

# US Census 2017 Analysis

DCS 424 Advanced Data Analysis Winter 2020  
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Final Project  
Group 7

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## Non-technical Summary

### Abstract

The U.S. Constitution mandates that a census be taken every 10 years to count all people—both citizens and noncitizens—living in the United States. An accurate count of the population serves as the basis for fair political representation and plays a vital role in many areas of public life. For example, census totals help determine the amount of funding that state governments and local communities receive from the federal government for the next decade. Accurate census counts ensure that funding is equitably distributed for numerous programs such as Medicaid, highway planning and construction, special education grants to states, the National School Lunch Program, and Head Start (Mather & Scommegna, 2019). In this report, we perform two lines of analyses on the situation of unemployment by US census demographic data in 2017. We apply Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and Factor Analysis (FA) to reduce the number of variables of the final model and the discovery of latent factors. We analyze the correspondence between job and commute by using canonical correlation analysis (CCA). Then, using six factors from PCA, we perform linear regression with the situation of unemployment as a dependent variable to determine which variables have the highest impact on the performance of unemployment. The result shows that a moderate model could be created using the performance of unemployment and related predictors. Additionally, it shows that 61.03% of the variation in the unemployment variable can be explained by the regression model. The conclusion confirms that the income situation and job type are the most significant predictors to affect the performance of unemployment.

### Data Set

The dataset used in this analysis is “US Census Demographic Data 2017” obtained from Kaggle.com<sup>3</sup>. This data set contains 37 predictors(columns) and 3221 rows one row for every county in the United States. Data points are aggregated on a per capita percentage grouped by county.

## Technical Summary

- Data Cleaning:  
Before we completed our analysis, we first checked the values, found the missing data and performed data cleaning. Even though our data has only one row, it is critical to ensure that missing, incomplete, or otherwise defective data adversely affect results.
- CFA:

Factor analysis can help us find the latent factors which are correlated to our variables. We have more than 30 variables in our data. By using factor analysis, we confirmed these factors in data with a low dimension.

- **PCA:**  
Principal Component Analysis is a tool to help us view the correlation between variables and reduce the dimension of those large data. PCA rotates the observations, and in our data, helped us to check the multicollinearity situation and reduce the dimension of our data.
- **Linear Regression Model:**  
Linear regression model is a basic method of data analysis. We performed linear regression with the situation of unemployment as a dependent variable to determine which variables have the highest impact on the performance of unemployment. We used Ridge and Lasso to reduce the complexity and check the situation of overfitting. We applied the result of principal component analysis to replace most parts of original variables to solve the issue of multicollinearity and to reduce the number of variables.
- **CCA:**  
We used Canonical Correlations Analysis to visualize the correlation between several categorical variables. In our introduction of our data set, we mentioned that almost all variables are numeric or integers, so in our data, we used its applications on confirmation of the correlation between commute and job.
- **LDA:**  
We used Linear Discriminant Analysis for cases where there were two or more objects in data. For our data and goals, it helped to provide better interpretations for our variables like PFA. For our data, used it to build a better predictive model.
- **Gradient Boosting (extra):**  
A regression used for building prediction models which will help us to reach our goal: to predict the situation of unemployment and self-employed.

## Common Factor Analysis (CFA)

Our data is about the census of America in 2017. There are many variables in our data set, which means it may be hard for us to study the correlations among them. By using CFA, we can reduce the number of factors and variables we need to observe, helping us find correlations between variables. In addition, like PCA, CFA also can be used for searching those hidden or latent variables. In our data with so many variables, CFA is critical to cut through noise and see correlations. For our directions, we hope to

predict the Unemployment and Self-employed in our data. The correlation between them and other variables is the core part in our analysis.

The correlations among variables in our data are not very clear for us. We hope to use CFA to show the correlations and find those latent factors. We want to find latent variables because some of the information cannot be collected in the census but they are still important for solving our directions. First of all, we checked our data set and found a row with missing value, then we deleted it. All of our data are numeric so we do not need to create any dummy variable. To start factor analysis, we created the scree plot (Fig. A-1) to confirm how many factors we need. In Scree Plot, the knee point appears at the fifth factor so that we only need four factors in our factor analysis. These four factors are the latent factors and we would explain them later in the analysis and show what these factors represent.

In the first time of factor analysis, we did not rotate the factors and our analysis did not produce a useful result (The output of f1 in Fig.A-2). To get a better SS loading and explanation of factors, we tried varimax rotation in second factor analysis. At this time, we got a better result and the factors can be explained better with variables. From the difference of the model, we can also see the changes between f1 and f2 (Fig.A-3). The last step was to study the correlations among variables. We focused primarily upon the loadings (Fig.A-4). In loadings, for each factor, those non-relative variables are removed so that they can be explained with less variables. With the factors explained better, the relationship and weights of each variable become clear in our analysis.

From the output of loadings in R, we can explain 4 factors:

MR1=

0.984TotalPop+0.983Men+0.984Women+0.976VotingAgeCitizen+0.981Employed

MR2=

-0.687White-0.782Income-0.821IncomePerCap+0.920Poverty+0.887ChildPoverty+0.508PublicWork+0.741Unemployment

MR3=

0.566Professional-0.573Production-0.625Drive+0.548Walk-0.514PrivateWork+0.535PublicWork

MR4=

0.558IncomeErr+0.602IncomePerCapErr+0.604Construction+0.546WorkAtHome-0.577PrivateWork+0.726SelfEmployed

We set the cutoff value as .5. With this cutoff value, we think the number of variables left is suitable for most factors. Doing so enabled us to know what each factor represents and give each a name. The first factor mainly represents population, the

second covers the economic situation, the third factor is relative to people with work and the last factor covers job situation.

In the PCA part, we used 6 factors in our analysis. To compare the difference between their results. We tried 6 factors in our factor analysis and repeated the process again. In this analysis, we found the sixth factor has a significant influence on the whole data (Fig.A-5). We kept using varimax in our factor analysis. From the result, we found the proportion of variance does not have a big change at this time. Finally, we checked the score and evaluated our hypothesis to see whether the factors are sufficient. From the chi-square test, we saw that both 4 and 6 factors are sufficient for the model. From the results, we think PCA has a better performance on our data.

## Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

Principal Component Analysis (PCA) is the general name for a technique that uses sophisticated underlying mathematical principles to transform a number of possibly correlated variables into a smaller number of variables called principal components (Adewumi, 2019). In this report, I apply Principal Component Analysis (PCA) to reduce the number of variables of the final model and discover latent factors. I implemented adequacy tests on our data to test if it is suitable for PCA. Adequacy tests include the correlation matrix, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test, and Bartlett's test of sphericity. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy is a statistic that indicates the proportion of variance in your variables that might be caused by underlying factors. High values (close to 1.0) generally indicate that factor analysis may be useful with your data. If the value is less than 0.50, the results of the factor analysis probably won't be very useful [1].

Bartlett's test of sphericity tests the hypothesis that your correlation matrix is an identity matrix, which would indicate that your variables are unrelated and therefore unsuitable for structure detection. Small values (less than 0.05) of the significance level indicate that factor analysis may be useful with your data [2].

I apply the Pearson r correlation and Spearman rank correlation to analyze the association between each pair of numeric variables. According to the correlation matrix of spearman rank correlation with its visualization plot (Appendix B1), I discovered that the issue of multicollinearity is significant. There are more than 10 pairs of variables in which the R-value is larger than 0.8. According to the correlation matrix of Pearson r correlation with its visualization plot (Appendix B2), the associations between each pair of variables are strong. For example, the "men" variable has a very strong positive association with the "employed" variable. The R-value between the "men" variable and the "employed" variable is close to 1. The "women" variable also has a very strong positive association with the "employed" variable. The R-value between the "women"

variable and the “employed” variable is also close to 1. They mean that the model exists in the issue of multicollinearity.

Next, we measured how many significant correlations each of the variables has. According to the test (Appendix B3), the “income” variable has the largest amount of significant correlations with other variables. “Income” variable has 19 significant correlations. “Countyld” variable and “Pacific” variable have the smallest amount of significant correlations with other variables. There exists one significant correlation.

After measuring the correlations, I implemented adequacy tests on our data to test if it was suitable for PCA. According to the result of Bartlett's test of sphericity test (Appendix B4), the p-value is lower than 2.22e-16 which indicates that factor analysis may be useful with our data. According to the result of the KMO test (Appendix B5), the KMO value is 0.5, indicating the sampling is not adequate and that remedial action was required.

Before performing PCA on a dataset, had to determine the number of principal components that represent the dataset. According to the scree plot graph (Appendix B6) and parallel analysis scree plot graph (Appendix B7), we could keep only the top 6 components whose cumulative proportion is 64.23%. To implement a cutoff of 0.5, we generated the factor loadings for all relevant factors (Appendix B8&B9).

Factor 1: Population Information

$$\text{Factor 1} = 0.983 * \text{TotalPop} + 0.983 * \text{Men} + 0.983 * \text{Women} + 0.978 * \text{VotingAgeCitizen} + 0.981 * \text{Employed}$$

Factor 2: Income Information

$$\text{Factor 2} = 0.605 * \text{Hispanic} - 0.762 * \text{White} - 0.741 * \text{Income} - 0.777 * \text{IncomePerCap} + 0.914 * \text{Poverty} + 0.882 * \text{ChildPoverty} + 0.507 * \text{Service} + 0.528 * \text{PublicWork} + 0.783 * \text{Unemployment}$$

Factor 3: Work Information

$$\text{Factor 3} = 0.685 * \text{IncomeErr} + 0.695 * \text{IncomeCapErr} - 0.516 * \text{Office} + 0.719 * \text{Construction} - 0.505 * \text{PrivateWork} + 0.702 * \text{SelfEmployed}$$

Factor 4: Getting Around

$$\text{Factor 4} = 0.671 * \text{Native} - 0.643 * \text{Drive} + 0.710 * \text{Walk} + 0.626 * \text{OtherTransp}$$

Factor 5: Professional & Production

$$\text{Factor 5} = 0.700 * \text{Professional} - 0.787 * \text{Production}$$

## Factor 6: Race

$$\text{Factor 6} = 0.604 * \text{Asian} + 0.507 * \text{Pacific}$$

The principal component analysis is a technique for feature extraction — so it combines our input variables in a specific way, then we can drop the “least important” variables while still retaining the most valuable parts of all of the variables (Adewumi, 2019). It could help us to discover the underlying factors and eliminate the issue of multicollinearity. In this report, we retained six principal components which replace 27 of the original variables. We could use the result of PCA to build a linear regression model for predicting the performance of “unemployment”.

## Linear Regression model

In this report, we combined the previous knowledge and the concept of what we learned in this quarter to analyze the linear regression model. We applied the regularization regression model to solve the issue of overfitting. We also applied the result of principal component analysis to replace most parts of original variables for solving the issue of multicollinearity and reducing the number of variables. Our full model includes the six principal components which replace 27 of original variables, as well as seven variables which exclude the principal components.

We applied the “unemployment” variable as a dependent variable in the first direction. The dataset needs to be split into a training set and testing set. In this case, the training set takes 70% of the dataset. The testing set takes 30% of the dataset. The sample size is 2,226. We created a linear regression model whose dependent variable is the “unemployment” variable. In the OLS regression model of “unemployment” (Appendix B10, 11, 12), the  $R^2$  of the training set is 62.48%. The RMSE of the training set is 2.3637. The RMSE of the testing set is 2.1478. We applied the regularization regression analysis to handle the “unemployment” model. The regularization regression analysis includes ridge regression analysis, lasso regression analysis, and elastic net regression analysis.

Table 1  
The Result of Regularization Regression Model

Unemployment	RMSE (Train)	RMSE (Test)	$R^2$
OLS	2.3637	2.1478	0.6248
Ridge	2.3844	2.1568	0.6182
Lasso	2.3752	2.1442	0.6211



Elastic Net	2.3774	2.1421	0.6204
-------------	--------	--------	--------

According to the result of table 1, it is obvious the results are very similar. The difference is not significant, and could reasonably be ignored. The “unemployment” model doesn’t address the issue of overfitting.

The distribution of the “unemployment” variable is skewed, so we applied the log transformation to normalize it.

Next, we computed the VIF values to check the issue of multicollinearity. There is no variable in which the VIF value is larger than 10. This means that the model doesn’t exist in the issue of multicollinearity. The correlation plot confirms this conclusion (Appendix B13).

Then, we applied the forward model selection to remove the insignificant predictors and use the goodness of fit to test the performance of the final model. After applying forward model selection, the p-value of every variable is lower than 0.05 (Appendix B14). The RMSE of the training set is 0.336. The RMSE of the testing set is 0.308. The F-value is 320. Adj-R<sup>2</sup> is 0.6103. This means that 61.03% of the variation in the unemployment variable can be explained by the multiple regression model.

$$\text{Unemployment\_log} = 1.198 - 0.002*\text{Black} + 0.007*\text{Carpool} + 0.019*\text{WorkAtHome} + 0.017*\text{MeanCommute} + 0.095*\text{FamilyWork} - 0.006*\text{Population\_Information} + 0.063*\text{Income\_Information} - 0.064*\text{Work\_Information} + 0.029*\text{Getting\_Around} - 0.022*\text{Professional\_Information} + 0.023*\text{Race}$$

I tested the values of the standardized coefficient to check which predictor has the greatest influence on the “unemployment\_log” variable. The “income\_information” variable and “work\_information” variable have the largest absolute value of the standardized coefficient (Appendix B15). They mean that the income situation and job type are the most significant predictors to affect the performance of unemployment.

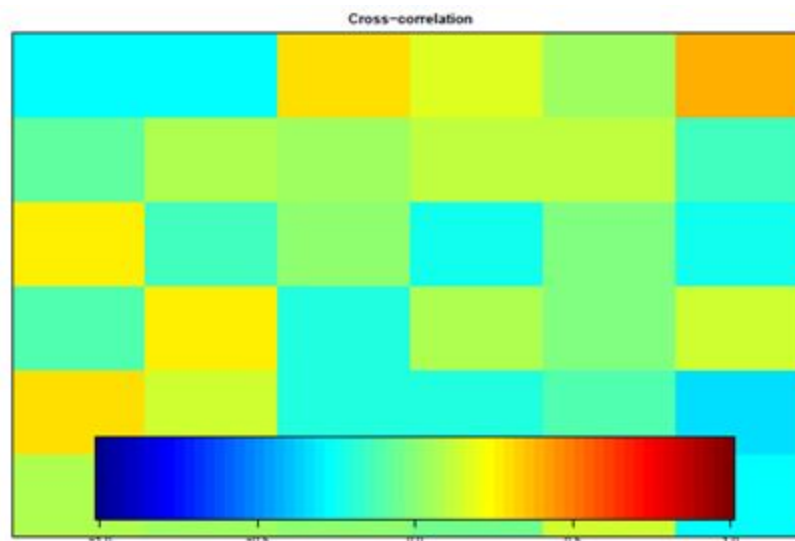
## Canonical Correlation

The second line of investigation chosen was to investigate if a relationship existed between job category and commute category. The first technique employed to analyze this relationship was canonical correlation. An initial corplot <sup>Appendix C</sup> and analysis of the correlation matrix showed some slight, but interesting correlations. For example, the *Professional* job category has the highest correlation with the *WorkAtHome* commute type than any other job type with a correlation of 0.39. The *Professional* job category also has a slight correlation with taking *Transit* 0.3 and a slight negative correlation with *Carpooling* -0.3. There are other interesting relationships such as *Construction* and *Production* are the only two job categories to have a negative correlation with taking *Transit* both at -0.22. Observing the correlation matrix between job type and commute

type we can see some profiles emerge of how certain professions commute to work though the correlations are modest.

```
> round(ccCross, 2)
      Drive Carpool Transit walk otherTransp workAtHome
Professional -0.26 -0.27  0.30  0.16      0.06      0.39
Service      -0.08  0.08  0.04  0.12      0.12     -0.14
Office       0.26 -0.13  0.02 -0.24     -0.02     -0.23
Construction -0.12  0.28 -0.22  0.09     -0.03      0.15
Production   0.29  0.13 -0.22 -0.19     -0.11     -0.33
Unemployment 0.08  0.05  0.02 -0.06      0.15     -0.28
> |
```

The cross correlation plot of the matcor function gives a color ramp graphic of this.



Computing the canonical correlation between the job and commute categories we seem to have two strong variates  $V1 = .58$  and  $V2 = .41$ . A Wilks test would be applied here to determine which variants are significant. However, the Wilks function from class errors out on this data set (see appendix C for more detail), so this is an estimate.

```
> ccCommute$cor
[1] 0.580880416 0.418272974 0.266319940 0.138262607 0.012473605 0.008396557
> |
```

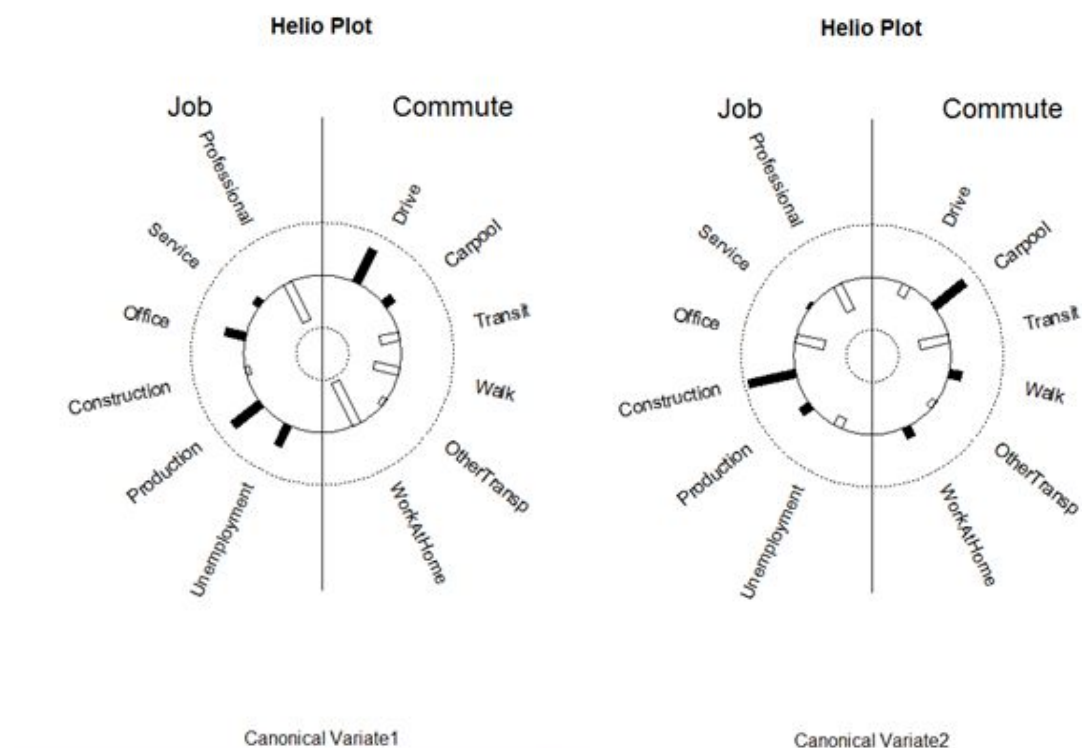
Analyzing the loadings of the canonical correlation we can see that Variant 1 includes the relationship between *Professionals* 0.82 and *WorkingAtHome* 0.91, which was the strongest correlation observed in the initial assessment. Variant 1 also includes the correlation between *Office* -0.4 and *Production* -0.67 workers positive correlation with *Driving* -0.71. Variant 2 represents the relationship between *Construction* 0.92 workers and their positive correlation with *Carpooling* 0.74.

```

> round(-loadingsCommute$corr.X.xscores, 2)
      [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5] [,6]
Professional 0.82 -0.55 -0.10 0.08 -0.02 -0.08
Service      -0.15 0.06 0.83 -0.22 0.10 0.48
Office       -0.40 -0.56 -0.29 0.33 -0.03 0.57
Construction 0.10 0.92 -0.10 0.36 -0.08 0.03
Production   -0.67 0.23 -0.19 -0.38 0.05 -0.56
Unemployment -0.44 -0.19 0.63 0.57 -0.09 -0.20
> round(-loadingsCommute$corr.Y.yscores, 2)
      [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5] [,6]
Drive     -0.71 -0.24 -0.64 -0.14 0.14 0.01
Carpool   -0.20 0.74 0.22 0.23 -0.56 0.03
Transit    0.37 -0.58 0.40 -0.06 -0.59 -0.13
Walk       0.50 0.25 0.68 -0.27 0.38 -0.11
OtherTransp 0.09 -0.11 0.68 0.61 0.35 0.17
WorkAtHome 0.91 0.22 -0.26 0.20 0.11 0.08

```

The relationship of the variants to their primary coefficients can more easily be observed in the following helio plots. In this model, the dark bars represent positive correlation, the white bars represent negative correlation. The size of the bars represent the strength of correlation.



Canonical correlation shows that relationships between job type and commute type do exist. However, the strength of those correlations is slight. Also, validation of the significance of these correlations is incomplete due to issues with the Wilks test function

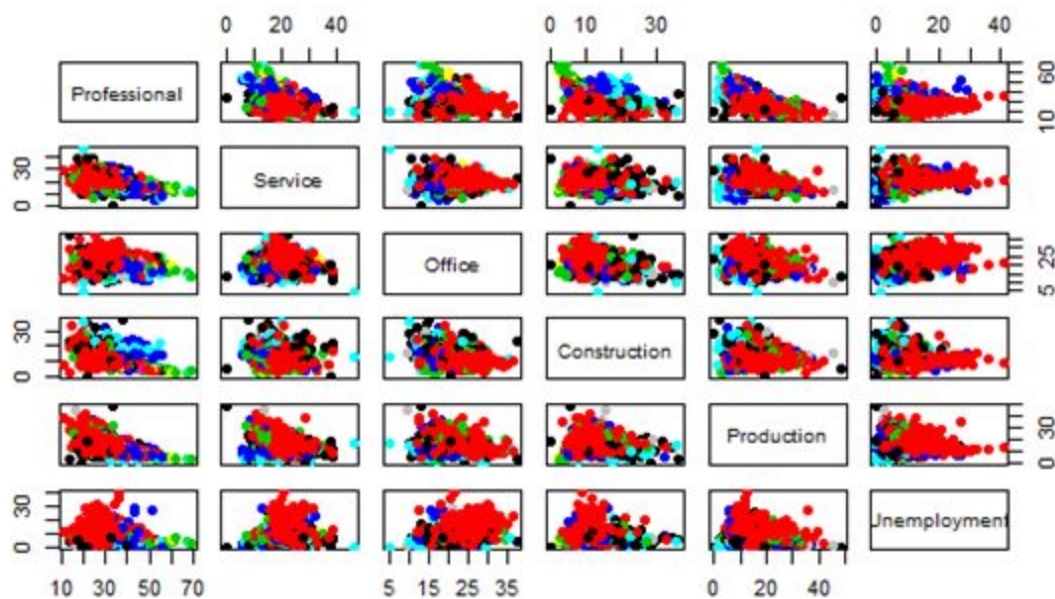
used in class (see more on this in Appendix C). Also, chi square will not work as a validation tool for this data set since it is meant to measure frequency data and the data in this analysis is aggregated.

## LDA

The second technique used in analysis of the job type and commute type data was LDA (Linear Discriminant Analysis). To facilitate this the data was grouped into a new categorical variable named 'region'. LDA was then implemented to see if regions could be distinguished by the per capita percentage employed in a job type or commute type.

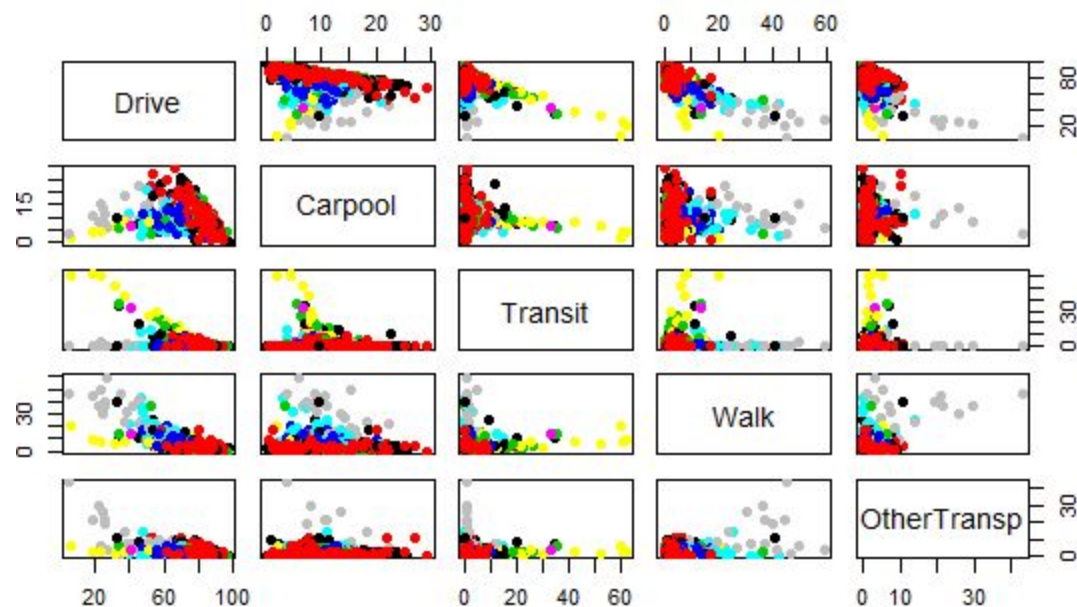
A new categorical variable named region was created by classifying the data by state name into one of the 10 region partitions used by the Law School Admission Council LSAC on their website<sup>22</sup>. LSAC, however, does not group Alaska into a region. Therefore, Alaska was added to the NW region with Oregon and Washington.

Initial plot of region (colored) by job type



Analysis: The regions overlap each other. No observable grouping by job type.

Initial plot of region (colored) by commute type



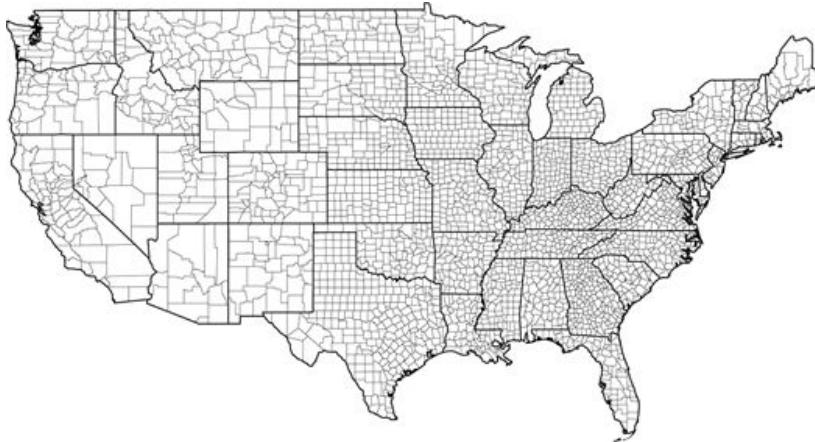
Analysis: The regions overlap each other, but there appears to be a little bit of separation by region based on commute type.

The output from the `lda()` function provides some interesting insight. First, the probabilities of the regions are not evenly distributed. The West and NorthWest are the least represented. This is likely due to the data's grouping by county. The Western part of the United States has far larger county sizes in terms of geographical size than the rest of the country.

```
lda(region ~ Professional + Service + Office + Construction +
     Production + Unemployment, data = census3)

Prior probabilities of groups:
  G_Lake  Mid_Sou  Mid_W  Mnt_W  N_East  New_Eng  NW
0.16273292 0.16490683 0.16490683 0.08198758 0.04658385 0.02080745 0.03229814
  South_C  South_E  W
0.14596273 0.15496894 0.02484472
```





Second, the group means for the job types are all VERY similar. There are a couple that stand out like the Great lake region has a high production average and the Southeast has high unemployment, but even these extremes are not that much different from the other regions and this is the underlying reason why job type value will fail to differentiate the different regions.

Group means:

	Professional	Service	Office	Construction	Production	Unemployment
G_Lake	30.66240	17.71126	21.69408	10.843130	19.08874	5.756489
Mid_Sou	31.12938	18.25104	22.33296	11.675330	16.61789	7.222411
Mid_W	33.43315	16.74727	20.66328	13.354049	15.80490	4.190772
Mnt_W	33.49962	19.36023	20.91288	14.955682	11.27727	5.654924
N_East	34.67000	18.58467	22.69000	9.890667	14.15333	6.409333
New_Eng	38.37910	18.33731	22.12388	10.186567	10.96716	5.476119
NW	32.75962	18.89423	21.19615	13.729808	13.41346	7.786538
South_C	29.39149	18.31468	21.86213	14.931064	15.50468	6.452340
South_E	29.15190	18.83988	23.28337	11.925451	16.79739	10.214629
W	32.89500	21.04750	21.83375	13.303750	10.91250	7.821250

Third, the coefficients of linear discriminants, like the group means above, are similar and they generally move in the same direction (are all positive or negative at the same time) for a given LD. The exception to this is Unemployment which generally has an opposite sign as the other job type confidents. Perhaps this is because unemployment more represents a lack of a job type than being a job type itself.

coefficients of linear discriminants:

	LD1	LD2	LD3	LD4	LD5	LD6
Professional	0.7205762	-0.3160303	-1.97353166	-0.08354653	-0.92387927	-15.06633510
Service	0.7309941	-0.2637075	-1.97860777	0.21148975	-0.86572823	-15.06502724
Office	0.5870156	-0.2579477	-2.10267139	0.05005971	-1.22020101	-15.02896161
Construction	0.7859918	-0.1364708	-2.18222221	-0.06036687	-0.95810288	-15.03113815
Production	0.6254789	-0.4181942	-2.10174135	-0.01503509	-0.89999021	-15.05210516
unemployment	-0.2199167	0.1470830	0.04288419	-0.15211054	0.09675483	-0.02167429

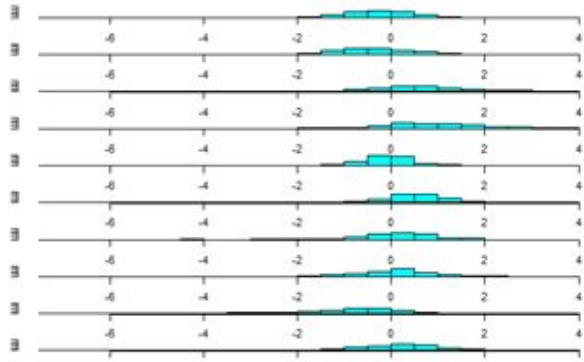
Proportion of trace:

LD1	LD2	LD3	LD4	LD5	LD6
0.5010	0.3461	0.1139	0.0247	0.0104	0.0039

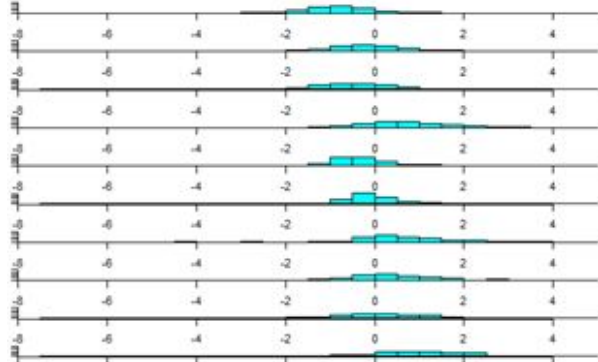
Fourth, the majority of the trace can be found in the first two linear discriminates. LD1 represents ~50% and LD2 ~34%. Together they account for 84% of the trace.

Looking at the discriminant histograms we see an illustration of what is observed with the group means. The distribution of job types are very similar throughout the regions. Some might be skewed and have a long tail in one direction, but for the most part they overlap making the regions impossible to separate on job type alone.

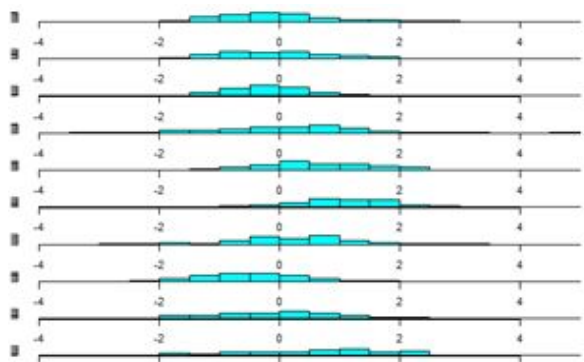
LD1



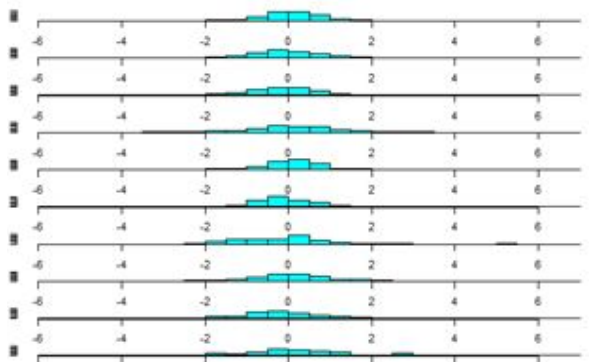
LD2



LD3

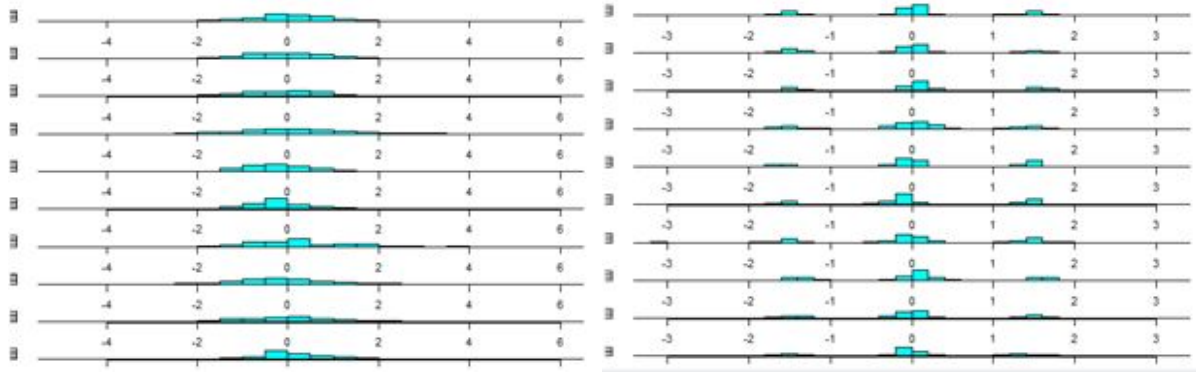


LD4

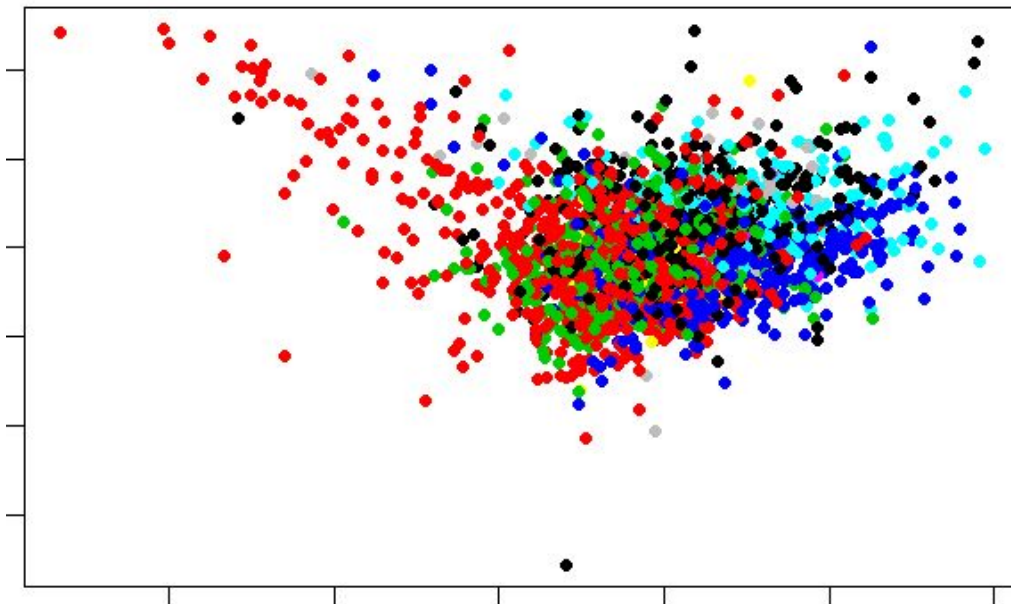


LD5

LD6



Plotting the loading of LD1 and LD2, which together represent 84% of our trace, we get the following plot. The regions are overlapping based on job type, with a few of the job types that are skewed one way or the other having some separation with part of its data points, with the bulk of the data points still overlapping and bunched together.



In conclusion U.S. regions in this data set cannot be partitioned into distinct grouping based on job type using LDA because the distribution of job type is too similar across the various regions. The same is true for commute type. The analysis for using commute type independent variables to separate regions was not included in this analysis, because the result is the same as what was observed using job type. One potential issue might be the format of the data in that we are analyzing aggregate data.



## Gradient Boosting (Extra)

Gradient Boosting is a tool used for helping us build a predictive model of our data set. It is a kind of machine learning technique. We want to use it because we think it will be very helpful in predicting the situation of Self-Employed and Unemployment. This technique is relative to several functions such as iteratively.

In R, the package “gbm” is required for this part. This package contains a function called gbm. In this function, we have to call the data set we used, the distribution, the shrinkage and n.trees. The distribution means the assumptions about the data distribution of the output variables, which is required when we calculate the loss function. The shrinkage is the speed of moving to gradient descent in each iteration. In most situations, the smaller shrinkage means the better model of boosting. The n.trees, which represents number of iterations, an important element related to learning rate and performance of model.

Before we built our gradient boosting model, we divided our data set into train sets and testing sets, like what we did in Ridge and Lasso Regression. Then we use the train set and call the predictor Self-Employed dependent variable. We used “gaussian” as distribution which is mostly used in categorical objects. The shrinkage is 0.01 which is small enough for our predictive model. We let the number of iterations equal to 10000 and its depth equal to 4.

Then we can get our predictive model (Fig.D-1). From the plot, we can find that the total population, employed and drive commute have the most influence on Self-Employed. If we compared the result with the prediction of Ridge and Lasso, we can find some difference between them. If we want to know more about its performance, we need to test its accuracy of prediction and that is why we splitted train set and testing set. Then let check the result of testing (Fig.D-2). By comparing these 2 results and calculating the accuracy of prediction, we can know that the model does not have a good performance on our data.

## Future Work

Additional validation of the canonical correlation variants using a wilks test as well as other validation techniques. It would also be interesting to perform our analysis on the full, non-aggregated, US census dataset. This dataset would be huge! In the millions of rows. However, it would allow us to analyze a finer grain of the data and it would be interesting to see if the results are any different.

## Conclusion

We apply PCA and factor analysis to reduce the number of variables and discover the underlying factors. Because of the result of the parallel scree plot, PCA retains 6 principal components and factor analysis retains 4 components. However, the difference is not significant. Because they don't have a good performance according to

their low KMO values. We use the result of PCA to build a linear regression model for predicting the performance of “unemployment”. The result shows that the income situation and job type have the most significant effect on the performance of unemployment.

GBM is a new technique we did not learn yet in our class. We used it because we believe it will be helpful in our prediction. Even though the model does not have good performance on our data, it helped us confirm some information and details in our data. For example, from the model, we can learn that the total population has the greatest influence on our dependent variables.

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## Appendix

### Variables

Variable Name	Description	Data Type
CountyId	Census tract ID	Int
State	States of US	String
County	County or county equivalent	String
TotalPop	Total Population	Int
Men	Number of men	Int
Women	Number of women	Int
Hispanic	% of population that is Hispanic/Latino	Numeric
White	% of population that is White	Numeric
Black	% of population that is Black	Numeric

Native	% of population that is Native American or Alaskan	Numeric
Asian	% of population that is Asian	Numeric
Pacific	% of population that is Native Hawaiian or islander	Numeric
VotingAgeCitizen	Number of citizens can vote	Int
Income	Median household income (\$)	Int
IncomeErr	Median household income error (\$)	Int
IncomePerCap	Income per capita (\$)	Int
IncomePerCapErr	Income per capita error (\$)	Int
Poverty	% under poverty level	Numeric
ChildPoverty	% of child under poverty level	Numeric
Professional	% employed in management, business, science and arts	Numeric
Service	% employed in service jobs	Numeric
Office	% employed in sales and office jobs	Numeric
Construction	% employed in natural resources, construction and maintenance	Numeric
Production	% employed in production, transportation and material movement	Numeric

Drive	% commuting alone in a car, van or truck	Numeric
Carpool	% carpooling in a car, van or truck	Numeric
Transit	% commuting on public transportation	Numeric
Walk	% walking to work	Numeric
OtherTransp	% commuting via other means	Numeric
WorkAtHome	% working at home	Numeric
MeanCommute	Mean commute time (min)	Int
Employed	Number of employed (16+)	Int
PrivateWork	% employed in private industry	Numeric
PublicWork	% employed in public jobs	Numeric
SelfEmployed	% self-employed	Numeric
FamilyWork	% in unpaid family work	Numeric
Unemployed	Unemployed rate (%)	Numeric

## Appendix A

### Individual Report Jingxuan Yang

In this project, I discussed with my teammates about which data we can use. Most of the data sets are interesting. After we confirmed the data set, I helped my team build the histograms of our variables and clear up them. I did the part of factor analysis, compared its results with the output of PCA. I tried a different number of factors and rotations on factor analysis. I analyzed the results and shared them with my group members to discuss them. At last, I tried the gradient boosting for our project. I selected this technique because it can help build a predictive model and our goals is to predict and build models for some variables in our data set. I learned the technique and its code online. Then I applied it to our data. Fortunately, the model can provide some useful information for us.

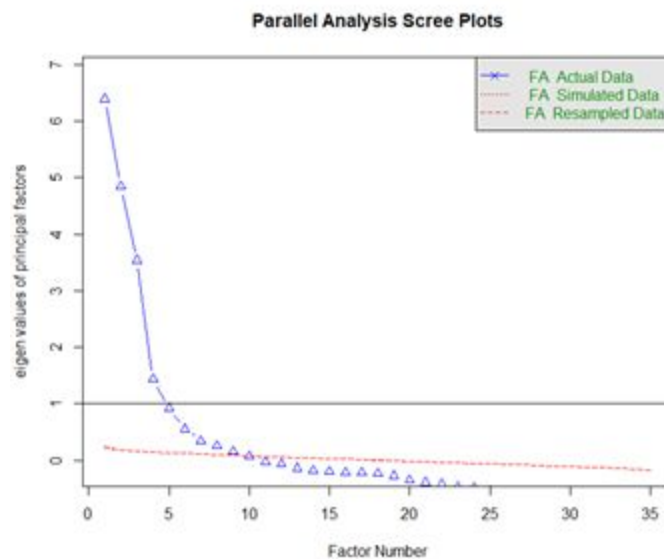


Fig.A-1 Scree Plot

```

> fa
Factor Analysis using method = minres
Call: fa(r = census_2, nfactors = 4, rotate = "none")
Standardized loadings (pattern matrix) based upon correlation matrix

```

	MR1	MR2	MR3	MR4	h2	u2 com
CountyId	-0.10	0.10	0.05	-0.02	0.021	0.9775
TotalPop	0.87	0.35	0.19	0.28	0.990	0.0101
Men	0.87	0.34	0.19	0.28	0.988	0.0119
Women	0.87	0.35	0.19	0.27	0.991	0.0092
Hispanic	-0.08	0.42	0.28	0.02	0.260	0.7404
White	0.05	-0.65	-0.42	0.18	0.828	0.1719
Black	-0.03	0.40	-0.06	-0.10	0.178	0.8223
Native	-0.13	0.02	0.45	-0.18	0.257	0.7434
Asian	0.37	0.03	0.19	-0.27	0.432	0.5680
Pacific	0.06	-0.03	0.15	-0.13	0.045	0.9550
votingAgeCitizen	0.88	0.34	0.18	0.24	0.986	0.0138
Income	0.62	-0.55	-0.10	-0.30	0.786	0.2137
IncomeErr	-0.26	-0.38	0.28	0.24	0.350	0.6504
IncomePerCap	0.64	-0.62	-0.04	-0.27	0.861	0.1395
IncomePerCapErr	-0.25	-0.43	0.31	0.26	0.407	0.5929
Poverty	-0.43	0.77	0.28	0.00	0.858	0.1417
ChildPoverty	-0.42	0.77	0.19	0.05	0.813	0.1865
Professional	0.51	-0.37	0.24	-0.36	0.580	0.4198
Service	-0.17	0.38	0.27	-0.13	0.248	0.7515
Office	0.19	0.20	-0.21	-0.26	0.236	0.7635
Construction	-0.40	-0.20	0.17	0.47	0.451	0.5495
Production	-0.27	0.14	-0.44	0.28	0.363	0.6367
Drive	-0.15	0.32	-0.71	0.04	0.634	0.3662
Carpool	-0.15	0.05	0.08	0.17	0.060	0.9402
Transit	0.46	0.09	0.22	-0.16	0.292	0.7079
walk	-0.04	-0.29	0.60	-0.10	0.462	0.5380
OtherTransp	0.02	-0.01	0.39	-0.21	0.196	0.8043
workAtHome	0.08	-0.54	0.41	0.15	0.492	0.5085
MeanCommute	0.14	0.27	-0.23	-0.01	0.150	0.8504
Employed	0.88	0.33	0.19	0.26	0.989	0.0109
PrivateWork	0.37	0.12	-0.78	-0.01	0.761	0.2391
PublicWork	-0.32	0.17	0.64	-0.25	0.607	0.3935
SelfEmployed	-0.17	-0.47	0.39	0.39	0.551	0.4493
FamilyWork	-0.11	-0.25	0.24	0.22	0.178	0.8216
Unemployment	-0.26	0.69	0.22	-0.15	0.613	0.3872

	MR1	MR2	MR3	MR4
SS loadings	6.66	5.33	3.99	5.74
Proportion var	0.19	0.15	0.11	0.05
Cumulative var	0.19	0.34	0.46	0.51
Proportion Explained	0.38	0.30	0.23	0.10
Cumulative Proportion	0.38	0.68	0.90	1.00

Fig.A-2 Factor Analysis Output 1

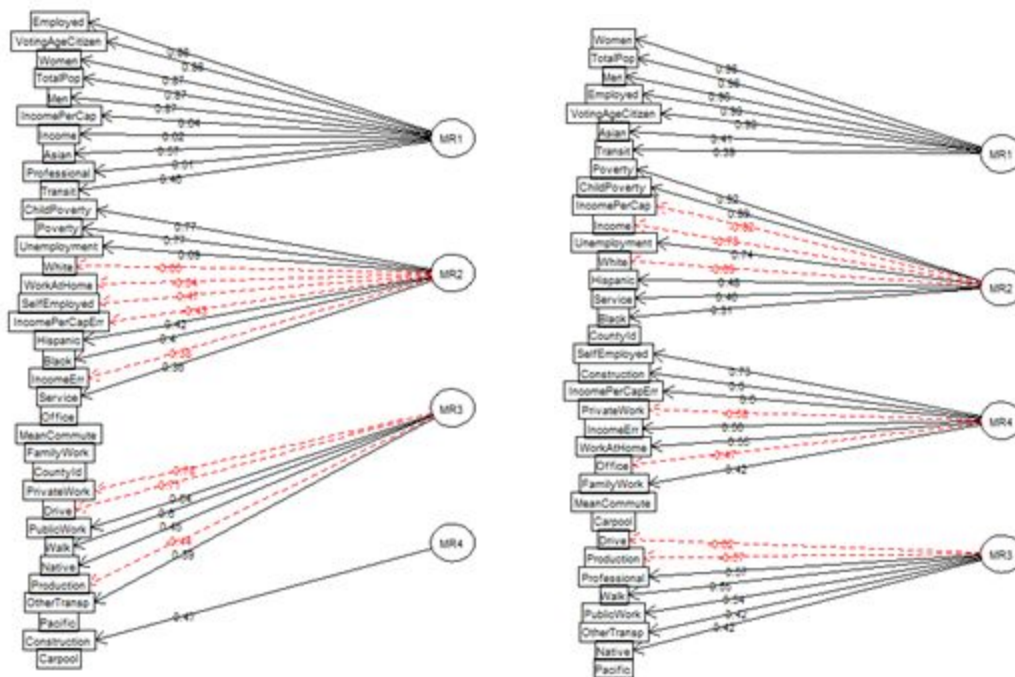


Fig.A-3 Factor Analysis Model

```
> print(F2$loadings, cutoff=.5)

Loadings:
      MR1  MR2  MR4  MR3
CountyId
TotalPop      0.984
Men           0.983
Women         0.984
Hispanic
white         -0.687
Black
Native
Asian
Pacific
VotingAgeCitizen 0.976
Income
IncomeErr      -0.782
IncomePerCap    0.558
IncomePerCapErr -0.821
Poverty         0.920
ChildPoverty    0.887
Professional
Service
Office
Construction    0.604
Production      -0.573
Drive           -0.625
Carpool
Transit
walk            0.548
OtherTransp
workAtHome
MeanCommute
Employed        0.981
PrivateWork     -0.577
PublicWork      0.508
SelfEmployed    0.726
FamilyWork
Unemployment     0.741

      MR1  MR2  MR4  MR3
SS loadings  5.563 5.386 3.575 3.189
Proportion Var 0.159 0.154 0.102 0.091
Cumulative Var 0.159 0.313 0.415 0.506
```

Fig.A-4 Factor Analysis Loading

```
Loadings:
      MR1  MR2  MR4  MR6  MR3  MR5
CountyId
TotalPop      0.987
Men           0.986
Women         0.987
Hispanic
white         -0.573
Black
Native
Asian
Pacific
VotingAgeCitizen 0.980
Income
IncomeErr      -0.807
IncomePerCap    0.545
IncomePerCapErr -0.811
Poverty         0.887
ChildPoverty    0.852
Professional
Service
Office
Construction    -0.426
Production      0.554
Drive           -0.455
Carpool
Transit
walk            0.653
OtherTransp
workAtHome
MeanCommute
Employed        0.984
PrivateWork     -0.454
PublicWork      0.555
SelfEmployed    0.787
FamilyWork
Unemployment     0.710

      MR1  MR2  MR4  MR6  MR3  MR5
SS loadings  5.565 5.042 3.739 2.559 1.979 1.479
Proportion Var 0.159 0.144 0.107 0.073 0.057 0.042
Cumulative Var 0.159 0.303 0.410 0.483 0.540 0.582
```

Fig.A-5 Result of nfactor6

Code:

```
# read data American Census 2017
```

```
census = read.csv("acs2017.csv")
head(census)
```

```
census_2 = as.data.frame(census[,-c(2,3)])
head(census_2)
```



```

# we need the library psych
library(psych)

# Confirm how many factors we need in CFA
fn = fa.parallel(census_2, fm = 'minres', fa = 'fa')

# FA: use fa() function
f1 = fa(census_2, nfactor = 4, rotate = "none")
f1
factor.plot(f1, labels=rownames(f1$loadings))
fa.diagram(f1, digits = 2)
print(f1$loadings, cutoff=.4)

f1s = f1$scores
f1s

f2 = fa(census_2, nfactor = 4, rotate = "varimax")
f2
fa.diagram(f2, digits = 2)

print(f2$loadings, cutoff=.5)

f3 = fa(census_2, nfactor = 6, rotate = "none")
f3
fa.diagram(f3, digits = 2)
print(f3$loadings, cutoff=.4)

f4 = fa(census_2, nfactor = 6, rotate = "varimax")
f4
fa.diagram(f4, digits = 2)
print(f4$loadings, cutoff=.4)

f4$scores

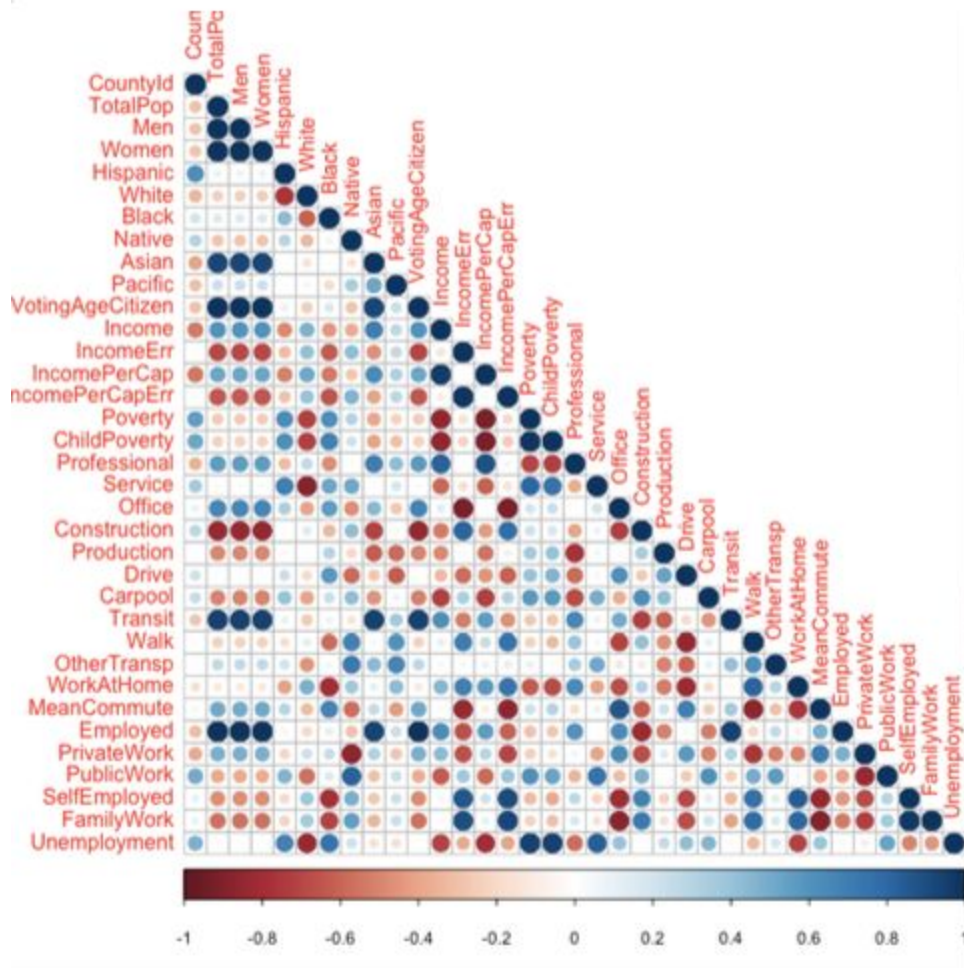
```

## Appendix B

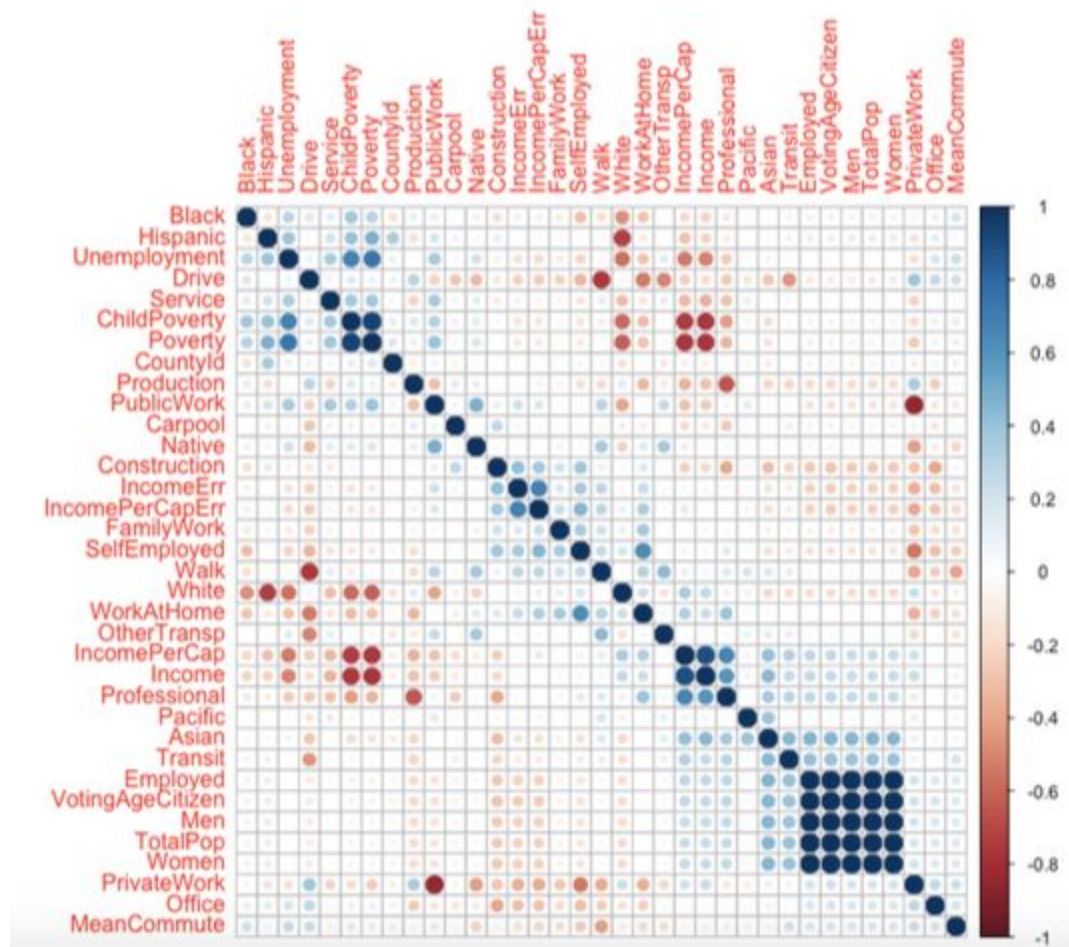
### Individual Report Sam Song

In this project, I cooperated with my group partners for selecting the dataset and cleaning the data. I chose to focus on applying PCA and combine the result of PCA with the multiple regression model. Because of the low KMO value, the performance of PCA is not good. I use the result of PCA to build a linear regression model for predicting the performance of “unemployment”. The result shows that the income situation and job type have the most significant effect on the performance of unemployment. In this report, I apply multiple regression models, which is previous knowledge, and combine it with the concept that I learned in this class. I learned too much new technology about data analysis. This experiment is very useful in future work.

B1



B2



B3

CountyId	TotalPop	Men	Women	Hispanic
1	13	13	13	9
White	Black	Native	Asian	Pacific
10	12	6	12	1
VotingAgeCitizen	Income	IncomeErr	IncomePerCap	IncomePerCapErr
14	19	15	16	16
Poverty	ChildPoverty	Professional	Service	Office
11	11	18	10	15
Construction	Production	Drive	Carpool	Transit
15	8	13	2	11
Walk	OtherTransp	WorkAtHome	MeanCommute	Employed
13	5	18	11	14
PrivateWork	PublicWork	SelfEmployed	FamilyWork	Unemployment
18	12	11	11	11

B4

## Bartlett's Test of Sphericity

Call: bart\_spher(x = scale\_train)

X2 = 333868.033

df = 595

p-value < 2.22e-16

B5

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin factor adequacy

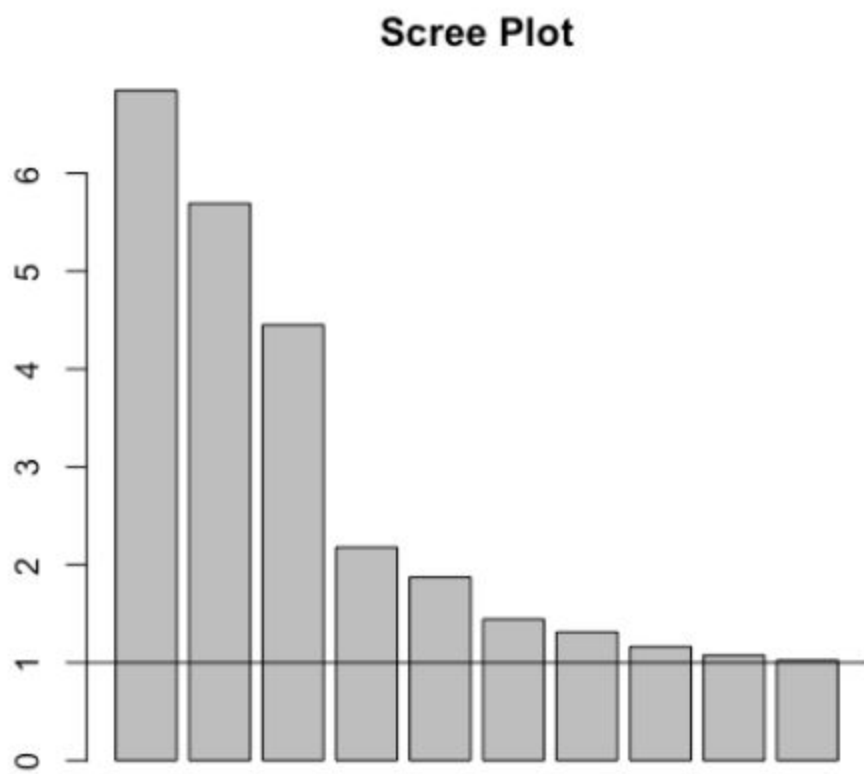
Call: KMO(r = scale\_train)

Overall MSA = 0.5

MSA for each item =

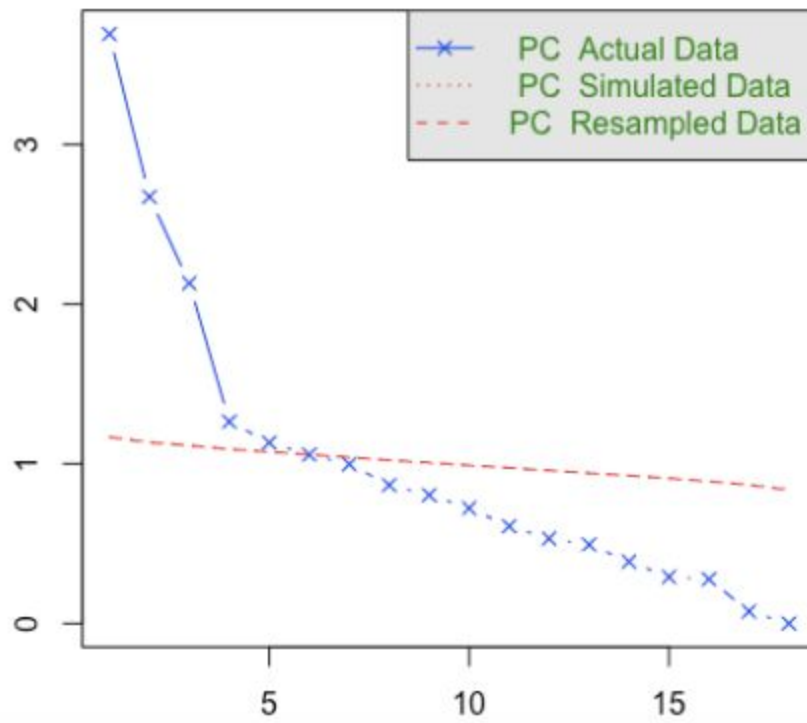
CountyId	TotalPop	Men	Women	Hispanic
0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
White	Black	Native	Asian	Pacific
0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
VotingAgeCitizen	Income	IncomeErr	IncomePerCap	IncomePerCapErr
0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
Poverty	ChildPoverty	Professional	Service	Office
0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
Construction	Production	Drive	Carpool	Transit
0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
Walk	OtherTransp	WorkAtHome	MeanCommute	Employed
0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
PrivateWork	PublicWork	SelfEmployed	FamilyWork	Unemployment
0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5

B6



B7

**Parallel Analysis Scree Plots**



B8



	RC1	RC2	RC4	RC3	RC5	RC6
TotalPop	0.983					
Men	0.983					
Women	0.983					
VotingAgeCitizen	0.978					
Employed	0.981					
Hispanic		0.605				
White		-0.762				
Income		-0.741				
IncomePerCap		-0.777				
Poverty		0.914				
ChildPoverty		0.882				
Service		0.507				
PublicWork		0.528				
Unemployment		0.783				
IncomeErr			0.685			
IncomePerCapErr			0.695			
Office			-0.516			
Construction			0.719			
PrivateWork			-0.505			
SelfEmployed			0.702			
Native				0.671		
Drive				-0.643		
Walk				0.710		
OtherTransp				0.626		
Professional					0.700	
Production					-0.787	
Asian						0.604
Pacific						0.507
CountyId						
Black						
Carpool						
Transit						
WorkAtHome						
MeanCommute						
FamilyWork						

B9

	RC1	RC2	RC4	RC3	RC5	RC6
SS loadings	5.655	5.649	3.638	3.061	2.548	1.932
Proportion Var	0.162	0.161	0.104	0.087	0.073	0.055
Cumulative Var	0.162	0.323	0.427	0.514	0.587	0.642

B10

```
Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 2.382 on 2220 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared:  0.6248,    Adjusted R-squared:  0.6192 
F-statistic: 112 on 33 and 2220 DF,  p-value: < 2.2e-16
```

B11

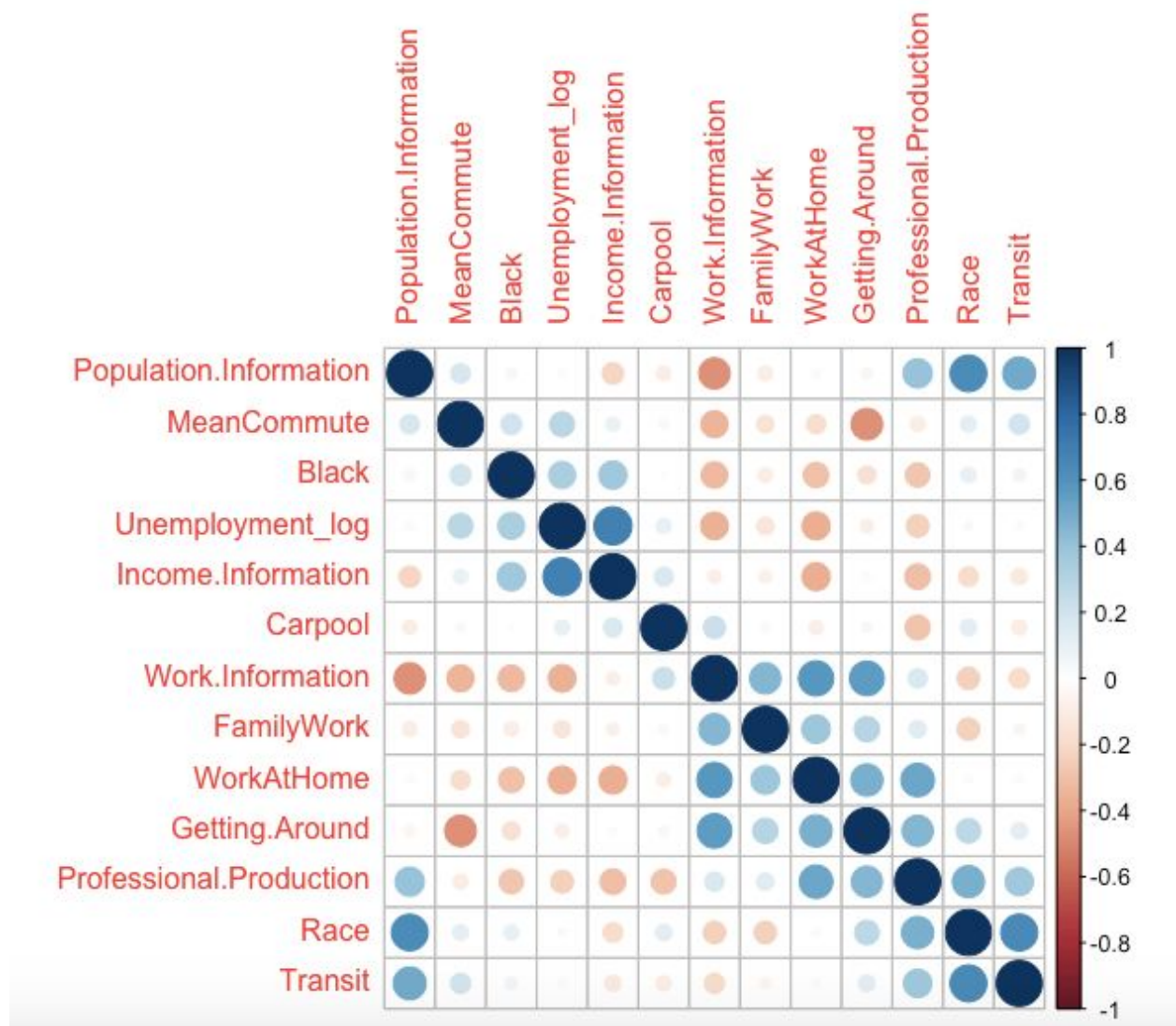
```
> train_rmse <- sqrt(mean(residuals(train_model)^2))
> train_rmse
[1] 2.363745
```

B12

```
> actual = test$Unemployment
> test_rmse <- sqrt(mean((prediction - actual)^2))
> test_rmse
[1] 2.147833
```

B13





B14

```

Call:
lm(formula = Unemployment_log ~ ., data = train_2)

Residuals:
    Min       1Q   Median       3Q      Max
-2.3353 -0.1528  0.0301  0.1879  1.5546

Coefficients:
              Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)   1.1981324   0.0482464   24.834 < 2e-16 ***
Black        -0.0024368   0.0006109   -3.989 6.85e-05 ***
Carpool        0.0069253   0.0031094    2.227 0.026032 *
WorkAtHome     0.0192033   0.0041898    4.583 4.83e-06 ***
MeanCommute    0.0171020   0.0015656   10.923 < 2e-16 ***
FamilyWork     0.0954617   0.0199252    4.791 1.77e-06 ***
Population.Information -0.0063777 0.0019274   -3.309 0.000951 ***
Income.Information  0.0628316   0.0017281   36.359 < 2e-16 ***
Work.Information -0.0640167   0.0034885  -18.351 < 2e-16 ***
Getting.Around   0.0287005   0.0038576    7.440 1.43e-13 ***
Professional.Production -0.0218529 0.0043715   -4.999 6.21e-07 ***
Race            0.0227853   0.0069216    3.292 0.001011 **
---
Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 0.337 on 2233 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared:  0.6122,    Adjusted R-squared:  0.6103
F-statistic: 320.5 on 11 and 2233 DF,  p-value: < 2.2e-16

```

B15

```

> lm.beta(train_model2)
              Black              Carpool              WorkAtHome
        -0.06504122         0.03807253         0.10621276
        MeanCommute        FamilyWork  Population.Information
         0.18266317         0.07881892        -0.07293685
        Income.Information    Work.Information    Getting.Around
         0.65362316        -0.46722955         0.18604917
        Professional.Production              Race
        -0.11555795         0.09196994

```

CODE:

```

library(corrplot)
library(psych)

```

```

#read file
census = read.csv("acs2017.csv")
head(census)
census_2 = as.data.frame(census[,-c(2,3)])

```

```

head(census_2)

#scaling the data
scale_train = scale(census_2)

# Adequacy Test
cor.data = cor(scale_train)
cor.data
#corrplot 1 with value
round(corrplot(cor(cor.data,method="spearman"), method = "number",
                type = "lower"), 2)
#corrplot 2 with circle graph
round(corrplot(cor(cor.data,method="spearman"), method = "circle",
                type = "lower"), 2)
#corrplot 3 with aoe order
corrplot(cor.data, order="AOE")

# Run a correlation test to see how correlated the variables are. Which correlations are
significant
CorrTest = corr.test(cor.data, adjust="none")
round(CorrTest$p, 2)

M = CorrTest$p
M

# Now, for each element, see if it is < .01 (or whatever significance) and set the entry to
# true = significant or false
MTest = ifelse(M < .01, T, F)
MTest

# Now lets see how many significant correlations there are for each variable. We can
do
# this by summing the columns of the matrix
colSums(MTest) - 1 # We have to subtract 1 for the diagonal elements (self-correlation)

install.packages('REdaS')
install.packages('grid')
library(REdaS)
library(grid)
#check Bartlett's Test of Sphericity p-value
bart_spher(scale_train) #p-value < 2.22e-16
#kmo test
library(psych)
KMO(scale_train) #Overall MSA = 0.5

```

```

# PCA
p = prcomp(scale_train, center = T)
summary(p)
plot(p, main = 'Scree Plot')
abline(1,0)
fa.parallel(train,fa="pc")

# Rotation and Interpretation
p1 = principal(scale_train, rotate = 'varimax', nfactors = 6, scores = TRUE)
print(p1$loadings, cutoff = 0.5, sort = T)

score = p1$scores
score

colnames(score) <- c("Population Information", "Income Information", "Work
Information",
                    "Getting Around", "Professional&Production", "Race")
head(score)
install.packages('xlsx')
library(xlsx)

write.csv(score, "6pc_scores.csv")

census = read.csv("acs2017_Unem.csv")
head(census)

hist(census$Unemployment)
hist(log(census$Unemployment))

install.packages("rcompanion")
library(rcompanion)
library(MASS)
library(car)

Unemployment_log=log(census$Unemployment)
census$Unemployment_log <- Unemployment_log
census
head(census)
census_2 = as.data.frame(census[,-c(7)])
head(census_2)
census_3 <- census_2[-c(2,6,18,102,657,1235,1635,1623,2136,2528,2722,3220),]
census_3

```

```

#split train and test

## 70% of the sample size
smp_size <- floor(0.7 * nrow(census_3))
## set the seed to make your partition reproducible
set.seed(321)
train_ind <- sample(seq_len(nrow(census_3)), size = smp_size)
train <- census_3[train_ind, ]
test <- census_3[-train_ind, ]

#RMSE of train and test (Unemployment)
train_model = lm(Unemployment_log ~ ., data =train)
summary(train_model)
train_rmse <- sqrt(mean(residuals(train_model)^2))
train_rmse
prediction <- predict(train_model, test)
actual = test$Unemployment_log
test_rmse <- sqrt(mean((prediction - actual)^2))
test_rmse

# Adequacy Test
cor.data = cor(train)
cor.data
#corrplot 1 with value
round(corrplot(cor(cor.data,method="spearman"), method = "number",
                type = "lower"), 2)
#corrplot 2 with circle graph
round(corrplot(cor(cor.data,method="spearman"), method = "circle",
                type = "lower"), 2)
#corrplot 3 with aoe order
corrplot(cor.data, order="AOE")

#check multicollinearity by VIF
vif(train_model)

#forward
install.packages("leaps")
null=lm(Unemployment_log ~ 1, data=train)
null
full=lm(Unemployment_log ~., data=train)
summary(full)
forward=step(null, scope=list(lower=null,upper=full), direction='forward', trace=F)

```

```

summary(forward)

#reset the training and testing data
train_2 = as.data.frame(train[,-c(3)])
head(train_2)
test_2 = as.data.frame(test[,-c(3)])
head(test_2)

#RMSE of train and test 2(Unemployment)
train_model2 = lm(Unemployment_log ~ ., data =train_2)
summary(train_model2)
train_rmse2 <- sqrt(mean(residuals(train_model2)^2))
train_rmse2
prediction <- predict(train_model2, test)
actual = test$Unemployment_log
test_rmse2 <- sqrt(mean((prediction - actual)^2))
test_rmse2

#new model (SelfEmployed)
train_model2 = lm(Unemployment_log ~ ., data =train_2)
summary(train_model2)

#check standardized estimate
library(QuantPsyc)
lm.beta(train_model2)

```

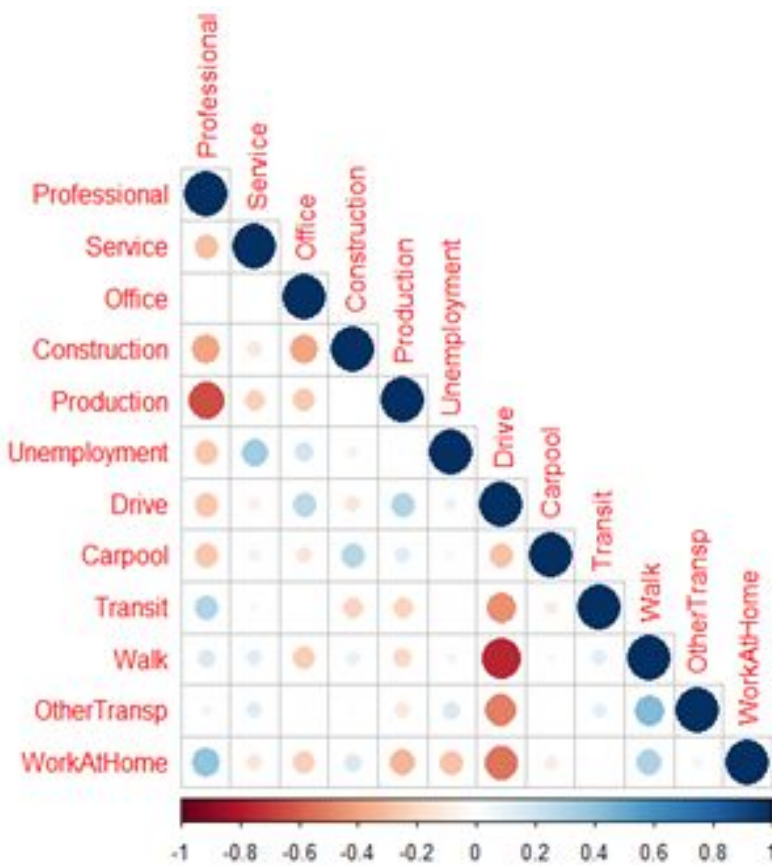
## Appendix C

### Individual Report Adam Frink

This semester I worked with my teammates to select a dataset and decide on which lines of investigation would be interesting to model. I chose to focus on the job category vs commute category line of investigation. My goal was to use methods learned after the midterm to analyze this potential relationship. Since the topics were recently introduced it made analysis more of a challenge, but helped to cement the material. I initially attempted correspondence analysis and Cluster analysis. However, these methods weren't appropriate for my dataset which is aggregated per US county and had 1 categorical variable 'State'. Canonical correlation, the final method covered in class, seemed to be just what I was looking for to analyze the relationship between two groups of data points, which was the question I was trying to answer. I found some worthwhile relationships here, but had continued problems running the wilks function. Since there were issues with the canonical correlation technique I also chose to create a categorical variable to enable investigation using LDA.

## Canonical Correlation

### Original Data Assessment Corrplot Job vs Commute



## Issues With Wilks

My wilks function should only produce 6 rows since i have a 6X6 matrix of x y variables and therefore 6 variants. However, the wilks function when I run it with my dataset produces 200 rows and then cuts out.

```
> wilksCommute = ccawilks(job, commute, ccCommute)
warning message:
In pf(f, d1, d2, lower.tail = FALSE) : NaNs produced
> round(wilksCommute, 2)
```

	wilksL	F	df1	df2	p
[1,]	0.50	0	373262400	-406598670.19	NaN
[2,]	0.75	0	373223761	-406567965.21	NaN
[3,]	0.91	0	373185124	-406537261.23	NaN
[4,]	0.98	0	373146489	-406506558.25	NaN
[5,]	1.00	0	373107856	-406475856.27	NaN
[6,]	1.00	0	373069225	-406445155.29	NaN
[7,]	0.50	NA	373030596	-406414455.31	NA
[8,]	0.75	NA	372991969	-406383756.33	NA
[9,]	0.91	NA	372953344	-406353058.35	NA
[10,]	0.98	NA	372914721	-406322361.37	NA
[11,]	1.00	NA	372876100	-406291665.39	NA
[12,]	1.00	NA	372837481	-406260970.42	NA
[13,]	0.50	NA	372798864	-406230276.44	NA
[14,]	0.75	NA	372760249	-406199583.46	NA
[15,]	0.91	NA	372721636	-406168891.48	NA



```

[198,] 1.00 NA 365689129 -400569095.17 NA
[199,] 0.50 NA 365650884 -400538587.19 NA
[200,] 0.75 NA 365612641 -400508080.21 NA
[ reached getOption("max.print") -- omitted 19120 rows ]
>

```

My canonical correlation variable has the correct number of variants 6 and when I run my wilks function with the iris data set it works correctly. I spent some time trying to figure it out and could not find a solution.

# Next, we run the canonical correlation

```
ccCommute = cc(job, commute)
```

```
ccCommute
```

```
ccCommute$cor
```

```

> ccCommute$cor
[1] 0.580880416 0.418272974 0.266319940 0.138262607 0.012473605 0.008396557

```

Canonical Correlation R Code

```
library(sqldf)
```

```
library(corrplot)
```

```
setwd("C:/Data/DCS 424/Final Project")
```

```
#####
```

```
# pull in columns want to compare (in this case job types and commute types)
```

```
#####
```

```
census = read.csv("acs2017_county_data.csv")
```

```
census = as.matrix(census[,c(20,21,22,23,24,37,25,26,27,28,29,30)]) # job types and commute types
```

```
head(census)
```

```
# TotalPop
```

```
# Income
```

```
# IncomePerCap
```

```
# Professional
```

```
# Service
```

```
# Office
```

```
# Construction
```

```
# Production
```

```
# FamilyWork
```

```
# Unemployment
```

```
#
```

```
# Drive
```

```
# Carpool
```

```
# Transit
```

```
# Walk
```

```
# OtherTransp
```

```
#####
```

```
# quick corr plot
```

```
#####
```

```
cor = cor(census)
```

```
corrplot(cor, type="lower")
```

```
#####
```

```
# Separating the data into job and commute
```

```
#####
```

```
job = census[,1:6] # the tpe of work
```

```
commute = census[,7:12] # commute type
```

```
#####
# Now, lets do some computation
#####

# The CCA library has more extensive functionality
library(CCA)

# First investigate the combined correlation matrix, and test the
# cross correlations. To do this we use the "matcor" function which
# computes correlation matrices between two datasets
c = matcor(job, commute)
c
img.matcor(c, type = 2)

# Then we pull out the upper right block of correlations that compares
# the job and commute --gives just the diagonal we're interested in
cCross = c$XYcor[1:6, 7:12]
round(cCross, 2)

# Now, run a correlation test
library(psych)
p = corr.p(cCross, nrow(job))
p

# Next, we run the canonical correlation
ccCommute = cc(job, commute)
ccCommute
ccCommute$cor

# This gives us the canonical correlates, but no significance tests
c_sig = cancortest(job, commute)
c_sig

# First, let's test the model for significance. We are quite sure that
# We will find some correlation here because our matrix above showed
# Significance, but the Wilks test confirms this

ccaWilks = function(set1, set2, cca)
{
  ev = ((1 - cca$cor^2))
  ev

  n = dim(set1)[1]
  p = length(set1)
  q = length(set2)
  k = min(p, q)
  m = n - 3/2 - (p + q)/2
  m

  w = rev(cumprod(rev(ev)))

  # initialize
  d1 = d2 = f = vector("numeric", k)

  for (i in 1:k)
  {
    s = sqrt((p^2 * q^2 - 4)/(p^2 + q^2 - 5))
    si = 1/s
    d1[i] = p * q
    d2[i] = m * s - p * q/2 + 1
    r = (1 - w[i]^si)/w[i]^si
    f[i] = r * d2[i]/d1[i]
    p = p - 1
    q = q - 1
  }
}
```

```

}

pv = pf(f, d1, d2, lower.tail = FALSE)
dmat = cbind(WilksL = w, F = f, df1 = d1, df2 = d2, p = pv)
}

wilksCommute = ccaWilks(job, commute, ccCommute)
round(wilksCommute, 2)

# To understand the canonical correlates, we look at the raw coefficients
# These can be interpreted exactly like components in PCA except that we
# have two sets of them. Notice, however, that it is the RELATIVE
# contributions of each variable that are important, not the absolute
# size of the contribution
names(ccCommute)
round(-ccCommute$xcoef, 3) # Since the first column is negative, we negate these
round(-ccCommute$ycoef, 3) # Notice that this makes no difference in the relationship between them
ccCommute

# To help us better understand the components, we look at the correlations
# between each of the variates and the original variables that make them up.
# This creates two "loadings" matrices very much like the loadings matrix
# of PCA
#
# You will notice that this gives a different picture of the relationship between the x's and
# their variates. Math was a lower "coefficient" but has the highest correlation with the
# variate. This means in a real sense that math contributes most highly to this variate.
# The reason for this difference is in the size of the contributions and in how the other variables
# also contribute. If Math swings more, it might contribute more even though its coefficient is
# smaller
loadingsCommute = comput(job, commute, ccCommute)
ls(loadingsCommute)
round(-loadingsCommute$corr.X.xscores, 2)
round(-loadingsCommute$corr.Y.yscores, 2)

# Let's plot the first two variates against each other. We do this by looking at the scores.
plot(loadingsCommute$xscores[,2], loadingsCommute$yscores[,2])
cor(loadingsCommute$xscores[,1], loadingsCommute$yscores[,1])

# Last we look at the relationship between the variables and the correlates from the other dataset
# This gives us a better view of how the variables from one set relate to the other correlate and
# how we might predict one from the other
loadingsCommute$corr.X.yscores # How do the y-variates depend on the x-variables. Most important for prediction
loadingsCommute$corr.Y.xscores

# A basic visualization of the canonical correlation
plt.cc(ccCommute)

```

## LDA Code

```

#####
#SQL ZONE
#####
census = read.csv("acs2017_county_data.csv")

census = data.frame(census)

census2 =
  sqldf('SELECT *

/*Add REGIONS*/
,CASE WHEN State IN ("California","Hawaii", "Nevada") THEN "W"

```

```

        WHEN State IN ("Illinois", "Indiana", "Michigan", "Minnesota", "Ohio", "Wisconsin") THEN "G_Lake"
        WHEN State IN ("Delaware", "District of Columbia", "Kentucky", "Maryland", "North Carolina", "Tennessee", "Virginia", "West
Virginia") THEN "Mid_Sou"
        WHEN State IN ("Iowa", "Kansas", "Missouri", "Nebraska", "North Dakota", "South Dakota") THEN "Mid_W"
        WHEN State IN ("Arizona", "Colorado", "Idaho", "Montana", "New Mexico", "Utah", "Wyoming") THEN "Mnt_W"
        WHEN State IN ("Connecticut", "Maine", "Massachusetts", "New Hampshire", "Rhode Island", "Vermont") THEN "New_Eng"
        WHEN State IN ("New Jersey", "New York", "Pennsylvania") THEN "N_East"
        WHEN State IN ("Oregon", "Washington", "Alaska") THEN "NW"
        WHEN State IN ("Arkansas", "Louisiana", "Oklahoma", "Texas") THEN "South_C"
        WHEN State IN ("Alabama", "Florida", "Georgia", "Mississippi", "South Carolina", "Puerto Rico") THEN "South_E" END AS
region

```

```

/*Add REGION CODE AS INT*/
,CASE WHEN State IN ("California", "Hawaii", "Nevada") THEN 1
    WHEN State IN ("Illinois", "Indiana", "Michigan", "Minnesota", "Ohio", "Wisconsin") THEN 2
    WHEN State IN ("Delaware", "District of Columbia", "Kentucky", "Maryland", "North Carolina", "Tennessee", "Virginia", "West
Virginia") THEN 3
    WHEN State IN ("Iowa", "Kansas", "Missouri", "Nebraska", "North Dakota", "South Dakota") THEN 4
    WHEN State IN ("Arizona", "Colorado", "Idaho", "Montana", "New Mexico", "Utah", "Wyoming") THEN 5
    WHEN State IN ("Connecticut", "Maine", "Massachusetts", "New Hampshire", "Rhode Island", "Vermont") THEN 6
    WHEN State IN ("New Jersey", "New York", "Pennsylvania") THEN 7
    WHEN State IN ("Oregon", "Washington", "Alaska") THEN 8
    WHEN State IN ("Arkansas", "Louisiana", "Oklahoma", "Texas") THEN 9
    WHEN State IN ("Alabama", "Florida", "Georgia", "Mississippi", "South Carolina", "Puerto Rico") THEN 10 END AS
region_code

```

```

/*Add CITY SIZE*/
,CASE WHEN TotalPop < 11214 THEN "x_small"
    WHEN TotalPop >= 11214 AND TotalPop < 25848 THEN "small"
    WHEN TotalPop >= 25848 AND TotalPop < 66609 THEN "medium"
    WHEN TotalPop > 66608 THEN "large" END AS size_category

```

```

/*Add CITY SIZE*/
,CASE WHEN TotalPop < 11214 THEN 1
    WHEN TotalPop >= 11214 AND TotalPop < 25848 THEN 2
    WHEN TotalPop >= 25848 AND TotalPop < 66609 THEN 3
    WHEN TotalPop > 66608 THEN 4 END AS size_category_code
FROM census'

```

)

```

#
# sql_table = sqldf('SELECT AVG(TotalPop) AS avg_TotalPop
# ,AVG(Income) AS avg_Income
# ,AVG(IncomePerCap) AS avg_IncomePerCap
# ,AVG(Professional) AS avg_Professional
# ,AVG(Service) AS avg_Service
# ,AVG(Office) AS avg_Office
# ,AVG(Construction) AS avg_Construction
# ,AVG(Production) AS avg_Production
# ,AVG(Drive) AS avg_Drive
# ,AVG(Carpool) AS avg_Carpool
# ,AVG(Transit) AS avg_Transit
# ,AVG(Walk) AS avg_Walk
# ,AVG(OtherTransp) AS avg_OtherTransp
# ,AVG(Unemployment) AS avg_Unemployment
#
# FROM source'
#)

# avg_TotalPop --100,786.1
# avg_Income --48,994.97
# avg_IncomePerCap --25657
# avg_Professional 31.47981

```

```

# avg_Service 18.21429
# avg_Office 21.87894
# avg_Construction 12.59236
# avg_Production 15.83575
# avg_Drive 79.63096
# avg_Carpool 9.851646
# avg_Transit 0.9389752
# avg_Walk 3.244472
# avg_OtherTransp 1.598696
# avg_FamilyWork 0.2788199
# avg_Unemployment 6.66559

#####
# LDA
#####

library(car)
install.packages("rattle")
head(census2)

census3 = as.data.frame(census2[,c(2,20,21,22,23,24,37, 25,26,27,28,29,30, 38,39,40,41)]) # job types and commute types

summary(census3$region)
summary(census3$state)

#BASED ON REGION
#####

#plot all
plot(census3[2:12], pch=16, col=census3$region_code) # Not much separation

#plot job type
plot(census3[2:7], pch=16, col=census3$region_code) # more separation, but overlap

#plot commute type
plot(census3[8:12], pch=16, col=census3$region_code) # more separation, but overlap

library(MASS)

# Try an initial lda on everything
censuslda = lda(region ~ ., data=census3[2:13])

# Try on job type
censuslda_job = lda(region ~ Professional + Service+ Office+ Construction+ Production+ Unemployment, data=census3)
censuslda_job1 = lda(region ~ Production, data=census3)

# Try on commute type
censuslda_commute = lda(region ~ Drive+ Carpool+ Transit+ Walk+ OtherTransp + WorkAtHome, data=census3)

# We can use "predict" just like "lm". Note here that we are predicting on the
# training set!
censuslda.values = predict(censuslda)
censuslda_job.values = predict(censuslda_job)
censuslda_commute.values = predict(censuslda_commute)

censuslda.values$x # The scores are stored in the x-parameter
censuslda_job.values$x
censuslda_commute.values$x

```





## Code:

```
# read data American Census 2017
```

```
census = read.csv("acs2017.csv")
head(census)
```

```
census_2 = as.data.frame(census[,-c(2,3)])
head(census_2)
```

```
install.packages("gbm")
library(gbm)
set.seed(86)
```

```
boost.self = gbm(SelfEmployed ~ ., data=census_2, distribution="gaussian", n.trees = 10000,
  shrinkage = 0.01, interaction.depth = 4)
```