Statistics 202: Statistical Aspects of Data Mining

Professor David Mease

Tuesday, Thursday 9:00-10:15 AM Terman 156

Lecture 3 = More of chapter 2

<u>Agenda:</u>

1) Lecture over more of chapter 2

Homework Assignment:

Chapters 1 and 2 homework is due Tuesday 7/10

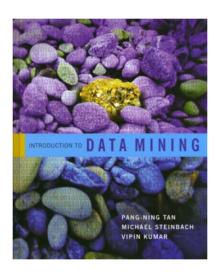
Either email to me (dmease@stanford.edu), bring it to class, or put it under my office door.

SCPD students may use email or fax or mail.

The assignment is posted at http://www.stats202.com/homework.html

Introduction to Data Mining

by Tan, Steinbach, Kumar



Chapter 2: Data

What is Data?

Attributes

- •An attribute is a property or characteristic of an object
- Examples: eye color of a person, temperature, etc.
- Attribute is also known as variable, field, characteristic, or feature

	1)
	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
Objects	5	No	Divorced	95K	Yes
	6	No	Married	60K	No
	7	Yes	Divorced	220K	No
riable,	8	No	Single	85K	Yes
·······································	9	No	Married	75K	No
	10	No	Single	90K	Yes

- A collection of attributes describe an object
- Object is also known as record, point, case, sample, entity, instance, or observation

Types of Attributes:

Qualitative vs. Quantitative (P. 26)

•Qualitative (or Categorical) attributes represent distinct categories rather than numbers. Mathematical operations such as addition and subtraction do not make sense. Examples:

eye color, letter grade, IP address, zip code

•Quantitative (or Numeric) attributes are numbers and can be treated as such. Examples:

weight, failures per hour, number of TVs, temperature

Types of Attributes (P. 25):

•All Qualitative (or Categorical) attributes are either Nominal or Ordinal.

Nominal = categories with no order Ordinal = categories with a meaningful order

•All Quantitative (or Numeric) attributes are either Interval or Ratio.

Interval = no "true" zero, division makes no sense Ratio = true zero exists, division makes sense

Types of Attributes:

- Some examples:
 - -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, GRE score
 - -Ratio
 - Examples: temperature in Kelvin, length, time, counts

Properties of Attribute Values

 The type of an attribute depends on which of the following properties it possesses:

```
    Distinctness: = ≠
    Order: < >
    Addition: + -
    Multiplication: * /
```

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

Discrete vs. Continuous (P. 28)

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 which have only 2 values

Continuous Attribute

- -Has real numbers as attribute values
- -Can compute as accurately as instruments allow
- -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



Discrete vs. Continuous (P. 28)

Qualitative (categorical) attributes are always discrete

Quantitative (numeric) attributes can be either discrete or continuous

In class exercise #3:

Classify the following attributes as binary, discrete, or continuous. Also classify them as qualitative (nominal or ordinal) or quantitative (interval or ratio). Some cases may have more than one interpretation, so briefly indicate your reasoning if you think there may be some ambiguity.

- a) Number of telephones in your house
- b) Size of French Fries (Medium or Large or X-Large)
- c) Ownership of a cell phone
- d) Number of local phone calls you made in a month
- e) Length of longest phone call
- f) Length of your foot
- g) Price of your textbook
- h) Zip code
- i) Temperature in degrees Fahrenheit
- j) Temperature in degrees Celsius
- k) Temperature in Kelvins

 R often distinguishes between qualitative (categorical) attributes and quantitative (numeric)

●In R,

qualitative (categorical) = "factor"

quantitative (numeric) = "numeric"

•For example, the IP address in the first column of www.stats202.com/stats202log.txt is a factor

- > is.factor(data[,1])
 [1] TRUE
 > data[,1]+10
 [1] NA NA NA NA NA NA NA NA ...
- Warning message:
- + not meaningful for factors ...

•However, the 8th column looks like it should be numeric. Why is it not? How do we fix this?

```
> data[,8]

[1] 2867 4583 2295 2867 4583 2295 1379 2294 4432 7134 2296 2297 3219968 1379 2294 4432 7134 2293 2297 2294

...

[1901] 2294 4432 7134 2294 4432 7134 2294 2867 4583 2295 2294 4432 7134 2294 4432 7134 2294 2294 2294

Levels: - 1135151 122890 1379 1510 2290 2293 2294 2295 2296 2297 2309 238 241 246 248 250 2725487 280535 2867 3072 3219968 4432 4583 626 7134 7482

> is.factor(data[,8])

[1] TRUE

> is.numeric(data[,8])

[1] FALSE
```

• A: We should have told R that "-" means missing when we read it in.

•Q: How would we create an attribute giving the following zip codes 94550, 00123, 43614 for three observations in R?

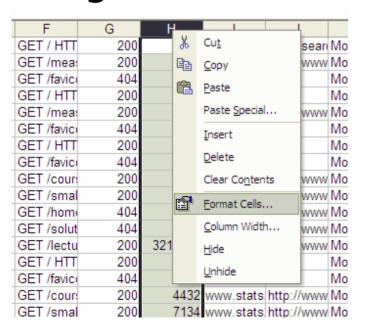
•Q: How would we create an attribute giving the following zip codes 94550, 00123, 43614 for three observations in R?

A: Use quotes:

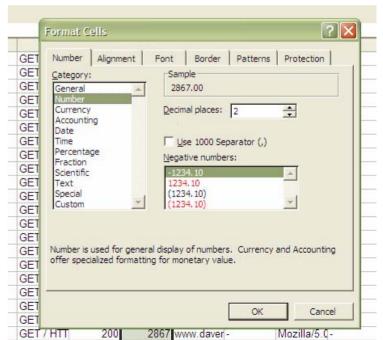
```
> zip_codes<-
    as.factor(c("94550","00123","43614"))</pre>
```

Types of Data in Excel

- Excel is not quite as picky and allows you to mix types more
- Also, you can change between a lot of different predefined formats in Excel by right clicking a column and then selecting "Format Cells" and looking under the "Number" tab





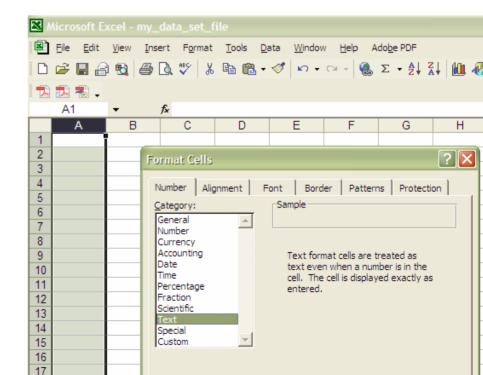


Types of Data in Excel

• Q: How would we create an attribute giving the following zip codes 94550, 00123, 43614 for three observations in Excel?

Types of Data in Excel

- Q: How would we create an attribute giving the following zip codes 94550, 00123, 43614 for three observations in Excel?
- •A: Right click on the column then choose "Format Cells" then under the "Number" tab select "Text"



Creating Data:

> length(aa)

[1] 3

```
> aa
[1] 1 10 12
Some simple operations:
> aa+10
[1] 11 20 22
```

Creating More Data:

```
> bb < -c(2,6,79)
> my_data set<-
data.frame(attributeA=aa,attributeB=bb)
> my_data_set
  attributeA attributeB
           10
                      79
```

Indexing Data:

> my_data_set[,1]

```
[1] 1 10 12
> my_data_set[1,]
  attributeA attributeB
> my_data_set[3,2]
[1] 79
> my_data_set[1:2,]
  attributeA attributeB
```

Indexing Data:

Arithmetic:

```
> aa/bb
[1] 0.5000000 1.6666667 0.1518987
```

Summary Statistics:

```
> mean(my_data_set[,1])
[1] 7.666667
> median(my_data_set[,1])
[1] 10
> sqrt(var(my_data_set[,1]))
[1] 5.859465
```

Writing Data:

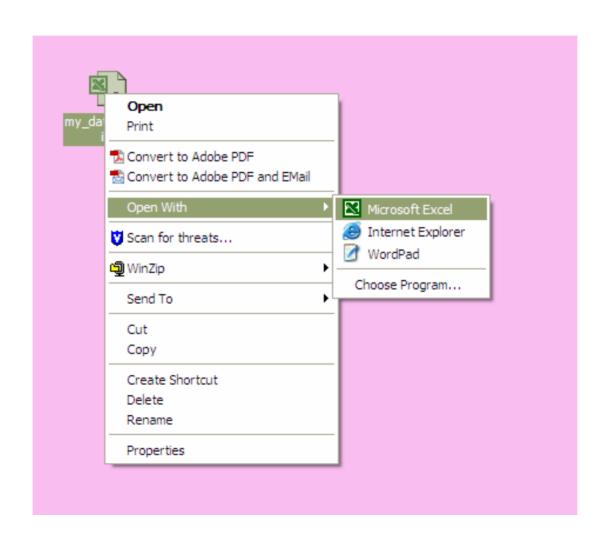
- > setwd("C:/Documents and
 Settings/Administrator/Desktop")
- > write.csv(my_data_set,"my_data_set_file.csv")

Help!:

> ?write.csv

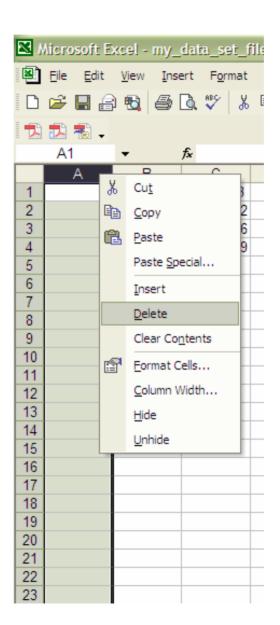


Reading in Data:

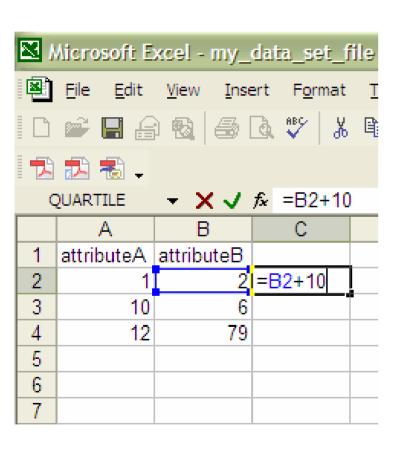


Deleting a Column:

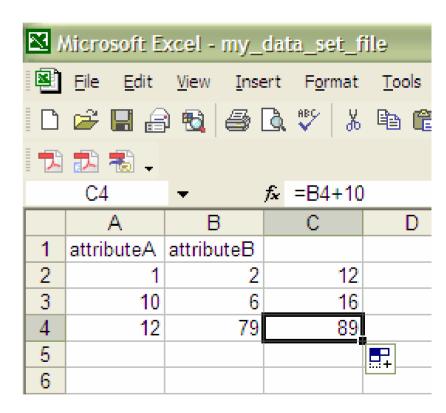
(right click)



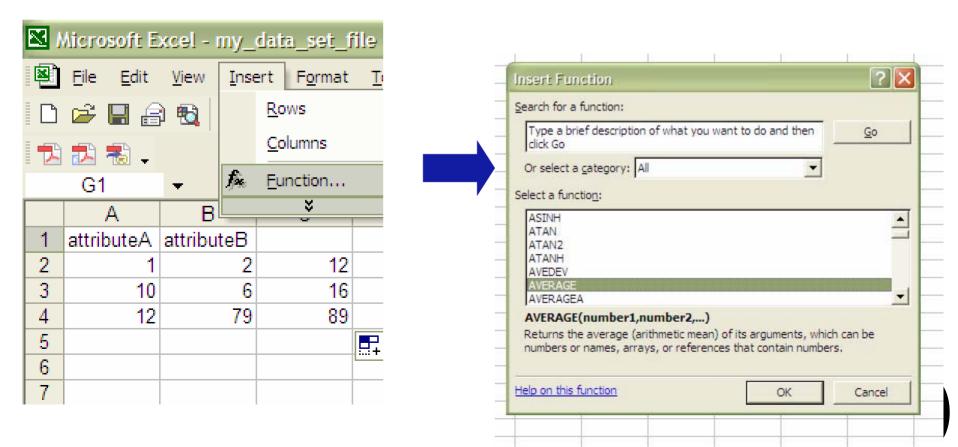
Arithmetic:



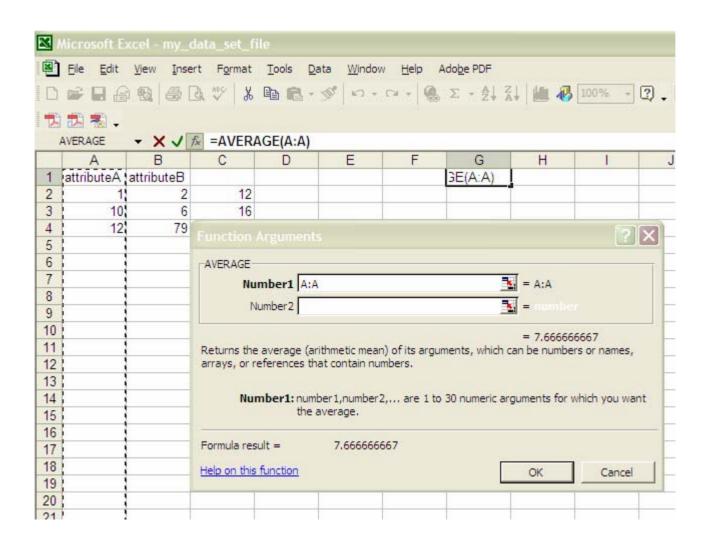




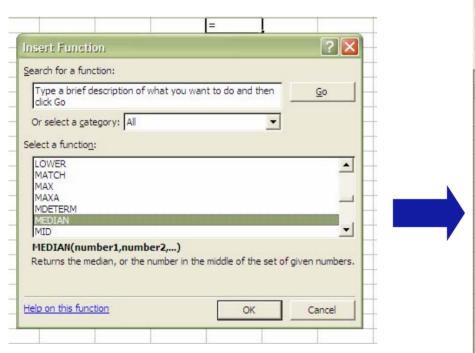
Summary Statistics: Use "Insert" then "Function" then "All" or "Statistical" to find an alphabetical list of functions

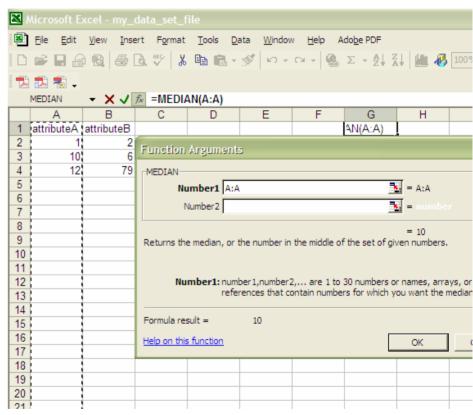


Summary Statistics: (Average)

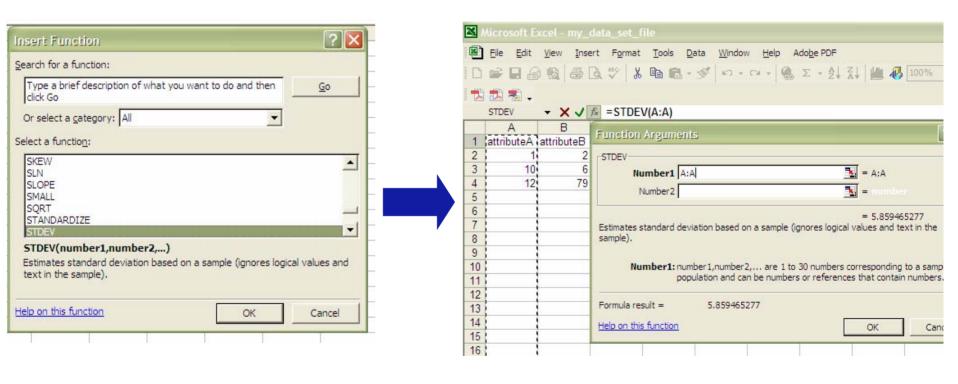


Summary Statistics: (Median)





Summary Statistics: (Standard Deviation)



Sampling (P.47)

- •Sampling involves using only a random subset of the data for analysis
- •Statisticians are interested in sampling because they often can not get all the data from a *population* of interest
- Data miners are interested in sampling because sometimes using all the data they have is too slow and unnecessary

Sampling (P.47)

The key principle for effective sampling is the following:

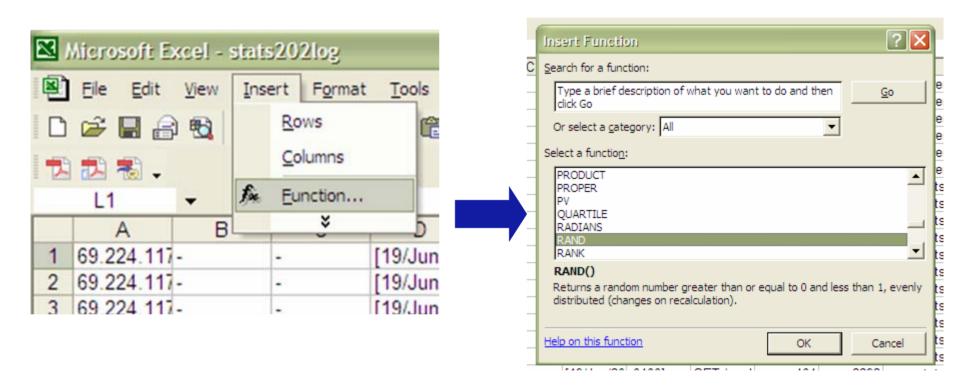
-using a sample will work almost as well as using the entire data sets, if the sample is representative

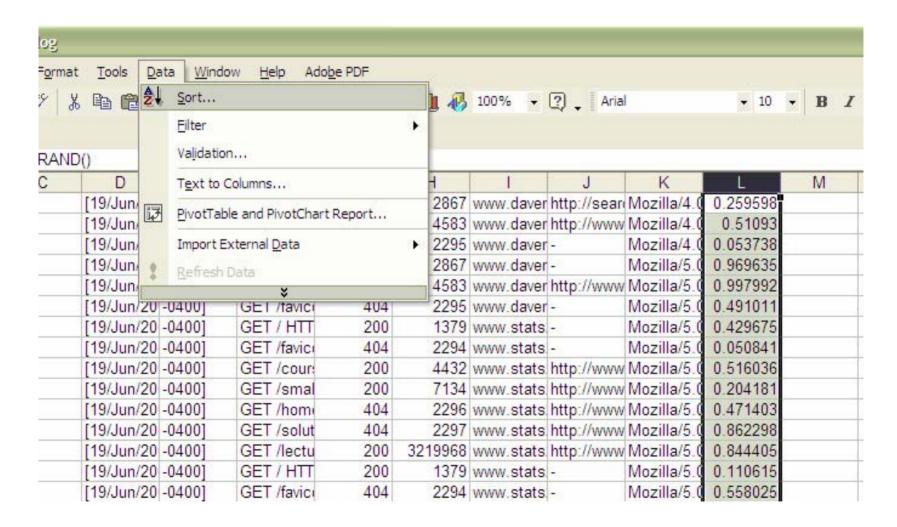
-a sample is representative if it has approximately the same property (of interest) as the original set of data

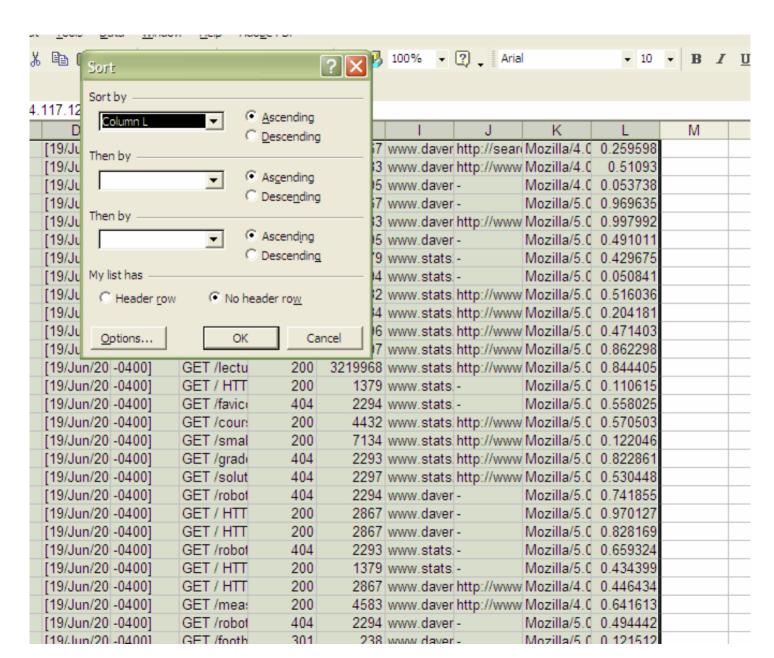
Sampling (P.47)

- •The <u>simple random sample</u> is the most common and basic type of sample
- In a simple random sample every item has the same probability of inclusion and every sample of the fixed size has the same probability of selection
- •It is the standard "names out of a hat"
- •It can be with replacement (=items can be chosen more than once) or without replacement (=items can be chosen only once)
- More complex schemes exist (examples: stratified sampling, cluster sampling, Latin hypercube sampling)

- The function rand() is useful.
- But watch out, this is one of the worst random number generators out there.
- •To draw a sample in Excel without replacement, use rand() to make a new column of random numbers between 0 and 1.
- •Then, sort on this column and take the first *n*, where *n* is the desired sample size.
- Sorting is done in Excel by selecting "Sort" from the "Data" menu







Sampling in R:

•The function sample() is useful.

```
sample(base)
                                                Random Samples and Permutations
Description
sample takes a sample of the specified size from the elements of x using either with or without replacement.
Usage
sample(x, size, replace = FALSE, prob = NULL)
Arguments
х
         Either a (numeric, complex, character or logical) vector of more than one element from which to choose, or a positive integer.
size
         non-negative integer giving the number of items to choose.
replace Should sampling be with replacement?
         A vector of probability weights for obtaining the elements of the vector being sampled.
prob
Details
```

In class exercise #4:

Explain how to use R to draw a sample of 10 observations with replacement from the first quantitative attribute in the data set www.stats202.com/stats202log.txt.

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Explain how to use R to draw a sample of 10 observations with replacement from the first quantitative attribute in the data set www.stats202.com/stats202log.txt.

Answer:

- > sam<-sample(seq(1,1922),10,replace=T)
- > my_sample<-data\$V7[sam]</pre>

In class exercise #5:

If you do the sampling in the previous exercise repeatedly, roughly how far is the mean of the sample from the mean of the whole column on average?

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If you do the sampling in the previous exercise repeatedly, roughly how far is the mean of the sample from the mean of the whole column on average?

Answer: about 26

```
> real mean<-mean(data$V7)</pre>
> store diff<-rep(0,10000)</pre>
>
 for (k in 1:10000){
    sam<-sample(seq(1,1922),10,replace=T)</pre>
    my sample<-data$V7[sam]</pre>
    store_diff[k]<-abs(mean(my_sample)-real_mean)</pre>
> mean(store diff)
[1] 25.75126
```

In class exercise #6:

If you change the sample size from 10 to 100, how does your answer to the previous question change?

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If you change the sample size from 10 to 100, how does your answer to the previous question change?

Answer: It becomes about 8.1

> mean(store_diff)

[1] 8.126843

The square root sampling relationship:

- •When you take samples, the differences between the sample values and the value using the entire data set scale as the square root of the sample size for many statistics such as the mean.
- •For example, in the previous exercises we decreased our *sampling error* by a factor of the square root of 10 (=3.2) by increasing the sample size from 10 to 100 since 100/10=10. This can be observed by noting 26/8.1=3.2.
- •Note: It is only the sizes of the samples that matter, and not the size of the whole data set (the population) since this relationship assumes an infinitely large population.

Sampling (P.47)

- •Sampling can be tricky or ineffective when the data has a more complex structure than simply independent observations.
- •For example, here is a "sample" of words from a song. Most of the information is lost.

```
I played
I played
game
baby
I'm
sent
that
```

Sampling (P.47)

- •Sampling can be tricky or ineffective when the data has a more complex structure than simply independent observations.
- •For example, here is a "sample" of words from a song. Most of the information is lost.

oops I did it again
I played with your heart
got lost in the game
oh baby baby
oops! ...you think I'm
that I'm sent from above
I'm not that innocent