# Data Analysis, Statistics, Machine Learning

Leland Wilkinson

Adjunct Professor
UIC Computer Science
Chief Scientist
H2O.ai

leland.wilkinson@gmail.com

Anomalies are, literally, lack of a law (nomos)

The best-known anomaly is an outlier

This presumes a distribution with tail(s)

All outliers are anomalies, but not all anomalies are outliers

Identifying outliers is not simple

Almost every software system and statistics text gets it wrong

Other anomalies don't involve distributions

Coding errors in data

Misspellings

Singular events

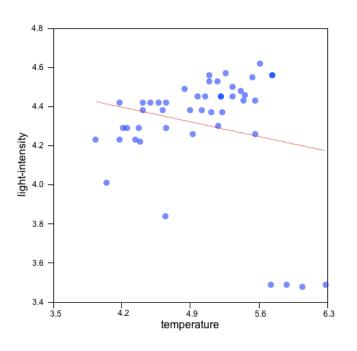
Often anomalies in residuals are more interesting than the estimated values

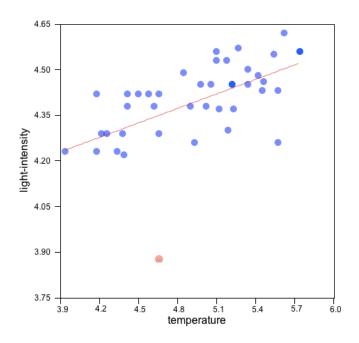
### Why do we care?

### Anomalies may bias statistical estimates

And then again, they might not

You need to worry about influence, not outliers





### Why do we care?

#### Anomalies may bias statistical estimates

Do NOT drop outliers from a dataset before fitting

Unless you know why they are outliers

There are alternatives – robust methods, Winsorizing, trimming, ...

#### Anomalies may lead to new research ideas

Give a group of people a battery of psychological tests

Interview outliers personally

#### Anomalies may be the needle in the haystack

Terrorists are rare, extreme

There may not be enough of them to model their behavior adequately

Search for anomalies in the general population

#### Anomalies may lead you to a better model

You can't have an anomaly without a model

Examining anomalies in residuals can help you to modify the model

#### **Outliers**

"An outlier is an observation which deviates so much from the other observations as to arouse suspicions that it was generated by a different mechanism" (Hawkins, 1980)

The existing methods in statistics and machine learning packages for detecting outliers based on the mean and standard deviation of a distribution are wrong

That is because, as *n* increases, critical value of alpha must change in order to prevent false positives

But picking alpha for a given *n* makes detection of outliers circular

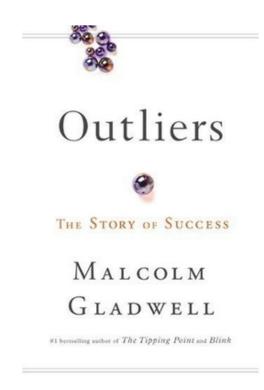
Multivariate outlier detection problem is even harder

Curse of dimensionality means interpoint distances tend toward a constant as n held constant and p heads toward infinity

Graphical methods aren't much better

### **Outliers**

Don't bother to Google You'll get this...



#### **Outliers**

#### What you will find if you persist

There are two popular tests

Both depend on a normal distribution

Both fail to offer protection for large samples

Grubbs (1950)

For the two-sided test, the hypothesis of no outliers is rejected if

$$G > \frac{(N-1)}{\sqrt{N}} \sqrt{\frac{t_{(\alpha/(2N),N-2)}^2}{N-2+t_{(\alpha/(2N),N-2)}^2}}$$

with  $t_{(\alpha/(2N),N-2)}$  denoting the <u>critical value</u> of the <u>t-distribution</u> with (N-2) degrees of freedom and a significance level of  $\alpha/(2N)$ .

For the one-sided tests, we use a significance level of  $\alpha/N$ .

In the above formulas for the critical regions, the Handbook follows the convention that  $t_{\alpha}$  is the upper critical value from the *t*-distribution and  $t_{1-\alpha}$  is the lower critical value from the *t*-distribution. Note that this is the opposite of what is used in some texts and software programs. In particular, Dataplot uses the opposite convention.

Tukey (1977)

#### The IQR and Outliers

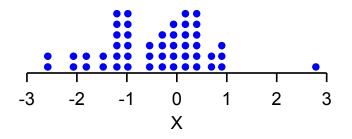
- The IQR is short for "Interquartile Range"
- To calculate IQR, IQR = Q<sub>3</sub> Q<sub>1</sub>
- Outliers are calculated using the IQR.
- The rule for outliers is that if a value is outside 1.5(IQR) then it is an outlier.
- So, if a value is more than Q<sub>3</sub> + 1.5(IQR) or less than Q<sub>1</sub> 1.5(IQR) then it is an outlier.

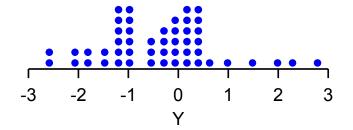
#### **Outliers**

Why distance from location (mean, median, ...) is wrong

Remember Hawkins' definition

"...arouse suspicions that it was generated by a different mechanism"





Wouldn't you be inclined to say the one on the left is an outlier but not the right? The two samples have the same mean and standard deviation.

So, the problem boils down to gaps, not distance from center

Dixon (1951)

$$Q = \text{gap / range}$$

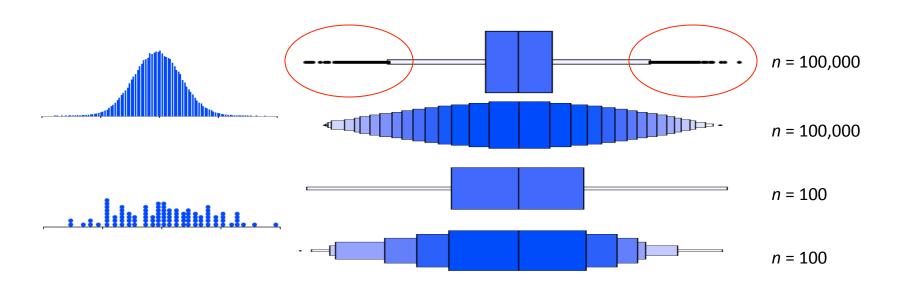
Tukey-Wainer-Schacht (1978)

$$z_i = \frac{\sqrt{w_i g_i}}{-\text{midmean}(y)}$$
, where  $w_i = i(n-i)$ 

### **Outliers**

#### Graphical methods

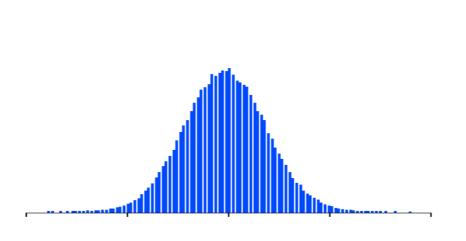
Box plots depend on normal distribution – useless for large nSee how many box plot outliers there are for n = 100,000? Letter value box plots (Hofmann, Kafadar, Wickham, 2006) better

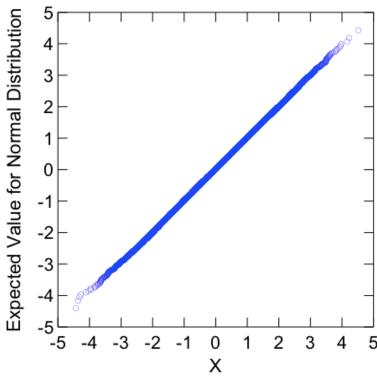


### **Outliers**

### **Graphical methods**

Probability plot is one of the best, IF you know the distribution

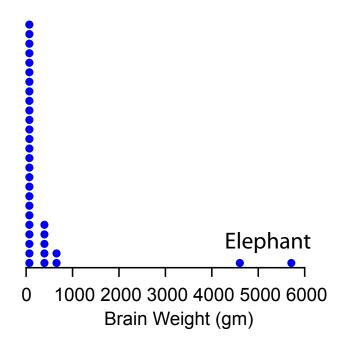


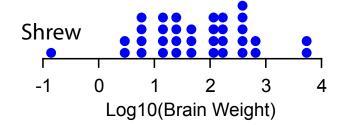


### **Outliers**

Transformations affect outlier detection

For skewed batches, need to transform before testing for outliers





#### **Skewness and Kurtosis**

Use L-moments (based on weighted sums)

More robust (no third or fourth powers)

### Spikes

Use dot plots

Check for stacks

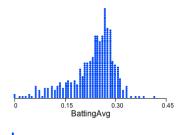
Signal for Zero Inflated Poisson (ZIP) or other models

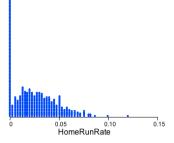
### Multimodality

Smooth with a kernel

Do bump hunting by computing slope of tangent

Look for more than one bump (mode)





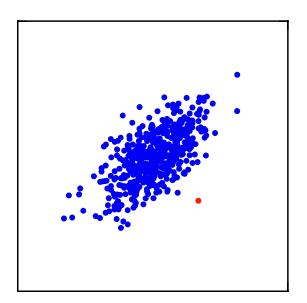


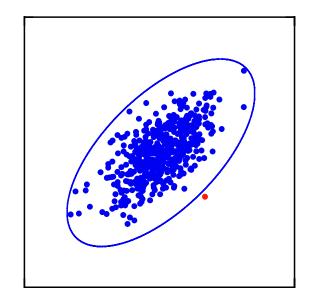
#### Multivariate Outliers

Mahalanobis Distance is most popular method

OK if you know distribution is multivariate normal

But estimate of covariance matrix can be unreliable when p is large If so, try computing robust covariances for Mahalanobis Distance



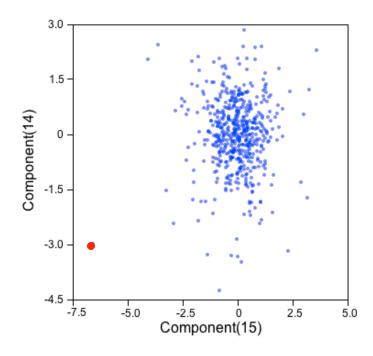


### Multivariate Outliers

**Principal Components** 

Plot last few PC's against each other

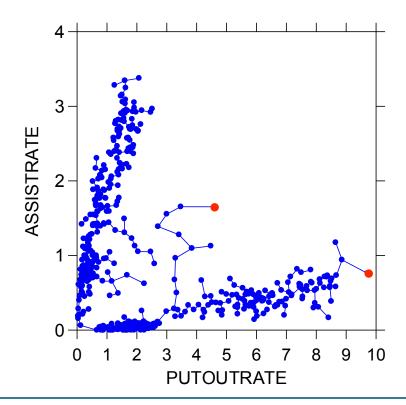
As with Mahalanobis Distance, may want to base them on robust covariances



### Multivariate Outliers

### Minimum Spanning Tree

Compute MST and look for nodes having extremely long edges



#### Multivariate Outliers

#### Clustering

- 1. Choose very large *k*
- 2. Initialize *k* centroids
- 3. Assign every point y to nearest centroid (squared Euclidean distance)
- 4. Compute within-cluster sum of squares (SSW)
- 5. Repeat 3 and 4 until SSW does not get noticeably smaller

On each iteration, use outlier algorithm to decide if a distance to a centroid is beyond cutoff

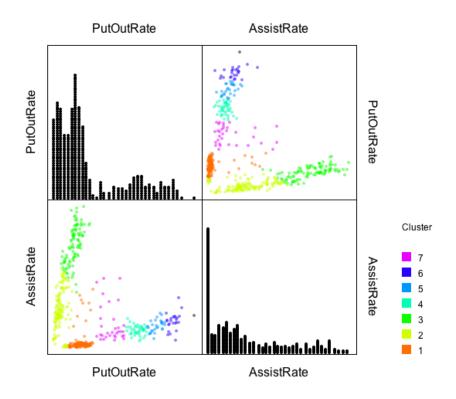
If so, leave point out of centroid

Omitted points are outliers

### Multivariate Outliers

Clustering

Didn't work too well here



#### Multivariate Outliers

#### Stahel-Donoho outlyingness

A robust method with high breakdown point

For any real valued vector  $\mathbf{y}_{n \times 1}$ , the measure of outlyingness is

$$r(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X}) = \sup_{\mathbf{a} \in S_p} \frac{|\mathbf{a}' \mathbf{y} - \mu(\mathbf{a}' \mathbf{X}')|}{\sigma(\mathbf{a}' \mathbf{X}')}$$
$$S_p = \{\mathbf{a} \in R^p : ||\mathbf{a}|| = 1\}$$

The estimate for  $\mu$  is based on the a weighted location estimator The estimate for  $\sigma$  is based on the median absolute deviation (MAD)

The Stahel–Donoho estimator is defined as a weighted mean and covariance, where each observation receives a weight which depends on a measure of its outlyingness. This measure is based on the one-dimensional projection in which the observation is most outlying. The motivation is that every multivariate outlier must be a univariate outlier in *some* projection.

Computing this is expensive, although one can use sampling to find a

#### **Multivariate Anomalies**

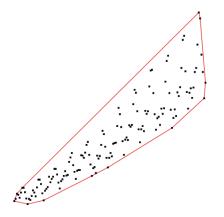
Scagnostics (Wilkinson, Anand, Grossman, 2005)

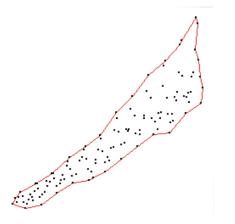
We characterize a scatterplot (2D point set) with nine measures We base our measures on three *geometric graphs*.

**Convex Hull** 

Alpha Shape

Minimum Spanning Tree



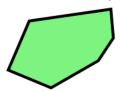


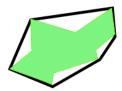


#### **Multivariate Anomalies**

#### Scagnostics

Convex: area of alpha shape divided by area of convex hull



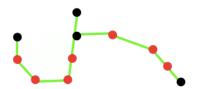


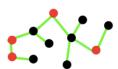
Skinny: ratio of perimeter to area of the alpha shape





Stringy: ratio of 2-degree vertices in MST to number of vertices > 1-degree





#### Multivariate Anomalies

#### **Scagnostics**

Skewed: ratio of  $(Q_{90} - Q_{50}) / (Q_{90} - Q_{10})$ , where quantiles are on MST edge lengths



Clumpy: 1 minus the ratio of the longest edge in the largest runt (blue) to the length of runt-cutting edge (red)



Outlying: proportion of total MST length due to edges adjacent to outliers

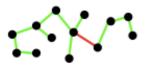


#### Multivariate Anomalies

#### **Scagnostics**

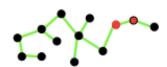
Sparse: 90th percentile of distribution of edge lengths in MST





Striated: proportion of all vertices in the MST that are degree-2 and have a cosine between adjacent edges less than -.75





Monotonic: squared Spearman correlation coefficient

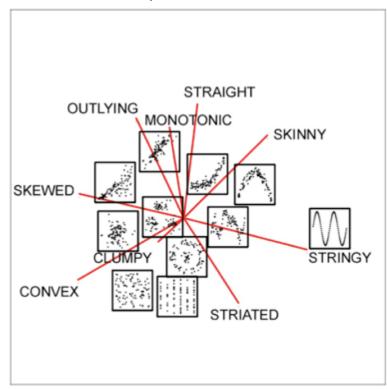




### **Multivariate Anomalies**

#### **Scagnostics**

Here's how they distribute in 2D



#### **Multivariate Anomalies**

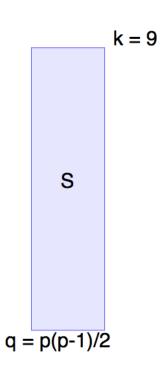
Scagnostics

Original Data Matrix

Scagnostics Transform
X

For each pair of columns in X, we compute 9 measures

#### **Scagnostics Matrix**

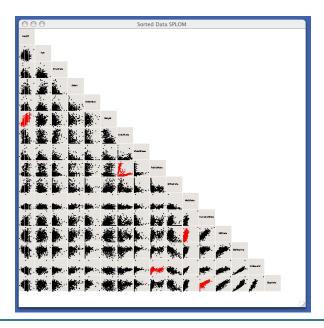


#### **Multivariate Anomalies**

Detecting outlying scatterplots by cluster analyzing scagnostics matrix Compute scagnostics matrix and then cluster it

Use cluster outlier method to detect outlying scatterplots

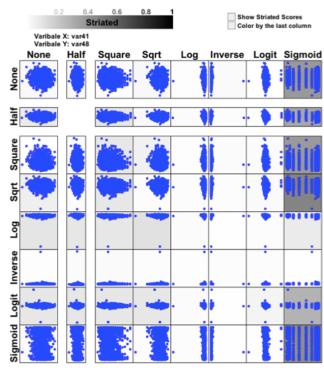
Notice the plot in the upper left is an outlier even though it looks bivariate normal



#### **Multivariate Anomalies**

### **Scagnostics**

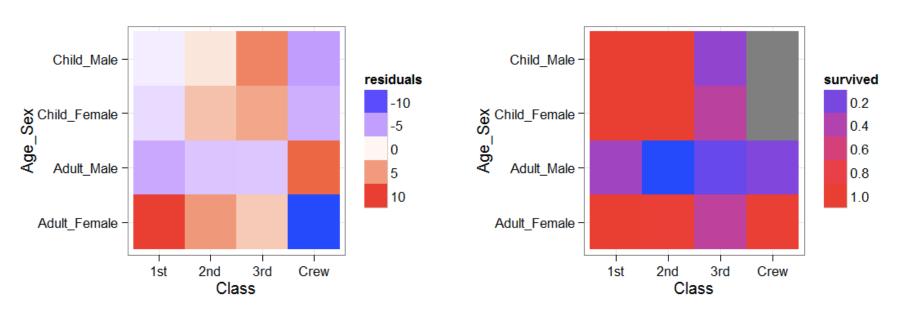
Ladder of powers transformations reveal different scagnostics under different transformations (Dang & Wilkinson, 2014)



#### Multivariate Outliers

#### Outliers in tables

Fit a Poisson (log-linear) model and look at residuals



Bogumił Kamiński, Visualizing tables in ggplot2

#### Multivariate Outliers

#### Outliers in tables

Simple chi-square can be used on a two-way table

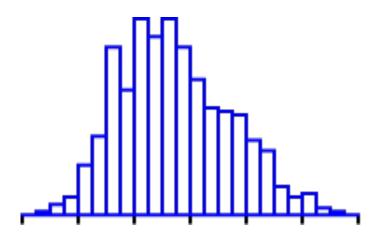


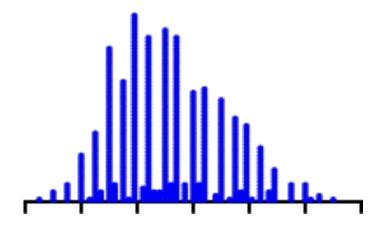
### **Inliers**

Histograms hide details

Stem-and-leaf and dot plots do not

In this batch, someone rounded some heights of baseball players to nearest inch





#### **Inliers**

#### **Detecting duplicates**

Pick delta profile distance (Euclidean or other distance metric)
Set delta to zero if you want to detect only exact duplicates
Multivariate sort and flag cases closer than delta
Duplicate cases found in some Iris datasets with this method

368

IEEE TRANSACTIONS ON FUZZY SYSTEMS, VOL. 7, NO. 3, JUNE 1999

#### Correspondence

#### Will the Real Iris Data Please Stand Up?

James C. Bezdek, James M. Keller, Raghu Krishnapuram, Ludmila I. Kuncheva, and Nikhil R. Pal

Abstract — This correspondence points out several published errors in replicates of the well-known Iris data, which was collected in 1935 by Anderson [1], but first published in 1936 by Fisher [2].

Index Terms - Iris data.

#### I. INTRODUCTION AND CONCLUSIONS

While preparing Kuncheva and Bezdek [3], these authors discovered that there are (at least) two distinct published replicates of the Iris data that have been used as a basis for an unknown number of papers. Subsequently, Bezdek et al. [4] discovered two different errors in the version of Iris available through the well-known University of California at Irvine (UCI) machine learning database. Reproduced below, from the preface of Bezdek et al. [4] is an account of the problems errors like this cause.

TABLE I THE IRIS DATA: FISHER [2]

	Irio re	estosa			Iris versicolor Iris virgir					rainion			
Sepal	Sepal	Petal	Petal	-	Sepal	Sepal	Petal	Petal	-	Sepal	Sepal	Petal	Petal
Leng.	Width	Leng.	Width		Leng.	Width	Leng.	Width		Leng.	Width	Leng.	Width
5.1	3.5	1.4	0.2	П	7.0	3.2	4.7	1.4	П	6.3	3.3	6.0	2.5
4.9	3.0	1.4	0.2		6.4	3.2	4.5	1.5		5.8	2.7	5.1	1.9
4.7	3.2	1.3	0.2		6.9	3.1	4.9	1.5		7.1	3.0	5.9	2.1
4.6	3.1	1.5	0.2		5.5	2.3	4.0	1.3		6.3	2.9	5.6	1.8
5.0	3.6	1.4	0.2		6.5	2.8	4.6	1.5		6.5	3.0	5.8	2.2
5.4	3.9	1.7	0.4		5.7	2.8	4.5	1.3		7.6	3.0	6.6	2.1
4.6	3.4	1.4	0.3		6.3	3.3	4.7	1.6		4.9	2.5	4.5	1.7
5.0	3.4	1.5	0.2		4.9	2.4	3.3	1.0		7.3	2.9	6.3	1.8
4.4	2.9	1.4	0.2		6.6	2.9	4.6	1.3		6.7	2.5	5.8	1.8
4.9	3.1	1.5	0.1		5.2	2.7	3.9	1.4		7.2	3.6	6.1	2.5
5.4	3.7	1.5	0.2		5.0	2.0	3.5	1.0		6.5	3.2	5.1	2.0
4.8	3.4	1.6	0.2		5.9	3.0	4.2	1.5		6.4	2.7	5.3	1.9
4.8	3.0	1.4	0.1		6.0	2.2	4.0	1.0		6.8	3.0	5.5	2.1
4.3	3.0	1.1	0.1		6.1	2.9	4.7	1.4		5.7	2.5	5.0	2.0
5.8	4.0	1.2	0.2		5.6	2.9	3.6	1.3		5.8	2.8	5.1	2.4
5.7	4.4	1.5	0.4		6.7	3.1	4.4	1.4		6.4	3.2	5.3	2.3
5.4	3.9	1.3	0.4		5.6	3.0	4.5	1.5		6.5	3.0	5.5	1.8
5.1	3.5	1.4	0.3		5.8	2.7	4.1	1.0		7.7	3.8	6.7	2.2
5.7	3.8	1.7	0.3		6.2	2.2	4.5	1.5		7.7	2.6	6.9	2.3
5.1	3.8	1.5	0.3		5.6	2.5	3.9	1.1		6.0	2.2	5.0	1.5
5.4	3.4	1.7	0.2		5.9	3.2	4.8	1.8		6.9	3.2	5.7	2.3
5.1	3.7	1.5	0.4		6.1	2.8	4.0	1.3		5.6	2.8	4.9	2.0
4.6	3.6	1.0	0.2		6.3	2.5	4.9	1.5		7.7	2.8	6.7	2.0
											~ ~		

### Missing Values

A missing value is a value that is not observed

Rubin (1976) gave missing values a theoretical basis

Identifying a missing value implies we could measure it under some circumstances

#### Missing value categories

NULL – undefined value (not missing)

Failure to respond (usually, but not always, missing)

Refusal to respond (rarely, but sometimes, missing)

Some other random coding omission

#### Rubin missing value classes

Relation between a variable and probability of a value being missing

Missing Completely At Random (MCAR)

Missing At Random (MAR)

Missing Not At Random (MNAR)

Values must be MAR or MCAR to use Rubin's Multiple Imputation

### Missing Values

#### Single imputation (all these methods are invalid)

#### Hot deck

randomly select a similar record for imputed value reduces uncertainty of estimates

#### Mean imputation

replace missing value with mean of variable attenuates covariance/correlation estimates

#### Listwise deletion (standard method in most statistics packages)

throw out record with any missing values reduces power and can introduce bias

#### Pairwise deletion

when computing correlations, ignore any case with missing value on either variable can induce negative eigenvalues and correlations greater than 1 in absolute value

#### Regression imputation

fit regression equation using non-missing cases to predict missing values reduces uncertainty of estimates

### Missing Values

#### Multiple imputation

- 1. Impute missing values using linear or logistic regression
- 2. Do this, say, 10 times.
- 3. Perform the desired analysis on each imputed dataset
- 4. Average the values of the parameter estimates across the imputed datasets
- 5. Calculate standard errors of parameters using a formula given by Rubin

#### The EM Algorithm (for accomplishing step 1 above)

- 1. Estimate regression coefficients for each missing value
- 2. Plug estimates into the missing cells
- 3. Compute covariance matrix on complete data
- 4. Repeat 1 through 3 until covariance matrix stabilizes

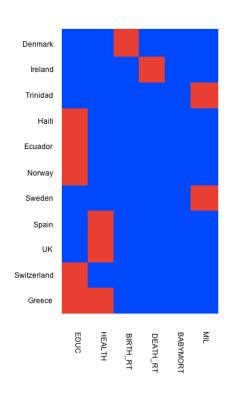
Usually only a few iterations are necessary

Perturb the regression coefficients by a small amount before imputing

### Missing Values

### Multiple imputation

Can delete up to 50% of values and still get decent estimates



		11 – 37				
Missing D	Pata	Complete Data				
Table 2. Componen	ts loadings mponent(1)	Table 2. Compo	onents loadings Component(1)			
BABYMORT	0.891	BABYMORT	0.886			
BIRTH_RT	0.877	BIRTH_RT	0.876			
HEALTH	-0.865	EDUC	-0.872			
EDUC	-0.859	HEALTH	-0.861			
MIL	-0.692	MIL	-0.695			
DEATH_RT	0.499	DEATH_RT	0.485			

n = 57

#### References

Hawkins, D. (1980). *Identification of Outliers*. New York: Chapman and Hall.

Rousseeuw, P.J., and Leroy, A.M. (1987). *Robust Regression and Outlier Detection*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Rubin, D.B. (1987) *Multiple Imputation for Nonresponse in Surveys*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.