SPSS 13.0 is a comprehensive system for analyzing data. The Classification Trees optional add-on module provides the additional analytic techniques described in this manual. The Classification Trees add-on module must be used with the SPSS 13.0 Base system and is completely integrated into that system.

**Installation**

To install the Classification Trees add-on module, run the License Authorization Wizard using the authorization code that you received from SPSS Inc. For more information, see the installation instructions supplied with the SPSS Base system.

**Compatibility**

SPSS is designed to run on many computer systems. See the installation instructions that came with your system for specific information on minimum and recommended requirements.

**Serial Numbers**

Your serial number is your identification number with SPSS Inc. You will need this serial number when you contact SPSS Inc. for information regarding support, payment, or an upgraded system. The serial number was provided with your Base system.

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The SPSS Statistical Procedures Companion, by Marija Norušis, has been published by Prentice Hall. A new version of this book, updated for SPSS 13.0, is planned. The SPSS Advanced Statistical Procedures Companion, also based on SPSS 13.0, is forthcoming. The SPSS Guide to Data Analysis for SPSS 13.0 is also in development. Announcements of publications available exclusively through Prentice Hall will be available on the SPSS Web site at http://www.spss.com/estore (select your home country, and then click Books).

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Your comments are important. Please let us know about your experiences with SPSS products. We especially like to hear about new and interesting applications using the SPSS system. Please send e-mail to suggest@spss.com or write to SPSS Inc.,
Attn.: Director of Product Planning, 233 South Wacker Drive, 11th Floor, Chicago, IL 60606-6412.

**About This Manual**

This manual documents the graphical user interface for the procedures included in the Classification Trees add-on module. Illustrations of dialog boxes are taken from SPSS for Windows. Dialog boxes in other operating systems are similar. Detailed information about the command syntax for features in this module is provided in the *SPSS Command Syntax Reference*, available from the Help menu.

**Contacting SPSS**

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Chapter 1

Creating Classification Trees

Figure 1-1
Classification tree

Credit rating

Income level

<= Low (Low, Medium] > Medium

Node 1

Category | % | n
---|---|---
Bad | 62.0276 | 464
Good | 17.9724 | 139
Total | 24.0000 | 603

Number of credit cards

6 or more

Node 4

Category | % | n
---|---|---
Bad | 58.7254 | 402
Good | 41.2746 | 281
Total | 20.0000 | 683

Age

<= 28.0792 > 28.0792

Node 8

Category | % | n
---|---|---
Bad | 50.8490 | 211
Good | 49.1510 | 209
Total | 10.0000 | 420

Node 9

Category | % | n
---|---|---
Bad | 42.6843 | 211
Good | 57.3157 | 209
Total | 10.0000 | 420

Number of credit cards

Less than 5

Node 5

Category | % | n
---|---|---
Bad | 17.9624 | 50
Good | 82.0376 | 230
Total | 15.0000 | 280

Node 6

Category | % | n
---|---|---
Bad | 17.9624 | 50
Good | 82.0376 | 230
Total | 15.0000 | 280

Node 7

Category | % | n
---|---|---
Bad | 3.1650 | 10
Good | 96.8349 | 312
Total | 10.0000 | 322
The Classification Tree procedure creates a tree-based classification model. It classifies cases into groups or predicts values of a dependent (target) variable based on values of independent (predictor) variables. The procedure provides validation tools for exploratory and confirmatory classification analysis.

The procedure can be used for:

**Segmentation.** Identify persons who are likely to be members of a particular group.

**Stratification.** Assign cases into one of several categories, such as high-, medium-, and low-risk groups.

**Prediction.** Create rules and use them to predict future events, such as the likelihood that someone will default on a loan or the potential resale value of a vehicle or home.

**Data reduction and variable screening.** Select a useful subset of predictors from a large set of variables for use in building a formal parametric model.

**Interaction identification.** Identify relationships that pertain only to specific subgroups and specify these in a formal parametric model.

**Category merging and discretizing continuous variables.** Recode group predictor categories and continuous variables with minimal loss of information.

**Example.** A bank wants to categorize credit applicants according to whether or not they represent a reasonable credit risk. Based on various factors, including the known credit ratings of past customers, you can build a model to predict if future customers are likely to default on their loans.

A tree-based analysis provides some attractive features:

- It allows you to identify homogeneous groups with high or low risk.
- It makes it easy to construct rules for making predictions about individual cases.
Data Considerations

Data. The dependent and independent variables can be:

- **Nominal.** A variable can be treated as nominal when its values represent categories with no intrinsic ranking; for example, the department of the company in which an employee works. Examples of nominal variables include region, zip code, or religious affiliation.

- **Ordinal.** A variable can be treated as ordinal when its values represent categories with some intrinsic ranking; for example, levels of service satisfaction from highly dissatisfied to highly satisfied. Examples of ordinal variables include attitude scores representing degree of satisfaction or confidence and preference rating scores.

- **Scale.** A variable can be treated as scale when its values represent ordered categories with a meaningful metric, so that distance comparisons between values are appropriate. Examples of scale variables include age in years and income in thousands of dollars.

**Frequency weights** If weighting is in effect, fractional weights are rounded to the closest integer; so, cases with a weight value of less than 0.5 are assigned a weight of 0 and are therefore excluded from the analysis.

**Assumptions.** This procedure assumes that the appropriate measurement level has been assigned to all analysis variables, and some features assume that all values of the dependent variable included in the analysis have defined value labels.

- **Measurement level.** Measurement level affects the tree computations; so, all variables should be assigned the appropriate measurement level. By default, SPSS assumes that numeric variables are scale and string variables are nominal, which may not accurately reflect the true measurement level. An icon next to each variable in the variable list identifies the variable type.
You can temporarily change the measurement level for a variable by right-clicking the variable in the source variable list and selecting a measurement level from the context menu.

- **Value labels.** The dialog box interface for this procedure assumes that either all nonmissing values of a categorical (nominal, ordinal) dependent variable have defined value labels or none of them do. Some features are not available unless at least two nonmissing values of the categorical dependent variable have value labels. If at least two nonmissing values have defined value labels, any cases with other values that do not have value labels will be excluded from the analysis.

**To Obtain Classification Trees**

- From the menus choose:
  Analyze
    Classify
      Tree...
Creating Classification Trees

Figure 1-2
Classification Tree dialog box

- Select a dependent variable.
- Select one or more independent variables.
- Select a growing method.

Optionally, you can:
- Change the measurement level for any variable in the source list.
- Force the first variable in the independent variables list into the model as the first split variable.
- Select an influence variable that defines how much influence a case has on the tree-growing process. Cases with lower influence values have less influence; cases with higher values have more. Influence variable values must be positive.
- Validate the tree.
- Customize the tree-growing criteria.
- Save terminal node numbers, predicted values, and predicted probabilities as variables.
- Save the model in XML (PMML) format.

**Changing Measurement Level**

- Right-click the variable in the source list.
- Select a measurement level from the pop-up context menu.

This changes the measurement level temporarily for use in the Classification Tree procedure.

**Growing Methods**

The available growing methods are:

**CHAID.** Chi-squared Automatic Interaction Detection. At each step, CHAID chooses the independent (predictor) variable that has the strongest interaction with the dependent variable. Categories of each predictor are merged if they are not significantly different with respect to the dependent variable.

**Exhaustive CHAID.** A modification of CHAID that examines all possible splits for each predictor.

**CRT.** Classification and Regression Trees. CRT splits the data into segments that are as homogeneous as possible with respect to the dependent variable. A terminal node in which all cases have the same value for the dependent variable is a homogeneous, "pure" node.

**QUEST.** Quick, Unbiased, Efficient Statistical Tree. A method that is fast and avoids other methods' bias in favor of predictors with many categories. QUEST can be specified only if the dependent variable is nominal.

There are benefits and limitations with each method, including:

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Creating Classification Trees

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<td>X</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fast calculation</td>
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*Includes Exhaustive CHAID.

**QUEST also uses a chi-square measure for nominal independent variables.

### Selecting Categories

For categorical (nominal, ordinal) dependent variables, you can:
- Control which categories are included in the analysis.
- Identify the target categories of interest.
Including/Excluding Categories

You can limit the analysis to specific categories of the dependent variable.

- Cases with values of the dependent variable in the Exclude list are not included in the analysis.
- For nominal dependent variables, you can also include user-missing categories in the analysis. (By default, user-missing categories are displayed in the Exclude list.)

Target Categories

Selected (checked) categories are treated as the categories of primary interest in the analysis. For example, if you are primarily interested in identifying those individuals most likely to default on a loan, you might select the “bad” credit-rating category as the target category.

- There is no default target category. If no category is selected, some classification rule options and gains-related output are not available.
- If multiple categories are selected, separate gains tables and charts are produced for each target category.
- Designating one or more categories as target categories has no effect on the tree model, risk estimate, or misclassification results.

Categories and Value Labels

This dialog box requires defined value labels for the dependent variable. It is not available unless at least two values of the categorical dependent variable have defined value labels.

To Include/Exclude Categories and Select Target Categories

- In the main Classification Tree dialog box, select a categorical (nominal, ordinal) dependent variable with two or more defined value labels.
- Click Categories.
Validation

Validation allows you to assess how well your tree structure generalizes to a larger population. Two validation methods are available: crossvalidation and split-sample validation.

Crossvalidation

Crossvalidation divides the sample into a number of subsamples, or folds. Tree models are then generated, excluding the data from each subsample in turn. The first tree is based on all of the cases except those in the first sample fold, the second tree is based on all of the cases except those in the second sample fold, and so on. For each tree, misclassification risk is estimated by applying the tree to the subsample excluded in generating it.
You can specify a maximum of 25 sample folds. The higher the value, the fewer the number of cases excluded for each tree model.

Crossvalidation produces a single, final tree model. The crossvalidated risk estimate for the final tree is calculated as the average of the risks for all of the trees.

**Split-Sample Validation**

With split-sample validation, the model is generated using a training sample and tested on a hold-out sample.

- You can specify a training sample size, expressed as a percentage of the total sample size, or a variable that splits the sample into training and testing samples.

- If you use a variable to define training and testing samples, cases with a value of 1 for the variable are assigned to the training sample, and all other cases are assigned to the testing sample. The variable cannot be the dependent variable, weight variable, influence variable, or a forced independent variable.

- You can display results for both the training and testing samples or just the testing sample.

- Split-sample validation should be used with caution on small data files (data files with a small number of cases). Small training sample sizes may yield poor models, since there may not be enough cases in some categories to adequately grow the tree.

**Tree-Growing Criteria**

The available growing criteria may depend on the growing method, level of measurement of the dependent variable, or a combination of the two.
**Growth Limits**

Figure 1-5  
*Criteria dialog box, Growth Limits tab*

The Growth Limits tab allows you to limit the number of levels in the tree and control the minimum number of cases for parent and child nodes.

**Maximum Tree Depth.** Controls the maximum number of levels of growth beneath the root node. The Automatic setting limits the tree to three levels beneath the root node for the CHAID and Exhaustive CHAID methods and five levels for the CRT and QUEST methods.

**Minimum Number of Cases.** Controls the minimum numbers of cases for nodes. Nodes that do not satisfy these criteria will not be split.
- Increasing the minimum values tends to produce trees with fewer nodes.
- Decreasing the minimum values produces trees with more nodes.

For data files with a small number of cases, the default values of 100 cases for parent nodes and 50 cases for child nodes may sometimes result in trees with no nodes below the root node; in this case, lowering the minimum values may produce more useful results.
For the CHAID and Exhaustive CHAID methods, you can control:

**Significance Level.** You can control the significance value for splitting nodes and merging categories. For both criteria, the default significance level is 0.05.

- For splitting nodes, the value must be greater than 0 and less than 1. Lower values tend to produce trees with fewer nodes.

- For merging categories, the value must be greater than 0 and less than or equal to 1. To prevent merging of categories, specify a value of 1. For a scale independent variable, this means that the number of categories for the variable in the final tree is the specified number of intervals (the default is 10). For more information, see “Scale Intervals for CHAID Analysis” on p. 14.
**Chi-Square Statistic.** For ordinal dependent variables, chi-square for determining node splitting and category merging is calculated using the likelihood-ratio method. For nominal dependent variables, you can select the method:

- **Pearson.** This method provides faster calculations but should be used with caution on small samples. This is the default method.

- **Likelihood ratio.** This method is more robust than Pearson but takes longer to calculate. For small samples, this is the preferred method.

**Model Estimation.** For nominal and ordinal dependent variables, you can specify:

- **Maximum number of iterations.** The default is 100. If the tree stops growing because the maximum number of iterations has been reached, you may want to increase the maximum or change one or more of the other criteria that control tree growth.

- **Minimum change in expected cell frequencies.** The value must be greater than 0 and less than 1. The default is 0.05. Lower values tend to produce trees with fewer nodes.

**Adjust significance values using Bonferroni method.** For multiple comparisons, significance values for merging and splitting criteria are adjusted using the Bonferroni method. This is the default.

**Allow resplitting of merged categories within a node.** Unless you explicitly prevent category merging, the procedure will attempt to merge independent (predictor) variable categories together to produce the simplest tree that describes the model. This option allows the procedure to resplit merged categories if that provides a better solution.
Scale Intervals for CHAID Analysis

Figure 1-7
Criteria dialog box, Intervals tab

In CHAID analysis, scale independent (predictor) variables are always banded into discrete groups (for example, 0–10, 11–20, 21–30, etc.) prior to analysis. You can control the initial/maximum number of groups (although the procedure may merge contiguous groups after the initial split):

- **Fixed number.** All scale independent variables are initially banded into the same number of groups. The default is 10.
- **Custom.** Each scale independent variable is initially banded into the number of groups specified for that variable.

To Specify Intervals for Scale Independent Variables

- In the main Classification Tree dialog box, select one or more scale independent variables.
- For the growing method, select CHAID or Exhaustive CHAID.
- Click Criteria.
Click the Intervals tab.

In CRT and QUEST analysis, all splits are binary and scale and ordinal independent variables are handled the same way; so, you cannot specify a number of intervals for scale independent variables.

**CRT Criteria**

**Figure 1-8**

Criteria dialog box, CRT tab

The CRT growing method attempts to maximize within-node homogeneity. The extent to which a node does not represent a homogenous subset of cases is an indication of **impurity**. For example, a terminal node in which all cases have the same value for the dependent variable is a homogenous node that requires no further splitting because it is “pure.”

You can select the method used to measure impurity and the minimum decrease in impurity required to split nodes.

**Impurity Measure.** For scale dependent variables, the least-squared deviation (LSD) measure of impurity is used. It is computed as the within-node variance, adjusted for any frequency weights or influence values.
For categorical (nominal, ordinal) dependent variables, you can select the impurity measure:

- **Gini.** Splits are found that maximize the homogeneity of child nodes with respect to the value of the dependent variable. Gini is based on squared probabilities of membership for each category of the dependent variable. It reaches its minimum (zero) when all cases in a node fall into a single category. This is the default measure.

- **Twoing.** Categories of the dependent variable are grouped into two subclasses. Splits are found that best separate the two groups.

- **Ordered twoing.** Similar to Twoing except that only adjacent categories can be grouped. This measure is available only for ordinal dependent variables.

**Minimum change in improvement.** This is the minimum decrease in impurity required to split a node. The default is 0.0001. Higher values tend to produce trees with fewer nodes.

**QUEST Criteria**

*Figure 1-9*  
*Criteria dialog box, QUEST tab*
For the QUEST method, you can specify the significance level for splitting nodes. An independent variable cannot be used to split nodes unless the significance level is less than or equal to the specified value. The value must be greater than 0 and less than 1. The default is 0.05. Smaller values will tend to exclude more independent variables from the final model.

To Specify QUEST Criteria

- In the main Classification Tree dialog box, select a nominal dependent variable.
- For the growing method, select QUEST.
- Click Criteria.
- Click the QUEST tab.

Pruning Trees

Figure 1-10
Criteria dialog box, Pruning tab

- **Prune tree to avoid overfitting**
  - **Maximum Difference in Risk (in Standard Errors):**

After the tree is grown to its full depth, pruning trims the tree down to the smallest subtree that has an acceptable risk value.

Enter the maximum acceptable difference in risk between the pruned tree and the subtree with the smallest risk.

To produce a simpler tree, increase the maximum difference. To select the subtree with the smallest risk, enter 0.
With the CRT and QUEST methods, you can avoid overfitting the model by **pruning**
the tree: the tree is grown until stopping criteria are met, and then it is trimmed
automatically to the smallest subtree based on the specified maximum difference in
risk. The risk value is expressed in standard errors. The default is 1. The value must
be non-negative. To obtain the subtree with the minimum risk, specify 0.

**Pruning versus Hiding Nodes**

When you create a pruned tree, any nodes pruned from the tree are not available in
the final tree. You can interactively hide and show selected child nodes in the final
tree, but you cannot show nodes that were pruned in the tree creation process. For
more information, see “Tree Editor” in Chapter 2 on p. 49.

**Surrogates**

CRT and QUEST can use **surrogates** for independent (predictor) variables. For
cases in which the value for that variable is missing, other independent variables
having high associations with the original variable are used for classification. These
alternative predictors are called surrogates. You can specify the maximum number of surrogates to use in the model.

- By default, the maximum number of surrogates is one less than the number of independent variables. In other words, for each independent variable, all other independent variables may be used as surrogates.
- If you don’t want the model to use surrogates, specify 0 for the number of surrogates.

**Options**

Available options may depend on the growing method, the level of measurement of the dependent variable, and/or the existence of defined value labels for values of the dependent variable.

**Misclassification Costs**

*Figure 1-12*

*Options dialog box, Misclassification Costs tab*
For categorical (nominal, ordinal) dependent variables, misclassification costs allow you to include information about the relative penalty associated with incorrect classification. For example:

- The cost of denying credit to a creditworthy customer is likely to be different from the cost of extending credit to a customer who then defaults on the loan.
- The cost of misclassifying an individual with a high risk of heart disease as low risk is probably much higher than the cost of misclassifying a low-risk individual as high-risk.
- The cost of sending a mass mailing to someone who isn’t likely to respond is probably fairly low, while the cost of not sending the mailing to someone who is likely to respond is relatively higher (in terms of lost revenue).

**Misclassification Costs and Value Labels**

This dialog box is not available unless at least two values of the categorical dependent variable have defined value labels.

**To Specify Misclassification Costs**

- In the main Classification Tree dialog box, select a categorical (nominal, ordinal) dependent variable with two or more defined value labels.
- Click Options.
- Click the Misclassification Costs tab.
- Click Custom.
- Enter one or more misclassification costs in the grid. Values must be non-negative. (Correct classifications, represented on the diagonal, are always 0.)

**Fill Matrix.** In many instances, you may want costs to be symmetric—that is, the cost of misclassifying A as B is the same as the cost of misclassifying B as A. The following controls can make it easier to specify a symmetric cost matrix:

- **Duplicate Lower Triangle.** Copies values in the lower triangle of the matrix (below the diagonal) into the corresponding upper-triangular cells.
- **Duplicate Upper Triangle.** Copies values in the upper triangle of the matrix (above the diagonal) into the corresponding lower-triangular cells.

- **Use Average Cell Values.** For each cell in each half of the matrix, the two values (upper- and lower-triangular) are averaged and the average replaces both values. For example, if the cost of misclassifying A as B is 1 and the cost of misclassifying B as A is 3, then this control replaces both of those values with the average \((1+3)/2 = 2\).

### Profits

**Figure 1-13**  
*Options dialog box, Profits tab*

For categorical dependent variables, you can assign revenue and expense values to levels of the dependent variable.

- **Profit is computed as revenue minus expense.**
Profit values affect average profit and ROI (return on investment) values in gains tables. They do not affect the basic tree model structure.

Revenue and expense values must be numeric and must be specified for all categories of the dependent variable displayed in the grid.

**Profits and Value Labels**

This dialog box requires defined value labels for the dependent variable. It is not available unless at least two values of the categorical dependent variable have defined value labels.

**To Specify Profits**

- In the main Classification Tree dialog box, select a categorical (nominal, ordinal) dependent variable with two or more defined value labels.
- Click Options.
- Click the Profits tab.
- Click Custom.
- Enter revenue and expense values for all dependent variable categories listed in the grid.
Prior Probabilities

For CRT and QUEST trees with categorical dependent variables, you can specify prior probabilities of group membership. **Prior probabilities** are estimates of the overall relative frequency for each category of the dependent variable prior to knowing anything about the values of the independent (predictor) variables. Using prior probabilities helps to correct any tree growth caused by data in the sample that is not representative of the entire population.

**Obtain from training sample (empirical priors).** Use this setting if the distribution of dependent variable values in the data file is representative of the population distribution. If you are using split-sample validation, the distribution of cases in the training sample is used.

**Note:** Since cases are randomly assigned to the training sample in split-sample validation, you won’t know the actual distribution of cases in the training sample in advance. For more information, see “Validation” on p. 9.
**Equal across categories.** Use this setting if categories of the dependent variable are represented equally in the population. For example, if there are four categories, approximately 25% of the cases are in each category.

**Custom.** Enter a non-negative value for each category of the dependent variable listed in the grid. The values can be proportions, percentages, frequency counts, or any other values that represent the distribution of values across categories.

**Adjust priors using misclassification costs.** If you define custom misclassification costs, you can adjust prior probabilities based on those costs. For more information, see “Misclassification Costs” on p. 19.

**Profits and Value Labels**

This dialog box requires defined value labels for the dependent variable. It is not available unless at least two values of the categorical dependent variable have defined value labels.

**To Specify Prior Probabilities**

- In the main Classification Tree dialog box, select a categorical (nominal, ordinal) dependent variable with two or more defined value labels.

- For the growing method, select CRT or QUEST.

- Click Options.

- Click the Prior Probabilities tab.
Scores

For CHAID and Exhaustive CHAID with an ordinal dependent variable, you can assign custom scores to each category of the dependent variable. Scores define the order of and distance between categories of the dependent variable. You can use scores to increase or decrease the relative distance between ordinal values or to change the order of the values.

- **Use ordinal rank for each category.** The lowest category of the dependent variable is assigned a score of 1, the next highest category is assigned a score of 2, and so on. This is the default.

- **Custom.** Enter a numeric score value for each category of the dependent variable listed in the grid.
Example

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value Label</th>
<th>Original Value</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unskilled</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skilled manual</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clerical</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- The scores increase the relative distance between Unskilled and Skilled manual and decrease the relative distance between Skilled manual and Clerical.
- The scores reverse the order of Management and Professional.

Scores and Value Labels

This dialog box requires defined value labels for the dependent variable. It is not available unless at least two values of the categorical dependent variable have defined value labels.

To Specify Scores

- In the main Classification Tree dialog box, select an ordinal dependent variable with two or more defined value labels.
- For the growing method, select CHAID or Exhaustive CHAID.
- Click Options.
- Click the Scores tab.
**Missing Values**

Figure 1-16
Options dialog box, Missing Values tab

The Missing Values tab controls the handling of nominal, user-missing, independent (predictor) variable values.

- Handling of ordinal and scale user-missing independent variable values varies between growing methods.
- Handling of nominal dependent variables is specified in the Categories dialog box. For more information, see “Selecting Categories” on p. 7.
- For ordinal and scale dependent variables, cases with system-missing or user-missing dependent variable values are always excluded.

**Treat as missing values.** User-missing values are treated like system-missing values. The handling of system-missing values varies between growing methods.

**Treat as valid values.** User-missing values of nominal independent variables are treated as ordinary values in tree growing and classification.
**Method-Dependent Rules**

If some, but not all, independent variable values are system- or user-missing:

- For CHAID and Exhaustive CHAID, system- and user-missing independent variable values are included in the analysis as a single, combined category. For scale and ordinal independent variables, the algorithms first generate categories using valid values and then decide whether to merge the missing category with its most similar (valid) category or keep it as a separate category.

- For CRT and QUEST, cases with missing independent variable values are excluded from the tree-growing process but are classified using surrogates if surrogates are included in the method. If nominal user-missing values are treated as missing, they are also handled in this manner. For more information, see “Surrogates” on p. 18.

**To Specify Nominal, Independent User-Missing Treatment**

- In the main Classification Tree dialog box, select at least one nominal independent variable.

- Click Options.

- Click the Missing Values tab.
**Saving Model Information**

You can save information from the model as variables in the working data file, and you can also save the entire model in XML (PMML) format to an external file.

**Saved Variables**

**Terminal node number.** The terminal node to which each case is assigned. The value is the tree node number.

**Predicted value.** The class (group) or value for the dependent variable predicted by the model.

**Predicted probabilities.** The probability associated with the model’s prediction. One variable is saved for each category of the dependent variable. Not available for scale dependent variables.

**Sample assignment (training/testing).** For split-sample validation, this variable indicates whether a case was used in the training or testing sample. The value is 1 for the training sample and 0 for the testing sample. Not available unless you have selected split-sample validation. For more information, see “Validation” on p. 9.
Chapter 1

Export Tree Model as XML

You can save the entire tree model in XML (PMML) format. SmartScore and the server version of SPSS (a separate product) can use this model file to apply the model information to other data files for scoring purposes.

Training sample. Writes the model to the specified file. For split-sample validated trees, this is the model for the training sample.

Test sample. Writes the model for the test sample to the specified file. Not available unless you have selected split-sample validation.

Output

Available output options depend on the growing method, the measurement level of the dependent variable, and other settings.
You can control the initial appearance of the tree or completely suppress the tree display.

**Tree.** By default, the tree diagram is included in the output displayed in the Viewer. Deselect (uncheck) this option to exclude the tree diagram from the output.

**Display.** These options control the initial appearance of the tree diagram in the Viewer. All of these attributes can also be modified by editing the generated tree.

- **Orientation.** The tree can be displayed top down with the root node at the top, left to right, or right to left.
- **Node contents.** Nodes can display tables, charts or both. For categorical dependent variables, tables display frequency counts and percentages, and the charts are bar charts. For scale dependent variables, tables display means, standard deviations, number of cases, and predicted values, and the charts are histograms.

- **Scale.** By default, large trees are automatically scaled down in an attempt to fit the tree on the page. You can specify a custom scale percentage of up to 200%.

- **Independent variable statistics.** For CHAID and Exhaustive CHAID, statistics include $F$ value (for scale dependent variables) or chi-square value (for categorical dependent variables) as well as significance value and degrees of freedom. For CRT, the improvement value is shown. For QUEST, $F$, significance value, and degrees of freedom are shown for scale and ordinal independent variables; for nominal independent variables, chi-square, significance value, and degrees of freedom are shown.

- **Node definitions.** Node definitions display the value(s) of the independent variable used at each node split.

**Tree in table format.** Summary information for each node in the tree, including parent node number, independent variable statistics, independent variable value(s) for the node, mean and standard deviation for scale dependent variables, or counts and percentages for categorical dependent variables.
**Figure 1-19**

*Tree in table format*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Node</th>
<th>Bad</th>
<th>Good</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Predicted Category</th>
<th>Parent Node</th>
<th>Primary Independent Variable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>1020</td>
<td>1444</td>
<td>2464</td>
<td>Good</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Income level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>454</td>
<td>59%</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>17.5%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Income level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>476</td>
<td>42.4%</td>
<td>518</td>
<td>46.0%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Income level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>88.4%</td>
<td>1134</td>
<td>31.5%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Income level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>422</td>
<td>322</td>
<td>744</td>
<td>30.2%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Income level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>338</td>
<td>86.2%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Income level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>13.8%</td>
<td>336</td>
<td>86.2%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Income level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3.1%</td>
<td>312</td>
<td>86.9%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Income level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>261</td>
<td>10.6%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Income level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>43.7%</td>
<td>403</td>
<td>19.6%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Income level</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Primary Indepedent Variable**

- **Sig.**
- **Chi-Square**
- **df**
- **Split Values**

- **Less than 5**
- **Less than 5**
- **Less than 5**
- **Less than 5**
- **Less than 5**
- **Less than 5**
- **Less than 5**
- **Less than 5**
- **Less than 5**
- **Less than 5**
Available statistics tables depend on the measurement level of the dependent variable, the growing method, and other settings.

**Model**

**Summary.** The summary includes the method used, the variables included in the model, and the variables specified but not included in the model.

- For categorical dependent variables, the risk estimate is the proportion of cases incorrectly classified after adjustment for prior probabilities and misclassification costs.
- For scale dependent variables, the risk estimate is within-node variance.

Classification table. For categorical (nominal, ordinal) dependent variables, this table shows the number of cases classified correctly and incorrectly for each category of the dependent variable. Not available for scale dependent variables.

Figure 1-22
Risk and classification tables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Observed</th>
<th>Predicted</th>
<th>Percent Correct</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bad</td>
<td>665</td>
<td>355</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>1295</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Percentage</td>
<td>33.0%</td>
<td>67.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Growing Method: CHAID
Dependent Variable: Credit rating
Cost, prior probability, score, and profit values. For categorical dependent variables, this table shows the cost, prior probability, score, and profit values used in the analysis. Not available for scale dependent variables.

Independent Variables

Importance to model. For the CRT growing method, ranks each independent (predictor) variable according to its importance to the model. Not available for QUEST or CHAID methods.

Surrogates by split. For the CRT and QUEST growing methods, if the model includes surrogates, lists surrogates for each split in the tree. Not available for CHAID methods. For more information, see “Surrogates” on p. 18.

Node Performance

Summary. For scale dependent variables, the table includes the node number, the number of cases, and the mean value of the dependent variable. For categorical dependent variables with defined profits, the table includes the node number, the number of cases, the average profit, and the ROI (return on investment) values. Not available for categorical dependent variables without defined profits. For more information, see “Profits” on p. 21.
Figure 1-23

Gain summary tables for nodes and percentiles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Node</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Profit</th>
<th>ROI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>322</td>
<td>13.1%</td>
<td>77,026</td>
<td>377.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>380</td>
<td>15.6%</td>
<td>70,306</td>
<td>300.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>455</td>
<td>18.5%</td>
<td>67,592</td>
<td>257.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>19.5%</td>
<td>49,420</td>
<td>172.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>261</td>
<td>10.6%</td>
<td>23,410</td>
<td>54.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>553</td>
<td>22.4%</td>
<td>22,532</td>
<td>51.3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Gain Summary for Percentiles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentile</th>
<th>Nodes</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Profit</th>
<th>ROI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>246</td>
<td>77,026</td>
<td>377.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>7, 5</td>
<td>480</td>
<td>75,210</td>
<td>352.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>5, 6</td>
<td>739</td>
<td>73,408</td>
<td>336.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>986</td>
<td>72,030</td>
<td>323.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>6, 9</td>
<td>1232</td>
<td>70,205</td>
<td>367.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1470</td>
<td>66,745</td>
<td>260.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70</td>
<td>9, 8</td>
<td>1725</td>
<td>63,134</td>
<td>254.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80</td>
<td>6, 1</td>
<td>1971</td>
<td>58,149</td>
<td>221.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2216</td>
<td>54,163</td>
<td>157.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2464</td>
<td>51,023</td>
<td>160.4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

By target category. For categorical dependent variables with defined target categories, the table includes the percentage gain, the response percentage, and the index percentage (lift) by node or percentile group. A separate table is produced for each target category. Not available for scale dependent variables or categorical dependent variables without defined target categories. For more information, see “Selecting Categories” on p. 7.
Rows. The node performance tables can display results by terminal nodes, percentiles, or both. If you select both, two tables are produced for each target category. Percentile tables display cumulative values for each percentile, based on sort order.

Percentile increment. For percentile tables, you can select the percentile increment: 1, 2, 5, 10, 20, or 25.

Display cumulative statistics. For terminal node tables, displays additional columns in each table with cumulative results.
Charts

Figure 1-25
Output dialog box, Plots tab

Available charts depend on the measurement level of the dependent variable, the growing method, and other settings.

**Importance to model.** Bar chart of model importance by independent variable (predictor). Available only with the CRT growing method.

**Node Performance**

**Gain.** Gain is the percentage of total cases in the target category in each node, computed as: (node target \(n\)/total target \(n\)) x 100. The gains chart is a line chart of cumulative percentile gains, computed as: (cumulative percentile target \(n\) / total target \(n\)) x 100. A separate line chart is produced for each target category. Available
only for categorical dependent variables with defined target categories. For more information, see “Selecting Categories” on p. 7.

The gains chart plots the same values that you would see in the Gain Percent column in the gains for percentiles table, which also reports cumulative values.

Figure 1-26
Gains for percentiles table and gains chart

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentile</th>
<th>Nodes</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Index</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>266</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>19.8%</td>
<td>82.1%</td>
<td>198.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>493</td>
<td>405</td>
<td>39.7%</td>
<td>82.1%</td>
<td>198.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>1;8</td>
<td>759</td>
<td>604</td>
<td>59.3%</td>
<td>81.8%</td>
<td>197.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>8;9</td>
<td>966</td>
<td>740</td>
<td>72.6%</td>
<td>75.1%</td>
<td>181.3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Response. The percentage of cases in the node in the specified target category. The response chart is a line chart of cumulative percentile response, computed as: 
(cumulative percentile target \( n \) / cumulative percentile total \( n \)) x 100. Available only for categorical dependent variables with defined target categories.

The response chart plots the same values that you would see in the Response column in the gains for percentiles table.
Figure 1-27
Gains for percentiles table and response chart

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentile</th>
<th>Nodes</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Index</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>261</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>13.0%</td>
<td>82.1%</td>
<td>190.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>405</td>
<td>387</td>
<td>38.7%</td>
<td>82.1%</td>
<td>190.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>739</td>
<td>504</td>
<td>59.3%</td>
<td>91.6%</td>
<td>197.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>944</td>
<td>747</td>
<td>79.6%</td>
<td>75.1%</td>
<td>101.3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Index. Index is the ratio of the node response percentage for the target category compared to the overall target category response percentage for the entire sample. The index chart is a line chart of cumulative percentile index values. Available only for categorical dependent variables. Cumulative percentile index is computed as: (cumulative percentile response percent / total response percent) x 100. A separate chart is produced for each target category, and target categories must be defined.

The index chart plots the same values that you would see in the Index column in the gains for percentiles table.
Chapter 1

Figure 1-28
Gains for percentiles table and index chart

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentile</th>
<th>Nodes</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Gain</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Index</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>245</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>19.8%</td>
<td>82.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>493</td>
<td>405</td>
<td>39.7%</td>
<td>82.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>1 ; 8</td>
<td>739</td>
<td>604</td>
<td>59.3%</td>
<td>81.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>8 ; 8</td>
<td>986</td>
<td>740</td>
<td>72.6%</td>
<td>75.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mean. Line chart of cumulative percentile mean values for the dependent variable. Available only for scale dependent variables.

Average profit. Line chart of cumulative average profit. Available only for categorical dependent variables with defined profits. For more information, see “Profits” on p. 21.

The average profit chart plots the same values that you would see in the Profit column in the gain summary for percentiles table.
Return on investment (ROI). Line chart of cumulative ROI (return on investment). ROI is computed as the ratio of profits to expenses. Available only for categorical dependent variables with defined profits.

The ROI chart plots the same values that you would see in the ROI column in the gain summary for percentiles table.
**Figure 1-30**
*Gain summary for percentiles table and ROI chart*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentile</th>
<th>Nodes</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Profit</th>
<th>ROI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>245</td>
<td>77.026</td>
<td>377.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>7, 5</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>75.210</td>
<td>352.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>5, 6</td>
<td>739</td>
<td>73.460</td>
<td>338.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>900</td>
<td>72.036</td>
<td>323.4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Percentile increment.** For all percentile charts, this setting controls the percentile increments displayed on the chart: 1, 2, 5, 10, 20, or 25.
Selection and Scoring Rules

Figure 1-31
Output dialog box, Rules tab

The Rules tab provides the ability to generate selection or classification/prediction rules in the form of SPSS command syntax, SQL, or simple (plain English) text. You can display these rules in the Viewer and/or save the rules to an external file.

Syntax. Controls the form of the selection rules in both output displayed in the Viewer and selection rules saved to an external file.

- **SPSS.** SPSS command language. Rules are expressed as a set of commands that define a filter condition that can be used to select subsets of cases or as **compute** statements that can be used to score cases.
SQL. Standard SQL rules are generated to select or extract records from a database or assign values to those records. The generated SQL rules do not include any table names or other data source information.

Simple text. Plain English pseudo-code. Rules are expressed as a set of logical “if...then” statements that describe the model’s classifications or predictions for each node. Rules in this form can use defined variable and value labels or variable names and data values.

Type. For SPSS and SQL rules, controls the type of rules generated: selection or scoring rules.

Select cases. The rules can be used to select cases that meet node membership criteria. For SPSS and SQL rules, a single rule is generated to select all cases that meet the selection criteria.

Assign values to cases. The rules can be used to assign the model’s predictions to cases that meet node membership criteria. A separate rule is generated for each node that meets the node membership criteria.

Include surrogates in SPSS and SQL rules. For CRT and QUEST, you can include surrogate predictors from the model in the rules. Rules that include surrogates can be quite complex. In general, if you just want to derive conceptual information about your tree, exclude surrogates. If some cases have incomplete independent variable (predictor) data and you want rules that mimic your tree, include surrogates. For more information, see “Surrogates” on p. 18.

Nodes. Controls the scope of the generated rules. A separate rule is generated for each node included in the scope.

All terminal nodes. Generates rules for each terminal node.

Best terminal nodes. Generates rules for the top \( n \) terminal nodes based on index values. If the number exceeds the number of terminal nodes in the tree, rules are generated for all terminal nodes. (See note below.)

Best terminal nodes up to a specified percentage of cases. Generates rules for terminal nodes for the top \( n \) percentage of cases based on index values. (See note below.)

Terminal nodes whose index value meets or exceeds a cutoff value. Generates rules for all terminal nodes with an index value greater than or equal to the specified value. An index value greater than 100 means that the percentage of cases in
the target category in that node exceeds the percentage in the root node. (See note below.)

- **All nodes.** Generates rules for all nodes.

*Note 1:* Node selection based on index values is available only for categorical dependent variables with defined target categories. If you have specified multiple target categories, a separate set of rules is generated for each target category.

*Note 2:* For SPSS and SQL rules for selecting cases (not rules for assigning values), All nodes and All terminal nodes will effectively generate a rule that selects all cases used in the analysis.

**Export rules to a file.** Saves the rules in an external text file.

You can also generate and save selection or scoring rules interactively, based on selected nodes in the final tree model. For more information, see “Case Selection and Scoring Rules” in Chapter 2 on p. 58.

*Note:* If you apply rules in the form of SPSS command syntax to another data file, that data file must contain variables with the same names as the independent variables included in the final model, measured in the same metric, with the same user-defined missing values (if any).
Tree Editor

With the Tree Editor, you can:

- Hide and show selected tree branches.
- Control display of node content, statistics displayed at node splits, and other information.
- Change node, background, border, chart, and font colors.
- Change font style and size.
- Change tree alignment.
- Select subsets of cases for further analysis based on selected nodes.
- Create and save rules for selecting or scoring cases based on selected nodes.

To edit a tree model:

- Double-click the tree model in the Viewer window.

  or

- Right-click the tree model in the Viewer window, and from the context menu choose:
  SPSS Tree Object
  Open

_Hiding and Showing Nodes_

To hide (collapse) all the child nodes in a branch beneath a parent node:

- Click the minus sign (−) in the small box below the lower right corner of the parent node.

  All nodes beneath the parent node on that branch will be hidden.
To show (expand) the child nodes in a branch beneath a parent node:

- Click the plus sign (+) in the small box below the lower right corner of the parent node.

*Note:* Hiding the child nodes on a branch is not the same as pruning a tree. If you want a pruned tree, you must request pruning before you create the tree, and pruned branches are not included in the final tree. For more information, see “Pruning Trees” in Chapter 1 on p. 17.

**Figure 2-1**
*Expanded and collapsed tree*

---

### Selecting Multiple Nodes

You can select cases, generate scoring and selections rules, and perform other actions based on the currently selected node(s). To select multiple nodes:

- Click a node you want to select.
- Ctrl-click the other nodes you want to select.
You can multiple-select sibling nodes and/or parent nodes in one branch and child nodes in another branch. You cannot, however, use multiple selection on a parent node and a child/descendant of the same node branch.

**Working with Large Trees**

Tree models may sometimes contain so many nodes and branches that it is difficult or impossible to view the entire tree at full size. There are a number of features that you may find useful when working with large trees:

- **Tree map.** You can use the tree map, a much smaller, simplified version of the tree, to navigate the tree and select nodes. For more information, see “Tree Map” on p. 51.

- **Scaling.** You can zoom out and zoom in by changing the scale percentage for the tree display. For more information, see “Scaling the Tree Display” on p. 52.

- **Node and branch display.** You can make a tree more compact by displaying only tables or only charts in the nodes and/or suppressing the display of node labels or independent variable information. For more information, see “Controlling Information Displayed in the Tree” on p. 55.

**Tree Map**

The tree map provides a compact, simplified view of the tree that you can use to navigate the tree and select nodes.

To use the tree map window:

- From the Tree Editor menus choose:
  View
  Tree Map
The currently selected node is highlighted in both the Tree Model Editor and the tree map window.

The portion of the tree that is currently in the Tree Model Editor view area is indicated with a red rectangle in the tree map. Right-click and drag the rectangle to change the section of the tree displayed in the view area.

If you select a node in the tree map that isn’t currently in the Tree Editor view area, the view shifts to include the selected node.

Multiple node selection works the same in the tree map as in the Tree Editor: Ctrl-click to select multiple nodes. You cannot use multiple selection on a parent node and a child/descendant of the same node branch.

**Scaling the Tree Display**

By default, trees are automatically scaled to fit in the Viewer window, which can result in some trees that are initially very difficult to read. You can select a preset scale setting or enter your own custom scale value of between 5% and 200%.
To change the scale of the tree:

► Select a scale percentage from the drop-down list on the toolbar, or enter a custom percentage value.

*or*

► From the Tree Editor menus choose:
  
  View  
  Scale...

**Figure 2-3**

*Scale dialog box*

You can also specify a scale value before you create the tree model. For more information, see “Output” in Chapter 1 on p. 30.

**Node Summary Window**

The node summary window provides a larger view of the selected nodes. You can also use the summary window to view, apply, or save selection or scoring rules based on the selected nodes.

■ Use the View menu in the node summary window to switch between views of a summary table, chart, or rules.
Use the Rules menu in the node summary window to select the type of rules you want to see. For more information, see “Case Selection and Scoring Rules” on p. 58.

All views in the node summary window reflect a combined summary for all selected nodes.

To use the node summary window:

- Select the nodes in the Tree Editor. To select multiple nodes, use Ctrl-click.

- From the menus choose:
  View
  Summary

Figure 2-4
Tree with charts in nodes and table for selected node in summary window
Controlling Information Displayed in the Tree

The Options menu in the Tree Editor allows you to control the display of node contents, independent variable (predictor) names and statistics, node definitions, and other settings. Many of these settings can be also be controlled from the toolbar.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Setting</th>
<th>Options Menu Selection</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Highlight predicted category (categorical dependent variable)</td>
<td>Highlight Predicted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tables and/or charts in node</td>
<td>Node Contents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Significance test values and ( p ) values</td>
<td>Independent Variable Statistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independent (predictor) variable names</td>
<td>Independent Variables</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independent (predictor) value(s) for nodes</td>
<td>Node Definitions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alignment (top-down, left-right, right-left)</td>
<td>Orientation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chart legend</td>
<td>Legend</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2-5

Tree elements
Chapter 2

Changing Tree Colors and Text Fonts

You can change the following colors in the tree:

- Node border, background, and text color
- Branch color and branch text color
- Tree background color
- Predicted category highlight color (categorical dependent variables)
- Node chart colors

You can also change the type font, style, and size for all text in the tree.

Note: You cannot change color or font attributes for individual nodes or branches. Color changes apply to all elements of the same type, and font changes (other than color) apply to all chart elements.

To change colors and text font attributes:

- Use the toolbar to change font attributes for the entire tree or colors for different tree elements. (ToolTips describe each control on the toolbar when you put the mouse cursor on the control.)

  or

- Double-click anywhere in the Tree Editor to open the Properties window, or from the menus choose:
  View
    Properties

- For border, branch, node background, predicted category, and tree background, click the Color tab.

- For font colors and attributes, click the Text tab.

- For node chart colors, click the Node Charts tab.
Figure 2-6
Properties window, Color tab

Figure 2-7
Properties window, Text tab
Case Selection and Scoring Rules

You can use the Tree Editor to:

- Select subsets of cases based on the selected node(s). For more information, see “Filtering Cases” on p. 58.
- Generate case selection rules or scoring rules in SPSS or SQL format. For more information, see “Saving Selection and Scoring Rules” on p. 59.

You can also automatically save rules based on various criteria when you run the Classification Tree procedure to create the tree model. For more information, see “Selection and Scoring Rules” in Chapter 1 on p. 45.

Filtering Cases

If you want to know more about the cases in a particular node or group of nodes, you can select a subset of cases for further analysis based on the selected nodes.

- Select the nodes in the Tree Editor. To select multiple nodes, use Ctrl-click.
From the menus choose:

**Rules**
- Filter Cases...

Enter a filter variable name. Cases from the selected nodes will receive a value of 1 for this variable. All other cases will receive a value of 0 and will be excluded from subsequent analysis until you change the filter status.

Click OK.

**Figure 2-9**
*Filter Cases dialog box*

---

**Saving Selection and Scoring Rules**

You can save case selection or scoring rules in an external file and then apply those rules to a different data source. The rules are based on the selected nodes in the Tree Editor.

**Syntax.** Controls the form of the selection rules in both output displayed in the Viewer and selection rules saved to an external file.

- **SPSS.** SPSS command language. Rules are expressed as a set of commands that define a filter condition that can be used to select subsets of cases or as **COMPUTE** statements that can be used to score cases.

- **SQL.** Standard SQL rules are generated to select/extract records from a database or assign values to those records. The generated SQL rules do not include any table names or other data source information.

**Type.** You can create selection or scoring rules.
Select cases. The rules can be used to select cases that meet node membership criteria. For SPSS and SQL rules, a single rule is generated to select all cases that meet the selection criteria.

Assign values to cases. The rules can be used to assign the model’s predictions to cases that meet node membership criteria. A separate rule is generated for each node that meets the node membership criteria.

Include surrogates. For CRT and QUEST, you can include surrogate predictors from the model in the rules. Rules that include surrogates can be quite complex. In general, if you just want to derive conceptual information about your tree, exclude surrogates. If some cases have incomplete independent variable (predictor) data and you want rules that mimic your tree, include surrogates. For more information, see “Surrogates” in Chapter 1 on p. 18.

To save case selection or scoring rules:

- Select the nodes in the Tree Editor. To select multiple nodes, use Ctrl-click.

- From the menus choose:
  Rules
  Export...

- Select the type of rules you want and enter a filename.

Figure 2-10
Export Rules dialog box
Note: If you apply rules in the form of SPSS command syntax to another data file, that data file must contain variables with the same names as the independent variables included in the final model, measured in the same metric, with the same user-defined missing values (if any).
The Classification Tree procedure assumes that:

- The appropriate measurement level has been assigned to all analysis variables.
- For categorical (nominal, ordinal) dependent variables, value labels have been defined for all categories that should be included in the analysis.

We’ll use the file `tree_textdata.sav` to illustrate the importance of both of these requirements. This data file reflects the default state of data read or entered into SPSS before defining any attributes, such as measurement level or value labels. This file is located in the `tutorial\sample_files` directory of the SPSS installation directory.

**Effects of Measurement Level on Tree Models**

Both variables in this data file are numeric. By default, numeric variables are assumed to have a scale measurement level. But (as we will see later) both variables are really categorical variables that rely on numeric codes to stand for category values.

- To run a Classification Tree analysis, from the menus choose:
  - Analyze
  - Classify
  - Tree...
The icons next to the two variables in the source variable list indicate that they will be treated as scale variables.

**Figure 3-1**
*Classification Tree main dialog box with two scale variables*

- Select *dependent* as the dependent variable.
- Select *independent* as the independent variable.
- Click OK to run the procedure.
- Open the Classification Tree dialog box again and click Reset.
- Right-click *dependent* in the source list and select Nominal from the context menu.
- Do the same for the variable *independent* in the source list.
Now the icons next to each variable indicate that they will be treated as nominal variables.

**Figure 3-2**
Nominal icons in source list

> Select *dependent* as the dependent variable and *independent* as the independent variable, and click OK to run the procedure again.
Now let’s compare the two trees. First, we’ll look at the tree in which both numeric variables are treated as scale variables.

**Figure 3-3**

*Tree with both variables treated as scale*

- Each node of the tree shows the “predicted” value, which is the mean value for the dependent variable at that node. For a variable that is actually categorical, the mean may not be a meaningful statistic.
- The tree has four child nodes, one for each value of the independent variable.

Tree models will often merge similar nodes, but for a scale variable, only contiguous values can be merged. In this example, no contiguous values were considered similar enough to merge any nodes together.
The tree in which both variables are treated as nominal is somewhat different in several respects.

Figure 3-4
*Tree with both variables treated as nominal*

In a predicted value, each node contains a frequency table that shows the number of cases (count and percentage) for each category of the dependent variable.

The “predicted” category—the category with the highest count in each node—is highlighted. For example, the predicted category for node 2 is category 3.

Instead of four child nodes, there are only three, with two values of the independent variable merged into a single node.

The two independent values merged into the same node are 1 and 4. Since, by definition, there is no inherent order to nominal values, merging of noncontiguous values is allowed.

**Permanently Assigning Measurement Level**

When you change the measurement level for a variable in the Classification Tree dialog box, the change is only temporary; it is not saved with the data file. Furthermore, you may not always know what the correct measurement level should be for all variables.
Define Variable Properties can help you determine the correct measurement level for each variable and permanently change the assigned measurement level. To use Define Variable Properties:

- From the menus choose:
  - Data
    - Define Variable Properties...

**Effects of Value Labels on Tree Models**

The Classification Tree dialog box interface assumes that either all nonmissing values of a categorical (nominal, ordinal) dependent variable have defined value labels or none of them do. Some features are not available unless at least two nonmissing values of the categorical dependent variable have value labels. If at least two nonmissing values have defined value labels, any cases with other values that do not have value labels will be excluded from the analysis.

The original data file in this example contains no defined value labels, and when the dependent variable is treated as nominal, the tree model uses all nonmissing values in the analysis. In this example, those values are 1, 2, and 3.

But what happens when we define value labels for some, but not all, values of the dependent variable?

- In the Data Editor window, click the Variable View tab.

- Click the Values cell for the variable dependent.
First, enter 1 for Value and Yes for Value Label, and then click Add.

Next, enter 2 for Value and No for Value Label, and then click Add again.

Then click OK.

Open the Classification Tree dialog box again. The dialog box should still have \textit{dependent} selected as the dependent variable, with a nominal measurement level.

Click OK to run the procedure again.
Figure 3-6
Tree for nominal dependent variable with partial value labels

Now only the two dependent variable values with defined value labels are included in the tree model. All cases with a value of 3 for the dependent variable have been excluded, which might not be readily apparent if you aren’t familiar with the data.

Assigning Value Labels to All Values

To avoid accidental omission of valid categorical values from the analysis, use Define Variable Properties to assign value labels to all dependent variable values found in the data.
When the data dictionary information for the variable name is displayed in the Define Variable Properties dialog box, you can see that although there are over 300 cases with a value of 3 for that variable, no value label has been defined for that value.

Figure 3-7
Variable with partial value labels in Define Variable Properties dialog box
A bank maintains a database of historic information on customers who have taken out loans from the bank, including whether or not they repaid the loans or defaulted. Using classification trees, you can analyze the characteristics of the two groups of customers and build models to predict the likelihood that loan applicants will default on their loans.

The credit data are stored in `tree_credit.sav`, located in the `tutorial\sample_files` directory of the SPSS installation directory.

### Creating the Model

The Classification Tree Procedure offers several different methods for creating tree models. For this example, we’ll use the default method:

**CHAID.** Chi-squared Automatic Interaction Detection. At each step, CHAID chooses the independent (predictor) variable that has the strongest interaction with the dependent variable. Categories of each predictor are merged if they are not significantly different with respect to the dependent variable.

### Building the CHAID Tree Model

- To run a Classification Tree analysis, from the menus choose:
  Analyze
  Classify
  Tree...
Select *Credit rating* as the dependent variable.

Select all the remaining variables as independent variables. (The procedure will automatically exclude any variables that don’t make a significant contribution to the final model.)

At this point, you could run the procedure and produce a basic tree model, but we’re going to select some additional output and make a few minor adjustments to the criteria used to generate the model.

### Selecting Target Categories

- Click the Categories button right below the selected dependent variable.
Using Classification Trees to Evaluate Credit Risk

This opens the Categories dialog box, where you can specify the dependent variable target categories of interest. Target categories do not affect the tree model itself, but some output and options are available only if you have selected target categories.

**Figure 4-2**
*Categories dialog box*

Select (check) the Target check box for the *Bad* category. Customers with a bad credit rating (defaulted on a loan) will be treated as the target category of interest.

Click Continue.

**Specifying Tree Growing Criteria**

For this example, we want to keep the tree fairly simple, so we’ll limit the tree growth by raising the minimum number of cases for parent and child nodes.

In the main Classification Tree dialog box, click Criteria.
In the Minimum Number of Cases group, type 400 for Parent Node and 200 for Child Node.

Click Continue.

**Selecting Additional Output**

In the main Classification Tree dialog box, click Output.
This opens a tabbed dialog box, where you can select various types of additional output.

**Figure 4-4**  
*Output dialog box, Tree tab*

- On the Tree tab, select (check) **Tree in table format**.
- Then click the **Plots tab**.
Select (check) Gain and Index.

*Note:* These charts require a target category for the dependent variable. In this example, the Plots tab isn’t accessible until after you have specified one or more target categories.

- Click Continue.

**Saving Predicted Values**

You can save variables that contain information about model predictions. For example, you can save the credit rating predicted for each case and then compare those predictions to the actual credit ratings.
In the main Classification Tree dialog box, click Save.

Select (check) Terminal node number, Predicted value, and Predicted probabilities.

Click Continue.

In the main Classification Tree dialog box, click OK to run the procedure.

**Evaluating the Model**

For this example, the model results include:

- Tables that provide information about the model.
- Tree diagram.
- Charts that provide an indication of model performance.
- Model prediction variables added to the working data file.
The model summary table provides some very broad information about the specifications used to build the model and the resulting model.

- The Specifications section provides information on the settings used to generate the tree model, including the variables used in the analysis.

- The Results section displays information on the number of total and terminal nodes, depth of the tree (number of levels below the root node), and independent variables included in the final model.

Five independent variables were specified, but only three were included in the final model. The variables for education and number of current car loans did not make a significant contribution to the model, so they were automatically dropped from the final model.
Using Classification Trees to Evaluate Credit Risk

Tree Diagram

Figure 4-8
Tree diagram for credit rating model

The tree diagram is a graphic representation of the tree model. This tree diagram shows that:

- Using the CHAID method, income level is the best predictor of credit rating.
- For the low income category, income level is the only significant predictor of credit rating. Of the bank customers in this category, 82% have defaulted on loans. Since there are no child nodes below it, this is considered a terminal node.
- For the medium and high income categories, the next best predictor is number of credit cards.
For medium income customers with five or more credit cards, the model includes one more predictor: *age*. Over 80% of those customers 28 or younger have a bad credit rating, while slightly less than half of those over 28 have a bad credit rating.

You can use the Tree Editor to hide and show selected branches, change colors and fonts, and select subsets of cases based on selected nodes. For more information, see “Selecting Cases in Nodes” on p. 89.

### Tree Table

*Figure 4-9*

*Tree table for credit rating*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Node</th>
<th>Bed</th>
<th>Good</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Predicted Category</th>
<th>Parent Node</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>1029</td>
<td>41.4%</td>
<td>1444</td>
<td>58.6%</td>
<td>2464</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>454</td>
<td>82.1%</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>17.9%</td>
<td>553</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>478</td>
<td>42.0%</td>
<td>653</td>
<td>58.0%</td>
<td>1131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>11.6%</td>
<td>687</td>
<td>88.4%</td>
<td>777</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>402</td>
<td>56.7%</td>
<td>322</td>
<td>43.3%</td>
<td>744</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>13.8%</td>
<td>336</td>
<td>86.2%</td>
<td>390</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>17.6%</td>
<td>375</td>
<td>82.4%</td>
<td>455</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3.1%</td>
<td>312</td>
<td>96.9%</td>
<td>322</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>80.8%</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>19.2%</td>
<td>261</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>43.7%</td>
<td>272</td>
<td>56.3%</td>
<td>483</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The tree table, as the name suggests, provides most of the essential tree diagram information in the form of a table. For each node, the table displays:

- The number and percentage of cases in each category of the dependent variable.
- The predicted category for the dependent variable. In this example, the predicted category is the *credit rating* category with more than 50% of cases in that node, since there are only two possible credit ratings.
- The parent node for each node in the tree. Note that node 1—the low income level node—is not the parent node of any node. Since it is a terminal node, it has no child nodes.
Using Classification Trees to Evaluate Credit Risk

Figure 4-10
Tree table for credit rating (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary Independent Variable</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Chi-Square</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Split Values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Income level</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>662.457</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>&lt;= Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income level</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>662.457</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>[Low, Medium]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income level</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>662.457</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>&gt; Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of credit cards</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>193.113</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5 or more</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of credit cards</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>193.113</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Less than 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>96.299</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>&lt;= 26.0702</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>96.299</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>&gt; 26.0792</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- The independent variable used to split the node.
- The chi-square value (since the tree was generated with the CHAID method), degrees of freedom (df), and significance level (Sig.) for the split. For most practical purposes, you will probably be interested only in the significance level, which is less than 0.0001 for all splits in this model.
- The value(s) of the independent variable for that node.

Note: For ordinal and scale independent variables, you may see ranges in the tree and tree table expressed in the general form (value1, value2], which basically means “greater than value1 and less than or equal to value2.” In this example, income level has only three possible values—Low, Medium, and High—and (Low, Medium] simply means Medium. In a similar fashion, >Medium means High.

Gains for Nodes

Figure 4-11
Gains for nodes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Node</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Gain</th>
<th>Gain</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Index</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>553</td>
<td>22.4%</td>
<td>454</td>
<td>44.5%</td>
<td></td>
<td>92.1%</td>
<td>198.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>261</td>
<td>10.6%</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>20.7%</td>
<td></td>
<td>90.0%</td>
<td>195.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>455</td>
<td>18.6%</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>20.7%</td>
<td></td>
<td>43.7%</td>
<td>105.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>7.8%</td>
<td></td>
<td>17.6%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>42.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>390</td>
<td>15.8%</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>5.3%</td>
<td></td>
<td>13.8%</td>
<td>33.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>522</td>
<td>13.1%</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.1%</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Growing Method: CHAID
Dependent Variable: Credit rating
Chapter 4

The gains for nodes table provides a summary of information about the terminal nodes in the model.

- Only the terminal nodes—nodes at which the tree stops growing—are listed in this table. Frequently, you will be interested only in the terminal nodes, since they represent the best classification predictions for the model.

- Since gain values provide information about target categories, this table is available only if you specified one or more target categories. In this example, there is only one target category, so there is only one gains for nodes table.

- **Node N** is the number of cases in each terminal node, and **Node Percent** is the percentage of the total number of cases in each node.

- **Gain N** is the number of cases in each terminal node in the target category, and **Gain Percent** is the percentage of cases in the target category with respect to the overall number of cases in the target category—in this example, the number and percentage of cases with a bad credit rating.

- For categorical dependent variables, **Response** is the percentage of cases in the node in the specified target category. In this example, these are the same percentages displayed for the **Bad** category in the tree diagram.

- For categorical dependent variables, **Index** is the ratio of the response percentage for the target category compared to the response percentage for the entire sample.

### Index Values

The index value is basically an indication of how far the observed target category percentage for that node differs from the expected percentage for the target category. The target category percentage in the root node represents the expected percentage before the effects of any of the independent variables are considered.

An index value of greater than 100% means that there are more cases in the target category than the overall percentage in the target category. Conversely, an index value of less than 100% means there are fewer cases in the target category than the overall percentage.
**Gains Chart**

Figure 4-12
*Gains chart for bad credit rating target category*

This gains chart indicates that the model is a fairly good one.

Cumulative gains charts always start at 0% and end at 100% as you go from one end to the other. For a good model, the gains chart will rise steeply toward 100% and then level off. A model that provides no information will follow the diagonal reference line.
The index chart also indicates that the model is a good one. Cumulative index charts tend to start above 100% and gradually descend until they reach 100%.

For a good model, the index value should start well above 100%, remain on a high plateau as you move along, and then trail off sharply toward 100%. For a model that provides no information, the line will hover around 100% for the entire chart.
Risk Estimate and Classification

Figure 4-14
Risk and classification tables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Risk Estimate</th>
<th>Stat. Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.205</td>
<td>0.008</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Growing Method: CHAID
Dependent Variable: Credit rating

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Observed</td>
<td>Predicted</td>
<td>Percent Correct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bad</td>
<td>Good</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bad</td>
<td>866</td>
<td>355</td>
<td>65.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>1295</td>
<td>99.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Percentage</td>
<td>33.0%</td>
<td>67.0%</td>
<td>79.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Growing Method: CHAID
Dependent Variable: Credit rating

The risk and classification tables provide a quick evaluation of how well the model works.

- The risk estimate of 0.205 indicates that the category predicted by the model (good or bad credit rating) is wrong for 20.5% of the cases. So the “risk” of misclassifying a customer is approximately 21%.

- The results in the classification table are consistent with the risk estimate. The table shows that the model classifies approximately 79.5% of the customers correctly.

The classification table does, however, reveal one potential problem with this model: for those customers with a bad credit rating, it predicts a bad rating for only 65% of them, which means that 35% of customers with a bad credit rating are inaccurately classified with the “good” customers.
Four new variables have been created in the working data file:

**NodeID.** The terminal node number for each case.

**PredictedValue.** The predicted value of the dependent variable for each case. Since the dependent variable is coded 0 = Bad and 1 = Good, a predicted value of 0 means that the case is predicted to have a bad credit rating.

**PredictedProbability.** The probability that the case belongs in each category of the dependent variable. Since there are only two possible values for the dependent variable, two variables are created:

- **PredictedProbability_1.** The probability that the case belongs in the bad credit rating category.
- **PredictedProbability_2.** The probability that the case belongs in the good credit rating category.

The predicted probability is simply the proportion of cases in each category of the dependent variable for the terminal node that contains each case. For example, in node 1, 82% of the cases are in the bad category and 18% are in the good category, resulting in predicted probabilities of 0.82 and 0.18, respectively.
For a categorical dependent variable, the predicted value is the category with the highest proportion of cases in the terminal node for each case. For example, for the first case, the predicted value is 1 (good credit rating), since approximately 56% of the cases in its terminal node have a good credit rating. Conversely, for the second case, the predicted value is 0 (bad credit rating), since approximately 81% of cases in its terminal node have a bad credit rating.

If you have defined costs, however, the relationship between predicted category and predicted probabilities may not be quite so straightforward. For more information, see “Assigning Costs to Outcomes” on p. 95.

**Refining the Model**

Overall, the model has a correct classification rate of just under 80%. This is reflected in most of the terminal nodes, where the predicted category—the highlighted category in the node—is the same as the actual category for 80% or more of the cases.

There is, however, one terminal node where cases are fairly evenly split between good and bad credit ratings. In node 9, the predicted credit rating is “good,” but only 56% of the cases in that node actually have a good credit rating. That means that almost half of the cases in that node (44%) will have the wrong predicted category. And if the primary concern is identifying bad credit risks, this node doesn’t perform very well.

**Selecting Cases in Nodes**

Let’s look at the cases in node 9 to see if the data reveal any useful additional information.

- Double-click the tree in the Viewer to open the Tree Editor.
- Click node 9 to select it. (If you want to select multiple nodes, use Ctrl-click).
- From the Tree Editor menus choose:
  - Rules
  - Filter Cases...
The Filter Cases dialog box will create a filter variable and apply a filter setting based on the values of that variable. The default filter variable name is $filter_$. 

- Cases from the selected nodes will receive a value of 1 for the filter variable.
- All other cases will receive a value of 0 and will be excluded from subsequent analyses until you change the filter status.

In this example, that means cases that aren’t in node 9 will be filtered out (but not deleted) for now.

- Click OK to create the filter variable and apply the filter condition.
In the Data Editor, cases that have been filtered out are indicated with a diagonal slash through the row number. Cases that are not in node 9 are filtered out. Cases in node 9 are not filtered; so subsequent analyses will include only cases from node 9.

Examining the Selected Cases

As a first step in examining the cases in node 9, you might want to look at the variables not used in the model. In this example, all variables in the data file were included in the analysis, but two of them were not included in the final model: education and car loans. Since there’s probably a good reason why the procedure omitted them from the final model, they probably won’t tell us much, but let’s take a look anyway.

From the menus choose:

Analyze
  Descriptive Statistics
  Crosstabs...
Select *Credit rating* for the row variable.

Select *Education* and *Car loans* for the column variables.

Click Cells.
In the Percentages group, select (check) Row.

Then click Continue, and in the main Crosstabs dialog box, click OK to run the procedure.
Examining the crosstabulations, you can see that for the two variables not included in the model, there isn’t a great deal of difference between cases in the good and bad credit rating categories.

**Figure 4-20**
*Crosstabulations for cases in selected node*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Credit rating</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High school</td>
<td>College</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bad</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>211</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within Credit rating</td>
<td>52.1%</td>
<td>47.9%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>272</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within Credit rating</td>
<td>47.1%</td>
<td>52.9%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>245</td>
<td>483</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within Credit rating</td>
<td>49.3%</td>
<td>50.7%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Credit rating * Car loans Crosstabulation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Credit rating</th>
<th>Car loans</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>None or 1</td>
<td>2 or More</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bad</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>211</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within Credit rating</td>
<td>8.6%</td>
<td>91.6%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>233</td>
<td>272</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within Credit rating</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
<td>85.7%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>426</td>
<td>482</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within Credit rating</td>
<td>11.6%</td>
<td>88.4%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- For *education*, slightly more than half of the cases with a bad credit rating have only a high school education, while slightly more than half with a good credit rating have a college education—but this difference is not statistically significant.

- For *car loans*, the percentage of good credit cases with only one or no car loans is higher than the corresponding percentage for bad credit cases, but the vast majority of cases in both groups has two or more car loans.

So, although you now get some idea of why these variables were not included in the final model, you unfortunately haven’t gained any insight into how to get better prediction for node 9. If there were other variables not specified for the analysis, you might want to examine some of them before proceeding.
Assigning Costs to Outcomes

As noted earlier, aside from the fact that almost half of the cases in node 9 fall in each credit rating category, the fact that the predicted category is “good” is problematic if your main objective is to build a model that correctly identifies bad credit risks. Although you may not be able to improve the performance of node 9, you can still refine the model to improve the rate of correct classification for bad credit rating cases—although this will also result in a higher rate of misclassification for good credit rating cases.

First, you need to turn off case filtering so that all cases will be used in the analysis again.

- From the menus choose:
  Data
  Select Cases...

- In the Select Cases dialog box, select All cases, and then click OK.

Figure 4-21
Select Cases dialog box
Open the Classification Tree dialog box again, and click Options.

Click the Misclassification Costs tab.

Select Custom, and for Bad Actual Category, Good Predicted Category, enter a value of 2.

This tells the procedure that the “cost” of incorrectly classifying a bad credit risk as good is twice as high as the “cost” of incorrectly classifying a good credit risk as bad.

Click Continue, and then in the main dialog box, click OK to run the procedure.
At first glance, the tree generated by the procedure looks essentially the same as the original tree. Closer inspection, however, reveals that although the distribution of cases in each node hasn’t changed, some predicted categories have changed.

For the terminal nodes, the predicted category remains the same in all nodes except one: node 9. The predicted category is now “Bad” even though slightly more than half of the cases are in the “Good” category.

Since we told the procedure that there was a higher cost for misclassifying bad credit risks as good, any node where the cases are fairly evenly distributed between the two categories now has a predicted category of “Bad” even if a slight majority of cases is in the “Good” category.
This change in predicted category is reflected in the classification table.

Figure 4-24
*Risk and classification tables based on adjusted costs*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Risk</th>
<th>Estimate</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Growing Method: CHAID
Dependent Variable: Credit rating

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification</th>
<th>Predicted</th>
<th>Observed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bad</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bad</td>
<td>376</td>
<td>144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>421</td>
<td>1023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Percentage</td>
<td>52.6%</td>
<td>47.4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Growing Method: CHAID
Dependent Variable: Credit rating

- Almost 86% of the bad credit risks are now correctly classified, compared to only 65% before.
- On the other hand, correct classification of good credit risks has decreased from 90% to 71%, and overall correct classification has decreased from 79.5% to 77.1%.

Note also that the risk estimate and the overall correct classification rate are no longer consistent with each other. You would expect a risk estimate of 0.229 if the overall correct classification rate is 77.1%. Increasing the cost of misclassification for bad credit cases has, in this example, inflated the risk value, making its interpretation less straightforward.

**Summary**

You can use tree models to classify cases into groups identified by certain characteristics, such as the characteristics associated with bank customers with good and bad credit records. If a particular predicted outcome is more important than other possible outcomes, you can refine the model to associate a higher misclassification cost for that outcome—but reducing misclassification rates for one outcome will increase misclassification rates for other outcomes.
Building a Scoring Model

One of the most powerful and useful features of the Classification Tree procedure is the ability to build models that can then be applied to other data files to predict outcomes. For example, based on a data file that contains both demographic information and information on vehicle purchase price, we can build a model that can be used to predict how much people with similar demographic characteristics are likely to spend on a new car—and then apply that model to other data files where demographic information is available but information on previous vehicle purchasing is not.

For this example, we’ll use the data file tree_car.sav, located in the tutorial\sample_files directory of the SPSS installation directory.

Building the Model

To run a Classification Tree analysis, from the menus choose:

Analyze
    Classify
        Tree...
Select *Price of primary vehicle* as the dependent variable.

Select all the remaining variables as independent variables. (The procedure will automatically exclude any variables that don’t make a significant contribution to the final model.)

For the growing method, select CRT.

Click Output.
Click the Rules tab.

Select (check) Generate classification rules.

For Syntax, select SPSS.

For Type, select Assign values to cases.

Select (check) Export rules to a file and enter a filename and directory location.

Remember the filename and location or write it down because you’ll need it a little later. If you don’t include a directory path, you may not know where the file has been saved. You can use the Browse button to navigate to a specific (and valid) directory location.

Click Continue, and then click OK to run the procedure and build the tree model.
Chapter 5

Evaluating the Model

Before applying the model to other data files, you probably want to make sure that the model works reasonably well with the original data used to build it.

Model Summary

Figure 5-3
Model summary table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Specifications</th>
<th>Growing Method</th>
<th>CRF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dependent Variable</td>
<td>Price of primary vehicle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Independent Variables</td>
<td>Age in years, Gender, Income category in thousands, Level of education, Marital status</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Validation</td>
<td>NONE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum Tree Depth</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum Cases in Parent Node</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum Cases in Child Node</td>
<td>50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independent Variables Included</td>
<td>Income category in thousands, Age in years, Level of education</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Nodes</td>
<td>28</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Terminal Nodes</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depth</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The model summary table indicates that only three of the selected independent variables made a significant enough contribution to be included in the final model: *income, age, and education*. This is important information to know if you want to apply this model to other data files, since the independent variables used in the model must be present in any data file to which you want to apply the model.

The summary table also indicates that the tree model itself is probably not a particularly simple one since it has 29 nodes and 15 terminal nodes. This may not be an issue if you want a reliable model that can be applied in a practical fashion rather than a simple model that is easy to describe or explain. Of course, for practical purposes, you probably also want a model that doesn’t rely on too many independent (predictor) variables. In this case, that’s not a problem since only three independent variables are included in the final model.
Tree Model Diagram

Figure 5-4
Tree model diagram in Tree Editor
The tree model diagram has so many nodes that it may be difficult to see the whole model at once at a size where you can still read the node content information. You can use the tree map to see the entire tree:

- Double-click the tree in the Viewer to open the Tree Editor.

- From the Tree Editor menus choose:
  View
  Tree Map

Figure 5-5
Tree map

- The tree map shows the entire tree. You can change the size of the tree map window, and it will grow or shrink the map display of the tree to fit the window size.
- The highlighted area in the tree map is the area of the tree currently displayed in the Tree Editor.
- You can use the tree map to navigate the tree and select nodes.

For more information, see “Tree Map” in Chapter 2 on p. 51.

For scale dependent variables, each node shows the mean and standard deviation of the dependent variable. Node 0 displays an overall mean vehicle purchase price of about 29.9 (in thousands), with a standard deviation of about 21.6.
- Node 1, which represents cases with an income of less than 75 (also in thousands) has a mean vehicle price of only 18.7.
In contrast, node 2, which represents cases with an income of 75 or more, has a mean vehicle price of 60.9.

Further investigation of the tree would show that age and education also display a relationship with vehicle purchase price, but right now we’re primarily interested in the practical application of the model rather than a detailed examination of its components.

**Risk Estimate**

![Risk table](Image)

None of the results we’ve examined so far tell us if this is a particularly good model. One indicator of the model’s performance is the risk estimate. For a scale dependent variable, the risk estimate is a measure of the within-node variance, which by itself may not tell you a great deal. A lower variance indicates a better model, but the variance is relative to the unit of measurement. If, for example, price was recorded in ones instead of thousands, the risk estimate would be a thousand times larger.

To provide a meaningful interpretation for the risk estimate with a scale dependent variable requires a little work:

- Total variance equals the within-node (error) variance plus the between-node (explained) variance.
- The within-node variance is the risk estimate value: 68.485.
- The total variance is the variance for the dependent variables before consideration of any independent variables, which is the variance at the root node.
- The standard deviation displayed at the root node is 21.576; so the total variance is that value squared: 465.524.
The proportion of variance due to error (unexplained variance) is $\frac{68.485}{465.524} = 0.147$.

The proportion of variance explained by the model is $1 - 0.147 = 0.853$, or 85.3%, which indicates that this is a fairly good model. (This has a similar interpretation to the overall correct classification rate for a categorical dependent variable.)

*Applying the Model to Another Data File*

Having determined that the model is reasonably good, we can now apply that model to other data files containing similar *age*, *income*, and *education* variables and generate a new variable that represents the predicted vehicle purchase price for each case in that file. This process is often referred to as *scoring*.

When we generated the model, we specified that “rules” for assigning values to cases should be saved in a text file—in the form of SPSS command syntax. We will now use the commands in that file to generate scores in another data file.

- Open the data file `tree_score_car.sav`, located in the `tutorial\sample_files` folder of the SPSS installation folder.

- Next, from the SPSS menus choose:
  File
  New
  Syntax

- In the command syntax window, type:

  ```
  INSERT FILE= 'c:\temp\car_scores.sps'.
  ```
Figure 5-7
Syntax window with INSERT command to run a command file

The `INSERT` command will run the commands in the specified file, which is the “rules” file that was generated when we created the model.

- From the command syntax window menus choose:
  - Run
  - All
This adds two new variables to the data file:

- **nod_001** contains the terminal node number predicted by the model for each case.
- **pre_001** contains the predicted value for vehicle purchase price for each case.

Since we requested rules for assigning values for terminal nodes, the number of possible predicted values is the same as the number of terminal nodes, which in this case is 15. For example, every case with a predicted node number of 10 will have the same predicted vehicle purchase price: 30.56. This is, not coincidentally, the mean value reported for terminal node 10 in the original model.

Although you would typically apply the model to data for which the value of the dependent variable is not known, in this example the data file to which we applied the model actually contains that information—and you can compare the model predictions to the actual values.

From the menus choose:

Analyze  
Correlate  
Bivariate...
Select *Price of primary vehicle* and *pre_001*.

**Figure 5-9**
Bivariate Correlations dialog box

Click OK to run the procedure.

**Figure 5-10**
Correlation of actual and predicted vehicle price

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Price of primary vehicle</th>
<th>pre_001</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Price of primary vehicle</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.919**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>3290</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>3290</td>
<td>3290</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>pre_001</strong></td>
<td>0.919**</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>3290</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>3290</td>
<td>3290</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).**

The correlation of 0.92 indicates a very high positive correlation between actual and predicted vehicle price, which indicates that the model works well.
Summary

You can use the Classification Tree procedure to build models that can then be applied to other data files to predict outcomes. The target data file must contain variables with the same names as the independent variables included in the final model, measured in the same metric and with the same user-defined missing values (if any). However, neither the dependent variable nor independent variables excluded from the final model need to be present in the target data file.
Missing Values in Tree Models

The different growing methods deal with missing values for independent (predictor) variables in different ways:

- CHAID and Exhaustive CHAID treat all system- and user-missing values for each independent variable as a single category. For scale and ordinal independent variables, that category may or may not subsequently get merged with other categories of that independent variable, depending on the growing criteria.

- CRT and QUEST attempt to use surrogates for independent (predictor) variables. For cases in which the value for that variable is missing, other independent variables having high associations with the original variable are used for classification. These alternative predictors are called surrogates.

This example shows the difference between CHAID and CRT when there are missing values for independent variables used in the model.

For this example, we’ll use the data file tree_missing_data.sav, located in the tutorial\sample_files directory of the SPSS installation directory.

Note: For nominal independent variables and nominal dependent variables, you can choose to treat user-missing values as valid values, in which case those values are treated like any other nonmissing values. For more information, see “Missing Values” in Chapter 1 on p. 27.
Like the credit risk example (for more information, see Chapter 4), this example will try to build a model to classify good and bad credit risks. The main difference is that this data file contains missing values for some independent variables used in the model.

To run a Classification Tree analysis, from the menus choose:

Analyze
  Classify
    Tree...
Select *Credit rating* as the dependent variable.

Select all of the remaining variables as independent variables. (The procedure will automatically exclude any variables that don’t make a significant contribution to the final model.)

For the growing method, select CHAID.

For this example, we want to keep the tree fairly simple; so, we’ll limit the tree growth by raising the minimum number of cases for the parent and child nodes.

In the main Classification Tree dialog box, click Criteria.
For Minimum Number of Cases, type 400 for Parent Node and 200 for Child Node.

Click Continue, and then click OK to run the procedure.
**CHAID Results**

Figure 6-4

**CHAID tree with missing independent variable values**

For node 3, the value of *income level* is displayed as *>Medium; <missing>*. This means that the node contains cases in the high-income category plus any cases with missing values for *income level*.

Terminal node 10 contains cases with missing values for *number of credit cards*. If you’re interested in identifying good credit risks, this is actually the second best terminal node, which might be problematic if you want to use this model for predicting good credit risks. You probably wouldn’t want a model that predicts a good credit rating simply because you don’t know anything about how many credit cards a case has, and some of those cases may also be missing income-level information.
The risk and classification tables indicate that the CHAID model correctly classifies about 75% of the cases. This isn’t bad, but it’s not great. Furthermore, we may have reason to suspect that the correct classification rate for good credit cases may be overly optimistic, since it’s partly based on the assumption that lack of information about two independent variables (income level and number of credit cards) is an indication of good credit.

**Missing Values with CRT**

Now let’s try the same basic analysis, except we’ll use CRT as the growing method.

- In the main Classification Tree dialog box, for the growing method, select CRT.
- Click Criteria.
- Make sure that the minimum number of cases is still set at 400 for parent nodes and 200 for child nodes.
- Click the Surrogates tab.

*Note:* You will not see the Surrogates tab unless you have selected CRT or QUEST as the growing method.
For each independent variable node split, the Automatic setting will consider every other independent variable specified for the model as a possible surrogate. Since there aren’t very many independent variables in this example, the Automatic setting is fine.

- Click Continue.
- In the main Classification Tree dialog box, click Output.
Figure 6-7
Output dialog box, Statistics tab

- Click the Statistics tab.
- Select Surrogates by split.
- Click Continue, and then click OK to run the procedure.
**CRT Results**

Figure 6-8

*CRT tree with missing independent variable values*

You may immediately notice that this tree doesn’t look much like the CHAID tree. That, by itself, doesn’t necessarily mean much. In a CRT tree model, all splits are binary; that is, each parent node is split into only two child nodes. In a CHAID model, parent nodes can be split into many child nodes. So, the trees will often look different even if they represent the same underlying model.
There are, however, a number of important differences:

- The most important independent (predictor) variable in the CRT model is *number of credit cards*, while in the CHAID model, the most important predictor was *income level*.
- For cases with less than five credit cards, *number of credit cards* is the only significant predictor of credit rating, and node 2 is a terminal node.
- As with the CHAID model, *income level* and *age* are also included in the model, although *income level* is now the second predictor rather than the first.
- There aren’t any nodes that contain a *<missing>* category, because CRT uses surrogate predictors rather than missing values in the model.

**Figure 6-9**
*Risk and classification tables for CRT model*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Risk</th>
<th>Estimate</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>224</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Growing Method: CRT
Dependent Variable: Credit rating

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification</th>
<th>Observed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bad</td>
<td>832</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>364</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Percentage</td>
<td>48.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Growing Method: CRT
Dependent Variable: Credit rating

- The risk and classification tables show an overall correct classification rate of almost 78%, a slight increase over the CHAID model (75%).
- The correct classification rate for bad credit cases is much higher for the CRT model—81.6% compared to only 64.3% for the CHAID model.
- The correct classification rate for good credit cases, however, has declined from 82.8% with CHAID to 74.8% with CRT.
**Surrogates**

The differences between the CHAID and CRT models are due, in part, to the use of surrogates in the CRT model. The surrogates table indicates how surrogates were used in the model.

**Figure 6-10**

*Surrogates table*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parent Node</th>
<th>Independent Variable</th>
<th>Improvement</th>
<th>Association</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>Primary: Number of credit cards</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>0.643</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Surrogate: Car loans</td>
<td>0.052</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Surrogate: Age</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Primary: Income level</td>
<td>0.071</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Surrogate: Age</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Primary: Age</td>
<td>0.022</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Primary: Income level</td>
<td>0.006</td>
<td>0.009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Surrogate: Age</td>
<td>0.006</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Growing Method: CRT
Dependent Variable: Credit_rating

- At the root node (node 0), the best independent (predictor) variable is *number of credit cards*.
- For any cases with missing values for *number of credit cards*, *car loans* is used as the surrogate predictor, since this variable has a fairly high association (0.643) with *number of credit cards*.
- If a case also has a missing value for *car loans*, then *age* is used as the surrogate (although it has a fairly low association value of only 0.004).
- *Age* is also used as a surrogate for *income level* at nodes 1 and 5.

**Summary**

Different growing methods handle missing data in different ways. If the data used to create the model contain many missing values—or if you want to apply that model to other data files that contain many missing values—you should evaluate the effect of missing values on the various models. If you want to use surrogates in the model to compensate for missing values, use the CRT or QUEST methods.
**CHAID.** Chi-squared Automatic Interaction Detection. At each step, CHAID chooses the independent (predictor) variable that has the strongest interaction with the dependent variable. Categories of each predictor are merged if they are not significantly different with respect to the dependent variable.

**CRT.** Classification and Regression Trees. CRT splits the data into segments that are as homogeneous as possible with respect to the dependent variable. A terminal node in which all cases have the same value for the dependent variable is a homogeneous, "pure" node.

**Exhaustive CHAID.** A modification of CHAID that examines all possible splits for each predictor.

**Index.** Index is the ratio of the node response percentage for the target category compared to the overall target category response percentage for the entire sample.

**Nominal.** A variable can be treated as nominal when its values represent categories with no intrinsic ranking; for example, the department of the company in which an employee works. Examples of nominal variables include region, zip code, or religious affiliation.

**Ordinal.** A variable can be treated as ordinal when its values represent categories with some intrinsic ranking; for example, levels of service satisfaction from highly dissatisfied to highly satisfied. Examples of ordinal variables include attitude scores representing degree of satisfaction or confidence and preference rating scores.

**QUEST.** Quick, Unbiased, Efficient Statistical Tree. A method that is fast and avoids other methods' bias in favor of predictors with many categories. QUEST can be specified only if the dependent variable is nominal.

**Response.** The percentage of cases in the node in the specified target category.

**Scale.** A variable can be treated as scale when its values represent ordered categories with a meaningful metric, so that distance comparisons between values are appropriate. Examples of scale variables include age in years and income in thousands of dollars.

**User-Missing Values.** Values you have specified as missing. You can specify individual missing values for numeric or string variables or a range of missing values for numeric variables. See also system-missing values.
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