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# Kaggle Competition - Two Sigma Connect: Rental Listing Inquiries

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## Abstract

1 In this project, our goal is to make predictions about how much interest will a  
2 new rental listing on RentHop receive. It's a Kaggle competition co-hosted by  
3 Two Sigma and RentHop. We first apply exploratory analysis to the dataset given,  
4 then cross-validation statistic and stacking methods are used to improve model  
5 performance.

## 6 1 Background and Challenge

### 7 1.1 Background

#### 8 Summary

9 This is a Kaggle competition co-hosted by Two Sigma and RentHop where competitors will apply  
10 analysis featuring rental listing data from RentHop.

11 <https://www.kaggle.com/c/two-sigma-connect-rental-listing-inquiries>

12 The goal is to predict the number of inquiries a new listing receives based on the listing's creation  
13 date and other features. Doing so will help RentHop better handle fraud control, identify poten-  
14 tial listing quality issues, and allow owners and agents to better understand renters's needs and  
15 preferences.

#### 16 Evaluation

17 Submissions are evaluated using the multi-class logarithmic loss. Each listing has one true class. For  
18 each listing, the model will give a set of predicted probabilities (one for every listing). The formula  
19 is then,

$$\logloss = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^M y_{ij} \log(p_{ij}) \quad (1)$$

20 where N is the number of listings in the test set, M is the number of class labels (3 classes), log is the  
21 natural logarithm,  $y_{ij}$  is 1 if observation  $i$  belongs to class  $j$  and 0 otherwise, and  $p_{ij}$  is the predicted  
22 probability that observation  $i$  belongs to class  $j$ .

### 23 1.2 Challenges

24 First of all, there are many factors that can impact the interest level of a new listing such as room  
25 number, manager id, price and features. Each feature comes in different format. Thus, data cleaning  
26 and exploration is necessary before further analysis. We also need an advanced model that can deal  
27 with various types of variables and deliver accurate predictions.

28 Second, we need to figure out how to deal with the randomness of the data and create new fea-  
 29 tures that can convey key information from training data to testing data. As we'll illustrate later, a  
 30 technique called cross-validation statistics will be used to address this problem.

31 In addition, although general tree based models usually give very good performances, we still need  
 32 parameter tuning in pursuing a better performance. Ensemble methods such as stacking also plays  
 33 a vital role in improving prediction accuracy, at the expense of heavy computing burden and longer  
 34 iterations.

## 35 2 Data Cleaning and Exploratory Data Analysis

### 36 2.1 Data Cleaning

- 37 • Covert column Created to datetime format; extract month and day information as new  
 38 features.
- 39 • Count the distinct values of each instance in column photos and description, add as new  
 40 features.
- 41 • Deal with categorical features, label encode columns such as display address, manager id,  
 42 building id, street address.
- 43 • Compute the top 200 most frequent terms in column feature, add dummy variables to rep-  
 44 resent the apperance of the term in each record.
- 45 • Compute average price by room number.

### 46 2.2 Data Exploration - Insights into manager id

47 At first glance, the average interest level seems to differ substantially with respect to column  
 48 manager id. As shown below, the top 50 managers (with the most listings) have very different  
 49 high/medium/low distributions.

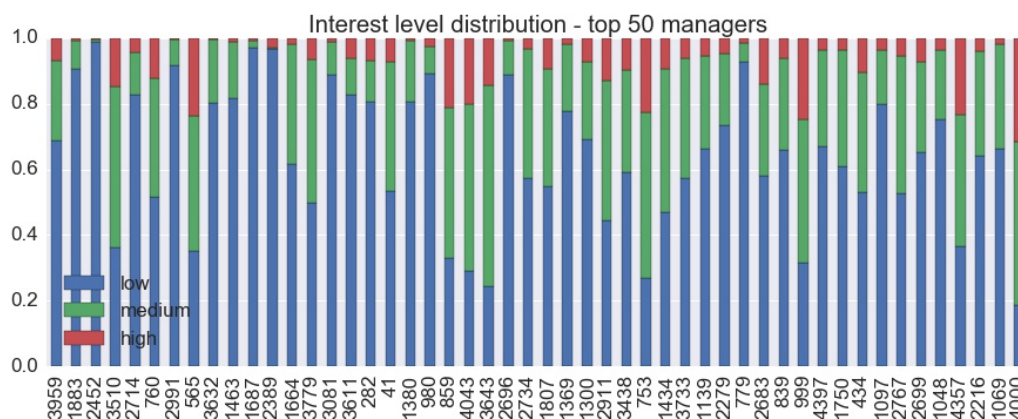


Figure 1: Interest level distribution over manager id

50 A closer look at the cumulative count of listings shows that he Pareto principle, i.e. the 80/20 rule,  
 51 applys here. As 20% of the managers are roughly responsible for roughly 80% of the records in the  
 52 dataset. Next, we can begin feature engineering focusing on manager id.

## 53 3 Cross-Validation statistics

### 54 3.1 Summary

55 A technic called Cross-Validation statistics (CV statistics) is applied to improve the performance  
 56 of our interest level classifier. According to the output, a significant improvement is detected by  
 57 applying cross-validation statistics. The idea of cross-validation statistics is generated from cross-  
 58 validation.

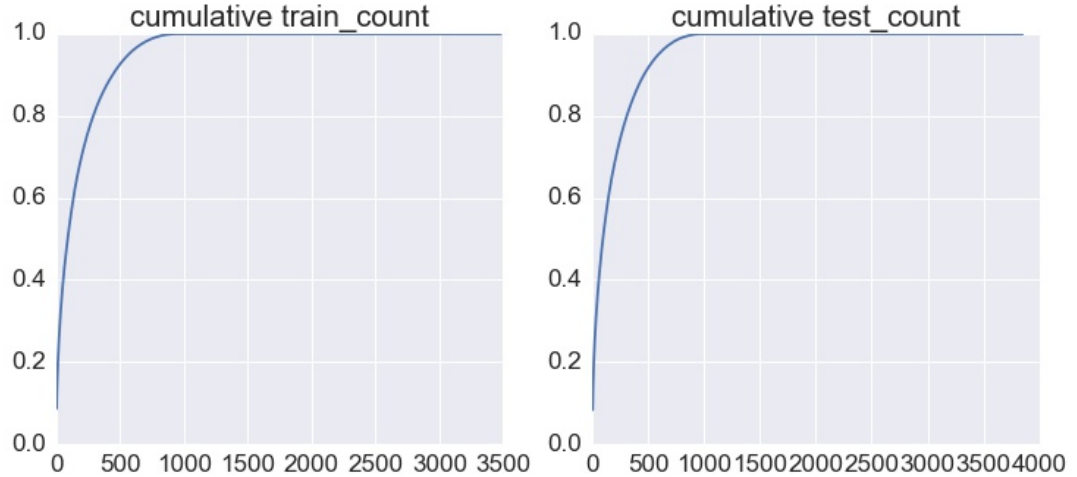


Figure 2: Cumulative count of listings over manager id

## 59 3.2 Introduction

60 Cross-validation is a tool to estimate the variance of your performance metric due to randomness in  
 61 the data. The reason we use cross-validation is that it is difficult to report an accurate performance  
 62 using only one training dataset and one test dataset. It is likely that different performance figure will  
 63 be generated by the exact same method and parameters. Because of the randomness of data, the per-  
 64 formance figure may vary a lot unless everyone use the exact same split. The idea of cross-validation  
 65 is to randomly split the dataset to some equal size sub-datasets. The first sub-dataset will be used  
 66 as the test dataset while other sub-datasets will be used as training datasets. Then, same procedure  
 67 will be repeated  $n$  times ( $n$  equal to the number of sub-datasets) and every sub-dataset is used ex-  
 68 actly once as the test dataset. Afterwards, the mean and standard deviation of  $n$  performance figures  
 69 generated in each test is provided as the final prediction. Although cross-validation will magnify the  
 70 computational cost and therefore slow down the whole program especially when datasets are large,  
 71 it is still a widely-used tool.

## 72 3.3 How does CV statistics work

73 Just like cross-validation, the cross-validation statistics needs to split the whole dataset into some  
 74 equal-size sub-datasets and then make the execution. The idea is to split the training dataset and one  
 75 sub-dataset will be assigned the posterior probability from other sub-datasets.

76 By applying this technique, the program will be trained how to deal with low-frequency observations  
 77 as well as new observations which only occurs in test dataset. In our project, prediction is made  
 78 partially based on manager id, many of which occurs at a low frequency, some of the manager ids  
 79 even only occurs once. Prediction under such circumstances may not be reliable, to cope with the  
 80 low-frequency problem, we applied cross-validation statistics.

81 To be specific, the training dataset is split into five sub-datasets: a, b, c, d, e. The posterior proba-  
 82 bility calculated from other four sub-datasets will be assigned to the remaining sub-dataset. Firstly,  
 83 we assign posterior probability from sub-dataset a, b, c, d to sub-dataset e. If an observation (for  
 84 example, manager id: 001) occurs in a or b or c or d but not in e. The posterior probability will not  
 85 be assigned to any place. However, if an observation occurs in e but not in a or b or c or d, value NaN  
 86 will be assigned to that observation. Then the procedure is repeated just like the cross-validation.

87 As a result, in the training dataset, the NaN values represent the observations only occurs in one  
 88 sub-dataset. During training, the model will learn how to deal with these NaNs and achieve better  
 89 performance under these NaNs. Therefore, when there are new observations in the test dataset, the  
 90 model could handle them better and make more accurate predictions. The cross-validation statistics  
 91 could be treated as an improved Bayesian encoding. For the Bayesian encoding, such low frequent

92 samples will be assigned prior probabilities. However, they are different from the samples that really  
 93 hold probabilities close to prior.

## 94 4 Stacking

### 95 4.1 Introduction and Applications

96 Stacking (sometimes called stacked generalization) involves training a learning algorithm to com-  
 97 bine the predictions of several other learning algorithms. First, all of the other algorithms are trained  
 98 using the available data, then a combiner algorithm is trained to make a final prediction using all the  
 99 predictions of the other algorithms as additional inputs. If an arbitrary combiner algorithm is used,  
 100 then stacking can theoretically represent any of the ensemble techniques described in this article,  
 101 although in practice, a single-layer logistic regression model is often used as the combiner.

102 Stacking typically yields performance better than any single one of the trained models.[1] It has  
 103 been successfully used on both supervised learning tasks (regression, [2] classification and distance  
 104 learning [3]) and unsupervised learning (density estimation).[4] It has also been used to estimate  
 105 bagging's error rate.[5] It has been reported to out-perform Bayesian model-averaging.[6] The two  
 106 top-performers in the Netflix competition utilized a blending, which may be considered to be a form  
 107 of stacking.

# The Stacking Framework

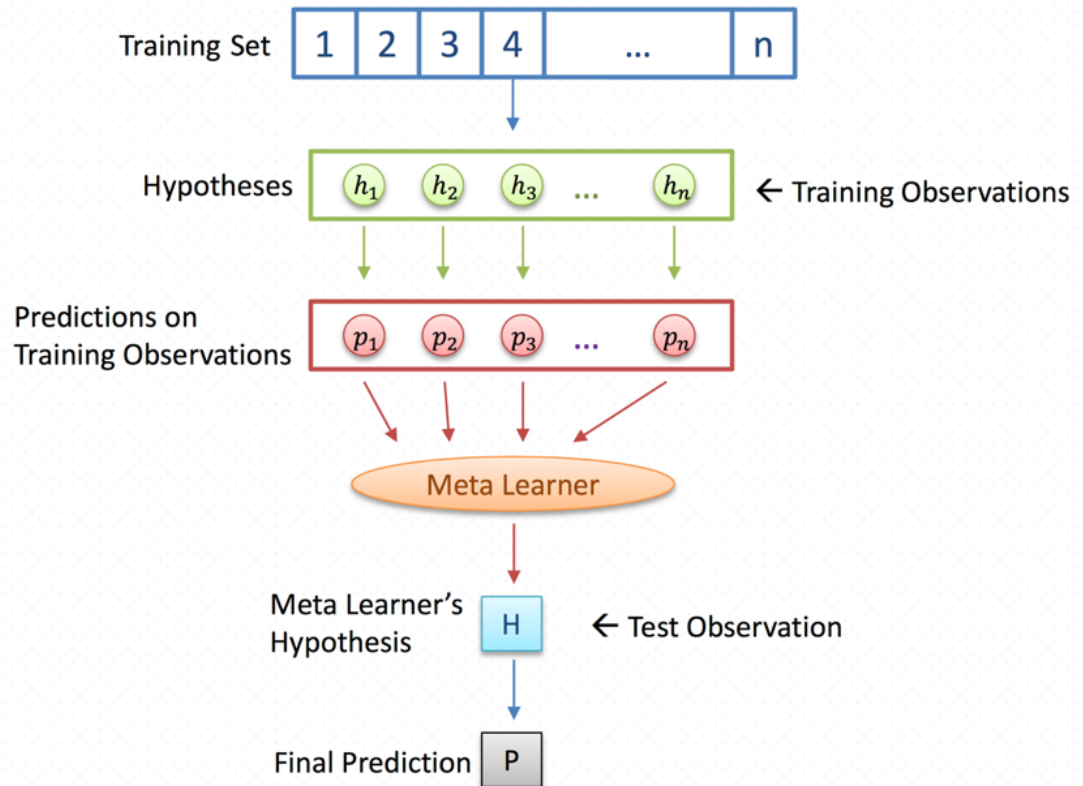


Figure 3: The stacking framework

### 108 The stacking framework

- 109 • The training set for the meta-level classifier is generated through a leave-one-out cross  
 110 validation process.

- The learned classifiers are then used to generate predictions.
- The meta-level dataset consists of examples of the form

$$((y_i^1, \dots, y_i^n), y_i),$$

where the features are the predictions of the base-level classifiers and the class is the correct class of the example in hand.

## 4.2 Mathematical insight into stacking ensemble

If an ensemble has  $M$  base models having an error rate  $e < 1/2$  and if the base models' errors are independent, then the probability that the ensemble makes an error is the probability that more than  $M/2$  base models misclassify the example. The simple idea behind stacking is that if an input-output pair  $(x, y)$  is left out of the training set of , after training is completed for , the output  $y$  can still be used to assess the model's error. In fact, since  $(x, y)$  was not in the training set of  $h_i$ ,  $h_i(x)$  may differ from the desired output  $y$ . A new classifier then can be trained to estimate this discrepancy, given by  $y - h_i(x)$ . In essence, a second classifier is trained to learn the error the first classifier has made. Adding the estimated errors to the outputs of the first classifier can provide an improved final classification decision.

## 4.3 How does stacking ensemble work

Stacking takes place in two phases.

In the first phase, each of the base level classifiers takes part in the  $j$ -fold cross validation training where a vector is returned in the form

$$((y_i^1, \dots, y_i^m), y_i),$$

where  $y_i^j$  is the predicted output of the  $m$  the classifier and  $y_j$  is the expected output for the same.

In the second phase this input is given for the Meta learning algorithm which adjusts the errors in such a way that the classification of the combined model is optimized. This process is repeated for  $k$ -fold cross validation to get the final stacked generalization model.

## 4.4 Advantages of stacking ensemble methods

It is found that stacking method is particularly better suited for combining multiple different types of models. Stacked generalization provides a way for this situation which is more sophisticated than winner-takes-all approach. Instead of selecting one specific generalization out of multiple ones, the stacking method combines them by using their output information as inputs into a new space. Stacking then generalizes the guesses in that new space. The winner-takes-all combination approach is a special case of stacked generalization.

The simple voting approaches have their obvious limitations due to their abilities in capturing only linear relationships. In stacking, an ensemble of classifiers is first trained using bootstrapped samples of the training data, producing level-0 classifiers. The outputs of the base level classifiers are then used to train a Meta classifier. The goal of this next level is to ensure that the training data has accurately completed the learning process. For example, if a classifier consistently misclassified instances from one region as a result of incorrectly learning the feature space of that region, the Meta classifier may be able to discover this problem. Using the learned behaviors of other classifiers, it can improve such training deficiencies. [8]

## 4.5 First rst-layer mode used

### 4.5.1 XGBoost

XGBoost stands for eXtreme Gradient Boosting. The name `xgboost`, though, actually refers to the engineering goal to push the limit of computations resources for boosted tree algorithms.

**XGBoost Features** The library is laser focused on computational speed and model performance, as such there are few frills. Nevertheless, it does offer a number of advanced features.

154 **Model Features** The implementation of the model supports the features of the scikit-learn and R  
155 implementations, with new additions like regularization. Three main forms of gradient boosting are  
156 supported:

- 157 • Gradient Boosting algorithm also called gradient boosting machine including the learning  
158 rate.
- 159 • Stochastic Gradient Boosting with sub-sampling at the row, column and column per split  
160 levels.
- 161 • Regularized Gradient Boosting with both L1 and L2 regularization.

162 **System Features** The library provides a system for use in a range of computing environments, not  
163 least:

- 164 • Parallelization of tree construction using all of your CPU cores during training.
- 165 • Distributed Computing for training very large models using a cluster of machines.
- 166 • Out-of-Core Computing for very large datasets that don't fit into memory.
- 167 • Cache Optimization of data structures and algorithm to make best use of hardware.

168 **Algorithm Features** The implementation of the algorithm was engineered for efficiency of com-  
169 pute time and memory resources. A design goal was to make the best use of available resources to  
170 train the model. Some key algorithm implementation features include:

- 171 • Sparse Aware implementation with automatic handling of missing data values.
- 172 • Block Structure to support the parallelization of tree construction.
- 173 • Continued Training so that you can further boost an already fitted model on new data.

174 XGBoost is free open source software available for use under the permissive Apache-2 license.

175 The two reasons to use XGBoost are also the two goals of the project:

- 176 • XGBoost Execution Speed: Generally, XGBoost is fast. Really fast when compared to  
177 other implementations of gradient boosting.
- 178 • XGBoost Model Performance: XGBoost dominates structured or tabular datasets on clas-  
179 sification and regression predictive modeling problems. The evidence is that it is the go-to  
180 algorithm for competition winners on the Kaggle competitive data science platform. The  
181 XGBoost library implements the gradient boosting decision tree algorithm.

182 This algorithm goes by lots of different names such as gradient boosting, multiple additive regres-  
183 sion trees, stochastic gradient boosting or gradient boosting machines. Boosting is an ensemble  
184 technique where new models are added to correct the errors made by existing models. Models are  
185 added sequentially until no further improvements can be made. A popular example is the AdaBoost  
186 algorithm that weights data points that are hard to predict. Gradient boosting is an approach where  
187 new models are created that predict the residuals or errors of prior models and then added together  
188 to make the final prediction. It is called gradient boosting because it uses a gradient descent algo-  
189 rithm to minimize the loss when adding new models. This approach supports both regression and  
190 classification predictive modeling problems.

## 191 4.5.2 SVM

192 In machine learning, support vector machines (SVMs, also support vector networks[1])  
193 are supervised learning models with associated learning algorithms that analyze data used  
194 for classification and regression analysis. Given a set of training examples, each marked as be-  
195 longing to one or the other of two categories, an SVM training algorithm builds a model that assigns  
196 new examples to one category or the other, making it a non-probabilistic binary linear classifier.  
197 An SVM model is a representation of the examples as points in space, mapped so that the examples  
198 of the separate categories are divided by a clear gap that is as wide as possible. New examples are  
199 then mapped into that same space and predicted to belong to a category based on which side of  
200 the gap they fall. In addition to performing linear classification, SVMs can efficiently perform a

201 non-linear classification using what is called the kernel trick, implicitly mapping their inputs into  
202 high-dimensional feature spaces.

### 203 4.5.3 Random Forests

204 Random forests or random decision forests are an ensemble learning method  
205 for classification, regression and other tasks, that operate by constructing a multitude of decision  
206 trees at training time and outputting the class that is the mode of the classes (classification) or  
207 mean prediction (regression) of the individual trees. Random decision forests correct for decision  
208 trees' habit of overfitting to their training set.

### 209 4.5.4 Extremely Randomized Trees

210 Adding one further step of randomization yields extremely randomized trees, or ExtraTrees. These  
211 are trained using bagging and the random subspace method, like in an ordinary random forest, but  
212 additionally the top-down splitting in the tree learner is randomized. Instead of computing the locally  
213 optimal feature/split combination (based on, e.g., information gain or the Gini impurity), for each  
214 feature under consideration, a random value is selected for the split. This value is selected from the  
215 feature's empirical range (in the tree's training set, i.e., the bootstrap sample)

### 216 4.5.5 multilayer perceptron

217 A multilayer perceptron (MLP) is a feedforward artificial neural network model that maps sets of in-  
218 put data onto a set of appropriate outputs. An MLP consists of multiple layers of nodes in a directed  
219 graph, with each layer fully connected to the next one. Except for the input nodes, each node is  
220 a neuron (or a processing element) with a nonlinear activation function. MLP utilizes a supervised  
221 learning technique called backpropagation for training the network. MLP is a modification of the  
222 standard linear perceptron and can distinguish data that is not linearly separable.

### 223 4.5.6 k-NN

224 k-NN is a type of instance-based learning, or lazy learning, where the function is only approxi-  
225 mated locally and all computation is deferred until classification. The k-NN algorithm is among  
226 the simplest of all machine learning algorithms. Both for classification and regression, it can be  
227 useful to assign weight to the contributions of the neighbors, so that the nearer neighbors contribute  
228 more to the average than the more distant ones. For example, a common weighting scheme consists  
229 in giving each neighbor a weight of  $1/d$ , where  $d$  is the distance to the neighbor. The neighbors  
230 are taken from a set of objects for which the class (for k-NN classification) or the object property  
231 value (for k-NN regression) is known. This can be thought of as the training set for the algorithm,  
232 though no explicit training step is required. A peculiarity of the k-NN algorithm is that it is sensi-  
233 tive to the local structure of the data. The algorithm is not to be confused with k-means, another  
234 popular machine learning technique.

## 235 5 Results and Discussions

### 236 5.1 Summary

237 At the end, the two-layer stacking model is built for interest level classification. The first-layer model  
238 includes six sub-models, which are k-nearest-neighbors, random forest, extremely randomized trees,  
239 SVM, multi-layer perceptron classifier and XG Boost. In the second-layer model, we used XGBoost  
240 that takes the running results of the first layer model as the input. The final log-loss is 0.5200, whereas  
241 the winning kernel log-loss is 0.4919.

### 242 5.2 Limitations and Possible Improvements

243 Even though the project has already achieved its objective, there are still some limitations.

244 First, the result of the best-performing model of the first-layer models decides the overall perfor-  
245 mance of the stack model. If we could do more parameter tuning in the first-layer models and  
246 implement more feature engineering to the data, we could have gained better results.

247 Second, as discussed before, stacking requires a large amount of computing time. Limited to if we  
248 could have more computing resources, the performance of the model could be enhanced by stacking  
249 more layers.

250 Last, the leak feature `AIImage add timeAI` significantly improved the performance of the model. If  
251 we could master picture-processing techniques such as convolutional neural networks, then we could  
252 get more features from the photos. By adding these features to the current model, the performance  
253 could be significantly improved.

## 254 **Acknowledgments**

255 This project mainly used XGBoost developed by Chen Tianqi:

256 <https://github.com/tqchen/xgboost>

257 This project also learned from Kaggle Kernels listed below:

258 [https://www.kaggle.com/guoday/two-sigma-connect-rental-listing-inquiries/  
259 cv-statistics-better-parameters-and-explanation,](https://www.kaggle.com/guoday/two-sigma-connect-rental-listing-inquiries/cv-statistics-better-parameters-and-explanation)

260 [https://www.kaggle.com/den3b81/do-managers-matter-some-insights-on-manager-id,](https://www.kaggle.com/den3b81/do-managers-matter-some-insights-on-manager-id)

261 [https://www.kaggle.com/mmueeller/allstate-claims-severity/stacking-starter/  
262 run/390867/code.](https://www.kaggle.com/mmueeller/allstate-claims-severity/stacking-starter/run/390867/code)



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