

Fast Feature Selection for Naïve Bayes Classification in Data Stream Mining

Patricia E.N. Lutu

Abstract - Stream mining is the process of mining a continuous, ordered sequence of data items in real-time. Naïve Bayes (NB) classification is one of the popular classification methods for stream mining because it is an incremental classification method whose model can be easily updated as new data arrives. It has been observed in the literature that the performance of the NB classifier improves when irrelevant features are eliminated from the modeling process. This paper reports studies that were conducted to identify efficient computational methods for selecting relevant features for NB classification based on the sliding window method of stream mining. The paper also provides experimental results which demonstrate that continuous feature selection for NB stream mining provides high levels of predictive performance.

Index terms - data mining, feature selection, Naïve Bayes classification, stream mining

I. INTRODUCTION

Predictive data mining involves the creation of classification or regression models. A classification model predicts the value of a categorical dependent variable while a regression model predicts the values a numeric dependent variable. Data stream mining also known as stream mining is the process of mining a continuous, ordered sequence of data items in real-time [1], [2], [3]. Naïve Bayes (NB) classification is one of the popular classification methods for stream mining. The popularity of the NB classifier for stream mining stems from the fact that it is very easy to update the NB model for classification as new stream data arrives. It has been observed in the literature that the performance of the optimal Bayes classifier (from which the NB classifier is derived) is not affected by irrelevant features, that is, features with little or no predictive power. However, it has also been observed that the performance of the NB classifier improves when irrelevant features are eliminated from the modeling process. Since stream mining is done in real time, there is a need to employ fast methods of modeling.

This paper reports studies that were conducted to identify efficient computational methods for selecting relevant features for NB classification based on the sliding window method of stream mining. The paper also provides experimental results which demonstrate that continuous feature selection for NB stream mining provides high levels of predictive performance compared to once-off feature selection. The rest of the paper is organised as follows: Section II provides background for stream mining, Naïve Bayes classification and feature selection.

Section III presents the experimental methods. Section IV presents the experimental results. Section V concludes the paper.

II. BACKGROUND

A. Stream mining

Data collected over time is commonly described as a data stream. More precisely, a data stream is a real-time, continuous, ordered sequence of data items [1], [2], [3]. One major challenge for mining data streams is due to the fact that it is infeasible to store the data stream in its entirety. This problem makes it necessary to select and use training data that is not outdated for the mining task. The second challenge for stream mining is due to the phenomenon of concept drift, which is defined as the gradual or rapid changes in the concept that a mining algorithm attempts to model [1], [2], [3]. Given that data items arrive continuously and that the concept being modeled changes gradually or rapidly, there is a need to employ fast methods of modeling for stream mining. Predictive modeling, e.g. predictive classification is commonly applied to stream data. Predictive classification involves the estimation of the conditional probability $Pr(c_j | \mathbf{x})$ of assigning a class label c_j to an instance vector \mathbf{x} . This probability is related to the probability $Pr(\mathbf{x})$ of encountering an instance with feature vector \mathbf{x} . For predictive classification, changes in $Pr(\mathbf{x})$ imply that changes have occurred in the probability distribution of the predictive feature values of the concept for which the model is being created. Gao et al. [2], [4] call these changes 'feature changes'. One approach to selecting data for mining data streams is called the sliding window approach. A sliding window, which may be of fixed or variable width, provides a mechanism of limiting the data to be analysed to the most recent instances. The main advantage of this technique is to prevent stale data from influencing the models obtained in the mining process [5], [6]. The studies reported in this paper are based on the sliding window technique.

B. Naïve Bayes classification

For predictive classification, the training dataset for a classifier is typically characterised by d predictor variables X_1, \dots, X_d and a class variable C . Predictor variables are also known as the features for the prediction task. The set of n training instances is denoted as $\{(\mathbf{x}, c_j)\}$ where $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_d)$ are the values of a training instance and $c_j \in \{c_1, \dots, c_J\}$ are the class labels. Naïve Bayes classification has been reported in the literature as one of the 'ideal' algorithm for stream mining, due to its incremental

Manuscript received 25 March 2013; revised 14 April 2013.
P. E. N. Lutu is a Senior Lecturer in the Department of Computer Science,
University of Pretoria, Pretoria 0002, Republic of South Africa, phone:
+27124204116; fax: +27123625188; web: <http://www.cs.up.ac.za/~plutu>;
e-mail: Patricia.Lutu@up.ac.za

nature [7]. The Naïve Bayes classifier assigns posterior class probabilities for the query instance \mathbf{x} based on Bayes theorem. Given a new query instance $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_d)$ Naïve Bayes classification involves the computation of the posterior probability for each class defined as

$$Pr(C = c_j | X = x_i) \propto Pr(C = c_j) \prod Pr(X = x_i | C = c_j). \quad (1)$$

For zero-one loss classification, the class c_j with the highest posterior probability is selected as the predicted class. For categorical features, the quantities $Pr(C = c_j)$ and $Pr(X = x_i | C = c_j)$ are estimated from the training data. For the rest of this paper, $Pr(C = c_j | X = x_i)$ will be denoted as $Pr(c_j | x_i)$, $Pr(C = c_j)$ will be denoted as $Pr(c_j)$ and $Pr(X = x_i | C = c_j)$ as $Pr(x_i | c_j)$.

One weakness of the Naïve Bayes algorithm is to due to the inclusion of irrelevant features. Irrelevant features have a very small or no correlation with the class variable, and so, have very little or no predictive power. Liu and Motoda [8] and Kohavi [9] have observed that theoretically, the irrelevant features should not affect the classification outcome for Naïve Bayes classification. They have argued that even though, theoretically, the removal of any feature cannot affect the classification performance of the (optimal) Bayesian classifier, the Naïve Bayes classifier should perform better when irrelevant features are removed. John et al. [10] have observed that in practice (empirically) the irrelevant features lead to a degradation in classification performance. The second weakness for Naïve Bayes classification is that for some x_i values that appear in the training data, the frequency counts for these values may be too small to produce a reliable estimate of $Pr(x_i | c_j)$ [11]. This is especially likely when a feature X_i has many levels and / or the prediction task has a large number of classes. In this paper, the $Pr(x_i | c_j)$ are referred to as the likelihood terms.

C. Feature selection for stream mining

Feature selection involves the identification of features that are relevant and not redundant for the prediction task [8]. A common method of identifying relevant features is to compute the class-feature correlations for all the features present in the data and then select only those features with class-feature correlation values that are above a specified threshold. It is common practice, for Naïve Bayes classification, to discretise all numeric features so that all features for NB classification are categorical. This leads to a straight forward implementation of (1). In order to identify irrelevant features, methods for measuring correlations between qualitative features need to be employed. One such method is the use of the symmetrical uncertainty (SU) coefficient which is defined in terms of the entropy function. The entropy for variable predictor variable X and class variable C can be computed as [12]

$$E(X) = - \sum_{i=1}^I Pr(x_i) \log_2 Pr(x_i) \quad (2)$$

and

$$E(C) = - \sum_{j=1}^J Pr(c_j) \log_2 Pr(c_j) \quad (3)$$

where $Pr(x_i)$ is the probability that variable X has the value x_i and $Pr(c_j)$ is the probability that variable C has the value c_j . The joint entropy of the variables X and C denoted as $E(X, C)$ can be computed as [12]

$$E(X, C) = - \sum_{i=1}^I \sum_{j=1}^J Pr(x_i, c_j) \log_2 Pr(x_i, c_j). \quad (4)$$

The symmetrical uncertainty (SU) coefficient for X and C is defined in terms of the entropy function as

$$SU = 2.0(E(X) + E(C) - E(X, C)) / (E(X) + E(C)). \quad (5)$$

The SU coefficient takes on values in the interval [0,1] and has the same interpretation as Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient for quantitative variables [8]. White and Liu [12] have observed that the entropy functions of (2) and (3), and the joint entropy function of (4) can be computed from a contingency table. Contingency tables are discussed below.

D. Estimating probabilities from contingency tables

A 2-dimensional contingency table is a cross-tabulation which gives the frequencies of co-occurrence of the values of two categorical variables X and Y . For Naïve Bayes classification and feature selection, X is the feature and the second variable is C , which is the class variable. Various statistical measures can be derived from a contingency table in order to characterise the association (correlation) between X and C . Suppose X can take on I distinct values x_1, \dots, x_I and C can take on J distinct values c_1, \dots, c_J . Let n_{ij} denote the frequency for $X = x_i$ and $C = c_j$ in the table cell for row i and column j , n_{i+} denote the sum of the counts for row i , n_{+j} denote the sum of the counts for column j . Suppose that the sample from which the counts (frequencies) are derived is of size n . The probability terms in (2), (3), and (4) can be computed from the counts in the contingency table cells as follows: $Pr(x_i) = (n_{i+} / n)$, $Pr(c_j) = (n_{+j} / n)$, and $Pr(x_i, c_j) = (n_{ij} / n)$. The quantity $Pr(x_i, c_j)$ is the probability of co-occurrence of values x_i and c_j for variables X and C [12]. For the computation of the SU coefficient, the entropy and joint entropy statistics for variables X and C can be computed from the above probabilities. The probability estimates $Pr(C = c_j)$ and $Pr(X = x_i | C = c_j)$ are used in the computation of the Naïve Bayes posterior probability

$Pr(C = c_j | X = x_i)$ defined in (1). It is useful to note that these quantities can also be computed from the contingency table as $Pr(c_j) = (n_{+j} / n)$ and $Pr(x_i | c_j) = (n_{ij} / n_{+j})$.

A common approach to the implementation of the Naïve Bayes classifier is to use two tables for the model. One table stores the class prior probability estimates $Pr(c_j)$ while the second table stores the likelihood estimates $Pr(x_i | c_j)$ for each feature value. Classification of a new query instance then involves looking up the values in the tables and computing (1) for the new instance. The above observations on contingency tables point to the fact that the same data structures (contingency tables) can be used for the computations of the class-feature correlations and the Naïve Bayes probability estimates. The use of the same computational data structures for the feature selection and Naïve Bayes computations results in fast and efficient implementation of feature selection for Naïve Bayes classification. This approach is especially desirable for stream mining, and it is the approach that was used for the studies reported in this paper.

E. Reliable estimates of probabilities from contingency tables

It was observed above that for some x_i values that appear in the training data, the frequency counts for these values may be too small to produce a reliable estimate of the likelihood terms $Pr(x_i | c_j)$. This problem is very common in stream mining, since not all the data is available at the start of the mining process. This problem can be solved using the Bayesian approach to estimating probabilities, called the m estimate of probability [13]. Suppose the count for class c_j is n_{+j} and the count for instances with value x_i for feature X_i and class c_j is n_{ij} . Then the estimated probability is $Pr(x_i | c_j) = (n_{ij} / n_{+j})$. Mitchell [13] has observed that if the value n_{ij} is very small then $Pr(x_i | c_j)$ will be close to zero so that this term will dominate the computational result of the product in (1). In order to avoid this problem, the Laplace estimate or the m estimate of the probability should be used instead. The m estimate is computed as $(n_{ij} + mp) / (n_{+j} + m)$ where n_{ij} and n_{+j} are as defined above, p is the prior estimate of the probability to be determined, and m is a constant called the *equivalent sample size* [13], [14]. A common method for choosing p is to assume uniform priors. If the feature X_i has L possible values (levels) then p is computed as $1/L$ [13]. The Laplace estimate is a special case of the m estimate with $m = L$ and $p = 1/L$. This corresponds to adding a value of 1 to every cell count in the contingency table so that each column has an additional count of L instances.

III. EXPERIMENTAL METHODS

A. Objectives for the experiments

The objectives of the studies reported in this paper were to establish whether continuous feature selection for stream mining using the Naïve Bayes classifier and the sliding window technique leads to improved predictive performance compared to a once-off feature selection approach. This section provides a description of the considerations that were made for the experimental set up. Three alternative approaches to incremental Naïve Bayes classification were used for the feature selection studies. The first approach was to add newly arriving instances to the training dataset for the model without removing old instances. The second approach was to use a sliding window where a small number of old instances are removed whenever new instances are added to the training dataset for the model. The third alternative was to use a sliding window where a large number of old instances are removed whenever new instances are added to the training dataset. Two alternatives for feature selection were studied. For the first alternative, predictive features were selected at the start of the mining process, using the initial batch of training data. These features were used for NB classification for all subsequent time windows. The second alternative was to conduct feature selection at the beginning of each time window.

B. Implementation of the Naïve Bayes and feature selection algorithms

The discussion of Section IID indicated that contingency tables can be used to store data (frequencies) for the computation of the SU coefficients for feature selection as well as the computation of the probability terms for Naïve Bayes classification. This approach was used for the experiments reported in this paper. The algorithms and data structures for Naïve Bayes classification and feature selection were implemented in C++ using the GNU C++ compiler. Two main data structures were implemented for stream mining. The first data structure is the list of features where each entry in the list stores a description of a feature as (*name, type, category count, categories, SUcoefficient, relevant*). The second data structure is a list of contingency tables. Each entry in the list is a contingency table for one (*feature, class*) pair, so that for the d predictor variables in the data there are d contingency tables in the list. The feature list and contingency table list were used as a basis for all the feature selection and Naïve Bayes computations.

C. Data set for the experiments

The KDD Cup 1999 dataset available from the UCI KDD Archive [15] was used for the experiments. The KDD Cup 1999 dataset consists of two datasets: a training dataset and a test dataset. The small version of the training dataset consists of 494,022 instances. This version of the dataset was used for the experiments of this paper. The training dataset has 41 features. The KDD Cup 1999 dataset is a common benchmark for the evaluation of intrusion detection systems (IDS). The training dataset consists of a wide variety of network intrusions (attack types) simulated for a

military environment. The training dataset has 23 classes (attack types). The 23 classes were grouped into five categories that were treated as the classes for prediction. The classes are: NORMAL (normal connection), DOS (denial of service attack), PROBE (probing that precedes an attack), R2L (unauthorised access from a remote machine), and U2R (unauthorised access to super-user privileges). Shin and Lee [16] have used the same categories as the prediction task classes. For the stream mining experiments, the dataset was treated as a data stream by time stamping the instances based on the order in which they appear in the dataset.

IV. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS FOR STREAM MINING

A. Preliminary experiments

The initial Naïve Bayes model was constructed using the first 50,000 instances of the KDD Cup 1999 dataset. Table I shows the class distribution for these 50,000 instances. The initial set of predictive features was also selected based on these instances. Numeric features were each discretised into 10 intervals using equal-width binning [5], [17]. Table II provides a description of the features selected from the 50,000 instances using the SU coefficient. Cohen [18] has recommended that correlations with a magnitude less than 0.1 have no practical significance. For this reason, features with an SU coefficient less than 0.1 were considered to be irrelevant and were excluded from the classification process.

TABLE I
CLASS DISTRIBUTION FOR 50,000 TRAINING INSTANCES

Class	Number of instances in the dataset of 50,000 instances	
	All instances for the class	Unique instances for the class
NORMAL	37,966	37,641
DOS	11,625	671
PROBE	343	236
R2L	61	61
U2R	5	5

TABLE II
SELECTED FEATURES FOR THE INITIAL TRAINING DATA OF 50,000 INSTANCES

Feature	Type	SU coefficient
Count	Numeric (discretised)	0.75
SrvCount	Numeric (discretised)	0.73
ProtocolType	categorical	0.69
Service	categorical	0.58
LoggedIn	categorical	0.57
DstHostSameSrcPortRate	Numeric (discretised)	0.46
DstHostCount	Numeric (discretised)	0.15

It was stated in Section IIE that the m estimate of probability solves the problem of having cells with zero counts or very small counts in a contingency table. For stream mining using Naïve Bayes classification this estimate may be needed for the computation of the likelihood terms ($Pr(x_i | c_j)$) since there is a high prevalence of zero counts in the contingency table cells. In fact, for the KDD Cup 1999 dataset, it was observed that for all (feature, class) contingency tables there is a very high occurrence of zero counts in the contingency tables for all time windows. Two

of the contingency tables are given in the appendix in order to illustrate this problem. Unfortunately, there are no clear guidelines in the literature on how to set the m value. Experiments were conducted to determine the appropriate m value, using the same 50,000 as a basis for Naïve Bayes classification. The same 50,000 instances were used for the construction of the contingency tables and for the testing of classification performance. Table III shows the classification results for these experiments. The accuracy and true positive rates (TPRATE%) on the classes are given in the table. The true positive rate for each class is computed as $TPRATE = (\text{number classified correctly} / \text{number in the test data})$. The m values of 0, L, 10L, 20L, and 30L were used for probability estimation. The results of Table III indicate that for the classes with a large number of instances (NORMAL and DOS) changes in the m value do not affect the classification performance. However, for the classes with a very small number of instances (R2L and U2R), small values of m provide the best performance. Given these observations, the value of $m = 0$ was selected for the Naïve Bayes probability computations for the experiments.

TABLE III
CLASSIFICATION RESULTS FOR 50,000 TEST INSTANCES

m value	Naïve Bayes classification accuracy% and class TPRATE% for class:					
	All classes	NORMAL	DOS	PROBE	R2L	U2R
0	97.4	99.5	90.5	96.8	90.2	80.0
L	97.2	99.4	90.5	94.8	88.5	0.0
10L	96.6	98.6	90.5	94.3	0.0	0.0
20L	96.4	98.4	90.5	91.8	0.0	0.0
30L	96.2	98.2	90.5	91.3	0.0	0.0

B. Stream mining experiments

Three alternative models were used for the stream mining experiments. The model MsA ($s = 2,3,4,5$) corresponds to the alternative of adding 1,000 new instances to the training dataset without removing any old instances. The model MsB corresponds to the alternative of adding 1,000 new instances and removing the 1,000 oldest instances. The model MsC corresponds to the alternative of adding 1,000 new instances and keeping only the newest 10,000 instances. Fig. 1 provides a representation of the sliding windows W2, W3, W4 and W5 for model creation and the time periods T2, T3, T4 and T5 for testing the model predictive accuracy. The testing periods T2,...,T5 are consecutive periods which respectively correspond to time periods when a batch of 1,000 new instances have arrived and have been classified by the models MsA, MsB and MsC which are created for the sliding windows W2, W3, W4 and W5.

The models are shown in column 2 of Table IV. Column 3 of Table IV shows the predictive accuracy when the three models use the seven features selected at the start of the mining process. Column 5 shows the predictive accuracy when the three models use features selected at the start of each sliding window. The number of selected features for

continuous feature selection are shown in column 4. Testing period T2 appears to be a period of concept drift since the accuracy plummets to 3.3%. After T2 has passed, the accuracy results for testing periods T3, T4 and T5 indicate that in general the use of features selected at the beginning of each sliding window period results in either the same level of NB predictive accuracy as for period T3 or higher levels of predictive accuracy as for T4 and T5.

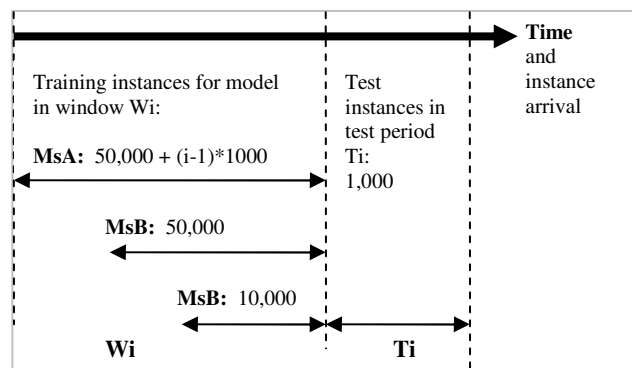


Fig. 1: Representation of models for the sliding window periods (Wi) and testing periods (Ti) for $i = 2, 3, 4, 5$.

TABLE IV

MODEL ACCURACY FOR TWO FEATURE SELECTION METHODS

Testing period (test instances)	Model	Accuracy % on fixed feature selection (7 features)	Number of features for continuous feature selection	Accuracy on continuous feature selection
T2 (1000)	M2A	3.3	7	3.3
	M2B	3.3	7	3.3
	M2C	3.3	21	3.3
T3 (1000)	M3A	97.2	7	97.2
	M3B	97.2	7	97.2
	M3C	97.4	20	98.4
T4 (1000)	M4A	57.6	9	69.5
	M4B	57.6	9	69.5
	M4C	55.2	17	55.1
T5 (1000)	M5A	43.3	9	91.0
	M5B	43.3	9	91.0
	M5C	91.7	15	92.0

A detailed analysis of the classification performance is provided in Tables V and VI. For each class, the number of instances present in the test data is given in column 1. The true positive rates (TPRATE%) for each class are given in columns 3 through 6. The U2R class did not appear in the part of the data stream that was used for the experiments, so it is not shown in the tables. The results of Tables V and VI indicate that the NORMAL class is generally very easy to predict correctly and both methods of feature selection provide high TPRATES for this class. The PROBE class is also generally easy to predict correctly. However, fixed feature selection provides higher predictive performance for time period T4. The DOS class is very difficult to predict for time periods T2 and T4. For period T2 there are no correct predictions for DOS by any of the models for both feature selection methods. For period T4 the models which use fixed feature selection fail to make any correct predictions for DOS while two of the models which use continuous

feature selection manage to achieve a TPRATE of 29.5% for the DOS class.

TABLE V
MODEL TPRATES FOR THE FIXED FEATURE SELECTION METHOD

Testing period (class counts in test dataset)	Naïve Bayes classification performance for fixed feature selection				
	Model	TPRATE% for class:			
		NORMAL	DOS	PROBE	R2L
T2 (NRM: 33 DOS: 965 R2L: 2)	M2A	100	0		0
	M2B	100	0		0
	M2C	100	0		0
T3 (NRM: 539 PRB: 461)	M3A	98.4		100	
	M3B	98.4		100	
	M3C	95.2		100	
T4 (NRM: 552 DOS: 417 PRB: 26 R2L: 5)	M4A	99.8	0	96.2	0
	M4B	99.8	0	96.2	0
	M4C	100	0	0	0
T5 (DOS: 1000)	M5A		43.3		
	M5B		43.3		
	M5C		91.7		

TABLE VI

MODEL TPRATES FOR THE CONTINUOUS FEATURE SELECTION METHOD

Testing period (class counts in test dataset)	Naïve Bayes classification performance for continuous feature selection				
	Model	TPRATE% for class:			
		NORMAL	DOS	PROBE	R2L
T2 (NRM: 33 DOS: 965 R2L: 2)	M2A	100	0		0
	M2B	100	0		0
	M2C	100	0		0
T3 (NRM: 539 PRB: 461)	M3A	94.8		100	
	M3B	94.8		100	
	M3C	97.0		100	
T4 (NRM: 552 DOS: 417 PRB: 26 R2L: 5)	M4A	99.9	29.5	80.8	0
	M4B	99.9	29.5	80.8	0
	M4C	100	0	0	0
T5 (DOS: 1000)	M5A		91.0		
	M5B		91.0		
	M5C		92.0		

V. CONCLUSIONS

The main objective for the studies reported in this paper was to determine whether the use of continuous feature selection for the sliding window technique of stream mining based on Naïve Bayes classification leads to improved predictive performance. The experimental results reported in Section IV have indicated that for the dataset used in the experiments, continuous feature selection leads to improved predictive performance. It was pointed out in Section II that there is a need to employ fast methods of modeling for stream mining. A fast method of feature selection for Naïve Bayes stream mining has been presented in this paper. This method uses the same up-to-date data, stored in contingency

tables, for both feature selection and Naïve Bayes classification.

APPENDIX

Tables VII and VIII respectively show the feature-class contingency tables for the *ProtocolType* and *Count* features for the first 50,000 instances of the KDD Cup 1999 training dataset. Each numeric entry in a table cell shows the frequency of co-occurrence of one (*feature-value, class-value*) pair.

TABLE VII
CONTINGENCY TABLE FOR PROTOCOLTYPE AND CLASS

ProtocolType value	Class value				
	NORMAL	DOS	PROBE	R2L	U2R
icmp	195	10523	104	0	0
tcp	36540	1003	238	61	5
udp	1231	99	1	0	0

TABLE VIII
CONTINGENCY TABLE FOR COUNT AND CLASS

Count value (bin)	Class value				
	NORMAL	DOS	PROBE	R2L	U2R
Bin1	37576	1082	313	61	5
Bin2	242	61	10	0	0
Bin3	24	4	10	0	0
Bin4	35	11	7	0	0
Bin5	30	6	3	0	0
Bin6	45	5	0	0	0
Bin7	14	10	0	0	0
Bin8	0	7	0	0	0
Bin9	0	7	0	0	0
Bin10	0	10432	0	0	0

REFERENCES

- [1] C.C. Aggarwal (ed), Data Streams: Models and Algorithms, Boston: Kluwer Academic Publishers, 2007.
- [2] J. Gao, W. Fan and J. Han, "On appropriate assumptions to mine data streams: analysis and practice", Proceedings of the Seventh IEEE International Conference on Data Mining (ICDM 2007), IEEE Computer Society, 2007.
- [3] M.M. Masud, Q. Chen and J. Gao, "Classification and novel class detection of data streams in a dynamic feature space", Proceedings of European Conference on Machine Learning and Practices in Knowledge Discovery from Databases (ECML/PKDD 2010), LNAI, 337-352, Springer-Verlag, 2010.
- [4] J. Gao, W. Fan, J. Han and P.S. Yu, "A general framework for mining concept-drifting data streams with skewed distributions", Proceedings of the SDM Conference, 2007.
- [5] G. Hebrail, "Data stream management and mining", In F. Fogelman-Soulié et al. (eds), Mining Massive Data Sets for Security, IOS Press, 2008.
- [6] M.M. Gaber, A. Zaslavsky and S. Krishnaswamy, "Mining data streams: a review", SIGMOD Record, vol. 34, no. 2, pp. 18-26, 2005.
- [7] R. Munro and S. Chawla, "An integrated approach to mining data streams", Technical Report TR-548, School of Information Technologies, University of Sydney, 2004.
- [8] H. Liu and H. Motoda, Feature Selection for Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining, Boston: Kluwer Academic Publishers, 1998.

- [9] R. Kohavi, "Scaling up the accuracy of Naïve Bayes classifiers: a decision tree hybrid", Proceedings of the Conference on Knowledge Discovery from Databases (KDD 1996), pp 202-207, 1996.
- [10] G.H. John, R. Kohavi and K. Pleger, "Irrelevant features and the subset selection problem", In W.W. Cohen & H. Hirsh (eds), Proceedings of the 11th International Conference on Machine Learning, pp 121-129, 1994.
- [11] G. Webb, J.R. Boughton and Z. Wang, "Not so Naïve Bayes: averaged one-dependence estimators", Machine Learning, vol. 58, no. 1, pp. 5-24, 2005.
- [12] A.P. White and W.Z. Liu, "Bias in information-based measures in decision tree induction", Machine Learning, vol. 15, pp. 321-329, Boston: Kluwer Academic Publications, 1994.
- [13] T.M. Mitchell, Machine Learning, Burr Ridge, IL: WCB/McGraw Hill, 1997.
- [14] B. Cestnik, "Estimating probabilities: a crucial task in machine learning", Proceedings of the 9th European Conference on Artificial Intelligence, pp. 147-149, London: Pitman, 1990.
- [15] S.D. Bay, D. Kibler, M.J. Pazzani and P. Smyth, "The UCI KDD archive of large data sets for data mining research and experimentation", ACM SIGKDD, vol. 2, no. 2, pp. 81-85, 2000.
- [16] S.W. Shin and C.H. Lee, "Using Attack-Specific Feature Subsets for Network Intrusion Detection", Proceedings of the 19th Australian Conference on Artificial Intelligence, Hobart, Australia, 2006.
- [17] Y. Yang and G.I. Webb, "A comparative study of discretization methods for Naïve Bayes classifiers", Proceedings of the Pacific Rim Knowledge Acquisition Workshop, PKAW 2002, pp. 159-173, 2002.
- [18] J. Cohen, Statistical Power Analysis for the Behavioural Sciences, 2nd Edition, Hillsdale New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 1988.