

Use Cases in Big Data Software and Analytics

Vol. 1, Fall 2017

Bloomington, Indiana

Friday 8th December, 2017, 04:14

Editor:
Gregor von Laszewski
Department of Intelligent Systems
Engineering
Indiana University
laszewski@gmail.com

Contents

1 Preface	9
1.0.1 Disclaimer	9
1.0.2 Citation	9
1.1 List of Papers	10
2 Biology	13
3 Business	13
2 hid202	Status: Dec 04 17 100%
Big Data Analysis in E-Commerce	
Himani Bhatt, Mrunal Chaudhary	13
3 hid204	Status: 10%
Big Data in Safe Driver Prediction	
Wang, Jiaan, Chaturvedi, Dhawal	39
4 hid205	Status: Dec 04 17 100%
Big Data Analysis in E-Commerce	
Himani Bhatt, Mrunal Chaudhary	39
5 hid233	Status: 10%
Big Data in Safe Driver Prediction	
Wang, Jiaan, Chaturvedi, Dhawal	58
6 hid234	Status: 100% Dec 07 17
Big Data Analytics and Applications in the Travel Industry and its Potential in Improving Travel Accessibility	
Weixuan Wang	73
7 hid235	Status: unkown
Big Data analytics in predict house price	
Yujie Wu	89
8 hid301	Status: 100% 12/2/2017
Importance of Big data in predicting stock price	
Gagan Arora	101
9 hid306	Status: 100%; 12/3/2017
Predicting Housing Prices - Kaggle Competition	
Murali Cheruvu, Anand Sriramulu	113
10 hid320	Status: 100% Dec 03 2017
Big Data Applications in Real Estate Analysis	
Elena Kirzhner	152

11 hid324	Status: Dec 04 17 99%
Big Data Analytics in factors affecting Bitcoin	
Ashok Kuppuraj	178
12 hid328	Status: Dec 4 17 100%
Predicting Profitable Customers in Banking Industry	
Dhanya Mathew	199
13 hid329	Status: 100% Dec 4
Big Data and The Customer Experience Journey	
Ashley Miller	237
14 hid338	Status: 100%; 12/3/2017
Predicting Housing Prices - Kaggle Competition	
Murali Cheruvu, Anand Sriramulu	259
4 Edge Computing	259
15 hid201	Status: 100%
IoT Application Using MQTT and Raspberry Pi Robot Car	
Arnav, Arnav	259
16 hid316	Status: 100%
Big Data and Edge Analytics in Weather Monitoring and Forecasting	
Robert Gasiewicz	272
17 hid319	Status: 30%
Facial Recognition and Object Detection using Raspberry Pi Robot Car	
Mani Kumar Kagita	273
18 hid334	Status: Dec 04 17 100%
The Intersection of Big Data and IoT	
Peter Russell	273
5 Education	285
19 hid218	Status: Dec 4 17 - 100%
Big Data and Its Application in Education	
Weipeng Yang, Geng Niu	285
20 hid236	Status: Dec 4 17 - 100%
Big Data and Its Application in Education	
Weipeng Yang, Geng Niu	285
6 Energy	307
7 Environment	307
21 hid330	Status: 100%
Big Data Analytics in Monitoring Outdoor Air Quality	
Janaki Mudvari Khatiwada	307
8 Government	334
22 hid310	Status: Dec 04 17 100%
Gerrymandering Detection Using Data Analysis	
Kevin Duffy	334

9 Health		334
23 hid225	Status: Dec 04 17 0%	
None		
Schwartz, Matthew		334
24 hid232	Status: 0%	
Big Data and Hearing Disabilities		
Rahul Velayutham		334
25 hid237	Status: 100%, Dec 7, 2017	
Analyzing everyday challenges of people with visual impairments		
Tousif Ahmed		343
26 hid311	Status: 100%	
Big Data in Genomics and Medicine		
Matthew Durbin		349
27 hid313	Status: 100%	
The Impact of Clinical Trial Results on Pharmaceutical Stock Performance		
Tiffany Fabianac		363
28 hid327	Status: 100% 12/05/17	
How Big Data Will Help Improve People's Health Worldwide		
Paul Marks		384
29 hid331	Status: Dec 4 17 100%	
Big Data Applications in Predicting Hospital Readmissions		
Tyler Peterson		400
30 hid332	Status: 100%	
Big Data Analytics to Reduce Health Care in the United States		
Judy Phillips		417
31 hid333	Status: Dec 04 17 100%	
IoT and Big Data Analytics for Equipment Predictive Health Management (PHM)		
Ashok Reddy Singam, Anil Ravi		434
32 hid335	Status: 100%	
Using Machine Learning Classification of Opioid Addiction for Big Data Health Analytics		
Sean Shiverick		434
33 hid337	Status: Dec 04 17 100%	
IoT and Big Data Analytics for Equipment Predictive Health Management (PHM)		
Ashok Reddy Singam, Anil Ravi		466
34 hid339	Status: Dec 2 2017 100%	
Diagnosis of Coronary Artery Disease Using Big Data Analysis		
Hady Sylla		485
35 hid348	Status: 100%	
Big Data Application in Precision Medicine and Pharmacogenomicsn		
Budhaditya Roy		485
10 Lifestyle		508
36 hid106	Status: 0%	
A Music Recommendation System		
Shiqi Shen, Qiaoyi Liu		508

37 hid109	Diversification of Big Data Shiqi Shen, Qiaoyi Liu	Status: 100% Dec 4th 508
38 hid203	Big Data Analytics on Food Products Around the World Chandwani, Nisha, Vegi, Karthik	Status: 100% Dec 4, 2017 533
39 hid231	Big Data Analytics on Food Products Around the World Chandwani, Nisha, Vegi, Karthik	Status: 100% Dec 4, 2017 533
40 hid302	Recipe Ingredients Analysis Sushant Athaley	Status: 100% 559
11 Machine Learning		602
41 hid209	Comparison between different classification algorithms in Digit Recognizer Han, Wenzuan, Liu, Yuchen, Lu, Junjie	Status: Dec 04 17 100% 602
42 hid214	Comparison between different classification algorithms in Digit Recognizer Han, Wenzuan, Liu, Yuchen, Lu, Junjie	Status: Dec 04 17 100% 627
43 hid343	Income Prediction Using Machine Learning Techniques Borga Edionse Usifo	Status: 100 % 652
12 Media		679
44 hid208	Big Data Analytics on Influencers in Social Networks Mallala, Bharat and Jyothi Pranavi Devineni	Status: Dec 04 17 100% 679
45 hid230	Big data with natural language processing Yuanming Huang	Status: unkown 679
13 Physics		679
46 hid304	How Far have Space Walks Walked Ricky Alan Carmickle	Status: Dec 04 17 100% 679
14 Security		679
47 hid224	Big Data Analytics in Detection of DDoS (Distributed Denial-of-Service) attacks Rawat, Neha	Status: Dec 04 17 100% 679
15 Sports		696
48 hid228	Big data applications in Indian Premier League Swargam, Prashanth	Status: Dec 04 17 100% 696

16 Technology	713
49 hid104	Status: 90%
Big Bias? An Analysis of Google Search Suggestions	
Jones, Gabriel and Millard, Mathew	713
50 hid216	Status: 90%
Big Bias? An Analysis of Google Search Suggestions	
Jones, Gabriel and Millard, Mathew	731
51 hid308	Status: 0%
TBD	
Pravin Deshmukh	731
17 Text	731
18 Theory	731
19 Transportation	731
20 TBD	731
52 hid101	Status: Dec 04 17 0%
TBD	
Huiyi Chen	731
53 hid102	Status: Dec 04 17 0%
TBD	
Dianprakasa, Arif	744
54 hid107	Status: Dec 04 17 0%
None	
Ni,Juan	744
55 hid111	Status: unkown
TBD	
Lewis, Derek	751
56 hid213	Status: Dec 04 2017 100%
Comparison between different classification algorithms in Digit Recognizer	
Yuchen Liu	751
57 hid314	Status: Dec 04 17 0%
TBD	
Sarang Fadnavis	776
58 hid318	Status: Dec 04 17 0%
None	
Irey, Ryan	776
59 hid321	Status: Dec 04 17 0%
TBD	
Knapp, William	776
60 hid323	Status: Dec 04 17 0%
None	
Uma M Kugan	776

61 hid326		Status: unkown
None		
Mohan Mahendrakar	790
62 hid336		Status: Dec 04 17 0%
None		
Jordan Simmons	790
63 hid340		Status: Dec 7 17 66%
New Approaches to Managing Metadata at Scale in Research Libraries		
Timothy A. Thompson	790
64 hid341		Status: 0%
Not submitted		
Tibenkana, Jacob	795
65 hid342		Status: 0%
TBD		
Nsikan Udojen	795
66 hid346		Status: Dec 08 17 100%
Big Data Analysis for Wild File Prevention and Tracking		
Zachary Meier	795

Chapter 1

Preface

1.0.1 Disclaimer

The papers provided are contributed by students of the i523 class thought at Indiana University in Fall of 2017. The students were educated in plagiarizm and we hope that all papers meet the high standrads provided by the policies set at Indiana University in regards to plagiarizm. In case you notice any issues, please contact Gregor von Laszewski (laszewski@gmail.com) so we cn address the issue with the student.

1.0.2 Citation

The proceedings is at this time available as a draft. To cite this proceedings you can use the following citation entry:

```
@Book{las17-i523,
  editor = {Gregor von Laszewski},
  title = {Use Cases in Big Data Software and Analytics},
  publisher = {Indiana University},
  year = {2017},
  volume = {1},
  series = {i523},
  address = {Bloomington, IN},
  edition = {1},
  month = dec,
  url={https://github.com/laszewski/laszewski.github.io/raw/master/papers/vonLaszewski-i
} }
```

Contributors to the volume can cite their contribution as follows. They just need to *FILLIN* the missing information

```
@InBook{las17-,
  author = {FILLIN},
```

```

editor =      {Gregor von Laszewski},
title =       {Use Cases in Big Data Software and Analytics},
chapter =     {FILLIN},
publisher =   {Indiana University},
year =        {2017},
volume =      {1},
series =      {i523},
address =     {Bloomington, IN},
edition =     {1},
month =       dec,
url={https://github.com/laszewski/laszewski.github.io/raw/master/papers/vonLaszewski-i
pages =       {FILLIN},
}

```

1.1 List of Papers

HID	Author	Title
101	Huiyi Chen	TBD
102	Dianprakasa, Arif	TBD
104, 216	Jones, Gabriel and Millard, Mathew	Big Bias? An Analysis of Google Search Suggestions
105	Lipe-Melton, Josh	Predictive Model For English Premier League Games
109, 106	Shiqi Shen, Qiaoyi Liu	A Music Recommendation System
107	Ni,Juan	None
109, 106	Shiqi Shen, Qiaoyi Liu	Diversification of Big Data
111	Lewis, Derek	TBD
hid201	error: yaml	IoT Application Using MQTT and Raspberry Pi Robot Car
202, 205	Himani Bhatt, Mrunal Chaudhary	Big Data Analysis in E-Commerce
203, 231	Chandwani, Nisha, Vegi, Karthik	Big Data Analytics on Food Products Around the World
233, 204	Wang, Jiaan, Chaturvedi, Dhawal	Big Data in Safe Driver Prediction
202, 205	Himani Bhatt, Mrunal Chaudhary	Big Data Analysis in E-Commerce
208	Mallala, Bharat and Jyothi Pranavi Devineni	Big Data Analytics on Influencers in Social Networks
209, 213, 214	Han, Wenxuan, Liu, Yuchen, Lu, Junjie	Comparison between different classification algorithms in Digit Recognizer
212, 225, 210	Kumar, Saurabh; Schwartzer, Matthew; Hotz, Nicholas	Can Blockchain Adoption Mitigate the Opioid Crisis Through More Secure Drug Distribution?
211	Khamkar, Ajinkya	Continuous motion tracking using Deep Neural Networks and Recurrent Neural Networks

212, 225, 210	Kumar, Saurabh; Schwartzer, Matthew; Hotz, Nicholas	Can Blockchain Adoption Mitigate the Opioid Crisis Through More Secure Drug Distribution?
213	Yuchen Liu	Comparison between different classification algorithms in Digit Recognizer
209, 213, 214	Han, Wenxuan, Liu, Yuchen, Lu, Junjie	Comparison between different classification algorithms in Digit Recognizer
215	Mallala, Bharat and Jyothi Pranavi Devineni	Big Data Analytics on Influencers in Social Networks
104, 216	Jones, Gabriel and Millard, Mathew	Big Bias? An Analysis of Google Search Suggestions
236, 218	Weipeng Yang, Geng Niu	Big Data and Its Application in Education
219	Syam Sundar Herle	Unsupervised Learning for detecting fake online reviews
224	Rawat, Neha	Big Data Analytics in Detection of DDoS (Distributed Denial-of-Service) attacks
225	Schwartz, Matthew	None
228	Swargam, Prashanth	Big data applications in Indian Premier League
229	ZhiCheng Zhu	Big Data Analytics in Product Development Management
230	Yuanming Huang	Big data with natural language processing
203, 231	Chandwani, Nisha, Vegi, Karthik	Big Data Analytics on Food Products Around the World
232	Rahul Velayutham	Big Data and Hearing Disabilities
233, 204	Wang, Jiaan, Chaturvedi, Dhawal	Big Data in Safe Driver Prediction
hid234	error: yaml	Big Data Analytics and Applications in the Travel Industry and its Potential in Improving Travel Accessibility
235	Yujie Wu	Big Data analytics in predict house price
236, 218	Weipeng Yang, Geng Niu	Big Data and Its Application in Education
237	Tousif Ahmed	Analyzing everyday challenges of people with visual impairments
301	Gagan Arora	Importance of Big data in predicting stock price
302	Sushant Athaley	Recipe Ingredients Analysis
304	Ricky Alan Carmickle	How Far have Space Walks Walked
hid305	error: yaml	How Far have Space Walks Walked
306, 338	Murali Cheruvu, Anand Sriramulu	Predicting Housing Prices - Kaggle Competition
308	Pravin Deshmukh	TBD
hid309	error: yaml	TBD
310	Kevin Duffy	Gerrymandering Detection Using Data Analysis
311	Matthew Durbin	Big Data in Genomics and Medicine
312	Neil Eliason	Big Data Mental Health Monitoring - A Private and Independent Approach
313	Tiffany Fabianac	The Impact of Clinical Trial Results on Pharmaceutical Stock Performance
314	Sarang Fadnavis	TBD
315	Garner, Jeffry	TBI - A Data Driven Journey Beyond Contact Sports... Putting Data In The Drivers Seat
316	Robert Gasiewicz	Big Data and Edge Analytics in Weather Monitoring and Forecasting
318	Irey, Ryan	None

319	Mani Kumar Kagita	Facial Recognition and Object Detection using Raspberry Pi Robot Car
320	Elena Kirzhner	Big Data Applications in Real Estate Analysis
321	Knapp, William	TBD
323	Uma M Kugan	None
324	Ashok Kuppuraj	Big Data Analytics in factors affecting Bitcoin
325	J. Robert Langlois	The importance of data sharing and replication, but what about data archiving?
326	Mohan Mahendrakar	None
327	Paul Marks	How Big Data Will Help Improve People's Health Worldwide
328	Dhanya Mathew	Predicting Profitable Customers in Banking Industry
329	Ashley Miller	Big Data and The Customer Experience Journey
330	Janaki Mudvari Khatiwada	Big Data Analytics in Monitoring Outdoor Air Quality
331	Tyler Peterson	Big Data Applications in Predicting Hospital Readmissions
332	Judy Phillips	Big Data Analytics to Reduce Health Care in the United States
337, 333	Ashok Reddy Singam, Anil Ravi	IoT and Big Data Analytics for Equipment Predictive Health Management (PHM)
334	Peter Russell	The Intersection of Big Data and IoT
335	Sean Shiverick	Using Machine Learning Classification of Opioid Addiction for Big Data Health Analytics
336	Jordan Simmons	None
337, 333	Ashok Reddy Singam, Anil Ravi	IoT and Big Data Analytics for Equipment Predictive Health Management (PHM)
306, 338	Murali Cheruvu, Anand Sriramulu	Predicting Housing Prices - Kaggle Competition
339	Hady Sylla	Diagnosis of Coronary Artery Disease Using Big Data Analysis
340	Timothy A. Thompson	New Approaches to Managing Metadata at Scale in Research Libraries
341	Tibenkana, Jacob	Not submitted
342	Nsikan Udojen	TBD
343	Borga Edionse Usifo	Income Prediction Using Machine Learning Techniques
345	Ross Wood	Agricultural Data Science: Then, Now, and Beyond
346	Zachary Meier	Big Data Analysis for Wild File Prevention and Tracking
347	Jeramy Townsley	Killings by Police in the United States
348	Budhaditya Roy	Big Data Application in Precision Medicine and Pharmacogenomicsn

Big Data Analytics in E-commerce

Himani Bhatt, Mrunal L Chaudhary

Indiana University

Bloomington, Indiana

himbhatt@iu.edu,mchaudh@iu.edu

ABSTRACT

Humongous amounts of data gets generated every day in the domain of E-commerce industry. With the increasing competition and ever-changing market trends, it is a challenging task for the store owners to strategize business and marketing activities. If the companies are able to predict customer behavior, they can come up with business designs which can help them in making predictions about the customer purchasing patterns and thereby increase their revenue. In this project we have aimed to do analysis on the data of an E-commerce non-store online retail giant based in UK. The dataset, available in the UC Irvine repository by the name of 'Online Retail', consists of the goods purchased by different customers at a given time. Through this data available to us, we have done customer segmentation on the basis of the type and amount of goods purchased by a customer. We achieved this by doing a thorough exploration of the data, data pre-processing and then running different Machine Learning Classifiers to classify the customers in different categories.

KEYWORDS

HID 202, HID 205, i523, Machine Learning, Analysis, E-commerce, retail, Customer Segmentation, Python, Regression, Boosting, KNN, Random Forest.

1 INTRODUCTION

The E-commerce industry is in constant shifts due to the ever-increasing changes in the technologies used to develop and maintain the E-commerce systems, the services that they are willing to offer, the market strategies which gain popularity at the time, and most importantly- the customer behavior [3]. The online store owners are the ones who are most affected by these changes. And since the competition in the field of E-commerce is fierce, the online store owners need to come up with business strategies and technologies which provide better customer services leading to their satisfaction and earning customer loyalty. To achieve this, they need to address these ever changing issues to survive and thrive in the E-commerce market and come up with better decisions faster. The key to achieving this lies in better understanding of the customer behavior and their purchasing patterns. That is where analytics comes into play. Analysis of customer behavior and purchasing patterns helps in devising better and accurate marketing strategies which can not only help in generating more profits but also in saving both time and efforts that goes into trying and testing different marketing activities [3]. This ability to capture and analyze user data, and then provide useful and in depth insights in it is what Machine Learning empowers us with. In this project, we aim to do analysis on a data set 'Online Retail' from the UC Irvine Machine Learning Repository to determine the customer purchasing pattern by using

different machine Learning algorithms like K-Means Clustering, Logistic Regression, Random Forest, Gradient Boosting, etc.

2 BACKGROUND

Before the advent of the World Wide Web, transactions that happened on a day to day basis meant physical presence of customers, the brick-and-mortar setting of a store which offered a limited variety of goods. With the evolution of internet and its application in retail, the field of E-commerce emerged and changed the entire facet of shopping. Since a proper set-up of a store is no longer needed, customers can buy goods at much lower prices, with a wider variety to choose from and that too without the need of physical presence. The online market is expected to grow by almost 56% from the year 2015 to 2020 [16]. In the United States alone, 56% of the population prefers to shop online. The E-commerce industry is growing at an average rate of 23% every year, with 90% of the Americans having done online shopping at some point in their lives [15]. With so many transactions happening over the internet, naturally the amount of data getting generated is humongous. Also, with the constantly changing market trends, strategies to overcome the competition and make profits need to be constantly improved. The key issues therefore are managing the data and drawing insights from them which will help in bettering the business decisions. To store and maintain the magnanimous amounts of data getting generated *everyday* is a huge hassle, because along with the volume, this data gets generated at a break neck speed and in different formats from traditional numeric databases to unstructured text documents [12]. The big data technologies like Hadoop and Spark can be used in addressing these hurdles, namely the volume, velocity and variety.

2.1 The Three V's of E-commerce Big Data

Like other technologies which deal with a humongous amount of data, E-commerce must also respond to the 3 Vs, namely Volume, Velocity and Variety:

- Volume

Thousands of online transactions happen every day making the data generation a real time process. The integration of Big Data involves collection of relevant data like customer behavior statistics on the basis of their searches, transactions, demography, etc. The challenge here is not only gathering the data but also in analyzing it.

- Variety

The data from online transactions comes in different varieties, right from structured databases to unstructured text documents, videos, feedback emails and comments, and others. The retailers need to understand this for making

the right business decisions by keeping a leeway for possible data fluctuations such as seasonal ad peak loads like Black Friday sales.

- Velocity

Handling the huge amounts of data which is generated at unprecedented rates is another challenge that needs to be taken care of. It is therefore imperative to do rapid analysis so that timely actions can be taken to sustain in the competition and boost the profit margins [12]

Storing and maintaining the big data is a hassle in itself, but it will provide little value if proper analysis is not done on it. That is where we will be focusing on in this project - making sense of the data. Hence for the scope of this project, we have performed analysis on a small data set of around 45 MB. Machine Learning Algorithms learn from the data. Since we will be using Machine Learning Algorithms, the accuracy of Analysis will only increase with increase in the size of the dataset. We will be discussing this in further detail in the coming sections.

We have now established the fact that the E-commerce companies have a lot of data at their fingertips. Making use of this data is where the challenge lies. Machine learning is an approach by which insights can be drawn from digital data at a rate much faster than any human is capable of doing [7]. Following are some of the biggest challenges that are faced in the field of E-commerce which Machine Learning addresses successfully:

(1) Optimization of the Prices:

Pricing, and in that, online pricing is critically important. Since prices of the competitors are only a few clicks away, it is far easier for the customers to compare prices. Setting up the optimum price, by considering many factors like the prices set by the competitors, the time of the day, the type of the customer and the product's demand therefore is a difficult task. Machine Learning technology can set the prices by considering all these factors at once.

(2) Fraud detection:

The E-commerce industry, like the other industries, is susceptible to fraudulent activities. The consequences of these activities can lead to tarnishing the name of the company forever. Machine Learning helps in detecting and preventing the frauds by processing the repetitive data at a high speed.

(3) Search Ranking:

Machine Learning is capable of pulling information from patterns of search and purchase by considering the factors like preferences, content and search items and come up with a powerful search engine that shows what the customer exactly wants.

(4) Product Recommendations:

Machine Learning is capable of effortlessly quantifying the buying patterns of the customers and developing a recommendation engine which makes relevant product suggestions to them.

(5) Customer Segmentation and Personalization:

In any business, Customer base is the most important factor and therefore providing a satisfactory customer experience is of utmost importance. The biggest challenge that E-commerce systems endeavor to overcome is the separation from their customers. In person, a salesperson can quickly take in what the customers are saying, their economic status, their body language, and behavior to help them find better or desired products. The salesperson thus

is able to *segment* customers, and provide them with a *personalized* shopping experience. With online shopping, it is very difficult to make this happen since an in depth understanding is needed of the vast amount of the data to provide tailored choices to the customers, which can result in sale loss.

Machine Learning makes the biggest impact by making it possible to give personalized customer experiences which can boost the sales and thereby increase the revenue.

The type of analysis and Machine Learning Algorithm to be chosen depends solely on the data at hand. The data set we aim to analyze is a transnational data set that has been archived in the UC Irvine Machine Learning Repository under the name 'Online Retail'.

A thorough Exploratory Data Analysis on this data lets us know what kind of Machine Learning Algorithm needs to be used. Also, several models can be applied and the one which gives the best accuracy and precision against the test data can be chosen. To add icing to the cake, we can even combine the results given by the different models to make an ensemble model which gives an accuracy that is better than that of the individual algorithms. Machine Learning Algorithms are mostly classified as supervised and unsupervised Learning algorithms.

In Supervised Learning, each example is a pair of an input object and the corresponding output value, also called the supervisory signal. A supervised learning algorithm analyzed the training data to produce an inferred function which is used to map new, unknown output-value examples [8]. Since there is the output value to *supervise* the learning algorithm, such approach is called 'Supervised Learning'. The most commonly used Supervised Learning Algorithms are Logistic and Linear Regression, Bagging and Boosting Algorithms, Decision Trees and Random Forest. The Logistic Regression algorithm determines the relationship between the input and the output variables and generates a classifier model to predict the category to which a new example belongs to. Thus Logistic Regression is a classification algorithm [2]. Decision Trees are non parametric Supervised Learning Algorithms which create a model by learning simple decision rules inferred from data attributes to predict the value of a target variable. Decision Trees can be used either for Classification or Regression [5]. Bagging is a technique used to reduce the variance in the predictions by combining the result of multiple classifiers modeled on different sub-samples of the same data set. One of the most commonly and widely used implementation of Bagging is Random Forests. In Random forest, there are multiple trees which classify a new sample based on the set of attributes and a new sample is classified to that class which received the maximum 'votes' from the individual trees. In case of doing Regression with the help of Random Forest, the average of the outputs given by different trees is taken [10].

In Unsupervised learning, only the input data is known with no knowledge of the corresponding output variable. The goal therefore of the Unsupervised Learning Algorithms is to model the underlying distribution or structure in the data to understand the data more. Since there is no output available to validate or 'supervise' the answers, such learning algorithms are called Unsupervised. The most common application of unsupervised learning is clustering. Clustering enables to differentiate the data by discovering the inherent groupings of the input. The most common implementation

of Clustering is the K-means algorithm. This algorithm works iteratively to assign each data point to one of the k-groups based on the feature similarity.

3 EXPLORING THE DATASET

The dataset taken for the analysis is the ‘Online Retail’ data set available on the UCI Machine Learning Repository. This is a transactional dataset which contains all the transactions occurring between 01/12/2010 and 09/12/2011 for a UK-based and registered non store online retail. The company mainly sells unique all-occasion gifts. Many customers of the company are wholesalers.

Data set consists of 5,41,909 transactions and 8 features which describe each of these transactions. There are missing values present in the dataset. All the attributes are integer and real numbers. The size of the dataset is 43.4 MB.

3.1 Attribute Information

InvoiceNo : This refers to the Invoice number. It is a Nominal, 6-digit integral number uniquely assigned to each transaction. If this code starts with letter ‘c’, it indicates a cancellation.

StockCode : This refers to the Product (item) code. It is a Nominal, 5-digit integral number uniquely assigned to each distinct product.

Description : This refers to the Product (item) name. It is of Nominal data type.

Quantity : This refers to the The quantities of each product (item) per transaction. It is Numeric in type.

InvoiceDate : This refers to the Invoice Date and time. It is Numeric, and represents the day and time when each transaction was generated.

UnitPrice : This refers to the Unit price. It is of Numeric type, and represent the Product price per unit in sterling.

customerID : This refers to the Customer number. It i a Nominal, 5-digit integral number uniquely assigned to each customer.

Country : This refers to the Country name. It is of Nominal type, and represents the name of the country where each customer resides.

4 DATA PREPARATION

4.1 Installation Steps

The project has been implemented in Python 2.7 version and we have used the Jupyter Notebook App for the program execution. The Jupyter Notebook Application is an application having server-client architecture which allows editing and executing notebook documents through a web browser. A notebook document is a human readable and machine executable document which can be executed for implementation of data analysis. The Jupyter Notebook Application can be executed on the local host or can be installed on a remote machine accessed via the internet [6].

The Jupyter Notebook can be installed very easily on a machine which has either Python 2 or Python 3 version. Since we have implemented our project in Python 2.7, following commands are to be run in the terminal:

```
pip install --upgrade pip
```

The above command will upgrade the Python package manager (pip).
pip install jupyter

The above command will install Jupyter in the local machine. Once the Jupyter Notebook has been installed, it can be run using the following command in the terminal:

```
jupyter notebook
```

This command will run the Jupyter notebook in the default browser of the machine on the default port 8888 of the localhost.

4.2 Packages Installation

Before running the code the following packages were imported/installed in the Python environment.

- **pandas** Pandas provide a very fast and flexible data structures to make working with relational data easy and fairly intuitive.
- **numpy** This is a fundamental package for scientific computation with Python and can be used as an efficient multi-dimensional container of generic data.
- **sklearn** Scikit-learn makes a wide range of supervised and unsupervised machine learning algorithms available in python. We have implemented all the Machine Learning Algorithms using this library.

4.3 Null Value Treatment

Before going ahead with Data Exploration, a quick look through the data showed many missing values. Hence before doing any analysis, it is imperative to treat the missing values. The dataset has almost 25% of the entries that are not assigned to any of the customer i.e. customerID attribute for those entries is null.

Missing value treatment can be done by deleting the columns and/or rows which have missing values beyond a decided threshold, or replacing them with the attribute mean, median or mode. Since the missing values in our case is the customerID, the replacement method cannot be applied. Also, these entries are useless for the analysis since we aim to do Customer Segmentation and without knowing the customerID, it cannot be achieved. Hence we have deleted the rows with missing customerID. After removing these entries , the dataset left is with 4,06,829 transactions.

The content of the dataset appears as shown in the figure 1.

[Figure 1 about here.]

We also removed the duplicate values present in the dataset. There are 5225 such entries present in the data set that are deleted.

5 EXPLORING THE CONTENT OF VARIABLES

The dataframe has 8 variables and we can draw some inferences by analyzing these variables.

5.1 Countries

From the data we can see that there are 37 different countries from which orders were placed. We can determine the number of orders per country by a ‘Chloropeth’ map. A Chloropleth map uses different colors and shades within predefined areas to indicate quantities

in those areas.

[Figure 2 about here.]

The figure 2 shows that maximum number of orders are placed from UK.

5.2 Customers and products

On observing the number of users, products purchased and number of transactions made; we can see that these are not proportional. This suggests that there were many transactions made for cancelling the orders.

[Figure 3 about here.]

We can also determine the number of products purchased in each transaction. It shows that some customers purchased goods in bulk whereas some purchased a single product in a transaction. Also the orders with InvoiceNo starting with C are the cancelled orders.

[Figure 4 about here.]

5.3 Cancelled Orders

Almost 16% (3654) of the transactions are corresponding to the cancelled orders. In the dataset, corresponding to each cancelled transaction we should have an order placed with same quantity of products requested. While checking the same in the dataset, we found the following for some of the orders.

[Figure 5 about here.]

This hypothesis should apply to the complete dataset, but on checking the whole dataset it is found out that there are some cancelled orders without the purchase order (the history of the order) made. This is done by locating the entries that indicate a negative quantity and then checking if there is an order indicating the same quantity (but positive) with the same description and the same customerID. We still get negative quantities. Going deeper in to this suggests that the entries with description 'Discount' have negative quantities associated with that transaction. And hence, to do the verification, we eliminated the 'Discount' entries. But again the initial hypothesis do not match; we still have negative numbers appearing in the quantity.

This can be because the buy orders were performed before December 2010 (the point of entry of the database). We can delete the records where a cancel order exists without the corresponding purchase order or where there is at least one counterpart with the exact quantity (since both records are logically cancelling each other). Total 8795 such records are found and deleted from the dataset.

5.4 StockCode

The StockCode variable should ideally contain letters. So we have filtered out the codes with only letters. We can observe the different type of transactions based on these (example D is for discounted transaction).

[Figure 6 about here.]

5.5 Basket Price

We have added a new variable to indicate total price of the purchase (by multiplying unit price of each product with quantity purchased). Each transaction corresponds to the prices for a single product. On grouping the records based on a single order, we can see the complete price for that order.

[Figure 7 about here.]

We can visualize the orders distinguished on the basis of total price of the basket. It can be shown using a pie-chart.

[Figure 8 about here.]

It shows that majority of the orders are the bulk purchases since 60% of the orders have amounts greater than 200 Sterling.

6 EXPLORING PRODUCT CATEGORIES

The dataset contains two variables- Stockcode and Description defining products. We can categorize the products based on the content of the description variable. This can be done in the following way :

- Extracting the proper or the common names appearing in the products description.
- Extracting the root of the word and combining set of names associated with this particular root.
- Finding the frequency of root in the dataframe.

We found that there are 1483 keywords present in the description variable of the dataset. The most common keywords can be determined based on the occurrences. The figure 9 shows the top word occurrences.

[Figure 9 about here.]

6.1 Categorizing Products

We have obtained around 1400 keywords from the above occurrence list , most of which do not make sense. After discarding the keywords that are appearing less than 13 times, we are left with 193 keywords that we will consider for our analysis.

These significant keywords are used for creating categories of the products. The data has been encoded using the principle of one-hot-encoding.

One hot encoding - One hot encoding is a process by which categorical variables are converted into a binary format of 0's and 1's that could be provided to ML algorithms to do a better job in prediction. The words present in the descriptions of the products are encoded. Also price range column is added as it will help in balanced grouping of the products.

6.2 Clustering of products

In the previous step we have created a matrix with encoded version of words present in the description variable. K-means clustering is used for the cluster assignment and since the data is in binary

format because of encoding, the most appropriate distance method will be Hamming's metric (other distance functions are euclidean distance, Manhattan distance, binary distance, etc). It basically measures the minimum number of substitutions required to change one string into the other. But since the k-means package available in sklearn uses Euclidean distance by default, we have used it for our analysis.

Selection of optimum K-value

The number of clusters can be selected using silhouette analysis on K-means clustering. It is used to study the separation distance between the resulting clusters. The silhouette plot displays a measure of how close each point in one cluster is to the points in the neighboring clusters and thus provides a way to assess parameters like number of clusters visually. This measure has a range of $[-1, 1]$. Silhouette coefficients (as these values are referred to) near +1 indicate that the sample is far away from the neighboring clusters. A value of 0 indicates that the sample is on or very close to the decision boundary between two neighboring clusters and negative values indicate that those samples might have been assigned to the wrong cluster.

The figure 10 shows silhouette score for different values of k. These scores do not have significant differences, but since for k value greater than 5, the resulting clusters have very few elements in them, we have taken k as 5.

[Figure 10 about here.]

6.3 Validating Quality of Classification

6.3.1 Silhouette Score. From the silhouette plot we can see that cluster 1 has more number of elements than the other clusters. But overall distribution of elements in the clusters is comparative. Same can be seen from the figure 12.

[Figure 11 about here.]

[Figure 12 about here.]

6.3.2 Principal Component Analysis. The main idea of principal component analysis (PCA) is to reduce the dimensionality of a data set consisting of many variables correlated with each other, either heavily or lightly, while retaining the variation present in the dataset, up to the maximum extent. The initial matrix has large number of variables and hence, PCA is used for dimensionality reduction. From the figure we can say that we need more than 100 components to explain 90% of the variance in the data.

[Figure 13 about here.]

Another application of PCA is that it sets the indication of cluster membership. Biplot is the best example that can be provided here to support this idea. Using biplot, we get the indication of number of clusters in a dataset. Below figure 14 shows these on limited number of components (since it is only for visualizing cluster distribution). We can observe the groupings of points or clusters as expected.

[Figure 14 about here.]

7 EXPLORING CUSTOMER CATEGORIES

In the previous section, we have divided products in 5 clusters. We have added a dummy variable categ_product to indicate the cluster to which that customer belongs. Based on the clustering done on products we have created variables categ_0..4 which stores amount spent on each of the product category. And the categ_product variable which we have just created will have initial cluster assignment based on these variables. These can be further grouped on the basis of InvoiceNo.

[Figure 15 about here.]

7.1 Subsetting dataframe based on Time

We have taken 12 months data for the analysis. This can be done on the basis of variable InvoiceDate present in the dataset. Using this data we have developed a model to characterize and anticipate the habits of customers using the site and this, we are doing it from the first visit.

In the previous section we have seen the basket price of each invoices. For further analysis we will combine these on the basis of customerID to analyze the number of purchases made by each customer. A customer category of particular interest is that of customers who make only one purchase. So one objective may be, for example, to target these customers in order to retain them. In the dataset we have almost one-third of the customer base similar to this.

[Figure 16 about here.]

7.2 Categorizing Customers

The information transactions per user is used for characterizing different types of customers. Because of different ranges of variations of different variables we have first scaled the data set. As done in the case of product categorization, we have again used K-means algorithm for cluster assignment.

Using the silhouette score, the optimum value of k comes out to be 11. The assignment of customers into different clusters is shown in figure 17

[Figure 17 about here.]

Now we will check validity of the cluster assignment using PCA and Silhouette plot as done in the case of product categorization.

7.2.1 PCA. There is a certain disparity in the sizes of different groups that have been created. So we have validated it using PCA. From the representation, it can be seen, for example, that the first principal component allow to separate the tiniest clusters from the rest. More generally, we see that there is always a representation in which two clusters will appear to be distinct.

[Figure 18 about here.]

7.2.2 Silhouette Plot. As with product categories, another way to look at the quality of the separation is to look at silhouette

scores within different clusters:

[Figure 19 about here.]

We can see that the different clusters are indeed disjoint.

8 CLASSIFICATION OF CUSTOMERS USING CLASSIFICATION ALGORITHMS

In the previous section, we have made different client categories. In this part we will adjust a classifier so that the consumers can be classified in different client categories. The main aim of this is to enable the Classification on the first visit of the customer. To do this, we have defined a class that will allow interfacing the common functionalities to the different classifiers. Since we are going to classify the client on the basis of his/her first visit, the only parameters that we take into consideration are the contents of the basket and not the frequency of visits or the variation in the basket price over a period of time. Once this is done, we have split the dataset into train and test sets. The classification algorithms which we used to do this are mentioned below.

Before we delve deeper into the Classification Algorithm, some important concepts that need to be addressed are Cross Validation, Bias, Variance, underfitting and overfitting of the model.

- Variance: Variance essentially means how much the models estimated from the different training sets differ from each other. It measures how much the predictions made for a given point vary between the different realizations of the model [4]. When the training data tries to fit all the sample points to define the model, even the outlier data points, which are nothing but the noise, affect the model. Usually, the variance increases with increase in the complexity of the model.
- Bias: Bias essentially means how much the average model over the training sets differ from the true model. Bias usually occurs if the model is over simplified or if some inaccurate assumptions are made. Thus Bias increases with increase in the over simplification of the model [4].
- Underfitting: Underfitting occurs when the model is too simple to make relevant classification of the testing data [4]. Thus when a model possesses high bias and low variance, we say there is underfitting of the model.
- Overfitting: Overfitting of a model occurs when the model is too complex and tries to fit in the irrelevant/outlier data points from the training set which is nothing but the noise [4]. Thus when a model possesses low bias and high variance, we say there is overfitting of the model.
- Cross Validation:
Cross Validation is a technique for evaluating the predictive models by partitioning the original dataset into a training set to train the model, and a testing set to evaluate the model [11]. There are different ways to implement Cross Validation, the most effective of them all is the K-fold Cross Validation. In this method the dataset is divided into k subsets, out of which one is used as the test data and the remaining $k - 1$ are combined together to form training data. This process is done k times, ensuring that every single sample in the dataset gets to be tested exactly one

time and gets trained upon exactly $k - 1$ times. The variance therefore gets decreased as the k increases [11].

Thus it can be said that a model will always be associated with variance and bias. If the bias is low then the variance is high, as in the case of the complex models. And if the bias is high then the variance is low as in the case of simplified models. Hence there is always a trade off between these two kinds of errors. This is called the Bias-Variance trade-off. We are interested in a model with low variance and low bias.

8.1 Logistic Regression

Logistic Regression as mentioned before is a Supervised Learning method which does analysis on a dataset containing two or more independent variables for determining the outcome. This outcome, i.e the dependent variable, is binary in nature, meaning it can have only two possible outcomes [9]. Multinomial Logistic Regression as the name suggests, generalizes the Logistic Regression to multiple classes, meaning the model can be used to predict the probabilities of the different outcomes of a categorically distributed dependent variable [17]. The goal of a Logistic Regression model is to determine a fitting model which best describes the relationship between the dependent variables (output variable) and a set of the input independent variables. Logistic Regression generates the coefficients along with the standard errors and significance levels of the below equation for predicting the logit transformation of the probability of presence of the characteristics of interest in a given sample example [9].

$$\text{logit}(p) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \dots + \beta_k X_k$$

where p is the probability of the presence of a characteristic of interest. and $\text{logit}(p) = \log(p/1-p)$ In logistic Regression, the goal is to choose the parameters β in such a way that the likelihood of observing the new sample values is maximized [9]. In the Python code, we have imported the module ‘linear_model’ from the ‘sklearn’ package to perform Logistic Regression by using the function ‘logistic_regression’. And we have taken the $k = 5$ for k-fold cross validation. While performing Logistic Regression, we created an instance of the Class_Fit class and then ran the model on training data and see how the predictions are made as compared to the real values. The learning curve graph is as shown in Fig 20.

[Figure 20 about here.]

As we can see from the Figure 20, when the number of training examples increases, the cross-validation and train curves almost converge towards the same limit suggesting that the model has low variance. Thus we can say that model is not suffering from overfitting. Also one point to note is that the accuracy is high, which means that the model has low bias, thus suggesting that it does not under-fit the data. The precision which we got from running the Logistic Regression model on the training data is 88.78%.

8.2 K Nearest Neighbours

KNN is a non parametric algorithm which means that there are no underlying assumptions that are made on the data. Also it is a lazy learning algorithm meaning that it does not do any generalization by using the training data. All the training data is needed during the testing phase [13].

KNN makes predictions using the training dataset directly. Predictions are made for a new instance (x) by searching through the entire training set for the K most similar instances (the neighbors) and summarizing the output variable for those K instances. For regression this might be the mean output variable, in classification this is the model (or most common) class value. To elaborate on this, KNN makes predictions using the training dataset directly. These predictions are made for a new sample by going through the entire training set to find k such samples which are most similar or which are the ‘neighbors’ of the new instance. Once these k instances are found out, the output variable corresponding to these is summarized and in case of Classification, it gives a class value to which the new instance belongs. The k ‘neighbors’, i.e., the most similar instances from the data set are found by using the distance measure- k such instances whose distance from the new instance is the least [13]. There are many distance functions which can be used, the most popular being the Euclidian distance function, the formula for which is given by:

$$\text{EuclideanDistance}(x, x_i) = \sqrt{\sum((x_j - x_{ji})^2)}$$

where x is a new data point and x_i is an already existing point [13].

The optimum value of K can be found by algorithm tuning, i.e. running the algorithm over several values of k and finding out and then figuring out for which k the algorithm gives the best results [14].

The output, i.e the class of the new sample can be calculated as the class which has the highest frequency from the k neighbours. Thus, each of the instances votes for their own class and the class which gets the maximum votes is taken as the prediction value [14].

In Python, the ‘neighbors’ library is imported from the sklearn package which performs the KNN classification through the Kneighborsclassifiers function. The parameters that are used are ‘n_neighbors’ which represents the number of neighbors to use, in our case we have used the np.arange method to give sequence from 1 to 49. Also, we run the model using the K-fold Cross Validation with the value of $k = 5$. Once the model is run, we have drawn the learning curve graph which is as represented in the Fig 21.

[Figure 21 about here.]

The precision which we got from running the KNN model on the training data is 80.33%.

8.3 Random Forest

As the name suggests, Random Forest is an ensemble classifier which consists of many classification trees. An ensemble classifier is a multiple classifier algorithms, decision trees in the case of Random Forests, and the final output is the combined output of all the classifier algorithms. In our case we will be using Random Forest Algorithm for classification of the clients into different categories. A Random Forest grows many trees. For classifying a new object from an input vector, each tree in the forest gives a classification and vote for a particular class. And the forest then chooses the class having maximum number of votes over the other classes [1].

The question here that needs to be addressed is, how does the growth of a tree happen?

Each tree is grown as follows:

If the training set consists of N cases, then N cases are sampled

with replacement from the original data. This is the training set for growing a tree. Thereafter, a number $m \leq M$ which is the number of input variables is taken such that the best split obtained on these m is used to split the node. The value of m is constant throughout the forest-growing. Each tree is allowed to grow to the fullest possible extension [1]. In Python, the ‘ensemble’ library is imported from the sklearn package which performs the Random Forest classification through the RandomForestClassifier function. The parameters given to this function are criterion, n_estimators and max_features. The criterion is used to measure the quality of the split. The Gini is for measuring the Gini impurity and Entropy is for information gain. The max_features are the number of the features that can be chosen when looking for the best split. For ‘sqrt’, the number of maximum features chosen are square root of the number of the features and for ‘log’, it is log of the number of the features. And the n_estimators is the number of trees in the forest. Once the model is run, we have drawn the learning curve graph which is as represented in the Fig 22 .

[Figure 22 about here.]

The precision which we got from running the Random Forest model on the training data is 90.17%.

8.4 Gradient Boosting Classifier

AdaBoost Classifier, short for Adaptive Classifier is another example of ensemble classifier. It is a general ensemble method which creates a strong classifier by combining the outputs of the weaker learning algorithms into a weighted sum to finally provide the output of the boosted classifier. This is done by building one model from the training set and then building a second one which attempts to rectify the errors from the first model and so on until either the limit of maximum models that can be added is reached or the training set is predicted accurately. AdaBoost is an adaptive algorithm, meaning that the weak learning algorithm can be tweaked to create a stronger classifier [6].

The Adaptive Boosting algorithm was recast into a statistical framework. “Arcing is an acronym for Adaptive Re-weighting and Combining. Each step in an arcing algorithm consists of a weighted minimization followed by a re-computation of [the classifiers] and [weighted input] [6]” This framework is called as Gradient Boosting.

Gradient Boosting involves three elements namely:

- A loss function to be optimized The selection of the loss function depends on the problem at hand. For example if it is a regression algorithm, then squared loss functions are used and if it is a classification algorithm then logarithmic functions are used.
- A weak learner for making predictions Regression trees are used as the weak learners in the Gradient Boosting Algorithm since they can output real values for splits which can be added together and the residuals in the predictions can be corrected. These trees are constructed in a greedy manner usually up to 4-8 levels.
- An additive model to add weak learners to minimize the loss functions The trees are added one at a time with no changes to the existing trees in the model. A gradient descent model is used to reduce the loss when adding trees first by parameterizing the tree and then by modifying the

parameters of the tree and moving in the right direction by reducing the loss in residuals. This approach is called Functional Gradient descent [6].

This framework was further developed by Friedman and called Gradient Boosting Machines. Later called just gradient boosting or gradient tree boosting [6].

In Python, the ‘ensemble’ library is imported from the sklearn package which performs the Gradient Boosting classification through the GradientBoostingClassifier function. The parameter given to this function is n_estimators which is the number of boosting stages to perform. Gradient boosting is fairly robust to over-fitting so a large number results in better performance.

[Figure 23 about here.]

The precision which we got from running the Gradient Boosting model on the training data is 90.86%.

Now that we have the results of all the models, we can combine them using VotingClassifier method that we imported from the sklearn package to improve the classification model. Since we have already found the best parameters for each of the classifiers, we have adjusted the parameters of the classifiers accordingly. So now the best parameters are taken and merged to define a classifier which we then trained on the data. When we created a prediction on this, we got the precision value as 90.44%.

9 TESTING THE PREDICTIONS

Until now we have done all the analysis on the data from the first 10 months. After this we test the model on the set_test dataframe which contains the data of the last two months. The regrouping of the data is done according to the same procedure that we followed while regrouping the training data. But now we have to take into consideration the time difference in between the two datasets and the count(the total number of visits which the client made to the website) and sum(total amount that he/she spent) variables so that we have an equivalence in between the training set and testing set. The dataframe so obtained is now converted to a matrix and we retained only those variables that define the category to which the clients belonged. And just like on the training dataset the method of normalization was called, to maintain consistency, the same method is called on the test set as well.

Each row of the matrix obtained now represents the buying habits of the customers. Now all we have to do is to define the category to which the customer belongs by using these habits. The important point to note here is that this is just the test data preparation step by defining the category to which the consumer belongs for a period of two months through the variables count, min, max and sum. Thus this step *does not* correspond to the classification step itself. The classifier that we defined in the step 5 uses variables that were defined from the client’s first purchase.

So now, we have the data available for two months, and through that we can define the category to which the consumer belongs. The predictions now obtained by running the classifiers on test data can be tested against these categories. The instance of the k-means clustering method that we used in the Customer Categories section is used to define the category to which a client belongs. This contains the predict method which will calculate the distance of the consumers from the centroids of the 11 categories that we deduced,

and the category which is closest to the clients’ buying habits will define his/her category. Thus all we need after this for the execution of the classifier is to select the variables on which it acts, i.e. on mean, cat_0, cat_1, cat_2, cat_3 and cat_4. After examining the predictions of the different classifiers, we get precision scores as follows:

Algorithm	Precision(%)
Logistic Regression	72.99
KNN	68.44
Random Forest	75.93
Gradient boosting	75.74

And now, like we did in the Section 5, we will use the voting classifier method to merge the results obtained by these individual classifiers and see whether they combined result is better than the individual. It turns out that it is. We get the precision rate for the combined classifier to be 76.48% for the test data set. This concludes the analysis phase.

10 CONCLUSION

E-commerce is one of the emerging fields for Data Analysis since a lot of data gets generated every day at a break-neck speed in many different formats. To sustain in such a business, a very robust and extensive data analysis is needed to keep up with the ever changing markets by implementing different marketing strategies. And since the whole business revolves around the customers, they form the most important aspect of the analysis. We have tried to achieve Customer Segmentation on the basis of the purchasing patterns and frequency of client visits to their online portal. The dataset on which we performed analysis provided details on the purchases made by the consumers over a period of more than a year. Every entry in the dataset contained the purchase of a particular product on a given date by a particular customer. Out of the 591909 entries made in the dataset, approximately 4000 different consumers are present. From the information available for each consumer, we decided to go ahead with Customer Segmentation analysis by developing a classifier that predicts the type of purchase a consumer would make and his/her frequency of visits to the E-commerce website.

In the first step of this classification, we found out the different products sold by the company, and then classified the products into 5 categories of goods by using K-means clustering. In the second step we performed the classification of the customers on the basis of purchasing habits in the first 10 months. The customers were classified into 11 categories on the basis of the types of products they usually bought, the number of visits they made to the website and the amount for which they shopped over a period of 10 months. Once we had the categories of the consumers, we performed training of the data of the first 10 months using different classifiers namely Logistic Regression, Random forests, KNN and Gradient Boosting algorithms to classify the consumers in these 11 categories, on the basis of their first purchase. The classifiers were based on these variables: the total price of the current purchase and the percentage of the amount spent in each of the 5 product categories. Once the customers were classified in the 11 categories,

the quality of the data set was tested on the remaining two months of the dataset. This was achieved in two steps. In the first step, we assigned the category to which each customer belonged to, and then the classifier predictions were compared against these categories. And then we combined the results of the various classifiers by using the Voting Classifier method. The model performed with a 76.48% of precision, that is 76.48% of the times the clients were awarded the right classes.

One bias which we did not consider while doing the analysis is the seasonal fluctuations, like festive and seasonal sales. Since at these times the sales of products may rise and just before and after the sale duration, the sales may drop. Thus the purchasing habits of customers are dependent on the time of the year as well. Hence the seasonal effects may cause the actual sales in the last two months to be quite different from the ones which we extrapolated from the first ten months to the last two months. For overcoming such biases, it would be beneficial if the data were of a larger size and covered a larger period of time.

Knowing the type of a customer is critically important for an E-commerce business. By doing so, the store owners can provide personalized services to the customers, which will yield higher customer satisfaction. Customer satisfaction is directly proportional to the loyalty of the customers, thus Customer Segmentation and Personalization can help the company in increasing their brand name. Knowing the preferences and choices of customers also helps in catering to those needs of the customers which they may not be aware of in the first place. Thus by knowing the purchasing patterns of the customers, we can provide them with tailored suggestions, which can even increase the revenues of the company. Thus through proper implementation of the business strategies and marketing activities, which are motivated by a thorough Analysis of the data available can help the company in attracting loyal customers, increasing the revenue and establishing a better brand value.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors would like to thank Prof. Dr. Gregor von Laszewski for giving the opportunity to work on this project. The author would also like to thank the Associate Instructors of the class for their help and for answering questions on Piazza which helped everyone.

REFERENCES

- [1] Jason Brownlee. 2016. <https://machinelearningmastery.com/k-nearest-neighbors-for-machine-learning/>. (2016). <https://machinelearningmastery.com/k-nearest-neighbors-for-machine-learning/>
- [2] Jason Brownlee. 2016. Supervised and Unsupervised Machine Learning Algorithms. (2016). <https://machinelearningmastery.com/supervised-and-unsupervised-machine-learning-algorithms/>
- [3] Justin Butlion. 2015. An Introduction to Analytics for Ecommerce Websites. (2015). <https://blog.kissmetrics.com/intro-to-ecommerce-analytics>
- [4] Scott Fortmann-Roe. 2012. Understanding the Bias-Variance Tradeoff. (2012). <http://scott.fortmann-roe.com/docs/BiasVariance.html>
- [5] Prashant Gupta. 2017. Decision Trees in Machine Learning. (2017). <https://towardsdatascience.com/decision-trees-in-machine-learning-641b9c4e8052>
- [6] Antonino Ingargiola. 2015. What is the Jupyter Notebook? (2015). http://jupyter-notebook-beginner-guide.readthedocs.io/en/latest/what_is_jupyter.html
- [7] Lacie Larschann. 2017. 7 Powerful Applications of Machine Learning in E-Commerce. (2017). <https://www.granify.com/blog/powerful-applications-of-machine-learning-in-e-commerce>
- [8] EILEEN MCNULTY. 2015. WHAT IS THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN SUPERVISED AND UNSUPERVISED LEARNING? (2015). <http://dataconomy.com/2015/01/whats-the-difference-between-supervised-and-unsupervised-learning/>
- [9] Medcalc. 2017. Logistic Regression. (2017). https://www.medcalc.org/manual/logistic_regression.php
- [10] Sunil Ray. 2017. Understanding Support Vector Machine algorithm from examples (along with code). (2017). <https://www.analyticsvidhya.com/blog/2017/09/understanding-support-vector-machine-example-code/>
- [11] Jeff Schneider. 1997. Cross Validation. (1997). <https://www.cs.cmu.edu/~schneide/tut5/node42.html>
- [12] Granner Smith. 2017. Big Data: Making It Big For E-Commerce Retailers. (2017). <http://www.digitalistmag.com/customer-experience/2017/04/28/big-data-making-it-big-for-e-commerce-retailers-05049637>
- [13] Saravanan Thirumuruganathan. 2010. A Detailed Introduction to K-Nearest Neighbor (KNN) Algorithm. (2010). <https://saravananthirumuruganathan.wordpress.com/2010/05/17/a-detailed-introduction-to-k-nearest-neighbor-knn-algorithm/>
- [14] Saravanan Thirumuruganathan. 2010. A Detailed Introduction to K-Nearest Neighbor (KNN) Algorithm. (2010). <https://saravananthirumuruganathan.wordpress.com/2010/05/17/a-detailed-introduction-to-k-nearest-neighbor-knn-algorithm/>
- [15] Tracey Wallace. 2017. Ecommerce Trends: 147 Stats Revealing How Modern Customers Shop in 2017. (2017). <https://www.bigcommerce.com/blog/ecommerce-trends/>
- [16] Wikipedia. 2017. E-commerce. (2017). <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/E-commerce>
- [17] Wikipedia. 2017. Multinomial logistic regression. (2017). https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Multinomial_logistic_regression

LIST OF FIGURES

1	Data set Contents	11
2	Distribution of Orders based on Countries	11
3	Customer Products Transactions	11
4	Number of products per Customer	11
5	Transactions for Cancellation	12
6	Stock Codes	12
7	Basket Price	12
8	Pie-Chart	12
9	Word Occurrences	13
10	Silhouette Scores	13
11	Silhouette plot	14
12	Cluster Composition	14
13	PCA	15
14	Biplot	15
15	Table	15
16	Number of Purchases	15
17	Number of Purchase	15
18	PCA	16
19	Silhouette Plot	16
20	Logistic Regression Learning Curve	17
21	KNN Learning Curve	17
22	Random Forest Learning Curve	18
23	Gradient Boosting Learning Curve	18

Figure 1: Data set Contents

	InvoiceNo	StockCode	Description	Quantity	InvoiceDate	UnitPrice	CustomerID	Country
0	536365	85123A	WHITE HANGING HEART T-LIGHT HOLDER	6	2010-12-01 08:26:00	2.55	17850	United Kingdom
1	536365	71053	WHITE METAL LANTERN	6	2010-12-01 08:26:00	3.39	17850	United Kingdom
2	536365	84406B	CREAM CUPID HEARTS COAT HANGER	8	2010-12-01 08:26:00	2.75	17850	United Kingdom
3	536365	84029G	KNITTED UNION FLAG HOT WATER BOTTLE	6	2010-12-01 08:26:00	3.39	17850	United Kingdom
4	536365	84029E	RED WOOLLY HOTTIE WHITE HEART	6	2010-12-01 08:26:00	3.39	17850	United Kingdom

Figure 2: Distribution of Orders based on Countries



Figure 3: Customer Products Transactions

	products	transactions	customers
quantity	3684	22190	4372

Figure 4: Number of products per Customer

	CustomerID	InvoiceNo	Number of products
0	12346	541431	1
1	12346	C541433	1
2	12347	537626	31
3	12347	542237	29
4	12347	549222	24

Figure 5: Transactions for Cancellation

InvoiceNo	StockCode	Description	Quantity	InvoiceDate	UnitPrice	CustomerID	Country
61619	541431	23166 MEDIUM CERAMIC TOP STORAGE JAR	74215	2011-01-18 10:01:00	1.04	12346	United Kingdom
61624	C541433	23166 MEDIUM CERAMIC TOP STORAGE JAR	-74215	2011-01-18 10:17:00	1.04	12346	United Kingdom
286623	562032	22375 AIRLINE BAG VINTAGE JET SET BROWN	4	2011-08-02 08:48:00	4.25	12347	Iceland
72260	542237	84991 60 TEATIME FAIRY CAKE CASES	24	2011-01-26 14:30:00	0.55	12347	Iceland
14943	537626	22772 PINK DRAWER KNOB ACRYLIC EDWARDIAN	12	2010-12-07 14:57:00	1.25	12347	Iceland

Figure 6: Stock Codes

POST	-> POSTAGE
D	-> Discount
C2	-> CARRIAGE
M	-> Manual
BANK CHARGES	-> Bank Charges
PADS	-> PADS TO MATCH ALL CUSHIONS
DOT	-> DOTCOM POSTAGE

Figure 7: Basket Price

CustomerID	InvoiceNo	Basket Price	InvoiceDate
1	12347	537626	711.79 2010-12-07 14:57:00.000001024
2	12347	542237	475.39 2011-01-26 14:29:59.999999744
3	12347	549222	636.25 2011-04-07 10:42:59.999999232
4	12347	556201	382.52 2011-06-09 13:01:00.000000256
5	12347	562032	584.91 2011-08-02 08:48:00.000000000
6	12347	573511	1294.32 2011-10-31 12:25:00.000001280

**Figure 8: Pie-Chart
Distribution of the amounts of orders**

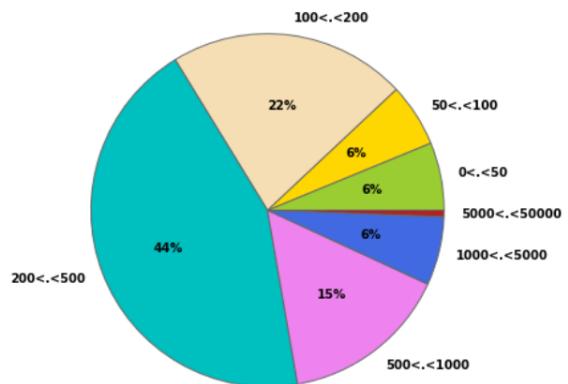


Figure 9: Word Occurrences

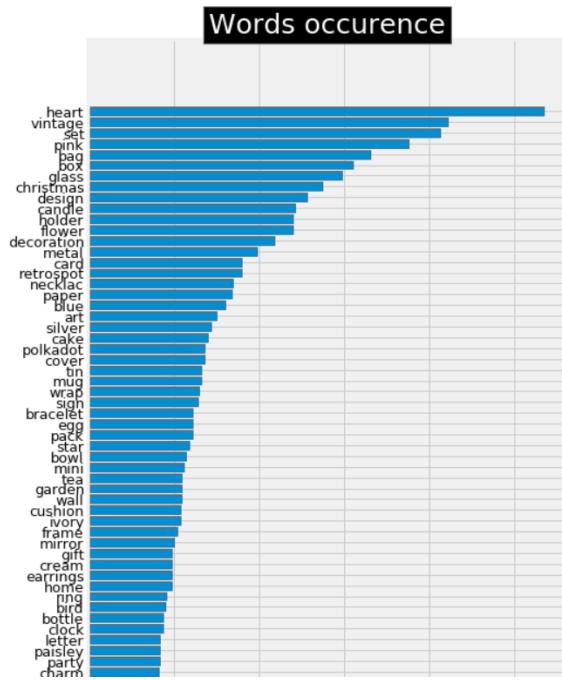


Figure 10: Silhouette Scores

```
('For n_clusters =', 3, 'The average silhouette_score is :', 0.10158702596012364)
('For n_clusters =', 4, 'The average silhouette_score is :', 0.12680045883937879)
('For n_clusters =', 5, 'The average silhouette_score is :', 0.14553871352885445)
('For n_clusters =', 6, 'The average silhouette_score is :', 0.15122077520906058)
('For n_clusters =', 7, 'The average silhouette_score is :', 0.146368437259042)
('For n_clusters =', 8, 'The average silhouette_score is :', 0.14764212603720744)
('For n_clusters =', 9, 'The average silhouette_score is :', 0.13974230402472737)
```

Figure 11: Silhouette plot

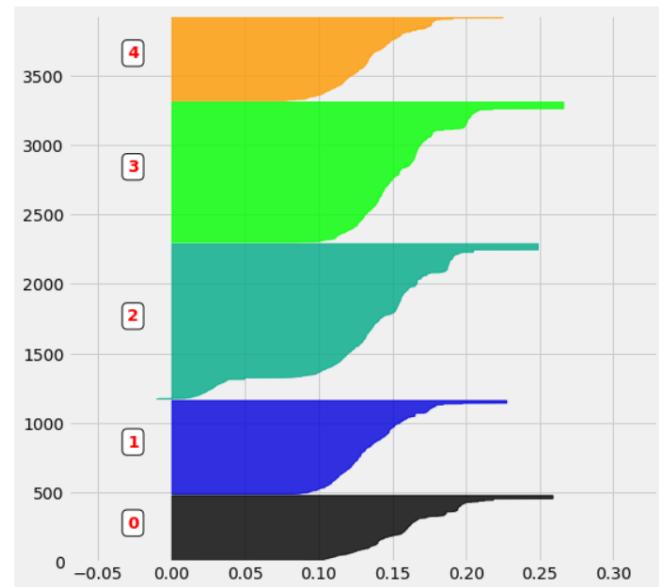


Figure 12: Cluster Composition

2	1118
3	1009
1	673
4	606
0	472

Figure 13: PCA

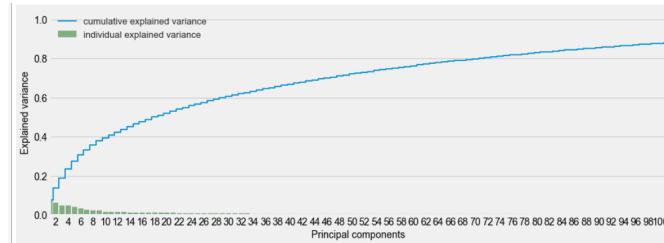


Figure 14: Biplot

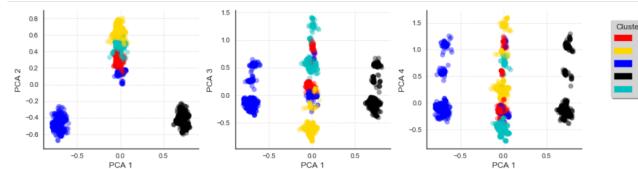


Figure 15: Table

	CustomerID	InvoiceNo	Basket	Price	categ_0	categ_1	categ_2	categ_3	categ_4	InvoiceDate
1	12347	537626	711.79	124.44	83.40	23.40	187.2	293.35	2010-12-07 14:57:00.000001024	
2	12347	542237	475.39	0.00	53.10	122.59	130.5	169.20	2011-01-26 14:29:59.999999744	
3	12347	549222	636.25	0.00	71.10	119.25	330.9	115.00	2011-04-07 10:42:59.999999232	
4	12347	556201	382.52	19.90	78.06	41.40	74.4	168.76	2011-06-09 13:01:00.000000256	
5	12347	562032	584.91	97.80	119.70	99.55	109.7	158.16	2011-08-02 08:48:00.000000000	

Figure 16: Number of Purchases

	CustomerID	count	min	max	mean	sum	categ_0	categ_1	categ_2	categ_3	categ_4
0	12347	5	382.52	711.79	558.172000	2790.86	8.676179	14.524555	14.554295	29.836681	32.408290
1	12348	4	227.44	892.80	449.310000	1797.24	0.000000	0.000000	58.046783	41.953217	0.000000
2	12350	1	334.40	334.40	334.400000	334.40	0.000000	27.900718	23.654306	48.444976	0.000000
3	12352	6	144.35	840.30	345.663333	2073.98	14.301006	3.370331	53.725205	12.892120	15.711338
4	12353	1	89.00	89.00	89.000000	89.00	22.359551	19.887640	44.719101	13.033708	0.000000

Figure 17: Number of Purchase

	1	0	2	6	3	9	8	7	5	4	10
nb. de clients	1484	451	371	344	296	284	191	161	9	9	8

Figure 18: PCA

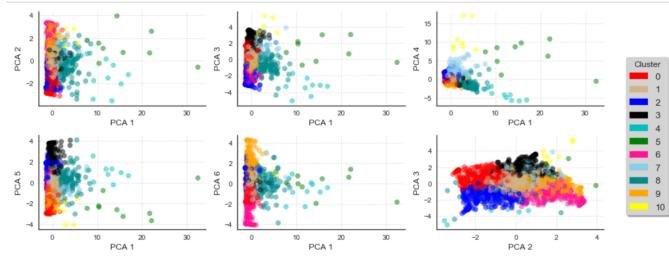


Figure 19: Silhouette Plot

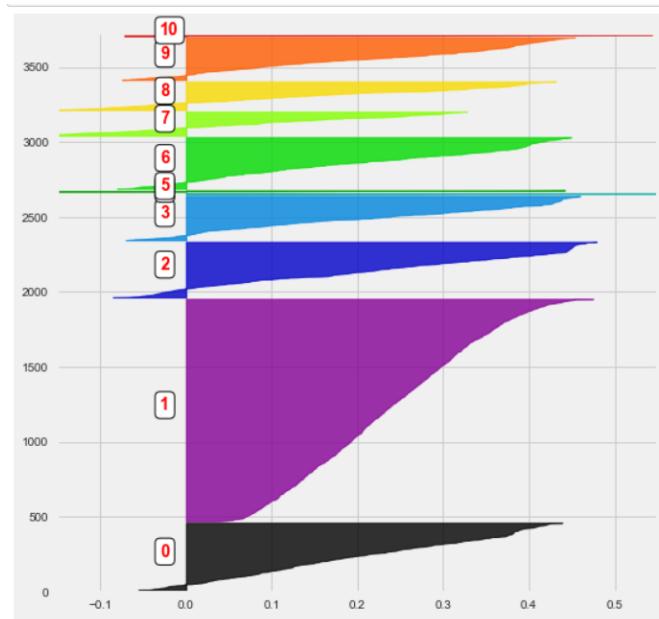


Figure 20: Logistic Regression Learning Curve



Figure 21: KNN Learning Curve

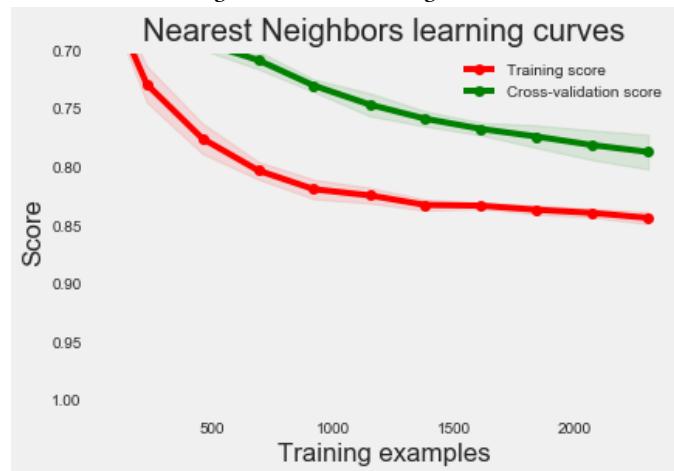


Figure 22: Random Forest Learning Curve

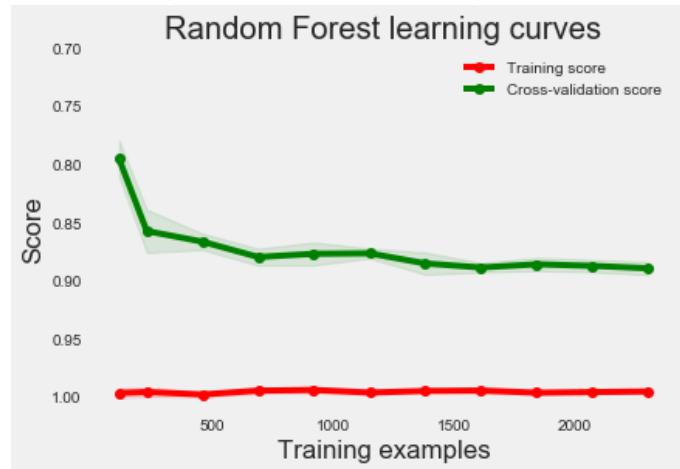
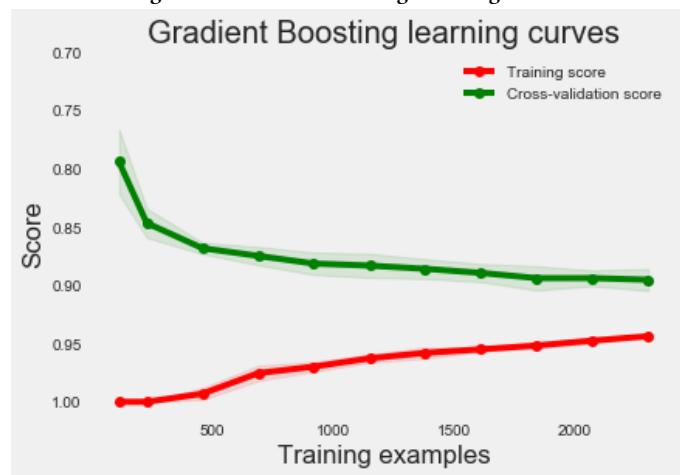


Figure 23: Gradient Boosting Learning Curve



bibtex report

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
```

bibtex _ label error

bibtext space label error

bibtext comma label error

latex report

```
[2017-12-08 03.59.38] pdflatex report.tex
This is pdfTeX, Version 3.14159265-2.6-1.40.17 (TeX Live 2016) (preloaded format=pdflatex)
Missing character: ""

bookmark level for unknown defaults to 0.

The anchor of a bookmark and its parent's must not be the same. Added a new anchor.

Typesetting of "report.tex" completed in 2.1s.

.../README.yml
30:14    warning  truthy value is not quoted  (truthy)
34:81    error    line too long (81 > 80 characters)  (line-length)
35:81    error    line too long (85 > 80 characters)  (line-length)
36:81    error    line too long (82 > 80 characters)  (line-length)
36:82    error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
37:81    error    line too long (82 > 80 characters)  (line-length)
38:79    error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
39:81    error    line too long (83 > 80 characters)  (line-length)
39:83    error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
40:81    error    line too long (82 > 80 characters)  (line-length)
```

```
40:82    error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
53:81    error    line too long (103 > 80 characters)  (line-length)
53:103   error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
54:81    error    line too long (104 > 80 characters)  (line-length)
54:104   error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
55:81    error    line too long (105 > 80 characters)  (line-length)
55:105   error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
56:81    error    line too long (107 > 80 characters)  (line-length)
57:81    error    line too long (110 > 80 characters)  (line-length)
58:81    error    line too long (111 > 80 characters)  (line-length)
59:81    error    line too long (116 > 80 characters)  (line-length)
59:116   error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
60:81    error    line too long (107 > 80 characters)  (line-length)
61:81    error    line too long (110 > 80 characters)  (line-length)
62:81    error    line too long (106 > 80 characters)  (line-length)
62:106   error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
63:81    error    line too long (110 > 80 characters)  (line-length)
68:27    error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
70:14    error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
```

```
=====
Compliance Report
=====
```

```
name: Himani Bhatt
hid: 202
paper1: Nov 04 17 100%
paper2: Nov 27 17 100%
project: Dec 04 17 100%
```

```
yamlcheck
-----
```

```
wordcount
-----
```

```
(null)
wc 202 project (null) 8179 content.tex
wc 202 project (null) 8272 report.pdf
wc 202 project (null) 380 report.bib
```

```
find "
-----
```

```
passed: True

find footnote
-----
passed: True

find input{format/i523}
-----
10: \input{format/i523}

passed: True

find input{format/final}
-----
passed: False

floats
-----
118: The content of the dataset appears as shown in the figure
    \ref{data}.
120: \begin{figure}[H]
122: \label{data}
124: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/DatasetContent.PNG}
137: \begin{figure}[H]
139: \label{country}
141: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/chloropletch.PNG}
144: The figure \ref{country} shows that maximum number of orders are
    placed from UK.
150: \begin{figure}[H]
152: \label{2.1}
154: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/2_1.PNG}
160: \begin{figure}[H]
162: \label{2.2}
164: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/2_2.PNG}
171: \begin{figure}[H]
173: \label{2.3}
175: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/2_3.PNG}
185: \begin{figure}[H]
187: \label{2.4}
189: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/2_4.PNG}
196: \begin{figure}[H]
```

```

198: \label{2.5}
200: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/2_5.PNG}
205: \begin{figure}[H]
207: \label{2.6}
209: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/2_6.PNG}
224: We found that there are 1483 keywords present in the description
     variable of the dataset. The most common keywords can be
     determined based on the occurrences. The figure \ref{3.1} shows
     the top word occurrences.
226: \begin{figure}[H]
228: \label{3.1}
230: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/3_1.PNG}
250: The figure \ref{3.2} shows silhouette score for different values
     of k. These scores do not have significant differences, but since
     for k value greater than 5, the resulting clusters have very few
     elements in them, we have taken k as 5.
252: \begin{figure}[H]
254: \label{3.2}
256: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/3_2.PNG}
263: From the silhouette plot we can see that cluster 1 has more
     number of elements than the other clusters. But overall
     distribution of elements in the clusters is comparative. Same can
     be seen from the figure \ref{3.4}.
265: \begin{figure}[H]
267: \label{3.3}
269: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/3_3.PNG}
272: \begin{figure}[H]
274: \label{3.4}
276: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/3_4.PNG}
283: \begin{figure}[H]
285: \label{3.5}
287: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/3_5.PNG}
290: Another application of PCA is that it sets the indication of
     cluster membership. Biplot is the best example that can be
     provided here to support this idea. Using biplot, we get the
     indication of number of clusters in a dataset. Below figure
     \ref{3.6} shows these on limited number of components (since it
     is only for visualizing cluster distribution). We can observe the
     groupings of points or clusters as expected.\\
292: \begin{figure}[H]
294: \label{3.6}
296: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/3_6.PNG}
304: \begin{figure}[H]
306: \label{4.1}
308: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/4_1.PNG}
319: \begin{figure}[H]

```

```

321: \label{4.2}
323: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/4_2.PNG}
331: Using the silhouette score, the optimum value of k comes out to
    be 11. The assignment of customers into different clusters is
    shown in figure \ref{4.3}
333: \begin{figure}[H]
335: \label{4.3}
337: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/4_3.PNG}
347: \begin{figure}[H]
349: \label{4.4}
351: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/4_4.PNG}
358: \begin{figure}[H]
360: \label{4.5}
362: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/4_5.PNG}
397: \begin{figure}[H]
399: \label{5.1}
401: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/5_1.png}
404: As we can see from the Figure \ref{5.1}, when the number of
    training examples increases, the cross-validation and train
    curves almost converge towards the same limit suggesting that the
    model has low variance. Thus we can say that model is not
    suffering from over-fitting. Also one point to note is that the
    accuracy is high, which means that the model has low bias, thus
    suggesting that it does not under-fit the data. The precision
    which we got from running the Logistic Regression model on the
    training data is 88.78\%.
417: \begin{figure}[H]
419: \label{5.2}
421: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/5_2.png}
431: In Python, the ‘ensemble’ library is imported from the sklearn
    package which performs the Random Forest classification through
    the RandomForestClassifier function. The parameters given to this
    function are criterion, n\_estimators and max\_features. The
    criterion is used to measure the quality of the split. The Gini
    is for measuring the Gini impurity and Entropy is for information
    gain. The max\_features are the number of the features that can
    be chosen when looking for the best split. For ‘sqrt’, the number
    of maximum features chosen are square root of the number of the
    features and for ‘log’, it is log of the number of the features.
    And the n\_estimators is the number of trees in the forest. Once
    the model is run, we have drawn the learning curve graph which is
    as represented in the \ref{5.3} .
433: \begin{figure}[H]
435: \label{5.3}
437: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/5_3.png}
461: \begin{figure}[H]

```

```
463: \label{5.4}
465: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/5_4.png}

figures 23
tables 0
includegraphics 23
labels 23
refs 9
floats 23

True : ref check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
True : label check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
True : include graphics passed: (figures >= includegraphics)
False : check if all figures are referred to: (refs >= labels)
```

```
Label/ref check
passed: True
```

```
When using figures use columnwidth
[width=1.0\columnwidth]
do not change the number to a smaller fraction
```

```
find textwidth
```

```
124: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/DatasetContent.PNG}
141: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/chloroplet.PNG}
154: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/2_1.PNG}
164: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/2_2.PNG}
175: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/2_3.PNG}
189: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/2_4.PNG}
200: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/2_5.PNG}
209: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/2_6.PNG}
230: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/3_1.PNG}
256: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/3_2.PNG}
```

```
269: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/3_3.PNG}
276: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/3_4.PNG}
287: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/3_5.PNG}
296: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/3_6.PNG}
308: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/4_1.PNG}
323: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/4_2.PNG}
337: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/4_3.PNG}
351: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/4_4.PNG}
362: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/4_5.PNG}
401: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/5_1.png}
421: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/5_2.png}
437: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/5_3.png}
465: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/5_4.png}
```

passed: False

below_check

WARNING: figure and below may be used improperly

290: Another application of PCA is that it sets the indication of cluster membership. Biplot is the best example that can be provided here to support this idea. Using biplot, we get the indication of number of clusters in a dataset. Below figure \ref{3.6} shows these on limited number of components (since it is only for visualizing cluster distribution). We can observe the groupings of points or clusters as expected.\\"

WARNING: algorithm and below may be used improperly

369: In the previous section, we have made different client categories. In this part we will adjust a classifier so that the

consumers can be classified in different client categories. The main aim of this is to enable the Classification on the first visit of the customer. To do this, we have defined a class that will allow interfacing the common functionalities to the different classifiers. Since we are going to classify the client on the basis of his/her first visit, the only parameters that we take into consideration are the contents of the basket and not the frequency of visits or the variation in the basket price over a period of time. Once this is done, we have split the dataset into train and test sets. The classification algorithms which we used to do this are mentioned below.\\"

bibtex

label errors

bibtex errors

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
```

bibtex_empty_fields

entries in general should not be empty in bibtex

find ""

passed: True

ascii

```
non ascii found 8220
non ascii found 8221
```

The following tests are optional

=====

Tip: newlines can often be replaced just by an empty line

find newline

passed: True
cites should have a space before \cite{} but not before the {

find cite {

passed: True

Big Data Analytics in E-Commerce

Himani Bhatt, Mrunal L Chaudhary

Indiana University

Bloomington, Indiana

himbhatt@iu.edu,mchaudh@iu.edu

ABSTRACT

Humongous amounts of data gets generated every day in the domain of e-commerce industry. With the increasing competition and ever-changing market trends, it is a challenging task for the store owners to strategize business and marketing activities. If the companies are able to predict customer behavior, they can come up with business designs which can help them in making predictions about the customer purchasing patterns and thereby increase their revenue. In this project we have aimed to do analysis on the data of an e-commerce non-store online retail giant based in UK. The dataset, available in the UC Irvine repository by the name of 'Online Retail', consists of the goods purchased by different customers at a given time. Through this data available to us, we have done customer segmentation on the basis of the type and amount of goods purchased by a customer. We achieved this by doing a thorough exploration of the data, data pre-processing and then running different Machine Learning Classifiers to classify the customers in different categories.

KEYWORDS

HID 202, HID 205, i523, Machine Learning, Analysis, e-commerce, retail, Customer Segmentation, Python, Regression, Boosting, KNN, Random Forest.

1 INTRODUCTION

The e-commerce industry is in constant shifts due to the ever-increasing changes in the technologies used to develop and maintain the e-commerce systems, the services that they are willing to offer, the market strategies which gain popularity at the time, and most importantly- the customer behavior [3]. The online store owners are the ones who are most affected by these changes. And since the competition in the field of e-commerce is fierce, the online store owners need to come up with business strategies and technologies which provide better customer services leading to their satisfaction and earning customer loyalty. To achieve this, they need to address these ever changing issues to survive and thrive in the e-commerce market and come up with better decisions faster. The key to achieving this lies in better understanding of the customer behavior and their purchasing patterns. That is where analytics comes into play. Analysis of customer behavior and purchasing patterns helps in devising better and accurate marketing strategies which can not only help in generating more profits but also in saving both time and efforts that goes into trying and testing different marketing activities [3]. This ability to capture and analyze user data, and then provide useful and in depth insights in it is what Machine Learning empowers us with. In this project, we aim to do analysis on a data set 'Online Retail' from the UC Irvine Machine Learning Repository to determine the customer purchasing pattern by using

different machine Learning algorithms like K-Means Clustering, Logistic Regression, Random Forest, Gradient Boosting, etc.

2 BACKGROUND

Before the advent of the World Wide Web, transactions that happened on a day to day basis meant physical presence of customers, the brick-and-mortar setting of a store which offered a limited variety of goods. With the evolution of internet and its application in retail, the field of e-commerce emerged and changed the entire facet of shopping. Since a proper set-up of a store is no longer needed, customers can buy goods at much lower prices, with a wider variety to choose from and that too without the need of physical presence. The online market is expected to grow by almost 56% from the year 2015 to 2020 [13]. In the United States alone, 56% of the population prefers to shop online. The e-commerce industry is growing at an average rate of 23% every year, with 90% of the Americans having done online shopping at some point in their lives [12]. With so many transactions happening over the internet, naturally the amount of data getting generated is humongous. Also, with the constantly changing market trends, strategies to overcome the competition and make profits need to be constantly improved. The key issues therefore are managing the data and drawing insights from them which will help in bettering the business decisions. To store and maintain the magnanimous amounts of data getting generated *everyday* is a huge hassle, because along with the volume, this data gets generated at a break neck speed and in different formats from traditional numeric databases to unstructured text documents. [9]. The big data technologies like Hadoop and Spark can be used in addressing these hurdles, namely the volume, velocity and variety.

2.1 The Three V's of e-Commerce Big Data

Like other technologies which deal with a humongous amount of data, e-Commerce must also respond to the 3 Vs, namely Volume, Velocity and Variety:

- Volume

Thousands of online transactions happen every day making the data generation a real time process. The integration of Big Data involves collection of relevant data like customer behavior statistics on the basis of their searches, transactions, demography, etc. The challenge here is not only gathering the data but also in analyzing it.

- Variety

The data from online transactions comes in different varieties, right from structured databases to unstructured text documents, videos, feedback emails and comments, and others. The retailers need to understand this for making

the right business decisions by keeping a leeway for possible data fluctuations such as seasonal ad peak loads like Black Friday sales.

- Velocity

Handling the huge amounts of data which is generated at unprecedented rates is another challenge that needs to be taken care of. It is therefore imperative to do rapid analysis so that timely actions can be taken to sustain in the competition and boost the profit margins [9]

Storing and maintaining the big data is a hassle in itself, but it will provide little value if proper analysis is not done on it. That is where we will be focusing on in this project - making sense of the data.

We have now established the fact that the e-commerce companies have a lot of data at their fingertips. Making use of this data is where the challenge lies. Machine learning is an approach by which insights can be drawn from digital data at a rate much faster than any human is capable of doing [6]. Following are some of the biggest challenges that are faced in the field of e-commerce which Machine Learning addresses successfully:

(1) Optimization of the Prices:

Pricing, and in that, online pricing is critically important. Since prices of the competitors are only a few clicks away, it is far easier for the customers to compare prices. Setting up the optimum price, by considering many factors like the prices set by the competitors, the time of the day, the type of the customer and the product's demand therefore is a difficult task. Machine Learning technology can set these prices by considering all these factors at once.

(2) Fraud detection:

The e-commerce industry, like the other industries, is susceptible to fraudulent activities. The consequences of these activities can lead to tarnishing the name of the company forever. Machine Learning helps in detecting and preventing the frauds by processing the repetitive data at a high speed.

(3) Search Ranking

Machine Learning is capable of pulling information from patterns of search and purchase by considering the factors like preferences, content and search items and come up with a powerful search engine that shows what the customer exactly wants.

(4) Product Recommendations

Machine Learning is capable of effortlessly quantifying the buying patterns of the customers and developing a recommendation engine which makes relevant product suggestions to them.

(5) Customer Segmentation and Personalization

In any business, Customer base is the most important factor and therefore providing a satisfactory customer experience is of utmost importance. The biggest challenge that e-commerce systems endeavor to overcome is the separation from their customers. In person, a salesperson can quickly take in the what the customers are saying, their economic status, their body language, and behavior to help them find better or desired products. the salesperson thus is able to *segment* customers, and provide them with a *personalized* shopping experience. With online shopping, it is very difficult to make this happen since an in depth understanding is needed of the vast amount of the data to provide tailored choices to the customers, which can result in sale loss.

Machine Learning makes the biggest impact by making it possible to give personalized customer experiences which can boost the sales and thereby increase the revenue.

The type of analysis and Machine Learning Algorithm to be chosen depends solely on the data at hand. The data set we aim to analyze is a transnational data set that has been archived in the UC Irvine Machine Learning Repository under the name 'Online Retail'. This dataset contains all the transactions occurring in the period from 01/12/2010 to 09/12/2011 for a UK-based registered non-store online retail. The company mostly sells all-occasion gifts and most of its customers are wholesalers.

A thorough Exploratory Data Analysis on this data lets us know what kind of Machine Learning Algorithm needs to be used. Also, several models can be applied and the one which gives the best accuracy and precision against the test data can be chosen. Machine Learning Algorithms are mostly classified as supervised and unsupervised Learning algorithms. In Supervised Learning, each example is a pair of an input object and the corresponding output value, also called the supervisory signal.

A supervised learning algorithm analyzed the training data to produce an inferred function which is used to map new, unknown output-value examples [7]. Since there is the output value to *supervise* the learning algorithm, such approach is called 'Supervised Learning'. The most commonly used Supervised Learning Algorithms are Logistic and Linear Regression, Bagging and Boosting Algorithms, Decision Trees and Random Forest. The Logistic Regression algorithm determines the relationship between the input and the output variables and generates a classifier model to predict the category to which a new example belongs to. Thus Logistic Regression is a classification algorithm [2]. Decision Trees are non parametric Supervised Learning Algorithms which create a model by learning simple decision rules inferred from data attributes to predict the value of a target variable. Decision Trees can be used either for Classification or Regression [4]. Bagging is a technique used to reduce the variance in the predictions by combining the result of multiple classifiers modeled on different sub-samples of the same data set. One of the most commonly and widely used implementation of Bagging is Random Forests. In Random forest, there are multiple trees which classify a new sample based on the set of attributes and a new sample is classified to that class which received the maximum 'votes' from the individual trees. In case of Regression, the average of the outputs given by different trees is taken [8].

In Unsupervised learning, only the input data is known with no knowledge of the corresponding output variable. The goal therefore of the Unsupervised Learning Algorithms is to model the underlying distribution or structure in the data to understand the data more. Since there is no output available to validate or 'supervise' the answers, such learning algorithms are called Unsupervised. The most common application of unsupervised learning is clustering. Clustering enables to differentiate the data by discovering the inherent groupings of the input. The most common implementation of Clustering is the K-means algorithm. This algorithm works iteratively to assign each data point to one of the k-groups based on the feature similarity.

3 EXPLORING THE DATASET

The dataset taken for the analysis is the Online Retail data set available on the UCI Machine Learning Repository. This is a transactional dataset which contains all the transactions occurring between 01/12/2010 and 09/12/2011 for a UK-based and registered non store online retail. The company mainly sells unique all-occasion gifts. Many customers of the company are wholesalers.

Data set is Multivariate, Sequential , Time series with 5,41,909 rows and 8 columns. There are missing values present in the dataset. All the attributes integer and real. Size of the dataset is 43.4 MB.

Attribute Information

InvoiceNo : Invoice number. Nominal, a 6-digit integral number uniquely assigned to each transaction. If this code starts with letter 'c', it indicates a cancellation.

StockCode : Product (item) code. Nominal, a 5-digit integral number uniquely assigned to each distinct product.

Description : Product (item) name. Nominal.

Quantity : The quantities of each product (item) per transaction. Numeric.

InvoiceDate : Invoice Date and time. Numeric, the day and time when each transaction was generated.

UnitPrice : Unit price. Numeric, Product price per unit in sterling.

CustomerID : Customer number. Nominal, a 5-digit integral number uniquely assigned to each customer.

Country : Country name. Nominal, the name of the country where each customer resides.

4 DATA PREPARATION

Installation Steps

We have implemented this project in Python 2.7 and have used the Jupyter Notebook App for the program execution. The Jupyter Notebook App is an application having server-client architecture which allows editing and executing notebook documents through a web browser. A notebook document is a human readable and machine executable document which can be executed for implementation of data analysis. The Jupyter Notebook App can be executed on the local host or can be installed on a remote machine accessed via the internet [5].

The Jupyter Notebook can be installed very easily on a machine which has either Python 2 or Python 3. Since we have implemented our project in Python 2.7, following commands are to be run in the terminal:

```
pip install --upgrade pip
```

The above command will upgrade the Python package manager (pip).

```
pip install jupyter
```

The above command will install Jupyter in the local machine.

Once the Jupyter Notebook has been installed, it can be run using the following command in the terminal:

```
jupyter notebook
```

This command will run the Jupyter notebook in the default browser of the machine on the default port 8888 of the localhost.

4.1 Packages Installation

Before running the code the following packages were imported/installed in the Python environment.

- pandas Pandas provide a very fast and flexible data structures to make working with relational data easy and fairly intuitive
- numpy This is a fundamental package for scientific computation with Python and can be used as an efficient multi-dimensional container of generic data
- sklearn Scikit-learn makes a wide range of supervised and unsupervised machine learning algorithms available in python

Null Value Treatment

The dataset has almost 25% of the entries that are not assigned to any of the customer i.e. CustomerID attribute for those entries is null. These entries are useless for the analysis and hence can be deleted. After removing these entries , the dataset will be left with 4,06,829 rows.

The content of the dataset appear as shown in the figure 1.

Figure 1: Data set Contents

InvoiceNo	StockCode	Description	Quantity	InvoiceDate	UnitPrice	CustomerID	Country
0	536365	85123A WHITE HANGING HEART T-LIGHT HOLDER	6	2010-12-01 08:26:00	2.55	17850	United Kingdom
1	536365	71053 WHITE METAL LANTERN	6	2010-12-01 08:26:00	3.39	17850	United Kingdom
2	536365	84406B CREAM CUPID HEARTS COAT HANGER	8	2010-12-01 08:26:00	2.75	17850	United Kingdom
3	536365	84029G KNITTED UNION FLAG HOT WATER BOTTLE	6	2010-12-01 08:26:00	3.39	17850	United Kingdom
4	536365	84029E RED WOOLLY HOTTIE WHITE HEART	6	2010-12-01 08:26:00	3.39	17850	United Kingdom

We can also remove the duplicate values present in our dataset. There are 5225 such entries present in our data set that are deleted.

5 EXPLORING THE CONTENT OF VARIABLES

The dataframe has 8 variables and we can draw some inferences by analyzing these variables.

Countries

From data we can see that there are 37 different countries from which orders are placed. We can determine the number of orders per country by a chloropeth map. Chloropeth map uses different coloring and shading within predefined areas to indicate quantities in those areas.

The figure 2 shows that maximum number of orders are placed from UK.

Customers and products

On observing the number of users, products purchased and number of transaction made , we can see that these are not proportional. Which shows that there are many transactions made for cancelling the orders.

We can also determine the number of products purchased in each transaction. It shows that some customers make bulk transactions

Figure 2: Distribution of Orders based on Countries



Figure 3: Customer Products Transactions

products	transactions	customers
quantity	3684	22190
		4372

whereas some purchase single product in a transaction. Also the orders with InvoiceNo starting with C are the cancelled orders.

Figure 4: Number of products per Customer

CustomerID	InvoiceNo	Number of products
0	12346	541431
1	12346	C541433
2	12347	537626
3	12347	542237
4	12347	549222

Cancelled Orders

Almost 16%(3654) of the transactions are corresponding to the cancelled orders. In our dataset, corresponding to each cancelled transaction we should have an order placed with same quantity of product requested. Checking the same in our dataset we found this for some of the orders.

This hypothesis should apply to complete dataset, but on checking the whole dataset it is determined that there are some cancelled orders without the previous order made. This is done by locating the entries that indicate a negative quantity and check if there is an order indicating the same quantity (but positive) with the same

Figure 5: Transactions for Cancellation

InvoiceNo	StockCode	Description	Quantity	InvoiceDate	UnitPrice	CustomerID	Country
61619	541431	23166 MEDIUM CERAMIC TOP STORAGE JAR	74215	2011-01-18 10:01:00	1.04	12346	United Kingdom
61624	C541433	23166 MEDIUM CERAMIC TOP STORAGE JAR	-74215	2011-01-18 10:17:00	1.04	12346	United Kingdom
286623	562032	22375 AIRLINE BAG VINTAGE JET SET BROWN	4	2011-08-02 08:48:00	4.25	12347	Iceland
72260	542237	84991 60 TEATIME FAIRY CAKE CASES	24	2011-01-26 14:30:00	0.55	12347	Iceland
14943	537626	22772 PINK DRAWER KNOB ACRYLIC EDWARDIAN	12	2010-12-07 14:57:00	1.25	12347	Iceland

description. To check it we have also eliminated the 'Discount' entries.

This can be because the buy orders were performed before December 2010 (the point of entry of the database). We can delete the records where a cancel order exists without or there is atleast one counterpart with the exact quantity (since both records are logically cancelling each other). Total 8795 such records are deleted from the dataset.

StockCode

The StockCode variable should ideally contain letters. So we have filtered out the codes with only letters. We can observe the different type of transactions based on these (example D is for discounted transaction)

Figure 6: Stock Codes

POST	-> POSTAGE
D	-> Discount
C2	-> CARRIAGE
M	-> Manual
BANK CHARGES	-> Bank Charges
PADS	-> PADS TO MATCH ALL CUSHIONS
DOT	-> DOTCOM POSTAGE

Basket Price

We have added a new variable to indicate total price of the purchase (by multiplying unit price with quantity). On grouping the records based on the orders we can see the complete price for that order.

We can visualize the orders distinguished on the basis of total price of the basket. It can be shown using a pie-chart.

It shows that majority of the orders are the bulk purchases since 60% of the orders have amount greater than 200.

6 EXPLORING PRODUCT CATEGORIES

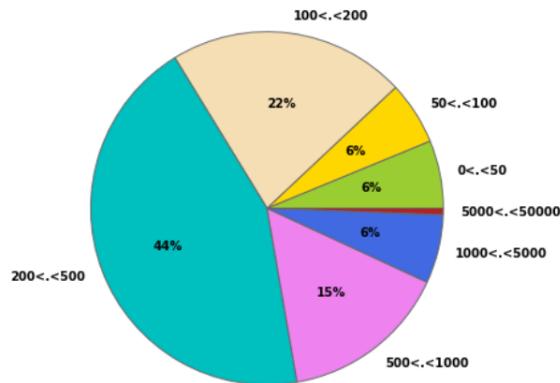
The dataset contain two variables Stockcode and Description defining products. we can categorize the products based on the content of the description variable. This can be done in the following way :

- Extracting the proper names appearing in the products description.

Figure 7: Basket Price

CustomerID	InvoiceNo	Basket Price	InvoiceDate
1	12347	537626	711.79 2010-12-07 14:57:00.000001024
2	12347	542237	475.39 2011-01-26 14:29:59.999999744
3	12347	549222	636.25 2011-04-07 10:42:59.999999232
4	12347	556201	382.52 2011-06-09 13:01:00.000000256
5	12347	562032	584.91 2011-08-02 08:48:00.000000000
6	12347	573511	1294.32 2011-10-31 12:25:00.000001280

Figure 8: Pie-Chart
Distribution of the amounts of orders



- Finding the root of the word combining set of names associated with this root.
- Finding the frequency of root in the dataframe.

We found that there are 1483 keywords present in the description variable of the dataset. The most common keywords can be determined based on the occurrences. The figure 9 shows the top word occurrences.

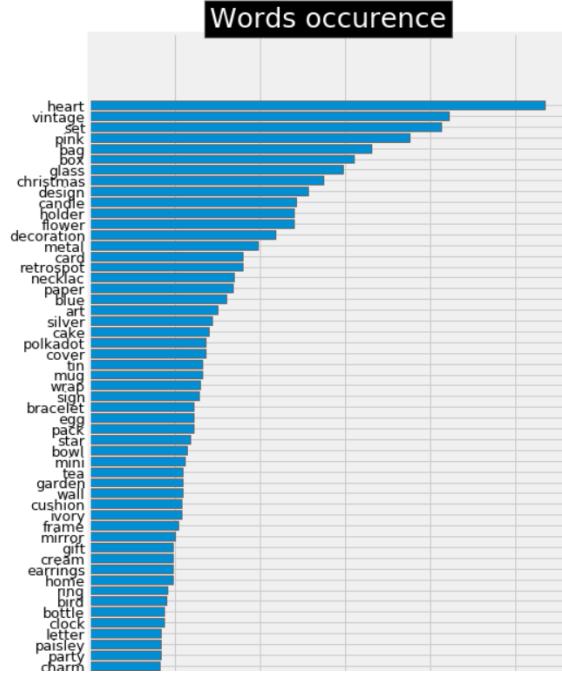
Categorizing Products

We have obtained around 1400 keywords from the above occurrence list , most of them are not making sense. After discarding the keywords that are appearing less than 13 times, we are left with 193 keywords that we are considering for our analysis.

These significant keywords are used for creating categories of the products. The data has been encoded using the principle of one-hot-encoding.

One hot encoding - One hot encoding is a process by which categorical variables are converted into a form that could be provided to ML algorithms to do a better job in prediction.The words present in the descriptions of the products are encoded. Also price range column is added as it will help in balanced grouping of the products.

Figure 9: Word Occurrences



Clustering of products

In the previous step we have created a matrix with encoded version of words present in the description variable.K means clustering is used for the cluster assignment and since the data is binary because of encoding the most appropriate distance function will be Hamming's metric (other distance functions use are euclidean distance , Manhattan distance etc.). It basically measures the minimum number of substitutions required to change one string into the other. But the kmeans package available in sklearn uses Euclidean distance by default we have used it for our analysis.

Selection of optimum K-value

The number of clusters can be selected using silhouette analysis on KMeans clustering. It is used to study the separation distance between the resulting clusters. The silhouette plot displays a measure of how close each point in one cluster is to points in the neighboring clusters and thus provides a way to assess parameters like number of clusters visually.This measure has a range of [-1, 1].

Silhouette coefficients (as these values are referred to as) near +1 indicate that the sample is far away from the neighboring clusters. A value of 0 indicates that the sample is on or very close to the decision boundary between two neighboring clusters and negative values indicate that those samples might have been assigned to the wrong cluster.

The figure 10 show silhouette score for different values of k.These scores don't have significant difference, but since for k value greater than 5 resulting in clusters with very few elements, we have taken k as 5.

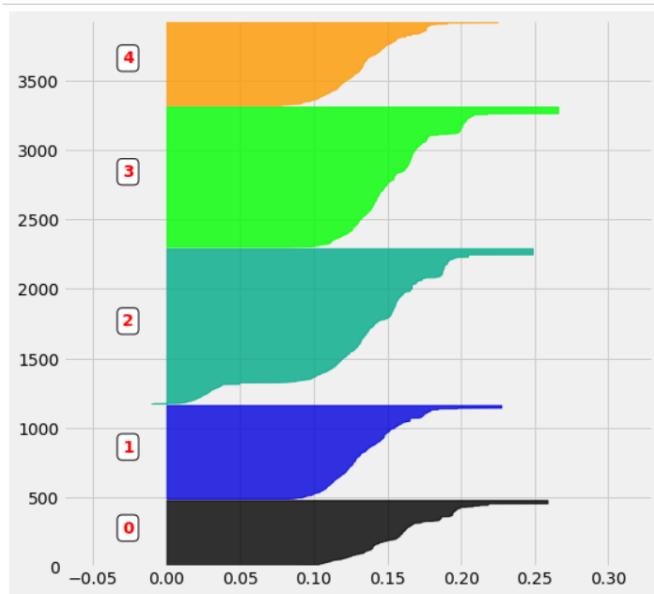
Figure 10: Silhouette Scores

```
('For n_clusters =', 3, 'The average silhouette_score is :', 0.10158702596012364)
('For n_clusters =', 4, 'The average silhouette_score is :', 0.12680045883937879)
('For n_clusters =', 5, 'The average silhouette_score is :', 0.14553871352885445)
('For n_clusters =', 6, 'The average silhouette_score is :', 0.15122077520906058)
('For n_clusters =', 7, 'The average silhouette_score is :', 0.1463684372259042)
('For n_clusters =', 8, 'The average silhouette_score is :', 0.14764212603720744)
('For n_clusters =', 9, 'The average silhouette_score is :', 0.13974230402472737)
```

Validating Quality of Classification

Silhouette Score. From the silhouette plot we can see that cluster 1 has more number of elements than the other clusters. But overall distribution of elements in the clusters is comparative. Same can be seen from the figure 12.

Figure 11: Silhouette plot



Principal Component Analysis. The main idea of principal component analysis (PCA) is to reduce the dimensionality of a data set consisting of many variables correlated with each other, either heavily or lightly, while retaining the variation present in the dataset, up to the maximum extent. The initial matrix has large number of variables so PCA is used for dimensionality reduction. From the figure we can say that we need more than 100 components to explain 90% of the variance of the data.

Another application of PCA is that it sets the indication of customer membership. Biplot is the best example that can be provided here to support this idea. Using biplot, we get the indication of number of clusters in a dataset. Below figure 14 shows these on limited number of components(since it is only for visualizing cluster distribution). We can observe the groupings of points or clusters as expected.

Figure 12: Cluster Composition

2	1118
3	1009
1	673
4	606
0	472

Figure 13: PCA

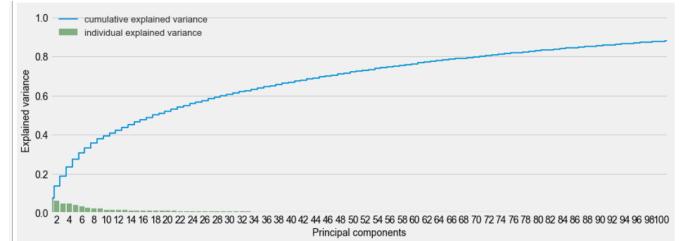
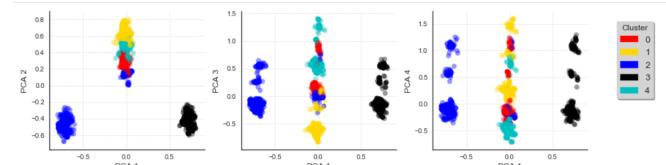


Figure 14: Biplot



7 EXPLORING CUSTOMER CATEGORIES

In the previous section, we have divided products in 5 clusters. We have added a dummy variable `categ_product` to indicate the cluster to which that customer belongs. Based on the clustering done on products we have created variables `categ_0..4` which stores amount spent on each of the product category. And the `categ_product` variable which we have just created will have initial cluster assignment based on these variables. These can be further grouped on the basis of `InvoiceNo`.

Figure 15: Table

	CustomerID	InvoiceNo	Basket Price	categ_0	categ_1	categ_2	categ_3	categ_4	InvoiceDate
1	12347	537626	711.79	124.44	83.40	23.40	187.2	283.35	2010-12-07 14:57:00.000001024
2	12347	542237	475.39	0.00	53.10	122.59	130.5	169.20	2011-01-26 14:29:59.999999232
3	12347	549222	636.25	0.00	71.10	119.25	330.9	115.00	2011-04-07 10:42:59.999999232
4	12347	556201	382.52	19.90	78.06	41.40	74.4	168.76	2011-06-09 13:01:00.000000256
5	12347	562032	584.91	97.80	119.70	99.55	109.7	158.16	2011-08-02 08:48:00.000000000

7.1 Subsetting dataframe based on Time

We have taken 12 month's data for the analysis. This can be done on the basis of variable InvoiceDate present in the dataset. Using this data we have developed a model to characterize and anticipate the habits of customers using the site and we are doing it from the first visit.

In the previous section we have seen the basket price of each invoices. For further analysis we will combine these on the basis of CustomerID to analyze the number of purchases made by each customer. A customer category of particular interest is that of customers who make only one purchase. So one objective may be, for example, to target these customers in order to retain them. In our dataset we have 1/3 of the customers like this.

Figure 16: Number of Purchase

	CustomerID	count	min	max	mean	sum	categ_0	categ_1	categ_2	categ_3	categ_4
0	12347	5	382.52	711.79	558.172000	2790.86	8.676179	14.524555	14.554295	29.836681	32.408290
1	12348	4	227.44	892.80	449.310000	1797.24	0.000000	0.000000	58.046783	41.953217	0.000000
2	12350	1	334.40	334.40	334.400000	334.40	0.000000	27.900718	23.654306	48.444976	0.000000
3	12352	6	144.35	840.30	345.663333	2073.98	14.301006	3.370331	53.725205	12.892120	15.711338
4	12353	1	89.00	89.00	89.000000	89.00	22.359551	19.887640	44.719101	13.033708	0.000000

7.2 Categorizing Customers

The information transactions per user is used for characterizing different types of customers. Because of different ranges of variations of different variables we have first scaled the data set. As done in the case of product categorization, we have again used K means algorithm for cluster assignment.

Using the silhouette score, the optimum value of k comes out to be 11. The assignment of customers into different clusters is shown in figure 17

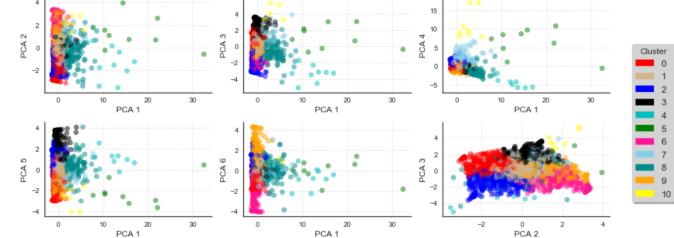
Figure 17: Number of Purchase

	1	0	2	6	3	9	8	7	5	4	10
nb. de clients	1484	451	371	344	296	284	191	161	9	9	8

Now we will check validity of the cluster assignment using PCA and Silhouette plot as done in the case of product categorization.

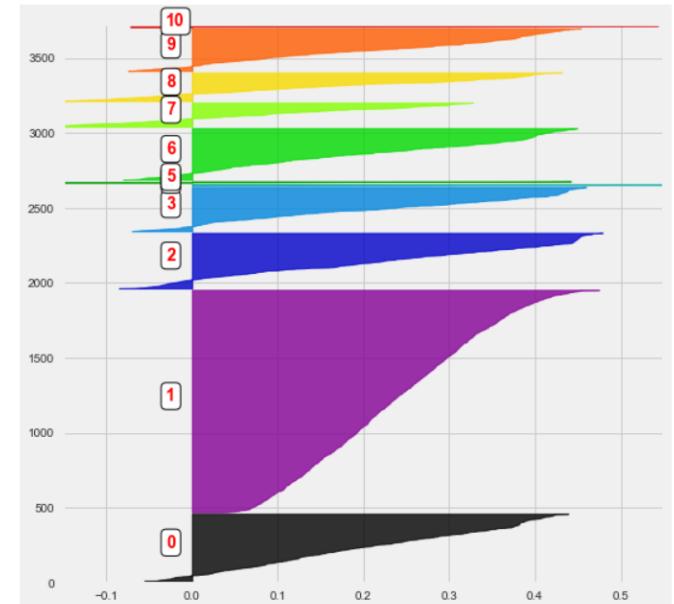
PCA. There is a certain disparity in the sizes of different groups that have been created. So we have validated it using PCA. From the representation, it can be seen, for example, that the first principal component allow to separate the tiniest clusters from the rest. More generally, we see that there is always a representation in which two clusters will appear to be distinct.

Figure 18: PCA



Silhouette Plot. As with product categories, another way to look at the quality of the separation is to look at silhouette scores within different clusters:

Figure 19: Silhouette Plot



We can see that the different clusters are indeed disjoint.

8 CLASSIFICATION ALGORITHMS

8.1 Classification of Customers

In the previous section, we have made different client categories. In this part we will adjust a classifier so that the consumers can

be classified in different client categories. The main aim of this is to enable the Classification on the first visit of the customer. To do this, we have defined a class that will allow interfacing the common functionalities to the different classifiers. Since we are going to classify the client on the basis of his/her first visit, the only parameters that we take into consideration are the contents of the basket and not the frequency of visits or the variation in the basket price over a period of time. Once this is done, we have split the dataset into train and test sets. The classification algorithms which we used to do this are mentioned below.

8.2 Logistic Regression

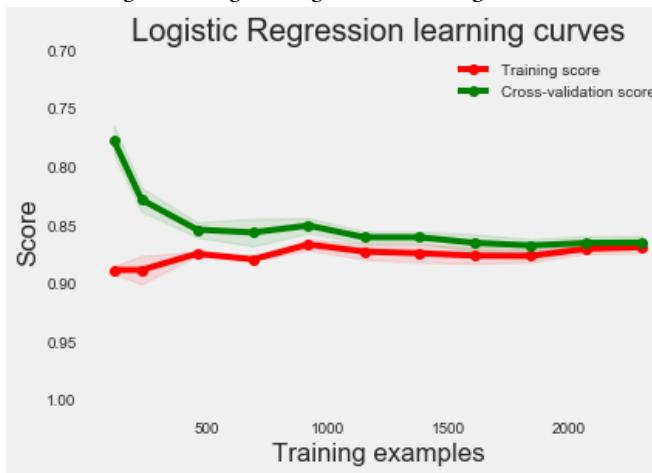
Logistic Regression as mentioned before is a Supervised Learning method which does analysis on a dataset containing two or more independent variables for determining the outcome. This outcome, i.e. the dependent variable, is binary in nature, meaning it can have only two possible outcomes. The goal of a Logistic Regression model is to determine a fitting model which best describes the relationship between the dependent variables (output variable) and a set of the input independent variables. Logistic Regression generates the coefficients along with the standard errors and significance levels of the below equation for predicting the logit transformation of the probability of presence of the characteristics of interest in a given sample example.

$$\text{logit}(p) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \dots + \beta_k X_k$$

where p is the probability of the presence of a characteristic of interest. and $\text{logit}(p) = \log(p/1-p)$ In logistic Regression, the goal is to choose the parameters β in such a way that the likelihood of observing the new sample values is maximized.

In the Python code, we have imported the module ‘linear_model’ from the package ‘sklearn’ package to perform Logistic Regression by using the function ‘logistic_regression’. While performing Logistic Regression, we created an instance of the Class_Fit class and then ran the model on training data and see how the predictions are made as compared to the real values. The learning curve graph is as shown in Fig 20.

Figure 20: Logistic Regression Learning Curve



As we can see from the Fig 20, when the number of training examples increases the cross-validation and train curves almost converge towards the same limit suggesting that the model has low variance. Thus we can say that model is not suffering from overfitting. also one point to note is that the accuracy is high, which means that the model has low bias, thus suggesting that it does not under-fit the data. The precision which we got from running the Logistic Regression model on the training data is 88.78%.

8.3 K Nearest Neighbours

KNN is a non parametric algorithm which means that there are no underlying assumptions that are made on the data. Also it is a lazy learning algorithm meaning that it does not do any generalization by using the training data. All the training data is needed during the testing phase.[10]

KNN makes predictions using the training dataset directly. Predictions are made for a new instance (x) by searching through the entire training set for the K most similar instances (the neighbors) and summarizing the output variable for those K instances. For regression this might be the mean output variable, in classification this might be the mode (or most common) class value. To elaborate on this, KNN makes predictions using the training dataset directly. These predictions are made for a new sample by going through the entire training set to find k such samples which are most similar or which are the ‘neighbours’ of the new instance. Once these k instances are found out, the output variable corresponding to these is summarized and in case of Classification, it gives a class value to which the new instance belongs. The k ‘neighbours’, i.e., the most similar instances from the data set are found by using the distance measure- k such instances whose distance from the new instance is the least. There are many distance functions which can be used, the most popular being the Euclidian distance function, the formula for which is given by:

$$\text{EuclideanDistance}(x, x_i) = \sqrt{\sum((x_j - x_{ji})^2)}$$

where x is a new data point and x_i is an already existing point. The optimum value of K can be found by algorithm tuning, i.e. running the algorithm over several values of k and finding out and then figuring out for which k the algorithm gives the best results [11].

The output, i.e. the class of the new sample can be calculated as the class which has the highest frequency from the k neighbours. Thus, each of the instances votes for their own class and the class which gets the maximum votes is taken as the prediction value [11].

In Python, the ‘neighbors’ library is imported from the sklearn package which performs the KNN classification through the KNeighborsClassifier function. Once the model is run, we have drawn the learning curve graph which is as represented in the Fig 21.

8.4 Random Forest

As the name suggests, Random Forest is an ensemble classifier which consists of many classification trees. An ensemble classifier is multiple classifier algorithms, decision trees in the case of Random Forests, and the final output is the combined output of all the classifier algorithms. In our case we will be using Random Forest Algorithm for classification of the clients into different categories. A Random Forest grows many trees. For classifying a new object

Figure 21: KNN Learning Curve

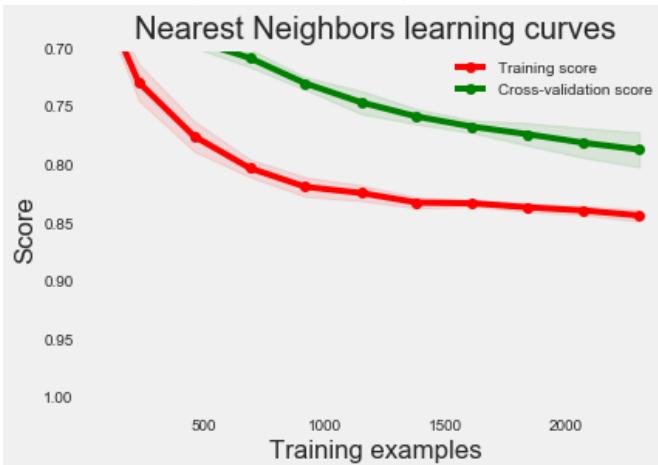
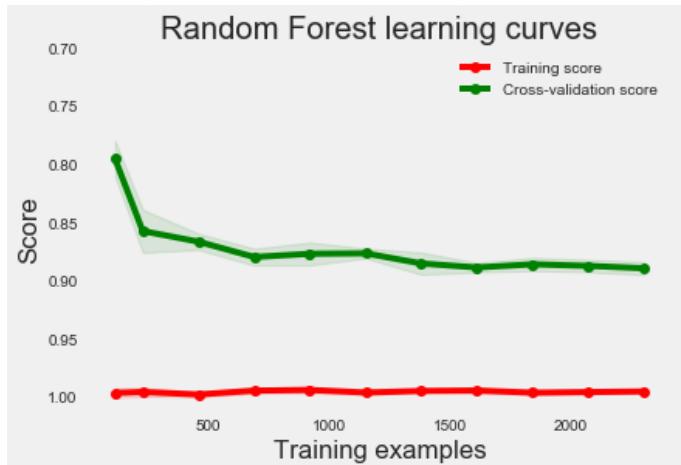


Figure 22: Random Forest Learning Curve



from an input vector, each tree in the forest gives a classification and vote for a particular class. And the forest then chooses the class having maximum number of votes over the other classes [1]. The question here that needs to be addressed is, how does the growth of a tree happen?

Each tree is grown as follows:

If the training set consists of N cases, then sample N cases with replacement from the original data. This will be the training set for growing a tree. Thereafter, a number $m \leq M$ which is the number of input variables is taken such that the best split obtained on these m is used to split the node. The value of m is constant throughout the forest growing. Each tree is allowed to grow to the fullest possible extension [1]. In Python, the ‘ensemble’ library is imported from the sklearn package which performs the Random Forest classification through the RandomForestClassifier function. The parameters given to this function are criterion, n_estimators and max_features. The criterion is used to measure the quality of the split. The Gini is for measuring the Gini impurity and Entropy is for information gain. The max_features are the number of the features that can be chosen when looking for the best split. For sqrt, the number of maximum features chosen are square root of the number of the features and for log, it is log of the number of the features. And the n_estimators is the number of trees in the forest. Once the model is run, we have drawn the learning curve graph which is as represented in the Fig 21.

8.5 Gradient Boosting Classifier

AdaBoost Classifier, short for Adaptive Classifier is another example of ensemble classifier. It is a general ensemble method which creates a strong classifier by combining the outputs of the weaker learning algorithms into a weighted sum to finally provide the output of the boosted classifier. This is done by building one model from the training set and then building a second one which attempts to rectify the errors from the first model and so on until either the limit of maximum models that can be added is reached or the training set is predicted accurately. AdaBoost is an adaptive algorithm, meaning that the weak learning algorithm can be tweaked

to create a stronger classifier.

The Adaptive Boosting algorithm was recast into a statistical framework. “Arcing is an acronym for Adaptive Reweighting and Combining. Each step in an arcing algorithm consists of a weighted minimization followed by a recomputation of [the classifiers] and [weighted input] [5]” This framework is called as Gradient Boosting.

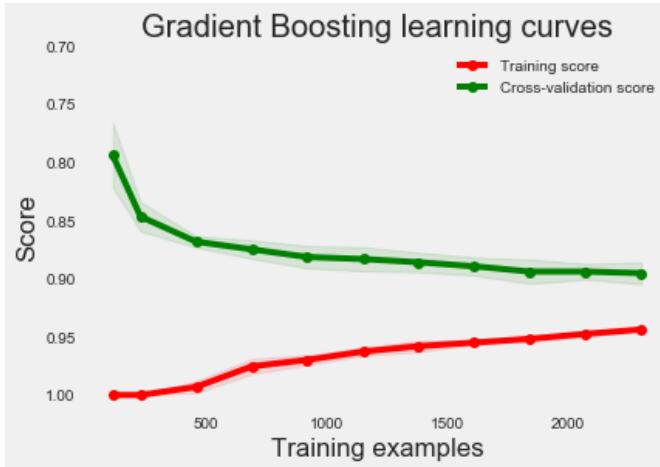
Gradient Boosting involves three elements namely:

- A loss function to be optimized The selection of the loss function depends on the problem at hand. For example if it is a regression algorithm, then squared loss functions are used and if it is a classification algorithm then logarithmic functions are used.
- A weak learner for making predictions Regression trees are used as the weak learners in the Gradient Boosting Algorithm since they can output real values for splits which can be added together and the residuals in the predictions can be corrected. These trees are constructed in a greedy manner usually up to 4-8 levels.
- An additive model to add weak learners to minimize the loss functions The trees are added one at a time with no changes to the existing trees in the model. A gradient descent model is used to reduce the loss when adding trees first by parameterizing the tree and then by modifying the parameters of the tree and moving in the right direction by reducing the loss in residuals. This approach is called Functional Gradient descent.

This framework was further developed by Friedman and called Gradient Boosting Machines. Later called just gradient boosting or gradient tree boosting.

Now that we have the results of all the models, we can combine them using VotingClassifier method that we imported from the sklearn package to improve the classification model. Since we have already found the best parameters for each of the classifiers, we have adjusted the parameters of the classifiers accordingly. So now the best parameters are taken and merged to define a classifier

Figure 23: Gradient Boosting Learning Curve



which we then trained on the data. When we created a prediction on this, we got the precision value as 90.44%.

9 TESTING THE PREDICTIONS

Until now we have done all the analysis on the data from the first 10 months. After this we test the model on the set_test dataframe which contains the data of the last two months. The regrouping of the data is done according to the same procedure that we followed while regrouping the training data. but now we have to take into consideration the time difference in between the two datasets and the count(the total number of visits the client made) and sum(total amount that he/she spent) variables so that we have an equivalence in between the training set and testing set. The dataframe so obtained is now converted to a matrix and we retained only those variables to which the clients belonged. And as the training dataset was normalized, the same method is called on the test set as well. Each row of the matrix obtained now represents the buying habits of the customers. Now all we have to do is to define the category to which the customer belongs by using these habits. The important point to note here is that this is just the test data preparation step by defining the category to which the consumer belongs for a period of two months through the variables count, min, max and sum. Thus this step *does not* correspond to the classification step itself. The classifier that we defined in the step 5 uses variables that were defined from the client's first purchase.

So now, we have the data available for two months, and through that we can define the category to which the consumer belongs. The predictions now obtained by running the classifiers on test data can be tested against these categories. The instance of the k-means clustering method that we used in Section 4 is used to define the category to which a client belongs. This contains the predict method which will calculate the distance of the consumers from the centroids of the 11 categories that we deduced and the category which is closest to the clients' buying habits will define his/her category. Thus all we need after this for the execution of the classifier is to select the variables on which it acts, i.e. on mean, cat_0, cat_1, cat_2, cat_3 and cat_4. After examining the predictions

of the different classifiers, we get precision scores as follows:

Algorithm	Precision(%)
Logistic Regression	72.99
KNN	68.44
Random Forest	75.93
Gradient boosting	75.74

And now, like we did in the Section 5, we will use the voting classifier method to merge the results obtained by these individual classifiers and see whether they combined result is better than the individual. IT turns out that it is. We get the precision rate for the combined classifier to be 76.48%. This concludes the analysis phase.

10 CONCLUSION

E-commerce is one of the emerging fields for Data Analysis since a lot of data gets generated every day at a break-neck speed in many different formats. To sustain in such a business, a very robust and extensive data analysis is needed to keep up with the ever changing markets by implementing different marketing strategies. We have tried to achieve Customer Segmentation on the basis of the purchasing patterns and frequency of client visits to their online portal. The dataset on which we performed analysis provided details on the purchases made by the consumers over a period of more than a year. Every entry in the dataset contained the purchase of a particular product on a given date by a particular customer. Of the 591909 entries made in the dataset, approximately 4000 different consumers are present. From the information available for each consumer, we decided to go ahead with Customer Segmentation analysis by developing a classifier that predicted the type of purchase a consumer would make and his/her frequency of visits to the e-commerce website.

In the first step of this classification, we found out the different products sold by the company, and then classified the products into 5 categories of goods by using K-means clustering. In the second step we performed the classification of the customers on the basis of purchasing habits in the first 10 months. The customers were classified into 11 categories on the basis of the types of products they usually bought, the number of visits they made to the website and the amount for which they shopped over a period of 10 months. Once we had the categories of the consumers, we trained several classifiers namely Logistic Regression, Random forests, KNN and Gradient Boosting algorithms to classify the consumers in these 11 categories, on the basis of their first purchase. The classifiers were based on these variables: the total price of the current purchase and the percentage of the amount spent in each of the 5 product categories. Once the customers were classified in the 11 categories, the quality of the data set was tested on the remaining two months of the dataset. This was achieved in two steps. In the first step, we assigned the category to which each customer belonged to, and then the classifier predictions were compared against these categories. And then we combined the results of the various classifiers by using the Voting Classifier method. The model performed with a 76.48% of precision, that is 76.48% of the times the clients were awarded the right classes.

The model performs with an accuracy of 75% times, which is a fairly

good number. One bias which we did not consider while doing the analysis is the seasonal fluctuations, like festive and seasonal sales. Since at these times the sales of products rises and just before and after the sale duration, the sales may drop. Thus the purchasing habits of customers are dependent on the time of the year as well. Hence the seasonal effects may cause the actual sales in the last two months to be quite different from the ones which we extrapolated to the last two months. For overcoming such biases, it would be beneficial if the data were of a larger size and covered a larger period of time.

REFERENCES

- [1] Jason Brownlee. 2016. <https://machinelearningmastery.com/k-nearest-neighbors-for-machine-learning/>. (2016). <https://machinelearningmastery.com/k-nearest-neighbors-for-machine-learning/>
- [2] Jason Brownlee. 2016. Supervised and Unsupervised Machine Learning Algorithms. (2016). <https://machinelearningmastery.com/supervised-and-unsupervised-machine-learning-algorithms/>
- [3] Justin Butlion. 2015. An Introduction to Analytics for Ecommerce Websites. (2015). <https://blog.kissmetrics.com/intro-to-ecommerce-analytics>
- [4] Prashant Gupta. 2017. Decision Trees in Machine Learning. (2017). <https://towardsdatascience.com/decision-trees-in-machine-learning-641b9c4e8052>
- [5] Antonino Ingargiola. 2015. What is the Jupyter Notebook? (2015). http://jupyter-notebook-beginner-guide.readthedocs.io/en/latest/what_is_jupyter.html
- [6] Lacie Larschann. 2017. 7 Powerful Applications of Machine Learning in E-Commerce. (2017). <https://www.granify.com/blog/powerful-applications-of-machine-learning-in-e-commerce>
- [7] EILEEN MCNULTY. 2015. WHAT IS THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN SUPERVISED AND UNSUPERVISED LEARNING? (2015). <http://dataconomy.com/2015/01/whats-the-difference-between-supervised-and-unsupervised-learning/>
- [8] Sunil Ray. 2017. Understanding Support Vector Machine algorithm from examples (along with code). (2017). <https://www.analyticsvidhya.com/blog/2017/09/understanding-support-vector-machine-example-code/>
- [9] Granner Smith. 2017. Big Data: Making It Big For E-Commerce Retailers. (2017). <http://www.digitalistmag.com/customer-experience/2017/04/28/big-data-making-it-big-for-e-commerce-retailers-05049637>
- [10] Saravanan Thirumuruganathan. 2010. A Detailed Introduction to K-Nearest Neighbor (KNN) Algorithm. (2010). <https://saravananthirumuruganathan.wordpress.com/2010/05/17/a-detailed-introduction-to-k-nearest-neighbor-knn-algorithm/>
- [11] Saravanan Thirumuruganathan. 2010. A Detailed Introduction to K-Nearest Neighbor (KNN) Algorithm. (2010). <https://saravananthirumuruganathan.wordpress.com/2010/05/17/a-detailed-introduction-to-k-nearest-neighbor-knn-algorithm/>
- [12] Tracey Wallace. 2017. Ecommerce Trends: 147 Stats Revealing How Modern Customers Shop in 2017. (2017). <https://www.bigcommerce.com/blog/ecommerce-trends/>
- [13] Wikipedia. 2017. E-commerce. (2017). <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/E-commerce>

```
bibtext report
```

```
=====
```

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
```

```
bibtext _ label error
```

```
=====
```

```
bibtext space label error
```

```
=====
```

```
bibtext comma label error
```

```
=====
```

```
latex report
```

```
[2017-12-06 04.11.55] pdflatex report.tex
This is pdfTeX, Version 3.14159265-2.6-1.40.17 (TeX Live 2016) (preloaded format=pdflatex)
Label '5.3' multiply defined.
'h' float specifier changed to 'ht'.
Missing character: ""
Missing character: ""
Missing character: ""
Missing character: ""
'h' float specifier changed to 'ht'.
Missing character: ""
```

```
Missing character: ""
There were multiply-defined labels.
Typesetting of "report.tex" completed in 2.3s.
./README.yml
31:81      error      line too long (1170 > 80 characters)  (line-length)
```

Compliance Report

```
name: Chaudhary, Mrunal L
hid: 205
paper1: Nov 05 2017 100%
paper2: Nov 6 17 100%
project: Dec 04 17 100%
```

```
yamlcheck
```

```
wordcount
```

```
(null)
wc 205 project (null) 6927 content.tex
wc 205 project (null) 6829 report.pdf
wc 205 project (null) 291 report.bib
```

```
find "
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find footnote
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find input{format/i523}
```

```
passed: False
```

```
find input{format/final}
```

```
10: \input{format/final}
```

```
passed: True
```

```
floats
```

```
117: The content of the dataset appear as shown in the figure  
    \ref{data}.
```

```
119: \begin{figure}[h]
```

```
121: \label{data}
```

```
123: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/DatasetContent.PNG}
```

```
136: \begin{figure}[h]
```

```
138: \label{country}
```

```
140: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/chloropleth.PNG}
```

```
143: The figure \ref{country} shows that maximum number of orders are  
    placed from UK.
```

```
149: \begin{figure}[h]
```

```
151: \label{2.1}
```

```
153: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/2_1.PNG}
```

```
159: \begin{figure}[h]
```

```
161: \label{2.2}
```

```
163: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/2_2.PNG}
```

```
170: \begin{figure}[h]
```

```
172: \label{2.3}
```

```
174: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/2_3.PNG}
```

```
185: \begin{figure}[h]
```

```
187: \label{2.4}
```

```
189: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/2_4.PNG}
```

```
196: \begin{figure}[h]
```

```
198: \label{2.5}
```

```
200: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/2_5.PNG}
```

```
205: \begin{figure}[h]
```

```
207: \label{2.6}
```

```
209: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/2_6.PNG}
```

```
224: We found that there are 1483 keywords present in the description  
    variable of the dataset. The most common keywords can be  
    determined based on the occurrences. The figure \ref{3.1} shows  
    the top word occurrences.
```

```
226: \begin{figure}[h]
```

```
228: \label{3.1}
```

```
230: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/3_1.PNG}
```

```
250: The figure \ref{3.2} show silhouette score for different values  
    of k. These scores don't have significant difference, but since
```

for k value greater than 5 resulting in clusters with very few elements, we have taken k as 5.

252: \begin{figure}[h]
 254: \label{3.2}
 256: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/3_2.PNG}
 263: From the silhouette plot we can see that cluster 1 has more number of elements than the other clusters. But overall distribution of elements in the clusters is comparative. Same can be seen from the figure \ref{3.4}.
 265: \begin{figure}[h]
 267: \label{3.3}
 269: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/3_3.PNG}
 272: \begin{figure}[h]
 274: \label{3.4}
 276: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/3_4.PNG}
 283: \begin{figure}[h]
 285: \label{3.5}
 287: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/3_5.PNG}
 290: Another application of PCA is that it sets the indication of cluster membership. Biplot is the best example that can be provided here to support this idea. Using biplot, we get the indication of number of clusters in a dataset. Below figure \ref{3.6} shows these on limited number of components(since it is only for visualizing cluster distribution). We can observe the groupings of points or clusters as expected.\\"
 292: \begin{figure}[h]
 294: \label{3.6}
 296: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/3_6.PNG}
 304: \begin{figure}[h]
 306: \label{4.1}
 308: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/4_1.PNG}
 319: \begin{figure}[h]
 321: \label{4.2}
 323: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/4_2.PNG}
 331: Using the silhouette score, the optimum value of k comes out to be 11. The assignment of customers into different clusters is shown in figure \ref{4.3}
 333: \begin{figure}[h]
 335: \label{4.3}
 337: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/4_3.PNG}
 347: \begin{figure}[h]
 349: \label{4.4}
 351: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/4_4.PNG}
 358: \begin{figure}[h]
 360: \label{4.5}
 362: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/4_5.PNG}

```
384: \begin{figure}[h]
386: \label{5.1}
388: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/5_1.png}
404: \begin{figure}[h]
406: \label{5.2}
408: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/5_2.png}
418: \begin{figure}[h]
420: \label{5.3}
422: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/5_3.png}
442: \begin{figure}[h]
444: \label{5.3}
446: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/5_4.png}
```

figures 23

tables 0

includegraphics 23

labels 23

refs 7

floats 23

True : ref check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)

True : label check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)

True : include graphics passed: (figures >= includegraphics)

False : check if all figures are refered to: (refs >= labels)

Label/ref check

passed: True

When using figures use columnwidth

[width=1.0\columnwidth]

do not change the number to a smaller fraction

find textwidth

```
123: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/DatasetContent.PNG}
```

```
140: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/chloropleth.PNG}
```

```
153: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/2_1.PNG}
```

```
163: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/2_2.PNG}
```

```
174: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/2_3.PNG}
```

```
189: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/2_4.PNG}
200: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/2_5.PNG}
209: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/2_6.PNG}
230: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/3_1.PNG}
256: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/3_2.PNG}
269: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/3_3.PNG}
276: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/3_4.PNG}
287: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/3_5.PNG}
296: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/3_6.PNG}
308: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/4_1.PNG}
323: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/4_2.PNG}
337: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/4_3.PNG}
351: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/4_4.PNG}
362: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/4_5.PNG}
388: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/5_1.png}
408: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/5_2.png}
422: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/5_3.png}
446: \includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{images/5_4.png}

passed: False

below_check
```

WARNING: figure and below may be used improperly

```
290: Another application of PCA is that it sets the indication of
cluster membership.Biplot is the best example that can be
```

provided here to support this idea. Using biplot, we get the indication of number of clusters in a dataset. Below figure \ref{3.6} shows these on limited number of components(since it is only for visualizing cluster distribution). We can observe the groupings of points or clusters as expected.\\"

WARNING: algorithm and below may be used improperly

372: In the previous section, we have made different client categories. In this part we will adjust a classifier so that the consumers can be classified in different client categories. The main aim of this is to enable the Classification on the first visit of the customer. To do this, we have defined a class that will allow interfacing the common functionalities to the different classifiers. Since we are going to classify the client on the basis of his/her first visit, the only parameters that we take into consideration are the contents of the basket and not the frequency of visits or the variation in the basket price over a period of time. Once this is done, we have split the dataset into train and test sets. The classification algorithms which we used to do this are mentioned below.

bibtex

label errors

bibtex errors

This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib

bibtex_empty_fields

entries in general should not be empty in bibtex

find ""

```
passed: True
```

```
ascii
```

```
non ascii found 8220  
non ascii found 8221
```

```
=====  
The following tests are optional  
=====
```

```
Tip: newlines can often be replaced just by an empty line
```

```
find newline
```

```
passed: True  
cites should have a space before \cite{} but not before the {
```

```
find cite {
```

```
passed: True
```

Big Data in Safe Driver Prediction

Jiaan Wang

Indiana University Bloomington
3209 E 10 St
Bloomington, IN 47408
jervwang@indiana.edu

Dhawal Chaturvedi

Indiana University Bloomington
2679 E 7th St
Bloomington, Indiana 47408
dhchat@iu.edu

ABSTRACT

For years, people have been trying to reduce their automobile insurance bills. Insurance companies claim that price will be reduced for good drivers and raised for bad ones. However, inaccuracies in their data predictions lead to the exact opposite. The dataset being used is released by Porto Seguro, an auto and homeowner insurance company from Brazil. It consists of information from several hundred thousands of policyholders. The goal is to predict the probability an auto insurance policyholder files a claim the next year using classification algorithms. A good prediction with decent accuracy can correctly adjust prices for policyholders.

KEYWORDS

i523, HID233, HID204, Big data, Classification, Safe Driving, Predictive Analytics, Neural Networks

1 INTRODUCTION

Everyday, people die from car accidents and it should come as no surprise that automobile accidents are one of the most common causes of death in the United States [8]. As reported by the CDC, Centers for Disease Control, approximately over 40,000 people lose their lives to fatal automobile accidents each year. It should be clear that we need to enhance road safety for drivers all over the states [5]. However, as we are currently in the age of big data, these automobile accidents could be prevented by using modern technologies and methods such as artificial intelligence and predictive analytics.

Big data describes large quantities of data that are impossible to analyze using traditional data analysis methods. It includes structured and unstructured data. Structured data can be SQL database stores and unstructured data can be videos, images, social media feeds, etc. In industries, data analytics is often performed on big data in order to find specific patterns or anomalies that could prove useful for business decisions and choices. The amount of data is usually irrelevant in these cases. For example, smart cars utilize big data to improve their safety features and systems. They collect data such as driving patterns and routes as they travel from point A to B. This information is then sent to the computers onboard and gets transferred to the company servers where the data undergo analysis. The result is then collected and stored to enhance smart-car systems [10].

Big data is also helpful in providing insights for product development. It can find the causes for issues and problems in products through data analytics, which can then be used to improve the design. For example, the driver assistance feature on a Mercedes-Benz car not only has safety features but also collects data on driving habits. If large amount of drivers speed through intersections or

break hard during traffic hours, the company can obtain these information and use them properly to enhance their systems for better road safety. They could add a detector with GPS data to spot intersections or traffic jams. Furthermore, another data that are useful to collect are driving routes. Google Street View utilizes big data from driving routes to update their maps and display views of different places [10].

Aside from smart cars, we also need to master data collection in order to know how automobile accidents happen. For example, the technology behind the famous black box, which tracks planes and cockpit communications to determine the reason behind crashes, is getting used in cars as well. It is not expensive nor complicated to apply this technology onto the majority of vehicles out there. By recording the precise time, locations, speed and other variables, this technology can definitely help us collect valuable data and information in car accidents. The result from data analysis can also assist us in a deep understanding of causes behind automobile collisions in order to save more lives by preventing future accidents. The first country who thought to implement this technology on cars was South Korea. As a result, in the following year, a 14 percent decrease was saw in the number of car accidents along with a 20 percent decrease in the number of injuries and deaths of fatal automobile accidents [5].

Predictive analytics is a powerful method in big data analytics to help predict future events or outcomes based on current and historical data. It usually utilizes big data techniques such as data mining, predictive modeling and statistics. It uses a wide range of predictive models which depends on the type of event we are predicting. For example, most predictive models produce a number called a score where a higher score indicates a higher chance of that outcome happening in the future. It is a very useful tool for making business decisions and assessing potential risks in many industries such as insurance, retail, etc. Predictive analytics does not inform users about things that has happened before today. It tries to predict for a particular driver the probability that he or she may be involved in an car accident in the near future or any other chose time as accurately as possible [8].

For example, in order to find high-risk drivers, it is not enough to just have driving records, automobile incident reports or traffic tickets. We also need something called telematics. Telematics is defined as the combination of telecommunications and informatics. It collects, stores, sends and receives data and information via transmission-enabled devices. For example, the use of the car black box technology mentioned previously to collect and obtain information on driving behaviors or patterns is called vehicle telematics. With telematics data, companies can determine the possibility of a driver in a future car accident along with the expenses coupled with it. They can also take actions such as putting high-risk drivers

into training schools to correct their bad driving behaviors before an incident happens [8].

By studying the telematics data from a specific driver, we can learn his or her driving behaviors and create a report that details the potential danger this driver may inflict and use these data to correct those bad driving habits. The probability of a driver being involved in a car accident in the future can be used to categorize drivers into different groups. With these probabilities, companies can create a safety score to provide them with suggestions on which drivers to deal with first. The fundamental role for a safety score is to identify drivers with high risks before an accident happen to give the driver a chance to correct those bad driving habits and prevent incidents from happening [8].

However, just like other countless programs on risk evaluation, predictive analytics is not supposed to be flawless. In companies such as UPS, FedEx, USPS or any other services that use a large amount of drivers and vehicles called fleet vehicles, predictive analytics is just the first process and it requires the total cooperation and commitment from the company, drivers and fleet staff to achieve the highest efficiency. Companies that have numerous successful fleet operations are those who plan ahead and bring together all fleet personnel into the action. The most effective way to adjust the accuracy and precision of predictive models is to test the models every few days or few weeks or any other time that is suitable for the operations. Due to the fact that most operations have tight schedules, this leeway time will give companies enough room to call in safety personnel to step in to either train drivers to correct their driving habits or repair fleet vehicles beforehand to avoid major system failures [8].

Predictive analytics and telematics data are being used in almost all fleet companies as more of them start to see the value in predictive analytics. With the help of predictive analytics, fleet companies can be actively engaged in making better decisions about their fleets and companies by improving road safety, reducing expenses and risks or decreasing work load time [8].

2 BIG DATA IN AUTO INSURANCE

For a long time, auto insurance companies have calculated insurance rates based on personal mileage through out the years [4]. Traditional auto insurance companies categorize users by demographics such as gender and other factors such as education. They then make predictions based on past statistics about their chances of getting involved in future car accidents. This means that the monthly payments insurance companies charge you are only calculated according to the information they have on you and these information has nothing to do with your driving behaviours. As a result, the premiums you pay every month is usually based on past data from people who have identical demographics as you. While a few of the factors are actually helpful in determining your risk score - for example, if you have had multiple accidents in the past, you are likely to be involved in a new one in the future - other factors such as how many cars you previously owned have little to do with your actual risk of being in an accident but yet they still matter when calculating the price. And no one ever use the most important factor in determining monthly premiums which is driving behaviors [6].

Major auto insurance companies have connection to large amount of information as well as data processing power in order to calculate risk scores and monthly premiums. It is no easy task for them to combine several different factors into one single price. Still, big data is not fully utilized. Even though these companies use a variety of different models to calculate monthly rates for drivers, not all of their methods are optimized. In a study conducted earlier this year, it was found, with the help of data mining, that there exists predictive models that have higher accuracy in categorizing drivers into high and low risk groups. Among those models was one that combined 16 factors which produced an extremely high accuracy in risk assessment [6].

However, powered with advanced technology and big data analytics, insurance companies now-days have access to customers' driving behaviours for more personalized insurance rates. They collect specific data on how often you drive every day, how long you drive each time, how often you speed, how often you break hard and so on to determine the probability of you being in an accident in the near future. With these precise data on each individual customer, insurance companies can assess risk scores for everyone and use that information to calculate your monthly rates [4]. For example, an auto insurance company called Root is one of the first mobile auto insurance companies that are intended to help you on the go. They promise to only insure the good drivers to make sure they get the best rates. Their methods are simple. Download the app, take a test drive with the app on-board for several weeks and Root will send a personalized premium plan based on your driving behavior. Then you can just select the plan you want to purchase and buy via your phone [6].

These new and innovative mobile auto insurance plans are called UBI, short for Usage-Based Insurance and they calculate monthly premiums mostly based on driving habits. Applications on smart-phones and on-board diagnostic devices along with in-car tracking technology from manufacturer are used to record mileage and driving behaviours. These mobile insurance programs tend to give discounts for good drivers as a reward for their good driving behaviors. They are even adding new rewards such as roadside assistance on top of discounts for drivers who have maintained good driving behaviors for long periods of time. By collecting big data on driving habits, auto insurance companies can promptly discover mistakes when accidents happen by knowing the exact positions of each car and driving habits data such as speeding or braking as well as environmental data such as weather or road conditions [7].

On the surface, these Usage-Based Insurance plans appear to be plausible and feasible. An application or a sensor is installed on your phone or car to track your driving behavior instead of estimating costs based on factors such as age, gender, education, traffic records, accident reports and so on. Several programs such as *Drivewise* from Allstate insurance and *Snapshot* from Progressive insurance have been released to the public for a couple of years in some states, completely based on customers' choices. You do not have to install them if you do not want to. However, the majority of drivers have been embracing these monitoring devices since it has no apparent downside. As long as your driving behaviors are considered to be safe, such as slow braking and accelerating or no driving around midnight, your should receive discounts like 5 to 10 percent or even up to 20 percent on your monthly premiums. On the other hand,

customers are starting to worry about their privacy but we still do not know what the worst thing that might happen if we keep letting insurance companies monitor our driving behavior. According to the Wall Street Journal, these Usage-Based Insurance plans are growing exponentially. The biggest auto insurance company in United States, State Farm, announced their plans to expand their *Drive Safe and Save* program to the entire country soon. Their major advertising strategy is that by enrolling in the program, consumers can get discounts in their insurance premium by proving that they drive safely [9].

For example, one of the earliest Usage-Based Insurance programs available to the public was released about 10 years ago by Progressive and General Motors. This particular program, with the help of GPS, applied discounts based on customer mileage. Many of the Usage-Based Insurance programs these days still implement this strategy but many improvements have been made. Insurance companies nowadays know everything about the way you drive from where you drive to when you drive as well as how you drive. There are also a variety of options to choose from such as *pay as you drive* and *pay how you drive*, thanks to telematics. The advantage of having telematics in these insurance programs is to improve efficiency such as reducing response time for accidents. In addition, Usage-Based Insurance data can be analyzed using on-board diagnostic devices which are often plugged in via the on-board diagnostic 2 port on cars. These diagnostic devices do not have the ability to track car positions but they do generate more precise and meticulous data about car usage. Although telematics is the typical way to record driving habits, new creations in the future will possibly use smart-phone's location services or GPS abilities to track bad driving behaviors such as speeding and hard braking. Liberty Mutual and State Farm both tested their new tracking technology via smart-phones or other smart devices on-board cars in 2015. By 2020, the majority of auto insurance companies will be using Usage-based Insurance programs coupled with telematics data. It is no doubt that Usage-Based Insurance programs will continue to grow and achieve even higher precision and availability [3].

3 CURRENT APPLICATIONS

Predictive analytics are being utilized with telematics data to enhance and improve road safety. Telematics have been used for a long time in insurance industry to monitor driving behaviors such as speeding to identify high-risk drivers. Now coupled with predictive analytics, these data are being analyzed to predict the likelihood of a driver being involved in future accidents. SmartDrive Systems, a transportation safety and intelligence company, employs even more interesting ways to predict accidents. They record and gather video feeds from dashboard cameras in cars which are then integrated with telematics data. This way, they can improve their predictive analytics on driver safety and eventually leads to better predictions [1].

SmartDrive Systems uses a private cloud to provide their clients with predictive analytics solutions. All the data from their clients are collected by the company and stored on their cloud. The data includes telematics and video feeds from millions of clients with more than 4 billion mileage. SmartDrive constantly improves their predictive models because the agreements SmartDrive has with

their clients permit them to study all the data they gather. The usage of both telematics data and video feeds is a great idea which enables SmartDrive researchers to better understand the data and interpret the results. By combining what they see through the video feeds and the results from telematics data analysis, the researchers can draw conclusions such as making a U-turn on a narrow road within some fixed radius is dangerous [1].

Indiana State Police came up with a different way to predict incidents and are making their predictive analytics methods open source. In their approach, they produced something called *Daily Crash Prediction Map* which finally completed in November. It contained data such as accident reports from all the police departments in Indiana going back to 2004 as well as data on daily weather, historical traffic amount and so on. This map highlights where potential accidents may happen categorized by their probabilities. It also features information about past accidents such as locations, dates, causes, fatalities and so on [2].

Liberty Mutual is the nation's third largest property and casualty insurance company. Last year, Liberty Mutual partnered up with Subaru. In doing so, customers was granted access to *Starlink*, Subaru's multimedia and navigation system, which can track and notify drivers via an app if they are speeding or braking too hard. By enrolling in the *RightTrack* program provided by Liberty Mutual, drivers can get up to 30 percent discounts for good driving behaviors [4].

4 DATA ANALYSIS

The data we are gonna use for our analysis is of Porto Seguro. It is one of Brazil's largest auto and homeowner insurance companies. Inaccuracies in car insurance company's claim predictions raise the cost of insurance for good drivers and reduce the price for bad ones. The task is to build a model that predicts the probability that a driver will initiate an auto insurance claim in the next year or not. An accurate prediction will allow them to further tailor their prices, and hopefully make auto insurance coverage more accessible to more drivers.

4.1 Approach

We will be mainly discussing about the Exploratory data Analysis we have performed on the data until now. We will be using the help of both R and python environment and supporting packages to perform the necessary statistical analysis. Along with this, we will discuss about the Machine or Deep Learning algorithms / models that we will be using to achieve the near solution for the problem.

4.2 Feature Information

Dimensions of the data [Rows x Features] : [595212, 59]

The dataset constitutes different varieties of features.

Binomial Features [Count : 17] : ps.ind_06_bin, ps.ind_07.bin, ps.ind_08.bin, ps.ind_09.bin, ps.ind_10.bin, ps.ind_11.bin, ps.ind_12.bin, ps.ind_13.bin, ps.ind_16.bin, ps.ind_17.bin, ps.ind_18.bin, ps.calc_15.bin, ps.calc_16.bin, ps.calc_17.bin, ps.calc_18.bin, ps.calc_19.bin, ps.calc_20.bin.

Categorical Features [Count : 14] : ps_ind_02_cat, ps_ind_04_cat, ps_ind_05_cat, ps_ind_01_cat, ps_ind_02_cat, ps_ind_03_cat, ps_ind_04_cat, ps_ind_05_cat, ps_ind_07_cat, ps_ind_06_cat, ps_ind_08_cat, ps_ind_09_cat, ps_ind_10_cat, ps_ind_11_cat.

Integer Features [Count : 16] : ps_ind_01, ps_ind_03, ps_ind_14, ps_ind_15, ps_ind_11, ps_calc_04, ps_calc_05, ps_calc_06, ps_calc_07, ps_calc_08, ps_calc_09, ps_calc_10, ps_calc_11, ps_calc_12, ps_calc_13, ps_calc_14.

Floating Features [Count :10] : ps_reg_01, ps_reg_02, ps_reg_03, ps_calc_01, ps_calc_02, ps_calc_03, ps_car_12, ps_car_13, ps_car_14, ps_car_15.

The remaining two features constitutes **id** and the **output (or) target**.

All the features has been clearly represented using post script, **.cat** for categorical data, **.bin** for binomial data.

The **missing values** in the features are represented by -1.

4.3 Data Preprocessing

As shown in 1, missing values are found in 14 of the 58 columns. There are 6 features with more than 5000 missing row values. Owing to the sheer size of the unavailable data, we have not performed any missing value treatment and removed these features from consideration. Of the remaining data, across rows, data is unavailable in atmost 500 (<1%) rows and these are promptly removed.

[Figure 1 about here.]

4.4 Distribution of the target variable

As shown in 2, target variable claims is a binary variable with a skewed distribution of classes. 96% of the customers didn't make any claims. We wish to consider this distribution in measuring classification accuracy. Area under the ROC curve, recall and precision would be relevant metrics in this case.

[Figure 2 about here.]

4.5 Numerical Predictors (vs) Target Variable

Average value of most of the numerical predictors is higher when the claims are filed. This is a unique phenomenon and we intend to use this contrast in predicting the target variable.

4.6 Artificial Neural Networks

Artificial neural networks (ANNs) are computing models which are based on biological neural networks that constitute human brains. The idea of ANNs is based on the belief that working of human brain can be imitated for computers by using silicon and wires as living neurons. Such systems learn by progressively improving their performance to do tasks by considering examples, generally without task-specific programming. The human brain can be considered as a complex network of nerve cells called neurons(about 86 billion). They are inter-connected to other millions of cells by Axons. These neurons then react to stimulation from external environment or

inputs from other organs. A neuron can then send the message to other neuron to handle the issue or does not send it forward. ANNs also try to imitate biological neurons of human brain. The neurons are connected by links and they interact with each other. The nodes can take input data and perform simple operations on the data. The result of these operations is passed to other neurons. The output at each node is called its activation. Each node is assigned with weight. ANNs are capable of learning, which takes place by altering weight values. If the network generates the desired output, there is no need to adjust the weights. However, if the network generates an undesired output or an error, then the system alters the weights in order to improve subsequent results.

4.7 Types of ANNs

4.7.1 Feedback ANN. In these type of ANN, the output goes back into the network to achieve the best-evolved results internally. The feedback network feeds information back into itself and is well suited to solve optimization problems. Feedback ANNs are used by the Internal system error corrections.

4.7.2 Feed Forward ANN. A feed-forward network is a simple neural network consisting of an input layer, an output layer and one or more layers of neurons. Through evaluation of its output by reviewing its input, the power of the network can be noticed base on group behavior of the connected neurons and the output is decided. The main advantage of this network is that it learns to evaluate and recognize input patterns.

4.7.3 Radial Basis Function Neural Network. The RBF neural network is the first choice when interpolating in a multidimensional space. The RBF neural network is a highly intuitive neural network. Each neuron in the RBF neural network stores an example from the training set as a prototype. Linearity involved in the functioning of this neural network offers RBF the advantage of not suffering from local minima.

4.7.4 Kohonen Self-Organising Neural Network. Invented by Teuvo Kohonen, the self-organizing neural network is ideal for the visualization of low-dimensional views of high-dimensional data. The self-organizing neural network is different from other neural networks and applies competitive learning to a set of input data, as opposed to error-correction learning applied by other neural networks. The Kohonen self-organizing neural network is known for performing functions on unlabeled data to describe hidden structures in it.

4.7.5 Recurrent Neural Network. The recurrent neural network, unlike the feed forward neural network, is a neural network that allows for a bi-directional flow of data. The network between the connected units forms a directed cycle. Such a network allows for dynamic temporal behavior to be exhibited. The recurrent neural network is capable of using its internal memory to process arbitrary sequence of inputs. This neural network is a popular choice for tasks such as handwriting and speech recognition.

4.7.6 Classification-Prediction ANN. It is the subset of feed-forward ANN and the classification-prediction ANN is applied to data-mining scenarios. The network is trained to identify particular

patterns and classify them into specific groups and then further classify them into novel patterns which are new to the network.

4.7.7 Physical Neural Network. This neural network aims to emphasize the reliance on physical hardware as opposed to software alone when simulating a neural network. An electrically adjustable resistance material is used for emulating the function of a neural synapse. While the physical hardware emulates the neurons, the software emulates the neural network.

4.8 Data Analysis Using Neural Networks

Rather than beginning our inquiry into the dataset with more traditional methods like regression we straight away tried to learn Artificial Neural Networks. Logistic regression itself, can be thought of as a special case of a neural network with a single neuron (perceptron).

After studying and learning the theory behind ANNs we proceeded to learn how to implement them – by ourselves at first, and later using TensorFlow. So far we have tried quite a bit of different models and learnt some lessons about the data.

- **Data Cleaning :** As pointed out by the EDA above, there were a few columns which had a lot of missing data. For columns which had > 1000 values missing (6 columns), we disregarded them altogether. For the remaining data points, we disregarded the rows which had any one particular value missing. We started with a simple data cleaning strategy so as to not complicate it too much at the initial stages, but we will probably want to look at it again as we go along.
- The first thing that we tried is using a simple **perceptron**. The input layer had 51 nodes (after removing the id, target and 6 other columns in data cleaning) and the output layer had a single perceptron with a sigmoid activation function. The best score that we got when we uploaded our code to kaggle was 0.03 whereas the leaderboard is hovering around 0.290 so this is not too impressive.
- However, now we added more hidden layers and nodes to see if we get a better job of fitting the data. To start off, we only consider the continuous variables so that we don't have to worry about handling binary/categorical data. We have 24 nodes in the input layer. The final layer has one node since it is a classification problem. We kept all activations to be logistic and experimented a bit with the number of hidden layers and nodes to get a best score of **0.211** with this simple approach.
- **Issued Encountered** Looking at the results from the neural network there is one major issue. Whenever we add too many hidden layers (> 3) the outputs for the test data are all ≈ 0 and the score drops. After some trial and error, we have diagnosed the issue to be the biased nature of the training data (96% of the training data are 0's). So the ANN sees too many zeros and consequently predicts mostly zeros. We aim to explore different sampling methods to train the neural network to improve the results further (along with cross validation which we haven't implemented).

5 OTHER TECHNIQUES THAT CAN BE USED

Among the machine Learning algorithms that are used in practice, gradient tree boosting is one technique that shines in many applications. Tree Boosting has been shown to give many state of the art results for many standard classification problem.

The most important factor for the success of XGBoost is its ability to scale in all the scenarios. The XGBoost algorithm runs ten times faster than the existing popular solutions on a single solution and scales to billions of examples in distributed or memory-limited settings.

The Porto Seguro data-set is clearly a classification problem, the data will be having only two outputs either the car insurance holder is going to claim or not.

While domain dependent analysis and feature engineering plays an important role in defining or modeling the solutions, the fact that XG Boost is the consensus choice for learners shows the impact and importance of our system in tree boosting. One problem with the Porto Seguro dataset we don't have much information about the Features and all the features must have to undergo through strict statistical treatment to build an optimal solution.

6 CONCLUSION

Reducing insurance rates has always been a difficult task in the past. However, armed with advanced technology, insurance companies now have the ability to track personal driving behaviours to provide better suited personalized insurance plans. We performed Neural Networks algorithm on clients data from Porto Seguro, one of Brazil's largest auto insurance companies in order to predict the probability of drivers filing claims in the next year. Our analysis proved to be a success and our model yielded a high accuracy. In the future, we can use other machine learning algorithm or classification techniques to compare the accuracy of different models.

7 APPENDIX

7.1 Links to iPython notebook:

https://github.com/bigdata-i523/hid233/blob/master/project/Shallow_Neural_Nets.ipynb

7.2 Links to iPython notebook pdf version:

https://github.com/bigdata-i523/hid233/blob/master/project/Shallow_Neural_Nets.pdf

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors would like to thank Dr. Gregor von Laszewski for his support and suggestions to write this paper.

REFERENCES

- [1] Steve Banker. 2016. Using Big Data And Predictive Analytics To Predict Which Truck Drivers Will Have An Accident. Web Page. (Oct. 2016). <https://www.forbes.com/sites/stevebanker/2016/10/18/using-big-data-and-predictive-analytics-to-predict-which-truck-drivers-will-have-an-accident/#7fd6888b1cb0> HID: 233, Accessed: 2017-11-28.
- [2] Jenni Bergal. 2017. Troopers Use Big Data To Predict Crash Sites. Web Page. (Feb. 2017). https://www.huffingtonpost.com/entry/troopers-use-big-data-to-predict-crash-sites_us_589c88ebe4b0985224db5e19 HID: 233, Accessed: 2017-11-28.

- [3] Crosley Law Firm. 2016. Benefits and Concerns About Usage-Based Insurance. Web Page. (Nov. 2016). <https://crosleylaw.com/blog/big-data-behind-bad-driving-insurers-use/> HID: 233, Accessed: 2017-11-28.
- [4] Brian Fung. 2016. The big data of bad driving, and how insurers plan to track your every turn. Web Page. (Jan. 2016). <https://www.washingtonpost.com/news/the-switch/wp/2016/01/04/the-big-data-of-bad-driving-and-how-insurers-plan-to-track-your-every-turn/> HID: 233, Accessed: 2017-11-28.
- [5] Mikkie Mills. 2017. 4 Ways How Big Data Will Improve Road Safety. Web Page. (May 2017). <https://datafloq.com/read/4-ways-big-data-will-improve-road-safety/3127> HID: 233, Accessed: 2017-11-28.
- [6] Cristol Rippe. 2017. Big Data, Better Rates: Why Current Car Insurance Rate Calculations are Unfair. Web Page. (Jan. 2017). <https://blog.joinroot.com/big-data-better-rates-why-current-car-insurance-rate-calculations-are-unfair/> HID: 233, Accessed: 2017-11-28.
- [7] Jonathan Shafer. 2016. How Big Data Analytics is Changing the Competitive Auto Industry. Web Page. (Aug. 2016). <https://pentaho.com/blog/2016/08/26/how-big-data-analytics-changing-competitive-auto-industry> HID: 233, Accessed: 2017-11-28.
- [8] Grace Suizo. 2015. Using Predictive Analytics to Improve Fleet Decisions. Web Page. (Sept. 2015). <http://www.automotive-fleet.com/channel/gps-telematics/article/story/2015/10/using-predictive-analytics.aspx> HID: 233, Accessed: 2017-11-28.
- [9] Brad Tuttle. 2013. Big Data Is My Copilot: Auto Insurers Push Devices That Track Driving Habits. Web Page. (Aug. 2013). <http://business.time.com/2013/08/06/big-data-is-my-copilot-auto-insurers-push-devices-that-track-driving-habits/> HID: 233, Accessed: 2017-11-28.
- [10] David Walker. 2017. How Will Big Data From Self-Driving Cars Influence Road Safety. Web Page. (July 2017). <https://technofaq.org/posts/2017/07/how-will-big-data-from-self-driving-cars-influence-road-safety/> HID: 233, Accessed: 2017-11-28.

LIST OF FIGURES

1	Missing Data	8
2	Target Variable Distribution	9

Features	Missing Values Count
ps_ind_02_cat	216
ps_ind_04_cat	83
ps_ind_05_cat	5809
ps_reg_03	107772
ps_car_01_cat	107
ps_car_02_cat	5
ps_car_03_cat	411231
ps_car_05_cat	266551
ps_car_07_cat	11489
ps_car_09_cat	569
ps_car_11	5
ps_car_12	1
ps_car_14	42620

Figure 1: Missing Data

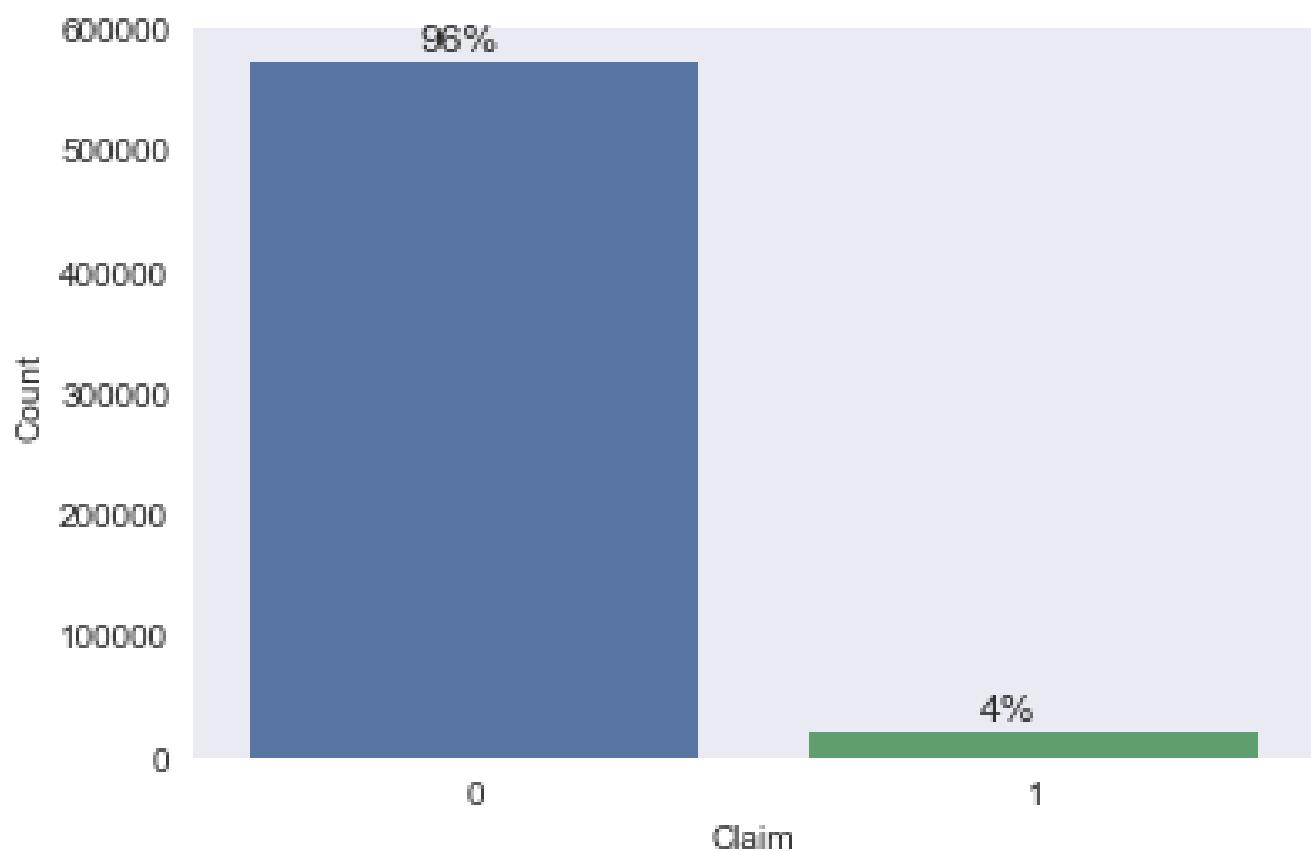


Figure 2: Target Variable Distribution

bibtex report

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
```

bibtext _ label error

bibtext space label error

bibtext comma label error

latex report

```
36:66      error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
37:70      error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
38:69      error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
72:69      error    no new line character at the end of file  (new-line-at-end-of-file)
```

Compliance Report

```
name: Wang, Jiaan
hid: 233
paper1: Nov 03 17 100%
paper2: Nov 10 17 100%
project: 10%
```

```
yamlcheck
```

```
wordcount
```

```
9
wc 233 project 9 4853 content.tex
wc 233 project 9 5033 report.pdf
wc 233 project 9 564 report.bib
```

```
find "
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find footnote
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find input{format/i523}
```

```
4: \input{format/i523}
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find input{format/final}
-----
passed: False

floats
-----
112: As shown in \ref{f:missing}, missing values are found in 14 of
the 58 columns. There are 6 features with more than 5000 missing
row values. Owing to the sheer size of the unavailable data, we
have not performed any missing value treatment and removed these
features from consideration. Of the remaining data, across rows,
data is unavailable in atmost 500 ( $\leq 1\%$ ) rows and these are
promptly removed.
114: \begin{figure}[!ht]
115: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/missingdata
.PNG}
116: \caption{Missing Data}\label{f:missing}
120: As shown in \ref{f:numerical}, target variable claims is a binary
variable with a skewed distribution of classes. 96\% of the
customers didn't make any claims. We wish to consider this
distribution in measuring classification accuracy. Area under the
ROC curve, recall and precision would be relevant metrics in this
case.
122: \begin{figure}[!ht]
123: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/target.png}
124: \caption{Target Variable Distribution}\label{f:numerical}
```

```
figures 2
tables 0
includegraphics 2
labels 2
refs 2
floats 2
```

```
True : ref check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
True : label check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
True : include graphics passed: (figures >= includegraphics)
True : check if all figures are referred to: (refs >= labels)
```

```
Label/ref check
passed: True
```

```
When using figures use columnwidth
[width=1.0\columnwidth]
```

do not change the number to a smaller fraction

find textwidth

passed: True

below_check

bibtex

label errors

bibtex errors

This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib

bibtex_empty_fields

entries in general should not be empty in bibtex

find ""

passed: True

ascii

non ascii found 8220
non ascii found 8221
non ascii found 8220
non ascii found 8221

```
=====
The following tests are optional
=====
```

Tip: newlines can often be replaced just by an empty line

find newline

98: \\ \newline The dataset constitutes different varieties of features.

99: \\ \newline \textbf{Binomial Features} [Count : 17] :
ps_ind_06_bin, ps_ind_07_bin, ps_ind_08_bin,
ps_ind_09_bin, ps_ind_10_bin, ps_ind_11_bin,
ps_ind_12_bin, ps_ind_13_bin, ps_ind_16_bin,
ps_ind_17_bin, ps_ind_18_bin, ps_calc_15_bin,
ps_calc_16_bin, ps_calc_17_bin, ps_calc_18_bin,
ps_calc_19_bin, ps_calc_20_bin.

101: \\ \newline \textbf{Categorical Features} [Count : 14] :
ps_ind_02_cat, ps_ind_04_cat, ps_ind_05_cat,
ps_ind_01_cat, ps_ind_02_cat, ps_ind_03_cat,
ps_ind_04_cat, ps_ind_05_cat, ps_ind_07_cat,
ps_ind_06_cat, ps_ind_08_cat, ps_ind_09_cat,
ps_ind_10_cat, ps_ind_11_cat.

103: \\ \newline \textbf{Integer Features} [Count : 16] : ps_ind_01,
ps_ind_03, ps_ind_14, ps_ind_15, ps_ind_11, ps_calc_04,
ps_calc_05, ps_calc_06, ps_calc_07, ps_calc_08,
ps_calc_09, ps_calc_10, ps_calc_11, ps_calc_12,
ps_calc_13, ps_calc_14.

105: \\ \newline \textbf{Floating Features} [Count : 10] : ps_reg_01,
ps_reg_02, ps_reg_03, ps_calc_01, ps_calc_02,
ps_calc_03, ps_car_12, ps_car_13, ps_car_14, ps_car_15.

106: \\ \newline The remaining two features constitutes \textbf{id}
and the \textbf{output} (or) target}.

107: \\ \newline All the features has been clearly represented using
post script, \textbf{_cat} for categorical data, \textbf{_bin}
for binomial data.

108: \\ \newline The \textbf{missing values} in the features are
represented by -1.

```
passed: False
cites should have a space before \cite{} but not before the {
```

```
find cite {
```

```
-----
```

```
passed: True
```

Big Data Analytics and Applications in the Travel Industry and its Potential in Improving Travel Accessibility

Weixuan Wang

Indiana University Bloomington

Bloomington, Indiana 47405

wangweix@indiana.edu

ABSTRACT

Big data applications and analytics have been influencing and improving tourists' experience. Travel accessibility refers to provide access for people with disabilities or limited mobility (such as seniors), who represent a growing market in the travel industry by spending billions on leisure and business trips. This report explored the implementation of big data analytics and applications in tourism, disabilities related studies and assistive technologies for people with disabilities. This report explored the potentials of big data applications and analytics in understanding the needs and travel experience of people with disabilities and improving travel accessibility and quality of life for people with disabilities.

KEYWORDS

i523, HID234, Big Data Analytics, Travel Accessibility, People with Disabilities

1 INTRODUCTION

People with disabilities represented a large neglected tourism market. According to Amadeus annual report, 15 percent of worldwide population (around 1 billion people) lives with some forms of disability [3]. According to United Nation, people with disabilities are the largest minority group in the world [4, 15, 17]. Notably, the number of people with disabilities is expected to increase as a result of extension of human life-span, decreases in communicable diseases, the improvement of medical technology, and decrease of child mortality [40]. While some forms of disabilities might be genetic, but temporary or permanent disabilities can happen to anyone, such as spinal cord injury after car accident, or limited mobility at later stage of life [17].

Population aging trend also signifies that disability will be a more common and urgent issue in the future [20]. The World Health Organization estimates that by 2050, 21.5 per cent of the global population will be aged over 65 [3]. As a large and fast growing minority group worldwide, people with mobility limits and accessibility issues faces a large ranges of barrier when traveling, and travel and tourism demand of this group is often underestimated or completely ignored [3]. According to the Open Door Organization (ODO) market report in 2015, people with disabilities spend 17.3 billion dollars annually for their own travel [31]. Because people with disabilities usually needs a care giver or family member to accompany them when traveling, the potential economic impact could double [31].

Accessible travel or accessible tourism refers to the inclusive travel activities that enable people with access requirements, including mobility, vision, hearing and cognitive dimensions of access,

to function independently, with equity and dignity through the delivery of universally designed tourism products, services and environments [3]. However, the travel experiences for people with disabilities are more than access issues. In order to achieve travel accessibility, which means provide travel activities for people with disabilities, a variety of aspects for travel needs must be taken in consideration. An accessible destination and appropriate accommodation only lay the foundation for a particular travel experience to happen for people with disabilities [31]. More aspects that need to consider for people who are traveling with disabilities, such as accessible transportation, accessible online booking[3].

The ultimate aim for those involved in supporting accessible travel is to empower every individual to plan and travel independently, at their own will [48]. However, the task is not a easy one. Making the whole travel chain accessible, including the information and booking procedures, as well as the infrastructure and processes become a important task for travel accessibility [3].

The development of information communication technologies especially the creation and distribution of user-generated content (UGC) or consumer-generated content (CGC) has successfully changed how people travel and how people gather information for travel [12]. Big data application and analytics has become a trending topic for the tourism industry and tourism studies [12]. The fast development of information and digital technology has changed many people's lives, especially the life of people with disabilities has also been improved by technology [10]. People with poor visions can using cell phones to contact others, access information online with screen readers. People with hearing problems can text other people with their cell phone. The use of big data for disabilities related research, disability informatics and developing assistive technology has been studies to improve the quality of life for people with disabilities [20].

Although big data is becoming an important topic in both tourism studies and disability related studies. There are a gap in the literature about how big data can be used in accessible tourism practice and studies, the potential of big data analytics and applications for improving travel accessibility has not been discussed before. Travel for business and leisure, especially travel independently and with dignity, constitute an essential needs for people with disabilities, and plays a fundamental part in the quality of life for people with disabilities. This study is trying to explore the use of big data applications and big data analytics in tourism and disability related practice and research, illustrating and discovering the potential of using big data applications and analytics for accessible travel and tourism practice and studies.

2 TOURISM AND BIG DATA

Information Communication Technologies (ICTs) have been transforming tourism business globally and revolutionizing the world of Tourism. It transforms tourism from a labor-intensive to an information-intensive industry [43]. Tourists influence by the developments in search engines, network speed and capacity have been using use technologies for better planning and experiencing their trips [45]. In addition, ICTs enable travelers to access reliable and accurate information and make reservations faster, cheaper and more convenient than the traditional way [12]. The development of ICTs also enables Internet users to both create and distribute information (especially multimedia information), which is called user-generated content (UGC) or consumer-generated content (CGC) [12].

Big data is a new and trending topic in the tourism industry and tourism studies, however, it is not unfamiliar to tourist activities. Most activities in the tourism industry had been generating a huge amount of data for several years. Booking flight tickets, reserving a hotel room and renting a car all leaves a data trail [38]. These data could add up to more than hundred of terabytes or petabytes structured data in the conventional databases [2]. Discussions of travel planning on online travel community such as the Lonely Planet Community, status updates and posts on social media like Facebook and Twitter, compliments and compliant on review websites like TripAdvisor and Yelp, recording and sharing travel experience on travel blogs constructs more challenging and live unstructured data that arrives at a much faster pace than a conventional database [2]. Tourism practitioners and tourism scholars are trying to understand tourists' behavior by accepting and analyzing these big data [38].

Tourists in the digital age often use a variety of tools to access information that the tourism industry or other users have provided [44]. A tourist produces a high volume of data when they are searching for travel websites, reporting issues on mobile applications, sharing traffic information in the cities, searching and posting on social media, taking and sharing photos, reporting experience on travel websites and social media, documenting their trips on blogs [2, 38]. All these data that are produced constantly can demonstrate tourists' motivation, interests, and their planning patterns and so on [45].

Previous studies have demonstrated several different usage and formats of big data in the travel and tourism industry [45]. Social media is one of them that has a huge effect on the tourism industry. Social media includes social networks, review sites, blogs, media sharing, and wikis [44]. The exceptional growth of these data sources has inspired companies and institutions to come up with new strategies to understand the socio-economic phenomenon in various fields [38]. Discussions and information sharing on social media are considered as electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM) that has in some degree substituted tradition face-to-face word-of-mouth (WOM) for information exchange of tourist experience [12].

Most tourism research utilizing big data are focusing on CGC or UGC, especially online reviews for a hotel. A recent study conducted by Guo, Barnes and Jia used data mining approach and linguistic analysis to extract meaning from 266,544 online reviews for 25,670 hotels [22]. They mined their customer review data from

TripAdvisor using a web crawler [22]. Through their linguistic analysis of their data and cross-comparing with perceptual mapping of the hotels, they found 19 controllable dimensions that are important for hotels to manage their interactions with visitors (such as the price for value, check in and check out) [22].

Photo post on photographic sharing website also can also provide extensive information on the tourists. Previous studies have connected photos posted on Panoramio, Flickr, and Instagram [10, 27]. Because when a tourist post pictures on these websites, their photo is tagged with geographic locations and ordered chronologically. Therefore analyzing photos posted by tourists can provide a photo density map to better understand tourists' behaviors, and potentially provide opportunities to detect atypical tourists behavior and characterize communities behaviors. However, the study also has its own limitation because of the limitation of technology to better exploit the data [10]. Another study focused on the sequence of locations in shared geotagged photos by tourist to identify and recommend travel routes which helped the travel recommender system to generate personalized recommendation according to interests and time available [27].

Overall for tourism industry and tourism research, big data has becoming more and more popular. Both tourism practitioners and tourism researcher has recognized the influence of big data and big data sources for tourism development. Big data in the tourism industry are generated by tourists directly, compared to traditional data sets that are gathered from surveys, they have argued that these direct data from tourists themselves can better represent their true travel experience [22]. Therefore, big data presented us opportunities to better understand tourist behavior, their motivations, and interests.

3 DISABILITY AND BIG DATA

There are many different definition of disabilities from different organizations. The most cited official definition is the 1976 definition of the World Health Organization [4]: "An impairment is any loss or abnormality of psychological, physiological or anatomical structure or function; a disability is any restriction or lack (resulting from an impairment) of ability to perform an activity in the manner or within the range considered normal for a human being; a handicap is a disadvantage for a given individual, resulting from an impairment or a disability, that prevents the fulfillment of a role that is considered normal (depending on age, gender and social and cultural factors) for that individual". While people with disabilities are those people who have limitations in their actions or activities resulting from physical, sensory or cognitive impairments, however, there are many types and levels of disabilities and their actions and activities are affected differently by their disabilities [4]. The complexity of disabilities presents difficulties and challenges to accommodate the different needs of people with disabilities and improve their qualities of life [33].

The number of individuals living with some sensory or cognitive impairment or assisting an affected person is enormous [36]. Researchers has been using disability informatics to better understand people with disabilities. Disability informatics is a sub-specialty of health informatics that is defined as "any application that collects, manages, and distributes information that are related to people

with disabilities, as well as to caregivers (including familiar members and health care providers) and rehabilitation professionals” [4]. Disability informatics is closely related to other health informatics areas such as medical informatics, public health informatics and consumer health informatics, because people with disabilities usually have some secondary medical condition such as poor health status and increased personal health care needs.

Gather medical and health information can help to better understand and accommodate people with disabilities [36]. A study from the early 2000 has identified the potential of public health informatics for prevention at all vulnerable points in the causal chains leading to disability and proposed that applications should not be restricted to particular social, behavioral, or environmental contexts, but in a more global context [46].

Another previous research has designed and deployed an extended version of Artemis system (a cloud system designed to acquire data and store physiological data of clinical information for real-time analytics) in a hospital. They have identified that high speed physiological data produced at intensive care units as big data, and the proper use of such data can promote health, reduce mortality and disability rates of critical condition patients and create new cloud-based health analytics [24]. Research also has shown that many disabilities are genetic, therefore, bioinformatics has implications in the education of genetic screening and gen therapy treatments in the future [4].

People with disabilities usually need some assistive technology in their daily life. These technology that assist them to perform basic physical and social functions. The use information technology and assistive applications in disability informatics are categorized into three areas: virtual, personal, physical.

- Virtual environment refers to use of digital technologies like website and the Internet [4]. The digital revolution had and will continue to have a profound positive impact on the life of people with disability by empowering them with the help of digital technologies [4]. However, there are still access issues in the digital world. One of the barrier is the use of the World Wide Web (WWW or Web). Therefore, virtual environment for people with disabilities is usually discussed regarding to web accessibility.
- Personal Environment refer to having a safe personal environment for people with disabilities. Safety monitoring and health monitor devices are essential in this personal environment, which enables a safer personal environment and also provide health information for their medical care providers [4]. However the ethic of such health monitor devices are always in debate, some believe it can be an invasion of privacy and a restriction of personal freedom, others hold the ground that its main purpose is to help people with disease or disabilities, since it can alert their caregiver if the individual are exposed to harm (such as a person with mental disability and has a history of self-harming, these device can prevent unwanted behavior [14].
- Physical environment refers to the actual living space, traveling environment for people with disabilities. People with

mobility disabilities, visual impairment or cognitive limitation all need special help in their physical environment. Since the American Disabilities Act passed in the 1990s, the accessibility of physical environment has been improved in a great degree. However, people with disabilities still would meet some barrier and problem, one of them is the lack of curb cuts. Assistive information technologies has been developed in an effort to solve this problem. One of them is MAGUS, which is a project using geographical information system to inform users about wheelchair accessibility in urban areas [4]

The contribution of Big data and cloud computing have been recognized and accepted by researchers in health informatics [42]. The potential of big data and cloud computing for disability informatics and for people with disabilities has been explored by a few researchers and organizations. Data-Pop Alliance is one of the organization has recognized the big data and potential for study and help people with disabilities for disability informatics and people with disabilities [33]. Their research has categorized three type of big data source used across disability research: exhaust data (mobile-based data, financial transaction, transportation and online trace), digital content (social media and crowded-sourced/online content), and sensing data (physical and remote) [33]. They also provided the potential for some of these data sources, for example, researchers can use transaction data to compare cost, availability, and use of services that offer accessible options (such as accessible hotel listings) [33]. They also suggested that researcher can use social media data to represent people with disabilities as a network of interaction and using crow-sourcing to map the locations of accessible businesses and public places [33]. The organization has also identify four functions of big data on disability:descriptive, predictive, diagnostic and engagement. Descriptive function of big data is to describing and presenting the collected information such as using location data to map workplaces that are accessible to people with disabilities [33]. Predictive function is making inferences based on collected information such as discovering trends in the growth of number of accessible businesses in a certain urban area, while the diagnostic function means establishing and making recommendations on the basis of causal relations such as showing what can help increasing accessible business in a certain area [33]. Finally, the engagement function refer to shaping dialogue within and between communities and with key stakeholders through communication of data [33].

Cloud computing in combined with big data can also provide great opportunities for research and improvement of quality of life for people with disabilities [7]. The term cloud “refers to everything a user may reach via the Internet, including services, storage, applications, and people” [23]. Depending on the type of using, the “cloud” can be use for different purpose, such as for companies, the cloud could be used for hosting services so as to avoid the costs and difficulties associated with hosting one’s own servers and software and for individuals, the could is often used as information storage [24]. Regardless of the types of usages for cloud, the end using must still access the information and services residing in the cloud through device like a smart phone or computer [23]. Cloud computing has been used to provide more accessible virtual environment,

especially Web access through project like WebAnywhere, which is a cloud based tool for blind using to access Internet [23].

Cloud computing and big data analytics can also be helpful in health monitoring. The Artemis project mention earlier provide a example of big data analytics and cloud computing usage in health monitoring, by creating new cloud-base health analytics solutions [24]. Previous researchers have developed a mobile app to collect motion data of Parkinson's disease (PD) which is a disease resulting in mobility disorder using the smart phone 3D accelerometer and to send the data to a cloud service for storage, data processing, and PD symptoms severity estimation, which provide an user-friendly and economically affordable system to monitor and assess the condition of PD [32]. Although this system is not for people with disabilities, but it provided potentials for similar systems to be developed for different kind of disabilities.

Another application of cloud computing and big data in assistive technology is the CloudCast platform, which is a cloud-based speech recognition services that can be used for many assistive technology application for people with speech difficulties and hearing impairment, it also facilitate the collection of speech data required for the machine learning techniques [14]. Similar to Alexa Voice Service, it provide reliable speech recognition which can be used with assistive devices for people with hearing impairments, but CloudCast platform also provide customization for assistive technology applications benefiting users with speech impairment [14]. This research provided a great example of using big data and cloud computing in combine to solve a certain problem for people with disabilities (in this case it is barriers for speech impairment).

The development of information technology and assistive technology has improved the life of people with disabilities. The use disability informatics and health informatics can help researchers and service and technology providers to better understand the needs and wants for people with disabilities. Studies has discussed and proposed the great potentials to use big data source to better represent people with disability and identity and study issues and propose actions and solution to the challenges faced by people with disabilities. Using Cloud computing and big data also helps improving assistive and information technology that are now used to help people with disabilities. To improve the quality of life for people with disabilities, travel as a necessary needs and right for human cannot be ignored and the travel demands from the population with disabilities have to be addressed. Therefore, it will be beneficial and necessary to study travel accessibility with the help of big data and digital technologies, in order to improve the quality of life for people with disabilities.

4 TRAVEL ACCESSIBILITY AND BIG DATA

To explore the potential of big data applications and analytics in improving travel accessibility, the complexity of travel accessibility have to be addressed. Accessible travel includes not only the point-to-point transportation (such as air travel, flights), but also the accessibility of destination [3, 15, 28]. For people with disability to actually make the trip, they will also require booking for transportation and hotel reservation to be accessible. This study is going to explore the use of big data application and analytics in different aspect of travel such as reservation, long distance transportation

(in the form of airline travel), and destination transportation, the existing evidence and potentials for using these big data to improve travel accessibility..

4.1 Big data and online reservation

Nowadays, the majority of the travel planning process happens online. Tourists would use a variety of tourism website, search engines, and reservation domains. The Internet also plays an important part at during and post travel stage, as tourists report issues on mobile applications, share traffic information in the cities, search and post on social media, take and share photos, report experience on travel websites and social media [2, 38]. These activities seems mundane and easy to complete for the general public, but for people with disabilities they can huge hassles or barriers.

Previous studies in relation to disability informatics demonstrated the profound positive impact of that the digital revolution on the life of people with disability by empowering them with the help of digital technologies [4]. However, there are still access issues in the digital world, the most urgent one is the use of the World Wide Web (WWW or Web). The Web has always had a strong awareness and been advocacy for accessibility since early on in its evolution [4]. The World Wide Web Consortium (W3C) had passed the Web Accessibility Initiative (WAI) and Web Content Accessibility Guidelines in the late 1990s [4].

A number of assistive technologies were designed to help people with disabilities to use the Web. For example BBC Education Text to Speech Internet Enhancer (BESTIE) is a CGI Perl script that can help people with disabilities who are using text-to-speech systems for Web browsing to modified the web page removing images, Java and Javascript code that may cause difficulties to understand the BBC web page content [16]. However, the limitation of BESTIE is that it is only compatible with BBC website. Other researchers also came up with Personalizable Accessible Navigation (PAN), which is a set of edge services designed to improve Web pages accessibility which allow personalization and the opportunities to select multiple profiles, making it compatible for web as well as mobile devices [32].

The online sector of the tourism industry has quickly adopted big data applications to better understand the need of customer and to improve online experience for customers [2]. The online sector of the industry include meta-search engines (like Google), online travel agencies (like Expedia) and some information website companies that distribute tourism information (TripAdvisor)[27]. Amadeus, a tourism company known for its global distribution system, has developed a program "Amadeus Airline Cloud Availability" that can generated special result and increase search for its customers[38].

Travel domain companies like Marriott, Southwest airline, and Amtrak also developed assistive devices specially for people with disabilities to use when browsing their websites. These assistive technologies can help people with disabilities to navigate online reservation website, and help them to independently booking their travel reservations for hotels, restaurants, airplane tickets and attraction passes.

These assistive devices was design to help people with disabilities to have access to the Web. However, current web accessibility

standards do not respect disability as a complex and culturally contingent interaction. The needs and demand of people with different types of disabilities are certainly not the same and this make it hard to understand and pinpoint the real needs for people with disabilities to access the Web. Researchers have proposed to use big data to better understand of the relation between disability and technology and recognized the difference of disabled people in the fiGlobal Southfi where different contexts constitute different disabilities and different experiences of web access [4].

4.2 Accessible transportation and Big data

An inaccessible transport network prevents many people from going to school or studying, working, going to the doctor, meeting friends, going shopping or to the cinema and other activities that are taken for granted. However, for people with disabilities, an inaccessible transport network would left them dependent and confined in their own home [3]. More importantly an inaccessible transport network would also prevent people with disabilities to travel for business or leisure [28]. Older adults, people with disabilities, individuals in low-income households, especially those living in rural areas can face significant mobility challenges [30].

Concerns about getting into an accident, congestion, price of travel, access to transit, and lack of walkways are important issues for a large percentage of the population, but they tend to be more important for people with disabilities [30]. For today's travel and transportation businesses, it is important to address the issue of inclusion, which is the potential to enable a broader range of people to use transportation infrastructure regardless of their individual abilities or disabilities [28]. Accessibility transportation is essential for travel accessibility, because it represent two aspect of travel accessibility: first is long distance transportation accessibility, and the second is accessible destinations. For a destination to be accessible, it have to have an accessible transport network allow people with disabilities to navigate with the destination.

4.2.1 Airline and big data. The airline industry is very familiar with big data use in their daily operations and market research. Airline companies have been using their big data which is the large volume of structured information that has been produced internally [27] to analyze prices of plane ticket. Moreover, airlines have optimized the details of planning for the crew and routing [38].

Previous studies in airline network used Big Data mined from the U.S. air transportation system over the years from 1998fi?!2014 to characterize the network's behavior and determine what internal and/or external drivers result in structural changes to the airline network [13]. Airline delay patents has also been studied with the help of big data by identifying by the number of late arrivals as a percent of total operations [41].

In another previous study, researchers used data from 2006 to 2008 in order to provides the result about the total flight delay for a specific period of time caused due to climate, security, carrier, National Aviation System, Arrival and Departure based on total number of flights getting delayed over in the given period of time [41]. In the study, the authors used time series analysis along with the integration of heterogeneous database to identify and achieve the Airline Seasonal Delay which is implemented and visualized in

R, they were able to identify a trend line to provide the insights for the aviation industry to take future measures to avoid delays and manage them [41].

Airline studies have also used big data analytics on passenger reviews data. The advance development of social media and mobile helped the passengers to post reviews in a ubiquitous way, allow them post real time feedback over Facebook, Twitter on airports, airlines, and other travel providers [11]. However, passengers' review can be really complex since travel activities usually involve multiple parties, therefore, the travel domain application systems are also typically managed by different stakeholders like airlines, airports, travel agencies, security and other services providers like cars, bus, trains, hotels, events. In order to provide a holistic approach to manage complex passenger reviews with data gathering, processing and disseminating, a previous study has proposed a reference architecture to manage passenger reviews where multiple stakeholders are involved by using data lakes, which can store, manage and analyze structured and unstructured data with cheaper cost, well-distributed, open sourced and powerful set of tools.

Even though previous studies on airline using big data have not address the issues of accessibility. These previous studies still show the potential for using big data source from the airline industry and passenger reviews to study the interests, motivation, needs and demands from people with disabilities.

4.2.2 Transport Network Accessibility and Big data. Accessibility in the transport network studies are different defined than travel accessibility, since the urban accessibility is focus on provide access of transportation and transit to general public, not specifically people with disabilities [30]. However, since transport network accessibility usually are connected to urban transport network, which represent an important part of physical environment for people with disabilities it can provide some insight for accessible destinations especially urban destinations. Accessibility has always been a key concept in urban and regional planning for its capacity to link the activities of people and businesses to the possibilities of reaching them effectively. The accessibility of the transport network is already challenging for general public, for people with disabilities who requires special needs, it become a tremendous and difficult barrier, because they are required to make rapid, real-time decisions that are especially difficult for special needs populations. Therefore, previous studies using big data on urban accessibility can provide some potentials for travel accessibility studies [5].

For Urban an regional planning, accessibility represent traffic capacity to link the activities of people and business to the possibilities of reaching them effectively [30]. Accessibility is defined as "a dynamic attribute of locations that varies over time due to changes in the transport network and in the attractiveness of destinations for certain activities" [30]. Since the emergence of big data generated by social media, smart phones, satellite navigation system and other technologies, the information on transport networks has improved conclusively in recent years [5]. Navigation companies such as TomTom; websites and applications like Bing Maps, Google Map; collaborative projects like Open-Street-Map; the public availability of Transit Feed Specification and data from other transit authorities opens up a rapid growing field of research on real time and time-of-day variations in private and public transit accessibility

[30]. These companies and institutions have increasingly detailed systems with information on the features of roads and public transport networks, and their databases include information on speed variations on the roads and the frequencies of passage in public transport networks, all of which contribute a more efficient and dynamic vision to urban accessibility studies [30].

Researchers have just started using these new information sources in studies on urban accessibility. Previous studies utilized data obtained from global positioning system devices to calculate speeds, congestion levels and accessibility conditions at different times of day (morning, midday, evening,), other studies analyzed data from Be-Mobile system (which provided the geo-located positions of 400,000 vehicles equipped with tracking devices) to calculate car travel times [30].

Previous studies also have gathered and analyzed information from web services (such as Google map API) to calculate travel times between origins and destinations. These studies were able to use new information source and big data provided by the development of technologies to retrieve information about local locations and traffic condition for local facilities like groceries, malls, restaurants, banks, recreation centers and others, and estimate accessibility by car, walking, cycling and public transit options [30]. Previous research also used data from social media such as Twitter in combined with data from satellite navigation system (like TomTom) to provide a dynamic approach and obtain profiles that highlight the daily variations in accessibility in urban cities, identify real time influence of congestion and population location changes, by providing different accessibility profiles from different transport zone, the researchers was able to analyze the relationship between the performance of the transport network and the attractiveness of the destination [30]. Although this study is not design to provide information for people with disability, but such dynamic approach using real time big data can also benefit people with disabilities and help them identify places to go in the city and the most accessible route to the attractions.

Another study also proposed and developed a travel assistance device for people with disabilities by using real time data from global positioning system. According to this study, recent advancements in mobile technology enabled smart phones with global positioning system provide real-time location-based services and its related data. The researchers for this study designed, implemented and tested a travel assistance device (TAD) that is designed to help transit riders with special needs using public transportation [5]. This device is a navigation software program designed to prompt individuals via a cell phone to exit the bus at a pre-set location. This travel assistance device provides the people with disabilities customized real-time audio, visual and tactile prompts for exiting the transit vehicle by announcing “Get ready” and “Pull the cord now!”, based on its real-time assisted GPS data provided by the embedded GPS chip in the cell phone [5]. Once the software is downloaded and installed to the cell phone, parents, travel trainers, or other authorized individuals can access the web management page to schedule bus routes to be transmitted to the cell phone [5]. The system also provides alerts to riders, their caretakers and travel trainers when the rider with disabilities deviates from the planned route. With a website allowing easy access for the design and planning of new trip itineraries, the device allows authorized personnel

(usually caregivers, family members) to monitor the rider's location in real-time from any computer [5]. The travel assistance device was catered to the needs of people with disabilities, increasing their level of independence and their care-takers security. This travel assistance device represented beneficial practice for people with disabilities [5].

However, there are still many challenge for the development of such device or services. One of the main challenge is that different needs of people with disabilities making it difficult to complete satisfy and assist people with different disabilities. Since the device proposed by this study is still at experimental stage and their test sample are limited, although through the test, the device was proved to be easy to use, it still might pose as a challenge for other people with disabilities, especially people with cognitive limitations [5].

5 PROMISE OF BIG DATA IN TRAVEL ACCESSIBILITY

As mentioned above, big data has some potentials in studies and research that are intended to enable and improve the ability for people with disabilities to travel independently. This section are going to explore different big data related technologies, applications and analytics that can help people with disabilities to travel with ease and researchers to better understand the demand and need for people with disabilities.

5.1 Internet of Things and Travel Assistive Technology

5.1.1 *Internet of Things Assistive Technology and Potentials for Travel use.* Assistive devices or technology (AT) for people with disabilities are not a new concept. Assistive devices refers to “any item, piece of equipment, or product system, whether acquired commercially off the shelf, modified, or customized, that is used to increase, maintain or improve functional capabilities of individuals with disabilities”, for examples, canes, crutches, walkers, wheelchairs, and shower chairs, hearings aids, visual aids, other hardware, and software that improve ICT access or communication capacities are all assistive devices [5, 39]. People with disabilities are usually seen as depend, and in need of help from caregiver or family members. However, with the technological growth that has been seen in the last 20 years, a wide array of devices have been adapted, created, and utilized with the potential to create independence for individuals with disabilities. Virtual reality, sensor monitoring devices, smart phone have all been used to assist those who require assistance in their day to day lives [30].

Older adults and individuals with physical, sensory, and mental/cognitive disabilities encounter many barriers to inclusion and accessing various opportunities and services that the society has to offer [39]. In order to overcome these barriers, people with disabilities needs some forms of assistive technologies or devices. Traditional technologies has many challenges, however, with the development of technology, the Internet of Things (IoT), smart homes, smart buildings, smart cities, and other smart environments can overcome some of these challenges due to their prevalence and diverse capabilities.

One of human's fundamental needs is the mobility and capability of independently traveling around, including for people with

physical disabilities and even blind or visually impaired individuals [5]. In order for people with visual impairment to independently travel or moving around requires indoor and outdoor navigation capabilities, the blind and visually impaired people may rely on some type of AT to supplement their navigational abilities [39]. Previous studies has proposed using the advanced sensors of the smart phones in providing meaningful interactions with the environment for individuals with different abilities [39]. A typical modern smart phone has more than twenty sensors, which include GPS-based systems that can be useful for outdoor navigation, however in general, these sensors in smart phone still may lack the required precision and reliability for use by the blind or partially sighted individuals [39].

Previous research has proposed using Bluetooth beacons and audible instructions delivered through an interface device for navigation by the blind and partially sighted people is based on the use of such as bone conduction earphones or smart phones [5, 39]. A research team has designed and tested a system "with 16 Bluetooth beacons providing pin-point accurate indoor location mapping for unassisted mobility in the London Underground [39]. The system is based on a mobile app, Wayfnder, which is a open platform that has the promise of promoting future development on assistive devices for people with visual limitations [39]. Microsoft, Guide Dogs, UK and several other organizations have also embarked on expanding similar concepts to respond to the challenges that people with sight loss face while navigating the cities [39]. These companies and organizations has developed technology and application that allow users to start a trip and they have a "Look Ahead" and "Find the way" mode that can help people with vision limitation to explore the city and let them stop at any point and check that they are heading the right direction.

5.1.2 The big data challenge of IoT Based AT. While the growth and progress the IoT and smart environments, the advances in sensor technologies and abilities for comprehensive monitoring and surveillance is rapid, there still existed many challenges for these technologies. One of them is data availability. Because these technology generated an enormous amount of data that surpasses the processing and use capabilities [39]. For instance, real-time localization and navigation systems that are designed to assist people with visual impairment to travel around, face two major related challenges: one is the allocation of computational resources that can process the large amounts of data coming from multiple sensors and cameras, fast enough in a real-time and synchronized manner, so that they can provide real-time guidance for people with special needs [39];the second issue relates to quick and real-time access to dynamic data sets through interfaces that are appropriate for the user [39].IoT devices typically have the issues of energy constrained, with small memory, limited processing power, and restrictive communication capabilities [39]. One positive aspect of this challenge is, these dynamic data obtained from IoT based AT device are extremely valuable and could help researchers and companies to better understand the needs of people with disabilities and analyzing such data can help researchers and companies to design better product for people with disabilities.

Another issues that AT adoption faces is its ability of meeting the users' needs and desires. AT has been criticized because although

AT devices "may have technical merit, and may solve obvious problems, but still fail to address the complex interplay of issues at work and to take the most appropriate approach to dealing with these matters. Furthermore, it is important to acknowledge that there may not even be a problem to tackle. Flexibility cannot be overvalued" [39]. Due to the complexity of the needs and wants for people with different disabilities, it can be challenging to develop an assistive device that can accommodate most people, however, a holistic understanding of the intended users is required [39]. It is important for researchers and AT device engineers to understand the wants and needs of people with disabilities, to be able to design an AT product that actually can fulfill what people with disabilities want, instead of just assuming what people with disabilities needs [5].

Some people may feel intimidated by the newer technologies such as those of the IoT-based AT. First these device required some sort of learning and adapting period, and for people with disabilities, it might too longer time than for "normal" people, which can be taxing for people with disabilities and give them extra pressures [39]. For people who are used to being in control of their devices, some automate processes of IoT-based AT, which was intended to provide support for people with disabilities, ironically, may pose potential stress for operating and adapting to the devices [39]. A similar issue arises from the fast pace of the development of such advanced technologies. With the rapid advancement of technology, products and service become obsolete really quickly as the newer improved version become available. As mentioned above, people with disabilities do have a learning curve and need adapting process for IoT based assistive technologies, the constant and multiple upgrades of new version can make it harder for people with disabilities to adapt. Therefore, the elderly or people with disability or dementia may miss out on obtaining the full benefits of these devices or services [39]. The costs, learning curves, or simply a lack of awareness can potentially prevent these people to use new technologies at all.

With the emergence of new technologies such as Internet of Things and large scale wireless sensor system, IoT based AT emerged as potential solution and promise for improving the quality of life for people with disabilities. They provide new opportunities and can aid people with disabilities in their travel, and help them overcome travel barriers. However, there is still manage challenges for people with disabilities, especially when it come to complex situations that they are going to encounter during their travel. There is a distinct gap in IoT based AT research: the lacking of holistic understanding of the needs and wants from people with disabilities. More studies needs to be conducted on the opinions and users experience of IoT based AT.

5.2 Sentiment Analysis on Hotel reviews

The popularity of social media, especially review sites like TripAdvisor and blogs and wikis, leads to an enormous amount of personal reviews for travel-related information on the Web [35]. More importantly, the information in these reviews is valuable to both tourists and travel and tourism practitioners for various understanding and planning processes [47]. These UGC comes from all kinds of tourists with different demographic background, within with also

has reviews from people with disabilities. Therefore, analyzing hotel reviews on various website and platform that are posted by people with disabilities can help us better understand the needs of this population group. One of the most common analytics method for large amount of review data is sentiment analysis [35].

Sentiment analysis, which is also called opinion mining, is one of the most active research areas in natural language processing [35]. The aim of sentiment analysis is to define automatic tools able to extract subjective information from text in natural [21] language, and to create structured and actionable knowledge to be used by either a decision support system or a decision maker. The sentiments of reviews, online reputation or online documents are usually categorized in positive, negative and (in some studies) neutral sentiments [19]. The main goal of the sentiment classification is to extract “the global sentiment based on the subjectivity and the linguistic characteristics of the words within an unstructured text” [19]. Therefore, sentiment analysis provided a framework to transform unstructured text to structured data, which make it strongly applicable to both the academic field [8]. Because of the importance of sentiment analysis to business and society, it has spread from computer science to management science and the social sciences [34]. As a social science field and business industry, tourism and travel studies have already been using sentiment analysis in the research.

Previous studies have identified two primary approaches for sentiment analysis: methods based on the combination of lexical resources and Natural Language Processing (NLP) techniques; and machine learning approaches [19]. Since 2009, researchers have been using machine learning methods in the natural language processing (support vector machine (SVM), Nave Bayes, and the N-gram model) to do sentiment analysis on TripAdvisor reviews [47]. Their study analyzed online reviews related to travel destinations, using different supervised machine learning algorithms. The algorithms to evaluate the reviews about seven popular travel destinations in Europe and North America [47].

The etBlogAnalysis project developed a combined crawler /sentiment extraction application for the tourism industry, which used a simple and robust linguistic parsing methodology with information and terminology extraction methods in order to determine relevant utterances on expression level [35]. It will also provide a warning for tourism operator such as a hotel, if too many negative entries have been generated by their reviewers [19].

In tourism studies, sentiment analysis has been compared to traditional qualitative analytic methods. A previous study compared three alternative approaches for mining consumer sentiment (manual content coding, corpus-based semantic analysis, and stance-shift analysis) from large amounts of qualitative data found in online travel reviews [9]. They applied three different approaches to study consumers' reaction to farm stays in order to demonstrate how large volumes of qualitative data can be analyzed quantitatively in a relatively efficient and reliable way [9]. Manual content coding is the same as traditional the content analysis approach involving two researchers collaborated in a manual coding process designed to extract consumer likes and dislikes from the qualitative data [9]. According to the comparison, computer generated sentiment analysis such as stance-shift analysis processing on both syntax and lexicon assures the coding maintains the statement's context identifying

what is important to the informants by the way they express their comments. Most importantly, stance-shift analysis does not categorize what the researcher thinks is important in reviewer's words [9]. The study suggested by combining different approaches in sentiment analysis such as using stance-shift analysis first identifies the significant word segments then using corpus-based semantic analysis detects key themes in those segments helps uncover narrative themes of consumer experiences in large qualitative databases [9].

Sentiment analysis will help researchers to better understand people's travel experience, however, there are few studies have been done to identify demographic information of the reviewer and compare the sentiment analysis result across different demographic. A recent invention present the possibility of identifying demographic characteristics while conducting sentiment analysis. The invention consist of a product or service review to determine demographic information of the reviewer [6]. A sentiment text analysis is performed on the product or service review, wherein the sentiment text analysis examines the product or service review to determine a sentiment of the product or service review. The sentiment of the product or service review is categorized based on the demographic information of the reviewer [6]. This invention presents the promise of using sentiment analysis on the travel experience of people with disabilities. However, challenges still remain for research of UGC generated by people with disabilities, such as the challenge presented by privacy concerns of personal data online [25].

5.3 Recommender System

Nowadays tourists faces a very challenging task of trip preparation because of the huge amount of information available on the Web about tourism and leisure activities [1]. Recommender systems becomes essential for tourists and tourism operators. For tourists, recommender systems can be a useful tools to help them make decision for travel planning, such as the choices of destinations, attractions, accommodations and restaurants. As for tourism operators, it can be a great marketing opportunities for them to reach a variety of targeted potential consumers. Complex problems such as automated planning, semantic knowledge management, group recommendation or context-awareness have by now been heavily studied in this area [29].

There are already several tourism recommender system available for general public. TIP and Heracles systems provide recommendation service through mobile devices for tourism, through implement hybrid algorithms to calculate tourist preferences, using the defined tourist profile and location data [29]. Crumpet system provides new information delivery services for a variety of different tourist population based on location aware services, personalized user interaction, accessible multimedia mobile communication that uses Multi-Agent Technology [37]. CATIS is a Web based tourist information system using context-awareness, which include context elements such as location, time of day, speed, direction of travel and personal preferences. This system provided information to tourists relevant to his or her location and time [37]. TravelWithFriends using group recommendation service, the first step is to build a recommendation list for each user and to merge them to obtain

a destinations shortlist. Afterwards, each group member rates all these options and a Borda count is used to determine the best five destinations to be recommended [29].

Classical recommender systems filter the domain items according to a particular user, using his or her demographic data, past ratings or purchasing history [26]. This approach are used to recommend specific items such as books, songs or films [26]. However, it may not be suitable for travel activities, since most of time travel is an activity that involves a group of people (such as family members, friends). Therefore, it is necessary to take into account the different preferences of all members of travel group when providing recommendations [29]. Previous studies and technology reports have identified two primary options for group recommendation: the first one is to merge the lists of items recommended to each group member, or creating a group profile with everyone's preferences and then compute a single list of group recommendations [18]. The second option is first step is the same as the previous option, by constructing of a list of recommendations for each group member. In a second step though, an automatic consensus-reaching process is applied, in which individual preferences are continuously updated until a high degree of agreement between all the group members is reached [18].

The use of semantic domain knowledge in the recommendation process has heavily increased in recent years. Previous studies have defined the semantic similarity between two concepts as "the ratio between the number of different ancestors and the total number of ancestors of both concepts" [29]. The items to be recommended are clustered according to this semantic similarity and the recommendation procedure selects the best item from random clusters [37]. Previous study has shown that this procedure keeps the accuracy and increases the diversity of the results [29]. Semantic information can also be used to determine the items to be recommended in a personalized visit to a museum or destinations, by using a shortest-path semantic distance to determine which museum objects or attractions should be recommended to the user [29].

Previous study also proposed a hybrid tourism recommendation system for persons suffering from physical or intellectual limitation. This proposed recommendation system is not simply trying to improve experience, but to create in users the confidence that despite of their limitations they can visit and experience certain places without being afraid, and to help them to live a touristic experience. By identifying the user's functionality and point of interest (POI) accessibility level, the system models a user stereotype profile, which represent user's related knowledge which is layered with several knowledge representation structures and models and produce an accurate touristic recommendation plan [37]. The study represent itself as an opportunity to provide needed information to people with disabilities through a hybrid tourism recommendation system.

6 CONCLUSION

This study has explored the big data applications and analytics in tourism industry and research, and disability related research. This study illustrated the importance of improving travel accessibility by recognizing the underestimated market for travel of people with

disabilities. The lack of research on big data application and analytics in travel accessibility was identified. By recognizing the complexity of travel accessibility, this study present the potential of using big data analytics and application to better understand the need of people with disability in two travel accessibility aspects: online reservation, and accessible transportation. Although there are few studies on big data and accessible online reservations and accessible transportation directly, this study illustrate big data utilization in web accessibility, airline studies and urban accessibility. These previous studies show promises of using big data analytics and application to address accessibility issues and the needs of people with disabilities in these aspects. This study also explored the promise of big data in travel accessible by exploring:

- Potentials of Internet of Things based Assistive technology: help people with disabilities overcome travel challenge presented by physical environment.
- Recommender systems: help people with disabilities to get more needed information online, and make it easier for them to navigate the virtual environment.
- Sentiment analysis on hotel reviews: help researchers and practitioners to better understand the needs and behaviors of people with disabilities.

However, there are still a lot challenge faced by researchers and organizations interested in improving the quality of life for people with disabilities. The most dominated challenge is the different needs for people with different disabilities types and function levels. Future studies could use sentiment analysis of reviews online generated by people with disabilities to better understand their needs and identify the differences between different disabilities groups. Future studies should also analyze dynamic data generated by the sensors on the assistive devices for people with disabilities to better understand their travel patterns and to provide more appropriate products for people with disabilities.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors would like to thank Dr. Gregor von Laszewski and TAs for i523 for his support and suggestions to write this paper.

REFERENCES

- [1] Gediminas Adomavicius and Alexander Tuzhilin. 2015. *Context-Aware Recommender Systems*. Springer US, Boston, MA, 191–226. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4899-7637-6_6
- [2] Rajendra Akerkar. 2012. *Big Data and Tourism*. Technical Report. Technomathematics Research Foundation.
- [3] Amadeus. 2017. *Voyage of discovery*. techreport. Amadeus, Madrid Spain. <http://www.amadeus.com> Accessed 2017.
- [4] Richard Appleyard. 2005. *Disability Informatics*. Springer New York, New York, NY, Chapter chapter 11, 129–142. <https://doi.org/10.1007/0-387-27652-1-11>
- [5] S. J. Barbeau, P. L. Winters, N. L. Georggi, and M. A. Labrador. 2010. Travel assistance device: utilising global positioning system-enabled mobile phones to aid transit riders with special needs. *IET Intelligent Transport Systems* 4, 1 (March 2010), 12–23. <https://doi.org/10.1049/iet-its.2009.0028>
- [6] D.A. Bhatt. 2014. Sentiment analysis based on demographic analysis. (May 15 2014). <https://www.google.com/patents/US20140136185> US Patent App. 13/675,653.
- [7] Ann Cameron Caldwell. 2011. *Untapped Markets in Cloud Computing: Perspectives and Profiles of Individuals with Intellectual and Developmental Disabilities and Their Families*. Springer Berlin Heidelberg, Berlin, Heidelberg, Chapter Chapter 30, 281–290. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-21663-3_30
- [8] E. Cambria, B. Schuller, Y. Xia, and C. Havasi. 2013. New Avenues in Opinion Mining and Sentiment Analysis. *IEEE Intelligent Systems* 28, 2 (March 2013), 15–21. <https://doi.org/10.1109/MIS.2013.30>

- [9] Antonella Capriello, Peyton R. Mason, Boyd Davis, and John C. Crots. 2013. Farm tourism experiences in travel reviews: A cross-comparison of three alternative methods for data analysis. *Journal of Business Research* 66, 6 (2013), 778 – 785. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2011.09.018> International Tourism Behavior in Turbulent Times.
- [10] G. Chareyron, J. Da-Rugna, and T. Raimbault. 2014. Big data: A new challenge for tourism. In *2014 IEEE International Conference on Big Data (Big Data)*. IEEE, Washington, DC, USA, 5–7. <https://doi.org/10.1109/BigData.2014.7004475>
- [11] Cynthia Chen, Jingtao Ma, Yusak Susilo, Yu Liu, and Menglin Wang. 2016. The promises of big data and small data for travel behavior (aka human mobility) analysis. *Transportation Research Part C: Emerging Technologies* 68, Supplement C (2016), 285 – 299. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trc.2016.04.005>
- [12] Jin Chung and Dimitrios Buhalis. 2009. *Virtual travel community: bridging travellers and locals*. IGI Global, USA. 130–144 pages.
- [13] E. Clemons, R. Jordan, and T. Reynolds. 2016. Airline network and competition characterization using big data approaches. In *2016 IEEE/AIAA 35th Digital Avionics Systems Conference (DASC)*. IEEE, Sacramento, CA, USA, 1–10. <https://doi.org/10.1109/DASC.2016.7777957>
- [14] Stuart Cunningham, Phil Green, Heidi Christensen, JJ Atria, A Coy, M Malavasi, L Desideri, and F Rudzicz. 2017. Cloud-Based Speech Technology for Assistive Technology Applications (CloudCAST). *Harnessing the Power of Technology to Improve Lives* 242 (2017), 322.
- [15] Simon Darcy. 2010. Inherent complexity: Disability, accessible tourism and accommodation information preferences. *Tourism Management* 31, 6 (2010), 816 – 826. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2009.08.010>
- [16] Ugo Erra, Gennaro Iaccarino, Delfina Malandrino, and Vittorio Scarano. 2007. Personalizable edge services for Web accessibility. In *Universal Access in the Information Society (W4A)*, Vol. 6. WWW2006, ACM, Edinburgh, UKfiff, 285–306.
- [17] Lex Frieden. 2015. Why Disability Informatics? (02 2015). <https://sbmi.uth.edu/blog/feb-15/021115.htm>
- [18] Imma Garcia, Laura Sebastia, Eva Onaindia, and Cesar Guzman. 2009. *A Group Recommender System for Tourist Activities*. Springer Berlin Heidelberg, Berlin, Heidelberg, 26–37. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-03964-5_4
- [19] Aitor Garca, Sean Gaines, and Maria Teresa Linaza. 2012. A Lexicon Based Sentiment Analysis Retrieval System for Tourism Domain. *E-review of Tourism Research* 10, 2 (2012), 35 – 38. <http://proxyiub.uits.iu.edu/login?url=https://search.ebscohost.com.proxyiub.uits.iu.edu/login.aspx?direct=true&db=hjh&AN=84339713&site=ehost-live&scope=site>
- [20] Jan Grue. 2016. The social meaning of disability: a reflection on categorisation, stigma and identity. *Sociology of Health and Illness* 38, 6 (2016), 957–964. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9566.12417>
- [21] Dietmar Grbner, Markus Zanker, Gnther Fliegl, and Matthias Fuchs. 2012. Classification of Customer Reviews based on Sentiment Analysis. In *19th Conference on Information and Communication Technologies in Tourism (ENTER)*. Springer, Helsingborg, Sweden, 460–470.
- [22] Yue Guo, Stuart J. Barnes, and Qiong Jia. 2017. Mining meaning from online ratings and reviews: Tourist satisfactionanalysis using latent dirichletallocation. *Tourism Management* 59, Supplement C (2017), 467 – 483. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2016.09.009>
- [23] Jeffery Hoehl and Kaleb August Sieh. 2010. *Cloud Computing and Disability Communities: How Can Cloud Computing Support a More Accessible Information Age and Society?* Technical Report. Silicon Flatirons Center, Colorado, US. <https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.2285526>
- [24] H. Khazaei, C. McGregor, M. Eklund, K. El-Khatib, and A. Thommandram. 2014. Toward a Big Data Healthcare Analytics System: A Mathematical Modeling Perspective. In *2014 IEEE World Congress on Services*. IEEE, Anchorage, AK, USA, 208–215. <https://doi.org/10.1109/SERVICES.2014.45>
- [25] Jonathan Lazar, Michael Ashley Stein, and Judy Brewer. 2017. *Disability, human rights, and information technology*. Philadelphia : University of Pennsylvania Press, [2017], Pennsylvania, USA. <http://proxyiub.uits.iu.edu/login?url=https://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=cat00016a&AN=inun.16424800&site=eds-live&scope=site>
- [26] Jie Lu, Dianshuang Wu, Mingsong Mao, Wei Wang, and Guangquan Zhang. 2015. Recommender system application developments: A survey. *Decision Support Systems* 74, Supplement C (2015), 12 – 32. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dss.2015.03.008>
- [27] Shah Jahan Miah, Huy Quan Vu, John Gammack, and Michael McGrath. 2017. A Big Data Analytics Method for Tourist Behaviour Analysis. *Information and Management* 54, 6 (2017), 771 – 785. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.im.2016.11.011> Smart Tourism: Traveler, Business, and Organizational Perspectives.
- [28] Milo N. Mladenovif. 2017. Transport justice: designing fair transportation systems. *Transport Reviews* 37, 2 (2017), 245 – 246. [https://doi.org/10.1080/01441647.2016.1258599 arXiv:https://doi.org/10.1080/01441647.2016.1258599](https://doi.org/10.1080/01441647.2016.1258599)
- [29] A Moreno, L Sebastiá, and P Vansteenwegen. 2015. Recommender Systems in Tourism. *IEEE Intelligent Informatics Bulletin* 16, 1 (Dec. 2015), 1–2. <http://www.comp.hkbu.edu.hk/~iib/>
- [30] Borja Moya-Gómez, María Henar Salas-Olmedo, Juan Carlos García-Palomares, and Javier Gutiérrez. 2016. Dynamic accessibility using Big Data: The role of the changing conditions of network congestion and destination attractiveness. *Networks and Spatial Economics* 1, 7 (2016), 1–18.
- [31] Open Door Organization. 2015. Open Doors Organization Market Study Press Report. (2015). <http://opendoorsnfp.org/market-studies/2015-market-study/> accessed 2017.
- [32] Di Pan, Rohit Dhall, Abraham Lieberman, and B. Diana Petitti. 2015. A Mobile Cloud-Based Parkinson's Disease Assessment System for Home-Based Monitoring. *JMIR mHealth uHealth* 3, 1 (26 Mar 2015), e29. <https://doi.org/10.2196/mhealth.3956>
- [33] Gabriel Pestre. 2016. Big Data and Disability, Part 1. Data Pop Alliance. (March 2016). <http://datapopalliance.org/big-data-and-disability-part-1/> Accessed 2017.
- [34] Federico Pozzi, Elisabetta Fersini, Enza Messina, and Bing Liu. 2016. *Sentiment Analysis in Social Networks*. Elsevier LTD, Oxford, Cambridge, MA.
- [35] V. B. Raut and D. D. Londhe. 2014. Opinion Mining and Summarization of Hotel Reviews. In *2014 International Conference on Computational Intelligence and Communication Networks*. IEEE, Bhopal, India, 556–559. <https://doi.org/10.1109/CICN.2014.126>
- [36] Paraskevi Riga and Georgios Kouroupetroglou. 2013. Indoor Navigation and Location-Based Services for Persons with Motor Limitations. In *Disability Informatics and Web Accessibility for Motor Limitations*. IGI Global, Greece, 202–233. <https://doi.org/10.4018/978-1-4666-4442-7.ch006>
- [37] Filipe Santos, Ana Almeida, Constantino Martins, Paulo Moura de Oliveira, and Ramiro Gonçalves. 2018. Hybrid Tourism Recommendation System Based on Functionality/Accessibility Levels. In *Trends in Cyber-Physical Multi-Agent Systems. The PAAMS Collection - 15th International Conference, PAAMS 2017*. Fernando De La Prieta, Zita Vale, Luis Antunes, Tiago Pinto, Andrew T. Campbell, Vicente Julián, Antonia J.R. Neves, and María N. Moreno (Eds.). Springer International Publishing, Cham, 221–228. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-61578-3-23>
- [38] S. Shafee and A. R. Ghafari. 2016. Big data in tourism industry. In *2016 10th International Conference on e-Commerce in Developing Countries: with focus on e-Tourism (ECDC)*. IEEE, Isfahan, Iran, 1–7. <https://doi.org/10.1109/ECDC.2016.7492979>
- [39] Seyed Shahrestani. 2017. *Internet of Things and Smart Environments*. Springer-Verlag GmbH, Cham, Switzerland.
- [40] Ralph W. Smith. 1987. Leisure of disable tourists: Barriers to participation. *Annals of Tourism Research* 14, 3 (1987), 376 – 389. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383\(87\)90109-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383(87)90109-5)
- [41] M. Sornam, M. Meharunnisa, and Parthiban Nagendren. 2017. Big Data Analytics on Aviation data for the prediction of Airline Trends in Seasonal Delay. *International Journal of Advanced Research in Computer Science*, 8, 5 (2017), 2248. <http://proxyiub.uits.iu.edu/login?url=https://search.ebscohost.com.proxyiub.uits.iu.edu/login.aspx?direct=true&db=edb&AN=124636583&site=eds-live&scope=site>
- [42] M. Viceconti, P. Hunter, and R. Hose. 2015. Big Data, Big Knowledge: Big Data for Personalized Healthcare. *IEEE Journal of Biomedical and Health Informatics* 19, 4 (July 2015), 1209–1215. <https://doi.org/10.1109/JBHI.2015.2406883>
- [43] N.L. Williams, A. Inversini, N. Ferdinand, and D. Buhalis. 2017. Destination eWOM: A macro and meso network approach? *Annals of Tourism Research* 64 (2017), 87–101. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2017.02.007> cited by 0.
- [44] Zheng Xiang, Zvi Schwartz, John H. Gerdes, and Muzaffer Uysal. 2015. What can big data and text analytics tell us about hotel guest experience and satisfaction? *International Journal of Hospitality Management* 44, Supplement C (2015), 120 – 130. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2014.10.013>
- [45] Karen L. Xie, Kevin Kam Fung So, and Wei Wang. 2017. Joint effects of management responses and online reviews on hotel financial performance: A data-analytics approach. *International Journal of Hospitality Management* 62, Supplement C (2017), 101 – 110. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2016.12.004>
- [46] WA Yasnoff. 2000. Public health informatics: improving and transforming public health in the information age. *Journal of public health management and practice* 6, 6 (11 2000), 67–75.
- [47] Qiang Ye, Ziqiong Zhang, and Rob Law. 2009. Sentiment classification of online reviews to travel destinations by supervised machine learning approaches. *Expert Systems with Applications* 36, 3, Part 2 (2009), 6527 – 6535. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eswa.2008.07.035>
- [48] Ye Zhang and Shu Tian Cole. 2016. Dimensions of lodging guest satisfaction among guests with mobility challenges: A mixed-method analysis of web-based texts. *Tourism Management* 53 (2016), 13–27.

bibtex report

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
```

bibtext _ label error

bibtext space label error

bibtext comma label error

latex report

[2017-12-08 04.01.15] pdfflatex report.tex

This is pdfTeX, Version 3.14159265-2.6-1.40.17 (TeX Live 2016) (preloaded format=pdflate

Missing character: "

MISSING character.


```
45:81    error    line too long (100 > 80 characters) (line-length)
46:81    error    line too long (100 > 80 characters) (line-length)
47:81    error    line too long (94 > 80 characters) (line-length)
48:1     error    trailing spaces (trailing-spaces)
54:12   error    too many spaces after colon (colons)
54:81    error    line too long (122 > 80 characters) (line-length)
```

Compliance Report

```
name: Weixuan Wang
hid: 234
paper1: Oct 22 2017 100%
paper2: Nov 9 2017 100%
project: 100% Dec 07 17
```

```
yamlcheck
```

wordcount

```
10
wc 234 Project 10 8960 content.tex
wc 234 Project 10 9920 report.pdf
wc 234 Project 10 4944 report.bib
```

```
find "
```

```
482: \cite{moya2016dynamic}. Accessibility is defined as "a dynamic
attribute of locations
```

```
484: of destinations for certain activities" \cite{moya2016dynamic}.
Since the emergence of
```

```
609: A research team has designed and tested a system "with 16
Bluetooth beacons
```

```
passed: False
```

```
find footnote
```

```
-----  
passed: True
```

```
find input{format/i523}  
-----
```

```
4: \input{format/i523}
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find input{format/final}  
-----
```

```
passed: False
```

```
floats  
-----
```

```
figures 0  
tables 0  
includegraphics 0  
labels 0  
refs 0  
floats 0
```

```
True : ref check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)  
True : label check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)  
True : include graphics passed: (figures >= includegraphics)  
True : check if all figures are refered to: (refs >= labels)
```

```
Label/ref check
```

```
passed: True
```

```
When using figures use columnwidth  
[width=1.0\columnwidth]  
do not change the number to a smaller fraction
```

```
find textwidth  
-----
```

```
passed: True
```

```
below_check
```

```
bibtex
```

```
label errors
```

```
bibtex errors
```

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
```

```
bibtex_empty_fields
```

```
entries in general should not be empty in bibtex
```

```
find ""
```

```
passed: True
```

```
ascii
```

```
non ascii found 8217
non ascii found 8220
non ascii found 8221
non ascii found 8211
non ascii found 8217
non ascii found 8221
non ascii found 8217
non ascii found 8230
non ascii found 8216
non ascii found 8217
non ascii found 239
non ascii found 8217
non ascii found 8217
non ascii found 8217
```

```
non ascii found 8217  
non ascii found 8217  
non ascii found 8217
```

```
=====  
The following tests are optional  
=====
```

```
Tip: newlines can often be replaced just by an empty line
```

```
find newline
```

```
-----  
passed: True  
cites should have a space before \cite{} but not before the {
```

```
find cite {
```

```
-----  
passed: True
```

Big Data analytics in predict house price

Yujie Wu

December 8, 2017

```
In [1]: import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
%matplotlib inline
from sklearn.metrics import accuracy_score

In [2]: from sklearn.ensemble import RandomForestClassifier
import pandas as pd
from sklearn.preprocessing import LabelEncoder
import numpy as np
df=pd.read_csv('C:\\\\Users\\\\Yujie\\\\s VMware\\\\Desktop\\\\training_data.csv')
df.head()

Out[2]:    Id  MSSubClass  LotArea  OverallQual  OverallCond  YearBuilt  YearRemodAdd \
0      1          60     8450            7            5        2003        2003
1      2          20     9600            6            8        1976        1976
2      3          60    11250            7            5        2001        2002
3      4          70     9550            7            5        1915        1970
4      5          60    14260            8            5        2000        2000

    MasVnrArea  BsmtFinSF1  BsmtFinSF2  ...  WoodDeckSF  OpenPorchSF \
0           196       706         0   ...          0            61
1            0       978         0   ...        298            0
2           162       486         0   ...          0            42
3            0       216         0   ...          0            35
4           350       655         0   ...        192            84

    EnclosedPorch  3SsnPorch  ScreenPorch  PoolArea  MiscVal  MoSold  YrSold \
0              0          0            0          0          0        2    2008
1              0          0            0          0          0        5    2007
2              0          0            0          0          0        9    2008
3             272          0            0          0          0        2    2006
4              0          0            0          0          0       12    2008

    SalePrice
0    208500
1    181500
2    223500
3    140000
```

```
4      250000
```

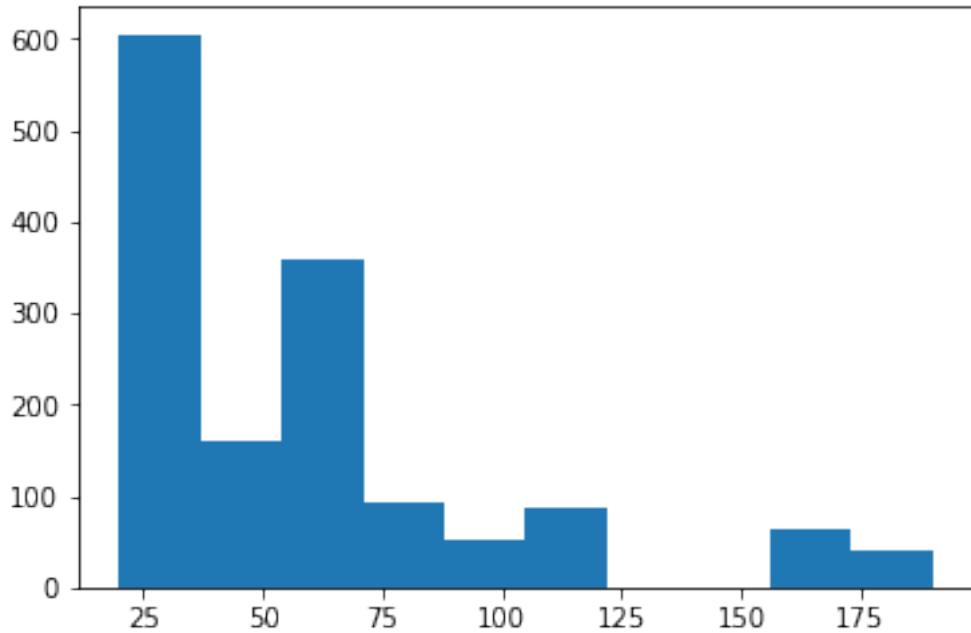
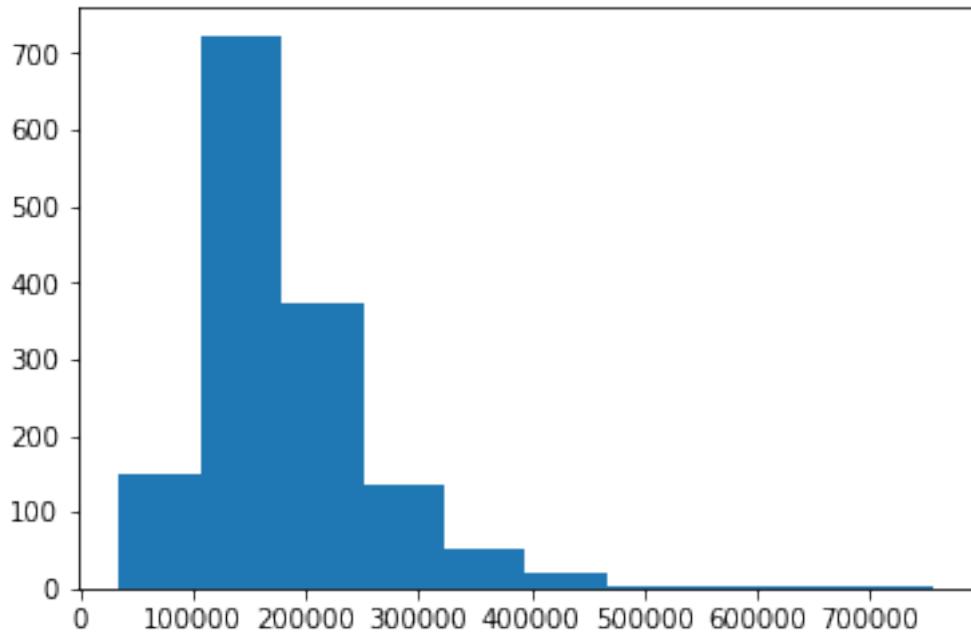
```
[5 rows x 35 columns]
```

```
In [26]: # clean data and show  
del df['error']  
df.head()
```

```
Out[26]:    MSSubClass MSZoning LotFrontage LotArea Street Alley LotShape LandContour \\\n0          50       RM        L70  L10517   Pave  None    Reg      Lvl\n1          20       RL        L70  L10517   Pave  None    IR1      Lvl\n2          20       RL        L70  L10517   Pave  None    Reg      Lvl\n3          20       RL        G70  L10517   Pave  None    Reg      Lvl\n4          20       RL        G70  L10517   Pave  None    IR1      Lvl\n\n      Utilities LotConfig     ...  GarageCars GarageQual GarageCond \\\n0    AllPub     Inside     ...           2          Fa        TA\n1    AllPub     Inside     ...           1          TA        TA\n2    AllPub    Corner     ...           2          TA        TA\n3    AllPub     Inside     ...           2          TA        TA\n4    AllPub     Inside     ...           2          TA        TA\n\n      PavedDrive PoolArea PoolQC Fence SaleType SaleCondition binSalePrice\n0          Y         N    None   None      WD    Abnorml      N\n1          Y         N    None   MnPrv     WD    Normal      N\n2          Y         N    None   None      WD    Normal      N\n3          Y         N    None   GdWo     WD    Abnorml      N\n4          Y         N    None   None      WD    Normal      Y
```

```
[5 rows x 58 columns]
```

```
In [50]: # show the distribution of a column  
col = list(df['SalePrice'])  
plt.hist(col)  
  
plt.show()  
  
# show the distribution of another column  
col = list(df['MSSubClass'])  
plt.hist(col)  
  
plt.show()
```



0.0.1 Splitting into train and test

```
In [6]: X = df[['MSSubClass', 'LotArea', 'OverallQual', 'OverallCond', 'YearBuilt', 'YearRemodAdd',  
y = df['SalePrice']]
```

```

from sklearn.model_selection import train_test_split
X_train, X_test, y_train, y_test = train_test_split(X, y, test_size=0.2, random_state=3)

In [7]: print("X_train: ")
print(X_train.shape)
print("y_train: ")
print(y_train.shape)
print("X_test: ")
print(X_test.shape)
print("y_test: ")
print(y_test.shape)

X_train:
(1168, 18)
y_train:
(1168,)
X_test:
(292, 18)
y_test:
(292,)


```

0.0.2 Using Linear Regression

```

In [53]: # import model
        from sklearn.linear_model import LinearRegression

        # instantiate
linreg = LinearRegression()

        # fit the model to the training data (learn the coefficients)
linreg.fit(X_train, y_train)

Out[53]: LinearRegression(copy_X=True, fit_intercept=True, n_jobs=1, normalize=False)

```

0.0.3 show the coefficients of the linear regression model

```

In [54]: # print the intercept and coefficients
        print(linreg.intercept_)
        print(linreg.coef_)

1624810.78299
[-1.32598253e+02  1.17264859e+00  3.27974313e+04  3.52017131e+02
 7.42385752e+01  3.87166477e+02  6.87797648e+01  3.05508150e+01
 4.81195345e+00  3.94460800e+01  8.24586253e+01  2.55083195e+01
 3.67581004e+01  6.78306474e+01  1.90173648e+02 -2.30935682e+00
 -7.58643734e+02 -1.29045399e+03]

```

```
In [57]: # pair the feature names with the coefficients
list(zip(X, linreg.coef_))
```

```
Out[57]: [('MSSubClass', -132.59825288297418),
('LotArea', 1.1726485927894912),
('OverallQual', 32797.431340275551),
('OverallCond', 352.01713092259615),
('YearBuilt', 74.238575183515508),
('YearRemodAdd', 387.16647668821042),
('MasVnrArea', 68.779764836201025),
('BsmtFinSF1', 30.550814975040396),
('BsmtFinSF2', 4.811953445828749),
('WoodDeckSF', 39.446080031209931),
('OpenPorchSF', 82.458625258585016),
('EnclosedPorch', 25.508319545409904),
('3SsnPorch', 36.758100373945126),
('ScreenPorch', 67.830647415049953),
('PoolArea', 190.17364768682),
('MiscVal', -2.309356818373999),
('MoSold', -758.64373443570901),
('YrSold', -1290.4539903809468)]
```

0.0.4 Make Prediction

```
In [58]: y_pred = linreg.predict(X_test)
print(y_pred)
```

```
[ 93201.65287675  142554.76960023  207127.40186274  129212.10104713
 284603.13460876   65916.12615103  200722.35383783  169593.14341713
 138022.19789723  138387.20437863  143561.19507458  150824.4043784
 141397.06769187  242451.92943507  294242.12637714  155754.66681213
 137312.71913462  129724.80248527  114876.63835247  150591.3640421
 123366.39990094  150807.12337525  243530.22799299  80763.41783606
 197680.6442071   103336.1791911   164351.0638006   90905.30200621
 168564.67988019  115830.7939216   155494.23908365  100141.70869163
 129753.99108892  156909.62744952   198024.33401226  127554.26516619
 202396.44876193  110389.71894826   176051.07333227  145661.99691863
 220408.37444225  116538.72044784   244706.34275193  195197.31242857
 278775.03276079  152402.88891841   144044.1694957   99239.71058997
 131931.4514502   110682.0707577   286158.2247229   135834.2312254
 97216.99608222  143430.65499509   119919.1222882   142851.58478543
 204412.40936722  153442.22728046   132396.82935032  257628.30990488
 169933.91094914  120347.46703607   105703.73721332  334713.28117372
 114893.96280934  234743.60884166   183600.27577235  258490.04570492
 375690.10951031  111056.04841375   172340.59505253  136413.8949467
 144985.53609179  223770.11250678   153958.15058402  118182.70605492
 231712.95504903  102900.49898239   154389.2668046   127207.38840213
 145004.55720471  176843.72114247   169051.0221719   148482.89114126
```

313474.32652747	152493.90863482	173352.98469532	126431.410949
706997.59838104	273836.15113809	408289.15199464	184268.88377474
176636.23715661	275235.88756875	209025.79856597	301622.54866502
153471.41164935	210322.3456924	140373.14967059	147240.88073756
179983.14477495	236775.79874229	144459.66092891	253623.49760802
176613.8745506	229147.89622806	185611.33497853	184942.64455848
68523.77301979	111428.57621911	95690.85464389	210924.92842256
236920.78986689	179625.99265486	146998.08010809	218710.14496723
128961.12389426	144822.81021683	180904.35339614	126176.27283423
99200.6426002	257960.86042887	200015.00187306	189350.38765334
161309.58475033	188509.81215872	207842.304773	133745.60572444
146175.12018952	311506.70403465	123810.46022005	178891.00062911
161368.3460505	141225.57119693	247990.6084084	134197.93148368
105114.81700542	66238.30229136	178481.22924629	169327.77885027
115722.77661632	163980.78329632	259041.24033003	263441.73011914
283269.97449944	291907.40480834	197028.67375584	253486.2658659
104257.64311109	332402.81936497	235123.35447297	117530.28281743
331867.34936129	166007.48240655	203642.02685762	366937.27511738
254191.87188157	124456.0621068	91276.03127415	115556.73782587
135405.78846278	218110.30607514	214268.7945742	140032.81401882
182040.72686091	176083.82849172	189209.9335995	116292.72416312
156432.52235127	204191.85524977	243977.32691289	217247.92836948
285376.77266393	246843.94978091	222100.61618257	167537.81203899
173903.04681628	161022.49525822	142938.09421832	236955.86271045
118908.1141022	191184.99717802	264889.79476426	125154.14702448
227251.47377346	237911.61180972	161841.30235331	191446.14163809
116625.79736531	145735.12537565	105372.79335894	316582.43267848
122028.63732317	290593.52200424	185714.04747969	190352.49050499
231514.01368592	230079.79348368	127676.13717555	211300.51925447
195483.82714307	192652.60353829	165237.26624796	120930.29413027
246160.5957099	281456.29298689	246797.10864379	119311.41048692
125885.59543623	237312.78172775	80648.88617473	121685.26043487
114935.23554672	161184.27138098	148054.27442727	131650.06362918
201165.65733849	296531.91858395	130462.5135931	249027.70239568
177623.04403208	166277.96320103	94660.31809216	72766.55532673
120114.744019	102331.03622172	132734.52163217	195045.15386957
206238.5262443	254559.77871816	103180.37264793	217595.03298126
200740.09709761	309978.95599912	120679.0962053	105614.64472826
246644.91857921	132884.29067159	333136.91588735	167381.82062275
160037.46133837	280268.75854488	166764.14578859	163691.73116515
172120.87702276	86744.64311271	159726.64897898	152045.32160112
148376.7717957	261196.38354104	190853.69410498	147271.05605036
126117.61348537	122639.71249082	227607.46595295	170013.76929953
136917.40993332	157131.07140997	127090.52733891	135446.00011116
271380.56027395	138338.59566889	233995.26083728	141733.47586868
138265.15523182	200673.53942787	186815.23291077	226030.65231941
197560.45885543	392086.99980809	199746.97825355	194749.30417935
122346.88308178	170839.72571199	37264.46454778	153581.22281016

```

183230.11599231 143418.12876415 170655.31440413 60936.55821163
279635.84539619 141986.8959917 163848.54119987 130962.64226048
194210.12078339 222988.18563234 252212.98444331 371404.24966183
219031.5941132 63288.51714085 112594.85348706 139413.4862122 ]

```

0.0.5 Finally Check Error

0.0.6 Here, we use Root Mean Squared Error (RMSE) which is the square root of the mean of the squared errors for error checking:

$$\sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2}$$

```
In [59]: from sklearn import metrics
        import numpy as np

print(np.sqrt(metrics.mean_squared_error(y_test, y_pred)))
```

46554.0967726

0.0.7 Using logistic Regression

```
In [8]: from sklearn.linear_model import LogisticRegression
logreg = LogisticRegression()
logreg.fit(X_train, y_train)
y_pred = logreg.predict(X_test)
print(y_pred)
```

```
[135000 139400 215000 85000 259500 108480 161750 93000 103600 129500
 80000 112000 115000 194000 171000 145000 130250 130500 151000 395192
135000 266500 335000 135000 197000 110000 116000 135000 139000 98000
181000 52500 110000 161000 248328 149000 215000 112500 143000 138000
224900 86000 215000 162900 190000 165500 79000 87000 135000 112000
223000 85400 90000 145000 143000 129500 204900 145000 127500 275000
194000 114500 157900 260400 143500 254900 180000 190000 223000 150000
215000 89500 145000 276000 111250 220000 172500 118964 130500 127000
137000 146000 196000 123600 380000 266500 229000 129900 324000 181000
260400 144152 202500 279500 319000 190000 130500 167000 171000 140000
142000 250000 98000 275000 79900 215000 193000 199900 139600 143000
137450 185900 328900 215000 259500 205950 87000 143900 167240 127000
101800 224900 196500 167000 108959 180000 162000 129900 176000 319000
124500 155900 266000 106000 215000 147000 121600 110000 165000 176000
 79900 181000 195400 290000 315750 260400 153900 325624 112500 293077
181000 141000 342643 139000 135000 325000 174000 82500 78000 131500
120500 446261 378500 135000 191000 177500 79000 80000 258000 155900
263000 220000 378500 165000 184900 214000 128500 165500 159000 185900
160000 146000 240000 131500 328900 239000 166000 191000 80000 118000]
```

```
81000 325000 117500 222000 136905 202665 220000 266000 109500 244600  
181000 159500 140000 98000 195400 184900 378500 110000 200000 278000  
161500 135000 180500 144152 190000 114500 181134 297000 147000 143750  
155900 142000 107500 99500 117500 116050 115000 181000 215000 203000  
122000 138800 104900 315000 136905 169000 250000 149000 305900 149000  
164900 229000 181000 158000 144000 125500 145000 243000 130500 250000  
179900 158000 145000 117500 187500 145000 117000 130000 135000 99500  
215000 89000 143000 189950 154000 145000 163000 200000 181000 264132  
150000 289000 167000 137900 67000 145000 127500 141500 214000 151000  
209500 118000 161500 127500 143250 230000 290000 485000 191000 85000  
110000 173000]
```

0.0.8 Classification accuracy:

0.0.9 Proportion of correct predictions

0.0.10 Common evaluation metric for classification problems

```
In [10]: from sklearn import metrics  
import numpy as np  
print(metrics.accuracy_score(y_test, y_pred))
```

0.0

```
bibtext report
```

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
I found no \citation commands---while reading file report.aux
I found no \bibdata command---while reading file report.aux
I found no \bibstyle command---while reading file report.aux
(There were 3 error messages)
make[2]: *** [bibtex] Error 2
```

```
latex report
```

```
[2017-12-08 04.01.20] pdflatex report.tex
This is pdfTeX, Version 3.14159265-2.6-1.40.17 (TeX Live 2016) (preloaded format=pdflatex)
Font shape 'TS1/cmtt/bx/n' undefined using 'TS1/cmtt/m/n' instead for symbol 'textquotes
Some font shapes were not available, defaults substituted.
Typesetting of "report.tex" completed in 0.6s.
./README.yml
9:81     error    line too long (86 > 80 characters)  (line-length)
19:1     error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
23:81    error    line too long (89 > 80 characters)  (line-length)
23:89    error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
24:77    error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
25:81    error    line too long (106 > 80 characters)  (line-length)
25:106   error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
26:81    error    line too long (109 > 80 characters)  (line-length)
26:109   error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
38:81    error    line too long (88 > 80 characters)  (line-length)
38:88    error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
39:81    error    line too long (87 > 80 characters)  (line-length)
39:87    error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
40:49    error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
```

```
wc: report.bib: open: No such file or directory
```

```
Compliance Report
```

```
name: Wu, Yujie
hid: 235
paper1: 100%, 10/27/2017
```

paper2: 100%, 11/06/2017

yamlcheck

wordcount

8

wc 235 project 8 1986 report.tex
wc 235 project 8 1260 report.pdf
wc 235 project 8 0 report.bib

find "

236: \def\PYZdq{\char`\"}

passed: False

find footnote

passed: True

find input{format/i523}

passed: False

find input{format/final}

passed: False

floats

24: \let\Oldincludegraphics\includegraphics
26: \renewcommand{\includegraphics}[1]{\Oldincludegraphics[width=.8\ma
xwidth]{#1}}
386: test}\label{splitting-into-train-and-test}
420: \subsubsection{Using Linear Regression}\label{using-linear-
regression}
439: model}\label{show-the-coefficients-of-the-linear-regression-

```
    model}
485: \subsubsection{Make Prediction}\label{make-prediction}
570: \subsubsection{Finally Check Error}\label{finally-check-error}
574: checking:}\label{here-we-use-root-mean-squared-error-rmse-which-
      is-the-square-root-of-the-mean-of-the-squared-errors-for-error-
      checking}
592: Regression}\label{using-logistic-regression}
637: \subsubsection{Classification accuracy:}\label{classification-
      accuracy}
640: predictions}\label{proportion-of-correct-predictions}
643: problems}\label{common-evaluation-metric-for-classification-
      problems}
```

```
figures 0
tables 0
includegraphics 2
labels 10
refs 0
floats 0
```

```
True : ref check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
False : label check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
False : include graphics passed: (figures >= includegraphics)
False : check if all figures are refered to: (refs >= labels)
```

```
Label/ref check
passed: True
```

```
When using figures use columnwidth
[width=1.0\columnwidth]
do not change the number to a smaller fraction
```

```
find textwidth
```

```
passed: True
```

```
below_check
```

```
bibtex
```

```
label errors
```

```
ERROR reading report.bib
```

```
bibtex_empty_fields
```

```
entries in general should not be empty in bibtex
```

```
find ""
```

```
ERROR reading report.bib
```

```
ascii
```

```
=====
The following tests are optional
=====
```

```
Tip: newlines can often be replaced just by an empty line
```

```
find newline
```

```
passed: True
```

```
cites should have a space before \cite{} but not before the {
```

```
find cite {
```

```
passed: True
```

Importance of Big data in predicting stock returns and price

Gagan Arora
Indiana University
2709 E 10th St
Bloomington, Indiana 47401
gkarora@iu.edu

ABSTRACT

In this project, we will discuss the importance of big data in finance industry in predicting financial stock values. We will be using python libraries to fetch financial data from yahoo finance and will further predict the stock price returns of few selected technology companies such as Amazon, Yahoo depending on the historical data of x[16] years. Similarly, we will predict the returns based on y[10] years of data. The prediction will be based on SP 500 market return and market risk volatility. Here y is greater than x and then we will compare the predicted returns with the current returns. For the comparison we will be using the testing time frame as mentioned in the project later. This project will help us understand if more historic data helps in predicting the stock price returns or it adds noise. We will be using statistical approach and CAPM [capital asset pricing model] to predict stock price. Analysis will be done on the jupyter notebook

KEYWORDS

HID-301, Stock Price prediction, stock returns, SP500, risk free market, CAPM model, root mean square analysis, stock beta, Finance, Statistics,mean, variance, market premium, python,yahoo finance, i523

1 INTRODUCTION

By its nature of the business, the finance industry is always driven and dominated by data. The existence of Big data in the finance industry has exposed the big opportunity of growth and value extraction but at the same time imposed the various new challenges, which demand new skill set. [5] suggests that finance experts believe there is a huge potential in terms of value extraction from the financial big data. They also believe that finance industry can benefit more than any other industry. Historically, data was always there in some format either non-digital or digital. However, with digitalization, this data has fallen into the prevalence of high volume of information, which we call as Big Data. Dominant drivers for the actuality of big data in the finance industry are mainly customer call logs, social media, news feed, regulatory data etc. Call logs, news feed and etc. fall into the category of unstructured data which is identified as an area where we can extract vast amount of business value.

[4] talks about the three V of big data in finance industry: volume, velocity and variety. [6] clearly depicts the amount of financial data pouring in the daily basis. TechNaviofis forecast (Technavio 2016) predicts data will grow at a CAGR [compound annual growth rate] of 61 percent over the period of 2017-2021. According to the IDC financial insight 2016, every second there is around 10,000-payment

card transaction and this number is expected to double by the end of this decade. The Capgemini/RBS Global payments study for 2012 suggests there was about 260 billion transactions in 2012 and is expected to grow between 15 and 22 percent for developing countries. Main drivers contributing to the big data in the finance industry are Data growth, increasing scrutiny from regulators, digitalization of financial products, changing the business model and increased customer insight platforms such as customer service. [4] shows 76 percent of banks say the business driver for embracing big data is to enhance customer engagement, retention, and loyalty and seventy one percent of banks say that to increase their revenue, they need to better understand customers and big data will help them to do so.

Thinking about the data strategy, the financial industry has taken the business-driven approach to a big data. According to the IBM report, all financial organizations are not keeping the same pace as peer industry is keeping. Today because of increased competition, customers always expect more personalized banking service and at the same time, there is increased regulatory surveillance which in result creates big pressure on finance industry to better utilize the value of Big data. To achieve better-personalized experience, many banks have started the initiative to utilize the information gained from the vast ocean of data to offer better-personalized products and gain competitive advantage. Despite the fact that financial industry is data-driven, there is a gap in the amount of initiative financial industry has taken to extract the value out of big financial data. Technavio 2016 report has shown only 26 percent of financial organizations has focused on understanding the principal notation of Big data and most of those 26 percent are still struggling to define the clear roadmap. This clearly concludes that finance industry lag behind their cross-industry peers in using more varied data types. A good example to support this fact is that there are very less research and domain knowledge in extracting value out of retail bank call logs.

Big data technologies not only help in extracting the effective business value but analysis of unstructured data in conjunction with a wide variety of data set also helps in extracting commercial value. Big data in finance industry does not necessarily decode to valuable or actionable information. The real benefit lies in developing the technologies, which can be used to extract business and commercial value. [15] talks about what all advantage we can extract from the big data in the finance industry. Few examples are: Detection of false rumors that try to manipulate the finance market, Assessment of exposure to a reputational risk connected to consulting service offered by banks to their customer and Discover topic trends, detect events, or support the portfolio optimization

or asset allocation. Big data based pattern recognition can also help in enhanced fraud detection systems and prevention capability systems. Other benefits of utilizing big data include building a machine learning based algorithm to achieve higher performance and accuracy in the trading algorithm and Enhanced market trading analysis. There has been proven research [12] which states more data increases accuracy and precision of simulations which is the backbone of financial modeling based analytics. This research [12] states modern modeling techniques are data hungry. In this project we will extract inference if more financial data can be used to have better prediction.

2 USE OF STRUCTURED FINANCIAL DATA

This reflects the data which has a higher degree of an organization such as a relational database where information/data is easily searchable and we can easily apply standard algorithm to extract patterns out of it. In this project we will be using Yahoo finance structured data. Examples of such data set include yahoo financial data, trading applications, enterprise finance resource planner, Retail banking systems, Credit history database systems and other financial applications that use legacy application systems. Structured data always has a big advantage of being easily entered, stored, queried and analyzed. Most of the personal banking financial statements are stored in a structured way. Structured dataset combined with the distributed systems can be leveraged to achieve structured big data set on which we can run optimized SQL queries to retrieve patterns. [9] discusses various SQL based ways to specify information quality in data which can be used to filter out the noise. In this project we will be using structured data.

3 VARIOUS CHALLENGES UTILIZING BIG DATA VALUE IN FINANCE INDUSTRY

There are multiple challenges and constraints in extracting value out of big financial data. The biggest challenge is old IT culture and infrastructure. The much financial organization still uses old IT infrastructure which is not compatible with the big data application thus fail to take advantage of big data. Other challenges include lack of skill set and data privacy and security. With the emergence of digitalization, customer data is saved persistently because of which there has been continued concern regarding the customer privacy. Regulatory bodies guidelines on customer data are always ill-defined because of which there is always a concern regarding the use of customer data. In this project we will use standard python libraries to fetch financial data from yahoo finance. Analysis will be done on the jupyter notebook.

4 STOCK RETURNS PREDICTION - LITERATURE REVIEW

Authors of [1] discuss the importance of stock price and returns prediction based on the data extraction of historic data. This research [1] also shows historic financial data has definitive predictive relationship to the future value of stocks. Stock prediction always help investors to decide perfect timing of buying or selling stocks. There are various data mining, artificial neural networks and machine learning techniques available for the stock price prediction based on the value extraction from the historic financial data. Based

on the complexity of stock price matrix, pricing mechanism is essentially a non linear complex system. Authors of [14] and [13] state many predictive algorithm is based on the fundamental analysis of macroeconomics and company fundamentals. [11] states problem with the fundamental analysis is that it is too much focused on the intrinsic and lacks the quantitative aspect of the historic financial data. On the broad category we can define stock prediction analysis is based on two types of analysis: qualitative and quantitative. Choice of analysis is mainly based on the fact if we want to have short term analysis or long term analysis. In this project we have have ten and sixteen years of training data and used close to one year of testing data. Since our analysis is based on the historic data we have choosen to do quantitative analysis. Quantitative analysis is based on the pattern extraction, fact that history repeats and future financial drivers can be extracted based on the historic data. Advantage of using quantitative analysis is that we can use statistical confidence interval to validate the analysis.

There is a huge benefit of using machine learning algorithms in predicting stock prices. These algorithms made easy to cope up with the various financial events such as mergers acquisitions, bankruptcy, fraud, political changes, market crashes, housing bubble, dot net bubble and etc. In this project we have used hybrid approach of combined CAPM [Capital asset pricing] model and machine learning algorithm to mine data of sixteen and ten years of data and used close to 1 year of testing data. These machine learning algorithms can further be used to predict various financial events. Other approaches suchs as neural networks algorithms, SVM, logistic regression and multiple descriminator analysis can also be used to predict financial events. Example, [2] in their research they proved neural networks algorithms performs better in predicting financial events as compared to multiple descriminator analysis. There are other applications which use these algorithm to find predicted credit rating of a company. Credit rating plays a very important role doing qualitative analysis of the financial health of a company. On the other hand, accuracy of these algorithm is a big challenge because of the amount of huge data which it uses as input. Typically, accuracy of these algorithms is validated based on square root method.

In this project we have used several years of data for analysis which involves more than hundred thousands of rows with multiple columns. Then this data is analyzed two dimensionally with the same set of market return rows. Since this analysis is calculation intense, In the end we also have performed root mean square analysis.

Over the past few years there has been drastic changes in the way stock market operates. With the emergence of advance web services, there has been powerful enhancement in the data communication between various financial application. Because of which there is ocean of real time data is available, thus machine learning algorithm, neural networks algorithms, SVM, logistic regression and multiple descriminator analysis needs to be smarter. Forecasting stocks and financial parameter is of great interest to the investors. As discussed earlier these algorithms needs to modified depending on the fact if we want to have short term profit or long term profit.

[8] has shown the very interesting analysis of comparing the prediction of stock market with the random walk hypothesis. Author of [8] ran an experiment in which he tossed a coin and recordes

the results and mapped head with the company profit and tail with the company loss. Then result of this experiment was shown to the investors pretending these are the actual market profit and loss. Looking at the result graphs, investors believed it as a actual prediction. This research has shown the altogether different outlook which states stock price prediction and forecast can be fooled and stock prices are perfectly random in nature. On this theory many researchers have classified profit based on three hypothesis:

- Weak form Efficient Market Hypothesis: The weak form of the hypothesis states one can not generate profit by just looking at patterns and trends of stock market.
- Semi Strong Efficient Market Hypothesis: The semi strong form of the hypothesis states only possible way of generating profit is via inside trading.
- Strong form Efficient Market Hypothesis: The strong strong form of the hypothesis states its not possible to generate profit since stock market behaves in perfect random way.

However, if we are running root mean square analysis we can surely compare the accuracy of various algorithm and arrive at conclusion which algorithm is viable for prediction.

5 FINANCIAL DATA EXTRACTION

In this section, we will discuss various technical requirements needed to achieve value extraction from the big data in the finance industry. There are various technical requirements such as data Acquisition, data quality, data extraction, data integration, decision support. In order to fulfill requirements, a hybrid approach combining computer science, algorithms, statistics, data mining, machine learning and pattern recognition study needs to be adopted. To explore the advantage of big data there have been initiatives like data virtualization, multi-document summarization, pattern recognition from LOGS and many start-ups have been emerged. All big companies such as Microsoft, Google, IBM and Amazon are investing heavily in this field to leverage business and commercial value out of it. There has been changed in the industry pattern where financial industry is resorting big data to strategize their business. According to [6] with a very rapid pace, the financial industry is utilizing big data advantage in investment analysis, econometrics, risk assessment, fraud detection, trading, customer interaction analysis and behavior modeling. If we look at the Big promise the Big data holds in the finance industry, progress in this field is still in nascent stage and we expect more growth in upcoming years. In this project we will discuss jupyter notebook based solution for Data extraction.

In this project we have used jupyter notebook and rich python libraries to fetch financial stock data. Later in this paper we will discuss the stock data extraction in detail. Later we will also discuss what are different ways to fetch stock data and will discuss few important functions which python libraries

6 FETCHING FINANCIAL STOCK DATA

Fetching structured precise data is always a challenge. There are different ways to fetch the stock market data. In this project we will be fetching data from yahoo finance via python libraries which internally makes remote web service call to the yahoo webserver. There are also other ways to fetch data such as:

- Direct download of csv files from yahoo finance or google websites.
- Make web api call to download the data in the json/XML format
- Use python libraries to download data, which internally makes remote web service call to the yahoo webserver. This is preferred way of doing since it allows you to save data to system variables directly.
- Call yahoo or finance web service from the application.
- Calling VBA function in excel to fetch yahoo stock data
- Quandl best for using core financial data and this website also includes access to rich python libraries.
- Google sheet has feature to fetch real time stock prices
- Install stocks macros in excel

In this project we have exhaustively used python for data manipulation. Reasons for using python are:

- Syntax is super easy which comes with very level of readability as compared to other programming languages.
- It is free and supports cross platform as python code can be called from any version of machine.
- Python has strong community support so if any problem is encountered, support is available online.
- Python has powerful tools available such as statsmodels, matplotlib, Pandas,Numpy and SciPyfor calculation intense projects

Since we have exhaustively used the `get_data_yahoo` function from the `pandas_datareader` python library we will briefly discuss the parameters it takes. Please note we utilized only those arguments which are relevant to the project requirements. From [10] parameter list as listed below:

- `symbols` : string, array-like object (list, tuple, Series), or DataFrame Single stock symbol (ticker), array-like object of symbols or DataFrame with index containing stock symbols.
- `start` : string, (defaults to '1/1/2010') Starting date, timestamp. Parses many different kind of date representations (e.g., 'JAN-01-2010', '1/1/10', 'Jan, 1, 1980')
- `end` : string, (defaults to today) Ending date, timestamp. Same format as starting date.
- `retry_count` : int, default 3 Number of times to retry query request.
- `pause` : int, default 0 Time, in seconds, to pause between consecutive queries of chunks. If single value given for symbol, represents the pause between retries.
- `session` : Session, default None requests.Session instance to be used
- `adjust_price`: bool, default False If True, adjusts all prices in hist data ('Open','High', 'Low','Close') based on 'Adj Close' price. Adds 'Adj Ratio' column and drops 'Adj Close'.
- `ret_index` : bool, default False If True, includes a simple return index 'Ret Index' in hist data.
- `chunksize` : int, default 25 Number of symbols to download consecutively before initiating pause.
- `interval` : string, default 'd' Time interval code, valid values are 'd' for daily, 'w' for weekly, 'm' for monthly and 'v' for dividend.

In our analysis, for the symbol parameter we are passing ticker symbol one at a time. Though, we have an option to pass multiple tickers as an array argument. We are using `get_data_yahoo` function and utilizing only first three parameters: symbols, start and end. This function returns `YahooDailyReader` object which can further be manipulated to get Open, High, Low, Close, Adj Close and Volume stock values. Since default number of retry count is three we will be using this default value. Default value of pause which is zero is also good with respect to our requirement so we will not pass this as argument. Session argument should be used when we are handling multiple request in parallel in the code since our project we just need one session so we will not use this argument. `adjust_price` is not required in our analysis since we are interested only in returns which can be fetched using `pct_change()` function. Since return index is of no use in calculating the returns, we will not use this argument. Argument `chunksize` is used to modify number of consecutive downloads of stocks since we are just using single ticker so this argument is of no use. This function uses interval also as a parameter since we are only interested in daily values and daily value is the default interval so we didn't pass this argument in the function call. We could also use the contemporary google function which is `get_data_google`. Arguments which goes to the `get_data_google` are symbols, start, end, `retry_count`, pause, `chunksize` and session since we are not using `get_data_google` function in our project we will not discuss these in detail.

7 INTRODUCTION TO CAPM MODEL

CAPM [Capital asset pricing model] model was developed by William Sharpe and John Lintner in 1964. This model is considered so powerful that it is being used in current prediction models. There are few advantages of using CAPM model as compared to other pricing models:

- This model is a single dimensional model and easy to use, still powerful to model capital asset pricing.
- Since this model is based on the market portfolio and risk free rate, this model removes unsystematic risk.
- We can run root mean square algorithm to validate the algorithm.
- This model provides a flexibility to utilize various risk free rates and run model for various time range.
- This model can be applied to various financial objects such as stocks, put option, call option, bonds, and etc

This model can be used to evaluate the theoretical expected return on a security, security can be any financial object such as stocks, put option, call option, bonds, and etc. In CAPM model we evaluate how much financial object is sensitive to the market using statistical analysis. Then this sensitivity which is also known as beta is used to find the expected return on security. This expected return can be on daily basis, weekly basis, monthly basis or yearly. Here is the formula to evaluate expected return:

$$E(R_i) = r_f + \beta_i(E(r_m) - r_f)$$

Where

- $E(R_i)$ is expected return
- r_f is risk free interest rate example: Government bond
- $E(r_m)$ is return on market example SP 500

- β_i is sensitivity of stock with respect to market

β_i can further be defined how much stock is sensitive to the stock market. Example if β_i for a particular stock is two it means if market goes up by five percent then stock will go up by ten percent and if market goes down by two percent then stock will go down by ten percent. In terms of statistics β_i is defined as:

$$\beta_i = \frac{Cov(R_i, r_m)}{Var(r_m)}$$

Where covariance and variance are defined as

$$\bullet cov_{x,y} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{N-1}$$

$$\bullet var^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2}{n}$$

β_i matrix can be used to illustrate β_i in a following way:

	β_i	MarketReturn	ExpectetReturn
Row1	+2	+5%	+10%
Row2	-2	+5%	-10%
Row3	+0.5	+4%	+2%
Row4	+0.5	-4%	-2%

Above matrix suggests how expected returns can be correlated with the the β_i . Example if for certain company has β_i of +2 and market returns is +5 % then company's expected returns can be predicted as +10 %. Please note β_i can be positive as well as negative.

8 PROPOSED ANALYSIS

In this project we will utilize structured data and use CAPM [Capital asset pricing model] to statistically find the expected daily return of selected technological stocks: Amazon and Yahoo. This daily expected return can be used to predict next day stock value given the condition we have current stock price. Following formula can be used to predict next day stock price:

Next Day stock price =: Today stock price * (1+Daily expected return)

Daily expected return will be calculated using CAPM model. Daily expected return sensitivity in CAPM terminology is also known as beta. In this project beta will be calculated based on two time frames:

Time frame 1: [01/01/2000 to 12/31/2016] 16 years of data

Time frame 2: [01/01/2006 to 12/31/2016] 10 years of data

Thus we we will have 2 β_i :

$$\beta_1 = \frac{Cov(R_1, r_{m1})}{Var(r_{m1})}$$

$$\beta_2 = \frac{Cov(R_2, r_{m2})}{Var(r_{m2})}$$

Where

- β_1 is β based on time frame 1

- β_2 is β based on time frame 2
- R_1 is actual return based on time frame 1
- r_{m1} is a mean market return based on time frame 1
- R_2 is actual return based on time frame 2
- r_{m2} is a mean market return based on time frame 2

Above two time frames will be our training data set. We will run two analysis: one on training time frame 1 and other on training time frame 2 to arrive at predicted CAPM variables. Then we will use this training data set to predict stock returns for test data set which will comprise of time frame:

Test data time frame: 01/01/2017 to 11/16/2017

Then we will run the statistically analysis on the test data to evaluate if 16 years of training data produced more accurate result or else it added noise compared to 10 years of training data. Please note this is purely a quantitative analysis not qualitative. Actual returns can also be impacted by a qualitative factors such as mergers acquisitions, bankruptcy, fraud, political changes, market crashes, housing bubble, dot net bubble and etc.

9 PROPOSED ALGORITHM

Code is written purely in python language and used the powerful rich python libraries such as statsmodels, matplotlib, Pandas, Numpy and SciPyfor. We have used jupyter notebook as interpreter tool to python. Code is started by importing above mentioned rich python libraries. Since we are interested only in technological stocks: Amazon and yahoo we need to initialize they stock ticker with the python variable. In CAPM model we need to know the market return in order to know the stock sensitivity we will also initialize market ticker with SP 500 index. As discussed above we will be using get_data_yahoo function from the pandas_datareader and in this project we will be only utilizing only first three parameters which is stock ticker, start date and end date. For first iteration we will be using get_data_yahoo to fetch stocks and market returns for time frame 1. For having better understanding of how the data looks when fetched using get_data_yahoo function, we will have amazon financial data matrix calculated like:

```
amazonData = dr.get_data_yahoo('AMZN', start_date, end_date)
```

Where

- dr is pandas_datareader.data class
- amazon is stock ticker for amazon which is 'AMZN'
- start_date is start date of time frame 1: 01/01/2000
- end_date is end date of time frame 1: 12/31/2016

and synopsis of above amazon data looks like:

	Open	High	Low	Close	Adj	Volume
23 - Dec - 16	764.54	766.50	757.98	760.59	760.59	1976900
27 - Dec - 16	763.40	774.65	761.20	771.40	771.40	2638700
28 - Dec - 16	776.25	780.00	770.50	772.13	772.13	3301000
29 - Dec - 16	772.40	773.40	760.84	765.15	765.15	3153500
30 - Dec - 16	766.46	767.40	748.28	749.86	749.86	4139400

Similarly using get_data_yahoo we will fetch Yahoo and market returns. Since we are interested in daily return, we fetched the daily data from yahoo finance which is evident from the above result data set. Now lets find the percentage change on the daily Close value to get the percentage change array which in finance terminology will be daily return on stock. For finding the percentage change we are using pct_change() function on the close column of result set. This function can be elaborated as follows:

```
return_amazon = amazonData.Close.pct_change()[1 :]
return_yahoo = yahooData.Close.pct_change()[1 :]
return_market = marketData.Close.pct_change()[1 :]
```

return_amazon, return_yahoo and return_market are two dimensional arrays and we need to convert them to single dimensional array in order to run statistical analysis. We can use dot values method to extract single dimensional array out of 2 dimensional array. This operation can be elaborated as follows:

```
X_amazon_actualReturns = return_amazon_testing.values
X2_yahoo_actualReturns = return_yahoo_testing.values
Y_market_actualReturns = return_market_testing.values
```

Please note these are actual returns - fetched from yahoo finance. Now in order to evaluate expected return for the testing period based on the calculated beta we need to calculate the risk free rate r_f as mentioned above in the CAPM formula. Please note get_data_yahoo formula will fetch the annualized rate but here we are dealing with the daily returns so this needs to be normalized to daily rate. Here we are using Treas Yld Index-10 Yr Nts bond. Ticker symbol for Treas Yld Index-10 Yr Nts bond is TNX. Please note get_data_yahoo will return columns: Open, High, Low, Close, Adj Close and Volume. Dot values will convert to 2 dimensional array and then used index [0][4] to fetch annual rate. Detailed code with comments is mentioned on jupyter notebook.

Conversion of annualized return to daily return can be done using following formula:

```
riskFreeDailyRate = (1 + riskFreeAnnualRate)(1/365) - 1
```

Now we need to copy the content of X_amazon_actualReturns to new array X_amazon_predictedReturns and initialized each element in X_amazon_predictedReturns using CAPM model as discussed above in Introduction:

```
X_amazon_predictedReturns = list(X_amazon_actualReturns)
```

We will do the same for Yahoo stocks:

```
X2_yahoo_predictedReturns = list(X2_yahoo_actualReturns)
```

In the code we have run the while loop and each element of X_amazon_predictedReturns and X2_yahoo_predictedReturns is assigned the value based on CAPM model. Now we have two returns arrays for amazon stocks based on sixteen years of data:

- X_amazon_actualReturns are the actual returns
- X_amazon_predictedReturns are returns based on the CAPM model.

Similarly we have two returns arrays for yahoo stocks based on sixteen years of data:

- X2_yahoo_actualReturns are the actual returns
- X2_yahoo_predictedReturns are the returns based on the CAPM model.

Now we can utilize mean_squared_error function from the sklearn.metrics python library to find how predicted returns are deviated from the actual returns. We will run this function on both stocks, amazon and yahoo:

```
a1 = Y_market_actualReturns
a2 = X_amazon_predictedReturns
y1 = Y_market_actualReturns
y2 = X2_yahoo_predictedReturns

rms_amazon = sqrt(mean_squared_error(a1,a2))
rms_yahoo = sqrt(mean_squared_error(y1,y2))
```

Here is the root mean square values for both the stocks under sixteen years of data case:

- Root mean square error for Amazon stocks analysis based on 16 years of data 0.0013770 or 0.137 percent
- Root mean square error for Yahoo stocks analysis based on 16 years of data 0.0014313 or 0.143 percent

Now we run the same analysis as discussed above for the ten years of data and will validate how much predicted stocks returns based on the ten years of data are deviated from the actual returns using root mean square method. Please note testing data set remains the same we are just using different training data set. This will let us compare if sixteen years of data is of more worth in predicting stock returns or it added noise to the analysis:

- Root mean square error for Amazon stocks analysis based on 10 years of data 0.0005310 or 0.053 percent
- Root mean square error for Yahoo stocks analysis based on 10 years of data 0.0014910 or 0.149 percent

Above analysis is purely quantitative and does not include any elements of qualitative analysis. It shows predicting yahoo stock price or its returns based on the sixteen years of data or ten years of data - both resulted in almost same results. However things are totally different for the amazon stocks, recent ten years of amazon stocks data produced more accurate results as compared to using recent sixteen years of data. Author of [7] agrees with the fact that most recent financial data are the better predictors of the future price returns. Though, in the [7] author has used the neural networks and support vector machine for prediction. Author also stressed that neural networks algorithm produced better accuracy than other machine learning algorithms.

10 THREE PARADIGMS OF PREDICTION

Data prediction and analysis done in this project is purely quantitative. However there are other paradigms of predictions also which we will discuss here. Example in above analysis we totally missed the qualitative aspect of the data. This is why it explains recent data on amazon stocks produced better results. Here are the other prediction paradigms explained by the author of [3] :

- Quantitative research based prediction. This is a method where we utilize statistical tools to arrive at predictive value based on data
- Quantitative research based prediction. This is a method where we utilize conceptual knowledge to arrive at predicted value. Example of such study would be prediction of stocks based on the events such as mergers acquisitions, bankruptcy, Fraud, political changes, market crashes, housing bubble, dot net bubble and etc.
- Mixed research based prediction. This is a hybrid method where we utilize both qualitative and quantitative results to predict result.

In this project we used quantitative based approach to validate the fact if more data is good for prediction or it adds noise. Result of this project also showed there is a importance of recent data in predicting results. This is also validated by the research done under [7]

11 FUTURE WORK

In this project, analysis is based on two technological stocks: yahoo and amazon. We can extend our study to more diverse portfolio by including more stocks from various industries. Technological stocks tend to be more volatile than other stocks. Since this project is purely quantitative based prediction we deliberately choosen the technological stocks to leverage their volatility. More accurate prediction could also be made by encapsulating qualitative based prediction in the analysis which is more like a hybrid approach. Such hybrid approaches includes assigning weight to each predictions and taking cumulative result. As the part of future work we can also compare results across industry and arrive at conclusion which industry is more stable in prediction. Comparison can based on the root mean square analysis which is discussed in this project report.

12 CONCLUSION

Main objective of doing this project is to know the importance of big data in predicting financial variables. Analysis of this project is based on two stocks: amazon and yahoo. We started this project report with the discussion of importance of big data in financial industry. In the introduction we discussed how various industries are investing in the Big Data to attain higher standards in terms of quality and customer satisfaction. Then we discussed what are the various types of data available: structured and unstructured. Since in this project we utilized only structured data so it was discussed deeply. This project report also touch base with various challenges financial industry takes in utilizing the value of big data. As the part of literature review we reviewed various researches done in the field of stock returns prediction. In the financial data extraction section we reviewed various technical requirements need

for financial data extraction. As the part of data analysis for this project we discussed what are the various ways to fetch live stock data from yahoo or google server. In this project we used the rich financial python libraries for the analysis so we discussed them in details in this report. Financial model which we chose for the prediction is the CAPM model which is explained theoretically in this report. There are two different section where we discussed the proposed analysis and proposed algorithm. We finally concluded the report by discussing three paradigms of prediction. In the end we also mentioned what further can be done under future work section.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The author would like to thank Dr. Gregor von Laszewski and TAs for their support and suggestions to write this paper. TAs and professor are very good in terms of providing valuable guidance and suggestion in a very prompt fashion.

REFERENCES

- [1] Qasem Al-Radaideh, Adel Abu Assaf, and Eman Alnagi. 2013. Predicting Stock Prices Using Data Mining Techniques. (12 2013). https://www.researchgate.net/publication/281865047_Predicting_Stock_Prices_Using_Data_Mining_Techniques
- [2] A. F. Atiya. 2001. Bankruptcy prediction for credit risk using neural networks: A survey and new results. *IEEE Transactions on Neural Networks* 12, 4 (Jul 2001), 929–935. <https://doi.org/10.1109/72.935101>
- [3] Adam Chu. 2017. Quantitative, Qualitative, and Mixed Research. (2017). <https://www.bcps.org/offices/lis/researchcourse/images/lec2.pdf>
- [4] Daniel D. Gutierrez. 2014. *Big Data for Finance*. Technical Report. Dell & Intel. https://whitepapers.em360tech.com/wp-content/files_mf/1427803213insideBIGDATAGuidetoBigDataforFinance.pdf
- [5] Kazim Hussain and Elsa Prieto. 2015. *Big Data in Finance*. Chapman and Hall/CRC, <https://www.cs.helsinki.fi/u/jilu/paper/bigdataapplication04.pdf>, Chapter 17, 329–356.
- [6] Kazim Hussain and Elsa Prieto. 2016. *Big Data in the Finance and Insurance Sectors*. Springer, Cham, "<https://link.springer.com/content/pdf/10.1007/>", Chapter 12, 209–223.
- [7] Hui Lin. 2014. Stanford. (2014). <https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/56f0/59ea400f31b60bfde4d59aea71bd7b411553.pdf>
- [8] Burton G. Malkiel. 2015. *A Random Walk Down Wall Street: The Time-Tested Strategy for Successful Investing*. Recorded Books on Brilliance Audio. <https://www.amazon.com/Random-Walk-Down-Wall-Street/dp/1501260375?SubscriptionId=0JYN1NVW651KCA56C102&tag=techkie-20&linkCode=xm2&camp=2025&creative=165953&creativeASIN=1501260375>
- [9] A. Parsian, W. Yeoh, and M. S. Ee. 2015. Quality-Based SQL: Specifying Information Quality in Relational Database Queries. *Computer* 48, 9 (Sept 2015), 69–74. <https://doi.org/10.1109/MC.2015.264>
- [10] Kevin Sheppard. 2017. daily.py. (2017). https://github.com/pydata/pandas-datareader/blob/master/pandas_datareader/yahoo/daily.py
- [11] Philip M. Tsang, Paul Kwok, S.O. Choy, Reggie Kwan, S.C. Ng, Jacky Mak, Jonathan Tsang, Kai Koong, and Tak-Lam Wong. 2007. Design and implementation of NN5 for Hong Kong stock price forecasting. *Engineering Applications of Artificial Intelligence* 20, 4 (2007), 453 – 461. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.engappai.2006.10.002>
- [12] Tjeerd van der Ploeg, Peter C. Austin, and Ewout W. Steyerberg. 2014. Modern modelling techniques are data hungry a simulation study for predicting dichotomous endpoints. *BMC Medical Research Methodology* 14, 1 (22 Dec 2014), 137. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2288-14-137>
- [13] Martin Walker and Mamoun Al-Debi'e. 2000. Fundamental Information Analysis: An Extension and UK Evidence. *ACS Biomaterials Science & Engineering* 31 (02 2000).
- [14] Mu-Cherng Wu, Sheng-Yu Lin, and Chia-Hsin Lin. 2006. An effective application of decision tree to stock trading. *Science Direct* 31 (08 2006), 270–274.
- [15] Sonja Zillner, Tilman Becker, and Munn. 2016. *Big Data-Driven Innovation in Industrial Sectors*. Springer International Publishing, Cham, Chapter 4, 169–178. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-21569-3_9

A HID 301:GAGAN ARORA

- Identified Project topic.
- Collected the python financial libraries.
- fetched data from yahoo finance
- Studied, designed and reviewed CAPM model
- Implemented CAPM model using python libraries
- Created project report

B CODE REFERENCE

All code, notebooks and files for this project can be found in the github repository: <https://github.com/bigdata-i523/hid301/blob/master/project/finalProject.ipynb>

```
bibtext report
```

```
=====
```

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
Warning--entry type for "Ref7" isn't style-file defined
--line 169 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "Ref8" isn't style-file defined
--line 187 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "Ref14" isn't style-file defined
--line 341 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "Ref15" isn't style-file defined
--line 359 of file report.bib
Warning--empty address in Ref13
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in Ref10
(There were 6 warnings)
```

```
bibtext _ label error
```

```
=====
```

```
bibtext space label error
```

```
=====
```

```
bibtext comma label error
```

```
=====
```

```
latex report
```

```
[2017-12-08 04.01.33] pdflatex report.tex
This is pdfTeX, Version 3.14159265-2.6-1.40.17 (TeX Live 2016) (preloaded format=pdflatex)
Missing character: ""
Missing character: ""
Typesetting of "report.tex" completed in 1.2s.
./README.yml
25:24     error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
33:4      error    wrong indentation: expected 4 but found 3  (indentation)
33:17     error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
35:4      error    wrong indentation: expected 7 but found 3  (indentation)
37:4      error    wrong indentation: expected 7 but found 3  (indentation)
```

```
39:56      error      trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
51:25      error      trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
```

Compliance Report

```
name: Arora, Gagan
hid: 301
paper1: 100% Oct 29 17
paper2: 100% Nov 4
project: 100% 12/2/2017
```

```
yamlcheck
```

```
wordcount
```

```
7
wc 301 project 7 5857 content.tex
wc 301 project 7 5970 report.pdf
wc 301 project 7 866 report.bib
```

```
find "
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find footnote
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find input{format/i523}
```

```
5: \input{format/i523}
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find input{format/final}
```

```
passed: False
```

```
floats
```

```
figures 0
tables 0
includegraphics 0
labels 0
refs 0
floats 0
```

```
True : ref check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
True : label check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
True : include graphics passed: (figures >= includegraphics)
True : check if all figures are refered to: (refs >= labels)
```

```
Label/ref check
passed: True
```

```
When using figures use columnwidth
[width=1.0\columnwidth]
do not change the number to a smaller fraction
```

```
find textwidth
```

```
passed: True
```

```
below_check
```

```
bibtex
```

```
label errors
```

```
bibtex errors
```

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
```

```
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
Warning--entry type for "Ref7" isn't style-file defined
--line 169 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "Ref8" isn't style-file defined
--line 187 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "Ref14" isn't style-file defined
--line 341 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "Ref15" isn't style-file defined
--line 359 of file report.bib
Warning--empty address in Ref13
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in Ref10
(There were 6 warnings)
```

bibtex_empty_fields

entries in general should not be empty in bibtex

find ""

passed: True

ascii

non ascii found 8217

=====

The following tests are optional

=====

Tip: newlines can often be replaced just by an empty line

find newline

312: \textbf{\textit{Next Day stock price }}: Today stock price *
(1+Daily expected return)\newline

320: \textbf{\textit{Time frame 1}}: [01/01/2000 to 12/31/2016] 16
years of data\newline

321: \textbf{\textit{Time frame 2}}: [01/01/2006 to 12/31/2016] 10
years of data\nline

350: \textbf{\textit{Test data time frame}}: 01/01/2017 to
11/16/2017\nline

passed: False

cites should have a space before \cite{} but not before the {

find cite {

passed: True

Predicting Housing Prices - Kaggle Competition

Murali Cheruvu, Anand Sriramulu

Indiana University

3209 E 10th St

Bloomington, Indiana 47408

mcheruvu@iu.edu, asriram@iu.edu

ABSTRACT

Apply exploratory data analysis and implement various advanced supervised machine learning algorithms to predict neighborhood housing sale prices found in the sample test dataset. Compare the predicted models and results from these advanced supervised algorithms. Apply ensembled model to achieve better predictions, hence get good score in kaggle competition.

KEYWORDS

i523, hid306, Supervised Learning Algorithms, Exploratory Data Analysis, Kaggle

1 BACKGROUND

Kaggle website hosts a platform for data science competitions. Predicting housing prices is a competition project maintained by Kaggle. This project has two data sets - *train* and *test*, with 79 exploratory variables describing almost every aspect of residential homes in city of Ames, Iowa state. The goal of this competition is to predict the sale prices of residential homes listed in the test dataset as accurately as possible. Submissions are evaluated on *root mean squared error* (RMSE) between the logarithm of predicted value and the logarithm of observed sale price, also known as *kaggle score*. Submitted file expects two variables: row id and the predicted sale price of each home listed in the test dataset. Our goal is to participate in this competition and get placed within top 20% of the submitted algorithms.

2 INTRODUCTION

Training dataset of the *predicting housing sale prices* project contains sale price of the homes, and using this training data set, how accurately we can predict sale prices of the homes in the test dataset using preprocessing and thorough data analysis. Many developers used advanced learning algorithms - XGBoost, Lasso and Neural Network, to predict the sale prices in the competition and achieved better kaggle scores. We have applied various exploratory analysis techniques and engineer the features before applying a few advanced supervised learning algorithms to create more accurately predicted models.

3 DOMAIN KNOWLEDGE

To predict accurate *sale price*, we will need to understand the domain well. We need to build the intuition around all the exploratory variables in the dataset and focus on which factors could influence the target variable: *sale price*. If we do not find all these factors, perhaps, we need to add new features to address the gaps in dataset describing the domain. Some of the factors which, we think, can directly influence house prices are:

- What is the overall Size or area of the house?
- How good is the location of the house - closer to highways?
- How good is the neighborhood?
- How old is the house?
- What is the quality of the construction?
- How many garages are there in the house?
- What are the floor plans?
- How many number of bedrooms are there in the house?
- How many number of bathrooms are there in the house?
- What is the size of living area?

4 EXPLORATORY DATA ANALYSIS

We can start the process with exploratory data analysis. There are 1460 rows in the training data set and 1459 rows in the test dataset. Out of the 80 variables, 23 are nominal, 23 are ordinal, 14 are discrete, and 20 are continuous. We have combined training and testing datasets for easier analysis. We excluded *Id* attribute as it does not add value in the modeling. We also removed *Sale Price*, the target variable, from the training dataset. All the variables are listed in the appendix section as a reference.

4.1 Handling Missing Values

First part of the analysis was to check for any missing values in the training and testing datasets as shown in figure (1). Using the bar plot shown in figure (2), we have identified that there are 5 variables: *pool quality*, *miscellaneous features*, *alley*, *fence* and *fire place quality*, having the most missing data. All the missed values for the numeric variables are analyzed further to decide whether we need to delete the instances of all the data with missing values or impute them using meaningful data such as median of the corresponding variable.

[Figure 1 about here.]

[Figure 2 about here.]

4.2 Analyze Numerical Variables

There are 37 numerical variables after excluding the *Id* variable. We have analyzed all the numerical variables for data patterns such as skewness in the data and range of the possible values. We have shown *sale price*, *overall quality*, *garage live area* and *year built*, in the figures (4) and (5) as a few sample plots from the numerical analysis. Corresponding code snippet is shown in figure (3).

[Figure 3 about here.]

[Figure 4 about here.]

[Figure 5 about here.]

4.3 Analyze Categorical Variables

There are 43 categorical variables in the combined dataset. We have analyzed all categorical variables and found the ways to fill the missing values. We have also evaluated proper approaches to convert them into numerical factors. Later on in the feature engineering section, we will go through more details on numerical factors. Categorical variable factors and the corresponding code snippet for *neighborhood* and *sale type* are shown in figure (6) and figures (7).

[Figure 6 about here.]

[Figure 7 about here.]

4.4 Analyze Correlations

Numpy package offers correlations functionality to analyze the variables that are positively or negatively correlated with the *sale price* and also analyze any interdependencies among the variables. Figure (8) and (9) shows the code snippet and the correlations plot. From that we can list the top 10 features those are strongly correlated with the target variable - *sale price*. We can visualize a few pair-wise correlation graphs with *sale price* for further detailed analysis. Figures (10) and (11) show how *overall quality*, *ground live area*, *garage cars* and *garage area* are positively correlated with *sale price*.

[Figure 8 about here.]

[Figure 9 about here.]

[Figure 10 about here.]

[Figure 11 about here.]

- (1) OverallQual: Overall material and finish quality
- (2) GrLivArea: Above ground living area square feet
- (3) GarageCars: Size of garage in car capacity
- (4) GarageArea: Size of garage in square feet
- (5) TotalBsmtSF: Total square feet of basement area
- (6) 1stFlrSF: First Floor square feet
- (7) FullBath: Full bathrooms above grade
- (8) TotRmsAbvGrd: Total rooms above ground
- (9) YearBuilt: Original construction date
- (10) GarageYrBlt: Garage built year

4.5 Skewed Data Analysis

From the numerical analysis, we have identified that there are a few numerical variables need further analysis to identify the skewed data. We did not find any key variables those have skewed more than 75%. However, we wanted to replace the *sale price* with corresponding logarithmic value for the predictive models and later convert it back to the exponential value before submitting to the kaggle competition. Figure (12) shows the *sale price*, before and after applying the logarithmic value.

[Figure 12 about here.]

4.6 Outlier Analysis

Continuing with exploratory analysis, we have analyzed the outliers using *Cook's distance*. Cook's distance is a measure calculated from a regression model to find out the influence exerted by each

observation (row) on the predictions. As a practice, those observations that have a Cook's distance greater than 4 times the mean value may be classified as an outlier. Outlier detection can be done using univariate and multivariate analysis. In univariate model, the outliers are those observations that are present outside of $1.5 * \text{IQR}$, where IQR (*Inter Quartile Range*) is the difference between 75th and 25th quartiles. Analyzing outliers in any observations based on single variable may lead to incorrect inferences. Cook's distance generalizes the outlier analysis using multivariate approach [5]. Figure (13) is the code implementing Cook's distance to find the outliers from training dataset and figure (14) shows the scatter plot with outliers being marked as bubbles. The bigger the bubbles, the bigger outlier deviations from the mean value. We have further analyzed two key variables - *ground live area* and *garage area* that are in high correlation with the *sale price*. From the scatter plot shown in figure (15), we can see that *garage live area* has 4 outliers with values greater than 4,000 sq ft. We can also visualize 4 outliers in *garage area* scatter plot with values greater than 1,200 sq ft. as shown in figure (16). We have removed the 8 outlier rows related to these two variables from the training dataset, the corresponding code snippet shown in figure (17).

[Figure 13 about here.]

[Figure 14 about here.]

[Figure 15 about here.]

[Figure 16 about here.]

[Figure 17 about here.]

4.7 Feature Engineering

Feature engineering is a technique to analyze all the variables those influence target variable for better predictions. Part of feature engineering, we may need to create new features to make the data to be more expressive. One of the key intents, in analyzing categorical variables, is to convert them into numerical factors as most of the machine learning algorithms expect all the variables to be numeric for them to work more effectively. Feature engineering is a difficult task; majority of the effort is manual and requires lots of domain knowledge.

4.7.1 Numerical Encoding. Some of the categorical variables are ordinal. we can use T-shirt sizes: small, medium and large as an example to explain an ordinal variable. When we convert this category variable into numeric encoding, we need to retain the fact that there is an implicit order within the values. Supposing, we give ordinal encoding as - small = 1, medium = 2 and large = 3; we will satisfy the implicit order or weightage and that helps in modeling the system by elevating the importance of this implicit ordering in the values of the ordinal variable. There are a few other encoding techniques, such as one-hot, binary, polynomial and helmert to factorize categorical variables. We will use ordinal and one-hot encoding techniques for this dataset. Following are a few categorical variables converted to numerical:

- *Lot shape* is encoded as: 1 - regular, 2 - Irregular-I, 3 - Irregular-II, 4 - Irregular-III
- *Alley* is encoded as: 1 - none, 2 - gravel, 3 - paved
- All quality variables such as *garage quality* are encoded as: 0 - none, 1 - poor, 2 - fair 3 - typical 4 - good, 5 - excellent

- *Building type* is encoded as: 1 - single-family, 2 - two-family, 3 - duplex, 4 - townhouse end unit, 5 - townhouse inside unit
- *Overall quality* is encoded as: 1 to 3 - bad, 4 to 6 - average, 7 to 10 - good

4.7.2 One-hot Encoding. One-hot encoding converts the category variable into many binary vectors, one new numeric variable for each value in the category. Assume that we have a categorical variable called signal-light with three possible values: green, yellow and red. We will need to convert these values into numeric - green = 1, yellow = 2 and red = 3. When we apply one-hot encoding on this variable, basically we are creating three new categorical variables - signal-light-green, signal-light-yellow and signal-light-red along with the original variable - signal-light, each is pretty much a binary vector having 1s for all the corresponding values; otherwise 0s. With hot-encoding, we are basically increasing dimensions in the model. After extensive feature engineering applied on the housing dataset, we have added 228 new features (variables). Figure (18) shows the python methods to factorize categorical variables and one-hot encoding techniques.

[Figure 18 about here.]

4.7.3 New Features. By adding new features that fill the gaps in domain model, we can guide the model predictions more accurately. We can, easily, create more meaningful new features from existing features, such as:

- What is the total area of the house? - This variable is sum of 18 existing variables that are contributing to the overall size of the house, such as *lot frontage*, *lot area*, *ground live area*, *pool area* and *garage area*.
- Whether house has been ever remodeled? - We can find this out using two variables: *year built* and *year remodel added*.
- House remodeled since? - We can find this out using two variables: *year sold* and *year remodel added*.
- Is it a very new house? - This can be calculated based on *year built*
- What is the age of the house? - This is a calculated value from *year build* (formula: 2010 - *year built*)
- When was it last sold? - This is a calculated value from *year build* (formula: 2010 - *year sold*)
- Which season house was last sold in? - This is a calculated value from *month build*

5 ALGORITHMS AND METHODOLOGY

Linear regression predicts the target variable using best possible straight line fit to the set predictor variables. The best fit is usually the one that minimizes the root mean squared error (RMSE) between the actual and predicted data points. However, with complex problem space such as the housing prices dataset, we have lots of variables relating to the target variable in a non-linear fashion. Trivial supervised learning algorithms will not be effective to provide accurate *sale price* predictions. To overcome this challenge, we have applied various advanced supervised learning algorithms, such as Support Vector Machine (SVM), Random Forest, Lasso, Ridge, XG-Boost and Neural Network, to predict the test data housing prices.

5.1 Support Vector Machine (SVM) Algorithm

Support Vector Machine (SVM) algorithms can be used to solve classification and regression problems. SVM regression relies on kernel functions for modeling the data. SVM creates larger margins between categories of data so that they are linearly separable. SVM handles non-linearly separable data, mainly for regression problems, using kernel functions, such as polynomial, radial basis function (RBF) and sigmoid, to project the data onto a hyperplane. Figure (19) shows the python implementation for *sale price* predictions of the housing test dataset.

[Figure 19 about here.]

5.2 Random Forest Algorithm

Random Forest is an advanced machine learning algorithm for predictive analytics. Random Forest ensembles multiple decision trees to create an additive learning model from the sequence of base models created by each decision tree that worked on a sub-sample dataset. Random Forest models are suitable to handle tabular datasets with hundreds of numeric and categorical features. Along with missing values, non-linear relations between features and the target, will be handled well by random forest algorithms. With proper tuning of hyper-parameters of the random forest algorithm, it can perform well with decent accuracy in the predictions without overfitting the model. Unlike similar regression models, it does not offer feature coefficient information but it provides *feature ranking* functionality very nicely. Figure (20) shows the random forest algorithm details for the *sale price* predictions implemented using *sklearn* package and the figure (21) shows the top 10 important features selected by random forest to model the predictions.

[Figure 20 about here.]

[Figure 21 about here.]

5.3 Lasso Algorithm

Lasso is a regression model that uses shrinkage to bring data points towards the center, similar to the mean value of all the data points. Lasso stands for Least Absolute Shrinkage and Selection Operator. It is a regularized linear model with penalty term *lambda* to minimize the error. Parameter penalization controls overfitting the input data by shrinking variable coefficients to 0. Essentially this makes the variables no effect in the model, hence reduces the dimensions. Figure (22) shows the lasso algorithm implementation for *sale price* predictions in python.

[Figure 22 about here.]

5.4 Ridge Algorithm

Ridge algorithm is very similar to lasso algorithm with the same goal. While lasso performs *L1 regularization*, ridge applies *L2 regularization* techniques in modeling the predictions. L1 regularization adds penalty to the variables equivalent to *absolute value of the magnitude* of the coefficients, whereas L2 adds the penalty equivalent to *square of the magnitude* of the variable coefficients. Figure (23) shows the python implementation of the ridge algorithm for the *sale price* predictions. Figures (24) and (25) show the top 10 positively and top 10 negatively influencing variables with *sale price*.

[Figure 23 about here.]
[Figure 24 about here.]
[Figure 25 about here.]

5.5 XGB Boosting Algorithm

XGBoost (eXtreme Gradient Boosting) is one of the Gradient Boosted Machine algorithms. It ensembles (combines) optimized model by taking trained models from all the preceding iterations. XGBoost regularizes the variables (parameters) to reduce the overfit and can work well with variables having missing values. It is empowered with built-in cross validation to reduce the boosting iterations; hence offers better performance along with parallel processing on distributed systems such as Hadoop. By tuning the XGBoost hyper parameters, we can achieve well optimized model that can make more accurate predictions. XGBoost uses *F-Score* to measure the importance of variables. Table (1) explains the hyper-parameters of XGBoost algorithm and also given the python code, as shown in figure (26), implementing for *sale price* predictions. Figure (27) shows the top 10 feature selection by the XGBoost.

[Table 1 about here.]
[Figure 26 about here.]
[Figure 27 about here.]

5.6 Neural Network Algorithm

Neural Network is, a *directed graph*, organized by layers and layers are created by number of interconnected neurons (or nodes). Every neuron in a layer is connected with all the neurons from previous layer; there will be no interaction of neurons within a layer. The performance of a Neural Network is measured using *cost or error function* and the dependent input *weight* variables. *Forward-propagation* and *back-propagation* are two techniques, neural network uses repeatedly until all the input variables are adjusted or calibrated to predict accurate output. During, forward-propagation, information moves in forward direction and passes through all the layers by applying certain weights to the input parameters. *Back-propagation* method minimizes the error in the *weights* by applying an algorithm called *gradient descent* at each iteration step. We have used *TensorFlow* python library to predict the *sale price* of housing dataset using simple feed-forward neural network. TensorFlow uses *tensors*, special multi-dimensional arrays to store the datasets for easier linear algebra and vector calculus operations.

5.7 Model Ensembling

We can create a robust predictive model with better accuracy by merging two or more machine learning algorithms. This technique is called *model ensembling*. Ensembled algorithms may be similar in functionality or may entirely be different from each other. Individual algorithms may not perform great but by ensembling them, the overall system can offer much better performance and accuracy. Variations in the predicting logic in each of these individual algorithms will bring unbiasedness into the unified model. *Bagging*, *boosting* and *stacking* are popular ensembling techniques. Many of the advanced machine learning algorithms use ensembled approaches to achieve accurate classifications or predictions. Random Forest uses bagging, XGBoost uses boosting and Neural Network

applies stacking ensembling techniques. For the kaggle submission, we have created an ensembled model by averaging *Sale Price* of the top 3 performing ensembled algorithms - XGBoost, Lasso and Neural Network. As predicted, ensembled model has scored better compared to the individual algorithms. By applying advanced machine learning algorithms, we have placed our scores within top 20% of the competition. Table (2) displays each algorithm and the *root mean squared error* (RMSE) along with the *kaggle score*.

[Table 2 about here.]

6 DEVELOPMENT ENVIRONMENT

6.1 OS and Programming Language

We have used *Ubuntu 16.4* Operating System that runs in Windows 10 through Oracle Virtual Box 5.2. Python 2.7 has been used as the programming language for this project. Data visualizations are done using *seaborn* and *matplotlib* packages. Most of the algorithms implemented in this project are using *sklearn* package. For the neural network algorithm, we have used *tensorflow* package as it offers simple programming interface to the complex processing needed by the algorithm. Our code is placed in gitub repository at *git@github.com:bigdata-i523/hid306.git*.

6.2 Project Folder Structure

Project is organized in three folders - code, data and images. Code folder has all the python code files. Data folder contains the *house pricing* sample datasets provided by Kaggle website for the housing prices competition that we used for the exploratory analysis and *sale price* predictions. We also stored all the *sale price* prediction output files from various algorithms in the data folder. Images folder contains all the data visualization files that we have created during the analysis and in processing the algorithms. We wanted to create interactive and sharable code files that contain not only the python code but also corresponding explanation along with data visualizations. Jupyter Notebook application is ideal for such facilitation with python code components. Using Jupyter Notebook, it would be easy to share live code with the reviewers. Such environment allows to explore the code-base easily along with the interactive code execution and visualize all the corresponding exploratory analysis results with the graphs.

6.3 Project Files

We have a total of 11 Jupyter Notebook driven python code files. First 4 files are focused on doing the exploratory data analysis and the next 6 files are meant for six supervised machine learning algorithms - SVM, Random Forest, Ridge, Lasso, Neural Network and XGBoost. Last code file is dedicated for ensembling the top 3 algorithms with best predictions of housing sale prices in the test dataset. We have named them in a sequence as there is an implicit order in the execution of these files. We wanted to do the data analysis first before running the predictive algorithms.

6.4 List of Code Files

Following is the list of code files:

- (1) Code: 1.1_exploratory_analysis_numerical.ipynb - To load datasets and analyze all numerical variables

- (2) Code: 1.2_exploratory_analysis_categorical.ipynb - To analyze categorical variables in the dataset
- (3) Code: 1.3_outlier_and_skewed_data_analysis.ipynb - Handles outlier and skewed data analysis
- (4) Code: 1.4_feature_engineering.ipynb - All the feature engineering is done in this file
- (5) Code: 2.1_algorithm_svm.ipynb - Implementation of SVM algorithm
- (6) Code: 2.2_algorithm_random_forest.ipynb - Implementation of Random Forest algorithm
- (7) Code: 2.3_algorithm_ridge.ipynb - Implementation of Ridge algorithm
- (8) Code: 2.4_algorithm_lasso.ipynb - Implementation of Lasso algorithm
- (9) Code: 2.5_algorithm_neural_network_tf.ipynb - Implementation of Neural Network algorithm
- (10) Code: 2.6_algorithm_xgboost.ipynb - Implementation of XGBoost algorithm
- (11) Code: 3_ensemble_kaggle_submission.ipynb - Implementation of Ensembled algorithm

6.5 List of Data Files

Following is the list of data files:

- (1) Input data file: train.csv - Sample training dataset with housing attributes along with the sale price
- (2) input data file: test.csv - Sample testing dataset similar to training dataset without the sale price
- (3) Output data file: kaggle_python_svm.csv - Predicted Housing Sale Prices from SVM algorithm
- (4) Output data file: kaggle_python_random_forest.csv - Predicted Housing Sale Prices from Random Forest algorithm
- (5) Output data file: kaggle_python_ridge.csv - Predicted Housing Sale Prices from Ridge algorithm
- (6) Output data file: kaggle_python_xgboost.csv - Predicted Housing Sale Prices from XGBoost algorithm
- (7) Output data file: kaggle_python_lasso.csv - Predicted Housing Sale Prices from Lasso algorithm
- (8) Output data file: kaggle_python_neural_network.csv - Predicted Housing Sale Prices from Neural Network algorithm
- (9) Output data file: kaggle_python_ensemble.csv - Predicted Housing Sale Prices from Ensembled algorithm

7 CONCLUSION

Generally, ensemble models performs better compared to individual algorithms. However, there are a few factors that influence accuracy and performance of the algorithms, such as handcrafted feature engineering, proper cost function with regularized input to address non-linearities in the training datasets and tuning hyper-parameters of the algorithms. While Deep Learning Neural Networks are good for image processing, K-Nearest Neighbor algorithms can handle unsupervised datasets with less complexity. Domain knowledge and algorithm selection play vital role in getting accurate predictions. XGBoost, Random Forest, Lasso and Neural Networks are advanced machine learning algorithms dominating in the data science competitions for classification and regression related tasks. With ensembling and iterative learning techniques, they can scale

well and offer better predictions for huge datasets having large number of features.

A SAMPLE DATASET FILE DETAILS

The training and testing sample datasets provided by Kaggle contain the same variables explaining the housing real estate aspects. Training dataset contains the sale price information whereas the testing dataset does not the sale price as that is the target variable we need to predict using supervised machine learning algorithm. Following are the list of variables describing the housing real estate domain. Good understanding of the domain is needed for better exploratory data analysis and to apply the matching machine learning algorithms to the problem space.

- Id: Row Id
- SalePrice: Sale price of the house in dollars. This is the target variable to predict.
- MSSubClass: The building class
- MSZoning: The general zoning classification
- LotFrontage: Linear feet of street connected to property
- LotArea: Lot size in square feet
- Street: Type of road access
- Alley: Type of alley access
- LotShape: General shape of property
- LandContour: Flatness of the property
- Utilities: Type of utilities available
- LotConfig: Lot configuration
- LandSlope: Slope of property
- Neighborhood: Physical locations within Ames city limits
- Condition1: Proximity to main road or railroad
- Condition2: Proximity to main road or railroad (if a second is present)
- BldgType: Type of dwelling
- HouseStyle: Style of dwelling
- OverallQual: Overall material and finish quality
- OverallCond: Overall condition rating
- YearBuilt: Original construction date
- YearRemodAdd: Remodel date
- RoofStyle: Type of roof
- RoofMatl: Roof material
- Exterior1st: Exterior covering on house
- Exterior2nd: Exterior covering on house (if more than one material)
- MasVnrType: Masonry veneer type
- MasVnrArea: Masonry veneer area in square feet
- ExterQual: Exterior material quality
- ExterCond: Present condition of the material on the exterior
- Foundation: Type of foundation
- BsmtQual: Height of the basement
- BsmtCond: General condition of the basement
- BsmtExposure: Walkout or garden level basement walls
- BsmtFinType1: Quality of basement finished area
- BsmtFinSF1: Type 1 finished square feet
- BsmtFinType2: Quality of second finished area (if present)
- BsmtFinSF2: Type 2 finished square feet
- BsmtUnfSF: Unfinished square feet of basement area

- TotalBsmtSF: Total square feet of basement area
- Heating: Type of heating
- HeatingQC: Heating quality and condition
- CentralAir: Central air conditioning Electrical: Electrical system
- 1stFlrSF: First Floor square feet
- 2ndFlrSF: Second floor square feet
- LowQualFinSF: Low quality finished square feet (all floors)
- GrLivArea: Above grade (ground) living area square feet
- BsmtFullBath: Basement full bathrooms
- BsmtHalfBath: Basement half bathrooms
- FullBath: Full bathrooms above grade
- HalfBath: Half baths above grade
- Bedroom: Number of bedrooms above basement level
- Kitchen: Number of kitchens
- KitchenQual: Kitchen quality
- TotRmsAbvGrd: Total rooms above grade (does not include bathrooms)
- Functional: Home functionality rating
- Fireplaces: Number of fireplaces
- FireplaceQu: Fireplace quality
- GarageType: Garage location
- GarageYrBlt: Year garage was built
- GarageFinish: Interior finish of the garage
- GarageCars: Size of garage in car capacity
- GarageArea: Size of garage in square feet
- GarageQual: Garage quality
- GarageCond: Garage condition
- PavedDrive: Paved driveway
- WoodDeckSF: Wood deck area in square feet
- OpenPorchSF: Open porch area in square feet
- EnclosedPorch: Enclosed porch area in square feet
- 3SsnPorch: Three season porch area in square feet
- ScreenPorch: Screen porch area in square feet
- PoolArea: Pool area in square feet
- PoolQC: Pool quality
- Fence: Fence quality
- MiscFeature: Miscellaneous feature not covered in other categories
- MiscVal: Dollar Value of miscellaneous feature
- MoSold: Month Sold
- YrSold: Year Sold
- SaleType: Type of sale
- SaleCondition: Condition of sale

A.1 Factorization of categorical variables

Following are the factorized categorical variable details:

A.1.1 Street (Nominal). : Type of road access to property

- Grvl - Gravel
- Pave - Paved

A.1.2 Alley (Nominal). : Type of alley access to property

- Grvl- Gravel
- Pave - Paved
- NA - No alley access

A.1.3 Lot Shape (Ordinal). : General shape of property

- Reg - Regular
- IR1 - Slightly irregular
- IR2 - Moderately Irregular
- IR3 - Irregular

A.1.4 Land Contour (Nominal). : Flatness of the property

- Lvl - Near Flat /Level
- Bnk - Banked - Quick and significant rise from street grade to building
- HLS - Hillside - Significant slope from side to side
- Low - Depression

A.1.5 Land Slope (Ordinal). : Slope of property

- Gtl - Gentle slope
- Mod - Moderate Slope
- Sev - Severe Slope

A.1.6 Utilities (Ordinal). : Type of utilities available

- AllPub - All public Utilities (E,G,W, and S)
- NoSewr - Electricity, Gas, and Water (Septic Tank)
- NoSeWa - Electricity and Gas Only
- ELO - Electricity only

A.1.7 Lot Config (Nominal). : Lot configuration

- Inside - Inside lot
- Corner - Corner lot
- CulDSac - Cul-de-sac
- FR2 - Frontage on 2 sides of property
- FR3 - Frontage on 3 sides of property

A.1.8 Neighborhood (Nominal). : Physical locations within Ames city limits (map available)

- Blmngtn - Bloomington Heights
- Blueste - Bluestem
- BrDale - Briardale
- BrkSide - Brookside
- ClearCr - Clear Creek
- CollgCr - College Creek
- Crawfor - Crawford
- Edwards - Edwards
- Gilbert - Gilbert
- Greens - Greens
- GrnHill - Green Hills
- IDOTRR - Iowa DOT and Rail Road
- Landmrk - Landmark
- MeadowV - Meadow Village
- Mitchel - Mitchell
- Names - North Ames
- NoRidge - Northridge
- NPkVill - Northpark Villa
- NridgHt - Northridge Heights
- NWAmes - Northwest Ames
- OldTown - Old Town
- SWISU - South and West of Iowa State University
- Sawyer - Sawyer
- SawyerW - Sawyer West
- Somerst - Somerset
- StoneBr - Stone Brook

- Timber - Timberland
- Veenker - Veenker

A.1.9 *Condition 1 (Nominal)*. : Proximity to various conditions

- Artery - Adjacent to arterial street
- Feedr - Adjacent to feeder street
- Norm - Normal
- RRNn - Within 200 feet of North-South Railroad
- RRAAn - Adjacent to North-South Railroad
- PosN - Near positive off-site feature-park, greenbelt, etc.
- PosA - Adjacent to positive off-site feature
- RRNe - Within 200 feet of East-West Railroad
- RRAe - Adjacent to East-West Railroad

A.1.10 *Condition 2 (Nominal)*. : Proximity to various conditions
(if more than one is present)

- Artery - Adjacent to arterial street
- Feedr - Adjacent to feeder street
- Norm - Normal
- RRNn - Within 200 feet of North-South Railroad
- RRAAn - Adjacent to North-South Railroad
- PosN - Near positive off-site feature-park, greenbelt, etc.
- PosA - Adjacent to positive off-site feature
- RRNe - Within 200 feet of East-West Railroad
- RRAe - Adjacent to East-West Railroad

A.1.11 *Bldg Type (Nominal)*. : Type of dwelling

- 1Fam - Single-family Detached
- 2FmCon - Two-family Conversion; originally built as one-family dwelling
- Duplx - Duplex
- Twnhse - Townhouse End Unit
- TwnhsI - Townhouse Inside Unit

A.1.12 *Variable: MS Zoning*. MS Zoning (Nominal): Identifies the general zoning classification of the sale.

- A - Agriculture
- C - Commercial
- FV - Floating Village Residential
- I - Industrial
- RH - Residential High Density
- RL - Residential Low Density
- RP - Residential Low Density Park
- RM - Residential Medium Density

A.1.13 *House Style (Nominal)*. : Style of dwelling

- 1Story - One story
- 1.5Fin - One and one-half story: 2nd level finished
- 1.5Unf - One and one-half story: 2nd level unfinished
- 2Story - Two story
- 2.5Fin - Two and one-half story: 2nd level finished
- 2.5Unf - Two and one-half story: 2nd level unfinished
- SFoyer - Split Foyer
- SLvl - Split Level

A.1.14 *Overall Qual (Ordinal)*. : Rates the overall material and finish of the house

- 10 - Very Excellent
- 9 - Excellent

- 8 - Very Good
- 7 - Good
- 6 - Above Average
- 5 - Average
- 4 - Below Average
- 3 - Fair
- 2 - Poor
- 1 - Very Poor

A.1.15 *Overall Cond (Ordinal)*. : Rates the overall condition of the house

- 10 - Very Excellent
- 9 - Excellent
- 8 - Very Good
- 7 - Good
- 6 - Above Average
- 5 - Average
- 4 - Below Average
- 3 - Fair
- 2 - Poor
- 1 - Very Poor

A.1.16 *Roof Style (Nominal)*. : Type of roof

- Flat - Flat
- Gable - Gable
- Gambrel - Gabrel (Barn)
- Hip - Hip
- Mansard - Mansard
- Shed - Shed

A.1.17 *Roof Matl (Nominal)*. : Roof material

- ClyTile - Clay or Tile
- CompShg - Standard (Composite) Shingle
- Membran - Membrane
- Metal - Metal
- Roll - Roll
- Tar and Grv - Gravel and Tar
- WdShake - Wood Shakes
- WdShngl - Wood Shingles

A.1.18 *Exterior 1 and 2 (Nominal)*. : Exterior covering on house

- AsbShng - Asbestos Shingles
- AsphShn - Asphalt Shingles
- BrkComm - Brick Common
- BrkFace - Brick Face
- CBlock - Cinder Block
- CemntBd - Cement Board
- HdBoard - Hard Board
- ImStucc - Imitation Stucco
- MetalSd - Metal Siding
- Other - Other
- Plywood - Plywood
- PreCast - PreCast
- Stone - Stone
- Stucco - Stucco
- VinylSd - Vinyl Siding
- Wd Sdng - Wood Siding
- WdShing - Wood Shingles

A.1.19 *Mas Vnr Type (Nominal)*. : Masonry veneer type

- BrkCmn - Brick Common
- BrkFace - Brick Face
- CBlock - Cinder Block
- None - None
- Stone - Stone

A.1.20 *Bsmt Cond, Exter Qual and Exter Cond (Ordinal)*. : Evaluates the quality of the material on the exterior

- Ex - Excellent
- Gd - Good
- TA - Average/Typical
- Fa - Fair
- Po - Poor

A.1.21 *Foundation (Nominal)*. : Type of foundation

- BrkTil - Brick and Tile
- CBlock - Cinder Block
- PConc - Poured Concrete
- Slab - Slab
- Stone - Stone
- Wood - Wood

A.1.22 *Bsmt Qual (Ordinal)*. : Evaluates the height of the basement

- Ex - Excellent (100+ inches)
- Gd - Good (90-99 inches)
- TA - Typical (80-89 inches)
- Fa - Fair (70-79 inches)
- Po - Poor (<70 inches)
- NA - No Basement

A.1.23 *Bsmt Exposure (Ordinal)*. : Refers to walkout or garden level walls

- Gd - Good Exposure
- Av - Average Exposure (split levels or foyers typically score average or above)
- Mn - Minimum Exposure
- No - No Exposure
- NA - No Basement

A.1.24 *BsmtFin Type 1 (Ordinal)*. : Rating of basement finished area

- GLQ - Good Living Quarters
- ALQ - Average Living Quarters
- BLQ - Below Average Living Quarters
- Rec - Average Rec Room
- LwQ - Low Quality
- Unf - Unfinished
- NA - No Basement

A.1.25 *BsmtFin Type 2 (Ordinal)*. : Rating of basement finished area (if multiple types)

- GLQ - Good Living Quarters
- ALQ - Average Living Quarters
- BLQ - Below Average Living Quarters
- Rec - Average Rec Room
- LwQ - Low Quality

- Unf - Unfinished
- NA - No Basement

A.1.26 *Heating (Nominal)*. : Type of heating

- Floor - Floor Furnace
- GasA - Gas forced warm air furnace
- GasW - Gas hot water or steam heat
- Grav - Gravity furnace
- OthW - Hot water or steam heat other than gas
- Wall - Wall furnace

A.1.27 *Electrical (Ordinal)*. : Electrical system

- SBrkr - Standard Circuit Breakers and Romex
- FuseA - Fuse Box over 60 AMP and all Romex wiring (Average)
- FuseF - 60 AMP Fuse Box and mostly Romex wiring (Fair)
- FuseP - 60 AMP Fuse Box and mostly knob and tube wiring (poor)
- Mix - Mixed

A.1.28 *HeatingQC (Ordinal)*. : Heating quality and condition

- Ex - Excellent
- Gd - Good
- TA - Average/Typical
- Fa - Fair
- Po - Poor

A.1.29 *Central Air (Nominal)*. : Central air conditioning

- N - No
- Y - Yes

A.1.30 *KitchenQual (Ordinal)*. : Kitchen quality

- Ex - Excellent
- Gd - Good
- TA - Typical/Average
- Fa - Fair
- Po - Poor

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors would like to thank Dr. Gregor von Laszewski and the Teaching Assistants for their support and great suggestions. Authors would also want to thank Kaggle Website and the developers for their valuable information, ideas and contributions.

REFERENCES

- [1] AiO. 2017. House Prices: Advanced Regression Techniques. (Feb. 2017). <https://www.kaggle.com/notapple/detailed-exploratory-data-analysis-using-r>
- [2] Tanner Carbonati. 2017. Detailed Data Analysis & Ensemble Modeling. (Aug. 2017). <https://www.kaggle.com/tannercarbonati/detailed-data-analysis-ensemble-modeling/notebook>
- [3] Yeshwant Chillakuru, Michael Arango, Jack Crum, and Paul Brewster. 2017. Using Neighborhood Level Data to Predict the Residential Sale Price of Properties in Ames, Iowa. (May 2017). <https://rpubs.com/jackcrum/281471>
- [4] Aarshay Jain. 2016. Complete Guide to Parameter Tuning in XG-Boost. (March 2016). <https://www.analyticsvidhya.com/blog/2016/03/complete-guide-parameter-tuning-xgboost-with-codes-python/>
- [5] Selva Prabhakaran. 2017. Outlier Treatment. (Dec. 2017). <http://r-statistics.co/Outlier-Treatment-With-R.html>
- [6] Siddharth Raina. 2017. Regularized Regression - Housing Pricing. (Jan. 2017). <https://www.kaggle.com/sidraina89/regularized-regression-housing-pricing>
- [7] Kevin Wong. 2016. Predicting Ames House Prices. (Dec. 2016). <http://kevinfw.com/post/predicting-ames-house-prices/>

- [8] Ricky Yue and Jurgen De Jager. 2016. Advanced Regression Modeling on House Prices. (Sept. 2016). <https://nycdatascience.com/blog/student-works/advanced-regression-modeling-house-prices/>

LIST OF FIGURES

1	Code - Null Checks	11
2	Graph - Missing Values	11
3	Code - Numerical Analysis	12
4	Graph - Sale Price and Overall Quality	12
5	Graph - Ground Live Area and Year Built	13
6	Code - Categorical Analysis	13
7	Graph - Neighborhood and Sale Type	14
8	Code - Correlations	14
9	Graph - Correlations with Sale Price	15
10	Graph - Overall Quality and Ground Live Area	15
11	Graph - Garage Cars and Garage Area	16
12	Graph - Sale Price skewness	16
13	Code - Outlier Analysis	16
14	Graph - Outliers using Cook's distance	17
15	Graph - Garage Live Area Outliers	17
16	Graph - Garage Area Outliers	18
17	Code - Delete Outliers	18
18	Code - factorize and one-hot encoding	18
19	Code - SVM Algorithm	19
20	Code - Random Forest Algorithm	19
21	Graph - Random Forest Feature Ranking	20
22	Code - Lasso Algorithm	21
23	Code - Ridge Algorithm	22
24	Graph - Ridge Top 10 Positive Features	23
25	Graph - Ridge Top 10 Negative Features	24
26	Code - XGBoost Algorithm	25
27	Graph - XGBoost Feature Importance	26

```

# python code - check for null values
train = pd.read_csv('../data/train.csv')
test = pd.read_csv('../data/test.csv')

#combine the data sets
alldata = train.append(test)
na = alldata.isnull().sum()
    .sort_values(ascending=False)

```

Figure 1: Code - Null Checks

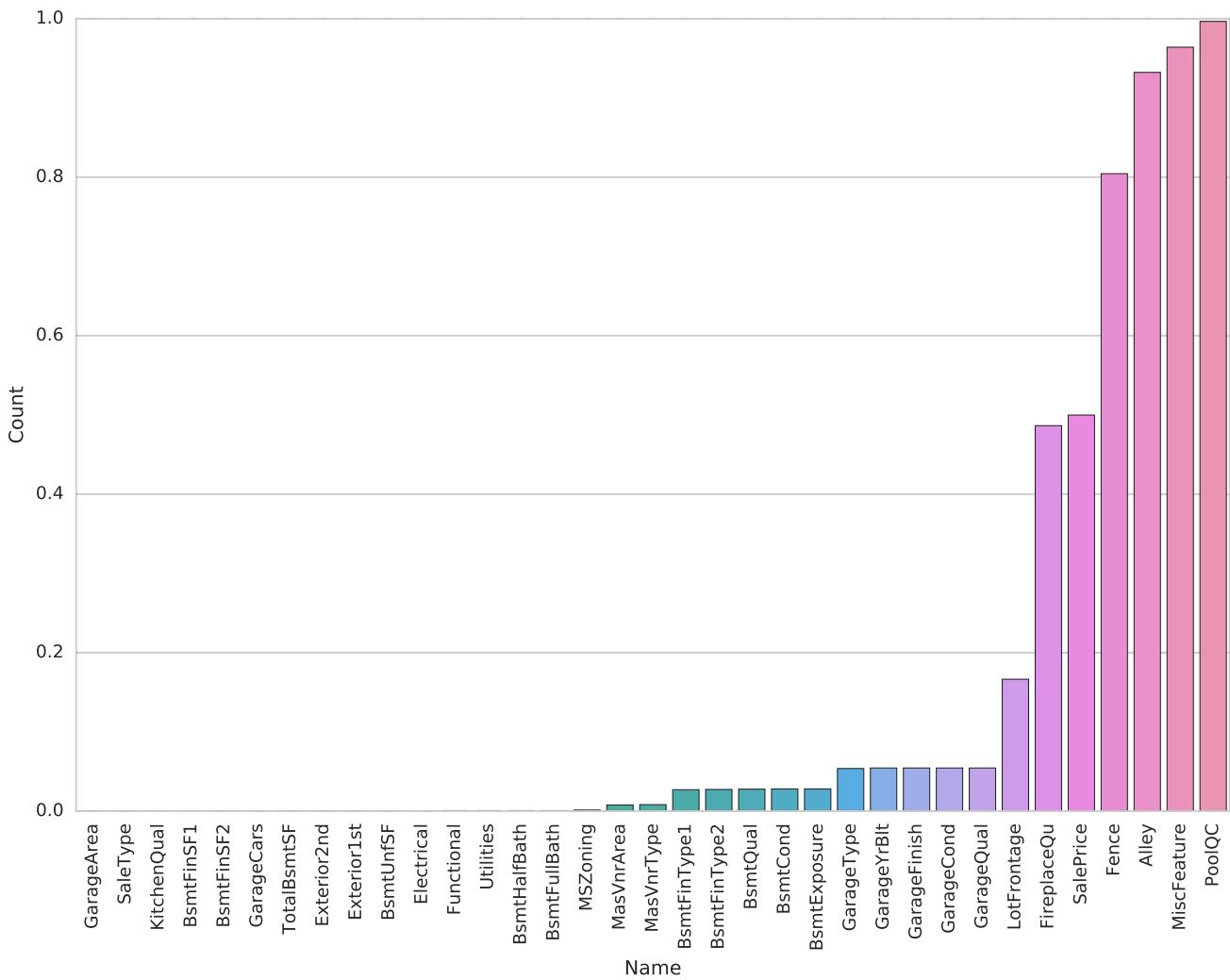


Figure 2: Graph - Missing Values

```

# python code - analyze numeric variables
numerical_features = [f for f in train.columns
if train.dtypes[f] != 'object']

nd = pd.melt(train, value_vars = numerical_features)
plt.figure(figsize = (5,3))
plot = sns.FacetGrid (nd, col='variable', col_wrap=4,
                     sharex=False, sharey = False)
plot = plot.map(sns.distplot, 'value')

```

Figure 3: Code - Numerical Analysis

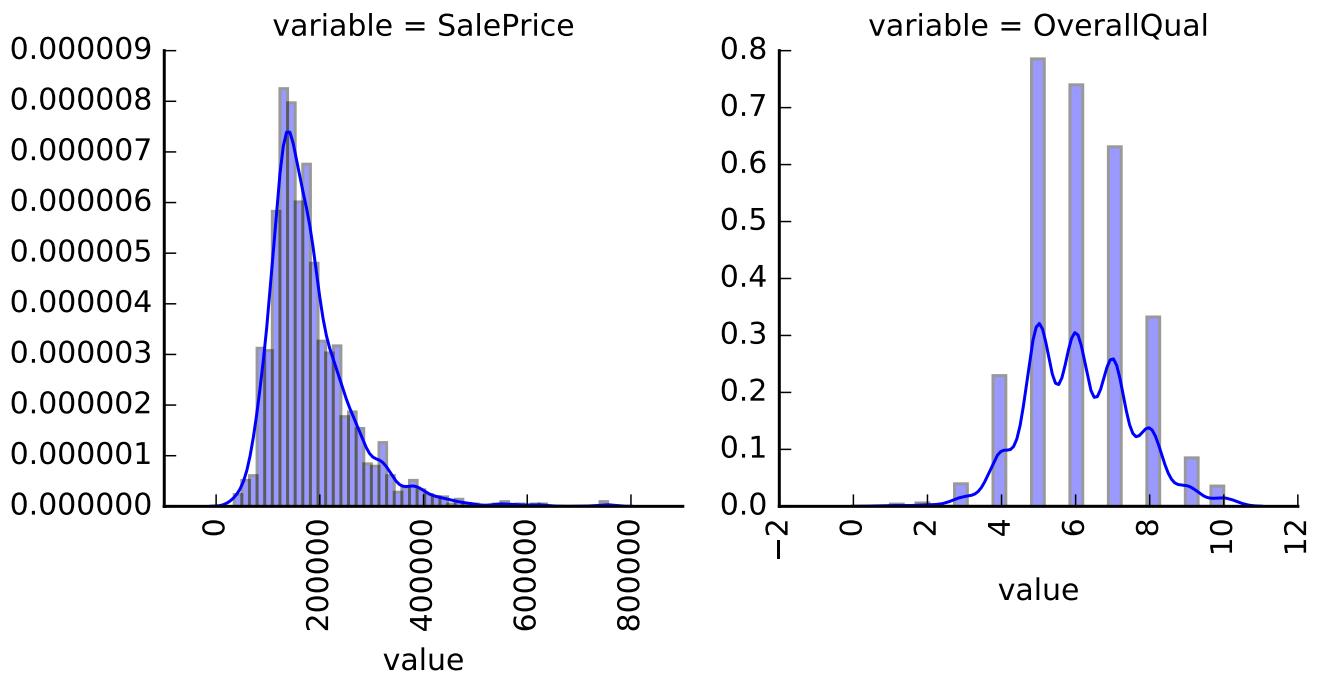


Figure 4: Graph - Sale Price and Overall Quality

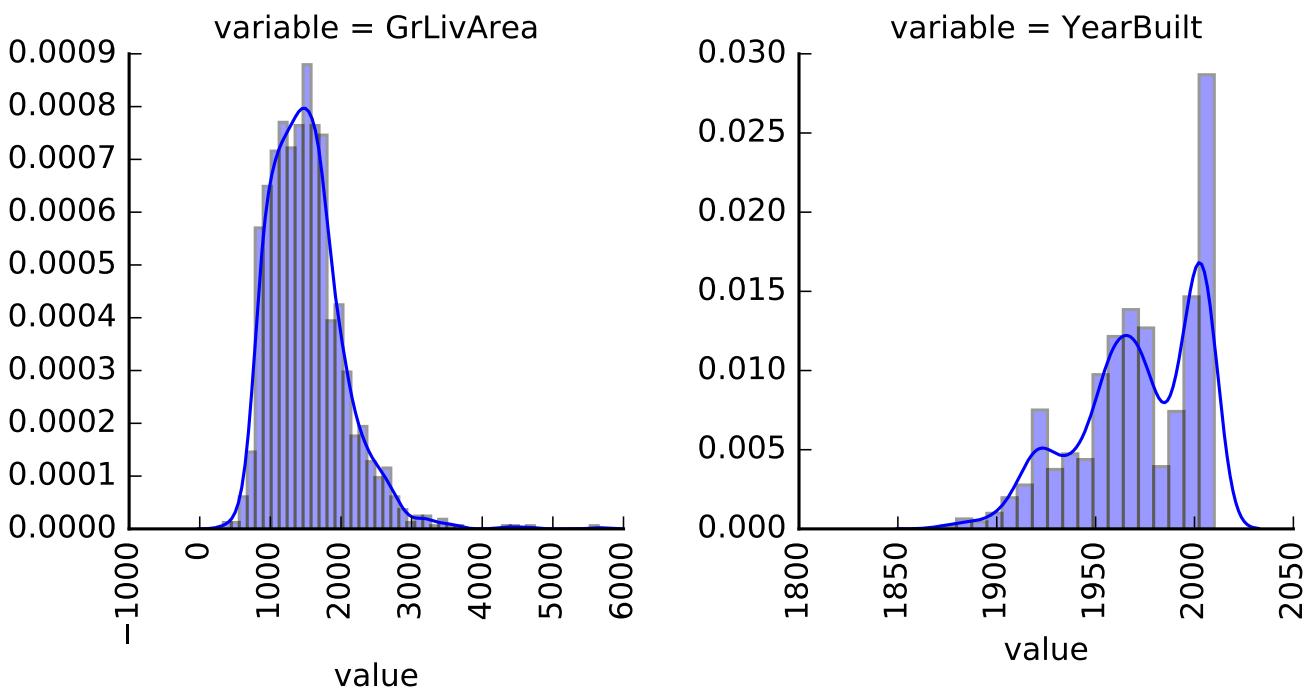


Figure 5: Graph - Ground Live Area and Year Built

```
# python code - analyze numeric variables
cat_features = [f for f in train.columns
if train.dtypes[f] == 'object']
print(cat_features)

def barplot(x,y,**kwargs):
    sns.barplot(x=x,y=y)
    x = plt.xticks(rotation=90)

plt.figure(figsize = (5,3))

p = pd.melt(train, id_vars='SalePrice',
            value_vars=cat_features)

g = sns.FacetGrid (p, col='variable', col_wrap=4,
sharex=False, sharey=False, size=5)

g = g.map(barplot, 'value','SalePrice')
```

Figure 6: Code - Categorical Analysis

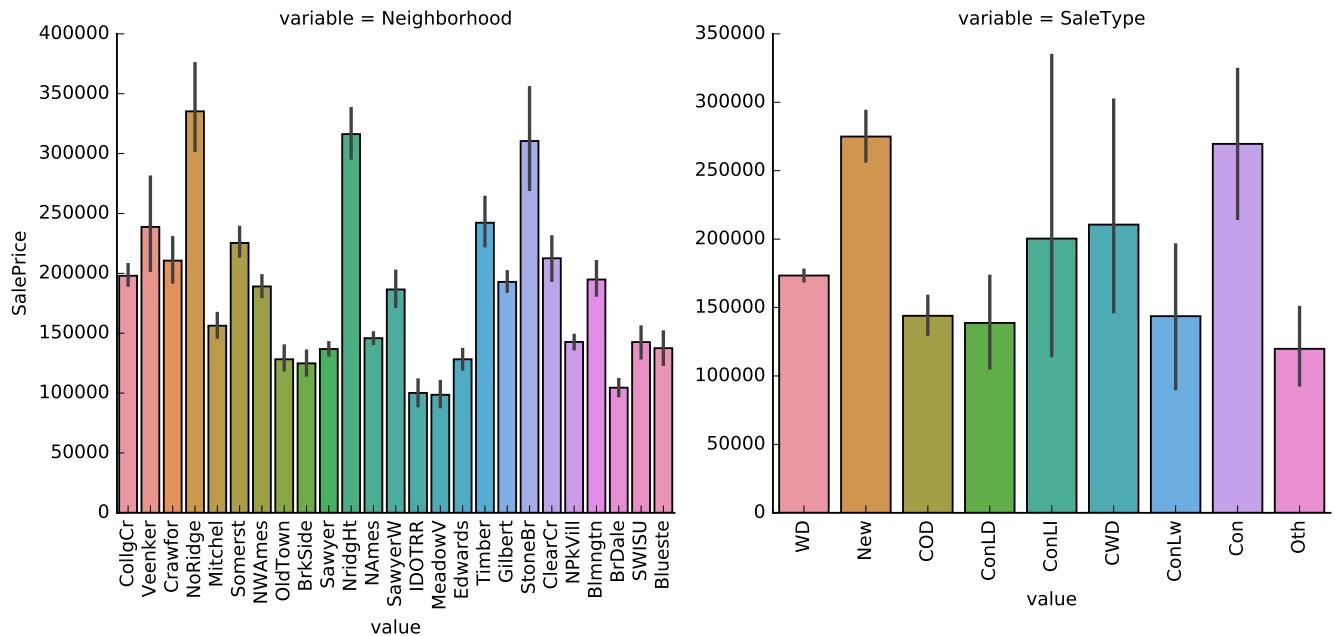


Figure 7: Graph - Neighborhood and Sale Type

```
# python code
corr = alldata[numerical_features].corr()
mask = np.zeros_like(corr)
mask[np.triu_indices_from(mask)] = True
plt.figure(figsize = (15,8))
sns_plot = sns.heatmap(corr, cmap='YlGnBu',
                      linewidths=.5, mask=mask, vmax=.3)
```

Figure 8: Code - Correlations

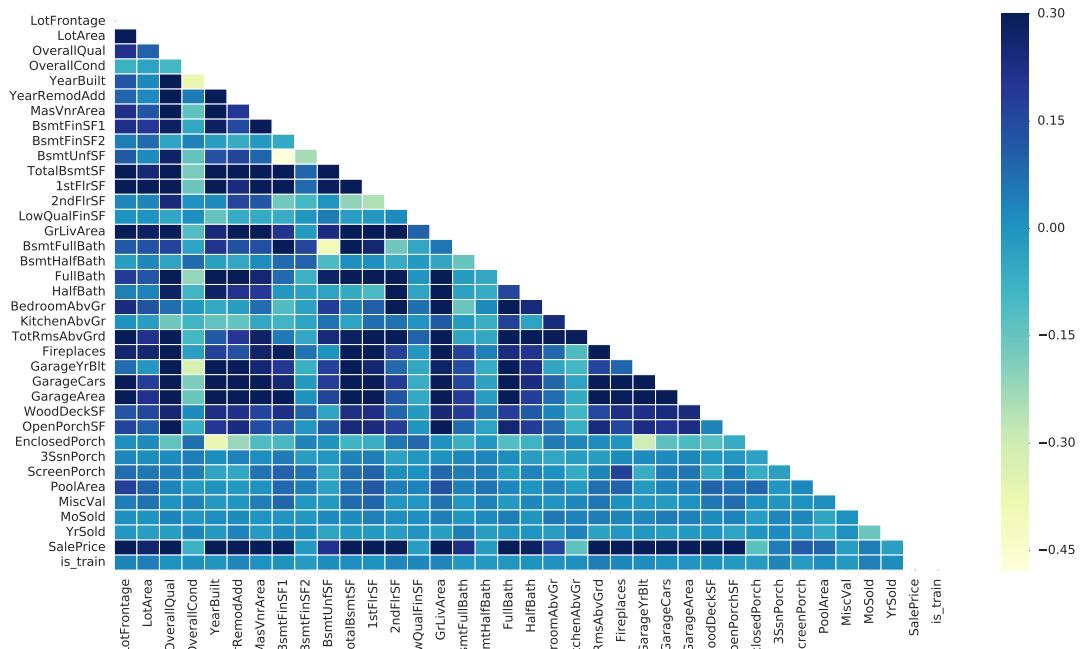


Figure 9: Graph - Correlations with Sale Price

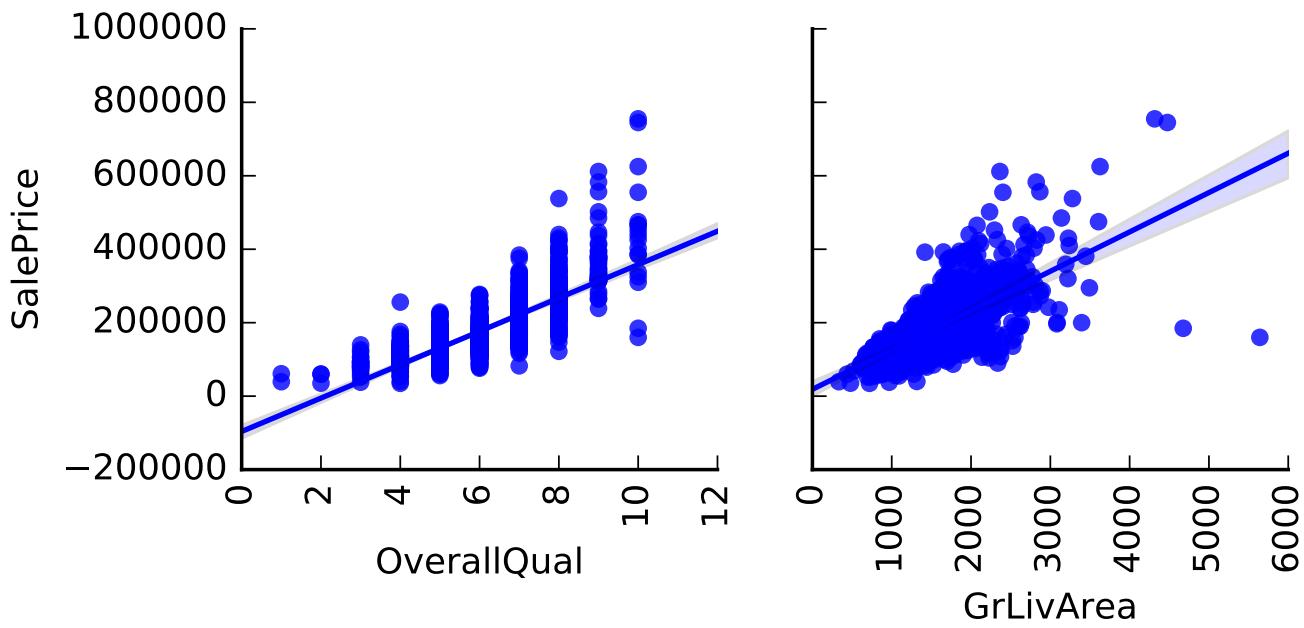


Figure 10: Graph - Overall Quality and Ground Live Area

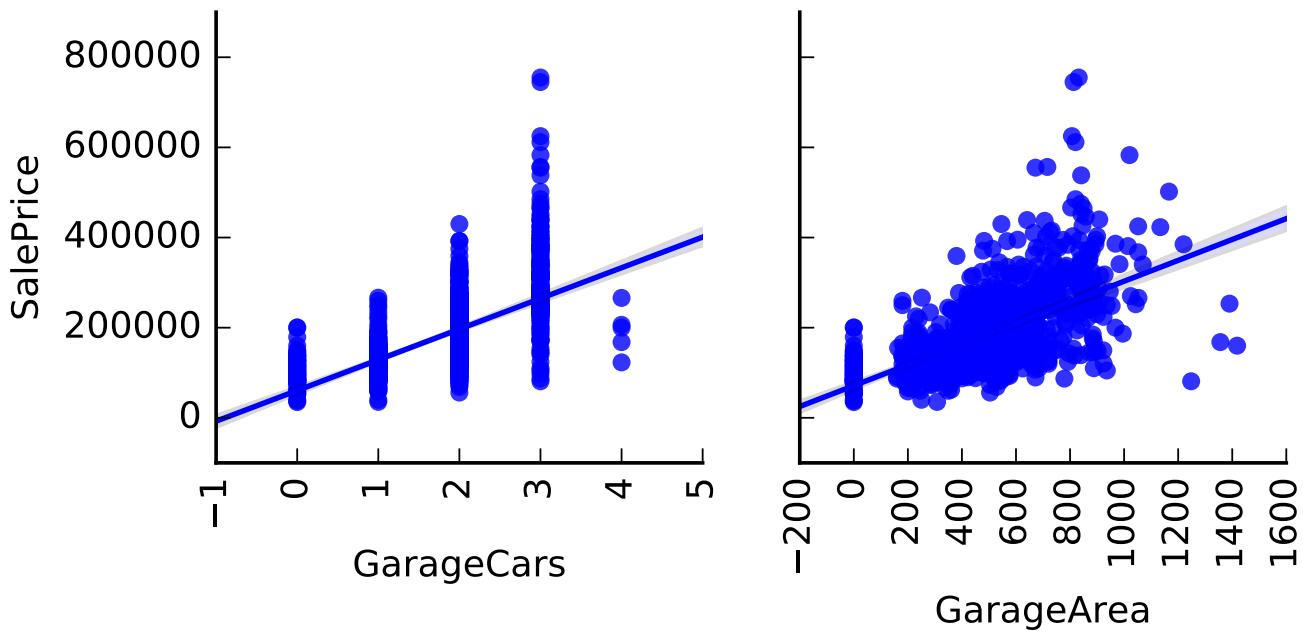


Figure 11: Graph - Garage Cars and Garage Area

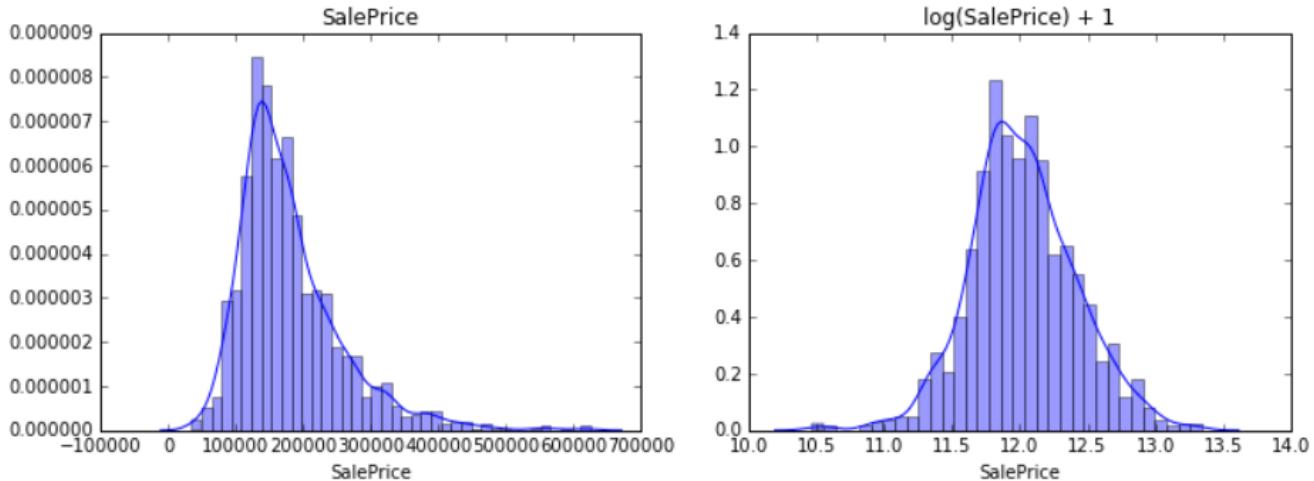


Figure 12: Graph - Sale Price skewness

```
# python code - outlier analysis
import statsmodels.api as sm
from statsmodels.formula.api import ols

model = ols(formula = 'SalePrice ~
GrLivArea + GarageArea', data=train)
fitted = model.fit()
plot = sm.graphics.influence_plot(fitted,
criterion='cooks')
```

Figure 13: Code - Outlier Analysis

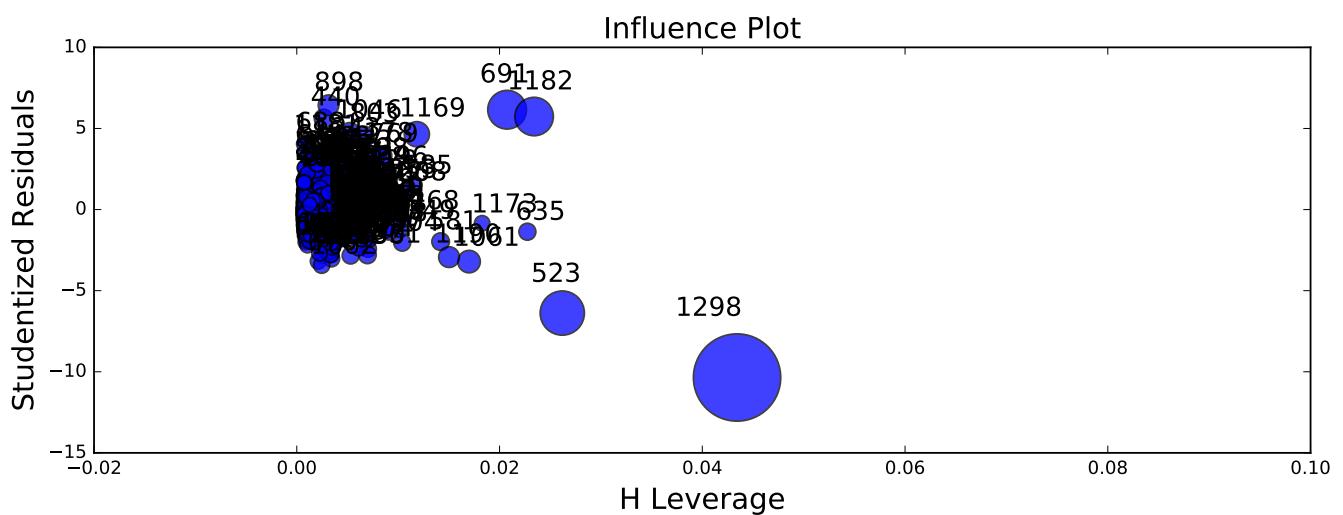


Figure 14: Graph - Outliers using Cook's distance

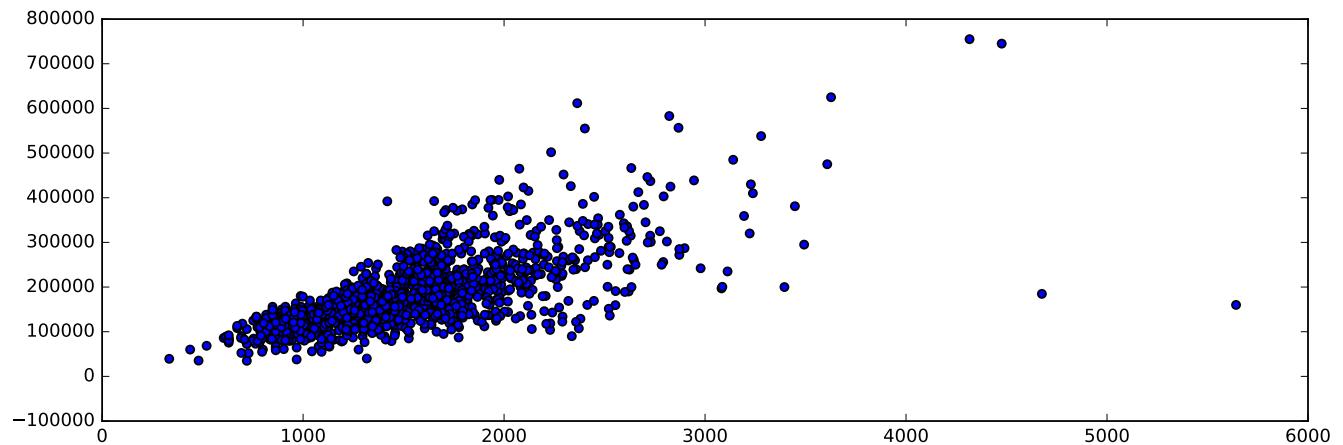


Figure 15: Graph - Garage Live Area Outliers

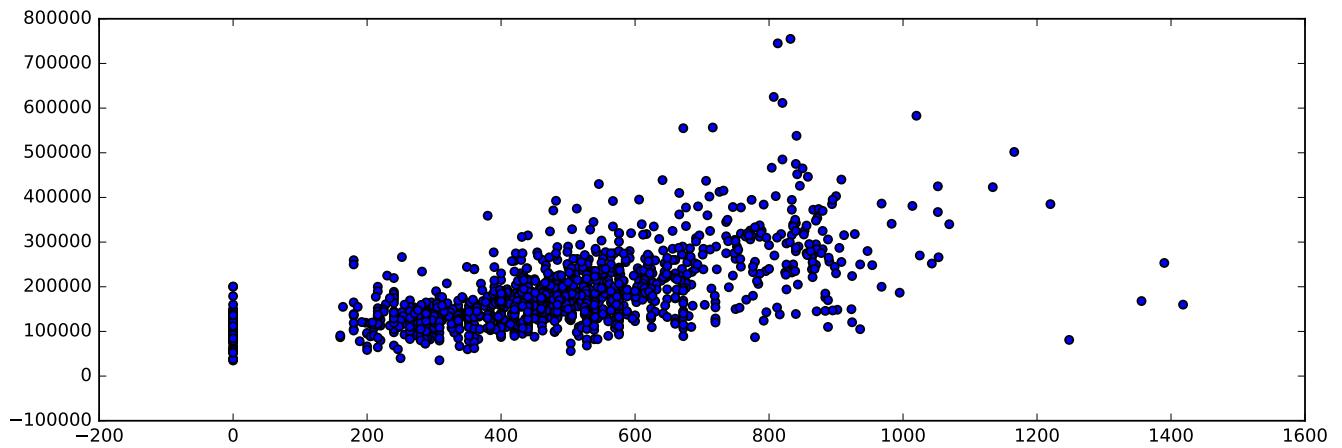


Figure 16: Graph - Garage Area Outliers

```
# python code - remove outlier rows
# fix all extreme outliers based on outlier analysis
# 8 rows will be deleted
train = train[train.GrLivArea <= 4000]
train = train[train.GarageArea <= 1200]
```

Figure 17: Code - Delete Outliers

```
# python code - factorize and one-hot
def get_one_hot(df, col_name, fill_val):
    if fill_val is not None:
        df[col_name].fillna(fill_val, inplace=True)

    dummies = pd.get_dummies(df[col_name], prefix='_' + col_name)
    df = df.join(dummies)
    df = df.drop([col_name], axis=1)
    return df
#end def

from sklearn.preprocessing import LabelEncoder

def factorize(df, column, fill_na=None):
    le = LabelEncoder()
    if fill_na is not None:
        df[column].fillna(fill_na, inplace=True)
    le.fit(df[column].unique())
    df[column] = le.transform(df[column])
    return df
#end def
```

Figure 18: Code - factorize and one-hot encoding

```

# python code - SVM algorithm
from sklearn.svm import SVR
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
from sklearn.metrics import mean_squared_error

train = pd.read_csv('train.csv')
test = pd.read_csv('test.csv')
target_vector = train['SalePrice']

_svm_algo = SVR(kernel = 'rbf', C=1e3, gamma=1e-8)

_svm_algo.fit(train, target_vector)

y_train = target_vector
y_train_pred = _svm_algo.predict(train)

#root mean squared error (RMSE)
rmse_train = np.sqrt(rmse(y_train,y_train_pred))

y_test_pred = _svm_algo.predict(test)

```

Figure 19: Code - SVM Algorithm

```

# python code - random forest algorithm
from sklearn.ensemble import RandomForestRegressor
from sklearn.metrics import accuracy_score
from sklearn.metrics import confusion_matrix
from sklearn.metrics import mean_squared_error

train = pd.read_csv('train.csv')
test = pd.read_csv('test.csv')
target_vector = train['SalePrice']

_algo = RandomForestRegressor(n_estimators=100,
oob_score=True, random_state=123456)

model = _algo.fit(train, target_vector)

feat_imp = pd.Series(_algo.feature_importances_,
train.columns).sort_values(ascending=False)

feat_imp[:10].plot(kind='bar',
title='Feature Ranmkingt')
y_train = target_vector
y_train_pred = _algo.predict(train)

#root mean squared error (RMSE)
rmse_train = np.sqrt(rmse(y_train,y_train_pred))
y_test_pred = _algo.predict(test)

```

Figure 20: Code - Random Forest Algorithm

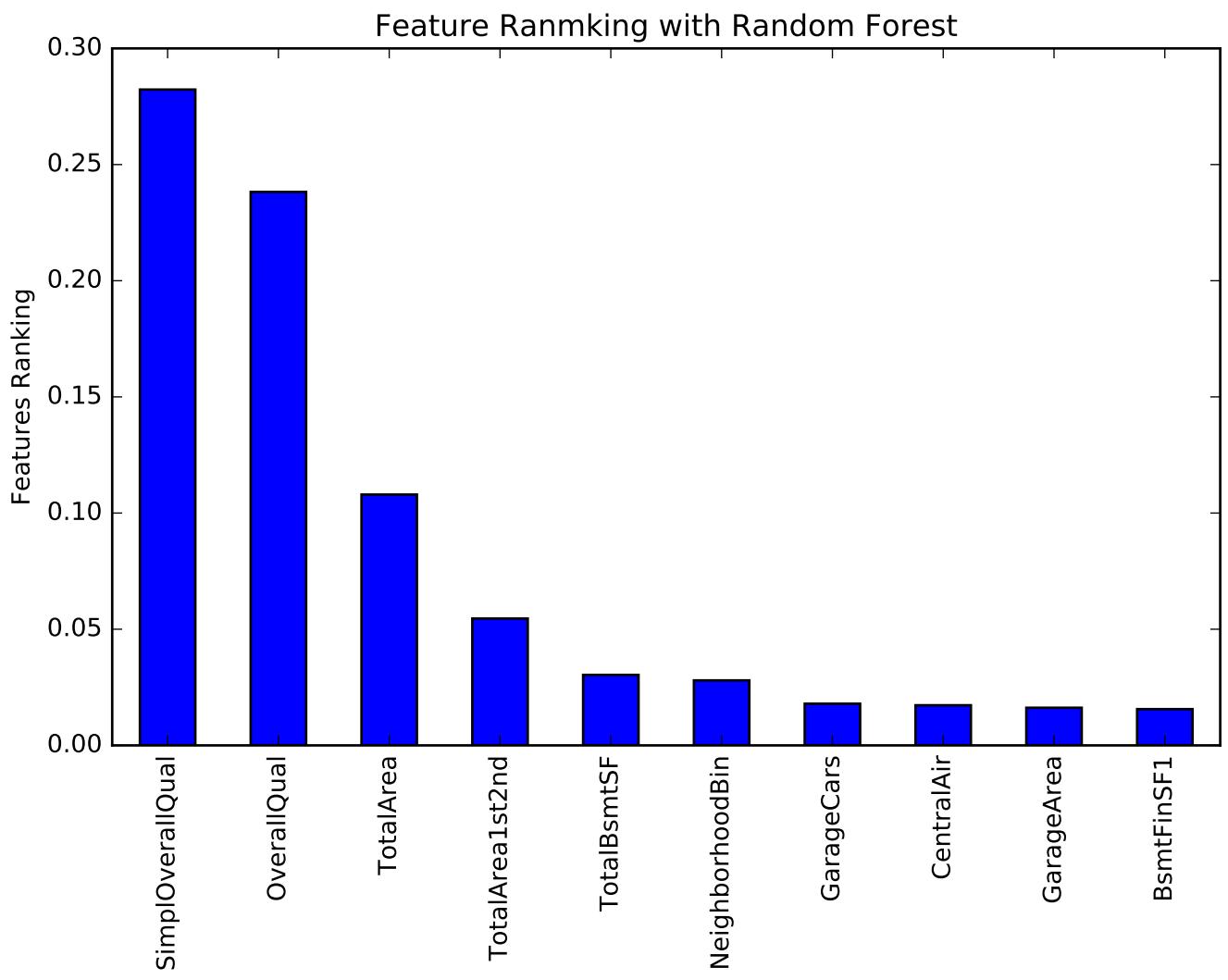


Figure 21: Graph - Random Forest Feature Ranking

```

# python code - lasso algorithm
from sklearn.linear_model import Lasso
from sklearn.metrics import mean_squared_error

train = pd.read_csv('train.csv')
test = pd.read_csv('test.csv')
target_vector = train['SalePrice']

#found this best alpha value through cross-validation
_best_alpha = 0.0001

_lasso_algo = Lasso(alpha = _best_alpha,
                     max_iter = 50000)

model = _lasso_algo.fit(train, target_vector)

y_train = target_vector
y_train_pred = _algo.predict(train)

#root mean squared error (RMSE)
rmse_train = np.sqrt(rmse(y_train,y_train_pred))

y_test_pred = _lasso_algo.predict(test)

```

Figure 22: Code - Lasso Algorithm

```

# python code - ridge algorithm
from sklearn.linear_model import Ridge
from sklearn.metrics import mean_squared_error

train = pd.read_csv('train.csv')
test = pd.read_csv('test.csv')
target_vector = train['SalePrice']

#found this best alpha value through cross-validation
_best_alpha = 0.00099

_ridge_algo = Ridge(alpha = _best_alpha,
                     normalize = True)

_ridge_algo.fit(train, target_vector)

df = {'features': train.columns.values,
       'Coefficients': _ridge_algo.coef_[0]}
coefficients = pd.DataFrame(df)
           .sort_values(by='Coefficients',
                        ascending=False)

plt.figure()
coefficients.iloc[0:10].plot(x=['features'],
                             kind='bar', title='Top 10 Positive Features')
plt.ylabel('Feature Coefs')
plt.figure()
coefficients.iloc[-10: ].plot(x=['features'],
                               kind='bar', title='Top 10 Negative Features')
plt.ylabel('Feature Coefs')

y_train = target_vector
y_train_pred = _ridge_algo.predict(train)

#root mean squared error (RMSE)
rmse_train = np.sqrt(rmse(y_train,y_train_pred))

y_test_pred = _ridge_algo.predict(test)

df_predict = pd.DataFrame({'Id': test['Id'],
                           'SalePrice': np.exp(y_test_pred) - 1.0})

#df_predict = pd.DataFrame({'Id': id_vector,
                           'SalePrice': sale_price_vector})

df_predict.to_csv('../data/kaggle_python_ridge.csv',
                 header=True, index=False)

```

Figure 23: Code - Ridge Algorithm

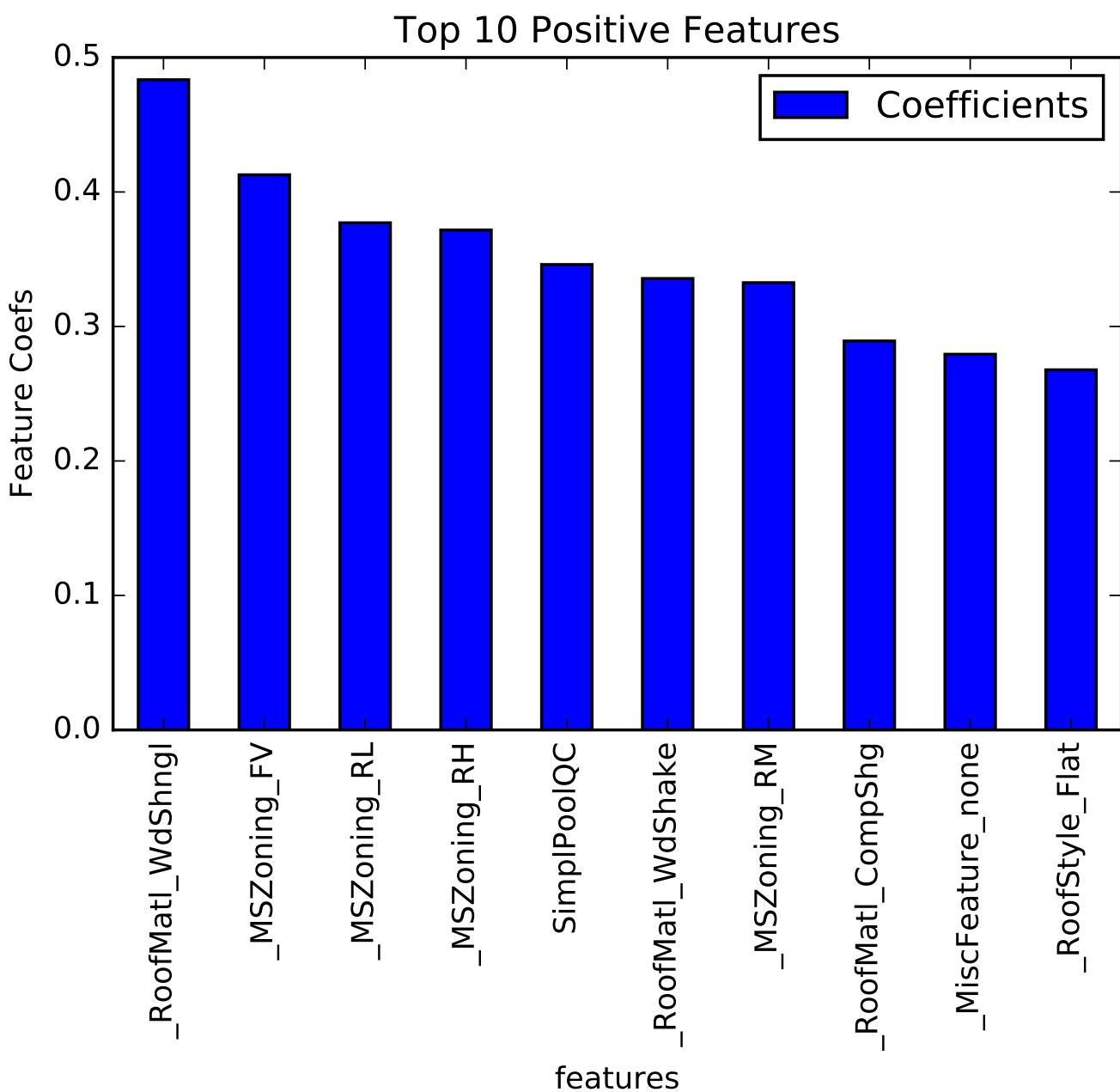


Figure 24: Graph - Ridge Top 10 Positive Features

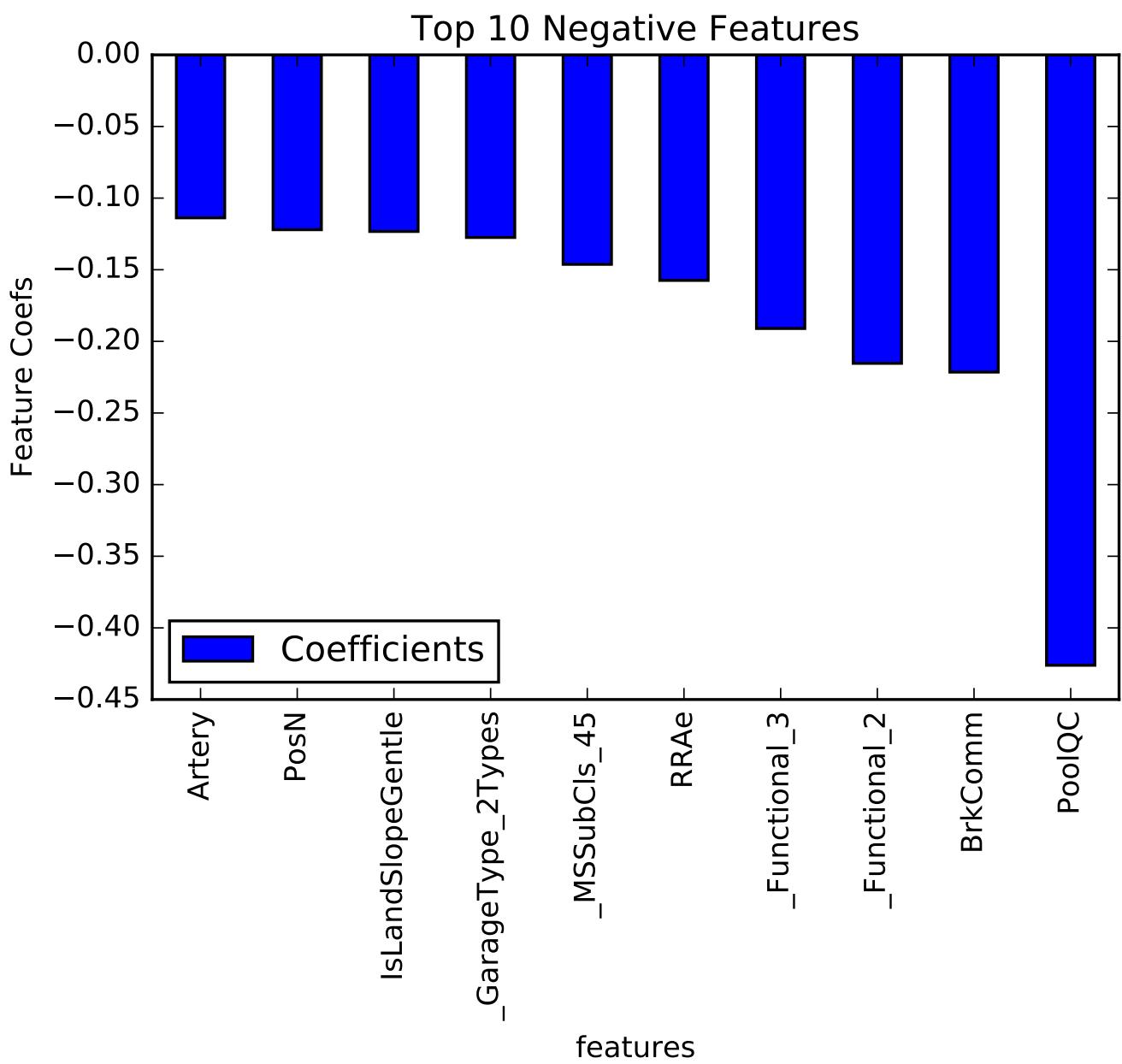


Figure 25: Graph - Ridge Top 10 Negative Features

```

# python code - XGBoost algorithm
import xgboost as xgb
from xgboost import XGBClassifier
from xgboost import plot_importance
from sklearn.metrics import mean_squared_error
from sklearn import cross_validation, metrics

train = pd.read_csv('train.csv')
test = pd.read_csv('test.csv')
target_vector = train['SalePrice']

_algo = np.random.seed(1234)

_xgb_algo = xgb.XGBRegressor(
    colsample_bytree=0.8,
    colsample_bylevel = 0.8,
    gamma=0.01,
    learning_rate=0.05,
    max_depth=5,
    min_child_weight=1.5,
    n_estimators=6000,
    reg_alpha=0.5,
    reg_lambda=0.5,
    subsample=0.7,
    seed=42,
    silent=1)

_xgb_algo.fit(train, target_vector)

feat_imp = pd.Series(_xgb_algo.booster()
    .get_fscore())
.sort_values(ascending=False)[0:10]
plot = feat_imp.plot(kind='bar',
    title='Top 10 Feature Importances')

y_train = target_vector
y_train_pred = _xgb_algo.predict(train)

#root mean squared error (RMSE)
rmse_train = np.sqrt(rmse(y_train,y_train_pred))

y_test_pred = _xgb_algo.predict(test)

```

Figure 26: Code - XGBoost Algorithm

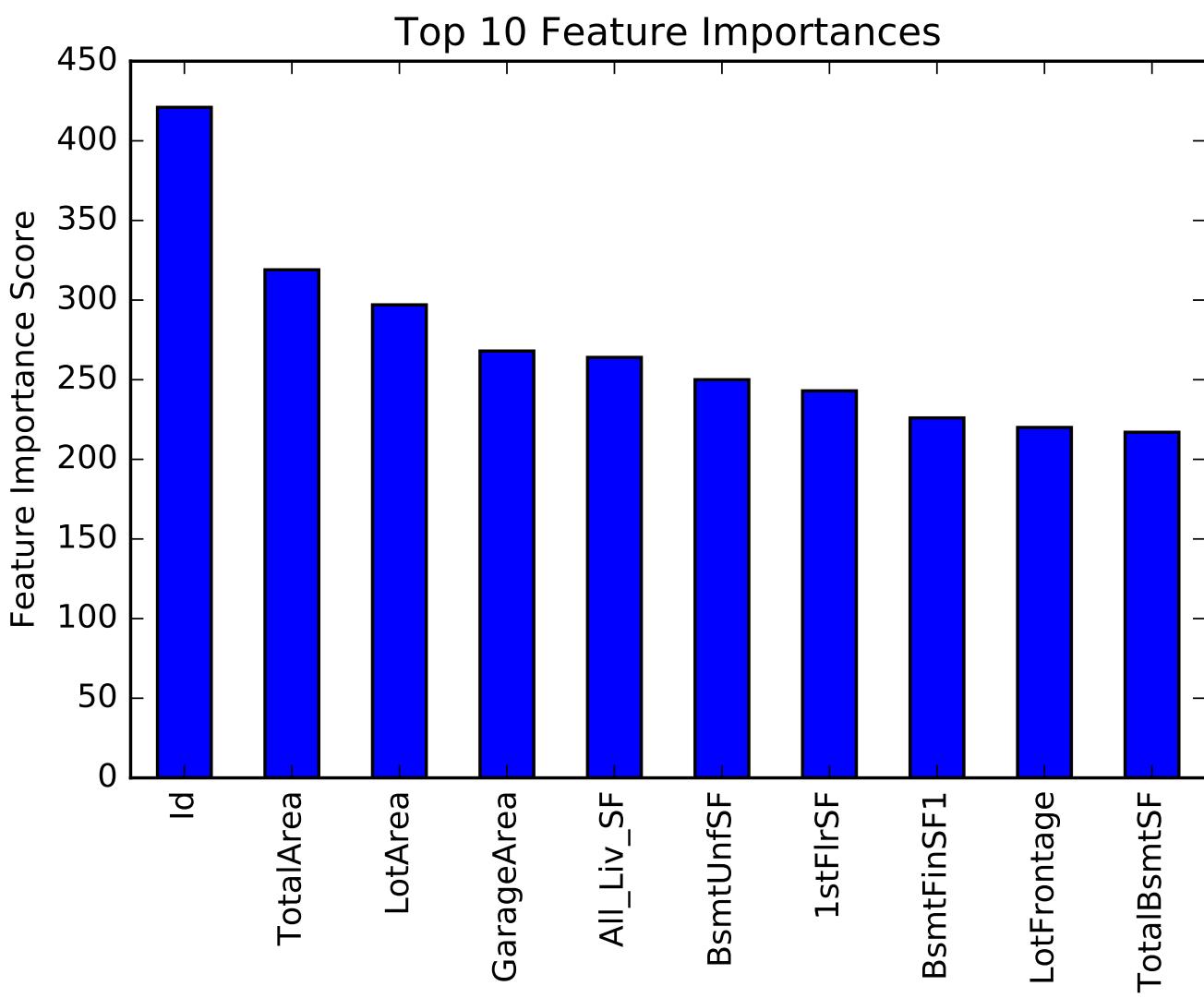


Figure 27: Graph - XGBoost Feature Importance

LIST OF TABLES

1	Table - XGBoost Hyper-parameters	28
2	Table - Kaggle Submissions	28

Table 1: Table - XGBoost Hyper-parameters

Hyper-parameter	Description
Maximum Iterations:	Number of trees in the final model. More the trees, more accuracy.
Maximum Depth:	Depth of each individual tree to control overfitting.
Step Size:	Shrinkage, works similar to learning rate; smaller value takes more iterations.
Column Subsample:	Subset of the columns to use in each iteration.

Table 2: Table - Kaggle Submissions

Algorithm	RMSE	Kaggle Score
SVM	0.2069	0.23967
Random Forest	0.0519	0.14607
Ridge	0.0988	0.13687
XGBoost	0.0432	0.13018
Lasso	0.1015	0.12860
Neural Network	0.20	0.12510
Ensemble		0.12011

```
bibtext report
```

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
```

```
bibtext _ label error
```

```
bibtext space label error
```

```
bibtext comma label error
```

```
latex report
```

```
[2017-12-08 04.01.56] pdflatex report.tex
This is pdfTeX, Version 3.14159265-2.6-1.40.17 (TeX Live 2016) (preloaded format=pdflatex)
bookmark level for unknown defaults to 0.
The anchor of a bookmark and its parent's must not be the same. Added a new anchor.
The anchor of a bookmark and its parent's must not be the same. Added a new anchor.
Typesetting of "report.tex" completed in 1.1s.
```

```
Compliance Report
```

```
name: Cheruvu, Murali
hid: 306
paper1: 100%; 10/26/2017
paper2: 100%; 11/4/2017
project: 100%; 12/3/2017
```

```
yamlcheck
```

```
wordcount
```

```
28
```

```
wc 306 project 28 7041 report.tex  
wc 306 project 28 7419 report.pdf  
wc 306 project 28 203 report.bib
```

```
find "
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find footnote
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find input{format/i523}
```

```
4: \input{format/i523}
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find input{format/final}
```

```
passed: False
```

```
floats
```

```
66: First part of the analysis was to check for any missing values in  
the training and testing datasets as shown in figure  
(\ref{c:check-nulls}). Using the bar plot shown in figure  
(\ref{fig:missing-values}), we have identified that there are 5  
variables: {\em pool quality}, {\em miscellaneous features}, {\em  
alley}, {\em fence} and {\em fire place quality}, having the most  
missing data. All the missed values for the numeric variables are  
analyzed further to decide whether we need to delete the instances  
of all the data with missing values or impute them using  
meaningful data such as median of the corresponding variable.
```

```
68: \begin{figure}[htb]
```

```
79: \caption{Code - Null Checks}\label{c:check-nulls}
```

```
82: \begin{figure}[htb]
```

```

84: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/missing_values}
85: \caption{Graph - Missing Values} \label{fig:missing-values}
89: There are 37 numerical variables after excluding the {\em Id} variable. We have analyzed all the numerical variables for data patterns such as skewness in the data and range of the possible values. We have shown {\em sale price}, {\em overall quality}, {\em garage live area} and {\em year built}, in the figures (\ref{fig:num-feature-1}) and (\ref{fig:num_features_2}) as a few sample plots from the numerical analysis. Corresponding code snippet is shown in figure (\ref{c:analyze-numeric}).
91: \begin{figure}[htb]
103: \caption{Code - Numerical Analysis}\label{c:analyze-numeric}
107: \begin{figure}[htb]
109: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/num_features_1}
110: \caption{Graph - Sale Price and Overall Quality}\label{fig:num-feature-1}
113: \begin{figure}[htb]
115: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/num_features_2}
116: \caption{Graph - Ground Live Area and Year Built}\label{fig:num_features_2}
120: There are 43 categorical variables in the combined dataset. We have analyzed all categorical variables and found the ways to fill the missing values. We has also evaluated proper approaches to convert them into numerical factors. Later on in the feature engineering section, we will go through more details on numerical factors. Categorical variable factors and the corresponding code snippet for {\em neighborhood} and {\em sale type} are shown in figure (\ref{c:analyze-cat}) and figures (\ref{fig:cat_features_1}).
122: \begin{figure}[htb]
143: \caption{Code - Categorical Analysis} \label{c:analyze-cat}
146: \begin{figure}[htb]
148: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/cat_features_1}
149: \caption{Graph - Neighborhood and Sale Type}\label{fig:cat_features_1}
153: {\em Numpy} package offers correlations functionality to analyze the variables that are positively or negatively correlated with the {\em sale price} and also analyze any interdependencies among the variables. Figure (\ref{c:cor}) and (\ref{fig:correlations}) shows the code snippet and the correlations plot. From that we can list the top 10 features those are strongly correlated with the target variable - {\em sale price}. We can visualize a few pair-wise correlation graphs with sale price for further detailed analysis. Figures (\ref{fig:pair-wise-correlations}) and (\ref{fig:pair-wise-correlations-2}) show how {\em overall quality}, {\em ground live area}, {\em garage cars} and {\em

```

garage area} are positively correlated with {\em sale price}.
 155: \begin{figure}[htb]
 165: \caption{Code - Correlations} \label{c:cor}
 168: \begin{figure}[htb]
 170: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/correlations}
 171: \caption{Graph - Correlations with Sale Price}
 \label{fig:correlations}
 174: \begin{figure}[htb]
 176: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/pair_wise_correlat
 ions_1}
 177: \caption{Graph - Overall Quality and Ground Live Area}
 \label{fig:pair-wise-correlations}
 180: \begin{figure}[htb]
 182: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/pair_wise_correlat
 ions_2}
 183: \caption{Graph - Garage Cars and Garage Area} \label{fig:pair-
 wise-correlations-2}
 200: From the numerical analysis, we have identified that there are a
 few numerical variables need further analysis to identify the
 skewed data. We did not find any key variables those have skewed
 more than 75\%. However, we wanted to replace the {\em sale
 price} with corresponding logarithmic value for the predictive
 models and later convert it back to the exponential value before
 submitting to the kaggle competition. Figure (\ref{fig:sale-
 price-skew}) shows the {\em sale price}, before and after
 applying the logarithmic value.
 202: \begin{figure}[htb]
 204: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/sale_price_skew}
 205: \caption{Graph - Sale Price skewness} \label{fig:sale-price-skew}
 210: Continuing with exploratory analysis, we have analyzed the
 outliers using {\em Cook's distance}. Cook's distance is a
 measure calculated from a regression model to find out the
 influence exerted by each observation (row) on the predictions.
 As a practice, those observations that have a Cook's distance
 greater than 4 times the mean value may be classified as an
 outlier. Outlier detection can be done using univariate and
 multivariate analysis. In univariate model, the outliers are
 those observations that are present outside of $1.5 * \text{IQR}$, where
 IQR ({\em Inter Quartile Range}) is the difference between 75th
 and 25th quartiles. Analyzing outliers in any observations based
 on single variable may lead to incorrect inferences. Cook's
 distance generalizes the outlier analysis using multivariate
 approach \cite{1}. Figure (\ref{c:code-outliers}) is the code
 implementing Cook's distance to find the outliers from training
 dataset and figure (\ref{fig:outliers}) shows the scatter plot
 with outliers being marked as bubbles. The bigger the bubbles,

the bigger outlier deviations from the mean value. We have further analyzed two key variables - {\em ground live area} and {\em garage area} that are in high correlation with the {\em sale price}. From the scatter plot shown in figure (\ref{fig:gr-liv-area-outlier}), we can see that {\em garage live area} has 4 outliers with values greater than 4,000 sq ft. We can also visualize 4 outliers in {\em garage area} scatter plot with values greater than 1,200 sq ft. as shown in figure (\ref{fig:garage-area-outlier}). We have removed the 8 outlier rows related to these two variables from the training dataset, the corresponding code snippet shown in figure (\ref{c:code-del-outliers}).

```

212: \begin{figure}[htb]
224: \caption{Code - Outlier Analysis} \label{c:code-outliers}
227: \begin{figure}[htb]
229: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/outliers}
230: \caption{Graph - Outliers using Cook's distance}
    \label{fig:outliers}
233: \begin{figure}[htb]
235: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/gr_liv_area_outlie
r}
236: \caption{Graph - Garage Live Area Outliers} \label{fig:gr-liv-
area-outlier}
239: \begin{figure}[htb]
241: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/garage_area_outlie
r}
242: \caption{Graph - Garage Area Outliers} \label{fig:garage-area-
outlier}
245: \begin{figure}[htb]
253: \caption{Code - Delete Outliers} \label{c:code-del-outliers}
273: One-hot encoding converts the category variable into many binary vectors, one new numeric variable for each value in the category. Assume that we have a categorical variable called signal-light with three possible values: green, yellow and red. We will need to convert these values into numeric - green = 1, yellow = 2 and red = 3. When we apply one-hot encoding on this variable, basically we are creating three new categorical variables - signal-light-green, signal-light-yellow and signal-light-red along with the original variable - signal-light, each is pretty much a binary vector having 1s for all the corresponding values; otherwise 0s. With hot-encoding, we are basically increasing dimensions in the model. After extensive feature engineering applied on the housing dataset, we have added {\em 228} new features (variables). Figure (\ref{c:code-one-hot}) shows the python methods to factorize categorical variables and one-hot encoding techniques.

```

```

275: \begin{figure}[htb]
299: \caption{Code - factorize and one-hot encoding} \label{c:code-one-hot}
323: Support Vector Machine (SVM) algorithms can be used to solve
      classification and regression problems. SVM regression relies on
      kernel functions for modeling the data. SVM creates larger
      margins between categories of data so that they are linearly
      separable. SVM handles non-linearly separable data, mainly for
      regression problems, using kernel functions, such as polynomial,
      radial basis function (RBF) and sigmoid, to project the data onto
      a hyperplane. Figure (\ref{c:svm}) shows the python
      implementation for {\em sale price} predictions of the housing
      test dataset.
325: \begin{figure}[htb]
349: \caption{Code - SVM Algorithm} \label{c:svm}
355: Random Forest is an advanced machine learning algorithm for
      predictive analytics. Random Forest ensembles multiple decision
      trees to create an additive learning model from the sequence of
      base models created by each decision tree that worked on a sub-
      sample dataset. Random Forest models are suitable to handle
      tabular datasets with hundreds of numeric and categorical
      features. Along with missing values, non-linear relations between
      features and the target, will be handled well by random forest
      algorithms. With proper tuning of hyper-parameters of the random
      forest algorithm, it can perform well with decent accuracy in the
      predictions without overfitting the model. Unlike similar
      regression models, it does not offer feature coefficient
      information but it provides {\em feature ranking} functionality
      very nicely. Figure (\ref{c:rf}) shows the random forest
      algorithm details for the {\em sale price} predictions
      implemented using {\em sklearn} package and the figure
      (\ref{fig:random-feature-ranking}) shows the top 10 important
      features selected by random forest to model the predictions.
357: \begin{figure}[htb]
386: \caption{Code - Random Forest Algorithm} \label{c:rf}
390: \begin{figure}[htb]
392: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/random_forest_feature_ranking}
393: \caption{Graph - Random Forest Feature Ranking}
      \label{fig:random-feature-ranking}
398: Lasso is a regression model that uses shrinkage to bring data
      points towards the center, similar to the mean value of all the
      data points. Lasso stands for Least Absolute Shrinkage and
      Selection Operator. It is a regularized linear model with penalty
      term {\em lambda} to minimize the error. Parameter penalization
      controls overfitting the input data by shrinking variable

```

coefficients to 0. Essentially this makes the variables no effect in the model, hence reduces the dimensions. Figure (\ref{c:lasso}) shows the lasso algorithm implementation for \em sale price predictions in python.

```
400: \begin{figure}[htb]
426: \caption{Code - Lasso Algorithm} \label{c:lasso}
431: Ridge algorithm is very similar to lasso algorithm with the same goal. While lasso performs \em L1 regularization, ridge applies \em L2 regularization techniques in modeling the predictions. L1 regularization adds penalty to the variables equivalent to \em absolute value of the magnitude of the coefficients, whereas L2 adds the penalty equivalent to \em square of the magnitude of the variable coefficients. Figure (\ref{c:ridge}) shows the python implementation of the ridge algorithm for the \em sale price predictions. Figures (\ref{fig:ridge-feature-ranking-pos}) and (\ref{fig:ridge-feature-ranking-neg}) show the top 10 positively and top 10 negatively influencing variables with \em sale price.
433: \begin{figure}[htb]
433: \caption{Code - Ridge Algorithm} \label{c:ridge}
486: \begin{figure}[htb]
488: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/ridge_feature_ranking_pos}
489: \caption{Graph - Ridge Top 10 Positive Features}
        \label{fig:ridge-feature-ranking-pos}
492: \begin{figure}[htb]
494: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/ridge_feature_ranking_neg}
495: \caption{Graph - Ridge Top 10 Negative Features}
        \label{fig:ridge-feature-ranking-neg}
500: XGBoost (eXtreme Gradient Boosting) is one of the Gradient Boosted Machine algorithms. It ensembles (combines) optimized model by taking trained models from all the preceding iterations. XGBoost regularizes the variables (parameters) to reduce the overfit and can work well with variables having missing values. It is empowered with built-in cross validation to reduce the boosting iterations; hence offers better performance along with parallel processing on distributed systems such as Hadoop. By tuning the XGBoost hyper parameters, we can achieve well optimized model that can make more accurate predictions. XGBoost uses \em F-Score to measure the importance of variables. Table (\ref{tab:xgb-param}) explains the hyper-parameters of XGBoost algorithm and also given the python code, as shown in figure (\ref{c:xgb}), implementing for \em sale price predictions. Figure (\ref{fig:xgb-feature-imp}) shows the top 10 feature selection by the XGBoost.
```

```

502: \begin{table}[htb]
505: \label{tab:xgb-param}
521: \begin{figure}[htb]
567: \caption{Code - XGBoost Algorithm} \label{c:xgb}
570: \begin{figure}[htb]
572: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/xgboost_feature_im-
portance}
573: \caption{Graph - XGBoost Feature Importance} \label{fig:xgb-
feature-imp}
581: We can create a robust predictive model with better accuracy by
merging two or more machine learning algorithms. This technique
is called {\em model ensembling}. Ensembled algorithms may be
similar in functionality or may entirely be different from each
other. Individual algorithms may not perform great but by
ensembling them, the overall system can offer much better
performance and accuracy. Variations in the predicting logic in
each of these individual algorithms will bring unbiasedness into
the unified model. {\em Bagging}, {\em boosting} and {\em
stacking} are popular ensembling techniques. Many of the advanced
machine learning algorithms use ensembled approaches to achieve
accurate classifications or predictions. Random Forest uses
bagging, XGBoost uses boosting and Neural Network applies
stacking ensembling techniques. For the kaggle submission, we
have created an ensembled model by averaging {\em Sale Price} of
the top 3 performing ensembled algorithms - XGBoost, Lasso and
Neural Network. As predicted, ensembled model has scored better
compared to the individual algorithms. By applying advanced
machine learning algorithms, we have placed our scores within top
20\% of the competition. Table (\ref{tab:kaggle}) displays each
algorithm and the {\em root mean squared error} (RMSE) along with
the {\em kaggle score}.
583: \begin{table}[htb]
585: \label{tab:kaggle}
615: \item Code: \href{https://github.com/bigdata-i523/hid306/blob/mas-
ter/project/code/1.1_exploratory_analysis_numerical.ipynb}{1.1\_e-
xploratory\_analysis\_numerical.ipynb} - To load datasets and
analyze all numerical variables
617: \item Code: \href{https://github.com/bigdata-i523/hid306/blob/mas-
ter/project/code/1.2_exploratory_analysis_categorical.ipynb}{1.2\_e-
xploratory\_analysis\_categorical.ipynb} - To analyze
categorical variables in the dataset
619: \item Code: \href{https://github.com/bigdata-i523/hid306/blob/mas-
ter/project/code/1.3_outlier_and_skewed_data_analysis.ipynb}{1.3\_o-
utlier\_and\_skewed\_data\_analysis.ipynb} - Handles outlier
and skewed data analysis
621: \item Code: \href{https://github.com/bigdata-i523/hid306/blob/mas

```

ter/project/code/1.4_feature_engineering.ipynb}{1.4_feature_engineering.ipynb} - All the feature engineering is done in this file

623: \item Code: \href{https://github.com/bigdata-i523/hid306/blob/master/project/code/2.1_algorithm_svm.ipynb}{2.1_algorithm_svm.ipynb} - Implementation of SVM algorithm

625: \item Code: \href{https://github.com/bigdata-i523/hid306/blob/master/project/code/2.2_algorithm_random_forest.ipynb}{2.2_algorithm_random_forest.ipynb} - Implementation of Random Forest algorithm

627: \item Code: \href{https://github.com/bigdata-i523/hid306/blob/master/project/code/2.3_algorithm_ridge.ipynb}{2.3_algorithm_ridge.ipynb} - Implementation of Ridge algorithm

629: \item Code: \href{https://github.com/bigdata-i523/hid306/blob/master/project/code/2.4_algorithm_lasso.ipynb}{2.4_algorithm_lasso.ipynb} - Implementation of Lasso algorithm

631: \item Code: \href{https://github.com/bigdata-i523/hid306/blob/master/project/code/2.5_algorithm_neural_network_tf.ipynb}{2.5_algorithm_neural_network_tf.ipynb} - Implementation of Neural Network algorithm

633: \item Code: \href{https://github.com/bigdata-i523/hid306/blob/master/project/code/2.6_algorithm_xgboost.ipynb}{2.6_algorithm_xgboost.ipynb} - Implementation of XGBoost algorithm

635: \item Code: \href{https://github.com/bigdata-i523/hid306/blob/master/project/code/3_ensemble_kaggle_submission.ipynb}{3_ensemble_kaggle_submission.ipynb} - Implementation of Ensembled algorithm

641: \item Input data file: \href{https://github.com/bigdata-i523/hid306/blob/master/project/data/train.csv}{train.csv} - Sample training dataset with housing attributes along with the sale price

642: \item input data file: \href{https://github.com/bigdata-i523/hid306/blob/master/project/data/test.csv}{test.csv} - Sample testing dataset similar to training dataset without the sale price

644: \item Output data file: \href{https://github.com/bigdata-i523/hid306/blob/master/project/data/kaggle_python_svm.csv}{kaggle_python_svm.csv} - Predicted Housing Sale Prices from SVM algorithm

646: \item Output data file: \href{https://github.com/bigdata-i523/hid306/blob/master/project/data/kaggle_python_random_forest.csv}{kaggle_python_random_forest.csv} - Predicted Housing Sale Prices from Random Forest algorithm

648: \item Output data file: \href{https://github.com/bigdata-i523/hid306/blob/master/project/data/kaggle_python_ridge.csv}{kaggle_python_ridge.csv} - Predicted Housing Sale Prices from Ridge algorithm

650: \item Output data file: \href{https://github.com/bigdata-i523/hid}

```
306/blob/master/project/data/kaggle_python_xgboost.csv}{kaggle\_python\_xgboost.csv} - Predicted Housing Sale Prices from XGBoost algorithm
652: \item Output data file: \href{https://github.com/bigdata-i523/hid306/blob/master/project/data/kaggle_python_lasso.csv}{kaggle\_python\_lasso.csv} - Predicted Housing Sale Prices from Lasso algorithm
654: \item Output data file: \href{https://github.com/bigdata-i523/hid306/blob/master/project/data/kaggle_python_neural_network.csv}{kaggle\_python\_neural\_network.csv} - Predicted Housing Sale Prices from Neural Network algorithm
656: \item Output data file: \href{https://github.com/bigdata-i523/hid306/blob/master/project/data/kaggle_python_ensemble.csv}{kaggle\_python\_ensemble.csv} - Predicted Housing Sale Prices from Ensembled algorithm
```

figures 27
tables 2
includegraphics 15
labels 29
refs 33
floats 29

```
False : ref check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
True : label check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
True : include graphics passed: (figures >= includegraphics)
True : check if all figures are referred to: (refs >= labels)
```

Label/ref check
passed: True

When using figures use columnwidth
[width=1.0\columnwidth]
do not change the number to a smaller fraction

find textwidth

passed: True

below_check

bibtex

```
label errors
```

```
bibtex errors
```

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
```

```
bibtex_empty_fields
```

```
entries in general should not be empty in bibtex
```

```
find ""
```

```
passed: True
```

```
ascii
```

```
=====
The following tests are optional
=====
```

```
Tip: newlines can often be replaced just by an empty line
```

```
find newline
```

```
passed: True
```

```
cites should have a space before \cite{} but not before the {
```

```
find cite {
```

```
passed: True
```

Big Data Applications in Real Estate Analysis

Elena Kirzhner

Indiana University Bloomington

3209 E 10th St

Bloomington, Indiana 47408

ekirzhne@iu.edu

ABSTRACT

Big Data analysis reveals and comforts buyers with knowledge and facts about the neighborhood, its people and trends. Reducing risk of buying and predicting changes in home value for potential buyers.

KEYWORDS

i523, hid320, Big Data Applications and Analytics, Real Estate

1 INTRODUCTION

When one mentions American dream, home ownership is first aspect that comes to mind. Another part of the American dream is financial success and wealth building. Buying your dream home to raise the family is obvious part of the real estate. For most Americans buying a home is the largest purchase they will ever make. Coupled with the fact that most conventional mortgages span 30 years research and analysis required to make educated choice should not be taken lightly as it will have implications on lifestyle for practically 40 percent of your lifetime. Successful investment in your home, potential rental property or land can lead to financially windfall. Failure to make right choices in real-estate purchases may have disastrous consequences. Financial ruin is obvious part of the equation. Majority of divorces in the united states are caused by financial duress in the households. Resulting in stress negatively affecting one's health.

The latest trend in real estate is application of Big Data. Big Data manipulation is booming and transforming the industry. We are seeing a huge move in usage of Big data and analytics. Companies build property matching online software based on customers behavior and their needs. The opportunities of Big Data are truly endless. It creates the power to change our thinking in decision making and develops efficient business approach by extracting variety of collected data points and reducing risks for consumers.

Big Data is already changing real estate industry by optimizing consumers search, offers recommendations on real estate websites to potential buyers and sellers. Utilizing Big Data in real estate could match customers with their desired home. It might include how many bedrooms they need, what neighborhood fits best, affordability, schools, crime rates, potential business property for rent, location and communities.

When using Big Data and analytics, it is possible to review patterns to understand whether the property is a good investment and a great match to potential customer. It is also possible to analyze what buyers are selecting more often and based on that data create a model.

When selecting a specific house for sale, Big Data integration within online websites made it possible to analyze local surroundings, sale patterns and neighborhood personality of each area. It created a knowledge comfort by having facts of the neighborhood, its people; and therefore reducing the risk of buying or investing in the wrong property.

2 BIG DATA IN REAL ESTATE BUSINESS

Risk mitigation is essential part of the way Big Data is transforming real estate. Open data across the internet and variety of Big Data tools added strong force for analysis in decision making of choosing right property or home. It equipped customers with the valuable information by extracting the data and cross analyzing it.

Big real estate agencies such as Realtor [13], Zillow [22] and Trulia [16], are pioneering those tools and provide estimated forecast of the property value from 1 to 10 years. Additionally, they provide information about the neighborhood trends, estimate mortgage payment, cost of ownership, history of the property and current value. The calculation is based on variety of public data records, market information, user data points [21] by using Big Data analysis formula developed in-house.

2.1 Real Estate Industry Evolution

Automated valuation methods have been used for a very long time. For decades banks utilized "Automated Valuation Model" to estimate home values. At one point banks wanted to exclusively rely on this model more than home values provided by professional appraisers. That practice led to problems with by omitting important nuances about condition resulting in overvaluation and undervaluation of properties. Big Data analysis and property estimates generated by online real estate giants are the next step in the evolution of real estate industry. This evolution diminishes importance and need for a real-estate agents as it is able to gather a lot of tribal information known only to experts in the area. That means this change can impact job market for over six hundred thousand active agents in the US.

2.2 Real Estate and Artificial Intelligence

Real estate businesses worry that unlocking the vast amount of data about properties could transform the business to be powered by artificial intelligence.

However, based on the GeekWire article [7] big data and artificial intelligence will not replace real estate agents. Robots are just big help and enrichment to the business. It created much better and safer decision making models. Artificial intelligence will help to deliver information about real estate transactions and trends to consumers. It says that in future Amazon voice or Siri could provide

useful information about popular housing trends and market value. Additionally, it can reveal the data on how many people were interested in the property and bids.

So far it is not a robot that is thinking and proactively making decision, it is just a voice based system that extracts the information from Big Data.

For the last twenty years, industry worries about loosing jobs in that area. However, the industry stayed the same. People still want an advice before making an important decision. Even thought, there so much more information and streamlined sales, individuals that want relationships, empathy and connecting with people are still there.

Obviously, there is some fear in real estate that robots can rock the world for real estate business. However, Big Data empowers agents with information and data, it is making them better providers with higher service.

2.3 Online Real Estate Agencies

Online real estate agencies calculate market value by using proprietary formulas. They are not providing expert estimation but a starting point in estimated property monetary worth. It is calculated from public data and surveys, by utilizing special features, market conditions and location. Additionally, they encourage consumers and homeowners to expand online data by doing other investigations such as comparing market prices for around areas, working with a real estate agent, getting an appraisal from an expert and visiting the house [21].

For example Zillow, developed a Zestimate prediction[21], which is Zillow's estimate of a home that currently on sale, one to ten years from now. The provided information based on current house and market condition. Other real estate agencies with online presence competing with Zillow, like Trulia and Realtor for example have developed similar proprietary formulas to assist customers.

Also, the companies provide rent estimates that would help evaluate potential monthly rental price by developed in-house algorithmic formula. Variations in rental prices can also happen because of different factors, additional investments, or length of lease.

Big Data information affects the forecasting. As an example, the amount of rental listings in a specific area affects how much we know about approximate prices in that area for condos, apartments and houses. Based on number of properties for rent, the prediction becomes more accurate. Homeowners can also update and provide information online about their needs or property, which helps even more for predicted accuracy.

The formula they use to estimate rent prices is comparing similar homes and apartments in the given area. Comparing bedrooms, square footage and other details. Then prices are being compared, and pattern to rental prices is shown.

Big data analysis provides unbiased information. Although, majority of real estate agents are esteemed professionals looking out for client's best interests they are still. There are still those that would like to manipulate client's opinion to benefit themselves. For example, if a particular house have been on the market too long and the agent might lose the listing there is a possibility that some shortcoming of the property will be omitted by the agent in order to complete the sale. Same can be said about agents trying

to achieve some sales goals or quotas. However, if the potential buyer conducts the research using Big Data all information will be available. Put simply, data does not lie.

3 REAL ESTATE ANALYSIS

Big Data is widely used by agents and real estate agencies to understand and improve how to target potential buyers. But the great thing about Big Data is that customers benefit from it as well. They can use free public resources with tons of data and information maps with different data analyzing tool options.

Latest tools allow to utilize Python to cross mix and match different values and data sets to analyze complex data. Prior to having these tools available such analysis would be an impossible task for individual users and required immense human and computing effort to complete. It is possible to visualize it by rendering correlations and trends. It reveals stunning insights in to chosen property for rent, business or home.

There is so much information that it is important to understand which data is relevant to consumers and improves decision making. It is useful to analyze the data-sets when considering investing [3]. The analysis can provide variety information and make the educated decision on the investment.

3.1 Big Data Tools

Analysis of these featured data points could be done with Python tool sets and libraries.

Python is a great programming language with variety of options. It is object oriented, semantically structured and great for scripting programs as well as connecting other programmable components. Python is considerably easy to learn and because of its high productivity and also became one of the favorite tools for programmers and data scientists. It contains libraries that are script importable and usable for a lot of use cases, such as image modification, scientific data analysis and server automation. Python world has been around for thirty years and a lot of code was written with multiple contributors. Variety of options built up on how to visualize the data [19].

The most common type of visualization is a simple bar chart and line graph [14]. It is popular and commonly used type of visualization to make comparison between values and variety of categories. It can be vertically or horizontally oriented by adjusting x and y axes, depending on what kind of information or categories the chart requires to present. Parameters need to be identified, such as axes, similarities, title and decided on what exactly the visualization supposed to show.

To make a simple bar chart, a number some of the most popular tools and libraries that have been invented for plotting the data could be utilized. These include the most used and common tools such as: Pandas, Seaborn, Bokeh, Pygal and Plotly.

Additionally, just like any other programming language issues, errors or questions with the libraries can be found on stack overflow page by Google search.

3.2 Data Analysis

For the purpose of this project, bar chart and graphs visualization methods with pandas modules in Python have been rendered and

explained. The simple form of this plot looks acceptable and easy to read.

The techniques were done within Jupiter notebook [9].

Jupiter notebook is great for running data sets analysis and for calculation projects. Jupiter notebook documents are readable files having the analysis description and the results in figures and tables as well as exportable files which can be executed to perform data analysis. It allows to render images and move values back and forth between different modules and coding languages.

The data-sets collected from clsearch.com [5], data.gov [17], zillow.com [22] and uploaded to the class's Google Drive to demonstrate the trends and patterns between each output.

The data includes both geographic and social data-sets evaluated by ratings in rows and titles in columns to keep it simple. The data set for both cities is being used for all examples that are demonstrated below. The point of the visualization is to understand the data in visual platform and make an informative decision based on rendered data.

A simple example of two properties in Tarzana, California versus Calabasas, were compared and exported for read.

Tarzana City is a wealthy neighborhood in the San Fernando Valley region of the city of Los Angeles, California. Tarzana was purchased in 1919 and developed on the site of local elites and named by Edgar Rice Burroughs, author of the popular Tarzan books. He established Tarzana and later sold it to local farmers [20].

Calabasas City located in the hills west of Malibu, in the San Fernando Valley region of the city of Los Angeles, California. The area established in 1991 and the name was derived from Spanish word "calabaza", meaning pumpkin. The legend has it that in 1824, a Mexican rancher spilled a wagon of pumpkin seeds and it spouted alongside the road. Therefore, the area was named Calabasas, the pumpkin land [20].

From a quick glance both areas are very similar and are located within 10 miles of each other. Both Tarzana and Calabasas are influential and desirable neighborhoods with lots of high priced homes. How does one differentiate between the two in order to find the right investment?

Big Data is the answer. Specifically in states like California. In California Big Data application benefits greatly from availability of public records such as sale price as apposed to certain "non-disclosure" states. There sale prices for homes are not disclosed in public records.

The analysis combines several main components, including property characteristics in the area, crime rate, quality of life, pollution, race and ethnicity, population growth, family household, house value, business field, employment, schools and future home value.

3.3 Property Characteristics

Big Data analytics can help in connecting needs of a buyer and providing neighborhood demographics. The quality of population in the neighborhood will influence who buys the house and who lives there. It is important to identify what is important to you and make sure those items are covered in the research. For example, if you are a student you will probably look for a densely populated

location around universities, closer to food locations and communities. Things like public transportation, nightlife, and bars will be very important to you and will be prioritized over other things. If you are married with kids, your best choice would be location with good schools and low crime. Parks, playgrounds and traffic and noise pollution around the house will be paramount. Most parents would love to find a nice quite cul-de-sac house. Young working professional would prefer to be right in the middle of things on a busy boulevard.

Latest Big Data collections made it all possible for real estate website to provide that information to potential buyers. Websites such as United States Zip-codes [2] collect information from public records and make it available in exportable format as well as for reviewing and analyzing local neighborhoods by states and zip codes input.

3.4 Crime Rate Indexes

Crime Big Data is available now and helps to see patterns and avoid areas with unfavorable statistics. The Los Angeles Police Department [1] already uses the data to show which areas in Los Angeles are hot-spots of crime.

Crime rates are being calculated by comparing the national levels of the average 100 [6]. For example, if score is 150 it means that it is 1.5 higher risk of crime than national average level. The data is coming from police department reports and public records. Additionally, the Federal Bureau of Investigation also provides factual information for ranking [18]. Furthermore, the research on crime can be extracted from United States Department of Justice via Uniform Crime Reporting Program [11].

In this example [9], running the crime data sets of Tarzana and Calabasas showed that Calabasas is in much better shape and safer place to live as compared to Tarzana, which is around the average of national rate. The total crime risk in Tarzana slightly higher than national average, it is 108, meanwhile Calabasas is almost 3 times lower, it is 24. The murder risk is 118 compared to 24 in Calabasas. Rape risk is 70 in Tarzana and 35 in Calabasas. Robbery risk in Tarzana is almost twice higher than in Calabasas, it is 125 versus 77. Assault risk three times higher in Tarzana, it is 127 versus 48 in Calabasas. Burglary risk twice higher in Tarzana as well, it is 55 versus 27. Larceny risk in Tarzana is overwhelmingly high, it is 73 versus 9 in Calabasas. Motor vehicle theft risk in Tarzana is 118 versus 39 in Calabasas. Based on these findings, it is defiantly safer to live in Calabasas [fig 1].

Based on these finding, it is defiantly safer to live in Calabasas as shown in Figure 1 [9].

[Figure 1 about here.]

3.5 Education Levels

Next run was done on educational level of residents. Big Data includes data of resident's education level and makes it possible to collect data about an individual resident and provides insightful information about social level interaction. The data extracted and combined from variety of sources including international school districts.

The education rating filtered by zip codes represents the percentage of people in the area who have attended colleges and received degrees. It does not represent performance and specific schools.

The rendered data showed [9] that residents in Calabasas are higher educated by 7 percent with Bachelor degrees and 6 percent higher with graduate degree, as shown in Figure 2 [9].

[Figure 2 about here.]

Based on the Economic Policy Institute study [4], there is a clear correlation between higher educated workforce and economic success within state and ability to grow. Additionally, higher educated people are good for state budgets, since workers with higher income contribute more through taxes.

3.6 Life Quality Standards

The next important consideration in buying a property, searching for a house and making a decision is quality of life standards in that area. Big Data and latest methods of data collection can lead to improvements in quality of life for residential areas. It can find neighborhoods that are safer, cleaner, more entertaining and a better place to live specifically tailored to potential buyer.

The data-set of life quality obtained from variety of sources, including public Google searches, social media and local study groups. The quality of life is being measured by how residents are being effected by crimes, weather, education, entertainment, religion, medical support and food supply. The positive decision variables calculated by amusement, education, culture, media, religion, weather and restaurants. The negative decision is based on the level of crime, natural disasters and mortality. The national level is being compared to 100 [5].

Rendered data showed that amusement index equal to 110 in Tarzana and 130 in Calabasas. What that means is that in Calabasas there are more community events and entertainment. Culture is 142 in Tarzana versus 129 in Calabasas. Culture refers to artistic development. Earthquake index 362 in Tarzana compared to 318 in Calabasas. this is a very interesting point considering that both neighborhoods are very close to each other. But since Tarzana's Earthquake index is higher associated insurance will likely be higher as well. Raising cost of ownership. Medical index is 137 in Tarzana and 116 in Calabasas. If you are working in the medical field this might be an important topic for you as it will help you find employment closer to home. Reduce your commute time, minimizing wasted time spent in California's infamous gridlock traffic. Mortality is much higher in Tarzana, it is 144 versus 95 in Calabasas. Religion is better in Tarzana, it is 154 compared to 96 in Calabasas. Religion refers to houses of worship and religious establishments. Restaurant index about the same, it is 144 in Tarzana and 139 in Calabasas. Weather is better in Tarzana, it is 16 versus 10 in Calabasas. That is another interesting observation considering that both neighborhoods are minutes away from each other.

Based on the data, overall quality of life is equal between two cities, as shown in Figure 3 [9].

[Figure 3 about here.]

3.7 Air Pollution

Big data can control and reveal pollution levels of particular area [8]. It is one of the main causes of health problems in the population and preventive cause death.

Over 80 percent of residents living in urban areas are vulnerable to poisoning from pollution. Cancer is one of the leading cause of deaths for both men and women; and exposure to pollution at early may have life-long negative consequences.

Monitored areas show that air quality levels exceed the safety levels [12]. Additionally, the World Health Organization warns that most populated states are most affected.

Government is aware of this problem, therefore collecting and monitoring the data regarding air quality has increased. The data is being shared between universities and air quality maps for further development. The data is openly shared and prepared for Big Data analysis.

Even though Big Data will not reduce the pollution by itself, it provides tools to visualize the problem which is especially helpful when choosing a place to live.

The exported data-sets showed [9] that carbon monoxide is extremely high in both cities. It is 186 in Tarzana and 183 in Calabasas. The national level is being compared to 100 [5]. Based on the data, overall air pollution index is about the same in both areas, as shown in Figure 4 [9].

[Figure 4 about here.]

3.8 Race and Ethnicity

Big Data can reveal a lot of information about population by using zip codes. It shows profiles of people who live there. Understanding ethnicity and identity of the community influence will help with decision.

The standard of maintaining, collecting and presenting federal data on race and ethnicity [10] were revised and improved on collecting quality about two decades ago. In accordance to best analysis practices, federal agencies conducting researches to better understand ethnic and race diversity.

The language to describe the ethnicity and race keeps changing to resonate with the category of residence and adding new meaning to not make it discriminatory. The general rule became that race and ethnicity should not be interpreted as being a science.

Based on the rendered graph, most population in Tarzana and Calabasas consist of white and non-Hispanic residents, as shown in Figure 5 [9].

[Figure 5 about here.]

That information provides insight about communities and relatedness to the buyer.

3.9 Population Growth

Leveraging Big Data in population growth might be helpful for economic growth prediction and future development.

For the recent centuries, population growth jumped dramatically [15]. How fast the population is growing can influence area homes and businesses development. Allowing for more business opportunities.

Educated people can contribute to the development with increased skills and knowledge. However, it is also important to look not only on the total population size, but also population growth rate.

Based on the data visualization, population size in Tarzana is higher by 3,000 residents than in Calabasas, as shown in Figure 6 [9].

[Figure 6 about here.]

Both in Calabasas and Tarzana, the rate was rapidly increasing from 1900-2000, and there was not much progress since then. Population density in Tarzana is 4,048 versus 856 in Tarzana. City area size in square miles is 7.44 and 31.67 in Calabasas. This information provides insight that Calabasas has much more opportunities for future growth and development. New housing and real estate development is achilles heel in California. State struggles to provide all existing residents with affordable housing. Compiled with population growth and migration of new residents the problem becomes even harder resolve. By having additional development space Calabasas growth potential is much higher compared to Tarzana.

3.10 Family Household

Big Data and internet of things are making its existence common place in each household. Only 15 years ago home computers were the only smart device in the house. Now even vacuums and thermostats are connected. Our homes are goldmines of data. Getting family household data summary instantly tells about the type of people in these areas and obtained knowledge can be used to help with buying decision.

Household definition refers to type of family and people living in a household structure. Household data is useful when consumer wants to know about the type of people living in that area and relativity.

Based on the combined data-set results [9], full family household is 64 percent in Tarzana and 76 percent in Calabasas. 48 percent are married in Tarzana, and 62 percent in Calabasas. Therefore for married families with kids it makes more sense to live in Calabasas.

3.11 Property Value

Big Data is being used to analyze property values. Real estate agencies, such as Zillow [22], estimate values based on Big Data collection tools and using their algorithm [21]. They combine information from variety of sources and provide insightful information to buyers, sellers or brokers.

Based on the data analysis [9], it shows that Calabasas prices are higher than in Tarzana by 23 percent. That insight shows that more financially able residence live in Calabasas.

To confirm that, the income data was calculated. Based on the rendered data as shown in Figure 7 [9], it proves that residence in Calabasas are more influential with higher income than in Tarzana.

The total income in Calabasas is higher by approximately 20 percent.

[Figure 7 about here.]

3.12 Employment and Occupation

The employment breakdown that derived from data, published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics showed that business field compared with employment field could help with predicting job opportunities.

Based on compared data sets, Health-care is leading employment field in Tarzana and Management in Calabasas, as shown in Figure 8 and Figure 9 [9].

[Figure 8 about here.]

[Figure 9 about here.]

3.13 Public Schools

Big Data in public schools are being used to fix education institutions and improve student scores and results. whereas in the past school performance was judged simply on average API scores of the students now student attributes data is further analyzed. This allows to identify subgroups of under-performing students. For example income levels of households are tracked to make sure that students from low-income families have the same opportunities to have better scores and grades as families from high-income families. It also provides tracking and comparison with schools in different districts. This helps school boards to allocate additional resources to schools that lack them. It also helps parents and home buyers identify schools and neighborhoods where their child could flourish academically.

The mined data could be used for decision making in property investment as well. Prospective buyers with kids are not only looking for good education and safe schools for their own kids, but also from stand-point of property value since homes located in good school districts are more desirable. The detailed information that can be found online made it easy to be properly informed. Compared data between two cities, showed that elementary schools have 38 percent higher rating in Calabasas, middle schools are 25 percent higher and high schools are the same. Schools in Calabasas are better based on these rating scores, as shown in Figure 10 [9].

[Figure 10 about here.]

3.14 Available Houses for Rent and Sale

Another shift in demographic preferences that has been observed is related to home ownership vs renting. Millennials are changing their spending habits when compared to previous generations. Food, health and entertainment take priorities over burdens expenses associated with home ownership. If that trend continues return on investment generated by buying rental properties will rise.

The best way to know if a house is a good investment is to check the rental properties near the area.

There is also a 1 percent rule of thumb to keep in mind. The rule is that a purchased home should be rented for 1 percent of the cost.

Based on the rental data, medium price in Tarzana 4,210 dollars per month, and Calabasas 4,085 dollars per month. It actually reveals that Tarzana rental properties are more expensive than Calabasas, even though the home prices in Calabasas are higher, as shown in Figure 11 [9].

[Figure 11 about here.]

Additionally, square footage was calculated. To get the price per square footage, the price of the area was divided by its square footage. The results showed that in Tarzana rent is slightly higher than in Calabasas, as shown in Figure 12 [9].

[Figure 12 about here.]

Therefore, it makes more sense to buy renting properties in Tarzana.

The lowest price of property in Tarzana is 700,000 us dollars, and in Calabasas it is 975,000 us dollars [9].

Based on the 1 percent rule, it does not make sense to buy and rent out in Tarzana or Calabasas.

3.15 Future Value

California housing is booming and crashing. Massive home equity destruction happened few years ago and reversed back.

When data-sets are analyzed, they can reveal insightful information and guide consumer decision making.

Based on the sales data was taken and generated, suggests that in spite of prices drops the value of houses goes up, as shown in Figure 13 and Figure 14 [9].

[Figure 13 about here.]

[Figure 14 about here.]

Calculated housing investment for the last 20 years had a growth rate of 5.46 percent [9]. By knowing a starting and ending value, it is possible to calculate the future value of an investment. Referencing the previous calculations [9], it predicts that house value will grow by 63 percent in the next 20 years.

4 CONCLUSION

Big Data potential to transform decision making in real-estate is immense. Home ownership is part of the American dream and Big Data will play a huge role in that process. It will allow potential buyers to have a better understanding of historic data and how it correlates to investment potential.

Big data will provide powerful insight to augment decision making process. Yet, it will not eliminate all risks associated with investment in real-estate. All risks must be evaluated and analyzed before buying and big data will provide plenty of tools for that.

Based on this analysis, it was determined that Tarzana and Calabasas properties are overpriced. Currently, renting is low compared to buying a property.

It is impossible to find properties in California that generate rents at around 1 percent of total property cost. You can not justify the prices and it is only for the privilege of living in San Fernando Valley region of the city of Los Angeles, California.

However, if you do still want to invest, Calabasas is a better choice for investing in a family home property and Tarzana for a rental property.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The author would like to thank Dr. Gregor von Laszewski, Juliette Zerick and Miao Jiang for their help, support and suggestions to write this paper.

REFERENCES

- [1] 0 2017. *Federal Register The Daily Journal of the United States Government*. 0. <https://www.federalregister.gov>
- [2] 0 2017. *United States Zip Codes.org*. 0. <https://www.unitedstateszipcodes.org/91356/>
- [3] Andrew Beattie . 2017. *Top 10 Features of a Profitable Rental Property*. 0. <https://www.investopedia.com/articles/mortgages-real-estate/08/buy-rental-property.asp>
- [4] Noah Berger. 2013. *A Well-Educated Workforce Is Key to State Prosperity*. 0. <http://www.epi.org/publication/states-education-productivity-growth-foundations/>
- [5] CLRsearch.com. 2012. *Tarzana, CA 91356 Population Growth and Population Statistics*. 0. <https://www.clrsearch.com/Tarzana-Demographics/CA/91356/Population-Growth-and-Population-Statistics>
- [6] CLRsearch.org. 2012. *Community Demographic Information FAQ*. 0. <https://www.clrsearch.com/demographics/Demographic.Information.jsp>
- [7] John Cook. 2017. *Robots in real estate?* 0. <https://www.geekwire.com/2017/robots-real-estate-theres-nothing-see-zillow-co-founder-says-agent-jobs-safe/>
- [8] Arantxa Herranz. 2017. *Big data will control pollution in your city*. 0. <http://blog.ferrovial.com/en/2017/04/big-data-pollution-control-in-cities/>
- [9] Elena Kirzhner. 2017. *Big Data Applications in Real Estate*. 0. <https://github.com/bidata-i523/hid320/blob/master/project/project.md>
- [10] Management and Budget Office. 2016. *Standards for Maintaining, Collecting, and Presenting Federal Data on Race and Ethnicity*. 0. <https://www.federalregister.gov/documents/2016/09/30/2016-23672/standards-for-maintaining-collecting-and-presenting-federal-data-on-race-and-ethnicity>
- [11] FBI/FA Crime Statistics Management. 2017. *Uniform Crime Reporting Statistics: Their Proper Use*. 0. <https://ucr.fbi.gov/ucr-statistics-their-proper-use>
- [12] World Health Organization. 2016. *Air pollution levels rising in many of the world's poorest cities*. 0. <http://www.who.int/mediacentre/news/releases/2016/air-pollution-rising/en/>
- [13] Realtor.com. 2017. *Realtor.com - resource for home buyers and sellers*. 0. <https://www.realtor.com>
- [14] Naomi B Robbins. 2012. *Creating more effective graphs*. Wiley, 0.
- [15] Max Roser and Esteban Ortiz-Ospina. 2017. *World Population Growth*. 0. [https://ourworldindata.org/world-population-growth/](https://ourworldindata.org/world-population-growth)
- [16] Trulia.com. 2017. *Trulia is a mobile and online real estate resource*. 0. <https://www.trulia.com>
- [17] U.S. General Services Administration, Technology Transformation Service. 2017. *Real Estate Sale History*. 0. <https://www.data.gov>
- [18] Mark van Rijmenam. 2017. *The Los Angeles Police Department Is Predicting and Fighting Crime With Big Data*. 0. <https://datafloq.com/read/los-angeles-police-department-predicts-fights-crim/279>
- [19] Guido Van Rossum and Fred L Drake. 2011. *The python language reference manual*. Network Theory Ltd., 0.
- [20] Wikipedia. 2017. *Tarzana, Los Angeles*. 0. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tarzana,_Los_Angeles
- [21] Zillow.com. 2017. *The Zestimate home valuation*. 0. <https://www.zillow.com/zestimate/#what>
- [22] Zillow.com. 2017. *Zillow is the leading real estate and rental marketplace*. 0. <https://www.zillow.com>

LIST OF FIGURES

1	Crime rate in Tarzana, CA compared to Calabasas, CA (100 = National Average) [9].	8
2	Educational percentage of people in Tarzana, CA compared to Calabasas, CA (Population Age 25+) [9].	9
3	Life quality of people in Tarzana, CA compared to Calabasas, CA [9].	10
4	Air Pollution Indexes in Tarzana, CA compared to Calabasas, CA [9].	11
5	2012 Population by Race and Ethnicity in Tarzana, CA compared to Calabasas, CA [9].	12
6	Population change since 1990 in Tarzana, CA compared to Calabasas, CA [9].	13
7	Income in Tarzana, CA compared to Calabasas, CA [9].	14
8	Employment field in Tarzana, CA compared to Calabasas, CA [9].	14
9	Business fields in Tarzana, CA compared to Calabasas, CA [9].	15
10	Public schools in Tarzana, CA compared to Calabasas, CA [9].	15
11	Houses for rent in Tarzana, CA compared to Calabasas, CA (3bd+ House For Rent (1,500-2,500 Sqft)) [9].	16
12	Price per sqft for rent in Tarzana, CA compared to Calabasas, CA [9].	17
13	Prices Growth Index in California [9].	18
14	Prices Growth Index in California [9].	19



Figure 1: Crime rate in Tarzana, CA compared to Calabasas, CA (100 = National Average) [9].

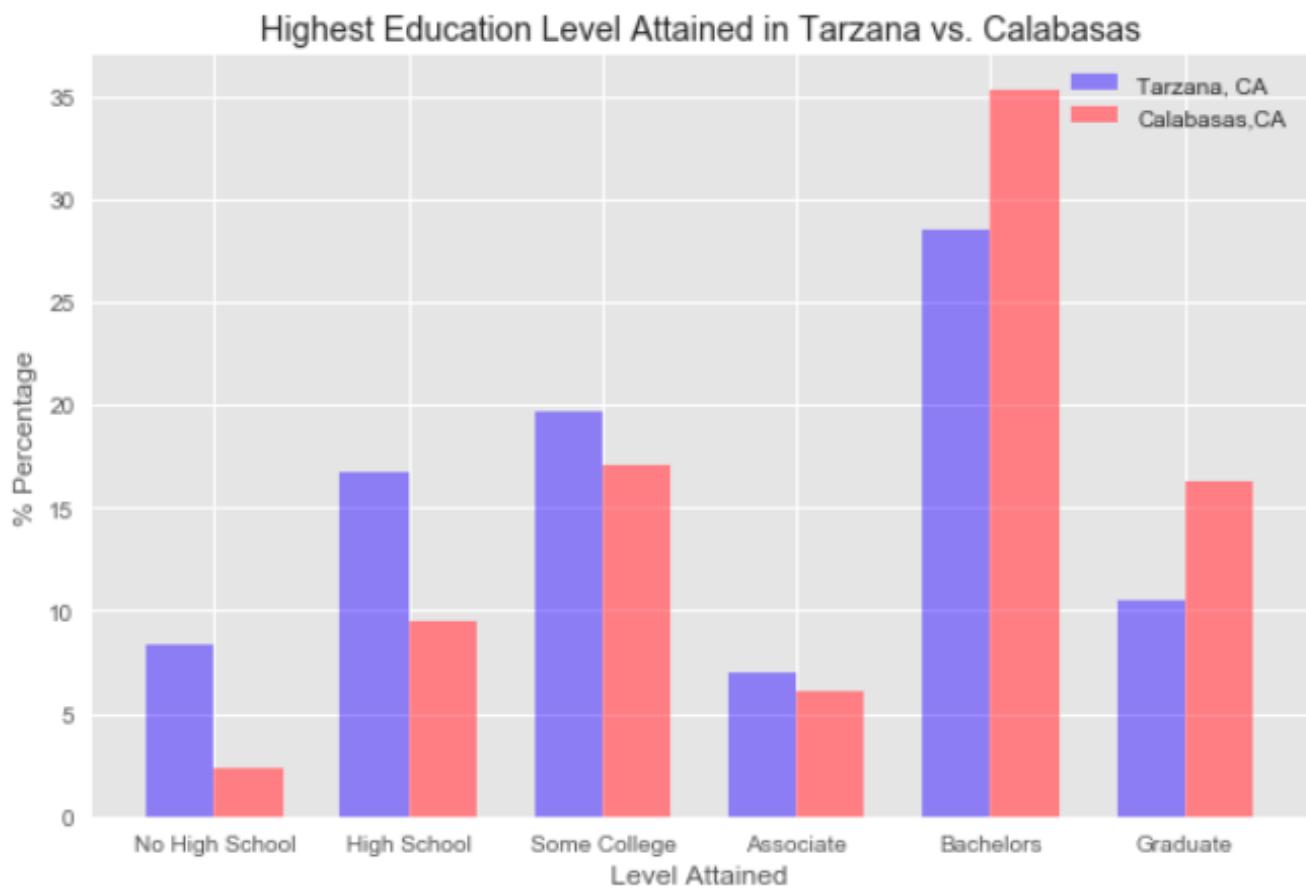


Figure 2: Educational percentage of people in Tarzana, CA compared to Calabasas, CA (Population Age 25+) [9].

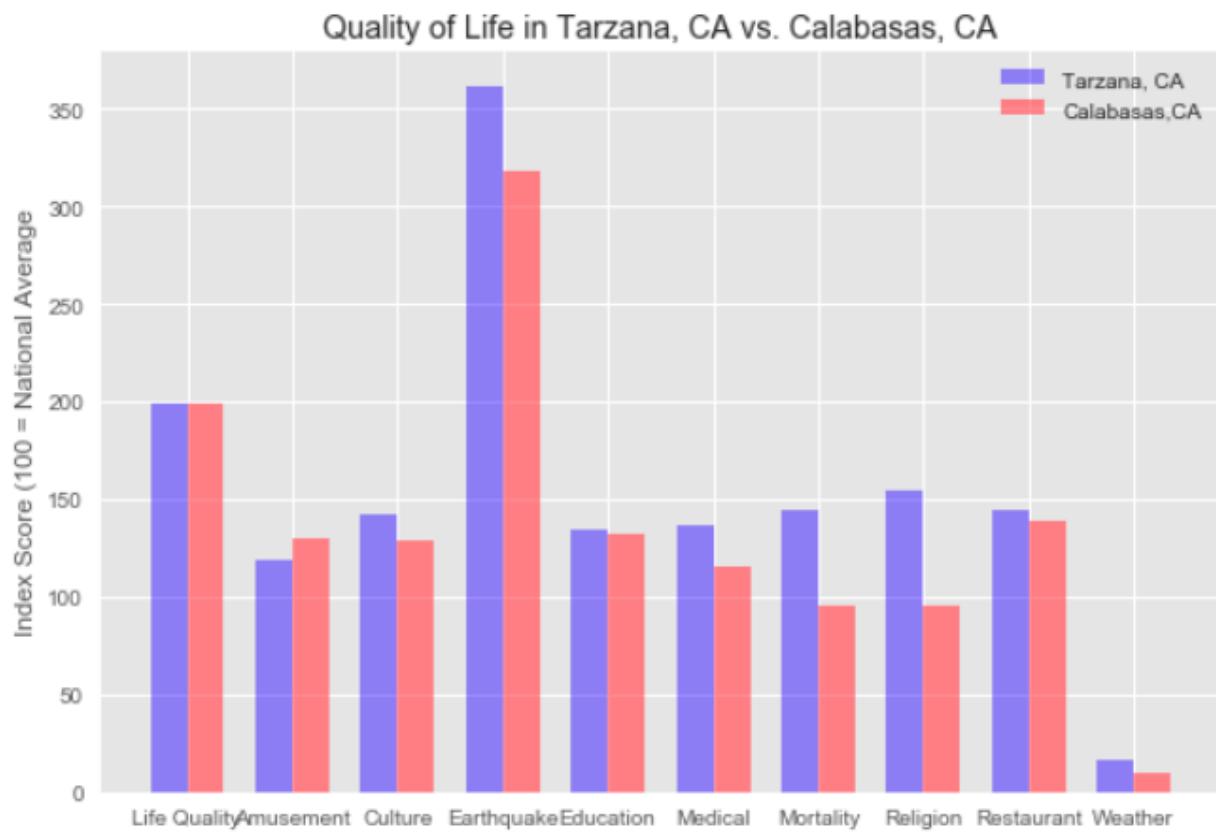


Figure 3: Life quality of people in Tarzana, CA compared to Calabasas, CA [9].

Polution Indexes in Tarzana, CA vs. Calabasas, CA

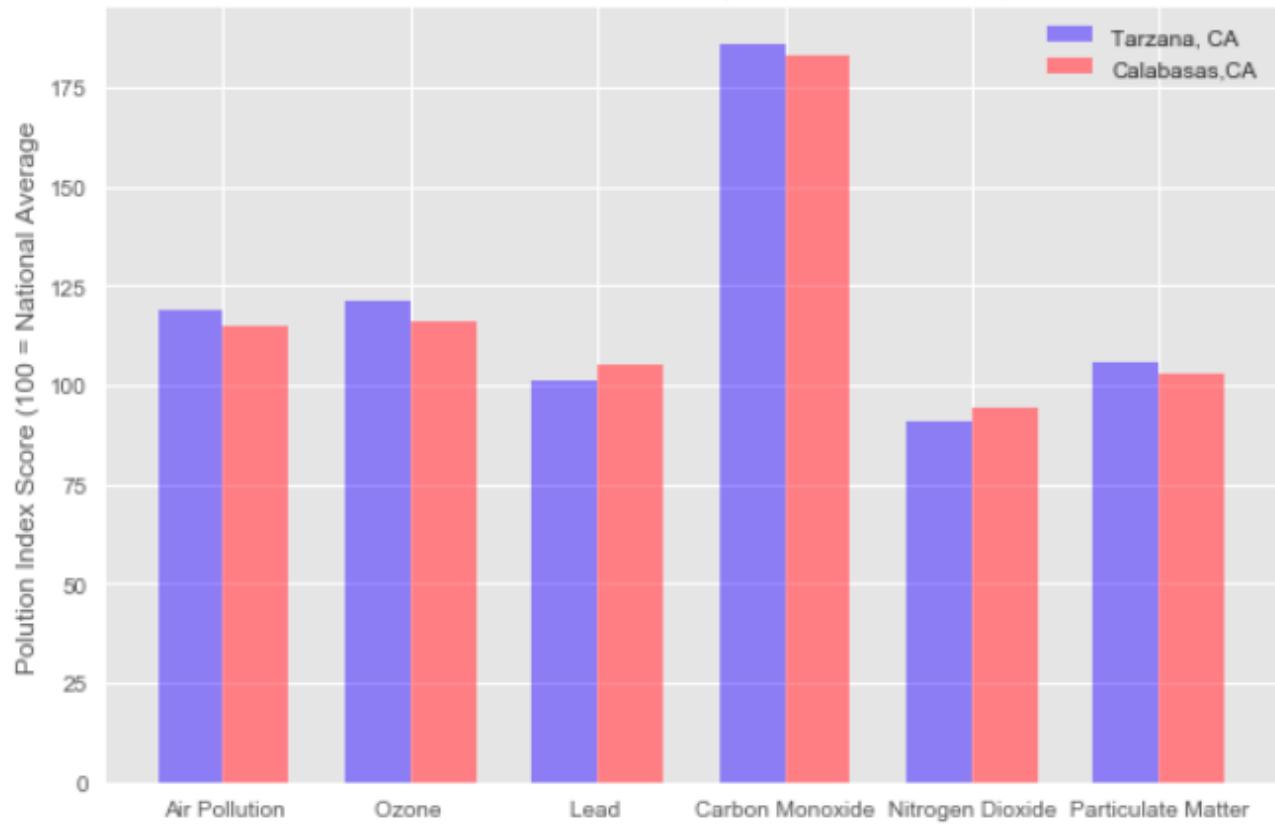


Figure 4: Air Pollution Indexes in Tarzana, CA compared to Calabasas, CA [9].

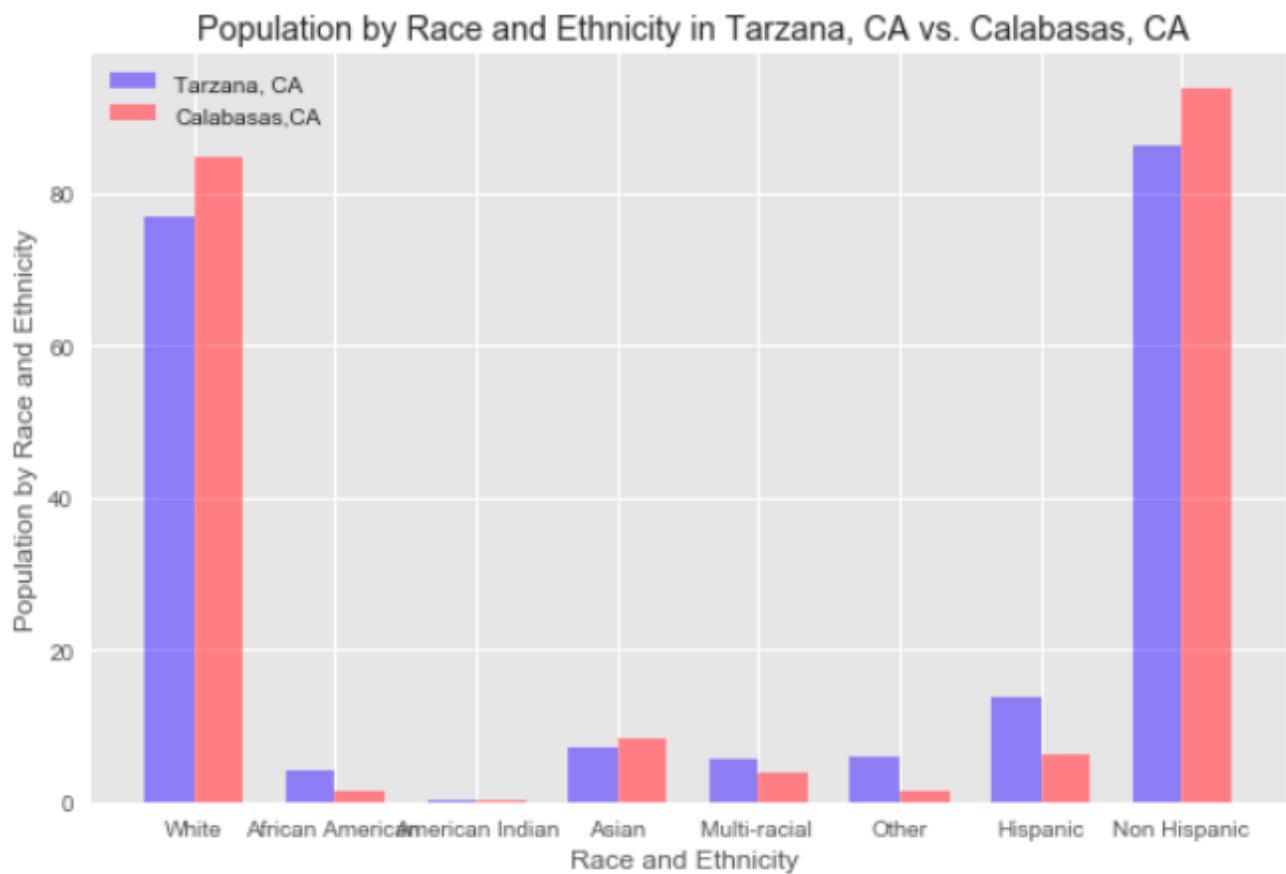


Figure 5: 2012 Population by Race and Ethnicity in Tarzana, CA compared to Calabasas, CA [9].

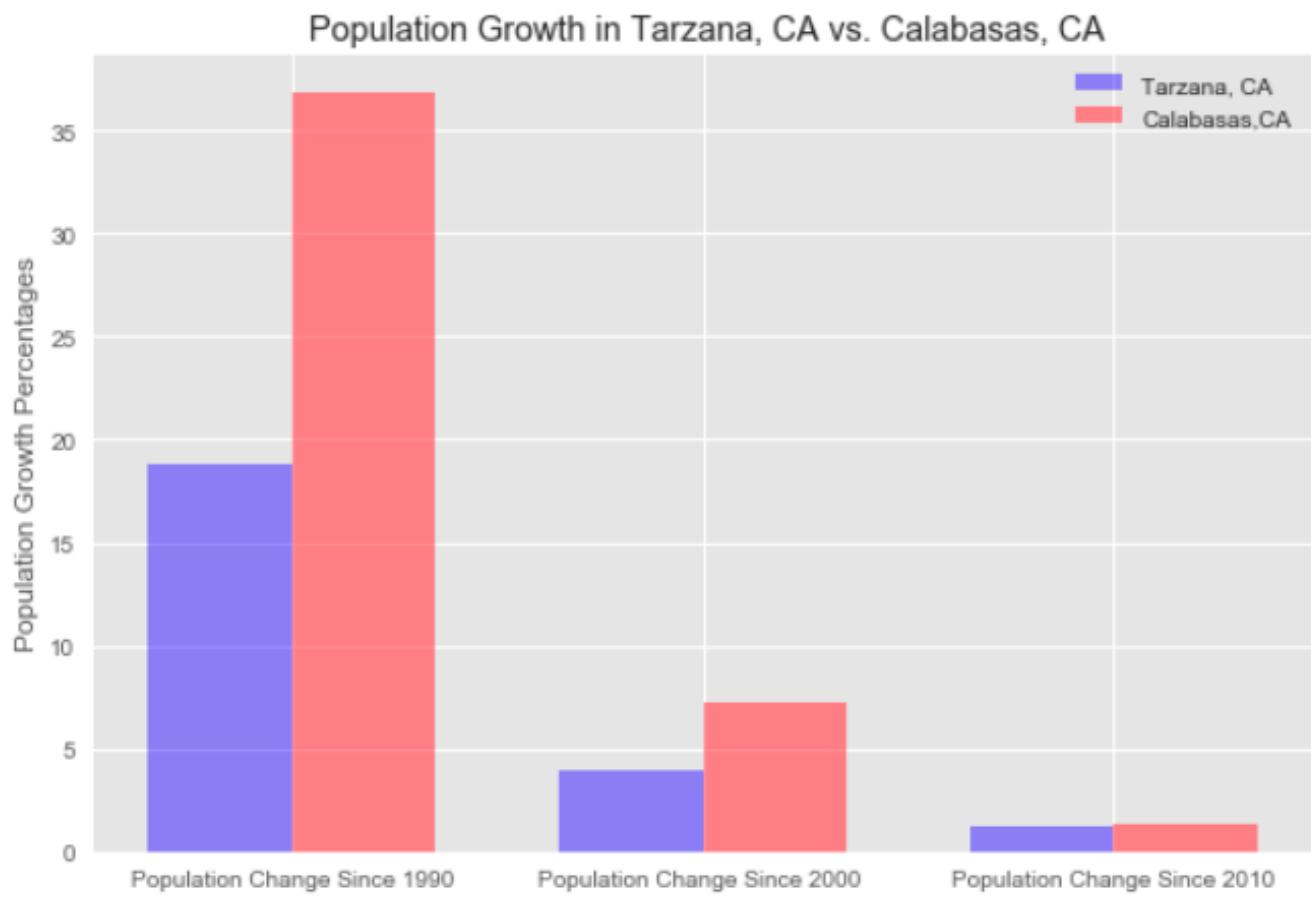


Figure 6: Population change since 1990 in Tarzana, CA compared to Calabasas, CA [9].

Household Income Statistics in Tarzana, CA vs. Calabasas, CA

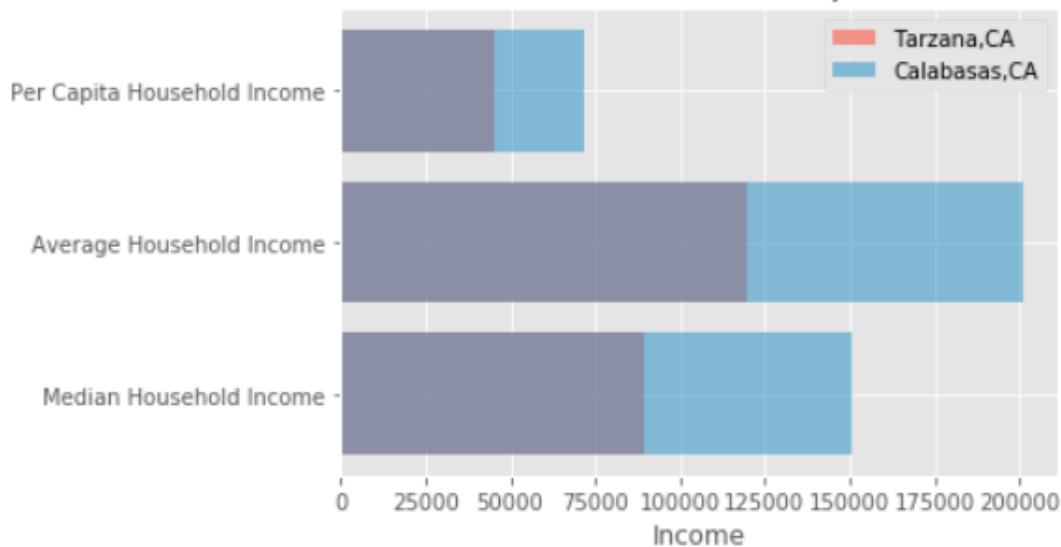


Figure 7: Income in Tarzana, CA compared to Calabasas, CA [9].

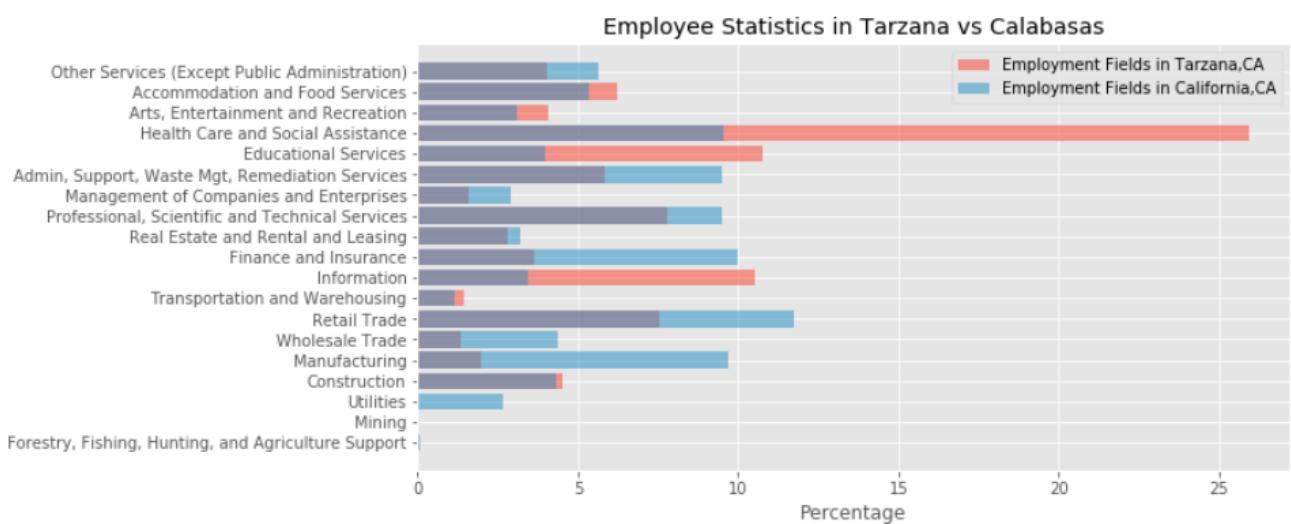


Figure 8: Employment field in Tarzana, CA compared to Calabasas, CA [9].

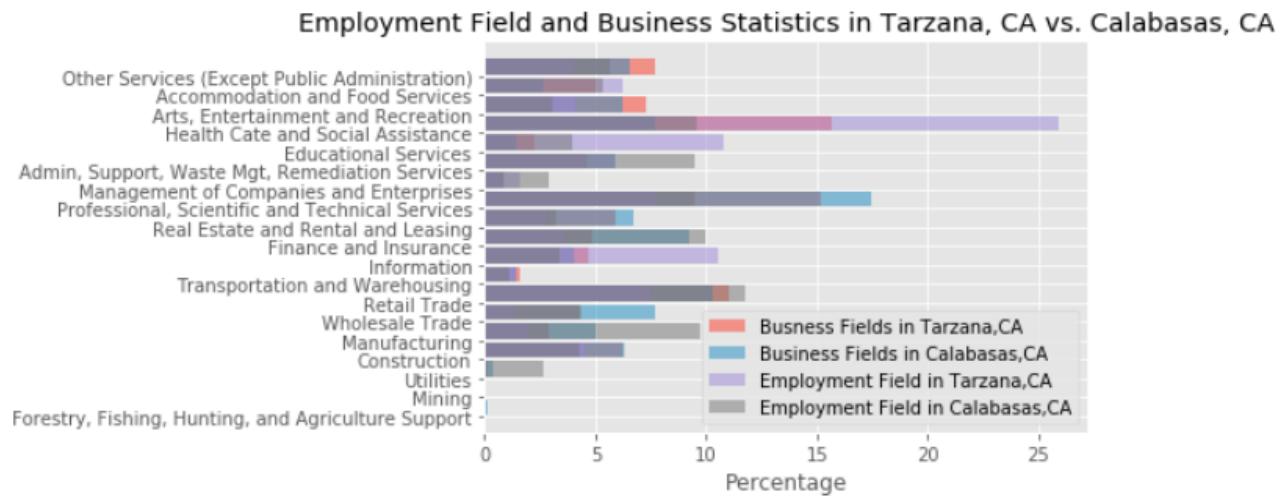


Figure 9: Business fields in Tarzana, CA compared to Calabasas, CA [9].

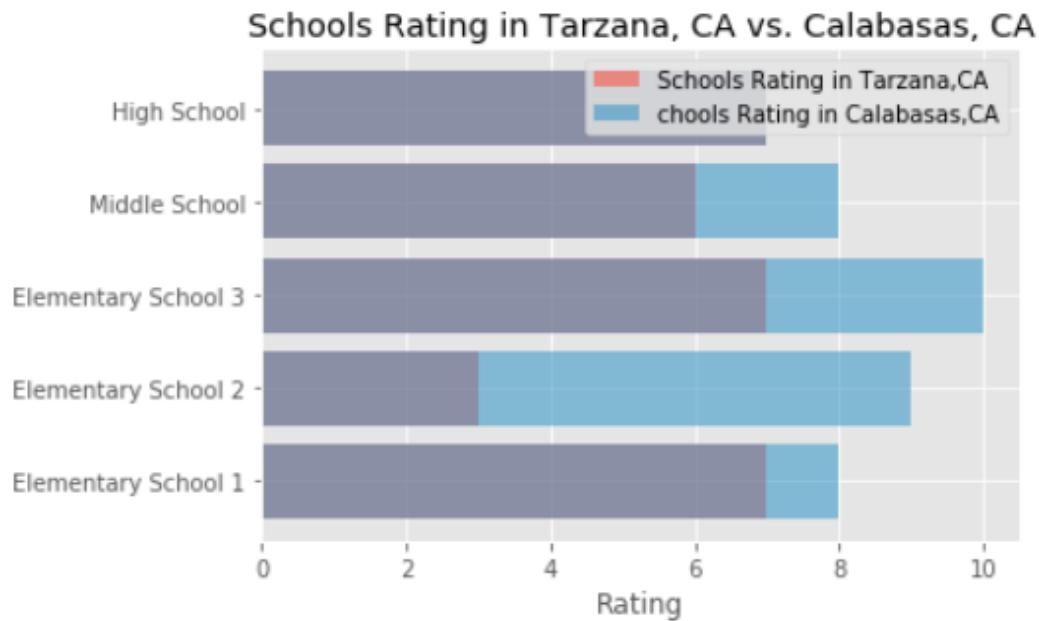


Figure 10: Public schools in Tarzana, CA compared to Calabasas, CA [9].

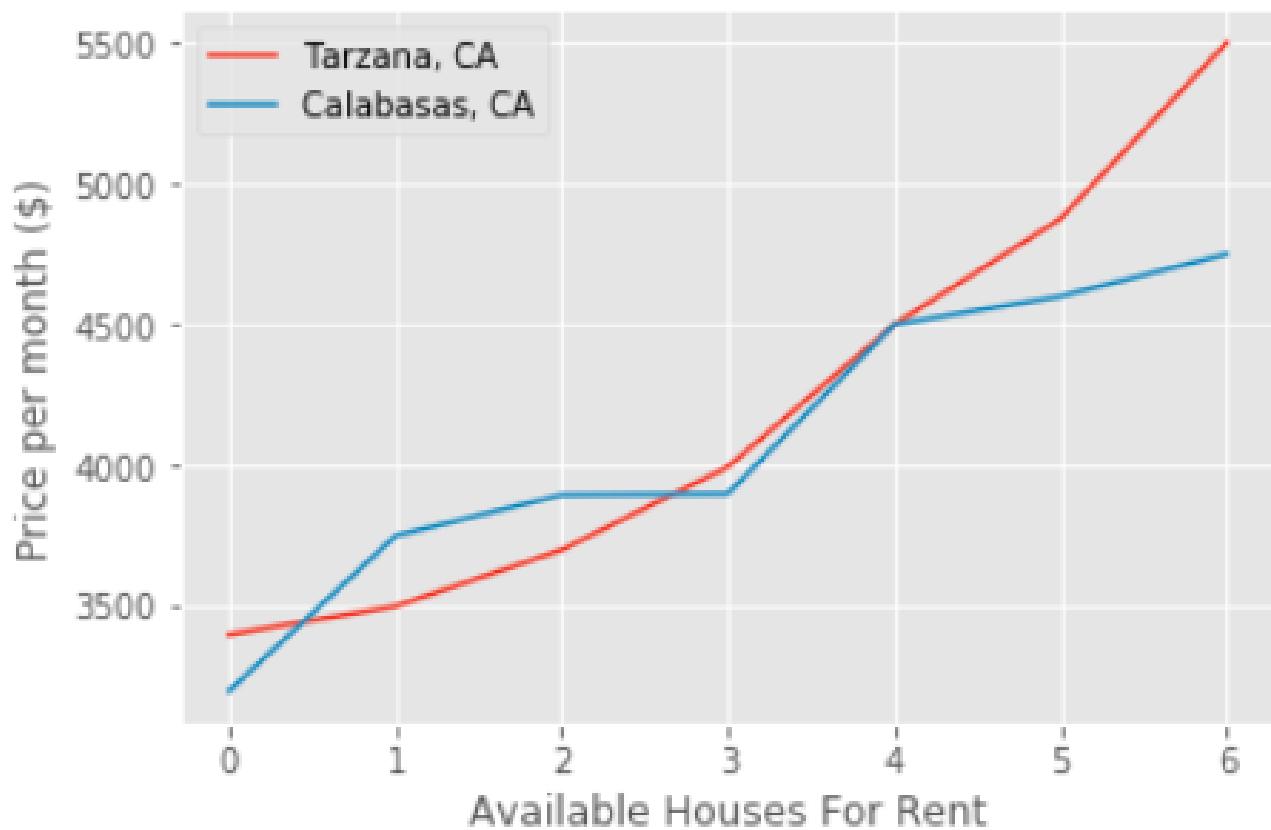


Figure 11: Houses for rent in Tarzana, CA compared to Calabasas, CA (3bd+ House For Rent (1,500-2,500 Sqft)) [9].

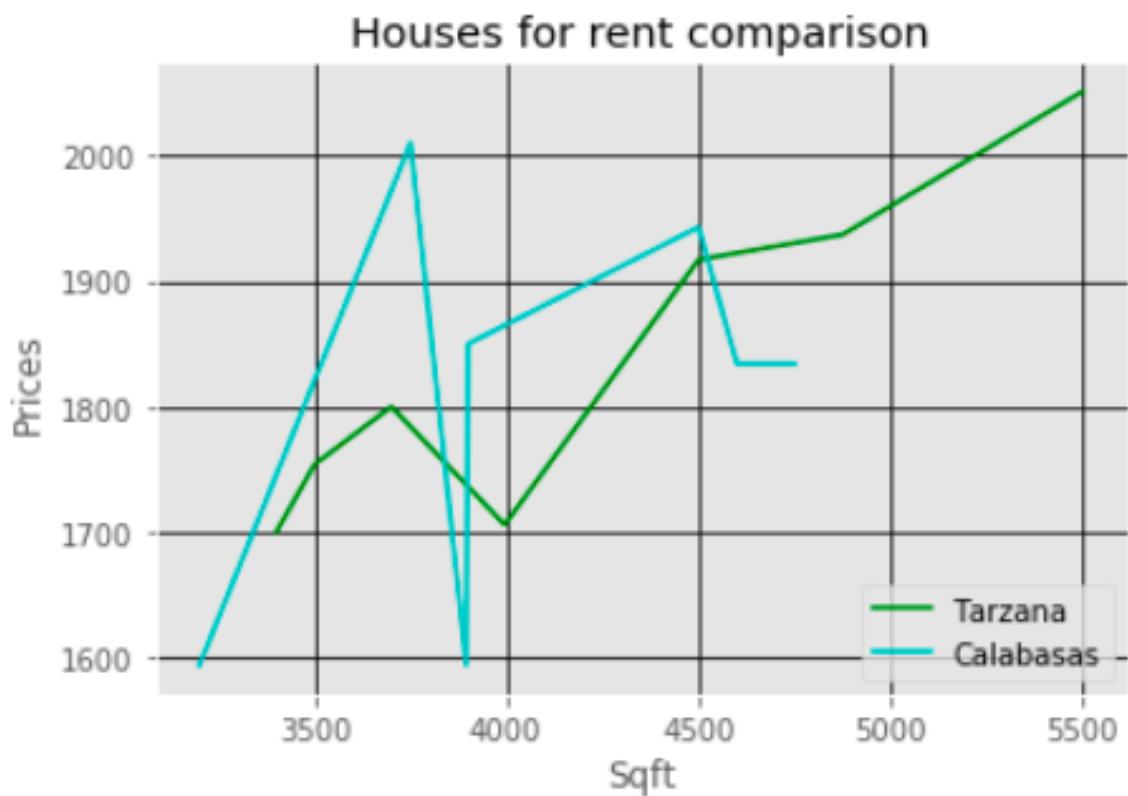


Figure 12: Price per sqft for rent in Tarzana, CA compared to Calabasas, CA [9].

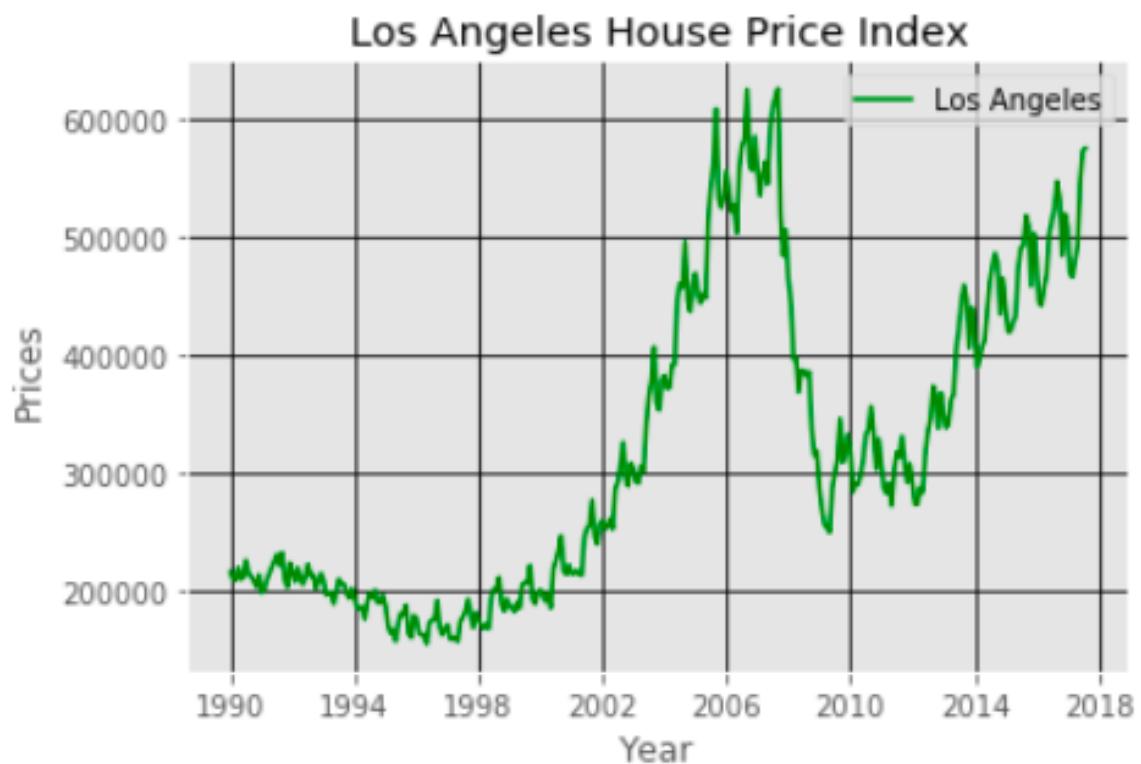


Figure 13: Prices Growth Index in California [9].

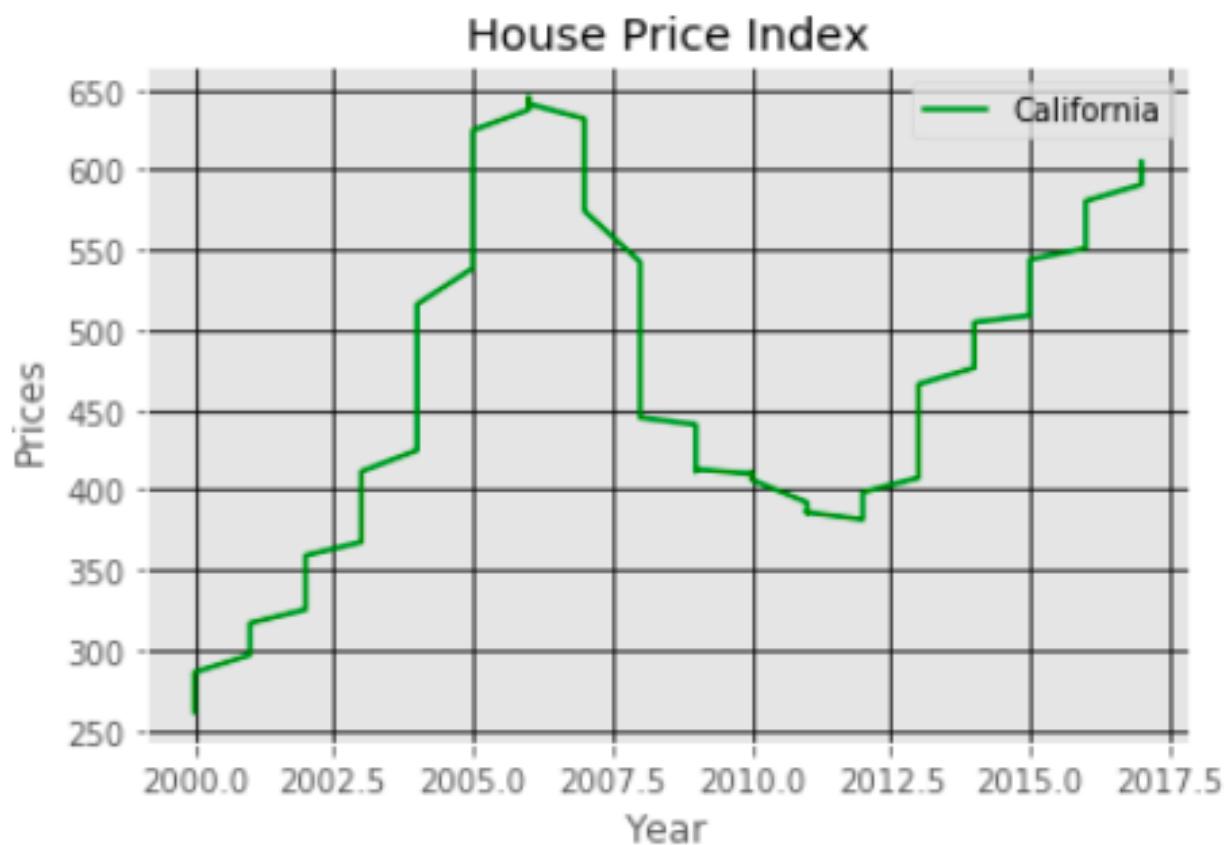


Figure 14: Prices Growth Index in California [9].

```
bibtext report
```

```
=====
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
```

```
=====
bibtext _ label error
```

```
=====
bibtext space label error
```

```
=====
report.bib:105:    @manual{education,
report.bib:145:    @manual{robots,
report.bib:153:    @book{van2011python,
report.bib:169:    @book{robbins2012creating,
report.bib:57:    @manual{clr,
report.bib:65:    @manual{zipcodes,
report.bib:73:    @manual{federal,
report.bib:81:    @manual{crime,
report.bib:89:    @manual{unicrime,
report.bib:97:    @manual{crime2,
```

```
=====
bibtext comma label error
```

```
=====
latex report
```

```
=====
[2017-12-08 04.02.28] pdflatex report.tex
This is pdfTeX, Version 3.14159265-2.6-1.40.17 (TeX Live 2016) (preloaded format=pdflatex)
Missing character: ""
```

```
bookmark level for unknown defaults to 0.  
The anchor of a bookmark and its parent's must not be the same. Added a new anchor.  
Typesetting of "report.tex" completed in 1.4s.
```

```
=====  
Compliance Report  
=====
```

```
name: Elena Kirzhner  
hid: 320  
paper1: 100% Oct 31 2017  
paper2: 100% Nov 6 2017  
project: 100% Dec 03 2017
```

```
yamlcheck
```

```
wordcount
```

```
12  
wc 320 project 12 5263 report.tex  
wc 320 project 12 5567 report.pdf  
wc 320 project 12 524 report.bib
```

```
find "
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find footnote
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find input{format/i523}
```

```
4: \input{format/i523}
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find input{format/final}
```

passed: False

floats

141: Based on these finding, it is defiantly safer to live in
Calabasas as shown in Figure \ref{fig:figure1} \cite{md}.

143: \begin{figure}

145: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/figure1.png}

146: \caption{Crime rate in Tarzana, CA compared to Calabasas, CA (100
= National Average) \cite{md}.} \label{fig:figure1}

156: The rendered data showed \cite{md} that residents in Calabasas
are higher educated by 7 percent with Bachelor degrees and 6
percent higher with graduate degree, as shown in Figure
\ref{fig:figure2} \cite{md}.

158: \begin{figure}

160: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/figure2.png}

161: \caption{Educational percentage of people in Tarzana, CA compared
to Calabasas, CA (Population Age 25+) \cite{md}.}
\label{fig:figure2}

175: Based on the data, overall quality of life is equal between two
cities, as shown in Figure \ref{fig:figure3} \cite{md}.

177: \begin{figure}

179: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/figure3.png}

180: \caption{Life quality of people in Tarzana, CA compared to
Calabasas, CA \cite{md}.} \label{fig:figure3}

195: The exported data-sets showed \cite{md} that carbon monoxide is
extremely high in both cities. It is 186 in Tarzana and 183 in
Calabasas. The national level is being compared to 100
\cite{clr}. Based on the data, overall air pollution index is
about the same in both areas, as shown in Figure
\ref{fig:figure4} \cite{md}.

197: \begin{figure}

199: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/figure4.png}

200: \caption{Air Pollution Indexes in Tarzana, CA compared to
Calabasas, CA \cite{md}.} \label{fig:figure4}

212: Based on the rendered graph, most population in Tarzana and
Calabasas consist of white and non-Hispanic residents, as shown
in Figure \ref{fig:figure5} \cite{md}.

214: \begin{figure}

216: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/figure5.png}

217: \caption{2012 Population by Race and Ethnicity in Tarzana, CA
compared to Calabasas, CA \cite{md}.} \label{fig:figure5}

230: Based on the data visualization, population size in Tarzana is
higher by 3,000 residents than in Calabasas, as shown in Figure

```

    \ref{fig:figure6} \cite{md}.
232: \begin{figure}
234: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/figure6.png}
235: \caption{Population change since 1990 in Tarzana, CA compared to
Calabasas, CA \cite{md}.} \label{fig:figure6}
256: To confirm that, the income data was calculated. Based on the
rendered data as shown in Figure \ref{fig:figure7} \cite{md}, it
proves that residence in Calabasas are more influential with
higher income than in Tarzana.
260: \begin{figure}
262: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/figure7.png}
263: \caption{Income in Tarzana, CA compared to Calabasas, CA
\cite{md}.} \label{fig:figure7}
270: Based on compared data sets, Health-care is leading employment
field in Tarzana and Management in Calabasas, as shown in Figure
\ref{fig:figure8} and Figure \ref{fig:figure9} \cite{md}.
272: \begin{figure}
274: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/figure8.png}
275: \caption{Employment field in Tarzana, CA compared to Calabasas,
CA \cite{md}.} \label{fig:figure8}
278: \begin{figure}
280: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/figure9.png}
281: \caption{Business fields in Tarzana, CA compared to Calabasas, CA
\cite{md}.} \label{fig:figure9}
290: Schools in Calabasas are better based on these rating scores, as
shown in Figure \ref{fig:figure10} \cite{md}.
292: \begin{figure}
294: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/figure10.png}
295: \caption{Public schools in Tarzana, CA compared to Calabasas, CA
\cite{md}.} \label{fig:figure10}
306: Based on the rental data, medium price in Tarzana 4,210 dollars
per month, and Calabasas 4,085 dollars per month. It actually
reveals that Tarzana rental properties are more expensive than
Calabasas, even though the home prices in Calabasas are higher,
as shown in Figure \ref{fig:figure11} \cite{md}.
308: \begin{figure}
310: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/figure11.png}
311: \caption{Houses for rent in Tarzana, CA compared to Calabasas, CA
(3bd+ House For Rent (1,500-2,500 Sqft)) \cite{md}.}
\label{fig:figure11}
314: Additionally, square footage was calculated. To get the price per
square footage, the price of the area was divided by its square
footage. The results showed that in Tarzana rent is slightly
higher than in Calabasas, as shown in Figure \ref{fig:figure12}
\cite{md}.
316: \begin{figure}

```

```
318: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/figure12.png}
319: \caption{Price per sqft for rent in Tarzana, CA compared to
Calabasas, CA \cite{md}.} \label{fig:figure12}
334: Based on the sales data was taken and generated, suggests that in
spite of prices drops the value of houses goes up, as shown in
Figure \ref{fig:figure13} and Figure \ref{fig:figure14}
\cite{md}.
336: \begin{figure}
338: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/figure13.png}
339: \caption{Prices Growth Index in California \cite{md}.}
\label{fig:figure13}
342: \begin{figure}
344: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/figure14.png}
345: \caption{Prices Growth Index in California \cite{md}.}
\label{fig:figure14}
```

figures 14
tables 0
includegraphics 14
labels 14
refs 12
floats 14

```
True : ref check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
True : label check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
True : include graphics passed: (figures >= includegraphics)
False : check if all figures are refered to: (refs >= labels)
```

Label/ref check
passed: True

When using figures use columnwidth
[width=1.0\columnwidth]
do not change the number to a smaller fraction

find textwidth

passed: True

below_check

bibtex

```
label errors
```

```
bibtex errors
```

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
```

```
bibtex_empty_fields
```

```
entries in general should not be empty in bibtex
```

```
find ""
```

```
68: author = "",
```

```
76: author = "",
```

```
passed: False
```

```
ascii
```

```
non ascii found 8217
```

```
non ascii found 8217
```

```
=====
The following tests are optional
=====
```

```
Tip: newlines can often be replaced just by an empty line
```

```
find newline
```

```
passed: True
```

```
cites should have a space before \cite{} but not before the {
```

```
find cite {
```

```
-----  
passed: True
```

Big Data Analytics in factors affecting Bitcoin

Ashok Kuppuraj

Indiana University

Bloomington, Indiana 43017-6221

akuppura@iu.edu

ABSTRACT

Pricing of Blockchain based cryptocurrencies are like a black box, as per theory the pricing compared to U.S dollar is based on a number of transactions however lot other factors like Dollar price, social media, Online threats supersede the transaction count. Big data and Analytics helps to identify the metrics impacting this variation and identify the correlation between them.

KEYWORDS

i523, hid324, Big data, Predictive analytics, Random Forest, correlation, Blockchain, Bitcoin, Ethereum

1 INTRODUCTION

The start of the 21st century witnessed the evolution of various disruptive technologies, right from Bigdata, IoT, VR to Blockchain. When it comes to the blockchain, the sole winner is Bitcoin, with the growth rate of over 1327 percent [3], Bitcoin is disrupting the way banking system works. As the Bitcoin grows the acceptance and adoption grow along with that. Similar to any other currency in the world, the Bitcoin's price deviates widely towards the positive side which created the opportunity for investment in it. Even though the same is not widely accepted everywhere, there is a grace to own Bitcoin citing its growth rate. Though the transaction counts haven't grown up, the retention of the coin has grown up making it a Digital Gold [13].

2 BITCOIN

Bitcoin is a progressed cryptographic cash and portion structure that is completely decentralized, which implies it relies upon peer-to-peer trades with no bureaucratic oversight. Trades and liquidity inside the framework are somewhat based on cryptography. The concept was first introduced in 2009 [6] and is at this moment a prospering open-source gathering and portion sort out. In perspective of the uniqueness of Bitcoin's portion tradition and its creating choice, the Bitcoin condition is grabbing stacks of thought from associations, clients, and monetary experts alike. Specifically, for nature to thrive, we need to recreate budgetary organizations and things that starting at now exist in our traditional, fiat cash world additionally, make them available and uncommonly specially fitted to Bitcoin, and other rising computerized types of cash. In technical terms, Bitcoin's is a shared ledger or a database running by a set of clusters, as the clustering is involved, a competition is set for the individual machines to acquire and update the ledger. The competition is in terms of hashing problem. The hashing needs multiple GPU's to perform validations and update the ledger. This competition eliminates the slower machines to be part of the network and improve the infrastructure's capacity, only by winning the competition a machine can be awarded some Bitcoin as an incentive. Since

one machine cannot process the competition problem, a set of peers come together to form a Mining pool and share their capacity and the incentives. We can gather useful mining statistics information from these mining pools.

3 PRICE PREDICTION

The Bitcoin market's cash-related basic is, clearly, a securities trade. To support money related to reward, the field of stock exhibit gauge has turned out to be over the earlier decades and has all the more starting late exploded with the presence of high-repeat, low-dormancy trading hardware joined with solid machine learning figurings. Henceforth, it looks good that this desire is imitated in the domain of Bitcoin, as the framework expands more conspicuous liquidity and more people develop an excitement for placing profitably in the structure. To do accordingly, it is essential to utilize machine learning advancement to foresee the cost of Bitcoin[8].

3.1 Data Source

As Bitcoin is a decentralized and a transparent system, all the source of data can be gathered from the peer-to-peer networks. This peer-to-peer network is called as Bitcoin-mining pool [1].The rate of block creation is adjusted every 2016 blocks to aim for a constant two week adjustment period (equivalent to 6 per hour.) The number of Bitcoins generated per block is set to decrease geometrically, with a 50 reduction every 210,000 blocks, or approximately four years. The result is that the number of bitcoins in existence is not expected to exceed 21 million [4]. The true source of data for Bitcoin analysis would be from Bitcoin mining pool. Coinbase is one of the main member bitcoin pool from which we can gather mining statistics. Here the data is sourced from a data service called Quandl. Quandl provides the variety of data services in the form of https web services. As we are in the process of identifying the features impacting Bitcoin's price fluctuations, not only the transaction volume impacts, even the popularity and people's trend towards it impact the price of the coins. Hence, data from Google is also gathered. As a currency's price also been altered by its exchange, supply, and demand, Ethereum's price data and transactional data is also acquired from Ethereum's exchange point. With all these data sources, we analyze the features impacting the Bitcoin's market price.

3.2 Feature selection

Feature selection is one of the vital steps in any meaningful analysis of an expected outcome. A set of features have been selected to analyze its interdependence with Bitcoin's evaluation. The features selected based on three wide areas, the first is Bitcoin mining data, second is social data and the last one is exchange data. The internal activities in the Bitcoin's infrastructure definitely reflect

the changes or the fluctuations in the Bitcoin's network, Bitcoin's mining data is gathered from Coinbase. This is extracted from the Web service API provided by Quandl.com[7]. By making a REST call, CSV files containing the Historical data is downloaded and processed. The second is the social data, which is extracted as a static data from Google trends [5], the main reason behind this data is when the popularity grows people tend to know or show interest in being part of the growth. With the impressive growth of more than 1000 percent in a year, this is considered as an important data. The last one is the exchange data, as a currencies price is directly proportional to the supply and demand, the supply of the currency can be impacted by the exchange to other currencies or commodity [14]. Ethereum is known to show a similar pattern in terms of growth and deviations[2]. Hence, there's price in US dollars and transaction volume is considered one of the features.

4 BIG DATA IN FEATURE ANALYSIS AND ALGORITHM'S EXECUTION

Feature extraction, transformation, and prediction can be synonymous with a conventional ETL methodology. Though few of the extraction is handled manually and the volume is comparably low, it is assumed that the data volume will be increased by modifying the extraction to real-time systems. When the extraction systems are changed, our code must be able to handle streaming data which can be related to "variety and volume " of the data. The next step is validating the data for anomalies, data miss and cleanse the data of issues which is synonymous with data cleansing. The later one is data processing, which includes data processing with multiple iterations and permutation consuming a lot of memory and other resources. These processing needs lead us in adopting Big data technologies in the entire lifecycle of the implementation.

4.1 Execution with Apache Spark

"Apache Spark is a fast and general-purpose cluster computing system. It provides high-level APIs in Java, Scala, Python and R, and an optimized engine that supports general execution graphs". It also provides extensive support to Machine learning libraries(MLLib) and to streaming through Spark Streaming. The in-memory processing is implemented with the help of Resilient distributed dataset (RDD) [9].

[Figure 1 about here.]

Spark's basic abstraction is Resilient Distributed Dataset (RDD), which is a fault tolerant partitioned data encapsulation datatype. RDDs are lazily evaluated, hence a Directed Acyclic Graph is implemented to persist the state of the RDDs at each stage. With RDD, Spark can execute the transformation in parallel with fault tolerance. This implementation widely differentiates from conventional Python implementation which lacks this advanced logic.

Here, we have used Apache's Spark 2.2 to implement all the ETL functionality. Spark is installed is the local system along with Anacondas, so Spark libraries can be consumed inside Python shell. To consume and process Pyspark libraries, sparkcontext is created which initiates the driver program. The spark context is bootstrapped with SQL and Spark session libraries so that Spark RDD and Data frames could be accessed under a single window.

As the abstract describes the necessity of the features impacting bitcoin's price, the best metric to identify the relation between bitcoin's values and its features is by identifying the correlation matrix provided by Spearman. Spearman's function describes the relationship between two variable using a monotonic function[12]. Apart from identifying the correlation, these features can be modeled to predict the value of the dependent variable - Bitcoin's value. The algorithm chose are Random forest and gradient boosted regression.

5 IMPLEMENTATION

The actual implementation starts with gathering source data with features already discussed the prior topic, upon data extraction, it is cleansed with missing data and standardized to mix and match data from multiple sources. All the data manipulation is done either in Pyspark dataframe or pyspark RDDs. The visualization is provided by Matplotlib.

[Figure 2 about here.]

As shown in figure 2, the extracted data is loaded to Pyspark RDD and then converted to Pyspark dataframe.Pyspark dataframe is selected to increase the performance of the data processing even though Pyspark dataframe API is not equipped with rich functionalities similar to Pandas dataframe and Pyspark dataframe can execute the transformations in parallel whereas Pandas cannot.

5.1 Technologies

Technologies and tools used in this projects are

- Python 2.7
- Pyspark 2.2
- Jupyter 5.0.0

5.2 Data Extraction

The data is sourced from Quandl.com, a public data service for various types of data, Bitcoin's mining data from 2015 till current date from Coinbase's mining pool. The data is in CSV format with Bitcoin's transaction details and its corresponding date associated with it.

The second set of data is from Etherscan, an open source portal for Ethereum transaction details, from which the transaction count and the price in US dollars are extracted.

The third dataset is about the people's trends on Bitcoin's popularity from Google, the granularity of this data is on weekly basis, hence it has to transformed statistically to fit into our model.

The first data set is programmatically downloaded with an API call with a private key authenticating it. `wget` is used in downloading the data within Shell script. The later ones are downloaded manually from Google and Etherscan sites manually. The volume of the dataset is low, however, the volume increases as the consumption are initiated in real-time.

[Figure 3 about here.]

5.3 Data Cleansing

The data cleansed with multiple Python and feature cleansing libraries in Python and Pyspark. Major efforts of cleansing are needed to standardize the date columns from all the data sources. The date format was in the different format in different sources. To stitch

back all the data points, DateTime libraries were used and joined with a single standard format. Another important activity in the cleansing is data miss. For some instance data points, the values are missing resulting in incorrect predictions and correlations. To resolve these missing values, Imputer[10] functionality is used from feature library of Apache Spark. The imputer is an Imputation estimator for completing missing values, either using the mean or the median of the columns in which the missing values are located. The input to this function is dataframe columns and output are renamed dataframe columns. The processing happens in-memory with the spark.

5.4 Data Visualization

The visualization is provided in the form of plots. In Python, we have to use Matplot Libraries to plot all the prediction and correlation graphs.

6 SPEARMAN'S CORRELATION

Spearman's correlation function is used to identify the correlation between Bitcoin's price and the features selected. In Spark, a separate function is defined to calculate Spearman's correlation. The input is in Pyspark RDD's and the output value is returned between -1 to +1. The positive ratio indicates the feature is directionally proportional and the negative values indicate indirect proportionality.

The below table describes the correlation of Bitcoin's price with the features. Surprisingly the transaction count of the Bitcoin is very less related to its value against US dollars. Whereas the

Spearman's Correlation on selected features are :

- btc-vol :0.348540857386
- high :0.99851861669
- low :0.995190604708
- open :0.997943642437
- Google-trend:0.260343238604
- ETH price :0.68683414787
- ETHTRAN :0.720031468617
- btc-price-Label:1.0

[Figure 4 about here.]

The Figure4 describes the correlation between Bitcoin transaction count and its value. Or in other perspectives, the transaction count is consistent and due to the increase in price people started buying Bitcoins leading to volatility.

[Figure 5 about here.]

The Figures 5,6 and 7 describes the correlation between open, low and high prices of Bitcoin on the recorded date. This is obvious that the closing price is highly correlated with them.

[Figure 6 about here.]

[Figure 7 about here.]

[Figure 8 about here.]

As described in figure 8, the correlation plot provides the pattern between the search trends and the hike in price, which is clearly evident.

[Figure 9 about here.]

[Figure 10 about here.]

Figure 9 and 10 describes the correlation of Ethereum's price and its transaction volumes with Bitcoin's price in which the transaction pattern of Ethereum is more similar to Bitcoin's pattern is evident.

As far as processing is concerned, all the RDDs are cached before feeding into Spearman's correlation function, the reason being, when the RDDs are transformed multiple times, it has to calculate data lineage everytime it is computed and lineage is the basic quality of resilience in Apache Spark. If the RDDs are cached and persisted in-memory, the iteration and other transformations happen in memory avoiding costly I/O operations, this feature cannot be easily implemented when executed in conventional python libraries.

7 DECISION TREE REGRESSION

With the availability of features, we can take the processing to the next level of predicting Bitcoin's price. Here, supervised learning model is used to predict the price of Bitcoin.

[Figure 11 about here.]

Figure 11 give some basic idea of how decisions are made with the supervised decision tree based model.

Ensemble method models are derived from another base model. The base model used here is Decision trees and ensemble models are Random forest and Gradient Boosted tree(GBT) Algorithms.

Though the base model for both the algorithms is same, both are different in terms of training the dataset. GBT can train only one tree at a time whereas Random forest can train multiple trees resulting in reduced overfitting caused by GBTs.

"Random forests or random decision forests operate by constructing a multitude of decision trees at training time and outputting the class that is the mode of mean prediction (regression) of the individual trees and GBTs iteratively train decision trees in order to minimize a loss function. Like decision trees, GBTs handle categorical features, extend to the multiclass classification setting, do not require feature scaling, and are able to capture non-linearities and feature interactions"[11].

All the execution is implemented in Apache Spark, hence all the transformation and processing happens in-memory, even if the data volume is high, the processing will spawn across the clusters and will be processed with consistent redundancy.

The model is implemented by first splitting the data into two sets of different volume, i.e test data and training data. The training data will be used by the model to derive the logic and the built logic will be tested with the test data for accuracy. Here, 70:30 ratio is selected for training and test data respectively. And by altering this ratio we can adjust the performance of the model.

7.1 Random Forest

As we are predicting Bitcoin's USD value per day, Bitcoin's price is considered as a label and all other columns are marked as features, and only the features having a decent level of correlation is marked as Features. These features are loaded into the model as Labelled Points as a Spark dataframe.

Random forest requires parameters to tune the model for the highest accuracy. Below are parameters selected for our model.

- Training dataset: RDD of LabeledPoint. Labels are real numbers.
- numTrees = 10 Number of trees in the random forest.

- `featureSubsetStrategy =auto` Number of features to consider for splits at each node.
- `impurity =variance` Criterion used for information gain calculation
- `maxDepth =30` Maximum depth of tree
- `maxBins default` Maximum number of bins used for splitting features
- `seed default` Random seed for bootstrapping and choosing feature subsets

With all parameters set and by tuning the model, Avg.closeness index of the algorithm is closer to 0.95. After deriving the model, the closeness/correctness of the predicted results was also analyzed and it is described in the plot given below.

7.2 Gradient Boosted tree

In the Gradient Boosted algorithm, the similar training and test data are used similarly to the Random Forest algorithm. Upon execution of three iterations, it is clearly evident with the closeness index that the data is little bit over-fitted with the closeness index of 0.96, slightly greater than Random forest. The parameters used in these functions are

- data Training dataset: RDD of LabeledPoint. Labels are real numbers.
- categoricalFeaturesInfo Map storing arity of categorical features
- loss Loss function used for minimization during gradient boosting
- numIterations Number of iterations of boosting
- learningRate Learning rate for shrinking the contribution of each estimator
- maxDepth Maximum depth of tree
- maxBins Maximum number of bins used for splitting features.

By altering the parameters, the performance of the model can be optimized.

8 RESULTS

[Figure 12 about here.]

[Figure 13 about here.]

From the observation of scatter plots of regression model Random forest 12 and GBT 12, it is evident that GBT's single tree iterative model has predicted the values with overfitting. Some predicted values are consistent with some particular time scope and changes happening in steps. The prediction distribution looks like a single line and not widespread. Whereas, in the Random forest, the predicted values are widespread and closely aligned. Also, the other correlation graphs explain that Bitcoin transaction count doesn't impact the Bitcoin's values. even the exchange data doesn't impact much though the correlation looks close, there is a possibility that owners are not using the Bitcoin for any day to day transactions instead they are using as an asset like Gold, and by retaining it, the demand for the Bitcoin coin further increases. Also, the new-coins can only be generated through mining and the growth is controlled, coins in circulation keep reducing, increasing its cost. This analysis clearly proves that Bitcoin bought are saved in the wallets are not

used in the regular transaction much. Most of the Bitcoin's are retained to earn the profit over its demand and its growth.

9 CHALLENGES FACED

Most of the challenges are with the data and casting to the required data types as the correlation and regression functions need data either in Float or double data types. And handling all these constraints along with Big data specifics in mind adds up to the challenge, thanks to Apache Spark which handles the data lineage and persistence through RDDs.

10 PROJECT STRUCTURE

Three folders are created, the first one is for scripts which retain the actual code to be executed and two Korn shell scripts to install dependencies and to download the files. The second one is the data folder which retains the data required for the model and correlation algorithm. And the extracted folder is to persist the plot figures extracted out of the python script. And git is used to controlling the versioning of the project.

11 IMPROVEMENT OPPORTUNITIES

There are a lot of improvement opportunities to be implemented in the project. One of them includes fetching the data in near real-time directly from the Mining-pool instead of a third party data service, the second one would be increasing the granularity of data which would increase the performance and Spark make more sense with that level of granularity and volume. The other improvement opportunities include gathering more features like illegal market transaction data, mining exchange data, wallet exchange data, world's inconsistency data which will increase correlation factors and result in the accurate prediction of models. Other visualization opportunity includes real-time presentation capabilities with Big data at the back end. Matplot API has minimal options for real-time reporting which can be upgraded.

12 CONCLUSION

With all prowess of Big data and its technologies, Blockchain technologies are not only evolving, it also equips humans with the opportunity to make the world more transparent, ethical and a viable place to live. Even these technologies help us to conserve the earth by reducing resource consumption like paper, audit trials and power. As the technology has evolved so far, it is expected to understand its growth story in terms of its microscopic level to push it to the next level of improvement. Such microscopic level of qualities was missed in legacy methods and Big data comes to the rescue in identifying those qualities and nurturing them.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors would like to thank Dr. Gregor von Laszewski for his support and suggestions to write this paper.

REFERENCES

- [1] bitcoinmining.com. 2011. The Best Bitcoin Mining Pools For Making Money. (2011). <https://www.bitcoinmining.com/bitcoin-mining-pools/>
- [2] Etherscan.io. 2017. Ethereum Transaction Growth Chart. (2017). <https://etherscan.io/chart/tx>

- [3] GDAX. 2017. Bitcoin Exchange – Ethereum Exchange – Litecoin Exchange – GDAX. (Dec 2017). <https://www.gdax.com/>
- [4] Michael Hendricks. 2011. 21 million cap. (2011). <https://bitcointalk.org/index.php?topic=3366.msg47522/msg47522>
- [5] Alphabet INC. 2017. bitcoin - Explore - Google Trends. (2017). <https://trends.google.com/trends/explore?q=bitcoin>
- [6] Satoshi Nakamoto. 2008. *Bitcoin: A Peer-to-Peer Electronic Cash System*. Technical Report. bitcoin.org. 9 pages. <https://bitcoin.org/bitcoin.pdf>
- [7] quandl. 2016. Search – Quandl. (2016). <https://www.quandl.com/search?query=>
- [8] AojaZhao saacMadan, ShauryaSaluja. 2016. Automated Bitcoin Trading via Machine Learning Algorithms. paper. (2016).
- [9] Spark. 2016. Overview - Spark 2.2.0 Documentation. (2016). <https://spark.apache.org/docs/latest/>
- [10] Apache Spark. 2016. pyspark.ml package fi? PySpark 2.2.0 documentation. (2016). <http://spark.apache.org/docs/2.2.0/api/python/pyspark.ml.html>
- [11] Apache Spark. 2017. Ensembles - RDD-based API - Spark 2.2.0 Documentation. (2017). <https://spark.apache.org/docs/2.2.0/mllib-ensembles.html>
- [12] Wikipedia. 2017. Spearman's rank correlation coefficient - Wikipedia. (2017). https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Spearman%27s_rank_correlation_coefficient
- [13] WolfeZhao. 2017. *OSTK to HODL: Overstock to Keep 50% of All Bitcoin Payments as Investments - CoinDesk*. Technical Report. coindesk. <https://www.coindesk.com/ostk-hodl-overstock-keep-50-bitcoin-payments-investments/>
- [14] Xoom.inc. 2017. XE Money Transfer Tips: Why Do Currencies Fluctuate. (2017). <http://www.xe.com/moneytransfertips/why-do-currencies-fluctuate.php>

LIST OF FIGURES

1	Spark Architecture	7
2	Project Architecture on Spark	8
3	Bitcoin mining statistics data	8
4	BTC Transaction and USD value - 0.348540857386	9
5	Bitcoin Highest exchange value and Closing value - 0.998581861669	9
6	Bitcoin Lowest exchange value and Closing value - 0.995190604708	10
7	Bitcoin Opening exchange value and Closing value - 0.997943642437	10
8	Bitcoin USD value and Google search trend - 0.260343238604	11
9	ETH price and BTC price - 0.68683414787	11
10	ETH Transaction volume and BTC transaction volume - 0.720031468617	12
11	Sample Decision tree	12
12	Randomforest Scatterplot	13
13	GBT Scatterplot	14

Spark Architecture



Figure 1: Spark Architecture

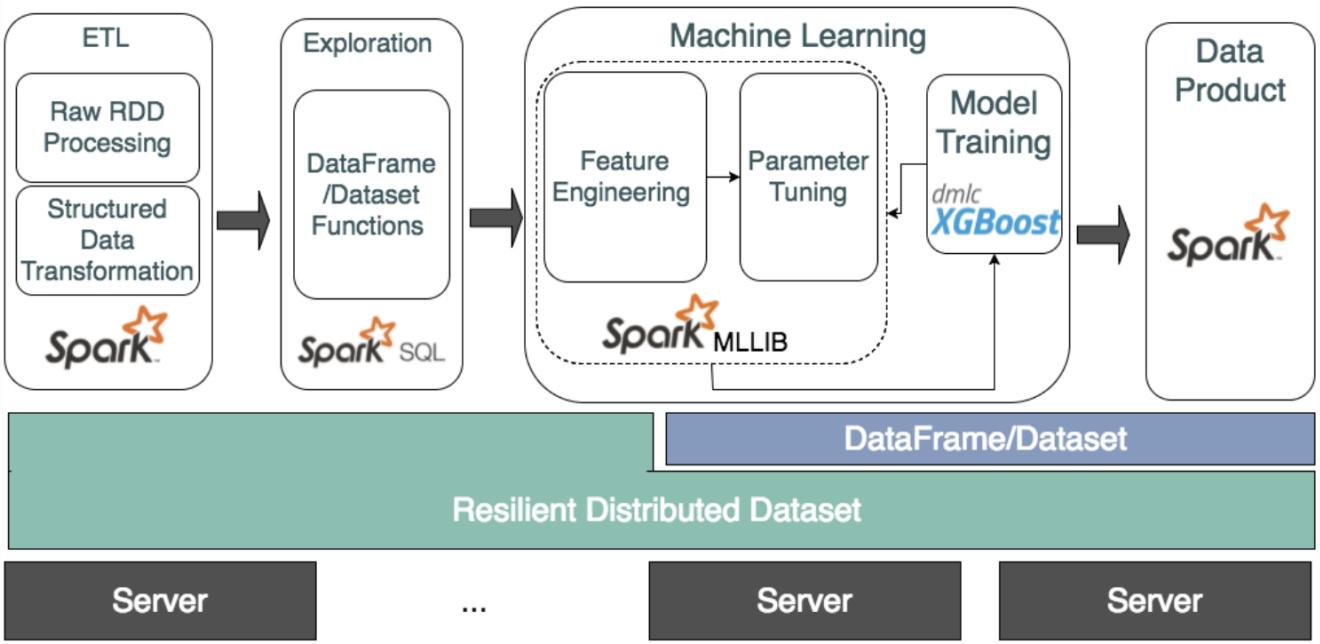


Figure 2: Project Architecture on Spark

```
Date,Open,High,Low,Close,Volume (BTC),Volume (Currency),Weighted Price
2017-11-29,9949.0,9949.0,9945.96,9945.97,20.29785801,201905.011261,9947.10925468
2017-11-28,9768.71,9989.95,9705.99,9949.0,18393.0818191,181959821.389,9892.84031783
2017-11-27,9401.11,9795.0,9401.01,9768.71,24642.0982679,237829776.608,9651.36061153
2017-11-26,8795.5,9596.0,8795.5,9401.11,27568.0196716,253816538.997,9206.91954012
2017-11-25,8215.01,8795.5,8203.98,8795.5,16239.7909316,138404574.912,8522.55891071
2017-11-24,8031.16,8324.0,7900.0,8215.01,14213.6286885,116296487.968,8182.04066794
2017-11-23,8250.0,8274.98,8031.16,8031.16,11685.6896442,95602227.3138,8181.13694823
2017-11-22,8109.0,8298.98,8103.13,8250.0,13107.9400888,107439055.55,8196.48661974
2017-11-21,8256.01,8375.0,7802.99,8109.0,29504.8066982,239617882.069,8121.31679154
2017-11-20,8031.83,8293.25,7969.0,8256.01,15479.8961619,126479984.708,8170.59645525
2017-11-19,7777.01,8098.62,7700.0,8031.82,14085.4833982,111595386.42,7922.72322253
2017-11-18,7714.7,7847.98,7502.0,7777.01,14531.7006631,111676672.782,7685.03806756
2017-11-17,7838.54,7988.5,7536.0,7714.71,23950.8477411,187290409.41,7819.78205677
2017-11-16,7294.0,7985.37,7130.0,7838.53,28404.999214,214993745.259,7568.8699598
2017-11-15,6605.0,7349.0,6605.0,7294.0,27327.1284653,193024708.734,7063.48305052
2017-11-14,6535.87,6748.0,6464.64,6605.0,19505.257774,128729345.115,6599.72539747
2017-11-13,5886.35,6841.45,5850.0,6535.87,35150.8905255,224596217.133,6389.4886808
2017-11-12,6216.64,6106.0,5511.11,5806.25,10610.2257667,200525162.810,6017.41072071
```

Figure 3: Bitcoin mining statistics data

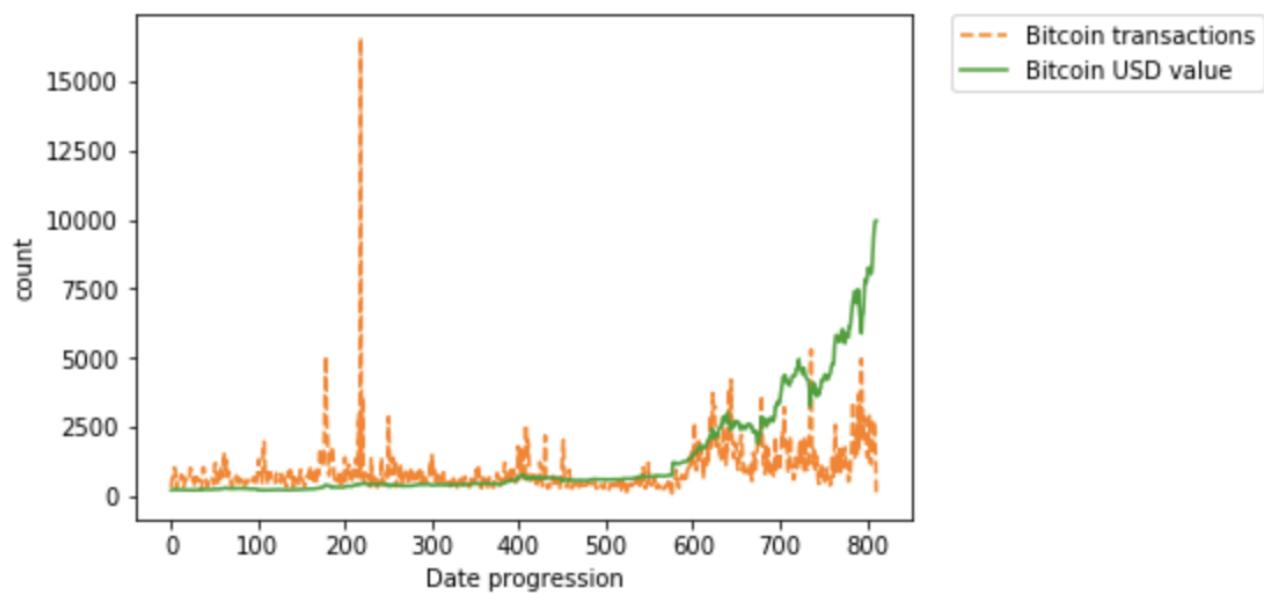


Figure 4: BTC Transaction and USD value - 0.348540857386

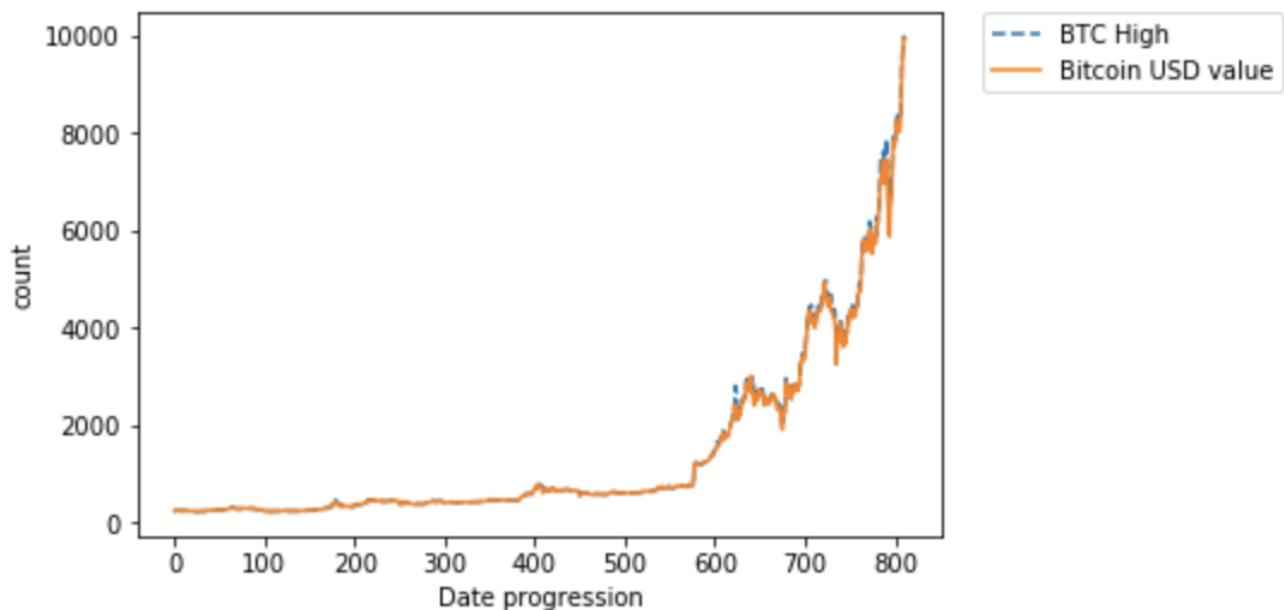


Figure 5: Bitcoin Highest exchange value and Closing value - 0.998581861669

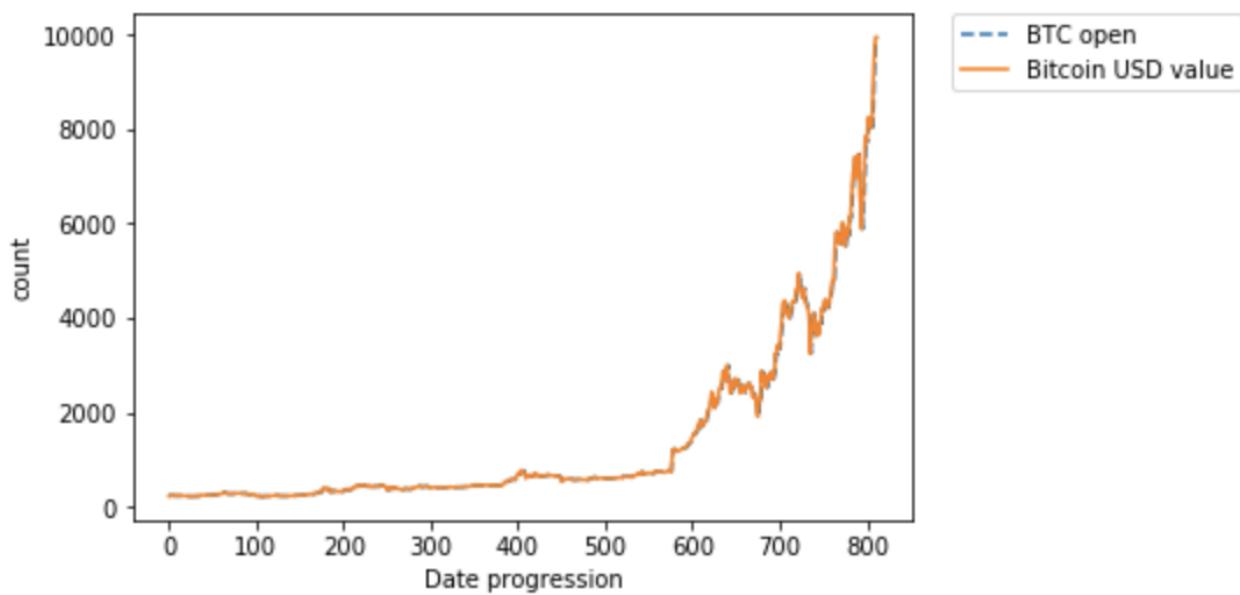


Figure 6: Bitcoin Lowest exchange value and Closing value - 0.995190604708

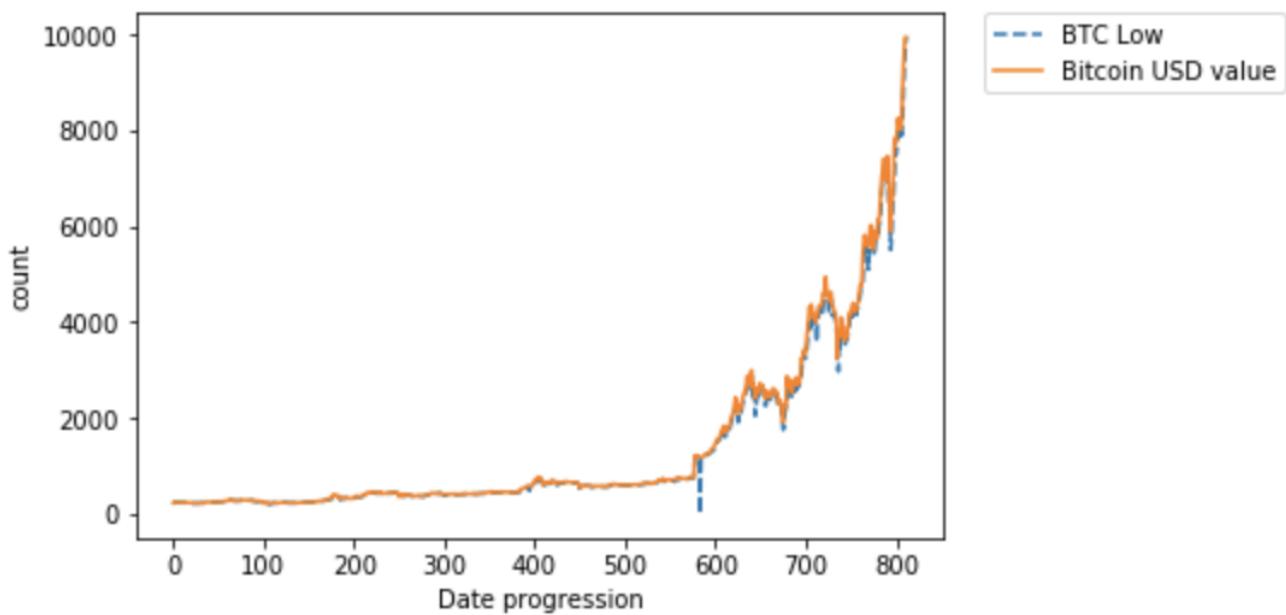


Figure 7: Bitcoin Opening exchange value and Closing value - 0.997943642437

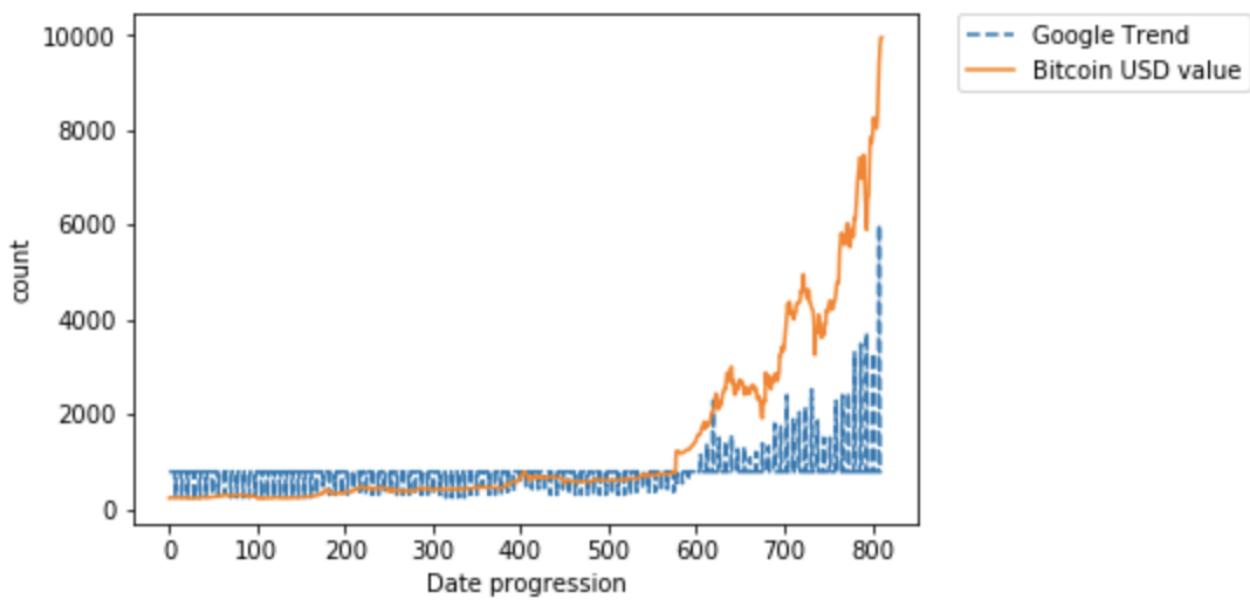


Figure 8: Bitcoin USD value and Google search trend - 0.260343238604

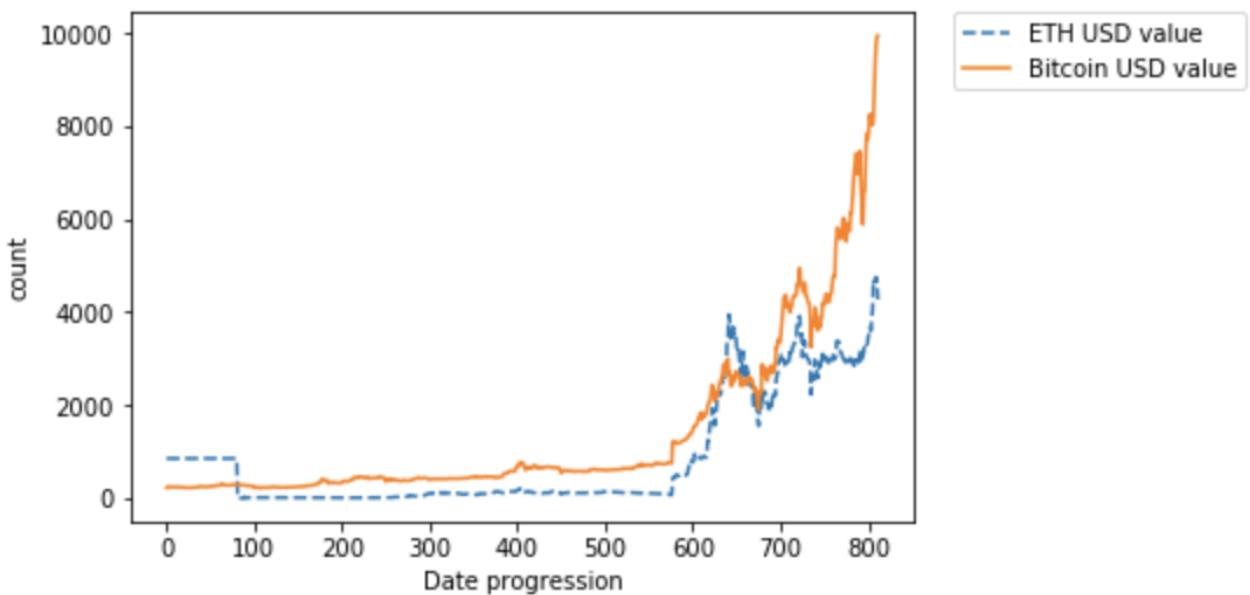


Figure 9: ETH price and BTC price - 0.68683414787

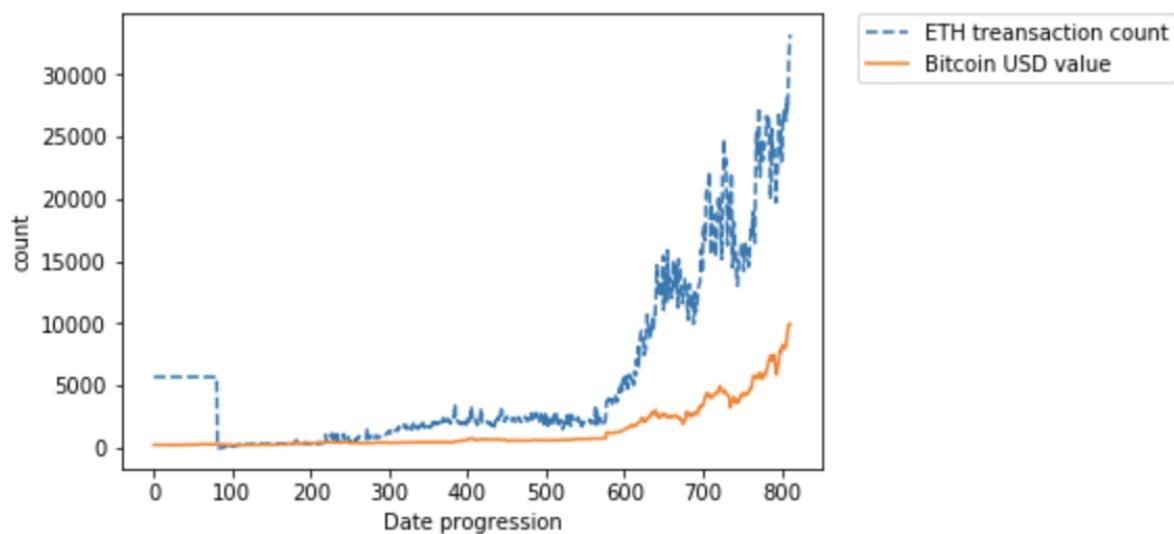


Figure 10: ETH Transaction volume and BTC transaction volume - 0.720031468617

`TreeEnsembleModel classifier with 3 trees`

Tree 0:

Predict: 1.0

Tree 1:

If (feature 0 <= 1.0)

Predict: 0.0

Else (feature 0 > 1.0)

Predict: 1.0

Tree 2:

If (feature 0 <= 1.0)

Predict: 0.0

Else (feature 0 > 1.0)

Predict: 1.0

Figure 11: Sample Decision tree

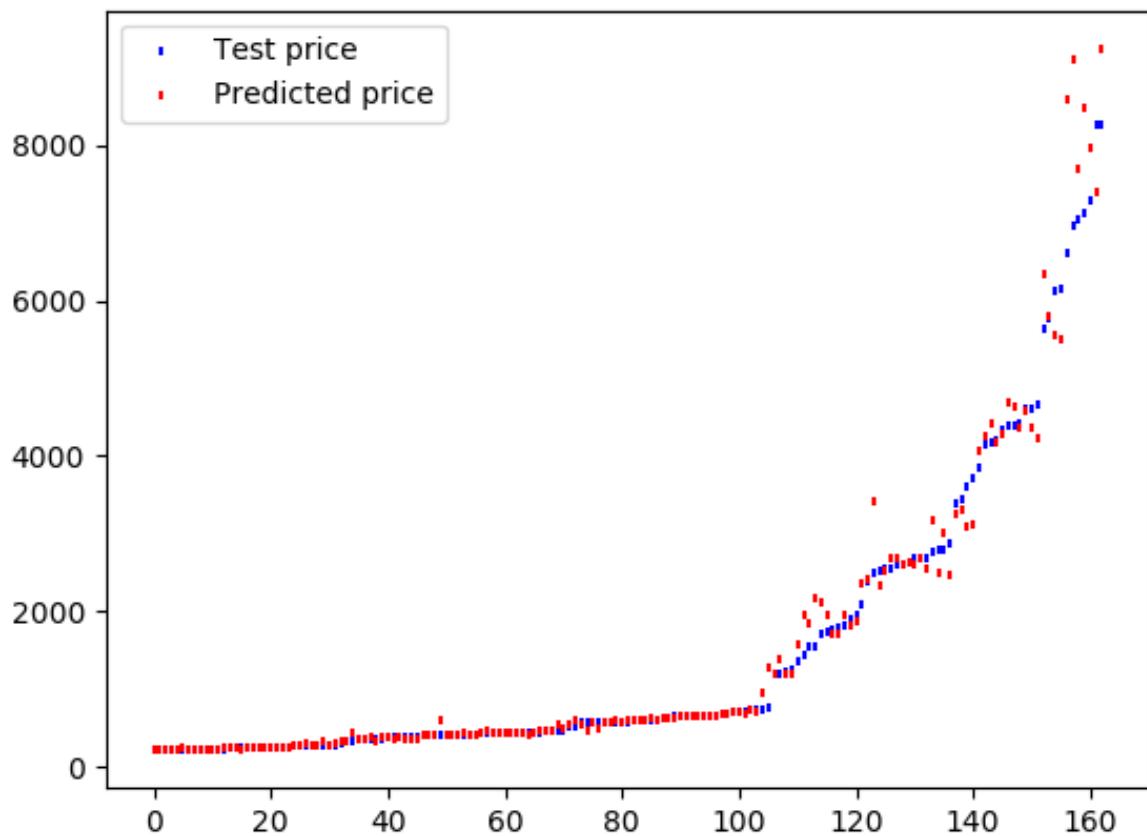


Figure 12: Randomforest Scatterplot

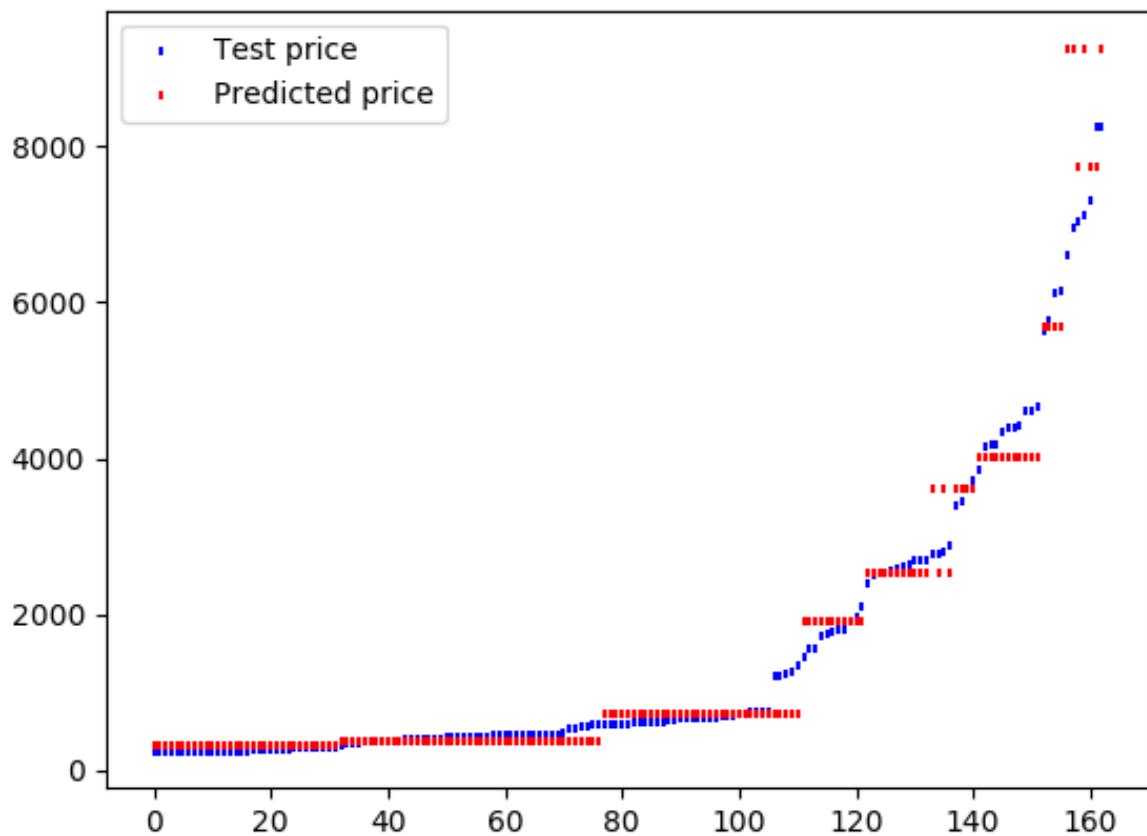


Figure 13: GBT Scatterplot

```
bibtext report
```

```
=====
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
```

```
bibtext _ label error
```

```
=====
report.bib:93: AUTHOR1_EMAIL = {satoshin@gmx.com},
```

```
bibtext space label error
```

```
=====
report.bib:93: AUTHOR1_EMAIL = {satoshin@gmx.com},
```

```
bibtext comma label error
```

```
=====
latex report
```

```
[2017-12-08 04.02.41] pdflatex report.tex
This is pdfTeX, Version 3.14159265-2.6-1.40.17 (TeX Live 2016) (preloaded format=pdflatex)
Missing character: ""
bookmark level for unknown defaults to 0.
The anchor of a bookmark and its parent's must not be the same. Added a new anchor.
Typesetting of "report.tex" completed in 1.9s.
./README.yml
8:81      error      line too long (142 > 80 characters) (line-length)
20:81     error      line too long (117 > 80 characters) (line-length)
38:81     error      line too long (388 > 80 characters) (line-length)
```

```
=====
Compliance Report
=====
```

```
name: Ashok Kuppuraj
```

```
hid: 324
```

```
paper1: 100% Oct 31 17
```

```
paper2: 100% Nov 6 17  
project: Dec 04 17 99%
```

```
yamlcheck
```

```
wordcount
```

```
14  
wc 324 project 14 3629 report.tex  
wc 324 project 14 3761 report.pdf  
wc 324 project 14 347 report.bib
```

```
find "
```

60: Feature extraction, transformation, and prediction can be synonymous with a conventional ETL methodology. Though few of the extraction is handled manually and the volume is comparably low, it is assumed that the data volume will be increased by modifying the extraction to real-time systems. When the extraction systems are changed, our code must be able to handle streaming data which can be related to "variety and volume " of the data. The next step is validating the data for anomalies, data miss and cleanse the data of issues which is synonymous with data cleansing. The later one is data processing, which includes data processing with multiple iterations and permutation consuming a lot of memory and other resources. These processing needs lead us in adopting Big data technologies in the entire lifecycle of the implementation.

```
passed: False
```

```
find footnote
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find input{format/i523}
```

```
passed: False
```

```
find input{format/final}
```

```
passed: False

floats
-----

65: \begin{figure}![ht]
66: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/Sparkarchic.
    png}
79: \begin{figure}![ht]
80: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/Projectflow.
    png}
82: \label{Architecture:spark}
85: As shown in figure \ref{Architecture:spark}, the extracted data is
    loaded to Pyspark RDD and then converted to Pyspark
    dataframe.Pyspark dataframe is selected to increase the
    performance of the data processing even though Pyspark dataframe
    API is not equipped with rich functionalities similar to Pandas
    dataframe and Pyspark dataframe can execute the transformations in
    parallel whereas Pandas cannot.
106: \begin{figure}![ht]
107: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/Source1data
    .png}
109: \label{}
136: \begin{figure}![ht]
137: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/BTC-
    prcvsBTC-trans.png}
139: \label{1}
142: The Figure\ref{1} describes the correlation between Bitcoin
    transaction count and its value. Or in other perspectives, the
    transaction count is consistent and due to the increase in price
    people started buying Bitcoins leading to volatility.
144: \begin{figure}![ht]
145: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/High.png}
147: \label{2}
150: The Figures \ref{2},\ref{3} and \ref{4} describes the correlation
    between open, low and high prices of Bitcoin on the recorded
    date. This is obvious that the closing price is highly correlated
    with them.
152: \begin{figure}![ht]
153: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/Open.png}
155: \label{3}
158: \begin{figure}![ht]
159: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/low.png}
161: \label{4}
165: \begin{figure}![ht]
```

```

166: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/googletrend
    .png}
168: \label{5}
171: As described in figure \ref{5}, the correlation plot provides the
    pattern between the search trends and the hike in price, which is
    clearly evident.
173: \begin{figure}![ht]
174: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/ethvalue.pn
    g}
176: \label{6}
179: \begin{figure}![ht]
180: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/ethtrancoun
    t.png}
182: \label{7}
185: Figure \ref{6} and \ref{7} describes the correlation of
    Ethereum's price and its transaction volumes with Bitcoin's price
    in which the transaction pattern of Ethereum is more similar to
    Bitcoin's pattern is evident.
193: \begin{figure}![ht]
194: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/Decisiontre
    e.png}
196: \label{fig:8decisiongree}
200: Figure \ref{fig:8decisiongree} give some basic idea of how
    decisions are made with the supervised decision tree based model.
245: \begin{figure}![ht]
246: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/RandomFores
    tscatterplot.png}
248: \label{scpl:ran}
251: \begin{figure}![ht]
252: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/GBTscatterp
    lot.png}
254: \label{scpl:gbt}
258: From the observation of scatter plots of regression model Random
    forest \ref{scpl:ran} and GBT \ref{scpl:ran}, it is evident that
    GBT's single tree iterative model has predicted the values with
    overfitting. Some predicted values are consistent with some
    particular time scope and changes happening in steps. The
    prediction distribution looks like a single line and not
    widespread. Whereas, in the Random forest, the predicted values
    are widespread and closely aligned. Also, the other correlation
    graphs explain that Bitcoin transaction count doesn't impact the
    Bitcoin's values. even the exchange data doesn't impact much
    though the correlation looks close, there is a possibility that
    owners are not using the Bitcoin for any day to day transactions
    instead they are using as an asset like Gold, and by retaining
    it, the demand for the Bitcoin coin further increases. Also, the

```

new-coins can only be generated through mining and the growth is controlled, coins in circulation keep reducing, increasing its cost.

```
figures 13
tables 0
includegraphics 13
labels 12
refs 7
floats 13
```

```
True : ref check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
True : label check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
True : include graphics passed: (figures >= includegraphics)
False : check if all figures are referred to: (refs >= labels)
```

```
Label/ref check
passed: True
```

```
When using figures use columnwidth
[width=1.0\columnwidth]
do not change the number to a smaller fraction
```

```
find textwidth
```

```
passed: True
```

```
below_check
```

WARNING: table and below may be used improperly

122: The below table describes the correlation of Bitcoin's price with the features. Surprisingly the transaction count of the Bitcoin is very less related to its value against US dollars. Whereas the

WARNING: algorithm and below may be used improperly

226: With all parameters set and by tuning the model, Avg.closeness index of the algorithm is closer to 0.95. After deriving the model, the closeness/correctness of the predicted results was also analyzed and it is described in the plot given below.

bibtex

label errors

bibtex errors

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
```

bibtex_empty_fields

entries in general should not be empty in bibtex

find ""

passed: True

ascii

```
=====
The following tests are optional
=====
```

Tip: newlines can often be replaced just by an empty line

find newline

passed: True

cites should have a space before \cite{} but not before the {

find cite {

passed: True

Predicting Profitable Customers in Banking Industry

Dhanya Mathew
Indiana University
711 N Park Ave
Bloomington, Indiana 47408
dhmathew@iu.edu

ABSTRACT

Banks often want to know the profile of their profitable top 1% or 20% customers looks like. Conversely, they may also wonder what the general profile is of the customers in the worst 1% and 20% of profit. Based on customer's data variables at any given time, a good predictive model can predict which profit group (extremely unprofitable, average, extremely profitable etc) customers fall into. This helps financial institutions to better understand what drives the customer profit and accordingly take decisions to sell their products to the right customers. Further down in banking sector, it is a challenge to identify customers who are most likely to repay the loan. Recent big data and machine learning technologies have the potential to predict good customers and open doors for banks to profitable growth. Since the banking sector has evolved over the periods, there are tremendous amount of historical data available to analyze. We show how bank's big data can be analyzed and create a model based on that, to classify customers. In addition to big data technologies, we use machine learning algorithms to build a predictive model to predict creditworthy and uncreditworthy customers from a list of new customers. Various classification algorithms like Decision Tree and Random Forest are used to build the models and trace the best model among them to achieve the goal.

KEYWORDS

i523, HID328, Big Data, Spark, Python, Decision Trees , Random Forest

1 INTRODUCTION

Big data as the name implies, refers to large and complex data which continues to grow enormously day by day. Industries like financial firms, in particular, have widely adopted big data analytics to obtain better investment decisions with consistent growth. Recent survey research indicates that 71 percent of firms in the financial services industry at a global level are exploring big data and predictive analytics [22]. This number continues to grow and sectors like government, business, technology, universities, health-care, finance, manufacturing etc make use of big data to obtain meaningful information using big data technologies [31].

The finance sector contributes to the daily data generation from products and marketing, banking, business, share market etc [14]. Banking is a very sensitive field and any useful insight can make a positive impact on the overall turnover. Historic data analysis and real time data analysis are equally important in banking sector. The era of big data helps financial firms to take quality business decisions related to expanding revenues, managing costs, hiring resources etc, based on effective data analysis which provide access

to real-time insights. Data-driven decision making is one of the key advantages of big data technologies.

1.1 Project Goals

We aim to help banking sector to identify trustworthy customers. Specifically, help banks to take a decision driven by data, whether to approve or reject a loan application. When a new customer approaches the bank for a loan, banks would be able to identify the customers who are most likely to repay the loan by analyzing the applicant's profile and background information.

There can be two scenarios of risks associated with the bank's decision. First, if the customer is creditworthy and if the bank rejects the loan, then it is a loss to the bank in terms of interest. Second, if the customer is uncreditworthy and if the bank approves the loan, then it is a loss to the bank in terms of loan amount and interest [15]. Approving loan for an uncreditworthy customer will end up in more financial loss for the bank and accordingly is a greater risk. Hence banks would require a decision rule to follow for whom to approve the loan. We show how to build a predictive model using machine learning algorithm and a sample dataset with customer records classified as "Good" or "Bad" according to bank's opinion on the customer. With our model, we try to mitigate these risks for the banks by contributing to the decision rules. In other words, our model helps to minimize the risks and maximize the profit for the bank by understanding the customers.

1.2 Methods and Technologies Involved

The goal of most of the big data projects is to analyze the data and derive knowledge out of it. In other words, data is the input to the model and knowledge is the output. We also follow the same methods and processes for our project. We wrote the project code using Python3.

1.2.1 Project Workflow. Overall workflow of the project is shown in Figure 1. We have taken a sample data set of loan applications received by a bank. We explored the data and the requirements of the bank and based on that set the project goals as discussed in the section 1.1, before starting the project. In the real scenarios, we will not be able to apply analytical methods directly on the raw data as it likely be imperfect and containing irrelevant information. Hence we do data cleaning (data preprocessing) as the first step. Data cleaning is done using PySpark. The cleaned data has 1000 customer records with 1 classifier and 20 feature variables.

[Figure 1 about here.]

Exploratory analysis like Chi-square test is done to understand the data and feature selection for analysis as part of the data mining process. We have done graphical representations to show how the

actual data is related and what are the direct insights available from the cleaned data set.

Machine learning approaches are used for the data evaluation and to build our predictive model. We develop various models using machine learning algorithms and compare them to identify the best model to choose for our problem solution [23]. To develop the models we first split the data set into two parts- training data and test data. We defined 2 baseline models, Decision trees and the Random Forest model. We compare all these models to identify the most effective and least penalty model. We use python as the programming language to build these models and display visualizations for easy comparison and results discussion.

1.2.2 Python. Python version 3 is the programming language used to develop the models and visualizations in this project. Python is a general purpose programming language that is open source, easy to use, faster to write, flexible and powerful. It has a rich set of libraries and utilities for data processing and analytics tasks [27]. Other important features of Python include the ability to process big data, scalability of applications and easiness to integrate with web applications. We use Python libraries like pandas, matplotlib, seaborn and numpy in this project.

Pandas: Pandas is one of the most popular libraries in Python. Pandas is used for data manipulation and analysis [17], read data files from different sources, create data frames and some built-in visualizations [11].

Matplotlib: Matplotlib is the library used for plotting arrays and histograms of data in python [6].

Seaborn: Seaborn is a Python visualization library used for statistical visualization of data [30].

Numpy: Numpy is Python library which is used to operate mathematical functions on large multi dimensional arrays [34].

1.2.3 PySpark. Even though Python is powerful to handle complex big data analytic tasks, it alone cannot handle the big data processing. A distributed framework would require to handle a large amount of data. Spark is a distributed computing framework which supports Python [7].

PySpark is used to carry out the data preprocessing tasks in this project and it is the Python API for Spark.

1.2.4 Jupyter Notebook. Jupyter notebook is an open source web application that allows to edit, run and share Python code and visualizations into a web view. It can be used to modify and re-execute program parts in a flexible way [5]. The files created in Jupyter notebook use extension "ipynb".

1.2.5 Machine Learning. Machine learning enables computers to learn automatically and act accordingly without human assistance or being explicitly programmed. It is an application of Artificial Intelligence. It focuses on computer programs that can access data and learn by itself. Learning process starts by observing the data for patterns and make better decisions in future on the given scenarios [25]. There are mainly 2 categories of machine learning - Supervised and Unsupervised.

Supervised Machine Learning Algorithms: Supervised machine learning algorithms enable machines to get trained using a known training data set. Using these labeled examples, supervised learning algorithms can predict future events by applying already learned

knowledge. These systems can be used for target definitions for new set of data after required training. Also, it can compare new data input with the intended output and give error indications [25].

Unsupervised Machine Learning Algorithms: Unsupervised machine learning algorithms are used when there is not a preferred output and the data is not labeled or classified. It helps to find the hidden patterns in the data. It can describe the hidden structure of the unlabeled data but would not be useful to provide a correct, intended output [25].

There is another categorization of the machine learning algorithms depending on the preferred output. That include *Classification Algorithms* (Used for supervised learning with discrete output), *Regression Algorithms* (Used for supervised learning with continuous output), *Clustering Algorithms* (Unsupervised) etc [33].

We use supervised machine learning approaches in this project. In particular, the classification algorithms - Decision Tree and Random Forest.

1.2.6 Decision Tree. Decision Tree is a supervised machine learning algorithm used to solve both classification and regression problems. In decision tree, a trained model with a set of rules will be created based on the training data. The target class or value of a test / new data set will be predicted based on this training rules. Decision Tree algorithm is simple to understand as it uses a tree model representation to solve the problem. It starts from a root node and continues with other decision nodes. Each internal decision nodes corresponds to the feature variables and each leaf nodes corresponds to the class label [24]. Figure 2 shows the decision tree classifier.

[Figure 2 about here.]

The best attribute will be chosen as the root node. To identify the root node there are 2 methods. They are, *Information Gain* and *Gini Index*. There are statistical approaches to calculate Information gain and Gini index values for each feature variables. Attribute with better value will be considered as the root node and other attributes will be placed in the internal nodes according to the values in recursive order. Step 1 to model the decision tree is placing the root attribute. In step 2, the training data set will be divided into 2 sub data sets in such a way that, both subsets will contain same attribute values for that variable. Step 1 and 2 will be repeated until we reach the leaf nodes with predicted class value [24].

Overfitting: Overfitting is a practical issue that can happen while building a decision tree. When the algorithm goes deeper and deeper it builds more branches because of the irregularities in data and the prediction accuracy of the model goes down accordingly. There are 2 methods can be used to avoid overfitting issues - *Pre-Pruning* and *Post-Pruning*. In Pre-pruning, we set a threshold value as a goodness measure and if it crosses, further split of the node will be stopped. In Post-Pruning, tree construction continues until all leafs are reached and pruning will be done if the model shows overfitting issues. Cross-validation data will be used to measure the improvement in this method [24].

1.2.7 Random Forest. Like Decision Tree, Random Forest algorithm also can be used for classification as well as regression problems. It is a supervised machine learning algorithm. It uses decision tree concept as well but there will be more than one trees in

a Random Forest. As the number of trees increases in the Random forest, the accuracy of the prediction also will increase accordingly. Random forest algorithm can handle missing values in the data. Also with more trees in the forest, overfitting issues will not occur in Random Forest algorithm [19]. Figure 3 shows the Random Forest model.

[Figure 3 about here.]

Random Forest algorithm progresses via 2 stages - Random forest creation and Perform prediction. To create the Random Forest, we select a random number of feature variables from the total list of feature variables in the training data and create a Decision Tree out of it. We repeat this process to create desired number of trees. These randomly created trees will form a Random Forest. Figure 4 shows how random forest algorithm works.

[Figure 4 about here.]

The test data set will be analyzed against the rules developed by each of the trees to predict the output. To predict Random Forest output, the outputs of each of the trees are considered as votes. The top voted output is the final predicted value of the Random Forest.

1.3 Installations

Technologies used in this project are discussed in detail in section 1.2. The installation commands on Ubuntu 16.04 OS for each of these technologies are given in this section. Installations can be done from the terminal window.

- (1) Python installation steps for ubuntu OS are available in the askubuntu website [4].
- (2) Install pip to manage the libraries in the Python. Pip is a Python package management software used to install and manage Python libraries. pip can be installed using command "sudo pip install -U pip" [18].
- (3) Install PySpark using command "sudo pip install pyspark" [1].
- (4) Install Jupyter notebook using command "sudo pip install jupyter" [20].
- (5) Install Pandas using command "sudo pip install pandas" [16].
- (6) Install matplotlib using command "sudo pip install matplotlib" [3].
- (7) Install seaborn using command "sudo pip install seaborn" [26].
- (8) Install numpy using command "sudo pip install numpy" [2]

All these installation steps are included in a make file referred in appendix A.1.

2 DATA SET

We used the German Credit data which is publically available in the UCI Machine Learning Repository [10] and also in the website of PennState Eberly College of Science [15]. Both these sites have the cleaned dataset and not the original one. The dataset that we used (german-credit.csv) is taken from the website of PennState Eberly College of Science [15] and it is uploaded in the Github repository [12]. We recreated the original one from these data sets to understand and try out the data cleaning processes. We start our

project with the recreated original data set (credit-data.csv) which is available in the Github repository [12].

Dataset includes 1000 customer records with 20 feature variables and a class variable. In the class variable, the actual class of the customer is specified - good or bad. The complete list of data set variables and their description is given in Table 1.

[Table 1 about here.]

3 DATA CLEANSING

A massive amount of raw data is piling up in the recent years from different sources and it has been continuously getting stored as the storage mechanism is getting cheaper and the storage capacity increases day by day. This raw data cannot be analysed as it is by human or traditional applications, as the processing capacity of traditional tools has been exceeded because of the volume of the data. That is the reason why big data technologies have evolved and they use distributed systems like MapReduce, Spark, Flink etc. Even if we have a big data solution to process the high quantity of raw data, it is not the efficiency and performance of the solution that determines the quality of the knowledge extracted but it depends on the quality of the data as well. The raw data likely to be imperfect and may contain noise, irrelevant information, missing values etc. It is well known that low quality data will lead to low quality knowledge [9]. Hence data cleaning is the major step to be performed before we continue with data mining algorithms to make sure that we are using a suitable and relevant data set.

Data cleaning has 2 parts. First part is data preparation and second part is data reduction techniques.

3.0.1 Data Preparation. The data going to the analytics model should be clean and noise free. Hence data preparation part includes tasks like data cleaning, data normalization, data transformation, missing value imputation, data integration and Noise identification. Figure 5 shows the data preparations tasks [9].

[Figure 5 about here.]

3.0.2 Data Reduction Techniques. To reduce the dimensionality problem and the computational cost, because of a large number of variables and instances in the data set, we try to gather only the required set of quality data. Data reduction techniques include feature selection, instance selection and discretization. Figure 6 shows data reduction techniques [9]

[Figure 6 about here.]

With respect to our chosen data set, data reduction techniques were already applied to the raw data and 1000 customer records and 21 variables were shortlisted. All these variables are either categorical (like Account-Balance, Previous-credit, purpose etc) or continuous (Duration-of-credit, Installment-percent, dependents). As part of data preparation for our analysis, we transform the values of categorical variable's from string to scores (numerical values). For example, the variable creditability got 2 values - good and bad. After transformation process, "good" get replaced by "1" and "bad" get replaced by "0". Likewise, we gave scores for the values of the variables, Foreign-Worker, Telephone, Previous-Credit, Purpose, Sex-MaritalStatus, Guarantors and Type-apartment.

4 DATA ANALYSIS

Big data analysis is the process of obtaining knowledge by analyzing and understanding hidden patterns, market trends, unknown correlations, customer preferences and other relevant information from large and varied datasets [21]. Big data analytics methods include exploratory analysis, data mining, predictive analytics, machine learning, deep learning etc. The results of the analysis can be visualized using tools like Tableau, Infogram, Plotly etc or by using Python scripts. This project utilizes methods like exploratory analysis, predictive analysis, machine learning algorithms and visualizations of results using Python scripts. Python codes for all these analysis methods are given in appendix A.3.

4.1 Exploratory Analysis

Exploratory analysis is basically to explore the data and understand what it actually contains. It is an approach to summarize the general characteristics of the data set before we attempt to model it. Statistical methods or direct visualizations can help in data exploration [32].

4.1.1 Direct Visualization. After data preprocessing, our dataset includes 1000 customer records with 20 feature variable and 1 class variable. Feature variable values can be visualized to understand the characteristics and how they are related to each other - proportionally or inversely.

Figure 7 shows the histogram of credit amount disbursed with respect to frequency. From this diagram, we understand that most of the customers are requested for loans for up to 2500 German Marks. The number of customers decreases as the loan amount increases. And very few customers fall under the loan amount category over 10000 German Marks.

[Figure 7 about here.]

Figure 8 and Figure 9 shows the credit amount availed by bad customers and good customers respectively. The trend is almost the same. Maximum customers from both the classes fall under the category of up to 2500 German Marks. But there is a noticeable difference in the number of customers under 12500 range. Bad rated customers are more in this category.

[Figure 8 about here.]

[Figure 9 about here.]

Figure 10 shows the duration of credit in months vs. number of customers. From this graph, we can understand that maximum number of customers opted for 10 to 15 months duration.

[Figure 10 about here.]

Figure 11 and Figure 12 shows the duration of credit in months vs number of bad customers and good customers respectively. It shows that there is not much difference in the trend.

[Figure 11 about here.]

[Figure 12 about here.]

Figure 13 shows how customers are scattered with respect to age. Most of the borrowers fall under the age group of 23 to 28.

[Figure 13 about here.]

4.1.2 Data Classification. We have one class variable "Credibility" to classify the customers based on the bank's opinion on the actual applicants. We could extract this class information from dataset using PySpark Python script "GroupBy". Figure 14 shows the output of the script.

[Figure 14 about here.]

Customers in our dataset are classified into 2 classes - Good (1 = Creditworthy) and Bad (0 = Uncreditworthy). We have 700 customers in the Good class and 300 customers in the Bad class. We divide our dataset of 1000 customer records randomly into 2 parts. First part is the training dataset with 700 customer records and second part is the test dataset of 300 customer records.

4.1.3 Interquartile Range. Interquartile Range is a statistical method to measure the variability of the data. This will be applicable only for the continuous variables (Credit-amount, Duration of credit and Age). The rank-ordered data will be divided into 4 equal parts called quartiles. Values are called the First (Q1) Second (Q2) and Third (Q3) quartiles. Q2 is the Median value of the dataset [29].

We used pandas quantile function to extract this information for all the continuous variables.

Figure 15 shows the variability of Credit-Amount.

[Figure 15 about here.]

Figure 16 shows the variability of Duration of credit.

[Figure 16 about here.]

Figure 17 shows the variability of Age.

[Figure 17 about here.]

4.1.4 Cross-Tabulation. Cross-Tabulation is a statistical method used to compare the relationship between categorical variables. In our scenario, we examine the relationship of the categorical variables with the class variable "credibility". We create a *contingency table* which displays the frequency of categorical variables with respect to the class [35].

[Figure 18 about here.]

Figure 18 shows the contingency table created for the variable sex-marital status against class. It shows the number of good and bad customers distributed among the 4 categories of the variable sex-marital status. Category "male: married / widowed" has the maximum number of Good customers. Contingency tables are used to create the Chi-square values.

4.1.5 Test of Independence. We need to identify the features that are closely related to the class / credit rating to build a predictive model. We do a test of independence on all our feature variables to identify the ones to be selected for data modeling. The method we use to do the test of Independence is the Chi-squared test. The output of the Chi-squared test is the input to the Logistical Regression Algorithm. Variables which are not related to the class variable will be discarded from further analysis of Logical Regression.

Pearson's Chi-squared test: Chi-squared test is used to determine the significant difference between expected values and observed values in one or more categories. There are 2 types of Chi-squared test - Goodness of Fit and Test for Independence.

We use the second method - *Test of Independence*. It compares 2 variables in a contingency table to check if they are related. In

other words, it examines if the distributions of categorical variables are different from one another.

If the calculated value is small that means, the variables are related. If the value is large that means, the data is not related and not fit for analysis [28].

p-value: p-value is the probability value that, when the null hypothesis is true, the chi-square value will be greater than the empirical value of the data. There is a p-value distribution chart available where it is calculated against the significance value, degrees of freedom and chi-square test value [13].

Degrees of freedom: Degrees of freedom is the number of scores that can be varied. It is calculated using the formula,

$$\text{Degrees of freedom} = (r - 1) * (c - 1) \quad (1)$$

The calculated values are shown in figure 19.

[Figure 19 about here.]

5 MODELS

Predictive models can be created using different Machine Learning algorithms such as Logistical Regression, Decision Trees, Random Forest etc. Machine learning algorithms generate models from the training data and tested against the test data to estimate the accuracy level. Before building predictive models, there are few baseline models can be created to compare and see what improvements we are actually trying to achieve. By comparing the accuracies of different predictive models against the base models, we can come up with the best model for that particular problem. The best model is saved for the future predictions on new datasets.

5.1 Baseline Models

Baseline models use simple summary statistics. In classification problems like our scenario, baseline models are created based on the class values. As mentioned in the data classification section 4.1.2, our total list of 1000 customer records are divided into training dataset and test dataset. Training dataset has 700 customer records and test dataset has 300 customer records. For the baseline models, we evaluate the test data of 300 customer records.

In this project we create 2 baseline models.

Baseline Model 1: In this model, we assume all the input test customer records (300 customer records) belongs to the "Good" class. Since out of 1000 customers, 700 falls under "Good" class, we assume among the 300 customers in test dataset 70% will fall under "Good" class and rest in "Bad" class, which means this baseline model holds 70% accuracy.

[Table 2 about here.]

Table 2 shows the assumption in baseline model 1.

Baseline Model 2: In this model, we assume all the input test customer records (300 customer records) belongs to the "Bad" class. Since out of 1000 customers, 300 falls under "Bad" class, we assume among the 300 customers in test dataset 30% will fall under "Bad" class and rest in "Good" class, which means this baseline model holds 30% accuracy.

[Table 3 about here.]

Table 3 shows the assumption in baseline model 2.

5.2 Decision Tree Model

To build this model, we use the machine learning algorithm - Decision Tree which is explained in section 1.2.6. PySpark's class "DecisionTreeClassifier" is used to build different Decision Tree models from training data based on different tree attributes like MaxBins, Maxdepth, Impurity etc. Impurity measures are calculated internally by this classifier to identify the root node and other internal nodes. Gini Index is the method opted in our project.

Formula to calculate Gini Index is,

$$\text{GiniIndex} = \sum_{i=1}^C f_i(1 - f_i) \quad (2)$$

We created 2 Decision Tree models to compare the accuracy.

Decision Tree with maxDepth None: In this model, we set the maxDepth value of the Tree to None and we calculated the accuracy using PySpark's "MulticlassClassificationEvaluator". In this case, the tree can become arbitrarily deep and complex and more chances of overfitting issues.

The accuracy of the output of this model is 0.679. Maximum number of Bins are 32. Depth is None.

Decision Tree after adjusting the attribute values: In this model, we set the maxDepth value to 6 and maxBins value to 20. We used the same PySpark's "MulticlassClassificationEvaluator" to calculate the accuracy. Since we have limited the maxDepth and maxBin values, the overfitting issues decreases.

- The accuracy of the output of this model is 0.716
- Number of Bins are 20
- Depth is 6

5.3 Random Forest

Random Forest Machine Learning algorithm which is explained in the section 1.2.7 is used to build Random Forest model. We use PySpark class "RandomForestClassifier" to generate the model from training data. We build 2 Random Forest models one with default attribute and another one with chosen attribute values.

Random Forest with Default Settings: In this case, the attributes of the Tree are selected by the "RandomForestClassifier" itself internally and accuracy of the model is calculated based on that.

The accuracy of the output of this model is 0.756. Maximum number of Bins are 32. Maximum Depth is 5. Maximum number of Trees are 20.

Tuning Random Forest with cross-validator: In this case, we tune the Random Forest model by trying different attribute values for tree attributes - maxDepth, maxBin and numTrees. We can provide multiple values for each attribute. We provided 3 values for maxDepth, 2 values for maxBins and 3 values for numTrees. We will start with some random values for these attributes.

We use *cross-validation* techniques in this type of Random Forest model to get the best model. PySpark "CrossValidator" will analyze the values of the attributes. In this scenario, the "CrossValidator" will choose 3 values of attributes from $3 * 2 * 3$ values. It will then try different combinations of the attribute values internally and finally, the model will get tuned to a final set of attributes which derive the best model with maximum accuracy.

- The accuracy of the output of this model is 0.779

- Number of Trees are 100

As we identified the best model with maximum accuracy is the Random Forest model, we passed the actual dataset to this model and received an accuracy of 0.845

6 RESULTS

Now we have all the desired models created which can predict the class of a new customer. We can compare and analyze the outputs of each of these models and conclude with the best model. We can analyze the results based on accuracy and mean penalty matrix.

6.1 Prediction matrix

Prediction matrix can be extracted using the "groupby" option in PySpark. Figure 20 and Figure 21 shows the prediction matrix of Decision Tree and Random Forest respectively. Decision Tree has got 219 right predictions and Random Forest has got 240 right predictions out of 300 customer records.

[Figure 20 about here.]

[Figure 21 about here.]

6.2 Feature Importance

Feature Importance is the list of important predictors that are the top contributed variables towards building the predictive model. Normally the variable with maximum dependency would be treated as the root node by the algorithm. We could calculate the feature importance only for the Random forest algorithm by using the class "bestModel.featureImportances". Figure 22 shows the list of predictors. We could see that the variable "Account Balance" contributes maximum to the predictions.

[Figure 22 about here.]

6.3 Model Accuracy Comparison

Figure 23 shows the accuracy of different predictive models that we created. We plotted the output of "MulticlassClassificationEvaluator" for Decision Tree and Random Forest. We can understand from the graph that baseline model 2 has got the least accuracy and Random Forest has got the most.

[Figure 23 about here.]

6.4 Penalty Matrix

One important aspect to consider while choosing a predictive model is the accuracy. When considering the actual goal of this project, the model should be apt to minimize the risks and to maximize the profit. The model should ensure good prediction accuracy to achieve the goal.

A penalty matrix is defined to calculate the loss to the bank. Penalty will be applied to each misclassifications and penalty value differs for wrong classifications - 'good as bad' and 'bad as good'. As discussed in the project goals section 1.1, approving loan for an uncreditworthy customer will end up in more financial loss for the bank and accordingly is a greater risk. Hence classifying a bad customer wrongly as good customer will have more penalty.

[Table 4 about here.]

Table 4 shows the penalty matrix. For right predictions penalty is 0. If a good customer predicted as bad, the penalty is 1 and if a

bad customer predicted as good, the penalty is 5. The sum of the penalty values multiplied with the respective number of misclassified customers will provide the total amount of loss / penalty.

Figure 24 shows the penalty comparison of different predictive models. Base model 1 has more chances of predicting bad customers as good because it blindly assumes that, all the incoming customers are good. Hence it has got more penalty value. Base model 2 has got least chances of classifying bad customers as good because it assumes all incoming customers are bad. Hence baseline model 2 has minimum penalty.

[Figure 24 about here.]

6.5 Accuracy and Penalty Comparison

Figure 25 shows the accuracy and penalty comparison for all the 4 models. Random Forest is the most accurate model and with minimal penalty. Hence Random Forest is the best model out of all.

[Figure 25 about here.]

7 DISCUSSION

We have built 4 predictive models. Baseline model 1 and 2, Decision Tree and Random Forest. We did a small study on Logistical Regression model as well. There are many other machine learning algorithms available which are suitable for classification analysis. Current analysis uses only 20 feature variables and 1000 customer records to populate the predictive models. In predictive analysis, the bigger the training dataset, the better the outcome. Current analysis can be extended to really big data with more feature variables customer records and also data from multiple years. Data processing can be done using distributed big data processing systems available today for better accuracy. Unfortunately, such a large data is not publicly available for studies in finance area right now. Hence we tried big data technologies in a comparatively smaller dataset.

8 CONCLUSION

Out of 4 predictive models created, Random Forest has the maximum accuracy in classifying the customers in the right class. Even if it gives an accuracy of around 85% it is not an error free model. There are 15% chances for misclassification. The size of the dataset that we considered to develop this model may have a direct impact. If we can train the model with a larger data set with tens of thousands of customer records and feature variables, the accuracy may increase close to 100%. There might be other more advanced machine learning algorithms and tools coming up to explore the chances of increasing the overall accuracy of the predictive models in common.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The author would like to thank Dr. Gregor von Laszewski, Juliette Zurick, Miao Jiang and Saber Sheybani Moghadam for their suggestions and support to complete this project and report.

REFERENCES

- [1] askubuntu. 2015. How do I get pyspark on Ubuntu? Web page. (June 2015). <https://askubuntu.com/questions/635265/how-do-i-get-pyspark-on-ubuntu>

- [2] askubuntu. 2016. how to install numpy for python3. Web page. (April 2016). <https://askubuntu.com/questions/765494/how-to-install-numpy-for-python3/765510>
- [3] askubuntu. 2016. Unable to install matplotlib using pip in Ubuntu 16.04. Web page. (June 2016). <https://askubuntu.com/questions/791673/unable-to-install-matplotlib-using-pip-in-ubuntu-16-04>
- [4] askubuntu. 2017. How do I install Python 3.6 using apt-get? Web page. (November 2017). <https://askubuntu.com/questions/865554/how-do-i-install-python-3-6-using-apt-get>
- [5] Charles Bochet. 2017. Get Started with PySpark and Jupyter Notebook in 3 Minutes. Web page. (May 2017). <https://blog.sicara.com/get-started-pyspark-jupyter-guide-tutorial-ac2fe84f594f>
- [6] Matplotlib development team. 2017. Matplotlib Introduction. Web page. (October 2017). <https://matplotlib.org/users/intro.html>
- [7] dezyre.com. 2017. PySpark Tutorial-Learn to use Apache Spark with Python. Web page. (September 2017). <https://www.dezyre.com/apache-spark-tutorial/pyspark-tutorial>
- [8] Dhanya. 2017. code. Web page. (November 2017). <https://github.com/bigdata-i523/hid328/tree/master/project/code>
- [9] Salvador Garcia, Sergio Ramirez-Gallego, Julian Luengo, Jose Manuel Benitez, and Francisco Herrera. 2016. Big data preprocessing: methods and prospects. Web page. (September 2016). [https://bdataalytics.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/s41044-016-0014-0](https://bdataanalytics.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/s41044-016-0014-0)
- [10] Dr. Hans Hofmann. 1994. Statlog (German Credit Data) Data Set. Web page. (November 1994). <https://archive.ics.uci.edu/ml/datasets/Statlog+%28German+Credit+Data%29>
- [11] Katharina Jarmul. 2016. INTRODUCTION TO DATA SCIENCE: HOW TO fitBIG DATAfit WITH PYTHON. Web page. (October 2016). <http://dataconomy.com/2016/10/big-data-python/>
- [12] Dhanya Mathew. 2017. dataset in excel format. Web page. (November 2017). <https://github.com/bigdata-i523/hid328/tree/master/project>
- [13] medcalc. 2015. Values of the Chi-squared distribution. Web page. (April 2015). <https://www.medcalc.org/manual/chi-square-table.php>
- [14] Trevor Nath. 2015. How Big Data Has Changed Finance. (April 2015). <http://www.investopedia.com/articles/active-trading/040915/how-big-data-has-changed-finance.asp>
- [15] PennState Eberly College of Science. 2016. Analysis of German Credit Data. Web page. (September 2016). <https://onlinecourses.science.psu.edu/stat857/node/215>
- [16] pandas. 2017. Installation. Web page. (June 2017). <https://pandas.pydata.org/pandas-docs/stable/install.html>
- [17] pandas.pydata.org. 2017. pandas: powerful Python data analysis toolkit. Web page. (October 2017). <https://pandas.pydata.org/pandas-docs/stable/>
- [18] pip.pypa.io. 2016. Installation. Web page. (July 2016). <https://pip.pypa.io/en/stable/install/>
- [19] Saimadhu Polamuri. 2017. HOW THE RANDOM FOREST ALGORITHM WORKS IN MACHINE LEARNING. Web page. (May 2017). <https://dataaspirant.com/2017/05/22/random-forest-algorithm-machine-learning/>
- [20] roshehosting.com. 2017. How to Install Jupyter on an Ubuntu 16.04. Web page. (February 2017). <https://www.roshehosting.com/blog/how-to-install-jupyter-on-an-ubuntu-16-04-vps/>
- [21] Margaret Rouse. 2017. big data analytics. Webpage. (July 2017). <http://searchbusinessanalytics.techtarget.com/definition/big-data-analytics>
- [22] Fabrizio Sarrocco, Vincenzo Morabito, and Gregor Meyer. 2016. Exploring Next Generation Financial Services: The Big Data Revolution. (2016). https://www.accenture.com/t20170314T051509__w__/nl-en/_acnmedia/PDF-20/Accenture-Next-Generation-Financial.pdf
- [23] sas. 2017. Machine Learning What it is and why it matters. Web page. (June 2017). https://www.sas.com/en_us/insights/analytics/machine-learning.html
- [24] Rahul Saxena. 2017. Introduction to Decision Tree Algorithm. Web page. (January 2017). <https://dataaspirant.com/2017/01/30/how-decision-tree-algorithm-works/>
- [25] Luca Scagliarini. 2017. What is Machine Learning? A definition. Web page. (July 2017). <http://www.expertsystem.com/machine-learning-definition/>
- [26] seaborn. 2017. Seaborn Installing and getting started. Web page. (June 2017). <https://seaborn.pydata.org/installing.html>
- [27] Sabeer Shaikh. 2016. Why Python is important for big data and analytics applications? Web page. (April 2016). <https://www.edunix.com/blog/bigdata-and-hadoop/python-important-big-data-analytics-applications/>
- [28] statisticshowto.com. 2016. Chi-Square Statistic: How to Calculate It - Distribution. Web page. (June 2016). <http://www.statisticshowto.com/probability-and-statistics/chi-square/>
- [29] Stat Trek. 2017. Statistics and Probability Dictionary. Web page. (November 2017). <http://stattrek.com/statistics/dictionary.aspx?definition=Interquartile%20range>
- [30] Michael Waskom. 2017. seaborn: statistical data visualization. Web page. (October 2017). <https://seaborn.pydata.org/>
- [31] Wiki. 2017. Big data. Web page. (Oct 2017). https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Big_data
- [32] wiki. 2017. Exploratory data analysis. Web page. (October 2017). https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Exploratory_data_analysis
- [33] wiki. 2017. Machine learning. Web page. (October 2017). https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Machine_learning
- [34] wiki. 2017. NumPy. Web page. (October 2017). <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/NumPy>
- [35] Yolanda Williams. 2015. Cross Tabulation: Definition & Examples. Web page. (June 2015). <http://study.com/academy/lesson/cross-tabulation-definition-examples-quiz.html>

A PROJECT REFERENCES

All project related documents are available in the github repository i523/hid328/project: <https://github.com/bigdata-i523/hid328/tree/master/project> [12].

A.1 Makefile

Make file is created assuming that the target system has Ubuntu OS and Python3 installed already. This can be executed from terminal window from folder i523/hid328/project/code using command "make run". Makefile is available in the github repository i523/hid328/project/code [8].

A.2 Data Set

"credit-data.csv" is available in Google Drive /project-data/hid328/.

A.3 Project Code

Project code is available in the Jupyter notebook "project.ipynb" in the github repository i523/hid328/project/code [8].

LIST OF FIGURES

1	Project Workflow [9]	9
2	Decision Tree Classifier [24]	10
3	Random Forest model [19]	10
4	How random forest algorithm works [19]	11
5	Data Preprocessing and preparation tasks [9]	12
6	Data Reduction Approaches [9]	13
7	Credit amount vs. Frequency	14
8	Credit amount vs. bad customers	15
9	Credit amount vs. good customers	16
10	Duration of credit in months vs. frequency	17
11	Duration of credit in months vs. bad customers	18
12	Duration of credit in months vs. good customers	19
13	Age vs. frequency	20
14	Data classification	21
15	Variability in Credit-Amount	21
16	Variability of Duration of credit	21
17	Variability of Age	22
18	Contingency table of sex-marital status [15]	22
19	Chi-square, df and p values	23
20	Prediction matrix - Decision Tree	24
21	Prediction matrix - Random Forest	24
22	Random Forest Important Predictors	25
23	Model accuracy comparison	25
24	Model penalty comparison	26
25	Model accuracy and penalty comparison	27

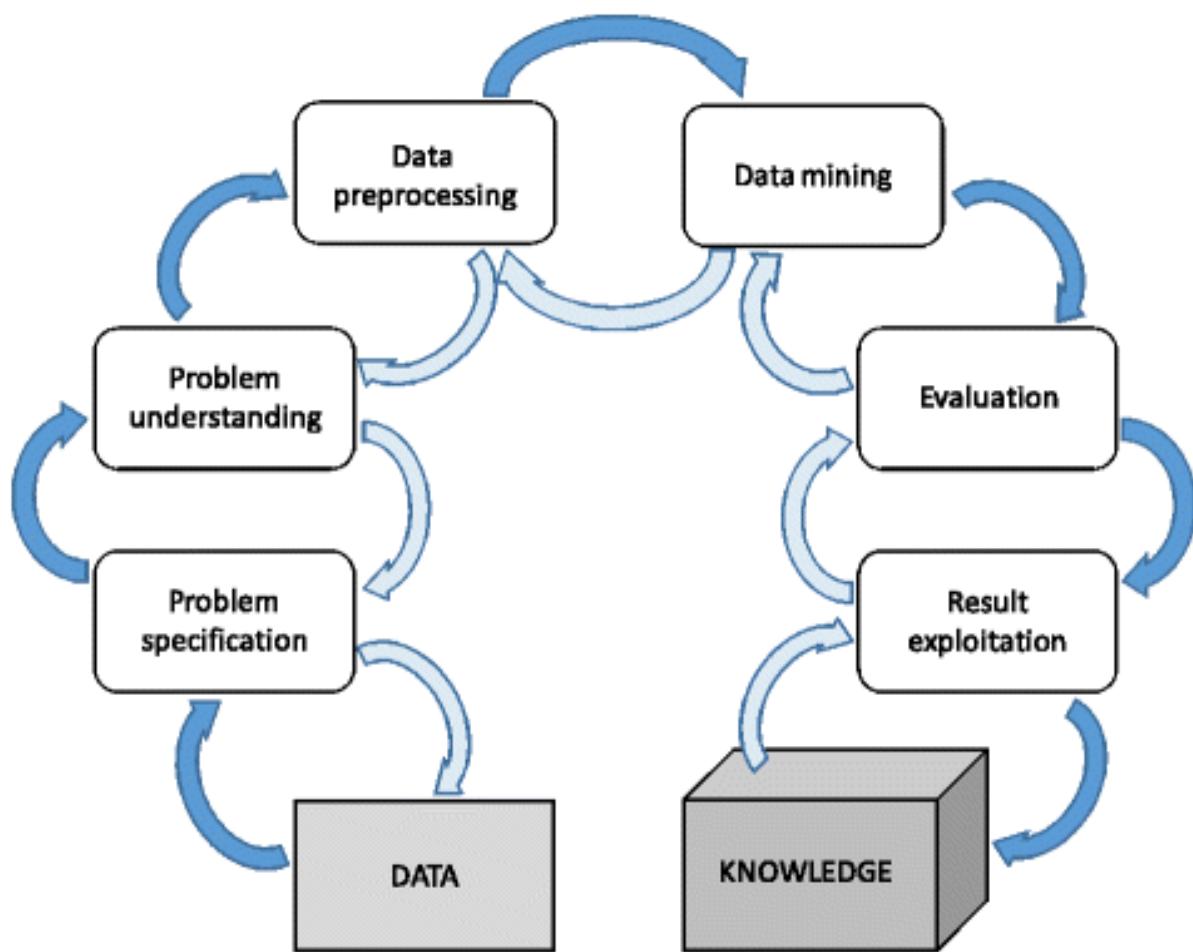


Figure 1: Project Workflow [9]

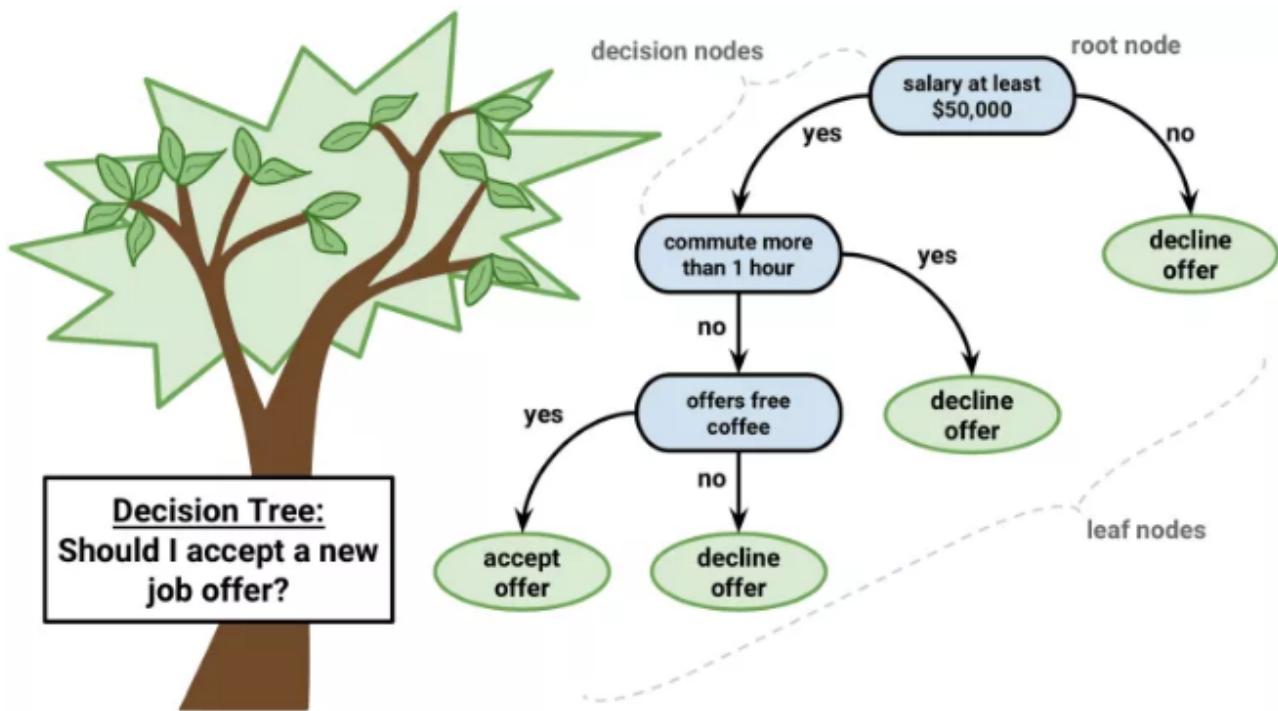


Figure 2: Decision Tree Classifier [24]

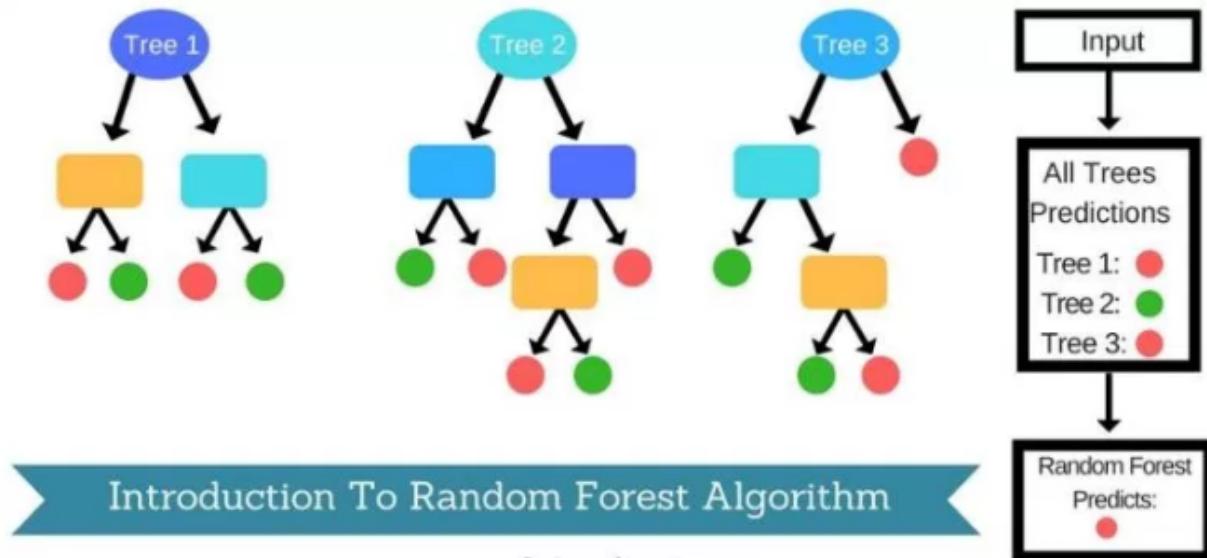


Figure 3: Random Forest model [19]

f11	f12	f13	f14	f15	t1
f21	f22	f23	f24	f25	t2
f31	f32	f33	f34	f35	t3
:	:	:	:	:	:
:	:	:	:	:	:
fm1	fm2	fm3	fm4	fm5	tm

Dataset

f11	f12	f13	f14	f15	t1
f81	f82	f83	f84	f85	t8
f71	f72	f73	f74	f75	t7
:	:	:	:	:	:
:	:	:	:	:	:
fj1	fj2	fj3	fj4	fj5	tj

Random Dataset
for Tree-01

f21	f22	f23	f24	f25	t2
f51	f52	f53	f54	f55	t5
f31	f32	f33	f34	f35	t3
:	:	:	:	:	:
:	:	:	:	:	:
fm1	fm2	fm3	fm4	fm5	tm

Random Dataset
for Tree-02

f31	f32	f33	f34	f35	t3
f61	f62	f63	f64	f65	t6
f91	f92	f73	f94	f95	t9
:	:	:	:	:	:
:	:	:	:	:	:

Random Dataset
for Tree-03

Figure 4: How random forest algorithm works [19]

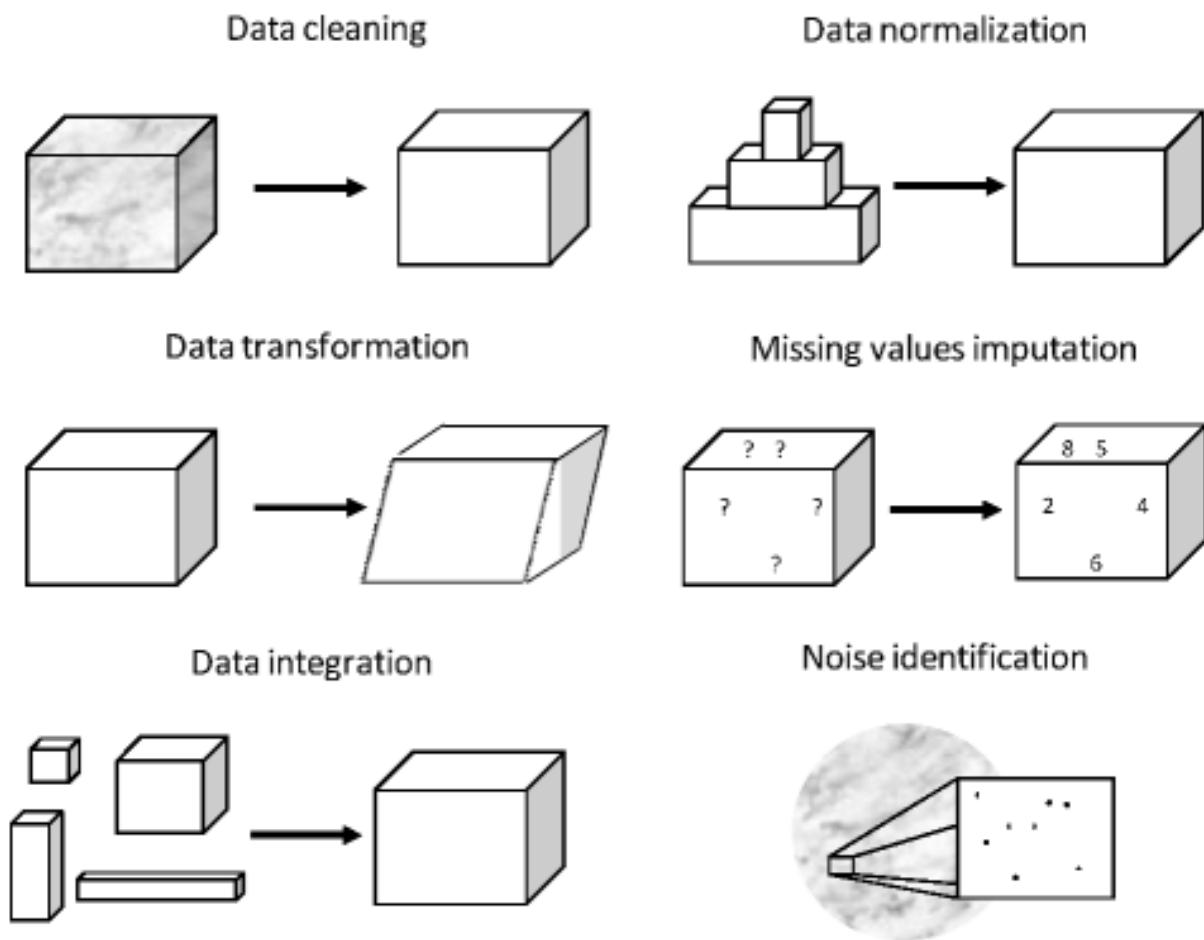
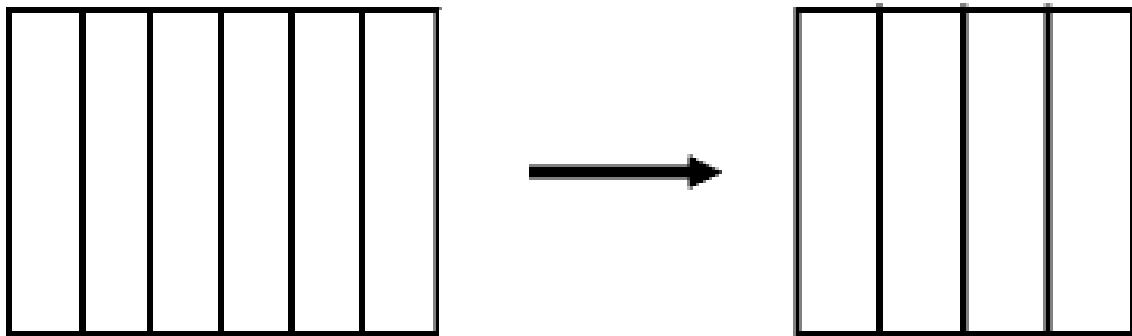
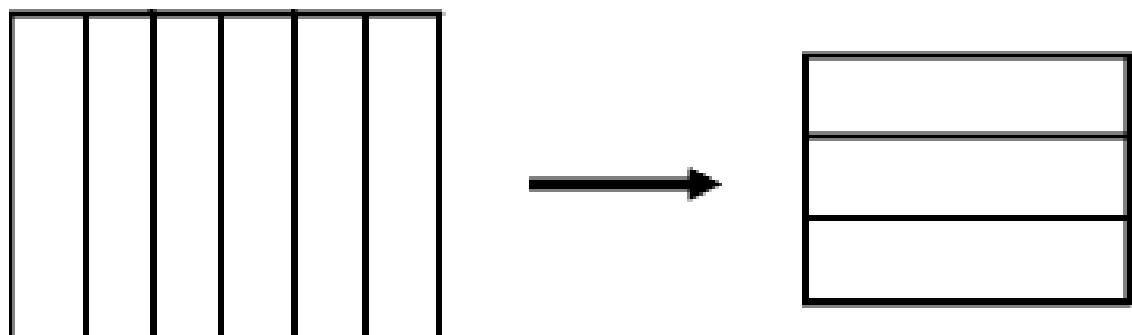


Figure 5: Data Preprocessing and preparation tasks [9]

Feature selection



Instance selection



Discretization

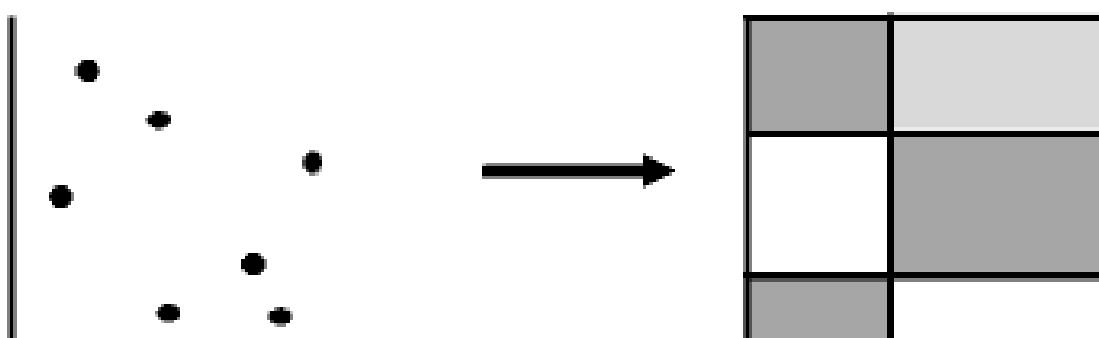


Figure 6: Data Reduction Approaches [9]

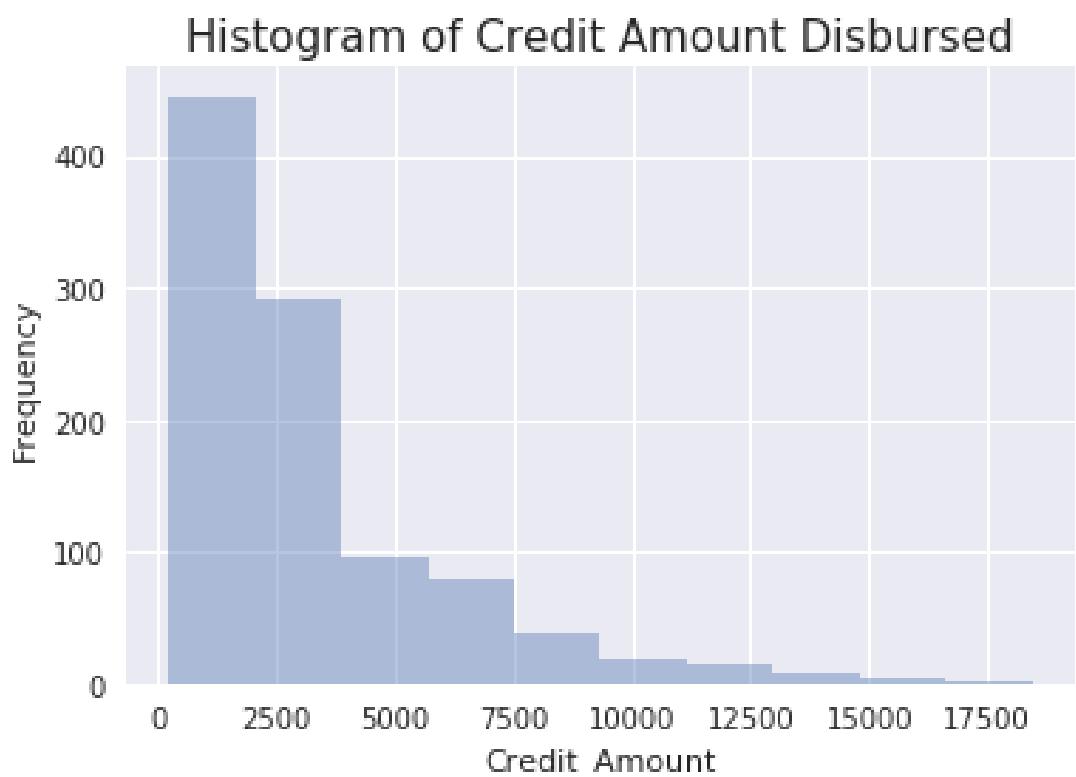


Figure 7: Credit amount vs. Frequency

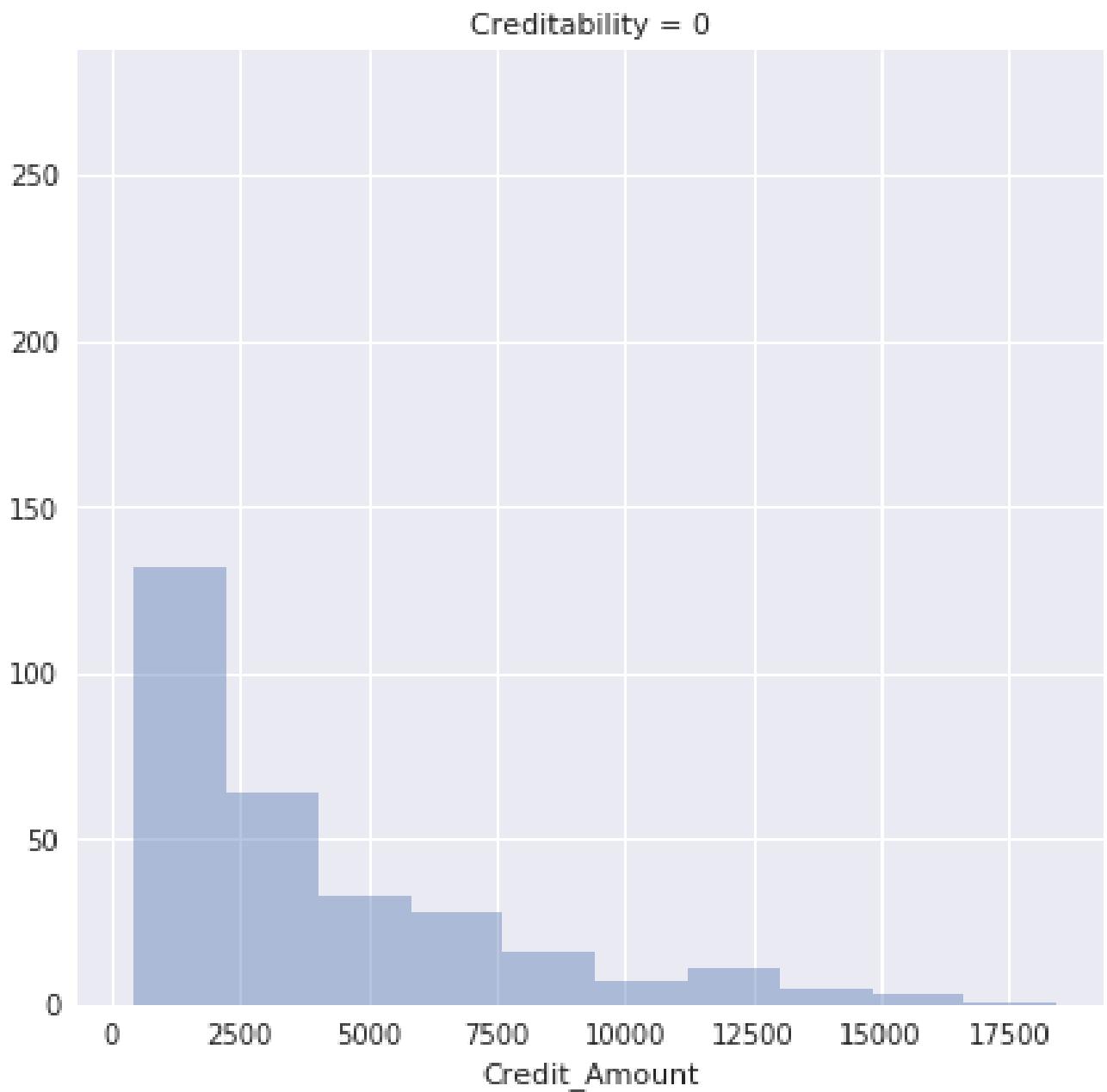


Figure 8: Credit amount vs. bad customers

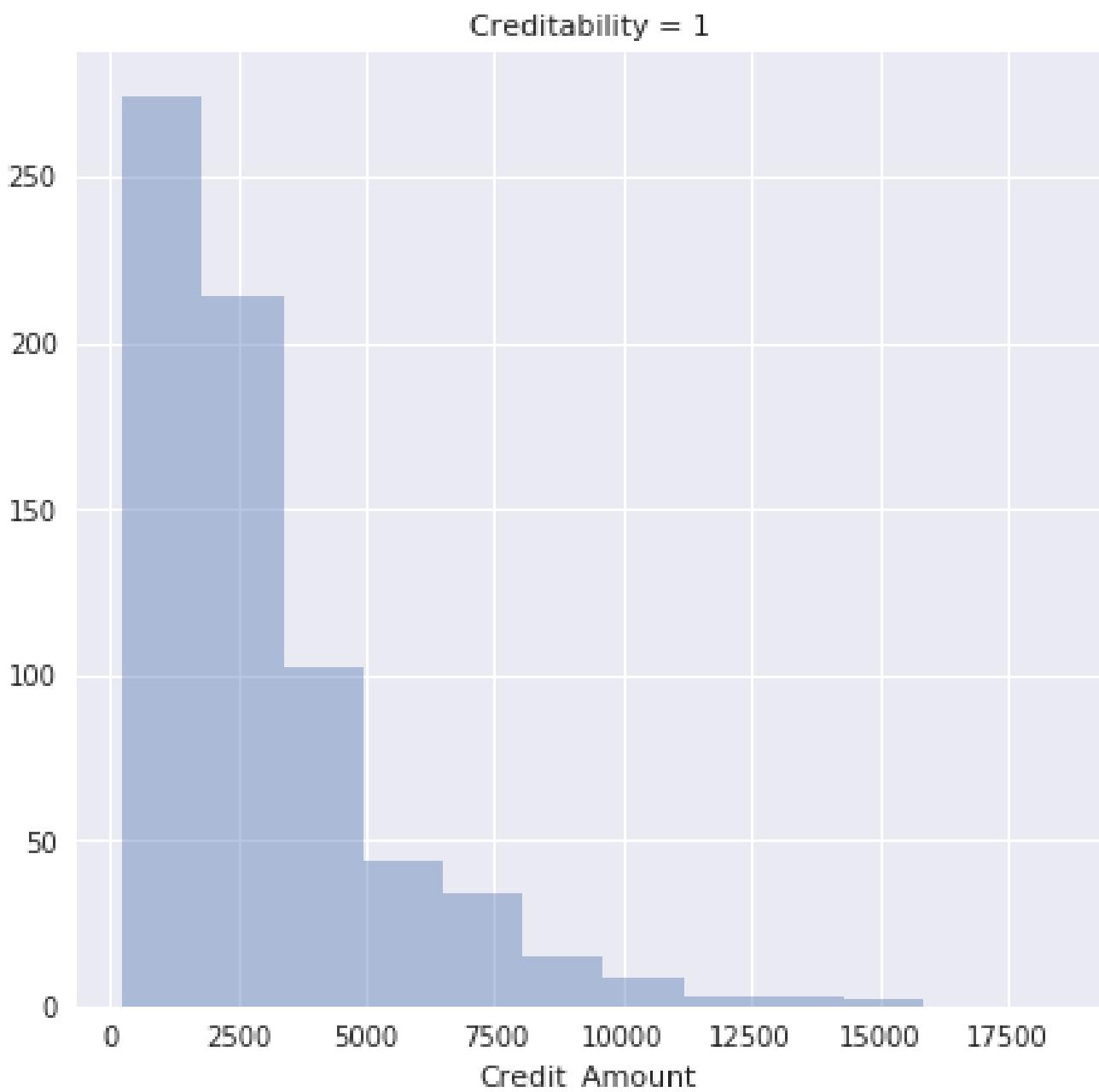


Figure 9: Credit amount vs. good customers

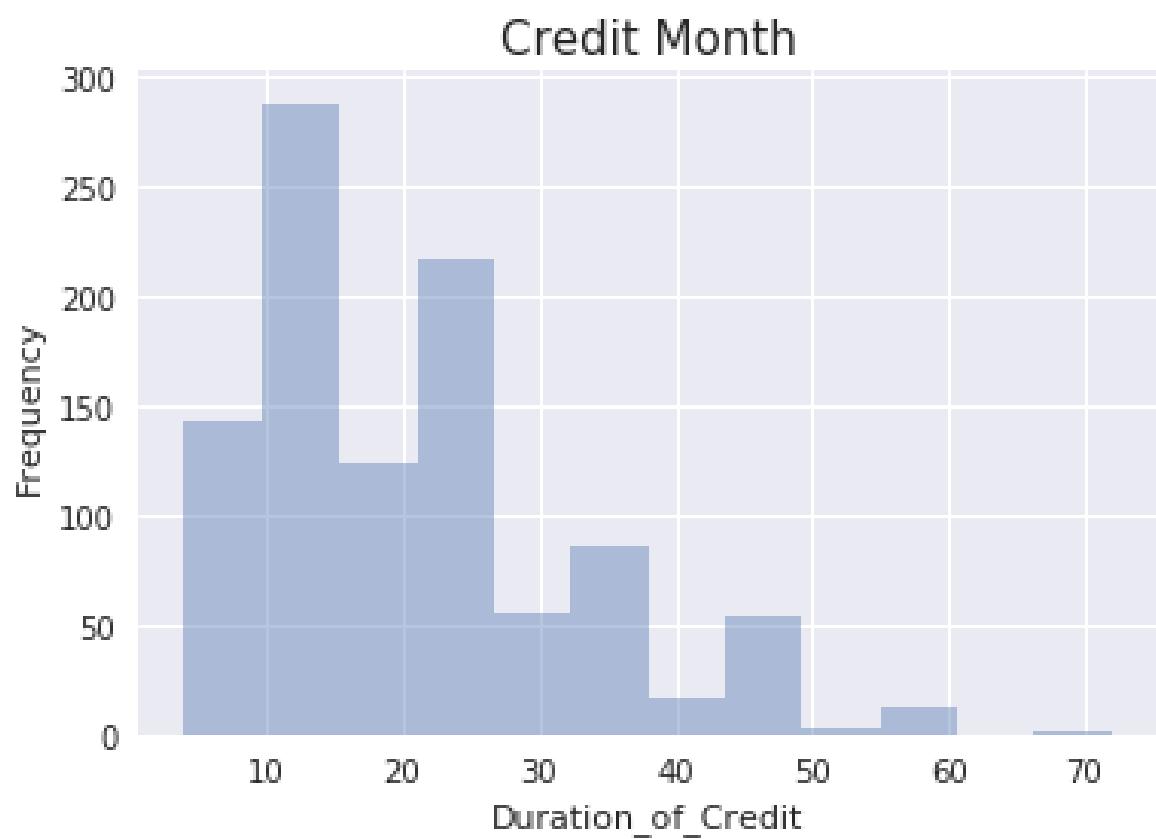


Figure 10: Duration of credit in months vs. frequency

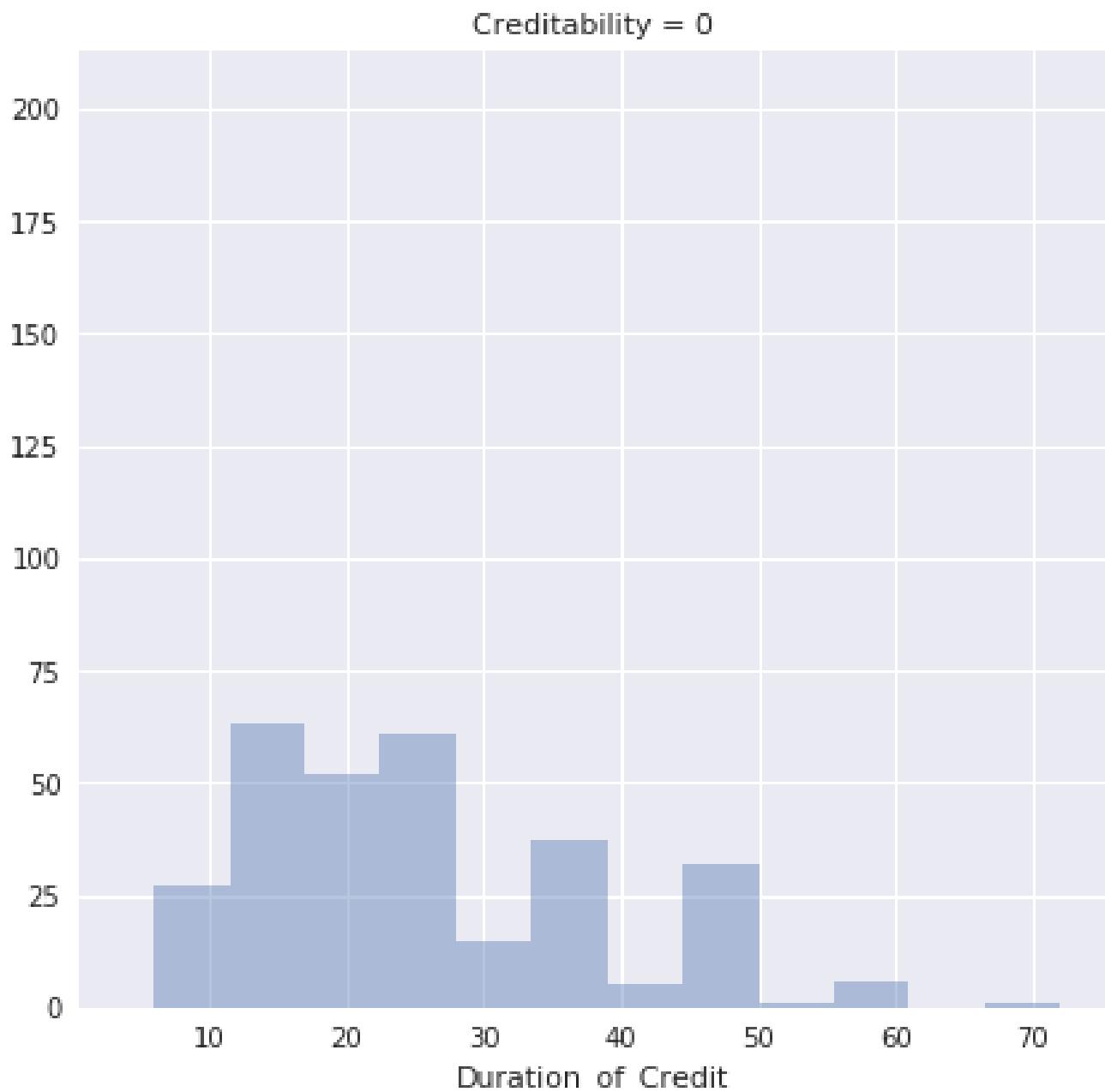


Figure 11: Duration of credit in months vs. bad customers

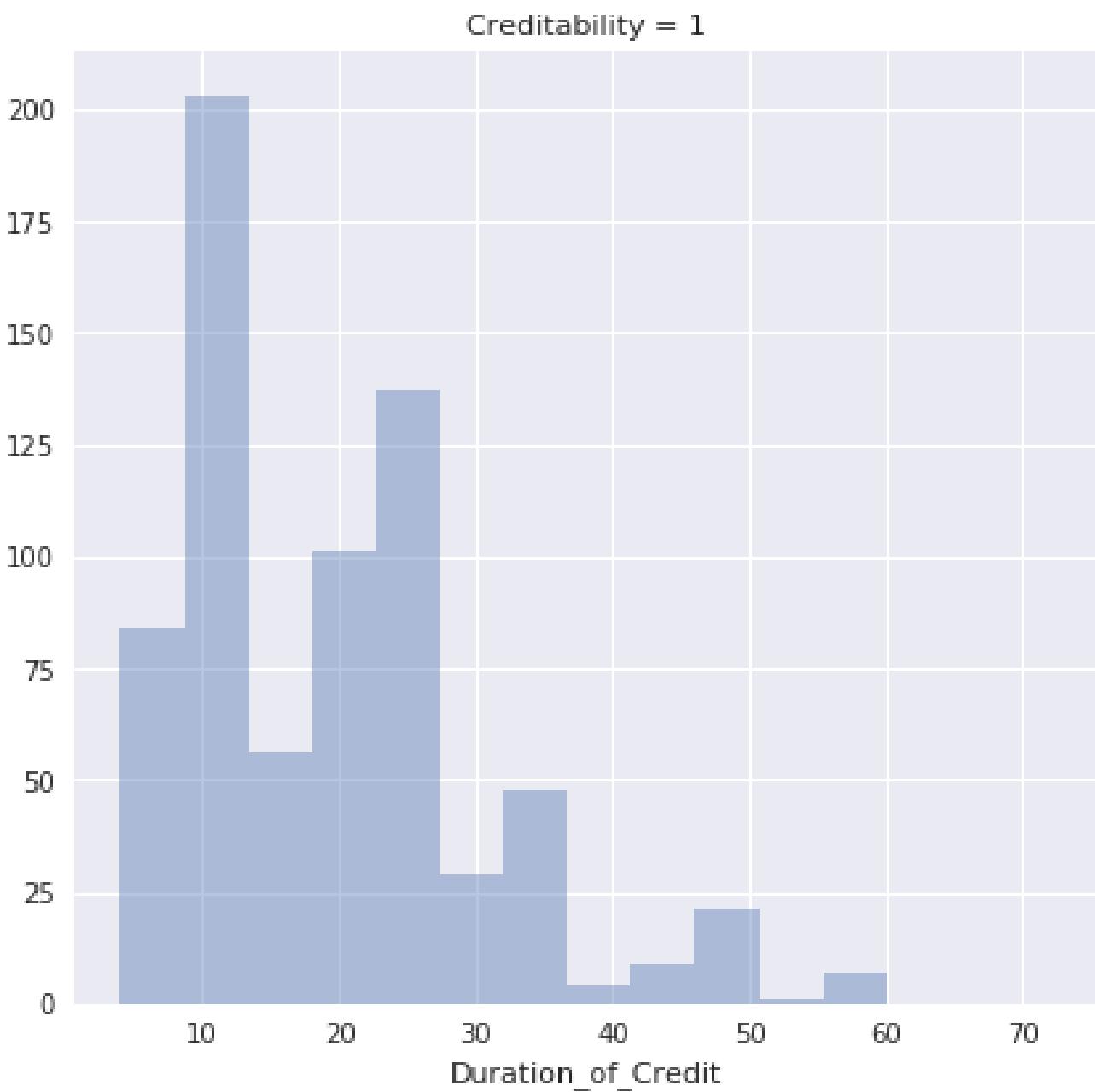


Figure 12: Duration of credit in months vs. good customers

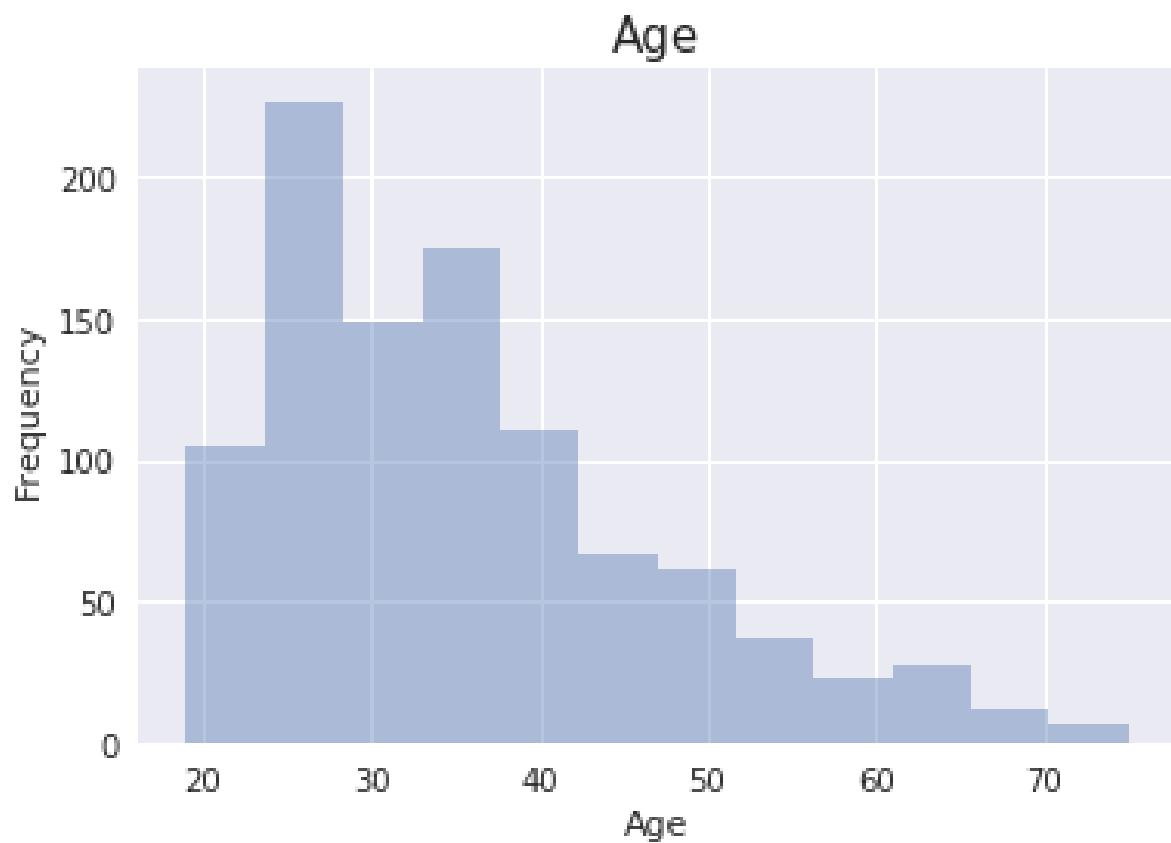


Figure 13: Age vs. frequency

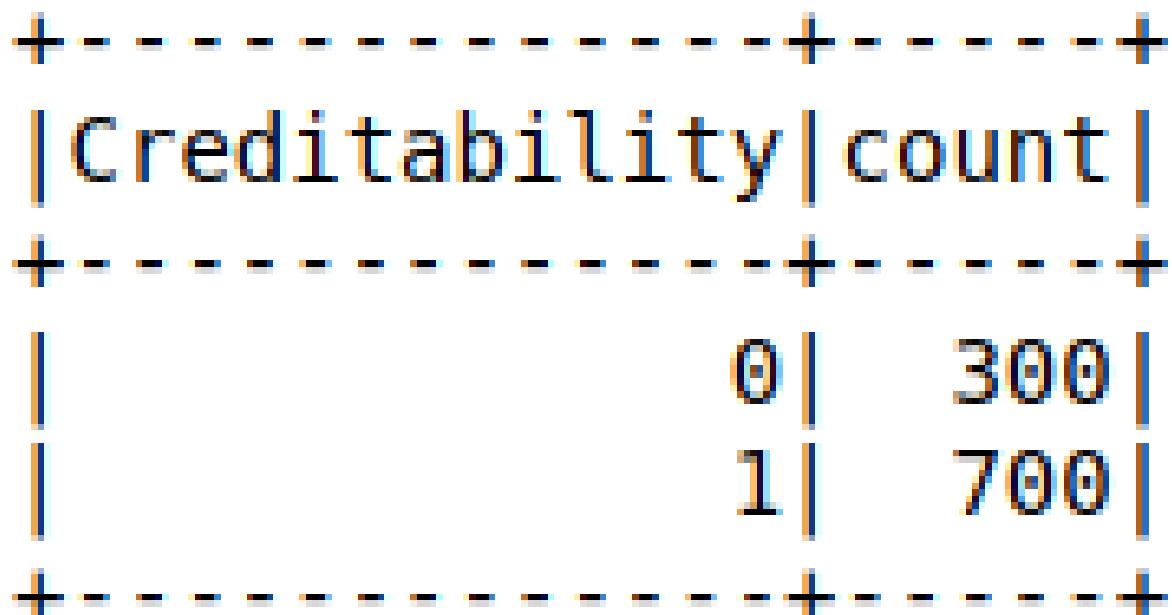


Figure 14: Data classification

	Min	1st Qu	Median	Mean	3rd Qu	Max
0	250	1365.5	2319.5	3271.248	3972.25	18424

Figure 15: Variability in Credit-Amount

	Min	1st Qu	Median	Mean	3rd Qu	Max
0	4	12.0	18.0	20.903	24.0	72

Figure 16: Variability of Duration of credit

	Min	1st Qu	Median	Mean	3rd Qu	Max	
	0	19	27.0	33.0	35.542	42.0	75

Figure 17: Variability of Age

Creditability	Sex_MaritalStatus				Row Total
	1	2	3	4	
good	30 0.6	201 0.6	402 0.7	67 0.7	700
bad	20 0.4	109 0.4	146 0.3	25 0.3	300
Column Total	50 0.0	310 0.3	548 0.5	92 0.1	1000

Figure 18: Contingency table of sex-marital status [15]

		All	Chi^2	D.F	PValues
0	Account_Balance	123.720944		3	0.000000e+00
1	Duration_of_Credit	78.886937		32	7.784572e-06
2	Previous_Credit	61.691397		4	1.279199e-12
3	Purpose	33.356447		9	1.157491e-04
4	Credit_Amount	931.746032		922	4.045155e-01
5	Value_Savings_Stocks	36.098928		4	2.761214e-07
6	employment	18.368274		4	1.045452e-03
7	Instalment_percent	5.476792		3	1.400333e-01
8	Sex_MaritalStatus	9.605214		3	2.223801e-02
9	Guarantors	6.645367		2	3.605595e-02
10	Duration_address	0.749296		3	8.615521e-01
11	asset	23.719551		3	2.858442e-05
12	Age	57.626982		52	2.749531e-01
13	Concurrent_Credits	12.839188		2	1.629318e-03
14	Type_apartment	18.674005		2	8.810311e-05
15	No_of_Credits	2.671198		3	4.451441e-01
16	Occupation	1.885156		3	5.965816e-01
17	dependents	23 0.009089		1	9.240463e-01
18	Telephone	1.329783		1	2.488438e-01
19	Foreign_Worker	221 6.737044		1	9.443096e-03

prediction	0.0	1.0
label		
0.0	35	55
1.0	34	184

Figure 20: Prediction matrix - Decision Tree

prediction	0.0	1.0
label		
0.0	40	50
1.0	18	200

Figure 21: Prediction matrix - Random Forest

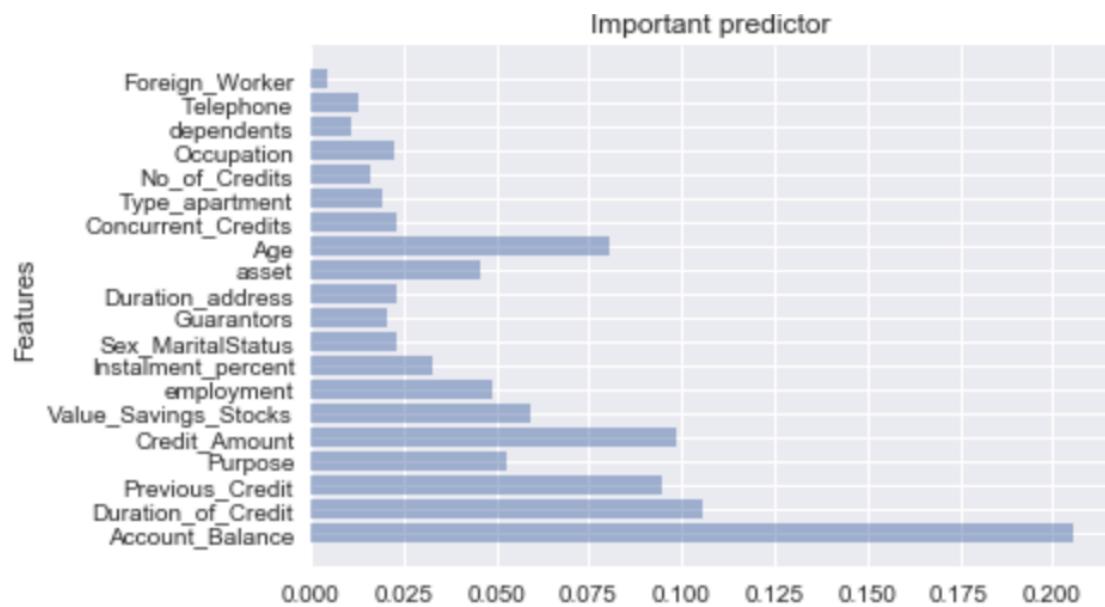


Figure 22: Random Forest Important Predictors

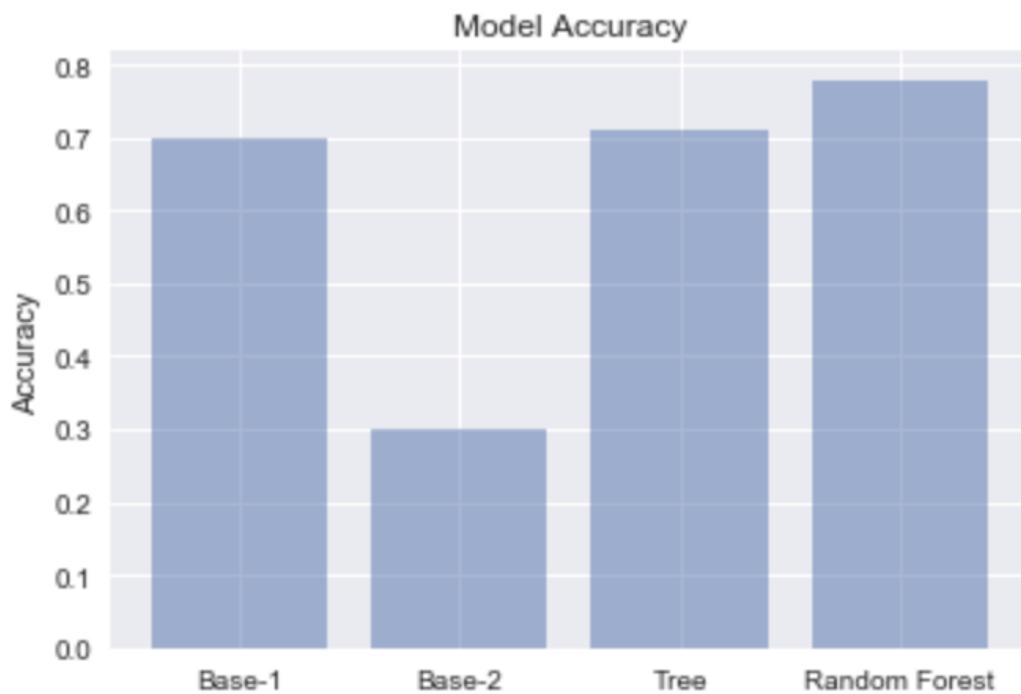


Figure 23: Model accuracy comparison

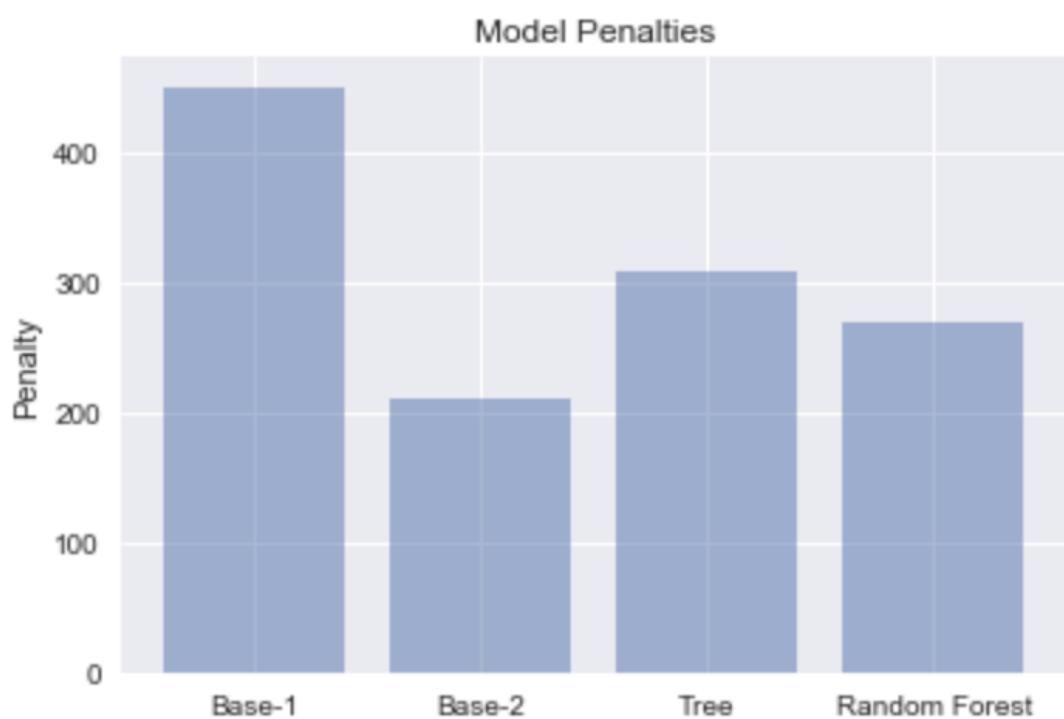


Figure 24: Model penalty comparison

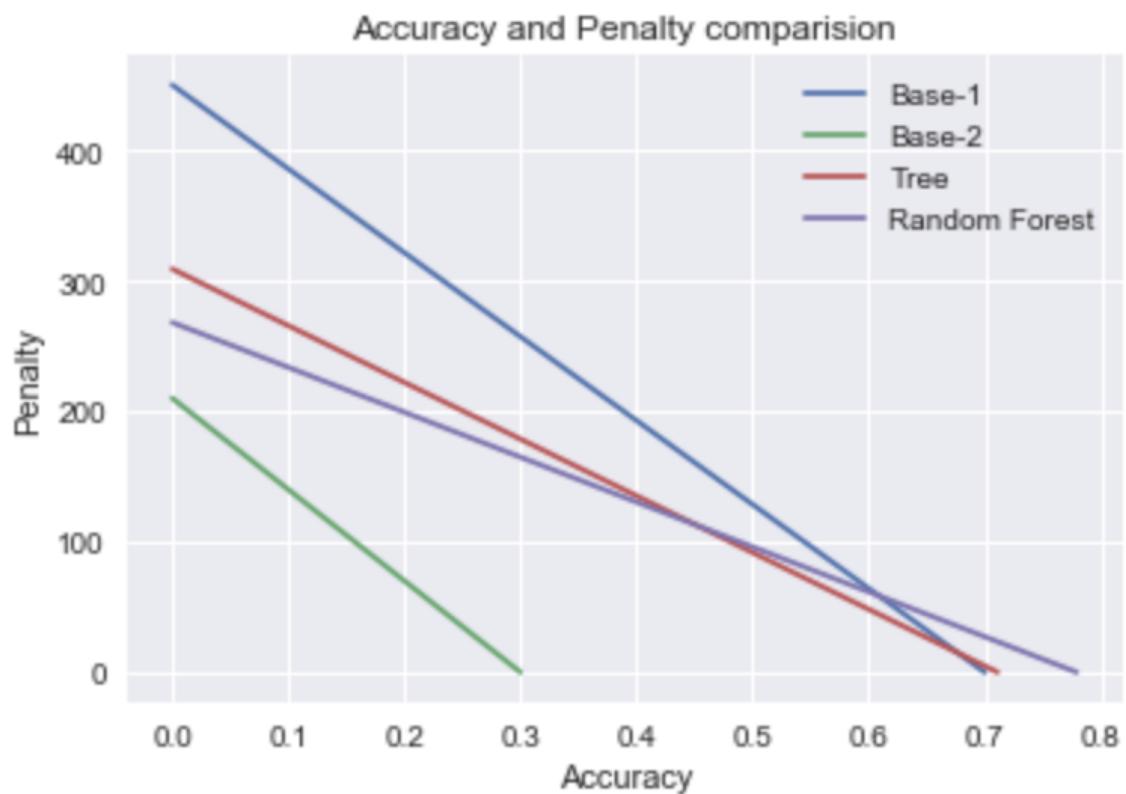


Figure 25: Model accuracy and penalty comparison

LIST OF TABLES

1	Variables and description [15]	29
2	Baseline Model 1	29
3	Baseline Model 2	29
4	Penalty Matrix [15]	29

Table 1: Variables and description [15]

Variable	Description
Credit	Creditability: Good or Bad
Account Status	Balance of current account
Credit Months	Duration of Credit (month)
Credit History	Payment Status of Previous Credit
Purpose	Purpose of credit
Credit Amount	Amount of credit
Savings	Value Savings or stocks
Employment	Length of current employment
Installment Rate	Installment in % of current income
Personal Status	Sex and Marital Status
Guarantors	Further debtors
Residence	Duration in Current address
Property	Most valuable available asset
Age	Age in years
Other Installments	Concurrent Credits
Housing	Type of apartment
Credit Cards	No of Credits at this Bank
Occupation	Occupation
Dependents	No of dependents
Telephone	Phone number
Foreign Worker	Foreign worker

Table 2: Baseline Model 1

Good	
Good	210
Bad	70

Table 3: Baseline Model 2

Bad	
Good	210
Bad	70

Table 4: Penalty Matrix [15]

Actual	Predicted 'Good'	Predicted 'Bad'
Good	0	1
Bad	5	0

```
bibtext report
```

```
=====
```

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
```

```
bibtext _ label error
```

```
=====
```

```
bibtext space label error
```

```
=====
```

```
bibtext comma label error
```

```
=====
```

```
latex report
```

```
[2017-12-08 04.03.02] pdflatex report.tex
This is pdfTeX, Version 3.14159265-2.6-1.40.17 (TeX Live 2016) (preloaded format=pdflatex)
Missing character: ""
bookmark level for unknown defaults to 0.
The anchor of a bookmark and its parent's must not be the same. Added a new anchor.
Float too large for page by 8.6653pt.
Float too large for page by 111.27089pt.
The anchor of a bookmark and its parent's must not be the same. Added a new anchor.
Typesetting of "report.tex" completed in 1.9s.
```

```
=====
```

```
Compliance Report
```

```
=====
```

```
name: Dhanya Mathew
hid: 328
paper1: Nov 2 17 100%
paper2: Nov 6 17 100%
```

```
project: Dec 4 17 100%
```

```
yamlcheck
```

```
wordcount
```

```
29
```

```
wc 328 project 29 5993 report.tex  
wc 328 project 29 6477 report.pdf  
wc 328 project 29 1015 report.bib
```

```
find "
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find footnote
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find input{format/i523}
```

```
4: \input{format/i523}
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find input{format/final}
```

```
passed: False
```

```
floats
```

```
44: \subsection{Project Goals}\label{Project goals}  
50: \subsection{Methods and Technologies Involved}\label{Methods and  
Technologies Involved}  
56: Overall workflow of the project is shown in Figure  
    \ref{fig:Figure1}.  
57: We have taken a sample data set of loan applications received by a  
    bank. We explored the data and the requirements of the bank and
```

based on that set the project goals as discussed in the section \ref{Project goals}, before starting the project. In the real scenarios, we will not be able to apply analytical methods directly on the raw data as it likely be imperfect and containing irrelevant information. Hence we do data cleaning (data preprocessing) as the first step. Data cleaning is done using PySpark. The cleaned data has 1000 customer records with 1 classifier and 20 feature variables.

```

59: \begin{figure}[htb]
61: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/Figure1.png}
64: \label{fig:Figure1}
106: \subsubsection{Decision Tree}\label{Decision Tree}
108: Decision Tree is a supervised machine learning algorithm used to solve both classification and regression problems. In decision tree, a trained model with a set of rules will be created based on the training data. The target class or value of a test / new data set will be predicted based on this training rules. Decision Tree algorithm is simple to understand as it uses a tree model representation to solve the problem. It starts from a root node and continues with other decision nodes. Each internal decision nodes corresponds to the feature variables and each leaf nodes corresponds to the class label \cite{decision-tree}. Figure \ref{fig:Figure2} shows the decision tree classifier.
111: \begin{figure}[htb]
113: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/Figure2.png}
116: \label{fig:Figure2}
123: \subsubsection{Random Forest}\label{Random Forest}
125: Like Decision Tree, Random Forest algorithm also can be used for classification as well as regression problems. It is a supervised machine learning algorithm. It uses decision tree concept as well but there will be more than one trees in a Random Forest. As the number of trees increases in the Random forest, the accuracy of the prediction also will increase accordingly. Random forest algorithm can handle missing values in the data. Also with more trees in the forest, overfitting issues will not occur in Random Forest algorithm \cite{random-forest}. Figure \ref{fig:Figure3} shows the Random Forest model.
127: \begin{figure}[htb]
129: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/Figure3.png}
132: \label{fig:Figure3}
135: Random Forest algorithm progresses via 2 stages - Random forest creation and Perform prediction. To create the Random Forest, we select a random number of feature variables from the total list of feature variables in the training data and create a Decision Tree out of it. We repeat this process to create desired number of trees. These randomly created trees will form a Random Forest.
  
```

Figure \ref{fig:Figure4} shows how random forest algorithm works.

137: \begin{figure}[htb]
139: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/Figure4.png}
142: \label{fig:Figure4}

150: Technologies used in this project are discussed in detail in section \ref{Methods and Technologies Involved}. The installation commands on Ubuntu 16.04 OS for each of these technologies are given in this section. Installations can be done from the terminal window.

163: All these installation steps are included in a make file referred in appendix \ref{Makefile}.

169: Dataset includes 1000 customer records with 20 feature variables and a class variable. In the class variable, the actual class of the customer is specified - good or bad. The complete list of data set variables and their description is given in Table \ref{tab:table1}.

171: \begin{table}
174: \label{tab:table1}

213: The data going to the analytics model should be clean and noise free. Hence data preparation part includes tasks like data cleaning, data normalization, data transformation, missing value imputation, data integration and Noise identification. Figure \ref{fig:Figure5} shows the data preparations tasks \cite{preprocessing}.

215: \begin{figure}[htb]
217: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/Figure5.png}
220: \label{fig:Figure5}

225: To reduce the dimensionality problem and the computational cost, because of a large number of variables and instances in the data set, we try to gather only the required set of quality data. Data reduction techniques include feature selection, instance selection and discretization. Figure \ref{fig:Figure6} shows data reduction techniques \cite{preprocessing}

227: \begin{figure}[htb]
229: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/Figure6.png}
232: \label{fig:Figure6}

240: Big data analysis is the process of obtaining knowledge by analyzing and understanding hidden patterns, market trends, unknown correlations, customer preferences and other relevant information from large and varied datasets \cite{bigdata-analytics}. Big data analytics methods include exploratory analysis, data mining, predictive analytics, machine learning, deep learning etc. The results of the analysis can be visualized using tools like Tableau, Infogram, Plotly etc or by using Python scripts. This project utilizes methods like exploratory analysis, predictive analysis, machine learning algorithms and

visualizations of results using Python scripts. Python codes for all these analysis methods are given in appendix \ref{Project Code}.

- 250: Figure \ref{fig:Figure7} shows the histogram of credit amount disbursed with respect to frequency. From this diagram, we understand that most of the customers are requested for loans for up to 2500 German Marks. The number of customers decreases as the loan amount increases. And very few customers fall under the loan amount category over 10000 German Marks.
- 252: \begin{figure}[htb]
254: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/Figure7.png}
256: \label{fig:Figure7}
- 259: Figure \ref{fig:Figure8} and Figure \ref{fig:Figure9} shows the credit amount availed by bad customers and good customers respectively. The trend is almost the same. Maximum customers from both the classes fall under the category of up to 2500 German Marks. But there is a noticeable difference in the number of customers under 12500 range. Bad rated customers are more in this category.
- 261: \begin{figure}[htb]
263: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/Figure8.png}
265: \label{fig:Figure8}
- 268: \begin{figure}[htb]
270: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/Figure9.png}
272: \label{fig:Figure9}
- 275: Figure \ref{fig:Figure10} shows the duration of credit in months vs. number of customers. From this graph, we can understand that maximum number of customers opted for 10 to 15 months duration.
- 277: \begin{figure}[htb]
279: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/Figure10.png}
281: \label{fig:Figure10}
- 284: Figure \ref{fig:Figure11} and Figure \ref{fig:Figure12} shows the duration of credit in months vs number of bad customers and good customers respectively. It shows that there is not much difference in the trend.
- 286: \begin{figure}[htb]
288: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/Figure11.png}
290: \label{fig:Figure11}
- 293: \begin{figure}[htb]
295: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/Figure12.png}
297: \label{fig:Figure12}
- 300: Figure \ref{fig:Figure13} shows how customers are scattered with respect to age. Most of the borrowers fall under the age group of 23 to 28.
- 302: \begin{figure}[htb]
304: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/Figure13.png}

```

306: \label{fig:Figure13}
309: \subsubsection{Data Classification}\label{Data Classification}
311: We have one class variable ''Creditability'' to classify the
customers based on the bank's opinion on the actual applicants.
We could extract this class information from dataset using
PySpark Python script ''GroupBy''. Figure \ref{fig:Figure14}
shows the output of the script.
313: \begin{figure}[htb]
315: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/Figure14.png}
317: \label{fig:Figure14}
329: Figure \ref{fig:Figure15} shows the variability of Credit-Amount.
331: \begin{figure}[htb]
333: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/Figure15.png}
335: \label{fig:Figure15}
338: Figure \ref{fig:Figure16} shows the variability of Duration of
credit.
340: \begin{figure}[htb]
342: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/Figure16.png}
344: \label{fig:Figure16}
347: Figure \ref{fig:Figure17} shows the variability of Age.
349: \begin{figure}[htb]
351: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/Figure17.png}
353: \label{fig:Figure17}
360: \begin{figure}[htb]
362: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/Figure18.png}
365: \label{fig:Figure18}
368: Figure \ref{fig:Figure18} shows the contingency table created for
the variable sex-marital status against class. It shows the
number of good and bad customers distributed among the 4
categories of the variable sex-marital status. Category ''male:
married / widowed'' has the maximum number of Good customers.
Contingency tables are used to create the Chi-square values.
389: The calculated values are shown in figure \ref{fig:Figure19}.
391: \begin{figure}[htb]
393: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/Figure19.png}
395: \label{fig:Figure19}
404: Baseline models use simple summary statistics. In classification
problems like our scenario, baseline models are created based on
the class values. As mentioned in the data classification section
\ref{Data Classification}, our total list of 1000 customer
records are divided into training dataset and test dataset.
Training dataset has 700 customer records and test dataset has
300 customer records. For the baseline models, we evaluate the
test data of 300 customer records.
410: \begin{table}
412: \label{tab:table2}

```

423: Table \ref{tab:table2} shows the assumption in baseline model 1.
 427: \begin{table}
 429: \label{tab:table3}
 440: Table \ref{tab:table3} shows the assumption in baseline model 2.
 444: To build this model, we use the machine learning algorithm -
 Decision Tree which is explained in section \ref{Decision Tree}.
 PySpark's class ''DecisionTreeClassifier'' is used to build
 different Decision Tree models from training data based on
 different tree attributes like MaxBins, Maxdepth, Impurity etc.
 Impurity measures are calculated internally by this classifier to
 identify the root node and other internal nodes. Gini Index is
 the method opted in our project.
 468: Random Forest Machine Learning algorithm which is explained in
 the section \ref{Random Forest} is used to build Random Forest
 model. We use PySpark class ''RandomForestClassifier'' to
 generate the model from training data. We build 2 Random Forest
 models one with default attribute and another one with chosen
 attribute values.
 492: Prediction matrix can be extracted using the ''groupby'' option
 in PySpark. Figure \ref{fig:Figure20} and Figure
 \ref{fig:Figure21} shows the prediction matrix of Decision Tree
 and Random Forest respectively. Decision Tree has got 219 right
 predictions and Random Forest has got 240 right predictions out
 of 300 customer records.
 494: \begin{figure}[htb]
 496: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/Figure20.png}
 498: \label{fig:Figure20}
 501: \begin{figure}[htb]
 503: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/Figure21.png}
 505: \label{fig:Figure21}
 510: Feature Importance is the list of important predictors that are
 the top contributed variables towards building the predictive
 model. Normally the variable with maximum dependency would be
 treated as the root node by the algorithm. We could calculate the
 feature importance only for the Random forest algorithm by using
 the class ''bestModel.featureImportances''. Figure
 \ref{fig:Figure22} shows the list of predictors. We could see
 that the variable ''Account Balance'' contributes maximum to the
 predictions.
 512: \begin{figure}[htb]
 514: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/Figure22.png}
 516: \label{fig:Figure22}
 521: Figure \ref{fig:Figure23} shows the accuracy of different
 predictive models that we created. We plotted the output of
 ''MulticlassClassificationEvaluator'' for Decision Tree and
 Random Forest. We can understand from the graph that baseline

model 2 has got the least accuracy and Random Forest has got the most.
 523: \begin{figure}[htb]
 525: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/Figure23.png}
 527: \label{fig:Figure23}
 534: A penalty matrix is defined to calculate the loss to the bank. Penalty will be applied to each misclassifications and penalty value differs for wrong classifications - 'good as bad' and 'bad as good'. As discussed in the project goals section \ref{Project goals}, approving loan for an uncreditworthy customer will end up in more financial loss for the bank and accordingly is a greater risk. Hence classifying a bad customer wrongly as good customer will have more penalty.
 536: \begin{table}
 539: \label{tab:table4}
 550: Table \ref{tab:table4} shows the penalty matrix. For right predictions penalty is 0. If a good customer predicted as bad, the penalty is 1 and if a bad customer predicted as good, the penalty is 5. The sum of the penalty values multiplied with the respective number of misclassified customers will provide the total amount of loss / penalty.
 552: Figure \ref{fig:Figure24} shows the penalty comparison of different predictive models. Base model 1 has more chances of predicting bad customers as good because it blindly assumes that, all the incoming customers are good. Hence it has got more penalty value. Base model 2 has got least chances of classifying bad customers as good because it assumes all incoming customers are bad. Hence baseline model 2 has minimum penalty.
 554: \begin{figure}[htb]
 556: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/Figure24.png}
 558: \label{fig:Figure24}
 563: Figure \ref{fig:Figure25} shows the accuracy and penalty comparison for all the 4 models. Random Forest is the most accurate model and with minimal penalty. Hence Random Forest is the best model out of all.
 565: \begin{figure}[htb]
 567: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/Figure25.png}
 569: \label{fig:Figure25}
 597: \subsection{Makefile}\label{Makefile}
 605: \subsection{Project Code}\label{Project Code}

figures 25

tables 4

\includegraphics 25

labels 36

refs 34

floats 29

```
False : ref check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
False : label check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
True : include graphics passed: (figures >= includographics)
False : check if all figures are referred to: (refs >= labels)
```

Label/ref check
passed: True

When using figures use columnwidth
[width=1.0\columnwidth]
do not change the number to a smaller fraction

find textwidth

passed: True

below_check

bibtex

label errors

bibtex errors

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
```

bibtex_empty_fields

entries in general should not be empty in bibtex

find ""

passed: True

ascii

=====
The following tests are optional
=====

Tip: newlines can often be replaced just by an empty line

find newline

passed: True
cites should have a space before \cite{} but not before the {

find cite {

passed: True

Big Data and the Customer Experience Journey

Ashley Miller
Indiana University
admille@iu.edu

ABSTRACT

A customer's experience journey consists of multiple touchpoints along the way as they make choices in which companies and brands to interact with and ultimately, purchasing decisions. While the customer experience journey may differ based on product, service, audience, time, as well as a company's capabilities and strategic initiatives, the need to understand the customer transcends all industries. These touchpoints are increasingly moving to the digital space through online search, mobile interaction, social media, email, in addition to other methods that may not even be in existence as of yet. Given the number of these touchpoints across customers and the ability to track customers across multiple methods, understanding the experience of customers through the use of big data provides opportunities for companies to better enhance the customer experience journey. Real-time recommendations, personalized marketing messages, and geo-targeted advertising can all play a role in *nudging* the customer appropriately when companies are looking to drive customer interaction and behavior. We will seek to explore this customer experience journey in the digital environment and introduce relevant case studies where companies and industries have started to utilize big data and analytics to better understand and customize the customer experience journey through digital efforts.

KEYWORDS

i523, hid329, big data, analytics, customer experience journey, consumer behavior, digital marketing

1 INTRODUCTION

The customer experience journey has been largely explored from a psychological and behavioral standpoint [50]. Dating back to the near 1800s, marginal and expected utility of actions were detailed by Nicholas Bernoulli, among others, to better understand how purchasing decisions were made [50]. From related work that followed in this field of studying behavioral economics, research has shown that purchasing decisions are not linear and at times, are not even rational as cognitive, emotional, and social factors can all play a role into how a customer makes a purchasing decision [50]. As described by Stoicescu, the reason why researchers started to study purchasing behavior was due to the "diversification of need" [50].

However, with diversification also comes complexity. The more choices a customer is given, the harder it can become for them to make a decision [50]. With every product choice, there also is an opportunity for interaction or *touchpoints* along this customer experience journey [34]. These series of touchpoints can occur through a variety of ways and the time frame in which they take place can also vary greatly by the product or service being offered and to which audience. In figure 1 example of a customer setting

up utilities after the purchase of a new home and the multiple touchpoints they may encounter along their journey [41].

[Figure 1 about here.]

However, not all touchpoints are created equal [34]. There are some touchpoints that every customer may have to go through to get to the next step in the process and others that will produce a more valuable action, such as a purchase [34]. There are further questions today that did not exist in years past due to the advances in technology and how that affects customer behavior [29]. These advances in technology not only could influence customer behavior but also provide companies direction on which products they should produce, where these products should be placed, what price point is most optimal and how should they properly promote a particular product to their audience [29]. Big data and analytics can provide opportunity to inform the promotional piece as companies have utilized this feature to provide personalized and relevant content along the customer journey as defined in figure 2 [50].

[Figure 2 about here.]

While traditional advertising and marketing methods have included outdoor, print, television, and radio, among others, there is a growing shift in reaching customers via the digital space [29]. As of 2016, digital advertising spend reached 72 billion dollars, a 20% increase from the year prior and now accounting for a third of all advertising revenue spent in the United States [5]. With the increased move to digital from more traditional outreach methods, the customer relationship is also being managed via digital platforms such as email, social, and mobile [29]. A customer's *digital journey* can provide opportunities for big data and analytics to better understand the touchpoints along the way as well as where a company may be able to *nudge* a customer appropriately to make a purchase decision.

The objective of this work is to provide a view into the customer experience journey as it relates to big data and analytics. This overview of existing work is to allow one to see how a company or industry may start to match their big data efforts with the purchase decision that customers make as well as the multiple touchpoints included along the way. The move towards digital outreach and marketing efforts will also be defined to ensure the reader understands what is meant throughout as it relates to outreach and personalization efforts. Rather than the analysis of a specific dataset, real-world examples will be showcased across a variety of industries to provide detail as to how big data is being used to better understand the customer and enhance the journey they go through along the way. Lastly, this work will highlight the need of matching big data with the customer experience journey, challenges with pursuing this work going forward, along with recommendations on how to overcome these challenges.

2 WHAT IS THE CUSTOMER EXPERIENCE JOURNEY?

The way *customer experience journey* is defined can differ by industry, product, and even by place. While past work has defined the customer experience journey as the process of purchasing a product or service, in today's landscape, it has become more than that. The Harvard Business Review would define the customer experience journey as the "sum-totality of how customers engage with your company or brand, not just in a snapshot of time, but throughout the entire arc of being a customer" [42]. Traditionally, the customer experience journey and buying process were used interchangeably where a customer moves through a decision making process. Some key areas that were highlighted in a typical customer experience journey include:

- **Need Identification:** At this stage, this is where the customer decides whether they have a particular need that they believe the product or service could fill. There are times where properly identifying the need or problem can be an area of opportunity for a company [13].
- **Awareness:** In order for customers to even engage with a product or brand, they first need to be aware that it exists. Further, the customer has to decide whether the product, service, or brand is relevant to them [13].
- **Evaluation of Alternatives:** Here, a customer starts to investigate the options available and educate themselves on the benefits and drawbacks of each. This is an area where companies seek to differentiate themselves from competitors as customers go through this stage in the progress [13]. As customers continue in their research state, they can be influenced in a variety of ways such as through advertising and marketing, word-of-mouth or reviews from others, in addition to information they obtain in other ways through their own search process [29].
- **Purchase:** After a customer has gone through their choices to the best of their satisfaction, they move to the stage where they decide to make (or not make) a purchase [29].
- **Post-Action Evaluation:** After a decision is made, one way or the other, this is place where the consumer evaluates their decision which may include key questions such as [13]:
 - Were my needs adequately met?
 - Am I satisfied with my choice?
 - If given the same circumstances, would I make the same choice again?
 - Would I recommend the choice I made to others?

While the list of questions could be endless the intent is to move customers through this purchase decision process so companies create loyal customers and advocates [29]. However, that model is evolving with the shift to a multi-prong outreach approach via digital and non-digital methods [13]. A longer customer experience journey is outlined in figure 1 as a customer can enter at any stage in the process. Pre and post purchase measures can be collected, stored, and analyzed at any point along the way as shown in figure 3 [13].

[Figure 3 about here.]

3 WHAT DOES DIGITAL MEAN?

With the influx of big data, analytics, and technology, there is often a rallying cry among leadership teams for an effort to be more *digital*. However, when exploring the definition of *digital*, it can greatly differ by audience, industry, and objective. Even within a singular company, alignment on what digital means can vary. Instead of trying to decide what digital *is*, it may be more beneficial to think of what digital *can do*. McKinsey highlights that digital should create value of some kind and offers various ways in which this can apply to an organization [14]. Despite varying definitions, methods, and applications of what digital *is* (and *is not*), there are commonalities in digital efforts that can be used to better understand this environment [26]:

- **Customer-Centric:** Digital efforts entail putting the customer first as they examine data and processes to enrich the customer experience [26].
- **Real-Time:** Long gone are lag times between collecting, analyzing, and processing data to decision-making. Now, data collection is always on and can be pulled at any time [26].
- **Connected:** With the volume, veracity, variety, and velocity of big data alone, the ability to have data sources and storage systems talk to one another is crucial to develop meaningful insights and inform decision making appropriately and effectively [1]. This not only has to happen from a technology standpoint but also from a company culture standpoint as well to ensure appropriate units and individuals are also talking to one another to better understand the customer experience journey overall.

It's important to note that while *digital* can mean *online*, one should not assume that these actions and behaviors only occur in the online environment. However, the collection, storing, and analyzing of these behaviors can be *digital* or *online* even though they may be reflective of what is happening in an *off-line* setting. Overall, implementing digital capabilities should improve business processes, challenge new ways of thinking, and deliver ways to enhance the customer experience journey [1].

4 WHAT IS DIGITAL MARKETING?

While advertising and marketing methods go as far back as the 1800s where customer lists were used to determine how individuals could be influenced via direct mailing efforts, digital marketing has only come to be with the creation of the internet [10]. The internet has created opportunity for brands to directly connect with customers and likewise, for customers to engage with brands in a myriad of ways in the digital space [17]. While varying definitions of digital marketing exist, it is often categorized as a subset of traditional marketing where the "use of digital technologies create an integrated, targeted, and measurable communication" to not only attract potential customers but engage with current ones for retention and loyalty purposes [23]. Digital marketing became even more prevalent in the 2000s as companies such as Google, Yahoo, and Facebook provided opportunity to deliver ads at an individual level based on demographic and behavioral characteristics [10]. Other data collection firms offered the ability to track users across the web space to see which pages were viewed, clicked, and time

explored to help further understand the experience of a customer across the web space [10]. With these advances in technology and understanding, the customer experience journey began to also transform along with the changes in advertising from traditional to more digital.

5 HOW IS BIG DATA INVOLVED IN THE CUSTOMER EXPERIENCE JOURNEY AND DIGITAL MARKETING?

As the typical customer experience journey moves away from a traditional linear process and more towards an iterative approach, there is a need to understand the pathway among customers with data [17]. As of 2016, there are now approximately 3.7 billion individual users on the internet [3]. This population size coupled with the multiple methods of interaction present an opportunity for companies to better understand potential customers in an effort to deliver the right message, to the right person, at the right time. A Gartner report states that the amount of data companies are collecting is growing by nearly 40 percent year-after-year [30]. Nearly one of out of every four state that there is a need to tie big data back to marketing-related efforts [30]. At the time of the report, it was estimated that only three percent of companies surveyed had a dedicated individual responsible for big data analytics and customer intelligence insight [30]. As the touchpoints with customers increase and also move more towards digital, so does the ability to collect and track the data from these touchpoints to better understand the customer experience journey [17].

One could argue that marketing data has been *big* for quite some time given the sheer number of people exposed to efforts typically exceeds millions [10]. However, what has changed in this space is marketing's increased use of digital technologies to reach potential customers in the digital landscape across various channels including search, display, social media, email, etc. [29]. For companies to be successful in utilizing big data to inform digital marketing efforts and to better track and enhance the customer experience journey, incorporating the necessary technologies and talent is a must along with shifting the organizational culture to making data driven decisions [23]. This process can be difficult as an individual user alone can generate "billions of data signals" and attempting to understand which ones may be tied directly to a product or brand's marketing efforts can be a daunting and overwhelming task [10]. However, there are a few well-known companies that have started the shift in tracking the customer experience journey through big data analytics and applications. We will examine key industries that have leveraged this knowledge and insight to better understand and enhance their relationship with customers.

6 BIG DATA IN ONLINE RETAIL

Companies like Amazon and eBay are often cited as pioneers in utilizing big data analytics considering these were companies that were *born digital* [3]. While other retail companies have made their way into the big data analytics environment, often times they are brick-and-mortar establishments in addition to offering electronic commerce (e-commerce) capabilities, such as Target, Sears, or Wal-Mart. Growth in e-commerce has taken place around the world

with nearly 1.3 billion customers in existence as of 2016 [3]. In the online space, there are multiple opportunities for these companies to track the customer experience from number of visits, keywords used in search, orders and products placed, frequency of purchases, in addition to when items in their virtual cart are abandoned or even when items are returned or complaints are filed [3]. Amazon and eBay, among others, have utilized big data analytics to their advantage to create recommendations for their customers, develop predictive models, and also offer real-time changes in the customer's experience journey.

6.1 How Does Amazon Use Big Data?

In 1995, Amazon started its life in the online space as an electronic bookstore [25]. While early sales were still impressive totaling nearly \$20,000 a week, during their popular campaign of *Prime Day* in 2017, analysts estimated that sales for that one day alone to be around \$500 million [47]. As of July 2017, Amazon has approximately 300 million users with nearly eight out of ten that make a purchase at least once a month [47]. The amount of information tracked per user continues to increase at an exponential rate as Amazon's growth has moved beyond their days of an online bookstore and into the realm of an *everything store*, including acquiring other large companies such as Whole Foods [40]. With this, there are a number of ways that Amazon uses big data to enhance the customer experience:

- **Personalized Recommendations and Predictive Modeling:** As customers are exploring products on Amazon, they are often shown other suggested products either based on their own past purchase behavior or by what others who purchase similar items also bought [3]. These recommendations are shown in real-time, often on the same web pages as customers are exploring other products [3]. It is estimated that based on this ability alone, utilizing both structured and unstructured data, that 35% of all sales are attributed to the recommendation algorithm, which would show that their predictive efforts are meeting the needs of their customers [3].
- **Efficient Delivery:** Even though Amazon utilizes and houses large amounts of data about its customers to offer personalized recommendations and offers, the company also has to maintain a tremendous amount of data about its own operations to inform logistics and supply chain management to meet customer expectations [3]. A key selling message of Amazon is delivering product in two business days, even in some cases offering same day delivery on certain items if they are ordered within a certain timeframe CITE[21]. With the increase number of products, suppliers, and customers, Amazon is still able to rely on big data analysis to maintain a consistent experience that doesn't compromise delivery for the customer which in turn leads to a better customer experience overall [3].

6.2 How Does eBay Use Big Data?

eBay is a website that also started in 1995 which offered a unique opportunity to bring together buyers and sellers in the online space [15]. Sellers could place their items online where buyers could

potentially place bids, similar to if they participated in a live auction, where the item may go to the highest bidder. This allowed for others around the globe to connect and purchase items directly from another person while paying for the item through online methods. It is estimated today that there are nearly 180 million buyers and sellers and nearly 250 million search inquiries made per day on eBay [31]. Like Amazon, eBay seeks to understand and tailor the online experience for customers through the use of big data in a multitude of ways as eBay itself states “understanding the customer is key” [44]. Various methods utilized to better understand and tailor the customer experience journey include:

- **Web Page Metrics to Inform Layout:** It is estimated that among eBay customers, there is “100 million hours of interactions collected per month” [44]. Through an extensive number of experiments and A/B testing, eBay is able to optimize the web experience for customers. From their big data analytics, they can find preferred layouts of web pages which can customize anything from navigation feature to the size of photos displayed on the screen [3].
- **Ease of Finding Items:** Buyers and sellers alike utilize the search feature provided on the eBay website to find necessary items or to compare price points of like items when deciding which price point to utilize [31]. Behavior patterns of customers have been used to inform how to best optimize the search feature in an effort to get customers to the necessary items more quickly which in turn will, hopefully, produce a sale [31]. While in the past, the search algorithm would have taken words and terms in a more literal sense, though optimization eBay has been able to make the search algorithm more intuitive which has lead to more sales [31]. Such examples show that originally when customers would shorten words used in the search feature, they may not find what they need. However, after analysis of customer inputs and changes in the search algorithm, this ability was taken into account so customers could still find the necessary product without changing their behavior.

7 BIG DATA IN THE FINANCE INDUSTRY

There are a number of products and services available in the finance industry ranging from personal and business loans, to stocks, retirement accounts, and credit cards. Companies such as JP Chase Morgan, American Express, and Bank of America are capitalizing on big data use to inform their offerings and also better understand their customer base [52]. These companies are monitoring the customer experience journey through all touchpoints which could include web visits, phone calls, and even in-person interactions [24]. This information can also be used to detect fraud on certain accounts when activity occurs that may not be typical of their customer [52]. These algorithms and techniques can in turn ensure customers are protected which help with customer retention. Conversely, those in the finance industry may also be able to utilize big data and mining techniques to determine if they are about to lose a customer. One such company that utilized these methods to their advantage is American Express, which accounts for nearly

a quarter of all credit cards transactions and totals more than \$1 trillion annually in customer purchases [35].

7.1 How Does American Express Use Big Data?

In 2010, American Express invested in big data technologies and resources, including Hadoop, to increase capabilities to detect fraud, provide recommendations to current customers, predict who may close their accounts, as well as acquire new customers [52]. These methods are used to assist in efforts to maximize the customer experience journey through the use of:

- **Fraud Detection:** To minimize loss, fraud alerts have to happen quickly. To achieve this, American Express implemented machine learning algorithm techniques [32]. Data points included in the model consisted of information about the merchant where the purchase occurred, purchase details such as items bought and price, and even customer information [32]. By analyzing patterns in real-time, American Express was able to flag possible fraudulent activity in a matter of milliseconds which then allows the company and customers more time to prevent further loss with the increased capability [32]. American Express was able to identify an additional \$2 billion in fraudulent activity that that they were not able to identify before and therefore protect their customers and ensure a more positive customer experience as a result [32].
- **Personalized Recommendations:** Along with protecting their customers, American Express also seeks to understand how to better engage their customers through personalized recommendations. One such example is based on analyzing customers past transactions along with geographic location information to push specific recommendations to customers in real-time [52]. Through the use of big data analytics, the company can send recommendations on similar restaurants in the area if they see from a customer’s transactions they frequent a certain genre or area [52]. These recommendations also work on behalf of the merchants who accept American Express as the company can provide information on purchases in the area which merchants can use to create offers to entice customers to purchase products and services by using their American Express card at their particular store [16].
- **Churn Prediction Models:** American Express also uses its vast amounts of data to see if they can predict whether a customer will close their account [32]. By incorporating machine learning models, they can better understand the customer experience and appropriately jump in at different points along the journey in an effort to deter customers from closing their accounts. Through analysis of past transactions as well as nearly 100 other variables incorporated to understand customers, the company estimated that for one model, they were able to identify nearly one out of every four accounts they believed would have closed in the near future [32]. With this information, tailored marketing and messaging could be implemented to help with retention rates.

- **Acquiring New Customers:** Despite the large base of customers, merchants, and transactions, there is always a need for businesses to grow to increase revenue and capabilities for the future. One way to achieve this is through digital marketing efforts targeted at those who may be potential customers for American Express. Through their efforts, American Express was able to grow their customer base by nearly 40% through online marketing efforts [32]. With these more targeted and cost-effective measures, American Express was able to efficiently acquire new customers as compared to more traditional marketing efforts of the past, such as direct mail [32]. These optimizations further enhance the customer experience journey by delivering them a message at the right time through the right medium.

7.2 How Does Bank of America Use Big Data?

While big data, analytics, and predictive models can be used to better understand how to reach out, retain, and attract customers, these same techniques can be applied when determining how to optimize the customer experience journey from an internal perspective. Considering the journey can take place across a series of touchpoints, Bank of America was one major bank, among others, that utilized big data to better understand how to better serve their nearly 50 million customers [12]. One method included:

- **Customer Segmentation:** Through the use of big data, Bank of America acknowledged that their customer base could be divided into segments and therefore their behavior and needs differed [12]. By analyzing online correspondence, calls from a call center, and even visits to area branches, appropriate offers could be tailored to the customer [12]. Utilizing data points provided in the online space along with the ones that occurred elsewhere, a new program was developed by Bank of America [12]. With this new program and customized offerings, customers were more highly engaged with by Bank of America which increased customer satisfaction and experience as a result [12].

8 BIG DATA IN THE HEALTHCARE INDUSTRY

Rising patient volumes, increasing aging population, and mounting costs have all contributed to the growth, importance, and complexity of the healthcare industry [37]. As of 2016, it is estimated that nearly \$4.1 trillion will be spent on healthcare costs in the United States alone [37]. Nearly 290 million people in the United States have some form of insurance or healthcare coverage but that also leaves nearly 28 million who are uninsured [19]. A typical customer can interact with a number of stakeholders throughout their healthcare journey ranging anywhere from their initial doctor's visit, to filling a prescription at the pharmacy, to paying a bill to their insurance provider. One may then ask based on these interactions: how does the online space play into the healthcare industry at all?

With the move to electronic medical records (EMR), the ability to now aggregate years of information on an individual, as well as an entire population, becomes more of a reality [20]. Even though

the healthcare industry has lagged behind other industries regarding their collection and use of big data, they are one of the most important as it relates to utilizing their information to create a better experience for customers as it pertains to their health [20]. The ability to link this data across various stakeholders is also critical in understanding the full journey of a customer (or patient) to ensure effective treatment decisions are made. Health Information Exchanges (HIEs) allow for this opportunity and the HIE has information on more than 10 million patients, over a span of nearly 80 connected hospitals, and approximately 18,000 physicians have access [20]. Big data in the realm of healthcare provides tremendous opportunity to create value for customers and healthcare professionals alike. One such software company explored this use of connected data sources to better inform healthcare providers with practice-based evidence in an effort to tailor care for an individual patient [6].

8.1 How Does Apixio Use Big Data?

As others have stated about healthcare related data and reporting, "the problem in healthcare is not lack of data, but the unstructured nature of its data" [33]. Apixio, a cognitive computing firm based in California, wanted to take on the challenge of making unstructured healthcare related data available and easier to use in order to better aid decision making in patient treatment [33]. Their work involved taking clinical charts of patients and combining them with notes from physicians, test results, and even hospital stays to develop a more complete picture about an individual [33]. From there, Apixio was able to provide benefits based on this big data process:

- **Patient Model Development:** Data at an individual level was used to develop patient models from a series of text processing and coded healthcare data [33]. By creating a profile per individual, like individuals could then be grouped together which in turn helped to inform what treatments or procedures would work best in those individuals who fit a certain criteria [33]. Considering this information is derived from actual practice of medicine, it can better inform clinical care and also ensure that patients are set up for best optimal outcomes if treatment decisions are made based on big data collection and analysis [33].

- **Healthcare Cost Savings:** Cost of healthcare continues to be a growing concern for both customers and other key players such as healthcare professionals and insurance companies [37]. With the move to EMR and big data analytics, it is estimated that anywhere between \$300 and \$450 billion dollars can be saved in healthcare costs [37]. With the use of big data technology and methods, Apixio developed a system that could read and code patient chart information [33]. Typically, this method of coding would have been performed manually by a person or set of individuals, and with that comes a laborious and expensive process [33]. Apixio's capabilities were also found to be more accurate resulting in 20% improvement in accuracy which in turn lead to better decision making among healthcare providers [33]. The also helped individual customer to ensure they were getting billed appropriately for the right treatment or procedure as well as for the insurance

company who may be providing coverage [33]. These techniques then allow for an improved customer experience journey if costs can be mitigated through the use of big data initiatives that allow for better efficiency and accuracy.

9 BIG DATA IN THE ENTERTAINMENT INDUSTRY

The entertainment industry includes a wide array of forms including newspapers, movies, books, television programs, and radio [22]. As of 2016 it is estimated that this industry is worth approximately 1.8 trillion dollars in the United States alone [49]. Streaming video services such as Netflix and Hulu have entered the market in recent years and provide a further opportunity to deliver content directly to customers. As of 2016, video streaming services are the second largest category for home entertainment with customers in the United States spending \$6.2 billion [4]. The wealth of data collected from these streaming services include but are not limited to the type of content watched, when content is watched and on which type of device, as well as how often it takes for customers to make a selection down to an individual user level [8]. Netflix is one of the many video streaming leaders and has made big data and analytics a foundation to their business strategy and outreach initiatives [28].

9.1 How Does Netflix Use Big Data?

While Netflix once started out as a mail-subscription video rental service, the business model has shifted to provide content entirely online and caters to nearly 60 million subscribers in over 50 countries [28]. Netflix's competitive advantage in the market place stems from their ability to use big data as they estimate that they process over 10 petabytes of data a day which includes more than 400 billion new events [28]. Utilizing programs and data scientists, Netflix began to seek out additional opportunities to understand customer preferences and to also optimize the experience journey through a variety of different methods:

- **Personalized Recommendations:** Netflix not only analyzes what a particular person may watch but also what others who *look like* that user may enjoy based on data such as age, gender, or even zip code [28]. With the sophistication of the recommendation algorithm, viewers spend an average of 17.8 minutes browsing through the selections before picking a program to watch [28]. Spending more time increases the level of engagement with users and also extends the lifetime value of the customer in an effort to help with retention [8]. By delivering relevant content, Netflix estimates they save more than \$1 billion per year by their efforts in keeping customers happy [8].
- **User Choice:** In addition to providing the right recommendations, ensuring that the image or artwork for films is appropriate to the user also aids in choice [8]. Netflix engages in A/B testing of program thumbnails images and also seeks out feedback from users on which images they prefer [8]. From this process, Netflix was able to increase video viewing between 20-30% when utilizing the right images and listening to customers' preferences [8].
- **Customized Content:** Analyzing what audiences enjoy watching can provide insight as Netflix sought to create

their own content [28]. One common cited example includes the development of *House of Cards* as an original Netflix series that was created with big data information [28]. Netflix found that the original series from the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) did well with audiences and that Kevin Spacey movies were also popular [28]. Further using customer data, Netflix understood that customers *binge-watched* seasons of shows and therefore releasing an entire season at a time would best meet the needs of their customers versus one episode at a time [28]. The year the *House of Cards* series premiered, subscribers grew from 27.1 to 33.4 million and the show received countless Emmy and Golden Globe nominations and awards [28]. By utilizing big data, Netflix was able to create and deliver content that customers wanted and also help their bottom line [28].

10 BIG DATA IN THE GAMING INDUSTRY

In addition to the entertainment economy, the gaming sector also is substantial in size and revenue. In 2016, the commercial gaming industry grew to \$38.7 billion across 24 states and nearly 600 casinos [43]. Las Vegas, a leader and popular gaming destination had a record year of visitors at nearly 43 million [43]. With increased competition among entertainment resorts and casinos in Las Vegas, as well as other parts of the United States, the need to create an optimal customer experience is crucial to attract customers and also keep them engaged. Metro-Goldwyn-Mayer (MGM) Resorts International and Caesars Entertainment are two conglomerates that have capitalized on big data use to better tailor the customer experience journey.

10.1 How Does Caesars Entertainment Use Big Data?

Caesars has described their customer relationship optimization process as utilizing a "data-driven and closed loop approached to deliver a personalized experience" [51]. A few ways they have implemented this include:

- **Creating Customer Loyalty:** Demographic, gameplay, and other transactional data is kept on each guest to create a detailed profile [51]. Employees then across the establishment can utilize this data to personalize offerings and incentives to customers, anywhere from how he or she is greeted by staff to whether complementary services should be offered to improve the customer experience [51]. This type of treatment isn't just limited to big spenders at the casino but translates across all customers in an effort to create loyalty across multiple segments [51].
- **Efficiencies Through Mobile Application:** Caesars also offers guest the ability to utilize their mobile device to conduct tasks such as checking into a property or even ordering a drink from the bar to avoid long lines [51]. Incentives can also be pushed directly to customers based on their location and preferences such as tickets for shows or dining options in the area [51]. Considering most guests carry their phone in their pocket, engaging with them on

the casino floor can create a better customer experience to give them what they need, when they need it [51].

- **Customized Experiences:** The vast amounts of data collected on customer behavioral patterns in terms of which machines are played, when, where, and by whom can provide insight into how to best tailor offerings [46]. For example, it was observed that an elderly population visits the casino at a certain time of day and therefore with the influx of that audience, casinos are able to adjust game offerings in real-time offering enlarged text for better viewing among the visually impaired in that age group as well as bet levels for certain games [46]. By analyzing heat maps of popular games and parts of the casino, it also allows for companies to staff appropriately to ensure customer needs are being met based on predicted demand [46]. These real-time changes enhance the customer experience journey by tailoring offerings to specific customer segments.

10.2 How Does MGM use Big Data?

Similar to other casinos and resorts, MGM has utilized past customer data in an effort to better predict future behavior [36]. However, they have also utilized this data to create personalized marketing offers to entice frequent (and non-frequent) visitors back into the experience [36]. Though sophisticated modeling efforts, MGM is able to tailor marketing efforts to include a variety of different incentive types and levels. The final result of this process created 120 models of customer behavior with approximately 180 variables in each as well as 20,000 parameters across all which showcased an increase in revenue at a lower cost [36]. These models were used to inform marketing efforts across a variety of areas, including but not limited to [36]:

- **Hotel Room Rates:** Attributes such as room type, discount, number of times, etc., all play a role in which aspect will draw a customer back into the establishment [36].
- **Entertainment Add-Ons:** Type of entertainment offered, ticket price, or even facility features were all used as inputs in the model [36].
- **Other Offers:** Air packages, limo rides, resort credits, and many others were also used as way to determine which customers would respond to which offers [36].

11 BIG DATA IN THE TRANSPORTATION INDUSTRY

Whether by plane, train, car, or other means, today's American customer relies on some sort of transportation to get them to varying destinations whether it be work, school, or even vacation. An average person spends 20% more time commuting today than they did 30 years ago [7]. With this come questions to the transportation industry as to where they should expand highways, add public transit, or open additional hubs or destinations for travel. Big data can be one avenue in exploring and answering these questions as well as create a more enjoyable experience for the customer if they can spend less of their life commuting. The introduction of the ride sharing mobile application of Uber also arose based on customer needs and preferences and through the use of big data is thriving as alternative transportation option [9]. Large airline carriers have

made use of big data as they seek to understand buyer behavior so they can effectively plan flights and other amenities to meet customer needs [39].

11.1 How Do Airlines Use Big Data?

In just one day's time, it is estimated that there are nearly 42,000 commercial flights and 2.5 million passengers [2]. From purchasing a ticket, to taking a flight, and (hopefully) receiving their checked baggage at their final destination, airlines collect a wealth of information on their customers throughout their flying experience [39]. When looking at key attributes that are analyzed and down to an individual level, airlines collect information about purchase history, arrival, departure cities, and dates, in-flight food choices, connecting cities, travel companions, as well as miles and credit card points earned and used [18]. While airlines have succeeded in collecting this data, using it to better enhance the customer experience journey is still a work in progress [39]. Those who work in the travel software environment and frequently provide products and services to those in the airline community to better understand their data even state they have "not seen a single major airline with an integrated big data business solution" [39]. With that in mind, highlights from major airline players are explored even though full development of utilizing big data may still be on-going in this industry.

11.2 How Does Southwest Airlines Use Big Data?

One way that Southwest Airlines is utilizing big data is by trying to identify new opportunities for revenue [39]. By analyzing customer behavior online, Southwest is able to support their relationship with customers by offering the best rates in real-time [39]. They are also able to look at searches for destination pairs and make determinations on whether certain flights should be added to keep their customer base loyal and ultimately satisfied by getting to where they need to be, when they need to be there [18]. Not only is Southwest looking to meet the needs of customers as they make a flight choice, but they also seek to comprehend customer interaction at other points in the purchase process [18]. By utilizing a speech analytics tool, the company can better understand recorded conversations that take place with representatives as well as social media chatter [18]. These real-time insights can then inform customer service representatives as they interact with customers and guide them to deliver the optimal solution in various situations [18]. In addition to optimizing the customer experience from a satisfaction standpoint, Southwest airlines has also partnered with NASA on potential safety initiatives where machine learning algorithms can be used to spot potential abnormalities [18]. These efforts enhance the customer experience journey by not only looking out for safety of individuals but by also meeting their needs based on behavioral data.

11.3 How Does Delta Airlines Use Big Data?

In a quest for customer loyalty, Delta Airlines has made an intentional effort in investing in their baggage tracking system to better meet customer needs [45]. With this \$100 million dollar initiative, it not only gives airport operation teams the opportunity to identify

trends in mishandled luggage situations but also real-time information to baggage handlers when transferring or sorting through bags [45]. Similar information is also shared with travelers so they can track the progress of their bags down to the minute [45]. With approximately 130 million bags checked in a given year on Delta Airlines, there is a common concern among customers on whether their bag will arrive at their final destination [39]. Giving customers a piece of mind allows for a more beneficial customer experience and also increases satisfaction and loyalty. The luggage tracking app has been downloaded 11 million times and has reduced the rate of mishandled luggage by nearly 71% since 2007, which is better than any other airline [45].

11.4 How Does Uber Use Big Data?

Founded in 2009, Uber started as a technology company and created a mobile application that connected those seeking transportation with those who were drivers [9]. Now, with nearly 8 million users who have connected with over 160,000 drivers, nearly half of the United States population has access to Uber in their city [27]. The only opportunity to connect riders and drivers is through the mobile app consolidating data collection and tracking from the start; however, the sheer volume and real-time application of data use to inform pricing and availability still presents on-going challenges [9]. Demographics, frequency of trips, destinations, price, as well as sessions that do not end with a purchase are all recorded from the application [9]. Several ways in which Uber utilizes big data to meet customer needs includes:

- **Matching Supply and Demand:** By analyzing travel transactions, Uber can appropriately plan for busy nights so customer travel needs are met [9]. Customers are also able to give feedback about their ride experience and rate drivers [6]. With this capability, the company can inspire trust and improve satisfaction if they find that certain drivers are not meeting expectations [6]. UberPool is also a new feature that has been added that allows for carpooling of customers where real-time analytics search for other customers in the area by geography [6]. This can therefore improve the customer experience for those who want to share a ride and split the cost appropriately [6].
- **Dynamic Pricing Model:** Uber is also able to adjust pricing models accordingly based on time of day [9]. Fair estimates are also able to be given in real-time which allow the customer to adjust their travel plans if needed and also pick the type of transportation, such as a sedan or sports-utility-vehicle (SUV) [9]. However, there are times that Uber uses these models to the company's advantage and offer *surge* pricing in the events of heavy demand or traffic [9]. All financial transactions take place via the application with no exchange of cash. Pre-set and transparent pricing structures allow customers to select what fits their needs, even if they find their choice is to not take a ride at a particular time. Having the necessary and accurate information provided at time or purchase makes for a more enjoyable customer experience journey [6].

12 WHY IS USING BIG DATA TO OPTIMIZE CUSTOMER EXPERIENCE JOURNEY IMPORTANT?

These examples are a select few to showcase how companies can better understand and further the customer experience journey by leveraging big data. The average customer is presented with more choices today than ever before [34]. With this, companies today have to be more strategic to get the attention, time, and loyalty of customers to remain in the marketplace. Doing so can provide many advantages to both companies and customers as they utilize big data to better understand the customer experience. As Rawson et al state: "companies that excel in delivering journeys tend to win in the market" [41]. Trends presented showcase how big data can provide big benefit:

- **Retention of Customers:** It is estimated that "acquiring a new customer can be between five and 25 times more expensive than retaining an existing one" [21]. Utilizing big data to predict when customers may close accounts can help to inform company efforts and ultimately prevent potential revenue loss if they can keep existing customers. American Express showed that by using big data and predictive analytics, the company could identify these customers sooner versus wait until the customer is already lost.
- **Personalized Outreach:** Tailored communication messaging, and recommendations can give customers a better experience in getting what they need from companies but also benefit the company's bottom line as well. As Netflix and Amazon have showcased, providing recommendations to customers increases engagement and purchase behavior.
- **Company Process Efficiencies:** Utilizing big data to understand customer behavior can help companies determine whether changes or improvements need to be made in how they deliver products and services to customers. As the Delta example showed, tracking baggage was not only a concern to customers but by doing so, the company improved their mishandled luggage rates. These efficiencies not only create satisfied, and possibly loyal, customers but also ensure that companies are spending their resources effectively by not making costly and time-consuming errors.

13 WHAT CHALLENGES EXIST IN UTILIZING BIG DATA FOR THE CUSTOMER EXPERIENCE JOURNEY?

While big data use is going to be a crucial component going forward in understanding the customer experience journey, companies do face challenges in making this a reality, specifically:

- **Data Ownership** Customer data can live in a variety of places within one organization. The departments in which this data lives can be in silos with multiple departments not talking to one another or not willing to share what they feel their department owns [48].
- **Company Culture** Cooperation across the organization can be a significant barrier in truly understanding the full customer experience. [48].

- **Lack of Strategy** Without a clear strategy, it can also create issue in trying to determine how to best interpret and apply the findings in the data. This can lead to gaps in the organization if it is unclear what the ultimate goal is and which parties play a role [48].
- **Resources and Skills** The technical aspects of understanding the customer experience journey can be a barrier as well. Having the right technology, people, and time in place to understand the full customer journey can also be a challenge for companies. [11]
- **Consumer Behavior Volatility** Not all decisions made by customers are rational ones and there can be a variety of factors in play that big data can not track [50]. As further detailed in other work “people do not behave like robots,” so even when all the variables are optimized, outside forces beyond the control of a company could influence choice along with a customer’s own emotions which big data doesn’t always include [42].

Since within one company there can be different systems, different processes, and a variety of people employed with different skillsets, trying to address all of these challenges can be overwhelming. However, with challenges come opportunities and areas in which companies can focus on as they strive to have data that is connected, customer-centric, and available to look at in real-time [48].

14 HOW CAN A COMPANY OVERCOME THESE CHALLENGES?

As companies seek to better understand their customer base through the use of big data and analytics, from the research performed, there are some steps that companies can take as they further explore opportunities to optimize the customer experience journey. Some key areas and questions to consider include:

- **Seek to Understand Your Customer:** Big data and analytics can be a valuable starting point in understanding the pathway to purchase among your customers as well as which areas where you may be losing customers in the process. However, big data should be used in conjunction with small data as companies seek to understand the *why* behind customer behavior. Gathering feedback from customers is essential in the process in optimizing their journey.
- **Set Clear Objectives and Roles:** Given that earlier research highlighted that a very small percentage of companies have a dedicated person for customer analytics, first establishing a dedicated person or team could help in developing a better understanding of the data involved in tracking the customer experience journey [38]. This person or team of people can provide guidance to others within an organization by being a central source of knowledge about the customer. A key part of research is also setting clear questions and objectives at the beginning. Which data points are truly a part of the customer experience journey? What connections do we need to establish in order to move our strategy forward? How will we measure the return on our efforts?

- **Make the Necessary Investment:** As other companies in this research highlighted, big data skillsets are necessary in understanding the customer experience journey which may mean a company may need to add data scientists, analysts, or other like positions within an organization. Additional technologies and tools may also be needed such as Hadoop or languages such as R or Python in an effort to process big data to derive insight.
- **Test, Assess, and Optimize:** As companies look to establish dedicated resources, time, and people in the process of understanding the customer experience journey, there must also be acknowledgement that this process is iterative. There could be efforts that are not fruitful or plainly, do not work. However, as other companies have shown, the ability to test can provide this insight and allow the opportunity for a company to change course if needed.

While there are likely other areas to consider, this initial outline described can provide companies and those within an opportunity to start understanding the customer experience journey from a big data and analytics perspective. A company has to also prioritize these different efforts accordingly as it may not be possible to implement these changes at once. A company must also consider what their own success will look like over time as progress is made.

15 CONCLUSION

The customer experience journey will continue to evolve as new technologies are developed that can influence the multitude of touchpoints one experiences along the way as they make purchasing decisions. While big data and analytics can provide a picture as to what customers are doing, leveraging learnings from this work to better understand the customer experience journey will be key as competition in the marketplace continues to increase across a variety of industries. These examples show that by having the right tools, skillset, and objectives in place that utilizing big data to better meet the needs of customers can be successful. While the undertaking of this endeavor may not be quick or necessarily easy, it can provide great benefit to both companies and customers to deliver relevant products and services with the customer experience in mind. Even though big data is a means of tracking the customer experience, big data is also changing the customer experience through digital marketing and outreach efforts in a way to effectively and efficiently engage and connect with customers. With this approach, the ability to deliver the right message, to the right person, at exactly the right time in the customer experience journey can provide tremendous opportunity for companies but also benefit the customers to have a more fulfilling experience journey with a company or brand.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

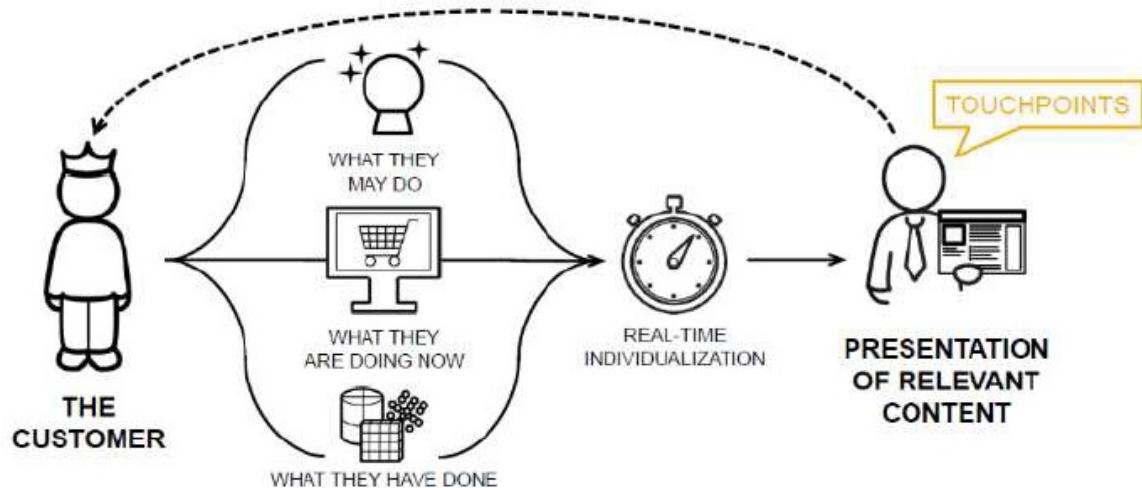
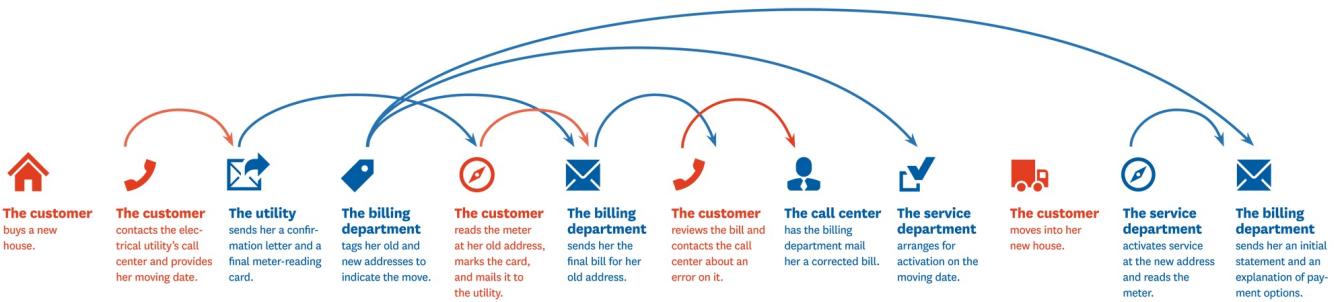
The author would like to thank Dr. Gregor von Laszewski and the teaching assistants for their support and guidance in writing this paper in addition to the resources provided by the School of Informatics, Computing, and Engineering at Indiana University in Bloomington.

REFERENCES

- [1] Accenture. 2013. What it Means to be Digital. (2013). <https://www.accenture.com>
- [2] Federal Aviation Administration. 2017. Air Traffic by the Numbers. (2017). https://www.faa.gov/air_traffic/by_the_numbers
- [3] Shahria Akter and Samuel Fosso Wamba. 2016. Big Data Analytics in E-Commerce: A Systematic Review and Agenda for Future Research. (2016).
- [4] Claire Atkinson. 2016. Video Streaming Services Saw Giant Leap in 2016. (2016). <https://nypost.com>
- [5] Pew Research Center. 2017. Digital News Fact Sheet. (2017). <http://www.journalism.org/fact-sheet/digital-news/>
- [6] Data Science Central. 2017. The Amazing Ways Uber is Using Big Data. (2017). <https://www.datasciencecentral.com>
- [7] Tor Clifford. 2017. Five Urban Transportation Challenges that Big Data Can Help You Solve. (2017).
- [8] Jonathan Cohen. 2017. Netflix's Use of Big Data: Lessons for Brand Marketers. (2017).
- [9] Peter Cohen, Robert Hahn, Jonathan Hall, Steven Levitt, and Robert Metcalfe. 2016. Using Big Data to Estimate Consumer Surplus: The Case of Uber. (2016).
- [10] Nick Couldry and Joseph Turow. 2014. Advertising, Big Data, and the Clearance of the Public Realm: Marketers' New Approaches to the Content Subsidy. *International Journal of Communication* 8, 0 (2014), 1710–1726.
- [11] David Court. 2015. Getting Big Impact from Big Data. (2015), 8 pages.
- [12] Thomas H. Davenport and Jill Dyche. 2013. Big Data in Big Companies. (2013).
- [13] Gary DeAsi. 2017. Why the Customer Journey is Your New Marketing Funnel. (2017).
- [14] Karel Dorner and David Edelman. 2015. What 'Digital' Really Means. (2015), 5 pages.
- [15] Ebay. 2017. Our History - Ebay. (2017). www.ebay.com
- [16] The Economist. 2016. The Economist. (2016).
- [17] David C. Edelman. 2010. Branding in the Digital Age. (2010), 8 pages.
- [18] Exastax. 2017. How Airlines are Using Big Data. (2017). <https://exastax.com>
- [19] The Henry J. Kaiser Family Foundation. 2016. Health Insurance Coverage of the Total Population. (2016). <http://www.kff.org>
- [20] Peter Froves, Basel Kayyali, David Knott, and Steven Van Kuiken. 2013. The 'Big Data' Revolution in Healthcare. (2013), 23 pages.
- [21] Amy Gallo. 2014. The Value of Keeping the Right Customers. (2014).
- [22] Brian Griffith. 2017. Playing to Win with Analytics. (2017).
- [23] Ketty Grishikashvili, S. Dibb, and M. Meadows. 2014. Investigation into Big Data Impact on Digital Marketing. (2014), 26-37 pages.
- [24] Tom Groenfeldt. 2012. Banks Use Big Data To Understand Customers Across Channels. (2012). <https://www.forbes.com>
- [25] Avery Hartmans. 2017. 15 Fascinating Facts You Probably Didn't Know About Amazon. (2017). www.businessinsider.com
- [26] Reda Hmeid. 2017. What Does "Being Digital" Actually Mean? (2017). <https://www.infoq.com>
- [27] Statistic Brain Research Institute. 2017. Uber Company Statistics. (2017). www.statisticbrain.com
- [28] Tricia Jenkins. 2016. Netflix's Geek Chic: How One Company Leveraged its Big Data to Change the Entertainment Industry. *Jump Cut: A Review of Contemporary Media* 7, 1 (2016), 1–17. Issue 57.
- [29] P.K. Kannan and Hongshuang Li. 2017. Digital Marketing: A Framework, Review, and Research Agenda. *International Journal of Research in Marketing* 34 (2017), 22–45. Issue 1.
- [30] Kelly Liyakasa. 2013. Big Data and Customer Experience Begin to Converge. (2013). www.destinationCRM.com
- [31] Spandas Lui. 2012. How eBay Uses Big Data to Make You Buy More. (2012). www.zdnet.com
- [32] Charu Mangani. 2017. American Express: Using Data Analytics to Redefine Traditional Banking. (2017). <https://digit.hbs.org>
- [33] Bernard Marr. 2016. *Big Data in Practice*. Wiley, Corporate Headquarters 111 River Street Hoboken, NJ 07030-5774.
- [34] Christopher Meyer. 2007. Understanding Customer Experience. (2007).
- [35] Timothy Pickett Morgan. 2014. Why Hadoop is the New Backbone of American Express. (2014). www.enterprisotech.com
- [36] Harikesh S. Nair, Sanjog Misra, William J. Hornbuckle IV, Ranjan Mishra, and Anand Acharya. 2016. Big Data and Marketing Analytics in Gaming: Combining Empirical Models and Field Experimentation. (2016).
- [37] Raghunath Nambiar, Ruchie Bhardwaj, Adhiraj Sethi, and Rajesh Vargheese. 2013. A Look at Challenges and Opportunities of Big Data Analytics in Healthcare. In *2013 IEEE International Conference on Big Data*. 2013 IEEE Conference on Big Data, Silicon Valley, CA, USA, 17–22. <https://doi.org/10.1109/BigData.2013.6691753>
- [38] Wes Nichols. 2013. Advertising Analytics 2.0. (2013).
- [39] Katherine Noyes. 2014. For the Airline Industry, Big Data is Cleared for Take-Off. (2014). www.fortune.com
- [40] Greg Petro. 2017. Amazon's Acquisition of Whole Foods is About Two Things: Data and Product. (2017). www.forbes.com
- [41] Alex Rawson, Ewan Duncan, and Conor Jones. 2013. The Truth About Customer Experience. (2013), 10 pages.
- [42] Adam Richardson. 2010. Understanding Customer Experience. (2010).
- [43] Rubinrown. 2017. Gaming Statistics. (2017).
- [44] Cliff Saran. 2014. How Big Data is Powering Success for eBay's Customer Journey. (2014). www.computerweekly.com
- [45] Harvard Business School. 2015. Big Data Takes Flight at Delta Air Lines. (2015). <https://digit.hbs.org>
- [46] Natasha Dow Schull. 2012. The Touch-Point Collective: Crowd Contouring on the Casino Floor. (2012).
- [47] Craig Smith. 2017. 120 Amazing Amazon Statistics and Facts. (2017). www.expandedramblings.com
- [48] Jeffrey Spiess, Yves T'Joenis, Raluca Dragnea, Peter Spencer, and Laurent Philippart. 2014. Using Big Data to Improve Customer Experience and Business Performance. *Bell Labs Technical Journal* 18, 4 (2014), 3–17.
- [49] Statista. 2017. Value of the Global Entertainment ad Media Market from 2011 to 2021. (2017). <https://www.statista.com>
- [50] Christina Stoicescu. 2015. Big Data, The Perfect Instrument to Study Today's Consumer Behavior. *Database Systems Journal* 6, 3 (2015), 28–41.
- [51] Michael Welch and George Westerman. 2012. Caesars Entertainment: Digitally Personalizing the Customer Experience. (2012).
- [52] Alex Woodie. 2016. How Credit Card Companies are Evolving with Big Data. (2016). www.datanami.com

LIST OF FIGURES

1	Customer Experience Journey Touchpoints	12
2	Customer Experience Journey	12
3	Digital Marketing Customer Stages Model	13



New Digital Marketing Hourglass: Customer Journey Stages Model

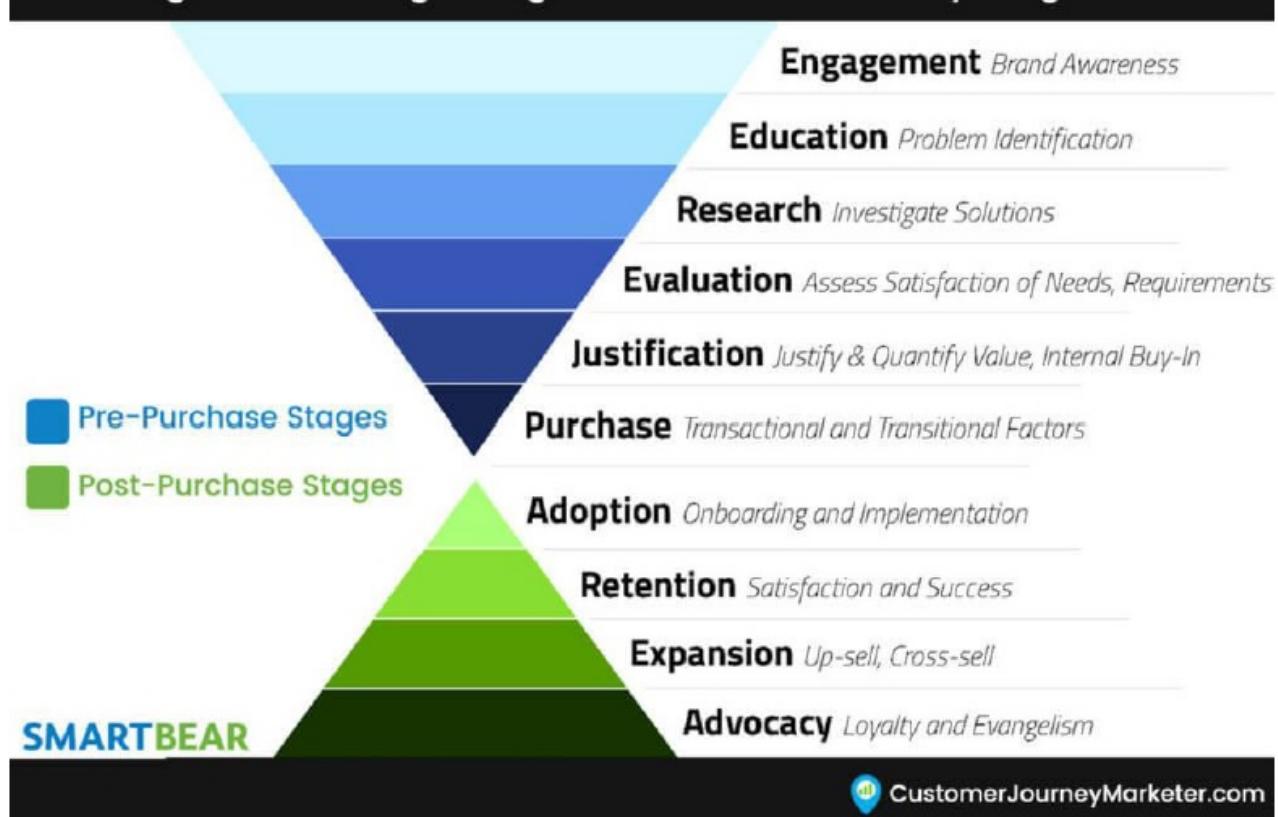


Figure 3: Digital Marketing Customer Stages Model

```
bibtext report
```

```
=====
```

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
```

```
bibtext _ label error
```

```
=====
```

```
bibtext space label error
```

```
=====
```

```
bibtext comma label error
```

```
=====
```

```
latex report
```

```
[2017-12-08 04.03.09] pdflatex report.tex
This is pdfTeX, Version 3.14159265-2.6-1.40.17 (TeX Live 2016) (preloaded format=pdflatex)
bookmark level for unknown defaults to 0.
The anchor of a bookmark and its parent's must not be the same. Added a new anchor.
Typesetting of "report.tex" completed in 1.0s.
./README.yml
35:81     error      line too long (1061 > 80 characters)  (line-length)
35:1060   error      trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
65:22     error      no new line character at the end of file  (new-line-at-end-of-file)
```

```
=====
```

```
Compliance Report
```

```
=====
```

```
name: Ashley Miller
hid: 329
paper1: 100% Oct 22
paper2: 100% Nov 6
project: 100% Dec 4
```

yamlcheck

wordcount

13

```
wc 329 project 13 8880 report.tex
wc 329 project 13 9296 report.pdf
wc 329 project 13 1750 report.bib
```

find "

32: The customer experience journey has been largely explored from a psychological and behavioral standpoint \cite{Stoicescu2015}.

Dating back to the near 1800s, marginal and expected utility of actions were detailed by Nicholas Bernoulli, among others, to better understand how purchasing decisions were made \cite{Stoicescu2015}. From related work that followed in this field of studying behavioral economics, research has shown that purchasing decisions are not linear and at times, are not even rational as cognitive, emotional, and social factors can all play a role into how a customer makes a purchasing decision \cite{Stoicescu2015}. As described by Stoicescu, the reason why researchers started to study purchasing behavior was due to the "diversification of need" \cite{Stoicescu2015}.

53: The way \textit{customer experience journey} is defined can differ by industry, product, and even by place. While past work has defined the customer experience journey as the process of purchasing a product or service, in today's landscape, it has become more than that. The Harvard Business Review would define the customer experience journey as the "sum-totality of how customers engage with your company or brand, not just in a snapshot of time, but throughout the entire arc of being a customer" \cite{Richardson2010}. Traditionally, the customer experience journey and buying process were used interchangeably where a customer moves through a decision making process. Some key areas that were highlighted in a typical customer experience journey include:

86: While advertising and marketing methods go as far back as the 1800s where customer lists were used to determine how individuals could be influenced via direct mailing efforts, digital marketing

has only come to be with the creation of the internet \cite{Couldry2014}. The internet has created opportunity for brands to directly connect with customers and likewise, for customers to engage with brands in a myriad of ways in the digital space \cite{Edelman2010}. While varying definitions of digital marketing exist, it is often categorized as a subset of traditional marketing where the “use of digital technologies create an integrated, targeted, and measurable communication” to not only attract potential customers but engage with current ones for retention and loyalty purposes \cite{Grishikashvili2014}. Digital marketing became even more prevalent in the 2000s as companies such as Google, Yahoo, and Facebook provided opportunity to deliver ads at an individual level based on demographic and behavioral characteristics \cite{Couldry2014}. Other data collection firms offered the ability to track users across the web space to see which pages were viewed, clicked, and time explored to help further understand the experience of a customer across the web space \cite{Couldry2014}. With these advances in technology and understanding, the customer experience journey began to also transform along with the changes in advertising from traditional to more digital.

- 91: One could argue that marketing data has been \textit{big} for quite some time given the sheer number of people exposed to efforts typically exceeds millions \cite{Couldry2014}. However, what has changed in this space is marketing’s increased use of digital technologies to reach potential customers in the digital landscape across various channels including search, display, social media, email, etc. \cite{Kannan2017}. For companies to be successful in utilizing big data to inform digital marketing efforts and to better track and enhance the customer experience journey, incorporating the necessary technologies and talent is a must along with shifting the organizational culture to making data driven decisions \cite{Grishikashvili2014}. This process can be difficult as an individual user alone can generate “billions of data signals” and attempting to understand which ones may be tied directly to a product or brand’s marketing efforts can be a daunting and overwhelming task \cite{Couldry2014}. However, there are a few well-known companies that have started the shift in tracking the customer experience journey through big data analytics and applications. We will examine key industries that have leveraged this knowledge and insight to better understand and enhance their relationship with customers.

- 107: eBay is a website that also started in 1995 which offered a unique opportunity to bring together buyers and sellers in the

online space \cite{Ebay2017}. Sellers could place their items online where buyers could potentially place bids, similar to if they participated in a live auction, where the item may go to the highest bidder. This allowed for others around the globe to connect and purchase items directly from another person while paying for the item through online methods. It is estimated today that there are nearly 180 million buyers and sellers and nearly 250 million search inquiries made per day on eBay \cite{Lui2012}. Like Amazon, eBay seeks to understand and tailor the online experience for customers through the use of big data in a multitude of ways as eBay itself states "understanding the customer is key" \cite{Sararn2014}. Various methods utilized to better understand and tailor the customer experience journey include:

- 110: \item \textbf{Web Page Metrics to Inform Layout}: It is estimated that among eBay customers, there is "100 million hours of interactions collected per month" \cite{Sararn2014}. Through an extensive number of experiments and A/B testing, eBay is able to optimize the web experience for customers. From their big data analytics, they can find preferred layouts of web pages which can customize anything from navigation feature to the size of photos displayed on the screen \cite{Akter2016}.
- 146: As others have stated about healthcare related data and reporting, "the problem in healthcare is not lack of data, but the unstructured nature of its data" \cite{Marr2016b}. Apixio, a cognitive computing firm based in California, wanted to take on the challenge of making unstructured healthcare related data available and easier to use in order to better aid decision making in patient treatment \cite{Marr2016b}. Their work involved taking clinical charts of patients and combining them with notes from physicians, test results, and even hospital stays to develop a more complete picture about an individual \cite{Marr2016b}. From there, Apixio was able to provide benefits based on this big data process:
- 165: Caesars has described their customer relationship optimization process as utilizing a "data-driven and closed loop approached to deliver a personalized experience" \cite{Welch2012}. A few ways they have implemented this include:
- 185: In just one day's time, it is estimated that there are nearly 42,000 commercial flights and 2.5 million passengers \cite{Administration2017}. From purchasing a ticket, to taking a flight, and (hopefully) receiving their checked baggage at their

final destination, airlines collect a wealth of information on their customers throughout their flying experience \cite{Noyes2014}. When looking at key attributes that are analyzed and down to an individual level, airlines collect information about purchase history, arrival, departure cities, and dates, in-flight food choices, connecting cities, travel companions, as well as miles and credit card points earned and used \cite{Exastax2017}. While airlines have succeeded in collecting this data, using it to better enhance the customer experience journey is still a work in progress \cite{Noyes2014}. Those who work in the travel software environment and frequently provide products and services to those in the airline community to better understand their data even state they have "not seen a single major airline with an integrated big data business solution" \cite{Noyes2014}. With that in mind, highlights from major airline players are explored even though full development of utilizing big data may still be on-going in this industry.

- 202: These examples are a select few to showcase how companies can better understand and further the customer experience journey by leveraging big data. The average customer is presented with more choices today than ever before \cite{Meyer2007}. With this, companies today have to be more strategic to get the attention, time, and loyalty of customers to remain in the marketplace. Doing so can provide many advantages to both companies and customers as they utilize big data to better understand the customer experience. As Rawson et al state: "companies that excel in delivering journeys tend to win in the market" \cite{Rawson2013}. Trends presented showcase how big data can provide big benefit:
- 205: \item \textbf{Retention of Customers}: It is estimated that "acquiring a new customer can be between five and 25 times more expensive than retaining an existing one" \cite{Gallo2014}. Utilizing big data to predict when customers may close accounts can help to inform company efforts and ultimately prevent potential revenue loss if they can keep existing customers. American Express showed that by using big data and predictive analytics, the company could identify these customers sooner versus wait until the customer is already lost.
- 217: \item \textbf{Consumer Behavior Volatility} Not all decisions made by customers are rational ones and there can be a variety of factors in play that big data can not track \cite{Stoicescu2015}. As further detailed in other work "people do not behave like robots," so even when all the variables are optimized, outside

forces beyond the control of a company could influence choice along with a customer's own emotions which big data doesn't always include \cite{Richardson2010}.

passed: False

find footnote

passed: True

find input{format/i523}

4: \input{format/i523}

passed: True

find input{format/final}

passed: False

floats

34: However, with diversification also comes complexity. The more choices a customer is given, the harder it can become for them to make a decision \cite{Stoicescu2015}. With every product choice, there also is an opportunity for interaction or \textit{touchpoints} along this customer experience journey \cite{Meyer2007}. These series of touchpoints can occur through a variety of ways and the time frame in which they take place can also vary greatly by the product or service being offered and to which audience. In figure \ref{f:Customer Experience Journey} example of a customer setting up utilities after the purchase of a new home and the multiple touchpoints they may encounter along their journey \cite{Rawson2013}.

36: \begin{figure}[ht!]

37: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{example.jpg}

38: \caption{Customer Experience Journey Touchpoints}\label{f:Customer Experience Journey}

41: However, not all touchpoints are created equal \cite{Meyer2007}. There are some touchpoints that every customer may have to go through to get to the next step in the process and others that will produce a more valuable action, such as a purchase

\cite{Meyer2007}. There are further questions today that did not exist in years past due to the advances in technology and how that affects customer behavior \cite{Kannan2017}. These advances in technology not only could influence customer behavior but also provide companies direction on which products they should produce, where these products should be placed, what price point is most optimal and how should they properly promote a particular product to their audience \cite{Kannan2017}. Big data and analytics can provide opportunity to inform the promotional piece as companies have utilized this feature to provide personalized and relevant content along the customer journey as defined in figure \ref{f:Customer Journey} \cite{Stoicescu2015}.

43: \begin{figure}[ht!]

44: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{customerjourney.jpg}

45: \caption{Customer Experience Journey}\label{f:Customer Journey}

69: While the list of questions could be endless the intent is to move customers through this purchase decision process so companies create loyal customers and advocates \cite{Kannan2017}. However, that model is evolving with the shift to a multi-prong outreach approach via digital and non-digital methods \cite{DeAsi2017}. A longer customer experience journey is outlined in figure 1 as a customer can enter at any stage in the process. Pre and post purchase measures can be collected, stored, and analyzed at any point along the way as shown in figure \ref{f:Digital Marketing} \cite{DeAsi2017}.

71: \begin{figure}[ht!]

72: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{digitalmarketing.jpg}

73: \caption{Digital Marketing Customer Stages Model}\label{f:Digital Marketing}

figures 3
tables 0
\includegraphics 3
labels 3
refs 3
floats 3

True : ref check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
True : label check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
True : include graphics passed: (figures >= \includegraphics)
True : check if all figures are referred to: (refs >= labels)

Label/ref check

68: While the list of questions could be endless the intent is to move

customers through this purchase decision process so companies create loyal customers and advocates \cite{Kannan2017}. However, that model is evolving with the shift to a multi-prong outreach approach via digital and non-digital methods \cite{DeAsi2017}. A longer customer experience journey is outlined in figure 1 as a customer can enter at any stage in the process. Pre and post purchase measures can be collected, stored, and analyzed at any point along the way as shown in figure \ref{f:Digital Marketing} \cite{DeAsi2017}.

passed: False -> labels or refs used wrong

When using figures use columnwidth
[width=1.0\columnwidth]
do not change the number to a smaller fraction

find textwidth

passed: True

below_check

bibtex

label errors

bibtex errors

This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib

bibtex_empty_fields

entries in general should not be empty in bibtex

```
find ""
```

```
passed: True
```

```
ascii
```

```
=====
```

```
The following tests are optional
```

```
=====
```

```
Tip: newlines can often be replaced just by an empty line
```

```
find newline
```

```
passed: True
```

```
cites should have a space before \cite{} but not before the {
```

```
find cite {
```

```
passed: True
```

IoT Application Using MQTT and Raspberry Pi Robot Car

Arnav Arnav

Indiana University Bloomington
Bloomington, Indiana 47408, USA
aarnav@iu.edu

ABSTRACT

As the number of connected edge devices increases there is a need for fast communication between these devices, and to analyse the data collected by these devices, which is made possible by the use of a scalable lightweight communication protocol such as MQTT, which is easy to use, data agnostic, and application independent. We look at one such application of the protocol, to control a robot car remotely, over wireless network, navigating with the help of a raspberry pi camera on the car.

KEYWORDS

i523, HID201, Edge Computing, Raspberry Pi, MQTT, Robot Car, IoT

1 INTRODUCTION

As the number of edge devices increases, and sensor networks become more and more common in Internet of Things (IoT) applications, the need arises to allow these resource constrained devices to communicate with each other in a power efficient and secure manner. In many cases these devices may not be able to process traditional HTTP requests efficiently, and as the number of devices increases, sending an HTTP request to each of the devices in order to get data may not be efficient [3][10].

Message Queue Telemetry Transport (MQTT) is a lightweight machine to machine (M2M) messaging protocol, that uses a client/server based publish/subscribe model and is ideal for IoT applications. The protocol has been designed on top of TCP/IP protocol for us in situations where network bandwidth and available memory are limited [38][21]. The Eclipse Paho Project currently provides support for MQTT [5]. MQTT clients are available for various languages like Python, C, and Lua.

We look at one such application here that uses MQTT for communication between a raspberry pi and a desktop. The raspberry pi controls the stepper motors of the robot car according to the message it receives over mqtt, and drives the car accordingly. Another program running on the raspberry pi uses the raspberry pi onboard camera to capture pictures and send them back to the desktop to help in navigation. Thus we create a simple robot car that can be used remotely for monitoring purposes. The robot car can be controlled from anywhere in the world, as long as both the controlling device (desktop) and the raspberry pi can connect to the MQTT broker.

We can use multiple such cars and controlling devices to control the cars independently or from a common device to drive multiple cars together, thus controlling a swarm of cars. As these cars may be using different platforms like raspberry pi or arduino, Using MQTT allows us to write the controller program independent of the subscriber programs running on the different robot cars and

even in different languages. All that is needed to control a car is that the subscriber can understand the messages sent by the controller.

2 RELATED WORK

There have been many edge computing applications that involve robot cars or swarm of cars.

[27] provides an example of a raspberry pi car that uses distance sensor, and face detection on the raspberry pi 2. The car is controlled over wifi and is built using the GoPiGo robot car kit [13]

Zheng Wang used raspberry pi in [37] to build a sophisticated self driving car that can detect stop signs and traffic signals and drive appropriately on a small test track. The car has a camera and a distance sensor that stream data to a TCP server running on a desktop. The system uses Haar Cascades provided in opencv to detect objects like stop signs and traffic signals and a trained neural network which uses the image to predict the direction in which the car should move. The distance is calculated using the image from the raspberry pi camera with the help of a monocular vision method proposed by Chu, Ji, Guo, Li and Wang in 2004 [15].

As the part of Eclipse IoT open challenge [2] built a robot car that is controlled using the Constrained Application Protocol (CoAP) which snaps images and communicates the images over MQTT

OpenHAB provides a vendor neutral platform that allows users to integrate various home automation systems and provides an application interface to control those devices [24]. It allows integration of various devices with MQTT.

The FloodNet project at University of Southampton [11] aims at "providing a pervasive, continuous embedded monitoring presence". The system is intelligent and obtains "environmental self-awareness and resilience to ensure robust transmission of data", ensuring data quality and allowing exploration of environments in new ways. The project uses MQTT for communicating data from the sensors on field to visualization and simulation applications.

As a part of IBM's Extreme Blue projects, Say it Sign it [31] is a sophisticated, innovative speech to sign language translation system. The application uses speech recognition and renders an avatar that signs the corresponding words in British sign Language, using MQTT and microbroker for communication.

3 TECHNOLOGIES AND HARDWARE

The project uses MQTT to communicate between a controller running on a desktop and a raspberry pi that drives the robot car with the help of stepper motors. We describe these technologies in detail.

3.1 MQTT

MQTT works via a publish-subscribe model that contains 3 entities: (1) a publisher, that sends a message, (2) a broker, that maintains

queue of all messages based on topics and (3) multiple subscribers that subscribe to various topics they are interested in [28].

This allows for decoupling of functionality at various levels. The publisher and subscriber do not need to be close to each other and do not need to know each others identity. They need only to know the broker, as the publisher and the subscribers do not have to be running either at the same time nor on the same hardware [18].

MQTT implements a hierarchy of topics that are related to all messages. These topics are recognised by strings separated by a forward-slash (/), where each part represents a different topic level. This is a common model introduced in file systems but also in internet URLs.

A topic looks therefore as follows: *topic-level0/topic-level1/topic-level2*.

All subscribers subscribe to different topics via the broker. Subscribing to *topic-level0* allows the subscriber to receive all messages that are associated with topics that start with *topic-level0*.

This is different from traditional message queues as the message is forwarded to multiple subscribers, and allows for a more flexible approach with the help of topics [18]. The basic steps in an MQTT client application include connecting to the broker, subscribing to some topics, waiting for messages and performing the appropriate action when a certain message is received [38].

MQTT allows the publisher and subscriber to respond to messages with the help of callbacks that are executed on different events, in a non-blocking manner. The paho-mqtt package for python provides callbacks methods like `on-connect()`, `on-message()` and `on-disconnect()`, which are fired when the connection to the broker is complete, a message is received from the broker, and when the client is disconnected from the broker respectively. These methods are used in conjunction with the `loop-start()` and `loop-end()` methods which start and end an asynchronous loop that listens for these events and fires the relevant callbacks, allowing the clients to perform other tasks [6].

MQTT has been designed to be flexible and options are provided to easily change the quality of service (QoS) as required by the application. Three basic levels of QoS are supported by the protocol, Atmost-once (QoS level 0), Atleast-once (QoS level 1) and Atmost-once (QoS level 2) [19][6].

The QoS level of 0 can be used in applications where some dropped messages may not affect the application. Under this QoS level, the broker forwards a message to the subscribers only once and does not wait for any acknowledgement [19] [6].

The QoS level of 1 can be used in situations where the delivery of all messages is important and the subscriber can handle duplicate messages. Here the broker keeps on resending the message to a subscriber after a certain timeout until the first acknowledgement is received. A QoS level of 2 should be used in cases where all messages must be delivered and no duplicate messages should be allowed. In this case the broker sets up a handshake with the subscriber to check for its availability before sending the message [19] [6].

The MQTT specification uses TCP/IP to deliver the messaged to the subscribers, but it does not provide any form of security by default to make it useful for resource constrained IoT devices. “It allows the use of username and password for authentication,

but by default this information is sent as plain text over the network, making it susceptible to man-in-the middle attacks” [26] [20]. Therefore, in sensitive applications some form of additional security measures are recommended which may include network layer security with the use of Virtual Private Networks (VPNs), Transport Layer Security, or application layer security [20].

Transport Layer Security (TLS) and Secure Sockets Layer (SSL) are cryptographic protocols that establish the identity of the server and client with the help of a handshake mechanism which uses trust certificates to establish identities before encrypted communication can take place [4]. If the handshake is not completed for some reason, the connection is not established and no messages are exchanged [20]. “Most MQTT brokers provide an option to use TLS instead of plain TCP and port 8883 has been standardized for secured MQTT connections” [26].

Using TLS/SSL security however comes at an additional cost. If the connections are short-lived then most of the time can be spent in the handshake itself, which may take up few kilobytes of bandwidth. In case the connections are short-lived, temporary session IDs and session tickets can be used to resume a session instead of repeating the handshake process. If the connections are long term, the overhead of the handshake is negligible and TLS/SSL security should be used [26][20].

Although MQTT protocol itself does not include authorization, many MQTT brokers include authorization as an additional feature [4]. OAuth2.0 uses JSON Web Tokens which contain information about the token and the user and are signed by a trusted authorization server [9].

When connecting to the broker this token can be used to check whether the client is authorised to connect at this time or not. Additionally the same validations can be used when publishing or subscribing to the broker. The broker may use a third party resource such as LDAP (lightweight directory access protocol) to look up authorizations for the client [9]. Since there can be a large number of clients and it can become impractical to authorize everyone, clients may be grouped and the authorizations may be checked for each group [4].

MQTT allows easy integration with other services, that have been designed to process this data.

Apache storm is a distributed processing system that allows real time processing of continuous data streams, much like Hadoop works for batch processing [1]. Apache storm can be easily integrated with MQTT as shown in [35] to get real time data streams and allow analytics and online machine learning in a fault tolerant manner [41].

ELK stack (elastic-search, logstash and kibana) is an open source project designed for scalability which contains three main software packages, the *elastic-search* search and analytics engine, *logstash* which is a data collection pipeline and *kibana* which is a visualization dashboard [7]. Data from an IoT network can be collected, analysed and visualized easily with the help of the ELK stack as shown in [33] and [32].

MQTT broker services can be utilized for enterprise and production environments. EMQ (Erlang MQTT Broker) provides a highly scalable, distributed and reliable MQTT broker that can be used in enterprise-grade applications [8].

3.2 Raspberry Pi

The raspberry pi is a credit card sized development board that was developed by Eben Upton with the goal to create a low cost device that can be used for education and prototyping [25]. Since its creation the board has been adapted for various different projects by educators hobbyists and in the industry [30]. The board is developed as open hardware except for the Broadcom chip that controls the main components of the board, and most raspberry pi projects are available openly with detailed documentation.

The board's Broadcom system on chip consists of an ARM processor and it can be used just like a normal computer by connecting a monitor, a keyboard and a mouse. The raspberry pi can communicate to other devices with the help of wifi and bluetooth and is capable of accessing the internet. All this put together makes the raspberry pi a very useful device [30].

The raspberry pi comes in various models, Model A+, which is one of the smallest form factors, raspberry pi2 Model B, raspberry pi3 Model B and Model B+ that have more gpio pins. The raspberry pi 3 Model B is the newest design and consists of on board wifi and bluetooth, eliminating the need to use usb wifi and bluetooth attachments. It has a 1.2 GHz ARM 8 microprocessor, 1 GB RAM, a dual core Videocore IV GPU, and 40 general purpose input and output (GPIO) pins. The board has an ethernet port and four USB ports and an HDMI port to connect to a monitor [17][16].

The raspberry pi Zero is the development board that has the smallest form factor. Even though the raspberry pi zero includes no ethernet or USB ports, and does not come with GPIO pins soldered on, its small size and cost effectiveness make it extremely useful in applications such as IoT where space is constrained [29].

The raspberry pi uses a micro SD card to boot and various operating systems, that support the ARM architecture can be used. The most common operating systems are Raspbian, a derivative of the Debian linux, and Pidora, a derivative of Fedora. There are other operating systems centered around using the raspberry pi for various purposes, like openELEC and RaspBMC, which make it easy to use raspberry pi as a multimedia center. For, users who want non-linux operating system, RISC OS may be a good choice. The raspberry pi foundation provides new users the opportunity to try out various operating systems with the help of their New Out Of The Box Software (NOOBS), which allows the users to pick which operating system they want to use [25].

Various different shields are available for the raspberry pi that make it simple to connect to various peripherals, and extend the functionality of the raspberry pi, such as the Grovepi shield, provided by Dexter Industries, which allows simple interface with many digital and analog sensors and actuators provided by Dexter.

3.3 Stepper Motors

Stepper motors are brushless motors that divide the complete rotation into a number of parts known as steps. The motor consists of electromagnetic coils and a rotating core that aligns itself according to the combined magnetic effect of the coils. The stepper motor can move from one step to another and remain in a single step based on which coils are turned on. The torque of the motor can be increased or decreased with the current supplied to the coils, and the speed

of rotation can be controlled by setting the time interval between switching the coils on and off [40].

Stepper motors can be controlled in various ways, depending on the application. Figure 1 shows how a stepper motor with a resolution of 90 degrees can be made to complete one full rotation. In practice however, the resolution (the degrees moved at each step) of most stepper motors is much higher. The process mentioned in figure 1 is known as half stepping [14].

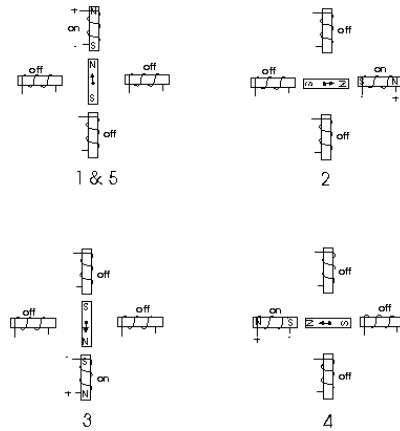


Figure 1: Working of a stepper motor : Full stepping using one coil at a time [14]

In the above method, only one coil is turned on at a time. This can be improved upon to get a higher torque. To get a higher torque, two adjacent coils are turned on at the same time, as shown in figure 2. This results in double the torque generated when using only one coil at a time [36].

With full stepping however, the transition between two consecutive steps is not very smooth. Therefore, a technique called Half stepping is used, where two adjacent coils are turned on similar to full stepping, but between two steps one of the coils is turned off, so that the transition between steps is smooth. This results in a torque 70 percent of that generated in using full stepping with two coils turned on at the same time. This process is shown in figure 3 [14].

For this project, the stepper motor 28BYJ-48, provided by Elegoo Industries is used. The motor is driven with the help of a ULN2003

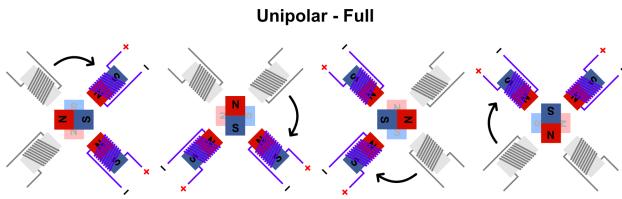


Figure 2: Working of a stepper motor : Full stepping using two coils at a time [36]

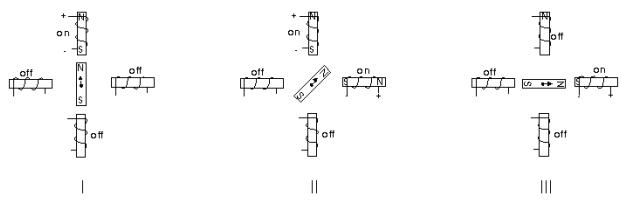


Figure 3: Working of a stepper motor : Half stepping [14]

motor driver. The motor is a unipolar stepper motor, with a five wire connection to the motor controller and can work with 5 and 12 Volts of DC power supply. When using Half stepping, the step angle of the motor is about 5.625 degrees per step, and when using full stepping the step angle is 11.25 degrees per step. The motor weighs 30 grams, and a gear ratio of 64:1 [12][34].

3.4 OpenCV

The Open Source Computer Vision library (openCV) is a library of functions aimed at real time computer vision and machine learning and providing a common infrastructure to allow fast progress in the field of computer vision and machine perception [39][22].

The library was originally build by Intel and is now maintained by Itseez and is available freely under open-source BSD License. The library was originally written for C++ but has been developed as cross platform library and supports Python , C++, MATLAB and Java [22]. for Python the library has been built on top of Numpy, a library that optimizes matrix and vector operations, and takes advantage of MMX and SSE instructions whenever possible. For C++ the library uses the Standard Template Library (STL) as its backbone.

The library has more than 2500 algorithms which include a combination of simple and advanced operations allowing a wide range of operations from edge detection, color detection to object detection, face detection and automatic video stabilization, and motion detection. The opencv-contrib which is an extention to the library built collaboratively by the community contains advanced algorithms that allow processing video in real time [22].

OpenCV is widely used in the industry by startups as well as well established organizations like Google, Yahoo, Microsoft, IBM and Intel [22].

Opencv can be used to detect faces in real time. The Haar cascades function in the library allows detecting any kind of objects.

The algorithm uses a series of simple classifiers to predict whether a given image has the desired object or not. After training on a large set of positive examples (images containing faces) and negative examples (images not containing faces), the algorithm learns various classifiers, that classify different sections of the image in a manner similar to Adaboost algorithm. Only the portions of the image that are promising are analysed further by more detailed classifiers. This allows the algorithm to run in real time, and detect multiple objects [23][42]. Once the classifiers are learned, they can be stored in an XML file which can be used to classify new images. This allows users to obtain XML files available openly for classifiers trained to detect the required object and use them in their programs. OpenCV provides XML files for classifiers trained to detect faces and eyes.

The performance of the Haar cascades suffers however, when detecting objects in new images that are present in a different orientation than the ones used to train the classifiers. The classifiers may also fail to differentiate between the object that needs to be detected and similar objects if enough negative examples are not shown while training that include similar objects.

4 ARCHITECTURE

The solution includes two entities the raspberry pi and the desktop, each running two programs. The raspberry pi is connected to the robot car and the raspberry pi can drive the robot car according to the message it receives from the desktop.

There are two programs running on pi, controller_stepper_sub.py and video_pub.py, and two programs running on the desktop, controller_pub.py and video_sub.py.

The programs on both the raspberry pi and the desktop connect to a common broker. The broker may be running on the desktop, or any other place, as long as the IP address of the broker is known. The IP address can be passed as a command line argument when running these programs.

The controller_pub.py program running on the desktop continuously reads characters from the user and publishes them to the broker under the topic *topic/control*. The subscriber controller_stepper_sub.py running on the raspberry pi waits for these messages from the broker and when a message is received it uses the *on_message()* callback to make the robot car move forward, move backward, turn left or turn right, using the half stepping technique described in the previous section.

For monitoring purposes, another program, video_pub runs on the raspberry pi. This program uses the raspberry pi on board camera with the help of the picamera module and captures images. The images are converted to greyscale, and opencv is used to perform face detection using Haar Cascades. If a face is found, a box is drawn around the face in the image. The image is published to the broker under the topic *topic/video_frames*. The video_sub.py program running on the desktop subscribes to this topic on the broker and displays the images received. These images can be used for the navigation of the robot car remotely figure 4.

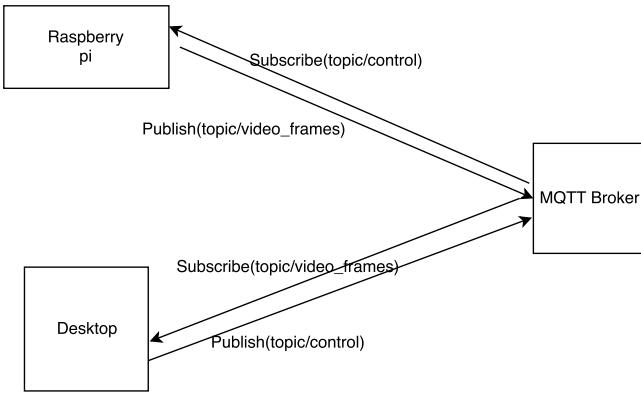


Figure 4: Architecture of the Application

Using separate programs allow changing the functionality or replacing different parts of the program easily, while keeping the interface same. the program, controller.py, can be used if continuous rotation servo motors are used instead of the stepper motors without changing any other part of the application.

The programs can be run easily with the help of a Makefile as described in the next section

5 RESULTS

This section covers the setup instructions for the project and the observations. The robot car that was built is shown in figure 5.

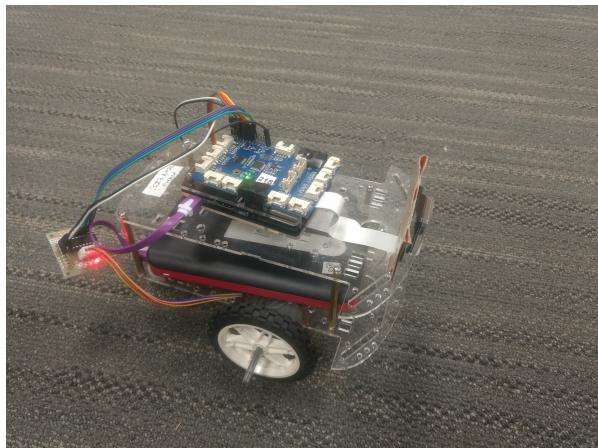


Figure 5: Raspberry Pi Robot Car

5.1 Setup Instructions

To run the application successfully on both the raspberry pi and the desktop, it must be ensured that all the required libraries are installed. A Makefile has been provided that can do this on both the raspberry pi and the desktop.

- First, the motors should be connected to the raspberry pi correctly. the program uses the raspberry pi GPIO pins , and

assumes that for the left motor, the pins IN1, IN2, IN3, IN4 are connected to GPIO pins 7, 11, 13, and 15, and for the right motor, they are connected to GPIO pins, 8, 10, 12, 16, as shown in the connection diagram in figure 6

- On the raspberry pi, dependencies for openCV need to be installed. Since the openCV is not available in pip for the arm processor in raspberry pi, we it must be installed from source. This takes a few hours on the raspberry pi. To complete the setup including installation of a MQTT client and opencv on the raspberry pi, clone the repository from github on the raspberry pi and navigate to the code folder, open the terminal and run the command
`make setup_pi`
- Next, install opencv and an MQTT client and MQTT broker on the desktop. For this, clone the repository from github, navigate into the code folder and run the command
`make setup_server`
- Note the IP address of the desktop so that we can connect to the MQTT server running on it. Connect the raspberry pi and the desktop on the same wireless network.
- To run the code on the desktop, run the command
`make run_server IP=[IP address of the MQTT broker]`
- Finally to run the code on the raspberry pi, run
`make run_pi IP=[IP address of the MQTT broker]`
- Now the raspberry pi car can be controlled by typing in W, A, S, or D keys on the desktop in the terminal where the program is running.
- The program can be stopped on both the raspberry pi and the desktop by running
`make kill`

5.2 Observations

It was observed that the communication between the raspberry pi and the desktop controller application is pretty seamless. The robot car responds without any observable delays when the network is strong. When the network is weak, however, some delays may be observed. The delay becomes more evident in the case of the images sent by the raspberry pi back to the desktop when the network is not strong.

Using the stepper motors, it is difficult to set how much a motor should turn when it receives a message. If the motor is not allowed to turn long enough, then between two messages the motor will be idle and if it is turned longer than the interval between two messages, there can be conflicts if in response to each of the messages the subscriber running on the raspberry pi tries to set a different step on the motor. Therefore, the movement can seem a little jerky at times.

However, this is not a problem with 360 degrees continuous servo motors. Since the continuous servo motors use pulse width modulation, the speed and direction of rotation can be controlled by sending a square wave with different duty cycles depending on the motor. Since, the motor can be stopped and started easily, there are no conflicts even if the motor is allowed to turn longer than the interval between two messages. However, the motor would respond to the two messages one after the other.

Thus the raspberry pi robot car can be successfully controlled over wifi using MQTT for communication

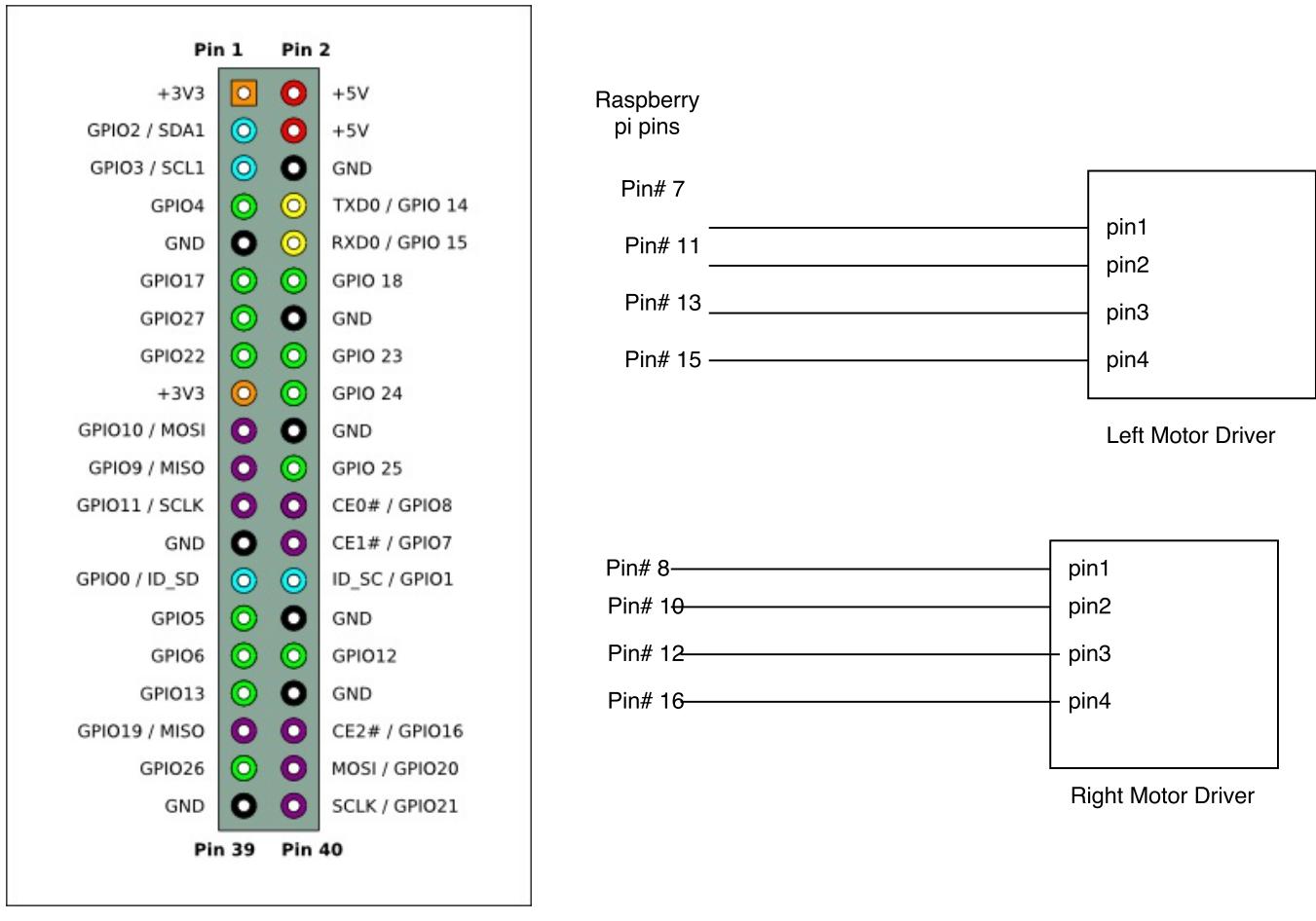


Figure 6: Connection Diagram

5.3 Improvements

The project can be improved in various ways. Firstly, even though the deployment with makefile is easy, installing opencv on raspberry pi takes around 4 hours. This can be avoided if we use docker for deployment on the raspberry pi. Two separate images would be needed however one for the processor on the desktop and another one for the arm 8 processor on the raspberry pi.

Machine learning can be incorporated, by collecting the images and the corresponding messages that were sent to the raspberry pi and use it to train a neural network, which could then be used to drive the robot car autonomously. This would be complicated however since car needs to be driven for a long time to get enough data for the neural network to perform well regardless of the surroundings.

Using Haar cascades for face detection leads to a problem that faces can be recognised only if they are present in the image in the same orientation as that in the training examples. Therefore, it is challenging to recognise all faces in all orientations since it is not possible to train the classifier on images of different faces

from all possible angles and rotations. A better option would be to Convolutional Neural Networks, that help in improving accuracy for the purpose of object detection. Since training and running neural networks may be computationally expensive, it would be a good idea to run it on a server and not on the raspberry pi.

Many different sensors could be added to help improve the monitoring capability of the car, and get more information about the environment. If many controlling devices and cars are present, the cars may be controlled in groups and other functionality added to behave as a swarm of cars to complete tasks collaboratively.

6 CONCLUSION

MQTT is a fast and reliable data agnostic and platform independent protocol that allows communication between devices. Raspberry pi is small but powerful development board that allows users to build prototypes easily and can be used in various applications because of the significantly powerful arm 8 microprocessor. OpenCV is an open source library for computer vision that is optimised to perform operations on images efficiently and is commonly used in computer

vision applications. All these technologies were used to build a robot car, controlled via MQTT over a wireless network. MQTT allows us to easily scale up the number of such cars if needed.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors would like to thank Dr. Gregor von Laszewski for giving the opportunity to work on this project and for providing the necessary hardware to complete the project.

The author would also like to thank the associate instructors of the class for their help and for answering questions on piazza which helped everyone.

REFERENCES

- [1] apache. [n. d.]. apache storm. apache storm website. ([n. d.]). <http://storm.apache.org/>
- [2] bitreactive. 2015. The Raspberry Pi Eclipse IoT Car. bitreactive website. (March 2015). <http://www.bitreactive.com/remote-controlled-raspberry-pi-car-part-3-2/>
- [3] Paul Caponetti. 2017. Why MQTT is the Protocol of Choice for the IoT. xively.com blog website. (august 2017). <http://blog.xively.com/why-mqtt-is-the-protocol-of-choice-for-the-iot/>
- [4] Ian Craggs. 2013. MQTT security: Who are you? Can you prove it? What can you do? IBM developer works website. (march 2013). https://www.ibm.com/developerworks/community/blogs/c565c720-fe84-4f63-873f-607d87787327/entry/mqtt_security?lang=en
- [5] eclipse. [n. d.]. mqtt broker. eclipse mosquitto website. ([n. d.]). <https://mosquitto.org/>
- [6] eclipse paho. [n. d.]. Python Client - documentation. eclipse paho website. ([n. d.]). <https://www.eclipse.org/paho/clients/python/docs/>
- [7] elastic.io. [n. d.]. ELK stack. elastic.io website. ([n. d.]). <https://www.elastic.co/products>
- [8] erlang mqtt. [n. d.]. erlang mqtt broker. wmqtt website. ([n. d.]). <http://emqtt.io/docs/v2/index.html>
- [9] hive mq. [n. d.]. MQTT Security Fundamentals: OAuth 2.0 & MQTT. hivemq website. ([n. d.]). <https://www.hivemq.com/blog/mqtt-security-fundamentals-oauth-2-0-mqtt>
- [10] hivemq. [n. d.]. intrawebsite mqtt. hivemq website. ([n. d.]). <https://www.hivemq.com/blog/mqtt-essentials-part-1-introducing-mqtt>
- [11] University of Southampton IAM group. 2005. FloodNet. IAM group website. (April 2005). <http://www.iam.ecs.soton.ac.uk/projects/297.html>
- [12] Elegoo Industries. 2017. Elegoo 5 sets 28BYJ-48 5V Stepper Motor and ULN2003 Motor Driver Board for Arduino. elegoo industries website. (2017). <https://www.elegoo.com/product/elegoo-5-sets-28byj-48-5v-stepper-motor-uln2003-motor-driver-board-for-arduino/>
- [13] Dexter Industries. 2017. GoPiGo Build and Program Your Own Robot. dexter industries website. (2017). <https://www.dexterindustries.com/gopigo3/>
- [14] Images Scientific Instrumentation. 2017. How Stepper Motors Work. imagesco.com website. (2017). <http://www.imagesco.com/articles/picstepper/02.html>
- [15] Chu Jiangwei, Ji Lisheng, Guo Lie, Wang Rongben, et al. 2004. Study on method of detecting preceding vehicle based on monocular camera. In *Intelligent Vehicles Symposium, 2004 IEEE*. IEEE, 750–755.
- [16] jwatson. 2016. Raspberry Pi Models Comparison Chart Poster. element14 community website. (June 2016). <https://www.element14.com/community/docs/DOC-82195/l/raspberry-pi-models-comparison-chart-poster-free-download>
- [17] makershed.com. 2016. Raspberry pi comparison chart. makershed.com website. (2016). <https://www.makershed.com/pages/raspberry-pi-comparison-chart>
- [18] Hive mq. [n. d.]. MQTT Essentials Part 2: Publish & Subscribe. HiveMQ website. ([n. d.]). <https://www.hivemq.com/blog/mqtt-essentials-part2-publish-subscribe>
- [19] Hive MQ. [n. d.]. MQTT Essentials Part 6: Quality of Service 0, 1 & 2. Hivemq website. ([n. d.]). <https://www.hivemq.com/blog/mqtt-essentials-part-6-mqtt-quality-of-service-levels>
- [20] Hive Mq. [n. d.]. MQTT Security Fundamentals: TLS / SSL. hive mq website. ([n. d.]). <https://www.hivemq.com/blog/mqtt-security-fundamentals-tls-ssl>
- [21] Mqtt. [n. d.]. Mqtt official website. mqtt official website. ([n. d.]). <http://mqtt.org/>
- [22] Opencv. 2017. About. opencv.org website. (2017). <https://opencv.org/about.html>
- [23] Opencv. 2017. Face Detection using Haar Cascades. opencv website. (August 2017). https://docs.opencv.org/3.3.0/d7/d8b/tutorial_py_face_detection.html
- [24] OpenHab. 2017. What is openHAB? openhab website. (November 2017). <https://www.openhab.org/introduction.html>
- [25] opensource.com. 2015. What is a Raspberry Pi. opensource.com website. (March 2015). <https://opensource.com/resources/raspberry-pi>
- [26] Todd Ouska. 2016. Transport-level security tradeoffs using MQTT. iot design website. (February 2016). <http://iotdesign.embedded-computing.com/guest-blogs/transport-level-security-tradeoffs-using-mqtt/>
- [27] pythonprogramming.net. 2014. Robotics with Python Raspberry Pi and GoPiGo Introduction. pythonprogramming.net. (April 2014). <https://pythonprogramming.net/robotics-raspberry-pi-tutorial-gopigo-introduction/>
- [28] random nerds tutorial. [n. d.]. What is MQTT and How It Works. random nerds website. ([n. d.]). <https://randomnerdtutorials.com/what-is-mqtt-and-how-it-works/>
- [29] raspberrypi.org. 2015. Raspberry Pi Zero: the 5 dollar computer. raspberrypi.org. (November 2015). <https://www.raspberrypi.org/blog/raspberry-pi-zero/>
- [30] raspberrypi.org. 2015. What is a Raspberry pi. raspberrypi.org website. (May 2015). <https://www.raspberrypi.org/help/what-%20is-a-raspberry-pi/>
- [31] IBM research. 2007. IBM Research Demonstrates Innovative ‘Speech to Sign Language’ Translation System. IBM website. (September 2007). <http://www-03.ibm.com/press/us/en/prssrelease/22316.wss>
- [32] smart factory. 2016. MQTT and Kibana fit! Open source Graphs and Analysis for IoT. smart factory website. (May 2016). <https://smart-factory.net/mqtt-and-kibana-open-source-graphs-and-analysis-for-iot/>
- [33] smart factory. 2016. Storing IoT data using open source. MQTT and ElasticSearch fit! Tutorial. smart factory website. (october 2016). <https://smart-factory.net/mqtt-elasticsearch-setup/>
- [34] Stan. 2014. 28BYJ-48 Stepper Motor with ULN2003 driver and Arduino Uno. 42 bolts website. (March 2014). <http://42bots.com/tutorials/28byj-48-stepper-motor-with-uln2003-driver-and-arduino-uno/>
- [35] Apache storm. [n. d.]. Storm MQTT Integration. Apache storm website. ([n. d.]). <http://storm.apache.org/releases/1.1.0/storm-mqtt.html>
- [36] Built to spec. 2015. Understanding Stepper Motors Part I fit! A Basic Model. built-to-spec.com website. (October 2015). <http://www.built-to-spec.com/blog/2012/04/09/understanding-stepper-motors-part-i-a-basic-model/>
- [37] Zheng Wang. 2015. Self Driving RC Car. Zheng Wang wordpress website. (August 2015). <https://zhengludwig.wordpress.com/projects/self-driving-rc-car/>
- [38] Wikipedia. 2017. MQTT – Wikipedia, The Free Encyclopedia. (November 2017). <https://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=MQTT&oldid=808683219> [Online; accessed 6-November-2017].
- [39] Wikipedia. 2017. OpenCV – Wikipedia, The Free Encyclopedia. (2017). <https://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=OpenCV&oldid=811519079> [Online; accessed 4-December-2017].
- [40] Wikipedia. 2017. Stepper motor – Wikipedia, The Free Encyclopedia. (2017). https://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=Stepper_motor&oldid=811220740 [Online; accessed 4-December-2017].
- [41] Wikipedia. 2017. Storm (event processor) – Wikipedia, The Free Encyclopedia. (2017). [https://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=Storm_\(event_processor\)&oldid=808771136](https://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=Storm_(event_processor)&oldid=808771136) [Online; accessed 6-November-2017].
- [42] Wikipedia. 2017. ViolaJ?Jones object detection framework – Wikipedia, The Free Encyclopedia. (2017). <https://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=Viola%20%28%20%29Jones.object.detection.framework&oldid=808683512> [Online; accessed 4-December-2017].

```
bibtext report
```

```
=====
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
Warning--empty year in apache-storm
Warning--empty year in eclipse-mosquitto
Warning--empty year in python-paho-mqtt
Warning--empty year in elk-stack
Warning--empty year in erlang-mqtt-broker
Warning--empty year in hivemq-security-oauth
Warning--empty year in hivemq-website
Warning--empty publisher in monocular
Warning--empty address in monocular
Warning--empty year in hivemq-details
Warning--empty year in hivemq-qos
Warning--empty year in mqtt-sec-ssl
Warning--empty year in mqtt-official
Warning--empty year in how-mqtt-works
Warning--empty year in apache-storm-mqtt
(There were 15 warnings)
```

```
bibtext _ label error
```

```
=====
bibtext space label error
```

```
=====
bibtext comma label error
```

```
=====
latex report
```

```
=====
[2017-12-08 03.59.29] pdflatex report.tex
This is pdfTeX, Version 3.14159265-2.6-1.40.17 (TeX Live 2016) (preloaded format=pdflatex)
Missing character: ""
Missing character: ""
Missing character: ""
Missing character: ""
```

```
Typesetting of "report.tex" completed in 0.9s.  
./README.yml  
69:1      error      too many blank lines (1 > 0)  (empty-lines)
```

```
=====  
Compliance Report  
=====
```

```
name: Arnav, Arnav  
hid: 201  
paper1: 20th Oct 2017 100%  
paper2: 100%  
project: 100%
```

```
yamlcheck
```

```
-----  
  
wordcount
```

```
7  
wc 201 project 7 4876 report.tex  
wc 201 project 7 5266 report.pdf  
wc 201 project 7 1780 report.bib
```

```
find "
```

```
-----  
passed: True
```

```
find footnote
```

```
-----  
passed: True
```

```
find input{format/i523}
```

```
-----  
passed: False
```

```
find input{format/final}
```

4: \input{format/final}

passed: True

floats

228: Figure \ref{f:stepper1} shows how a stepper motor with a resolution of 90 degrees can be made to complete one full rotation. In practice however, the resolution (the degrees moved at each step) of most stepper motors is much higher. The process mentioned in figure \ref{f:stepper1} is known as half stepping \cite{stepper1}.

230: \begin{figure}[!ht]

231: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/stepper1.pdf}

232: \caption{Working of a stepper motor : Full stepping using one coil at a time \cite{stepper1}}\label{f:stepper1}

235: In the above method, only one coil is turned on at a time. This can be improved upon to get a higher torque. To get a higher torque, two adjacent coils are turned on at the same time, as shown in figure \ref{f:stepper2}. This results in double the torque generated when using only one coil at a time \cite{stepper2}.

237: \begin{figure}[!ht]

238: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/stepper2.pdf}

239: \caption{Working of a stepper motor : Full stepping using two coils at a time \cite{stepper2}}\label{f:stepper2}

242: With full stepping however, the transition between two consecutive steps is not very smooth. Therefore, a technique called Half stepping is used, where two adjacent coils are turned on similar to full stepping, but between two steps one of the coils is turned off, so that the transition between steps is smooth. This results in a torque 70 percent of that generated in using full stepping with two coils turned on at the same time. This process is shown in figure \ref{f:stepper3} \cite{stepper1}.

244: \begin{figure}[!ht]

245: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/stepper3.pdf}

246: \caption{Working of a stepper motor : Half stepping \cite{stepper1}}\label{f:stepper3}

276: For monitoring purposes, another program, video_pub runs on the raspberry pi. This program uses the raspberry pi on board camera with the help of the picamera module and captures images. The images are converted to greyscale, and opencv is used to perform

face detection using Haar Cascades. If a face is found, a box is drawn around the face in the image. The image is published to the broker under the topic {\em topic/video_frames}. The video_sub.py program running on the desktop subscribes to this topic on the broker and displays the images received. These images can be used for the navigation of the robot car remotely figure \ref{f:arch}.

```
278: \begin{figure}[!ht]
279: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/architecture.pdf}
280: \caption{Architecture of the Application}\label{f:arch}
287: This section covers the setup instructions for the project and
the observations. The robot car that was built is shown in figure
\ref{f:car1}. %and figure \ref{f:car2}
289: \begin{figure}[!ht]
290: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/car1.pdf}
291: \caption{Raspberry Pi Robot Car}\label{f:car1}
295: \% \begin{figure}[!ht]
296: %
\centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/car2.pdf}
297: \% \caption{Raspberry Pi Robot Car}\label{f:car2}
308: \ref{f:connection}
311: \centering\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{images/connection.pdf}
312: \caption{Connection Diagram}\label{f:connection}
```

figures 6
tables 0
includegraphics 7
labels 7
refs 6
floats 6

```
True : ref check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
False : label check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
False : include graphics passed: (figures >= includegraphics)
False : check if all figures are referred to: (refs >= labels)
```

Label/ref check
passed: True

When using figures use columnwidth
[width=1.0\columnwidth]
do not change the number to a smaller fraction

find textwidth

311: \centering\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{images/connection.pd
f}

passed: False

below_check

WARNING: figure and above may be used improperly

235: In the above method, only one coil is turned on at a time. This can be improved upon to get a higher torque. To get a higher torque, two adjacent coils are turned on at the same time, as shown in figure \ref{f:stepper2}. This results in double the torque generated when using only one coil at a time
\cite{stepper2}.

bibtex

label errors

bibtex errors

This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
Warning--empty year in apache-storm
Warning--empty year in eclipse-mosquitto
Warning--empty year in python-paho-mqtt
Warning--empty year in elk-stack
Warning--empty year in erlang-mqtt-broker
Warning--empty year in hivemq-security-oauth
Warning--empty year in hivemq-website
Warning--empty publisher in monocular
Warning--empty address in monocular
Warning--empty year in hivemq-details
Warning--empty year in hivemq-qos
Warning--empty year in mqtt-sec-ssl

```
Warning--empty year in mqtt-official
Warning--empty year in how-mqtt-works
Warning--empty year in apache-storm-mqtt
(There were 15 warnings)
```

```
bibtex_empty_fields
```

```
entries in general should not be empty in bibtex
```

```
find ""
```

```
passed: True
```

```
ascii
```

```
=====
The following tests are optional
=====
```

```
Tip: newlines can often be replaced just by an empty line
```

```
find newline
```

```
passed: True
```

```
cites should have a space before \cite{} but not before the {
```

```
find cite {
```

```
passed: True
```

```
[2017-12-08 04.02.22] pdflatex report.tex
This is pdfTeX, Version 3.14159265-2.6-1.40.17 (TeX Live 2016) (preloaded format=pdflatex
p.1 L32 : [WundergroundOverview2017] undefined
p.1 L32 : 'TotPages' undefined
p.2 L42 : [NEST2017] undefined
p.2 L42 : [NESTRReddit2017] undefined
Command \starttoc has changed. Check if current package is valid.
File 'RASP3_1.jpg' not found.
```

```
./report.tex:67: Package pdftex.def Error: File ‘RASP3_1.jpg’ not found.  
L67    :           \includegraphics[scale=.10]{RASP3_1.jpg}  
LaTeXError: Package pdftex.def Error: File ‘RASP3_1.jpg’ not found.
```

```
[2017-12-08 04.02.23] pdflatex report.tex  
This is pdfTeX, Version 3.14159265-2.6-1.40.17 (TeX Live 2016) (preloaded format=pdflatex  
./report.tex:None: Emergency stop.  
LaTeXError: Emergency stop.
```

The Intersection of Big Data and IoT

Peter Russell
Indiana University
petrusse@iu.edu

ABSTRACT

Big Data and IoT share a symbiotic relationship with one another that is leading to incredible innovations that were inconceivable just 18 years ago. As a result of this relationship, it has become easier than ever for individuals to customize and monitor various elements of their life if they choose to do so. A project is undertaken to demonstrate how accessible IoT has become to leverage Big Data analysis, how IoT and Big Data are being utilized together in some of the most interesting current use cases and how the technology will need to adapt in coming years.

KEYWORDS

i523, HID 334, Edge Computing, Raspberry Pi, IoT

1 INTRODUCTION

In 2020, it is estimated that 95 percent of electronics will contain IoT technology [41]. This technology, commonly abbreviated for the “Internet of Things”, is expected to be so pervasive due to how the technology is defined and how impactful it has already become.

At the highest level, IoT is intended to describe devices that collect and relay information via the Internet. This leaves IoT is broadly defined in the type of application, which could come in the form of a phone, vehicle, a home device like a thermostat or television, but the technology is rather specific in its intended application. That is, these devices are generally made to serve a single purpose and they are extremely adept at that function. In its most powerful applications, massive data sets are created from these individual IoT devices as they are synthesized together to meet a larger need, as we will see.

The specific purpose of an IoT device is what differentiates this emerging technology from traditional computers. With the exception of recent developments, which will be explored in depth, early IoT devices were not intended to do the heavy computing like a computer would do. However, with rapid advancements in computing power and speed, the line differentiating the two has begun to blur. It is this increase in computing power that has lead IoT and Big Data to have a cooperative relationship to create some of the most exciting technology that's available today.

The ability to collect and process more data has increased the utility of these devices as they're able to become more personalized, spurring tremendous growth recently, on the order of 30% annually. In 2017, it is expected to be the year that the number of IoT devices exceeds the number of people on Earth [18]. This personalization is not without consequence though, which will be discussed later, so the relationship between IoT and Big Data is still evolving.

To begin, we examine how the IoT came to be and continuously evaluate how it is integrated with Big Data. Then, a demonstrative project will be outlined to show the Big Data can be used in an IoT

device. Next, we discuss high level implementations of these technologies in modern use before discussing some of the challenges the industry is facing.

2 EMERGENCE OF IOT

Given the massive and recent popularity of IoT, it might be a surprise to some to learn that this concept has been around since 1999. The idea to have multiple, remote devices communicating with one another to gain insights to a single problems was originally conceived by Kevin Ashton as a solution to supply chain management [16]. At that point, the idea was ahead of its time as the internet was still gaining widespread adoption. However, as computing power and sensor costs have declined, IoT has become a main an indispensable aspect of most people's lives. One such example could be the integration of global positioning systems (GPS) into cellphones, which was introduced in just 2004, but has become a staple for nearly every phone released [50].

2.1 What Defines IoT?

Given the ascension of so many new technologies, it could be helpful to understand what technically constitutes an IoT device. This will be useful later when discussing the sample project undertaken and how these both relate to Big Data analysis.

As stated earlier, at a high level, IoT is meant to describe devices that use internal or external sensors to connect to the Internet. These sensors could come in the form of the well known types, such as Wi-Fi, Bluetooth or RFID, to the perhaps less widely known, such as NFC (Near Field Communication) or Zigbee [43].

For these IoT devices, the Internet allows them to be tremendously influential in the advancement of Big Data by virtue of the amount of data the devices are able to collect. Specifically, IoT allows its users to quantify the world around them in ways that were previously not possible. For corporations, this yields tremendous advantages when it comes to business planning or equipment monitoring. For example, the average wind farm can generate 150,000 data points *per second* and an engine turbine could give 500 gigabytes of data [28]. Additionally, for individuals, IoT enables people to monitor their activity on a daily basis through wearable fitness devices and customize their homes to save on energy consumption. It has been estimated the average household generates approximately 2,000 gigabytes of data a year and this is expected to increase five fold by 2020 [52]. As we will explore, this rapid increase is due in large part to the computing power of the individual devices, which allow for a greater volume of data to be collected. For example, if a person enjoys a simple bike ride and purchases the Garmin Edge 500 watch, on a single ride they are producing data across 61 different variables for statistics such as heart rate, elevation gained, cadence and output produced continuously for the duration of their ride [17].

3 IOT PROJECT

3.1 IoT Device

The Raspberry Pi 3 (Model B) was chosen as an example IoT device to demonstrate how these devices can be used to from Big Data analytics. The Raspberry Pi has drawn tremendous accolades for its initiative to get inexpensive, but powerful computing power into the hands of aspiring programmers and hobbyists. Equipped with 1GB of RAM, a 1.2GHz quad-core processor and Bluetooth/Wi-Fi capability, one can purchase the device for just \$35.

3.2 Description

The goal of this device is to create a personalized interface that gives the user a morning snapshot for relevant, important information to begin their day. As it relates to IoT, this project uses IoT technology through Wi-Fi to source the output of Big Data projects undertaken by others (ie. Google and Weather Underground as will be shown).

3.3 Implementation

For those unfamiliar with the Raspberry Pi, the initial setup could be somewhat intimidating the first time around. Specifically, the Raspberry Pi comes as a truly blank slate and to begin using it, one will need to write the OS, Raspbian, onto the Pi. Several tutorials are available online to get to the desktop, so in the interest of brevity, the discussion below will assume that the user has been able to successfully get the Pi operational and to the Linux prompt with Python installed to run the script.

The application was developed using Python, utilizing the Kivy package for GUI development, the requests and Beautiful Soup packages for the user location, news stories and sports scores along with Yahoo Weather/Weather Underground via the Weather package. Outside of these, standard Python library packages were used.

3.4 Results

As part of the display, a continuous running clock was added, which necessitated the application to be on a constant refresh. This was implemented successfully and at a relatively low cost with no significant delays. The total build of the application consumed 966,565 bytes with each refresh using just 1032 bytes. At the initialization of the program, the application uses the user's IP address to find their zip code to populate the local weather forecast and local news. For the weather, the user will get the current temperature with a high/low for the current day and each day in the five day forecast.

Additionally, as news stories are published to the WSJ news feed, they will be read into the application and refreshed. Stories are shown in chronological order along with their time stamp of publication and each is hyperlinked directly to the full story if the user wants more information.

3.5 Application to Big Data

One of the main benefits of IoT is synthesizing data across numerous platforms and data sources into a desired output. Our desired output is a one-stop interface with interesting information that can be displayed anywhere with an outlet, internet connection and monitor.

The various components of the monitor are only made possible by the creativity by the providers in solving difficult Big Data issues, such as the clustering of news (Google) and weather forecasting (Yahoo/Weather Underground). Each provider's relationship to Big Data is worth examination and will be the topic of the following sections.

3.6 Google News

3.6.1 Big Data Description. Google News has evolved into a central source of information for how a large share of the population receives its news. In fact, as a display of the trust that users place in Google to deliver the most information in the most efficient manner, it was found that users are more likely to trust a Google news headline than that same headline from the original source [26]. Additionally, 44% of users were found to read nothing more than the headlines [22]. This is a testament to their ability to simplify the universe of world news into succinct rankings.

Entering into its fifteenth year, Google News aggregates from 50,000 news sources worldwide across 30 different languages. In 2012, they reported the division was receiving 1 billion unique visits a week[4]. For reference, major individual news providers, such as CNN and the New York Times receive 125 million and 99 million unique visitors per month [3]. These statistics further demonstrate Google's successful navigation of the Big Data problem for news stories in the eyes of its users. It's relatively clear why this is an important Big Data problem, but one might be curious how they're able to effectively navigate the problem. Unfortunately, the full design from start to finish is a well kept secret, but pieces have been released and one can piece together a mosaic view of what might be going on under the hood. The decision to not disclose the techniques for ranking news stories is understandable, but it has been a lightening rod of controversy nonetheless. Some view the decision of Google's scoring as effectively acting as a censor for the internet while they maintain it is to keep the integrity of the algorithm so that news stories cannot be written purely for traffic, known as search engine optimization [12].

On the surface, one might question the economic value of Google News to the larger company since it is a free service for both users and providers. However, there is a tremendous amount to be gained in solving this Big Data problem. Even though Google does not show ads on its news site, it was estimated to generate spillover traffic into its search engine that leaves the News entity worth \$100 million in 2008 [60]. The current valuation is undoubtedly higher, but it remains undisclosed. So while there are profits to be made for Google in this quest, publishers of these stories have a tremendous amount of interest in this problem as well. Some providers don't believe content should be indexed to Google's search algorithm for free and Google should pay them for their investigative research. One such provider, who happened to be Germany's largest news source, decided to remove themselves from the index for two weeks. The results were devastating for the site as traffic through the site dropped by 40% [59]. It was a quick lesson in how critical positioning can be in the Big Data world of news aggregation.

3.6.2 Big Data Solution. Just as news is constantly evolving, so are Google's solutions to this Big Data problem. As we've seen recently, news aggregation services are under pressure to become

more intelligent on what news is shown in the hopes of preventing fake news from making it into the top results.

The technical specifics of what Google is implemented has largely been kept under wraps, but we did learn a few of the techniques and platforms in 2007. In at least the early versions, Google used MinHash, Probabilistic Latent Semantic Indexing and Covisitation to solve this Big Data. Specifically, these methods will compare historical clicks with other similar users for recommendations, decipher key words and phrases from an article for grouping and track how news stories are clicked within a certain time frame to find stories that were read successively. For processing these queries, Google uses MapReduce and Hadoop architecture [55].

For the inputs into these algorithms, Google will analyze several metrics of a provider to see how they should be ranked along with the user preferences. These metrics include things like how large the staff is, how many articles they put out, how many websites reference that news source (PageRank) and the breadth of news topics covered [15].

3.7 Weather Underground via Yahoo API

3.7.1 Big Data Description. Weather is a primary concern in business planning for many industries, such as airlines or agriculture. As a result, companies are willing to dedicate a tremendous amount of resources towards accurate forecasts. One of the most innovative companies and a great example of the intersection of IoT and Big Data is Weather Underground.

Weather Underground is a weather forecasting service that was once owned by the Weather Channel and recently, partially by IBM to integrate with its growing IoT ecosystem. What makes the company unique is how their forecasts are formulated. In their model, they couple traditional forecasting tools with IoT. The traditional readings come from the National Weather Service (NWS), which aggregates data from airports and weather balloons. IoT has lead to a new dimension of forecasting as personalized weather stations are distributed to its users for live forecasts in places that traditional instruments might not be available. As of now, they have 250,000 users set up on the platform. This setup provides an additional layer of information, yielding more frequent data, longer forecast windows and greater certainty for a given area. Namely, users can get new forecasts every 15 minutes (versus every 4 hours on the NWS) and forecasts up to two weeks in advance (compared to one week for NWS) [54]. This use of the IoT, specifically edge computing, which will be expanded on later, provides a tremendous example of how IoT can be used to enhance Big Data analysis.

For those that choose to participate in the service, they will purchase a Personal Weather Station (PWS) that allows them to measure temperature, humidity, pressure, rainfall, wind speed and direction via sensors. The major advantage of the PWS comes from its pressure and wind metrics as users can get a better idea of humidity and wind chill, giving a more accurate representation of current conditions. Neither of these are available through the NWS. In the end, this amounts to around 3 billion data points for the Weather Underground model, servicing around 26 billion inquiries a day [24].

3.7.2 Big Data Solution. To process its data in the past, which amounts to multiple terabytes daily, Weather Underground has

stored its forecasts, radar data and satellite data using Apache Hadoop and Amazon Web Services [47]. In fact, IBM has stated a large reason for their motivation to have an ownership stake in the company was due to the cloud infrastructure that Weather Underground had built for fielding the massive volume of requests and forecasts it processes daily.

3.8 Future Considerations

It is rather commonplace knowledge, for better or worse, that the apps we use daily are collecting data on us. This data aggregation is one of the main debates around IoT. Ironically, one of IoT's primary benefits makes it also one of the most unsettling for others, fearing how the data could be used in the wrong hands. In fact, in 2014, it was found that of the top 200 free apps in the Apple store, 95% were engaging in "risky behavior" [36]. These risky behaviors, which we will explore later, are defined as activities such as tracking locations, accessing users' contact lists or selling registration data to ad agencies.

In subsequent builds of this application, if the intention was distribute to a wider audience, collecting volunteered user data would be an interesting addition. Then, this data can be pooled together for how the application could be tailored to meet geographic or demographic preferences.

Additionally, as with most apps, we would be interested in tracking the number of downloads, active users and which panels of the display are clicked most often. All of these metrics can be readily accessed through integration with Google Analytics, which allows one to analyze different events within the application [20].

4 EDGE COMPUTING

With the Personal Weather Systems, we were able to see how IoT can complement Big Data analysis. This is an example of an emerging technology known as "edge computing" that is transforming how the cloud is utilized.

Edge computing gains its name from how the information being processed by the device. Prior to this recent innovation, information was gathered, sent to the cloud, processed there, and then the output is pushed back to the device. Namely, it was a centralized process. However, with edge computing, devices are more intelligent in what information they choose to send, providing a much more efficient process. For example, rather than having a camera monitor an area constantly, even when there is no motion, modern IoT cameras have been equipped with motion detection so information is only sent when there is something to actually record. Since this decision and processing is made on the actual device, it is considered to be at the *edge* of the network.

Traditionally, IoT devices that were intended to work in conjunction, such as surveillance cameras, were simple in their functionality and storage. Namely, a group of cameras would record individually and send their results back to a central server. However, with improvements in image quality, this becomes a Big Data problem very quickly as these cameras are running around the clock collecting footage. In the historical model of a centralized server, this setup eventually creates problems as bandwidth and storage issues emerge. These limitations are the problems that edge computing seeks to

circumvent and has become a major catalyst in the growth of IoT devices [51].

Circling back to the original project that was undertaken, the application benefited from edge computing through the weather data, but the device itself serves as a great example of why edge computing is even possible in the first place. Specifically, it is possible due to the dramatic decrease in computing costs. For the cost of \$10 one can get a single-board computer with 1 GHz and 512 MB RAM through the Raspberry Pi. This type of processing is close to becoming the majority as it is expected that by 2019, 45% of all data collected by IoT devices will be processed at the edge of the network [37]. As we will see, this technology is allowing early adopters to gain unique, real-time insights through Big Data analytics into the health and composition of their businesses.

4.1 Use Case: Fraud Detection

Fraudulent transactions represent just 1% of all transactions. However, while the relative size of these transactions to the overall market are small, their absolute impact is enormously detrimental to merchants and financial services companies. In 2015, total fraudulent transactions created damages of \$22 billion [29].

The economic impact of these transactions has given these companies a tremendous incentive to innovate their way out of this problem. The marriage of IoT and Big Data has now provided them the opportunity to have near real-time analytics, which is necessary to effectively manage the problem. This is because the approval process for a transaction needs to be as close to instantaneous as possible. If shortcuts are taken in the analysis to increase speed, fraudulent transactions could slip through and not get flagged. IoT has helped make this trade-off between accuracy and speed less of an issue with new innovations, such as Visa's Ready program.

Visa Ready is an innovative program enables payments through IoT for both security and convenience. Instead of traditional means of payment authorization, such as simply swiping your credit card at a vendor, IoT enables Visa to take advantage of improvements in biometric technology [57]. Visa has introduced multi-dimension verification through biometrics by letting users endorse a payment through their fingerprint, iris scan, face scan and even their voice [58]. This type of technology is gaining adoption and there are expected for be 500 million devices with biometric sensors by 2018 and 26 billion by 2020 [48].

Complementing biometric data, as IoT devices become more mainstream, companies such as FICO are using behavioral data in fortifying their analysis of whether a transaction is fraudulent or not. This type of analysis is not new in and of itself as it has been established as a way to identify e-commerce fraud, but the application through IoT is providing a new dimension of analysis. Traditionally, behavior data was tracked to see how a user interacts with a website to reduce the number of false positives that get flagged, which could occur if a user was on a business trip and abruptly logged into their account to buy something from an IP in another country [14]. With IoT, this adds a tremendous amount of data to an already Big Data problem. Now these companies will have data on how users interact with an IoT device, such as how they hold their device in the case of a phone or their tendencies when using the keyboard [25]. From a business perspective, this

all occurs in the background without the user's experience without the product being interrupted.

As a testament to the future of this relationship between IoT and Big Data, Visa has partnered with IBM. This was done in an effort to gain maximum benefit from this new biometric technology by leveraging Visa's payment infrastructure with IBM's efforts in artificial intelligence and Big Data analysis with IBM Watson [31].

4.2 Use Case: Autonomous Vehicles

In many ways, autonomous vehicles represent the pinnacle of edge computing to date in unifying IoT and Big Data. Among its many goals, this technology is trying to use Big Data to resolve one of the modern tragic realities of our modern world - automobile fatalities. Automobile accidents cause 1.2 million deaths a year, 94% of which are attributable to human error [30]. For this reason, in conjunction with expected energy savings from car designs with this technology, the technology is expected to experience adoption rates that rivals mobile phones with significantly more impact [23]. Traditional car makers have taken notice of the potential future and as an example of this, General Motors recently hired an Uber engineer to lead its self-driving initiative as the company's first ever Chief Technology Officer [5].

The relation of autonomous cars to IoT via edge computing is once again out of necessity for real-time functionality. A car that processes it should stop two seconds too late is as potentially useful as never making the calculation in the first place, so timing is of the utmost importance. Amazing progress has already been made in the speed and complexity of calculations these autonomous vehicles can handle. One of the highest profile graphic card manufacturers, Nvidia, recently announced their system for autonomous vehicles at the rate of 320 *trillion* operations a second [21]. Since these vehicles are equipped with various types of sensors to process its environment, this type of computing power is a near necessity to tackle this Big Data problem in real-time.

Kevin Ashton's original vision for the IoT was to have an accurate view of inventory as RFID scanners synced over the Internet. In just 18 short years, these autonomous vehicles are achieving the same end of communication with one another on an incredible scale. In what's known as "vehicle to vehicle communication" autonomous cars will be able to send one another information on important considerations, such as road hazards or conditions, allowing GPS to take the most optimal route to its destination. Similarly, speed limit signs can take weather conditions into account, dynamically adjust the speed limit of the road and relay this to the car's navigation system [1].

The companies that are pursuing autonomous driving are largely having the cars learn through the experiences of its sensors. It would be impossible to code every possible scenario a car could face, so instead, data is collected from the various sensors and loaded to the cloud for later analysis. For example, Tesla is accumulating a million miles worth of data across its sensors every 10 hours, leaving it with 780 million through mid-2016 [7]. These sensors on board, which will be briefly described to show their application, are expected to generate 4,000 gigabytes of data *daily* [38] [19]. This is another instance of the familiar union between IoT and Big Data.

4.3 Use Case: Health Care

The United States, like the world as a whole, is experiencing an aging crisis in its population. In both the world and the United States, the number of adults aged 65 and over is expected to double by 2025. In the United States, this demographic of the population will move from 15% to 25%. While this jump is not negligible, the most alarming aspect of this statistic is that in 2010, the elderly portion of the population was just 10%, but accounted for 34% of medical expenditures [34].

For this reason of high future expenditures, much of today's public policy debates center around how resources will be pooled to meet this not so distant future need. Currently, one of the most promising use cases for edge computing is coming from health care and how the technology can be used to provide better care to a wider range of people.

Through edge computing, doctors have the ability to gain insights into their patients through sensors that can be worn by their patients, such as a heart monitor. This allows for early identification of irregular patterns and allows for an earlier diagnosis, potentially saving the patient's life compared to earlier times when a heart attack could strike abruptly without warning. This usage is directly related to Big Data as doctors now can get continuous, real-time assessments of their patients. This makes way to more accurate future diagnoses as more insights can be gleaned between the true cause and effect of a particular ailment [42].

Outside of data analysis by doctors, the patients themselves are expected to receive numerous benefits from this type of monitoring. Namely, those who are less mobile no longer need to make a physical trip to see the doctor as the doctor has the diagnostics they typically need and at a much more granular level [6].

In addition to the elderly, this type of real-time feedback system through edge computing can be incredibly transformative for those with health conditions that require nearly continuous monitoring. One such example has been demonstrated with epileptic patients. An edge computing solution has been introduced that epileptic patients can use and if a patient experiences an epileptic episode, an immediate alert is sent to family members and doctors [53]. This type of technology is only possible through edge computing because the alerts are triggered by monitoring historical metrics versus live readings in areas like heart rate and sudden movements. The delay that would be incurred by sending this data to the cloud and waiting for a response would have too much latency to be an effective solution to this problem.

Another promising area for edge computing within health care is for those suffering from mental diseases, such as dementia or Alzheimer's. With this technology, family members can monitor and set alerts if a particular perimeter is breached from where their loved one is supposed to be staying [8].

4.4 Use Case: Retail Shopping

Worth \$2.6 trillion, the United States retail industry comprises 15% of national gross domestic product [13]. The ground is shifting underneath this industry though as brick and mortar stores are under siege from a surging market share by Amazon, which is up 150% since 2013.

These traditional stores still hold the top rankings in the retail sales by size, but the ability of Amazon to utilize Big Data for a personalized shopping experience online is forcing these top retailers to adapt with a competing level of customization. Amazon's recommendation engine allows them to see into a user's purchase history, viewing history, rating history and search history, which are all used to point the customer to the most likely product they're looking for. In fact, Amazon is even working on an IoT sensor that they intend will act as a personalized stylist. The device will take a picture of your outfit and make recommendations of what would look best, based on the recommendations of its algorithms that are supplemented by fashion stylists to reflect current trends [33]. As a result, IoT gives Amazon a level of scalability to its entire customer base to create more information and data about the customer that is simply not available to the brick and mortar stores.

To try and compete with this personalization though, brick and mortar retailers are using edge computing to introduce technology that was science fiction 15 years ago in the movie Minority Report. In the movie, which takes place in 2054, the main character is rushing through a busy shopping center when he passes various kiosks that address him by name and ask about his recent purchases in the store. This is the reality that retailers are now using through real-time facial recognition, enabled by edge computing to integrate IoT and Big Data. With this, they are also collecting broader demographic statistics by tracking customers' ages, ethnicity and gender [32]. In fact, America's largest retailer, Wal-Mart, is currently using facial technology to sense customer's moods and find those who are dissatisfied [40].

While we haven't quite hit the personalization depicted in Minority Report for the general public, those with celebrity can expect that high-end stores they visit will recognize them upon entry. For example, one such jewelry store in Los Angeles is equipped with facial recognition technology, stocked with a database of celebrity pictures from Google Images and when someone is recognized, an alert is sent to the manager with purchase history and sizes [46].

Outside of custom shopping, facial recognition is also being used by traditional stores to deal with a risk that e-commerce is not exposed to - shoplifting. With this technology, a retail store can identify when a known shoplifter is most likely to re-visit the store and when, which were previously unquantifiable. Once they are identified on site, management is sent an instant alert and the customer is escorted from the store to prevent further loss in the future [11]. Additionally, RFID sensors are being used on items individually to better track items outside of the store for loss prevention like this and better supply chain management [10].

5 CONCERN WITH IOT

As exciting as these use cases are about what the future might hold, innovation is outpacing legislation for IoT. As we will expand upon below, a race to release products has left consumers susceptible to hacking in some cases as security measures have not been fully developed yet for these devices. Additionally, with the customization that comes with IoT, consumer information is being sold to advertising agencies in many cases without the consumer's knowledge.

5.1 Security

While we have discussed some of the most exciting and interesting developments in IoT, this blistering pace of innovation has come at a price. There are experts in this field that believe the connectivity of these devices are a gateway of vulnerability as many IoT devices do not have sufficient security measures, allowing malicious actors direct access into some of people's most private details.

For most utilizing IoT, the technology is used to make their lives easier in some respect. However, when it comes to security, it is believed this approach of a "hands off" relationship with IoT leaves users susceptible to security breaches. Specifically, users need to be diligent in making sure their software is up to date across *all* devices. The reason for this is that with a large network of IoT devices, hackers now have multiple fronts on which they get behind the firewall whereas their only avenues traditionally were the computer and more recently, smart phones. As a result, negligence in one area could be enough of an opening for a comprised network where hackers could take control of a device, which is particularly worrisome in the case of an autonomous car.

Another dimension of risk for IoT security sits with the creators of this technology. Underlying in the assumption about users being diligent in updating their software to prevent breaches is that the developers of the software are actually making continuous updates to adapt along with hackers. However, as time goes on, new products are likely to draw a company's limited resources away from maintaining older products.

In response to these risks, two significant changes have been undertaken to mitigate some of the risks. Namely, companies have introduced automatic updates and used the same operating system across later models of a particular product. These automatic updates then take the burden off of the user of IoT technology, which is an attractive feature as many adopt the technology to simplify their daily life. Additionally, when companies are able to use the same underlying operating system across later products, they're able to update all products in lockstep with the developing security community, ensuring no older products are left behind as an opening behind the firewall [39].

Fortunately, these security concerns with IoT have largely played out in the hypothetical. In fact, surveys have found that the majority of consumers are unaware of IoT security risks and once made aware, do not consider the risks serious. In fact, surveyors even found that if a device had a known security flaw, 20% of consumers are still willing to buy the product [9].

For this reason, with no major attacks to date, adopters of IoT have possibly felt insulated as an overwhelming majority are not threatened by the security risks IoT could pose. This is not to insinuate that IoT attacks do not regularly happen, but instead that they have not occurred on the scale that some of the largest security breaches in recent years have occurred, such as the Target Corporation's incident in 2013. In that breach, 110 million consumer credit card numbers were stolen, along with personally identifying information like their address, e-mail and phone number. The entire episode was estimated to have cost Target \$162 million [2].

While an IoT originated attack like this has not happened yet on this scale, these attacks do occur with frequency. One such statistic demonstrating this unsettling fact is that half of all companies that

have adopted some element of IoT technology have experienced a security breach. In the end, these breaches have cost an average of 13% of annual revenue [45].

The closest demonstration of IoT risks came in October 2016 through the "Mirai" malware, which was used to attack DNS servers and bring down high traffic websites, such as Netflix and Amazon. Disturbingly, "Mirai" translates to "future" in Japanese. With Mirai, the program is continuously scanning the internet for IoT connected devices that have left the default user name and password. Then, once a device is found, it is turned into a bot that is used to amplify a DDoS attack. Incredibly, the average IoT device is scanned every two minutes with this bot, leaving an extremely small margin for error in being compromised [44].

This breach demonstrated the downside of the highly connected nature of IoT. Against the benefit of having devices that can communicate with one another, in the event of an attack, these devices are intertwined and will be equally compromised. The network of IoT devices has gotten so complicated for some companies that one survey found 66% of IT professionals aren't sure how many devices are in their environment [35].

5.2 Privacy

Naturally, one of the consequences of a security breach via an IoT device would be having personal information comprised. However, outside of this direct relationship, there are concerns on privacy as it relates to usage as laws are behind technology in how this data can be used. The only major pieces of legislation that concern privacy at the federal level are through HIPAA for medical records and the Fair Credit and Reporting Act. Outside of these, the task of regulating privacy is left to states, which are behind the curve in today's fast paced, data driven world.

In a similar conundrum as the security concerns with IoT, one of its greatest features in its ability to continuously monitor and collect this data into Big Data sets is also the reason some hold reservations on the technology. This is mainly due to the fact that this data is not collected into a central repository, like your credit, to see what information is being associated with you. To take it a step further, it is not even clear who has what data on a particular user.

In a shock to most on how little personal privacy may exist in our technology saturated world, it was discovered that the CIA and MI-5 intelligence agencies were using "smart" TVs to eavesdrop on conversations in people's homes. For security experts, this was no surprise and known to be an easily accessible device, but those outside of that community felt an invasion of privacy [49]. Discovered in 2016, the program was used in 2014 by exploiting the voice enabled features that Samsung included in its TVs to listen to conversations. The power button was even programmed to look as if the TV was off while this recording was happening [56].

While this spying was alleged to have just been on "people of interest", the average consumer with a smart TV has likely experienced spying they were unaware of through their viewing habits. By default, Vizio TVs were found to be recording their customers activities by logging metrics such as date, time, show, whether it was live or recorded and how long it was watched. This is estimated to have affected 11 million TVs in the end before the

FTC outlawed the practice of having these settings turned on by default [27]. This would be a utilization of IoT and Big Data that few would be comfortable forfeiting without their consent.

6 CONCLUSION

As we've seen, IoT cannot realize its full potential without Big Data. The IoT universe represents the senses by which Big Data is collected for later insights and innovations. For this reason, the IoT revolution has the potential to completely change the world as we currently know. It could be a world in which automobile accidents are no longer a tragic reality or a world where health care delivers the most personalized plan with attention on every minute detail. Additionally, users are able to benefit from the increase in computing power per dollar spent, allowing them more flexibility than ever to design their own IoT device, as was demonstrated in the application made for this paper. However, against this rapid pace of innovation in IoT, some of its most attractive features of interdependency among devices expose the technology to some of its greatest vulnerabilities. Keeping this growth rate in the products in step with security will prove to be one of the biggest challenges in coming years.

A CODE COMPILED AND SAMPLE OUTPUT

The following urls are intended to direct to various parts of the project.

- Packages required to compile the project along with sample input
 - <https://github.com/bigdata-i523/hid334/tree/master/project>
- Python code to create the monitor:
 - <https://github.com/bigdata-i523/hid334/blob/master/project/code/project.py>
- Weather codes:
 - <https://github.com/bigdata-i523/hid334/blob/master/project/weathercodes.py>
- Kivy file:
 - <https://github.com/bigdata-i523/hid334/blob/master/project/DailyView.kv>

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The author would like to thank Professor Dr. Gregor von Laszewski, Juliette Zerick and the other Associate Instructors for their support and suggestions in exploring this topic.

REFERENCES

- [1] Philip Adams. 2017. Why self-driving cars can't start without edge computing. Website. (07 2017). <https://knect365.com/cloud-enterprise-tech/article/b4751c4b-7b5d-4407-8789-420289799988/autonomous-cars-can-t-start-without-edge-computing>
- [2] Taylor Armerding. 2017. The 16 biggest data breaches of the 21st century. (10 2017). <https://www.csosonline.com/article/2130877/data-breach/the-16-biggest-data-breaches-of-the-21st-century.html>
- [3] Jeremy Barr. 2016. The New York Times Pulls Back Ahead of the Washington Post for Unique Visitors. Website. (02 2016). <http://adage.com/article/media/york-times-pulls-back-ahead-washington-post/302720/>
- [4] Krishna Bharat. 2012. Google News turns 10. Website. (09 2012). <https://blog.google/topics/journalism-news/google-news-turns-10/>
- [5] Johana Bhuiyan. 2017. GMfs self-driving division has hired a former top Uber engineer as its first CTO. Website. (11 2017). <https://www.recode.net/2017/11/30/16720994/gm-cruise-cto-susan-fowler>
- [6] Isaac Christiansen. 2017. The Internet of Things and the Evolution of Elderly Care. Website. (06 2017). <http://www.iotevolutionworld.com/smart-home/articles/432936-internet-things-the-evolution-elderly-care.htm>
- [7] Michael Coren. 2016. Tesla has 780 million miles of driving data, and adds another million every 10 hours. Website. (05 2016). <https://qz.com/694520/tesla-has-780-million-miles-of-driving-data-and-adds-another-million-every-10-hours/>
- [8] Reenita Das. 2017. 10 Ways The Internet of Medical Things Is Revolutionizing Senior Care. (05 2017). <https://www.forbes.com/sites/reenitadas/2017/05/22/10-ways-internet-of-medical-things-is-revolutionizing-senior-care/#5e01a7965c8f>
- [9] Gary Davis. 2017. A Cybersecurity Carol: Key Takeaways From This Year's Most Hackable Holiday Gifts. Website. (11 2017). <https://securingtomorrow.mcafee.com/consumer/consumer-threat-notices/most-hackable-gifts/>
- [10] Jim Donaldson. 2016. Why Retailers Are Turning To RFID For Loss Prevention. Website. (Aug. 2016). <https://www.mojix.com/retailers-rfid-loss-prevention/>
- [11] The Daily Dose. 2017. Stopping Shoplifters Goes High-Tech. Website. (June 2017). <http://www.ozy.com/fast-forward/stopping-shoplifters-goes-high-tech/78920>
- [12] Robert Epstein. 2016. The New Censorship. Website. (06 2016). <https://www.usnews.com/opinion/articles/2016-06-22/google-is-the-worlds-biggest-censor-and-its-power-must-be-regulated>
- [13] National Retail Federation. 2017. The Economic Impact of the U.S. Retail Industry. Website. (2017). <https://nrf.com/resources/retail-library/the-economic-impact-of-the-us-retail-industry>
- [14] FICO. 2017. Behavioral Analytics Attack Fraud, Cyber and Financial Crime. (04 2017). <http://www.fico.com/en/blogs/analytics-optimization/behavioral-analytics-for-fraud-cyber-and-financial-crime/>
- [15] Frederic Filloux. 2013. Google News: the secret sauce. Website. (02 2013). <https://www.theguardian.com/technology/2013/feb/25/1>
- [16] Arik Gabai. 2015. Kevin Ashton Describes the Internet of Things. Magazine. (01 2015). <https://www.smithsonianmag.com/innovation/kevin-ashton-describes-the-internet-of-things-180953749/>
- [17] Garmin. 2017. Garmin Edge 500. Website. (2017). <https://buy.garmin.com/en-US/US/p/36728#overview>
- [18] Gartner. 2017. Gartner Says 8.4 Billion Connected "Things" Will Be in Use in 2017, Up 31 Percent From 2016. (02 2017).
- [19] Christian Gilbertson. 2017. Here's How The Sensors in Autonomous Cars Work. Website. (03 2017). <http://www.thedrive.com/tech/8657/heres-how-the-sensors-in-autonomous-cars-work>
- [20] Google. 2017. Mobile App Reporting in Google Analytics - iOS. Website. (2017). https://developers.google.com/analytics/devguides/collection/firebase/ios/#how_does_it_work
- [21] Andrew Hawkins. 2017. Nvidia says its new supercomputer will enable the highest level of automated driving. Website. (10 2017). <https://www.theverge.com/2017/10/16/1449416/nvidia-pegasus-self-driving-car-ai-robotaxi>
- [22] Patrick Hoge. 2010. Survey: 44% stop at Google News headlines. Website. (01 2010). <https://www.bizjournals.com/sanfrancisco/stories/2010/01/18/daily24.html>
- [23] Nabeel Hyatt. 2017. Autonomous driving is here, and it's going to change everything. Website. (04 2017). <https://www.recode.net/2017/4/19/15364608/autonomous-self-driving-cars-impact-disruption-society-mobility>
- [24] IBM. 2015. IBM Plans to Acquire The Weather Company's Product and Technology Businesses; Extends Power of Watson to the Internet of Things. Press Release. (10 2015). <http://www-03.ibm.com/press/us/en/prssrelease/47952.wss>
- [25] Ajit Jaokar. 2017. Behavioural Biometrics, IoT and AI. Website. (10 2017). <https://www.datasciencecentral.com/profiles/blogs/behavioural-biometrics-iot-and-ai>
- [26] Search Engine Journal. 2016. Over 60% of People Trust Google for News vs. Actual News Sources. Website. (01 2016). <https://www.searchenginejournal.com/google-news-2/154475/>
- [27] Jacob Kastrenakes. 2017. Most smart TVs are tracking you fit? Vizio just got caught. (02 2017). <https://www.theverge.com/2017/2/7/14527360/vizio-smart-tv-tracking-settlement-disable-settings>
- [28] Suzanne Kattau. 2015. Research from Gartner: Real-Time Analytics with the Internet of Things. Website. (06 2015). <https://www.rtiinsights.com/research-from-gartner-real-time-analytics-with-the-internet-of-things-dw/>
- [29] John Kiernan. 2017. Credit Card & Debit Card Fraud Statistics. Website. (02 2017). <https://wallenthub.com/edu/credit-debit-card-fraud-statistics/25725/>
- [30] Sam Levin and Mark Harris. 2017. The road ahead: self-driving cars on the brink of a revolution in California. Website. (03 2017). <https://www.theguardian.com/technology/2017/mar/17/self-driving-cars-california-regulation-google-uber-tesla>
- [31] Karen Lewis. 2017. Visa and IBM are bringing the world secure payment experiences through the IoT. (02 2017). <https://www.ibm.com/blogs/internet-of-things/visa/>
- [32] Annie Lin. 2017. Facial recognition is tracking customers as they shop in stores, tech company says. Website. (11 2017). <https://www.cnbc.com/2017/11/23/facial-recognition-is-tracking-customers-as-they-shop-in-stores-tech-company-says.html>

- [33] Jon Markman. 2017. Amazon Using AI, Big Data To Accelerate Profits. Website. (06 2017). <https://www.forbes.com/sites/jonmarkman/2017/06/05/amazon-using-ai-big-data-to-accelerate-profits/#12f2f9cb6d55>
- [34] Mark Mather. 2016. Fact Sheet: Aging in the United States. Media Guide. (01 2016). <http://www.prb.org/Publications/Media-Guides/2016/aging-unitedstates-fact-sheet.aspx>
- [35] Kayla Matthews. 2017. 4 Statistics That Reveal Major Problems With IoT Security. Website. (02 2017). <https://channels.theinnovationenterprise.com/articles/4-statistics-that-reveal-major-problems-with-iot-security>
- [36] Neil McAllister. 2014. How many mobile apps collect data on users? Oh ... nearly all of them. Website. (02 2014). <https://www.theregister.co.uk/2014/02/21/appthority.app-privacy.study/>
- [37] Microsoft. 2017. Five ways edge computing will transform business. Website. (09 2017). <https://blogs.microsoft.com/iot/2017/09/19/five-ways-edge-computing-will-transform-business/>
- [38] Patrick Nelson. 2016. Just one autonomous car will use 4,000 GB of data/day. Website. (12 2016). <https://www.networkworld.com/article/3147892/internet/one-autonomous-car-will-use-4000-gb-of-datataday.html>
- [39] University of Missouri System. 2016. Securing the Internet of Things (IoT). Website. (11 2016). https://www.umssystem.edu/makeitsafe/securing_the_internet_of_things_iot
- [40] Dan O'Shea. 2017. Report: Walmart developing facial-recognition tech. Website. (07 2017). <https://www.retaildive.com/news/report-walmart-developing-facial-recognition-tech/447478/>
- [41] Kasey Panetta. 2017. Gartner Top Strategic Predictions for 2018 and Beyond. Website. (10 2017). <https://www.gartner.com/smarterwithgartner/gartner-top-strategic-predictions-for-2018-and-beyond/>
- [42] Nevon Projects. 2017. IOT Heart Attack Detection & Heart Rate Monitor. Website. (2017). <http://nevonprojects.com/iot-heart-attack-detection-heart-rate-monitor/>
- [43] Lopez Research. 2013. An Introduction to the Internet of Things (IoT). Research Report. (11 2013). https://www.cisco.com/cam/en_us/solutions/trends/iot/introduction_to_IoT_november.pdf
- [44] Symantec Security Response. 2016. Mirai: what you need to know about the botnet behind recent major DDoS attacks. Website. (10 2016). <https://www.symantec.com/connect/blogs/mirai-what-you-need-know-about-botnet-behind-recent-major-ddos-attacks>
- [45] Freddie Roberts. 2017. Half of US companies hit by IoT security breaches, says survey. (06 2017). <https://internetofbusiness.com/half-us-iot-security-breach/>
- [46] Brenda Salinas. 2013. High-End Stores Use Facial Recognition Tools To Spot VIPs. Website. (07 2013).
- [47] Antony Savvas. 2014. The Weather Company turns to open source big data analytics. Website. (11 2014). <https://www.computerworlduk.com/data/kpmg-launches-big-data-investment-fund-3489089/>
- [48] Claire Scholz. 2015. Biometrics to Secure the Internet of Things. Website. (12 2015). <https://blog.bioconnect.com/2552/biometrics-to-secure-the-internet-of-things/>
- [49] Stilgherrian. 2013. Smart TVs are dumb, and so are we. Website. (10 2013). <http://www.zdnet.com/article/smart-tvs-are-dumb-and-so-are-we/>
- [50] Mark Sullivan. 2012. A brief history of GPS. Website. (08 2012). <https://www.pcworld.com/article/2000276/a-brief-history-of-gps.html>
- [51] Raj Talluri. 2017. Why edge computing is critical for the IoT. Website. (10 2017). <https://www.networkworld.com/article/3234708/internet-of-things/why-edge-computing-is-critical-for-the-iot.html>
- [52] Versa Technology. 2017. How much Data will The Internet of Things (IoT) Generate by 2020? Website. (10 2017). <https://www.versatek.com/blog/how-much-data-will-the-internet-of-things-iot-generate-by-2020/>
- [53] Heather Thompson. 2017. Edge computing: It's what healthcare IoT craves. Website. (03 2017). <http://www.medicaldesignandsourcing.com/edge-computing-healthcare-iot-craves/>
- [54] Weather Underground. 2017. Weather Underground - About Our Data. Website. (2017). <https://www.wunderground.com/about/data>
- [55] Jack Vaughan. 2013. Google's big data infrastructure: Don't try this at home? Website. (10 2013). <http://searchdatamanagement.techtarget.com/opinion/Googles-big-data-infrastructure-Dont-try-this-at-home>
- [56] Steven J. Vaughan-Nichols. 2017. f1QuHow to keep your smart TV from spying on you. Website. (03 2017). <http://www.zdnet.com/article/how-to-keep-your-smart-tv-from-spying-on-you/>
- [57] Visa. 2017. Visa Ready and IoT Payments. Website. (2017). <https://usa.visa.com/visa-everywhere/innovation/visa-ready-and-iot-payments.html>
- [58] Visa. 2017. Visa Ready: Biometrics. Website. (2017). https://visaready.visa.com/Biometric_program.detail.html
- [59] Harro Ten Wolde and Eric Auchard. 2014. Germany's top publisher bows to Google in news licensing row. Website. (11 2014). <https://www.reuters.com/article/us-google-axel-sprngt/germany-s-top-publisher-bows-to-google-in-news-licensing-row-idUSKBN0IP1YT20141105>
- [60] Tim Worstall. 2014. If Google News Is Worth \$100 Million Then Why Can't Google Pay The Newspaper Publishers? Website. (12 2014). <https://www.forbes.com/sites/timworstall/2014/12/14/if-google-news-is-worth-100-million-then-why-cant-google-pay-the-newspaper-publishers/#7496b2b555a1>

bibtex report

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
```

bibtext _ label error

bibtext space label error

bibtext comma label error

latex report

[2017-12-08 04.03.36] pdflatex report.tex

```
=====
Compliance Report
=====
```

```
name: Peter Russell
hid: 334
paper1: Oct 28 17 100%
paper2: Nov 24 17 100%
project: Dec 04 17 100%
```

```
yamlcheck
```

```
wordcount
```

```
8
wc 334 project 8 6822 report.tex
wc 334 project 8 7454 report.pdf
wc 334 project 8 1887 report.bib
```

```
find "
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find footnote
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find input{format/i523}
```

```
4: \input{format/i523}
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find input{format/final}
```

```
passed: False
```

floats

```
figures 0
tables 0
includegraphics 0
labels 0
refs 0
floats 0
```

```
True : ref check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
True : label check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
True : include graphics passed: (figures >= includegraphics)
True : check if all figures are refered to: (refs >= labels)
```

Label/ref check
passed: True

When using figures use columnwidth
[width=1.0\columnwidth]
do not change the number to a smaller fraction

find textwidth

passed: True

below_check

bibtex

label errors

bibtex errors

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
```

```
bibtex_empty_fields
```

```
entries in general should not be empty in bibtex
```

```
find ""
```

```
passed: True
```

```
ascii
```

```
=====
The following tests are optional
=====
```

```
Tip: newlines can often be replaced just by an empty line
```

```
find newline
```

```
passed: True
```

```
cites should have a space before \cite{} but not before the {
```

```
find cite {
```

```
passed: True
```

Big Data and Its Application in Education

Weipeng Yang

School of Education, Indiana University Bloomington
201 N Rose Ave
Bloomington, Indiana 47405
yang306@umail.iu.edu

Geng Niu

School of Education, Indiana University Bloomington
201 N Rose Ave
Bloomington, Indiana 47405
Niugeng@umail.iu.edu

ABSTRACT

The development of big data is changing the society in a dynamic way. With high speed internet and high penetration rate of mobile devices, every individual becomes a source of data and is constantly provide these data to various organizations who want to make profits or want to utilize these data to contribute to a certain end. Big data helps online retailers to add new strategies to increase their selling; it also helps medicare organizations to make more accurate diagnosis to patients; it even changes the sports industry. Because big data is changes various industries profoundly, it will certainly in a point change the way people acquire new knowledge. For this reason, it is important to review how big data bring changes to different industries and how education strategies could adjust to the fast-change world. In order to have a clear picture of in what ways big data will influence educational strategies, we will use education recommendation system and medicare education which is transformed by big data, as a case to see how educators should adjust their strategies with the benefits brought by big data..

KEYWORDS

i523, HID236,HID218, big data, education

1 INTRODUCTION

When we search the definition of education, we will find that it is defined as process of facilitating learning or the acquisition of knowledge, skills, values and beliefs and habits [43]. However, when we talk about education, we regard education as academic education such as K-12 education and higher education. In reality, education is happening all the time and everywhere. When you are sitting in a classroom, you are learning to get a degree and plan for your career life. When you are working in the office, you gradually learn how to accommodate what you learn at school to what the reality is in the workplace. When you are watching TV, you are getting information about what is happening around the world and you gain your first impression of different countries around the globe. And even when you are shopping online, you are learning how to identify the product is good or bad by reading the reviews. Therefore, in the 21st century when educators look into education, it will cover not only school education but also corporate training and other forms of informal learning.

2 A LOOK BACK AT LEARNING

It is very difficult not to think of Confucius and Socrates, two great men who are regarded as the most important people in terms of influence on education in the East and West. Confucius emphasized the importance of education and proposed that education should be equal to everyone. He was a teacher himself and taught students

morality, proper speech, government and refined arts. "He never discourses at length on a subject. Instead he poses questions, cites passages from the classics, or uses apt analogies, and waits for his students to arrive at the right answers" [30]. Confucius set an example of teachers in ancient China and other regions in Asia such Korea and Japan. Teachers in these parts of world should be much better learned than students and are examples in terms of morals. Because of this, students should imitate teachers. By contrast, Socrates adopted a different view of learning. fSocrates does not believe that any one person or any one school of thought is authoritative or has the wisdom to teach "things." Socrates repeatedly disavows his own knowledge and his own methods. However, this appears to be a technique for engaging others and empowering the conversator to openly Dialogue [2]. This may be one of the reason why the learning style in the East and the West is so different. But when we look back at education in schools in the past, no matter where the school or the learning place is located, learning is highly teacher-centered. In ancient China, teachers still follow the learning style of confucius. The teachers had authority over their students and students were supposed to treat their teachers like their fathers. In return, teachers should be selfless enough to pass what they knew to their students. In the West, the situation was similar. And one of the reasons might be the lack of resources in teaching. In ancient times, only limited number of books were available due to printing technique and the number of scholars who could write books. In the year of 1500, the illiteracy rate of men and women in English is 90 and 100 respectively. And in Qing Dynasty around 1880, literacy rate is around 30-45 in men and 2-10 in women. It is not hard to deduce that these numbers are much lower in 1500s [28]. Knowledge or information was in the hand of the top 10 of people which make knowledge more precious. Therefore, teaching must be teacher-centered and teachers have much authority over the students. However, it is never true today. The volume of books will take a person's whole life to read; TV has changed the way of how people get information; and the internet revolutionizes how information is created and transmitted. As a result, teachers are no longer just knowledge providers and it is impossible for them to be mere knowledge providers because learners have access to almost infinite source of knowledge.

3 WHAT IS INSTRUCTIONAL DESIGN?

"Educational technology is the study and ethical practice of facilitating learning and improving performance by creating, using, and managing appropriate technological processes and resources" [13]. Instructional technology started from instructional media , the use of which can date back to the first 10 years of 20th century in school museums. The use of different media in instruction or

learning have gone through visual instruction, audio-visual instruction and the use of communication theories to today the integration of computers and internet technologies [29].

However, the turning point of the birth of educational technology began as visual education. At the turn of the 20th century, educators were exploring the potentials of motion pictures and projected slides. In the 1950s, the advent of television added new dimension of widespread of audio-visual programming. At this time, the design materials only focused on creating attractive and creative presentations which are pleasing to learners' eye and ears. But a shift happened in the next decade. Educators not only cared about the appeal of the teaching or learning materials, but also cared about what learners are doing. In the next a few decades, the focus of learning design continued to change because of the advent of the internet which allows learners to collaborate anytime anywhere. Also, computers became a powerful assistant in learning with the advances made in CPU and storage [25].

Instructional design has several names such as instructional system technologies, learning design and educational technology. Although universities which have program on instructional design prefer different names, they have similar courses and goals of training. The definition of instructional design has been revised several times in history and those changes were caused by different opinions held by experts in the field and most important caused by advances of science and technology.

4 THE DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATION PSYCHOLOGY

Behaviorists believe that performance of people can be changed by contingencies of reinforcement combined with changes in the environment [42]. For example, drivers or passengers of a car may not want to or forget to fasten the safety belts. In order to prevent that from happening, a machine would give out a loud "beep" noise which is annoying to tell people in the car that you need to fasten the belt. This is called a negative reinforcement. In order to avoid something awful to occur, people will behave in certain way. Opposite to this is positive reinforcement. For instance, teachers would give a student who has the high scores in a exam a gift and verbal appraise as a way to encourage all the students to study harder. Behaviorism has great impact on programmed instruction in both academic education and military training [34]. However, the behaviorist approach to learning has two problems. The first one is the use of proper reinforcement. As learners grow older, instructors have to find reinforcement that learners will value. But it is really difficult to provide such reinforcement to adult learners. The other problem is that behaviorists seem to ignore the process of learning.

By contrast, cognitivists focus on how people process information. The core components of cognitive approach to learning are perception and sensory stores, short-term memory, and long-term memory. Perception is about how people select what information to pay attention to; "sensory stores are capable of storing almost complete records of what we attend to but hold those records very briefly"; short-term memory helps people to rehearse the information coming through sensory stores but it has limited capacity; Long-term memory is where information is stored in a certain

way permanently and is ready to be retrieved [41]. A example of using cognitive theory in learning or information is the design of presentation slides. A good PowerPoint presentation may contains clear contrast between the texts and the background or different categories of information. It also only contains keywords of a topic so viewers will be well-guided by the slides when listening to the speakers. Although cognitive approach of learning helps learners to process information, what learners can do if they need to learn a ill-defined topic?

Constructivism made one more step forward towards learning. Learning, according to constructivist theory, is a process of meaning making, a process of solving problems when encountering cognitive conflict and a social activity such as collaboration and negotiation [44] Put it simply, constructive theory advocates simulation of the real world environment. A topic is ill-defined and learners are required to formulate their own strategies to look for relevant information and experiment potential solutions to solve a problem.

5 PROBLEM-BASED LEARNING AND MEDICAL EDUCATION:

Problem-based learning is based on constructive approach to learning. "Participation in valued activities within different domains is fundamental to how students learn." People who advocate this problem-based approach suggest that learning happens when other people involve such peers, tutors or mentors. And cooperation in activities can lead to higher reasoning level. Students may change their perspective of thinking and their opinions about a topic because in collaboration more ideas are involved and those ideas will be discussed in an environment in which sharing and collaboration are promoted. Lev Vygotsky found the construct of the zone of proximal development to explain how people can facilitate knowledge construction. This framework shows that if instructors can reduce the distance between what the learners can do completely by themselves and the things that can be accomplished by themselves with the assistance from others, then the instruction can be successful. "PBL is a form of education in which information is mastered in the same context in which it will be used" [6]. Another definition of PBL is "a learning method based on the principle of using problems as a starting point for the acquisition and integration of new knowledge" [23]. Problem-based learning can also refers to problem-and -task-centered approaches of learning. It is one of educational technologies designed to situate instruction in authentic or meaningful settings. It has been employed in many different fields of studies such as medicine, science, law, business and mathematics. And the goals of PBL differs from each other. In medicine PBL requires learners to work in groups to practice their skills to diagnose patient cases and the ability to use clinical knowledge in practice. But in science and humanities, students in a PBL class to come up with explanations for a certain phenomenon through activities such as defining a question, seeking evidence, and outlining and argument. Moreover, in law and business related courses students will engage in the study of cases and they will be encouraged to seek and summarize critical information from those cases and present their finds to peers in the classroom. By the end of their presentation, instructors will provide feedback. In math and science PBL courses, students work together in an environment in

which constructive feedback is provided to each other or by tutors or teachers. Although the goals of learning in different fields are different, in PBL the core value is to put education in authentic tasks so the learning is more meaningful.

Savery and Duffy proposed a framework of how to conduct problem-based learning: Anchor all learning activities to a larger task or problem

Support the learner in developing ownership for the overall problem or task

Design an authentic task

Design the task and the learning environment to reflect the complexity of the environment they should be able to function in at the end of learning

Give the learner ownership of the process used to develop a solution

Design the learning environment to support and challenge the learner's thinking

Encourage testing ideas against alternative views and alternative contexts

Provide opportunity for and support reflection on both the content learned and the learning process [35]

Medical education is very suitable for Problem-based learning because the advances made in medicare makes it impossible to include everything in lectures. And in the field of medicare, doctors will face various problems with patients which are highly likely beyond what medical students can learn from school. Therefore, in order to foster the ability to solve problems, critical thinking and experiment potential solutions, PBL serves as a critical part of medical education. PBL has been employed in many medical schools around the world. "It was introduced in the medical school at Mc-Master University in Canada in the late 1960s and is now a common curriculum component in medical and health science schools around the world" [23]. "The University of New Mexico was the first to adopt a medical PBL curriculum in the United States and Mercer University School of Medicine in Georgia was the first U.S medical school to employ PBL as its only curricular offering" [6].

Here we will present how to use this framework with medical education. The first step of designing PBL for medical students is to find an authentic task. By saying authentic task, we don't mean the task must be the same with what happens in a hospital every day. It means the task will require similar cognitive load to a real problem. The specific difficulty of the task is designed by the instructor according to the level of the course. As is often the case, instructors will create scenarios to represent an authentic task. Before creating a scenario, instructors should formulate objectives of the course, and create a scenario in which all of these objectives will be accomplished. The complexity or the difficulty of the problem should be appropriate to the curriculum and the level of students' understanding. It is better if the scenario is appealing enough to attract students' attention. Basic science should be included in the context of a clinical scenario to encourage integration of knowledge. Although the problem presented in a PBL class should be ill-defined, the PBL scenario should have cues to stimulate discussion and push students to seek reasonable explanation to the issues involved in the scenario. At last, the scenarios should promote participation by

the students in the seek of explanation [46].

The next step is to gather all relevant information which can be useful or useless to the final solution to the diagnosis. However, this information will not be provided to students directly. Besides relevant information, the instructor should also have other resources such as equipments, lab or simulation of the environment in a real hospital. Then students will have a meeting with the instructor to talk about the basic information of the patient such as age and gender and symptoms he or she has. Then the task will almost completely hand to the students. Here comes to an important point of the whole learning experience. The learners should be told that there is no correct answer to the task and it is the students' responsibility to find a possible solutions.

A tutor should be assigned to the students and the tutor is not necessarily an expert in medicare because the tutor's job is not to provide suggestions to the students. Or the instructor can be the tutor. But the responsibility of the tutor is to ask leading questions such as why do you choose this? or how did this happen? By asking these questions we hope students will spot their own mistakes or loopholes in the process of finding a solution to the diagnosis. In this way students will revise their strategy of work. Another responsibility of the tutor or instructor is to provide key information if the students are seriously off the track. And in order to ensure the quality of the course, tutors or instructors have to do so. Speaking of the roles of tutor in PBL, we have to talk about scaffolding. A real or physical scaffold is a structure to support learners to complete a task and it is not permanent. When a task is accomplished, the structure will be removed. It is still the same when we talk about scaffolding in education. It will be removed when it is not needed. Scaffolding is designed to assist learners to complete tasks which are otherwise beyond their reach. This suggests that the design of scaffolding must be very careful. So there are several questions for tutor and instructors to think when they design such a structure: what is needed to support, when and in what way to support the students, how much support should be provided to learners, and when and how to fade scaffolding.

In PBL in a medicare course, students are required to write reports weekly or bi-weekly on how they collaborate, what problems occur and how they solve these problems. Also, by knowing the progress students make, it is much easier for instructors to see how they grow and how they should adjust some elements of the learning environment. And a final report to summarize the whole process of collaboration and the working process will be submitted at the end of the semester.

Such courses can also be conducted in multiple groups. Every group will have their own way of collaboration and propose different solutions to a diagnosis. And instructors should create an environment where different groups are eager to share their own progress because they can always get constructive feedback from their peers. Moreover, such a sharing environment will make the learning more dynamic and accelerate the growth of learners. Tutorials are also an important element in PBL. Usually, the PBL tutorial has a group of students which has no more than 10 and a tutor who provides scaffolding to the session. The duration of the session varies. It depends on how long it takes for a certain group to have good dynamics. Moreover, for each tutorial session, a different

leader or chair should be elected so every member of the team will contribute and free ride can be avoided [46].

Here we want to elaborate tools and activities can be included in PBL in the Internet era. Basically, PBL courses can include activities such as generating lists, scaling down the scope of topics, making outlines of options, debating issues, and even voting. Today, many activities can happen in virtual environment. Wikis enable learners to have meeting in a virtual community and collaborate on projects and solve problems. And meeting tools such as Zoom, Goggle Hangouts and Adobe Connect enable online meetings of a large group of students and share screens and notes. Moreover, blogs also provide virtual space for learners to practice their writing skills and share their writing with audiences beyond their teacher. In a PBL class, web 2.0 tools can also be included such as Skype, Twitter, Instagram.

Here are some examples of how Mercer University conducted PBL in its medical courses. At Mercer University, a series of tutorial sessions were used to substitute the lectures. And during each session, faculty members and students would meet to discuss the actual case problems. In other programs which are related to clinical skills and community science, students need to deal with simulated patients and spend some afternoons with local primary-care practitioners. "In this way, real life clinical practice in a rural community becomes a laboratory exercise for the illustration of basic science theory." In Mercer University, tutors were called "faculty overseers" who are neither to be the source of all information nor even to have information about every area being discussed. The responsibility of these overseers is to keep student participation and knows enough to prevent gross mistakes. On the contrary, students were teachers and learners. Without giving lists of what to know, students need to generate a list of what to look for according to importance of relevant information.

Although small groups of meeting played essential role in the PBL of Mercer University, lectures are still used to some extent. The students may have some lectures on one or two basic science lectures every week but these sessions were not mandatory. The evaluation of the course was intense. Students at Mercer University were tested by both intramural and extramural means. At the end of each of the thirteen curricular phases, students would have a 200-item, cross-disciplinary, objective examination and a forty minutes case analysis oral examination.

The majority of faculty members favor PBL over the conventional way of teaching. The reason is very simple: it is a more natural way of learning. PBL simulate the environment where people generate knowledge. For example, students became better prepared in the learning process. That is the ownership was handed to the students instead of the instructors. If a student came to the discussion session without any preparation, she or he would be complaint by other members. Another benefit of PBL is that students became more flexible in learning. Students at Mercer University used texts, mono graphs, periodical literature and various resources in their learning. In the past, the learning is very lecture centered and students were actually not actively engaged in the learning. By contrast, when they were on their own, they tried every alternatives to find useful

resources and developed flexibility in learning [23].

From the history of the evolution of educational technology we can see the changes are brought by technological development made in other fields of studies. Those technologies were not intended to contribute to education but they are all utilized in education. And to successfully employ PBL in an academic learning environment, instructors and instructional designers must build a proper environment. As a result, the development of big data can provide new thoughts in how to advance current instructional design and improve the building of a proper PBL learning environment.

6 CHALLENGES OF LEARNING IN THE INFORMATION ERA

The challenges of learning in 21 first century is that the explosion of information brought too much information whose credibility is uncertain. Many people, especially scholars, question the accuracy of information of Wikipedia. However, Wikipedia may be the most popular sites for all kinds of information ranging from entertainment to academia. And because of the affordable and high speed internet, everyone has a say in the virtual world. One can find people argue on an issue in online forums, express their own opinions in blogs and social media. However, these information could be wrong and there is no third party to verify if the information is correct. By the end, people tend to believe in the opinions presented by the most popular sites or people. For example, in China a high school history teacher goes visual on the internet and he starts to have his own online courses about history in China and other parts of the world. His courses are pretty interesting because a lot of humor is involved and various media are used such as animation and movies. Therefore, a lot of students prefer to watch his online courses instead of taking the face-to-face class at school. However, the opinions presented by this history teacher are very different from main-stream scholars especially in the history of the second world war and civil war in China. And this caused problems at schools. In this case I presented, the teacher actually unconsciously took advantage of the populism of teenagers at high school. Students at this age can be very disobedient and do not want to engage in the old tradition.

And here comes another problem and the internet era. It is often the case that who has the most resources to populate an opinion will finally be the person who has the most say. It seems that the internet give people equal opportunity to express. However, what really happens is that people can only find limited opinions or values. For example, many news agency can use the resources they have to control media on what to be reported and what not to be reported. The fake news of several US news agency proves that it is real. In addition, the internet world is actually not so different from the physical reality. One is likely to find that the best resources on the internet are also expensive and only open to a few instead of the public general. That is also one of the reason why Wikipedia can be so popular because it is free to everyone. Because the best resources are only open to a small group of people that may widen the gap between the well-educated and the ill-educated. That is also the reason why the education community are working on Open

Education Resources. Work with people from the academia, these open resources can be affordable or even completely free and still they have high quality. Massive Open Online Courses can be viewed as the most popular representatives of OER. However, there is still a long way to go in promoting education equality due to political and financial reasons.

Challenges to instructional design The last challenge is how to do a thorough analysis of learning. In instructional design, ADDIE model is the most used model of doing the design process. ADDIE stands for analysis, design, development and evaluation. In the analysis phase, instructional designers need to work with subject-matter experts to formulate learning objectives. The learning objectives are specific performance which can be observed or evaluated in other ways. And learner analysis will include the traits of learners, the learning styles of learners, the motivation, confidence, prior knowledge of learners and the potential satisfaction of learners. Also a context analysis will also include. In the design phase, instructional designers will script and finalized learning strategies and tactics for the entire learning experience based on the analysis made in the first phase and the learning materials given by instructors. Then they enter the development phase in which the final education product is made. In the evaluation phase, instructional designers will conduct trials of the course and general a report on what needs to be modified and summative evaluation will be formulated to test learners' performance change in the end.

However, in the internet internet era, the number of online learners can be bigger than 2,000. In many popular MOOCs, there are more than 2,000 people registered. As a consequence, it is impossible to do a learner analysis. Not only the number of students is big, the learning styles, motivations and level of prior knowledge vary drastically. Even if a comprehensive learner analysis is possible, the result might be that the learning environment is too complex and the course may be out of control of the instructors' hand. And in reality it is true. In many MOOC courses, learners have different expectations toward the same course, once they feel disappointed about the course, they drop. And the result is only a very small percentage of learners finally complete the course. And because of the huge number of students, the discussion forum goes out of control and instructors and teaching assistants cannot monitor the discussion and the discussion result in nothing.

7 HOW BIG DATA INFLUENCE DIFFERENT INDUSTRIES

Before we look at how big data will influence education or more specifically influence instructional design of medical courses in a PBL environment, we will first examine how big data have influenced other industries. The experience from these industries will provide guidance on how education community utilize big data. Big data has become the buzz words for today's world. One of the reasons is that big data increase benefits of many business. The traditional way of costumer consumption has lasted for centuries. In the ancient time, people would go to fairs to buy groceries, hardware and clothes. But at that time, fairs were not standardized, and the conditions of those fair can be terrible. It was impossible to guarantee the quality of the goods bought by customers. Later, in

the industrialized world, cities were built and shopping mall appeared. In a shopping mall, customers could buy good qualities in different stores. Instead, they would go to supermarket to buy groceries. This mode of doing business remained until the beginning of e-commerce. In the web 2.0 era, search engines enabled consumers to look for products in virtual shops and sellers can collect feedback of consumers' satisfaction in their website [3]. Today, with big data technology, it is possible for online retailors to monitor activities of consumers online. Business owners can have better understanding of consumers and formulate more targeted strategies of how to increase profits. Because of the ability of monitoring online activities and better understanding behaviors of consumers, online retailers can provide personalized services. This is realized through the use of recommender system. Online buyers will be labelled according to their online activities and they will receive emails or suggestions of what to buy on the internet. 35 percent of Amazon's revenue is created by the recommendation system. Users of Amazon can click the recommendation section and see the products selected by the recommendation system. For example, if a learner is looking for a backpack, he or she will probably see some recommended backpack [17]. Dynamic pricing is also a strategy brought by big data technology. "Some business set different prices for their products or services based on algorithms that take into account competitor pricing, supply and demand and other external factors in the market. It is a common practice in industries such as hospitality, travel, entertainment, retail, electricity and public transport" [43]

Before big data was brought to the face of the healthcare system, the role of data in the healing process of patients was minimal. Data such as name, age, disease description, diabetic profile, medical reports and family history of illness were collected. These data could only reflect limited view of a patient. For example, a doctor may know that the reason of a patient with heart disease can be traced back to his or her family, but there are many possible perspectives on why the patient has such disease.(Pal2016) "The influence of big data on medicine is that we can build better health profiles and predictive models around individual patients so that we can better diagnose and treat disease." The pharmaceutical industry is facing the limitation of insufficient understanding of the biology of disease. But big data can help in building the understand of what constitutes a disease such as causes from DNA, proteins and metabolites to cells, tissues, organs, organisms, and ecosystems [36]. The problem for the medical research is that enterprise is unable to follow the pace of the information needs of patients, clinicians, administrators and policy makers. *fiThe flow of new knowledge is too slow, and its scope is too narrow.* The consequence of the medical research community not adopting big data technology is that hospitals are ill prepared for a more precise diagnosis. Now the medical research community need new thinking in their work. The new thinking must involve the integration of new technologies. "For instance, researchers can use big data to reveal clusters of patient groups that might suggest new taxonomies of disease based on how similar they are according to a broad range of characteristics, including outcomes." Advances in prediction can simply attribute to the learning of data and creating a mechanism which is highly reproducible and has consistent performance [18]. "Big data has helped healthcare

institutions take a 360 degree view of a patient's health problems." With the help of big data, new findings, innovative methods of treatment plans and more precise diagnosis can be realized. Here is an example of how it is possible to build better health profiles. Some diseases are more common among a certain race of people due to genetical reasons. When a patient from this race is found suffering from heart disease, the doctors can look at the data of patients belonging to the same race who have same problems. By examining their life style, genetic structure, family DNA and other elements, they can build health profiles for these group of people. Wearable devices can also play a role in the detection of potential health problems even if no apparent symptoms are presented. Wearable devices can help see some indicators of health. And doctors can make certain conclusions and decide on the future action on them. The devices today are already able to record data such as heart rate, pulse, glucose levels and calorie levels. And big data will also have the potential to personalize medicine. The NCI-MATCH trial is examine 1000 people who have tumors that do not respond to standard cancer treatments. Researchers hope that they can match drugs to this kind of tumor to produce the best result [27]. "In the very near future, you could also be sharing this data with your doctor who will use it as part of his or her diagnostic toolbox when you visit them with an ailment. Even if there's nothing wrong with you, access to huge, ever growing databases of information about the state of the health of the general public will allow problems to be spotted before they occur, and remedies - either medicinal or educational - to be prepared in advance" [24].

8 HOW BIG DATA WILL INFLUENCE EDUCATION IN GENERAL

The first change we will see in education is the rise of adaptive learning. Adaptive learning means that students can learn knowledge whose difficulty is suitable for their ability. This is enabled by the availability of online application, classroom activity software, social media, blogs and surveys of staff. With adaptive learning comes the universities' ability to provide personalized feedback to students, monitor student satisfaction, increase attainment and give students' opportunities to reflect on their own learning. On the other hand, instructors will receive real-time reports which will enable them to adjust teaching strategies for the best outcomes [20]. Because learning is more adaptive, students can advance their learning in different paces. Big data and data analysts will inform instructors who is learning faster and can advance to a more difficult class and who need support from teachers [14].

Since learning of different learners will at different paces, it is important for learners to develop self-management. For example, in a PBL class, students need to solve an ill-defined problem and the process of learning is almost unguided. As a result, students need to take the initiatives and actively contribute to the project. Also learners will monitor their own process of learning and submit a report to summarize this process. So they must develop their meta-cognitive skills which means the learners are able to learn how to learn. Another reason why self-management is more important in the big data era is the widespread of informal learning. As mentioned before, people today are learning anytime anywhere. Social media, blogs, news and anything connected to the internet

will serve as a source of learning. Therefore, it is impossible for teachers to monitor learning of students all the time.

9 BIG DATA MINING

Big data mining refers to the procedure in which a gigantic amount of data from a wide variety of source is collected, and analyzed with a wide spectrum of means to discover inner mechanism or other information via pattern [45]. Being used in almost every field such as business marketing, science and engineering, medicine, design and education industries to provide such functions as intelligence, research and marketing. Oftentimes, big data mining will be carried out on individual persons. When someone is doing activities online, their data will be collected. They could also be providing these data via questionnaires, surveys or other means. This massive amount of data collected on everyone are commonly called big data by the industry and corporations and companies will utilize them to figure out what need one have or what kind of personal trait one may carry. As the big data industry found itself in rapid development, concerns and other critiques are also rising on the ethical issue of big data. Heated discussions were talking about the insult to privacy and abuse of such data. However, big data have already set foot in so many industries and almost all aspects of our daily lives[40].

Data mining sees Artificial Intelligence and Machine Learning as its inception. During data mining, patterns are discovered, and data scientists could utilize such patterns to carry out more versatile functions. The system could get to understand an individual via the data collected about this one. The Recommendation Engine, or so called the Recommender System, is one application for data mining. The recommendation engine filters information and uses data mining techniques to figure out the specific suggestion to one person for information or other assets that may help them with current or future needs.

One commonly used example of the recommender system would be the online shopping websites. When someone shops on it, he or she will be given information about merchandise that related to this purchase. Such recommendations require various kinds of variables, such as this person's shopping history, the gender, age, and occupation of the person, or the items other bought after purchasing the same item. Another example will be after someone searched for a merchandise or service online, the advertisement will pop out for them showing related products.

These kinds of systems require algorithm with high complexity to give out recommendations following patterns discovered via enormous amount of data from mining. Such presentation will be oftentimes beneficial to individuals as they no longer need to go through such amount of information to find their desired service or product. Instead, targeted recommendation will be directly presented to the individual and sometimes the individual will have little awareness that they may need such product or service. As a result, the system will greatly enhance the efficiency for the user, it will also be a blessing for the services or products so that they could be utilized more often.

With such benefits, the recommendation engine is wildly used amongst all online websites, including but not limited to online shopping, searching, streaming and social media websites[39].

9.1 Types of Recommendation Engines

A good deal of recommendation engines is backed with such technique called as collaborative or content-based filtering technologies. Collaborative filtering resembles a person making purchases on the gathered information from other via verbal or other means. It could also be understood as crowdsourcing[38]. In many online websites, people could give out ratings or feedbacks for others to reference. It is an interesting phenomenon that customers will more likely to read crowdsourcing comment first rather than the information provided by the seller. The collaborative filtering based system took one step further by categorizing commenters into different subcategories and present different person with different information or resources that might only be beneficial to him or her. Such patterns as statistical models are utilized to calculate everyone's correlation, thus giving out a value of recommendation. Some examples might be Twitter, eBay, Steam and Apple Store. They are all using collaborative filtering systems.

On the other hand, content based systems focus on different properties of a resource, in comparison with the properties of a person. As a person's total using time accumulates, the system will become more and more accurate as the user will demonstrate more personal traits and preferences in using the system. Examples of this kind of content based system will be Netflix and other streaming websites. Moreover, a developed recommendation engine could involve both collaborative and content based filtering techniques to bring prediction accuracy to a new level.

9.2 Math Models of the Recommendation Engine

The math models that standing in the back of the data mining engines include such technologies as association, classification and clustering means. Clustering refers to the procedure of combining individual with certain characteristics and trait being recognized as high value in the recommendation system. Such values as ratings, tones of comments are taken weighted average of all members in the cluster to identify the how the individuals in this cluster would recommend this product or service. More complicated systems would involve multiple clusters and calculated overall weighted averages across all the clusters that one individual belongs to[37]. Classification identifying technique are also utilized as the cornerstone of interconnecting different person with different appreciation to different items. Fundamental version of classification systems only works as primary filter to figure out how relevant individuals with desired kind of resources. As an example, only providing infant nutrition food for those who just give birth to a baby. This example only provides a crude vision of classification while more complicated ones will be able to perform prediction recommendations with higher complexity, and thus higher accuracy[33]. Association on the other hand provide more sophisticated recommendation rules with the introduction of correlation amongst different items or different individuals. With such rules, the system will be granted the ability to determine what a person needs most currently, rather than giving recommendations based on the person's previous activity history in the system. One example will be that if someone is looking for an oven in the kitchen, but he or she was browsing a dishwasher 2 months ago, the system will begin to give

recommendations on oven or other cooking utensils, rather than kitchen cleaning utensils. Like mentioned before, a more complicated version of the association rule will give out recommendation with more complicated consideration and calculations. The recommendation system will be referencing different traits of a person or by viewing at a variety of items being browsed in the system by the user. One supplementary of the association recommendation system will be using dynamic analyzing to provide recommendations for future use when the user wished to need some resources that related to the current inquiry. An example would be a person who bought or browsed an oven today may be provided information of recommendation on oven recipe, or aluminum foil tomorrow.

9.3 Big Data Recommendation Engines in Education

As we have mentioned before, recommendation engines based on data mining are proving to be beneficial to almost all fields in our lives, and education is one of them.

The field in education that involves big data mining are often referred as learning analytics. It focuses on how big data mining could be utilized for teaching and learning purposes ranging from personalized teaching, learning, evaluations and assessments for individuals to providing data to decision makers of various levels of education (for example, a director of a department or a government official of education). Big data mining has provided benefits to many aspects of education such as teaching, learning, education leadership, adult education, special education, enrollment decision, talent education, etc. The new millennium has seen the rapid development of educational big data mining and the field is hunger for talents that possess not only profound understanding in educational theory, but also the capability to carry out statistics, research and evaluation in education[32].

As the examples mentions above, the educational recommendation systems have deep similarities with commercial recommendation systems as they both strive to introduces the user to their desired products or services. However, educational recommendation system could also provide interconnection between learners, their desired course, their personal traits and educational resources that could serve the learners to help them reaching maximum efficiency in learning and to reach their academic goals. These beneficial factors make the educational recommendation engines a state-of-the-art asset for students to excel in personalized online learning systems. In such system, learner's characteristics, track selection and knowledge gained in previous learning could all be quantized into values to serve as a filtering and weighing standard to learners in e-learning. As one can see, such system has great flexibility and are highly adaptive to different learners. In this way, the efficiency of learning is greatly enhanced, and students are more motivated in engaging in learning[31].

The history of the e-learning recommendation system could be traced back to computer assisted instruction systems, also known as CAI. One major concept called Time-shared, Interactive, Computer-Controlled, Information Television (TICCIT) was invented in the last 70s. This could be the cornerstone of nowadays educational recommendation engine. TICCIT is developed so that the learner

could have higher control in their own learning with the help of a mentor giving suggestions and advices from time to time. The education recommendation has met its rapid development afterward ever after the introduction of TICCIT as they could provide personalized advice and suggestions to learners according to their daily usage and browsing history of the system. Students could spend less time on looking for the education resources on their own or filtering out valued teaching and learning resources from a gigantic amount of information on the internet or within the e-learning system. In such way they could devote all their valuable time to learning, rather than being in a frustrated state without guidance[22].

As mention before, the recommendation system's ability to provide an accurate result relies on massive amount of data collected from individuals and their behavior on the e-learning website. In this way, e-learning websites with a considerable number of users could better contribute to the learning process of the recommendation engine. For instance, Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs) could have hundreds or thousands of active users on the website, or even learning the same course at one time. In such way, the recommendation engine evolves quickly, and user could benefit from it. Moreover, online learning websites have a social learning ecosystem which have great resemblance to social media networks. This lays the groundwork for the recommendation system to make full utilization of its huge user database to provide more relevant courses for learners. It is worth mentioning that these e-learning systems with social element are more likely to be involved with informal or professional learning. An example would be info of a user in career development system will be put under comparison to his or her colleague's information to carry out a performance evaluation[16].

Also, when he or she wishes to visit some of the resources on the career training website, the system could filter out his or her colleague's recommendation, comment, rate of one course and then utilize algorithm to provide this user with resources not only capable of helping him or her reaching current goals, but also courses and information that may become useful in the future[21]. Lots of educational teaching and learning systems with data mining and recommendation feature are established on online learning systems that could be easily visited from a mobile phone or a tablet. Such convenience no doubt made collecting data at great ease and allows more users to participate in such process. This could be a beneficial cycle: the ever-growing user base allows the algorithm to be more accurate and provide more personalized learn guidelines, and such feature will not only attract more user but will also let remaining users to provide more data to the system.

Learning analytics could also find itself useful other than the scenario of teaching and learning systems. Data mining and recommendation engines could be also used in supporting students in daily learning. For instance, a system that feature in college application could use a recommendation engine to provide learning track for students to better prepare for a certain university's requirements. Such method could be also used with other kinds of online learning motivation techniques such as badges. Badges are like achievement system in which when a student accomplish certain goals, he or she will be award a badge. He or she could get to know the global percentage of student holding that badge and get

motivated in making more accomplishments[19].

One more application would be the student retention system, in which students' data are monitored and a baseline is set based on the overall performance of all the student within. If one student's performance is below par, the system will receive alert and will send support or intervention staff as soon as they can to help the student and prevent him or her from dropping the course. In addition, big data also provide new thinking on how to conduct the PBL learning process. For example, when learners are working in the virtual environment, tutors can monitor the contribution of students in a certain group. In this way, the tutor can quickly identify who is not contributing to the team and take certain measures to intervene the performance of this student. Moreover, in a conventional PBL environment, the timing of proving scaffolding and removing scaffolding is very hard to master. But with the help of big data, tutors can analyze the process of learning in a team and spot the time when the team make minimal progress[15]. In this way, the instructors and tutors can provide in-time support. And tutors can also spot the time when a team have sufficient knowledge and ability of accomplishing the task, so tutors can fade scaffolding. From the learners' perspective, big data give them space to try new ideas. Instead of having group discussions and debates of different ideas, students can also learn from what the data tells them and gain empirical experience. With big data technology, learners can also formulate more up-to-date solutions to a task[18].

Big data also provide powerful tools to instructional designers. With the help of data, instructional designers can label learners just as the way online retailers label customers. Then those labels will be put into different categorizes. This is very important for conducting learner analysis. Instructional designers will be able to see clearly the motivations they have, the prior knowledge they possess to determine the scope of learning. Also with such data, instructional designers can design proper strategies to motivate learners and increase the satisfaction rate. The learning style data will help the development of teaching strategies. Designers and subject-matter experts can integrate different ways of learning in one semester based course and let learners with different learning habits to collaborate to foster flexibility in learning.

10 WEB ANALYSIS

Web analysis is also an uprising branch that belongs to the learning analytics and being supported by big data mining. It focuses on how to collect and analyze data gained on websites or applications that needs to connect to internet before using. These kinds of data are often a result of user's activities on the internet. Web analytics are often utilized to boost the study and learning efficiency of students in a specific Learning Management System(LMS). It could also help the administrator of the website to monitor and support student's learning progress and to help oversee the functioning of the website[17].

Web analytics are also utilized by administrators to get a better understanding of what kinds of personal traits one user may carry and how would this one interacts with various function on the website. It could be utilized to make a prediction on what kind of educational

products or courses will be more welcomed by certain students and learners. After analyzing such data as how many people have visited one page and what kind of activities they are most likely to carry out, the administrator could be informed that what kind of needs one student possesses and how they can develop in the future to cater to their needs. For the education website owners, the web analysis can also be used as a mean to find out any hidden security risks online and could help them gaining evidence for court should an attack really happens.

In the world of academics, web analytics is also beneficial in helping the college to make strategic plans. For instance, with a growing number of traditional courses, tutoring services are going to be changed into their online version, web analytic will find out how to deploy these courses and servers better so that they could get maximum visit from those who are interested in them. Since many data and information are distributed on different websites, they call for the facilitation of web analytics to perform an integration to the scattered resources. Moreover, the educational corporations, both online and offline, could easily get to know how the traffic flow changes every day on their online learning systems[1].

10.1 Web Analytics Anatomy

Normally, the history of web analytics could be traced back to last 60s when scientists start to analyze web logs. These logs could be transaction or search types. The transaction type takes direct actions such as user's clicks, how long they have spent on one page into consideration while search type focuses more on the behavior on how the users carry out the searching activities.

Depending on the data provided by the servers, web analytics send small package of data (commonly known as cookies) to the user. Cookies will start collecting data and send them back to the server. Such process is called as server-side data collection. On the other hand, this kind of data collection would render itself not accurate. Internet service provider (ISP) provides IP address to users while user many set blockade to some cookies. To the contrary, client-side data collection is more flexible and can be more accurate. By implanting tags into the website being visited by the client, client-side data collection could carry out more versatile missions.

The word Human Computer Interaction(HCI) have been a buzzword nowadays and it have been embedded into our daily lives. Web analytics could also have utilized such different methods as interviews, questionnaires to establish more convincing reports. Key Performance Indicators (KPI) are set up to differentiate various kinds of web analytics. As of an example, one university that introduced with a new kind of LMS are facing difficulty because too much people are using its social features and it needs some backup support. The web based analysis will be performed to assess the resource the university possesses and evaluate the need to figure how to employ capable person to perform certain kinds of maintenance work as well. The KPI within could be able to indicate how many clicks can one user click before reaching the help page, how long will a user spend on the help page, how easy the help material could be comprehended, how visible are the various icons to the viewer and so on. Then the KPIs are collected and analyzed to compose a report[4].

10.2 Web Analytics and Education

In the field of education, web analytics are utilized to form reports that are driven by data to help such functions as facilitating students, managing staffs and supporting researches. Also, web analytics are used to figure out how well a student could perform, how would the student and online tutor would normally interact, how effective one course could be and how well the student is progressing in the course. One specific kind of web analysis is called as academic analytics. It would evaluate the overall performance on an online teaching website to provide information so that administrators could better make decisions.

Learning analytics, as mentioned before, focuses on the collection and analysis of data that have relation to the learners and the courses and learning materials. Learning analytics are also utilized in documenting students' overall learning efficiency in computer facilitated learning and could facilitate student to get accustomed to the online teaching and learning environment better. With big data gained and stored in the systems, learning analytics made many contributions to lots of fields that could help students reaching their academic success. For example, they could note down where the students are now in the middle of a course; if a student misses too much class, they could figure it out and send intervene staff quickly; assess different aspect of the Learning management system; give out help and facilitation that could cater to a student's need[5].

As one way to lead students to academic success, learning analytics could trace all students' activity and other behaviors in the online environment, with data collected via the student information system (SIS). In a class that is one hundred percent online, instructors could fully utilize learning analytic to carry out formative evaluation, which could help the teacher to learn about how the students are performing, how could they make modification to ongoing courses, and how he or she could demonstrate such course materials to the students. An example would be that the teacher could track how many time the student have entering the LMS in the allotted time and use it as evidence of attendance record. Also, the teacher could record how many clicks are carried out in one content page or during one course, or how long the student has spent in different sections of the course. All the data collected above could give out information on how the user behave and how the relations of learners and teaching and learning materials have been. With the deployment of web learning analytic in the LMS, the instructor could figure out abnormal activities of students and give out interventions that cater to the student's needs.

To boost the efficiency of the learning analysis system to the maximum level, learning analytic could also reach to qualitative data such as the discussions in students' forums, students' cooperative wiki pages, and many other social learning assets to form more persuasive and convincing data to website administrators. This requires natural language processing kit (NLTK) to perform semantic analysis so that these qualitative data could be better transcribed into data that would be better analyzed. These data gained could be utilized to perform some higher-level assessments, such as the creativity and critical thinking level of a student[7]. With different teaching and learning goals, KPI could help student, or make modifications of online course in the online learning website with the facilitation of quantitative and qualitative data. They can also

run course diagnose for learners and teachers. The KPI mentioned could be collected and analyzed with such techniques as students' characteristics and performance tracking, investigating a group of students with same traits, giving out content recommendations of learning materials on history activities and make prediction to future developments.

11 THE INTELLIGENT TUTORING SYSTEMS

The term intelligent tutoring system are used to describe a computer system that could act as a human mentor to some extent to facilitate a student in getting to understand and have firm understanding of the learning materials. Such system is often designed to make learning with a higher efficiency as well as providing inspiration to students while learning. It requires the support of big data and are considered one of the rising learning technologies in the field[26]. Taking a human mentor for example, he or she will be preparing for the learning material for the student first, then he or she will try the best to get the student motivated for learning. When the student is facing difficulties in learning, he or she will stand out and provide necessary guidance for them to overcome the barrier. Likewise, AI of the intelligent tutoring system could be evaluated and determined whether it could qualify as a human teacher. Such system need to negotiate and communicate with a student to get accustomed to newer conditions, and when a student make requests of learning materials or asks question on certain items, the system will adjust automatically to cater to student's need better. In a word, intelligent tutoring system is different from commonplace e-learning websites as it is more flexible and could provide more detailed education contents. This system could store gigantic amount of data, ready to respond to unique needs of students under different scenarios[12].

11.1 Anatomy of the ITS

Such system has provoked the wide interest amongst researcher and programmer thus many have devoted themselves into designing it, which makes one kind of such system greatly differs from another. It is worthwhile to notice that even these systems have distinctive design theories, they are share the similarities of the following elements: domain, learner, pedagogical and interaction model.

Domain model mainly answer the question on how to represent the core knowledge on the computer. It could be demonstrated as flow charts, diagrams, semantic networks, etc. It is mainly consisted of the fundamental logic, strategies and rules to solve ongoing questions. It is the logical core of the system, as it will provide assessment standard when the student's progress is going through evaluation. Moreover, it will also serve as a detector of abnormal behaviors[8].

Learner's model will be demonstrating the systematic evaluation on how well the student is going through one course, what kind of error the student will most likely to make, what kind of learning style the student prefers, what characteristic the student possesses, etc. Such information is collected via students' activities on the system. This kind of model is also utilized in self-regulated learning,

which relies little on the help of other human instructors.

Pedagogical model focuses more on using best teaching and learning strategies to the student according to the teaching environment. It will check on the student's learning progress, and give out appropriate information or facilitation accordingly.

Interaction model, also known as the interactive model are more like a translator between the system and the student. It will need to receive student's input and give out response that could meet the student's needs. Not only this model requires information on the learning material, it would also need information on the common sense of mankind. It was based on verbal texts but nowadays one could identify users' interaction from a variety of sources such as facial expressions, body temperature and moisture, minor gestures, etc.

These four models are all under the management of a database. Moreover, the models are designed under the guidance of different educational theories and uprising technologies. As for interactive model, it is based on various multimedia means. To better understand one student's input, NLTK is involved as well as voice recognition software. AIs are introduced to interactive model to automatically output text and voice messages. Capturing technologies are also involved to capture the student's facial expressions and body gestures. Researchers are also trying to bring virtual and augmented reality to the model. This model involves psychology related content as well as researchers are managing to deploy emotional detection technology to determine one's affection state as it might cast profound impact on the learning effect of an individual. When the internet haven't reached today's popularity, many of the ITS were installed on the PC and cannot get frequent upgrade. Due to the hardware limitations of PCs at that time, the function of such ITS is highly limited, as there was little storage space, and PC didn't have high processing speed at that time[9].

With the rapid development of the internet and PC, ITS have entered an new era as many calculation and data could be processed on the cloud. This have removed the blockade of those who with to be guided by ITS and it is making a growing number of learners benefit from ITS. Nowadays the needed learning materials could be searched and retrieved in no time thanks to ever-developing searching techniques. Moreover, more online wikis are being established which provided supplementary source of domain knowledge to help broaden the borders of domain models.

Learners have also witnessed the rapid development of mobile learning in the field of ITS. Wherever there is internet, learner could easily get in touch with ITS at every corner of the world. As smart cell phones and tablets became almost necessities of everyone, ITS have also taken a leap forward and keep absorbing the newest discoveries in such field as machine learning and big data mining. Learners nowadays could get authentic and quick feedback from ITS, which could be a great motivation to the process of learning.

11.2 Designing ITS

To design an ITS system, researchers have to follow certain procedures, which have certain resemblance with designing a learning management system, or a teaching and learning software. It is commonly agreed that such process take place in four steps: Needs

assessment to carry out the anatomy of learner goals and discussion with the instructor and course material designer for the course; Cognitive task analysis to start building models mentioned before, preparing to tackle any issues in the developmental process; Initial mentor implementation to set up the ecosystem of the ITS and to provide learning facilitation; Evaluation to start trial runs of the ITS and to testify the overall steadiness and robustness of the ITS and give out a holistic assessment to the system.

11.3 Applying ITS

One of the most outstanding feature of ITS is that it possesses the capability to give out immediate response to students' needs without a human teacher. Moreover, it can also give timely support, choosing different learning goals for students with different demands, giving individualized coaching and provide mental reinforcement. As a consequence, ITS are more likely to be deployed at institutions, army camps, and business where tutoring and mentoring is required in training yet lacks enough human tutor. Ergo, it have a wide spectrum of application, ranging from kindergarten education, to training on jobs, and even lifelong learning. Researchers have profound interest in studying the efficiency and other benefits of ITS. Such aspects of students as how well they could comprehend the course materials, how eager are they when learning about new contents, how much would they devote themselves into learning and how satisfied they will be after the learning are all taken into consideration. They will even arrange human tutoring session to compare the overall efficiency between human and computer tutors. Some researchers have found out that there is only Little difference between the effect of human tutoring and machine tutoring[10].

As the developers have reached the goal of giving response immediately and provide escalated tutoring techniques, they are facing new challenges now. Due to the complexity of such system, ITS is not economy-friendly to design and deploy. As a result, researchers and developers are researching and developing means to make deploying these systems at a lower cost.

11.4 Envisioning ITS

As mentioned before, the most vital feature of ITS is it does not require extra human tutor to give help to the student. What is more, it could also generate and comprehend natural language for better communication between the machine and the learners. There are many undiscovered areas for researchers to venture in as the recognition rate of the system are still in a moderate level and still have rooms for development. Also, the natural language output give by the ITS sometimes are not considered authentic enough for students to understand. Researchers are also calling for the research on the identification of students' affection state so that the dialogue may change to different mood the student is in accordingly. The system should also be capable of know how the student will be most motivated, thus planning for motivation strategies.

The researchers also have the ambition to upgrade the ITS from a system to an environment. It could adapt to more kinds of learners, providing more reliable content and support to learners, and have greater flexibility in the tutoring process. The most advanced ITS

could still only function in questions that have clear boundaries and finite solutions. It is all researchers' hope that in the future the ITS will be able to support student with question that have open answers[11].

12 CONCLUSION

For centuries, the learning style of countries around the world remains similar. The teachers are served as the center of information. Students go to school to acquire information they otherwise do not know if they just stay at home. That is the reason why behaviorism was proposed as the main theory of learning. However, with the development of science of technology, people have more tools of getting information such as radio, television and movies. Such development pushed educators to revise their educational strategies in order to make education attractive. Then cognitive theory came into being and provided guidance of how to facilitate the process of learning. However, with the increase of publishing of books and the development of affordable and high speed internet, teachers can no longer serve as people who provide information to students in the fast-changing world. Therefore the strategy of teaching must again change the suit the world. The shift is to foster students ability to solve ill-defined problems through collaboration with minimal guidance from instructors and develop meta-cognitive skills. Data mining and recommendation engine have proven their importance nowadays and will continue to shine and make more impact in the foreseeable future in the field of education. The specific field of learning analytic will continue to make more contribution to online learning. However, we must take the ethical use of big data into consideration and make sure we maximize the benefit of big data in education while preventing misusing the data and protect individual's privacy at all costs. Another issue might be the ever-complex algorithms and codes will be a challenge to education specialists and school or learning website admins while the programmer may have limited knowledge in education. However, with the rapid development of educational recommendation system, many new job opportunities will be created, thus encouraging specialists to carry out interdisciplinary research and there will be a growing number of talents that excel both in education theories and programming. It also calls for the tight collaboration between education expert and programmers to make sure that the ever growing education recommendation system backed by big data mining will lead countless of learner to their academic success. The potential of big data on education is still not clear. Although big data have been employed in commerce, healthcare, artificial intelligence and other industries, educators are still waiting to see its implication on learning. However, we can predict big data will bring positive changes to learning as a whole and provide new perspective to instructional design.

A CONCLUSION OF ROLES IN THE TERM PAPER

In this term paper my partner Weipeng Yang and I participated in the discussion of the general topic of the paper. We finalized the topic through a meeting. Since we are all students of the Instructional System Technology department at the school of education, we reached an agreement that the topic should be how big data can

influence instructional design.

Then in the following meetings we had , we generally came up the the structure of the paper. Instructional design is a subject of education. However, instructional design itself is still a broad topic. Therefore, we want to put our focus on Problem-based learning which is an important learning strategy. In addition, we also took our audience into consideration. The potential readers of the paper are not necessarily in the field of instructional design, so we thought it is important to introduce this field of study, the development of instructional design first. And then we will focus on Problem-based learning and give a few examples.

And because we are not in the field of big data and this field is really strange to us, we wanted to summarize topics involved in big data and then present how big data will influence instructional design.

In this term paper, my responsibility was to focus on the instructional design part and Weipeng was in charge of the big data part. But we also participated in each other's work to keep the group go smoothly.

REFERENCES

- [1] S Aher and L Lobo. 2013. Combination of machine learning algorithms for recommendation of courses in e-learning system based on historical data. *Knowledge-Based Systems* (2013).
- [2] Bob Burgess. 2011. The Educational Theory of Socrates. (2011). <http://www.newfoundations.com/GALLERY/Socrates.html>
- [3] Hsinchun Chen, Roger H. L. Chiang, and Veda C. Storey. 2012. BUSINESS INTELLIGENCE AND ANALYTICS: FROM BIG DATA TO BIG IMPACT. *MIS QUARTERLY* 36, NO.4 (Dec. 2012), 1168–1169.
- [4] W Chughtai, A Selama, and I Ghani. 2013. Short systematic review on e-learning recommender systems. *Journal of Theoretical & Applied Information Technology* (2013).
- [5] B Clifton. 2008. (2008). <http://www.ga-experts.com/web-data-sources.pdf>
- [6] R S Donner and H Bickley. 1993. Problem-based learning in American medical education: an overview. *Bulletin of the Medical Library Association* 81, 3 (1993), 294–298.
- [7] P Dwivedi and K Bharadwaj. 2013. Effective trust-aware e-learning recommender system based on learning styles and knowledge levels. *Educational Technology & Society* (2013).
- [8] R Ferguson. 2012. Learning analytics: Drivers, developments and challenges. *International Journal of Technology Enhanced Learning* (2012).
- [9] J Gray, T Boyle, and C Smith. 1998. A constructivist learning environment implemented in Java. In *Proceedings of the 6th Annual Conference on the Teaching of Computing and the 3rd Annual Conference on Integrating Technology Into Computer Science Education: Changing the delivery of computer science education* (pp. 94f97).
- [10] T Gunz and M Hollingsworth. 2013. The implementation and assessment of a shared 21st century learning vision: A districtbased approach. *Journal of Research on Technology in Education* (2013).
- [11] M Hofer and N Grandgenett. 2012. TPACK development in teacher education: A longitudinal study of preservice teachers in a secondary M.A.Ed. Program. *Journal of Research on Technology in Education* (2012).
- [12] B Jansen. 2009. *Understanding user-web interactions via web analytics*. San Rafael, CA: Morgan & Claypool.
- [13] A. Januszewski and M Molenda. 2008. *Definition. In Educational Technology: A Definition with Commentary*. New York: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Chapter 1, 1–14.
- [14] Dan Kerns. 2013. 10 Ways Big Data is Changing K-12 Education. (2013). <http://www.dreambox.com/blog/10-ways-big-data-changing-k-12-education-2>
- [15] M Kim and E Lee. 2013. A multidimensional analysis tool for visualizing online interactions. *Journal of Educational Technology & Society* (2013).
- [16] K Kingsley and J Brinkerhoff. 2011. Web 2.0 tools for authentic instruction, learning and assessment. *Social Studies and the Young Learner* (2011).
- [17] Tom Krawiec. 2017. The Amazon Recommendations Secret to Selling More Online. (2017). <http://rejoiner.com/resources/amazon-recommendations-secret-selling-online/>
- [18] Harlan M. Krumholz. 2014. Big Data And New Knowledge In Medicine: The Thinking, Training, And Tools Needed For A Learning Health System. *Health Aff (Millwood)* (2014).
- [19] C Lankshear and M Knobel. 2006. *New literacies: Everyday practices & classroom learning* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Open University Press.
- [20] How Big Data Will Boost Learning and Teaching in Higher Education. 2016. Cogbooks. (2016). <https://www.cogbooks.com/2016/10/05/big-data-will-boost-learning-teaching-higher-education/>
- [21] J Lucas, S Segarra, and M Moreno. 2012. Making use of associative classifiers in order to alleviate typical drawbacks in recommender systems. *Expert Systems With Applications* (2012).
- [22] R Maloy, R Verock-O'Loughlin, S Edwards, and B Woolf. 2014. *Transforming learning with new technologies* (2nd ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson.
- [23] DI Mansur, SR Kayastha, R Makaju, and M Dongol. 2012. Problem Based Learning in Medical Education. *Kathmandu University Medical Journal* 10, 4 (2012), 78–82.
- [24] Bernard Marr. 2015. How Big Data Is Changing Healthcare. (2015). <https://www.forbes.com/sites/bernardmarr/2015/04/21/how-big-data-is-changing-healthcare/#86305c528730>
- [25] M. Molenda and E Boling. 2008. *In Educational Technology: A Definition with Commentary*. New York: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Chapter 4, 81–83.
- [26] Office of Educational Technology. 2013. Expanding evidence approaches for learning in a digital world. (2013). <http://tech.ed.gov/files/2013/02/Expanding-Evidence-Approaches.pdf>
- [27] Kaushik Pal. 2016. What is the influence of Big Data in Medicine? (2016). <https://www.kdnuggets.com/2016/03/influence-big-data-medicine.html>
- [28] Evelyn Sakakida RaWski. 1979. Education and Popular Literacy in China Michigan. (1979).
- [29] R. A. Reiser and J. V. Dempsey. 2012. *Trends and issues in instructional design and Technology*: (3 ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson Education, Inc., Chapter What field did you say you were in? Defining and naming our field, 1–7.
- [30] Jeffrey Riegel. 2013. Confucius. (2013). <https://plato.stanford.edu/entries/confucius/>
- [31] C Romero, S Ventura, and E Garcia. 2008. Data mining in course management systems: Moodle cases study and tutorial. *Computers & Education* (2008).
- [32] C Romero, S Ventura, A Zafra, and P de Bra. 2009. Applying Web usage mining for personalizing hyperlinks in Web-based adaptive educational systems. *Computer and Education* (2009).
- [33] J Rountree, N Rountree, A Robins, and R Hannah. 2005. Observations of student competency in a CS1 course. In *Proceedings of the 7th Australasian Conference on Computing Education: Vol. 42*.
- [34] P Saettler. 1990c. *Behaviorism and educational technology: 1950 - 1980*. Englewood, CO: Libraries Unlimited, Chapter 10, 293.
- [35] J. R. Savery and T. M Duffy. 2001. *Problem-based learning: An instructional model and its constructivist framework*. Technical Report 16. Indiana University Bloomington.
- [36] Eric Schadt. [n. d.]. The role of big data in medicine. ([n. d.]). <https://www.mckinsey.com/industries/pharmaceuticals-and-medical-products/our-insights/the-role-of-big-data-in-medicine>
- [37] J Schafer. 2005. *The application of data mining to recommender systems*. Hershey, PA: Idea Group.
- [38] L Schrum and B Levin. 2009. *Leading 21st century schools: Harnessing technology for engagement and achievement*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.
- [39] S Shum and R Ferguson. 2012. Social learning analytics. *Journal of Educational Technology & Society* (2012).
- [40] G Siemens. 2013. Learning analytics: The emergence of a discipline. *American Behavioral Scientist* (2013).
- [41] K. H. Silber and W. R Foshay. 2006. *Handbook of human performance technology*. San Francisco: Pfeiffer, Chapter Designing instructional strategies: A cognitive perspective, 371.
- [42] B.F. Skinner. 1954. The science of learning and the art of teaching. *Harvard Educational Review* (1954).
- [43] Wikipedia. 2017. Education. (2017). <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Education>
- [44] B. G Wilson. 2012. *Trends and issues in instructional design and technology* (3 ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson Education, Chapter Constructivism in practical and historical context, 45.
- [45] P Winoto, T Tang, and G McCalla. 2012. Contexts in a paper recommendation system with collaborative filtering. *International Review of Research in Open and Distance Learning* (2012).
- [46] Diana F Wood. 2003. ABC of learning and teaching in medicine. *Clinical review* 326 (2003), 328–329.

bibtext report

=====

This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
Warning--entry type for "Wikipedia2017" isn't style-file defined
--line 94 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "Riegel2013" isn't style-file defined
--line 101 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "Burgess2011" isn't style-file defined
--line 109 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "Schadt" isn't style-file defined
--line 146 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "Pal2016" isn't style-file defined
--line 152 of file report.bib
Repeated entry--line 184 of file report.bib
: @article{Wikipedia2017
:
,
I'm skipping whatever remains of this entry
Warning--entry type for "Marr2015" isn't style-file defined
--line 191 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "clifton2008" isn't style-file defined
--line 198 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "Office2013" isn't style-file defined
--line 330 of file report.bib
Name 1 in "DI Mansur, and SR Kayastha and R Makaju, and M Dongol" has a comma at the end
while executing--line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Name 1 in "DI Mansur, and SR Kayastha and R Makaju, and M Dongol" has a comma at the end
while executing--line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Name 3 in "DI Mansur, and SR Kayastha and R Makaju, and M Dongol" has a comma at the end
while executing--line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Name 1 in "DI Mansur, and SR Kayastha and R Makaju, and M Dongol" has a comma at the end
while executing--line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Name 3 in "DI Mansur, and SR Kayastha and R Makaju, and M Dongol" has a comma at the end
while executing--line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Name 1 in "Savery, J. R., and Duffy, T. M" has a comma at the end for entry Savery2001
while executing--line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Name 1 in "Savery, J. R., and Duffy, T. M" has a comma at the end for entry Savery2001
while executing--line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Name 1 in "Savery, J. R., and Duffy, T. M" has a comma at the end for entry Savery2001
while executing--line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Name 1 in "DI Mansur, and SR Kayastha and R Makaju, and M Dongol" has a comma at the end
while executing--line 3131 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Name 1 in "DI Mansur, and SR Kayastha and R Makaju, and M Dongol" has a comma at the end while executing---line 3131 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Name 1 in "Savery, J. R., and Duffy, T. M" has a comma at the end for entry Savery2001 while executing---line 3131 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Name 1 in "Savery, J. R., and Duffy, T. M" has a comma at the end for entry Savery2001 while executing---line 3131 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Warning--no number and no volume in Aher2013
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in Aher2013
Warning--no number and no volume in Chughtai2013
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in Chughtai2013
Warning--no number and no volume in Dwivedi2013
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in Dwivedi2013
Warning--no number and no volume in Ferguson2012
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in Ferguson2012
Warning--empty publisher in Gray1998
Warning--empty address in Gray1998
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in Gray1998
Warning--no number and no volume in Gunn2013
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in Gunn2013
Warning--no number and no volume in Hofer2012
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in Hofer2012
Warning--empty address in Jansen2009
Warning--empty address in Januszewski2008
Warning--no journal in Kerns2013
Warning--no number and no volume in Kerns2013
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in Kerns2013
Warning--no number and no volume in Kim2013
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in Kim2013
Warning--no number and no volume in Kingsley2011
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in Kingsley2011
Warning--no journal in Krawiec2017
Warning--no number and no volume in Krawiec2017
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in Krawiec2017
Warning--no number and no volume in Krumholz2014
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in Krumholz2014
Warning--empty address in lankshear2006
Warning--no journal in Learning2016
Warning--no number and no volume in Learning2016
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in Learning2016
Warning--no number and no volume in lucas2012
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in lucas2012
Warning--empty address in Maloy2014
Name 1 in "DI Mansur, and SR Kayastha and R Makaju, and M Dongol" has a comma at the end while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Name 1 in "DI Mansur, and SR Kayastha and R Makaju, and M Dongol" has a comma at the end while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Name 3 in "DI Mansur, and SR Kayastha and R Makaju, and M Dongol" has a comma at the end
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Name 1 in "DI Mansur, and SR Kayastha and R Makaju, and M Dongol" has a comma at the end
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Name 3 in "DI Mansur, and SR Kayastha and R Makaju, and M Dongol" has a comma at the end
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Warning--empty address in Molenda2008
Warning--no journal in RaWski1979
Warning--no number and no volume in RaWski1979
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in RaWski1979
Warning--empty address in Reiser2012
Warning--no number and no volume in Romero2008
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in Romero2008
Warning--no number and no volume in Romero2009
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in Romero2009
Warning--empty publisher in Rountree2005
Warning--empty address in Rountree2005
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in Rountree2005
Warning--empty address in Saettler1990c
Name 1 in "Savery, J. R., and Duffy, T. M" has a comma at the end for entry Savery2001
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Name 1 in "Savery, J. R., and Duffy, T. M" has a comma at the end for entry Savery2001
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Name 1 in "Savery, J. R., and Duffy, T. M" has a comma at the end for entry Savery2001
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Warning--empty year in Schadt
Warning--can't use both author and editor fields in Schafer2005
Warning--empty address in Schafer2005
Warning--empty address in Schrum2009
Warning--no number and no volume in Shum2012
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in Shum2012
Warning--no number and no volume in Siemens2013
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in Siemens2013
Warning--empty address in Silber2006
Warning--no number and no volume in Skinner1954
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in Skinner1954
Warning--empty address in Wilson2012
Warning--no number and no volume in Winoto2012
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in Winoto2012
(There were 21 error messages)
make[2]: *** [bibtex] Error 2

latex report

=====

[2017-12-08 04.01.24] pdflatex report.tex

Compliance Report

name: Yang Weipeng
hid: 236
paper1: Oct 22 17 - 100%
paper2: Nov 7 17 - 100%
project: Dec 4 17 - 100%

yamlcheck

wordcount

```
12  
wc 236 project 12 12097 report.tex  
wc 236 project 12 12584 report.pdf  
wc 236 project 12 1481 report.bib
```

find "

passed: True

```
find footnote
```

```
12: \renewcommand\footnotetextcopyrightpermission[1]{} % removes  
      footnote with conference information in first column
```

```
passed: False
```

```
find input{format/i523}
```

```
passed: False
```

```
find input{format/final}
```

```
passed: False
```

```
floats
```

```
figures 0  
tables 0  
includegraphics 0  
labels 0  
refs 0  
floats 0
```

```
True : ref check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
```

```
True : label check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
```

```
True : include graphics passed: (figures >= includegraphics)
```

```
True : check if all figures are refered to: (refs >= labels)
```

```
Label/ref check
```

```
passed: True
```

```
When using figures use columnwidth
```

```
[width=1.0\columnwidth]
```

```
do not change the number to a smaller fraction
```

```
find textwidth
```

passed: True

below_check

WARNING: figure and above may be used improperly

190: As one way to lead students to academic success, learning analytics could trace all students' activity and other behaviors in the online environment, with data collected via the student information system (SIS). In a class that is one hundred percent online, instructors could fully utilize learning analytic to carry out formative evaluation, which could help the teacher to learn about how the students are performing, how could they make modification to ongoing courses, and how he or she could demonstrate such course materials to the students. An example would be that the teacher could track how many time the student have entering the LMS in the allotted time and use it as evidence of attendance record. Also, the teacher could record how many clicks are carried out in one content page or during one course, or how long the student has spent in different sections of the course. All the data collected above could give out information on how the user behave and how the relations of learners and teaching and learning materials have been. With the deployment of web learning analytic in the LMS, the instructor could figure out abnormal activities of students and give out interventions that cater to the students needs. \\

bibtex

label errors

bibtex errors

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
Warning--entry type for "Wikipedia2017" isn't style-file defined
--line 94 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "Riegel2013" isn't style-file defined
--line 101 of file report.bib
```

```
Warning--entry type for "Burgess2011" isn't style-file defined
--line 109 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "Schadt" isn't style-file defined
--line 146 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "Pal2016" isn't style-file defined
--line 152 of file report.bib
Repeated entry---line 184 of file report.bib
: @article{Wikipedia2017
:
I'm skipping whatever remains of this entry
Warning--entry type for "Marr2015" isn't style-file defined
--line 191 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "clifton2008" isn't style-file defined
--line 198 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "Office2013" isn't style-file defined
--line 330 of file report.bib
Name 1 in "DI Mansur, and SR Kayastha and R Makaju, and M Dongol" has a comma at the end
while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Name 1 in "DI Mansur, and SR Kayastha and R Makaju, and M Dongol" has a comma at the end
while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Name 3 in "DI Mansur, and SR Kayastha and R Makaju, and M Dongol" has a comma at the end
while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Name 1 in "DI Mansur, and SR Kayastha and R Makaju, and M Dongol" has a comma at the end
while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Name 3 in "DI Mansur, and SR Kayastha and R Makaju, and M Dongol" has a comma at the end
while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Name 1 in "Savery, J. R., and Duffy, T. M" has a comma at the end for entry Savery2001
while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Name 1 in "Savery, J. R., and Duffy, T. M" has a comma at the end for entry Savery2001
while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Name 1 in "Savery, J. R., and Duffy, T. M" has a comma at the end for entry Savery2001
while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Name 1 in "DI Mansur, and SR Kayastha and R Makaju, and M Dongol" has a comma at the end
while executing---line 3131 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Name 1 in "DI Mansur, and SR Kayastha and R Makaju, and M Dongol" has a comma at the end
while executing---line 3131 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Name 1 in "Savery, J. R., and Duffy, T. M" has a comma at the end for entry Savery2001
while executing---line 3131 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Name 1 in "Savery, J. R., and Duffy, T. M" has a comma at the end for entry Savery2001
while executing---line 3131 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Warning--no number and no volume in Aher2013
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in Aher2013
Warning--no number and no volume in Chughtai2013
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in Chughtai2013
Warning--no number and no volume in Dwivedi2013
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in Dwivedi2013
```

Warning--no number and no volume in Ferguson2012
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in Ferguson2012
Warning--empty publisher in Gray1998
Warning--empty address in Gray1998
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in Gray1998
Warning--no number and no volume in Gunn2013
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in Gunn2013
Warning--no number and no volume in Hofer2012
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in Hofer2012
Warning--empty address in Jansen2009
Warning--empty address in Januszewski2008
Warning--no journal in Kerns2013
Warning--no number and no volume in Kerns2013
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in Kerns2013
Warning--no number and no volume in Kim2013
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in Kim2013
Warning--no number and no volume in Kingsley2011
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in Kingsley2011
Warning--no journal in Krawiec2017
Warning--no number and no volume in Krawiec2017
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in Krawiec2017
Warning--no number and no volume in Krumholz2014
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in Krumholz2014
Warning--empty address in lankshear2006
Warning--no journal in Learning2016
Warning--no number and no volume in Learning2016
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in Learning2016
Warning--no number and no volume in lucas2012
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in lucas2012
Warning--empty address in Maloy2014
Name 1 in "DI Mansur, and SR Kayastha and R Makaju, and M Dongol" has a comma at the end
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Name 1 in "DI Mansur, and SR Kayastha and R Makaju, and M Dongol" has a comma at the end
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Name 3 in "DI Mansur, and SR Kayastha and R Makaju, and M Dongol" has a comma at the end
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Name 1 in "DI Mansur, and SR Kayastha and R Makaju, and M Dongol" has a comma at the end
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Name 3 in "DI Mansur, and SR Kayastha and R Makaju, and M Dongol" has a comma at the end
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Warning--empty address in Molenda2008
Warning--no journal in RaWski1979
Warning--no number and no volume in RaWski1979
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in RaWski1979
Warning--empty address in Reiser2012
Warning--no number and no volume in Romero2008

Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in Romero2008
Warning--no number and no volume in Romero2009
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in Romero2009
Warning--empty publisher in Rountree2005
Warning--empty address in Rountree2005
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in Rountree2005
Warning--empty address in Saettler1990c
Name 1 in "Savery, J. R., and Duffy, T. M" has a comma at the end for entry Savery2001
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Name 1 in "Savery, J. R., and Duffy, T. M" has a comma at the end for entry Savery2001
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Name 1 in "Savery, J. R., and Duffy, T. M" has a comma at the end for entry Savery2001
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Warning--empty year in Schadt
Warning--can't use both author and editor fields in Schafer2005
Warning--empty address in Schafer2005
Warning--empty address in Schrum2009
Warning--no number and no volume in Shum2012
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in Shum2012
Warning--no number and no volume in Siemens2013
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in Siemens2013
Warning--empty address in Silber2006
Warning--no number and no volume in Skinner1954
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in Skinner1954
Warning--empty address in Wilson2012
Warning--no number and no volume in Winoto2012
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in Winoto2012
(There were 21 error messages)

bibtex_empty_fields

entries in general should not be empty in bibtex

find ""

passed: True

ascii

non ascii found 8220
non ascii found 8220

```
non ascii found 8221
non ascii found 8217
non ascii found 8220
non ascii found 8221
non ascii found 8217
```

```
=====
The following tests are optional
=====
```

```
Tip: newlines can often be replaced just by an empty line
```

```
find newline
-----
```

```
passed: True
cites should have a space before \cite{} but not before the {
```

```
find cite {
-----
```

```
passed: True
```

Big Data Analytics in Monitoring Outdoor Air Quality

Janaki Mudvari Khatiwada
Indiana University, Bloomington
P.O. Box 1212
Bloomington, Indiana 43017-6221
jmudvari@iu.edu

ABSTRACT

Outdoor air pollution is one of the risk factors of public health. Air pollution adds burden to public health. Both developing and developed world use new technology and expertise to monitor outdoor air quality. United States Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA) collects outdoor air quality data from state, local and tribal agencies through outdoor air quality monitors across the country. The data get collected into the Air Quality System (AQS) database. This data can be used for variety of purposes such as education, research and regulatory. Data from this data-mart is available for different time-series like hourly, daily, weekly, monthly and yearly. It gives us a real picture of outdoor air quality and measurements of pollutants present in the air in a particular time period. The data can be used for comparing air quality among different regions, raise awareness to general public so that they can play a role in reducing household air pollutants, to see the trend of air pollutants at different time periods in a day or a season, it can also be combined with emissions data for comparative study. Data analysis of pollutants help identify pollution hot spots. Since air quality is vital for public health and environmental health, air quality monitoring possesses great significance from public health perspective. It is worth looking at simple statistical values and level of air quality index value for the pollutants described as criteria pollutants as described by World Health Organizations. Simple statistical calculations in bigger datasets help understand the extent and source of problem. It helps in comparing past statistics with the present so helps in evaluations of action being taken during past periods. Looking at the overall mean value of criteria pollutants of 2016 and 2006 reveals improved air quality level to some extent for all core-based statistical areas. But the mean value of carbon monoxide has significantly increased over the ten years period.

KEYWORDS

i523, hid330, Outdoor Air Quality, Big Data, Air Quality Index

1 INTRODUCTION

Outdoor air is a valuable natural resource that is vital to the health and existence of human beings and other forms of life. The outdoor air not only has clean air but has presence of various pollutants. Several health research have revealed that air pollutants are contributing factors for lung cancer, cardiovascular disease, acute and chronic respiratory conditions. World Health Organization (WHO) in 2013 has assessed that air pollution is carcinogenic to humans [14]. "In 2012 WHO estimated that 72 percent of outdoor air pollution-related premature deaths were due to ischaemic heart disease and strokes" [14]. Being aware of this fact, governments along with the scientists and the environmentalists help make policies to

combat air pollution. Each country has set their own standards for outdoor air quality to protect their citizen's health. Every nation's standards depend upon their economic, cultural, social and political needs. "The United States enacted its Clean Air Act (CAA) in 1970 and was amended in 1990 as a way to set stage for combating air pollution challenges" [1]. Since then, the country has made a lot of progress in improving air quality while sustaining a constant economic growth. After the enactment of CAA significant progress has been made in improving the outdoor air quality, reducing emissions levels from vehicles and power-plants. Over the period of 1990 and 2015, "national concentrations of air pollutants improved 85 percent for lead, 84 percent for carbon monoxide, 67 percent for sulfur dioxide (1-hour), 60 percent for nitrogen dioxide (annual), and 3 percent for ozone" [1]. Particulate matters "concentrations (24-hour) improved 37 percent and coarse particle concentrations (24-hour) improved 69 percent" between 2000 and 2015 [1]. Today, United States, European nations, India, China and other developing countries monitor outdoor air quality and use the collected data for identifying the particles present in the air, their contribution to various health problems, their sources, health research and also to find out the solutions to minimize their production level.

Thousands of air quality monitors are placed across the united States including US Virgin Islands and Puerto Rico. They are stationed based upon the significance of air quality effects on health. These monitors stream outdoor air quality data to a national air database system called Air Quality System (AQS). As a result big outdoor air data is generated constantly everyday. Air Quality System database is a national database where state, local and tribal agencies submit all of the data collected from thousands of air quality monitors across the United States. These huge databases are easily accessible in EPAs air data website via AQS. Besides air data, AQS database system has weather and emissions data. Emissions data provides data from vehicular, industrial and powerplants emissions records. Weather plays an important role in the quality of outdoor air. For example, high wind may disperse concentration of chemical particles. AQS database also called AQS Data Mart, has summary of yearly air quality data since the year of 1957. These data give an understanding of outdoor air quality and different particles present in the air and their sources. Source of air particles can be natural or human generated. Pollen, smoke from wildfires, mold, dust are some of the natural air pollutants. Similarly, emissions from power-plants, industries and vehicles, different substances and solutions that human have generated for various purpose are human generated air pollutants.

To set standard for air quality, Air Quality Guidelines was published by WHO in 1987 and have been revised in 1997 [11]. WHO guidelines set an international standard for air quality based on which countries around the world set their own standards to achieve

the goal set by WHO. Nitrous Oxide (NO₂), Sulphur dioxide (SO₂), Carbon Monoxide (CO), ground level Ozone, Particulate Matter (PM) among others, are some of the common hazardous air pollutants. Particulate matters are categorized into two categories, PM2.5 and PM10, based on the size of fine particle. Based on the value of Air Quality Index (AQI), USEPA has classified Outdoor air quality, AQI level as ‘Good’, ‘Moderate’, ‘Unhealthy for sensitive Groups’, ‘Unhealthy’, ‘Very Unhealthy’ and ‘Hazardous’ [7]. The AQI value range from 0 to 500. The agency has assigned colors (‘Green’, ‘Yellow’, ‘Orange’, ‘Red’, ‘Purple’ and ‘Maroon’ respectively) to each of the air quality categories [7]. It is shown in figure 2.

2 BIG DATA AND OUTDOOR AIR QUALITY

In US there are about 4,000 outdoor air quality monitors operated by state environmental agencies [6]. They constantly collect air data on harmful suspended particles present in the air and send them to a national database center which is AQS database. EPA has air quality database from last 27 years from around the states [2]. The size of EPA’s database is 25 GB. The data contains valuable information about the concentrations of different air pollutants in different time series; hourly, daily, weekly and yearly. Besides air quality data, AQS database also contains emissions data and weather data which are vital to the outdoor air air quality. Emissions data is basically data from vehicular and industrial emissions. They help to understand the source of different air pollutants and their role in air quality as well as they can be used for furthering research in limiting their emissions. Yearly summary data of AQS Data Mart can also be used to see the progress made in reducing harmful air pollutants over the years. For example, EPA reported that emission of SO₂ has reduced by 73 percent from 1990 to 2011 which is resulted primarily from electric utilities. Study of Emissions and air quality data gives an insight into the source of air pollutants and scientists can use these data to build a better industrial and vehicular models that reduces the emissions of pollutants. Similarly policy makers set vehicle emissions standards and industrial waste management.

India and China, two bigger economies in the world are battling worst air pollution. In recent years IBM is doing collaborative work with local authorities to combat air pollution in cities like Delhi, Beijing and Johannesburg by providing its data analysis platform called ‘Green Horizons’ [3]. The platform uses machine learning tools to analyze past weather forecasts data along with near real time data from optical sensors, air quality monitors and satellites to understand past forecasting models and build a better prediction models for future forecasts [3]. This prediction model helped Beijing enforce air quality control measures on traffic, construction and industry.

Weather directly affects outdoor air quality. For example in a windy day PMs can easily be spread in a neighboring regions and high temperatures increases ground level ozone [3]. Similarly, another example of relationship between big data analysis and air pollution is use of Microsoft’s tools in incorporating Beijing’s outdoor air data collected from conventional monitors along with data from “environmental monitoring stations, traffic systems, weather satellites, topographic maps, economic data, and even social media” [4].

Furthermore, OpenAQ is another platform besides EPA–AQS repository, which holds and hourly updates near–live air quality data from around the world. It claims to have “collected 133,494,377 air quality measurements from 8,054 locations from 47 countries. Data are aggregated from 98 government level and research-grade sources” [2]. The platform helps general public identify global hotspots for poor air quality and allow to have a look at the outdoor air quality where they live [2]. There is another open forum site called ‘Air–Now International’ where users from around the world can participate in sharing and information about air quality data. “It is an international version of USEPA’s air now system”[8]. Big volume of EPA’s data can be combined with another big data, census data to find out the portion of population breathing polluted air. This gives an understanding of health effects among general public. Since, monitoring stations generate big volume of air pollution data and regularly stream into, EPA’s open source, air database, any concerned individual can access live raw data from the website to find out about the quality of air they are breathing.

3 AIR POLLUTANTS

EPA has prioritized six major air pollutants that are commonly found all over the US. They pose significant threat to public health and environment. They are called ‘Criteria Pollutants’ and they are ground level ozone, fine particles or particulate matter (PM2.5 and PM10), nitrogen dioxide, sulphur dioxide, lead and carbon monoxide [1]. WHO has set the guidelines for each of these pollutants as shown in figure1.

PM2.5 are particles less than or equal to 2.5 micrometers in diameter while PM 10 are particles less than or equal to 10 micrometers. “Sulfate, nitrates, ammonia, sodium chloride, black carbon, mineral dust and water are the main components of PM ” [14]. These components combine with each other to form variety of mixtures in the air and can easily enter our lungs. Longer exposure to these substances increases the risk of lung cancer and cardiovascular disease [14].

Data on emissions from powerplants, industries and motor vehicles shows that emitted pollutants like various volatile substances and various forms of nitrogen oxides (NO₂) are responsible for the formation of ground level ozone. Chemical reactions between these substances create ground level ozone directly in the air [1]. Chest pain, coughing, throat irritation and inflammation are common problems caused by ozone air pollution. The main source of NO₂ is emissions from heating, power generation and engines in vehicles and ships. SO₂ is another air pollutant produced mainly from burning of fossil fuels. Volcano is a natural resource so₂ release in the outdoor air. Longer exposure to this pollutant causes inflammation of respiratory tract [14]. The data on these pollutants have been regularly analyzed to see their trend. They have also been used in health research to have an understanding of their impact on people’s health. Keeping track of problems and source of problems help us in keeping problem at check. Some air pollutants are characterized as hazardous or toxic air pollutants. Some of the examples include benzene, cadmium, mercury, lead and asbestos.

4 HEALTH HAZARDS

Air pollutants, such as hazardous air particles can easily reach our lungs when we breathe. The effects are itchy, irritated throat, nose and inflammation of respiratory tract. Pollutants such as PM 20 block our airtubes. These pollutants badly affects people with asthma and bronchitis. WHO had estimated that in 2012, 3 million premature deaths worldwide due to outdoor air pollution, particularly due to exposure to particulate matter of 10 microns or less [14]. And in 2014 WHO has reported 7 million premature deaths worldwide [14]. Other pollutants such as lead, pesticides, arsenic also called as toxic pollutants are carcinogenic hence are responsible for lung cancer which is one of premature deaths. Carbon monoxide a very common air pollutant generated by combustion has been called a silent killer. Its health effects include nausea, vomiting and reduced neuro and cardiovascular behavior as it blocks oxygen transfer inside the body thereby might lead to death without knowing the real cause of death. Exposure to higher level of ground level ozone have serious health issues, while it affects people with asthma and bronchitis, other groups of people also experience coughing, shortness of breath, eventually inflammation of airways and development of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease [9].

Sulphur dioxide (so₂) is a highly poisonous gas present in ambient air. It is a byproduct of burning of sulphur or product containing sulphur. Its main source is burning of fossil fuels especially in the powerplants and other industrial facilities. This pollutant can harm the environment by causing acid rain [10]. It harms human health by causing breathing difficulty and coughing. It combines with other particle pollutants present in the air causing haze.

5 AIR QUALITY INDEX

AQI is the index, for five major air pollutants discussed above, calculated by special formula developed by EPA. EPA uses its own formula to convert daily concentrations of measurement of each pollutant into AQI value of each pollutant [7]. Among all the highest AQI value is reported as the daily AQI value for that day [7]. Generally AQI 100 is the acceptable index set by EPA to protect public's health and it ranges from 0 to 500 [7]. The higher the value of AQI, greater is the pollution level and greater is the health risk. Based on hourly data collection from air quality monitors, stakeholders can constantly monitor AQI value in their cities or respective location. So weather channels in different media outlets such as local radio, television stations and newspapers also report about AQI index in order to inform general public about air quality in their area. Figure 2 shows the AQI classification for each pollutant as recommended by WHO and implemented by U. S. EPA. EPA is requires to report any AQI value greater than 100 specifically in larger cities with population more than 350,000 [7].

6 OUTDOOR AIR QUALITY MONITORING STATIONS

Outdoor(Ambient) air quality monitors are specified based on the significance of monitoring a particular pollutant [8]. The purpose might be to protect public health or environment in a densely populated areas. They might be stationed nearby, schools, hospitals, parks and recreational areas. While they are operated by several different agencies they are regulated by U. S. EPA. According to

EPA these stations should meet all the requirements for designs and operations as regulated by EPA themselves. These stations not only provide data on air quality they help in evaluating the effectiveness of programs and policies on emissions control.

7 WHO GUIDELINES AND CLEAN AIR ACT

WHO guidelines for air quality is applied worldwide. This guidelines was revised in 2005 [14]. The guidelines set standards for different air pollutants. According to the guidelines which is based on scientific evidence WHO has set standards for Ozone (o₃), SO₂, NO₂ and PM. WHO guidelines try to limit the lowest possible values for these pollutants. For example WHO limit values for PM2.5 is 10 micrograms per cubic meter is annual mean and 25 micrograms per cubic meter is 24-hour mean and limit value for PM10 is 20 micrograms/m³ annual mean and 50 micrograms/m³ 24-hour mean [14] 1. "The 2005 WHO Air quality guidelines" offer global guidance on thresholds and limits for key air pollutants that pose health risks. The Guidelines indicate that by reducing particulate matter (PM10) pollution from 70 to 20 micrograms per cubic metre, we can cut air pollution-related deaths by around 15 percent [14].

United States' Clean Air Act (CAA), first enacted in 1970 and with major revisions in 1990, is a federal law which is defined as "The Act that regulates air emissions from area, stationary, and mobile sources" [1]. CAA . EPA is the administrator of CAA [12]. As required by law, EPA regulates emissions standards for vehicles, industries, aircrafts and powerplants among others in order to protect environment and public health. Today, with the availability of new technology and analytical tools air quality data from the monitors across the regions can be accessed in an instant and can be analyzed for daily reporting. Based on daily AQI value, respective authorities can take appropriate actions to save outdoor air quality in areas where pollution level is insignificant and to identify measures to be taken in areas where air quality is poor.

8 METHODS

8.1 Air Quality Dataset

Outdoor air quality data sets are available in the USEPA.gov website called 'Air Data'. The data on 'Air Data website comes from AQS database where outdoor air data generated from thousands of air quality monitors from all over the country is collected. As mentioned, all states, local and private monitoring agencies send outdoor pollutants concentrations measurement data to the AQS database [1]. Besides, Air Data there are other sources of data as well, they are briefly discussed below;

- 'Air Now' which has air quality forecasts and real-time data in visual form.
- 'AirCompare' that has data about Counties' AQI summaries.
- 'AirTrends' data is about trends of air quality and emissions.
- 'Air Emissions Sources' has emissions data with national, state and county-level summaries for criteria pollutant emissions.
- 'Remote Sensing Information Gateway (RSIG)' that has air quality monitoring, monitoring and satellite data.
- 'Air Data' datasets have raw dataset, AQI summary datasets. Summary reports consists of AQI report which displays a

- yearly summary of AQI values in a county or city or Core Based Statistical Area (CBSA). The AQI values are summarized by maximum percentile and median and count of days in each AQI category and the count of days when AQI could be attributed to each criteria pollutant [1].
- “ Quality Statistics Report has yearly summaries of air pollution values for a city or county. It shows the maximum values reported during the year by all monitors in CBSA or county” [1].
 - Monitor Values Report that has yearly summary of the measurements at individual monitors and has descriptive information about the site [1].
 - Monitor Values Report-Hazardous Air Pollutants that shows HAPs summary data for individual monitoring sites [1].
 - Air Quality Index Daily Values Report that has information about AQI values for specified year and location [1].

The dataset that are being used for analysis are “Daily AQI by CBSA 2016” and “daily AQI by CBSA 2006”, from EPA’s air data website. Air data has different categories of outdoor air quality data. There are datasets for hourly as well as monthly time period broken down by single criteria pollutant of ‘Hazardous Air Pollutants’ (HAPs). There are county level monitors and stations and datasets grouped by “Core Based Statistical Area (CBSA)”. Each datasets have more than 17,000 data points.

CBSA is designed by Office of Management (OMB) as a geographical area that consists of one or more than one counties and similar surroundings that are associated with at least one core urbanized area of at least 10,000 population plus adjacent counties which are associated with each other in terms of social, economic and daily commutes [5]. CBSA collectively refers to Metropolitan and Micropolitan statistical areas. “OMB defined Metropolitan and Micropolitan statistical areas in 2003 based on application of the 2000 standards with Census 2000 data. It became effective in 2003” [5]. There are 922 CBSAs in total [5]. Metropolitan statistical areas are urbanized areas with population of 50,000 and its adjacent areas while Micropolitan statistical areas are areas with population of at least 10000 or less than 50,000 [5].

CBSA AQI datasets fits the scenario for monitoring outdoor air quality. Because the designed statistical areas are significantly populated along with higher concentrations of motor vehicles running, higher number of day to day activities, less natural habitats or and most of the areas are within industrial areas and powerplant generators. Also, the first look at the dataset give a general information about AQI value of each ‘Criteria Pollutant’ for a day in a year of each monitoring stations in CBSAs.

8.2 Methods

The comma separated dataset “daily aqi by cbsa 2016” was downloaded from data source “<https://aqs.epa.gov/aqsweb/airdata>”. The dataset shows AQI value of each “criteria pollutants” for each CBSA recorded per day per station for the year 2016. Criteria pollutants recorded in the dataset are, PM2.5, PM10, Ozone, SO2, NO2 and CO. It also has a column for number of stations for each CBSA and location of the monitoring stations per CBSA.

In order to have a comparative study of any changes in AQI value for each parameter for the listed CBSA, dataset for the year

2006 is also being analyzed. This gives us a picture of changes if any for the duration of 10 years. Since real world datasets may not be perfect, there are slight or negligible amount of discrepancies among the two datasets. Criteria pollutants recorded in the dataset varies within each CBSAs depending on their significance in the region or monitoring stations. Similarly, record date per station per CBSA is not continuous, there are certain interval for recording and reporting data. For example, data is recorded on January 1st 2016 and the next date is January 3rd and 6th and so on. This pattern is seen in the whole dataset. Also, number of monitoring stations varies per CBSAs.

Using jupyter notebook with python2.7 as the interpreter, the dataset is fetched and converted into pandas dataframe for and analysis. Next, only the columns needed for analysis are selected and created a clean pandas dataframe ready for manipulation. Jupyter Notebook is an open source web application which is powerful in data cleaning, manipulation, data analysis and visualizations. The notebook is not sufficient in itself for a variety of data manipulations, it needs to have all sorts of python packages as per requirement of data analysis. Matplotlib, pandas, numpy and pandas datetime are the packages used for air quality data analysis.

9 ANALYSIS

The requirements for the analysis are python’s jupyter notebook and the packages pandas, matplotlib and numpy. Using the pandas dataframe, average AQI value is calculated for each ‘Defining Parameter’ grouped by CBSA. Since AQI value determines the level of risk factor as shown in figure 2, it is worth calculating the mean of that value which helps in determining which CBSA is affected by which ‘defining Parameter’. It also helps identify the source of the pollutant so that responsible stakeholders can take required actions to solve the problem. The purpose of using the data set is to find out level of AQI per CBSA for the year 2016. The reason of using 2016 data set is it the most recent complete set of data for a year. While 2017 data set would have been the most recent look at AQI level in the United States but as of this analysis the 2017 data set contains air quality data until the month of May 2017. This data set wold be completed as a full years data only in the upcoming spring [6]. In order to do a general comparison of the changes, positive or negative, if any similar data set for the year 2006 is selected. This would allow us to look at differences in AQI values in a decade time frame.

9.1 CBSA Average AQI for 2016

Simple statistical measures such as mean, maximum, count and minimum value for any variable provides some insights into the degree of variation between each measure of the variable within a period of time. So, as a first test mean value of “Criteria Pollutants” for all the listed CBSAs have been calculated. Then the results have been plotted into a bar-chart as shown in figure 5. It shows that among all, Ozone and PM 2.5 have highest average among CBSAs while CO, NO2, SO2 and PM10 have slightly lower average AQI for the year 2016.

Furthermore, figure 3 illustrates the average AQI value for overall CBSAs for the year 2016 by month. The table illustrates that AQI value, which is 53.56, for Ozone is the highest during the month of

June of last year. This AQI value of ozone comes under the category of 'unhealthy for sensitive groups'. This value is followed by CO which has the highest mean value for two consecutive months, May and June. From the table it can be said that during 2016 the most significant criteria pollutants were Ozone, CO, and PM2.5.

In order to look at monthly average AQI per 'Defining Parameter', first 'Date' series is converted into pandas datetime format and then the series is bucketed into month of the year column. Then mean is calculated by using 'groupby' function, mean is calculated grouped by 'Defining Parameter' and 'month of year'. The result illustrated in figure 7 shows that there is no significant change in mean AQI for SO2 and PM10 while significant change can be seen for CO and Ozone. AQI average for CO shows a sharp increase in May.

For the purpose of finding out CBSA with highest and lowest average AQI value for the year 2016, for specified pollutant, aggregate function is used with groupby function with descending value of AQI. The result is shown in figure 9. The table shows CBSA 'Madison, WI' has lowest AQI value for SO2, followed by Fayetteville, NC for the same parameter. Similarly, as seen figure 10 Hilo, Hawaii has the highest AQI value for parameter SO2 which is 151.79. This means AQI value is unhealthy and people may experience health effects with sensitive groups people with asthma, bronchitis and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) might have very serious health effects as stated in figure 2. The reason for highest AQI value for SO2 might be the release of SO2 gas from active volcanoes around the CBSA region as SO2 is one of the gases released from volcanoes. Hilo, HI is followed by 'Riverside– San Bernardino–Ontario, CA with AQI value 126.53 for 2 with category 'unhealthy'. Other CBSAs in the top ten list are Lansing–East Lansing, MI, San Juan–Carolina–Caguas, PR, Bishop, CA, Durango, CO, Riverside–San Bernardino–Ontario, CA, Philadelphia–Camden–Wilmington, PA–NJ–DE–MD, Los Angeles–Long Beach–Anaheim, CA and Minneapolis–St.Paul–Bloomington, MN–WI. All of these CBSAs have at least one defining parameter with 'Unhealthy' AQI value. It is also significant that Riverside–San Bernardino–Ontario, CA have two highest AQI value for two defining parameters that is ozone and PM 10.

In order to have a visual picture of level of AQI value, count measure is used grouped by 'CBSA', 'Defining Parameter' and 'Category' and visualized the result in a boxplot. This basically counted number of days in each category of AQI. The figure 11 shows, that there are significant number of 'good days' during 2016 followed by 'moderate', 'unhealthy for sensitive groups' and rest of the three categories have less range of days. As seen in bar chart the mean value for Ozone is higher for the months May and August in comparison to other pollutants Columns for the months of June and July are missing at this point.

9.2 Comparative AQI for 2006 and 2016

To compare AQI per CBSA for criteria pollutants, exactly similar data set for the year 2006 is used to calculate average AQI value and plotted into a bar chart which is shown in figure 6. As the result can be compared with that of 2016. average AQI value for ozone and SO2 is significantly higher compared to 2016 while that of carbon monoxide (CO) has increased significantly from 2006 to 2016. For other parameters there are not so significant changes.

Similarly, average AQI for SO2 is also higher in 2006 compared to 2016. There is also some changes in overall average AQI value. This figure shown here 4 illustrates the AQI average for the year 2006. As seen in barplot this figure shows the highest mean for Ozone at the top of the list when mean is grouped by month of the year and output is sorted in descending order by mean. Interestingly, most of the highest mean value are for the month of June, July and August. To be more specific AQI value for Ozone is mostly during above listed months. Similar result can also be seen in the analysis of 2016 dataset.

While comparing top ten CBSA with highest average AQI value for 2016 with that of 2006, top ten CBSAs with highest average AQI for 2006 is shown in figure 8. Compared to 2016 there is no sharp increase in mean value for CO any of the month as has been in 2016. Its mean value remains comparatively in same range, in between 17 and 16. Whereas, the value for Ozone is significantly higher for the months of March, April, May, August and September. For other months as well it has higher level of mean AQI compared to other pollutants except for SO2 which has the second highest AQI throughout the months. Average value for all of the pollutants throughout the months have higher values compared to that of year 2016 except for CO. Average CO AQI for 2016 is higher than that of the year 2006.

Another comparison can be done by looking at the list of top most CBSAs with higher mean AQI. We have already discussed about this for year of 2016. Now we will look at similar output for 2006 which is shown in figure 12. The mean output is generated by grouping the CBSA and defining parameter. Here, Bishop, CA has highest yearly average for PM10 which is 435.21 followed by CBSA Phoenix–Mesa–Scottsdale, AZ, Carlsbad–Artesia, NM have yearly mean value of 127 for SO2. In comparison to the same statistics for year 2016, mean value is lower than that of 2006. This indicated that there is progress made in lowering the measurement in air pollutant.

10 FURTHER STUDIES

It would be effective to look at the factors that helped lower the mean AQI value within a decade. Are there any policy differences between now and then? Are there less economic activities compared to 2016 or did any of the technology have any role to play to make such change? It would be effective to look at the factors that helped lower the mean AQI value within a decade. As can be seen from the analysis above average ozone has highest average value among all. Finding out or looking at the contributing factors can be another area of furthering this research. and it would be interesting to see any changes if any during the year of 2017. The analysis presented here showcases just the level of pollutants by AQI value. For furthering the studies different models for lowering AQI value for a single pollutant within certain periods of time can be developed. Since vehicular, industrial or air transportation emissions are some of the main sources of criteria pollutants, it would be very effective to analyze monthly emissions data with AQI data to have an understanding of level of pollutants generated from these sources. This analysis can be combined with weather data in order to find out the effects of weather or seasonal variations on increasing or lowering pollutants. There is an increased AQI value

for CO from 2006 to 2016. Factors responsible for poor AQI value can be the next research topics.

Looking at difference in emissions policy during the past decade will also provide some insight into why certain parameters have lower AQI value. Looking at effects of AQI value in international boundaries that is effect evaluation of pollutants of country affecting the air quality of surrounding country could be a whole new topic of outdoor air quality study.

11 CONCLUSION

Air quality monitors across the United States and its territories, Puerto Rico and Virgin Islands collects everyday air data in order to collect data on pollutants present in outdoor air. These generates a huge volume of data. Air data contains measurements of concentrations of pollutants, commonly called as criteria pollutants, present in outdoor air. These monitors are under the management of state, local or private environmental agencies. They collectively send these data to a national database system called air quality system. For analytical purpose the air data from the AQS website which is an source of air data, is directly accessed through jupyter notebook. Simple statistical measures are calculated to have a look at the level of pollutants present in ambient year.

The air data by CBSA, for the year of 2016 have been analyzed to see the average value of AQI for each defining parameter or criteria pollutants. This analysis identifies that average AQI value for Ozone is significantly higher compared to other pollutants. The analysis also shows that AQI value varies by month of the year. The results shows that Ozone AQI is higher in the months of March to August. While calculating overall average AQI, among all of the criteria pollutants level of ground level ozone has the highest value during the year of 2016 as well as 2006. It can also be concluded that overall level of AQI value have been improved over the years period while comparing the value from 2006 with that of 2016. Interesting enough AQI value of CO have been significantly increased from 2006 to 2016.

Air quality monitoring have become an important and effective policy for reducing the concentrations of different criteria pollutants. Since the adoption of clean air act in United States significant progress has been made in improving outdoor air quality. Thereby reducing the development of health risk factors for general public. Air quality monitoring stations collect everyday measurement values of criteria pollutants which generates a big volume of air data. This gives us information on daily level of pollutants present in the air thereby letting us know the quality of air that we breathe everyday. This information is shared to the public through various media outlet. This raise awareness among general public about the importance of outdoor air and their health.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The author would like to thank Dr. Gregor von Laszewski for his motivating words and attitude and support to achieve our best. Also I would like to express my gratitude to teaching assistants Juliette Zerick, Saber and Miao for their encouraging attitude and technical support and suggestions while writing this paper.

REFERENCES

- [1] United States Environmental Protection Agency. 2017. Overview of the Clean Air Act and Air Pollution. Webpage. (April 2017). <https://www.epa.gov/clean-air-act-overview>
- [2] Mike Hamborg. 2017. *U.S. EPA and OpenAQ air quality data now available in BigQuery*. Technical Report. Google Cloud Platform. <https://cloud.google.com/blog/big-data/2017/06/us-epa-and-openaq-air-quality-data-now-available-in-bigquery>
- [3] Alexander Howard. 2015. *How IBM Is Using Big Data To Battle Air Pollution In Cities*. Report. HuffPost. https://www.huffingtonpost.com/entry/ibm-big-data-air-pollution_us_56684e44e4b080edd565510
- [4] Lucas Laursen. 2016. *AI and Big Data vs. Air Pollution*. Technical Report. IEEE-org. <https://spectrum.ieee.org/energy/environment/ai-and-big-data-vs-air-pollution>
- [5] United States Census Bureau. 2012. Geography. webpage. (December 2012). https://www.census.gov/geo/reference/gtc/gtc_cbsa.html
- [6] United States Environmental Agency. 2017. Air Data Basic Information. webpage. (October 2017). <https://www.epa.gov/outdoor-air-quality-data/air-data-basic-information#what>
- [7] United States Environmental Protection Agency. 2016. webpage. (August 2016). <https://airnow.gov/index.cfm?action=aqibasics.aqi>
- [8] United States Environmental Protection Agency. 2016. Air Quality Management Process. webpage. (August 2016). <https://www.epa.gov/air-quality-management-process/managing-air-quality-ambient-air-monitoring>
- [9] United States Environmental Protection Agency. 2017. Health Effects of Ozone Pollution. webpage. (January 2017). <https://www.epa.gov/ozone-pollution/health-effects-ozone-pollution>
- [10] United States Environmental Protection Agency. 2017. Health Effects of Ozone Pollution. webpage. (January 2017). <https://www.epa.gov/so2-pollution/sulfur-dioxide-basics#effects>
- [11] WHO. 2005. Air quality guidelines global update 2005. Webpage. (2005). http://www.who.int/phe/health_topics/outdoorair/outdoorair_aqg/en/
- [12] Wikipedia. 2016. Clean Air Act (United States). webpage. (2016). [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Clean_Air_Act_\(United_States\)](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Clean_Air_Act_(United_States))
- [13] World Health Organization. 2005. *Air quality guidelines Global update 2005 Particulate matter and ozone and nitrogen dioxide and sulfur dioxide* (2005 ed.). WHO, UN City Marmorvej 51 DK-2100 Copenhagen Denmark. <http://www.euro.who.int/en/health-topics/environment-and-health/air-quality/publications/pre2009/air-quality-guidelines-global-update-2005>.
- [14] World Health Organization. 2016. Ambient (outdoor) air quality and health. Webpage. (September 2016). <http://www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs313/en/>

[Figure 1 about here.]

[Figure 2 about here.]

[Figure 3 about here.]

[Figure 4 about here.]

[Figure 5 about here.]

[Figure 6 about here.]

[Figure 7 about here.]

[Figure 8 about here.]

[Figure 9 about here.]

[Figure 10 about here.]

[Figure 11 about here.]

[Figure 12 about here.]

LIST OF FIGURES

1	WHO Guidelines Source And Health Effects [13]	8
2	Air Quality Index [7]	9
3	Top Ten Mean AQI Value for the Year 2016	10
4	Top Ten Mean AQI Value for the Year 2006	11
5	CBSA Average AQI for Criteria Pollutants	12
6	CBSA Average AQI for Criteria Pollutants 2006	13
7	Mean AQI per Month per Criteria Pollutant 2016	13
8	Mean AQI per Month per Criteria Pollutant 2006	14
9	Lowest Mean AQI per CBSA 2016	14
10	Highest Mean AQI per CBSA 2016	15
11	Boxplot Grouped by Category, 2016	16
12	Highest Mean AQI per CBSA 2006	17

Pollutant	Source types and major sources	Health effects	WHO guidelines
Particulate matter	Primary and secondary- Anthropogenic: burning of fossil fuel, wood burning, natural sources (e.g., pollen), conversion of precursors (NO_x , SO_x , VOCs)	Respiratory symptoms, decline in lung function, exacerbation of respiratory and cardiovascular disease (e.g., asthma), mortality	PM_{10} Annual mean: 20 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ 24-hour mean: 50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$
	Biogenic: dust storms, forest fires, dirt roads		$\text{PM}_{2.5}$ Annual mean: 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ 24-hour mean: 25 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$
Ozone	Secondary- Formed through chemical reactions of anthropogenic and biogenic precursors (VOCs and NO_x) in the presence of sunlight	Decreased lung function, increased respiratory symptoms, eye irritation, bronchoconstriction	8-hour mean: 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$
Nitrogen dioxide	Primary and secondary- Anthropogenic: fossil fuel combustion (vehicles, electric utilities, industry), kerosene heaters Biogenic: biological processes in soil, lightning	Decreased lung function, increased respiratory infection Precursor to ozone. Contributes to PM and acid precipitation	Annual mean: 40 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ 1-hour mean: 200 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$
Sulfur dioxide	Primary Anthropogenic: combustion of fossil fuel (power plants), industrial boilers, household coal use, oil refineries Biogenic: decomposition of organic matter, sea spray, volcanic eruptions	Lung impairment, respiratory symptoms. Precursor to PM. Contributes to acid precipitation	Annual mean: 20 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$; 10-minute mean: 500 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$

Figure 1: WHO Guidelines Source And Health Effects [13]

Air Quality Index Levels of Health Concern	Numerical Value	Meaning
Good	0 to 50	Air quality is considered satisfactory, and air pollution poses little or no risk.
Moderate	51 to 100	Air quality is acceptable; however, for some pollutants there may be a moderate health concern for a very small number of people who are unusually sensitive to air pollution.
Unhealthy for Sensitive Groups	101 to 150	Members of sensitive groups may experience health effects. The general public is not likely to be affected.
Unhealthy	151 to 200	Everyone may begin to experience health effects; members of sensitive groups may experience more serious health effects.
Very Unhealthy	201 to 300	Health alert: everyone may experience more serious health effects.
Hazardous	301 to 500	Health warnings of emergency conditions. The entire population is more likely to be affected.

Figure 2: Air Quality Index [7]

month_year	Defining Parameter	Mean
2016-06	Ozone	53.56
2016-05	CO	51.96
2016-06	CO	51.61
2016-05	Ozone	49.07
2016-07	Ozone	48.35
2016-04	Ozone	47.86
2016-07	CO	47.27
2016-08	Ozone	44.83
2016-11	PM2.5	43.21
2016-01	PM2.5	42.18

Figure 3: Top Ten Mean AQI Value for the Year 2016

month_year	Defining Parameter	Mean
2006-07	Ozone	69.58
2006-06	Ozone	69.29
2006-08	Ozone	61.31
2006-05	Ozone	58.31
2006-04	SO2	54.97
	Ozone	54.70
2006-08	PM2.5	51.20
2006-07	PM2.5	50.58
2006-05	SO2	50.36
2006-12	PM2.5	48.96

Figure 4: Top Ten Mean AQI Value for the Year 2006

CBSA Average AQI for Criteria Pollutants

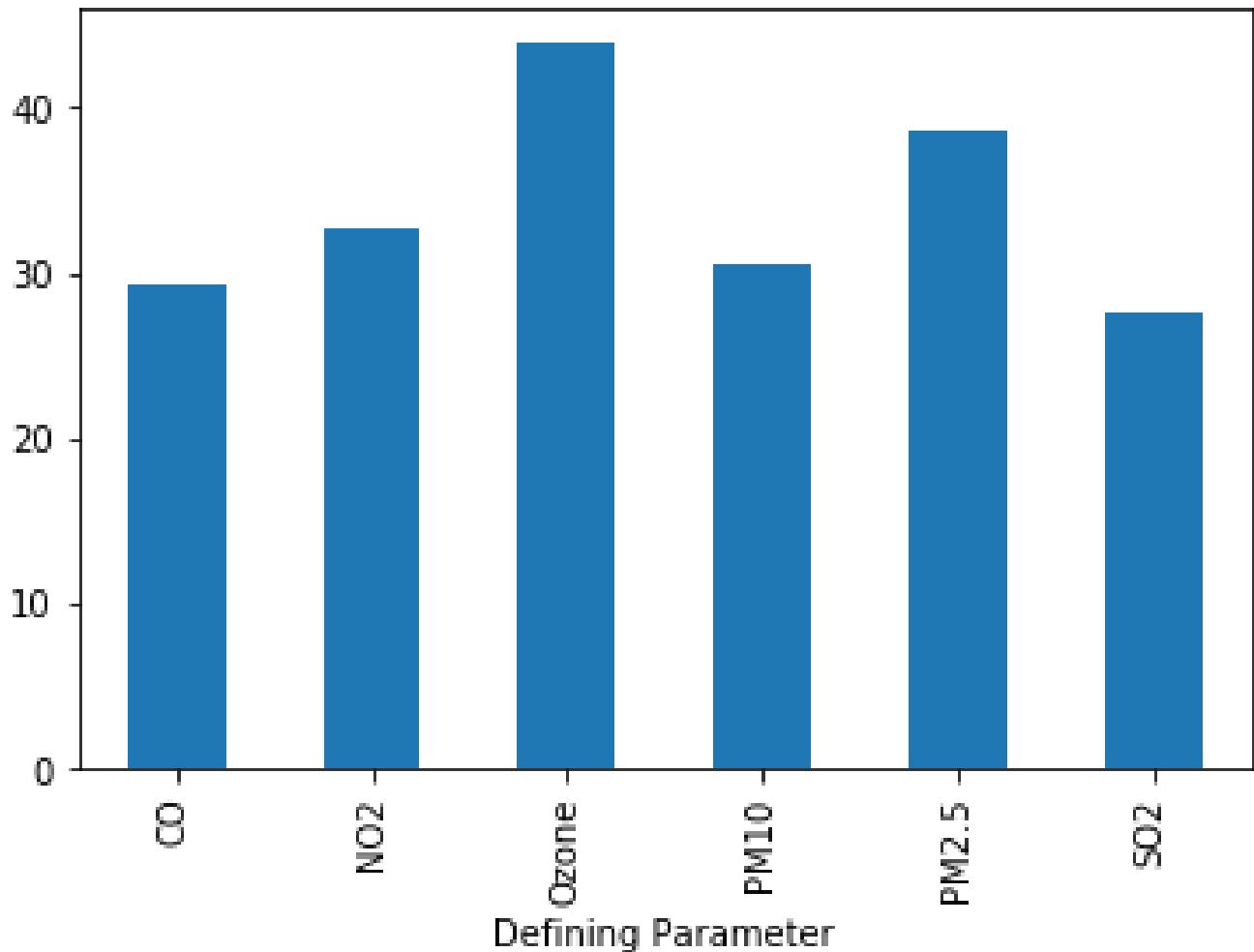


Figure 5: CBSA Average AQI for Criteria Pollutants

CBSA Average AQI for Criteria Pollutants

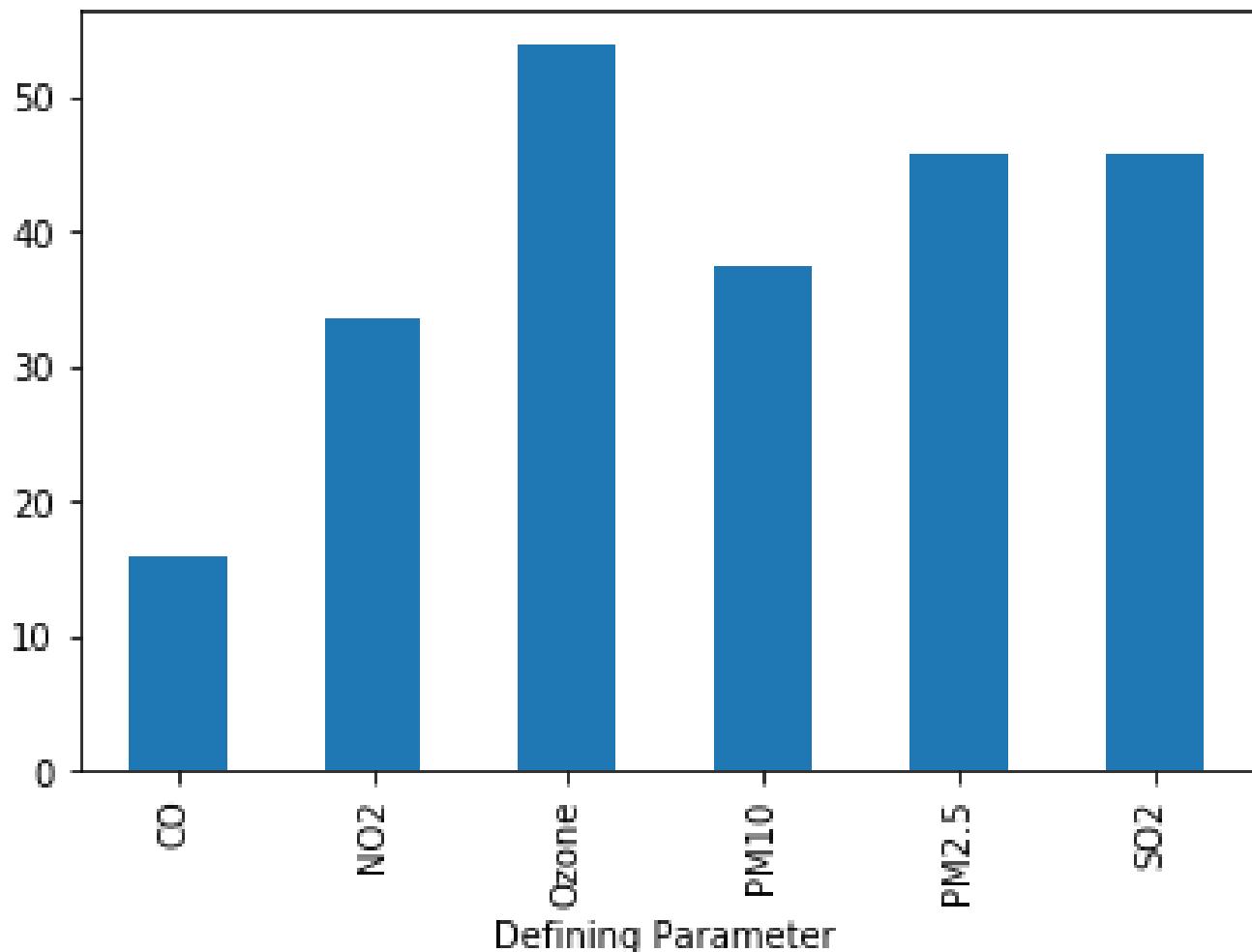


Figure 6: CBSA Average AQI for Criteria Pollutants 2006

Defining Parameters	2016-01	2016-02	2016-03	2016-04	2016-05	2016-08	2016-09	2016-10	2016-11	2016-12
CO	7.19	4.00	8.20	26.00	51.96	16.77	31.25	NA	26.00	2.60
NO ₂	33.18	33.07	33.69	39.00	34.41	22.90	40.43	31.27	33.11	30.39
Ozone	33.97	38.48	41.20	47.86	49.07	44.83	40.91	37.61	34.75	31.07
PM10	19.67	28.82	33.31	30.04	28.67	28.01	32.62	36.89	32.55	25.61
PM2.5	42.18	38.99	35.76	33.30	35.21	36.74	35.90	36.71	43.21	40.82
SO ₂	25.89	26.83	26.83	29.64	24.92	27.51	32.42	32.20	25.99	23.33

Figure 7: Mean AQI per Month per Criteria Pollutant 2016

Defining Parameters	2006-01	2006-02	2006-03	2006-04	2006-05	2006-08	2006-09	2006-10	2006-11	2006-12
CO	17.06	15.07	12.40	15.59	15.15	13.75	20.15	17.97	17.22	16.74
NO2	31.93	38.34	37.99	39.54	33.84	24.79	34.36	32.77	32.60	31.97
Ozone	32.99	37.80	46.22	54.70	58.31	61.31	46.37	38.06	33.51	29.79
PM10	45.46	48.20	32.75	36.07	36.64	31.49	37.91	36.17	40.79	33.55
PM2.5	43.23	45.92	43.81	39.97	43.43	51.20	47.00	41.82	47.47	48.96
SO2	43.84	44.25	44.65	54.97	50.36	48.75	45.89	47.61	43.86	42.40

Figure 8: Mean AQI per Month per Criteria Pollutant 2006

CBSA	Defining Parameter	mean
College Station-Bryan, TX	SO2	1.75
Wilmington, NC	SO2	1.44
Rochester, MN	SO2	1.00
Corning, NY	SO2	1.00
Jamestown-Dunkirk-Fredonia, NY	SO2	1.00
Kapaa, HI	SO2	0.50
Gulfport-Biloxi-Pascagoula, MS	SO2	0.50
Seneca, SC	SO2	0.46
Fayetteville, NC	SO2	0.38
Madison, WI	SO2	0.00

Figure 9: Lowest Mean AQI per CBSA 2016

CBSA	Defining Parameter	mean
Hilo, HI	SO2	151.79
Riverside-San Bernardino-Ontario, CA	Ozone	126.53
Lansing-East Lansing, MI	SO2	123.00
San Juan-Carolina-Caguas, PR	SO2	119.61
Bishop, CA	PM10	117.66
Durango, CO	NO2	109.00
Riverside-San Bernardino-Ontario, CA	PM10	108.20
Philadelphia-Camden-Wilmington, PA-NJ-DE-MD	SO2	107.00
Los Angeles-Long Beach-Anaheim, CA	Ozone	105.46
Minneapolis-St. Paul-Bloomington, MN-WI	SO2	105.00

Figure 10: Highest Mean AQI per CBSA 2016

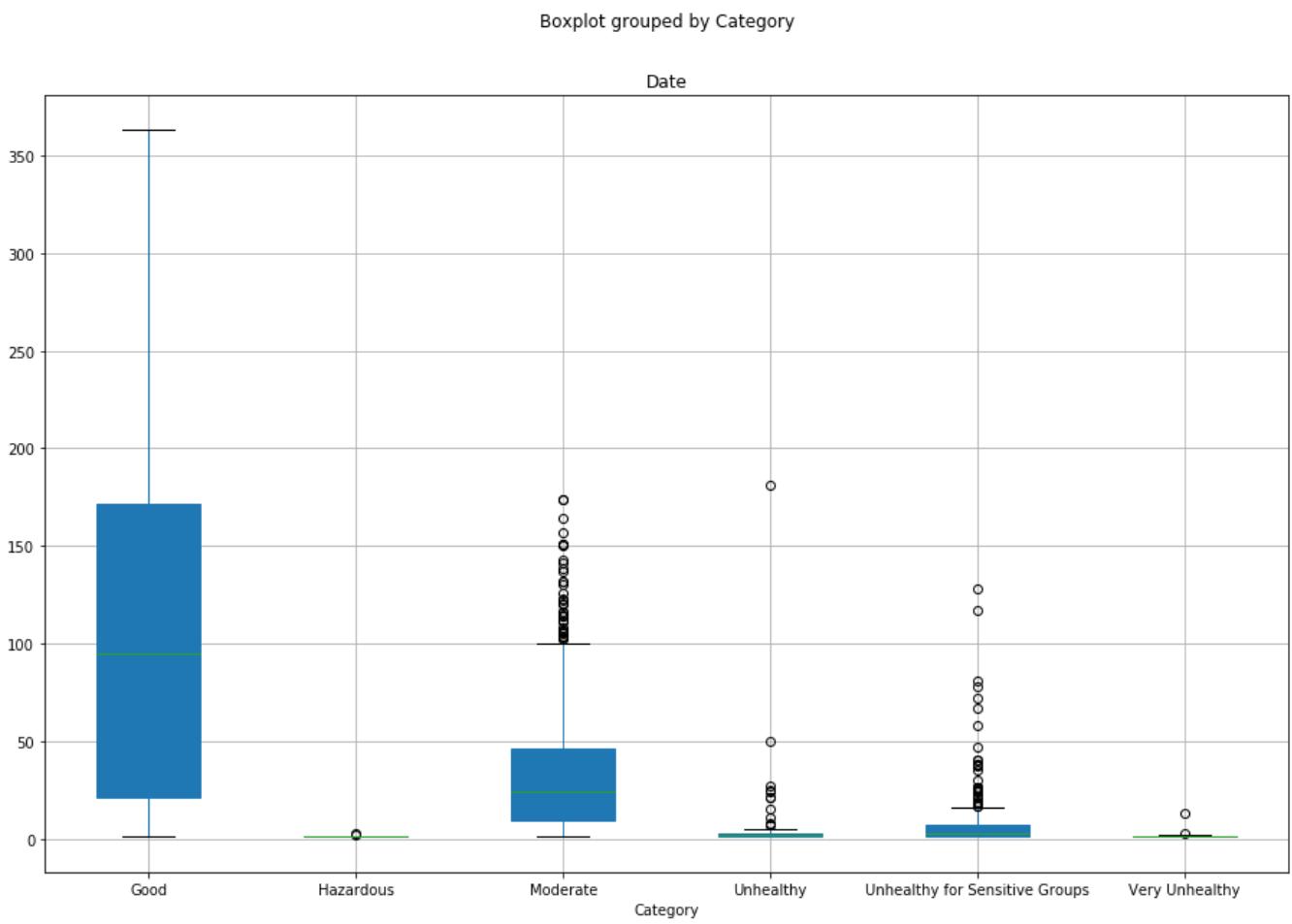


Figure 11: Boxplot Grouped by Category, 2016

CBSA	Defining Parameter	mean
Bishop, CA	PM10	435.21
Phoenix-Mesa-Scottsdale, AZ	PM10	185.33
Carlsbad-Artesia, NM	SO2	161.00
El Centro, CA	SO2	127.50
Riverside-San Bernardino-Ontario, CA	Ozone	123.17
Bakersfield, CA	Ozone	119.92
Atlanta-Sandy Springs-Roswell, GA	Ozone	119.33
Houston-The Woodlands-Sugar Land, TX	Ozone	118.44
Birmingham-Hoover, AL	Ozone	114.16
St. Louis, MO-IL	SO2	112.85

Figure 12: Highest Mean AQI per CBSA 2006

```
bibtext report
```

```
=====
```

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
```

```
bibtext _ label error
```

```
=====
```

```
bibtext space label error
```

```
=====
```

```
bibtext comma label error
```

```
=====
```

```
latex report
```

```
[2017-12-08 04.03.16] pdflatex report.tex
This is pdfTeX, Version 3.14159265-2.6-1.40.17 (TeX Live 2016) (preloaded format=pdflatex)
bookmark level for unknown defaults to 0.
The anchor of a bookmark and its parent's must not be the same. Added a new anchor.
Typesetting of "report.tex" completed in 1.3s.
./README.yml
9:81      error    line too long (86 > 80 characters)  (line-length)
10:81     error    line too long (88 > 80 characters)  (line-length)
24:81     error    line too long (92 > 80 characters)  (line-length)
25:81     error    line too long (99 > 80 characters)  (line-length)
26:81     error    line too long (98 > 80 characters)  (line-length)
27:81     error    line too long (102 > 80 characters) (line-length)
28:81     error    line too long (100 > 80 characters) (line-length)
29:81     error    line too long (87 > 80 characters)  (line-length)
30:81     error    line too long (103 > 80 characters) (line-length)
31:81     error    line too long (99 > 80 characters)  (line-length)
32:81     error    line too long (99 > 80 characters)  (line-length)
33:81     error    line too long (87 > 80 characters)  (line-length)
34:12     error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
37:9      error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
38:8      error    wrong indentation: expected 8 but found 7 (indentation)
46:81     error    line too long (103 > 80 characters) (line-length)
```

```
47:81    error    line too long (102 > 80 characters) (line-length)
48:81    error    line too long (103 > 80 characters) (line-length)
49:81    error    line too long (102 > 80 characters) (line-length)
50:81    error    line too long (101 > 80 characters) (line-length)
51:81    error    line too long (98 > 80 characters) (line-length)
52:81    error    line too long (98 > 80 characters) (line-length)
53:81    error    line too long (104 > 80 characters) (line-length)
54:81    error    line too long (100 > 80 characters) (line-length)
55:81    error    line too long (101 > 80 characters) (line-length)
56:81    error    line too long (103 > 80 characters) (line-length)
57:81    error    line too long (104 > 80 characters) (line-length)
58:81    error    line too long (102 > 80 characters) (line-length)
59:81    error    line too long (100 > 80 characters) (line-length)
60:81    error    line too long (106 > 80 characters) (line-length)
61:81    error    line too long (102 > 80 characters) (line-length)
62:81    error    line too long (99 > 80 characters) (line-length)
63:81    error    line too long (98 > 80 characters) (line-length)
64:81    error    line too long (93 > 80 characters) (line-length)
65:81    error    line too long (104 > 80 characters) (line-length)
66:81    error    line too long (101 > 80 characters) (line-length)
70:25    error    trailing spaces (trailing-spaces)
76:79    error    trailing spaces (trailing-spaces)
79:1     error    trailing spaces (trailing-spaces)
```

Compliance Report

```
name: Janaki Mudvari Khatiwada
hid: 330
paper1: 100% Review date nov 1
paper2: 100%
project: 100%
```

yamlcheck

wordcount

```
(null)
wc 330 project (null) 6041 report.tex
wc 330 project (null) 6089 report.pdf
```

wc 330 project (null) 466 report.bib

find "

passed: True

find footnote

passed: True

find input{format/i523}

4: \input{format/i523}

passed: True

find input{format/final}

passed: False

floats

53: 'Very Unhealthy' and 'Hazardous' \cite{airnow-gov}. The AQI value range from 0 to 500. The agency has assigned colors ('Green', 'Yellow', 'Orange', 'Red', 'Purple' and 'Maroon' respectively) to each of the air quality categories \cite{airnow-gov}. It is shown in figure \ref{AQI}.

68: EPA has prioritized six major air pollutants that are commonly found all over the US. They pose significant threat to public health and environment. They are called 'Criteria Pollutants' and they are ground level ozone, fine particles or particulate matter (PM2.5 and PM10), nitrogen dioxide, sulphur dioxide, lead and carbon monoxide \cite{epa-gov}. WHO has set the guidelines for each of these pollutants as shown in figure\ref{WHOGuidelines}.

80: AQI is the index, for five major air pollutants discussed above, calculated by special formula developed by EPA. EPA uses its own formula to convert daily concentrations of measurement of each pollutant into AQI value of each pollutant \cite{airnow-gov}. Among all the highest AQI value is reported as the daily AQI value for that day \cite{airnow-gov}. Generally AQI 100 is the acceptable index set by EPA to protect public's health and it

ranges from 0 to 500 \cite{airnow-gov}. The higher the value of AQI, greater is the pollution level and greater is the health risk. Based on hourly data collection from air quality monitors, stakeholders can constantly monitor AQI value in their cities or respective location. So weather channels in different media outlets such as local radio, television stations and newspapers also report about AQI index in order to inform general public about air quality in their area. Figure \ref{AQI} shows the AQI classification for each pollutant as recommended by WHO and implemented by U. S. EPA. EPA is required to report any AQI value greater than 100 specifically in larger cities with population more than 350,000 \cite{airnow-gov}.

- 88: WHO guidelines for air quality is applied worldwide. This guidelines was revised in 2005 \cite{www-who}. The guidelines set standards for different air pollutants. According to the guidelines which is based on scientific evidence WHO has set standards for Ozone (O_3), SO_2 , NO_2 and PM. WHO guidelines try to limit the lowest possible values for these pollutants. For example WHO limit values for PM_{2.5} is 10 micrograms per cubic meter is annual mean and 25 micrograms per cubic meter is 24-hour mean and limit value for PM₁₀ is 20 micrograms/m³ annual mean and 50 micrograms/m³ 24-hour mean \cite{www-who} \ref{WHOGuidelines}. ‘‘The 2005 WHO Air quality guidelines’’ offer global guidance on thresholds and limits for key air pollutants that pose health risks. The Guidelines indicate that by reducing particulate matter (PM₁₀) pollution from 70 to 20 micrograms per cubic metre, we can cut air pollution-related deaths by around 15 percent \cite{www-who}.
- 131: The requirements for the analysis are python’s jupyter notebook and the packages pandas, matplotlib and numpy. Using the pandas dataframe, average AQI value is calculated for each ‘Defining Parameter’ grouped by CBSA. Since AQI value determines the level of risk factor as shown in figure \ref{AQI}, it is worth calculating the mean of that value which helps in determining which CBSA is affected by which ‘defining Parameter’. It also helps identify the source of the pollutant so that responsible stakeholders can take required actions to solve the problem. The purpose of using the data set is to find out level of AQI per CBSA for the year 2016. The reason of using 2016 data set is it the most recent complete set of data for a year. While 2017 data set would have been the most recent look at AQI level in the United States but as of this analysis the 2017 data set contains air quality data until the month of May 2017. This data set would be completed as a full years data only in the upcoming spring \cite{outdoor-air}. In order to do a general comparison of the changes, positive or negative, if any similar data set for the

year 2006 is selected. This would allow us to look at differences in AQI values in a decade time frame.

- 133: Simple statistical measures such as mean, maximum, count and minimum value for any variable provides some insights into the degree of variation between each measure of the variable within a period of time. So, as a first test mean value of ‘‘Criteria Pollutants’’ for all the listed CBSAs have been calculated. Then the results have been plotted into a bar--chart as shown in figure \ref{Average CBSA AQI 2016}. It shows that among all, Ozone and PM 2.5 have highest average among CBSAs while CO, NO₂, SO₂ and PM10 have slightly lower average AQI for the year 2016.
- 135: Furthermore, figure \ref{Top Ten Mean AQI Value for the Year 2016} illustrates the average AQI value for overall CBSAs for the year 2016 by month. The table illustrates that AQI value, which is 53.56, for Ozone is the highest during the month of June of last year. This AQI value of ozone comes under the category of ‘unhealthy for sensitive groups’. This value is followed by CO which has the highest mean value for two consecutive months, May and June. From the table it can be said that during 2016 the most significant criteria pollutants were Ozone, CO, and PM2.5.
- 137: In order to look at monthly average AQI per ‘Defining Parameter’, first ‘Date’ series is converted into pandas datetime format and then the series is bucketed into month of the year column. Then mean is calculated by using ‘groupby’ function, mean is calculated grouped by ‘Defining Parameter’ and ‘month of year’. The result illustrated in figure \ref{Mean AQI per Month 2016} shows that there is no significant change in mean AQI for SO₂ and PM10 while significant change can be seen for CO and Ozone. AQI average for CO shows a sharp increase in May.
- 139: For the purpose of finding out CBSA with highest and lowest average AQI value for the year 2016, for specified pollutant, aggregate function is used with groupby function with descending value of AQI. The result is shown in figure \ref{Lowest Mean AQI per CBSA 2016}. The table shows CBSA ‘Madison, WI’ has lowest AQI value for SO₂, followed by Fayetteville, NC for the same parameter.
- 140: Similarly, as seen figure \ref{Highest Mean AQI per CBSA 2016} Hilo, Hawaii has the highest AQI value for parameter SO₂ which is 151.79. This means AQI value is unhealthy and people may experience health effects with sensitive groups people with asthma, bronchitis and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) might have very serious health effects as stated in figure \ref{AQI}. The reason for highest AQI value for SO₂ might be the release of SO₂ gas from active volcanoes around the CBSA region as SO₂ is one of the gases released from volcanoes. Hilo, HI is followed by ‘Riverside-- San Bernardino--Ontario, CA with AQI

value 126.53 for \ref{AQI} with category ‘unhealthy’. Other CBSAs in the top ten list are Lansing--East Lansing, MI, San Juan --Carolina--Caguas, PR, Bishop, CA, Durango, CO, Riverside--San Bernardino--Ontario, CA, Philadelphia--Camden--Wilmington, PA--NJ --DE--MD, Los Angeles--Long Beach--Anaheim, CA and Minneapolis--St.Paul--Bloomington, MN--WI. All of these CBSAs have at least one defining parameter with ‘Unhealthy’ AQI value. It is also significant that Riverside--San Bernardino--Ontario, CA have two highest AQI value for two defining parameters that is ozone and PM 10.

- 142: In order to have a visual picture of level of AQI value, count measure is used grouped by ‘CBSA’, ‘Defining Parameter’ and ‘Category’ and visualized the result in a boxplot. This basically counted number of days in each category of AQI. The figure \ref{boxplot} shows, that there are significant number of ‘good days’ during 2016 followed by ‘moderate’, ‘unhealthy for sensitive groups’ and rest of the three categories have less range of days. As seen in bar chart the mean value for Ozone is higher for the months May and August in comparison to other pollutants Columns for the months of June and July are missing at this point.
- 147: To compare AQI per CBSA for criteria pollutants, exactly similar data set for the year 2006 is used to calculate average AQI value and plotted into a bar chart which is shown in figure \ref{Average CBSA AQI 2006}. As the result can be compared with that of 2016.
- 149: There is also some changes in overall average AQI vlaue. This figure shown here \ref{Top Ten Mean AQI Value for Year 2006} illustrates the AQI average for the year 2006. As seen in barplot this figure shows the highest mean for Ozone at the top of the list when mean is grouped by month of the year and output is sorted in descending order by mean. Interestingly, most of the highest mean value are for the month of June, July and August. To be more specific AQI value for Ozone is mostly during above listed months. Similar result can also be seen in the analysis of 2016 dataset.
- 151: While comparing top ten CBSA with highest average AQI value for 2016 with that of 2006, top ten CBSAs with highest average AQI for 2006 is shown in figure \ref{Mean AQI per Month 2006}. Compared to 2016 there is no sharp increase in mean value for CO any of the month as has been in 2016. Its mean value remains comparatively in same range, in between 17 and 16. Whereas, the value for Ozone is significantly higher for teh months of March, April, May, August and September. For other months as well it has higher level o mean AQI compared to other pollutants except for SO₂ which has the second highest AQI throughout the months.

Average value for all of the pollutants throughout the months have higher values compared to that of year 2016 except for CO.

Average CO AQI for 2016 is higher than that of the year 2006.

153: Another comparison can be done by looking at the list of top most CBSAs with higher mean AQI. We have already discussed about this for year of 2016. Now we will look at similar output for 2006 which is shown in figure \ref{Highest Mean AQI per CBSA 2006}. The mean output is generated by grouping the CBSA and defining parameter. Here, Bishop, CA has highest yearly average for PM10 which is 435.21 followed by CBSA Phoenix-Mesa-Scottsdale, AZ, Carlsbad-Artesia, NM have yearly mean value of 127 for SO2. In comparison to the same statistics for year 2016, mean value is lower than that of 2006. This indicated that there is progress made in lowering the measurement in air pollutant.

187: \begin{figure}[htb]

188: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/sourceandhealtheffects.png}

190: \label{WHOGuidelines}

193: \begin{figure}[htb]

194: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/aqiclassification.png}

196: \label{AQI}

200: \begin{figure}[htb]

201: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/top10meanaqi2016.png}

203: \label{Top Ten Mean AQI Value for the Year 2016}

206: \begin{figure}[htb]

207: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/top10meanaqi2006.png}

209: \label{Top Ten Mean AQI Value for Year 2006}

213: \begin{figure}[htb]

214: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/averageaqi2016.png}

216: \label{Average CBSA AQI 2016}

219: \begin{figure}[htb]

220: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/averageaqi2006.png}

222: \label{Average CBSA AQI 2006}

225: \begin{figure}[htb]

226: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/avaqibymonth2016.png}

228: \label{Mean AQI per Month 2016}

232: \begin{figure}[htb]

233: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/avaqibymonth2006.png}

235: \label{Mean AQI per Month 2006}

```
239: \begin{figure}[htb]
240: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/lowestmeanaqipercent
    sa.png}
242: \label{Lowest Mean AQI per CBSA 2016}
245: \begin{figure}[htb]
246: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/cbsahighestaqi.png
    }
248: \label{Highest Mean AQI per CBSA 2016}
251: \begin{figure}[htb]
252: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/boxplotofcountofaq
    ibycategory2016.png}
254: \label{boxplot}
257: \begin{figure}[htb]
258: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/top10cbsamean2006.
    png}
260: \label{Highest Mean AQI per CBSA 2006}
```

figures 12
tables 0
includegraphics 12
labels 12
refs 15
floats 12

False : ref check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
True : label check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
True : include graphics passed: (figures >= includegraphics)
True : check if all figures are referred to: (refs >= labels)

Label/ref check
passed: True

When using figures use columnwidth
[width=1.0\columnwidth]
do not change the number to a smaller fraction

find textwidth

passed: True

below_check

WARNING: table and above may be used improperly

80: AQI is the index, for five major air pollutants discussed above, calculated by special formula developed by EPA. EPA uses its own formula to convert daily concentrations of measurement of each pollutant into AQI value of each pollutant \cite{airnow-gov}. Among all the highest AQI value is reported as the daily AQI value for that day \cite{airnow-gov}. Generally AQI 100 is the acceptable index set by EPA to protect public's health and it ranges from 0 to 500 \cite{airnow-gov}. The higher the value of AQI, greater is the pollution level and greater is the health risk. Based on hourly data collection from air quality monitors, stakeholders can constantly monitor AQI value in their cities or respective location. So weather channels in different media outlets such as local radio, television stations and newspapers also report about AQI index in order to inform general public about air quality in their area. Figure \ref{AQI} shows the AQI classification for each pollutant as recommended by WHO and implemented by U. S. EPA. EPA is required to report any AQI value greater than 100 specifically in larger cities with population more than 350,000 \cite{airnow-gov}.

WARNING: figure and above may be used improperly

149: There is also some changes in overall average AQI value. This figure shown here \ref{Top Ten Mean AQI Value for Year 2006} illustrates the AQI average for the year 2006. As seen in barplot this figure shows the highest mean for Ozone at the top of the list when mean is grouped by month of the year and output is sorted in descending order by mean. Interestingly, most of the highest mean value are for the month of June, July and August. To be more specific AQI value for Ozone is mostly during above listed months. Similar result can also be seen in the analysis of 2016 dataset.

bibtex

label errors

bibtex errors

This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux

The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib

bibtex_empty_fields

entries in general should not be empty in bibtex

find ""

passed: True

ascii

=====

The following tests are optional

=====

Tip: newlines can often be replaced just by an empty line

find newline

passed: True

cites should have a space before \cite{} but not before the {

find cite {

passed: True

Big DATA IN RAIN WATER HARVESTING

Rahul Velayutham
Indiana University Bloomington
2661 H 7th St
Bloomington, Indiana 47408
rahuvela@umail.iu.edu

ABSTRACT

Big Data is rapidly becoming a crucial component in the majority of the fields, be it from medicine to software. Big data technologies help in processing humongous amounts of data in a rapid manner while enabling us to achieve results fast and accurately. Big data is becoming a key player in the restoration of ecological assets like water, forests and the likes. Real time analysis of assets all over the world and the changes are documented and stored how this data can be used and for what purpose is the penultimate question. We dissect the various stages of the rainwater harvesting process and show how the application of big data to each stage can enhance the process.

KEYWORDS

Big Data, i523 , HID 232 , Rain Water Harvesting

1 INTRODUCTION

Rainwater harvesting is the accumulation and deposition of rainwater for reuse on-site, rather than allowing it to run off. Rainwater can be collected from rivers or roofs, and in many places, the water collected is redirected to a deep pit (well, shaft, or borehole), a reservoir with percolation, or collected from dew or fog with nets or other tools. Its uses include water for gardens, livestock, irrigation, domestic use with proper treatment, indoor heating for houses, etc. The harvested water can also be used as drinking water, longer-term storage, and for other purposes such as groundwater recharge. Rainwater harvesting is one of the simplest and oldest methods of self-supply of water for households usually financed by the user. [4]. Rainwater harvesting is also used to tackle the problem of water scarcity. Water scarcity caused due to pollution, global warming and overuse has become a huge threat to the existence of man. solving this simply by filtration and redistribution of water from dams and from normal rainfall, these can be augmented with rainwater harvesting systems.

2 BIG DATA IN RAIN WATER HARVESTING

2.1 Introduction

Before the subject matter of big data in rainwater harvesting is tackled it is first necessary to understand the rainwater harvesting process before the combination with big data can be explained. For the purpose of this study, the method rooftop rainwater harvesting is used. In brief, the rainwater harvesting process can be grossly oversimplified as follows:

- Analyze feasibility of installation
- Installation
- First wash

- route rainwater to storage tank
- redirect water in case of overflow

the figure 1 provides a good explanation on rainwater harvesting process

[Figure 1 about here.]

and a good article to explain the rainwater harvesting process can be found here [4]. The first wash step, in particular, is very important because it removes dust debris etc from the rooftop or else we risk contamination of water. Quite naturally we cannot allow the collected rainwater to overfill tanks in case of this we need to redirect the water to some other outlet. Big data can play a very influential role right from the feasibility analysis to re direction of water.

2.2 Big data and feasibility of installation

Big data can play a huge role in the feasibility estimation. This can be useful for both households and governments, in many countries in some states it is mandatory that each house should have a rainwater harvesting unit. In some cases, these are funded by the government and in some cases it is on the owner to do so. In the case of governments to do an analysis how can they do so, it is a huge task to go to each and every house and track roof dimensions. One easy way of going about this would be to use satellite image data. These images can then be searched for roof features and dimensions accordingly extrapolated and in such a manner the dimensions of many roofs can be obtained and a cost estimate can be obtained. To obtain the data we can use the many datasets provided by NASA or we can even use a highly zoomed street view from google maps. To extract the features we can use one of the many open CV libraries or use apply complex ML deep learning algorithms. To store this data a simple Hadoop map-reduce can be used. A more detailed study can be viewed in [2].

2.3 Big data and first wash

the importance of first wash was previously stressed upon in the introduction. It is required to wash away dust, debris, dead insects and other such contaminants. The first wash is a manual task it is dependent on the owner to redirect the first wash water elsewhere. Often most people have mistaken it to be the first wash to be the first rain, that is people waste a whole day of rain at times as first wash, or some mistakenly use small drizzles as the first and do not use the first wash properly. Big data can help in the automation of the first wash process combined with IoT. The first step would be to obtain the weather data, this can be achieved either by using the highly consolidated data obtained from the respective government's meteorology departments or the huge datasets provided by the NASA satellite. Once again Hadoop map-reduce allows for reducing

a humongous data set into more compact usable structures. From this we can perform a weather data analysis to determine if the rain will be heavy/light and its duration. From this data, we can easily determine when to perform the first watch. Assuming every rainwater harvesting unit has an IoT feature that controls the valves or water redirection one central control center can send signals to a wide area on when to perform the first watch and for how long. This should greatly reduce the amount of rainwater wasted.

2.4 Big data and water tanks

Big data and IoT can once again help in the rainwater harvesting process, there are many times water left in the tanks are not used and the water becomes stagnant with the use of devices the quality of water can be checked and the tanks can be drained. Also, it is very difficult to combine the rainwater tanks with the main water channels of the buildings since the water in the tanks is very very limited. With the help of IoT redistributing this water becomes very easy using data from other parts of the housing analysis can be made water can be redistributed accordingly. Then there is also the matter of making sure the tanks don't overflow which could lead to bursting. Using IoT the water can be tracked in a smart manner and decisions like when to reroute can be done in a smart manner. There is one more important use for big data in tanks, leakages and rusting. As previously mentioned the quality of water can be checked by its ph level using smart devices the next issue comes down to leakages. more often than not most installations are buried under the ground this is done in order to reduce the effects of weather and also so that the installation doesn't take up space. While this leads to a new set of problems the major one is that often leaks cant be detected until its too late. IoT devices can be used to alert a user that water levels are falling down way too rapidly and the user can contact servicemen in time before the next rains.

2.5 Big data and water re routing

Lastly but perhaps most important is the issue of rerouting water once the tanks get full. In the majority of the cases, the rainwater is directly diverted to the water table. While it is normally a good idea to replenish the water table in such a manner due to over exploitation from bore wells. Aside from restoring the water table, it is slowly becoming essential to recharge even the lakes and other sources of freshwater. This is becoming important because with global warming and rainfall becoming more erratic [some places receiving more rainfall than the others and others receiving way lesser] as a result we need to divert some of the harvested rainwater to other lakes/reservoirs. As to how this can be achieved we can use Big data to monitor the water levels and then decide accordingly where to route the rainwater and by how much.

3 TECH IN RAIN WATER HARVESTING

Surprisingly there is not much to write about about very few players exist in the rainwater harvesting market who aim to offer the services of big data. Part of this can be attributed to the fact there is not much data available. For example, Indian government offers highly consolidated annual precipitation data for free while this is useful to perform past estimates it however is really not enough, more detailed minute by minute data of precipitation is required

in order for the above mentioned analysis to take place. Even the NASA weather data doesn't give the whole picture. This doesn't mean the data is not there but a premium is required to obtain it. There are a few players who offer smart tank service . However the tech scene is just getting warmed up and awareness of its potential is doing rounds a good article was recently released by NASA on this [1] and a few examples are [3].

4 CONCLUSION

The scope for big data in rainwater harvesting is immense but the major initiative lies with the governments, rerouting water into reservoirs is not in the best interests of private contractors but they can be hired to make it so. This can create a huge job market and it will be beneficial for all involved. This also needs to be done sooner rather than later because the rate of population growth exceeds our available sources and if we want the future generations to have any resources we need to embrace technology and start protecting our assets. Also, for private contractors to approach the government with proposals it would be very useful if more relevant data was made available to the public and thus there is a need for investment in the weather department for data.Rainwater harvesting despite being one of the oldest practices of water replenishment is surprisingly behind in terms of technology advancement when we look at the progress made with solar and wind.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors would like to thank Dr. Gregor von Laszewski for his support and suggestions to write this paper.

REFERENCES

- [1] Ashley Morrow. 2015. Using NASA Data to Show How Raindrops Could Save Rupees. *NASA* 1, 1 (Jan. 2015), 1. <https://www.nasa.gov/feature/goddard/using-nasa-data-to-show-how-raindrops-could-save-rupees>
- [2] Robert O. Ojwang. 2015. Rooftop Rainwater Harvesting for Mombasa: Scenario Development with Image Classification and Water Resources Simulation. *Water* 2017 1, 1 (Jan. 2015), 1. <http://www.mdpi.com/2073-4441/9/5/359/htm>
- [3] UNEP. 2017. rainwater harvesting examples. *unep* 1, 1 (Jan. 2017), 1. <http://www.unep.org/jp/ictc/publications/urban/urbanenv-2/9.asp>
- [4] Wikipedia. 2016. Rain water harvesting. *wikipedia* 1, 1 (Jan. 2016), 1. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Rainwater_harvesting

A ISSUES

DONE:

Example of done item: Once you fix an item, change TODO to DONE

A.1 Assignment Submission Issues

Do not make changes to your paper during grading, when your repository should be frozen.

A.2 Uncaught Bibliography Errors

Missing bibliography file generated by JabRef

Bibtex labels cannot have any spaces, _ or & in it

Citations in text showing as [?]: this means either your report.bib is not up-to-date or there is a spelling error in the label of the item you want to cite, either in report.bib or in report.tex

A.3 Formatting

Incorrect number of keywords or HID and i523 not included in the keywords

Other formatting issues

A.4 Writing Errors

Errors in title, e.g. capitalization

Spelling errors

Are you using *a* and *the* properly?

Do not use phrases such as *shown in the Figure below*. Instead, use *as shown in Figure 3*, when referring to the 3rd figure

Do not use the word *I* instead use *we* even if you are the sole author

Do not use the phrase *In this paper/report we show* instead use *We show*. It is not important if this is a paper or a report and does not need to be mentioned

If you want to say *and* do not use & but use the word *and*

Use a space after . , :

When using a section command, the section title is not written in all-caps as format does this for you

\section{Introduction} and NOT \section{INTRODUCTION}

A.5 Citation Issues and Plagiarism

It is your responsibility to make sure no plagiarism occurs.
The instructions and resources were given in the class

Claims made without citations provided

Need to paraphrase long quotations (whole sentences or longer)

Need to quote directly cited material

A.6 Character Errors

Erroneous use of quotation marks, i.e. use “quotes”, instead of ” ”

To emphasize a word, use *emphasize* and not “quote”

When using the characters & # % _ put a backslash before them so that they show up correctly

Pasting and copying from the Web often results in non-ASCII characters to be used in your text, please remove them and replace accordingly. This is the case for quotes, dashes and all the other special characters.

If you see a ffigure and not a figure in text you copied from a text that has the fi combined as a single character

A.7 Structural Issues

Acknowledgement section missing

Incorrect README file

In case of a class and if you do a multi-author paper, you need to add an appendix describing who did what in the paper

The paper has less than 2 pages of text, i.e. excluding images, tables and figures

The paper has more than 6 pages of text, i.e. excluding images, tables and figures

Do not artificially inflate your paper if you are below the page limit

A.8 Details about the Figures and Tables

Capitalization errors in referring to captions, e.g. Figure 1, Table 2

Do use *label* and *ref* to automatically create figure numbers

Wrong placement of figure caption. They should be on the bottom of the figure

Wrong placement of table caption. They should be on the top of the table

Images submitted incorrectly. They should be in native format, e.g. .graffle, .pptx, .png, jpg

Do not submit eps images. Instead, convert them to PDF

The image files must be in a single directory named ”images”

In case there is a powerpoint in the submission, the image must be exported as PDF

Make the figures large enough so we can read the details. If needed make the figure over two columns

Do not worry about the figure placement if they are at a different location than you think. Figures are allowed to float. For this class, you should place all figures at the end of the report.

In case you copied a figure from another paper you need to ask for copyright permission. In case of a class paper, you must include a reference to the original in the caption

Remove any figure that is not referred to explicitly in the text (As shown in Figure ..)

Do not use *textwidth* as a parameter for *includegraphics*

Figures should be reasonably sized and often you just need to add *columnwidth*

e.g.

/includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/myimage.pdf}
re

LIST OF FIGURES

1 rainwater harvesting figure

5

domestic
reuse

irrigation

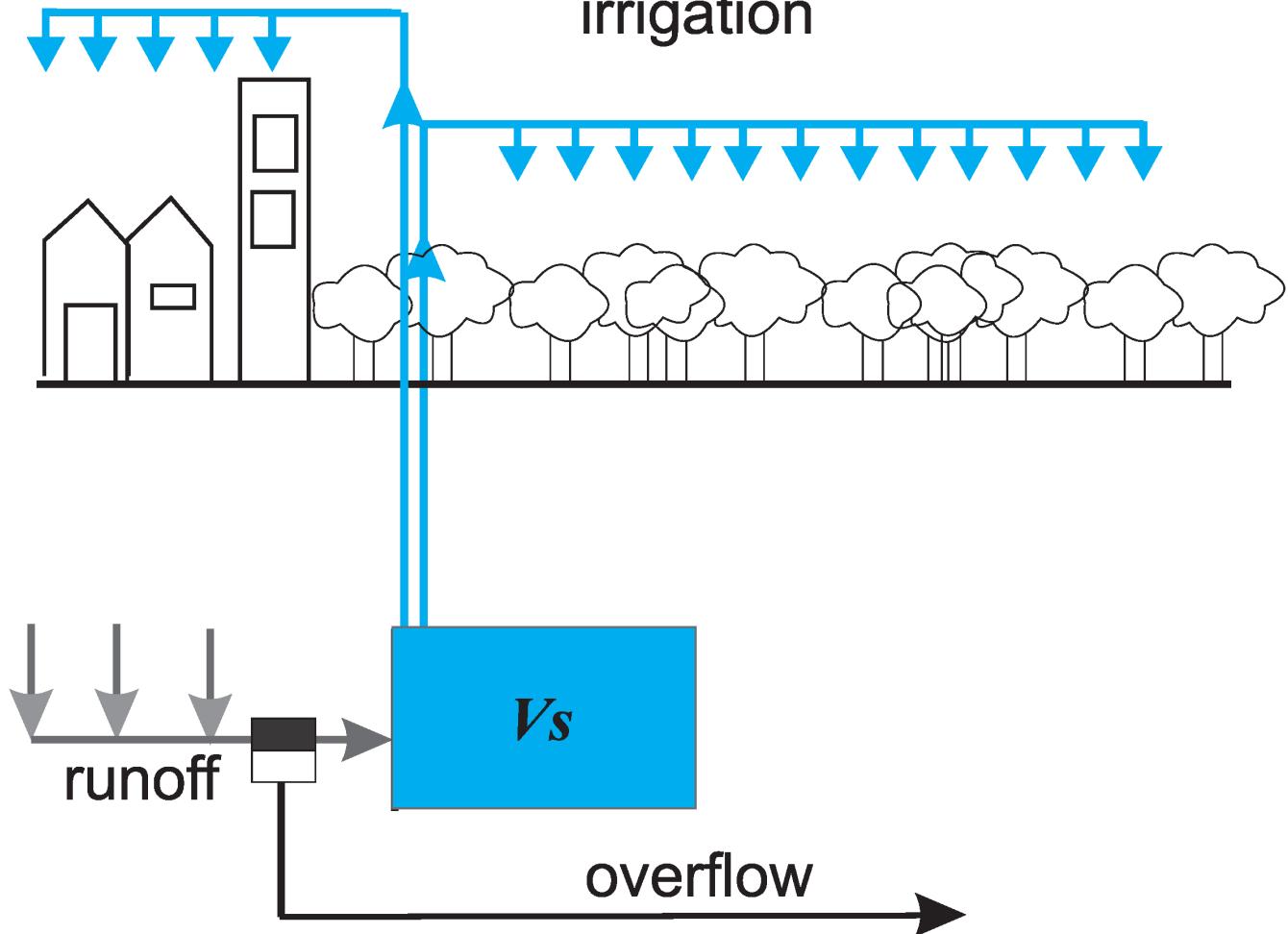


Figure 1: rainwater harvesting figure

bibtex report

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
```

bibtext _ label error

bibtext space label error

bibtext comma label error

latex report

Compliance Report

```
name: Rahul Velayutham  
hid: 232  
paper1: 2017-10-29 100%  
paper2: 100%  
project: in progress 40%
```

yamlcheck

wordcount

5

wc 232 project 5 1768 report.tex
wc 232 project 5 2448 report.pdf
wc 232 project 5 151 report.bib

find "

passed: True

find footnote

passed: True

find input{format/i523}

4: \input{format/i523}

passed: True

find input{format/final}

passed: False

floats

50: the figure \ref{f:water} provides a good explanation on rainwater harvesting process

51: \begin{figure}[!ht]

52: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/water.pdf}

53: \caption{rainwater harvesting figure}\label{f:water}

figures 1
tables 0

```
includegraphics 1
labels 1
refs 1
floats 1

True : ref check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
True : label check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
True : include graphics passed: (figures >= includegraphics)
True : check if all figures are refered to: (refs >= labels)
```

Label/ref check
passed: True

When using figures use columnwidth
[width=1.0\columnwidth]
do not change the number to a smaller fraction

find textwidth

passed: True

below_check

bibtex

label errors

bibtex errors

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
```

bibtex_empty_fields

entries in general should not be empty in bibtex

```
find ""
```

```
passed: True
```

```
ascii
```

```
=====
The following tests are optional
=====
```

```
Tip: newlines can often be replaced just by an empty line
```

```
find newline
```

```
passed: True
```

```
cites should have a space before \cite{} but not before the {
```

```
find cite {
```

```
passed: True
```

```
[2017-12-08 04.01.28] pdflatex report.tex
```

```
This is pdfTeX, Version 3.14159265-2.6-1.40.17 (TeX Live 2016) (preloaded format=pdflatex)
```

```
p.2  L74   : [vizwiz] undefined
p.2  L83   : 'f:response count' undefined
p.3  L117  : 'fig:uni_all' undefined
p.3  L117  : 'fig:uni_int' undefined
p.3  L130  : 'fig:bi_all' undefined
p.3  L130  : 'fig:bi_int' undefined
p.3  L130  : 'fig:bi_int' undefined
p.3  L130  : 'fig:tri_int' undefined
p.4  L136  : 'fig:object' undefined
p.4  L154  : 'fig:color' undefined
p.4  L154  : 'fig:color' undefined
p.4  L173  : 'fig:screen' undefined
p.4  L190  : 'fig:reading' undefined
p.5  L210  : 'fig:impression' undefined
p.5  L227  : 'fig:health' undefined
p.5  L227  : 'fig:pill' undefined
```

```
p.5 L227 : 'fig:preg' undefined
p.5 L227 : 'fig:weight' undefined
p.5 L277 : 'fig:photo' undefined
p.6 L288 : [blur] undefined
p.6 L292 : 'fig:accuracy' undefined
p.6 L309 : 'fig:privacy' undefined
File 'project/images/bigram_interesting.png' not found.
./report.tex:349: Package pdftex.def Error: File 'project/images/bigram_interesting.png'
L349 : ...5]{project/images/bigram_interesting.png}
LaTeXError: Package pdftex.def Error: File 'project/images/bigram_interesting.png' not f
```

bibtext report

```
=====
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
Warning--numpages field, but no articleno or eid field, in Bigham:2010
Warning--no journal in Brady:2013
Warning--no number and no volume in Brady:2013
Warning--numpages field, but no articleno or eid field, in Harada:2013
Warning--numpages field, but no articleno or eid field, in Jayant:2011
(There were 5 warnings)
```

bibtext _ label error

bibtext space label error

```
=====
report.bib:97:@inproceedings {Ahmed:2016,
```

bibtext comma label error

latex report

```
=====
[2017-12-06 04.20.06] pdfflatex report.tex
This is pdfTeX, Version 3.14159265-2.6-1.40.17 (TeX Live 2016) (preloaded format=pdflate
Missing character: ""
Missing character: ""
```

```
Missing character: ""
Missing character: ""
Missing character: ""
Missing character: ""
Typesetting of "report.tex" completed in 1.3s.
```

Compliance Report

```
name: Ahmed, Tousif
hid: 237
paper1: 100%, October 27, 2017
paper2: 100%, Nov 6, 2017
project: 50%, Dec 4, 2017
```

```
yamlcheck
```

```
wordcount
```

```
(null)
wc 237 project (null) 1419 report.tex
wc 237 project (null) 2135 report.pdf
wc 237 project (null) 564 report.bib
```

```
find "
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find footnote
```

```
43: Big data analytics could be a potential alternative. To understand
how big data can help people with visual impairments, we need to
understand the background first. Nowadays, people with visual
impairments use different technologies for their problems. A wide
range of technologies such as talking
watch\footnote{\url{https://www.maxiaids.com/talking-watches}}, braille
reader\footnote{\url{http://www.afb.org/prodBrowseCatResults.aspx?
CatID=43}}, navigation helper \footnote{\url{http://www.gdp-
research.com.au/}} are available in the market to help the
```

visually impaired in their daily tasks. Since the introduction of smartphone, smartphone based applications gained huge popularities among people with visual impairments. Now, mobile and smartphone applications like Seeing AI^[1], AiPoly^[2], LookTel^[3], and other such camera based applications are helping people with visual impairments in object recognition, face recognition, color detection, human emotion detection, activity recognition, and other such tasks that was not possible before. Figure ^[4] depicts an example from Seeing AI which shows that how camera based applications are helping people with visual impairments by describing nearby person's activity (Figure ^[5]) and their facial emotions (Figure ^[6]) .

passed: False

find input{format/i523}

passed: False

find input{format/final}

4: \input{format/final}

passed: True

floats

43: Big data analytics could be a potential alternative. To understand how big data can help people with visual impairments, we need to understand the background first. Nowadays, people with visual impairments use different technologies for their problems. A wide range of technologies such as talking watch^[7], braille reader^[8], navigation helper^[9] are available in the market to help the visually impaired in their daily tasks. Since the introduction of smartphone, smartphone based applications gained huge popularities among people with visual impairments. Now, mobile and smartphone applications like Seeing AI^[1], AiPoly^[2], LookTel^[3], and other such camera based applications are helping people with visual impairments in

object recognition, face recognition, color detection, human emotion detection, activity recognition, and other such tasks that was not possible before. Figure `\ref{fig:seeingai}` depicts an example from Seeing AI which shows that how camera based applications are helping people with visual impairments by describing nearby person's activity (Figure `\ref{fig:ios}`) and their facial emotions (Figure `\ref{fig:facial}`) .

```
44: \begin{figure}[tbp]
47: \%includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{figures/appPermissions.pdf}
48: \includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{images/facial.pdf}
50: \label{fig:facial}
54: \includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{images/activity2.pdf}
56: \label{fig:ios}
60: \label{fig:seeingai}
```

```
figures 1
tables 0
includegraphics 3
labels 3
refs 1
floats 1
```

```
True : ref check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
False : label check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
False : include graphics passed: (figures >= includegraphics)
False : check if all figures are referred to: (refs >= labels)
```

```
Label/ref check
passed: True
```

```
When using figures use columnwidth
[width=1.0\columnwidth]
do not change the number to a smaller fraction
```

```
find \textwidth
```

```
47: \%includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{figures/appPermissions.pdf}
48: \includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{images/facial.pdf}
54: \includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{images/activity2.pdf}

passed: False
```

below_check

bibtex

label errors

bibtex errors

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
Warning--numpages field, but no articleno or eid field, in Bigham:2010
Warning--no journal in Brady:2013
Warning--no number and no volume in Brady:2013
Warning--numpages field, but no articleno or eid field, in Harada:2013
Warning--numpages field, but no articleno or eid field, in Jayant:2011
(There were 5 warnings)
```

bibtex_empty_fields

entries in general should not be empty in bibtex

find ""

passed: True

ascii

=====

The following tests are optional

=====

Tip: newlines can often be replaced just by an empty line

find newline

passed: True

cites should have a space before \cite{} but not before the {

find cite {

passed: True

Big Data in Genomics and Medicine

Matthew Durbin, MD FAAP

Indiana University School of Medicine Department of Pediatrics

Division of Neonatology Riley Hospital for Children

699 Riley Hospital Drive

Indianapolis, Indiana 46202

mddurbin@iu.edu

ABSTRACT

The entirety of the human genome was sequenced in 2003, ushering in a new era of molecular biology, genetics and medicine. Since that time, technologies have advanced significantly, and next generation sequencing allows increasingly rapid and affordable sequencing of the entire human genome. Beyond the human genome, we can also sequence the entire RNA transcriptome, proteome, and metabolome. We can compare these entities in health and disease, and across populations. These new technologies produce massive datasets. Big Data applications and analytics allow interpretation and utilization of these data sets. However, analyzing and interpreting these datasets lags behind sequencing technology, as the rate limiting step. Still these technologies hold great potential for advancing medicine and human health. Combining this omics data with the electronic health record, wearable technology, pharmaceuticals and procedures, moves us towards personalized, precision, medicine.

KEYWORDS

i523, hid311, Big Data, genomics, genetics, species reintroduction, environment, conservation

1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Health and Genomics

The current state of healthcare system in the United States is often described as a crisis. The term comes with good reason, as spending accounts for 17-18% of GDP, dwarfing other nations, and is exponentially rising at an unsustainable rate. For all of our spending, we have poorer health than most developed and many developing nations. The healthcare industry is behind in technology, with recent adoption of an electronic medical record, and prior reliance on paper charting. Communication is most often by decades old technology including phone or fax. Internet communication between healthcare providers, and with patients, is a recent novelty. We have the poorest health, including obesity due to poor diet, lack of exercise, and substance abuse. We pay more for pharmaceuticals than any other country, and most pharmaceutical budget goes to marketing as opposed to research and development. To determine a familial or genetic risk for disease we mostly rely on patient interview.

Big Data has major potential to impact health. Massive data sets related to human health and genomics are compiled by insurance companies, pharmaceutical companies, public health institutions and research institutions. [6] Healthcare is making strides and big data collection is visible everywhere. The electronic medical record EMR is close to universal and is improving constantly. Medical

resources are accessible around the world through smartphones. Wearable technology and fitness tracking apps, nutrition apps are improving personal health. One of the biggest potential impacts to health comes with the advances in next generation sequencing and genomics. These new technologies allow us to determine genetic disease risk, determine prognosis, and predict response to pharmacology and other treatment, all by measuring the genetic code. The most powerful application will be to combine genomic data with the data generated from the EMR, wearable technology, model systems, etc. to develop personalized medicine strategies.

1.2 The Genetic Code

For centuries we have known much disease is heritable. Taking a thorough family health history via patient has been a mainstay of medical interview. Previously the medical provider merely noted ailments that ran in families and maintained vigilance in subsequent generations. All of that changed in 1953 when James Watson and Francis Crick reported the molecular structure of Deoxyribonucleic acid, or DNA [27]. DNA is a relatively simple structure is made up of four nucleotides, adenine, guanine, cytosine and uracil on a carbohydrate background. Different triplicate combinations of these four nucleotides, code for 20 amino acids, and these 20 amino acids make up every protein in all living things. This relative simple system is called the genetic code. Much like the 0's and 1's in computer code, giving rise to the complexity of the internet, the genetic code gives rise to the complexity of all living things. Each organism has a unique genetic code, and this molecular blueprint is utilized to create their protein, carbohydrate, lipid structure. Furthermore this DNA code is replicated, blended through reproduction, and passed to future generations. This genetic code is often interrupted in disease such as cancer. Differences in the genetic code lead to differences in disease susceptibility, and treatment response. The human genome refers to humans over 3 billion nucleotides. We have the ability to sequence the human genome, or determine the order of these nucleotide bases.

1.3 The Human Genome

The first human genome was sequenced in 2003 [3]. This colossal global effort took over 10 years and thousands of scientists working at great expense. In the end, a private and public group collectively sequenced the first genome. Initially, the technology was extremely expensive and took great deal of time. Through technological advancements including sequencing cores and big data, the cost of the genome has plummeted. The 1000-dollar genome project is an attempt to make sequencing more affordable [6]. We are a long way away from being able to utilize the genome to deliver care.

Bioinformatics expertise has lagged behind sequencing technology. Groups still do not agree on a standard way to process the information. Still this technology improves rapidly, and recently a group published 24-hour genome sequencing for intended use in clinical decision making [19]. Soon it may be a reality for physicians to utilize genomic information, whether about drug susceptibility, or prognosis, to guide medical care. Here we review the methods to assess genetic changes. We discuss issues that present with each method.

2 GENOME ANALYSIS

2.1 Chromosome Analysis

Historical mainstays to assess changes in the human genome include a method known as a karyotype analysis. A karyotype visualizes the 23 chromosomes that contain our genetic information. Aneuploidy is duplication of a chromosome. Trisomy 21 is a well known syndrome characterized by duplication of the 21st chromosome. Duplication or deletion of all other chromosomes is not compatible with life. However, portions of chromosomes can be duplicated or deleted, giving rise to well known syndromes. Karyotype analysis is capable of visualizing large deletions and duplication in chromosomes, generally greater than 10Mb. Chromosome analysis has been largely surpassed by newer technologies. Given established use and accessibility, it may have a clinical role in rapidly confirming a suspected aneuploidy.

2.2 Fluorescent In Situ Hybridization

Fluorescent In Situ Hybridization utilizes fluorescent labeled probes to identify portions of DNA which match the probe sites. In this way the chromosomal material can be visualized. Fluorescent In Situ Hybridization can identify chromosomal duplication and deletions up to 2MB. This is helpful, to identify large duplication's and deletions leading to disease. However we know even single nucleotide changes lead to disease. Therefore Fluorescent In Situ Hybridization has been replaced by other technologies [2].

2.3 Genome Wide Association Studies

Historically research has focused on aneuploidy and syndromes representing large duplication or deletion of genetic material, or on single gene mutations leading to disease. However pathogenesis likely involves multiple common and rare single nucleotide variants (Single nucleotide variation) in parallel leading to most disease. Genome Wide Association Studies emerged to study common variants on large scale, and studies have showed multiple susceptibility loci. However, Genome Wide Association Studies failed to identify all forms of genetic disease [24].

2.4 Copy Number Variation

A large part of the human genome consists of repetitive sequence, including both long and short repeated segments. There are distinct regions that vary in the number of repeats between individuals, and this variation leads to phenotypic differences between these individuals. This variation is referred to as copy number variation (Copy Number Variation). It is thought that up to 10% of the genome consists of Copy Number Variation. Most Copy Number Variation is inherited but it can also occur de-novo. Copy Number

Variation is increasingly understood as contributing to disease, where varying amounts, or doses, of a particular gene and therefore protein lead to disease [32].

2.5 Chromosomal Microarray

Chromosomal microarray is the baseline genetic testing for individuals with disease. Chromosomal Microarray is a technology that detects the presence or absence of patient DNA by measuring hybridization of patient sample to small segments of DNA attached to a surface. Chromosomal Microarray detects deletions and duplications of chromosomal material much smaller than FISH and karyotype. As technology improves, Chromosomal Microarray is able to detect increasingly small changes down to, but excluding, Single nucleotide variation. As many common diseases are due to Single nucleotide variation, sequencing is often necessary. [26]

2.6 Sanger Sequencing

In 1977 a paper was published entitled "A rapid method for determining sequences in DNA by primed synthesis with DNA polymerase". This technique, now known as Sanger sequencing, revolutionized molecular biology. Using termination of sequence and dye detection, it provided a fast and easy way to determine the DNA sequence of living organisms. It is still extensively utilized. Many newer technologies have been developed and are known as "next generation sequencing." [20]

2.7 Next Generation Sequencing

Next Generation Sequencing refers to a variety of technologies and a number of different methods for high throughput sequencing of DNA samples [16]. The technology utilizes massive number of parallel sequencers to copy short fragments of DNA and assemble transcripts utilizing big data and bioinformatics techniques. According to the illumina website "With its unprecedented throughput, scalability, and speed, next-generation sequencing enables researchers to study biological systems at a level never before possible."

2.8 Targeted Gene or Gene Panel Sequencing

Disease is often due to Single nucleotide variation necessitating sequencing for diagnosis. Targeted sequencing is commercially available to detect Single nucleotide variation in a specific gene, or an entire panel of genes, often depending on the disease. Gene panels are available for particular syndromes. Commercial panels utilize both traditional sanger sequencing and NGS technology. Targeted sequencing often provides better coverage of specific genes than does Whole Exome Sequencing. This targeted sequencing circumvents the significant burden of analyzing thousands of variants of unknown significance, a problem inherent to Whole Exome Sequencing, but misses variants in genes outside of the panel, or in novel genes.

3 NEXT GENERATION SEQUENCING

3.1 Whole Exome Sequencing

With advancements in technology, exome sequencing is approaching the affordability and efficiency of targeted gene panel sequencing. Whole exome sequencing involves sequencing the entire coding region, or exome, of the genome. This consists of around 20,000 genes and over 30 million nucleotides. The exome, though massive, consists of only 1% of the total genomic DNA. Most genetic diseases involve alteration of this coding exome. Sequencing only 1% of the genomic material is a fraction of the time, cost, and burden of analysis, compared with Whole Genome Sequencing. Due to errors in Whole Exome Sequencing, a portion, (up to 1%), of the coding exome is missed. Coverage varies by gene and by region, with particular genes of interest, such as the HRAS gene implicated in Costello Syndrome, difficult to capture by Whole Exome Sequencing at all. Copy Number Variation, insertions, and deletions are also difficult to detect. Targeted sequencing is often advantageous, but Whole Exome Sequencing is improving and is increasingly accessible to clinicians [30].

3.2 Whole Genome Sequencing

Despite the massive amount of information produced in Whole Exome Sequencing, it represents only 1% of the total genome. Transcription enhancers and promoters, often involved in disease pathogenesis, are outside of the exon and missed by Whole Exome Sequencing. In addition, Whole Genome Sequencing better captures Copy Number Variation, insertions and deletions, frequently involved in disease. Whole Genome Sequencing adds significantly to expense, data storage, analysis, and the burden of determining variant significance. For this reason Whole Genome Sequencing is predominantly used in the research setting, but this is changing. In 2012 a group used rapid Whole Genome Sequencing in the newborn ICU to identifying disease causing pathologic variants. The process, from sample collection to automated bioinformatics analysis, was complete within in 48 hours. This rapid turnaround was intended as a model for utilization of Whole Genome Sequencing in clinical decision making. As technology improves Whole Genome Sequencing will likely become a useful clinical tool [13].

3.3 Variants of Unknown Significance(VUS)

Whole Exome Sequencing produces tens of thousands of variants, and Whole Genome Sequencing exponentially more. Another major hurdle is determining significance. Each variant must be assessed for disease pathogenesis, distinguishing it from a previously unreported polymorphism. Variants can be filtered for pathogenic nature based on conservation across populations and location in a protein. It is often necessary to obtain parents samples and perform sequencing on patient-parent trios to determine novelty. When a novel variant is identified, ideally biologic mechanism is investigated through animal and cell culture models. Genetic variation can now be introduced into animal and cell culture models with greater ease and efficiency utilizing the CRISPR-Cas9 system. Variants are often damaging only in conjunction with other variants. In some cases it is impossible to narrow down a single candidate when a

disease with incomplete penetrance and variable expressivity affects a small family. Efforts are ongoing to improve and streamline variant analysis for clinical utilization [14].

4 BEYOND DNA

Initial estimates placed the number of genes at $\approx 100,000$ [1]. Looking at the massive amount of diversity and the billions of unique human beings on this earth, this was an appropriate estimate. The current number is estimated somewhere around 20,000. The question is what accounts for the rest of phenotypic diversity and disease. The picture of development is complex with networks of genes turned on and off at different locations and timepoints. Regulation of this process occurs to some extent outside of the coding region, through promoters and enhancers, epigenetic alterations, splicing variation, and noncoding RNA. Altered noncoding sequence is increasingly implicated in disease. The human genome project utilized whole exome sequencing. The exome, though massive, consists of only 1% of the total genomic DNA. Many genetic diseases involve alteration of this coding exome but we are discovering that many diseases are due to problems outside of this coding region. Whole genome captures this noncoding region, although with far greater cost, burden of analysis, etc. We have also come to realize that splicing and other post transactional regulation introduces much diversity. We have the technology to sequence the entire RNA transcriptome and the proteome as well. This produces a data set which dwarfs the genome and genomic DNA sequence information. These technologies are currently only utilized in the research setting. Despite our advanced technology, we have very little idea of how to interpret the data in a clinical setting. Again the bioinformatics expertise lags behind. There is amazing potential to advance knowledge and study human disease and a tremendous amount of big data analytics along the way.

4.1 RNA Sequencing

Splicing variation leads to multiple different proteins resulting from a single gene due to differential splicing during transcription. Non-coding RNA also influences expression and modifies proteins after translation. Technologies to examine the elements, include Whole Genome Sequencing to measure DNA outside of the exome, RNA sequencing to measure the splice variants and the transcriptome, and ChIPSeq to measure DNA methylation. These noncoding regulatory elements have important clinical implications, and need further exploration. [25]

4.2 Epigenetic Sequencing

Mutations in transcription factors are well established in pathogenesis and regulation is often through enhancers and promoters outside of the coding sequence. The term epigenetics refers to alterations outside of, or on top of, the genetic material or DNA, that influence phenotype. Common epigenetic factors include DNA methylation, where methylation of DNA bases represses DNA expression, and also histone modification, where the degree to which DNA is wrapped around histones influences its expression. Epigenetic factors are heritable, and also influenced by the environment. [11]

4.3 Proteome

Ultimately DNA codes for RNA and RNA is translated into proteins. Proteins are the building blocks of all living things. The proteome is the term for the entire protein content of an organism. New technologies allow us to measure the proteome. The proteome is generally measured through tandem mass spectroscopy or finger-printing. Tandem mass spectroscopy breaks proteins into smaller portions and measures a signature and electrophoresis techniques involve separating proteins on a gel and measuring their fingerprint. These techniques require sophisticated chemistry and data analysis techniques and produce massive datasets. [8]

4.4 Metabolome

The Metabolome involves the entire set of small molecules within an organism. Analyzing the metabolome involves measuring every amino acid, organic acid, vitamin and mineral in a cell, tissue or organism. Measurement is usually by mass spectroscopy or nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy. requires extensive data analysis.

5 OTHER GENOMICS TOOLS

Sequencing technology is not the only factor revolutionizing personalized medicine. There is a separate and equally exciting revolution in cell culture technology integral to personalized medicine. All of these technologies rely on genomics measurements that produce massive datasets and rely on Big Data for analysis.

5.1 Model Systems

The optimal diagnosis and treatment of pediatric disease requires an understanding of physiology and pathophysiology. Throughout medical research history animal and cell culture models have been critical to this process. Mouse models, in particular, are extensively utilized because they are relatively convenient, and similar to humans at the chemical, molecular, cellular, and some anatomic levels. Furthermore, the use of transgenic mice allows for genetic manipulation to help elucidate molecular mechanisms. However, given that mice and humans diverged millions of years ago, there are critical physiological differences between the two species. Human diseases often lack a mice ortholog. The equivalent disease in mice may be fatal or benign, and we cannot model some high level human organ functions or late onset diseases. Even non-human primates, despite being our closest ancestors, have important phenotypic differences. For example, because of these differences, it is particularly difficult to develop animal models for neurodegenerative or neurodevelopmental disorders. Differences in mouse disease morphogenesis have led difficulty modeling human congenital heart disease. These limitations drive the need for human cell, tissue, and organ systems models. Many human diseases involve terminally differentiated cell types, such as neurons and cardiomyocytes. These cell types are nearly impossible to sample, culture, and maintain. Even after generating primary cell lines from diseased tissues, ability to derive meaningful conclusions is often hampered by inconsistent replicability, dedifferentiation, and variability due to culture conditions. In this light, tissues derived from human induced pluripotent stem cells (h induced pluripotent stem cellss) has the potential to overcome many inherent limitations of animal and cell culture models

and provide an unprecedented new paradigm to model human diseases.

5.2 Pluripotent Stem Cells

During human embryogenesis, the ovum and spermatozoa fuse at fertilization, begin to divide, and differentiate into all cell lineages and tissue types in the human body. During development, these cells lose their pluripotency as they terminally differentiate into specific cell types. Embryonic stem cells (ESC) were first isolated from the blastocyst of developing mouse embryos in 1981, and from human embryos in 1998 [17]. These cells have the remarkable ability to retain pluripotency. The ESC discovery generated great excitement over their potential applicability in human disease modeling and regenerative therapies. However, limitations and controversies soon emerged. The isolation of ESCs from human embryos is ethically controversial. Disease models utilizing ESC are limited to diseases identified through preimplantation genetic diagnosis. Genome editing ECSs provides an opportunity to generate particular mutations of interest, but technique remains largely limited to monogenic diseases. In this light, recent breakthroughs in induced pluripotent stem cell (induced pluripotent stem cells) technology circumvent many of these drawbacks.

5.3 Induced Pluripotent Stem Cells

In 2006, Shinya Yamanaka identified four transcription factors, (OCT4, SOX2, KLF4, and c-MYC), that were capable for reprogramming somatic mouse cells into a pluripotent state [22]. This extraordinary feat was recapitulated one year later in human cells. These induced pluripotent stem cells (induced pluripotent stem cellss) behave like ESCs with capability to differentiate to most other cell types, and circumvent the ethical controversy and sample limitations. As opposed to human embryos, induced pluripotent stem cellss can be generated from readily accessible tissue samples, such as peripheral blood mononucleated cells (PBMCs). Patient samples can be reprogrammed to induced pluripotent stem cellss, serving as an autologous, continuously renewing supply of pluripotent cells. This has resulted in the dramatic expansion of the stem cell field, with development and improvements in reprogramming protocols, and directed cellular differentiation. Patient-specific induced pluripotent stem cellss can be generated from wide variety of patient samples, including PBMCs from blood samples, to dermal fibroblasts from punch biopsies, and epithelial cells from urine samples. induced pluripotent stem cellss can then be differentiated to most other cell types including cardiomyocytes, neurons, and hepatocytes. Because the lines are patient-specific, they are expected to recapitulate features of many disease phenotypes, whether due to simple monogenic mutations or complex polygenic disease susceptibilities. The patient-specific induced pluripotent stem cellss hold potential for disease modeling, predicting drug response, assessing environmental triggers of diseases, and regenerative tissue engineering. Thus, they provide great potential for research and clinical applications in personalized medicine.

5.4 Gene Editing induced pluripotent stem cellss

Mouse models allow genetic alteration using transgenesis and gene knock-outs. Measuring the resulting phenotype is extremely valuable in the study of genetics and development. induced pluripotent stem cellss allow us to utilize these same genetic approaches using human cell lines. The past decade has seen tremendous advances in gene editing technology, including ZFNs (zinc finger nucleases), TALENs (transcription activator like effector nucleases), and CRISPRf?Cas9 (clustered regularly interspaced short palindromic repeat) [21] [10]. The common mechanism of these genomic editing approaches is that they create double stranded breaks (DSBs) at desired locations in the genome, which then can be repaired by either nonhomologous end-joining (NHEJ) that can result in insertion/deletions (indels) or homology directed repair (HDR), which results in precise gene modifications. Of these, the CRISPR-Cas9 technology, which appropriates the prokaryote defense mechanism, has quickly become dominant due to ease with which it can be adapted to precisely edit virtually any region in the host genome. Genome editing, coupled with the induced pluripotent stem cells technology, allow us to study disease mechanism like never before. These technologies allow us to precisely correct mutations, and insert reporters under the endogenous regulatory control. They have also been used to demonstrate feasibility of genomic editing as a therapeutic modality. Recently, a group corrected a pathogenic mutation in preimplantation human embryos, demonstrating the feasibility of gene correction therapy. While still a long way from clinical applications, many disease phenotypes have been corrected in cell culture. These studies show the potential of these powerful technologies for disease modeling, and for therapeutic genome engineering.

5.5 Organoid Models

Sometimes a simple, two-dimensional induced pluripotent stem cells-derived tissue culture model cannot fully recapitulate complex organ systems involving three dimensional (3D) architecture; such cases necessitate organoid modeling. In vitro organogenesis, the exciting new frontier in in vitro disease modeling, aims to organize induced pluripotent stem cellss into 3D structures that better recapitulate in vivo physiology. Previous attempts at organoid modeling utilized primary tissue cells, but primary cells are difficult to obtain and often fails to propagate in vitro. In principle, induced pluripotent stem cellss are an ideal cell source to make tissue organoids. The most comprehensive organoid model to date involves a fully vascularized and functional human liver. A 3D gastric organoid was created that progresses through developmental stages adopts similar architecture to the stomach. This organoid provided valuable insights into the gut development, as well as H. Pylori infection. Human induced pluripotent stem cellss were grown also on rat intestinal matrix, to engineer a humanized intestinal graft for nutrient absorption in patients with short bowel syndrome. The established protocol for generating 3D cerebral organoids from induced pluripotent stem cellss, replicates brain developmental stages. The organoid reproduces a variety of brain structures, including the cerebral cortex, ventral telencephalon, choroid plexus

and retina. Manipulating specific developmental signaling pathways in ventral-anterior foregut spheroids recently generated an induced pluripotent stem cells-based human lung model. Lastly, an induced pluripotent stem cells-based human kidney organoid model was recently developed displaying glomerulus-like structures and renal tubules. Future in vitro organogenesis effort must address the need for chemically defined synthetic extracellular matrices, and incorporation of support cell types such as interspersed neurons, immune cells, and other regulatory cells. While the regenerative medicine field is still in infancy, transplantation of functional tissues derived from patient's own cells could profoundly improve the health of patients with end-organ failure. [15]

6 BIOINFORMATICS

Each of the steps in analyzing disease models relies heavily on bioinformatics and big data analytic. Bioinformatics is the field combining computer science, biology, mathematics, medicine, engineering, etc. [18] When Watson and Crick first identified the DNA structure, discover quickly led to the DNA coding mechanism and the interpretation of sequencing information. The interpretation and analysis of sequencing data was very amendable to computer science. We began to sequence and interpret larger datasets including entire genes, entire chromosomes, the entire human exome, the entire human genome, and now the entire transcriptome and metabolome. Further we need to compare these large datasets to one another. Bioinformatics has gone far beyond sequence analysis to involve image analysis, mass spectroscopy, and countless other integration between biology and computer science. there are also distinct field of Biomedical informatics, which refers more specifically to the integration of computer science and medicine. This often involves running multiple subsequent computer programs in established pipelines. Projects like the Galaxy project work to streamline these pipelines for ease of use. We will discuss some common applications of bioinformatics.

6.1 Sequence Assembly

Sequencing technologies produce millions of fragments of DNA. Sequence assembly is the process of identifying overlapping sequence, aligning the overlapping portion and combining into a complete genome. Once the genome is assembled it is possible to compare a sample of DNA to a known sequence in a database. One of the most popular tools involves the program Basic Local Alignment Search Tool(BLAST.) Scientists can input any obtained sequence and check for matching to a known sequence in the database.

6.2 Sequence Annotation

Sequence annotation involves identifying the important regions in a sequence. It includes identifying the regions that code for proteins, regulatory regions, and other biologically significance sequence. It is performed by popular programs such as

6.3 Comparison of two states

Another set of software tools involves the comparison of two datasets. This includes the comparison of two disease states, two individuals, or any other two datasets that need comparison and analysis.

6.4 Examples of a Popular Bioinformatics Pipelines

The programs utilized for RNA Sequencing analysis include the Tuxedo Suite open source software package which includes Tophat, Bowtie, Cufflink, CuffCompare and CuffDiff [23]. The compressed BAM file type is utilized by these programs. Tophat aligns sequencing reads to the human genome using the high output short read aligner Bowtie and then analyzes the results to identify splice junctions. Cufflinks assembles transcripts, mapping segments of transcripts to genes and individual transcripts of a reference genome. Cufflinks uses fragment counts as a measure of relative abundance, which are reported as Fragments Per Kilobase of exon per Million fragments mapped (FPKM). Assembled transcripts from can be compared using Cuffcompare. CuffDiff to compare transcript expression level, splicing and promoter use. Cuffdiff uses the Cufflinks to compare transcript expression levels in two data sets. It allows the user to find differentially expressed and regulated genes at the transcriptional and post-transcriptional level by reporting the log-fold-change in expression.

7 COST OF HEALTHCARE

7.1 The Current State

One of the most troubling issues facing the United States, and the world, is the increasing cost of healthcare. The problems are different around the globe. Much of the developing world lacks access to adequate healthcare, which is a serious problem. This paper focuses on a different problem, in the crisis facing the United States. Current healthcare spending is greater than 3 trillion dollars [5]. This makes up 17 percent of GDP. This number grows every year and is unsustainable. This number affects citizens deeply, and currently healthcare costs are responsible for 50% of bankruptcy claims in the United States [6]. All of this extra spending does not equal better health. In most measures of health, from infant mortality to life expectancy, the United States find itself far from the top. There are major issues at play ranging from a massive bureaucracy, to the poor health and obesity of participants.

7.2 The Future

It is projected that the average family will spend over 25% of income on to healthcare [6]. The problem is not projected to improve. As the *baby-boomers* age, the population over 60 with high cost chronic healthcare problems, increases exponentially. In Medical School, we were taught about this *silver tsunami* approaching the US healthcare system (prompting me to go into Pediatrics.) Many individuals, including myself, look to Big Data to uncover these problems and help fix them. Before it is too late. There are technology solutions including the electronic health record, medical reference technology, genomic medicine, telemedicine, wearable health technology, and personalized medicine.

8 ELECTRONIC HEALTH RECORD

8.1 Electronic Medical Record and Genomics (eMerge)

There is currently a massive effort undertaken by multiple companies and branches of government to combine genomics data and the

electronic health record. According to the website: "eMERGE is a national network organized and funded by the National Human Genome Research Institute (NHGRI) that combines DNA biorepositories with electronic medical record (EMR) systems for large scale, high-throughput genetic research in support of implementing genomic medicine." This method of combining genomics data and electronic health information holds great potential.

8.2 Adoption of and EMR

Throughout history, medical records were taken on paper, but after 2000 the slow transition to electronic records began [12]. The handwritten records were kept in large file cabinets, and when records needed to be shared between physicians or institutions (across the country or across the street), the paper records were faxed over a telephone line. This technology is decades old. As technology raced forward with supercomputers and the worldwide web, medicine continued to use these antiquated forms of communication. Finally, government mandates forced healthcare systems into the modern era and electronic records went online. Currently over 84% of health records are online [6].

8.3 The Current State

A majority of healthcare systems around the world are under a government regulated socialized medical system which comes with a universal health record. The healthcare system in the United States is privatized, therefore the transition to EHR came with individual health entities purchasing a multitude of different EHRs. The problem comes in that a patient presenting to two different healthcare facilities, even if across the street or within the same building, will have two different medical charts that do not communicate with one another. The other problem comes with accessing this information. The two largest companies Epic and Cerner have a commercial interest, with a primary goal to increase revenue to the shareholder. It is exceedingly difficult for the nonprofit entities including academic centers and hospitals to access the patient information within the EHR. There is tremendous potential within the EHR. Beyond data collection, storage, data retrieval, and analysis, we should move towards real time guidance and guidelines for medical decision making to improve health.

8.4 Phenome-wide association studies]

The first established linkage of the electronic health record and genomics datasets took place at Vanderbilt University. Vanderbilt Medical Center began to collect biospecimens from patients (using an ethically controversial opt-out consent process.) They performed Whole Exome Sequencing on the specimens. They then linked the specimens to the electronic health record and compiled the data in a database called BioVUE. Phenome-wide association studies is the name of a method used to measure the number of phenotypes or diseases reported in the electronic health record, in relation to single nucleotide changes in the human genome [4]. Researchers can assess whether each variant is related to any disease state. The database started in 2012 and is growing rapidly. As the dataset grows, so will its power to predict disease based on single nucleotide variants. An early version of the catalog is currently available online to all individuals.

9 KNOWLEDGE

9.1 Online Genomic Resources

Most of the Genomics data is available to the public online. The National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) provide a massive cache of information. Most people know about NCBI's PubMed database of over 27 million citations from biomedical literature. NCBI also hold a massive nucleotide database, with nucleotide information compiled from almost every genomic study performed to date. Their genome site holds the sequences, maps, chromosomes, assemblies, and annotations of every version of the human genome, along with mouse, drosophila, rat, EColi, Yeast, and countless other model organisms. Not only does NCBI provide a genome browser, but numerous other organizations provide this information, including Ensembl, UCSC, etc. Researchers spend hours pouring over the genome browser of their choosing, to design experiments, interpret results, and hypothesize.

9.2 Online Medical Resources

Only 10-20 years ago, Hospital libraries and medical school libraries were once filled with books and journal articles. If a healthcare practitioner wanted information relevant to clinical care, they went to libraries to pour through the resources with exhaustive efforts. Today, those libraries are mostly void of books. Almost every individual in Whole Exome Sequencingtern medicine has access to a computer, and usually to a handheld device, capable of accessing far more information than could ever be stored in a library. There are massive information sources, such as PubMed, and Up To Date, a point of care medical reference similar to Wikipedia, commonly used on a handheld device, with evidence based clinical guidelines contributed by over 5,000 physicians [29]. The massive amount of data now accessible to most healthcare providers and scientists is changing healthcare rapidly. Still, there is much room for improvement as care is commonly delivered based on anecdotal evidence, and cost and quality should continue to improve. Combining this online genomic information, and online medical information will provide a valuable tool to improve health.

10 WEARABLE TECHNOLOGY, NUTRITION AND WELLNESS APPS

Massive data sets exist, collected by insurance companies, in electronic health records, by pharmaceutical companies and genomics data sets collected by research institutions. There is another very exciting source of big data on the horizon, in personal wearable technologies, and also fitness, wellness and nutrition apps [6]. Individuals wearing FitBits, with fitness apps on their mobile devices, wearing smartwatches, etc. can track health and wellness measures in ways that once required inpatient hospital monitoring and sophisticated research lab settings. They track sleep and activity throughout the day and night. In addition, there are countless apps which track nutrition and health. People log meals and nutrition to keep accountable. Often these apps work with time tested and well researched diets including weight watchers, etc. This technology has already changed the way many individuals look at health and wellness. This exciting new dataset has great potential to advance human health and improve disease that may be the root cause of

our healthcare epidemic. Combining the massive datasets produced through wearable technology, with genomics data, holds immense potential. Measuring exercise response and sleep endurance, to nutrition and weight gain, in light of genetic background, provide incredible insight into health and disease.

10.1 Visual Technology

Currently procedural technology is one of the greatest expenses to the health care system. Genomics analysis holds great potential to help reduce these costs. Telemedicine involves a virtual visit between a physician and patient [9]. There are obvious benefits, especially when a patient population is spread across a wide geographic space either due to a high level of physician specialization, or a rural patient population. Highly specialized, but critical subspecialists are often in great shortage. This places a great burden on the available providers, with often unsustainable schedules. Video technology allows doctors, nurses and practitioners to visualize patients, perform a limited physical, and to communicate with individuals at a distance. There is great potential to improve cost and reduce burden. There are limitations. Many physician specialists are valued for their technical, hands on skills. Telemedicine is not much of a help, the technical procedures, such as inserting airways into the trachea of small babies, and insert central arterial lines into major vessels to deliver lifesaving medications, require hands on skills. The same goes for surgeons and other highly skilled technical professions. Interventional techniques and robotics are increasingly being used to perform procedures, but while these operations are performed, a surgeon needs to be very close, in case unforeseen accidents problems necessitate a conventional correction. Procedural specialties are the greatest expense to our healthcare system and their procedural skills are a long way from being performed through telemedicine or robotics. Genomics data will help to triage individuals, indicating response to particular treatment or technology.

11 COMMERCIAL GENOMICS

The company 23 and me offers genetic testing directly to consumers [31]. For around 100\$ an individual can obtain *Ancestry Services* or *Health and Ancestry Services*. Given the massive expense and resources required to analyze genomic data, the service likely provides little to no valuable information. However the market for these novelty services has exploded in recent years, as consumers grasp to understand their own genetic information. Much of the advertising, distribution, and sharing of this genetic information is done through social media. There is a multitude of health information shared over social media networks. Blogs, columns, and posts providing information about nutrition and wellness, news stories, and information sharing. The story reporting googleflis flu prediction trends ahead of the CDC, based on search history, spread virally over facebook [7]. The field will continue to expand. Soon, as technology improves, consumers will have access to their own genomics data sets. how they access in share this information is unknown.

12 PERSONALIZED MEDICINE

Wikipedia summarized personalized medicine as: "a medical procedure that separates patients into different groups!with medical

decisions, practices, interventions and/or products being tailored to the individual patient based on their predicted response or risk of disease.” [28] In a way the culmination of big data and health is with personalized medicine. In a hopefully not so distant future the electronic health record, pharmaceutical data and genomic data will provide a more tailored, affordable, and high-quality approach to healthcare. The revolutions in cellular reprogramming, genome sequencing and genome editing have opened up tremendous opportunities for the study of human disease. Based on the dizzying rates of advances in the revolutionary technologies, it is not unreasonable to believe that patient-derived and genome-edited induced pluripotent stem cells models may become a dominant model for the study of disease and the search for new therapies.

Whole Exome Sequencing and Whole Genome Sequencing can be utilized to measure all genomic changes, and newer technologies allow us to perform personalized omics measurements in affected tissue including metabolomics, transcriptomics, proteomics, etc. For example, we can take a patient blood sample, derive cardiomyocytes, neurons, smooth muscle, etc, and perform analysis to measure tissue metabolics, RNA transcriptional differences, and pharmacologic response of the tissue. At some point in the future we may move toward autologous transplantation with genetically edited organs derived from the patients own tissue. Bioinformatics analysis and interpretive steps lag behind. Clinically actionable results would be needed in hours to days, versus the months this type of analysis usually require. This rapid analysis is a rate limiting step, but is improving exponentially.

13 CONCLUSION

As the population continues to grow, we will continue to utilize and increasing amount of resources. Optimal utilization of these resources is the only way to ensure survival and proper living standard for the human population. Many look to the revolutions in genomic medicine combining this omics data with the electronic health record, wearable technology, pharmaceuticals and procedures to move us towards personalized, precision, medicine. Big Data is plays an increasing role in sustaining and improving our world.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Thank you to Dr. Geoffrey Fox, Gregor von Laszewski, and all of the course instructors for an excellent introduction to Big Data and Data Science.

REFERENCES

- [1] [n. d.]. ([n. d.]). Vanderbilt University: Introduction to Bioinformatics Course Lectures.
- [2] Rudolf Amann and Bernhard M Fuchs. 2008. Single-cell identification in microbial communities by improved fluorescence in situ hybridization techniques. *Nature Reviews Microbiology* 6, 5 (2008), 339–348.
- [3] Francis S Collins, Michael Morgan, and Aristides Patrinos. 2003. The Human Genome Project: lessons from large-scale biology. *Science* 300, 5617 (2003), 286–290.
- [4] Joshua C Denny, Marylyn D Ritchie, Melissa A Basford, Jill M Pulley, Lisa Bastarache, Kristin Brown-Gentry, Deede Wang, Dan R Masys, Dan M Roden, and Dana C Crawford. 2010. PheWAS: demonstrating the feasibility of a phenotype-wide scan to discover gene–disease associations. *Bioinformatics* 26, 9 (2010), 1205–1210.
- [5] Centers for Medicare & Medicaid Services et al. 2014. National health expenditures 2012 highlights. *Online verfügbar unter* <http://www.cms.gov/Research-Statistics-Data-and-Systems/Statistics-Trends-and-Reports/National-HealthExpendData/Downloads/highlights.pdf> (2014).
- [6] Geoffrey Fox. [n. d.]. Unit 6 Lectures. ([n. d.]).
- [7] Jeremy Ginsberg, Matthew H Mohebbi, Rajan S Patel, Lynnette Brammer, Mark S Smolinski, and Larry Brilliant. 2009. Detecting influenza epidemics using search engine query data. *Nature* 457, 7232 (2009), 1012–1014.
- [8] Angelika Görg, Walter Weiss, and Michael J Dunn. 2004. Current two-dimensional electrophoresis technology for proteomics. *Proteomics* 4, 12 (2004), 3665–3685.
- [9] Maria Hernandez, Nayla Hojman, Candace Sadorra, Madan Dharmar, Thomas S Nesbitt, Rebecca Litman, and James P Marcin. 2016. Pediatric critical care telemedicine program: A single institution review. *Telemedicine and e-Health* 22, 1 (2016), 51–55.
- [10] Dirk Hockemeyer, Frank Soldner, Caroline Beard, Qing Gao, Maisam Mitalipova, Russell C DeKelver, George E Katibah, Ranier Amora, Elizabeth A Boydston, Bryan Zeitler, et al. 2009. Efficient targeting of expressed and silent genes in human ESCs and iPSCs using zinc-finger nucleases. *Nature biotechnology* 27, 9 (2009), 851–857.
- [11] Robin Holliday. 2006. Epigenetics: a historical overview. *Epigenetics* 1, 2 (2006), 76–80.
- [12] Erik WJ Kokkonen, Scott A Davis, Hsien-Chang Lin, Tushar S Dabade, Steven R Feldman, and Alan B Fleischer. 2013. Use of electronic medical records differs by specialty and office settings. *Journal of the American Medical Informatics Association* 20, e1 (2013), e33–e38.
- [13] Pauline C Ng and Ewen F Kirkness. 2010. Whole genome sequencing. In *Genetic variation*. Springer, 215–226.
- [14] Emily Niemitz. 2007. Variants of unknown significance. *Nature Genetics* 39, 11 (2007), 1313–1314.
- [15] Adrian Ranga, Nikolche Gjorevski, and Matthias P Lutolf. 2014. Drug discovery through stem cell-based organoid models. *Advanced drug delivery reviews* 69 (2014), 19–28.
- [16] Jorge S Reis-Filho. 2009. Next-generation sequencing. *Breast Cancer Research* 11, 3 (2009), S12.
- [17] HJ Rippon and AE Bishop. 2004. Embryonic stem cells. *Cell proliferation* 37, 1 (2004), 23–34.
- [18] Iwan Saeyns, Iñaki Inza, and Pedro Larrañaga. 2007. A review of feature selection techniques in bioinformatics. *Bioinformatics* 23, 19 (2007), 2507–2517.
- [19] Carol Jean Saunders, Neil Andrew Miller, Sarah Elizabeth Soden, Darrell Lee Dinwiddie, Aaron Noll, Noor Abu Alnadi, Nevene Andraws, Melanie LeAnn Patterson, Lisa Ann Krivohlavek, Joel Fellis, et al. 2012. Rapid whole-genome sequencing for genetic disease diagnosis in neonatal intensive care units. *Science translational medicine* 4, 154 (2012), 154ra135–154ra135.
- [20] Stephan C Schuster. 2008. Next-generation sequencing transforms today's biology. *Nature methods* 5, 1 (2008), 16–18.
- [21] Cory Smith, Athurva Gore, Wei Yan, Leire Abalde-Artistain, Zhe Li, Chaoxia He, Ying Wang, Robert A Brodsky, Kun Zhang, Linzhao Cheng, et al. 2014. Whole-genome sequencing analysis reveals high specificity of CRISPR/Cas9 and TALEN-based genome editing in human iPSCs. *Cell stem cell* 15, 1 (2014), 12–13.
- [22] Kazutoshi Takahashi, Koji Tanabe, Mari Ohnuki, Megumi Narita, Tomoko Ichisaka, Kiichiro Tomoda, and Shinya Yamanaka. 2007. Induction of pluripotent stem cells from adult human fibroblasts by defined factors. *cell* 131, 5 (2007), 861–872.
- [23] Cole Trapnell, Lior Pachter, and Steven L Salzberg. 2009. TopHat: discovering splice junctions with RNA-Seq. *Bioinformatics* 25, 9 (2009), 1105–1111.
- [24] Peter M Visscher, Matthew A Brown, Mark I McCarthy, and Jian Yang. 2012. Five years of GWAS discovery. *The American Journal of Human Genetics* 90, 1 (2012), 7–24.
- [25] Zhong Wang, Mark Gerstein, and Michael Snyder. 2009. RNA-Seq: a revolutionary tool for transcriptomics. *Nature reviews genetics* 10, 1 (2009), 57–63.
- [26] Ronald J Wapner, Christa Lese Martin, Brynn Levy, Blake C Ballif, Christine M Eng, Julia M Zachary, Melissa Savage, Lawrence D Platt, Daniel Saltzman, William A Grobman, et al. 2012. Chromosomal microarray versus karyotyping for prenatal diagnosis. *New England Journal of Medicine* 367, 23 (2012), 2175–2184.
- [27] James D Watson, Francis HC Crick, et al. 1953. Molecular structure of nucleic acids. *Nature* 171, 4356 (1953), 737–738.
- [28] Wikipedia. [n. d.]. Personalized Medicine. ([n. d.]). https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Personalized_medicine
- [29] Wikipedia. [n. d.]. UpToDate. ([n. d.]). <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/UpToDate> Wikipedia: The Free Encyclopedia. Wikimedia Foundation, Inc. 22 July 2004. Web. 2 Sept. 2016.
- [30] Yaping Yang, Donna M Muzny, Jeffrey G Reid, Matthew N Bainbridge, Alecia Willis, Patricia A Ward, Alicia Braxton, Joke Beuten, Fan Xia, Zhiyv Niu, et al. 2013. Clinical whole-exome sequencing for the diagnosis of mendelian disorders. *New England Journal of Medicine* 369, 16 (2013), 1502–1511.
- [31] Patricia J Zettler, Jacob S Sherkow, and Henry T Greely. 2014. 23andMe, the Food and Drug Administration, and the future of genetic testing. *JAMA internal medicine* 174, 4 (2014), 493–494.

- [32] Feng Zhang, Wenli Gu, Matthew E Hurles, and James R Lupski. 2009. Copy number variation in human health, disease, and evolution. *Annual review of genomics and human genetics* 10 (2009), 451–481.

```
bibtext report
```

```
=====
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
Warning--no key, author in vanderbilt
Warning--no author, editor, organization, or key in vanderbilt
Warning--to sort, need author or key in vanderbilt
Warning--no key, author in vanderbilt
Warning--no key, author in vanderbilt
Warning--no key, author in vanderbilt
Warning--no author, editor, organization, or key in vanderbilt
Warning--empty author in vanderbilt
Warning--empty year in vanderbilt
Warning--no number and no volume in centers2014national
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in centers2014national
Warning--empty year in fox6
Warning--empty address in ng2010whole
Warning--empty year in wiki-personalized
Warning--empty year in wiki-updated
(There were 15 warnings)
```

```
bibtext _ label error
```

```
=====
bibtext space label error
```

```
=====
bibtext comma label error
```

```
=====
latex report
```

```
[2017-12-08 04.02.05] pdflatex report.tex
This is pdfTeX, Version 3.14159265-2.6-1.40.17 (TeX Live 2016) (preloaded format=pdflatex)
Missing character: ""
Missing character: ""
Missing character: ""
Missing character: ""
```

```
Typesetting of "report.tex" completed in 1.0s.  
..../README.yml  
24:14      warning  truthy value is not quoted  (truthy)  
28:25      error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
```

Compliance Report

```
name: Durbin, Matthew  
hid: 311  
paper1: 100%  
paper2: in progress  
project: 100%
```

```
yamlcheck
```

```
wordcount
```

```
9  
wc 311 project 9 6590 report.tex  
wc 311 project 9 7166 report.pdf  
wc 311 project 9 1117 report.bib
```

```
find "
```

```
103: In 1977 a paper was published entitled "A rapid method for  
determining sequences in DNA by primed synthesis with DNA  
polymerase". This technique, now known as Sanger sequencing,  
revolutionized molecular biology. Using termination of sequence  
and dye detection, it provided a fast and easy way to determine  
the DNA sequence of living organisms. It is still extensively  
utilized. Many newer technologies have been developed and are  
known as "next generation sequencing." \cite{schuster2008next}
```

```
passed: False
```

```
find footnote
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find input{format/i523}
```

```
4: \input{format/i523}
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find input{format/final}
```

```
passed: False
```

```
floats
```

```
figures 0
```

```
tables 0
```

```
includegraphics 0
```

```
labels 0
```

```
refs 0
```

```
floats 0
```

```
True : ref check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
```

```
True : label check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
```

```
True : include graphics passed: (figures >= includegraphics)
```

```
True : check if all figures are refered to: (refs >= labels)
```

```
Label/ref check
```

```
passed: True
```

```
When using figures use columnwidth
```

```
[width=1.0\columnwidth]
```

```
do not change the number to a smaller fraction
```

```
find textwidth
```

```
passed: True
```

```
below_check
```

bibtex

label errors

bibtex errors

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
Warning--no key, author in vanderbilt
Warning--no author, editor, organization, or key in vanderbilt
Warning--to sort, need author or key in vanderbilt
Warning--no key, author in vanderbilt
Warning--no key, author in vanderbilt
Warning--no key, author in vanderbilt
Warning--no author, editor, organization, or key in vanderbilt
Warning--empty author in vanderbilt
Warning--empty year in vanderbilt
Warning--no number and no volume in centers2014national
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in centers2014national
Warning--empty year in fox6
Warning--empty address in ng2010whole
Warning--empty year in wiki-personalized
Warning--empty year in wiki-updated
(There were 15 warnings)
```

bibtex_empty_fields

entries in general should not be empty in bibtex

find ""

passed: True

ascii

```
non ascii found 8211  
non ascii found 8217  
non ascii found 8212
```

```
=====  
The following tests are optional  
=====
```

```
Tip: newlines can often be replaced just by an empty line
```

```
find newline
```

```
-----  
passed: True  
cites should have a space before \cite{} but not before the {
```

```
find cite {
```

```
-----  
passed: True
```

The Impact of Clinical Trial Results on Pharmaceutical Stock Performance

Tiffany Fabianac

Indiana University

Bloomington, Indiana 47408, USA

tifabi@iu.edu

ABSTRACT

While many relate stock market trading to gambling, successful traders have turned stock picking into a science. The likes of Warren Buffet tell us that successful stock buying is all in the research. So what kind of research aids in the prediction of companies within the highly volatile pharmaceutical market? The use of available, open-source APIs and Google Alerts are used to explore if clinical trial results can directly impact stock performance in small, mid, and large cap pharmaceutical companies. Key words and/or phrases in results and related news articles are identified as possible predictors of market effect. As well as a comparison to already established analyst ratings from Barclays, Goldman, and J P Morgan Chase which have already been shown to impact stock performance.

KEYWORDS

Big Data, HID313, i523, Stock Market, Pharmaceutical

1 INTRODUCTION

A “stock” is a piece of ownership in a company. Offering stocks for sale provides capital to the selling company in exchange for a stake in the company. A stock market is a collection of exchanges where trading of stocks takes place [14]. Evidence of early stock markets date back to the fourteenth century with the offering of state loan stocks throughout Italy. Even prior to the organization of stock markets, price fluctuations for goods such as wheat and barley were tracked by early economists. The first “modern” stock market appeared in Amsterdam in the seventeenth century where the volume of stocks traded and the fluidity in which they were traded reached a new high [4].

The biggest stock markets in the world are currently the New York Stock Exchange (NYSE), the National Association of Securities Dealers Automated Quotations (NASDAQ), and the London Stock Exchange. NYSE started in 1792 with twenty four stock brokers. The initial focus was government bonds which provided secure, long term income. The early days of the 1800 saw stocks traded through telegraph. Telephones replaces the telegraphs in 1878. Current trading on the NYSE can surpass 1.4 billion shares each day across almost 4,000 companies [8]. NASDAQ began as an all-electric equities exchange in 1971 and today provides trading, technology, and information services for financial markets. Today over 4,000 companies are traded on the NASDAQ with over 1.8 billion trades per day [21]. The London stock exchange was founded in 1801. Currently over 2,600 companies across 60 countries are traded on the London Stock Exchange each day [6].

Throughout the history of markets, prices have been tracked and insightful traders have attempted to predict and capitalize on price fluctuation. The age of computers opened new doors for stock

analysis and trend prediction to facilitate capital gains for traders. Financial companies like Goldman Sachs and JPMorgan Chase & Co. have hired mathematicians, statisticians, and trade analysts since the early days of trading in an effort to predict the market in a consistent manner. Once an algorithm is established and used consistently the algorithm itself but be considered as a variable that could effect the prediction outcome [12].

A major complexity in creating algorithms for the stock market is that the market tends to follow the erratic emotions and feelings of humans. If computers were running the market, making trade decisions based on logic and reason, then the market would be much more stable. The volatility of human emotions about money and stocks creates tremendous volatility in the market. The revolution of social media has provided a means of measuring the mood of possible traders. For this reason, the ability to predict society’s reaction to news has developed into a field of study within the data science world [3].

How big of an impact can news articles have on the stock market? In September 2008, an article published on a South Florida News website reported that United airlines had files Chapter 11 bankruptcy. The news struck so hard that United’s stock plummeted 75% from \$12 to \$3. Interestingly enough, the article was just about six years old and had originally been published by the Chicago Tribune in December 2002. Even though the report was literally “old news” it did not prevent massive panic from investors [29].

1.1 Pharmaceutical Sector

The pharmaceutical industry has evolved around the need to establish drugs and treatment options for diseases. Research and development within pharmaceutical companies range from compound identification to disease characterization. This market is directly affected by the results of drug tests such as clinical trials and the establishment of new treatment options. Market growth also comes from manufacturing and licensing of drugs and treatment methods. Innovation is the key driver of this industry [9].

Like the financial sector trying to predict the stock market, the pharmaceutical industry has devoted resources to developing prediction algorithms and machine learning systems. The efforts of drug manufacturers are aimed to create a system that consistently predicts or aids in identifying drug targets. One such approach is the development of virtual screening for drug discovery meant to reduce the experimental failures associated with high throughput screening. High throughput screening is carried out to test many chemicals, molecules, compounds, proteins, hormones, viral vectors, etc all at once on large grids or plates which can test many different treatment combinations all together. Large costs and big

data sets are associated with high throughput screening which is now becoming virtual with the help of advanced molecular profiling [15].

1.2 Clinical Trials

A clinical trial is a planned experiment involving patients with the intent to elucidate an appropriate or effective treatment option(s) for the population of patients afflicted with the same medical condition. A big concern with clinical trials is that inferences are made for the entire population of patients from a relatively small sample size [23]. One of the first clinical trials recorded was carried out in the eighteenth century to evaluate six treatments on twelve patients with scurvy. Two patients that were given oranges and lemons recovered very quickly. Fisher introduced the concept of randomization in the nineteenth century [7].

Clinical trials have four defined phases. Phase I trials identify how well a drug is tolerated by determining the maximally tolerated dose (MTD) on a very small sample size. Phase I trials have very simple experimental designs as the only intent is to examine toxicity. Phase II explores biological activity or effect on a small patient sample size. The design of a Phase II trial is dependent on the design on the Phase I trial as both share the intent to evaluate adverse events. Phase III trials follow the design of Phase II trials but on a bigger sample size with the intent to solidify a treatment's effectiveness in clinical practice. Phase IV trials are prolonged Phase III trials that can track a drug, procedure, or instrument for decades with continuous efficiency reflection [7].

Clinical trial designs have been very slow to evolve due to restrictions enforced by governing agencies such as the US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) and the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). While these restrictions are intended to minimize patient risk, they also greatly restrict the potential of clinical trial data collection. Other limiting factors include difficulty enrolling high quality participants for each trial phase, problems monitoring how well patients are following protocol, difficulty sorting out "the placebo effect" or the ability for patients to feel as if they are recovering without actually receiving treatment, and overall minimizing poor quality of data [7].

1.3 Established Analyst Ratings

Companies within the financial sector often publish rankings of the top stocks that the company invests in. The ratings are a way to attract investors with proof that the company is diligently analyzing the market and "picking winners". These published rankings have been shown to boost or deflate rallies behind particular stocks that are added or removed for these prestigious lists [1].

The Goldman Sachs Group, Inc. was founded in 1869. The company provides a full stack portfolio of banking and investment services. Goldman Sachs career website states that the company is driven to achieve superior returns for their clients which include pension funds, hedge funds, and mutual funds. The company boasts that their research analysts are curious and creative [27]. Goldman Sachs Global Investor Research group provides stock ratings on a scale of Buy, Neutral, and Sell [26].

J P Morgan Chase (JPM) is one of the largest investment banks in the world [28]. The company's investment mechanisms include currency, emerging markets, equities, and fixed income. JPM publishes quarterly market insight reports with "buy" and "sell" ratings for the companies of interest to the firm. Subscribers to JPM's services can even get an audio version of the report which details market trends [19].

Barclays was founded in London in 1896. The bank currently serves over forty-eight million customers and releases stock picks every quarter but for a limited number of stocks [28]. Because Barclays is so selective with their stock promotions, only selecting some 50 stocks to support, it is possible that they have a greater impact on the market than other companies in the stock prediction game.

1.4 Data Resources

An Application Programming Interface (API) acts as the middleman between the requesting service and the performing service. When a user or system submits a request the request is passed to the API which translates it for the processing system then returns the results in a receivable format. This project uses the free Gmail API provided by Google to read and extract data from specific email messages.

Machine learning is the study using computer language to recognize patterns and make data-driven decisions based off of them. It is based on the theories of statistics. Bayes' Theorem gives the probability of an event occurring given some evidence. Bayes Theorem is vital in Machine Learning because it provides evidence to how probabilities should be updated given new evidence. Markov's theory describes properties that can be predicted based only on past events. Some of the first learning programs were designed to play boardgames such as checkers and chess [31].

NASDAQ's website provides historical stock performance data that can be exported as a Comma-Separated Values (CSV) file. The disadvantage of NASDAQ's free export service is that each stock must be exported separately. The free quote service can be accessed at [22]. NASDAQ provides API services for subscribers starting at \$5,000 per year [20]. Access to NASDAQ's API services can also be granted through corporate sponsorship. NASDAQ's free CSV export services were used to collect initial project data. In example, the stock history for Celsion Corporation during the week of August 21, 2017 is shown:

```
date , close , volume , open , high , low
2017/08/25 ,1.3700 ,179097.0000 ,1.3600 ,1.4100 ,1.3000
2017/08/24 ,1.3600 ,149832.0000 ,1.3100 ,1.3600 ,1.2810
2017/08/23 ,1.3100 ,223451.0000 ,1.2500 ,1.3300 ,1.2430
2017/08/22 ,1.2800 ,164594.0000 ,1.3200 ,1.3200 ,1.2400
2017/08/21 ,1.3300 ,169037.0000 ,1.3300 ,1.3700 ,1.2800
```

Exports such as this one offered by NASDAQ and API interfaces for stock data are provided by numerous companies. The Yahoo! Finance API is explored below and the Google Finance API was used to perform the stock data extraction for the analysis presented. Additional resources such as stock tracking apps and free exports are available. CSV exports such as the one listed above can be

downloaded from Google Finance, Yahoo! Finance, and many others. This publication does not provide a complete list of available resources, but attempts to present a few for comparison.

Python.org provides a python module to pull stock data from Yahoo! Finance [24]. The package can be installed through Git by cloning the Git directory where the package is available: [18]. To install the python package without Git the tape archive can be downloaded from [25]. Tape archives allow for compression of multiple files which can be restored to their original format using the tar command in the command line [16]. Apply the tar options: z - filter archive through gzip, x - extract an archive file, and f - filename of archive, use “cd” to change the current working directory, and then install the python module using the package management command “pip”:

```
tar -zxf yahoo-finance-1.4.0.tar.gz
cd yahoo-finance
pip install yahoo-finance
```

While Yahoo! Finance is a great resource, the API does not function consistently, and as of this writing the API has been turned off by Yahoo!.

2 METHODS

2.1 Data Collection

Data collection was initiated with the use of Google Alerts. Google allows for alerts to be configured from Google [11]. Gmail users can configure these alerts to be sent through email when news or other types of articles pertaining to a defined subject are released to the web. The Google Alerts for this project were: “Phase III Trial”, “Phase 3 Trial”, and “Meets Primary End Point”. When these phrases are detected by Google, the link to the webpage and a short description are sent via email to the configured email address. On busy days, an excess of 100 alerts were received for these alert phrases. On slow days, only a couple alerts were received. Only very infrequently were no messages received.

To collect data from the received Google Alerts without too much manual clicking, Gmail has an available API which allows users to pull data from a Gmail account. To start using the Gmail API, a user must first configure their Authentication credentials through Google’s developer console. The JSON format is shown:

```
{"installed": {"client_id": "####.apps.googleusercontent.com",
  "project_id": "###",
  "auth_uri": "https://accounts.google.com/o/oauth2/auth",
  "token_uri": "https://accounts.google.com/o/oauth2/token",
  "auth_provider_x509_cert_url": "https://www.googleapis.com/oauth2/v1/certs",
  "client_secret": "###",
  "redirect_uris": ["urn:ietf:wg:oauth:2.0:oob",
    "http://localhost"]}}
```

Once credentials are received in the form of a JSON file, the Google Client Library can be installed using pip to install google-api-python-client. The Google Development team has provided a quick-start file which facilitates the first authentication run. Running this quick start guide will open a browser window and prompt the user to log into a Gmail account. The user then accepts the authorization and can run the Gmail API from command line or other compilers.

Headlines of the received alerts, usually the title of the article and the first couple of lines, are referred to as “Snippets” by Google’s Gmail API. This project pulled only the Snippets and the date from the Google Alerts. The Snippets do not contain the whole article but may still provide enough evidence of sentiment for further analysis and prediction of the associated stock. Unfortunately, no solution was identified for extracting the appropriate stock symbols from the Snippets so this task had to be performed manually.

The google-api-python-client provides a number of helpful modules that are designed to provide simple access to Google APIs. The main components of authenticating the API are apiclient which build the credential string which will be added to each execution string for the API. Auth2client provides the authentication library [10]. Access to HTTP connections are provided by httpplib2 [13]. Dates are managed and manipulated with time, dateutil, and datetime. Csv, io, and json provide text and file parses and manipulators.

The Python code calls the Gmail API and writes a .csv from the data. After calling all needed libraries, the scope of the authorization is defined. Google mail can be opened with a Readonly or Modify authentication. Next, the credentials are established by the JSON file received during the API authentication setup. This JSON must be saved in the same directory as the code being run. The code sets the variables for User ID and Label then runs an execution command calling the Messages.List API, which looks like this:

```
GMAIL.users().messages().list(userId='me',
  labelIds=[INBOX], q='from:googlealerts-noreply@google.com before:2017/11/24').execute()
```

Google has defined the user ID “me” as the global for the authenticated account in use. The label ID “INBOX” designates that the messages will be pulled from the inbox folder, but any other folder could be called here as well as a collection of labels that Google has defined such as “UNREAD”. The “q” designates a query. The query will return only messages from the Google Alerts email address which have been received by the twenty-fourth of November 2017. This data was selected so that all returned records would have five market days of stock prices to compare. This execution returns a dictionary which contains message IDs for all the messages that matched the query.

The next step is to “get” the messages with the use of the Messages.Get API. While looping through the dictionary of message ID from the defined query, the script retrieves the Date and Snippet for each. Additional options could return the Sender, Receiving Email, Email body, among others. The syntax is shown here:

```
GMAIL.users().messages().get(userId='me', id=m_id).execute()
```

The user ID is the same as described previously with the ID being the current message ID within the loop. This execute command

returns a dictionary which is parsed from “payload” to “headers” to extract the Date. The Snippet is also grabbed from the message dictionary and along with the Date, passed to a final list to be written to a .csv file.

[Figure 1 about here.]

Figure 1 shows the entire code to extract Google Alerts data using the Google provided Gmail API.

The Python package pandas is an incredible resource that provides a number of tools to read, parse, extract, and manipulate delimited file or data types. The Pandas package has a resource for getting stock market data from free online sources such as Yahoo! mentioned above and Google. To install this package through Git, simply clone the directory, use the “Change Directory” command “cd” to change the current working directory, and installing the python module as follows:

```
$ git clone git://github.com/pydata/pandas-datareader.git
$ cd pandas-datareader
$ python setup.py install
```

If the Python setup returns the error: “python: command not found” run the following with the path to the python installation:

```
$ PATH="$PATH:/c/Python27"
```

Pandas-datareader and many other packages can also be installed via pip. In example, many additional packages are needed to run a python script using pandas-datareader. These packages can be configured all at once or one at a time as follows:

```
pip -m install --user numpy scipy matplotlib
ipython jupyter pandas sympy nose urllib3
chardet idna
```

Unlike the NASDAQ export, using Google as a data source for pandas-datareader requires each attribute to be called separately. This means calling the Close Price, Open Price, High Price, etc individually and joining them through code. Also, unlike NASDAQ’s export but this time in a positive light, multiple tickers can be passed together. This allows for all historical data to be pulled for many stocks with a single code.

The Python code for collecting historical stock data is propelled by pandas_datareader. The script starts by reading in the .csv created using the Google API script described previously. The data is read in as a dictionary using DictReader and the output file is opened/created right afterwards to allow for writing out with each loop through the starting file’s dictionary. For each line the stock ticker and date of the Google Alert are passed to a function that returns the highest price of the stock 5 days after the Google Alert, the stock and ticker are then passed to a function that pulls the opening price on the day that the Google Alert was received. The highest price and starting price are the used to calculate the percent change using the formula:

```
round(((high-startPrice)/startPrice)*100,2)
```

If the high price is 10% higher than the starting price the line is given a “W” for “Winner”. If the high price is less than 10% of the starting price then the line is marked with a “L” for loser. The whole line with the addition of the Win or Lose designation and the percent change is written to a new .csv file with the intention of

attempting sentiment analysis with the Win or Lose designations as the outcome and the Snippets as the sentiment.

[Figure 2 about here.]

Figure 2 shows the code to combine the data produced by the Google Alert mining and available historic stock price data.

Twelve out of sixty-three stock tickers returned by Google Alerts were flagged at “Winners” for increasing in price by 10% within five days after the Google Alert was received.

Ticker	prctChange	High	Open	Date
['ABEO']	27.39	10.0	7.85	2017-08-22
['ARRY']	15.41	10.11	8.76	2017-08-22
['CLSN']	160.9	3.47	1.33	2017-11-23
['EARS']	20.83	0.87	0.72	2017-11-18
['EGLT']	15.04	1.3	1.13	2017-11-17
['HCM']	39.87	35.01	25.03	2017-11-19
['NLNK']	57.8	10.02	6.35	2017-11-18
['NWBO']	45.0	0.29	0.2	2017-11-19
['NWBO']	45.0	0.29	0.2	2017-11-17
['ONCE']	11.53	83.19	74.59	2017-08-21
['OTIC']	11.47	20.9	18.75	2017-08-23
['PSTI']	32.23	1.6	1.21	2017-11-22
['VTVT']	10.92	5.08	4.58	2017-11-23
['VTVT']	24.24	5.69	4.58	2017-11-19
['VTVT']	24.24	5.69	4.58	2017-11-18

ABEO Snippet appears to reflect a number of disappointments followed by something positive:

Abeona Therapeutics – String Of Pearls Strategy
With Numerous Catalysts And A Lot Of Upside

This Snippet was received August 22, when ABEO’s stock opened at \$7.85. The stock hit its five year high of \$19.95 on October 10.

ARRY is a bio-pharmaceutical company that was call out in the training set as a “winner” for August 22. J P Morgan Chase & Co confirmed a “buy” rating for ARRY on September 11, three weeks after it was identified by this model as a “winner”. Goldman Sachs increase their buy in to ARRY on October 22 by 33%. The Snippet for ARRY does not appear to reflect a positive sentiment about the company:

Array Biopharma (ARRY) Reaches \\$8.58 After 7.00% Down Move; Per Se Technologies

CLSN started the year just under \$10 a share and slowly declined to its current \$2.40. The Snippet for CLSN was received on November 23 when the stock briefly rose 160% before falling again:

After Reaching Milestone, Is Celsion Corporation (NASDAQ:CLSN)’s Short Interest Revealing

EARS is a small tier stock with a market cap of \$19 million. The stock rose to \$0.93 per share on November 24 before falling to \$0.42 on November 28. The Snippet depicts analysts predictions of negative earnings:

Analysts See -\$0.20 EPS for Auris Medical Holding AG (EARS) BZ Weekly The Company’s advanced product candidate, AM-101, is in

Egalet Corporation (EGLT) develops abuse resistant formulations of opioids. The Snippet is overwhelming positive and describing stock increases:

Egalet progressing second abuse-deterring opioid
med The Pharma Letter Egalet (Nasdaq: EGLT)
says its share move up a hefty 38.55%

This Google Alert was received on November 17, just prior to another 30% stock increase.

HCM is a pharmaceutical company headquartered in China. The Snippet reflects the company's one year growth of over 160%:

Will Hutchison China MediTech Limited (HCM) Run
Out of Steam Soon? BZ Weekly ... Hutchison
China MediTech Limited (LON:HCM) were

NLNK received positive feedback from established analysts on November 18. Causing the stock to briefly rise and then return. This Snippet and change may reflect the power of analyst ratings:

NewLink Genetics Corporation (NASDAQ:NLNK) Given
Buy Rating at Cantor Fitzgerald StockNewsTimes
Indoximod is expected to enter a

NWBO held steady through October at \$0.16 and between until November 15 and November 28 rose 87%. The Snippet was received on November 18 in the prime of the increase.

Here's Why Northwest Biotherapeutics, Inc (OTCMKTS :NWBO) Just Ripped Higher The Finance
Registrar The Company's lead program
orthwest Bioth Cnn (NASDAQ:NWBO) Stock fi?! Is it
Overbought? First News 24 The Business's lead
product, DCVax-L, is in an ongoing

ONCE is a large cap therapeutics company which showed growth through September. The Snippet reflects news of a changed analyst rating:

Spark Therapeutics Inc (ONCE) is Initiated by
Evercore ISI to "In-line"

OTIC rose in August just before crashing from \$20.18 to \$3.20 after a failed Phase III clinical trial in September. The Snippet captured analyst confidence in the company:

Otomy (OTIC): Reiterating Outperform Ahead Of
Catalysts - Cowen

PSTI is a leading developer of cell therapy products derived from placenta. The Snippet received on November 22 reflects news of a granted patent application:

Pluristem Therapeutics (PSTI) Granted US Patent
for Skeletal Muscle Regeneration StreetInsider
.com This very important patent comes

VTVT's Snippets reflect stock decreases, low sentiment scores, and drug treatment competition:

vTv Therapeutics (VTVT) Reaches \\$.5.01 After
5.00% Down Move; FMC (FMC) Shorts Down By
vTv Therapeutics (VTVT) Receives Media Sentiment
Rating of 0.25 The Lincolnian Online vTv
Therapeutics Inc is a clinical-stage

Head-To-Head Comparison: vTv Therapeutics (VTVT)
versus Its Competitors The Ledger Gazette Its
drug candidate for the treatment of

These sentiments do not reflect positive news and should be cause to look more deeply at the stock comparison being performed.

2.2 Data Analysis

There are many methods for analysis that could be implemented for this dataset. Time series prediction could be used to identify trends in the stocks of interest [2]. Regression analysis is very common to identify key factors that contribute to the accuracy of a prediction. TextBlob sentiment analysis allows for sentiment analysis to be performed in as little as four lines of code. TextBlob returns a number between -1 and 1 for how negative (-1) or positive (1) a defined sentiment or group of text is [17]. Tensorflow is another popular way of creating sentiment analysis which takes an input of words with the intent of returning a sentiment of positive, negative, or neutral. In order to do this Tensorflow uses a build in learning and training set called tflearn to compare previously established sentiments. For example, words like "love" and "happy" return a positive sentiment while words like "hate" and "sad" return a negative sentiment [5].

Random Forest algorithms create decision trees for each variable. Each tree represents the sequence of events or decisions that led to the outcome or result. With each branch or step through the decision tree a probability is calculated for the outcome and the collection of trees work together to create multiple "regression lines" that are used to predict an outcome when presented with new data that does not have an outcome. The model or collection of trees form what is called a random forest can then be used to predict sentiment or outcomes. For stock data or other time series datasets, it is essential to continuously re-train the model to perform at its best. As mentioned above it is possible for additional models and even the model itself to begin to influence the prediction model.

The code that performs random tree analysis starts with some dependencies. Os is imported to allow for command line functionality, the machine learning library sklearn is used because it has a very fast learning rate, KaggleWord2VecUtility is a utility that processes raw text into segments for learning, pandas as mentioned before helps with delimited file manipulation, nltk that already contains a number of words and phrases that are not useful for sentiment analysis importing this library helps to eliminate those elements from the dataset we are training on. To install KaggleWord2VecUtility visit the DeepLearningMovies github directory [30].

In this code the Kaggle module removes special characters associated with HTML. It was intended to return a URL from the Google Alerts and run the website associated with each alert through beautiful-soup to use the entire article as training data, but the Gmail messages were encoded in such a way that it was not possible to extract the URL from the Google Alert. Nltk removes words such as "to" or "the" which do not hold any inherent meaning that could be applied to the sentiment analysis. The cleaning process converts the first Snippet as follows:

Abeona Therapeutics - String Of Pearls Strategy
With Numerous Catalysts And A Lot Of Upside

```
abeona therapeutics string pearls strategy  
numerous catalysts lot upside
```

Once the Snippets are free of special characters and non-sentiment words, they are parsed into a vector. This process creates what is called a “Bag of Words” by creating a dictionary with the count of each word in the text. This is also called tokenization or vectorizing and is performed easily with the sklearn package’s countVectorizer process. Here the analyzer is set to word, there is no defined tokenizer, pre-processor, or stop words needed so these are set to “None”. The maximum number of features controls the limit on the maximum number of words and frequencies contained in the bag of words.

A model is easily created from the defined bag of words using sklearn’s fit_transform which is converted to an array. The method for classification is a random forest which builds decision trees for each variable in the dataset. In example, the first Snippet describes a “winning” variable and contains the word “Upside” if other Snippets contain the word “Upside” it might be indicative of a “winning” classifier. The last step calculates predictions for the new dataset based on the established classifiers. This is simple done with the RandomForestClassifier’s predict function.

[Figure 3 about here.]

Figure 3 shows the entire code to train on the dataset provided by the historical stock data and Google Alert sentiments.

The Python code for verifying the random tree analysis by pulling historical stock data for each ticker analyzed is propelled by pandas_datareader. The script starts by reading in the .csv created using the random tree analysis script described previously. The data is read in as a dictionary using DictReader and the output file is opened/created right afterwards to allow for writing out with each loop through the starting file’s dictionary. For each line the stock ticker and date are passed to a function that returns the highest price of the stock from the date of the received alert to the current date, the stock and ticker are then passed to a function that pulls the opening price on the day that the Google Alert was received. These two prices are compared to verify if the stock increased by 10% from the time of the alert.

[Figure 4 about here.]

Figure 4 shows the code to combine the data produced by the random forest analysis and combine it with available historic stock price data.

3 RESULTS

The results export to a .csv as shown:

```
Accuracy , Date , Sentiment , Ticker  
L,2017-12-03,L,ABBV  
L,2017-12-01,L,ABBV  
L,2017-11-30,L,ACAD  
L,2017-12-02,L,ALNY  
L,2017-12-03,L,ARGX  
L,2017-12-02,L,BABA
```

This analysis shows the stock ticker ABBV for the pharmaceutical company AbbVie as a “loser” twice as two alerts were received about the company on December 3 and 4. As of December 4 ABBV is down 1.08% post Google Alert receipt. ACAD is the ticker for

ACADIA Pharmaceuticals Inc. which is down 1.09% since receipt of the Google Alert on November 30. Alnylam Pharmaceuticals, Inc (ALNY) is down 1.06% since December 2. ARGX is down 0.97% since receipt of the Google Alert but up over 18% for the prior five days. ARGX did not appear in the training data set so it might be worth while to explore factors that contributed to it’s recent increase, if not clinical trials. Interestingly, BABA is a Chinese e-commerce site which is down 2.88%. This ticker appearing is cause to look closer at the article that was link to the Clinical Trial Alert but returned a retail chain.

3.1 Comparison to Established Analyst Ratings

One of the important aspects of professional analyst ratings is that the intent is to identify the best long term investments. This project only looked at short term success over a period of five days. Further research should refine additional models to compare success in shorter term, one day, and longer term, six months to a year or more.

ABBV, a predicted “losers”, is marked “Neutral” by JPM. The two Snippets stored for ABBV are:

```
Cornercap Investment Counsel Has Raised Abbvie Com  
(ABBV) Stake; Profile of 7 Analysts ...  
NormanObserver.com The firm also develops  
AbbVie Inc. (NYSE:ABBV) Updates On Phase III  
Murano Trial MMJ Reporter AbbVie Inc. (NYSE:  
ABBV) reported that the American Society of
```

The ABBV Snippets do not appear to be negative, and may even swing more in the positive light. AbbVie being a large cap pharmaceutical company may create lower volatility for the stock. Reanalyzing the data and splitting companies into small, mid, and high tier categories may give very different results over long term and short term growth. Larger companies, with many more investors, tend to be more stable.

ACAD, a predicted “losers”, is marked as “Neutral” by Goldman Sachs. Interestingly enough, the Snippet about ACAD mentions a sentiment ranking which is actually what would be considered a positive rating:

```
EPS for The Kroger Co. (KR) Expected At \$.41;  
Acadia Pharmaceuticals (ACAD)s Sentiment Is  
1.05 San Times The Company
```

Increasing the Google Alert scope to include data related to sentiment for pharmaceutical companies may be beneficial to the model.

ALNY, a predicted “losers”, is marked as “Buy” by JPM, Goldman Sachs, and Barclays. These analyst ratings may indicate that the model is not a good indicator of long term success as the analyst ratings suggest. This requires greater research which should include increasing the historic interval from five days to six months or more. The Snippet does not seem to reflect anything positive or negative about the company:

```
How Analysts Rated Alnylam Pharmaceuticals Inc. (  
NASDAQ:ALNY) Last Week BZ Weekly The company's  
clinical development programs
```

ARGX, a predicted “losers”, is ranked as “Underweight” by Barclay, as recently upgraded to “Buy” by Goldman Sachs, and has been downgraded to “Neutral” by JPM. The Snippet used to rate

this company mentions a number of other stock tickers but gives the impression that ARGX should be a stock of interest for would be investors:

Here's Why You Need To Keep An Eye On ARGX MGNX
KURA AGIO Nasdaq argenxs lead oncology asset
is ARGX-110 currently

It is important to note that the intention of the model is not to predict winning long term stocks, but to predict stock that will have a 10% increase within five business days.

BABA, a predicted “losers”, is also marked as a “buy” by all investing firms and reaffirms that additional data is needed for long term investments. This Snippet does show negative sentiment. Reducing holding in a company is not a good sign of positive things to come for a company. Even if this sentiment appears accurate, it does not on its own confirm the model’s accuracy.

Tiger Legatus Capital Management Cut Alibaba Group Hldg LTD (BABA) Position By \\$2.80 Million ... UtahHerald.com The company

4 CONCLUSION

The codes provided for this project take Google Alert data directly from a Gmail account, write the date the alert was received and the Snippet to a .csv, use the stock tickers identified in the Google Alerts to pull relevant historical stock price data to create a training set which is then analyzed using a random tree approach. The random tree analysis then produces a prediction for stocks that have received alerts more recently (within five days of the analysis). While all the sentiments drawn in the final calculation were indicated as “losers” none of the stocks were reconfirmed by recent historical data as significant increases. The lack of true negatives does not confirm the model as the dataset was very low, but could be an indication of the model being on the right track for success.

The analysis presented herein represents the possible impact of sentiment expressed in news reports about clinical trials has the potential to predict the movement of stock prices. Further analysis should work with a bigger data set, possibly by increasing the number of configured Google Alerts and certainly by identifying how to pull stock tickers from the Snippets. An idea to do this might be to create a dictionary of stock tickers and company names and compare this dictionary with the sentiments. This could then pull out any company names or tickers defined in the Snippets and associate the relevant ticker symbol.

Next steps should also include more in depth analysis on the timing of stock increases by changing the historical stock data from five days after an alert is received to two days or one day. This would allow for a more immediate reflection on the cause and effect of the reported news. The scope should also be scaled to consider historical data over six months or more and compared again to the results of dedicated investor houses. In addition, adding sentiment analysis reports for pharmaceutical companies may benefit the long and short term predictions.

This project was run on ubuntu and took approximately four minutes to process from pulling Google Alerts to producing the analysis after Nltk was downloaded. Nltk took some seven minutes to download for the first run. Future projects, with bigger datasets,

could be run from cloud environments like AWS, Chromeleon, or the server node of a big red environment.

Continued improvement of the code would test running Kaggle and Nltk from the Google API script to reduce the size of the output file by eliminating stop words and special characters before the first export is even produced. This process would also improve speed with the historical stock price collection script as the Snippets are also written here.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The author would like to thank Dr. Gregor von Laszewski and the teaching assistants of the Fall 2017 i523 course for their support and suggestions in writing this paper.

REFERENCES

- [1] Seeking Alpha. 2010. How Analyst Recommendations Affect Stock Prices: New Research. Website. (03 2010). <https://seekingalpha.com/article/194435-how-analyst-recommendations-affect-stock-prices-new-research>
- [2] G. Armano, M. Marchesi, and A. Murru. 2005. A hybrid genetic-neural architecture for stock indexes forecasting. *Information Sciences* 170, 1 (2005), 3 – 33. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ins.2003.03.023> Computational Intelligence in Economics and Finance.
- [3] Johan Bollen, Huina Mao, and Xiaojun Zeng. 2011. Twitter mood predicts the stock market. *Journal of Computational Science* 2, 1 (2011), 1 – 8. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jocs.2010.12.007>
- [4] F. Braudel. 1982. *Civilization and Capitalism, 15th-18th Century, Vol. II: The Wheels of Commerce*. University of California Press, California. <https://books.google.com/books?id=WPDbSXQsvGIC>
- [5] Adit Deshpande. 2017. Perform sentiment analysis with LSTMs, using TensorFlow. Website. (07 2017). <https://www.oreilly.com/learning/perform-sentiment-analysis-with-lstms-using-tensorflow>
- [6] London Stock Exchange. 2017. About London Stock Exchange Group. Website. (01 2017). <https://www.lseg.com/about-london-stock-exchange-group>
- [7] L.M. Friedman, C. Furberg, and D.L. DeMets. 1998. *Fundamentals of Clinical Trials*. Springer, Switzerland. <https://books.google.com/books?id=yzxT0Zh3X3IC>
- [8] FXCM. 2014. New York Stock Exchange. Website. (12 2014). <https://www.fxcm.com/insights/new-york-stock-exchange-nyse/#history>
- [9] O. Gassmann, G. Reepmeyer, and M. von Zedtwitz. 2013. *Leading Pharmaceutical Innovation: Trends and Drivers for Growth in the Pharmaceutical Industry*. Springer Berlin Heidelberg, Germany. <https://books.google.com/books?id=4Za-BwAAQBAJ>
- [10] Google. 2017. Easily access Google APIs from Python. Website. (01 2017). <https://developers.google.com/api-client-library/python/>
- [11] Google. 2017. Google Alerts. Website. (2017). <https://www.google.com/alerts>
- [12] Thomas Hellstrom and Kenneth Holmstrom. 1997. *Predict the stock market*. techreport. Department of Mathematics and Physics, Mälardalen University, Sweden.
- [13] hugovk. 2017. Httpplib2. Website. (10 2017). <https://github.com/httpplib2/httpplib2>
- [14] Investopedia. 2017. Stock Market. Website. (09 2017). <https://www.investopedia.com/terms/s/stockmarket.asp?lgl=rira-layout>
- [15] Douglas B. Kitchen, Hlne Decornez, John R. Furr, and Jrgen Bajorath. 2004. Docking and scoring in virtual screening for drug discovery: methods and applications. *Nature Reviews Drug Discovery* 3 (Nov. 2004), 935. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/nrd1549>
- [16] LINFO. 2006. The tar Command. website. (07 2006). <http://www.linfo.org/tar.html>
- [17] Steven Loria. 2017. TextBlob. Website. (01 2017). <http://textblob.readthedocs.io/en/dev/quickstart.html>
- [18] Lukaszbanasiak. 2016. Yahoo-finance. Website. (12 2016). <https://github.com/lukaszbanasiak/yahoo-finance>
- [19] J.P.Morgan Asset Management. 2017. Guide to the Markets. Website. (2017). <https://am.jpmorgan.com/us/en/asset-management/gim/adv/insights/guide-to-the-markets/viewer>
- [20] NASDAQ. 2017. NASDAQ DataOnDemand Subscription Plans. Website. (2017). <https://www.nasdaqdod.com/Shop/ProductConfig.aspx?product=webservices&service=NASDAQDataOnDemand>
- [21] NASDAQ. 2017. NASDAQ's Story. website. (2017). <http://business.nasdaq.com/discover/nasdaq-story/index.html>
- [22] NASDAQ. 2017. U.S. Stock Quotae, Charts, and Research. website. (2017). <http://www.nasdaq.com/quotes/>
- [23] S.J. Pocock. 2013. *Clinical Trials: A Practical Approach*. Wiley, England. <https://books.google.com/books?id=TxbTBQAAQBAJ>

- [24] Python.org. 2016. yahoo-finance 1.4.0. Website. (11 2016). <https://pypi.python.org/pypi/yahoo-finance>
- [25] Python.org. 2016. Yahoo-finance 1.4.0. Website. (11 2016). <https://pypi.python.org/pypi/yahoo-finance>
- [26] Goldman Sachs Global Investment Research. 2017. Equity Ratings. Website. (01 2017). http://www.goldmansachs.com/research/equity_ratings.html
- [27] Goldman Sachs. 2017. At A Glance. Website. (01 2017). <http://www.goldmansachs.com/who-we-are/at-a-glance/index.html>
- [28] Shobhit Seth. 2013. The World's Top 10 Investment Banks. Website. (2013). <https://www.investopedia.com/articles/investing/111114/worlds-top-10-investment-banks.asp>
- [29] Chicago Tribune. 2008. Internet-fueled panic sinks stock. Website. (09 2008). http://articles.chicagotribune.com/2008-09-09/news/0809090607_1-united-airlines-united-stock-bloomberg
- [30] Wendykan. 2017. DeepLearningMovies. Website. (03 2017). <https://github.com/wendykan/DeepLearningMovies>
- [31] Wiki. 2017. Timeline of machine learning. Website. (09 2017). https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Timeline_of_machine_learning

LIST OF FIGURES

- | | | |
|---|---|----|
| 1 | The Google API Python code calls the Gmail APIs Messages.list which lists reduced properties of Gmail messages and Messages.Get which returns the messages themselves. Lists is used to query the messages that are wanted based on the defined criteria: userId=me, labelIds=INBOX], q=from:googlealerts-noreply@google.com. Get then retrieves the messages identified in using List and returns the messages content for Date and Snippet. | 11 |
| 2 | This Python script takes in the Date, Stock Ticker Symbol, and Snippet from the Google API .csv that was produced using both manual mining of the stock symbols and the python script provided for getting the Date and Snippet from Gmail. This code returns a modified .csv which lists an “L” for stocks that did not increase by 10% in five days and a “W” for stocks that increased by at least 10%. It also prints the stocks that increased by at least 10% along with the highest price over 5 days, the starting price on the day that the Google Alert was received, and the percent change. | 12 |
| 3 | The Sentiment Python code takes the .csv exported by the historical stock script and parses the Snippets to train on the stock script and apply it to more recent stock quotes and Google Alerts | 13 |
| 4 | This Python script takes in the Date and Stock Ticker Symbol from the sentiment .csv that was produced using the sentiment python script provided for performing a random forest analysis on the Google Alert results. This code returns a modified .csv which lists an “L” for stocks that did not increase by 10% from the time the Alert was received to the current date and a “W” for stocks that increased by at least 10%. It also prints the stocks that increased by at least 10% and were marked as “winners” by the sentiment script. | 14 |


```

\begin{verbatim}
...
Tiffany Fabianac Modified code from:
Reading GMAIL using Python
- https://github.com/abhishekchhibber/Gmail-Api-through-Python
- Abhishek Chhibber

This script does the following:
- Go to Gmail inbox
- Find and read all the Google Alert messages
- Extract details (Date, Snippet) and export them to a .csv file / DB

Before running this script, the user should get the authentication by following
the link: https://developers.google.com/gmail/api/quickstart/python
Also, client_secret.json should be saved in the same directory as this file
...

# Importing required libraries
from apiclient import discovery
from apiclient import errors
from httplib2 import Http
from oauth2client import file, client, tools
import base64
from bs4 import BeautifulSoup
import re
import time
import dateutil.parser as parser
from datetime import datetime
import datetime
import csv
import json
import io

# Creating a storage.JSON file with authentication details
SCOPES = 'https://www.googleapis.com/auth/gmail.modify' # we are using modify and not readonly, as we
# will be marking the messages Read
store = file.Storage('storage.json')
creds = store.get()
if not creds or creds.invalid:
    flow = client.flow_from_clientsecrets('client_secret.json', SCOPES)
    creds = tools.run_flow(flow, store)
GMAIL = discovery.build('gmail', 'v1', http=creds.authorize(Http()))

user_id = 'me'
label_id_one = 'INBOX'

# Getting all the unread messages from Inbox
# labelIds can be changed accordingly
alert_msgs = GMAIL.users().messages().list(userId='me', labelIds=[label_id_one], q='from:googlealerts -noreply@google.com').execute()

# We get a dictionary. Now reading values for the key 'messages'
mssg_list = alert_msgs['messages']

final_list = []

for mssg in mssg_list:
    temp_dict = {}
    m_id = mssg['id'] # get id of individual message
    message = GMAIL.users().messages().get(userId=user_id, id=m_id).execute() # fetch the message using
    # API
    payld = message['payload'] # get payload of the message
    headr = payld['headers'] # get header of the payload
    ...
    for two in headr: # getting the date
        if two['name'] == 'Date':
            temp_dict['Date'] = two['value']
        else:
            temp_dict[two['name']] = two['value']
    temp_dict['Snippet'] = message['snippet']
    temp_dict['Subject'] = message['subject']
    temp_dict['From'] = message['from'][0]['email']
    temp_dict['To'] = message['to'][0]['email']
    temp_dict['Cc'] = message['cc']
    temp_dict['Bcc'] = message['bcc']
    temp_dict['Label'] = label_id_one
    final_list.append(temp_dict)

```

```

\begin{verbatim}
...
Collect Historical Stock Data
Tiffany Fabianac Modified code from:
  - http://pandas-datareader.readthedocs.io/en/latest/remote_data.html
...
from pandas_datareader import data
import pandas as pd
import csv
import string
import datetime
from collections import defaultdict
from pandas.tseries.offsets import BDay

def stockData (startDate , endDate , ticker):
# Define which online source one should use
data_source = 'google'

# Use pandas_reader.data.DataReader to load the desired data .
panel_data = data.DataReader(ticker , data_source , startDate , endDate)

close = panel_data.ix['Close']
volume = panel_data.ix['Volume']
op = panel_data.ix['Open']
high = panel_data.ix['High']
low = panel_data.ix['Low']

# Getting all weekdays between 01/01/2017 and 12/31/2017
all_weekdays = pd.date_range(start=startDate , end=endDate , freq='B')

# Align new set of dates
close = close.reindex(all_weekdays)
volume = volume.reindex(all_weekdays)
op = op.reindex(all_weekdays)
high = high.reindex(all_weekdays)
low = low.reindex(all_weekdays)

result = pd.concat([close , volume , op , high , low] , axis=1 , join='inner')
result.columns=['close' , 'volume' , 'open' , 'high' , 'low']
return result

def findHigh (startDate , ticker):
# Get date and five days after
temp_date = datetime.datetime.strptime(startDate , "%Y-%m-%d")
endDate = temp_date + BDay(5)

result = stockData(startDate , endDate , ticker)
tempHigh = result.nlargest(1,'high')
high = tempHigh.iloc[0]['high']
return high

def openPrice (startDate , ticker):
temp_date = datetime.datetime.strptime(startDate , "%Y-%m-%d")
endDate = temp_date + BDay(1)

result = stockData(startDate , endDate , ticker)
open = result.iloc[0]['open']
return open

with open('google_alert_data.csv' , 'rb') as csvfile:
with open('labeledTrainData.csv','wb') as f:
datareader = csv.DictReader(csvfile)
writer = csv.DictWriter(f, fieldnames=datareader.fieldnames , extrasaction='ignore' , delimiter=',' ,
skipinitialspace=True)
writer.writeheader()
for row in datareader:
writer.writerow(row)

```

```

\begin{verbatim}
...
Use KaggleWord to produce random forest analysis
Tiffany Fabianac Modified code from:
- https://youtu.be/AJVP96tAWxw
- Siraj Raval
...

import os
from sklearn.feature_extraction.text import CountVectorizer
from sklearn.ensemble import RandomForestClassifier
from KaggleWord2VecUtility import KaggleWord2VecUtility
import pandas as pd
import nltk

if __name__ == '__main__':
    train = pd.read_csv(os.path.join(os.path.dirname(__file__), 'labeledTrainData.csv'), header=0,
                        delimiter=",", quoting=3)
    test = pd.read_csv(os.path.join(os.path.dirname(__file__), 'testData.csv'), header=0, delimiter=",",
                       quoting=3)

    print 'The first review is:'
    print train['Snippit'][0]
    raw_input("Press Enter to continue...")

    print 'Download text data sets'
    nltk.download()
    clean_train_reviews = []
    print "Cleaning and parsing the training set...\n"
    for i in xrange(0, len(train['Snippit'])):
        clean_train_reviews.append(" ".join(KaggleWord2VecUtility.review_to_wordlist(train['Snippit'][i],
                                                                 True)))

    print "Creating the bag of words...\n"
    vectorizer = CountVectorizer(analyzer="word", tokenizer=None, preprocessor=None, stop_words=None,
                                max_features=5000)
    train_data_features = vectorizer.fit_transform(clean_train_reviews)
    train_data_features = train_data_features.toarray()

    print "Training Random forest..."
    forest = RandomForestClassifier(n_estimators=100)
    forest = forest.fit(train_data_features, train['W/L?'])
    clean_test_reviews = []

    print "Cleaning and parsing \n"
    for i in xrange(0, len(test['Snippit'])):
        clean_test_reviews.append(" ".join(KaggleWord2VecUtility.review_to_wordlist(test['Snippit'][i],
                                                                 True)))
    test_data_features = vectorizer.transform(clean_test_reviews)
    test_data_features = test_data_features.toarray()

    print "Predicting test labels...\n"
    result = forest.predict(test_data_features)
    output = pd.DataFrame(data={"Accuracy": "", "Sentiment": result, "Ticker": test["Ticker"], "Date": test["Date"]})
    output.to_csv(os.path.join(os.path.dirname(__file__), 'randomForestResults.csv'), index=False,
                  quoting=3)
    print "Wrote results to randomForestResults.csv"
\end{verbatim}

```

Figure 3: The Sentiment Python code takes the .csv exported by the historical stock script and parses the Snippets to train on the stock script and apply it to more recent stock quotes and Google Alerts

```

\begin{verbatim}
...
Validate random forest analysis
Tiffany Fabianac Modified code from:
  - http://pandas-datareader.readthedocs.io/en/latest/remote_data.html
...
from pandas_datareader import data
import pandas as pd
import csv
import string
import datetime
from collections import defaultdict
from pandas.tseries.offsets import BDay

def stockData (startDate , endDate , ticker):
# Define which online source one should use
data_source = 'google'

# Use pandas_reader.data.DataReader to load the desired data .
panel_data = data.DataReader(ticker , data_source , startDate , endDate)

close = panel_data .ix [ 'Close ']
volume = panel_data .ix [ 'Volume ']
op = panel_data .ix [ 'Open ']
high = panel_data .ix [ 'High ']
low = panel_data .ix [ 'Low ']

# Getting all weekdays between 01/01/2017 and 12/31/2017
all_weekdays = pd.date_range( start=startDate , end=endDate , freq='B')

# Align new set of dates
close = close.reindex(all_weekdays)
volume = volume.reindex(all_weekdays)
op = op.reindex(all_weekdays)
high = high.reindex(all_weekdays)
low = low.reindex(all_weekdays)

result = pd.concat([close , volume , op , high , low] , axis=1 , join='inner')
result.columns=['close' , 'volume' , 'open' , 'high' , 'low']
return result

def findHigh (startDate , ticker):

# Get date and five days after
endDate = datetime.datetime.today().strftime('%Y-%m-%d')

result = stockData(startDate , endDate , ticker)
if (result .iloc [0][ 'high '] != result .iloc [0][ 'high ']):
return 0
else :
tempHigh = result .nlargest(1 , 'high ')
high = tempHigh .iloc [0][ 'high ']
return high

def openPrice (endDate , ticker):
temp_date = datetime.datetime.strptime(endDate , "%Y-%m-%d")
startDate = temp_date - BDay(1)

result = stockData(startDate , endDate , ticker)
if(result .iloc [0][ 'high '] != result .iloc [0][ 'high ']):
return 1
else :
open = result .iloc [0][ 'open ']
return open

```

bibtex report

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
```

bibtex _ label error

bibtext space label error

bibtext comma label error

latex report

[2017-12-08 04.02.17] pdflatex report.tex

```
50:20      error      trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
71:81      error      line too long (83 > 80 characters)  (line-length)
```

```
=====
Compliance Report
=====
```

```
name: Tiffany Fabianac
hid: 313
paper1: Oct 31 2017 100%
paper2: 100%
project: 100%
```

```
yamlcheck
```

```
wordcount
```

```
14
wc 313 project 14 7503 report.tex
wc 313 project 14 14903 report.pdf
wc 313 project 14 982 report.bib
```

```
find "
```

```
96: {"installed":{"client_id": "###.apps.googleusercontent.com",
97: "project_id": "###",
98: "auth_uri": "https://accounts.google.com/o/oauth2/auth",
99: "token_uri": "https://accounts.google.com/o/oauth2/token",
100: "auth_provider_x509_cert_url": "https://www.googleapis.com/oauth2/
v1/certs",
101: "client_secret": "###",
102: "redirect_uris": ["urn:ietf:wg:oauth:2.0:oob",
103: "http://localhost"]}}
```

```
202: with open("API_out.csv", "a") as f:  
203:     header=["Date", "Snippet"]  
226: $ PATH="$PATH:/c/Python27"  
  
289: temp_date = datetime.datetime.strptime(startDate, "%Y-%m-%d")  
  
298: temp_date = datetime.datetime.strptime(startDate, "%Y-%m-%d")  
  
460: train = pd.read_csv(os.path.join(os.path.dirname(__file__),  
        'labeledTrainData.csv'), header=0, delimiter=",", quoting=3)  
  
461: test = pd.read_csv(os.path.join(os.path.dirname(__file__),  
        'testData.csv'), header=0, delimiter=",", quoting=3)  
  
465: raw_input("Press Enter to continue...")  
  
470: print "Cleaning and parsing the training set...\n"  
  
472: clean_train_reviews.append(" ".join(KaggleWord2VecUtility.review_  
        to_wordlist(train['Snippet'][i], True)))  
  
474: print "Creating the bag of words...\n"  
  
475: vectorizer = CountVectorizer(analyzer="word", tokenizer=None,  
        preprocessor=None, stop_words=None, max_features=5000)  
  
479: print "Training Random forest..."  
  
484: print "Cleaning and parsing \n"  
  
486: clean_test_reviews.append(" ".join(KaggleWord2VecUtility.review_t  
        o_wordlist(test['Snippet'][i], True)))  
  
490: print "Predicting test labels...\n"  
  
492: output = pd.DataFrame(data={"Accuracy": "", "Sentiment":result,  
        "Ticker":test["Ticker"], "Date":test["Date"]})  
  
494: print "Wrote results to randomForestResults.csv"  
  
561: temp_date = datetime.datetime.strptime(endDate, "%Y-%m-%d")  
  
passed: False
```

find footnote

passed: True

find input{format/i523}

4: \input{format/i523}

passed: True

find input{format/final}

passed: False

floats

123: \begin{figure}[htb]

209: \caption{The Google API Python code calls the Gmail APIs
Messages.list which lists reduced properties of Gmail messages
and Messages. Get which returns the messages themselves. Lists is
used to query the messages that are wanted based on the defined
criteria: userId=me, labelIds=INBOX], q=from:googlealerts-
noreply@google.com. Get then retrieves the messages identified in
using List and returns the messages content for Date and
Snippet.}\label{c:googleapi}

212: Figure \ref{c:googleapi} shows the entire code to extract Google
Alerts data using the Google provided Gmail API.

244: \begin{figure}[htb]

332: \caption{This Python script takes in the Date, Stock Ticker
Symbol, and Snippet from the Google API .csv that was produced
using both manual mining of the stock symbols and the python
script provided for getting the Date and Snippet from Gmail. This
code returns a modified .csv which lists an ‘‘L’’ for stocks that
did not increase by 10\% in five days and a ‘‘W’’ for stocks that
increased by at least 10\%. It also prints the stocks that
increased by at least 10\% along with the highest price over 5
days, the starting price on the day that the Google Alert was
received, and the percent change.}\label{c:stock}

335: Figure \ref{c:stock} shows the code to combine the data produced
by the Google Alert mining and available historic stock price
data.

```
441: \begin{figure}[htb]
497: \caption{The Sentiment Python code takes the .csv exported by the
      historical stock script and parses the Snippets to train on the
      stock script and apply it to more recent stock quotes and Google
      Alerts}\label{c:sentiment}
500: Figure \ref{c:sentiment} shows the entire code to train on the
      dataset provided by the historical stock data and Google Alert
      sentiments.
504: \begin{figure}[htb]
593: \caption{This Python script takes in the Date and Stock Ticker
      Symbol from the sentiment .csv that was produced using the
      sentiment python script provided for performing a random forest
      analysis on the Google Alert results. This code returns a
      modified .csv which lists an ‘‘L’’ for stocks that did not
      increase by 10\% from the time the Alert was received to the
      current date and a ‘‘W’’ for stocks that increased by at least
      10\%. It also prints the stocks that increased by at least 10\%
      and were marked as ‘‘winners’’ by the sentiment
      script.}\label{c:result}
596: Figure \ref{c:result} shows the code to combine the data produced
      by the random forest analysis and combine it with available
      historic stock price data.
```

```
figures 4
tables 0
includegraphics 0
labels 4
refs 4
floats 4
```

```
True : ref check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
True : label check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
True : include graphics passed: (figures >= includegraphics)
True : check if all figures are referred to: (refs >= labels)
```

```
Label/ref check
passed: True
```

```
When using figures use columnwidth
[width=1.0\columnwidth]
do not change the number to a smaller fraction
```

```
find textwidth
```

passed: True

below_check

WARNING: algorithm and above may be used improperly

426: Random Forest algorithms create decision trees for each variable. Each tree represents the sequence of events or decisions that led to the outcome or result. With each branch or step through the decision tree a probability is calculated for the outcome and the collection of trees work are combined to create multiple ‘‘regression lines’’ that are used to predict an outcome when presented with new data that does not have an outcome. The model or collection of trees form what is called a random forest can then be used to predict sentiment or outcomes. For stock data or other time series datasets, it is essential to continuously re-train the model to perform at its best. As mentioned above it is possible for additional models and even the model itself to begin to influence the prediction model.

bibtex

label errors

bibtex errors

This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib

bibtex_empty_fields

entries in general should not be empty in bibtex

find ""

passed: True

ascii

non ascii found 8211

The following tests are optional

Tip: newlines can often be replaced just by an empty line

find newline

passed: True

cites should have a space before \cite{} but not before the {

find cite {

passed: True

How Big Data Will Help Improve People's Health Worldwide

Paul Marks

Indiana University

Online Student

Shepherdsville, Kentucky 40165

pcmarks@iu.edu

ABSTRACT

Aside from people changing their habits, big data analytics may hold the best possibility for the improvement of worldwide health. It will enable the ability to correctly diagnose patients more quickly, even when the patients may not be able to be physically seen by a provider. It will be used to create treatment plans specific to not only an illness, but to the patient's overall health condition and history, demographics, environment, and access to resources. While it may not solve the problem of everyone not having access to the best of care, it can help to make sure everyone can get the best care possible for them. This paper explores the ways in which big data is evolving in the field of healthcare to make these possibilities become realities and looks at some of the social concerns which could hold it back.

KEYWORDS

i523, hid327, healthcare, patient treatment, genomics, diagnosis

1 INTRODUCTION

There have been many advances in big data analytics over the last several years. More and more data is able to be processed in a shorter amount of time. There are also many new sources of data. Data is not what big data is about though. It is about taking data and turning it into information that can be useful. The application of big data can vary, but very few may be more important than the ability to use data for the betterment of people's health across the globe. This is one way in which data science can make a substantial contribution to humanity.

Making this a reality is not, nor will be, a simple task. Health data itself requires the proper handling of the information as it is very sensitive. On one hand people have a right to privacy. On the other, if data is kept isolated, not combined with records from other people, then this limits the ability to gather insight and find breakthroughs. The key is to ensure privacy, but keep the integrity and relationships of the data in order to preserve privacy while gaining insight. The insight gained has endless possibilities.

One issue facing the medical profession today is a lack of trained professionals. The number of patients per healthcare worker around the world can vary from more than six per 1,000 people to less than one half per 1,000[43]. It is easy to see how this one fact greatly impacts the expected lifespan of people. But what if a patient could be examined, diagnosed, and have access to a treatment plan without a human doctor needed? It may sound futuristic, but the technology is being implemented today thanks in part to data analytics.

The impact of big data on healthcare doesn't stop there. The cost of treating 5 percent of the most chronic conditions can consume up

to 50 percent of the money spent on healthcare[42]. One reason for this is prevention, diagnosis, and treatment plans are not optimized. There is not one way to help patients avoid chronic conditions. It is based on many inputs depending on the person, their environment, and other factors. These same aspects impact the effectiveness of treatment plans as well. One size does not fit all. Through analytics many factors are being analyzed along with the results of prior plans to determine which methods would be the most effective. Avoiding a chronic condition not only saves money, but extends a patient's life and improves the quality of their life.

The ability to take many factors into account for a patient goes well beyond chronic conditions. Genomic technology is progressing which is allowing for a person's individual genome to be one of the inputs. Each person on earth has their own specific genome with billions of combinations, some of which directly impact their health and susceptibility to illnesses. Through big data analytics, this type of analysis may one day be commonplace like taking blood pressure and other vital statistics into account.

The discovery of new drugs and how they can be used to treat people is being sped up by the power of big data techniques. Drug research requires an immense amount of information to be correlated and processed. Big data is helping to speed this up and even helps speed up clinical trials by matching the right set of circumstances to provide viable results.

Progress does not always come without drawbacks, and big data analytics in healthcare is no exception.

2 HANDLING THE DATA

2.1 Security

Any use of healthcare data must take into account the ability to protect the data. Therefore a brief understanding of the task must be addressed. Healthcare information usually has two forms of protected information: Personally Identifiable Information (PII) and Protected Health Information (PHI). In order to be able to keep data with this type of information you must follow very strict rules on safeguarding it. The best known regulations are based on the Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act (HIPAA) of 1996. Among the governmental standards to comply with HIPAA are the Security Control Assessment[18] and Defense Information Systems Agency's Security Technical Implementation Guides[1]. These types of requirements can be costly and require constant changes to remain secure.

Even with the ability to secure the data properly, any company wishing to obtain data must have an approved reason to get the information or the approval of the patients involved. Obtaining approval from each patient in a big data application is not practical.

Data is needed from too many people to obtain approval for each of them. A common way to handle this is through de-identification.

De-identification is the ability to alter the data in such a way that you cannot link health information to a person or identify individuals in the data. However, in order for the data to be useful for analysis it cannot be changed randomly so the links between certain data elements from record to record is lost. For instance, a diagnosis of a specific cancer in a patient must still be able to be linked to treatment data, x-rays, blood tests, etc. from that patient. In other words, de-identification has to be done in such a way that the data integrity remains in place, but the individual's identity is protected. This can become complicated because data elements such as age, sex, and geographical location are important.

Fortunately there are software solutions to assist in the de-identification of medical information. The software is broken into two categories: structured data and free-form text. De-identification of structured data is generally easier. The data has a known set of fields of which the ones which can identify a person and their health are known. These fields are added to the software and algorithms are run against them. The resultant data is useful for analysis, but the identity of any individual is safe. This is because the algorithm changes data in such a manner that it protects the person and the data integrity. Examples of tools in this arena include PARAT from Privacy Analytics, Inc., mu-Argus from the Netherlands national statistical agency, Cornell Anonymization Toolkit (CAT), an anonymization toolkit from the University of Texas at Dallas, sdcMirco from r-project.org[25]. Commercial tools like Privacy Analytics Eclipse claim to de-identify 10 million records per day from a variety of sources[50].

Unstructured data is more complex. The data which needs to be de-identified can be located anywhere within the dataset. This includes the text or metadata attached to images such as x-rays. Vital clinical, diagnosis, treatment, and other medical information is also included throughout unstructured data. Not being able to identify all PHI and PII can cause privacy concerns. Not linking all the correct data together reduces data integrity which reduces the usefulness of the data being studied.

Being able to properly de-identify and link unstructured data is being studied and refined. There are challenges for solutions to the problem. Informatics for Integrating Biology and the Bedside[24] has held challenges to help further solutions for this problem. The most recent was held in 2014. Track 1 of this challenge noted that "Removing protected health information (PHI) is a critical step in making medical records accessible to more people, yet it is a very difficult and nuanced"[24]. The ability to properly de-identify the data is rooted in the ability for the software to perform natural language processing. The focus of the challenge was all eighteen HIPAA defined PHI types[35]. While not as mainstream as de-identifying structured data, the ability to de-identify unstructured data will continue to progress and be solved through commercially available products over time.

2.2 Data Sharing

There are many sources of healthcare data. This is a major hurdle as the data is in different systems which are governed by different entities and used for purposes[32]. Data is stored in claims systems,

clinical settings, pharmacies, and others. It is stored in different formats. These sources may not contain similar key data that allows it to be easily brought together. Individual patients usually have a single provider who is their primary insurer. This data is usually in standard formats. However the same patients may have many providers of care using different systems. While most providers leverage electronic health records, these systems can contain many free-form text fields, images, and other types of fields. These data sets contain a wealth of information, but they are missing data which could be vital such as social, environmental, and community data. Other sources of data which could be useful are habits which people store on themselves such as food and activity tracking they may enter into any number of online applications[10].

While more data is being collected, there are still barriers to sharing it. There are the security and privacy concerns discussed earlier, but also the costs and who pays for them which must be addressed. There are tools and strategies being worked on in the industry to make sharing data across disparate systems possible. So far a widely adopted solution has not emerged[9]. Until such time that it does, data analytics in healthcare will be hampered.

3 BIG DATA IN A CLINICAL SETTING

Being a doctor can be like being a human big data machine at times. They take in many variables, process it against the history of information they have, and come to some sort of conclusion. In many cases there are multiple diagnosis that can be made. In fact sometimes there a lot of diagnosis that can be made. Unfortunately while much of the work is very scientific it does not mean that coming to a conclusion is a precise science.

Different doctors have different backgrounds. They have seen different patients, seen different diseases, studied at different locations, and read different literature. In short, their diagnosis is based off of their experiences. Unfortunately experiences are a form of bias. It is not that someone is doing this on purpose for the betterment or detriment of someone, but it is how our brains are wired. Physicians are not immune to this and it can affect the ability to treat all patients and conditions equally or appropriately[11]. When set up correctly and fine-tuned over time, data analytics can minimize biases.

3.1 Electronic Health Records

The ability to use big data in a clinical setting is growing out of the movement to storing records electronically. Historically these records were stored in paper format. The amount of data to use for big data analysis continues to rise as adoption of Electronic Health Records (EHRs) increases. Countries such as Norway and the Netherlands adopted EHRs more quickly than others and were at 98% adoption by 2012. The United Kingdom (97% in 2012), New Zealand (97%), and Australia (92%) were early adopters as well.[13] The United States is potentially a large source of EHR information, but has lagged other countries when looking at adoption rates. However, by the end of 2016 over 95% of hospitals and over 60% of United States based doctors have achieved meaningful use certification for EHRs from the Centers for Medicare and Medicaid Services.[40] As all countries continue to move toward storing

health records electronically then the body of information available for analysis will grow.

3.2 Big Data as a Physician Assistant

What if each doctor had the collective knowledge of others? That could make for better and more accurate diagnoses around the globe. A doctor in the United States would have the knowledge of thousands of years of alternative medicine which may only be taught in schools in the far east. Not only is it possible, but big data is making it happen today through technologies such as IBM's Watson.

3.3 IBM's Watson Health

One of the challenges facing doctors today is the ability to keep up with changes in healthcare. Even doctors who specialize in a field cannot keep up with the amount of information that is being published. One estimate is that 8,000 medical journal articles are published each day[59]. This makes medicine a good fit for big data. Watson Health, IBM's name for their cognitive supercomputer focused on healthcare, is able to ingest millions of pages of information in seconds. This information becomes part of the core information Watson has at its disposal as it assists clinicians by offering recommendations for them to consider. In this way Watson is not the final decision maker, but helps doctors be better at what they do[29].

While Watson is delegated to a physician's assistant currently, it may not always be so. In order to test how accurate it is, IBM tried it on 1,000 patients. In this test Watson and the attending physician agreed 99 percent of the time. In fact, in 30 percent of the cases Watson offered pathways which the physician had not considered. Armed with information like this IBM believes that computer cognitive thinking will be mainstream in the next ten years[59]. Because of advances in other technology areas have been progressing so quickly, it is hard to disagree with them. For instance, computers are now able to instantaneously make decisions that seemed unimaginable just a few years ago which as lead to the realization of autonomous driving vehicles. The question may not be the technology, but if people will accept a diagnosis from a computer program such as Watson.

Watson was also tested to see how examining a patient's entire genome would be more beneficial than simply running a panel which focuses on a limited number of areas most commonly known to be related to the cancer a patient may be experiencing. While the cost of and speed of sequencing a person's genome has been reduced, there is still a lot of work to using this data for a specific diagnosis and treatment plan. Both Watson and team from the New York Genome Center analyzed a patient's genome. Each of them was able to identify gene mutations which would have pointed to a clinical trial or drug which may have been a better match than the treatment the patient received. The difference being that it took the team of physicians approximately 160 hours to come to their conclusion. Watson provided its results in 10 minutes[58]. While not perfect, Watson adds another tool doctors can leverage which would allow them to better diagnose and treat patients.

How does Watson do it? It is actually very similar to how a human doctor works. The patient's symptoms and other information is made available to Watson. From there it deduces the relevant elements and leverages any background information it may have such as patient and family history, labs, x-rays, and other test results. It then accesses other sources of information it has accumulated over time: treatment guidelines, relevant articles and studies, and potentially information from other patients similar to this patient. Watson develops hypotheses and runs them through a process to test its hypotheses and provide a confidence score for each. Watson then provides its recommended treatment options with its confidence rating to the physician[19].

One advantage of Watson, or any such system, is that every time it is used that patient is getting all of its collective knowledge. Today when a patient see a physician they are diagnosed by that physician and maybe one or two other people generally from the same office. However as Watson gets *trained* by specialists in such fields as Oncology, every doctor who uses Watson's assistance becomes as or more knowledgeable than the collective group. This means that each doctor is providing top of the field care even if they are being seen nowhere near a facility that is considered as the best world[36]. A patient in a country not seen as having world-class healthcare can get diagnosed as if they were at the Sloan-Kettering Cancer Center. It also means that a patient who may be seeing a specialist in one area may be diagnosed with an ailment outside of their field. This can save time in receiving the appropriate diagnosis and subsequent treatment which gives patients the best chance for recovery.

There are obstacles to making Watson available worldwide and that is the ability to understand different languages. Watson knows English, Brazilian Portuguese, Japanese, and Spanish and is learning others. As an example, IBM, the Cleveland Clinic, and Mubadala are teaming up and are building a hospital in the Middle East. The Cleveland Clinic is already a user of Watson Health and is expected to leverage that in the new facility as many chronic conditions in the United States are present in the Middle East as well. To prepare for this, IBM is teaching Watson Arabic[62]. As Watson learns more languages it will be able to be leveraged in areas around the world which that language is spoken allowing for those populations to advance their healthcare knowledge.

Another advantage that Watson has over human physicians is that it never forgets. Even doctors who try to keep up with changes in healthcare, they will never be able to remember information as precisely as Watson. And Watson is also consistent. A single doctor may be mostly consistent, but different doctors will provide different diagnoses given the same input. Watson will not unless it is programmed differently or new knowledge is ingested which can create a more accurate diagnosis. It also does not have bad days, get tired, and is available 24x7x365. Watson's incremental costs, the cost of using it for one or one million patients, is low. IBM has spent billions on it and is continuing to invest, but those costs will be spread out as usage goes up thus making Watson cheaper over time[19].

3.4 Implementing Big Data Diagnostic Systems

Leveraging such technologies can be implemented in various ways. The easiest way is to look at them as another tool in a physicians' tool chest. Once fully implemented the inclusion of big data assisted technologies will be seamless. Clinical information is being collected digitally on an increasing basis. As vital signs, x-rays, diagnostic images, lab results, and even discussions with the patients are collected digitally they will become part of the patient's electronic health record and the overall collective knowledge base. Watson or other software could provide insight to the physician. It may be present a collection of diagnoses scored in likelihood based on the evidence collected so far[28]. It could provide recommendations for next steps or information which could lead to a more complete recommendation.

The idea behind such a system, Watson or any similar tool, is to make physicians better through more accurate diagnosis. It allows for the use of big data without removing the human aspect of medicine. This will help to begin to include the big data and computer health diagnosis to patients who would otherwise not be open to it. For many people their relationship with their doctor is personal. They discuss items with their doctor they do not discuss with anyone else. They may not trust a computer with their health[28]. A non-caring, non-breathing inanimate object cannot be trusted with something so human. In this implementation a doctor would still be there providing the personal interaction with the patient and thus providing them with the best care including the collective knowledge of the system.

3.5 Replacing Doctors for Routine Visits

Having a doctor meet with a patient initially may not always be required. The ability for big data to leverage healthcare data could lead to helping alleviate the shortage of doctors and nurses in the United States and around the world. Worldwide there is an estimated shortage of skilled health professionals of 17.4 million of which 2.6 million are doctors. The problem does not get much better over time as the estimate for 2030 is over 14 million[45]. It takes a lot of time and money for a student to achieve the level of knowledge to fill these positions. Unless the students are already in the pipeline then there is not a good response to the problem. People cannot switch careers and be a doctor or a nurse in twelve months or some short time-frame.

Adding new big data doctors is simple. It is mostly a hardware problem. Buy the right equipment, install the right software, train the staff, and Dr. Data can see patients. Leveraging automated machines to take vital signs will free up time for staff[14] similar to how checking out via automated tellers at the grocery store has reduced the number of cashiers and baggers needed. A physical office offering virtual doctor's visits could be staffed with people trained on the technology more than medical professionals. They would be there to help make sure that people are using the machines correctly and to wipe down equipment after a patient has used it. A nurse would be there in case certain patients are unable to use the equipment and their information must be taken manually. They could also be there to take blood samples which would be processed by automated machines and included in the patient's profile.

Automated diagnosis systems are in use today in a limited basis. In the United Kingdom the National Health Service has approved the use of Your.MD (an AI powered mobile app) for diagnosis. When people are comfortable using a technology like this it limits the number of more basic cases a doctor has to see and allows them to concentrate on more difficult tasks. Another tool, Ada, learns a user's history, provides an assessment, and adds an option to contact an actual doctor if needed. Babylon Health takes it one step further by adding follow-ups with users to see how they are doing and can even set up a video consultation with a live general practitioner if needed[14].

4 LIMITING EPIDEMICS

Incorporating big data analytics into the healthcare environment has the ability to limit the spread of disease by taking current circumstances outside of the immediate patient into account. In a linked system data from other local, regional, national, and global patients can be leveraged. Are there other patients presenting similar circumstances? Did the other patients provide more details or mention something slightly different? Taking this into account may help to diagnose a specific person and to identify an outbreak of something. Is a disease spreading? Did patients come from a similar location such as a building? By being able to correlate this information immediately there is the potential to stop an outbreak from spreading thus saving an untold number of patients from pain and suffering and saving healthcare dollars by not having to treat more patients. Epidemics have an economic impact at many levels including "the micro (individual and household), meso (establishment, village or city) and macro (national and international)"[46].

5 INSURANCE

The option of having fully automated doctors' visits could alter the insurance market as well. Health insurance is about numbers. Actuaries spend time estimating the health of the consumers they cover and many other factors to determine what premium rates to set[38]. Insurers make a profit by taking in more money than the costs to administrate the plans and the cost of paying for claims combined. To reduce the costs of claims they set predetermined prices for services rendered by hospitals, physicians, and sometimes pharmacy companies. The lower they can drive the cost of the claims they cover the less they charge or the more money they make. Charging less can result in making more money as well as more people may choose to purchase coverage from that insurer.

By creating an option for autonomous doctor's visits or tele-medicine an insurance company could save money. The more methods can be deployed which can reduce overall healthcare costs, the less people will pay. There are multiple ways in which this can be included to reduce health insurance premiums, a high cost item for most people in the United States and other countries. Insurers can work with healthcare providers who leverage this technology to create a reimbursement policy that is less for services such as tele-medicine[33]. They could also offer plans to potential customers which require basic treatments to take place with autonomous or tele-medicine options before they go to a doctor's office. This would offer an economic advantage to people which in turn can not only lower costs, but help to increase the adoption of new technologies.

Such a system is not for everyone or every condition. The idea is not to replace all doctor's visits, but to allow those who are comfortable to take advantage of lower cost coverage. It will encourage younger people to keep insurance if it is made more affordable. Currently the highest rate of not having insurance in the United States is when someone can no longer be covered as part of their parents plan, starting around the age of 25[4].

6 PORTABILITY

More importantly than lowering the cost of healthcare or making seeing a doctor more convenient is the ability to make exceptional healthcare available almost anywhere. Big data using an automated doctor can have an impact on under-served areas the like of which no one has ever seen. Today there are people who do not have access to healthcare of any kind. When they get sick they may not have a place to turn. In developed countries the number of patients per doctor is generally in the low hundreds. In poor, *third world countries* the number of patients per doctor is in the thousands or tens of thousands[26]. There are people who try to help, such as Doctors Without Borders, by making visits to these areas to provide some support but it does not reach a level anywhere near what people in some countries have available to them. If each doctor could multiply their impact with technology then the under-served would be helped more. As technology advances so people could be seen by experts without one being physically present then even more people could be seen.

7 PATIENT DATA COLLECTION

7.1 Actual Data vs. Circumstantial Insight

The more valid data which can be collected on patients the better big data will be able to help improve treatment for people around the world. The more accurate the data, the more accurate the analysis and results will be. Fortunately technology is helping in this area as well. Many people around the world have access to devices which monitor different aspects of our daily lives. Hundreds of millions of people around the world have purchased wearable devices, many of which can be used to monitor activity and inactivity[57]. By the end of next year it is expected that over one-third of people in the world will own a smart phone which can also track this type of activity[56]. While they are not seen as a medical device, they can help to track activity which is useful for diagnosis and treatment. They are another input into the data about a patient which can be used to more accurately gather information. Today doctors rely on a patient to answer questions about their level of activity. With such a devices they can get a more accurate picture.

These devices are useful for more than just activity levels. They also provide insight into areas of people's lives they are not really able to answer accurately such as how they sleep. Many people may sleep they sleep well or not so well, but in fact they are basing this more on how they feel than how much rest and how good of rest they get. Activity trackers are able to track sleep patterns as well. They actively monitor your inactivity. When used correctly a wearer pushes a button to indicate they are going to sleep and when they get up in the morning. The monitor is then able to track how long it takes for someone to get into a motionless/restful state. It continues to track them throughout the night recording if they

move around, get up, etc. Getting good sleep is a key element of maintaining overall health[54].

More advanced features of activity trackers include the ability to monitor vital signs like heart rates. They can be extremely important to a diagnosis providing input similar to a mini stress test. This is especially true if a person exercises, such as during jogging. The device can monitor how far a person is moving and their associated heart-rate. By gathering this information, the data can be fed into patient's profile when they visit a doctor (virtually or physically) instead of having to wait for a patient to get a test done and receive that feedback. Shortening the time to collect data and accurately analyze the patient can be the difference between life and death.

One aspect of activity trackers which must be noted is their accuracy and consistency. This is something big data can help with as well. Steps from person to person are not of consistent stride, tracker accuracy changes from device to device, heart rate monitors vary, and sleep are not be tracked similarly across all products and types of activities[55]. Big data can help normalize this input so that it can become a reliable input. Analysis has been done on different monitors to see how accurate they are. In order to bring them into health analysis more tests can be performed to get an accurate picture of how the devices correlate to the actual distances walked and level of sleep.

Activity trackers are only the beginning. *Wearable technology* is an expanding field which is enhancing the collection of passive data. Sensors are being built into clothing which track more accurately and include more types of data[20]. This includes information like breathing rate and muscle activity. They not only collect more types of data, but can wirelessly transmit the data via Bluetooth[31]. This means they can create a more accurate picture based on electronic data which can be used as an input. The more this type of technology becomes commonplace, the more data which can be fed into a patient's health record and the collection of health information.

7.2 Follow-Up Visits

All of these devices also have the ability to not only be used in diagnosis, but in the monitoring of treatment plans. Is the patient exercising as they say they are? Is a medicine or other corrective action helping them to lower their heart rate or get more restful sleep? It can also help to notify the patient or doctor when they are exceeding a prescribed level of respiration or heart rate. This can trigger an alert for a patient if they are at risk or even that they may need to seek treatment. These levels will not only be set based on standards, but patient specific information[3]. They can also take into account the environment the person is in. Are they in a hot location or one with high allergy levels which could negatively impact them? This is what separates the treatment plans of today with those of tomorrow. Use the technology to more accurately collect data on the patient, use it to create a diagnosis, monitor the patient using the technology, feed that data back into the patient's health record, and adjust as needed based on factual information.

Beyond the use of commercially available monitoring systems, there are devices which collect data similar to the information collected by a physician. Simple systems such as a blood pressure monitors are common. Many other pieces of equipment can be prescribed by a physician for home monitoring. These systems

not only collect information, but are able to digitally transmit the data so that it can be automatically analyzed with other sources of information. A patient will get feedback without having to visit a doctor[3]. This helps to close another gap in healthcare which affect many people: not following up with their doctor. Missing these visits can negatively impact the patient. By easing the ability to be monitored, automating the data collection, and instantly analyzing that data will lead to better overall prognosis.

Big data will also help to change people's habits. By using the data collected a picture of potential outcomes can be made for a patient to contemplate. Instead of generalities, patients will receive advice based on their medical history, other patients like them, treatment plans, and other inputs based on the variables specific to the patient's circumstances. It can show a patient how they impact their recovery based on what they are doing or not doing. For instance if they miss taking their medicines on time, do not lose weight, continue to smoke, or whatever other variables they are in control of and how it affects their specific recovery or health status. Showing them in advance may give them the motivation they need to follow the plan more closely. Throughout their treatment the model can be updated based on the patient's actual adherence to the plan. This provides another feedback loop for the patient to course correct their habits if they have not been following it as outlined[3].

Not only will big data help to diagnosis patients more accurately, but it will also allow for the customization of treatment plans at levels not available today. Instead of relying on more general treatment plans, patients will have their plans customized by their specific set of circumstances. Demographic information about the patient will be used to compare to historical plans and outcomes of patients most closely related to their characteristics. This includes not only the patients themselves, but the environments they live in. Pollution, weather, access to ongoing care, income (the patient may have to work whereas a long period of rest would be better) and other circumstances will be variables which may not be controllable by the patient, but can be used to help treat them. The plan will not necessarily be the best treatment course, not everyone has the access to the best care or the ability to abide by it, but will instead be the best plan for them and their circumstances. Each patient will be able to maximize their chances of recovering or otherwise leading the most normal life possible.

8 ACCESS TO HEALTHCARE

It is estimated that over 400 million people do not have access to basic healthcare around the world and others are forced into extreme poverty because of what they pay for healthcare[47]. Through tools referred to as telemedicine, these numbers can be lowered. Telemedicine itself is the ability for people to get evaluated, diagnosed, and treated while the physician is not located where they are. When combined with a mobile diagnostic unit a patient can get similar care to someone who is seen at a clinic[52]. As advances in automated solutions such as IBM Watson evolve, there could be a day when these remote services are performed in very remote areas where communication with a physician would be technically challenging.

9 COST SAVINGS

Another reason why big data will be helping with healthcare more and more in the future is the most basic of reasons: Economics. Regardless of the country or political system, there is always an economic element which must be addressed. No country, no system has an endless supply of any services or funds. Because of that ideas which make the most economic sense have a better chance to be adopted. The economics of automating healthcare with big data analytics will reach a tipping point as time progresses.

Simply put, healthcare is getting more and more expensive every year and computing resources become cheaper every year. Worldwide the per capita expense of healthcare has risen from \$661 to \$1,059 (numbers in United States Dollars or USD) in the last 10 years[21]. That is a 60.21% increase in one decade. The average per capita may seem low to some but that is due to it being worldwide number. Many countries spend almost nothing on healthcare per capita while others spend thousands. For instance, in 2004 Vietnam spent \$30 USD per capita and \$142 USD in 2014. This is a 373% increase, but in total dollars it is still a fraction of \$6,369 (2004) and \$9,403 spent in the United States[21].

In contrast to this the cost of computing power has decreased year over year. Computer power is not as straightforward to analyze, but cost trends are easily seen. One way is to compare the cost using a baseline year and showing other years as a percentage of the cost of the baseline. Using December of 1997 as a baseline (100) of cost for computers, the cost of computers and peripherals in January 2004 had dropped to 16.2. In other words, to get the same amount of computer power in 2004 you only had to spend 16.2 cents for every dollar spent in December of 1997. By January of 2014 it had dropped to 4.9. Comparing the 2004 and 2014 numbers, the same ones used above for healthcare spending, the cost of computing had been reduced by 69.75%[41].

A specific component when it comes to big data is the cost of storage. The decline in the cost of storage over time is staggering. In the early 1980's the cost of one gigabyte (GB) of storage was in the hundreds of thousands of dollars. Using early 2004 as our baseline the cost for one GB of storage had dropped to just under \$2.00. By 2014 the cost had declined further to between three and four cents per GB[30]. The speed at which the data can now be retrieved as compared to 2004 is like comparing the speed of light to the speed of sound. Today's storage units are that much faster.

Using this data one can see that as we are able to leverage big data solutions to provide better healthcare we can also begin to slow the incline of healthcare costs and then lower the cost of healthcare over time. Adding a new virtual doctor will not take years of schooling which can cost hundreds of thousands of dollars in some countries. It will be the cost of some piece of common technology and a licensing fee for the software. As with most everything technology based, increasing the volume decreases the cost. So as more and more virtual doctors are brought online the cost of each will decrease.

10 CHRONIC CONDITIONS

Chronic conditions are ones that "are preventable, and frequently manageable through early detection, improved diet, exercise, and treatment therapy"[61]. They are also very expensive to manage

and treat. Worldwide in 2010 the total cost of heart disease alone was \$863 billion dollars (USD) and is expected to be \$1.44 trillion by 2030. Between 2011 and 2031 the cost of the top five chronic diseases (cancer, diabetes, mental illness, heart disease, and respiratory disease) will cost \$47 trillion (USD) globally[27].

It is not only the economic impact of chronic diseases that make them a target for big data analysis. Chronic diseases reduce people's quality of life. This cannot be factored into simple terms such as money. Chronic diseases are the cause of 60 percent of deaths worldwide[44]. In a 2002 study it was estimated that 84 percent of deaths were due to chronic diseases in Europe and Central Asia[12]. Chronic disease is so prevalent and impactful to people's lives that it has been labeled as "the most expensive, fastest growing, and most intricate problem facing healthcare providers in every nation on earth[7]." With data like this it is easy to see why advances in chronic diseases is important. The question becomes how do fight them.

10.1 Prevention

The best way to fight chronic disease is to never have one in the first place. The best way to reduce the number of people who get a chronic condition is early intervention. Big data analytics can be used to help with population health management when it comes to chronic diseases. That is by identifying those who are at a high risk of getting one of these costly, harmful conditions[7]. The ability to leverage big data in prevention is a two part process. First risk factors which are modifiable must be identified and then interventions need to be created which will have an impact on changing the factors[5].

Modifiable is the key word in the first aspect of using big data. A key to fighting many chronic conditions is for people to stop behaviors such as smoking, to eat healthier, and to exercise more. However, if it was as easy as letting people know this then there would be a lot less chronic disease already. Big data can take many factors into account and help to create a more precise message for a people with specific risk elements. For instance instead of telling a patient to eat more nutritious foods, by leveraging elements of their specific health factors a doctor can recommend more precise information such as asking them to include a particular dietary nutrient[5]. Big data can also help with the timing of the message. In a survey patients wanted more information from analytics that would have warned them before they developed a chronic condition[8]. When someone is presented with more personalized information (they are on a path and about to reach a point of no return) vs. general (a healthy lifestyle may prevent you having issues years down the road) they are more compelled to heed that information and act upon it.

Newer technologies outside of a clinical setting are helping to add to the data available to analyze and care for patients. Combining data from a patient's activity monitor, fitness tracking website, or food logs into their plan helps to create a feedback cycle for the healthcare provider. Many applications track food by scanning the USB code from the package. Making it simple helps to get people to do things. The easier it is, the more likely they are to do it. Taking this data and combining it with clinical data such as blood labs and vital statistics can show a patient how they are directly

impacting their health in a positive or negative manner. It changes the conversation from more of a public service announcement general message to one unique to them.

A special sub-section of patients are very high-cost patients. In the United States there are roughly five percent of patients who account for almost 50 percent of healthcare spending[6]. Identifying these patients and creating intervention plans that work can have an enormous impact on their lives and the cost of healthcare overall. Patients with seemingly similar risk factors may have very different prognoses. Obvious factors such as age, weight, sex, and vital statistics may be the same. In order for big data to help identify the five percent more data is needed. Including mental health data, genetic information, socioeconomic, marital status, living conditions, and even cultural factors into the analysis will allow for better predictions and better ways to intervene which will lead to better outcomes[6].

10.2 Management

Even with the best of preventive measures there will still be too many people with chronic conditions for years and decades to come. Approximately 25 percent of people with chronic conditions have restrictions in what tasks they can perform for themselves, at work, or at school[23]. Because of this big data must also be leveraged to help manage those with chronic conditions. Managing it is not only based on cost, but helping them to live a better quality of life with less trips to the doctors and less admissions to a hospital. Data analytics can help to customize treatment plans to the circumstances of each patient. It can see patterns in patient's data and help to determine better follow up schedules. This could mean the difference between a visit with their doctor or a costly hospitalization[2].

Part of the solution for using big data to help tackle chronic conditions is leveraging new sources of information from technologies such as wearables. As mentioned earlier they allow for real-time data to be collected, combined with other sources of information including that of other patients, and provide better treatment plans for patients. Historically the medical profession had to rely on subjective input from patients when they came in for a visit. How often were they active, did they log information like their heart rate and blood pressure when they should have. With some wearables all this information and more is gathered in real-time and can trigger an alert to a care management professional[23]. This means that changes can be made when they are needed and the patient can get immediate attention, not days or weeks later.

Another issue with chronic care for providers is that patients may have multiple conditions. They may be overweight, have diabetes, and hypertension. This leads a patient to having multiple doctors each working on a specific condition, but no real coordination across the diseases. A treatment for one condition may have a negative impact on the patient because of treatment or drugs prescribed for another condition. And this situation is not unique as there are many patients suffering from the same conditions simultaneously. Big data analytics can bridge this gap. By combining data from multiple sources, patients, and treatments physicians can create a customized treatment plan for a patient to combat all three illnesses in the best manner without adverse interactions[60].

The result of this is that big data can help people see that treatments are tailored to them and are making a difference. Data analytics allows for patient-centric care, not disease-centric care. Patient managers would work with patients providing details on their plan, their results, and will be able to show patients how the care plan affects their quality of life. It can help to create a healthcare environment “where patients are not only engaged in time but see improved health results at affordable costs”[53].

11 GENOMICS (PERSONALIZED HEALTHCARE)

The field of Genomics is investigating how healthcare can be more personal. How diagnosis and treatment plans will be based on a specific person instead of how the factors or ailment is normally seen and treated in the general population. This is essential work because in the United States up to 47 percent of the cost of healthcare is spent on interventions that do not provide any value. While the actual percentage may vary in other countries, this is a worldwide problem[29]. Any easy way to understand the difference is over the counter medicine. Generally speaking the instructions on a bottle are broken down into children and adults. Following the directions adults will take the same amount of medicine regardless of their age, weight, or overall health.

Genomics aims to make medicine very specific to an individual by breaking down each person’s genome. This is only possible through big data as a single person’s genome produces a lot of data because it has up to 25,000 genes with three million base pairs. One human genome can produce up to 100 gigabytes of data[17]. And the information from one individual is not what is required for personalized health. It requires genomes from many individuals. The more data available, the better the analysis can be on similarities between people and how they may react to certain treatments. This multiplies 100 gigabytes by thousands, then millions, then hundreds of millions.

Through advances in technology such analysis is possible. In 2003 the first human genome was sequenced. It was only after 13 years and approximately \$3 billion dollars. By 2015 the same work can be done in a few hours at a cost of just over \$1,000[37]. This means that more and more people can have their genomes sequenced and used for analysis and personalized diagnosis and treatment of diseases. As more and more genomes are collected and analyzed treatment can be based on their personal genome and their family traits through family based analysis. This analysis lets doctors see how people may have inherited a propensity to be susceptible to certain diseases based on mutations in their genomes. In addition, through population based analysis environmental and cultural factors can be included. It is estimated that by 2025 over 100 million genomes could be sequenced[22]. Analyzing the details of the building blocks of so many individuals will be an a big data challenge which can have an enormous impact on healthcare.

12 DRUG DISCOVERY

Discovering new drugs which can help us live a better life is something like finding a needle in a haystack. Large libraries of molecules have to be examined “against millions of data points spanning chemical, biological, and clinical databases”[15]. This is done looking for

relationships between diseases and drugs to see if a particular drug could be used to treat the disease. While the process is not new, this work is the basis of many new drug discoveries, the ability of current big data techniques speeds up the process allowing for drugs to be discovered more quickly[15].

One of the reasons for it being so complicated goes back to the discussion of the human genome: each person is a unique individual. If you have seen a commercial or advertisement for a prescription drug there is always a list, sometimes a very long list, of possible side effects. These are adverse impacts which can range from minor annoyances to death. Part of the challenge of drug discovery is attempting to identify and quantify the impact a drug may have on people. To speed this process healthcare big data has developed solutions such as array-based technologies which are purpose built to combinatorial problems. This lets researchers find patterns in the data more quickly, speeding up the overall process[16].

Once a drug is thought to have a potential positive use it must go through a testing phase before it is approved for use. This can be long process which has successes and failures. Big data is being used for “the improvement of clinical trial designs (e.g., endpoints, inclusion/exclusion criteria, etc.)”[34]. This not only allows for potentially a quicker time to market, and thus the ability help people sooner, but a cost savings without paying for trials which do not produce viable results.

13 INCENTIVES FOR ADOPTION

In the end many of the advances will only be possible if people accept them. So how can this number be influenced? The most logical way to do so is to make the adoption of these advances financially beneficial. People are more willing to take a chance when they can see a hard benefit. Insurance premiums can help to drive this and provide an immediate benefit. Plans could be offered in which a person’s primary care is provided by a big data doctor. People would have to consent to having their information stored electronically and compared against the data sets. Visits to physical doctors including for second opinions would be limited. They could even have different reimbursement models similar to preventive tests. Most insurance today covers preventive services at 100 percent and are not subject to a deductible. Electronic visits could be treated similarly. They could be covered at 100 percent, or some number higher than regular doctors visits, and may or may not be subject to a deductible. Leveraging these types of incentives will help to promote the use of advanced analytics in the healthcare field. As usage grows so will the basis of data available to analyze and the ability to create better analysis models.

Another incentive for leveraging big data analytics by physicians is being led by the governments and private insurance. Instead of paying for services as they are performed, alternate payment models are being explored. For instance, in the United States the Centers for Medicaid and Medicare services is creating Alternate Payment Models to stimulate high-quality, cost-efficient care[39]. Physicians are able to earn more income and profit by achieving better outcomes. They will be willing to invest in computer analysis which will help them to diagnose and treat patients better. The financial incentive will drive change in providers’ habits which will benefit the healthcare big data analytics and patients.

14 DRAWBACKS

Leveraging big data innovations does not come without hurdles. One of the first is that people are generally slow or not open to change. The more personal the need for change, the less open they are. Organizations (hospitals, physician groups) are no different. Part of being an individual is making choices based of what information you can gather and leveraging your ability to make a determination. This is part of what makes each person unique. It is also how we learn. The more we become dependent on machines, the less we store in our own brains and we stop “building the networks in our brains to solve a whole host of problems.[51]” As those in the healthcare field rely more on technology to diagnosis and treat patients, the less human innovation may leveraged which can have a detrimental effect over time.

A major complication in big data analytics in any setting is the quality of data. The term emphasis garbage in, garbage out has probably been applied to computer systems since the beginning. There are techniques used to combat this, but when it comes to people’s health it is a bit more important. A portion of the healthcare data used as a base for analysis comes from existing diagnosis and treatment performed by humans. In looking at second opinions for patients, it was estimated that “10% to 62% of second opinions yield a major change in the diagnosis, treatment, or prognosis”[49]. Extrapolating this number to the base of information in big data for analysis means that a significant portion of the data would be different if a patient simply went to a different doctor.

Aside from the data itself, there is the potential for the algorithms behind big data analysis to be biased or having discrimination built into them. There has been a lot of talk about a lack of diversity in the technology world, especially with companies in Silicon Valley. This lack of diversity could become manifested into the analytics behind healthcare analytics. Different cultures and different races have some unique healthcare challenges. With a lack of diversification in key jobs the developers of healthcare systems could under-serve large portions of the world’s population due to a lack of understanding of how certain diseases affect their everyday lives. The United States Federal Trade Commission has asked companies in general to look at how representative their big data is and whether their models have built in biases[48]. The fact that healthcare around the world varies based economic factors makes it easy to understand how the data itself can be discriminatory. More wealthy people will be proportionally more represented than the poor thus skewing the data toward conditions afflicting the wealthy.

While big data will help to diagnose patients and create treatment plans, it does not come without its drawbacks. One of the biggest may be innovation. Part of being human is the ability to think of what has not already been done before. As algorithms and data analysis based on the historical variables begin to become more commonplace, there will be a reduction in the human factor of the medical profession. When faced with what can seem like a dire situation, the human mind can think of new options not previously discovered. Trying something which may not seem to have an impact on the surface, but something completely unrelated to any prior decision made can lead to new alternatives. What will a computer do with a patient when it does not see any hope? A human physician may opt to take a risk. It is a well-informed risk

with the patient knowing that there are no guarantees. It is easy to assume when an automated course of action without a substantial chance of a positive outcome is encountered that a physician would be able to intervene. This is true for a while, but as more and more of medicine is turned over to computer diagnosis and treatments the pool of capable physicians will shrink. With less people involved the less chance there is that the truly gifted individuals who make strides in the field will even decide to enter the field in the first place. In other words, these individuals may decide on a different career path and their discoveries would be left undiscovered.

15 CONCLUSIONS

Big data is an expanding science in many fields. The ability to digitize, collect, store, and analyze data has never been more than it is today. The type of information that can be used in data analysis is expanding every day as well. Images, videos, and sound are all part of the inputs into big data. Computers are now able to leverage natural language processing to make inputs that much easier to collect. As this field continues to grow, the ability to leverage it in improving healthcare around the world will grow as well.

We are on the edge of a shift in healthcare for the betterment of humankind. Advances will not be limited to one nation or one class of people. While healthcare may not be universal in its application, not every person will be able to access the same level of care, there will be benefits which can eventually help all people. A mobile unit which can be taken to almost any part of the planet will be able to have the knowledge better than most doctors practicing today. Doctors will have access to new drugs, diagnostic information, and treatment plans than they ever had before. They will be able to leverage new advances in medicine without having to read as many publications as they can. They will have a tool that reads and learns for them and provides that insight on case by case basis.

Through the use of data analysis of sources of data which did not exist a decade or so ago, we will be able to identify when a disease is starting to spread and react, thus limiting its impact. Because of technology people will be spared from suffering and they will never even know it. By understanding the human genome people who may be more susceptible certain diseases can be treated before they take hold. Babies will have their genome sequenced while they are still in their mother’s womb. This one aspect of the power of big data, the ability to process and understand a human genome, may be the single largest breakthrough in healthcare. It can provide insight into how each person individually reacts to the world around them and what science can do to make that interaction better. What science can do to help each person avoid potential chronic conditions which are not only financially costly, but that severely reduce their quality of life or end their life. Through advances in big data we will not only live longer, but live better.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The author would like to thank Dr. Gregor von Laszewski for his support throughout this process. By offering an environment in which students were able to explore areas in big data which interested them, we were all able to further our knowledge individually and collectively. This project is similar to big data itself. It brought together various thoughts which could be considered data points

into the collection of the class. With access open to all, and potentially future classes, the collection of projects becomes a big data collection unto itself.

REFERENCES

- [1] Defense Information Systems Agency. [n. d.]. Security Technical Implementation Guides (STIGs). Online. ([n. d.]). <https://iase.disa.mil/stigs/Pages/index.aspx>
- [2] Rick Altinger. 2017. Five Big Data Solutions to Manage Chronic Diseases. Online. (08 2017). <https://medcitynews.com/2017/08/five-big-data-solutions-manage-chronic-diseases/?rf=1>
- [3] Geoff Appelboom, Elvis Camacho, et al. 2014. Smart Wearable Body Sensors for Patient Self-Assessment and Monitoring. Online. (2014). <https://archpublichealth.biomedcentral.com/track/pdf/10.1186/2049-3258-72-28?site=http://archpublichealth.biomedcentral.com>
- [4] Jessica Barnett and Edward Berchick. 2017. Health Insurance Coverage in the United States: 2016. Online. (09 2017). <https://www.census.gov/content/dam/Census/library/publications/2017/demo/p60-260.pdf>
- [5] Meredith Barrett, Olivier Humblet, et al. 2013. Big Data and Disease Prevention: From Quantified Self to Quantified Communities. *Big Data* 1, 3 (09 2013), 168–175. <https://doi.org/10.1089/big.2013.0027>
- [6] David Bates, Suchi Saria, et al. 2014. Big Data in Health Care: Using Analytics to Identify and Manage High-Risk and High-Cost Patients. *Health Affairs* 33, 7 (2014), 1123–1131. <https://doi.org/10.1377/hlthaff.2014.0041>
- [7] Jennifer Bresnick. 2015. How Healthcare Big Data Analytics Is Tackling Chronic Disease. Online. (06 2015). <https://healthitanalytics.com/news/how-healthcare-big-data-analytics-is-tackling-chronic-disease>
- [8] Jennifer Bresnick. 2016. How Big Data, EHRs, IoT Combine for Chronic Disease Management. Online. (02 2016). <https://healthitanalytics.com/news/how-big-data-ehrs-iot-combine-for-chronic-disease-management>
- [9] Jennifer Bresnick. 2017. Top 10 Challenges of Big Data Analytics in Healthcare. Online. (06 2017). <https://healthitanalytics.com/news/top-10-challenges-of-big-data-analytics-in-healthcare>
- [10] Jennifer Bresnick. 2017. Which Healthcare Data is Important for Population Health Management? Online. (06 2017). <https://healthitanalytics.com/news/which-healthcare-data-is-important-for-population-health-management>
- [11] Elizabeth Chapman, Anna Kaatz, and Molly Carnes. 2013. Physicians and Implicit Bias: How Doctors May Unwittingly Perpetuate Health Care Disparities. *Journal of General Internal Medicine* 28, 11 (11 2013), 1504–1510. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11606-013-2441-1>
- [12] D'Vera Cohn. 2007. The Growing Global Chronic Disease Epidemic. Online. (05 2007). <http://www.prb.org/Publications/Articles/2007/GrowingGlobalChronicDiseaseEpidemic.aspx>
- [13] ASC Communications. 2013. Top 10 Countries for EHR Adoption. Online. (06 2013). <https://www.beckershospitalreview.com/healthcare-information-technology/top-10-countries-for-ehr-adoption.html>
- [14] Ben Dickson. 2017. How Artificial Intelligence is Revolutionizing Healthcare. Online. (2017). <https://thenextweb.com/artificial-intelligence/2017/04/13/artificial-intelligence-revolutionizing-healthcare/>
- [15] Brian Eastwood. 2016. Bringing Big Data to Drug Discovery. Online. (09 2016). <http://mitsloan.mit.edu/newsroom/articles/bringing-big-data-to-drug-discovery/>
- [16] Suzanne Elvidge. [n. d.]. Digging for Big Data Gold: Data Mining as a Route to Drug Development Success. Online. ([n. d.]). <https://www.clinicalleader.com/doc/digging-for-big-data-gold-data-mining-as-a-route-to-drug-development-success-0001>
- [17] Bonnie Feldman. 2013. Genomics and the Role of Big Data in Personalizing the Healthcare Experience. Online. (08 2013). <https://www.oreilly.com/ideas/genomics-and-the-role-of-big-data-in-personalizing-the-healthcare-experience>
- [18] Centers for Medicare and Medicaid Services. [n. d.]. CMS Information Security and Privacy Overview. Online. ([n. d.]). <https://www.cms.gov/Research-Statistics-Data-and-Systems/CMS-Information-Technology/InformationSecurity/index.html?redirect=/InformationSecurity/>
- [19] Lauren Friedman. 2014. IBM's Watson Supercomputer May Soon be the Best Doctor in the World. Online. (04 2014). <http://www.businessinsider.com/ibms-watson-may-soon-be-the-best-doctor-in-the-world-2014-4>
- [20] Malaria Gokey. 2016. Why smart clothes, not watches, are the future of wearables. Online. (01 2016). <https://www.digitaltrends.com/wearables/smart-clothing-is-the-future-of-wearables/>
- [21] World Bank Group. [n. d.]. Health Expenditure per Capita (current US\$). Online. ([n. d.]). https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SH.XPD.PCAP?end=2014&name_desc=true&start=2004&view=chart
- [22] Karen He, Dongliang Ge, and Max He. 2017. Big Data Analytics for Genomic Medicine. *International Journal of Molecular Sciences* 18, 2 (02 2017), 18. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijmss18020412>
- [23] Scalable Health. 2017. Managing Chronic Conditions using Big Data. Online. (03 2017). https://www.scalablehealth.com/Resources/WP/SS_Chronic_Illness_ThoughtPaper.pdf
- [24] Partners Healthcare. 2014. 2014 i2b2/UTHealth Shared-Tasks and Workshop on Challenges in Natural Language Processing for Clinical Data. Online. (2014). <https://www.i2b2.org/NLP/HeartDisease/>
- [25] CHEO Research Institute. [n. d.]. What De-Identification Software Tools are There? Online. ([n. d.]). <http://www.ehealthinformation.ca/faq/de-identification-software-tools/>
- [26] Frank Jacobs. [n. d.]. The Patients Per Doctor Map of the World. Online. ([n. d.]). <http://bigthink.com/strange-maps/185-the-patients-per-doctor-map-of-the-world>
- [27] Kate Kelland. 2011. Chronic Disease to Cost \$47 Trillion by 2030: WEF. Online. (09 2011). <https://www.reuters.com/article/us-disease-chronic-costs-chronic-disease-to-cost-47-trillion-by-2030-wef-idUSTRE78H2IY20110918>
- [28] Bijan Khosravi. 2016. Will You Trust AI To Be Your New Doctor? Online. (03 2016). <https://www.forbes.com/sites/bijankhosravi/2016/03/24/will-you-trust-ai-to-be-your-new-doctor-a-five-year-outcome/#3629545b3724>
- [29] MS Kohn, J Sun, et al. 2014. IBM's Health Analytics and Clinical Decision Support. *Yearbook of Medical Informatics* 9, 1 (2014), 154–162. <https://doi.org/10.15265/IY-2014-0002>
- [30] Matthew Komorowski. 2014. A History of Storage Cost. Online. (03 2014). <http://www.mkomo.com/cost-per-gigabyte-update>
- [31] Max Langridge and Luke Edwards. 2017. Best Smart Clothes: Wearables to Improve Your Life. Online. (10 2017). <http://www.pocket-lint.com/news/131980-best-smart-clothes-wearables-to-improve-your-life>
- [32] Mona Lebied. 2017. 9 Examples of Big Data Analytics in Healthcare That Can Save People. Online. (05 2017). <https://www.datapine.com/blog/big-data-examples-in-healthcare/>
- [33] KJ Lee. 2017. Here's How to Reduce Healthcare Costs. Online. (05 2017). <http://medicaleconomics.modernmedicine.com/medical-economics/news/here-s-how-reduce-healthcare-costs?page=0,1>
- [34] Lada Leyens, Matthias Reumann, et al. 2017. Use of Big Data for Drug Development and for Public and Personal Health and Care. *Genetic Epidemiology* 41, 1 (01 2017), 51–60. <https://doi.org/10.1002/gepi.22012>
- [35] Zengjian Liu, Yangxin Chen, et al. 2015. Automatic De-Identification of Electronic Medical Records using Token-Level and Character-Level Conditional Random Fields. *Journal of Biomedical Informatics* 58 (12 2015), S47–S52. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbi.2015.06.009>
- [36] Laura Lorenzetti. 2016. Here's How IBM Watson Health is Transforming the Health Care Industry. Online. (04 2016). <http://fortune.com/ibm-watson-health-business-strategy/>
- [37] Sid Nair. 2015. How Advanced Genomics, Big Data will Enable Precision Medicine. Online. (09 2015). <https://healthitanalytics.com/news/how-advanced-genomics-big-data-will-enable-precision-medicine>
- [38] American Academy of Actuaries. 2016. Drivers of 2017 Health Insurance Premium Changes. Online. (05 2016). <https://www.actuary.org/content/drivers-2017-health-insurance-premium-changes-0>
- [39] Department of Health and Human Services. [n. d.]. APMs Overview. Online. ([n. d.]). <https://ppq.cms.gov/apms/overview>
- [40] United States Department of Health and Human Services. 2017. Health IT Dashboard. Online. (08 2017). <https://dashboard.healthit.gov/quickstats/quickstats.php>
- [41] United States Department of Labor. [n. d.]. Long-Term Price Trends for Computers, TVs, and Related Items. Online. ([n. d.]). <https://www.bls.gov/opub/ted/2015/long-term-price-trends-for-computers-tvs-and-related-items.htm>
- [42] Optum. [n. d.]. Data Rich, Insight Poor. Online. ([n. d.]). https://cdn-aem.optum.com/content/dam/optum3/optum3/en/images/infographics/Game_changer_Track_Two_04_Data_Rich_Insight_Poor_Infog/Images_2016.pdf
- [43] World Health Organization. [n. d.]. Density of Physicians (Total Number per 1000 Population): Latest Available Year. Online. ([n. d.]). http://www.who.int/gho/health/workforce/physicians_density/en/
- [44] World Health Organization. [n. d.]. Chronic Diseases and Health Promotion. Online. ([n. d.]). <http://www.who.int/chp/en/>
- [45] World Health Organization. [n. d.]. Global Health Observatory (GHO) data. Online. ([n. d.]). http://www.who.int/gho/health_workforce/en/
- [46] World Health Organization. 2005. Evaluating the Costs and Benefits of National Surveillance and Response Systems. Online. (2005). http://www.who.int/csr/resources/publications/surveillance/WHO_CDS_EPR_LYO_2005_25.pdf
- [47] World Health Organization and World Bank. 2015. New Report Shows that 400 Million do not have Access to Essential Health Services. Online. (06 2015). <http://www.who.int/mediacentre/news/releases/2015/uhc-report/en/>
- [48] Out-Law.com. 2016. Use of Big Data Can Lead to 'harmful exclusion, discrimination' fi! FTC. Online. (01 2016). https://www.theregister.co.uk/2016/01/08/use_of_big_data_can_lead_to_harmful_exclusion_or_discrimination_us_regulator/
- [49] Velma Payne, Hardeep Singh, et al. 2014. Patient-Initiated Second Opinions: Systematic Review of Characteristics and Impact on Diagnosis, Treatment, and Satisfaction. *Mayo Clinic Proceedings* 89, 5 (05 2014), 687–696. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mayocp.2014.02.015>

- [50] Inc. Privacy Analytics. [n. d.]. Privacy Analytics Eclipse. Online. ([n. d.]). <https://privacy-analytics.com/software/privacy-analytics-eclipse/>
- [51] John Robison. 2009. Is Technology Making us Dumber? Online. (11 2009). <https://www.psychologytoday.com/blog/my-life-aspergers/200911/is-technology-making-us-dumber>
- [52] Sameer Sawarkar. 2013. Remote Healthcare Solution. Online. (2013). http://www.who.int/ehealth/resources/compendium_ehealth2013.7.pdf
- [53] Abhinav Shashank. 2016. Chronic Care Management Marries Big Data. Online. (12 2016). <http://blog.innovaccer.com/chronic-care-management-marries-big-data/>
- [54] Alyssa Sparacino. 2013. 11 Surprising Health Benefits of Sleep. Online. (07 2013). <http://www.health.com/health/gallery/0,,20459221,00.html#go-ahead-snooze-1>
- [55] Caitlin Stackpool, John Porcari, et al. 2015. ACE-sponsored Research: Are Activity Trackers Accurate? Online. (01 2015). <https://www.acefitness.org/education-and-resources/professional/prosource/january-2015/5216/ace-sponsored-research-are-activity-trackers-accurate>
- [56] Statista. [n. d.]. Smartphones industry: Statistics & Facts. Online. ([n. d.]). <https://www.statista.com/topics/840/smartphones/>
- [57] Statista. [n. d.]. Statistics & Facts on Wearable Technology. Online. ([n. d.]). <https://www.statista.com/topics/1556/wearable-technology/>
- [58] Eliza Strickland. 2017. IBM Watson Makes a Treatment Plan for Brain-Cancer Patient in 10 Minutes; Doctors Take 160 Hours. Online. (08 2017). <https://spectrum.ieee.org/the-human-os/biomedical/diagnostics/ibm-watson-makes-treatment-plan-for-brain-cancer-patient-in-10-minutes-doctors-take-160-hours>
- [59] Tom Sullivan. 2017. Cognitive Computing will Democratize Medicine, IBM Watson Officials Say. Online. (04 2017). <http://www.healthcareitnews.com/news/cognitive-computing-will-democratize-medicine-ibm-watson-officials-say>
- [60] Ann Tinker. 2017. How to Improve Patient Outcomes for Chronic Diseases and Comorbidities. Online. (2017). <https://www.healthcatalyst.com/how-to-improve-chronic-diseases-comorbidities>
- [61] Partnership to Fight Chronic Disease. [n. d.]. The Growing Crisis of Chronic Disease in the United States. Online. ([n. d.]). <https://www.fightchronicdisease.org/sites/default/files/docs/GrowingCrisisofChronicDiseaseintheUSfactsheet.81009.pdf>
- [62] Jonathan Vanian. 2015. IBM's Watson Supercomputer is Learning Arabic in Move to Middle East. Online. (07 2015). <http://fortune.com/2015/07/14/ibm-watson-home-middle-east/>

```
bibtext report
```

```
=====
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
Warning--empty year in DISA
Warning--empty year in ClinicalLeader
Warning--empty year in CMS
Warning--empty year in WoldBankPerCapita
Warning--empty year in eHealthInfo
Warning--empty year in BigThink
Warning--empty year in CMSAPM
Warning--empty year in CompPrices
Warning--empty year in Optum
Warning--empty year in WHODensity
Warning--empty year in WHOChronicDisease
Warning--empty year in WHOGHO
Warning--empty year in PrivacyAnalytics
Warning--empty year in StatistaPhones
Warning--empty year in StatistaWearable
Warning--empty year in FightChronicDisease
(There were 16 warnings)
```

```
bibtext _ label error
```

```
=====
bibtext space label error
```

```
=====
bibtext comma label error
```

```
=====
latex report
```

```
[2017-12-08 04.02.54] pdflatex report.tex
This is pdfTeX, Version 3.14159265-2.6-1.40.17 (TeX Live 2016) (preloaded format=pdflatex)
Missing character: ""
Missing character: ""
Missing character: ""
```

```
Typesetting of "report.tex" completed in 1.0s.
```

```
=====
```

Compliance Report

```
=====
```

```
name: Marks, Paul
hid: 327
paper1: 100% 10/25/2017
paper2: 100% 11/06/17
project: 100% 12/05/17
```

```
yamlcheck
```

```
wordcount
```

```
11
wc 327 project 11 10028 report.tex
wc 327 project 11 10779 report.pdf
wc 327 project 11 2080 report.bib
```

```
find "
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find footnote
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find input{format/i523}
```

```
4: \input{format/i523}
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find input{format/final}
```

```
passed: False
```

floats

figures 0
tables 0
includegraphics 0
labels 0
refs 0
floats 0

True : ref check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
True : label check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
True : include graphics passed: (figures >= includegraphics)
True : check if all figures are refered to: (refs >= labels)

Label/ref check
passed: True

When using figures use columnwidth
[width=1.0\columnwidth]
do not change the number to a smaller fraction

find textwidth

passed: True

below_check

bibtex

label errors

bibtex errors

This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst

```
Database file #1: report.bib
Warning--empty year in DISA
Warning--empty year in ClinicalLeader
Warning--empty year in CMS
Warning--empty year in WoldBankPerCapita
Warning--empty year in eHealthInfo
Warning--empty year in BigThink
Warning--empty year in CMSAPM
Warning--empty year in CompPrices
Warning--empty year in Optum
Warning--empty year in WHODensity
Warning--empty year in WHOChronicDisease
Warning--empty year in WHOGHO
Warning--empty year in PrivacyAnalytics
Warning--empty year in StatistaPhones
Warning--empty year in StatistaWearable
Warning--empty year in FightChronicDisease
(There were 16 warnings)
```

```
bibtex_empty_fields
```

```
entries in general should not be empty in bibtex
```

```
find ""
```

```
passed: True
```

```
ascii
```

```
non ascii found 8217
```

```
=====
The following tests are optional
=====
```

```
Tip: newlines can often be replaced just by an empty line
```

```
find newline
```

```
passed: True
```

cites should have a space before \cite{} but not before the {

find cite {

passed: True

Big Data Applications in Predicting Hospital Readmissions

Tyler Peterson

Indiana University - School of Informatics, Computing, and Engineering

711 N. Park Avenue

Bloomington, Indiana 47408

typeter@iu.edu

ABSTRACT

Hospital readmissions occur when a patient is discharged from a hospital and subsequently readmitted to a hospital within a short time frame. Hospitals are held accountable and penalized for readmissions that occur within 30 days of the initial inpatient stay. In 2016, nearly 2,600 hospitals were penalized \$528 million collectively for readmissions. Machine learning is increasingly being used to build models that predict if a patient has a high probability of being readmitted, which allows hospital staff to prioritize resources around high-risk patients and potentially prevent the otherwise likely readmission. Healthcare providers possess every-growing stores of medical data that are essential for building accurate predictive models. While most of this information is private and not widely available for research, there are a few public datasets that researchers can use to build models and gain a better understand of which information is significant in the task of identifying high-risk patients. One such dataset includes over 100,000 patient admissions that occurred at 130 US hospitals between 1999 and 2008 and includes many features that can be used to build models. Open-source Python tools such as scikit-learn, pandas and matplotlib have tools necessary for preparing, modeling and visualizing data. These tools can be used to define algorithms that describe the problem of hospital readmissions by creating classifiers that categorize patients based on the probability of readmission. Machine learning techniques, such as logistic regression, are capable of modeling data for classification problems, and these tools include methods for assessing and optimizing the algorithms. In this analysis, the model created using logistic regression performed better than random guessing, but not well enough to reasonably be considered a highly effective model. The sensitivity of the model is rather low for a problem where there is a high cost of missing an opportunity to intervene on a patient at high-risk of readmission. The lack of behavioral and social attributes in the dataset may lend to lower predictive power. In any case, the effectiveness of machine learning in classifying patients for risk of readmission is a growing topic of study and implementation of tools for assisting healthcare providers will likely continue to increase.

KEYWORDS

hid331, i523, Big Data, Hospital Readmissions, Machine Learning, Classification, Python

1 INTRODUCTION

Hospital readmissions are problematic for both patients and health-care providers. Even a single hospital admission for a patient can be an inconvenient, expensive and anxiety-inducing major life event.

For a patient to be subsequently readmitted to the hospital, the patient again experiences the negative aspects of being in a hospital, along with a diminished quality of life that accompanies a recurrent disease or medical issue. Healthcare providers are increasingly being held accountable and often penalized for an inability to keep recently discharged patients from being readmitted. It has been estimated that nearly 1 in 5 Medicare patients discharged from a hospital will be readmitted within 30 days [5].

The Hospital Readmission Reduction Program (HRRP), which originated in 2013 as a provision in the Affordable Care Act, serves as an example of an initiative that punishes hospitals for readmissions by administering financial penalties on hospitals with disproportionately high readmission rates among Medicare beneficiaries [1]. The HRRP levies a reduction in Medicare reimbursement, and uses the ‘all-cause’ definition for readmissions, which means that a subsequent hospital stay that occurs for any reason within 30 days of the initial stay counts against the hospital [1]. The program focuses on patients initially admitted with a heart attack, heart failure, pneumonia, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, a coronary artery bypass graft procedure or a hip/knee replacement procedure [1]. If a hospital’s risk-adjusted readmission rate is higher than the national average, then that hospital will be penalized. Further, the excessiveness of the rate is considered as well, ensuring that providers with the worst readmission rates have proportionately higher penalties [1]. In 2016, the US government penalized 79 percent of US hospitals, which amounts to 2,597 institutions [9]. The penalties for those readmissions, applied to the 2017 fiscal year reimbursements, amounted to \$528 million nationally, \$108 million higher than the previous year [9].

Effectively this means that the care provided to readmitted patients is uncompensated care, which still requires valuable resources such as medical supplies, pharmaceuticals, the occupancy of hospital beds and the attention of medical staff. HRRP has had the intended effect of bringing increased attention to readmissions, and some healthcare providers are leveraging their ever-increasing medical data stores to better understand their patients. Several organization are using machine learning to identify high-risk patients. Assessing patients for the likelihood of readmission presents a binary classification problem, where a model’s goal is to come to one of two conclusions on each case. The model analyzes each patient and the patient’s accompanying attributes and concludes either that the patient will be readmitted or will not be readmitted.

1.1 Applying Machine Learning to Hospital Readmissions

There are several studies pertaining to the effectiveness of using machine learning to build predictive models that address this problem.

A 2011 study conducted a systematic review of the topic and found 26 studies discussing predictive models related to hospital readmissions. These models were created using administrative claims data, electronic medical record (EMR) data, or a combination of each type of dataset [4]. Administrative claims data is primarily gathered for billing purposes and contains information about procedures, diagnoses, length of hospital stay and location of care [7]. The advantage of this type of data is that it typically describes large populations and is inexpensive to acquire because it's already gathered for billing [5]. EMRs contain the basic information contained in administrative claims data, and also include lab data, image data and the results of various diagnostic tests, as well as social and behavioral information. Of the 26 studies reviewed by this paper, only 4 reported an area under the curve (AUC) value greater than 0.70, indicating that the other 22 models performed relatively poorly at classifying high-risk patients. Interestingly, 3 of the 4 studies with a moderately high AUC built models with clinical information found in EMRs in addition to administrative claims data, which suggests that the rich information available in EMRs adds discriminative power to the predictive models [5].

One study that demonstrates the power of incorporating EMR data was conducted at Mount Sinai Health System in New York, NY. Mount Sinai developed a model to predict readmissions among patients with heart failure, which is the top cause of readmission among Medicare beneficiaries [10]. To build the model, Mount Sinai leveraged their EMR system to mine 4,205 patient attributes, including 1,763 diagnosis codes, 1,028 medications, 846 laboratory measurements, 564 surgical procedures, and 4 types of vital signs. The study used a cohort of 1,068 patients, 178 of whom were readmitted within 30 days [10]. The model achieved a prediction accuracy rate of 83.19 percent and an AUC value of 0.78. Commenting on this outcome, Mount Sinai said that the model would benefit from the inclusion of several years of data from several different hospital sites [10]. In other words, even more data is needed to further improve the accuracy of the model.

2 ANALYSIS

Though the data used by institutions to build models is not widely available, there are a few public datasets that can be used by machine learning practitioners to better understand how predictive modeling techniques can be applied to the task of predicting readmissions. One such dataset comes from the Cerner Corporation's Health Facts database, which is comprised of comprehensive clinical EMR records voluntarily provided by hospitals across the United States [11].

Researchers extracted a subset of 101,766 encounters from the nearly 74 million records in the Health Facts database for the purpose of studying diabetic inpatient encounters. The admissions span 10 years from 1999 to 2008, and occurred at 130 different hospitals across the United States. The researchers used the following criteria to narrow down the dataset [11]:

- 1) The encounter is an inpatient encounter.
- 2) It was a diabetic encounter, meaning at least one diabetic diagnosis code was associated with the episode of care.
- 3) The length of stay was between 1 and 14 days.
- 4) The patient had at least one lab test.

- 5) The patient was administered at least one medication.

This dataset is now publicly available on the UCI Machine Learning Repository. Each observation in the dataset has up to 55 attributes, or features, that are potentially related to hospital readmissions, including diagnoses defined by ICD9 codes, in-hospital procedures, hospital characteristics, individual provider information, lab data, pharmacy data, and demographic data, such as age, gender and race. Each patient encounter record also has a label indicating whether or not the patient was readmitted within 30 days. Since the dataset includes these labels, supervised machine learning techniques can be used, as opposed to unsupervised machine learning techniques. Logistic regression is a supervised machine learning technique capable of binary classification of observations, and is well-suited to predict the likelihood of readmission for the observations in this diabetes dataset.

2.1 Overview of Supervised Machine Learning

2.1.1 Minimization of Error. The goal of a machine learning algorithm is to minimize the error made in the predictions. The general form of this concept can be represented by the formula:

$$Y = f(x) + \epsilon$$

Y is the actual outcome associated with the sample. x represents the attributes associated with each sample and typically takes the form of a matrix where the columns are the features and the rows are the individual observations. $f(x)$ is a function that represents the systematic information x provides about Y , and ϵ is the error term describing the differences between the predicted value returned by $f(x)$ and the actual value represented by Y [6]. A perfect prediction means $f(x)$ equals Y and ϵ equals zero. In reality, the error term will rarely be zero, so each prediction yields a certain amount of error. The prediction accuracy for each sample is evaluated by this formula, and sum of the error terms from each evaluation represents the magnitude of error made by the model. The goal is to make the sum of errors as low as possible [6].

The error term is minimized through optimization of $f(x)$, which is intended to describe the patterns that exist between the independent variables, represented by x , and the dependent variable, represented by Y . Said differently, the equation describes the relationship between the features and the outcome label. The way that this function describes this relationship is through coefficient weights. Each feature in the dataset is paired with a numerical weight that accentuates or diminishes the impact of a feature on the predicted outcome. The way in which these coefficients can be interpreted differs by which algorithm is used, but the intuition remains the same: the coefficients are adjusted to highlight the important features in the dataset. Once the coefficients are determined, the model has been fit to the data.

2.1.2 Training Set vs. Test Set. The coefficient weights of the model are defined by analyzing the samples in a dataset. In a practical sense, the value of a model depends on its ability to accurately predict the outcomes of new samples that were unseen at the time the model was determined [4]. A model that performs well when making predictions with new data is said to generalize well.

A machine learning practitioner will want to have confidence in the model's ability to generalize before deploying the model

to make predictions in real-time, and will not necessarily have a new dataset of previously unseen observations to run through the model. To get around this, the original dataset is often split into two parts. The first part of the dataset is referred to as the training set and is used to determine the coefficient weights. The second part of the dataset is referred to as the test set, and this set is run through the model derived from the training set. The accuracy of the predictions on the test set is compared to the accuracy of the predictions on the training set to determine the extent to which the model generalizes [4].

A model that has high training accuracy, but low test accuracy, is said to be overfitting the data. This means that the model, in its efforts to minimize ϵ , has become too complex and focuses too closely on the samples in the training dataset. By chasing patterns in the training data caused more so by random chance than by the true characteristics of x , the model no longer generalizes to the unseen samples in the test set [6][4]. An overfit model describes characteristics in the training data that are not in the test data, leading to poor predictions on the test set.

A model can also underfit the data, which means the model is failing to capture the relationship between Y and x and will likely perform poorly on both the training and test datasets.

2.1.3 The Bias/Variance Trade-off. Bias and Variance are two important components related to training models using machine learning. Variance describes the extent to which a model changes due to small adjustments in the training data. Since the training data used to fit a model can vary, it is reasonable to expect that a model will change when different samples are selected into the training dataset, but ideally the model changes only slightly [6]. If a model is quite complex and is overfitting the training data, then slight changes in the training samples can have a large effect on the coefficient weights. Low variance is preferable [6].

Bias refers to the error that occurs when trying to describe a phenomenon using a model. For example, if a machine learning technique assumes a linear relationship between the independent and dependent variables, but the relationship is highly non-linear, then the model has high bias [6]. A model with high bias will make many erroneous predictions because the estimated relationship between x and Y is not closely aligned with the actual relationship between x and Y .

As a model becomes more complex and able to fit to the perceived important information in the training data, variance will increase and bias will decrease. The model will become more flexible and therefore more sensitive to variations in the training data, but will reduce bias by better estimation of the relationship between x and Y , resulting in a reduction in the prediction error. The important part of the relationship between these two components is that as a model becomes more complex, the bias decreases more rapidly than the variance increases, so the trade-off of increasing variance while decreasing bias leads to a net gain in improvement of the model [6]. However, there is a point at which the model becomes too complex and the net gain begins to disappear. Increased model complexity leads to significantly higher variance without appreciable improvement in bias [6].

2.1.4 Model Evaluation. Several statistics can be used for evaluating model accuracy. For classification problems, a basic technique for evaluation is the confusion matrix.

$$\begin{Bmatrix} TN & FP \\ FN & TP \end{Bmatrix}$$

This is the general framework of a confusion matrix which shows the counts of each type of prediction and the accuracy of that prediction. A true positive (TP) is an outcome that is predicted to be positive and is positive in reality [2]. A true negative (TN) is an outcome that is predicted to be negative and is negative in reality [2]. These are the preferred responses. In the context of hospital readmissions, a true positive is a prediction that a patient in the test dataset, according to the trained model, will be readmitted to the hospital within 30 days, and this occurs in reality. A true negative is a prediction that a patient in the test dataset will not be readmitted, and this occurs in reality.

On the other hand, a false positive (FP) is an outcome that is predicted to be positive but is negative in reality [2]. A false negative (FN) is an outcome that is predicted to be negative but is positive in reality. These are errors in prediction [2]. If a healthcare provider acts on a false positive, that could mean that a patient, who without intervention would not have been readmitted within 30 days, received resources and attention that were not necessary. In the case of a false negative, this means a patient who eventually did get readmitted within 30 days, but was said to be of low-risk of readmission, could have benefited from additional attention and resources from a healthcare team.

These four components - true positives, true negative, false positives, and false negatives - can be combined to create more nuanced metrics. Two of those metrics are sensitivity and specificity. Sensitivity refers to the true positive detection rate. This is the percentage of positive occurrences that are successfully identified [2]. Specificity is the true negative detection rate. This is the percentage of negative occurrences that are successfully identified [2].

In the context of readmissions, low sensitivity means many patients who eventually get readmitted are not predicted to be high-risk before the readmission occurs. Low specificity means that many patients who would not otherwise be readmitted are predicted to be readmitted. There is a trade-off between sensitivity and specificity, and an improvement in one often causes the other to worsen. Preference toward sensitivity or specificity often depends on the cost of incorrect predictions.

A patient who otherwise would not be readmitted who is predicted to be high-risk is the type of case that will incur unnecessary resources. While this requires healthcare providers to invest resources that are not needed, the readmission is nevertheless avoided and there are potentially other benefits achieved by the hospital, such as increased satisfaction of the patient and their family. On the other hand, a patient who eventually gets readmitted but was not identified beforehand will likely be costly to a hospital in a couple ways. The provider must dedicate resources to stabilizing and healing the patient, while also incurring penalties if this type of readmission occurs frequently. If the expense of an unexpected readmission is higher than the expense of deploying unnecessary resources to low-risk patients, then a model that favors higher sensitivity at the expense of lower specificity is preferable.

Sensitivity and specificity can be assessed in tandem by the receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve, which is quite useful for evaluating supervised classification models. The ROC curve plots the true positive rate against the false positive rate (100 minus the true negative rate) for varying decision thresholds. This illustrates the trade-off between sensitivity and specificity and can provide guidance on which decision threshold is appropriate for the task [2]. ROC curves are often leveraged to evaluate the performance of models by calculating the area under the ROC curve, also known as the AUC. The goal is to maximize the AUC value, and that value points to the optimal balance between sensitivity and specificity [2].

2.2 Logistic Regression

2.2.1 Logistic Regression - Intuition. Logistic regression models the probability that a sample belongs to a certain class given the feature values of the sample [4]. This probability can be represented as:

$$p(x) = Pr(Y = 1|X)$$

In the context of predicting hospital readmissions, this translates to the likelihood that a patient will be readmitted within 30 days of discharge given the patient's characteristics. To determine the probability, logistic regression utilizes the logistic function, which takes in the coefficient weights and feature responses for each sample and returns a the probability - a number between 0 and 1 [4]. In the case of logistic regression involving multiple features, the model takes the form:

$$f(x) = \frac{e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \dots + \beta_p X_p}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \dots + \beta_p X_p}}$$

The model is fit to the data by adjusting the coefficient weights using a method called maximum likelihood. The intuition of this process is that the estimates for the coefficients are set such that the predicted probability of a certain outcome corresponds as closely as possible to the actual label of that sample. This means that the ideal coefficient weights, when plugged into the logistic function, return a number close to one for the readmitted patients and a number close to zero for the patients not readmitted [4].

2.2.2 Logistic Regression - Data Pre-processing. Data often need to be processed prior to using logistic regression because this machine learning technique requires numerical data. The diabetes dataset contains a combination of continuous and categorical features. For example, 'num_procedures' and 'num_lab_procedures' are continuous features that describe the number of procedures and the number of lab procedures, respectively. Since these columns already contain numerical data, these features are ready to use as-is. Other columns such as 'A1Cresult' includes values such as 'A1Cresult_>7', 'A1Cresult_>8', 'A1Cresult_None' and 'A1Cresult_Norm'. The first issue is that this features is represented by text values, which will not work with logistic regression. These values must be encoded to work properly. If a categorical feature with four unique values, or levels, has an ordinal scale, the text values can be encoded as sequential numbers, such as 1, 2, 3 and 4. If a categorical features with four levels has a nominal scale, as is the case with the feature

'A1Cresult', an effective encoding strategy is to create one dummy column for each level in the original categorical column.

The Python library pandas has a function called 'get_dummies' that will create one column for each level in a categorical column, and each of those dummy columns will only contain 0's and 1's. In the case of the column 'A1Cresult', this process will yield 4 columns. For each observation, a 1 will appear in the column corresponding to the value of the original feature. For example, if an observation had a value of 'A1Cresult_>7', the observation will have a 1 in the 'A1Cresult_>7' dummy column and 0's in the other three A1C dummy columns. This process is repeated for all nominal categorical variables.

Three categorical columns in the dataset have several hundred unique values, which can be problematic. The columns 'diag_1', 'diag_2' and 'diag_3' have 695, 724 and 757 unique values describing ICD9 diagnosis codes, respectively. The first diagnosis column is considered to be the primary diagnosis of the stay, and 'diag_2' and 'diag_3' contain any additional diagnoses documented during the stay. Running these columns through the 'get_dummies' procedure would yield a total of 2,176 dummy columns, which would greatly increase the dimensionality of the dataset. Further, many ICD9 codes are used only a few times in the dataset, which means it is quite likely that, depending on how the training and test data is split, all observations of a particular code only fall in either the training set or the test set.

One solution to this problem is to 'bin' the information into categories. Each ICD9 code belongs to a category. For example, ICD9 code '250.62 - Diabetes with neurological manifestations, Type II, uncontrolled' is in the ICD9 category 'Endocrine, Nutritional, Metabolic, Immunity'. Each ICD9 code can be binned into one of 19 categories. Further, instead of having three columns for each ICD9 category (because each unique ICD9 code can appear in any of the three diagnosis columns), the data can be processed such that there is one column for each ICD9 category, and each observation can have up to three 1's in these 19 dummy columns. This loses the distinction between primary and secondary diagnoses, but reduces computation time and reduces the likelihood of the rare diagnosis codes only appearing in the test set or training set.

Another column in the dataset called 'medical_specialty' has a high number of unique values with 71 different responses, and also is null in nearly half of the observations. Rather than turning this feature into 71 different dummy variable columns, it is noted that there is redundancy between the 'medical_specialty' and the diagnosis code columns. For example, if a patient has a diagnosis code in the 'Pregnancy, Childbirth, and the Puerperium' category, they are often in the obstetrics medical specialty. Given this redundancy, the high percentage of null values and in the interest of reducing the complexity of the dataset, the 'medical_specialty' column is not included in the final dataset.

Several patients have multiple observations captured in the dataset. Logistic regression requires that the observations be independent, so including multiple inpatient encounter for individual patients violates this requirements. To solve this problem, the initial count of 101,766 observations is reduced down to 69,988 observations by keeping only the first encounter for each 'patient_nbr'. The first encounter per patient is considered to be the observation with the lowest 'encounter_id', which operates on the assumption that

IDs are incremented by 1 and allocated sequentially as inpatient admissions occur.

Lastly, the response label in the original dataset is represented with three levels and is described in text. The column ‘readmitted’ contain the values ‘NO’, ‘>30’ and ‘<30’. Since observations with the label ‘>30’ days were not readmitted within thirty days, these labels were converted to ‘NO’. The remaining responses of ‘NO’ and ‘<30’ were encoded as 0 and 1, respectively.

2.2.3 Logistic Regression - Data Quality Evaluation. When creating dummy columns, whether through simple methods, such as the ‘A1Cresult’ transformation, or more complex methods, such as the ICD9 diagnosis binning transformation, special consideration must be given to collinearity and multicollinearity between features. For example, if a feature called ‘gender’ contains two values, male and female, and this feature is converted into two dummy features, these two features will be collinear. Where one feature column has a value of one, the other will have a zero, and visa versa. This means that one feature column can perfectly predict the value of the other feature column. We only need the female column to know if the observation pertains to a male or female, so the inclusion of the male column would be redundant. This is problematic for the model because the two feature columns provide an identical explanation of the variance in the dependent variable, and neither adds additional value while in the presence of the other. When this issue manifests between two columns, this means the columns are collinear. Multicollinearity refers to a situation where this redundancy occurs between three or more columns. If the combination of three columns explains most of the variation explained by another single column, then there is multicollinearity in the data.

Collinearity and multicollinearity increase the variance of the coefficient weights, which would make the model very sensitive to changes in the training data. This instability of the weights means that it can be difficult to decide which predictors have a high influence on the outcome, and can even cause the sign of the coefficient to change [3]. Under stable conditions, a positive coefficient can be interpreted to mean that the associated feature contributes to a higher probability of readmission, and a negative coefficient can be interpreted to mean that the associated feature contributes to a low probability of readmission [6]. The instability that multicollinearity creates in the coefficient weights make it dubious to make inferences from the signs of the weights.

Datasets with collinearity and multicollinearity issues are considered to be ill-conditioned, which will reduce the ability to create a meaningful model with the data. Problematic features need to be strategically identified and removed. A dataset can be evaluated for problems using several linear algebra methods. The matrix rank is a single value that can give an overall assessment of the relationship between features. In a dataset, which can be represented as a matrix, that has more rows than columns, the ideal matrix rank value is equal to the number of columns. When the matrix rank value is equal to the number of columns this means the matrix is considered to be full rank [12]. A full rank matrix contains only linearly independent features. On the other hand, if a feature in a dataset is linearly dependent, then the rank of the matrix is reduced. For example, if we were to keep both the male and female gender

dummy columns, these features would be considered linearly dependent, and would therefore reduce the rank of the matrix. Each linearly dependent feature in a dataset reduces the matrix rank.

A correlation matrix provides a correlation statistic for each pair of variables. The values fall between -1 and 1, and the closer the value is to -1 or 1, the stronger the relationship between the two variables. Features with high correlation are considered to be collinear. This technique is effective at finding collinearity, but is not well-suited to finding multicollinearity because the correlation matrix only shows the relationship between pairs of variables.

The correlation matrix can also be used to find the determinant of the dataset. The determinant is a single value and will reveal if there are any highly or perfectly correlated columns, which suggests there is collinearity among features. The determinant value ranges between 0 and 1. A value of zero means the correlation matrix is singular. In other words, the correlation matrix contains at least one pair of perfectly correlated features. A near-zero determinant value means there is one or more pair of features that is nearly correlated. A higher determinant value is preferable.

These methods are effective at describing the overall health of the dataset and simple relationships between pairs of features. To find multicollinearity, more nuanced techniques need to be deployed. One approach is to determine the variance inflation factor (VIF) for each independent variable. The VIF measures the increase of variance in the coefficient estimates that is caused by the inclusion of a particular variable [8]. This technique fits each independent variable, one at a time, against all of the other independent variables. This can be represented by the following sequence of equations:

$$\begin{aligned} X_1 &= \beta_2X_2 + \beta_3X_3 + \beta_4X_4 + \dots + \beta_kX_k \\ X_2 &= \beta_1X_1 + \beta_3X_3 + \beta_4X_4 + \dots + \beta_kX_k \\ X_3 &= \beta_1X_1 + \beta_2X_2 + \beta_4X_4 + \dots + \beta_kX_k \\ &\dots \\ X_k &= \beta_1X_1 + \beta_2X_2 + \beta_3X_3 + \dots + \beta_{k-1}X_{k-1} \end{aligned}$$

For a dataset with k-features, the dataset is fit k-times, once for each independent feature. The VIF for each feature is calculated by the equation:

$$VIF_k = \frac{1}{1 - R_k^2}$$

Each fitted model has an R^2 , which is the coefficient of determination, or R-squared, and it describes the proportion of variation in the ‘dependent’ variable that is described by the independent variables. A high R-squared means that the independent variables explain a significant amount of variation in the dependent variable. In the context of VIF, if one independent variable is thoroughly explained by the other independent variables, the R-squared will be high which will lead to a high VIF. While the threshold for acceptable VIF values differs, the documentation for the Python library statsmodels recommends using a threshold of 5 [8]. To achieve a value of 5 or less, the R^2 for an independent variable must 0.80 or less. In other words, the independent variable being considered by the VIF method must be less than 80% explained by the other independent variables.

The elimination of problematic variables in this dataset is handled by a custom Python function that identifies the features with

the highest VIF and selectively removes those features from the dataset. The Python functions works by calculating the VIF for each independent variable. It then iterates through each group of dummy columns that stemmed from a single categorical column, and, for each group, deletes the column with the highest VIF value if that value is above the threshold. The function also removes ratio-scaled features, such as ‘num_procedures’, that have a high VIF value. This whole process is looped until zero features have a VIF above the threshold.

Before trimming features based on VIF, the dataset included 175 features, with a matrix rank of 150 and a correlation matrix determinant of zero, meaning the coefficient matrix was singular. This means there were several linearly dependent features and at least one pair of perfectly correlated features. After trimming 52 features based on VIF, the dataset includes 123 features with a full rank of 123 and a correlation matrix determinant of 0.00697. While this determinant value is still relatively low, the determinant increased over each iteration of the Python function from 0.0 to 2.85e-26 to 0.0056 to 0.00697, representing several orders of magnitude in improvement from the originally singular matrix. Most importantly, the matrix now has full rank with 0 linearly dependent features.

2.2.4 Logistic Regression - Feature Selection. With the issue related to multicollinearity among the independent variables largely resolved, the coefficient weights of the model will be more stable, allowing for inferences to be made based on the sign and magnitude of the weights. The next step is to strategically choose which features to use when training the model. Recursive feature selection (RFE) is one strategy for choosing which features have the highest significance in predicting the likelihood of readmission within 30 days. The intuition behind RFE is that it repeatedly fits the model on the training data. The first iteration includes all features, and each subsequent fitting of the data drops the least significant feature or features from the previous iteration. Python has a library called scikit-learn which includes tools to execute RFE on a dataset. The user may choose how many features to trim after each iteration, as well as choose how many features the final model should have. The process will repeatedly fit the narrowing set of features to the data until the preferred number of the most important features is reached.

There is an extension of RFE called RFECV, which helps to determine the ideal number of features. When using RFE on its own, the user must arbitrarily choose the preferred number of procedures. RFECV functions by calculating the accuracy of the model after each iteration of trimming features and re-fitting the model. The number of features used at the step in which the model performance is best is determined to be the ideal number of features to use. The ‘transform’ method of RFECV will then trim down the original dataset to the selected features. After running RFECV on the remaining 123 features, the process selected 57 features that led to the highest accuracy rate.

2.2.5 Logistic Regression - Execute Analysis. The set of independent variables is trimmed down further to the 57 features selected by RFECV as being the most important for predicting likelihood of readmission within 30 days. The next step is to train the logistic regression model, and then test the accuracy of the model. Scikit-learn has a function that randomly splits the dataset into training

and test sets, and also allows the user to decide the size of the test dataset in terms of proportion of overall data. After splitting the features and labels into training and test sets, the data is ready for fitting.

Scikit-learn also has a process for executing logistic regression, and there is a parameter that controls the way the algorithm minimizes coefficients. The default setting is L2 regularization, which determines coefficients that can approach zero (meaning the associated feature does not have a large effect on the outcome) but never fully reach zero. This regularization of coefficients effectively determines how much effect each feature has on the prediction. The less significant features will have a coefficient close to zero. L1 regularization is another option, which sets the less significant features to exactly zero, which can be viewed as another form of feature selection [4].

There is another parameter called C, which dictates the strength of the regularization. Higher values of C lead to less regularization. This means that a model trained with a high value of C will value fitting each observation as closely as possible, whereas a lower value of C will train the model in a way that tries to fit the data more generally [4]. A high value of C will lead to higher weight values, and a low value of C will lead to weights that are much closer to zero.

2.2.6 Logistic Regression - Evaluate Analysis. The model is trained using both L1 and L2 regularization, and each regularization type is fit using three different values for C: 0.01, 1.0 and 100.0. Figure 1 shows the coefficient weights using L2 regularization and the three different values of C. It is evident that higher values of C lead to larger weights. Figure 2 show the coefficient weights using L1 regularization, again with the different values of C. In addition to the observation that higher value of C lead to larger weights, it is also interesting to note that using 0.01 for the value of C sets all but four weights equal to zero. The four features chosen by this model are the numbers of inpatient encounters, age 50-60, transferred to a skilled nursing facility and discharged to another rehabilitation facility. This pair of L1 regularization and 0.01 for C has the highest training and test set accuracy. The training accuracy is 91.063% and the test accuracy rate is 90.0827%. In the original dataset of the 69,998 observations, 63,704 were not readmitted. This is a rate of 91.02%. This is only slightly smaller than the training accuracy and larger than the test accuracy, which means the model performs closely to the rate that would be achieved if a person guessed that every case would not be readmitted. The confusion matrix for L1, C = 0.01 model is:

$$\begin{Bmatrix} 12713 & 2 \\ 1282 & 1 \end{Bmatrix}$$

12,713 true negatives were identified and 1 true positive, for a total of 12,714 accurate predictions. There were 2 false positives and 1,282 false negatives. The model is effective at predicting patients who will not be readmitted, but the high number of false negatives, compared to the extremely low count of true negatives, demonstrates that the model is not performing well at identifying patients who eventually get readmitted. The models with C values of 1.0 and 100.0 have a true negative detection count of 4, slightly

higher than the 1 observation classified correctly by the L1, C = 0.01 model.

The relationship between the true positive and false positive rates can be visualized with an ROC curve. Figure 3 show the ROC curve for the L1, C = 0.01 model. The black dotted line represents the 50/50 chance curve, which is equivalent with guessing. The ROC curve extends slightly above the 50/50 chance curve, which means the predictive power is slightly higher than random guessing. This is described by the AUC, which has a value of 0.50013. This is consistent with the conclusion that model is only slightly better than chance. Figure 4 shows the ROC curve for the L1, 100 model, and the ROC curve bends further away from the 50/50 chance curve, and the AUC is slightly higher at 0.5013. This is consistent with the observation that the model with the higher value of C has a higher true negative detection rate. Ideally, the ROC curve is as close to the upper left hand corner as possible, which would represent a high true positive rate with a low false positive rate.

3 CONCLUSION

The predictive power of the logistic regression model chosen for this analysis appears to be slightly better than random guessing, but not significantly better. The high proportion of false negatives means many patients who are at high risk of readmission within 30 days, and later get readmitted, are not being identified by the model. This is a domain where high sensitivity is favored over high specificity, but the model conversely has low sensitivity and high specificity. To improve the predictive power of the model, it might be helpful to include features that have more to do with behavioral and social characteristics, as well as socioeconomic indicators. Attributes such as literacy, obesity, annual income, smoking status, medication regimen adherence, utilization of family and community support and employment status are a few features that come to mind that may lend to better explaining the likelihood of readmission within thirty days. Features of this type may help describe the extent to which a patient is able to manage his or her own care outside of the hospital. Patients who cannot read or who do not adhere to the recommended medication regimen, for example, are patients who can reasonably be said to be less capable of providing consistent and effective care to themselves in the home setting. Attributes such as this are not available in the dataset, but common sense suggests this information would be helpful.

Further, logistic regression is just one type of machine learning technique capable of performing classification. Support vector machines and decision trees are two other techniques that would be worth exploring to see if modeling the data using different machine learning algorithms improves the sensitivity of the model.

A ACCOMPANYING JUPYTER NOTEBOOK AND REQUIREMENTS

The accompanying Jupyter Notebook is available at: <https://github.com/bigdata-i523/hid331/blob/master/project/project.ipynb>

The requirement file is available at: <https://github.com/bigdata-i523/hid331/blob/master/project/requirements.txt>

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The author would like to thank Dr. Gregor von Laszewski and his teaching assistants for their support throughout the semester.

REFERENCES

- [1] Cristina Boccuti and Gisella Casillas. 2017. Aiming for Fewer Hospital U-turns: The Medicare Hospital Readmissions Reduction Program. Online. (March 2017). <http://files.kff.org/attachment/Issue-Brief-Fewer-Hospital-U-turns-The-Medicare-Hospital-Readmission-Reduction-Program>
- [2] Christopher M Florkowski. 2008. Sensitivity, Specificity, Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) Curves and Likelihood Ratios: Communicating the Performance of Diagnostic Tests. *Clinical Biochemistry Review* 29 (August 2008), S83–S87. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC2556590/>
- [3] Jim Frost. 2013. What Are the Effect of Multicollinearity and When Can I Ignore Them? Online. (May 2013). <http://blog.minitab.com/blog/adventures-in-statistics-2/what-are-the-effects-of-multicollinearity-and-when-can-i-ignore-them>
- [4] Sarah Guido and Andreas Müller. 2017. *Introduction to Machine Learning with Python* (1st edition ed.). O'Reilly Media, 1005 Gravenstein Highway North, Sebastopol, CA, 95472.
- [5] Danning He, Simon C Mathews, Anthony N Kalloo, and Susan Hufless. 2013. Mining High-dimensional Administrative Claims Data to Predict Early Hospital Readmissions. *Journal of Informatics in Health and Biomedicine* 21, 2 (March 2013), 272–279. <https://doi.org/10.1136/amiajnl-2013-002151>
- [6] Gareth James, Daniela Witten, Trevor Hastie, and Robert Tibshirani. 2015. *An Introduction to Statistical Learning*. Springer Science and Business Media, 11 W 42nd St, New York, NY, 10036. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4614-7138-7>
- [7] Paul LaBrec. 2016. Analyze this! Administrative claims data or EHR data in health services research? Online. (January 2016). <https://www.3mhisinsideangle.com/blog/post/analyze-this-administrative-claims-data-or-ehr-data-in-health-services-research/>
- [8] Josef Perktold, Skipper Seabold, and Jonathan Taylor. 2012. Source code for statsmodels.stats.outliers_influence. Online. (January 2012). http://www.statsmodels.org/dev/_modules/statsmodels/stats/outliers_influence.html#variance_inflation_factor
- [9] Jordan Rau. 2016. Medicare's Readmission Penalties Hit New High. Online. (August 2016). <https://khn.org/news/more-than-half-of-hospitals-to-be-penalized-for-excess-readmissions/amp/>
- [10] Khader Shameer, Kipp W Johnson, Alexandre Yahia, Riccardo Miotto, Li Li, Doran Ricks, Jebakumar Jebakaran, Patricia Kovatch, Partho P Sengupta, Annette Gelijns, Alan Moskowitz, Bruce Darrow, David Reich, Andrew Kasarskis, Nicholas P Tatonetti, Sean Pinney, and Joel T Dudley. 2016. Predictive Modeling of Hospital Readmission Rates Using Electronic Medical Record-Wide Machine Learning: A Case-Study Using Mount Sinai Heart Failure Cohort. In *PSB, Pacific Symposium on Biocomputing* (Ed.), Vol. 22. Pacific Symposium on Biocomputing, Pacific Symposium on Biocomputing, 1 N Kaniku Dr, Waimea, HI, 96743, 276–287. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27896982>
- [11] Beata Strack, Jonathan P DeShazo, Chris Gennings, Juan Olmo, Sebastian Ventura, Krzysztof J Cios, and John N Clore. 2014. Impact of HbA1c Measurement on Hospital Readmission Rates: Analysis of 70,000 Clinical Database Patient Records. *BioMed Research International* 2014 (April 2014), 1–11. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2014/781670>
- [12] Stat Trek. 2017. Matrix Rank. Online. (2017). <http://stattrek.com/matrix-algebra/matrix-rank.aspx>

B FIGURES

[Figure 1 about here.]

[Figure 2 about here.]

[Figure 3 about here.]

[Figure 4 about here.]

LIST OF FIGURES

1	Logistic Regression Weights By C-Value, L2 Regularization	9
2	Logistic Regression Weights By C-Value, L1 Regularization	10
3	ROC Curve, L1 Regularization, C = 0.01	11
4	ROC Curve, L1 Regularization, C = 100.0	12

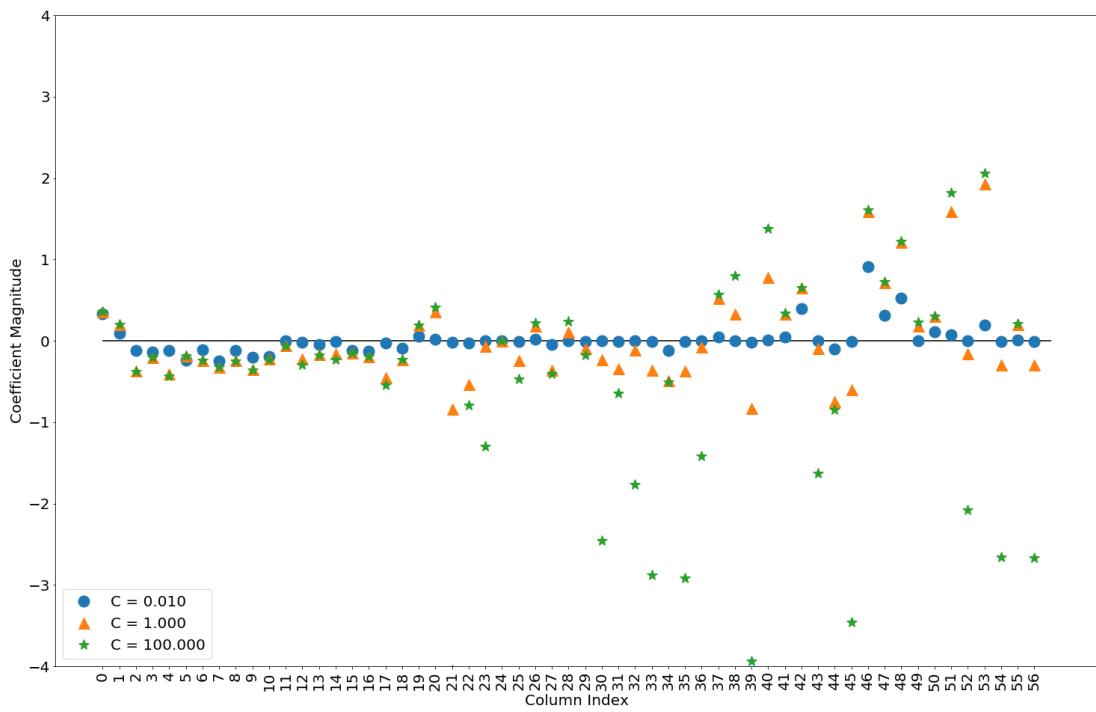


Figure 1: Logistic Regression Weights By C-Value, L2 Regularization

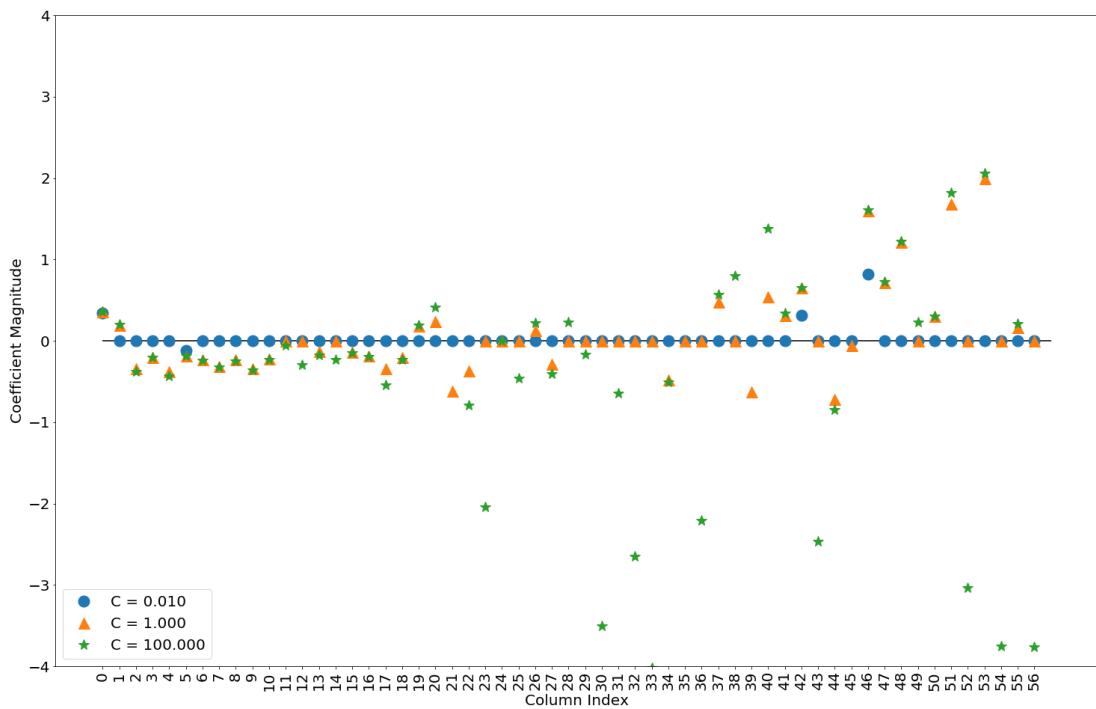


Figure 2: Logistic Regression Weights By C-Value, L1 Regularization

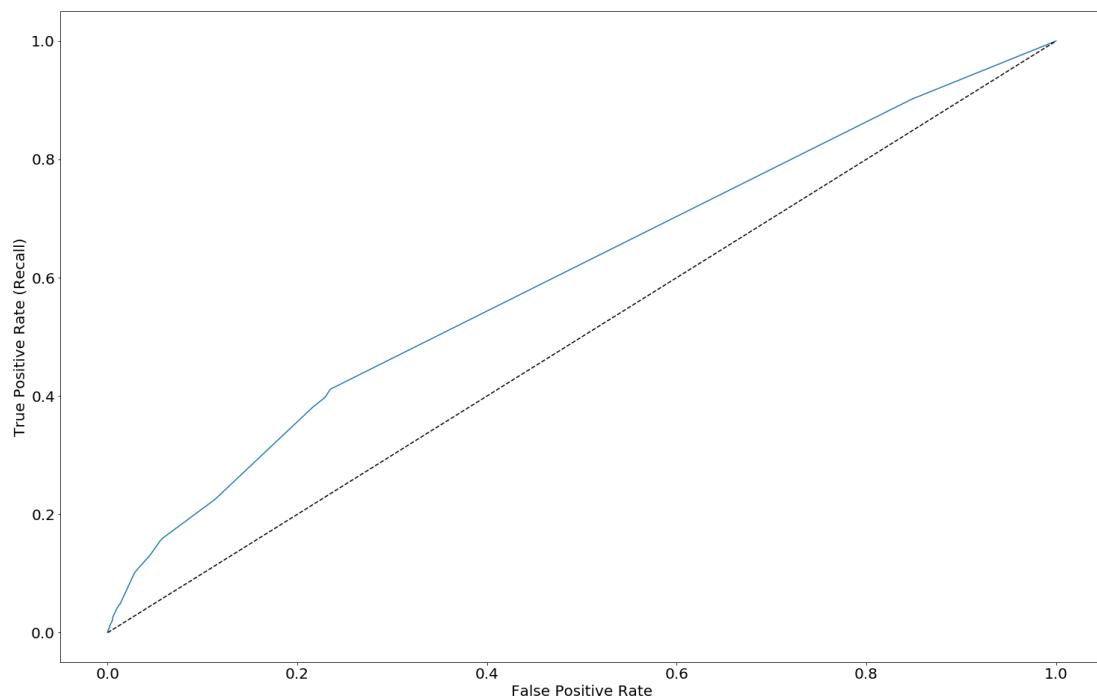


Figure 3: ROC Curve, L1 Regularization, C = 0.01

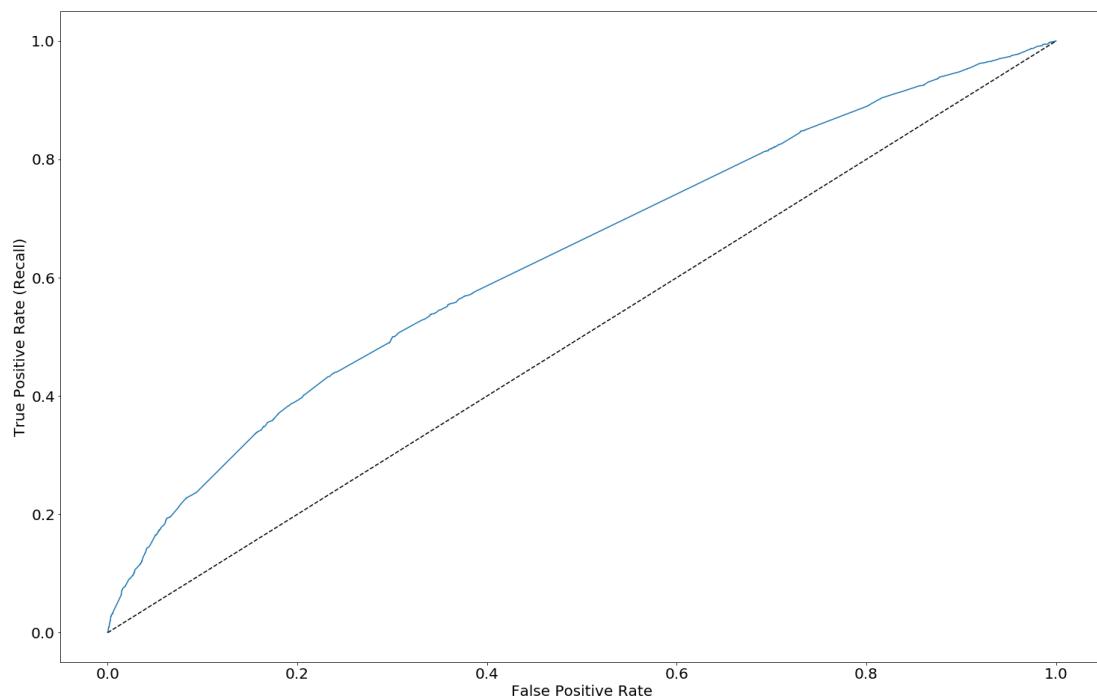


Figure 4: ROC Curve, L1 Regularization, $C = 100.0$

```
bibtext report
```

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
```

```
bibtext _ label error
```

```
bibtext space label error
```

```
bibtext comma label error
```

```
latex report
```

```
[2017-12-08 04.03.24] pdflatex report.tex
This is pdfTeX, Version 3.14159265-2.6-1.40.17 (TeX Live 2016) (preloaded format=pdflatex)
bookmark level for unknown defaults to 0.
The anchor of a bookmark and its parent's must not be the same. Added a new anchor.
Typesetting of "report.tex" completed in 1.7s.
```

```
Compliance Report
```

```
name: Tyler Peterson
hid: 331
paper1: Oct 22 17 100%
paper2: Nov 6 17 100%
project: Dec 4 17 100%
```

```
yamlcheck
```

```
wordcount
```

```
-----  
12  
wc 331 project 12 6934 report.tex  
wc 331 project 12 7039 report.pdf  
wc 331 project 12 906 report.bib  
  
find "  
-----  
  
passed: True  
  
find footnote  
-----  
  
passed: True  
  
find input{format/i523}  
-----  
  
4: \input{format/i523}  
  
passed: True  
  
find input{format/final}  
-----  
  
passed: False  
  
floats  
-----  
  
196: The model is trained using both L1 and L2 regularization, and  
each regularization type is fit using three different values for  
C: 0.01, 1.0 and 100.0. Figure \ref{f:weightsl2} shows the  
coefficient weights using L2 regularization and the three  
different values of C. It is evident that higher values of C lead  
to larger weights. Figure \ref{f:weightsl1} show the coefficient  
weights using L1 regularization, again with the different values  
of C. In addition to the observation that higher value of C lead  
to larger weights, it is also interesting to note that using 0.01  
for the value of C sets all but four weights equal to zero. The  
four features chosen by this model are the numbers of inpatient  
encounters, age 50-60, transferred to a skilled nursing facility  
and discharged to another rehabilitation facility. This pair of  
L1 regularization and 0.01 for C has the highest training and
```

test set accuracy. The training accuracy is 91.063\% and the test accuracy rate is 90.0827\%. In the original dataset of the 69,998 observations, 63,704 were not readmitted. This is a rate of 91.02\%. This is only slightly smaller than the training accuracy and larger than the test accuracy, which means the model performs closely to the rate that would be achieved if a person guessed that every case would not be readmitted.

210: The relationship between the true positive and false positive rates can be visualized with an ROC curve. Figure \ref{f:roccurve001} show the ROC curve for the L1, C = 0.01 model. The black dotted line represents the 50/50 chance curve, which is equivalent with guessing. The ROC curve extends slightly above the 50/50 chance curve, which means the predictive power is slightly higher than random guessing. This is described by the AUC, which has a value of 0.50013. This is consistent with the conclusion that model is only slightly better than chance. Figure \ref{f:roccurve100} shows the ROC curve for the L1, 100 model, and the ROC curve bends further away from the 50/50 chance curve, and the AUC is slightly higher at 0.5013. This is consistent with the observation that the model with the higher value of C has a higher true negative detection rate. Ideally, the ROC curve is as close to the upper left hand corner as possible, which would represent a high true positive rate with a low false positive rate.

236: \begin{figure}[!ht]
237: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/weightsl2.png}
238: \caption{Logistic Regression Weights By C-Value, L2 Regularization}\label{f:weightsl2}
241: \begin{figure}[!ht]
242: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/weightsl1.png}
243: \caption{Logistic Regression Weights By C-Value, L1 Regularization}\label{f:weightsl1}
246: \begin{figure}[!ht]
247: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/roccurve001.png}
248: \caption{ROC Curve, L1 Regularization, C = 0.01}\label{f:roccurve001}
251: \begin{figure}[!ht]
252: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/roccurve100.png}
253: \caption{ROC Curve, L1 Regularization, C = 100.0}\label{f:roccurve100}

figures 4

```
tables 0
includegraphics 4
labels 4
refs 2
floats 4
```

```
True : ref check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
True : label check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
True : include graphics passed: (figures >= includegraphics)
False : check if all figures are refered to: (refs >= labels)
```

```
Label/ref check
passed: True
```

```
When using figures use columnwidth
[width=1.0\columnwidth]
do not cahnge the number to a smaller fraction
```

```
find textwidth
```

```
passed: True
```

```
below_check
```

```
bibtex
```

```
label errors
```

```
bibtex errors
```

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
```

```
bibtex_empty_fields
```

entries in general should not be empty in bibtex

find ""

passed: True

ascii

=====
The following tests are optional
=====

Tip: newlines can often be replaced just by an empty line

find newline

passed: True

cites should have a space before \cite{} but not before the {

find cite {

passed: True

Big Data Analytics Role in Reducing Healthcare Costs in the United States

Judy Phillips
Indiana University
PO BOX 4822
Bloomington, Indiana 47408
judkphil@iu.edu

ABSTRACT

In the United States more money is spent on health care than in any other industrialized country in the world. Yet, health care access is often problematic and health care quality indicators are lower or mediocre as compared to other countries with similar economic status. Insights offered by Big Data Analytics can find solutions that will significantly lower costs and improve delivery of health care in the United States. These solutions have the potential to save billions of dollars in health care costs and to improve the quality of care for millions of Americans.

KEYWORDS

I523, HID332, health care costs, predictive analytics, electronic health records, big data

1 INTRODUCTION

Health care spending in the United States greatly exceeds the spending of other industrialized countries. Americans spend 3 trillion dollars annually on health care. Health expenditures currently account for 17.6 percent of the Gross National Product (GDP) and are expected to increase at an average rate of 5.8 percent through 2025. Health care spending has exceeded growth of the Gross National Product (GDP) in 42 of the previous 50 years [2]. Health spending threatens the nation's fiscal health [29]. Despite the excessive spending, the United States ranks among the worst on measures of health care quality, health access equity, and quality of life [22]. Policy makers do not know how to respond.

Big data analytics has the potential to help manage and address some of the cost issues while simultaneously improving patient health outcomes. Big Data ability gives us the ability to combine and analyze data from a wide variety of sources in ways that have never before been possible. This new information is providing new and valuable insights into ways to provide more effective and efficient patient care. The associations, patterns, and trends in big data may hold the key to reducing expenditures, improving care, and saving lives [29]. The information is being used to achieve more accurate and timely diagnoses, better match treatment plans to patient needs, and predict and identify at-risk patients and populations [22]. Mobile applications are being used to monitor patient care in real time. Big data can reduce health care waste, improve coordination of care, expose fraud and abuse, and to speed up the research and development pipeline.

The cost savings estimates are substantial. McKinsey and Company estimates that Big data analytics has the potential to reduce health care costs in the United States by 12 to 17 percent. This

equals to a savings of between 348 to 493 billion dollars annually [6].

Some of the tools and methodologies that big data uses to introduce efficiencies into the American health care system include: Outcome based reimbursement methodologies, electronic health records, medical device monitoring, predictive analytics, evidence based medicine, genomic analysis, and claim prepayment fraud analysis. Big data technologies are adding value and improving efficiency in almost every area of health care including clinical decision support, administration, pharmaceutical research and development, and population health management.

2 COMPARISON TO OTHER COUNTRIES

According to the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), the United States spends 2.5 times per person than the average of OECD related industrialized nations. In 2016, the United States spent 9822 dollars per person annually on health care. In comparison, the average amount spent per person among all OECD nations was 4033 dollars. The next highest spender was Switzerland at 7919 dollars per person [28]. The average spending as a percentage of Gross National Product (GDP) among OECD nations was 9 percent. Switzerland was again the next highest spender at 12 percent of their Gross National Product (GDP) being spent on health care. According to a McKinsey and Company analysis, the United States spends 600 billion dollars more annually than the estimated benchmark amount as calculated based upon the country's size and wealth as compared to other OECD related nations [18].

The United States lags in many standard indicators of health quality. According to a Commonwealth Fund study of 11 developed countries in 2013, the United States ranked fifth in quality and worst in infant mortality. The United States also ranked last in the prevention of deaths from treatable conditions such as strokes, diabetes, high blood pressure and treatable cancers. The average life expectancy in the United States is 76.3 years. The average life expectancy among all OECD countries is 77.9 years. The incidence of obstetric trauma is 9.6 per 100,000 births in the United States compared to 5.7 incidents per 100,000 in other countries. The statistics for preventable hospital admissions also compare poorly in comparison to other nations. In the United States the hospital admission rate for asthma and COPD was 262 per 100,000 in comparison to the average of 236 per 100,000. Thirty eight percent of the population in the United States is obese. The average obesity rate in other countries is nineteen percent. The United States has fewer physicians and hospitals. In the United States, there are 2.6 practicing physicians and 2.8 hospital beds per 1000 population.

This compares to an average of 3.4 physicians and 4.7 hospital beds on the average in the other countries [28].

The United States has material problems with health care access. Most other OEDC countries have achieved almost universal insurance coverages. On the average, 98 percent of persons in OEDC countries have health insurance. In the United States only 90 percent have health insurance. In addition, cost sharing requirements often make access additionally prohibitive. In 2016, 22.3 percent of the persons in the United States had skipped a medical consultation due to cost concerns. In comparison, the average percentage of individuals who had skipped medical visits due to cost in OEDC nations was 10.5 percent. In the United States 11.6 percent of the population had skipped taking a prescribed medication due to cost in 2016. This compares to an average of 7.1 percent of the population in other OEDC countries who reported foregoing foregone a prescribed medication due to cost [28].

3 HEALTH COST DRIVERS

Why is health care so much more expensive in the United States than it is anywhere else in the world? Some of the contributing factors include: the basic health care economic payment structure, inefficient and wasteful use of resources, medical errors, lack of transparency within the system, unnecessary administrative costs, and fraud and abuse.

3.1 Health Care Payment Structure

Many of the cost issues can be contributed to the complex, un-coordinated, multi-payer payment structure. Private insurance companies, Medicaid, and Medicare are the primary payers. An individual's eligibility by payer is dependent upon factors such as employment status, income level, age, and whether or not they are disabled. Most citizens obtain private insurance through their employment. Individuals who are 65 years of age or older or disabled are eligible for Medicare. These individuals may also purchase private Medicare Supplement insurance on their own to pay expenses that Medicare does not cover. Low income individuals may be eligible for Medicaid. If an individual is not eligible for any of these programs, he can purchase individual health insurance from a private insurance company on his own. However, individual health insurance is expensive. According to data from E-care, in 2016, the average monthly premium for an individual was 393 dollars per month. The average cost for family coverage was 1021 dollars per month [39]. In addition, individual insurance policies often include fairly high cost sharing features. Even though subsidies are available through the Affordable Care Act to offset some of these costs, many people choose to forego insurance entirely due to the prohibitive expense.

The system is inefficient and flawed because the basic economic concepts such as supply and demand and competition do not work in this sector. This is because none of the players are incentivized to manage or reduce costs [3]. Consumers do not manage medical utilization because it is being paid for by a third party, the insurance company. Insurance coverage thus insulates patients from the true costs of medical care [3]. Providers are not incentivized to provide efficient, cost effective care. Most providers are paid via a traditional fee for service methodology. That is, providers are

paid for each service that they provide. Traditional fee for service provider payment methodologies that reward health caregivers for quantity instead of quality often result in overutilization of unnecessary tests and treatment procedures. The structure is such that it encourages the production of inefficient and low value services [3]. Insurance companies pass the cost of services on to the consumers in the form of higher premiums year after year. The cost inflation cycle goes on and on.

Administrative waste is another result of the complexity of the United States multi payer payment structure. Each payer has their own rules and standards. Benefit and coverage options can vary dramatically among individuals even within the same insurance company. According to the OEDC 2008 estimates, the United States spends 7.3 percent of health care expenses on administrative activities. This is more than any other country. Comparatively, Germany spends 5.6 percent, Canada spends 2.6 percent and France spends 1.9 percent [28]. Administrative activities include transaction related activities such as billing and claims payment, and regulatory compliance such as those required to comply with government and nongovernment accreditation and regulation including licensing requirements.

3.2 Clinical and Operational Waste

McKinsey and Company estimates that clinical waste amounts to 273 dollars annually [29]. According to the Congressional budget office, 30 percent of United States spending is wasteful or not necessary [8]. There are two types of waste: operational, and clinical [3].

Operational waste results from duplication of services or inefficient production processes. An example would be a duplicate medical service because of lost medical records or the same service already being provided by another caregiver [3].

Clinical waste is created by the creation of low value outputs or care that is not optimally managed. One type of clinical waste is the spending on goods and services that provide marginal or no health benefit over less costly alternatives. Some clinical waste is the result of the uncertainty in the science of medicine. An example would be when a patient is misdiagnosed or when the treatment protocol is uncertain [3]. Other types of clinical waste may be symptoms of a flawed fee for service payment structure. These may include such things as over screening, excessive office visits, or the use of branded instead of generic drugs. Another example is when a newer or more modern treatment is marketed and sold even when it does not provide a better outcome as compared to the traditional treatment. An example was a 2 million dollar prostate cancer machine that was being marketed in 2014. It made the price of the procedure significantly more, but it did nothing to improve the health outcome [8]. Other examples of types of treatment that are the result of clinical waste include avoidable emergency room use, unnecessary hospital admissions, and excessive antibiotic use [3].

3.3 Medical Errors

Medical errors cost the United States system between 17 and 29 billion dollars annually [3]. This amount could be as much as 1 trillion dollars a year if lost productivity is taken into account [27].

This compares to an estimate of 750 million in Canada [3]. The Institute of Medicine estimates that preventable medical errors claim between 44000 and 98000 lives in hospitals each year [3].

3.4 Fraud and Abuse

The National Healthcare Anti-Fraud Association estimates losses due to health care fraud at 80 billion dollars annually. Other industry sources estimate fraudulent related losses to be around 200 billion. This accounts for approximately 2 to 3 percent of total health care spending. Research indicates that only 5 percent of these losses are ever recovered [10].

4 BIG DATA

Big data refers to electronic data sets that are so large and complex that they cannot be managed with traditional hardware and software. A report delivered to the United States Congress in August 2012 defines big data as large volumes of high velocity, complex, variable data that require progressive techniques and technologies to capture, storage, distribution, manage, and analyze the information. Big data characteristics include variety, velocity, and veracity, and volume [29]. Health care data is big data because it involves the processing of overwhelmingly large complex data sets, from a wide variety of sources and a very rapid speed [29]. In addition, the data is extremely difficult to sort, organize, and decipher [11]. Recent advances in Big Data technology gives us the ability to capture, share and store healthcare data at an unprecedented pace.

4.1 Volume

The health care industry has always generated large amounts of data. Data is needed for record keeping, compliance and regulatory reporting and patient care. Historically, this data has been stored in hard copy format. Now, more and more data is being created and stored digitally. In 2011, there were estimated to be 150 Exabytes of health related data. The amount of health related big data is growing rapidly. It is expected to soon reach the zettabyte scale and then soon after that, into the yottabytes [29].

4.2 Velocity

Traditionally, health care data has been static: for example, paper files, x-ray films, and prescriptions [29]. Ironically, in many medical situations, the speed of the response can mean the difference between life and death. Increasingly, more and more of the data is being collected in real time and at a rapid pace. For example, medical monitoring devices information collect data continuously, and can support immediate response [29].

4.3 Variety

There is an enormous variety of data being collected. The data is in multimedia including images, video, text, numerical, multimedia, paper, and electronic records. Formats include structured, unstructured, and semi-structured. Sources of data include patients, physicians, hospitals, laboratories, research companies, insurance companies, and government agencies. Data comes from web and social media such as Facebook, twitter, health plan websites and smart phone applications. Machine to machine data comes from patient sensors. Biometric data is available such as fingerprints,

genetics, hand writing information and imagining reports [29]. Physicians generate electronic medical records, physician notes, and medical correspondence. Pharmaceutical companies maintain research and development information in medical databases. The United States government houses databases concerning clinical drug trials. Data is collected by the United States Centers Disease Control and Prevention [6].

4.4 Veracity

The characteristic Veracity addresses whether the information is credible and error free. Veracity is extremely important in health care because life or death decisions on being based upon the information provided. There is a particular concern because interpretations of unstructured data such as physician notes could be incorrect or imprecise. Big data architecture, platforms, methodologies and tools are designed to take into account the uncertainties of big data analytics [29].

4.5 Unstructured Big Data

Unstructured data now makes up about 80 percent of the health care information that is available and is growing exponentially. Sources of unstructured data include: medical devices, physician and nurses notes, and medical correspondence. Being able to access to this information is an invaluable resource for improving patient care and increasing efficiency [22]. Big data technology gives us the ability to capitalize and make use of the valuable clinical information that is unstructured [15].

Traditional databases have well defined structures. The data exists in a table and column format, tables have well defined schemas, and each piece of data is stored within its own well defined space. Big data is not like that at all. Data is extracted from the source systems in its raw format. Massive amounts of this data are stored in a somewhat chaotic fashion in a distributed file system. For example, the Hadoop Distributed File System (HDFS) stores data in directories of files in a hierarchical form. The convention is to store files in 64 Megabyte files in the data nodes using a high degree of compression [15].

Big data is raw data. Big data is not cleansed or transformed in any way. No business rules are applied. The approach is to transform and apply business rules or bind the data semantically as late in the process as possible. In other words, the approach is to bind as close to the application layer as possible [15].

Big unstructured data is less expensive than traditional databases. Most traditional relational databases require propriety software that is associated with expensive licensing and maintenance agreements. Relational databases also need significant specialized resources for design, administration, and maintenance. Because of its unstructured format and open source concept, big unstructured data is much less expensive to own and operate. Big data needs little design work and is easy to maintain. A Hadoop cluster is built using inexpensive commodity hardware and runs on traditional disk drives using a direct attached (DAS) configuration instead of an expensive storage area (SAN). The practice of storage redundancy makes the configuration more tolerable to hardware failures. Hadoop clusters are designed so that they are able to rebuild failed nodes easily [15].

Big unstructured data is more difficult to use. Traditional relational database users are able to access the data using a simple structured query language (SQL) that uses a sophisticated query engine that has been optimized to extract the data. Unstructured data is much more difficult to query. A sophisticated data user, such as a data scientist may be needed to manipulate the data. However tools are being developed to solve this problem. One tool is SparkSQL. This tool leverages conventional SQL for querying and works by converting SQL queries into MapReduce jobs. Another example is Microsoft Polybase which can join data from Hadoop and traditional databases and return a single result set [15].

To summarize, advances in Big Data technology, including data management of unstructured datasets and cloud computing are facilitating the development of platforms for more effectively capturing, storing, and manipulating large data sets sourced from multiple sources [29].

4.6 Big Data Trends for Healthcare

The costs for storing and parallel processing are decreasing [22]. Previously, we had to choose what data to capture and store because storage costs were so high. Now we can capture and store everything [17]. The use of the Internet of Things is growing. Internet connected technology is everywhere and has become a common and accepted part of our culture. For example, wearable fitness devices are continuously generating health information and sending it to the cloud.

Another trend is the establishment of standards and incentives in the industry that encourage the digitization and sharing of health care data. The Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act (HIPAA) establishes national standards for electronic healthcare transactions for the submission of claims. Claims are the documents that health providers submit to insurance companies to get paid. Such standards encourage the widespread use of Electronic Document exchange. These standards have made it possible to effectively and easily share and exchange medical information between providers and insurance companies [22]. Medicare and Medicaid have set up Electronic Medical Record (EHR) incentive programs to encourage professionals and hospitals to adopt and demonstrate meaningful use of EHRs. The Affordable Health Care Act (ACA) encourages the shift from fee for service to value based payment structures by financing initiatives to test new payment models [33].

5 VALUE BASED REIMBURSEMENT

One of the most important strategies that we can take to reduce health care in the United States is to change the way that we reimburse providers from the traditional fee for service methodology to outcome based reimbursement. McKinsey and Company estimates that this strategy alone could reduce health care spending in the United States by 1 trillion dollars over the next decade [23]. This will also mitigate medical inflation because it will automatically promote preventative care and discourage the use of low value expensive technologies. Other benefits include: improved care coordination and the reduction of redundant care. All of this results in better health outcomes, and enhanced patient satisfaction.

With the fee for service payment structure providers are paid a fee for each and every service that they perform. This tends to

encourage overutilization instead of the efficient use of medical resources. The United States tends to perform more and more expensive diagnostic services and treatment services than any other country in the world. The United States is well known for over testing and over treatment [26]. Hospitals are rewarded for preventable readmissions. Physicians are rewarded as much for a failed medical procedure as they are for a successful one. It is up to each individual physician to determine what tests and treatment services to order. From a clinical perspective, many of these tests are not medically necessary. This is a wasteful use of resources.

The goal of value based reimbursement structures are to align payment incentives with the administration of efficient, high quality medical care. Basing provider reimbursement on performance and patient outcomes encourages providers to work towards optimizing patient health instead of just providing more health care services. Caregivers are also incentivized to be more innovative and to search for ways to improve health care delivery [5].

Many payers, including private health insurance companies, Medicare, and Medicaid are starting to base reimbursement on value based incentives. The Affordable Health Care Act includes provisions to encourage the development and adoption of more effective care delivery models. Some payers are also starting to reward pharmaceutical companies by basing reimbursements on drug effectiveness [18]. Systems that have been adopted to date include: patient centered medical homes, episode based payments, global payments, shared savings programs, value based contracting, and population models, including accountable care organizations.

In the patient centered home model, the primary care physician coordinates the patients care and is rewarded for improving quality and reducing costs for individual patients. Another value based system is a population model that rewards providers for improving the health of the entire population [20]. An example of this type of program is an Accountable Care Organization (ACO). In Accountable Care Organizations, groups of doctors, hospitals, and other providers work together to provide coordinated care for patients. In Medicare supported Accountable Care Organizations, providers share in Medicare savings when they deliver high quality care and manage costs wisely [7].

Big Data Analytics can play an integral role in the development and testing of new payment model methodologies. The development and adoption of such models are still in the infancy stage. Big Data Analytics has the potential to provide information that will result in innovative payment structure and reward insights. Big data can also play a role developing clinical best practices and in identifying reasons for unjustified clinical variability in current practices.

Big Data will help to support the implementation of models that have already been adopted. Value based health care depends upon quality data collection and precise data analytics [20]. First, the data must be collected and analyzed in order to define what defines quality care. Big Data is collected and analyzed in order to establish clinical guidelines that promote a more rational use of specific diagnostic tests and treatment protocols. Second, this information must be made available to health care givers in a format that they can use for day to day clinical decision making. This is often in the form of a cloud based integration platform [20]. Next, data must be collected on an ongoing basis to provide feedback indicating

whether the providers are meeting the defined standards and if not, what can be done to improve performance. In addition, the same data can benefit future patients when data analytics are taken beyond the initial reporting and are used to develop care protocols for entire patient populations [20].

One example is in which big data is being used to track and modify provider behavior is at Memorial Care, a six hospital system in Fountain Valley, California. Memorial Care uses physician performance analytics to analyze performance of hospital doctors and outpatient providers. So far, such tracking has resulted in the reduction 280 dollars per hospital stay for the average adult patient. This equates to a 13.8 million annual dollar savings for the Fountain Valley Hospital system [9].

6 ELECTRONIC HEALTH RECORDS

An Electronic Medical Record (EMR) is a digitized version of a patients medical chart. Whereas, an electronic medical record (EMR) typically includes information from one health provider, an electronic health record (EHR) includes information from multiple providers and documents all of the available information about the patient. The objective is to provide in one place, an electronic record of a patients health. This enables the sharing of information between providers. An electronic health record (EHR) contains medical history, diagnosis, medications, immunizations dates, allergy information, radiology images, and test results [36]. These records are made available to providers in real time. Electronic health record (EHR) systems often include electronic prescription subscribing systems. Also, they can include and be integrated with evidence based tools that help providers make immediate decisions about patients care. For example, an Electronic Health record system can also automatically check for problems such as medication conflicts and notify clinicians with alerts [13].

Electronic Health Records (EHRs) improve patient health care in so many ways. Physicians have better organized, more accessible, and more complete information about the patient. A clinicians ability to make an accurate diagnosis is improved. Easily accessible patient information reduces medical errors and unnecessary tests. There is a reduction in the incidence of duplicate tests. Coordination of care is improved because every caregiver is made aware of simultaneous care that is being provided by other caregivers. It easier to communicate critical clinical information to all applicable providers in a timely fashion. Because information is made available to providers in real time, there is a drastic reduction in the probability of errors caused by such things as allergic reactions or drug interactions, especially in emergency situations. Because electronic subscribing allows physicians to communicate directly with the pharmacies, prescriptions are no longer lost or misread [13]. Preventative care improves because it is easier to track and manage when patients are due for vaccinations and screenings. It becomes possible to track prescriptions to determine if a patient has been following doctors orders [34]. Productivity is increased, overlap care is reduced, and coordination of care is enhanced [5]. In general, electronic health records (EHRs) improve quality of care enhance patient safety, and contribute to better outcomes [13].

Electronic Health records (EHRs) have significantly improved the ability to treat chronically ill patients. In the past, providers

had to limit the decisions to the amount of information that was available to them at the time. The planning of care of a chronically diseased patient that had many symptoms was often mismanaged or delayed. Electronic health records (EHRs) enable the physicians to facilitate personalized treatment for these patients in a way that has never before been possible [5]. Providers have a comprehensive record of historical treatments, diagnostic data, medical history, and meticulous medical information all in one place [5]. The result is more efficient and effective treatment for chronically ill patients. There is a reduction in the number of potential side effects and an increase the patients quality of life all at a much reduced cost. [5].

Electronic health records (EHRs) also save money by reducing administrative costs. They reduce transcription costs and eliminate chart storage and access costs.

Between 2001 and 2014 Electronic Health record (EHR) usage in physician offices rose from 20 percent to 82 percent. According to Health Information Technology for Economic and Clinical Health (HITECH) research, electronic health records are being used in 94 percent of hospitals in the United States [34]. This amount of data that is being collected by large health systems and treatment centers around the country is massive [31].

7 PREDICTIVE ANALYTICS

7.1 Definition

Predictive analytics is the process of learning from historical data in order to make predictions about the future. The objective of predictive health analytics is to provide insights that enable personalized medical care for each individual patient [30]. Traditionally, physicians have always used predictive analytics, as they have always provided health care based upon what they know about the medical history of each individual patient. Predictive Health analytics seeks to supplement that knowledge with software tools that enable physicians to make more informed choices about the patients treatment based upon data from population cohorts [31]. Patients are directed to specific treatment plans based upon their specific conditions as compared to other patients in a similar cohort. This additional knowledge has the potential to provide physician with the information they need to provide a more effective treatment plans [31]. This becomes especially important for patients with complex medical histories who are suffering from multiple conditions [34]. Predictive analytics can also improve the accuracy of diagnosing patient conditions, better match treatments with outcomes, and better predict the specific patients at risk for disease [34].

Predictive analytics takes advantage of disparate data sources including: clinical, claims, research, sensors, social media, and genomic analysis.

Predictive analytics has the potential to materially reduce health care costs and improve patient care. Insights provided can in clinical decision support, prevent hospital readmission preventions, aid in adverse incidence avoidance, and help chronic disease management. In addition, predictive analytics can identify treatments and programs that do not deliver demonstrable benefits or that cost too much [29]. Some predictive models reduce readmissions by identifying environmental or lifestyle factors that increase risk

or trigger adverse events so that treatment plans can be adjusted according. [29].

7.2 Patient Profile Analytics

Patient Profile Analytics is a specific type of predictive analysis in which patient profiles are developed to identify individuals who may be at risk for developing a disease and who could benefit from proactive management, such as lifestyle modifications. For example, patient profile analytics can be used to identify patients who may be at risk for developing diabetes.

7.3 Risk Stratification

One area in which predicting patients at risk can yield the greatest results is in identifying the patients who are at the greatest risk for the most adverse outcomes or costliest diseases [29]. Risk stratification is a methodology that can be used to identify and track the sickest and potentially costliest patients. The tool ranks or stratifies patients by potential risk and flags high risk cases for additional management. A risk stratification predictive tool takes into account risk factors such as missed doctors appointments in addition the symptoms. The tool enables doctors to intervene earlier to avoid hospital admissions and costly treatment [9].

7.4 Predictive Analytic Examples

Hundreds of thousands of dollars are spent on cancer care. Big data can be used to develop individualized, personalized cancer care programs. There is a web based application, which was sponsored by the National Cancer Institute that uses data from the Prostate, Lung, Colorectal, and Ovarian Cancer Screening trial together with patient risk factor and demographic data to help develop patient specific treatment regimens [6].

Congestive heart failure accounts for more medical spending than any other diagnosis. The earlier this condition is diagnosed, the easier it is to treat and to avoid dangerous and expensive complications. However, early manifestation is difficult to recognize and can easily be missed by physicians [22]. Machine learning algorithms have the ability to take into account many more factors than doctors alone. Predictive modeling and machine learning using large sample sizes can identify nuances and patterns that were previously impossible to see. As a result, machine learning models in the form of predictive analytics substantially improved clinicians ability to accurately diagnose persons with congestive heart failure [34].

Optum labs has developed a database with the electronic health records of over 30 million patients. They use the database to develop predictive analytic tools, the objective of which is to help doctors make Big data informed decisions that will improve patients treatment [22].

Parkland Hospital in Dallas, Texas uses predictive modeling to identify high risk patients in the coronary care unit and to predict likely outcomes when the patients are sent home. To date, Parkland has reduced readmissions for Medicare patients with heart failure by 31 percent. This equates to a 500000 dollar annual savings for this one hospital [9].

8 INTERNET CONNECTED MEDICAL DEVICES

Internet connected medical devices are becoming more affordable and are being used more and more commonly. Gartner, the analysis firm, estimates that there will be more than 25 billion connected health devices by the year 2020 [15]. These devices collect data in real time and send information into the cloud. Devices include blood pressure monitors, pulse oximeters, glucose monitors, and electronic scales [15]. Some of these devices are being used as preventive care devices. Other devices are being used by health care providers to aid in the monitoring of patient conditions. Big Data is required because the process involves the capture and analysis of large volumes of fast moving data from in hospital and in home devices in real time.

8.1 Preventative Care

Millions of people are using mobile technology help live healthier lifestyles. Smart phone applications together with wearable devices such as Fitbit, Jawbone, and Samsung Gear Fit are designed to track the wearers exercise and activity levels [12]. Measures that are typically tracked include: the number of steps taken, number of calories burned, and number of stairs climbed. The objective is to encourage the users to take a more active role in their own health and wellbeing by being more physically active. Such devices can provide individuals with the information that they need to make more informed decisions, better manage their health, and to more easily track and adopt healthier behaviors [3]. In the future, it is conceivable that it will be routine to share this information with personal physicians and that it will be incorporated into regular health care management.

An individuals data can be uploaded from the device to the cloud where it is aggregated with information from other users [15]. In an initiative between Apple and IBM, a big data platform is being developed that will allow iPhone and Apple Watch users to share their data with IBMs Watson Health cloud health care analytics service. The information will use the combination of real time activity information in combination with biometric data to discover new medical insights [12].

8.2 Medical Monitoring

Remote monitoring enable medical professional to monitor a patient remotely using various technological devices. The devices can be worn by patients with health conditions at home and in medical facilities to stream data continuously to provide real time remote patient monitoring. The devices can improve care by giving patients the ability to self-manage their conditions. Processing of real time events can be supplemented with machine learning algorithms to help provide physicians with information they need to make lifesaving interventions [22]. Patient care tends to be more proactive as patient vital signs are can be monitored constantly [22]. Medical alerts can be sent to care providers such that they immediately aware of changes in a patients condition and can respond accordingly. Devices are often used for adverse risk prediction. Remote monitoring is typically used to monitor conditions such as heart disease, diabetes mellitus, and asthma. One example of the

use of personal devices in patient care is pediatricians monitoring asthmatics to identify environmental triggers for attacks [6].

Real time systems analysis improves patient care while simultaneously reducing health care costs [5]. The devices are especially advantageous to individuals who reside in remote areas. Other advantages include: a reduced incidence of severe events, improved in patient safety, and high patient satisfaction levels.

9 PUBLIC HEALTH

Data science is being used in cities throughout the United States to predict and impede potential public health issues before they even start. For example, the Chicago Department of Public Health is modeling a program to target lead exposure in children. Information is collected from multiple sources such as, home inspection records, assessor values, health records, and census data. Predictive analytic algorithms then determine which houses have the highest potential risk. This information is then being incorporated into Electronic health records (EHRs) to automatically alert physicians to possible lead exposure risk concerning their pediatric and pregnant patients. Chicago has similar programs in place for food protection and tobacco control [14].

In San Diego, California the public health department routinely gathers big data health related information and publishes it on a user friendly web site. Information is gathered from sources such as marketing companies, mobile apps and demographic data. The data includes everything from vegetable consumption to diabetes occurrences. In one initiative, Live Well, the information was able to reduce the obesity rates at a local elementary school by 5 percent. A project that is currently in progress is the study and analysis of areas that have high rates of Alzheimers [19].

10 TRANSPARENCY

In the United States, health care price information is rarely made available to the health care consumers when they receive the care. Patients usually become aware of the costs when they receive the bill. The price of health procedures can vary radically by provider. Prices can even vary by payer for the same provider. In one study, it was estimated that consumers paid 10 to 17 percent less when they were given access to comparative price data. According a paper that was published by the American Economic Journal Economic Policy, if patients had access to price data and were willing to shop around, they could be pay significantly less for everything from routine screenings to knee surgery [2]. This tended to work best for consumers who had to pay for at least some portion of their own care.

Online pricing is a potential Big Data solution. Health related price web sites provide approximate prices for health services and procedures in fairly transparent formats. Online resources are now being made available by insurers, government agencies, internet companies and medical care providers. National insurers such as Anthem, United Health group, Humana, Aetna, and Cigna offer pricing tools to their customers. Some states, including New Hampshire, Maine, Oregon, and Massachusetts publish health pricing websites. The internet company Healthcarebluebook.com publishes information for all consumers in the United States [35].

The trend towards pay for performance reimbursement agreements will also help the cost transparency issue. This is because these pricing structures encourage health care providers to share information [5].

11 EVIDENCE BASED MEDICINE

Evidence based medicine (EBM) is an approach to medical practice that emphasizes the use of evidence from well designed and well conducted research to optimize decision making [37]. Evidence based medicine is an approach that supplements a clinicians knowledge, which may be limited by knowledge gaps or bias, with the formal and explicit information such as scientific literature or best practice methodology. Evidence based medicine eliminates guesswork for health care providers. Instead of having to rely only on their own personal judgement, providers can base treatment and protocols on credible scientific data [5].

Big Data analytics supports the research and development of evidence based best practice treatment protocols. Structured and unstructured data from a variety of sources is combined and big data algorithms are applied. Sources may include electronic medical records, financial and operational data, clinical data, and genomic data [29]. The aggregating individual data sets into big data sets enable analysis for conditions that typically have small populations. An example is the study of individuals with gluten allergies [18].

12 DRUG COSTS

It is a well known fact that drugs in the United States are priced higher than they are in other countries. There are many complicated contributing factors. One factor is lack of price regulation. Another factor is the economic structure of the health care system. Because the system includes multiple payers, there is no one payer with the power to effectively negotiate with the pharmaceutical companies as there are in other economies. Therefore, drug companies typically set drug prices at whatever the market will bear. Newly developed drugs usually have higher price tags. Big Data analytics cannot fix all of the problems with the drug market, but there are some areas in which it may have an impact: medication therapy management capabilities, drug comparison technology, and pharmaceutical research and development process improvements [4].

12.1 Medication Therapy Management

Big data analytics can play a significant role in improving the Medication Therapy Management process. Adverse drug events cost billions of dollars and result in thousands of patient deaths. Physicians and pharmacist are often overwhelmed to the point of not having the time to implement appropriate drug therapies. Drug therapies are becoming more difficult to manage as more patients are taking multiple medications. Big Data cloud analytics are helping clinicians better co manage drug therapies, and to identify drug interactions, adverse side effects, and additive toxicities in real time. The results include a reduction in the number of patient deaths, emergency room visits, hospital admissions, and hospital readmissions [9].

12.2 Comparison of Competitor Drugs

In the research, there tends to be a lot of information about individual drugs. However, there is not much information about how drugs perform in comparison to their competitors. There needs to be more drug comparative information so that physicians are better informed about the true benefits of prescribing a more costly medication as compared to a less expensive or generic drug [4]. Big data technology can play a role in making such comparisons easier to accomplish.

12.3 Pharmaceutical Research and Development

Big Data can help to streamline the Pharmaceutical Research and development process. As a result, important drugs can be delivered to the market more quickly and the cost of drug development will be reduced.

Big data can enhance the process of identifying appropriate patients to enroll in the clinical trials. First, multiple sources are now available from which to select patients. For example, social media can be incorporated into the selection process and used in addition to physician information. Secondly, the participate selection criteria can include more inclusive factors, such as genetic information. This will enable better targeting of potential trial subjects which will result in more pertinent information, while at the same time shorting trail times and reducing expenses [24].

Trial can be monitored and tracked in real time. Real time trial monitoring can decrease the number of safety and operational issues. The result is the avoidance of potentially costly issues such as adverse events or unnecessary delays [24].

Electronically captured data can improve communication. Information can be shared easily between functions and external parties. All interested individuals can have access to the data at the same time including all departments, external partners, physicians, and contract research organizations (CROs). This will replace the issue of having rigid departmental data silos that hinder interaction [24].

Genomic and proteomic data can be used to speed drug development by providing the capability to better target treatments based upon genetic indicators [17].

13 ADMINISTRATIVE COSTS

According to the Institute of Medicine (IOM), the United States spends 361 billion annually on health care administration. This is more than twice our total spending on heart disease and three times our spending on cancer. Also according to the IOM, fully half of these expenditures are unnecessary [9].

One way that providers can save money is to digitize billing processes such as benefit verification, denial management, and claims submission. A benefit verification that is done electronically costs 49 cents per patient. Comparatively, the same process done manually costs 8 dollars. It is estimated that providers could save 9.4 dollars annually by transitioning to electronic processing [21].

One example in which digitized processes are being used to streamline billing processes effectively is at the Phoenix Childrens Hospital in Arizona. They use a tool that automatically converts the clinical notes in the electronic health record (EHR) system to billable diagnostic codes [21].

14 FRAUD AND ABUSE

Common types of fraud and abuse include: billing for services that are not rendered, billing for more expensive procedures than were actually delivered, and the performance of unnecessary services.

In the past, the process of identifying misrepresented claims was tedious and time consuming. Big Data analytics makes it possible to easily identify and tag such claims. According to an article by RevCycle Intelligence, when there is repeated misrepresentation of some key fact or event, patterns are created in the data that can be detected by comparing the information to legitimate claims [10]. Anthem Health Insurance, one of the nations biggest insurance payers, uses big data and machine learning algorithms to tag suspicious claims as the claims are being processed. Tagged claims are then sent to clinical coding experts for review. The objective is to identify and address fraudulent claims before they are actually paid [10].

The Center for Medicare and Medicaid Services used predictive data analytics to identify and recover 210.7 million [22] in health care fraud in 2015. They did this by assigning risk scores to claims and providers via algorithms. This enabled the identification of abnormal billing patterns in claim submissions [10].

United Healthcare realized a 2200 percent return on their investment in a Hadoop Big Data platform that was used to identify and tag inaccurate claims using a systemic and repeatable methodology [22].

Other uses of Big Data analytics in fighting fraud and abuse include: identifying links between providers to access whether an identified unethical activity is being practiced by related providers, identification of a hospitals overutilization of services in a short time period, recognizing patients who are receiving health care services from different hospitals in different locations at the same time, and detecting prescriptions that are filled for the same patient in multiple locations at the same time. Big Data analytics can also utilize machine learning algorithms combined with historical information to detect trends in anomalies and suspicious data patterns.

15 GENOMICS ANALYTICS

Big data is playing a major role in the field of genomics and precision medicine. These technologies are helping clinicians choose the best treatment plan for individuals based upon their genetic makeup. Combining data from electronic health records (EHRs), clinical trials, and genetic testing gives researchers information to develop more effective treatments for complex diseases such as cancer and diabetes [25], and HIV. Genetic testing that has been made possible by the mapping of the human genome will cut costs and improve survival rates [1].

One area in which genomics can have a dramatic impacts is in pharmaceuticals management. In the United States, 300 million dollars are spent annually on pharmaceuticals. Studies indicate that between 20 to 75 percent of patients are not responsive to prescribed drug therapies. This can often be contributed to incorrect dosing or drug mismatches. However, 50 percent of the time it is because of a molecular mismatch between the patient and the drug. According to Alan Mertz, president of the American Clinical Laboratory Association, an estimated 30 to 110 billion can be saved

by using genetic test to select a drug that is a precise match for the genetics of the patient. By using each patients unique genomic profile, therapy can become more targeted and the instances of inappropriate care will be reduced [1].

For breast cancer patients, genetic testing can identify which 30 percent of women of an overabundance of the HER2 protein. Regular chemotherapy will not help these women, but a drug called Herceptin does. Having this information not only provides doctors with the information they need to prescribe the correct medication, it enables thousands of women avoid needless harsh, expensive chemotherapy treatment. As a result, genetic testing has been shown to reduce the risk of death by 33 percent and the risk of recurrence by 52 percent for breast cancer patients. The resulting savings are estimated to be 24 thousand dollars per patient [1].

Genetic tests can help physicians select the appropriate drug for patients with metastatic colon cancer. According to one estimate, 700 million dollars could be saved annually be obtaining this information before administering treatment [1].

According to a 2006 Brookings/AEI estimate, using genetic tests to determine the appropriate dose of the blood thinner, warfarin, could save the United States 1.1 billion dollars annually. According to a study in June 2010 by the Journal of American College of Cardiology, this test could reduce hospital admissions that are caused by inaccurate dosages by 31 percent [1].

Genomic technology is also good for the United States economy. According to Battelle, a global research organization, human genome sequencing projects generated 796 billion in economic output, 244 billion in personal income and 3.8 million job-years of employment in the United States [1].

The process of gene sequencing continues becomes more efficient and cost effective. It is expected to become a regular part of medical care in the near future [15].

16 TELEMEDICINE

Telemedicine is receiving medical treatment and advice remotely, on a computer over the internet with a physician [12]. Telemedicine has been in the market for 40 years, but the with availability of internet connected technology such as smartphones, wireless devices, and video conferences, it is becoming commonplace. It is primarily used for initial diagnosis, remote patient monitoring, and medical education. However, it is also being used for more complicated care such as telesurgery. Telesurgery is a technique in which doctors perform surgery via robots with the assistance of high speed real time data delivery technology [34].

Telemedicine is especially beneficial to patients who live in rural communities who may have to travel long distances to see a doctor or specialist. Telemedicine also gives doctors who are located in multiple locations the ability to discuss and share information. Telemedicine facilitates medical education by giving caregivers the ability to observe and be trained by subject experts no matter where their location.

Telemedicine has the potential to significantly reduce costs by reducing the number of outpatient and hospital visits [38].

17 USE CASES

Valence Health has built a data lake that they use as their primary data repository using a MapR Converged Data Platform. The system includes 3000 inbound data feeds and contains 45 different types of data including: lab test results, patient vitals, prescriptions, immunizations, pharmacy benefits, claims information from doctors and hospitals. The system reports dramatically better system performance than legacy system technology. For example, previously, it took 22 hours to process 20 million laboratory records. Now the processing time for the same number of records is 20 minutes. In addition, the new system requires less hardware [22].

The National Institute of Health developed a data lake which combines data sets from separate institutions. Now that all of the data is housed in the same location, analysis is more efficient and can be more easily shared [22].

United Healthcare uses Hadoop to maintain a platform with tools that they use to analyze information generated from claims, prescriptions, provider contracts, plan subscriber, and review information [22].

Novartis, a global healthcare company, uses Hadoop and Apache Spark to build a workflow system that aids in the integration, processing, and analysis of Next Generation Sequencing research as it relates to Genomic Analytics [22].

18 CHALLENGES

One of the most compelling challenges is clinicians willingness and ability to change behavior based upon the information provided by the data. Studies have shown that it takes more than a decade of compelling clinical evidence before a new finding becomes common clinical practice. Therefore, we need to do a better job of working with clinicians on finding ways to use the data to provide higher quality care [17].

In health care, the privacy, security, and confidentiality of the patient is paramount [15]. Big data technology has inconsistent security technology. The Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act (HIPPA) is a federal law that was passed in 1996 that sets a national standards to protect the confidentiality of medical records and personal health information. The HIPAA law is applicable to any component of the information can be used to identify a person. The protections apply to both electronic and non-electronic forms of information [32]. HIPAA regulations make it a federal offense to breach patient security. It is important to work with vendors who understand the importance of security [15]. Liason Technologies is one company that provides solutions to the healthcare and life sciences industry that has experience meeting the HIPAA security requirements [22].

Health care data has inconsistent formatting and definitional issues [17]. There is proliferation of data formats and data representations. There are inconsistent variable definitions. A value may have different meanings for different groups. For example, a cohort definition for an asthmatic patient often differs from one group of clinicians to another [16]. Big data has the challenge of bringing all of this information together.

Another issue is lack of technical experts. The manipulation and extraction of data from often unstructured data sets require special knowledge. There have been some recent changes in tooling that

will make it easier for individualized with less specialized skills to manipulate the data. For example, Big data is starting to use include SQL as a tools for querying and data manipulation. Examples are Microsoft Polybase, Impala, and SQL Hadoop [15].

19 CONCLUSION

Big data analytics has huge potential to save the United States billions of dollars in health care costs while drastically improving health outcomes. Vast amounts of information is being captured, stored and combined in ways that offer insights have never before been possible. Innovative Big data tools are reducing medical waste, decreasing medical errors, fighting fraud, and keeping people healthier. Value based reimbursement solutions have the potential to revolutionize the health delivery system in the United States by motivating providers to find ways to deliver the best possible medical care with the most economical use of resources. The development of most of these tools is only in the preliminary stage. Therefore, we are only beginning to realize some of the potential benefits. Big data really does have the potential to bend the cost curve. Big data in health care is here to stay.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The author would like to thank Dr. Gregor von Laszewski and the teaching assistants in the Data Science department at Indiana University for their support and suggestions to write this paper.

REFERENCES

- [1] American Clinical Library Association. 2011. Genetic Testing Can Help the United States Cut Costs and Improve Care. Web page as article. (July 2011). <https://www.prnewswire.com/news-releases/genetic-testing-can-help-the-us-cut-costs-and-improve-health-care-126105103.html>
- [2] American Economic Association. 2017. Would Price Transparency Lower Health-care Costs. Web page as article. (Feb. 2017). <https://www.aeaweb.org/research/health-care-price-transparency>
- [3] Effros Rachel M Palar Kartika Keeler Emmett B Bentleu, Tanya. 2018. Waste in the US Health System - A conceptual framework. *The Milbank Quarterly* 86 (Dec. 2018), 629–659. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC2690367/>
- [4] Business Insider. 2016. Why the Price of Prescription drugs in the US is Out of Control. Web page as article. (Aug. 2016). <http://www.businessinsider.com/why-the-us-pays-more-for-prescription-drugs-2016-8>
- [5] Christian Ofori Boateng. 2016. Top 3 Ways Big Data Helps Decrease the Cost of Health Care. Web page as Article. (Nov. 2016). <https://go.christiansteven.com/top-3-ways-big-data-helps-decrease-the-cost-of-health-care>
- [6] CIO. 2015. How Big Data can save 400 billion in healthcare costs. Web page as Article. (Oct. 2015). <https://www.cio.com/article/2993986/big-data-how-big-data-can-help-save-400-billion-in-healthcare-costs.html>
- [7] CMS Centers for Medicare and Medicaid Services. 2017. Accountable Care Organizations. Web page. (Nov. 2017). <https://www.cms.gov/Medicare/Medicare-Fee-for-Service-Payment/ACO/>
- [8] Consumer Reports. 2014. Why is Healthcare so Expensive. Web page. (Sept. 2014). <https://www.consumerreports.org/cro/magazine/2014/11/it-is-time-to-get-mad-about-the-outrageous-cost-of-health-care/index.htm>
- [9] DataFloq. 2016. Five ways Big Data in reducing healthcare costs. Web page as article. (March 2016). <https://datafloq.com/read/5-ways-big-data-reducing-healthcare-costs/89>
- [10] Datameer. 2017. The Role of Big Data in Preventing Healthcare Fraud, Waste, and Abuse. Web page as article. (Sept. 2017). <https://www.datameer.com/company/datameer-blog/role-big-data-preventing-healthcare-fraud-waste-abuse/>
- [11] Digitalist. 2016. Can Big Data Analytics Save Billions in Healthcare Costs. Web page as Article. (Feb. 2016). <http://www.digitalistmag.com/resource-optimization/2016/02/29/big-data-analytics-save-billions-in-healthcare-costs-04037289>
- [12] Forbes. 2015. How Big Data is changing Healthcare. Web page as Article. (April 2015). <https://www.forbes.com/sites/bernardmarr/2015/04/21/how-big-data-is-changing-healthcare/#427274d12873>
- [13] Forbes. 2016. How an Electronic Health Record can Save Time, Money and Lives. Web page. (Dec. 2016). <https://www.forbes.com/sites/robertpearl/2016/12/01/how-an-electronic-health-record-can-save-time-money-and-lives/2/#4445b8275f57>
- [14] Harvard Business Review. 2014. How Cities are Using Analytics to Improve Public Health. Web page as article. (Sept. 2014). <https://hbr.org/2014/09/how-cities-are-using-analytics-to-improve-public-health>
- [15] Health Catalyst. 2017. Big Data in Healthcare Made Simple: Where it Stands Today and Where its Going. Web page as Article. (Oct. 2017). <https://www.healthcatalyst.com/big-data-in-healthcare-made-simple>
- [16] Health Catalyst. 2017. Five Reasons Healthcare Data is so Complex. Web page as article. (Nov. 2017). <https://www.healthcatalyst.com/>
- [17] Health Catalyst. 2017. Hadoop in Healthcare A no nonsense Q and A. Web page as article. (Nov. 2017). <https://www.healthcatalyst.com/Hadoop-in-healthcare>
- [18] Kayyali, Basel, Knott, David, Kuiken, Steve Van. 2013. McKinsey on Healthcare. Web page as Article. (April 2013). <http://healthcare.mckinsey.com/big-data-revolution-us-healthcare>
- [19] KQED Science. 2015. How San Diego is Using Big Data to Improve Public Health. Web page as article. (Aug. 2015). <https://ww2.kqed.org/futureofyou/2015/08/19/how-san-diego-is-using-big-data-to-improve-public-health/>
- [20] Liaison. 2017. Value Based Healthcare - The patient is the Center but Data is the Key. Web page as blog. (June 2017). <https://www.liaison.com/blog/2017/06/22/value-based-healthcare-patient-center-data-key/>
- [21] Managed Healthcare Executive. 2017. Five ways to reduce healthcare administrative costs. Web page as article. (April 2017). <http://managedhealthcareexecutive.modernmedicine.com/managed-healthcare-executive/news/five-ways-reduce-healthcare-administrative-costs>
- [22] McDonald, Carol. 2016. How Big Data is Reducing Costs and Improving Outcomes in Healthcare. Web page as Article. (June 2016). <https://mapr.com/blog/reduce-costs-and-improve-health-care-with-big-data/>
- [23] McKinsey and Company. 2013. The Trillion Dollar Prize. Web page as article. (Feb. 2013). <https://healthcare.mckinsey.com/sites/default/files/the-trillion-dollar-prize.pdf>
- [24] McKinsey and Company. 2017. How Big Data can Revolutionize pharmaceutical R and D. Web page as article. (Nov. 2017). <https://www.mckinsey.com/industries/pharmaceuticals-and-medical-products/our-insights/how-big-data-can-revolutionize-pharmaceutical-r-and-d>
- [25] Pacient. 2017. How Big Data Can Improve Health Care. Web page as article. (Nov. 2017). <https://pacient.care/decks/privacy-technology/health-technology/how-big-data-can-improve-healthcare>
- [26] PBSO News Hour. 2012. Health Costs: How the US Compares with Other Countries. Web page as Article. (Oct. 2012). <https://www.pbs.org/newshour/health/health-costs-how-the-us-compares-with-other-countries>
- [27] Practice Fusion. 2017. EHR Adoption Rates 20 Must see stats. Web page as Article. (March 2017). <https://www.practicefusion.com/blog/ehr-adoption-rates/20-must-see-stats>
- [28] OECD Publishing. 2017. *Health at a Glance 2017*. OECD, Paris. http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/health_glance-2017-en
- [29] Raghupathi Viju Raghupathi, Wullianallur. 2014. Big Data Analytics in Healthcare Promise and Potential. *Springer Health Information Science and Systems* 2 (Feb. 2014), 2–3. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC4341817/>
- [30] Rock Health. 2017. The Future of Personalized Healthcare: Predictive Analytics. Web page. (Nov. 2017). <https://rockhealth.com/reports/predictive-analytics/>
- [31] Search Technologies. 2017. Using Big Data Predictive Analytics to Improve Healthcare. Web page as article. (2017). <https://www.searchtechnologies.com/blog/predictive-analytics-in-healthcare>
- [32] Stephen B Thacker. 2003. HIPAA Privacy Rule and Public Health. *CDC* 52 (April 2003), 1–12. <https://www.cdc.gov/mmwr/preview/mmwrhtml/m2e411a1.htm>
- [33] The Common Wealth Fund. 2017. The Affordable Care Act Payment and Delivery System reforms: A progress report. Web page as article. (Feb. 2017). <http://www.commonwealthfund.org/publications/issue-briefs/2015/may/aca-payment-and-delivery-system-reforms-at-5-years>
- [34] The datapine blog. 2017. Nine examples of Big Data Analytics in Healthcare that Can Save People. Web page. (May 2017). <https://www.datapine.com/blog/big-data-examples-in-healthcare/>
- [35] The Wall Street Journal. 2017. How to Research Medical Prices. Web page as article. (Nov. 2017). <http://guides.wsj.com/health/health-costs/how-to-research-health-care-prices/>
- [36] US Department of Health and Human Resources. 2017. EHR Basics. Web page. (Sept. 2017). <https://www.healthit.gov/providers-professionals/learnehr-basics>
- [37] Wikipedia. 2017. Evidence Based Medicine. Web page. (Nov. 2017). https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Evidence-based_medicine
- [38] Wikipedia. 2017. Telemedicine. Web page. (Nov. 2017). <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Telemedicine>
- [39] Zane Benefits. 2017. FAQ - How much does Individual Insurance cost. Web page. (Nov. 2017). <https://www.zanebenefits.com/blog/bid/97380/faq-how-much-does-individual-health-insurance-cost>


```
latex report
```

```
[2017-12-08 04.03.30] pdflatex report.tex
```

```
This is pdfTeX, Version 3.14159265-2.6-1.40.17 (TeX Live 2016) (preloaded format=pdflatex)
Typesetting of "report.tex" completed in 1.0s.
```

```
./README.yml
```

```
53:20     error      no new line character at the end of file (new-line-at-end-of-file)
```

```
Compliance Report
```

```
name: Judy Phillips
```

```
hid: 332
```

```
paper1: Oct 31 2017 100%
```

```
paper2: 100%
```

```
project: 100%
```

```
yamlcheck
```

```
wordcount
```

```
10
```

```
wc 332 project 10 8954 report.tex
```

```
wc 332 project 10 9330 report.pdf
```

```
wc 332 project 10 1551 report.bib
```

```
find "
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find footnote
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find input{format/i523}
```

```
4: \input{format/i523}
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find input{format/final}
```

```
passed: False
```

```
floats
```

```
figures 0  
tables 0  
includegraphics 0  
labels 0  
refs 0  
floats 0
```

```
True : ref check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
```

```
True : label check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
```

```
True : include graphics passed: (figures >= includegraphics)
```

```
True : check if all figures are refered to: (refs >= labels)
```

```
Label/ref check
```

```
passed: True
```

```
When using figures use columnwidth
```

```
[width=1.0\columnwidth]
```

```
do not change the number to a smaller fraction
```

```
find textwidth
```

```
passed: True
```

```
below_check
```

```
bibtex
```

label errors

bibtex errors

This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)

The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux

The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Database file #1: report.bib.bib

Warning--string name "sept" is undefined

--line 126 of file report.bib.bib

Too many commas in name 1 of "Bentleu,Tanya, Effros, Rachel M, Palar, Kartika, Keeler, E while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Bentleu,Tanya, Effros, Rachel M, Palar, Kartika, Keeler, E while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Bentleu,Tanya, Effros, Rachel M, Palar, Kartika, Keeler, E while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Bentleu,Tanya, Effros, Rachel M, Palar, Kartika, Keeler, E while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Bentleu,Tanya, Effros, Rachel M, Palar, Kartika, Keeler, E while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Bentleu,Tanya, Effros, Rachel M, Palar, Kartika, Keeler, E while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Bentleu,Tanya, Effros, Rachel M, Palar, Kartika, Keeler, E while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Bentleu,Tanya, Effros, Rachel M, Palar, Kartika, Keeler, E while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Bentleu,Tanya, Effros, Rachel M, Palar, Kartika, Keeler, E while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Bentleu,Tanya, Effros, Rachel M, Palar, Kartika, Keeler, E while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Bentleu,Tanya, Effros, Rachel M, Palar, Kartika, Keeler, E while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Bentleu,Tanya, Effros, Rachel M, Palar, Kartika, Keeler, E while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Bentleu,Tanya, Effros, Rachel M, Palar, Kartika, Keeler, E while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Bentleu,Tanya, Effros, Rachel M, Palar, Kartika, Keeler, E

Too many commas in name 1 of "Bentleu,Tanya, Effros, Rachel M, Palar, Kartika, Keeler, E
while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Bentleu,Tanya, Effros, Rachel M, Palar, Kartika, Keeler, E
while executing---line 3131 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Bentleu,Tanya, Effros, Rachel M, Palar, Kartika, Keeler, E
while executing---line 3131 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

(There were 40 error messages)

bibtex_empty_fields

entries in general should not be empty in bibtex

find ""

passed: True

ascii

=====

The following tests are optional

=====

Tip: newlines can often be replaced just by an empty line

find newline

passed: True

cites should have a space before \cite{} but not before the {

find cite {

passed: True

Using Machine Learning Classification of Opioid Addiction for Big Data Health Analytics

Sean M. Shiverick

Indiana University Bloomington

smshiver@indiana.edu

ABSTRACT

Classification of opioid misuse and abuse can identify important features relevant for predicting drug addiction and overdose death. Machine learning procedures were applied to data from a large National Survey of Drug Use and Health (NSDUH-2015) to classify individuals for illicit opioid use according to demographic characteristics and mental health attributes (e.g., depression). Classification models of opioid addiction can be extended for big data health analytics to include high-dimensional datasets, data collected over previous years, or expanded to the larger population of patients taking prescription opioid medication. The results seek to raise awareness of risk factors related to opioid addiction among patients and medication prescribers, and help decrease the risk of opioid overdose death.

KEYWORDS

Big Data, Health Analytics, Classifier Algorithms, Opioid Addiction, i523, hid335

1 INTRODUCTION

Big Data offers tremendous potential to fuel innovation and transform society. Can this momentum be harnessed to address a serious health crisis such as the opioid overdose epidemic? [7] Health informatics is generating huge amounts of data at a rapid pace, from electronic medical records (EMRs), clinical research data, to population-level public health data [5]. This project considers health analytics from two levels, the research questions being addressed and the data used to answer them. The question of interest in this project is whether opioid dependency and addiction can be predicted from demographic attributes and psychological characteristics. Survey research provides data on a wide range of issues that people may be reluctant to disclose, including mental health disorders, personal medical health concerns, prescription medications, and illicit drug use. Responses to surveys may be biased to some degree, but measures of confidentiality and anonymity help to assure more accurate disclosures. The goal of this project is to use machine learning procedures to classify individuals susceptible to opioid abuse and dependence. Understanding the features that contribute to opioid addiction can identify underlying risk factors and increase awareness of potential opioid abuse for patients and health care providers. The results could be extended to big data from previous years of the opioid crisis and to the larger population of patients taking prescription opioid mediation. Different machine learning classification methods are discussed.

1.1 Opioid Overdose Epidemic

The abuse of prescription opioid medication in the U.S. has become a major health crisis of epidemic proportions [26]. Over 2 million Americans were dependent or abused prescription opioids such as oxycodone or hydrocodone in 2014[3]. Overdose deaths from prescription opioids have quadrupled since 1999, resulting in more than 180,000 deaths between 1999 to 2015 [11]. Drug overdose deaths increased significantly for males and females, between 25-44 years, ages 55 and older, for Non-Hispanic Whites and Blacks, in the Northeast, Midwest, and Southern regions of the U.S. [7]. Mobile health applications can monitor patient medication consumption and provide an early warning system for potential abuse, detecting sudden changes in medications, higher dosages, or rapid escalation of a prescribed dosage [25]. Reliable information about medication dosages can be difficult to obtain based on self-reports. Individuals dependent or addicted to prescription opioids may obtain synthetic opioids such as fentanyl or illicit drugs such as heroin. Because the dosage levels and potency of illicit opioids are largely unknown, there is greater risk of drug overdose death. The sharp increase in overdose deaths due to synthetic opioids (other than methadone) has coincided with the increased availability of illicitly manufactured fentanyl, which is indistinguishable from prescription fentanyl. The findings indicate the opioid overdose epidemic is getting worse, and requires urgent action to prevent opioid dependence, abuse and overdose death. The target group for this project is individuals who reported misusing or abusing prescribed opioid medication who also used heroin, shown in Figure 1.

1.2 Machine Learning Approaches

Machine learning is a set of procedures and automated processes for extracting knowledge from data. The two main branches of machine learning are supervised learning and unsupervised learning. Supervised learning problems involve prediction about a specific target variable or outcome of interest. If a given dataset has no target outcome, unsupervised learning methods can be used to discover underlying structure in unlabeled data. The goal of this project is to classify opioid addiction and focuses on supervised learning. Supervised learning is used to predict a certain outcome from a given input, when examples of input/output pairs are available [10]. A machine learning model is constructed from the training set of input-output pairs, to predict new test data not previously seen by the model. The two major approaches to supervised learning problems are regression and classification. When the target variable to be predicted is continuous, or there is continuity between the outcome (e.g., home values, or income), a regression model is used to test the set of features that predict the target variable. If the target is a class label, set of categorical or binary outcomes (e.g., spam or ham, benign or malignant), then classification is used to

predict which class or category label that new instances will be assigned to.

1.3 Classification Algorithms

Comparing the performance of different learning algorithms can be helpful for selecting the best model for a given problem [14]. One of the simplest classification algorithms is K-Nearest-Neighbors (KNN) which takes a set of data points and classifies a new data point based on the distance (e.g., Euclidean, by default) to its nearest neighbors. The main parameter for KNN is the number of neighbors, and k of 3 or 5 neighbors works well. The advantage of the KNN classifier is that it provides a solution that is easy to understand. A limitation of KNN is that it does not perform well with a large number of features (100 or more) or sparse datasets. Several different classification algorithms are considered below.

1.3.1 Logistic Regression Classifier. Logistic regression is a commonly used linear model for classification problems. The decision boundary for the logistic regression classifier is a linear function of the input; a binary classifier separates two classes using along a line, plane, or hyperplane. Linear classification models differ in terms of (1) how they measure how well a particular combination of coefficients and intercept fit the training data, and (2) the type of regularization used [10]. The main parameter for linear classification models is the regularization parameter C. High values of C correspond to less regularization and the model will fit the training set as best as possible, stressing the importance of each individual data point to be classified correctly. By contrast, with low values of C, the model puts more emphasis on finding coefficient vectors (i.e., weights) that are close to zero, trying to adjust to the majority of data points. In addition, the penalty parameter influences the coefficient values of the linear model. The L2 penalty (Ridge) uses all available features, but pushes the coefficient values toward zero. The L1 penalty (Lasso) sets the coefficient values for most features to zero, and uses only a subset of features for improved interpretability. This analysis used a logistic regression classifier to predict Heroin use from demographic attributes, mental health, prescription opioids, medication use, misuse, and illicit drug use.

1.3.2 Tree Based Models. Decision tree models are widely used for classification and regression. Tree models “learn” a hierarchy of if-else questions that are represented in the form of a decision tree. Building decision trees proceeds from a root node as the starting point and continues through a series of decisions or choices. Each node in the tree either represents either a question or a terminal node (i.e., leaf) that contains the outcome. Applied to a binary classification task, the decision tree algorithm *learns* the sequence of if-else questions that arrives at the outcome most quickly. For data with continuous features, the decisions are expressed in the form of, “Is feature x larger than value y?” [10] In constructing the tree, the algorithm searches through all possible decisions or tests, and find a solution that is most informative about the target outcome. A decision tree classifier is used for binary or categorical targets, and decision tree regression is used for continuous target outcomes. The recursive branching process of tree based models yields a binary tree of decisions, with each node representing a test that considers a single feature. This process of recursive partitioning

is repeated until each leaf in the decision tree contains only a single target. Prediction for a new data point proceeds by checking which region of the partition the point falls in, and predicting the majority in that feature space. The main advantage of tree based models is that they require little adjustment and are easy to interpret. A drawback is that they can lead to very complex models that are highly overfit to the training data. A common strategy to prevent overfitting is *pre-pruning*, which stops tree construction early by limiting the maximum depth of the tree, or the maximum number of leaves. One can also set the minimum number of points in a node required for splitting. Another approach is to build the tree and then remove or collapse nodes with little information, which is called *post-pruning*. Decision trees work well with features measured on very different scales, or with data that has a mix of binary and continuous features.

1.3.3 Random Forests Classifier. A random forest is a collection of decision trees that are slightly different from the others, which each overfits the data in different ways. The idea behind random forests is that overfitting can be reduced by building many trees and averaging their results. This approach retains the predictive power of trees while reducing overfitting. Randomness is introduced into the tree building process in two ways: (a) selecting a bootstrap sample of the data, and (b) selecting features in each node branch [10, 14]. In building the random forest, we first decide how many trees to build (e.g., 10 or 100), and the algorithm makes different random choices so that each tree is distinct. The bootstrapping method repeatedly draws random samples of size n from the dataset (with replacement). The decision trees are built on these random samples that are the same size as the original data, with some points missing and some data points repeated. The algorithm also selects a random subset of p features, repeated separately each node in the tree, so that each decision at the node branch is made using a different subset of features. These two processes help ensure that all of the decision trees in the random forest are different. The important parameters for the random forests algorithm are the number of sampled data points and the maximum number of features; the algorithm could look at all of the features in the dataset or a limited number. A high value for *maximum-features* will produce trees in the random forest that are very similar and will fit the data easily based on the most distinctive features, whereas a low value will produce trees that are very different from each other, and reduces overfitting. Random forests is of the most widely used ML algorithms that works well without very much parameter tuning or scaling of data. A limitation of this approach is that Random forests do not perform well with very high-dimensional, data that is sparse data, such as text data.

1.4 Project Goals

The general idea of the project is that prescription opioid dependency and addiction will in many cases lead to the use of illicit opioids such as heroin or fentanyl. According to this reasoning, it was hypothesized that individuals who report using heroin may also be susceptible to misusing or abusing prescription opioid medications. The goal of the study was to identify the set of features important for predicting opioid addiction. The data used in the project is from the National Survey on Drug Use and Health from 2015 (NSUH-

2015) [1], which is the most recent year available. The NSDUH-2015 is a comprehensive survey that covers all aspects of substance use, misuse, dependency, and abuse, including questions related to both prescription medications (opioids, tranquilizers, sedatives) and illicit drugs (e.g., heroin, cocaine, methamphetamine), drug dependency, addiction, and treatment, demographic measures of education and employment, physical health, depression, and mental health treatment. Several classification models were constructed to classify heroin use in the sample by demographics attributes and mental health characteristics (e.g., adult depression). This method addresses the following issues related to opioid dependency and addiction: (i) Identify factors related to illicit opioid use, (ii) Identify factors related to prescription opioid misuse and abuse, and (iii) Examine the relationship between prescription opioid misuse, abuse and heroin use.

2 METHOD

The project workflow pipeline is outlined in a readme markdown file in the project folder [22]. The steps included in the workflow were (1) Download and Extract the Data, (2) Data Cleaning and Preparation, (3) Exploratory Data Analysis, (4) Data Visualization, (5) Analysis of Classification Models for Heroin Use, and (6) Analysis of Classification Models for Prescription Opioid Pain Reliever Misuse.

2.1 Data

Data from the 2015 NSUH was downloaded from the Substance Abuse and Mental Health Data Archive (SAMHDA) [1] URL using the get-data.py function written to unzip the data files, extract the data as a Pandas data frame, and write the file to CSV file [4]. The dataset consists of 57,146 observations with 2,666 features representing individual-level responses from a survey of the U.S. population. According to the NSDUH codebook, sampling was weighted across states by population size for a representative distribution selected from 6,000 area segments. The sample design used five state sample size groups drawing more heavily from the eight states with the largest population (e.g., CA, FL, IL, MI, NY, OH, PA, TX) which together account for 48 percent of total U.S. population aged 12 or older. All identifying information was collapsed (e.g., age categories) and state identifiers were removed from the public use file to ensure confidentiality. The NSDUH public-use files do not include geographic location, or demographic variables related to ethnicity or immigration status. The weighted survey screening response rate was 81.94 percent and the weighted interview response rate was 71.2 percent.

2.2 Data Cleaning and Preparation

2.2.1 Data Cleaning. All steps of this analysis was completed in a python interactive notebook [16] based following examples from *Python for Data Analysis* [9]. After saving the NSDUH-2015 as a data frame object, the dataset was subset by columns to include demographic characteristics (e.g., age category, sex, marital status, education, employment status, and category of metropolitan area), measures of physical health (e.g., overall health, STDs, Hepatitis, HIV, Cancer, hospitalization), mental health (e.g., Adult Depression, Emotional Distress, Suicidal Thoughts, Plans), Suicide Attempts,

Pain Reliever Medication Use, Misuse, and Abuse (over past year, past month), Prescription Opioid Medications Taken in Past year (e.g., Hydrocodone, Oxycodone, Tramadol, Morphine, Fentanyl, Oxymorphone, Demerol, Hydromorphone), Heroin Use, Abuse (over past year, past month), Tranquilizer Use, Sedative Use, Cocaine Use, Amphetamine and Methamphetamine Use, Hallucinogen Use, Drug Treatment (e.g., Inpatient, Outpatient, Hospital, Mental Health Clinic, ER, Drug Treatment Status), and Mental Health Treatment History. A codebook was created to provide a complete list of variables included with summaries of response categories [19]. The following steps were taken to detect and remove inconsistencies in the data [13]:

- (1) Remove missing values (i.e., NaN)
- (2) Recode blanks, non-responses, or legitimate skips (e.g., 99, 991, 993) to zero
- (3) Recode dichotomous responses (e.g., Yes=1 / No=2) so that No=0
- (4) Recode categorical variables to be consistent with amount or degree (e.g., 1=low, 2=med, 3=high)
- (5) Rename selected variables for better description (e.g., Adult Major Depressive Episode Lifetime changed from AMDELT to DEPMELT)

2.2.2 Aggregated Variables. Because the majority of features were represented as dichotomous Yes / No variables, related features were summed to create aggregated variables. For example, overall health, STD, Hepatitis, HIV, Cancer, and hospitalization were aggregated to create a single health measure. The health measure was recoded so that higher scores indicated better health. Questions related to depression, emotional distress, and suicidal thoughts were summed to create a single variable for mental health (MENTHLTH) with scores ranging from 0 to 9. Responses to pain reliever medication use, misuse, abuse, or dependency, were aggregated to create a single variable of pain reliever misuse or abuse (PRLMISAB). All prescription painkiller medications used in the past year were summed. Similarly, all related responses were summed to create single variables for Tranquilizers, Sedatives, Cocaine, Amphetamines, Hallucinogens, Drug Treatment, and Mental Health Treatment. The target outcome of interest for classification, lifetime heroin use (i.e., “Have you ever used heroin before, at any time?”) is a dichotomous variables. The demographic characteristics and aggregated variables were subset and saved to a new data frame consisting of 2 features and 57,146 observations, which was exported to CSV file.

3 RESULTS

3.1 Exploratory Data Analysis

Of the total sample of N=57,146 respondents, 26,736 were male and 30,410 female; 6,343 individuals reported misusing pain medication at some point (570 males, 386 females), but only 956 respondents had used heroin (570 males, 386 females). Table 1 shows the raw counts of individual substance use by age group (with the sample size for each age group), listing the ten most commonly used opioid pain medications, self-reported misuse of prescription opioid pain relievers (i.e., PRL Misuse Ever), use of prescription Tranquilizers, Sedatives, and Methadone. In addition, self-reported use of illicit drugs such as heroin, cocaine, amphetamines, methamphetamine,

Hallucinogens, including LSD and Ecstasy (MDMA). This summary table shows that substance use seems to be highest for individuals between the ages of 18 to 25 and from 35 to 49 years. Of the prescription relievers, Hydrocodone use (e.g., Vicodan) was almost double the rate of Oxycodone use (e.g., Oxycodone) for each age group, and was significantly higher than any other prescription opioid medication. Use of prescription Fentanyl and Demerol, two powerful opioids, and synthetic morphines such as Oxymorphone and Hydromorphone, was very low. The rate of prescription Tranquilizer use was several orders of magnitude higher than Sedative use or Methadone use. Compared to other illicit drugs such as Cocaine, Amphetamines, Hallucinogens, heroin use was not very common in this sample. The highest rates of heroin use were seen between the ages of 18 to 49, and was lowest for respondents in the youngest age group 12 to 17, and individuals over 50.

[Table 1 about here.]

Table 2 shows the frequency of individuals reporting that they had experienced mental health issues such as depression, suicidal thoughts, whether they had received mental health treatment, received treatment from a private therapist, or believed that they needed drug treatment, but had not sought treatment, across each age category. Frequency of depression was not included for respondents between 12 to 17 years, because the survey measure was for adult depression.

[Table 2 about here.]

Figure 1 shows the proportion of individuals who reported misusing prescription opioid pain relievers and who reported using heroin. The left column of the Figure 1 shows the majority of respondents (89 percent) stated they had never misused prescription opioid pain medication or used heroin, although 10 percent reported misusing opioid pain medication at some point. The right panel of Figure 1 shows that, of those individuals who reported using heroin, the proportion who also reported misusing opioid pain medication was almost twice as large as the proportion of those who only used heroin. This is consistent with the hypothesis that misuse of prescription opioids is linked with heroin use for some individuals.

[Figure 1 about here.]

Figure 2 shows the aggregated measure of Opioid Pain Reliever misuse and abuse plotted against the aggregated measure of Heroin use (which includes misuse, abuse, lifetime use, past year use, 30 day use), with weighted regression lines grouped by size of City/Metropolitan region (from none to large). The largest proportion of the sample who report prescription opioid misuse, abuse, and heroin use is represented by observations from large metropolitan areas (red circles) with large population size. However, a small number of observations from rural or small metropolitan regions (blue and green circles) showed very high rates of prescription opioid misuse and abuse. Regression lines (i.e., line of best fit) shown are weighted by the City/Metro region attribute, with a steeper slope shown for smaller metropolitan regions than large metropolitan regions. The difference in slope may be due to the influence of the small number of outliers who had high degrees of prescription opioid misuse, and heroin use. The plot also shows a clear divide on the y-axis, which separates the sample according to high and low or no prescription

opioid misuse, although the continuum of heroin use from no, low, to high is distributed fairly evenly along the x-axis.

[Figure 2 about here.]

Figure 3 shows the pairplots of demographic features including mental health (higher scores equal to more depression), Prescription Opioid Pain Reliever (PRL) Medication (aggregated), Heroin Use (aggregated measure), and Size of City/Metropolitan region. The top row shows that the majority of the sample reported no mental health concerns, whereas a small proportion of the sample reported depression, emotional distress, or suicidal thoughts. Only few people self-described as high in depression reported low Prescription Opioid PRL misuse and abuse. The plot also reveals that prescription opioid misuse and heroin use were distributed approximately evenly for individuals reporting either low, moderate, or high levels of depression, which suggests that depression was not a factor in predicting opioid misuse. The second row shows a small number of individuals from rural areas or small cities who reported very high levels of prescription opioid misuse, although the majority of respondents misusing or abusing prescription opioid were from large metropolitan areas. As described above, the majority of respondents (about 90 percent of the sample) reported they had never misused prescription opioids. In the second row and third and fourth columns, a natural break is seen between individuals who reported high levels of prescription opioid misuse and abuse and those who reported very low or no opioid misuse. A very small proportion of the entire sample reported both misusing and abusing prescription opioids and using heroin, but this is a group of interest. The last column of the second row shows the individuals reporting high levels of opioid misuse and abuse were distributed evenly across city/metropolitan areas of different sizes, with only slightly higher numbers for small cities or rural areas. As stated above, only few participants reported using heroin, and of these, the majority were from large metropolitan areas. Finally, the sample seems to have slightly higher proportions from small and large metropolitan areas, which is likely due to weighted sampling, which drew more from heavily populated regions.

[Figure 3 about here.]

3.2 Classifier Models of Heroin Use

This analysis classified individuals according to whether they had ever used heroin (i.e., "Heroin Use Ever"). All classifier models were constructed using SciKit Learn [10] using an interactive python jupyter notebook [17]. The features of interest were demographic characteristics, health, mental health (adultdepression), prescription opioid misuse and abuse (PRLMISEVR, PRLMISAB, PRLANY), prescription tranquilizers use and sedatives use (TRQLZRS, SE-DATVS), use of illicit drugs (COCAINE, AMPHETMN), drug treatment (TRTMNT), and mental health treatment (MHTRTMT). The target variable was Heroin Use (HEROINEVR). Next, the dataset was split into the training set and test sets using the train-test-split() function in sklearn. Model accuracy for the training set and test set are reported, with different parameter values, and features importance.

3.2.1 Logistic Regression Classifier. Logistic Regression Classification is based on a linear equation that calculates the relative

weight of each feature for a categorical target or binary outcome (yes / no) [14]. The logistic regression classifier was fit to the training data in Scikit-Learn, and the model was validated on the test data. By default, the model applies L2 penalty (Ridge). The training set accuracy was 0.983 and the test set accuracy was 0.984. The parameter ‘C’ determines the strength of regularization, with higher values of C providing greater regularization. The L1 penalty (Lasso) limits the values of most coefficients to zero, creating a more interpretable model that uses only a few features. Figure 4 plots the coefficients of logistic regression classifier for heroin use with the L1 Penalty (Lasso) under different values of parameter C. The default setting, C=1.0, provides good performance for train and test sets, but the model is very likely underfitting the test data. Using a higher value of C fits a more flexible model and generally gives improved accuracy for both training and tests sets. Using a value of C=100 yielded training set accuracy of 0.98 and test set accuracy of 0.98. Figure 4 shows that the features coefficient values did not change much according to the values of parameter C, and the accuracy values were approximately the same for all values of C. Examination of the coefficients from the logistic regression classifier revealed the three features which were most closely associated with Heroin use were: Prescription Opioid Pain Reliever (PRL) Misuse ever (as predicted), Cocaine Use, and Amphetamine use, respectively.

[Figure 4 about here.]

3.2.2 Decision Tree Classifier. The following analysis used the *Decision Tree Classifier* package in Scikit-Learn, which only does pre-pruning. First, the decision model was build using the default setting of a fully developed tree until all leaves are pure. The random state’ features is fixed to break ties internally. Accuracy on the training set was 0.99 and test set accuracy was 0.974. Without restricting their depth, decision trees can become complex; unpruned trees are prone to overfitting and do not generalize well to new data. Limiting the depth of tree decreases overfitting, which results in lower training set accuracy, but improved performance on the test set. Next, pre-pruning was applied, with a maximum depth of 4, which means the algorithm split on four consecutive questions. Training set accuracy of the pruned tree was 0.985 and test set accuracy was 0.984. Even with a depth of 4, the tree can become a bit complex. Figure 5 shows a partial view of the decision tree classifier of heroin use (the entire tree was too wide to include as a legible Figure), and the full tree image is available in the notebook BDA-Analytics-Classifier-Heroin.ipynb [17]. The decision tree shows the top features that the algorithm split on to classify heroin use. One way to interpret a decision tree it by following the sample numbers represented at the test split for each node. The classifier algorithm selected Cocaine Use (aggregated score) as the root node of the decision tree. The branch to the left side of the tree represents samples with a score equal to or less than 1.5 (n=40956), whereas the branch to the right represents samples with a Cocaine Use score greater than 1.5 (n=1903). The second split on the right occurs for Any Prescription Opioid Pain Reliever Use (PRLANY), with n=1443 having a score less than or equal to 3.5, and n=460 respondents with a PRL score greater than 3.5. In other words, of those respondents who reported relatively high Cocaine use, a small portion also reported relatively high Prescription Opioid PRL

use. Instead of looking at the whole tree, features importance is a common summary function that rates how important each feature is for the classification decisions made in the algorithm. Each feature is assigned an importance value between 0 and 1; with a value of 1 indicating the feature perfectly predicts the target and a value of 0 meaning that the feature was not used at all. Feature importance values also always sum to 1. A feature may have a low feature importance value because another feature encodes the same information. The top two important features for classifying Heroin Use were Cocaine Use and Any Prescription Opioid PRL Use, with smaller importance given to Opioid PRL Misuse Ever and Prescription Opioid PRL Misuse and Abuse.

[Figure 5 about here.]

3.2.3 Random Forests Classifier. Random forests is an ensemble approach that builds many trees and averages their results to reduce overfitting. The model was build using the *Random Forest Classifier* package in Scikit-Learn. The parameters of interest for building random forests are: (a) the number of trees (n-estimators), (b) the number of data points for bootstrap sampling (n-samples), and (c) the maximum number of features considered at each node (max-features). The max-features parameter determines how random each tree is, with smaller values of max-features resulting in trees in the random forest that are very different from each other. This analysis applied a random forest consisting of 100 trees to classify Heroin Use, and the random state was set to zero. The training set accuracy was 0.999 and the test set accuracy was 0.984. Often the default settings for random forests work well, but we can apply pre-pruning as with a single tree, or adjust the maximum number of features. Feature importance for random forests is computed by aggregating the feature importance over trees in the random forest, and random forests gives non-zero importance to more features than a single tree. Typically random forests provide a more reliable measure of feature importance than the feature importance for a single tree. Figure 6 shows the feature importance of the random forests classifier for heroin use with 100 trees. Similar to the single tree, the random forest selected Cocaine Use as the most informative feature in the model, followed by Any PRL Use, which is an aggregated measure of prescription opioid medication use. Following after that, several features were tied for third place of importance, namely Education Level, Overall Health, Age Category, and Pain Reliever Misuse and Abuse. Random forests provides much of the same benefit as decision trees, while compensating for some of their shortcomings of overfitting. Single trees are still useful for visually representing the decision process.

[Figure 6 about here.]

3.2.4 Gradient Boosting Classifier Tree. Gradient boosting machines is another ensemble method that combines multiple decision trees for regression or classification by building trees in a serial fashion, where each tree tries to correct for mistakes of the previous one [10]. Gradient boosted regression trees use strong pre-pruning, with shallow trees of a depth of one to five. Each tree only provides a good estimate of part of the data, but combining many shallow trees (i.e., “weak learners”), the use many simple models iteratively improves performance. In addition to pre-pruning and the number of trees, an important parameter for gradient boosting is the

learning rate, which determines how strongly each tree tries to correct for mistakes of previous trees. A high learning rate produces stronger corrections, allowing for more complex models. Adding more trees to the ensemble also increases model complexity. Gradient boosting and random forests perform well on similar tasks and data; it is common to first try random forests and then include gradient boosting to attain improvements in accuracy of the learning model. This analysis used the *Gradient Boosting Classifier* from Scikit-Learn to classify Heroin Use, with the default setting of 100 trees of maximum depth of 3, and a learning rate of 0.1. The model was built on the training set and evaluated on the test set, with both training set and test set accuracy equal to 0.984. To reduce overfitting, pre-pruning could be implemented by reducing the maximum depth, or by reducing the learning rate. Figure 7 shows that the feature importance for the gradient boosting classifier tree looks similar to the feature importance for random forests, but the gradient boosting has decreased the importance of many features to zero. Again Cocaine is selected as the most informative features, followed by Any Opioid PRL Use. In addition to Prescription Opioid PRL Misuse and Abuse, the gradient boosting classifier selected Amphetamine Use as an informative feature of Heroin Use.

[Figure 7 about here.]

3.3 Classifier Models of Prescription Opioid Pain Reliever (PRL) Misuse

This section reports results from the same set of classification analyses described above using *Prescription Opioid Pain Reliever Misuse* (PRLMISEVR) as the target variable. Attributes related to Heroin Use were now included as features (e.g., HEROINEVR, HEROINUSE, HEROINFQY). The classifier models were built using SciKit Learn in a python notebook [18]. The dataset was split into the training set and test sets using the train-test-split function in sklearn and the target variables were designated. Model accuracy for the training set and test set are reported, for different parameter values, with feature importance.

3.3.1 Logistic Regression Classifier. The logistic regression classifier was fit to the training data using the L1 penalty (Lasso), using different values of the regularization parameter C, and the model was validated on the test data. Higher value of parameter C typically gives improved accuracy for both training and tests sets; however, in this case, the training set accuracy was 0.901 and test set accuracy was 0.903, and these values were consistent for all values of parameter C. Figure 8 plots the coefficients of logistic regression classifier for Prescription Opioid PRL Misuse under different values of C. As shown in Figure 8, the features with the highest coefficient values were Treatment (for substance use), Heroin Use (as predicted), as well as Cocaine and Amphetamine use. This result indicates that Prescription Opioid Misuse is positively related to Drug Treatment, meaning that respondents who reported higher levels of opioids misuse were also in treatment, but that people who were misusing opioid medications were also more likely to have used illicit drugs such as heroin, cocaine, and amphetamine.

[Figure 8 about here.]

3.3.2 Decision Tree Classifier. The Decision Tree Classifier package in Scikit-Learn was used to build the tree model, pre-pruning

was applied with a maximum depth of 4, which means the algorithm split on four consecutive questions. The training set accuracy of the pruned tree was 0.902 and test set accuracy was 0.902. Figure 9 shows a partial view of the decision tree classifier of prescription opioid misuse (the full tree is included in the BDA-Analytics-Classifier-PRL.ipynb notebook) [18]. As Figure 9 shows, the decision tree classifier selected Cocaine Use as the root note, that branched by the test score equal to or less than 0.5 (any Cocaine Use). At the second node, on the branch to the right n=5015 samples were further divided according to heroin use, with n=1913 having a score greater than 0.5 (any Heroin Use). At the third node on the right branch, samples were selected according to Tranquilizer medication use, with n=1419 scoring positively. On the left branch, the second node selected was Drug Treatment, with n=2844 respondents scoring positively that they had received Drug Treatment. Feature importance of the decision tree classifier selected Cocaine Use as the most informative feature for Prescription Opioid PRL Misuse. Following afterwards, Tranquilizer Use, Drug Treatment, and Heroin Use were tied for second place.

[Figure 9 about here.]

3.3.3 Random Forests Classifier. The Random Forest Classifier package in Scikit-Learn was used to classify Prescription Opioid PRL Misuse as the target variable, with 100 trees. The model accuracy for the training set was 0.955 and the test set accuracy was 0.896, which suggests that the model overfit the data. Figure 10 shows the feature importance of the random forests classifier for Prescription Opioid PRL Misuse. As Figure 10 shows, several features were identified as important for classifying Prescription Opioid PRL Misuse. The random forest selected Overall Health as the most informative feature in the model, followed by Cocaine Use, Education Level, Age Category, and Size of City Metropolitan region. Because of the additional features included as important, gradient boosting was performed to clarify the feature importance.

[Figure 10 about here.]

3.3.4 Boosted Gradient Classifier. The Gradient Boosting Classifier from Scikit-Learn was used to classify Prescription Opioid PRL Misuse, using the default setting of 100 trees, of maximum depth of 3, and a learning rate of 0.1. The model accuracy for the training set was 0.894 and accuracy for the test set was 0.893. Gradient boosting typically improves test set accuracy by using many simple models iteratively. In this case, model accuracy for gradient boosting was no better than random forests, and this is because the default parameter settings were used; further parameter tuning is needed to improve model performance. Feature importance was a primary interest for identifying features related to 'prescription opioid abuse. Figure 11 shows the feature importance for the gradient boosting classifier tree. As Figure 11 shows, several features were important for classifying prescription opioid misuse, and contrary to the random forests, gradient boosting selected Tranquilizer use as the most informative feature. Following closely in importance were Heroin Use and Age Category. Tied for fourth place were Cocaine Use and Treatment, with Mental Health (depression) coming in fourth in terms of feature importance. This result illustrates that several features are important for understanding Prescription Opioid Misuse, and the relations among features may be complex.

[Figure 11 about here.]

4 DISCUSSION

The results show that rates of prescription opioid use, misuse, and abuse are much higher than use of illicit opioids such as heroin and fentanyl. The use of Hydrocodone (Vicodan) was double the rate of Oxycodone use (Oxycodone) across almost all age groups. The use of traditional prescription opioids was greater than reported use of synthetic opioids. Illicit drug use was highest for respondents between the ages of 18 to 25. In terms of mental health, more individuals between 18 to 25 years reported experiencing a major depressive episode (in adulthood) than any other age group. In terms of the so-called *treatment gap*, almost twice as many respondents between 18 to 25 years who felt a need for substance use treatment, had not received treatment, than younger individuals between 12 to 17 years. The large majority of respondents (approximately 90 percent) had not misused prescription opioid pain relievers or used heroin. However, of those individuals who reported misusing prescription opioid pain relievers, almost twice as many had also used heroin than had not (see Figure 1), which partially supports the hypothesis that prescription opioid use is associated with use of illicit opioids such as heroin. Prescription opioid misuse and heroin use was also higher in large metropolitan areas than smaller cities or rural areas, but a small portion of individuals in non-metropolitan regions reported very high levels of prescription opioid misuse. These data points may represent outliers, but a large sample would allow for analysis of how opioid misuse and addiction differ for smaller rural regions versus large urban areas.

4.1 Comparison of Classifier Models

Several classifier algorithms were used to identify relevant features for predicting heroin use and prescription opioid misuse. Comparing the performance of different algorithms is helpful for selecting the best model. Test set accuracy was comparable across models for both Heroin Use (0.98) and Prescription Opioid PRL Misuse (0.89-0.90). Logistic Regression provided the feature coefficients for different values of the regularization parameter C. The Decision Tree classifier provided an easy to use, interpretable visual of the decisions involved at each step of classification. Random forests provides a more reliable indication of features importance than a single tree, whereas the gradient boosting classifier included additional tuning parameter for a more powerful model and more interpretable analysis of feature importance. Each classifier method provides a different level of analysis. For classifying heroin use, the logistic regression classifier showed that Prescription Opioid PRL Misuse had the highest coefficient value, but the tree-based classifiers each identified Cocaine Use as the most informative feature for predicting heroin use. For classifying Prescription Opioid PRL Misuse, logistic regression showed that Treatment had the highest coefficient value, but the tree based models each differed in selecting the most important features. Decision trees indicated that Cocaine Use was most informative, the random forests classifier selected health as the most important feature, and the gradient boosting model selected Tranquilizer use as most informative of prescription opioid PRL misuse. The different model each have

their advantages and limitations, logistic regression provides the coefficients, but random forests and gradient boosting are helpful for identified sets of important features.

4.2 Study Limitations

The main goal of this project was to identify features relevant for predicting opioid addiction by classifying cases according to heroin use. Only a small proportion of the sample reported having used heroin, and scores for mental health issues were very low. A limitation of survey data is that responses may be biased by under-reporting or minimizing the use of illicit or illegal substances. People may also be reluctant to disclose mental health issues or health problems (e.g., STDs, HIV status, suicide attempts). It is possible that this sample is representative of the frequency of opioid use and misuse in the larger population. Recent statistics from the CDC show that heroin use has increased among most demographics groups, with an average estimated rate of approximately 2.6 percent between 2011-2013 [7]. The rate of heroin use reported in the NSDUH-2015 sample was 1.6 percent. Therefore, it seems that the actual rate of heroin use in the U.S. population may not be accurately reflected in this sample. Another limitation is that the project dataset was constructed as a subset of features from the NSDUH-2015 data. Ninety attributes out of 2666 features in the original data were selected, and many features were combined to create aggregated variables for health, mental health, prescription opioid misuse and abuse, drug treatment, mental health treatment. Future research could include a more comprehensive selection of features to identify the set of features relevant for predicting opioid dependency and addiction. An important challenge for making sense of big data is developing analytic tools adequate to handle large volumes of data.

4.3 Extension to Big Data

A general tenet of big data is that, “More data is always better.” The methods used in this project could be extended to better approximate big data for predicting opioid use in the following ways: (1) Include a larger selection of features from the attributes in the NSDUH-2015 dataset; (2) Include survey data from previous years (e.g., 2005-2015) for a larger sample; and (3) Obtain a broader sample from the population of patients who are taking prescribed opioid medications. The most immediate step would be to include additional features for use with the classifier models. Additional data from the NSDUH was downloaded from previous years (2012 to 2014); preliminary examination of the data revealed inconsistencies in questions and prescription opioid medications that would need to be resolved in order to combine data from multiple years. Data cleaning can be a time consuming process, but important for obtaining usable data. Unfortunately, owing to constraints of time for completing the project, it was not possible to integrate data from previous years into the project dataset. In working with big data, there are several steps involved in the consolidation of data from multiple sources into a single dataset (in addition to data cleaning), which include extraction, integration, and aggregation of features [13]. A future study could integrate data from different years, using a broader set of features, with more inclusive sample

representative of the larger population, and integrate data from multiple sources.

4.4 Opioid Addiction and Epidemic Spreading

Drug addiction has many similar characteristics to other chronic medical illnesses, but there are unique challenges to the treatment of addiction [8, 23]. In drug rehabilitation treatment programs, patients undergo intense detoxification that reduces their drug tolerance, but are then released back into the environments associated with their drug use, putting them at high risk for relapse and potential drug overdose [6]. If the prescription opioid crisis is a genuine epidemic, we must consider the process of spreading or diffusion of contagion. Epidemic spreading is a dynamic process based on networks of direct person-to-person contact and indirect exposure via transportation pathways [2]. Epidemics are quantified in terms of the proportion of the population infected, those yet to be infected, and the rate of transmission. Potentially everyone is at risk of becoming dependent or addicted to prescription medications or illicit opioids. In terms of the opioid epidemic, rather than labeling persons as infected or uninfected, it is more useful to consider people as either susceptible to dependence and addiction or less susceptible. Furthermore, the structure of the contact network can influence epidemic spreading [12]. For example, in the case of simple contagion, weak ties among acquaintances or infrequent associations provide shortcuts between distant nodes that reduce distance within the network [?] which can facilitate the spread of contagion, or in this case drug use. Furthermore, contact networks for drug use may have “small world” properties where a small number of nodes have a high number of connections that can rapidly transmit contagion throughout the network [?]. Network analysis may help to identify the underlying structure of the contact network of opioid use, to examine pathways and points of contact in the misuse and abuse of prescription opioid medications. According to a classical conditioning model of addiction, situational cues or events can elicit a motivational state underlying relapse to drug use. Addictive behavior can be also be reinstated after extinction of dependency by exposure to drug-related cues or stressors in the environment [15]. Future research could use social network modeling to explore how drug dependency and addiction are subserved by patterns of social interaction.

5 CONCLUSION

This project compared several classification algorithms to predict heroin use and prescription opioid misuse and abuse. The results provided partial support for the hypothesis that prescription opioid misuse is associated with the use of illicit opioids such as heroin. Several features were identified as important for classifying heroin use, including Cocaine Use, Amphetamine Use, and any prescription opioid medication use. In regards to predicting heroin use, it appears the use of other illicit drugs such as Cocaine and Amphetamine was perhaps more informative than any prescription opioid use or misuse. Heroin use was selected as important for classifying prescription opioid pain reliever misuse, but additional factors also played a role, including tranquilizer use, age category, overall health, cocaine use. Substance treatment had the largest regression coefficient, suggesting that people who are misusing

prescription opioid pain medication are also more likely to be in drug treatment programs. The direction of these effects cannot be determined owing to the nature of the analyses. On the one hand individual misusing or abusing prescription opioids may also be using heroin. Alternatively, individuals with a susceptibility for opioid use may be equally likely to have used heroin and also to have misused prescription opioids. A general conclusion is that there is that persons who report misusing prescription opioids were twice as likely to have used heroin. The results do not provide sufficient evidence to rule out the alternative hypothesis. Given the relatively low rates of opioid and heroin in this sample, additional evidence is needed to resolve this question. The study can provide information to raise awareness about the risk factors for prescription opioid addiction and may help reduce opioid overdose deaths.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The author would like to thank Dr. Gregor von Laszewski, the Teaching Assistants, Juliette Zurick, Miao Jiang, Hungri Lee, Grace Li, Saber Sheybani Moghadam, and others who helped to improve this project and report.

REFERENCES

- [1] Substance Abuse, Center for Behavioral Health Statistics Mental Health Services Administration, and Quality. 2016. *National Survey on Drug Use and Health (NSDUH) 2015*. Online data archive. United States Department of Health and Human Services., Ann Arbor, MI. <https://doi.org/10.3886/ICPSR50011.v1>
- [2] Vittoria Colizza, Alain Barrat, Marc Barthélémy, and Alessandro Vespignani. 2006. The role of the airline transportation network in the prediction and predictability of global epidemics. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* 103, 7 (2006), 2015–2020. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0510525103> arXiv:<http://www.pnas.org/content/103/7/2015.full.pdf>
- [3] Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. 2017. Prescription Opioid Overdose Data. online. (Oct. 2017). <https://www.cdc.gov/drugoverdose/data/overdose.html>
- [4] hd1 and yoavram. 2016. Python: Download Returned Zip file from URL. Online. (Feb. 2016). <https://stackoverflow.com/questions/9419162/python-download-returned-zip-file-from-url> Stackoverflow.com.
- [5] M. Herland, T. M. Khoshgoftaar, and R. Wald. 2014. A review of data mining using big data in health informatics. *Journal Of Big Data* 1, 2 (2014). <https://doi.org/10.1186/2196-1115-1-2>
- [6] K. Johnson, A. Isham, D.V. Shah, and D.H. Gustafson. 2011. Potential Roles for New Communication Technologies in Treatment of Addiction. *Current psychiatry reports*. (2011). <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11920-011-0218-y>
- [7] Rose A. Judd, Noah Aleshire, Jon E. Zibbell, and R. Matthew Gladden. 2016. *Increases in Drug and Opioid Overdose Deaths, United States, 2000–2014*. techreport 64(50). Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Atlanta, GA. <https://www.cdc.gov/mmwr/preview/mmwrhtml/mm6450a3.htm> Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report (MMWR).
- [8] Lisa A. Marsch. 2012. Leveraging technology to enhance addiction treatment and recovery. *Journal of Addictive Diseases* 31, 3 (2012), 313–318. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10550887.2012.694606>
- [9] Wes McKinney. 2017. *Python for Data Analysis*. O'Reilly Media Inc., Sebastopol, CA. <https://github.com/wesm/pydata-book>
- [10] Andreas C. Müller and Sarah Guido. 2017. *Introduction to Machine Learning*. O'Reilly, Sebastopol, CA. https://github.com/amueller/introduction_to_ml_with_python/
- [11] National Institute on Drug Abuse (NIDA). 2017. *Overdose Death Rates*. Summary. National Institutes of Health (NIH), Washington D.C. <https://www.drugabuse.gov/related-topics/trends-statistics/overdose-death-rates>
- [12] Romualdo Pastor-Satorras and Alessandro Vespignani. 2001. Epidemic Spreading in Scale-Free Networks. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* 86 (Apr 2001), 3200–3203. Issue 14. <https://doi.org/10.1103/PhysRevLett.86.3200>
- [13] E. Rahm and H. Hai Do. 2000. *Data cleaning: Problems and current approaches*. techreport 23(4). Bulletin of the Technical Committee on Data Engineering, 1730 Massachusetts Avenue, Washington D.C. <https://s3.amazonaws.com/academia.edu/documents/41858217/A00DEC-CD.pdf?AWSAccessKeyId=AKIAIWOWYYGZ2Y53UL3A&Expires=1511155930&Signature=VWRM7u4KwTp6ZxX5jB%2Bh6wMCbpg%3D&response-content-disposition:inline%3B%20filename%3DAutomatically-extracting.structure.from.pdf#page=5>

- [14] Sebastian Raschka and Vahid Mirjalili. 2017. *Python Machine Learning, Second Edition*. Packt, Birmingham, UK. <https://github.com/rasbt/python-machine-learning-book-2nd-edition>
- [15] Yavin Shaham, Uri Shalev, Lin Lu, Harriet de Wit, and Jane Stewart. 2003. The reinstatement model of drug relapse: history, methodology and major findings. *Psychopharmacology* 168, 1 (01 Jul 2003), 3–20. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00213-002-1224-z>
- [16] S.M. Shiverick. 2017. BDA Project Data. github. (Nov. 2017). <https://github.com/bigdata-i523/hid335/blob/master/project/BDA-Project-Data.ipynb>
- [17] S.M. Shiverick. 2017. Classification Models of Heroin Use. github. (Nov. 2017). <https://github.com/bigdata-i523/hid335/blob/master/project/BDA-Analytics-Classifier-Heroin.ipynb> Interactive Python Jupyter Notebook.
- [18] S.M. Shiverick. 2017. Classification Models of Prescription Opioid Pain Relievers Misuse. github. (Nov. 2017). <https://github.com/bigdata-i523/hid335/blob/master/project/BDA-Analytics-Classifier-PRL.ipynb> Interactive Python Jupyter Notebook.
- [19] S.M. Shiverick. 2017. Project Codebook for Data Variables from NSDUH-2015. github. (Nov. 2017). <https://github.com/bigdata-i523/hid335/blob/master/project/project-data-codebook.txt>
- [20] S. M. Shiverick. 2017. Exploratory Data Analysis. Github. (Dec. 2017). <https://github.com/bigdata-i523/hid335/blob/master/project/BDA-Project-Explore-Data.ipynb>
- [21] S. M. Shiverick. 2017. Project Data Visualization. Github. (Dec. 2017). <https://github.com/bigdata-i523/hid335/blob/master/project/BDA-Project-Explore-Data.ipynb>
- [22] S. M. Shiverick. 2017. Project Workflow Pipeline. Github. (Dec. 2017). <https://github.com/bigdata-i523/hid335/blob/master/project/readme.md>
- [23] J. Swendsen. 2016. Contributions of mobile technologies to addiction research. *Dialogues Clinical Neuroscience* 18, 2 (June 2016), 213–221. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC4969708/>
- [24] Jake VanderPlas. 2017. *Python Data Science Handbook*. O'Reilly Media Inc., Sebastopol, CA. <https://jakevdp.github.io/PythonDataScienceHandbook/>
- [25] Upkar Varshney. 2013. Smart medication management system and multiple interventions for medication adherence. *Decision Support Systems* 55, 5 (May 2013), 538–551. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dss.2012.10.011>
- [26] Nora D. Volkow, Thomas R. Frieden, Pamela S. Hyde, and Stephen S. Cha. 2014. Medication-Assisted Therapies: Tackling the Opioid-Overdose Epidemic. *New England Journal of Medicine* 370, 22 (2014), 2063–2066. <https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMmp1402780> arXiv:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1056/NEJMmp1402780> PMID: 24758595.

A CODE REFERENCES

All code, notebooks, files, and folders for this project can be found in the i523/hid335/project github repository: <https://github.com/bigdata-i523/hid335/tree/master/project>. An outline of the workflow pipelines was included as a readme.md markdown file [22].

A.1 Download and Extract Data

The get-data.py function was written to download the data, unzip the data files, extract the data, and write the NSDUH-2015 dataset to CSV file [4].

A.2 Data Cleaning and Preparation

Data cleaning and preparation steps was conducted using an interactive python Jupyter Notebook [16] based on examples in Python for Data Analysis [9] and the Python Data Science Handbook [24].

A.3 Exploratory Data Analysis

Exploratory Data Analysis of the NSDUH-2015 dataset was conducted using an interactive python notebook [20] based on examples from Python for Data Analysis [9], and the Python Data Science Handbook [24].

A.4 Data Visualization

Several plots and graphs were constructed in a Data Visualization interactive python notebook [21] using Matplotlib and Seaborn python visualization packages [9, 24].

A.5 Classification Algorithms

Machine learning classification models were constructed using SciKit Learn [10, 14] in two separate Jupyter Notebooks, one for classifier models of Heroin Use as the target variable [17], and another for classifier models of Prescription Opioid PRL Misuse as the target [18].

B ISSUES

DONE:

Example of done item: Once you fix an item, change TODO to DONE

B.1 Assignment Submission Issues

DONE:

Do not make changes to your paper during grading, when your repository should be frozen.

B.2 Uncaught Bibliography Errors

DONE:

Missing bibliography file generated by JabRef

DONE:

Bibtex labels cannot have any spaces, _ or & in it

DONE:

Citations in text showing as [?]: this means either your report.bib is not up-to-date or there is a spelling error in the label of the item you want to cite, either in report.bib or in report.tex

B.3 Formatting

DONE:

Incorrect number of keywords or HID and i523 not included in the keywords

DONE:

Other formatting issues

B.4 Writing Errors

DONE:

Errors in title, e.g. capitalization

DONE:

Spelling errors

DONE:

Are you using *a* and *the* properly?

DONE:

Do not use phrases such as *shown in the Figure below*. Instead, use *as shown in Figure 3*, when referring to the 3rd figure

DONE:

Do not use the word *I* instead use *we* even if you are the sole author

DONE:

Do not use the phrase *In this paper/report we show* instead use *We show*. It is not important if this is a paper or a report and does not need to be mentioned

DONE:

If you want to say *and* do not use & but use the word *and*

DONE:

Use a space after . , :

DONE:

When using a section command, the section title is not written in all-caps as format does this for you

\section{Introduction} and NOT \section{INTRODUCTION}

B.5 Citation Issues and Plagiarism

DONE:

It is your responsibility to make sure no plagiarism occurs.
The instructions and resources were given in the class

DONE:

Claims made without citations provided

DONE:

Need to paraphrase long quotations (whole sentences or longer)

DONE:

Need to quote directly cited material

B.6 Character Errors

DONE:

Erroneous use of quotation marks, i.e. use “quotes”, instead of ” ”

DONE:

To emphasize a word, use *emphasize* and not “quote”

DONE:

When using the characters & # % - put a backslash before them so that they show up correctly

DONE:

Pasting and copying from the Web often results in non-ASCII characters to be used in your text, please remove them and replace accordingly. This is the case for quotes, dashes and all the other special characters.

DONE:

If you see a ffigure and not a figure in text you copied from a text that has the fi combined as a single character

B.7 Structural Issues

DONE:

Acknowledgement section missing

DONE:

Incorrect README file

DONE:

In case of a class and if you do a multi-author paper, you need to add an appendix describing who did what in the paper

DONE:

The paper has less than 2 pages of text, i.e. excluding images, tables and figures

DONE:

The paper has more than 6 pages of text, i.e. excluding images, tables and figures

DONE:

Do not artificially inflate your paper if you are below the page limit

B.8 Details about the Figures and Tables

DONE:

Capitalization errors in referring to captions, e.g. Figure 1, Table 2

DONE:

Do use *label* and *ref* to automatically create figure numbers

DONE:

Wrong placement of figure caption. They should be on the bottom of the figure

DONE:

Wrong placement of table caption. They should be on the top of the table

DONE:

Images submitted incorrectly. They should be in native format, e.g. .graffle, .pptx, .png, jpg

DONE:

Do not submit eps images. Instead, convert them to PDF

DONE:

The image files must be in a single directory named “images”

DONE:

In case there is a powerpoint in the submission, the image must be exported as PDF

DONE:

Make the figures large enough so we can read the details. If needed make the figure over two columns

DONE:

Do not worry about the figure placement if they are at a different location than you think. Figures are allowed to float. For this class, you should place all figures at the end of the report.

DONE:

In case you copied a figure from another paper you need to ask for copyright permission. In case of a class paper, you must include a reference to the original in the caption

DONE:

Remove any figure that is not referred to explicitly in the text (As shown in Figure ..)

DONE:

Do not use textwidth as a parameter for includegraphics

DONE:

Figures should be reasonably sized and often you just need to add columnwidth

e.g.

```
/includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/myimage.pdf}
```

re

LIST OF FIGURES

1	Proportion of Individuals Who Reported Ever Misusing Prescription Opioid Pain Relievers and Proportion Who Reported Using Heroin	13
2	Plot of Opioid Pain Medication Misuse and Abuse and Heroin Use with Regression Slopes Weighted by Metropolitan Area Size	14
3	Pairplots of Mental Health, Prescription Opioid Misuse and Abuse, Heroin Use, and Size of City Metropolitan Area	15
4	Coefficients of Logistic Regression Classifier of Heroin Use (With L1 Penalty and Values of Regularization Parameter C)	16
5	Decision Tree Classification of Heroin Use (Partial View)	17
6	Feature Importance for Random Forests Classifier for Heroin Use	18
7	Feature Importance for Gradient Boosting Classifier for Heroin Use	19
8	Logistic Regression Classification of Prescription Opioid (PRL) Misuse with L2 Penalty	20
9	Decision Tree for Prescription Opioid (PRL) Misuse	21
10	Feature Importance for Random Forest Classifier of Prescription Opioid (PRL) Misuse	22
11	Feature Importance for Gradient Boosted Classifier Tree of Prescription Opioid (PRL) Misuse	23

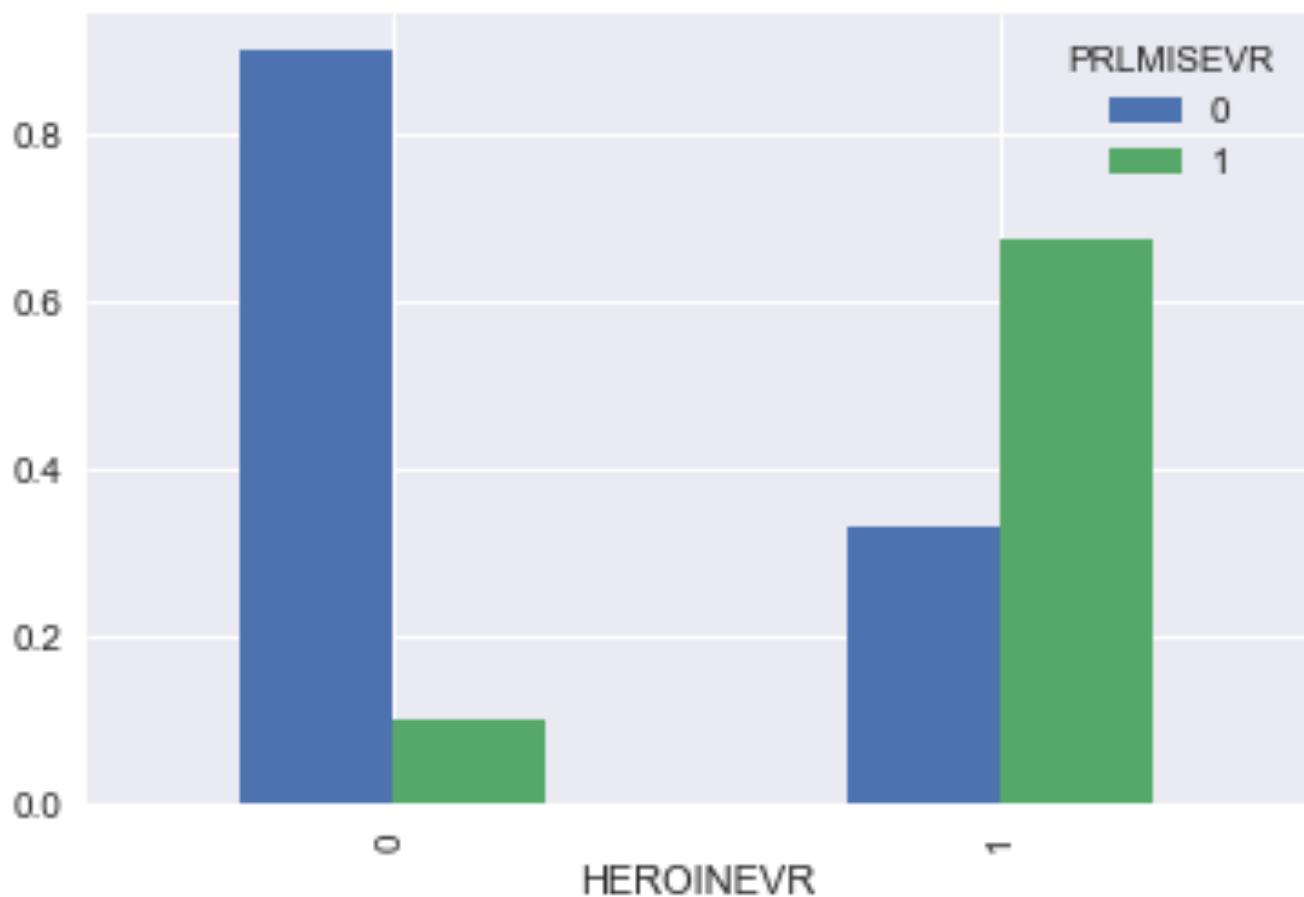


Figure 1: Proportion of Individuals Who Reported Ever Misusing Prescription Opioid Pain Relievers and Proportion Who Reported Using Heroin

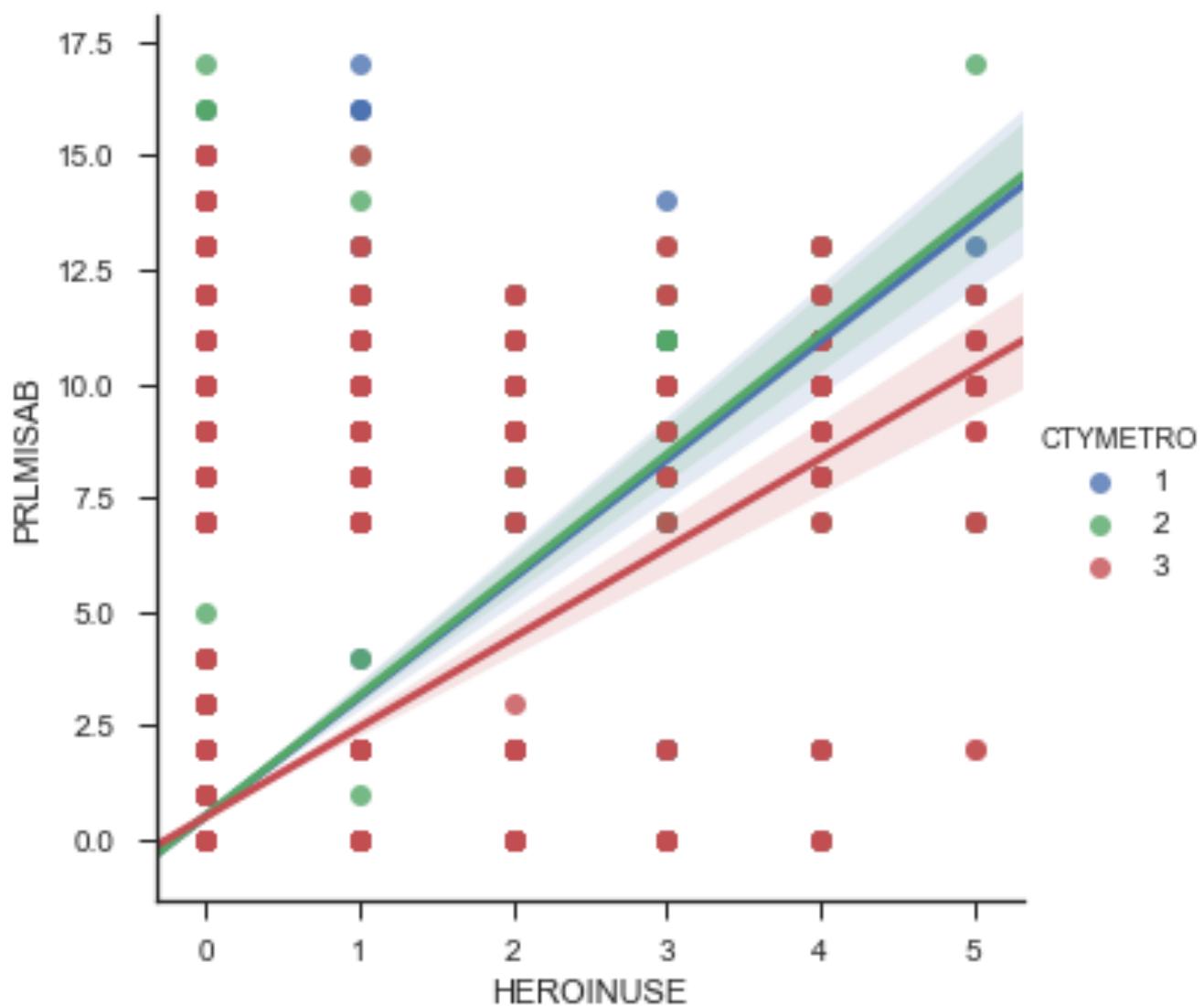


Figure 2: Plot of Opioid Pain Medication Misuse and Abuse and Heroin Use with Regression Slopes Weighted by Metropolitan Area Size

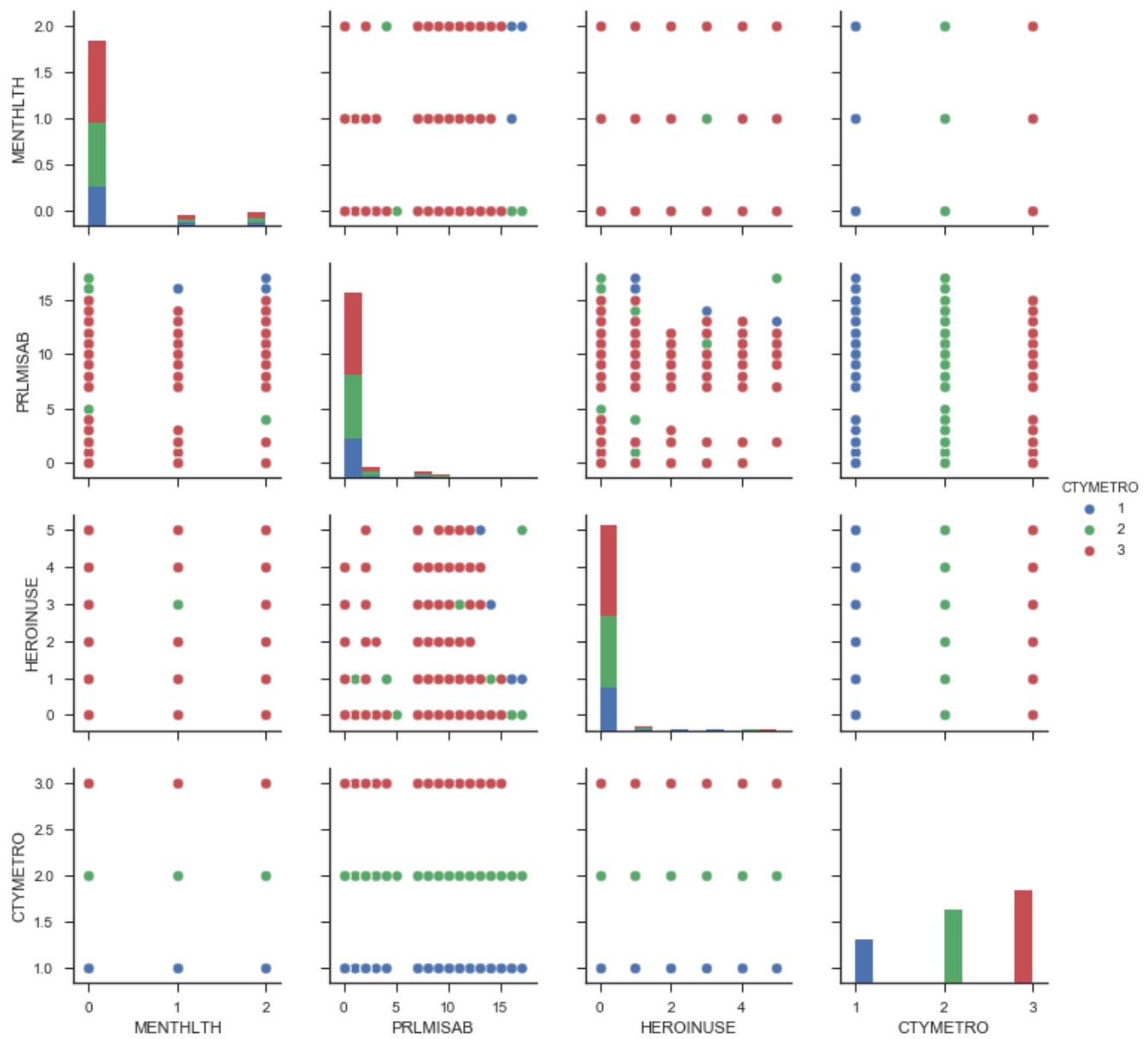


Figure 3: Pairplots of Mental Health, Prescription Opioid Misuse and Abuse, Heroin Use, and Size of City Metropolitan Area

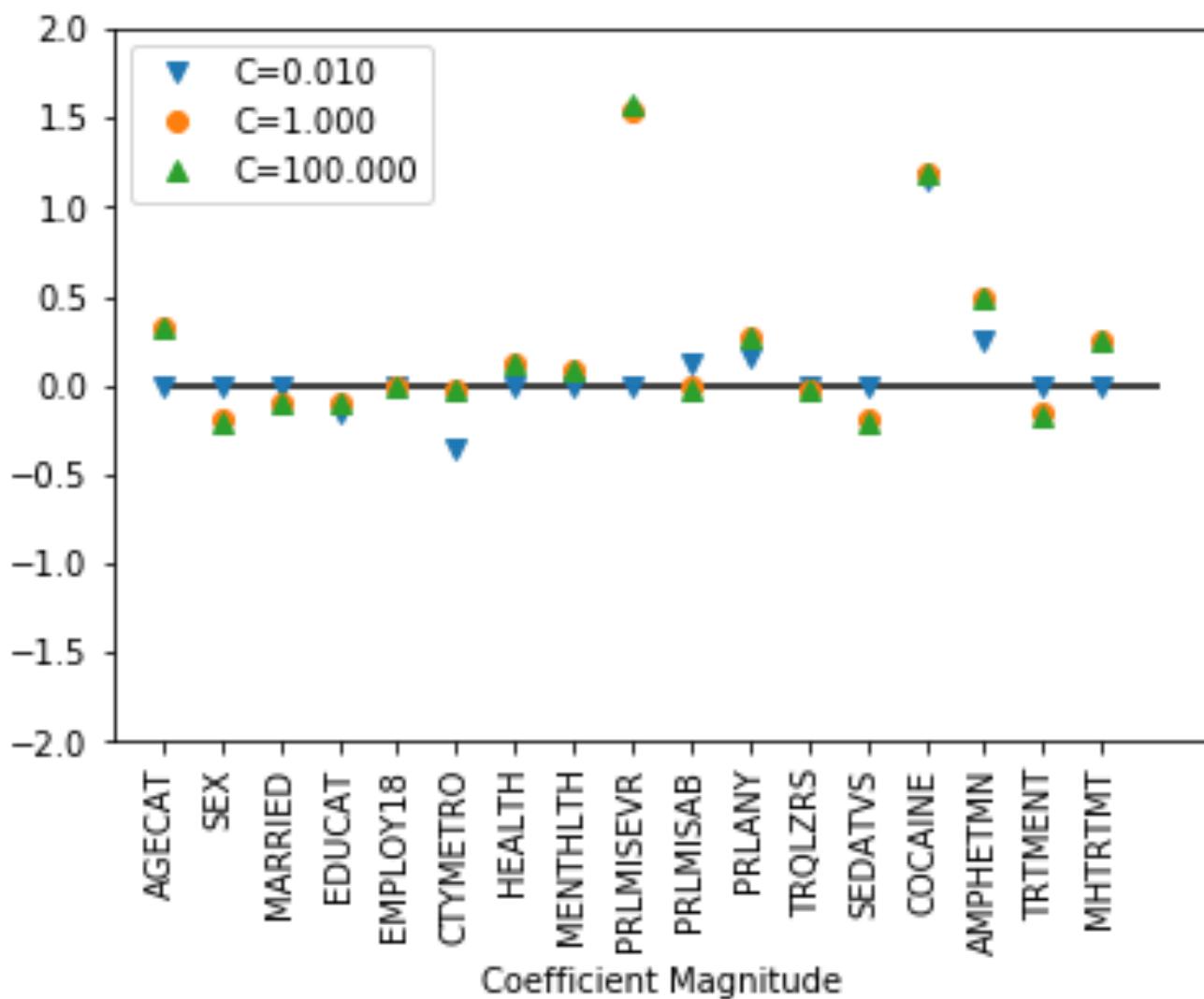


Figure 4: Coefficients of Logistic Regression Classifier of Heroin Use (With L1 Penalty and Values of Regularization Parameter C)

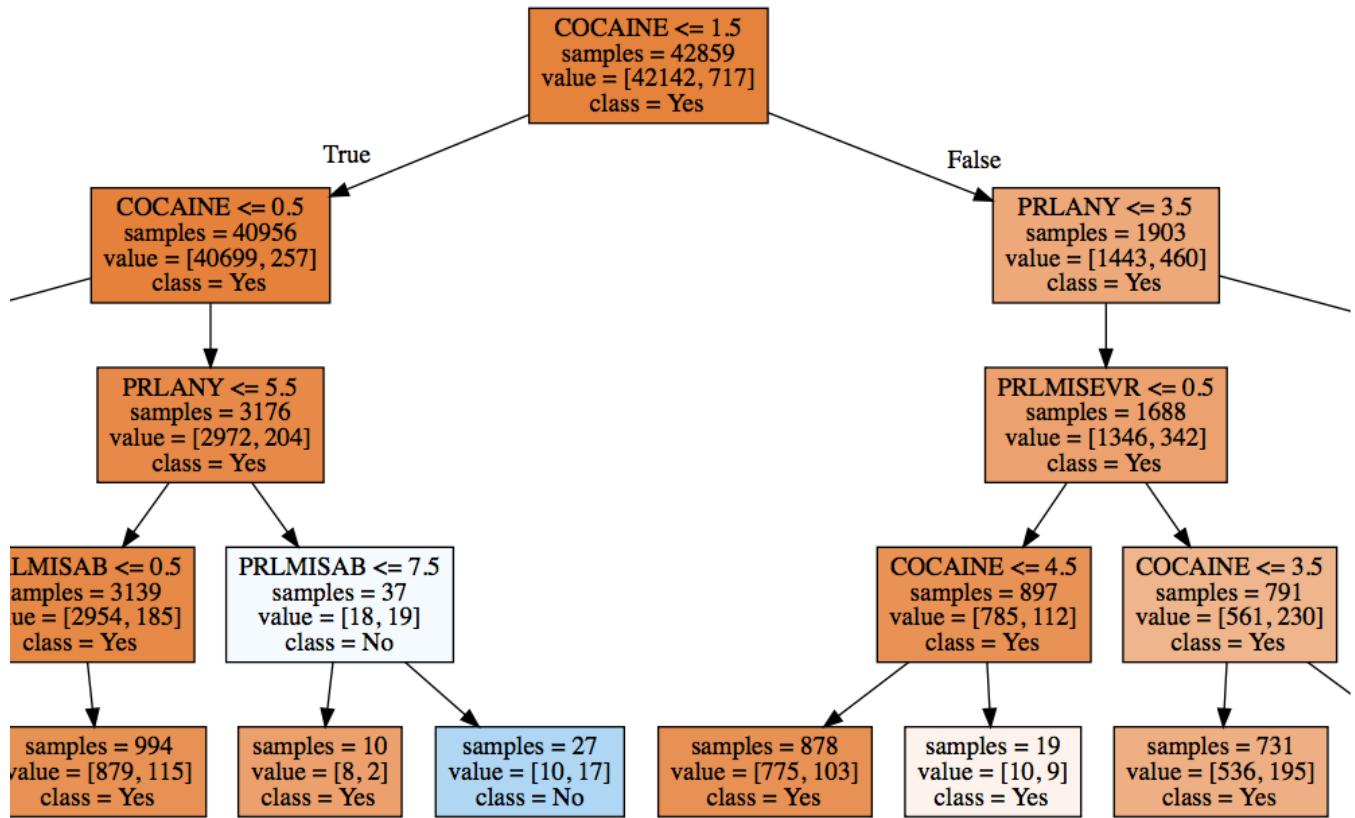


Figure 5: Decision Tree Classification of Heroin Use (Partial View)

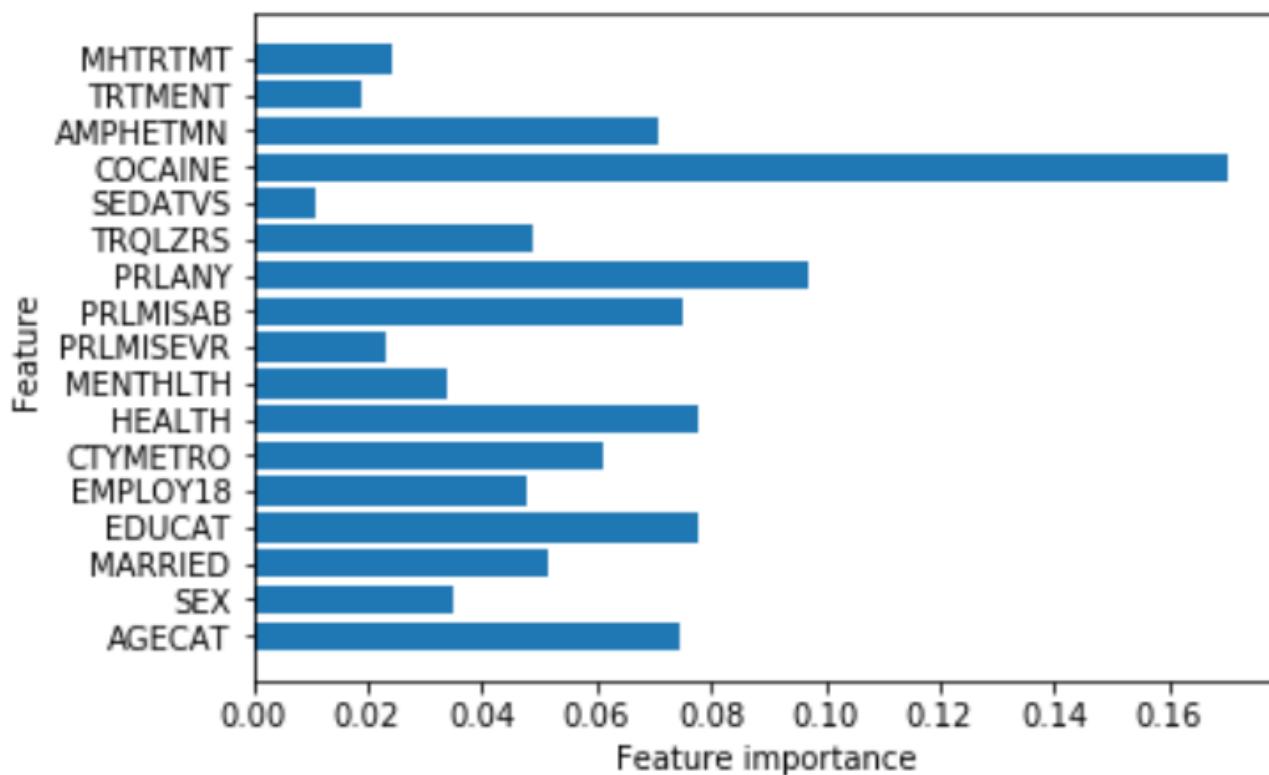


Figure 6: Feature Importance for Random Forests Classifier for Heroin Use

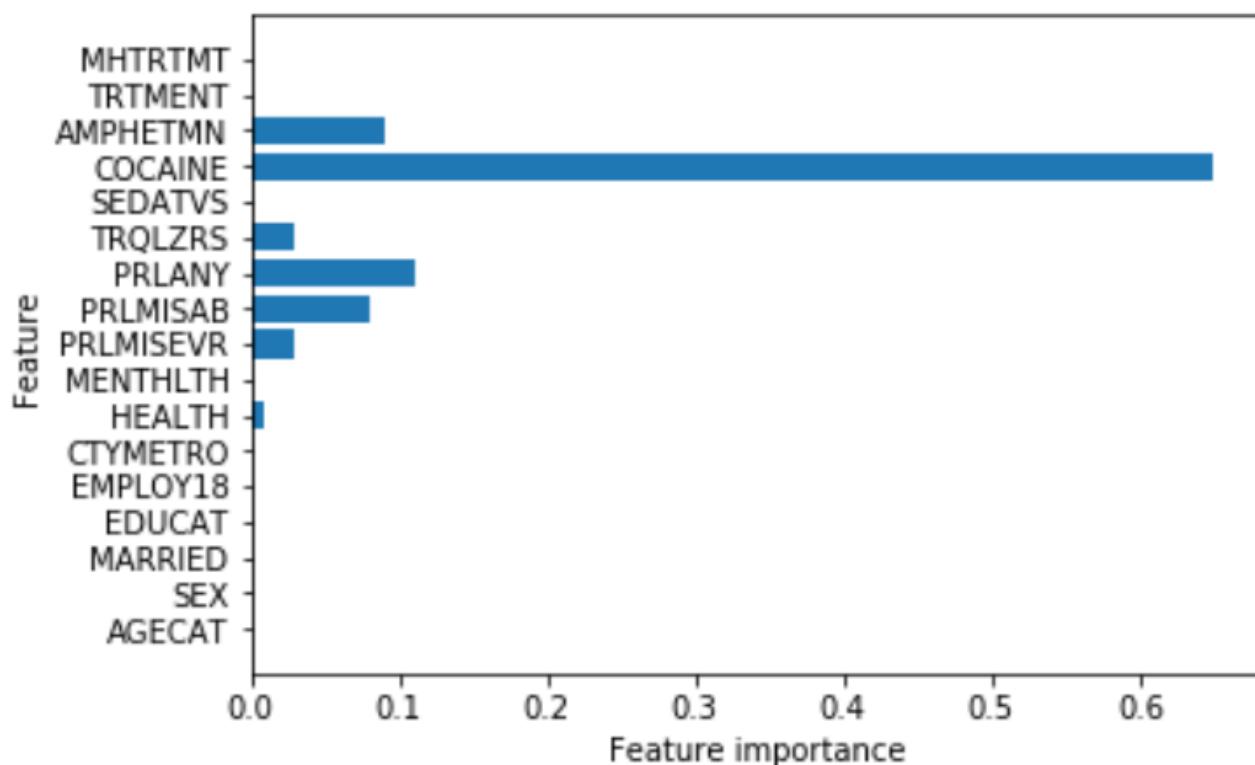


Figure 7: Feature Importance for Gradient Boosting Classifier for Heroin Use

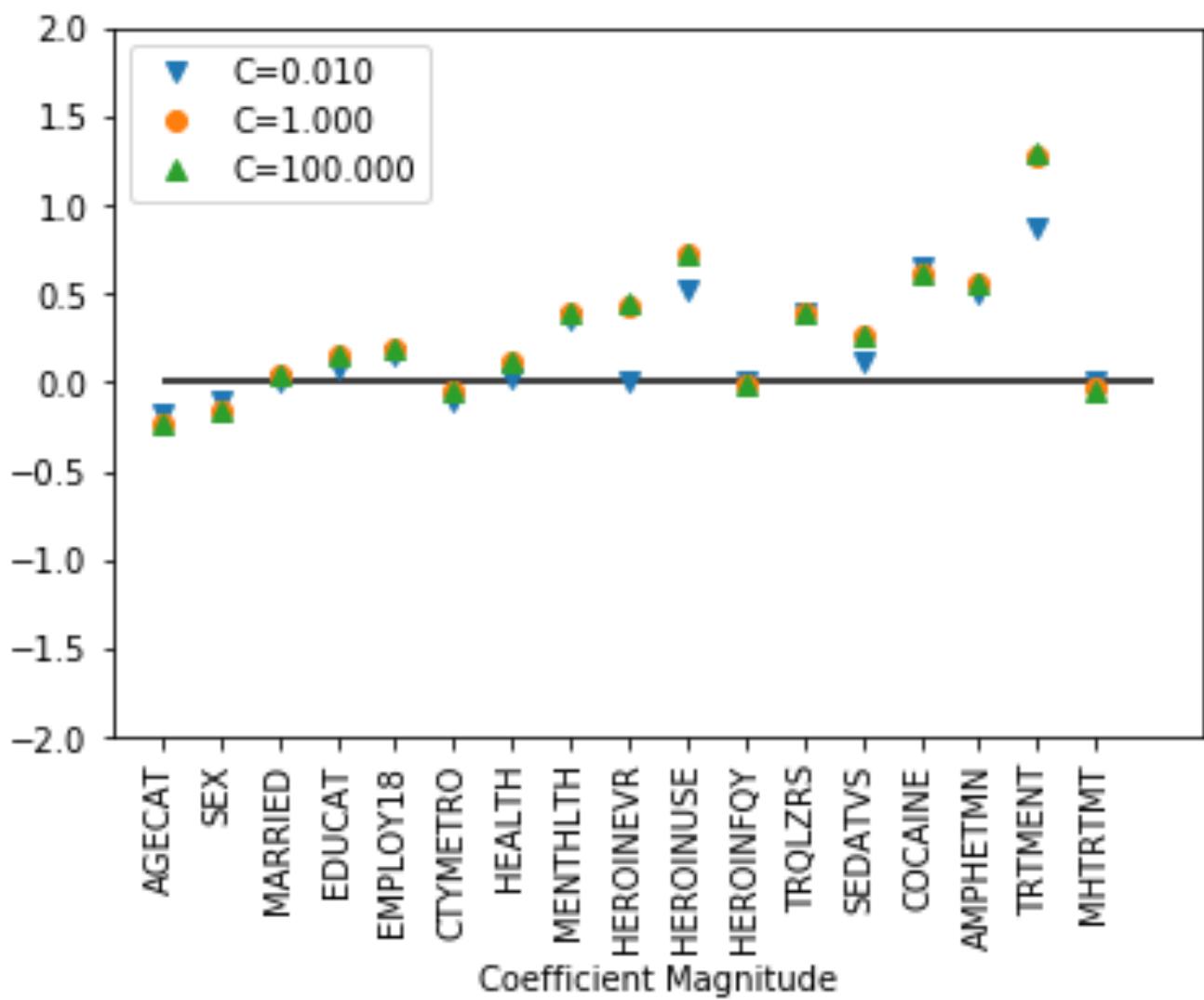


Figure 8: Logistic Regression Classification of Prescription Opioid (PRL) Misuse with L2 Penalty

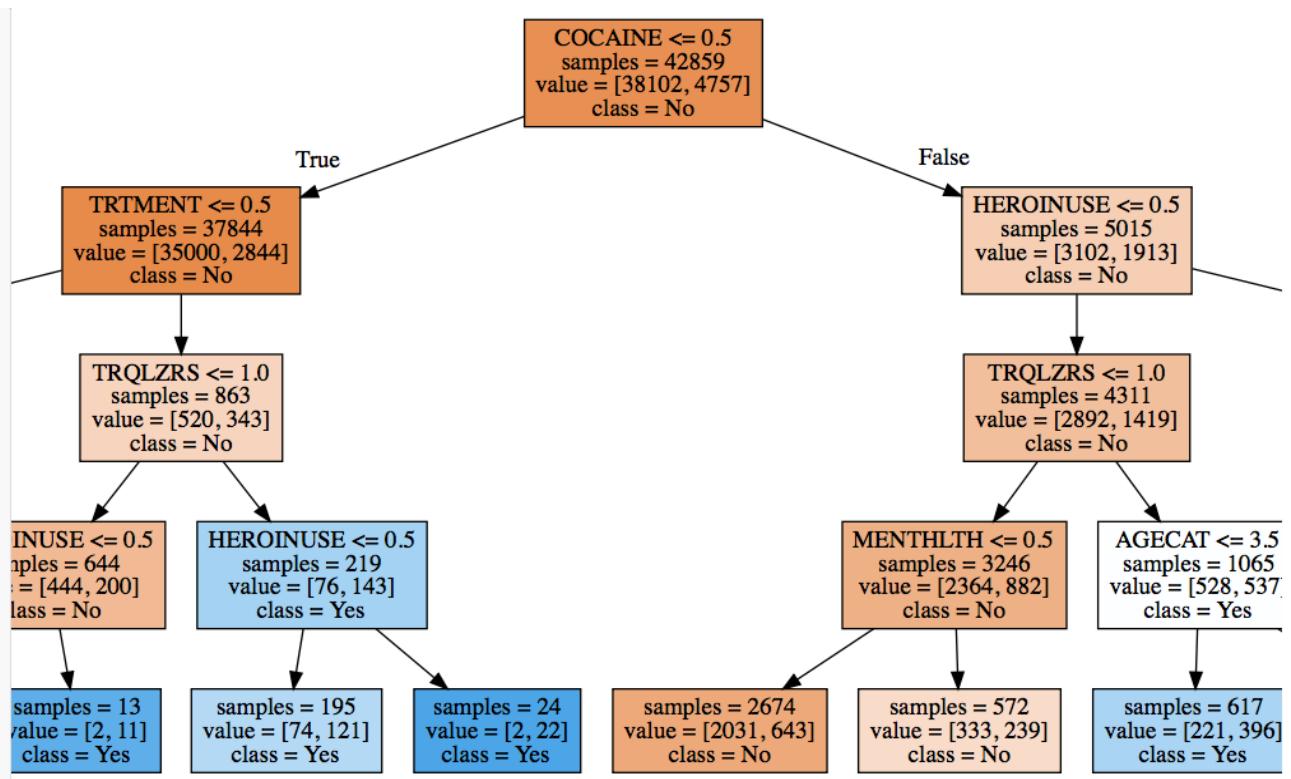


Figure 9: Decision Tree for Prescription Opioid (PRL) Misuse

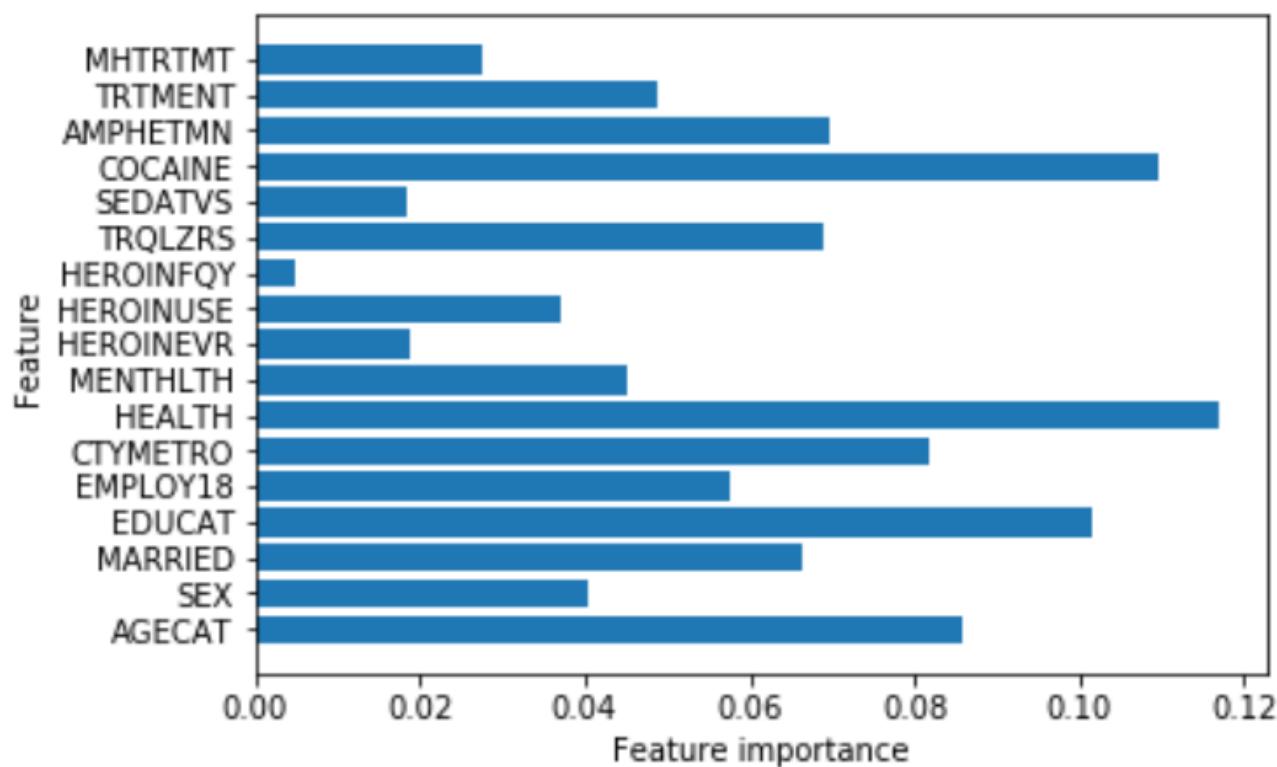


Figure 10: Feature Importance for Random Forest Classifier of Prescription Opioid (PRL) Misuse

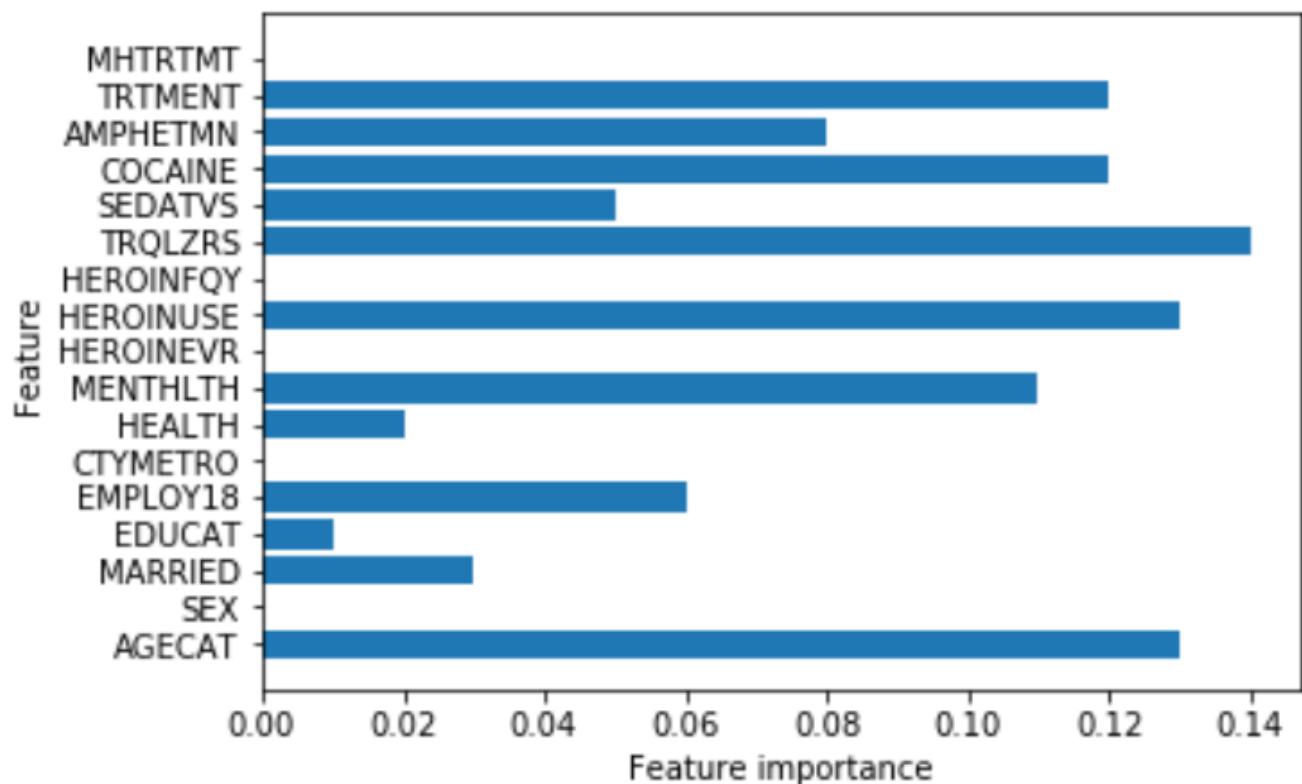


Figure 11: Feature Importance for Gradient Boosted Classifier Tree of Prescription Opioid (PRL) Misuse

LIST OF TABLES

1	Substance Use by Age Group Counts - NSDUH 2015 [1]	25
2	Frequency Table of Mental Health Issues and Treatment NSDUH 2015 [1]	25

Table 1: Substance Use by Age Group Counts - NSDUH 2015 [1]

Age Group	12-17	18-25	26-34	35-49	50+
Sample Size	13585	14553	9084	11169	8755
Oxycodone	545	1632	1132	1345	1044
Hydrocodone	831	2936	2233	2781	2103
Tramadol	241	753	654	829	734
Morphine	251	431	236	313	286
Fentanyl	28	97	81	96	86
Demerol	26	74	49	64	71
Buprenorphine	43	197	167	124	51
Oxymorphone	46	88	57	47	41
Hydromorphone	24	94	107	118	81
PRL Misuse Ever*	798	2127	1475	1343	600
Tranquilizers	405	1469	1064	1405	1153
Sedatives	204	242	157	256	226
Methadone Ever	32	83	96	71	46
Heroin Use Ever*	22	261	259	250	164
Cocaine Use Ever	109	1645	1626	1954	1406
Amphetamines Ever	932	1836	627	383	164
Methamphetamine	42	481	700	898	492
Hallucinogens	450	2660	2020	2127	1197
LSD Use Ever	190	1114	874	1442	907
Ecstasy (MDMA)	199	1867	1403	947	149

Table 2: Frequency Table of Mental Health Issues and Treatment NSDUH 2015 [1]

Age Group	12-17	18-25	26-34	35-49	50+
In Hospital Overnight	730	1149	821	890	1173
Adult Depression	0	2413	1395	1766	967
Mental Health Treatment					
Private Therapist	0	592	434	554	311
Treatment Gap*	469	931	321	239	90

```
bibtext report
```

```
=====
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
Warning--I didn't find a database entry for "granovetter73"
Warning--I didn't find a database entry for "watts98"
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in herland14
Warning--no number and no volume in johnson11
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in johnson11
(There were 5 warnings)
```

```
bibtext _ label error
```

```
=====
bibtext space label error
```

```
=====
bibtext comma label error
```

```
=====
latex report
```

```
[2017-12-08 04.03.43] pdflatex report.tex
This is pdfTeX, Version 3.14159265-2.6-1.40.17 (TeX Live 2016) (preloaded format=pdflatex)
Label `tab:freq' multiply defined.
p.8 L930 : [granovetter73] undefined
p.8 L934 : [watts98] undefined
Missing character: ""
There were undefined citations.
bookmark level for unknown defaults to 0.
The anchor of a bookmark and its parent's must not be the same. Added a new anchor.
```

The anchor of a bookmark and its parent's must not be the same. Added a new anchor.
There were multiply-defined labels.
Typesetting of "report.tex" completed in 1.4s.

```
=====
Compliance Report
=====
```

```
name: Sean Shiverick
hid: 335
paper1: 10/25/17 100%
paper2: 100%
project: 100%
```

```
yamlcheck
```

```
wordcount
```

```
25
wc 335 project 25 8441 report.tex
wc 335 project 25 9534 report.pdf
wc 335 project 25 1078 report.bib
```

```
find "
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find footnote
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find input{format/i523}
```

```
4: \input{format/i523}
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find input{format/final}
```

```
passed: False

floats
-----
353: \begin{table}
356: \label{tab:freq}
401: \begin{table}
404: \label{tab:freq}
433: \begin{figure}(!ht]
434: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/Figure1.pdf
}
437: \label{f:Figure1}
461: \begin{figure}(!ht]
462: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/Figure2.pdf
}
465: \label{f:Figure2}
500: \begin{figure}(!ht]
501: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/Figure3.pdf
}
504: \label{f:Figure3}
550: \begin{figure}(!ht]
551: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/Figure4.pdf
}
554: \label{f:Figure4}
599: \begin{figure}(!ht]
600: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/Figure5.pdf
}
602: \label{f:Figure5}
637: \begin{figure}(!ht]
638: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/Figure6.pdf
}
640: \label{f:Figure6}
674: \begin{figure}(!ht]
675: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/Figure7.pdf
}
677: \label{f:Figure7}
714: \begin{figure}(!ht]
715: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/Figure8.pdf
}
719: \label{f:Figure8}
745: \begin{figure}(!ht]
746: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/Figure9.pdf
}
748: \label{f:Figure9}
```

```
766: \begin{figure} [!ht]
767: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/Figure10.pdf}
    f}
770: \label{f:Figure10}
795: \begin{figure} [!ht]
796: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/Figure11.pdf}
    f}
799: \label{f:Figure11}
```

figures 11

tables 2

includegraphics 11

labels 13

refs 0

floats 13

True : ref check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)

True : label check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)

True : include graphics passed: (figures >= includegraphics)

False : check if all figures are referred to: (refs >= labels)

Label/ref check

89: abusing prescribed opioid medication who also used heroin, shown
in Figure 1.

333: 386 females). Table 1 shows the raw counts of individual
substance use by age

392: Table 2 shows the frequency of individuals reporting that they
had experienced

421: Figure 1 shows the proportion of individuals who reported
misusing prescription

423: Figure 1 shows the majority of respondents (89 percent) stated
they had never

426: Figure 1 shows that, of those individuals who reported using
heroin, the

441: Figure 2 shows the aggregated measure of Opioid Pain Reliever
misuse and abuse

469: Figure 3 shows the pairplots of demographic features including
mental health

535: few features. Figure 4 plots the coefficients of logistic
regression classifier

541: accuracy of 0.98 and test set accuracy of 0.98. Figure 4 shows
that the

572: Figure 5 shows a partial view of the decision tree classifier of
heroin use

625: feature importance for a single tree. Figure 6 shows the feature
importance

665: or by reducing the learning rate. Figure 7 shows that the feature
importance
703: Figure 8 plots the coefficients of logistic regression classifier
for
705: Figure 8, the features with the highest coefficient values were
Treatment
728: of the pruned tree was 0.902 and test set accuracy was 0.902.
Figure 9 shows
731: notebook) \cite{classifyPRL}. As Figure 9 shows, the decision
tree classifier
756: 0.896, which suggests that the model overfit the data. Figure 10
shows the
756: 0.896, which suggests that the model overfit the data. Figure 10
shows the
758: PRL Misuse. As Figure 10 shows, several features were identified
as important
758: PRL Misuse. As Figure 10 shows, several features were identified
as important
784: prescription opioid abuse. Figure 11 shows the feature importance
for the
784: prescription opioid abuse. Figure 11 shows the feature importance
for the
785: gradient boosting classifier tree. As Figure 11 shows, several
features were
785: gradient boosting classifier tree. As Figure 11 shows, several
features were
818: used heroin than had not (see Figure 1), which partially supports
the
passed: False -> labels or refs used wrong

When using figures use columnwidth
[width=1.0\columnwidth]
do not change the number to a smaller fraction

find textwidth

passed: True

below_check

WARNING: algorithm and below may be used improperly

126: classification algorithms are considered below.

bibtex

label errors

bibtex errors

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
Warning--I didn't find a database entry for "granovetter73"
Warning--I didn't find a database entry for "watts98"
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in herland14
Warning--no number and no volume in johnson11
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in johnson11
(There were 5 warnings)
```

bibtex_empty_fields

entries in general should not be empty in bibtex

find ""

passed: True

ascii

=====

The following tests are optional

=====

Tip: newlines can often be replaced just by an empty line

find newline

```
passed: True
cites should have a space before \cite{} but not before the {
```

```
find cite {
```

```
-----
```

```
passed: True
```

IoT and Big Data Analytics for Equipment Predictive Health Management (PHM)

Ashok Reddy Singam

Indiana University

711 N Park Ave

Bloomington, Indiana 47408

asingam@iu.edu

Anil Ravi

Indiana University

711 N Park Ave

Bloomington, Indiana 47408

anilravi@iu.edu

ABSTRACT

The predictive health management (PHM) is an enabling discipline consisting of technologies and methods to assess the reliability of a product in its actual life cycle conditions to determine the advent of failure and mitigate system risk. The PHM system will monitor environmental, operational, and performance related characteristics of the product and gathered data analyzed to assess product health and predict remaining life.

In this application, the industrial rotating equipment such as compressors, vacuum blowers, pumps, and valves etc. are considered to monitor and analyze their operational behavior. The product critical operational parameter data such as vibration, temperature, and load current will be collected from field sensors and analyzed to predict the failure using kNN machine learning classification algorithms. The data will be collected from the field using wireless sensors and stored on the cloud based AWS database server. The product data will be analyzed and made available to all stakeholders to take appropriate preventive actions via web/mobile applications.

KEYWORDS

i523, HID333, HID337, KNN, IoT, Big Data, Analytics

1 INTRODUCTION

The PHM technology can be put within a broader business context by relating it to the Product-Service System (PSS) business model. PSS can be defined as an integrated combination of products and services where the emphasis is put on the ‘sale of use’ rather than the ‘sale of product’. Central to this new business model is a shift from selling a product, and its related spare parts as required, to selling a solution that supports customer needs in the form of a service delivering a fully maintained and useable product [2]. As shown in Figure (1), There are several wireless technologies such as 802.11, cellular, and short distance wireless protocols can be used to collect and send data to the centralized servers. Also, data can be stored in cloud based technologies such as AWS, Microsoft Azure, IBM and Google etc. for processing.

[Figure 1 about here.]

Problem Statement: in the manufacturing operations, automotive and other process industries rotating equipment such as pumps, valves, compressors, and blowers are commonly used equipment for various purposes. These equipment are severely suffered from wear and tear, bearing degradation, shaft misalignment, corrosion, and other mechanical breakdowns. Due to the limitations of wireless enabled sensors based data acquisition it was very difficult to collect this data in the past. Also, due to real-time nature of the data

acquisition, it was a huge challenge to store the data locally and process the information for applying machine learning algorithms. All these technological and infrastructure limitations caused industrial equipment health monitoring had become one of the sector businesses are losing the money due to operation shutdowns and unplanned maintenance etc.

Solution Approach: with the wireless sensors and cloud based server technologies, it has become possible to deploy hundreds of sensors in the manufacturing plant and collect the data and store with minimal costs. Once the data is stored on the servers with high computing power, machine learning algorithms can be used to process the sensor data to predict the equipment failures with reasonable accuracy. This approach has been named as predictive or prognostics health management of the equipment which is widely available in the recent times due to the availability of technological infrastructure.

The PHM generally combines sensing, collecting, storing and analyzing of environmental, operational, and performance related parameters to assess the health of a product and predict remaining useful life. Assessing the health of a product provides information that can be used to meet several critical goals: (1) providing advance warning of failures; (2) minimizing unscheduled maintenance, extending maintenance cycles, and maintaining effectiveness through timely repair actions; (3) reducing the life cycle cost of equipment by decreasing inspection costs, downtime, and inventory; and (4) improving qualification and assisting in the design and logistical support of fielded and future systems [1].

The PHM is not a new concept, however, with the advent of sensors, machine learning algorithms, and computing capacity of the servers it has become more prevalent in the recent days. In this application, an attempt has been made to prove the concept of simple PHM implementation and use in real world applications. The application can be re-architected to address more complex products/systems with considerations of scalability, performance, cost and reliability. The limitations of the current application are described in the end of this report.

The parameter monitoring and the analysis of acquired data using prognostic models are fundamental steps for the PHM methods. The sensors are the essential devices used to monitor parameters and obtain long-term accurate information to provide anomaly detection, fault isolation, and rapid failure prediction [1].

Firstly, PHM requires monitoring a large number of product parameters to evaluate the health of a product. Depending on the complexity of the monitored product, it is possible to monitor thousands of parameters in the entire life cycle of the product to provide

the information required by PHM. These parameters include operational and environmental loads as well as the performance conditions of the product, for example, temperature, vibration, shock, pressure, acoustic levels, strain, stress, voltage, current, humidity levels, contaminant concentration, usage frequency, usage severity, usage time, power, and heat dissipation. In each case, a variety of monitoring features such as magnitude, variation, peak level, and rate of change may be required in order to obtain characteristics of parameters.

In this application, commonly used equipment in industrial and automobile operations such as air compressors, vacuum blowers, and smart valves are considered for analysis. The critical operational parameters of these products will be collected using applicable sensors from the field and fed to a database at regular intervals.

In general design, the frequency of data collection and storage depends on the number of parameters to be analyzed, cost of the system and operational behavior of the equipment. For this application, since products with rotating parts are considered, the critical parameters that would define the health of the equipment are: input or load current, internal ambient temperature, and vibration of the equipment.

The PHM application design process is shown in Figure (2), which describes various steps of the processes involved. For the implementation of this project, the sensor generated data is simulated using SQL scripts due to development time constraints. However, a detailed step-by-step approach is provided if we need to plug-in the sensor modules in to the application.

[Figure 2 about here.]

Data Acquisition Stage: It is required to have a description of a machine behaving normally that can be used for early detection of anomalies. This calls for a proper characterization of machine health. As part of this process, various methods are identified to extract health information from vibration measurements and investigate strengths and weaknesses of these methods as health descriptors. This stage will be the core part of PHM application where vibration data were experimentally obtained from a compressor using triaxial accelerometer to collect transverse, longitudinal and vertical axes vibration signals. For the experimental data collection, ACC301A triaxial accelerometer and National Instruments data acquisition system was used. A total of 8 parameters (1) input current (2) input voltage (3) internal ambient temperature (4) external ambient temperature (5) transverse vibration (6) longitudinal vibration (7) vertical axis vibration and (8) acquisition time were captured at 1 second rate, which generated about 65000 records. This data has been analyzed for identifying the feature classification.

Pre Processing stage: during this stage collected data will be filtered and processed for accuracy in order to adapt them to subsequent feature extraction stage. In this application, all the pre-processing has been done manually to validate the accuracy of the data based on the system conditions. Since spectral analysis of vibration signals are not done (one of the limitations for this application, captured in the end), the data generated from the compressor is considered as the primary frequency of the equipment (which is isolated from the rest of the attachments).

Feature extraction and selection stage: during this stage domain specific vibration spectral analysis has been performed but

only considered time-domain behavior for various system operational conditions such as increased load, modified input voltage, and modified external ambient temperature etc. Based on the response of the machine vibration to various external conditions were noted down. This data is used to identify the following feature vectors.

- NORMAL OPERATION AT 30 DEG CENTIGRADE
- OVER CURRENT FAULT OPERATION
- OVER TEMPERATURE FAULT OPERATION
- INPUT OVER VOLTAGE FAULT OPERATION
- ABNORMAL OPERATION AT 30 DEG CENTIGRADE
- BEARING DEGRADATION OPERATION

kNN classification stage: this stage is core part of the PHM application, which will predict the unknown test data to be classified in to a known label based on the training data set using nearest neighbor algorithm.

Classifier performance evaluation stage: this stage will be used to evaluate the classifier accuracy of prediction. In this application, k-fold cross-validation method has been used to perform the evaluation.

The data is generated and made available in Oracle database on AWS cloud to perform analysis. The application developed in this project will consist of the following components:

- Sensor Data Generator
- Machine Learning Algorithm
- Big Data and IoT
- PHM Dashboard
- Decision Alerts
- Application Script

The following sections will describe the architectural and design aspects of the PHM system implementation in detail.

2 PROGNOSTICS MODEL EVALUATION

[4] The prediction is typically performed only after the *health* of the component or system deteriorates beyond a certain threshold. In this application, faults and failures are identified in the training data set. The faults identified are: Over current fault, over temperature fault and over voltage fault. If over current fault is occurred, the equipment will tend to draw higher current than nominal values which if continued further several times eventually leads to a permanent failure of the equipment. In this application, when motor bearing starts degrading, the first observation will be over current followed by over temperature conditions. Often times, that threshold is tripped because a fault occurs. A fault is a state of a component or system that deviates from the normal state such that the integrity of the component is outside of its required specification. A fault does not necessarily imply that the overall system does not operate anymore; however, the damage that characterizes the fault often grows under the influence of operations to a failure. The latter is the state at which the component or system does not meet its desired function anymore. It is the task of prognostics to estimate the time that it takes from the current time to the failed state, conditional on anticipated future usage. This would give operators access to information that has significant implications on system safety or cost of operations. Where safety is impacted, the ability to predict failure allows operators to take action that preserves the assets either through rescue operation or through remedial action

that avert failure altogether. Where minimizing cost of operations is the primary objective, predictive information allows operators to avert secondary damage, or to perform maintenance in the most cost-effective fashion. Often times, there is a mix of objectives that need to be optimized together, sometimes weighted by different preferences.

As emphasized above, predictive models evaluation needs to take domain specificities into account. Such specificities cover two aspects: capability of failure prediction and TTF estimation. From the point of view of TTF, it is desirable that a predictive model can generate alerts in a *targeted* time window prior to a failure. A model that predicts a failure too early leads to non-optimal component use [5] which will impact the reliability or availability of the system.

[Figure 3 about here.]

As shown in the Figure (3), the time to failure prediction will be estimated based on the classified result data set and alert the stakeholders to take relevant actions. The target alert zone will be identified based on the abnormal behavior of the equipment over the period.

3 APPLICATION DESIGN ANALYSIS

The PHM application in this project considered to use rotating equipment temperature, load current and vibration data for analyzing and predicting the future operational behavior. Vibration signals from rotating components are usually analyzed in the frequency domain, because significant peaks in the signal spectrum appear at frequencies that are related to the rotation frequency of the component. In this application, only time domain parameters with peak vibration magnitudes irrespective of the frequency component. The training data set consists of normal, abnormal, and fault conditions vibration patterns describes the system characteristics from which its status can be estimated. The PHM application for industrial equipment machine failure detection problem directly correlates to the pattern classification problem. From the vibration data collected, each accelerometer will output values of X, Y, and Z data then using a KNN we can similarly identify which vibration parameter(s) determines problems in our machines, or *likely to experience failure*. The typical defects or failures that can be detected are: machine imbalance, shaft misalignment, pumps cavitation, structural and rotating looseness, early stage bearing wear, gear teeth problems, and other high-frequency defects.

This application used *Sensor Data Gen* SQL script module to generate the sensor data and store in Oracle database on AWS. This is the critical module as we have not used the real data collection from the field. However, the sensor hardware and necessary environment to generate the data is identified and experimented to work with. A brief description about the hardware is provided in the end of this report.

The PHM application is designed such that the fundamental concepts can be verified to open a discussion on limitations, performance, scalability, ROI and reliability of the system.

The following sections describe the application design components with necessary implementation details:

3.1 Sensor Data Generator

The SQL data generator script is designed to generate training data as well test data for this application with following eleven parameters: Acquisition time, equipment name, part number, serial number, internal ambient temperature, external ambient temperature, input voltage, input current, and vibration data for x, y, and z axes. The following database design architecture followed for Sensor Data Gen module:

- Sensor Data Generator PL SQL Objects
 - Tables
 - * SENSOR TRAIN DATA for storing training data
 - * SENSOR TEST DATA for storing testing data
 - Views
 - * SENSOR TRAIN DATA VIEW: Created View on top of SENSOR TRAIN DATA with logic to translate string label data into numbers
 - * SENSOR TEST DATA VIEW Created View on top of SENSOR TEST DATA with logic to translate string label data into numbers
 - Packages BIG DATA 503 PRJ PKG
 - * Generate Test Set: Pl/Sql procedure to insert sensor test data into SENSOR TRAIN DATA table
 - * Generate Train Set: Pl/Sql procedure to insert sensor train data into SENSOR TRAIN DATA table
 - * Delete Data Set: Pl/Sql procedure to delete all training and test data.
 - * Update Test Data Labels: Pl/Sql procedure to update SENSOR TRAIN DATA table with KNN algorithm predicted label values

3.2 Machine Learning Algorithm

3.2.1 *Classifier evaluation.* Typical classifier evaluation methods include ROC Curves, Reject Curves, Precision-Recall Curves, and Statistical Tests. The statistical tests consists of following methods to perform evaluation:

- Estimating the error rate of a classifier
- Comparing two classifiers
- Estimating the error rate of a learning algorithm
- Comparing two algorithms

Out of the listed statistical tests, the error rate estimation method is used in this application to evaluate the performance. An experimental data is used to estimate the error rate or accuracy of various classifiers. Then a comparison has been made to choose the classifier to use in the application.

The following list of performance for various classifiers is observed during the accuracy calculation. The same set of training data has been used for all the classifiers, which has resulted the following performance.

- LogisticRegression: 0.963636 (0.044536)
- KNN: 0.981818 (0.036364)
- DecisionTreeClassifier: 0.964394 (0.059656)
- SVM: 0.972727 (0.041660)

Based on the performance as shown in Figure (4), kNN has been selected to use for this application.

[Figure 4 about here.]

3.2.2 *k Nearest Neighbor - kNN*. [6] In this application, neighbors-based classification is chosen to classify the unknown instance to the known trained labels. Neighbors-based classification does not attempt to construct a general internal model, but simply stores instances of the training data.

Classification is computed from a simple majority vote of the nearest neighbors of each point: a query point is assigned the data class which has the most representatives within the nearest neighbors of the point.

KNN falls in the supervised learning family of algorithms. Informally, this means that we are given a labelled dataset consisting of training observations (x, y) and would like to capture the relationship between x and y . More formally, our goal is to learn a function $h: X \rightarrow Y$ so that given an unseen observations x , $h(x)$ can confidently predict the corresponding output y .

In the classification setting, the K-nearest neighbor algorithm essentially boils down to forming a majority vote between the K most similar instances to a given unseen observation. Similarity is defined according to a distance metric between two data points. A popular choice is the Euclidean distance given by:

$$d(x, x') = \sqrt{(x_1 - x'_1)^2 + (x_2 - x'_2)^2 + \dots + (x_n - x'_n)^2}$$

But other measures can be more suitable for a given setting and include the Manhattan, Chebyshev and Hamming distance. An alternate way of understanding KNN is by thinking about it as calculating a decision boundary (i.e. boundaries for more than 2 classes) which is then used to classify new points.

In the application design, sci-kit open source python libraries are used for implementing the kNN algorithms. Scikit is built on NumPy, SciPy, and matplotlib. The k-neighbors classification in KNeighborsClassifier is the more commonly used of the two techniques. The optimal choice of the value k is highly data-dependent: in general a larger k suppresses the effects of noise, but makes the classification boundaries less distinct.

The `sklearn.neighbors.KNeighborsClassifier` class has the following methods, which are used in the application design:

- `fit`: Fit the model using X as training data and y as target values.
- `get_params`: Fit the model using X as training data and y as target values.
- `kneighbors`: Finds the K -neighbors of a point.
- `kneighbors graph`: Computes the (weighted) graph of k -Neighbors for points in X .
- `predict`: Predict the class labels for the provided data.
- `predict_proba`: Return probability estimates for the test data X .
- `score`: Returns the mean accuracy on the given test data and labels.
- `set_params`: Set the parameters of this estimator.

3.2.3 *K-fold cross-validation*. To estimate the test error in the model, a cross-validation approach followed in which a subset of

the training set will be held out from the fitting process. This subset, called the validation set, can be used to select the appropriate level of flexibility of our algorithm. There are different validation approaches that are used in practice, and we will be exploring one of the more popular ones called **k-fold cross validation**. The k -fold cross validation (the k is totally unrelated to K) involves randomly dividing the training set into k groups, or folds, of approximately equal size. The first fold is treated as a validation set, and the method is fit on the remaining $k - 1$ folds. The misclassification rate is then computed on the observations in the held-out fold. This procedure is repeated k times; each time, a different group of observations is treated as a validation set. This process results in k estimates of the test error which are then averaged out.

In this application, an average k -fold cross validation accuracy of 0.99 achieved, which is explained in the appendix section of the report. Figure(5) shows Classification and Confusion report output obtained from the KNN model we used for this project.

[Figure 5 about here.]

3.3 Big Data and IoT

In PHM systems big data is characterized by one or more 3Vs: volume, velocity and variety due to streaming of real-time IoT sensors. Most of the IoT systems present challenges in combinations of velocity and volume. The important feature of the IoT application is that by observing the behavior of “many things” it will be possible to gain important insights, optimize processes, etc. This requires storing all the events (velocity and volume challenge) to run analytical queries over the stored events and perform analytics (data mining and machine learning) over the data to gain insights. In general PHM applications, data will be collected through field sensors at specific rate which accounts for large amount of data per day in the order of multi-million records. This data will be stored in any NOSQL or RDBMS based database for storage and processing. Since the big data infrastructure is much reliable and available widely from multiple vendors, it would help to build complex PHM systems with large number of feature vectors for classification.

In this application, for the demonstration of the concept, the real vibration data from the compressor equipment has been collected via accelerometer sensors. This vibration data has been analyzed in time domain and established the labels based on the compressor design performance parameters. Later, this data analysis is used to design a SQL script for generating training and test data sets. However, the real-time PHM system will have continuous streaming of data coming from hundreds of devices at faster rates (in the order of milliseconds to tens of seconds). This data needs to be captured by reliable and scalable platforms such as AWS IoT or similar and use the machine learning algorithms to classify the unknown data.

3.4 PHM Dashboard

Once all the test data set has been classified into appropriate labels, the prediction of the failure can be performed based on the trending of the equipment behavior over the period. In order to understand the equipment performance insight, following queries will be used on the classified data:

- Faults Reported by Equipment Part Number
- Faults Reported by Serial Number

- Abnormal Behavior by Equipment Part Number
- Abnormal Behavior by Serial Number over the period range

There can be more application specific information obtained from classified data set to take various decisions. Figure(6), figure(7) and figure(8) show various PHM data analytics for this project. Figure(6) displays all the serial numbers of equipment 1 with bearing degradation problems. The X axis gives serial numbers while the Y axis gives number of occurrences of bearing degradation for that particular serial number. Similarly figure(7) and figure(8) give the details of over temperature and over current faults of various serial numbers.

As part of data visualization, result data file is queried based on the analytics metrics interested. The python matplotlib package has been used to draw the charts as needed for showing the analytics. In real world application, a more sophisticated business intelligence tools such as Tableau, Microsoft BI, and Amazon Quick Sight can be used to show the PHM dashboards. These dashboards are targeted for business users so that they will be able to customize the views, add filters and drill down in to specific information as needed.

Sample screen shots for the following scenarios are included from python code output:

- Bearing Degraded Serial numbers for Equipment Part Number1: Figure (6)
- Over Temperature Fault Serial numbers for Equipment Part Number1: Figure (7)
- Over Current Fault Serial numbers for Equipment Part Number1: Figure (8)

[Figure 6 about here.]

[Figure 7 about here.]

[Figure 8 about here.]

3.5 Decision Alerts

Once the results data set has been generated by the prediction algorithm, and then based on the analytics queries, PHM system can send out the alert messages to appropriate stakeholders. The typical messages include the following s minimum:

- SN 10002: Faulted X times on over temperature in last Y days, needs maintenance to clean the filter
- SN 10005: Consistently indicating bearing degradation from last X days, needs lubrication maintenance
- SN 10009: Consistently drawing over current from last X days, needs mechanical load maintenance

In this application all the unseen test data is classified and labeled in the result data file. However, in real world application, along with the dashboards a comprehensive alerting capabilities can be built. The application checks for out of range alert conditions on selected incoming report parameters, looking for warning or alarm conditions that are higher or lower than expected under normal operating conditions.

3.6 Application Script

All the application specific python modules are captured in a ipynb file which can be run from Jupyter notebook or Github. The location of the file is described in appendix b. This application specific data

has been created/generated on AWS cloud database, which will be accessed during the run time by python notebook.

3.7 Python - Oracle Interface

For this project we used python library called **cxOracle** [3] to enable access to Oracle Database. It can be installed easily using **pip** and it supports both Python 2 and 3. This library supports:

- SQL and PL/SQL Execution. The underlying Oracle Client libraries have significant optimizations including compressed fetch, pre-fetching, client and server result set caching, and statement caching with auto-tuning.
- Extensive Oracle data type support, including large object support like CLOB and BLOB)
- Batch operations for efficient INSERT and UPDATEs

4 APPLICATION LIMITATIONS

The PHM application developed in this project has several limitations. Typically, PHM applications suffer from the prediction accuracy rate which influences the ability to take decisions that will have broader impact on the business operations and financial aspects. However, with the advanced machine learning classifiers and model evaluation methods this can be addressed to achieve reasonable confidence. Following are some of the limitations of this application, which can be addressed and improved in large real-time PHM systems.

Data acquisition hardware: in this application the data is not collected from real-time sensors for voltage, current, temperature and vibration data. There will be inherent accuracy in the raw data generated by SQL script. However, a sample vibration dataset has been collected from the field, which is used as basis to generate the simulated data set.

Feature extraction analysis: the equipment performance parameters of interest need to be down selected from large set of incoming parameter data.

When analyzing vibration data in the time domain only few parameters are available in quantifying the strength of a vibration profile: amplitude, peak-to-peak value, and RMS. The amplitude is valuable for shock events but it does not take into account the time duration and thus the energy in the event. The same is true for peak-to-peak with the added benefit of providing the maximum excursion of the wave, useful when looking at displacement information, specifically clearances. The RMS value is generally the most useful because it is directly related to the energy content of the vibration profile and thus the destructive capability of the vibration.

This requires in-depth domain specific analysis, in this case a detailed mathematical modeling of vibration spectral analysis to precisely select the features and corresponding behavior patterns. Such analytical data should be used for training data feature set. In this application, a primitive approach of time-domain analysis of vibration magnitudes used for determining features. However, in real application these features need to be mathematically analyzed to identify the features that represent the system behavior as close as possible.

Model accuracy and scoring : the kNN algorithm used in this application validated using k-cross fold cross-validation. There are several other model evaluation and scoring methods such as

accuracy (or error rate), True Positive Rate (TPR), False Positive Rate (FPR), False Negative Rate (FNR), True Negative Rate (TNR), sensitivity etc. These metrics provide a simple and effective way to measure the performance of a classifier. This application can be further improved by applying more performance measurement methods to increase the effectiveness of the algorithm design.

Scalability: the application designed in this project is very primitive to understand the basic concepts of PHM and kNN classifier implementation. This application cannot be used for PHM application in business use. To implement real world PHM application, a more comprehensive design needed by considering modularity, service oriented architecture, large number of sensors integration, big data and analytics integration etc.

5 RECOMMENDATIONS

Generality: since each rotating equipment vibrates in a different manner, a monitoring method needs to be retrained for each machine. The training on several repeated measurements on several similar equipment in several operating modes may allow for a more general monitoring method.

Feature extraction and dimensionality: In this application it has been assumed that a proper feature (selection) has been chosen, such that the feature dimensionality is not too high. If the data lies in a subspace, application of an initial dimensionality reduction may be a good idea. It is highly recommended to perform spectral analysis on vibration data and identify various fault frequencies and their sources. This would help to extract the optimized feature vectors for the given application followed by selecting the more relevant ones.

Model evaluation: classifier accuracy and effectiveness will be varied based on the test data set. It is highly recommended to evaluate multiple models with appropriate test data to choose the best classifier for the given application.

Domain specific modeling: It is highly recommended to perform more and more domain-oriented feature vector analysis to meet the needs of predictive model evaluation for PHM applications. Domain-oriented approaches helpful and useful in evaluating classifier for applications. Generic evaluation methods could help developers in investigating overall performance of a model from the statistical viewpoint at the initial stage of model development. Domain-oriented approaches should be further used to evaluate the usefulness and business value [5].

6 CONCLUSION

In this project, the problem statement around industrial rotating equipment maintenance is described and solution principle to address the same using PHM concept is defined, experimented and results are discussed. Since this application is developed to prove the only concept but not the complete solution a section with limitations and recommendations for real world system development is described. Overall, PHM application with kNN classifier algorithm and cross validation accuracy of 0.99 has been implemented, verified and results are analyzed for business decisions.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors would like to thank professor Gregor von Laszewski and his team for providing *LaTeX* templates, assistance with the *JabRef* tool and in helping to fix compile issues with latex and yaml formats.

REFERENCES

- [1] Shunfeng Cheng, Michael H. Azarian, and Michael G. Pecht. 2010. Sensor Systems for Prognostics and Health Management. (2010), 24 pages. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC3247731/pdf/sensors-10-05774.pdf>
- [2] Tonci Grubic, Ian Jennions, and Tim Baines. 2009. The Interaction of PSS and PHM - a mutual benefit case. (2009), 10 pages. https://www.phmsociety.org/sites/phmsociety.org/files/phm_submission/2009/phmc_09_49.pdf
- [3] Oracle OTN. 2005. Using Python With Oracle Database 11g. (2005). <http://www.oracle.com/technetwork/articles/dsl/python-091105.html>
- [4] Abhinav Saxena, Jose Celya, Bhaskar Saha, Sankalita Saha, and Kai Goebel. 2009. Sensor Systems for Prognostics and Health Management. (2009), 16 pages. <https://ntrs.nasa.gov/archive/nasa/casi.ntrs.nasa.gov/20100023445.pdf>
- [5] Chunsheng Yang, Yanni Zou, Jie Liu, and Kyle R Mulligan. 2014. Predictive Model Evaluation for PHM. (2014), 11 pages. https://www.phmsociety.org/sites/phmsociety.org/files/phm_submission/2014/ijphm_14_019.pdf
- [6] Kevin Zakka. 2016. A Complete Guide to K-Nearest-Neighbors with Applications in Python and R. (2016). <https://kevinzakka.github.io/2016/07/13/k-nearest-neighbor/>

A WORK BREAKDOWN

A.1 HID 333:Anil Ravi

- Identified Project topic.
- Created architecture of the application.
- Ran experimental test to collect vibration data
- Extracted and analyzed feature vectors
- Studied, designed and reviewed kNN algorithm
- Created draft project report
- Reviewed the draft project report.

A.2 HID 337:Ashok Reddy Singam

- Implemented sensor data generation SQL script.
- Implemented kNN algorithm in Python
- Implemented k-fold cross validation design
- Created data analytics charts
- Reviewed the draft project report.

B CODE REFERENCE

All code, notebooks and files for this project can be found in the githup repository: <https://github.com/bigdata-i523/hid337/blob/master/project/jupyter>

LIST OF FIGURES

1	System Architecture	9
2	PHM Design Process	9
3	Time relation between alert time and failure time	10
4	Algorithm performance	10
5	KNN Classification and Confusion matrix report	11
6	Bearing Degradation	11
7	Over Temperature Fault	12
8	Over current Fault	13

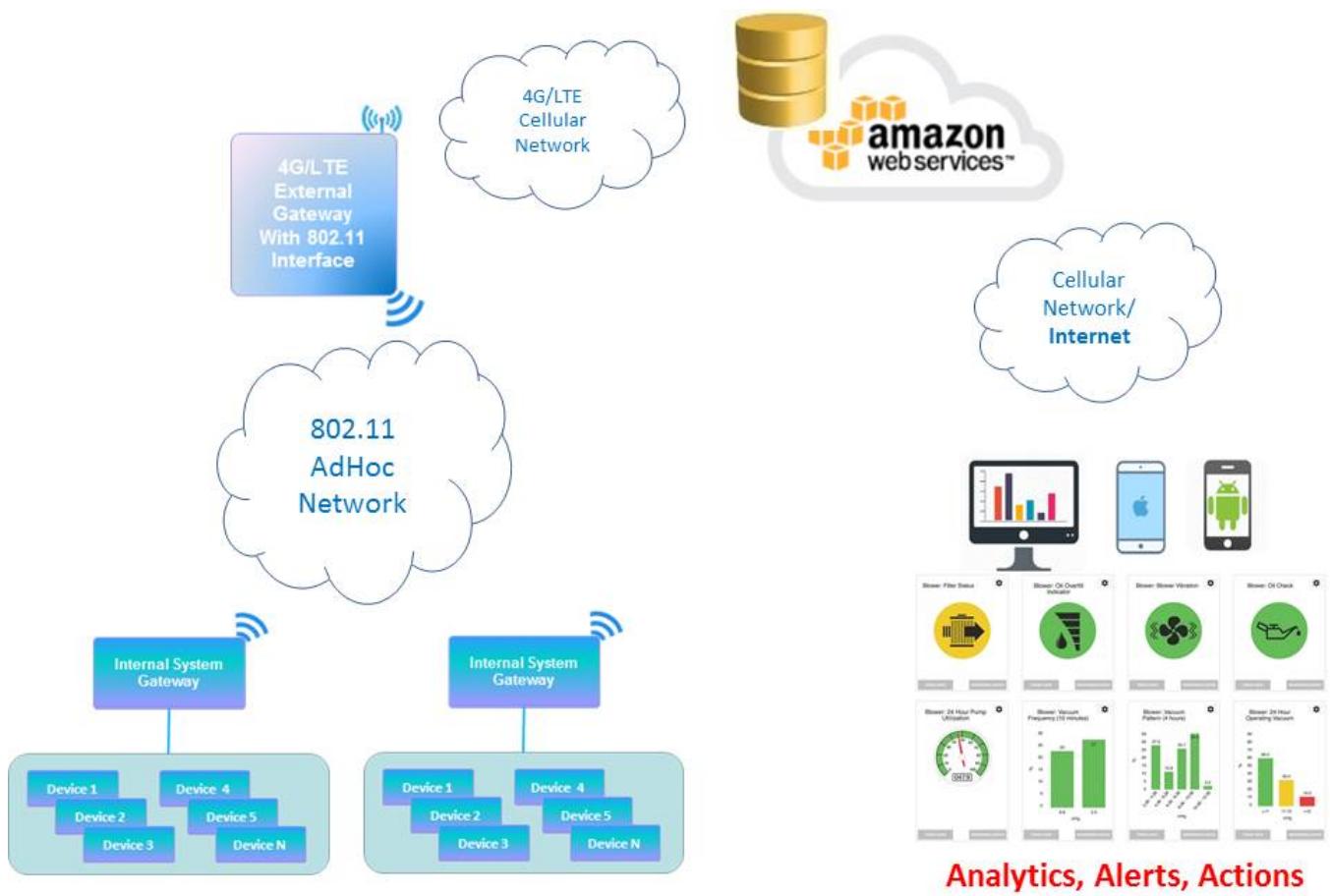


Figure 1: System Architecture

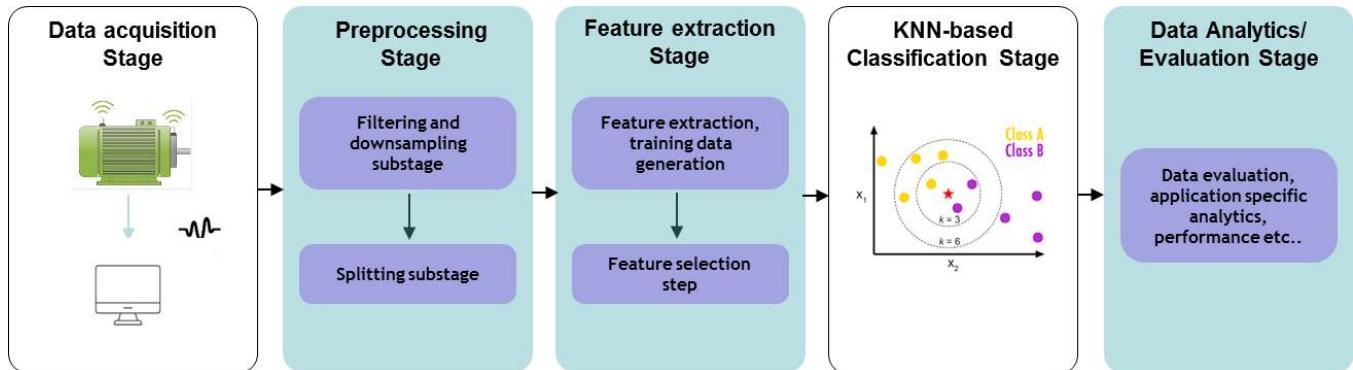


Figure 2: PHM Design Process

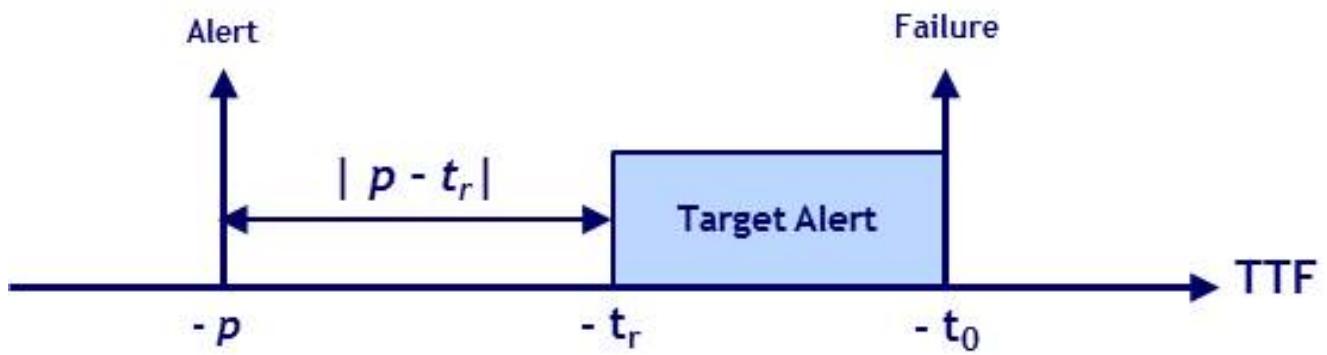


Figure 3: Time relation between alert time and failure time

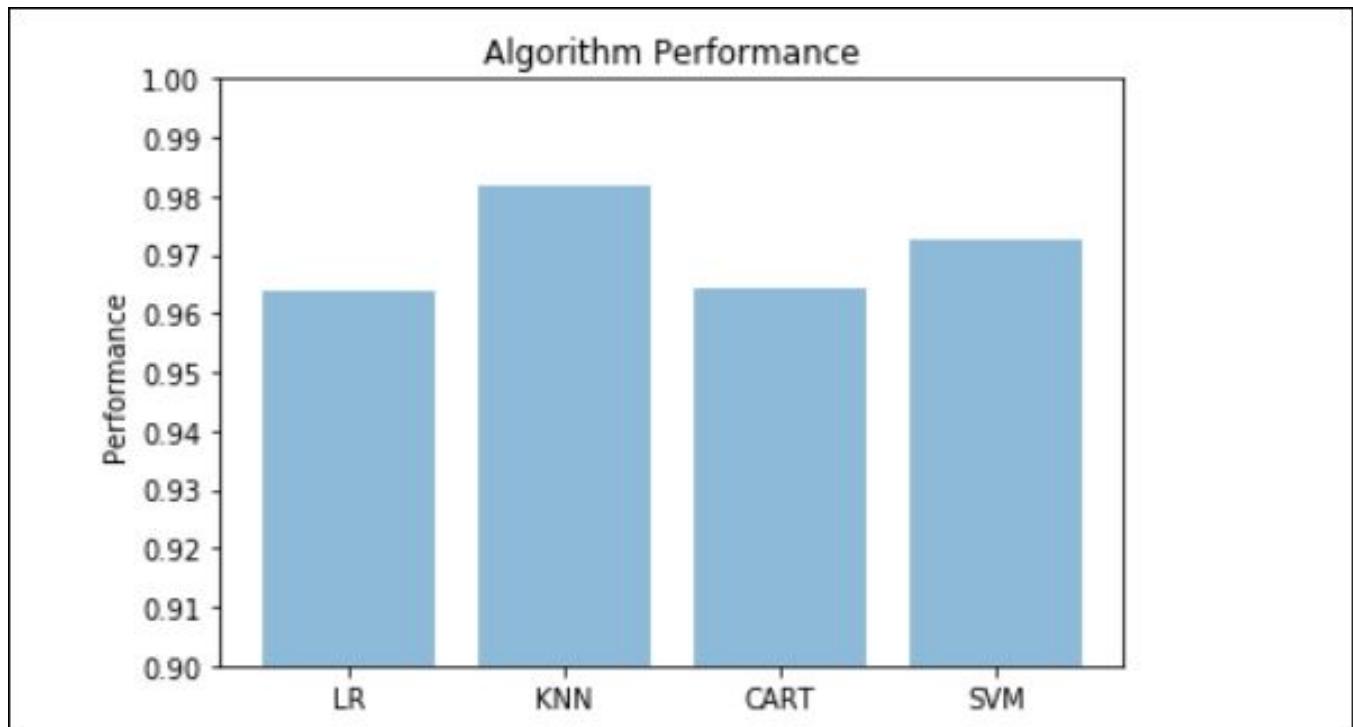


Figure 4: Algorithm performance

	precision	recall	f1-score	support
ABNORMAL_OP_30_DEG_C	1.00	1.00	1.00	997
BEARING_DEGRADE_OP	1.00	1.00	1.00	100
INPUT_OVER_VOLT_FAULT_OP	0.99	0.96	0.98	1059
NORMAL_OP_30_DEG_C	0.96	0.99	0.97	931
OVER_CURRENTFAULT_OP	1.00	1.00	1.00	1005
OVER_TEMP_FAULT_OP	1.00	1.00	1.00	1130
avg / total	0.99	0.99	0.99	5222
[[997 0 0 0 0]				
[0 100 0 0 0]				
[0 0 1018 41 0]				
[0 0 10 921 0]				
[0 0 0 0 1005]				
[0 0 0 0 1130]]				

Figure 5: KNN Classification and Confusion matrix report

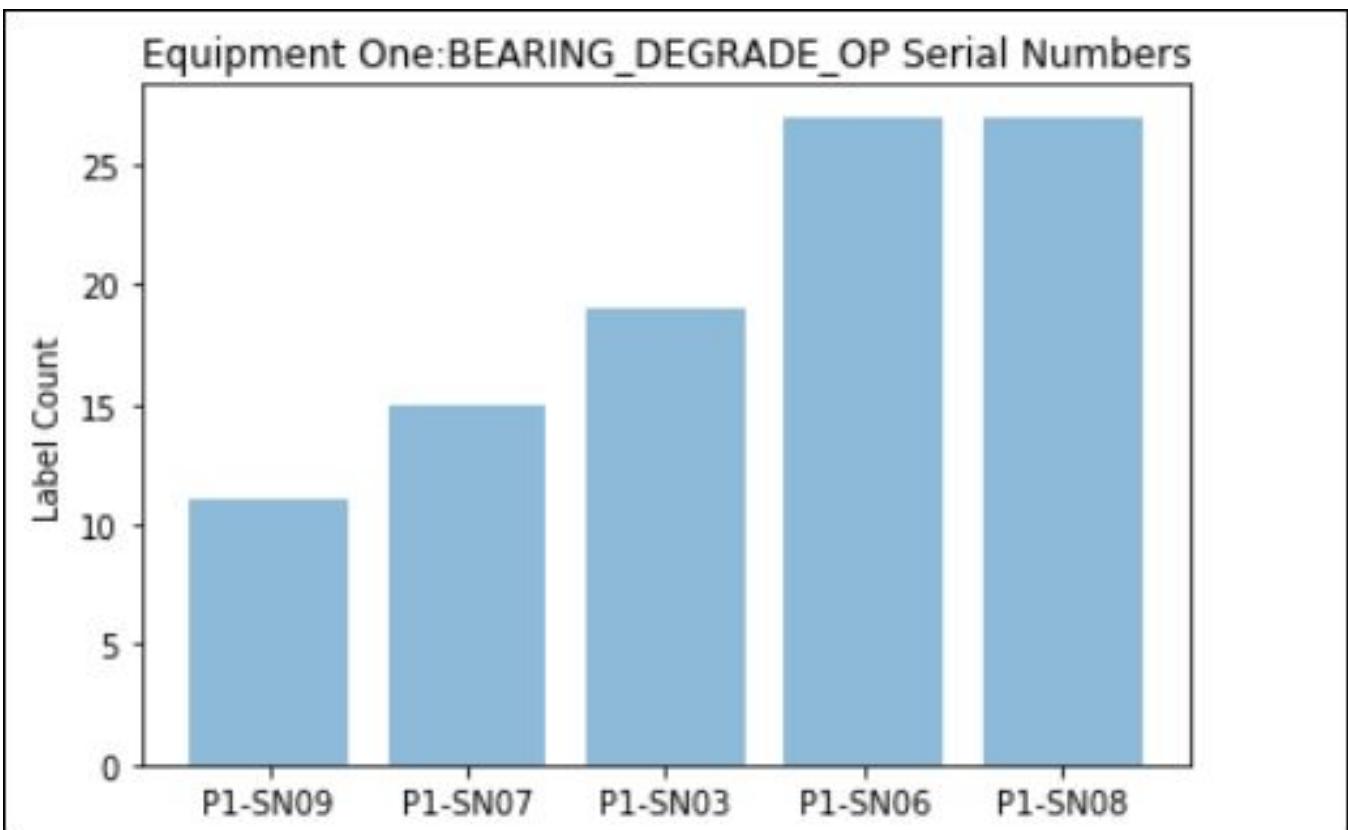


Figure 6: Bearing Degradation

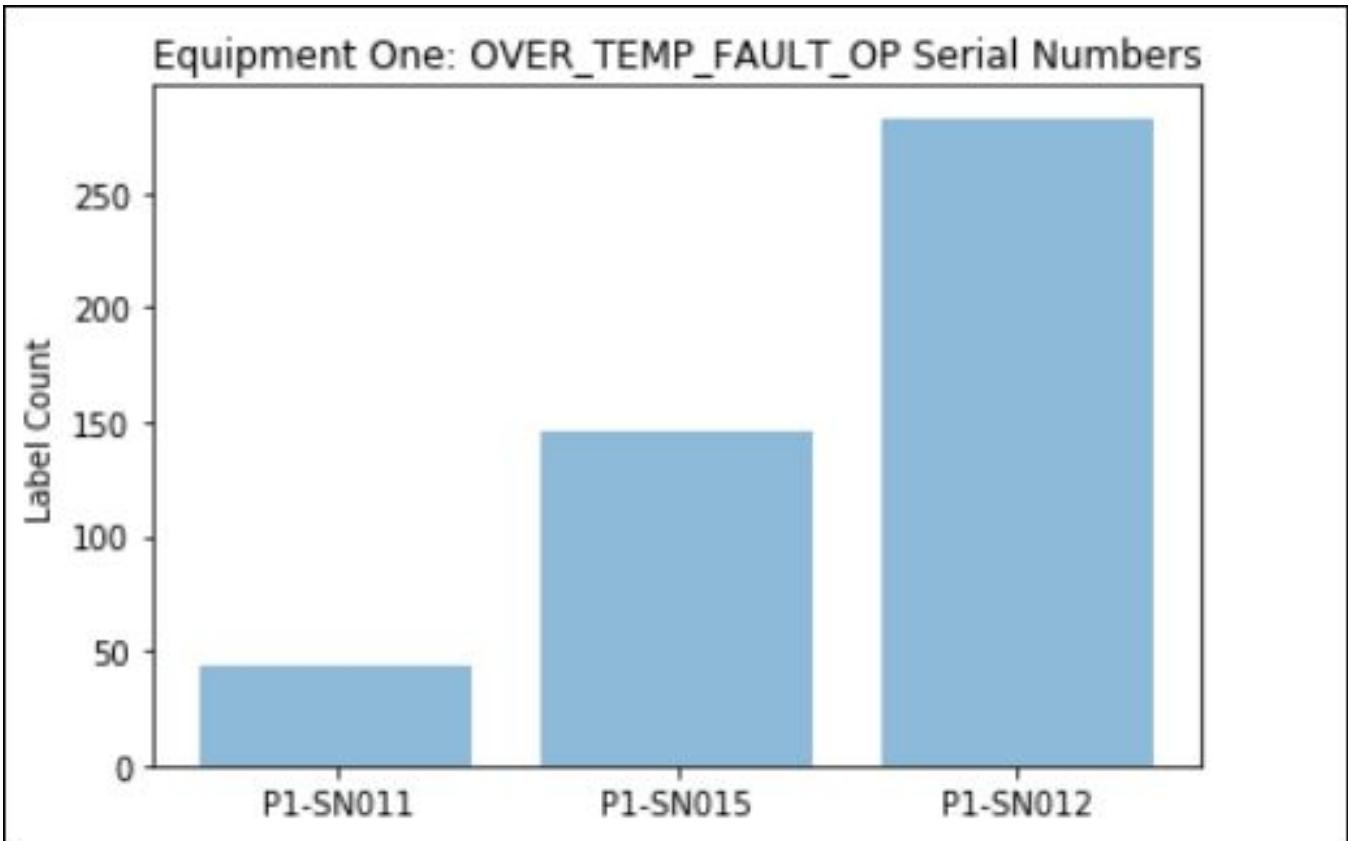


Figure 7: Over Temperature Fault

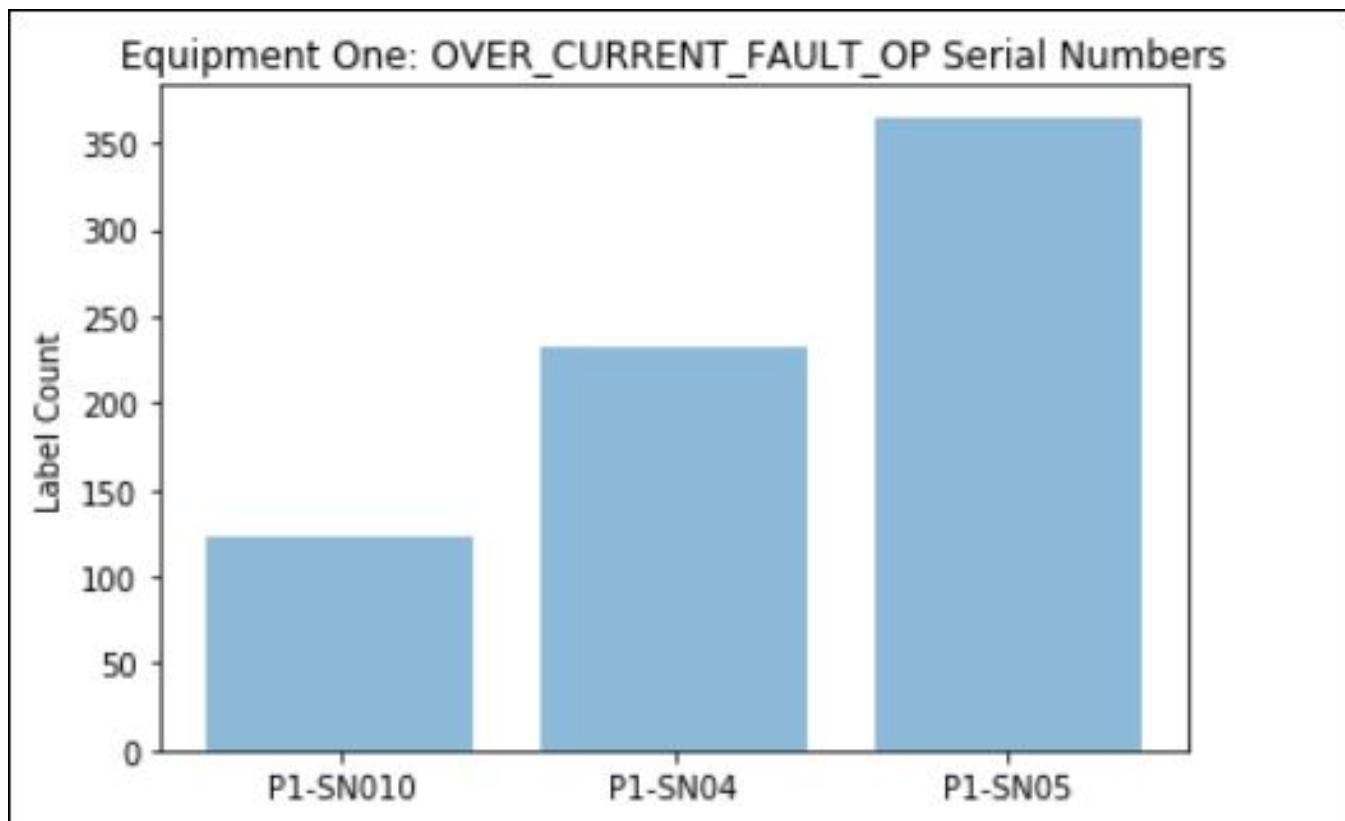


Figure 8: Over current Fault

```
bibtext report
```

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
```

```
bibtext _ label error
```

```
bibtext space label error
```

```
bibtext comma label error
```

```
latex report
```

```
[2017-12-08 04.03.51] pdflatex report.tex
This is pdfTeX, Version 3.14159265-2.6-1.40.17 (TeX Live 2016) (preloaded format=pdflatex)
bookmark level for unknown defaults to 0.
The anchor of a bookmark and its parent's must not be the same. Added a new anchor.
Typesetting of "report.tex" completed in 1.0s.
```

```
Compliance Report
```

```
name: Ashok Reddy Singam
hid: 337
paper1: Nov 01 17 100%
paper2: Nov 06 17 100%
project: Dec 04 17 100%
```

```
yamlcheck
```

```
wordcount
```

```
-----  
13  
wc 337 project 13 5219 report.tex  
wc 337 project 13 5160 report.pdf  
wc 337 project 13 246 report.bib  
  
find "  
-----  
  
passed: True  
  
find footnote  
-----  
  
passed: True  
  
find input{format/i523}  
-----  
  
3: \input{format/i523}  
  
passed: True  
  
find input{format/final}  
-----  
  
passed: False  
  
floats  
-----  
  
34: The PHM technology can be put within a broader business context by relating it to the Product-Service System (PSS) business model. PSS can be defined as an integrated combination of products and services where the emphasis is put on the \lq sale of use \rq rather than the \lq sale of product \rq. Central to this new business model is a shift from selling a product, and its related spare parts as required, to selling a solution that supports customer needs in the form of a service delivering a fully maintained and useable product \cite{Tonci2009}. As shown in Figure (\ref{fig:Figure1}), There are several wireless technologies such as 802.11, cellular, and short distance wireless protocols can be used to collect and send data to the centralized servers. Also, data can be stored in cloud based technologies such as AWS, Microsoft Azure, IBM and Google etc. for processing.
```

```

37: \begin{figure}
38: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/system_architecture}
39: \caption{System Architecture} \label{fig:Figure1}
59: The PHM application design process is shown in Figure
    (\ref{fig:Figure2}), which describes various steps of the
    processes involved. For the implementation of this project, the
    sensor generated data is simulated using SQL scripts due to
    development time constraints. However, a detailed step-by-step
    approach is provided if we need to plug-in the sensor modules in
    to the application.
63: \begin{figure}
64: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/phm_process_1}
65: \caption{PHM Design Process} \label{fig:Figure2}
108: \begin{figure}
109: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/ttf_1}
110: \caption{Time relation between alert time and failure time}
    \label{fig:Figure3}
113: As shown in the Figure (\ref{fig:Figure3}), the time to failure
    prediction will be estimated based on the classified result data
    set and alert the stakeholders to take relevant actions. The
    target alert zone will be identified based on the abnormal
    behavior of the equipment over the period.
177: Based on the performance as shown in Figure (\ref{fig:Figure4}),
    kNN has been selected to use for this application.
179: \begin{figure}
180: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/algperformance}
181: \caption{Algorithm performance} \label{fig:Figure4}
224: In this application, an average k-fold cross validation accuracy
    of 0.99 achieved, which is explained in the appendix section of
    the report. Figure(\ref{fig:Figure8}) shows Classification and
    Confusion report output obtained from the KNN model we used for
    this project.
226: \begin{figure}
227: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/knnclassification}
228: \caption{KNN Classification and Confusion matrix report}
    \label{fig:Figure8}
244: There can be more application specific information obtained from
    classified data set to take various decisions.
    Figure(\ref{fig:Figure5}), figure(\ref{fig:Figure6}) and
    figure(\ref{fig:Figure7}) show various PHM data analytics for
    this project. Figure(\ref{fig:Figure5}) displays all the serial
    numbers of equipment 1 with bearing degradation problems. The X
    axis gives serial numbers while the Y axis gives number of
    occurrences of bearing degradation for that particular serial
    number. Similarly figure(\ref{fig:Figure6}) and

```

```
figure(\ref{fig:Figure7}) give the details of over temperature  
and over current faults of various serial numbers.  
251: \item Bearing Degraded Serial numbers for Equipment Part Number1:  
      Figure (\ref{fig:Figure5})  
252: \item Over Temperature Fault Serial numbers for Equipment Part  
      Number1: Figure (\ref{fig:Figure6})  
253: \item Over Current Fault Serial numbers for Equipment Part  
      Number1: Figure (\ref{fig:Figure7})  
256: \begin{figure}  
257: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/DEGRADE}  
258: \caption{Bearing Degradation} \label{fig:Figure5}  
261: \begin{figure}  
262: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/OVERTEMP}  
263: \caption{Over Temperature Fault} \label{fig:Figure6}  
266: \begin{figure}  
267: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/OVERCURR}  
268: \caption{Over current Fault} \label{fig:Figure7}
```

```
figures 8  
tables 0  
includegraphics 8  
labels 8  
refs 9  
floats 8
```

```
False : ref check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)  
True : label check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)  
True : include graphics passed: (figures >= includegraphics)  
True : check if all figures are referred to: (refs >= labels)
```

```
Label/ref check  
passed: True
```

```
When using figures use columnwidth  
[width=1.0\columnwidth]  
do not change the number to a smaller fraction
```

```
find textwidth
```

```
passed: True
```

```
below_check
```

bibtex

label errors

bibtex errors

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
```

bibtex_empty_fields

entries in general should not be empty in bibtex

find ""

passed: True

ascii

=====

The following tests are optional

=====

Tip: newlines can often be replaced just by an empty line

find newline

passed: True

cites should have a space before \cite{} but not before the {

find cite {

passed: True

```
[2017-12-08 04.03.53] pdflatex report.tex
This is pdfTeX, Version 3.14159265-2.6-1.40.17 (TeX Live 2016) (preloaded format=pdflatex
p.1   L296 : [ali] undefined
p.2   L356 : [GENUER20102225] undefined
File `output_14_1.png' not found.
./report.tex:498: Package pdftex.def Error: File `output_14_1.png' not found.
L498 :     ...width}{0.9\paperheight}}{output_14_1.png}
LaTeXError: Package pdftex.def Error: File `output_14_1.png' not found.
```

Big Data Application in Precision Medicine and Pharmacogenomics

Budhaditya Roy

Indiana University

School of Information and Computing

Bloomington, IN 47040

royb@indiana.edu

ABSTRACT

This article focuses on the impending impact of big data analytics improving health, preventing and detecting illness at a preliminary stage of illness and personalize interferences. The complexity and diversity of biological data are pouring the need of big data analytics and how it is applied in biological field especially in Pharmacogenetics, personalized/precision medicine. Big data is particularly very useful in the healthcare industry as a whole for its data handling intensive nature. Over the past decade, electronic health records (EHR) have become an extensively accepted in hospitals and clinics worldwide and the amount of information is generally daily from a single patient is increasing day by day. Important clinical acquaintance and a deeper understanding of patient disease patterns can be deliberate from such data. It will help to improve patient care as well improve efficiency of patient care and disease prevention. There are few applications pointed out to be effective using big data such as Healthcare data solutions and big data in cancer therapy, continuous monitoring of patients symptoms, healthcare intelligence, fraud prevention and detection. Many people heard about the proposition of precision medicine in State of Union speech of President Obama in 2012. Since then the revolutionary process of precision medicine started to grow rapidly in healthcare industry. On January 30, on the same Precision based medical initiatives, the Obama administration exposed facts about the Precision Medicine tentative plans. Threw with a 215 million dollar investment in the US President's 2016 budget,, the Precision Medicine Initiative will product a new model of patient driven research that eventually support delivering the right treatment to the right patient at the right time[7]. On March 11, 2015, it is reported that China is planning to invest 60 billion Yuan almost 10 billion) in precision medicine (20 billion from the Central Government and the remaining 40 billion from local governments and companies) before 2030 [[7]]. There is a similar necessity of big data application to this latest emergence of biomedical domain. . Big data in precision medicine is the most widely used methods in precision and personalized medicine which is a life changing event in healthcare industry. Personalized medicine or called as Precision medicine is product and services that leverage the science of genomics and proteomics and take advantage of on the trends concerning wellness to enable preventive care. By using big data analytics, prevention and detection of diseases are in a new era of healthcare which essentially improving daily life of every patient. Personalize medicine is the in an era of new modern healthcare innovation. The role that big data analytics may have in interrogating the patient electronic health record headed for improved clinical decision support is discussed. In this paper we try to examine developments in pharmacogenetics

that have enflamed our appreciation of the reasons why patients respond inversely to chemotherapy in cancer treatment. We also try to measure the development of online health infrastructures and the way healthcare data may be capitalized in order to detect public health warnings and control or comprise epidemics. Finally, this paper talks about how a new generation of body sensors in form of implanted in human body may improve comfort, rationalize management of chronic diseases and progress the superiority of surgical implants which could be effectively used in near future. So, let's talk about what is precision medicine? How is it related to other dealings such as personalized medicine and omics technologies (especially in Pharmacogenomics and in Pharmacoproteomics)

KEYWORDS

Keywords- HID348, Precision Medicine, Pharmacogenomics, Pharmacoproteomics. Big data Application, Data analytics, Big data infrastructure

1 INTRODUCTION

The complexity, diversity, and rich context of data being generated in healthcare are driving the development of big data for health [3].The data captured at these portals can also help significantly reduce the cost of drug discovery as improved predictive analytics to determine which drugs work well and which are not as effective for certain conditions. Big data analytics may even allow for uploading the genomics of large populations that can be warehoused for researching new generations of drug remedies. Big data analytics is becoming increasingly popular in modern world with almost every domain. Big Data means lots of data used for analysis and get the insight from the data. Big data applications in general is applicable to any domain such as Retail, Healthcare, Finance and Supply Chain efficiently but in current world the application of Big Data has a major impact on healthcare sector where daily volume of data quadruple in every minute around the globe. Organizations are using Big Data to envisage the future with the goal of making them smarter and competitive in daily work. Applications from Big Data has become from retail industry where Big Data helps retailers gain insights into the customer needs and by monitoring customers' habits future can be effectively utilized, HealthCare and Hospitality[3]. Government agencies are progressively integrating Big Data analytics to control crime and sustain law by foresee the circumstances and by using social media, it is trying to achieve other benefits out of it. So, to get actionable data and perform analytics requires specialized tools which can handle this

massive amount of data as well as help in analysis of the information. There are thousands of Big Data tools available in the market right now which contribute significantly to healthcare analytics. There are open source tools like Hadoop, which is named as big data umbrella and in big data ecosystem. Today's healthcare data are beginning analyzed using aforesaid big data tools such as Pig, Cassandra, MongoDB and others. The quality of health care services in US and across the globe have been enhanced tremendously because of the advancement in health care services, advancements of technologies and Artificial intelligence process which improved the accuracy of healthcare as a service to next level. According to Google Trends analysis, the number of searches using the keyword "big data" started to increase dramatically in 2011 and reached the peak in 2017 [3]. Although the term "big data" resonates as if it is connected to the area of data science, big data and data science both play a significant role in healthcare research especially in precision and emergency medicine. Conventionally, scientists have adopted the traditional 4Vs criteria to describe big data: volume of data, velocity of data which is speed of incoming and outgoing data and variety which is range of data types [4]. However, from the perspective of medical science, this classification may not be real world sufficient as the 3Vs criteria are forceful and time-reliant. Big Data is a capacious collection of data that cannot be achieved by traditional database management systems (RDBMS). Big Data is an umbrella term used for the enormous amount of data produced from countless of sources such as mobile, web, sensor devices, enterprise applications and rigorous digital repositories. In big data umbrella, data can be structured as well as unstructured or semi-structured. The data varieties from terabytes to exabytes of data [4]. The relational database management systems (RDBMS) have proven inefficient to handle such huge volumes of data in form of patient records such as X-ray, Scan and routine checkup results. Another important factor which renders the conventional database systems inappropriate is that the majority of data being generated as unstructured, the RDBMS systems are only adept to handle structured relational data. Hereafter new tools and systems for data analysis and management have emerged. Volume, velocity, variety, veracity, variability, and value are the three must-haves of big data and these are condensed in the integral challenges of biomedical and health informatics. Effective ways of confronting these challenges would cover the way for more intellectual healthcare systems focused on early detection, prevention and personalized treatments. As Big data is characterized by the 4 Vs. We discussed about the 4Vs below which essentially contributed to the success of healthcare management [3]. 1. Volume- As data are increasing day by day, it is always in light of voluminous collection of data. The complete volume of data generated these days by real-time applications such as X-ray machines and MRI systems and other external data sources such as Facebook comments, tweets or even patients' data, it runs to petabytes and exabytes of data. Big Data technology empowers us to store this amount of data on dispersed systems [[4]]. 2. Velocity- is the proportion at which data is arrived. As an example, in whole gene sequencing process, one sequence generates huge volume of data and when the sequencing process is completed data arrives at a very higher speed having few time to store and analyze the data. 3. Veracity- When the volume increases so does the quality. Veracity refers to the quality of the data.

There are doubts of good quality of accurate data being generated in recent times. Big Data applications empower working with data which are large in volume, accurate and insightful [4]. 4. Value- Everything in the world has a value so does the data. There is an intrinsic value that the data holds and discovers for analysis. Value is the heart of Big data analytics and the way data generated value in healthcare is just enormous. Modern technologies have made it possible to find the insight from data. Since data is huge and storage capacity leads to an expensive turnaround. Apache Hadoop is the savior in these kinds of applications by processing gigabytes of data in a very short span of time and Hadoop ecosystem consisting of MapReduce a different language processing system or Hive and Drill an analytical SQL platform on Hadoop or Spark, in memory data flow system or HBase/MongoDB in memory database systems or HDFS, capable of storing petabytes of data or streaming systems such as Apache Storm and Kafka, overall these are highly capable tools can be profoundly effective in healthcare biomedical data analytics.

2 WHAT IS PRECISION MEDICINE

Precision medicine in broader terms is another name of preventive medicine. According to the Precision Medicine Initiative and American Healthcare Association, precision medicine is an emerging approach for disease treatment and prevention that takes into interpretation of individual heterogeneity in genes, environment and routine and lifestyle for each person. This approach will allow medical professionals and researchers to predict more accurately about the treatment and prevention approaches for any particular disease about its effectiveness. It is in divergence to a one-size-fits-all approach in which disease treatment and prevention strategies are developed for the average person with less deliberation for the genetics-based differences between each individual. Though the term precision medicine is relatively new in medical industry, the concept has been there and as a part of healthcare for many years. As an example, a patient who needs a blood transfusion is not given random blood from a blood bank storage rather it will be from a process of donor's blood type is matched to the recipient to decrease the risk of future problems [8]. Although illustrations can be found in numerous areas of medicine the role of precision medicine in day-to-day healthcare is relatively restricted. Medical researchers expect that this approach will increase in many areas of health and other healthcare domains in upcoming years. Precision medicine is being sought to transform how we as a whole improve health, treat and prevent disease. Today most of the medical treatments are intended for the average patient using the one-and-one approach. However, in many cases, this approach is not at all effective because treatments can be very successful for some patients but not for every patient [4]. As an example, if Patient A and Patient B both have stage 3 lung cancer, giving the same chemotherapy to both the patient helps one but not the other. In precision medicine with the help of big data technology, medicines are targeted to specific genomic sequences rather than a random selection. In advanced countries like USA, a rigorous process is already in place to target particular genes after finding the root cause of the disease. It is a big data application which enables to store the data and use analytical tools to get useful information out of it. Overall, Precision medicine is a field

of medicine that takes into interpretation individual differences in people's genes, environments, microbiomes, habitual effects, and family history to make diagnostic and beneficial strategies accurately personalized to individual patients. Precision medicine is a newer term referring to a similar ground compared to another word if personalized medicine. The term if precision medicine arrived the scientific dictionary in the year 2008 when business strategist Clayton Christensen, of Harvard Business School in Boston, invented the appearance to describe how molecular diagnostics allows physicians to unambiguously diagnose the cause of a disease without having to rely on perception[4]. The name precision medicine didn't gain enough attention until 2011 when a committee convened by the US National Research Council placed out a plan for modernizing the classification of disease on the foundation of molecular information such as causal genetic variants instead of a symptom based cataloguing system. The committee called the report Toward Precision Medicine [3]. There are many areas where precision medicine is vastly applicable and are very much beneficial such as, finding correct dose of prescription drugs, root cause analysis of a disease and so on. The field of pharmacogenomics aims to understand how genetic variations influence individual responses to medications. Genetic tests for supervisory treatment decisions are becoming increasingly available across miscellaneous areas of medical care. These kind of tests provide more effective drugs to patients earlier in their treatment and with fewer negative side effects and in less costly than previous tests. Precision medicine is also pertinent in Cancer detection, Genomics and cure process. Oncology is the target of some of the most auspicious precision medicine approaches available today. Cancer forms through the gradual accumulation of genetic DNA changes in genes that regulate cell growth. That is why, cancer is very much an illness of the genome. Depending on where in the body the cancer started and the types of genetic changes the cells grow, different types of cancer have very different genetic profiles which completely varies person to person and highly dependent on their family history. These genetic sequences can be used in a number of ways to help medical professionals choosing the best treatments for each individual patient. Growing tissues replacement is another way to apply precision medicine in pharmacogenomics[3].

2.1 Personalized Medicine

The concept of personalized medicine dates back many hundreds of years although the term seemingly similar meaning with precision medicine. Mere from 19th century, scientists started to measure the chemistry of root cause of any illness and the research improvements are granular over time. With the growth of the pharmaceutical industry and medical technology industries in recent times came the rise of genetics, data mining and imaging. Halfway over the period, comments of specific alterations in retort to drugs contributed growth to a body of study attentive on classifying crucial enzymes that play an important role in disparity in drug absorption and reaction and this is helped as the basis for pharmacogenetics. In recent times, sequencing of the human genome customary in motion the transformation of personalized medicine from an knowledge to a practice. Personalized diagnosed tools are now created with rapid developments in genomics along with advances high critical areas

such as computational biology, medical imaging, and regenerative medicine and treatment [4]. Personalized medicine first appeared in available mechanism in 1999 with the creation of some of the domain specific core concepts even dating back to 19th century [2]. So basically personalized medicine is referred to treatment depending on each individual's personal structure and history. Initially, personalized medicine is the idea that assortment of a treatment should be custom-made giving to the individual patient's specific physiognomies, including age, sex, gender, height, ethnicity, diet, and environmental factors against traditional clinical trials on group of people which has been happening since the invention of medicine happened [4]. Scientists got interested on personalized medicine when medical professional started understanding the essence of gene in human development. Several human genome projects have been conducted since then and the importance of personalized medicine started in limelight. With deceitful out in order the 3.2 billion units of our DNA, scientists flashed a blaze of detection and a detonation of genomic knowledge in medical science history [2]. Novel omics technologies including microarrays, whole genome single nucleotide polymorphism [SNP] chips, RNA interference high-throughput transmission, next generation sequencing are the few procedure which accompanied with this revolution. All the above launch a new epoch in personalized medicine which is called genomic revolution era which bids us limitless probable and countless promise containing the expansion of personalized medical products for each individual based on their sole genomic information [8]. Advancement of genomics science along with the developing of new omics technologies, personalized medicine is today frequently well-defined as a combination of molecular profiling (omics methods) and customary methods such as family history, lifestyle and environment, which create analytic and beneficial strategies precisely personalized to individual patients [2, 4].

3 BIG DATA IN PRECISION MEDICINE

Once again the term Big data is signifies in collection of large and complex data sets which are difficult or sometimes impossible to process using common database management tools or traditional data processing applications even with modern advancement of traditional data warehousing tools such as Amazon Redshift. In 2012, the Obama administration announced the Big Data Research and Development Initiative [6], which explored how big data could be utilized to address important problems faced by the overall healthcare system. Since then, Big Data becomes such a big term that people tend to claim any kind of data analysis to be if Big Data if characterization. The overall concept of big data can be explained in various ways. One way is, Big data is a comprehensive term for any collection of data sets are so voluminous that processing the data in the begging stage itself is very hard. With four if Vif characterization of big data m, complexity arises more to collect data and make meaningful information out of it. Omics data, mobile internet real-time data and electronic health record data are the top three areas for Big Data in medical research. Precision medicine will use all of these three Big Data. In fact, among the 215 million investment in the USA President's 2016 Budget, 130 million (over 60 percent) will be used for building a large US cohort for precision research [6]. In this regiment study, the scientists will use widespread omics

data, electronic health record data gathered from several hospital and private practices along with mobile internet data [*]. Thus, omics and medical big data are one of the key pairs in the success of precision medicine in healthcare industry as a whole.

4 BIG DATA CHALLENGES IN HEALTHCARE

- Whenever anything benefits us, that comes with its own challenges and problems. The primary idea of big data to be applied in healthcare is to roll massive healthcare dataset with individual information. As the need of more data driven enterprise grows Besides general challenges inherent to the analysis of big data such as missing data, vague data, and varied data, employing big data in health care systems imposes new challenges which includes the lack of reliability and a solid data governance of some biomedical data, issues of privacy and security and confidentiality, insufficient data from random clinical trials including successful and failed trials, and overall low quality data. Challenges in machine learning and statistical applications also put the analytics in challenging situation where model development and execution are critical to success[2]. Healthcare providers who have hardly come to grasps with driving data into their electronic health records (EHR) are now being questioned to pull actionable insights out of them and apply those learnings to complex initiatives that straight impact their repayment rates. Organizations who can integrate this data driven technological innovation to their healthcare operations are in the most benefit[5]. Data assets and data insights can be achieved by using healthier patients, increased visibility in operational excellence, lower care costs and higher staff and consumer satisfaction rates are among the many benefits of turning data assets into data insights. The journey to evocative healthcare analytics is difficult challenge and problems by solving those will benefit the industry to the highest extent. The way overall big data analytics work, collecting, storing, analyzing the data require clear presentation to the staff members to understand the overall workflow process[4]. Analyzing genomic data is a computationally are some of the top challenges organizations typically aspect when striking up a big data analytics program and how can organizations overawed these issues to attain their data driven clinical and financial goals are the most important aspect of big data implementation. Understanding unstructured clinical nodes, storing unstructured patients health records are complex in nature and specialized training is required in implementing the analytics platform is essential. Some of the pitfall of big data application in precision medicine is discussed below.

4.1 Data Collection

This is the most crucial stage in any data driven technologies, capturing the patient's behavioral data through several sensing processes; with their numerous social interactions and communications. The data many come from many sources or in different format but not everywhere data governance is properly applied while collecting the data. Capturing data which is clean, comprehensive, correct, and well formatted for use in diverse systems is an ongoing combat for organizations, many of which are not on the endearing side of the battle. As an example, electronic health record capturing in right movement help physicians to access the accurate picture

of the patient's history. Oftentimes, delay in collecting this data create problems which eventually leads to unhealthy environment and future risks. Revolving Healthcare Big Data into Actionable Clinical Intelligence Providers can start to recover their data capture procedures by ranking valuable data categories for their specific plans, conscripting the data governance and honesty knowledge of health information management professionals and evolving clinical documentation improvement programs that tutor clinicians about how to confirm that data is valuable for downstream analytics [4]

4.2 Data Cleaning

Healthcare providers are well familiar with the importance of cleanliness in the clinic and the operating room but they are not aware on many things which could lead to a clear picture of the meaningful data. Data which is dirty and raw might have a potential impact on big data analytics projects and can screw up the true insight completely. Data cleaning also known as data scrubbing always ensures that data is not inconsistent, proper and useful in perspective and predictive analytics. Though when everything started, data cleaning was a manual process, but now with the help of big data quality tools, cleaning data has been easier than ever before. Since data cleaning is complex and tedious process in particular healthcare system, oftentimes big data analytical tools stand by the first door where data streamline occurs. Which eventually cleans the data with a global standard before it entered to main stream pipeline.

4.3 Data Storage

This is the most critical place where big data application play a key role. As the volume of healthcare data grows exponentially many healthcare providers are not able to manage the costs and effects of on premise data centers. Although many organizations are most happy with on premise data storing which also leads to security issues and data governance issues. With the help of cloud storage almost 90 percent of healthcare providers have chosen cloud based data storage centers which provides better flexibility and availability of data. Amazon web services, Microsoft Azure cloud and Salesforce cloud have put the data storage industry to the utmost point where no longer organizations need to worry about the cost and capacity of storing humongous amount of data. The cloud offers sprightly disaster recovery, lower set up and upfront costs and easier development, although organizations must be extremely careful about choosing partners that understand the significance of HIPAA law and other healthcare related compliance and security issues [3]. Many organizations finish up with an amalgam approach to their data storage agendas, which may be the furthestmost supple and workable approach for providers with variable data access and storage necessities. When creating hybrid substructure providers should be cautious to safeguard that dissimilar systems are able to interconnect and portion the data through extra segments of the organization when necessary [5].

4.4 Data Security

Data security is the number one priority for healthcare organizations, particularly in the wake of a hundreds of data breaches, hackings, and intrusion incidents. Data is so sensitive especially

in healthcare systems that a proper security measure has to be taken to protect the data. Healthcare privacy law such as HIPAA and others put the organizations in the front door where every healthcare providers must conform the law to protect the data. For precision based medicine era, this has become more important with each individual patient's data being captured and analyzed. Since genomic science is completely depending on data architecture, one data breach can push the healthcare provider in a tremendous reputation and financial loss. Due to this, security is one of the most talked topic in personalized medicine [2].

4.5 Data Governance

Healthcare data, particularly on the clinical side has a long ledger life. In accumulation to existence required to keep patient data available for at least six years of time frame, providers might request to use de identified datasets for scientific projects, which makes continuing stewardship and curation an important concern [2]. Any data can be used for variety of other purposes as long as data masking is properly applied to the dataset. Understanding of the data when it is created by whom and for purpose can lead to positive results while in research.

4.6 Data Querying

Vigorous metadata and robust stewardship procedures make organizations to comply with data querying very effectively. There are many tools in the market which can give access to query from databases to get the useful information. Azure datalakes, different programming based API, Hadoop Sqoop are the few tools which help in big data query language extraction. Many organizations use Structured Query Language (SQL) to dive into large datasets and relational databases, but this can only be true if end user can trust the data they are working on which can provide useful information to them [2]. Data Reporting: Reporting is the end to end product of any data collection and process. Big data reporting can help transform virtually all aspects of the enterprise. From quickly producing actionable intelligence to driving productivity to gain real time visibility into customers and markets, big data analysis and big data reporting promise to deliver a wealth of benefits for competitive advantage [*]. Many companies including not for profit hospitals use reporting as their sole decision making procedure. Data reporting helps unveils the insight into charts and graphs and visualize the insight to the target audience. In healthcare organizations especially in precision medicines, reporting of the finding is must have to take informed decision. Data reporting has the potential to show about the result of an ongoing research study or data findings. [2].

4.7 Data Visualization

In patient care, a clean and attractive data visualization can make it much easier for a clinical staff to understand the fundamental very easily and take decision based on it. Color visualizations are a popular data visualization technique that typically yields an immediate response as an example, red, black color divergence is. Organizations must also consider good data presentation practices such as charts, graphs, scatterplot. Common examples of data visualizations include heat maps, bar charts, pie charts, scatterplots,

and histograms, all of which have their own specific uses to prove concepts and material.

4.8 Data Update

Healthcare data is non-static and almost all the elements requires an update in daily interval. Some datasets such as patient vital signs and symptoms, may require frequent update. But patient's demographic information may change once in a while. Since in genomic since changes are captured in every interval or procedure, there has to be constant update to the proper and existing dataset. The most critical phrase comes when incremental data is gathered and new data is added to existing dataset. In precision medicine, medical professional compares whole gene sequences in different timeframe of the disease and in different medicine stages. In these case, data has to be updated regularly in order to analyze the proper data [?]. Organizations should also confirm that they are not making needless identical records when endeavoring an update to a single component which may make it problematic for clinical staff members to access needed information for patient decision making.

4.9 Data Sharing

With the essence of electronic medical record, data sharing become easier but complicated in healthcare analytics. With large volume and the structure of the data, healthcare providers and researchers are immensely beholding data which may contribute finding to their scientific invention. Data exchange is a perpetual worry for organizations at any costs. With the increase data volume and nature of the data, it is getting more and more difficult for the organization to move data from one to place to another without losing information and change in pattern on data lineage can lead to significant mislead information. [5].

5 PRECISION MEDICINE AND OMICS

With the growth of big data, organizations move into NOSQL databases where security is a growing concern. Though we found there are severe security issues in most of the NOSQL databases which are used today in big data environment. Lack of security measures put extra sensitivity to the overall big data applications being NOSQL databases are heart of any big data project. Though not reached at pick, constant evaluation and research are in process to make NOSQL databases more secure in near future. The evolution of omics outlining technologies significantly benefited studies are conducted on diseases mechanism, molecular diagnosis and personalized treatment [4]. The study of omics is strongly related to the study of biology as a whole and precision medicine. There is a strong connection between Omics and Precision medicine and big data as a whole has become the core of precision medicine. The advancement of precision/personalized medicine depends heavily on the ability to acquire biological aces at omics interval though the training of precision medicine does not use sole omics data and omics knowledge [1]. This happens due to molecular characteristics found from omics data can categorize diseases and classify population of patients appropriate to assured common treatment more exactly [4]. Biology has become more data intensive and technological intensive subject .Following this trend, many of the emerging fields of large-scale data rich biology are designated by

adding the suffix fi-omicsfi to previously used definitions. Particularly, the word omics refers to a field of study in biology ending in the suffix fi?! omics and it is related addresses the objects of study of such a field[4][2]. Pharmacogenomics is the study of how a person's response to drugs is affected by his genetic makeup [3]. It combines pharmacology which is also called the science of drugs and genomics which is the study of gene and their functions to develop effective, proper medications that will be personalized to a person's genetic makeup. Pharmacoproteomics, essentially a sub discipline of functional pharmacogenomics which is a study of how the protein content of a cell or tissue changes qualitatively and quantitatively in response to treatment or disease, what the protein-protein and protein ligand interactions are in related to drug response, and how a person's protein variants in quality and quantity affect a person's response to a drug [8]. In modern days, the pharmaceutical industry has developed strong interest in Pharmacoproteomics with the anticipation that this technology will lead to the empathy and authentication of protein targets and eventually to the detection and growth of feasible drug candidates. Pharmacogenomics and Pharmacoproteomics will help the prescription of drug and related doses to a patients based on response to a drug which greatly indorsing the advance and practice of precision/personalized medicine [8]

6 CONCLUSION

Personal medicine, Omics technologies and pharmacogenomics are the evolutionary invention in medical industry, holding the hands of these medical concepts scientist can not only find the cancer cell in human body parts as well as start of cancer as a disease in a particular cell. These all is possible due to the essence of big data which not only helped organizations to tackle the voluminous data effectively but to use them in a way to get meaningful insight out of it. Massive parallel computing and clustering are now opened up new window in medical research where processing of huge amount data is better than ever before as well as build automated model on top of it. Whole gene sequencing is an example of how a big data can help strong millions of genetic information in a single storage system and take useful information out of it. With the help of big data in precision based medicines scientists are now able to predict the origin of the disease, track and cure it more effectively.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The author would like to thank Dr. Gregor von Laszewski and I523.

REFERENCES

- [1] Shein-Chung Chow1 and Fuyu Song2. 2016. *Some Thoughts on Precision Medicine*. Journal of Biometrics and Biostatistics, Chapter 1, 1.
- [2] Mohit Dayal1 and Nanhay Singh. 2012. *Indian Health Care Analysis using Big Data Programming Tool*. Web, Chapter 1, 2. NA
- [3] Andy Futrel. 2012. *Building Genomic medicine capability* (1st. ed.). 4th, Vol. 2. MD Anderson Cancer Research center, Boston, MA, Chapter 1. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4614-540-4_4
- [4] Daniel Richard Leff and Guang-Zhong Yang*. 2015. . 1, Vol. 1. Engineering.org, Chapter 1, 2. <https://engineering.org>
- [5] IEEE Chih-Wen Cheng Member IEEE Chanchala D. Kaddi Member IEEE Janani Venugopalan Member IEEE Ryan Hoffman Member IEEE Po-Yen Wu, Member and IEEE May D. Wang, Senior Member. 2016. *Omic and Electronic Health Record Big Data Analytics for Precision Medicine*. Chapter 1, 1. <https://doi.org/10.73-105.876>
- [6] White House Press Release. 2015. *Precision Medicine Initiatives*. White House Press Conferences, NY, Chapter 1, 1. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4614-540-4_4
- [7] Whitehouse (Ed.). 2012. *Precision medicine Initiatives*. 1st, Vol. 1. Purdue University Press, Purdue University, Indiana. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4614-540-4_4
- [8] Xiaohua Douglas Zhang. 2015. *Pharmacogenomics & Pharmacoproteomics*. 1, Vol. 1. Merck Research Laboratories.

```
bibtext report
```

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
I was expecting a ',' or a '}'---line 61 of file report.bib
:
: chapter = "1",
(Error may have been on previous line)
I'm skipping whatever remains of this entry
I was expecting a ',' or a '}'---line 123 of file report.bib
:
: doi = "10.7/3-105.876",
(Error may have been on previous line)
I'm skipping whatever remains of this entry
I was expecting a ',' or a '}'---line 138 of file report.bib
:
: doi = "10.7/3-105.876",
(Error may have been on previous line)
I'm skipping whatever remains of this entry
Warning--I didn't find a database entry for "editor0"
Name 1 in "Po-Yen Wu, Member, IEEE, Chih-Wen Cheng, Member, IEEE, Chanchala D. Kaddi, Me
while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Po-Yen Wu, Member, IEEE, Chih-Wen Cheng, Member, IEEE, Cha
while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Po-Yen Wu, Member, IEEE, Chih-Wen Cheng, Member, IEEE, Cha
while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Po-Yen Wu, Member, IEEE, Chih-Wen Cheng, Member, IEEE, Cha
while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Po-Yen Wu, Member, IEEE, Chih-Wen Cheng, Member, IEEE, Cha
while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Po-Yen Wu, Member, IEEE, Chih-Wen Cheng, Member, IEEE, Cha
while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Po-Yen Wu, Member, IEEE, Chih-Wen Cheng, Member, IEEE, Cha
while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Po-Yen Wu, Member, IEEE, Chih-Wen Cheng, Member, IEEE, Cha
while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Po-Yen Wu, Member, IEEE, Chih-Wen Cheng, Member, IEEE, Cha
while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Po-Yen Wu, Member, IEEE, Chih-Wen Cheng, Member, IEEE, Cha
while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Po-Yen Wu, Member, IEEE, Chih-Wen Cheng, Member, IEEE, Cha
while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Po-Yen Wu, Member, IEEE, Chih-Wen Cheng, Member, IEEE, Cha
while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Po-Yen Wu, Member, IEEE, Chih-Wen Cheng, Member, IEEE, Cha
while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
```



```
Too many commas in name 1 of "Po-Yen Wu, Member, IEEE, Chih-Wen Cheng, Member, IEEE, Cha
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Po-Yen Wu, Member, IEEE, Chih-Wen Cheng, Member, IEEE, Cha
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Po-Yen Wu, Member, IEEE, Chih-Wen Cheng, Member, IEEE, Cha
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Warning--empty publisher in editor07
Warning--empty address in editor07
Warning--empty chapter and pages in editor01
Warning--unrecognized DOI value [NA]
Warning--empty address in editor04
Warning--empty chapter and pages in editor04
(There were 107 error messages)
make[2]: *** [bibtex] Error 2
```

latex report


```
Missing character: ""
There were undefined citations.
Typesetting of "report.tex" completed in 1.0s.
```

Compliance Report

```
name: Budhaditya Roy
hid: 348
paper1: 100% Oct 25 17
paper2: 100%
project: 100%
```

```
yamlcheck
```

```
wordcount
```

```
6
wc 348 project 6 579 content.tex
wc 348 project 6 5477 report.pdf
wc 348 project 6 439 report.bib
```

```
find "
```

```
103: Do not use "these quotes" but use these ``these quotes''.
```

```
passed: False
```

```
find footnote
```

```
113: \footnote{do not use footnotes}.
```

```
passed: False
```

```
find input{format/i523}
```

```
4: \input{format/i523}
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find input{format/final}
```

```
passed: False
```

```
floats
```

```
62: In Figure \ref{f:fly} we show a fly. Please note that because we  
use
```

```
69: \begin{figure}[!ht]
```

```
70: \% \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/fly.pdf}
```

```
71: \caption{Example caption}\label{f:fly}
```

```
86: or generate them by hand while using the provided template in  
Table\ref{t:mytable}. Not ethat
```

```
89: \begin{table}[htb]
```

```
92: \label{t:mytable}
```

```
figures 1
```

```
tables 1
```

```
includegraphics 1
```

```
labels 2
```

```
refs 2
```

```
floats 2
```

```
True : ref check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
```

```
True : label check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
```

```
True : include graphics passed: (figures >= includegraphics)
```

```
True : check if all figures are refered to: (refs >= labels)
```

```
Label/ref check
```

```
106: Do not use Figure 1 user the ref for the figure while using its  
label
```

```
passed: False -> labels or refs used wrong
```

```
When using figures use columnwidth  
[width=1.0\columnwidth]
```

do not change the number to a smaller fraction

find textwidth

passed: True

below_check

WARNING: figure and below may be used improperly

67: figure below.

bibtex

label errors

bibtex errors

This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)

The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux

The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Database file #1: report.bib

I was expecting a ',' or a '}'---line 61 of file report.bib

:

: chapter = "1",

(Error may have been on previous line)

I'm skipping whatever remains of this entry

I was expecting a ',' or a '}'---line 123 of file report.bib

:

: doi = "10.7/3-105.876",

(Error may have been on previous line)

I'm skipping whatever remains of this entry

I was expecting a ',' or a '}'---line 138 of file report.bib

:

: doi = "10.7/3-105.876",

(Error may have been on previous line)

I'm skipping whatever remains of this entry

Warning--I didn't find a database entry for "editor0"

Name 1 in "Po-Yen Wu, Member, IEEE, Chih-Wen Cheng, Member, IEEE, Chanchala D. Kaddi, Me


```
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Name 1 in "Po-Yen Wu, Member, IEEE, Chih-Wen Cheng, Member, IEEE, Chanchala D. Kaddi, Me
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Po-Yen Wu, Member, IEEE, Chih-Wen Cheng, Member, IEEE, Cha
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Po-Yen Wu, Member, IEEE, Chih-Wen Cheng, Member, IEEE, Cha
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Po-Yen Wu, Member, IEEE, Chih-Wen Cheng, Member, IEEE, Cha
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Po-Yen Wu, Member, IEEE, Chih-Wen Cheng, Member, IEEE, Cha
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Po-Yen Wu, Member, IEEE, Chih-Wen Cheng, Member, IEEE, Cha
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Po-Yen Wu, Member, IEEE, Chih-Wen Cheng, Member, IEEE, Cha
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Po-Yen Wu, Member, IEEE, Chih-Wen Cheng, Member, IEEE, Cha
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Po-Yen Wu, Member, IEEE, Chih-Wen Cheng, Member, IEEE, Cha
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Po-Yen Wu, Member, IEEE, Chih-Wen Cheng, Member, IEEE, Cha
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Po-Yen Wu, Member, IEEE, Chih-Wen Cheng, Member, IEEE, Cha
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Po-Yen Wu, Member, IEEE, Chih-Wen Cheng, Member, IEEE, Cha
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Po-Yen Wu, Member, IEEE, Chih-Wen Cheng, Member, IEEE, Cha
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Po-Yen Wu, Member, IEEE, Chih-Wen Cheng, Member, IEEE, Cha
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Po-Yen Wu, Member, IEEE, Chih-Wen Cheng, Member, IEEE, Cha
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Po-Yen Wu, Member, IEEE, Chih-Wen Cheng, Member, IEEE, Cha
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Po-Yen Wu, Member, IEEE, Chih-Wen Cheng, Member, IEEE, Cha
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Warning--empty publisher in editor07
Warning--empty address in editor07
Warning--empty chapter and pages in editor01
Warning--unrecognized DOI value [NA]
Warning--empty address in editor04
Warning--empty chapter and pages in editor04
(There were 107 error messages)
```

bibtex_empty_fields

entries in general should not be empty in bibtex

find ""

4: author = "",

```
13: chapter =      "",  
14: page =      "",  
22: editor =      "",  
32: pages =      "",  
40: editor =      "",  
45: address =      "",  
55: editor =      "",  
64: address =      "",  
70: editor =      "",  
76: publisher =      "",  
84: editor =      "",  
109: address =      "",  
122: address =      "",  
137: address =      "",  
passed: False
```

```
ascii
```

```
=====
```

The following tests are optional

```
=====
```

Tip: newlines can often be replaced just by an empty line

```
find newline
```

```
passed: True  
cites should have a space before \cite{} but not before the {
```

```
find cite {
```

```
-----  
passed: True
```

Diversification of Big Data

Shiqi Shen

Indiana University Bloomington
1575 S Ira St
Bloomington, Indiana 47401
shiqshen@indiana.edu

Qiaoyi Liu

Indiana University of Bloomington
3209 E 10th St
Bloomington, Indiana 47408
ql30@umail.iu.edu

ABSTRACT

There are some ideas around the conception of big data and how it is used in the market outside of a programmer's computer. What I mean to try, and state here is that there is an idea of how big data is used and functions in the world. As a programmer, we cannot just focus on what we contribute to the programs, meaning we cannot only look at our computer data and creation of such programs as a means for our own scientific endeavors and egos, we must understand how such creation are reflected into the world and how such programs create a very interesting market exposure. Therefore, we write this paper to analyze the enterprise of big data. We will use this paper to seek out the multiplicity of avenues in which big data is used by our technological world (mainly those that seek to use big data to create diversified consumer experiences).

KEYWORDS

i423, hid109, Big Data; Social Media; Online, Shopping, Customers; Pricing; Dynamic, Internet, application

1 INTRODUCTION

In order to begin a type of observation around this topic, we need to first establish what types of enterprise we will look into in order to make our observations. We will look at Online Shopping, streaming services, and Social media. These forms of enterprise concentrate their use of big data to create a diversified user experience, one which looks to creating more possibilities and other forms of consumer products for consumers. We would also like to use such an observation to understand the use of big data in these types of enterprises and how such uses render experiences and technology of big data as a good form of consumer study.

2 OBSERVATION

Before we begin our in-depth observation, it is important to showcase the Big Data technologies, some components of big data that make it what it is. There is of course an array of technologies that facilitate and create big data. In the creations of big data, we can see many enterprises like the generations of web pages (in which individuals, corporations, government, and the like, produce these pages with data). We can also see digital imagers that facilitate data collection as well. These types of data can come from telescopes, MRI Machines, and Video Cameras. Another source of data production can come from biological and chemical sensors, things like microarrays and environmental monitors [21].

From production of data there must be a medium that collects this data, that is of course usually computers. These data can be collected in things like the internet and localized sensor networks.

These sources of course can both collect and analyze the data. From collection, there are also storage capacity for these data. In that, we find that there are many storage type disk (magnetic disk) that can hold tons of data. There are also cloud services with which data can be stored.

Big data is crucial to the developments of many businesses that drive on the interactions and recommenders of their clientele. When we are looking to understand big data and how it is used by big contenders, we must first look to the companies to see what uses they have for big data. Let us begin with looking at Amazon, an empire built on e-commerce, the selling and recommending of products to consumers at efficient and effective rates. When we look at how this company succeeds, we can see that the main component to its success comes from its unique and bold use of big data.

3 ALGORITHMS, PREDICTIONS, AND BIG DATA CRAZE WITH ONLINE SHOPPING

When a consumer is shopping on Amazon, they can click on the image of the product they would like to view. During this process, they will probably go back and look at other products to compare the product to other products that are similar. Therefore, what can a company do to ensure that they are helping their consumers with this process? By pooling this data into other similar consumer searches and sells. For Amazon to do this they have a very complex system of enterprise that is meant to survey this, their use of big data. But it also comes down to very simple standards that are used by consumers.

When a consumer is shopping on Amazon they can administer filters to help them narrow their searches of products that they like. But during this process of administering these filters, the consumer is also being surveyed of searches made in the past to better associate what the consumers wants and needs within the products that they are shopping for.

This type of use of big data allows for any company (mainly Amazon like companies) to focus their resources on the calculation of products that an individual consumer would want based on searches that they have made. But the best part about this is that the information is pooled on multiple similar searches and consumers to best devise the necessary searches to show a consumer what to buy [25].

But beyond this simple observation of the big data usage, we need to understand what forms of implementation must be taken into consideration when creating these types of programs. Now,

what really needs to be focused on here is the interpretation of the data that is collected by Amazon to provide consumers with their recommendations.

Within big data itself, the name gives away what it is, it is a cluster of data, a large, almost seemingly insurmountable amount. There must be some sort of way to interpret the data results as they come in. For this process, it needs to be understood that this data interpretation cannot happen within a void, rather what is done for these data to be interpreted and re-designated as recommendations back to a user would be through a process of examining detailed assumptions and rethinking the analysis [1].

This process of observing and interpreting big data itself can have issues, such as those of bug interference based on programs that are being used in order to interpret these large data pools, and data can become erroneous. However, a way in which these types of issues can be resolved comes in the form of predetermined data assumptions. Data assumptions that are made to help companies who use big data to narrow in on data pools to create a seamless connection of data gathered to products showcased based on data that is collected, interpreted, and re-designated to users. This is done to help devise the necessary sales goals or recommendation services that come from these companies use of big data.

Also, when we are looking at the process by which data is collected, there will be data that is of no importance to the necessary processes by which the data is collected for. The difficult task becomes that of filtering out the useless information without removing the information that is of importance. To do this, there have been advancements made within the scientific community to reduce the plausibility of such turn out to happen. The process seeks to monitor faultiness that can be caused by sensors to lower the chances of data that is useful to not be discarded alongside data of no importance. This is also where algorithms that are made to establish key components of data come into play as well.

These forms of interpretation of course come from algorithms that are used to detect the data in forms of patterns. A perfect example of this would be comparing both Amazon and Netflix's use of algorithms that recommend to users what to buy or watch next. Machine learning within the recommendation system is what enterprises this use of algorithms. The machine learning itself will compare the histories of purchase and views to establish a statistical model of a collective pool of millions of other users to generate the necessary continued recommendations to users. The use of algorithms and machine learning also helps to establish a base line of what it is that users like and are more attuned. The use of algorithms is to ensure that the data that is being collected is correctly sorted and re-designated to users in the forms of recommendations. This is because large quantities of data require these types of assumptions to calculate and extract knowledge from the data that is collected [21].

As a programmer, machine learning and the creation of these algorithms truly fascinate when they are being used in order to create a recommendation system. Since the collection of data is

pooled, the use of algorithms to reach a particular end, based on data analysis, makes for a very interesting usage. As the use of data algorithms not only seek to facilitate the necessary recommendations, but also filter through millions of data informatics to agitate the necessary products to ensure the transparency of recommendations created. This can also be seen in what was stated above regarding consumers being able to filter products with precise search options. These filters can act as filters for filters. As in the filters chosen by consumers help to facilitate precise sifters and allows for algorithms to pinpoint precise outlines of data that help to recommend even finer tuned recommendations for consumers.

Big data, from this perspective, can be seen as a general tool that can be created to make precise measurements that are used in order to facilitate the necessary recommendations for consumers. This is of course a process that is keyed out by the use of interpretations and algorithms that are necessary to the specifications made on big data that is collected. Therefore, big data is used precisely well as a tool to pool and narrow pattern like data to ensure that completed data of particular patterns can always correctly correlate to consumers as well as viewers who use services such as Amazon and Netflix (This paper will not observe Netflix in full as it did with Amazon since the use of big data analyzes and processes to creating recommendations for consumers are very similar).

Therefore, when we are looking at companies like Amazon and Netflix, we are looking at companies that use big data to create predictive analytics. Predictive analytics has many uses however and cannot just be subjected to Amazon and Netflix's use on commercial needs. The use is mainly attributed to uncovering patterns and highlighting relationships with the data that is being observed. Because of this very nature, big data that goes under predictive analytics are being done soon to search out these two main components. There is also the process of trying to find past data patterns outcome variables and trying to deduce them for the use of the future (observing patterns from a specific time-period to see if such trend continues again at another given future based on certain functions that existed in the data of the past and then comparing that to the future) [14].

Further delving into predictive analytics, which is the main use of big data for our commercial subjects, we see that there are also forms of linear regressions. The use of this is to find interdependencies within outcome variables and explanatory variables in order to use them in the process of making predictions or to right out make the prediction itself. This looks to focus the data that is collected into predictive measures that are precise to the sets of data that are collected and distributed through this type of analysis. Above, when looking at machine learning, this is categorized as a neural network. Neural networks are a collective entity, something like that of the human brain, if an artificial neural network can be defined as a computing system made up of number of simple highly interconnected processing elements which processes information by their dynamic state response to external inputs. Within the neural networks, machine learning works within the sphere of the networks to generate and learn from data collected to predict,

showcase patterns, and classifying input data [22].

To finish up the observation here on big data uses for predictive analytics and the basis of enterprise that is that of Amazon and Netflix's ability to use big data to create such systems, the paper needs to understand a little further into the principles of how this portrays use in consumer settings. What is meant to be clarified here is how big data effects the process by which consumers use services and are data mined. To affectively understand this component, there needs to be an understanding that big data and it cultivation are just as it is named, a collection of data on a mass scale meant to just be data. It is however, the enterprise of the scientific community as well as commercial bodies that induce a specific plethora of uses to assimilate the necessary components to use big data effectively. Such things make it to where consumers have an easier time with their collective use of these commercial branches (Amazon and Netflix, as well as unnamed companies). Consumers use of these sites creates data, a process by which these companies then use the process of data mining to achieve the best standards of prediction and analytics that help them to enforce their use of big data as their tool in apprehending consumers by prediction. Because of this process, consumers are the ones who are helping these companies further develop their own uses of big data by allowing these corporate bodies to data mine them, collect data, and analyze the data provided. But this process is crucial to the experience of the consumer, as this data helps with creating the necessary components of these corporate bodies, allowing them to further create advanced algorithms that help these corporate bodies devise the necessary recommendations and make the predictions to the habits of these consumers. That makes it easier for consumers to use these products offered by these corporate bodies.

In all, big data, with modifications from things such as data mining, data collection, machine learning, algorithms, and prediction analyst are all components which excel the use of big data (because of the necessary enterprise that it takes to stay updated with this matter) and insure the that consumers and users of big data can reach out to their own platforms easily.

4 PRODUCT RECOMMENDER SYSTEM

In the recent past, Amazon has moved from operating as a pure e-commerce firm to a major player in the internet services industry, with focus on offering a wide variety of services to both individuals as well as companies. The firm started to shift its focus on big data and started the journey to transition from a typical online retailer into one a major force in the realm of big data. Around 2000, the company, along with other internet firms such as Google, Yahoo, and Twitter realized that they had voluminous data about their customers, which could be put used to improve their performance. Although the other firms did not initially concentrate majorly on big data, Amazon swiftly moved to take advantage of the invaluable database of individuals who used its e-commerce platforms around the world to shop. The team charged with the responsibility of recommending the products to the customers came up with innovative strategies that the firm could make use of the data collected

by the firm about their customers. The end result of the move was a huge success in big data, which revolutionized how the company did business.

As a major player in the e-commerce domain, the success of Amazon was always pegged on availing the right products to the customers. The efficacy of providing the right products for the customers in turn largely depended on a proper understanding of the needs of the consumers. A proper market research was necessary in order to understand the customer's needs and tastes. Since it was founded, Amazon has created a name for itself because of its superior product recommender system, which suggests products to consumers on the basis of their last purchase. The major driving force behind the recommender system is the data gathered from the customers.

The product recommender system is essential for the personalization of each customer's experience when they are shopping in the firm's online store [25]. The firm employs collaborative filtering and clustering algorithms to classify clients on the basis of preferences. Customers are grouped on the basis of same search as well as collaborative filtering between items. Content-based search employs the shopping history of customers and item ratings to establish a search query capable of finding other items that match the tastes of consumers. For instance, if a customer purchases a book, the product recommender systems will suggest books from the same author, publisher, or subject area. The product recommendations are not only used by the company in the online stores, but it also doubles up as a marketing tool useful in conducting email campaigns. There is a recommendation link that enables shoppers to filter products by several criteria depending on the items that they have in their shopping carts.

5 BIG DATA FOR DYNAMIC PRICING

Dynamic pricing entails the use of big data such as clickstreams, purchase history, cookies, etc. to offer customized discounts to customers or to alter the prices of items being sold dynamically. The technology enables the real-time price customization for an item to suit a specific customer. This explains why it is sometimes possible for two different sets of customers to buy the same item at different prices from the same online store [23]. Despite the immense benefits of this technology, some customers may always feel discriminated against due to the price differences. Amazon has successfully used the power of big data to implement a price discrimination system. For example, there was an incident in which some Amazon customers were aggravated about price variations of a certain DVD. One of the customers noted that there was a difference of nearly two points five dollars in the price if the cookies were deleted from the computer. Price discrimination was also experienced in the sale of a product known as Diamond Rio MP3 Player.

Big data also enables price optimization. This enables the firm to manage the prices of commodities and grow its profits by twenty-five percent annually. Several factors are used to set the prices of commodities. Some of them are: activity of the customer on the

firm's shopping portal, availability of the product, competitor's prices, order history, item preferences, and the anticipated profit margin [23]. The prices are normally refreshed every ten minutes as big data become updated. Due to this, Amazon provides customers with discounts on best-selling commodities and accrue large profit margins on the items that are less popular with customers.

6 BIG DATA AND CUSTOMER SERVICE

Big data is also extensively being used for customer service at Amazon. The acquisition of Zappos has often been viewed as a major element in the same. Since it was founded, Zappos has enjoyed a good reputation for the excellence in customer service and was usually viewed as a world leader in this domain. Much of the success can be attributed to their advanced relationship management systems which extensively employed their own customer data. After the acquisition of the firm in 2009, the procedures were integrated together with those of Amazon. Today's business environment is changing at a rapid rate, and consumers are also using their voices faster. Within a few moments after undergoing a bad experience, customers can swiftly move into social media and spread the news about their negative experience [17]. The only strategy for an organization to survive under such conditions is to employ the power of analytic to streamline and shorten the response time, as well as fix the customer support issues. The customers of the present day are not only looking for a product that works, but also one that is personalized and able to recognize their interests and save them time.

7 ONE CLICK ORDERING

Amazon used big data to create one-click ordering. This feature is activated automatically when the customer places his first order, enters a shipping address as well as a method of payment. When using the one-click feature, the customer is given thirty minutes to change his mind about the particular purchase. This system was created on the premise that a simplified path to purchase would increase conversion rates. Since the introduction of the technology, the firm's revenues have increased year after year. The significance of this application pushed the company to patent it to prevent other companies from using it without authorization. Reorganizing the purchase process is currently one of the most significant differentiates in the current marketplace. The service enables users to make payments without having to exchange cards or money physically. Amazon has also greatly benefited from impulse buying, which is accelerated by one-click buying. Research has shown that the largest percentage of people normally purchase things they don't require or did not plan to purchase in the first place [5].

8 USING BIG DATA TO SUPPORT OTHER COMPANIES

Amazon also uses its big data platform to support and help other companies improve their operations. Organizations can employ AWS toolkit provided by Amazon to create scalable big data applications that have the capacity to improve business performance [25]. Besides, they would be able to secure these applications easily without the need to spend on expensive infrastructure and hardware. The big data applications including data warehousing, clickstream

analytic, fraud detection, internet of things, and several others are delivered via cloud computing. Hence, there is no need for an organization to incur additional costs in setting up a data center. The Amazon web services can enable companies to analyze spending habits, customer demographics, and other related information to enable them effectively cross-sell some of the firm's products in patterns similar to Amazon. That is to say that the retailers will also be able to stalk their customers, recommend products to them, and improve their customer experience.

9 BIG DATA TECHNOLOGIES

Amazon EMR: This technology offers a managed Hadoop framework that simplifies and hastens the processing of huge amounts of data across scalable Amazon EC2 instances. Amazon EMR also supports other common distributed frameworks including HBase, Apache Spark, Flink, and Presto [3]. Besides, it reliably and safely handles a wide range of big data use cases, such as web indexing, log analysis, financial analysis, machine learning, and bioinformatics.

Amazon Athena: It denotes an interactive query service that simplifies data analysis in Amazon S3 via standard SQL. Since it is service less, one only pays for the queries they run and there is no infrastructure to be managed [3]. The technology is quite straightforward and delivers results within the shortest time possible. Moreover, it does not require complex ETL jobs to prepare data for analysis.

Amazon Kinesis Firehouse: This is one of the simplest methods to import streaming data into Amazon Web Services. The technology can be used to gather, transform, and import streaming data into Amazon S3, Amazon Kinesis analytic, and Amazon Redshift, to permit instant analytic with the current BI tools and dashboards currently being used. It is a comprehensively managed service that can expand automatically with the increase in data throughput.

10 UNSTRUCTURED DATA AND AI COMPONENTS OF SOCIAL MEDIA

Next, we will look to observe big data and its uses within social media. First and foremost, it is important to understand that social media is an outlet that is massive. The many posts, tweets, likes, shares, and other social media actions all develop unstructured forms of data that are then considered by corporations to understand the market of users. It is within the creation of this unstructured data that creates such an importance to talking about social media and its perfect relationship to big data. Because of the importance of social media to businesses (due to trend and the fast-paced living environment we live in, if a business is behind on trend it becomes behind on sales and other forms of innovations), there is a large component of dependence towards retrieving big data from social media to calculate and predict trend. But beyond just trend, businesses are also trying to get their hands on the enormous amount of big data that exists within the social media sphere. There is recognition of the value of unstructured data that is sourced within social media. The value comes from consumers using social media to broadcast what they are thinking, want, and are doing. These

types of information, one might think it private, but the internet is a very transparent source of data. In so, businesses value the perspective of consumers and create ways in which they can follow through with interacting on a very contingent basis, they data mine and from that, they advertise based on the collected big data from social media [12].

This brings to focus the use of advertisement and the necessity for big data to be used. Within digital advertising, the one who collects and analyzes big data effectively and efficiently with accurate uses is king. To be successful in this method of advertising, businesses need to be prodigious at their collection of data, integration of that data and analysis of that data. The reason being is if these three things are managed well, the use of the data is much more successful. What is challenging about this type of work however is that a majority of the data that is collected from social media is unstructured, it is in a word, messy. These forms of unstructured data are in our own use of social media, usually within posts, videos, tweets, photo post to Instagram, mass use of Snapchat, etc. Because these forms of data are so much more unstructured and more difficult to analyze using traditional analysis methods, businesses needed to enterprise methods for them to collect these data forms and have the necessary big analytics platforms to analyze the data. Keep in mind the data has the most information about us, therefore the use of these unstructured data is key to devising targeted and precise marketing executions [20].

There is also the collection of real-time data. Because of the advances within the technology, the process by which real-time data can be analyzed has sped up exponentially compared to the past where this process would be impossible and yield no results. With the ability to now look real-time data and have the capacity to analyze it, businesses (those that are marketers) have the possibility of taking action instantly to provide consumers on social media with their own personalized ad. The use of personalized ads of course comes from the massive amounts of data that consumers put out on social media, allowing marketers to collect these data (things we like, talk about, and do daily). And because they have these data, they can target specific ads to consumers without missing a beat. But what happens when we begin to incorporate other technologies that allow us to always be able to access our social medias? Mobile devices provide the quintessential provisions needed for data to have a constant flow to advertisers. Big data then is a facet within the life of social media. It must be done effectively in order to continue its uses of data collected and then expounded on to get customers to buy products or even interact with specific businesses. With the development of the mobile device, location also becomes part of big data, as it allows for your location to be collected, you leave not only a digital footprint, but also a physical one which can be collected as data and used [20].

Because of such enterprise, big data can gather almost every facet of information that is readily available to the internet. Such a mass look on data also comes back to the revision on algorithms that are meant to specify what is being observed and analyzed in the data. Of course, for these algorithms to work, there has to be a steady stream of data in order for the algorithms to process and do

its job. Because of the accessibility of data through the means of mass social media and how quickly consumers use and are exposed to social media (due to mobile phone), businesses are more creative in their approach to their algorithms. These algorithms can now pop up wherever consumers are on the social sphere. In doing this, big data itself changed the advertising platform. Advertiser now must create enticing messages from big data to continue their reach to consumers. The change is incredibly eye opening. As the use of data itself can create a massive alteration in how a marketer begins to try and craft their ads to highlight what it is that individuals want. Advertising becomes more individualized and work closely around the sphere of social media to allocate their ads effectively [9].

Within the use of big data, there is also the use of AI to help with the process of analyzing big data. AI creates a much more effective measure when it comes to analyzing hundreds and thousands of data in detail. Because AI can do that, it allows for businesses to have a better idea around what perspective they themselves must take when advertising based on detail production from AI technology. AI technology becomes a very important component to being able to go analyze big data in order to provide the necessary specific information that would help with creating the necessary ads [12].

We are then looking to see how this affects the user, or better how this type of big data in social media affects consumer experiences. The use of big data comes back to the work of the consumer and the business. The consumer creates big data from their usage of social media, social media in turn collects and responds to the data that is being created by the consumer (user). Through the process of facilitating the data, analyzing it, interpreting it, pooling it, and filtering it through algorithms and AI technology, consumers using social media get access to tailored advertisements. The consumer experiences a personalized social media experience and personalized advertisement trail based on the collected data that is reinforced by big data that is pooled together in order to do this. Does big data have any other uses in social media then? Yes, it does.

Social media can also use big data in order to create studies and infiltrate certain components of a consumer's private life. Facebook for example, a top social media company prides itself in its technological advances that use big data. Facebook uses is considered a top user of digital advertisement, so it begs to question what else does Facebook do with the mass big data that it collects? Facebook has also used its big data resources to try and act on social media experiments. During a time when there were the I Voted stickers sprawled on Facebook for users to share and gimmick that they had voted, Facebook was using this in order to incite and boost voter turnout. The method was to first isolate and use the stickers with particular groups of people, small groups at first in order to test the role. After having enough data collected on the presence of the stickers and what they meant for users, Facebook began to mass data span by incorporating the stickers in a much more massive turnout. With midterms of 2010, there is studied on behalf of Facebook scientist, that say 340,000 more people voted in the 2010 midterms [18].

From these the observation of these big data uses, we can showcase the how and what makes big data so important to the creation of diversified consumer experiences but also showcase the necessary components to how big data is used by the new technologies we have. It is however imperative that we understand these different phenomena that come from the use of big data.

11 SOCIAL MEDIA IS SIGNIFICANT FOR COMPANIES AND INDIVIVUALS

Although big data is said to come from several different sources, the largest proportion of it is said to originate from unstructured sources. As it can be imagined, social media makes up the largest source of unstructured content for big data. All the activities that users perform on social media such as views, retweets, comments, favorites, likes, etc. can be gathered and explored by interested individuals.

In the current digital world, social media plays a vital role in many companies. Having a presence on various social media platforms such as Instagram, Facebook, and Twitter is imperative since it enables individuals to interact with an organization on an ostensibly personal level and at the same time helps businesses across several domains get in touch with their customers. Currently, Facebook alone has over two billion users on their platform; this is roughly twenty-six percent of the world population [12]. It is therefore important to consider the fact that big data, from the social media platforms, can reach any people in different forms. Besides that, social media interactions have continued to play a big role and will continue to play a big role in business decisions. For example, some insurance companies have declined to offer life insurance policies to individuals solely based on their social media posts. If you frequently post, on any of these platforms, about how you are drinking or going to drink, insurance companies would be reluctant to offer you a life insurance policy as this is a risk to them.

It will not be long before organizations discover new and better strategies for making sense of big data. But, at the moment, the concept of big data is still new and rapidly evolving. Nevertheless, some businesses have found ways of interacting and using this data, which is just but the beginning, but still a good way to begin. To elaborate, a marketing company whose interest is promoting a new product could employ machine learning algorithms that enable it to gather data from individuals who meet certain attributes [12]. Consequently, by employing artificial intelligence technology, they will also be capable of drawing insights from millions of users and create campaigns. This will increase their levels of precision and focus, a technique usually referred to as targeted marketing, and present an excellent opportunity for finding the perfect audience and satisfy its preferences.

12 BIG DATA IN SOCIAL MEDIA ADVERTISING

Fundamentally, advertising revolves around communication since it is all about sensitizing consumers on products and services that an organization is selling. However, different consumers will always want to hear varied messages, which is a vital fact to consider when

new clients are being recruited into the internet bandwagon due to the growing popularity of smart phones. Big data has the capacity to customize these messages, project what consumers would like to hear, and establish new perceptions on what customers like or prefer [8]. The above steps are all revolutionary and are expected to have a significant impact on how marketers in various organizations advertise.

Furthermore, there are some occurrences which several people do not view as advertising but are still interactions between big data and marketing like product recommendation. An obvious example is Netflix [9]. Although the company does not have a concrete advertisement plan, it employs a lot of algorithms to recommend various movies and shows to its customers. The approach saves the organization a lot of money by reducing the rate of customer exit and ensures that the right shows are marketed to the right individuals. The company's strategy is to target consumers with shows specifically tailored for them. Apart from them, other firms such as Amazon, YouTube, etc. also do the same by using product recommendation to target their customers [9]. In order to stay up to date, the algorithms need constant flow of data to help it work more efficiently. With the growth of the internet, users leave huge volumes of data not only on social media platforms but also on other places they visit online in the form of a digital footprint. This provides advertisers with new avenues to tailor their messages to meet their customer demands.

The digital footprints left by online advertisers provides new insights to marketers on what a consumer really needs, and this sometimes may be more accurate than what the customer actually says on social media. However, marketers are worried about how to safeguard the privacy and security of their consumers and therefore companies that are careless in handling data collected from consumers usually ignite a backlash which greatly impact their business. Even though targeted advertising has been in existence for quite a while [9] the more the data that is collected by advertisers, the more personalized and effective marketing is expected to be. Organizations will strive not just to gather as much data as they can, but also to gather information which typically represents the individual consumer's needs in order to enable them to market to their personalized tastes.

13 ANALYZING LINKS

Big data collected from social media can lead to the discovery of new information regarding each individual customer that can help in creating a customized appeal to that specific customer. However, with the new insights, marketers can enhance how advertising is approached as they create new strategies. The new growth in content marketing is usually perceived as a primary beneficiary of big data, although the concept of content marketing could be older than the internet itself.

Another essential point is that big data enables digital marketers to target users effectively with more personalized advertisements which they might prefer to see. Facebook and Google are among the biggest players in this domain of digital advertising. They have

discovered excellent ways of creating and delivering more appealing advertisements in ways that do not intrude on the rights and preferences of the consumers [10]. Most of their advertisements feature services and goods that consumers would like most to enhance their lives and almost all of these advertisements are reliant on huge amounts of personal data that users usually provide from what they are up to, what they share and like things online.

Experts contend that it is possible to accurately make predictions on an array of individual attributes that are more sensitive merely through an analysis of an individual's Facebook or Twitter likes [20]. For example, the likes on these social media websites are critical in predicting one's religion, sexual orientation, emotional stability, life satisfaction, age, relationship status, and many other attributes. Companies like Facebook successfully linked political activity with user commitment when they created a sticker enabling most of their users to declare on their profiles that they had voted. The initiative was conducted during the 2010 midterm polls and was very effective as more people turned up to vote as compared to the 2006 midterm elections [18]. Individuals who saw the feature had high chances of voting and actively engaged in a conversation about the same after seeing their friends and peers participate in the activity. Later on, during the 2016 polls, Facebook escalated their role into the voting process by providing users with not only constant reminders but also with directions about their polling stations [19]. Apart from that, they also enabled users to easily get access to registration information, news, voting guides and other tools that would have made them more equipped to go through the election process.

14 USER RATING AND POP UP ADS

Depending on the user preferences and the content that they often access on social media, pop-up advertisements can be created to target users every time they are online. For example, an ad can be created on the Facebook Messenger app to open inside that particular app every time the user hits the CTA button. When clicked, such ads would redirect the user to a page where they would be required to answer some question, claim a reward or send some feedback regarding a product or service. Before creating such ads, it is imperative to establish a custom audience of the individuals who would be targeted with that particular pop-up ads. For instance, individuals who have previously liked the company's products on their Facebook page or other social media sites can be included on the list of target audience to receive the ad [4]. Another strategy that can be employed is to rate users by tracking their cookies. In most cases, user activities are usually tracked across the internet using cookies whenever a user logs into one of the social media sites and is concurrently browsing other sites. Whenever this happens the other sites that the user is visiting can be easily tracked and the data used accordingly.

15 RELEVANCY OF BIG DATA ANALYTICS IN GROCERIES STORES

15.1 Increases the customer shopping experience

As per a current SHSFoodThink white paper "Are We Chain Obsessed?" 64% of customers said that the previous shopping experience is what makes them keep coming back! not the items themselves [24]. By utilizing bits of knowledge received from the information transaction database, online networking, promotional activity, customers purchasing behavior, and client movement patterns, grocery stores can find a way to guarantee they are engaged with their customers that matter most.

For instance, they can investigate customers shopping movement to enhance the layout of their store, or recognize attrition risks for clients who have not as of late bought staple things, similar to milk. In like manner, chains can construct item varieties demonstrated with the customer needs and purchase patterns in certain regions [2, 13, 24]. Regardless of whether it is through reconsidering store layout or furnishing store attended with mobile apps to better serve clients, analytics can enable grocers to change consumer's expectations.

15.2 RESTRUCTURE THE SUPPLY CHAIN

Grocery stores can likewise utilize analytic to investigate the production of their products, monitor production processes, and quality control, and improve straightforwardness with buyers about their sustenance production practices of foods [16]. Suppliers remain to profit from the evaluation also, with access to secure, customized content of information identified with performance sales of the product, stock, margins, and marketing effectiveness. Giving supplier an opportune profitable business knowledge that supports joint ventures, drives performance, and decreases waste products

15.3 BUILD SUPERIOR MARKETING PROGRAMS

Loyalty programs furnish grocery merchants with an abundance of data to enable them to distinguish client segments and precisely characterize item preferences. By joining this information with different data sources! like healthful patterns, favored technique for accepting marketing promotion, customer movement patterns, and weather-related event! grocery merchants can concentrate on enhancing, and derive income from, the general shopping experience [24]. For instance, grocery retailers can utilize analytics to customize the advancements they offer to clients given what they are well on the way to buy. They can likewise time advancements fittingly, and offer codes to customers who often as possible buy certain things.

15.4 IMPROVES HR STRATEGIES

Supermarket stores utilize analytics to manage work-related decisions. Information freely accessible through online networking accounts and different means can be examined in conjunction with a grocer's internal information to direct decision identified with selection and recruitment, employee termination, and performance management and advancements [11]. For example, an investigation

of late action on LinkedIn can reveal insight into which representatives are destined to leave an organization.

Grocery merchants can likewise break down information to control the advancement approaches that will build workforce performance. For example, they could explore different avenues regarding organizing a social gathering for representatives at a subset of their stores, and analyze information on profitability, morale, and turnover in the preceding months [13]. They may find that the gathering information prompted a more positive workplace where workers feel more noteworthy engagement at work, and soon after that, they could roll the strategy out to different stores.

15.5 USING BIG DATA FOR COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE AND ATTRACTING CUSTOMERS

Numerous grocery stores have been utilizing transaction and client information for a considerable length of time, despite the fact that many still have not completely used all that can be proficient with these types of information. For Small to Medium Sized grocery merchants, many have swung to subcontracted point solutions because of an absence of available analytics assets and potential framework investment required [11, 24]. The issue with point solutions recently is that if? they independently work out for a particular business section and the evaluation is cookie cutter. In this way, the 'information' is not coordinated and hard if not difficult to give an all-encompassing picture of client conduct overall touch focuses for instance. Nor are the investigations offering a cross-functional observation that is pertinent to all business partners as far as driving differentiation in the commercial center in promoting, advertising, store operations and supply chain.

As far as utilizing 'new' data sources, for example, mobile, social and text, the industry is particularly occupied with a discovery phase of investigation with an assortment of center sections, testing and figuring out how to extricate an incentive from these rich new sources of information. There are two common paths grocery merchants takes with little respect of the 'size' of the organization: to start with is Strategic Commitment, in which there is C-level (hierarchical) commitment making the venture in the assets to get the majority of the in-house data and evaluated it [13].

Presently like never before, information, analytics, and IP are seen as vital resources and competitive discriminators. The other is Business Discovery; in which grocery merchants outsource to an Analytics as a Service firm to use internal and external information. Performing analytics speeds the construction of business advantages creating new users case and helps catch 'quick wins' before making resource commitment to technological innovation and human capital in advance [11]. In view of progress, and a wit, trusted stakeholder willing to share the techniques and explanatory models, can assist grocery merchants to proceed with an outsourced administrations supplier or relocate the data, analytics in addition to IP in-house.

16 RECOMMENDATIONS

16.1 Real-time insight on product demand

Nowadays, retailers can get to information on item demand levels instantly on a chain of stores. Nevertheless, numerous merchants are still in the earliest stages in regards to evaluating and monetizing the huge amount accessible data [2]. This prompts stocking deficits, for example, evaluating item demanded based exclusively on past historical information. It can likewise convey about wrong promoting endeavors: If a customer purchased ketchup on Saturday, an email coupon for it on Sunday is not well planned and make little sense to the shopper.

This is the place data from store loyalty programs in addition to credit card sales can prove to be useful. Its data can be utilized to define needs of the customers in future. For example, grocery merchants can use data analytics to decide how regularly customers purchase sugar, flavors, or different items, and after that send every family unit coupons given their propensity to buy [24].

16.2 Enhancing in-store stock management

Perishable basic supplies, for example, dairy, meat, and fish call for precise stock administration, regularly on an hourly premise. Client analytics and prediction tools can enable grocery merchants to calibrate their inventory levels by assessing buyer purchasing behavior and requested products from various viewpoints and situations [24].

For example, grocery retailers might need to screen cycles like when customers go for particular nourishment, purchasing patterns amid sales deals when storing activity peaks or seasonally inspired buys. As indicated by a report from Manthan, this methodology worked for U.K. food grocery merchant Waitrose: a deeper understanding of buyer purchasing behavior and demand outlines using cutting edge client analytics and predicting tools helped the store [11]. Concurrently, retailers can utilize these systems to all the more deftly change their stock levels and amplify high-buy products.

16.3 Leveraging Predictive Analytics

Amazon spearheaded item proposal engine: the "if you purchased that, you may like this" invention. This strategic changing web-based shopping feature mirrors the retailer's profound assessment of buyers' shopping basket. Proposal engine is intended to enable customers to find items they were not sorting out but rather would be interested in purchasing [13]. Today, general grocery merchants are progressively tapping the global innovation behind proposal engine: predictive analytics. This kind of assessment measures future patterns in light of present and past information, and it can enable stores to improve business. Information is driven, all-encompassing assessment of "purchasing triggers, for example, regularity, weather, stock, and advancements, is progressively informing grocery stores' product blend, marketing plans, and sales forecast [2]. Furnished with these information-driven tools, stores can better distinguish what items customers need today and what they will be demanding in future, and this learning will enable them to stay competitive for a considerable length of time to come.

17 INTRODUCTION

Digitization set apart by an increasing number social media and mobile devices is shifting the business landscape in every sector insurance included. The opportunity presented by this aspect for insurance companies are immense. Communities and social networks enable insurers to interface with their clients better, which to their advantage improves branding, customer retention, and acquisition [24]. Insurance companies additionally get a plenty of contributions from computerized data as feedbacks, which likewise can be utilized to develop unique products and aggressive valuing. Digitization of big data analytics offers numerous opportunities that Insurances Company can harness to detect fraud among their customers. Dealing with fraud manually has dependably been expensive for insurance firms regardless of the possibility that maybe a couple of minor fraud went undetected [6]. What's more, the trends in big data (the evolution in unstructured information) are prone to numerous fraud, which can go without notice if analysis is performed correctly. In the proceeding section, the article will examine important of big data in insurance fraud detection and its relevancy.

18 IMPORTANCE BIG DATA AND INSURANCE FRAUD DETECTION

Conventionally, insurance firms utilize statistical models to recognize fraudulent cases. These models have their limitation [15]. To start with, they employ sampling techniques to assess information, which prompts at least one fraud going unnoticed. There is a punishment for not performing a proper assessment of the data provided. Subsequently, this strategy depends on the cases analyzed before. Therefore, every time different fraud takes place, insurance firms need to manage the impact for the first time. Lastly, the conventional strategy works in silos and is not correctly equipped for taking care of the natural developing wellsprings of data from various diverts and diverse capacities in an integrated way. Analytics tends to be difficult and assumes an exceptionally pivotal part in fraudulent recognition for insurance firms. In the proceeding section, the significant benefits of utilizing big analytics in fraud detection assessed.

18.1 Identification of low incidence events:

Utilizing sampling methods accompanies its particular arrangement of acknowledged mistakes. By using analytics, insurance can manufacture frameworks that go through every fundamental datum. This like this distinguishes events with low frequency (0.001%) [7]. Methods such as predictive modeling can be utilized to altogether break down processes of fraud, channel clear cases, and allude low-rate fraud cases for facilitating analytics.

18.2 Enterprise-wide solution:

Analytics help in building a global point of view of the anti-fraud endeavors all through the undertaking. Such a point of view regularly prompts dominant fraud location by connecting related data inside the association. Fraud can happen at various source focuses premium, claims or surrender, application, employee-related or outsider fraud. In the meantime, insurance channel broadening is

adding to the breakdown of identifiable information. Insurance-related exercises should be possible using cell phones separated from the conventional face-to-face and online Insurance [15, 25]. This can be seen as an expansion to data storehouses in the Insurance business. Given more prominent channel enhancement and the development of ranges where fraud can happen, it is vital for insurers to have reachable enterprise-level data about their business and clients.

18.3 Data Integration:

Analytics assumes a vital part in incorporating information. Viable fraud recognition abilities can be worked by joining information from different sources. Analytics additionally help in integrating inside information with outsider information that may have predictive significance, for example, public records. Information sources with derogatory properties are on the whole public documents that can be incorporated into a model. Cases include liquidations, liens, criminal records, judgment, abandonment, or even deliver change speed to show transient conduct. Different sorts of outsider information can be useful in upgrading effectiveness, for example, audit evaluating data to decide whether harms coordinate portrayal or misfortune or injury being guaranteed [6]. A standout amongst the most under-used information sources is doctor's visit expense audit information. This information, if utilized as a part of a model legitimately, is a gold dig for organizations researching medical fraud. Revealing peculiarities, in charging and adding these to the next scoring motors or interpersonal organization analytics will diminish the measure of time an agent or expert spends endeavoring to pull the majority of the pieces together to recognize deceitful action.

18.4 Harnessing Unstructured Data:

Analytics is useful for getting the best incentive from unstructured information. Fraud can be delicate or hard. This depends on whether it comprises of a policyholder's misrepresented cases, or on the off chance that it contains of a policyholder arranging or creating a misfortune. At an abnormal state, fraud can happen amid commission discounting, because of false documentation, an arrangement between parties or from is offering [24]. Albeit bunches of organized data is put away in an information distribution center as a component of numerous applications, a significant portion of the vital data about a fraud is in unstructured information, for example, outsider reports, which are not assessed. In most insurance firms, data accessible in online networking is not suitably stored. An uncommon investigative-unit specialist will concur that unstructured information is vital for fraud examination. Since textual information is not straightforwardly utilized for reporting, it does not discover a place in most information stockrooms [7]. This is the place content examination can assume a crucial part in checking on this unstructured information and giving some valuable experiences in fraud discovery.

19 RELEVANCE OF BIG DATA IN INSURANCE FRAUD DETECTION

Big data analytics is a reality for the insurance company because of its capability to enhance various conventional technologies and

be used to detect fraudulent acts. In the proceeding section, the relevance of big data and insurance fraud detection will be examined.

19.1 Text analysis

In numerous Insurance fraud recognition ventures, from 33% to oneportion of factors utilized as a part of the fraud location model originate from unstructured content data. This is particularly helpful for long-tail claims, for example, damage claims, because the best information frequently is found in claim notes [15]. Content mining is something beyond keyword sorting. Excellent content analytics apparatuses translate the importance of the words to establish context. Innovation that is adroit at preparing common dialect can help remove factors from the unstructured content that can be utilized for assist fraud modeling.

19.2 Data Management

Regardless of where your information is stored from legacy frameworks to the valid information stockpiling structure, Hadoop an information administration framework can enable insurers to make reusable information rules. They give a standard, repeatable strategy for enhancing and incorporating information [7]. Preferably, you need a framework that interfaces with different information sources. It ought to have streamlined information league, relocation, synchronization, organization, and visual assessment.

19.3 Event Stream Processing

This enables insurers to investigate and processes in movement (i.e., process streams). Rather than putting away information and running questions against data, you store the inquiries and stream the data through them [24]. This is foundational to both ongoing fraud identification (invigorating fraud scoring) and successful utilization of great high-speed information sources similar to vehicle telematics.

19.4 Hadoop

A free programming structure that assesses and prepares of tremendous collected information in a distributed environment of computing. It offers gigantic details stockpiling and super-quick processing at around 5 percent of the cost of convection less-adaptable databases. Hadoop's mark quality is the capacity to deal with organized and unstructured information (counting sound, text, and visual), and in expansive volumes. Insurers either can employ Hadoop specialists to exploit the structure or purchase items that scaffold to existing databases and information distribution centers[6, 7]. This foundational innovation for making predictive analytics models stays one-step in front of fraudsters and spillage of paid-out cases cash. The exchange observing advancement innovation used to battle regularly complicated illegal tax avoidance utilizes Hadoop as a center stockpiling and sorting out innovation. Complex organized crack rings and therapeutic factories, for instance, are conveying progressively modern techniques for laundering cash stolen from auto insurers.

19.5 In memory

In-memory analytics is a processing style in which all information utilized by an application is put away inside the principal memory

of the computing condition. Instead of being available on a disc, the data stays suspended in the mind of useful sets of PCs. Different clients can share this information with numerous applications in a quick, secure, and simultaneous way. In-memory analytics likewise exploits multi-threading and distributed registry [6, 24]. This implies clients can disseminate the information (and complex workloads that process the data) over different machines in a group or inside a single server condition. In-memory analytics manages questions and information analytics, yet also is utilized with morecomplex procedures, for example, predictive analytics, machine learning, and analytics. The sorts of neural-network analytics that assist insurer in discovering association among suspects sustaining claim and premium fraud depending on the kind of processes

19.6 Software as a Service (SaaS)

Predictive modeling and different analytics were accessible to large insurance net providers willing to introduce the innovation on location as of not long ago. Software as a service has advanced to even where genuinely little insurers can exploit Big Data analytics [6]. Insurance providers subscribe to a service keeps running by a seller as opposed to paying for the vast buy, establishment, and support of in-house frameworks. SaaS likewise is named "on-demand software."

20 DISCUSSION

Form such progress we can see the diverse reach that big data has and how it affects the users in their experiences with big data. Not only do we see big data creating advertising products to consumers, we are also seeing social media sites using big data to influence other functions of consumeris daily lives. To further that observation, there is necessity behind seeing the claims that Facebook makes on its ability to influence its consumers to influence those within the social media sphere. If big data has the access to arrange itself around the sphere of the consumer to have the consumer act on certain task, what does that mean the uses of big data are to social media sites? We can assume from our knowledge that social media sites like Facebook could be interjecting into the private lives of their users by instigating on the data that is collected in processed to pinpoint user habits. It can also be seen that big data facilitates the necessary components of information to allow social media sites to specify their own approaches to their consumer in ways that can be seen as going over the line when it comes to their connection with their consumers. It is however, still a very enterprise avenue of using big data. As it allows for the social media to influence social, economical, and political landscapes. But that in itself is also a very dangerous power to have. As those who use the big data and direct their resources into specific marketing strategies can alter nearly whatever they fid like to in front of the irrational consumer.

As we have observed of big data above, we also learn of the prediction value and how big data escalates the ability for businesses to predict and recommend to consumers different products. The use of pooling data and sifting it through algorithms in order to precisely choose methods of spawning products before consumers

is a fundamental use of big data. Big data becomes a tool that assimilates the data that is created to businesses to create more big data. The process is unending and constantly provides businesses with unlimited amounts of data that can be used to spearhead their campaigns. Does big data then become a commodity that is used like currency to businesses? Well, it is very possible. As the use of big data is how businesses maneuver their strategies to get consumer to consume. If these algorithms meant to increase sales were used for something else, say medical awareness to the issues that exists within smoking cigarettes, how will the big data be used and what forms of algorithms would be used? The use of prediction analyst suits sales, but based on the observation made above, it is probably even more effective in helping to create a knowledgeable public. By facilitating the big data and being able to sort out the necessary public images that have control over social sphere through mass social medias, there can be an exchange of data between consumers. Because of the interplay between data and how consumers absorb them and create more data that is spawned for more information, big data can in turn control knowledgeable outcomes in public opinions. The use of big data is vast then when it comes to understanding the many components that make up what big data is.

Our observation above also places the consumer experience as an important facilitator for big data to exist. The habits and practices of consumers as well as the opinions and locations of the consumer can truly inhibit how big data is filtered to facilitate the necessary components of data to market and process information. This process can of course be seen using AI technology in order to expedite the data that is coming in. It does this so that the data is filtered and able to be used to immediately influence commercial markets, social media spheres, and consumer habits. That in turn regulates and begins to push out even more big data from the interactions that consumer have with the new platforms that are created from old big data that was used in order to create their new purchases or opinions. AI technology then becomes a fundamental component to the access, collection, analysis, and interpretation of big data. Its use of manipulating and translating data in order to be used to create enterprise is crucial to the development of more big data. From the observation above, it can also be said that AI technology will has also positioned itself in a way where it has become fundamental to the big data analysis and because of that, AI technology is part of big data.

The paper also sought to observe the nature of consumers having the capacity to control the big data that flows into collection. The use comes from filter settings like those included on Amazon in order to help narrow searches of items or on Netflix in order to create the right kind of streaming that the consumer requires or likes. If that is the case, the consumer actually holds a lot of power when it comes to the collection, analysis, and interpretation process of big data. Within how the consumer chooses to reside over these social medias and commercial businesses determines how the social media sites and businesses get their data. Beyond that, the consumer has no knowledge of how to analyze or interpret big data, yet holds the key to the very idea of big data. Because of this notion, the discussion here seeks to try and highlight the importance of

businesses maintaining and using data collected responsibly.

Big data is used in order to interact with consumers in order to sell or sway. The use of data however is also created by consumers. For this symbiotic relationship to exist and stay peaceful, businesses must be sure that they are not over stepping privacy issues when it comes to the use of big data. By enterprise methods to help consumers with choices and options through their recommendation systems and early predictive measures of trend by their collected big data, that is fine. But when business pressure consumers with the use of big data, the business will most likely end up losing new data to collect. As if no one is using their sources to create data, their lack of data causes them to have slow flow, and that leads to isolation of data.

Take for instance the process of data mining. Data mining is used in order to receive particular forms of information about consumers. This information is in the form of data, this data is put through special filters to narrow in on what it is that businesses want to know about particular groups of consumers to achieve the best methods of interacting with the consumers in order to highlight necessary products to the consumer. What happens if the algorithms for this particular data mine was off? This would mean that the data that was supposed to continue in the line of procession ends up lost. Because missing the mark with data mining and interpretation means that businesses loses their edge with their consumers.

Big data is a very complex topic to talk about. It is however, a very interesting topic to look at. As when we are observing what forms of big data are used in order to create experiences for consumers and business practices for businesses we can see the importance of having a very strong handle on the idea of big data. It is not just a process by which you collect massive amounts of information and then through it back out into a market. Big data must be molded around using algorithms, AI technology, studies done to mine particular forms of data, and even understanding the complex notions of unstructured data. Because of these reasons, the study of big data is still relatively incomplete. The use of big data however, should be understood as a relationship between consumers and those who seek to use big data to facilitate their individual means.

21 CONCLUSION

The paper sought out to examine the complexities of big data, but to be more precise, this paper seeks out to the multiplicity of avenues in which big data is used by our technological world in regards to Online shopping, Streaming Services, and Social Medias. The conclusion is that the multiple complex systems which make up the forefront and system of enterprise around big data falls under the very distinctive relationship that exists around the users of these services, and the sources the users use in order to create more big data.

Such complex multiplicity of diversified uses alter the understanding of big data by showcasing that big data in itself is easily

manipulated and altered. This becomes the case because of the multiple layers of data that exists in any given moment. The use of these data are incorporated in a way that there are many organization that are still trying to spearhead further in the endeavors of big data. The papers observation of the multiple forms of big data conversions, analytics, prediction standards, and even experimental uses of data reinforces the concept that big data is as it is called, massive. Because of such presence, to truly be able to look into the multiplicity of big data would mean a massive overhaul of research meant to showcase the existence. This paper however does not do that, but would also rather seek to showcase that.

Online shopping and streaming sites uses a multiplicity of tools alongside big data in order to function with consumers and creates a diversified experience for consumers. The tools that are used by these shopping and steaming businesses alter big data into sustainable forms of information that are then used in order to predict and recommend to consumers what products to purchase and recommendations. These are all done through algorithms used to analyze the data. The paper observes and concludes that the standing made by these businesses are diversified and are meant to showcase the suitable substance of the big data to consumers. The use their procedures not only diversify the consumer experience but also diversifies the way that big data is collected and used. Big data within these forms of principles are collected and retained under algorithmic databases that are then filtered out when it is being generated by consumers. The process of big data filtering is not only done by businesses, they are also given as options to consumers. Through the process of filtering consumers can do the exact same thing.

Social media sites use big data just at online shopping and streaming services do, but social media also has another power. One which allows them to facilitate their studies into experiences around the consumer. By doing this, social media can use big data in order to influence and manipulate consumers into specific acts of studies that are being done by the social media sites. This form of big data usage not only diversifies but also includes possibility for growth in collection of information. As when social media analysis these complex forms of data known as unstructured data, they are having a deeper perspective into consumer habits, wants, and additional personal information that expands their usage of big data.

Big data is a very diversified entity. Even though it can be narrowed down to certain institutions or entities, it in itself is able to expand largely in those narrowed views. The diversification of big data is very crucial to the survival and usage of big data. Without multiple sources to collect necessary data, there would be no big data. Therefore, the userfis experiences around big data needs to be one that is flexible and seeks to incorporate the right amounts of AI and Algorithms in order to maintain steady flow of data which encapsulates the very idea of diversified big data.

In summary, the multiplicity of avenues that exists around big data creates the very core study that it takes in order to understand the practices and exhibits which are induced by the use of big data itself. By observing real world applications of big data we can see

that the diversification of big data does not need to be mellowed or shallowed out from the perspective of a programmer, as it seems that the market capitalizes on big data and therefore creates the very enterprise of multiplicity within its diversification.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

My group work very hard to facilitate a study around diversification and observation. Their hard work in reading through these sources multiple times to see the rights of the observation is very much appreciated. We would also like to thank our professor for the chance to take on such a free ranging topic, as it has allowed us to further appreciate big data and its importance in our future endeavors.

REFERENCES

- [1] Bertino, Davidson S. Dayal U. Franklin M. Agrawal D., Bernstein P. and Colleagues. 2012. Challenges and Opportunities with Big Data: A White Paper Prepared for the Computing Community Consortium committee of the Computing Research Association. (2012). <http://cra.org/ccc/resources/ccc-led-whitepapers/>
- [2] J. Aloysi, H. Hoehle, S. Goodarzi, and V. Venkatesh. 2016. Big data initiatives in retail environments: Linking service process perceptions to shopping outcomes. (2016). http://www.venkatesh.com/wp-content/uploads/dlm_uploads/2016/07/2016-AOR-Aloysijs-et-al.pdf
- [3] Amazon. 2017. Big Data on AWS. (2017). <https://aws.amazon.com/big-data/>
- [4] John Aycock. 2010. Springer Sciences & Business Media. *Spyware and Adware* 50 (2010), 71–109.
- [5] Roy F Baumeister. 2002. Yielding to temptation: Self-control failure, impulsive purchasing, and consumer behavior. *Journal of consumer Research* 52, 4 (2002), 670–676.
- [6] Chui M. Brown, B. and J Manyika. 2011. Are you ready for the era of fibig datafi? *McKinsey Quarterly* 4, 1 (2011), 24–35.
- [7] A. A. Crdenas, P. K. Manadhata, and S. P. Rajan. 2013. Big Data Analytics for Security. *IEEE Security Privacy* 11, 6 (2013), 74–76.
- [8] Kyle Hensel & Michael H. Deis. 2010. Using Soical Media To Increase Advertising And Improve Marketing. *The Entrepreneurial Executive* 15 (2010), 87.
- [9] Gary Eastwood. 2017. Big Data, Algorithms and the Future of Advertising. (2017). <https://www.networkworld.com/article/3194585/big-data/big-data-algorithms-and-the-future-of-advertising.html>
- [10] W. Glynn Mangold & David J. Faulds. 2009. Social media: The new hybrid element of the promotion mix. *Business Horizons* 52 (2009), 357–365.
- [11] Ban G-Y. 2014. Business analytics in the age of big data. *Business Strategy Review* 25, 3 (2014), 8–9.
- [12] David Geer. 2017. Will Big Data Change how we use Social Media? (2017). https://thenextweb.com/contributors/2017/07/06/will-big-data-change-use-social-media/#.tnw_DPcEKg97
- [13] M. Ghemsoune, M. Lebbah, and H. Azzag. 2016. State-of-the-art on clustering data streams. *Big Data Analytics* 1, 1 (2016), 134–145.
- [14] Amir Gandomi & Murtaza Haider. 2015. Beyond the Hype: Big Data Concepts, Methods, and Analytics. *International Journal of Information Management* 35, 2 (2015), 137–144.
- [15] Shaun Hipgrave. 2013. Smarter fraud investigations with big data analytics. *Network Security* 13, 12 (2013), 7–9.
- [16] A. Hussain and A. Roy. 2016. The emerging era of Big Data Analytics. *Big Data Analytics* 1, 1 (2016), 249.
- [17] Randal E. Bryant & Randy H. Katz & Edward D. Lazowska. 2008. Big-Data Computing: Creating revolutionary breakthroughs in commerce, science, and society. (2008). <https://cra.org/ccc/wp-content/uploads/sites/2/2015/05/Big>Data.pdf>
- [18] Dara Lind. 2014. Facebookfis fil Votedfi Sticker was a secret experiment on its users. (2014). <https://www.vox.com/2014/11/4/7154641/midterm-elections-2014-voted-facebook-friends-vote-polls>
- [19] Sarah Perez. 2016. Facebook gives its Election 2016 hub top billing by pinning it to your Favorites. (2016). <https://www.qubole.com/blog/big-data-advertising-case-study/>
- [20] Nate Philip. 2014. The Impact of Big Data on the Digital Advertising Industry. (2014). <https://www.qubole.com/blog/big-data-advertising-case-study/>
- [21] Randy H. Katz Randal E. Bryant and Edward D. Lazowska. 2008. Big-Data Computing: Creating Revolutionary Breakthroughs in Commerce, Science, and Society. (2008). <https://cra.org/ccc/wp-content/uploads/sites/2/2015/05/Big>Data.pdf>
- [22] Chetan Sharma. 2014. Big Data Analytics Using Neural Networks. (2014). <http://scholarworks.sjsu.edu/etd.projects/368>

- [23] Benjamin Reed Shiller. 2014. First-Degree Price Discrimination Using Big Data. (2014). http://benjaminshiller.com/images/First_Degree_PD_Using_Big_Data.Jan.18._2014.pdf
- [24] Eric Siegel. 2013. *Predictive analytics: the power to predict who will click, buy, lie, or die*. Vol. 51. Wiley, New York.
- [25] Hsinchun Chen & Roger H L Chiang & Veda C. Storey. 2012. Business intelligence and analytics: From big data to big impact. *MIS Quarterly: Management Information Systems* 36, 4 (2012), 1165–1188.

bibtext report

=====

This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
Name 1 in "Randal E. Bryant, Randy H. Katz, and Edward D. Lazowska" has a comma at the e
while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Name 1 in "Randal E. Bryant, Randy H. Katz, and Edward D. Lazowska" has a comma at the e
while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Name 1 in "Randal E. Bryant, Randy H. Katz, and Edward D. Lazowska" has a comma at the e
while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Name 1 in "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U., Franklin M., and C
while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U.,
while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U.,
while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U.,
while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Name 1 in "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U., Franklin M., and C
while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U.,
while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U.,
while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U.,
while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Name 1 in "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U., Franklin M., and C
while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U.,
while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U.,
while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U.,
while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Brown, B., Chui, M. and Manyika, J" for entry 16
while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Brown, B., Chui, M. and Manyika, J" for entry 16
while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Brown, B., Chui, M. and Manyika, J" for entry 16
while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Name 1 in "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U., Franklin M., and C
while executing---line 3131 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U., while executing---line 3131 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U., while executing---line 3131 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U., while executing---line 3131 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Name 1 in "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U., Franklin M., and C while executing---line 3131 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U., while executing---line 3131 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U., while executing---line 3131 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U., while executing---line 3131 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Brown, B., Chui, M. and Manyika, J" for entry 16 while executing---line 3131 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Brown, B., Chui, M. and Manyika, J" for entry 16 while executing---line 3131 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Name 1 in "Randal E. Bryant, Randy H. Katz, and Edward D. Lazowska" has a comma at the e while executing---line 3131 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Name 1 in "Randal E. Bryant, Randy H. Katz, and Edward D. Lazowska" has a comma at the e while executing---line 3131 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Name 1 in "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U., Franklin M., and C while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U., while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U., while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U., while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Name 1 in "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U., Franklin M., and C while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U., while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U., while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U., while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Name 1 in "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U., Franklin M., and C while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U., while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U., while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U., while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

```
Too many commas in name 1 of "Brown, B., Chui, M. and Manyika, J" for entry 16
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Brown, B., Chui, M. and Manyika, J" for entry 16
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Brown, B., Chui, M. and Manyika, J" for entry 16
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Name 1 in "Randal E. Bryant, Randy H. Katz, and Edward D. Lazowska" has a comma at the e
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Name 1 in "Randal E. Bryant, Randy H. Katz, and Edward D. Lazowska" has a comma at the e
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Name 1 in "Randal E. Bryant, Randy H. Katz, and Edward D. Lazowska" has a comma at the e
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
(There were 48 error messages)
make[2]: *** [bibtex] Error 2
```

latex report

[2017-12-08 03.59.23] pdflatex report.tex


```
Missing character: ""

Typesetting of "report.tex" completed in 1.0s.
./README.yml
 56:72    error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
 57:75    error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
 58:75    error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
 59:77    error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
 60:77    error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
 61:75    error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
 62:77    error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
 63:78    error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
 64:77    error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
 65:77    error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
 66:78    error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
 67:76    error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
 68:51    error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
```

Compliance Report

```
name: Shiqi Shen
hid: 109
paper1: complete 100% Oct 27th
paper2: complete 100% Nov 4th
project: 100% Dec 4th
```

```
yamlcheck
```

```
wordcount
```

```
13
wc 109 project 13 11810 report.tex
wc 109 project 13 11844 report.pdf
wc 109 project 13 891 report.bib
```

find "

- 159: As per a current SHSFoodThink white paper "Are We Chain Obsessed?" 64{\%} of customers said that the previous shopping experience is what makes them keep coming backnot the items themselves \cite{12}. By utilizing bits of knowledge received from the information transaction database, online networking, promotional activity, customers purchasing behavior, and client movement patterns, grocery stores can find a way to guarantee they are engaged with their customers that matter most.
- 207: Amazon spearheaded item proposal engine: the "if you purchased that, you may like this" invention. This strategic changing web-based shopping feature mirrors the retailer's profound assessment of buyers' shopping basket. Proposal engine is intended to enable customers to find items they were not sorting out but rather would be interested in purchasing \cite{10}. Today, general grocery merchants are progressively tapping the global innovation behind proposal engine: predictive analytics. This kind of assessment measures future patterns in light of present and past information, and it can enable stores to improve business. Information is driven, all-encompassing assessment of "purchasing triggers, for example, regularity, weather, stock, and advancements, is progressively informing grocery stores' product blend, marketing plans, and sales forecast \cite{14}. Furnished with these information-driven tools, stores can better distinguish what items customers need today and what they will be demanding in future, and this learning will enable them to stay competitive for a considerable length of time to come.
- 259: Predictive modeling and different analytics were accessible to large insurance net providers willing to introduce the innovation on location as of not long ago. Software as a service has advanced to even where genuinely little insurers can exploit Big Data analytics \cite{16}. Insurance providers subscribe to a service keeps running by a seller as opposed to paying for the vast buy, establishment, and support of in-house frameworks. SaaS likewise is named "on-demand software."

passed: False

find footnote

passed: True

```
find input{format/i523}
```

```
4: \input{format/i523}
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find input{format/final}
```

```
passed: False
```

```
floats
```

```
figures 0  
tables 0  
includegraphics 0  
labels 0  
refs 0  
floats 0
```

```
True : ref check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
```

```
True : label check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
```

```
True : include graphics passed: (figures >= includegraphics)
```

```
True : check if all figures are refered to: (refs >= labels)
```

```
Label/ref check
```

```
passed: True
```

```
When using figures use columnwidth
```

```
[width=1.0\columnwidth]
```

```
do not change the number to a smaller fraction
```

```
find textwidth
```

```
passed: True
```

```
below_check
```

WARNING: algorithm and above may be used improperly

69: As a programmer, machine learning and the creation of these algorithms truly fascinate when they are being used in order to create a recommendation system. Since the collection of data is pooled, the use of algorithms to reach a particular end, based on data analyzation, makes for a very interesting usage. As the use of data algorithms not only seek to facilitate the necessary recommendations, but also filter through millions of data informatics to agitate the necessary products to ensure the transparency of recommendations created. This can also be seen in what was stated above regarding consumers being able to filter products with precise search options. These filters can act as filters for filters. As in the filters chosen by consumers help to facilitate precise sifters and allows for algorithms to pinpoint precise outlines of data that help to recommend even finer tuned recommendations for consumers. \\

WARNING: algorithm and above may be used improperly

265: As we have observed of big data above, we also learn of the prediction value and how big data escalates the ability for businesses to predict and recommend to consumers different products. The use of pooling data and sifting it through algorithms in order to precisely choose methods of spawning products before consumers is a fundamental use of big data. Big data becomes a tool that assimilates the data that is created to businesses to create more big data. The process is unending and constantly provides businesses with unlimited amounts of data that can be used to spearhead their campaigns. Does big data then become a commodity that is used like currency to businesses? Well, it is very possible. As the use of big data is how businesses maneuver their strategies to get consumer to consume. If these algorithms meant to increase sales were used for something else, say medical awareness to the issues that exists within smoking cigarettes, how will the big data be used and what forms of algorithms would be used? The use of prediction analyst suits sales, but based on the observation made above, it is probably even more effective in helping to create a knowledgeable public. By facilitating the big data and being able to sort out the necessary public images that have control over social sphere through mass social medias, there can be an exchange of data between consumers. Because of the interplay between data and how consumers absorb them and create more data that is spawned for more information, big data can in turn control knowledgeable outcomes in public opinions. The use of big data is vast then

when it comes to understanding the many components that make up what big data is.\\

bibtex

label errors

bibtex errors

This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)

The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux

The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Database file #1: report.bib

Name 1 in "Randal E. Bryant, Randy H. Katz, and Edward D. Lazowska" has a comma at the end while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Name 1 in "Randal E. Bryant, Randy H. Katz, and Edward D. Lazowska" has a comma at the end while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Name 1 in "Randal E. Bryant, Randy H. Katz, and Edward D. Lazowska" has a comma at the end while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Name 1 in "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U., Franklin M., and C." has a comma at the end while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U., Franklin M., and C." while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U., Franklin M., and C." while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U., Franklin M., and C." while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Name 1 in "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U., Franklin M., and C." while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U., Franklin M., and C." while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U., Franklin M., and C." while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Name 1 in "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U., Franklin M., and C." while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U., Franklin M., and C." while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U., Franklin M., and C." while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U., Franklin M., and C." while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U., Franklin M., and C." while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U., Franklin M., and C." while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Brown, B., Chui, M. and Manyika, J" for entry 16
while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Brown, B., Chui, M. and Manyika, J" for entry 16
while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Brown, B., Chui, M. and Manyika, J" for entry 16
while executing---line 3085 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Name 1 in "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U., Franklin M., and C
while executing---line 3131 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U.,
while executing---line 3131 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U.,
while executing---line 3131 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U.,
while executing---line 3131 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Name 1 in "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U., Franklin M., and C
while executing---line 3131 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U.,
while executing---line 3131 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U.,
while executing---line 3131 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U.,
while executing---line 3131 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Brown, B., Chui, M. and Manyika, J" for entry 16
while executing---line 3131 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Brown, B., Chui, M. and Manyika, J" for entry 16
while executing---line 3131 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Name 1 in "Randal E. Bryant, Randy H. Katz, and Edward D. Lazowska" has a comma at the e
while executing---line 3131 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Name 1 in "Randal E. Bryant, Randy H. Katz, and Edward D. Lazowska" has a comma at the e
while executing---line 3131 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Name 1 in "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U., Franklin M., and C
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U.,
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U.,
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U.,
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Name 1 in "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U., Franklin M., and C
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U.,
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U.,
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U.,
while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Name 1 in "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U., Franklin M., and C while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U., while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U., while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Agrawal D., Bernstein P., Bertino., Davidson S., Dayal U., while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Brown, B., Chui, M. and Manyika, J" for entry 16 while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Brown, B., Chui, M. and Manyika, J" for entry 16 while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Too many commas in name 1 of "Brown, B., Chui, M. and Manyika, J" for entry 16 while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Name 1 in "Randal E. Bryant, Randy H. Katz, and Edward D. Lazowska" has a comma at the e while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Name 1 in "Randal E. Bryant, Randy H. Katz, and Edward D. Lazowska" has a comma at the e while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Name 1 in "Randal E. Bryant, Randy H. Katz, and Edward D. Lazowska" has a comma at the e while executing---line 3229 of file ACM-Reference-Format.bst
(There were 48 error messages)

bibtex_empty_fields

entries in general should not be empty in bibtex

find ""

passed: True

ascii

non ascii found 8217
non ascii found 8217
non ascii found 8217
non ascii found 8220
non ascii found 8221
non ascii found 8217
non ascii found 8220
non ascii found 8221
non ascii found 8217

```
non ascii found 8217
```

```
=====
The following tests are optional
=====
```

```
Tip: newlines can often be replaced just by an empty line
```

```
find newline
-----
```

```
passed: True
cites should have a space before \cite{} but not before the {
```

```
find cite {
-----
```

```
passed: True
```

Big Data Analytics on Food Products Around the World

Karthik Vegi

Indiana University Bloomington
College Mall Apartments
Bloomington, Indiana 47401
kvegi@iu.com

Nisha Chandwani

Indiana University Bloomington
Park Doral Apartments
Bloomington, Indiana 47408
nchandwa@iu.edu

ABSTRACT

Food is one of the basic necessities of human-being. It helps us gain energy to recharge our body to do the daily activities of moving, playing, and thinking. From being a cave man to producing a wide variety of foods, we have come a long way. The civilizations shaped the food habits of the world and there is a lot of variance in the food habits across countries. We analyze the *Open Food Facts* database that gathers information on food products from around the world to unearth some food habits of the world and we predict the food grade based on the nutrition facts of the food products.

KEYWORDS

i523, hid231, hid203, big data, food habits, food products, nutrition

1 INTRODUCTION

Open Food Facts is a non-profit initiative started by Stephane Gigaandet and run by thousands of volunteers around the world. Any person around the world can contribute to the database by simply scanning a product using a mobile app which is made available to IOS and Android. This massive database of food products opens up a lot of opportunities to analyze the food products around the world and understand the food habits. We are particularly interested in the consumption of nutrients that come along with the food items across the world, the composition of different fat content, and the prediction of nutrition grade based on the nutrients.

2 FOOD ANALYSIS: IMPORTANCE AND RELATED WORK

In recent times, more and more companies try to market their food as low-fat or low-calories in order to fool consumers into buying their products. The increasing concern of public health has led to a significant interest in detecting the health-related properties of food products [2]. Thus, there is no question about the importance of analysis of the nutrition grade and food safety in today's world. The analysis of food requires more robust and efficient methodologies in order to ensure the quality and safety of the food products [2]. Previous methods based on the so-called wet-chemistry have now evolved into more powerful techniques which are used in the food laboratories. These methods provide a massive improvement in analytical accuracy thus expanding the limits of food applications [2]. The traditional methods of food analysis can be classified based on the underlying principle. Some of these categories are spectroscopic, biological, electrochemical, supercritical fluid chromatography [2]. All these techniques provide information about the sample under study and this information is derived from a specific physical-chemical interaction [2]. A different approach to analyzing and detecting the food quality is by using machine

learning techniques. We will discuss one of these modern methods of food analysis which can be widely used across countries.

3 ANALYSIS OF NUTRIENTS IN FOOD

Fat is definitely a nutrient that the body needs and is an essential nutrient that aids in cell growth, helps with energy generation, maintaining body temperature, protect organs, help absorb other essential nutrients that aid in producing energy, improve blood cholesterol level, help reduce inflammation in case of injury, and help in storing energy that can be used for survival when you go without food for few days [1]. But we do need to keep a track of the consumption because anything that is remotely excess leads to a variety of serious health issues [1].

3.1 Dietary Fats

There are different types of fat if? some are good and some are bad and some needs to be taken within a certain limit [1].

3.1.1 Saturated Fat. More intake of saturated fats results in the cholesterol levels in the blood which increases the risk of heart-related diseases [1]. The American Heart Association suggests around 5 percent of daily calories from foods containing saturated fat [1]. Meat, cheese, and milk are some of the sources of saturated fat [1].

3.1.2 Trans Fat. Any type of trans fat whether it is natural or artificial is not good [1]. The reason why food manufacturers use trans-fat is that they are less expensive, can be produced artificially, easy to use with other ingredients, last for a long time and also aid in improving the taste of the food [1]. Trans fats raise the bad fat levels and decrease the good fat levels [1]. The American Heart suggests to completely cut off trans-fat from the diet [1].

3.1.3 Monounsaturated Fat. Monounsaturated fats have a good effect on the body when taken within limit [1]. They help reduce the bad cholesterol levels in the blood and thereby decrease the risk of heart diseases [1]. They also help in gaining vitamin E which is a good nutrient that acts as antioxidant [1]. Olive oil, avocados, and sesame oil are some of the sources of monounsaturated fats [1].

3.1.4 Polyunsaturated Fat. Polyunsaturated fats have a good effect on the body when taken within limit [1]. They help reduce the bad cholesterol levels in the blood and thereby decrease the risk of heart diseases [1]. They also provide some nutrients that are essential for the body [1]. Soybean oil and sunflower oil are some of the sources of polyunsaturated fats [1].

3.2 Data Cleaning and Transformation

To make the analysis more interesting, the top 20 countries with most value counts for the attributes have been considered. The countries with names combined with other countries were also cleaned in the process. The data was analyzed for missing values and the attributes with more than 60 percent missing values were removed from the analysis to add consistency. Only the columns that are meaningful in the analysis were retained and the rest were removed from further analysis.

We then display the top 5 countries as a pie-chart and the 5 countries are namely United States, France, Switzerland, Germany, and Spain as shown in Figure 1.

[Figure 1 about here.]

We then impute all the null values with zeroes and we then check the dietary fat content in the foods and check the top countries with fat content using a histogram. The analysis with respect to the fat countries is as follows

3.3 Fat Content

The top 5 countries with most fat content in the food items are Serbia, United States, Switzerland, Germany, and Sweden as shown in Figure 2.

[Figure 2 about here.]

The top 5 countries with most saturated fat content in the food items are Serbia, United States, Germany, France and Switzerland as shown in Figure 3

[Figure 3 about here.]

The top 5 countries with most trans-fat content in the food items are United States, Brazil, Canada, Australia, Russia, and Serbia as shown in Figure 4.

[Figure 4 about here.]

The top 5 countries with most cholesterol content in the food items are United States, Canada, Portugal, Brazil, France, and Italy as shown in Figure 5.

[Figure 5 about here.]

3.4 Sugar and Salt Content

Although the body needs sugar, high intake of artificial and processed sugar is bad for health as it does not add any nutrients but only adds calories [5]. It is always better to rely on the natural sugar that comes with fruits and milk [5]. Artificial sugars tooth decay and diabetes [5]. Just as fat, sodium which is the main source of iodine is essential for health although its intake should be within limit [5]. Increase in intake of salt leads to blood pressure and has an effect on the heart [5].

The top 5 countries with most sugar content in the food items are United States, Serbia, Switzerland, France, and Sweden as shown in Figure 6.

[Figure 6 about here.]

The top 5 countries with most sodium content in the food items are United States, Hungary, Serbia, Sweden, and France as shown in Figure 7.

[Figure 7 about here.]

4 NUTRITION GRADE LABELLING SYSTEM

France recently took a decision to implement a nutri-score system which will use a color coding mechanism to label the food products that will help consumers know the nutrition grade of the product [3]. The World Health Organization regional office for Europe as a part of its 5-year action plan from 2015-2020 recommends a labeling mechanism for the consumers to know about the quality of the food products at a first glance [3]. This will not only make it easier for the consumers to pick healthier options but it will also regulate food manufacturers to resort to healthier ingredients instead of going for low cost artificial or less healthy ingredients [3].

France after the United Kingdom became the second country to implement this system to indicate the main ingredients like fat, salt and sugar content in the food items [3]. France made use of an evidence-based system to study different labeling systems to arrive at the best one [3]. By implementing this system, the World Health Organization will keep a check on the growing number of diet-related diseases in the Europe region [3]. Europe being the largest consumer of cheese wants to regulate the ingredients that go into the manufacturing process so that people are well informed about their food choices [3].

4.1 Nutrition Grade Prediction as a Big Data Problem

We build a predictive classification model to predict the food nutrition grade based on the ingredients of the food. The goal is to apply various machine learning algorithms to the problem at hand, measure the prediction accuracy to compare and contrast the different algorithms and arrive at the best algorithm that suits the given data and the problem. This problem can be solved using Big Data and Machine Learning techniques given the size and the complexity of the data.

5 MACHINE LEARNING

Machine Learning is a field in which we train computers in a way that they can learn from the input data [6]. The ideology is that computers use the training data that is made available to them, learn from it, build a model and use this experience to build knowledge that can be applied on new unseen data [6]. A wonderful example to demonstrate machine learning is the application to detect spam emails where the machine builds knowledge from previously seen emails which are marked as spam, checks new emails to see if they match the historic spam emails and label them as spam or non-spam [6].

5.1 Types of Machine Learning Algorithms

There are primarily two types of machine learning algorithms, descriptive models and predictive models [6]. A *Descriptive Model* is described as the analysis done and insights gained from slicing and dicing the data in new and interesting ways [6]. One example of a descriptive model is pattern discovery that is often used in market basket analysis where transnational purchase details are analyzed [6]. A *Predictive Model* on the other hand involves predicting one value using one or more variables [6]. The learning algorithms tried to build a model that captures the relationship between a response variable and the independent variables [8].

5.2 Types of Learning

Unsupervised Learning is the process where there is no explicit training data to learn from, so there is simply no mechanism where the machine can learn from previously available data [6]. The same email example can be looked at in a different way where we now want to do anomaly detection in emails [6]. Here the main goal is to detect unusual messages from the bunch of messages and we do not have experience of previous data [6].

Supervised Learning in contrast is the process of gaining knowledge or expertise from the training data which can be applied to future unseen data [6]. Here the model is first trained by using a bulk of training examples and this model is applied to testing data to measure the accuracy [6]. The variable that we need to predict is identified which is called the response variable and the variables that are used to predict the response variables, called the predictor variables are identified [6]. If the existing variables are not sufficiently giving the accuracy that is expected, a method called feature engineering is done where new variables are derived by combining existing variables [6].

6 PREDICTION ANALYSIS

Prediction analysis is the process of working on a large dataset using a combination of statistical, data mining and machine learning algorithms to predict the outcome based on past data [6]. There are primarily two types of prediction analysis in machine learning, namely regression and classification [8]. In regression, we try to predict a continuous variable from the predictor variables [8]. A good example of regression is to predict the housing prices from different parameters like the year of construction, location, amenities, number of bedrooms etc [8]. Here the response variable is continuous and it is not predefined [8]. Classification, on the other hand, tries to predict a categorical variable in which we assign each record with a predefined label or a class [8].

Classification is the task of assigning each data record to a predefined class [8]. In machine learning, classification is categorized as a supervised learning technique [8]. This problem has applications in various fields like spam detection, medical applications, astronomy, and banking to identify fraudulent transactions from genuine transactions [8]. It is the task of coming up with a model which is essentially a function that maps every data record to a class label [8].

The task at hand is a classification problem since we are trying to predict the food nutrition grade of the products based on the ingredients that go into the product. For this problem, we are considering only the data for the country France, since the nutrition grade is available for most food products from the country. Another reason is that France is the first country in the region to come up with the idea of adding a color-coded label to the food products mentioning the nutrition grade. In the subsequent sections, we discuss the machine learning techniques used to solve this problem.

6.1 K Nearest Neighbors

6.1.1 Overview. Some of the classification algorithms in machine learning work on the principle of eager learning that involves a two-step process where first a model is built from the training data and the model is applied on testing data [8]. In contrast, K nearest neighbors is a lazy learning algorithm where the process of modeling the training data is not done until the test examples are classified [8]. *Rote Classifier* is a good example of lazy learning algorithm which memorizes the entire training data to perform classification but has the drawback of not being able to map every test example against the training example [8]. K nearest neighbors algorithm overcomes this drawback by finding all the records that are closest or nearest to the training records [8].

The nearest neighbor puts each attribute list as a data point in the n-dimensional space, given n the number of attributes [8]. Once we have the training examples, we take each test example and compute its distance to the training example classes and assign a class label [8]. Any of the popular distance measures among Euclidean distance, Manhattan distance, Minkowski distance and Mahalanobis distance can be used [8]. The k denotes the k closest points to the test example [8]. Figure 8 shows the algorithm [8].

[Figure 8 about here.]

6.1.2 Support in Python. KNeighborsClassifier is available in the scikit learn python library.

6.2 Logistic Regression

Logistic regression or logit regression is a special type of regression analysis where the response variable that we need to predict is a categorical variable [8]. Typically, logistic regression models the response variable to take two values, 1 or 0, pass or fail, win or lose [8]. Logistic regression that takes more than two values for the response variable is called multinomial logistic regression [8]. Here the probability of the response variable to take a categorical value is modeled as a function of the predictor variables [8].

Like a lot of machine learning algorithms, logistic regression works by making a lot of assumptions which should be taken care as a part of the data cleaning and transformation process [6]. It does not assume a linear relationship between the response variables and the predictor variables [6]. Since it applies a log transformation on the predicted probabilities, it can handle a variety of relationship between the predictor variables [6]. If the predictor variables are multivariate normal, the algorithm achieves the best result although it works even if they are not [6]. The stepwise method must be used in the logistic regression to ensure that we are neither overfitting

nor underfitting the data [6]. A very important assumption to be noted in logistic regression is that each attribute list must be independent, in the sense, the data records must not be derived from a before-after setup experiment [6]. It also requires a decently large sample size to work on [6].

6.2.1 Support for Python. LogisticRegression is available in the scikit learn python library.

6.3 Random Forest Classifier

Random forest is an ensemble classification algorithm which is very powerful [8]. Ensemble method is a special process to improve the accuracy of the prediction [8]. The classification algorithms we have seen so far predict the response variable using a single classifier on the test data but ensemble methods use multiple classifiers in tandem and aggregate the predictions to boost the accuracy by a huge margin [8]. Using a combination method, the ensemble method derives a set of base classifiers from the training data and on each iteration takes a vote of all the base classifiers to arrive at a result [8].

Random forest is an ensemble method which works very well for classification problems [8]. It combines the predictions made by multiple classifiers where each classifier independently works on the training data and casts its vote [8]. Unlike methods like AdaBoost which generates values based on independent random vectors using a varied probability distribution, random forest generates values based on fixed probability distribution [8].

6.3.1 Rationale for Random Forest. Consider an example, where we have 25 base classifiers and each base classifier has an error rate of 0.35 [8]. As discussed, the random forest takes the majority vote given by the base classifiers [8]. The model makes a wrong prediction if half or more base classifiers predict inaccurately. The accuracy is improved with an error rate of 0.06 which is far better than using just a single classifier [8].

6.3.2 Support for Python. RandomForestClassifier is available in the scikit learn python library.

7 EXPERIMENTS AND RESULTS

In this section, we will introduce the algorithm along with the details of experiments and methodology for predicting the nutrition grade of food products in France.

7.1 Algorithm

The problem at hand is to correctly identify the nutrition grade of the food item. The possible labels are, *a* to *e*, with *a* being the best and *e* being the worst grade for a food item. For this task, we have used machine learning techniques that help in predicting the label of each food item. Before getting into the details of each step of the method, we first present a concise version of the algorithm used for this task:

- (1) Select all the records for the country, France. Drop records where nutrition grade is not populated.
- (2) Separate the predictors from the response variable in order to perform data cleaning and data transformation steps.

- (3) Check for missing values in the predictors obtained in the step above. Drop columns with more than 60% missing values.
- (4) Impute the missing values with 0 for remaining columns.
- (5) After imputing the missing values, standardize all the numerical predictors using the standard scaler.
- (6) Check for the correlation between different numerical predictors. Drop one predictor from each pair of predictors that show high correlation.
- (7) Combine the pre-processed predictors and the response variable in a single data frame.
- (8) Divide the data obtained in step above into training and test data using stratified sampling.
- (9) Train different classifiers on the training data and check the performance of each classifier on the test data.

7.2 Data set

For the classification problem, we selected the records for country France.

Number of examples: 123,961

Number of variables: 12

Response variables: *Nutrition Grade*

Predictor variables: *Energy per 100g*, *Fat per 100g*, *Saturated Fat per 100g*, *Carbohydrates per 100g*, *Sugars per 100g*, *Fiber per 100g*, *Proteins per 100g*, *Salt per 100g*, *Trans-fat per 100g*, *Sodium per 100g*

7.3 Python Packages Used

The following Python packages were used to solve the classification problem:

- Pandas: Provides high-performance data structures for data analysis and data munging
- Matplotlib: Plotting library that helps to embed plots into applications using GUI
- Seaborn: Visualization package based on matplotlib used for drawing high-level statistical graphics
- Scikit-learn: Toolbox with solid implementation of machine learning and other algorithms
- Scipy: Package that supports scientific computing with modules for linear algebra and integration

7.4 Data Cleaning

7.4.1 Step 1: Data Sparsity. Data sparsity refers to the situation where a lot of attributes have missing values which is an advantage in some cases because you only need to store and analyze the data that is available to you and save on computation time and storage [8]. We first check the data value counts for each country. United States, France, Switzerland, Germany, and Spain come as the top 5 countries with most data. Since the food nutrition grade was implemented in France, it has most products for which nutrition grade is labeled. So for this classification problem, we use the food data from France for analysis.

7.4.2 Step 2: Handling Missing Values. Missing values is a common scenario and they can be handled in different ways. You could

choose to eliminate the data objects with missing values but at the expense of missing some critical analysis [8]. Estimating the missing values is also a good way to handle them, especially when the data comes from time series etc, where you could possibly interpolate the missing values from the ones that are closer to it [8]. Ignoring the missing values is another technique which can be applied to tasks like clustering where the similarity can be calculated using the attributes other than the missing ones [8].

The data set was first analyzed to check the missing values in all the columns. The threshold limit has been set at 60 percent. All the columns with missing values more than 60 percent were removed from the analysis to make the result more consistent. Once the columns were removed, the data set has to be re-indexed to maintain the order. Only the columns that are important for the prediction task have been retained from the original dataset. In this case, all the ingredients which are primarily the predictor variables were included. The missing values in the response variable also need to be taken care of. Removing the records with missing values for the response variable proved to be the best option for trying out various things.

Imputation was used to handle the null values in the predictor variables. Imputation can be done in a variety of ways, for example, replacing the missing values with zero or imputing the missing values for numerical columns with the mean and the categorical columns with the mode. Since all the predictor variables have numeric values, all the null values have been replaced with zero. To ensure that the imputation process has been done correctly, the sum of missing values is calculated since post-imputation, this sum should be zero.

7.4.3 Step 3: Outlier Treatment. Outliers are data objects with quite distinct characteristics from the other data records [8]. There is a considerable difference between anomalies and outliers, where anomalies refer to data records that have bad data, which is noise and need to be ignored, anomalies often contain interesting aspects and can lead to some good analysis [8]. In applications like *Fraud Detection*, anomalies could be of utmost importance [8]. The outliers in the data have been looked at by using box plots and have been handled as a part of the data cleaning process.

7.5 Exploratory Data Analysis

For exploratory data analysis, we used the Seaborn package along with Matplotlib for visualizations. The measure of spread, that is the range and variance of the values, is a good way to understand the different aspects of the predictor variables. Box-plots are a method of visualization to look at the distribution of values for a numerical attribute [8]. The box plots show the percentiles where the lower and upper ends of the box indicate 25th and 75th percentile, the line inside the box indicates the 50th percentile, the tails indicate the 10th and 90th percentile respectively [8].

7.5.1 Bi-variate box-plots. Bi-variate box-plots go beyond univariate box plots by showing the relationship between the predictor variable and the response variable [8]. We look at the bi-variate

box-plots for each of the important predictor variables namely, saturated fat, polyunsaturated fat, sugars and salt and the response variable, nutrition grade. Figure 9 shows the bi-variate box plots.

[Figure 9 about here.]

By looking at the box plots, we can understand some important aspects of how the response variable is related to the predictor variables. We see that as the average saturated fat content increases, the food grade decreases and as the average polyunsaturated fat content increases the nutrition grade is better. When the sugar levels increase, the health quotient of the food comes down. The energy levels behave in an interesting manner where the energy for the nutrition grade A is higher whereas in general, the average energy level slightly increases with the decreasing nutrition grade. While increase in energy does not necessarily imply that the nutrition quality is high, as there are a lot of instant energy foods that have a lot of additives, but they are often rated low when it comes to health.

7.5.2 Correlation. Correlation between data objects is the measure of the linear relationship between the attributes of the object that are continuous variables [8]. Correlation analysis is the process of finding of the correlations between the different predictor variables and identify high collinearity problem [6]. The relationship could be either linear or non-linear based on the given data [8]. The correlation coefficient can range anywhere between -1 and 1, where 1 indicates a very high positive correlation and -1 indicates a very high negative correlation [6]. Correlation plot visually shows the correlation coefficient between the variables in a nicely laid out plot. Figure 10 shows the correlation plot.

[Figure 10 about here.]

By looking at the correlation plot, we can see that sugars, fat, energy are positively correlated with the nutrition grade. This indicates that these variables will play an important role in the prediction algorithm. However, sodium and salt are highly correlated with each other and this may lead to collinearity problem if not handled. Collinearity is the state where the independent variables are highly correlated with each other which can add a lot of noise to the data [7]. Some of the problems because of collinearity are that the regression coefficients may not be estimated correctly. Also, collinearity makes it very difficult to explain the response variables using the predictor variables [7]. So we remove sodium from the predictor variables and proceed to the next step.

7.5.3 Data Transformation. Data transformation refers to the transformation that is applied to the variables [8]. For each data object, we apply a transformation function to all the attributes of the object to ensure that the attributes do not have a lot of variance in the data [8]. This process is also called standardization since we are applying a standard function to make sure all the attributes fall within a given range [8]. There are different methods that can be applied to achieve scaling namely log transformation, absolute value, square root transformation [8].

We use the method called normalization where all the values fall in the range, 0 to 1. To achieve this, we use the prepossessing package from sklearn which provides utility functions and transformer classes to change raw data into a standard representation. A lot of machine learning algorithms work well on standardized data. If some of the variables have extreme values, they might dominate the model function and might disturb the estimation parameter. Thus, for such extreme values, standardization helps achieve better results.

On scaling the data, there was a massive improvement in the prediction accuracy of the algorithms, implemented for this task. Thus, this proves the importance of data standardization with respect to machine learning algorithms.

7.6 Data Sampling

In a supervised machine learning approach, the model is trained on one sample of the data and later tested on a different sample of the data. Thus, in order to test the performance of the nutrition grade classifier, the data for the country France was divided into two samples, training and testing. There are various ways to achieve this split or sampling of the data. Some of these sampling methods are:

- Simple Random Sampling: This is one of the simplest sampling techniques. In this technique, every data point has an equal chance of being selected. In other words, it works similar to a lottery system where every outcome has an equal probability. The biggest advantage of this technique is the ease of implementation and its unbiased nature while generating the sample. However, random sampling might not always result in a sample that can represent the true population. It generally works well when we have huge data to sample from.
- Stratified Sampling: This technique is a more sophisticated method of sampling data. Stratified sampling generates a sample such that the proportion of each class in the sample is same as that in the true population. In this technique, the entire population is divided into groups or strata. The next step is to randomly select data points from each stratum such that the final sample has the same proportion for each stratum as that present in the true population. Thus, the sample generated by this technique is a good representative of the true population. Stratified sampling is a very useful technique when the classes in the data are highly imbalanced.

For our classifier, we chose to divide the data for France into training and test samples using stratified sampling technique. The strata or groups were created based on the response variable, i.e., food grade. This ensured that the training and test data had the same proportion of each food grade.

7.7 Data Modeling

Once the data was divided into training and test data, the next step was to train different classifiers and tune their respective parameters for better accuracy. We implemented three different models for

classifying the food grade. Each of these models along with their parameters is:

- K Nearest Neighbors (kNN): For kNN, the grade of a food item in test data is classified by first finding the k most similar food items in the training data. It then takes the vote (food grade label) from each of these neighbors and based on the majority vote, the food item from the test data is assigned a food grade. Thus, one of the most important parameter for kNN is k , i.e., the number of neighbors to consider from the training data. We tried different k values and found that $k = 3$ gives the best accuracy.
- Logistic Regression: For logistic regression, one of the important parameters is the penalty. This parameter specifies the kind of regularization to be applied. This parameter can take two possible values, l_1 regularization and l_2 regularization. Both these values penalize high magnitude of the coefficients of the predictors in order to prevent the model from over-fitting. For our model, we have used l_2 regularization as it works well even in the presence of highly correlated features.
- Random Forest: For the random forest, there are many parameters, such as the number of trees in the forest, the maximum depth of the trees, maximum number of features to consider at each split, the minimum number of samples required in a sub-tree to qualify for a further split, the minimum number of samples required to qualify as a leaf node, etc. For our data, we have kept most of the parameters at their default values, except for, the number of estimators or trees in the forest. We have set this value to 100, as the classifier resulted in very high accuracy with 100 trees in the forest.

7.8 Evaluation Metrics and Results

There are various evaluation metrics for assessing the performance of classifiers. Some of these evaluation metrics are [4]:

- Accuracy: This metric gives the proportion of the total number of correctly classified instances
- Precision: This gives the proportion of the true positive instances from the total instances classified as positive
- Recall: This gives the proportion of the positive instances that are correctly classified
- F-Measure: This gives the harmonic mean between precision and the recall values
- Confusion Matrix: This is a useful way of checking the accuracy of the classifier. It clearly shows the number of instances correctly classified for each label. Thus, if we know that the classes in the data are not well-balanced, it's always a good idea to check the confusion matrix along with accuracy. Consider a case where 95% of the instances belong to class A and only 5% of the instances belong to class B. If a classifier is trained on a dataset with such imbalance, there is a high chance that the classifier would return label A for each test instance. The classifier would still be able to correctly classify 95% of the test instances resulting in 95% accuracy. This is a case where accuracy can be misleading and thus a quick look at the confusion

matrix can help understand the problem with the classifier. For such a case, the confusion matrix will clearly show that all the instances of the minority class, B, have been misclassified.

For our model, we used accuracy as well as confusion matrix for evaluating the results. The confusion matrix did not show any serious issues for any of the classifiers. The accuracy for each of the three classifiers was:

- (1) Logistic Regression: With l_2 penalty, the accuracy of logistic regression was 78.9%. Figure 11 shows the confusion matrix.

[Figure 11 about here.]

- (2) K Nearest Neighbors: With k as 3, the accuracy of kNN was 95.74%. Figure 12 shows the confusion matrix.

[Figure 12 about here.]

- (3) Random Forest: With a number of trees as 100, the accuracy of random forest classifier was 99.68%. Figure 13 shows the confusion matrix.

[Figure 13 about here.]

Thus, we obtained the best results with Random Forest classifier.

8 CONCLUSION

Analysis of food content is very important in today's world as most of the companies try to fool consumers by labeling their product as low-fat. It's important for the consumers to know the true nutrition grade while purchasing any food item. Thus, we analyzed the nutrition grade based on the composition of various components of the food items. We developed a model that labels a food item purely on the basis of its nutrients, thus eliminating any bias, such as, the production company or the brand name. For accurate labeling, we applied different data cleaning and data transformation techniques. With this transformed data, we tried various machine learning models. We got the best results using random forest classifier which was able to accurately label 99% of the food products. Since the model is trained only for France, as part of future work, we can try and scale our model for different countries. However, to achieve similar results for other countries, we need to collect more data. The current data has many missing values for countries other than France. Once we collect enough data for these countries, we can also try and implement more sophisticated models like neural networks in future.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This project was undertaken as a part of the course objective for I523: Big Data Applications and Analytics at Indiana University, Bloomington. We would like to thank Dr. Gregor von Laszewski and all the TAs for their help, support, and suggestions.

A WORK BREAKDOWN

Dataset identification: Karthik Vegi, Nisha Chandwani: work equally split between.

Requirement Gathering: Karthik Vegi, Nisha Chandwani: work equally split between.

Learning Machine Learning Concepts: Karthik Vegi, Nisha Chandwani: work equally split between.

Data analysis and implementation of the Logistic Regression: Karthik Vegi.

K nearest neighbors and Random Forest algorithms: Nisha Chandwani

Writing the project report: Karthik Vegi, Nisha Chandwani: work equally split between.

REFERENCES

- [1] American Heart Association. 2017. Dietary Fats. Webpage. (March 2017). <https://healthyforgood.heart.org/eat-smart/articles/dietary-fats>
- [2] Alejandro Cifuentes. 2012. Food analysis: present, future, and foodomics. *ISRN Analytical Chemistry* 2012 (2012), 16.
- [3] World Health Organization Europe. 2017. Labelling systems to guide consumers to healthier options. Webpage. (March 2017). <http://www.euro.who.int/en/countries/france/news/news/2017/03/france-becomes-one-of-the-first-countries-in-region-to-recommend-colour-coded-front-of-pack>
- [4] M Hossin and MN Sulaiman. 2015. A review on evaluation metrics for data classification evaluations. *International Journal of Data Mining & Knowledge Management Process* 5, 2 (2015), 1.
- [5] Healthy Eating SFGate. 2017. Recommended Daily Allowances of Fats, Sugars, Sodium for Adults. Webpage. (2017). <http://healthyeating.sfgate.com/recommended-daily-allowances-fats-sugars-sodium-adults-2976.html>
- [6] Shai Shalev-Shwartz and Shai Ben-David. 2014. *Understanding Machine Learning: From Theory to Algorithms*. Cambridge University Press, New York, USA.
- [7] Statistics Solutions. 2017. Multicollinearity. Webpage. (March 2017). <http://www.statisticssolutions.com/multicollinearity/>
- [8] Pang-Ning Tan, Michael Steinbach, and Vipin Kumar. 2006. *Introduction to Data Mining*. Pearson, Boston, USA.
- [9] Karthik Vegi and Nisha Chandwani. 2017. Code base - Analysis on food products around the world. github. (Dec. 2017). <https://github.com/bigdata-i523/hid231/tree/master/project/code>

LIST OF FIGURES

1	Top 5 countries [9]	9
2	Top 5 countries with most fat content [9]	10
3	Top 5 countries with most saturated fat content [9]	11
4	Top 5 countries with most trans-fat content [9]	12
5	Top 5 countries with most cholesterol content [9]	13
6	Top 5 countries with most sugar content [9]	14
7	Top 5 countries with most sugar content [9]	15
8	K nearest neighbors algorithm[8]	15
9	Bi-variate box plots [9]	16
10	Correlation Plot [9]	17
11	Confusion matrix for Logistic Regression [9]	18
12	Confusion matrix for K Nearest Neighbors [9]	19
13	Confusion matrix for Random Forest [9]	20

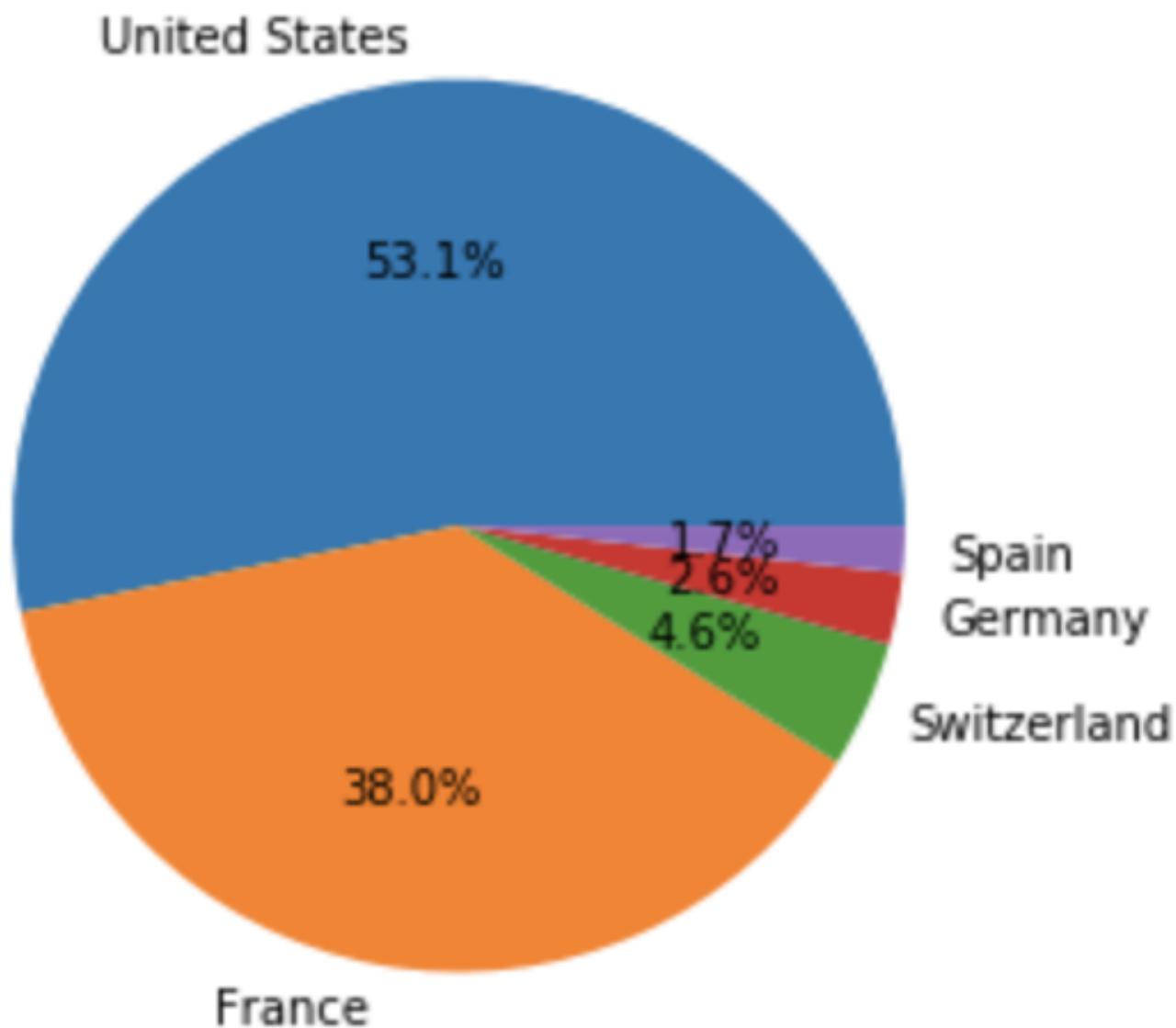


Figure 1: Top 5 countries [9]

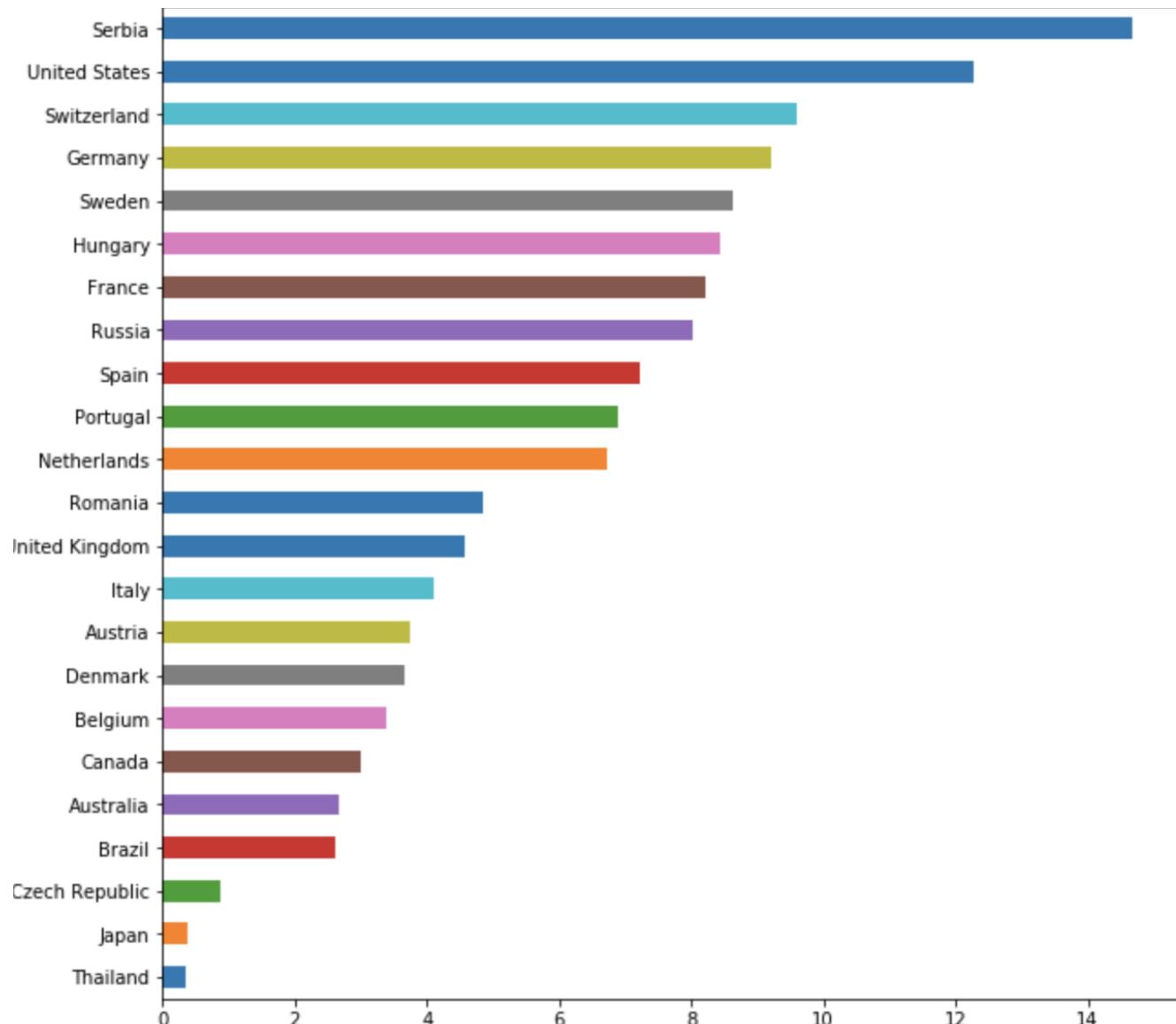


Figure 2: Top 5 countries with most fat content [9]

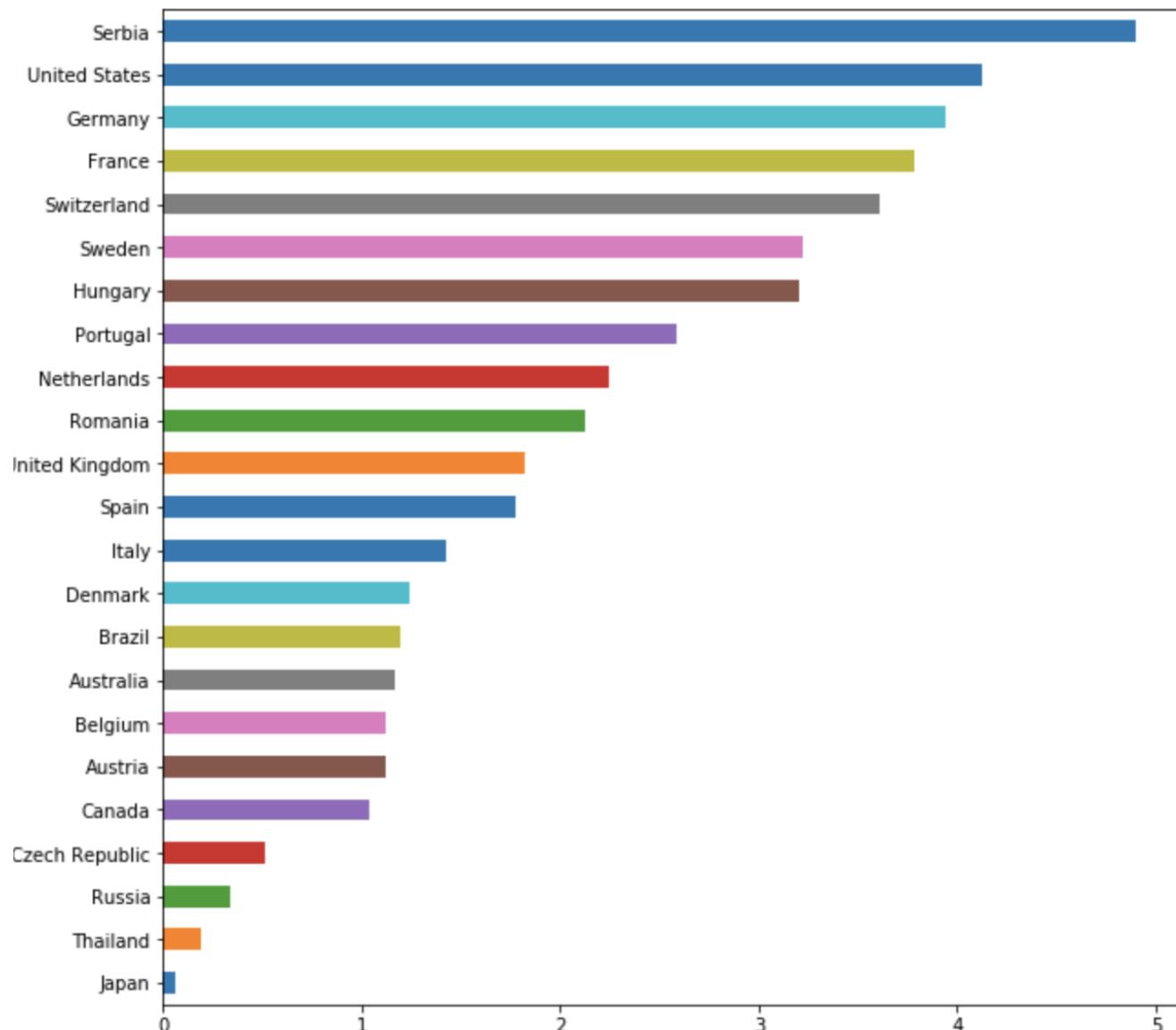


Figure 3: Top 5 countries with most saturated fat content [9]

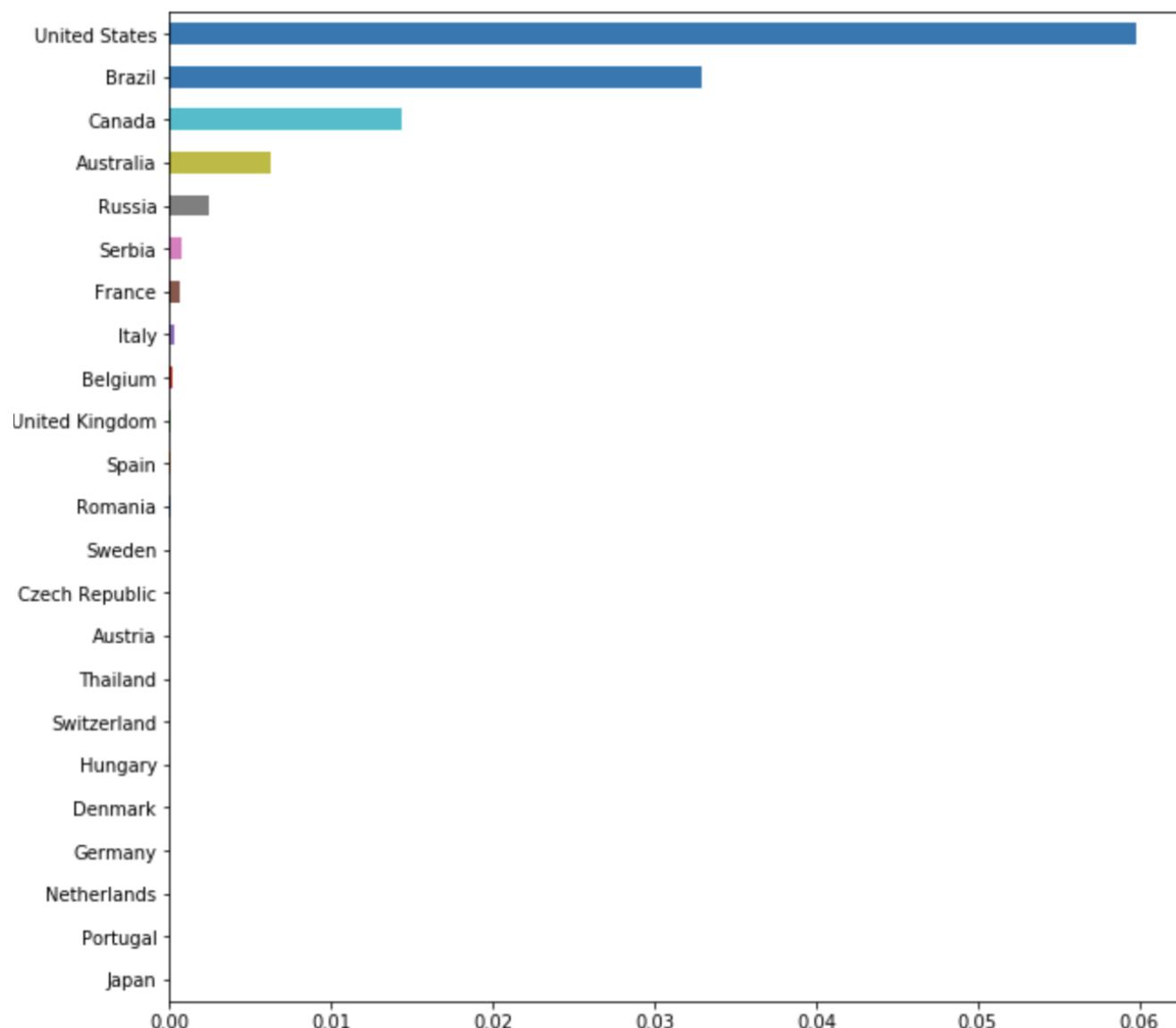


Figure 4: Top 5 countries with most trans-fat content [9]

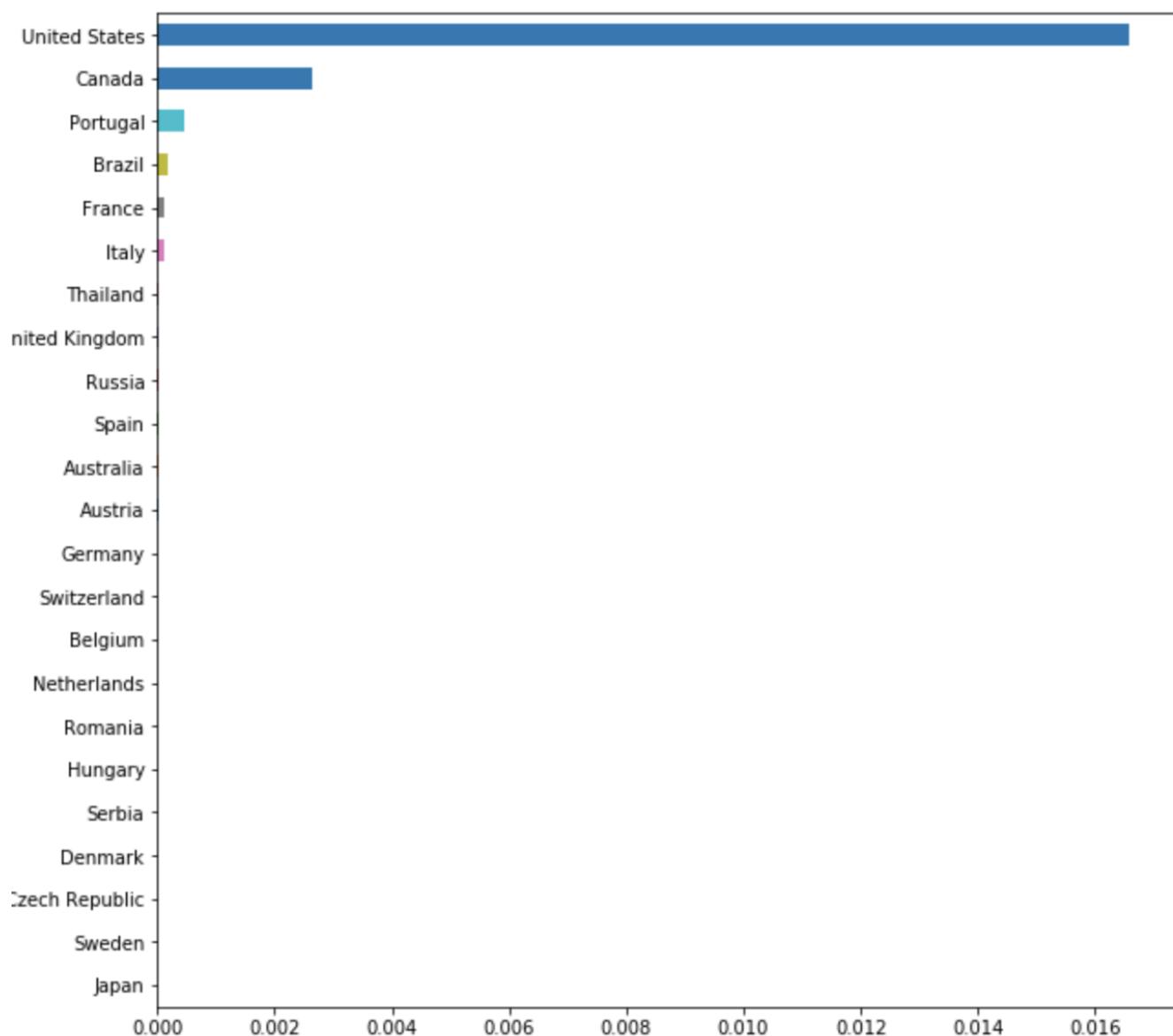


Figure 5: Top 5 countries with most cholesterol content [9]

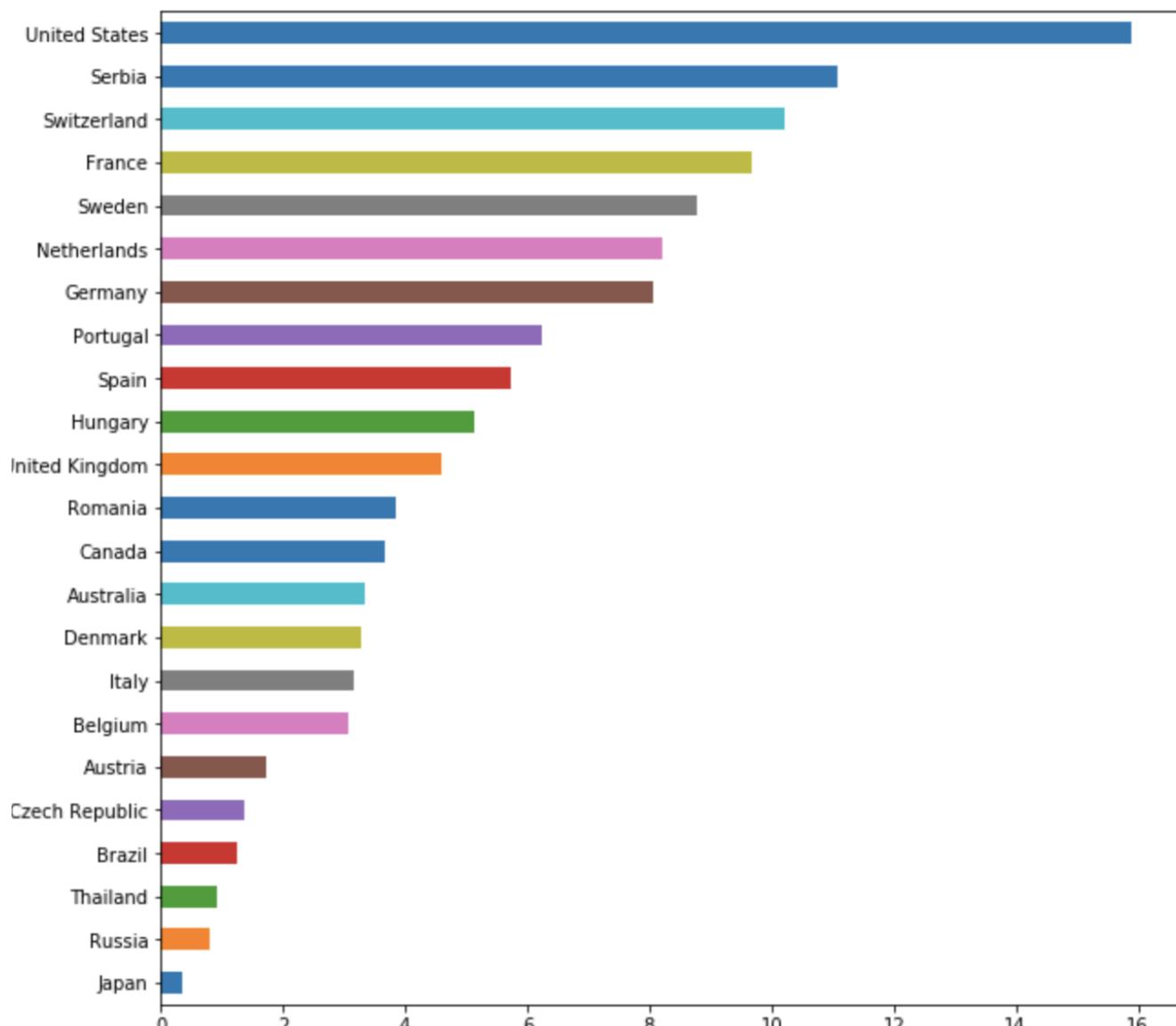


Figure 6: Top 5 countries with most sugar content [9]

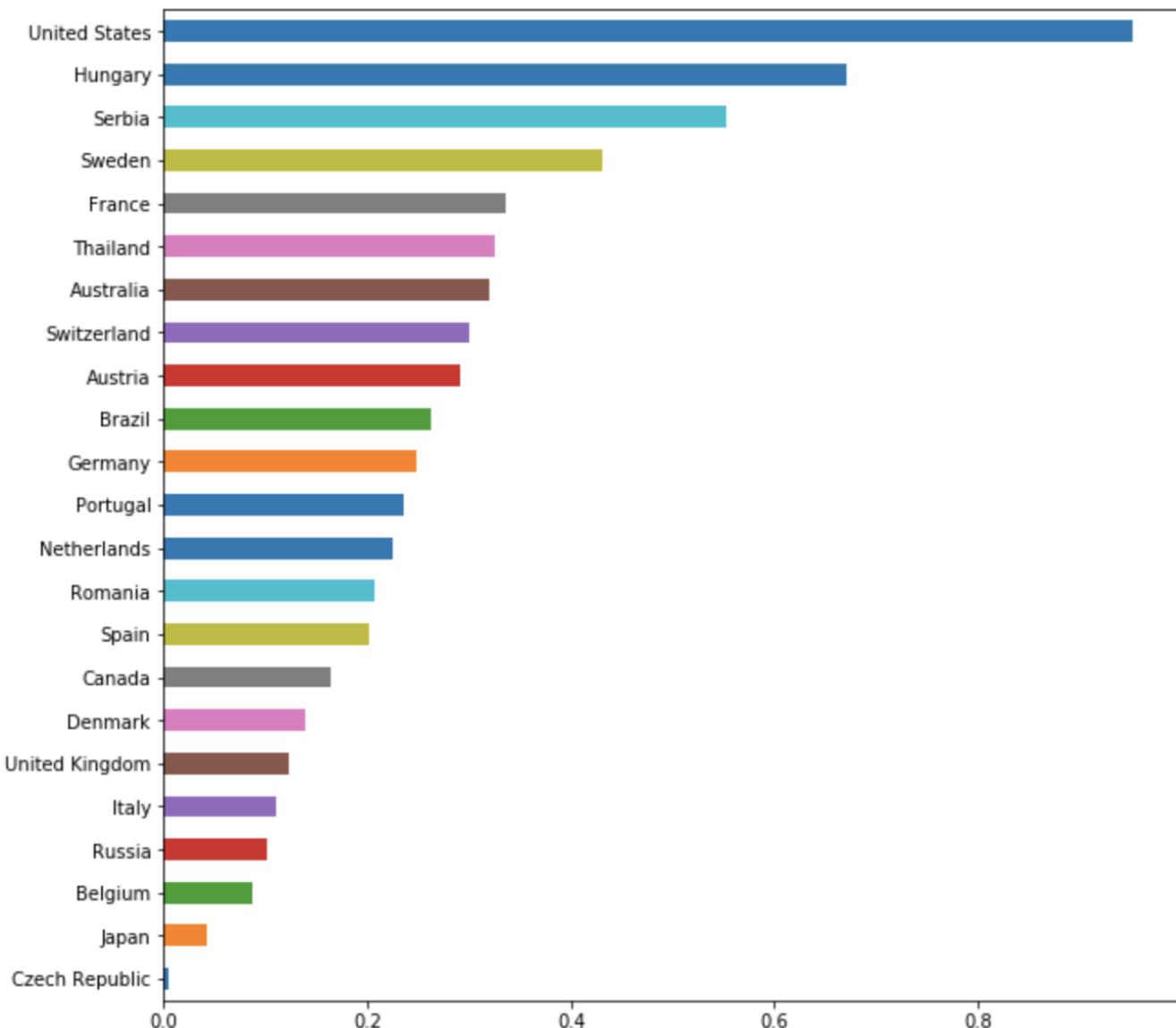


Figure 7: Top 5 countries with most sugar content [9]

Algorithm 5.2 The k -nearest neighbor classification algorithm.

- 1: Let k be the number of nearest neighbors and D be the set of training examples.
 - 2: **for** each test example $z = (\mathbf{x}', y')$ **do**
 - 3: Compute $d(\mathbf{x}', \mathbf{x})$, the distance between z and every example, $(\mathbf{x}, y) \in D$.
 - 4: Select $D_z \subseteq D$, the set of k closest training examples to z .
 - 5: $y' = \operatorname{argmax}_v \sum_{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) \in D_z} I(v = y_i)$
 - 6: **end for**
-

Figure 8: K nearest neighbors algorithm[8]

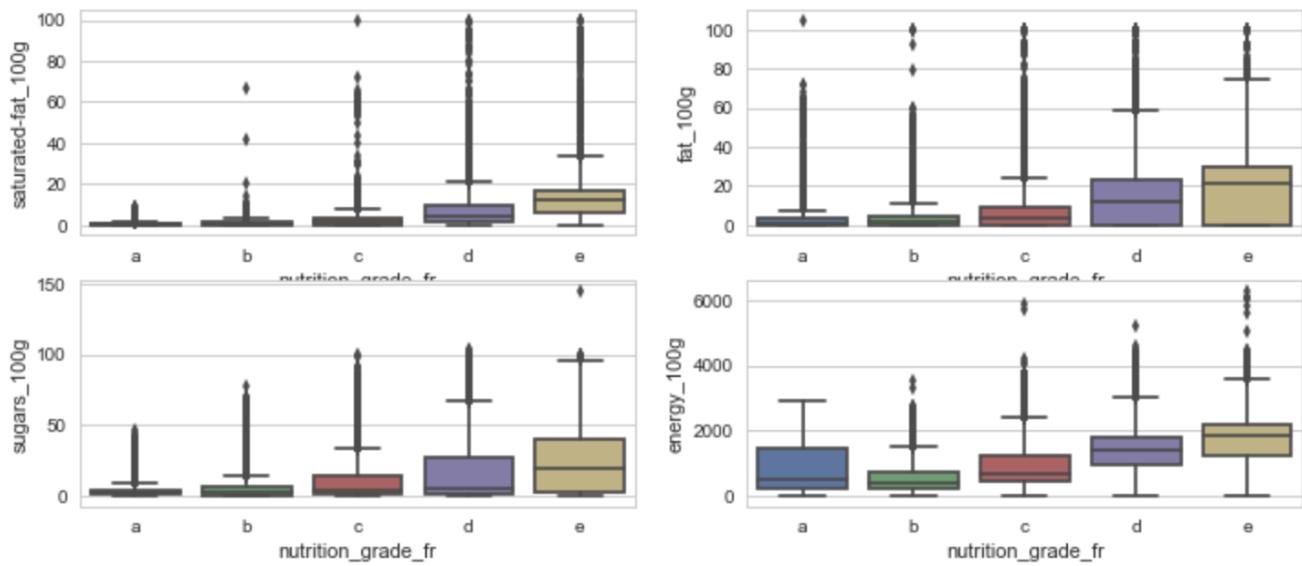


Figure 9: Bi-variate box plots [9]

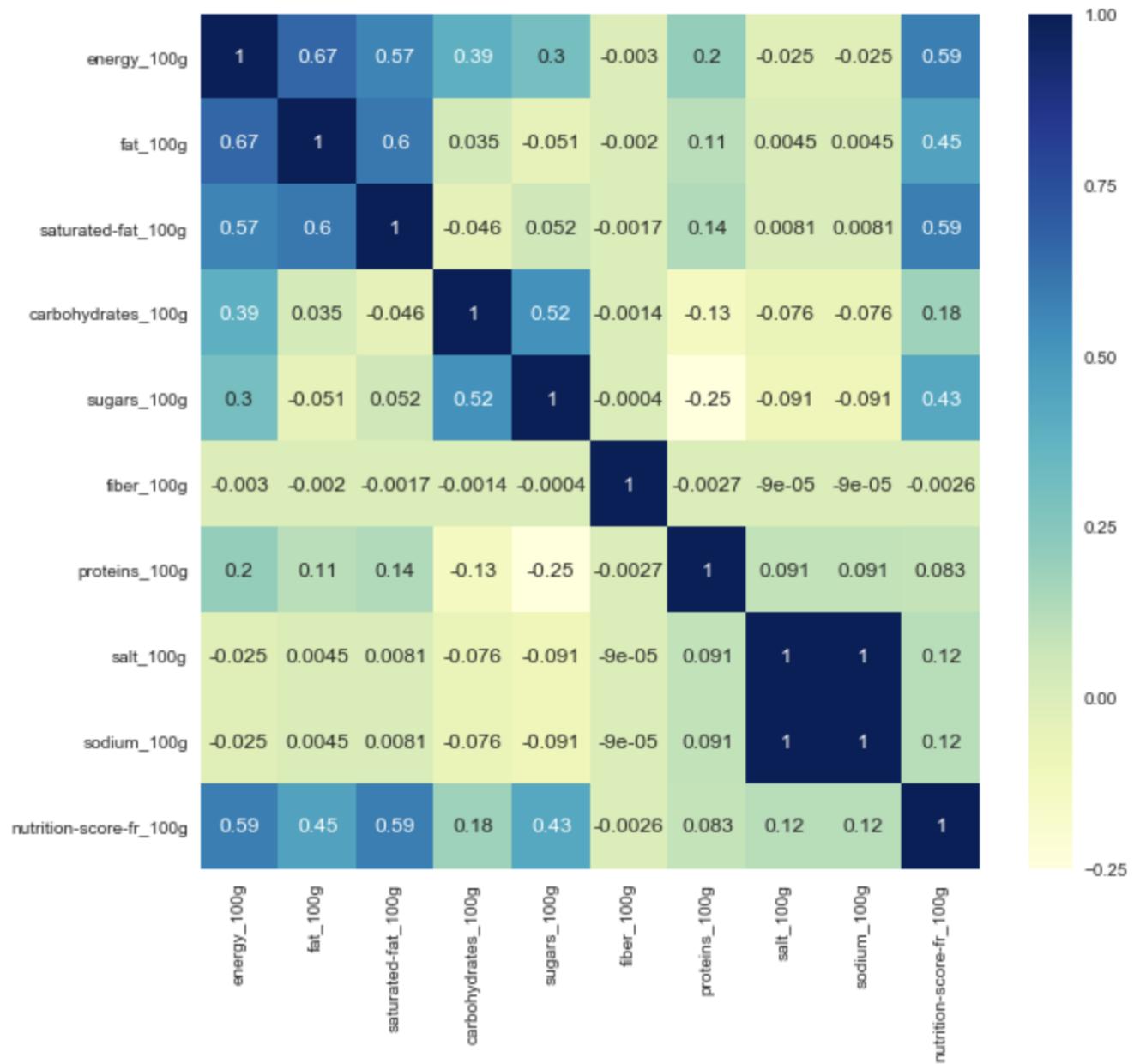


Figure 10: Correlation Plot [9]

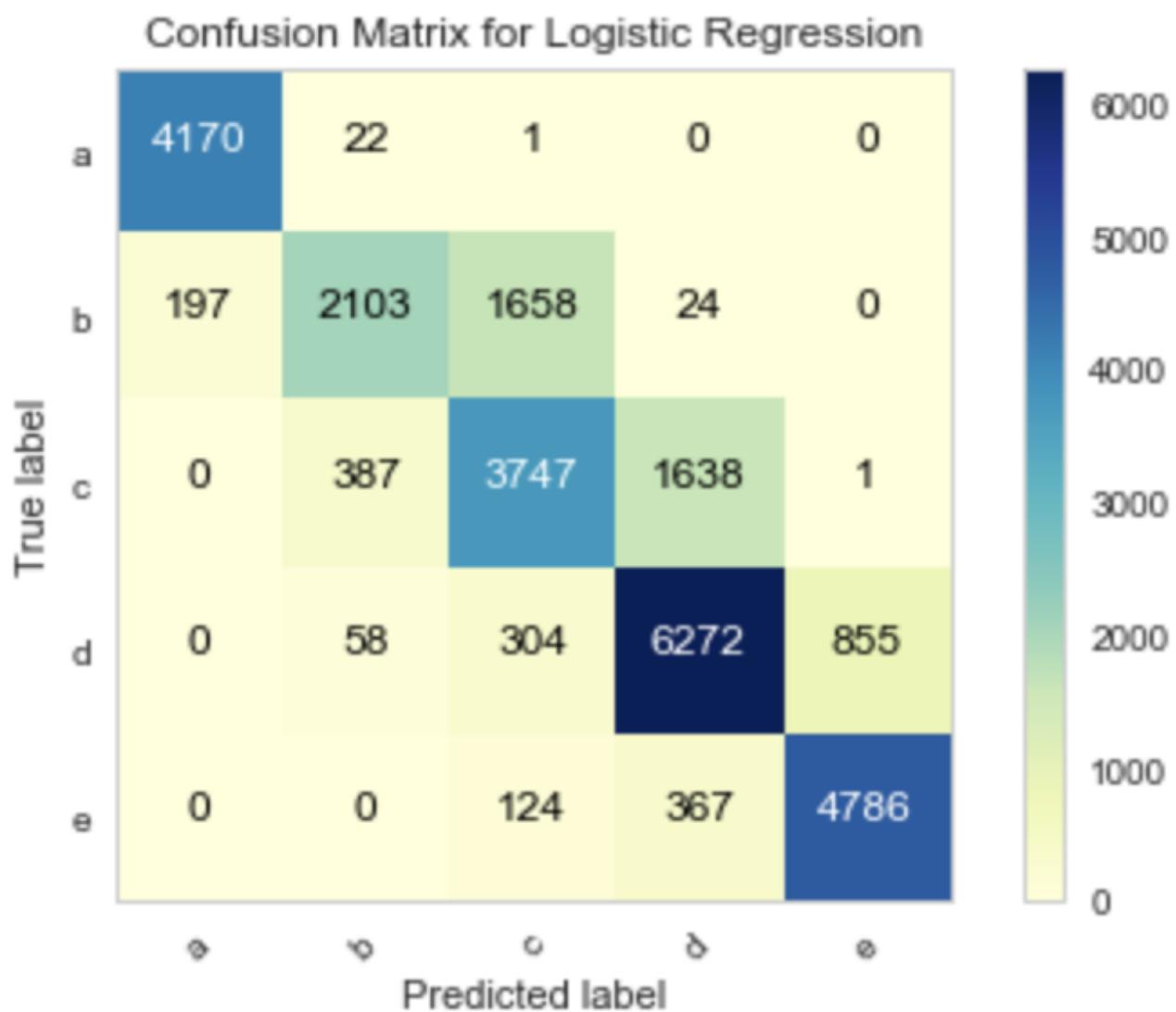


Figure 11: Confusion matrix for Logistic Regression [9]

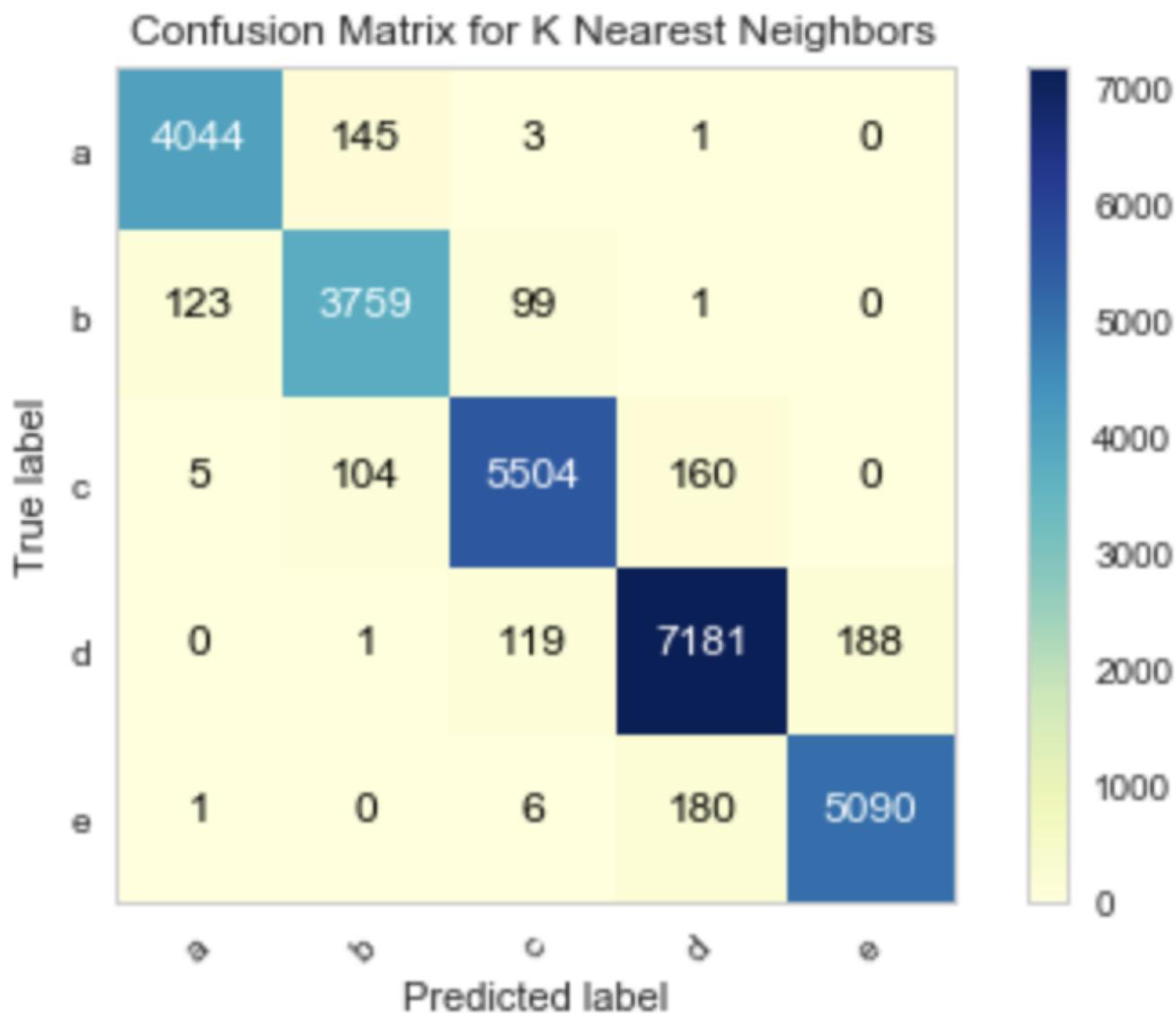


Figure 12: Confusion matrix for K Nearest Neighbors [9]

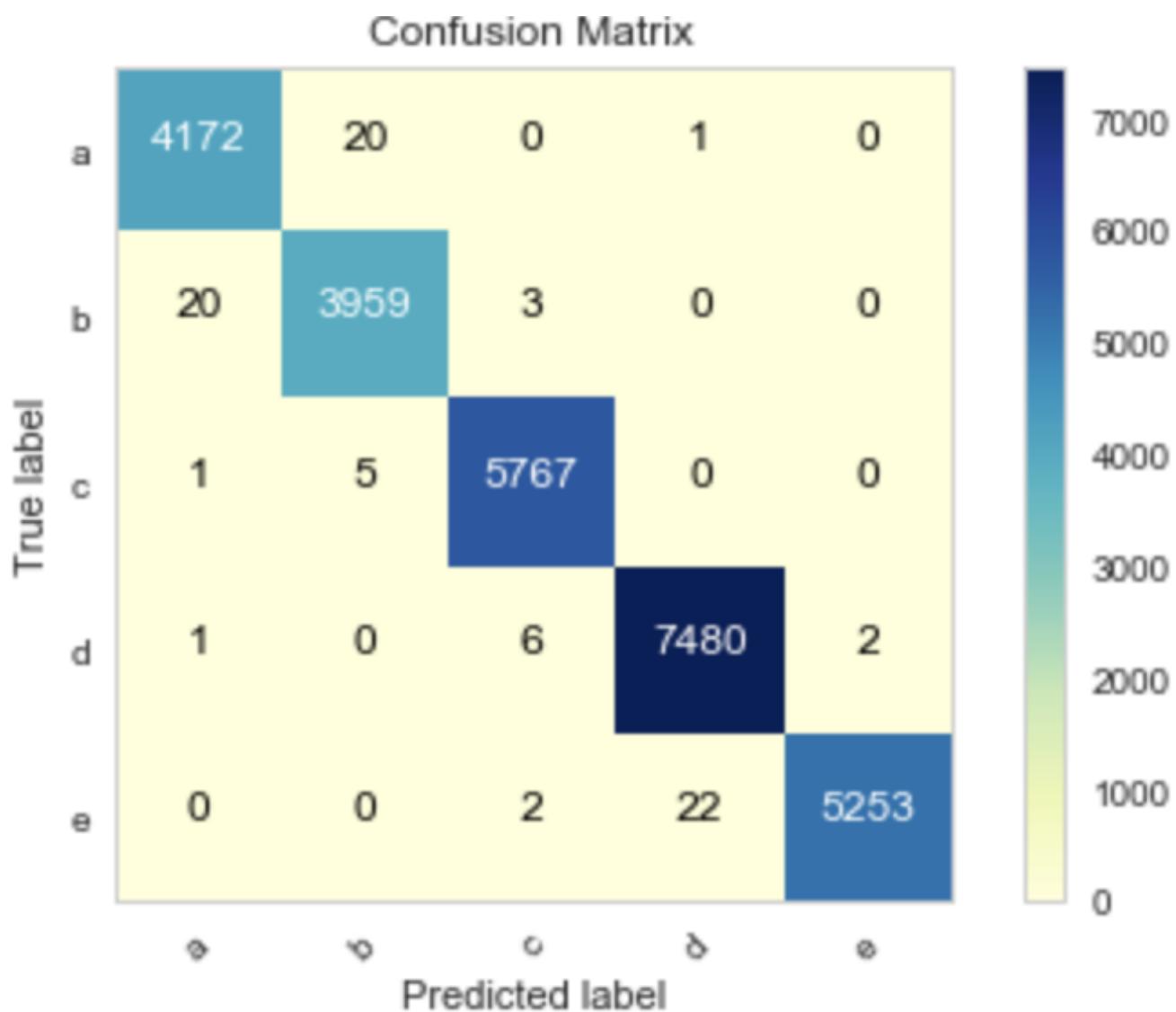


Figure 13: Confusion matrix for Random Forest [9]

```
bibtext report
```

```
=====
```

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
```

```
bibtext _ label error
```

```
=====
```

```
bibtext space label error
```

```
=====
```

```
bibtext comma label error
```

```
=====
```

```
latex report
```

```
[2017-12-08 04.00.54] pdflatex report.tex
This is pdfTeX, Version 3.14159265-2.6-1.40.17 (TeX Live 2016) (preloaded format=pdflatex)
Missing character: ""
bookmark level for unknown defaults to 0.
The anchor of a bookmark and its parent's must not be the same. Added a new anchor.
Typesetting of "report.tex" completed in 2.2s.
./README.yml
 36:70     error    trailing spaces (trailing-spaces)
 37:81     error    line too long (85 > 80 characters) (line-length)
```

```
=====
```

```
Compliance Report
```

```
=====
```

```
name: Vegi, Karthik
hid: 231
paper1: Oct 29 17 100%
paper2: 100%
project: 100% Dec 4, 2017
```

```
yamlcheck
```

```
wordcount
```

```
(null)
wc 231 project (null) 6225 report.tex
wc 231 project (null) 6232 report.pdf
wc 231 project (null) 250 report.bib
```

```
find "
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find footnote
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find input{format/i523}
```

```
4: \input{format/i523}
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find input{format/final}
```

```
passed: False
```

```
floats
```

```
69: We then display the top 5 countries as a pie-chart and the 5
countries are namely United States, France, Switzerland, Germany,
and Spain as shown in Figure \ref{fig:Fig7}.
```

```
71: \begin{figure}
```

```
72: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/fig7.png}
```

```
74: \label{fig:Fig7}
```

```
80: The top 5 countries with most fat content in the food items are
Serbia, United States, Switzerland, Germany, and Sweden as shown
in Figure \ref{fig:Fig8}.
```

```

82: \begin{figure}
83: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/fig8.png}
85: \label{fig:Fig8}
88: The top 5 countries with most saturated fat content in the food
     items are Serbia, United States, Germany, France and Switzerland
     as shown in Figure \ref{fig:Fig9}
90: \begin{figure}
91: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/fig9.png}
93: \label{fig:Fig9}
97: The top 5 countries with most trans-fat content in the food items
     are United States, Brazil, Canada, Australia, Russia, and Serbia
     as shown in Figure \ref{fig:Fig10}. \\
99: \begin{figure}
100: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/fig10.png}
102: \label{fig:Fig10}
105: The top 5 countries with most cholesterol content in the food
     items are United States, Canada, Portugal, Brazil, France, and
     Italy as shown in Figure \ref{fig:Fig11}. \\
107: \begin{figure}
108: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/fig11.png}
110: \label{fig:Fig11}
116: The top 5 countries with most sugar content in the food items are
     United States, Serbia, Switzerland, France, and Sweden as shown
     in Figure \ref{fig:Fig12}. \\
118: \begin{figure}
119: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/fig12.png}
121: \label{fig:Fig12}
124: The top 5 countries with most sodium content in the food items
     are United States, Hungary, Serbia, Sweden, and France as shown
     in Figure \ref{fig:Fig13}. \\
126: \begin{figure}
127: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/fig13.png}
129: \label{fig:Fig13}
163: The nearest neighbor puts each attribute list as a data point in
     the n-dimensional space, given n the number of attributes
     \cite{book-tan}. Once we have the training examples, we take each
     test example and compute its distance to the training example
     classes and assign a class label \cite{book-tan}. Any of the
     popular distance measures among Euclidean distance, Manhattan
     distance, Minkowski distance and Mahalanobis distance can be used
     \cite{book-tan}. The k denotes the k closest points to the test
     example \cite{book-tan}. Figure \ref{fig:Fig1} shows the
     algorithm \cite{book-tan}.
165: \begin{figure}
166: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/fig1.png}
168: \label{fig:Fig1}

```

```

243: \subsubsection{Bi-variate box-plots} Bi-variate box-plots go
beyond uni-variate box plots by showing the relationship between
the predictor variable and the response variable \cite{book-tan}.
We look at the bi-variate box-plots for each of the important
predictor variables namely, saturated fat, polyunsaturated fat,
sugars and salt and the response variable, nutrition grade.
Figure \ref{fig:Fig2} shows the bi-variate box plots. \\
245: \begin{figure}
246: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/fig2.png}
248: \label{fig:Fig2}
254: Correlation between data objects is the measure of the linear
relationship between the attributes of the object that are
continuous variables \cite{book-tan}. Correlation analysis is the
process of finding of the correlations between the different
predictor variables and identify high collinearity problem
\cite{book-shai}. The relationship could be either linear or non-
linear based on the given data \cite{book-tan}. The correlation
coefficient can range anywhere between -1 and 1, where 1
indicates a very high positive correlation and -1 indicates a
very high negative correlation \cite{book-shai}. Correlation plot
visually shows the correlation coefficient between the variables
in a nicely laid out plot. Figure \ref{fig:Fig3} shows the
correlation plot. \\
256: \begin{figure}
257: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/fig3.png}
259: \label{fig:Fig3}
304: \item Logistic Regression: With $l_2$ penalty, the accuracy of
logistic regression was 78.9\%. Figure \ref{fig:Fig4} shows the
confusion matrix. \\
306: \begin{figure}
307: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/fig4.png}
309: \label{fig:Fig4}
312: \item K Nearest Neighbors: With k as 3, the accuracy of kNN was
95.74\%. Figure \ref{fig:Fig5} shows the confusion matrix. \\
314: \begin{figure}
315: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/fig5.png}
317: \label{fig:Fig5}
320: \item Random Forest: With a number of trees as 100, the accuracy
of random forest classifier was 99.68\%. Figure \ref{fig:Fig6}
shows the confusion matrix. \\
322: \begin{figure}
323: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/fig6.png}
325: \label{fig:Fig6}

```

figures 13
tables 0

```
includegraphics 13  
labels 13  
refs 13  
floats 13
```

```
True : ref check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)  
True : label check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)  
True : include graphics passed: (figures >= includegraphics)  
True : check if all figures are referred to: (refs >= labels)
```

```
Label/ref check  
passed: True
```

```
When using figures use columnwidth  
[width=1.0\columnwidth]  
do not change the number to a smaller fraction
```

```
find textwidth
```

```
passed: True
```

```
below_check
```

```
bibtex
```

```
label errors
```

```
bibtex errors  
  
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)  
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux  
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst  
Database file #1: report.bib
```

```
bibtex_empty_fields
```

```
entries in general should not be empty in bibtex
```

```
find ""
```

```
passed: True
```

```
ascii
```

```
non ascii found 8211
```

```
=====
The following tests are optional
=====
```

```
Tip: newlines can often be replaced just by an empty line
```

```
find newline
```

```
passed: True
```

```
cites should have a space before \cite{} but not before the {
```

```
find cite {
```

```
passed: True
```

Recipe Ingredient Analysis

Sushant Athaley
Indiana University
sathaley@iu.edu

ABSTRACT

Food is the unavoidable part of day to day of human life. Ingredients play a major role or are the basic requirement in preparation of any kind of food. We can find the humongous list of ingredients getting used across globally along with other details which constitute to big data. We explore ingredients getting used in various recipes across the globe to understand most used ingredient, key ingredients of various cuisine and the relationship between the ingredients to find out closely related ingredients which can always provide great dish if used together.

KEYWORDS

i523, hid302, big data, ingredient, recipe, analysis, python, gephi

1 INTRODUCTION

Ingredients are vital for human existence as well as for food or restaurant industry. We use it every day for cooking and food industry uses it to produce consumable for their customers. Ingredient inspires chefs to come up with new culinary artistry. So what do we know about this essential element of the life and what data tell us? Ingredients come in different size, color, shape, flavor, nutrition, taste, texture, grows in specific weather conditions and this provides a great opportunity for various analysis which can be useful for the human being as well as business industries. So main focus of this study is on the ingredients used in various recipes across the cuisines. This study evaluates recipe ingredient dataset from Kaggle [7] to analyze most used ingredients, key cuisine ingredients and ingredient relationship.

This study is organized as follows, section *Ingredient* defines ingredient and its various characteristics. section *Ingredieint Analytics* describes various analytics which can be performed on the ingredient with some examples. Section *Project* describes the aim of this study. Section *technologies* provides information on the tools and technologies used for this project. Section *Methodology* covers overall process carried out in this project. Section *Dataset* describes data structure used along with loading process and data findings. Section *Analysis and Findings* describes various analysis carried out on the data and the visual representation of the analysis. Section *Shortcomings* captures shortcomings of the project. Section *Future Work* talks about what else can be done with this dataset which is not covered in the current scope of the project. Section *Conclusion* concludes the study.

2 INGREDIENT

Food is defined as “Edible or potable substance (usually of animal or plant origin), consisting of nourishing and nutritive components such as carbohydrates, fats, proteins, essential mineral and vitamins, which (when ingested and assimilated through digestion) sustains life, generates energy, and provides growth, maintenance,

and health of the body” [2]. Thus food is the basic necessity for human for the sustainability. Food can be eaten raw, cooked or processed. As human race evolved over the period of time, the way we eat food is also evolved. Food cooking is just not the basic necessity but its an art and science in today’s era. Food preparation consists of various cooking techniques, tools, and ingredients to make it palatable or edible by humans. The ingredient is by far the most important part of any food or recipe preparation. The recipe consists of the list of ingredients and the set of instruction to cook particular food dish [5]. An ingredient is defined as “Any of the foods or substances that are combined to make a particular dish” [9]. Ingredients impart various flavors, aroma, texture, and color to the cooking dish. Ingredients are mostly derived from vegetables, fruits, nuts, grains, living organisms, herbs, flowers, and spices. It comes in both solid and liquid forms. Another characteristic of ingredients is the nutritional value they provide which is essential for the human body.

3 INGREDIENT ANALYTICS

Ingredients characteristics and the combination of other related data provides various opportunities to analyze ingredient in different ways. Analysis of the flavors present in ingredient can provide us with the categorization of the different ingredient by the flavor profile which can be helpful in deciding substitute ingredient if a certain ingredient is not present or pairing ingredient from different flavor categories to construct the dish as per the taste required [1]. This analysis also helps to understand which ingredients cannot be used together. A similar analysis is carried out to correlate ingredient across recipes to come up with top 50 combinations of ingredients which can be used together [6]. Flavourspace application provides functionality to search recipe based on the ingredients, suggests alternate ingredient if not present, adjust the recipe as per the taste which is a good example of big data analytics in food industry [10]. Foodpairing application takes another approach to form the connection between unfamiliar ingredients and provides information on how to use such ingredient to make a dish, this is very helpful in terms of sustainability as we can use ingredient which is ample available but not in use due to the absence of information on using such ingredients [8].

Another study conducted on most used ingredient provides insight that sugar, oil, pepper, and salt are most commonly occurring ingredient, among spices clove, in vegetable onion, garlic , and tomatoes, butter in milk product, eggs followed by chicken in the animal product are the most used ingredient in the categories [3]. This information can help in better planning and sourcing of such ingredients which are in high demand.

Ingredient nutrition analysis can help find out nutrition of the food prepared by those ingredients. This would be helpful in menu planning where nutrition information is the key factor such as school, hospitals or any other dietary program [4].

Recipe cost is calculated by including the cost of the ingredient used in that recipe. Ingredient cost as per the quantity used in recipe provides base information to calculate the price of any recipe. This ingredient cost analysis provides an avenue to reduce the cost of the recipe by using substitute ingredient of lesser cost. This can also help in household budget to keep in check as well as make restaurant industry profitable.

Ingredient used in recipe can provide insight into type of weather received by that cuisine as ingredient can grow in certain weather condition. This can help chef locally source the ingredient and maintain local agriculture sustainability.

4 PROJECT

This project study is conducted to analyze ingredients getting used in various recipes across the cuisines to find out

- Most used ingredients across cuisines or globally
- Key ingredients used by cuisines
- Ingredient relationship or connection to understand the related ingredients

4.1 Technologies

Technologies and tools used in this projects are

- Python version 3.6 is used for data load and processing
- Gephi 0.9.2 for visualization
- Spyder 3.0 as a Python IDE

4.2 Code Organization

Code is checked-in in Github at location

<https://github.com/bigdata-i523/hid302/tree/master/project/code>

Code is organized as described in Figure 1

[Figure 1 about here.]

Python Scripts

- *ingredientAnalysis.py* - This python script loads dataset from datafile train.json present in *data* directory and process dataset to find out recipe distribution across cuisines, top 20 ingredient used across cuisines and top 10 key ingredients for every cuisine. The graph generated during analysis is stored in *images* folder.
- *ingCluster.py* - loads dataset from datafile train.json present in *data* directory and process dataset to create relationship file required by Gephi in excel format. It establishes ingredients relationship by relating ingredient in recipe with each other to generate *nodes.xlsx* and *edges.xlsx* files and stores in *data* directory. These generated files are then imported into the Gephi to create the visualization.
- *geph_ing_big_data.gephi*
 - This is project file from Gephi which can be re-opened in Gephi software to view or re-run the analysis.

4.3 Methodology

The first step was to source the data. We were interested in the dataset which provides recipe information along with the ingredient used in the recipe. Since we wanted to analyze distribution across cuisines, data should also contain cuisine tagging. This dataset can be generated by pulling recipe data from various online

applications or pick from publicly available datasets. We finalized publicly available dataset at Kaggle application satisfying need for this project.

Figure 2 shows methodology used for this project to analyze ingredient data.

[Figure 2 about here.]

DataSet is loaded through Python script and further processed to clean the data. This cleaned data then processed to analyze ingredient distribution across cuisine and per cuisine. Gephi software is used to analyze the relationship and to find out the ingredient modularity. The Python script is used to create the network files required by the Gephi tool. Gephi requires Nodes and relationship in terms of Edges between the nodes for the analysis. The Python script is used to create Node and Edges file in excel format so that it can be imported into Gephi. Distinct ingredients used in recipe becomes the nodes. Edges or relationship between ingredients is derived by relating ingredients appearing in the same recipe. All ingredient in the same recipe is considered related to each other. Network files created by Python are imported in Gephi to produce the graph for the visualization. Gephi tools data laboratory is used to clean up the data and filters are applied to provide usable network visualization.

4.4 Dataset

The dataset for this study is sourced from Kaggle application [7]. This dataset is publicly available and featured in *What's Cooking?* competition. This dataset is in JSON format and of 12MB size. This dataset contains recipe id, cuisine and list of ingredients as described in Figure 3.

[Figure 3 about here.]

This dataset contains total 39774 recipes across various cuisines. We used two different methods to load this data. Cuisine and ingredient analysis is done by loading data into *pandas dataframe* and to analyze ingredient relationship data has been loaded into *json* object. Figure 4 shows the code for data loading used in this project.

[Figure 4 about here.]

Ingredient extraction from the data structure and processing was challenging as ingredients are listed comma separated for each recipe. Also, ingredient list can vary by recipe and there is no proper structure. Another issue with the ingredient list is ingredient appears in various forms but it's the same ingredient which gives duplicate data. For example, salt appears as salt, kosher salt, Morton Salt, sea salt, table salt, Himalayan salt, fine sea salt, low sodium salt, fine salt. This is the same ingredient but come across in recipe as a different ingredient and getting counted as a separate ingredient in the analysis. Some ingredients are listed along with measures like (10 oz.) frozen chopped spinach, (10 oz.) frozen chopped spinach, thawed and squeezed dry, (14.5 oz.) diced tomatoes and getting counted as a separate ingredient. Some ingredients are listed along with the brand name like KRAFT Reduced Fat Shredded Mozzarella Cheese, Johnsonville Smoked Sausage, Johnsonville Mild Italian Sausage Links etc and also constitutes to the ingredient list. This variation makes difficult to get the proper ingredient list for the analysis. Extensive work is needed to clean and correct the noisy

data so that proper analysis can be carried out. This correction process is not carried out as part of this project.

Certain ingredients like salt or water etc should be avoided from the analysis as those are not the ingredient we are looking for the analysis. We tried to clean such elements during ingredient relationship analysis but we had little success as those ingredients are present in the dataset in various forms.

4.5 Analysis and Findings

4.5.1 Recipe Distribution By Cuisine. We first analyze entire dataset to understand the total number of recipes and their distribution across various cuisines. We use Pythons Panda library to get the total recipe count as 39774 and plot the distribution. Figure 5 shows number of recipes per cuisine. Dataset is heavily dominated by Italian cuisine followed by Mexican cuisine and with very fewer recipes from Russian and Brazilian cuisines. This also highlights another shortcoming of the dataset that it doesn't have equal representation of all cuisines which might give us biased analysis.

[Figure 5 about here.]

Table1 describes recipe count for every cuisine.

[Table 1 about here.]

4.5.2 Most Used Ingredients All Cuisines. The second analysis is carried out to understand top 20 ingredients getting used across cuisine or globally. Ingredient *Salt* is obvious topper followed by *Oil* and *Onions*. This also proves our craving for salty and fatty food. Top 20 ingredient also contain duplicate ingredient like garlic and garlic clove, salt and kosher salt, eggs and large eggs which shows shortcoming of the dataset. Also ingredient like salt, oil and water could be avoided to get analysis of real ingredients as these are commonly used ingredient and doesn't contribute much to the study. Figure 6 shows top 20 ingredient across cuisines.

[Figure 6 about here.]

4.5.3 Ingredients Distribution By Cuisines. The third analysis is carried out to understand key ingredient for each cuisine. These key ingredients define those cuisines and provide unique test characterized by that cuisine. We limited ingredient list to top 10 to get the key ingredients for each cuisine. Study shows *Italian* cuisine is characterized by olive oil, garlic, cheese, black pepper, onion and butter, *Mexican* by onion, cumin, garlic, chili powder, jalapeno chilies, sour cream, tortillas and avocado, *Southern US* by butter, all-purpose flour, sugar, eggs, baking powder, milk and butter milk, *Indian* by onion, garam masala, turmeric, garlic, cumin and oil, *Chinese* by soy sauce, sesame oil, corn starch, sugar, garlic, green onions and scallions. Similarly it is applicable for all other cuisines present in the dataset and it is very close representation of all cuisines. Figure 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26 shows top 10 key ingredient used in the corresponding cuisines.

[Figure 7 about here.]

[Figure 8 about here.]

[Figure 9 about here.]

[Figure 10 about here.]

[Figure 11 about here.]

[Figure 12 about here.]

[Figure 13 about here.]

[Figure 14 about here.]

[Figure 15 about here.]

[Figure 16 about here.]

[Figure 17 about here.]

[Figure 18 about here.]

[Figure 19 about here.]

[Figure 20 about here.]

[Figure 21 about here.]

[Figure 22 about here.]

[Figure 23 about here.]

[Figure 24 about here.]

[Figure 25 about here.]

[Figure 26 about here.]

4.5.4 Ingredients Relationship. Fourth analysis is carried out to understand the relationship between the ingredient to find out ingredient clusters. This analysis helps us understand the ingredient combinations which can be used together to provide great dish every time. This model can be used to predict ingredients for certain recipe based on the cluster. We used Gephi tool to analyze and produce the graph for this analysis. Gephi accepts network structure in terms of Node and Edge relationship. We created this network using python by relating all ingredients present in the recipe with each other. Ingredients become the node and source and target nodes become the edges. These network files generated in excel spreadsheet and converted to CSV format and imported into the Gephi tool. Import created 5405 Nodes and 290828 edges for processing and analysis. Force Atlas 2 layout present in Gephi has been applied to the network which brings nodes with higher weights and shared connections closer to each other. We also used Gephi Data Laboratory to clean up duplicate or unwanted nodes. Filtering based on Degree Range and Edge Weight has been applied to data to reduce node and edges to get the graph which can be used for analysis and avoid crashing Gephi due to large data. Modularity statistic uncovered 5 ingredient clusters which can be identified by different colors in the graph. This cluster can approximately relate to the cuisines present in our dataset and confirms our earlier analysis of ingredient by cuisine.

- Orange - Mexican
- Brown - Indian
- Blue - Chinese
- Green - Italian
- Gray - Southern US

Figure 27 shows ingredient cluster of more than 1000 nodes. This graph is nice to look at but difficult to read due to lot many nodes and edges in the graph.

[Figure 27 about here.]

Figure 28 shows ingredient cluster of around 100 nodes. We generated this graph by reducing nodes and edges to make it more readable. This graph provides us with our top 5 cuisine clusters.

[Figure 28 about here.]

4.6 Shortcomings

Improper documentation of ingredient names in the dataset reduces the correctness of this analysis. In absence of proper ingredient name and duplication of ingredient name prevents getting exact ingredient weight into the analysis. A dataset with uniform ingredient name can help this analysis to achieve its best. If we don't find proper ingredient name then this analysis needs to include extensive data cleaning process which can be considered an improvement to this project.

Network file creation algorithm can be enhanced further by considering the number of recipes for the ingredient to provide additional weight to the relationship which can provide the stronger bond between the ingredients.

4.7 Future Work

This dataset can be analyzed to find out ingredient overlap between various cuisine and can provide insight into the influence of one cuisine on another. Usually, geographically neighboring cuisines are influenced by each other as they share common ingredients.

5 CONCLUSION

This project shows most used ingredient, ingredient distribution by cuisine and predictive ingredient relationship model as per the goal of the project. We also show various opportunities present with ingredient data analysis and role of big data analytics. We prove human craving for salty and fatty food as salt and oil are most used ingredient across cuisines as per the analysis. We understand now based on our analysis key ingredient of any cuisine. Ingredient cluster shows why those ingredients are the base of certain cuisine and recipe of those ingredients always turn out delicious. We also crave for the good data so that we can provide more accurate analysis of the ingredients. Ingredient analysis has potential not only to help restaurant and food industry but it can help with our social responsibility of sustainability and understanding different cuisines and culture. As food industries interest grows in big data analytics, we will continue to see more evaluations of the ingredients.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The author would like to thank Dr. Gregor von Laszewski for his support and suggestions in this project. The author would also like to thank Kaggle application for hosting ingredient dataset which is used in this project and various online resource which helped understand Python and Gephi.

REFERENCES

- [1] Bagrow James P Ahn Yong-Yeol, Ahnert Sebastian E. 2011. Flavor network and the principles of food pairing. (2011). <https://www.nature.com/articles/srep00196#supplementary-information>
- [2] businessdictionary. 2017. Food. web. (2017). <http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/food.html>
- [3] Usashi Chatterjee, Vinit Kumar, and Devika P. Madalli. 2016. Formalizing Food Ingredients for Data Analysis and Knowledge Organization. *COLL-NET Journal of Scientometrics and Information Management* 10 (07 2016), 289–309. <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/311337510/Formalizing-Food-Ingredients-for-Data-Analysis-and-Knowledge-Organization>
- [4] S. M. Church. 2015. The importance of food composition data in recipe analysis. web. (2015). <http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/nbu.12125/abstract>
- [5] collinsdictionary. 2017. Recipe. web. (2017). <https://www.collinsdictionary.com/us/dictionary/english/recipe>
- [6] inkhorn82. 2014. A Delicious Analysis. web. (2014). <https://www.r-bloggers.com/a-delicious-analysis-aka-topic-modelling-using-recipes/>
- [7] kaggle. 2015. What's Cooking? web. (2015). <https://www.kaggle.com/c/whats-cooking/data>
- [8] Bernard Lahousse. 2016. Using Big Data to Transform Unfamiliar Ingredients Into Tasty Recipes. web. (2016). <https://foodtechconnect.com/2016/04/20/big-food-data-recipes-from-unfamiliar-ingredients/>
- [9] oxforddictionaries. 2017. Ingredient. web. (2017). <https://en.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/ingredient>
- [10] Matthew Robinson. 2015. Big Data Analytics and Food Come Together At Flavourspace. web. (2015). <http://www.theculinaryexchange.com/food-innovation/big-data-analytics-and-food-come-together-at-flavourspace/>

A ISSUES

DONE:

Example of done item: Once you fix an item, change TODO to DONE

A.1 Assignment Submission Issues

DONE:

Do not make changes to your paper during grading, when your repository should be frozen.

A.2 Uncaught Bibliography Errors

DONE:

Missing bibliography file generated by JabRef

DONE:

Bibtex labels cannot have any spaces, _ or & in it

DONE:

Citations in text showing as [?]: this means either your report.bib is not up-to-date or there is a spelling error in the label of the item you want to cite, either in report.bib or in report.tex

A.3 Formatting

DONE:

Incorrect number of keywords or HID and i523 not included in the keywords

DONE:

Other formatting issues

A.4 Writing Errors

DONE:

Errors in title, e.g. capitalization

DONE:

Spelling errors

DONE:

Are you using *a* and *the* properly?

DONE:

Do not use phrases such as *shown in the Figure below*. Instead, use *as shown in Figure 3*, when referring to the 3rd figure

DONE:

Do not use the word *I* instead use *we* even if you are the sole author

DONE:

Do not use the phrase *In this paper/report we show* instead use *We show*. It is not important if this is a paper or a report and does not need to be mentioned

DONE:

If you want to say *and* do not use & but use the word *and*

DONE:

Use a space after . , :

DONE:

When using a section command, the section title is not written in all-caps as format does this for you

\section{Introduction} and NOT \section{INTRODUCTION}

A.5 Citation Issues and Plagiarism

DONE:

It is your responsibility to make sure no plagiarism occurs. The instructions and resources were given in the class

DONE:

Claims made without citations provided

DONE:

Need to paraphrase long quotations (whole sentences or longer)

DONE:

Need to quote directly cited material

A.6 Character Errors

DONE:

Erroneous use of quotation marks, i.e. use “quotes”, instead of ” ”

DONE:

To emphasize a word, use *emphasize* and not “quote”

DONE:

When using the characters & # % _ put a backslash before them so that they show up correctly

DONE:

Pasting and copying from the Web often results in non-ASCII characters to be used in your text, please remove them and replace accordingly. This is the case for quotes, dashes and all the other special characters.

DONE:

If you see a ?gure and not a figure in text you copied from a text that has the fi combined as a single character

A.7 Structural Issues

DONE:

Acknowledgement section missing

DONE:

Incorrect README file

DONE:

In case of a class and if you do a multi-author paper, you need to add an appendix describing who did what in the paper

DONE:

The paper has less than 2 pages of text, i.e. excluding images, tables and figures

DONE:

The paper has more than 6 pages of text, i.e. excluding images, tables and figures

DONE:

Do not artificially inflate your paper if you are below the page limit

A.8 Details about the Figures and Tables

DONE:

Capitalization errors in referring to captions, e.g. Figure 1, Table 2

DONE:

Do use *label* and *ref* to automatically create figure numbers

DONE:

Wrong placement of figure caption. They should be on the bottom of the figure

DONE:

Wrong placement of table caption. They should be on the top of the table

DONE:

Images submitted incorrectly. They should be in native format, e.g. .graffle, .pptx, .png, jpg

DONE:

Do not submit eps images. Instead, convert them to PDF

DONE:

The image files must be in a single directory named "images"

DONE:

In case there is a powerpoint in the submission, the image must be exported as PDF

DONE:

Make the figures large enough so we can read the details. If needed make the figure over two columns

DONE:

Do not worry about the figure placement if they are at a different location than you think. Figures are allowed to float. For this class, you should place all figures at the end of the report.

DONE:

In case you copied a figure from another paper you need to ask for copyright permission. In case of a class paper, you must include a reference to the original in the caption

DONE:

Remove any figure that is not referred to explicitly in the text (As shown in Figure ..)

DONE:

Do not use `textwidth` as a parameter for `includegraphics`

DONE:

Figures should be reasonably sized and often you just need to add `columnwidth`

e.g.

```
/includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/myimage.pdf}
```

re

LIST OF FIGURES

1	Code Structure	8
2	Flowchart of the Methodology to Analyze Ingredients	8
3	Ingredient Data Structure	8
4	Data Loading	9
5	Recipe Distribution By Cuisine	9
6	Top 20 Ingredients	10
7	Top 10 Ingredients	11
8	Top 10 Ingredients	12
9	Top 10 Ingredients	13
10	Top 10 Ingredients	14
11	Top 10 Ingredients	15
12	Top 10 Ingredients	16
13	Top 10 Ingredients	17
14	Top 10 Ingredients	18
15	Top 10 Ingredients	19
16	Top 10 Ingredients	20
17	Top 10 Ingredients	21
18	Top 10 Ingredients	22
19	Top 10 Ingredients	23
20	Top 10 Ingredients	24
21	Top 10 Ingredients	25
22	Top 10 Ingredients	26
23	Top 10 Ingredients	27
24	Top 10 Ingredients	28
25	Top 10 Ingredients	29
26	Top 10 Ingredients	30
27	Ingredient Cluster	31
28	ingredient Cluster 100 Nodes	32

```

code
- ingredientAnalysis.py
- ingredientAnalysis.py
- data
  - train.json
  - nodes.xlsx
  - edges.xlsx
- images
- gephi
  - geph Ing big data.gephi

```

Figure 1: Code Structure

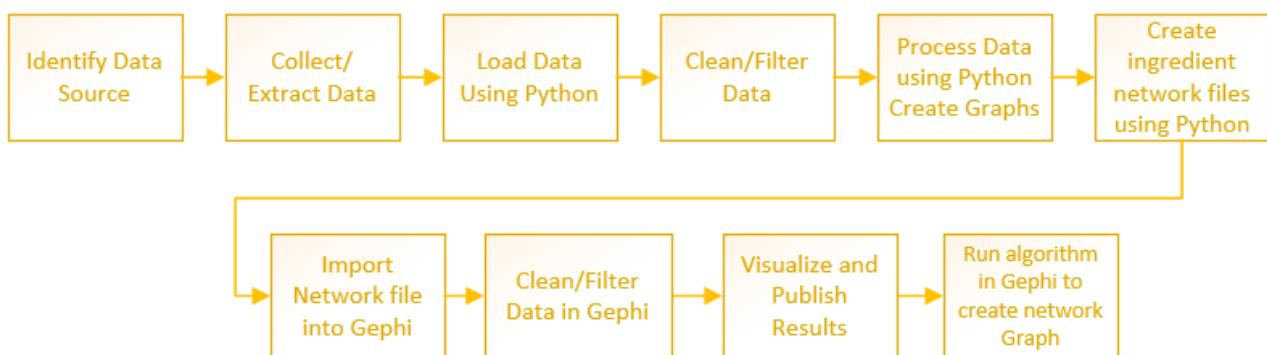


Figure 2: Flowchart of the Methodology to Analyze Ingredients

```

{
  "id": 24717,
  "cuisine": "indian",
  "ingredients": [
    "tumeric",
    "vegetable stock",
    "tomatoes",
    "garam masala",
    "naan",
    "red lentils",
    "red chili peppers",
    "onions",
    "spinach",
    "sweet potatoes"
  ]
},

```

Figure 3: Ingredient Data Structure

```

#read the ingredient data using pandas
dfTrain = pd.read_json('./data/train.json')

#load data using json
dataFilePath='./data/train.json'
with open(dataFilePath) as data_file:
    data = json.load(data_file)

```

Figure 4: Data Loading

Recipies By Cuisine

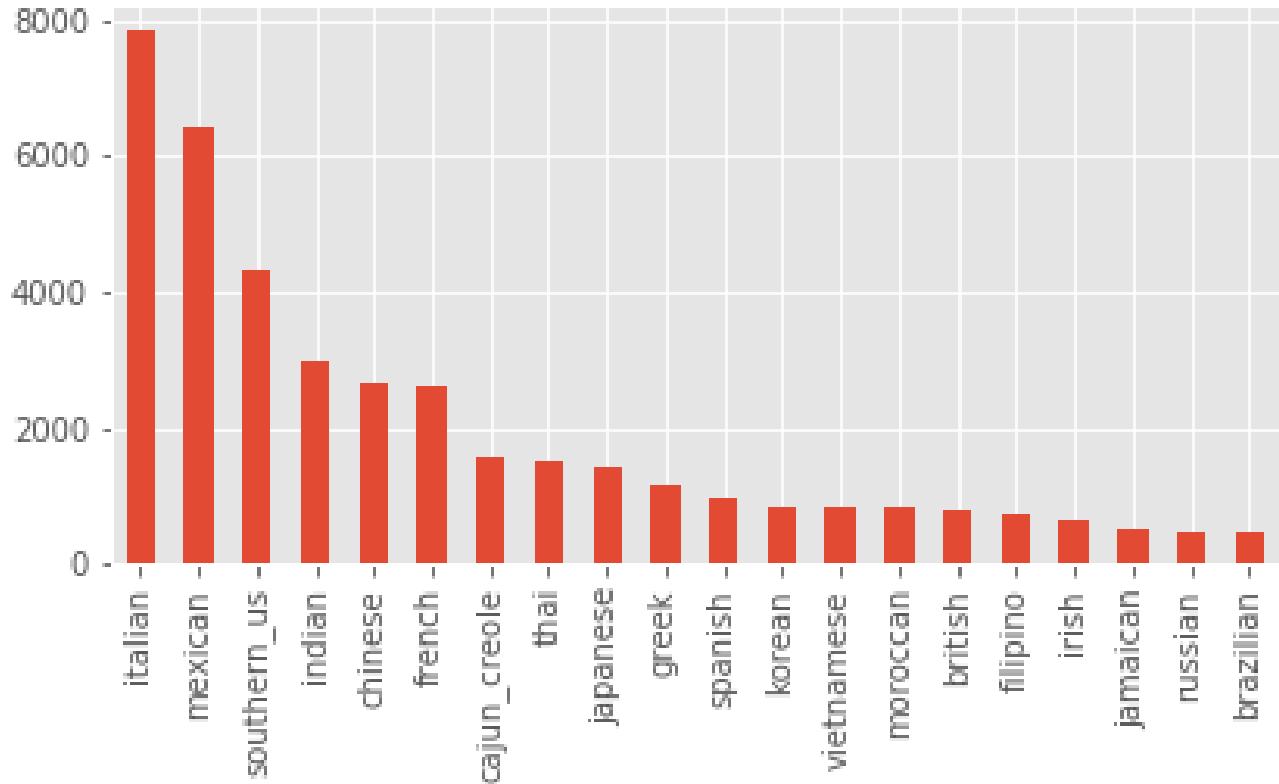


Figure 5: Recipe Distribution By Cuisine

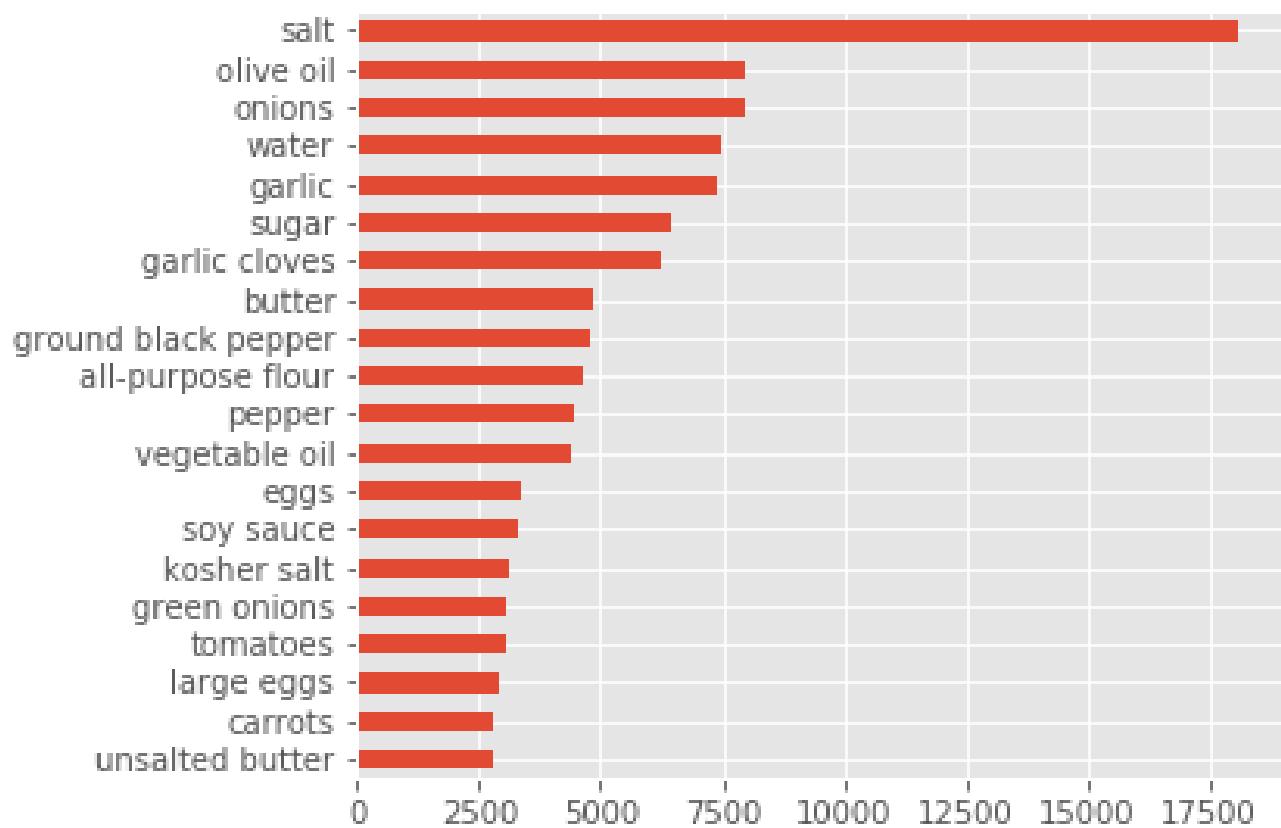


Figure 6: Top 20 Ingredients

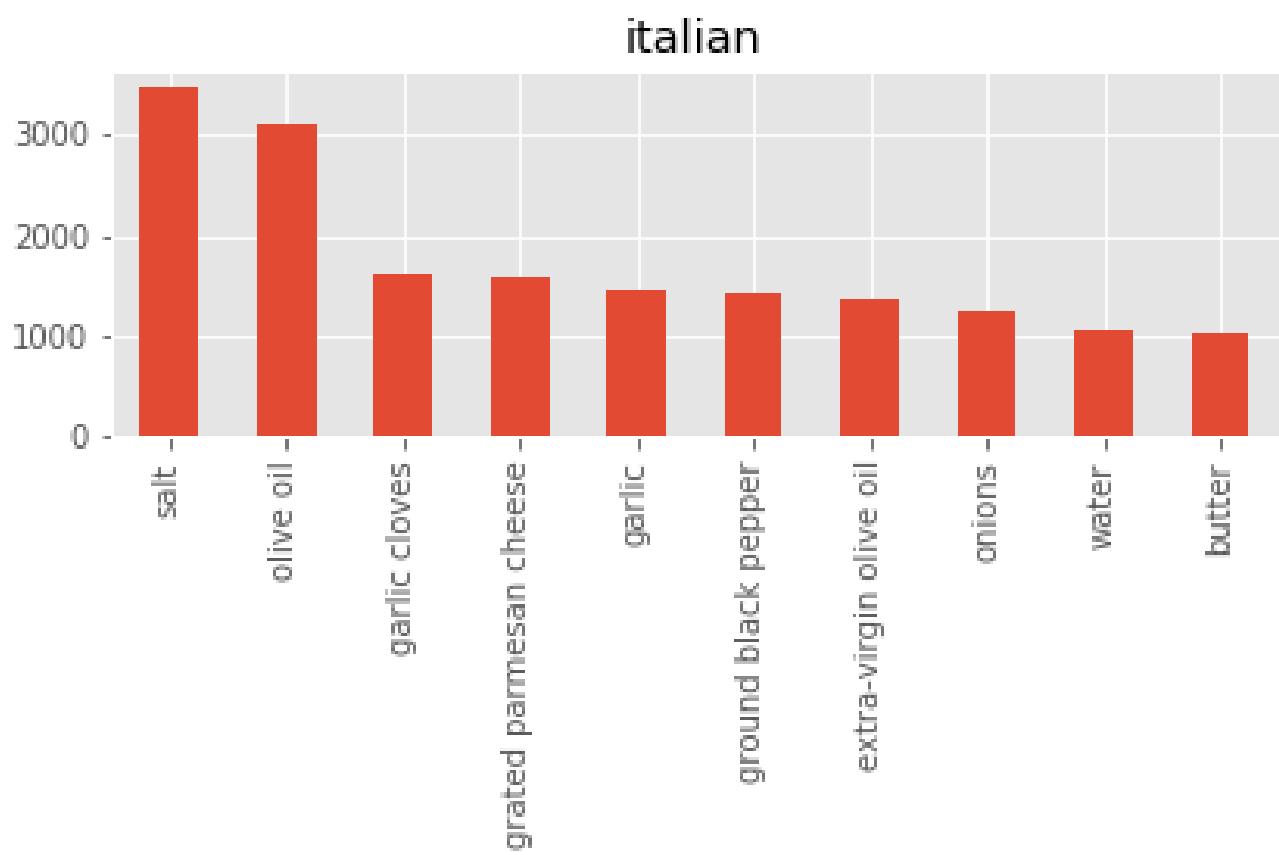


Figure 7: Top 10 Ingredients

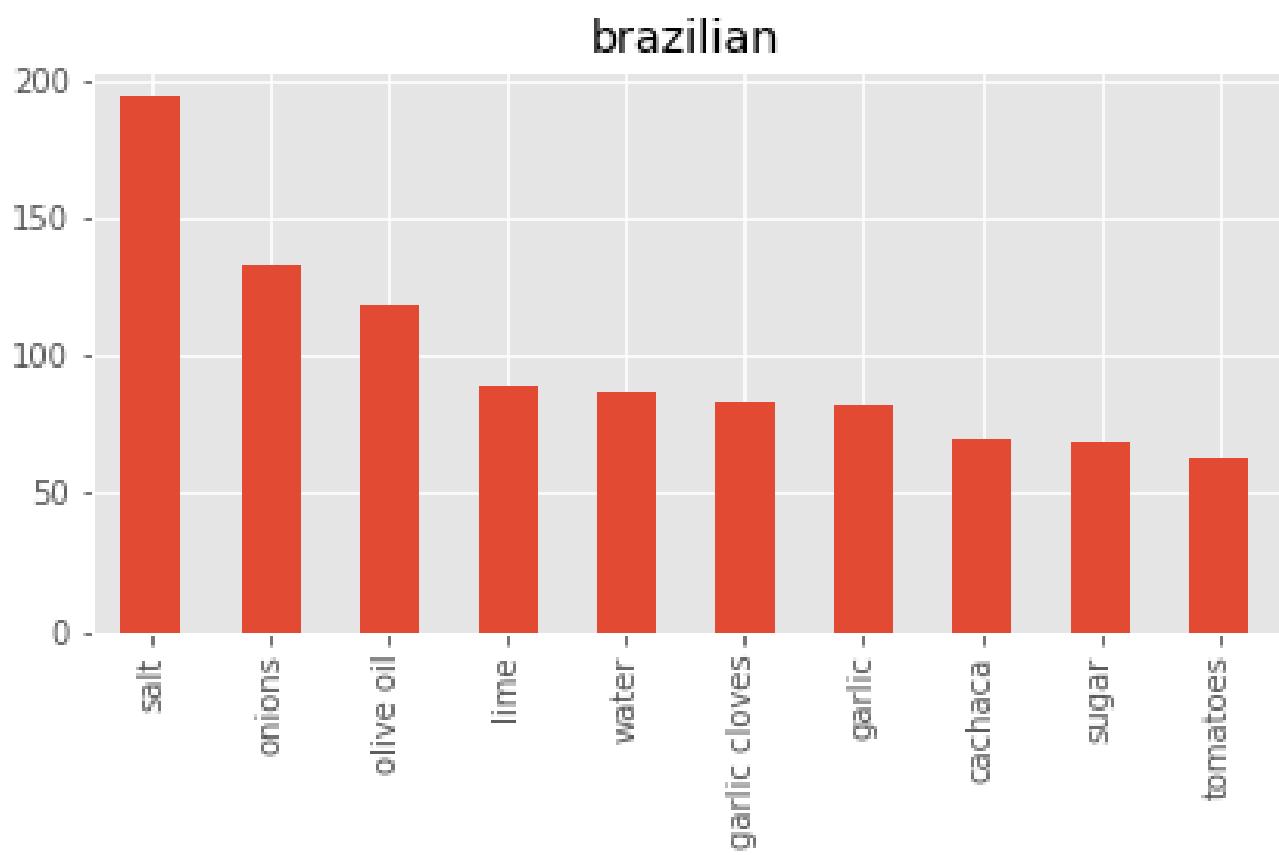


Figure 8: Top 10 Ingredients

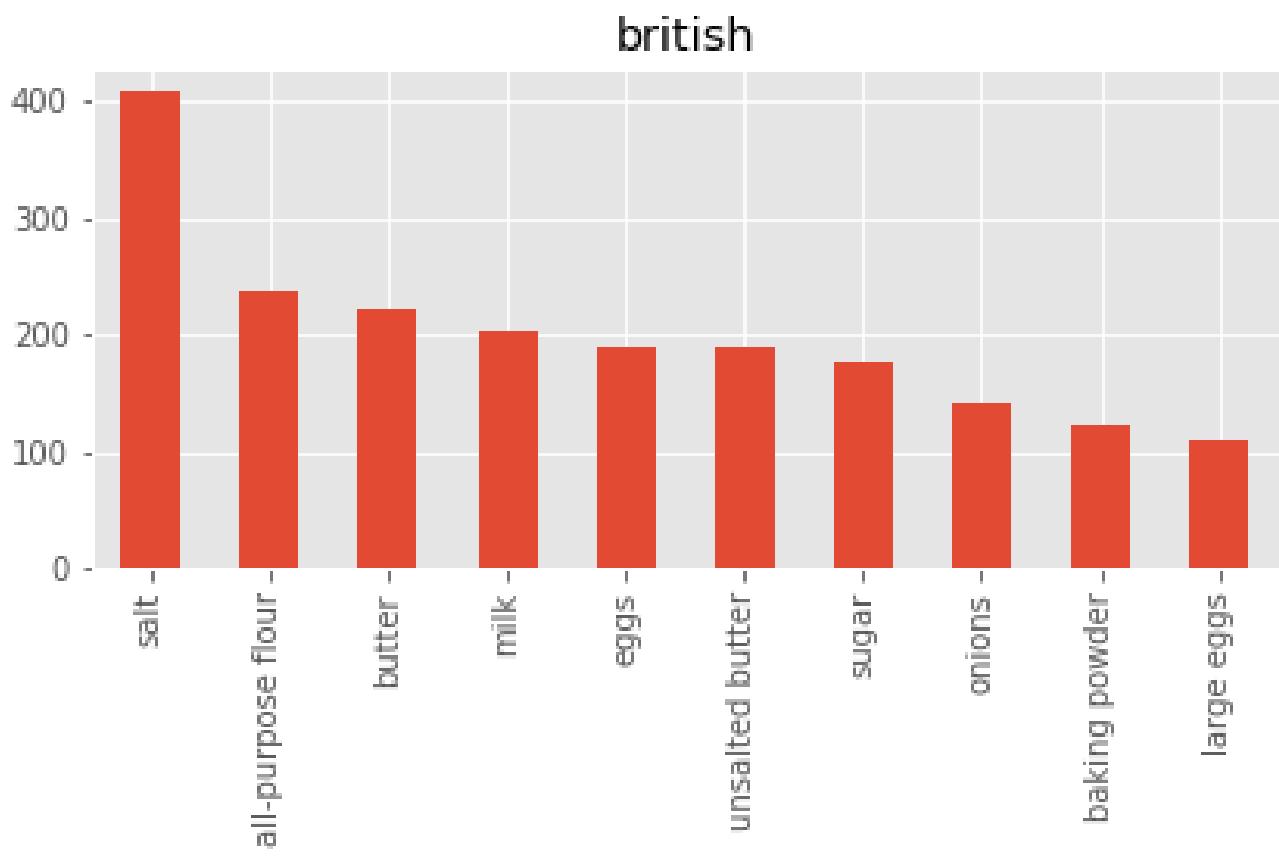


Figure 9: Top 10 Ingredients

cajun_creole

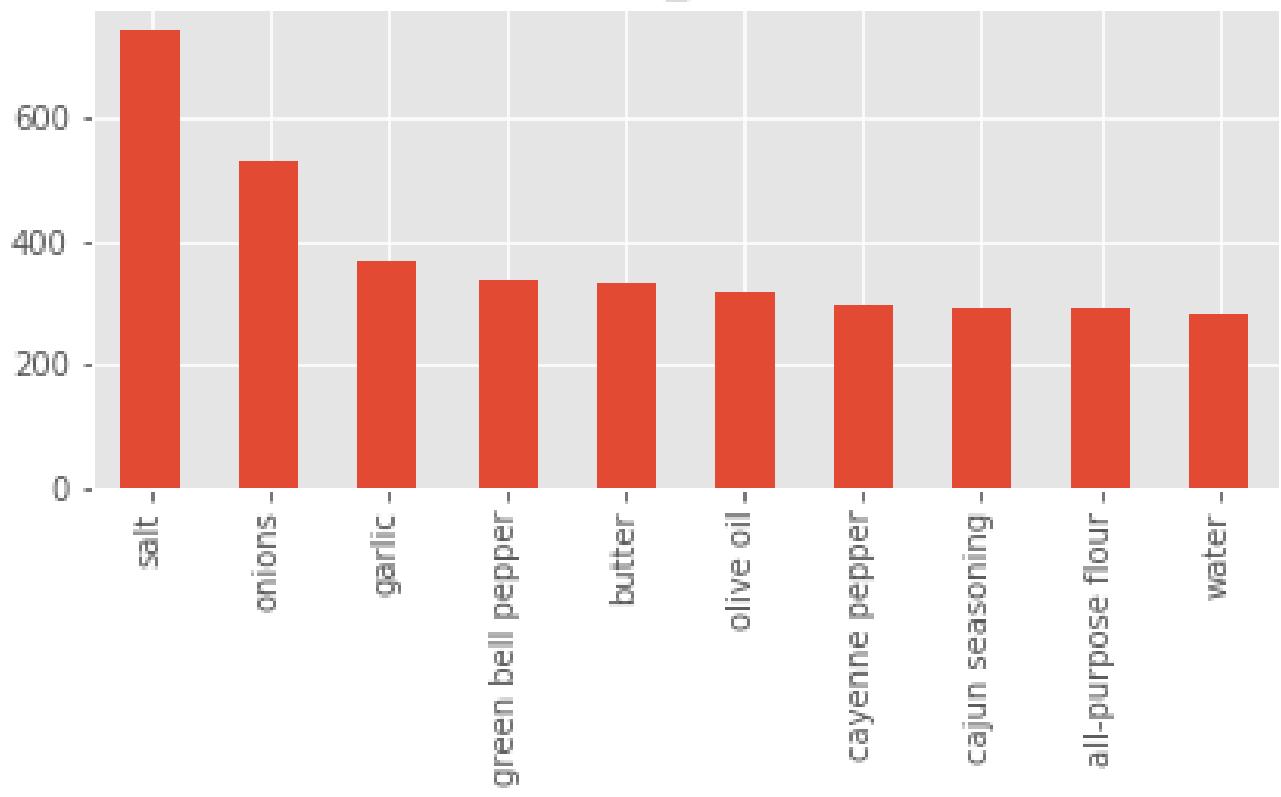


Figure 10: Top 10 Ingredients

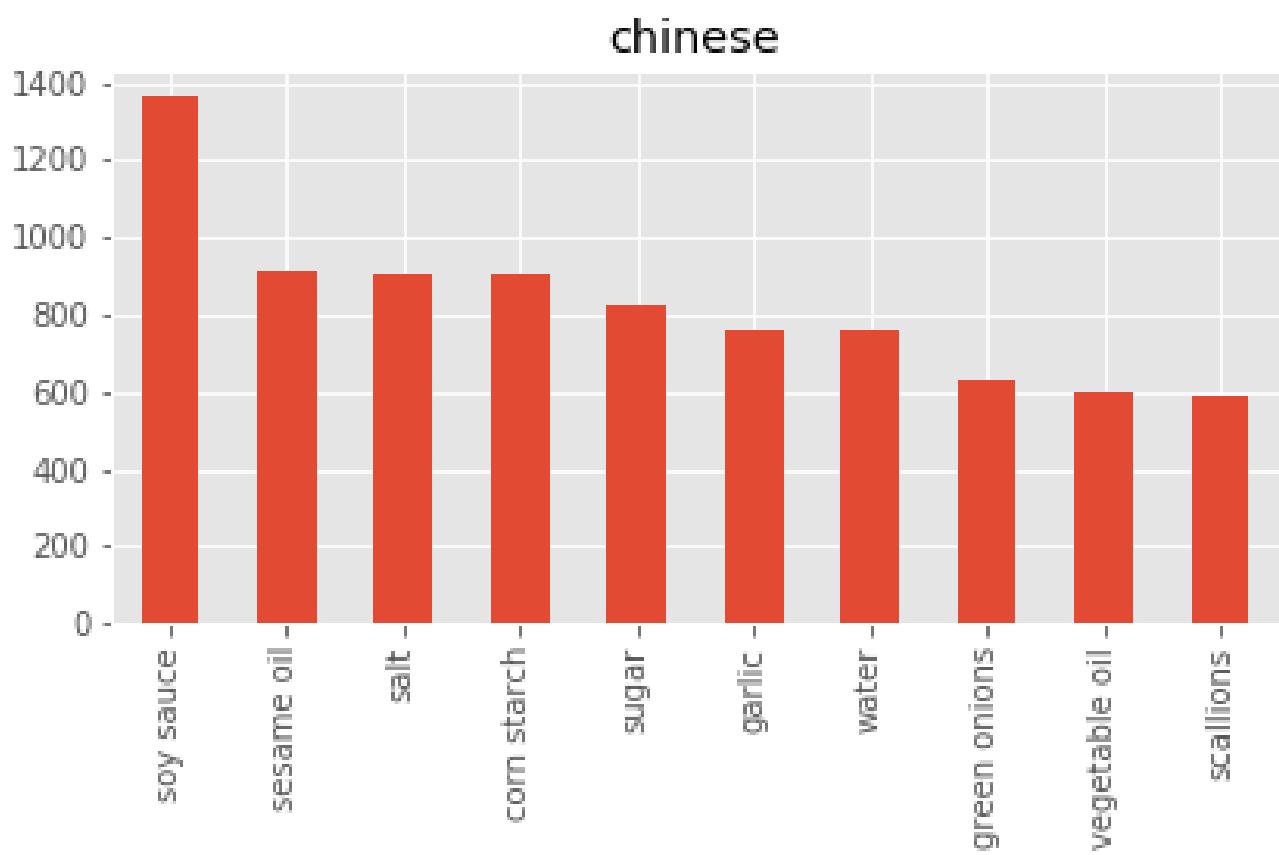


Figure 11: Top 10 Ingredients

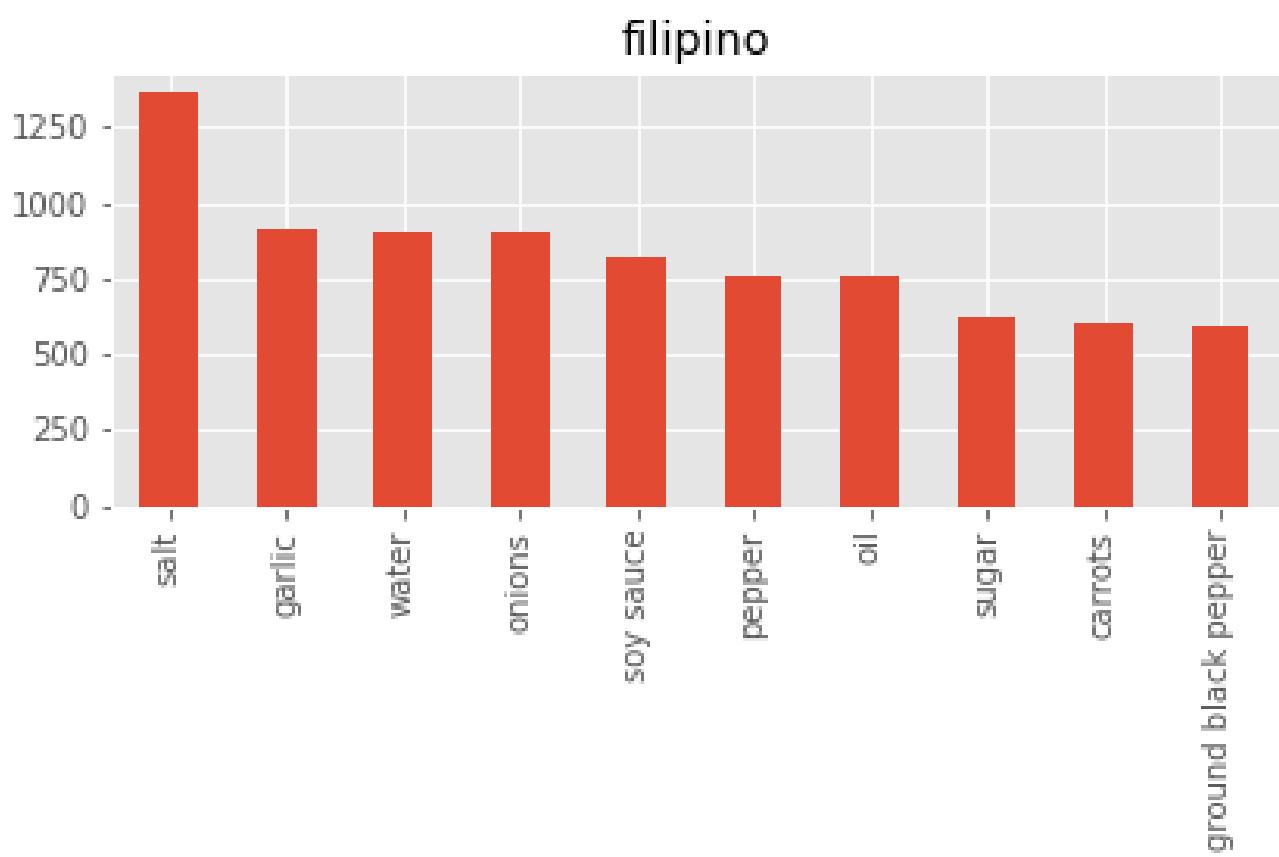


Figure 12: Top 10 Ingredients

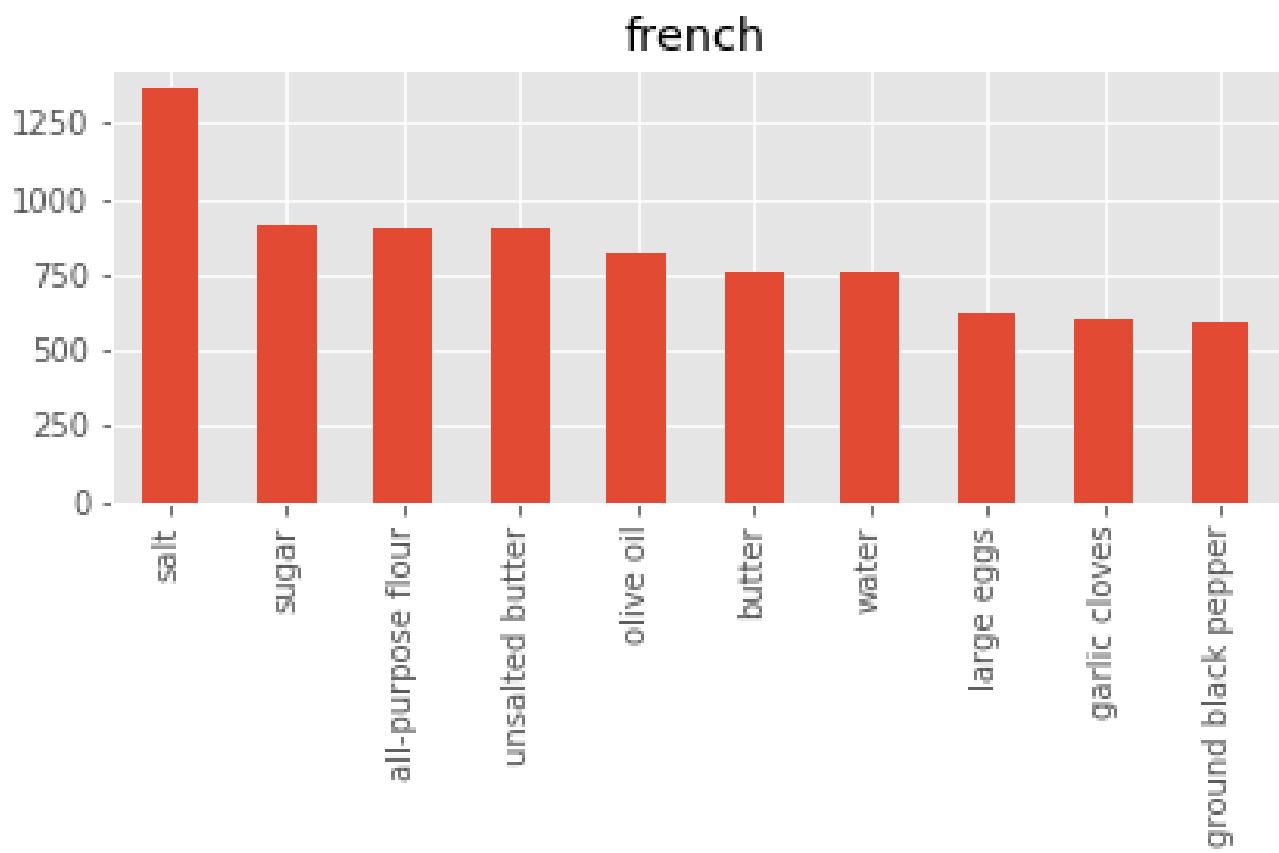


Figure 13: Top 10 Ingredients

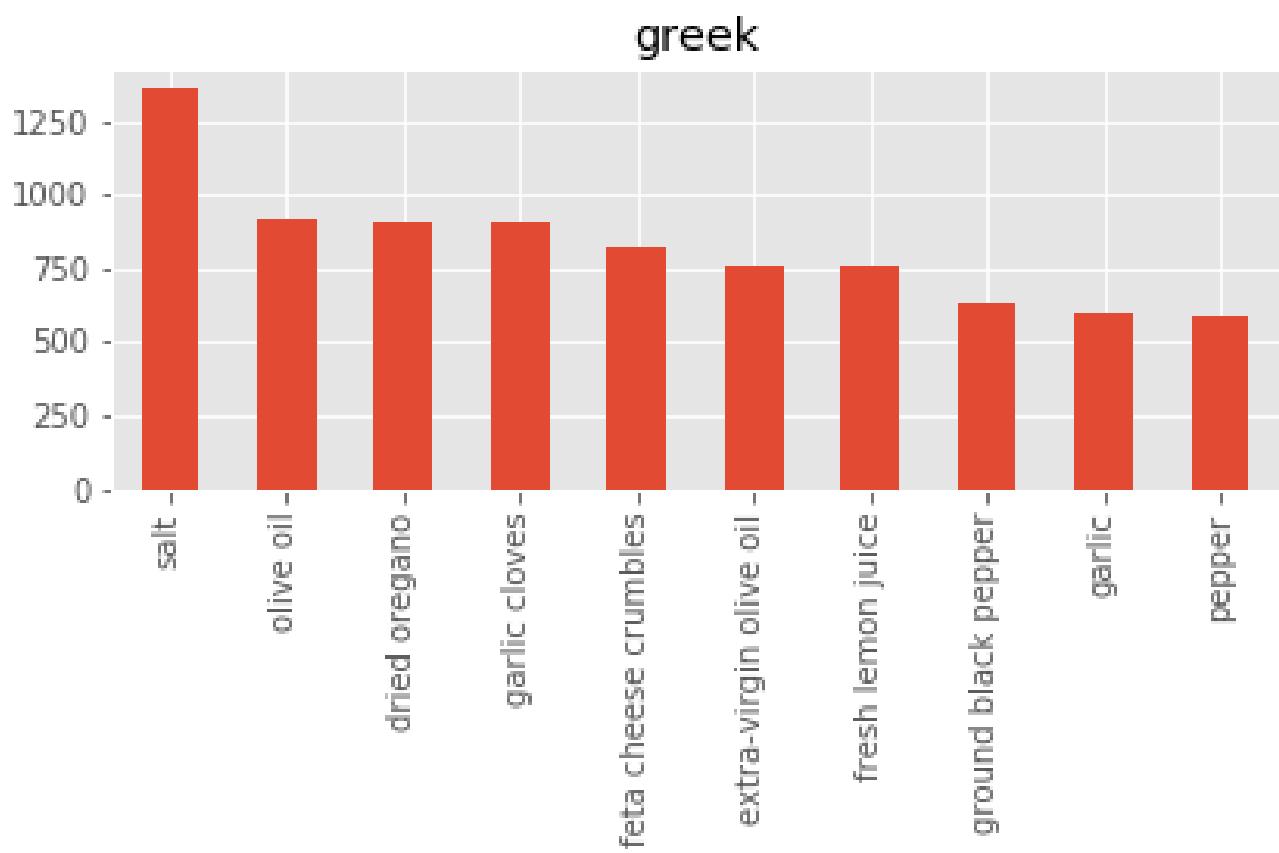


Figure 14: Top 10 Ingredients

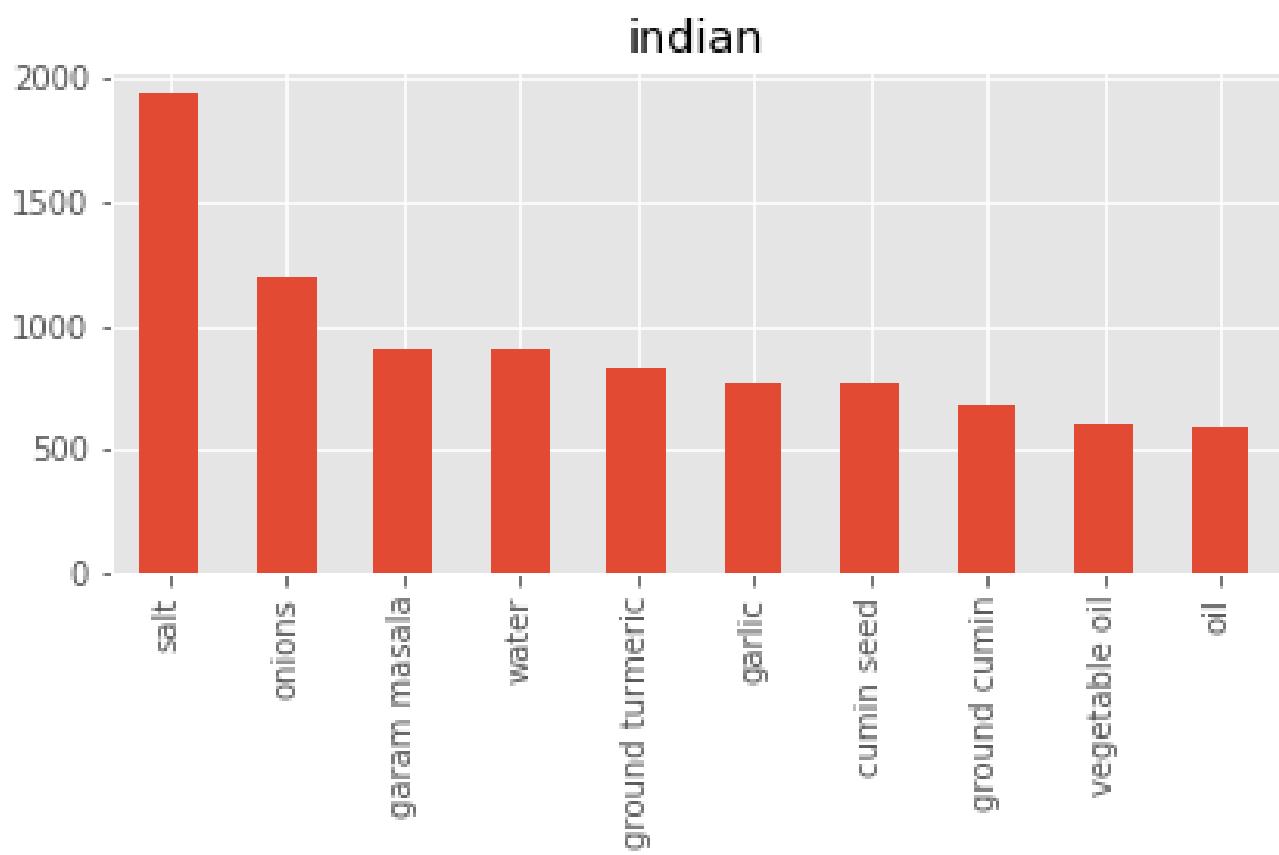


Figure 15: Top 10 Ingredients

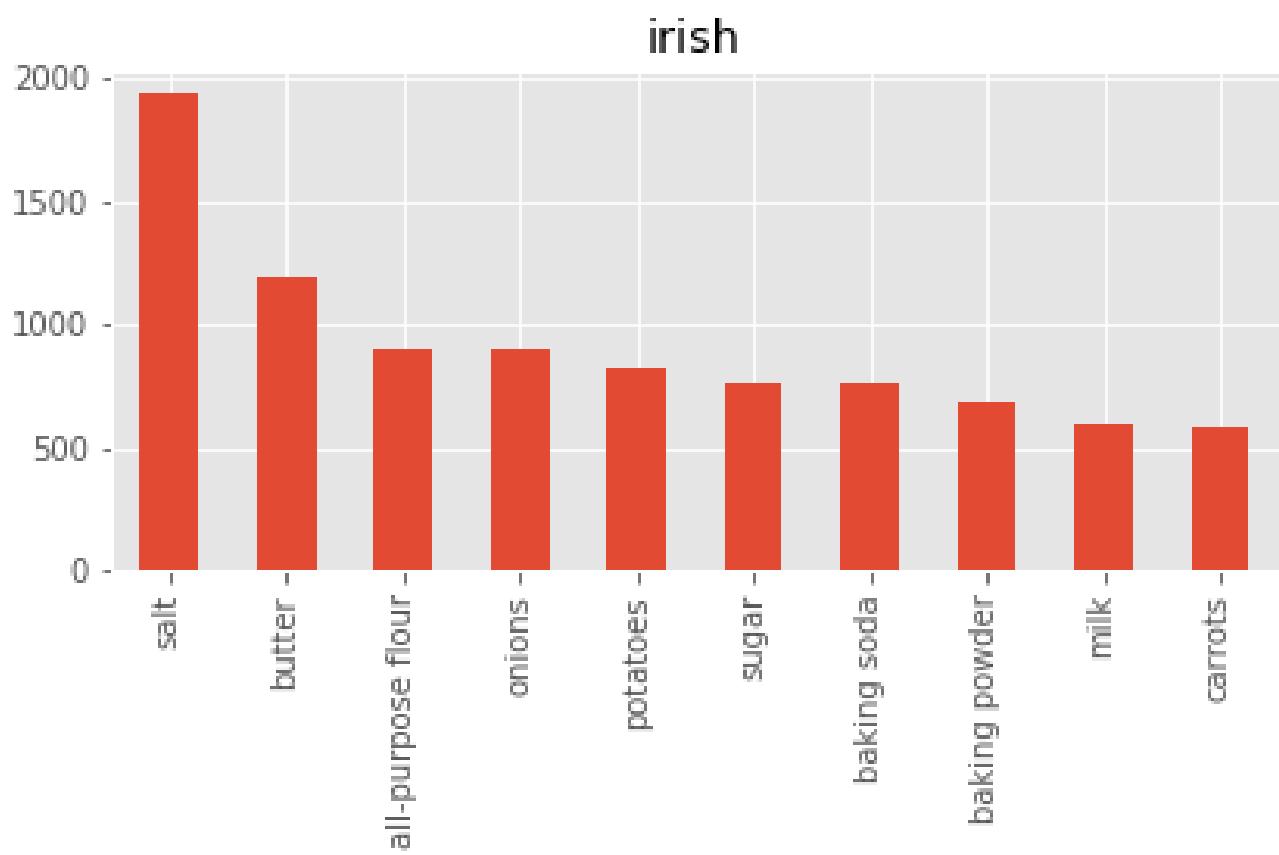


Figure 16: Top 10 Ingredients

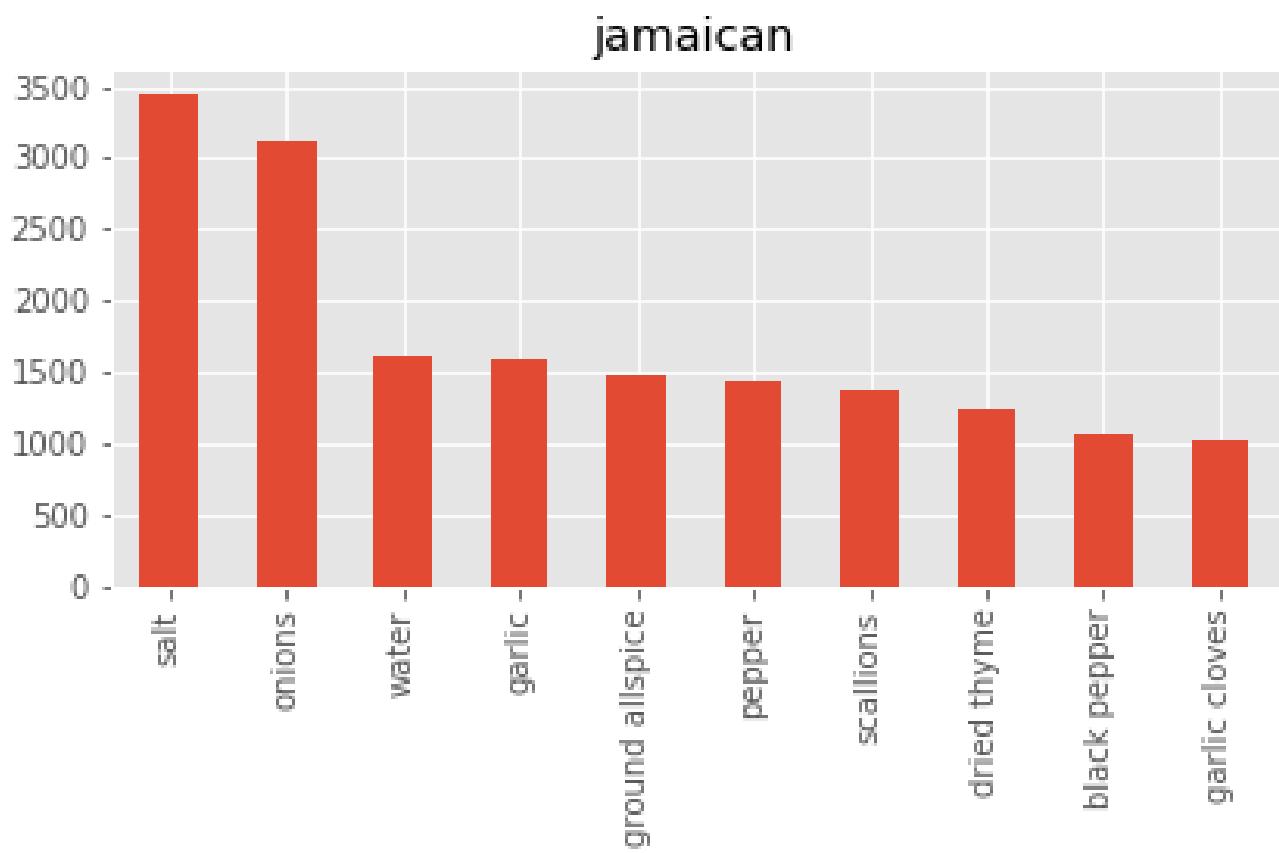


Figure 17: Top 10 Ingredients

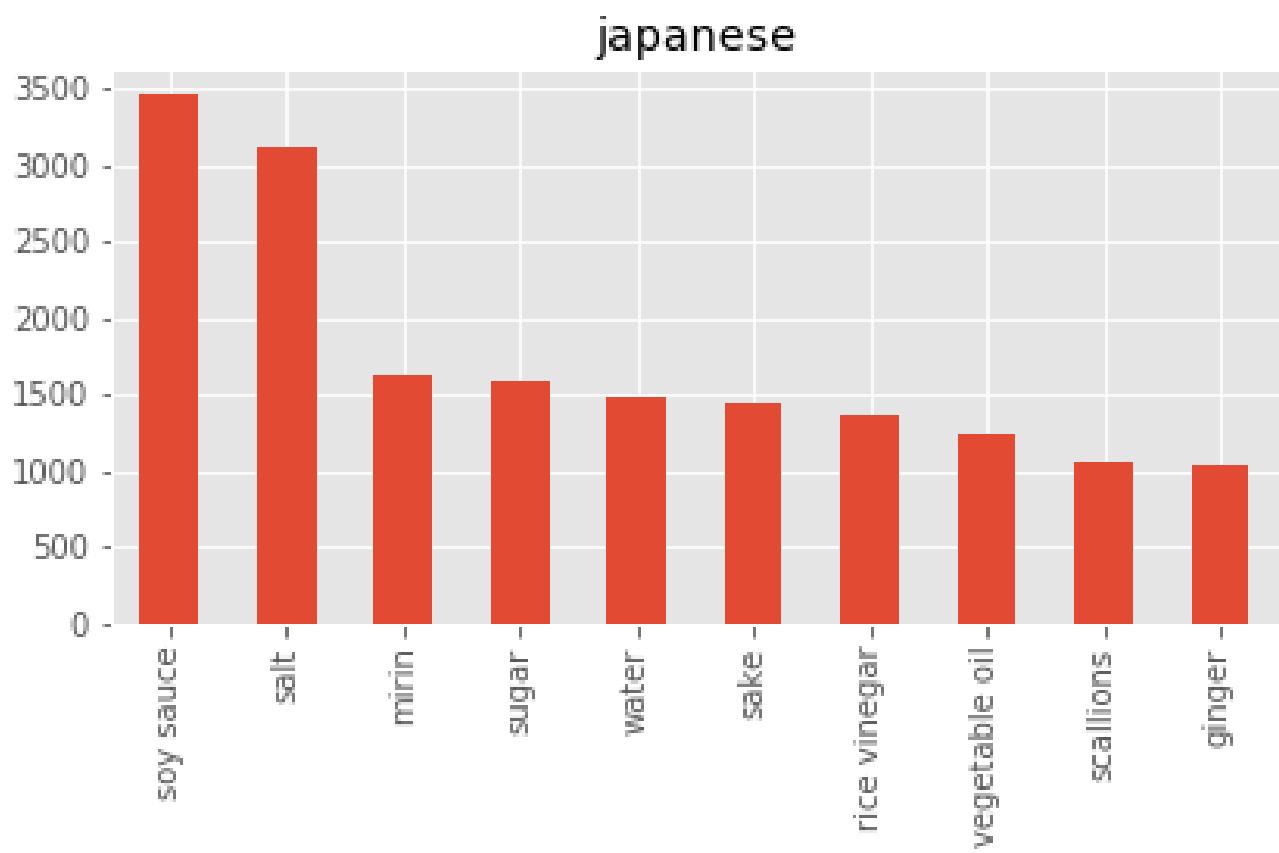


Figure 18: Top 10 Ingredients

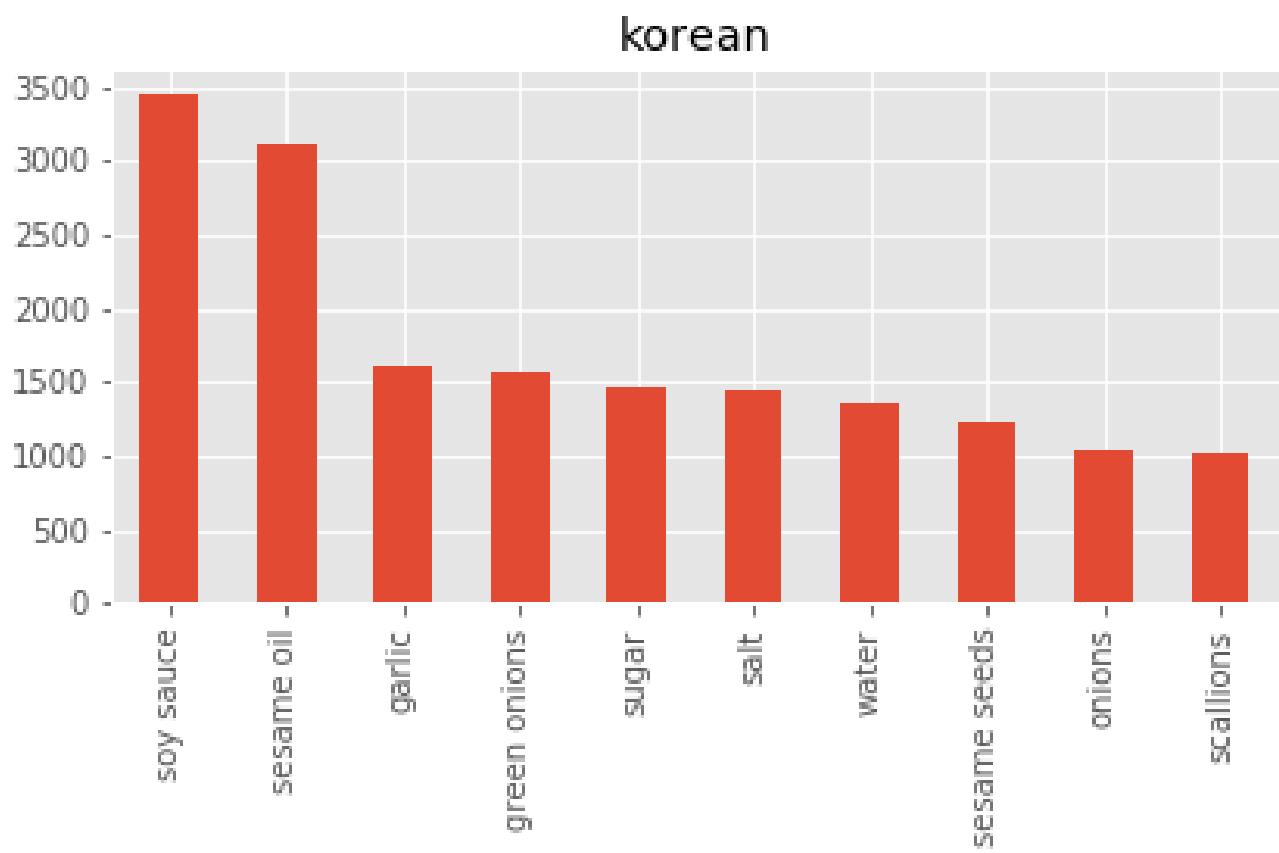


Figure 19: Top 10 Ingredients

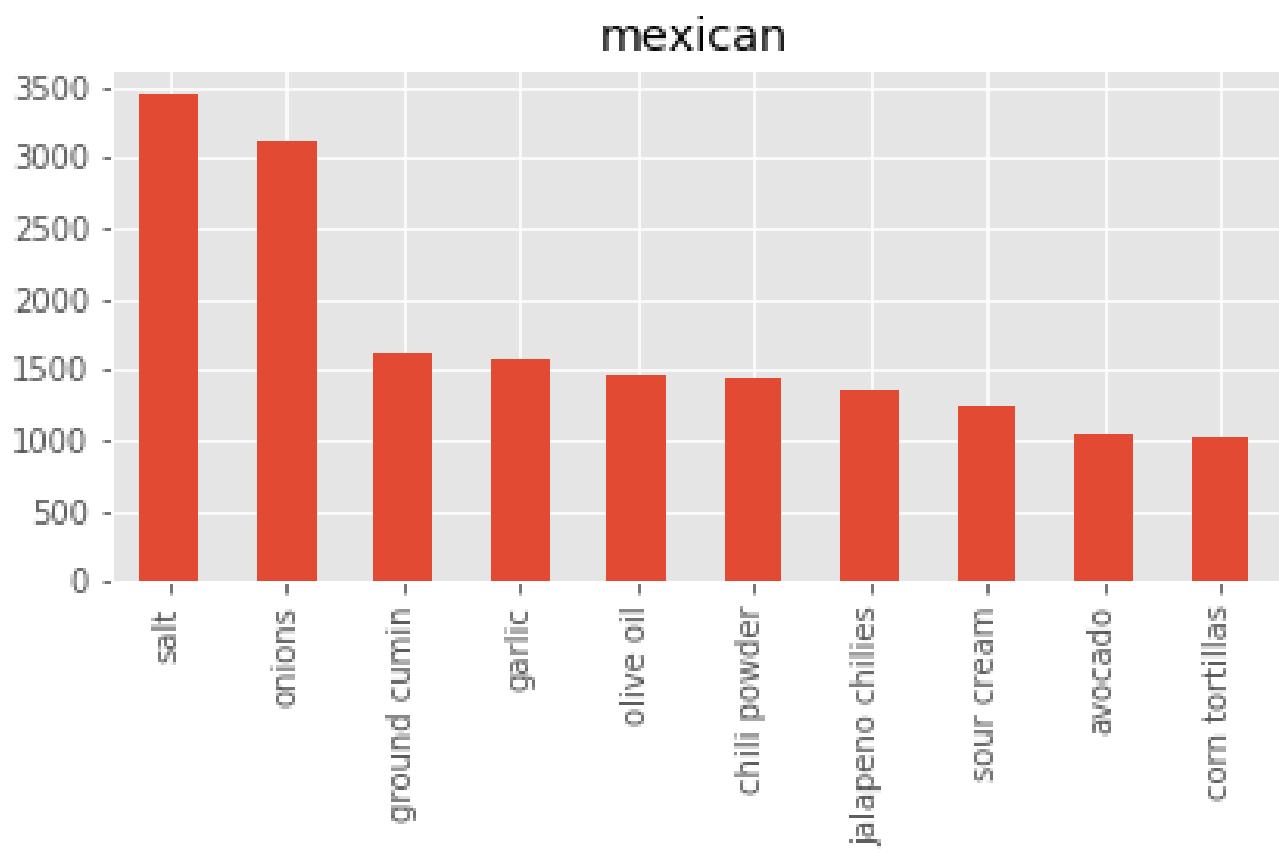


Figure 20: Top 10 Ingredients

moroccan

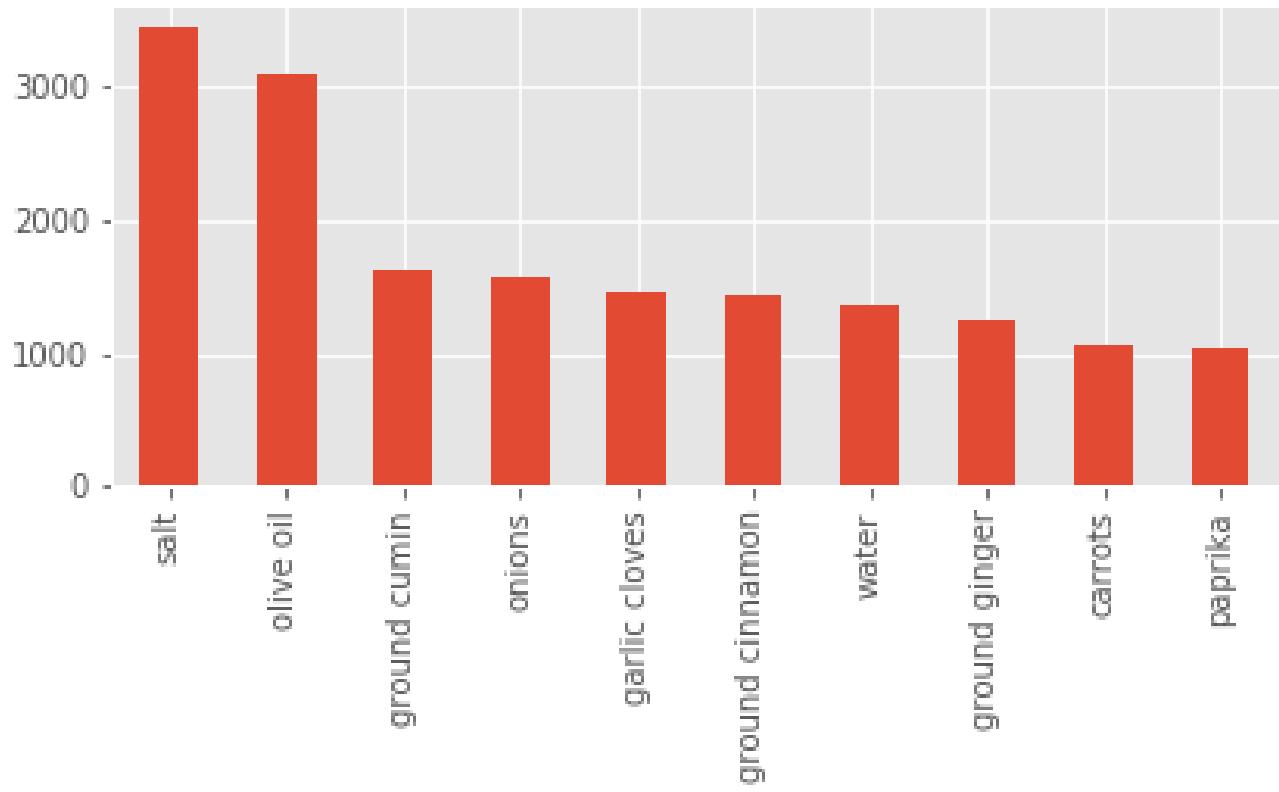


Figure 21: Top 10 Ingredients

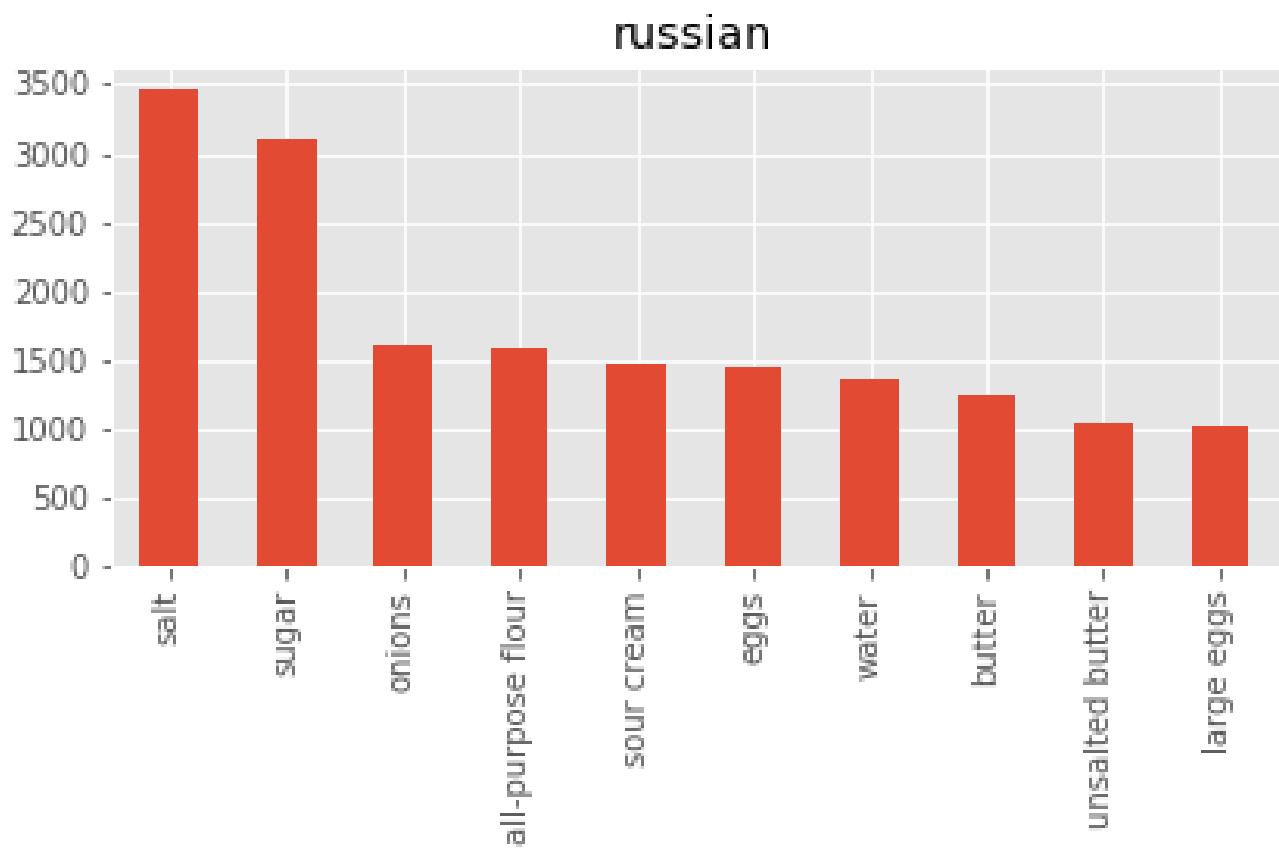


Figure 22: Top 10 Ingredients

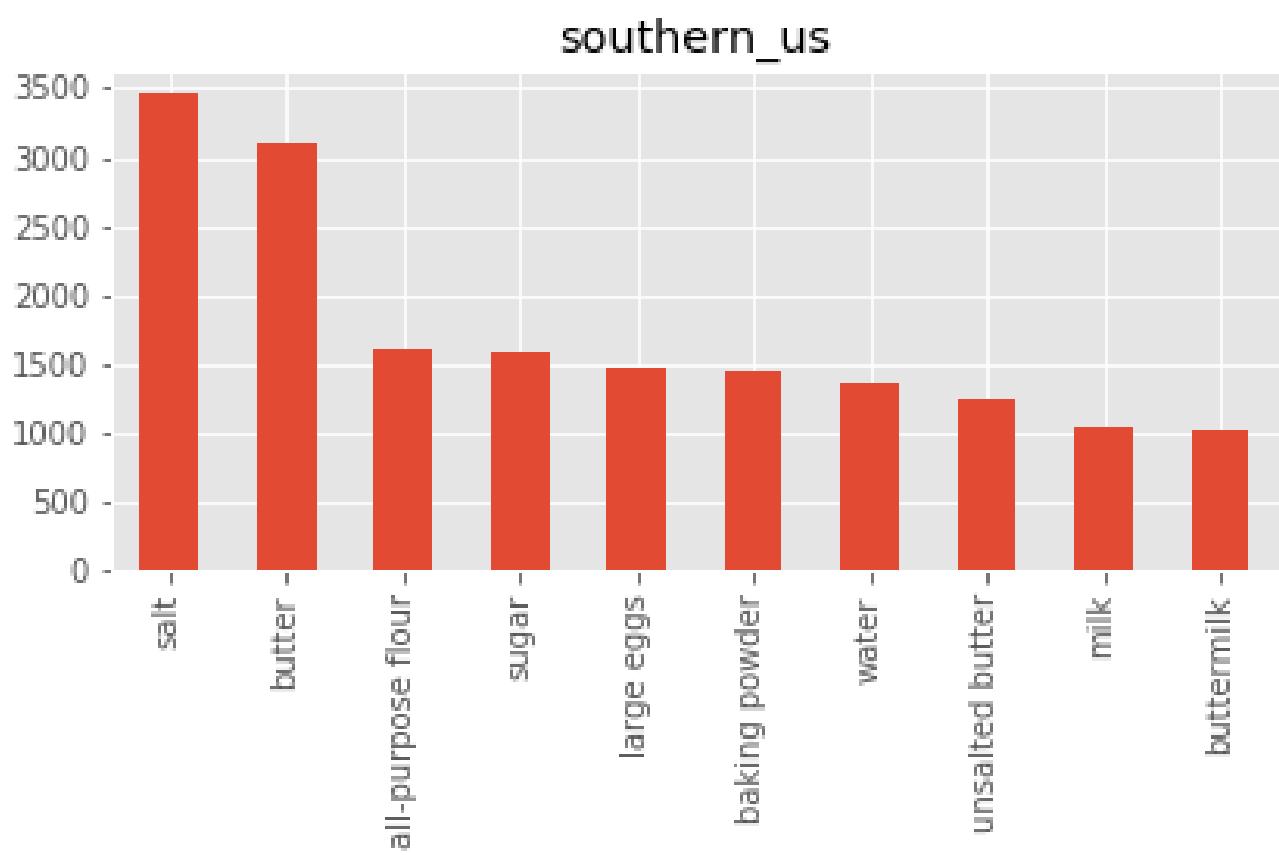


Figure 23: Top 10 Ingredients

spanish

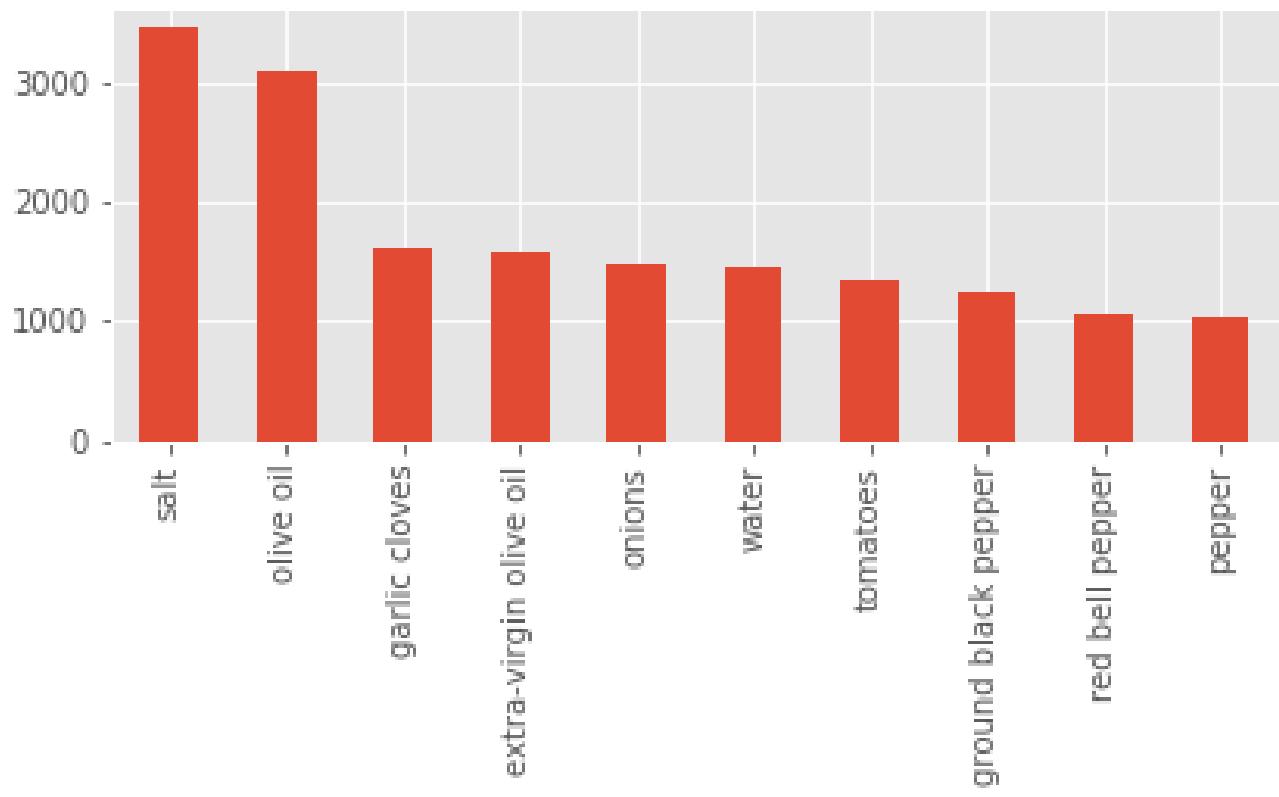


Figure 24: Top 10 Ingredients

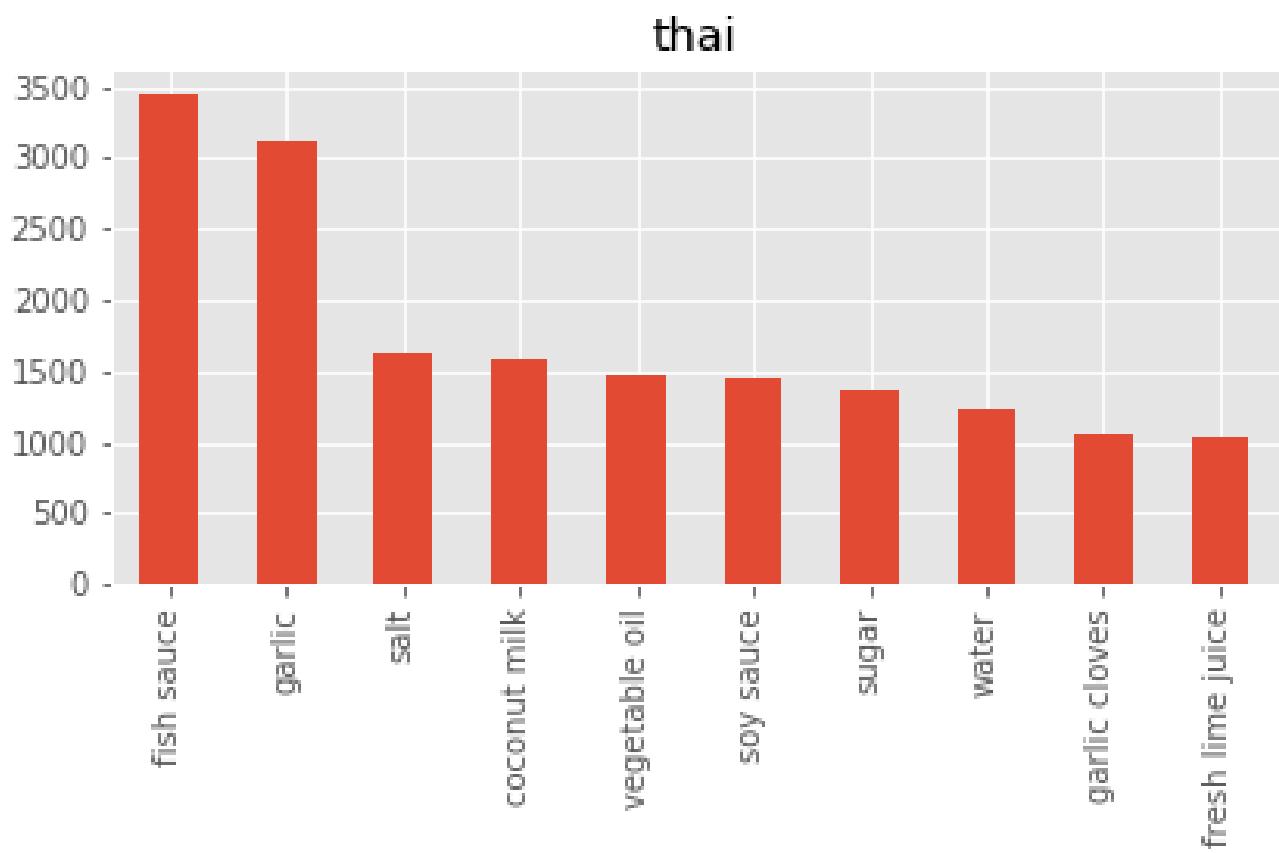


Figure 25: Top 10 Ingredients

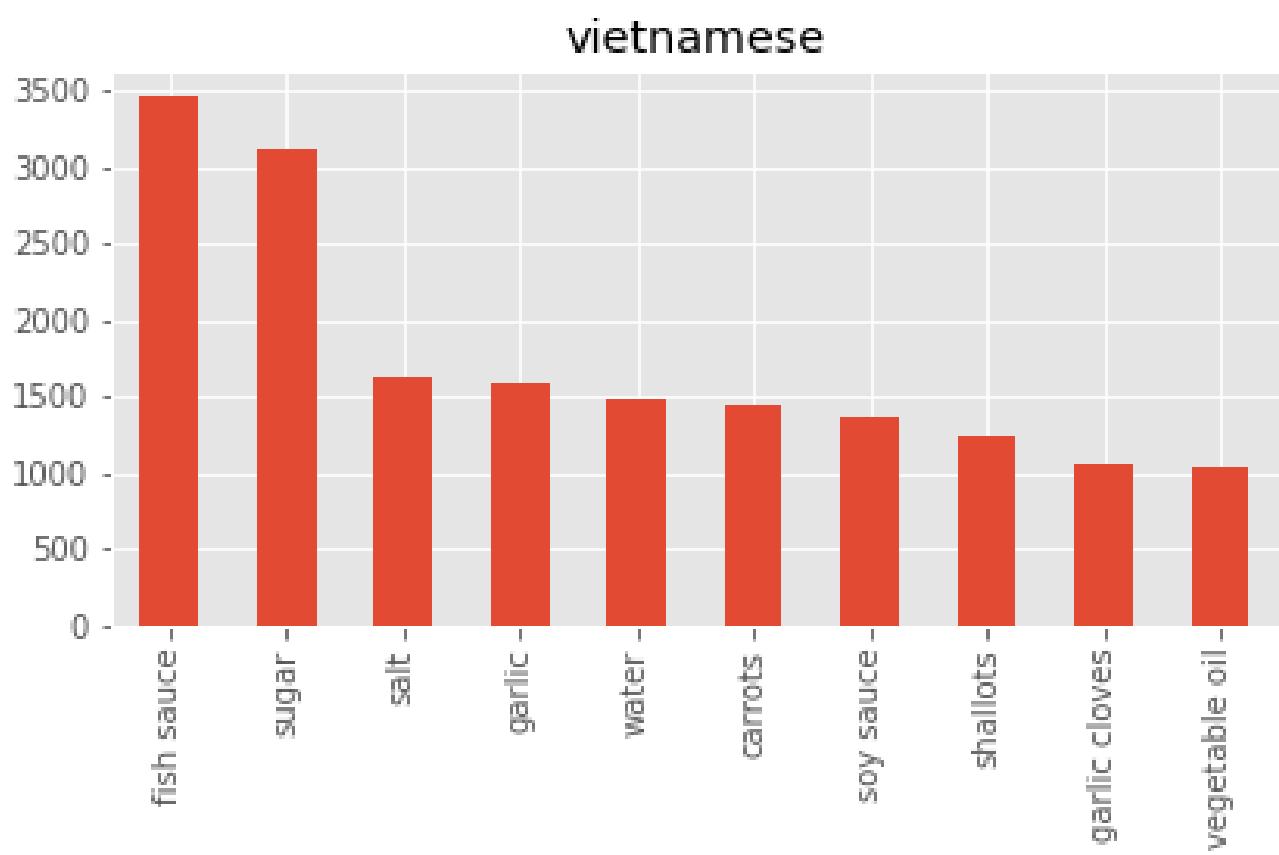


Figure 26: Top 10 Ingredients

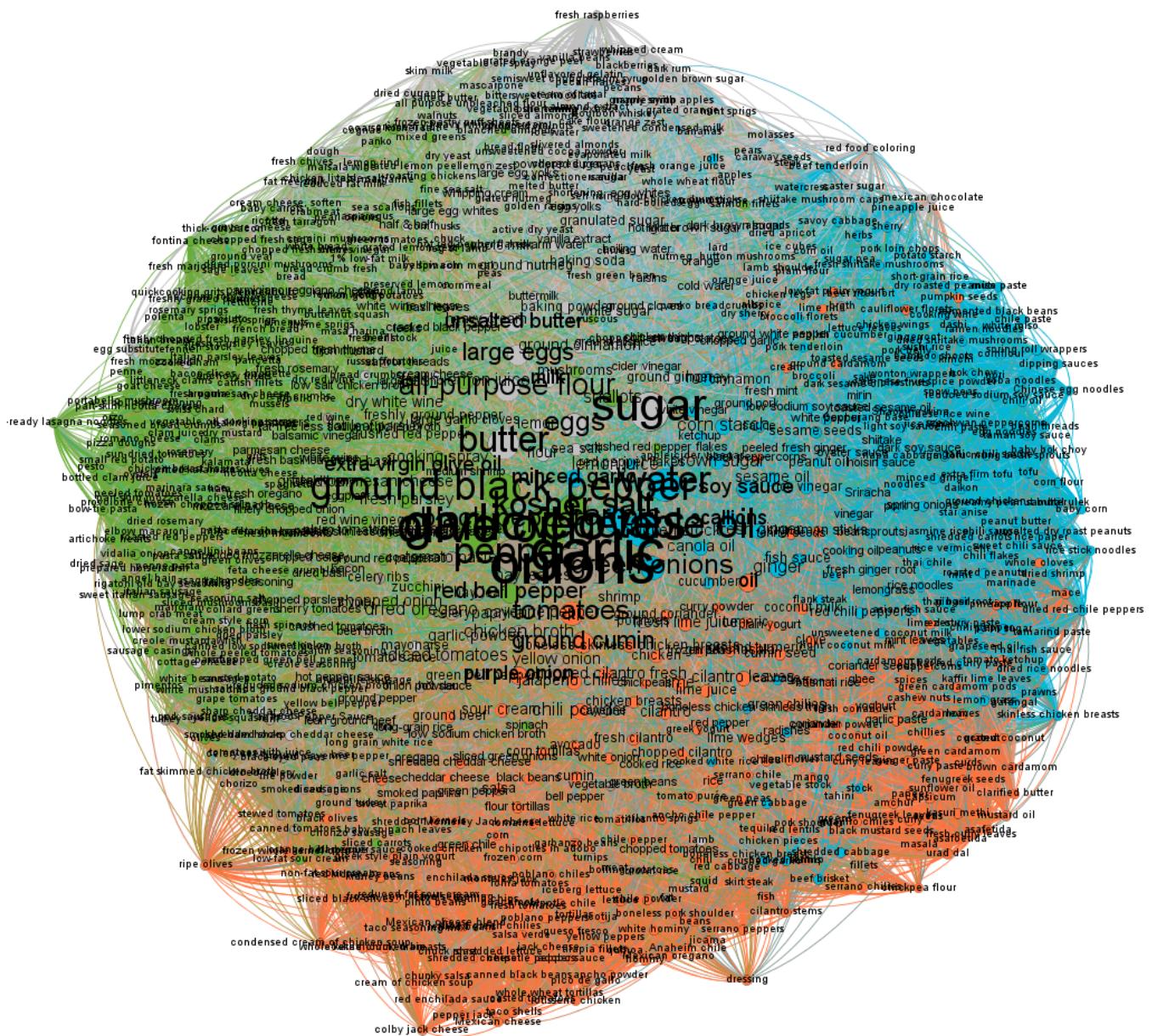


Figure 27: Ingredient Cluster

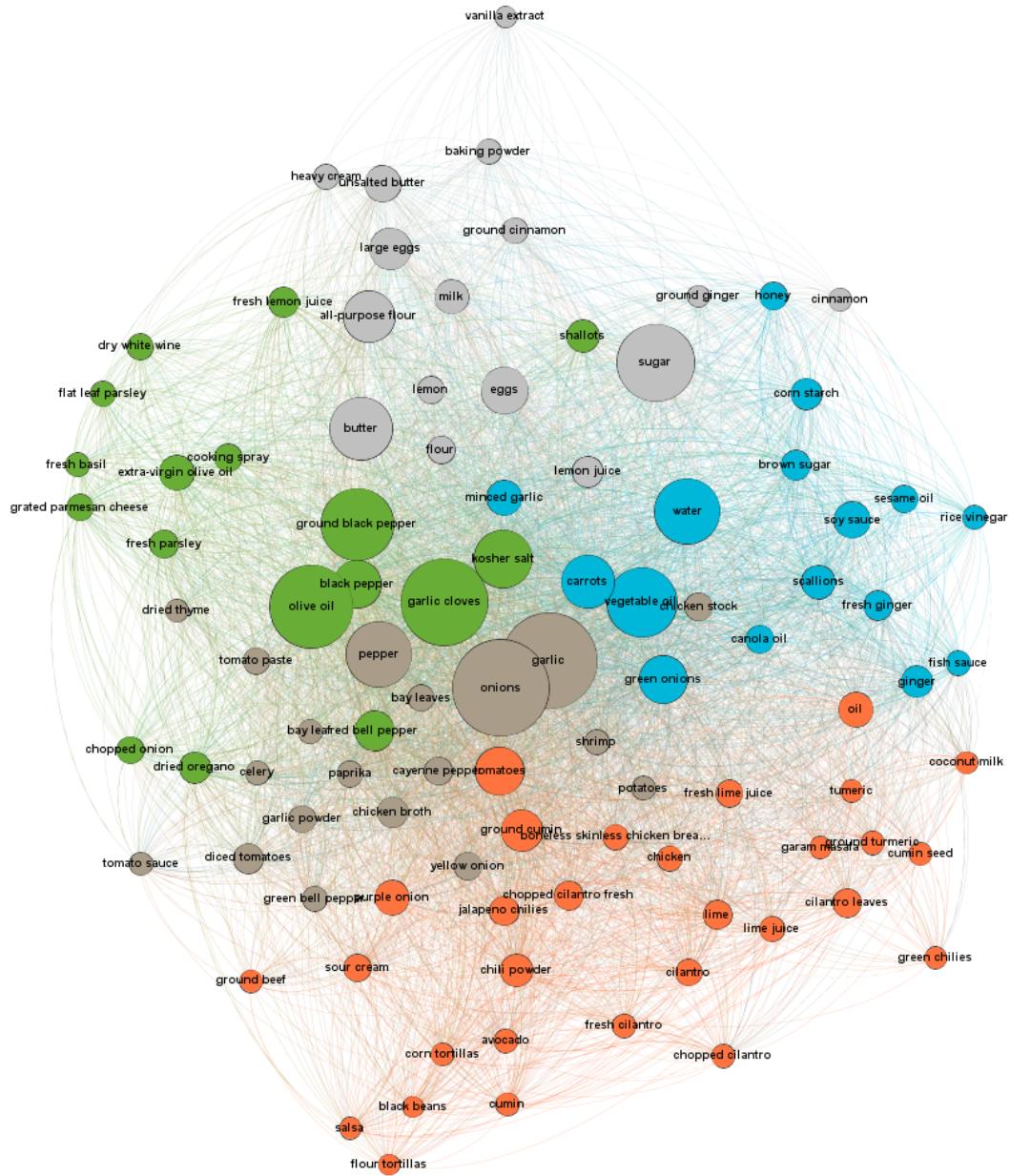


Figure 28: ingredient Cluster 100 Nodes

LIST OF TABLES

1 Recipe Count By Cuisine

34

Table 1: Recipe Count By Cuisine

Cuisine	Recipe Count
brazilian	467
british	804
cajun creole	1546
chinese	2673
filipino	755
french	2646
greek	1175
indian	3003
irish	667
italian	7838
jamaican	526
japanese	1423
korean	830
mexican	6438
moroccan	821
russian	489
southern us	4320
spanish	989
thai	1539
vietnamese	825

```
bibtext report
```

```
=====
```

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
```

```
bibtext _ label error
```

```
=====
```

```
bibtext space label error
```

```
=====
```

```
bibtext comma label error
```

```
=====
```

```
latex report
```

```
=====
```

```
[2017-12-08 04.01.42] pdflatex report.tex
This is pdfTeX, Version 3.14159265-2.6-1.40.17 (TeX Live 2016) (preloaded format=pdflatex)
bookmark level for unknown defaults to 0.
The anchor of a bookmark and its parent's must not be the same. Added a new anchor.
The anchor of a bookmark and its parent's must not be the same. Added a new anchor.
Typesetting of "report.tex" completed in 2.9s.
```

```
=====
```

```
Compliance Report
```

```
=====
```

```
name: Sushant Athaley
hid: 302
paper1: Nov 3 2017 100%
paper2: 100%
project: 100%
```

```
yamlcheck
```

```
-----
```

```
wordcount
```

```
(null)
wc 302 project (null) 3306 report.tex
wc 302 project (null) 4203 report.pdf
wc 302 project (null) 328 report.bib
```

```
find "
```

```
107: "id": 24717,
108: "cuisine": "indian",
109: "ingredients": [
110:   "tumeric",
111:   "vegetable stock",
112:   "tomatoes",
113:   "garam masala",
114:   "naan",
115:   "red lentils",
116:   "red chili peppers",
117:   "onions",
118:   "spinach",
119:   "sweet potatoes"
133: dataFilePath="./data/train.json"
```

```
passed: False
```

```
find footnote
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find input{format/i523}
-----
passed: False

find input{format/final}
-----
passed: False

floats
-----
66: Code is organized as described in Figure \ref{c:code-structure}
67: \begin{figure}[htb]
80: \caption{Code Structure}\label{c:code-structure}
93: Figure \ref{f:methodology} shows methodology used for this project
   to analyze ingredient data.
94: \begin{figure}![ht]
95: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/methodology.
   PNG}
96: \caption{Flowchart of the Methodology to Analyze Ingredients
   }\label{f:methodology}
103: The dataset for this study is sourced from Kaggle application
   \cite{www-kaggle}. This dataset is publicly available and
   featured in \emph{What's Cooking?} competition. This dataset is
   in JSON format and of 12MB size. This dataset contains recipe id,
   cuisine and list of ingredients as described in Figure
   \ref{c:data-structure}.
104: \begin{figure}[htb]
123: \caption{Ingredient Data Structure}\label{c:data-structure}
125: This dataset contains total 39774 recipes across various
   cuisines. We used two different methods to load this data.
   Cuisine and ingredient analysis is done by loading data into
   \emph{pandas dataframe} and to analyze ingredient relationship
   data has been loaded into \emph{json} object. Figure \ref{c:loading}
   shows the code for data loading used in this project.
126: \begin{figure}[htb]
137: \caption{Data Loading}\label{c:loading}
147: We first analyze entire dataset to understand the total number of
   recipes and their distribution across various cuisines. We use
   Pythons Panda library to get the total recipe count as 39774 and
   plot the distribution. Figure
   \ref{f:Number_of_recipes_by_cuisine} shows number of recipes per
   cuisine. Dataset is heavily dominated by Italian cuisine followed
   by Mexican cuisine and with very few recipes from Russian and
```

Brazilian cuisines. This also highlights another shortcoming of the dataset that it doesn't have equal representation of all cuisines which might give us biased analysis.

```
148: \begin{figure} [!ht]
149: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/Number_of_recipes_by_cuisine.png}
150: \caption{Recipe Distribution By Cuisine
151: }\label{f:Number_of_recipes_by_cuisine}
153: Table\ref{t:recipecount} describes recipe count for every
154: cuisine.
154: \begin{table}[htb]
157: \label{t:recipecount}
186: The second analysis is carried out to understand top 20
187: ingredients getting used across cuisine or globally. Ingredient
188: \emph{Salt} is obvious topper followed by \emph{Oil} and
189: \emph{Onions}. This also proves our craving for salty and fatty
190: food. Top 20 ingredient also contain duplicate ingredient like
191: garlic and garlic clove, salt and kosher salt, eggs and large
192: eggs which shows shortcoming of the dataset. Also ingredient like
193: salt, oil and water could be avoided to get analysis of real
194: ingredients as these are commonly use ingredient and doesn't
195: contribute much to the study. Figure
196: \ref{f:Ingredient_Distribution} shows top 20 ingredient across
197: cuisines.
187: \begin{figure} [!ht]
188: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/Ingredient_Distribution.png}
189: \caption{Top 20 Ingredients }\label{f:Ingredient_Distribution}
193: The third analysis is carried out to understand key ingredient
194: for each cuisine. These key ingredients define those cuisines and
195: provide unique test characterized by that cuisine. We limited
196: ingredient list to top 10 to get the key ingredients for each
197: cuisine. Study shows \emph{Italian} cuisine is characterized by
198: olive oil, garlic, cheese, black pepper, onion and butter,
199: \emph{Mexican} by onion, cumin, garlic, chili powder, jalapeno
200: chilies, sour cream, tortillas and avocado, \emph{Southern US} by
201: butter, all-purpose flour, sugar, eggs, baking powder, milk and
202: butter milk, \emph{Indian} by onion, garam masala, turmeric,
203: garlic, cumin and oil, \emph{Chinese} by soy sauce, sesame oil,
204: corn starch, sugar, garlic, green onions and scallions. Similarly
205: it is applicable for all other cuisines present in the dataset
206: and it is very close representation of all cuisines. Figure
207: \ref{f:italian_10_most_used_ingredients},
208: \ref{f:brazilian_10_most_used_ingredients},
209: \ref{f:british_10_most_used_ingredients},
210: \ref{f:cajun_creole_10_most_used_ingredients},
```

```

\ref{f:chinese_10_most_used_ingredients},
\ref{f:filipino_10_most_used_ingredients},
\ref{f:french_10_most_used_ingredients},
\ref{f:greek_10_most_used_ingredients},
\ref{f:indian_10_most_used_ingredients},
\ref{f:irish_10_most_used_ingredients},
\ref{f:jamaican_10_most_used_ingredients},
\ref{f:japanese_10_most_used_ingredients},
\ref{f:korean_10_most_used_ingredients},
\ref{f:mexican_10_most_used_ingredients},
\ref{f:moroccan_10_most_used_ingredients},
\ref{f:russian_10_most_used_ingredients},
\ref{f:southern_us_10_most_used_ingredients},
\ref{f:spanish_10_most_used_ingredients},
\ref{f:thai_10_most_used_ingredients},
\ref{f:vietnamese_10_most_used_ingredients} shows top 10 key
ingredient used in the corresponding cuisines.

194: \begin{figure}[!ht]
195: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/italian_10_
most_used_ingredients.png}
196: \caption{Top 10 Ingredients
}\label{f:italian_10_most_used_ingredients}
199: \begin{figure}[!ht]
200: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/brazilian_1
0_most_used_ingredients.png}
201: \caption{Top 10 Ingredients
}\label{f:brazilian_10_most_used_ingredients}
204: \begin{figure}[!ht]
205: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/british_10_
most_used_ingredients.png}
206: \caption{Top 10 Ingredients
}\label{f:british_10_most_used_ingredients}
209: \begin{figure}[!ht]
210: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/cajun_creol
e_10_most_used_ingredients.png}
211: \caption{Top 10 Ingredients
}\label{f:cajun_creole_10_most_used_ingredients}
214: \begin{figure}[!ht]
215: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/chinese_10_
most_used_ingredients.png}
216: \caption{Top 10 Ingredients
}\label{f:chinese_10_most_used_ingredients}
219: \begin{figure}[!ht]
220: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/filipino_10
_most_used_ingredients.png}
221: \caption{Top 10 Ingredients
}

```

```

}\label{f:fili10}
224: \begin{figure} [!ht]
225: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/french_10_m
ost_used_ingredients.png}
226: \caption{Top 10 Ingredients
}\label{f:fren10}
229: \begin{figure} [!ht]
230: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/greek_10_mo
st_used_ingredients.png}
231: \caption{Top 10 Ingredients
}\label{f:grec10}
234: \begin{figure} [!ht]
235: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/indian_10_m
ost_used_ingredients.png}
236: \caption{Top 10 Ingredients
}\label{f:indi10}
239: \begin{figure} [!ht]
240: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/irish_10_mo
st_used_ingredients.png}
241: \caption{Top 10 Ingredients
}\label{f:irish10}
244: \begin{figure} [!ht]
245: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/jamaican_10
_most_used_ingredients.png}
246: \caption{Top 10 Ingredients
}\label{f:jama10}
249: \begin{figure} [!ht]
250: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/japanese_10
_most_used_ingredients.png}
251: \caption{Top 10 Ingredients
}\label{f:japan10}
254: \begin{figure} [!ht]
255: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/korean_10_m
ost_used_ingredients.png}
256: \caption{Top 10 Ingredients
}\label{f:kore10}
259: \begin{figure} [!ht]
260: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/mexican_10_
most_used_ingredients.png}
261: \caption{Top 10 Ingredients
}\label{f:mexic10}
264: \begin{figure} [!ht]
265: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/moroccan_10
_most_used_ingredients.png}
266: \caption{Top 10 Ingredients
}\label{f:morocc10}

```

```

269: \begin{figure} [!ht]
270: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/russian_10_
    most_used_ingredients.png}
271: \caption{Top 10 Ingredients
    }\label{f:russian_10_most_used_ingredients}
274: \begin{figure} [!ht]
275: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/southern_us
    _10_most_used_ingredients.png}
276: \caption{Top 10 Ingredients
    }\label{f:southern_us_10_most_used_ingredients}
279: \begin{figure} [!ht]
280: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/spanish_10_
    most_used_ingredients.png}
281: \caption{Top 10 Ingredients
    }\label{f:spanish_10_most_used_ingredients}
284: \begin{figure} [!ht]
285: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/thai_10_mos
    t_used_ingredients.png}
286: \caption{Top 10 Ingredients
    }\label{f:thai_10_most_used_ingredients}
289: \begin{figure} [!ht]
290: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/vietnamese_
    10_most_used_ingredients.png}
291: \caption{Top 10 Ingredients
    }\label{f:vietnamese_10_most_used_ingredients}
305: Figure \ref{f:ingredient_modularity} shows ingredient cluster of
    more than 1000 nodes. This graph is nice to look at but difficult
    to read due to lot many nodes and edges in the graph.
306: \begin{figure} [!ht]
307: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/ingredient_
    modularity.png}
308: \caption{Ingredient Cluster }\label{f:ingredient_modularity}
311: Figure \ref{f:ingredient_modularity100} shows ingredient cluster
    of around 100 nodes. We generated this graph by reducing nodes
    and edges to make it more readable. This graph provides us with
    our top 5 cuisine clusters.
312: \begin{figure} [!ht]
313: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/ingredient_
    modularity100.png}
314: \caption{ingredient Cluster 100 Nodes
    }\label{f:ingredient_modularity100}

```

figures 28

tables 1

includegraphics 25

labels 29

```
refs 10
floats 29
```

```
True : ref check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
True : label check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
True : include graphics passed: (figures >= includegraphics)
False : check if all figures are referred to: (refs >= labels)
```

```
Label/ref check
passed: True
```

```
When using figures use columnwidth
[width=1.0\columnwidth]
do not change the number to a smaller fraction
```

```
find textwidth
```

```
passed: True
```

```
below_check
```

```
bibtex
```

```
label errors
```

```
bibtex errors
```

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
```

```
bibtex_empty_fields
```

```
entries in general should not be empty in bibtex
```

```
find ""
```

```
passed: True
```

```
ascii
```

```
=====
```

```
The following tests are optional
```

```
=====
```

```
Tip: newlines can often be replaced just by an empty line
```

```
find newline
```

```
passed: True
```

```
cites should have a space before \cite{} but not before the {
```

```
find cite {
```

```
passed: True
```

Comparison between different classification algorithms in Digit Recognizer

Junjie Lu

Indiana University Bloomington
3322 John Hinkle Place
Bloomington, Indiana 47408
junjlu@iu.edu

Yuchen Liu

Indiana University Bloomington
1750 N Range Rd
Bloomington, Indiana 47408
liu477@iu.edu

Wenxuan Han

Indiana University Bloomington
1150 S Clarizz Blvd
Bloomington, Indiana 47401-4294
wenxhan@iu.edu

ABSTRACT

Digit Recognizer is becoming more and more important in many different areas, such as zip code recognizer, banking receipt and balance sheet. Many technology companies are trying to use Big Data to develop more efficient and accurate algorithm for Digit Recognizer. This project uses Digit Recognizer data set from Kaggle.com. There are more than 42000 samples in the data set. Each sample contains 784 features which contain pixel information from a 28×28 graph. Each pixel has a value between 0 to 255. We use binary classification technique for data cleaning and PCA for feature extraction. For the classification model, we choose five most commonly used classification algorithms, which include Decision Tree (DT), Naive Bayes (NB), Logistic Regression (LR), Random Forest (RF) and Support Vector Machine (SVM). From the result, SVM classifier on PCA data produces the highest accuracy with 0.9813. The time spend is 127 seconds. Naive Bayes classifier on PCA data spends the least amount of time to finish the classification task. It takes less one second and reaches a 0.8651 accuracy.

KEYWORDS

I523, HID213, HID214, HID209, Big Data, Digit Recognition, Cross Validation, Decision Tree, Naive Bayes, Logistic Regression, Random Forest, Support Vector Machine

1 INTRODUCTION

People have made a great improvement in digital recognition in recent years. And it plays significant roles in many different areas. Zip code recognizer can scan zip code for post office automatically. Recognizer in banks can help managing user account by scanning their account number. They help people a lot in increasing working efficiency. And many new productions use digital recognition to authenticate password. In this situation, the accuracy and efficiency of recognition become more and more essential and methods in order to increase the accuracy and efficiency are also required.

Fortunately, people have already developed many different types of techniques to avoid faults and decrease running time in recent few years. Several algorithms will be mentioned here. Logistic regression, the most frequently used algorithm in the field of machine learning, also has a good performance in digital recognition. Decision tree is commonly used in decision analysis. It can identify strategies to get a result, in this case, it can also play an important role in digital recognition. Naive Bayes classifier would also be used. Random forest is also a widely used technique in the field of classification and regression. Its special structure with the multitude of decision trees would help it get a fantastic result. Support

vector machine can efficiently perform non-linear classification hence it also be considered frequently. These algorithms have different structures so that they have different performance. We can also observe running time and accuracy of different algorithms with different kind of data. In this paper, we are going to talk about this and make the comparison between algorithms in accuracy and efficiency.

2 EXPERIMENT PREPARATION

In this paper, we choose the data of Digit Recognizer from Kaggle.com in order to test different classification algorithms [5]. The goal of this experiment is to correctly identify digits from a data set of tens of thousands of handwritten images. Thus, we could compare the pros and cons of each technique through the recognition accuracy and time-consuming.

2.1 Data Set Description

In train.csv data file, it contains 42000 gray-scale images of hand-drawn digits, from zero through nine. Each image is a 28×28 pixels matrix with a total of 784 pixels [5]. Each pixel has a single pixel-value which is an integer from 0 to 255 associated with it, indicating the lightness or darkness of that pixel (higher numbers meaning lighter). In this experiment, we have plotted the graph in order to see the appearance of these digits easily. Figure 1 shows the first 70 samples.

[Figure 1 about here.]

The training data set has 785 columns. The first column called “label”, is the digit that was drawn by the user. The rest of the columns contain the pixel-values of the associated image. Each pixel column in the training set has a name like $pixelx$, where x is an integer between 0 and 783. To locate a pixel on the image, suppose that we have decomposed x as $x = i * 28 + j$, where i and j are integers between 0 and 27. Then $pixelx$ is located in row i and column j of this matrix [5]. Visually, if we omit the “pixel” prefix, the pixels make up the image like the following form:

000	001	002	003	...	026	027
028	029	030	031	...	054	055
056	057	058	059	...	082	083
:	:	:	:	:	:	:
728	729	730	731	...	754	755
756	757	758	759	...	782	783

2.2 Data Cleaning

As we mentioned above, it can be seen from both the figure and the pixel-value that the value varies from 0 to 255, which means each feature is a continuous value. Thus, it is possible that such continuous values might affect our later feature selection. Our observation shows that the values are not very high at the boundaries of 0 and > 0 . So here exist three ways to handle it [23]:

- (1) Not do any processing on image;
- (2) Binarize the image. That is, for the values which are 0, keep them as 0; for the values which are greater than 0, change to 1;
- (3) Binarize the image by setting a threshold. That is, for the values which are greater than this threshold, change to 1; otherwise, change to 0.

Obviously, method (2) and (3) will cause the loss of the original information. However, this information may not as important as our expected during the execution of classification algorithms, it could play a positive role in increasing the performance without reducing the accuracy.

In our experiment, we selected method (2) to clean the raw data. The following part of codes shows this operation.

```
from numpy import *

# The data is from 0-255 for each cell.
# Normalize data by set all value > 0 to 1
def data_clean(data):
    m, n = shape(data)
    new_data = zeros((m, n))
    for i in range(m):
        for j in range(n):
            if data[i, j] > 0:
                new_data[i, j] = 1
            else:
                new_data[i, j] = 0

    print("Data clean completed.")
    return new_data
```

2.3 Feature Extraction

Dimension reduction in the field of machine learning refers to using a mapping method to map the data points in the original high-dimensional space into the low-dimensional space. The essence of dimension reduction is to learn a mapping function $f : x -> y$, where x is the expression of the original data point, y is the low-dimensional vector representation after the data point mapping [9].

The reason why we use data after dimension reduction is that the redundant information and noise information are contained in the original high-dimensional space, which reduces the accuracy of our model. By dimension reduction, we hope to reduce the error caused by redundant information and improve the accuracy of identification. We also hope to find the intrinsic structure of the data structure through the dimension reduction algorithm. Also, in this example, there are 784 features in our data. Space, time and computation complexity are all unacceptable. There are many

different dimension reduction algorithms for us to choose. In this project, we choose to use Principle Component Analysis (PCA).

2.3.1 PCA

Principal Component Analysis (PCA) is the most commonly used method of supervised linear dimension reduction. Its goal is to map high-dimensional data to a low-dimensional representation of space by some kind of linear projection. The variance of the data is expected to be maximized in the projected dimension. By keep the variance of data as high as possible, PCA can reduce the dimension of data and keep the loss of information of the data as a minimum [3].

A common understanding is that if all the points are mapped together, almost all information (such as the distance between points) is lost. If the post-mapping variance is as large as possible, the data points are spread apart to preserve more information. It can be proved that PCA is a linear dimension reduction method that loses the original least data information.

One of the questions we faced while we are using PCA is that: how many components should we choose for the model after dimension reduction. In order to solve this problem, we use Explained Variance as our threshold standard. Explained Variance is an important indicator of PCA dimension reduction. The Explained Variance shows the amount of variance explained by each of the selected components. The first column of the PCA model always explains the most variance and the variance explained will keep decrease as the number of column increase. Generally, a dimension with a cumulative contribution rate of about 90% is selected as a reference dimension for PCA dimensionality reduction. In this project, in order to get a more accurate result, we choose 95% as our threshold.

```
from sklearn.decomposition import PCA

def feature_selection(data):
    pca = PCA()
    pca.fit(data)
    ev = pca.explained_variance_
    ev_ratio = []
    for i in range(len(ev)):
        ev_ratio.append(ev[i] / ev[0])

    # select number of component which have a higher ratio
    # than 0.05 with the first components
    n = 0
    for i in range(len(ev_ratio)):
        if ev_ratio[i] < 0.05:
            n = i
            break

    # Then, PCA the model by the number of components
    pca = PCA(n_components=n, whiten=True)
    return pca.fit_transform(data)
```

After calculating the explained variance for each component, we decide to choose 30 components for our model. Which shows that there will be 30 features in our model.

3 EXPERIMENT ALGORITHMS

We aim to select five most commonly used classification algorithms which include Decision Tree, Naive Bayes (NB), Logistic Regression (LR), Random Forest (RF) and Support Vector Machine (SVM). This section offers a broad overview of these algorithms before applying them to the digit recognizer problem to compare their characteristics. Then, the result of the different algorithm on different data will show on a table.

For each algorithm, we use:

- (1) PCA data - data after using PCA to reduce the dimension on raw data
- (2) Clean data - data after our data cleaning process, which set all values greater than 0 to 1 in our data
- (3) PCA Clean daata - data after using PCA to reduce the dimension on clean data after data cleaning process

3.1 Cross-Validation

When we build the model, it is normal to follow the principle of simplification since the simpler model we built, the better performance we will get. However, for some complicated problems, our model will also become more complex which might cause the overfitting problem. In order to solve this problem, we introduce the cross-validation technique. Cross-validation is a technique to evaluate predictive models by partitioning the original sample into a training set to train the model, and a test set to evaluate it [13].

The purpose of cross-validation is to select the model with the optimal parameters. After the model is set up, tuning the parameters is a very time-consuming process. Through cross-validation, we can get the model with the optimal parameters much easier. Here are some steps about cross-validation procedure:

- (1) Prepare the candidate models, M_1, M_2, M_3, \dots (the model framework is consistent, only different on the parameters);
- (2) For each model, use cross-validation to return the accuracy and error rate information of the model, the result should be the average of cross-validation;
- (3) Select the best model by comparing the accuracy or error of the different models.

There are some types of cross-validation which are common to use: K-fold cross-validation and Leave-one-out cross-validation.

- K-fold:

This method is to divide the data set into k subsets. Each time, select one of the k subsets as the test set and the other $k - 1$ subsets become a training set. Then the average accuracy or error across all k trials is computed [13]. In general, we choose 10 as the value of k .

- Leave-one-out (LOO):

This method is K-fold cross-validation taken to its logical extreme, with $k = n$ ($n > k$), the number of data points in the set [13]. That is, it randomly select n samples as a training set and the rest as a test set. Since the time complexity of this cross-validation is factorial, it is not an appropriate method for big data set.

In this project, we use K-fold cross validation technique to reduce over-fitting of our model and increase the accuracy in each model.

We use the function `cross_val_score` from the `sklearn` package. It have several important parameters to set [7].

- (1) CV: int, cross-validation generator or an iterable, optional
This parameter determines the cross-validation splitting strategy, which determined the number of fold we need to use. In our project, we use the default 3-fold cross-validation. Because 3-fold provide us the result in a reasonable time and accuracy.
- (2) Scoring: string, callable or None, optional, default: None
The scoring parameter determines what to return after we call the function. We just this parameter to ‘accuracy’, which will return the accuracy between 0 to 1 for each model.

After we receive the result for each validation, we generate the mean of each result and use the result as the accuracy of the model.

```
from datetime import datetime
from sklearn.cross_validation import cross_val_score

def model_acc(data, label, model):
    start = datetime.now()
    acc = cross_val_score(model, data, label, cv=5,
                          scoring="accuracy").mean()
    end = datetime.now()
    time_use = (end - start).seconds

    print("Time use: ", time_use)
    print("Accuracy by cross validation: ", acc)
```

3.2 Decision Tree

3.2.1 Introduction

Decision tree builds classification or regression models in the form of a tree structure (either binary or non-binary) [17]. Each of its non-leaf nodes represents a test on the characteristic attributes, and each leaf node stores a category. The process of decision making using decision tree has the following steps [19]:

- (1) Start at the root node;
- (2) Test the corresponding characteristic attribute of the items that need to be classified;
- (3) Select the branch based on the value until the leaf node is reached;
- (4) The category of stored in the leaf node is the result.

The decision tree construction process rely on attribute selection metrics in order to choose the attribute which has the capability to divide tuples into different classes best. The key step in constructing a decision tree is split attributes which means to construct different branches according to the different partition of a certain characteristic attribute at a node. The goal of this step is to make each split subset as “pure” as possible. Split attributes are divided into three different situations:

- (1) Attributes are discrete values and do not require to generate a binary decision tree. This time, each partition of an attribute becomes a branch;
- (2) Attributes are discrete values and require to generate a binary decision tree. This time, a subset of attribute partitions is used for testing, broken down two branches according

- to “subordinate to this subset” and “not subordinate to this subset”;
- (3) Attributes are continuous values. This time, determine a value as a *split_point* and generate two branches according to $> \text{split_point}$ and $\leq \text{split_point}$.

There are many attribute selection metric algorithms (e.g. ID3, C4.5, CART, etc.), generally using top-down recursive method with non-backtrack greedy strategy. In our experiment, we applied optimized version of the Classification And Regression Trees (CART) algorithm from scikit-learn library.

The CART algorithm uses a binary recursive segmentation technique [1]: the current sample set is divided into two sub-sample sets, so that each non-leaf node have two branches. Therefore, the decision tree generated by the CART algorithm is a concise binary tree with the root node represents a single input variable (x) and a split point on that variable and the leaf nodes contain an output variable (y) which has the capability to make a prediction [1].

The first key step of CART algorithm is creating the tree model, it examines each variable and all possible partitions of this variable to observe the best partitions. For discrete values such as $U = \{x, y, z\}$, there are three cases of partitions [6]:

$$\{\{x, y\}, \{z\}\}, \{\{x, z\}, \{y\}\}, \{\{y, z\}, \{x\}\}$$

except \emptyset and U ; for continuous values, it introduces the idea of “split point”. Suppose one attribute of a sample has n continuous values, it then has $n - 1$ splitting points where each of them is the average of two consecutive values $(a[i] + a[i + 1])/2$. Partitions of each attribute are sorted by the amount of impurities that they can reduce. The reduction of impurities could use the most popular method of impurity metric which is: Gini index. If we use k ($k = 1, 2, 3, \dots, C$) to represent the class, where C is the dependent variable number of the category set. Thus, the Gini impurity of a Node A could be defined as [6]:

$$Gini(A) = 1 - \sum_{k=1}^C p_k^2$$

Where p_k denotes the probability of observation points which belong to class k . When $Gini(A) = 0$, all samples belong to the same class. When $Gini(A)$ is the maximum, which is $\frac{(C-1)C}{2}$, all classes occur with the same probability in nodes.

The second key idea in the CART process is to prune the trees of the training set with independent validation data sets. Analyzing the recursive tree construction of classification and regression tree, it is easy to find that there exists a data over-fitting problem [1]. In the construction of decision tree, many branches reflect the abnormality in training data due to the noises or outliers inside. Using such decision tree to classify the data with unknown categories, the accuracy of classification is not high. So it is essential to detect and subtract these branches. Generally, tree pruning method uses statistical metrics, subtract the least reliable branches, which results in faster classification and improves the ability to separate correctly from the training data. The CART algorithm often adopts the post-pruning method, which is implemented by pruning the branches in a fully grown tree. By deleting the branch of the node to cut tree nodes, the bottom non-pruned node becomes a leaf.

The following part of codes shows how we called CART algorithm in our experiment.

```
# Import Library
from sklearn import tree

def dt_classifier(data, label, data_type):
    dt_model = tree.DecisionTreeRegressor()
    dt_model.fit(data, label)
    print("Test " + data_type + " using DT: ")

    # Train the model using the training sets and check
    # score
    model_acc(data, label, dt_model)
```

3.2.2 Advantage and Disadvantage

Decision Tree has advantages as follow [4]:

- (1) Decision trees are easy to understand and implement, and people have the ability to understand what the decision tree means by explaining it.
- (2) Data preparation is often simple or unnecessary for decision trees, and other techniques often require first generalizing data, such as removing redundant or blank attributes.
- (3) Feasible and effective results for large data sources in a relatively short period of time.
- (4) Not sensitive to missing values
- (5) Can handle irrelevant feature data
- (6) High efficiency. Decision tree only needs to build once. The maximum number of calculations for each prediction does not exceed the depth of the decision tree

Decision Tree also has disadvantages as follow [4]:

- (1) Hard to predict features with continues value
- (2) Need to do a lot of data reprocessing work for time-series data
- (3) When the category is too large, the error rate may increase.
- (4) It does not look good when dealing with data that has a strong correlation between each feature.

3.2.3 Result

[Table 1 about here.]

From table 1, we can find that the Decision Tree algorithm has a highest accuracy 0.8378 when we using Clean data. That's because the Clean data contains all 784 features in the data set. It has the minimum information loss among all three data set. Clean data also have the longest running time, which is 20 seconds.

PCA Clean Data have the second highest accuracy with the lowest running time. By using the PCA to reduce the dimension of the clean data, the running time reduced a lot. The accuracy only decreases by 0.01, which shows that the process of PCA did not lose a lot of information.

When we use decision tree algorithm, PCA data have the lowest accuracy. That's may because the raw data have may noise and redundant information. After we remove this information from our data pre-processing step, our accuracy increased.

3.3 Naive Bayes

3.3.1 Introduction

Naive Bayes algorithm is a classification technique based on Baye's Theorem with an assumption of independence among predictors [15]. That is to say, a Naive Bayes classifier assumes that the presence of a particular feature in a class is unrelated to the presence of any other feature. For example, we may guess a fruit is an orange if it is yellow, round and about 3 inches in diameter. Even if these features depend on each other, all properties independently contribute to the probability that this fruit is an orange, which explain the term 'Naive' [15].

The Baye's Theorem is particularly useful and not complicated. It solves many problems encountered in our life. The purpose of this theorem is that given a conditional probability of a certain condition, obtain the probability of exchanging two conditions. That is, to get $P(B|A)$ while given $P(A|B)$. $P(A|B)$ is the posterior probability which is also the conditional probability (likelihood) and $P(A)$ or $P(B)$ is called a prior probability. We use the following equation to express this theorem:

$$P(B|A) = \frac{P(A|B)P(B)}{P(A)}$$

The idea of Baye's Theorem is very simple and directly: For the given item which need to be classified, compute the probability of each category under this item. We consider this item belongs to the category with the largest value. The work process of Naive Bayes classification is as follows [20]:

- (1) Let D be the set of training tuples associated with their class labels. Each tuple is represented by an n -dimensional attribute vector $X = x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$;
- (2) Suppose there are m classes C_1, C_2, \dots, C_m . For the given tuple X , the classification algorithm will predict that X belongs to the class with the highest posterior probability. That is, Naive Bayes classification predicts that X belongs to class C_i if and only if $P(C_i|X) > P(C_j|X), 1 \leq j \leq m, j \neq i$. Thus, the class C_1 with the largest $P(C_i|X)$ is called the maximum posterior probability according to the Baye's Theorem: $P(C_i|X) = \frac{P(X|C_i)P(C_i)}{P(X)}$;
- (3) Since $P(X)$ is a constant for all classes, we only require the maximum of $P(C_i|X)P(C_i)$. If the prior probability of a class is unknown, then generally assume these classes are equiprobable (i.e. $P(C_1) = P(C_2) = \dots = P(C_m)$) and maximize $P(C_i|X)$ based on this assumption. Otherwise, maximize $P(C_i|X)P(C_i)$;
- (4) Given a data set with multiple attributes, the computational cost of $P(C_i|X)$ is very large. In order to reduce this cost, we could make the naive assumption about conditional independent of the class. For the label of a given tuple class, assuming the attribute values are conditionally independent. Therefore, we have

$$P(X|C_i) = \prod_{k=1}^n P(x_k|C_i)$$

To examine whether the attribute is classified or continuous value, we need to consider the following two cases:

- (a) If A_k is a classified attribute, then $P(x_k|C_i)$ is the number of tuples of class C_i whose value is x_k for attribute A_k in D divided by the number of tuples of class C_i in D ($|C_i, D|$);
- (b) If A_k is a continuous value attribute, then assume the attribute obeys a Gaussian distribute with the mean η and standard deviation σ , as defined by:

$$g(x, \eta, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{(x-\eta)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

Thus, $P(x_k|C_i) = g(x_k, \eta_{C_i}, \sigma_{C_i})$.

- (5) To predict the label of class X , calculate $P(C_i|X)P(C_i)$ for each class C_i .

The whole Naive Bayes classification could be divided into three stages:

- (1) Preparation stage. The task of this stage is to make the necessary preparation for the Naive Bayes classification. The main work is to determine the characteristic attributes according to the specific situations and make the appropriate partition for each characteristic attribute, and then manually classified some of the items to constitute a training sample set. The input of this stage is all data that need to be classified and the output is the characteristic attribute and the training sample.
- (2) Classifier training stage, the task of this stage is to generate a classifier. The main work is to compute the occurrence frequency of each class in training sample and the conditional probability of all partitions in each category, and then record the results. The input is characteristic attributes and a training sample, the output is a classifier. This stage could be completed automatically by a program.
- (3) Application stage. The task of this stage is to classify items using classifier. The input is classifier and items, and the output is the mapping between items and categories. This stage could also be completed by a program.

The following part of codes shows how we called Naive Bayes algorithm in our experiment.

```
# Import Library
from sklearn.naive_bayes import GaussianNB

def nb_classifier(data, label, data_type):
    nb_model = GaussianNB()
    nb_model.fit(data, label)
    print("Test " + data_type + " using NB: ")

# Train the model using the training sets and check
# score
model_acc(data, label, nb_model)
```

3.3.2 Advantage and Disadvantage

Naive Bayes has advantages as follow [10]:

- (1) Naive Bayesian model originated in classical mathematical theory, which is stable.
- (2) Have a good performance on small-scale data,
- (3) Can handle multi-category tasks.

- (4) For incremental training, especially when the amount of data exceeds memory, we can use batch training to save training time.

Naive Bayes also has disadvantages as follow [10]:

- (1) In theory, the naive Bayes model has the smallest error rate compared to other classification methods. However, this is not always the case. This is because the naive Bayesian model assumes that the features are independent of each other. This assumption often does not hold in practice. When the number of attributes is large or the correlation between attributes is large, the error rate will be huge.
- (2) Need to know the prior probability, and the probability of prior probability depends on the assumption. There are many kinds of hypothetical models, so the prediction results will be poor at some time due to the choice of hypothetical model.
- (3) Because we determine the posterior probability by priority and data to determine the classification, there is a certain error rate in the classification decision.
- (4) Sensitive to the type of raw data.

3.3.3 Result

[Table 2 about here.]

From table 2, we can find that Clean Data have a really low accuracy with the highest time spent. That's because the raw data set did not match the assumption of Naive Bayes. The features are not conditionally independent of each other. The pixels are continues. For example, if pixel1 and pixel3 are both greater than 0, pixel2 will have a more probability to have a value greater than 0.

After we use the dimension reduction technique to reduce the dimension of the data, each component of the data becomes a linear combination of the original data. The new data fits the assumption of Naive Bayes more. Therefore, the PCA Data and PCA Clean Data have a much better performance than Clean Data. They also have the lowest running time compare to any other algorithms.

The PCA Clean Data have the highest accuracy of 0.8710 which higher than the PCA Data. That's may because of the noise and redundant in the original data.

3.4 Logistic Regression

3.4.1 Introduction

Logistic regression is a static regression model with a category of the dependent variable. It uses a binary logistic model to estimate binary response probability on predictor variables. In this case, we can know which specific factor makes influence in the presence of risk increasing odds when getting outcomes. We use logistic regression to find the best fitting model to conclude the relationship between variables. Logistic regression generates the coefficients (and its standard errors and significance levels) of a formula to predict a logit transformation of the probability of the presence of the characteristic of interest [18]:

$$\text{logit}(p) = b_0 + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2 + b_3X_3 + \dots + b_kX_k$$

p is the probability of the presence of the characteristic of interest and odds is logical transformation.

$$\text{adds} = \frac{p}{1-p} = \frac{p(\text{presence of characteristic})}{p(\text{absence of characteristic})}$$

$$\text{logit}(p) = \ln \frac{p}{1-p}$$

There are four ways to input independent variables into the model:

- (1) Enter: enter all variables at the same time
- (2) Forward: enter essential variables one by one
- (3) Backward: enter all variables first and delete non-essential variables one by one
- (4) Stepwise: enter essential variables one by one and check the importance of each variable, delete non-essential ones.

It still has other options:

- (1) Remove variable. Variables would be removed from the model if its significant level is greater than P-value.
- (2) Classification table cutoff value: a value between 0 and 1 which will be used as a cutoff value for a classification table. The classification table is a method to evaluate the logistic regression model. In this table the observed values for the dependent outcome and the predicted values (at the selected cut-off value) are cross-classified [18].
- (3) Categorical: Identify variables in the category.

The following part of codes shows how we called Logistic Regression algorithm in our experiment.

```
# Import Library
from sklearn.linear_model import LogisticRegression

def lr_classifier(data, label, data_type):
    lr_model = LogisticRegression()
    lr_model.fit(data, label)
    print("Test " + data_type + " using LR: ")

    # Train the model using the training sets and check
    # score
    model_acc(data, label, lr_model)
```

3.4.2 Advantage and Disadvantage

Logistic Regression has advantages as follow [11]:

- (1) Very simple to implement and use, widely used in industrial issues
- (2) The amount of computation is very small when classified. Therefore the running time is low and the requirement for the storage space is also low.
- (3) The sigmoid score for each sample is easy to observe. The threshold can be easily determined by user.
- (4) For logistic regression, multicollinearity is not a problem, it can be solved in conjunction with L2 regularization;

Logistic Regression also has disadvantages as follow [11]:

- (1) When the feature space is large, the performance of logistic regression is not very good.
- (2) May have the under-fitting problem, the general accuracy is not high.

- (3) Can only deal with the binary classification problem (based on this, softmax can be used for multi-classification), and must be linearly separable.
- (4) For non-linear features, normalization is required.

3.4.3 Result

[Table 3 about here.]

The result of logistic regression is pretty impressive. This is a 10-categorical classification problem, and logistic regression did a good job on this task.

When we get this result, we are thinking if we having an over-fitting result. Therefore, we add a regularization parameter to penalize the features. We use l2 regularization as our parameter when we create our logistic classifier. We also use cross-validation skill to increase our sample size. The results show that the accuracy is still around 90%. Therefore, we are not having an over-fitting problem.

The running time of logistic regression is relatively high. For Clean Data, it received the accuracy of 0.9064 with 218 seconds. PCA Data and PCA Clean Data have a lower accuracy with a much lower time spend. Also, we noticed that the PCA Data accuracy is a little bit higher than the PCA Clean Data. That's may because the clean data make some of the information loss in the raw data.

3.5 Random Forest

3.5.1 Introduction

Random forest uses a random way to build a forest within many decision trees. There is no correlation between each tree in a random forest [21]. After getting the forest, when a new input sample comes in, each decision tree required to make a judgment separately in order to see which class the sample belongs to (for the classification algorithm), and predict the sample for the category which has most selected.

Random forest is mainly used for regression and classification. It is somewhat similar to the bagging which utilizes decision trees as a basic classifier. Bagging could generate a decision tree after replay a sample in each bootstrap and do not make more intervention while generating these trees. Random forest is also sampling with bootstrap, but the difference is that when constructing each tree, every node variable is generated only in a small number of randomly selected variables. Therefore, not only the samples are random, but also the generation of each node's features. Since the combination classifier is more effective than the single classifier, the random forest could classify the data and give the importance evaluation of each variable.

The basic principle of random forest is to get a new training sample set by selecting k samples from the original training sample set N , and then make up a random forest according to k classification trees. The classification result of the new data depends on the score of the tree votes [14]. In essence, it is an improvement on the decision tree algorithm: it combines multiple decision trees, each tree established depends on an independently sample and has the same distribution. The classification error relies on each the classification ability of a tree and the correlation between them. Feature selection uses a random method to split each node, and then compare the error generated in different situations. The inherent estimation error, classification ability and relevance determine the number of features [14].

Since there are many decision trees in the forest, once a new input sample comes in, each decision tree make a decision to check what the class the sample belongs to, and which one is chosen most to the prediction. There are two selection metrics for decision trees to split attributes [19]:

- (1) Information gain

- (a) $I(s_1, s_2, \dots, s_m) = -\sum_{i=1}^m p_i \log_2(p_i)$, where S is the data set, m is the number of categories, $p_i \approx \frac{|S_i|}{|S|}$ is the probability for any sample belongs to C_i , C_i is a class label and s_i is the number of samples on C_i ;
- (b) The smaller $I(s_1, s_2, \dots, s_m)$, the more ordered of the sample and the better the classification effect;
- (c) Entropy of the subsets partitioned by attribute A : A has V different values, S is partitioned by A into V subsets s_1, s_2, \dots, s_V , where s_{ij} is the number of samples of C_i in subset s_j . Then, we have

$$E(A) = \sum_{j=1}^V \frac{(s_{1j} + \dots + s_{mj})}{s} * I(s_{1j}, \dots, s_{mj})$$

- (d) $G = I(s_1, s_2, \dots, s_m)E(A)$;
- (e) Select the attribute with the maximum information gain as the split attribute.

- (2) Gini index

- (a) Set S contains N categories of records, then its Gini index is the frequency of the occurrence of p_j ;
- (b) If set S is partitioned into m parts s_1, s_2, \dots, s_m , this segmentation is the Gini split;
- (c) Select the attribute with the smallest Gini split as a split attribute.

In order to implement random forest, we should follow these steps:

- (1) The input original training set is N , use bootstrap to extract k samples randomly and build k decision trees;
- (2) Suppose there are m_A variables, then randomly extract m_T variables from each node of each tree to find one of the variables with the highest classification ability in m_T variables. The threshold of the variable classification is determined by checking each classification point;
- (3) Maximize the growth of each tree without any pruning;
- (4) Constitute the random forest with these decision trees. Use random forest to determine and classify the new data, and the results are based on votes amount of the tree classifier.

The following part of codes shows how we called Random Forest algorithm in our experiment.

```
# Import Library
from sklearn.ensemble import RandomForestClassifier

def rf_classifier(data, label, flag):
    rf_model = RandomForestClassifier(n_estimators=100)
    rf_model.fit(data, label)
    print("Test " + flag + " using RF: ")

# Train the model using the training sets and check
# score
model_acc(data, label, rf_model)
```

3.5.2 Advantage and Disadvantage

Random Forest has advantages as follow [2]:

- (1) It can handle very high-dimensional data, and do not have to do feature selection, feature subset is randomly selected
- (2) It can provide which feature is more important after training.
- (3) When creating a random forest, the use of generalization error is an unbiased estimation, which shows that this model has a high generalization ability.
- (4) Easy to make a parallel method, training tree and tree are independent of each other.
- (5) In the training process, the algorithm is able to detect the interaction between the features.
- (6) For unbalanced data sets, it can balance the model automatically.
- (7) If a large part of the features is lost, the model can still maintain the accuracy.

Random Forest also has disadvantages as follow [2]:

- (1) There may be many similar decision trees that mask the real results.
- (2) Small data or low dimensional data may not produce the best classification.
- (3) Much slower than single decision tree algorithm.
- (4) Random forests can be over-fitting on some noisy classifications or regression problems
- (5) For feature with different value range, the more value-separated features will have a greater impact on random forests

3.5.3 Result

[Table 4 about here.]

From table 4, we can find that Clean Data performed perfectly in this case. It takes the shortest time and reached a 0.9647 accuracy.

The result shows an interesting phenomenon: Clean Data cost less time than PCA Data and PCA Clean Data. In order to explain this phenomenon, we have to check what parameter we choose when we build our random forest classifier. From sklearn API document, we can find that the first default parameter is the number of trees in the forest. For all the data, we set the number of trees to the default number, which is 10. However, in Clean Data, many features are correlated to each other, which means that there may many similar decision trees. For PCA Data and PCA Clean Data, most of the features are independent of each other. Therefore, the running time for Clean Data is higher than PCA Data and PCA clean Data.

Also, we know that when there are similar decision trees in the random forest, the real results may be masked. Therefore, although the Clean Data have a really high accuracy, it may still not as good as the PCA Data and PCA Clean Data result. When we running the classifier on an untested data set, the classifier made by PCA Clean Data may have the best performance among the three.

3.6 Support Vector Machine

3.6.1 Introduction

Support vector machines are supervised learning models with associated learning algorithms that analyze data used for classification and regression analysis [22]. It is mostly used in classification. People can plot each data as a point in an n-dimensional space and give each feature a value. Finding the hyperplane which can differentiate two classes very well can complete classification. As for hyperplane, we must know the notation used to define a hyperplane [12]:

$$f(x) = \beta_0 + \beta^T x$$

β is weight and β_0 is bias. The optimal hyperplane can be represented in an infinite number of different ways by scaling of β and β_0 . The one we choose is [12]:

$$|\beta_0 + \beta^T x| = 1$$

x is the training sample who is the most closest to hyperplane. It is known as canonical hyperplane. Distance between point and hyperplane is [12]:

$$\text{distance} = \frac{|\beta_0 + \beta^T x|}{\|\beta\|}$$

$$\text{distance}_{\text{support vector}} = \frac{|\beta_0 + \beta^T x|}{\|\beta\|} = \frac{1}{\|\beta\|}$$

$$M = 2 * \text{distance}_{\text{support vector}} = \frac{2}{\|\beta\|}$$

$$\min L(\beta) = \frac{1}{2} \|\beta\|^2 \text{ subject to } y_i(\beta^T + \beta_0) \geq 1, \forall i$$

In Python, scikit-learn is a widely used library for implementing machine learning algorithms, SVM is also available in the scikit-learn library and follows the same structure (Import library, object creation, fitting model and prediction). Let's look at the below code [16]:

```
# Import Library
from sklearn import svm

# Assumed you have, X (predictor) and Y (target) for
# training data set and x_test(predictor) of test_data
# set

# Create SVM classification object
model = svm.svc(kernel='rbf', C=10)

# there are various option associated with it, like changing
# kernel, gamma and C value
# Train the model using the training sets and check score
model.fit(X, y)
model.score(X, y)

# Predict Output
predicted = model.predict(x_test)
```

The e1071 package in R is used to create Support Vector Machines with ease. It has helper functions as well as code for the Naive Bayes Classifier. The creation of a support vector machine in R and Python follow similar approaches, let's take a look now at the following code [16]:

```

# Import Library
require(e1071) #Contains the SVM

Train <- read.csv(file.choose())
Test <- read.csv(file.choose())

# there are various options associated with SVM training;
# like changing kernel, gamma and C value.

# create model
model <-
  svm(Target~Predictor1+Predictor2+Predictor3,data=Train,
kernel='linear',gamma=0.2, cost=100)

# Predict Output
preds <- predict(model,Test)
table(preds)

```

3.6.2 Advantage and Disadvantage

Support vector machine has advantages as follow:

- (1) More efficient in high dimensional space.
- (2) Effective when the number of samples is smaller than the number of dimensions.
- (3) Can memorize efficiently by using a subset of training sample in decision function.
- (4) Flexible by changing Kernel functions for different customers.

And it also has disadvantages as follow:

- (1) It would over-fitting in choosing Kernel functions when the number of samples is much smaller than the number of features.
- (2) Must pay more attention to regularization term.
- (3) It can only get probability by an expensive five-fold cross-validation instead of calculating directly.

3.6.3 Result

[Table 5 about here.]

By using SVM to build our classifier, we received a really great accuracy score. The PCA Data received a 0.9814 accuracy of 127 seconds. The running complexity of SVM is $O(N^3 + LN^2 + d * L * N)$, which N is the number of support vector choose, L is the number of samples and d is the number of features of the data set. Therefore, SVM algorithm will run really slow on the large data set. Therefore, when we use the Clean Data, which include more than 42000 samples and 784 features, it takes 1029 seconds to finish the job. We also try to use SVM direct on our raw data. It takes forever to get a result.

SVM can get much better results than other algorithms in the small sample training set. SVM has become one of the most commonly used and effective classifiers. By using the concept of margin, a structured description of the data distribution is obtained, thereby reducing the need for data size and data distribution.

SVM model has three very important parameters kernel, C and gamma[8].

- (1) Kernel: string, optional. This parameter specifies the kernel type to be used in the algorithm. There are many different kernels that can be used in SVM. For example, linear, polynomial, sigmoid, Radial basis function (RBF) and pre-computed. In this project, choose to use RBF. Because:
 - (a) The RBF kernel function can map a sample to a higher dimensional space, and the linear kernel function is a special case of RBF. That is to say, if RBF is considered, then it is unnecessary to consider the linear kernel function.
 - (b) Compared with polynomial kernel function, RBF needs to determine fewer parameters, the number of kernel function parameters directly affect the complexity of the function. In addition, when the order of the polynomial is relatively high, the elemental values of the kernel matrix will tend to positive infinity or negative infinity, while the RBF will reduce the numerical calculation difficulties.
 - (c) RBF and sigmoid have similar performance for some parameters.
- (2) C is the penalty coefficient, which shows the tolerance of the bias. If your C is small, it will give you a great distance, but as a trade-off, we have to ignore some misclassified samples; on the other hand, if you have a large C, you will try to correctly classify all the samples, but the price is the margin space will be small. In our example, we choose c equals to 10, which is a relatively large c value, which brings us a more accurate classifier.
- (3) Gamma defines how much influence a single training example has. It determines the distribution of the data after mapping to a new feature space. The larger the gamma is, the less the support vector it will be. The smaller the gamma value is, the more the support vector it will be. The number of support vectors affects the speed of training and prediction. Also, if we set gamma large, it will have the over-fitting problem. Therefore, in this project, we decided to use the default gamma value, which is

$$\text{gamma} = \frac{1}{\text{number of features}}$$

In this task, SVM have a really great performance, the running time is also acceptable.

4 CONCLUSION

[Table 6 about here.]

From table 6, we can easily find that when we use SVM classifier on PCA Data, we will receive the highest accuracy among all 5 different algorithms. The highest accuracy we reached for this project is 0.9813, which shows that our classifier predicts 98.13% of the sample correct by using our SVM classifier. The time of training the model takes 127 seconds. The time spent is acceptable. The accuracy of SVM on PCA Clean Data has the second highest accuracy, which is 0.9785. The difference between first and second highest accuracy is about 0.0028, which is really small. However, the time spent saved 41.1%. Therefore, SVM on PCA Clean Data is also a reasonable choice for the Digit Recognition task.

Random Forest can be explained as a combination of many decision trees. Decision tree can be explained as a special case of Random Forest, which set the number of trees in the Random Forest to 1. Therefore, Random Forest has a much better performance than decision tree in all three data set. As a trade-off, the time spent for Random Forest is much higher than Decision Tree.

Compare to other four Classifiers, Naive Bayes has the fastest training speed. For PCA Data and PCA Clean Data, Naive Bayes Classifier takes less than one second to train the classifier. And for Clean data, which contains all 784 features, it takes only 6 seconds to train the classifier. The reason why Naive Bayes is fast is that:

- (1) The algorithm does not need to iterate to get the result. The running time is approximately linear.
- (2) It makes an assumption of independence between its features, so that parameter estimates can be calculated independently and thus possibly very quickly.
- (3) The prior probability values do not change. Therefore, the prior probability can be calculated and stored in memory in the first place.

However, we have to be very careful about the assumption made by Naive Bayes, or we will get a very low accuracy.

Logistic Regression received an average performance among the 5 algorithms. It achieves a 0.8891 accuracy in 27 seconds on PCA data. However, when we use logistic regression, we have to pay a lot of attention to over-fitting problem. We should use regularization and cross-validation to reduce the probability of over-fitting problems.

To conclude, we decide to use SVM classifier for Digit Recognition Task. We should definitely use feature extraction on the data because of the running time and over-fitting problem. The Binary Data cleaning method is optional. If we want to have higher accuracy, we should not use Binary Data cleaning. As a trade-off, if we want to have faster training speed, we should use Binary Data cleaning.

5 FUTURE IMPROVEMENT

Our analysis is far from perfect. There are several points that we want to point out as discussion and also opportunities for future improvement.

- (1) We can try several more classification algorithms. For example, K^{th} Nearest Neighbour (KNN) and Neural Network. We can use some more complex algorithms too, such as Convolution Neural Network (CNN).
- (2) We can focus more on tune parameter. For example, we can use the Grid Search on SVM to get a better parameter combination.
- (3) We can choose a different Data Cleaning Method. For example, we can set a threshold on data. Any value greater than 50 will be set to 1.
- (4) We can choose a different Feature Extraction or Feature Selection method. For example, LDA. Unlike PCA, LDA is an unsupervised dimension reduction method.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors would like to thank Professor Gregor von Laszewski and all TAs for providing the resource, tutorials and other related materials to write this paper.

REFERENCES

- [1] Jason Brownlee. 2016. Classification And Regression Trees for Machine Learning. (April 2016). <https://machinelearningmastery.com/classification-and-regression-trees-for-machine-learning/>
- [2] Daniel S. Chapman, Aletta Bonn, William E. Kunin, and Stephen J. Cornell. 2009. Random Forest characterization of upland vegetation and management burning from aerial imagery. *Journal of Biogeography* 37, 1 (2009), 37–46. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2699.2009.02186.x>
- [3] Kazuhiro Hotta. 2008. Non-linear feature extraction by linear PCA using local kernel. *2008 19th International Conference on Pattern Recognition* (2008). <https://doi.org/10.1109/icpr.2008.4761721>
- [4] Hemant Ishwaran and J. Sunil Rao. 2009. Decision Tree: Introduction. *Encyclopedia of Medical Decision Making* (2009). <https://doi.org/10.4135/9781412971980.n97>
- [5] Kaggle. 2015. Data Description. (2015). <https://www.kaggle.com/c/digit-recognizer/data>
- [6] Scikit Learn. 2007. Decision Trees. (2007). <http://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/tree.html>
- [7] Scikit Learn. 2007. sklearn model selection cross_val_score. (2007). http://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/generated/sklearn.model_selection.cross_val_score.html
- [8] Scikit Learn. 2007. sklearn svm SVC. (2007). <http://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/generated/sklearn.svm.SVC.html>
- [9] Sheng-Jie Liang, Zhi-Hua Zhang, and Li-Lin Cui. 2010. Feature extraction method Based PCA and KICA. *2010 Second International Conference on Computational Intelligence and Natural Computing* (2010). <https://doi.org/10.1109/cinc.2010.5643821>
- [10] J. Luengo and Rafael Rumi. 2015. Naive Bayes Classifier with Mixtures of Polynomials. *Proceedings of the International Conference on Pattern Recognition Applications and Methods* (2015). <https://doi.org/10.5220/0005166000140024>
- [11] Scott Menard. 2010. Introduction: Linear Regression and Logistic Regression. *Logistic Regression: From Introductory to Advanced Concepts and Applications* (2010), 1–18. <https://doi.org/10.4135/9781483348964.n1>
- [12] OpenCV. 2017. Introduction to Support Vector Machines. (December 2017). https://docs.opencv.org/2.4/doc/tutorials/ml/introduction_to_svm/introduction_to_svm.html
- [13] OpenML. 2013. 10-fold Crossvalidation. (2013). <https://www.openml.org/a/estimation-procedures/1>
- [14] Savan Patel. 2017. Chapter 5: Random Forest Classifier. (May 2017). <https://medium.com/machine-learning-101/chapter-5-random-forest-classifier-56dc7425c3e1>
- [15] Sunil Ray. 2015. 6 Easy Steps to Learn Naive Bayes Algorithm (with codes in Python and R). (September 2015). <https://www.analyticsvidhya.com/blog/2017/09/naive-bayes-explained/>
- [16] Sunil Ray. 2015. Understanding Support Vector Machine algorithm from examples (along with code). (October 2015). <https://www.analyticsvidhya.com/blog/2017/09/understanding-support-vector-machine-example-code/>
- [17] Dr. Saed Sayad. 2010. Decision Tree - Classification. (2010). http://www.saedsayad.com/decision_tree.htm
- [18] MedCalc Software. 2017. Logistic regression. (February 2017). https://www.medcalc.org/manual/logistic_regression.php
- [19] Pang-Ning Tan, Michael Steinbach, and Vipin Kumar. 2006. *Introduction to Data Mining*. Addison Wesley.
- [20] Wikipedia. 2017. Naive Bayes classifier. (December 2017). https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Naive_Bayes_classifier
- [21] Wikipedia. 2017. Random forest. (November 2017). https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Random_forest
- [22] Wikipedia. 2017. Support vector machine. (December 2017). https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Support_vector_machine
- [23] Hui Xiong, Gaurav Pandey, Michael Steinbach, and Vipin Kumar. 2005. Enhancing Data Analysis with Noise Removal. (2005). <https://doi.org/10.21236/ada439494>

A CODE ATTACHMENT

```
##Author: Yuchen Liu HID213, Wenxuan Han HID209, Junjie Lu
##ID214
##Data: 2017.12.01
```

```

##Reference:
    http://blog.csdn.net/tinkle181129/article/details/55261251

from datetime import datetime
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import pandas as pd
from numpy import *
from sklearn import svm
from sklearn import tree
from sklearn.cross_validation import cross_val_score
from sklearn.decomposition import PCA
from sklearn.ensemble import RandomForestClassifier
from sklearn.linear_model import LogisticRegression
from sklearn.naive_bayes import GaussianNB

# 1. read data from csv
def read_data():
    data_set = pd.read_csv("train.csv")
    data = data_set.values[0:, 1:]
    label = data_set.values[0:, 0]
    print("Data load completed.")
    return data, label

# plot 70 samples
def show_pic(data):
    print(shape(data))
    plt.figure(figsize=(7, 7))
    for digit_num in range(0, 70):
        plt.subplot(7, 10, digit_num + 1)
        grid_data = data[digit_num].reshape(28, 28)
        plt.imshow(grid_data, interpolation="none",
                   cmap="afmhot")
        plt.xticks([])
        plt.yticks([])
    plt.tight_layout()
    plt.savefig("data_samples.png")

# 2. Data Cleaning
# The data is from 0-255 for each cell.
# Normalize data by set all value > 0 to 1
def data_clean(data):
    m, n = shape(data)
    new_data = zeros((m, n))
    for i in range(m):
        for j in range(n):
            if data[i, j] > 0:
                new_data[i, j] = 1
            else:
                new_data[i, j] = 0
    print("Data clean completed.")
    return new_data

# 3. Feature Selection by PCA
def feature_selection(data):
    # First, use explained_variance to get recommended
    # number of component
    pca = PCA()
    # pca_parameter = pca.fit(data)

pca.fit(data)
ev = pca.explained_variance_
ev_ratio = []
for i in range(len(ev)):
    ev_ratio.append(ev[i] / ev[0])

# select number of component which have a higher ratio
# than 0.05 with the first components
n = 0
for i in range(len(ev_ratio)):
    if ev_ratio[i] < 0.05:
        n = i
        # print(n)
        break

# Then, PCA the model by the number of components
# pca = PCA(n_components=n, whiten=True)
pca = PCA(n_components=n, whiten=True)
print("Feature selection completed.")
return pca.fit_transform(data)

# 4. Model Selection
def model_acc(data, label, model):
    start = datetime.now()
    acc = cross_val_score(model, data, label,
                          scoring="accuracy").mean()
    end = datetime.now()
    time_use = (end - start).seconds
    print("Time use: ", time_use)
    print("Accuracy by cross validation: ", acc)

def dt_classifier(data, label, data_type):
    dt_model = tree.DecisionTreeRegressor()
    dt_model.fit(data, label)
    print("Test " + data_type + " using DT: ")
    model_acc(data, label, dt_model)

def nb_classifier(data, label, data_type):
    nb_model = GaussianNB()
    nb_model.fit(data, label)
    print("Test " + data_type + " using NB: ")
    model_acc(data, label, nb_model)

def lr_classifier(data, label, data_type):
    lr_model = LogisticRegression()
    lr_model.fit(data, label)
    print("Test " + data_type + " using LR: ")
    model_acc(data, label, lr_model)

def rf_classifier(data, label, flag):
    rf_model = RandomForestClassifier(n_estimators=100)
    rf_model.fit(data, label)
    print("Test " + flag + " using RF: ")
    model_acc(data, label, rf_model)

def svm_classifier(data, label, flag):

```

```

svm_model = svm.SVC(kernel="rbf", C=10)
svm_model.fit(data, label)
# svc_clf = NuSVC(nu=0.1, kernel='rbf', verbose=True)
print("Test " + flag + " using SVM: ")
model_acc(data, label, svm_model)

def main():
    data, label = read_data()
    # show_pic(data)
    clean_data = data_clean(data)

    test_type = 3
    for i in range(1, 3):
        print("In %d test" % i)

        if test_type == 0:
            input_data = data
            str = "raw data"
        elif test_type == 1:
            input_data = clean_data
            str = "clean data"
        elif test_type == 2:
            input_data = feature_selection(data)
            str = "pca data"
        elif test_type == 3:
            input_data = feature_selection(clean_data)
            str = "pca clean data"

        dt_classifier(input_data, label, str)
        nb_classifier(input_data, label, str)
        lr_classifier(input_data, label, str)
        rf_classifier(input_data, label, str)
        svm_classifier(input_data, label, str)

```

main()

LIST OF FIGURES

1 70 samples of hand-drawn digits in this data set.

14

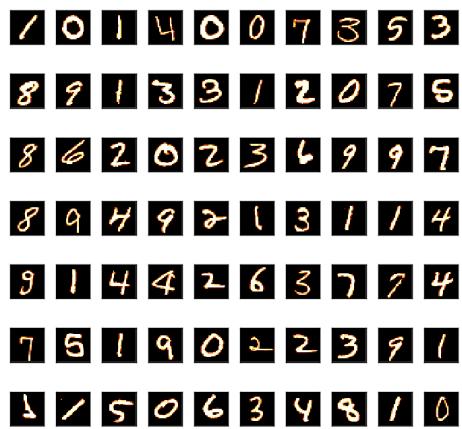


Figure 1: 70 samples of hand-drawn digits in this data set.

LIST OF TABLES

1	Result For Decision Tree	16
2	Result For Navie Bayes	16
3	Result For Logistic Regression	16
4	Result For Random Forest	16
5	Result For Support Vector Machine	17
6	Result For Different Algorithm with Different Data Cleaning & Feature Extraction method	17

	PCA Data	PCA Clean Data	Clean Data
Time	12	9	20
Accuracy	0.8012	0.8234	0.8378

Table 1: Result For Decision Tree

	PCA Data	PCA Clean Data	Clean Data
Time	0	0	20
Accuracy	0.8651	0.8710	0.5397

Table 2: Result For Navie Bayes

	PCA Data	PCA Clean Data	Clean Data
Time	27	21	218
Accuracy	0.8891	0.8862	0.9064

Table 3: Result For Logistic Regression

	PCA Data	PCA Clean Data	Clean Data
Time	126	107	56
Accuracy	0.9483	0.9497	0.9647

Table 4: Result For Random Forest

	PCA Data	PCA Clean Data	Clean Data
Time	127	90	1029
Accuracy	0.9814	0.9785	0.9575

Table 5: Result For Support Vector Machine

	Decision Tree	Naive Bayes	Logistic Regression	Random Forest	Support Vector Machine
PCA Time	12	0	27	126	127
PCA Accuracy	0.8012	0.8651	0.8891	0.9483	0.9813
PCA Clean Time	9	0	21	107	90
PCA Clean Accuracy	0.8234	0.8710	0.8862	0.9497	0.9785
Clean Time	20	6	218	56	1029
Clean Accuracy	0.8378	0.5397	0.9064	0.9647	0.9575

Table 6: Result For Different Algorithm with Different Data Cleaning & Feature Extraction method

bibtext report

=====

This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
Warning--entry type for "cart" isn't style-file defined
--line 5 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "sklearn.cv" isn't style-file defined
--line 57 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "sklearn.dt" isn't style-file defined
--line 68 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "svm.form" isn't style-file defined
--line 117 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "10f.cv" isn't style-file defined
--line 129 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "sp.rfc" isn't style-file defined
--line 139 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "nb.steps" isn't style-file defined
--line 150 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "svm.code" isn't style-file defined
--line 162 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "ss.dt" isn't style-file defined
--line 174 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "lr.form" isn't style-file defined
--line 185 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "wiki.nb" isn't style-file defined
--line 208 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "wiki.rf" isn't style-file defined
--line 219 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "wiki.svm" isn't style-file defined
--line 231 of file report.bib
Warning--no number and no volume in PCA
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in PCA
Warning--no number and no volume in DT
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in DT
Warning--no number and no volume in feature_extra
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in feature_extra
Warning--no number and no volume in NB
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in NB
Warning--no number and no volume in LR
Warning--empty address in intro.dm
Warning--no journal in data_clean
Warning--no number and no volume in data_clean

```
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in data_clean  
(There were 26 warnings)
```

```
bibtext _ label error
```

```
=====
```

```
report.bib:243:@Article{data_clean,  
report.bib:89:@Article{feature_extra,
```

```
=====
```

```
bibtext space label error
```

```
=====
```

```
bibtext comma label error
```

```
=====
```

```
=====
```

```
latex report
```

```
=====
```

```
[2017-12-08 03.59.46] pdflatex report.tex
```

```
This is pdfTeX, Version 3.14159265-2.6-1.40.17 (TeX Live 2016) (preloaded format=pdflatex)
```

```
Missing character: ``"
```

```
Missing character: ``"
```

```
bookmark level for unknown defaults to 0.
```

```
The anchor of a bookmark and its parent's must not be the same. Added a new anchor.
```

```
The anchor of a bookmark and its parent's must not be the same. Added a new anchor.
```

```
Typesetting of "report.tex" completed in 1.3s.
```

```
./README.yml
```

24:81	error	line too long (82 > 80 characters)	(line-length)
45:81	error	line too long (85 > 80 characters)	(line-length)
47:79	error	trailing spaces (trailing-spaces)	
48:81	error	line too long (82 > 80 characters)	(line-length)
48:82	error	trailing spaces (trailing-spaces)	
49:79	error	trailing spaces (trailing-spaces)	
50:81	error	line too long (81 > 80 characters)	(line-length)
50:81	error	trailing spaces (trailing-spaces)	
51:81	error	line too long (89 > 80 characters)	(line-length)
51:89	error	trailing spaces (trailing-spaces)	
52:81	error	line too long (81 > 80 characters)	(line-length)
52:81	error	trailing spaces (trailing-spaces)	
53:81	error	line too long (81 > 80 characters)	(line-length)
53:81	error	trailing spaces (trailing-spaces)	
54:81	error	line too long (86 > 80 characters)	(line-length)
54:86	error	trailing spaces (trailing-spaces)	

```
=====
Compliance Report
=====
```

```
name: Han, Wenxuan
hid: 209
paper1: Oct 29 2017 100%
paper2: 100%
project: Dec 04 17 100%
```

```
yamlcheck
```

```
wordcount
```

```
17
wc 209 project 17 8949 report.tex
wc 209 project 17 9030 report.pdf
wc 209 project 17 719 report.bib
```

```
find "
```

```
152: print("Data clean completed.")

243: acc = cross_val_score(model, data, label, cv=5,
                           scoring="accuracy").mean()

247: print("Time use: ", time_use)

248: print("Accuracy by cross validation: ", acc)

295: print("Test " + data_type + " using DT: ")

388: print("Test " + data_type + " using NB: ")

469: print("Test " + data_type + " using LR: ")

558: print("Test " + flag + " using RF: ")

794: data_set = pd.read_csv("train.csv")
```

```
797: print("Data load completed.")

808: plt.imshow(grid_data, interpolation="none", cmap="afmhot")

812: plt.savefig("data_samples.png")

827: print("Data clean completed.")

854: print("Feature selection completed.")

861: acc = cross_val_score(model, data, label,
    scoring="accuracy").mean()

864: print("Time use: ", time_use)

865: print("Accuracy by cross validation: ", acc)

871: print("Test " + data_type + " using DT: ")

878: print("Test " + data_type + " using NB: ")

885: print("Test " + data_type + " using LR: ")

892: print("Test " + flag + " using RF: ")

897: svm_model = svm.SVC(kernel="rbf", C=10)

900: print("Test " + flag + " using SVM: ")

911: print("In %d test" % i)

915: str = "raw data"

918: str = "clean data"

921: str = "pca data"

924: str = "pca clean data"

passed: False

find footnote
-----
passed: True
```

```
find input{format/i523}
-----
4: \input{format/i523}

passed: True

find input{format/final}
-----
passed: False

floats
-----
108: \begin{figure}
109: \includegraphics[width=0.35\columnwidth]{images/data_samples}

figures 1
tables 0
includegraphics 1
labels 0
refs 0
floats 1

True : ref check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
True : label check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
True : include graphics passed: (figures >= includegraphics)
True : check if all figures are refered to: (refs >= labels)

Label/ref check
106: In train.csv data file, it contains $42000$ gray-scale images of hand-drawn digits, from zero through nine. Each image is a $28 \times 28$ pixels matrix with a total of 784 pixels \cite{kaggle}. Each pixel has a single pixel-value which is an integer from 0 to 255 associated with it, indicating the lightness or darkness of that pixel (higher numbers meaning lighter). In this experiment, we have plotted the graph in order to see the appearance of these digits easily. Figure 1 shows the first 70 samples.
332: From table 1, we can find that the Decision Tree algorithm has a highest accuracy 0.8378 when we using Clean data. That's because the Clean data contains all 784 features in the data set. It has the minimum information loss among all three data set. Clean data also have the longest running time, which is 20 seconds.

passed: False -> labels or refs used wrong
```

When using figures use columnwidth
[width=1.0\columnwidth]
do not change the number to a smaller fraction

find textwidth

passed: True

below_check

WARNING: figure and above may be used improperly

127: As we mentioned above, it can be seen from both the figure and the pixel-value that the value varies from 0 to 255, which means each feature is a continuous value. Thus, it is possible that such continuous values might affect our later feature selection. Our observation shows that the values are not very high at the boundaries of 0 and \$>0\$. So here exist three ways to handle it \cite{data_clean}:

WARNING: code and below may be used improperly

626: In Python, scikit-learn is a widely used library for implementing machine learning algorithms, SVM is also available in the scikit-learn library and follows the same structure (Import library, object creation, fitting model and prediction). Let's look at the below code \cite{svm.code}:

WARNING: algorithm and below may be used improperly

626: In Python, scikit-learn is a widely used library for implementing machine learning algorithms, SVM is also available in the scikit-learn library and follows the same structure (Import library, object creation, fitting model and prediction). Let's look at the below code \cite{svm.code}:

bibtex

label errors

```
89: feature_extra: do not use underscore in labels:  
243: data_clean: do not use underscore in labels:
```

bibtex errors

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)  
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux  
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst  
Database file #1: report.bib  
Warning--entry type for "cart" isn't style-file defined  
--line 5 of file report.bib  
Warning--entry type for "sklearn.cv" isn't style-file defined  
--line 57 of file report.bib  
Warning--entry type for "sklearn.dt" isn't style-file defined  
--line 68 of file report.bib  
Warning--entry type for "svm.form" isn't style-file defined  
--line 117 of file report.bib  
Warning--entry type for "10f.cv" isn't style-file defined  
--line 129 of file report.bib  
Warning--entry type for "sp.rfc" isn't style-file defined  
--line 139 of file report.bib  
Warning--entry type for "nb.steps" isn't style-file defined  
--line 150 of file report.bib  
Warning--entry type for "svm.code" isn't style-file defined  
--line 162 of file report.bib  
Warning--entry type for "ss.dt" isn't style-file defined  
--line 174 of file report.bib  
Warning--entry type for "lr.form" isn't style-file defined  
--line 185 of file report.bib  
Warning--entry type for "wiki.nb" isn't style-file defined  
--line 208 of file report.bib  
Warning--entry type for "wiki.rf" isn't style-file defined  
--line 219 of file report.bib  
Warning--entry type for "wiki.svm" isn't style-file defined  
--line 231 of file report.bib  
Warning--no number and no volume in PCA  
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in PCA  
Warning--no number and no volume in DT  
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in DT  
Warning--no number and no volume in feature_extra  
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in feature_extra  
Warning--no number and no volume in NB  
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in NB  
Warning--no number and no volume in LR  
Warning--empty address in intro.dm
```

```
Warning--no journal in data_clean
Warning--no number and no volume in data_clean
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in data_clean
(There were 26 warnings)
```

```
bibtex_empty_fields
```

```
entries in general should not be empty in bibtex
```

```
find ""
```

```
passed: True
```

```
ascii
```

```
non ascii found 65292
```

```
=====
The following tests are optional
=====
```

```
Tip: newlines can often be replaced just by an empty line
```

```
find newline
```

```
passed: True
```

```
cites should have a space before \cite{} but not before the {
```

```
find cite {
```

```
passed: True
```

Comparison between different classification algorithms in Digit Recognizer

Junjie Lu

Indiana University Bloomington
Bloomington, Indiana 47408
junjlu@iu.edu

Yuchen Liu

Indiana University Bloomington
1750 N Range Rd
Bloomington, Indiana 47408
liu477@iu.edu

Wenxuan Han

Indiana University Bloomington
1150 S Clarizz Blvd
Bloomington, Indiana 47401-4294
wenxhan@iu.edu

ABSTRACT

Digit Recognizer is becoming more and more important in many different areas, such as zip code recognizer, banking receipt and balance sheet. Many technology companies are trying to use Big Data to develop more efficient and accurate algorithm for Digit Recognizer. This project uses Digit Recognizer data set from Kaggle.com. There are more than 42000 samples in the data set. Each sample contains 784 features which contain pixel information from a 28×28 graph. Each pixel has a value between 0 to 255. We use binary classification technique for data cleaning and PCA for feature extraction. For the classification model, we choose five most commonly used classification algorithms, which include Decision Tree (DT), Naive Bayes (NB), Logistic Regression (LR), Random Forest (RF) and Support Vector Machine (SVM). From the result, SVM classifier on PCA data produces the highest accuracy with 0.9813. The time spend is 127 seconds. Naive Bayes classifier on PCA data spends the least amount of time to finish the classification task. It takes less one second and reaches a 0.8651 accuracy.

KEYWORDS

I523, HID213, HID214, HID209, Big Data, Digit Recognition, Cross Validation, Decision Tree, Naive Bayes, Logistic Regression, Random Forest, Support Vector Machine

1 INTRODUCTION

People have made a great improvement in digital recognition in recent years. And it plays significant roles in many different areas. Zip code recognizer can scan zip code for post office automatically. Recognizer in banks can help managing user account by scanning their account number. They help people a lot in increasing working efficiency. And many new productions use digital recognition to authenticate password. In this situation, the accuracy and efficiency of recognition become more and more essential and methods in order to increase the accuracy and efficiency are also required.

Fortunately, people have already developed many different types of techniques to avoid faults and decrease running time in recent few years. Several algorithms will be mentioned here. Logistic regression, the most frequently used algorithm in the field of machine learning, also has a good performance in digital recognition. Decision tree is commonly used in decision analysis. It can identify strategies to get a result, in this case, it can also play an important role in digital recognition. Naive Bayes classifier would also be used. Random forest is also a widely used technique in the field of classification and regression. Its special structure with the multitude of decision trees would help it get a fantastic result. Support

vector machine can efficiently perform non-linear classification hence it also be considered frequently. These algorithms have different structures so that they have different performance. We can also observe running time and accuracy of different algorithms with different kind of data. In this paper, we are going to talk about this and make the comparison between algorithms in accuracy and efficiency.

2 EXPERIMENT PREPARATION

In this paper, we choose the data of Digit Recognizer from Kaggle.com in order to test different classification algorithms [5]. The goal of this experiment is to correctly identify digits from a data set of tens of thousands of handwritten images. Thus, we could compare the pros and cons of each technique through the recognition accuracy and time-consuming.

2.1 Data Set Description

In train.csv data file, it contains 42000 gray-scale images of hand-drawn digits, from zero through nine. Each image is a 28×28 pixels matrix with a total of 784 pixels [5]. Each pixel has a single pixel-value which is an integer from 0 to 255 associated with it, indicating the lightness or darkness of that pixel (higher numbers meaning lighter). In this experiment, we have plotted the graph in order to see the appearance of these digits easily. Figure 1 shows the first 70 samples.

[Figure 1 about here.]

The training data set has 785 columns. The first column called “label”, is the digit that was drawn by the user. The rest of the columns contain the pixel-values of the associated image. Each pixel column in the training set has a name like $pixelx$, where x is an integer between 0 and 783. To locate a pixel on the image, suppose that we have decomposed x as $x = i * 28 + j$, where i and j are integers between 0 and 27. Then $pixelx$ is located in row i and column j of this matrix [5]. Visually, if we omit the “pixel” prefix, the pixels make up the image like the following form:

000	001	002	003	...	026	027
028	029	030	031	...	054	055
056	057	058	059	...	082	083
:	:	:	:	:	:	:
728	729	730	731	...	754	755
756	757	758	759	...	782	783

2.2 Data Cleaning

As we mentioned above, it can be seen from both the figure and the pixel-value that the value varies from 0 to 255, which means each feature is a continuous value. Thus, it is possible that such continuous values might affect our later feature selection. Our observation shows that the values are not very high at the boundaries of 0 and > 0 . So here exist three ways to handle it [23]:

- (1) Not do any processing on image;
- (2) Binarize the image. That is, for the values which are 0, keep them as 0; for the values which are greater than 0, change to 1;
- (3) Binarize the image by setting a threshold. That is, for the values which are greater than this threshold, change to 1; otherwise, change to 0.

Obviously, method (2) and (3) will cause the loss of the original information. However, this information may not as important as our expected during the execution of classification algorithms, it could play a positive role in increasing the performance without reducing the accuracy.

In our experiment, we selected method (2) to clean the raw data. The following part of codes shows this operation.

```
from numpy import *

# The data is from 0-255 for each cell.
# Normalize data by set all value > 0 to 1
def data_clean(data):
    m, n = shape(data)
    new_data = zeros((m, n))
    for i in range(m):
        for j in range(n):
            if data[i, j] > 0:
                new_data[i, j] = 1
            else:
                new_data[i, j] = 0

    print("Data clean completed.")
    return new_data
```

2.3 Feature Extraction

Dimension reduction in the field of machine learning refers to using a mapping method to map the data points in the original high-dimensional space into the low-dimensional space. The essence of dimension reduction is to learn a mapping function $f : x -> y$, where x is the expression of the original data point, y is the low-dimensional vector representation after the data point mapping [9].

The reason why we use data after dimension reduction is that the redundant information and noise information are contained in the original high-dimensional space, which reduces the accuracy of our model. By dimension reduction, we hope to reduce the error caused by redundant information and improve the accuracy of identification. We also hope to find the intrinsic structure of the data structure through the dimension reduction algorithm. Also, in this example, there are 784 features in our data. Space, time and computation complexity are all unacceptable. There are many

different dimension reduction algorithms for us to choose. In this project, we choose to use Principle Component Analysis (PCA).

2.3.1 PCA

Principal Component Analysis (PCA) is the most commonly used method of supervised linear dimension reduction. Its goal is to map high-dimensional data to a low-dimensional representation of space by some kind of linear projection. The variance of the data is expected to be maximized in the projected dimension. By keep the variance of data as high as possible, PCA can reduce the dimension of data and keep the loss of information of the data as a minimum [3].

A common understanding is that if all the points are mapped together, almost all information (such as the distance between points) is lost. If the post-mapping variance is as large as possible, the data points are spread apart to preserve more information. It can be proved that PCA is a linear dimension reduction method that loses the original least data information.

One of the questions we faced while we are using PCA is that: how many components should we choose for the model after dimension reduction. In order to solve this problem, we use Explained Variance as our threshold standard. Explained Variance is an important indicator of PCA dimension reduction. The Explained Variance shows the amount of variance explained by each of the selected components. The first column of the PCA model always explains the most variance and the variance explained will keep decrease as the number of column increase. Generally, a dimension with a cumulative contribution rate of about 90% is selected as a reference dimension for PCA dimensionality reduction. In this project, in order to get a more accurate result, we choose 95% as our threshold.

```
from sklearn.decomposition import PCA

def feature_selection(data):
    pca = PCA()
    pca.fit(data)
    ev = pca.explained_variance_
    ev_ratio = []
    for i in range(len(ev)):
        ev_ratio.append(ev[i] / ev[0])

    # select number of component which have a higher ratio
    # than 0.05 with the first components
    n = 0
    for i in range(len(ev_ratio)):
        if ev_ratio[i] < 0.05:
            n = i
            break

    # Then, PCA the model by the number of components
    pca = PCA(n_components=n, whiten=True)
    return pca.fit_transform(data)
```

After calculating the explained variance for each component, we decide to choose 30 components for our model. Which shows that there will be 30 features in our model.

3 EXPERIMENT ALGORITHMS

We aim to select five most commonly used classification algorithms which include Decision Tree, Naive Bayes (NB), Logistic Regression (LR), Random Forest (RF) and Support Vector Machine (SVM). This section offers a broad overview of these algorithms before applying them to the digit recognizer problem to compare their characteristics. Then, the result of the different algorithm on different data will show on a table.

For each algorithm, we use:

- (1) PCA data - data after using PCA to reduce the dimension on raw data
- (2) Clean data - data after our data cleaning process, which set all values greater than 0 to 1 in our data
- (3) PCA Clean daata - data after using PCA to reduce the dimension on clean data after data cleaning process

3.1 Cross-Validation

When we build the model, it is normal to follow the principle of simplification since the simpler model we built, the better performance we will get. However, for some complicated problems, our model will also become more complex which might cause the overfitting problem. In order to solve this problem, we introduce the cross-validation technique. Cross-validation is a technique to evaluate predictive models by partitioning the original sample into a training set to train the model, and a test set to evaluate it [13].

The purpose of cross-validation is to select the model with the optimal parameters. After the model is set up, tuning the parameters is a very time-consuming process. Through cross-validation, we can get the model with the optimal parameters much easier. Here are some steps about cross-validation procedure:

- (1) Prepare the candidate models, M_1, M_2, M_3, \dots (the model framework is consistent, only different on the parameters);
- (2) For each model, use cross-validation to return the accuracy and error rate information of the model, the result should be the average of cross-validation;
- (3) Select the best model by comparing the accuracy or error of the different models.

There are some types of cross-validation which are common to use: K-fold cross-validation and Leave-one-out cross-validation.

- K-fold:

This method is to divide the data set into k subsets. Each time, select one of the k subsets as the test set and the other $k - 1$ subsets become a training set. Then the average accuracy or error across all k trials is computed [13]. In general, we choose 10 as the value of k .

- Leave-one-out (LOO):

This method is K-fold cross-validation taken to its logical extreme, with $k = n$ ($n > k$), the number of data points in the set [13]. That is, it randomly select n samples as a training set and the rest as a test set. Since the time complexity of this cross-validation is factorial, it is not an appropriate method for big data set.

In this project, we use K-fold cross validation technique to reduce over-fitting of our model and increase the accuracy in each model.

We use the function `cross_val_score` from the `sklearn` package. It have several important parameters to set [7].

- (1) CV: int, cross-validation generator or an iterable, optional
This parameter determines the cross-validation splitting strategy, which determined the number of fold we need to use. In our project, we use the default 3-fold cross-validation. Because 3-fold provide us the result in a reasonable time and accuracy.
- (2) Scoring: string, callable or None, optional, default: None
The scoring parameter determines what to return after we call the function. We just this parameter to ‘accuracy’, which will return the accuracy between 0 to 1 for each model.

After we receive the result for each validation, we generate the mean of each result and use the result as the accuracy of the model.

```
from datetime import datetime
from sklearn.cross_validation import cross_val_score

def model_acc(data, label, model):
    start = datetime.now()
    acc = cross_val_score(model, data, label, cv=5,
                          scoring="accuracy").mean()
    end = datetime.now()
    time_use = (end - start).seconds

    print("Time use: ", time_use)
    print("Accuracy by cross validation: ", acc)
```

3.2 Decision Tree

3.2.1 Introduction

Decision tree builds classification or regression models in the form of a tree structure (either binary or non-binary) [17]. Each of its non-leaf nodes represents a test on the characteristic attributes, and each leaf node stores a category. The process of decision making using decision tree has the following steps [19]:

- (1) Start at the root node;
- (2) Test the corresponding characteristic attribute of the items that need to be classified;
- (3) Select the branch based on the value until the leaf node is reached;
- (4) The category of stored in the leaf node is the result.

The decision tree construction process rely on attribute selection metrics in order to choose the attribute which has the capability to divide tuples into different classes best. The key step in constructing a decision tree is split attributes which means to construct different branches according to the different partition of a certain characteristic attribute at a node. The goal of this step is to make each split subset as “pure” as possible. Split attributes are divided into three different situations:

- (1) Attributes are discrete values and do not require to generate a binary decision tree. This time, each partition of an attribute becomes a branch;
- (2) Attributes are discrete values and require to generate a binary decision tree. This time, a subset of attribute partitions is used for testing, broken down two branches according

- to “subordinate to this subset” and “not subordinate to this subset”;
- (3) Attributes are continuous values. This time, determine a value as a *split_point* and generate two branches according to $> \text{split_point}$ and $\leq \text{split_point}$.

There are many attribute selection metric algorithms (e.g. ID3, C4.5, CART, etc.), generally using top-down recursive method with non-backtrack greedy strategy. In our experiment, we applied optimized version of the Classification And Regression Trees (CART) algorithm from scikit-learn library.

The CART algorithm uses a binary recursive segmentation technique [1]: the current sample set is divided into two sub-sample sets, so that each non-leaf node have two branches. Therefore, the decision tree generated by the CART algorithm is a concise binary tree with the root node represents a single input variable (x) and a split point on that variable and the leaf nodes contain an output variable (y) which has the capability to make a prediction [1].

The first key step of CART algorithm is creating the tree model, it examines each variable and all possible partitions of this variable to observe the best partitions. For discrete values such as $U = \{x, y, z\}$, there are three cases of partitions [6]:

$$\{\{x, y\}, \{z\}\}, \{\{x, z\}, \{y\}\}, \{\{y, z\}, \{x\}\}$$

except \emptyset and U ; for continuous values, it introduces the idea of “split point”. Suppose one attribute of a sample has n continuous values, it then has $n - 1$ splitting points where each of them is the average of two consecutive values $(a[i] + a[i + 1])/2$. Partitions of each attribute are sorted by the amount of impurities that they can reduce. The reduction of impurities could use the most popular method of impurity metric which is: Gini index. If we use k ($k = 1, 2, 3, \dots, C$) to represent the class, where C is the dependent variable number of the category set. Thus, the Gini impurity of a Node A could be defined as [6]:

$$Gini(A) = 1 - \sum_{k=1}^C p_k^2$$

Where p_k denotes the probability of observation points which belong to class k . When $Gini(A) = 0$, all samples belong to the same class. When $Gini(A)$ is the maximum, which is $\frac{(C-1)C}{2}$, all classes occur with the same probability in nodes.

The second key idea in the CART process is to prune the trees of the training set with independent validation data sets. Analyzing the recursive tree construction of classification and regression tree, it is easy to find that there exists a data over-fitting problem [1]. In the construction of decision tree, many branches reflect the abnormality in training data due to the noises or outliers inside. Using such decision tree to classify the data with unknown categories, the accuracy of classification is not high. So it is essential to detect and subtract these branches. Generally, tree pruning method uses statistical metrics, subtract the least reliable branches, which results in faster classification and improves the ability to separate correctly from the training data. The CART algorithm often adopts the post-pruning method, which is implemented by pruning the branches in a fully grown tree. By deleting the branch of the node to cut tree nodes, the bottom non-pruned node becomes a leaf.

The following part of codes shows how we called CART algorithm in our experiment.

```
# Import Library
from sklearn import tree

def dt_classifier(data, label, data_type):
    dt_model = tree.DecisionTreeRegressor()
    dt_model.fit(data, label)
    print("Test " + data_type + " using DT: ")

    # Train the model using the training sets and check
    # score
    model_acc(data, label, dt_model)
```

3.2.2 Advantage and Disadvantage

Decision Tree has advantages as follow [4]:

- (1) Decision trees are easy to understand and implement, and people have the ability to understand what the decision tree means by explaining it.
- (2) Data preparation is often simple or unnecessary for decision trees, and other techniques often require first generalizing data, such as removing redundant or blank attributes.
- (3) Feasible and effective results for large data sources in a relatively short period of time.
- (4) Not sensitive to missing values
- (5) Can handle irrelevant feature data
- (6) High efficiency. Decision tree only needs to build once. The maximum number of calculations for each prediction does not exceed the depth of the decision tree

Decision Tree also has disadvantages as follow [4]:

- (1) Hard to predict features with continues value
- (2) Need to do a lot of data reprocessing work for time-series data
- (3) When the category is too large, the error rate may increase.
- (4) It does not look good when dealing with data that has a strong correlation between each feature.

3.2.3 Result

[Table 1 about here.]

From table 1, we can find that the Decision Tree algorithm has a highest accuracy 0.8378 when we using Clean data. That's because the Clean data contains all 784 features in the data set. It has the minimum information loss among all three data set. Clean data also have the longest running time, which is 20 seconds.

PCA Clean Data have the second highest accuracy with the lowest running time. By using the PCA to reduce the dimension of the clean data, the running time reduced a lot. The accuracy only decreases by 0.01, which shows that the process of PCA did not lose a lot of information.

When we use decision tree algorithm, PCA data have the lowest accuracy. That's may because the raw data have may noise and redundant information. After we remove this information from our data pre-processing step, our accuracy increased.

3.3 Naive Bayes

3.3.1 Introduction

Naive Bayes algorithm is a classification technique based on Baye's Theorem with an assumption of independence among predictors [15]. That is to say, a Naive Bayes classifier assumes that the presence of a particular feature in a class is unrelated to the presence of any other feature. For example, we may guess a fruit is an orange if it is yellow, round and about 3 inches in diameter. Even if these features depend on each other, all properties independently contribute to the probability that this fruit is an orange, which explain the term 'Naive' [15].

The Baye's Theorem is particularly useful and not complicated. It solves many problems encountered in our life. The purpose of this theorem is that given a conditional probability of a certain condition, obtain the probability of exchanging two conditions. That is, to get $P(B|A)$ while given $P(A|B)$. $P(A|B)$ is the posterior probability which is also the conditional probability (likelihood) and $P(A)$ or $P(B)$ is called a prior probability. We use the following equation to express this theorem:

$$P(B|A) = \frac{P(A|B)P(B)}{P(A)}$$

The idea of Baye's Theorem is very simple and directly: For the given item which need to be classified, compute the probability of each category under this item. We consider this item belongs to the category with the largest value. The work process of Naive Bayes classification is as follows [20]:

- (1) Let D be the set of training tuples associated with their class labels. Each tuple is represented by an n -dimensional attribute vector $X = x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$;
- (2) Suppose there are m classes C_1, C_2, \dots, C_m . For the given tuple X , the classification algorithm will predict that X belongs to the class with the highest posterior probability. That is, Naive Bayes classification predicts that X belongs to class C_i if and only if $P(C_i|X) > P(C_j|X), 1 \leq j \leq m, j \neq i$. Thus, the class C_1 with the largest $P(C_i|X)$ is called the maximum posterior probability according to the Baye's Theorem: $P(C_i|X) = \frac{P(X|C_i)P(C_i)}{P(X)}$;
- (3) Since $P(X)$ is a constant for all classes, we only require the maximum of $P(C_i|X)P(C_i)$. If the prior probability of a class is unknown, then generally assume these classes are equiprobable (i.e. $P(C_1) = P(C_2) = \dots = P(C_m)$) and maximize $P(C_i|X)$ based on this assumption. Otherwise, maximize $P(C_i|X)P(C_i)$;
- (4) Given a data set with multiple attributes, the computational cost of $P(C_i|X)$ is very large. In order to reduce this cost, we could make the naive assumption about conditional independent of the class. For the label of a given tuple class, assuming the attribute values are conditionally independent. Therefore, we have

$$P(X|C_i) = \prod_{k=1}^n P(x_k|C_i)$$

To examine whether the attribute is classified or continuous value, we need to consider the following two cases:

- (a) If A_k is a classified attribute, then $P(x_k|C_i)$ is the number of tuples of class C_i whose value is x_k for attribute A_k in D divided by the number of tuples of class C_i in D ($|C_i, D|$);
- (b) If A_k is a continuous value attribute, then assume the attribute obeys a Gaussian distribute with the mean η and standard deviation σ , as defined by:

$$g(x, \eta, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{(x-\eta)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

Thus, $P(x_k|C_i) = g(x_k, \eta_{C_i}, \sigma_{C_i})$.

- (5) To predict the label of class X , calculate $P(C_i|X)P(C_i)$ for each class C_i .

The whole Naive Bayes classification could be divided into three stages:

- (1) Preparation stage. The task of this stage is to make the necessary preparation for the Naive Bayes classification. The main work is to determine the characteristic attributes according to the specific situations and make the appropriate partition for each characteristic attribute, and then manually classified some of the items to constitute a training sample set. The input of this stage is all data that need to be classified and the output is the characteristic attribute and the training sample.
- (2) Classifier training stage, the task of this stage is to generate a classifier. The main work is to compute the occurrence frequency of each class in training sample and the conditional probability of all partitions in each category, and then record the results. The input is characteristic attributes and a training sample, the output is a classifier. This stage could be completed automatically by a program.
- (3) Application stage. The task of this stage is to classify items using classifier. The input is classifier and items, and the output is the mapping between items and categories. This stage could also be completed by a program.

The following part of codes shows how we called Naive Bayes algorithm in our experiment.

```
# Import Library
from sklearn.naive_bayes import GaussianNB

def nb_classifier(data, label, data_type):
    nb_model = GaussianNB()
    nb_model.fit(data, label)
    print("Test " + data_type + " using NB: ")

# Train the model using the training sets and check
# score
model_acc(data, label, nb_model)
```

3.3.2 Advantage and Disadvantage

Naive Bayes has advantages as follow [10]:

- (1) Naive Bayesian model originated in classical mathematical theory, which is stable.
- (2) Have a good performance on small-scale data,
- (3) Can handle multi-category tasks.

- (4) For incremental training, especially when the amount of data exceeds memory, we can use batch training to save training time.

Naive Bayes also has disadvantages as follow [10]:

- (1) In theory, the naive Bayes model has the smallest error rate compared to other classification methods. However, this is not always the case. This is because the naive Bayesian model assumes that the features are independent of each other. This assumption often does not hold in practice. When the number of attributes is large or the correlation between attributes is large, the error rate will be huge.
- (2) Need to know the prior probability, and the probability of prior probability depends on the assumption. There are many kinds of hypothetical models, so the prediction results will be poor at some time due to the choice of hypothetical model.
- (3) Because we determine the posterior probability by priority and data to determine the classification, there is a certain error rate in the classification decision.
- (4) Sensitive to the type of raw data.

3.3.3 Result

[Table 2 about here.]

From table 2, we can find that Clean Data have a really low accuracy with the highest time spent. That's because the raw data set did not match the assumption of Naive Bayes. The features are not conditionally independent of each other. The pixels are continues. For example, if pixel1 and pixel3 are both greater than 0, pixel2 will have a more probability to have a value greater than 0.

After we use the dimension reduction technique to reduce the dimension of the data, each component of the data becomes a linear combination of the original data. The new data fits the assumption of Naive Bayes more. Therefore, the PCA Data and PCA Clean Data have a much better performance than Clean Data. They also have the lowest running time compare to any other algorithms.

The PCA Clean Data have the highest accuracy of 0.8710 which higher than the PCA Data. That's may because of the noise and redundant in the original data.

3.4 Logistic Regression

3.4.1 Introduction

Logistic regression is a static regression model with a category of the dependent variable. It uses a binary logistic model to estimate binary response probability on predictor variables. In this case, we can know which specific factor makes influence in the presence of risk increasing odds when getting outcomes. We use logistic regression to find the best fitting model to conclude the relationship between variables. Logistic regression generates the coefficients (and its standard errors and significance levels) of a formula to predict a logit transformation of the probability of the presence of the characteristic of interest [18]:

$$\text{logit}(p) = b_0 + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2 + b_3X_3 + \dots + b_kX_k$$

p is the probability of the presence of the characteristic of interest and odds is logical transformation.

$$\text{adds} = \frac{p}{1-p} = \frac{p(\text{presence of characteristic})}{p(\text{absence of characteristic})}$$

$$\text{logit}(p) = \ln \frac{p}{1-p}$$

There are four ways to input independent variables into the model:

- (1) Enter: enter all variables at the same time
- (2) Forward: enter essential variables one by one
- (3) Backward: enter all variables first and delete non-essential variables one by one
- (4) Stepwise: enter essential variables one by one and check the importance of each variable, delete non-essential ones.

It still has other options:

- (1) Remove variable. Variables would be removed from the model if its significant level is greater than P-value.
- (2) Classification table cutoff value: a value between 0 and 1 which will be used as a cutoff value for a classification table. The classification table is a method to evaluate the logistic regression model. In this table the observed values for the dependent outcome and the predicted values (at the selected cut-off value) are cross-classified [18].
- (3) Categorical: Identify variables in the category.

The following part of codes shows how we called Logistic Regression algorithm in our experiment.

```
# Import Library
from sklearn.linear_model import LogisticRegression

def lr_classifier(data, label, data_type):
    lr_model = LogisticRegression()
    lr_model.fit(data, label)
    print("Test " + data_type + " using LR: ")

    # Train the model using the training sets and check
    # score
    model_acc(data, label, lr_model)
```

3.4.2 Advantage and Disadvantage

Logistic Regression has advantages as follow [11]:

- (1) Very simple to implement and use, widely used in industrial issues
- (2) The amount of computation is very small when classified. Therefore the running time is low and the requirement for the storage space is also low.
- (3) The sigmoid score for each sample is easy to observe. The threshold can be easily determined by user.
- (4) For logistic regression, multicollinearity is not a problem, it can be solved in conjunction with L2 regularization;

Logistic Regression also has disadvantages as follow [11]:

- (1) When the feature space is large, the performance of logistic regression is not very good.
- (2) May have the under-fitting problem, the general accuracy is not high.

- (3) Can only deal with the binary classification problem (based on this, softmax can be used for multi-classification), and must be linearly separable.
- (4) For non-linear features, normalization is required.

3.4.3 Result

[Table 3 about here.]

The result of logistic regression is pretty impressive. This is a 10-categorical classification problem, and logistic regression did a good job on this task.

When we get this result, we are thinking if we having an over-fitting result. Therefore, we add a regularization parameter to penalize the features. We use l2 regularization as our parameter when we create our logistic classifier. We also use cross-validation skill to increase our sample size. The results show that the accuracy is still around 90%. Therefore, we are not having an over-fitting problem.

The running time of logistic regression is relatively high. For Clean Data, it received the accuracy of 0.9064 with 218 seconds. PCA Data and PCA Clean Data have a lower accuracy with a much lower time spend. Also, we noticed that the PCA Data accuracy is a little bit higher than the PCA Clean Data. That's may because the clean data make some of the information loss in the raw data.

3.5 Random Forest

3.5.1 Introduction

Random forest uses a random way to build a forest within many decision trees. There is no correlation between each tree in a random forest [21]. After getting the forest, when a new input sample comes in, each decision tree required to make a judgment separately in order to see which class the sample belongs to (for the classification algorithm), and predict the sample for the category which has most selected.

Random forest is mainly used for regression and classification. It is somewhat similar to the bagging which utilizes decision trees as a basic classifier. Bagging could generate a decision tree after replay a sample in each bootstrap and do not make more intervention while generating these trees. Random forest is also sampling with bootstrap, but the difference is that when constructing each tree, every node variable is generated only in a small number of randomly selected variables. Therefore, not only the samples are random, but also the generation of each node's features. Since the combination classifier is more effective than the single classifier, the random forest could classify the data and give the importance evaluation of each variable.

The basic principle of random forest is to get a new training sample set by selecting k samples from the original training sample set N , and then make up a random forest according to k classification trees. The classification result of the new data depends on the score of the tree votes [14]. In essence, it is an improvement on the decision tree algorithm: it combines multiple decision trees, each tree established depends on an independently sample and has the same distribution. The classification error relies on each the classification ability of a tree and the correlation between them. Feature selection uses a random method to split each node, and then compare the error generated in different situations. The inherent estimation error, classification ability and relevance determine the number of features [14].

Since there are many decision trees in the forest, once a new input sample comes in, each decision tree make a decision to check what the class the sample belongs to, and which one is chosen most to the prediction. There are two selection metrics for decision trees to split attributes [19]:

- (1) Information gain

- (a) $I(s_1, s_2, \dots, s_m) = -\sum_{i=1}^m p_i \log_2(p_i)$, where S is the data set, m is the number of categories, $p_i \approx \frac{|S_i|}{|S|}$ is the probability for any sample belongs to C_i , C_i is a class label and s_i is the number of samples on C_i ;
- (b) The smaller $I(s_1, s_2, \dots, s_m)$, the more ordered of the sample and the better the classification effect;
- (c) Entropy of the subsets partitioned by attribute A : A has V different values, S is partitioned by A into V subsets s_1, s_2, \dots, s_V , where s_{ij} is the number of samples of C_i in subset s_j . Then, we have

$$E(A) = \sum_{j=1}^V \frac{(s_{1j} + \dots + s_{mj})}{s} * I(s_{1j}, \dots, s_{mj})$$

- (d) $G = I(s_1, s_2, \dots, s_m)E(A)$;
- (e) Select the attribute with the maximum information gain as the split attribute.

- (2) Gini index

- (a) Set S contains N categories of records, then its Gini index is the frequency of the occurrence of p_j ;
- (b) If set S is partitioned into m parts s_1, s_2, \dots, s_m , this segmentation is the Gini split;
- (c) Select the attribute with the smallest Gini split as a split attribute.

In order to implement random forest, we should follow these steps:

- (1) The input original training set is N , use bootstrap to extract k samples randomly and build k decision trees;
- (2) Suppose there are m_A variables, then randomly extract m_T variables from each node of each tree to find one of the variables with the highest classification ability in m_T variables. The threshold of the variable classification is determined by checking each classification point;
- (3) Maximize the growth of each tree without any pruning;
- (4) Constitute the random forest with these decision trees. Use random forest to determine and classify the new data, and the results are based on votes amount of the tree classifier.

The following part of codes shows how we called Random Forest algorithm in our experiment.

```
# Import Library
from sklearn.ensemble import RandomForestClassifier

def rf_classifier(data, label, flag):
    rf_model = RandomForestClassifier(n_estimators=100)
    rf_model.fit(data, label)
    print("Test " + flag + " using RF: ")

# Train the model using the training sets and check
# score
model_acc(data, label, rf_model)
```

3.5.2 Advantage and Disadvantage

Random Forest has advantages as follow [2]:

- (1) It can handle very high-dimensional data, and do not have to do feature selection, feature subset is randomly selected
- (2) It can provide which feature is more important after training.
- (3) When creating a random forest, the use of generalization error is an unbiased estimation, which shows that this model has a high generalization ability.
- (4) Easy to make a parallel method, training tree and tree are independent of each other.
- (5) In the training process, the algorithm is able to detect the interaction between the features.
- (6) For unbalanced data sets, it can balance the model automatically.
- (7) If a large part of the features is lost, the model can still maintain the accuracy.

Random Forest also has disadvantages as follow [2]:

- (1) There may be many similar decision trees that mask the real results.
- (2) Small data or low dimensional data may not produce the best classification.
- (3) Much slower than single decision tree algorithm.
- (4) Random forests can be over-fitting on some noisy classifications or regression problems
- (5) For feature with different value range, the more value-separated features will have a greater impact on random forests

3.5.3 Result

[Table 4 about here.]

From table 4, we can find that Clean Data performed perfectly in this case. It takes the shortest time and reached a 0.9647 accuracy.

The result shows an interesting phenomenon: Clean Data cost less time than PCA Data and PCA Clean Data. In order to explain this phenomenon, we have to check what parameter we choose when we build our random forest classifier. From sklearn API document, we can find that the first default parameter is the number of trees in the forest. For all the data, we set the number of trees to the default number, which is 10. However, in Clean Data, many features are correlated to each other, which means that there may many similar decision trees. For PCA Data and PCA Clean Data, most of the features are independent of each other. Therefore, the running time for Clean Data is higher than PCA Data and PCA clean Data.

Also, we know that when there are similar decision trees in the random forest, the real results may be masked. Therefore, although the Clean Data have a really high accuracy, it may still not as good as the PCA Data and PCA Clean Data result. When we running the classifier on an untested data set, the classifier made by PCA Clean Data may have the best performance among the three.

3.6 Support Vector Machine

3.6.1 Introduction

Support vector machines are supervised learning models with associated learning algorithms that analyze data used for classification and regression analysis [22]. It is mostly used in classification. People can plot each data as a point in an n-dimensional space and give each feature a value. Finding the hyperplane which can differentiate two classes very well can complete classification. As for hyperplane, we must know the notation used to define a hyperplane [12]:

$$f(x) = \beta_0 + \beta^T x$$

β is weight and β_0 is bias. The optimal hyperplane can be represented in an infinite number of different ways by scaling of β and β_0 . The one we choose is [12]:

$$|\beta_0 + \beta^T x| = 1$$

x is the training sample who is the most closest to hyperplane. It is known as canonical hyperplane. Distance between point and hyperplane is [12]:

$$\text{distance} = \frac{|\beta_0 + \beta^T x|}{\|\beta\|}$$

$$\text{distance}_{\text{support vector}} = \frac{|\beta_0 + \beta^T x|}{\|\beta\|} = \frac{1}{\|\beta\|}$$

$$M = 2 * \text{distance}_{\text{support vector}} = \frac{2}{\|\beta\|}$$

$$\min L(\beta) = \frac{1}{2} \|\beta\|^2 \text{ subject to } y_i(\beta^T + \beta_0) \geq 1, \forall i$$

In Python, scikit-learn is a widely used library for implementing machine learning algorithms, SVM is also available in the scikit-learn library and follows the same structure (Import library, object creation, fitting model and prediction). Let's look at the below code [16]:

```
# Import Library
from sklearn import svm

# Assumed you have, X (predictor) and Y (target) for
# training data set and x_test(predictor) of test_data
# set

# Create SVM classification object
model = svm.svc(kernel='rbf', C=10)

# there are various option associated with it, like changing
# kernel, gamma and C value
# Train the model using the training sets and check score
model.fit(X, y)
model.score(X, y)

# Predict Output
predicted = model.predict(x_test)
```

The e1071 package in R is used to create Support Vector Machines with ease. It has helper functions as well as code for the Naive Bayes Classifier. The creation of a support vector machine in R and Python follow similar approaches, let's take a look now at the following code [16]:

```

# Import Library
require(e1071) #Contains the SVM

Train <- read.csv(file.choose())
Test <- read.csv(file.choose())

# there are various options associated with SVM training;
# like changing kernel, gamma and C value.

# create model
model <-
  svm(Target~Predictor1+Predictor2+Predictor3,data=Train,
kernel='linear',gamma=0.2, cost=100)

# Predict Output
preds <- predict(model,Test)
table(preds)

```

3.6.2 Advantage and Disadvantage

Support vector machine has advantages as follow:

- (1) More efficient in high dimensional space.
- (2) Effective when the number of samples is smaller than the number of dimensions.
- (3) Can memorize efficiently by using a subset of training sample in decision function.
- (4) Flexible by changing Kernel functions for different customers.

And it also has disadvantages as follow:

- (1) It would over-fitting in choosing Kernel functions when the number of samples is much smaller than the number of features.
- (2) Must pay more attention to regularization term.
- (3) It can only get probability by an expensive five-fold cross-validation instead of calculating directly.

3.6.3 Result

[Table 5 about here.]

By using SVM to build our classifier, we received a really great accuracy score. The PCA Data received a 0.9814 accuracy of 127 seconds. The running complexity of SVM is $O(N^3 + LN^2 + d * L * N)$, which N is the number of support vector choose, L is the number of samples and d is the number of features of the data set. Therefore, SVM algorithm will run really slow on the large data set. Therefore, when we use the Clean Data, which include more than 42000 samples and 784 features, it takes 1029 seconds to finish the job. We also try to use SVM direct on our raw data. It takes forever to get a result.

SVM can get much better results than other algorithms in the small sample training set. SVM has become one of the most commonly used and effective classifiers. By using the concept of margin, a structured description of the data distribution is obtained, thereby reducing the need for data size and data distribution.

SVM model has three very important parameters kernel, C and gamma[8].

- (1) Kernel: string, optional. This parameter specifies the kernel type to be used in the algorithm. There are many different kernels that can be used in SVM. For example, linear, polynomial, sigmoid, Radial basis function (RBF) and pre-computed. In this project, choose to use RBF. Because:
 - (a) The RBF kernel function can map a sample to a higher dimensional space, and the linear kernel function is a special case of RBF. That is to say, if RBF is considered, then it is unnecessary to consider the linear kernel function.
 - (b) Compared with polynomial kernel function, RBF needs to determine fewer parameters, the number of kernel function parameters directly affect the complexity of the function. In addition, when the order of the polynomial is relatively high, the elemental values of the kernel matrix will tend to positive infinity or negative infinity, while the RBF will reduce the numerical calculation difficulties.
 - (c) RBF and sigmoid have similar performance for some parameters.
- (2) C is the penalty coefficient, which shows the tolerance of the bias. If your C is small, it will give you a great distance, but as a trade-off, we have to ignore some misclassified samples; on the other hand, if you have a large C, you will try to correctly classify all the samples, but the price is the margin space will be small. In our example, we choose c equals to 10, which is a relatively large c value, which brings us a more accurate classifier.
- (3) Gamma defines how much influence a single training example has. It determines the distribution of the data after mapping to a new feature space. The larger the gamma is, the less the support vector it will be. The smaller the gamma value is, the more the support vector it will be. The number of support vectors affects the speed of training and prediction. Also, if we set gamma large, it will have the over-fitting problem. Therefore, in this project, we decided to use the default gamma value, which is

$$\text{gamma} = \frac{1}{\text{number of features}}$$

In this task, SVM have a really great performance, the running time is also acceptable.

4 CONCLUSION

[Table 6 about here.]

From table 6, we can easily find that when we use SVM classifier on PCA Data, we will receive the highest accuracy among all 5 different algorithms. The highest accuracy we reached for this project is 0.9813, which shows that our classifier predicts 98.13% of the sample correct by using our SVM classifier. The time of training the model takes 127 seconds. The time spent is acceptable. The accuracy of SVM on PCA Clean Data has the second highest accuracy, which is 0.9785. The difference between first and second highest accuracy is about 0.0028, which is really small. However, the time spent saved 41.1%. Therefore, SVM on PCA Clean Data is also a reasonable choice for the Digit Recognition task.

Random Forest can be explained as a combination of many decision trees. Decision tree can be explained as a special case of Random Forest, which set the number of trees in the Random Forest to 1. Therefore, Random Forest has a much better performance than decision tree in all three data set. As a trade-off, the time spent for Random Forest is much higher than Decision Tree.

Compare to other four Classifiers, Naive Bayes has the fastest training speed. For PCA Data and PCA Clean Data, Naive Bayes Classifier takes less than one second to train the classifier. And for Clean data, which contains all 784 features, it takes only 6 seconds to train the classifier. The reason why Naive Bayes is fast is that:

- (1) The algorithm does not need to iterate to get the result. The running time is approximately linear.
- (2) It makes an assumption of independence between its features, so that parameter estimates can be calculated independently and thus possibly very quickly.
- (3) The prior probability values do not change. Therefore, the prior probability can be calculated and stored in memory in the first place.

However, we have to be very careful about the assumption made by Naive Bayes, or we will get a very low accuracy.

Logistic Regression received an average performance among the 5 algorithms. It achieves a 0.8891 accuracy in 27 seconds on PCA data. However, when we use logistic regression, we have to pay a lot of attention to over-fitting problem. We should use regularization and cross-validation to reduce the probability of over-fitting problems.

To conclude, we decide to use SVM classifier for Digit Recognition Task. We should definitely use feature extraction on the data because of the running time and over-fitting problem. The Binary Data cleaning method is optional. If we want to have higher accuracy, we should not use Binary Data cleaning. As a trade-off, if we want to have faster training speed, we should use Binary Data cleaning.

5 FUTURE IMPROVEMENT

Our analysis is far from perfect. There are several points that we want to point out as discussion and also opportunities for future improvement.

- (1) We can try several more classification algorithms. For example, K^{th} Nearest Neighbour (KNN) and Neural Network. We can use some more complex algorithms too, such as Convolution Neural Network (CNN).
- (2) We can focus more on tune parameter. For example, we can use the Grid Search on SVM to get a better parameter combination.
- (3) We can choose a different Data Cleaning Method. For example, we can set a threshold on data. Any value greater than 50 will be set to 1.
- (4) We can choose a different Feature Extraction or Feature Selection method. For example, LDA. Unlike PCA, LDA is an unsupervised dimension reduction method.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors would like to thank Professor Gregor von Laszewski and all TAs for providing the resource, tutorials and other related materials to write this paper.

REFERENCES

- [1] Jason Brownlee. 2016. Classification And Regression Trees for Machine Learning. (April 2016). <https://machinelearningmastery.com/classification-and-regression-trees-for-machine-learning/>
- [2] Daniel S. Chapman, Aletta Bonn, William E. Kunin, and Stephen J. Cornell. 2009. Random Forest characterization of upland vegetation and management burning from aerial imagery. *Journal of Biogeography* 37, 1 (2009), 37–46. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2699.2009.02186.x>
- [3] Kazuhiro Hotta. 2008. Non-linear feature extraction by linear PCA using local kernel. *2008 19th International Conference on Pattern Recognition* (2008). <https://doi.org/10.1109/icpr.2008.4761721>
- [4] Hemant Ishwaran and J. Sunil Rao. 2009. Decision Tree: Introduction. *Encyclopedia of Medical Decision Making* (2009). <https://doi.org/10.4135/9781412971980.n97>
- [5] Kaggle. 2015. Data Description. (2015). <https://www.kaggle.com/c/digit-recognizer/data>
- [6] Scikit Learn. 2007. Decision Trees. (2007). <http://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/tree.html>
- [7] Scikit Learn. 2007. sklearn model selection cross_val_score. (2007). http://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/generated/sklearn.model_selection.cross_val_score.html
- [8] Scikit Learn. 2007. sklearn svm SVC. (2007). <http://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/generated/sklearn.svm.SVC.html>
- [9] Sheng-Jie Liang, Zhi-Hua Zhang, and Li-Lin Cui. 2010. Feature extraction method Based PCA and KICA. *2010 Second International Conference on Computational Intelligence and Natural Computing* (2010). <https://doi.org/10.1109/cinc.2010.5643821>
- [10] J. Luengo and Rafael Rumi. 2015. Naive Bayes Classifier with Mixtures of Polynomials. *Proceedings of the International Conference on Pattern Recognition Applications and Methods* (2015). <https://doi.org/10.5220/0005166000140024>
- [11] Scott Menard. 2010. Introduction: Linear Regression and Logistic Regression. *Logistic Regression: From Introductory to Advanced Concepts and Applications* (2010), 1–18. <https://doi.org/10.4135/9781483348964.n1>
- [12] OpenCV. 2017. Introduction to Support Vector Machines. (December 2017). https://docs.opencv.org/2.4/doc/tutorials/ml/introduction_to_svm/introduction_to_svm.html
- [13] OpenML. 2013. 10-fold Crossvalidation. (2013). <https://www.openml.org/a/estimation-procedures/1>
- [14] Savan Patel. 2017. Chapter 5: Random Forest Classifier. (May 2017). <https://medium.com/machine-learning-101/chapter-5-random-forest-classifier-56dc7425c3e1>
- [15] Sunil Ray. 2015. 6 Easy Steps to Learn Naive Bayes Algorithm (with codes in Python and R). (September 2015). <https://www.analyticsvidhya.com/blog/2017/09/naive-bayes-explained/>
- [16] Sunil Ray. 2015. Understanding Support Vector Machine algorithm from examples (along with code). (October 2015). <https://www.analyticsvidhya.com/blog/2017/09/understanding-support-vector-machine-example-code/>
- [17] Dr. Saed Sayad. 2010. Decision Tree - Classification. (2010). http://www.saedsayad.com/decision_tree.htm
- [18] MedCalc Software. 2017. Logistic regression. (February 2017). https://www.medcalc.org/manual/logistic_regression.php
- [19] Pang-Ning Tan, Michael Steinbach, and Vipin Kumar. 2006. *Introduction to Data Mining*. Addison Wesley.
- [20] Wikipedia. 2017. Naive Bayes classifier. (December 2017). https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Naive_Bayes_classifier
- [21] Wikipedia. 2017. Random forest. (November 2017). https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Random_forest
- [22] Wikipedia. 2017. Support vector machine. (December 2017). https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Support_vector_machine
- [23] Hui Xiong, Gaurav Pandey, Michael Steinbach, and Vipin Kumar. 2005. Enhancing Data Analysis with Noise Removal. (2005). <https://doi.org/10.21236/ada439494>

A CODE ATTACHMENT

```
##Author: Yuchen Liu HID213, Wen Xuanhan HID209, Junjie Lu
##ID214
##Data: 2017.12.01
```

```

##Reference:
    http://blog.csdn.net/tinkle181129/article/details/55261251

from datetime import datetime
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import pandas as pd
from numpy import *
from sklearn import svm
from sklearn import tree
from sklearn.cross_validation import cross_val_score
from sklearn.decomposition import PCA
from sklearn.ensemble import RandomForestClassifier
from sklearn.linear_model import LogisticRegression
from sklearn.naive_bayes import GaussianNB

# 1. read data from csv
def read_data():
    data_set = pd.read_csv("train.csv")
    data = data_set.values[0:, 1:]
    label = data_set.values[0:, 0]
    print("Data load completed.")
    return data, label

# plot 70 samples
def show_pic(data):
    print(shape(data))
    plt.figure(figsize=(7, 7))
    for digit_num in range(0, 70):
        plt.subplot(7, 10, digit_num + 1)
        grid_data = data[digit_num].reshape(28, 28)
        plt.imshow(grid_data, interpolation="none",
                   cmap="afmhot")
        plt.xticks([])
        plt.yticks([])
    plt.tight_layout()
    plt.savefig("data_samples.png")

# 2. Data Cleaning
# The data is from 0-255 for each cell.
# Normalize data by set all value > 0 to 1
def data_clean(data):
    m, n = shape(data)
    new_data = zeros((m, n))
    for i in range(m):
        for j in range(n):
            if data[i, j] > 0:
                new_data[i, j] = 1
            else:
                new_data[i, j] = 0
    print("Data clean completed.")
    return new_data

# 3. Feature Selection by PCA
def feature_selection(data):
    # First, use explained_variance to get recommended
    # number of component
    pca = PCA()
    # pca_parameter = pca.fit(data)

pca.fit(data)
ev = pca.explained_variance_
ev_ratio = []
for i in range(len(ev)):
    ev_ratio.append(ev[i] / ev[0])

# select number of component which have a higher ratio
# than 0.05 with the first components
n = 0
for i in range(len(ev_ratio)):
    if ev_ratio[i] < 0.05:
        n = i
        # print(n)
        break

# Then, PCA the model by the number of components
# pca = PCA(n_components=n, whiten=True)
pca = PCA(n_components=n, whiten=True)
print("Feature selection completed.")
return pca.fit_transform(data)

# 4. Model Selection
def model_acc(data, label, model):
    start = datetime.now()
    acc = cross_val_score(model, data, label,
                          scoring="accuracy").mean()
    end = datetime.now()
    time_use = (end - start).seconds
    print("Time use: ", time_use)
    print("Accuracy by cross validation: ", acc)

def dt_classifier(data, label, data_type):
    dt_model = tree.DecisionTreeRegressor()
    dt_model.fit(data, label)
    print("Test " + data_type + " using DT: ")
    model_acc(data, label, dt_model)

def nb_classifier(data, label, data_type):
    nb_model = GaussianNB()
    nb_model.fit(data, label)
    print("Test " + data_type + " using NB: ")
    model_acc(data, label, nb_model)

def lr_classifier(data, label, data_type):
    lr_model = LogisticRegression()
    lr_model.fit(data, label)
    print("Test " + data_type + " using LR: ")
    model_acc(data, label, lr_model)

def rf_classifier(data, label, flag):
    rf_model = RandomForestClassifier(n_estimators=100)
    rf_model.fit(data, label)
    print("Test " + flag + " using RF: ")
    model_acc(data, label, rf_model)

def svm_classifier(data, label, flag):

```

```

svm_model = svm.SVC(kernel="rbf", C=10)
svm_model.fit(data, label)
# svc_clf = NuSVC(nu=0.1, kernel='rbf', verbose=True)
print("Test " + flag + " using SVM: ")
model_acc(data, label, svm_model)

def main():
    data, label = read_data()
    # show_pic(data)
    clean_data = data_clean(data)

    test_type = 3
    for i in range(1, 3):
        print("In %d test" % i)

        if test_type == 0:
            input_data = data
            str = "raw data"
        elif test_type == 1:
            input_data = clean_data
            str = "clean data"
        elif test_type == 2:
            input_data = feature_selection(data)
            str = "pca data"
        elif test_type == 3:
            input_data = feature_selection(clean_data)
            str = "pca clean data"

        dt_classifier(input_data, label, str)
        nb_classifier(input_data, label, str)
        lr_classifier(input_data, label, str)
        rf_classifier(input_data, label, str)
        svm_classifier(input_data, label, str)

```

main()

LIST OF FIGURES

1 70 samples of hand-drawn digits in this data set.

14

1 0 1 4 0 0 7 3 5 3
8 9 1 3 3 1 2 0 7 5
8 6 2 0 2 3 6 9 9 7
8 9 4 9 2 1 3 1 1 4
9 1 4 4 2 6 3 7 7 4
7 5 1 9 0 2 2 3 9 1
1 1 5 0 6 3 4 8 1 0

Figure 1: 70 samples of hand-drawn digits in this data set.

LIST OF TABLES

1	Result For Decision Tree	16
2	Result For Navie Bayes	16
3	Result For Logistic Regression	16
4	Result For Random Forest	16
5	Result For Support Vector Machine	17
6	Result For Different Algorithm with Different Data Cleaning & Feature Extraction method	17

	PCA Data	PCA Clean Data	Clean Data
Time	12	9	20
Accuracy	0.8012	0.8234	0.8378

Table 1: Result For Decision Tree

	PCA Data	PCA Clean Data	Clean Data
Time	0	0	20
Accuracy	0.8651	0.8710	0.5397

Table 2: Result For Navie Bayes

	PCA Data	PCA Clean Data	Clean Data
Time	27	21	218
Accuracy	0.8891	0.8862	0.9064

Table 3: Result For Logistic Regression

	PCA Data	PCA Clean Data	Clean Data
Time	126	107	56
Accuracy	0.9483	0.9497	0.9647

Table 4: Result For Random Forest

	PCA Data	PCA Clean Data	Clean Data
Time	127	90	1029
Accuracy	0.9814	0.9785	0.9575

Table 5: Result For Support Vector Machine

	Decision Tree	Naive Bayes	Logistic Regression	Random Forest	Support Vector Machine
PCA Time	12	0	27	126	127
PCA Accuracy	0.8012	0.8651	0.8891	0.9483	0.9813
PCA Clean Time	9	0	21	107	90
PCA Clean Accuracy	0.8234	0.8710	0.8862	0.9497	0.9785
Clean Time	20	6	218	56	1029
Clean Accuracy	0.8378	0.5397	0.9064	0.9647	0.9575

Table 6: Result For Different Algorithm with Different Data Cleaning & Feature Extraction method

bibtext report

=====

This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
Warning--entry type for "cart" isn't style-file defined
--line 5 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "sklearn.cv" isn't style-file defined
--line 57 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "sklearn.dt" isn't style-file defined
--line 68 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "svm.form" isn't style-file defined
--line 117 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "10f.cv" isn't style-file defined
--line 129 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "sp.rfc" isn't style-file defined
--line 139 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "nb.steps" isn't style-file defined
--line 150 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "svm.code" isn't style-file defined
--line 162 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "ss.dt" isn't style-file defined
--line 174 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "lr.form" isn't style-file defined
--line 185 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "wiki.nb" isn't style-file defined
--line 208 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "wiki.rf" isn't style-file defined
--line 219 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "wiki.svm" isn't style-file defined
--line 231 of file report.bib
Warning--no number and no volume in PCA
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in PCA
Warning--no number and no volume in DT
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in DT
Warning--no number and no volume in feature_extra
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in feature_extra
Warning--no number and no volume in NB
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in NB
Warning--no number and no volume in LR
Warning--empty address in intro.dm
Warning--no journal in data_clean
Warning--no number and no volume in data_clean

```
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in data_clean  
(There were 26 warnings)
```

```
bibtext _ label error
```

```
=====
```

```
report.bib:243:@Article{data_clean,  
report.bib:89:@Article{feature_extra,
```

```
bibtext space label error
```

```
=====
```

```
bibtext comma label error
```

```
=====
```

```
latex report
```

```
=====
```

```
[2017-12-08 04.00.13] pdflatex report.tex
```

```
This is pdfTeX, Version 3.14159265-2.6-1.40.17 (TeX Live 2016) (preloaded format=pdflatex)
```

```
Missing character: ``"
```

```
Missing character: ``"
```

```
bookmark level for unknown defaults to 0.
```

```
The anchor of a bookmark and its parent's must not be the same. Added a new anchor.
```

```
The anchor of a bookmark and its parent's must not be the same. Added a new anchor.
```

```
Typesetting of "report.tex" completed in 1.3s.
```

```
./README.yml
```

```
7:14      warning  truthy value is not quoted  (truthy)  
45:81     error    line too long (85 > 80 characters)  (line-length)  
47:79     error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)  
48:81     error    line too long (82 > 80 characters)  (line-length)  
48:82     error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)  
49:79     error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)  
50:81     error    line too long (81 > 80 characters)  (line-length)  
50:81     error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)  
51:81     error    line too long (89 > 80 characters)  (line-length)  
51:89     error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)  
52:81     error    line too long (81 > 80 characters)  (line-length)  
52:81     error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)  
53:81     error    line too long (81 > 80 characters)  (line-length)  
53:81     error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)  
54:81     error    line too long (86 > 80 characters)  (line-length)  
54:86     error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)  
60:1      error    too many blank lines (1 > 0)  (empty-lines)
```

```
=====
Compliance Report
=====
```

```
name: Lu, Junjie
hid: 214
paper1: 100% Oct 29th
paper2: 100%
project: Dec 04 17 100%
```

```
yamlcheck
-----
```

```
wordcount
-----
```

```
17
wc 214 project 17 8945 report.tex
wc 214 project 17 9026 report.pdf
wc 214 project 17 719 report.bib
```

```
find "
-----
```

```
151: print("Data clean completed.")

242: acc = cross_val_score(model, data, label, cv=5,
                           scoring="accuracy").mean()

246: print("Time use: ", time_use)

247: print("Accuracy by cross validation: ", acc)

294: print("Test " + data_type + " using DT: ")

387: print("Test " + data_type + " using NB: ")

468: print("Test " + data_type + " using LR: ")

557: print("Test " + flag + " using RF: ")

793: data_set = pd.read_csv("train.csv")
```

```
796: print("Data load completed.")

807: plt.imshow(grid_data, interpolation="none", cmap="afmhot")

811: plt.savefig("data_samples.png")

826: print("Data clean completed.")

853: print("Feature selection completed.")

860: acc = cross_val_score(model, data, label,
    scoring="accuracy").mean()

863: print("Time use: ", time_use)

864: print("Accuracy by cross validation: ", acc)

870: print("Test " + data_type + " using DT: ")

877: print("Test " + data_type + " using NB: ")

884: print("Test " + data_type + " using LR: ")

891: print("Test " + flag + " using RF: ")

896: svm_model = svm.SVC(kernel="rbf", C=10)

899: print("Test " + flag + " using SVM: ")

910: print("In %d test" % i)

914: str = "raw data"

917: str = "clean data"

920: str = "pca data"

923: str = "pca clean data"

passed: False

find footnote
-----
passed: True
```

```
find input{format/i523}
-----
4: \input{format/i523}

passed: True

find input{format/final}
-----
passed: False

floats
-----
107: \begin{figure}
108: \includegraphics[width=0.35\columnwidth]{images/data_samples}

figures 1
tables 0
includegraphics 1
labels 0
refs 0
floats 1

True : ref check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
True : label check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
True : include graphics passed: (figures >= includegraphics)
True : check if all figures are refered to: (refs >= labels)

Label/ref check
105: In train.csv data file, it contains $42000$ gray-scale images of hand-drawn digits, from zero through nine. Each image is a $28 \times 28$ pixels matrix with a total of 784 pixels \cite{kaggle}. Each pixel has a single pixel-value which is an integer from 0 to 255 associated with it, indicating the lightness or darkness of that pixel (higher numbers meaning lighter). In this experiment, we have plotted the graph in order to see the appearance of these digits easily. Figure 1 shows the first 70 samples.
331: From table 1, we can find that the Decision Tree algorithm has a highest accuracy 0.8378 when we using Clean data. That's because the Clean data contains all 784 features in the data set. It has the minimum information loss among all three data set. Clean data also have the longest running time, which is 20 seconds.
```

passed: False -> labels or refs used wrong

When using figures use columnwidth
[width=1.0\columnwidth]
do not change the number to a smaller fraction

find textwidth

passed: True

below_check

WARNING: figure and above may be used improperly

126: As we mentioned above, it can be seen from both the figure and the pixel-value that the value varies from 0 to 255, which means each feature is a continuous value. Thus, it is possible that such continuous values might affect our later feature selection. Our observation shows that the values are not very high at the boundaries of 0 and \$>0\$. So here exist three ways to handle it \cite{data_clean}:

WARNING: code and below may be used improperly

625: In Python, scikit-learn is a widely used library for implementing machine learning algorithms, SVM is also available in the scikit-learn library and follows the same structure (Import library, object creation, fitting model and prediction). Let's look at the below code \cite{svm.code}:

WARNING: algorithm and below may be used improperly

625: In Python, scikit-learn is a widely used library for implementing machine learning algorithms, SVM is also available in the scikit-learn library and follows the same structure (Import library, object creation, fitting model and prediction). Let's look at the below code \cite{svm.code}:

bibtex

label errors

89: feature_extra: do not use underscore in labels:
243: data_clean: do not use underscore in labels:

bibtex errors

This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
Warning--entry type for "cart" isn't style-file defined
--line 5 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "sklearn.cv" isn't style-file defined
--line 57 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "sklearn.dt" isn't style-file defined
--line 68 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "svm.form" isn't style-file defined
--line 117 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "10f.cv" isn't style-file defined
--line 129 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "sp.rfc" isn't style-file defined
--line 139 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "nb.steps" isn't style-file defined
--line 150 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "svm.code" isn't style-file defined
--line 162 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "ss.dt" isn't style-file defined
--line 174 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "lr.form" isn't style-file defined
--line 185 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "wiki.nb" isn't style-file defined
--line 208 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "wiki.rf" isn't style-file defined
--line 219 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "wiki.svm" isn't style-file defined
--line 231 of file report.bib
Warning--no number and no volume in PCA
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in PCA
Warning--no number and no volume in DT
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in DT
Warning--no number and no volume in feature_extra
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in feature_extra
Warning--no number and no volume in NB
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in NB
Warning--no number and no volume in LR

```
Warning--empty address in intro.dm
Warning--no journal in data_clean
Warning--no number and no volume in data_clean
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in data_clean
(There were 26 warnings)
```

```
bibtex_empty_fields
```

```
entries in general should not be empty in bibtex
```

```
find ""
```

```
passed: True
```

```
ascii
```

```
non ascii found 65292
```

```
=====
The following tests are optional
=====
```

```
Tip: newlines can often be replaced just by an empty line
```

```
find newline
```

```
passed: True
```

```
cites should have a space before \cite{} but not before the {
```

```
find cite {
```

```
passed: True
```

Income Prediction based on Machine Learning Techniques

Borga Edionse Usifo

Indiana University

Bloomington, Indiana 47408

busifo@iu.edu

ABSTRACT

This project takes a closer look to some of the most used supervised learning algorithms in machine learning. We start with the description of the each of the algorithms then we move it to analytics and findings by using that particular algorithm in our data-set. We also provide advantages and disadvantages of each supervised machine learning algorithm for future reference. We mainly focus on our prediction of the income level of individuals by looking at their age, gender, education, location, and other features given by our data-set. We will try each algorithm and try to pick the best features from our data-set to have an optimal prediction.

KEYWORDS

i523, HID343, Machine Learning, Income Prediction, Logistic Regression, Ensemble methods

1 INTRODUCTION

In this project, we try to showcase the performance of the machine learning algorithms on data which we gather from UCI machine learning repository [22]. This data used by Kohavi R. and Becker B. for their research in improving the in Naive Bayes Classifier's accuracy [21].

Data consists of 15 variables, and we try to predict the income of the individuals. To do this prediction task, we first started with data preparation because the data we receive from UCI machine learning repository [22] not fully prepared for any machine learning algorithm. Our first task was the clean the data while applying some statistical techniques to get insights from the dataset. We also used data transformation methods like One-Hot-Encoding[45] to apply logarithmic functions for improving the machine learning algorithms performance before training the data.

Machine Learning algorithms that we discuss in this paper are Gaussian Naive Bayes [46], K Nearest Neighbors [29], Ensemble Methods (Boosting) [8], Support Vector Machines [6], Logistic Regression [34], and Decision Trees [49]. We try to show their weakness, advantages, and their time consumption while training each of them in machine learning algorithms section.

After providing a brief introduction of each of the supervised machine learning algorithms, we will discuss our findings for of each of the algorithms by comparing their accuracy score, F-1 score, recall, and lastly time comparison.

2 IMPORTANCE OF BIG DATA ANALYTICS FOR PREDICTIVE CLASSIFICATION

Importance of big data analytics is getting higher every day since the algorithms become more powerful to predict, classify and cluster any given data set. Importance of our case is any company can be used to predict individuals income to refer them goods in their

income range or governments can provide additional support for the areas that have lower income range. There can be many possible things that can do with this kind of classification predictions.

3 DATA PREPARATION

We first used the pandas [28] to help to load the data in data frame format. This gave us a unique advantage, and faster processing of comma separated values for putting into data frame [48]. Our data consist of 15 variables. Some of these variables are continuous, and some of them are categorical variables, and our target variable was "income" attribute. After putting the data into data frames, we first got a statistical snapshot of continuous variables (age, education, capital gain, capital loss, hours worked) by using the pandas [27] functions as shown in Table 1.

[Table 1 about here.]

3.1 Data Cleaning

After getting a snapshot from income data frame, we recognized that there is a column which has no meaning. The first task was to remove this entire column from our dataset we used pandas drop function for doing this task. After removing this column, we had more concise dataframe to analyze.

Moreover, removing the column we have encountered some missing values which labeled as "question marks" in data frame. In order to remove this values we first changed all the "question mark" values to "NaN" values by using pandas "replace" function [26]. After replacing all the question marks with "NaN" values, we used pandas missing value dropping function to remove all the "NaN" values from our dataset.

Furthermore, we start investigating the types of the variables, and in our case, we found two types of variable one of them labeled as "int64" which stands for integer values, other one labeled as object type of variable. From our previous example especially in "scikit-learn" it is better to use float object rather than "int64" for training the machine learning algorithms. Because their numerical output most of the time is "float64" object. We transferred all the "int64" objects to "float64" objects. This was the last step of the cleaning process.

Our last process is changing the string values to numerical values on our target data which consist of string values ("\$ 50K") for machine learning algorithms to understand this target data we need to transfer it to numerical values. Since we have only two categories, we will assign 1 and 0 as numerical values as shown in Table 2.

[Table 2 about here.]

Our shape of the data will also receive impact from changing to numerical. Our number of futures will go from 14 to 103. This is because we implemented one-hot-encode to our dataset. It is called

one hot encoded because we transform the categorical variables into a more acceptable shape for the machine learning algorithms to perform well [45]. In other words “we implement binarization of the category to include as a future to train model [45]”. As we can see in Table 3 and Table 4.

[Table 3 about here.]

[Table 4 about here.]

4 DATA EXPLORATION

After cleaning the data, we started our data exploration to learn little bit more from our data and make necessary changes if needed before putting into our machine learning algorithms. The first step in this process is getting the total count of the individuals as well as the count of the individuals who are making more than \$50K and less than \$50K which can be seen in below Table 4.

Description	Count
Total Number of Individuals	30162
Individuals who makes more than \$50K	7508
Individuals who makes at or less than \$50K	22654

Moreover, we also look at the statistical values of each of the continuous variable we have. Those values given in Table 5. As we can see we have individuals who’re age ranging from 17 to 90 years old with a mean of 38.58. If we look at the capital gains and capital losses, we have a standard deviation of 7385 and 402 respectively this is also another indication of skew in these variables.

[Table 5 about here.]

We used scatter matrix plot and applied the correlation function to see if we have any reliable correlation between any of the variables. As we can see from the correlation matrix Table 6 and correlation numbers Figure 1 we do not have the high correlation between any variables. Correlation values range between -1 to 1. The correlation value of 1 is an indication of perfect positive correlation and correlation number -1 indicates a negative correlation between variables [15]. Because of lower correlation values, it will be tough to determine the classification by just looking at the correlations; this indicates we have sophisticated algorithms to determine the relationship between variables to classify individuals incomes.

[Table 6 about here.]

[Figure 1 about here.]

Furthermore, we also explore the capital gains, capital losses, and hours per week variables which we used a histogram to plot the data into distribution form so we can see how all these attributes distributed. The reason we do the histogram is we want to see any skewness in our data. As shown in the histogram graphs in Figure 2 and Figure 3 in capital gains and capital loss we have highly skewed data which can cause issues later on in our algorithms. We apply a logarithmic function to do highly skewed data to less skewed [24]. Using logarithmic functions adds more value to data from the interpretable standpoint and “it helps to meet the assumptions of inferential statistics [24]”.

[Figure 2 about here.]

[Figure 3 about here.]

Moreover, applying logarithmic function had an impact on distribution. We can see the changes on skew data in Figure 4 after applying logarithmic function.

[Figure 4 about here.]

5 MACHINE LEARNING ALGORITHMS TO CONSIDER

We have multiple algorithms to consider when we are doing the supervised learning. Each algorithm has its benefits and drawbacks. We will consider several supervised machine learning algorithms for our predictions. The application we will use to implement these algorithms will be Python Scikit-Learn library. We will briefly explain each parameter included in these algorithms in Scikit-Learn.

First we’ll look at the Scikit-Learn in Python framework we will go through the advantages in Scikit-Learn how we can implement any machine learning in just couple of simple line of codes in Scikit-Learn.

5.1 Why Scikit-Learn?

Scikit-learn developed by David Cournapeau in 2007. The development came from while he was working on summer code project for Google. After recognized and published by INRIA in 2010 project start the get more attention among worldwide. There are more than 30 active contributors and has secured several sponsorships from big technology companies[17]. “It also has a goal of providing common algorithms to Python users through consistent interface[2]”. Scikit-Learn consists of several elements to make analytical predictions. These elements are shown below[23]:

Supervised Learning Algorithms: One of the most fundamental reason that Scikit-Learn’s popularity comes from highly available supervised learning algorithms. These algorithms vary from regression models to decision trees and many more[23].

Cross Validation: Scikit-Learn includes various techniques to check the accuracy or any statistical measure between training and unseen testing set[23].

Unsupervised Learning Algorithms: Scikit-Learn had also various algorithms to support many unsupervised algorithms some of these include clustering, factor analysis, and neural network analysis[23].

Various example data-sets: Scikit-Learn comes with different data sets included in its package so users can start learning Scikit-Learn without the need of any data-sets[23].

Feature extraction: It has rich feature for extracting images or text from data-sets[23].

Algorithms that we will investigate shown below; we will go more deep analysis on each of these algorithms.

- Gaussian Naive Bayes
- Logistic Regression
- K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN)
- Stochastic Gradient Descent Classifier
- Support Vector Machines
- Decision Trees

5.2 Gaussian Naive Bayes

Naive Bayes bring many beneficial features; it is widely popular among machine learning applications[41]. The popularity of Naive

Bayes comes from being able to handle large projects and data-sets faster than most algorithms[41]. It also can handle complex data-sets with categorical and non-categorical inputs [41]. Naive Bayes based on probabilistic classifier of Bayesian theory. It is also a favorite way of doing text categorization [46].

Term naive comes from it is the method of use probability among categories which assumes of independence among given class of attributes as shown in Figure 5. In other words, if we try to classify individuals from their email communications it will not take the order of words into account. Whereas in the English language we can tell the difference between sentence makes sense or not if we randomly re-order our words in the sentences. So it does not understand the text, it only looks at word frequencies as a way to do the classification. This is why it is called “Naive”.

[Figure 5 about here.]

As we state above Naive Bayes derives from Bayesian Theory where the dimensionality of inputs is relatively high. Bayesian Theorem is stated below [16].

$$P(C | X) = \frac{P(X | C) \times P(C)}{P(X)} \quad (1)$$

Naive Bayes Classifier works as follows [16]:

Advantages of Naive Bayes [16]:

- Faster classification time for training data-set.
- Because of independent classification it improves classification performance.
- Performance is relatively good.

Disadvantages of Naive Bayes[16]:

- Often it requires a large number of data-sets to give adequate results.
- On some occasions which are relative to data-sets, it can give less accuracy.

5.3 Logistic Regression

Logistic Regression widely used for predicting “probability of failure in a given system, product, and process [34]“. Logistic Regression also used in natural language analysis, it is an extension of conditional random fields [34]. It works as a classifier which learns the features from the input given and classifies them by multiplying the input value with the weight value [14].

$$P(C | X) = \sum_{i=1}^N W_i \times f_i \quad (2)$$

Main reason that Logistic Regression differs from Linear Regression is output variable for Logistic Regression is binary whereas output variable in Linear Regression is discrete(continuous) [12].

Advantages of Logistic Regression:

- It does not have any assumptions over distribution of classes [18].
- It is fast to train [18].
- Logistic Regression has fast classifying method of unknown data [18].
- We can easily extend to other regression for multiple classes like multinomial regression [18].

Disadvantages of Logistic Regression:

- One of the disadvantages of linear regression is it is not providing flexibility in some instances. What we mean by the “lack of flexibility is the linear dependency, and linear decision boundary in the instance space is not valid [42]“. This disadvantage can be improved changing from Logistic Regression to Choquistic Regression[42].
- Logistic regression can provide poor results when there are more complex relationships in data [9].
- Logistic models also have over-fitting problems which come from a result of sampling bias [31].
- Because of Logistic Regression’s predictions comes from the independent variable if the researcher includes wrong independent variables then model’s prediction will have no value [31].
- Because it is predictions based on 1 and 0 model will have poor performance when predicting continuous variables [31].

5.4 K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN)

K Nearest neighbor has been primarily studied, and this popularity comes from it has been applied to many applications some of these applications are “spatial databases, pattern recognition, geographic information, image retrieval, computer game, and many other applications [29]“. Due to an increase of mobile devices and people tends to use of applications like navigation K-nearest neighbor found itself another widely used area of location-based services due to an ability to found a target location [29].

Intuition behind the K Nearest Neighbor can be described as follows: “ for a set P of n objects and a querying point q, return the k objects in P that are closest to q [29].“

Advantages of K Nearest Neighbors:

- K Nearest Neighbor is a basic and simple approach to implement [35].
- K Nearest Neighbor can perform well and efficiently with the large amount of data [43].
- K nearest Neighbor also does effectively well with noisy data sets (“if the inverse square of weighted distance used as the distance [43]“). In other words, it is flexible to feature and distance choices [35].

Disadvantages of K Nearest Neighbors:

- K Nearest Neighbor typically require large dataset to perform well [35].
- Time complexity could be high due to computing distance of each query to all training data points [43]. This time might be improved with some indexing (K-D Tree) [43].
- Determining the value of K can be time-consuming [43].
- It can be unclear to know which type of distance to use, as well as which variability to use to get the optimal results [43].
- Switching the different K values can result in the predicted class labels [30].

Many of these disadvantages are improving with the help of parallel distributed computing. Recent improvements in MapReduce framework allows users to run KNN algorithms in the cluster which had a significant effect on reducing the computation time [19].

Another area of improvements on KNN, is to implement different mapping functions such as kernel KNN, kernel difference weighted KNN, adaptive quasi-conformal kernel nearest neighbor, angular similarity, local linear discriminant analysis, and Dempster-Shafer [10].

5.5 Decision Trees

Decision Tree is another widely used algorithm model for classification and regression. Decision Trees uses a recursive split model where each recursive split is identified by each data point; this is an example of non-parametric hierarchical model [13].

Representation of decision trees is as follows; we sort the instances from root to leaf nodes, this sorting gives insights about the classification of the instance, every outcome descending from the root node corresponds to possible values for that variable [33]. We can classify an instance by starting from the root node and checking the attributes labeled on that node and moving down from that node based on attribute given attribute values [33] as shown in Figure 6.

[Figure 6 about here.]

Advantages of Decision Trees:

- Decision Tree applications are easy to interpret and understand [32]. This ease comes from their schematic representation [32]. Interpretation between alternatives can be expressed with single numerical number which is the expected value (EV) [32].
- Decision Trees can handle noisy or incomplete data-sets [32]. In other words it requires little effort of data preparation because of its flexibility [7].
- It can handle both nominal and numerical variables [32].
- It can be modified easily whenever the new information is available [32].
-

Disadvantages of Decision Trees:

- Because of its use of divide and conquer method they can demonstrate good performance if there are few attributes exist when the attributes level goes into large number decision tree become more complex which will result in poor performance [32].
- Decision Trees are also susceptible to training set which can give a result of over-fitting [32]. In other words, it can believe the training set completely which will give an abysmal performance on testing set.
- ID3 and C4.5 decision tree algorithms require discrete values as input data.

5.6 Stochastic Gradient Descent Classifier (SGD)

Stochastic Gradient Descent recently got became more popular because of its large-scale learning ability in machine learning problems [11]. It is a useful and straightforward way approach of linear classifiers under convex problems which is Support Vector Machines or Conditional Random Fields [3]. The originality of SGD derives from “Stochastic Approximation” which is a work from Robinson and Monroe [5].

Advantages of Stochastic Gradient Descent:

- One of the advantage of stochastic gradient descent is, it is easy to implement [38].
- Stochastic Gradient Descent is also efficient because of each step only relies on a single derivative which makes the computational cost $1/n$ than normal gradient descent [37].

Disadvantages of Stochastic Gradient Descent:

- Stochastic Gradient Descent can be required to have many iterations, and it also requires some hyper-parameters [38].
- Feature scaling is a practice which used in the standardization of range of independent variables [47]. SGD also used this feature scaling technique and it can be sensitive to feature scaling [38].
- Another drawback of Stochastic Gradient Descent is while using GPU they are hard to parallelize or distributing them using computer clusters [25].

5.7 Support Vector Machines

Support Vector Machines is fallen under the classification methods in machine learning [6]. It is also a robust classification method that has been widely found itself an area ranging from pattern recognition to text analysis [6].

Fitting a boundary between data points is the principle of the support vector machines. This boundary divides the data points between classes, and each similar data point puts under the same class classification [6]. After training the support vector machines with training data-set, we only need to check whether the test data lies under the boundaries for testing set. Another thing to consider is after it creates the boundaries of the data remaining training data becomes obsolete because we only need the core set of points which supports the boundaries to classify the new data set. This core data points called “support vectors”. It is called vector because of each data point contains a row of observed data values for attributes [6].

[Figure 7 about here.]

Traditionally boundaries are called “hyperplanes” and it is used to describe boundaries in more than three dimensions because they are hard or sometimes impossible to visualize [7]. Figure 7. Optimality of hyperplane expressed as a linear function which requires maximum distance between the identified classes. It only considers a small number of training example to build this hyperplane. SVM hyperplanes based on “separation of positive (+1) and negative (-1) with the largest margin [39]“.

One of the main characteristic of the machine learning is to generalization. In other words, we want to give a general idea that tends to fit any of our testing datasets optimally. Support vector machines are a perfect regarding generalizations because once the training data fitted by the support vector machines other than support vector data inside the training data becomes redundant which means that even with the small changes inside the data will not have a significant effect on general boundaries [6].

Advantages of Support Vector Machines:

- Generalizes the data well with the help of boundaries. Which reduces the overfitting [6].

- Classification accuracy in basic support vector machine will yield a 95 percent accuracy with a default settings [6].
- SVM can deliver a unique solution, because of optimality solution is convex. This will give an advantage over Neural Networks which has multiple solutions in local minima [1].

Disadvantages of Support Vector Machines:

- One common disadvantage of SVM, is the lack of transparency because of its non-parametric techniques [1].
- Another biggest disadvantage of SVM is it requires high algorithmic complexity and high level of memory for the large-scale implementations [39].
- According to Burges, biggest limitation of the SVM is in the choice of kernel [4].

5.8 Ensemble Methods

Ensemble methods goes into classification algorithm category, they are learning algorithms which uses weighted vote for it is prediction methods, in other words, it is learning rules over a small subset of data then we combine these rules which we learn from the small subset of data to make predictions and/or classification on the testing data [8]. The originality of the Ensemble method comes from Bayesian averaging, but with the recent algorithms include “Bagging, error-correcting, and boosting [8]“.

Bagging refers to simply the looking at data-sets and dividing the data-set to it is small subsets then learning the rules of that particular small subset. Next step is combining each learned rule from subsets to apply to more significant data set. Combining method mostly done with averaging the learned rules. Bagging also does better on testing set than standard Linear Regression analysis and linear regression does better on training set especially in third order polynomial [8].

Stacking

Boosting is another method used in Ensemble Methods. The difference from bagging is in boosting we need to pick subsets or examples that we are not good at in other words hardest examples. Then we combine these learned rules with the weighted mean instead mean used in bagging method.

Boosting is little different then bagging.

Advantages of Ensemble Methods:

- Prediction of the ensemble methods is better than most of the algorithms because of the combining methods intuition makes the model less noisy [36].
- They are more stable than other algorithms. [36]

Disadvantages of Ensemble Methods:

- Over-fitting may cause some disadvantages for ensemble learning but bagging operation will reduce this overfitting [36].

6 FITTING DATA INTO MACHINE LEARNING ALGORITHMS

In this section, we will show the techniques we used on the execution of the prepared data into machine learning algorithms. Before fitting the data into the machine learning algorithms, we split the data into two sets. These sets are the training set and the testing

set. We do splitting because of gaining an access of the future data will most likely be hard before future occurs, and because of this fact, it is a good idea to test our model with a dataset which our model has not seen it [40].

We used scikit-learn for splitting data into train and test we saved 20% of data for testing purposes as shown in Table 7 .

[Table 7 about here.]

Furthermore, after splitting the data we put all of our training data into to each of the machine learning algorithm to get their prediction results. We also provided code at the beginning and the end of each algorithm to calculate their running time.

Before we move further we need to discuss critical characteristics of a machine learning algorithm. These are;

- Confusion Matrix
- Accuracy
- Recall
- F-1 Score
- Precision

6.0.1 Confusion Matrix: Confusion matrix develops from 4 key elements. These elements are true positive, true negative, false negative, and false positive. As shown in Figure 8 about the constructing a confusion matrix. If we want to build a confusion matrix by targeting individuals who are making more than \$50K our true positive, true negative, false positive, and false negative explained below.

[Figure 8 about here.]

True Positive (TP): We can explain true positive as if the individuals make more than \$50K and our model correctly classifies them as individuals who makes more than \$50K, then this individual is in higher income range, in this case, we call it a true positive [20].

True Negative (TN): Intuition of true negative is if an individual makes less than \$50K and our model correctly classifies them as individuals who makes less then \$50K, then this individual is in lower income range. We call this true negative [20].

False Negative (FN): When an individual makes less than \$50K and our model incorrectly classifies them in higher income range by making a mistake causes a false negative to happen [20].

False Positive (FP): When an individual is making more than \$50K and our model classifies them in lower income range by mistake. This is called false positive [20].

6.0.2 Accuracy: Accuracy answers the question of how good is the model is. In our case this question will be out of all the individuals, how many did the models classify the individuals correctly. The mathematical expression of the accuracy is the ratio between the number of correctly classified points and the number of total points. We can think that if we have high accuracy, our model is excellent, but this is only where we have identical false positive and false negative values in our dataset [20].

$$\text{Accuracy} = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + FP + FN + TN} \quad (3)$$

6.0.3 Precision. Precision answers the questions of out of all the points predicted to be positive how many of them were actually positive? If we translate this question into our case, we will have

out of all the individuals that we are classified as lower income how many were actually have lower income. Higher precision indicates that we have low false positive rate [20]. Mathematical expression of precision is;

$$Precision = \frac{TP}{TP + FP} \quad (4)$$

6.0.4 Recall (Sensitivity). Recall answers the question of “out of the points that are labeled positive how many of them were correctly predicted is positive ? ”. If we translate this to our case, we will have “out of the points that are labeled higher income how many of them correctly predicted is in higher income range ? ”. Mathematical expression of the recall is;

$$Precision = \frac{TP}{TP + FN} \quad (5)$$

6.0.5 F-1 Score. The F-1 score is the idea of giving a decision by looking at only one score which will include precision, and recall scores. We cannot just take the average of precision and recall because if either of them is very low. We need a number to be low, even if the other one is not. This will lead us to look at the harmonic mean, and it works as follows. Let's say we have two numbers X and Y. X is smaller than Y, and we have the arithmetic mean, and it always lies between X and Y. It is a mathematical fact that the harmonic mean is always less than the arithmetic mean which is closer to the smaller number than to the higher number. Mathematical expression of F-1 score is;

$$F1Score = 2 \times \frac{Precision \times Recall}{Precision + Recall} \quad (6)$$

6.1 Results

Now we can look at the results from each of the machine learning algorithm. Results also showed in Table 8 with the visualization of Figure 10. We can also see the running time of the each of the algorithm in Figure 9. Support Vector Machines is the winner for the highest running time for training the algorithm.

[Figure 9 about here.]

[Table 8 about here.]

6.1.1 Naive Bayes. As shown in the Figure 10 we have a comparison of several supervised machine learning algorithms on our dataset. We can see that from the accuracy standpoint Naive Bayes algorithms have the lowest score which means that it did not do a good job for labeling true positives regards to all data but it did a good job in precision standpoint while doing a bad classification from recall standpoint. Two key element for us in this situation is accuracy and f1 score(which consist of precision and recall).

6.1.2 Support Vector Machine. Support Vector Machine is the second best algorithm in our case. This algorithm did very well job on classification it has the second highest accuracy and f1 score.

6.1.3 AdaBoost. As we stated before ensemble algorithms learn from the small portion of the data and combine these learning to do the predictive task. As shown in Figure 10 adaboosting has the highest accuracy score among all the other algorithms. This

algorithm should be our first choice to do predictive modeling. We believe that there is still an improvements on accuracy

6.1.4 K-Nearest Neighbors. K-Nearest Neighbor algorithm in our project we set the k value to 5. K Nearest Neighbor algorithm also did a good job by placing itself third in accuracy score.

6.1.5 Decision Tree. Decision Tree is gave a good accuracy but fall behind on f1 score as shown in Figure 10.

[Figure 10 about here.]

7 CONCLUSION

We presented the importance of analytical approach with machine learning algorithms and how they can be used to predict or classify the individuals with many different attributes like age, education, income, etc. We also presented weaknesses and strengths of these algorithms along with their precision, accuracy, recall, and F-1 scores by presenting with the visualizations. We also demonstrated the running time for each algorithm while using big data sets. The source code of this project can be found on the Github website which is presented in the reference section [44].

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The author would like to thank Dr. Gregor von Laszewski for his support and suggestions to write this paper.

REFERENCES

- //search-ebscohost-com.proxyiub.uits.iu.edu/login.aspx?direct=true&db=edsee&AN=edsee.7872727&site=eds-live&scope=site
- [15] Investopedia. n.d.. Correlation Coefficient. Online. (n.d.). <https://www.investopedia.com/terms/c/correlationcoefficient.asp>
- [16] D. S. Jadhav and H. P. Channe. 2014. Comparative Study of K-NN, Naive Bayes and Decision Tree Classification Techniques. *International Journal of Science and Research (IJSR)* 5, 1 (Jan. 2014), 1842–1845. <https://www.ijsr.net/archive/v5i1/NOV153131.pdf>
- [17] B. Jason. 2014. A gentle introduction to Scikit-Learn: Python Machine Learning Library. Online. (April 2014). <https://machinelearningmastery.com/a-gentle-introduction-to-scikit-learn-a-python-machine-learning-library/>
- [18] H. Jeff. 2012. Introduction to Machine Learning. Online. (Jan. 2012). http://courses.washington.edu/css490/2012/Winter/lecture_slides/05b_logistic_regression.pdf
- [19] J. Jiaqi and Y. Chung. 2017. Research on K nearest neighbor join for big data. In *2017 IEEE International Conference on Information and Automation (ICIA)*. IEEE, Department of Computer Engineering Wonkwang University Iksan 54538, Korean, 1077–1081. <https://doi.org/10.1109/ICInfa.2017.8079062>
- [20] R. Joshi. 2016. Accuracy, Precision, Recall, and F1 Score: Interpretation of Performance Measures. Online. (Sept. 2016). <http://blog.exsilio.com/all/accuracy-precision-recall-f1-score-interpretation-of-performance-measures>
- [21] R. Kohavi. 1996. Improving the Accuracy of Naive-Bayes Classifiers: A Decision-tree Hybrid. In *Proceedings of the Second International Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining (KDD'96)*. AAAI Press, Silicon Graphics, Inc, 202–207. <http://dl.acm.org/citation.cfm?id=3001460.3001502>
- [22] R. Kohavi and B. Becker. n.d.. Predicting whether income exceeds \$50K/yr based on census data. Online. (n.d.). <https://archive.ics.uci.edu/ml/datasets/Census+Income>
- [23] J. Kunal. 2015. Scikit-Learn in python - The most important Machine Learnig Tool I learnt last year. Online. (Jan. 2015). <https://www.analyticsvidhya.com/blog/2015/01/scikit-learn-python-machine-learning-tool/>
- [24] M. D. Lane. n.d.. Log Transformations. Online. (n.d.). <http://onlinestatbook.com/2/transformations/log.html>
- [25] V. Q. Le, J. Ngiam, A. Coates, A. Lahiri, B. Prochnow, and A. Y. Ng. 2011. On optimization methods for deep learning. In *International Conference of Machine Learning*. Stanford University, International Conferenfe of Machine Learning, Stanford University, NA. <https://cs.stanford.edu/~acoates/papers/LeNgiCoaLahProNg11.pdf>
- [26] Pandas Library. n.d.. Dataframe replace. Online. (n.d.). <https://pandas.pydata.org/pandas-docs/stable/generated/pandas.DataFrame.replace.html>
- [27] Pandas Library. n.d.. Pandas Dateframe describe. Online. (n.d.). <https://pandas.pydata.org/pandas-docs/stable/generated/pandas.DataFrame.describe.html>
- [28] Pandas Py Data Library. n.d.. Pandas for Python. Online. (n.d.). <https://pandas.pydata.org/>
- [29] L. J. Moon. 2017. Fast k-Nearest Neighbor Searching in Static Objects. *Wireless Personal Communications* 93, 1 (01 Mar 2017), 147–160. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11277-016-3524-1>
- [30] G. Nick. 2014. KNN. Online. (April 2014). <http://www.nickgillian.com/wiki/pmwiki.php/GRT/KNN>
- [31] R. Nick. NA. The Disadvantages of Logistic Regression. Online. (NA). <http://classroom.synonym.com/disadvantages-logistic-regression-8574447.html>
- [32] C. Petri. 2010. Decison Trees. Online. (2010). <http://www.cs.ubbcluj.ro/~gabisa/DocDiplome/DT/DecisionTrees.pdf>
- [33] U. Princeton. NA. Decision Tree Learning. Online. (NA). <http://www.cs.princeton.edu/courses/archive/spr07/cos424/papers/mitchell-decrees.pdf>
- [34] S. A. Raj, L. J. Fernando, and S. Raj. 2017. Predictive Analytics On Political Data. Congress. *World Congress on Computing and Communication Technologies* 10, 1109 (2017), 93–96.
- [35] M. Ray. 2012. Nearest Neighbours: Pros and Cons. Online. (April 2012). <http://www2.cs.man.ac.uk/~raym8/comp37212/main/node264.html>
- [36] S. Ray. 2015. 5 Easy Questions on Ensemble Modeling Everyone Should Know. Online. (Jan. 2015). <https://www.analyticsvidhya.com/blog/2015/09/questions-ensemble-modeling/>
- [37] J. Rie and Z. Tong. 2013. Accelerating Stochastic Gradient Descent using Predictive Variance Reduction. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems 26*, C. J. C. Burges, L. Bottou, M. Welling, Z. Ghahramani, and K. Q. Weinberger (Eds.). Curran Associates, Inc., Rutgers University, New Jersey, USA, 315–323. <http://papers.nips.cc/paper/4937-accelerating-stochastic-gradient-descent-using-predictive-variance-reduction.pdf>
- [38] Scikitlearn. n.d.. Stochastic Gradient Descent. Online. (n.d.).
- [39] K. N. Shrivastava, P. Saurabh, and B. Verma. 2011. An Efficient Approach Parallel Support Vector Machine for Classification of Diabetes Dataset. *International Journal of Computer Applications in Technology* 36, 6 (Dec. 2011), 19–24. <http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.259.3757&rep=rep1&type=pdf>
- [40] D. Steinberg. 2014. Why Data Scientist Split Data into Train and Test. Online. (March 2014). <https://info.salford-systems.com/blog/bid/337783/Why-Data-Scientists-Split-Data-into-Train-and-Test>

LIST OF FIGURES

1	Scatter Matrix Plot [44].	9
2	Histogram of Capital Gain [44].	10
3	Histogram of Capital Loss [44].	10
4	After Logarithmic Function Applied Histogram of Capital Gain [44].	11
5	Example of Naive Bayes [50].	12
6	Example of Decision Tree Construction[33].	12
7	Example of Shows the Hyperplanes [6].	13
8	Example of Confusion Matrix Construction [20].	13
9	Supervised Learning Algorithm Running Time Results [44].	14
10	Supervised Learning Algorithm Results [44].	15

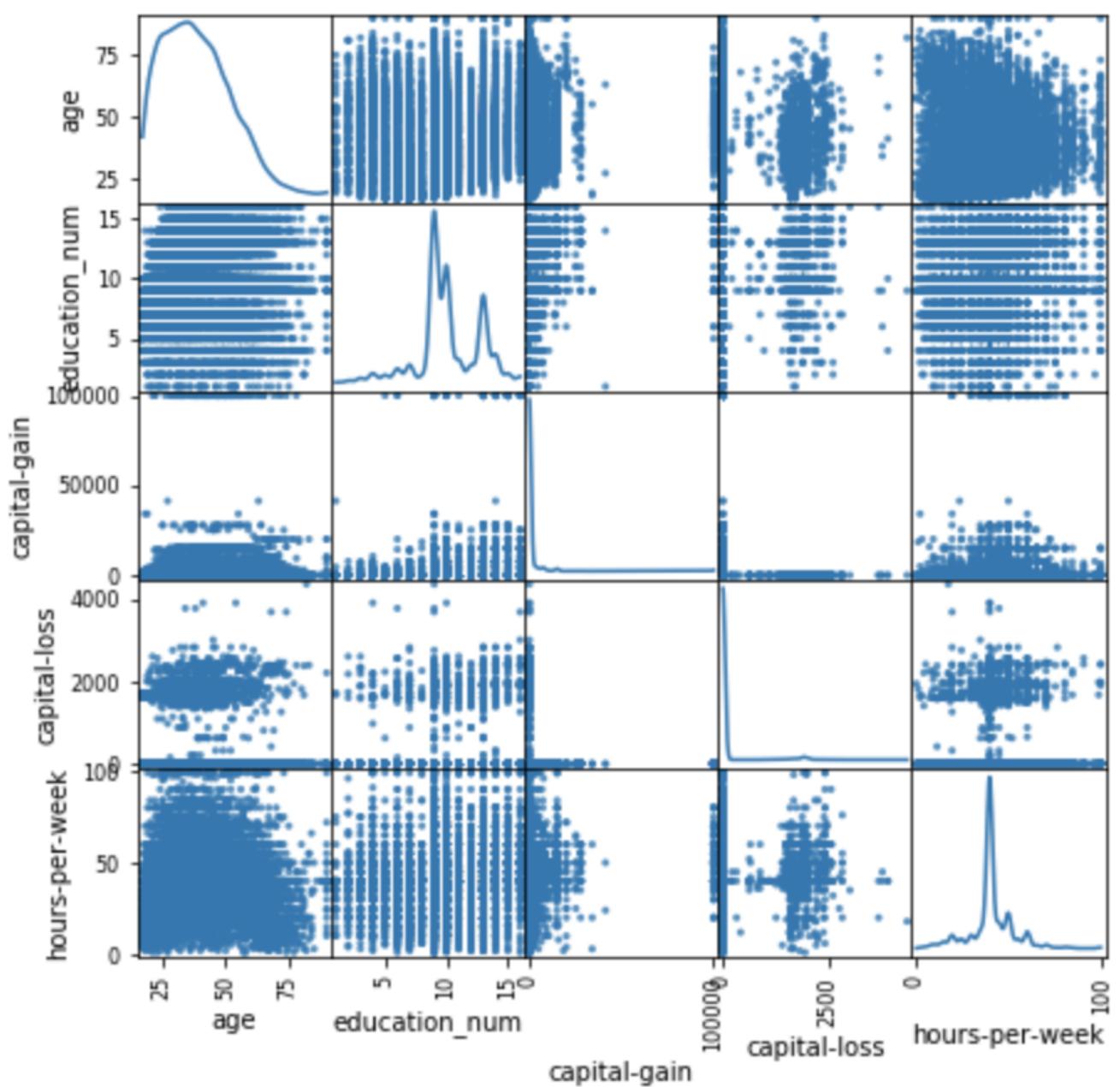


Figure 1: Scatter Matrix Plot [44].

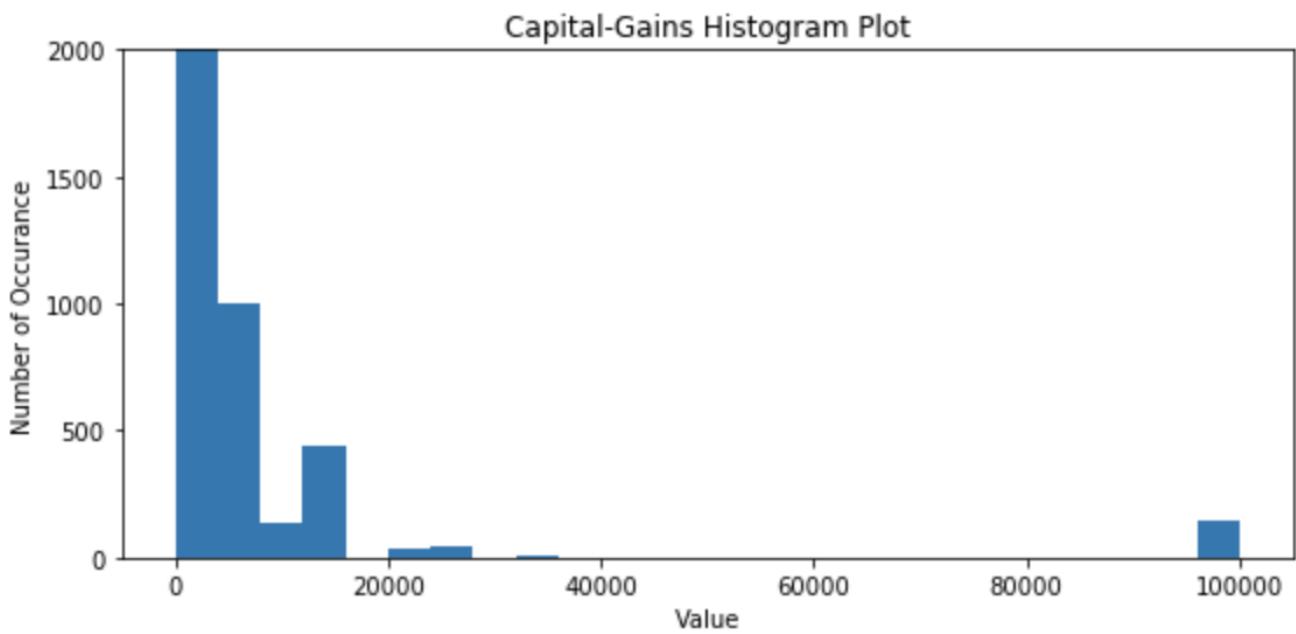


Figure 2: Histogram of Capital Gain [44].

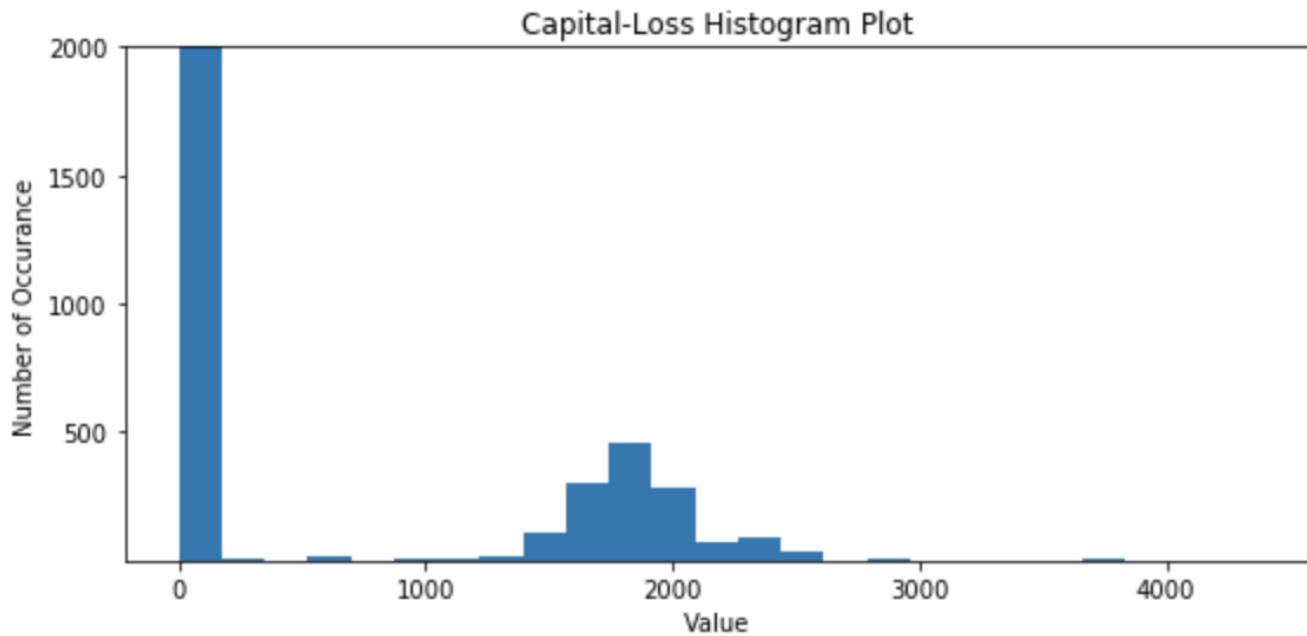


Figure 3: Histogram of Capital Loss [44].

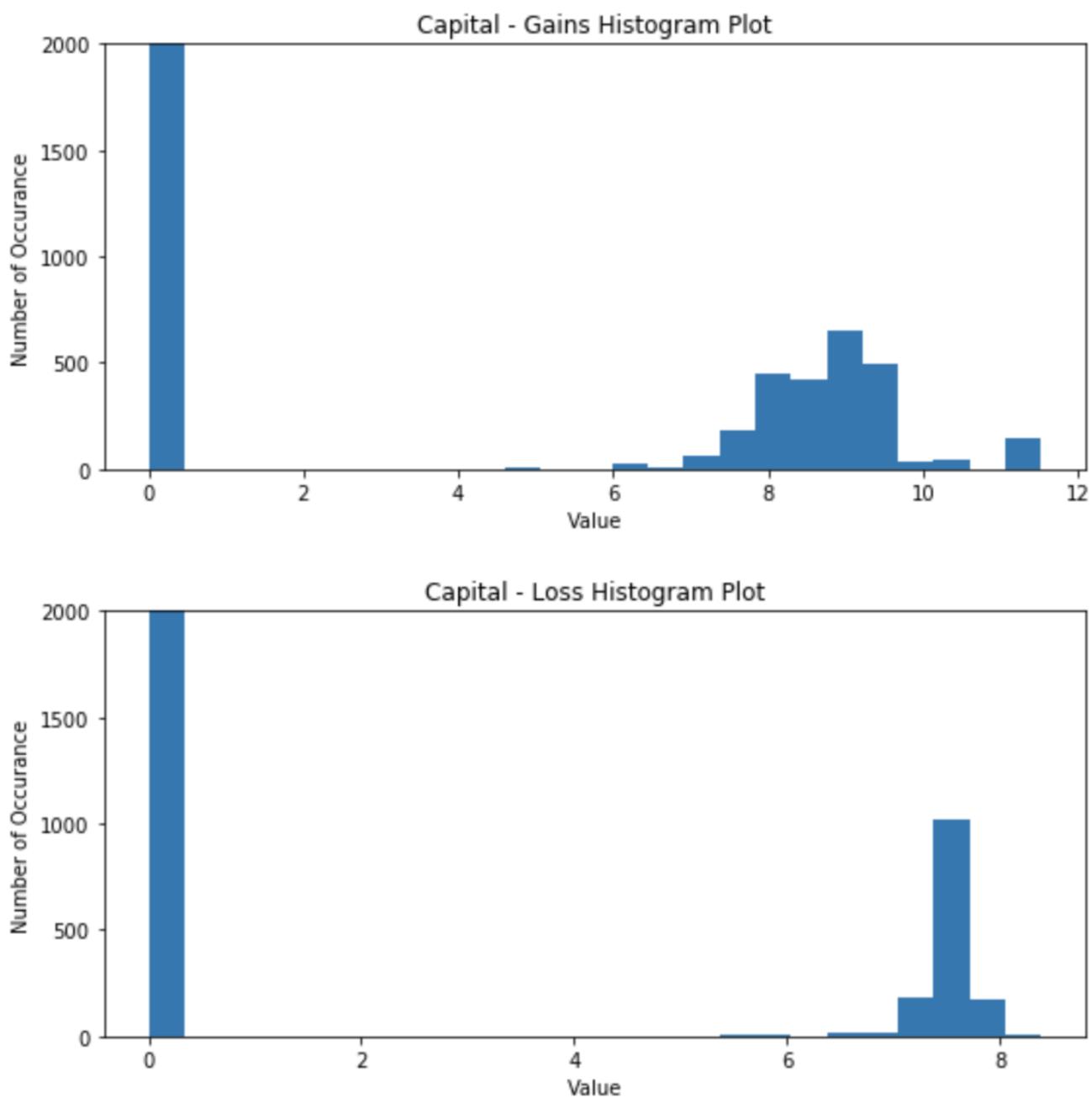


Figure 4: After Logarithmic Function Applied Histogram of Capital Gain [44].

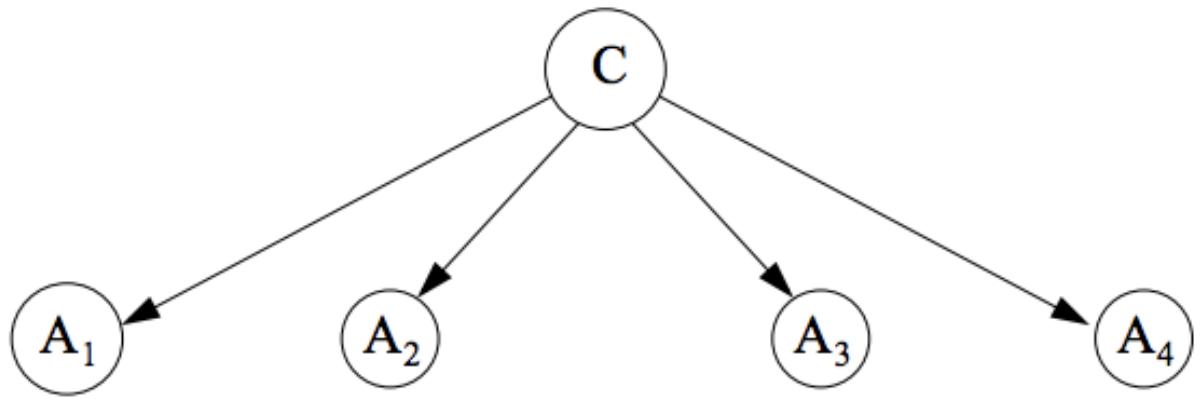


Figure 5: Example of Naive Bayes [50].

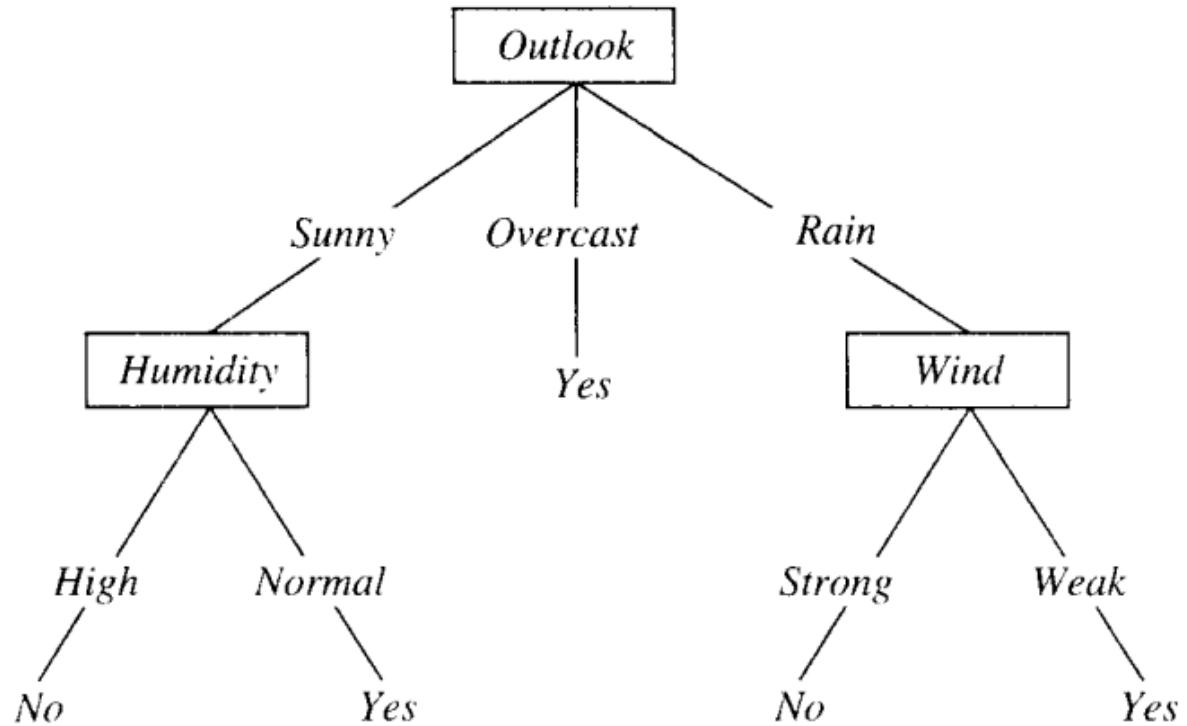


Figure 6: Example of Decision Tree Construction[33].

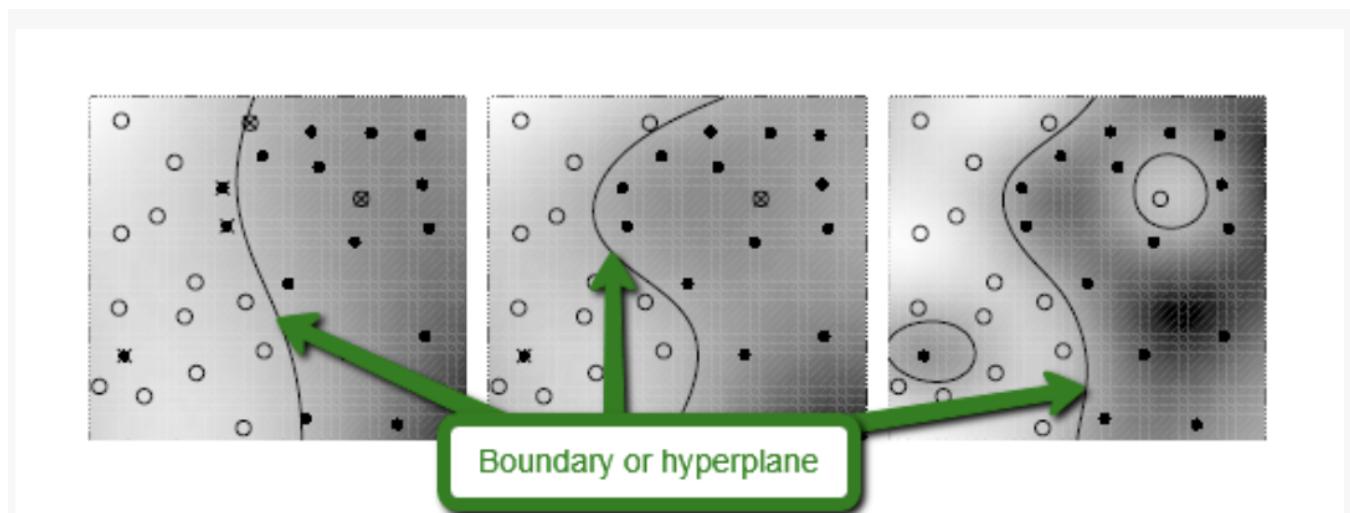


Figure 7: Example of Shows the Hyperplanes [6].

		Predicted class	
		Class = Yes	Class = No
Actual Class	Class = Yes	True Positive	False Negative
	Class = No	False Positive	True Negative

Figure 8: Example of Confusion Matrix Construction [20].

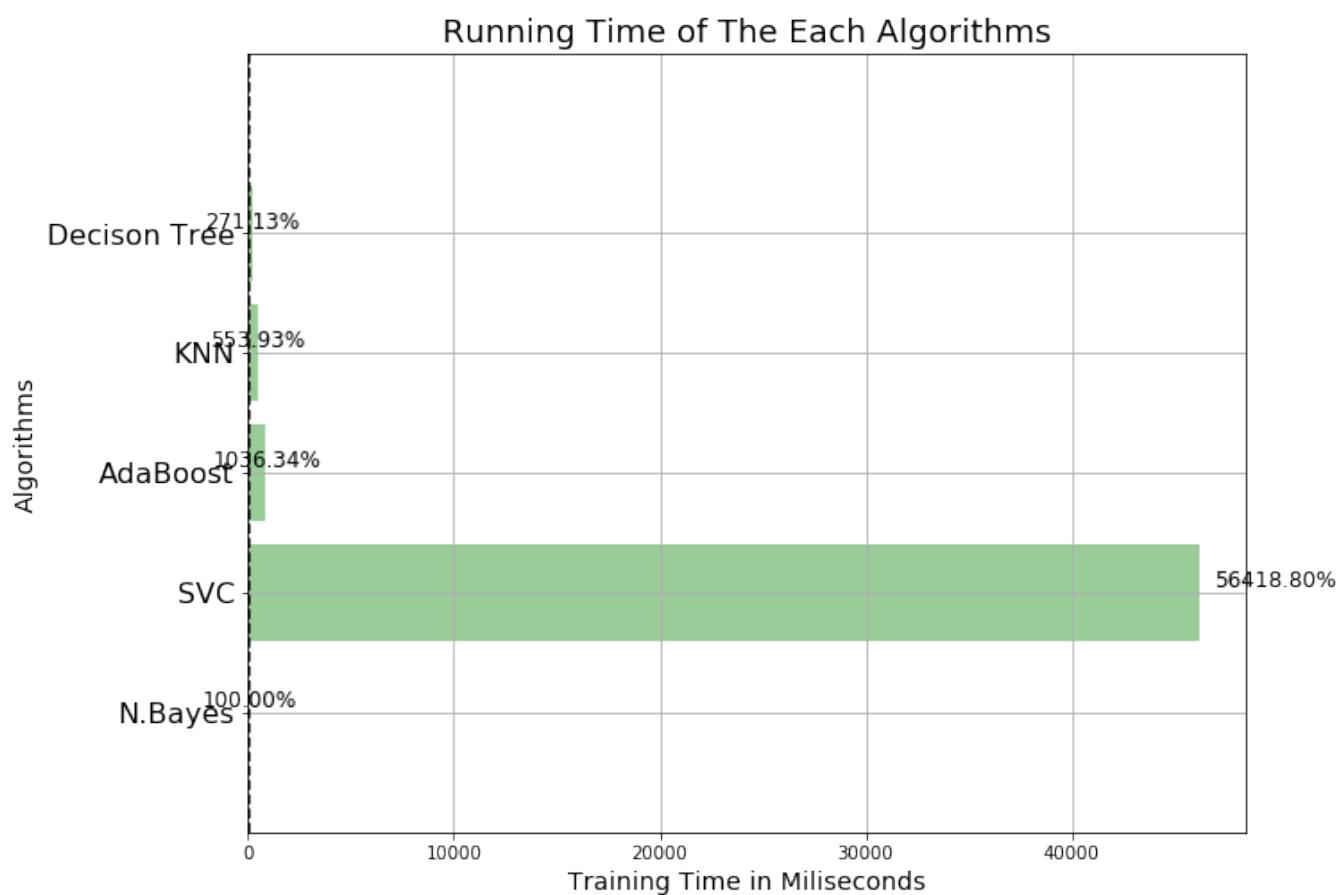


Figure 9: Supervised Learning Algorithm Running Time Results [44].

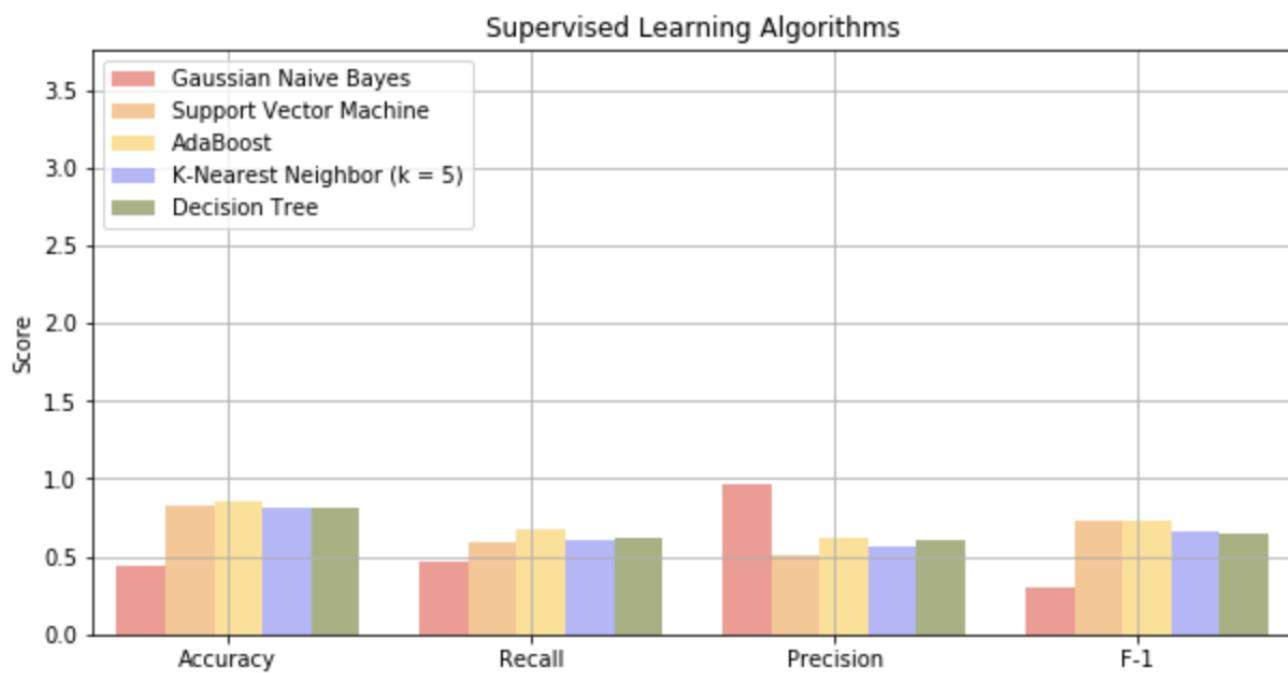


Figure 10: Supervised Learning Algorithm Results [44].

LIST OF TABLES

1	Statistical Summary of The Continuous Variables	17
2	Description of the Binary Values	17
3	Example of One Hot Encoding [45].	17
4	Example of One Hot Encoding After [45].	17
5	Statistical Summary of Continuous Variables [44].	17
6	Correlation Matrix [44].	18
7	Train-Test-Split [44].	18
8	Results of the Algorithms [44].	18

	age	education	cap gain	cap loss	hours
count	32561	32561	32561	32561	32561
mean	38.581	10.08	1077.64	87.303	40.437
std.	13.640	2.572	7385.292	402.960	12.347
min.	17.0	1.0	0	0	1.0
25%	28.0	9.0	0	0	40.0
50%	37.0	10.0	0	0	40.0
75%	48.0	12.0	0	0	45.0
max	90.0	16.0	0	4356.0	99.0

Table 1: Statistical Summary of The Continuous Variables

Description	Assigned Value
Individuals who makes more than \$50K	1
Individuals who makes at or less than \$50K	0

Table 2: Description of the Binary Values

Description	Assigned Value
Individuals who makes more than \$50K	1
Individuals who makes at or less than \$50K	0

Table 3: Example of One Hot Encoding [45].

VW	Acura	Honda	Price
1	0	0	20,000
0	1	0	10,011
0	0	1	50,000
0	0	1	10,000

Table 4: Example of One Hot Encoding After [45].

	Age	Gain	Loss	Hours
Number of Instances	32,561	32,561	32,561	32,561
Mean	38.58	1077.64	87.303	40.437
Standard Deviation	13.640	7385.292	402.960	12.347
Minimum Value	17	0	0	1
25th percentile	28	0	0	40
50th percentile	37	0	0	40
75th percentile	48	0	0	45
Maximum Values	90	99999	4356	99

Table 5: Statistical Summary of Continuous Variables [44].

	Age	Education	Capital Gain	Capital Loss	Hours Per Week
Age	1.0	0.043	0.080	0.060	0.101
Education	0.043	1.0	0.124	0.079	0.152
Capital Gain	0.080	0.124	1.0	-0.032	0.080
Capital Loss	0.060	0.796	-0.032	1.0	0.052
Hours Per Week	0.101	0.152	0.080	0.052	1.0

Table 6: Correlation Matrix [44].

Splitting the Data	Sample Size
Training	24129
Testing	6033

Table 7: Train-Test-Split [44].

Name	Accuracy	Recall	Precision	F1 Score
Naive Bayes	0.4442	0.4642	0.9680	0.3053
SVC	0.8301	0.5969	0.5056	0.7284
AdaBoost	0.8499	0.6724	0.6189	0.7361
KNN	0.8184	0.6090	0.5682	0.6561
Decision Tree	0.8161	0.6231	0.6109	0.6459

Table 8: Results of the Algorithms [44].

```
bibtext report
```

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
```

```
bibtext _ label error
```

```
report.bib:518:@incollection{NIPS2013_4937,
```

```
bibtext space label error
```

```
report.bib:172:@INPROCEEDINGS{knn-chung,
```

```
bibtext comma label error
```

```
latex report
```

```
[2017-12-08 04.04.04] pdflatex report.tex
```

```
This is pdfTeX, Version 3.14159265-2.6-1.40.17 (TeX Live 2016) (preloaded format=pdflatex)
bookmark level for unknown defaults to 0.
The anchor of a bookmark and its parent's must not be the same. Added a new anchor.
The anchor of a bookmark and its parent's must not be the same. Added a new anchor.
Typesetting of "report.tex" completed in 2.1s.
```

```
./README.yml
```

```
8:81      error    line too long (188 > 80 characters) (line-length)
8:188     error    trailing spaces (trailing-spaces)
21:81     error    line too long (534 > 80 characters) (line-length)
34:81     error    line too long (666 > 80 characters) (line-length)
34:666    error    trailing spaces (trailing-spaces)
35:12     error    trailing spaces (trailing-spaces)
37:30     error    trailing spaces (trailing-spaces)
42:5      error    duplication of key "type" in mapping (key-duplicates)
```

```
Compliance Report
```

```
name: Usifo, Borga
hid: 343
paper1: 100 %
paper2: 100 %
project: 100 %
```

```
yamlcheck
```

```
wordcount
```

```
18
wc 343 project 18 5776 report.tex
wc 343 project 18 6315 report.pdf
wc 343 project 18 3252 report.bib
```

```
find "
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find footnote
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find input{format/i523}
```

```
4: \input{format/i523}
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find input{format/final}
```

```
passed: False
```

```
floats
```

```
47: We first used the pandas \cite{www-pandas} to help to load the
```

data in data frame format. This gave us a unique advantage, and faster processing of comma separated values for putting into data frame \cite{www-commasep}. Our data consist of 15 variables. Some of these variables are continuous, and some of them are categorical variables, and our target variable was “income” attribute. After putting the data into data frames, we first got a statistical snapshot of continuous variables (age, education, capital gain, capital loss, hours worked) by using the pandas \cite{www-pandas.describe} functions as shown in Table \ref{stats-table}.

```

49: \begin{table}[!ht]
64: \label{stats-table}
76: \par Our last process is changing the string values to numerical values on our target data which consist of string values (''$50K'') for machine learning algorithms to understand this target data we need to transfer it to numerical values. Since we have only two categories, we will assign 1 and 0 as numerical values as shown in Table \ref{assign-values}.
78: \begin{table}[!ht]
87: \label{assign-values}
90: \par Our shape of the data will also receive impact from changing to numerical. Our number of futures will go from 14 to 103. This is because we implemented one-hot-encode to our dataset. It is called one hot encoded because we transform the categorical variables into a more acceptable shape for the machine learning algorithms to perform well \cite{www-hackernoon}. In other words ‘‘we implement binarization of the category to include as a future to train model \cite{www-hackernoon}’’. As we can see in Table \ref{one-hot-before} and Table \ref{one-hot-after}.
92: \begin{table}[!ht]
101: \label{one-hot-before}
104: \begin{table}[!ht]
115: \label{one-hot-after}
121: After cleaning the data, we started our data exploration to learn little bit more from our data and make necessary changes if needed before putting into our machine learning algorithms. The first step in this process is getting the total count of the individuals as well as the count of the individuals who are making more than \$50K and less than \$50K which can be seen in below Table \ref{my-label-2}.
132: \label{my-label-2}
135: \par Moreover, we also look at the statistical values of each of the continuous variable we have. Those values given in Table \ref{my-label}. As we can see we have individuals who’re age ranging from 17 to 90 years old with a mean of 38.58. If we look at the capital gains and capital losses, we have a standard
  
```

deviation of 7385 and 402 respectively this is also another indication of skew in these variables.

```
137: \begin{table}![ht]
152: \label{my-label}
155: \par We used scatter matrix plot and applied the correlation function to see if we have any reliable correlation between any of the variables. As we can see from the correlation matrix Table \ref{scatter-matrix} and correlation numbers Figure \ref{fig:scatter} we do not have the high correlation between any variables. Correlation values range between -1 to 1. The correlation value of 1 is an indication of perfect positive correlation and correlation number -1 indicates a negative correlation between variables \cite{www-investopedia}. Because of lower correlation values, it will be tough to determine the classification by just looking at the correlations; this indicates we have sophisticated algorithms to determine the relationship between variables to classify individuals incomes.
157: \begin{table}![ht]
169: \label{scatter-matrix}
173: \begin{figure}![ht]
175: \includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/scatter-matrix.png}
176: \caption{Scatter Matrix Plot
\cite{Borga2017}.}\label{fig:scatter}
179: \par Furthermore, we also explore the capital gains, capital losses, and hours per week variables which we used a histogram to plot the data into distribution form so we can see how all these attributes distributed. The reason we do the histogram is we want to see any skewness in our data. As shown in the histogram graphs in Figure \ref{fig:Hist-capital} and Figure \ref{fig:loss-capital} in capital gains and capital loss we have highly skewed data which can cause issues later on in our algorithms. We apply a logarithmic function to do highly skewed data to less skewed \cite{www-onlinestat}. Using logarithmic functions adds more value to data from the interpretable standpoint and “it helps to meet the assumptions of inferential statistics \cite{www-onlinestat}”.
181: \begin{figure}![ht]
183: \includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/capital-gain.png}
184: \caption{Histogram of Capital Gain
\cite{Borga2017}.}\label{fig:Hist-capital}
187: \begin{figure}![ht]
189: \includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/capital-loss.png}
190: \caption{Histogram of Capital Loss
\cite{Borga2017}.}\label{fig:loss-capital}
193: \par Moreover, applying logarithmic function had an impact on distribution. We can see the changes on skew data in Figure
```

```

\ref{fig:Hist-capital-log} after applying logarithmic function.
195: \begin{figure}[!ht]
197: \includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/logarithmic-
    applied.png}
198: \caption{After Logarithmic Function Applied Histogram of Capital
Gain \cite{Borga2017}.}\label{fig:Hist-capital-log}
235: \par Term naive comes from it is the method of use probability
among categories which assumes of independence among given class
of attributes as shown in Figure \ref{fig:Naive Bayes}. In other
words, if we try to classify individuals from their email
communications it will not take the order of words into account.
Whereas in the English language we can tell the difference
between sentence makes sense or not if we randomly re-order our
words in the sentences. So it does not understand the text, it
only looks at word frequencies as a way to do the classification.
This is why it is called “Naive”.
237: \begin{figure}[!ht]
240: \includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{Naive-bayes}
241: \caption{Example of Naive Bayes \cite{Zhang}.}\label{fig:Naive
Bayes}
326: \par Representation of decision trees is as follows; we sort the
instances from root to leaf nodes, this sorting gives insights
about the classification of the instance, every outcome
descending from the root node corresponds to possible values for
that variable \cite{www-cs.princeton}. We can classify an
instance by starting from the root node and checking the
attributes labeled on that node and moving down from that node
based on attribute given attribute values \cite{www-cs.princeton}
as shown in Figure \ref{fig:Decision Tree}.
328: \begin{figure}[!ht]
330: \includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/decison_tree.png}
331: \caption{Example of Decision Tree Construction\cite{www-
    cs.princeton}.}\label{fig:Decision Tree}
379: \begin{figure}[!ht]
381: \includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/hyperplane-
    boundary.png}
382: \caption{Example of Shows the Hyperplanes \cite{www-simafore-
    svm}.}\label{fig:Hyperplane}
385: \par Traditionally boundaries are called “hyperplanes” and it
is used to describe boundaries in more than three dimensions
because they are hard or sometimes impossible to
visualize.\cite{www-simafore}. Figure \ref{fig:Hyperplane}.
Optimality of hyperplane expressed as a linear function which
requires maximum distance between the identified classes. It only
considers a small number of training example to build this
hyperplane. SVM hyperplanes based on “ separation of positive

```

(+1) and negative (-1) with the largest margin \cite{verma-ssv}``.

430: \par We used scikit-learn for splitting data into train and test we saved 20\% of data for testing purposes as shown in Table \ref{split} .

432: \begin{table}[!ht]

441: \label{split}

457: Confusion matrix develops from 4 key elements. These elements are true positive, true negative, false negative, and false positive. As shown in Figure \ref{fig:confusion-matrix} about the constructing a confusion matrix. If we want to build a confusion matrix by targeting individuals who are making more than \\$50K our true positive, true negative, false positive, and false negative explained below.

459: \begin{figure}[!ht]

461: \includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/confusion-matrix.png}

462: \caption{Example of Confusion Matrix Construction \cite{www-exsilio}.}\label{fig:confusion-matrix}

504: Now we can look at the results from each of the machine learning algorithm. Results also showed in Table \ref{result-table} with the visualization of Figure \ref{fig:result-algo}. We can also see the running time of the each of the algorithm in Figure \ref{fig:result-time}. Support Vector Machines is the winner for the highest running time for training the algorithm.

506: \begin{figure}[!ht]

508: \includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/running-time.png}

509: \caption{Supervised Learning Algorithm Running Time Results \cite{Borga2017}.}\label{fig:result-time}

512: \begin{table}[!ht]

524: \label{result-table}

528: As shown in the Figure \ref{fig:result-algo} we have a comparison of several supervised machine learning algorithms on our dataset. We can see that from the accuracy standpoint Naive Bayes algorithms have the lowest score which means that it did not do a good job for labeling true positives regards to all data but it did a good job in precision standpoint while doing a bad classification from recall standpoint. Two key element for us in this situation is accuracy and f1 score(which consist of precision and recall).

532: As we stated before ensemble algorithms learn from the small portion of the data and combine these learning to do the predictive task. As shown in Figure \ref{fig:result-algo} adaboosting has the highest accuracy score among all the other algorithms. This algorithm should be our first choice to do predictive modeling. We believe that there is still an improvements on accuracy

537: Decision Tree is gave a good accuracy but fall behind on f1 score
as shown in Figure \ref{fig:result-algo}.

544: \begin{figure}[!ht]
546: \includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/result-score.png}
547: \caption{Supervised Learning Algorithm Results
\\cite{Borga2017}.}\label{fig:result-algo}

figures 10

tables 8

\includegraphics 10

labels 19

refs 17

floats 18

True : ref check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)

False : label check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)

True : include graphics passed: (figures >= \includegraphics)

False : check if all figures are refered to: (refs >= labels)

Label/ref check

passed: True

When using figures use columnwidth

[width=1.0\columnwidth]

do not change the number to a smaller fraction

find textwidth

passed: True

below_check

WARNING: algorithm and below may be used improperly

121: After cleaning the data, we started our data exploration to learn
little bit more from our data and make necessary changes if
needed before putting into our machine learning algorithms. The
first step in this process is getting the total count of the
individuals as well as the count of the individuals who are
making more than \\$50K and less than \\$50K which can be seen in
below Table \ref{my-label-2}.

WARNING: code and below may be used improperly

211: Scikit-learn developed by David Cournapeau in 2007. The development came from while he was working on summer code project for Google. After recognized and published by INRIA in 2010 project start the get more attention among worldwide. There are more than 30 active contributors and has secured several sponsorships from big technology companies\cite{www-machinelearningmystery}. ‘‘It also has a goal of providing common algorithms to Python users through consistent interface\cite{www-oreilly}’’. Scikit-Learn consists of several elements to make analytical predictions. These elements are shown below\cite{www-analyticvidhya}:

WARNING: algorithm and below may be used improperly

211: Scikit-learn developed by David Cournapeau in 2007. The development came from while he was working on summer code project for Google. After recognized and published by INRIA in 2010 project start the get more attention among worldwide. There are more than 30 active contributors and has secured several sponsorships from big technology companies\cite{www-machinelearningmystery}. ‘‘It also has a goal of providing common algorithms to Python users through consistent interface\cite{www-oreilly}’’. Scikit-Learn consists of several elements to make analytical predictions. These elements are shown below\cite{www-analyticvidhya}:

WARNING: algorithm and below may be used improperly

221: \par Algorithms that we will investigate shown below; we will go more deep analysis on each of these algorithms.

bibtex

label errors

518: NIPS2013_4937: do not use underscore in labels:

bibtex errors

This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Database file #1: report.bib

bibtex_empty_fields

entries in general should not be empty in bibtex

find ""

passed: True

ascii

=====

The following tests are optional

=====

Tip: newlines can often be replaced just by an empty line

find newline

passed: True

cites should have a space before \cite{} but not before the {

find cite {

passed: True

Big Data Analytics in Detection of DDoS (Distributed Denial-of-Service) attacks

Neha Rawat
Indiana University
Bloomington, Indiana
nrawat@iu.edu

ABSTRACT

With the increase in internet traffic, threats on the network have also increased. Denial-of-service attacks are cyber attacks wherein a perpetrator, due to any kind of malicious intent, tries to make a resource on the network unavailable to its intended users and carries it out by swamping the system or resource with excess requests in order to overload it and prevent users from accessing it. A much more dangerous variety of such an attack is if it is distributed i.e. coming from various sources. Big Data analytics, however, can be used to detect such attacks by having the ability to store the voluminous logs of such attacks and using the data and machine learning techniques to design an anomaly detection system (using a classification model) to detect and prevent these attacks. This project will aim to explore such classification models, design and train the most optimum model and display its effects using a DDoS network traffic logs dataset.

KEYWORDS

i523, HID224, Denial-of-Service, Intrusion Detection, KDD Cup'99 dataset, Machine Learning, Apache Spark

1 INTRODUCTION

The Internet allows us several comforts and functionalities in our day-to-day lives. With the increasing flexibility and accessibility provided by technology, the Internet has become an indispensable part of our life. However, this same accessibility often provides openings for malicious attackers to enter. Security over the Internet is an interdependent factor, with the security of one user depending on rest of the global network [1]. Denial-of-Service attacks are attacks by such malicious users in order to disrupt the accessibility of other legitimate users to a Web Service or application [7]. The objectives of such attacks are mainly malicious, driven out of revenge or for some material gain. The attacks seriously hinder the productivity of the victim, as the resources available are not sufficient to handle the oncoming flood of requests. This attack increases in complexity when there are multiple sources of attacks, resulting in a Distributed Denial-of-Service attack. “In the case of a Distributed Denial-of-Service (DDoS) attack, an attacker uses multiple sources - which may be compromised or controlled by a group of collaborators - to orchestrate an attack against a target” [7]. A small batch of requests sent by an attacker may be enough to generate a large amount of unwanted traffic. The earliest of these attacks was when a DDoS tool called Trinoo, deployed in at least 227 systems, flooded a University of Minnesota computer, which was subsequently rendered useless for more than two days [1]. Figure 1 shows how a Distributed Denial-of-Service attack occurs.

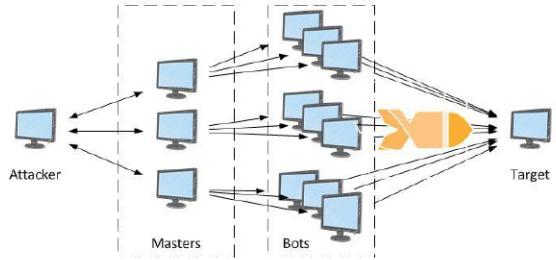


Figure 1: Distributed Denial-of-Service Attack [7]

As the connectivity increases in our everyday lives, so have the risks for DDoS attacks. The Internet of Things (IoT) for example, has opened up a whole new avenue for Denial-of-Service attackers. Earlier, limited to attacks over the Internet which mostly affected a user’s computer, with the advent of IoT, the scope of attacks on other smart devices has increased considerably. These devices could be used as pawns in a DDoS attack network and could even be the intended targets for such an attack. Some of the largest DDoS attacks till date are as given: In March of 2013, the DDoS attack on Spamhaus saw 120 Gbps of traffic on their network, in August of 2013, a “part of the Chinese internet went down in one of the largest DDoS attacks”, in the Spring of 2015, UK-based phone carrier Carphone Warehouse got attacked and hackers stole millions of customers’ data and in January of 2016, some HSBC customers were inhibited from accessing their online banking accounts, which caused a great upheaval as it was “two days before the tax payment deadline in the United Kingdom” [11]. We can see that these attacks, if allowed to happen, have great damage potential. Hence, DDoS mitigation service providers like Imperva Incapsula Enterprise, Arbor Cloud, Verisign, DOSarrest and CloudFlare, have their work cut out for them to detect and prevent such attacks, which are increasing in their reach and complexity [10].

2 DDoS ATTACK TYPES AND ARCHITECTURE

In order to prevent a DDoS attack, it is important to know the points in a network where the attack is expected to occur and the type of attack that can occur. Referring to an Open Systems Interconnection(OSI) model, we can usually narrow down the layers which could be affected by a potential attack to the Network, Transport, Presentation and Application layers [7]. Figure 2 shows an Open Systems Interconnection Model with the layers highlighted where DDoS attacks are most common.

#	Layer	Unit	Description	Vector Examples
7	Application	Data	Network process to application	HTTP floods, DNS query floods
6	Presentation	Data	Data representation and encryption	SSL abuse
5	Session	Data	Interhost communication	N/A
4	Transport	Segments	End-to-end connections and reliability	SYN floods
3	Network	Packets	Path determination and logical addressing	UDP reflection attacks
2	Data Link	Frames	Physical addressing	N/A
1	Physical	Bits	Media, signal, and binary transmission	N/A

Figure 2: Open Systems Interconnection Model [7]

Apart from this, the DDoS attacks generally have a specific architecture and follow certain strategies. Knowledge of the pathway which a Denial-of-Service attack follows is essential to detecting and mitigating it.

2.1 DDoS Attack Types

The DDoS attacks in the Network and Transport layers are generally of the User Datagram Protocol (UDP) reflection and synchronize (SYN) flood types [7]. The UDP protocol can allow the attacker to fake the source of a request sent to a server and generate a larger response. The amplification factor of a protocol (request to response size) will result in an overwhelming response to a comparatively smaller request. “For example, the amplification factor for DNS can be in the 28 to 54 range - which means an attacker can send a request payload of 64 bytes to a DNS server and generate over 3400 bytes of unwanted traffic” [7]. A SYN flood attack is based on employing all the resources of a system and exhausting them by leaving connections half-open. For example, when an user connects to a TCP service, the client will send a SYN packet and the server will return a SYN-ACK, expecting the client to return an ACK and completing the handshake. In a SYN flood attack, the ACK is not returned and so the server is stuck in this state which prevents other users from connecting to it [7].

In the Presentation and Application layers, the DDoS attacks are slightly different. The most common of such attacks are “HTTP floods, cache-busting attacks, and WordPress XML-RPC floods” [7]. In an HTTP flood attack, the attacker sends HTTP requests under the guise of a real user or web service. These attacks target a resource or try to emulate human behavior. Cache-busting attacks are a specialized version of HTTP flood attacks that use “variations in the query string to circumvent content delivery network (CDN) caching which results in origin fetches, causing additional strain on the origin web server” [7]. A WordPress XML-RPC flood (WordPress pingback flood) is used by an attacker to misuse the XML-RPC API function of a website hosted on WordPress software to generate HTTP flood requests. This type of attack has *WordPress* present in the HTTP request header and so is clearly recognizable [7].

2.2 DDoS Attack Architecture

“DDoS attack networks follow two types of architectures: the Agent-Handler architecture and the Internet Relay Chat (IRC)-based architecture” [1]. The components of an Agent-Handler architecture are clients, handlers, and agents. In this type of architecture, the attacker connects with the rest of the attack system at the client point. The handlers are generally software packages available over

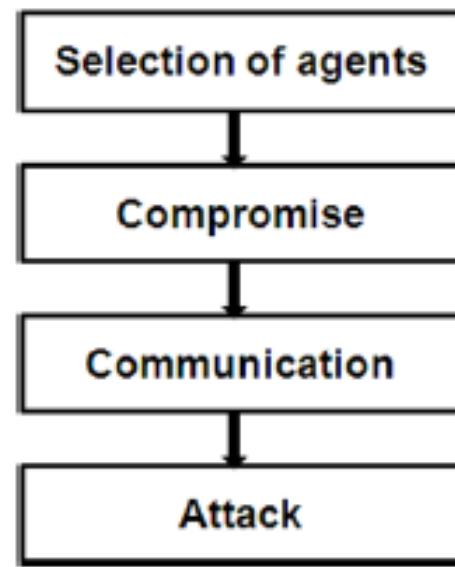


Figure 3: Steps of a Denial-of-Service attack [1]

the Internet which are used by the client to connect to the agents. The agent softwares are placed in the vulnerable systems that are finally used to implement the attack. Often, the users of the agent systems are not aware of the attack being carried out [1]. In the IRC-based architecture, “an IRC communication channel is used to connect the client(s) to the agents” [1]. IRC ports are employed to send commands to the agents, making the DDoS command packets harder to trace (as these channels have a lot of traffic) [1]. When launching a DDoS attack, the attacker goes through some steps common to both types of architectures [1]. First, the attacker tries to identify vulnerable systems that can be used as agents. The resources of these systems are used to generate a powerful attack stream. Next, the attacker plants the handler software code in the compromised system and ensures steps to prevent the code from being detected. These compromised systems are often referred to as *zombies*. Sometimes, the attacker creates several intermediate layers between the *zombies* and the victim to hinder traceability. Thirdly, the attacker communicates with the handler codes placed via protocols like TCP or UDP, and decides the scheduling of the attacks. Post the complete setup, the attacker launches the attack on the victim’s machine or server and renders it unusable [1]. In an IRC-based architecture, most of the above steps remain same, but an IRC-channel is used for communication purposes. This helps the attacker as even if one *zombie* or *bot* is discovered, the identities of the others is still hidden, as IRC-channels are difficult to detect [1]. Figure 3 shows the steps of a Denial-of-Service attack execution.

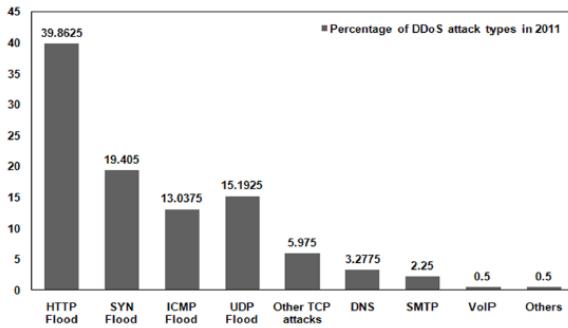


Figure 4: Different Denial-of-Service attack type statistics [1]

3 DDOS ATTACK DEFENSE METHODOLOGIES

In the previous section, we explored the common types of DDoS attacks and the general architecture that they follow. These different types of attacks are used with variation by attackers in their attempts to obstruct utilization of resources. Figure 4 shows the percentage of different Denial-of-Service attacks in 2011 by type. The different types of DDoS attacks and their improvement throughout time has also invoked different defense mechanisms against these attacks. DDoS defense mechanisms are usually employed at three points in the attack network : Victim-end, Source-end and Intermediate-Network [1]. Victim-end detection approaches are generally incorporated in the routers of victim networks. A detection system is used to detect intrusion based on different techniques. Detecting DDoS attacks at this point is relatively easy and the most practically applicable, but has the disadvantage of detection only after the attack has reached the victim and legitimate users have already been denied services [1]. Source-end detection system works similarly to the victim-end detection system apart from “a throttling component”, which is added to force a rate limit on outgoing connections. The detection system then compares both incoming and outgoing network traffic with normal traffic benchmarks to detect an attack. This is probably the ideal defense mechanism, but faces challenges in the deployment of a detection system at the source and difficulty in identification in case of multiple sources [1]. The intermediate-network defense mechanism acts like a middle-ground between the victim-end and source-end systems. It acts like a collaborative model which depends upon communication and sharing of information between all routers on the network. Hence, this too suffers from the problem of deployability, as even one router missing on the network could hinder the traceback process [1].

From the above defense mechanism schemes, we can garner that detection of these attacks forms a major part of the preventive process. The most commonly used detection methodologies for defense against DDoS are as follows: Statistical Methods, Soft-Computing and Machine Learning Methods and Knowledge-Based Methods [1].

3.1 Statistical Methods

Statistical Methods follow the statistical properties of the distribution of incoming and outgoing network traffic for detection of DDoS attacks. The distributions (or statistical estimates generated using it) are compared with those for a normal traffic signature. An example of the same is the use of cumulative deviation from normal to detect DDoS attacks. Similarly, a periodic deviation analysis from the normal pattern can be used to detect intrusions [1]. Another example, is the use of a two-sample t-test to detect DDoS signatures by comparing the SYN arrival rate distribution with the distribution of a normal SYN arrival rate (after confirming a gaussian distribution for it). If the difference is considered significant according to the t-test, the traffic is marked as potentially containing attack packets [1]. A prediction method designed by Zhang et al. [12] uses an Auto Regressive Integrated Auto Regressive (ARIMA) model for their detection system.

3.2 Soft-Computing and Machine Learning Methods

The voluminous network traffic data generated can be leveraged by a soft-computing system like a neural network or a data mining/machine learning model to design a classifier that differentiates between normal traffic and intrusions. An example is the use of statistical preprocessing for extraction of relevant features from the traffic followed by an unsupervised neural net to classify traffic signatures as either a DDoS attack or normal [1]. Another case is the use of a Radial Basis Function (RBF) neural network to analyze attack packets and classify them as normal or harmful [1]. Machine learning algorithms like K-Nearest Neighbors and Support Vector Machines can be used as excellent classifiers for incoming network traffic. Fuzzy networks can also be used in the decision-making process while separating normal traffic packets from potentially harmful ones [1].

3.3 Knowledge-Based Methods

In knowledge-based methods, network traffic features are compared with predefined patterns of attack. Some examples of knowledge-based methodologies include “expert systems, signature analysis, self organizing maps, and state transition analysis” [1]. Heuristics can be used to analyze traffic characteristics and classify them as DDoS or otherwise. An excellent example is that of a DDoS detection system which used a “gossip based communication mechanism” to exchange information about network attacks among independent detection nodes in order to use the aggregate data to identify network attacks [1]. Another model, used temporal-correlation based method to extract features and spatial-correlation for detection to correctly identify DDoS attacks [1].

4 DDOS ATTACK DETECTION MODEL

For this project, we have worked on the design and implementation of an optimal DDoS detection model (based on Soft-Computing and Machine Learning algorithms) by training and implementing several potential models and creating an ensemble model from the best ones. We have also explored the traffic logs dataset to identify patterns via unsupervised means.

4.1 Data Description

The KDD Cup'99 dataset [6] has been used for our data analysis. This dataset has been derived from the 1998 DARPA Intrusion Detection Evaluation Program dataset [8] which was prepared and managed by MIT Lincoln Labs. The data was simulated to evaluate study in intrusion detection. It comprises of a “wide variety of intrusions simulated in a military network environment” [6]. The original data comprised of around five million records. Hence, we use a 10 percent subset of the original train and test datasets for our analysis purposes.

4.2 Data Exploration and Processing

The data exploration and analysis for this project has been implemented using Python on *Jupyter Notebook*. The *Jupyter Notebook* provides us with “an open-source web application that allows us to create and share documents that contain live code, equations, visualizations and narrative text” [5].

For data loading, we use the *Pandas* library in python, which is one of the largest and most flexible data managing libraries and offers a wide variety of options for data handling and manipulation using data frames. After loading the datasets, we explore some of the features of the dataset. From the documentation on the KDD Cup'99 dataset, we know that the data consists of a wide variety of network attacks, but the five main classes of network traffic are as follows: normal (normal network traffic), DoS/DDoS (Denial-of-Service network traffic), R2L (unauthorized access from a remote machine traffic), U2R (unauthorized access to local superuser privileges traffic) and probing [6]. Also, the test dataset consists of an additional 14 attack types which are not present in the training data. However, these new attack types are also a part of the above five categories and the purpose behind their addition in the dataset was to prove that new variants can also be detected using signatures of the preexisting types of attacks [6].

For plotting and visualization purposes, we use *Matplotlib* and *Seaborn* - two excellent visualization libraries offered by Python. First, we check for nulls in the train and test dataset, but find none. Secondly, we check the three categorical columns in the data, to ensure same levels in both the training and test dataset. We find that the training dataset has an additional level in the *service* column. For simplicity, we remove the categorical columns from our analysis dataset and continue our work on only the numerical columns. We now explore the target label column which specifies the *attack type* or the network traffic class. We map the labels to five core categories discussed previously and compare them for the training and testing set. Figure 5 shows the Attack Type distribution in the training and test datasets

We can observe that DoS attacks form the majority of all the attack types (98.67 percent out of all attacks in training set; 91.78 percent out of all attacks in test set). Hence, we broadly classify the target labels as *normal* and *bad* for intrusion detection. We also include the individual labels for the multi-label classification part.

Post this, we create pair plots for the first few variables in order to view individual distributions as well as correlations. Figure 6 shows the pair plot between the first 15 variables in the training dataset. We observe that the data seems to be skewed, indicating the need for standardizing the features. Also, there do not seem to

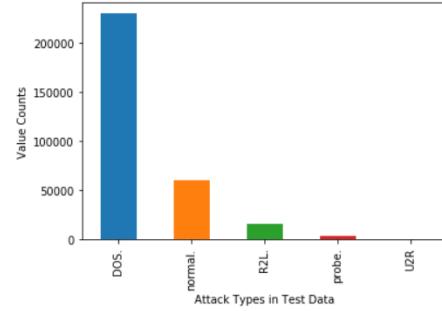
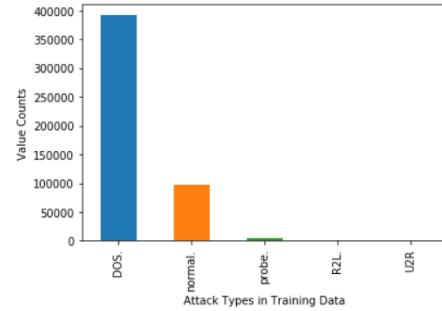


Figure 5: Attack Type Distributions

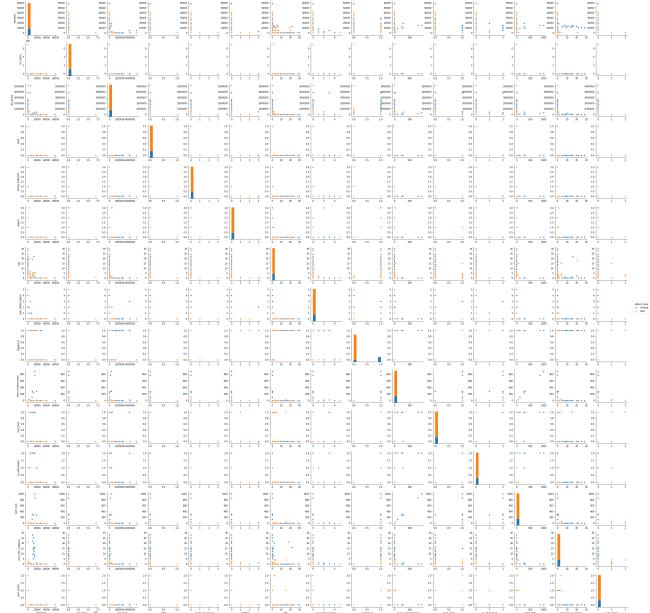


Figure 6: Pair plot for Training Features

be a lot of correlated variables in the dataset.

We proceed with separating the binary variables (mentioned in the documentation) from the continuous variables and scaling the continuous variables using mean normalization in the training dataset. We then apply the same transformations to the test dataset. Post

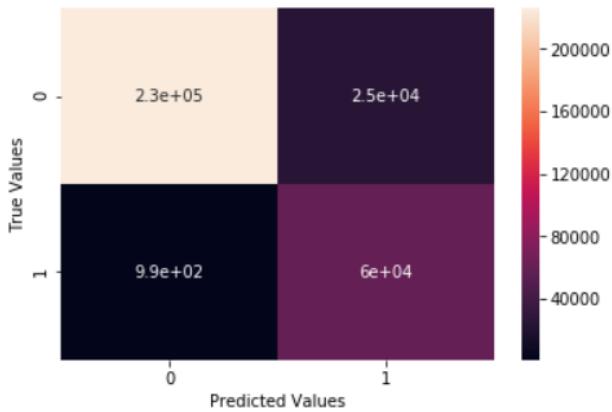


Figure 7: Logistic Regression Confusion Matrix - 2-class classification

this, we consolidate all our features and get the final processed datasets for training and testing.

4.3 Data Analysis

Once we are ready with our final datasets, we design the required detection models by training them on the training data and testing their performance on the test data. For the design of the models, we use the *scikit-learn* or *sklearn* package in python, which contains a plethora of resources for statistical and machine learning methodologies. For most models, we also employ the *n_jobs* parameter present in the models for parallelization purposes [9]. For performance tests, we calculate the accuracy, precision, recall and F1 score for the model (for both 2-label and multi-label classification). The confusion matrix generated in each case displays the classes as follows: 2-class classification (0 - bad, 1 - normal) ; Multi-class classification (0 - Dos/DDoS, 1 - R2L, 2 - U2R, 3 - normal, 4 - probe).

4.3.1 Logistic Regression. Logistic Regression is a machine learning algorithm based on the regression model which is used to fit a model to describe the relationship between a dependent (categorical target) and one or more independent variables. Used mainly for classification purposes, the target variable in a logistic regression model is mainly binary, although the method can be used for multi-class classification too. The basis of logistic regression is a *logistic function* (usually a sigmoid function) which keeps the output values bounded between 0 and 1. This function is fit using a *maximum likelihood* methodology which attempts to estimate the coefficients of the regression equation such that the probability outputs match as closely as possible to the true output values [4].

We train two logistic regression models - one for the 2-class classification and one for the multi-class classification. The model for the 2-class classification is fit as per the default parameters, with the regularization parameter as 0.01 for stronger regularization. For the multi-class classification (since this is not the default type for a logistic regression model), we use a specific solver method known as *Stochastic Average Gradient Descent Solver* [9]. Figure 7 shows the 2-class confusion matrix for logistic regression. Figure 8 shows

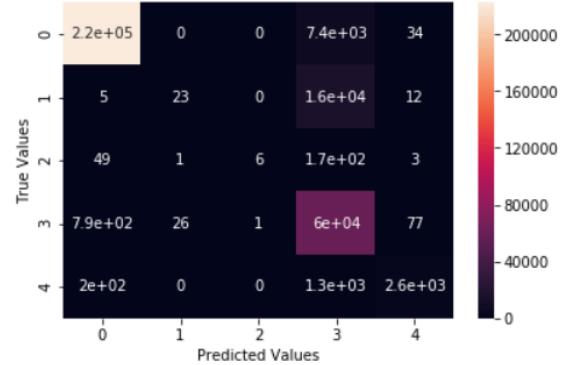


Figure 8: Logistic Regression Confusion Matrix - Multi-class classification

the multi-class confusion matrix for logistic regression.

The overall accuracy, recall, precision and F1 score for the 2-class classification are as follows: 91.7, 94.2, 85.0 and 88.3 percent. The same for the multi-class classification are as follows: 91.5, 52.2, 79.4 and 52.3. We can observe that the accuracy of the model seems to be good for the 2-class classification but the recall and F1 scores decrease for the multi-class classification (due to the decrease in recall for the U2R and R2L classes, which have a higher proportion in test as compared to train data).

4.3.2 K-Nearest Neighbors. The K-Nearest Neighbors algorithm selects the k nearest points to the test data point (depending upon a predefined distance metric), present in the training data point, and assign it the class label depending on the majority class label present among the k training data points. Being a non-parametric method, KNN does not assume any initial distribution or form of data [4].

We train two KNN ($k=5$) models - one for the 2-class classification and one for the multi-class classification. For both the classification models, instead of taking the *brute force* or traditional approach, we use an optimized approach known as *Ball Tree Method* [9], which is a tree based method that endeavors to reduce the number of distance computations by encoding the distance information more efficiently. It recursively divides the data according to a hypersphere determined by a particular centroid and radius, and reduces the participants for a neighbor search using triangle inequality [9]. This method works better for data in high dimensions (similar to the dataset for our analysis). Also, we take the distance metric as Manhattan Distance instead of the commonly used Euclidean Distance metric, due to better properties of Manhattan distance in higher dimensions.

Figure 9 shows the 2-class confusion matrix for KNN. Figure 10 shows the multi-class confusion matrix for KNN.

The overall accuracy, recall, precision and F1 score for the 2-class classification are as follows: 92.35, 94.64, 85.95 and 89.20 percent. The same for the multi-class classification are as follows: 92.08, 55.90, 80.16 and 55.17. We can observe that the accuracy of the model increases as compared to a simple logistic regression model

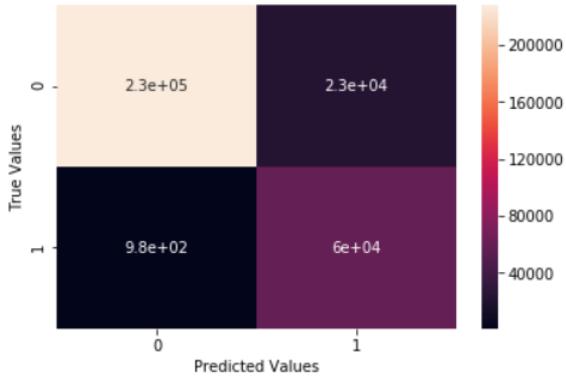


Figure 9: KNN Confusion Matrix - 2-class classification

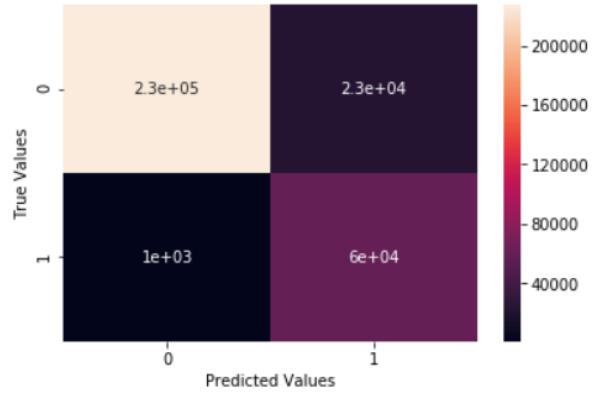


Figure 11: Linear SVM Confusion Matrix - 2-class classification

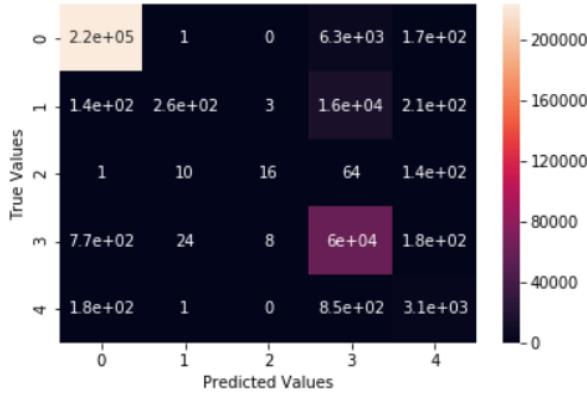


Figure 10: KNN Confusion Matrix - Multi-class classification

for the 2-class classification. The recall and F1 scores too increase for the multi-class classification case.

4.3.3 Support Vector Machine - Linear. A Support Vector Machine is a model based on the maximal margin classifier i.e. classification based on an optimal separating hyperplane. The support vector machine extends this concept further and to non-linear decision boundaries as well. It uses a function referred to as the *kernel* which acts as quantification of the similarity between observations. Therefore, for non-linear cases a variety of kernels such as radial or polynomial can be employed for classification purposes [4]. We train two linear SVM models - one for the 2-class classification and one for the multi-class classification. We implement this classifier using a *Bagging Classifier* which uses the base SVM classifier on different subsets of data drawn with replacement (also referred to as bootstrapping) and aggregates the results to given the final output [9]. Figure 11 shows the 2-class confusion matrix for linear SVM. Figure 12 shows the multi-class confusion matrix for linear SVM. The overall accuracy, recall, precision and F1 score for the 2-class classification are as follows: 92.24, 94.55, 85.80 and 89.06 percent. The same for the multi-class classification are as follows: 89.29,

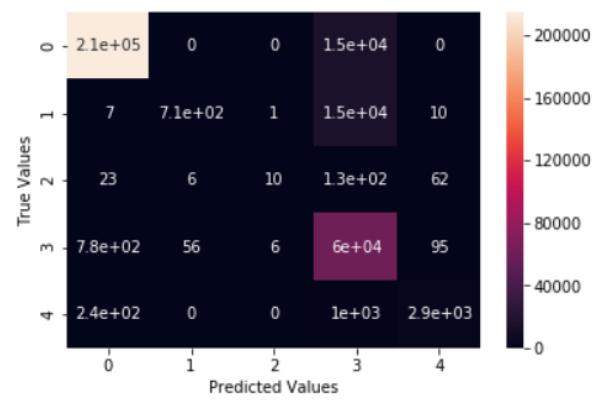


Figure 12: Linear SVM Confusion Matrix - Multi-class classification

53.96, 81.97 and 54.22. We can observe that the accuracy of the model increases as compared to a simple logistic regression model but is lower than the KNN model for the 2-class classification. The recall and F1 scores too increase compared to logistic regression but are lower than KNN for the multi-class classification case.

4.3.4 Support Vector Machine - Polynomial. Here, we train two SVM models (with polynomial kernels of degree=3) and using a *Bagging Classifier* - one for the 2-class classification and one for the multi-class classification. Figure 13 shows the 2-class confusion matrix for polynomial SVM. Figure 14 shows the multi-class confusion matrix for polynomial SVM. The overall accuracy, recall, precision and F1 score for the 2-class classification are as follows: 92.26, 94.39, 85.84 and 89.05 percent. The same for the multi-class classification are as follows: 91.96, 56.49, 86.28 and 56.42. We can observe that the accuracy of this model too is lower than the KNN model for the 2-class classification. However, the recall and F1 scores are higher than KNN too (correctly classifies more DoS/DDoS and probe attacks than linear

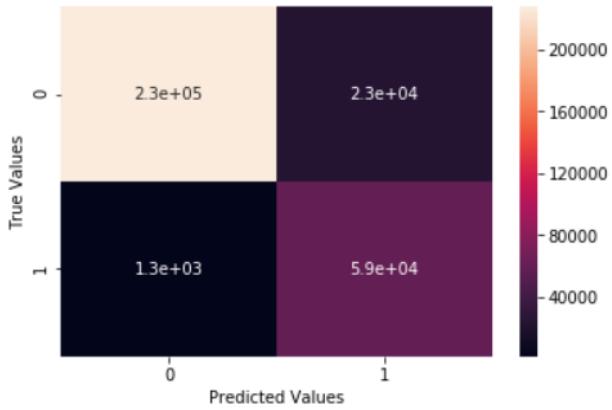


Figure 13: Polynomial SVM Confusion Matrix - 2-class classification

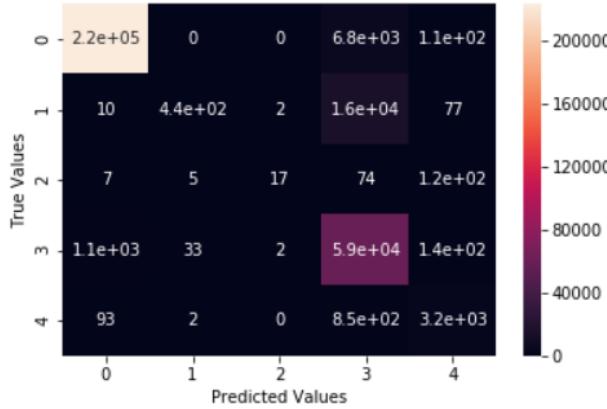


Figure 14: Polynomial SVM Confusion Matrix - Multi-class classification

SVM and more R2L and probe attacks than KNN) for the multi-class classification case. Overall, the performance is similar to KNN.

4.3.5 Random Forest. A random forest model works as an improvement over individual decision trees through building a number of decision trees on bootstrapped samples along with decorrelating the individual trees by choosing only a random subset of predictors out of the total predictors while constructing trees. At each split, a fresh subset of predictors is used which implements the decorrelation of features [4].

We train two random forest models - one for the 2-class classification and one for the multi-class classification. The selection of the subset of features is taken as the default parameter i.e. square root of the total number of features [9]. Figure 15 shows the 2-class confusion matrix for a Random Forest. Figure 16 shows the multi-class confusion matrix for a Random Forest.

The overall accuracy, recall, precision and F1 score for the 2-class classification are as follows: 92.64, 95.22, 86.31, 89.63 percent. The same for the multi-class classification are as follows: 92.44, 55.74,

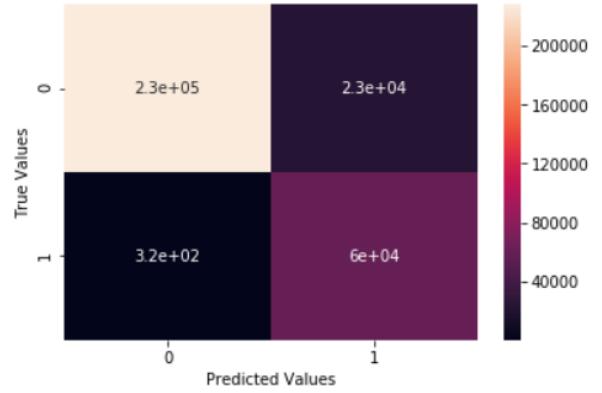


Figure 15: Random Forest Confusion Matrix - 2-class classification

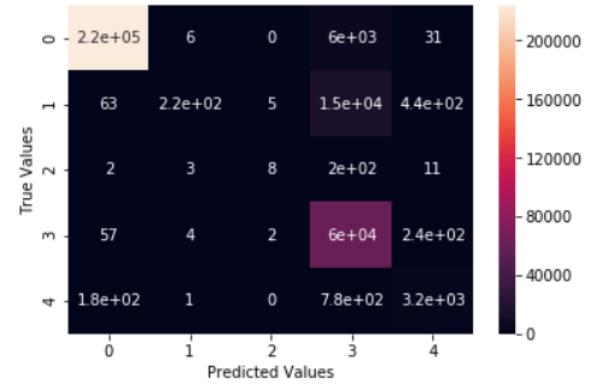


Figure 16: Random Forest Confusion Matrix - Multi-class classification

80.39 and 54.26. We can observe that the accuracy of this model higher than all the previous models for the 2-class classification. The recall and F1 score for multi-class classification is comparable to the SVM models.

4.3.6 Neural Networks : Multi-Layer Perceptron. Neural Networks are soft-computing techniques that attempt to replicate information processing in biological systems, and thus have excellent learning capabilities. When used for pattern recognition or classification purposes, the most useful Neural Network is that of Multi-Layer Perceptron which basically acts as multiple layers of logistic regression models [2].

We train two MLP models (with a hyperbolic tan activation function as it has better convergence properties than a logistic or sigmoid function) - one for the 2-class classification and one for the multi-class classification. Figure 15 shows the 2-class confusion matrix for a Multi-Layer Perceptron. Figure 18 shows the multi-class confusion matrix for a Multi-Layer Perceptron.

The overall accuracy, recall, precision and F1 score for the 2-class classification are as follows: 92.40, 94.68, 86.02 and 89.27 percent.

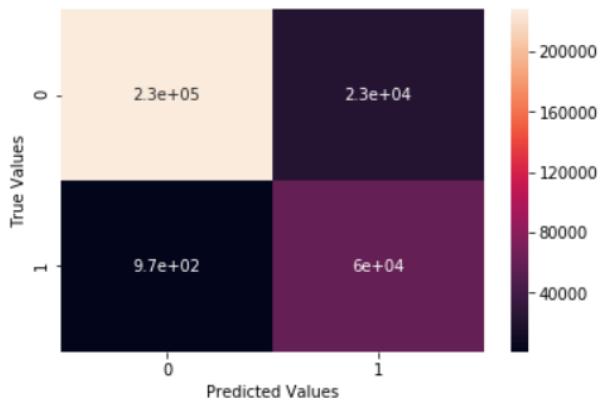


Figure 17: Multi-Layer Perceptron Confusion Matrix - 2-class classification

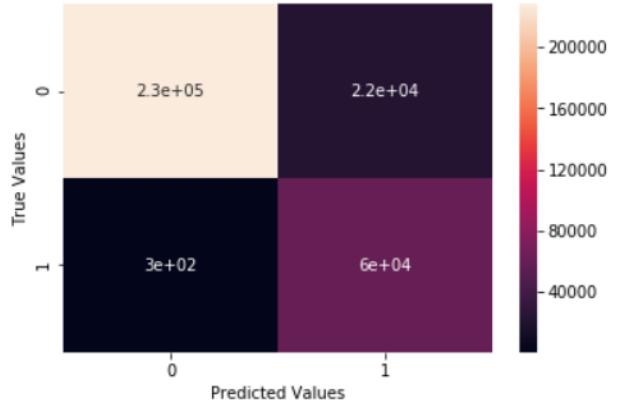


Figure 19: Ensemble Model Confusion Matrix - 2-class classification

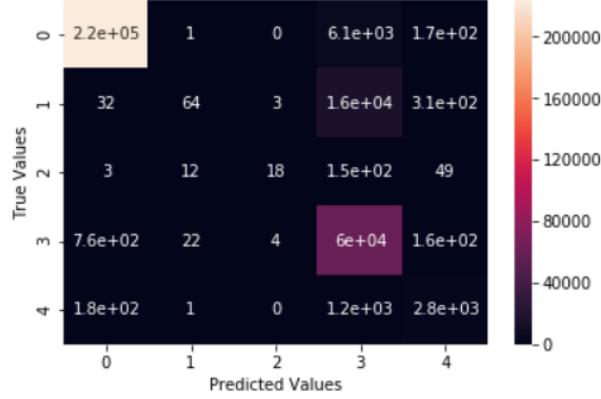


Figure 18: Multi-Layer Perceptron Confusion Matrix - Multi-class classification

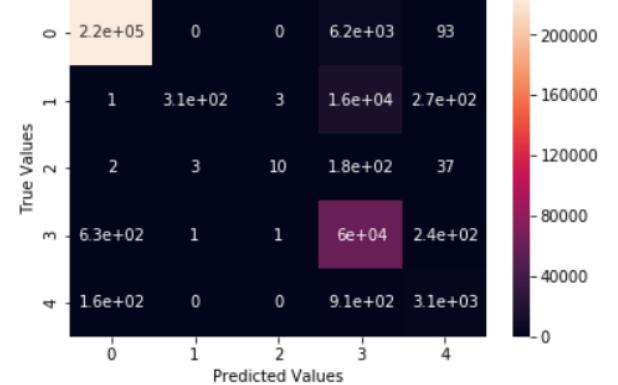


Figure 20: Ensemble Model Confusion Matrix - Multi-class classification

The same for the multi-class classification are as follows: 91.98, 54.18, 77.53 and 53.90. We can observe that the accuracy of this model is similar to that of a random forest model for the 2-class classification. The recall and F1 score for multi-class classification is comparable to the random forest and linear SVM model.

4.3.7 Ensemble Modeling. Ensemble modeling deals with the combination of two or more machine learning models to generate a model with better accuracy. We have already observed that Random Forests have the highest accuracy for the 2-label classification whereas a polynomial SVM has better recall for the multi-label classification. Therefore, we try to get the best of both worlds by creating an ensemble of two Random Forest (with different rules for selection of the feature subset - square root of features and log of features) and one polynomial SVM model.

We train two ensemble models - one for the 2-class classification and one for the multi-class classification. Figure 19 shows the 2-class confusion matrix for an ensemble model. Figure 20 shows the multi-class confusion matrix for an ensemble model.

The overall accuracy, recall, precision and F1 score for the 2-class classification are as follows: 92.69, 95.27, 86.37 and 89.69 percent. The same for the multi-class classification are as follows: 92.16, 55.31, 85.00 and 54.46. We can observe that the accuracy and F1 score of this model is higher than all individual models for the 2-class classification. The recall and F1 score for multi-class classification is balanced between that of the random forest and the polynomial SVM but is higher than most individual models.

4.3.8 Unsupervised Learning - Clustering. Up till here, we observed and evaluated a variety of supervised learning models. As a result, we came to the conclusion that an ensemble of two good models often results in a better and more balanced result than individual models. In this section, we will examine how exploring the test data by means of a clustering algorithm (with no support from the training data) helps provide a good idea of the patterns within the data. The clustering algorithm we will use for this purpose is K-Means which is used to partition data into a given number of non-overlapping clusters based on a distance metric [4].

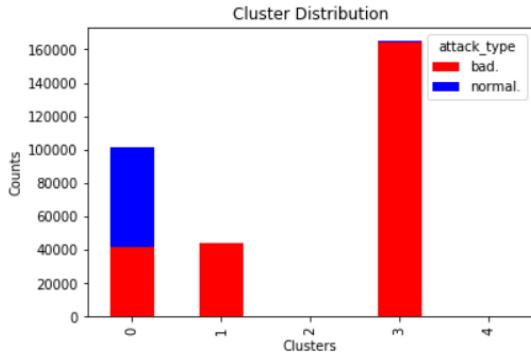


Figure 21: Chart for k-means clustering (clusters=5) - 2-class classification

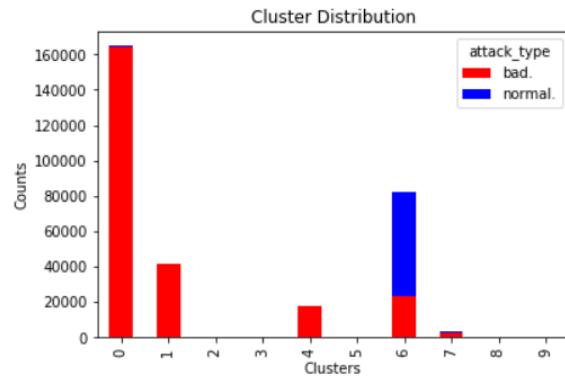


Figure 23: Chart for k-means clustering (clusters=10) - 2-class classification

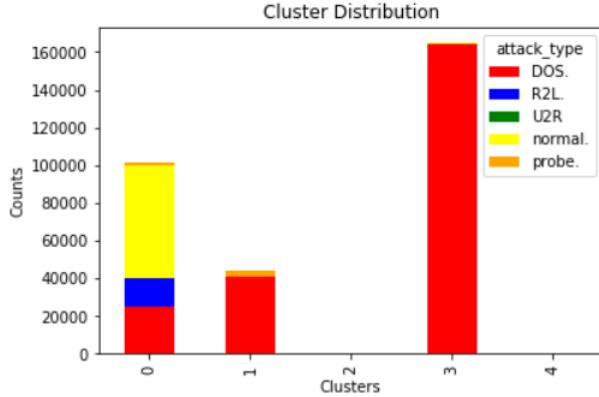


Figure 22: Chart for k-means clustering (clusters=5) - multi-class classification

We train two k-means clustering models for both 2-class and multi-class classification - one for clusters=5 and the other for clusters=10 (for greater granularity).

Figure 21 shows the 2-class chart for k-means clustering with clusters=5 (some clusters not visible due to small size).

We see that most of the clusters show one of the classes as a dominant proportion of the cluster. We can validate the same by comparing with the multi-class labels as well.

Figure 22 shows the multi-class chart for k-means clustering with clusters=5 (some clusters not visible due to small size).

We also run the analysis for clusters=10, for greater granularity. Figure 23 shows the 2-class chart for k-means clustering with clusters=10 (some clusters not visible due to small size).

Figure 24 shows the multi-class chart for k-means clustering with clusters=10 (some clusters not visible due to small size).

We can observe the same trend here as well.

4.4 Results

Among the supervised models, we observe that on comparison, some models perform better in terms of accuracy whereas some perform better in terms of recall. We also observe that most models

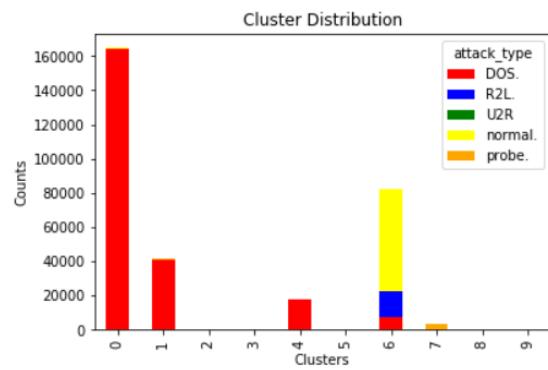


Figure 24: Chart for k-means clustering (clusters=10) - multi-class classification

find it easier to perform a 2-class classification (due to the high volume of attack labels in both the datasets as compared to normal labels), but face difficulties in identifying the individual classes (especially R2L and U2R which have a higher proportion in the test data compared to the training data). Overall, for the purpose of Dos/DDoS and intrusion detection, we see that most machine learning models give good results (KNN for example), and an ensemble of a random forest and polynomial SVM model gives the best accuracy among all.

When we venture into unsupervised learning we observe that clustering algorithms too can work well on network traffic data by creating clusters of traffic logs through pattern recognition. Though clustering does not provide us with exact labels, it can be useful in cases where we do not have any training or benchmark data, by giving us a fair idea of the direction in which to proceed.

5 APACHE SPARK - USING PYSPARK

The volume of network traffic data generated is generally quite huge, and thus requires Big Data technologies to deal with it. Our demonstration was for a smaller subset of the actual dataset (which in itself consists of five million records). However, this larger dataset too consists of logs only for seven weeks of monitoring. We can

```

Command Prompt  pyspark --master local[2]
Microsoft Windows [Version 10.0.16299.64]
(c) 2017 Microsoft Corporation. All rights reserved.

C:\Users\Neha Rawat\PycharmProjects\PySpark\src>spark-submit --master local[2]
[I 20:11:34.285 NotebookApp] The port 8888 is already in use, trying another port.
[I 20:11:34.595 NotebookApp] JupyterLab alpha preview extension loaded from C:\Users\Neha Rawat\Anaconda3\lib\site-packages\jupyterlab
[JupyterLab v0.27.0
NotebookApp start time: 2017-09-27 20:11:34.600
[I 20:11:34.689 NotebookApp] Running the core application with no additional extensions or settings
[I 20:11:34.689 NotebookApp] Serving notebooks from local directory: C:/Users/Neha Rawat/Desktop/IU-Data Science/Big Data App & Analytics/Project Research/ExecutionWork
[I 20:11:34.689 NotebookApp] 0 active kernels
[I 20:11:34.689 NotebookApp] The Jupyter Notebook is running at: http://localhost:8889/?token=278673fc587beb2c8a32b3609
J7Z3B0QWYR57P7X
[I 20:11:34.689 NotebookApp] Use Control-C to stop this server and shut down all kernels (twice to skip confirmation).
[T 20:11:34.695 NotebookApp]

Copy/paste this URL into your browser when you connect for the first time,
to login with a token:
http://localhost:8889/?token=278673fc587beb2c8a32b3609d725a3a2b20a3ab284557e
[T 20:11:34.786 NotebookApp] Accepting one-time token-authenticated connection from ::1

```

Figure 25: Launching PySpark

therefore imagine how voluminous the datasets would begin to get with constant monitoring of systems. In such cases, Big Data cloud technologies can come to the aid of analytics, and help create a sustainable system for such intrusion detection purposes. Our analysis was carried out using Python on an individual system. But often for larger datasets, we need additional resources. The PySpark API, from Apache Spark (an open-source processing engine), can help us gain “access to the extremely high-performance data processing enabled by Spark’s Scala architecture - without the need to learn any Scala” [3]. The smallest building blocks of Spark are referred to as RDDs (Resilient Distributed Datasets) and these along with Spark’s DataFrame can act as useful alternatives to the *Pandas* data frames, in case of large datasets, where the distributed processing power of Spark can come into play [3].

We can install PySpark on a Windows machine using GOW (incorporates Linux commands in Windows like gzip, curl and tar) and Anaconda (an open-scale distribution containing Jupyter Notebook and other resources for Python). The package can be installed from the Apache Spark website, following which we perform *gzip* and *tar* operations on it. After adding the windows binary for Hadoop and modifying a few environment variables, you can launch Spark locally from Command Prompt. Figure 25 shows the command prompt when we launch PySpark locally.

We have not used Spark for our analyses further as Python was able to handle the 10 percent datasets locally. However, PySpark can prove to be a great tool for analyzing data and creating models for larger datasets using a familiar and flexible language like Python. The presence of libraries like *mllib* in PySpark can offer us a wide variety of learning algorithms (similar to the *sklearn* library in Python).

6 CONCLUSION

The detection and prevention of DDoS attacks is a crucial problem for the safety and stability of networks. With the increasing use and dependence on technology and connectivity, this affects a huge cohort of people today. The data generated from day-to-day network traffic is huge and largely unstructured, but it can be captured and modified into an understandable structure, to be analyzed and used to generate efficient solutions. Through our analysis, we affirm the efficiency of machine learning technologies as tools for Big Data analytics and the use of open-source distributed processing systems as supports towards utilization of these tools.

We observe that not only do supervised learning methods work well towards this objective, but unsupervised learning techniques such as clustering also provide us with helpful insights on pattern detection in the data. Therefore, Big Data technologies along with intelligent analytic solutions can help create new and improve existing defense systems to ensure security from such malicious attacks and intrusions.

REFERENCES

- [1] Monowar H. Bhuyan, H. J. Kashyap, D. K. Bhattacharyya, and J. K. Kalita. 2014. Detecting distributed denial of service attacks: methods, tools and future directions. *Comput. J.* 57 (2014), 537fi?556. <https://doi.org/10.1093/comjnl/bxt031>
- [2] Christopher M. Bishop. 2006. *Pattern Recognition and Machine Learning*. Springer, New York.
- [3] IBM. 2016. *PySpark High-performance data processing without learning Scala*. IBM.
- [4] Gareth James, Daniela Witten, Trevor Hastie, and Robert Tibshirani. 2013. *An Introduction to Statistical Learning with Applications in R*. Springer, New York. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4614-7138-7>
- [5] Jupyter. 2017. The Jupyter Notebook. (2017).
- [6] KDDCup99. 1999. KDD Cup 1999 Data. (1999).
- [7] Andrew Kiggins and Jeffrey Lyons. 2016. *AWS Best Practices for DDoS Resiliency*. Amazon Web Services.
- [8] MITLincolnLaboratory. 1998. DARPA Intrusion Detection Evaluation. (1998).
- [9] scikit learn. 2017. scikit-learn - Machine Learning in Python. (2017).
- [10] Jessica Stone. 2017. The Best DDoS Protection Services. (July 2017).
- [11] Lea Toms. 2016. Closed for Business - the Impact of Denial of Service Attacks in the IoT. (Feb 2016).
- [12] Guoxing Zhang, Shengming Jiang, and Gang Wei. 2009. A prediction-based detection algorithm against distributed denial-of-service attacks. In *Proceedings of the International Conference on Wireless Communications and Mobile Computing: Connecting the World Wirelessly*, Vol. 1. Leipzig, Germany, 106fi?110.

```
bibtext report
```

```
=====
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
Warning--empty publisher in zhang05
(There was 1 warning)
```

```
bibtext _ label error
```

```
=====
bibtext space label error
```

```
=====
bibtext comma label error
```

```
=====
latex report
```

```
=====
[2017-12-08 04.00.31] pdflatex report.tex
This is pdfTeX, Version 3.14159265-2.6-1.40.17 (TeX Live 2016) (preloaded format=pdflatex)
Missing character: ""
Missing character: ""
Missing character: ""
Missing character: ""
Typesetting of "report.tex" completed in 2.5s.
```

```
=====
Compliance Report
```

```
=====
name: Rawat, Neha
hid: 224
paper1: Nov 3 17 100%
paper2: Nov 6 17 100%
project: Dec 04 17 100%
```

```
yamlcheck
```

wordcount

```
(null)
wc 224 project (null) 5854 content.tex
wc 224 project (null) 5741 report.pdf
wc 224 project (null) 348 report.bib
```

find "

passed: True

find footnote

passed: True

find input{format/i523}

passed: False

find input{format/final}

4: \input{format/final}

passed: True

floats

```
29: \begin{figure}
30: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/DDoS.PNG}
32: \label{F:ddos}
34: Figure \ref{F:ddos} shows how a Distributed Denial-of-Service
   attack occurs.\\
40: \begin{figure}
41: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/OSI.PNG}
43: \label{F:osi}
45: Figure \ref{F:osi} shows an Open Systems Interconnection Model
   with the layers highlighted where DDoS attacks are most common.\\
```

```

53: \begin{figure}
54: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/dossteps.PNG}
56: \label{F:doss}
58: Figure \ref{F:doss} shows the steps of a Denial-of-Service attack
   execution.\\
62: \begin{figure}
63: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/dosattackstat.PNG}
65: \label{F:dosstat}
67: Figure \ref{F:dosstat} shows the percentage of different Denial-
   of-Service attacks in 2011 by type.\\
93: \begin{figure}
94: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/attack_type.PNG}
96: \label{F:att}
98: Figure \ref{F:att} shows the Attack Type distribution in the
   training and test datasets\\
101: \begin{figure}
102: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/pairplot.png}
104: \label{F:pair}
106: Figure \ref{F:pair} shows the pair plot between the first 15
   variables in the training dataset. We observe that the data seems
   to be skewed, indicating the need for standardizing the features.
   Also, there do not seem to be a lot of correlated variables in
   the dataset.\\
115: \begin{figure}
116: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/logreg2.PNG}
118: \label{F:logreg2}
120: Figure \ref{F:logreg2} shows the 2-class confusion matrix for
   logistic regression.
121: \begin{figure}
122: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/logregall.PNG}
124: \label{F:logregall}
126: Figure \ref{F:logregall} shows the multi-class confusion matrix
   for logistic regression.\\
134: \begin{figure}
135: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/knn2.PNG}
137: \label{F:knn2}
139: Figure \ref{F:knn2} shows the 2-class confusion matrix for KNN.
140: \begin{figure}
141: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/knnall.PNG}
143: \label{F:knnall}
145: Figure \ref{F:knnall} shows the multi-class confusion matrix for
   KNN.\\
152: \begin{figure}
153: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/svm2.PNG}
155: \label{F:linsvm2}
157: Figure \ref{F:linsvm2} shows the 2-class confusion matrix for

```

```

    linear SVM.

158: \begin{figure}
159: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/svmall.PNG}
161: \label{F:linsvmall}
163: Figure \ref{F:linsvmall} shows the multi-class confusion matrix
   for linear SVM.\\
168: \begin{figure}
169: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/svmpoly2.PNG}
171: \label{F:polysvm2}
173: Figure \ref{F:polysvm2} shows the 2-class confusion matrix for
   polynomial SVM.
174: \begin{figure}
175: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/svmpolyall.PNG}
177: \label{F:polysvmall}
179: Figure \ref{F:polysvmall} shows the multi-class confusion matrix
   for polynomial SVM.\\
186: \begin{figure}
187: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/rf2.PNG}
189: \label{F:rf2}
191: Figure \ref{F:rf2} shows the 2-class confusion matrix for a
   Random Forest.
192: \begin{figure}
193: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/rfall.PNG}
195: \label{F:rfall}
197: Figure \ref{F:rfall} shows the multi-class confusion matrix for a
   Random Forest.\\
204: \begin{figure}
205: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/nn2.PNG}
207: \label{F:nn2}
209: Figure \ref{F:rf2} shows the 2-class confusion matrix for a
   Multi-Layer Perceptron.
210: \begin{figure}
211: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/nnall.PNG}
213: \label{F:nnall}
215: Figure \ref{F:nnall} shows the multi-class confusion matrix for a
   Multi-Layer Perceptron.\\
222: \begin{figure}
223: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/ensemble2.PNG}
225: \label{F:en2}
227: Figure \ref{F:en2} shows the 2-class confusion matrix for an
   ensemble model.
228: \begin{figure}
229: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/ensembleall.PNG}
231: \label{F:enall}
233: Figure \ref{F:enall} shows the multi-class confusion matrix for
   an ensemble model.\\

```

```

240: \begin{figure}
241: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/cluster52graph.PNG}
}
243: \label{F:cg52}
245: Figure \ref{F:cg52} shows the 2-class chart for k-means
clustering with clusters=5 (some clusters not visible due to
small size).\\
247: \begin{figure}
248: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/cluster5allgraph.P
NG}
250: \label{F:cg5all}
252: Figure \ref{F:cg5all} shows the multi-class chart for k-means
clustering with clusters=5 (some clusters not visible due to
small size).\\
254: \begin{figure}
255: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/cluster102graph.PN
G}
257: \label{F:cg102}
259: Figure \ref{F:cg102} shows the 2-class chart for k-means
clustering with clusters=10 (some clusters not visible due to
small size).\\
260: \begin{figure}
261: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/cluster10allgraph.
PNG}
263: \label{F:cg10all}
265: Figure \ref{F:cg10all} shows the multi-class chart for k-means
clustering with clusters=10 (some clusters not visible due to
small size).\\
276: \begin{figure}
277: \includegraphics[width=1.0\columnwidth]{images/pyspark.PNG}
279: \label{F:ps}
281: Figure \ref{F:ps} shows the command prompt when we launch PySpark
locally.\\

```

figures 25
tables 0
includegraphics 25
labels 25
refs 25
floats 25

```

True : ref check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
True : label check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
True : include graphics passed: (figures >= includegraphics)
True : check if all figures are referred to: (refs >= labels)

```

Label/ref check
passed: True

When using figures use columnwidth
[width=1.0\columnwidth]
do not cahnge the number to a smaller fraction

find textwidth

passed: True

below_check

WARNING: code and above may be used improperly

52: When launching a DDoS attack, the attacker goes through some steps common to both types of architectures \cite{monowar01}. First, the attacker tries to identify vulnerable systems that can be used as agents. The resources of these systems are used to generate a powerful attack stream. Next, the attacker plants the handler software code in the compromised system and ensures steps to prevent the code from being detected. These compromised systems are often referred to as {\em zombies}. Sometimes, the attacker creates several intermediate layers between the {\em zombies} and the victim to hinder traceability. Thirdly, the attacker communicates with the handler codes placed via protocols like TCP or UDP, and decides the scheduling of the attacks. Post the complete setup, the attacker launches the attack on the victim's machine or server and renders it unusable \cite{monowar01}. In an IRC-based architecture, most of the above steps remain same, but an IRC-channel is used for communication purposes. This helps the attacker as even if one {\em zombie} or {\em bot} is discovered, the identities of the others is still hidden, as IRC-channels are difficult to detect \cite{monowar01}.

bibtex

label errors

bibtex errors

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
Warning--empty publisher in zhang05
(There was 1 warning)
```

bibtex_empty_fields

```
entries in general should not be empty in bibtex
```

find ""

```
passed: True
```

ascii

```
non ascii found 8217
```

```
=====
The following tests are optional
=====
```

```
Tip: newlines can often be replaced just by an empty line
```

find newline

```
passed: True
```

```
cites should have a space before \cite{} but not before the {
```

find cite {

```
passed: True
```

Big Data Analytics in Indian Premier League

Swargam, Prashanth
Indiana University Bloomington
107 S Indiana Ave
Bloomington, Indiana 47408
pswargam@iu.edu

ABSTRACT

Cricket is one of the most admired sports across the globe. Indian Premier League is one of the professional cricket leagues conducted by Board of Cricket Control India in the months of April and May. This league is famous for its diversity of players and breath-taking cricket match endings. The factors of winning change for each moment as the game progresses. As there are many players and franchises involved in the game, these factors for winning changes for each team. Data related to each player is required to analyse his performance and predict his future scope in team. Data related to factors of winning is crucial and can be analysed for predicting the results of the game. This analysis would help the team management, league administration to wisely chose the players and modify rules according to the impact of each decision. Data related some of the important factors which plays major role in deciding the match winner are analysed. Their impact is predicted and compared with the actual results. Impact of these factors are studied for each individual team and individual season of this cricket tournament. Impact of each factor is plotted and its impact in next season is predicted.

KEYWORDS

Big Data, Cricket, Indian Premier League, i523

1 INTRODUCTION

Fast paced games are gaining more importance in near future. This because there are many factors which contribute to the result of the game. These factors are minor but could change the results of the game dramatically. Indian Premier League is one such type of cricket league where there are a lot factors which have their influence on the results of the game. These factors are though minor or major, will have bigger part in deciding the results of the game. These factors from the previous games can be utilised wisely to predict their influence in the upcoming matches. These factors can be quantitatively represented in the form numbers, graphs or Booleans. This quantitative representation of data related the factors can be analysed using various analytic techniques to predict their impact on the game.

However, Analytics is a good way to go about this prediction, but there are several problems which should be addressed. Considering the role of batsman, it will be having parameters like balls faced, dot balls, number of boundaries, strike rate etc. Considering the role of bowler, there are various parameters like matches played, overs bowled, economy rate. There are many similar kinds of roles in the game and above-mentioned parameters are specific to one player playing only one role in the team. According to, around 500 players play for each season of cricket. These 500 players will be

filtered on various factor from the pool of nearly 5,31,253 cricket players across the globe. These players can play any of the role or play multiple to roles to contribute to the result of the match. These players and cricket matches produces large amount of data which when analysed to produce structured data and analytics. Hence, there is good scope of analytics ad big data in this sport.

The data produced by the matches happening in Indian Premier League can be used to fit in mathematical models. These mathematical models are then used to study the nature and trends of the factors which influence the results of the game. Extending this model to the known values of the input factors can produce the predicted values of the impacts of these factors. Models like Linear regression, polynomial regression, radial-basis approach can be applied to do these kinds of predictive analysis.

2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

There are various factors influencing the results of the game. As part of this analytics, data related to four of the most influencing factors is gathered and modelled for analysis. This data was available in raw formats which requires some amount of modelling for predictive analysis. The modelled data is used for building a mathematical model which would fit closely to the trend of these factors in matches played in all the past seasons. A part of data is assumed to be unknown. This unknown part of data is predicted by using the fitted mathematical models. Results obtained by these predictions are compared with the actual results from the data source. Impact of these factors are calculated to the ratio of one. These data is analysed for each independent team and each independent season.

The report is in regard to the predictive analysis conducted on only five of the most influencing factors in the game. There are other factors in the game which might influence the result of the game. This predictive analysis will only be considered reliable only if the predicted values of the results will have high accuracy with respect to the actual results of the available data. The data is divided into two parts. All the available data is sorted with respect to date. The latest match comes later in the dataset and the earliest first. The first part of data is used to train the mathematical model. The parameters in the later part of the dataset are used to predict the result of the match. These predicted results are then compared with the actual results in the datasets to determine the accuracy of the predictive model which is used to build the analytics. This analysis produce valuable insights on the influence of these factors and the mathematical model.

3 SCOPE

The scope of the analysis is:

1)The analytics uses the data for only five factors. These five factors are namely toss, Batting position, Range of score, portion of runs in boundaries.

2)The data is collected for all the seasons completed for this tournament. However, this data is sorted with respect to date and partitioned into training and testing data sets for calculating the accuracy of the model.

3) The values of these factors are represented in usable data formats like range, Boolean, integers for analysis.

4 FACTORS IN CONSIDERATION

4.1 Batting Sequence

Order of batting is considered as one of the factors in consideration. Batting order is one crucial parameter which depends on various other factors of the game. Some of these parameters are the status of the pitch for the game, climate conditions of the game, previous statistics of the game and the history of the team in similar situations. The toss winner will have the privilege to decide the order of the batting. As this factor is conglomeration of various other factors stated above, batting order is considered for the analytics. This data can be represented in the form of Boolean. Where true Boolean indicates that the team referring to the statistics have batted first in the game. False indicates that the team referring to the statistics have batted second in the game. This Boolean value depends on the values in for toss winner and toss decision.

4.2 Total Score

Score indicates the total number of runs scored by the team in any match. Score of the team depends on various other parameters of the game like team statistics and composition, impact of the opponents, and situation of the match. This parameter can be calculated from other values of extra runs, scored runs. This categorized into four categories. This first category of the innings scored not more than 100 runs. The second category of the innings scored more than 100 and less than 150 runs. The third category of the innings scored more than 150 and less than 200 hundred runs. All the other innings which scored more than 200 are categorised into fourth category. This categorization is done in accordance to the range of scores. The least scored innings were given least category value. The highest scored innings were given highest category value.

4.3 Score Composition

Composition of scored runs. The runs are majorly scored in the form of boundaries, players individual running, and the extra runs given by then bowling team. As IPL is a T20 game which is played for short duration of time, scoring runs quickly at right time is crucial factor. Boundaries contribute to runs scored in the form of fours and sixes in the game. This is the easiest way to quickly score the runs. Team scoring high majority of runs in the form of boundaries have higher chance of imposing a higher target to the opponents or chasing down the target imposed by the opponents. Hence, this parameter is considered for analysis. This value for this parameter is a Boolean. This value is set to true, if most of the runs scored by any team in any innings are from boundaries and vice versa.

4.4 Toss

The batting sequence is decided by the winner of the toss. Winner of the toss will have the initial upper hand in the game to decide the sequence of the game. The winner's decision will vary on various other factors of the game like, duration of the match, pitch behaviour throughout the game, statistics of the game. These various factors play an important role in deciding the toss winner's decision. The value for this parameter is Boolean. The true value of the parameter indicates the team has won the toss and the false value indicates the team has not won the toss.

5 DATA MANIPULATION

5.1 Team data

There are thirteen teams participated in IPL which was held for nine seasons. Each team was having its team name and teamId. These details are taken from the data source team.csv. Python's csv module is used to read the data from this csv file. As this data represents a key value pair, csv module's dictreader method is used to read the row in these files. Using this method, a dictionary was created which consisted of the teamId as keys and team name as value objects.

5.2 Match data

Details pertaining to a specific match are published to the Match.csv file. These details include host team name, guest team name, toss winner id, match winner id, decision of the toss, win type. This data was used and modified for calculating the impact of each factors stated in the factors description. Python's pandas dataframes were used to read the data from these csv files. All the missing values in the dataframes are replaced with 0 to ease the complexities that arise with null values. For each value in the team dictionary, the teamId is matched with the opponent team id column and team name id column in the match.csv. Python's operator module is used to obtain the or condition between these values. Dataframe is modified with the given conditions. This dataframe is converted to list. This way, list of matches played by a team is defined and stored into a list.

From the dataframe which contains the list of matches played by the team, column matchwinnerid is used to define if the match winner. A new dataframe is created with a condition if the matchwinnerid's value in the column is equals to the id of the current team. If the above-mentioned condition is true, then this value is added to the dataframe, else the value is removed from the dataframe. This way, list of matches won by a team is determined.

A new dataframe is created to store the Booleans of the toss decision. From the teamdata dataframe, the column toss winner id is used to determine the toss winner for each match. If the id value in this column is same as the team id of the current team, Boolean true is appended to the toss list. Else, Boolean false is appended to the toss list. This list contains only Booleans.

5.3 Ball-by-ball data

Ball by ball analyses will be required to calculate the scores for each ball. These details will include the number of runs scored in the ball, extra runs scored, bowler details, batsman details, over details. This

data is extracted from the ballbyball.csv file. This file contains ball by ball analysis of all the matches. This data is sorted according to the match id and is extracted for further analysis. Pandas readcsv method is used to read the csv file. A new data dataframe called balldata is created.

Balldata csv is used to for calculating the runs scored by a team in a specific match. The balldata dataframe is filtered for useless columns and null values. All the null values are replaced with 0 to ease the complexities which comes with usage of null values. Balldatadfis team batting id and match id are used to calculate the runs scored by a team in a specific match. This data frame is modified such that, the values in the match id column is equal to the current match id and the values in the team batting id is equal to the current team id. Python operator module is used to achieve the and condition in the above case. The modified ball data data frame is used to calculate the score. The sum method on the dataframe is used from the pandas library. This score is categorised into four categories. The first category included the score which are less than hundred. The second category included the scores which are between hundred and one hundred fifty. The third category included the scores which are between one hundred fifty and two hundred. The fourth category of scores contain scores which are above two hundred.

A new list is created which stored the category of the scores. If the score falls in first category, then an integer 1 is appended to the list. If the score falls in the second category, integer 2 is appended to the list. If the score falls in the category falls in the third category, an integer 3 is appended. If the score falls in the category four, an integer 4 is appended to the list. The other factor which was stated in the factors in consideration teamfis score composition. It is highly probable that a team scores a high total or chase down the target imposed by the opposition team quickly is the majority of runs are scored in the form of boundaries. The ball data dataframe which is created in the previous case is utilised with other conditions to calculate the contribution of boundaries to the total score. This dataframe is filtered with the match id and team id condition to obtain the current match and current batting team. This is again filtered for all the scores that are having values either four or six. The minified frame is filtered for all values of four and summed. The same is repeated with the sum of six values. Adding together these two sums will give the total amount of runs scored in form of boundaries.

A new list is created for storing the Booleans related to the contribution of boundaries to the score. This list is appended with value true, if the contribution of boundaries is more than other forms of runs, false if, the contribution of boundaries is less than the contribution of other forms of runs.

The lists which are created for each factor are used to define factorsfi impact on the gamefis result. These lists contain the values in the form of integers and Booleans which are obtained by using the existing parameters. These lists are created for each value in the team.csv file. Thus, they are independent to each team. A new DataFrame is created with these lists as columns in the frame. For each team, these frames are stored into another csv file using the pandas write csv function with the file name same as the value in the team dictionary.

6 PREDICTIVE ANALYSIS

The factors and their values are written in to a csv file which contains the factor names as the columns headings and their respective values in the rows. Each team has its independent statistics files mentioned in the above statement. These files will be used for conducting the predictive analysis. For each value in the team dictionary, these csv files which are specific to the team are read using the pandas csv reader function. There are two types of columns in these statistics file. The first type is predictors and the other type is targets. Columns related to the factors which impact the results are considered as the predictor columns, Columns related to the result of the match are considered as the targets column. Columns battingfirst, boundaries majority, wontoss, scorerange are predictors. Wonmatch column is target in the given scenario.

The data available in the statistics files is split into test and train sets. This is done by the function train test split in the sklearn library in the python. The data is split in the ratio of 3 is to 2. Sixty percent of the data is used as training set. Forty percent of the data is used as testing set. The predictors and target of the training set are used to build the mathematical model. The predictors of the testing set are used to predict the values of the targets. These predicted values are compared with the actual target values. This comparision is used to determine the accuracy of the prediction.

6.1 Implementation

Decision trees and Random forest are used in making the predictions. Decision trees are tree like structures which are built based on the values of the parameters. These trees are useful in defining the probability of the target value being attained. Trees are build with various stems which are drawn from conditional statements. Decision trees has three kinds of elements. The first element i.e., are the decision elements which refer to the block which checks for the condition or logic of the tree. Chance elements are the elements which occur depending on the condition or logic of the function. End elements are the results or outcome of the decision tree. These are basically leaf nodes of the tree. These nodes represent the result. Random Forests are conglomeration of decisions from various decision trees. In random forest approach, a dataset is divided into various subsets which will have some or all the input parameters as the decision makers and some or all the data which are the values for the parameters. Each subset is used to build a tree by using principles of decision tree. The predictions from these prediction trees are used in determining the final value. When a given set of input parameters are giving, they are predicted with all the decision trees developed by the forest. The outcome from all the decision trees are noted. The majority of these outputs is decided as result. This way, the errors which might arise in using only one decision tree can be eradicated. An error from one model of decision tree will be dominated by the results from all the other decision tree.

Random forest classifier from the module sklearn is used to build the various decision trees and predict these values. Classifier type object is instantiated in the code/cite. This object is assigned with the RandomForestclassifier and an attribute called n estimator. The variable n estimator will define the number of decision trees to be build for the analysis. Fit function from the sklearn module is used to develop the model for the random forest algorithm. Fit function

will take the training parameters and training targets as inputs. These are divided into fifty subsets in this scenario. Predict function is used to predict the value of the target given test predictor variable as inputs.

6.2 Accuracy

Generation of only one decision tree as the model for the given training data would produce erroneous results. Using the random forests, fifty decision trees are built to predict the correct value of the target. This way, errors produced by one of the decision tree will be corrected by the predictions from the other trees.

In the graph 3, the accuracy of using various number of decision trees are plotted against the number of decision trees. It can be observed that using less than five decision trees, the accuracy for the prediction for all the teams is around sixty percentage. As the number of decision trees increased, the accuracy of all the prediction is increased by at least ten percent. The hundred percent accuracy is because, those teams have played less number of games.

7 IMPACT OF FACTORS

This indicates the contribution of each factor for predicting the result of the game. These values will determine the probability of the value of result on any given values for the input variables. In the first step, the distinct values of the target value are noted. For all the distinct values of an input parameter from the set of values of one of the input parameter, the probability of different kind of results are calculated. This calculation is repeated for the distinct values in the set of input parameter and summed at the end. This produces the importance of the feature. The above procedure is repeated for all the decision tree and all the value are averaged for getting the overall value of the importance feature for that feature. This procedure is repeated for all the input parameters. This will give the contribution of each parameter to the result values.

7.1 Batting First

The first importance feature for all the teams are plotted in the graph 4 . It is clear from the graph that the importance feature batting first is highest for Rising Pune super giants. This indicates that this team have won most of their previous matches with while batting first in the game. While the Chennai Super kings and Kochi Tuskers are also high, but they are less than half. This indicates that batting first in the match will be a favourable condition for the above mentioned teams. For all the other teams except Kings xi Punjab, Pune warriors and Sunrisers Hyderabad, the batting first importance factor is nearly around 0.1. This implies, out of all that matches which were present in the training set, these team batted first for only ten percent of the games.

However, the total number matches should also be considered while validating this condition. Though the value for Kochi Tuskers is high, this might also be because they have played less number of matches and they have batted first in all the winning matches.

7.2 Score Composition

Score Composition composition is the combination of different ways of getting runs. For any high scoring and successful game, a team will have to score runs at faster rate. Hence, scoring runs in

form of boundaries will help a team a lot in turning the match in their favour. In the graph 5 , Contribution of this factor against each team is plotted. This graph summarises the contribution towards of the score composition factor towards the factor. This factor is very high for Kochi Tuskers team, because they have played considerably less number of games.

A factor around 0.2 to 0.3 seems around the average value for all the teams. It is clearly seen from the graph that this factor is high for Rising Pune Supergiants. That means, out of all the matches this team have won in all the season, in most of the matches, this team have scored most of their runs in form of boundaries. Then, Rajasthan royals and Delhi Daredevils are having next higher values. A lower value of this factor means, that out of all the matches which this specific team have won, they have scored most of them in form of another form. Sunrisers Hyderabad and Royal challengers are one such team.

This factor is calculated independent of the team composition. This factor can be normalised with respect to the team composition.

7.3 Score Range

Score is the total number of runs scored by a team in a specific innings of the match. This factor is categorised into four categories. Each category has a range of value for runs. Based, on this runs, the team is classified into categories. The first category of team will have scored less than hundred runs. The second category of team have scored less than one hundred fifty. The third category of team have scored less than two hundred runs. The remaining teams comes under the fourth category.

This categorisation is used as one factor in determining the results. From the graph, it can be seen that this value is very high for some of the teams and considerably less for other teams. A higher value of this factor means that out of all the matches the specific team has won, most of the matches they have scored the runs in the higher categories ,or out of all the matches they lost, they have scores in the lower categories of the score.

From the graph 7 ,It is clear that, teams Kolkatta Knight Risers and Sun Risers Hyderabad have a value around 0.6. This implies that the wonmatch of column for this teams was mostly decided by the score range category column. For the teams like Gujarat Lions and Rising Pune Super giants, this value is low. It can be inferred that the wonmatch column for this table is mostly decided by other columns in the team statistics table.

7.4 Toss

Toss is another important factor considered for this analysis. The winner of the toss has the power to decide the sequence of the match. This decision of the winning captain will effect the results of the match. Given this opportunity, any captain would take decision in favour their side. Hence, toss is one important factor in deciding the results of the match.

A higher value of this factor implies, that out of all the matches the specific team has won, they have also won the toss in most of the matches. It also implies that the column wontoss have contributed a large amount to the target column. A lower value of this factor implies that out of all the matches a specific team has lost, most of the matches they have lost the toss.

From the graph 6 it is clear that the this value is higher for teams Delhi Daredevils, Gujarat Lions and Royal challengers bangalore. This implies that out of the matches they have won, most of the matches they have won the toss. This implies toss is one of the important factor for this team to win a specific match. It is clear from the graph that this value is lower for teams like Kolkatta Knight risers. This implies that out of all the matches won by this team, they have won toss in less number of matches. This implies that toss is not one of the important factors for this team to win.

For the other teams, this value is around 0.15 which is considered as average contribution. For these teams, toss decision have a fair impact on the decision of the match. The wontoss column in the team statistics have contributed fair amount to the target column.

8 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

This analysis will give the statistics of each factors and their importance in the previous matches for each team. This is done by gathering the data from the team statistics which is prepared as part of the first step in the predictive analysis.

A dictionary of team names is prepared using the teams.csv file from the source. This file is read using the read csv method in the csv library. An empty list is created for the factors batting order, score range, toss. As there is only one kind of value for all these factors, they are grouped and studied together. The score range is studied in a different program.

These empty lists are used for storing the percentage contribution of each factor towards the results of analysis. In this case, the data is not divided into test and training sets. All the data in the data sets are taken into consideration. The values used in the analysis are the actuals value and no predictions are made in defining these values.

For every element in the team dictionary, we iterate over the specific team statistics csv file created in the first step of this predictive analysis. From these csv files , we read the columns battingsfirst, majorityscore, wontoss columns. For each columns in the csv file, we create a corresponding dataframe in the python program using the pandas dataframe. This dataframes are constructed on based on two values. The wonmatch column value and the value of the factor being studied. We append the corresponding row to the dataframe only if both the conditions are satisfied. This kind of conditional statements can be achieved by python or operator.

For every factor, now independent dataframes are defined after both the conditions are satisfied. Total matches is the length of the csv file. From the above calculate the percentage of the dataframe which we have captured with respect to the total length of the csv file. This percentage value determines the percentage contribution of the factor towards determining the winning chances of the team.

These percentages are calculated for all the teams in the team dictionary. These values are stored in the respective factors list. This list is used for plotting the bar graphs using the pythons matplotlib.

8.1 Analysis of individual team

From the the lists of percentage contributions from the above analysis. Analysis of each factor and their contribution towards the

individual team has been plotted in the graph. These plots are plotted against the team name and the percentage bars which show the percentage of each factor. Graph 2 has been plotted with above lists.

For the team Kolkatta knight riders, out of all the matches they have won, in forty percentage of those matches, they have score majority of their score in form of boundaries. Out of all the matches they have won, they also won toss in thirty percentage of the matches and batted first in twenty percentage of the matches. This implies that the probability of winning a match for kolkatta Knight riders team is high if they score moajority of their score in form of boundaries. Then decision of toss and sequence of matches have considerable effect in the matchesf decision.

Team Royal Challengers bangalore have followed the same trend as the kolkatta team in the analysis. Out of all the matches they have won, they also scored majority of the runs in the form of boundaries. While ,out of these matches, they won only twenty percent of the tosses, they batted first in nearly twenty five percentage of the matches. Runs have been major contributing factor in this team also.

Chennai Super Kings have majority of their contribution from the toss factor and batting sequence factor together. That implies that, from the all the matches they have won, they either won the toss or batted first in the match. This implies that the team Chennai Super kings will have to win toss or bat first to win the match.

Teams punjab and Kochi Tuskers have followed trend similar to that of Kolkatta Knight risers and royal challengers bangalore. They scored majority of their score in the form of boundaries in nearly forty percent of the matches played by them. The other factors toss and batting sequence have contributed to nearly twenty percentage of their winnings. This implies that scoring majority of runs in form of boundaries will favour these teams.

Mumbai Indians team have the second highest percentage contribution from the factors toss and batting sequence compared to other teams. This team also have third highes contribution from the score composition factor. That implies, this team have higher chance of winning given any factor. Though the value from the any one factor is against them, the other factor will over ride the effect of the previous factor.

Gujarat Lions have the highest contribution from the factor batting order. That implies, out of all the matches won by this team, they have scored majority of runs in the form of boundaries. The other two factors are considerably low. This implies that Gujarat team will have to score most of the runs in the form of boundaries to win the match.

It can be inferred from the graph that rising pune super giants have not won a match while batting first in the game. Out of all the matches won by them, they have either batted second in the game or score majority of runs in the form of boundaries.

Team Deccan chargers have almost same amount of contribution from all the three factors. This team is consistently performing in any values of the factors. They have good balance of the conditions in the previous games.

Team Pune warriors has the lowest values for the factors toss and sequence of the match. They are also have less contribution from the factor composition of score. This implies that this team is under performing in any given condition.

8.2 Analysis of Range of Scores

The scores were divided into categories. This analysis will contribute the percentage contribution of each range of the score to the result of the matches played by the specific team. This analysis can be used as to determine the safe score range for every team.

Team dictionary is taken from the team.csv file. The team statistics csv file which is created in the predictive analysis will be utilised for the value for range of scores. The values from the columns score range and wonmatch will be utilised. The data in this csv file is not partitioned into training and testing sets. This analysis is performed on complete data. No data is predicted in this analysis also. This is analysis on all the available data.

For every value in the team dictionary, we locate the team statistics csv file which is generated as part of the predictive analysis. Four empty lists are generated to store the number of matches won by each team with score in the given score range. Total number matches can be calculated by using the length of team statistics csv file that is being studied upon. For every value in the team dictionary, we divide the csv file into four different data frames. Each data frame corresponds to each range of scores. This partition can be achieved by using pandas data frame.

This dataframes are extracted using the two conditions. They are the value of score range must be equal to the range we are fetching data for and the other condition is the wonmatch column must be true.

After corresponding data frames are extracted from the team staistics csv, we calculate the percentage of each range data frame length against the total length of the team statistics csv. This percentage value will give us the percentage contribution of each range towards the result of the match.

8.3 Graphical Analysis on scores

From the graph 1, it is clear that most of the wining scores fall in the second and third category. That implies for any team to win the match, it is most likely that the team must score atleast hundred runs in the match and come under second category or score atleast one hundred fifty runs and come under third category.

Teams Gujarat lions and pune warriors have never won match scoring less than hundred runs or more than two hundred runs. This implies that the range from hundred to two hundred is the safe score range for these teams. Gujarat have won most number of matches scoring in the third category that is atleast scoring one hundred fifty runs and atmost two hundred runs. This is more safe zone for them. While, for pune warriors team they have almost similar winning percentage in both the categories. Teams rising pune supergiants and kochi have never won a game scoring more than two hundred runs. This might be bacuse, they have not scored more than two hundred runs in any given match or they have not won in the matches in which they scored more than two hundred runs. That implies that they are having a safe scoring in the range of one hundred fifty and two hundred.

Sunrisers Hyderabad team has more contribution from the the second and third categories of scoring in the game compared to the other two teams. This indicates that they are consistent in this category of scoring than other teams. They do not have major difference in contribution from these categories. This indicates that

they are consistently scoring around one hundred fifty mark score which makes the assumption that this team have good batting side. From the statistics on this team it is clear that they have also won matches scoring less than hundred. It is clear that they are also having a good bowling side as well.

Team Royal Challengers Bangalore has highest contribution from the fourth category of scoring when compared to other teams. That implies, the team royal challengers banglore have highest probability of winning the matches , if they are scoring more than two hundred runs in the match. Then their next contribution comes from the score range of third category. That implies this team has a good batting side. Because they are having high scoring percentages from the third and fourth categories.

Following the royal challenger banglore team is Chennai super kings team. This team have contributions from all the four categories of the scoring range. This implies this team is fairly consistent in both the categories of the game.

Team Mumbai Indians have the highest contribution from the third category of the scoring range after Gujarat lions. They are also having contributions from all the categories of range of scores. This will clearly show that Mumbai Indians team has an inconsistent batting team. If these totals are from the second innings, it can also be assumed that whenever their batsman failed to score many runs, bowler won the match.

Kolkatta team has the highest contribution from the first category of scoring after Kochi team and Pune super giants. This implies that the above three teams have a good batting side. Scoring less than hundred and winning match is sight of team having a good bowling side. Upon having good contributions from category one, kolkatta knight riders also has good contributions from the other three categories as well. This implies, that this team not only has good bowling side,it also ahs a good batting side as well.

9 CONCLUSION

Predictive Data analytics have provided promising solutions to various problems in wide variety of fields. As part of this study, predictive and statistical data analytics on data related to a cricket League, Indian Premier league is conducted. As part of predictive analytics, the available data is split into training and testing data sets. The values from the model are used to predict the target value. These values are compared to the original values for accuracy. Method of improving the accuracy of model is studied. This study would be useful to determine the impact of a factor on the result of the game. This analysis would help in predicting the results of the matches acuurately with the model developed from the training data.

Statistical analysis on the same data is conducted to get the details related to the impact of a factor quantitatively on a specific team. This analysis pertains to the available data and no predictions are done. This kind of analysis would be useful in determining the strengths of individual team. This kind of analysis can be conducted to the nature and strengths of each team.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The author would like to thank Dr. Gregor von Laszewski for his support and suggestions to write this report.

The author would like to thank assistant instructors for their support in completing this project.

The author would like to acknowledge that the base data for the analysis is provided by [1].

REFERENCES

- [1] HarshaVardhan. 2016. Indian Premier League. (2016). <https://www.kaggle.com/harsha547/indian-premier-league-csv-dataset/data>

[Figure 1 about here.]

LIST OF FIGURES

1	Score Staistics	10
2	Other Factors Staistics	10
3	Tree number vs Accuracy	10
4	BattingFirst	10
5	Majority of runs in boundaries	10
6	Toss	10
7	Range of Scores	10

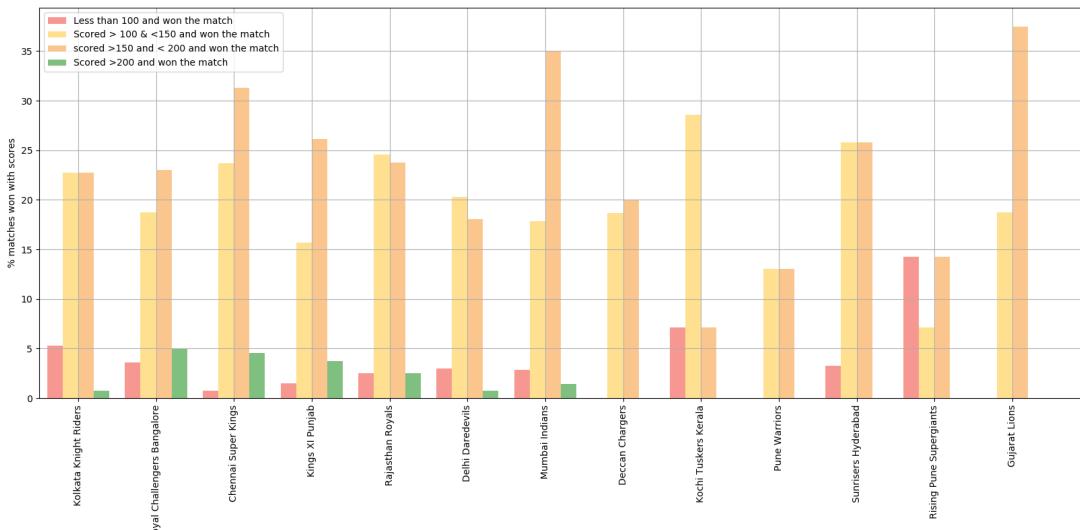


Figure 1: Score Staistics

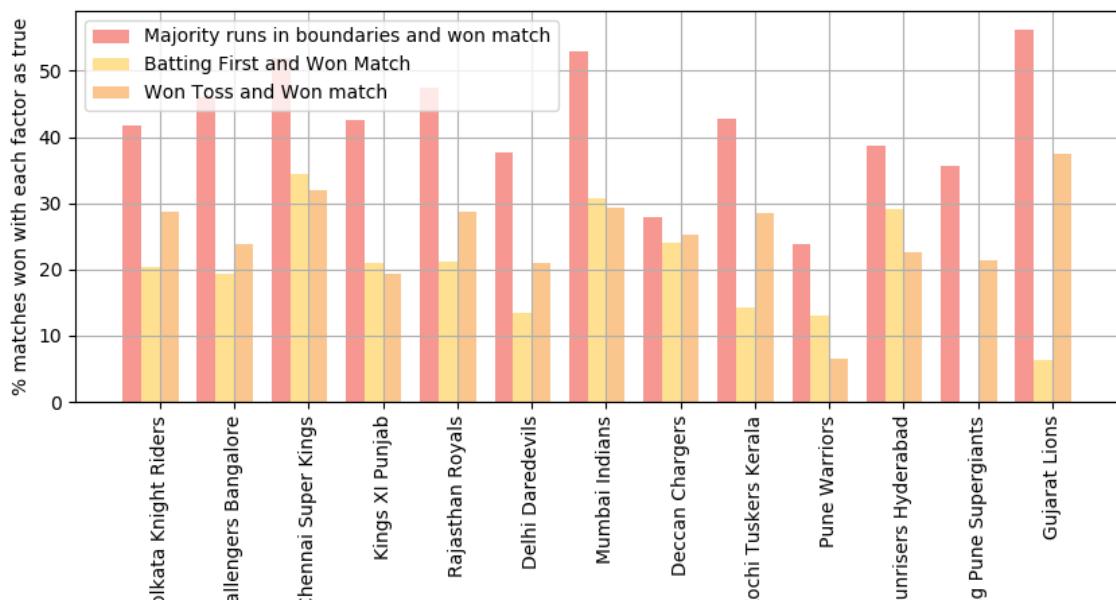
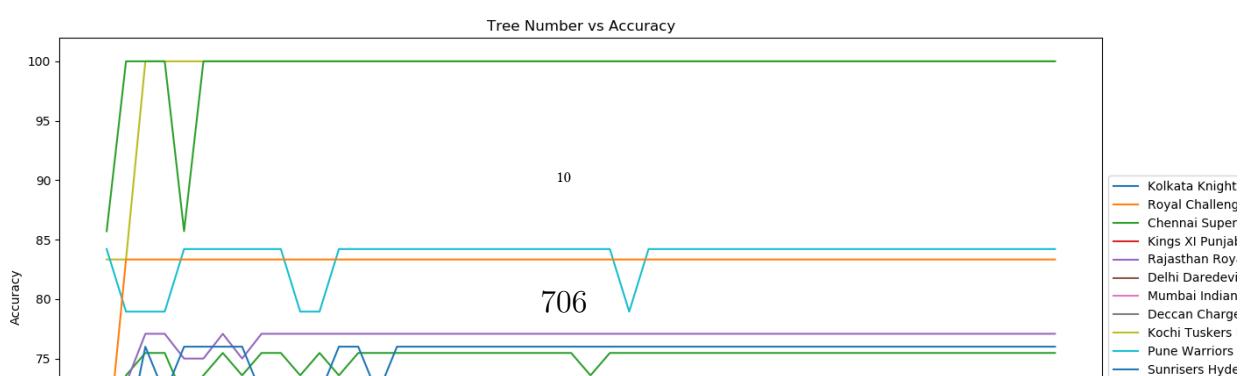


Figure 2: Other Factors Staistics



bibtex report

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
```

bibtext _ label error

bibtext space label error

bibtext comma label error

latex report

[2017-12-08 04.00.39] pdflatex report.tex

This is pdfTeX, Version 3.14159265-2.6-1.40.17 (TeX Live 2016) (preloaded format=pdflate

Missing character: "

Missing character: ""

Missing character: "

MISSING CHARACTER.

```

Missing character: ""

bookmark level for unknown defaults to 0.
The anchor of a bookmark and its parent's must not be the same. Added a new anchor.
Float too large for page by 1818.09471pt.
Typesetting of "report.tex" completed in 1.6s.
./README.yml
33:75    error    trailing spaces (trailing-spaces)
36:81    error    line too long (82 > 80 characters) (line-length)
36:82    error    trailing spaces (trailing-spaces)
40:81    error    line too long (89 > 80 characters) (line-length)
53:81    error    line too long (92 > 80 characters) (line-length)
54:81    error    line too long (95 > 80 characters) (line-length)
54:95    error    trailing spaces (trailing-spaces)
55:81    error    line too long (91 > 80 characters) (line-length)
56:81    error    line too long (91 > 80 characters) (line-length)
56:91    error    trailing spaces (trailing-spaces)
57:81    error    line too long (94 > 80 characters) (line-length)
58:81    error    line too long (96 > 80 characters) (line-length)
59:81    error    line too long (99 > 80 characters) (line-length)
60:81    error    line too long (100 > 80 characters) (line-length)
61:81    error    line too long (100 > 80 characters) (line-length)
62:81    error    line too long (99 > 80 characters) (line-length)
62:99    error    trailing spaces (trailing-spaces)
63:81    error    line too long (99 > 80 characters) (line-length)
64:81    error    line too long (101 > 80 characters) (line-length)
65:81    error    line too long (103 > 80 characters) (line-length)

```

Compliance Report

```

name: Swargam, Prashanth
hid: 228
paper1: Oct 20 17 100%
paper2: Nov 06 17 100%
project: Dec 04 17 100%

```

yamlcheck

wordcount

10
wc 228 project 10 6688 report.tex
wc 228 project 10 6475 report.pdf
wc 228 project 10 24 report.bib

find "

passed: True

find footnote

passed: True

find input{format/i523}

4: \input{format/i523}

passed: True

find input{format/final}

passed: False

floats

134: In the graph \ref{f:treenumvsaccuracy}, the accuracy of using various number of decision trees are plotted against the number of decision trees. It can be observed that using less than five decision trees, the accuracy for the prediction for all the teams is around sixty percentage. As the number of decision trees increased, the accuracy of all the prediction is increased by at least ten percent. The hundred percent accuracy is because, those teams have played less number of games.

142: The first importance feature for all the teams are plotted in the graph \ref{f:BattingFirst} . It is clear from the graph that the importance feature batting first is highest for Rising Pune super

giants. This indicates that this team have won most of their previous matches with while batting first in the game. While the Chennai Super kings and Kochi Tuskers are also high, but they are less than half. This indicates that batting first in the match will be a favourable condition for the above mentioned teams. For all the other teams except Kings xi Punjab, Pune warriors and Sunrisers Hyderabad, the batting first importance factor is nearly around 0.1. This implies, out of all that matches which were present in the training set, these team batted first for only ten percent of the games.

- 148: Score Composition composition is the combination of different ways of getting runs. For any high scoring and successful game, a team will have to score runs at faster rate. Hence, scoring runs in form of boundaries will help a team a lot in turning the match in their favour. In the graph \ref{f:BoundariesMajority} , Contribution of this factor against each team is plotted. This graph summarises the contribution towards of the score composition factor towards the factor. This factor is very high for Kochi Tuskers team, because they have played considerably less number of games.
- 162: From the graph \ref{f:scorerange} ,It is clear that, teams Kolkatta Knight Risers and Sun Risers Hyderabad have a value around 0.6. This implies that the wonmatch of column for this teams was mostly decided by the score range category column. For the teams like Gujarat Lions and Rising Pune Super giants, this value is low. It can be inferred that the wonmatch column for this table is mostly decided by other columns in the team statistics table.
- 170: From the graph \ref{f:Wontoss} it is clear that the this value is higher for teams Delhi Daredevils, Gujarat Lions and Royal challengers bangalore. This implies that out of the matches they have won, most of the matches they have won the toss. This implies toss is one of the important factor for this team to win a specific match. It is clear from the graph that this value is lower for teams like Kolkatta Knight risers. This implies that out of all the matches won by this team, they have won toss in less number of matches. This implies that toss is not one of the important factors for this team to win.
- 189: From the the lists of percentage contributions from the above anaylsis. Analysis of each factor and their contribution towards the individual team has been plotted in the graph. These plots are plotted against the team name and the percentage bars which show the percentage of each factor.Graph \ref{f:otherstats} has been plotted with above lists.
- 229: From the graph \ref{f:scorestats}, it is clear that most of the wining scores fall in the second and third category. That implies

for any team to win the match, it is most likely that the team must score atleast hundred runs in the match and come under second category or score atleast one hundred fifty runs and come under third category.

```

270: \begin{figure} [!ht]
271: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/scorestatics.png}
272: \caption{Score Staistics}\label{f:scorestats}
274: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/otherstatistics.png}
275: \caption{Other Factors Staistics}\label{f:otherstats}
277: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/treenumvsaccuracy.png}
278: \caption{Tree number vs Accuracy}\label{f:treenumvsaccuracy}
280: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/BattingFirst.png}
281: \caption{BattingFirst}\label{f:BattingFirst}
283: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/BoundariesMajority.png}
284: \caption{Majority of runs in boundaries}\label{f:BoundariesMajority}
286: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/Wontoss.png}
287: \caption{Toss}\label{f:Wontoss}
289: \centering\includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/scorerange.png}
290: \caption{Range of Scores}\label{f:scorerange}

```

```

figures 1
tables 0
includegraphics 7
labels 7
refs 7
floats 1

```

```

False : ref check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
False : label check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
False : include graphics passed: (figures >= includegraphics)
True : check if all figures are refered to: (refs >= labels)

```

```

Label/ref check
passed: True

```

```

When using figures use columnwidth
[width=1.0\columnwidth]
do not change the number to a smaller fraction

```

```
find textwidth
```

```
passed: True
```

```
below_check
```

```
bibtex
```

```
label errors
```

```
bibtex errors
```

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
```

```
bibtex_empty_fields
```

```
entries in general should not be empty in bibtex
```

```
find ""
```

```
passed: True
```

```
ascii
```

```
non ascii found 8217
```

```
non ascii found 8217
```

```
=====
The following tests are optional
=====
```

```
Tip: newlines can often be replaced just by an empty line
```

```
find newline
-----
```

```
passed: True
cites should have a space before \cite{} but not before the {
```

```
find cite {
-----
```

```
passed: True
```

Big Data = Big Bias? An Analysis of Google Search Suggestions

Gabriel Jones

Indiana University Bloomington
Bloomington, Indiana, USA
gabejone@indiana.edu

Mathew Millard

Indiana University Bloomington
Bloomington, Indiana, USA
mdmillar@indiana.edu

ABSTRACT

Since its origins, Big Data has promised to revolutionize the world. Scholars have wisely noted that it represents a paradigmatic shift from conventional norms of data, but the public has latched onto provocative but unrealistic narratives that deify Big Data as omniscient, infallible, and impervious to bias. Confiding in such narratives diminishes the integrity of credible science and poses serious ethical challenges, but these challenges are more likely overlooked because the problematic narratives seem to reject the need for ethical discussion. The authors argue that such blind optimism will cause irreversible damage to society if left unchecked. First, we debunk the fallacious narratives people tend to tell about Big Data, offering a more realistic discussion of its merits and its limitations. We then explore how analytical or algorithmic bias and sampling bias, two problems that statisticians have faced since long before the onset of Big Data, present pitfalls for deriving knowledge from data. We examine how the ethical implications of these pitfalls can cause serious damage in society. We determine that effective, credible, and ethically sound Big Data analysis must obey the principles of transparency, clear and appropriate objective definition, and self-correcting feedback mechanisms. We examine case studies where academicians and businesses have tested algorithms to study how well they exhibit these principles. We then implement our own test to check for potential algorithmic bias in Google. Based on evidence that certain individuals, including Dylan Roof, were corrupted in part by Google searches allegedly bias against minority groups, we hypothesize that Google's algorithms systematically exhibit biases against minority groups. We test this hypothesis by examining how Google search suggestions associate certain negative words with names that typically belong to minority groups. We conclude that while our study alone cannot prove or disprove the hypothesis, owing to the fallibility of big data analysis which we cover in detail, the evidence in our analysis contradicts our hypothesis, thus supporting the null hypothesis that no systematic bias is exhibited. We discuss what this could mean for future studies of potential algorithmic bias in Google.

KEYWORDS

i523, hid104, hid216, Big Data, Ethics, Algorithmic Bias, Sample Bias

1 INTRODUCTION: FALLACIOUS NARRATIVES ABOUT BIG DATA

In 2008, *Wired.com*'s Chris Anderson wrote an article that captures the general optimism with which people conceptualize Big Data. The article, with its self-explanatory title "The End of Theory: The Data Deluge Makes the Scientific Method Obsolete", argues that Big Data provides such a complete, infallible view into reality that

we no longer need conventional methods of scientific inquiry but need only to look at what the data tell us. According to Anderson, "With enough data, the numbers speak for themselves"[1]. This fervorous optimism was further extended in a 2013 book by Mayer-Schonberger and Cukier titled *Big Data* where authors assert that Big Data is synonymous with all data. In the past, researchers could only look at samples of data with limited scope, but Big Data, the authors claim, represents not a sample but a complete set[11]. A dataset of Twitter posts is viewed as synonymous with a complete, unbiased set of all of society's thoughts. By analyzing such a dataset, they conclude that they can confidently answer any question about how all of society thinks and behaves[9].

Cheerleaders for Big Data, such as Anderson, Mayer-Schonberger, and Cukier to make five exciting but yet flatly incorrect claims: that bigger is always better; that data analysis produces indisputably accurate results; that every data point can be studied, eliminating the need for archaic statistical sampling techniques; that studying causation is no longer needed since correlational patterns tell us all we need to know; and that scientific and statistical models are obsolete, since Big Data is itself sufficient. They have tended to extrapolate from the early success of the Google Flu Trends which at the time successfully embodied such grandiose, idealistic views. The Google Flu Trends project employed a theory-free set of algorithms that studied search engine results to predict flu outbreaks faster and more accurately than the Center for Disease Control. Allowing the numbers to "speak for themselves", Google determined that the number of searches about the Flu were correlated with flu outbreaks, so they concluded that more searches could accurately predict a greater spread[9].

At first it worked brilliantly. But in February 2013, just a month before the $n = all$ proposition was published in *Big Data*, it made headlines for failing miserably, overestimating actual trends in 2013 by over 140 percent, leading Google to humbly terminate the program. The overconfidence of such an enormous dataset, viewed as a complete representation of reality free of gaps or inconsistencies, blinded them to its inherent flaws. For one, searches involving the term *influenza* are hardly an unbiased determinant of flu prevalence. They committed a classic statistical mistake by failing to consider confounding variables: the other reasons why people might search for the word *influenza*. Rather than adapting their model to fit changing patterns in the data, they assumed that the numbers could speak for themselves[9].

But blind proponents of Big Data bury the Google Flu Trends fiasco as just one not particularly convincing counterexample, giving superficial explanations that do not challenge Big Data's position as an infallible deity. In reality, such failure is the rule rather than the exception. Even Gartner, a company publicly known for pushing the importance of Big Data, estimated that 60 percent of Big Data projects would fail[8]. But it's not just a matter of occasional

success or failure; many people in all disciplines misunderstand the nature of Big Data and therefore have unrealistic expectations. The narrative of the Target coupon case shows that society still regards the potential of Big Data as omniscient even if its execution is occasionally flawed. The story is narrated somewhat as follows.

In 2012, Target had collected enough purchasing data about pregnant women that they determined a particular high school girl was pregnant. When coupons for baby care items mixed in with general coupons started showing up in the mail, the father angrily visited the store manager to complain, suggesting that the store was encouraging teen pregnancy. The manager understood his frustration and called twice to apologize, but on the second call, the father's mood was different. The father offered his own apology because Target was right. His daughter was pregnant, and Target's Big Data analytics managed to discover this before him[6].

While such a rose-colored narration fits well within the aforementioned grandiose conceptions of Big Data, a closer look shows that this successful case is overblown. While the anecdote seems to prove that Target's algorithms are infallibly accurate – that everyone receiving baby care coupons is pregnant – this is very unlikely. While the popular account suggests that Target mixes in coupons targeted towards pregnant women with other coupons to avoid spooking such women about their algorithmic accuracy, a much more credible explanation is that many women see mixed advertisements precisely because Target is unsure which ones actually are pregnant[9]. Even women who Target does suspect are pregnant have shopping interests outside of baby care items. While the algorithms help not to waste money by sending the coupons to, say, a single male adult living alone, they hardly indicate any reliable accuracy of pregnancy prediction. Of course, this is an empirical question that could be answered by researching how often pregnancy-targeted ads are sent to pregnant women versus those who aren't. But without having a methodologically sound study prove consistent accuracy, it's unwise to extrapolate from the anecdote and assume that Big Data done right is omniscient.

Critiquing the dominant reading of the Target case is not meant to suggest that Big Data has no value. Afterall, Target likely improved the efficiency of targeted advertising through Big Data by more accurately segmenting those who *might* be pregnant. But the important thing to keep in mind is that ultimately, models of the world and the data that feed them are imperfect. Models reflect the biases of those who create them, and data reflect biases inherent in sampling methods, time periods, and society in general. Cathy O'Neal, a former professor and Wall Street algorithm specialist with a mathematics degree from Harvard, observes that any model of the world "begins with a hunch, an instinct about a deeper logic beneath the surface of things"[13]. Human potential for bias and faulty assumptions can creep in. Of course, hunches or working thesis provide a necessary part of the scientific method of inquiry. Human intuition can be useful, as long there exist mechanisms by which those hunches can be evaluated and revised when necessary[13].

Perhaps the most common example of successfully wielding insightful models is depicted by the movie *Moneyball*, based on a true story. Oakland A's General Manager Billy Beane hypothesized that conventional performance metrics were overrated whereas more obscure measures better predicted overall success. He worked

with statistician Bill James to create models that helped Beane decide which players to acquire and which to let go. The once obscure method has become a staple of baseball analytics. According to O'Neal, the model works for three main reasons: it allows for transparent analysis; its objectives are clear and appropriately quantifiable; and it includes a self-correcting feedback mechanism of new inputs and outputs, allowing it to be honed and refined. Models go wrong when they lack these three healthy attributes: "the calculations are opaque; the objectives attempt to quantify that which perhaps should not be; and feedback loops, far from being self-correcting, serve only to reinforce faulty assumptions"[13].

But models are only one factor in determining the efficacy of Big Data analysis. Since the very nature of data analysis is to extrapolate from limited samples, not only must researchers realize that models include human bias, but data itself is imperfect. It's true that data never lie. But it's false to assume they tell the truth. Data by themselves don't say anything; they simply are[4]. No matter how large and complex a dataset, it is always up to researchers to interpret the data to make meaningful claims. This is the essence of the scientific method that some want to reject.

2 ALGORITHMIC AND SAMPLE BIAS: THE THREATS THAT NEVER DISAPPEARED

Humans, as imperfect beings, should never assume that our creations are without flaw and bias. In many ways, mistakes and flawed thinking can trickle into the processes we come up with. This is the idea behind the fallibility of models created by humans with respect to algorithms used for handling Big Data. Some algorithms come with biases based on narrow thinking with a broad scope to cover. Other biases come from the assumption that the Big Data set being used is representative of the population when it really isn't. In any scenario, the creator is prone to introducing bias into any given algorithm, which can make it difficult to trust the results that the algorithm produces. With this in mind and considering the importance of specific findings, there is a lot at stake here. In some cases, lives can be changed for better or worse.

Sometimes algorithms, as models laden with the biases of their creators, can unintentionally manipulate readings of data in ways that reinforce false positives. But not all algorithms are wrong. In fact, machine learning shows us that often a well-written algorithm fed with good data can outperform human knowledge on everything from chess to medical diagnosis. But there's a problem with Big Data; it's inherently messy, complex, and distorted. Contrary to popular opinion that views it as a perfect representation of reality – recall the $n = \text{all}$ proposition – Big Data is a black box where typical issues with data quality hide themselves rather than disappearing. No matter how large or complex the dataset, the old adage still remains true: garbage in, garbage out.

The Literary Digest experienced the concept of garbage in, garbage out firsthand during the 1936 US presidential election, which pitted the Republican Alfred Landon against the wildly popular democrat Franklin D. Roosevelt. Roosevelt was particularly popular among the working class, the US majority, whereas Landon resonated well with the upper middle class and elites[9]. *The Literary Digest* Tried to predict the outcome of the election by sending out surveys to its

own subscribers and by looking people up in phone and automobile registries. During the great depression, the people that owned phones, cars, and subscribed to the *The Literary Digest* tended to be more affluent and republican. After sending out 10 million ballots and receiving back nearly a fifth of them, they predicted that Alfred Landon would win with an astonishing 57 percent of the popular vote. They could not have been more wrong. Landon earned less than 40 percent of the popular vote, losing by a landslide[5]. This case has become the archetype example that data from a bias sample will lead to bias results. Increasing the volume of bad data only succeeds in producing a very precise incorrect conclusion, creating a false sense of confidence in something inherently wrong.

Although the *The Literary Digest* used lots of data, by definition their sample did not involve Big Data[11]. But if we reject the $n = all$ proposition, we can see that Big Data is still a sample and is therefore potentially vulnerable to sample bias. But while any statistically literate person can understand what went wrong with *The Literary Digest*, sample bias with Big Data is much more complicated and difficult to identify. For many people, random samples of social media data appear impervious to sample bias. Researchers conducting Twitter sentiment analyses often claim objectivity in representing the real world accurately, concluding that patterns observed in these vast, complex webs occur the same way offline. Despite the conflation of people and Twitter users, the two are not synonymous. Twitter users are by no means representative of the population. A Pew Research project in 2013 found that US-based Twitter users “were disproportionately young, urban or suburban, and black”[2]. To complicate things further, we cannot assume that Twitter data accurately represent how users behave because users and accounts are not a one-to-one relationship. Some accounts have multiple users, and some users own multiple accounts. Some accounts are just bots that automatically produce content, and some accounts are created and forgotten, going years without use. Furthermore, among active accounts, data are skewed by how some accounts dominate the discourse. Whereas some users post multiple times per day, others use the site only to view content. In fact, 40 percent of active users view content without making contributions, according to 2011 data from Twitter Inc[2]. The notions of what it means to be active, to participate, and to be a user require critical examination that’s almost universally lacking.

The aforementioned examples highlight problems with available Twitter data, but there’s also a problem with the integrity of available data. Twitter only makes a fraction of its data publicly available through its APIs. The supposed firehose of data theoretically contains all public tweets but explicitly excludes data that a user chooses to make private. Furthermore, theory does not match reality as the firehose lacks some publicly available tweets. Very few researchers get adequately full access. Research by Microsoft’s Danah Boyd and Kate Crawford found that rather than a firehose, most have access to a “gardenhose (roughly 10 percent of public tweets), a spritzer (roughly 1 percent of public tweets),” or just select access through whitelist accounts[2]. Not only are protected data excluded, but data samples are not always randomized. So, a more reasonable description of Twitter data would say it takes a skewed sample of the real world population, further skewed by how users and bots create or do not create content, and then it limits the scope of the skewed data in an often opaque, arbitrary manner[2].

Is this data useful? Without a doubt. Is the data so perfect and infallible that we need not concern ourselves with basic principles of statistical and scientific credibility because “the numbers speak for themselves”[1]? Not even close.

If an algorithm could analyze a large, random sample of every word ever thought, spoken, or written by every human throughout their entire life, we could confidently believe that $n = all$ and make a sentiment analysis that accurately captures how people feel about a certain topic without regard for methods of scientific inquiry; the numbers would “speak for themselves”[1]. But we do not, and probably never will, have that kind of data. Twitter or other social media platforms are no substitute. While understanding the fallibility of Big Data is perhaps not as clear and straightforward as the *Literary Digest* case, society must be responsible by diligently scrutinizing data. To paraphrase loosely from world-renowned consultant Meta S. Brown, the biggest problem with data analysis will always be people failing to admit that data imperfections exist, failing to look for them, and refusing to do anything constructive about the ethical implications of these imperfections[3].

3 ETHICAL IMPLICATIONS OF ALGORITHMIC AND SAMPLE BIAS

As we’ve seen, the massive failure of the Google Flu Trends caused embarrassment and wasted Google’s money. But the consequences they faced are relatively trivial, and given the company’s history of learning from the past, they are probably a better company because of the failure. But when Big Data goes awry, the consequences are not always so trivial and localized. Big Data used unwisely has very serious, irreversible impacts upon society. Pervasive overconfidence can make it harder to acknowledge and confront such impacts until too late.

Society’s current failure to address these issues is the topic of Cathy O’Neal’s book *Weapons of Math Destruction: How Big Data Increases Inequality and Threatens Democracy*. She argues that these WMDs, referring to Big Data algorithms, have good intentions but often reinforce harmful stereotypes, especially of minorities and the poor, and become opaque models wielding arbitrary punishments. Through her work in the private sector, she has experienced numerous Big Data horror stories, and the book discusses several different failings of Big Data in various contexts.

One common issue associated with Big Data is the notion of self-fulfilling prophecy: the idea that expectations change reality to make it reflect the expectations. If police suspect African Americans to be more likely to commit crimes, they may patrol black neighborhoods more often and proactively hunt criminal activity. Increasing patrols increases the number of arrests, which provides justification to further increase patrols, causing more arrests, and so on. The prophecy that African Americans are more likely to commit crimes becomes adequately reinforced with their higher incarceration rates. But higher likelihood of arrest is not the same thing as being more likely to commit crimes[12].

It should be easy to see how the example of arrest rates is problematic, but somehow incorporating Big Data tends to make people fail to recognize the possibility of self-fulfilling prophecy. In fact, numerous police departments use algorithms that do just this, inadvertently instructing their officers to focus on areas with high

concentrations of blacks. Crime prediction software that attempts to adjust police deployments according to anticipated patterns fail when they confuse more data with better data. Even though they attempt to prioritize violent and serious crime, data generated by relatively insignificant petty crimes, which occur far more often in poor and predominantly minority communities, can overwhelm the system, making it prejudice. Once the petty crime data enters a predictive model, more police deploy into those neighborhoods, and they are more likely to arrest people by their sheer presence and by the perceived threat that those people pose. The increased arrests justify the deployments in the first place[13].

But the danger does not end there. Once people are arrested by these inherently discriminatory processes, Big Data can work to keep them in prison for longer. This is usually not by intention but by flaws in design. Recognizing how unconscious bias can affect sentencing decisions, courts in 24 US states have started to use computerized models to help assess the risk of recidivism, the likelihood of repeat offense. The models attempt to use Big Data to avoid a common, serious problem with human reasoning, and they certainly show some promise in this regard. But over reliance on the models can prove even worse than trusting potentially biased judges. “By attempting to quantify and nail down with precision what are at root messy human realities”, the recidivism models shroud sentencing bias in a veil of unwarranted confidence and precise accuracy that disadvantages minorities by subjecting them to harsher prison sentences[13].

How does one quantify something as complex as the risk of recidivism? One popular model uses a lengthy questionnaire that attempts to pinpoint factors related to this risk. The questionnaire inquires about things such as previous police incidents. Given how much more often young black males get stopped by the police, partly because of the aforementioned self-fulfilling prophecy, such questions easily become a proxy for race, despite intentions to reduce this very prejudice. Other questions, such as whether or not the respondent’s relatives or friends have criminal records, would be flagrant violations of court procedures and surely elicit objections from a defense attorneys if raised during a trial. But the opacity “of these complicated risk models shields them from proper scrutiny”[13]. Discriminatory police strategies feed into the recidivism models used to call for harsher sentencing, creating “a destructive and pernicious feedback loop”[13].

It is no secret that racial tension has become a dominant source of discussion when it comes to the American justice system. However, this issue is compounded with bias produced within the data itself as well. When there is a bias in how arrests are made based on the color of someone’s skin, this bias feeds into an algorithm which opens up for more bias down the road. As more people of a given color are arrested and given harsher sentences, this data builds up in the system. The root of the cause may be human bias, but there is definitely a healthy amount of algorithmic bias that compounds and builds on the issue as most algorithms lack the ability to look beyond the face value of the data provided[7].

Big Data is, of course, not only used in attempts to more effectively dole out punishments. Facing international competition, Corporate America has latched onto its potential for increasing profits through more effective marketing, financial trading, and personnel decisions. With the prevalence of the internet, social

media, and information literacy, Big Data presents an enormous opportunity for marketing personalization. Rather than targeting advertisement campaigns on broad, general audiences, Big Data can segment down to the individual level, targeting people based on their own personal data and patterns of behavior. However, this type of marketing is still a very inexact science and raises tricky ethical issues, including gender bias. Like racial bias, gender bias comes about in scenarios where profiling usually happens. For instance, advertising on the internet aims to reach its intended audience in order for businesses to sell products and make profits. Big Data and the statistical analysis involved might suggest that a certain gender has specific tendencies or lean on embedded societal stereotypes which cause some serious bias in an algorithm. One example might be a job opportunity being advertised. In this case, we want to say that either gender should be shown the advertisement a near equal amount, but we know from experience and outrage that this is not the case. It is almost staggering how it would favor the male population at times, especially when dealing with high paying jobs. Here, we also have a combination of Big Data and algorithmic bias working hand in hand to create biased results that ultimately lead to insult and faulty representation[3].

Beyond marketing, Big Data has found particular popularity among Wall Street investment firms, and for good reason. The ability to incorporate Big Data into decision making has tremendous potential for profitability. But the subprime mortgage crisis demonstrated how this can also have tremendous destructive potential. Financial models exhibited a particular bias, reinforcing the idea that what has worked in the past or what works currently will continue working indefinitely. But the sophisticated mathematical models lacked self-correcting feedback that could indicate inherent flaws. Since the models were driven by the market, if they led to maximum profits, they were considered infallible. Otherwise, why would the omniscient invisible hand of the market reward it? In hindsight we all recognize that betting on the subprime mortgage bubble was a losing proposition, yet the myopic reliance on the market proved disastrous in 2008. During the financial crisis, the algorithms used to assess securities risk became smoke screens. Their complex, mathematically intimidating design “camouflaged the true level of risk”[13]. The opaque models also lacked a healthy feedback mechanism that could have identified the problem[13]. The severity of the 2008 recession shows that companies are not only accountable for their own success and failure. Their misuse of Big Data had broad sweeping effects across the entire economy.

Perhaps it is reasonable to understand why companies might get carried away in a practice that, at least on the surface level, does not appear to affect humans directly. A trader working on the top floor of a Wall Street skyscraper might not see how the work of his mathematicians might hurt or harm average people. But Big Data also plays a role in ways that very clearly affect individuals, especially with the increasing popularity of integrating technology into personnel decisions. Since personnel decisions directly impact company performance, workforce management has become popular, particularly programs that promise to eliminate the guesswork from hiring by screening potential employees [13]. Many of these programs use personality tests to try and automate the hiring process; 60 percent to 70 percent of prospective employers, according to Deloitte Consulting.

Despite the optimism, such tests face the same problem as the recidivism surveys: they try unsuccessfully to quantify and precisely measure “what are at root messy human realities”[13] The high use of personality tests goes against research that consistently shows them to be poor predictors of future job performance. They don’t provide this goal but rather an illusion of objectivity and simplicity. They generate raw data that get plugged into efficient algorithms and give clear answers, as opposed to the time consuming and obviously subjective process of human interviewing. Not only does this illusion coolly deceive companies, it leaves prospective employees disgruntled and confused by results from a opaque systems. Rejected employees don’t know if they’ve been flagged or what caused them to be. The personality tests also lack important feedback mechanisms. There is no way to identify inherent errors in the model and use those mistakes to refine the system[13]. Far too often, personality tests fail both the companies that use them and the prospective employees that get arbitrarily denied a chance.

In each of these cases, the story repeats itself where ethical issues that are normally fairly obvious become invisible when Big Data enters the picture. The argument is not that we should reject the positive potential of a reality that will only grow stronger with time. Rather, we should remain cognizant that a failure to adhere to basic principles of scientific credibility and ethical reasoning can affect people in unseen but deadly ways.

4 POTENTIAL ALGORITHMIC BIAS IN GOOGLE: THE DYLANN ROOF CASE

Sometimes, algorithmic bias can morph and distort opinions in ways that almost seem like indoctrination in nature. In some cases, it can seem like this bias can be the root of a terrible downward spiral into blatant racism, but when do we justifiably point blame at the machine rather than a person’s inner desires? In today’s society, it can be tempting to take the easy way out of tough situations and place the blame anywhere else that might make sense as long as it provides some kind of vindication. That being said, we do live in a generation that is gradually becoming more influenced by the internet and technology in general as the years fly by. With that in mind, it is reasonable to see where a flaw or bias in an algorithm can have a monumental impact in a negative way on some people. Unfortunately, there have been cases where people are significantly effected by these algorithmic biases in ways that trigger a violent disposition towards another group or race.

About two to three years ago, a man named Dylann Roof shot and killed nine people in a church in Charleston, South Carolina. The interesting details hanging around this massacre to make it stand out were the people he shot and the line of reasoning he used to explain how he was eventually led to commit such an act. The attack was done on what was reported to be a predominantly black church which led people to label the offense as a hate crime. Although, Roof’s explanation on what might have led him to that point is what makes this story stand out from other hate crimes. In an article that the National public radio published titled “What Happened When Dylann Roof Asked Google For Information About Race?” it was reported that Roof’s defense had made a case that there was more to the act than just simple racism and white supremacy[10]. The argument that the internet had a direct influence on what Roof

believed and that he was acting on the information he was being fed through other sources was being made. Roof elaborated on the subject and explained that it had all began with the growing popularity of the Trayvon Martin case. Trayvon Martin was an unarmed black teenager who was shot and killed in three to four years prior to the incident involving Roof. After researching the details of the case and coming to his own conclusions he states in a quote in the article “this prompted me to type in the words ‘black on White crime’ into Google, and I have never been the same since that day”[10]. The article continues to dive deeper into what Roof might have encountered. Anyone who has encountered a search engine in general has been faced with the auto complete feature that provides calculated, popular options to give the user some direction. In this case, the potential algorithmic bias surrounding the racial tensions might have led Roof down the path of searching for examples of crime committed by people of color on white people. The National Public Radio itself reported that they tested out Google’s search engine by typing out the beginning of the phrase Roof mentioned and they were prompted with the auto complete option of the exact phrase before they could even type in the word white[10]. Even today, you can perform the same experiment and come up with the same results.

Unfortunately, the main factor in driving this algorithmic bias is popularity and relevance which are hard variables that are difficult to counter and account for in most cases. Which means the objective of removing the type of algorithmic bias that Dylann Roof encountered would be difficult and require a major change in how search suggestions and results are calculated. However, this needs to be discussed and changes need to be made or more people will continue to be influenced negatively by algorithmic bias which would put more lives at risk down the road. After all, Roof was only seventeen when he began down the line of thinking that led him to commit those murders. There are numerous children and young adults that have unlimited access to the internet and are wide open to the same influence. So, preventative measures need to be taken in order to assure that we do not see similar stories surface. In order to get that done, there has to be some kind of analysis of bias within specific algorithms to understand them and create ways to account for this bias. If unchecked, not much can be done, but the knowledge from understanding the potential bias in these algorithms could prove invaluable.

5 CASE STUDIES IN CHECKING FOR ALGORITHMIC BIAS

Before we can test for algorithmic bias, we have to have a grasp or understanding on how many of the algorithms implemented in concepts such as prediction work. In many fields where predictive work is being done in research, there is a common use of natural language processing algorithms such as Support Vector Machines, Neural Networks, and Naive Bayes. Each algorithm uses a specific type of processing that makes it stand out from the others, but the different aspects to each come with advantages and drawbacks that make each one valuable in certain circumstances. However, it is the internal structure of what makes up the algorithm that allows for bias to get in.

5.1 Support Vector Machines

A Support Vector Machine is a supervised learning model that is known for the analysis of data for classification and regression. This algorithm is much better at classifying problems than normal logistical regression and it always converges to a global minima when classifying data. However, this algorithm can be complex especially when the data isn't linearly separable. In the case that the data set being used is non-separable, the data can be transformed using a kernel function, such as a log function in some cases, in order for the algorithm to fit the data and classify correctly. The main bias that we can see from this algorithm is in the case of it classifying data to the point where patterns form based on things like popularity and relevance which could lead to something similar to what we discussed in the case involving Dylann Roof. Since Support Vector Machines are supervised learning models, any bias can be accounted for in the manual make up of the model because it does need some direction. In that case, bias might come in the form of human error though.

5.2 Neural Networks

Neural Networks are algorithmic models in which weighted inputs are fed into a function to compute an output. In a predictive setting, Neural Networks are fairly flexible in structure which makes allows it to be applied in many scenarios. In this type of model, we can expect to utilize logic gates in order to understand how certain scenarios must be weighted to account for a specific outcome or result that we want. If an outcome relying on three variables hinges on a specific variable being untrue and requires at least one of the other variables to be true, we would assign a higher weight to the first variable than the other two because that one variable to ruin the outcome. We can see how this type of modeling can be used to model complex predictive problems and could possibly be used in a search engine if desired. Based on input strings that make up common and popular words and phrases, we could make an auto complete function using neural networks to put weights on certain inputs to predict the possible resulting desired search for the user. Unfortunately, placing weight on certain inputs and pieces of the function can inherit some bias along with it. Even if those weights aren't manually decided, popularity and relevance can have a large impact on calculation of weights which would still lead to some bias down the road. In the search engine example, this would lead to people being influenced to search something based on the beginning of their search query.

5.3 Naive Bayes

The Naive Bayes classifier is a probabilistic model that applies Bayes' Theorem that makes predictions based on a set of training data consisting of features. However, Naive Bayes places the assumption on the features that each one is independent of the other. Although this stipulation does well enough in real world situations, this assumption can hold it back from working in more complex situations where features are highly dependent on one another.

5.4 How to For Algorithmic Bias

After getting to know what kind of algorithms we are working with,

6 OUR CASE STUDY: TESTING GOOGLE FOR NEGATIVE SEARCH SUGGESTIONS BIAS AGAINST CERTAIN RACES

Based on the observed need for scrutinizing algorithms and inspiration from researchers who have successfully done so, we devised an experiment to test Google's search suggestions for potential bias against names associated with particular races. In the following sections, we discuss our methodology, our hypotheses our algorithm, and our results.

6.1 Methodology

Building off of several researchers and the anecdotal record which have identified cases of bias against certain names, we decided to test for such biases by identifying how negative word associations correlate with searches for particular names. We decided to look for instances of the words associated with *arrest*, *murder*, *crime*, *homicide*, and *prison*, including the words *arrested*, *arresting*, *arrests*, *murderer*, *murderers*, *murdering*, *crimes*, *criminal*, *criminals*, *criminality*, *homicides*, *homicidal*, *prisoner*, and *prisons*.

Since we expected these such associations to carry bias based on race and ethnicity, we decided to use data that separated names into racial and ethnic categories. To make as objective of an assumption as possible regarding which names were associated with which race, we used data from the 2010 Census that identifies what percentage of people self-identify with which types of names. This allowed us to classify a name as belonging to a certain racial or ethnic group if most people with that name identified under that race. However, one complication of using Census data is that we only had access to surname data. Whereas, based on intuition, a person might be able to distinguish a predominantly black first name from a predominantly white first name, this is much more difficult for surnames. This both limits our experiment by testing for something not immediately obvious and bolsters the experiment by ensuring complete statistical objectivity. Furthermore, whereas black and white surnames are less distinguishable, Asian and Latino or Hispanic names are much easier to identify because they are usually not based on the English language. For these names, we can be confident that Google recognizes the name and can make associations based partly on these racial and ethnic identities.

Given that the central argument from our qualitative analysis of Big Data suggests that Big Data analysis often has inherent flaws, we determined that avoiding many of the common pitfalls observed with such research should be a top priority. We wanted to study something with which we could be completely confident that the results reflect the true nature of Google's algorithms, whether they be positive or negative. For this reason, despite initially considering it, we decided to avoid studying web page data for such information. Data from web pages would have been problematic because it is difficult to infer the context behind word associations. Simple word counts could create potential false positives. For instance, if a web page from the search *Mueller arrest* uses the word *arrested* n amount of times, it could be an arrest record report for someone with the last name Mueller, a decidedly negative view, or it could a page talking about the people arrested by order of former FBI director James Mueller. Since our study depends on isolating not only words

but negative associations, this lack of context introduces an irreconcilably high level of uncertainty: it would be far too difficult to determine which sites held negative views of the particular name and which ones had positive views. For this reason, we decided instead to look at search suggestions. Google's algorithms play the central role in search suggestions, and the simplicity of the searches largely eliminates the problem of insufficient context. By just typing in a name and the first few letters of a search term, we can be more confident that whichever suggestions are revealed reflect clearly distinguishable sentiments (negative or positive) regarding the name itself.

6.2 Hypotheses

Given the anecdotal evidence and from a history of racial and bias in the United States, we expected to see a bias toward and ethnic minorities. Specifically, we hypothesized the following:

H1 Black names will, on average, have more negative word associations than white names.

H2 Latino and Hispanic names will, on average, have more negative word associations than white names.

H3 Asian and Pacific Islander names will, on average, have fewer negative word associations than white names.

6.3 Algorithm

The coding for our analysis was conducted with Python 3.5.2. The necessary import modules include: *requests, json, csv, urllib.request, matplotlib, pandas, numpy, and timeit*, all of which we installed using pip install. We gathered the data for our project from the website for the 2010 Census. Their .csv provided us with a list of 162,254 surnames. We read in the file, which is posted in our github account, using *csv.DictReader*. We isolate the name and race/ethnicity columns. For each name, the race/ethnicity categories include the percentage of people that identify as part of a particular race or ethnicity. Because increasingly obscure names are likely less identifiable, we decided to use only the first 500 names. None of these 500 names were predominantly mixed race or predominantly Native American, so these categories were excluded from our. We created a dictionary with the analyzable categories, *pctwhite, pctblack, pctapi, pcthispanic* and sorted the 500 names into the appropriate categories using a series of *for loops* that checked for the highest percentage.

We then move to the main goal of the experiment: capturing Google search suggestions. Using Mozilla Firefox 5.0 as a user agent, we use a url that automatically outputs a two-dimensional list with the search term and ten Google suggestions. We then define a function to manipulate the url to modify the for each search term and for every name. When, for a given name, a search suggestion contains one of the target words described in the methodology section (arrest, crime, homicide, etc.), the function adds a point to the name's key. We run the function five times for each target word, creating five dictionaries that store names as key and the number of

negative word associations as values. We add the five dictionaries to a list that we can iterate through. This section involves a lot of searching, we use *timeit* to make sure it runs efficiently. It typically takes about 200 seconds to run with 8 gigabytes of ram and an Intel i7 processor with 500 names, so we estimate that this step would take about 65,000 seconds or over 18 hours to run with the full data.

Now that the search results are appropriately organized by name and by search term, we need to calculate the aggregate scores for each race/ethnicity category. We create dictionaries for each of the four race/ethnicity categories, with search terms as keys and values defaulted to zero. We then define a function that will appropriately fill the values so that we know how many negative word associations go along with each search term for each race. As inputs, the function takes the name of the racial/ethnic category, the name of the dictionary for that category (from the four we just created), and the list containing the five search term dictionaries we created earlier. The function uses three for loops to iterate through the various dictionaries and lists to match names with their racial categories and add the values to the scores accordingly. We run this function four times for each category.

To calculate the aggregate word associations for each racial category, all we need to do is sum the values of each key for each dictionary. However, to be completely sure that the function for the previous section worked properly, we implement a set of for loops to calculate the aggregates instead of just summing the dictionary values. We create a dictionary with keys set to the racial category and values defaulted to zero and allow the for loops to calculate the proper scores. We also create a dictionary with racial categories as keys and empty lists as values. We append the numerical values for each word association to the empty list. With the data arranged as such in raw form, we are now able to analyze more measures of central tendency, including the median and the 1st and 3rd quartiles. This data arrangement enables us to create the box plot displayed in the results section.

As a final step for the data preparation, we take the averages of all the aggregate data so that we know how many negative word associations go along with each name on average. We now have all the data summarized and organized as needed and can move on to creating a bar chart, a box plot, and a series of radar charts using *matplotlib*. Details on how to recreate these visuals are available on the Jupyter notebook on our github project folder.

6.4 Results

Explain results

[Figure 1 about here.]

[Figure 2 about here.]

[Figure 3 about here.]

[Figure 4 about here.]

6.5 Discussion

Discussion of results

7 CONCLUSION

In the face of the copious amounts of new issues and problems we find around us when dealing with Big Data, there must be

ways that we can hold Big Data and ourselves accountable. In order for Big Data to be the revolutionary force it promises to be, we must find ways to reduce bias and ultimately deal with ethical dilemmas in a proper manner. There are plenty of people around the world trying to solve these problems and progress is certainly being made. As humans, we will never be perfect, but understanding our imperfections and improving on our flaws is definitely a step in the right direction. Is there a way to catch our mistakes that we unwittingly make before we even know that we made them? Multiple cases studies suggest that the answer is a resounding yes: that we can make make algorithms which test for algorithmic bias. Such methods represent the future of Big Data; the idealized future will arrive when we successfully situate it within the broader context of data analysis in general, subjecting it to the same levels of scrutiny as we do for other types of data. We can simultaneously capitalize on Big Data's grand potential while avoiding ethical pitfalls when we successfully allow for transparent analysis; maintain clear, appropriately quantifiable objectives; and include feedback mechanisms that allow us to hone and refine the algorithms to produce objective results.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors would like to thank Professor Gregor von Laszewski for providing the opportunity to explore a topic of deep interest.

REFERENCES

- [1] Chris Anderson. 2008. The End of Theory: The Data Deluge Makes the Scientific Method Obsolete. Website. (June 2008). <https://www.wired.com/2008/06/pb-theory/>
- [2] Danah Boyd and Kate Crawford. 2011. A Decade in Internet Time: Symposium on the Dynamics of the Internet and Society. In *Six Provocations for Big Data*. <https://ssrn.com/abstract=1926431>
- [3] Meta Brown. 2017. Math Isn't Biased, But Big Data Is. (AUG 2017). <https://www.forbes.com/sites/metabrown/2017/08/30/math-isnt-biased-but-big-data-is/#2d6691dd4d56>
- [4] Kate Crawford. 2013. The Hidden Biases in Big Data. (April 2013). <https://hbr.org/2013/04/the-hidden-biases-in-big-data>
- [5] Cynthia Crossen. 2006. Fiasco in 1936 Survey Brought 'Science' To Election Polling. (Oct. 2006). <https://www.wsj.com/articles/SB115974322285279370>
- [6] Charles Duhigg. 2012. How Companies Learn Your Secrets. (Feb. 2012). <http://www.nytimes.com/2012/02/19/magazine/shopping-habits.html?r=1&hp=&pagewanted=all>
- [7] Laurel Eckhouse. 2017. Big data may be reinforcing racial bias in the criminal justice system. (FEB 2017). https://www.washingtonpost.com/opinions/big-data-may-be-reinforcing-racial-bias-in-the-criminal-justice-system/2017/02/10/d63de518-ee3a-11e6-9973-c5efb7ccfb0d_story.html?utm_term=.0ee1409ec5c0#comments
- [8] Laurence Goasdouf. 2015. Gartner Says Business Intelligence and Analytics Leaders Must Focus on Mindsets and Culture to Kick Start Advanced Analytics. (Sept. 2015). <https://www.gartner.com/newsroom/id/3130017>
- [9] Tim Harford. 2014. Big data: are we making a big mistake? (March 2014). <https://www.ft.com/content/21a6e7d8-b479-11e3-a09a-00144feabdc0>
- [10] Rebecca Hersher. 2017. What Happened When Dylan Roof Asked Google For Information About Race? National Public Radio (JAN 2017). <https://www.npr.org/sections/thetwo-way/2017/01/10/508363607/what-happened-when-dylan-roof-asked-google-for-information-about-race>
- [11] Carl Lagoze. 2014. Big Data, data integrity, and the fracturing of the control zone. *Big Data and Society* 1, 2 (NO 2014), 1–11. <https://doi.org/10.1177/2053951714558281>
- [12] Jasmine Liu. 2017. Big data and the creation of a self-fulfilling prophecy. (April 2017). <https://www.stanforddaily.com/2017/04/05/big-data-and-the-creation-of-a-self-fulfilling-prophecy/>
- [13] Wharton. 2016. 'Rogue Algorithms' and the Dark Side of Big Data. (Sept. 2016). <http://knowledge.wharton.upenn.edu/article/rogue-algorithms-dark-side-big-data/>

LIST OF FIGURES

1	Include some caption that analyzes the graph	10
2	Include some caption that analyzes the box plot	11
3	Include some caption that analyzes the charts	12
4	Include some caption that analyzes the chart	13

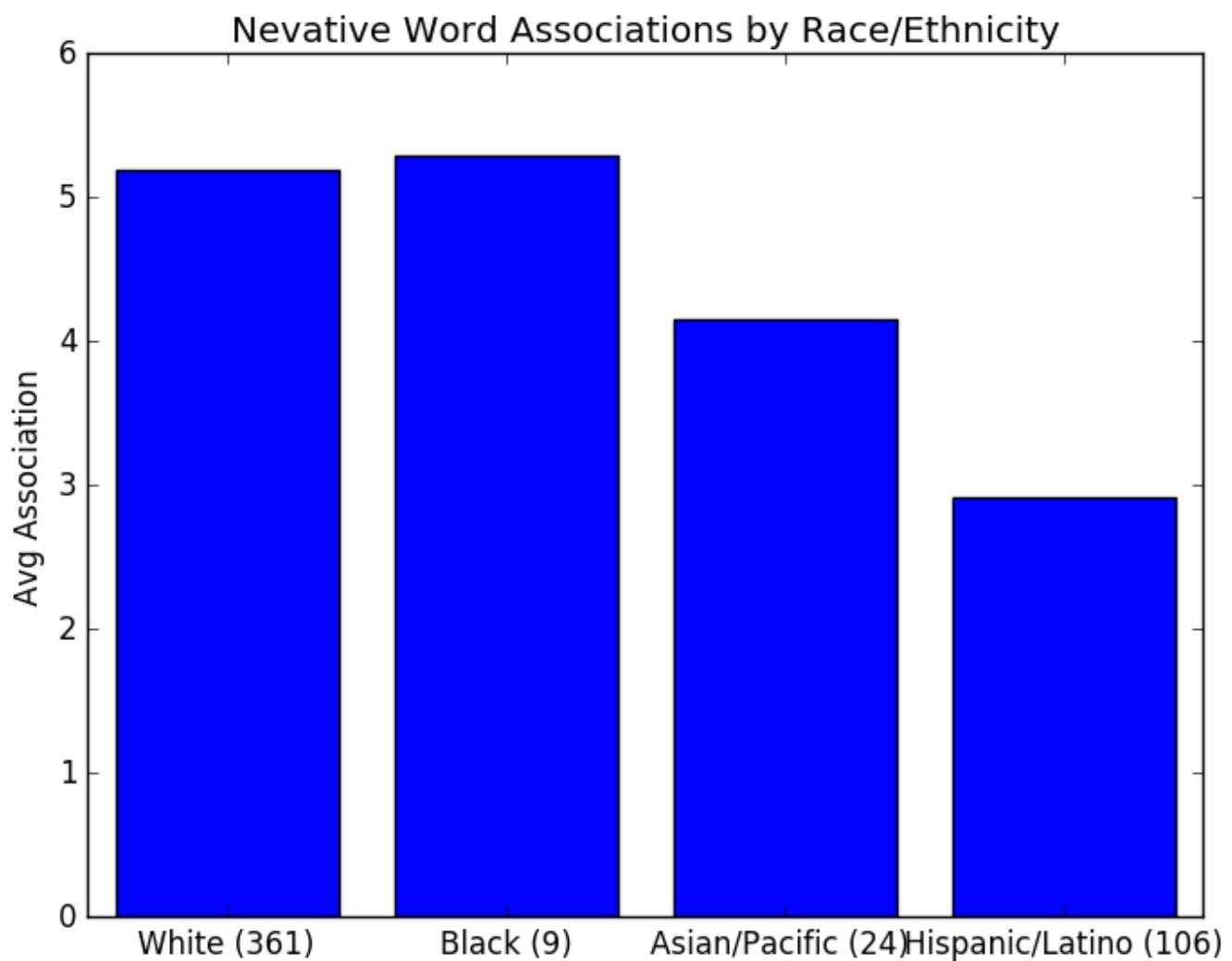


Figure 1: Include some caption that analyzes the graph

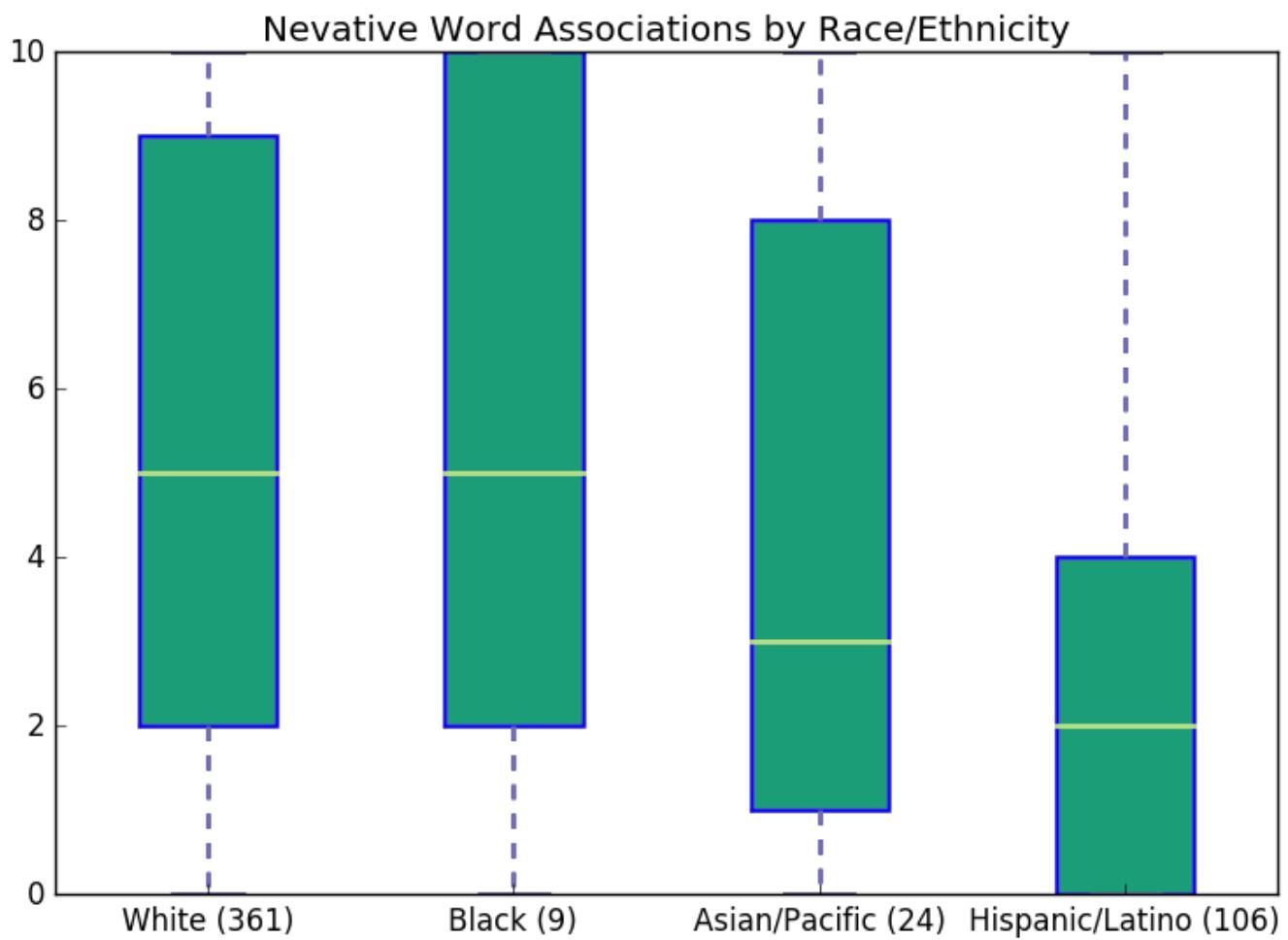


Figure 2: Include some caption that analyzes the box plot

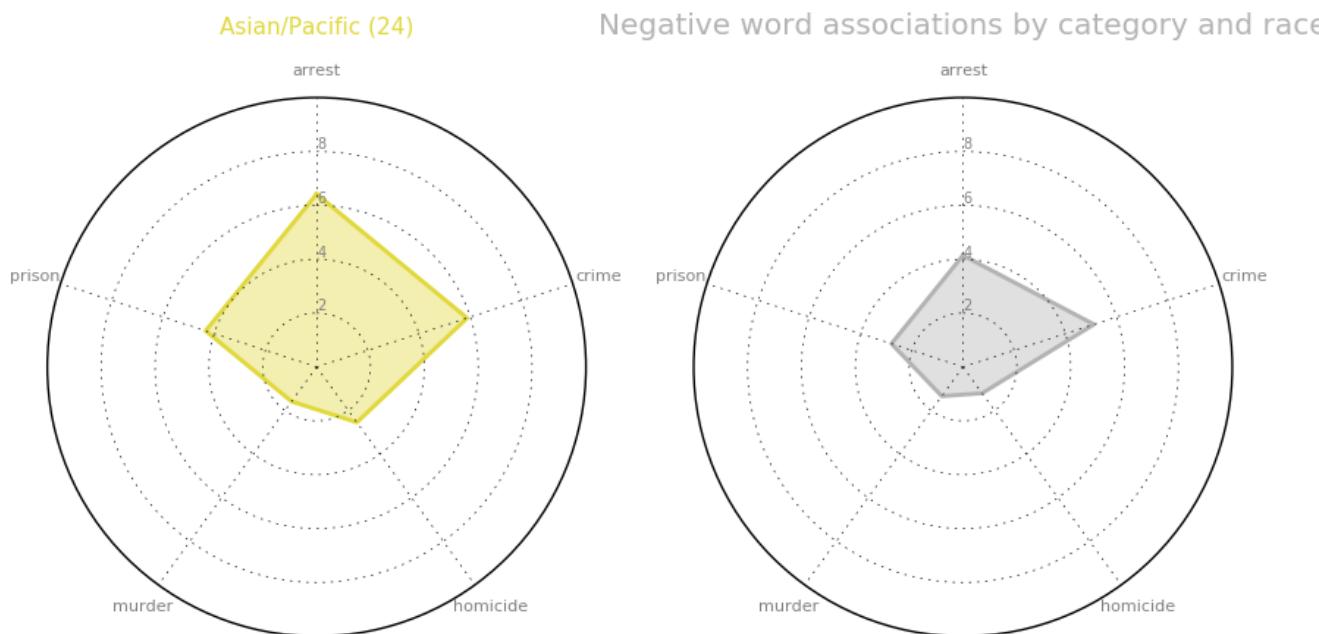


Figure 3: Include some caption that analyzes the charts

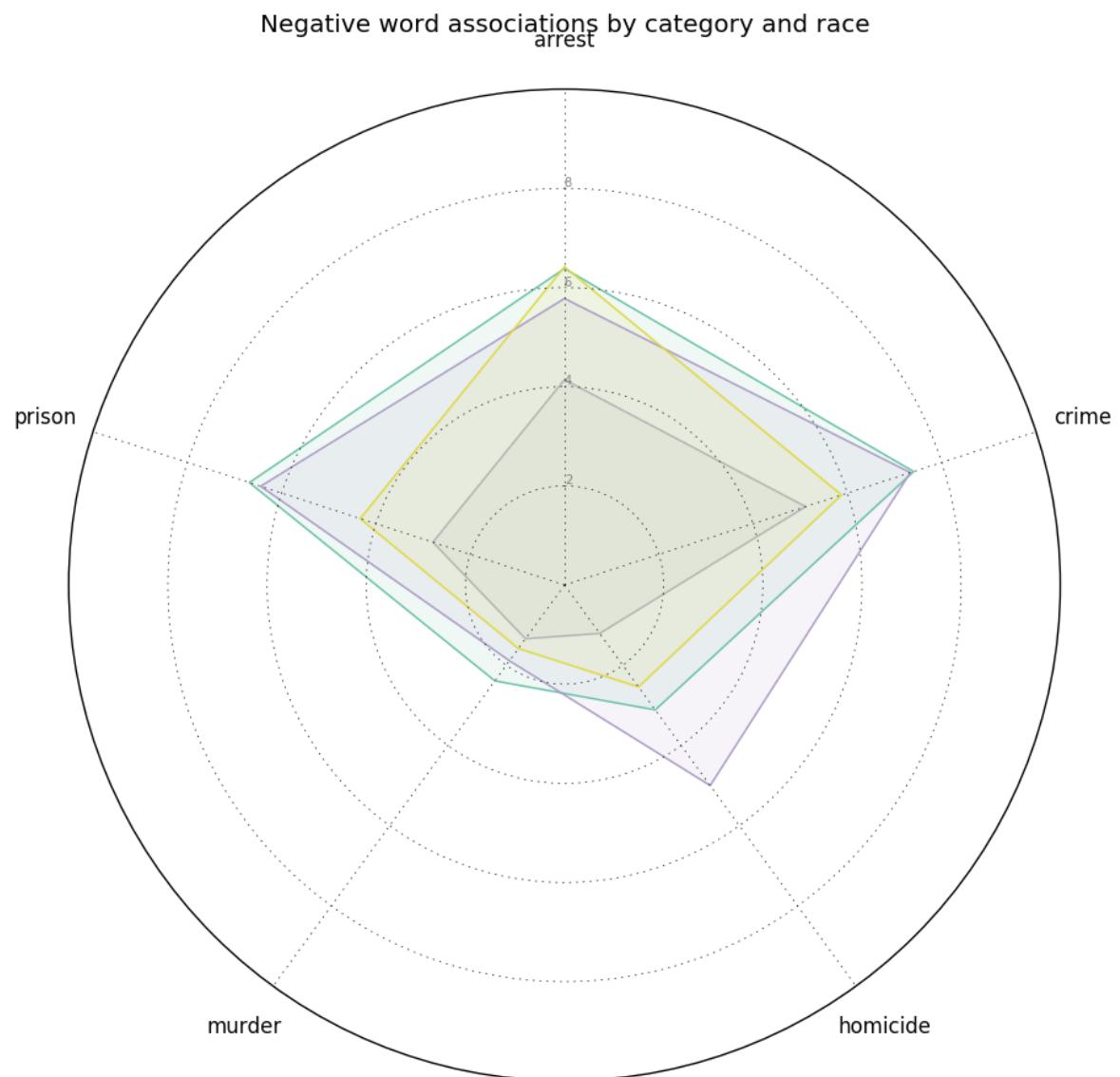


Figure 4: Include some caption that analyzes the chart

```
bibtext report
```

```
=====
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
Warning--empty publisher in Boyd-Crawford2011
Warning--empty address in Boyd-Crawford2011
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in Boyd-Crawford2011
Warning--no number and no volume in Hersher2017
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in Hersher2017
(There were 5 warnings)
```

```
bibtext _ label error
```

```
=====
bibtext space label error
```

```
=====
bibtext comma label error
```

```
=====
latex report
```

```
[2017-12-08 03.59.13] pdflatex report.tex
This is pdfTeX, Version 3.14159265-2.6-1.40.17 (TeX Live 2016) (preloaded format=pdflatex)
bookmark level for unknown defaults to 0.
The anchor of a bookmark and its parent's must not be the same. Added a new anchor.
Typesetting of "report.tex" completed in 1.3s.
./README.yml
81:70    error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
82:70    error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
83:70    error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
84:69    error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
85:68    error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
86:62    error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
87:66    error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
88:68    error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
89:71    error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
90:68    error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
```

```
91:66    error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
92:73    error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
93:71    error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
94:73    error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
95:71    error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
96:74    error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
97:70    error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
98:66    error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
99:73    error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
110:1   error    too many blank lines (1 > 0)  (empty-lines)
```

Compliance Report

```
name: Jones, Gabriel
hid: 104
paper1: Oct 28 17 100%
paper2: Nov 10 17 100%
project: 90%
```

```
yamlcheck
```

```
wordcount
```

```
12
wc 104 project 12 7820 report.tex
wc 104 project 12 7742 report.pdf
wc 104 project 12 465 report.bib
```

```
find "
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find footnote
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find input{format/i523}
```

```
4: \input{format/i523}
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find input{format/final}
```

```
-----  
passed: False
```

```
floats
```

```
-----  
179: \begin{figure}  
180: \includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/fig1.png}  
182: \label{Figure 1}  
185: \begin{figure}  
186: \includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/fig2.png}  
188: \label{Figure 2}  
191: \begin{figure}  
192: \includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/fig3.png}  
194: \label{Figure 3}  
197: \begin{figure}  
198: \includegraphics[width=\columnwidth]{images/fig4.png}  
200: \label{Figure 4}
```

```
figures 4
```

```
tables 0
```

```
includegraphics 4
```

```
labels 4
```

```
refs 0
```

```
floats 4
```

```
True : ref check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
```

```
True : label check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
```

```
True : include graphics passed: (figures >= includegraphics)
```

```
False : check if all figures are refered to: (refs >= labels)
```

```
Label/ref check
```

```
181: \label{Figure 1}
```

```
187: \label{Figure 2}
```

```
193: \label{Figure 3}
```

```
199: \label{Figure 4}
```

```
passed: False -> labels or refs used wrong
```

```
When using figures use columnwidth  
[width=1.0\columnwidth]  
do not change the number to a smaller fraction
```

```
find textwidth
```

```
passed: True
```

```
below_check
```

```
bibtex
```

```
label errors
```

```
bibtex errors
```

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)  
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux  
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst  
Database file #1: report.bib  
Warning--empty publisher in Boyd-Crawford2011  
Warning--empty address in Boyd-Crawford2011  
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in Boyd-Crawford2011  
Warning--no number and no volume in Hersher2017  
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in Hersher2017  
(There were 5 warnings)
```

```
bibtex_empty_fields
```

```
entries in general should not be empty in bibtex
```

```
find ""
```

```
passed: True
```

ascii

=====
The following tests are optional
=====

Tip: newlines can often be replaced just by an empty line

find newline

passed: True
cites should have a space before \cite{} but not before the {

find cite {

passed: True

Big Data in Job Recommendation Systems

Huiyi Chen

Indiana University Bloomington
Bloomington, Indiana 47408
huiyichen@indiana.edu

Yuanming Huang

Indiana University of Bloomington
Bloomington, Indiana 47408
huang226@indiana.edu

ABSTRACT

In recent years, there are more and more recommendation systems merged as time goes on. It brought us a lot of convenience and improved the efficiency of finding resources by the development of technology. However, with the rapid growth of information, people feel hard to find the exact information they need in job searching sometimes. Thus, the birth of Job Recommendation satisfied the demand of finding exact job information as soon as possible and make this process more and more automatically. So, in this project, we will explore the system of Job recommendation to help people improve the efficiency in finding job information. *LATEX*

KEYWORDS

Big Data, Job Recommendation Systems, Collaborative filtering, content-based filtering, Java, HID101, HID230

1 INTRODUCTION

As we browse on the internet nowadays, we realized that many websites push side advertisements that are related to what we have just browsed seconds ago. We were wondering how the internet has gotten so smart, yet it was a trick that many technology companies have made use of to better sort through the data they have about users and to generate profits more efficiently. These companies use data to filter out things that users like to read, which enhance users' browsing experience and therefore, use the website more often. The so-called recommendation system has been more and more popular and is now an integral part of many e-commerce sites such as Netflix, Amazon.com, Google, and etc. While these big commercial companies have been using the recommendation system for so long, we also want to analyze how some job websites can utilize this recommendation system to enhance user experience.

According to Wikipedia's definition, a recommendation system is a subclass of the information filtering system that seeks to forecast and predict the "preference" or "rating" that users would give to an item. In terms of a job recommendation system, it is the criteria of "interesting and useful" and "individualized" that separate the recommendation system from traditional search engine and information retrieval systems. It is more personalized for users that they could easily find the information they need without future clicks and research.

In regards of job recommendation systems, we want the system to recommend related job ads to job seekers based on their click history and basic information that they inserted in into the website such as majors, work history, extracurricular activities, skill sets, and etc. In other words, a job recommendation system has no difference than an automated form of a job search agency that not only it will show you a list of jobs that might fit you based on your information, but it will also utilized the relative jobs that

related users have gotten or interested in who share the similar backgrounds as you do. The system is well trained in up-selling and cross selling, just like an integrated job search agency. The fact that the job recommendation system could recommend personalized content based on past experience and related users' information bring users back to the website and keep using it.

2 IMPORTANCE OF JOB RECOMMENDATION SYSTEMS

With the rapid development and progression of the Internet in the world, people's lifestyle has undergone tremendous changes. In the past, people may need to look for employment information by reading newspapers and reading magazines, but nowadays, people's lifestyles are changed. They are more and more inseparable from the Internet and more and more employment information is directly put online. People start to search for jobs online as a more direct and convenient way. According to data from China Internet Network Information Center, as of 2014, the number of Internet users in China has reached 632 million. As a result, optimizing network information has become an increasingly important demand all around the world. Because of the development of the network, the amount of information increased more rapidly. However, people's ability to choose information can not keep up with the explosive growth of information, which leads to a huge conflict between information growth and information selection ability of people. Consequently, how to make this process more efficient by designing a system is becoming more and more important. On the other hand, the rapid development of the Internet brings us into a new era of big data. On the Internet, there are more and more different types of jobs, different types of requirements, and different types of recruitment processes. Job seekers often spend a lot of time to do research and browse for jobs information. However, they may still need to do something that is not their ideal position. Therefore, how to help job seekers intelligently to find the information they want in a short time has significant meaning at the time.

Besides helping the job seekers, we also need to focus on the company side. With the growing number internet companies, the competition is strong, and the companies need to compete against a big number of competitors. In order to differentiate themselves from others, using big data is a great method. Big data helps the company to load their websites more personalized and intelligent for the users. It gives the users what they want instead of giving everyone the homologous information. The fact that the users can user fewer clicks and less research time to find the information that fit their needs will increase the use and favor for certain websites. With that, internet companies can quickly differentiate themselves and increase profit. On the other hand, since the use of big data and recommendation systems becomes more and more popular, the ignorance of the technology might result in getting behind from the

competitors. As a result, recommendation systems are gaining high popularity, and companies need to learn how to properly utilize them.

3 RECOMMENDATION TECHNIQUES

According to Resnick, P. and Varian, H.'s *Recommender Systems*. Communications of the ACM, they mentioned that recommendation techniques have many possible classifications. It is not about the types of interfaces and the properties of users' interaction with the job recommendation systems, but it is more about the sources of data that the system is based on and also the use to which the data is put. More specifically, a job recommendation system needs to contain (i) background data, the information which the system retains before the job recommendation process starts, (ii) input data, the information which user must communicate to the system in order to generate a recommendation, for example, majors, work history, extracurricular activities, skill sets, and etc, and (iii) an algorithm that combines input and background data to arrive at its suggestions.

3.1 Collaborative Filtering Algorithms

In order to understand how a job recommendation system works, we need to understand different recommendation systems approaches in order to pick the one that fits our needs the most. Collaborative filtering methods are based on a large section of collecting and analyzing information on users' activities, preferences and forecasting what job seekers will like based on similar job seekers who share similar background. One of the important advantages of the collaborative filtering approach is that it does not rely on machine analyzable content and therefore, it is capable of accurately recommending complex items such as a data science job without requiring and "understanding" of the job itself. Many algorithms are used in measuring item similarity and user similarity in recommendation systems.

Collaborative filtering algorithms are based on the assumptions that most of the people who agreed in the past will later agree in the future, and that they will tend to like similar types of items as they liked in the past.

When we are building a model from users' behaviors, we need to make a distinction between implicit and explicit forms of data collection.

Examples of the collection of implicit data could be the following:

- Observing the jobs that users view in the past.
- Analyzing job/user viewing times.
- Keeping a record of the jobs that users apply online.
- Obtaining a list of jobs that users have read to or researched on their computers.
- Analyzing the users' social network and discovering similar likes and dislikes.

Examples of the collection of explicit data could be the following:

- Asking users to rate a job on a number scale.
- Asking users to search.
- Asking users to make a rank of a collection of jobs from favorite to least favorite.

- Presenting two jobs to users and asking them to choose one of the better between the two.
- Asking users to come up with a list of jobs that they like.

The job recommendation system will compare the implicit and explicit data to similar and dissimilar data collected from outside resources and calculates a list of recommended jobs for the users.

Collaborative filtering methods often have these three drawbacks which are cold start, sparsity, and scalability.

- Cold start: These recommendation systems often require a great amount of pre-existing data on users in order to make some accurate recommendations. That means, if the data of one user is not comprehensive enough, there is a great possibility that the recommendation by the system does not align with the user's interest.
- Sparsity: The number of jobs posted on major job search sites is extremely large. The most involved and active users will only rate a small subset of the entire database. With that being said, even the most popular jobs will only have very few ratings.
- Scalability: In many of the system environments in which these recommendation systems make recommendations, there are over millions of users and jobs, which means a large amount of computation power is definitely required and necessary to calculate all of the recommendations for all the users.

Collaborative filtering approaches are classified as model-based and memory-based collaborative filtering. A well-known example of memory-based approaches is user-based algorithm and that of model-based approaches is Kernel-Mapping Recommender.

3.2 Content-based Filtering Algorithms

Another popular approach that data scientists like to use to design job recommendation systems is content-based filtering. Content-based filtering approaches are based on profiles of the users' preferences and a description of the job item. In a content-based recommendation system, keywords are implemented to describe the jobs and users' profiles are built to indicate the types of jobs these users like. To put in a different way, this algorithm tries to recommend jobs that are similar to those that users viewed and liked in the past. In particular, various potential jobs are put together to compare with jobs previously rated by the users and the best-matching jobs are recommended. This particular approach has its origins in information filtering research and information retrieval.

To epitomize the features of the jobs in the recommendation system, an job presentation algorithm would be applied. A widely popular used algorithm is the $tf\cdot tf \cdot idf$ representation.

To create a user profile and save it in the database, the recommendation system mostly wants to focus on two kinds of information:

- (1) A model of the users' preferences.
- (2) A history of the users' interactions with the recommendation system.

Generally, these methods use an job profile characterizing the job within the recommendation system. The system will create content-based profiles of users based on the item features. There might be different weights to every item in terms of users' preference. The weights that are assigned to each of the features depending

on the users' preference can be computed and calculated from individually rated content using a series of techniques. Simple approach uses the average rates of the item vector while other sophisticated approaches use machine learning techniques such as cluster analysis, Bayesian Classifiers, artificial neural networks and decision trees to calculate or estimate the potential probability that the users are going to like the job.

The feedback the system got directly from a user, usually in the form of a like or dislike button, can be used to allocate lower or higher weights on the importance of specific attributes.

An significant drawback with content-based filtering is that whether the recommendation system is actually capable to learn user preferences from users' historical actions regarding content sources and use the sources across all the other content types. When the recommendation system is limited to recommending jobs of the same types that the user is currently using, the retrieved value from the system is significantly less than that when another content type from other retrieving services could be recommended. For instance, recommending current news articles based on historical browsing of news is definitely useful, but it would be more useful when products, music, videos, discussions and etc. from different retrieving services could be recommended based on the news browsing.

A great example of content-based filtering approach being used in the real world is Pandora Radio. It plays music based on the user's initial feed to the recommendation system and deliver recommended music with similar characteristics. Besides that, most of the movie, music, and book recommendation systems are based on content-based filtering algorithm since this particular one works the best for personalization based on historical data.

3.3 Hybrid Recommendation Systems

Recent researches have demonstrated that hybrid approaches, combining both content-based filtering and collaborative filtering could be much more effective in many cases. Hybrid approaches could be implemented in the following ways: by adding collaborative-based approach to a content-based capabilities , or vice versa; by collaborative-based making and content-based predictions separately and later combining them; or by unifying both approaches into one integrated model. Recent studies empirically compare the performance of the hybrid recommendation systems with the pure collaborative and content-based methods and thus demonstrate that the hybrid approaches can provide much more accurate recommendations than the pure approaches. These approaches can also be used to overcome many of the common problems that happen in pure approach recommendation systems such as sparsity and the scalability problem.

One of the examples of the use of hybrid recommendation systems is Netflix. Although many movie and music recommendation systems use pure content-based approaches, Netflix chooses the strong hybrid approach that makes recommendations by using collaborative filtering, comparing the searching and watching behaviors of similar users as well as by content-based filtering, offering shows and movies which share similar characteristics with content that users have highly rated.

A variety numbers of techniques have been proposed as the fundamentals for recommendation systems: content-based, collaborative, demographic and knowledge-based techniques. Every single one of these techniques has some sort of drawbacks, such as the well-known scalability problem for collaborative approach and biased rating system for content-based systems. A hybrid recommendation system is one that integrates multiple techniques together in order to achieve some synergy between all of the approaches, minimizing the influences of those drawback from a specific method.

- Content-based: The system generates recommendations from particularly two sources: the ratings that a user has given them and the features associated with products. Content-based recommendation system treats recommendations as user-specific classification problems and learns a classifier for the users' likes and dislikes based on item features, which in our case, the job features.
- Collaborative: The system provides recommendations using exclusively information about the rating profiles from different users or jobs. Collaborative system locates similar users / jobs with rating histories similar to the incumbent user or job and generate recommendations using the neighborhood. The users based and the items based nearest neighbor algorithms can be integrated to deal with the cold start problem and thus, improve recommendation results.
- Knowledge-based: A knowledge-based recommendation system suggests jobs based on inferences about users' preferences and needs. This knowledge will contain explicit functional information about how certain job features would meet user needs.
- Demographic: A demographic recommendation system generates recommendations based on a demographic profile of the users. Recommended jobs can be retrieved for different demographic niches, combining the ratings of users in those niches.

The term hybrid recommendation system is used to describe any recommendation system that would combine multiple recommendation techniques as above together to produce the output. We can also combine several different techniques of the same type, for instance, two different content-based recommendation systems could function together, and many of the projects have investigated the type of hybrid: NewsDude, which has both kNN classifiers and naive Bayes in its news recommendations, is a good example.

There are seven hybridization techniques that are popular:

- Weighted techniques: The scores of different recommendation elements are combined numerically.
- Switching techniques: The recommendation system chooses among all the recommendation components and applies only the selected one.
- Mixed techniques: Recommendations from different recommendation systems are presented all together.
- Feature Combination techniques: Features that are derived from different knowledge resources are combined all together and delivered to a sole recommendation algorithm.
- Feature Augmentation techniques: Only one recommendation technique is used to calculate a set of features or a

feature, which is part of the input to the following technique.

- Cascade techniques: Recommendation systems are given strict pre-existed priority, with the lower priority ones breaking ties in the scoring of the higher ones.
- Meta-level techniques: Only one recommendation technique is applied at a time and produces a draft model, which is later the input that is used by the next technique.

4 HOW TO IMPLEMENT RECOMMENDATION SYSTEM

Recent researches has shown that there are increasing demands of Information Systems technologies for human resource management in the recruiting process in particular.

- (1) User Information Acquisition and Modeling: Because users have different interests and different industry preferences, we need to deal with the log files, find out users' explicit and implicit requirements, and then analyze and build the user mold.
- (2) Model Design and Implementation: At this stage, the main contents include the combination of feature variables, similarity calculation, positive and negative samples of mobile phones and internet devices, weight value calculation and knowledge classification logistic regression.
- (3) System Design and Implementation: The user model and big data platform combine to meet the needs of the company's job recommendation system.
- (4) System Verification and Comparison: The group calculates the conversion rate off-line, determines the characteristic variable combination and the similar algorithm of the recommended model and uses the filtering recommendation algorithms to compare and verify to get the optimal combination recommendation system.
- (5) The Application and Research of the System: It is necessary to establish the application framework of the recommendation system in other application fields to study how to integrate with other business systems of the enterprise and to realize the diversification of the recommendation system.

In order for the system to work, we need to utilize Hadoop as the platform for the recommendation system to be running on.

4.1 Based on Hadoop

The realization of our project is based on the Hadoop platform, so here we need to do a detailed study of Hadoop about the source and role of this platform. Hadoop is an open source framework for writing and running distributed applications for large-scale data, designed for offline and large-scale data analysis. It is not suitable for online transactions that randomly read and write to several records Processing mode. Just like HDFS (file system, data storage technology related) + Mapreduce (data processing), Hadoop data sources can be any kind of form and have better performance in dealing with semi-structured and unstructured data than relational databases , With more flexible processing power, no matter what form of data will eventually be converted to key / value. Key / value is the basic data unit. MapReduce can be used to replace SQL, the

standard query language, and MapReduce uses scripts and code, while Hadoop, which is used to relational databases and custom SQL, has an open source hive instead. Thus, we can understand that Hadoop is a distributed computing solution.

Hadoop features: Hadoop good log analysis, facebook to use Hive for log analysis, in 2009 Facebook had non-programmers, 30 percent of people use HiveQL for data analysis; China's Taobao search custom filtering is also used Hive; With Pig you can also do advanced data processing, including Twitter, LinkedIn to discover people you may know, and he can also implement recommendations similar to Amazon.com's collaborative filtering. And China's Taobao's product recommendation is such a process. At Yahoo, 40 percent of Hadoop jobs are run on pigs, including spam identification and filtering, and user feature modeling.

(1) Data integration

Data consolidation is called "enterprise data center" or "data lake." When users have different data sources, want to analyze their data. Such projects include getting data sources (real-time or batch) from all sources and storing them in hadoop. Sometimes this is the first step to becoming a "data-driven company"; sometimes you may only need a beautiful report. Enterprise Data Centers typically consist of HDFS file systems and tables in HIVE or IMPALA. In the future, HBase and Phoenix should have bigger development in big data integration and create a new situation to create a brand new world of beautiful data.

Often, salespeople love to say "read patterns," but in fact, to be successful, you have to know exactly what your own use cases will look like (Hive patterns do not look like you did in your enterprise data warehouse). The real reason is that a data lake has more horizontal scalability and much lower costs than Teradata and Netezza. Many people use Tableu and Excel when doing front-end analysis. Many sophisticated companies use "data scientists" as front ends with Zeppelin or IPython notebooks.

(2) professional analysis

Many data integration projects actually start with the analysis of specific needs and a data set system. These are often incredibly specific areas such as liquidity risk / Monte Carlo simulation in the banking sector. In the past, this professional analysis has relied on outdated, proprietary software packages, which often suffer from a limited feature set due to the inability to scale the data (largely because software vendors can not understand as much as professional organizations do).

In the world of Hadoop and Spark, take a look at these roughly the same data consolidation systems, but often have more, if not unique, HBase, custom non-SQL code, and fewer sources of data. More and more based on Spark.

(3) Hadoop as a service

Any large organization in a "professional analytics" project will inevitably start to feel "happy" (ie, ache) managing several differently configured Hadoop clusters, sometimes from different vendors. Next, they will say, "Maybe we should integrate these resource pools," rather than leaving most of the nodes idle most of the time. They should

make up cloud computing, but many companies often can not or do not because of security reasons. This usually means a lot of Docker container packages.

(4) Flow analysis

In general, flow analysis is a real-time version of an organization's batching. With anti-money laundering and fraud detection: why not on a transactional basis, take hold of it and not end it in a cycle? The same inventory management or anything else.

In some cases, this is a new type of trading system that analyzes the bits of a data bit because you are parallelizing it into an analysis system. These systems prove themselves as popular data stores such as Spark or Storm and Hbase. But flow analysis does not replace all forms of analysis, and for things you have never considered, people often want to analyze historical trends or look at past data.

(5) Complex event handling

Here we are talking about sub-second real-time event processing. While there is not yet fast enough for ultra-low latency (picosecond or nanosecond) applications like high-end trading systems, millisecond response times can be expected. Examples include real-time evaluation of call data records processed by internet telecommunication carriers for a thing or event. Sometimes you see that such systems use Spark and HBase, but in the end it usually has to be converted to Storm based on the interference mode developed by LMAX Exchange.

In the past, such systems have been based on custom messages or high performance from shelves, client-server messaging products - but today's data is overloaded. I have not used it yet, but the Apex project looks promising, claiming to be faster than Storm.

(6) ETL flow

Sometimes when we want to capture the stream data and store them up. These items usually coincide with No. 1 or No. 2, but add to their scope and characteristics. These are almost Kafka and Storm projects. Spark is also used, but there is no reason, because no memory analysis is required.

(7) Change or add SAS

We do not need to buy storage for your data scientists and analysts and you can "play" the data. In addition, you can do a few different things besides SAS can do or produce beautiful graphical analysis. This is your "data lake." Here is the IPython notebook (now) and Zeppelin (later). We use SAS to store the results.

These are all normal when I see other different types of Hadoop, Spark, or Storm projects every day. If you use Hadoop, you probably know about them. Some years ago I had implemented some of these projects, using other technologies. Although more and more things change, but the essence remains unchanged. We will find a lot of similarities, things you used to deploy and trendy technology are around the Hadoop Sphere rotation.

5 MAP AND REDUCE

Suppose the user wants to count a huge text file stored on a similar HDFS, want to know the frequency of occurrence of each word in this text. So start a MapReduce program. In the Map stage, hundreds of machines read all parts of this file at the same time and separately counted the frequencies of the parts they read separately, resulting in pairs like (hello, 1100), (world, 1214) These hundreds of machines each produced the same set, and then hundreds of other machines started Reduce processing. Reducer Machine A will receive all statistical results starting with Mapper Machine A, and Machine B will receive the vocabulary statistics beginning with B (but in fact it does not begin with a letter, but uses the function to generate a Hash value to avoid data Stringing. Since words beginning with X are certainly far fewer than the others, and we expect the workload of the data processing machines to differ too much). These reducers will then summarize again, (hello, 1100) + (hello, 1311) + (hello, 35881) = (hello, 38291). Each Reducer will do this, and eventually we get the word frequency result for the entire document.

This is a seemingly simple model, but many algorithms can be described using this model. The simple model of Map + Reduce, though easy to use, is also very cumbersome. The second generation of Tez and Spark In addition to new features such as memory caching, essentially the Map / Reduce model is more generic, blurring the boundaries between Map and Reduce, making data exchange more flexible and with less disk reads Write in order to more complex description of complex algorithms to achieve higher throughput.

With MapReduce, Tez, and Spark, programmers find it really troublesome to write MapReduce programs. So we want to simplify this process. We would like to have a higher level and more abstract language layer to describe the algorithm and data processing flow. So there is Pig and Hive. Pig is close to the script to describe MapReduce, Hive is using SQL. They translate scripts and SQL into MapReduce programs and throw them into computational engines for computation, and we're freed from cumbersome MapReduce programs and written in simpler and more intuitive languages.

With Hive, people found that SQL has a huge advantage over Java. One is that it is too easy to write. Just word frequency things, described in SQL on only one or two lines, MapReduce write about dozens of hundreds of rows. More importantly, users with non-computer backgrounds write SQL, so data analysts are finally freed from the dilemma of begging engineers and engineers are freed from the weird one-off handlers. This result makes the whole process more efficient. Hive has evolved into a big data warehouse core components. Even many company pipeline assembly is entirely SQL described, because easy to write and easy to maintain.

Since data analysts began to analyze data with Hive, they found that Hive was running too slow on MapReduce. But data analysis, people always want to run faster. For a huge site of massive data, this process may take dozens of minutes or even hours. And this analysis may be only a small part of the need to analyze how many people browse the electronic products, analysis of how many people read the Rachmaninoff CD, and so on, and then come to our proportion of the type of user. Due to the high demand for speed, the new Impala, Presto, Drill was born (and of course innumerable

non-famous interactive SQL engines). The core idea of fiQufiQuthe three systems is that the MapReduce engine is too slow because it is too generic, too strong, too conservative, and we SQL needs a lighter and faster access to resources, more specialized SQL optimization, and less Fault Tolerant Assurance (because of a system error, we can restart the task, if the entire processing time is shorter, such as a few minutes). These systems allow users to more quickly handle SQL tasks, sacrificing features such as general stability.

But in fact these systems, has not reached the desired level of popularity. Because at this time two new ones were made. They are Hive on Tez / Spark and SparkSQL. Their design philosophy is because MapReduce is slow, but if I run SQL with a new generation of general purpose computing engines like Tez or Spark, then I can run faster. And users do not need to maintain two systems. The above introduction, the basic structure is a data warehouse. The underlying HDFS runs above MapReduce / Tez / Spark and runs Hive, Pig on it. Or run Impala, Drill, Presto directly on HDFS. This solves the low-speed data processing requirements.

6 DESIGN SYSTEM MODEL

As a kind of data mining, recommendation system is one of the more special data mining systems. He embodies the system and user interaction and real-time. Recommend interest-based objects to users based on their hobbies or browsing behaviors, and further correct and optimize the recommendation results based on the feedback results of user interaction. In this professional recommendation system, there are mainly three parts, data collection, offline data processing and real-time online recommendation.

6.1 Data Collection

In the process of data collection. Because there are many ways for users to provide their preference information to the system, they can be divided into two kinds of explicit and implicit information. This information forms the basis of user behavior analysis. In this project, the main sources and channels of data are information about job-seekers registering, browsing jobs, and web-logging for job postings. User behavior categories: registration, browsing, residence time, job application. Their respective types of information are: explicit, implicit, implicit, implicit. The following is an explanation of the characteristics and actions of the four user behaviors.

Registration: job seekers registered behavior, including the basic characteristics of job seekers, registration information we can get job preferences, Through job seekers' preferences, we can get more precise career preferences.

Browse: job seekers on the job browsing information, through the frequency of the frequency of statistics, job seekers get the preference. This process can to some extent reflect their concern about job postings and the likelihood that they will be interested in positions. Thereby enhancing the accuracy of the analysis

Dwell time: The user's dwell time information analysis, you can know whether the user is interested in the content of the visit and the degree of concern, so as to get their preference information. The longer you stay on a page, the more likely they are to be interested in the content of the page, as well as the level of attention. However, there are occasional noise data that is difficult to use based on this standard.

Job Application: Boolean preferences, the value is 0 and 1. This information can be used to determine whether the user is interested in this position.

6.2 Offline Data Processing

Generally, the historical data of job seekers will be very large. Therefore, if the system wants to analyze massive data online and recommend it in real time, it is unrealistic. Therefore, if offline processing of data can make the data processing more Efficient and easy to implement. When we have collected enough user behavior data, we can pre-process the data off-line, such as noise reduction, and then analyze the user's behavior log and train user profiles through recommendation strategies. Finally, offline calculation of the user's character data and get the initial recommendation seen, the next step, the recommended results provided to the online implementation of the recommended use.

6.3 Online Real-Time Recommendation

The online real-time recommendation is to analyze the user's real-time behavior in a very short period of time and give the recommended result. Therefore, the online recommendation system and offline processing are two different processes and concepts. The online real-time recommendation can not process the user's historical behavior log and can not handle too complicated data. The online real-time recommendation usually deals with simple data, for example, querying the basic information of job seekers, job seekers applying. And then combine the result of the analysis with the user characteristic data that has been processed offline to get the final recommendation result to the job seekers through the multi-dimensional analysis of filtering, screening and recommendation ranking.

7 TECHNICAL MODEL

In order to build a job recommendation system, we need to implement a technical model. There are several things that we need to pay attention to when building the model.

7.1 Similarity retrieval technology

Content similarity retrieval technology refers to comparing the text feature information in a resource with the text feature value of a user's interest, comparing the user's historical preference information with the content feature of a resource, and calculating the similarity , Filtered out to meet the user's search expectations. An example of content similarity retrieval technology. First, you need to model the content and attributes of your position, for example, by industry, function, job type, and place of employment. And then through the characteristics of each position data to find the similarity between positions. If the professions, functions, types of jobs and workplaces are the same, we can think of these two posts as similar.

7.2 Demographic Collaborative Recommendation Technology

Demographic information can be viewed as a kind of user knowledge information that can be used to determine similar equivalence across networks, so that demographic information can be

considered as a synergistic approach. Collaborative demographic recommendation process: First, establish a data model for job seekers. Then according to job seekers model to calculate the similarity between job seekers. Find job seekers with the highest degree of similarity. Finally, recommend jobs to current job candidates based on their preferences. As a result, demographic data can initiate a referral system even when job seekers do not have a feedback evaluation of the position.

7.3 Collaborative Filtering Recommendation Techniques

Collaborative Filtering Recommendation Techniques is a technique that is widely used to predict user interest preferences. Its basic principle is based on the user's preference for the object, found the relevance of the object or user, and then recommend based on these correlations. The recommendation of collaborative filtering consists of three components: they are, Item-based recommendation, user-based recommendation and model-based recommendation. In this project, we mainly study this work recommendation system based on the idea of collaborative recommendation. That is to say, we need to train the recommendation model based on the sample data of job seekers' preferences and then make predictions based on the real-time information of job seekers Calculate recommended.

7.4 Big data processing technology

In this professional recommendation system, we assume that the big data processing framework that we need to use is the log acquisition system Flume, the big data platform Hadoop, the streaming computing framework Storm, and the message cache system Kafka.

Below we will introduce these different frameworks to understand the function and features of them.

7.4.1 Flume. Flume is a distributed, reliable, and highly available mass log collection, aggregation and delivery system. In this project, we anticipate that all the real-time input data needed will be realized through this technology platform. An Agent is the basic component of a Flume stream. An Agent contains Source, Channel, Sinks, and other components that use these components to pass an Event from one node to the next or for the final purpose. The data is finally encapsulated into an Event for transmission. The Source is used to accept an external source. For example, the Apache server delivers an Event to the source. The channel is used to temporarily store the Event. Sink then outputs the data. Other components can add pretreatment and classification capabilities.

7.4.2 Hadoop. At present, the large number of user data are obtained based on the site log records, job site for very large number of users, a simple single machine is difficult to complete offline data processing, so this project will be presumably we have introduced a distributed Framework to deal with, Hadoop is one of the most popular distributed framework today, which includes the distributed file system HDFS and distributed computing framework MapReduce and so on.

7.4.3 Storm. Storm is Twitter's open source distributed real-time computing flow data processing system, the calculation model is Topology as a unit, and a Topology is a series of Spout and Bolt formed by the graphic structure. Events Stream will flow between

Spout and Bolt, Spout will generate Event, and Bolt will logically process the received Event and get the result of the calculation.

7.4.4 Kafka. Kafka is a high-throughput, distributed messaging subscription system that is organized as a topic and can be used as an active data and offline processing system for real-time processing of caches between systems for offline and online data users Provide data pipes to handle activity data from different sources.

7.5 Mixed Recommendation Mechanism

In the popular web site, generally in order to achieve a better recommendation, we tend to mix a variety of recommended methods, rather than simply using a particular recommendation mechanism. This mechanism for mixing multiple recommended methods and strategies is called, Hybrid Recommendation Mechanism.

8 OVERALL GOAL OF THIS SYSTEM

In today's social conditions, job seekers want to find a suitable job is not easy. therefore. We need a home-based recommendation system for personal job seekers' information intelligence that uses big data mining and analytics technologies to change the traditional hiring process. With these ideas, we know that applying personalized recommendation techniques to job hunting, Work becomes easier, more efficient and smarter. In order to complete this system, we need to accomplish the following goals:

- (1) The recommendation system needs to intelligently collect explicit user needs and invisible user expectations information based on the confidentiality of user privacy information, and provide an effective data foundation for offline data processing and online real-time recommendation.
- (2) The recommended system should be able to handle a large amount of behavioral log data without affecting its normal use. Learning offline interests and training feature models through big data technology to provide data support for online real-time recommendation.
- (3) Recommended system must be based on user behavior online, rapid response to analyze user needs, in a timely manner to the user to make the list of their interest.

9 RECOMMENDATION SYSTEM FUNCTION DESCRIPTION

In this project, the user's occupation model, user interest in job hunting, job similarity, collection of positive and negative samples, machine learning and other algorithms related to the calculation of the model are based on the offline data processing module. However, its research is done under massive log file processing. Therefore, the system's offline data processing module is deployed on the Hadoop platform. As mentioned by the big data processing technology can know, Hadoop is one of the most popular distributed framework, including the distributed computing framework MapReduce and distributed file system HDFS.

Offline data processing results is to achieve career recommendation system online real-time recommended services important data support. The module externally requests the data from the data collection module by reading the request and reading the data

from the data collection module. The internal data processing request is executed through the general control interface. Various implementation algorithm models are run on the Hadoop platform and offline by MapReduce and HDFS. , The final results will be stored in the HBase database. Offline data processing module is mainly composed of the Hadoop platform running algorithms and algorithms to achieve the algorithm model, and the algorithm code, and by a calculation of the total control interface implementation of the call.

The essence of running algorithm is distributed framework Hadoop platform, which is mainly composed of MapReduce distributed computing framework and distributed file system HDFS. Job log files of job seekers are stored on HDFS, the log file data is cleaned by Pig Latin, formatted and stored in data warehouse Hive, and then processed by Hadoop Streaming stream or Hadoop Java API to calculate the job similarity, the job seeker's interest, etc. Series of MapReduce programs, model results processed offline will eventually be stored in the HBase database to provide data support for real-time analysis.

The implementation algorithm mainly includes the realization of the user-job model and the realization of the weighting coefficient. In this project, it takes a large amount of computation and time-consuming tasks to be completed offline. One of the most prominent features that need to be done off-line, such as user-job model calculation and machine learning, is that computing requires the user's historical behavior log, so implementing this aspect requires a computing platform that runs algorithms.

10 PERFORMANCE MEASURES

After the implementation of the job recommendation system, evaluation is always necessary and important in evaluating and assessing the effectiveness of the recommendation algorithms that we implemented. The most commonly used evaluation metrics are the root mean squared error and mean squared error, the former having been used in the Netflix Prize, one of the key events that energized research in recommendation systems. Such information retrieval metrics as recall and precision or DCG are very useful to assess the quality of recommendation approaches. Recently, diversity, novelty, and coverage are also considered as important aspects in evaluation. However, many of the classic evaluation measures are highly criticized. Results of so-called offline evaluations often do not correlate with actually assessed user-satisfaction. T

11 CONCLUSIONS

In this paper we wrote, we used a comprehensive literature analysis of many fundamental elements, problems faced, and technical model related to the job recommendation systems. We also analyzed other popular recommendation systems that are widely used nowadays, and tried to implement the advantages of those systems into the job recommendation system. The job recommendation system technologies will accomplish significant success in broad ranges of applications and will be potentially a powerful searching and recommending techniques. Consequently, there is a great opportunity for applying these technologies in recruitment environment to improve the matching quality. This paper analyzed the e-recruiting process and the different aspects related to applying

the recommendation systems in candidates/job matching problem. Additionally, in order to give a clear understanding for job recommendation problem, a case study of applying three measures for matching candidates with job position was presented. Finally, we plan as a continuation of this work to present a survey of job recommendation approaches that have been proposed to produce the best fit between jobs and candidates. We will introduce state of the art of job recommendation as well as, a comparative study for its approaches.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors would like to thank Dr. Gregor von Laszewski for his support to write this paper as well as TAs' helpful suggestions on this paper.

REFERENCES

```
bibtext report
```

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
I found no \citation commands---while reading file report.aux
Database file #1: report.bib
(There was 1 error message)
make[2]: *** [bibtex] Error 2
```

```
latex report
```

```
[2017-12-08 03.59.06] pdflatex report.tex
This is pdfTeX, Version 3.14159265-2.6-1.40.17 (TeX Live 2016) (preloaded format=pdflatex)
Missing character: ""
Empty 'thebibliography' environment.
Typesetting of "report.tex" completed in 0.8s.
./README.yml
17:14      warning  truthy value is not quoted  (truthy)
```

```
Compliance Report
```

```
name: Huiyi Chen
hid: 101
paper1: Oct 27th 100%
paper2: not yet started
project: Dec 04 17 0%
```

```
yamlcheck
```

wordcount

5

```
wc 101 project 5 7411 report.tex  
wc 101 project 5 6985 report.pdf  
wc 101 project 5 201 report.bib
```

find "

58: \par According to Wikipedia's definition, a recommendation system is a subclass of the information filtering system that seeks to forecast and predict the "preference" or "rating" that users would give to an item. In terms of a job recommendation system, it is the criteria of "interesting and useful" and "individualized" that separate the recommendation system from traditional search engine and information retrieval systems. It is more personalized for users that they could easily find the information they need without future clicks and research.

75: In order to understand how a job recommendation system work, we need to understand different recommendation systems approaches in order to pick the one that fit our need the most. Collaborative filtering methods are based on a large section of collecting and analyzing information on users' activities, preferences and forecasting what job seekers will like based on similar job seekers who share similar background. One of an important advantages of the collaborative filtering approach is that it does not rely on machine analyzable content and therefore, it is capable of accurately recommending complex items such as a data science job without requiring and "understanding" of the job itself. Many algorithms are used in measuring item similarity and user similarity in recommendation systems.

185: \par Data consolidation is called "enterprise data center" or "data lake." When users have different data sources, want to analyze their data. Such projects include getting data sources (real-time or batch) from all sources and storing them in hadoop. Sometimes this is the first step to becoming a "data-driven company"; sometimes you may only need a beautiful report. Enterprise Data Centers typically consist of HDFS file systems and tables in HIVE or IMPALA. In the future, HBase and Phoenix should have bigger development in big data integration and create a new situation to create a brand new world of beautiful data.

186: \par Often, salespeople love to say "read patterns," but in fact, to be successful, you have to know exactly what your own use cases will look like (Hive patterns do not look like you did in your enterprise data warehouse). The real reason is that a data lake has more horizontal scalability and much lower costs than Teradata and Netezza. Many people use Tableau and Excel when doing front-end analysis. Many sophisticated companies use "data scientists" as front ends with Zeppelin or IPython notebooks.

194: \par Any large organization in a "professional analytics" project will inevitably start to feel "happy" (ie, ache) managing several differently configured Hadoop clusters, sometimes from different vendors. Next, they will say, "Maybe we should integrate these resource pools," rather than leaving most of the nodes idle most of the time. They should make up cloud computing, but many companies often can not or do not because of security reasons. This usually means a lot of Docker container packages.

208: \par We do not need to buy storage for your data scientists and analysts and you can "play" the data. In addition, you can do a few different things besides SAS can do or produce beautiful graphical analysis. This is your "data lake." Here is the IPython notebook (now) and Zeppelin (later). We use SAS to store the results.

passed: False

find footnote

12: \renewcommand\footnotetextcopyrightpermission[1]{} % removes footnote with conference information in first column

passed: False

find input{format/i523}

passed: False

find input{format/final}

passed: False

floats

```
figures 0
tables 0
includegraphics 0
labels 0
refs 0
floats 0
```

```
True : ref check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
True : label check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
True : include graphics passed: (figures >= includegraphics)
True : check if all figures are refered to: (refs >= labels)
```

Label/ref check
passed: True

When using figures use columnwidth
[width=1.0\columnwidth]
do not change the number to a smaller fraction

find textwidth

passed: True

below_check

bibtex

label errors

17: las_gergor00: do not use underscore in labels:

bibtex errors

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
```

```
I found no \citation commands---while reading file report.aux
Database file #1: report.bib
(There was 1 error message)
```

```
bibtex_empty_fields
```

```
entries in general should not be empty in bibtex
```

```
find ""
```

```
passed: True
```

```
ascii
```

```
non ascii found 8216
non ascii found 8217
non ascii found 8217
non ascii found 8211
non ascii found 8203
non ascii found 8203
```

```
=====
The following tests are optional
=====
```

```
Tip: newlines can often be replaced just by an empty line
```

```
find newline
```

```
passed: True
```

```
cites should have a space before \cite{} but not before the {
```

```
find cite {
```

```
passed: True
```

Nosql Database In Support Of Big Data Applications And Analytics

Juan Ni

Bloomington, Indiana 47401

nijuan@iu.edu

ABSTRACT

SQL database is the most usual database we use, the constitution of sql style database is easy for us to do data storage and search. According to the Artur's testing [1], he using many differences sql and nosql database to testing the insert performance for large amount of data(one million rows of randomized string) in the same time, and nosql databases always has best performance when insert large data. So when we need to deal with big data, SQL database is no longer handy for big data application. Even nosql database doesn't fit into every situation, but the mass data produce ability allow nosql database support most of big data applications and analytic.

KEYWORDS

523, HID 107, paper2, big data, database, SQL, NoSQL

1 INTRODUCTION

SQL and NosQL database have same goal which is to storage data, but they have different strategy about storage data by difference storage mode. As we know, SQL database using tables to storage data, the primary key and foreign key allow user making connection between several different tables. Table type storage mode is well organize, but it is less flexibly for some situation. For example we have a table which content two columns "Item" and "price", and one item's price still negotiate with the retail, so we want to put "Processing" at the price area; but the price area already set up only allow user import number data, so user can't make any flexible change to import data into table for meet the business need. Unlike SQL database only have one type of storage model, nosql database have four differences storage model based on the data categories, they are "Column, Document, Key value, and Graph" [10]. For example, nosql using key value which similar to JSON to storage data, user can import any type of data inside the file, and the same type of file will storage as a collection. According to the nosql storage definition, the main differences of storage model between sql and nosql database is "Compared to relational databases, for example, collections could be considered analogous to tables and documents analogous to records. But they are different: every record in a table has the same sequence of fields, while documents in a collection may have fields that are completely different." [10]. Nosql supporting variable types of data storage, this advantage make nosql more suitable for big data application. The following section will discuss why nosql database have better performance for big data applications than traditional sql database, the advantage and drawback of nosql database.

2 MYSQL DATABASE VS NOSQL DATABASE

The above examples show that nosql database is much better than SQL database, but nosql database still has shortage at some domain compare with sql database. For example, the formatting of the table in SQL database has really strict data schema constraint, user only can import data by following the rule that already set up in the table, and this make sql database steady and rarely have error at data storage. The flexibility of nosql data storage might cause error happen according to jepsen's idea, "In this post, we'll see that Mongo's consistency model is broken by design: not only can "strictly consistent" reads see stale versions of documents, but they can also return garbage data from writes that never should have occurred. The former is (as far as I know) a new result which runs contrary to all of Mongo's consistency documentation. The latter has been a documented issue in Mongo for some time. We'll also touch on a result from the previous Jepsen post: almost all write concern levels allow data loss." [4]. Even the reliability of nosql is not good enough as sql, but nosql still better for big data application because of its cost-performance, Scalability, and CAP(Consistency-Availability-Partition Tolerance).

Cost-performance is important when dealing with big data because the storage cost can be huge if using sql database to storage large amount of data. Dezyre mention that "RDBMS requires a higher degree of Normalization i.e. data needs to be broken down into several small logical tables to avoid data redundancy and duplication" [3], even normalization can make database become well organized, but the cost of normalization will be huge if the data type and amount is huge. Nosql using collection to storage data which allow user using less time to import and search data, no need to classify the type of each file in nosql database.

The scalability of nosql database allow user improve their application performance and response speed, according to dezyre's idea "NoSQL Databases like the HBase, Couchbase and MongoDB, scale horizontally with the addition of extra nodes (commodity database servers) to the resource pool, so that the load can be distributed easily." [3]; the tables in sql database have relatedness, so we usually need to use join function to select data, so every data for one application must to be in the same server. The files in nosql have no relatedness, so storage the data in different server is feasible for nosql, then when the application growth require more servers to support, nosql database can simply adding servers to meet the business growth need.

Eric Brewer point out the cap theory for distributed system, "The Availability and Consistency that I mentioned comes, of course, from the misunderstood CAP theorem, that - so people say states that you can only choose 2 out of the 3 Consistency: every read would get you the most recent write Availability: every node (if not

failed) always executes queries Partition-tolerance: even if the connections between nodes are down, the other two (A & C) promises, are kept. ” [7]. This theory represent that a distributed system can not satisfied consistency, availability, and partition-tolerance in the same time. For sql database, “ACID (an acronym for Atomicity, Consistency Isolation, Durability) is a concept that Database Professionals generally look for when evaluating databases and application architectures. For a reliable database all these four attributes should be achieved.” [8], the ACID theory for SQL database is seems like making sql database more reliable than nosql database. But reliable is the contradiction of performance, which mean if the business become more complicated, the performance of sql database will be decrease.

3 THE ADVANTAGE OF USING NOSQL DATABASE FOR BIG DATA APPLICATIONS

There are three main advantages of using nosql database for big data application, flexible data model, high scalability, high performance. The data model in nosql database is flexible, user don't need to set up the file property at the beginning and custom the data storage formatting at anytime[5]. For example, if our big data analysis application is getting data from the third party platform like face book, the data from the third party platform is multifarious like target user information, physical and social graph. So the flexible data model allow application collect multifarious kind of data without bother the type of data which going to collect advance. When collecting new kind of data, nosql no need edit the table or create a new column which allow the developer focus more on the analysis area instead of modify the collecting data type.

High scalability can save huge cost for upgrade the database to meet the business need. The extend model for sql database is scale up, which mean if the user is increasing, we need to have better server for satisfy the new usage [6]. Better server need better CPU, hard disk, and ram to content all the table, this make the upgrade become super expensive. In the other side, the upgrade method for nosql is much economic. At previous section, I mention that the data storage in nosql is distributed, so the upgrade method for nosql database is horizontally expanded. For fit the increasing of data storage, we just need to add new server which has exactly same spec or even lower spec, because we don't need to put all the data into one server. Cassandra is one of the best example, the architecture of cassandra is similar to p2p model, so we can simply add new node to expend the cluster [2]. Therefore the scalability of nosql make upgrade much more easier and cheaper for big data application.

Nosql have really high performance in reading and update data because of the data model of nosql is simply and no relational. According to the Penchikala's article [9], Sql using Query Cache, so the cache will lose efficacy when every time update the cache, so this kind of cache have lowe performance; The Cache of nosql is recording level which have much higher performance.

4 CONCLUSIONS

The limitation of traditional sql database no longer can meet the demand of big data applicaiton, because the performance of sql database to deal large amount of data is lower. Under the mass

data application environment, nosql has more agility to deploy new model on big data application, and the expand of nosql database is easier and cheap compare with sql database.

5 ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like to take this chance to thanks to my tutor Miao, in process on reviewing my paper, he gave me many useful comments and advises. At the same time, I would like to thanks my instructor laszewsk, give me useful knowledge about how to write a report on Latex format. Finally, I would love to thanks my friends who working for Microsoft give me many idea about my nosql database.

REFERENCES

- [1] Artur Ejsmont,. 2017. Insert performance comparison of NoSQL vs SQL servers. (2017). <http://artur.ejsmont.org/blog/content/insert-performance-comparison-of-nosql-vs-sql-servers> [Online; accessed 11-Nov-2017].
- [2] Rick Cattell. 2010. Scalable SQL and NoSQL data stores. *In Pervasive Computing and Applications (ICPCA) 2011 6th International Conference on*, 363-366 (2010), 2.
- [3] dezyre. 2017. NoSQL vs SQL- 4 Reasons Why NoSQL is better for Big Data applications. (2017). <https://www.dezyre.com/article/nosql-vs-sql-4-reasons-why-nosql-is-better-for-big-data-applications/86> [Online; accessed 11-Nov-2017].
- [4] Jepsen . 2017. MongoDB stale reads. (2017). <https://aphyr.com/posts/322-call-me-maybe-mongodb-stale-reads> [Online; accessed 11-Nov-2017].
- [5] K. Orend. 2010. Analysis and Classification of NoSQL Databases and Evaluation of their Ability to Replace an Object-relational Persistence Layer. (2010). <http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.184.483&rep=rep1&type=pdf> [Online; accessed 20-October-2017].
- [6] A. Lakshman and P. Malik. 2010. Cassandra! A decentralized structured storage system. *Operating systems review*, 44(2), 35. (2010), 2.
- [7] Lior Messinger . 2013. Better explaining the CAP Theorem. (2013). <https://dzone.com/articles/better-explaining-cap-theorem> [Online; accessed 11-Nov-2017].
- [8] Pinal Dave. 2007. SQL SERVER fi?! ACID (Atomicity, Consistency, Isolation, Durability). (2007). <https://blog.sqlauthority.com/2007/12/09/sql-server-acid-atomicity-consistency-isolation-durability/> [Online; accessed 11-Nov-2017].
- [9] Sriniv Penchikala . 2017. Distributed Cache as a NoSQL Data Store? (2017). <https://www.infoq.com/news/2011/11/distributed-cache-nosql-data-sto> [Online; accessed 11-Nov-2017].
- [10] Wiki. 2017. NoSQL. (2017). <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/NoSQL> [Online; accessed 11-Nov-2017].

```
bibtext report
```

```
=====
```

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
```

```
bibtext _ label error
```

```
=====
```

```
bibtext space label error
```

```
=====
```

```
report.bib:193:@misc{ test:01,
report.bib:201:@misc{ compare01,
report.bib:209:@misc{ wiki:01,
report.bib:217:@misc{ compare:02,
report.bib:225:@misc{ compare:03,
report.bib:233:@misc{ compare:04,
report.bib:241:@misc{ compare:05,
report.bib:249:@misc{ bigdata:04,
report.bib:257:@misc{ kill,
report.bib:265:@misc{ adv:05,
report.bib:300:@misc{ adv:3,
```

```
bibtext comma label error
```

```
=====
```

```
latex report
```

```
[2017-12-08 04.00.43] pdflatex report.tex
This is pdfTeX, Version 3.14159265-2.6-1.40.17 (TeX Live 2016) (preloaded format=pdflatex)
Missing character: ""
Missing character: ""
Typesetting of "report.tex" completed in 0.9s.
./README.yml
8:81      error    line too long (84 > 80 characters)  (line-length)
9:81      error    line too long (85 > 80 characters)  (line-length)
10:81     error    line too long (85 > 80 characters)  (line-length)
11:81     error    line too long (82 > 80 characters)  (line-length)
22:1      error    trailing spaces  (trailing-spaces)
```

```
25:15      error      too many spaces after colon  (colons)
25:81      error      line too long (691 > 80 characters)  (line-length)
```

Compliance Report

```
name: Ni, Juan
hid: 107
paper1: Oct 22 1800 100%
paper2: 100%
project: Dec 04 17 0%
```

```
yamlcheck
```

```
wordcount
```

```
2
wc 107 project 2 1582 report.tex
wc 107 project 2 1680 report.pdf
wc 107 project 2 1595 report.bib
```

```
find "
```

36: The above examples show that nosql database is much better than SQL database, but nosql database still has shortage at some domain compare with sql database. For example, the formatting of the table in SQL database has really strict data schema constraint, user only can import data by following the rule that already set up in the table, and this make sql database steady and rarely have error at data storage. The flexibility of nosql data storage might cause error happen according to jepsen's idea, ‘‘In this post, we'll see that Mongo's consistency model is broken by design: not only can "strictly consistent" reads see stale versions of documents, but they can also return garbage data from writes that never should have occurred. The former is (as far as I know) a new result which runs contrary to all of Mongo's consistency documentation. The latter has been a documented issue in Mongo for some time. We'll also touch on a result from the previous Jepsen post: almost all write concern levels allow data loss.’’

\cite{compare:02}. Even the reliability of nosql is not good enough as sql, but nosql still better for big data application because of its cost-performance, Scalability, and CAP(Consistency-Availability-Partition Tolerance).

passed: False

find footnote

passed: True

find input{format/i523}

5: \input{format/i523}

passed: True

find input{format/final}

passed: False

floats

figures 0
tables 0
includegraphics 0
labels 0
refs 0
floats 0

True : ref check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)

True : label check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)

True : include graphics passed: (figures >= includegraphics)

True : check if all figures are referred to: (refs >= labels)

Label/ref check

passed: True

When using figures use columnwidth
[width=1.0\columnwidth]
do not change the number to a smaller fraction

```
find textwidth
```

```
passed: True
```

```
below_check
```

WARNING: table and above may be used improperly

36: The above examples show that nosql database is much better than SQL database, but nosql database still has shortage at some domain compare with sql database. For example, the formatting of the table in SQL database has really strict data schema constraint, user only can import data by following the rule that already set up in the table, and this make sql database steady and rarely have error at data storage. The flexibility of nosql data storage might cause error happen according to jepsen's idea, "In this post, we'll see that Mongo's consistency model is broken by design: not only can "strictly consistent" reads see stale versions of documents, but they can also return garbage data from writes that never should have occurred. The former is (as far as I know) a new result which runs contrary to all of Mongo's consistency documentation. The latter has been a documented issue in Mongo for some time. We'll also touch on a result from the previous Jepsen post: almost all write concern levels allow data loss." \cite{compare:02}. Even the reliability of nosql is not good enough as sql, but nosql still better for big data application because of its cost-performance, Scalability, and CAP(Consistency-Availability-Partition Tolerance).

```
bibtex
```

```
label errors
```

```
bibtex errors
```

This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst

Database file #1: report.bib

bibtex_empty_fields

entries in general should not be empty in bibtex

find ""

passed: True

ascii

non ascii found 65306
non ascii found 65306

The following tests are optional

Tip: newlines can often be replaced just by an empty line

find newline

passed: True

cites should have a space before \cite{} but not before the {

find cite {

passed: True

Comparison between different classification algorithms in Digit Recognizer

Junjie Lu

Indiana University Bloomington
Bloomington, Indiana 47408
junjlu@iu.edu

Yuchen Liu

Indiana University Bloomington
1750 N Range Rd
Bloomington, Indiana 47408
liu477@iu.edu

Wenxuan Han

Indiana University Bloomington
1150 S Clarizz Blvd
Bloomington, Indiana 47401-4294
wenxhan@iu.edu

ABSTRACT

Digit Recognizer is becoming more and more important in many different areas, such as zip code recognizer, banking receipt and balance sheet. Many technology companies are trying to use Big Data to develop more efficient and accurate algorithm for Digit Recognizer. This project uses Digit Recognizer data set from Kaggle.com. There are more than 42000 samples in the data set. Each sample contains 784 features which contain pixel information from a 28×28 graph. Each pixel has a value between 0 to 255. We use binary classification technique for data cleaning and PCA for feature extraction. For the classification model, we choose five most commonly used classification algorithms, which include Decision Tree (DT), Naive Bayes (NB), Logistic Regression (LR), Random Forest (RF) and Support Vector Machine (SVM). From the result, SVM classifier on PCA data produces the highest accuracy with 0.9813. The time spend is 127 seconds. Naive Bayes classifier on PCA data spends the least amount of time to finish the classification task. It takes less one second and reaches a 0.8651 accuracy.

KEYWORDS

I523, HID213, HID214, HID209, Big Data, Digit Recognition, Cross Validation, Decision Tree, Naive Bayes, Logistic Regression, Random Forest, Support Vector Machine

1 INTRODUCTION

People have made a great improvement in digital recognition in recent years. And it plays significant roles in many different areas. Zip code recognizer can scan zip code for post office automatically. Recognizer in banks can help managing user account by scanning their account number. They help people a lot in increasing working efficiency. And many new productions use digital recognition to authenticate password. In this situation, the accuracy and efficiency of recognition become more and more essential and methods in order to increase the accuracy and efficiency are also required.

Fortunately, people have already developed many different types of techniques to avoid faults and decrease running time in recent few years. Several algorithms will be mentioned here. Logistic regression, the most frequently used algorithm in the field of machine learning, also has a good performance in digital recognition. Decision tree is commonly used in decision analysis. It can identify strategies to get a result, in this case, it can also play an important role in digital recognition. Naive Bayes classifier would also be used. Random forest is also a widely used technique in the field of classification and regression. Its special structure with the multitude of decision trees would help it get a fantastic result. Support

vector machine can efficiently perform non-linear classification hence it also be considered frequently. These algorithms have different structures so that they have different performance. We can also observe running time and accuracy of different algorithms with different kind of data. In this paper, we are going to talk about this and make the comparison between algorithms in accuracy and efficiency.

2 EXPERIMENT PREPARATION

In this paper, we choose the data of Digit Recognizer from Kaggle.com in order to test different classification algorithms [5]. The goal of this experiment is to correctly identify digits from a data set of tens of thousands of handwritten images. Thus, we could compare the pros and cons of each technique through the recognition accuracy and time-consuming.

2.1 Data Set Description

In train.csv data file, it contains 42000 gray-scale images of hand-drawn digits, from zero through nine. Each image is a 28×28 pixels matrix with a total of 784 pixels [5]. Each pixel has a single pixel-value which is an integer from 0 to 255 associated with it, indicating the lightness or darkness of that pixel (higher numbers meaning lighter). In this experiment, we have plotted the graph in order to see the appearance of these digits easily. Figure 1 shows the first 70 samples.

[Figure 1 about here.]

The training data set has 785 columns. The first column called “label”, is the digit that was drawn by the user. The rest of the columns contain the pixel-values of the associated image. Each pixel column in the training set has a name like $pixelx$, where x is an integer between 0 and 783. To locate a pixel on the image, suppose that we have decomposed x as $x = i * 28 + j$, where i and j are integers between 0 and 27. Then $pixelx$ is located in row i and column j of this matrix [5]. Visually, if we omit the “pixel” prefix, the pixels make up the image like the following form:

000	001	002	003	...	026	027
028	029	030	031	...	054	055
056	057	058	059	...	082	083
:	:	:	:	:	:	:
728	729	730	731	...	754	755
756	757	758	759	...	782	783

2.2 Data Cleaning

As we mentioned above, it can be seen from both the figure and the pixel-value that the value varies from 0 to 255, which means each feature is a continuous value. Thus, it is possible that such continuous values might affect our later feature selection. Our observation shows that the values are not very high at the boundaries of 0 and > 0 . So here exist three ways to handle it [23]:

- (1) Not do any processing on image;
- (2) Binarize the image. That is, for the values which are 0, keep them as 0; for the values which are greater than 0, change to 1;
- (3) Binarize the image by setting a threshold. That is, for the values which are greater than this threshold, change to 1; otherwise, change to 0.

Obviously, method (2) and (3) will cause the loss of the original information. However, this information may not as important as our expected during the execution of classification algorithms, it could play a positive role in increasing the performance without reducing the accuracy.

In our experiment, we selected method (2) to clean the raw data. The following part of codes shows this operation.

```
from numpy import *

# The data is from 0-255 for each cell.
# Normalize data by set all value > 0 to 1
def data_clean(data):
    m, n = shape(data)
    new_data = zeros((m, n))
    for i in range(m):
        for j in range(n):
            if data[i, j] > 0:
                new_data[i, j] = 1
            else:
                new_data[i, j] = 0

    print("Data clean completed.")
    return new_data
```

2.3 Feature Extraction

Dimension reduction in the field of machine learning refers to using a mapping method to map the data points in the original high-dimensional space into the low-dimensional space. The essence of dimension reduction is to learn a mapping function $f : x -> y$, where x is the expression of the original data point, y is the low-dimensional vector representation after the data point mapping [9].

The reason why we use data after dimension reduction is that the redundant information and noise information are contained in the original high-dimensional space, which reduces the accuracy of our model. By dimension reduction, we hope to reduce the error caused by redundant information and improve the accuracy of identification. We also hope to find the intrinsic structure of the data structure through the dimension reduction algorithm. Also, in this example, there are 784 features in our data. Space, time and computation complexity are all unacceptable. There are many

different dimension reduction algorithms for us to choose. In this project, we choose to use Principle Component Analysis (PCA).

2.3.1 PCA

Principal Component Analysis (PCA) is the most commonly used method of supervised linear dimension reduction. Its goal is to map high-dimensional data to a low-dimensional representation of space by some kind of linear projection. The variance of the data is expected to be maximized in the projected dimension. By keep the variance of data as high as possible, PCA can reduce the dimension of data and keep the loss of information of the data as a minimum [3].

A common understanding is that if all the points are mapped together, almost all information (such as the distance between points) is lost. If the post-mapping variance is as large as possible, the data points are spread apart to preserve more information. It can be proved that PCA is a linear dimension reduction method that loses the original least data information.

One of the questions we faced while we are using PCA is that: how many components should we choose for the model after dimension reduction. In order to solve this problem, we use Explained Variance as our threshold standard. Explained Variance is an important indicator of PCA dimension reduction. The Explained Variance shows the amount of variance explained by each of the selected components. The first column of the PCA model always explains the most variance and the variance explained will keep decrease as the number of column increase. Generally, a dimension with a cumulative contribution rate of about 90% is selected as a reference dimension for PCA dimensionality reduction. In this project, in order to get a more accurate result, we choose 95% as our threshold.

```
from sklearn.decomposition import PCA

def feature_selection(data):
    pca = PCA()
    pca.fit(data)
    ev = pca.explained_variance_
    ev_ratio = []
    for i in range(len(ev)):
        ev_ratio.append(ev[i] / ev[0])

    # select number of component which have a higher ratio
    # than 0.05 with the first components
    n = 0
    for i in range(len(ev_ratio)):
        if ev_ratio[i] < 0.05:
            n = i
            break

    # Then, PCA the model by the number of components
    pca = PCA(n_components=n, whiten=True)
    return pca.fit_transform(data)
```

After calculating the explained variance for each component, we decide to choose 30 components for our model. Which shows that there will be 30 features in our model.

3 EXPERIMENT ALGORITHMS

We aim to select five most commonly used classification algorithms which include Decision Tree, Naive Bayes (NB), Logistic Regression (LR), Random Forest (RF) and Support Vector Machine (SVM). This section offers a broad overview of these algorithms before applying them to the digit recognizer problem to compare their characteristics. Then, the result of the different algorithm on different data will show on a table.

For each algorithm, we use:

- (1) PCA data - data after using PCA to reduce the dimension on raw data
- (2) Clean data - data after our data cleaning process, which set all values greater than 0 to 1 in our data
- (3) PCA Clean daata - data after using PCA to reduce the dimension on clean data after data cleaning process

3.1 Cross-Validation

When we build the model, it is normal to follow the principle of simplification since the simpler model we built, the better performance we will get. However, for some complicated problems, our model will also become more complex which might cause the overfitting problem. In order to solve this problem, we introduce the cross-validation technique. Cross-validation is a technique to evaluate predictive models by partitioning the original sample into a training set to train the model, and a test set to evaluate it [13].

The purpose of cross-validation is to select the model with the optimal parameters. After the model is set up, tuning the parameters is a very time-consuming process. Through cross-validation, we can get the model with the optimal parameters much easier. Here are some steps about cross-validation procedure:

- (1) Prepare the candidate models, M_1, M_2, M_3, \dots (the model framework is consistent, only different on the parameters);
- (2) For each model, use cross-validation to return the accuracy and error rate information of the model, the result should be the average of cross-validation;
- (3) Select the best model by comparing the accuracy or error of the different models.

There are some types of cross-validation which are common to use: K-fold cross-validation and Leave-one-out cross-validation.

- K-fold:

This method is to divide the data set into k subsets. Each time, select one of the k subsets as the test set and the other $k - 1$ subsets become a training set. Then the average accuracy or error across all k trials is computed [13]. In general, we choose 10 as the value of k .

- Leave-one-out (LOO):

This method is K-fold cross-validation taken to its logical extreme, with $k = n$ ($n > k$), the number of data points in the set [13]. That is, it randomly select n samples as a training set and the rest as a test set. Since the time complexity of this cross-validation is factorial, it is not an appropriate method for big data set.

In this project, we use K-fold cross validation technique to reduce over-fitting of our model and increase the accuracy in each model.

We use the function `cross_val_score` from the `sklearn` package. It have several important parameters to set [7].

- (1) CV: int, cross-validation generator or an iterable, optional
This parameter determines the cross-validation splitting strategy, which determined the number of fold we need to use. In our project, we use the default 3-fold cross-validation. Because 3-fold provide us the result in a reasonable time and accuracy.
- (2) Scoring: string, callable or None, optional, default: None
The scoring parameter determines what to return after we call the function. We just this parameter to ‘accuracy’, which will return the accuracy between 0 to 1 for each model.

After we receive the result for each validation, we generate the mean of each result and use the result as the accuracy of the model.

```
from datetime import datetime
from sklearn.cross_validation import cross_val_score

def model_acc(data, label, model):
    start = datetime.now()
    acc = cross_val_score(model, data, label, cv=5,
                          scoring="accuracy").mean()
    end = datetime.now()
    time_use = (end - start).seconds

    print("Time use: ", time_use)
    print("Accuracy by cross validation: ", acc)
```

3.2 Decision Tree

3.2.1 Introduction

Decision tree builds classification or regression models in the form of a tree structure (either binary or non-binary) [17]. Each of its non-leaf nodes represents a test on the characteristic attributes, and each leaf node stores a category. The process of decision making using decision tree has the following steps [19]:

- (1) Start at the root node;
- (2) Test the corresponding characteristic attribute of the items that need to be classified;
- (3) Select the branch based on the value until the leaf node is reached;
- (4) The category of stored in the leaf node is the result.

The decision tree construction process rely on attribute selection metrics in order to choose the attribute which has the capability to divide tuples into different classes best. The key step in constructing a decision tree is split attributes which means to construct different branches according to the different partition of a certain characteristic attribute at a node. The goal of this step is to make each split subset as “pure” as possible. Split attributes are divided into three different situations:

- (1) Attributes are discrete values and do not require to generate a binary decision tree. This time, each partition of an attribute becomes a branch;
- (2) Attributes are discrete values and require to generate a binary decision tree. This time, a subset of attribute partitions is used for testing, broken down two branches according

- to “subordinate to this subset” and “not subordinate to this subset”;
- (3) Attributes are continuous values. This time, determine a value as a *split_point* and generate two branches according to $> \text{split_point}$ and $\leq \text{split_point}$.

There are many attribute selection metric algorithms (e.g. ID3, C4.5, CART, etc.), generally using top-down recursive method with non-backtrack greedy strategy. In our experiment, we applied optimized version of the Classification And Regression Trees (CART) algorithm from scikit-learn library.

The CART algorithm uses a binary recursive segmentation technique [1]: the current sample set is divided into two sub-sample sets, so that each non-leaf node have two branches. Therefore, the decision tree generated by the CART algorithm is a concise binary tree with the root node represents a single input variable (x) and a split point on that variable and the leaf nodes contain an output variable (y) which has the capability to make a prediction [1].

The first key step of CART algorithm is creating the tree model, it examines each variable and all possible partitions of this variable to observe the best partitions. For discrete values such as $U = \{x, y, z\}$, there are three cases of partitions [6]:

$$\{\{x, y\}, \{z\}\}, \{\{x, z\}, \{y\}\}, \{\{y, z\}, \{x\}\}$$

except \emptyset and U ; for continuous values, it introduces the idea of “split point”. Suppose one attribute of a sample has n continuous values, it then has $n - 1$ splitting points where each of them is the average of two consecutive values $(a[i] + a[i + 1])/2$. Partitions of each attribute are sorted by the amount of impurities that they can reduce. The reduction of impurities could use the most popular method of impurity metric which is: Gini index. If we use k ($k = 1, 2, 3, \dots, C$) to represent the class, where C is the dependent variable number of the category set. Thus, the Gini impurity of a Node A could be defined as [6]:

$$Gini(A) = 1 - \sum_{k=1}^C p_k^2$$

Where p_k denotes the probability of observation points which belong to class k . When $Gini(A) = 0$, all samples belong to the same class. When $Gini(A)$ is the maximum, which is $\frac{(C-1)C}{2}$, all classes occur with the same probability in nodes.

The second key idea in the CART process is to prune the trees of the training set with independent validation data sets. Analyzing the recursive tree construction of classification and regression tree, it is easy to find that there exists a data over-fitting problem [1]. In the construction of decision tree, many branches reflect the abnormality in training data due to the noises or outliers inside. Using such decision tree to classify the data with unknown categories, the accuracy of classification is not high. So it is essential to detect and subtract these branches. Generally, tree pruning method uses statistical metrics, subtract the least reliable branches, which results in faster classification and improves the ability to separate correctly from the training data. The CART algorithm often adopts the post-pruning method, which is implemented by pruning the branches in a fully grown tree. By deleting the branch of the node to cut tree nodes, the bottom non-pruned node becomes a leaf.

The following part of codes shows how we called CART algorithm in our experiment.

```
# Import Library
from sklearn import tree

def dt_classifier(data, label, data_type):
    dt_model = tree.DecisionTreeRegressor()
    dt_model.fit(data, label)
    print("Test " + data_type + " using DT: ")

    # Train the model using the training sets and check
    # score
    model_acc(data, label, dt_model)
```

3.2.2 Advantage and Disadvantage

Decision Tree has advantages as follow [4]:

- (1) Decision trees are easy to understand and implement, and people have the ability to understand what the decision tree means by explaining it.
- (2) Data preparation is often simple or unnecessary for decision trees, and other techniques often require first generalizing data, such as removing redundant or blank attributes.
- (3) Feasible and effective results for large data sources in a relatively short period of time.
- (4) Not sensitive to missing values
- (5) Can handle irrelevant feature data
- (6) High efficiency. Decision tree only needs to build once. The maximum number of calculations for each prediction does not exceed the depth of the decision tree

Decision Tree also has disadvantages as follow [4]:

- (1) Hard to predict features with continues value
- (2) Need to do a lot of data reprocessing work for time-series data
- (3) When the category is too large, the error rate may increase.
- (4) It does not look good when dealing with data that has a strong correlation between each feature.

3.2.3 Result

[Table 1 about here.]

From table 1, we can find that the Decision Tree algorithm has a highest accuracy 0.8378 when we using Clean data. That's because the Clean data contains all 784 features in the data set. It has the minimum information loss among all three data set. Clean data also have the longest running time, which is 20 seconds.

PCA Clean Data have the second highest accuracy with the lowest running time. By using the PCA to reduce the dimension of the clean data, the running time reduced a lot. The accuracy only decreases by 0.01, which shows that the process of PCA did not lose a lot of information.

When we use decision tree algorithm, PCA data have the lowest accuracy. That's may because the raw data have may noise and redundant information. After we remove this information from our data pre-processing step, our accuracy increased.

3.3 Naive Bayes

3.3.1 Introduction

Naive Bayes algorithm is a classification technique based on Baye's Theorem with an assumption of independence among predictors [15]. That is to say, a Naive Bayes classifier assumes that the presence of a particular feature in a class is unrelated to the presence of any other feature. For example, we may guess a fruit is an orange if it is yellow, round and about 3 inches in diameter. Even if these features depend on each other, all properties independently contribute to the probability that this fruit is an orange, which explain the term 'Naive' [15].

The Baye's Theorem is particularly useful and not complicated. It solves many problems encountered in our life. The purpose of this theorem is that given a conditional probability of a certain condition, obtain the probability of exchanging two conditions. That is, to get $P(B|A)$ while given $P(A|B)$. $P(A|B)$ is the posterior probability which is also the conditional probability (likelihood) and $P(A)$ or $P(B)$ is called a prior probability. We use the following equation to express this theorem:

$$P(B|A) = \frac{P(A|B)P(B)}{P(A)}$$

The idea of Baye's Theorem is very simple and directly: For the given item which need to be classified, compute the probability of each category under this item. We consider this item belongs to the category with the largest value. The work process of Naive Bayes classification is as follows [20]:

- (1) Let D be the set of training tuples associated with their class labels. Each tuple is represented by an n-dimensional attribute vector $X = x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$;
- (2) Suppose there are m classes C_1, C_2, \dots, C_m . For the given tuple X , the classification algorithm will predict that X belongs to the class with the highest posterior probability. That is, Naive Bayes classification predicts that X belongs to class C_i if and only if $P(C_i|X) > P(C_j|X), 1 \leq j \leq m, j \neq i$. Thus, the class C_1 with the largest $P(C_i|X)$ is called the maximum posterior probability according to the Baye's Theorem: $P(C_i|X) = \frac{P(X|C_i)P(C_i)}{P(X)}$;
- (3) Since $P(X)$ is a constant for all classes, we only require the maximum of $P(C_i|X)P(C_i)$. If the prior probability of a class is unknown, then generally assume these classes are equiprobable (i.e. $P(C_1) = P(C_2) = \dots = P(C_m)$) and maximize $P(C_i|X)$ based on this assumption. Otherwise, maximize $P(C_i|X)P(C_i)$;
- (4) Given a data set with multiple attributes, the computational cost of $P(C_i|X)$ is very large. In order to reduce this cost, we could make the naive assumption about conditional independent of the class. For the label of a given tuple class, assuming the attribute values are conditionally independent. Therefore, we have

$$P(X|C_i) = \prod_{k=1}^n P(x_k|C_i)$$

To examine whether the attribute is classified or continuous value, we need to consider the following two cases:

- (a) If A_k is a classified attribute, then $P(x_k|C_i)$ is the number of tuples of class C_i whose value is x_k for attribute A_k in D divided by the number of tuples of class C_i in D ($|C_i, D|$);
- (b) If A_k is a continuous value attribute, then assume the attribute obeys a Gaussian distribute with the mean η and standard deviation σ , as defined by:

$$g(x, \eta, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{(x-\eta)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

Thus, $P(x_k|C_i) = g(x_k, \eta_{C_i}, \sigma_{C_i})$.

- (5) To predict the label of class X , calculate $P(C_i|X)P(C_i)$ for each class C_i .

The whole Naive Bayes classification could be divided into three stages:

- (1) Preparation stage. The task of this stage is to make the necessary preparation for the Naive Bayes classification. The main work is to determine the characteristic attributes according to the specific situations and make the appropriate partition for each characteristic attribute, and then manually classified some of the items to constitute a training sample set. The input of this stage is all data that need to be classified and the output is the characteristic attribute and the training sample.
- (2) Classifier training stage, the task of this stage is to generate a classifier. The main work is to compute the occurrence frequency of each class in training sample and the conditional probability of all partitions in each category, and then record the results. The input is characteristic attributes and a training sample, the output is a classifier. This stage could be completed automatically by a program.
- (3) Application stage. The task of this stage is to classify items using classifier. The input is classifier and items, and the output is the mapping between items and categories. This stage could also be completed by a program.

The following part of codes shows how we called Naive Bayes algorithm in our experiment.

```
# Import Library
from sklearn.naive_bayes import GaussianNB

def nb_classifier(data, label, data_type):
    nb_model = GaussianNB()
    nb_model.fit(data, label)
    print("Test " + data_type + " using NB: ")

# Train the model using the training sets and check
# score
model_acc(data, label, nb_model)
```

3.3.2 Advantage and Disadvantage

Naive Bayes has advantages as follow [10]:

- (1) Naive Bayesian model originated in classical mathematical theory, which is stable.
- (2) Have a good performance on small-scale data,
- (3) Can handle multi-category tasks.

- (4) For incremental training, especially when the amount of data exceeds memory, we can use batch training to save training time.

Naive Bayes also has disadvantages as follow [10]:

- (1) In theory, the naive Bayes model has the smallest error rate compared to other classification methods. However, this is not always the case. This is because the naive Bayesian model assumes that the features are independent of each other. This assumption often does not hold in practice. When the number of attributes is large or the correlation between attributes is large, the error rate will be huge.
- (2) Need to know the prior probability, and the probability of prior probability depends on the assumption. There are many kinds of hypothetical models, so the prediction results will be poor at some time due to the choice of hypothetical model.
- (3) Because we determine the posterior probability by priority and data to determine the classification, there is a certain error rate in the classification decision.
- (4) Sensitive to the type of raw data.

3.3.3 Result

[Table 2 about here.]

From table 2, we can find that Clean Data have a really low accuracy with the highest time spent. That's because the raw data set did not match the assumption of Naive Bayes. The features are not conditionally independent of each other. The pixels are continues. For example, if pixel1 and pixel3 are both greater than 0, pixel2 will have a more probability to have a value greater than 0.

After we use the dimension reduction technique to reduce the dimension of the data, each component of the data becomes a linear combination of the original data. The new data fits the assumption of Naive Bayes more. Therefore, the PCA Data and PCA Clean Data have a much better performance than Clean Data. They also have the lowest running time compare to any other algorithms.

The PCA Clean Data have the highest accuracy of 0.8710 which higher than the PCA Data. That's may because of the noise and redundant in the original data.

3.4 Logistic Regression

3.4.1 Introduction

Logistic regression is a static regression model with a category of the dependent variable. It uses a binary logistic model to estimate binary response probability on predictor variables. In this case, we can know which specific factor makes influence in the presence of risk increasing odds when getting outcomes. We use logistic regression to find the best fitting model to conclude the relationship between variables. Logistic regression generates the coefficients (and its standard errors and significance levels) of a formula to predict a logit transformation of the probability of the presence of the characteristic of interest [18]:

$$\text{logit}(p) = b_0 + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2 + b_3X_3 + \dots + b_kX_k$$

p is the probability of the presence of the characteristic of interest and odds is logical transformation.

$$\text{adds} = \frac{p}{1-p} = \frac{p(\text{presence of characteristic})}{p(\text{absence of characteristic})}$$

$$\text{logit}(p) = \ln \frac{p}{1-p}$$

There are four ways to input independent variables into the model:

- (1) Enter: enter all variables at the same time
- (2) Forward: enter essential variables one by one
- (3) Backward: enter all variables first and delete non-essential variables one by one
- (4) Stepwise: enter essential variables one by one and check the importance of each variable, delete non-essential ones.

It still has other options:

- (1) Remove variable. Variables would be removed from the model if its significant level is greater than P-value.
- (2) Classification table cutoff value: a value between 0 and 1 which will be used as a cutoff value for a classification table. The classification table is a method to evaluate the logistic regression model. In this table the observed values for the dependent outcome and the predicted values (at the selected cut-off value) are cross-classified [18].
- (3) Categorical: Identify variables in the category.

The following part of codes shows how we called Logistic Regression algorithm in our experiment.

```
# Import Library
from sklearn.linear_model import LogisticRegression

def lr_classifier(data, label, data_type):
    lr_model = LogisticRegression()
    lr_model.fit(data, label)
    print("Test " + data_type + " using LR: ")

    # Train the model using the training sets and check
    # score
    model_acc(data, label, lr_model)
```

3.4.2 Advantage and Disadvantage

Logistic Regression has advantages as follow [11]:

- (1) Very simple to implement and use, widely used in industrial issues
- (2) The amount of computation is very small when classified. Therefore the running time is low and the requirement for the storage space is also low.
- (3) The sigmoid score for each sample is easy to observe. The threshold can be easily determined by user.
- (4) For logistic regression, multicollinearity is not a problem, it can be solved in conjunction with L2 regularization;

Logistic Regression also has disadvantages as follow [11]:

- (1) When the feature space is large, the performance of logistic regression is not very good.
- (2) May have the under-fitting problem, the general accuracy is not high.

- (3) Can only deal with the binary classification problem (based on this, softmax can be used for multi-classification), and must be linearly separable.
- (4) For non-linear features, normalization is required.

3.4.3 Result

[Table 3 about here.]

The result of logistic regression is pretty impressive. This is a 10-categorical classification problem, and logistic regression did a good job on this task.

When we get this result, we are thinking if we having an over-fitting result. Therefore, we add a regularization parameter to penalize the features. We use l2 regularization as our parameter when we create our logistic classifier. We also use cross-validation skill to increase our sample size. The results show that the accuracy is still around 90%. Therefore, we are not having an over-fitting problem.

The running time of logistic regression is relatively high. For Clean Data, it received the accuracy of 0.9064 with 218 seconds. PCA Data and PCA Clean Data have a lower accuracy with a much lower time spend. Also, we noticed that the PCA Data accuracy is a little bit higher than the PCA Clean Data. That's may because the clean data make some of the information loss in the raw data.

3.5 Random Forest

3.5.1 Introduction

Random forest uses a random way to build a forest within many decision trees. There is no correlation between each tree in a random forest [21]. After getting the forest, when a new input sample comes in, each decision tree required to make a judgment separately in order to see which class the sample belongs to (for the classification algorithm), and predict the sample for the category which has most selected.

Random forest is mainly used for regression and classification. It is somewhat similar to the bagging which utilizes decision trees as a basic classifier. Bagging could generate a decision tree after replay a sample in each bootstrap and do not make more intervention while generating these trees. Random forest is also sampling with bootstrap, but the difference is that when constructing each tree, every node variable is generated only in a small number of randomly selected variables. Therefore, not only the samples are random, but also the generation of each node's features. Since the combination classifier is more effective than the single classifier, the random forest could classify the data and give the importance evaluation of each variable.

The basic principle of random forest is to get a new training sample set by selecting k samples from the original training sample set N , and then make up a random forest according to k classification trees. The classification result of the new data depends on the score of the tree votes [14]. In essence, it is an improvement on the decision tree algorithm: it combines multiple decision trees, each tree established depends on an independently sample and has the same distribution. The classification error relies on each the classification ability of a tree and the correlation between them. Feature selection uses a random method to split each node, and then compare the error generated in different situations. The inherent estimation error, classification ability and relevance determine the number of features [14].

Since there are many decision trees in the forest, once a new input sample comes in, each decision tree make a decision to check what the class the sample belongs to, and which one is chosen most to the prediction. There are two selection metrics for decision trees to split attributes [19]:

- (1) Information gain

- (a) $I(s_1, s_2, \dots, s_m) = -\sum_{i=1}^m p_i \log_2(p_i)$, where S is the data set, m is the number of categories, $p_i \approx \frac{|S_i|}{|S|}$ is the probability for any sample belongs to C_i , C_i is a class label and s_i is the number of samples on C_i ;
- (b) The smaller $I(s_1, s_2, \dots, s_m)$, the more ordered of the sample and the better the classification effect;
- (c) Entropy of the subsets partitioned by attribute A : A has V different values, S is partitioned by A into V subsets s_1, s_2, \dots, s_V , where s_{ij} is the number of samples of C_i in subset s_j . Then, we have

$$E(A) = \sum_{j=1}^V \frac{(s_{1j} + \dots + s_{mj})}{s} * I(s_{1j}, \dots, s_{mj})$$

- (d) $G = I(s_1, s_2, \dots, s_m)E(A)$;
- (e) Select the attribute with the maximum information gain as the split attribute.

- (2) Gini index

- (a) Set S contains N categories of records, then its Gini index is the frequency of the occurrence of p_j ;
- (b) If set S is partitioned into m parts s_1, s_2, \dots, s_m , this segmentation is the Gini split;
- (c) Select the attribute with the smallest Gini split as a split attribute.

In order to implement random forest, we should follow these steps:

- (1) The input original training set is N , use bootstrap to extract k samples randomly and build k decision trees;
- (2) Suppose there are m_A variables, then randomly extract m_T variables from each node of each tree to find one of the variables with the highest classification ability in m_T variables. The threshold of the variable classification is determined by checking each classification point;
- (3) Maximize the growth of each tree without any pruning;
- (4) Constitute the random forest with these decision trees. Use random forest to determine and classify the new data, and the results are based on votes amount of the tree classifier.

The following part of codes shows how we called Random Forest algorithm in our experiment.

```
# Import Library
from sklearn.ensemble import RandomForestClassifier

def rf_classifier(data, label, flag):
    rf_model = RandomForestClassifier(n_estimators=100)
    rf_model.fit(data, label)
    print("Test " + flag + " using RF: ")

# Train the model using the training sets and check
# score
model_acc(data, label, rf_model)
```

3.5.2 Advantage and Disadvantage

Random Forest has advantages as follow [2]:

- (1) It can handle very high-dimensional data, and do not have to do feature selection, feature subset is randomly selected
- (2) It can provide which feature is more important after training.
- (3) When creating a random forest, the use of generalization error is an unbiased estimation, which shows that this model has a high generalization ability.
- (4) Easy to make a parallel method, training tree and tree are independent of each other.
- (5) In the training process, the algorithm is able to detect the interaction between the features.
- (6) For unbalanced data sets, it can balance the model automatically.
- (7) If a large part of the features is lost, the model can still maintain the accuracy.

Random Forest also has disadvantages as follow [2]:

- (1) There may be many similar decision trees that mask the real results.
- (2) Small data or low dimensional data may not produce the best classification.
- (3) Much slower than single decision tree algorithm.
- (4) Random forests can be over-fitting on some noisy classifications or regression problems
- (5) For feature with different value range, the more value-separated features will have a greater impact on random forests

3.5.3 Result

[Table 4 about here.]

From table 4, we can find that Clean Data performed perfectly in this case. It takes the shortest time and reached a 0.9647 accuracy.

The result shows an interesting phenomenon: Clean Data cost less time than PCA Data and PCA Clean Data. In order to explain this phenomenon, we have to check what parameter we choose when we build our random forest classifier. From sklearn API document, we can find that the first default parameter is the number of trees in the forest. For all the data, we set the number of trees to the default number, which is 10. However, in Clean Data, many features are correlated to each other, which means that there may many similar decision trees. For PCA Data and PCA Clean Data, most of the features are independent of each other. Therefore, the running time for Clean Data is higher than PCA Data and PCA clean Data.

Also, we know that when there are similar decision trees in the random forest, the real results may be masked. Therefore, although the Clean Data have a really high accuracy, it may still not as good as the PCA Data and PCA Clean Data result. When we running the classifier on an untested data set, the classifier made by PCA Clean Data may have the best performance among the three.

3.6 Support Vector Machine

3.6.1 Introduction

Support vector machines are supervised learning models with associated learning algorithms that analyze data used for classification and regression analysis [22]. It is mostly used in classification. People can plot each data as a point in an n-dimensional space and give each feature a value. Finding the hyperplane which can differentiate two classes very well can complete classification. As for hyperplane, we must know the notation used to define a hyperplane [12]:

$$f(x) = \beta_0 + \beta^T x$$

β is weight and β_0 is bias. The optimal hyperplane can be represented in an infinite number of different ways by scaling of β and β_0 . The one we choose is [12]:

$$|\beta_0 + \beta^T x| = 1$$

x is the training sample who is the most closest to hyperplane. It is known as canonical hyperplane. Distance between point and hyperplane is [12]:

$$\text{distance} = \frac{|\beta_0 + \beta^T x|}{\|\beta\|}$$

$$\text{distance}_{\text{support vector}} = \frac{|\beta_0 + \beta^T x|}{\|\beta\|} = \frac{1}{\|\beta\|}$$

$$M = 2 * \text{distance}_{\text{support vector}} = \frac{2}{\|\beta\|}$$

$$\min L(\beta) = \frac{1}{2} \|\beta\|^2 \text{ subject to } y_i(\beta^T + \beta_0) \geq 1, \forall i$$

In Python, scikit-learn is a widely used library for implementing machine learning algorithms, SVM is also available in the scikit-learn library and follows the same structure (Import library, object creation, fitting model and prediction). Let's look at the below code [16]:

```
# Import Library
from sklearn import svm

# Assumed you have, X (predictor) and Y (target) for
# training data set and x_test(predictor) of test_data
# set

# Create SVM classification object
model = svm.svc(kernel='rbf', C=10)

# there are various option associated with it, like changing
# kernel, gamma and C value
# Train the model using the training sets and check score
model.fit(X, y)
model.score(X, y)

# Predict Output
predicted = model.predict(x_test)
```

The e1071 package in R is used to create Support Vector Machines with ease. It has helper functions as well as code for the Naive Bayes Classifier. The creation of a support vector machine in R and Python follow similar approaches, let's take a look now at the following code [16]:

```

# Import Library
require(e1071) #Contains the SVM

Train <- read.csv(file.choose())
Test <- read.csv(file.choose())

# there are various options associated with SVM training;
# like changing kernel, gamma and C value.

# create model
model <-
  svm(Target~Predictor1+Predictor2+Predictor3,data=Train,
kernel='linear',gamma=0.2, cost=100)

# Predict Output
preds <- predict(model,Test)
table(preds)

```

3.6.2 Advantage and Disadvantage

Support vector machine has advantages as follow:

- (1) More efficient in high dimensional space.
- (2) Effective when the number of samples is smaller than the number of dimensions.
- (3) Can memorize efficiently by using a subset of training sample in decision function.
- (4) Flexible by changing Kernel functions for different customers.

And it also has disadvantages as follow:

- (1) It would over-fitting in choosing Kernel functions when the number of samples is much smaller than the number of features.
- (2) Must pay more attention to regularization term.
- (3) It can only get probability by an expensive five-fold cross-validation instead of calculating directly.

3.6.3 Result

[Table 5 about here.]

By using SVM to build our classifier, we received a really great accuracy score. The PCA Data received a 0.9814 accuracy of 127 seconds. The running complexity of SVM is $O(N^3 + LN^2 + d * L * N)$, which N is the number of support vector choose, L is the number of samples and d is the number of features of the data set. Therefore, SVM algorithm will run really slow on the large data set. Therefore, when we use the Clean Data, which include more than 42000 samples and 784 features, it takes 1029 seconds to finish the job. We also try to use SVM direct on our raw data. It takes forever to get a result.

SVM can get much better results than other algorithms in the small sample training set. SVM has become one of the most commonly used and effective classifiers. By using the concept of margin, a structured description of the data distribution is obtained, thereby reducing the need for data size and data distribution.

SVM model has three very important parameters kernel, C and gamma[8].

- (1) Kernel: string, optional. This parameter specifies the kernel type to be used in the algorithm. There are many different kernels that can be used in SVM. For example, linear, polynomial, sigmoid, Radial basis function (RBF) and pre-computed. In this project, choose to use RBF. Because:
 - (a) The RBF kernel function can map a sample to a higher dimensional space, and the linear kernel function is a special case of RBF. That is to say, if RBF is considered, then it is unnecessary to consider the linear kernel function.
 - (b) Compared with polynomial kernel function, RBF needs to determine fewer parameters, the number of kernel function parameters directly affect the complexity of the function. In addition, when the order of the polynomial is relatively high, the elemental values of the kernel matrix will tend to positive infinity or negative infinity, while the RBF will reduce the numerical calculation difficulties.
 - (c) RBF and sigmoid have similar performance for some parameters.
- (2) C is the penalty coefficient, which shows the tolerance of the bias. If your C is small, it will give you a great distance, but as a trade-off, we have to ignore some misclassified samples; on the other hand, if you have a large C, you will try to correctly classify all the samples, but the price is the margin space will be small. In our example, we choose c equals to 10, which is a relatively large c value, which brings us a more accurate classifier.
- (3) Gamma defines how much influence a single training example has. It determines the distribution of the data after mapping to a new feature space. The larger the gamma is, the less the support vector it will be. The smaller the gamma value is, the more the support vector it will be. The number of support vectors affects the speed of training and prediction. Also, if we set gamma large, it will have the over-fitting problem. Therefore, in this project, we decided to use the default gamma value, which is

$$\text{gamma} = \frac{1}{\text{number of features}}$$

In this task, SVM have a really great performance, the running time is also acceptable.

4 CONCLUSION

[Table 6 about here.]

From table 6, we can easily find that when we use SVM classifier on PCA Data, we will receive the highest accuracy among all 5 different algorithms. The highest accuracy we reached for this project is 0.9813, which shows that our classifier predicts 98.13% of the sample correct by using our SVM classifier. The time of training the model takes 127 seconds. The time spent is acceptable. The accuracy of SVM on PCA Clean Data has the second highest accuracy, which is 0.9785. The difference between first and second highest accuracy is about 0.0028, which is really small. However, the time spent saved 41.1%. Therefore, SVM on PCA Clean Data is also a reasonable choice for the Digit Recognition task.

Random Forest can be explained as a combination of many decision trees. Decision tree can be explained as a special case of Random Forest, which set the number of trees in the Random Forest to 1. Therefore, Random Forest has a much better performance than decision tree in all three data set. As a trade-off, the time spent for Random Forest is much higher than Decision Tree.

Compare to other four Classifiers, Naive Bayes has the fastest training speed. For PCA Data and PCA Clean Data, Naive Bayes Classifier takes less than one second to train the classifier. And for Clean data, which contains all 784 features, it takes only 6 seconds to train the classifier. The reason why Naive Bayes is fast is that:

- (1) The algorithm does not need to iterate to get the result. The running time is approximately linear.
- (2) It makes an assumption of independence between its features, so that parameter estimates can be calculated independently and thus possibly very quickly.
- (3) The prior probability values do not change. Therefore, the prior probability can be calculated and stored in memory in the first place.

However, we have to be very careful about the assumption made by Naive Bayes, or we will get a very low accuracy.

Logistic Regression received an average performance among the 5 algorithms. It achieves a 0.8891 accuracy in 27 seconds on PCA data. However, when we use logistic regression, we have to pay a lot of attention to over-fitting problem. We should use regularization and cross-validation to reduce the probability of over-fitting problems.

To conclude, we decide to use SVM classifier for Digit Recognition Task. We should definitely use feature extraction on the data because of the running time and over-fitting problem. The Binary Data cleaning method is optional. If we want to have higher accuracy, we should not use Binary Data cleaning. As a trade-off, if we want to have faster training speed, we should use Binary Data cleaning.

5 FUTURE IMPROVEMENT

Our analysis is far from perfect. There are several points that we want to point out as discussion and also opportunities for future improvement.

- (1) We can try several more classification algorithms. For example, K^{th} Nearest Neighbour (KNN) and Neural Network. We can use some more complex algorithms too, such as Convolution Neural Network (CNN).
- (2) We can focus more on tune parameter. For example, we can use the Grid Search on SVM to get a better parameter combination.
- (3) We can choose a different Data Cleaning Method. For example, we can set a threshold on data. Any value greater than 50 will be set to 1.
- (4) We can choose a different Feature Extraction or Feature Selection method. For example, LDA. Unlike PCA, LDA is an unsupervised dimension reduction method.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors would like to thank Professor Gregor von Laszewski and all TAs for providing the resource, tutorials and other related materials to write this paper.

REFERENCES

- [1] Jason Brownlee. 2016. Classification And Regression Trees for Machine Learning. (April 2016). <https://machinelearningmastery.com/classification-and-regression-trees-for-machine-learning/>
- [2] Daniel S. Chapman, Aletta Bonn, William E. Kunin, and Stephen J. Cornell. 2009. Random Forest characterization of upland vegetation and management burning from aerial imagery. *Journal of Biogeography* 37, 1 (2009), 37–46. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2699.2009.02186.x>
- [3] Kazuhiro Hotta. 2008. Non-linear feature extraction by linear PCA using local kernel. *2008 19th International Conference on Pattern Recognition* (2008). <https://doi.org/10.1109/icpr.2008.4761721>
- [4] Hemant Ishwaran and J. Sunil Rao. 2009. Decision Tree: Introduction. *Encyclopedia of Medical Decision Making* (2009). <https://doi.org/10.4135/9781412971980.n97>
- [5] Kaggle. 2015. Data Description. (2015). <https://www.kaggle.com/c/digit-recognizer/data>
- [6] Scikit Learn. 2007. Decision Trees. (2007). <http://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/tree.html>
- [7] Scikit Learn. 2007. sklearn model selection cross_val_score. (2007). http://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/generated/sklearn.model_selection.cross_val_score.html
- [8] Scikit Learn. 2007. sklearn svm SVC. (2007). <http://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/generated/sklearn.svm.SVC.html>
- [9] Sheng-Jie Liang, Zhi-Hua Zhang, and Li-Lin Cui. 2010. Feature extraction method Based PCA and KICA. *2010 Second International Conference on Computational Intelligence and Natural Computing* (2010). <https://doi.org/10.1109/cinc.2010.5643821>
- [10] J. Luengo and Rafael Rumi. 2015. Naive Bayes Classifier with Mixtures of Polynomials. *Proceedings of the International Conference on Pattern Recognition Applications and Methods* (2015). <https://doi.org/10.5220/0005166000140024>
- [11] Scott Menard. 2010. Introduction: Linear Regression and Logistic Regression. *Logistic Regression: From Introductory to Advanced Concepts and Applications* (2010), 1–18. <https://doi.org/10.4135/9781483348964.n1>
- [12] OpenCV. 2017. Introduction to Support Vector Machines. (December 2017). https://docs.opencv.org/2.4/doc/tutorials/ml/introduction_to_svm/introduction_to_svm.html
- [13] OpenML. 2013. 10-fold Crossvalidation. (2013). <https://www.openml.org/a/estimation-procedures/1>
- [14] Savan Patel. 2017. Chapter 5: Random Forest Classifier. (May 2017). <https://medium.com/machine-learning-101/chapter-5-random-forest-classifier-56dc7425c3e1>
- [15] Sunil Ray. 2015. 6 Easy Steps to Learn Naive Bayes Algorithm (with codes in Python and R). (September 2015). <https://www.analyticsvidhya.com/blog/2017/09/naive-bayes-explained/>
- [16] Sunil Ray. 2015. Understanding Support Vector Machine algorithm from examples (along with code). (October 2015). <https://www.analyticsvidhya.com/blog/2017/09/understanding-support-vector-machine-example-code/>
- [17] Dr. Saed Sayad. 2010. Decision Tree - Classification. (2010). http://www.saedsayad.com/decision_tree.htm
- [18] MedCalc Software. 2017. Logistic regression. (February 2017). https://www.medcalc.org/manual/logistic_regression.php
- [19] Pang-Ning Tan, Michael Steinbach, and Vipin Kumar. 2006. *Introduction to Data Mining*. Addison Wesley.
- [20] Wikipedia. 2017. Naive Bayes classifier. (December 2017). https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Naive_Bayes_classifier
- [21] Wikipedia. 2017. Random forest. (November 2017). https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Random_forest
- [22] Wikipedia. 2017. Support vector machine. (December 2017). https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Support_vector_machine
- [23] Hui Xiong, Gaurav Pandey, Michael Steinbach, and Vipin Kumar. 2005. Enhancing Data Analysis with Noise Removal. (2005). <https://doi.org/10.21236/ada439494>

A CODE ATTACHMENT

```
##Author: Yuchen Liu HID213, Wen Xuanhan HID209, Junjie Lu
##ID214
##Data: 2017.12.01
```

```

##Reference:
    http://blog.csdn.net/tinkle181129/article/details/55261251

from datetime import datetime
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import pandas as pd
from numpy import *
from sklearn import svm
from sklearn import tree
from sklearn.cross_validation import cross_val_score
from sklearn.decomposition import PCA
from sklearn.ensemble import RandomForestClassifier
from sklearn.linear_model import LogisticRegression
from sklearn.naive_bayes import GaussianNB

# 1. read data from csv
def read_data():
    data_set = pd.read_csv("train.csv")
    data = data_set.values[0:, 1:]
    label = data_set.values[0:, 0]
    print("Data load completed.")
    return data, label

# plot 70 samples
def show_pic(data):
    print(shape(data))
    plt.figure(figsize=(7, 7))
    for digit_num in range(0, 70):
        plt.subplot(7, 10, digit_num + 1)
        grid_data = data[digit_num].reshape(28, 28)
        plt.imshow(grid_data, interpolation="none",
                   cmap="afmhot")
        plt.xticks([])
        plt.yticks([])
    plt.tight_layout()
    plt.savefig("data_samples.png")

# 2. Data Cleaning
# The data is from 0-255 for each cell.
# Normalize data by set all value > 0 to 1
def data_clean(data):
    m, n = shape(data)
    new_data = zeros((m, n))
    for i in range(m):
        for j in range(n):
            if data[i, j] > 0:
                new_data[i, j] = 1
            else:
                new_data[i, j] = 0
    print("Data clean completed.")
    return new_data

# 3. Feature Selection by PCA
def feature_selection(data):
    # First, use explained_variance to get recommended
    # number of component
    pca = PCA()
    # pca_parameter = pca.fit(data)

pca.fit(data)
ev = pca.explained_variance_
ev_ratio = []
for i in range(len(ev)):
    ev_ratio.append(ev[i] / ev[0])

# select number of component which have a higher ratio
# than 0.05 with the first components
n = 0
for i in range(len(ev_ratio)):
    if ev_ratio[i] < 0.05:
        n = i
        # print(n)
        break

# Then, PCA the model by the number of components
# pca = PCA(n_components=n, whiten=True)
pca = PCA(n_components=n, whiten=True)
print("Feature selection completed.")
return pca.fit_transform(data)

# 4. Model Selection
def model_acc(data, label, model):
    start = datetime.now()
    acc = cross_val_score(model, data, label,
                          scoring="accuracy").mean()
    end = datetime.now()
    time_use = (end - start).seconds
    print("Time use: ", time_use)
    print("Accuracy by cross validation: ", acc)

def dt_classifier(data, label, data_type):
    dt_model = tree.DecisionTreeRegressor()
    dt_model.fit(data, label)
    print("Test " + data_type + " using DT: ")
    model_acc(data, label, dt_model)

def nb_classifier(data, label, data_type):
    nb_model = GaussianNB()
    nb_model.fit(data, label)
    print("Test " + data_type + " using NB: ")
    model_acc(data, label, nb_model)

def lr_classifier(data, label, data_type):
    lr_model = LogisticRegression()
    lr_model.fit(data, label)
    print("Test " + data_type + " using LR: ")
    model_acc(data, label, lr_model)

def rf_classifier(data, label, flag):
    rf_model = RandomForestClassifier(n_estimators=100)
    rf_model.fit(data, label)
    print("Test " + flag + " using RF: ")
    model_acc(data, label, rf_model)

def svm_classifier(data, label, flag):

```

```

svm_model = svm.SVC(kernel="rbf", C=10)
svm_model.fit(data, label)
# svc_clf = NuSVC(nu=0.1, kernel='rbf', verbose=True)
print("Test " + flag + " using SVM: ")
model_acc(data, label, svm_model)

def main():
    data, label = read_data()
    # show_pic(data)
    clean_data = data_clean(data)

    test_type = 3
    for i in range(1, 3):
        print("In %d test" % i)

        if test_type == 0:
            input_data = data
            str = "raw data"
        elif test_type == 1:
            input_data = clean_data
            str = "clean data"
        elif test_type == 2:
            input_data = feature_selection(data)
            str = "pca data"
        elif test_type == 3:
            input_data = feature_selection(clean_data)
            str = "pca clean data"

        dt_classifier(input_data, label, str)
        nb_classifier(input_data, label, str)
        lr_classifier(input_data, label, str)
        rf_classifier(input_data, label, str)
        svm_classifier(input_data, label, str)

```

main()

LIST OF FIGURES

1 70 samples of hand-drawn digits in this data set.

14

1 0 1 4 0 0 7 3 5 3
8 9 1 3 3 1 2 0 7 5
8 6 2 0 2 3 6 9 9 7
8 9 4 9 2 1 3 1 1 4
9 1 4 4 2 6 3 7 7 4
7 5 1 9 0 2 2 3 9 1
1 1 5 0 6 3 4 8 1 0

Figure 1: 70 samples of hand-drawn digits in this data set.

LIST OF TABLES

1	Result For Decision Tree	16
2	Result For Navie Bayes	16
3	Result For Logistic Regression	16
4	Result For Random Forest	16
5	Result For Support Vector Machine	17
6	Result For Different Algorithm with Different Data Cleaning & Feature Extraction method	17

	PCA Data	PCA Clean Data	Clean Data
Time	12	9	20
Accuracy	0.8012	0.8234	0.8378

Table 1: Result For Decision Tree

	PCA Data	PCA Clean Data	Clean Data
Time	0	0	20
Accuracy	0.8651	0.8710	0.5397

Table 2: Result For Navie Bayes

	PCA Data	PCA Clean Data	Clean Data
Time	27	21	218
Accuracy	0.8891	0.8862	0.9064

Table 3: Result For Logistic Regression

	PCA Data	PCA Clean Data	Clean Data
Time	126	107	56
Accuracy	0.9483	0.9497	0.9647

Table 4: Result For Random Forest

	PCA Data	PCA Clean Data	Clean Data
Time	127	90	1029
Accuracy	0.9814	0.9785	0.9575

Table 5: Result For Support Vector Machine

	Decision Tree	Naive Bayes	Logistic Regression	Random Forest	Support Vector Machine
PCA Time	12	0	27	126	127
PCA Accuracy	0.8012	0.8651	0.8891	0.9483	0.9813
PCA Clean Time	9	0	21	107	90
PCA Clean Accuracy	0.8234	0.8710	0.8862	0.9497	0.9785
Clean Time	20	6	218	56	1029
Clean Accuracy	0.8378	0.5397	0.9064	0.9647	0.9575

Table 6: Result For Different Algorithm with Different Data Cleaning & Feature Extraction method

bibtext report

=====

This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
Warning--entry type for "cart" isn't style-file defined
--line 5 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "sklearn.cv" isn't style-file defined
--line 57 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "sklearn.dt" isn't style-file defined
--line 68 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "svm.form" isn't style-file defined
--line 117 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "10f.cv" isn't style-file defined
--line 129 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "sp.rfc" isn't style-file defined
--line 139 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "nb.steps" isn't style-file defined
--line 150 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "svm.code" isn't style-file defined
--line 162 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "ss.dt" isn't style-file defined
--line 174 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "lr.form" isn't style-file defined
--line 185 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "wiki.nb" isn't style-file defined
--line 208 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "wiki.rf" isn't style-file defined
--line 219 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "wiki.svm" isn't style-file defined
--line 231 of file report.bib
Warning--no number and no volume in PCA
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in PCA
Warning--no number and no volume in DT
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in DT
Warning--no number and no volume in feature_extra
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in feature_extra
Warning--no number and no volume in NB
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in NB
Warning--no number and no volume in LR
Warning--empty address in intro.dm
Warning--no journal in data_clean
Warning--no number and no volume in data_clean

```
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in data_clean  
(There were 26 warnings)
```

```
bibtext _ label error
```

```
=====
```

```
report.bib:243:@Article{data_clean,  
report.bib:89:@Article{feature_extra,
```

```
=====
```

```
bibtext space label error
```

```
=====
```

```
bibtext comma label error
```

```
=====
```

```
latex report
```

```
[2017-12-08 04.00.05] pdflatex report.tex  
This is pdfTeX, Version 3.14159265-2.6-1.40.17 (TeX Live 2016) (preloaded format=pdflatex)  
Missing character: ""  
Missing character: ""  
bookmark level for unknown defaults to 0.  
The anchor of a bookmark and its parent's must not be the same. Added a new anchor.  
The anchor of a bookmark and its parent's must not be the same. Added a new anchor.  
Typesetting of "report.tex" completed in 1.3s.  
./README.yml  
62:69 error trailing spaces (trailing-spaces)  
63:70 error trailing spaces (trailing-spaces)  
64:71 error trailing spaces (trailing-spaces)  
65:70 error trailing spaces (trailing-spaces)  
66:70 error trailing spaces (trailing-spaces)  
67:71 error trailing spaces (trailing-spaces)  
68:67 error trailing spaces (trailing-spaces)  
69:73 error trailing spaces (trailing-spaces)  
70:75 error trailing spaces (trailing-spaces)  
71:70 error trailing spaces (trailing-spaces)  
72:69 error trailing spaces (trailing-spaces)  
73:69 error trailing spaces (trailing-spaces)  
74:71 error trailing spaces (trailing-spaces)  
76:69 error trailing spaces (trailing-spaces)  
77:70 error trailing spaces (trailing-spaces)  
78:73 error trailing spaces (trailing-spaces)  
84:81 error line too long (85 > 80 characters) (line-length)
```

```
=====
Compliance Report
=====
```

```
name: Liu, Yuchen
hid: 213
paper1: Oct 06 2017 100%
paper2: Nov 06 2017 100%
project: Dec 04 2017 100%
```

```
yamlcheck
-----
```

```
wordcount
-----
```

```
17
wc 213 project 17 8945 report.tex
wc 213 project 17 9026 report.pdf
wc 213 project 17 719 report.bib
```

```
find "
-----
```

```
151: print("Data clean completed.")

242: acc = cross_val_score(model, data, label, cv=5,
                           scoring="accuracy").mean()

246: print("Time use: ", time_use)

247: print("Accuracy by cross validation: ", acc)

294: print("Test " + data_type + " using DT: ")

387: print("Test " + data_type + " using NB: ")

468: print("Test " + data_type + " using LR: ")

557: print("Test " + flag + " using RF: ")

793: data_set = pd.read_csv("train.csv")
```

```
796: print("Data load completed.")

807: plt.imshow(grid_data, interpolation="none", cmap="afmhot")

811: plt.savefig("data_samples.png")

826: print("Data clean completed.")

853: print("Feature selection completed.")

860: acc = cross_val_score(model, data, label,
    scoring="accuracy").mean()

863: print("Time use: ", time_use)

864: print("Accuracy by cross validation: ", acc)

870: print("Test " + data_type + " using DT: ")

877: print("Test " + data_type + " using NB: ")

884: print("Test " + data_type + " using LR: ")

891: print("Test " + flag + " using RF: ")

896: svm_model = svm.SVC(kernel="rbf", C=10)

899: print("Test " + flag + " using SVM: ")

910: print("In %d test" % i)

914: str = "raw data"

917: str = "clean data"

920: str = "pca data"

923: str = "pca clean data"

passed: False

find footnote
-----
passed: True
```

```
find input{format/i523}
-----
4: \input{format/i523}

passed: True

find input{format/final}
-----
passed: False

floats
-----
107: \begin{figure}
108: \includegraphics[width=0.35\columnwidth]{images/data_samples}

figures 1
tables 0
includegraphics 1
labels 0
refs 0
floats 1

True : ref check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
True : label check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
True : include graphics passed: (figures >= includegraphics)
True : check if all figures are referred to: (refs >= labels)

Label/ref check
105: In train.csv data file, it contains $42000$ gray-scale images of hand-drawn digits, from zero through nine. Each image is a $28 \times 28$ pixels matrix with a total of 784 pixels \cite{kaggle}. Each pixel has a single pixel-value which is an integer from 0 to 255 associated with it, indicating the lightness or darkness of that pixel (higher numbers meaning lighter). In this experiment, we have plotted the graph in order to see the appearance of these digits easily. Figure 1 shows the first 70 samples.
331: From table 1, we can find that the Decision Tree algorithm has a highest accuracy 0.8378 when we use Clean data. That's because the Clean data contains all 784 features in the data set. It has the minimum information loss among all three data sets. Clean data also have the longest running time, which is 20 seconds.
```

passed: False -> labels or refs used wrong

When using figures use columnwidth
[width=1.0\columnwidth]
do not change the number to a smaller fraction

find textwidth

passed: True

below_check

WARNING: figure and above may be used improperly

126: As we mentioned above, it can be seen from both the figure and the pixel-value that the value varies from 0 to 255, which means each feature is a continuous value. Thus, it is possible that such continuous values might affect our later feature selection. Our observation shows that the values are not very high at the boundaries of 0 and \$>0\$. So here exist three ways to handle it \cite{data_clean}:

WARNING: code and below may be used improperly

625: In Python, scikit-learn is a widely used library for implementing machine learning algorithms, SVM is also available in the scikit-learn library and follows the same structure (Import library, object creation, fitting model and prediction). Let's look at the below code \cite{svm.code}:

WARNING: algorithm and below may be used improperly

625: In Python, scikit-learn is a widely used library for implementing machine learning algorithms, SVM is also available in the scikit-learn library and follows the same structure (Import library, object creation, fitting model and prediction). Let's look at the below code \cite{svm.code}:

bibtex

label errors

89: feature_extra: do not use underscore in labels:
243: data_clean: do not use underscore in labels:

bibtex errors

This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
Warning--entry type for "cart" isn't style-file defined
--line 5 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "sklearn.cv" isn't style-file defined
--line 57 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "sklearn.dt" isn't style-file defined
--line 68 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "svm.form" isn't style-file defined
--line 117 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "10f.cv" isn't style-file defined
--line 129 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "sp.rfc" isn't style-file defined
--line 139 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "nb.steps" isn't style-file defined
--line 150 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "svm.code" isn't style-file defined
--line 162 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "ss.dt" isn't style-file defined
--line 174 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "lr.form" isn't style-file defined
--line 185 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "wiki.nb" isn't style-file defined
--line 208 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "wiki.rf" isn't style-file defined
--line 219 of file report.bib
Warning--entry type for "wiki.svm" isn't style-file defined
--line 231 of file report.bib
Warning--no number and no volume in PCA
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in PCA
Warning--no number and no volume in DT
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in DT
Warning--no number and no volume in feature_extra
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in feature_extra
Warning--no number and no volume in NB
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in NB
Warning--no number and no volume in LR

```
Warning--empty address in intro.dm
Warning--no journal in data_clean
Warning--no number and no volume in data_clean
Warning--page numbers missing in both pages and numpages fields in data_clean
(There were 26 warnings)
```

```
bibtex_empty_fields
```

```
entries in general should not be empty in bibtex
```

```
find ""
```

```
passed: True
```

```
ascii
```

```
non ascii found 65292
```

```
=====
The following tests are optional
=====
```

```
Tip: newlines can often be replaced just by an empty line
```

```
find newline
```

```
passed: True
```

```
cites should have a space before \cite{} but not before the {
```

```
find cite {
```

```
passed: True
```

CMD5 Plugin to Create a Docker Swarm Cluster on 3 Raspberry PIs

Andres Castro Benavides
Indiana University
107 S. Indiana Avenue
Bloomington, Indiana 43017-6221
acastrob@iu.edu

Uma M Kugan
Indiana University
107 S. Indiana Avenue
Bloomington, Indiana 43017-6221
umakugan@iu.edu

ABSTRACT

Information technologies are evolving from mainly one-host environments to more distributed environment. Docker Swarm makes it possible to avoid having a single point of failure and instead, have multiple nodes that can be properly balanced and contain replicas of the information. Currently, Dockers must be individually downloaded, installed and configured on each physical computer in order for the desired computers to work in swarm mode. This paper details the development of a plug-in that would allow CloudMesh to deploy a Docker Swarm cluster. The creation of this plug-in would be the first step towards the development of a tool which would allow larger debian based networks to work as container oriented virtual environments with optimized usage of resources.

KEYWORDS

Raspberry Pi, Cloudmesh, CMD5, Big Data, Big Data, i523, HID305, HID323

1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Docker: Swarm mode, Current Use, Installation and Configuration

Docker is the technology used for containerization for software development. It is an open source tool which makes it easy to deploy applications. Applications are packaged in containers and then it is shipped to all the platforms that is supposed to work with. Applications are divided into manageable sizes and all the dependent functions are added and individually packaged. Both Linux and Windows are supported by Docker.

Docker Swarm is a clustering and scheduling tool for Docker containers. A swarm is nothing but multiple Docker hosts which run in swarm mode and act as managers to manage delegation and workers will run swarm services). A given Docker host can be a manager or a worker or it can perform both roles. If any of the worker node becomes unavailable, manager schedules that node's tasks on other nodes. A node is an instance of the docker engine participating in the swarm [?].

A swarm is made up of multiple nodes. We need to execute docker swarm init to enable swarm mode and to make current machine a swarm manager, run docker swarm join on other machines to add them to the swarm as workers and run docker node ls on the manager to view the nodes in this swarm.

Docker Swarms are used to orchestrate processes, optimizing the use of resources across clusters. In other words, the use of Docker Swarms allow individual computers to work as a cluster, sharing their RAM, processors, physical memory, among other features

or abilities. The docker, when used in swarm mode, evaluates the assets across the network and manages tasks in real time. Each computer can contribute its assets to complete tasks in the most efficient way. It is dynamic and adapts based on the available resources and current demands.

In order to set up a Docker Swarm, there needs to be direct access to each machine that will be used as a node (an instance of Docker that will be part of the swarm). In order to set up the nodes, the docker must be independently installed and configured on each machine. Then, each machine must be added to the swarm, allowing it to communicate or interact with the other nodes.

This process not only requires human resources (technicians working on installation and configuration) but also demands these actions be repeated manually on each individual node or manager. While this can be done virtually, it still requires individual attention in the setup of each machine. In order to optimize the setup of Docker Swarms, CloudMesh could be utilized to centralize installation and configuration of every node and manager.

1.1.1 Inside Docker. The four main internal components of docker are Docker Client and Server, Docker Images, Docker Registries, and Docker Containers.

1.1.2 Docker Client and Server. The docker server gets the request from the docker client and then processes it accordingly. Docker server and docker client can either run on the same machine or a local docker client can be connected with a remote server running on another machine [?]. Fig. 1 Docker architecture [?].

1.1.3 Docker Images. Base images are the operating system images such as Ubuntu 14.04 LTS, or Fedora 20 which creates a container to run operating system. The docker file contains a list of instructions to build an image. When using docker, we start with a base image, boot up, create changes and those changes are saved in layers forming another image [?].

1.1.4 Docker Registries. Docker images are placed in docker registries. It is the same as source code repositories where images can be pushed or pulled from a single source.

1.1.5 Docker Containers. Docker image creates a docker container. Containers have everything for the application to run on its own.

1.2 Benefits of using Docker

1.2.1 Open Source Technology. The Docker containers are based on open standards which means that anyone can contribute to the Docker tool and at the same time customize it for their needs, if the features they are looking for is not already available.

1.2.2 Portability. Docker makes distributed applications to be dynamic and portable which can be run anywhere which makes it extremely popular among developers.

1.2.3 Sharing. Docker is integrated with a software sharing and distribution mechanism that allows for sharing and using container content which helps the tasks of both the developer and the operations team.

1.2.4 Elimination of Environmental Inconsistencies. Any changes made in one environment will be shared across other environment or all the applications can exist in the single environment.

1.2.5 Resource Isolation. Resource isolation adds to the security of running containers on a given host. Docker uses Namespaces technology to isolate work spaces called containers. Namespace is created when container is run and access is limited to that namespace only. Every container in Docker will have its own work space which makes it easier debug if there are issues with any particular container.

1.2.6 Easy Integration. Docker can be easily integrated into a variety of infrastructure tools like Amazon Web Services, Ansible, IBM Bluemix, Jenkins, Google Cloud Platform, Oracle Container Cloud Service, Microsoft Azure to name a few.

1.2.7 Better Security. Docker provides a interface for developers and IT teams to define and manage their security configurations for applications as it navigates from one stage to another.

1.3 Docker - Use Cases

The Docker platform is the only container platform to build, secure and manage the variety of applications from development to production both on premises and in the cloud. It also creates room for innovation, increases time to market, highly agile. Docker supports diverse set of applications and infrastructure for both developers and IT. It transforms IT without having to re-tool, re-code or re-vamp existing applications, policies or staff [?].

1.4 DevOps

The main goal of DevOps is to eliminate the gap between the developers and IT operations team. Docker with DevOps get the developers and operations team to work together so that they both understand the challenges faced by each other, apply DevOps practices [?].

1.5 CI/CD

Continuous Integration and Continuous Deployment (CI/CD) are the most common use cases of Docker. Continuous Integration testing and Continuous Deployment allows developers to build codes, test them in any environment. Docker integration with Jenkins and GitHub making it easier for developers to build codes, test them in GitHub and trigger a build in Jenkins and adding the image in Docker registries [?].

1.6 Docker Containers As A Service

Docker help any organization to modernize their application architecture. It can deploy scalable services securely on a wide variety

of platforms, improving flexibility and maximizing capacity. Best use case for Docker installation is the US Government where they enhanced their applications and made their components and services of their system and easily transportable/shareable with other agencies within the government [?].

1.7 Docker - Services

1.7.1 Docker Engine. Docker Engine is the foundation for the application platform which is used for creating and running Docker containers. It is supported on Linux, Windows, Cloud and Mac OS. It is lightweight, open source and integrated with a work flow to build and containerize applications. User interface is very simple and it makes the environment easily portable from single container on single host to multiple applications on a many number of hosts [?].

1.7.2 Docker Enterprise. Docker Enterprise provides an integrated platform for both developers and IT operations team where container management and deployment services are together for end-to-end agile application portability. It is easy to manage, monitor and secure images both within the registry and those deployed across various clusters [?].

1.7.3 Docker Hub. Docker Hub functions as a hosted registry service that helps you store, manage, share and integrate images across various developer work flows. Integration testing is done each time when the image is shared [?].

1.7.4 Docker Compose. Docker Compose is a tool that developers deploy to define and run all multi-container Docker applications. Single host can be used to isolate multiple environments, even if they are of the same name. Data volume is copied automatically from old container whenever a new container is created. Compose uses the previous configuration to create the new container which reduces the time for replicating the same changes to the environment [?].

1.8 What is CloudMesh

CloudMesh is an innovative tool that allows communication and interaction between cloud based solutions. Not all clouds are docker based and there are different types of virtual and cloud environments. Through CloudMesh, data can be shared and utilized by cloud solutions that are not otherwise programed to communicate with each other. Cloud mesh does not just manage a series of clouds, but centralizes and deploys them as one main system that manages the data resources.

Quote teacher= Cloudmesh is a project to easily manage virtual machines and bare metal provisioned operating systems in a multicloud environment. We are also providing the ability to deploy platforms.

1.9 Creating CloudMesh plug-ins

what it currently does and has the potential to do. By creating CloudMesh plug-ins, it is possible to extend its potential from different kinds of cloud based environments interconnection to deployment of a container management system, in this case, Docker .

Utilizing CloudMesh to Centralize Docker Swarm Installation Cloud Mesh does not have a plugin that allows you to deploy

container solutions on physical networks. Create a plugin that would allow Cloud Mesh to deploy container solutions (in this case, the Swarm mode of Docker) to a physical devient based network (in this case, a series of raspberry pies). Could be used as a model to deploy other types of container oriented solutions. It is taking a simple network (Debian based network and allowing it to centralize resources and assigning tasks and optimizing different functions by installing a container management system, called Docker Swarm.

In order to simulate the deployment of a Docker Swarm cluster, this Cloudmesh project develops a Cloudmesh plugin, that deploys a Docker Swarm cluster on three Raspberry Pis, allowing them to be part of this multi cloud environment.

The cloud mesh allows Methods you to deploy the Docker Swarms (are container management tools) to the raspberry pies.

2 METHODS: PROPOSED SOLUTION

About the current solution:

2.1 Hardware

For the current proposed solution, the different pieces of hardware were chosen based on criteria such as Compatibility and Price.

The following is a list of the hardware that was used and below that list there is a description of each piece of hardware that was used.

3 Raspberry Pi 3 Micro SD Cards (64 GB) 3 USB to Micro USB Cables for power supply to the Raspberry Pifis 1 External monitor (for the configuration only).

2.1.1 Raspberry Pi. For this experiment, the 3 machines that were used were Raspberry Pi 3 Model B. Raspberry Pis are single boarded computers, that come in a small presentation. They have been developed with education and extension in mind, making them very popular in the academic and entrepreneur communities. The specifications of the model that has been used for this experiment are the following:

CPU: 1.2 GHZ quad-core ARM Cortex A53 (ARMv8 Instruction Set) GPU: Broadcom VideoCore IV @ 400 MHz Memory: 1 GB LPDDR2-900 SDRAM USB ports: 4 Network: 10/100 MBPS Ethernet, 802.11n Wireless LAN, Bluetooth 4.0 Cite <https://hackaday.com/2016/02/28/introducing-the-raspberry-pi-3/>

They are interacting with each other using a private wireless network, and they have been assigned static Internet Protocol Addresses. In this case 192.168.1.85, 192.168.1.86 and 192.168.1.87.

2.1.2 Micro SD Cards. Because of its architecture, Raspberry devices require the use of Micro SD Cards to contain the Operative system and other files. They emulate the Hard drive resource used on other kinds of computers. The reason that it is required to have at least 16 GB of memory, is because there will be several pieces of software installed in the devices, each one of them with different requirements:

Docker Memory Requirements:

fi 8GB of RAM for manager nodes or nodes running DTR fi 4GB of RAM for worker nodes fi 3GB of free disk space /citedockerdoc2017

So at least 12 of the GB would be required for Docker and 4 GB used for the proper functioning of Raspbian. /citerpicards2017

Taking these requirements in consideration, there should be a minimum of 16GB of free space in the MicroSD in order to perform this experiment.

The MicroSD cards used were SanDisc Memory Cards with a 64GB capacity.

2.1.3 Micro USB Cables. 3 USB to Micro USB Cables for power supply to the Raspberry Pifis Since these small computers don't use the regular power supply chords, they are equipped with MicroUSB ports to power the device. All of these devices are plugged to a main power outlet that allows to charge multiple devices at the same time. There are other options to power the devices include, such as attaching them to external batteries.

2.1.4 External monitor. Since the Raspberry Pifis are headless machines, they require to be accessed directly for the initial set up and after that it is possible to continue the configuration and installation process using any kind of remote access, like SSH or RealVNC. For this initial connection, any kind of screen that is HDMI compatible is useful. In this case the initial setup of the RPis was performed on a Toshiba 55 inch HDTV with HDMI port. After that they were accessed from a Laptop computer with Linux Ubuntu 17.10, using Remmina via ssh (XORG).

2.1.5 Initial input devices. In order to set up the devices. The Raspberry Pi will require a set of initial input devices attached to each computer. For this exercise, a USB enabled standard keyboard and a USB enabled standard mouse were used.

2.2 Operative system

Currently, the default way to deploy the operating system to the Raspberry Pi is by using an Operating System installation Manager called Noobs -which stands for fiNew Out Of Box Softwarefi-. This manager can be downloaded directly from the Raspberry Pi website and it includes several Operating system options, among them:

Raspbian Pidora LibreELEC OSMC RISC OS Arch Linux

Since Raspbian is the default Operating system and most commonly used, this experiment decided to use it. This is also helpful because there is material available in different websites with instructions on how to install Docker in Debian based Machines. Raspbian is Debian based. Another important reason is that Docker has as a requirement that the Linux kernel version on which it will be installed is 3.10 or higher. The Kernel version of the version of Raspbian that was used is 4.9.

2.2.1 Raspbian. The version of Raspbian that was used has the following specifications: Release date: 2017-11-16 Kernel version: 4.9

2.2.2 Docker. There are several versions of Docker available. Each version with their own advantages and disadvantages. Because of the architecture used by Raspberry Pi -ARM instead of AMD-, the Docker version used is fiDocker for Debian ARMfi. With the following Specifications:

Version 17.09.0-ce Release 2017-09-26

This version of Docker is Community Edition (CE), which means that it is available for free and can be installed on bare metal or cloud infrastructure. This flexibility is good for the experiment,

because it will be installed on Raspberry Pifis, which are considered physical devices or bare metal Machines. Cite dockerdoc

2.3 Prerequisites

Before using the proposed solution, the userfis environment needs to meet the following requirements:

2.3.1 OS: Raspbian. Raspbian must be installed and configured on all MicroSD Cards. fi?! For this, the user may follow the OS installation guide on Raspberry Pi home page fi?! This requirement exists because there is a function that is being explored to capture Raspberry Pifis images to be deployed later on and avoid this pre requisite, but it is not ready yet.

2.3.2 OS: update repositories. In order to ensure that the user is accessing the latest version available of the software, it is important to update the Raspbian repositories. For example, the user can access the teminal and enter the following commands:

```
sudo apt-get update sudo apt-get upgrade
```

The first time that the user runs one of these commands, the user may need to enter the root password. This process might take a few minutes.

2.3.3 Remote access setup. Enable SSH on the Raspberry Pifis. fi?! After Raspbian installation, enable SSH on all your Raspberry Pi machines.

2.3.4 Changing hostnames. 3. Change Raspberry Pi Host Name fi!?

Change the labeled with fi127.0.1.1fi hostname firasperrypi in fi/etc/hostsfi file (in most of the cases it is the last line in the file). Leave all the other entries as it is. sudo nano /etc/hosts Change local Hostname in fi/etc/hostnamefi file. sudo nano /etc/hostname Initialize hostname using fihostname.shfi script sudo /etc/init.d/hostname.sh

```
Get hostname for your PI
```

```
hostname -I
```

```
sudo nmap -sn 192.168.1.0/24
```

5. Install Docker using following command fi?! For details, you may follow this link fi?! <https://www.raspberrypi.org/blog/docker-comes-to-raspberry-pi/>

```
curl -sSL https://get.docker.com -- sh
```

Run apt-get update Since Raspbian is Debian based, we will use apt to install Docker. But first, we need to update.

```
sudo apt-get update
```

After, make sure your user account can access the Docker client with this command:

usermod pi -aG docker If your username isn't pi then replace pi with alex for instance.

6. Change the default password

Type in sudo passwd pi and enter a new password, please don't skip this step!

Repeat Now repeat the above for each of the RPis.

2.3.5 Purchasing the hardware. The hardware was purchased via Amazon and took anywhere between 2 to 5 days to arrive.

2.4 steps followed. Testing shell commands prior to integrations with cloudmesh

Since Raspberry pi is not currently listed under the supported operative systems, All the commands used in Debian were successfully tested in the Raspberry Pi.

2.4.1 installing and configuring Docker Swarm. on the manager

```
sudo docker swarm init --advertise-addr 192.168.1.85
```

on the nodes, to add them to the docker group: sudo usermod -a -G docker USER

Next steps. (<https://howchoo.com/g/njy4zdm3mwy/how-to-run-a-raspberry-pi-cluster-with-docker-swarm>)

<https://medium.com/@bossjones/how-i-setup-a-raspberry-pi-3-cluster-using-the-new-docker-swarm-mode-in-29-minutes-aa0e4f3b1768>
(Configure swarm mode

```
pi85 - 192.168.1.85 pi86 - 192.168.1.86 - pi87 - 192.168.1.87
```

```
On all of them: curl -sSL https://get.docker.com -- sh
```

On the one I wanted to make a manager: sudo docker swarm init --advertise-addr 192.168.1.85

On the non manager ones, added them to the docker group: sudo usermod -a -G docker USER

<https://www.raspberrypi.org/blog/docker-comes-to-raspberry-pi/>

Info on how to constrain nodes: <https://stackoverflow.com/questions/45641674/how-to-specify-a-manager-leader-in-a-docker-swarm-constraint>

```
docker swarm join --token SWMTKN-1-0bhq5xg5u419pi8hyn9x7obp10xknehwp0dcwh20wq461ucw7om69jplsj 198.168.1.85:2377
```

To add a manager to this swarm, run 'docker swarm join-token manager' and follow the instructions.

2.4.2 Installing the components via ssh into every node. Usig the external tv, the usb keyboard and mouse, it was generated an ssh key and then we used Remmina to create a XORG ocnnction to each Raspberry pi to set it us. The components were installed in the following order: Raspbian. Updated the files using the following shell command... cloudmesh: following the instructions found in.... Docker CE ARM....Using the following commands

2.4.3 add the workers to the manager node.

2.5 Research

2.5.1 Other functions considered. For this case, initially, CaptureImage and a second function called DeployRaspbian.

```
def CaptureImage(rPiIp, imageName, password): pw = password  
imageDir = imageName ip = rPiIp with sh.contrib.sudo(pw,  
with=True): Print (ip) ssh pi@ip "echo fi +pw +fi - sudo -S dd  
if=/dev/mmcblk0 bs=1M - gzip -" - dd of=imageDir
```

this line was returning an invalid syntax, mainly because this is the terminal command trying to use the variable and calling them from python. Since there was not a lot of time the team decided to postpone both this function and the following: DeployRaspbian.

```
def DeployRaspbian(self, diskName, imageName): We will need  
to retrieve the following info from the user: Value1: disk name (I.e.  
/dev/bkp) Value2:the directory where the image is stored and name  
of the image (i.e. /Desktop/raspbian.gz). I am not sure I am using  
the variables properly diskNm = glob.glob(diskName) imageNm =  
glob.glob(imageName) pw = password in password
```

```
diskutil unmountDisk diskNm
```

```
with sh.contrib.sudo(pw, with=True):
```

```
gzip -dc diskNm – sudo dd of=imageName bs=1m conv=noerror,sync
```

2.5.2 Final code. an use the following command

```
sudo hostname hostName
```

then, on our Primary RPi we can edit fi/etc/hostsfi to add a line with the new hostname: ip hostName

Since this is a copy of an old raspbian, it will have an old ssh key. Do we have to change it? If this was more formal we would have to address it as a security concern, but same thing would have to apply being able to have root access via sshfi. What do you think?

then we install Docker: curl -sSL https://get.docker.com – sh
ssh pi@ip curl -sSL https://get.docker.com – sh we will need to If nodeType == fimanagerfi: sudo docker swarm init –advertise-addr ip

If nodeType == fiworkerfi:

```
sudo usermod -a -G docker USER
```

Def InstallDocker (newHostname, ipAddress,.nodeType) host-
Name=newHostname ip=ipAddress first the configuration part where we need to generate an ssh key and maybe Collect hostnames or change them

if we want to change the hostname, we can just overwrite the line that says fi127.0.0.1 raspberrypi -this is the default value- in the RPi directory /etc/hosts. I think that the easiest way to do it is with the following: after ssh-ing into the RPi we can use the following command

```
sudo hostname hostName
```

then, on our Primary RPi we can edit fi/etc/hostsfi to add a line with the new hostname: ip hostName

Since this is a copy of an old raspbian, it will have an old ssh key. Do we have to change it? If this was more formal we would have to address it as a security concern, but same thing would have to apply being able to have root access via sshfi. What do you think?

then we install Docker: curl -sSL https://get.docker.com – sh
ssh pi@ip curl -sSL https://get.docker.com we will need to If nodeType == fimanagerfi: sudo docker swarm init –advertise-addr ip

If nodeType == fiworkerfi:

```
sudo usermod -a -G docker USER
```

***** CMS CaptureImage (?) (lets do this one last, and just start with a golden image created by us. Ifill do that)

CMS DeployDebian (in our case it is raspbian, but if everything works well this could be used in any Debian based docker swarms as well). I see this as deploying it from a local repository, yet we can create a function to download the imagefi.Wefill see.

CMS ConfDebianForDocker change hostnames (optional) Generate ssh.

CMS InstallDocker

```
curl -sSL https://get.docker.com – sh
```

CMS ConfigureDocker (I think here we should take in from the user whether the OS will carry a Docker Manager or a worker. And whether it will join an already created swarm or create one.)

3 CONCLUSIONS

3.1 Evaluation

3.2 Challenges

In order for this exachersize of deploying DOcker to the differentRasberry Security and dynamicfi..

3.2.1 Security. Bypassing the passwords is not safe...

4 OTHER OPTIONS CONSIDERED

It says that we will need a setup.py And a py file, this is the example that we can work on bar.py

There is an Example of Date Parsing using Cloudmesh from our class here. They generated something called mycommand01.py and datepars.py

Since all of the deployment can successfully be done via terminal in Raspbian, As a team there was a decition to be man=de between two options to follow the same steps described above:

option 1. A bash script for every part of the deployment and wrap it in python. Even intertwining them like this.-the second one reminds me a lot of the way that the teacher organized the plugin development for cloudmesh- option 2.Use the SH subprocess inlcuded in python 2.5-3.5. Some info here. And more here this one looks like another nice example. For what Ive seen, they have already created Plugins to deploy other software but I have not checked that part at all, if it is similar to what we want to deploy or at least it has components we could use that would be nice. *****

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors would like to thank Dr. Gregor von Laszewski for his support and suggestions on this project.

REFERENCES

A WORK BREAKDOWN

Uma Kugan.

Andres Castro Benavides.

Editing: Andres Castro Benavides and Uma Kugan.

```
bibtext report
```

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
I couldn't open database file main.bib
---line 81 of file report.aux
 : \bibdata{main}
 :
I'm skipping whatever remains of this command
I found no database files---while reading file report.aux
Warning--I didn't find a database entry for "dockersdoc"
Warning--I didn't find a database entry for "turnbull2014docker"
Warning--I didn't find a database entry for "rad2017introduction"
Warning--I didn't find a database entry for "hackernoon"
(There were 2 error messages)
make[2]: *** [bibtex] Error 2
```

```
latex report
```

```
[2017-12-08 04.02.34] pdflatex report.tex
This is pdfTeX, Version 3.14159265-2.6-1.40.17 (TeX Live 2016) (preloaded format=pdflatex)
p.1 L44   : [dockersdoc] undefined
p.1 L59   : [turnbull2014docker] undefined
p.1 L60   : [turnbull2014docker] undefined
p.1 L62   : [rad2017introduction] undefined
p.2 L85   : [hackernoon] undefined
p.2 L87   : [hackernoon] undefined
p.2 L89   : [hackernoon] undefined
p.2 L91   : [hackernoon] undefined
p.2 L95   : [hackernoon] undefined
p.2 L97   : [hackernoon] undefined
p.2 L99   : [hackernoon] undefined
p.2 L102  : [hackernoon] undefined
Missing character: ""
```



```
Missing character: ""
Empty 'thebibliography' environment.
There were undefined citations.
Typesetting of "report.tex" completed in 0.9s.
./README.yml
7:81      error      line too long (370 > 80 characters) (line-length)
14:81     error      line too long (85 > 80 characters) (line-length)
18:1      error      trailing spaces (trailing-spaces)
```

Compliance Report

```
name: Uma M Kugan
hid: 323
paper1: Review Date 11.10.2017
paper2: Review Date 11.06.2017
project: Dec 04 17 0%
```

```
yamlcheck
```

```
wordcount
```

```
6
wc 323 project 6 4143 report.tex
wc 323 project 6 3985 report.pdf
wc 323 project 6 104 report.bib
```

```
find "
```

```
341: ssh pi@ip "echo +pw + +| sudo -S dd if=/dev/mmcblk0 bs=1M |
      gzip -" | dd of=imageDir
```

```
passed: False
```

```
find footnote
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find input{format/i523}
```

```
4: \input{format/i523}
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find input{format/final}
```

```
passed: False
```

```
floats
```

```
figures 0  
tables 0  
includegraphics 0  
labels 0  
refs 0  
floats 0
```

```
True : ref check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
```

```
True : label check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
```

```
True : include graphics passed: (figures >= includegraphics)
```

```
True : check if all figures are refered to: (refs >= labels)
```

```
Label/ref check
```

```
passed: True
```

```
When using figures use columnwidth
```

```
[width=1.0\columnwidth]
```

```
do not change the number to a smaller fraction
```

```
find textwidth
```

```
passed: True
```

```
below_check
```

```
bibtex
```

```
label errors
```

```
bibtex errors
```

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
I couldn't open database file main.bib
---line 81 of file report.aux
: \bibdata{main
:
}
I'm skipping whatever remains of this command
I found no database files---while reading file report.aux
Warning--I didn't find a database entry for "dockersdoc"
Warning--I didn't find a database entry for "turnbull2014docker"
Warning--I didn't find a database entry for "rad2017introduction"
Warning--I didn't find a database entry for "hackernoon"
(There were 2 error messages)
```

```
bibtex_empty_fields
```

```
entries in general should not be empty in bibtex
```

```
find ""
```

```
passed: True
```

```
ascii
```

non ascii found 8217
non ascii found 8217
non ascii found 8226
non ascii found 8226
non ascii found 8226
non ascii found 8217
non ascii found 8217
non ascii found 8220
non ascii found 8221
non ascii found 8220
non ascii found 8221
non ascii found 8217
non ascii found 8217
non ascii found 8211
non ascii found 8211
non ascii found 8217
non ascii found 8217
non ascii found 8211
non ascii found 8211
non ascii found 8220
non ascii found 8221
non ascii found 8211
non ascii found 8211
non ascii found 8221
non ascii found 8221
non ascii found 8221
non ascii found 8221
non ascii found 65279
non ascii found 65279
non ascii found 8220
non ascii found 8221
non ascii found 8230
non ascii found 8220
non ascii found 8221
non ascii found 8220
non ascii found 8221
non ascii found 8220
non ascii found 8221

```
non ascii found 8220
non ascii found 8221
non ascii found 8230
non ascii found 8220
non ascii found 8221
non ascii found 8220
non ascii found 8221
non ascii found 8217
non ascii found 8230
non ascii found 8217
non ascii found 8230
```

```
=====
The following tests are optional
=====
```

```
Tip: newlines can often be replaced just by an empty line
```

```
find newline
-----
```

```
passed: True
cites should have a space before \cite{} but not before the {
```

```
find cite {
-----
```

```
passed: True
```

New Approaches to Managing Metadata at Scale in Research Libraries

Timothy A. Thompson

Indiana University Bloomington

School of Informatics, Computing, and Engineering

Bloomington, Indiana 47408

timathom@indiana.edu

ABSTRACT

The analysis of big data often relies on distributed storage and computation; however, access to big data—and to the platforms capable of managing and processing it—continues to be largely centralized. Centralization is particularly evident in the case of the metadata produced, managed, and disseminated by academic and research libraries. Libraries typically create and share their catalog records by uploading them to a central data warehouse, which can then be searched by other libraries for records that can be copied and added to an institution’s local catalog. Centralization has the advantage of scalability and availability, but it comes at the cost of a loss of autonomy. Existing metadata workflows can be optimized through the adoption of entity resolution and machine learning algorithms, including approaches based on neural network models. Although innovation is possible within the current paradigm, it can only reach its full potential in the context of peer-to-peer platforms that would allow libraries to share their data directly.

KEYWORDS

i523, HID340, Research Libraries, Library Catalogs, Entity Resolution, Neural Networks

1 INTRODUCTION

The problem of entity resolution (also known as record linkage or data matching [?]) is one that has a direct impact on the work of information professionals in research libraries. In library units responsible for catalog management, many workflows center on a procedure known as copy cataloging, which aims to expedite the processing of new acquisitions. Copy cataloging involves searching a shared database for records created by another cataloging agency, but that describe identical publications that have been acquired locally [?]. In the current environment, a single company, the Online Computer Library Center (OCLC—<http://www.oclc.org>), is the only viable platform for global cooperative cataloging [?]. OCLC provides data aggregation and warehousing services that allow libraries to effectively share their data, but its business model does not encourage peer-to-peer interaction and innovation among individual libraries. This centralized model, which operates on the basis of membership fees, has the advantage of scalability and availability, but it comes at the cost of a loss of control over the data itself, and it entails the acceptance of a business model that, in effect, charges libraries for serving their own data back to them.

2 NEW APPROACHES TO METADATA MANAGEMENT

Libraries have a tradition of experience with record matching and automation [?], but now stand to benefit from the increasingly mainstream availability of algorithms and routines developed within the context of data science and machine learning. Sophisticated algorithms for string comparison and probabilistic data record linkage have long been available, but are not widely used by libraries, with the exception of large-scale projects such as the Social Networks and Archival Context Project (SNAC) (<http://snaccooperative.org/>) and the Virtual International Authority File (VIAF) (<http://viaf.org/>). The former has employed methods based on Naïve Bayes classification algorithms to aggregate and disambiguate data from across a wide range of libraries and archives. The reported accuracy of this approach fell with the range of 80-90 percent.

2.1 Neural Networks for Data Matching

3 CONCLUSION

The blockchain-based database BigchainDB (written in Python) provides an alternative, and to benefit from features such as data immutability and an asset-based transactional model. A working prototype installation of a BigchainDB node has the potential to provide an example of how libraries can abandon centralized models for managing their data at scale.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The author would like to thank Dr. Gregor von Laszewski and the i523 teaching assistants for their support and suggestions in writing this report.

REFERENCES

```
bibtext report
```

```
=====
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
Warning--I didn't find a database entry for "pC12"
Warning--I didn't find a database entry for "cD17"
Warning--I didn't find a database entry for "aT10"
Warning--I didn't find a database entry for "jM92"
(There were 4 warnings)
```

```
bibtext _ label error
```

```
=====
bibtext space label error
```

```
=====
bibtext comma label error
```

```
=====
latex report
```

```
=====
[2017-12-08 04.03.57] pdflatex report.tex
This is pdfTeX, Version 3.14159265-2.6-1.40.17 (TeX Live 2016) (preloaded format=pdflatex)
p.1 L31 : [pC12] undefined
p.1 L31 : [cD17] undefined
p.1 L31 : [aT10] undefined
p.1 L34 : [jM92] undefined
Empty 'thebibliography' environment.
There were undefined citations.
Typesetting of "report.tex" completed in 0.8s.
```

```
=====
Compliance Report
=====
```

```
name: Tim Thompson
hid: 340
```

```
paper1: Oct 25 17 100%
paper2: 100% Nov 8 17
project: Dec 7 17 66%
```

```
yamlcheck
```

```
wordcount
```

```
(null)
wc 340 project (null) 607 report.tex
wc 340 project (null) 573 report.pdf
wc 340 project (null) 730 report.bib
```

```
find "
```

35: Libraries have a tradition of experience with record matching and automation \cite{jM92}, but now stand to benefit from the increasingly mainstream availability of algorithms and routines developed within the context of data science and machine learning. Sophisticated algorithms for string comparison and probabilistic data record linkage have long been available, but are not widely used by libraries, with the exception of large-scale projects such as the Social Networks and Archival Context Project (SNAC) (\url{http://snaccooperative.org/}) and the Virtual International Authority File (VIAF) (\url{http://viaf.org/}). The former has employed methods based on Naive Bayes classification algorithms to aggregate and disambiguate data from across a wide range of libraries and archives. The reported accuracy of this approach fell with the range of 80-90 percent.

```
passed: False
```

```
find footnote
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find input{format/i523}
```

```
7: \input{format/i523}
```

```
passed: True
```

```
find input{format/final}
```

```
passed: False
```

```
floats
```

```
figures 0  
tables 0  
includegraphics 0  
labels 0  
refs 0  
floats 0
```

```
True : ref check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
```

```
True : label check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
```

```
True : include graphics passed: (figures >= includegraphics)
```

```
True : check if all figures are refered to: (refs >= labels)
```

```
Label/ref check
```

```
passed: True
```

```
When using figures use columnwidth
```

```
[width=1.0\columnwidth]
```

```
do not change the number to a smaller fraction
```

```
find textwidth
```

```
passed: True
```

```
below_check
```

```
bibtex
```

```
label errors
```

bibtex errors

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
Warning--I didn't find a database entry for "pC12"
Warning--I didn't find a database entry for "cD17"
Warning--I didn't find a database entry for "aT10"
Warning--I didn't find a database entry for "jM92"
(There were 4 warnings)
```

bibtex_empty_fields

entries in general should not be empty in bibtex

find ""

passed: True

ascii

=====

The following tests are optional

=====

Tip: newlines can often be replaced just by an empty line

find newline

passed: True

cites should have a space before \cite{} but not before the {

find cite {

passed: True

Big Data Analysis for Wild File Prevention, and Tracking

Zachary Meier
Indiana University
Bloomington, Indiana 47408
zrmeier@indiana.edu

ABSTRACT

In Southern California, wildfires never seem too out of place and seem to be a commonly accepted as a norm for the most part. Over the years this problem has only continued to get worse. These fires started to cause massive amounts of property damage, loss of life, and hazardous conditions for everyone. When wildfires break out they soon become unpredictable due to wind conditions and vegetation. To amplify problems further, most places where burns take place are hard to reach by the emergency crews fighting them. The combination of these factors results in scattered resources, playing catch up rather than preventing the spread and evacuating large areas. Using Predictive analytics to not only know where a fire is going but, possibly preventing it in the first place may help save lives and billions of dollars.

KEYWORDS

hid346, i523

1 INTRODUCTION

Wildfires are a large part of life in Southern California, and just like any other type of event has a large effect on the population, we as humans do our best to prepare for it. Originally, it was building houses with stucco and tile roofs so they were less likely to catch fire. Now with the advancement of big data, there is a new way to look at and defend against wildfires. These new technology and methods will allow first responders to be ahead of the fire. Allowing for them to set backfires, and protect properties more efficiently, as well as help prevent new fires popping up from Santa Ana winds which help carry fire embers to new locations. There are a couple new technologies that help deal with this exact type of problem.

2 THE DATA

Data, the gold of the information era we currently live in. However, in some ways it is a much more complex item to mine for. It is ubiquitous, which end up adding more layers to the complexity of squiring the gold we are after. To fine the information we are after we need to understand what we are looking for. Most times it is something already in place, and needs no new real creation to squire it. Only by manipulating this data, can we get the answers we need. Below will give a brief insight into the data and framework usage. Then we can start to look at how programs are being built to harness this data in new, creative, and useful ways.

2.1 Capturing Fire

For years fire has always been seen as something natural and unpredictable. The same we would view a wild animal. There is a certain mystery to it yet it is a force that demands respect. Though the respect of this powerful force of nature may never dwindle.

The mysteries of how it moves, burns and it's overall behavior are becoming less so. To know where fire is going to go, and to simulate it correctly you need two types of data. There is a need for static data, and a need for dynamic data. These two types are dependent. If static data were to be used only, we would know what a fire would like to burn most likely, but that is about it. However if you layer dynamic data into that situation, you create many possibilities that mirror real life conditions, and allow for fire fighters to, know where the fire is going to spread.

2.2 Static Data

The static data that will most likely be seen in this instance are maps. The understanding of vegetation in the geographic area allows of an understanding of what is most likely to fuel the fires spread. In addition there are topographic maps which show elevation of the land, which can also help understand how a fire might move through different terrains.

2.3 Dynamic Data

This is the information captured that can help understand what affects fire behavior and spread in a certain amount of time. This data for wild fires can be broken up in to two different categories, Graphical User Interface (GIS) fire perimeters, and meteorological variables.

2.3.1 User Interface Fire Perimeters. In order to predict the fire and its behavior there is a need of accurately identifying where it is located and where it is going via satellite. The use of satellites equipped with MODIS (Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer) Which are used to create high resolution pictures of the area while being able to actually see where the fire is located without interference from weather conditions and smoke [3].

2.3.2 Meteorological Variables. These variables are really the main cause of fire spread. Many environmental factors such as temperature and humidity play a decent role in the behavior of the fire. However, the largest contributing factor to fire spread and overall behavior is wind. When wind speeds reduce typically fires are much easier to control. In harnessing data about wind conditions in Southern California, there maybe hope for creating real time, accurate fire spread data. Thus helping fire fighters react appropriately to where the fire is going, rather than just reacting to the fire itself. therefore, helping save money in property damage and live, and resources.

3 FIREMAP

Fire map is an interactive web based application in which you can simulate wildfire models. It also utilizes WIFIRE's data sets. It allows users to explore the map and work with multiple layers. The

layers can be changed, or have their opacities changed, allowing for multiple layers to be built upon one another. This give the user customizable data and better insight in the data.

3.1 Pylaski

To make Firemap to be interactive and useful to users it must be able to provide all the different types data from the multiple sources where the data is located. To do this Pylaski uses a rest service to query internal as well as external sources for date. It send a query for each individual request and then returns all the data at once back to the client. Pylaski is also able to use different schema's as well as different formats. This works fairly well creating an idea prediction. However as it is collecting massive amounts of data it is unable to query all of the data request because of size limitations. Though limiting it is most likely able to satisfy the requirements of the user [4].

3.2 GeoServer

GeoServer is a open source server for geographical datasets. It allows you to get data from a large number of geospatial data collection agencies. With these you can pull up a large number of maps.

Historical Fires: These are file that were collected on previous fire parameters. There were recoded for the whole United States from the years 2000-2015. In addition there are many records from California specifically from 1878-2014. All which if clicked on, tell you descriptions of the fire in detail.

Satellite Detection: Used thermal imaging and MODIS satellites to produce high resolution photos of fires from above. These fly over about two time a day, and are uploaded to NASA.

Smoke Areas: Show smoke plumes and help possibly identify the start of new wildfires. Data comes from NOAA

Red Flag Areas: Red flag areas are places where conditions are right for a possible fire occur. These are typically indicated by high wind speed or low relative humidity. this data comes from the National Wildfire Coordinating Group.

Census Block: The census block comes from the US Census which keep track of population density. Allowing for consideration of people affected by a fire.

Surface Fuels: Used thirteen ways to categorize fuel for fires through vegetation. This is a large factor in how fires will spread as they need easy to burn fuel to keep burning.

Canopy Cover: The percentage of forest floor covered by trees. Crutal in analyzing model crown fires which spread from top layers of trees.

Camera Viewsheds: Geographical areas with visibility of surrounding areas in which the HPWREN and AlertTahoe cameras are used to visualize the area of the fire.

4 WIFIRE

Wildfires in the right setting are beneficial to health of an ecosystem. However, when you put millions of people within that ecosystem, it becomes a problem. This is the problem that the WIFIRE project started at University of California San Diego is trying to remedy.

The have created an end to end cyber infrastructure system to create real time prediction, visualization for wildfires in San Diego Counter. They use real time data from sensors and satellite for observation as well as meteorological study in order to create up to date predictions. Being that San Diego county sees many wildfires, it is a prime location for testing this project out. The most recent fire in 2007 cost over one billion dollars and causes half a million people to be evacuated from their homes[1]. In order to collect the correct and most up to date information for tracking a wild fire they call upon the High Performance Wireless Research and Education Network known as HPWREN. In addition, the use various partner sites that also collect large amounts of data. These come from various types of data, such as, meteorology, vision and audio and hydrology. To make all of relevant and precise for the end users, such as the fire fighters.

4.1 Systems

Their systems for collecting this heterogeneous data uses a few different layers of architecture. There is a pipeline composed of many different sensors from the San Diego county, such as ground based sensors, SDG& E (San Diego Gas & Electric), Water Meteorology Stations and the HPWREN as well as collect satellite imagery. With all this heterogeneous data coming in the needed a way to process all the data. They achieved this with an open source workflow system called Kepler which organized the execution of the real time data processed. Then that system distributed it to a portal for end user consumption. This system is meant to handle large data input as well as execute computation in parallel so all data given is up to date [2].

4.2 Subsystems

The most important part of all this system is the data pipeline. Which in their workflow is called the Data Communication Subsystem. This system handles the large input of data and works with integration many different data sets and information from imaging, whether it be satellite or camera. The influx of data is come is produced by three types of communication systems. Meteorology stations, still cameras around San Diego County, and Satellite and Aerial data. This data communication layer uses REST services to take in the data to the database and the who process is done in memory to keep processing time as low as possible.

4.3 Data Mining

Big data today would not be what it is today if not for the fundamental process of data mining. Predicting trends based out of huge amounts of data, in order to understand exploit that data for practical use and application. WIFIRE also uses this methodology to find data relating to Santa Ana winds. Analyzing the data from the meteorological stations from around the county can help them realize when and where a Santa Ana wind possible. This data would be useful to the firefighter, because it would allow them to know the fire may have a chance to spread further. In addition this data can also be put into fire modeling to help predict wildfires movement even better in the future.

4.4 Visualization

Using visual this project's goal is provide the most transparent data to first responders. Using satellite imagery to understand areas that have been previously scarred by fires and less likely to burn, while identifying areas that may be more susceptible to burning. This uses the topography and analization from previous fires to give them a better picture of how fires moved throughout the county. In addition to using the aerial data, the project is trying to create an application for pedestrians and bystanders to use to help track active fires from the ground. The premise of this idea is that if enough users take photos they can recreate where that photo was taken in a 3D space and track the fire that way. It would also help identify the fires over all perimeter. Once again helping first responders, more effectively fight the fires and know the whole area it covers and where it is heading.

4.5 Assimilation

Most programs on the market are based off of just pure data, and produce a simulation base of that. The problem with that is fires and still not predictable. Using the behavior of real fires from real time data, and compares that against stimulation's, to correct the errors based off of the simulation alone. The system uses recursive algorithms created by Extended Kalman Filter and a Ensemble Kalman Filter. It uses existing fire models such as those in FARSITE in a separate workflow. Allowing for the real time fire date to run in process, and compare them against the simulation data previously provided. This allows them to be compared and move them to the update step, which is where the data assimilation takes place. Correcting previous errors for the simulation, allowing the simulations for future predictions to be much more accurate.

4.6 Santa Ana Winds

Due to the amount of wildfires that spur up per year in the area, the amount of data received over wildfire may very. However, one of the biggest factors in wildfires and their spreading ability is with Santa Ana Winds. They are based off a couple key conditions, such as direction, speed and relative humidity. All of which create extremely dangerous situations for fires. Luckily there are many sensor around San Diego County that can detect this happening. The issues is however, is when an alert is sent, it is only for a specific point. With the kepler workflow they are able to take in data from those individual stations and run it through a program called WindNinja which can take vegetation, topography and weather stations into account produce a mapping of the areas affected. These are ran through the workflow breaking down tiles from the stations in 50km by 50km blocks for marking the wind occurrence. This then runs through a data processing software such as Spark or Hadoop.

5 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the use of big data in fire prevention and tracking is an impressive system. It incorporates a multitude of sensors and data from various sources. Creating predictions of fires and creating data models which will help first responders saves lives, and protect property from damage. This application will allow efficient of firefighter resources and allow for them to be one step ahead of

the fire. Which until now was impossible. Only when the weather changed, were we able to change and react. With the predictive modeling and machine learning, the models will continue to get more accurate as the topography and fire interactions continue into the future. While this system will not prevent all wild fires, it will be instrumental in slowing them down and containing them. Once again man will try to tame fire as we have tried to do since the beginning of our existence.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors would like to thank Dr. Gregor von Laszewski and the TA's for their help and support.

REFERENCES

- [1] 2007. Cost of California Wildfires Is More than 1 Billion. (October 2007). <https://www.npr.org/templates/story/story.php?storyId=15603441>
- [2] Ilkay Altintas, Jessica Block, Raymond de Callafon, Daniel Crawl, Charles Cowart, Amarnath Gupta, Mai Nguyen, Hans-Werner Braun, Jurgen Schulze, Michael Gollner, Arnaud Trouve, and Larry Smarr. 2015. Towards an Integrated Cyber-infrastructure for Scalable Data-driven Monitoring, Dynamic Prediction and Resilience of Wildfires. *Procedia Computer Science* 51, Supplement C (2015), 1633 – 1642. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.procs.2015.05.296> International Conference On Computational Science, ICCS 2015.
- [3] C. Brun, T. Artes, A. Cencerrado, T. Margalef, and A. Corts. 2017. A High Performance Computing Framework for Continental-Scale Forest Fire Spread Prediction. *Procedia Computer Science* 108, Supplement C (2017), 1712 – 1721. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.procs.2017.05.258> International Conference on Computational Science, ICCS 2017, 12-14 June 2017, Zurich, Switzerland.
- [4] Daniel Crawl, Jessica Block, Kai Lin, and Ilkay Altintas. 2017. Firemap: A Dynamic Data-Driven Predictive Wildfire Modeling and Visualization Environment. *Procedia Computer Science* 108, Supplement C (2017), 2230 – 2239. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.procs.2017.05.174> International Conference on Computational Science, ICCS 2017, 12-14 June 2017, Zurich, Switzerland.

```
bibtext report
```

```
=====
```

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
Warning--no key, author in NPR
Warning--to sort, need author or key in NPR
Warning--no key, author in NPR
Warning--no key, author in NPR
Warning--no key, author in NPR
Warning--empty author in NPR
(There were 6 warnings)
```

```
bibtext _ label error
```

```
=====
```

```
bibtext space label error
```

```
=====
```

```
bibtext comma label error
```

```
=====
```

```
latex report
```

```
[2017-12-08 04.04.21] pdflatex report.tex
This is pdfTeX, Version 3.14159265-2.6-1.40.17 (TeX Live 2016) (preloaded format=pdflatex)
Missing character: ""
Missing character: ""
Typesetting of "report.tex" completed in 0.9s.
```

```
=====
```

```
Compliance Report
```

```
=====
```

```
name: Zachary Meier
hid: 346
paper1: Nov 25 17 100%
paper2: Nov 28 17 100%
```

project: Dec 08 17 100%

yamlcheck

wordcount

(null)
wc 346 project (null) 2573 report.tex
wc 346 project (null) 2615 report.pdf
wc 346 project (null) 555 report.bib

find "

passed: True

find footnote

passed: True

find input{format/i523}

3: \input{format/i523}

passed: True

find input{format/final}

passed: False

floats

figures 0
tables 0
includegraphics 0
labels 0
refs 0
floats 0

```
True : ref check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
True : label check passed: (refs >= figures + tables)
True : include graphics passed: (figures >= includegraphics)
True : check if all figures are referred to: (refs >= labels)
```

```
Label/ref check
passed: True
```

```
When using figures use columnwidth
[width=1.0\columnwidth]
do not change the number to a smaller fraction
```

```
find textwidth
```

```
passed: True
```

```
below_check
```

```
bibtex
```

```
label errors
```

```
bibtex errors
```

```
This is BibTeX, Version 0.99d (TeX Live 2016)
The top-level auxiliary file: report.aux
The style file: ACM-Reference-Format.bst
Database file #1: report.bib
Warning--no key, author in NPR
Warning--to sort, need author or key in NPR
Warning--no key, author in NPR
Warning--no key, author in NPR
Warning--no key, author in NPR
Warning--empty author in NPR
(There were 6 warnings)
```

```
bibtex_empty_fields
```

entries in general should not be empty in bibtex

find ""

passed: True

ascii

=====
The following tests are optional
=====

Tip: newlines can often be replaced just by an empty line

find newline

passed: True

cites should have a space before \cite{} but not before the {

find cite {

passed: True