Data preprocessing

Data Systems Group - UT

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Data Preprocessing

- Data Preprocessing: Motivation and Overview
  - Data Quality
  - Major Tasks in Data Preprocessing
- Data Cleaning
- Data Integration
- Data Reduction

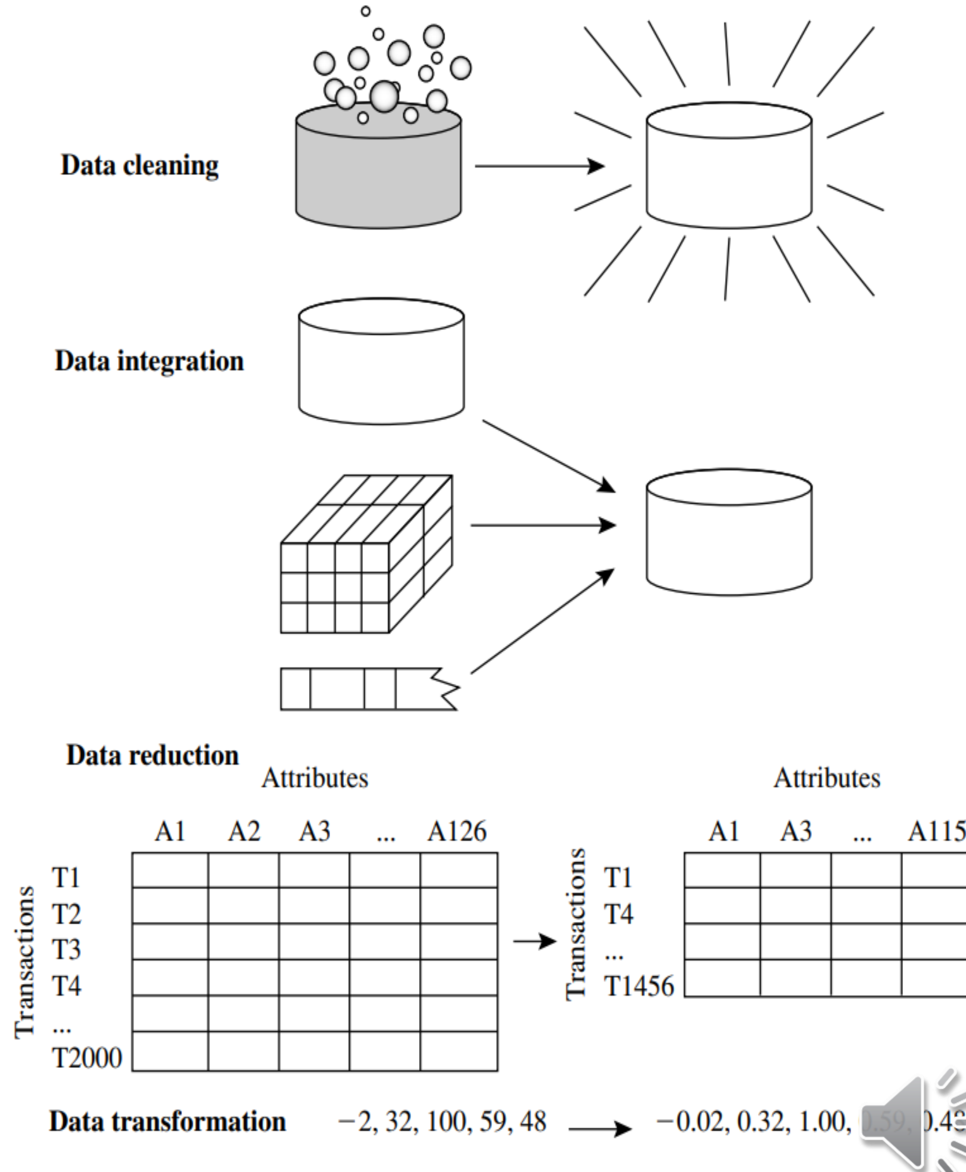
Data Preprocessing: Introduction

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?

Major Tasks in Data Preprocessing

- **Data cleaning**
  - Fill in missing values, smooth noisy data, identify or remove outliers, and resolve inconsistencies
- **Data integration**
  - Integration of multiple databases, data cubes, or files
- **Data reduction**
  - Dimensionality reduction
  - Numerosity reduction
  - Data compression



Data Preprocessing

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- Data Reduction
- Data Transformation and Data Discretization
- Summary

Data Cleaning

- Data in the Real World Is Dirty: Lots of potentially incorrect data, e.g., 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

How to Handle Missing Data?

- Ignore the tuple: usually done when class label is missing (when doing classification)—not effective when the % of missing values per attribute varies considerably
- Fill in the missing value manually: tedious + infeasible?
- Fill in it automatically with
  - a global constant : e.g., "unknown", a new class?!
  - the attribute mean
  - the attribute mean for all samples belonging to the same class: smarter
  - the most probable value: inference-based such as decision tree

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.

Sorted data for *price* (in dollars): 4, 8, 15, 21, 21, 24, 25, 28, 34

Partition into (equal-frequency) bins:

Bin 1: 4, 8, 15
Bin 2: 21, 21, 24
Bin 3: 25, 28, 34

Smoothing by bin means:

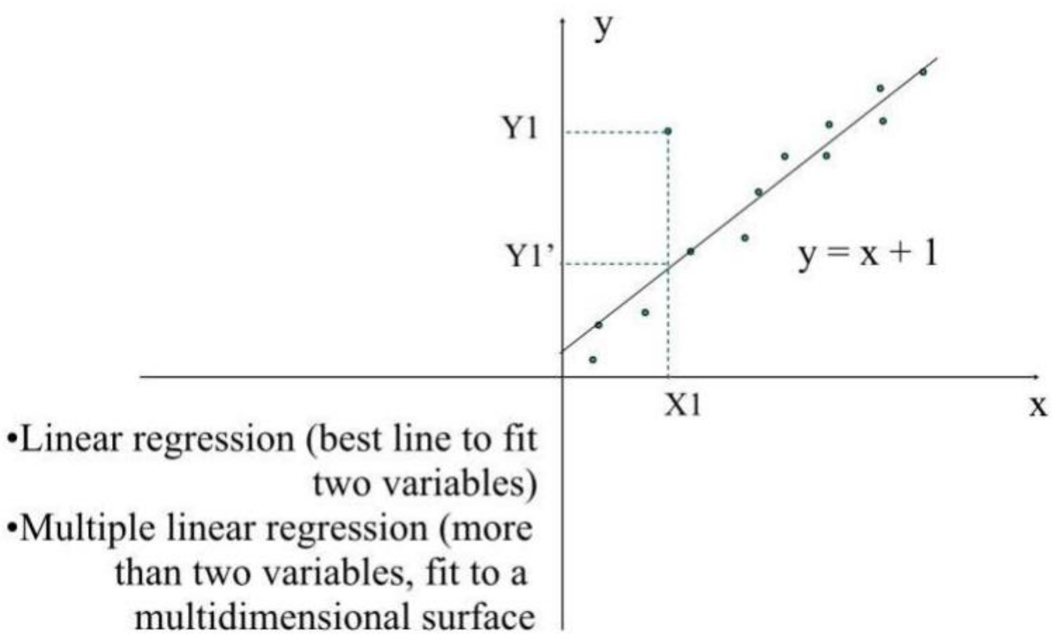
Bin 1: 9, 9, 9
Bin 2: 22, 22, 22
Bin 3: 29, 29, 29

Smoothing by bin boundaries:

Bin 1: 4, 4, 15
Bin 2: 21, 21, 24
Bin 3: 25, 25, 34

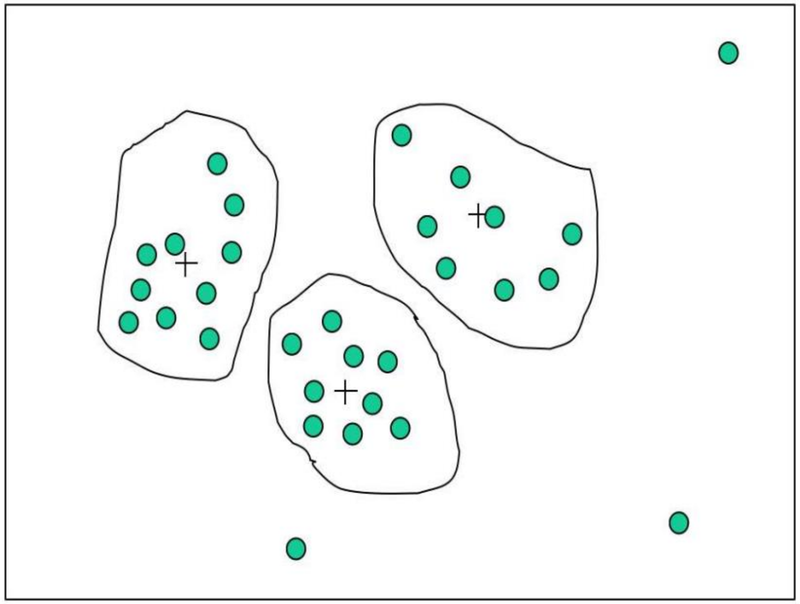
How to Handle Noisy Data? (Cont.)

- Regression
  - smooth by fitting the data into regression functions



How to Handle Noisy Data? (Cont.)

- Clustering
  - detect and remove outliers



Data Cleaning as a Process

- Data discrepancy detection
  - Use metadata (e.g., type, range, dependency, distribution)
  - Check uniqueness 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)

Chapter 3: Data Preprocessing

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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
  - Possible reasons: different representations, different scales, e.g., metric vs. British units

Handling Redundancy in Data Integration

- Redundant data occur often when integration of 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

Correlation Analysis (Nominal Data)

- **X^2 (chi-square) test**

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

- 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

	Male	Female	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)

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

$$Expected(LikeSF, M) = \frac{450 * 300}{1500} = 90$$

- It shows that like_science_fiction and being a Male are correlated in the group

Correlation Analysis (Numeric Data)

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

$$r_{A,B} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n}(a_i - \bar{A})(b_i - \bar{B})}{(n-1)\sigma_A \sigma_B} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n}(a_i b_i) - n\bar{A}\bar{B}}{(n-1)\sigma_A \sigma_B}$$

where n is the number of tuples, $\bar{A}$ and $\bar{B}$ are the respective means of A and B, σ_A and σ_B are the respective standard deviation of A and B, and $\Sigma(a_i b_i)$ is the sum of the AB cross-product.

- If $r_{A,B} > 0$, A and B are positively correlated (A's values increase as B's). The higher, the stronger correlation.
- $r_{A,B} = 0$: independent; $r_{AB} < 0$: negatively correlated

Covariance (Numeric Data)

- Covariance is similar to correlation

$$Cov(A,B) = E((A-\bar{A})(B-\bar{B})) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n}(a_i - \bar{A})(b_i - \bar{B})}{n}$$

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

Correlation coefficient: $$r_{A,B} = \frac{Cov(A,B)}{\sigma_A \sigma_B}$$

where n is the number of tuples, $\overline{A}$ and $\overline{B}$ are the respective mean or **expected values** of A and B, σ_A and σ_B are the respective standard deviation of A and B.

- **Positive covariance**: If $Cov_{A,B} > 0$, then A and B both tend to be larger than their expected values.
- **Negative covariance**: If $Cov_{A,B} < 0$ then if A is larger than its expected value, B is likely to be smaller than its expected value.
- **Independence**: $Cov_{A,B} = 0$ but the converse is not true:

Co-Variance: An Example

Suppose two stocks of two companies AllElectronics and HighTech have the following values in one week:

Time point	*AllElectronics*	*HighTech*
t1	6	20
t2	5	10
t3	4	14
t4	3	5
t5	2	5

Question: If the stocks are affected by the same industry trends, will their prices rise or fall together?

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

- E(A) = (6 + 5 + 4 + 3 + 2)/ 5 = 20/5 = 4
- E(B) = (20 + 10 + 14 + 5 + 5) /5 = 54/5 = 10.8
- Cov(A,B) = (6×20+5×10+4×14+3×5+2×5)/5 − 4 × 10.8 = 7

- Thus, A and B rise together since Cov(A, B) > 0.

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Data Reduction Strategies

- **Data reduction**: Obtain a reduced representation of the data set that is much smaller in volume but yet produces the same (or almost the same) analytical results
- Why data reduction? — A database/data warehouse may store terabytes of data. Complex data analysis may take a very long time to run on the complete data set.
- Data reduction strategies
  - Dimensionality reduction, e.g., remove unimportant attributes
    - Wavelet transforms
    - Principal Components Analysis (PCA)
    - Feature subset selection, feature creation
  - Numerosity reduction (some simply call it: Data Reduction)
    - Regression
    - Histograms, clustering, sampling
    - Data cube aggregation

Dimensionality reduction: Wavelet Transformation

- Discrete wavelet transform (DWT) for linear signal processing, multi-resolution analysis
- Compressed approximation: store only a small fraction of the strongest of the wavelet coefficients
- Method:
  - Length, L, must be an integer power of 2 (padding with 0's, when necessary)
  - Each transform has 2 functions: smoothing, difference
  - Applies to pairs of data, resulting in two set of data of length L/2
  - Applies two functions recursively, until reaches the desired length

Wavelet Decomposition

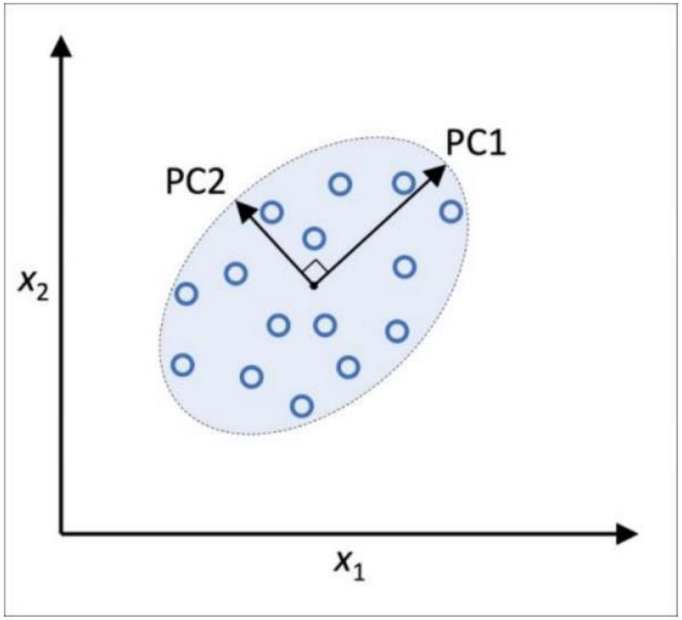
- Wavelets: A math tool for space-efficient hierarchical decomposition of functions
- S = [2, 2, 0, 2, 3, 5, 4, 4] can be transformed to $S_{\wedge}$ = [$2^3/_4$, $-1^1/_4$, $^1/_2$, 0, 0, -1, -1, 0]
- Compression: many small detail coefficients can be replaced by 0's, and only the significant coefficients are retained

Resolution	Averages	Detail Coefficients
8	$[2,\ 2,\ 0,\ 2,\ 3,\ 5,\ 4,\ 4]$	
4	$[2,\ 1,\ 4,\ 4]$	$[0,\ -1,\ -1,\ 0]$
2	$[1\frac{1}{2},\ 4]$	$[\frac{1}{2},\ 0]$
1	$[2\frac{3}{4}]$	$[-1\frac{1}{4}]$

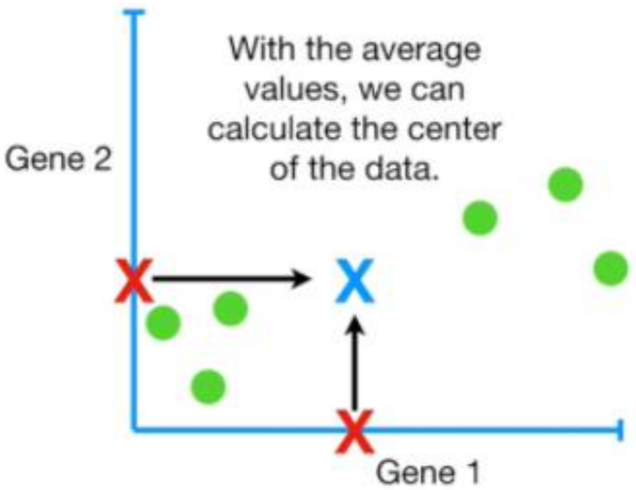
<u>wavelet decomposition:</u> [2.75, -1.25, 0.5, 0, 0, -1, -1, 0]

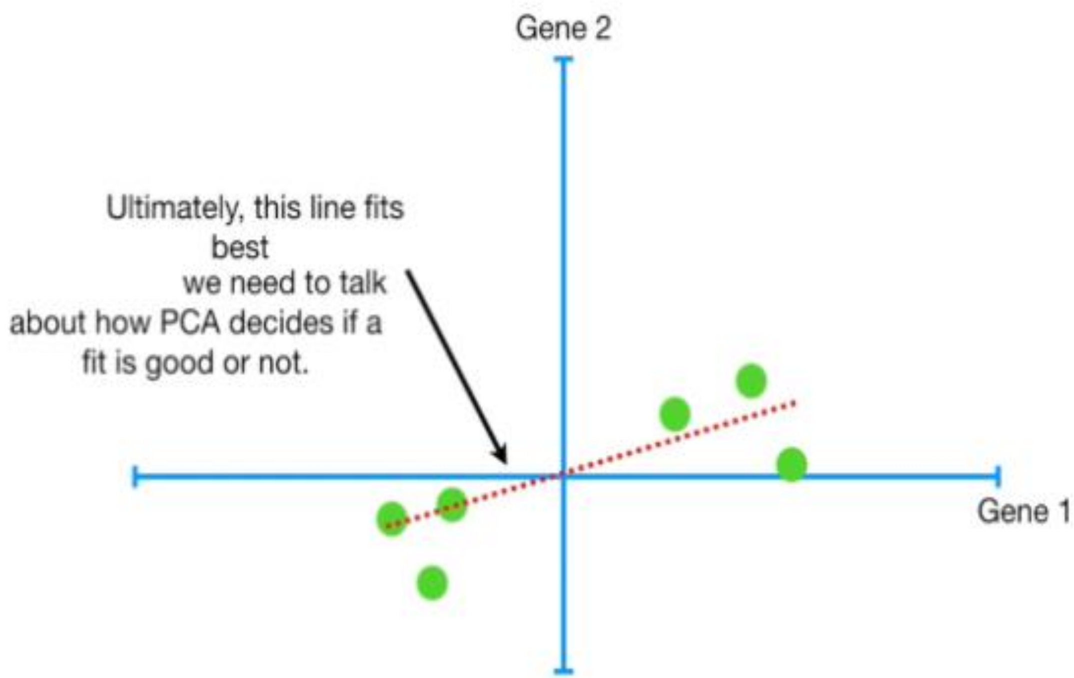
Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

- Find a projection that captures the largest amount of variation in data
- The original data are projected onto a much smaller space, resulting in dimensionality reduction.



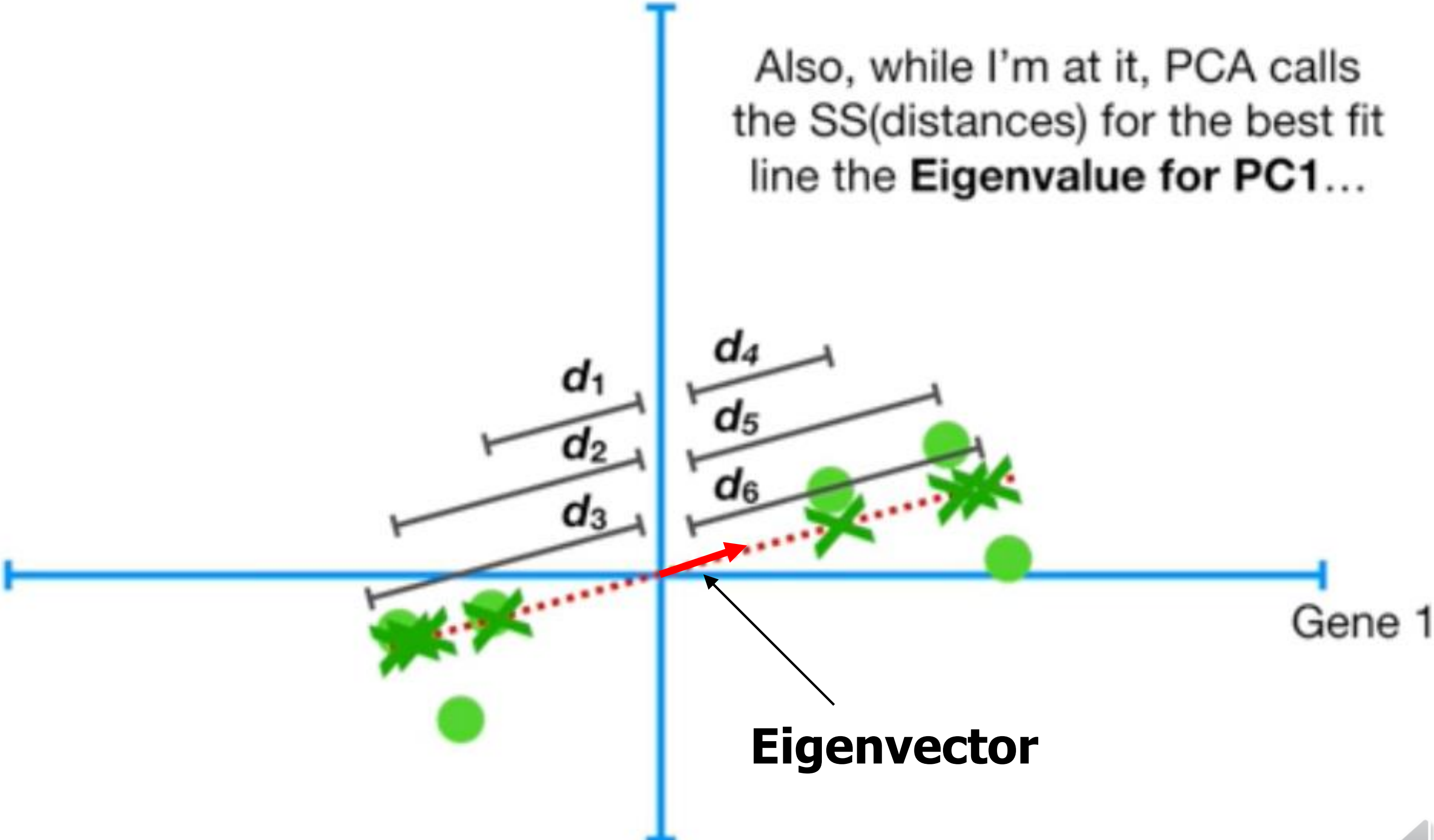
Principal Component Analysis (PCA) (Cont.)



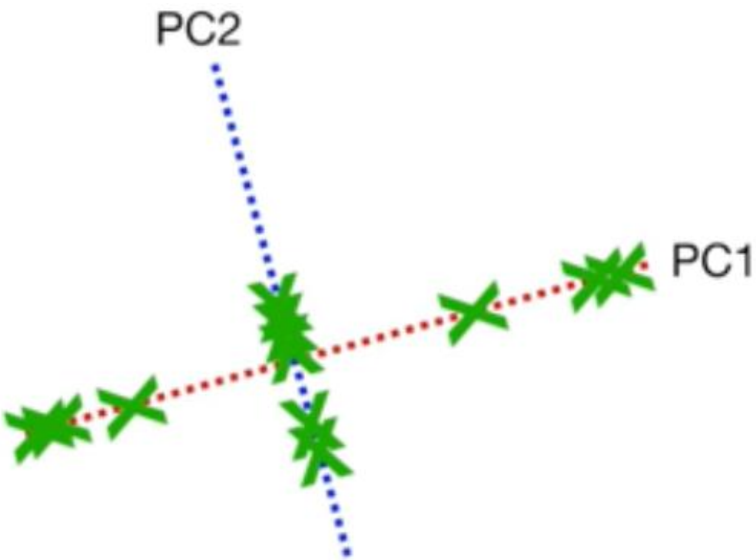


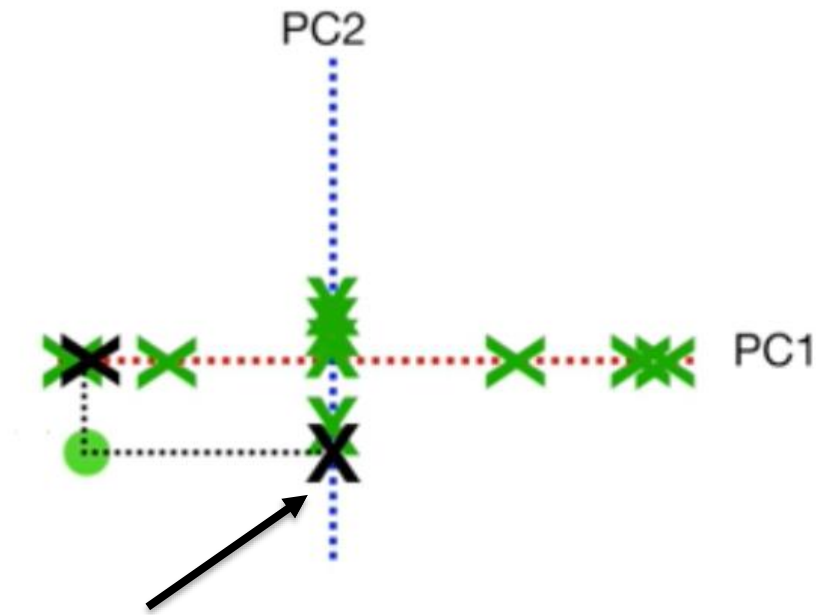
Principal Component Analysis (PCA) (Cont.)

$d_1^2 + d_2^2 + d_3^2 + d_4^2 + d_5^2 + d_6^2$ = sum of squared distances = SS(distances)



Principal Component Analysis (PCA) (Cont.)





PC2 is the one perpendicular on PC1

..so Sample 6 goes here.

Principal Component Analysis (PCA) (Cont.)

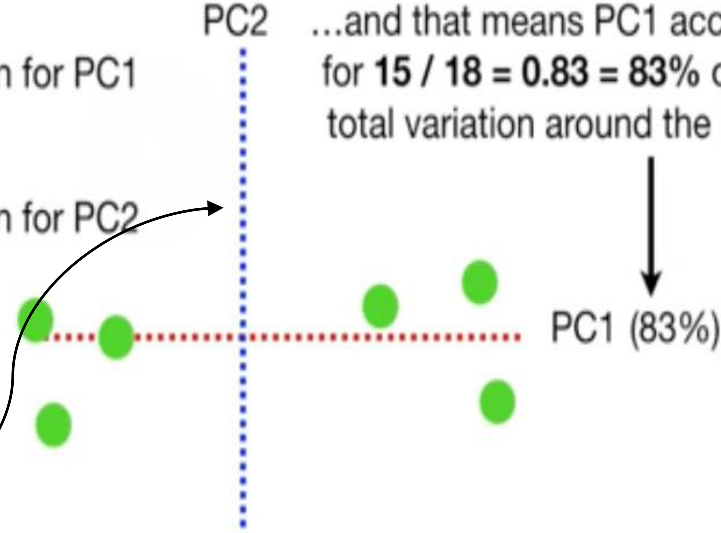
For the sake of the example, imagine that the Variation for **PC1 = 15**, and the variation for **PC2 = 3**.

That means that the total variation around both PCs is **15 + 3 = 18**...

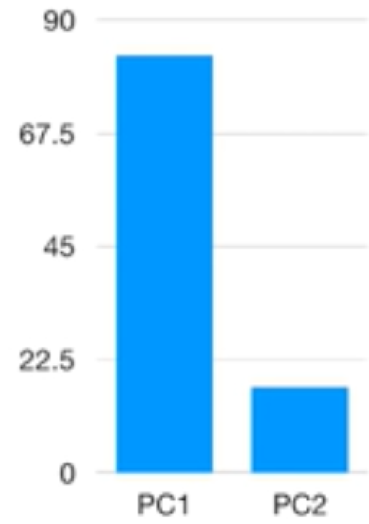
$$\frac{\text{SS(distances for PC1)}}{n - 1} = \text{Variation for PC1}$$

$$\frac{\text{SS(distances for PC2)}}{n - 1} = \text{Variation for PC2}$$

...and that means PC1 accounts for **15 / 18 = 0.83 = 83%** of the total variation around the PCs.



PC2 accounts for **3 / 18 = 0.17 = 17%** of the total variation around the PCs.



Graphical representation of the percentages of variation that each PC accounts for

Attribute Subset Selection

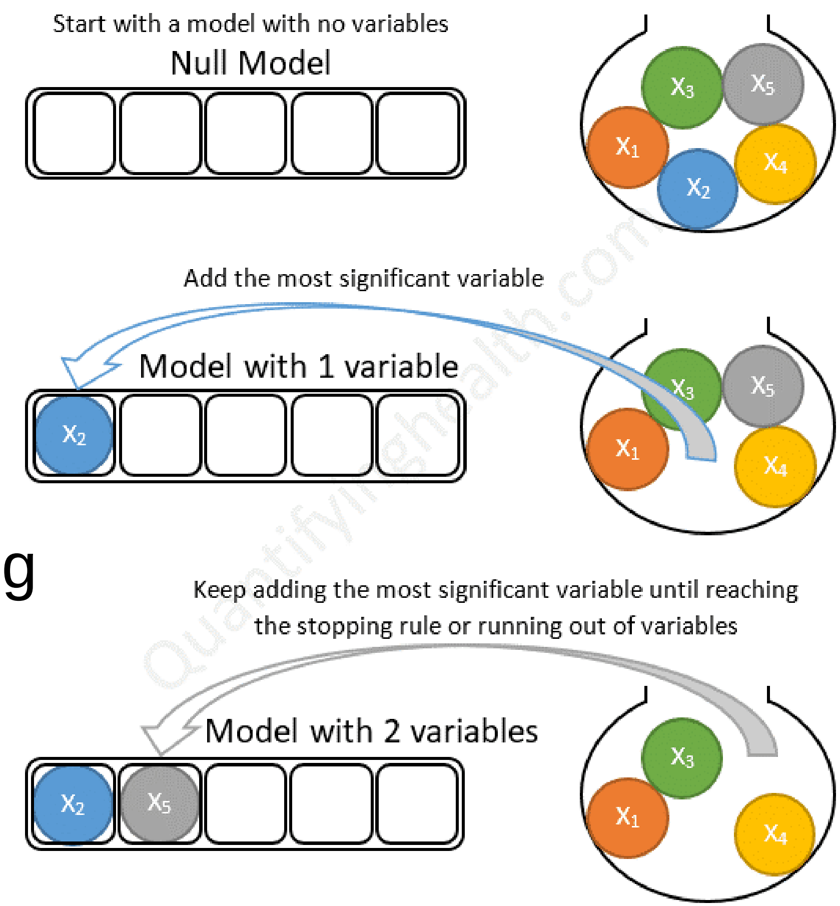
- Another way to reduce dimensionality of data
- Redundant attributes
  - Duplicate much or all of the information contained in one or more other attributes
  - E.g., purchase price of a product and the amount of sales tax paid
- Irrelevant attributes
  - Contain no information that is useful for the data mining task at hand
  - E.g., students' ID is often irrelevant to the task of predicting students' GPA

Heuristic Search in Attribute Selection

- There are 2^d possible attribute combinations of d attributes
- Typical heuristic attribute selection methods:
  - Stepwise forward selection
  - Stepwise backward elimination:
  - Decision tree induction

Forward stepwise selection (or forward selection)

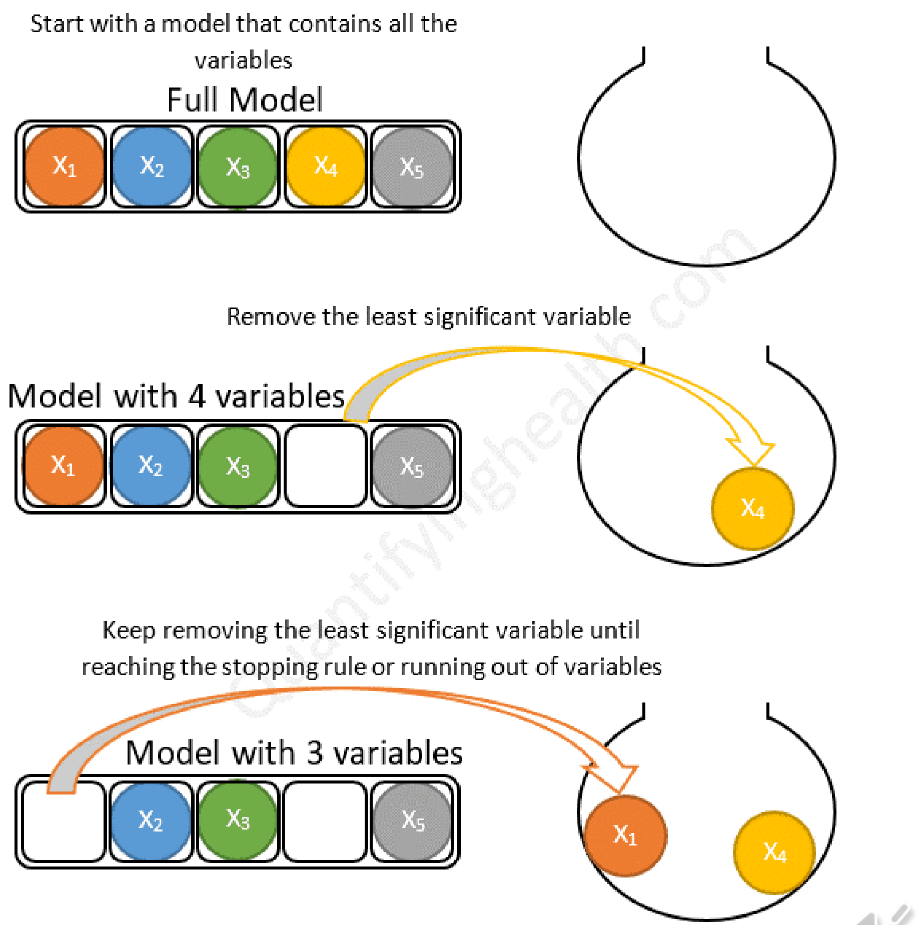
1.Begins with a model that contains no variables (called the *Null Model*)
2.Then starts adding the most significant variables one after the other
3.Until a pre-specified stopping rule is reached or until all the variables under consideration are included in the model



Backward stepwise selection (Backward stepwise)

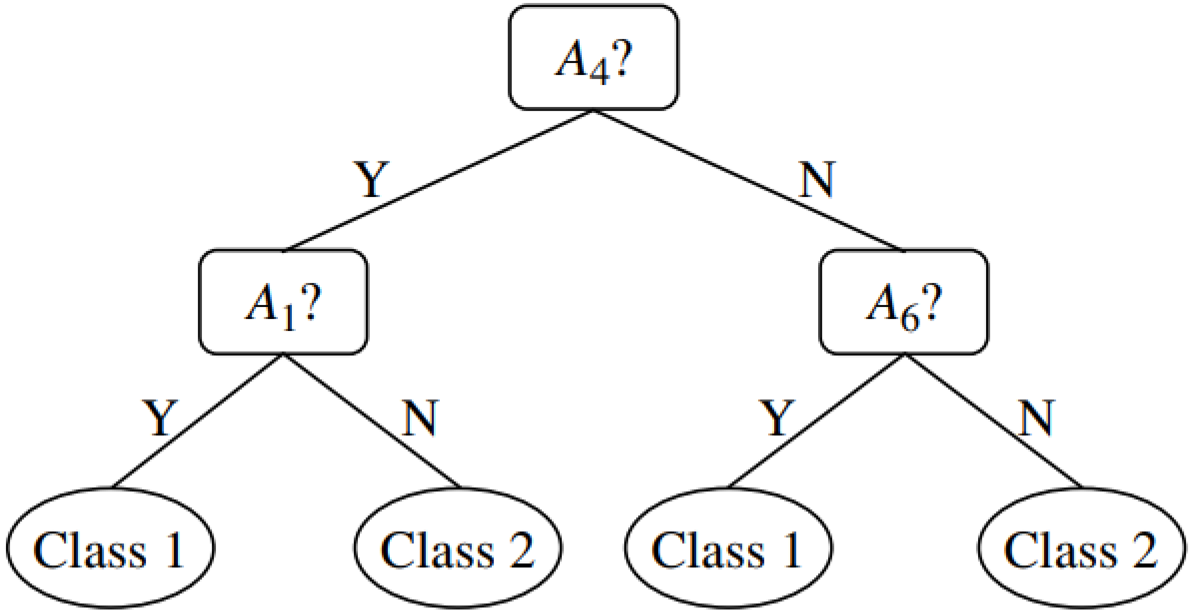
1. **Begins** with a model that contains all variables under consideration (called the *Full Model*)
2. **Then** starts removing the least significant variables one after the other
3. **Until** a pre-specified stopping rule is reached or until no variable is left in the model

Backward stepwise selection example with 5 variables:



Decision tree induction

Initial attribute set:
$\{A_1, A_2, A_3, A_4, A_5, A_6\}$



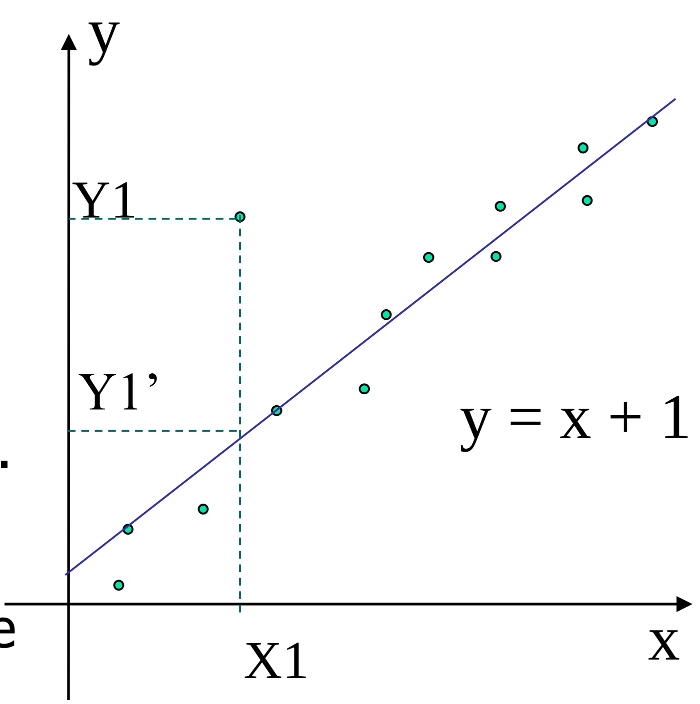
=> Reduced attribute set:
$\{A_1, A_4, A_6\}$

Data Reduction 2: Numerosity Reduction

- Reduce data volume by choosing alternative, *smaller forms* of data representation
- **Parametric methods** (e.g., regression)
  - Assume the data fits some model, estimate model parameters, store only the parameters, and discard the data (except possible outliers)
- **Non-parametric** methods
  - Do not assume models
  - Major families: histograms, clustering, sampling, …

Regression Analysis

- Regression analysis: A collective name for techniques for the modeling and analysis of numerical data consisting of values of a ***dependent variable*** (also called ***response variable*** or *measurement*) and of one or more *independent variables* (aka. ***explanatory variables*** or ***predictors***)
- The parameters are estimated so as to give a "**best fit**" of the data
- Most commonly the best fit is evaluated by using the ***least squares method***, but other criteria have also been used

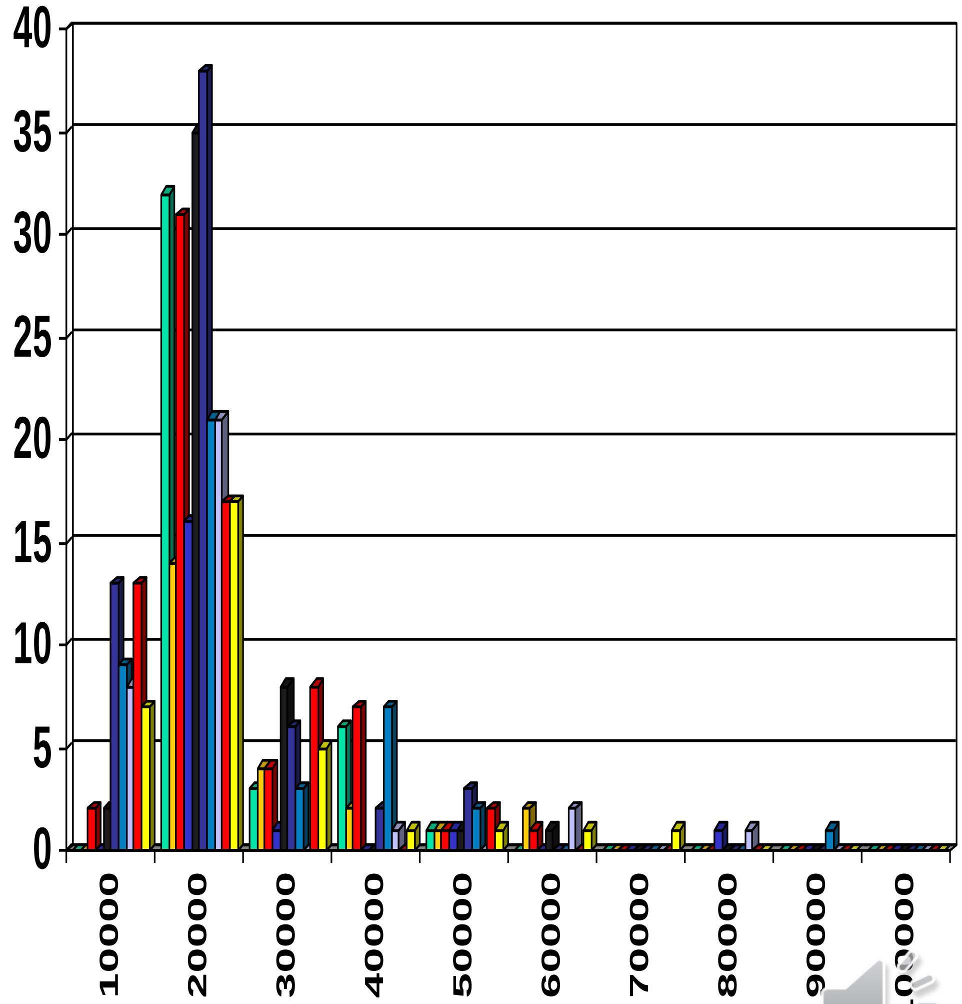


Regression Analysis

- Linear regression: $Y = w X + b$
  - Two regression coefficients, w and b, specify the line and are to be estimated by using the data at hand
  - Using the least squares criterion to the known values of $Y_1, Y_2, \ldots, X_1, X_2, \ldots$.
- Multiple regression: $Y = b_0 + b_1 X_1 + b_2 X_2$
  - Many nonlinear functions can be transformed into the above

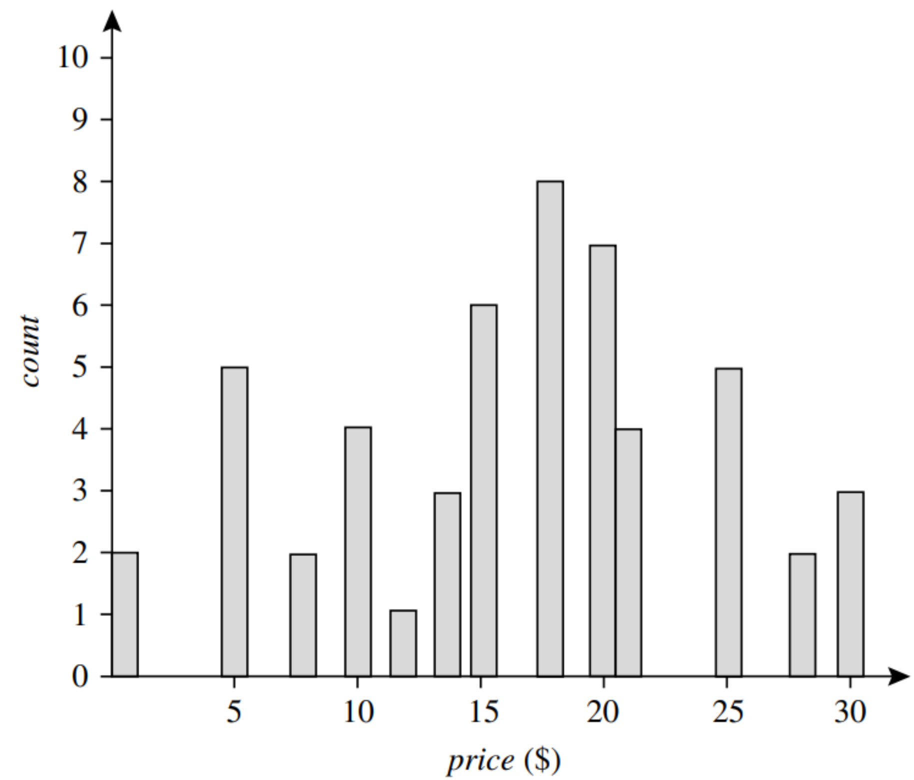
Histogram Analysis

- Divide data into buckets and store average (sum) for each bucket
- Partitioning rules:
  - Equal-width: equal bucket range
  - Equal-frequency (or equal-depth)



Histogram Analysis (Example)

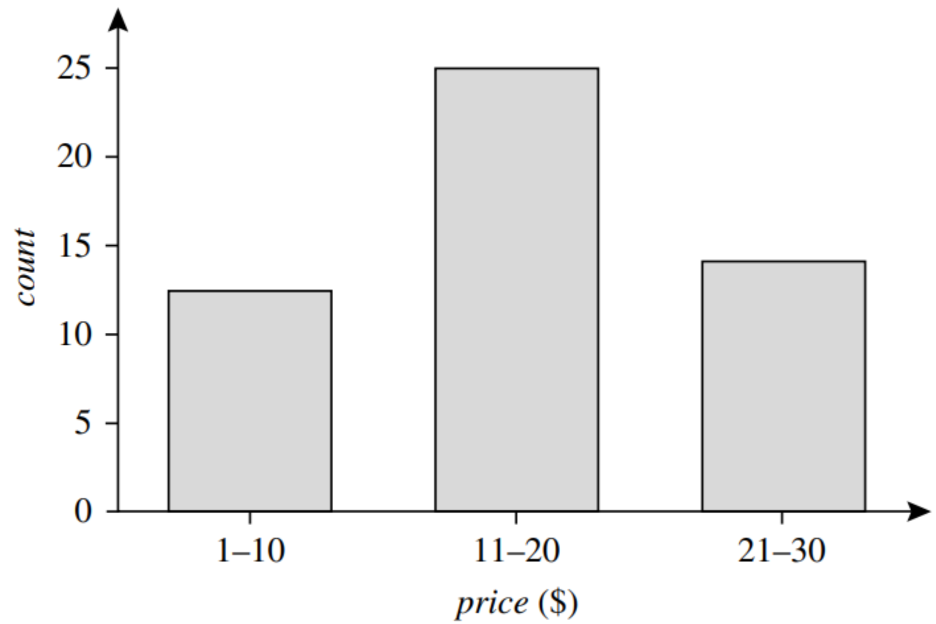
- The following data are a list of Euronics prices for commonly sold items (rounded to the nearest dollar). The numbers have been sorted: 1, 1, 5, 5, 5, 5, 5, 8, 8, 10, 10, 10, 10, 12, 14, 14, 14, 15, 15, 15, 15, 15, 15, 18, 18, 18, 18, 18, 18, 18, 18, 20, 20, 20, 20, 20, 20, 20, 21, 21, 21, 21, 25, 25, 25, 25, 25, 28, 28, 30, 30, 30.



A histogram for price using singleton buckets—each bucket represents one price–value/ frequency pair.

Histogram Analysis (Example)

- The following data are a list of Euronics prices for commonly sold items (rounded to the nearest dollar). The numbers have been sorted: 1, 1, 5, 5, 5, 5, 5, 8, 8, 10, 10, 10, 10, 12, 14, 14, 14, 15, 15, 15, 15, 15, 15, 18, 18, 18, 18, 18, 18, 18, 18, 20, 20, 20, 20, 20, 20, 20, 21, 21, 21, 21, 25, 25, 25, 25, 25, 28, 28, 30, 30, 30.



An equal-width histogram for price, where values are aggregated so that each bucket has a uniform width of $10.

Clustering

- Partition data set into clusters based on similarity, and store cluster representation (e.g., centroid and diameter) only
- Can be very effective if data is clustered
- There are many choices of clustering definitions and clustering algorithms

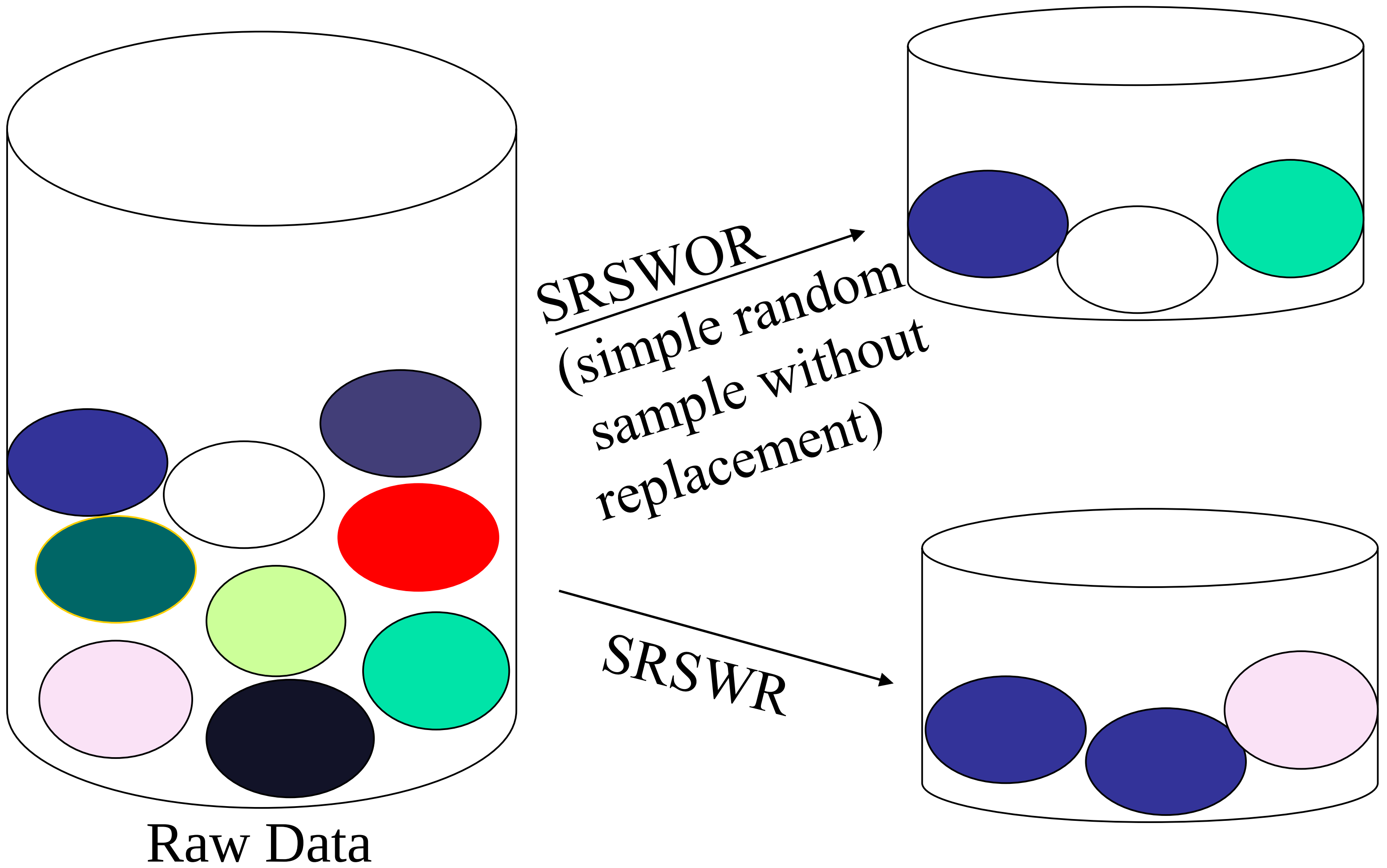
Sampling

- Sampling: obtaining a small sample *s* to represent the whole data set *N*
- Key principle: Choose a representative subset of the data
  - Simple random sampling may have very poor performance in the presence of skew
  - Develop adaptive sampling methods, e.g., stratified sampling

Types of Sampling

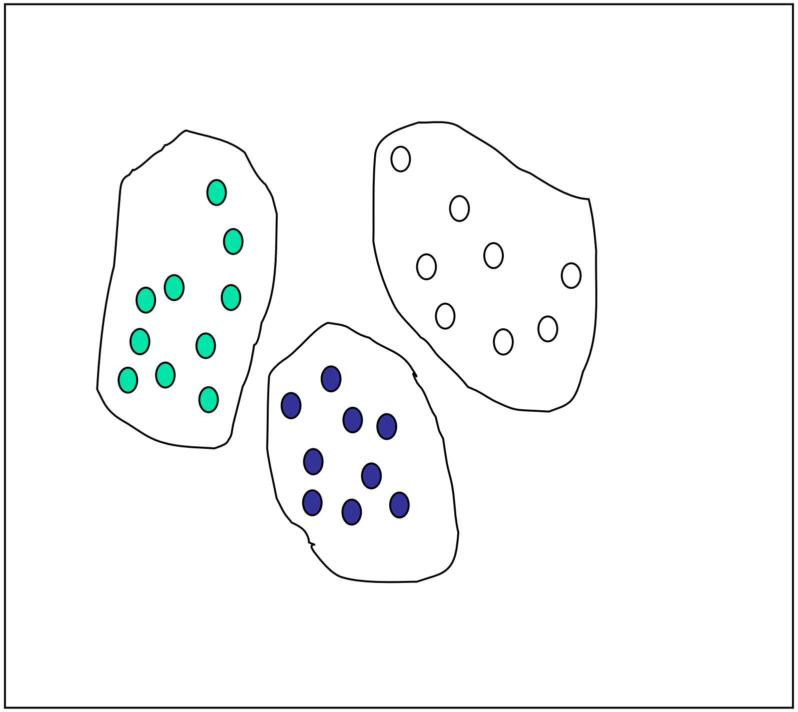
- **Sampling without replacement**
  - Once an object is selected, it is removed from the population
- **Sampling with replacement**
  - A selected object is not removed from the population
- **Stratified sampling:**
  - Partition the data set, and draw samples from each partition (proportionally, i.e., approximately the same percentage of the data)
  - Used in conjunction with skewed data

Sampling: With or without Replacement

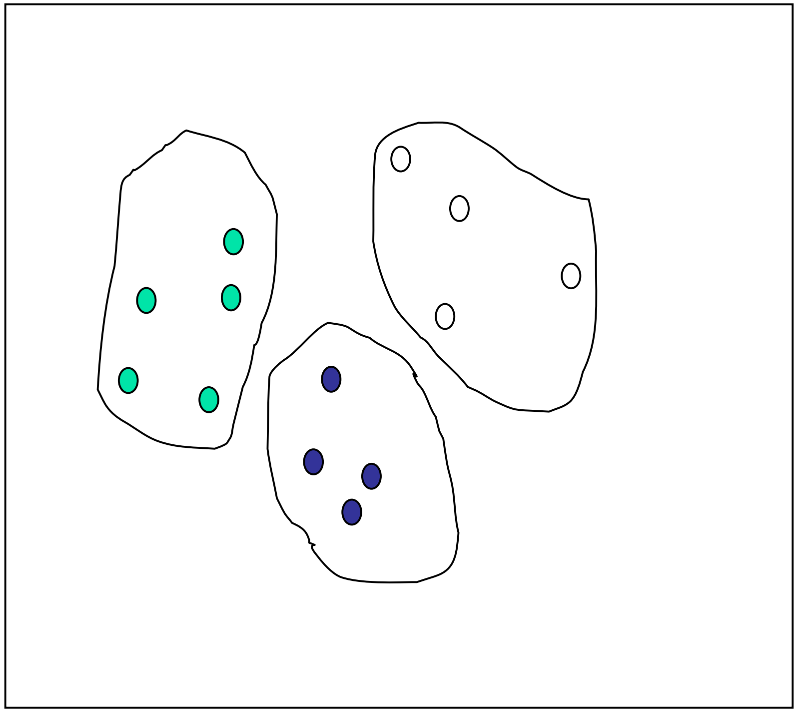


Sampling: Cluster or Stratified Sampling

Raw Data



Cluster/Stratified Sample



Data Cube Aggregation(intro)

Year 2010

Year 2009

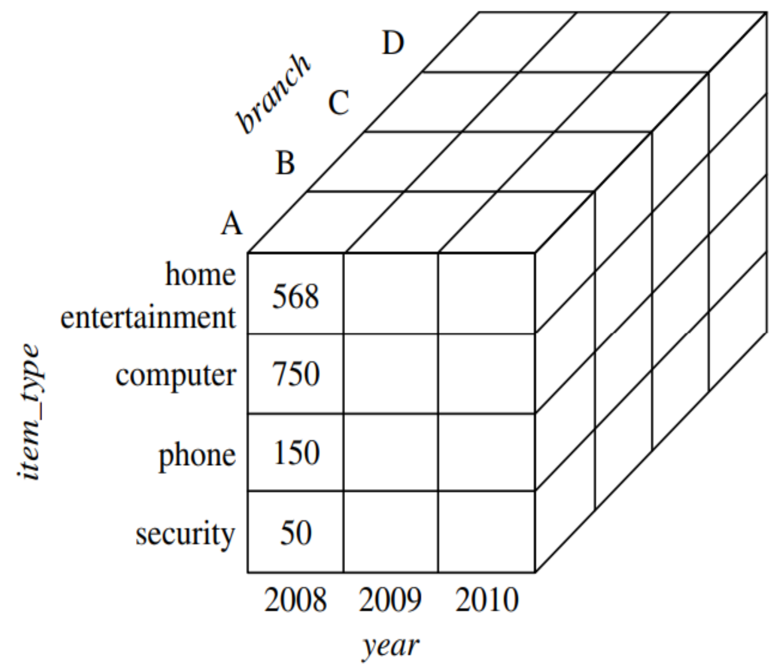
Year 2008	
Quarter	Sales
Q1	$224,000
Q2	$408,000
Q3	$350,000
Q4	$586,000

Year	Sales
2008	$1,568,000
2009	$2,356,000
2010	$3,594,000

Sales data for the years 2008 through 2010. On the left, the sales are shown per quarter. On the right, the data are aggregated to provide the annual sales.

Data Cube Aggregation

- Data cubes store multidimensional aggregated information
- The lowest level of a data cub (base cuboid)
  - The aggregated data for an individual entity of interest
- The highest level of a data cub (apex cuboid)
- Reference appropriate levels
  - Use the smallest representation which is enough to solve the task



Summary

- **Data quality**: accuracy, completeness, consistency, timeliness, believability, interpretability
- **Data cleaning**: e.g. missing/noisy values, outliers
- **Data integration** from multiple sources:
  - Entity identification problem
  - Remove redundancies
  - Detect inconsistencies
- **Data reduction**
  - Dimensionality reduction
  - Numerosity reduction

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