Feature Engineering

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Feature Improvement

Chapter 3 (Part I)

Feature Improvement

- Making existing features more usable by cleaning and augmenting.
- Developing a better sense of which features are important within our data.
- Improvement tasks:
 - Cleaning data
 - Impute missing values
 - Treatment outliers
 - Augmenting
 - Normalize data
 - Discretize data
 - Transform data value
 - Encode data value

Missing Data Handling

- Data can have missing values due to a variety of reasons.
- Mechanisms of missing data:
 - Structural deficiencies in the data
 - Random occurrences
 - Missing completely at random (MCAR) (independent of the data)
 - Missing at random (MAR) (depends on the observed data but not on the unobserved data)
 - Specific causes (not missing at random: NMAR)
- Applying learning algorithms to data with missing values, most algorithms are not able to cope with missing values. (e.g., SVM and ANN)
- Steps to handle missing data:
 - Identify missing data
 - Get a sense of what the missing values
 - Decide how we want to handle missing values

Two major ways for dealing with missing data are:

- Remove rows/columns with missing values in them
- Encode missing values
- Impute missing values
- * Each method will have its pros and cons

Deleteion of Data

- Remove entire predictor and/or sample that contain missing values.
- Must carefully consider:
 - A number of aspects of the data
 - The intrinsic value of samples as compared to predictors.
 - Removing samples (rows) of the training set is that it might bias the ML model.
- In practice
 - Specific predictors and specific samples contain a majority of the missing information.
 - When it is difficult to obtain samples or the data contain a small number of samples (i.e., rows), then it is not desirable to remove samples from the data.
 - If the data are missing completely at random, removing samples might be viable.

Encoding Missingness

- Encode the missing value as a category if the feature is a categorical data in nature.
- Could simply be encoded as "missing" or "unknown"

Imputation Methods

- Uses available values in the same feature to estimate to fill the missing value.
 - Mean/Median Imputation
 - End of Tail Imputation
 - Arbitrary Value Imputation
 - Frequent Category Imputation
- Uses information and relationships among the non-missing predictors to estimate to fill in the missing value.
 - K-Nearest Neighbors Imputation
 - Regression Imputation

Mean/Median Imputation

- Replacing all occurrences of missing values (NA) within a variable by the mean or median.
- Can only be applied to numerical variables.
- Assumptions:
 - Data is missing completely at random (MCAR)
 - The missing observations, most likely look like the majority of the observations in the variable.
 - If data is MCAR, then it is fair to assume that the missing values are most likely very close to the value of the mean or the median of the distribution.
- Note:
 - If the number of missing data is big (>5%), the variance of the variable will be distorted.
 - Estimates of covariance and correlations with other variables in the dataset may also be affected.
 - If the variable is skewed, the mean is biased by the values at the far end of the distribution.

End of Tail Imputation

- Automatically selecting arbitrary values at the end of the variable distributions.
- If the variable is normally distributed, use the mean ± 3 S.D.
- If the variable is skewed, use the IQR proximity rule
 - upper limit = 75^{th} Quantile + 1.5 IQR
 - lower limit = 25^{th} Quantile 1.5 IQR.
- Assumptions:
 - Data are not missing at random (MNAR)
- Advantages:
 - Captures the importance of "missingness" if there is one.
- Disadvantages
 - Distortion of the original variable distribution and variance
 - Distortion of the covariance with the remaining variables
 - This technique may mask true outliers in the distribution

Arbitrary Value Imputation

- Replacing all missing values (NA) within a variable by an arbitrary value.
- Typically used arbitrary values are 0, 999, -999 or -1 (if the distribution is positive).
 - If the variable is a categorical feature, used "Missing" label as the arbitrary value.
- Assumptions:
 - Data is is not missing at random
- Advantages:
 - Captures the importance of "missingness" if there is one.
- Disadvantages
 - Distortion of the original variable distribution and variance
 - Distortion of the covariance with the remaining variables
 - If the arbitrary value is at the end of the distribution it may mask or create outliers

Frequent Category Imputation

- Replacing all occurrences of missing values (NA) within a variable by the mode (most frequent category).
- Appropriate for categorical variables.
- Assumptions:
 - Data is missing completely at random
 - The missing observations, most likely look like the majority of the observations in the variable.
- Note:
 - If the number of missing data is big (>5%), lead to an over-representation of the most frequent label.
 - Estimates of covariance and correlations with other variables in the dataset may also be affected.

<u>K-nearest neighbors</u>

- Procedure
 - Identifies a sample with one or more missing values. 1.
 - Identifies the *K* most similar samples in the training data that are complete. 2.
 - Calculate the average value (mean/median/mode) of the predictor of interest. 3.
 - Replace the missing value of the sample with the average value. 4.

А	Age	Sex	Salary	Province	
2	25	Μ	25,000	СМ	
2	26	Μ	23,500	CR	4 similar samı
2	26	F	24,000	СМ	
2	25	Μ	26,000	СМ	
	Average salary		24,625		
2	26	F	24,625	СМ	Missing data

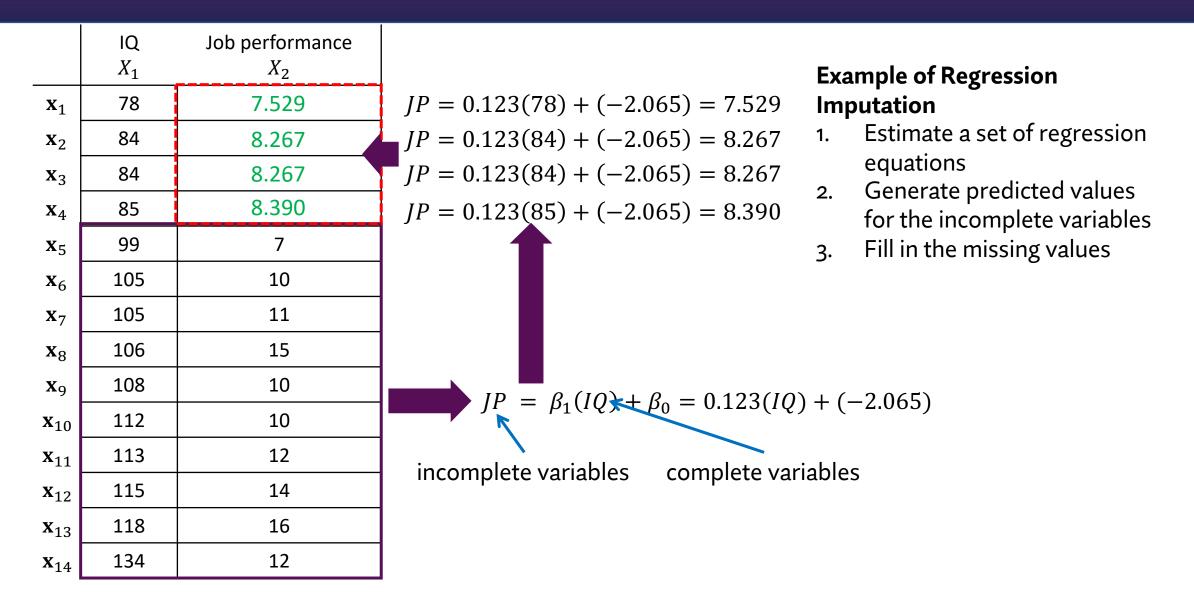
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Advantages:

Can be applied when the ٠ training set is small or moderate in size.

Regression Imputation

- Use complete features as predictor and missing variable as the target.
- Use complete samples as training data to built a regression model.
- Use the trained model to estimate the missing value.
- Assumptions:
 - When you use a linear model, complete predictors should show strong linear relationship with a predictor that requires imputation.
 - Linear regression can be used for a numeric predictor that requires imputation.
 - Logistic regression is appropriate for a categorical predictor that requires imputation.



Outlier Detection and Treatment

Outlier is a data point that is significantly different from the remaining data. **Effects of outliers**

- The mean and variance are sensitive to outliers
- The performance of some machine learning models (linear regression or AdaBoost)

Dealing with outliers

- Identify outliers
 - Z-score
 - Boxplot
- Handle outliers
 - Perform variable discretization
 - Treat outliers as missing data and carry out any of the missing imputation techniques
 - Remove samples with outliers
 - Perform winsorization

Outlier Detection Techniques

<u>Z-score</u>

- Consider on each individual feature of the dataset.
- How far the value of the data point/sample is from its mean for a specific feature.

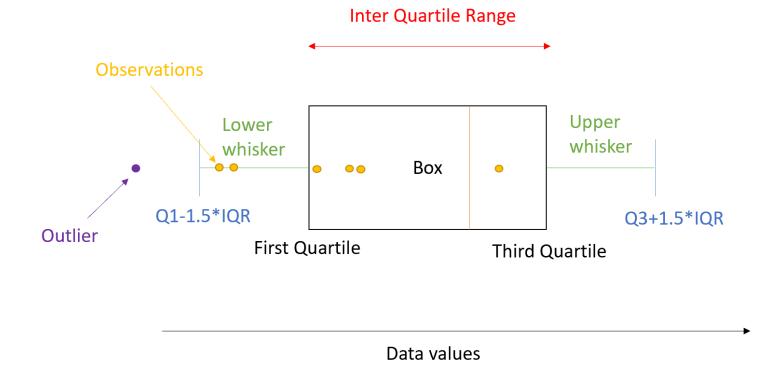
$$Z - score = \frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{\sigma}$$

- A Z-score of 1 means the sample point is 1 standard deviation away from its mean.
- Z-score values greater than or less than + 3 or 3, respectively, are considered outliers.
- Note that this method assumes that the features have normal distributions.

Outlier Detection Techniques

<u>Boxplot</u>

The values that are not in range $[Q_1-1.5IQR,Q_3+1.5IQR]$ are considered as extreme values.



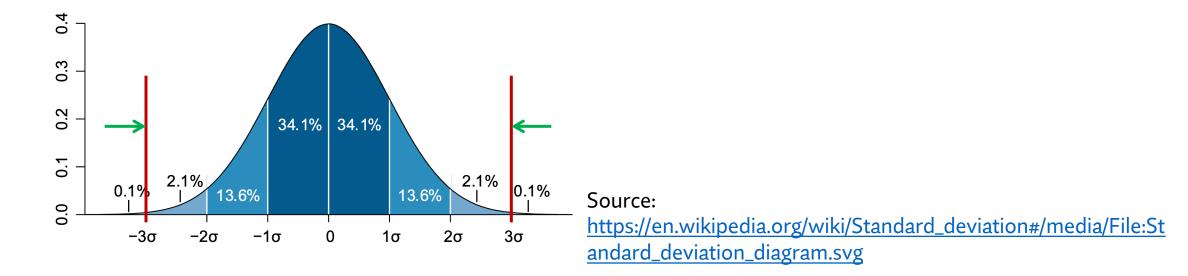
Source: https://medium.com/analytics-vidhya/introduction-to-box-plots-and-how-to-interpret-them-22464acbcba7

Winsorization

- The process of transforming the data by limiting the extreme values to a certain arbitrary value.
- The extreme values are replaced by:
 - Maximum and minimum values
 - Gaussian approximation
 - Inter-quantile range proximity rule
 - Percentiles
 - Zero-coding

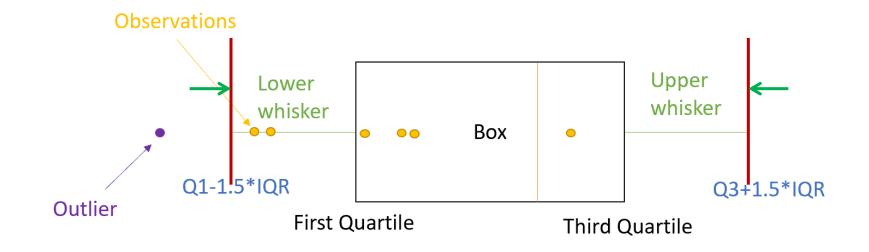
Gaussian approximation

- Related to Z-score, the values that higher/lower than mean±3S.D. are considered as outliers.
- The values that higher than mean+3S.D. are replaced by mean+3S.D.
- The values that lower than mean-3S.D. are replaced by mean-3S.D.
- Note that this method assumes that the features have normal distributions.



Inter-quantile range proximity rule

- The values that higher than Q_3 +d*IQR are replaced by Q_3 +d*IQR.
- The values that lower than Q_1 -d*IQR are replaced by Q_1 -d*IQR.
- The parameter d can be 1.5 or 3.



Percentiles

- The values that higher than 5th percentile are replaced by 5th percentile .
- The values that lower than 95th percentile are replaced by 95th percentile .

<u>Zero-coding</u>

- A variant of bottom-coding and refers to the process of capping, usually the lower value of the variable, at zero.
- It is commonly used for variables that cannot take negative values, such as age or income.
- The values that lower than o are replaced by o.

References & Study Resources

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