

## Distance/Similarity Measures

### Terminology

**Similarity:** measure of how close to each other two instances are. The “closer” the instances are to each other, the larger is the similarity value.

**Dissimilarity:** measure of how different two instances are. Dissimilarity is large when instances are very different and is small when they are close.

**Proximity:** refers to either similarity or dissimilarity

**Distance metric:** a measure of dissimilarity that obeys the following laws (laws of triangular norm):

- $d(x, y) \geq 0$ ;  $d(x, y) = 0$  iff  $x = y$ ;
- $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$ ;
- $d(x, y) + d(y, z) \geq d(x, z)$ .

### Conversion of similarity and dissimilarity measures.

Typically, given a similarity measure, one can “revert” it to serve as the dissimilarity measure and vice versa.

Conversions may differ. E.g., if  $d$  is a distance measure, one can use

$$s(x, y) = \frac{1}{d(x, y)}$$

or

$$s(x, y) = \frac{1}{d(x, y) + 0.5}$$

as the corresponding similarity measure. If  $s$  is the similarity measure that ranges between 0 and 1 (so called **degree of similarity**), then the corresponding dissimilarity measure can be defined as

$$d(x, y) = 1 - s(x, y)$$

or

$$d(x, y) = \sqrt{(1 - s(x, y))}.$$

In general, **any monotonically decreasing transformation** can be applied to convert similarity measures into dissimilarity measures, and **any monotonically increasing transformation** can be applied to convert the measures the other way around.

## Distance Metrics for Numeric Attributes

When the data set is presented in a *standard* form, each instance can be treated as a vector  $\bar{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_N)$  of measures for attributes numbered  $1, \dots, N$ .

Consider for now only non-nominal scales.

### Euclidian Distance.

$$d_E(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) = \sqrt{\left(\sum_{k=1}^N (x_k - y_k)^2\right)}.$$

### Squared Euclidian Distance

$$d_E(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) = \sum_{k=1}^N (x_k - y_k)^2.$$

### Manhattan Distance.

$$d_m(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) = \sum_{k=1}^N |x_k - y_k|.$$

### Minkowski Distance.

Generalization of Euclidian and Manhattan distances:

$$d_{M,\lambda}(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) = \left(\sum_{k=1}^N (x_k - y_k)^\lambda\right)^{\frac{1}{\lambda}}.$$

In particular:  $d_{M,1} = d_m$ ,  $d_{M,2} = d_E$ . Also of interest:

### Chebyshev Distance.

$$d_{M,\infty}(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) = \max_{k=1, \dots, N} (|x_k - y_k|).$$

### Additivity.

Euclidian distance is *additive*: contributions to the distance for each attribute are independent and are summed up.

**Commesurability.** Different attributes may have different scales of measurement. Attributes are commesurable, when their numeric values contribute equally to the actual distance/proximity between instances.

For example, if instances represent 3D positions of points in space, all attributes are commensurable.

### Standardized (Normalized) Euclidean Distance.

When some attributes are not commensurable with others, it may be possible “normalize” them by dividing the attribute values by the standard deviation of the attribute over the entire dataset.

**Range standardization.** Each data point is standardized by mapping from its current range to  $[0,1]$ . Each attribute value  $x_i$  of the data point  $\bar{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_N)$  is standardized as follows:

$$x'_i = \frac{x_i - \min_{\bar{y} \in D}(y_i)}{\max_{\bar{y} \in D}(y_i) - \min_{\bar{y} \in D}(y_i)}.$$

**z-score standardization** . Assumes normal distribution of attribute values. Normalizes the data by using mean and standard deviation of the values of the attribute.

Standard deviation for  $i$ th attribute:

$$\hat{\sigma}_i = \sqrt{\left( \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{j=1}^n (\bar{x}_j[i] - \mu_i)^2 \right)},$$

where  $n$  is the number of instances in the data set, and

$$\mu_i = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^n \bar{x}_j[i]}{n},$$

is the mean of the  $i$ th attribute.

The  $z$ -score standardization of a vector  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_N)$  is:

$$\hat{x} = (x'_1, \dots, x'_N) = \left( \frac{x_1 - \mu_1}{\hat{\sigma}_1}, \dots, \frac{x_N - \mu_N}{\hat{\sigma}_N} \right)$$

**Standardized Euclidean distance** is then:

$$d_{SE}(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) = d_E(\hat{x}, \hat{y}).$$

### Weighted Distances.

Different attributes may also be of different *importance* for the purposes of determining distance. Often, this importance is quantified as the *attribute weight*. Given a vector  $w = (w_1, \dots, w_N)$  of attribute weights, the weighted Minkowski distance is computed as:

$$d_{WM,\lambda}(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) = \left( \sum_{k=1}^N w_k \cdot (x_k - y_k)^\lambda \right)^{\frac{1}{\lambda}}.$$

From here, we can derive formulas for weighted Euclidean and weighted Manhattan distances.

## Similarity Measures for Numeric Attributes

**Dot Product.** Two vectors are orthogonal, if their dot product is 0. The dot product of two vectors is computed as follows:

$$\bar{x} \cdot \bar{y} = \sum_{k=1}^n x_k y_k.$$

**Cosine Similarity.** Dot products are not normalized. Normalizing them leads to a similarity measure called *cosine similarity*: a normalized dot product is a cosine of an angle between the two vectors (1, if the vectors are co-directional/parallel, 0, if they are orthogonal).

$$\text{sim}_{\cos}(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) = \frac{\bar{x} \cdot \bar{y}}{\|\bar{x}\| \|\bar{y}\|} = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^n x_k y_k}{\sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^n x_k^2} \sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^n y_k^2}}.$$

**Pearson Correlation coefficient.** Correlation coefficients can be used as similarity measures as well.

$$\text{corr}(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^n (x_k - \mu_{\bar{x}})(y_k - \mu_{\bar{y}})}{(n-1)\delta_{\bar{x}}\delta_{\bar{y}}},$$

where  $\mu_{\bar{x}}$  and  $\mu_{\bar{y}}$  are mean values for vectors  $\bar{x}$  and  $\bar{y}$ , and  $\delta_{\bar{x}}$  and  $\delta_{\bar{y}}$  are the standard deviations for  $\bar{x}$  and  $\bar{y}$ .

Pearson correlation coefficient ignores the amplitudes of values in the two vectors being compared and only "looks" at the behavior of individual components around the mean value. The Pearson correlation coefficient produces values in the range  $[-1, 1]$ . The caveat to remember is that 0, i.e., "lack of relationship" between the two vectors, marks the true dissimilarity between them. Value of -1 means that the two vectors behave as exact opposites to each other. While this makes them very different, one vector also can be used to predict the behavior of the other vector.

## Distance Measures for Categorical Attributes

### Distance Measures for Binary Vectors

**Binary vectors.** Vectors  $\bar{v} = (v_1, \dots, v_n) \in \{0, 1\}^n$ .

**Confusion matrix for binary vectors.** Let  $\bar{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$  and  $\bar{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$  be two binary vectors.

For each attribute  $i = 1 \dots n$ , four cases are possible:

No.	$x_i$	$y_i$
(1)	1	1
(2)	1	0
(3)	0	1
(4)	0	0

We count the incidence of each of the four cases and organize these numbers in a **confusion matrix** form:

	$x_i = 1$	$x_i = 0$
$y_i = 1$	$A$	$B$
$y_i = 0$	$C$	$D$

**Symmetric attributes.** Binary attributes are **symmetric** if both 0 and 1 values have equal importance (e.g. Male and Female or McCain and Obama).

If binary vectors have symmetric attributes, the following distance computations can be performed:

**Simple Matching Distance:**

$$d_s(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) = \frac{B + C}{A + B + C + D}.$$

**Simple Weighted Matching Distance:**

$$d_{s,\alpha}(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) = \frac{\alpha \cdot (B + C)}{A + D + \alpha \cdot (B + C)},$$

or

$$d_{s,\alpha}(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) = \frac{B + C}{\alpha \cdot (A + D) + B + C}.$$

**Assymmetric Attributes.** Binary attributes are **assymmetric** if one of the states is more important than the other (e.g., true and false, present and absent). We assume that 1 is more important than 0.

**Jaccard similarity and distance:**

Jaccard similarity:

$$s_J(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) = \frac{A}{A + B + C}.$$

Jaccard distance:

$$d_J(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) = 1 - s_J(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) = \frac{B + C}{A + B + C}$$

**Weighted Jaccard Distance**

$$d_{J,\alpha}(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) = \frac{\alpha \cdot (B + C)}{A + \alpha \cdot (B + C)}.$$

$$d_{J,\alpha}(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) = \frac{B + C}{\alpha \cdot A + B + C}.$$

**Dice similarity:** A slight variant of Jaccard coefficient (similarity).

$$s_D(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) = \frac{2A}{2A + B + C}$$

Dice distance can be defined as

$$d_D(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) = 1 - s_D(\bar{x}, \bar{y}),$$

however, it does not satisfy the triangle inequality<sup>1</sup>.

## Non-binary categorical attributes

### Simple Matching distance.

$$d_s(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) = \frac{n - q}{n},$$

where:

$n$  : number of attributes in  $\bar{x}$  and  $\bar{y}$ .

$q$  : number of attributes in  $\bar{x}$  and  $\bar{y}$  that have matching values.

## Using Covariances to compute distances.

Sometimes, some attributes/dimensions *correlate* with each other (e.g., different measurements of the same feature). If not accounted for, such attributes may “hijack” the distance computation.

Geometric intuition: generally, we consider all attributes to correspond to *independent orthogonal dimensions*. Attributes that are not independent do not correspond to *orthogonal dimensions*. We can use *correlation coefficients* and *covariance coefficients* to correct our distance computation.

### Sample Covariance

$$cov(i, j) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n (x_{ki} - \mu_i)(x_{kj} - \mu_j),$$

where  $\mu_i$  and  $\mu_j$  are sample means for  $i$ th and  $j$ th attributes respectively. We can construct matrix  $C = (cov(i, j))$  of covariances.  $C$  is symmetric.

We can also standardize covariance coefficients. *Correlation coefficient* is computed as:

$$\rho(i, j) = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^n (x_{ki} - \mu_i)(x_{kj} - \mu_j)}{(\sum_{k=1}^n (x_{ki} - \mu_i)^2 \sum_{k=1}^n (x_{kj} - \mu_j)^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}}.$$

We can form the matrix  $\mathcal{S}$  of correlation coefficients  $\rho(i, j)$ . Covariance/correlation coefficients can only capture linear dependency between the variables. Non-linear relations are left “out”.

### Mahalanobis Distance.

$$d_{MH}(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) = (\bar{x} - \bar{y})^T \mathcal{S}^{-1} (\bar{x} - \bar{y}).$$

Note: here  $\bar{x}, \bar{y}$  are treated as **columns**.

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<sup>1</sup> $d_D((1, 1), (0, 1)) = 1 - \frac{2}{3} = \frac{1}{3}$ ,  $d_D((1, 1), (1, 0)) = \frac{1}{3}$  as well,  $d_D((1, 0), (0, 1)) = 1 - 0 = 1$ . The triangle inequality is not satisfied.