A Fuzzy Poisson Naive Bayes Classifier for Epidemiological Purposes

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Abstract: Statistical methods have been used to classify data in different areas. In epidemiological studies, some measures follow specific statistical distribution and compatible classifiers can be designed for those cases. Classifiers based on measures that follow Poisson distributions can be found in the scientific literature. Due to uncertainty on epidemiological measures, a fuzzy approach may be interesting and the present work proposes a new classifier named Fuzzy Poisson Naive Bayes (FPNB). The theoretical development is presented as well as results of its application on simulated multidimensional data. A brief comparison with a classical Poisson Naive Bayes classifier and with a Naive Bayes classifier is performed too.

1 INTRODUCTION

Several kind of classifiers can be found in the scientific literature and applied in different areas, as pattern recognition (Kim et al., 2003), image processing (Richards, 2013) and psychomotor skills assessment of training based on virtual reality (Moraes and Machado, 2014). There are classifiers designed for Multinomial (Duda et al., 2000), Beta (Moraes et al., 2012) (Moraes et al., 2014), Binomial (Bielza and Larranaga, 2014), Gaussian (Johnson and Wichern, 2007), Fuzzy Gaussian (Moraes and Machado, 2012) and mixture of distributions (Melo et al., 2003) (Ogura et al., 2014). Some of them can be applied without taking into account the statistical distribution followed by the data, as neural networks (Bishop, 2007), genetic algorithms and decision trees (Congdon, 2000), K-NN (Vadrevu and Murty, 2010) and Fuzzy K-NN (Keller et al., 1985). For this last case, it can be observed a generalized use of classifiers, eventually with acceptable results. However, it is also possible to find cases of use of non suitable classifiers for that distribution of statistical data, resulting in performances lower than expected or even poor performances.

Some measures follow specific statistical distribution and classifiers compatible with each case can be designed. For example, the number of registered cases of a particular disease in a period of time follows Poisson distribution (Feller, 1971). This distribution can also be used for other epidemiological measures and it has been applied in other areas. For instance, when the probability of a disease is small and the total number of the population is large, Poisson distribution provides a good approximation for Binomial distribution, with an important advantage: it is easier to be computed than the last one. Classifiers based on Poisson distribution are interesting for applications in other areas too. In fact, Poisson Naive Bayes Classifier (PNB) has been applied to text classification (Altheneyan and Menai, 2014) (Kim et al., 2003) and neurosciences (Ma et al., 2006), among others.

However, the uncertainty on epidemiological measures, which may be underestimated due to failure in data collection, or overestimated due to supposed unconfirmed diagnoses (Rothman et al., 2012), suggests that a fuzzy approach may be more appropriate. So, a new approach based on Poisson distribution and fuzzy data can be interesting to generate classifications from epidemiological measures.

This paper is organized as following: the Section 2 presents some theoretical aspects of probability of fuzzy events and introduces a new classifier based on Poisson distribution and fuzzy data. The Section 3 brings results from the application of the new method in simulated Poisson distributed data. Comparisons with two classifiers are performed in the Section 4: classical Poisson Naive Bayes and Naive Bayes. Finally, the conclusions are provided in the last section.

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2 METHODOLOGY

For better understanding of the classifier proposed, some theoretical considerations need to be provided. Firstly, it is defined the concept of Naive Bayes classifier, followed by the concept of Poisson Naive Bayes classifier and by the new Fuzzy Poisson Naive Bayes classifier proposition. After those ones, details about the epidemiological simulation are provided. Finally, is introduced the Kappa Coefficient, which is used to perform statistical analysis of results.

2.1 Naive Bayes Classifier

Formally, let be the classes of performance in space of decision $\Omega = \{1, ..., M\}$ where *M* is the total number of classes. Let be a vector of training data *X*, according to sample data *D*, where **X** is a vector with *n* distinct features, i.e. $\mathbf{X} = \{X_1, X_2, X_n\}$ and $w_i, i \in \Omega$ is the class in space of decision for the vector **X**. So, the probability of the class w_i , given the vector **X**, can be estimated using the Bayes Theorem:

$$P(w_i | \mathbf{X}) = \frac{P(\mathbf{X} | w_i) P(w_i)}{P(\mathbf{X})} =$$
$$= \frac{P(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n | w_i) P(w_i)}{P(\mathbf{X})} \quad (1)$$

The computation of equation (1) has complexity directly proportional to the increase of the number kof variables. An alternative is assuming the naive hypothesis (Duda et al., 2000), in which each feature X_k is conditionally independent of every other feature X_l , for all $k \neq l \leq n$. This hypothesis, though sometimes it is not exactly realistic, enables an easier calculation of equation (1). As advantage of that assumption is the strength of the Naive Bayes (NB) classifier and the fact that it can classify data for which it was not trained for (Ramoni and Sebastiani, 2001). So, unless a scale factor *S*, which depends on X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n , the equation (1) can be expressed by:

$$P(w_i|X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n) = \frac{1}{S}P(w_i)\prod_{k=1}^n P(X_k|w_i)$$
 (2)

The classification rule for NB is:

$$\mathbf{X} \in w_i \text{ if } P(w_i | X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n) > P(w_j | X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$$
(3)

for all $i \neq j$ and the probability *P* is given by (2).

2.2 Poisson Naive Bayes Classifier

A possible approach for Naive Bayes classifier is to assume Poisson distribution for each X_i , where:

$$P(X_k = v | w_i) = \frac{\lambda_{ki}^v e^{-\lambda_{ki}}}{v!}$$
(4)

where v = 0, 1, 2, ..., v! is the factorial of v, and compute its parameter from D, i.e., the mean λ_{ki} (for variable X_k and the class i) (Feller, 1971). From equation (2) it is possible to use the logarithm function to simplify the exponential function in the Poisson distribution formula (equation 4) and, consequently, to reduce computational complexity by replacing multiplications by additions. So, the Poisson Naive Bayes (PNB) classifier is given by:

$$g$$
 $(w_i, X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n) = log[P(w_i | X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)]$

$$= log(1/S) + logP(w_i) + \sum_{k=1}^{n} log[P(X_k|w_i)]$$
 (5)

where *g* is the classification function and $P(X_k|w_i)$ is given by (4). The $log[P(X_k|w_i)]$ in the equation (5) can be rewritten as:

$$log \quad [P(X_k = v | w_i)] = log \left[\frac{\lambda_{ki}^v e^{-\lambda_{ki}}}{v!} \right] = = v \times log(\lambda_{ki}) - \lambda_{ki} - log(v!).$$
(6)

The classification rule for PNB is:

$$\mathbf{X} \in w_i \text{ if } g(w_i, X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n) > g(w_j, X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$$
(7)

for all $i \neq j$ and the function g is given by (5).

2.3 Fuzzy Poisson Naive Bayes Classifier

Zadeh introduced a probability measure for fuzzy events (Zadeh, 1968). Let **B** be a σ -field of Borel subsets in \mathbb{R}^n and *P* be a probability measure over Ω . Let *A* be a fuzzy event in **B**. Thus, the probability of *A* can be expressed as a Lebesgue-Sieltjes integral:

$$P(A) = \int_{A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n} dP = \int_{A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n} \mu_A(x) \ dP = E(\mu_a) \quad (8)$$

So, the probability of a fuzzy event A is the mathematical expectation of its membership function, which can be written as:

$$P(A) = \int_{A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n} \mu_A(x) P(x) dx \tag{9}$$

At this point, it is assumed that $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$ are also fuzzy variables (Klir and Yuan, 1995), and for each one a membership function $\mu_{w_i}(X_k)$ is available for all $k \leq n$. Then, based on probability of a fuzzy event (Zadeh, 1968) given by the equation (9), the Fuzzy Poisson Naive Bayes (FPNB) classifier is done by:

$$g_f(w_i, X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n) = log[P(w_i|X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)] =$$

$$= log(1/S_f) + logP(w_i) +$$

$$+ \sum_{k=1}^n log[\mu_{wi}(X_k)] + log[P(X_k|w_i)] \quad (10)$$

where g_f is the new classification function, S_f is a new scale factor and $log[P(X_k|w_i)]$ is given by (6).

The necessary parameters for computing of $P(X_k|w_i)$ and $\mu_{wi}(X_k)$ should be learned from sample data *D*. The better estimation for class of the vector **X** can be obtained from the highest values of the classification function g_f . However, as S_f is a scale factor, it is not necessary to computed it in this maximization process. Then, from the equations (10) and (6):

$$g_f \quad (w_i, X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n) = log P(w_i) + \\ + \sum_{k=1}^n log[\mu_{wi}(X_k)] + v \times log(\lambda_{ki}) - \lambda_{ki} - log(v!)$$

$$(11)$$

Finally, the classification rule for FPNB is:

$$\mathbf{X} \in w_i \quad \text{if} \quad g_f(w_i, X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n) > \\ > \quad g_f(w_j, X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n) \quad (12)$$

for all $i \neq j$ and the functions g_f are given by (11).

2.3.1 Parameters Estimation

In this paper, two estimators for λ using sample data D are presented. The first one is the maximum likelihood estimator, which is given by (Feller, 1971):

$$\hat{\lambda}_{ki} = \frac{1}{\dim(D)} \times \sum_{k=1}^{\dim(D)} (X_k, w_i)$$
(13)

where dim(D) is the length of sample data D for which the class is w_i and $\sum_{k=1}^{dim(D)} (X_k, w_i)$ is the counting of events in D, in which the value of X_k is associated to the class w_i .

The second estimator is given by (Ogura et al., 2014):

$$\hat{\lambda}_{ki} = \frac{c_1 + \sum_{k=1}^{\dim(D)} (X_k, w_i)}{c_2 + \dim(D)}$$
(14)

where c_1 and c_2 are smoothing parameters (constants) used to prevent estimations with value zero for $\hat{\lambda}_{ki}$.

Thus, using the estimators provided by equation (13) or (14) is possible to compute g_f from the equation (11) for each class w_i . In this paper, the estimator provided by equation (14) is used and the parameters $c_1 = 0.1$ and $c_2 = 1$ are set.

The membership functions $\mu_{wi}(X_k)$ should be learned from sample data *D*. A possible approach is obtain them from normalized relative frequency histograms of X_k variables (Dubois and Prade, 1983)(Kaufmann et al., 2015).

2.4 Simulations

In order to assess the new classifier, a Monte Carlo simulation was used for the counting of new registered cases of three diseases. In practical situation, they could be three communicable diseases. The first one is a vector-born disease: dengue fever, whose vector in Brazil is the *Aedes aegypti* mosquito. The second disease is HIV-AIDS and the third one is tuberculosis, which are spread person-to-person.

According to that situation, the goal is to predict the class of epidemiological priority of municipalities to support actions against those diseases. Thus, databases with 200 observations (municipalities) for each disease were generated to contain the three different diseases with three Poisson distributions using different parameters. Each line of database simulates the number of morbidities registered for each disease for the municipalities. Three levels of priority were defined for all cases, according to the statistical terciles calculated in the training database for each disease. After that, a logical combination of those terciles defines the priority level of a municipality in: low level, medium level and high level.

In total, 40 double databases were created, where the first one is for training and the second one is for testing. The same Poisson parameters were used to create both of them. However, those parameters were changed for each double in order to know the variability of the classification results.

2.5 Coefficient of Agreement Assessment

A statistical comparison between two different classifiers using several statistical coefficients (Duda et al., 2000) was performed. In the literature of Pattern Recognition, a robust pondered measure which takes into account agreements and disagreements between two sources of information (Viera and Garrett, 2005) is the Kappa Coefficient, proposed by Cohen (Cohen, 1960) and given by:

$$K = \frac{P_0 - P_c}{1 - P_c},$$
 (15)

where:

$$P_0 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{M} n_{ii}}{N}$$
 and $P_c = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{M} n_{i+} n_{+i}}{N^2}$ (16)

with n_{ii} as elements of the main diagonal of classification matrix; n_{i+} as the total of line *i* in the classification matrix, n_{+i} as the total of column in the same matrix, *M* as the number of possible classes and *N* as the total number of possible decision presented in the matrix.

The variance of Kappa Coefficient, denoted by σ^{2}_{K} is given by:

$$\sigma_{K}^{2} = \frac{P_{0}(1-P_{0})}{N(1-P_{c})^{2}} + \frac{2(1-P_{0})+2P_{0}P_{c}-\theta_{1}}{N(1-P_{c})^{3}} + \frac{(1-P_{0})^{2}\theta_{2}-4P_{c}^{2}}{N(1-P_{c})^{4}},$$
(17)

where θ_1 is given by:

$$\theta_1 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^M n_{ii}(n_{i+} + n_{+i})}{N^2},$$
(18)

and θ_2 is given by:

$$\theta_2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^M n_{ii}(n_{i+} + n_{+i})^2}{N^3},$$
(19)

respectively.

3 RESULTS

Using the 40 databases created from the simulations described in the Section 2.4, the FPNB classifier was used to assing one of three levels of epidemiological priority for each municipality simulated in databases. Firstly, a file with training samples was used to estimate the parameters of FPNB classifier. After that, the second file with testing samples was used to evaluate the performance of FPNB classifier.

In order to provide closer to reality simulations, the λ parameters used were obtained from Epidemiological Bulletins from Brazilian Ministry of Health and are reproduced below:

- Dengue fever: 282.2 cases by 100,000 inhabitants (Surveillance, 2014);
- HIV-AIDS: 20.2 cases by 100,000 inhabitants (Surveillance, 2013);
- Tuberculosis: 33.5 cases by 100,000 inhabitants (Surveillance, 2015).

The best result obtained, according to Kappa Coefficient, can be observed in the classification matrix presented in Table 1. In that table, the main diagonal of the matrix brings the correct classification. Outside of the main diagonal are presented all errors of classification. The Kappa Coefficient was used to perform the comparison of the classification agreement. From the classification matrix obtained, the Kappa coefficient for all samples was K = 62.0% with variance 7.091×10^{-4} . The FPNB made mistakes in 152 cases. That performance is very acceptable and it shows the good adaptation of FPNB in the solution of this kind of problem.

Table 1: Classification matrix for the FPNB classifier.

Database	FPNB		
Database	1	2	3
1	148	50	2
2	36	128	36
3	1	27	172

Another important result is the computational performance of the FPNB classifier: with a Core 2 Duo PC compatible with 2GB of RAM, the average time of CPU consumed by the assessment was 0.3590 seconds. Then, it is possible to affirm that the FPNB has low computational complexity.

4 COMPARISON WITH OTHER CLASSIFIERS

A comparison was performed between the FPNB with other two classifiers described in this paper: the PNB and the NB classifiers. All of them were configured using the same methodology mentioned before. Thus, the same samples of training were used to obtain the parameters for both classifiers, and the same samples of testing were used for a controlled and impartial comparison among the classifiers. The CPU time used by both classifiers in the classifications tasks were measured.

The classification matrix obtained for the PNB classifier is presented in the Table 2. The Kappa coefficient was K = 58.25% with variance 7.4987×10^{-4} , and there were 167 misclassifications. The classification task demanded 0.1400 seconds of CPU.

The NB classifier provided the classification matrix presented in the Table 3. For this classifier, the Kappa coefficient was K = 41.5000% with variance 9.0710×10^{-4} , demanding 0.5140 seconds of CPU. In this case, there were 234 misclassifications.

Database	PNB		
Database	1	2	3
1	156	43	1
2	50	113	37
3	2	34	164

Table 2: Classification matrix for the PNB classifier.

Table 3: Classification matrix for the NB classifier.

Database	NB		
Database	1	2	3
1	173	27	0
2	87	106	7
3	25	88	87

It is possible to see by Tables 1, 2, 3 and by Kappa coefficients that the performance of the FPNB classifier is better than both other classifiers. In statistical terms, the difference of performance between those assessment methods can be considered significant. Observing the computational performance, the FPNB was faster than the one based on NB, but PNB is the fastest.

5 CONCLUSIONS

In this paper was presented a new classifier based on Fuzzy Poisson Naive Bayes. Classifiers based on this approach can be applied to epidemiological studies as well as to other areas of human knowledge, as text classification and neurosciences.

The Fuzzy Poisson Naive Bayes performance was compared with other classifiers performance based on Poisson Naive Bayes and Naive Bayes. The results obtained showed that the first one presents significant better classifications than the others. The Poisson Naive Bayes classifier provided competitive results and the Naive Bayes classifier provided the worst results.

In terms of CPU time, the Fuzzy Poisson Naive Bayes was faster than the Naive Bayes, but Poisson Naive Bayes is the fastest. The new classifier pointed out a competitive approach to solve problems in Epidemiology.

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