# Big Data and Automated Content Analysis (6EC)

Week 3: »Data Wrangling and Exploratory **Analysis**« Thursday

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September 21, 2023

#### **Today**

Working with pandas

Working with pandas

Basics of pandas

Selecting and recoding data

Joining and Merging

Grouping and aggregating

From wide to long

Basics of plotting in Python

Next steps



Everything clear from Monday?

## Main points from last week

Working with pandas

#### I assume that by now, everybody knows:

- how to read and write different types of files
- how to work with both nested and tabular data
- how to deal with data of an unknown structure (such as responses from an unfamiliar JSON API)
- ...and of course all the basics: data types, for loops, conditions, etc.

This week, we will look into tabular, relatively traditional data. But remember what we said last week about different data structures – we will work with them a lot as well in the upcoming weeks!

Working with pandas

# Working with pandas

Basics of pandas

## The idea behind pandas

- Central concepts: dataframe (2D) and series (1D)
- Vectorized operations: apply a function to a whole column or row
- Resembles working with R/tidyverse (but: object orientation instead of pipes)

Most central ressource: McKinney (2012), a book about pandas by the creator of pandas. Updated 3<sup>rd</sup> edition (2022) freely available online: https://wesmckinney.com/book/

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# Pandas in the Python ecosystem

- The package that unites everything that fits in a dataframe or in a one-dimensional (time) series
- Operates, on the background, with "basic" packages such as numpy (stats) or matplotlib (plotting)

```
import pandas as pd
df = pd.DataFrame({"A":[2,3,3,4,3,5], "B":[10,8,9,7,5,5]})
df.corr()
```

```
import numpy as np
A = [2,3,3,4,3,5]
B = [10,8,9,7,5,5]
np.corrcoef(A,B)
```

⇒ The dataframe method .corr() does the same as we could achieve by feeding lists into the numpy function corrcoef().

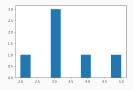
Similarly, you can plot directly from pandas. . .

```
df["A"].hist()
```

Working with pandas

... or achieve the same by using matplotlib and a list:

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
plt.hist(A)
```



Pandas simply makes these things easier, and "to pandas or not to pandas" is partly a matter of personal preferences. But its really strong point is data wrangling. You really don't want to do that without pandas.

index Both columns and rows have labels – these are called an index. You can refer to columns and/or rows either by their number or by their label.

#### axis axis=0: row-wise, axis=1: column-wise

dtype columns have a data type (e.g., int64). The generic "fallback" option (e.g., mixed types in one column) is simply called object. Not to be confused with...

Working with pandas

object-orientation Dataframes (and columns) are objects and hence have methods. These methods (typically) return new objects, which have new methods, etc.

Working with pandas

You can use build-in methods...

```
df['radio'].mean() # returns 3.33
```

... or apply a function:

```
import numpy as np
2
    df['age'].apply(np.log)
    # if we want to assign the result to a new column, we could do:
    df['log(age)'] = df['age'].apply(np.log)
```

# Getting to know your data

```
import pandas as pd
df = pd.read csv("https://cssbook.net/d/media.csv")
df
```

	gender	age	education	radio	newspaper	tv	internet
0	1	71	4.0	5	6	5	0
1	1	40	2.0	6	0	0	0
2	1	41	2.0	4	3	7	3
3	0	65	5.0	0	0	5	0
4	0	39	2.0	0	1	7	7
2076	0	49	5.0	3	6	6	0
2077	0	51	4.0	7	7	5	5
2078	1	31	6.0	3	5	5	6

# Getting to know your data

#### # descriptive statistics of all numerical columns df.describe()

	gender	age	education	radio	newspaper	tv	internet
count	2081.000000	2081.000000	2065.000000	2081.000000	2081.000000	2081.000000	2081.000000
mean	0.481499	46.073522	4.272639	3.333974	3.111004	4.167227	2.684286
std	0.499778	18.267401	1.661451	2.699082	2.853082	2.517039	2.786262
min	0.000000	13.000000	1.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
25%	0.000000	31.000000	3.000000	0.000000	0.000000	2.000000	0.000000
50%	0.000000	46.000000	4.000000	4.000000	3.000000	5.000000	2.000000
75%	1.000000	61.000000	6.000000	6.000000	6.000000	7.000000	5.000000
max	1.000000	95.000000	7.000000	7.000000	7.000000	7.000000	7.000000

## Getting to know your data

```
# frequency counts (e.g., for nominal variables)
df['gender'].value counts()
```

0 1079 1002

Name: gender, dtype: int64

```
# we can also have a list of columns
df[['radio', 'newspaper', 'tv', 'internet']].describe()
```

	radio	newspaper	tv	internet
count	2081.000000	2081.000000	2081.000000	2081.000000
mean	3.333974	3.111004	4.167227	2.684286
std	2.699082	2.853082	2.517039	2.786262
min	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
25%	0.000000	0.000000	2.000000	0.000000



Any questions so far?

#### Sidenote: standard statistics

Not the topic of today, but for those interested: Statistical modelling in pandas is a bit "R-like" if you use statsmodels:

```
import statsmodels.formula.api as smf
mymodel = smf.ols(formula='internet ~ age + gender + education',

    data=df).fit()

mymodel.summary()
```

Working with pandas

Selecting and recoding data

## Recoding values

There are multiple ways of recoding values: Via the .replace() method or via a function.

```
valuemap = {1:"geen", 7: "WO", 4:"HBO"}
1
    df['education_recoded'] = df['education'].replace(valuemap) # what's

→ not in the map is kept as-is
```

```
def recode_edu(x):
        if x==0:
            return "no"
        elif 1<=x<=4:
            return "low"
        elif x>4:
6
            return "high"
    df['education_recoded'] = df['education'].apply(recode_edu)
9
```

# Subsetting and slicing

Working with pandas

```
df[['gender', 'age']]
                         # refers to two columns
    df.loc[:, ["gender", "age"]] # the *values* in them
    df.iloc[:, [3, 4]]
                             # use column number instead of label
3
4
    df.loc[5:10, ["gender", "age"]] # the values in rows 5--10 in them
5
6
    df[df.loc[:, 'gender']==0] # select all rows with females
```

# Subsetting and slicing

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6
    df[df.loc[:, 'gender']==0] # select all rows with females
```

So what's the difference between the approach in line 1 and the .loc/.iloc approach?

# Subsetting and slicing

The difference is between creating a copy and referring to exactly the same object itself:

```
# we are a mad dictator and forbid women to listen to the radio:
# this often works, but is dangerous
df[df['gender']==0]['radio']=0
```

```
<ipython-input-89-f44d1c735422>:1: SettingWithCopyWarning:
A value is trying to be set on a copy of a slice from a DataFrame.
Try using .loc[row indexer,col indexer] = value instead
```

See the caveats in the documentation: https://pandas.pydata.org/par q-a-view-versus-a-copy df[df['gender']==0]['radio']=0

```
# this is the better way of doing it
df[df.loc[:,'gender']==0]['radio']=0
```



Do you understand why there is two times df in this expression:

df[df.loc[:, 'gender']==0]? Hint:

What does the inner part

(df.loc[:, 'gender']==0) return?

(You may guess!)

#### Subsetting and slicing

#### A note on hard-coding "magic numbers

- Hard-coding "magic numbers" like 687 or (0, 5) should be avoided. Always calculate them from your data.
- This is a good argument for using .loc over .iloc
- If you really cannot avoid this, define such things a constant at the beginning of your script:)

```
INVALID_ROWS = [33, 42, 18]
    SPECIAL ROWS = [120, 111, 230]
3
    # and then, for example, things like:
    df.drop(INVALID_ROWS)
    newdf = df.iloc[SPECIAL_ROWS, :]
```

Working with pandas

Joining and Merging

# Joining and Merging

#### Typical scenario

- You have two datasets that share one column
- For instance, data from www.cbs.nl: one with economic indicators, one with social indicators
- You want to make one dataframe

economie = pd.read\_csv('82800ENG\_UntypedDataSet\_15112018\_205454.csv', delimiter=';')
economie.head()

population = pd.read csv('37259eng UntypedDataSet 15112018 204553.csv', delimiter=';')

	ID	EconomicSectorsSIC2008	Regions	Periods	GDPVolumeChanges_1
0	132	T001081	PV20	1996JJ00	9.3
1	133	T001081	PV20	1997JJ00	-2.0
2	134	T001081	PV20	1998JJ00	-0.9
3	135	T001081	PV20	1999JJ00	-0.7
4	136	T001081	PV20	2000JJ00	1.5

1962JJ00 18.9

1963,JJ00 19.5

1964JJ00 19.6

population.head()

T001038 PV20

293 T001038 PV20

4 294 T001038 PV20

292

What do you think: How could/should a joined table look like?

```
First clean
economie.drop('ID',axis=1,inplace=True)
population.drop('ID',axis=1,inplace=True)
                                                 up...
# remove differentiation by sex
population = population[population['Sex']=='T001038']
population.drop('Sex',axis=1,inplace = True)
# keep only rows of economic dataframe that contain the total economic activity
economie = economie[economie['EconomicSectorsSIC2008']=='T001081
economie.drop('EconomicSectorsSIC2008', axis=1, inplace=True)
# remove those evil spaces at the end of the names of the provinces
population['Regions'] = population['Regions'].map(lambda x: x.strip())
economie['Regions'] = economie['Regions'].map(lambda x: x.strip())
population.merge(economie, on=['Periods','Regions'], how='inner')
```

# remove unnecessary columns

PV20

2002JJ00 11.4

		Regions	Periods	LiveBornChildrenRatio_3	GDPVolumeChanges_1	
(	0	PV20	1996JJ00	11.0	9.3	Then
-	1	PV20	1997JJ00	11.4	-2.0	
:	2	PV20	1998JJ00	11.6	-0.9	merge
;	3	PV20	1999JJ00	11.6	-0.7	
•	4	PV20	2000JJ00	11.5	1.5	
	5	PV20	2001JJ00	11.7	3.9	

2.1

# On what do you want to merge/join?

Standard behavior of.join(): on the row index (i.e., the row number, unless you changed it to sth else like a date)

```
df3 = df1.join(df2)
```

Working with pandas

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df3 = df1.join(df2)
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But that's only meaningful if the indices of df1 and df2 mean the same. Therefore you can also join on a column if both dfs have it:

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df3 = df1.merge(df2, on='Regions')
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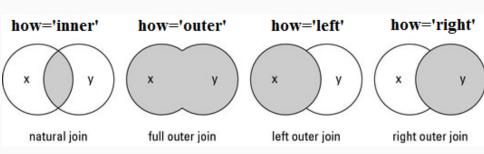
```
df3 = df1.merge(df2, on='Regions')
```

.merge() is the more powerful tool, .join() is a bit easier when joining ion indices.

# Inner, Outer, Left, and Right

Main question: What do you want to do with keys that exist only in one of the dataframes?

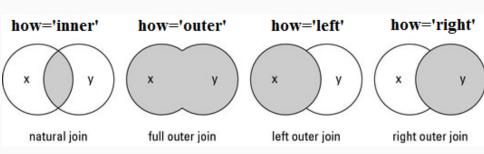
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Working with pandas

Grouping and aggregating

# An example

- Suppose you have two dataframes, both containing information on something per region per year.
- You want to merge (join) the two, however, in one of them, the information is also split up by age groups. You don't want that.
- How do you bring these rows back to one row? With .agg()!



- Very useful after a .groupby()
- Takes a function as argument: df2 = df.groupby('region').agg(sum)
- Or multiple functions:
   df2 = df.groupby('region').agg([sum, np.mean]
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Working with pandas

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Working with pandas

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# An example

```
import numpy as np

# get all descriptive statistics...

df.groupby("gender")['internet'].describe()

# ... or select specific aggregation functions
df.groupby("gender")['internet'].agg([np.mean, np.std])
```

Working with pandas

From wide to long

# Wide vs long datasets

# R-users know the long dataset also as "tidy" data

df <sub>.</sub>	df_wide.head(5)										
	Year	U.S.	Japan	Germany	France	U.K.	Italy	Canada	Australia	Spain	
0	1970	3.42	2.99	2.25	3.10	3.06	2.39	2.47	3.30	NaN	
1	1971	3.41	3.28	2.20	3.04	3.28	2.45	2.52	3.38	NaN	
2	1972	3.49	3.73	2.22	3.07	3.54	2.58	2.51	3.44	NaN	
3	1973	3.39	4.04	2.18	3.05	3.40	2.53	2.46	3.47	NaN	
4	1974	3.21	3.96	2.20	3.03	3.37	2.82	2.39	3.48	NaN	

df long.head(5)

	Year	country	capital
0	1970	U.S.	3.42
1	1971	U.S.	3.41
2	1972	U.S.	3.49
3	1973	U.S.	3.39
4	1974	U.S.	3.21

- The information that "U.S.", "Germany" etc. belong together (but not "Year") is nowhere encoded
- Hence, we cannot refer to the "country" for plotting
- The information what the cell entries mean is nowhere
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Wide data have an advantage, though: It's easier to interpret/read at a glance for humans.

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Working with pandas

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# Converting from wide to long

# We need to specify

- "identifier variables" that remain untouched (id\_vars)
- how the new variable in which the column names are to be placed is to be called (var\_name)
- how the new variable in which the cell entries are to be placed is to be called (value\_name)

# Converting from wide to long

## Opposite direction:

```
# note that there is just one value per country per year, so
# min, max, mean, sum... all lead to the same result in this case
# unstack flattens the hierarchical index (try without to see!)

df_wide =

df_long.groupby(['Year','country'])['capital'].agg(min).unstack()
```

Basics of plotting in Python

# Main libraries

matplotlib The workhorse and underlying basic of most of the following packages seaborn More fancy; compromise between Pythonic syntax and ggplot2-like approach

**plotnine** An attempt to implement R ggplot2 in Python

plotly Fancy plots, support interactivity

**bokeh** Powerful interactive visualizations

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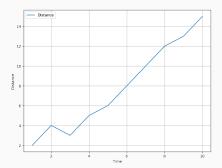
**plotly** Fancy plots, support interactivity

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You really should know matplotlib and seaborn (because they are so common), the rest is optional. For your final project, use whatever you want.

# Two interfaces to Matplotlib

# Two ways to produce this graph:



inspired by https://matplotlib.org/matplotblog/posts/pyplot-vs-object-oriented-interface/

# Matplotlib: Pyplot (MATLAB inspired interface)

(1) Building up the plot line-by-line

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
     x = [1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10]
     y = [2,4,3,5,6,8,10,12,13,15]
5
     plt.figure(figsize=(9,7), dpi=100)
     plt.plot(x,y)
     plt.xlabel("Time")
     plt.ylabel("Distance")
9
     plt.legend(["Distance"])
10
11
     plt.grid(True)
```

# Matplotlib: Object-oriented interface

# (2) Creating and modifying objects

```
fig, ax = plt.subplots()
                                   # <-- this is the important difference!!
     ax.set_ylabel("Distance")
     ax.set_xlabel("Time")
     ax.plot(x, y, "blue")
     ax.xaxis.grid()
     ax.yaxis.grid()
8
     fig.set_size_inches(9,7)
9
     fig.set_dpi(100)
10
```



Can you think of pros and cons?

# Matplotlib: Two interfaces

- You will find examples using both styles
- Pyplot: can be shorter/quicker/easier
- OO: because you get named objects, you can modify them/refer to them/etc:

# Matplotlib: Two interfaces

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- OO: because you get named objects, you can modify them/refer to them/etc:

"Also, the pyplot approach doesn't really scale when we are required to make multiple plots or when we have to make intricate plots that require a lot of customisation. However, internally matplotlib has an Object-Oriented interface that can be accessed just as easily, which allows to reuse objects."

https://matplotlib.org/matplotblog/posts/pyplot-vs-object-oriented-interface/

# Pandas and Plotting

Working with pandas

- As we have seen, we can directly plot from lists
- But if we have a dataframe *anyway*, we can:
  - use the build-in .plot() method to have pandas handle the (default: matplotlib) backend; or
  - use seaborn directly on the dataframe

# Let's look at https: //github.com/uvacw/teaching-bdaca/blob/ main/modules/basics/visualization.ipynb for a demonstration.



# Any questions?

# Make sure you understood all of today's concepts.

Re-read the chapters.

I prepared exercises to work on at home: https://github.com/uvacw/teaching-bdaca/tree/ main/6ec-course/week03/exercises-03-2

# References



McKinney, W. (2012). Python for data analysis. O'Reilly.