

## 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

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## Proximity Measure for Nominal Attributes

- Data matrix
- $n$ data points with $p$ dimensions
- Two modes

$$
\left[\begin{array}{ccccc}
x_{11} & \ldots & x_{1 f} & \ldots & x_{1 p} \\
\ldots & \ldots & \ldots & \ldots & \ldots \\
x_{i 1} & \ldots & x_{i f} & \ldots & x_{i p} \\
\ldots & \ldots & \ldots & \ldots & \ldots \\
x_{n 1} & \ldots & x_{n f} & \ldots & x_{n p}
\end{array}\right]
$$

- Dissimilarity matrix
- n data points, but registers only the distance
- A triangular matrix
- Single mode
$\left[\begin{array}{ccccc}0 & & & & \\ d(2,1) & 0 & & & \\ d(\mathbf{3 , 1}) & d(\mathbf{3 , 2}) & 0 & & \\ : & : & : & & \\ d(n, 1) & d(n, 2) & \ldots & \ldots & 0\end{array}\right]$
- 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
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## Distance on Numeric Data: Minkowski Distance

- Minkowski distance: A popular distance measure

$$
d(i, j)=\sqrt[h]{\left|x_{i 1}-x_{j 1}\right| h+\left|x_{i 2}-x_{j 2}\right|^{h}+\cdots+\left|x_{i p}-x_{j p}\right|}
$$

where $i=\left(x_{\mathrm{i} 1}, x_{\mathrm{i} 2}, \ldots, x_{\mathrm{ip}}\right)$ and $j=\left(x_{\mathrm{j} 1}, x_{\mathrm{i} 2}, \ldots, x_{\mathrm{jp}}\right)$ are two $p$ dimensional data objects, and $h$ is the order (the distance so defined is also called L-h norm)

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

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## Example: Minkowski Distance

Dissimilarity Matrices


## Manhattan ( $\mathrm{L}_{1}$ )

| $\mathbf{L}$ | $\mathbf{x} \mathbf{1}$ | $\mathbf{x} \mathbf{2}$ | $\mathbf{x} \mathbf{3}$ | $\mathbf{x} 4$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\mathbf{x} \mathbf{2}$ | 0 |  |  |  |
| $\mathbf{x} \mathbf{2}$ | 5 | 0 |  |  |
| $\mathbf{x} 3$ | 3 | 6 | 0 |  |
| $\mathbf{x} 4$ | 6 | 1 | 7 | 0 |

Euclidean ( $\mathrm{L}_{2}$ )

| $\mathbf{L} \mathbf{2}$ | $\mathbf{x} \mathbf{1}$ | $\mathbf{x} \mathbf{2}$ | $\mathbf{x} \mathbf{3}$ | $\mathbf{x 4}$ |
| :---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| $\mathbf{x} \mathbf{1}$ | 0 |  |  |  |
| $\mathbf{x} \mathbf{2}$ | 3.61 | 0 |  |  |
| $\mathbf{x} 3$ | 2.24 | 5.1 | 0. |  |
| $\mathbf{x} \mathbf{4}$ | 4.24 | 1 | 5.39 | 0 |

Supremum

| $\mathbf{L}_{\infty}$ | $\mathbf{x} 1$ | $\mathbf{x} \mathbf{2}$ | $\mathbf{x} 3$ | $\mathbf{x} 4$ |
| :---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| $\mathbf{x} 1$ | 0 |  |  |  |
| $\mathbf{x} \mathbf{2}$ | 3 | 0 |  |  |
| $\mathbf{x} 3$ | 2 | 5 |  | 0 |
| $\mathbf{x} 4$ |  | 3 | 1 |  |

## Ordinal Variables

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

$$
z_{i f}=\frac{r_{i f}-1}{M_{f}-1}
$$

- compute the dissimilarity using methods for interval-scaled variables

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## Attributes of Mixed Type

- A database may contain all attribute types
- Nominal, symmetric binary, asymmetric binary, numeric, ordinal
- One may use a weighted formula to combine their effects

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

$-f$ is binary or nominal:
$\mathrm{d}_{\mathrm{ij}}^{(\mathrm{f})}=0$ if $\mathrm{x}_{\mathrm{if}}=\mathrm{x}_{\mathrm{jf}}$, or $\mathrm{d}_{\mathrm{ij}}{ }^{(\mathrm{f})}=1$ otherwise
$-f$ is numeric: use the normalized distance
$-f$ is ordinal

- Compute ranks $\mathrm{r}_{\mathrm{if}}$ and
- Treat $\mathrm{z}_{\mathrm{if}}$ as interval-scaled

$$
z_{i f}=\frac{r_{i f}-1}{M_{f}-1}
$$

## 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 teamcoach hockey baseball soccer penalty score win loss season

| 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
$\cos \left(d_{1}, d_{2}\right)=\left(d_{1} \bullet d_{2}\right) /\left|\left|d_{1}\right|\right|| | d_{2}| |$,
where • indicates vector dot product, $||d||$ : the length of vector $d$

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## Example: Cosine Similarity

- $\cos \left(d_{1}, d_{2}\right)=\left(d_{1} \bullet d_{2}\right) /\left\|d_{1}\right\|\left\|d_{2}\right\|$,
where • indicates vector dot product, $||d|:$ the length of vector $d$
- Ex: Find the similarity between documents 1 and 2 .
$d_{1}=(5,0,3,0,2,0,0,2,0,0)$
$d_{2}=(3,0,2,0,1,1,0,1,0,1)$
$d_{1} \cdot d_{2}=5^{*} 3+0 * 0+3^{*} 2+0 * 0+2 * 1+0^{*} 1+0^{*} 1+2 * 1+0^{*} 0+0 * 1=25$
$\left|\left|d_{1}\right|\right|=(5 * 5+0 * 0+3 * 3+0 * 0+2 * 2+0 * 0+0 * 0+2 * 2+0 * 0+0 * 0)^{0.5}=(42)^{0.5}=6.481$ $\left|\left|d_{2}\right|\right|=(3 * 3+0 * 0+2 * 2+0 * 0+1 * 1+1 * 1+0 * 0+1 * 1+0 * 0+1 * 1)^{0.5}=(17)^{0.5}=4.12$ $\cos \left(d_{1}, d_{2}\right)=0.94$


## 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


## Data Quality: Why Preprocess the Data?

- Measures for data quality: A multidimensional view
- Accuracy: correct or wrong, accurate or not
- Completeness: not recorded, unavailable, ...
- Consistency: some modified but some not, dangling, ...
- Timeliness: timely update?
- Believability: how trustable the data are correct?
- Interpretability: how easily the data can be understood?


## Data Cleaning

- Data in the Real World Is Dirty: Lots of potentially incorrect data, e.g., instrument faulty, human or computer error, transmission error
- incomplete: lacking attribute values, lacking certain attributes of interest, or containing only aggregate data
- e.g., Occupation = " " (missing data)
- noisy: containing noise, errors, or outliers
- e.g., Salary = "-10" (an error)
- inconsistent: containing discrepancies in codes or names, e.g.,
- Age = "42", Birthday = "03/07/2010"
- Was rating " $1,2,3$ ", now rating " $A, B, C$ "
- discrepancy between duplicate records - Intentional (e.g., disguised missing data)
- Jan. 1 as everyone's birthday?


## Incomplete (Missing) Data

- Data is not always available
- E.g., many tuples have no recorded value for several attributes, such as customer income in sales data
- Missing data may be due to
- equipment malfunction
- inconsistent with other recorded data and thus deleted
- data not entered due to misunderstanding
- certain data may not be considered important at the time of entry
- not register history or changes of the data
- Missing data may need to be inferred

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## Noisy Data

- Noise: random error or variance in a measured variable
- Incorrect attribute values may be due to
- faulty data collection instruments
- data entry problems
- data transmission problems
- technology limitation
- inconsistency in naming convention
- Other data problems which require data cleaning
- duplicate records
- incomplete data
- inconsistent data


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## How to Handle Noisy Data?

- Binning
- first sort data and partition into (equal-frequency) bins
- then one can smooth by bin means, smooth by bin median, smooth by bin boundaries, etc.
- Regression
- smooth by fitting the data into regression functions
- Clustering
- detect and remove outliers
- Combined computer and human inspection
- detect suspicious values and check by human (e.g., deal with possible outliers)


## Data Cleaning as a Process

- Data discrepancy detection
- Use metadata (e.g., domain, range, dependency, distribution)
- Check field overloading
- Check uniqueness rule, consecutive rule and null rule
- Use commercial tools
- Data scrubbing: use simple domain knowledge (e.g., postal code, spell-check) to detect errors and make corrections
- Data auditing: by analyzing data to discover rules and relationship to detect violators (e.g., correlation and clustering to find outliers)
- Data migration and integration
- Data migration tools: allow transformations to be specified
- ETL (Extraction/Transformation/Loading) tools: allow users to specify transformations through a graphical user interface
- Integration of the two processes
- Iterative and interactive
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## Data Integration

- Data integration
- Combines data from multiple sources into a coherent store
- Schema integration: e.g., A.cust-id $\equiv$ B.cust-\#
- Integrate metadata from different sources
- Entity identification problem:
- Identify real world entities from multiple data sources, e.g., Bill Clinton= William Clinton
- Detecting and resolving data value conflicts
- For the same real world entity, attribute values from different sources are different
- Possible reasons: different representations, different scales, e.g., metric vs. British units


## Handling Redundancy in Data Integration

- Redundant data occur often when you integrate multiple databases
- Object identification: The same attribute or object may have different names in different databases
- Derivable data: One attribute may be a "derived" attribute in another table, e.g., annual revenue
- Redundant attributes may be able to be detected by correlation analysis and covariance analysis
- Careful integration of the data from multiple sources may help reduce/avoid redundancies and inconsistencies and improve mining speed and quality


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## Correlation Analysis (Nominal Data)

- $\mathrm{X}^{2}$ (chi-square) test

$$
\chi^{2}=\sum \frac{(\text { Observed }- \text { Expected })^{2}}{\text { Expected }}
$$

- The larger the $X^{2}$ value, the more likely the variables are related
- The cells that contribute the most to the $X^{2}$ value are those whose actual count is very different from the expected count
- Correlation does not imply causality
- \# of hospitals and \# of car-theft in a city are correlated
- Both are causally linked to the third variable: population



## Chi-Square Calculation: An Example

|  | Play chess | Not play chess | Sum (row) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Like science fiction | $250(90)$ | $200(360)$ | 450 |
| Not like science fiction | $50(210)$ | $1000(840)$ | 1050 |
| Sum(col.) | 300 | 1200 | 1500 |

- $X^{2}$ (chi-square) calculation (numbers in parenthesis are expected counts calculated based on the data distribution in the two categories)

$$
\chi^{2}=\frac{(250-90)^{2}}{90}+\frac{(50-210)^{2}}{210}+\frac{(200-360)^{2}}{360}+\frac{(1000-840)^{2}}{840}=507.93
$$

- It shows that like_science_fiction and play_chess are correlated in the group
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## Correlation Analysis (Numeric Data)

- Correlation coefficient (also called Pearson's product moment coefficient)

$$
r_{A, B}=\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(a_{i}-\bar{A}\right)\left(b_{i}-\bar{B}\right)}{(n-1) \sigma_{A} \sigma_{B}}=\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(a_{i} b_{i}\right)-n \bar{A} \bar{B}}{(n-1) \sigma_{A} \sigma_{B}}
$$

where n is the number of tuples, $\bar{A}$ and $\bar{B}$ are the respective means of $A$ and $B, \sigma_{A}$ and $\sigma_{B}$ are the respective standard deviation of $A$ and $B$, and $\Sigma\left(a_{i} b_{i}\right)$ is the sum of the $A B$ crossproduct.

- If $r_{A, B}>0, A$ and $B$ are positively correlated ( $A$ 's values increase as $B$ ' $s$ ). The higher, the stronger correlation.
- $\mathrm{r}_{\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{B}}=0$ : independent; $\mathrm{r}_{\mathrm{AB}}<0$ : negatively correlated Rhodes College 1/15/2015 | Compring 2015 |
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## Visually Evaluating Correlation



Scatter plots showing the similarity from -1 to 1 .

## Covariance (Numeric Data)

- Covariance is similar to correlation
$\operatorname{Cov}(A, B)=E((A-\bar{A})(B-\bar{B}))=\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(a_{i}-\bar{A}\right)\left(b_{i}-\bar{B}\right)}{n}$

$$
r_{A, B}=\frac{\operatorname{Cov}(A, B)}{\sigma_{A} \sigma_{B}}
$$

where n is the number of tuples, $A$ and $\bar{B}$ are the respective mean or expected values of $A$ and $B, \sigma_{A}$ and $\sigma_{B}$ are the respective standard deviation of $A$ and $B$

- Positive covariance: If $\operatorname{Cov}_{\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{B}}>0$, then A and B both tend to be larger than their expected values
- Negative covariance: If $\operatorname{Cov}_{A, B}<0$ then if $A$ is larger than its expected value, $B$ is likely to be smaller than its expected value
- Independence: $\operatorname{Cov}_{A, B}=0$ but the converse is not true:
- Some pairs of random variables may have a covariance of 0 but are not independent. Only under some additional assumptions (e.g., the data follow multivariate normal distributions) does a covariance of 0 imply independence
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## Covariance: An Example

$$
\operatorname{Cov}(A, B)=E((A-\bar{A})(B-\bar{B}))=\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(a_{i}-\bar{A}\right)\left(b_{i}-\bar{B}\right)}{n}
$$

- It can be simplified in computation as

$$
\operatorname{Cov}(A, B)=E(A \cdot B)-\bar{A} \bar{B}
$$

- Suppose two stocks $A$ and $B$ have the following values in one week: $(2,5),(3,8),(5,10),(4,11),(6,14)$.
- Question: If the stocks are affected by the same industry trends, will their
prices rise or fall together?
$-E(A)=(2+3+5+4+6) / 5=20 / 5=4$
$-E(B)=(5+8+10+11+14) / 5=48 / 5=9.6$
$-\operatorname{Cov}(A, B)=(2 \times 5+3 \times 8+5 \times 10+4 \times 11+6 \times 14) / 5-4 \times 9.6=4$
- Thus, $A$ and $B$ rise together since $\operatorname{Cov}(A, B)>0$.

Thus, $A$ and Bise

## Next Time <br> - More Data Preprocessing \& Data Warehousing Pr

 Pr}- Finish reading Ch. 3, start Ch. 4
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