## INTRODUCTION TO dATA SCIENCE

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Lecture \#10 - 09/30/2021
CMSC320
Tuesdays \& Thursdays
5:00pm - 6:15pm
https://cmsc320.github.io/


## THE DATA LIFECYCLE



## EXPLORATORY DATA ANALYSIS

## Seen so far:

- Manipulations that prepare datasets into tidy form
- Join tables and compute summaries
- Form relationships between different entities

EDA is the last step before Big Time Statistics and ML ${ }^{T M}$ :

- Want to quickly "get a feel" for the data through summary statistics, visualization, et cetera
- Spot nuances like skew, how distributed the data is, trends, how pairs of variables interact, problems
- Suggests which Stats/ML assumptions to make and approaches to take


## NEXT WEEK'S LESSON

## Having a really big sample doesn't guarantee an accurate result.

It may assure you of a really solid, really bad (inaccurate) result.

Not all randomness is create equal when it comes to random sampling of a population:

- Ask why data are missing! MCAR, MAR, MNAR.
- Ask how the data were collected.


## TODAY'S LESSON: SUMMARY STATISTICS

Part of descriptive statistics, used to summarize data:

- Convey lots of information with extreme simplicity

Descriptive statistics for a variable:

- Measures of location: mean, median, mode
- Measure of dispersion: variance, standard deviation

Measuring correlation of two variables:

- Understanding correlation
- Measuring correlation
- Scatter plots and regression


## MEASURES OF LOCATION

| These are <br> boards. <br> Roughly |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| what is the typical |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1.45 | 1.65 | 1.50 | 2.25 | 1.65 | 1.60 | 2.30 | 2.20 | 2.70 | 1.70 |
| 2.35 | 1.70 | 1.90 | 1.45 | 1.40 | 2.60 | 2.05 | 1.70 | 1.05 | 2.35 |
| 1.90 | 1.55 | 1.95 | 1.60 | 2.05 | 2.05 | 1.70 | 2.30 | 1.30 | 2.35 |

Location and central tendency

- There exists a distribution of values
- We are interested in the "center" of the distribution

Two measures are the sample mean and the sample median
They look similar, and measure the same thing
They differ systematically (and predictably) when the data are not symmetric

## THE MEAN OF AGGREGATE

DATA

| State | Listing | IncomePC | State | Listing | IncomePC | State | Listing | IncomePC |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | :--- | ---: | ---: | :--- | ---: | ---: |
| Hawaii | 896800 | 24057 | Rhode Island | 432534 | 22251 | Texas | 266388 | 19857 |
| California | 713864 | 22493 | Delaware | 420845 | 22828 | Mississippi | 255774 | 15838 |
| New York | 668578 | 25999 | Oregon | 417551 | 20419 | Tennessee | 255064 | 19482 |
| Connecticut | 654859 | 29402 | Idaho | 415885 | 18231 | Wisconsin | 243006 | 21019 |
| Dist.Columbia | 577921 | 31136 | Illinois | 377683 | 23784 | Michigan | 241107 | 22333 |
| Nevada | 549187 | 24023 | New Hampshire | 361691 | 23434 | Missouri | 221773 | 20717 |
| New Jersey | 529201 | 23038 | New Mexico | 358369 | 17106 | South Dakota | 220708 | 19577 |
| Massachusetts | 521769 | 25616 | Vermont | 346469 | 20224 | West Virginia | 219275 | 17208 |
| Wyoming | 499674 | 20436 | South Carolina | 340066 | 17695 | Arkansas | 217659 | 16898 |
| Maryland | 480578 | 24933 | North Carolina | 330432 | 19669 | Ohio | 209189 | 20928 |
| Utah | 475060 | 17043 | Georgia | 326699 | 20251 | Kentucky | 208391 | 17807 |
| Colorado | 467979 | 22333 | Alaska | 324774 | 23788 | Oklahoma | 203926 | 17744 |
| Arizona | 448791 | 19001 | Minnesota | 306009 | 22453 | Kansas | 201389 | 20896 |
| Florida | 447698 | 21677 | Maine | 299796 | 19663 | Indiana | 200683 | 20378 |
| Montana | 446584 | 17865 | Pennsylvania | 295133 | 22324 | lowa | 184999 | 20265 |
| Virginia | 443618 | 22594 | Louisiana | 280631 | 17651 | North Dakota | 173977 | 18546 |
| Washington | 440542 | 22610 | Alabama | 269135 | 18010 | Nebraska | 164326 | 20488 |

## Average list price: <br> $1 / 51(\$ 898,800+\$ 713,864+\ldots+\$ 164,326)=\$ 369,687$

## AVERAGING AVERAGES?

| Hawaii's average listing | $=\$ 896,800$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| Hawaii's population | $=1,275,194$ |
| Illinois' average listing | $=\$ 377,683$ |
| Illinois' population | $=12,763,371$ |



Illinois and Hawaii each get an equal weight of $1 / 51=.019607$ when the mean is computed.

Looks like Hawaii is getting too much influence ...


## WEIGHTED AVERAGE

Simple average $=\overline{\text { Listing }} \quad=\sum_{\text {States }}$ Weight $_{\text {state }}$ Listing $_{\text {State }}$

$$
\text { Weight } \quad=\frac{1}{51}=.019607
$$

Illinois is 10 times as big as Hawaii. Suppose we use weights that are in proportion to the state's population. (The weights sum to 1.0.)
Weight $_{\text {state }}$ varies from .001717 for Wyoming to .121899 for California
New average is $\$ 409,234$ compared to $\$ 369,687$ without weights, an error of 11\%

## Sometimes an unequal weighting of the observations is necessary

## AVERAGES \& TIME SERIES

Averaging trending time series is usually not helpful
Mean changes completely depending on time interval
What about periodic time series data ??????????

## Ask yourself:

- Does the mean over the entire observation period mean anything?
- Does it estimate anything meaningful?



## THE SAMPLE MEDIAN

## Median:

- Sort the data
- Take the middle point*

Odd number:

- Central observation: Med[1,2,4,6,8,9,17]


## Even number:

- Midpoint between the two central observations $\operatorname{Med}[1,2,4,6,8,9,14,17]=(6+8) / 2=7$


## WHAT IS THE CENTER?

The mean and median measure the central tendency of data
Generally, the center of of a dataset is a point in its range that is close to the data.
Close? Need a distance metric between two points x and $\mathrm{x}_{2}$
We've talked about some already!

- Absolute deviation: $\left|x_{1}-x_{2}\right|$
- Squared deviation: $\left(x_{1}-x_{2}\right)^{2}$

We'll define the center based on these metrics


## DATASET FOR THIS PART

## 53,940 measurements of diamonds

Depth Histogram


## THE MEAN REVISITED

Define a center point $\mu$ based on some function of the distance from each data point to that center point

- Residual sum of squares (RSS) for a point $\mu$ :

$$
\operatorname{RSS}(\mu)=\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(x_{i}-\mu\right)^{2}
$$



So what should our estimate of the "center" of this dataset be, based on the RSS metric? ??????????????

## THE MEAN REVISITED

Want the point $\mu$ that minimizes the RSS ??????????

- Find the derivative of RSS and set it to zero, solve for $\mu$ !

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(x_{i}-\mu\right)^{2} & =\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial}{\partial \mu}\left(x_{i}-\mu\right)^{2} \\
& =\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} 2\left(x_{i}-\mu\right) \times(-1)
\end{aligned}
$$

## THE MEAN REVISITED

$$
=\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} 2\left(x_{i}-\mu\right) \times(-1)
$$

$$
=\frac{1}{2} 2 \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(\mu-x_{i}\right)
$$

$$
=\sum_{i=1}^{n}-\sum_{i=1}^{n}
$$

$$
=n t-\sum_{i=1}^{x_{i}}
$$



## THE MEAN REVISITED

Set the derivative to zero and solve for $\mu$ :

$$
\left.\begin{array}{rl}
\frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} & =0 \\
n \mu-\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} & =0
\end{array}\right\} \begin{aligned}
n \mu & =\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} \\
\mu & =\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}
\end{aligned}
$$

The mean is the point $\mu$ that minimizes the RSS for a dataset.

## THE MEAN REVISITED




## The mean is the point $\mu$ that minimizes the RSS for a dataset.

## THE MEDIAN REVISITED

Define a center point $\boldsymbol{m}$ based on some function of the distance from each data point to that center point

- The median $\boldsymbol{m}$ minimizes the sum of absolute differences:




## MEAN != MEDIAN

Depth Histogram


SKEWED
DATA

## Left-Skewed

Mean < Median


## Symmetric

Mean = Median


## Right-Skewed

## Median < Mean




These data are skewed to the right.

Monthly Earnings
$\mathrm{N}=595$,
Median $=800$
Mean $=883$

The mean will exceed the median when the distribution is skewed to the right.

Skewness is in the direction of the long tail

## SKEWNESS

Extreme observations distort means but not medians.
Outlying observations distort the mean:

- Med $[1,2,4,6,8,9,17]=6$
- Mean[1,2,4,6,8,9,17] $=6.714$
- Med $[1,2,4,6,8,9,17000]=6$ (still)
- Mean[1,2,4,6,8,9,17000] = 2432.8 (!)

Typically occurs when there are some outlying observations, such as in cross sections of income or wealth and/or when the sample is not very large.

## HOME PAGE

## ETbe New Hork Eimes

## Business Day

## dATAPOINTS <br> Income Gap Grows Wider (and Faster)

By AnNa bernasek
Published: August 31, 2013
INCOME inequality in the United States has been growing for decades, but the trend appears to have accelerated during the Obama administration. One measure of this is the relationship between median and average wages.
$1.7 \%$
Increase in median annual wage
$\mathbf{3 . 9 \%}$
Increase in average annual wage
2009 through 2011

The median wage is straightforward: it's the midpoint of everyone's wages. Interpreting the average, though, can be tricky. If the income of a handful of people soars while everyone else's remains the same, the entire group's average may still rise substantially. So when average wages grow faster than the median achannonod from onon thronoh onis it
means that lower earners are falling furthe One way to see the acceleration in inequality is to look at the ratio of average to median annual wages. From 2001 through 2008, during the George W. Bush administration, that ratio grew at 0.28 percentage point per year. From 2009 through 2011, the latest year for which the data is available, the ratio increased 1.14 percentage points annually, or roughly four times faster.

## MORE INFORMATION NEEDED!



Both data sets have a mean of about 100.

## DISPERSION OF THE OBSERVATIONS

| 30 hours of average defect data on sets of circuit boards. |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
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We quantify the variation of the values around the mean.

Note the range is from 1.05 to 2.70. This gives an idea where the data lie.

The mean plus a measure of the variation do the same job.

## RANGE AS A MEASURE OF DISPERSION

## Problems

????????


These two data sets both have 1,000 observations that range from about 10 to about 180.

## VARIANCE \& STDEV: UNIVARIATE MEASURES OF DISPERSION

Variance $=s_{x}{ }^{2}=$

$$
\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)^{2} \quad \text { or } \quad \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)^{2}
$$

Standard deviation $=\mathbf{s}_{\mathrm{x}}=$

$$
\sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)^{2}}
$$

The variance is commonly used statistic for spread

- What are the units of the variance ??????????

Standard deviation "fixes this," can be used as an interpretable unit of measurement

## VARIANCE, ASIDE: WHY DIVIDE BY N-1?

Remember: we are typically calculating the mean / median / variance / etc of a sample of a population

- Want that \{mean, median, variance, ...\} to be an "unbiased" estimate of the true population's \{mean, median, variance, ...\}


## Unbiased? Consider variance ...

1. Look at every possible sample of the population
2. Compute sample variance of each population
3. Is the average of those variances equal to the population variance? If so, then this is an "unbiased" estimator.

## VARIANCE, ASIDE: WHY DIVIDE BY N-1?

Dividing by $\mathrm{n}-1$ in the sample variance computation leads to an unbiased estimate of the population variance
Intuition. Fix a sample ...

- Variance measures distribution around a mean

$$
\frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)^{2}
$$

- Sampled values are, on average, closer to sample mean than to true population mean
- So, we will underestimate the true variance slightly
- Using $n-1$ instead of $n$ makes our variance calculation bigger

This "embiggening" impacts smaller $\boldsymbol{n}$ more than larger $\boldsymbol{n}$

- Larger samples are better estimates of population
- If sample is the population, just divide by $n \ldots$



## Depth Histogram



ి

| SDs | Proportion | Interpretation |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 | 0.68 | $68 \%$ of the data is within $\pm 1 \mathrm{sds}$ |
| 2 | 0.95 | $95 \%$ of the data is within $\pm 2 \mathrm{sds}$ |
| 3 | 0.9973 | $99.73 \%$ of the data is within $\pm 3 \mathrm{sds}$ |
| 4 | 0.999937 | $99.9937 \%$ of the data is within $\pm 4 \mathrm{sds}$ |
| 5 | 0.9999994 | $99.999943 \%$ of the data is within $\pm 5 \mathrm{sds}$ |
| 6 | 1 | $99.9999998 \%$ of the data is within $\pm 6 \mathrm{sds}$ |



## CORRELATION

Variables Y and X vary together
Causality vs. correlation: Does movement in $X$ "cause" movement in $Y$ in some metaphysical sense?

## Correlation

- Simultaneous movement through a statistical relationship
- Simultaneous variation "induced" by the variation of a common third effect


## HOUSE PRICES \& PER CAPITA INCOME

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## SCATTER PLOT SUGGESTS POSITIVE CORRELATION



## LINEAR REGRESSION MEASURES CORRELATION



## CORRELATION IS NOT CAUSATION

Price and income seem to be positively correlated.


Does a rise in income cause a rise in gas prices ??????????????

## A HIDDEN RELATIONSHIP

Not positively "related" to each other; both positively related to "time," a confounding variable.



## "RELATED" ...?

Want to capture: some variable $X$ varies in the same direction and the same scale as some other variable $Y$

$$
\operatorname{cov}(x, y)=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)\left(y_{i}-\bar{y}\right)
$$

What happens if:

- $X$ varies in the opposite direction as $Y$ ????????
- X varies in the same direction as Y ????????

What are the units of the covariance ????????
Pearson's correlation coefficient is unitless in [-1,+1]:

$$
\operatorname{cor}(x, y)=\frac{\operatorname{cov}(x, y)}{s d(x) \operatorname{sd}(y)}
$$

## CORRELATION




## CORRELATIONS



$$
r=+1.0
$$




$$
r=+0.5
$$

## CORRELATION VS CAUSATION

Correlation simply measures the strength and direction of a relationship

- Example: a study found that ice cream sales was strongly positively correlated with shark attacks. The more ice creams were sold, the more shark attacks occurred. Yet, selling ice cream does not and cannot cause shark attacks.

Causation implies a cause and effect relationship: a change in $B$ is caused by a change in $A$, or vice versa

- Example: the more I exercise $(A)$, the more I feel fatigue $(B)$ after the exercise. How tired I feel $(B)$ is directly affected by how much I have worked out $(A)$.


## CORRELATION VS CAUSATION

If we look at the ice cream example, do ice cream sales cause shark attacks? Or do shark attacks cause more ice cream sales?

Neither is true! In fact, an increase in ice cream sales is actually caused by hot weather during summer, and during summer, more people go to the beach to enjoy water sports. This then leads to higher probability of shark attacks.

There is a third or hidden variable (i.e., hot summer weather), that affects our two variables, so we can only say that ice cream sales are positively correlated with shark attacks, but not that one causes the other.


## CORRELATION IS NOT CAUSATIONI!!




## JUST TO DRIVE THE POINT <br> HOME ...

## Per capita cheese consumption <br> Number of people who died by becoming tangled in their bedsheets

Correlation: $94.71 \%$ ( $r=0.947091$ )



## TRANSFORMATIONS

So, you've figured out that your data are:

- Skewed
- Have vastly different ranges across datasets and/or different units

What do you do?

Transform the variables to:

- ease the validity and interpretation of data analyses
- change or ease the type of Stat/ML models you can use


## STANDARDIZATION

Transforming the variable to a comparable metric

- known unit
- known mean
- known standard deviation
- known range

Three ways of standardizing:

- P-standardization (percentile scores)
- Z-standardization (z-scores)
- D-standardization (dichotomize a variable)


## WHEN YOU SHOULD ALWAYS STANDARDIZE

When averaging multiple variables, e.g. when creating a socioeconomic status variable out of income and education.

When comparing the effects of variables with unequal units, e.g. does age or education have a larger effect on income?


## P-STANDARDIZATION

Every observation is assigned a number between 0 and 100, indicating the percentage of observation beneath it.
Can be read from the cumulative distribution
In case of knots: assign midpoints
The median, quartiles, quintiles, and deciles are special cases of P -scores.

|  | rent |  | cum $\%$ |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| room 1 | 175 | $5,3 \%$ | percentile |
| room 2 | 180 | $10,5 \%$ | $10,5 \%$ |
| room 3 | 185 | $15,8 \%$ | $15,8 \%$ |
| room 4 | 190 | $21,1 \%$ | $\mathbf{2 1 , 1 \%}$ |
| room 5 | $\mathbf{2 0 0}$ | $26,3 \%$ | $26,3 \%$ |
| room 6 | $\mathbf{2 1 0}$ | $31,6 \%$ | $\mathbf{3 6 , 8 \%}$ |
| room 7 | $\mathbf{2 1 0}$ | $36,8 \%$ | $\mathbf{3 6 , 8 \%}$ |
| room 8 | $\mathbf{2 1 0}$ | $42,1 \%$ | $\mathbf{3 6 , 8 \%}$ |
| room 9 | $\mathbf{2 3 0}$ | $47,4 \%$ | $47,4 \%$ |
| room 10 | $\mathbf{2 4 0}$ | $52,6 \%$ | $\mathbf{5 5 , 3} \%$ |
| room 11 | $\mathbf{2 4 0}$ | $57,9 \%$ | $\mathbf{5 5 , 3} \%$ |
| room 12 | $\mathbf{2 5 0}$ | $63,2 \%$ | $\mathbf{6 5 , 8 \%}$ |
| room 13 | $\mathbf{2 5 0}$ | $68,4 \%$ | $\mathbf{6 5 , 8 \%}$ |
| room 14 | $\mathbf{2 8 0}$ | $73,7 \%$ | $73,7 \%$ |
| room 15 | $\mathbf{3 0 0}$ | $78,9 \%$ | $\mathbf{8 1 , 6 \%}$ |
| room 16 | $\mathbf{3 0 0}$ | $84,2 \%$ | $\mathbf{8 1 , 6 \%}$ |
| room 17 | 310 | $89,5 \%$ | $89,5 \%$ |
| room 18 | 325 | $94,7 \%$ | $94,7 \%$ |
| room 19 | 620 | $100,0 \%$ | $100,0 \%$ |

## P-STANDARDIZATION

Turns the variable into a ranking, i.e. it turns the variable into a ordinal variable.
It is a non-linear transformation: relative distances change
Results in a fixed mean, range, and standard deviation; $M=50$, $\mathrm{SD}=28.6$, This can change slightly due to knots
A histogram of a P-standardized variable approximates a uniform distribution

## CENTERING AND SCALING

Transform your data into a unitless scale

- Put data into "standard deviations from the mean" units
- This is called standardizing a variable, into standard units

Given data points $x=x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}$ :

$$
z_{i}=\frac{\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)}{\operatorname{sd}(x)}
$$

Translates $x$ into a scaled and centered variable $z$ What is the mean of $z$ ??????????

What is the standard deviation of $z$ ??????????

## CENTERING OR SCALING

Maybe you just want to center the data:

$$
z_{i}=\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)
$$

What is the mean of $z$ ??????????
What is the standard deviation of $z$ ??????????
Maybe you just want to scale the data:

$$
z_{i}=\frac{x_{i}}{\operatorname{sd}\left(x_{i}\right)}
$$

What is the mean of $z$ ??????????
What is the standard deviation of $z$ ??????????

## DISCRETE TO CONTINUOUS VARIABLES

Some models only work on continuous numeric data
Convert a binary variable to a number ???????????

- health_insurance $=\{$ "yes", "no" $\} \rightarrow\{1,0\}$

Why not $\{-1,+1\}$ or $\{-10,+14\}$ ?

- 0/1 encoding lets us say things like "if a person has healthcare then their income increases by $\$ \mathrm{X}$."
- Might need $\{-1,+1\}$ for certain ML algorithms (e.g., SVM)


## DISCRETE TO CONTINUOUS VARIABLES

What about non-binary variables?
My main transportation is a \{BMW, Bicycle, Hovercraft\}
One option: $\{$ BMW $\rightarrow$ 1, Bicycle $\rightarrow 2$, Hovercraft $\rightarrow 3$ \}

- Problems ??????????

One-hot encoding: convert a categorical variable with $\mathbf{N}$ values into a $\mathbf{N}$-bit vector:

- BMW $\rightarrow[1,0,0] ;$ Bicycle $\rightarrow[0,1,0] ;$ Hovercraft $\rightarrow[0,0,1]$

```
# Converts dtype=category to one-hot-encoded cols
cols = ['my_transportation']
df = df.get_dummies( columns = cols )
```


## CONTINUOUS TO DISCRETE VARIABLES

Do doctors prescribe a certain medication to older kids more often? Is there a difference in wage based on age?
Pick a discrete set of bins, then put values into the bins
Equal-length bins:

- Bins have an equal-length range and skewed membership
- Good/Bad ????????

Equal-sized bins:

- Bins have variable-length ranges but equal membership
- Good/Bad ????????


## SKEWED DATA

Skewed data often arises in multiplicative processes:

- Some points float around 1, but one unlucky draw $\rightarrow 0$

Logarithmic transforms reduce skew:

- If values are all positive, apply $\log _{2}$ transform
- If some values are negative:
- Shift all values so they are positive, apply $\log _{2}$
- Signed log: $\operatorname{sign}(\mathrm{x}) * \log _{2}(|x|+1)$



## SKEWED DATA



