## Data Mining: Data

## Lecture Notes for Chapter 2

Introduction to Data Mining
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## What is Data?

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


## Attributes



## Attribute Values

- Attribute values are numbers or symbols assigned to an attribute
- Distinction between attributes and attribute values
- Same attribute can be mapped to different attribute values
- Example: height can be measured in feet or meters
- Different attributes can be mapped to the same set of values
- Example: Attribute values for ID and age are integers
- But properties of attribute values can be different
- ID has no limit but age has a maximum and minimum value


## Types of Attributes

- There are different types of attributes
- Nominal
- Examples: ID numbers, eye color, zip codes
- Ordinal
- Examples: rankings (e.g., taste of potato chips on a scale from 1-10), grades, height in \{tall, medium, short\}
- Interval
- Examples: calendar dates, temperatures in Celsius or Fahrenheit.
- Ratio
- Examples: temperature in Kelvin, length, time, counts


## Properties of Attribute Values

- The type of an attribute depends on which of the following properties it possesses:
- Distinctness:
$=\neq$
- Order: < >
- Addition:
- Multiplication: */
- Nominal attribute: distinctness
- Ordinal attribute: distinctness \& order
- Interval attribute: distinctness, order \& addition
- Ratio attribute: all 4 properties

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


| Attribute <br> Level | Transformation | Comments |
| :---: | :--- | :--- |
| Nominal | Any permutation of values | If all employee ID numbers <br> were reassigned, would it <br> make any difference? |
| Ordinal | An order preserving change of <br> values, i.e., <br> new_value $=f($ old_value $)$ <br> where $f$ is a monotonic function. | An attribute encompassing <br> the notion of good, better <br> best can be represented <br> equally well by the values <br> $\{1,2,3\}$ or by \{0.5, 1, |
| $10\}$. |  |  |

## Discrete and Continuous Attributes

- Discrete Attribute
- Has only a finite or countably infinite set of values
- Examples: zip codes, counts, or the set of words in a collection of documents
- Often represented as integer variables.
- Note: binary attributes are a special case of discrete attributes
- Continuous Attribute
- Has real numbers as attribute values
- Examples: 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.


## Types of data sets

- Record
- Data Matrix
- Document Data
- Transaction Data
- Graph
- World Wide Web
- Molecular Structures
- Ordered
- Spatial Data
- Temporal Data
- Sequential Data
- Genetic Sequence Data


## Important Characteristics of Structured Data

- Dimensionality
- Curse of Dimensionality
- Sparsity
- Only presence counts
- Resolution
- Patterns depend on the scale


## Record Data

- Data that consists of a collection of records, each of which consists of a fixed set of attributes

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

## Data Matrix

- If data objects have the same fixed set of numeric attributes, then the data objects can be thought of as points in a multi-dimensional space, where each dimension represents a distinct attribute
- Such data set can be represented by an $m$ by $n$ matrix, where there are $m$ rows, one for each object, and $n$ columns, one for each attribute

| Projection <br> of $x$ Load | Projection <br> of y load | Distance | Load | Thickness |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 10.23 | 5.27 | 15.22 | 2.7 | 1.2 |
| 12.65 | 6.25 | 16.22 | 2.2 | 1.1 |

## Document Data

- Each document becomes a 'term' vector,
- each term is a component (attribute) of the vector,
- the value of each component is the number of times the corresponding term occurs in the document.

|  | $\begin{aligned} & \vec{\infty} \\ & \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{3} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { O} \\ & \text { NO } \\ & \hline \mathrm{P} \end{aligned}$ | $<\frac{0}{0}$ | 응 | $\begin{aligned} & \infty \\ & \frac{0}{0} \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 00 \\ & \stackrel{0}{3} \\ & \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\mathrm{O}} \end{aligned}$ | J | $\begin{aligned} & \bar{O} \\ & \hline \sim \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { \#. } \\ & \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{0} \\ & \stackrel{0}{7} \end{aligned}$ | ® ® N O |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Document 1 | 3 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 2 | 6 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 2 |
| Document 2 | 0 | 7 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 0 |
| Document 3 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 3 | 0 |

## Transaction Data

- A special type of record data, where
- each record (transaction) involves a set of items.
- For example, consider a grocery store. The set of products purchased by a customer during one shopping trip constitute a transaction, while the individual products that were purchased are the items.

| TID | Items |
| :--- | :--- |
| 1 | Bread, Coke, Milk |
| 2 | Beer, Bread |
| 3 | Beer, Coke, Diaper, Milk |
| 4 | Beer, Bread, Diaper, Milk |
| 5 | Coke, Diaper, Milk |

## Graph Data

- Examples: Generic graph and HTML Links


```
<a href="papers/papers.html#bbbb">
Data Mining </a>
<li>
<a href="papers/papers.htm|#aaaa">
Graph Partitioning </a>
<i>
<a href="papers/papers.html#aaaa">
Parallel Solution of Sparse Linear System of Equations </a>
<li>
<a href="papers/papers.htm|#ffff">
N-Body Computation and Dense Linear System Solvers
```


## Chemical Data

- Benzene Molecule: $\mathrm{C}_{6} \mathrm{H}_{6}$



## Ordered Data

- Sequences of transactions

Items/Events


An element of the sequence

## Ordered Data

- Genomic sequence data

> GGTTCCGCCTTCAGCCCCGCGCC CGCAGGGCCCGCCCCGCGCCGTC GAGAAGGGCCCGCCTGGCGGGCG GGGGGAGGCGGGGCCGCCCGAGC CCAACCGAGTCCGACCAGGTGCC CCCTCTGCTCGGCCTAGACCTGA GCTCATTAGGCGGCAGCGGACAG GCCAAGTAGAACACGCGAAGCGC TGGGCTGCCTGCTGCGACCAGGG

## Ordered Data

- Spatio-Temporal Data

Jan

Average Monthly Temperature of land and ocean


## Data Quality

- What kinds of data quality problems?
- How can we detect problems with the data?
- What can we do about these problems?
- Examples of data quality problems:
- Noise and outliers
- missing values
- duplicate data


## Noise

- Noise refers to modification of original values
- Examples: distortion of a person's voice when talking on a poor phone and "snow" on television screen


Two Sine Waves


Two Sine Waves + Noise

## Outliers

- Outliers are data objects with characteristics that are considerably different than most of the other data objects in the data set



## Missing Values

- Reasons for missing values
- Information is not collected
(e.g., people decline to give their age and weight)
- Attributes may not be applicable to all cases (e.g., annual income is not applicable to children)
- Handling missing values
- Eliminate Data Objects
- Estimate Missing Values
- Ignore the Missing Value During Analysis
- Replace with all possible values (weighted by their probabilities)


## Duplicate Data

- Data set may include data objects that are duplicates, or almost duplicates of one another
- Major issue when merging data from heterogeous sources
- Examples:
- Same person with multiple email addresses
- Data cleaning
- Process of dealing with duplicate data issues


## Data Preprocessing

- Aggregation
- Sampling
- Dimensionality Reduction
- Feature subset selection
- Feature creation
- Discretization and Binarization
- Attribute Transformation


## Aggregation

- Combining two or more attributes (or objects) into a single attribute (or object)
- Purpose
- Data reduction
- Reduce the number of attributes or objects
- Change of scale
- Cities aggregated into regions, states, countries, etc
- More "stable" data
- Aggregated data tends to have less variability


## Aggregation

## Variation of Precipitation in Australia




Standard Deviation of Average Monthly
Precipitation
Standard Deviation of Average Yearly
Precipitation

## Sampling

- Sampling is the main technique employed for data selection.
- It is often used for both the preliminary investigation of the data and the final data analysis.
- Statisticians sample because obtaining the entire set of data of interest is too expensive or time consuming.
- Sampling is used in data mining because processing the entire set of data of interest is too expensive or time consuming.


## Sampling ...

- The key principle for effective sampling is the following:
- using a sample will work almost as well as using the entire data sets, if the sample is representative
- A sample is representative if it has approximately the same property (of interest) as the original set of data


## Types of Sampling

- Simple Random Sampling
- There is an equal probability of selecting any particular item
- Sampling without replacement
- As each item is selected, it is removed from the population
- Sampling with replacement
- Objects are not removed from the population as they are selected for the sample.
- In sampling with replacement, the same object can be picked up more than once
- Stratified sampling
- Split the data into several partitions; then draw random samples from each partition


## Sample Size



8000 points


2000 Points


## Sample Size

- What sample size is necessary to get at least one object from each of $\mathbf{1 0}$ groups.



## Curse of Dimensionality

- When dimensionality increases, data becomes increasingly sparse in the space that it occupies
- Definitions of density and distance between points, which is critical for clustering and outlier detection, become less meaningful

- Randomly generate 500 points
- Compute difference between max and min distance between any pair of points


## Dimensionality Reduction

- Purpose:
- Avoid curse of dimensionality
- Reduce amount of time and memory required by data mining algorithms
- Allow data to be more easily visualized
- May help to eliminate irrelevant features or reduce noise
- Techniques
- Principle Component Analysis
- Singular Value Decomposition
- Others: supervised and non-linear techniques


## Dimensionality Reduction: PCA

- Goal is to find a projection that captures the largest amount of variation in data



## Dimensionality Reduction: PCA

- Find the eigenvectors of the covariance matrix
- The eigenvectors define the new space



## Similarity and Dissimilarity

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


## Similarity/Dissimilarity for Simple Attributes

$p$ and $q$ are the attribute values for two data objects.

| Attribute <br> Type | Dissimilarity | Similarity |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Nominal | $d= \begin{cases}0 & \text { if } p=q \\ 1 & \text { if } p \neq q\end{cases}$ | $s= \begin{cases}1 & \text { if } p=q \\ 0 & \text { if } p \neq q\end{cases}$ |
| Ordinal | $d=\frac{\|p-q\|}{n-1}$ <br> (values mapped to integers 0 to $n-1$, <br> where $n$ is the number of values) | $s=1-\frac{\|p-q\|}{n-1}$ |
| Interval or Ratio | $d=\|p-q\|$ | $s=-d, s=\frac{1}{1+d}$ or <br> $s=1-\frac{d-m i n-d}{\operatorname{max-d-\operatorname {min}d}}$ |

Table 5.1. Similarity and dissimilarity for simple attributes

## Euclidean Distance

Euclidean Distance

$$
\text { dist }=\sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^{n}\left(p_{k}-q_{k}\right)^{2}}
$$

## Euclidean Distance



| point | $\mathbf{x}$ | $\mathbf{y}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\mathbf{p 1}$ | 0 | 2 |
| $\mathbf{p 2}$ | 2 | 0 |
| $\mathbf{p 3}$ | 3 | 1 |
| $\mathbf{p 4}$ | 5 | 1 |


|  | $\mathbf{p 1}$ | $\mathbf{p 2}$ | $\mathbf{p 3}$ | $\mathbf{p 4}$ |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| $\mathbf{p 1}$ | 0 | 2.828 | 3.162 | 5.099 |
| $\mathbf{p 2}$ | 2.828 | 0 | 1.414 | 3.162 |
| $\mathbf{p 3}$ | 3.162 | 1.414 | 0 | 2 |
| $\mathbf{p 4}$ | 5.099 | 3.162 | 2 | 0 |

Distance Matrix

## Minkowski Distance

Minkowski Distance is a generalization of Euclidean Distance

$$
\operatorname{dist}=\left(\sum_{k=1}^{n}\left|\boldsymbol{p}_{\boldsymbol{k}}-\boldsymbol{q}_{\boldsymbol{k}}\right|^{\boldsymbol{r}}\right)^{\frac{1}{r}}
$$

## Minkowski Distance: Examples

- $r=1$. City block (Manhattan, taxicab, $\mathrm{L}_{1}$ norm) distance.
- A common example of this is the Hamming distance, which is just the number of bits that are different between two binary vectors
- $r=2$. Euclidean distance
- $r \rightarrow \infty$. "supremum" ( $\mathrm{L}_{\max }$ norm, $\mathrm{L}_{\infty}$ norm) distance.
- This is the maximum difference between any component of the vectors
- Do not confuse $r$ with $n$, i.e., all these distances are defined for all numbers of dimensions.


## Minkowski Distance

| point | $\mathbf{x}$ | $\mathbf{y}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\mathbf{p 1}$ | 0 | 2 |
| $\mathbf{p 2}$ | 2 | 0 |
| $\mathbf{p 3}$ | 3 | 1 |
| $\mathbf{p 4}$ | 5 | 1 |


| $\mathbf{L 1}$ | $\mathbf{p 1}$ | $\mathbf{p 2}$ | $\mathbf{p 3}$ | $\mathbf{p 4}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\mathbf{p 1}$ | 0 | 4 | 4 | 6 |
| $\mathbf{p 2}$ | 4 | 0 | 2 | 4 |
| $\mathbf{p 3}$ | 4 | 2 | 0 | 2 |
| $\mathbf{p 4}$ | 6 | 4 | 2 | 0 |


| $\mathbf{L 2}$ | $\mathbf{p 1}$ | $\mathbf{p 2}$ | $\mathbf{p 3}$ | $\mathbf{p 4}$ |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| $\mathbf{p 1}$ | 0 | 2.828 | 3.162 | 5.099 |
| $\mathbf{p 2}$ | 2.828 | 0 | 1.414 | 3.162 |
| $\mathbf{p 3}$ | 3.162 | 1.414 | 0 | 2 |
| $\mathbf{p 4}$ | 5.099 | 3.162 | 2 | 0 |


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

Distance Matrix

## Mahalanobis Distance

## mahalanobis $(p, q)=(p-q) \Sigma^{-1}(p-q)^{T}$


$\Sigma$ is the covariance matrix of the input data $X$
$\Sigma_{j, k}=\frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(X_{i j}-\bar{X}_{j}\right)\left(X_{i k}-\bar{X}_{k}\right)$

For red points, the Euclidean distance is 14.7, Mahalanobis distance is 6.

## Mahalanobis Distance



Covariance Matrix:

$$
\Sigma=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
0.3 & 0.2 \\
0.2 & 0.3
\end{array}\right]
$$

A: $(0.5,0.5)$
B: $(0,1)$
C: $(1.5,1.5)$
$\operatorname{Mahal}(A, B)=5$
$\operatorname{Mahal}(\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{C})=4$

## Common Properties of a Distance

- Distances, such as the Euclidean distance, have some well known properties.

1. $d(p, q) \geq 0$ for all $p$ and $q$ and $d(p, q)=0$ only if $p=q$. (Positive definiteness)
2. $\quad d(p, q)=d(q, p)$ for all $p$ and $q$. (Symmetry)
3. $\mathrm{d}(p, r) \leq d(p, q)+d(q, r)$ for all points $p, q$, and $r$. (Triangle Inequality)
where $d(p, q)$ is the distance (dissimilarity) between points (data objects), $p$ and $q$.

- A distance that satisfies these properties is a metric


## Common Properties of a Similarity

- Similarities, also have some well known properties.

1. $s(p, q)=1$ (or maximum similarity) only if $p=q$.
2. $s(p, q)=s(q, p)$ for all $p$ and $q$. (Symmetry)
where $s(p, q)$ is the similarity between points (data objects), $p$ and $q$.

## Similarity Between Binary Vectors

- Common situation is that objects, $p$ and $q$, have only binary attributes
Compute similarities using the following quantities
$M_{01}=$ the number of attributes where $p$ was 0 and $q$ was 1
$M_{10}=$ the number of attributes where $p$ was 1 and $q$ was 0
$M_{00}=$ the number of attributes where $p$ was 0 and $q$ was 0
$M_{11}=$ the number of attributes where $p$ was 1 and $q$ was 1
- Simple Matching and Jaccard Coefficients

> SMC = number of matches / number of attributes

$$
=\left(M_{11}+M_{00}\right) /\left(M_{01}+M_{10}+M_{11}+M_{00}\right)
$$

$J=$ number of 11 matches $/$ number of not-both-zero attributes values
$=\left(\mathrm{M}_{11}\right) /\left(\mathrm{M}_{01}+\mathrm{M}_{10}+\mathrm{M}_{11}\right)$

## SMC versus Jaccard: Example

$$
\begin{aligned}
& p=1000000000 \\
& q=0000001001 \\
& M_{01}=2 \\
& M_{10}=1 \\
& M_{00}=7 \\
& \text { (the number of attributes where } p \text { was } 0 \text { and } q \text { was } 1) \\
& M_{11}=0 \\
& \text { (the number of attributes where } p \text { was } 0 \text { and } q \text { was } 0) \\
& \text { SMC }=\left(M_{11}+M_{00}\right) /\left(M_{01}+M_{10}+M_{11}+M_{00}\right)=(0+7) /(2+1+0+7)=0.7 \\
& J=\left(M_{11}\right) /\left(M_{01}+M_{10}+M_{11}\right)=0 /(2+1+0)=0
\end{aligned}
$$

## Cosine Similarity

- If $d_{1}$ and $d_{2}$ are two document vectors, then

$$
\cos \left(d_{1}, d_{2}\right)=\left(d_{1} \cdot d_{2}\right) /\left\|d_{1}\right\|\left\|d_{2}\right\|
$$

where • indicates vector dot product and \|d\| is the length of vector $d$.

- Example:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& d_{1}=3205000200 \\
& d_{2}=1000000102
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& d_{1} \cdot d_{2}=3^{*} 1+2^{*} 0+0^{*} 0+5^{*} 0+0^{*} 0+0^{*} 0+0^{*} 0+2^{*} 1+0^{*} 0+0^{*} 2=5 \\
& \left\|d_{1}\right\|=\left(3^{*} 3+2^{*} 2+0^{*} 0+5^{*} 5+0^{*} 0+0^{*} 0+0^{*} 0+2^{*} 2+0^{*} 0+0^{*} 0\right)^{.5}=(42) 0.5=6.481 \\
& \left\|d_{2}\right\|=\left(1^{*} 1+0^{*} 0+0^{*} 0+0^{*} 0+0^{*} 0+0^{*} 0+0^{*} 0+1^{*} 1+0^{*} 0+2^{*} 2\right)^{0.5}=(6) 0.5=2.245
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\cos \left(d_{1}, d_{2}\right)=.3150
$$

