Data preprocessing

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Data set types

- Record
  - Tables
  - Document Data
  - Transaction Data
- Graph
  - World Wide Web
  - Molecular Structures
- Ordered
  - Spatial Data
  - Temporal Data
  - Sequential Data
  - Genetic Sequence Data

From: Tan,Steinbach, Kumar, Introduction to Data Mining, McGraw Hill 2006

Tabular Data

- A collection of records
  - Each record is characterized by a fixed set of attributes

Tid	Refund	Marital Status	Taxable Income	Cheat
1	Yes	Single	125K	No
2	No	Married	100K	No
3	No	Single	70K	No
4	Yes	Married	120K	No
5	No	Divorced	95K	Yes
6	No	Married	60K	No
7	Yes	Divorced	220K	No
8	No	Single	85K	Yes
9	No	Married	75K	No
10	No	Single	90K	Yes

From: Tan,Steinbach, Kumar, Introduction to Data Mining, McGraw Hill 2006

Document Data

- Each document becomes a `term' vector,
  - each term is a component (attribute) of the vector,
  - the value of each component is the number of times the corresponding term occurs in the document.

	team	coach	play	ball	score	game	win	lost	timeout	season
Document 1	3	0	5	0	2	6	0	2	0	2
Document 2	0	7	0	2	1	0	0	3	0	0
Document 3	0	1	0	0	1	2	2	0	3	0

From: Tan,Steinbach, Kumar, Introduction to Data Mining, McGraw Hill 2006

Transaction Data

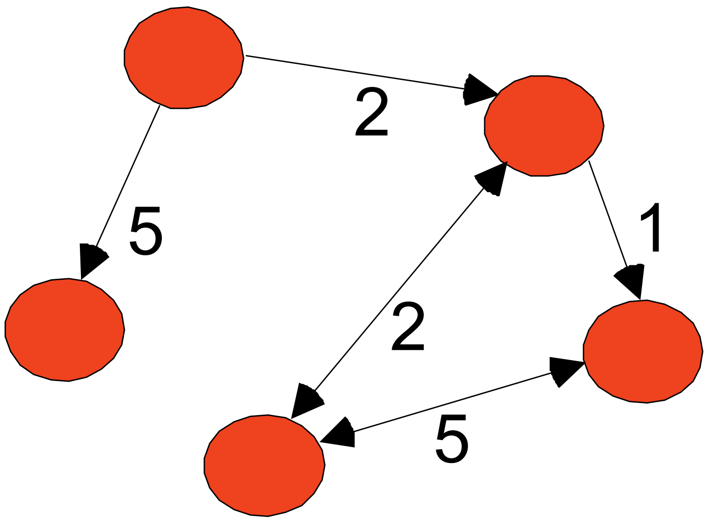
- A special type of record data, where
  - each record (transaction) involves a set of items.
  - For example, consider a grocery store. The set of products purchased by a customer during one shopping trip constitute a transaction, while the individual products that were purchased are the items.

TID	*Items*
1	**Bread, Coke, Milk**
2	**Beer, Bread**
3	**Beer, Coke, Diaper, Milk**
4	**Beer, Bread, Diaper, Milk**
5	**Coke, Diaper, Milk**

From: Tan,Steinbach, Kumar, Introduction to Data Mining, McGraw Hill 2006

Graph Data

- Examples: Generic graph and HTML Links



Data Mining

Graph Partitioning

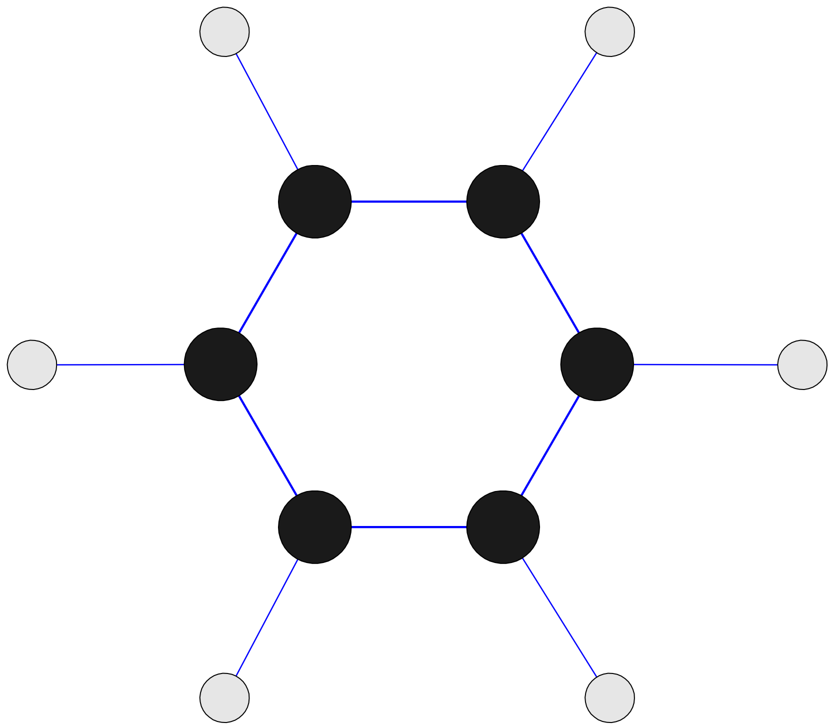
Parallel Solution of Sparse Linear System of Equations

<a href="papers/papers.html#ffff">
N-Body Computation and Dense Linear System Solvers

From: Tan,Steinbach, Kumar, Introduction to Data Mining, McGraw Hill 2006

Chemical Data

- Benzene Molecule: C_6H_6



Ordered Data

- Sequences of transactions

Items/Events

(A B) (D) (C E)
(B D) (C) (E)
(C D) (B) (A E)

An element of the sequence

Ordered Data

- Genomic sequence data

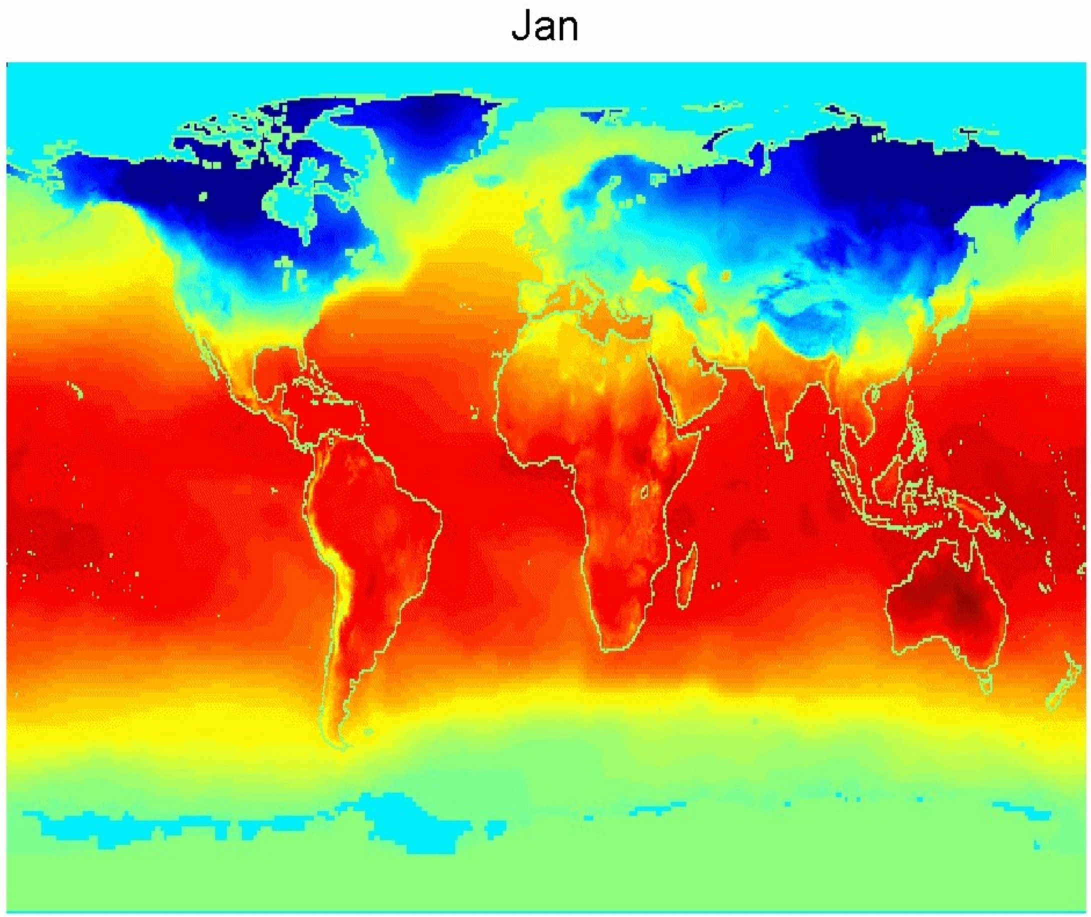
```
GGTTCCGCCTTCAGCCCCGCGCC
CGCAGGGCCCGCCCCGCGCCGTC
GAGAAGGGCCCGCCTGGCGGGCG
GGGGGAGGCGGGGCCGCCCGAGC
CCAACCGAGTCCGACCAGGTGCC
CCCTCTGCTCGGCCTAGACCTGA
GCTCATTAGGCGGCAGCGGACAG
GCCAAGTAGAACACGCGAAGCGC
TGGGCTGCCTGCTGCGACCAGGG
```


From: Tan,Steinbach, Kumar, Introduction to Data Mining, McGraw Hill 2006

Ordered Data

- Spatio-Temporal Data

Average Monthly Temperature of land and ocean



From: Tan,Steinbach, Kumar, Introduction to Data Mining, McGraw Hill 2006

Attribute types

- There are different types of attributes
  - Nominal
    - Examples: ID numbers, eye color, zip codes
  - Ordinal
    - Examples: rankings (e.g., taste of potato chips on a scale from 1-10), grades, height in {tall, medium, short}
  - Interval
    - Examples: calendar dates, temperatures in Celsius or Fahrenheit.
  - Ratio
    - Examples: temperature in Kelvin, length, time, counts

From: Tan,Steinbach, Kumar, Introduction to Data Mining, McGraw Hill 2006

Properties of Attribute Values

- The type of an attribute depends on which of the following properties it possesses:
  - Distinctness: $= \neq$
  - Order: $< >$
  - Addition: $+ -$
  - Multiplication: $* /$

  - Nominal attribute: distinctness
  - Ordinal attribute: distinctness & order
  - Interval attribute: distinctness, order & addition
  - Ratio attribute: all 4 properties

Discrete and Continuous Attributes

- Discrete Attribute
  - Has only a finite or countably infinite set of values
  - Examples: zip codes, counts, or the set of words in a collection of documents
  - Often represented as integer variables.
  - Note: binary attributes are a special case of discrete attributes
- Continuous Attribute
  - Has real numbers as attribute values
  - Examples: temperature, height, or weight.
  - Practically, real values can only be measured and represented using a finite number of digits.
  - Continuous attributes are typically represented as floating-point variables.

Data Quality

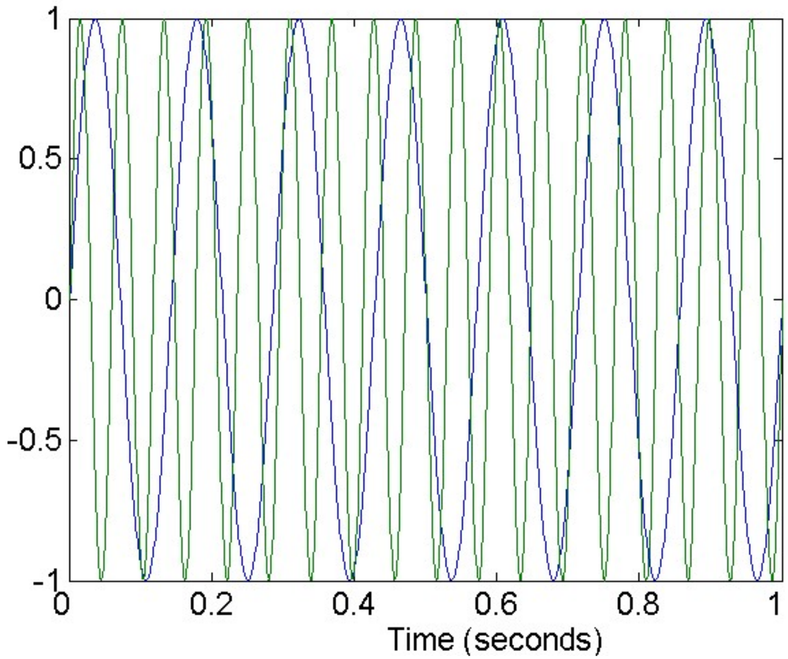
- What kinds of data quality problems?
- How can we detect problems with the data?
- What can we do about these problems?

- Examples of data quality problems:
  - Noise and outliers
  - missing values
  - duplicate data

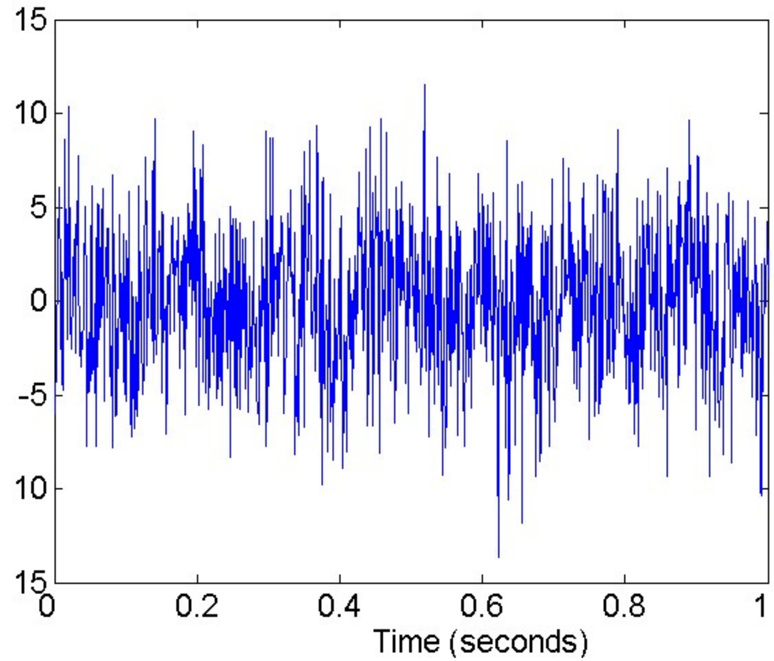
From: Tan,Steinbach, Kumar, Introduction to Data Mining, McGraw Hill 2006

Noise

- Noise refers to modification of original values
  - Examples: distortion of a person’s voice when talking on a poor phone and “snow” on television screen



Two Sine Waves

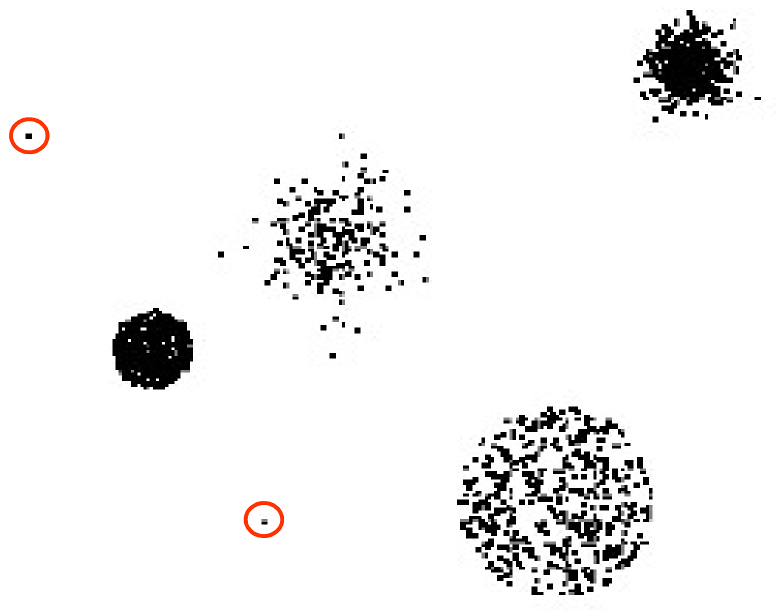


Two Sine Waves + Noise

From: Tan,Steinbach, Kumar, Introduction to Data Mining, McGraw Hill 2006

Outliers

- Outliers are data objects with characteristics that are considerably different than most of the other data objects in the data set



From: Tan,Steinbach, Kumar, Introduction to Data Mining, McGraw Hill 2006

Missing Values

- Reasons for missing values
  - Information is not collected
(e.g., people decline to give their age and weight)
  - Attributes may not be applicable to all cases
(e.g., annual income is not applicable to children)

- Handling missing values
  - Eliminate Data Objects
  - Estimate Missing Values
  - Ignore the Missing Value During Analysis
  - Replace with all possible values (weighted by their probabilities)

From: Tan,Steinbach, Kumar, Introduction to Data Mining, McGraw Hill 2006

Important Characteristics of Structured Data

- Dimensionality
  - Curse of Dimensionality
- Sparsity
  - Only presence counts
- Resolution
  - Patterns depend on the scale

From: Tan,Steinbach, Kumar, Introduction to Data Mining, McGraw Hill 2006

Data Preprocessing

- Aggregation
- Sampling
- Dimensionality Reduction
- Feature subset selection
- Feature creation
- Discretization and Binarization
- Attribute Transformation

From: Tan,Steinbach, Kumar, Introduction to Data Mining, McGraw Hill 2006

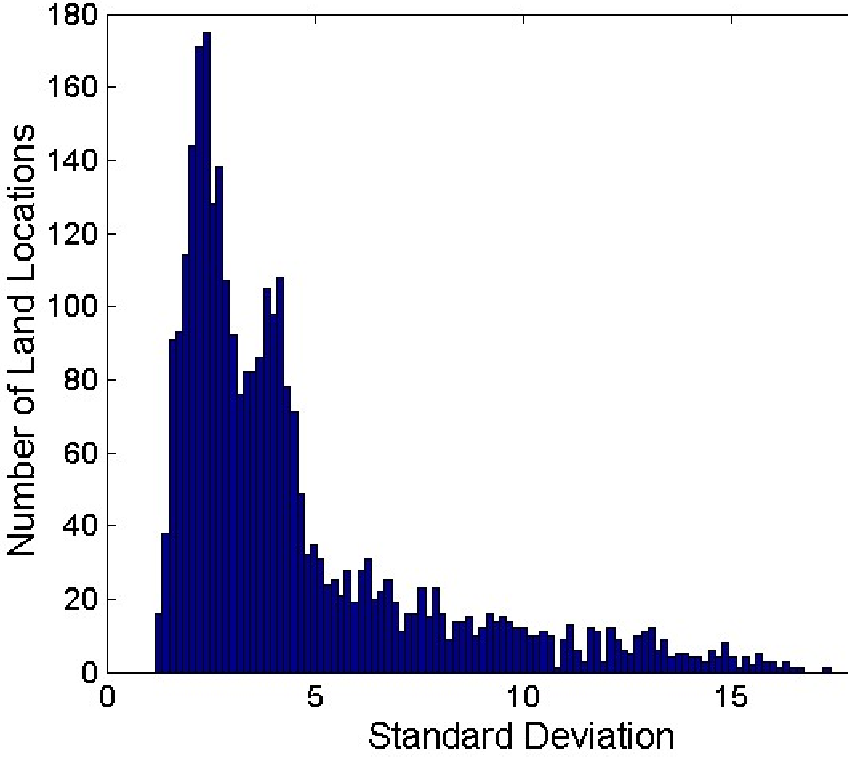
Aggregation

- Combining two or more attributes (or objects) into a single attribute (or object)

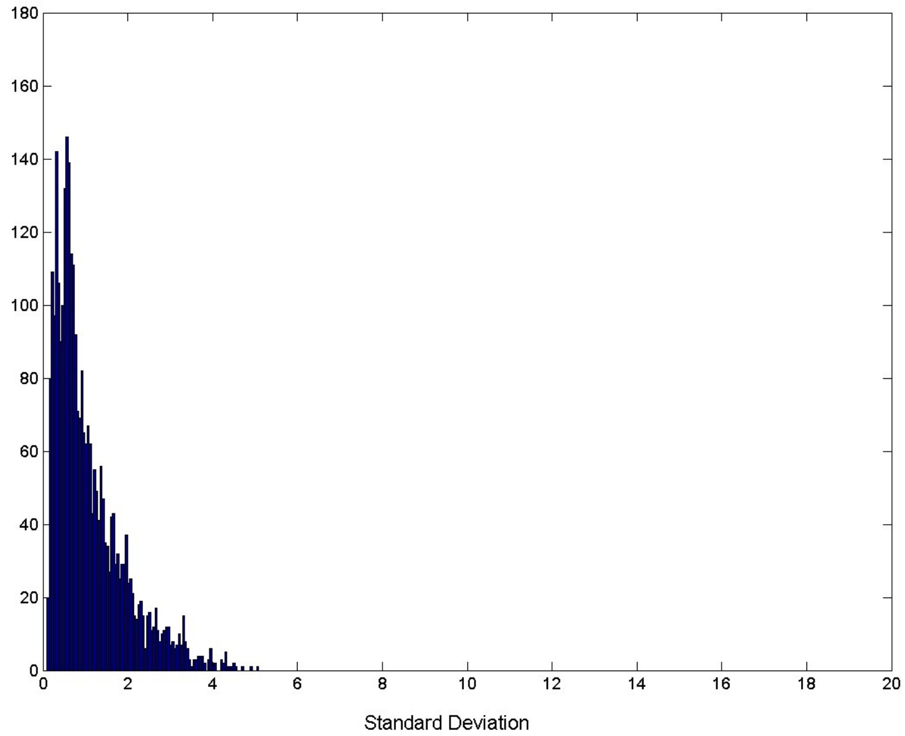
- Purpose
  - Data reduction
    - Reduce the number of attributes or objects
  - Change of scale
    - Cities aggregated into regions, states, countries, etc
  - More “stable” data
    - Aggregated data tends to have less variability

Aggregation

Variation of Precipitation in Australia



Standard Deviation of Average Monthly Precipitation



Standard Deviation of Average Yearly Precipitation

From: Tan,Steinbach, Kumar, Introduction to Data Mining, McGraw Hill 2006

Data reduction

- It generates a reduced representation of the dataset. This representation is smaller in volume, but it can provide similar analytical results
  - sampling
    - It reduces the cardinality of the set
  - feature selection
    - It reduces the number of attributes
  - discretization
    - It reduces the cardinality of the attribute domain

From: Tan,Steinbach, Kumar, Introduction to Data Mining, McGraw Hill 2006

Sampling

- Sampling is the main technique employed for data selection.
  - It is often used for both the preliminary investigation of the data and the final data analysis.
- Statisticians sample because obtaining the entire set of data of interest is too expensive or time consuming.
- Sampling is used in data mining because processing the entire set of data of interest is too expensive or time consuming.

Sampling …

- The key principle for effective sampling is the following:
  - using a sample will work almost as well as using the entire data set, if the sample is representative

  - A sample is representative if it has approximately the same property (of interest) as the original set of data

From: Tan,Steinbach, Kumar, Introduction to Data Mining, McGraw Hill 2006

Types of Sampling

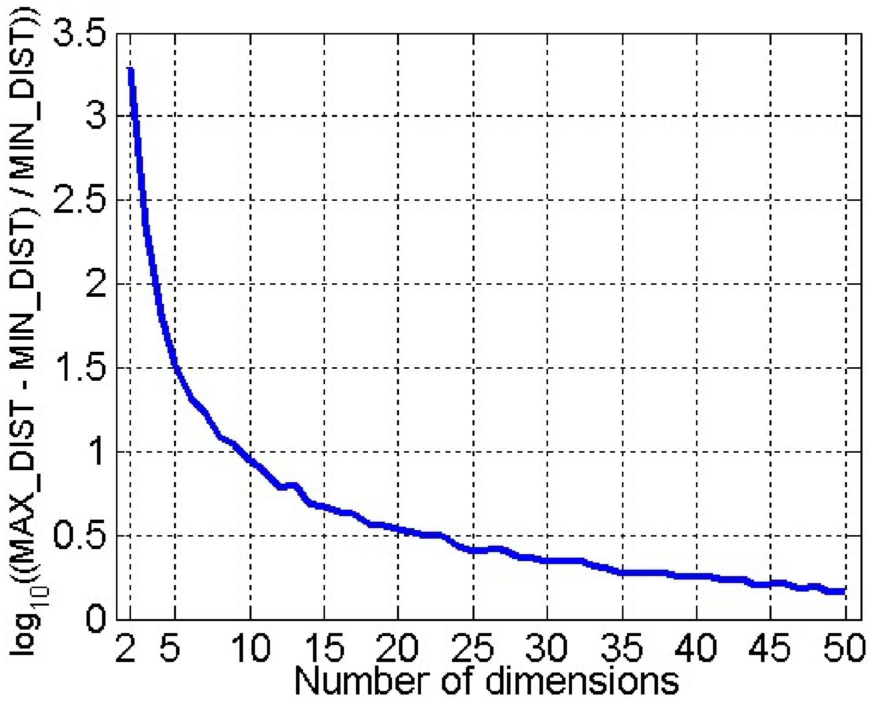
- Simple Random Sampling
  - There is an equal probability of selecting any particular item
- Sampling without replacement
  - As each item is selected, it is removed from the population
- Sampling with replacement
  - Objects are not removed from the population as they are selected for the sample.
    - In sampling with replacement, the same object can be picked up more than once
- Stratified sampling
  - Split the data into several partitions; then draw random samples from each partition

From: Tan,Steinbach, Kumar, Introduction to Data Mining, McGraw Hill 2006

Curse of Dimensionality

- When dimensionality increases, data becomes increasingly sparse in the space that it occupies

- Definitions of density and distance between points, which is critical for clustering and outlier detection, become less meaningful



- Randomly generate 500 points
- Compute difference between max and min distance between any pair of points

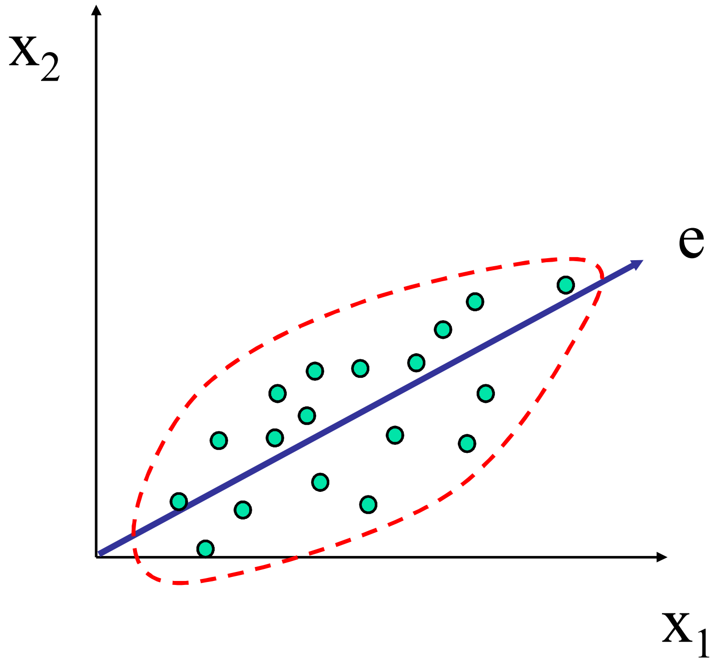
From: Tan,Steinbach, Kumar, Introduction to Data Mining, McGraw Hill 2006

Dimensionality Reduction

- Purpose
  - Avoid curse of dimensionality
  - Reduce amount of time and memory required by data mining algorithms
  - Allow data to be more easily visualized
  - May help to eliminate irrelevant features or reduce noise
- Techniques
  - Principal Component Analysis
  - Singular Value Decomposition
  - Others: supervised and non-linear techniques

Dimensionality Reduction: PCA

- Goal is to find a projection that captures the largest amount of variation in data



Feature Subset Selection

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

From: Tan,Steinbach, Kumar, Introduction to Data Mining, McGraw Hill 2006

Feature Subset Selection

- Techniques
  - Brute-force approach
    - Try all possible feature subsets as input to data mining algorithm
  - Embedded approaches
    - Feature selection occurs naturally as part of the data mining algorithm
  - Filter approaches
    - Features are selected before data mining algorithm is run
  - Wrapper approaches
    - Use the data mining algorithm as a black box to find best subset of attributes

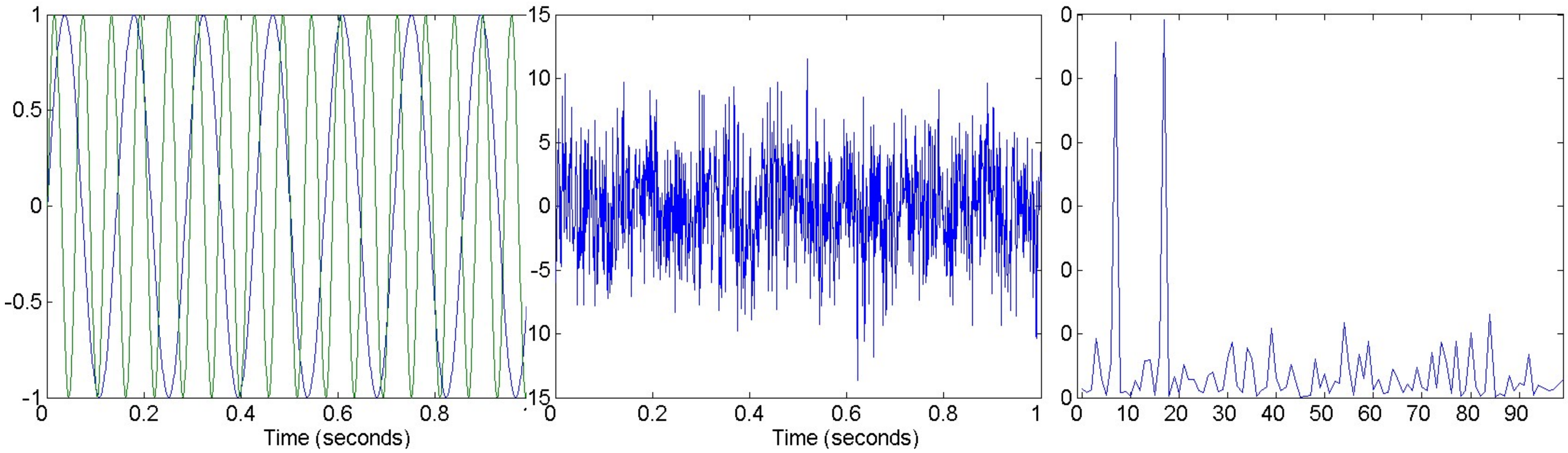
Feature Creation

- Create new attributes that can capture the important information in a data set much more efficiently than the original attributes

- Three general methodologies
  - Feature Extraction
    - domain-specific
  - Mapping Data to New Space
  - Feature Construction
    - combining features

Mapping Data to a New Space

- Fourier transform
- Wavelet transform



Two Sine Waves

Two Sine Waves + Noise

Frequency

From: Tan,Steinbach, Kumar, Introduction to Data Mining, McGraw Hill 2006

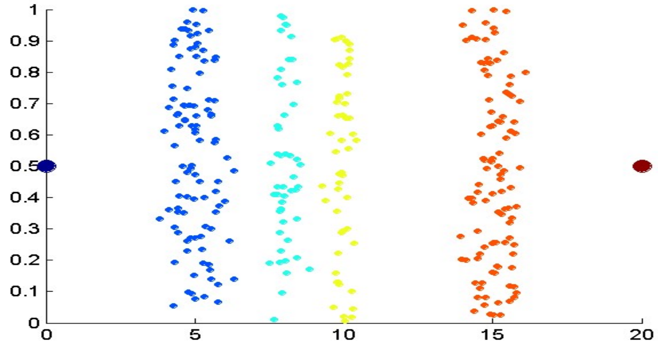
Discretization

- It splits the domain of a continuous attribute in a set of intervals
  - It reduces the cardinality of the attribute domain
- Techniques
  - N intervals with the same width $W=(v_{max} - v_{min})/N$
    - Easy to implement
    - It can be badly affected by outliers and sparse data
    - Incremental approach
  - N intervals with (approximately) the same cardinality
    - It better fits sparse data and outliers
    - Non incremental approach
  - clustering
    - It fits well sparse data and outliers

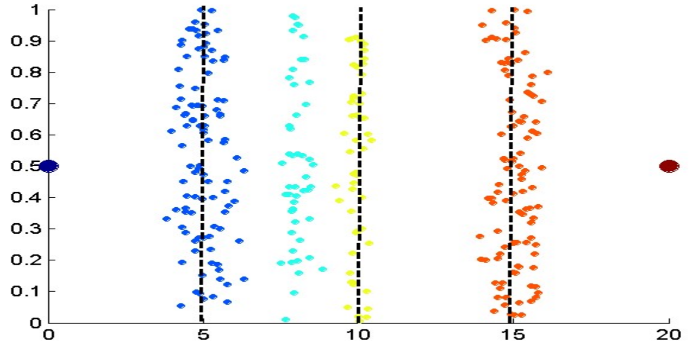
DBMG

From: Tan,Steinbach, Kumar, Introduction to Data Mining, McGraw Hill 2006

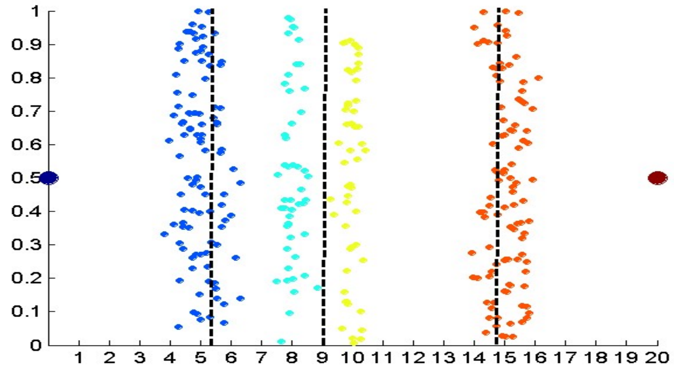
Discretization



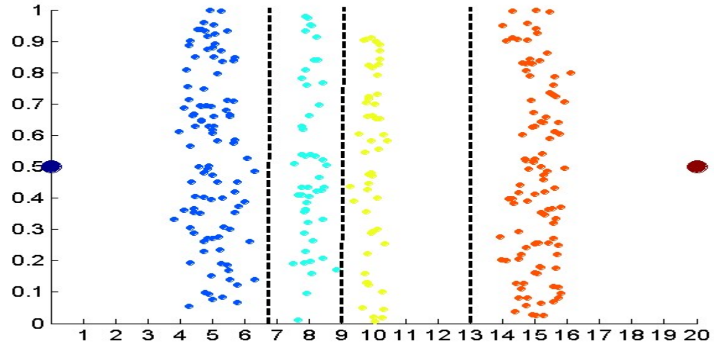
Data



Equal interval width



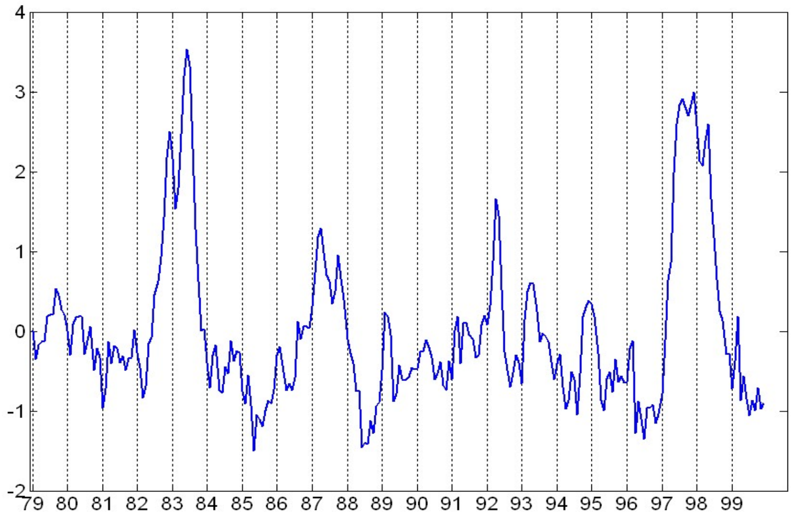
Equal frequency



K-means

Attribute Transformation

- A function that maps the entire set of values of a given attribute to a new set of replacement values such that each old value can be identified with one of the new values
  - Simple functions: x^k, $\log(x)$, e^x, $|x|$
  - Standardization and Normalization



From: Tan,Steinbach, Kumar, Introduction to Data Mining, McGraw Hill 2006

Normalization

- It is a type of data transformation
  - The values of an attribute are scaled so as to fall within a small specified range, typically [-1,+1] or [0,+1]
- Techniques
  - min-max normalization

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

  - z-score normalization $\quad v' = \frac{v - mean_A}{stand\_dev_A}$
  - decimal scaling

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

j is the smallest integer such that max(|v′|)< 1

Similarity and Dissimilarity

- Similarity
  - Numerical measure of how alike two data objects are
  - Is higher when objects are more alike
  - Often falls in the range [0,1]
- Dissimilarity
  - Numerical measure of how different are two data objects
  - Lower when objects are more alike
  - Minimum dissimilarity is often 0
  - Upper limit varies
- Proximity refers to a similarity or dissimilarity

From: Tan,Steinbach, Kumar, Introduction to Data Mining, McGraw Hill 2006

Similarity/Dissimilarity for Simple Attributes

p and *q* are the attribute values for two data objects.

Attribute Type	Dissimilarity	Similarity
Nominal	$d = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } p = q \\ 1 & \text{if } p \neq q \end{cases}$	$s = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } p = q \\ 0 & \text{if } p \neq q \end{cases}$
Ordinal	$d = \frac{\lvert p-q \rvert}{n-1}$ (values mapped to integers 0 to $n-1$, where n is the number of values)	$s = 1 - \frac{\lvert p-q \rvert}{n-1}$
Interval or Ratio	$d = \lvert p - q \rvert$	$s = -d$, $s = \frac{1}{1+d}$ or $s = 1 - \frac{d - min\_d}{max\_d - min\_d}$

Table 5.1. Similarity and dissimilarity for simple attributes

From: Tan,Steinbach, Kumar, Introduction to Data Mining, McGraw Hill 2006

Euclidean Distance

- Euclidean Distance

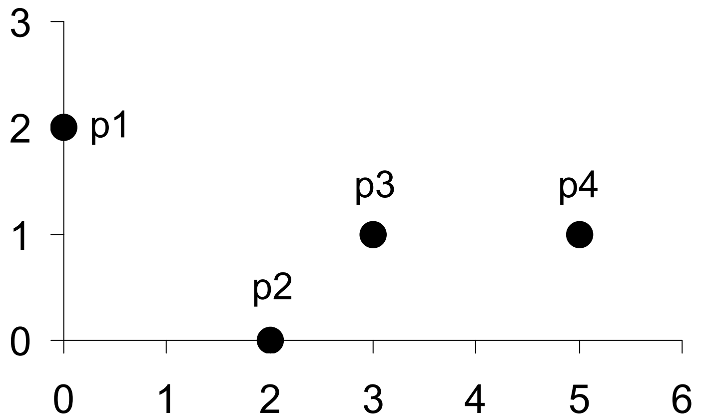
$$dist = \sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^{n} (p_k - q_k)^2}$$

Where n is the number of dimensions (attributes) and p_k and q_k are, respectively, the k[th] attributes (components) or data objects p and q.

- Normalization is necessary, if scales differ.

From: Tan,Steinbach, Kumar, Introduction to Data Mining, McGraw Hill 2006

Euclidean Distance



point	x	y
p1	0	2
p2	2	0
p3	3	1
p4	5	1

	p1	p2	p3	p4
p1	0	2.828	3.162	5.099
p2	2.828	0	1.414	3.162
p3	3.162	1.414	0	2
p4	5.099	3.162	2	0

Distance Matrix

From: Tan,Steinbach, Kumar, Introduction to Data Mining, McGraw Hill 2006

Minkowski Distance

- Minkowski Distance is a generalization of Euclidean Distance

$$dist = \left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} | p_k - q_k |^r \right)^{\frac{1}{r}}$$

Where *r* is a parameter, *n* is the number of dimensions (attributes) and p_k and q_k are, respectively, the kth attributes (components) of data objects *p* and *q*.

From: Tan,Steinbach, Kumar, Introduction to Data Mining, McGraw Hill 2006

Minkowski Distance: Examples

- $r = 1$. City block (Manhattan, taxicab, L_1 norm) distance.
  - A common example of this is the Hamming distance, which is just the number of bits that are different between two binary vectors
- $r = 2$. Euclidean distance
- $r \rightarrow \infty$. "supremum" (L_{max} norm, L_∞ norm) distance.
  - This is the maximum difference between any component of the vectors
- Do not confuse *r* with *n*, i.e., all these distances are defined for any number of dimensions.

Minkowski Distance

point	x	y
p1	0	2
p2	2	0
p3	3	1
p4	5	1

L1	p1	p2	p3	p4
p1	0	4	4	6
p2	4	0	2	4
p3	4	2	0	2
p4	6	4	2	0

L2	p1	p2	p3	p4
p1	0	2.828	3.162	5.099
p2	2.828	0	1.414	3.162
p3	3.162	1.414	0	2
p4	5.099	3.162	2	0

L_∞	p1	p2	p3	p4
p1	0	2	3	5
p2	2	0	1	3
p3	3	1	0	2
p4	5	3	2	0

Distance Matrix

From: Tan,Steinbach, Kumar, Introduction to Data Mining, McGraw Hill 2006

Common Properties of a Distance

- Distances, such as the Euclidean distance, have some well known properties.

  1. $d(p, q) \geq 0$ for all p and q and $d(p, q) = 0$ only if $p = q$. (Positive definiteness)
  2. $d(p, q) = d(q, p)$ for all p and q. (Symmetry)
  3. $d(p, r) \leq d(p, q) + d(q, r)$ for all points p, q, and r. (Triangle Inequality)

  where $d(p, q)$ is the distance (dissimilarity) between points (data objects), p and q.

- A distance that satisfies these properties is a metric

From: Tan,Steinbach, Kumar, Introduction to Data Mining, McGraw Hill 2006

Common Properties of a Similarity

- Similarities also have some well known properties.

  1. $s(p, q) = 1$ (or maximum similarity) only if $p = q$.

  2. $s(p, q) = s(q, p)$ for all p and q. (Symmetry)

  where $s(p, q)$ is the similarity between points (data objects), p and q.

Similarity Between Binary Vectors

- Common situation is that objects, *p* and *q*, have only binary attributes
- Compute similarities using the following quantities

  M_{01} = the number of attributes where p was 0 and q was 1
  M_{10} = the number of attributes where p was 1 and q was 0
  M_{00} = the number of attributes where p was 0 and q was 0
  M_{11} = the number of attributes where p was 1 and q was 1
- Simple Matching and Jaccard Coefficients

  SMC = number of matches / number of attributes
  $= (M_{11} + M_{00}) / (M_{01} + M_{10} + M_{11} + M_{00})$

  J = number of 11 matches / number of not-both-zero attributes values
  $= (M_{11}) / (M_{01} + M_{10} + M_{11})$

From: Tan,Steinbach, Kumar, Introduction to Data Mining, McGraw Hill 2006

SMC versus Jaccard: Example

$p =$ 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0

$q =$ 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 1

$M_{01} = 2$ (the number of attributes where p was 0 and q was 1)
$M_{10} = 1$ (the number of attributes where p was 1 and q was 0)
$M_{00} = 7$ (the number of attributes where p was 0 and q was 0)
$M_{11} = 0$ (the number of attributes where p was 1 and q was 1)

SMC = $(M_{11} + M_{00})/(M_{01} + M_{10} + M_{11} + M_{00}) = (0+7) / (2+1+0+7) = 0.7$

J = $(M_{11}) / (M_{01} + M_{10} + M_{11}) = 0 / (2 + 1 + 0) = 0$

From: Tan,Steinbach, Kumar, Introduction to Data Mining, McGraw Hill 2006

Cosine Similarity

- If d_1 and d_2 are two document vectors, then

  $$\cos(d_1, d_2) = (d_1 \bullet d_2) / ||d_1||\ ||d_2|| ,$$

  where $\bullet$ indicates vector dot product and $|| d ||$ is the norm of vector d.

- Example:

  d_1 = **3 2 0 5 0 0 0 2 0 0**
  d_2 = **1 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 2**

$d_1 \bullet d_2 = 3*1 + 2*0 + 0*0 + 5*0 + 0*0 + 0*0 + 0*0 + 2*1 + 0*0 + 0*2 = 5$

$||d_1|| = (3*3+2*2+0*0+5*5+0*0+0*0+0*0+2*2+0*0+0*0)^{0.5} = (42)^{0.5} = 6.481$

$||d_2|| = (1*1+0*0+0*0+0*0+0*0+0*0+0*0+1*1+0*0+2*2)^{0.5} = (6)^{0.5} = 2.245$

$\cos(d_1, d_2) = .3150$

Combining Similarities

- Sometimes attributes are of many different types, but an overall similarity is needed.

1. For the k^{th} attribute, compute a similarity, s_k, in the range $[0, 1]$.
2. Define an indicator variable, δ_k, for the k_{th} attribute as follows:

$$\delta_k = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if the } k^{th} \text{ attribute is a binary asymmetric attribute and both objects have} \\ & \text{a value of } 0\text{, or if one of the objects has a missing values for the } k^{th} \text{ attribute} \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

3. Compute the overall similarity between the two objects using the following formula:

$$similarity(p, q) = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{n} \delta_k s_k}{\sum_{k=1}^{n} \delta_k}$$

DBMG

From: Tan,Steinbach, Kumar, Introduction to Data Mining, McGraw Hill 2006

Combining Weighted Similarities

- May not want to treat all attributes the same.
  - Use weights w_k which are between 0 and 1 and sum to 1.

$$similarity(p,q) = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{n} w_k \delta_k s_k}{\sum_{k=1}^{n} \delta_k}$$

$$distance(p,q) = \left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} w_k |p_k - q_k|^r \right)^{1/r}.$$

From: Tan,Steinbach, Kumar, Introduction to Data Mining, McGraw Hill 2006