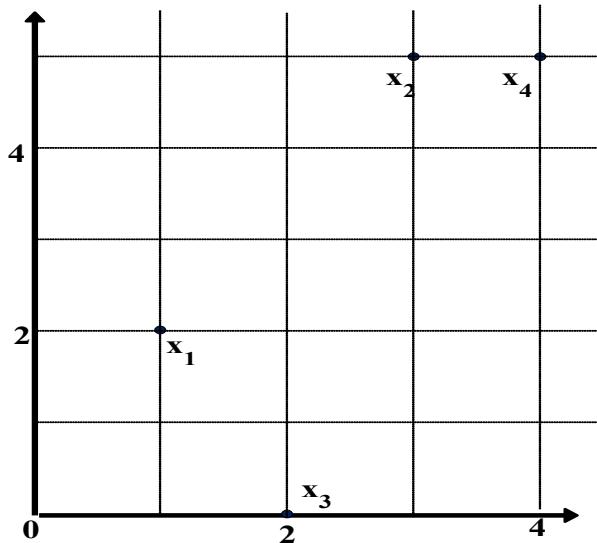
$$d(i, j) = \sqrt{|x_{i1} - x_{j1}|^2 + |x_{i2} - x_{j2}|^2 + \dots + |x_{il} - x_{jl}|^2}$$

- $p \rightarrow \infty$: (L_{\max} norm, L_∞ norm) “supremum” distance
 - The maximum difference between any component (attribute) of the vectors

$$d(i, j) = \lim_{p \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[p]{|x_{i1} - x_{j1}|^p + |x_{i2} - x_{j2}|^p + \dots + |x_{il} - x_{jl}|^p} = \max_{f=1}^l |x_{if} - x_{jf}|$$

Example: Minkowski Distance at Special Cases

| point | attribute 1 | attribute 2 |
|-------|-------------|-------------|
| x1 | 1 | 2 |
| x2 | 3 | 5 |
| x3 | 2 | 0 |
| x4 | 4 | 5 |



Manhattan (L_1)

| L | x1 | x2 | x3 | x4 |
|----|----|----|----|----|
| x1 | 0 | | | |
| x2 | 5 | 0 | | |
| x3 | 3 | 6 | 0 | |
| x4 | 6 | 1 | 7 | 0 |

Euclidean (L_2)

| L2 | x1 | x2 | x3 | x4 |
|----|------|-----|------|----|
| x1 | 0 | | | |
| x2 | 3.61 | 0 | | |
| x3 | 2.24 | 5.1 | 0 | |
| x4 | 4.24 | 1 | 5.39 | 0 |

Supremum (L_∞)

| L ∞ | x1 | x2 | x3 | x4 |
|------------|----|----|----|----|
| x1 | 0 | | | |
| x2 | 3 | 0 | | |
| x3 | 2 | 5 | 0 | |
| x4 | 3 | 1 | 5 | 0 |

Proximity Measure for Binary Attributes

- A contingency table for binary data

| | | Object <i>j</i> | | |
|-----------------|--------------|-----------------|----------|--------------|
| | | 1 | 0 | sum |
| 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> | |

- Distance measure for *symmetric* binary variables:

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

- Distance measure for *asymmetric* binary variables:

- If *t* is very large

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

- 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”:

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

Proximity Measure for Categorical Attributes

- Categorical data, also called nominal attributes
 - Example: Color (red, yellow, blue, green), profession, etc.
- 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

Ordinal Variables

- An ordinal variable can be discrete or continuous
- Order is important, e.g., rank (e.g., freshman, sophomore, junior, senior)
- Can be treated like interval-scaled
 - Replace an ordinal variable value by its rank and map the range of each variable onto $[0, 1]$:
 - Example: freshman: 0; sophomore: $1/3$; junior: $2/3$; senior 1
 - Then distance: $d(\text{freshman}, \text{senior}) = 1$, $d(\text{junior}, \text{senior}) = 1/3$
 - Compute the dissimilarity using methods for interval-scaled variables

Cosine Similarity of Two Vectors

- A **document** can be represented by a bag of terms or a long vector, with each attribute recording the *frequency* of a particular term (such as word, keyword, 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, biological taxonomy, gene feature mapping, etc.
- Cosine measure:** If d_1 and d_2 are two vectors (e.g., term-frequency vectors), then

$$\cos(d_1, d_2) = \frac{d_1 \cdot d_2}{\|d_1\| \times \|d_2\|}$$

where \bullet indicates vector dot product, $\|d\|$: the length of vector d

Matrix Computation for Cosine Similarity

$A =$

| | team | coach | hockey | baseball | soccer | penalty |
|----|------|-------|--------|----------|--------|---------|
| D1 | 5 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 2 | 0 |
| D2 | 3 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| D3 | 0 | 7 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 0 |
| D4 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 3 |

↓

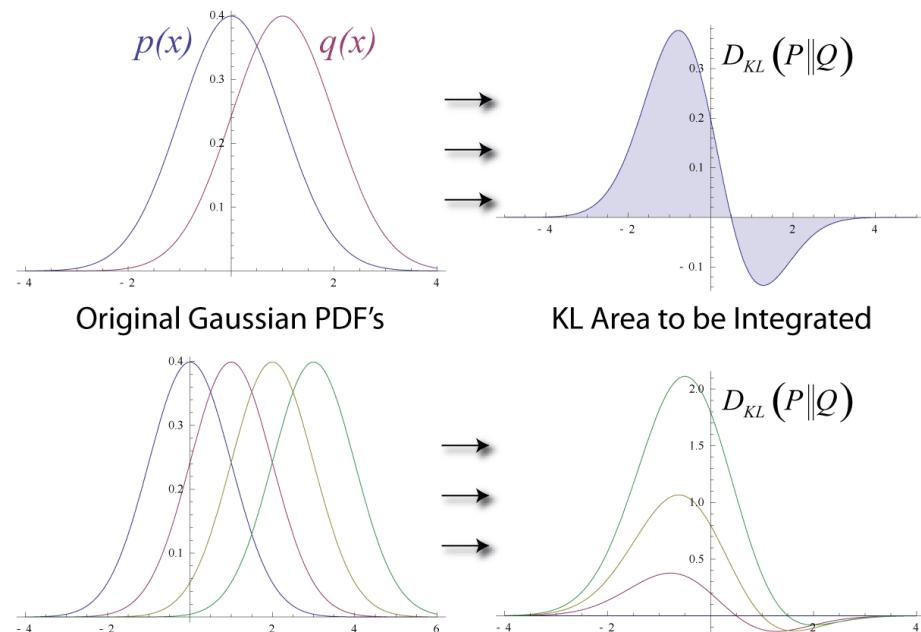
Normalize A

Calculate AA^T

| | D1 | D2 | D3 | D4 |
|----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| D1 | 1.0 | ? | ? | ? |
| D2 | ? | 1.0 | ? | ? |
| D3 | ? | ? | 1.0 | ? |
| D4 | ? | ? | ? | 1.0 |

KL Divergence: Comparing Two Probability Distributions

- *The Kullback-Leibler (KL) divergence:* Measure the **difference** between two probability distributions over the same variable x
 - From information theory, closely related to *relative entropy*, *information divergence*, and *information for discrimination*
- $D_{KL}(p(x) \parallel q(x))$: divergence of $q(x)$ from $p(x)$, measuring the **information lost when $q(x)$ is used to approximate $p(x)$**



Discrete form

$$D_{KL}(p(x) \parallel q(x)) = \sum_{x \in X} p(x) \ln \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$$

Continuous form

$$D_{KL}(p(x) \parallel q(x)) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(x) \ln \frac{p(x)}{q(x)} dx$$

iPython (II)

| A | B | C | D |
|------|---|-------|---------|
| Rank | Institution | Count | Faculty |
| 1 | http://csrankings.org/ | | |
| 2 | 1 ► Carnegie Mellon University • | 18.5 | 150 |
| 4 | 2 ► Massachusetts Institute of Technology • | 12.2 | 82 |
| 5 | 3 ► Stanford University • | 10.9 | 54 |
| 6 | 3 ► University of California - Berkeley • | 10.9 | 81 |
| 7 | 5 ► Univ. of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign • | 9.9 | 84 |
| 8 | 6 ► Cornell University • | 8.7 | 68 |
| 9 | 7 ► University of Michigan • | 8.6 | 63 |
| 10 | 8 ► University of Washington • | 8.3 | 56 |
| 11 | 9 ► University of California - San Diego • | 6.9 | 54 |
| 12 | 10 ► Georgia Institute of Technology • | 6.8 | 75 |
| 13 | 11 ► University of Wisconsin - Madison • | 5.9 | 47 |
| 14 | 12 ► Columbia University • | 5.8 | 47 |
| 15 | 13 ► University of Pennsylvania • | 5.6 | 46 |
| 16 | 14 ► University of Southern California • | 5.5 | 49 |
| 17 | 15 ► Princeton University • | 5.3 | 51 |
| 18 | 16 ► University of Texas at Austin • | 5.2 | 42 |
| 19 | 16 ► University of Maryland - College Park • | 5.2 | 44 |
| 20 | 18 ► University of California - Los Angeles • | 5 | 37 |
| 21 | 19 ► Northeastern University • | 4.8 | 54 |
| 22 | 19 ► Purdue University • | 4.8 | 51 |
| 23 | 21 ► University of Massachusetts Amherst • | 4.7 | 50 |
| 24 | 22 ► New York University • | 4.5 | 47 |
| 25 | 23 ► Harvard University • | 4.2 | 29 |
| 26 | 23 ► University of California - Irvine • | 4.2 | 54 |
| 27 | 25 ► Rutgers University • | 3.9 | 43 |
| 28 | 26 ► University of California - Santa Barbara • | 3.5 | 25 |
| 29 | 27 ► University of Utah • | 3.4 | 39 |
| 30 | 27 ► Pennsylvania State University • | 3.4 | 31 |
| 31 | 29 ► Stony Brook University • | 3.3 | 41 |
| 32 | 30 ► University of California - Davis • | 3.2 | 29 |

126 institutions

Summary: Data Visualization

- Understand dimensionality, sparsity, and resolution
- Describe and generate plots
 - Boxplot, histogram, bar chart
 - Quantile plot, Q-Q plot
 - Scatter plot
- Understand graphical integrity
- Describe data proximity
 - Describe data dissimilarity: Calculate three Minkowski distance measures
 - Describe data similarity: Calculate Jaccard similarity, cosine similarity, and KL divergence

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