

**Python for Data Scientists** 

# CHAPTER 4: DATA PREPARATION

## **Chapter Objectives**

In this chapter, we will introduce:

- → A basic refresher on statistics
- → Basic ETL (extract, transform, and load) and reshaping data for modeling
- → Splitting data into training and testing sets
- → Free-form text

# **Chapter Concepts**

#### **Statistics Primer**

Basic ETL and Reshaping

**Splitting Data** 

Free-Form Text

**Chapter Summary** 

#### **Statistics**

- → Statistics is a branch of mathematics that deals with collecting, organizing, analyzing, interpreting, and presenting data
- → The math calculations behind it can be complex and time consuming to do, but there are some basic concepts that can be understood and applied without knowing all the details
- → Data scientists need to understand a few basic big picture ideas in order to apply the computer models
  - Statistical features of a dataset (central tendency, min, max, IQR, deviation)
  - Probability (Normal, Uniform, Poisson, Binomial distributions)
  - Dimension reduction and sampling
  - Independent vs. Dependent variables and correlation
  - Accuracy Analysis

#### **Statistical Features**

- **→** Sometimes called *Descriptive Statistics* or *Exploratory Data Analysis*
- → Gives us an overview of the range of values we find in a dataset
- → Central Tendency is a measure of what usually happens and can be expressed with three different measures:
  - Mean or average is the sum of all the values divided by how many values there are
  - Median is the value in the middle of the set when all values are lined up in order
  - Mode is the single value that occurs most often in the set

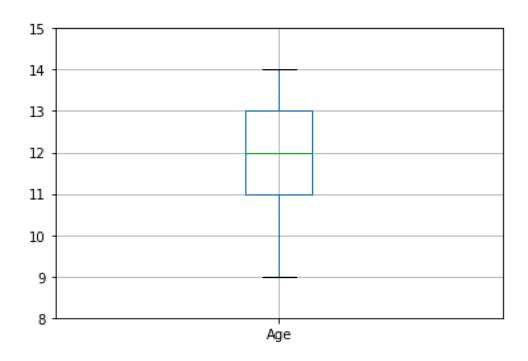
```
import pandas as pd
df = pd.DataFrame([9,10,10,11,11,11,12,12,12,13,13,13,13,14],
columns=['Age'])
print ("Mean", df.Age.mean(), "Median", df.Age.median(), "Mode",
df.Age.mode()[0], "Count", df.Age.count())
print (df.Age.value_counts())
Mean 11.714285714285714 Median 12.0 Mode 13 Count 14

13     4
12     3
11     3
10     2
14     1
9     1
```

#### **Box Plot**

→ Very often it is helpful to see these numbers plotted graphically instead

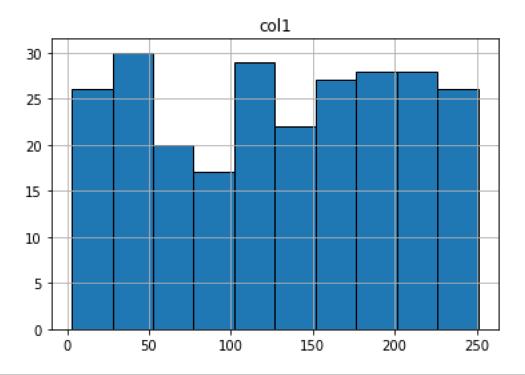
```
import matplotlib as mp
from matplotlib import pyplot as plt
plt.ylim(8,15)
df.boxplot()
```



## Histogram

→ Useful way to see each value range and how many items are in that range

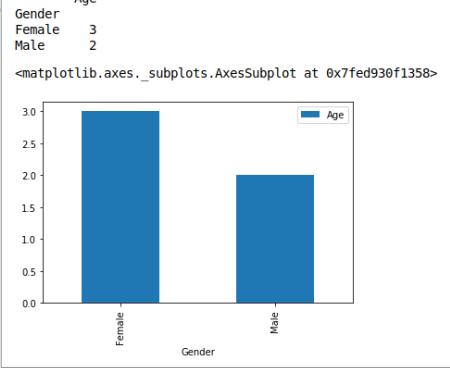
```
import matplotlib as mp
import numpy as np
df = pd.DataFrame(np.random.rand(253, 1) * 254, columns=['col1'])
df.hist(histtype='bar', ec='black')
```



#### **Bar Chart**

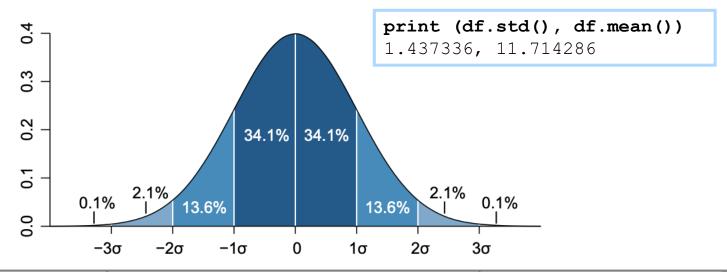
→ For categorical data, a bar chart is a good option

```
df = pd.DataFrame([('Male', 10),('Male', 11), ('Female', 11),
  ('Female', 12), ('Female', 12)], columns=['Gender','Age'])
x = df.groupby('Gender').count()
print (x)
x.plot(kind='bar')
Age
```



#### **Standard Deviation**

- → Useful for describing how measurements are distributed in the data
- → The average IQ is 100 and the standard deviation is 15 points
- → A person with an IQ of 115 is one standard deviation above the mean
- → A person with an IQ of 85 is one standard deviation below the mean
- → A person with an IQ of 130 is two standard deviations above the mean
- → By definition, 68% lie within 1 standard deviation, 95% within 2, and 99% within 3



## **Chapter Concepts**

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#### **Fixing Up DataFrames**

- → insert() can add a new column to a DataFrame
- → drop () removes a column from a DataFrame
- → Categorical replaces strings with number placeholders
- → astype converts the data type of a column

```
fatal.insert(11, 'Program', pd.Categorical(fatal['State or Federal
Program']).codes)

print (fatal[['Program', 'State or Federal Program']])

fatal['Number of Fatalities, 2012'].fillna(0).astype(int)

fatal.drop(['State or Federal Program'], axis=1, inplace=True)
```

## **Basic Data Types**

- → Most of the models you will use require data to be perfectly clean
  - Cannot have null values
  - Text sometimes needs to be replaced with numbers
  - Numbers need to be on the same scale
- → There are some basic data types in machine learning
  - Numeric
    - Continuous decimal numbers (weight or income)
    - → Discreet whole numbers (number of students)
    - → Binned numbers grouped together to form a category (18-25) (26-35)
       (36-45)
  - Categorical text or numeric that represents a category (male/female)
  - Time series sequence of numbers collected at regular interval (temperature measurement from a weather station)
  - Text any free-form text needs to be converted to a numeric document term matrix first

## **Missing Values**

- → Nulls or missing values can mess up the calculation
  - Need to remove them or replace them
  - Usually replace them with the central tendency (mean, median, mode) or zero
  - NaN is used in Pandas to represent Not a Number
- → isnull() will return a series of True/False indicating if a value is Null
- → fillna() replaces nulls with another value

```
import pandas as pd
fatal = pd.read_csv('2012_Workplace_Fatalities_by_State.csv')
print (fatal.columns)

fatal.columns = ['State', 'Number of Fatalities', 'Rate of Fatalities', 'State
Rank', 'Number of Injuries', 'InjuriesRate', 'Penalties Avg', 'Penalties Rank',
'Inspectors', 'Years to Inspect Each Workplace Once', 'StateFederal']

print (fatal['Penalties Rank'].mean())
print (fatal['Penalties Rank'][48:])
print (fatal['Penalties Rank'] = fatal['Penalties Rank'].fillna(fatal['Penalties Rank'].mean())
print (fatal['Penalties Rank'][48:])
```

# Rescaling

- → Sometimes numbers in a dataset can be on a different scale in one column vs. another
  - Weight might be measured in pounds, heights in inches
  - Value range in different columns can be wildly different
- → Rescaling them to a common scale can be helpful for understanding how to compare data in different scale
- → Some algorithms require that all the numbers be on the same scale, others might not care but may perform better if they are rescaled first
- → Large trial and error to see what works best

```
from sklearn import preprocessing as pp

x = fatal.NumberOfFatalities

print (x.mean(), x.std(), x.min(), x.max()) $\rightarrow$ 171 624 0 4628

pp.scale(x, with_mean = False, with_std = False) $\rightarrow$ [ 60. 218. 149. 88. 137.]

pp.scale(x, with_mean = True, with_std = False) $\rightarrow$ [-111 46 -22. -83 -34]

pp.scale(x, with_mean = False, with_std = True) $\rightarrow$ [0.09 0.35 0.24 0.14 0.22]

pp.scale(x, with_mean = True, with_std = True) $\rightarrow$ [-0.17 0.07 -0.03 -0.13 -0.05]
```

#### concat

- → Often you need to combine two DataFrames into one
  - Read in separate files and append them together like UNION ALL in SQL
  - Combine columns from calculation to create a new DataFrame structure
- → concat is a function that can combine two DataFrames together, either along the row or column axis works best

```
df1 = pd.DataFrame([('Male', 10),('Male', 11), ('Female', 11), ('Female', 12),
    ('Female', 12)], columns=['Gender','Age'])
df2 = pd.DataFrame([('Male', 20),('Male', 21), ('Female', 21), ('Female', 22)],
    columns=['Gender','Age'])
df = pd.concat([df1, df2])
print (df)
df3 = pd.DataFrame([('John', 'Smith'), ('Joe','Average'), ('Jane', 'Doe'),
    ('Jill', 'Hill')], columns = ['First', 'Last'])
df = pd.concat([df1, df3], axis = 1)
print (df)
```

#### merge

→ When you need a feature like a SQL Join to match two DataFrames on a common column value, use the merge command

#### **Recoding Categorical Data**

- → Sometimes you have a column of categorical data list Status that could have values of Active, Pending, Cancelled
- → In some cases, you need to re-encode this data as a sequential number
   Categorical function will do that

## **Dummy Coding**

- ◆ Other models require the data be encoded as multiple columns with a 0 or 1 indicating which value it is
- → Sometimes you skip the first column as a baseline and sometimes not
- → Also referred to as One Hot Encoding

```
person_data = { 'id': ['1', '2', '3', '4', '5'],
   'first_name': ['John', 'Sue', 'Jack', 'Alice', 'Joe'],
   'status': ['Active', 'Active', 'Pending', 'Cancelled',
   'Cancelled']}
df1 = pd.DataFrame(person_data, columns = ['id', 'first_name', 'status'])
print (df1)
dummies = pd.get_dummies(df1.status, drop_first = True)
df2 = pd.concat([df1[['id','first_name']], dummies], axis = 1)
print (df2)
dummies = pd.get_dummies(df1.status, drop_first = False)
df3 = pd.concat([df1[['id','first_name']], dummies], axis = 1)
print (df3)
```

#### **Dummy Coding Example**

- → In the first case, we encoded three values into two columns
  - Active becomes the baseline as indicated with zeros in Cancelled and Pending
  - This is usually what we need for regression analysis
- → In the second case, we encoded the three values into three columns each with a 1 to indicate it is the value
  - Usually need to do this for Neural Networks
- → Models like Naive Bayes and Decision Trees that don't use distance calculations don't usually need to be dummy coded

	id	first name	stat	us		
0	1	_John	Active			
1	2	Sue	Active			
2	3	Jack	Pending			
3	4	Alice	Cancelled			
4	5	Joe	Cancelled			
	id	first_name	Cancelled		Pending	
0	1	John		0	0	
1	2	Sue		0	0	
2	3	Jack		0	1	
3	4	Alice		1	0	
4	5	Joe		1	0	
	id	first_name	Active	Ca	ncelled	Pending
0	1	John	1		0	0
1	2	Sue	1		0	Θ
2	3	Jack	0		0	1
3	4	Alice	0		1	Θ
4	5	Joe	0		1	Θ

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## **Splitting Data**

- → Supervised models require that they be trained with a set of data first
- → After training, you need to test the results using another set of data which has the known values you are trying to predict
- → By comparing the predicted values to the known values, you can determine how good a model is at predicting
- → Run the same data through multiple different algorithms with different parameters to tweak the result until you find the combination that yields the best results
- → Pandas and Scikit-learn offer many ways to split a dataset into a training and testing set
  - sample
  - train test split
- → It is important to examine the two sets to make sure they are fairly representative of the whole set and not skewed in some way

#### **Sample**

- → Sample is a method built into DataFrame objects
- → The following recipe can create a random sample and then return the rest to another set

```
train = fatal.sample(frac=0.8, random state=200)
test = fatal[~fatal.index.isin(train.index)]
x0 = fatal.ProgramType
x1 = train.ProgramType
x2 = test.ProgramTypeprint(x0.value counts()/x0.count())
print (x1.value counts()/x1.count())
print (x2.value counts()/x2.count())
print (fatal.shape, train.shape, test.shape)
      0.5
1
      0.5
0
      0.592
1
      0.470
0
1
      0.625
      0.375
0
(42, 11) (34, 11) (8, 11)
```

#### train\_test\_split

- → Convenient function to split the sets in one step
- → The following recipe can create a random sample and then return the rest to another set

```
from sklearn.model selection import train test split
train, test = train test split(fatal, test size=0.2)
x0 = fatal.ProgramType
x1 = train.ProgramType
x2 = \text{test.ProgramTypeprint}(x0.\text{value counts}()/x0.\text{count}())
print (x1.value counts()/x1.count())
print (x2.value counts()/x2.count())
print (fatal.shape, train.shape, test.shape)
1
      0.5
      0.5
0
      0.515
1
0
      0.484
1
      0.555
      0.444
(42, 11) (33, 11) (9, 11)
```

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#### **Text Processing**

- → Raw unformatted text can come in many forms
  - Emails
  - Resumes
  - White Papers
  - Tweets
- → Words don't process well mathematically, so you need to convert the words into a matrix of numbers that can be run through the algorithms
- → Document Term Matrix (DTM) is a restructuring of text data that describes the frequency that words or terms occur in a collection of documents (often called a corpus)
- → There are many steps involved in getting the data to this format
  - Split lines into words (tokenization)
  - Removing punctuation, numbers, etc.
  - Standardizing on upper/lower case
  - Removing trivial words (of, and, or, is, etc.) called stop words
  - Stemming versions of words (run, running, runs)



## **Text Processing (continued)**

- → The steps for doing this are formulaic and there are many recipes to get there
- → The result is a big matrix which can be fed into any of the models just like regular data
- → Common usages include:
  - Classify a document into a category (spam/not spam)
  - Determine the overall sentiment of the document
  - Plagiarism detection
  - Finding similar papers for research

#### **Example DTM**

```
import pandas as pd
from sklearn.feature extraction.text
import CountVectorizer
def corpus from dir(folder):
   import os
   ret = dict(docs = [open(os.path.join(folder,f)).read() \
         for f in os.listdir(folder)], \
         ColNames = map(lambda x: x.split('.')[0], os.listdir(folder)))
   return ret
def tdm df(docs, colNames = None, **kwarqs):
   vectorizer = CountVectorizer(**kwargs)
   x1 = vectorizer.fit transform(docs)
   df = pd.DataFrame(x1.toarray().transpose(), \
        index = vectorizer.get feature names())
   return df
corpus = corpus from dir('text')
print (corpus)
df = tdm df(docs = corpus['docs'], colNames = corpus['ColNames'], \
     stop words = 'english')
print (df)
```

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#### **Next Steps**

- → ETL can be done at so many levels
  - At the source of the data using SQL
  - There are many ETL tools besides Python
- → Explore the different ways to rescale and normalize data
- → Text processing has so much more to it than just Document Term Matrix
  - Sentiment analysis
  - Word clouds
  - Term frequency-inverse document frequency
- → Even binary data like images and sound can be turned into numeric data that can be run through models
  - Look for APIs to do things like image and facial recognition

## **Chapter Summary**

In this chapter, we have introduced:

- → A basic refresher on statistics
- → Basic ETL (extract, transform, and load) and reshaping data for modeling
- → Splitting data into training and testing sets
- → Free-form text