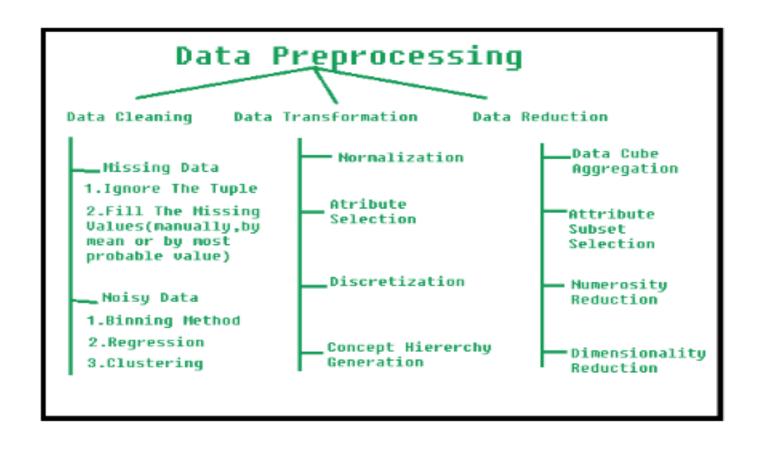


 Data preprocessing is a data mining technique which is used to transform the raw data in a useful and efficient format



#### 1. DATA CLEANING

The data can have many irrelevant and missing parts. To handle this part, data cleaning is done. It involves handling of missing data, noisy data etc.

#### a. Missing Data

This situation arises when some data is missing in the data. It can be handled in various ways:

#### i. Ignore the tuples

This approach is suitable only when the dataset we have is quite large and multiple values are missing within a tuple.

#### ii. Fill the missing values

There are various ways to do this task. You can choose to fill the missing values manually, by attribute mean or the most probable value

### b. Noisy Data

Noisy data is a meaningless data that can't be interpreted by machines. It can be generated due to faulty data collection, data entry errors etc. It can be handled in following ways:

### i. Binning Method

This method works on sorted data in order to smooth it. The whole data is divided into segments of equal size and then various methods are performed to complete the task.

### ii. Regression

Here data can be made smooth by fitting it to a regression function. The regression used may be simple linear (having one independent variable) or multiple linear (having multiple independent variables) regression.

Regression captures the correlation between variables observed in a data set and quantifies whether those correlations are statistically significant or not.

### ii. Regression

Simple linear regression:

$$Y = a + bX + u$$

#### Multiple linear regression:

$$Y = a + b_1 X_1 + b_2 X_2 + b_3 X_3 + \dots + b_t X_t + u$$

#### where:

 $Y={
m The\ dependent\ variable\ you\ are\ trying\ to\ predict}$  or explain

X = The explanatory (independent) variable(s) you are using to predict or associate with Y

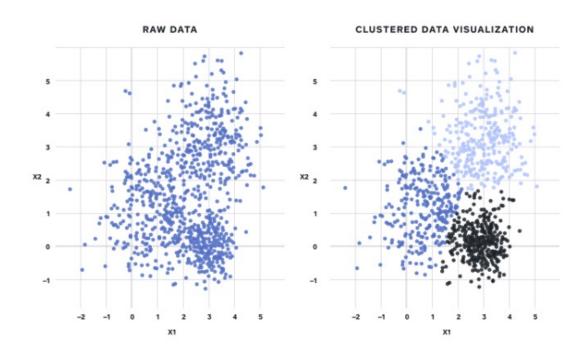
a =The y-intercept

b =(beta coefficient) is the slope of the explanatory variable(s)

u = The regression residual or error term

### iii. Clustering

This approach groups the similar data in a cluster. The outliers may be undetected, or it will fall outside the clusters.



#### 2. DATA TRANSFORMATION

This step is taken in order to transform the data in appropriate forms suitable for mining process

#### a. Normalization

The goal of normalization is to make every datapoint have **the same scale** so **each feature is equally important**.

It is done in order to scale the data values in a specified range (-1.0 to 1.0 or 0.0 to 1.0)

#### a. Normalization

The goal of normalization is to make every datapoint have **the same scale** so **each feature is equally important**.

		_	
person_name	Salary	Year_of_ experience	Expected Position Level
Aman	100000	10	2
Abhinav	78000	7	4
Ashutosh	32000	5	8
Dishi	55000	6	7
Abhishek	92000	8	3
Avantika	120000	15	1
Ayushi	65750	7	5

The attributes salary and year\_of\_experience are on different scale and hence attribute salary can take high priority over attribute year\_of\_experience in the model.

#### a. Normalization

#### i. Min Max

- For every feature, the minimum value of that feature gets transformed into a 0,
- the maximum value gets transformed into a 1, and every other value gets
- transformed into a decimal between 0 and 1.

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

### ii. Decimal Scaling

• It functions by converting a number to a decimal point.

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

where,

- v<sub>i</sub>' = new value of attribute A
- v<sub>i</sub> = current value of attribute A

#### iii. Z score

- Z-score normalization is a strategy of normalizing data that avoids the outlier issue.
- Z-Score value is to understand how far the data point is from the mean.
- Technically, it measures the standard deviations below or above the mean.

$$v \stackrel{!}{\cdot} = \frac{v_i - \overline{A}}{\sigma_A}$$
 where,

- v<sub>i</sub>' = new value of attribute A
- v<sub>i</sub> = current value of attribute A
- Ā = mean of attribute A
- σ<sub>A</sub> = standard deviation of attribute A

- **b.** Attribute Selection (Attribute subset selection, Feature selection)
- Attribute subset Selection is a technique which is used for data reduction in data mining process.
- Data reduction reduces the size of data so that it can be used for analysis purposes more efficiently.
- The data set may have a large number of attributes. But some of those attributes can be irrelevant or redundant.
  - **Relevant**: These are attributes which have an influence on the output and their role cannot be assumed by the rest.
  - Irrelevant: Irrelevant attributes are defined as those attributes not having any influence on the output whose values are generated at random for each example.
  - **Redundant:** A redundant exists, whenever a feature can take the role of another (perhaps the simplest way to model redundancy).

- **b.** Attribute Selection (Attribute subset selection, Feature selection)
- The goal of attribute subset selection is to find a minimum set of attributes such that dropping of those irrelevant attributes does not affect the quality of data and the cost of data analysis could be reduced.
- Mining on a reduced data set also makes the discovered pattern easier to understand.
- The best way to do the task is to use the statistical significance tests such that best (or worst) attributes can be recognized.
- Statistical significance test assumes that attributes are independent of one another.

- **b.** Attribute Selection (Attribute subset selection, Feature selection)
- This is a kind of greedy approach in which a significance level is decided (statistically ideal value of significance level is 5%) and the models are tested again and again until p-value (probability value) of all attributes is less than or equal to the selected significance level.
- The attributes having p-value higher than significance level are discarded.
- This procedure is repeated until all the attribute in data set has p-value less than or equal to the significance level.
- This gives us the reduced data set having no irrelevant attributes.

#### 2. DATA TRANSFORMATION

**b.** Attribute Selection (Attribute subset selection, Feature selection)

#### **Methods of Attribute Subset Selection**

- 1. Stepwise Forward Selection
- 2. Stepwise Backward Elimination
- 3. Combination of Forward Selection and Backward Elimination
- 4. Decision Tree Induction

The "best" (and "worst") attributes are typically determined using: - the tests of **statistical significance**, which assume that the attributes are independent of one another. - the **information gain measure** used in building decision trees for classification.

#### 2. DATA TRANSFORMATION

**b.** Attribute Selection (Attribute subset selection, Feature selection)

#### **Methods of Attribute Subset Selection**

1. Stepwise Forward Selection

This procedure start with an empty set of attributes as the minimal set. The most relevant attributes are chosen(having minimum p-value) and are added to the minimal set. In each iteration, one attribute is added to a reduced set.

### 2. DATA TRANSFORMATION

- 1. Stepwise Forward Selection
- The procedure starts with an empty set of attributes as the reduced set.
- First: The best single-feature is picked.
- Next: At each subsequent iteration or step, the best of the remaining original attributes is added to the set.

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

=> Reduced attribute set:

 ${A_1, A_4, A_6}$ 

#### 2. DATA TRANSFORMATION

**b.** Attribute Selection (Attribute subset selection, Feature selection)

#### **Methods of Attribute Subset Selection**

2. Stepwise Backward Elimination

Here all the attributes are considered in the initial set of attributes. In each iteration, one attribute is eliminated from the set of attributes whose p-value is higher than significance level.

### 2. DATA TRANSFORMATION

- 2. Stepwise Backward Elimination
- The procedure starts with the full set of attributes.
- At each step, it removes the worst attribute remaining in the set.

Initial attribute set:

$${A_1, A_2, A_3, A_4, A_5, A_6}$$

$$\Rightarrow \{A_1, A_3, A_4, A_5, A_6\}$$

$$=> \{A_1, A_4, A_5, A_6\}$$

$${A_1, A_4, A_6}$$

#### 2. DATA TRANSFORMATION

**b.** Attribute Selection (Attribute subset selection, Feature selection)

#### **Methods of Attribute Subset Selection**

3. Combination of Forward Selection and Backward Elimination

The stepwise forward selection and backward elimination are combined so as to select the relevant attributes most efficiently. This is the most common technique which is generally used for attribute selection.

#### 2. DATA TRANSFORMATION

**b.** Attribute Selection (Attribute subset selection, Feature selection)

#### **Methods of Attribute Subset Selection**

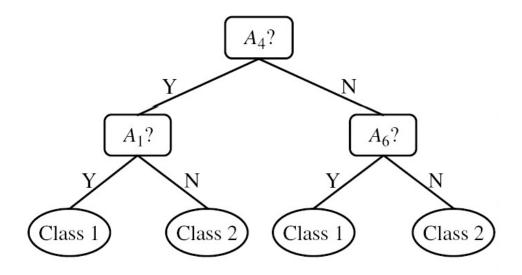
- 4. Decision Tree Induction
- Decision tree algorithms, such as ID3, C4.5, and CART, were originally intended for classification.
- Decision tree induction constructs a flow chart-like structure where each internal (non-leaf) node denotes a test on an attribute, each branch corresponds to an outcome of the test, and each external (leaf) node denotes a class prediction.

- 4. Decision Tree Induction
- At each node, the algorithm chooses the "best" attribute to partition the data into individual classes.
- When decision tree induction is used for attribute subset selection, a tree is constructed from the given data.
- All attributes that do not appear in the tree are assumed to be irrelevant.

### 2. DATA TRANSFORMATION

### 4. Decision Tree Induction

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



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

### 2. DATA TRANSFORMATION

#### c. Discretization

- This is a process of converting continuous data into a set of data intervals.
- Continuous attribute values are substituted by small interval labels.
- This makes the data easier to study and analyze.
- If a continuous attribute is handled by a data mining task, then its discrete values can be replaced by constant quality attributes. This improves the efficiency of the task.

### 2. DATA TRANSFORMATION

#### c. Discretization

we have an attribute of age with the following values.

<b>Age</b> 10,11,13,14,17,19,30, 31, 32, 38, 40, 42,70, 72, 73, 75
--

Table: Before discretization

Attribute	Age	Age	Age
	10,11,13,14,17,19,	30, 31, 32, 38, 40, 42	70 , 72, 73, 75
After Discretization	Young	Mature	Old

- c. Discretization
- Unsupervised:
  - Equal-Width Discretization (Binning)
  - Equal-Depth (Frequency) Discretization (Binning)
  - K-Means
- Supervised:
  - Decision Trees

Equal-width (distance) Discretization

Divides the range into N intervals of equal size: uniform grid

- if A and B are the lowest and highest values of the attribute, the width of
- intervals will be: W = (B -A)/N.

The most straightforward, but outliers may dominate presentation

Skewed data is not handled well

### **Equal-width (distance) Discretization**

### **Example:**

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

W = (B - A)/N = (34 - 4)/3 = 10

Bin 1: 4-14,

Bin2: 15-24,

Bin 3: 25-34

Bin 1: 4, 8

Bin 2: 15, 21, 21, 24

Bin 3: 25, 28, 34

Equal-depth (frequency) Discretization

• Divides the range into N intervals, each containing approximately same number of samples

Good data scaling

### **Equal-depth (frequency) discretization**

### **Example:**

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

Bin 1: 4, 8, 15

Bin 2: 21, 21, 24

Bin 3: 25, 28, 34

#### K-means discretization

We apply K-Means clustering to the continuous variable, thus dividing it into discrete groups or clusters.

- K-Means doesn't improve the value spread
- It can handle outliers; however a centroid bias may exist.
- Can be combined with categorical encoding

### 2. DATA TRANSFORMATION

#### c. Discretization

After discretizing variables, you can do either of the following:

- Build decision tree algorithms and directly use the output of discretization as the number of bins. The decision trees can find non-linear relationships between the discretized variable and the target variables.
- Use a linear model, while the bins do not have a linear relationship with the target variable. Improve the model by treating bins as categories with some sort of encoding.

- d. Concept Hierarchy Generation
- Discretization can be performed rapidly on an attribute to provide a hierarchical partitioning of the attribute values, known as a **Concept** Hierarchy.
- Concept hierarchies can be used to reduce the data by collecting and replacing low-level concepts with higher-level concepts.
  - i. CHG for numerical variables
  - ii. CHG for categorical variables

### . CHG for numerical variables

Typical Methods of Discretization and Concept Hierarchy Generation for Numerical Data:

- Binning
- Histogram analysis
- Cluster analysis
- Entropy-Based Discretization
- Interval Merge by χ2 Analysis

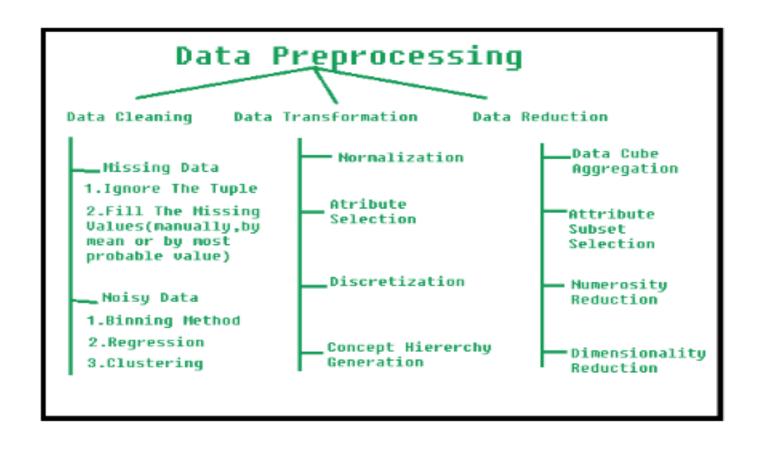
ii. CHG for categorical variables

Generalization is the generation of concept hierarchies for categorical data.

- Categorical attributes have a finite (but possibly large) number of distinct values, with no ordering among the values.
- Data Discretization and Concept Hierarchy Generation Examples include:
  - geographic location,
  - job category, and
  - Item type.

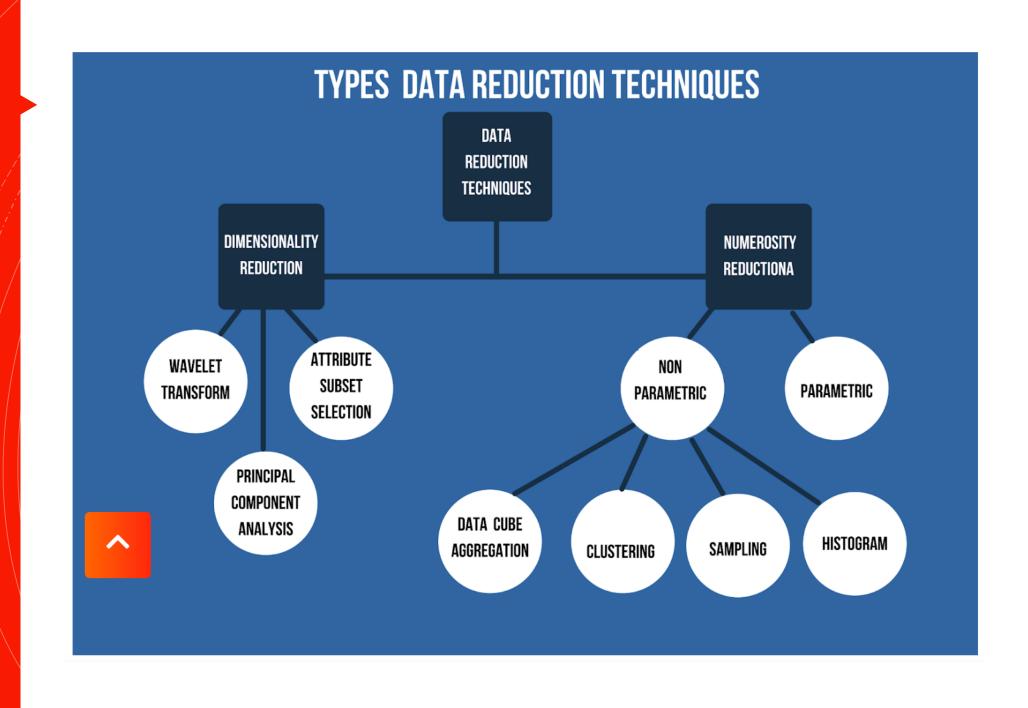
i.e. {Urbana, Champaign, Chicago} < Illinois

 Data preprocessing is a data mining technique which is used to transform the raw data in a useful and efficient format



#### 3. DATA REDUCTION

- **Data reduction** is a process that reduced the volume of original data and represents it in a much smaller volume. Data reduction techniques ensure the integrity of data while reducing the data.
- Data reduction does not affect the result obtained from data mining that means the result obtained from data mining before data reduction and after data reduction is the same (or almost the same).



#### 3. DATA REDUCTION

### a. Dimensionality Reduction

Dimensionality reduction **eliminates the attributes** from the data set under consideration thereby reducing the volume of original data.

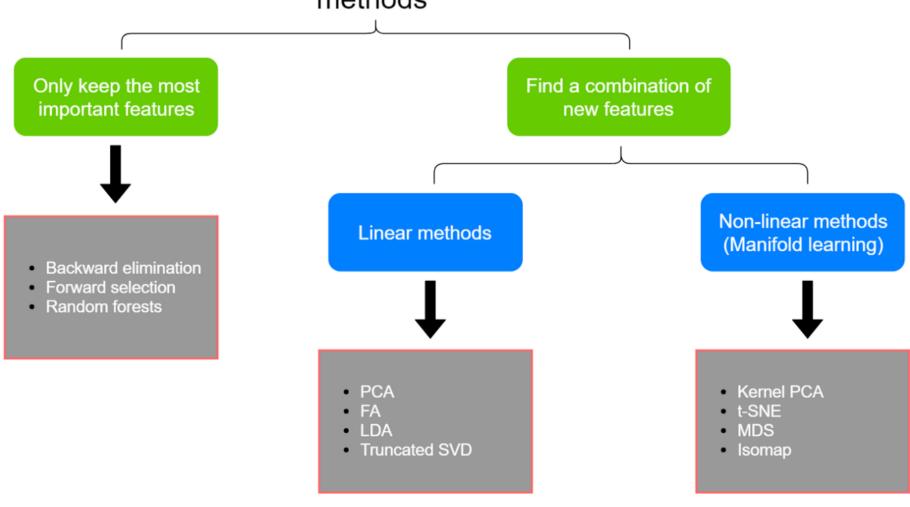
### **Advantages of Dimensionality Reduction**

- A lower number of dimensions in data means less training time and less computational resources and increases the overall performance of machine learning algorithms
- Dimensionality reduction avoids the problem of overfitting

### **Advantages of Dimensionality Reduction**

- Dimensionality reduction is extremely useful for <u>data visualization</u>
- Dimensionality reduction takes care of <u>multicollinearity</u>
- Dimensionality reduction is very useful for <u>factor analysis</u>
- Dimensionality reduction <u>removes noise</u> in the data
- Dimensionality reduction can be used to transform non-linear data into a <u>linearly-separable form</u>

# Dimensionality reduction methods



### **Principal Component Analysis (PCA)**

- This method transforms the data into a new coordinate, where the one with the highest variance is the primary principal component. Thus providing us the best possible representations of data.
- It has several advantages, which include reduction of data size(hence faster execution), better visualizations with fewer dimensions, maximizes variance, reduces overfitting, etc.

### **Principal Component Analysis (PCA)**

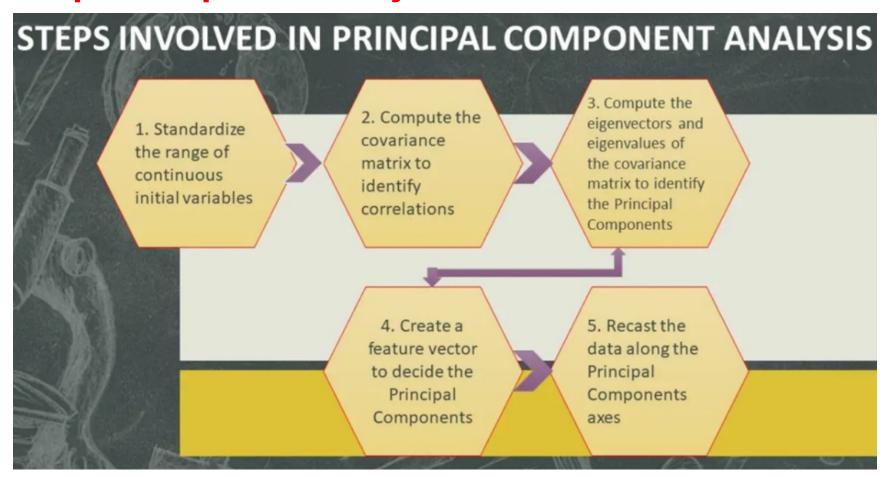
The principal component means the sequences of direction vectors that differ on basis of best-fit lines. It can also be stated that these components are <u>eigenvectors of the covariance</u> matrix.

PCA 2nd Dimention

PCA 1st Dimention

PCA 1st Dimention

### **Principal Component Analysis (PCA)**



### **Factor Analysis (FA)**

 Factor analysis is the study of unobserved variables, also known as latent variables or latent factors, that may combine with observed variables to affect outcomes

#### i. Exploratory Factor Analysis

Exploratory Factor Analysis is used to find the underlying structure of a large set of variables. It reduces data to a much smaller set of summary variables.

#### ii. Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Confirmatory Factor Analysis allows you to figure out if a relationship between a set of <u>observed variables</u> and their underlying constructs exists.

#### 3. DATA REDUCTION

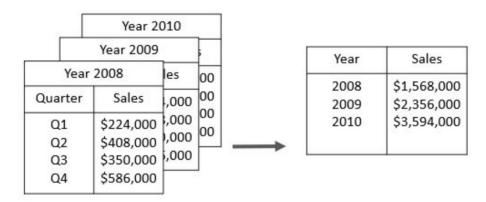
### **b.** Numerosity Reduction

- In the Numerosity reduction, the data volume is reduced by choosing an alternative, smaller form of data representation.
- These techniques may be parametric or nonparametric.
- For parametric methods, a model is used to estimate the data, so that only the data parameters need to be stored, instead of the actual data, for example, Log-linear models.
- Non-parametric methods are used for storing a reduced representation of the data which include histograms, clustering, data cube aggregation and sampling.

#### 3. DATA REDUCTION

- **b.** Numerosity Reduction
  - i. Data Cube Aggregation

The data cube aggregation is a multidimensional aggregation which eases multidimensional analysis.

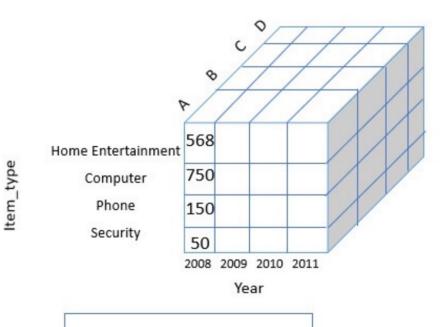


Aggregated Data

### 3. DATA REDUCTION

- **b.** Numerosity Reduction
  - i. Data Cube Aggregation

The data cube present precomputed and sum access.



Data Cube Aggregation

### **Data Cube Aggregation**

Petal Length	Petal Width	Species Type	Count
low	low	Setosa	46
low	medium	Setosa	2
medium	low	Setosa	2
medium	medium	Versicolour	43
medium	high	Versicolour	3
medium	high	Virginica	3
high	medium	Versicolour	2
high	medium	Virginica	3
high	high	Versicolour	2
$\mathbf{high}$	high	Virginica	44

**Table 3.8.** Cross-tabulation of flowers according to petal length and width for flowers of the Setosa species.

Width

		low	medium	high
th.	low	46	2	0
180	medium	2	0	0
Leı	high	0	0	0

**Table 3.10.** Cross-tabulation of flowers according to petal length and width for flowers of the Virginica species.

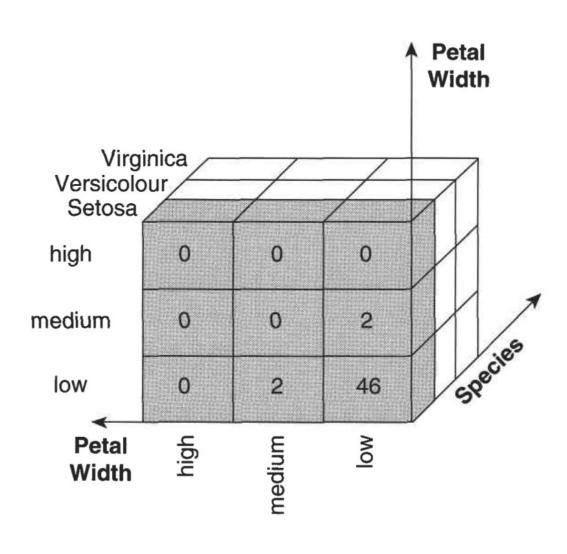
Width

		low	medium	high
ų,	low	0	0	0
ngu	medium	0	0	3
Sel	high	0	3	44

**Table 3.9.** Cross-tabulation of flowers according to petal length and width for flowers of the Versicolour species.

X X	7	•	_1	1	1	_
V	/	1	а	T	ı	n

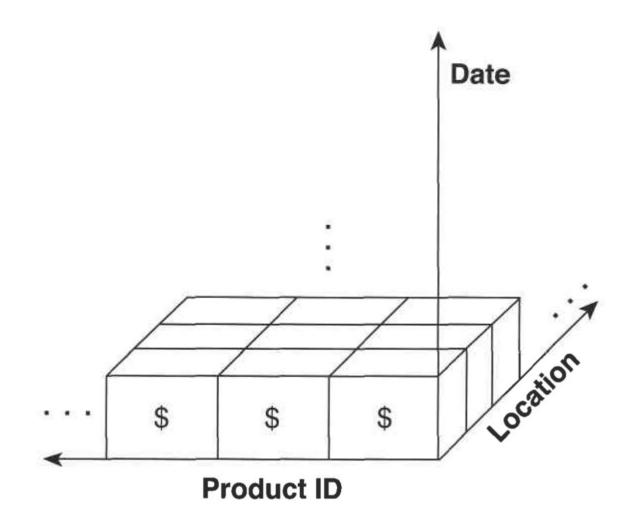
			VV ICIOII	
		low	medium	high
th	low	0	0	0
ngu	medium	0	43	3
Leng	high	0	2	2



### **Example**

Product ID	Location	Date	Revenue
			:
1	Minneapolis	Oct. 18, 2004	\$250
1	Chicago	Oct. 18, 2004	\$79
:	:	:	
1	Paris	Oct. 18, 2004	301
:	:	:	:
27	Minneapolis	Oct. 18, 2004	\$2,321
27	Chicago	Oct. 18, 2004	\$3,278
į	:	:	
27	Paris	Oct. 18, 2004	\$1,325
Ė	:	i	:

**Example** 



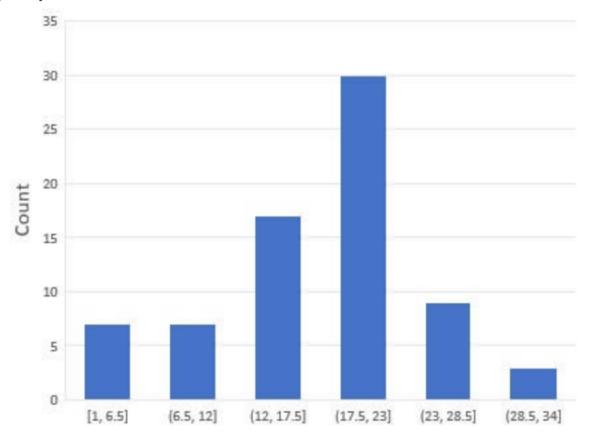
#### 3. DATA REDUCTION

- **b.** Numerosity Reduction
- ii. Histogram
- A histogram is a 'graph' that represents frequency distribution which describes how often a value appears in the data.
- Histogram uses the binning method and to represent data distribution of an attribute. It uses disjoint subset which we call as bin or buckets.

We have data for *AllElectronics data set*, which contains prices for regularly sold items.

1, 1, 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, 20, 20, 20, 20, 20, 20, 20, 21, 21, 21, 21, 25, 25, 25, 25, 25, 28, 28, 30, 30, 34

The diagram below shows a histogram of equal width that shows the frequency of price distribution.



### 3. DATA REDUCTION

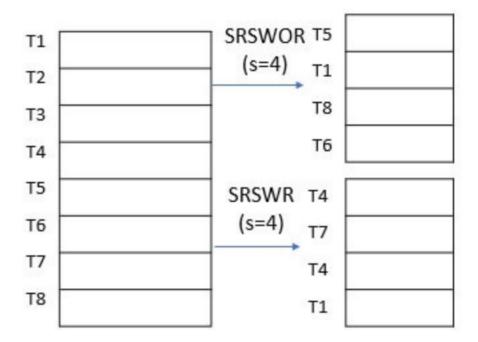
- **b.** Numerosity Reduction
- iii. Sampling

One of the methods used for data reduction is sampling as it is capable to reduce the large data set into a much smaller data sample.

#### 3. DATA REDUCTION

- **b.** Numerosity Reduction
- iii. Sampling
- Simple random sample without replacement (SRSWOR) of size s: In this 's number' of tuples are drawn from N tuples such that in the data set D (s<N). The probability of drawing any tuple from the data set D is 1/N this means all tuples have an equal probability of getting sampled.
- Simple random sample with replacement (SRSWR) of size s: It is similar to the SRSWOR but the tuple is drawn from data set D, is recorded and then replaced back into the data set D so that it can be drawn again.

- 3. DATA REDUCTION
  - **b.** Numerosity Reduction
  - iii. Sampling

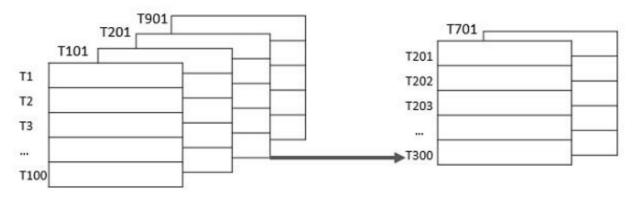


#### 3. DATA REDUCTION

### **b.** Numerosity Reduction

### iii. Sampling

**Cluster sample:** The tuples in data set D are clustered into M mutually disjoint subsets. From these clusters, a simple random sample of size s could be generated where s<M. The data reduction can be applied by implementing SRSWOR on these clusters



Cluster Sample (s=2)

#### 3. DATA REDUCTION

- **b.** Numerosity Reduction
- iii. Sampling

**Cluster sample:** The tuples in data set D are clustered into M mutually disjoint subsets. From these clusters, a simple random sample of size s could be generated where s<M. The data reduction can be applied by implementing SRSWOR on these clusters