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Università degli Studi di Milano  
Master Degree in Computer Science

# Information Management course

Teacher: Alberto Ceselli

Lecture 02: 07/10/2015

# Data Mining: Concepts and Techniques

## — Chapter 2 —

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# Chapter 2: Getting to Know Your Data

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- Data Objects and Attribute Types 
- Basic Statistical Descriptions of Data
- Measuring Data Similarity and Dissimilarity
- Summary

# Types of Data Sets

- Record
  - Relational records
  - Data matrix, e.g., numerical matrix, crosstabs
  - Document data: text documents: term-frequency vector
  - Transaction data
- Graph and network
  - World Wide Web
  - Social or information networks
  - Molecular Structures
- Ordered
  - Video data: sequence of images
  - Temporal data: time-series
  - Sequential Data: transaction sequences
  - Genetic sequence data
- Spatial, image and multimedia:
  - Spatial data: maps
  - Image data: .bmp
  - Video data: .avi

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

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

# Important Characteristics of Structured Data

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- Dimensionality
  - Curse of dimensionality  
(the volume of the space grows fast with the number of dimensions, and the available data becomes sparse)
- Sparsity
  - Only presence counts
- Resolution
  - Patterns depend on the scale
- Distribution
  - Centrality and dispersion

# Data Objects

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- Data sets are made up of data objects.
- A **data object** represents an entity (also called *samples* , *examples*, *instances*, *data points*, *objects*, *tuples* ...)
- Examples:
  - sales database: customers, store items, sales
  - medical database: patients, treatments
  - university database: students, professors, courses
- Data objects are described by **attributes** (also called *variables*, *dimensions*, *features* ...)
- In databases: rows -> data objects; columns -> attributes.

# Attributes

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- **Attribute** (or **dimensions, features, variables**): a data field, representing a characteristic or feature of a data object.
  - *E.g., customer \_ID, name, address*
- Types:
  - Nominal
  - Binary
  - Ordinal
  - Numeric: quantitative
    - Interval-scaled
    - Ratio-scaled

# Attribute Types

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- **Nominal:** categories, states, or “names of things”
  - $\text{Hair\_color} = \{\text{auburn}, \text{black}, \text{blond}, \text{brown}, \text{grey}, \text{red}, \text{white}\}$
  - marital status, occupation, ID numbers, zip codes
- **Binary**
  - Nominal attribute with only 2 states (0 and 1)
  - Symmetric binary: both outcomes equally important
    - e.g., gender
  - Asymmetric binary: outcomes not equally important.
    - e.g., medical test (positive vs. negative)
    - Convention: assign 1 to most important outcome (e.g., HIV positive)
- **Ordinal**
  - Values have a meaningful order (ranking) but magnitude between successive values is not known.
  - $\text{Size} = \{\text{small}, \text{medium}, \text{large}\}$ , grades, army rankings

# Numeric Attribute Types

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- Quantity (integer or real-valued)
- **Interval**
  - Measured on a scale of **equal-sized units**
  - Values have order
    - E.g., *temperature in C° or F°, calendar dates*
  - No true zero-point
- **Ratio**
  - Inherent **zero-point**
  - We can speak of values as being an order of magnitude larger than the unit of measurement (10 K° is twice as high as 5 K°).
    - e.g., *temperature in Kelvin, length, counts, monetary quantities*

# Discrete vs. Continuous Attributes (ML view)

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## ■ Discrete Attribute

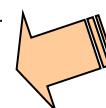
- Has only a finite or countably infinite set of values
  - E.g., zip codes, profession, or the set of words in a collection of documents
- Sometimes, represented as integer variables
- Note: Binary attributes are a special case of discrete attributes

## ■ Continuous Attribute

- Has real numbers as attribute values
  - E.g., 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

# Chapter 2: Getting to Know Your Data

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- Basic Statistical Descriptions of Data 
- Measuring Data Similarity and Dissimilarity
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# Basic Statistical Descriptions of Data

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- Motivation
  - To better understand the data: central tendency, variation and spread
- Data dispersion characteristics
  - median, max, min, quantiles, outliers, variance...
- Numerical dimensions correspond to sorted intervals
  - Data dispersion: analyzed with multiple granularities of precision
  - Boxplot or quantile analysis on sorted intervals
- Dispersion analysis on computed measures
  - Folding measures into numerical dimensions
  - Boxplot or quantile analysis on the transformed cube

# Measuring the Central Tendency

## ■ Mean (algebraic measure) (sample vs. population):

Note:  $n$  is sample size and  $N$  is population size.

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$$

$$\bar{x} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n w_i x_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n w_i}$$

## ■ Median:

- Middle value if odd number of values, or average of the middle two values otherwise
- Estimated by interpolation (for *grouped data*):

age	frequency
1–5	200
6–15	450
16–20	300
21–50	1500
51–80	700
81–110	44

$$\text{median} = L_1 + \left( \frac{\frac{n}{2} - (\sum \text{freq})_l}{\text{freq}_{\text{median}}} \right) \text{width}$$

Lower boundary of the median interval

# values in the dataset

Sum of freq. of intervals preceding the median

Freq. of the median interval

# Measuring the Central Tendency

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## ■ Mode

- Value that occurs most frequently in the data
- Unimodal, bimodal, trimodal
- Empirical formula for moderately skewed:

$$\text{mean} - \text{mode} \simeq 3 \times (\text{mean} - \text{median})$$

Mean: 58

Median:  $(52+56)/2 = 54$

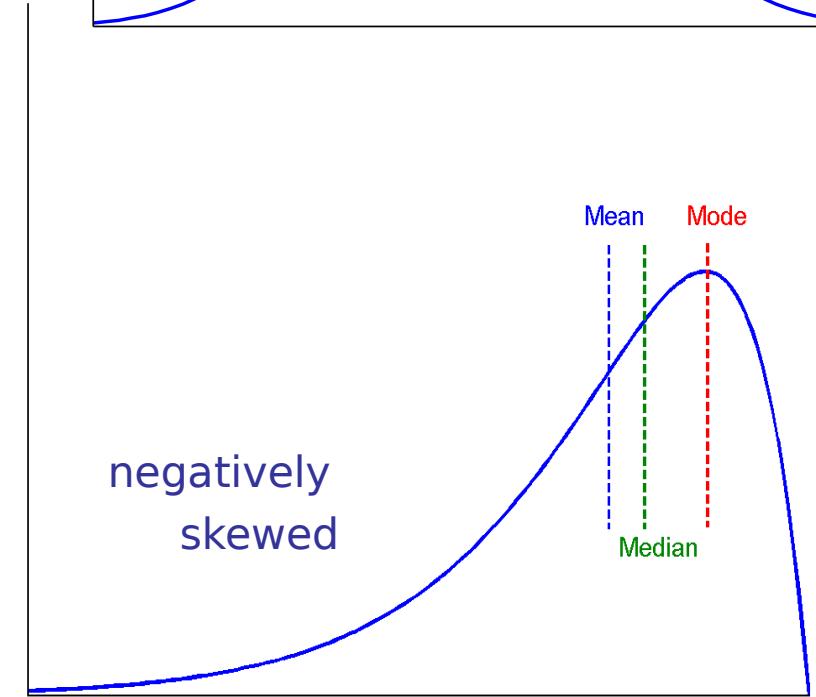
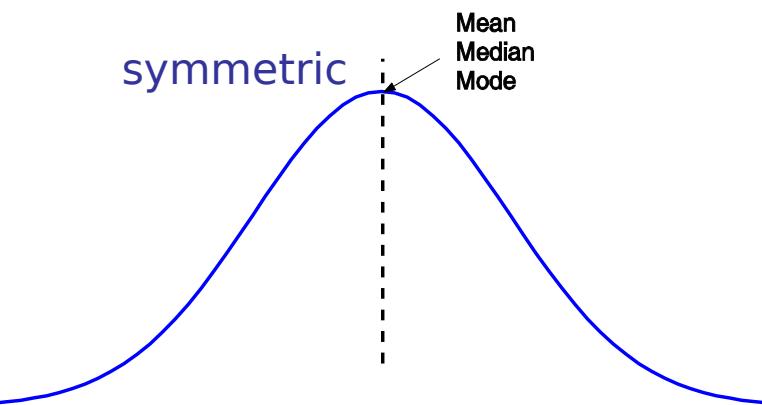
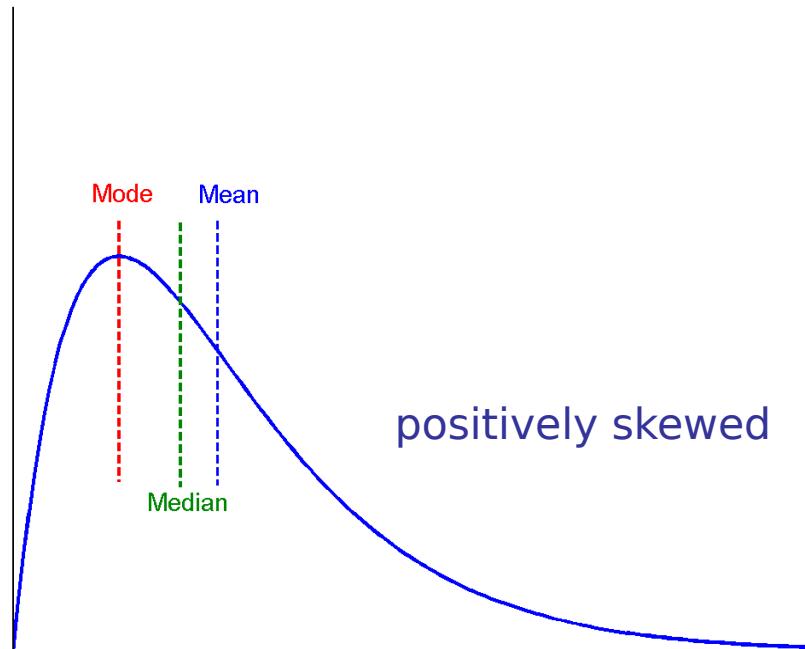
Mode: 52 and 70 (bimodal)

Midrange:  $(30+110)/2 = 70$

Employee	Salary
1	30
2	36
3	47
4	50
5	52
6	52
7	56
8	60
9	63
10	70
11	70
12	110

# Symmetric vs. Skewed Data

- Median, mean and mode of symmetric, positively and negatively skewed data



# Measuring the Dispersion of Data

- Quartiles, outliers and boxplots
  - **Quartiles**:  $Q_1$  (25<sup>th</sup> percentile),  $Q_3$  (75<sup>th</sup> percentile)
  - **Inter-quartile range**:  $IQR = Q_3 - Q_1$
  - **Five number summary**: min,  $Q_1$ , median,  $Q_3$ , max (nice for skewed distributions)
  - **Boxplot**: ends of the box are the quartiles; median is marked; add whiskers, and plot outliers individually
  - **Outlier**: usually, a value higher/lower than  $1.5 \times IQR$
- Variance and standard deviation (*sample: s, population:  $\sigma$* )
  - **Variance**: (algebraic, scalable computation)

$$s^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2 = \frac{1}{n} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - \frac{1}{n} \left( \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \right)^2 \right] \quad \sigma^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - \mu^2$$

- **Standard deviation s (or  $\sigma$ )** is the square root of variance

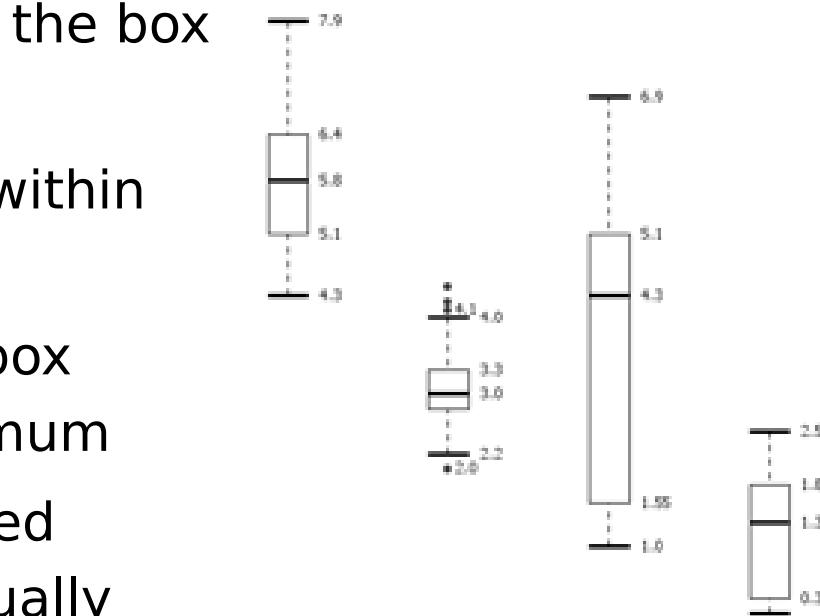
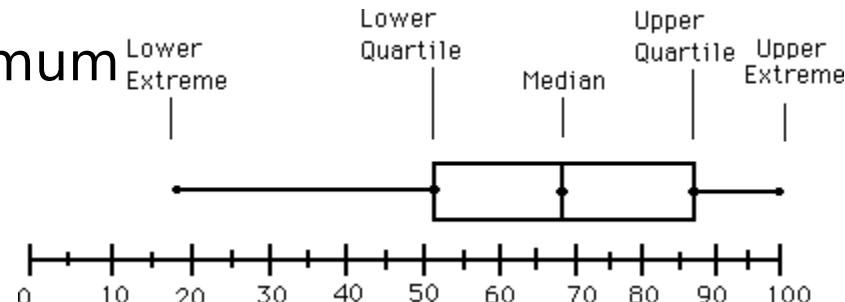
# Boxplot Analysis

- **Five-number summary** of a distribution

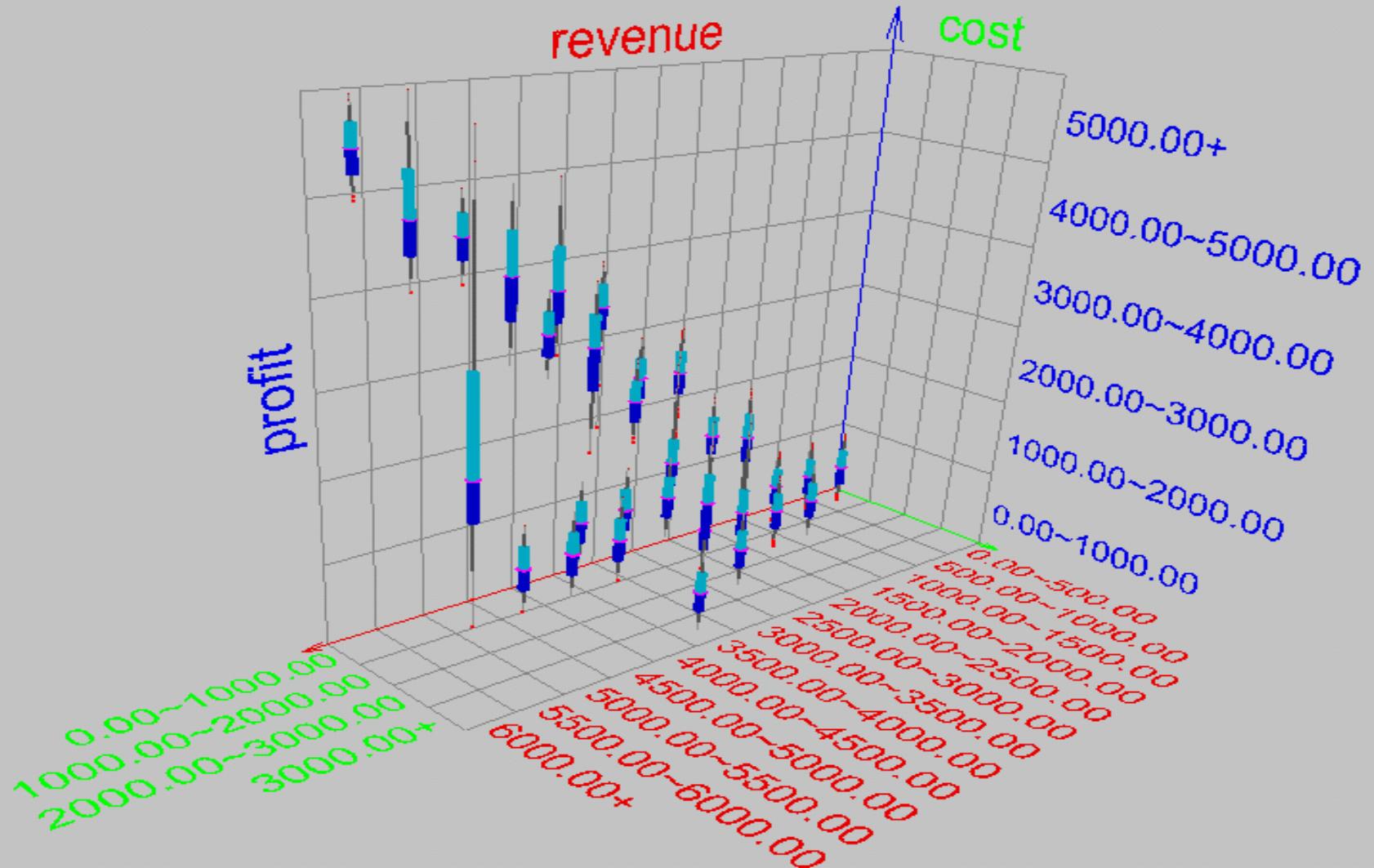
- Minimum, Q1, Median, Q3, Maximum

- **Boxplot**

- Data is represented with a box
  - The ends of the box are at the first and third quartiles, i.e., the height of the box is IQR
  - The median is marked by a line within the box
  - Whiskers: two lines outside the box extended to Minimum and Maximum
  - Outliers: points beyond a specified outlier threshold, plotted individually



# Visualization of Data Dispersion: 3-D Boxplots



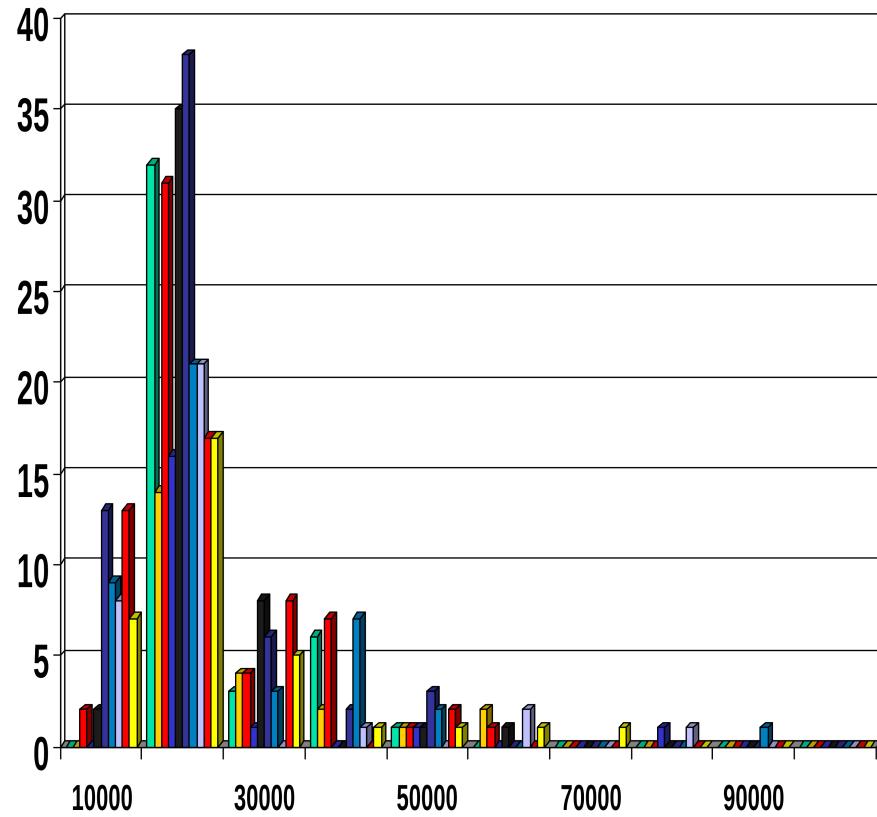
# Graphic Displays of Basic Statistical Descriptions

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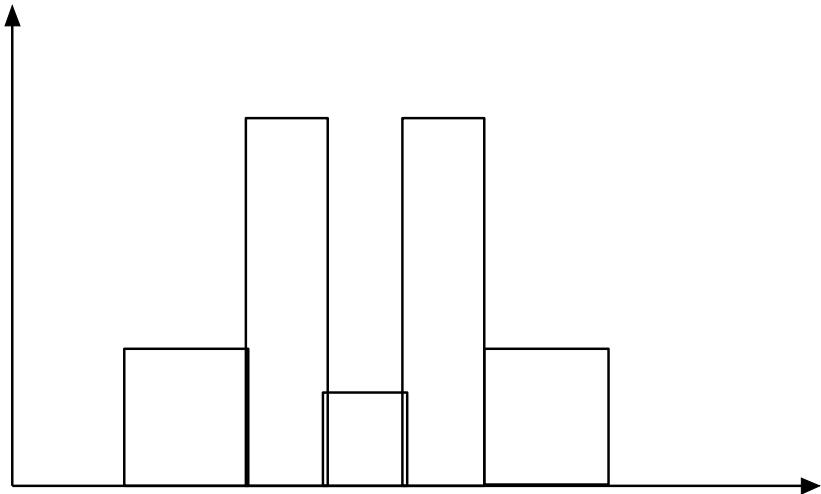
- **Boxplot**: graphic display of five-number summary
- **Histogram**: x-axis are values, y-axis repres. frequencies
- **Quantile plot**: each value  $x_i$  is paired with  $f_i$  indicating that approximately  $100 f_i \%$  of data are  $\leq x_i$
- **Quantile-quantile (q-q) plot**: graphs the quantiles 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

# Histogram Analysis

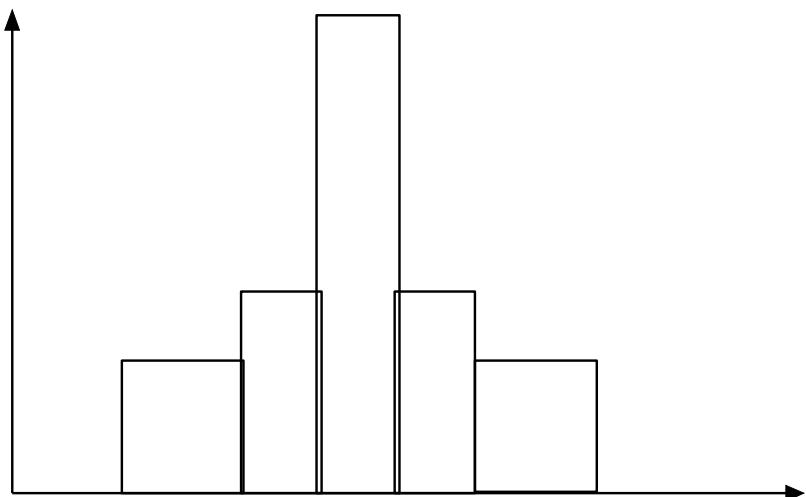
- Histogram: Graph display of tabulated frequencies, shown as bars
- It shows what proportion of cases fall into each of several categories
- Differs from a bar chart in that it is the *area* of the bar that denotes the value, not the height as in bar charts, a crucial distinction when the categories are not of uniform width
- The categories are usually specified as non-overlapping intervals of some variable. The categories (bars) must be adjacent



# Histograms Often Tell More than Boxplots

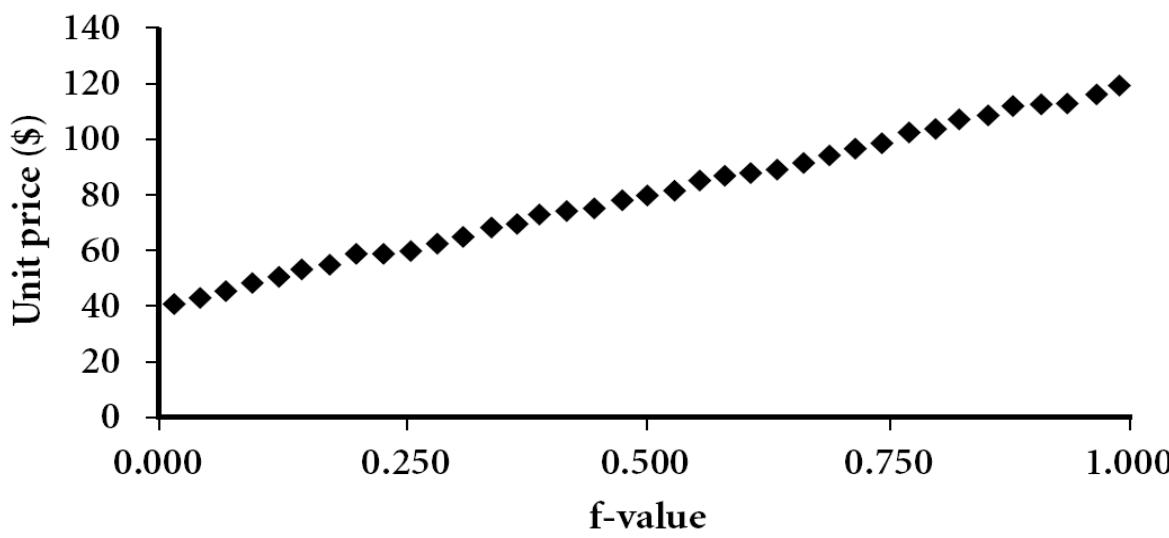


- The two histograms shown in the left may have the same boxplot representation
  - The same values for: min, Q1, median, Q3, max
- But they have rather different data distributions



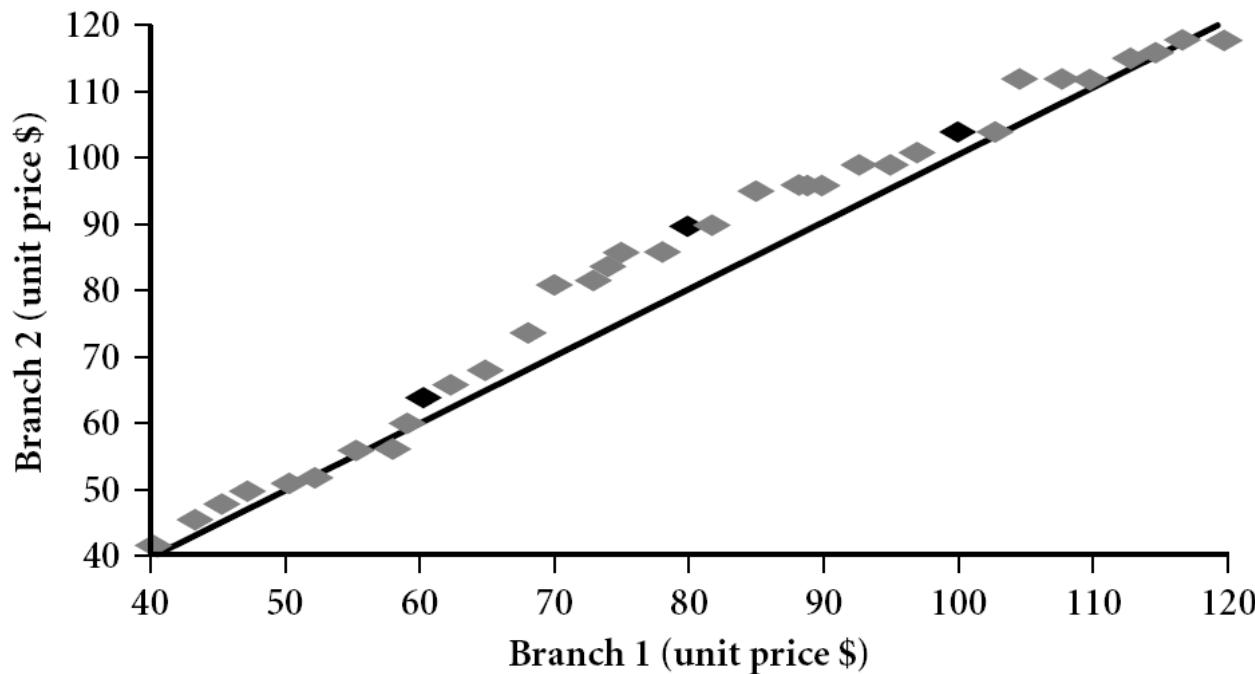
# Quantile Plot

- Displays all of the data (assess both the overall behavior and unusual occurrences)
- Plots **quantile** information
  - Select an attribute  $x_i$ ; sort data by non-decreasing  $x_i$  value; plot it equally spaced on the x axis
  - $v(f)$  indicates the value s.t. a fraction  $f$  of data has value at most  $v(f)$



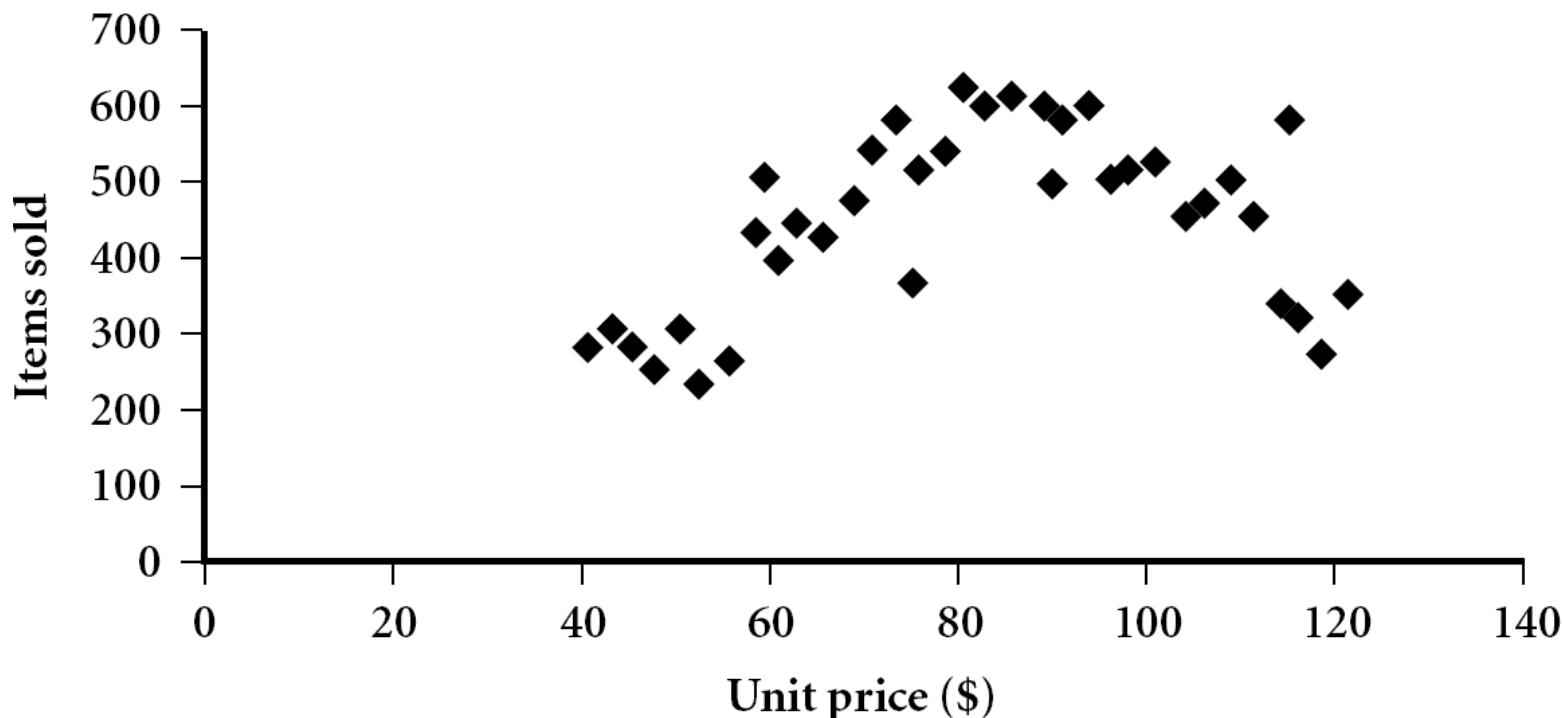
# Quantile-Quantile (Q-Q) Plot

- Graphs the quantiles of one univariate distribution against the corresponding quantiles of another
- View: Is there is a shift in going from one distribution to 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.

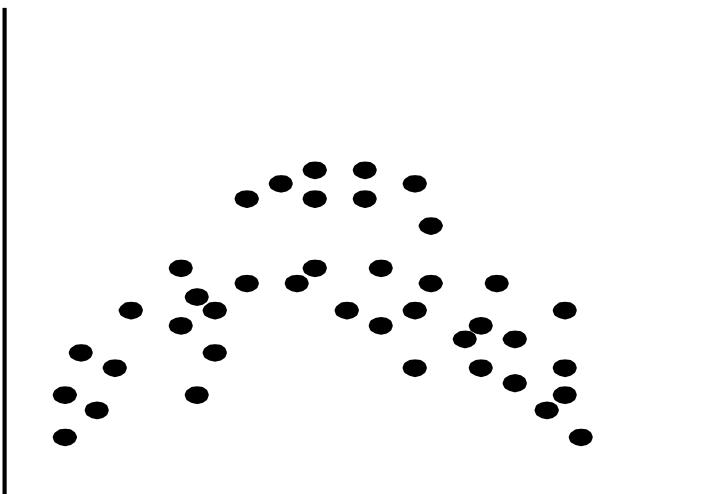
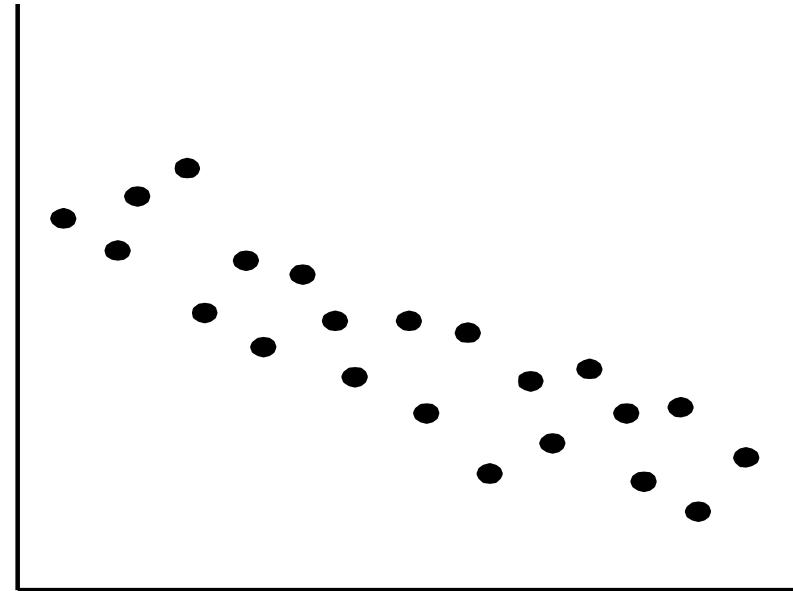
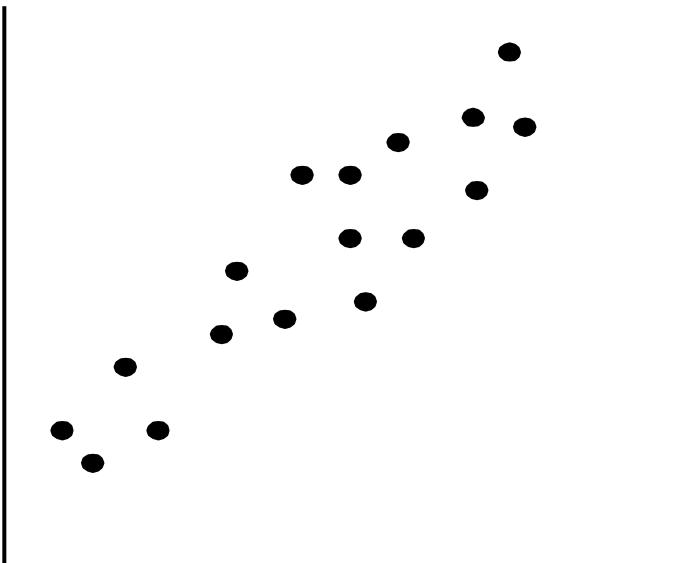


# Scatter plot

- Provides a first look at bivariate data to see clusters of points, outliers, etc
- Each pair of values is treated as a pair of coordinates and plotted as points in the plane



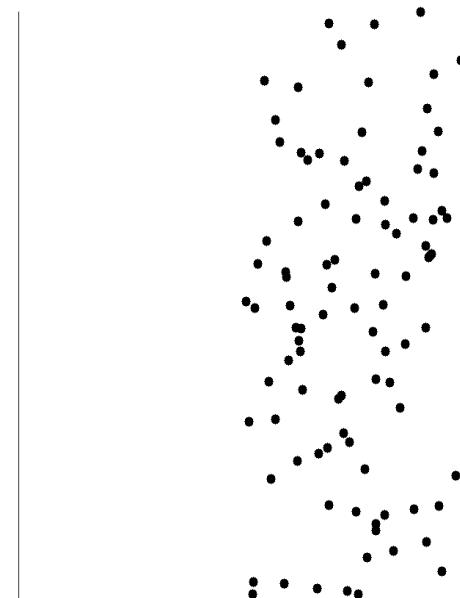
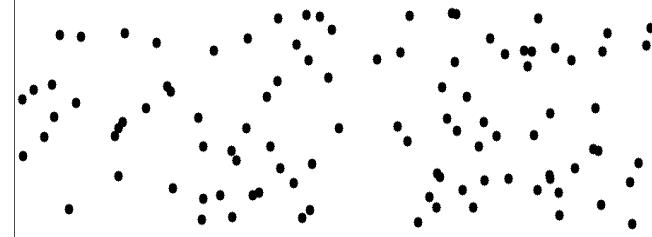
# Positively and Negatively Correlated Data



- The left half fragment is positively correlated
- The right half is negative correlated

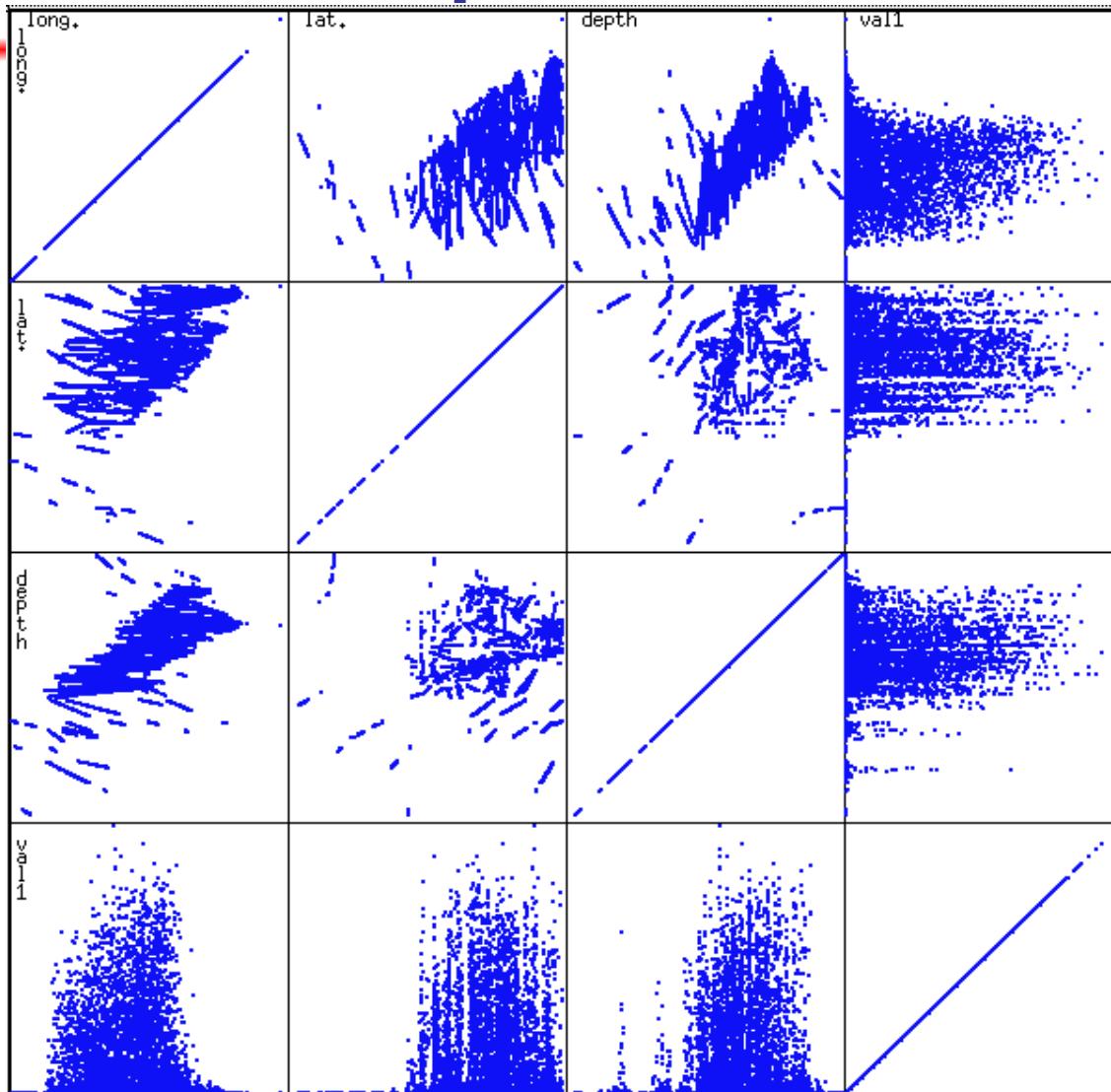
# Uncorrelated Data

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# Scatterplot Matrices

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Matrix of scatterplots (x-y-diagrams) of the k-dim. data [total of  $(k^2/2-k)$  scatterplots]

# Chapter 2: Getting to Know Your Data

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# Similarity and Dissimilarity

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- **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

# Data Matrix and Dissimilarity Matrix

## ■ Data matrix

- n data points (objects) with p dimensions (features)

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & \dots & x_{1f} & \dots & x_{1p} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ x_{i1} & \dots & x_{if} & \dots & x_{ip} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ x_{n1} & \dots & x_{nf} & \dots & x_{np} \end{bmatrix}$$

## ■ Dissimilarity matrix

- n data points, but registers only the distance
- A triangular matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & & & & \\ d(2,1) & 0 & & & \\ d(3,1) & d(3,2) & 0 & & \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \\ d(n,1) & d(n,2) & \dots & \dots & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

# Proximity Measures for Binary Attributes

- A contingency table for binary data

Number of attributes for which both data objects have value 1

		Data object <i>j</i>		
		1	0	sum
Data object <i>i</i>	1	$q$	$r$	$q + r$
	0	$s$	$t$	$s + t$
sum		$q + s$	$r + t$	$p$

# Proximity Measures for Binary Attributes

- ... but we can do the same for attributes (transpose)

Number of data objects for which both attributes have value 1

		Attribute $j$		
		1	0	sum
Attribute $i$	1	$q$	$r$	$q + r$
	0	$s$	$t$	$s + t$
sum		$q + s$	$r + t$	$p$

# Proximity Measures for Binary Attributes

- A contingency table for binary data
- Distance measure for symmetric bin. vars (0 and 1 equally important):
- Distance measure for asymm. bin. vars (1 more important - e.g. diseases):
- Jaccard coefficient (*similarity* measure for *asymmetric* binary variables):
- Note: Jaccard coefficient is the same as “coherence”:

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

		Data object <i>j</i>		Data object <i>i</i>
		1	0	
1	<i>q</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>q + r</i>	
	<i>s</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>s + t</i>	
sum	<i>q + s</i>	<i>r + t</i>	<i>p</i>	
		$d(i, j) = \frac{r + s}{q + r + s + t}$		
		$d(i, j) = \frac{r + s}{q + r + s}$		
		$sim_{Jaccard}(i, j) = \frac{q}{q + r + s}$		

# Dissimilarity between Binary Attributes

## Example

Name	Gender	Fever	Cough	Test-1	Test-2	Test-3
Jack	M	Y	N	P	N	N
Mary	F	Y	N	P	N	P
Jim	M	Y	P	N	N	N

- Gender is a symmetric attribute (let's discard it!)
- The remaining attributes are asymmetric binary
- Let the values Y and P be 1, and the value N 0

$$d(jack, mary) = \frac{0+1}{2+0+1} = 0.33$$

$$d(jack, jim) = \frac{1+1}{1+1+1} = 0.67$$

$$d(jim, mary) = \frac{1+2}{1+1+2} = 0.75$$

	1	0	sum
1	q	r	q+r
0	s	t	s+t
sum	q+s	r+t	p

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

# Proximity Measures for Categorical (or “nominal”) Attributes

- 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 attributes

$$d(i, j) = \frac{p - m}{p}$$

- Method 2: Use a large number of binary attributes
  - creating a new binary attribute for each of the  $M$  categories

# Proximity on Numeric Data: Minkowski Distance

- *Minkowski distance*: A popular distance measure

$$d(i, j) = \sqrt[h]{|x_{i1} - x_{j1}|^h + |x_{i2} - x_{j2}|^h + \cdots + |x_{ip} - x_{jp}|^h}$$

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

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

# Special Cases of Minkowski Distance

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

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

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

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

- $h \rightarrow \infty$ . “supremum” ( $L_{\max}$  norm,  $L_{\infty}$  norm) distance.
  - This is the maximum difference between any component (attribute) of the vectors

$$d(i, j) = \lim_{h \rightarrow \infty} \left( \sum_{f=1}^p |x_{if} - x_{jf}|^h \right)^{\frac{1}{h}} = \max_f^p |x_{if} - x_{jf}|$$

# Example: Minkowski Distance

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

Dissimilarity Matrices

## 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 ( $L_{\infty}$ )

$L_{\infty}$	x1	x2	x3	x4
x1	0			
x2	3	0		
x3	2	5	0	
x4	3	1	5	0

# Standardizing Numeric Data

- Z-score: 
$$z = \frac{x - \mu}{\sigma}$$
  - X: raw data,  $\mu$ : mean of the population,  $\sigma$ : standard deviation
  - the distance between the raw score and the population mean in units of the standard deviation
  - $<0$  when the raw score is below the mean,  $>0$  when above
- An alternative way: Calculate the mean absolute deviation

$$s_f = \frac{1}{n} (|x_{1f} - m_f| + |x_{2f} - m_f| + \dots + |x_{nf} - m_f|)$$

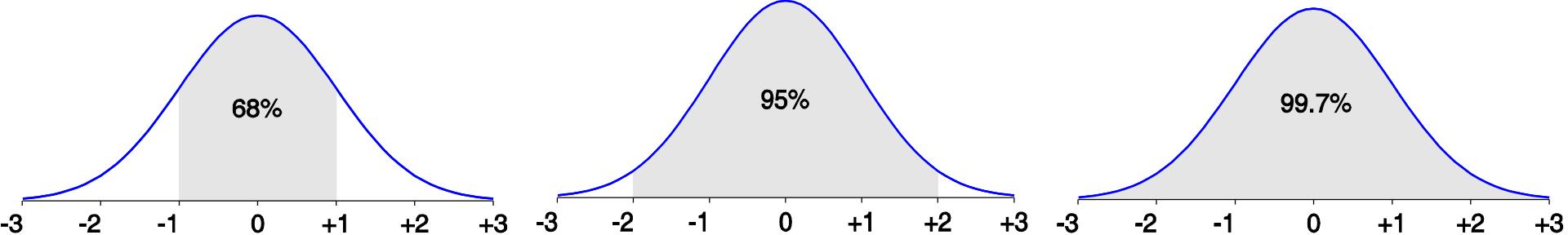
where

$$m_f = \frac{1}{n} (x_{1f} + x_{2f} + \dots + x_{nf}).$$

- standardized measure (z-score): 
$$z_{if} = \frac{x_{if} - m_f}{s_f}$$
- mean absolute deviation is more robust than std dev

# Properties of Normal Distribution Curve

- The normal (distribution) curve
  - From  $\mu-\sigma$  to  $\mu+\sigma$ : contains about 68% of the measurements ( $\mu$ : mean,  $\sigma$ : standard deviation)
  - From  $\mu-2\sigma$  to  $\mu+2\sigma$ : contains about 95% of it
  - From  $\mu-3\sigma$  to  $\mu+3\sigma$ : contains about 99.7% of it



# Ordinal Variables

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- An ordinal variable can be discrete or continuous
- Order is important, e.g., rank
- Can be treated like interval-scaled
  - replace  $x_{if}$  by their rank  $r_{if} \in \{1, \dots, M_f\}$
  - map (normalize) the range of each variable onto  $[0, 1]$  by replacing  $x_{if}$  by

$$z_{if} = \frac{r_{if} - 1}{M_f - 1}$$

- compute the dissimilarity using distance measures for numeric attributes

# Attributes of Mixed Type

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

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

- Choice of  $\delta_{ij}^{(f)}$ 
  - Set  $\delta_{ij}^{(f)} = 0$  if
    - $x_{if}$  or  $x_{jf}$  is missing
    - $x_{if} = x_{jf} = 0$  and  $f$  is asymmetric binary
  - Set  $\delta_{ij}^{(f)} = 1$  otherwise

# Attributes of Mixed Type

---

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

- *Choice of  $d_{ij}^{(f)}$* 
  - *when  $f$  is binary or nominal:*  
 $d_{ij}^{(f)} = 0$  if  $x_{if} = x_{jf}$ ,  $d_{ij}^{(f)} = 1$  otherwise
  - *when  $f$  is numeric:* use the normalized distance
  - *when  $f$  is ordinal*
    - Compute ranks  $r_{if}$  and  $z_{if} = \frac{r_{if} - 1}{M_f - 1}$
    - Treat  $z_{if}$  as interval-scaled

# Cosine Similarity

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- 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	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, ...
- Issue: very long and **sparse**
- Treat documents as vectors, and compute a **cosine similarity**

# Cosine Similarity

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- Cosine measure: If  $x$  and  $y$  are two vectors (e.g., term-frequency vectors), then

$$\cos(x, y) = (x \bullet y) / \|x\| \|y\|$$

where

- $\bullet$  indicates vector dot product,  $x \cdot y = \sum_{i=1}^p x_i y_i$
- $\|x\|$ : the L2 norm (length) of vector  $x$   $\|x\| = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \dots + x_p^2}$
- Remark: when attributes are binary valued:
  - $\bullet$  indicates the number of shared features
  - $\|x\| \|y\|$  is the geometric mean between the number of features of  $x$  and the number of features of  $y$ :  
$$\sqrt{a} * \sqrt{b} = \sqrt{a * b}$$
  - $\cos(x, y)$  measures relative possession of common features

# Example: Cosine Similarity

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- $\cos(x, y) = (x \bullet y) / \|x\| \|y\|$
- Ex: Find the **similarity** between documents x and y.

$$x = (5, 0, 3, 0, 2, 0, 0, 2, 0, 0)$$

$$y = (3, 0, 2, 0, 1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1)$$

$$\begin{aligned} x \bullet y &= 5*3+0*0+3*2+0*0+2*1+0*1+0*1+2*1+0*0+0*1 = \\ &= 25 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \|x\| &= (5*5+0*0+3*3+0*0+2*2+0*0+0*0+2*2+0*0+0*0)^{0.5} = \\ &= 6.481 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \|y\| &= (3*3+0*0+2*2+0*0+1*1+1*1+0*0+1*1+0*0+1*1)^{0.5} = \\ &= 4.12 \end{aligned}$$

$$\cos(x, y) = 25 / (6.481 * 4.12) = 0.94$$

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