

# The `caret` Package

Max Kuhn  
max.kuhn@pfizer.com

October 21, 2011

## Contents

<b>1</b>	<b>Model Training and Parameter Tuning</b>	<b>2</b>
1.1	An Example . . . . .	3
1.2	Basic Parameter Tuning . . . . .	5
1.3	Notes . . . . .	6
<b>2</b>	<b>Customizing the Tuning Process</b>	<b>13</b>
2.1	Pre-Processing Options . . . . .	13
2.2	Alternate Tuning Grids . . . . .	13
2.3	The <code>trainControl</code> Function . . . . .	15
2.4	Alternate Performance Metrics . . . . .	17
2.5	Choosing the Final Model . . . . .	19
2.6	Parallel Processing . . . . .	20
<b>3</b>	<b>Extracting Predictions and Class Probabilities</b>	<b>22</b>
<b>4</b>	<b>Evaluating Test Sets</b>	<b>25</b>
4.1	Confusion Matrices . . . . .	25
4.2	ROC Curves . . . . .	27
<b>5</b>	<b>Exploring and Comparing Resampling Distributions</b>	<b>31</b>
5.1	Within-Model . . . . .	31

5.2	Between-Models	33
<b>6</b>	<b>Custom Methods for train</b>	<b>36</b>
6.1	How To Write Custom Methods	40
6.1.1	The <code>parameters</code> Argument	40
6.1.2	The <code>model</code> Function	41
6.1.3	The <code>prediction</code> Function	42
6.1.4	The <code>probability</code> Argument	42
6.1.5	The <code>sort</code> Function	42
6.2	An Example	43
<b>7</b>	<b>Session Information</b>	<b>44</b>
<b>8</b>	<b>References</b>	<b>45</b>

The `caret` package (short for **c**lassification **a**nd **r**egression **t**raining) contains functions to streamline the model training process for complex regression and classification problems. The package utilizes a number of R packages but tries not to load them all at package start-up<sup>1</sup>. The package “suggests” field includes: `ada`, `affy`, `Boruta`, `bst`, `caTools`, `class`, `Cubist`, `e1071`, `earth` ( $\geq 2.2-3$ ), `elasticnet`, `ellipse`, `evtree`, `fastICA`, `foba`, `gam`, `GAMens` ( $\geq 1.1.1$ ), `gbm`, `glmnet`, `gpls`, `grid`, `hda`, `HDclassif`, `Hmisc`, `ipred`, `kernlab`, `klaR`, `lars`, `leaps`, `LogicForest`, `logicFS`, `LogicReg`, `MASS`, `mboost`, `mda`, `mgcv`, `mlbench`, `neuralnet`, `nnet`, `nodeHarvest`, `obliqueRF`, `pamr`, `partDSA`, `party` ( $\geq 0.9-99992$ ), `penalized`, `pls`, `proxy`, `qrnn`, `quantregForest`, `randomForest`, `RANN`, `rda`, `relaxo`, `rocc`, `rpart`, `rrcov`, `rrlda`, `RWeka` ( $\geq 0.4-1$ ), `sda`, `SDDA`, `sparseLDA` ( $\geq 0.1-1$ ), `spls`, `stepAIC`, `superpc`, `vbmp`. `caret` loads packages as needed and assumes that they are installed. Install `caret` using

```
install.packages("caret", dependencies = c("Depends", "Suggests"))
```

to ensure that all the needed packages are installed.

## 1 Model Training and Parameter Tuning

`caret` has several functions that attempt to streamline the model building and evaluation process. The `caret` function can be used to

- evaluate, using resampling, the effect of model tuning parameters on performance

---

<sup>1</sup>By adding formal package dependencies, the package startup time can be greatly decreased

- choose the “optimal” model across these parameters
- estimate model performance from a training set

More formally:

```
1 Define sets of model parameter values to evaluate
2 for each parameter set do
3   for each resampling iteration do
4     Hold-out specific samples
5     [Optional] Pre-process the data
6     Fit the model on the remainder
7     Predict the hold-out samples
8   end
9   Calculate the average performance across hold-out predictions
10 end
11 Determine the optimal parameter set
12 Fit the final model to all the training data using the optimal parameter set
```

First, a specific model must be chosen. Currently, 127 are available using `caret`; see Table 1 for details.

In Table 1, there is a list of tuning parameters that can potentially be optimized. The first step in tuning the model (line 1 in Algorithm 1) is to choose a set of parameters to evaluate. For example, if fitting a Partial Least Squares (PLS) model, the number of PLS components to evaluate must be specified.

Once the model and tuning parameter values have been defined, the type of resampling should be also be specified. Currently,  $k$ -fold cross-validation (once or repeated), leave-one-out cross-validation and bootstrap (simple estimation or the 632 rule) resampling methods can be used by `caret`. After resampling, the process produces a profile of performance measures is available to guide the user as to which tuning parameter values should be chosen. By default, the function automatically chooses the tuning parameters associated with the best value, although different algorithms can be used (see Section 2.5).

## 1.1 An Example

As an example, the multidrug resistance reversal (MDRR) agent data is used to determine a predictive model for the “ability of a compound to reverse a leukemia cell’s resistance to adriamycin” (Svetnik et al, 2003). For each sample (i.e. compound), predictors are calculated that reflect characteristics of the molecular structure. These molecular descriptors are then used to predict assay results that reflect resistance.

The data are accessed using `data(mdr)`. This creates a data frame of predictors called `mdrrDescr` and a factor vector with the observed class called `mdrrClass`.

To start, we will:

- use unsupervised filters to remove predictors with unattractive characteristics (e.g. sparse distributions or high inter-predictor correlations)
- split the entire data set into a training and test set

See the package vignette “caret Manual – Data and Functions” for more details about these operations.

```
> print(ncol(mdrDescr))

[1] 342

> nzv <- nearZeroVar(mdrDescr)
> filteredDescr <- mdrDescr[, -nzv]
> print(ncol(filteredDescr))

[1] 297

> descrCor <- cor(filteredDescr)
> highlyCorDescr <- findCorrelation(descrCor, cutoff = .75)
> filteredDescr <- filteredDescr[, -highlyCorDescr]
> print(ncol(filteredDescr))

[1] 50

> set.seed(1)
> inTrain <- sample(seq(along = mdrClass), length(mdrClass)/2)
> trainDescr <- filteredDescr[inTrain,]
> testDescr <- filteredDescr[-inTrain,]
> trainMDRR <- mdrClass[inTrain]
> testMDRR <- mdrClass[-inTrain]
> print(length(trainMDRR))

[1] 264

> print(length(testMDRR))

[1] 264
```

## 1.2 Basic Parameter Tuning

By default, simple bootstrap resampling is used for line 4 in Algorithm 1. Others are available, such as repeated  $K$ -fold cross-validation. The function `trainControl` can be used to specify the type of resampling:

```
> fitControl <- trainControl(## 10-fold CV
+                             method = "repeatedcv",
+                             number = 10,
+                             ## repeated three times
+                             repeats = 3,
+                             ## Save all the resampling results
+                             returnResamp = "all")
```

More information about `trainControl` is given in Section 2.3.

The first two arguments to `caret` are the predictor and outcome data objects, respectively. The third argument, `method`, specifies the type of model (see Table 1). We will fit a boosted tree model via the `gbm` package. The basic syntax for fitting this model using repeated cross-validation is shown below:

```
> gbmFit1 <- train(trainDescr, trainMDRR,
+                  method = "gbm",
+                  trControl = fitControl,
+                  ## This last option is actually one
+                  ## for gbm() that passes through
+                  verbose = FALSE)
> gbmFit1
```

```
264 samples
 50 predictors
 2 classes: 'Active', 'Inactive'
```

```
No pre-processing
Resampling: Cross-Validation (10 fold, repeated 3 times)
```

```
Summary of sample sizes: 238, 237, 238, 238, 237, 237, ...
```

```
Resampling results across tuning parameters:
```

interaction.depth	n.trees	Accuracy	Kappa	Accuracy SD	Kappa SD
1	50	0.813	0.614	0.0753	0.157
1	100	0.817	0.624	0.0606	0.124
1	150	0.814	0.619	0.0691	0.141
2	50	0.813	0.617	0.066	0.135
2	100	0.818	0.627	0.0717	0.146
2	150	0.808	0.607	0.0679	0.138
3	50	0.815	0.618	0.0606	0.128

3	100	0.812	0.614	0.0622	0.127
3	150	0.814	0.619	0.0582	0.118

Tuning parameter 'shrinkage' was held constant at a value of 0.1  
 Accuracy was used to select the optimal model using the largest value.  
 The final values used for the model were `interaction.depth = 2`, `n.trees = 100` and `shrinkage = 0.1`.

For a gradient boosting machine (GBM) model, there are three main tuning parameters:

- number of iterations, *i.e.* `trees`, (called `n.trees` in the `gbm` function)
- complexity of the tree, called `interaction.depth`
- learning rate: how quickly the algorithm adapts, called `shrinkage`

The default values tested for this model are shown in the first two columns (`shrinkage` is not shown because the grid set of candidate models all use a value of 0.1 for this tuning parameter). The column labeled “**Accuracy**” is the overall agreement rate averaged over cross-validation iterations. The agreement standard deviation is also calculated from the cross-validation results. The column “**Kappa**” is Cohen’s (unweighted) Kappa statistic averaged across the resampling results. `caret` works with specific models (see Table 1). For these models, `caret` can automatically create a grid of tuning parameters. By default, if  $p$  is the number of tuning parameters, the grid size is  $3^p$ . For example, regularized discriminant analysis (RDA) models have two parameters (`gamma` and `lambda`), both of which lie on  $[0, 1]$ . The default training grid would produce nine combinations in this two-dimensional space.

## 1.3 Notes

- There is a formula interface (e.g. `train(y~., data = someData)`) that can be used. One of the issues with a large number of predictors is that the objects related to the formula which are saved can get very large. In these cases, it is best to stick with the non-formula interface described above.
- The function determines the type of problem (classification or regression) from the type of the response given in the `y` argument.
- The `...` option can be used to pass parameters to the fitting function. For example, in random forest models, you can specify the number of trees to be used in the call to `caret`.
- For regression models (i.e. a numeric outcome), a similar table would be produced showing the average root mean squared error and average  $R^2$  value statistic across tuning parameters, otherwise known as  $Q^2$  (see the note below related to this calculation). For regression models, the classical  $R^2$  statistic cannot be compared between models that contain an intercept and models that do not. Also, some models do not have an intercept only null model.

To approximate this statistic across different types of models, the square of the correlation between the observed and predicted outcomes is used. This means that the  $R^2$  values produced by `caret` will not match the results of `lm` and other functions.

Also, the correlation estimate does not take into account the degrees of freedom in a model and thus does not penalize models with more parameters. For some models (e.g random forests or on-linear support vector machines) there is no clear sense of the degrees of freedom, so this information cannot be used in  $R^2$  if we would like to compare different models.

- The nearest shrunken centroid model of Tibshirani et al (2003) is specified using `method = "pam"`. For this model, there must be at least two samples in each class. `caret` will ignore classes where there are less than two samples per class from every model fit during bootstrapping or cross-validation (this model only).
- For recursive partitioning models, an initial model is fit to all of the training data to obtain the possible values of the maximum depth of any node (`maxdepth`). The tuning grid is created based on these values. If `tuneLength` is larger than the number of possible `maxdepth` values determined by the initial model, the grid will be truncated to the `maxdepth` list.

The same is also true for nearest shrunken centroid models, where an initial model is fit to find the range of possible threshold values, and MARS models (see the details below).

- For multivariate adaptive regression splines (MARS), the `earth` package is used with a model type of `mars` or `earth` is requested. The tuning parameters used by `caret` are `degree` and `nprune`. The parameter `nk` is not automatically specified and, if not specified, the default in the `earth` function is used.

For example, suppose a training set with 40 predictors is used with `degree = 1` and `nprune = 20`. An initial model with `nk = 41` is fit and is pruned down to 20 terms. This number includes the intercept and may include “singleton” terms instead of pairs.

Alternate model training schemes can be used by passing `nk` and/or `pmethod` to the `earth` function. Also, using `method = 'gcvEarth'` will use the basic GCV pruning procedure and only tune the degree.

Also, there may be cases where the message such as “specified ‘nprune’ 29 is greater than the number of available model terms 24, forcing ‘nprune’ to 24” show up after the model fit. This can occur since the `earth` function may not actually use the number of terms in the initial model as specified by `nk`. This may be because the `earth` function removes terms with linear dependencies and the forward pass counts as if terms were added in pairs (although singleton terms may be used). By default, the `caret` function fits an initial MARS model is used to determine the number of possible terms in the training set to create the tuning grid. Resampled data sets may produce slightly different models that do not have as many possible values of `nprune`.

- For the `glmboost` and `gamboost` functions from the `mboost` package, an additional tuning parameter, `prune`, is used by `train`. If `prune = "yes"`, the number of trees is reduced based on the AIC statistic. If `"no"`, the number of trees is kept at the value specified by the `mstop` parameter. See the `mboost` package vignette for more details about AIC pruning.
- The partitioning model of Molinaro *et al.* (2010) has a tuning parameter that is the number of partitions in the model. The R function `partDSA` has the argument `cut.off.growth` which is described as “the maximum number of terminal partitions to be considered when building the model.” Since this is the maximum, the user might ask for a model with  $X$  partitions but the model can only predict  $Y < X$ . In these cases, the model predictions will be based on the largest model available ( $Y$ ).
- For generalized additive models, a formula is generated from the data. First, predictors with degenerate distributions are excluded (via the `nearZeroVar` function). Then, the number of distinct values for each predictor is calculated. If this value is greater than 10, the predictor is entered into the formula via a smoothed term (otherwise a linear term is used). For models in the `gam` package, the smooth terms have the same amount of smoothing applied to them (i.e. equal `df` or `span` across all the smoothed predictors).
- For some models (`blackboost`, `bstTree`, `bstLs`, `bstSm`, `cubist`, `earth`, `enet`, `foba`, `gamboost`, `gbm`, `glmboost`, `glmnet`, `lars`, `lars2`, `lasso`, `leapForward`, `leapBackward`, `leapSeq`, `logitBoost`, `pam`, `partDSA`, `pcr`, `pls`, `relaxo`, `rpart2`, `rpart`, `scrda`, `simpls`, `superpc`, `widekernelpls`), the `caret` function will fit a model that can be used to derive predictions for some sub-models. For example, for MARS (via the `earth` function), for a fixed degree, a model with a maximum number of terms will be fit and the predictions of all of the requested models with the same degree and smaller number of terms will be computed using `update.earth` instead of fitting a new model. When the `verboseIter` option of the `trainControl` function is used, a line is printed for the “top-level” model (instead of each model in the tuning grid).
- There are `print` and `plot` methods for the `train` class. The `plot` method visualizes the profile of average resampled performance values across the different tuning parameters using scatter plots or level plots. See Figures 1 and 2 for examples. Functions that visualize the individual resampling results for `caret` objects are discussed in Section 5.1.
- Using the first set of tuning parameters that are optimal (in the sense of accuracy or mean squared error), `caret` automatically fits a model with these parameters to the entire training data set. That model object is accessible in the `finalModel` object within `caret`. For example, `gbmFit$finalModel` is the same object that would have been produced using a direct call to the `gbm` function with the final tuning parameters.

There is additional functionality in `caret` that is described in the next section.



Table 1: Models used in caret

Model	method	Value	Package	Tuning Parameters
<i>“Dual-Use Models”</i>				
Generalized linear model	glm	stats		None
	glmStepAIC	MASS		None
Generalized additive model	gam	mgcv		select, method
	gamLoess	gam		span, degree
	gamSpline	gam		df
Recursive Partitioning	rpart	rpart		cp
	rpart2	rpart		maxdepth
	ctree	party		mincriterion
	ctree2	party		maxdepth
Boosted Trees	gbm	gbm		n.trees, shrinkage
				interaction.depth
	blackboost	mboost		maxdepth, mstop
	ada	ada		maxdepth, iter, nu
	bstTree	bst		maxdepth, mstop, nu
Other Boosted Models	glmboost	mboost		mstop
	gamboost	mboost		mstop
	bstLs	bst		mstop, nu
	bstSm	bst		mstop, nu
Random Forests	rf	randomForest		mtry
	parRF	randomForest, foreach		mtry
	cforest	party		mtry
	Boruta	Boruta		mtry
Bagging	treebag	ipred		None
	bag	caret		vars
	logicBag	logicFS		ntrees, nleaves
Other Trees	nodeHarvest	nodeHarvest		maxinter, mode
	partDSA	partDSA		cut.off.growth, MPD
Multivariate Adaptive Regression Splines	earth, mars	earth		degree, nprune

(continued on next page)

Table 1: Models used in caret

Model	method	Value	Package	Tuning Parameters
Bagged MARS	gcvEarth		earth	degree
	bagEarth		caret, earth	degree, nprune
Logic Regression	logreg		LogicReg	ntrees, treesize
Elastic Net (glm)	glmnet		glmnet	alpha, lambda
Neural Networks	nnet		nnet	decay, size
	pcaNNet		caret, nnet	decay, size
	avNNet		caret, nnet	decay, size, bag
Partial Least Squares	pls		pls, caret	ncomp
	pls		simpls, caret	ncomp
	pls		widekernelpls, caret	ncomp
Sparse Partial Least Squares	spls		spls, caret	K, eta, kappa
Support Vector Machines	svmLinear		kernlab	none
	svmRadial		kernlab	sigma, C
	svmRadialCost		kernlab	C
	svmPoly		kernlab	scale, degree, C
Gaussian Processes	gaussprLinear		kernlab	none
	gaussprRadial		kernlab	sigma
	gaussprPoly		kernlab	scale, degree
$k$ Nearest Neighbors	knn		caret	k
<i>Regression Only Models</i>				
Linear Least Squares	lm		stats	None
	lmStepAIC		MASS	None
	leapForward		leaps	nvmax
	leapBackward		leaps	nvmax
	leapSeq		leaps	nvmax
Principal Component Regression	pcr		pls	ncomp
Independent Component Regression	icr		caret	n.comp
Robust Linear Regression	rlm		MASS	None

(continued on next page)

Table 1: Models used in caret

Model	method	Value	Package	Tuning Parameters
Neural Networks	neuralnet		neuralnet	layer1, layer2, layer3
Quantile Regression Forests	qrf		quantregForest	mtry
Quantile Regression Neural Networks	qrnn		qrnn	n.hidden, penalty, bag
Rule-Based Models	M5Rules		RWeka	pruned, smoothed
	M5		RWeka	pruned, smoothed, rules
	cubist		Cubist	committees, neighbors
Projection Pursuit Regression	ppr		stats	nterms
Penalized Linear Models	penalized		penalized	lambda1, lambda2
	ridge		elasticnet	lambda
	lars		lars	fraction
	lars2		lars	step
	enet		elasticnet	lambda, fraction
	lasso		elasticnet	fraction
	foba		foba	lambda, k
Relevance Vector Machines	rvmlinear		kernlab	none
	rvmRadial		kernlab	sigma
	rvmPoly		kernlab	scale, degree
Supervised Principal Components	superpc		superpc	n.components, threshold
<i>Classification Only Models</i>				
Linear Discriminant Analysis	lda		MASS	None
	Linda		rrcov	None
Quadratic Discriminant Analysis	qda		MASS	None
	QdaCov		rrcov	None
Stabilized Linear Discriminant Analysis	slda		ipred	diagonal
Heteroscedastic Discriminant Analysis	hda		hda	newdim, lambda, gamma
Shrinkage Linear Discriminant Analysis	sda		sda	diagonal
Sparse Linear Discriminant Analysis	sparseLDA		sparseLDA	NumVars, lambda
Stepwise Discriminant	stepLDA,		klaR	None

(continued on next page)

Table 1: Models used in caret

Model	method	Value	Package	Tuning Parameters
Stepwise Diagonal Discriminant Analysis	sddalDA,	sddalQDA	SDDA	None
Regularized Discriminant Analysis	rda	klar		lambda, gamma
Mixture Discriminant Analysis	mda	mda		subclasses
Sparse Mixture Discriminant Analysis	smda	sparselDA		NumVars, R, lambda
Penalized Discriminant Analysis	pda	mda		lambda
	pda2	mda		df
High Dimensional Discriminant Analysis	hdda	HDclassif		model, threshold
Flexible Discriminant Analysis (MARS basis)	fda	mda, earth		degree, nprune
Robust Regularized Linear Discriminant Analysis	rrlda	mda, rrlDA		lambda, alpha
Bagged FDA	bagFDA	caret, earth		degree, nprune
Logistic/Multinomial Regression	multinom	nnet		decay
	plr	stepPlr		lambda, cp
LogitBoost	logitBoost	caTools		nIter
Logistic Model Trees	LMT	RWeka		iter
Rule-Based Models	J48	RWeka		C
	OneR	RWeka		None
	PART	RWeka		threshold, pruned
	JRip	RWeka		NumOpt
Logic Forests	logforest	LogForest		None
Bayesian Multinomial Probit Model	vbmPRadial	vbmp		estimateTheta
Least Squares Support Vector Machines	lssvmRadial	kernlab		sigma
Nearest Shrunken Centroids	pam	pamr		threshold
	scrda	rda		alpha, delta
Naive Bayes	nb	klar		usekernel, fL
Generalized Partial Least Squares	gpls	gpls		K.prov
Learned Vector Quantization	lvq	class		size, k
ROC Curves	rocc	rocc		xgenes

## 2 Customizing the Tuning Process

There are a few ways to customize the process of selecting tuning/complexity parameters and building the final model.

### 2.1 Pre-Processing Options

As previously mentioned, `caret` can pre-process the data in various ways prior to model fitting. The `caret` function `preProcess` is automatically used. This function can be used for centering and scaling, imputation (see details below), applying the spatial sign transformation and feature extraction via principal component analysis or independent component analysis. Options to the `preProcess` function can be passed via the `trainControl` function.

These processing steps would be applied during any predictions generated using `predict.train`, `extractPrediction` or `extractProbs` (see Section 3 later in this document). The pre-processing would **not** be applied to predictions that directly use the `object$finalModel` object.

For imputation, there are two methods currently implemented:

- $k$ -nearest neighbors takes a sample with missing values and finds the  $k$  closest samples in the training set. The average of the  $k$  training set values for that predictor are used as a substitute for the original data. When calculating the distances to the training set samples, the predictors used in the calculation are the ones with no missing values for that sample and no missing values in the training set.
- another approach is to fit a bagged tree model for each predictor using the training set samples. This is usually a fairly accurate model and can handle missing values. When a predictor for a sample requires imputation, the values for the other predictors are fed through the bagged tree and the prediction is used as the new value. This model can have significant computational cost.

If there are missing values in the training set, PCA and ICA models only use complete samples.

### 2.2 Alternate Tuning Grids

The tuning parameter grid can be specified by the user. The argument `tuneGrid` can take a data frame with columns for each tuning parameter (see Table 1 for specific details). The column names should be the same as the fitting function's arguments with a period preceding the name. For the previously mentioned RDA example, the names would be `.gamma` and `.lambda`. `caret` will tune the model over each combination of values in the rows.

We can fix the learning rate and evaluate more than three values of `n.trees`:

```
> gbmGrid <- expand.grid(.interaction.depth = c(1, 3),
+                        .n.trees = c(10, 50, 100, 150, 200, 250, 300),
+                        .shrinkage = 0.1)
```

```
> set.seed(3)
> gbmFit2 <- train(trainDescr, trainMDRR,
+                 method = "gbm",
+                 trControl = fitControl,
+                 verbose = FALSE,
+                 ## Now specify the exact models
+                 ## to evaludate:
+                 tuneGrid = gbmGrid)
> gbmFit2
```

```
264 samples
50 predictors
2 classes: 'Active', 'Inactive'
```

```
No pre-processing
Resampling: Cross-Validation (10 fold, repeated 3 times)
```

```
Summary of sample sizes: 237, 237, 237, 237, 238, 237, ...
```

```
Resampling results across tuning parameters:
```

interaction.depth	n.trees	Accuracy	Kappa	Accuracy SD	Kappa SD
1	10	0.762	0.494	0.0614	0.131
1	50	0.807	0.601	0.0701	0.146
1	100	0.819	0.629	0.0694	0.14
1	150	0.815	0.621	0.0729	0.148
1	200	0.82	0.633	0.072	0.144
1	250	0.81	0.613	0.0728	0.146
1	300	0.807	0.608	0.0698	0.138
3	10	0.795	0.572	0.0699	0.147
3	50	0.824	0.639	0.0635	0.13
3	100	0.812	0.615	0.0633	0.129
3	150	0.812	0.615	0.0648	0.132
3	200	0.818	0.626	0.0681	0.137
3	250	0.814	0.618	0.0706	0.143
3	300	0.815	0.622	0.0689	0.137

```
Tuning parameter 'shrinkage' was held constant at a value of 0.1
Accuracy was used to select the optimal model using the largest value.
The final values used for the model were interaction.depth = 3, n.trees =
50 and shrinkage = 0.1.
```

## 2.3 The `trainControl` Function

The function `trainControl` generates parameters that further control how models are created, with possible values:

- **method**: The resampling method: `boot`, `boot632`, `cv`, `L0OCV`, `LGOOCV`, `repeatedcv` and `oob`. The last value, out-of-bag estimates, can only be used by random forest, bagged trees, bagged earth, bagged flexible discriminant analysis, or conditional tree forest models. GBM models are not included (the `gbm` package maintainer has indicated that it would not be a good idea to choose tuning parameter values based on the model OOB error estimates with boosted trees). Also, for leave-one-out cross-validation, no uncertainty estimates are given for the resampled performance measures.
- **number and repeats**: `number` controls with the number of folds in  $K$ -fold cross-validation or number of resampling iterations for bootstrapping and leave-group-out cross-validation. `repeats` applied only to repeated  $K$ -fold cross-validation. Suppose that `method = "repeatedcv"`, `number = 10` and `repeats = 3`, then three separate 10-fold cross-validations are used as the resampling scheme.
- **verboseIter**: A logical for printing a training log.
- **returnData**: A logical for saving the data into a slot called `trainingData`.
- **p**: For leave-group out cross-validation: the training percentage
- **classProbs**: a logical value determining whether class probabilities should be computed for held-out samples during resample. Examples of using this argument are given in Section 2.4.
- **index**: a list with elements for each resampling iteration. Each list element is the sample rows used for training at that iteration. When these values are not specified, `caret` will generate them.
- **summaryFunction**: a function to compute alternate performance summaries. See Section 2.4 for more details.
- **selectionFunction**: a function to choose the optimal tuning parameters. See Section 2.5 for more details and examples.
- **PCathresh**, **ICAcamp** and **k**: these are all options to pass to the `preProcess` function (when used).
- **returnResamp**: a character string containing one of the following values: `"all"`, `"final"` or `"none"`. This specifies how much of the resampled performance measures to save.

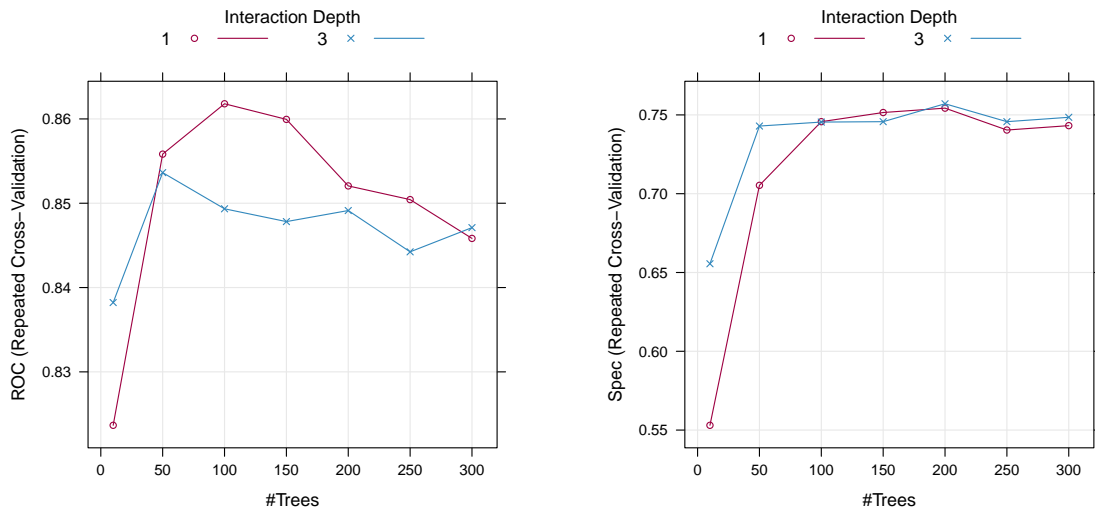


Figure 1: Examples of output from `plot.tain`. **left** a plot produced using `plot(gbmFit3)` showing the relationship between the number of boosting iterations, the interaction depth and the resampled classification accuracy **right** the same plot, but the Kappa statistic is plotted using `plot(gbmFit3, metric = "Kappa")`

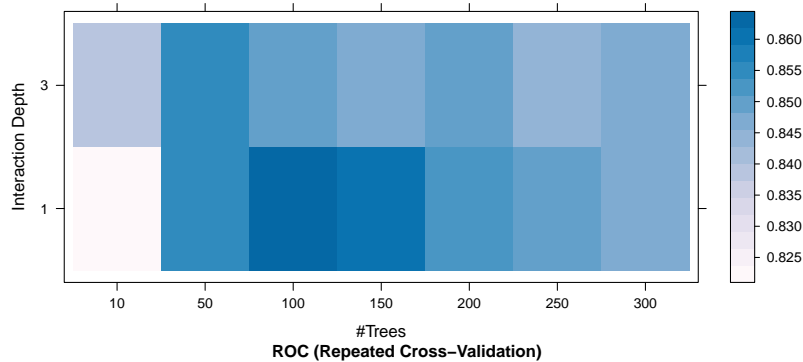


Figure 2: For the boosted tree example in Section 2.2, using `plot(gbmFit metric = "Kappa", plotType = "level")` shows the relationship (using a `levelplot`) between the number of boosting iterations, the interaction depth and the resampled estimate of the Kappa statistic.



## 2.4 Alternate Performance Metrics

The user can change the metric used to determine the best settings. By default, RMSE and  $R^2$  are computed for regression while accuracy and Kappa are computed for classification. Also by default, the parameter values are chosen using RMSE and accuracy, respectively for regression and classification. The `metric` argument of the `caret` function allows the user to control which the optimality criterion is used. For example, in problems where there are a low percentage of samples in one class, using `metric = "Kappa"` can improve quality of the final model.

If none of these parameters are satisfactory, the user can also compute custom performance metrics. The `trainControl` function has a argument called `summaryFunction` that specifies a function for computing performance. The function should have these arguments:

- `data` is a reference for a data frame or matrix with columns called `obs` and `pred` for the observed and predicted outcome values (either numeric data for regression or character values for classification). Currently, class probabilities are not passed to the function. The values in `data` are the held-out predictions (and their associated reference values) for a single combination of tuning parameters. If the `classProbs` argument of the `trainControl` object is set to `TRUE`, additional columns in `data` will be present that contains the class probabilities. The names of these columns are the same as the class levels.
- `lev` is a character string that has the outcome factor levels taken from the training data. For regression, a value of `NULL` is passed into the function.
- `model` is a character string for the model being used (i.e. the value passed to the `method` value of `caret`).

The output to the function should be a vector of numeric summary metrics with non-null names. By default, `caret` evaluate classification models in terms of the predicted classes. Optionally, class probabilities can also be used to measure performance. To obtain predicted class probabilities within the resampling process, the argument `classProbs` in `trainControl` must be set to `TRUE`. This merges columns of probabilities into the predictions generated from each resample (there is a column per class and the column names are the class names).

As shown in the last section, custom functions can be used to calculate performance scores that are averaged over the resamples. Another built-in function, `twoClassSummary`, will compute the sensitivity, specificity and area under the ROC curve (see Section 4.2 for details).

```
> twoClassSummary
```

```
function (data, lev = NULL, model = NULL)
{
  if (!all(levels(data[, "pred"]) == levels(data[, "obs"])))
    stop("levels of observed and predicted data do not match")
  out <- c(aucRoc(roc(data[, lev[1]], data$obs, positive = lev[1])),
    sensitivity(data[, "pred"], data[, "obs"], lev[1]), specificity(data[,
      "pred"], data[, "obs"], lev[2]))
  names(out) <- c("ROC", "Sens", "Spec")
  out
}
<environment: namespace:caret>
```

To rebuild the boosted tree model using this criterion, we can see the relationship between the tuning parameters and the area under the ROC curve using the following code:

```
> fitControl <- trainControl(method = "repeatedcv",
+                             number = 10,
+                             repeats = 3,
+                             returnResamp = "all",
+                             ## Estimate class probabilities
+                             classProbs = TRUE,
+                             ## Evaluate performance using
+                             ## the following function
+                             summaryFunction = twoClassSummary)
```

```
> set.seed(3)
> gbmFit3 <- train(trainDescr, trainMDRR,
+                  method = "gbm",
+                  trControl = fitControl,
+                  verbose = FALSE,
+                  tuneGrid = gbmGrid,
+                  ## Specify which metric to optimize
+                  metric = "ROC")
> gbmFit3
```

```
264 samples
 50 predictors
 2 classes: 'Active', 'Inactive'
```

```
No pre-processing
Resampling: Cross-Validation (10 fold, repeated 3 times)
```

```
Summary of sample sizes: 237, 237, 237, 237, 238, 237, ...
```

```
Resampling results across tuning parameters:
```

interaction.depth	n.trees	ROC	Sens	Spec	ROC SD	Sens SD	Spec SD
1	10	0.824	0.943	0.553	0.0695	0.0717	0.097
1	50	0.856	0.88	0.705	0.0475	0.09	0.107
1	100	0.862	0.869	0.746	0.0471	0.0965	0.111
1	150	0.86	0.869	0.752	0.0563	0.0999	0.108
1	200	0.852	0.859	0.754	0.0534	0.105	0.109
1	250	0.85	0.839	0.74	0.0587	0.113	0.12
1	300	0.846	0.83	0.743	0.0583	0.109	0.115
3	10	0.838	0.901	0.656	0.0623	0.0731	0.132
3	50	0.854	0.862	0.743	0.0558	0.111	0.101
3	100	0.849	0.859	0.745	0.0589	0.101	0.113
3	150	0.848	0.853	0.746	0.0576	0.109	0.105
3	200	0.849	0.848	0.757	0.0578	0.116	0.1
3	250	0.844	0.842	0.746	0.0597	0.107	0.106
3	300	0.847	0.846	0.748	0.0582	0.116	0.11

Tuning parameter 'shrinkage' was held constant at a value of 0.1  
ROC was used to select the optimal model using the largest value.  
The final values used for the model were interaction.depth = 1, n.trees = 100 and shrinkage = 0.1.

In this case, the average area under the ROC curve associated with the optimal tuning parameters was 0.862 across the 30 resamples.

## 2.5 Choosing the Final Model

Another method for customizing the tuning process is to modify the algorithm that is used to select the “best” parameter values, given the performance numbers. By default, the `caret` function chooses the model with the largest performance value (or smallest, for mean squared error in regression models). Other schemes for selecting model can be used. Breiman et al (1984) suggested the “one standard error rule” for simple tree-based models. In this case, the model with the best performance value is identified and, using resampling, we can estimate the standard error of performance. The final model used was the simplest model within one standard error of the (empirically) best model. With simple trees this makes sense, since these models will start to over-fit as they become more and more specific to the training data.

`caret` allows the user to specify alternate rules for selecting the final model. The argument `selectionFunction` can be used to supply a function to algorithmically determine the final model. There are three existing functions in the package: `best` chooses the largest/smallest value, `oneSE` attempts to capture the spirit of Breiman et al (1984) and `tolerance` selects the least complex model within some percent tolerance of the best value. See `?best` for more details.

User-defined functions can be used, as long as they have the following arguments:

- `x` is a data frame containing the tune parameters and their associated performance metrics. Each row corresponds to a different tuning parameter combination

- `metric` a character string indicating which performance metric should be optimized (this is passed in directly from the `metric` argument of `caret`).
- `maximize` is a single logical value indicating whether larger values of the performance metric are better (this is also directly passed from the call to `caret`).

The function should output a single integer indicating which row in `x` is chosen.

As an example, if we chose the previous boosted tree model on the basis of overall accuracy (Figure 1), we would choose: interaction depth = 1, n trees = 100, shrinkage = 0.1. However, the scale in this plots is fairly tight, with accuracy values ranging from 0.824 to 0.862. A less complex model (e.g. fewer, more shallow trees) might also yield acceptable accuracy.

The tolerance function could be used to find a less complex model based on  $(x - x_{best})/x_{best} \times 100$ , which is the percent difference. For example, to select parameter values based on a 2% loss of performance:

```
> whichTwoPct <- tolerance(gbmFit3$results, "ROC", 2, TRUE)
> cat("best model within 2 pct of best:\n")
```

```
best model within 2 pct of best:
```

```
> gbmFit3$results[whichTwoPct,]
```

	interaction.depth	n.trees	shrinkage		ROC	Sens	Spec	ROCSD
2		1	50	0.1	0.8558261	0.88	0.705303	0.04746606
	SensSD	SpecSD						
2	0.08998136	0.1071993						

This indicates that we can get a less complex model with and accuracy of 0.856 (compared to the “pick the best” value of 0.862).

The main issue with these functions is related to ordering the models from simplest to complex. In some cases, this is easy (e.g. simple trees, partial least squares), but in cases such as this model, the ordering of models is subjective. For example, is a boosted tree model using 100 iterations and a tree depth of 2 more complex than one with 50 iterations and a depth of 8? The package makes some choices regarding the orderings. In the case of boosted trees, the package assumes that increasing the number of iterations adds complexity at a faster rate than increasing the tree depth, so models are ordered on the number of iterations then ordered with depth. See `?best` for more examples for specific models.

## 2.6 Parallel Processing

If a model is tuned using resampling, the number of model fits can become large as the number of tuning combinations increases (see the two loops in Algorithm 1). To reduce the training time,

parallel processing can be used. For example, to train the gradient boosting machine model in Section 1.2, each of the 9 candidate models was fit to 30 separate resamples. Since each resample is independent of the other, these 270 models could be computed in parallel.

R has several packages that facilitates parallel processing when multiple processors are available (see Schmidberger et al., 2009). `caret` can be used to build multiple models simultaneously. As of `caret` version 4.99, a new parallel processing framework is used to increase the computational efficiency. The `foreach` package allows parallel computations using several different technologies. Although the execution times using `foreach` is similar to the framework used prior to version 4.99, there are a few advantages:

- the call to `train` (or `rfe` or `sbf`) does not change. Parallel “backends” are registered with `foreach` prior to the call to `train`
- compared to the kludgy techniques in `caret` prior to version 4.99, `foreach` does a much better job of managing memory.
- `foreach` code can be added in several places in the package and nest parallelism can be used.

For example, to use the `multicore` package to parallelize the computations, invoking these commands prior to `train` would split the computations into two workers:

```
> library(doMC)
> registerDoMC(2)
```

One common metric used to assess the efficacy of parallelization is  $speedup = T_{seq}/T_{par}$ , where  $T_{seq}$  and  $T_{par}$  denote the execution times to train the model serially and in parallel, respectively. Excluding systems with sophisticated shared memory capabilities, the maximum possible speedup attained by parallelization with  $P$  processors is equal to  $P$ . Factors affecting the speedup include the overhead of starting the parallel workers, data transfer, the percentage of the algorithm’s computations that can be done in parallel, etc.

Figure 3 shows the results of a benchmarking study run on a 16 core machine. In the left panel, the actual training time for a radial basis function SVM model for a data set with 5,000 samples and 400 predictors. The model was tuned over 10 values of the cost parameter using 50 bootstrap samples. The “new” curve corresponds to the `foreach` infrastructure.

One downside to parallel processing in this manner is that the dataset is held in memory for every node used to train the model. For example, if parallelism is used to compute the results from 50 bootstrap samples using  $P$  processors,  $P$  data sets are held in memory. For large datasets, this can become a problem if the additional processors are on the same machines where they are competing for the same physical memory. The old codebase starts to slow down around 10 workers due to exhausting the physical memory on the machine. The new codebase does a better job at managing memory with no additional slowdown.

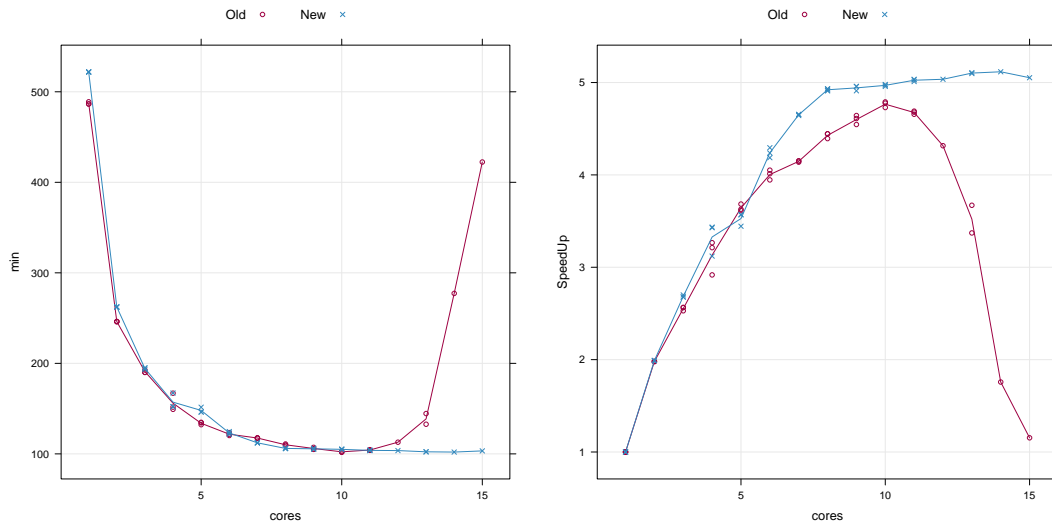


Figure 3: Training time profiles using parallel processing via `caret` for a benchmarking data set run on a 16 core machine. The left panel shows the elapsed time to train a model using single or multiple processors. The panel on the right shows the “speedup,” defined to be the time for serial execution divided by the parallel execution time. The “old” line corresponds to version 4.98 and below while the “new” curve is using `foreach`.

### 3 Extracting Predictions and Class Probabilities

As previously mentioned, objects produced by the `caret` function contain the “optimized” model in the `finalModel` sub-object. Predictions can be made from these objects as usual. In some cases, such as `pls` or `gbm` objects, additional parameters from the optimized fit may need to be specified. In these cases, the `caret` objects uses the results of the parameter optimization to predict new samples.

For example, we can load the Boston Housing data:

```
> library(mlbench)
> data(BostonHousing)
> # we could use the formula interface too
> bhDesignMatrix <- model.matrix(medv ~. - 1, BostonHousing)
```

split the data into random training/test groups:

```
> set.seed(4)
> inTrain <- createDataPartition(BostonHousing$medv, p = .8, list = FALSE, times = 1)
> trainBH <- bhDesignMatrix[inTrain,]
> testBH <- bhDesignMatrix[-inTrain,]
> trainMedv <- BostonHousing$medv[inTrain]
> testMedv <- BostonHousing$medv[-inTrain]
```

fit partial least squares and multivariate adaptive regression spline models:

```
> set.seed(5)
> plsFit <- train(trainBH, trainMedv,
+               "pls",
+               preProcess = c("center", "scale"),
+               tuneLength = 10,
+               trControl = trainControl(verboseIter = FALSE,
+                                       returnResamp = "all"))
> set.seed(5)
> marsFit <- train(trainBH, trainMedv,
+               "earth",
+               tuneLength = 10,
+               trControl = trainControl(verboseIter = FALSE,
+                                       returnResamp = "all"))
>
```

To obtain predictions for the MARS model, `predict.earth` can be used.

```
> marsPred1 <- predict(marsFit$finalModel, newdata = testBH)
> head(marsPred1)
```

```
      y
[1,] 34.18241
[2,] 20.90113
[3,] 18.83659
[4,] 14.56850
[5,] 16.44564
[6,] 22.12989
```

Alternatively, `predict.train` can be used to get a vector of predictions for the optimal model only:

```
> marsPred2 <- predict(marsFit, newdata = testBH)
> head(marsPred2)

[1] 34.18241 20.90113 18.83659 14.56850 16.44564 22.12989
```

Note that the `plsFit` object used pre-processing. In this case, we cannot directly call `predict.mvr` and expect to get the same answers as `predict.train`. The latter function knows that centering and scaling is required and execute these calculations on the new samples, whereas `predict.mvr` does not. For the `pls` function, there is an argument called `scale` that can be used instead of the pre-processing options in the `caret` function.

For multiple models, the objects can be grouped using a list and predicted simultaneously:

```
> bhModels <- list(pls = plsFit, mars = marsFit)
> bhPred1 <- predict(bhModels, newdata = testBH)
> str(bhPred1)
```

List of 2

```
$ pls : num [1:99] 30.2 21.9 16.1 16 15.8 ...
$ mars: num [1:99] 34.2 20.9 18.8 14.6 16.4 ...
```

In some cases, observed outcomes and their associated predictions may be needed for a set of models. In this case, `extractPrediction` can be used. This function takes a list of models and test and/or unknown samples as inputs and returns a data frame of predictions:

```
> allPred <- extractPrediction(bhModels,
+                             testX = testBH,
+                             testY = testMedv)
> testPred <- subset(allPred, dataType == "Test")
> head(testPred)
```

	obs	pred	model	dataType	object
408	34.7	30.15640	pls	Test	pls
409	21.7	21.87263	pls	Test	pls
410	20.2	16.06634	pls	Test	pls
411	15.2	16.01122	pls	Test	pls
412	15.6	15.80842	pls	Test	pls
413	14.5	17.94325	pls	Test	pls

```
> ddply(testPred, .(model), defaultSummary)
```

	model	RMSE	Rsquared
1	earth	4.605244	0.8016275
2	pls	5.501675	0.7286127

```
>
```

The output of `extractPrediction` is a data frame with columns:

- `obs`, the observed data
- `pred`, the predicted values from each model
- `model`, a character string ("`rpart`", "`pls`" etc.)
- `dataType`, a character string for the type of data:
  - "`Training`" data are the predictions on the training data from the optimal model,
  - "`Test`" denote the predictions on the test set (if one is specified),



- “Unknown” data are the predictions on the unknown samples (if specified). Only the predictions are produced for these data. Also, if the quick prediction of the unknowns is the primary goal, the argument `unkOnly` can be used to only process the unknowns.

Some classification models can produce probabilities for each class. The functions `predict.train` and `predict.list` can be used with the `type = "probs"` argument to produce data frames of class probabilities (with one column per class). Also, the function `extractProbs` can be used to get these probabilities from one or more models. The results are very similar to what is produced by `extractPrediction` but with columns for each class. The column `pred` is still the predicted class from the model.

## 4 Evaluating Test Sets

A function, `postResample`, can be used obtain the same performance measures as generated by `caret` for regression or classification.

### 4.1 Confusion Matrices

`caret` also contains several functions that can be used to describe the performance of classification models. The functions `sensitivity`, `specificity`, `posPredValue` and `negPredValue` can be used to characterize performance where there are two classes. By default, the first level of the outcome factor is used to define the “positive” result (i.e. the event of interest), although this can be changed.

The function `confusionMatrix` can also be used to summarize the results of a classification model:

```
> mdrPreds <- extractPrediction(list(gbmFit3), testX = testDescr, testY = testMDRR)
> mdrPreds <- mdrPreds[mdrPreds$dataType == "Test",]
> sensitivity(mdrPreds$pred, mdrPreds$obs)
```

```
[1] 0.7866667
```

```
> confusionMatrix(mdrPreds$pred, mdrPreds$obs)
```

Confusion Matrix and Statistics

	Reference	
Prediction	Active	Inactive
Active	118	27
Inactive	32	87

```
Accuracy : 0.7765
 95% CI : (0.7214, 0.8253)
No Information Rate : 0.5682
```

P-Value [Acc > NIR] : 1.092e-12

Kappa : 0.5469

Mcnemar's Test P-Value : 0.6025

Sensitivity : 0.7867

Specificity : 0.7632

Pos Pred Value : 0.8138

Neg Pred Value : 0.7311

Prevalence : 0.5682

Detection Rate : 0.4470

Detection Prevalence : 0.5492

'Positive' Class : Active

The “no-information rate” is the largest proportion of the observed classes (there were more actives than inactives in this test set). A hypothesis test is also computed to evaluate whether the overall accuracy rate is greater than the rate of the largest class. Also, the prevalence of the “positive event” is computed from the data (unless passed in as an argument), the detection rate (the rate of true events also predicted to be events) and the detection prevalence (the prevalence of predicted events).

Suppose a  $2 \times 2$  table with notation

Predicted	Reference	
	Event	No Event
Event	A	B
No Event	C	D

The formulas used here are:

$$Sensitivity = \frac{A}{A + C}$$

$$Specificity = \frac{D}{B + D}$$

$$Prevalence = \frac{A + C}{A + B + C + D}$$

$$PPV = \frac{sensitivity \times prevalence}{((sensitivity \times prevalence) + ((1 - specificity) \times (1 - prevalence)))}$$

$$NPV = \frac{specificity \times (1 - prevalence)}{((1 - sensitivity) \times prevalence) + ((specificity) \times (1 - prevalence))}$$

$$Detection Rate = \frac{A}{A + B + C + D}$$

$$Detection Prevalence = \frac{A + B}{A + B + C + D}$$

When there are three or more classes, `confusionMatrix` will show the confusion matrix and a set of

“one-versus-all” results. For example, in a three class problem, the sensitivity of the first class is calculated against all the samples in the second and third classes (and so on).

Also, a resampled estimate of the training set can also be obtained using `confusionMatrix.train`. For each resampling iteration, a confusion matrix is created from the hold-out samples and these values can be aggregated to diagnose issues with the model fit.

For example, in the two-class SVM model used in Section 1.2, we could use:

```
> confusionMatrix(gbmFit3)
```

Cross-Validated (10 fold, repeated 3 times) Confusion Matrix

(entries are percentages of table totals)

	Reference	
Prediction	Active	Inactive
Active	48.5	12.1
Inactive	7.6	31.8

These values are the percentages that hold-out samples landed in the confusion matrix during resampling. There are several methods for normalizing these values. See `?confusionMatrix.train` for details.

## 4.2 ROC Curves

The function `roc`<sup>2</sup> can be used to calculate the sensitivity and specificity used in an ROC plot. For example, using the previous support vector machine fit to the MDRR data, the predicted class probabilities on the test set can be used to create an ROC curve. The area under the ROC curve, via the trapezoidal rule, is calculated using the `aucRoc` function.

```
> mdrProbs <- extractProb(list(gbmFit3), testX = testDescr, testY = testMDRR)
> mdrProbs <- mdrProbs[mdrProbs$dataType == "Test",]
> mdrROC <- roc(mdrProbs$Active, mdrProbs$obs)
> aucRoc(mdrROC)
```

```
[1] 0.868538
```

See Figure 5 for an example.

---

<sup>2</sup>I'm looking into using the `ROCR` package for ROC curves, so don't get too attached to these functions

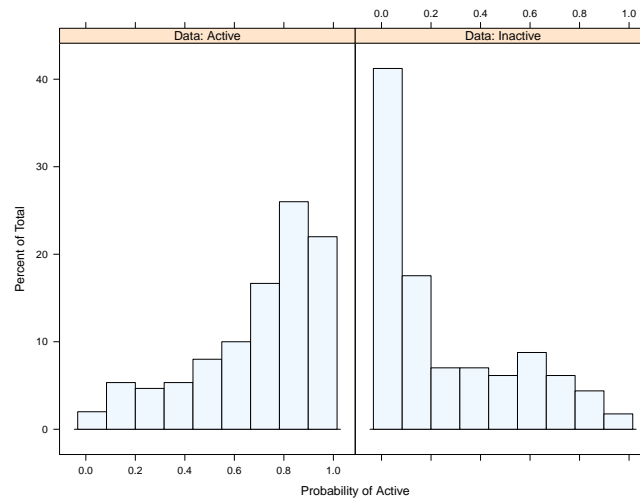


Figure 4: The predicted class probabilities from a gradient boosting machine fit for the MDRR test set. This plot was created using `plotClassProbs(mdrProbs)`.

## Plotting Predictions and Probabilities

Two functions, `plotObsVsPred` and `plotClassProbs`, are interfaces to lattice to plot model results. For regression, `plotObsVsPred` plots the observed versus predicted values by model type and data (e.g. test). See Figures 6 and 5 for examples. For classification data, `plotObsVsPred` plots the accuracy rates for models/data in a dotplot.

To plot class probabilities, `plotClassProbs` will display the results by model, data and true class (for example, Figure 4).

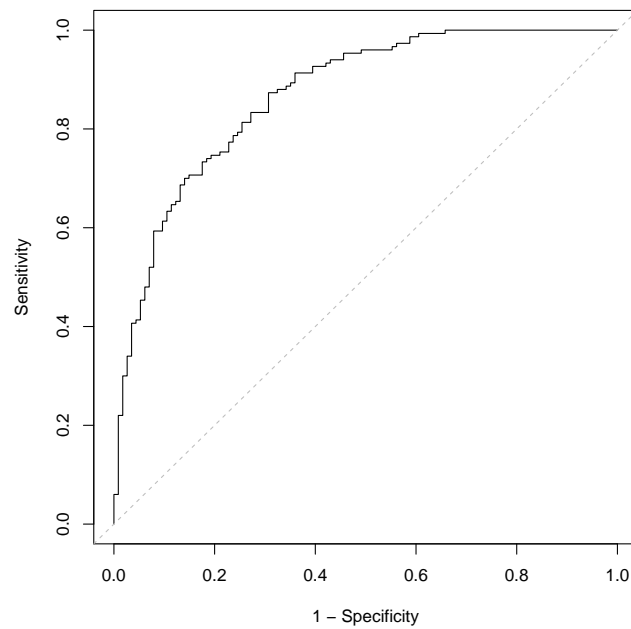


Figure 5: An ROC curve from the predicted class probabilities from a gradient boosting fit for the MDRR test set.

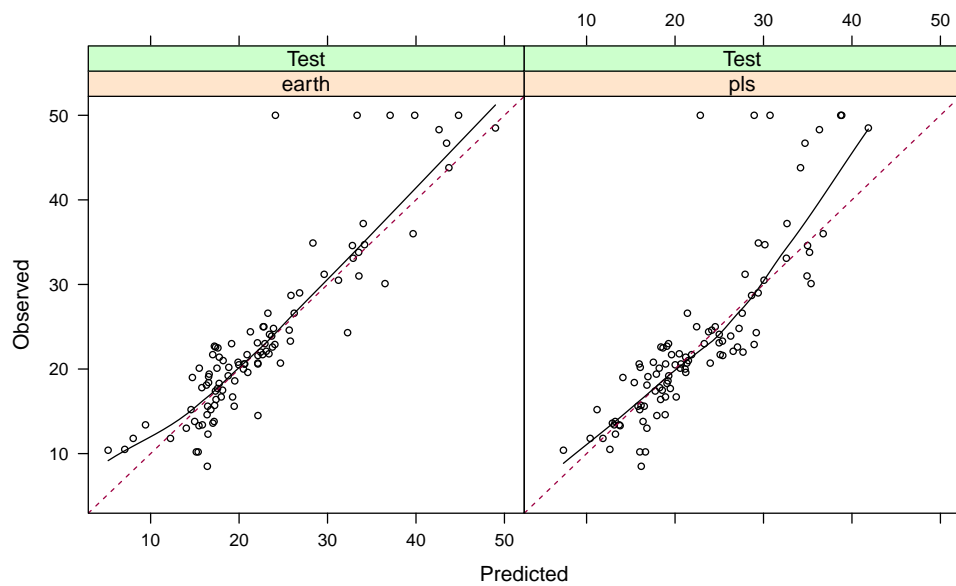


Figure 6: The results of using `plotObsVsPred` to show plots of the observed median home price against the predictions from two models. The plot shows the training and test sets in the same Lattice plot

## 5 Exploring and Comparing Resampling Distributions

### 5.1 Within-Model

There are several Lattice functions than can be used to explore relationships between tuning parameters and the resampling results for a specific model:

- `xyplot` and `stripplot` can be used to plot resampling statistics against (numeric) tuning parameters.
- `histogram` and `densityplot` can also be used to look at distributions of the tuning parameters across tuning parameters.

For example, the following statements produces the images in Figure 7.

```
> xyplot(marsFit, type= c("g", "p", "smooth"), degree = 2)
> densityplot(marsFit, as.table = TRUE, subset = nprune < 10)
```

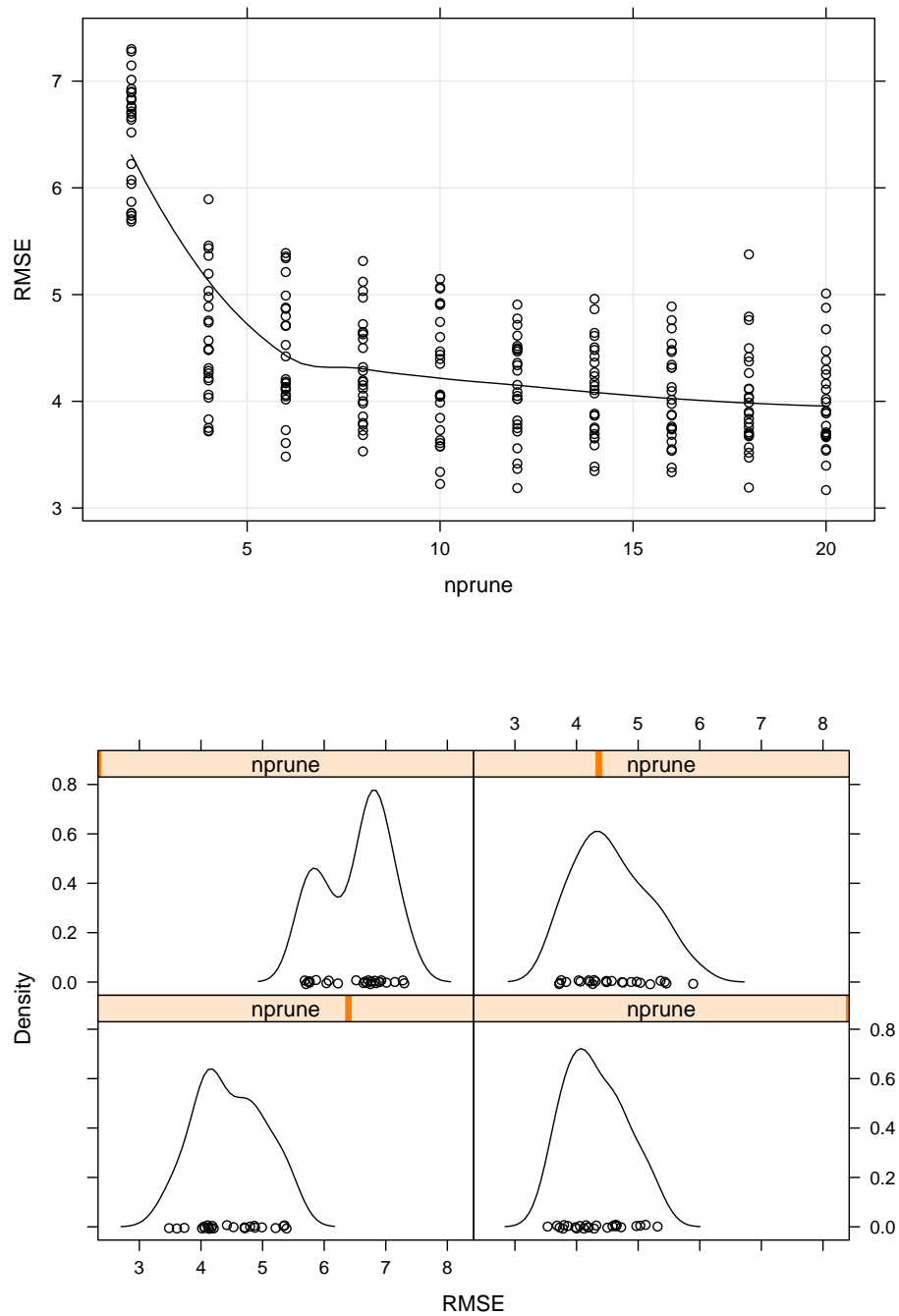


Figure 7: Scatter plots and density plots of the resampled RMSE by the number of retained terms for the MARS model fit to the Boston Housing data



## 5.2 Between-Models

caret also includes functions to characterize the differences between models (generated using caret, [sbf](#) or [rfe](#)) via their resampling distributions. These functions are based on the work of Hothorn et al. (2005) and Eugster et al (2008).

Using the blood-brain barrier data (see [?BloodBrain](#)), three regression models were created: an [rpart](#) tree, a conditional inference tree using [ctree](#), M5 rules using [M5Rules](#) and a MARS model using [earth](#). We ensure that the models use the same resampling data sets. In this case, 100 leave-group-out cross-validation was employed.

```
> data(BloodBrain)
> set.seed(1)
> tmp <- createDataPartition(logBBB, p = 0.8, times = 100)
> rpartFit <- train(bbbDescr, logBBB,
+                   "rpart",
+                   tuneLength = 16,
+                   trControl = trainControl(method = "LGOCV", index = tmp, timingSamps = 50))
```

Fitting: maxdepth=16

```
> set.seed(1)
> ctreeFit <- train(bbbDescr, logBBB,
+                  "ctree2",
+                  tuneLength = 10,
+                  trControl = trainControl(method = "LGOCV", index = tmp, timingSamps = 50))
```

Fitting: maxdepth=1

Fitting: maxdepth=2

Fitting: maxdepth=3

Fitting: maxdepth=4

Fitting: maxdepth=5

Fitting: maxdepth=6

Fitting: maxdepth=7

Fitting: maxdepth=8

Fitting: maxdepth=9

Fitting: maxdepth=10

```
> set.seed(1)
> earthFit <- train(bbbDescr, logBBB,
+                  "earth",
+                  tuneLength = 20,
+                  trControl = trainControl(method = "LGOCV", index = tmp, timingSamps = 50))
```

Fitting: degree=1, nprune=76

```
> set.seed(1)
> m5Fit <- train(bbbDescr, logBBB,
+               "M5Rules",
+               trControl = trainControl(method = "LGOCV", index = tmp, timingSamps = 50))
```

```
Fitting: pruned=Yes
Fitting: pruned=No
```

Given these models, can we make statistical statements about their performance differences? To do this, we first collect the resampling results using `resamples`.

```
> resamps <- resamples(list(CART = rpartFit,
+                           CondInfTree = ctreeFit,
+                           MARS = earthFit,
+                           M5 = m5Fit))
> resamps
```

```
Call:
resamples.default(x = list(CART = rpartFit, CondInfTree = ctreeFit,      MARS = earthFit, M5 = m5Fit))
```

```
Models: CART, CondInfTree, MARS, M5
Number of resamples: 100
Performance metrics: RMSE, Rsquared
Time estimates for: everything, final model fit, prediction
```

```
> summary(resamps)
```

```
Call:
summary.resamples(object = resamps)
```

```
Models: CART, CondInfTree, MARS, M5
Number of resamples: 100
```

RMSE

	Min.	1st Qu.	Median	Mean	3rd Qu.	Max.
CART	0.5204	0.5744	0.6337	0.6312	0.6821	0.7942
CondInfTree	0.4689	0.6016	0.6489	0.6472	0.6913	0.8275
MARS	0.4664	0.5613	0.6126	0.6162	0.6639	0.8634
M5	0.3886	0.5787	0.6343	0.6243	0.6753	0.8044

Rsquared

	Min.	1st Qu.	Median	Mean	3rd Qu.	Max.
CART	0.06821	0.2975	0.3672	0.3599	0.4335	0.5984
CondInfTree	0.07995	0.2628	0.3496	0.3536	0.4415	0.6113
MARS	0.09452	0.3452	0.4148	0.4186	0.4881	0.6727
M5	0.12510	0.3243	0.4175	0.4124	0.4820	0.7139

There are several Lattice plot methods that can be used to visualize the resampling distributions: density plots, box-whisker plots, scatterplot matrices and scatterplots of summary statistics. In the latter case, the plot consists of a scatterplot between the two models. (See Figure 8). In Figure 9, density plots of the data are shown. In this figure, the  $R^2$  distributions indicate that M5 rules and MARS appear to be similar to one another but different from the two tree-based models. However, this pattern is inconsistent with the root mean squared error distributions.

```
> bwplot(resamps, metric = "RMSE")
> densityplot(resamps, metric = "RMSE")
> xyplot(resamps,
+       models = c("CART", "MARS"),
+       metric = "RMSE")
> splom(resamps, metric = "RMSE")
```

Since models are fit on the same versions of the training data, it makes sense to make inferences on the differences between models. In this way we reduce the within-resample correlation that may exist. We can compute the differences, then use a simple  $t$ -test to evaluate the null hypothesis that there is no difference between models.

```
> difValues <- diff(resamps)
> difValues
```

Call:

```
diff.resamples(x = resamps)
```

Models: CART, CondInfTree, MARS, M5

Metrics: RMSE, Rsquared

Number of differences: 6

p-value adjustment: bonferroni

```
> summary(difValues)
```

Call:

```
summary.diff.resamples(object = difValues)
```

p-value adjustment: bonferroni

Upper diagonal: estimates of the difference

Lower diagonal: p-value for H0: difference = 0

RMSE

	CART	CondInfTree	MARS	M5
CART		-0.016041	0.014967	0.006932
CondInfTree	0.123858		0.031008	0.022973
MARS	0.516146	0.004699		-0.008035
M5	1.000000	0.067874	1.000000	

Rsquared

	CART	CondInfTree	MARS	M5
CART		0.006338	-0.058676	-0.052450
CondInfTree	1.0000000		-0.065014	-0.058787
MARS	6.595e-05	5.055e-06		0.006226
M5	0.0008924	4.973e-05	1.0000000	

Note that these results are consistent with the patterns shown in Figure 9; there are more differences in the  $R^2$  distributions than in the error distributions.

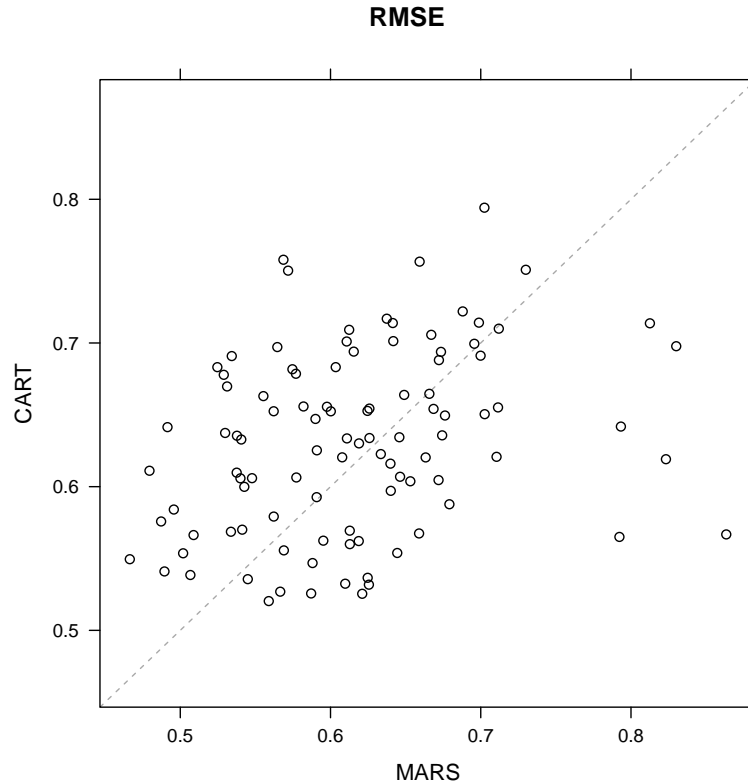


Figure 8: Examples of output from `xyplot(resamps, models = c("CART", "MARS"))`.

Several Lattices methods also exist to plot the differences (density and box-whisker plots) or the inferential results (level and dot plots). Figures 10 and 11 show examples of level and dot plots.

```
> dotplot(difValues)
> densityplot(difValues,
+             metric = "RMSE",
+             auto.key = TRUE,
+             pch = "|")
> bwplot(difValues,
+         metric = "RMSE")
> levelplot(difValues, what = "differences")
```

## 6 Custom Methods for `train`

Although there are currently more than 120 methods available to `train`, there may be the need to create custom model functions (e.g. testing a new model etc). One application of custom models

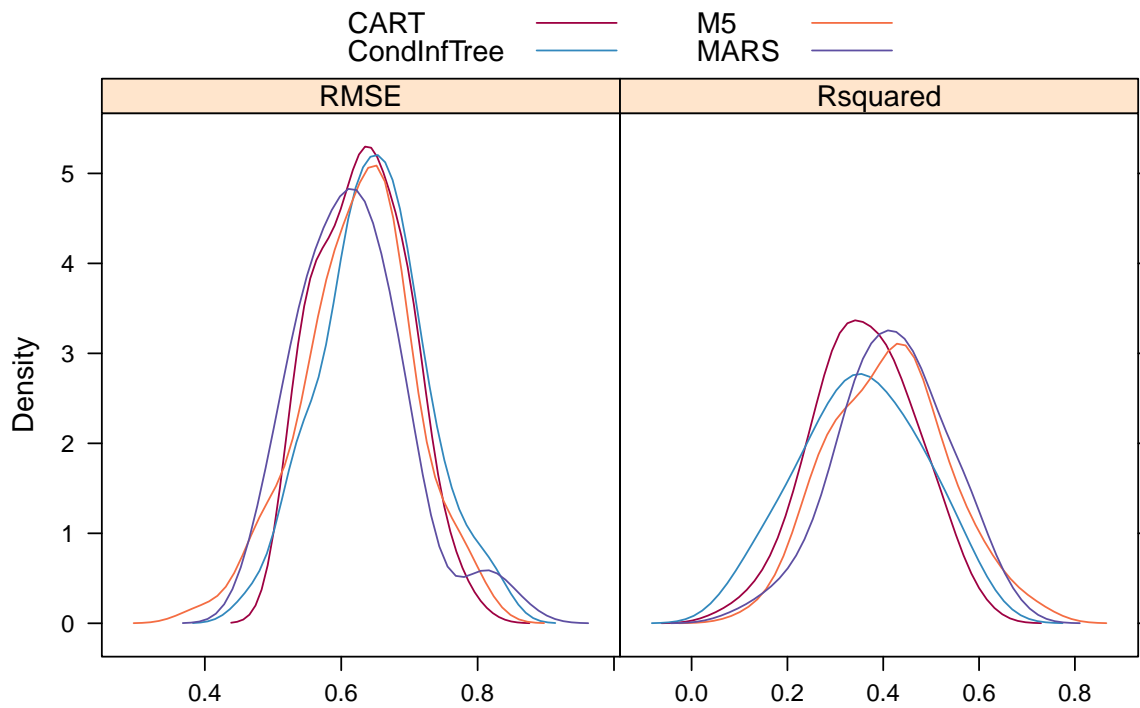


Figure 9: Examples of output from `densityplot(resamps)`. Looking at  $R^2$ , M5 rules and MARS appear to be similar to one another but different from the two tree-based models. However, this pattern is inconsistent with the root mean squared error distributions.

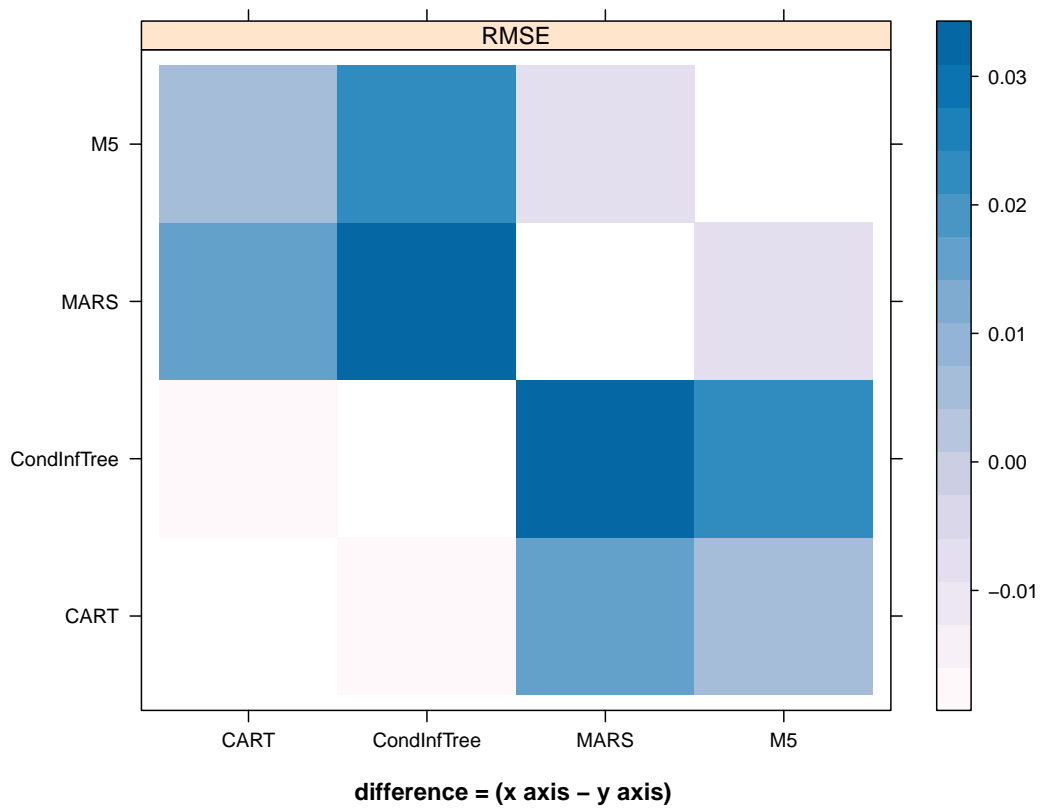


Figure 10: Examples of output from `levelplot(difValues, what = "differences")`. The pair-wise differences in RMSE are shown

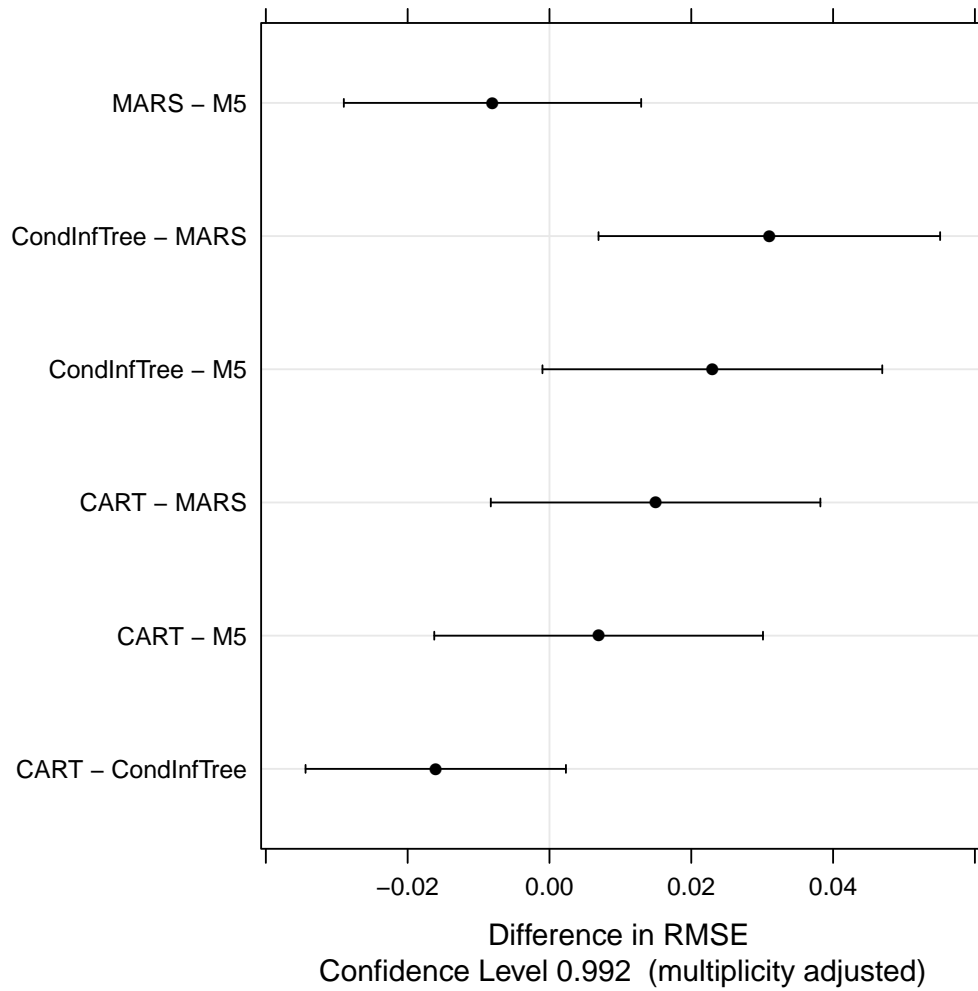


Figure 11: Examples of output from `dotplot(difValues)`. The differences in RMSE and their associated confidence intervals are shown.

would be to create diverse ensembles of models. For example, a set of different classification models may be fit to the same data and a "pick-the-winner" approach can be taken (or the average of the class probabilities could be used, see Kuncheva (2004) or Seni and Elder (2010)). `train` already has a framework for resampling and tuning models and `predict.train` can be used to encapsulate the ensemble of models into one call for prediction.

## Why Not Re-Write `train` Altogether?

One could make a strong argument that back-fitting the package to work with custom models is a bit kludgy. This is probably true, but there are several munches of the current code base that, if implemented in a more formal manner, would make the new code base overly complicated.

For example, the current code base exploits models that can produce predictions for many tuning parameters using a single model object. For example PLS can fit a  $K$  component model and make predictions from models with  $1 \dots K$  components. This potentially saves us  $K - 1$  model fits. PLS is fairly fast, but pother models with this same feature (gbm, cubist, etc) are computationally taxing and this saves a lot of time.

Also, the package currently does many types of resampling and some, such as the bootstrap 632 estimator, are not as simple as others. In this case, an additional model must be fit for all the data to get the apparent error rate. Formalizing this (or starting over) with a new code base would be unnecessarily complex.

## 6.1 How To Write Custom Methods

The user will need to deviate from the standard call in two ways:

- use `method = "custom"` in the call to `train`, and
- add the required functions for the model using `trainControl`

The `custom` argument of `trainControl` requires a list of named functions with the following elements: `parameters`, `model`, `prediction`, `prob` and `sort`.

### 6.1.1 The `parameters` Argument

This element is used to specify or generate the models tuning parameters. This can be done either as a function to generate them or a data frame of the actual parameters.

*Inputs:*



- `data`: a data frame of the training set data. The outcome will be in a column labeled `.outcome`. If the formula method for `train` was invoked, the data passed into this function will have been processed (i.e. dummy variables have been created etc).
- `len` an optional parameter passed in form the `tuneLength` argument to `train`

*Outputs:* a data frame where

- all columns start with a dot
- there is at least one row

Instead of a function, the final data frame can be passed in

### 6.1.2 The `model` Function

This element fits the model and any other functions (e.g. pre-processing of the data)

*Inputs:*

- `data`: a data frame of the training set data. The outcome will be in a column labeled `.outcome`. If case weights were specified in the `train` call, these are in the column `.modelWeights`. If the formula method for `train` was invoked, the data passed into this function will have been processed (i.e. dummy variables have been created etc).
- `weights` case weights
- `parameter` a single row data frame with the current tuning parameter
- `levels`: either `NULL` or a character vector or factor labels
- `last` a logical vector for the final model fit with the selected tuning parameters and the full training set
- `...` arguments passed form `train` to this function

*Outputs:* a list with at least one element:

- `fit`: the object corresponding to the trained model

Anything else can be attached to this object. If custom pre-processing is required, this can be estimated in the `model` function and attached to the output list. Subsequent calls to the `prediction` and `probability` functions will have the entire list available, so the processing can be applied to the new data.

### 6.1.3 The `prediction` Function

This should be a function that produces either a number vector (for regression) or a factor (or character) vector for classification.

*Inputs:*

- `object`: a list with two elements resulting from the model function
- `newdata`: a matrix or data frame of predictors to be processed through the model (and possibly pre-processing routine)

The output should be either a numeric, character or factor vector. For classification, factors are converted to character elsewhere to ensure the proper levels are in the output.

### 6.1.4 The `probability` Argument

For classification models, this function should generate a data frame of class probabilities. For regression, a value of `NULL` can be used.

*Inputs:*

- `object`: a list with two elements resulting from the model function
- `newdata`: a matrix or data frame of predictors to be processed through the model (and possibly pre-processing routine)

The output should be a data frame with these characteristics:

- as many columns are factor levels
- column names are the same as the factor levels and in the same order

### 6.1.5 The `sort` Function

There are cases where multiple tuning parameters yield the same level of performance. In these situations, `train` will choose the parameters associated with the most simplistic model. This function should take the grid of tuning parameters and order them from least complex to most complex.

The input is a data frame of tuning parameters (without the preceding dot in the name).

The output is the same data frame sorted appropriately.

## 6.2 An Example

As an example, suppose we want to test out `rpart` models where we tune over the complexity parameter and the minimum number of samples in a node to do further splitting (a.k.a `minsplit`).

We'll use the Blood-brain barrier data in `caret` to illustrate.

First, we would need to create a training grid with the candidate values of `cp` and `minsplit`. When using the nominal `rpart` method in `train`, an initial `rpart` model is created and the unique values of the complexity parameter are obtained from the sub-object `cptable`. We will test two values of `minsplit`: 10 and 30. First, we get the unique  $C_p$  values for `minsplit = 10`

```
> ## rpart requires a formula method
> tmpData <- bbbDescr
> tmpData$logBBB <- logBBB
> cpValues10 <- rpart(logBBB ~ ., data = tmpData,
+                     control = rpart.control(minsplit = 10))$cptable[, "CP"]
> cpValues30 <- rpart(logBBB ~ ., data = tmpData,
+                     control = rpart.control(minsplit = 30))$cptable[, "CP"]
> head(cpValues10)
```

```
      1      2      3      4      5      6
0.36985527 0.09302467 0.05786716 0.03435632 0.03422223 0.02945773
```

From these, we will create the tuning grid of candidate models (3 values of `minsplit` for each of the possible  $C_p$  values:

```
> rpartGrid <- data.frame(cp = c(cpValues10, cpValues30),
+                          .minsplit =
+                          c(rep(10, length(cpValues10)),
+                            rep(30, length(cpValues30))))
>
```

We can now write a model function:

```
> modelFunc <- function(data, parameter, levels, last, ...)
+ {
+   library(rpart)
+   ctrl <- rpart.control(cp = parameter$.cp,
+                         minsplit = parameter$.minsplit)
+   list(fit = rpart(.outcome ~ ., data = data, control = ctrl))
+ }
```

It is a good idea to load the `rpart` package and anything else needed within the function.

The prediction function is simple:

```
> predFunc <- function(object, newdata)
+ {
+   library(rpart)
+   predict(object$fit, newdata)
+ }
```

Sorting by complexity is somewhat subjective. Both parameters govern how deep the tree can be. We will sort by `cp` then `minsplit`:

```
> sortFunc <- function(x) x[order(x$cp, x$minsplit),]
```

Now we can create a control object for `train`:

```
> ctrl <- trainControl(custom = list(
+   parameters = rpartGrid,
+   model = modelFunc,
+   prediction = predFunc,
+   probability = NULL,
+   sort = sortFunc),
+   method = "cv")
> set.seed(581)
> customRpart <- train(bbbDescr, logBBB, "custom", trControl = ctrl)
```

The `predict`, `print`, `plot` and `resamples` methods work with custom models. In the case of `plot.train`, the axis and key labels will be the parameter names. However, `update` can be used to make the labels more descriptive:

```
> rpartPlot <- plot(customRpart, xTrans = log10)
> rpartPlot <- update(rpartPlot, xlab = "Complexity Parameter")
```

## 7 Session Information

- R version 2.13.2 (2011-09-30), x86\_64-apple-darwin9.8.0
- Locale: C/en\_US.UTF-8/C/en\_US.UTF-8/en\_US.UTF-8
- Base packages: base, datasets, grDevices, graphics, grid, methods, splines, stats, utils
- Other packages: Hmisc 3.8-3, MASS 7.3-14, caret 5.07-001, class 7.3-3, cluster 1.14.1, codetools 0.2-8, e1071 1.6, earth 3.2-1, ellipse 0.3-5, foreach 1.3.2, gam 1.04.1, gbm 1.6-3.1, ipred 0.8-11, iterators 1.0.5, kernlab 0.9-13, klaR 0.6-6, lattice 0.19-33, leaps 2.9, mlbench 2.1-0, nnet 7.3-1, plotmo 1.3-1, plotrix 3.2-6, pls 2.2-0, plyr 1.6, proxy 0.4-7, randomForest 4.6-2, reshape 0.8.4, rpart 3.1-50, survival 2.36-9

- Loaded via a namespace (and not attached): RWeka 0.4-8, RWekajars 3.7.4-1, coin 1.0-20, colorspace 1.1-0, compiler 2.13.2, modeltools 0.2-18, party 0.9-99994, rJava 0.9-1, stats4 2.13.2, tools 2.13.2

## 8 References

- Breiman, Friedman, Olshen, and Stone. (1984) *Classification and Regression Trees*. Wadsworth.
- Eugster et al. (2008), “Exploratory and inferential analysis of benchmark experiments, ” *Ludwigs-Maximilians-Universitat Munchen, Department of Statistics, Tech. Rep* vol. 30
- Hothorn et al. (2005), “The design and analysis of benchmark experiments, ” *Journal of Computational and Graphical Statistics*, 14, 675–699
- Kuncheva (2004), *Combining Pattern Classifiers: Methods and Algorithms*. Wiley.
- Molinaro et al. (2010), “partDSA: deletion/substitution/addition algorithm for partitioning the covariate space in prediction,” *Bioinformatics*, 26, 1357–1363
- Rand (1971), “Objective criteria for the evaluation of clustering methods,” *Journal of the American Statistical Association* 66, 846–850.
- Schmidberger et al. (2009), “State-of-the-art in Parallel Computing with R,” *Journal of Statistical Software*, 31
- Seni and Elder (2010) *Ensemble Methods in Data Mining: Improving Accuracy Through Combining Predictions*. Morgan and Claypool Publishers
- Svetnik, V., Wang, T., Tong, C., Liaw, A., Sheridan, R. P. and Song, Q. (2005), “Boosting: An ensemble learning tool for compound classification and QSAR modeling,” *Journal of Chemical Information and Modeling*, 45, 786 –799.
- Tibshirani, R., Hastie, T., Narasimhan, B., Chu, G. (2003), “Class prediction by nearest shrunken centroids, with applications to DNA microarrays,” *Statistical Science*, 18, 104–117.