## **BINGR: Binary Search based Gaussian Regression**

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Abstract: Regression is the study of functional dependency of one variable with respect to other variables. In this paper we propose a novel regression algorithm, BINGR, for predicting dependent variable, having the advantage of low computational complexity. The algorithm is interesting because instead of directly predicting the value of the response variable, it recursively narrows down the range in which response variable lies. BINGR reduces the computation order to logarithmic which is much better than that of existing standard algorithms. As BINGR is parameterless, it can be employed by any naive user. Our experimental study shows that our technique is as accurate as the state of the art, and faster by an order of magnitude.

# 1 INTRODUCTION

The problem of regression is to estimate the value of dependent variable based on values of one or more independent variables, e.g., predicting price increase based-on demand or money supply based-on inflation rate etc. Regression analysis is used to understand which among the independent variables are related to the dependent variable and to explore the forms of these relationships. Regression algorithms can be used for prediction (including forecasting of timeseries data), inference, hypothesis-testing and modeling of causal relationships.

Statistical approaches try to learn a probability function  $P(y \mid x)$  and use it to predict the value of y for a given value of x. Users study the application domain to understand the form of this probability function. The function may have multiple parameters and coefficients in its expansion. Generally, these parameters and coefficients have to be learned from the given data, so as to give the best fit for the available data.

The existing standard algorithms (Desai et al., 2010; Han and Kamber, 2000; L. Breiman and Stone, 1999) suffer from one or more of high computational complexity, poor results, selection of parameters and extensive memory requirements e.g. KNN (Han and Kamber, 2000) gives accurate results but at the cost of high computational complexity, Decision trees (L. Breiman and Stone, 1999) can become too complex and memory extensive, etc.

This motivated us to strive for an algorithm which has low computational complexity, is simple, gives accurate results and is parameterless. Our main contribution, in this work, is a new regression algorithm Binary search based Gaussian Regression (BINGR). Our proposed algorithm gives accurate results in logarithmic time which is a significant improvement over the existing linear time regression algorithms. Also, our algorithm is parameterless and does not require any knowledge of the domain in which it is to be applied.

Before presenting the algorithm, we would like to mention some of its salient features. BINGR is highly efficient with computational complexity of  $O(\log n)$ as compared to O(n) of other existing standard algorithms, where *n* is the number of tuples present in dataset. The algorithm is also parameterless, accurate, generic and highly efficient. It is also simple to understand and easy to implement.

In our algorithm, we don't predict the values of response variable directly. Instead we try to minimize the range in which the response variable has the maximum probability of occurrence. Also, the algorithm presented does not require any prior study of the dataset, to set any of the parameters or coefficients. Hence the algorithm can be employed by any naive user.

To get a precise and better understanding, it is important to formulate the problem as a mathematical model. We do this in the next section.

## **2 PROBLEM FORMULATION**

In this section, we present the mathematical model

258 Dubey H., Bharambe S. and Pudi V.. BINGR: Binary Search based Gaussian Regression. DOI: 10.5220/0004159302580263 In *Proceedings of the International Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Information Retrieval* (KDIR-2012), pages 258-263 ISBN: 978-989-8565-29-7 Copyright © 2012 SCITEPRESS (Science and Technology Publications, Lda.) used to model the dataset and state the assumption along with their justification.

The problem of regression is to estimate the value of a dependent variable (known as response variable) based on values of one or more independent variables (known as feature variables). We model the tuple as  $\{X, y\}$  where X is an ordered set of variables (properties) like  $\{x_1, x_2, ..., x_n\}$  and y is the variable to be predicted. Here  $x_i$  are variables.

Formally, the problem has the following inputs:

- An ordered set of feature variables X ie {x<sub>1</sub>, x<sub>2</sub>, ..., x<sub>n</sub>}
- A set of tuples called the training dataset,  $D_{1} = \{(X_{1}, y_{1}), (X_{2}, y_{2}), \dots, (X_{m}, y_{m})\}.$

The output is an estimated value of y for the given X. Mathematically, it can be represented as

$$= f(X, D, parameters), \tag{1}$$

where *parameters* are the arguments which the function f() takes. These are generally set by user and are learned by trial and error method.

We assume that the dependent variable is only dependent on the independent variables and nothing else. This is the sole assumption we make. If this assumption is not satisfied, then there is no chance of obtaining accurate estimates even with the best possible regression algorithms available. In the coming section we discuss work done related to this topic.

## **3 RELATED WORK**

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Before presenting our algorithms, we would like to throw light on related work done in the recent past

The most common statistical regression approach is linear regression (Seber and Lee, 1999) which assumes the entire data to follow a linear relationship between the response variable and the feature variables. Linear Regression does not perform well if the relationship between the variables is not linear.

One of the widely used regression algorithm is KNN i.e. K-Nearest-Neighbors. In this algorithm distance of the test tuple is calculated from every training tuple, and output is given based on the k nearest tuples. It is resistant to outliers. There is no pre-processing; every calculation is done in run-time. Hence it has high computation complexity and performs poorly as far as efficiency is concerned. Moreover, it requires learning of a parameter; asking the user to have some understanding of the domain.

Another class of regression algorithms is SVM (Smola and Scholkopf, 1998), Support Vector Machines. Support Vector Machines are very specific class of algorithms, characterized by usage of kernels, absence of local minima, sparseness of the solution and capacity control obtained by acting on the margin, or on number of support vectors. SVM try to linearly separate the dataset and use this technique for prediction. SVM suffer several disadvantages like choice of kernel, discrete data, multi-class classifiers, selection of kernel function parameters, high algorithmic complexity, extensive memory requirements etc.

Another popular class of regression algorithms is Decision trees. These algorithms build up a tree, which is later used for decision making. They generally don't require any data cleaning. Since the problem of constructing an optimal decision tree is NP-Complete, heuristic algorithms are used which take locally optimal decisions. One of the major problems with Decision trees is that the tree can become too big and complex.

Neural networks (Haykin, 2009) are another class of data mining approaches that have been applied for regression. However, neural networks are complex closed box models and hence an in-depth analysis of the results obtained is not possible. Data mining applications typically demand an open-box model where the prediction can be explained to the user, since it is to be used for his decision support.

One of the latest works in the field of regression is PAGER (Desai et al., 2010). Being derived from nearest neighbor methods, PAGER is simple and also outliers-resilient. It assigns weight to non-feature variables based on how much they influence the value of the response variable. But as it is derived from KNN, it also suffers from poor run-time performance.

Our work shares resemblance with segmented or piecewise regression (H.P.Ritzema, 1994). However upon analysis, the techniques are entirely different. In segmented regression the independent variables are partitioned into segments. In our method, the response variable is partitioned into two groups to facilitate a binary search based methodology.

Our work seems to share a resemblance with Binary logistic regression (Hilbe and Joseph, 2009). However the technique is again entirely different. In Binary logistic regression the response variable is assumed to follow a binomial logit model and the parameters of this model are learnt from training data.

### 4 BINGR

In this section we present the BINGR Algorithm, followed by experimental results in the next section. The algorithm is straightforward and follows the Divide and Conquer kind-of policy. The pre-processing of the algorithm is to sort the training data tuples on basis on increasing value of *y*-attribute. Sorting can be either ways (increasing or decreasing), it is just that we preferred increasing value of *y*-attribute. This is the only pre-processing step required.

Let us consider the pseudo-code (Algorithm 1) of BINGR algorithm. When a query comes, the training data is split into two parts (as shown in lines 2, 3 and 4). For splitting, the length of half<sub>1</sub> is calculated as total length divided by 2. Division is analogous to integer division ie 6/2 = 3,7/2 = 3,8/2 = 4,9/2 = 4,10/2 = 5 etc. The first half\_len tuples of the training dataset are put into half<sub>1</sub> while rest are put into half<sub>2</sub>.

#### Algorithm 1: Pseudo code of BINGR.

1: while  $len(training_data) > 2$  do 2:  $half\_len \leftarrow len(training\_data)/2$  $half_1 \leftarrow training\_data[0, \dots, half\_len]$ 3:  $half_2 \leftarrow training\_data[half\_len+1,...,$ 4: 5:  $P_1 \leftarrow getGaussianProbability(query, half_1);$  $P_2 \leftarrow getGaussianProbability(query, half_2);$ 6: 7: if  $P_1 > P_2$  then *training\_data*  $\leftarrow$  *half*<sup>1</sup> 8: 9: else 10: training\_data  $\leftarrow$  half<sub>2</sub> 11: end if if  $min(p_1/p_2, p_2/p_1) \in [0.95, ..., 1.0]$  then 12: 13: break from the loop.  $14 \cdot$ end if 15: end while

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16: print mean(y values in training_data)
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The next task is to find the probability of the query belonging to those halves. This can be accomplished by assuming Gaussian distribution of each independent variable, for the half, estimating mean and variance using the Maximum Likelihood Estimate (Duda and Stork, 2000) and then using the probability density function of Gaussian distribution (Equation 2).

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \cdot e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} \tag{2}$$

The probability of the query belonging to a half is the product of probabilities of the independent variables belonging to that half. We take product because the variables are assumed to be independent.

The half, having higher probability of query belonging to it, is now considered as the training dataset and whole procedure is repeated again and again until the breaking condition (line no 12) is met or length of training dataset becomes sufficiently small (less than 2). Once achieved, the mean of the *y*-attributes in training\_data is quoted as output.

Sometimes, the probability of occurrence of query in both the halves becomes nearly equal. In such cases, a confident decision of assigning a half to training\_data can not be made. Hence, the breaking condition, i.e., if the ratio of probabilities lies between 0.95 and 1.0 then break the loop, is required. The value of 0.95 was chosen after a lot experimentation on several datasets.

#### 4.1 Complexity Analysis

It can be seen from Algorithm 1. that the while loop iterates  $O(\log n)$  times. Mean and variance for partitions can be computed during the pre-processing phase. Thus calculating probability of a query belonging to a partition can be calculated in O(1)computational time. The computational complexity of the algorithm (apart from pre-processing) is, thus, O(logn). KNN is linear in time, as for each query it does a linear scan of the training data and then selects the *K* nearest neighbors among them. We compare the run-time of BINGR with KNN in Table 1. Figure 1 shows a graphical comparison of the same. The accuracy is discussed in the Experiments Section.

Table 1: Comparison of Run Times.

Number of Tuples	BINGR	KNN
10	94	72
100	452	507
1000	1685	5274
10000	2704	56283
100000	3575	549270
1000000	4281	5364766

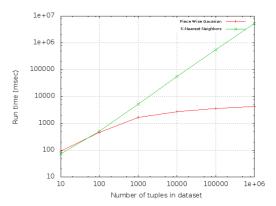


Figure 1: Comparison of Run Times BINGR(red) and KNN(green).

### **5** ILLUSTRATION

We will provide an illustration for a better understanding of the algorithm. Consider the following dataset, shown in Table 2.

Tuple Number	X1	x2	X3	Y	
1	24	32.9	29.2	18.7	
2	24.5	32.1	28.6	18	
3	23.4	32.5	29.8	17.4	
4	23.2	32.4	29.7	19	
5	23.2	31.8	29.7	18.3	
6	24.1	32.9	29.8	18.8	
7	23.9	31.4	29.9	18.9	
8	23.6	32.7	29.9	19.1	
9	23.2	32.1	29.3	18.5	
10	23.5	32.6	28.8	18.3	
11	23.8	32.1	29.6	18.8	

Table 2: A Sample Dataset.

And consider the tuple {23.7, 32.3, 28.9, 17.8}. Here 17.8 is the actual answer while {23.7, 32.3, 28.9} is the query. The algorithm proceeds as described below.

First the data is sorted on basis of increasing yvalue. The data is then divided into 2 halves; the first one contains tuples numbered 1,2,3,4, and5 while second half contains tuples numbered 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11. The probability of query belonging to first half turns out to be 0.697 which is much greater than that of second half i.e. 0.012. Also, the probabilities are not similar, i.e., their ratio does not belong to the range [0.95, ..., 1.0] and hence, we don't break from the loop. Thus, training data will now be the first half. Length of training data, 5, is greater than 2 and hence the process will be repeated. The first half now consists of tuples numbered 1 and 2 while second half consists of tuples numbered 3, 4, and 5. Again the probability of query belonging to first half (0.792) turns out to be greater than that of second half (0.039). Thus training data is assigned to first half. Again, the probabilities are not similar (ratio = 0.049) and hence, we continue with the loop. The length of training data is equal to 2 and the average of y-values  $\{17.4, 18.0\}$  in training data is quoted as output i.e. 17.7 which is a significantly accurate answer.

## 6 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

In this section we will compare our algorithm with existing standard algorithms on standard datasets. For comparing the results we have used two metrics, namely Absolute Mean Error (ABME) and Root Mean Square Error (RSME). The datasets have been taken from UCI data repository (uci, ), a brief description of the datasets follows later.

Absolute Mean Error (ABME) is the mean of absolute difference of predicted value and the actual value of dependent variable. Root Mean Square Error (RMSE) is the square root of mean of squared difference of predicted value and actual value of the dependent variable.

The performance of our algorithm has been evaluated against performance of widely known and used regression algorithms namely, KNN (Han and Kamber, 2000), Simple Linear (Seber and Lee, 1999), RBF (Haykin, 2009) and LMS (Jung, 2005). These algorithms were selected as they were shown to perform better than several other algorithms in a recent study - PAGER (Desai et al., 2010). All results have been obtained using leave one out comparison technique which is a specific case of n-folds cross validation (Duda and Stork, 2000) where n is set to number of tuples in the dataset. The algorithms were simulated on Weka (Hall and Ian, 2009) and best suited parameter values were selected after trial and error process. The parameter values have been summarized in Table 3.

Table 4 and Table 5 illustrate the results of our algorithm and their comparison with other standard algorithms. Results in Table 4 (machine dataset and autoprice dataset) show that our algorithms are most suited to dense datasets, while Figure 2 and Figure 3 show graphical representation of results obtained on Machine dataset and Housing Dataset respectively.

Table 3: Best Parameter values in Weka.

Algorithm	Parameter Settings
Simple Linear Regression	(Simple Linear Regres-
	sion)
RBF Network	(RBFNetwork -B 2 -S 1 -R
	1.0E-8 -M -1 -W 0.1)
Least Median Square Re-	(LeastMedSq -S 4 -G 0)
gression	

The CPU dataset (uci, ) has 6 independent variables and 1 dependent variable. The dataset consists of 209 tuples.

The Housing dataset (uci, ) has 13 independent variables and 1 dependent variable. It has 506 tuples. The Housing dataset concerns housing values in suburbs of Boston, which is the variable value to be predicted.

The Autoprice Dataset (mld, ) has 15 continuous attributes, 1 integer attribute and 10 nominal attributes, making a total of 26 attributes. The dataset contains 206 tuples and is taken from mldata repository (mld, ).

Regression	Machine		Autoprice	
Algorithms	Dataset		Dataset	
	AMBE RMSE		AMBE	RMSE
KNN	95	192	1609	2902
BINGR	36	78	1762	2735
Simple Lin-	160	237	1906	2861
ear				
RBF	158	247	2751	4321
LMS	136	272	2211	3808

Table 4: Results on Machine	e and Autoprice Dataset.
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Table 5:	Results	s on	CPU	and	Housing	Dataset
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Regression Algorithms	CPU Dataset		Housi Datas	0
- ingoriumis	AMBE	RMSE	AMBE	RMSE
KNN	18.92	74.83	3.00	4.67
BINGR	25.55	75.34	4.7	6.81
Simple Lin-	43.13	70.46	4.52	6.23
ear				
RBF	52.35	119.28	6.05	8.19
LMS	33.6	107.5	3.36	5.4
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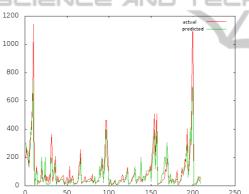


Figure 2: Results of BINGR on Machine Dataset, X axis represent serial number of tuple. Y-axis represents value of response variable.

The Machine dataset (uci, ) also has 6 independent variables and 1 dependent variable. The dataset consists of 209 tuples.

It can be seen that the algorithm is accurate when compared to many existing standard algorithms. Though KNN outperforms our algorithm in many cases, taking linear time to compute the result, it is important to note that it takes a parameter from the user, demanding the user to have an understanding of the domain. On the other hand, our algorithm provides quality results without asking for any parameters from the user and that too in logarithmic time.

The main reasons for excellent performance of our algorithm are

• It recursively narrow downs the range in which the

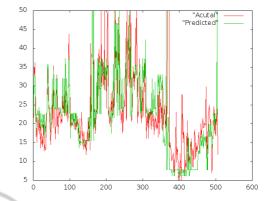


Figure 3: Results of BINGR on Housing Dataset, X axis represent serial number of tuple. Y-axis represents value of response variable.

expected value of the response variable lies.

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• Our algorithm focuses on the local distribution around the point for which the response variable needs to be predicted.

## 7 CONCLUSIONS

In this paper we have presented a new regression algorithm and evaluated it against existing standard algorithms. The algorithm focuses on minimizing the range in which the response attribute has the maximum likelihood. In addition to this, it does not require any understanding of the domain. As shown in Complexity Analysis section, BINGR takes O(logn)computation time, which is much better than the existing standard algorithms. Also the algorithm is significantly more accurate than the existing state of art.

A lot of work is planned for enhancement of the algorithm. For example, the value 4 in can be learned from the dataset, i.e., there can be early break from the while loop.

The output currently is quoted as mean of the *y*-attribute values. This can be bettered by using some interpolation method to give the output.

Also, studies can be carried out to find better splitting methods. For instance, splitting can be done considering values of *y*-attribute instead of simply bisecting the dataset.

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