

## Highlights

### **Comparative Research on Predictive Models Based on MOBA Game Data Set**

Yumin Xu, Michael Vigil, Logan Decker

- Compare the performance of the same training model on different data sets.
- Compare the performance of different training models on the same data set.

# Comparative Research on Predictive Models Based on MOBA Game Data Set

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## ARTICLE INFO

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K-NN  
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Win-rate prediction

## ABSTRACT

With the rapid popularity and explosive development of MOBA e-Sports (Multiplayer Online Battle Arena electronic sports), much research is devoted to automatically predicting game results. Although these studies have great potential in various applications, previous studies are either based on prior features such as the historical win rate of game players or based on real-time features during the game. So we want to ask how much the performance of different algorithms varies for the same feature type of dataset. If we use the same algorithm to process different types of datasets, does the difference between the prior and the posterior lead to the difference in model performance? In this paper, three common machine learning algorithms, decision trees, K-NN, and Naive Bayes, are chosen to model two different datasets. By testing the performance of the models, we find that the impact of the characteristics of the datasets on the model performance sometimes exceeds the impact of the different algorithms on the model performance.

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## 1. Introduction

For a comparative study, we found two data sets from the data set open source website in the same domain but with different feature types. They are the LOL dataset and the DOTA data set, two MOBA games that are popular all over the world today, and they have slightly different rules but the same basic gameplay. However, the two data sets are selected with different features.

The DOTA data set is reasonably sparse as only 10 of 113 possible roles are chosen in a given game. All games were played in a space of 2 hours on the 13th of August, 2016. Each row of the data set is a single game with the following features (in the order in the vector): 1. Team won the game (1 or -1) 2. Cluster ID (related to location) 3. Game mode (eg All Pick) 4. Game type (eg. Ranked) 5 - end: Each element is an indicator for a hero. Value of 1 indicates that a player from team '1' played as that hero and '-1' for the other team. Hero can be selected by only one player each game. This means that each row has five '1' and five '-1' values. This dataset contains the first 10min. stats of approx. 10k ranked games (SOLO QUEUE) from a high ELO (DIAMOND I to MASTER). Players have roughly the same level. For LOL dataset, each game is unique. The gameId can help us to fetch more attributes from the Riot API. There are 19 features per team (38 in total) collected after 10min in-game. This includes kills, deaths, gold, experience, level. The column blueWins is the target value (the value we are trying to predict). A value of 1 means the blue team has won. 0 otherwise. By the way, the two datasets have no missing value.

Our study is divided into three main steps. Step one is Training. In training step, we apply the Decision Tree model on the two data sets respectively then apply the K-NN model on the two data sets respectively. Finally, we apply the Naive Bayes model on the two data sets respectively. Step two is evaluating. In evaluating step, based on the first step, we can get six training models. Use ROC curve and Confusion Matrix to evaluate these six models and analyze their pros and cons. Last Step is comparing. In the last step, we will have two types comparison. One is Horizontal comparison: Compare the performance of the same training model on different data sets. Another one is Longitudinal comparison: Compare the performance of different training models on the same data set. All the above experiments will be performed in the Rstudio environment.

## 2. Training Model

### 2.1. Decision Tree

CART algorithm (Classification And Regression Tree, classification and regression tree) is a kind of decision tree, proposed by Leo Breiman, Jerome Friedman, Richard Olshen and Charles Stone in 1984. It can be used for both

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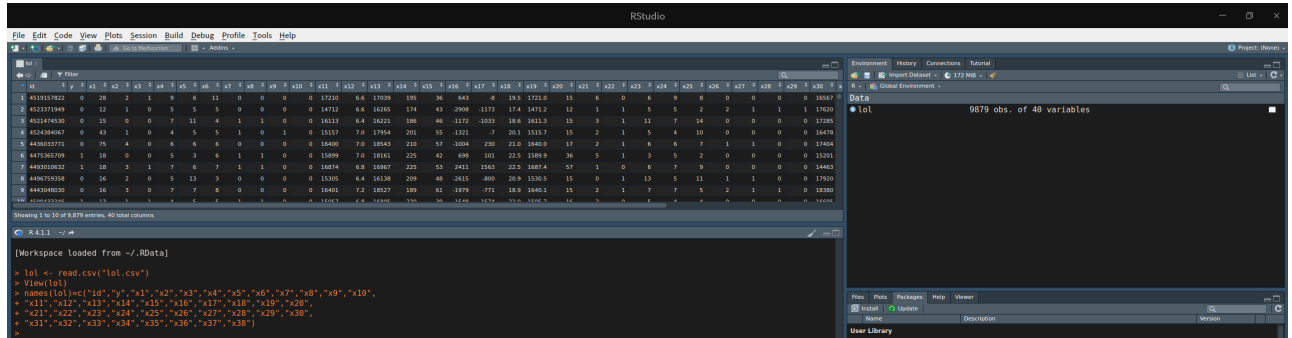
ORCID(s):

classification and regression. This section will mainly introduce the R language implementation of the CART algorithm for classification.

### 2.1.1. LOL Dataset

## 1. Read Data

Before read data, we load all libraries we will use. Because the original variable name is too long, we use names command to rename them. We use as.factor command transformed the dependent variable into a factorial format.



**Figure 1:**

## 2. Create training set and test set

We randomly select 70% of the data as the training set, named train, and the remaining data as the test set, named test.

```
> lol$y = as.factor(lol$y)
> select<-sample(1:nrow(lol),length(lol$id)*0.7)
> train=lol[select,]
> test=lol[-select,]
```

**Figure 2:**

### 3. Build a CART model

We use `tc<-rpart.control(minsplit = 50,minbucket = 20,maxdepth = 30,xval = 10,cp = 0.001)` to set the conditions for Pre-pruning. Among them, `minsplit` is the minimum number of branch nodes, which means that if it is greater than or equal to 50, then the node will continue to divide, otherwise it will stop. `minbucket` is Minimum sample number of leaf nodes. `maxdepth` is Tree depth. `xval` is Number of cross-validation `xval=10` is 10-fold cross-validation (the dataset is divided into 10 groups and fitted 10 times, with the *i*th fit trained with data other than the *i*th group and the *i*th group used for prediction; the aim is to reduce misclassification). The full name of `cp` is complexity parameter, which refers to the complexity of a certain point, for each step of splitting, the model must improve the goodness of fit, used to save the unnecessary time wasted on pruning.

```
> library(rpart)
> library(rpart.plot)
> tc<-rpart.control(minsplit = 50,minbucket = 20,maxdepth = 30,xval =10,cp = 0.001)
```

**Figure 3:**

Then we use `formular` command and `rpart.mod` command to build a decision tree model. After the model is built we need to perform the post-pruning process. There are many post-pruning methods that can be used in categorical regression trees, such as: cost complexity pruning, minimum error pruning, pessimistic error pruning, etc. Here we only use the cost complexity pruning method.

```
> formular=y~x1+x2+x3+x4+x5+x6+x7+x8+x9+x10+x11+x12+x13+x14+x15+x16+x17+x18+x19+x20+x21+x22+x23+x24+x25+x26+x27+x28+x29+x30+
+ x31+x32+x33+x34+x35+x36+x37+x38
> rpart.mod=rpart(formular,data = train,method = "class",
+ parms = list(prior=c(0.6,0.4),loss=matrix(c(0,1,2,0),nrow=2),split="gini"),
+ control = tc)
```

Figure 4:

The rpart package provides a pruning method for complexity loss pruning. `rpart.mod$cp` will tell us how much cp and what is the average relative error when the model is split to each layer.

```
> rpart.mod$cp
CP nsplit rel error xerror xstd
1 0.095707409 0 1.000000 2.000000 0.02407540
2 0.014495293 2 0.000052 1.367510 0.02255053
3 0.004936469 3 0.7940899 1.337816 0.02239696
4 0.004928857 7 0.7726163 1.309419 0.0223251
5 0.002907491 8 0.7676874 1.305071 0.02220433
6 0.00257252 9 0.7647799 1.306662 0.02221012
7 0.002305615 16 0.7417044 1.308894 0.02219101
8 0.002176666 18 0.7370932 1.316055 0.0222535
9 0.002028392 20 0.7327399 1.337486 0.02233063
10 0.002019923 24 0.7240210 1.336762 0.02232699
11 0.001740630 27 0.7185640 1.329588 0.02226915
12 0.001454624 29 0.7150827 1.332531 0.02225539
13 0.001434129 30 0.7136281 1.326155 0.02221614
14 0.001344649 35 0.7061357 1.334538 0.02223290
15 0.001315573 38 0.7021018 1.335842 0.02223908
16 0.001045432 43 0.6919440 1.339313 0.02224929
17 0.001007169 58 0.6713583 1.333949 0.02221330
18 0.001000000 60 0.6693439 1.333949 0.02221330
```

Figure 5:

The estimated error (xerror), standard error (xstd), and average relative error ( $\text{xerror} \pm \text{xstd}$ ) of the cross-validation can also be printed as line graphs via "plotcp".

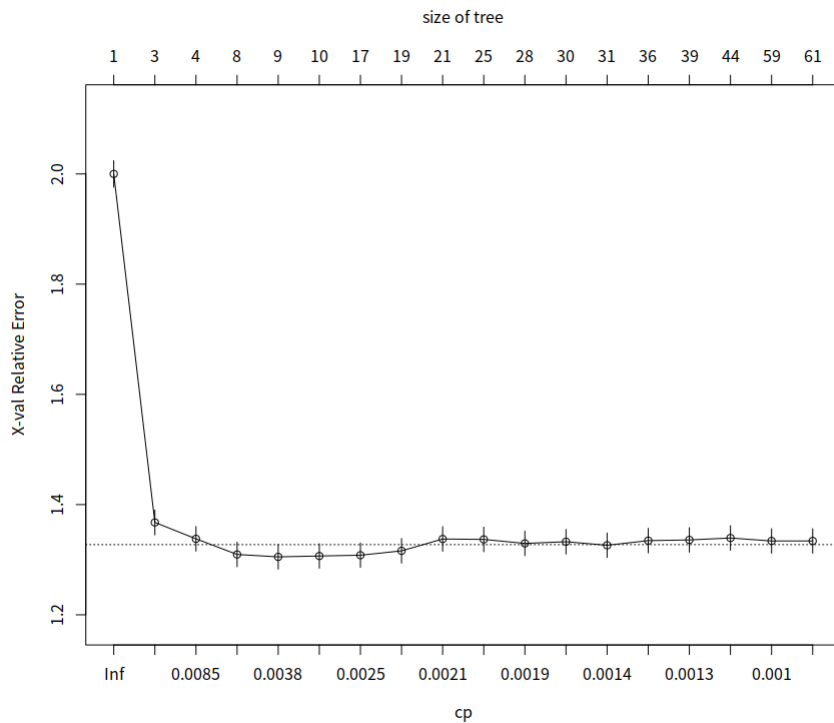


Figure 6:

The condition that the complexity pruning method satisfies is that when the estimated error (xerror) of the cross-validation is as small as possible (not necessarily the minimum value, but within one standard deviation (xstd) of the allowable minimum error), choose as large as possible The cp value. In our model we choose the method of cp with

the smallest error.

```
> plotcp(rpart.mod)
> rpart.mod.prus-prune(rpart.mod,cp=rpart.mod$cpable[which.min(rpart.mod$cpable,"error")])
> rpart.plot(rpart.mod.prus,branch=1,extra = 102,under = TRUE,facets = 0,cox = 0.7,main="CART")
```

Figure 7:

We use `rpart.plot()` function to draw the final decision tree.

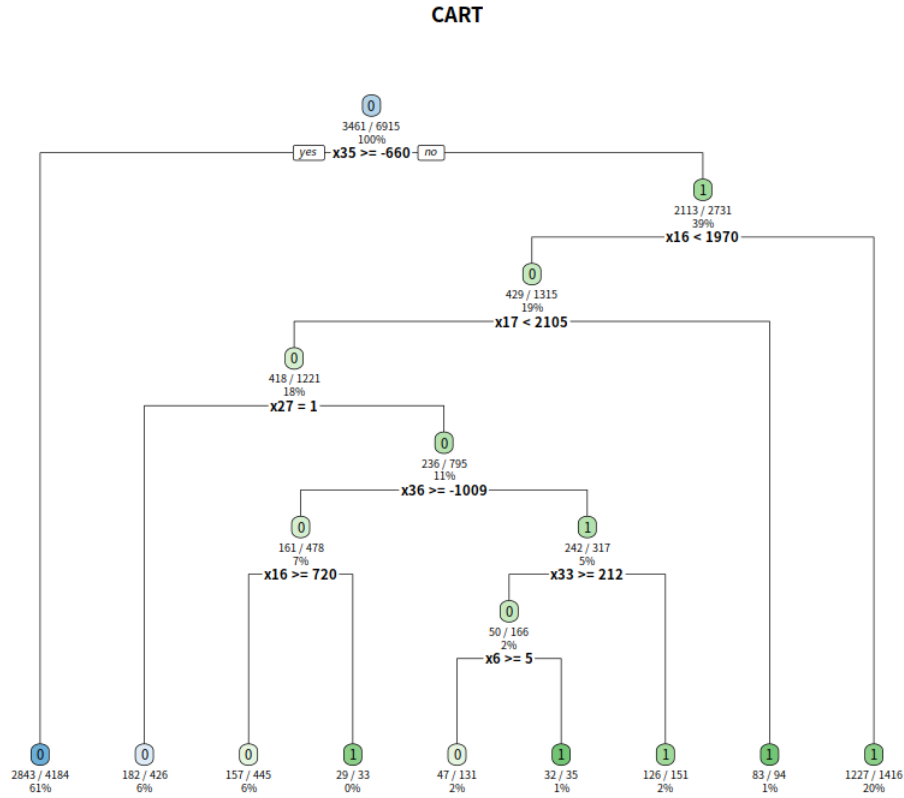


Figure 8:

At this point, the decision tree model based on the LOL dataset has been built.

### 2.1.2. DOTA Dataset

#### 1. Read Data

Same as the LOL dataset, we load all libraries we will use at the beginning. We start by making two changes to the dataset. First, we use the command to modify the original dataset since there is no id column in the original dataset. This is done to facilitate subsequent modeling operations. Second, to avoid potential effects, we unified the symbols indicating wins and losses with the command. Making the form of representing wins and losses the same as the LOL dataset is to make the two datasets comparable to the maximum extent possible.

#### 2. Create training set and test set

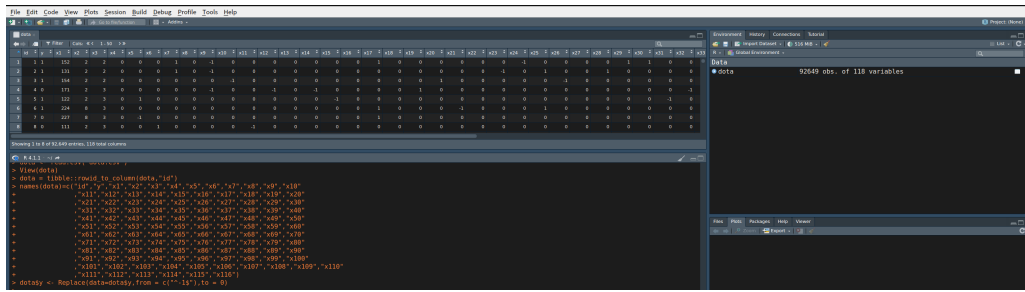


Figure 9:

We randomly select 70% of the data as the training set, named train, and the remaining data as the test set, named test.

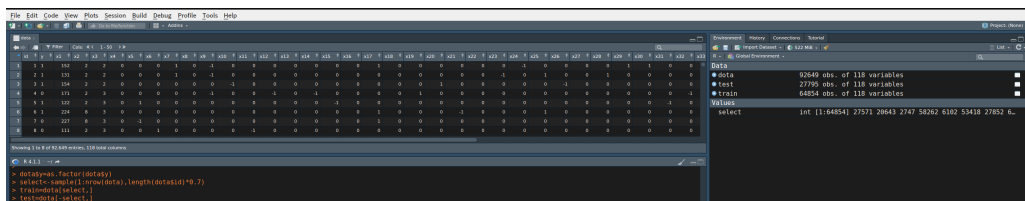


Figure 10:

### 3. Build a CART model

The number of variables is particularly large and because all of them may affect the final victory or defeat. Therefore we cannot reduce the number of variables at will. But the consequence of doing so is that the prepruning condition becomes very demanding.

```
> tc<-rpart.control(minsplit = 100,minbucket = 20,maxdepth = 30,xval =10,cp = 0.00005)
> formularey<-x1+x2+x3+x4+x5+x6+x7+x8+x9+x10+
+ x11+x12+x13+x14+x15+x16+x17+x18+x19+x20+
+ x21+x22+x23+x24+x25+x26+x27+x28+x29+x30+
+ x31+x32+x33+x34+x35+x36+x37+x38+x39+x40+
+ x41+x42+x43+x44+x45+x46+x47+x48+x49+x50+
+ x51+x52+x53+x54+x55+x56+x57+x58+x59+x60+
+ x61+x62+x63+x64+x65+x66+x67+x68+x69+x70+
+ x71+x72+x73+x74+x75+x76+x77+x78+x79+x80+
+ x81+x82+x83+x84+x85+x86+x87+x88+x89+x90+
+ x91+x92+x93+x94+x95+x96+x97+x98+x99+x100+
+ x101+x102+x103+x104+x105+x106+x107+x108+x109+x110+
+ x111+x112+x113+x114+x115+x116
> rpart.mod=rpart(formularey, data = train,method = "class",
+ parms = list(prior=c(0.6,0.4),loss=matrix(c(0,1,2,0),nrow=2),split="gini"),
+ control = tc)
> plotcp(rpart.mod)
```

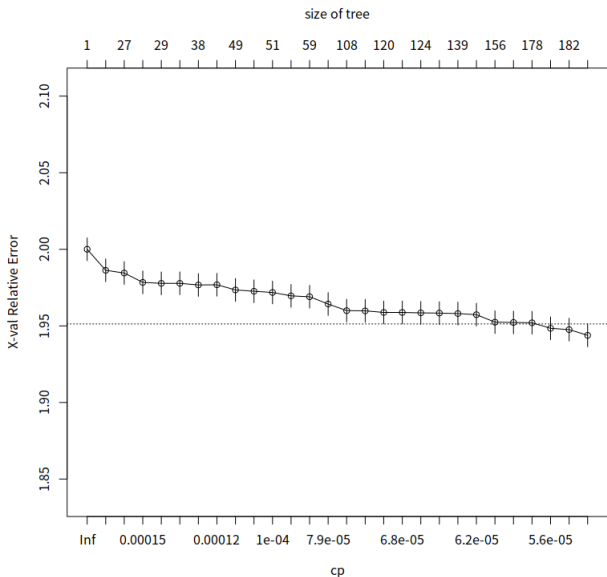
Figure 11:

Then we use `formularey` command and `rpart.mod` command to build a decision tree model. After the model is built we need to perform the post-pruning process. There are many post-pruning methods that can be used in categorical regression trees, such as: cost complexity pruning, minimum error pruning, pessimistic error pruning, etc. Here we only use the cost complexity pruning method.

The `rpart` package provides a pruning method for complexity loss pruning. `rpart.mod$cp` will tell us how much `cp` and what is the average relative error when the model is split to each layer. The estimated error (`xerror`), standard error (`xstd`), and average relative error (`xerror±xstd`) of the cross-validation can also be printed as line graphs via `"plotcp"`.

The condition that the complexity pruning method satisfies is that when the estimated error (`xerror`) of the cross-validation is as small as possible (not necessarily the minimum value, but within one standard deviation (`xstd`) of the allowable minimum error), choose as large as possible The `cp` value. In our model we choose the method of `cp` with

## Short Title of the Article

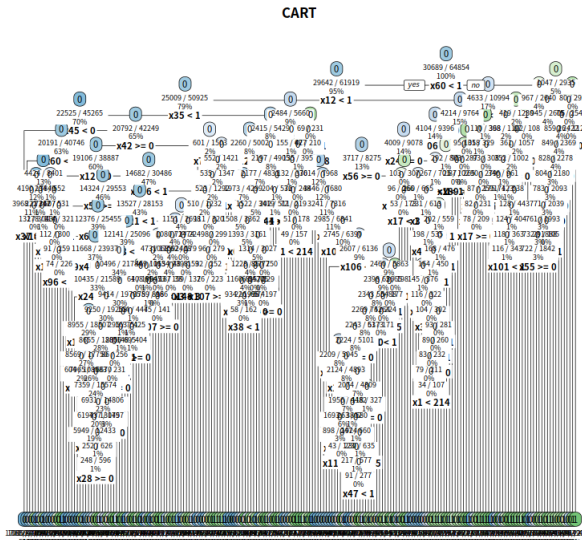


**Figure 12:**

```
> rpart.mod.pru<-prune(rpart.mod,cp=rpart.mod$scptable[which.min(rpart.mod$scptable[, "xerror"])]
> rpart.plot(rpart.mod.pru,branch=1,extra = 102,under = TRUE,faclen = 0,cex = 0.7,main="CART")
```

**Figure 13:**

the smallest xerror.



**Figure 14:**

We use `rpart.plot()` function to draw the final decision tree. At this point, the decision tree model based on the DOTA dataset has been built.





```

#naive
install.packages("naivebayes")
install.packages("WMeetrics")
library(naivebayes)
library(WMeetrics)

#Normalization Function
normalize <- function(x) {
  return ((x - min(x)) / (max(x) - min(x)))
}

#read in data, combine Dota2 sets
lol <- read.csv("high_diamond_ranked_10min.csv")
dota2_1 <- read.csv("dota2train.csv", header = FALSE)
dota2_2 <- read.csv("dota2test.csv", header = FALSE)
dota2 <- rbind(dota2_1, dota2_2)

#Preprocess data
lol <- lol[-1]
lol_normalized <- as.data.frame(lapply(lol, normalize))
lol_normalized[1] <- as.logical(lol_normalized$bluewins)
dota2[1] <- replace(dota2[1], dota2[1] == 1, 0)
dota2_normalized <- as.data.frame(lapply(dota2, normalize))
dota2_normalized[1] <- as.logical(dota2_normalized$bluewins)

#loop for training and testing
best_lol_f1 < 0
best_dota2_f1 < 0
for (i in 1:100) {
  #split into train/test sets
  lol_train <- sample(nrow(lol), replace = FALSE, 7003)
  lol_training <- lol_normalized[lol_train,]
  lol_testing <- lol_normalized[-lol_train,]
  dota2_train <- sample(nrow(dota2), replace = FALSE, 82155)
  dota2_training <- dota2_normalized[dota2_train,]
  dota2_testing <- dota2_normalized[-dota2_train,]

  #train the model
  lol_model <- naive_bayes(lol_training[-1], lol_training$bluewins)
  dota2_model <- naive_bayes(dota2_training[-1], dota2_training$bluewins)

  #make predictions
  lol_pred <- predict(lol_model, lol_testing[-1])
  dota2_pred <- predict(dota2_model, dota2_testing[-1])

  #calculate F1 scores
  lol_f1 <- F1_Score(lol_testing$bluewins, lol_pred, positive = "TRUE")
  dota2_f1 <- F1_Score(dota2_testing$bluewins, dota2_pred, positive = "TRUE")
}

```

Figure 15:

```

#Naive model and data split for good performance
if (lol_f1 > best_lol_f1) {
  best_lol_model <- lol_model
  best_lol_train <- lol_training
  best_lol_test <- lol_testing
  best_lol_pred <- lol_pred
  best_lol_f1 <- lol_f1
}

if (dota2_f1 > best_dota2_f1) {
  best_dota2_model <- dota2_model
  best_dota2_train <- dota2_training
  best_dota2_test <- dota2_testing
  best_dota2_pred <- dota2_pred
  best_dota2_f1 <- dota2_f1
}

#LOL results
table(best_lol_test$bluewins, best_lol_pred, positive = "TRUE")
F1_Score(best_lol_test$bluewins, best_lol_pred, positive = "TRUE")
Accuracy(best_lol_test$bluewins, best_lol_pred)
Precision(best_lol_test$bluewins, best_lol_pred, positive = "TRUE")
Recall(best_lol_test$bluewins, best_lol_pred, positive = "TRUE")

#Dota2 results
table(best_dota2_test$bluewins, best_dota2_pred)
F1_Score(best_dota2_test$bluewins, best_dota2_pred, positive = "TRUE")
Accuracy(best_dota2_test$bluewins, best_dota2_pred)
Precision(best_dota2_test$bluewins, best_dota2_pred, positive = "TRUE")
Recall(best_dota2_test$bluewins, best_dota2_pred, positive = "TRUE")

#Cross test
lol_cross_pred <- predict(best_lol_model, best_dota2_test[-1])
dota2_cross_pred <- predict(best_dota2_model, best_lol_test[-1])

#Dota2 model results on lol data
table(best_lol_test$bluewins, dota2_cross_pred)
F1_Score(best_lol_test$bluewins, dota2_cross_pred, positive = "TRUE")
Accuracy(best_lol_test$bluewins, dota2_cross_pred)
Precision(best_lol_test$bluewins, dota2_cross_pred, positive = "TRUE")
Recall(best_lol_test$bluewins, dota2_cross_pred, positive = "TRUE")

#LOL model results on Dota2 data
table(best_dota2_test$bluewins, lol_cross_pred)
F1_Score(best_dota2_test$bluewins, lol_cross_pred, positive = "TRUE")
Accuracy(best_dota2_test$bluewins, lol_cross_pred, positive = "TRUE")
Precision(best_dota2_test$bluewins, lol_cross_pred, positive = "TRUE")
Recall(best_dota2_test$bluewins, lol_cross_pred, positive = "TRUE")

```

Figure 16:

conversion of '0' and '1' values to 'FALSE' and 'TRUE' values (respectively) for the 'Win' category was performed, and the normalization to values between 0 and 1 for all non-win categories was also performed.

After this setup, the process was nearly identical to that performed while training the Dota2 set. For 100 iterations, the data set was split randomly into 80-20 proportions where the larger portion was used for training the Naive Bayes model.

### 2.3.3. DOTA Dataset

Training this data set was also generally quite easy. The League of Legends data set that we used had included Riot Game ID values for each of the data points, which we removed as a part of preprocessing. Other than that, the same conversion of '0' and '1' values to 'FALSE' and 'TRUE' values (respectively) for the 'Win' category was performed, and the normalization to values between 0 and 1 for all non-win categories was also performed.

After this setup, the process was nearly identical to that performed while training the Dota2 set. For 100 iterations, the data set was split randomly into 80-20 proportions where the larger portion was used for training the Naive Bayes model.

### 3. Evaluating Model

#### 3.1. Decision Tree

##### 3.1.1. LOL Dataset

###### 1.Importance of parameters

```
> rpart.mod.pru$variable.importance
x16      x25      x17      x36      x11      x19      x27      x26      x6      x33      x37      x8      x13
525.7835444 525.7835444 335.3620536 335.3620536 270.0017773 268.8928974 8.5282588 6.5663589 5.9950776 4.1661412 4.1661412 3.1230244 2.8828620
x4      x24      x32      x14      x18      x7      x23      x5      x12      x34
2.6036039 2.4634682 2.4034362 1.9707745 1.9707745 1.8017448 1.1036136 1.1036136 0.2469852 0.2202133
```

Figure 17:

###### 2. ROC curve

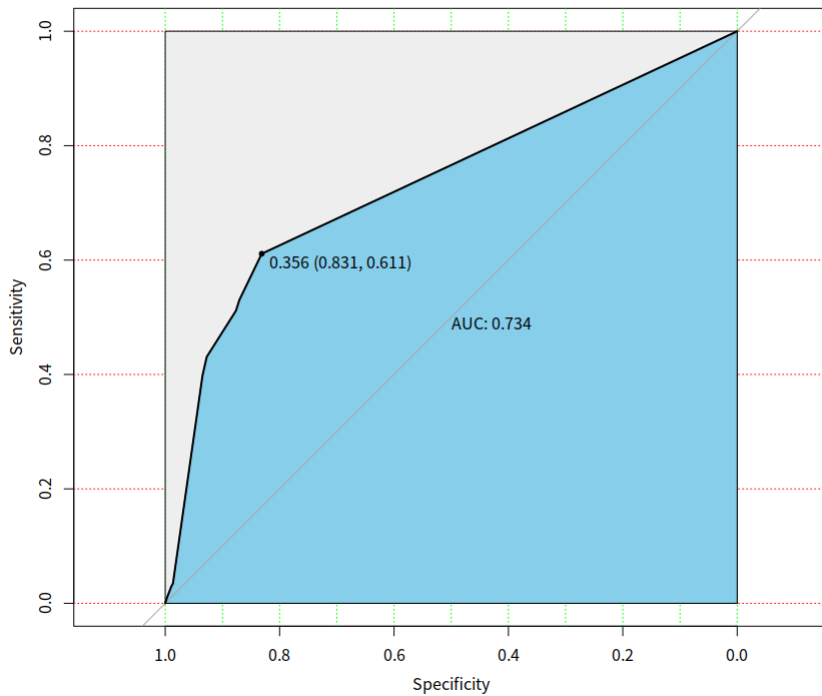


Figure 18:

###### 3. Confusion matrix

```
> test$pre.p<-predict(rpart.mod.pru,test)[,2]
> test$pre=0
> test$pre[which(test$pre.p>0.356)]=1
```

Figure 19:

Since the  $AUC = 0.734$ , the classifier obtained from our modeling outperforms random guesses. This classifier (model) can have some predictive value if the threshold value is properly set.

However, according to the confusion matrix, we found that this classifier is not sensitive enough, although it is able to

```

> print(cft <- table(test$pre, test$y))
      0    1
0 1237  574
1  251  902
> tp <- cft[2, 2]
> tn <- cft[1, 1]
> fp <- cft[2, 1]
> fn <- cft[1, 2]
> print(accuracy <- (tp + tn)/(tp + tn + fp + fn))
[1] 0.7216599
> print(sensitivity <- tp/(tp + fn))
[1] 0.6111111
> print(specificity <- tn/(tn + fp))
[1] 0.8313172

```

Figure 20:

filter out false positives better.

### 3.1.2. DOTA Dataset

#### 1.Importance of parameters

```

> rpart.mod.bru$variable.importance
      x12      x60      x39      x106      x1      x56      x24      x100      x45      x35      x47      x21      x9      x42
75.15594210 74.02760075 32.33811631 32.09994667 31.97746580 29.29544819 28.41990834 26.32861222 25.73339716 22.84241408 22.64418972 22.25100637 20.05337773 18.62485370
      x77      x78      x17      x4      x25      x94      x5      x11      x29      x3      x8      x2      x75      x88
16.79655319 15.24940616 14.46534416 14.19886542 14.12135640 13.65267967 13.49959588 12.80099934 12.50922887 12.27743077 11.13263788 11.07275392 10.80799795 10.60203432
      x103      x96      x73      x28      x64      x62      x32      x107      x38      x22      x89      x114      x101      x7
10.06400269 10.02166483 9.94885941 9.60787786 9.47625786 8.76404891 8.21698457 7.74322030 7.55413859 7.50957038 7.49057454 7.18154348 7.06697150 6.73694514
      x44      x14      x16      x87      x10      x37      x115      x98      x112      x76      x113      x90      x51      x61
6.64952074 6.57382358 6.51101719 6.45953566 5.49719418 5.43219817 4.91845350 4.80867653 4.06612515 3.90665658 3.78875310 3.75732074 3.72317318 3.47209469
      x59      x102      x65      x70      x99      x66      x55      x97      x18      x53      x49      x57      x48      x79
3.42769956 3.38335824 3.37023324 3.17466216 3.16381595 3.13451283 3.12375708 2.99303390 2.99181243 2.96598675 2.64488657 2.60397596 2.59626367 2.55202999
      x91      x31      x110      x23      x6      x83      x81      x54      x58      x105      x15      x34      x26      x71
2.10240456 1.95385927 0.62904617 0.49799323 0.44961517 0.41457351 0.36766900 0.35777829 0.35725057 0.34981809 0.32894399 0.31380676 0.26511408 0.24914362
      x68      x93      x108      x50      x72      x19      x63      x116      x40      x100      x36      x104      x92      x80
0.24122883 0.23535950 0.23445013 0.15672984 0.14861654 0.14441040 0.14399711 0.13872031 0.12840910 0.12687840 0.11583865 0.11024664 0.10158087 0.08563951
      x86      x30      x95
0.08146356 0.05055813 0.01783682

```

Figure 21:

## 2. ROC curve

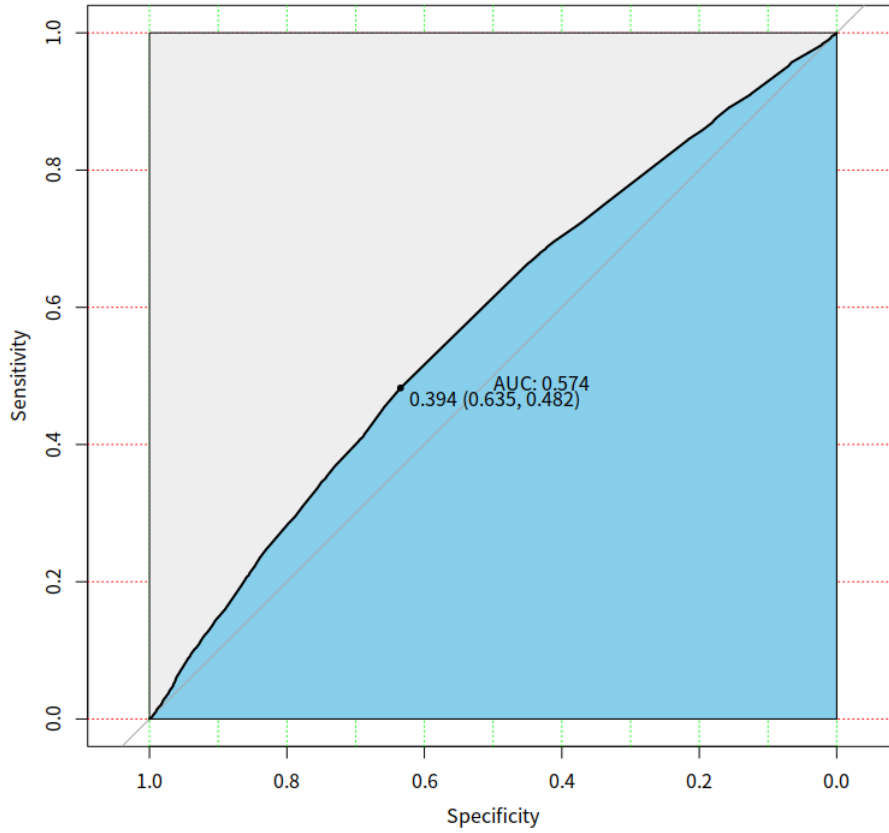


Figure 22:

## 3. Confusion matrix

```
> test$pre_pc = predict(rpart.mod.pro, test)[,2]
> test$pre = 0
> test$pre[which(test$pre > 0.394)] = 1
> print(cft <- table(test$pre, test$y))
      0      1
0 8364 7565
1 4814 7052
> tp <- cft[2, 2]
> tn <- cft[1, 1]
> fp <- cft[2, 1]
> fn <- cft[1, 2]
> print(accuracy <- (tp + tn)/(tp + tn + fp + fn))
[1] 0.5546321
> print(sensitivity <- tp/(tp + fn))
[1] 0.4824519
> print(specificity <- tn/(tn + fp))
[1] 0.6346942
```

Figure 23:

Since the  $AUC=0.574$ , the classifier obtained from our modeling only slightly outperforms the random guesses. We consider the predictive value of this classifier to be low. However, according to the confusion matrix, we found that the sensitivity and specificity of this classifier are not high enough.

### 3.2. K-NN

Was running into some issues with k-nn not wanting to read the correct data so my graphs were unable to be displayed correctly.

#### 3.2.1. LOL Dataset

Because of those issues I was unable to get some accurate data graphs presented for the report.

#### 3.2.2. DOTA Dataset

Because of those issues I was unable to get some accurate data graphs presented for the report.

### 3.3. Naive Bayes

Because of those issues I was unable to get some accurate data graphs presented for the report.

#### 3.3.1. LOL Dataset

Just like the DotA2 data training and evaluation, the training and evaluation phases were performed 100 times. Each time, the F1 score of the model would be calculated. At any point in the iterative process where the current F1 score was better than the previous best-recorded F1 score, the best F1 score and its corresponding data and model were saved. Doing this allowed for us to find the best model out of 100 random samples. The best model that we were able to generate based on our data performed somewhat well. The following table shows its performance.

LoL Prediction Metrics	
F1 Score	0.7512742
Accuracy	0.7530364
Precision	0.7505092
Recall	0.7520408

The following is that same model's confusion matrix.

LoL Prediction Confusion Matrix		
	False	True
False	751	245
True	243	737

As can be seen by the above two tables, the best Naive Bayes model we could generate performed reasonably well. With overall scores hovering right near 0.75, this model can more-often-than-not predict the outcome of a game. We suspect that this better performance relative to the DotA2 model is due to the nature of this data set, as it focuses heavily on data collected once 10 minutes have passed in each game. Though this is still usually somewhat early in the game (most League of Legends games tend to average between 25 and 30 minutes at this tier), it would seem that enough has occurred in order to make a reasonable guess as to which team is going to win.

#### 3.3.2. DOTA Dataset

In order to determine a relatively high-quality model, the training and evaluation phases were performed 100 times. Each time, the F1 score of the model would be calculated. At any point in the iterative process where the current F1 score was better than the previous best-recorded F1 score, the best F1 score and its corresponding data and model were saved. Doing this allowed for us to find the best model out of 100 random samples. The best model that we were able to generate based on our data didn't perform very well. The following table shows its performance.

DotA2 Prediction Metrics	
F1 Score	0.6086315
Accuracy	0.5617563
Precision	0.5738121
Recall	0.6479498

The following is that same model's confusion matrix.

DotA2 Prediction Confusion Matrix		
	False	True
False	4550	5211
True	3812	7016

As can be seen by the above two tables, even the best Naive Bayes model that we could generate from this data performed poorly. With overall scores of just around 0.6, this model is only barely better than randomly guessing the outcome of a game of DotA2. We suspect that this is primarily due to the nature of the data set that we used, as it relies heavily upon hero selection as opposed to other factors that can only be determined once the game has begun. It would seem that attempting to predict results before matches begin is extremely difficult at best.

## 4. Comparing

### 4.1. Horizontal comparison

#### 4.1.1. Decision Tree

From the evaluation results of the model, it can be seen that the decision tree algorithm performs significantly better on the LOL dataset than on the DOTA dataset. Specifically, the decision tree algorithm builds a fully usable classifier on the LOL dataset. However, the classifier built on the DOTA dataset is almost ineffective. Notice that the LOL dataset mainly collects data within the match, while the DOTA dataset collects data mainly outside the match. If we just consider the differences in data characteristics of the dataset, we can have the following inferences. For MOBAs, the performance of the player while the game is in progress may be more important than the identity of the player, the chosen role. If we look at the data features, the decision tree algorithm seems to perform a little better on the posterior features. But there are similarities between the two classifiers. That is, they both have lower sensitivity than specificity. This means that these classifiers are less prone to errors. This is probably considered an advantage that the decision tree model exhibits.

#### 4.1.2. K-NN

#### 4.1.3. Naive Bayes

We set out to determine if the final match results of two popular Multiplayer Online Battle Arena games, League of Legends and Defense of the Ancients 2, could be predicted based on data from both the start of a game and data from during the game. We used a few different model types in order to perform this prediction, and trained models on two different kinds of data. While our results showed some prediction capabilities, especially from data that was collected during each game, our models did not perform quite as well as we would have hoped.

In training and testing on both pre-game and mid-game data, we aimed to determine if there was a degree of universality between the aspects that the models used on each data type. As can be seen more specifically in the Comparison section, however, there is virtually no universality between the data and their models.

Finally, in using data from multiple games, we aimed to determine if there was any universality between these games that our models could find.

## 4.2. Longitudinal comparison

### 4.2.1. LOL DATASET

### 4.2.2. DOTA DATASET

## 5. Conclusion

In conclusion, thanks to the data sets we gathered we were able to see some results and that it is possible to see some prediction capabilities from the training models of the two games. However, we were unable to reach the results we had hoped for in the end. Even though both games fall under the same category, it goes to show that there is very little similarities between the two large MOBAs.

## CRedit authorship contribution statement

**Yumin Xu:** Programming, Data analysis, Writing - Original draft preparation. **Michael Vigil:** Programming, Data analysis, Writing - Original draft preparation. **Logan Decker:** Programming, Data analysis, Writing - Original draft preparation.

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