# EFFECTIVE ANALYSIS OF AIR POLLUTION USING DECISION TREE, NAIVE BAYES AND ZEROR CLASSIFIERS

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# Abstract

One of the leading factors for survival of living organisms on the earth is air. In the last twenty years, the world has been advancing in technology which has impacted negatively on the atmosphere around us thereby polluting the air. This explained why many researchers placed value on accurately forecasting the levels of pollution in the air. Also, an effective air quality management greatly depends on accurate air prediction. Recently, machine learning techniques are widely used in knowledge discovery. The study, therefore, analyzed the effectiveness of three machine learning techniques on air pollution dataset that was downloaded from Kaggle repository. The dataset consists of 15 attributes and 29532 instances which were further divided into 70% for training and 30% for testing. The metrics used for evaluation include: classification accuracy, error rate, execution time, mean absolute error, Root mean squared error (RMSE), confusion matrix and area under curve (AUC). The stimulation was done using WEKA statistical tool. The results showed error rate value of 0, 0.7, and 64.5% for Decision tree, Naive Bayes and ZeroR respectively. Area under curve value of 1, 0.992 and 0.499; Mean absolute error value 0, 0.0034 and 0.2457; Root mean squared error (RMSE) value of 0, 0.0427 and 0.3505; and Kappa statistic value of 1, 0.9903 and 0 for Decision tree, Naive Bayes and ZeroR respectively. Based on the analysis, the study concluded that decision tree algorithm recorded the highest prediction accuracy followed by Naive Bayes and ZeroR based on the datasets used. The study, therefore, recommends that the performance of other classification algorithms could be tested on the datasets.

Keywords: Air pollution, Classification algorithm, Decision tree, Naïve Bayes, ZeroR

### Introduction

The existence of man can be seen to depend majorly on three things which are water, air and information, amongst these things mentioned air is very important. One of the leading factors for survival of living organisms on the earth is air. In the last twenty years, the world has been experiencing technology progression and transformation and this has counter effect on air. Air pollution is growing due to urbanization, industrial enterprise, machine, power plants, chemical action, and some of the other artificial activities such as agricultural burning and mountain eruptions. Pollution in the air has a straight effect on human well-being through the exposure of pollutants and particulates, this has led to high increase in air pollution research and its effects among the scientific gathering (Hvidtfeldt et. al., 2018; Gonzalez et. al., 2017; Pimpin et al. 2018).

The World Health Organization (WHO) estimated that around 6.9 million of deaths that occurred are due to air contamination throughout the world which has turned into a serious issue on the earth. It is evident from researches carried out around the world, that cities due to technological advancement have the leading danger zone. Many people are dying each year because of air pollution in major cities (i.e. urban areas) compared to rural areas. Air pollutants are categorized as solid particles, liquid droplets, or gases, which are grouped into the following: primary pollutants and secondary pollutants. The primary pollutants are discharge from the source straightaway into the air. The sources can be either physical processes, like sandstorms or human-affiliated, such as manufacture and vehicle discharge. The most common primary pollutants include the following: particulate matter (PM), sulfur

dioxide (SO<sub>2</sub>), carbon monoxide (CO) and nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>). Secondary pollutants are air pollutants created in the atmosphere, resulting from the chemical or physical interactions between primary generated pollutants. Some of the examples of secondary pollutants include: photochemical oxidants and particulate matter. The most frequent air pollutants are known as the criteria pollutants, which agree to the most distributed health menace, e.g., PM, CO, lead, ground-level ozone (O<sub>3</sub>), NO<sub>2</sub>, and SO<sub>2</sub>. Scientific investigation has proved a correlation between short-term vulnerability to this kind of pollutants and many health challenges, like limited ability to react to enlarged oxygen demands when sweating (particularly for people with heart issues), airway inflammation with people that have good health condition and increased respiratory indication for people with asthma, respiratory emergencies particularly for children and the elderly, and so on (US EPA, 2015). Developing a predictive system based on the levels of distribution of individual pollutants, which can predict air quality, will be a valuable and welcome research area that will promote population's health. Systems that can bring forth warnings based on air quality are consequently needed and essential for the world. They may play crucial roles in health vigilance when air pollution levels might surpass the specified levels; also, they may incorporate existing emission control programs, for example, by assisting environmental regulators the option of "on-demand" emission reductions, functional planning, or even emergency response (CERN, 2001).

In the face of progressively serious environmental pollution difficulty, scholars have conducted so many related studies, and in those works, the forecasting of air pollution has been of high importance. Thus, with the understanding of the increasing pollution caused problems, the importance of accurately forecasting the levels of air pollutants has equally increased, playing a vital role in air quality management and population prevention against pollution jinx. In order to solve all these problems, predictive model for forecasting the air quality in smart cities seems promising using machine learning techniques. The main goal of this paper is to analyze the efficiency of three different machine learning techniques for forecasting air pollution. Thus the concurrence of air pollutants like PM2.5, PM10, NO, NO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>X</sub>, NH<sub>3</sub>, CO, SO<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>3</sub>, Benzene, Toluene, and Xylene, as a measure of air quality index (AQI), can be predicted by this model on time, with the least possible errors in the amount of air pollutants in the atmosphere to create an alert when specific threshold values are reached. The study therefore intends to use Decision Tree Algorithm, Naive Bayes Algorithm and ZeroR Algorithm for the air prediction model. The experiments would be conducted on the air pollution dataset using statistical WEKA tools. The rest of the paper is organized as follows: Section 2 contained the review of the related works on air quality prediction. Section 3 introduced study areas, models for predicting the air pollution and methodology in details. Section 4 introduced the performance criteria and the result discussion of the research. Section 5 presented concluding remarks.

#### **Factors Responsible for Air Pollution**

Air pollution resulted from both human and natural actions. Forest fires, volcanic eruptions, wind erosion, pollen dispersal, evaporation of organic compounds and natural radioactivity are natural events that pollute air (Pai et al., 2011). The burning of different kinds of fuel which include smoke stacks of power plants, manufacturing facilities (factories) and waste furnace, as well as furnaces and other types of fuel-burning heating devices. Also Waste product from paint, hair spray, coat, aerosol sprays and other dissolving agent make up air pollution. Waste products on landfills generate methane which is highly flammable, may turn to explosive mixtures with air. Nuclear weapons, toxic gases, germ and rocketry, also made up air pollutants. Vegetation in some areas discharge environmentally significant amounts of volatile organic compounds (VOCs) on sunny days. These VOCs react with main anthropogenic pollutants majorly, NO<sub>X</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>, and anthropogenic organic carbon compound to produce a seasonal haze of secondary pollutants.

#### Naïve Bayesian model

Naïve Bayesian model is easy to develop, with no complex iterative parameter estimation, which makes it particularly useful for large datasets.

$$\mathbf{P}(\mathbf{A}|\mathbf{B}) = \frac{\mathbf{P}(\mathbf{B}|\mathbf{A})\mathbf{P}(\mathbf{A})}{\mathbf{P}(\mathbf{B})}$$
(1) Despite its simplicity, the Naïve

Bayesian classifier often does brilliantly well and is commonly used because it regularly outperforms other classification techniques. The Bayes theorem is expressed in Equation 1.

### **Decision Tree Regression**

Decision tree (DT) algorithm is a well-known machine learning model that falls under the category of supervised learning. As a good tool it can also be used for classification and predictions tasks (or activities). The basic idea of DT is to use the tree representation to solve the proposed problem in which each leaf/node corresponds to a specific class/label and columns are represented on the internal nodes of the created tree (Dixian et. al. 2018). The main problem of applying DT is to select the attribute for the root node in each level. To overcome this problem (attribute selection) there are two attributes selection measures namely information gain and gini index as shown in Equation 2.

Information Gain (S, A) = Entropy(S) - 
$$\sum_{j=1}^{2} (p_j)^2 \underset{v \in \text{Values}}{\longrightarrow} (2)$$

#### **ZeroR Classifier**

ZeroR is one of the rule based classifiers which depends on the target and neglect all predictors. It merely predicts the bulk class. The ZeroR classifier examines the target attribute and its possible values. It builds the frequency table and pick out its most common value. It will output the value that is most often found for the reference point attribute in the given dataset. ZeroR as its names implies, does not consist of any rule that function on the non-target attributes. The overall goal is to predict the mean (for a numeric type target attribute) or the mode (for a nominal type attribute).

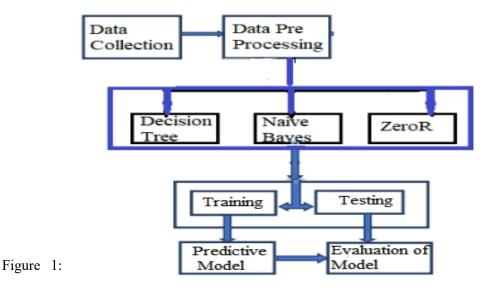
# **Related Works**

Numerous techniques have been proposed in order to apply machine learning and data mining to predict air pollution control in recent literature. Cai et al. (2009) carried out a study to compare the results obtained from the prediction using a multilinear regression model (MRM) to the ones achieved by an artificial neural network (ANN) when predicting hourly air pollutant concentration, the outcome of the study found out that ANNs produced more robust results than MRM. Pires et al. (2010) conducted a research using geometric progression (GP) to predict the daily averages of PM10 concentrations, comparing it with partial least square regression (PLSR), and it was concluded that GP was able to predict the pollution. Tikhe et al. (2013) developed an air predictive model. The study used both ANNs and GP to predict air quality in India. The study concluded that both approaches obtained reasonable performance when predicting the air pollutant concentrations, but the study found out that GP obtained better results when short-term forecasting was considered. Castelli et al. (2016) also carried out a research to predict the quality of air. The study presented an evolutionary system to predict ozone concentrations an hour earlier with GP, based on other pollutant concentrations. The study found out that the approach achieved accurate results, better than the state-of-theart machine learning (ML) techniques. Vineeta et. al. (2019) conducted a study to estimate the air pollution for any day/time in Bengaluru city using a trained machine learning model with pollution data gathered from government sites and static sensors. The study used linear regression (LR), decision tree regression (DTR) and random forest regression (RFR). The study concluded that ML technique predicted accurately the air pollution. Amrutha C and Prasad B. G. (2018) developed a multiple individual prediction models including

autoregressive integrated moving average (ARIMA), multilayer perception (MLP), and multiple linear regression (MLR) for PM2.5 pollutant. The study came up with air pollutant concentration prediction using ensemble of machine learning techniques based on the three individual prediction algorithms ARIMA, MLR and MLP. Castelli et al. (2020) employed a popular machine learning method, support vector regression (SVR), to forecast pollutant and particulate levels and to predict the air quality index (AQI). Among the various tested alternatives, they found out that radial basis function (RBF) was the type of kernel that allowed SVR to obtain the most accurate predictions. The research concluded based on the results that SVR with RBF kernel allow to accurately predict hourly pollutant concentrations like carbon monoxide, sulfur dioxide, nitrogen dioxide etc. Doreswamy et al. (2020) developed machine learning predictive models for forecasting particulate matter concentration in atmospheric air. They investigated on Taiwan Air Quality Monitoring data sets, which were obtained from 2012 to 2017. Their models developed were compared with the existing traditional models and the result was better in predictive performance. The performance of these models was evaluated with statistical measures such as root mean square error (RMSE), mean absolute error (MAE), mean square error (MSE), and coefficient of determination (R2). Based on the literature consulted so far little or no research was carried out to analyze the effect of air pollution using Decision tree, Naïve Bayes and ZeroR classifiers on air pollution dataset.

#### Methodology

Three data mining classifications algorithms, namely Decision tree, Naïve Bayes and ZeroR were employed in the prediction of the air pollution. Figure 1 shows the framework for this study.



Framework for the study

# **Datasets and Attributes**

The datasets were obtained from Kaggle dataset Repository. The dataset consists of 15 attributes namely: Date, PM2.5, PM10, NO, NO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>X</sub>, NH<sub>3</sub>, CO, SO<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>3</sub>, Benzene, Toluene, Xylene, AQI, and AQI\_Bucket. The data consists of information collected from 29532 instances. The values of the first 15 features were used to define the input variables of the prediction model. The percentage splits of 70% training and 30% testing were used for the prediction. Table 1 shows the presentation of the characteristics of the datasets

+++	Table 1: Air Pollution Dataset						
	Training Data	Testing Data					
	70%	30%					

### 3.2 Models

The predictive model for the air pollution was formulated using the specified dataset. The mathematical expressions called mapping functions were used to express the process of model development (and loss function) following which the description of the selected Decision Tree, Naïve Bayesian and ZeroR algorithms were selected for the purpose of this study. The training dataset S which consisted of the original features identified at the point of data identification and collection was represented by i, where i is the number of features existing in the original dataset whose record were collected number of instances. If n datasets are selected for training the predictive model using a supervised machine learning (SML) to formulate the model using the relevant variables is given by the mapping:

 $\varphi: X_{in} \to Y_n; \tag{3}$ 

where;  $X_{in} = Y_n$  for all attributes ,  $_{in}$  is the set of *n* instances of the Kaggle datasets collected for the *i* air pollution variables and  $Y_n$  is the *n* instances of prediction of the datasets as correctly classified or incorrectly classified. Hence, the selected SMLs determine the best fit for  $\varphi \in \mathbb{R}$  (the set of all possible mappings) based on the minimization of the loss function defined for each SML as the mapping below:

 $\mathbb{L}: \mathbb{Y} \times \mathbb{Y} \to \mathbb{R}^+$ ; defined as  $\mathbb{L}(Y_a Y_p)$  (4)

where  $\mathbb{R}$ + is a positive real number and  $Y_a$ ,  $Y_p$  are the actual and predicted values of the target class of air pollution prediction respectively. Hence, the optimal predictive model is formulated when  $\lim_{n\to j} \mathbb{L}_n = 0$ .

Hence, the prediction of the air is thus:

 $\begin{array}{l} \mathcal{L}(Y_a, Y_p) = \\ \{ correct \ classification; = 0 \\ incorrect \ classication; \neq 0 \end{array} \} \end{array}$ 

(5)

#### **Data Pre-processing**

Data quality and its representation are the first and foremost points to guarantee the successful building of forecasting models. The data preprocessing step often impacts the generalization ability of a machine learning algorithm (Kotsiantis et. al. 2006). The data pre-processing was carried out using multi filter as shown in Figure 2 and Figure 3.

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arrent relation		Selected attribute		
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ttributes		No. Label	Count	Weight
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No. Name	1	4 Amritsar 5 Bengaluru	1221	1221.0 2009.0
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2 Date		7 Brairainaga		938.0
3 PM2.5		8 Chandipart		304.0
4 PM10		9 Chennai	2009	2009.0
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6 NO2				
7 NOx		Class: AQI_Bucket (Norm		Visualize A
8 N#13				
9 00				
10 802				
11 03				
12 Benzene				
13 Toluene				
14 Xylana				
15 AQI		-		
16 AQ_Bucket		25 922		
			32	

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#### Figure 2: Data Prep processing

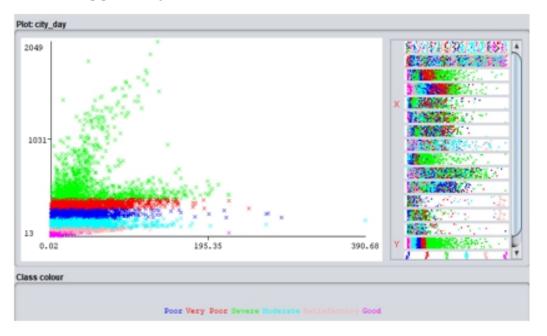


Figure 3: Graphical View of the Pre-processing

#### **Evaluation Parameters**

The classification techniques selected were evaluated based on six parameters namely: Classification Accuracy, Execution Time (Speed), Error Rate, Confusion Matrix, Kappa statistic and Area Under Curve (AUC).

### **Classification Accuracy**

Classification accuracy is the ratio of several correct predictions to the number of input samples. The algorithm can correctly predict the class label of new or previously unseen data.

 $Accuracy = \frac{Number of Correct Predictions}{Total Number of Predictions Made}$ (6)

# **Execution Time**

Execution time is the time taken by the WEKA tool to classify the dataset using a classification algorithm. In measuring execution time, implementation-defined mechanism was employed. Execution time pertains to the computational cost involved in generating and using the algorithm.

#### **Error Rate**

The Error rate is measured in terms of the Mean Absolute Error and Mean Squared Error.

#### **True Positive**

True Positive rates which mean (sensitivity/recall) implies proportion of positive cases correctly classified.

$$TP rate_{No} = \frac{TP}{TP+FN}$$
(7)  
$$TP rate_{Yes} = \frac{TN}{FP+TN}$$
(8)

# **Mean Absolute Error**

The mean of the difference between the original values and the predicted values is referred to as the Mean Absolute Error (MAE). This statistic gives the measure of how far the predictions were from the actual output as shown in Figures 4 to 16. Figure 4, Figure 9 and

Figure14 show the model output of the training experiment of the Decision Tree Algorithm, Naïve Bayes classifier and ZeroR algorithm respectively on the full training set on Air pollution using 70%, 30% split. The result showed a correctly classified instances of 100%, 99.3% and 35.5% for Decision Tree Algorithm, Naïve Bayes classifier and ZeroR algorithm respectively and incorrectly classified instances of 0%, 0. 7% and 64.5% for Decision Tree

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Figure 5: Confusion Matrix for Decision Tree Algorithm Model

X: False Positive Rate (Num)	Y: True Positive Rate (Num)
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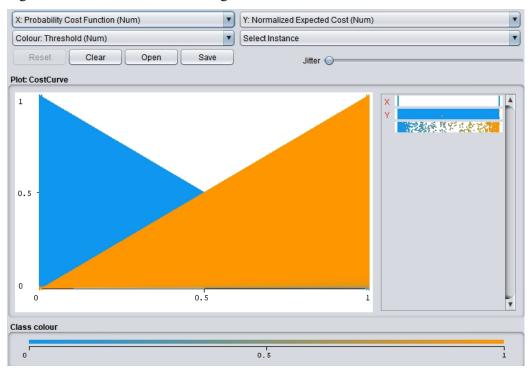


Figure 6: AUC for Decision Tree Algorithm Model

Figure 7: Cost Function for Decision Tree Algorithm Model

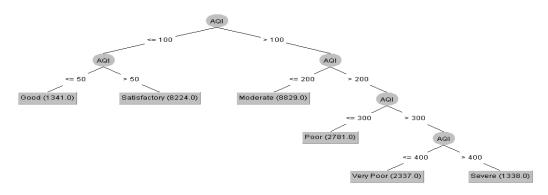


Figure 8: Tree View for Decision Tree Algorithm Model

t options	Classifier output										
) Use training set											
Supplied test set Set											
	Time taken to b	uild model	: 0.69 se	conds							
Cross-validation Folds 10											
Percentage split % 66	=== Stratified		dation ==								
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	Kappa statistic		D'ouroe o	0.99	03	011200					
) AQI_Bucket	Mean absolute e			0.00	34						
	Root mean squar	ed error		0.04	27						
Start Stop	Relative absolu	te error		1.38	74 %						
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		0.992	0.000	0.997	0.992	0.995	0.994	1.000	1.000	Poor	
		0.974	0.000	0.996	0.974	0.985	0.983	1.000	0.998	Very Poor	
		0.984	0.004	0.935	0.984	0.959	0.957	0.999	0.989	Severe	
		0.995	0.001	0.999	0.995	0.997	0.995	0.949	0.882	Moderate	
		0.997	0.001	0.998	0.997	0.997	0.996	1.000	1.000	Satisfactory	
		0.996	0.002	0.972	0.996	0.984	0.983	0.999	0.983	Good	

=== Co	onfus	ion Ma	atrix				
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0	2276	52	3	5	1	L	b = Very Poor
3	6	1317	4	5	3	T	c = Severe
2	3	17	8787	1	19	Т	d = Moderate
3	0	14	1	8196	10	L	<pre>e = Satisfactory</pre>
1	0	0	1	3	1336	I	f = Good

Figure 9: Model for Naïve Bayesian Algorithm



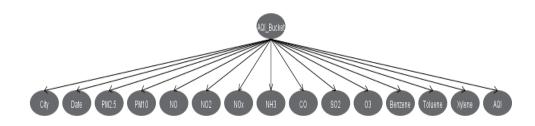


Figure 11: Graphical View for Naïve Bayesian Algorithm

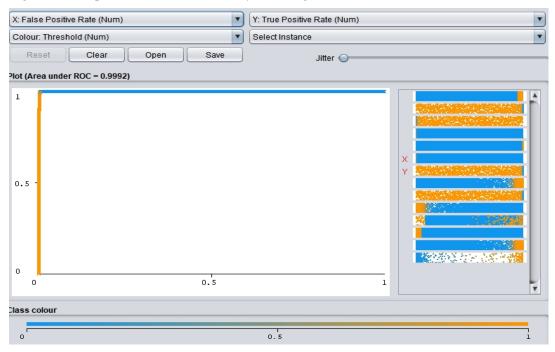


Figure 12: AUC for Naive Bayesian Algorithm

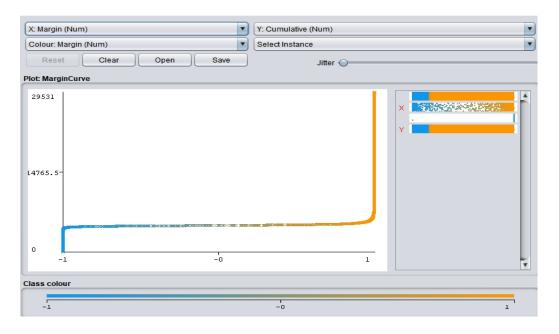


Figure 13: Model for ZeroR classifier

st options	Classifier output									
Use training set										_
Supplied test set Set	Time taken to b	uild model	: 0.02 se	conds						
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		0.000	0.000	?	0.000	?	?	0.500	0.079	Ve
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		0.000	0.000	?	0.000	?	?	0.500	0.045	God
	Weighted Avg.	0.355	0.355	?	0.355	?	?	0.500	0.221	
	=== Confusion M									

Figure 14 Model for ZeroR classifier

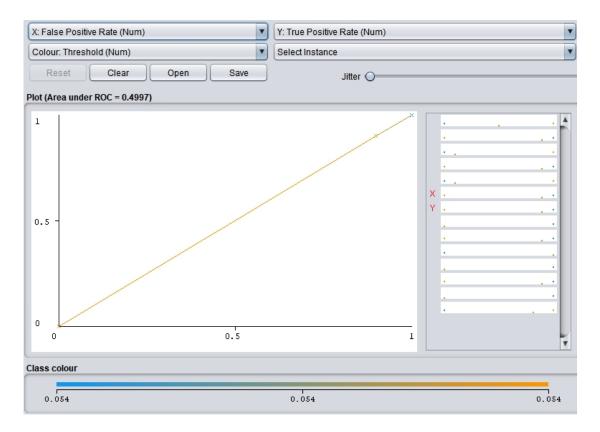


Figure: 15 AUC for ZeroR classifier

 = Confusion		Ma	atrix				
a	b	С	d	e	f		< classified as
0	0	0	2781	0	0	I	a = Poor
0	0	0	2337	0	0	T	b = Very Poor
0	0	0	1338	0	0	I	c = Severe
0	0	0	8829	0	0	I	d = Moderate
0	0	0	8224	0	0	I	<pre>e = Satisfactory</pre>
0	0	0	1341	0	0	L	f = Good

Figure 16: Confusion Matrix for zeroR classifier

# **Results and Discussion**

# Results

The results obtained from the analysis of each data split are presented in Table 2 and Figure 17.

### Discussion

The accuracy of the Decision Tree algorithm is higher compared to the other two algorithms Naïve Bayes algorithm and ZeroR algorithm for the air pollution dataset split into 70% 30%. The execution time of the ZeroR algorithm is faster on 70% 30% compared to the other two algorithms Decision Tree algorithm and Naïve Bayes algorithm. With regards to the error rate, 70% 30% data split ZeroR algorithm has more percentage of recorded errors compare to Decision Tree and Naïve Bayes algorithm. Kappa statistic of Decision Tree is 1 which is high compare to Bayesian algorithm which is 0.9903 and 0 for ZeroR algorithm. The MAE is 0,

0.0034, 0.2457 Decision Tree algorithm, Naive Bayes and ZeroR respectively. The RMSE is 0, 0.0427, 0.3505 for Decision Tree algorithm, Naive Bayes and ZeroR respectively. The Area under the curve (ROC) is 1, 0.992, 0.499, Decision Tree algorithm, Naive Bayes and ZeroR respectively

	Decision Tree Algorithm	Naive Bayesian Algorithm	ZeroR Algorithm	
Air Pollution Dataset	70% 30%	70% 30%	70% 30%	
Correctly Classified instances	2485	2467	8828	
In correctly Classified instances	0	170	16021	
Classification Accuracy (%)	100	99.3	35.5	
Execution Time (seconds)	1.73	0.69	0.02	
Error Rate (%)	0	0.7	64.5%	
Area Under Curve	1	0.992	0.499	
Mean absolute error(MAE)	0	0.0034	0.2457	
Root mean squared error (RMSE)	0	0.0427	0.3505	
Kappa statistic	1	0.9903	0	

Table 2: Results of the algorithms on the datasets

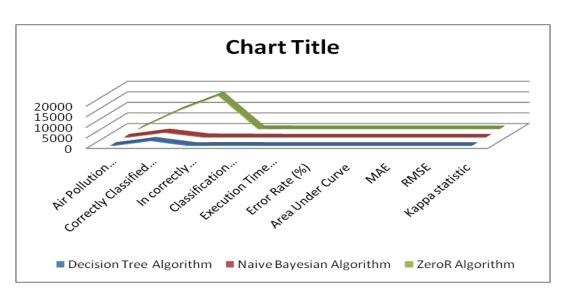


Figure 17: Comparison of the Three Algorithms

# Conclusion

Air quality prediction has been and will remain a complex activity as a result of the dynamic nature, volatility, and high variability in space and time of pollutants and particulates. At the same time, being able to model, predict, and monitor air quality is becoming more and more important, especially in urban areas, due to the observed critical impacts of air pollution for populations and the environment. The datasets were obtained from the https://www.kaggle.com/muthuj7/airpollution-dataset repository. Each dataset was split into two, namely: 70% training and 30% testing. The study examined the performance of three data mining classification algorithms: Decision Tree, Naïve Bayes and ZeroR in predicting the chances of air pollution occurrence. Decision tree algorithm recorded the highest prediction accuracy followed by Naive Bayes and ZeroR based on the datasets used. The study, therefore, recommends that the performance of other classification algorithms could be tested on the datasets. For further future work, we hope to improve on what has been done so far and look into how SVR can be used to forecast air quality.

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