Upset Potential in the National Football League (NFL)

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**ABSTRACT**

Fantasy leagues, spread picks, as well as confidence points picks have become popular among fans of a variety of sports today. While the ultimate goal of these activities is to choose all winners, the place to gain a competitive edge over opponents is in picking upsets correctly. Nowhere is this more apparent than in confidence points picks. Placing too much confidence on a game that has a surprise upset could harm the overall score more than picking a few low confidence games incorrectly.

The goal of this project is to determine factors that influence the potential for upsets in the National Football League (NFL) through data mining techniques. Upon successful determination of these factors, I will attempt to predict upsets for current/real-time games.

**Categories and Subject Descriptors**

H.2.8 **[Database Management]** Database Applications – *Data mining*

**Keywords**

National Football League (NFL); Confidence picks; Exploratory Data Analysis; Multivariate; Categorical; Histogram; Scatterplot; Scatterplot Matrix; Binning; K-means; Clustering; Cluster Analysis; Partitioning Approach; k-means; Silhouette Plot; Classification; Naïve Bayes Classification, Decision Tree Classification; Training and Testing; Accuracy; Error Rate; Sensitivity; Specificity; Precision; Recall; F Measure;

# INTRODUCTION

## Dataset

The data required for this analysis was widespread and was not already available through one source. The National Football League website (www.nfl.com) contains archived information for game summaries, which normally contain general information such as date game took place, start time, opponents, venue, weather, etc. Unfortunately, this data was not available as a dataset, but rather had to be gleaned manually from individual pages for each game. Information such as days of rest between games was derived from the available date of game information.

Not all game summaries contained weather information. For those particular games, it was necessary to search for archived weather data. Weather for the venue at/near the time of the game start was obtained from a notable weather source such as Weather Underground ([www.wunderground.com](http://www.wunderground.com)). Weather information in addition to just the temperature was also collected, where available, in case it might have been of use in analysis.

Spread or odds information was key in determining an upset, since it would provide the amount by which each team was expected to win/lose. It was advantageous that this particular information was the easiest to find and also available in formats that are easy to digest.

### Data Attributes Selection and Values

The attributes selected for this dataset were chosen for how different each of their influences could be on the game. The amount of rest a team has between games could influence how tired or fresh a team is to play, while the weather could tests a team’s stamina. The dataset consisted 3312 instances with some missing values (usually data that is N/A for that particular week) and 18 attributes: 11 non-predictive, 7 predictive, and 1 goal.

Non-predictive values include:

*Team* - Name

*Score* – Number of point the team received for a game

*Ending* – Final versus overtime (OT)

*Outcome* – Win (W), Loss (L), or Tie (T)

*Date* – Day the game was played

*GameNum* – The number game for that season per team

*DaysRest* – Number of days since last game played (null for first games of the season)

*Timezone* – Time zone in which the game was or will be played

*Weather+* – Other weather related information, such as high winds, rain, etc.

*Offense* - A representative number for a team’s offense injuries (1 or 2 points for each player injured)

*Defense* – A representative number for a team’s defense injuries (1 or 2 points for each player injured)

Predictive values include:

*AorH* – Away (A) or Home (H)

*Time* – Time at which the game began (home team local time)

*Weather* – Temperature at game time (or “Dome” if played indoors)

*AvgPF* – Average points the team has score against its opponents

*AvgPA* – Average points the team’s opponents have scored against them

*Odds* – Amount by which a team is expected to win/lose

*UpsetAmt* – Magnitude of upset (0 if not an upset)

Goal values:

*Upset* – Yes (Y) or No (N) if the team predicted to win, instead lost

### Limitations

Injury data was particularly difficult to standardize. While every team is allowed the same number of starting players, each team has the authority to assign them as they see fit. This means not only the positions that each team starts may vary, but also the number of players in a position may also vary. For example, on offense, every team will have a quarterback (QB) and a center (C), but one team may include a single running back (RB), another may have two running backs, and a third may have three fullbacks (FB). As for defense, some teams may include a nose tackle (NT), others a left/right outside linebacker (LOLB/ROLB), while others may have multiple defensive ends (DE). This made determining critical positions across all teams almost impossible; therefore, I opted to treat all positions with equal importance. Instead, I focused on whether the player for any starting position was probable/doubtful yet still played versus did not play at all. I gave more points towards the team’s total offense and defensive injury total if a player did not play at all versus played in a limited capacity.

## Objective of Analysis

Knowing how factors such as time zone changes, number of days rest between games, overtime games played, weather, or key player injuries can affect the outcome of the game would help teams prepare themselves against an upset. This information can also be used to a team’s advantage by providing them ways to focus their training to upset other teams. The objective of this analysis is to explore the influence the selected factors have on a game’s outcome and suggest possible other factors for future analysis. Then using the information obtain from the analysis and utilizing techniques such as clustering, binning, and classification, I will attempt to predict upsets for current season.

## Risks

There are such a large number of factors contributing to any one game and it may be hard to isolate whether or not an individual hand-picked attribute has an effect on a game being an upset. The complexity of how each attribute contributes to a game in general is not always known and what may seem like a cause may actually be a red herring for some other influence. For example, while weather may seem to influence an upset, it may actually be the altitude of the venue or smog or other environmental factor that is truly influencing the games being upsets or not.

# RELATED WORK

~~There has been many studies and papers on the importance of sharing information among law enforcement agencies as well as why the sharing of data is lagging. However, past efforts to solve this issue have failed and the problem still plagues law enforcement. The challenge in the past has simply been how to collect, share, aggregate, and standardize data. This challenge remains today as law enforcement agencies continue to use different standards in reporting crime. The Federal Bureau of Investigation’s Uniform Crime Report data has been the more extensive effort to solve this problem to date. It is not without flaws and oversights, and the interpretation/analysis of this data is highly contentious making all the more difficult for law enforcement agencies to benefit from it. There is also a significant effort to interpret the data into the more standard UCR, which smaller stations may not have the manpower to support. Since there are still large obstacles to overcome in the sharing of data, the analysis of the data becomes cumbersome when looking in several location for the type of data represented in this dataset. Other studies have looked at single types of data or data for a limited number of communities, but not as extensive research could be accomplished for data such as that in this dataset.~~

# METHODOLOGY

To begin, an exploratory data analysis was necessary to review the different variables chosen and their possibility for impact. This was done through visualization of the data items as well as comparison of multiple variables through histograms, scatterplots, etc. noting any obvious correlations, patterns, or interesting interactions/relationships between multiple variables.

Once the data analysis is complete, I would like to filter the upset results to those that have the most impact/are the most influential. To do that, I will categorize the upsets by their magnitude. Through use of clustering and classification, I will categorize the results to be low, medium, and high, focusing only on the medium and high results for the remaining testing.

Finally, I will perform two different cross-validation test of predicting upsets. First, using past seasons data as a training set to predict upsets in the current year. Second, I will split data from all seasons into training and testing sets to validate how well the algorithm predicts upsets across the board.

## Preprocessing

### Weather

As new arenas and game venues are build or older facilities updated to include modern amenities, it is becoming more common to see games played with complete or retractable roofs. This all but eliminates any influence the outside temperature or weather would have on the game outcome. In this dataset, games played with closed roofs are still included but are indicated with a weather/temperature of zero (0).

### Average Points For/Against

The values for average points for (AvgPF) and average points against (AvgPA) were derived from the points the team had scored and the points other teams had scored against them for all previous games in the season. For example if a team has played 3 games and scored 35, 24, and 10 points, their AvgPF would be (35 + 24 + 10)/3 or 23. Similarly, for AvgPA, if a team’s opponents scored 18, 23, and 13 points for the first 3 games, the AvgPA would be (18 + 23 + 13)/3 or 18. Since this information is based on previous games, there are no values available for the first game of the season for every team.

### Magnitude of Upset

The information for odds as well as the game score was used to determine the amount of upset or UpsetAmt. If a team was expected to win, but instead lost, their UpsetAmt would be determined by the amount of points they lost by plus the amount of points they were expected to win by. For example, for a team has a spread of +5 and lost 17 to 31, their UpsetAmt would be (31 - 17) + 5 = 19. Similarly the UpsetAmt for a team that is expected to lose, but instead wins would be determined by the amount of points they won by plus the amount of points they were expected to lose by. For example, a team with a spread of -3.5 that won 13 to 3, would have an UpsetAmt of (13 - 3) + 3.5 = 13.5.

## Exploratory Data Analysis

#### Distribution of Attributes

As mentioned previously, games held in a domed environment was categorized as having a weather temperature of zero (0). By looking at the histogram for weather in upset wins (Figure 1), one can tell many of the upset games took place in just such an environment. Of the other games, the temperature/weather distribution took the shape of a bell curve with extremes up in the 90’s to down in the teens.

A histogram of game time for upset wins (Figure 2) had an interesting distribution with many upsets taking place near 1200 or 1300. Since the majority of games played start early in the day, around 1200 or 1300 local time, it is logical that many of the upsets take place at this time of day as well.

Even with no knowledge of the variables meaning, only glancing at the histogram for away or home upset wins (Figure 3) shows the variable is multi-valued, but discrete. There are only two different values, 0 (representing away) and 1 (representing home). It would not be unexpected for these to have equal frequency; however, in this case there were substantially more upset wins for teams playing their game away, than those playing at home.

Looking next at the histogram for days rest upset loses (Figure 4) shows the most frequent by far is 7 days rest. Since 7 days is the typical/normal number of days the teams have between games, it is logical that it would be of higher frequency. However, with this high of a frequency compared to other values, it would seem that more or less days rest than normal is not influential for upsets.

One of the more interesting attributes I looked at were injuries on both offense and defense. The histograms for offensive injuries for upset loses (Figure 5) as well as for defensive injuries for upset loses (Figure 6) there were less injuries than expected for teams that were upset. There may be two reasons for this variation between expected and actual results. Injury data to predict the outcome of the game cannot reflect injuries during the game, but rather only injuries that occurred/are known before the game begins. In addition, if there were many known injuries before the game began, this would influence the spread, usually making a game much closer and the likelihood of an upset smaller.

The last two attributes I examined dealt with the average points for/against a team up to that particular game in the season. The histograms for average points for (Figure 7) and average points against (Figure 8) both show very nice bell curves for distribution. While this may not be unexpected for teams in general across a season, it seemed unusual to see the bell curve for only upsets as well. Values ranged from below 10 points to near/over 40 points for some instance, with the majority being around 21 points, or the value of three touchdowns.

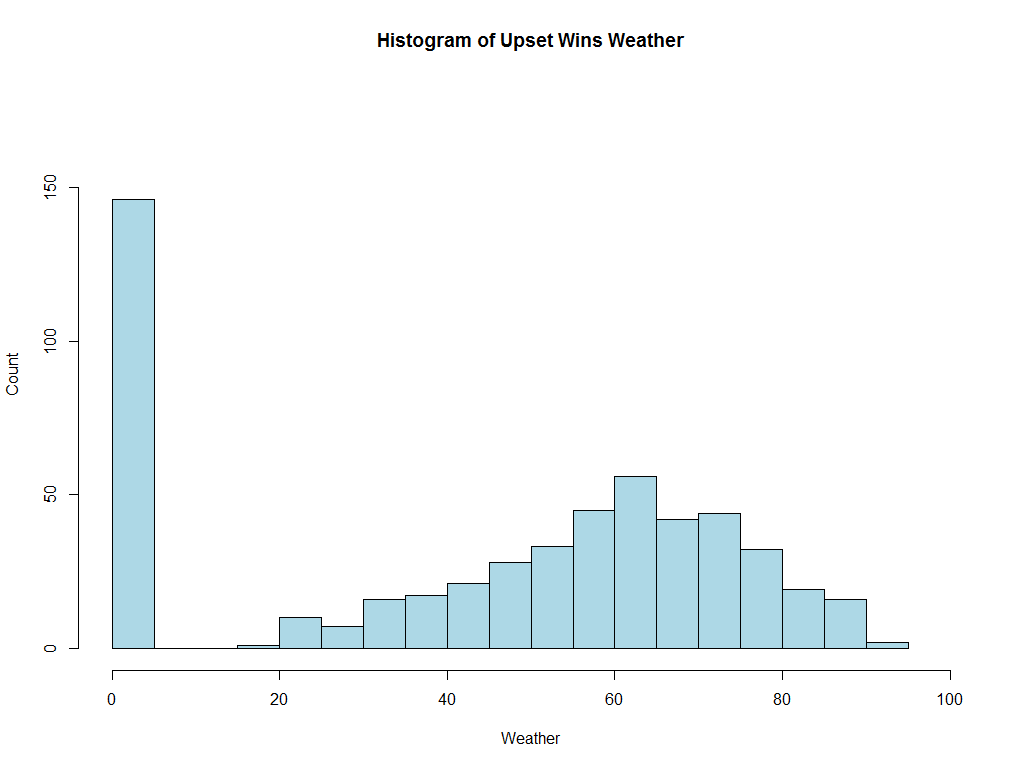


Figure . Histogram of Upset Wins Weather

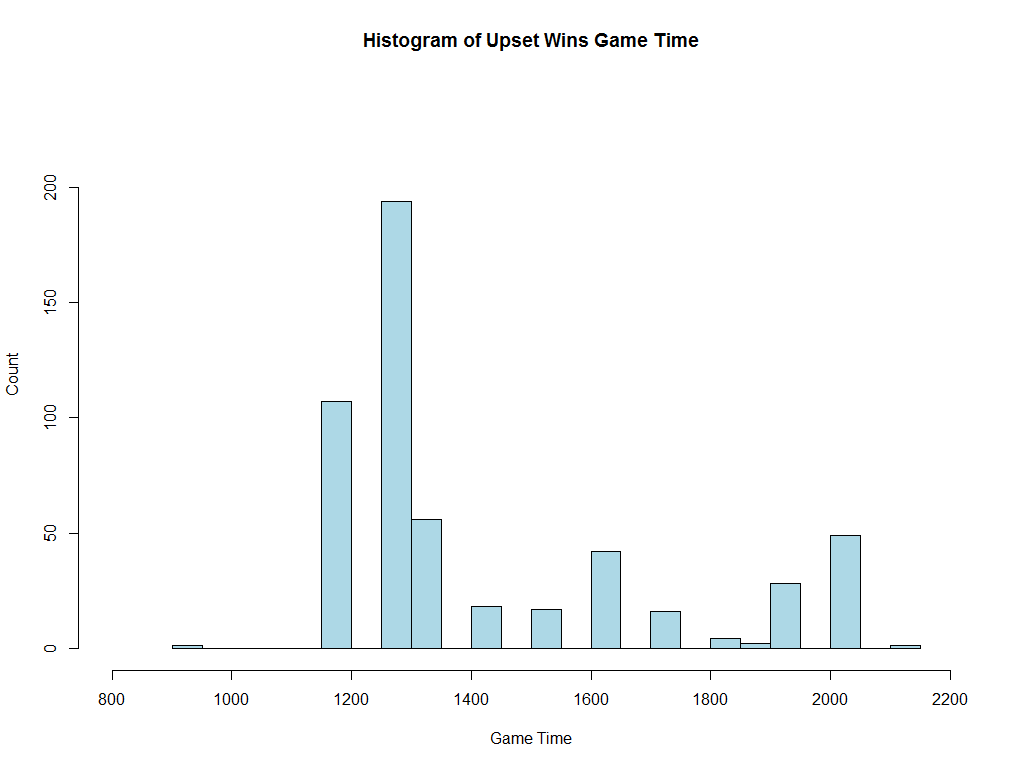


Figure . Histogram of Upset Wins Game Time

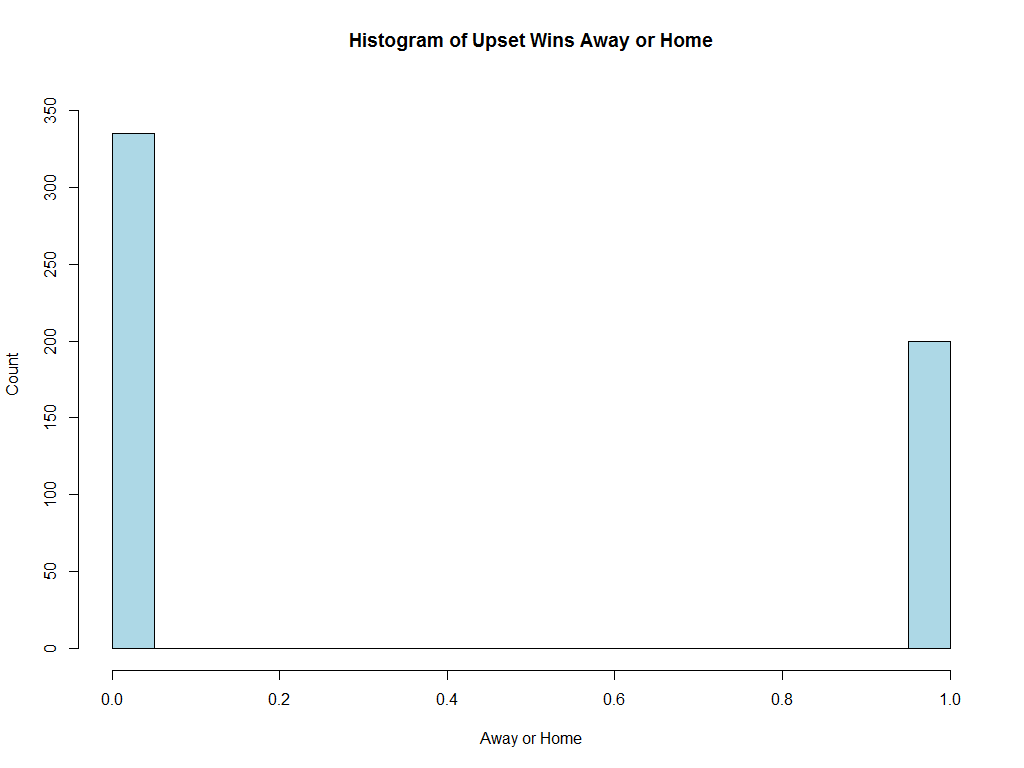


Figure . Histogram of Upset Wins Away or Home

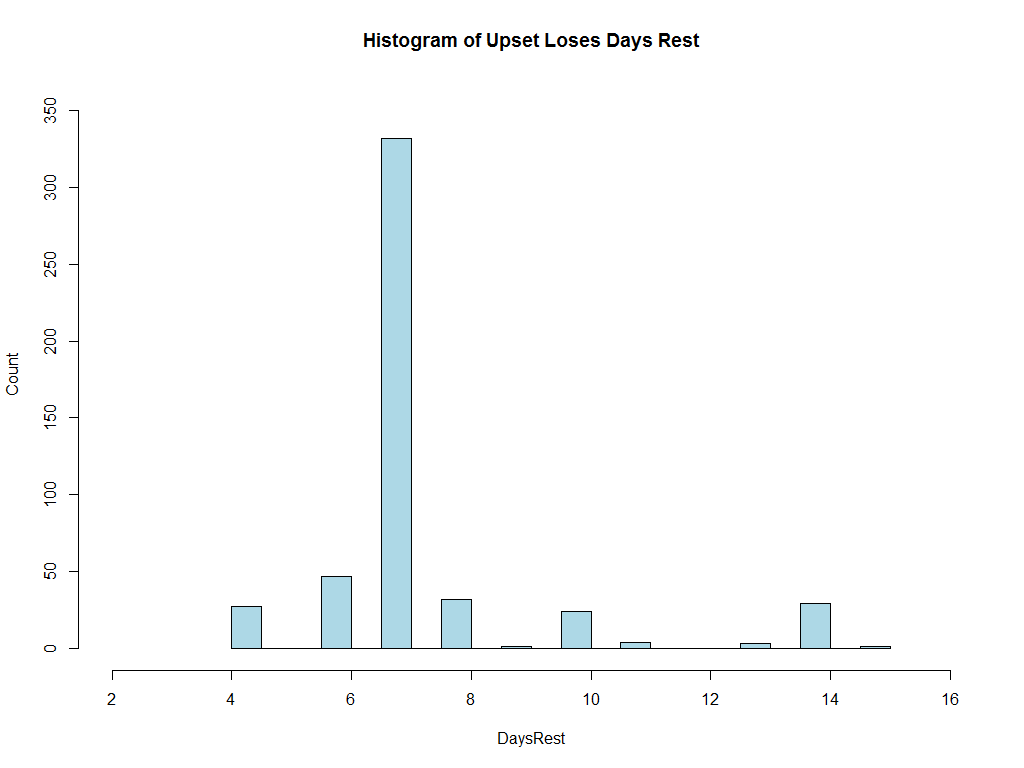


Figure . Histogram of Upset Loses Days Rest

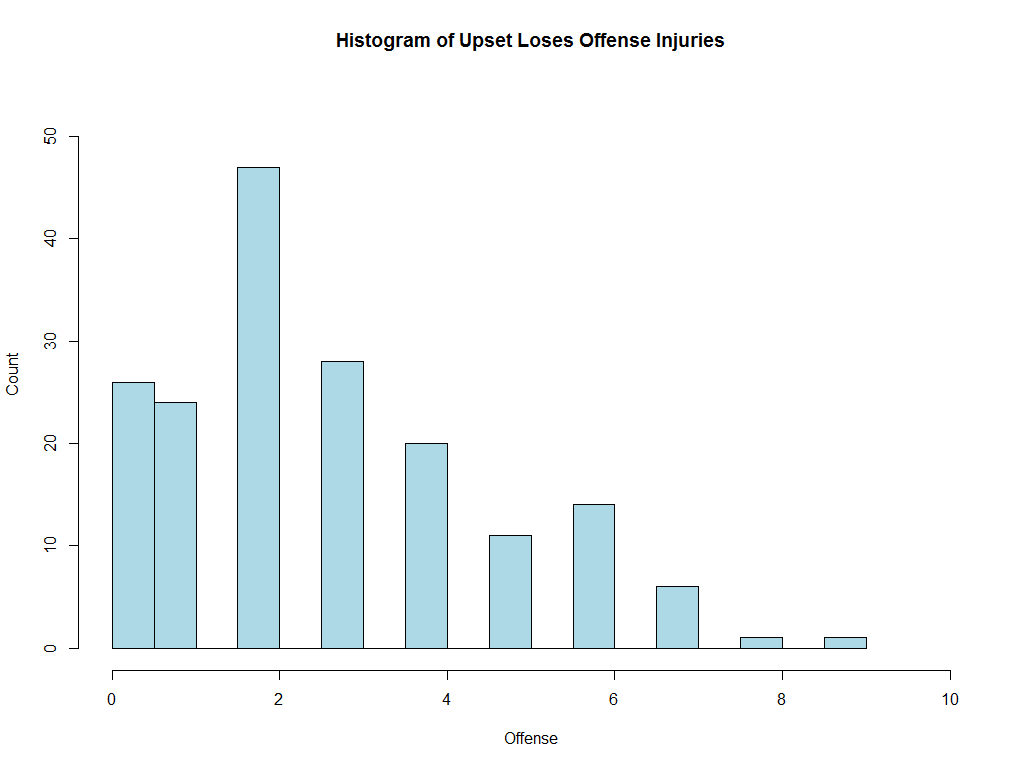


Figure . Histogram of Upset Loses Offense Injuries

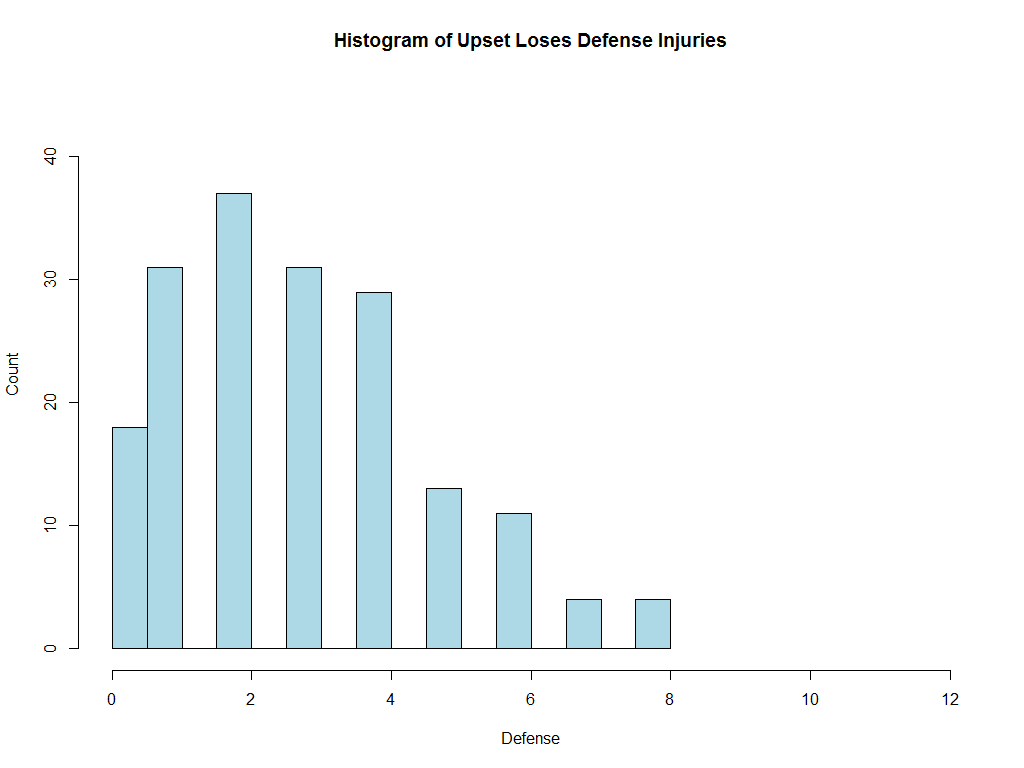


Figure . Histogram of Upset Loses Defensive Injuries

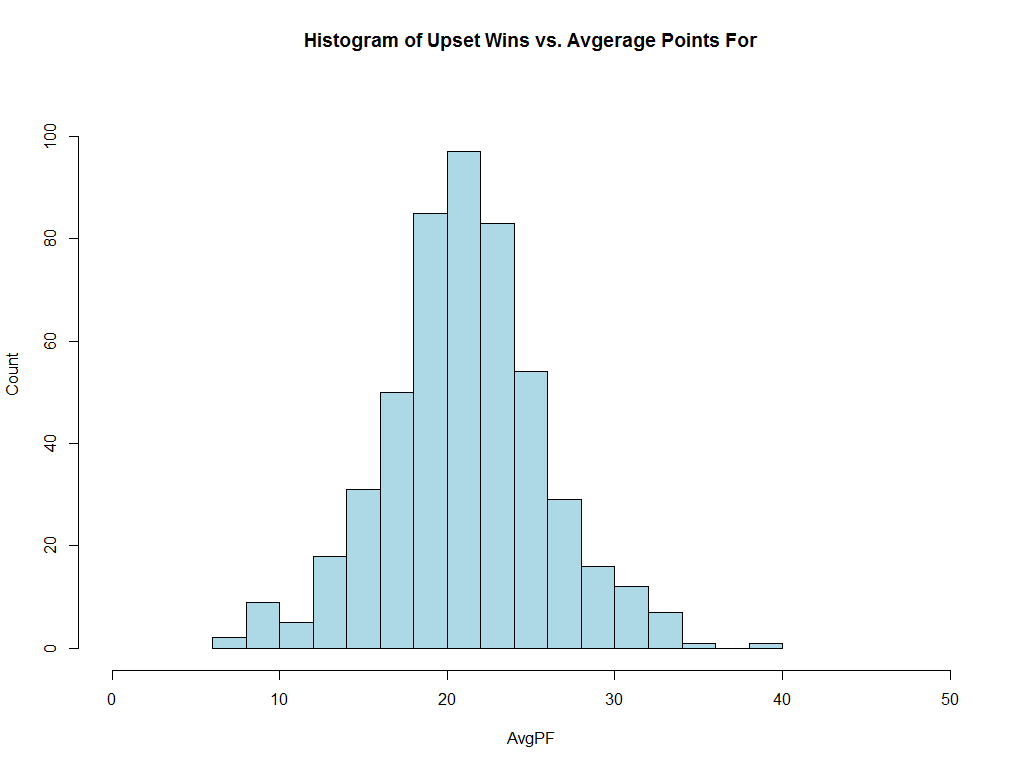


Figure . Histogram of Upset Wins Average Points For

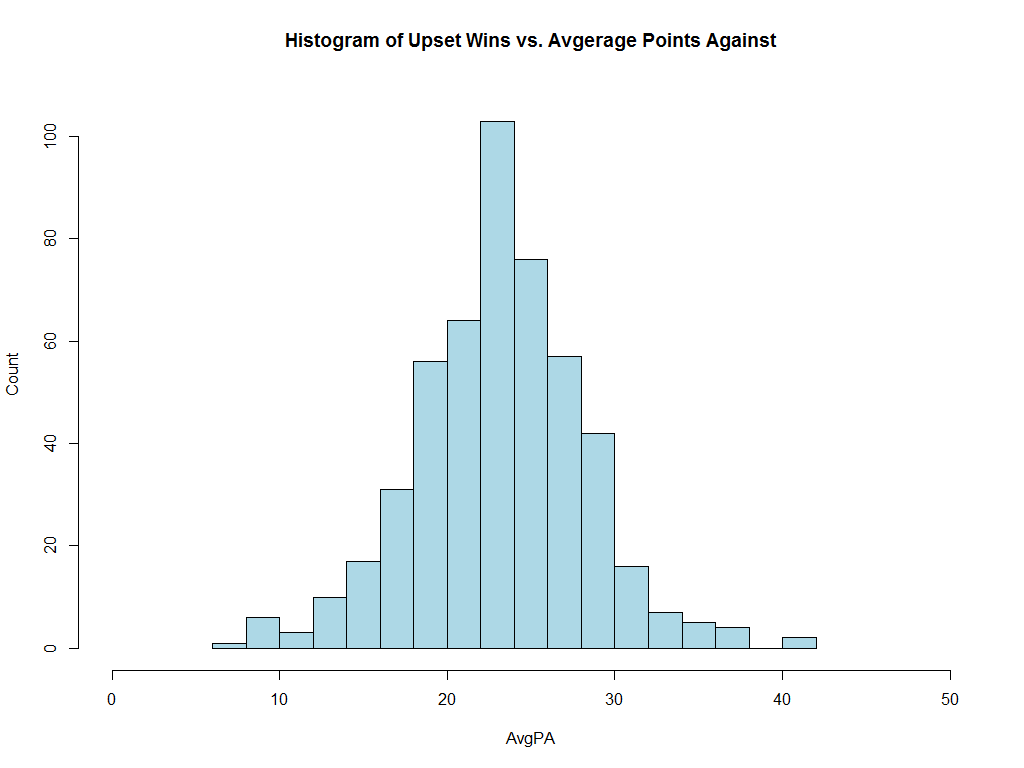


Figure . Histogram of Upset Wins Average Points Against

The distribution for all attributes was similar across the board for upset wins versus upset loses. The only major difference was in the examination of away or home, in which the distribution was opposite for those teams that one versus those that lost. This inverse relationship is expected since for every team that won and upset at home, the team they played lost an upset on the road.

#### Relationships Between Attributes

Three of the variables that I compared for the upset games seemed to have interesting relationships: weather, average points for, and average points against. For better examination of what relationships, if any, they had, I used a scatterplot matrix (Figure 9). Unfortunately, the scatterplot matrix did not show any well-defined linear or other similar relationship between the variables themselves and/or upset. This could be in part due to the discrete nature of the upset parameter.

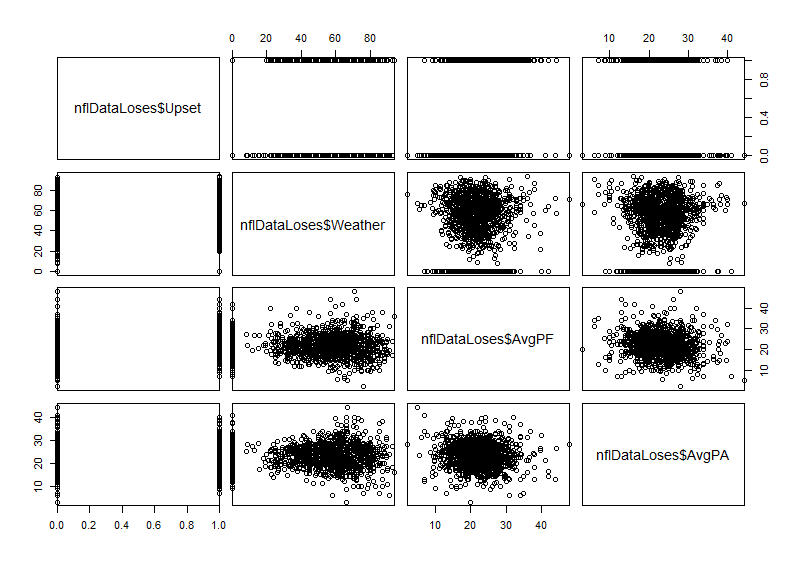


Figure . Scatterplot Matrix of Upset, Weather, Average Points For, and Average Points Against

## Experiment Design, Tools, & Approaches

### Clustering

#### Density-based Approach

The density-based approach to clustering is based on specified connectivity and density functions. Unlike other approaches, the density-based approach can handle noise and only require one scan of the data.

Density-based clustering work with two parameters:

Eps: Maximum radius of the neighborhood

MinPts: Minimum number of points in an Eps-neighborhood (NEps) of the point

Density-based approach also uses the concepts of density-reachable and density-connected. A point *p* is defined as density-reachable from a point *q* if there is a chain points such that *pi+1* is directly density-reachable from *pi*. A point *p* is defined as density-connected to a point *q* if there is a point *o* such that both, *p* and *q* are density-reachable from *o*.

##### DBSCAN

Density-Based Spatial Clustering of Applications with Noise (DBSCAN) clusters data into maximal sets of density-connected points. Clusters discovered through DBSCAN for spatial databases with noise will be of arbitrary shape. The DBSCAN algorithm is as follows:

Arbitrarily select a point *p*

Retrieve all points density-reachable from *p* w.r.t. *Eps* and *MinPts*

If *p* is a core point, a cluster is formed

If *p* is a border point, no points are density-reachable from *p* and DBSCAN visits the next point of the dataset

Continue until all of the points have been processed

#### Partitioning Approach

The partitioning approach to clustering evaluates each item in a dataset by some criterion and divides, or partitions, into *k* clusters. The criteria for each chosen partition is chosen so as to optimize/minimize the sum of squared distances or

##### K-means

In k-means partitioning, each cluster is represented by one item at the center of the cluster. Evaluation of each dataset item to determine which cluster they belong to done using the following four steps:

1. Partition the dataset into *k* nonempty subsets
2. Compute the seed points as the mean point or centroid of the clusters current partitioning
3. Assign each object to the cluster with the nearest seed point
4. Repeat from step 2 until the assignments do not change

While K-means is sometimes known as a greedy algorithm, it is efficient running at *O*(*tkn*) where *n* is the number of instances, *k* is the number of clusters, and *t* is the number of iterations. However, k-means is not without its weaknesses. For k-means, the number of clusters in which to divide the data needs to be specified before the algorithm is run, which may require re-running to determine an optimal number of partitions. In addition, k-means can be sensitive to outliers as every item must be place in only the specified number of partitions.

### Classification

#### Training and Testing

The Holdout Method is a type of classification cross validation. For this method, the data set is randomly partitioned into two independent sets of specified size: the training set and the test set. The training set is used for model construction and the test set is used to evaluate the accuracy of the constructed model. For this exercise, two different partitioning techniques for holdout method will be used. For the first holdout method, the training set will consist of past season data and the test set will consist of current season data, trying to use past patterns to predict future/current outcomes. For the second holdout method, the training set will consist of 70% of the total dataset (past and current seasons) and the other 30% in the test set to determine if there is a pattern through all the seasons.

#### Naïve Bayes Classification

Naïve Bayes classification uses simple probabilistic classifiers based on Bayes’ theorem, which describes the probability of an event based on an already observed event.

Bayes’ theorem is formally written as follows:

Given training data **X**, *posteriori probability of a hypothesis* H, P(H|**X**):

The theorem is used to determine the posteriori probability P(H|X) that the hypothesis holds given the observed data sample X, or in simpler terms the likelihood of the hypothesis given prior evidence, for each classification. The data is assigned the classification with the highest probability.

#### Decision Tree

Decision Tree classification uses a flowchart-like tree structure for classification. In the tree, an internal tree node represents each test on an attribute, a tree branch represents each outcome of the attribute test, and each tree leaf node has a classification label. A path from the root to a leaf node is a representation of a classification rule.

The tree is constructed in a divide-and-conquer manner with no backtracking. The training examples are all at the root at the start of tree construction and are partitioned reclusively based on the provided selected attributes as the construction proceeds. Partitioning ends when all the samples for a given node belong to the same class, there are no remaining attributes for further partitioning, and there are no samples left to partition.

# EVALUATION METHODOLOGY

## Evaluation Metrics

### Classification

#### Accuracy and Error Rate

Accuracy is calculated as the percentage of test samples correctly calculated (TP is true positive, TN is true negative):

Error rate is calculated as the opposite, or 1 - accuracy (FP is false positive, FN is false negative) ):

#### Sensitivity and Specificity

Sensitivity is calculated as the true positive (TP) recognition rate:

Specificity is calculated as the true negative (TN) recognition rate:

Accuracy can be written as a function of both sensitivity and specificity:

#### Precision and Recall

There is an inverse relationship between precision and recall.

Precision is measured as a percentage of the samples classified with a positive label that are actually positive, or exactness:

Recall is measured as a percentage of positive samples actually classified with a positive label, or completeness.

A perfect score would be 1.0 or 100%.

#### F-Measures

F-measure is a type of accuracy measurement, which takes into account both precision and recall, with the resulting score assigned is between 0 and 1.

F-measure can also be a weighted measurement as follows:

# RESULTS

## Magnitude of Upset Analysis

### Clustering

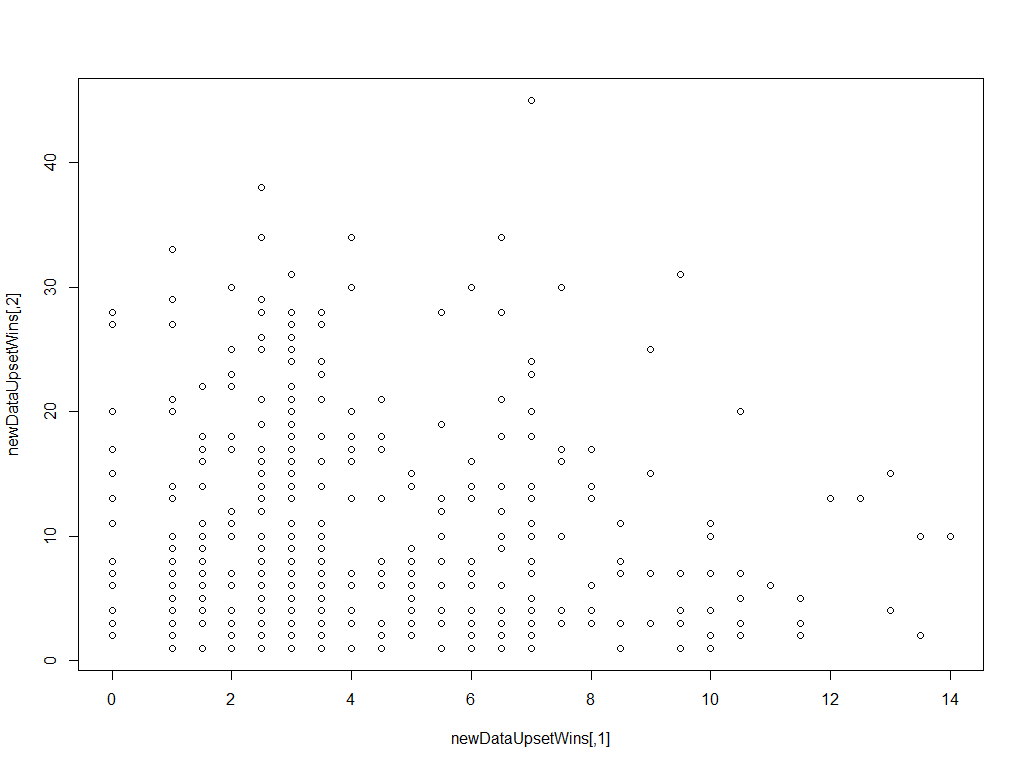


Figure . Odds and UpsetAmt for Clustering

#### Density Approach

##### DBSCAN

~~I first ran the DBSCAN with an Eps value of 5. The results (see Figure 10. DBSCAN Clustering for Eps=5Figure 10) showed some clustering but still many outliers. I then re-ran the DBSCAN with an Eps value of 10. The results (see Figure 11) were much improved; however, there were still a few outliers. I decided to see if it was possible to eliminate the remaining outliers. To do this I again increased the Eps value to 15 and re-ran the test. This result (see Figure 12) was not well clustered at all, so I knew I needed a Eps value closer to the last good clustering or Eps of 10. I tried a few other Eps values (see results for Eps 11 in Figure 13 and Eps 11.5 in Figure 14) until I found the results I considered the best for Eps value of 11.1 (see Figure 15) with as few outliers as possible.~~

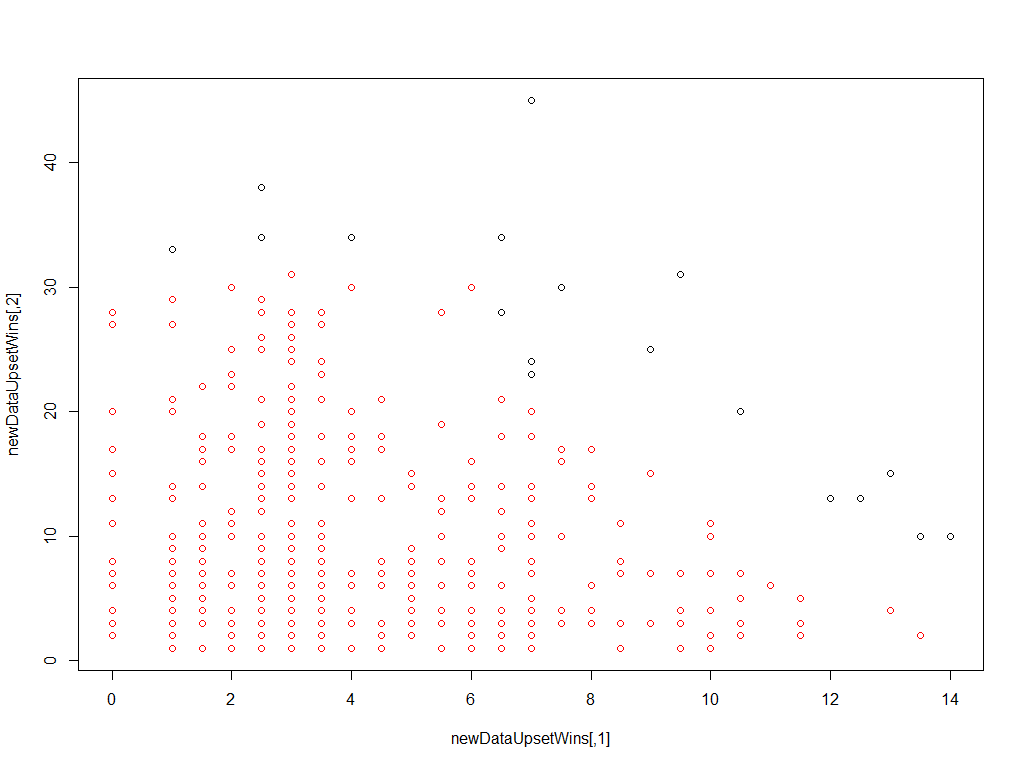


Figure . DBSCAN Clustering for Eps=1.75

#### 

Figure . DBSCAN Silhouette Plot

#### Partitioning Approach

~~For both partitioning methods, a~~ *~~k~~* ~~value for the number of partitions needs to be specified ahead of time. To determine the best value I used the Elbow method, which looks at the sum of squared error (SSE) within groups as a function of the number of clusters (see Figure 3). Looking for the bend of elbow in the plot gives a good indication of a value for~~ *~~k~~*~~. In this case, 8 or 10 clusters seemed to be good bend/elbow locations so I used both those values for~~ *~~k~~* ~~in my analysis.~~

##### 

Figure . Number of Clusters to Determine Best *k* Value

##### K-means

~~Using~~ *~~k=8~~* ~~for the k-means partitioning approach gave the highest average silhouette width (see Figure 16) of the partitioning approaches as well as density-based approaches at 0.53. The silhouette plot shows no outliers and seems to fit the data best.~~

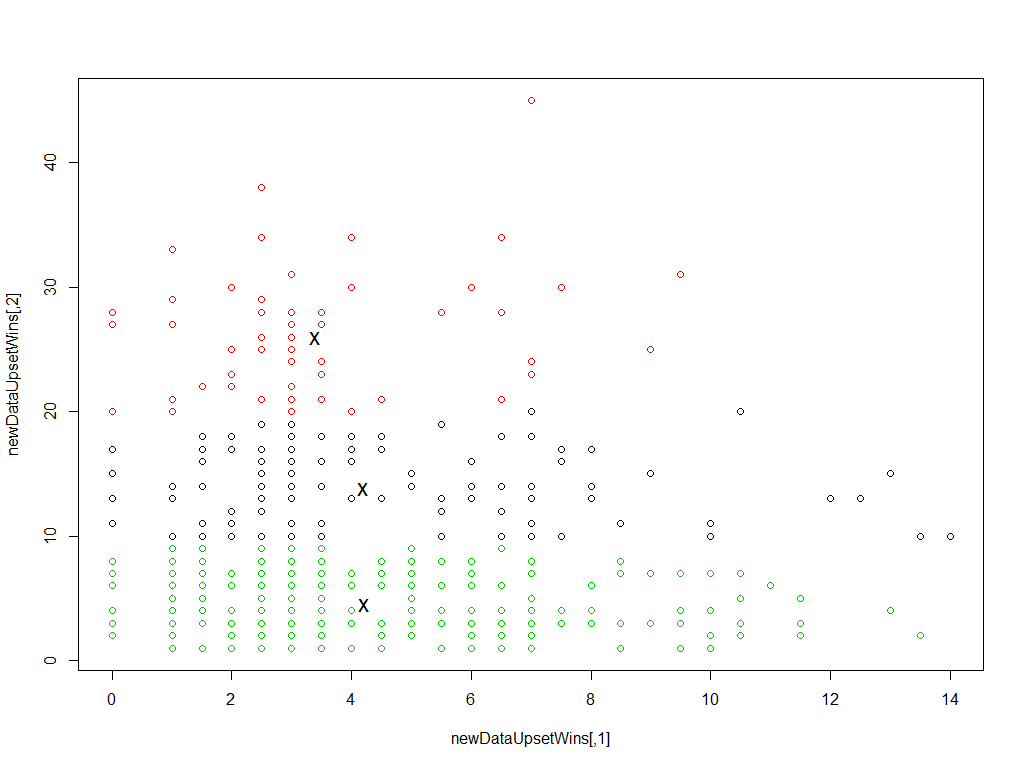


Figure . K-Means Clustering for *k*=3

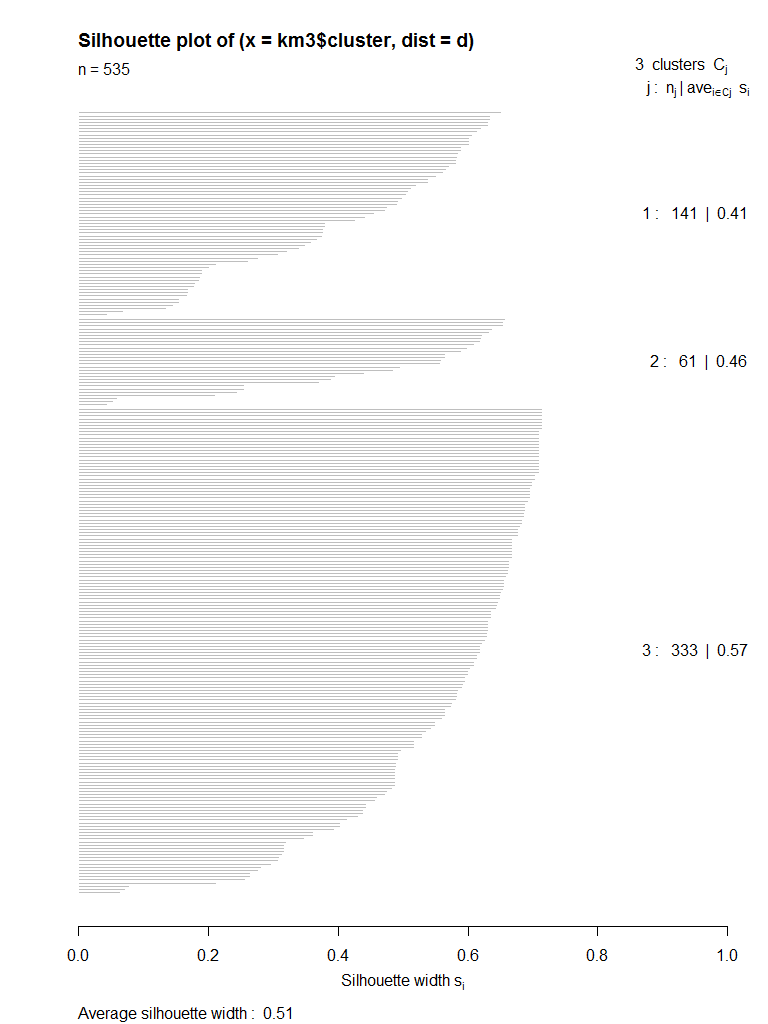


Figure . K-Means Clustering Silhouette Plot for *k*=3

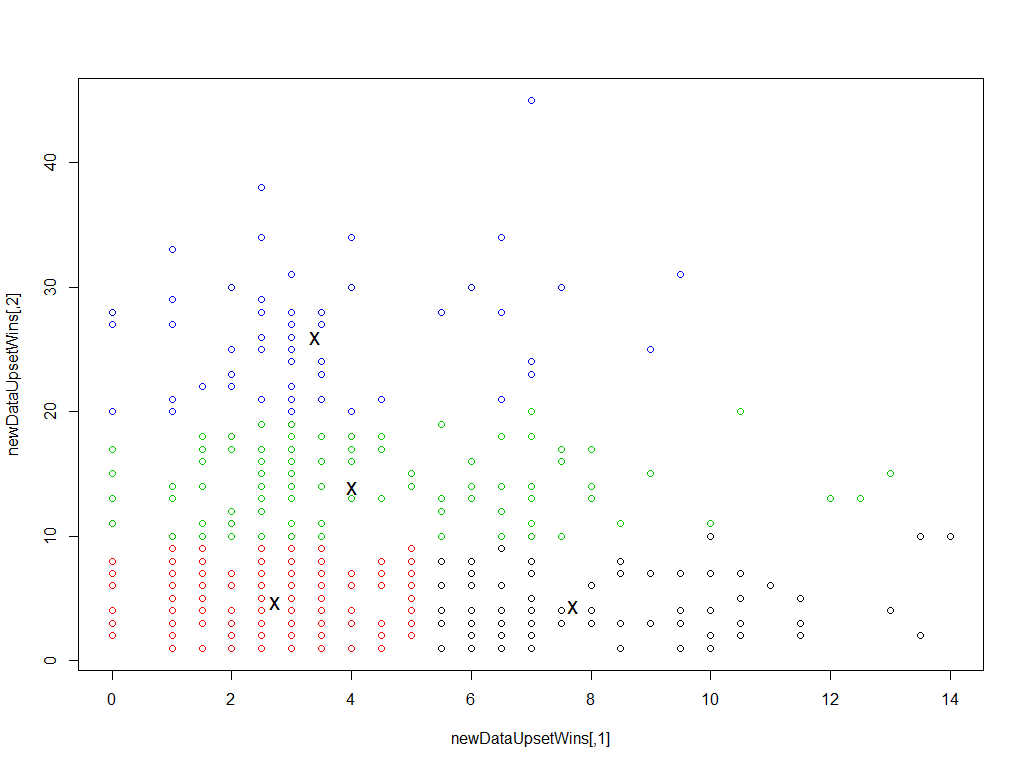


Figure . K-Means Clustering for *k*=4

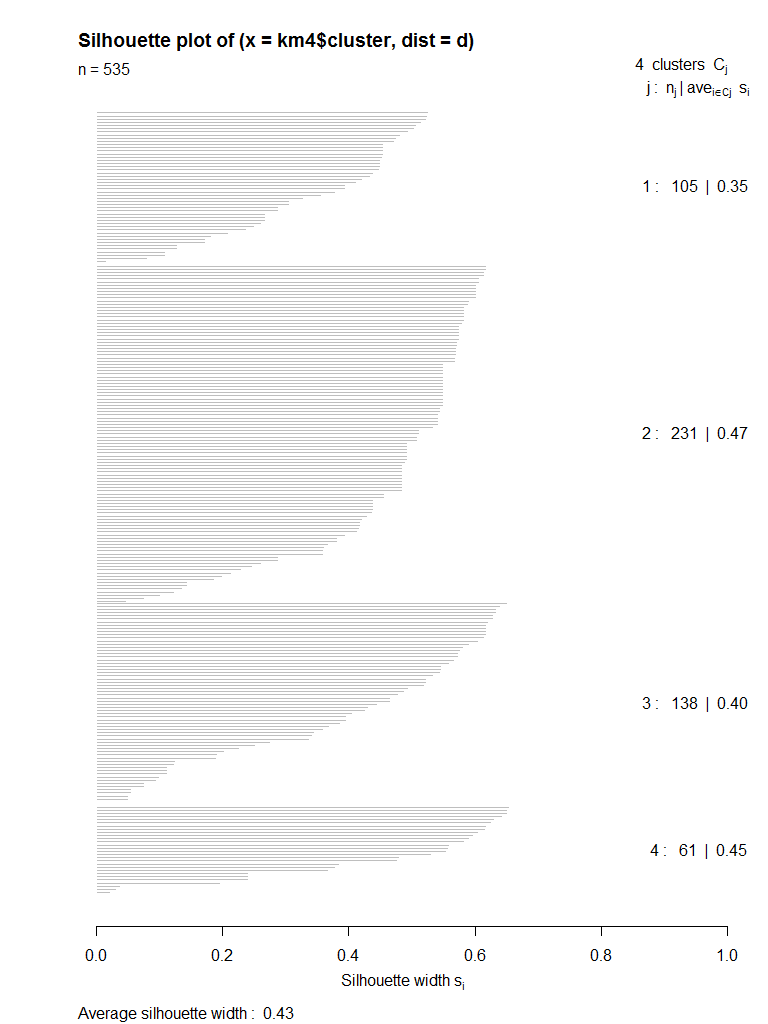


Figure . K-Means Clustering Silhouette Plot for *k*=4

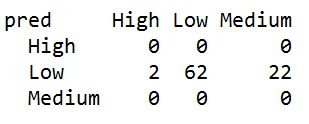
### Classification

#### Training and Testing

As previously mentioned, the holdout method is the type of classification cross validation used for this exercise. For the case of the Magnitude of Upset, only one application of the approach was used in which the training set consisted of previous season data and the test set consisted of current season data. Unfortunately, the test set containing the current season data did not have representation for each classification type; however, it was still a useful exercise in determining how well the prediction worked for these results.

#### Naïve Bayes

Table . Naïve Bayes Confusion Matrix Results



#### Decision Tree

~~The Decision Tree from constructed from the training set was more complicated than I had expected (see Figure 1). When I looked at the below Figure 2 of the relative error and complexity point (CP) it the complexity of the tree made more sense. As the size of the tree grew, the CP continued to decrease as well as the relative error. One interesting part of the resulting tree was even with the increase in tree size, the algorithm still did not determine a great way to classify balanced scales. The resulting Decision Tree from the training set had no leaf nodes with classification balanced despite numerous examples in the training data. The Decision Tree confusion matrix shown in Table 1 also confirms the trouble the Decision Tree classification had showing no balanced classifications for any of the test data.~~

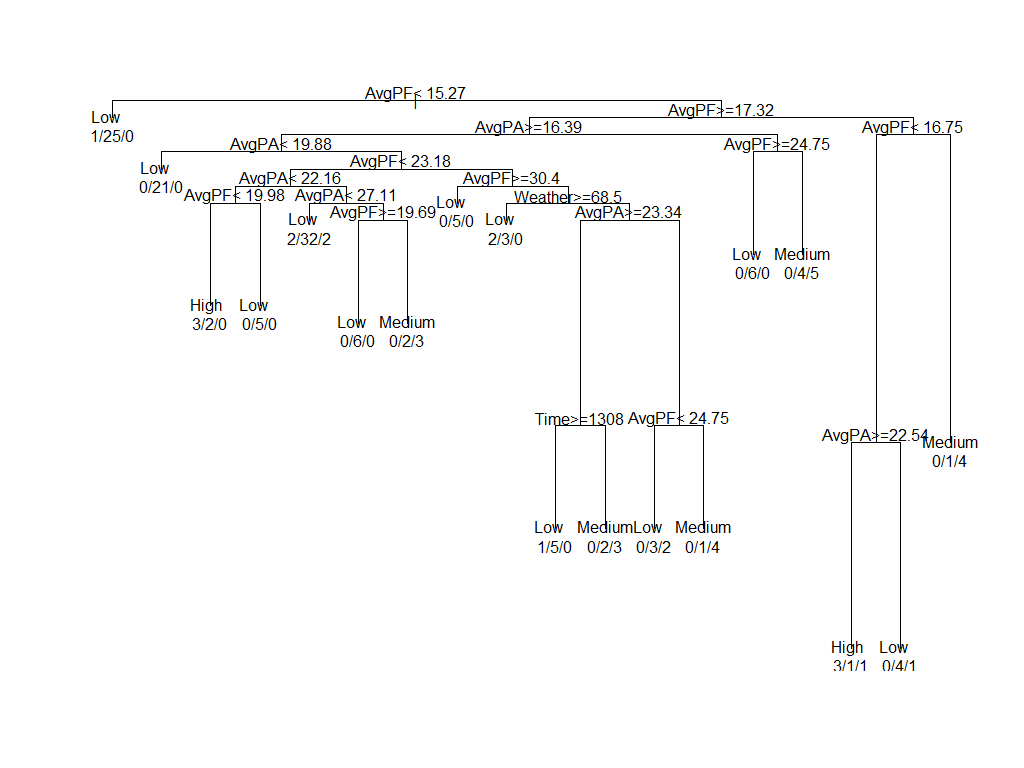


Figure . Decision Tree

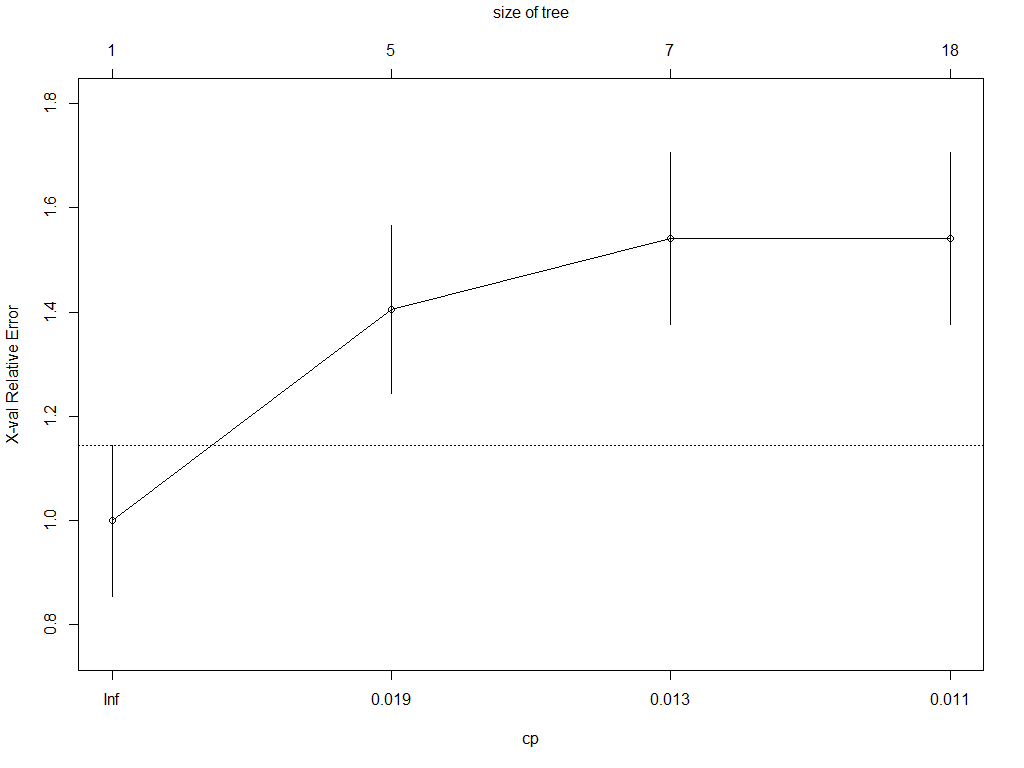
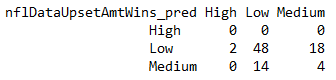


Figure . Relative Error and Complexity Point (CP)

Table . Decision Tree Confusion Matrix Results



## Upset Analysis

### Classification

#### Training and Testing

~~The Holdout Method is a type of cross validation for classification. In the method, the entire data set is randomly partitioned into two independent sets of specified size: the training set and the test set. The training set is used for model construction and the test set is used to evaluate the accuracy of the constructed model. In the case of our analysis, the data was partitioned with 70% in the training set and 30% in the test set. Both sets contain examples of each classification type.~~

#### Naïve Bayes

#### Decision Tree

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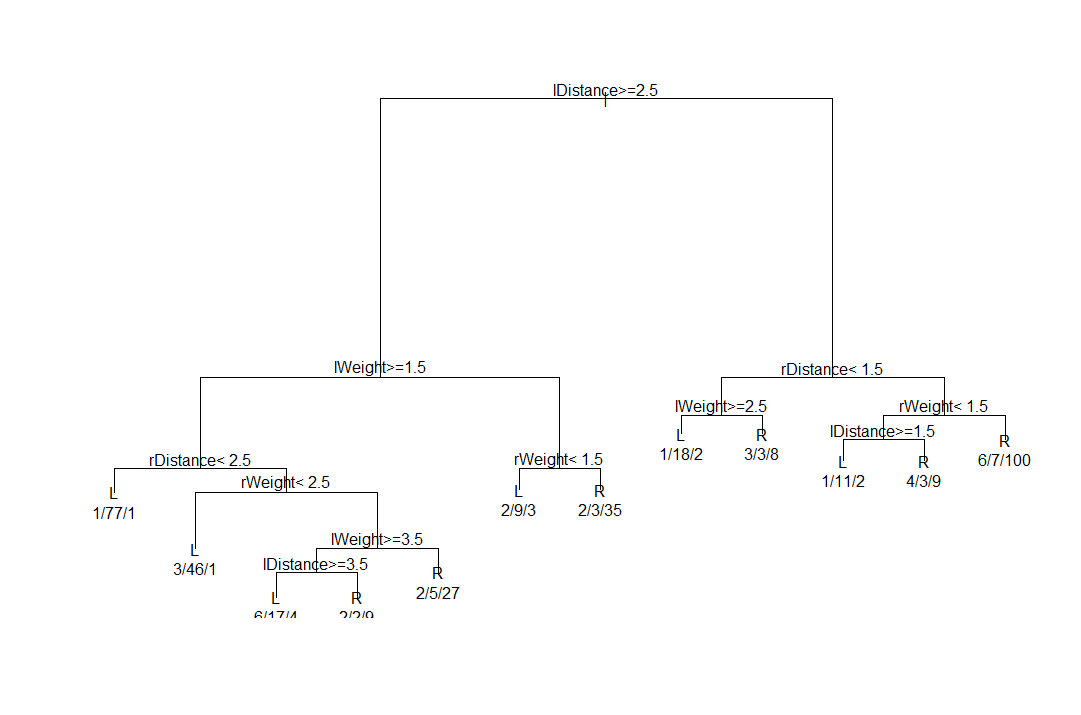


Figure 20. Decision Tree

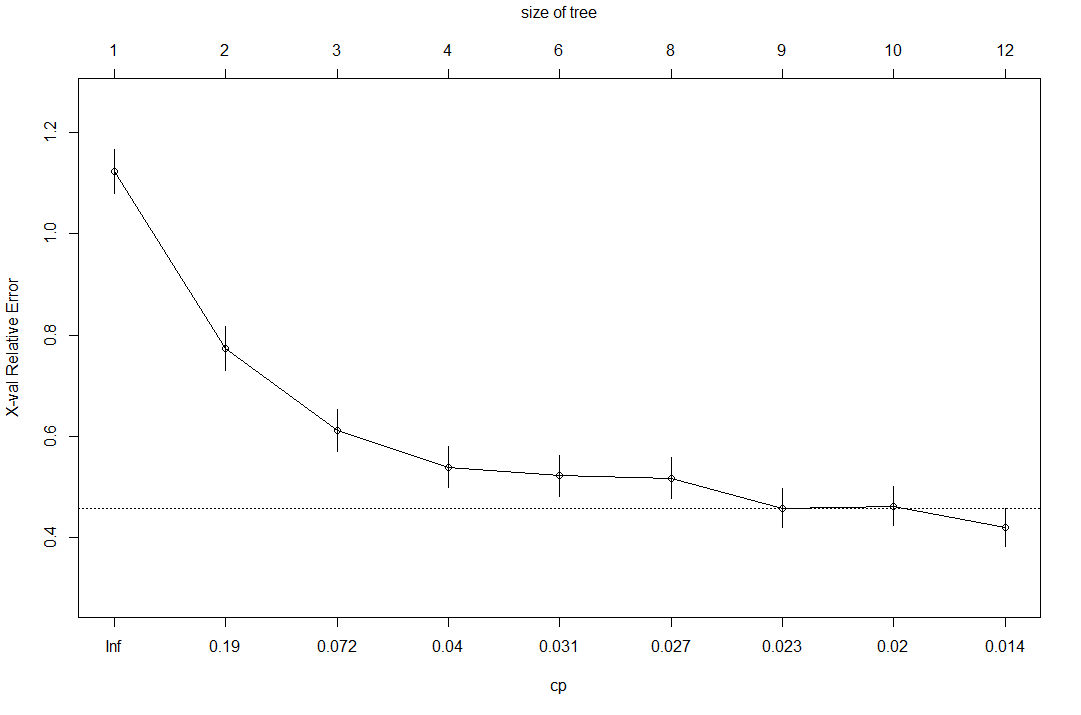
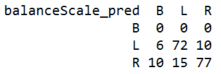


Figure 21. Relative Error and Complexity Point (CP)

Table 3. Decision Tree Confusion Matrix Results



## Analysis

### Magnitude of Upset

#### Naïve Bayes Classification Evaluation Metrics

##### Accuracy and Error Rate

The overall accuracy for the Naïve Bayes classification can be calculated using Table 1 as follows:

(0 + 62 + 0) / 86 = 0.721 = 72.1%

The overall error rate for the Naïve Bayes classification can be calculated using Table 1 as follows:

(2 + 0 + 22) / 86 = 0.279 = 27.9%

##### Sensitivity and Specificity

The sensitivity for each value for the Naïve Bayes classification can be calculated using Table 1 as follows:

High: 0 / 0 so it cannot be calculated

Low: 62 / 86 = 0.721 = 72.1%

Medium: 0 / 0 so it cannot be calculated

The specificity for each value for the Naïve Bayes classification can be calculated using Table 1 as follows:

High: 84 / 86 = 0.977 = 97.7%

Low: 0 / 0 so it cannot be calculated

Medium: 64 / 86 = 0.744 = 74.4%

##### Precision and Recall

The precision for each value for the Naïve Bayes classification can be calculated using Table 1 as follows:

High: 0 / (0 + 2) = 0%

Low: 62 / (62 + 0) = 1 = 100%

Medium: 0 / (0 + 22) = 0%

The recall for each value for the Naïve Bayes classification can be calculated using Table 1 as follows:

High: 0 / (0 + 0) so it cannot be calculated

Low: 62 / (62 + 24) = 0.721= 72.1%

Medium: 0 / (0 + 0) so it cannot be calculated

##### F-Measures

The F-measure for each value for the Naïve Bayes classification can be calculated using Table 1 as follows:

High: cannot be calculated since recall could not be calculated

Low: (2 \* 1 \* 0.721) / (1 + 0.721) = 0.838 = 83.8%

Medium: cannot be calculated since recall could not be calculated

#### Decision Tree Classification Evaluation Metrics

##### Accuracy and Error Rate

The overall accuracy for the Decision Tree classification can be calculated using Table 2 as follows:

(0 + 48 + 4) / 86 = 0.605 = 60.5%

The overall error rate for the Decision Tree classification can be calculated using Table 2 as follows:

(2 + 14 + 18) / 86 = 0.395 = 39.5%

##### Sensitivity and Specificity

The sensitivity for each value for the Decision Tree classification can be calculated using Table 2 as follows:

High: 0 / 0 so it cannot be calculated

Low: 48 / 68 = 0.706 = 70.6%

Medium: 4 / 18 = 0.222 = 22.2%

The specificity for each value for the Decision Tree classification can be calculated using Table 2 as follows:

High: 84 / 86 = 0.977 = 97.7%

Low: 4 / 18 = 0.222 = 22.2%

Medium: 50 / 68 = 0.735 = 73.5%

##### Precision and Recall

The precision for each value for the Decision Tree classification can be calculated using Table 2 as follows:

High: 0 / (0 + 2) = 0%

Low: 48 / (48 + 14) = 0.774 = 77.4%

Medium: 4 / (4 + 18) = 0.182 = 18.2%

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High: cannot be calculated since recall could not be calculated

Low: (2 \* 0.774 \* 0.706) / (0.774 + 0.706) = 0.738 = 73.8%

Medium: (2 \* 0.885 \* 0.755) / (0.885 + 0.755) = 0.815 = 81.5%

#### Overall

The Naïve Bayes classification seems to have performed with a less than 25% error rate and above 75% accuracy rate. The left-tipped and right-tipped values were evaluated very well with rates between 75% and 85%. The Decision Tree classification seems to have performed better than the Naïve Bayes classification, but it was a very slight difference. Both classifications still appear to have issues classifying the balanced

### Upset

#### Naïve Bayes Classification Evaluation Metrics

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# DISCUSSION / CONCLUSIONS

## DISCUSSION

~~We had originally hypothesized that factors such as percentage of police per capita, per capita income, and percentage of population with Bachelor’s degrees or higher would be significant in terms of violent crimes per capita. It turned out that these are indirectly related to the attributes that we found most significant.~~

~~Also in our original hypothesis was the percentage of police per capita. This too was a poor predictor of the incidents of violent crime per capita. We believe this result is biased in that the communities with police departments that had less than 100 police officers were not included in the data set minus a few randomly sampled examples.~~

~~Investment income was one of the attributes we determined to a factor in violent crimes per capita. It is indirectly related to per capita income in that investment income is usually thought of as the difference between income and expenses. It is also common for areas with high incomes per capita to be areas with a very high cost of living. Therefore, if we were to use purely per capita income the perceived wealth/income would be skewed in this scenario. Investment income is a better indicated of how well a community is doing relative to its cost of living.~~

~~In addition, there was not a significant separation between communities with a more educated resident base beyond a high school degree. It is possible that a high school degree was sufficient for a comfortable standard of living in the 1980s and 1990s. It would be interesting to explore this today and see if the threshold has increased to a bachelor’s degree.~~

## CONCLUSIONS

~~In our analysis, we saw a slight proportional relationship between high violent crime per capita and high percentage of divorcees as well as a high percentage of the population without a high school degree. We also saw a slight inverse proportional relationship between high violent crime per capita and communities with higher percentage of investment income as well as largely Caucasian communities.~~

~~When there was lower percentage of the population without a high school degree, a lower percentage of divorcees and higher percentage of Caucasians were found frequently. In addition, a higher percentage of Caucasians in the community was frequently found associated with a higher percentage of the population with investment income. High percentages of Caucasians in a community were also many times found with low to mid percentages of divorcees in the community.~~

~~The error rate for the classification was very high. There were also very few results in our frequent itemset analysis with the low percentage of violent crime per capita the only bin producing results. Even with the large size of the dataset, the fact that there was so much error and so little results does not give us confidence that the attributes we selected do have a strong case for influencing violent crime per capita.~~

~~We feel it would be useful to extend this study to analyze how change in any specific attribute is correlated with an increase or decrease in violent crime per capita. This would require additional datasets in preceding and/or succeeding years. This additional data would also help in determining outliers in the data, which could be used to improve the results of any analysis.~~

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