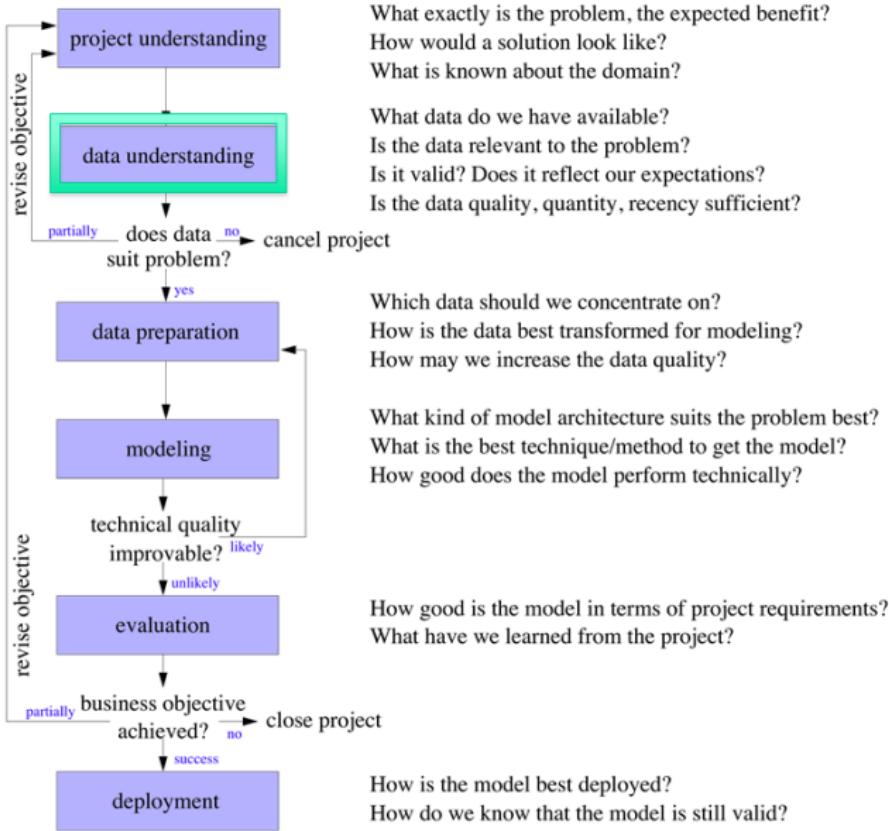


# Data Understanding



# Questions in Data Understanding

## Goal

Gain insight in your data

- ① with respect to your project goals
- ② and general

## Find answers to the questions

- ① What kind of attributes do we have?
- ② How is the data quality?
- ③ Does a visualization helps?
- ④ Are attributes correlated?
- ⑤ What about outliers?
- ⑥ How are missing values handled?

# Attribute understanding

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We (often) assume that the data set is provided in the form of a simple table.

	attribute <sub>1</sub>	...	attribute <sub>m</sub>
record <sub>1</sub>			
:			
record <sub>n</sub>			

- The rows of the table are called **instances**, **records** or **data objects**.
- The columns of the table are called **attributes**, **features** or **variables**.

# Types of attributes

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categorical (nominal): finite domain

The values of a categorical attribute are often called **classes** or **categories**.

**Examples:** {female,male}, {ordered,sent,received}

ordinal: finite domain with a linear ordering on the domain.

**Examples:** {B.Sc.,M.Sc.,Ph.D.}

numerical: values are numbers.

discrete: categorical attribute or numerical attribute whose domain is a subset of the integer number.

continuous: numerical attribute with values in the real numbers or in an interval

Low data quality makes it impossible to trust analysis results: “Garbage in, garbage out”

Accuracy: Closeness between the value in the data and the true value.

- Reason of low accuracy of numerical attributes: noisy measurements, limited precision, wrong measurements, transposition of digits (when entered manually).
- Reason of low accuracy of categorical attributes: erroneous entries, typos.

**Syntactic accuracy** : Entry is not in the domain.

Examples: female in gender, text in numerical attributes, ...  
Can be checked quite easy.

**Semantic accuracy** : Entry is in the domain but not correct.

Example: John Smith is female

Needs more information to be checked (e.g. "business rules").

**Completeness** : is violated if an entry is not correct although it belongs to the domain of the attribute.

Example: Complete records are missing, the data is biased  
(A bank has rejected customers with low income.)

**Unbalanced data**: The data set might be biased extremely to one type of records.

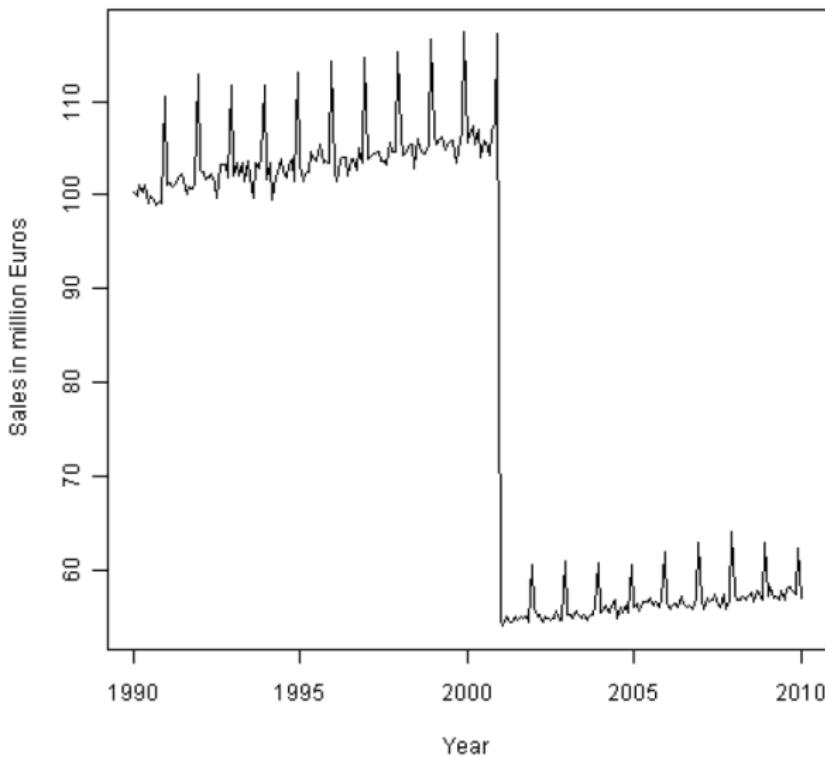
Example: Defective goods are a very small fraction of all.

**Timeliness**: Is the available data up to date?

# Data visualisation

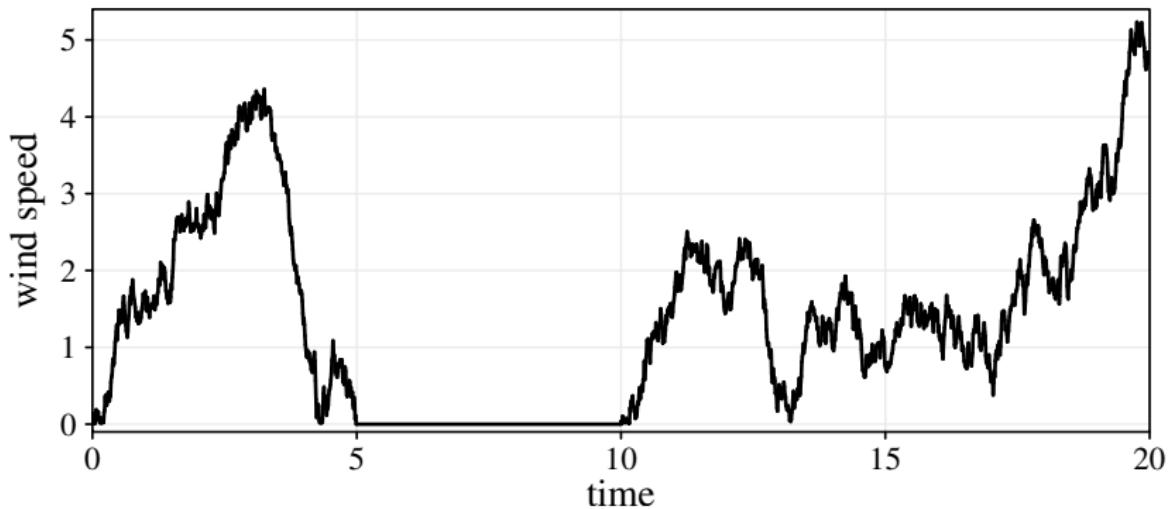
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Tukey: There is no excuse for failing to plot and look.



# Hidden missing values

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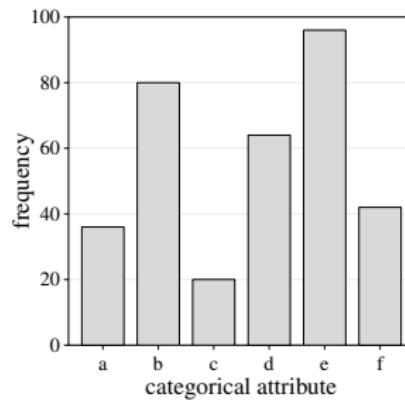


The zero values might come from a broken or blocked sensor and might be considered as missing values.

# Bar charts

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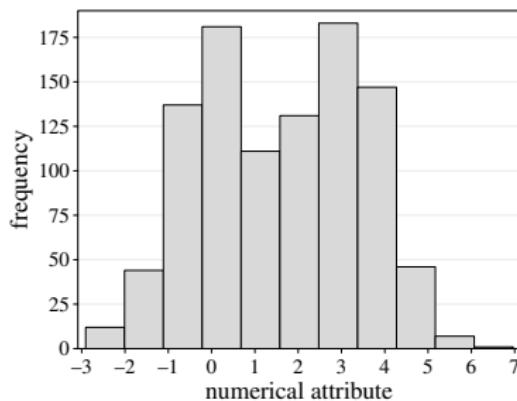
A **bar chart** is a simple way to depict the frequencies of the values of a categorical attribute.



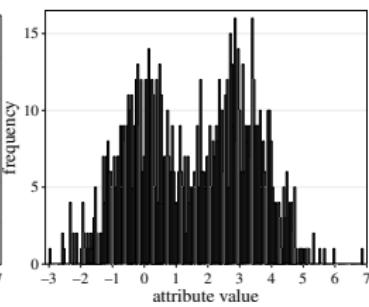
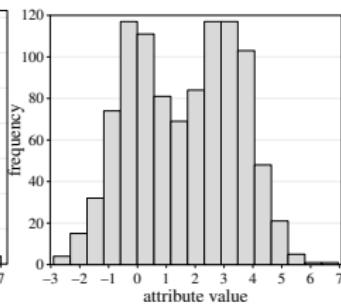
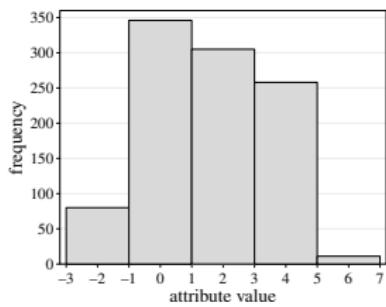
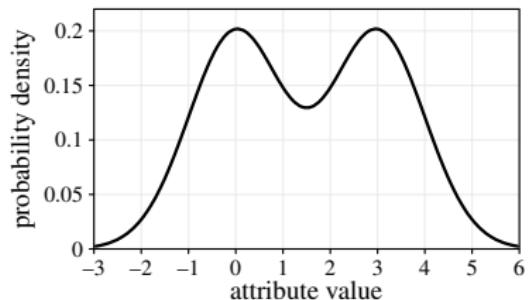
# Histograms

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A **histogram** shows the frequency distribution for a numerical attribute. The range of the numerical attribute is discretized into a fixed number of intervals (called **bins**), usually of equal length. For each interval the (absolute) frequency of values falling into it is indicated by the height of a bar.



# Histograms: Number of bins



Three histograms with 5, 17 and 200 bins for a sample from the same bimodal distribution.

# Histograms: Number of bins

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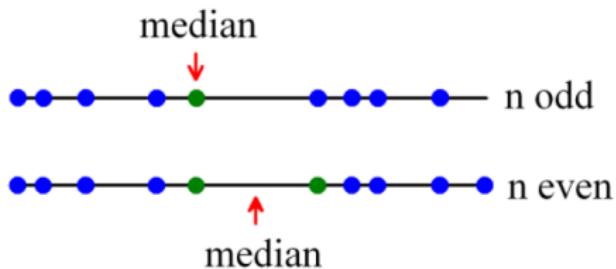
Number of bins according to Sturges' rule:

$$k = \lceil \log_2(n) + 1 \rceil$$

where  $n$  is the sample size.

(Sturges' rule is suitable for data from normal distributions and from data sets of moderate size.)

## Reminder: Median, quantiles, quartiles, interquartile range



Median: The value in the middle (for the values given in increasing order).

$q\%$ -quantile ( $0 < q < 100$ ): The value for which  $q\%$  of the values are smaller and  $100-q\%$  are larger.  
The median is the  $50\%$ -quantile.

Quartiles:  $25\%$ -quantile (1st quartile), median (2nd quartile),  
 $75\%$ -quantile (3rd quartile).

Interquartile range (IQR): 3rd quartile - 1st quartile.

## Example data set: Iris data

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iris setosa



iris versicolor



iris virginica

- collected by E. Anderson in 1935
- contains measurements of four real-valued variables:
- sepal length, sepal widths, petal lengths and petal width of 150 iris flowers of types Iris Setosa, Iris Versicolor, Iris Virginica (50 each)
- The fifth attribute is the name of the flower type.

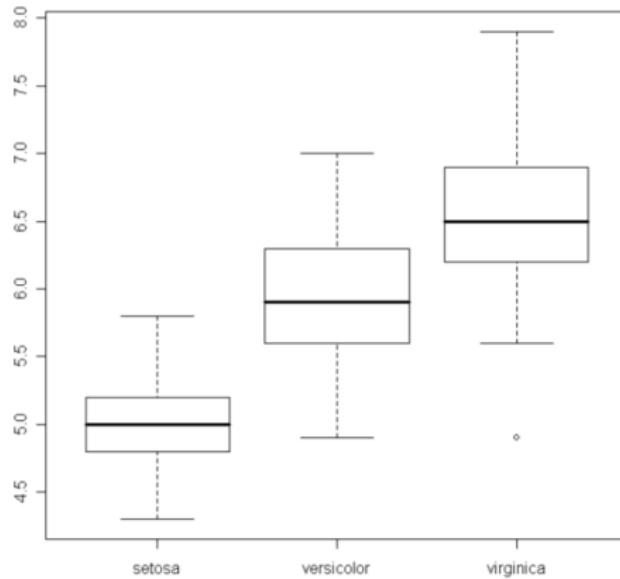
# Example data set: Iris data

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Sepal Length	Sepal Width	Petal Length	Petal Width	Species
5.1	3.5	1.4	0.2	Iris-setosa
...				
...				
5.0	3.3	1.4	0.2	Iris-setosa
7.0	3.2	4.7	1.4	Iris-versicolor
...				
...				
5.1	2.5	3.0	1.1	Iris-versicolor
5.7	2.8	4.1	1.3	Iris-versicolor
...				
...				
5.9	3.0	5.1	1.8	Iris-virginica

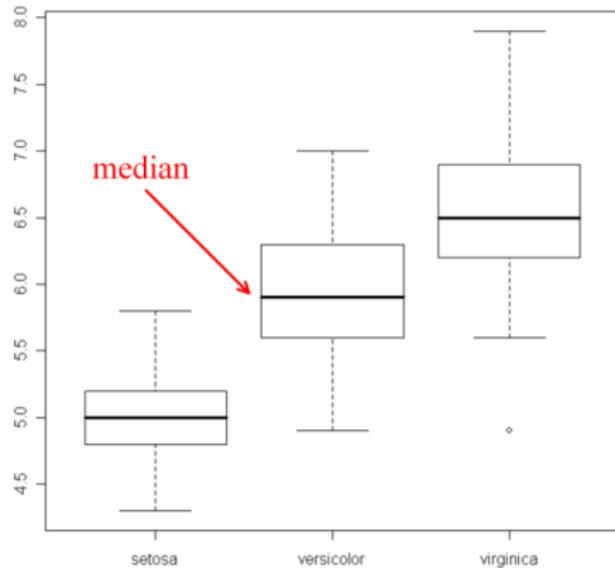
# Boxplots

---



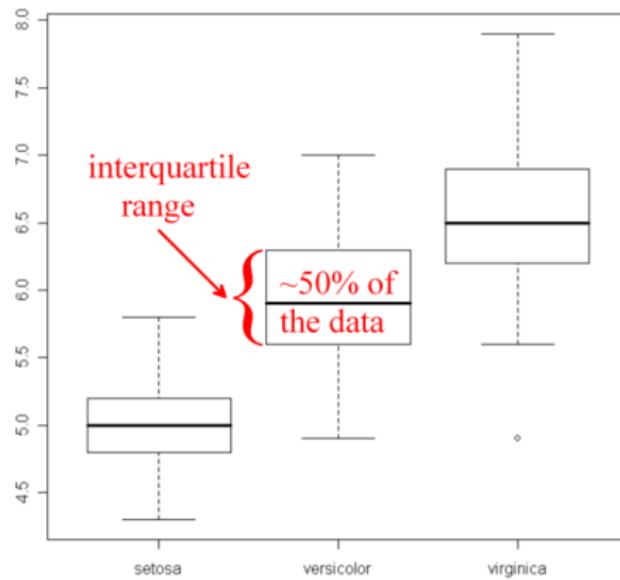
# Boxplots

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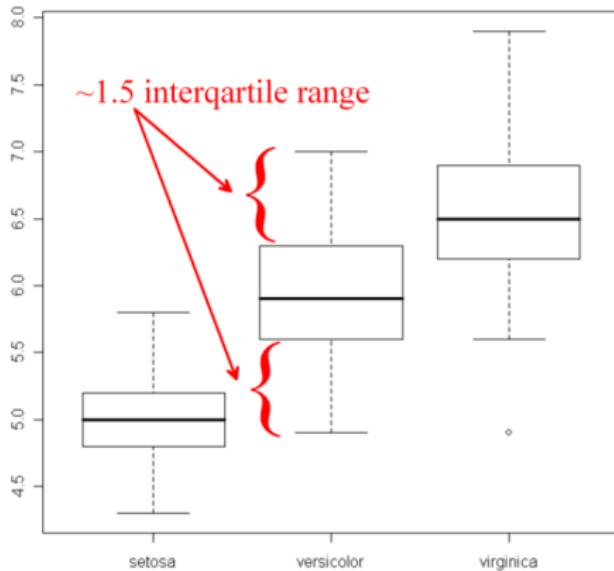
# Boxplots

---



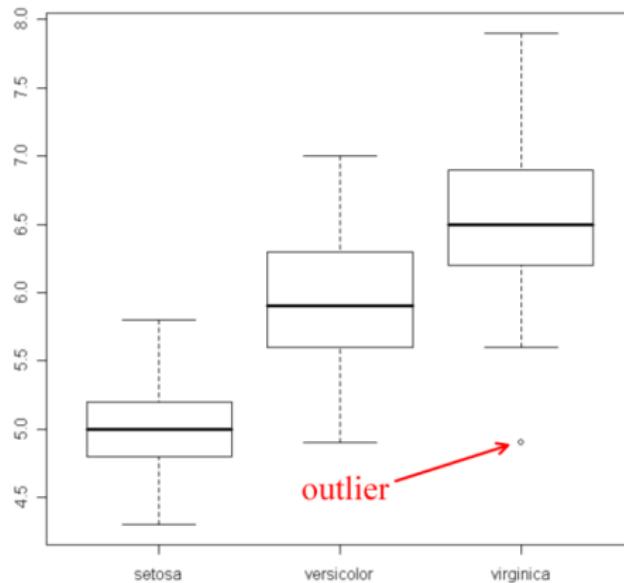
# Boxplots

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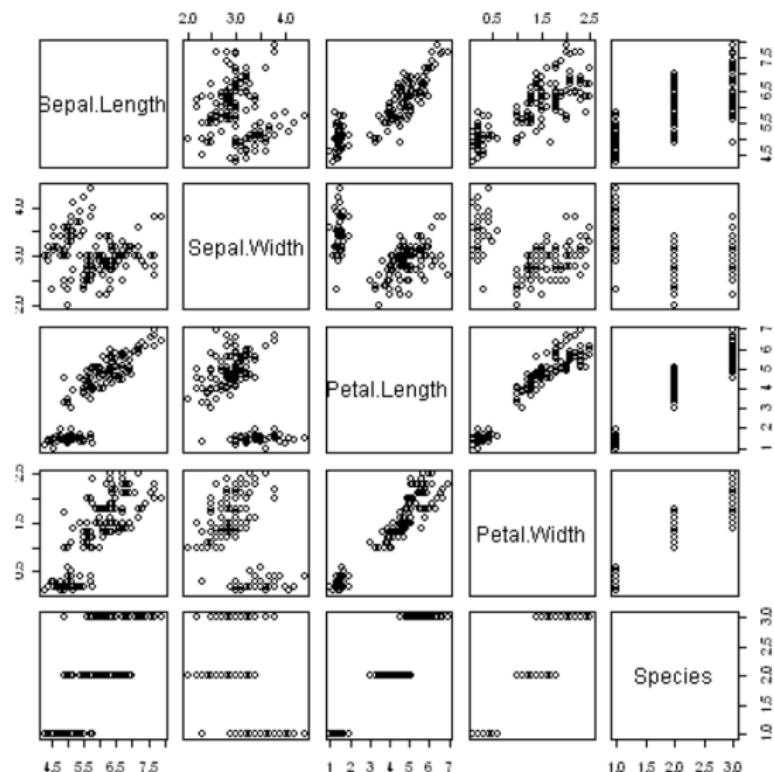
# Boxplots

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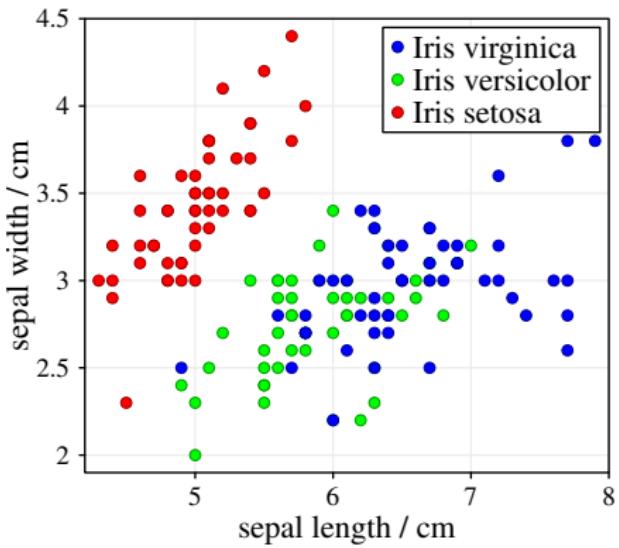
# Scatter plots

Scatter plots visualize two variables in a two-dimensional plot.  
Each axes corresponds to one variable.



# Scatter plots

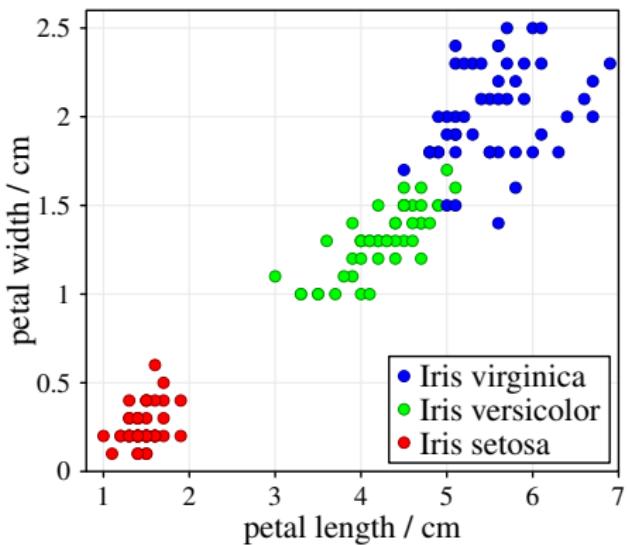
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Scatter plots can be enriched with additional information: Colour or different symbols to incorporate a third attribute in the scatter plot.

# Scatter plots

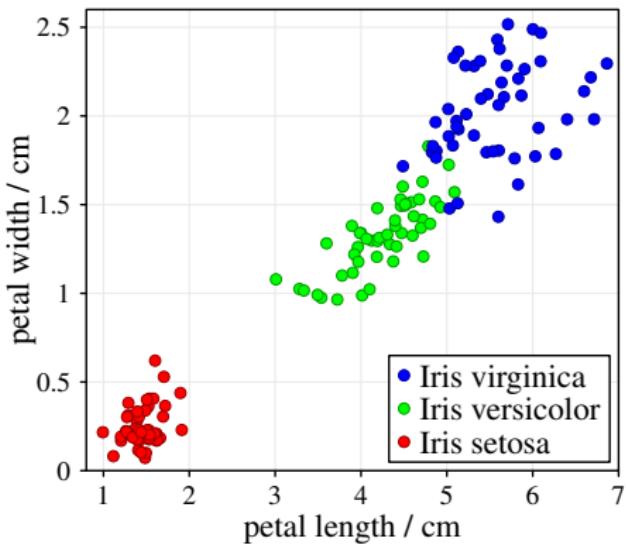
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The two attributes petal length and width provide a better separation of the classes Iris versicolor and Iris virginica than the sepal length and width.

# Scatter plots

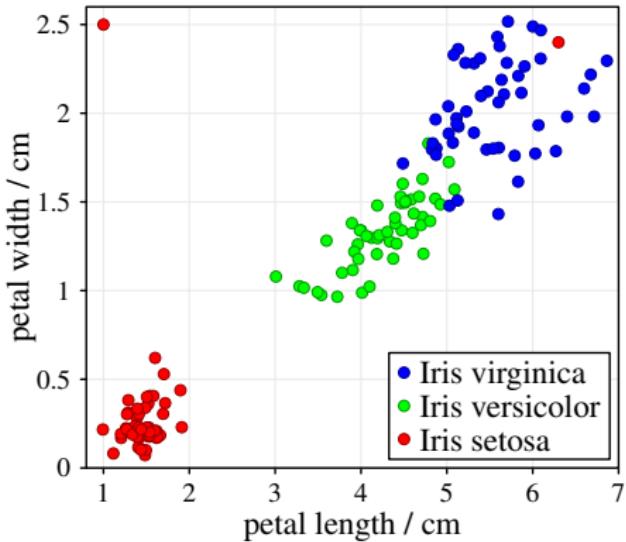
---



Data objects with the same values cannot be distinguished in a scatter plot. To avoid this effect, jitter is used, i.e. before plotting the points, small random values are added to the coordinates. Jitter is essential for categorical attributes.

# Scatter plots

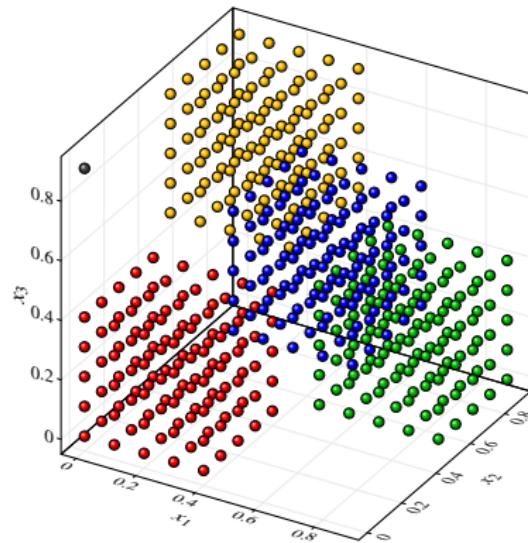
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The Iris data set with two (additional artificial) outliers. One is an outlier for the whole data set, one for the class Iris setosa.

# 3D scatter plots

For data sets of moderate size, scatter plots can be extended to three dimensions.



A 3D scatter plot of an artificial data set filling a cube in a chessboard-like manner with one outlier.

## Fact :

We do have only 2-3 dimension for plotting data. (Third, e.g. colour)

## Principle approach for incorporating all attributes in a plot:

- Preserve as much of the “structure” .
- Define a measure that evaluates lower-dimensional representations (plots) of the data in terms of how well a representation preserves the original “structure” of the high-dimensional data set.
- Find the representation (plot) that gives the best value for the defined measure.

There is no unique measure for “structure” preservation.

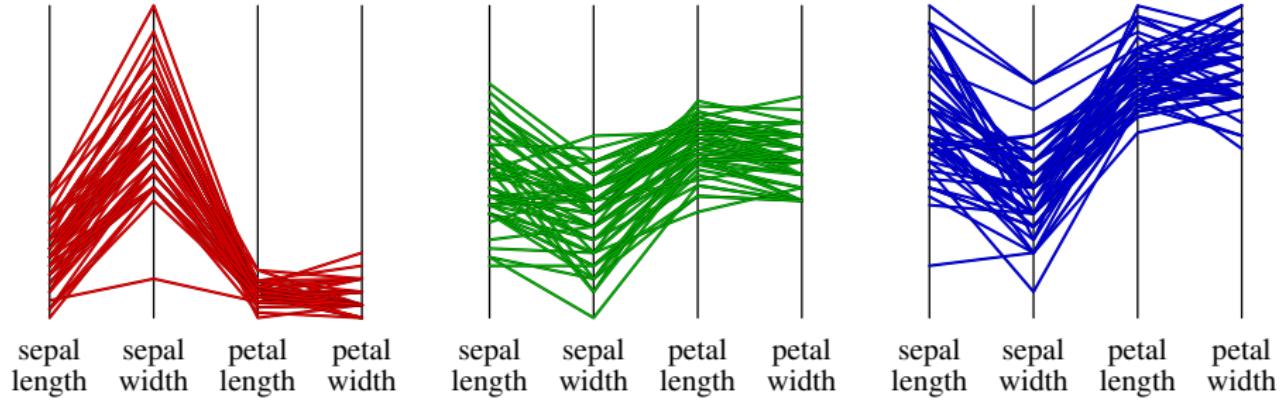
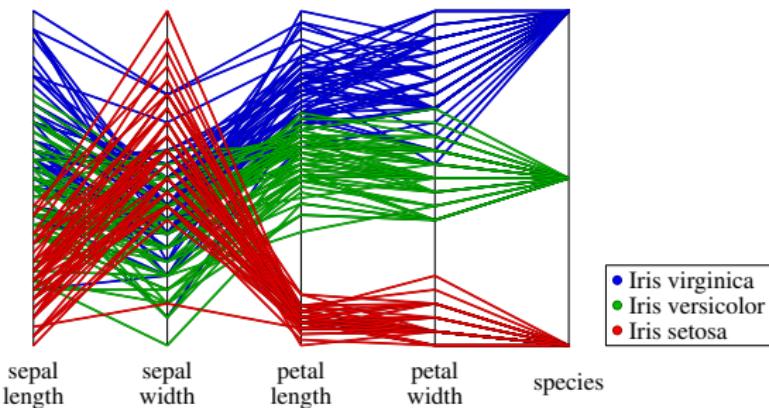
Two very popular are : PCA and MDS.

- When visualisations reveal patterns or exceptions, then there is “something” in the data set.
- When visualisations do not indicate anything specific, there might still be patterns or structures in the data that cannot be revealed by the corresponding (simple) visualisation techniques.

Parallel coordinates draw the coordinate axes parallel to each other, so that there is no limitation for the number of axes to be displayed.

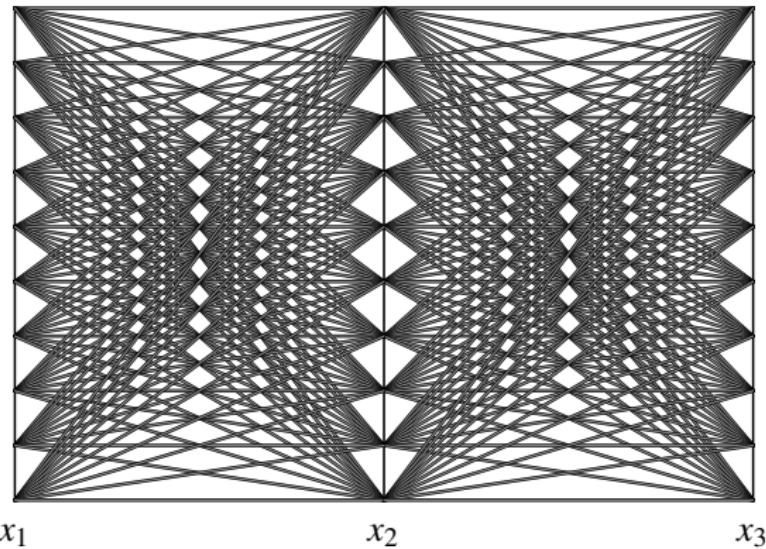
For a data object, a polyline is drawn connecting the values of the data object for the attributes on the corresponding axes.

# Parallel coordinates: Iris data



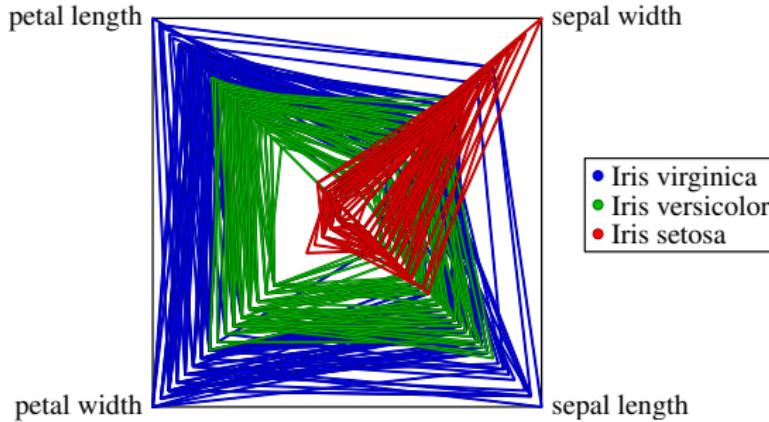
# Parallel coordinates: “Cube data”

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# Radar plots

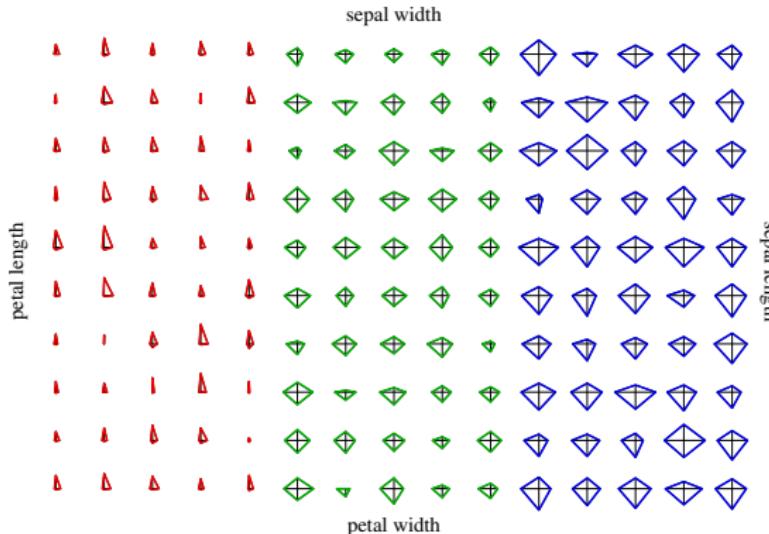
Radar plots are based on a similar idea as parallel coordinates with the difference that the coordinate axes are drawn as parallel lines, but in a star-like fashion intersecting in one point.



Radar plot for the Iris data set

# Star plots

Star plots are the same as radar plots where each data object is drawn separately.



Star plot for the Iris data set

How can the similar behaviour of two attributes be proved?

- Pearson's correlation coefficient
- Spearman's rank correlation coefficient (Spearman's rho)
- more in the book ...

# Pearson's correlation coefficient

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The (sample) Pearson's correlation coefficient is a measure for a **linear relationship** between two **numerical** attributes  $X$  and  $Y$  and is defined as

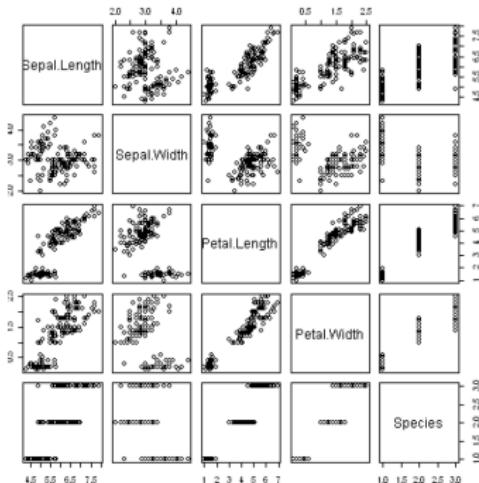
$$r_{xy} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{(n - 1)s_x s_y}$$

where  $\bar{x}$  and  $\bar{y}$  are the mean values of the attributes  $X$  and  $Y$ , respectively.  $s_x$  and  $s_y$  are the corresponding (sample) standard deviations.

- $-1 \leq r_{xy} \leq 1$
- The larger the absolute value of the Pearson correlation coefficient, the stronger the linear relationship between the two attributes.  
For  $|r_{xy}| = 1$  the values of  $X$  and  $Y$  lie exactly on a line.
- Positive (negative) correlation indicates a line with positive (negative) slope.

# Pearson's correlation coefficient: Iris data set

Pearson's correlation coefficient measures linear correlation.



In case the functional dependency between two attributes is nonlinear but monotone, Pearson's correlation coefficient will not be  $-1$  or  $1$ .

	sepal length	sepal width	petal length	petal width
sepal length	1.000	-0.118	0.872	0.818
sepal width	-0.118	1.000	-0.428	-0.366
petal length	0.872	-0.428	1.000	0.963
petal width	0.818	-0.366	0.963	1.000

# Spearman's rank correlation coefficient (Spearman's rho)

- Rank Correlations ignore the exact numerical values of the attributes and consider only the values ordering!
- The goal is to measure monotonous correlations between attributes where the monotonous function does not have to be linear.

Spearman's rank correlation coefficient (Spearman's rho) is defined as

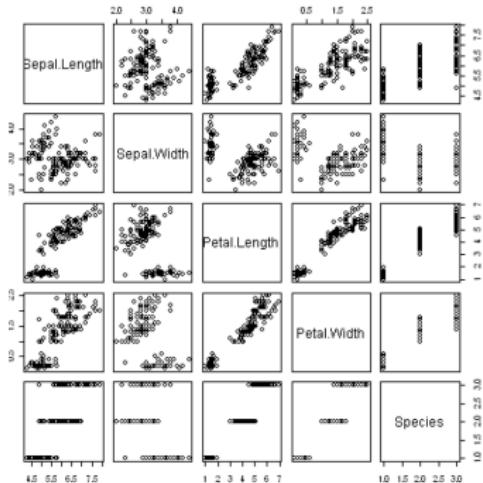
$$\rho = 1 - 6 \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (r(x_i) - r(y_i))^2}{n(n^2 - 1)},$$

where  $r(x_i)$  is the rank of value  $x_i$  when we sort the list  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  in increasing order.  $r(y_i)$  is defined analogously.

- When the rankings of the  $x$ - and  $y$ -values are exactly in the same order, Spearman's rho will yield the value 1.
- If they are in reverse order, we will obtain the value  $-1$ .

# Spearman's rho: Iris data set

---



	sepal length	sepal width	petal length	petal width
sepal length	1.000	-0.167	0.882	0.834
sepal width	-0.167	1.000	-0.289	-0.289
petal length	0.882	-0.289	1.000	0.938
petal width	0.834	-0.289	0.938	1.000

An **outlier** is a value or data object that is far away or very different from all or most of the other data.

Causes for outliers:

- Data quality problems (erroneous data coming from wrong measurements or typing mistakes)
  - Exceptional or unusual situations/data objects.
- 
- Outliers coming from erroneous data should be excluded from the analysis.
  - Even if the outliers are correct (exceptional data), it is sometime useful to exclude them from the analysis.  
For example, a single extremely large outlier can lead to completely misleading values for the mean value.

**Categorical attributes:** An outlier is a value that occurs with a frequency extremely lower than the frequency of all other values.

**Numerical attributes:**

- Outliers in boxplots.
- Statistical tests

- Scatter plots for (visually detecting) outliers w.r.t. two attributes.
- PCA or MDS plots for (visually detecting) outliers.
- Cluster analysis techniques: Outliers are those points which cannot be assigned to any cluster.

# Missing values

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For some instances values of single attributes might be missing.

Causes for missing values:

- broken sensors
- refusal to answer a question
- irrelevant attribute for the corresponding object  
(pregnant (yes/no) for men)

Missing value might not necessarily be indicated as missing (instead: zero or default values).

# Types of missing values

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Consider the attribute  $X_{\text{obs}}$ . A missing value is denoted by ?.  $X$  is the true value, i.e. we have  $X_{\text{obs}} = X$ , if  $X_{\text{obs}} \neq ?$  Let  $Y$  be all other attributes apart from  $X$ .

- **Missing completely at random (MCAR):** The probability that a value for  $X$  is missing does neither depend on the true value of  $X$  nor on other variables.

$$P(X_{\text{obs}} = ?) = P(X_{\text{obs}} = ? \mid X, Y)$$

- **Missing at random (MAR):** The probability that a value for  $X$  is missing does not depend on the true value of  $X$ .

$$P(X_{\text{obs}} = ? \mid Y) = P(X_{\text{obs}} = ? \mid X, Y)$$

- **Nonignorable:** The probability that a value for  $X$  is missing depends on the true value of  $X$ .

# A checklist for data understanding

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- Determine the quality of the data. (e.g. syntactic accuracy)
- Find outliers. (e.g. using visualization techniques)
- Detect and examine missing values. Possible hidden by default values.
- Discover new or confirm expected dependencies or correlations between attributes.
- Check specific application dependent assumptions (e.g. the attribute follows a normal distribution)
- Compare statistics with the expected behavior.

# A checklist for data understanding: Must Do

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- Check the **distributions for each attribute**  
(unexpected properties like outliers, correct domains, correct medians)
- Check **correlations or dependencies** between pairs of attributes