Chapter 3. Data Processing

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Introduction to Data Mining

Why? Data Quality Issues

- 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?

Data Preprocessing

- **Data cleaning**
- Data integration
- Data reduction
- Dimensionality reduction

Data Cleaning

- Data in the Real World Is Dirty: Lots of potentially incorrect data, e.g., instrument faulty, human or computer error, and 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
  - Intentional (e.g., *disguised missing* data)
    - Jan. 1 as everyone's birthday?

Incomplete (Missing) Data

- Data is not always available
  - E.g., many tuples have no recorded value for several attributes, such as customer income in sales data
- Missing data may be due to
  - Equipment malfunction
  - Inconsistent with other recorded data and thus deleted
  - Data were not entered due to misunderstanding
  - Certain data may not be considered important at the time of entry
  - Did not register history or changes of the data
- Missing data may need to be inferred

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 Bayesian formula or decision tree

Noisy Data

- Noise: random error or variance in a measured variable
- Incorrect attribute values may be due to
  - Faulty data collection instruments
  - Data entry problems
  - Data transmission problems
  - Technology limitation
  - Inconsistency in naming convention
- Other data problems
  - Duplicate records
  - Incomplete data
  - Inconsistent data

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.
- Regression
  - Smooth by fitting the data into regression functions
- Clustering
  - Detect and remove outliers
- Semi-supervised: Combined computer and human inspection
  - Detect suspicious values and check by human (e.g., deal with possible outliers)

Data Preprocessing

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- **Data integration**
- Data reduction
- Dimensionality reduction

Data Integration

- Data integration
  - Combining data from multiple sources into a coherent store
- Schema integration: e.g., A.cust-id ≡ B.cust-#
  - Integrate metadata from different sources
- Entity identification:
  - Identify real world entities from multiple data sources, e.g., Bill Clinton = William Clinton
- Detecting and resolving data value conflicts
  - For the same real world entity, attribute values from different sources are different
  - 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 (for Categorical Data)

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

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i}^{n} \frac{(\overset{\text{observed}}{O_i} - E_i)^2}{\underset{\text{expected}}{E_i}}$$

- **Null hypothesis:** The two distributions are independent
- The cells that contribute the most to the X^2 value are those whose actual count is different from the expected count
  - The larger the X^2 value, the more likely the variables are related
- Note: 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

Example: Chi-Square Calculation

	Play chess	Not play chess	Sum (row)
Like science fiction	250 (**90**)	200 (360)	**450**
Not like science fiction	50 (210)	1000 (840)	1050
Sum(col.)	**300**	1200	**1500**

How to derive 90?

450/1500 * 300 = 90

- X^2 (chi-square) calculation (numbers in parenthesis are expected counts calculated based on the data distribution in the two categories)

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

We can reject the null hypothesis of independence at a confidence level of 0.001.

- It shows that like_science_fiction and play_chess are correlated.

Example: Chi-Square Calculation

Degrees of freedom (df)	χ^2 value[19]										
1	0.004	0.02	0.06	0.15	0.46	1.07	1.64	2.71	3.84	6.64	10.83
2	0.10	0.21	0.45	0.71	1.39	2.41	3.22	4.60	5.99	9.21	13.82
3	0.35	0.58	1.01	1.42	2.37	3.66	4.64	6.25	7.82	11.34	16.27
4	0.71	1.06	1.65	2.20	3.36	4.88	5.99	7.78	9.49	13.28	18.47
5	1.14	1.61	2.34	3.00	4.35	6.06	7.29	9.24	11.07	15.09	20.52
6	1.63	2.20	3.07	3.83	5.35	7.23	8.56	10.64	12.59	16.81	22.46
7	2.17	2.83	3.82	4.67	6.35	8.38	9.80	12.02	14.07	18.48	24.32
8	2.73	3.49	4.59	5.53	7.34	9.52	11.03	13.36	15.51	20.09	26.12
9	3.32	4.17	5.38	6.39	8.34	10.66	12.24	14.68	16.92	21.67	27.88
10	3.94	4.87	6.18	7.27	9.34	11.78	13.44	15.99	18.31	23.21	29.59
P value (Probability)	0.95	0.90	0.80	0.70	0.50	0.30	0.20	0.10	0.05	0.01	0.001

Variance for Single Variable (for Numerical Data)

- The variance of a random variable *X* provides a measure of how much the value of *X* deviates from the mean or expected value of *X:*

$$\sigma^2 = \mathrm{var}(X) = E[(\mathrm{X}-\mu)^2] = \begin{cases} \sum_x (x-\mu)^2 f(x) & \text{if } X \text{ is discrete} \\ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x-\mu)^2 f(x)dx & \text{if } X \text{ is continuous} \end{cases}$$

  - where σ^2 is the variance of X, σ is called *standard deviation*

    μ is the mean, and μ = E[X] is the expected value of X
  - That is, variance is the expected value of the square deviation from the mean
  - It can also be written as: $\sigma^2 = \mathrm{var}(X) = E[(\mathrm{X}-\mu)^2] = E[\mathrm{X}^2] - \mu^2 = E[\mathrm{X}^2] - [E(x)]^2$
- Sample variance is the average squared deviation of the data value x_i from the sample mean $\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(x_i - \hat{\mu})^2$

Covariance for Two Variables

- Covariance between two variables X_1 and X_2

$$\sigma_{12} = E[(X_1 - \mu_1)(X_2 - \mu_2)] = E[X_1 X_2] - \mu_1 \mu_2 = E[X_1 X_2] - E[X_1]E[X_2]$$

where $\mu_1 = E[X_1]$ is the respective mean or **expected value** of X_1; similarly for μ_2

- Sample covariance between X_1 and X_2: $\hat{\sigma}_{12} = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(x_{i1} - \hat{\mu}_1)(x_{i2} - \hat{\mu}_2)$
- Sample covariance is a generalization of the sample variance:

$$\hat{\sigma}_{11} = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(x_{i1} - \hat{\mu}_1)(x_{i1} - \hat{\mu}_1) = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(x_{i1} - \hat{\mu}_1)^2 = \hat{\sigma}_1^{\,2}$$

- **Positive covariance:** If $\sigma_{12} > 0$
- **Negative covariance**: If $\sigma_{12} < 0$
- **Independence**: If X_1 and X_2 are independent, $\sigma_{12} = 0$ but the reverse is not true
  - Some pairs of random variables may have a covariance 0 but are not independent
  - Only under some additional assumptions (e.g., the data follow multivariate normal distributions) does a covariance of 0 imply independence

Example: Calculation of Covariance

- Suppose two stocks X_1 and X_2 have the following values in one week:
  - (2, 5), (3, 8), (5, 10), (4, 11), (6, 14)
- Question: If the stocks are affected by the same industry trends, will their prices rise or fall together?
- Covariance formula

$$\sigma_{12} = E[(X_1 - \mu_1)(X_2 - \mu_2)] = E[X_1 X_2] - \mu_1 \mu_2 = E[X_1 X_2] - E[X_1]E[X_2]$$

- Its computation can be simplified as: $\sigma_{12} = E[X_1 X_2] - E[X_1]E[X_2]$
  - $E(X_1) = (2 + 3 + 5 + 4 + 6) / 5 = 20/5 = 4$
  - $E(X_2) = (5 + 8 + 10 + 11 + 14) / 5 = 48/5 = 9.6$
  - $\sigma_{12} = (2\times5 + 3\times8 + 5\times10 + 4\times11 + 6\times14) / 5 - 4 \times 9.6 = 4$
- Thus, X_1 and X_2 rise together since $\sigma_{12} > 0$

Correlation between Two Numerical Variables

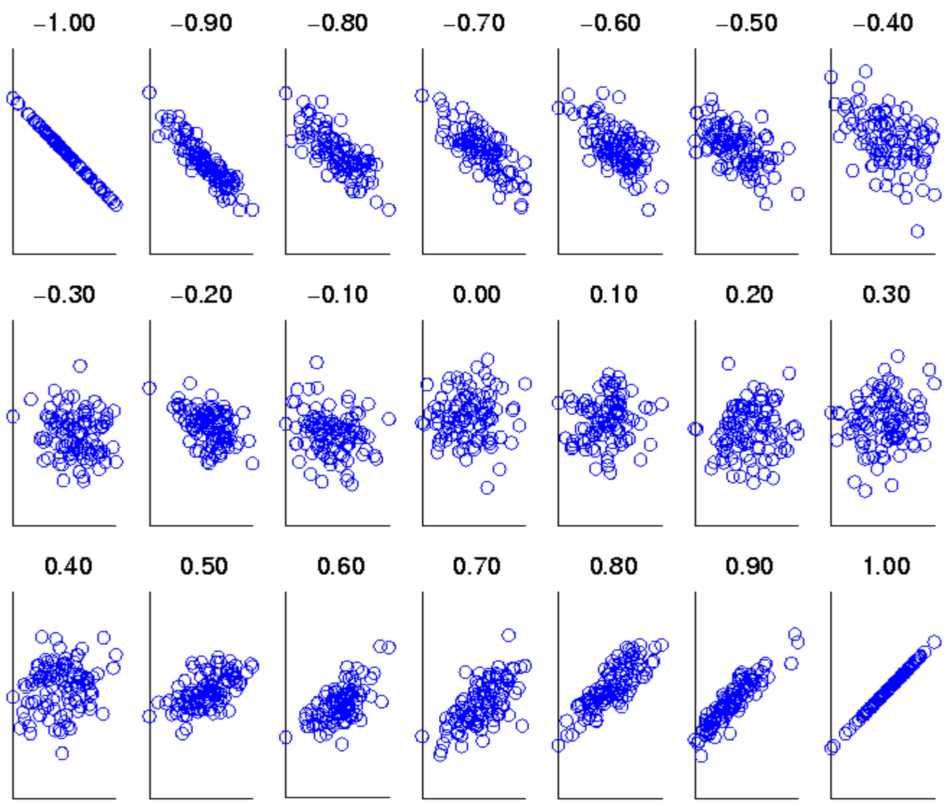
- **Correlation** between two variables X1 and X2 is the standard covariance, obtained by normalizing the covariance with the standard deviation of each variable $\rho_{12} = \frac{\sigma_{12}}{\sigma_1 \sigma_2} = \frac{\sigma_{12}}{\sqrt{\sigma_1^2 \sigma_2^2}}$
- **Sample correlation** for two attributes X1 and X2:

$$\hat{\rho}_{12} = \frac{\hat{\sigma}_{12}}{\hat{\sigma}_1 \hat{\sigma}_2} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i1} - \hat{\mu}_1)(x_{i2} - \hat{\mu}_2)}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i1} - \hat{\mu}_1)^2 \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i2} - \hat{\mu}_2)^2}}$$

  - where n is the number of tuples, μ1 and μ2 are the respective means of X1 and X2 , σ1 and σ2 are the respective standard deviation of X1 and X2
- If ρ12 > 0: A and B are positively correlated (X1's values increase as X2's)
  - The higher, the stronger correlation
- If ρ12 = 0: independent (under the same assumption as discussed in co-variance)
- If ρ12 < 0: negatively correlated

Visualizing Changes of Correlation Coefficient

- Correlation coefficient value range: [–1, 1]
- A set of scatter plots shows sets of points and their correlation coefficients changing from –1 to 1



Covariance Matrix

- The variance and covariance information for the two variables X_1 and X_2 can be summarized as 2 * 2 covariance matrix as

$$\Sigma = E[(\mathbf{X}-\mu)(\mathbf{X}-\mu)^T] = E[\begin{pmatrix} X_1-\mu_1 \\ X_2-\mu_2 \end{pmatrix}(X_1-\mu_1 \quad X_2-\mu_2)]$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} E[(X_1-\mu_1)(X_1-\mu_1)] & E[(X_1-\mu_1)(X_2-\mu_2)] \\ E[(X_2-\mu_2)(X_1-\mu_1)] & E[(X_2-\mu_2)(X_2-\mu_2)] \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & \sigma_{12} \\ \sigma_{21} & \sigma_2^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

- Generalizing it to *d* dimensions, we have,

$$D = \begin{pmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} & \cdots & x_{1d} \\ x_{21} & x_{22} & \cdots & x_{2d} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_{d1} & x_{d2} & \cdots & x_{dd} \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{\Sigma} = E[(\mathbf{X}-\mu)(\mathbf{X}-\mu)^T] = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & \sigma_{12} & \cdots & \sigma_{1d} \\ \sigma_{21} & \sigma_2^2 & \cdots & \sigma_{2d} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \sigma_{d1} & \sigma_{d2} & \cdots & \sigma_d^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Data Preprocessing

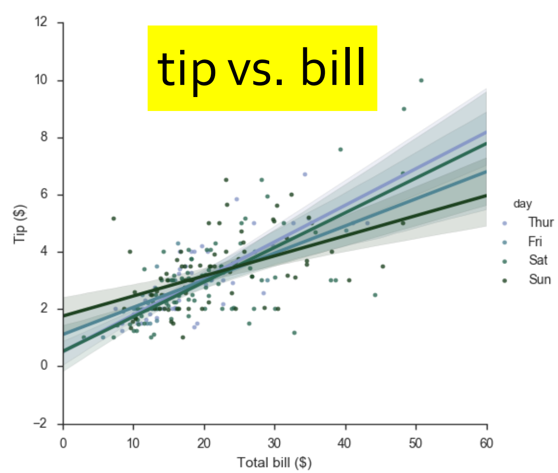
- Data cleaning
- Data integration
- **Data reduction**
- Dimensionality reduction

Data Reduction

- Data reduction:
  - Obtain a reduced representation of the data set
    - much smaller in volume but yet produces almost the same analytical results
- Why data reduction?
  - A database/data warehouse may store terabytes of data
  - Complex analysis may take a very long time to run on the complete data set
- Methods for data reduction (also data size reduction or numerosity reduction)
  - **Regression and Log-Linear Models**
  - **Histograms, clustering, sampling**
  - **Data compression**

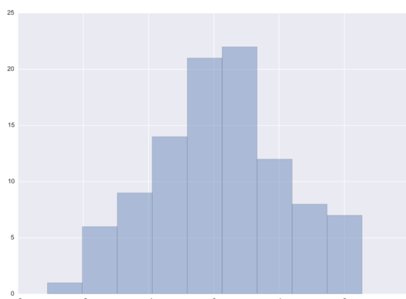
Data Reduction: Parametric vs. Non-Parametric Methods

- 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)
  - Ex.: Log-linear models—obtain value at a point in *m*-D space as the product on appropriate marginal subspaces

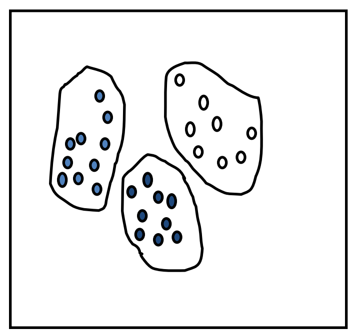


Data Reduction: Parametric vs. Non-Parametric Methods (cont.)

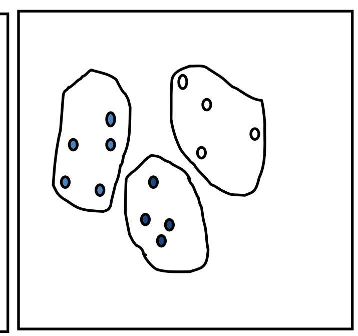
- **Non-parametric** methods
  - Do not assume models
  - Major families: histograms, clustering, sampling, …



Histogram



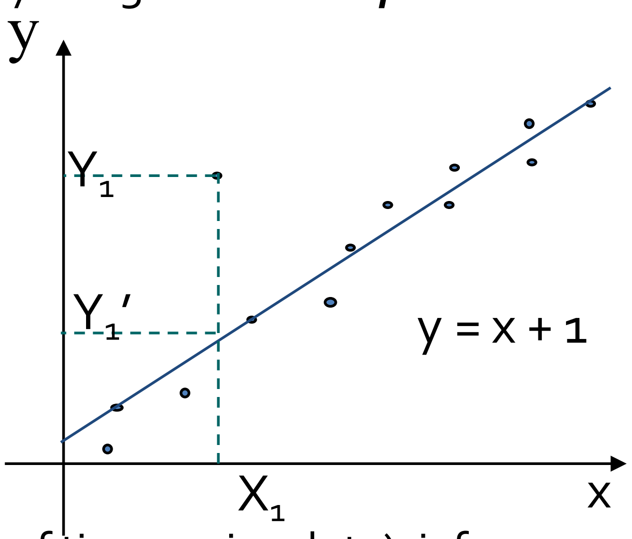
Clustering on the Raw Data



Stratified Sampling

Parametric Data Reduction: Regression Analysis

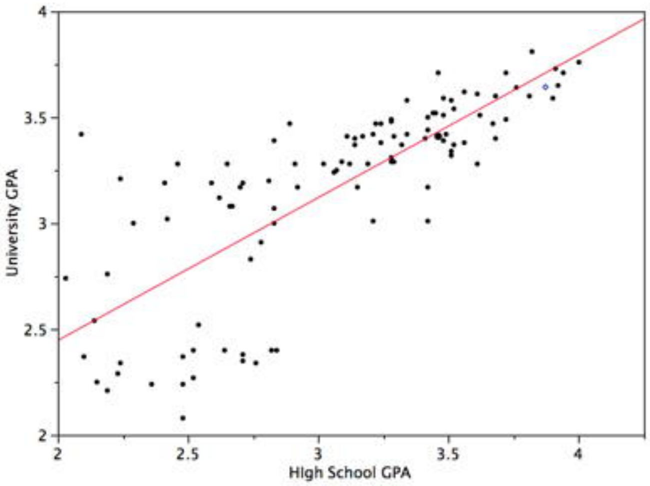
- Regression analysis: A collective name for techniques for the modeling and analysis of numerical data consisting of values of a ***dependent variable*** (also called ***response variable*** or *measurement*) and of one or more *independent variables* (also known as ***explanatory variables*** or ***predictors***)
- 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

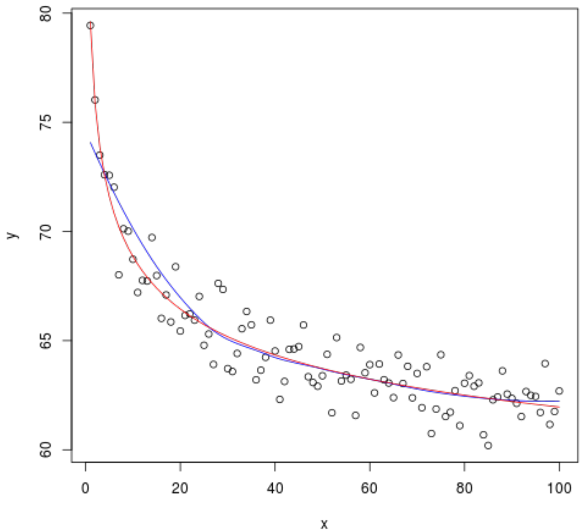


- Used for prediction (including forecasting of time-series data), inference, hypothesis testing, and modeling of causal relationships

Linear and Multiple Regression

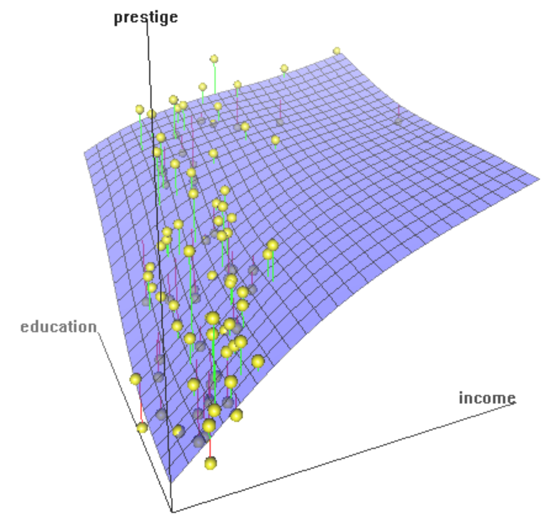
- <u>Linear regression</u>: $Y = w\,X + b$
  - Data modeled to fit a straight line
  - Often uses the least-square method to fit the line
  - Two regression coefficients, *w* and *b*, specify the line and are to be estimated by using the data at hand
  - Using the least squares criterion to the known values of $Y_1, Y_2, \ldots, X_1, X_2, \ldots$.
- <u>Nonlinear regression</u>:
  - Data are modeled by a function which is a nonlinear combination of the model parameters and depends on one or more independent variables
  - The data are fitted by a method of successive approximations

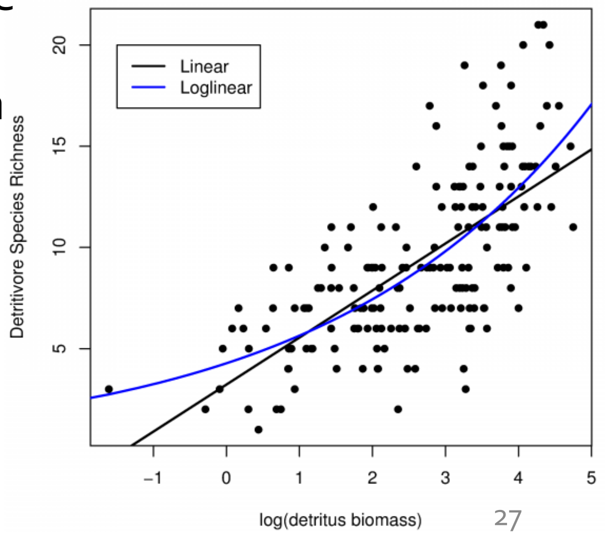




Multiple Regression and Log-Linear Models

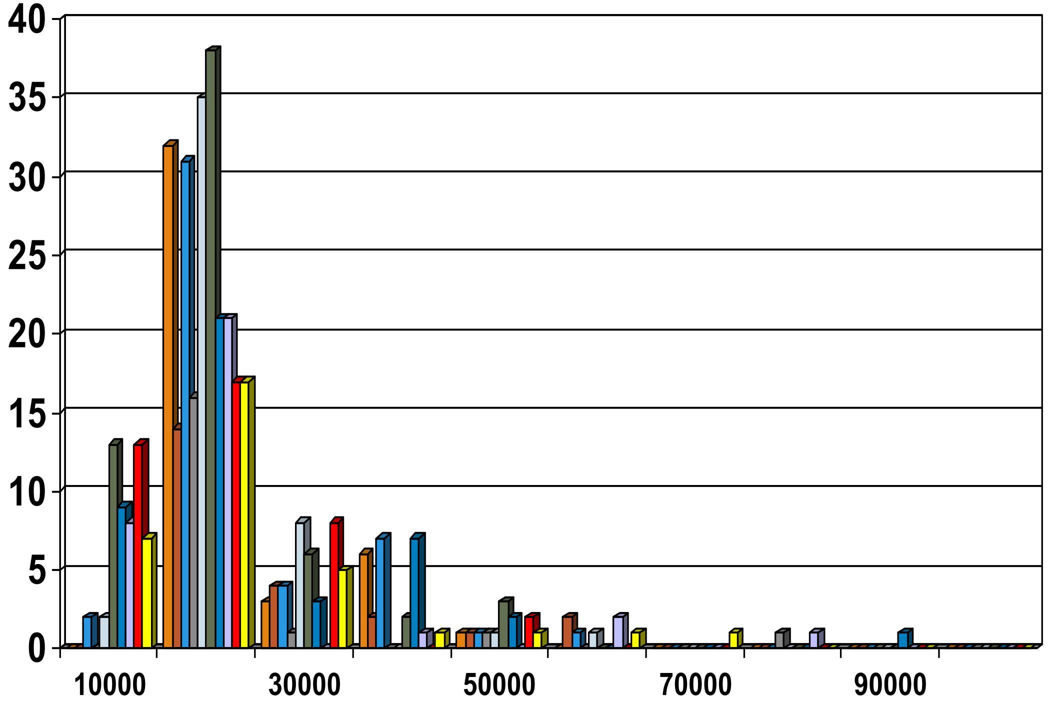
- Multiple regression: $Y = b_0 + b_1 X_1 + b_2 X_2$
  - Allows a response variable Y to be modeled as a linear function of multidimensional feature vector
  - Many nonlinear functions can be transformed into the above
- Log-linear model:
  - A math model that takes the form of a function whose logarithm is a linear combination of the parameters of the model, which makes it possible to apply (possibly multivariate) linear regression
  - Estimate the probability of each point (tuple) in a multi-dimen. space for a set of discretized attributes, based on a smaller subset of dimensional combinations
  - Useful for dimensionality reduction and data smoothing





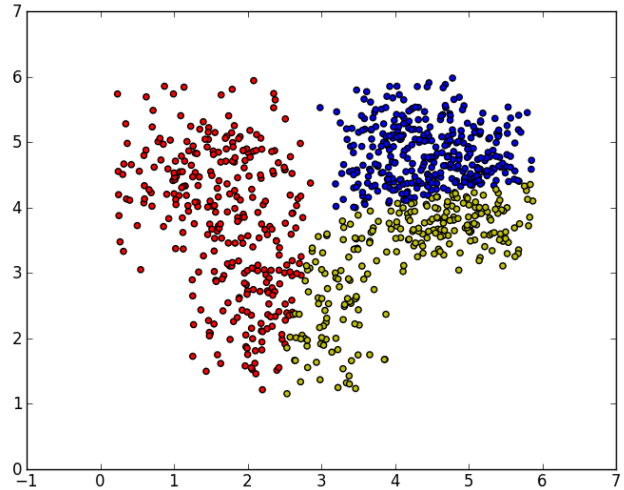
Histogram Analysis

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



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 but not if data is "smeared"
- Can have hierarchical clustering and be stored in multi-dimensional index tree structures
- There are many choices of clustering definitions and clustering algorithms
- Cluster analysis will be studied in depth in Chapter 10

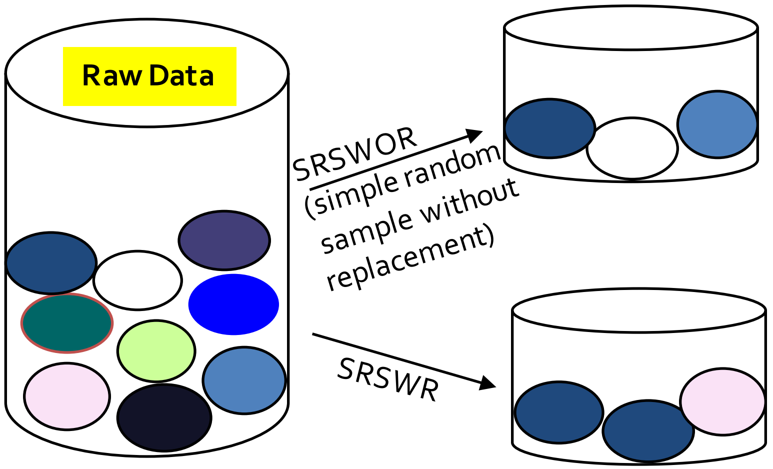


Sampling

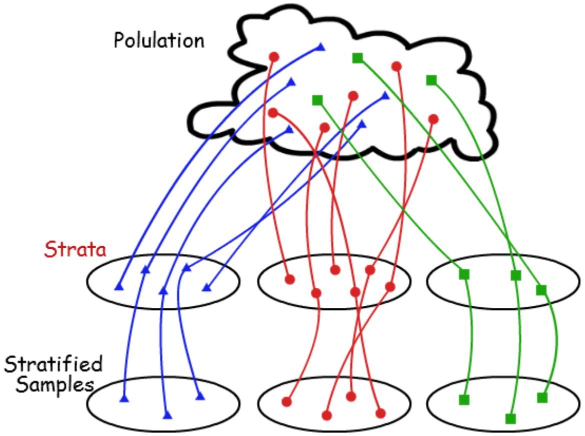
- Sampling: obtaining a small sample *s* to represent the whole data set *N*
- Allow a mining algorithm to run in complexity that is potentially sub-linear to the size of the data
- Key principle: Choose a representative subset of the data
  - Simple random sampling may have very poor performance in the presence of skew
  - Develop adaptive sampling methods, e.g., stratified sampling

Types of Sampling

- **Simple random sampling:** equal probability of selecting any particular item
- **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 (or cluster) the data set, and draw samples from each partition (proportionally, i.e., approximately the same percentage of the data)

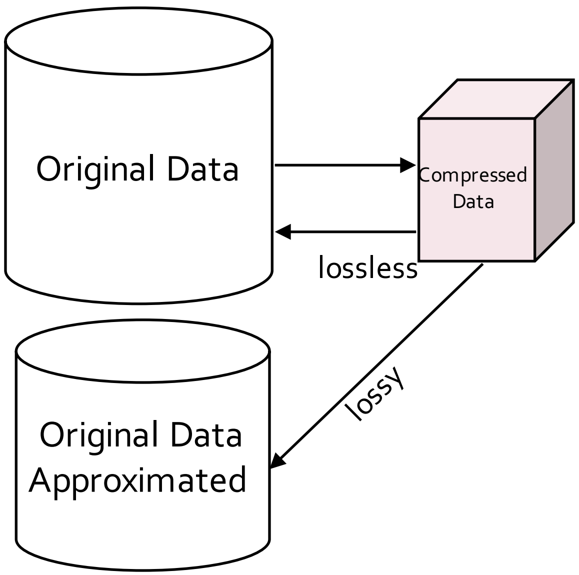


Stratified sampling



Data Compression

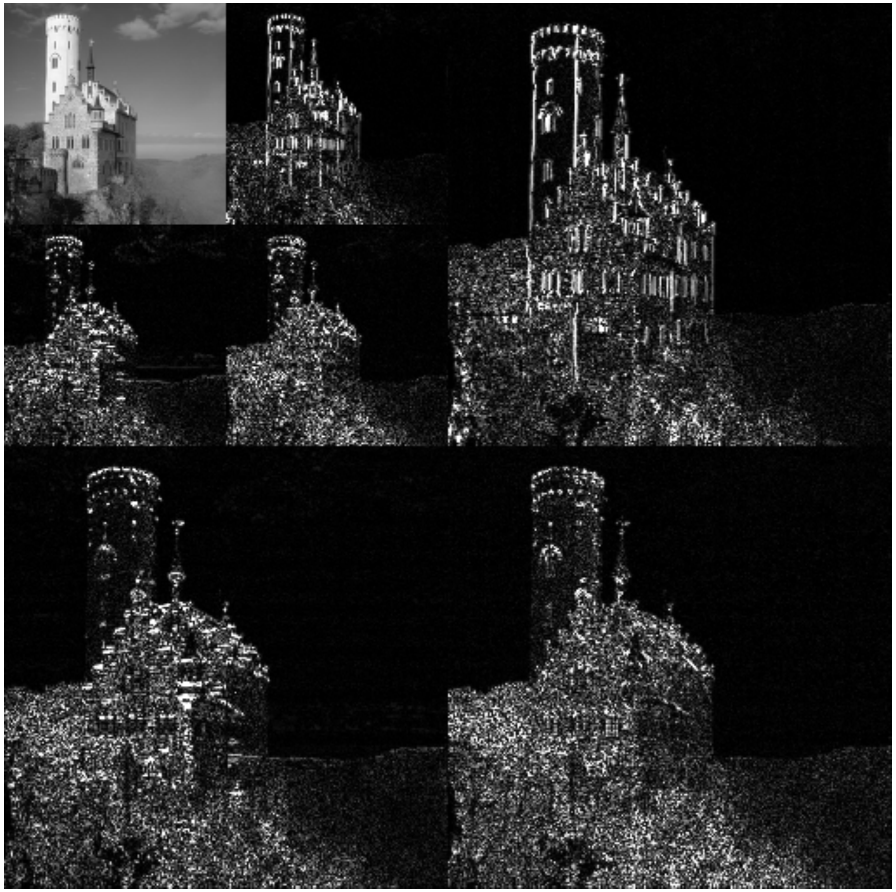
- String compression
  - There are extensive theories and well-tuned algorithms
  - Typically lossless, but only limited manipulation is possible without expansion
- Audio/video compression
  - Typically lossy compression, with progressive refinement
  - Sometimes small fragments of signal can be reconstructed without reconstructing the whole
- Time sequence is not audio
  - Typically short and vary slowly with time
- Data reduction and dimensionality reduction may also be considered as forms of data compression



Lossy vs. lossless compression

Wavelet Transform: A Data Compression Technique

- Wavelet Transform
  - Decomposes a signal into different frequency subbands
  - Applicable to n-dimensional signals
- Data are transformed to preserve relative distance between objects at different levels of resolution
- Allow natural clusters to become more distinguishable
- Used for image compression



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
- Similar to discrete Fourier transform (DFT), but better lossy compression, localized in space
- 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

Normalization

- **Min-max normalization**: to [new_min$_A$, new_max$_A$]

$$v' = \frac{v - min_A}{max_A - min_A}(new\_max_A - new\_min_A) + new\_min_A$$

  - Ex. Let income range \$12,000 to \$98,000 normalized to [0.0, 1.0]
    - Then \$73,000 is mapped to $\frac{73,600 - 12,000}{98,000 - 12,000}(1.0 - 0) + 0 = 0.716$

- **Z-score normalization** (μ: mean, σ: standard deviation):

$$v' = \frac{v - \mu_A}{\sigma_A}$$

Z-score: The distance between the raw score and the population mean in the unit of the standard deviation

  - Ex. Let μ = 54,000, σ = 16,000. Then $\frac{73,600 - 54,000}{16,000} = 1.225$

- **Normalization by decimal scaling**

$$v' = \frac{v}{10^j}$$

Where *j* is the smallest integer such that Max(|ν'|) < 1

Data Preprocessing

- Data cleaning
- Data integration
- Data reduction
- **Dimensionality reduction**

Dimensionality Reduction

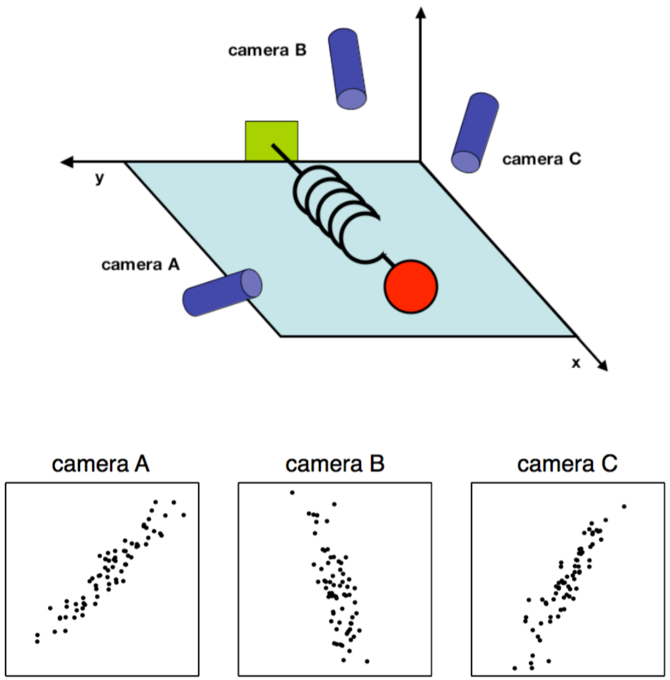
- **Curse of dimensionality**
  - When dimensionality increases, data becomes increasingly sparse
  - Density and distance between points, which is critical to clustering, outlier analysis, becomes less meaningful
  - The possible combinations of subspaces will grow exponentially
- **Dimensionality reduction**
  - Reducing the number of random variables under consideration, via obtaining a set of principal variables
- **Advantages of dimensionality reduction**
  - Avoid the curse of dimensionality
  - Help eliminate irrelevant features and reduce noise
  - Reduce time and space required in data mining
  - Allow easier visualization

Dimensionality Reduction Techniques

- Dimensionality reduction methodologies
  - **Feature selection**: Find a subset of the original variables (or features, attributes)
  - **Feature extraction**: Transform the data in the high-dimensional space to a space of fewer dimensions
- Some typical dimensionality methods
  - Principal Component Analysis
  - Supervised and nonlinear techniques
    - Feature subset selection
    - Feature creation

Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

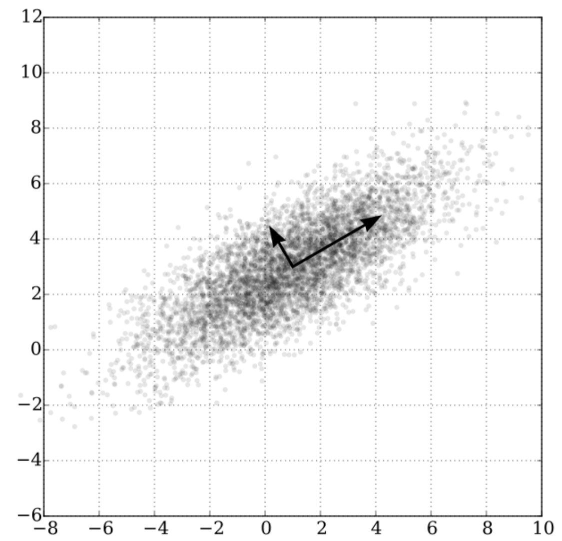
- PCA: A statistical procedure that uses an orthogonal transformation to convert a set of observations of possibly correlated variables into a set of values of linearly uncorrelated variables called ***principal components***
- The original data are projected onto a much smaller space, resulting in dimensionality reduction
- Method: Find the eigenvectors of the covariance matrix, and these eigenvectors define the new space



Ball travels in a straight line. Data from three cameras contain much redundancy

Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

- Given *N* data vectors from *n*-dimensions, find $k \leq n$ orthogonal vectors (*principal components*) best used to represent data
  - Normalize input data: Each attribute falls within the same range
  - Compute *k* orthonormal (unit) vectors, i.e., *principal components*
  - Each input data (vector) is a linear combination of the *k* principal component vectors
  - The principal components are sorted in order of decreasing "significance" or strength
  - Since the components are sorted, the size of the data can be reduced by eliminating the *weak components*, i.e., those with low variance (i.e., using the strongest principal components, to reconstruct a good approximation of the original data)
- Works for numeric data only



Ack. Wikipedia: Principal Component Analysis

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
    - Ex. A student's ID is often irrelevant to the task of predicting his/her GPA

Heuristic Search in Attribute Selection

- There are 2^d possible attribute combinations of d attributes
- Typical heuristic attribute selection methods:
  - Best single attribute under the attribute independence assumption: choose by significance tests
  - Best step-wise feature selection:
    - The best single-attribute is picked first
    - Then next best attribute condition to the first, ...
  - Step-wise attribute elimination:
    - Repeatedly eliminate the worst attribute
  - Best combined attribute selection and elimination
  - Optimal branch and bound:
    - Use attribute elimination and backtracking

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 and data transformation**
  - Numerosity reduction; Data compression
  - Normalization
- **Dimensionality reduction**

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