#### PREPARING DATA

Introducción a la Ciencia de Datos

#### Prepare the ingredients: your data

- Reading data from CSV files
- Reading XML data
- Reading JSON data
- Reading data from fixed-width formatted files
- Reading data from R files and R libraries
- Removing cases with missing values
- Replacing missing values with the mean
- Removing duplicate cases
- Rescaling a variable to specified min-max range
- Normalizing or standardizing data in a data frame
- Binning numerical data
- Creating dummies for categorical variables
- Handling missing data
- Correcting data
- Imputing data
- Detecting outliers

#### Removing cases with missing values

 To get a data frame with no missing values for any variable, use the na.omit() function:

```
> dat.cleaned <- na.omit(dat)</pre>
```

We might sometimes want to selectively eliminate cases that have NA only for a specific variable. The example data frame has two missing values for Income. To get a data frame with only these two cases removed, use:

```
> dat.income.cleaned <- dat[!is.na(dat$Income),]
> nrow(dat.income.cleaned)
[1] 25
```

#### Finding cases with no missing values

• The complete.cases() function takes a data frame or table as its argument and returns a Boolean vector with TRUE for rows that have no missing values, and FALSE otherwise:

```
> complete.cases(dat)
```

```
[1]
      TRUE
            TRUE
                  TRUE FALSE
                              TRUE FALSE
                                           TRUF
                                                 TRUE
                                                        TRUE
[10]
      TRUE
                  TRUE FALSE
                                           TRUE FALSE
            TRUE
                              TRUE
                                     TRUE
                                                        TRUE
[19]
      TRUE
            TRUE
                  TRUE TRUE
                               TRUE
                                    TRUE
                                           TRUE TRUE
                                                        TRUE
```

Rows 4, 6, 13, and 17 have at least one missing value. Instead of using the na.omit() function, we can do the following as well:

```
> dat.cleaned <- dat[complete.cases(dat),]
> nrow(dat.cleaned)
[1] 23
```

#### Converting specific values to NA

- Sometimes, a specific value in a data frame means that the data was not available.
- For example, in the dat data frame, a value of 0 for Income probably means that the data is missing. We can convert these to NA by a simple assignment
- > dat\$Income[dat\$Income==0] <- NA</pre>

#### Replacing missing values with the mean

- Disregarding cases with any missing variables implies loosing useful information.
- You may sometimes want to impute reasonable values (those that will not skew the results of analysis very much) for the missing values.
- replace missing values with the mean

```
> dat <- read.csv("missing-data.csv", na.strings = "")
> dat$Income.imp.mean <- ifelse(is.na(dat$Income),
mean(dat$Income, na.rm=TRUE), dat$Income)</pre>
```

#### Removing duplicate cases

Removing duplicates

```
> salary <- c(20000, 30000, 25000, 40000, 30000, 34000, 30000)
> family.size <- c(4,3,2,2,3,4,3)
> car <- c("Luxury", "Compact", "Midsize", "Luxury", "Compact",
"Compact", "Compact")
> prospect <- data.frame(salary, family.size, car)</pre>
```

• The unique() function can do the job. It takes a vector or data frame as an argument and returns an object of the same type as its argument, but with duplicates removed.

```
> prospect.cleaned <- unique(prospect)
> nrow(prospect)
[1] 7
> nrow(prospect.cleaned)
[1] 5
```

#### Removing duplicate cases

 Sometimes we just want to identify the duplicated values without necessarily removing them for this, use the duplicated() function:

```
> duplicated(prospect)
[1] FALSE FALSE FALSE TRUE FALSE TRUE
```

• From the data, we know that cases 2, 5, and 7 are duplicates. To list the duplicate cases, use the following code:

# Rescaling a variable to specified min-max range

- Distance computations play a big role in many data analytics techniques.
- We know that variables with higher values tend to dominate distance computations and you may want to rescale the values between [0,1]

```
> install.packages("scales")
> library(scales)
> head(housing.dat)
> housing.dat$nSold.rescaled <- rescale(housing.dat$nSold)</pre>
```

```
fips county state time nSold medListPriceSqft medSoldPriceSqft nSold.rescaled
1 06037 Los Angeles County CA 2008-01-31 505900 NA 360.1645 0.3162685
2 06037 Los Angeles County CA 2008-02-29 497100 NA 353.9788 0.3103794
3 06037 Los Angeles County CA 2008-03-31 487300 NA 349.7633 0.3038212
```

# Rescaling a variable to specified min-max range

• To rescale a different range than [0,1], use the to argument. Rescaling to the range (0,100):

```
> housing.dat$nSold.rescaled <- rescale(housing.dat$nSold, to =
c(1, 100))</pre>
```

#### Rescaling many variables at once

Use the following function to rescale many variables:

```
rescale.many <- function(dat, column.nos) {
   nms <- names(dat)
   for(col in column.nos) {
      name <- paste(nms[col],".rescaled", sep = "")
      dat[name] <- rescale(dat[,col])
   }
   cat(paste("Rescaled ", length(column.nos), " variable(s)n"))
   dat
}</pre>
```

 With the preceding function it is possible to rescale the fifth and seventh variables in the data frame:

```
> rescale.many(housing.dat, c(5,7))
```

# Normalizing or standardizing data in a data frame

- The scale() function computes the standard z score for each value (ignoring NAs) of each variable. That is, from each value it subtracts the mean and divides the result by the standard deviation of the associated variable.
- The scale() function takes two optional arguments, center and scale:

Argument	Effect
center = TRUE, scale = TRUE	Default behavior described earlier
	From each value, subtract the mean of the concerned variable
	Divide each value by the root mean square of the associated variable, where root mean square is $sqrt(sum(x^2)/(n-1))$
center = FALSE, scale = FALSE	Return the original values unchanged

#### Binning numerical data

- Sometimes, we need to convert numerical data to categorical data or a factor:
  - (e.g. Naive Bayes classification requires all variables to be categorical).
  - In other situations, we may want to apply a classification method to a problem where the dependent variable is numeric but needs to be categorical

#### Binning numerical data

Income is a numeric variable, and you may want to create a categorical variable from it by creating bins.

 Suppose you want to label incomes of \$10,000 or below as Low, incomes between \$10,000 and \$31,000 as Medium, and the rest as High

```
#Create a vector of break points:
> b <- c(-Inf, 10000, 31000, Inf)
#Create a vector of names for break points:
> names <- c("Low", "Medium", "High")</pre>
#Cut the vector using the break points:
> students$Income.cat <- cut(students$Income, breaks = b, labels = names)</pre>
> head(students)
  Age State Gender Height Income Income.cat
   23
         NJ
                           5000
1
                      61
                                      Low
   13 NY M 55 1000
                                      Low
   58 NY F 70 30000
                                   Medium
   29
         TX F
                      63 10000
                                      Low
```

#### Binning numerical data

If we leave out names, cut() uses the numbers in the second argument to construct interval names

```
#Create a vector of break points:
> b <- c(-Inf, 10000, 31000, Inf)
#Create a vector of names for break points:
> names <- c("Low", "Medium", "High")</pre>
#Cut the vector using the break points:
> students$Income.cat <- cut(students$Income, breaks = b)</pre>
> head(students)
   Age State Gender Height Income Income.cat
                                                Income.cat1
   23
         IJ
                            5000
                                        Low (-Inf,1e+04]
                       61
1
   13
                            1000
                                        Low (-Inf,1e+04]
         NY
                       55
3
   36
                            3000
                                        Low (-Inf,1e+04]
        NJ
                       66
4
    31
        VA
                       64 4000
                                        Low (-Inf,1e+04]
5
    58 NY
                    70 30000
                                     Medium (1e+04,3.1e+04]
                                               (-Inf, 1e+04]
        TX
                       63
                           10000
                                        Low
    39
                                       High (3.1e+04, Inf)
         NJ
                       67
                           50000
```

# Creating a specified number of intervals automatically

 Rather than determining the breaks and hence the intervals manually, as mentioned earlier, we can specify the number of bins we want, say n, and let the cut() function handle the rest automatically. In this case, cut() creates n intervals of approximately equal width, as follows:

```
>students$Income.cat2 <- cut(students$Income,
breaks = 4, labels = c("Level1", "Level2", "Level3", "Level4"))</pre>
```

# Creating dummies for categorical variables

- This is needed in situations where we have categorical variables (factors) but need to use them in analytical methods that require numbers:
  - K nearest neighbors (KNN)
  - Linear Regression

```
> install.packages("dummies")
> library(dummies)
> attach(Salaries)
> head(Salaries)
rank discipline yrs.since.phd yrs.service
                                               sex salary
         Prof
                                     19
                                                 18
                                                      Male 139750
         Prof
                                                      Male 173200
                                     20
                                                 16
    AsstProf
                                                      Male
                                                           79750
                                      4
```

# Creating dummies for categorical variables

```
> names(Salaries)
[1] "rank" "discipline" "yrs.since.phd" "yrs.service"
"sex" "salary"
str(Salaries)
data.frame': 397 obs. of 6 variables:
$ rank : Factor w/ 3 levels "AsstProf", "AssocProf",..: 3 3
discipline : Factor w/ 2 levels "A", "B": 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2
$ yrs.since.phd: int 19 20 4 45 40 6 30 45 21 18 ...
$ yrs.service : int 18 16 3 39 41 6 23 45 20 18 ...
$ sex : Factor w/ 2 levels "Female", "Male": 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 $
salary : int 139750 173200 79750 115000 141500 97000
Salaries.dummy<- dummy.data.frame(Salaries, sep = ".")</pre>
names(Salaries.dummy)
 [1] "rank.AsstProf" "rank.AssocProf" "rank.Prof" "discipline.A"
"discipline.B" "yrs.since.phd" "yrs.service" "sex.Female"
"sex.Male" "salary"
```

### Handling missing data

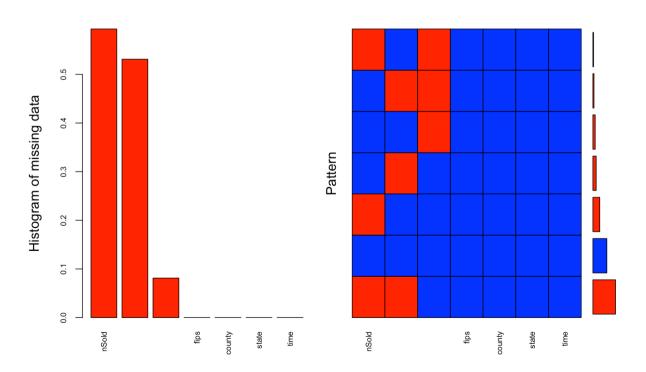
In most real-world problems, data is likely to be incomplete because of incorrect data entry, faulty equipment, or improperly coded data. In R, missing values are represented by the symbol NA (not available) and are considered to be the first obstacle in predictive modeling. So, it's always a good idea to check for missing data in a dataset before proceeding for further predictive analysis. This recipe shows you how to handle missing data.

### Understanding missing data

 use the md.pattern() function from the mice package to get a better understanding of the pattern of missing data.

```
> library(mice)
> install.packages("housingData")
> housing.dat<-housingData::housing</pre>
> str(housing.dat)
> md.pattern(housing.dat)
 fips county state time medListPriceSqft medSoldPriceSqft
                                                              nSold
 67740
                                                                         1
 33453
 11403
 15929
                             1
  3259
                             1
109883
  5415
                             0
                                           20077
                                                            131227 146595 297899
```

### Understanding missing data



Next we will visualize the housing data to understand missing information using aggr\_plot() method from VIM package

#### Why my data has missing values?

- Data Extraction: It is possible that there are problems with extraction process. In such cases, we should double-check for correct data
- Data collection: These errors occur at time of data collection and are harder to correct:
  - Missing completely at random: probability of missing variable is same for all observations.
  - Missing at random: missing ratio varies for different values / level of other input variables.
  - Missing that depends on unobserved predictors: missing values are not random and are related to the unobserved input variable.
  - Missing that depends on the missing value itself: This is a case when the probability of missing value is directly correlated with missing value itself

### Handling missing data

- R provides three simple ways to handle missing values:
- 1. Deleting the observations.
- 2. Deleting the variables.
- 3. Transforming and binning values
- 4. Replacing the values with mean, median, or mode.
- 5. Prediction Model \*\*
- 6. KNN Imputation \*\*

#### Handling missing data

- 4. Replacing the values with mean, median, or mode
- Generalized Imputation: we calculate the mean or median for all non missing values of that variable then replace missing value with mean or median.
- Similar case Imputation: In this case, we calculate average for gender "Male" (29.75) and "Female" (25) individually of non missing values then replace the missing value based on gender

#### **Detecting outliers**

Outlier is an observation that appears far away and diverges from an overall pattern in a sample. Outlier can be of two types:

- Univariate
- Multivariate.

The ideal way to deal with them is to find out the reason of having these outliers. Causes of outliers can be classified in two broad categories:

- Artificial (Error) / Non-natural
- Natural.

#### Cleaning data

The five most common problems with messy datasets

- Column headers are values, not variable names.
- Multiple variables are stored in one column.
- Variables are stored in both rows and columns.
- Multiple types of observational units are stored in the same table.
- A single observational unit is stored in multiple tables.

#### Cleanning data packages in R

- dplyr: package for data manipulation
- **tidyr:** suitable for data tidying (splitting, joining variables) and it supports the dplyr package's data pipelines
- reshape2: it provides easy aggregations and restructuring of data
- data.table: allows fast aggregations and transformations of large data sets

Some packages specialize in addressing character variables, strings, and text or date and time information are:

- stringi and stringr t support work with strings and allow, for example, pattern searching, string generation, date and time formatting, parsing, ect...
- **lubridate**: helps R users with date and time stamps, their extraction and advanced manipulation.

## tydir()

- gather() and spread() convert data between wide and long format
- separate() and unite() separate a single column into multiple columns and vice versa
- complete() turns implicit missing values in explicit missing values by completing missing data combinations

### gather()

We want to gather all the columns, except for the id and trt ones, in two columns key and value

#### spread()

Takes different levels of a factor and spreads them out into different columns. This means we can convert from long data to wide.

```
> stocksm
       time stock
                       price
  2009-01-01
               X -0.66184983
  2009-01-02
                  1.71895416
  2009-01-03
               X 2.12166699
  2009-01-04
                  1.49715368
  2009-01-05
               Y -0.03614058
  2009-01-06
                  1.23194518
head(spread.stock)
                       time
                  2009-01-01 -0.66184983 -0.7656438 -5.0672590
                  2009-01-02 1.71895416 0.5988432 -0.7943331
                  2009-01-03 2.12166699 1.3484795
                                                 0.5554631
```

#### Piping and chaining code

- dplyr allows you to use the pipe (%>%) operator to chain functions together.
- Chaining code allows you to streamline your workflow and make it easier to read.
- When using the %>% operator, first specify the data frame that all following functions will use.
- For the rest of the chain the data frame argument can be omitted from the remaining functions.

### unite()

unite(data, col, ..., sep = "\_", remove = TRUE)

```
> data
                                > dataNew
       date hour min second event
                                             datetime event
 2016-01-01
                30
                      29
                                   2016-01-01 7:30:29
2 2016-01-02 9 43
                      36
                                2 2016-01-02 9:43:36
                                                          a
3 2016-01-03 13 58 60
                                3 2016-01-03 13:58:60
4 2016-01-04 20 22 11
                            q
                                4 2016-01-04 20:22:11
                                                          q
5 2016-01-05 5 44
                      47
```

#### separate()

 We can get back the original data we created using separate as follows:

```
data1 <- dataNew %>%
  separate(datetime, c('date', 'time'), sep = ' ') %>%
  separate(time, c('hour', 'min', 'second'), sep = ':')
data1
```

### dyplyr()

- filter() subset data based on logical criteria
- select() select certain columns
- arrange() order rows by value of a column
- rename() rename columns
- group\_by() group data by common variables for performing calculations
- mutate() create a new variable/column
- summarize() summarize data into a single row of values

## filter()

 The filter function will return all the rows that satisfy a following condition.

```
filter(airquality, Temp > 70)
filter(airquality, Temp > 80 & Month > 5)
```

#### mutate()

 Mutate is used to add new variables to the data. For example, let's adds a new column that displays the temperature in Celsius

```
mutate(airquality, TempInC = (Temp - 32) * 5 / 9)
```

#### Summarise

• The summarise function is used to summarise multiple values into a single value. It is very powerful when used in conjunction with the other functions in the dplyr package, as demonstrated below. na.rm = TRUE will remove all NA values while calculating the mean, so that it doesn't produce spurious results.

#### Group by

- The group\_by function is used to group data by one or more variables.
- For example, we can group the data together based on the Month, and then use the summarise function to calculate and display the mean temperature for each month.

## arrange()

- The arrange function is used to arrange rows by variables.
   Currently, the airquality dataset is arranged based on Month, and then Day.
- We can arrange the rows in the descending order of Month, and then in the ascending order of Day.

```
arrange(airquality, desc(Month), Day)
```