

Survival Analysis of the Titanic Using Random Forests

Tianchong Tang

College of Information Science and Engineering, Ocean University of China, San Sha Street, Qing Dao, China

Keywords: Random Forest, Survival Analysis, Machine Learning.

Abstract: The Titanic disaster is one of the most widely studied maritime tragedies. Analyzing passenger survival rates has become a hot topic. This research endeavors to forecast the likelihood of survival among Titanic voyagers by employing a random forest algorithmic approach. The datasets employed in this analysis include features such as PassengerId, Survived, Pclass, Name, Sex, Age, SibSp, Parch, Ticket, Fare, Cabin, and Embarked. To enhance prediction performance, the author implemented a random forest algorithm, which integrates multiple decision trees. Following data preprocessing, the dataset was randomly separated into a training set, comprising 80%, and a test set, constituting 20%. Across 500 distinct iterations, the data was randomly split into training and test sets. The random forest model achieved an average accuracy of 0.8013, demonstrating its effectiveness in assessing the likelihood of Titanic voyagers' endurance. This underscores the considerable potential of the random forest algorithm in conducting survival analyses.

1 INTRODUCTION

The Titanic was not only an engineering marvel of its time but also a focal point for numerous studies and discussions. The accident killed about 1,500 people. To enhance disaster response capabilities, researchers began utilizing machine learning techniques to predict passengers' survival probabilities. In addition to the work by (Gleicher and Stevans 2004), who employed logistic regression models to analyze key factors such as gender and age, researchers gradually recognized that social status might also influence survival chances. For instance, a passenger's cabin class and royal status could garner support from fellow travelers in critical moments, thereby improving survival odds. Furthermore, research has demonstrated the successful application of generalized linear models and decision tree algorithms (distinct from the algorithms discussed in this paper) (Durmuş and Güneri, 2020). For data processing, there are also studies that have created many new features, such as "child", "new_fare", "FamilyIdentity", etc. (Datla, 2015), which are different from the feature engineering in this paper. In the study of Nadine Farag and Ghada Hassan, the accuracy of the naive Bayes model even reached 92.52% (Farag and Hassan, 2018). There are also some studies that predict the survival risk of Titanic's

passengers through statistical scoring methods (Ligot, 2022), which can divide passengers into different risk levels, unlike machine learning. Historically, survival analysis has relied on statistical methods, including the Cox proportional hazards model (Cox, 1972) and the Kaplan-Meier estimator (Kaplan and Meier, 1958). This paper delves into survival analysis of Titanic passengers using the random forest method. The article initially explicates the fundamental tenets underlying the random forest model, subsequently outlines the preprocessing procedures applied to the original Titanic data collection, and ultimately ascertains the precision of the random forest model. This exemplifies the potentiality of machine learning in the scrutiny of survival percentages. The discussion section first introduces decision trees, which are a key component of the random forest, then analyzes the optimal decision tree from the perspective of information gain, and finally concludes by integrating decision trees into a unified random forest framework.

2 THE PRINCIPLE OF RANDOM FOREST

2.1 The Basic Principles of Decision Tree Generation

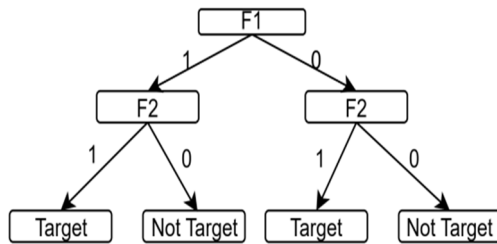


Figure 1: Sample decision tree based on binary target variable Y (Picture credit : Original)

Figure 1 illustrates a basic decision tree model utilized for classification tasks. At the beginning of the decision tree (at the top), the initial classification of samples occurs based on a specific feature, known as the root node. In this instance, samples can be divided into those with $F1=1$ and those with $F1=0$. Subsequently, further classification happens through internal nodes, until the final feature is evaluated. There may be instances where further classification is unnecessary, as samples at that point belong to a single category. In such cases, there is no need for additional classification since only one type of sample remains in that node. Conversely, even after classifying through all the designated features, some nodes may contain samples from multiple categories. When this occurs, the nodes that cannot be further classified are referred to as leaf nodes. Often, these leaf nodes contain a mix of different samples. If the disparity between the sizes of the two sample types is minimal, it complicates predictions derived from this decision tree. This indicates that the decision tree created based on the sequence of these features may not be optimal. A potential next step could involve utilizing $F2$ as the new root node for classification. The problem is addressed using information entropy. The following section delves into the process of obtaining an ideal decision tree. It is important to keep in mind that in cases where the dataset contains numerous attributes, the creation of a decision tree can become intricate if each attribute is taken into account. By leveraging information entropy, a determination can be made on whether further bifurcation should be pursued.

2.2 Information Gain

Information entropy is used to indicate the degree of inconsistency in information (Shannon, 1948). The formula for calculating information entropy is:

$$H(X) = - \sum_{i=1}^n p(x_i) \log_2(p(x_i)) \quad (1)$$

$p(x_i)$ represents the probability of a random event.

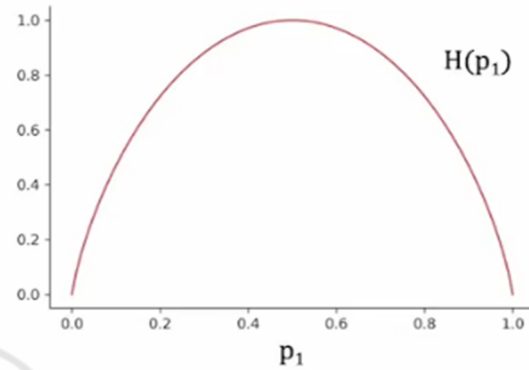


Figure 2: Image as a function of information entropy (Picture credit : Original)

Figure 2 is a function of information entropy, and when the number of target and non-target samples is about the same, the prediction accuracy is low and the information entropy is large. Not an ideal decision tree. In the presence of a substantial disparity in the count of target versus non-target exemplars, the predictive precision is elevated and the entropy of information is diminished. This is an ideal decision tree.

Information Gain is a metric used to measure the information contribution of a feature to a dataset (Shannon, 1948). The basic idea is how much the information uncertainty (entropy) of the dataset is reduced when it is divided by a certain feature. The weighted average information entropy of different branches in the decision tree divided by different feature order is used to obtain the final weighted average information entropy. The decision tree with the least weighted information entropy is the most ideal decision tree. Let the author give a more detailed explanation. Distribute the count of exemplars pertaining to each root node by the overall exemplar count, multiply the resultant by its respective entropy of information, and add up these values to the weighted mean entropy of information. By comparing the weighted average information entropy, the decision tree with the highest accuracy can be obtained, that is, the optimal decision tree.

2.3 Random Forest

The random forest performs put-back sampling of the initial samples, and train the decision tree from the samples after each put-back sampling (Breiman, 2001). Specifically, a random forest takes one sample out of the initial n samples as the first sample of a new sample. In the next sampling, the previous sampled items are still taken into consideration. This means that the samples that have been drawn before may still be selected again. There are n new samples that are taken back to the sampling plot n times, and the obtained n new samples are used to train a decision tree. Then train the next decision tree in the same way. The quantity of decision trees is adjustable. Typically, as the count of decision trees increases, the efficacy of the random forest model improves. However, training too many decision trees can lead to too long training times. Too little training for decision trees makes it difficult to reduce the impact of noise. The number of decision trees is generally 64 to 228. Modify the count of decision trees according to the model's performance, iterating until the optimal random forest model is constructed.

The prediction accuracy formula is:

$$a = \frac{t}{s} \quad (2)$$

Where a is the prediction accuracy, t is the number of samples correctly predicted, and s is the sum of the samples. The results a are rounded.

3 RESULTS

In Table 1, the initial six entries of the dataset are illustrated. This dataset comprises a total of 893

records, featuring twelve attributes: PassengerId, Survived, Pclass, Name, Sex, Age, SibSp, Parch, Ticket, Fare, Cabin, and Embarked. PassengerId is only used as an identifier, so it can be disregarded. The processing of the data is as follows:

1. Sex, Pclass, Embarked data categories are minimal. Different numbers represent different categories of data. For example, in the Sex feature, female is 1 and male is 0.

2. The Age feature is incomplete, so it is filled in with the median value calculated from the combination of the Sex feature and Pclass feature.

3. For continuous data such as Age and Fare, set to 4 appropriate intervals and use different numbers to represent different intervals. It is worth noting that since there are very few people with an age greater than 64, the data with an age greater than 64 are not processed.

4. Merge the SibSp and Parch features into an IsAlone feature. If SibSp and Parch are added together to 0, then IsAlone is 0, otherwise it is 1.

5. Change the Name feature to the Title feature according to its characteristics, and also use different numbers to represent different data types. If the Name contains Mr, it is 1 in the Title. If the Name contains the Master, it is 4 in the Title.

6. Because the filling of Age features is related to Pclass features, leading to the creation of a combined Age*Class feature.

The writer partitioned the dataset into two subsets: a training set and a test set, allocating 80% for the purpose of training and retaining 20% for testing.

Table 1: Example dataset.

Passengeld	Survived	Pclass	Name	Sex	Age	SibSp	Parch	Ticket	Fare	Cabin	Embarked
1	0	3	Braund, Mr. Owen Harris	male	22	1	0	A/5 21171	7.25		S
2	1	1	Cumings, Mrs. John Bradley (Florence Briggs Thayer)	female	38	1	0	PC 17599	71.2833	C85	C
3	1	3	Heikkinen, Miss. Laina	female	26	0	0	STON/O2. 310128 2	7.925		S
4	1	1	Futrelle, Mrs. Jacques Heath (Lily May Peel)	female	35	1	0	113803	53.1	C123	S
5	0	3	Allen, Mr. William Henry	male	35	0	0	373450	8.05		S
6	0	3	Moran, Mr. James	male		0	0	330877	8.4583		Q

Table 2: Processed example dataset.

PassengerId	Pclass	Sex	Age	Fare	Embarked	Title	IsAlone	Age*Class
892	3	0	2	0	2	1	1	6
893	3	1	2	0	0	3	0	6
894	2	0	3	1	2	1	1	6
895	3	0	1	1	0	1	1	3
896	3	1	1	1	0	3	0	3
897	3	0	0	1	0	1	1	0
898	3	1	1	0	2	2	1	3

Table 2 displays the Processed sample dataset, which is utilized to train the random forest model and analyze the training information (100 decision trees were employed by the author). To minimize errors stemming from the random selection of both training and test data, the researchers randomly picked data 500 times and trained them to determine the predictive accuracy. By averaging these values, the mean predictive accuracy obtained was 0.8013.

4 CONCLUSIONS

This study reveals that the Random Forest algorithm achieved a high level of predictive accuracy of survival rates on the Titanic dataset, reaching 0.8013 (Eighty percent of the initial dataset is employed in the training subset, whereas twenty percent is reserved for the testing subset. The original dataset is randomly divided into 500 subsets to calculate the average test accuracy). This outcome exemplifies the benefits of utilizing random forest models for predicting survival rates, particularly in scenarios involving numerous features and intricate interrelations. There is still potential for improvement in data processing in current research. Additionally, The precision of survival forecasting can be augmented further through the utilization of alternative model evaluations or the amalgamation of diverse models. Future studies will likely make progress in this area.

REFERENCES

- Breiman, L., 2001. Random forests. In *Machine learning*, 45, 5-32.
- Cox, D. R., 1972. Regression models and life-tables. In *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society: Series B (Methodological)*, 34(2), 187-202.
- Datla, M. V., 2015. Bench marking of classification algorithms: Decision Trees and Random Forests-a case study using R. In *2015 international conference on trends in automation, communications and computing technology (I-TACT-15)* (pp. 1-7). IEEE.
- Durmuş, B., Güneri, Ö. İ., 2020. Analysis and detection of Titanic survivors using generalized linear models and decision tree algorithm. In *International Journal of Applied Mathematics Electronics and Computers*, 8(4), 109-114.
- Farag, N., Hassan, G., 2018. Predicting the survivors of the Titanic Kaggle, machine learning From disaster. In *Proceedings of the 7th international conference on software and information engineering* (pp. 32-37).
- Gleicher, D., Stevans, L. K., 2004. Who survived Titanic? A logistic regression analysis. In *International Journal of Maritime History*, 16(2), 61-94.
- Kaplan, E. L., Meier, P., 1958. Nonparametric estimation from incomplete observations. In *Journal of the American statistical association*, 53(282), 457-481.
- Ligot, D. V., 2022. Developing a Titanic Survival Scorecard: Risk Analysis of Populations Through Statistical Scoring Methods. Available at SSRN 4015684.
- Shannon, C. E., 1948. A mathematical theory of communication. In *The Bell system technical journal*, 27(3), 379-423.
- Titanic_data, 2024. <https://www.kaggle.com/competitions/titanic/data>