

Seminar paper

Conditional trees

or

Recursive partitioning by conditional inference

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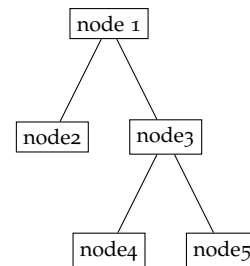
Recursive Partitioning

Recursive partitioning is a powerful yet simple tool in predictive and explanatory statistics.¹ Models built by partitioning have the shape of decision trees, which makes the approach easy to understand for everyone, without having to understand the algorithm behind. The algorithm partitions the data to reconstruct the relationship between the response variable Y and the covariates matrix X .

Partitioning can be done with many different approaches and therefore there is a great variety of algorithms to grow trees. They could be categorized into those which can do regression, those which can do classification and those which can do both. Another characteristic is the number of splits per partition step. There are binary splits, which divide a partition into two new partitions and multiway splits which yield more than two partitions. There is even more variety in the philosophy of how to determine which variable to take for the next step and where to split it. Also the stopping criterion, when the tree is not grown any more, differs for the algorithms. But they all have the tree like structure in common. The presented algorithm is called “Recursive binary partitioning by conditional inference”². It is an algorithm for recursive partitioning algorithm, with binary splits and all of its split decisions are based on statistical hypothesis tests. Their creators are Torsten Hothorn, Kurt Hornik and Achim Zeileis. This work is mainly based on Hothorn et al. [2006].

¹ For a detailed introduction to trees please read Friedman et al. [2001, page 305]

$$Y = f(X)$$



² Will be called “Conditional tree algorithm” throughout this paper for simplicity

Motivation

Recursive partitioning suffers from different problems, some of which are already solved by some approaches.

Problems of trees

CART (Classification And Regression Trees) by Breiman et al. [1984] is a popular and widely used partitioning algorithm. Let us take a closer look at the problems taking CART as an example and how the conditional trees approach solves them.

If a tree is allowed to grow full length, pathological splits³ can happen and if the covariate space is large enough we would end up with a tree, which contains only one observation in each terminal node. This tree would very likely be overfitting on the training data and deliver very bad results on new data. Approaches to avoid this problem are techniques called early stopping and pruning. Early stopping forces trees to stop growing when a criterion is not full-filled. This criterion could be a minimum number of observations in a node. Pruning lets the tree grow at first and prunes the leafs back afterwards. The CART algorithm uses both early stopping and pruning to avoid overfitting.

Overfitting

³ Splits which separates only a few observations

Connected to overfitting is the lack of a statistical concept behind the splits. Mingers [1987] mention, that the algorithm “[...] has no concept of statistical significance, and so cannot distinguish between a significant and an insignificant improvement in the information measure.” In CART and many other algorithms, the next split is just an heuristic, as the algorithm only searches for the next best split. The conditional trees algorithm measures the association and uses the covariate with the strongest association with the response variable.

Heuristic approach, lack of statistical model

Exhaustive search procedures as used by the CART algorithm tend

Variable selection bias

to choose variables with more possible split points (variable selection bias). This is a problem of multiple comparison. Covariates with many possible splits are searched more often for the best split. This problem was identified by different researchers, among them are the inventors of the CART algorithm Breiman et al. [1984, p. 42]

In the family of partitioning algorithm, the CART algorithm is one of the more powerful ones, as it can do regression as well as classification. Many other algorithm are restricted to one of the both tasks. Though, CART still lacks support for other scales of X and Y . Examples are: ordinal regression and censored data, just to name two. Conditional trees offer a very general test statistic which can handle more cases than simple regression or classification.

The next chapter explains how the conditional trees algorithm is designed, to overcome the mentioned problems and to offer an alternative approach.

Restriction on possible measurement
scales of Y and X

Recursive partitioning by conditional inference

“Classic” recursive partitioning algorithms often have a kind of loss function, which is to be minimized with the next split. The optimization is done by an exhaustive search over all possible split points. After splitting the data, the steps are repeated for the new partitions until a stop criterion dictates to stop.

Recursive partitioning with the conditional trees algorithm works different. In contrast to CART or other algorithms, variable selection and the search for the best split are strictly separated. Dependency between response and covariate is tested with hypothesis tests. To get rid of the problem of different scales for different covariates, the measurement for the association is the p-value. After choosing a covariate for the split, it is searched for the best split point. The stopping criterion is formulated in terms of statistical test theory as well: stop when the null-hypothesis of independence cannot be rejected any more.

All of the hypothesis testing is done by permutation tests.⁴ When using permutation tests you are free to choose the test statistic. Some are better than others. It will depend on the scales of the response and the covariate and on how you want to formulate the problem. The test statistics used by the algorithm is derived from a framework developed by Strasser and Weber [1999]. They offer a very general formulation of a test statistic for permutation tests, which can handle arbitrary scales for response and covariate.

The following chapter explains the algorithm in detail.

Summary of the conditional trees algorithm

⁴ For a quick introduction to permutation tests, please visit the appendix, page 31. A good idea of permutation tests is required to understand the recursive partitioning algorithm.

Algorithm

In every partition, following steps are conducted⁵ See also the original formulation in Hothorn et al. [2006, Chapter 2 and 3]

⁵ Permutation test related steps are marked in red

1. Stop criterion

- Test global null hypothesis H_0 of independence between Y and all X_j with $H_0 = \cap_{j=1}^m H_0^j$ and $H_0^j : D(Y|X_j) = D(Y)$ (permutation tests for each X_j)
- If H_0 not rejected (no significance for all X_j) \Rightarrow Stop

2. Variable selection

Select covariate X_{j*} with strongest association (smallest p-value)

3. Best split point search

Search best split for X_{j*} (max. test statistic c) and partition data

4. Repeat

Repeat steps 1.), 2.) and 3.) for both of the new partitions

The algorithm starts with the whole data set and tests if it should be splitted. If the null hypothesis is rejected the variable with the strongest association with the response is chosen and the data set will be split into two partitions. The steps will be repeated within both of the new partitions.⁶ Covariates chosen for a split can be chosen again later (only in the case of a bivariate covariate it doesn't work). First if in all partitions the global null hypothesis of independence cannot be rejected (Stop criterion) the tree does not grow any further and the algorithm stops. The next sections describe in detail how the single steps work and especially how permutation tests are applied.

⁶ That's why it is called "recursive" partitioning"

The test statistic

All decisions in steps 1.) and 2.) of the algorithm are embedded in hypothesis tests. These are done with permutation tests (conditional inference). Also step 3.) makes use of the following test statistic, although nothing is tested. The test statistic from Hothorn et al. [2006, page 4]⁷

$$\mathbf{T}_j(L_n, w) = \text{vec} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n w_i g_j(X_{ij}) h(Y_i, (Y_1, \dots, Y_n))^T \right) \in \mathbb{R}^{p_j q}$$

is derived from the framework from Strasser and Weber [1999] and can be used to test if a response Y and a covariate X are dependent. This test statistic is standardized before it is used. The test statistic T is not only standardized but should also be mapped to a scalar value. In order to map the (possible) vector T to a scalar value, one obvious choice is to take the maximum of the standardized test statistic. This yields the following test standardized linear test statistic:⁸

$$c(\mathbf{t}, \mu, \Sigma) = \max_{k=1, \dots, pq} \left| \frac{(\mathbf{t} - \mu)_k}{\sqrt{(\Sigma)_{kk}}} \right|$$

Thus c is the test statistic which is calculated for each permutation. Extreme values for c for the observed data compared to the permutations will lead to the rejection of the null hypothesis of independence.

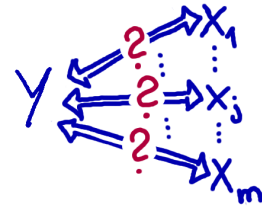
Stop criteria (1) and variable selection (2)

The first step in each partition is to test if the partition should be split at all. This is formulated as a statistical hypothesis test with the global⁹ null hypothesis of independence. It is composed of many (local) null hypothesis of independence between the response Y and each covariate X_j , which can be reformulated in terms of the marginal distribution of Y . If Y and X_j are independent, the distribution of Y given X_j is the same as the marginal distribution of Y . Or more formally:

H_0 : The response Y is independent from all covariates X_j , $j \in 1, \dots, m$

⁷ This test statistic might look difficult in the first place, because it is a very general formulation. When looking at particular examples the formula becomes very friendly and seems more natural. This can be seen in the two included examples for regression 17 and classification 23. At this point you can accept the test statistic as it is or you can read more in the appendix (page 33) about it.

⁸ see page 33 for the calculation of μ and Σ of T



⁹ Note that here global means global in this partition and not for the whole tree

$$H_0 = \cap_{j=1}^m H_0^j \text{ and } H_0^j : D(\mathbf{Y}|X_j) = D(\mathbf{Y})$$

One way to test for such a compound hypothesis is to test each of the m ¹⁰ hypothesis separately and to reject the global null hypothesis if one of the covariates and Y are significantly independent. To overcome the problem of multiple testing a p-value correction has to take place. The whole procedure:

¹⁰ Let m be the number of covariates

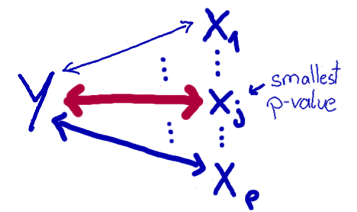
1. Choose an influence function h depending on scale of Y
2. For each covariate X_j do the following:
 - 1) Choose an appropriate function g_j , which depends on the scale of the covariate X_j
 - 2) Calculate the test statistic c_{j0} for the observed data.
 - 3) Permute the observations in the node
 - 4) Calculate c for all permutations
 - 5) Calculate the p-value¹¹ (number of test statistics c , where $|c| > |c_0|$)
3. Correct p-value for multiple testing¹²
4. p-value $< \alpha$? \Rightarrow reject global H_0 and search variable for splitting else don't split.

¹¹ Every X_j gets an own p-value

¹² Result is the p-value for global test

Assuming the null hypothesis of independence was rejected, the next step is to find out which variable would be best to take for the split. While CART takes the variable which increases a criterion most (which leads to the variable selection bias), the conditional trees algorithm uses the p-value for variable selection. By using the p-values, the question of association strength is switched from a level, where the scale of a variable plays a roll, to a level of probability statements where the scales don't matter.

Thus the covariate with the smallest p-value is taken for the next split. The smallest p-value means the smallest probability of independence with the response. From the procedure it should get clear, why variable selection and stop criteria are combined in one step. For testing the global null hypothesis every single p-value from each test is needed. These are also needed for the variable selection.



Splitting criteria (3)

Steps 1) and 2) of the algorithm are completed. The covariate with the strongest association is chosen for the next partition step. Every covariate (which is not binary) has more than one possible split. To determine where to split, a criterion which measures the goodness of the split has to be applied. The CART algorithm uses Gini for classification and sum of squares for regression. Both of the criteria could be used by the conditional tree algorithm as well, but the approach is different. Because of the different types of possible regression- /classification - models (categorical, ordinal, numeric, censored, ...) a more general approach is suitable. Again the test statistic derived framework from Strasser and Weber [1999] can be used. A special linear test statistic, of the same kind, which is used for the stop criterion and variable selection, can be used. The formula is:

$$T_j^A(L_n, w) = \text{vec} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n w_i I(X_{ji} \in A) \cdot h(Y_i, (Y_1, \dots, Y_n))^T \right)$$

with A being a possible partition of the current observations and

$$I(X_{ji} \in A) = \begin{cases} 1, & X_{ji} \in A \\ 0 & X_{ji} \notin A \end{cases}$$

The difference to the test statistic for the association test is the transformation of X . We only look at the different partitions of X . Therefore the scale of X is not of any interest anymore, but the partition which emerges by a certain split point. An appropriate function to capture only the difference in the partition, the transformation of X is the indicator function. This results in the statistic

$$c_{\max}(\mathbf{t}, \mu, \Sigma) = \max_k \left| \frac{(\mathbf{t}^A - \mu)_k}{\sqrt{(\Sigma)_{kk}}} \right|$$

Note that the test statistic does not depend on the transformation g_j of X_j . The scale of the chosen covariate X_j is regarded in another way: The possible partitions A and A^C depend on the scale of X_j . For example if X_j is categorical the different partitions A are combinations

of the different categories. A continuous covariate will be searched for a split on the real line. Ordinal covariates will be searched for splits where the two resulting partitions are a result of a inbetween the ordered categories.

We search the A which maximizes:

$$A^* = \operatorname{argmax}_A c(t_{j*}^A, \mu_{j*}^A, \Sigma_{j*}^A)$$

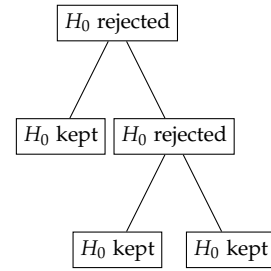
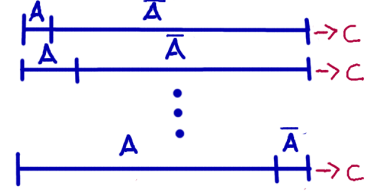
Additional stopping criteria like stopping when the resulting partitions would become too small can be implemented by restricting the searched split points.

Repeat(4)

The three steps: stop criteria, variable selection and best split search are repeated until in every partition, which is at the end of the tree (so called terminal node) the null hypothesis of independency cannot be rejected anymore.

If there is no significant dependency of the response and any covariate, then there would be no split at all, every observation is in the same partition.

The user has to specify the significance level α , which is the significance level for each global null hypothesis. The value α can also be seen as a tuning parameter for the trees. Low values yield smaller and larger values larger trees. Because a larger α leads to rejecting the null hypothesis more frequently and splitting more often.



Continuous Regression: Example bodyfat

The first example is a continuous regression model, where both the response and the covariates are measured on a numeric scale. The model is illustrated with the *bodyfat* available in the *mboost* package developed by Hothorn et al. [2012].

Data set

The data set contains observations of 71 healthy women. The measurements contain body fat, which is measured by DXA (Dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry), a method to determine the amount of body fat. Other variables in the data set are anthropometric measurements like the breadth of the knee, the waist circumference, the hip circumference etc.. The objective is to predict the body fat with the anthropometric measurements, because the DXA method is more expensive and not always available.

Test statistic

Bodyfat measured by DXA as well as body measurements are numeric variables. Thus one possible choice for the influence function h and the transformation function g_j , $\forall j \in 1, \dots, m$ is the identity function, which means the variables will not be transformed at all.

Thus:

$$h = \mathbf{Y}_i$$

$$g = \mathbf{X}_i$$

This yields following not-standardized test statistic:

$$\mathbf{T}_j(\mathcal{L}_n, \mathbf{w}) = \sum_{i=1}^n w_i \mathbf{X}_{ij} \mathbf{Y}_i = \sum_{i:\text{node}} \mathbf{X}_{ij} \mathbf{Y}_i$$

The next step is to standardize the test statistic:¹³

¹³ Definitions of μ and Σ can be found on page 33

$$c_{\max}(\mathbf{t}, \mu, \Sigma) = \max_{k=1, \dots, pq} \left| \frac{(t - \mu)_k}{\sqrt{(\Sigma)_{kk}}} \right| = \left| \frac{t - \mu}{\sqrt{\Sigma}} \right|$$

CORRECT INDICES

$$\mu_j = \sum_{i=1}^n X_{ij} \mathbb{E}(h|S) = n \cdot \bar{X}_j \bar{Y} \quad (1)$$

$$\Sigma = \frac{n_{\text{node}}}{n_{\text{node}} - 1} \mathbb{V}(h) \cdot \sum_{i=1}^n X_{ij}^2 - \frac{1}{n_{\text{node}} - 1} \mathbb{V}(h) n_{\text{node}}^2 \bar{X}_j^2 \quad (2)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n_{\text{node}}} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2 \sum_{i=1}^n X_{ij}^2 - \frac{1}{n_{\text{node}} - 1} \cdot \frac{1}{n_{\text{node}}} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2 n_{\text{node}}^2 \bar{X}_j^2 \quad (3)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n_{\text{node}} - 1} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2 \left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_{ij}^2 - n_{\text{node}} \bar{X}_j^2 \right) \quad (4)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n_{\text{node}} - 1} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2 \right) \left(\sum_{i=1}^n (X_{ij} - \bar{X}_j)^2 \right) \quad (5)$$

Therefore:

$$c \propto \left| \frac{\sum_{i:\text{node}} X_{ij} Y_i - n_{\text{node}} \bar{X}_j \bar{Y}}{\sqrt{\left(\sum_{i:\text{node}} (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2 \right) \left(\sum_{i:\text{node}} (X_{ij} - \bar{X}_j)^2 \right)}} \right|$$

The linear test statistic is proportional to the pearson correlation coefficient. This means, that the permutation test tests if the correlation between Y and any X_j is different than 0. Thus by choosing the identity function for h and g_j the null hypothesis of independence between Y and X_j is formulated as “The correlation between Y and X_j is zero”.

The next step is to calculate the test statistic (the pearson correlation coefficient multiplied with a constant) for the observation in the current partition (where $w \neq 0$). The response of the observations will be permuted and the test statistic calculated again. This will be

done often enough to approximate the distribution of the test statistic for the sample. If the correlation coefficient of the original data is very extreme compared to the permuted test statistics, the p-value will be very low.

The procedure of calculating the test statistic for the original data and the permutations is done for every covariate X_j , $j \in 1, \dots, m$ separately.

R-Code

The data set for the example is available in the mboost (Hothorn et al. [2012]). In addition to the response DEXfat it contains the nine body measurements.

```
data(bodyfat, package = "mboost")
head(bodyfat)
```

##	age	DEXfat	waistcirc	hipcirc	elbowbreadth	kneebreadth	anthro3a	anthro3b
## 47	57	41.68	100.0	112.0	7.1	9.4	4.42	4.95
## 48	65	43.29	99.5	116.5	6.5	8.9	4.63	5.01
## 49	59	35.41	96.0	108.5	6.2	8.9	4.12	4.74
## 50	58	22.79	72.0	96.5	6.1	9.2	4.03	4.48
## 51	60	36.42	89.5	100.5	7.1	10.0	4.24	4.68
## 52	61	24.13	83.5	97.0	6.5	8.8	3.55	4.06

##	anthro3c	anthro4
## 47	4.50	6.13
## 48	4.48	6.37
## 49	4.60	5.82
## 50	3.91	5.66
## 51	4.15	5.91
## 52	3.64	5.14

The conditional tree algorithm is implemented in the party package (Hothorn et al. [2006]), which is available on <http://cran.r-project.org/>.

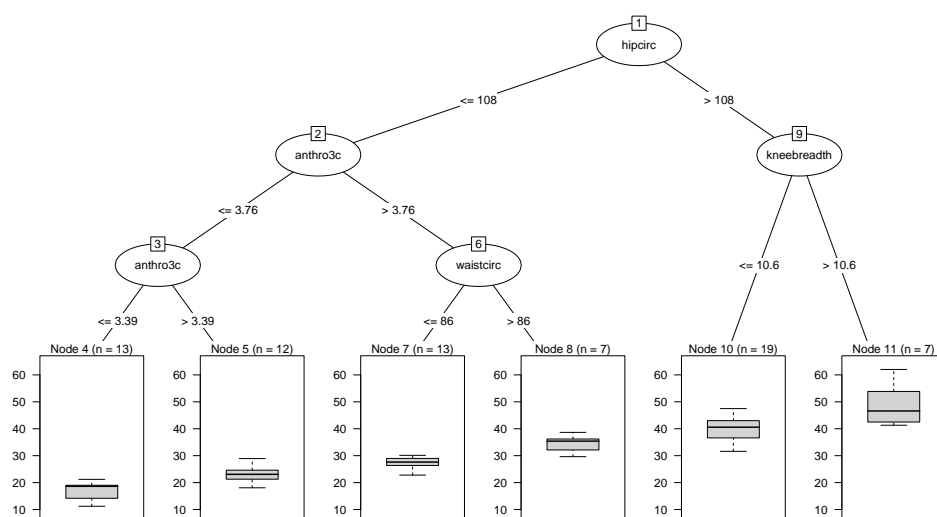
The usage is similar to the `lm()`-function, with the formula interface. The formula `DEXfat ~ .` means that the tree should model the response DEXfat (bodyfat measurement) depend-

ing on all available covariates.

```
library("party")
## fit a conditional tree
cond_tree <- ctree(DEXfat ~ ., data = bodyfat)
```

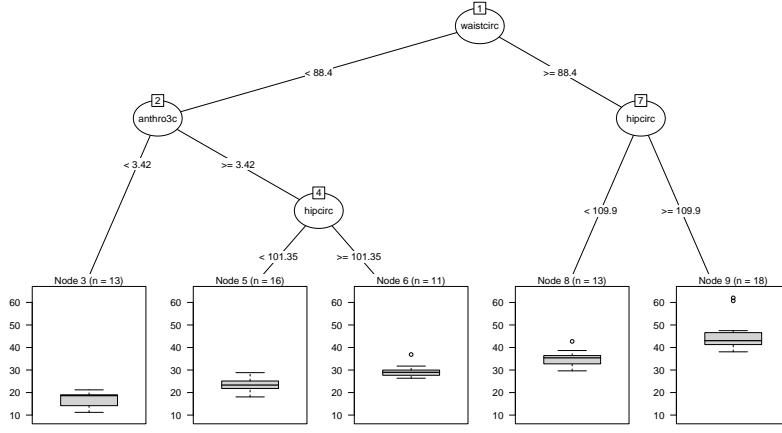
The result is a tree with six terminal nodes (five splits). The variable chosen for the first split is `hipcirc`, the circumference of the hip in cm. If it is bigger than 108cm the next measurement to look at is the breadth of the knee (`kneebreadth`). If the breadth is smaller than 10.6 cm the estimated is 39.7, which is equal to the mean in this terminal node.

```
plot(cond_tree)
```



The CART algorithm gives us a different tree.

```
library("rpart")
library("partykit")
cart <- rpart(DEXfat ~ ., data = bodyfat)
plot(as.party(cart))
```



For regression and the identity function for the influence function h , the test statistic is the following:

$$c_{max}(\mathbf{t}, \mu, \Sigma) = \max_k \left| \frac{(\mathbf{t}^A - \mu)_k}{\sqrt{(\Sigma)_{kk}}} \right| \quad (6)$$

$$= \left| \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n w_i I(X_{ji} \in A) \cdot Y_i - \sum_{i=1}^n w_i I(X_{ji} \in A) \cdot n_{node}^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n w_i Y_i}{\sqrt{\frac{n_{node}}{n_{node}-1} \frac{1}{n_{node}} \sum_{i=1}^n w_i (Y_i - \bar{Y}_{node})^2 \cdot \sum_{i=1}^n w_i I(X_{ji} \in A)^2 - \frac{1}{n_{node}-1} \frac{1}{n_{node}} \sum_{i=1}^n w_i (Y_i - \bar{Y}_{node})^2 \cdot \left(\sum_{i=1}^n w_i I(X_{ji} \in A) \right)^2}} \right| \quad (7)$$

$$= \left| \frac{\sum_{i: X_{ij} \in A} Y_i - n_A \bar{Y}_{node}}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{n_{node}-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y}_{node})^2 n_A (1 - \frac{n_A}{n_{node}})}} \right| \quad (8)$$

$$= n_A \cdot \left| \frac{\bar{Y}_A - \bar{Y}_{node}}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{n_{node}-1} \sum_{i \in node} (Y_i - \bar{Y}_{node})^2 \cdot n_{node} \left(\frac{n_A}{n_{node}} \right) \left(1 - \left(\frac{n_A}{n_{node}} \right) \right)}} \right| \quad (9)$$

$$= n_A \left| \frac{\bar{Y}_A - \bar{Y}_{node}}{\sqrt{Var(Y) \cdot Var(Z)}} \right| \quad (10)$$

$$(11)$$

with $Z \sim B(n_{node}, \pi = \frac{n_A}{n_{node}})$ Can be interpreted as the probability that z observations would be assigned to A if the process of assigning would be random with probability $\frac{n_A}{n_{node}}$. Is maximal for $n_A = \frac{n_{node}}{2}$. The closer $\frac{n_A}{n_{node}}$ to 0.5 the bigger is c (assuming Y_A stays the same). Thus the test statistic favors bigger partitions.

$n_{node} := \sum_{i=1}^n w_i$: Number of observation in node \bar{Y}_{node} : Mean of Y

in node n_A : Number of observations in partition A \bar{Y}_A : Mean of Y in A

Additional stopping criteria like stopping when the resulting partitions would become too small can be implemented by restricting the searched split points.

Classification: Example glaucoma

An example of a classification tree with the conditional trees algorithm. The response is binary and all the covariates are measured on a numeric scale. The data for illustration is available in the `ipred` package (Peters and Hothorn [2012]).

Data set

The glaucoma data set contains eye laser scanning of both healthy persons and persons with glaucoma. Glaucoma is an eye disease which in worst case can lead to blindness. If the person is healthy the response variable `Class` is zero else one. The subject is to predict if a person has the glaucoma disease or not, based on different laser scanning measurements. Measured are different volumes and surfaces of the eye.

Test statistic

The test statistic is different to the one from the regression example. The transformation g for the covariates stays the same, while the influence function $h(Y)$ changes, as the scale of Y is different in the classification example. Instead of using the identity for h , the influence function is a vector with the same dimensionality as the number of categories, two-dimensional in the Glaucoma example. The vector $h(Y_i)$ equals one at the position k when observation i is in category k , and zeros at the other positions. The Glaucoma data set knows two classes, Glaucoma and normal. Thus if observation i has Glaucoma

the vector is $(0, 1)^T$.

$$h = e_J(\mathbf{Y}_i) = \begin{cases} (1, 0)^T & \text{Glaucoma} \\ (0, 1)^T & \text{normal} \end{cases} \quad \text{and} \quad g(\mathbf{X}_{ij}) = \mathbf{X}_{ij}$$

This yields the following linear test statistic:

$$\mathbf{T}_j(\mathcal{L}_n, \mathbf{w}) = \text{vec} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n w_i \mathbf{X}_{ij} e_J(\mathbf{Y}_i)^T \right) = \begin{pmatrix} n_{\text{Glaucoma}} \cdot \bar{X}_{j, \text{Glaucoma}} \\ n_{\text{normal}} \cdot \bar{X}_{j, \text{normal}} \end{pmatrix}$$

with mean and variance:

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_j &= \sum_{i:\text{node}} X_{ji} \frac{1}{n_{\text{node}}} \begin{pmatrix} n_{\text{Glaucoma}} \\ n_{\text{normal}} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} n_{\text{Glaucoma}} \cdot \bar{X}_{j, \text{node}} \\ n_{\text{normal}} \cdot \bar{X}_{j, \text{node}} \end{pmatrix} \\ \Sigma &= \frac{n_{\text{node}}}{n_{\text{node}} - 1} V(h) \cdot \sum_{i:\text{node}} X_{ji}^2 - \frac{1}{n_{\text{node}} - 1} \left(\sum_{i:\text{node}} X_{ij} \right) \left(\sum_{i:\text{node}} X_{ij} \right)^T = \frac{1}{n_{\text{node}} - 1} V(h) n_{\text{node}} \sum_{i:\text{node}} (X_{ji} - \bar{X}_{j, \text{node}})^2 \\ V(h) &= \frac{1}{n_{\text{node}}} \sum_{i:\text{node}} \left(e_J(Y_i) - \begin{pmatrix} \frac{n_G}{n_{\text{node}}} \\ \frac{n_N}{n_{\text{node}}} \end{pmatrix} \right) \left(e_J(Y_i) - \begin{pmatrix} \frac{n_G}{n_{\text{node}}} \\ \frac{n_N}{n_{\text{node}}} \end{pmatrix} \right)^T \\ &= \frac{1}{n_{\text{node}}} \sum_{i:\text{node}} \begin{pmatrix} Y_G - \frac{n_G}{n_{\text{node}}} \\ Y_N - \frac{n_N}{n_{\text{node}}} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} Y_G - \frac{n_G}{n_{\text{node}}} \\ Y_N - \frac{n_N}{n_{\text{node}}} \end{pmatrix}^T \\ &= \frac{1}{n_{\text{node}}} \sum_{i:\text{node}} \begin{pmatrix} Y_G - \bar{Y}_G \\ Y_N - \bar{Y}_N \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} Y_G - \bar{Y}_G \\ Y_N - \bar{Y}_N \end{pmatrix}^T \\ &= \frac{1}{n_{\text{node}}} \begin{pmatrix} (Y_G - \bar{Y}_G)^2 & (Y_G - \bar{Y}_G)(Y_N - \bar{Y}_N) \\ (Y_G - \bar{Y}_G)(Y_N - \bar{Y}_N) & (Y_N - \bar{Y}_N)^2 \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Thus:

$$\begin{aligned} (\Sigma)_{kk} &= \frac{1}{n_{\text{node}} - 1} \sum_{i:\text{node}} (Y_{\text{Class}} - \bar{Y}_{\text{Class}})^2 \sum_{i:\text{node}} (X_{ji} - \bar{X}_{ji})^2 \quad \text{Class} \in \{G, N\} \\ &= \underbrace{n_{\text{node}} \bar{Y}_{\text{Class}} (1 - \bar{Y}_{\text{class}})}_{\widehat{\text{Var}}(Y_{\text{Class}, \text{node}})} \underbrace{\frac{1}{n_{\text{node}} - 1} \sum_{i:\text{node}} (X_{ji} - \bar{X}_{j, \text{node}})^2}_{\widehat{\text{Var}}(X_{j, \text{node}})} \end{aligned}$$

The test statistic is the vector of the means of X_j in the categories Glaucoma and normal, weighted by the number of observations in this category.

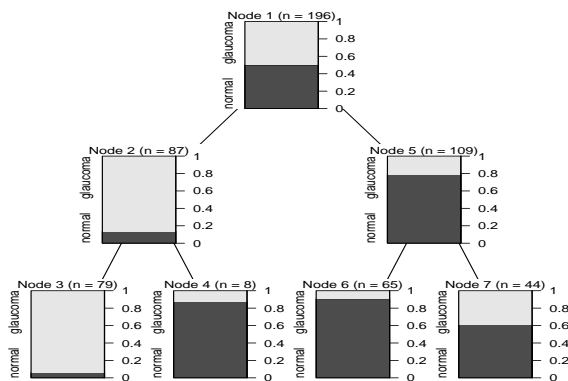
Thus

$$c = n_{Class} \frac{\bar{X}_{j,Class} - n_{Class} \bar{X}_{j,node}}{\sqrt{(\Sigma)_{kk}}} = n_{Class} \frac{(\bar{X}_{j,Class} - \bar{X}_{j,node})}{\sqrt{\widehat{Var}(Y_{Class,node}) \widehat{Var}(X_{j,node})}}$$

This standardized test statistic has a very vivid interpretation. The numerator is the difference between the observed mean of the covariate X_j for all the observations in the node which are in the class we are looking at and the mean of X_j in the whole node. We expect $\bar{X}_{j,Class}$ to be very similar to $\bar{X}_{j,node}$ under the null hypothesis of independence of X_j and Y . Thus in case of independence between response and covariate the numerator should be very small. The denominator contains the root of the product of variance Y and variance X_j . It adjusts the difference. The whole term is weighted by n_{node} .

R-Code

```
library("rpart")
library("party")
data("GlaucomaM", package = "ipred")
cond_tree <- ctree(Class ~ ., data = GlaucomaM)
classic_tree <- rpart(Class ~ ., data = GlaucomaM)
```



```
## Error: trying to get slot "tree" from an object (class
"constparty") that is not an S4 object
```

```
rpart.plot(classic_tree, cex = 1.5)
```

```
## Error: could not find function "rpart.plot"
```

Finding the best split point is a little different to classification. The test statistic T_J looks like this:

$$\begin{aligned} T_J(\mathcal{L}, w) &= \text{vec} \left(\sum_{i:\text{node}} I_A(X_{j*} i) e_J(Y_i)^T \right) = \frac{1}{n_{\text{node}}} \sum_{i:\text{node}} I_A(X_{j*} i) \begin{pmatrix} I_1(Y_i) \\ I_0(Y_i) \end{pmatrix} = \\ &= \frac{1}{n_{\text{node}}} \begin{pmatrix} \sum_{i:A} I_1(y_i) \\ \sum_{i:A} I_0(y_i) \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{n_{\text{node}}} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{n_A} n_{G,A} \\ \frac{1}{n_A} n_{N,A} \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

The mean of this test statistic is:

$$\begin{aligned} \mu &= \mathbb{E}(T|S) = \text{vec} \left(\left(\sum_{i:\text{node}} I_A(X_{j*} i) \mathbb{E}(e_J(y_i)|S) \right) \right) = \\ &= \left(\sum_{i:\text{node}} I_A(X_{j*} i) \right) \left(\frac{1}{n_{\text{node}}} \sum_{i:\text{node}} \begin{pmatrix} Y_{G,i} \\ Y_{N,i} \end{pmatrix} \right) = \\ &= \frac{n_A}{n_{\text{node}}} \begin{pmatrix} n_G \\ n_N \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

The variance is:

$$\Sigma_J = \frac{1}{n_{\text{node}} - 1} \mathbb{V}(h)(n_{\text{node}} n_A - n_A^2)$$

bla

$$\Rightarrow (\Sigma_J)_{kk} = \frac{1}{n_{\text{node}} - 1} \frac{1}{n_{\text{node}}} \underbrace{(Y_{\text{Class}} - \bar{Y}_{\text{Class}})^2}_{= n_{\text{node}} \bar{Y}_{\text{Class}} (1 - \bar{Y}_{\text{Class}}) = \hat{\mathbb{V}}(Y_{\text{Class}})} (n_{\text{node}} n_A - n_A^2) = \hat{V}(Y_{\text{Class}}) \frac{n_A}{n_{\text{node}} - 1} \left(1 - \frac{n_A}{n_{\text{node}}}\right)$$

This yields following standardized test statistic c :

$$c_{max} = \frac{\frac{1}{n_{node}} n_{class,A} - \frac{n_A}{n_{node}} n_{class}}{(\Sigma_j)_{class}} = \frac{\frac{1}{n_{node}} (n_{class,A} - \frac{n_A \cdot n_{class}}{n_{node}})}{\mathbb{V}(Y_{class}) \frac{\hat{n}_A}{n_{node}-1} (1 - \frac{n_A}{n_{node}})}$$

Summary

Conditional inference trees are a statistical approach to recursive partitioning. The underlying theory is embedded in a well defined framework of conditional inference aka permutation tests. Unlike most other partitioning algorithms variable selection and best split search are separated. The choices if to split anyway and if yes, which variable to use for the next split are formulated in terms of statistical hypothesis tests. The framework covers a wide range of different scales for Y and X , more than mentioned in this paper.

As CART trees find application in the RandomForest - algorithm, conditional trees can also be used for a special implementation of a RandomForest - algorithm. This is implemented as well in the party package with the cforest function.

appendix: Permutation tests

Permutation tests¹⁴ are a special class of non-parametric tests. Sen [accessed February 12, 2013] In contrast to parametric tests, there is no distribution assumption for the data. The philosophy of permutation tests is that under the null hypothesis of independence, the pairs of (Y_i, X_i) are exchangeable (which as well is required to perform a classic permutation test). That means we can obtain the distribution of a test statistic (under the assumption of independence) by calculating the test statistic for all possible permutation of Y and X . The significance value p is obtained by locating the observed statistic in the distribution.

One problem of permutation tests is, that the number of possible permutations grows very fast with a larger number n of observations. The number of permutations is $n!$ and the time for calculating all possible test statistics is for most problems unreasonably. The trick here is to draw a number of random permutation to approximate the distribution of the test statistic. This is called Monte Carlo method.

¹⁴ Synonyms are: exact tests, randomization tests, re-randomization tests

appendix: Test statistic

Hothorn et al. [2006] use the following test statistic which is derived from Strasser and Weber [1999]

$$\mathbf{T}_j(L_n, w) = \text{vec} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n w_i g_j(X_{ij}) h(Y_i, (Y_1, \dots, Y_n))^T \right) \in \mathbb{R}^{p_j q}$$

It may look difficult in the first place, but it can be broken down to the following:

- $\text{vec}()$ The core of the test statistic can be a matrix. In this case $\text{vec}()$ - Operator vectorizes the matrix
- \sum The test statistic is a sum over all observations
- w I lied: Not all observations, because observations which are not in the current partition will get the weight $w = 0$ and otherwise $w = 1$. This ensures us, that only the data in the current node is in focus.
- g_j A transformation of the j-th covariate X_j . Transformation depends on scale of the covariate
- h Influence function. Transformation of the response Y .

The test statistic has an expectation and variance, which are also

derived by the framework from Strasser and Weber [1999]:

$$\begin{aligned}
\mu_j &= \mathbb{E}(\mathbf{T}_j(\mathcal{L}_n, \mathbf{w}) | S(\mathcal{L}_n, \mathbf{w})) = \text{vec} \left(\left(\sum_{i=1}^n w_i g_j(X_{ji}) \right) \mathbb{E}(h | S(\mathcal{L}_n, \mathbf{w}))^T \right) \\
\Sigma_j &= \mathbb{V}(\mathbf{T}_j(\mathcal{L}_n, \mathbf{w}) | S(\mathcal{L}_n, \mathbf{w})) \\
&= \frac{\mathbf{w}_\cdot}{\mathbf{w}_\cdot - 1} \mathbb{V}(h | S(\mathcal{L}_n, \mathbf{w})) \otimes \left(\sum_i w_i g_j(X_{ji}) \otimes w_i g_j(X_{ji})^T \right) \\
&\quad - \frac{1}{\mathbf{w}_\cdot - 1} \mathbb{V}(h | S(\mathcal{L}_n, \mathbf{w})) \otimes \left(\sum_i w_i g_j(X_{ji}) \right) \otimes \left(\sum_i w_i g_j(X_{ji}) \right)^T \\
\mathbf{w}_\cdot &= \sum_{i=1}^n w_i
\end{aligned}$$

$$\mathbb{E}(h | S(\mathcal{L}_n, \mathbf{w})) = \mathbf{w}_\cdot^{-1} \sum_i w_i h(\mathbf{Y}_i, (\mathbf{Y}_1, \dots, \mathbf{Y}_n)) \in \mathbb{R}^q$$

$$\mathbb{V}(h | S(\mathcal{L}_n, \mathbf{w})) = \mathbf{w}_\cdot^{-1} \sum_i w_i (h(\mathbf{Y}_i, (\mathbf{Y}_1, \dots, \mathbf{Y}_n)) - \mathbb{E}(h | S(\mathcal{L}_n, \mathbf{w})))$$

$$(h(\mathbf{Y}_i, (\mathbf{Y}_1, \dots, \mathbf{Y}_n)) - \mathbb{E}(h | S(\mathcal{L}_n, \mathbf{w})))^T$$

Thus we can standardize the linear tests statistic: $c(\mathbf{t}, \mu, \Sigma) = \max_{k=1, \dots, pq} \left| \frac{(\mathbf{t} - \mu)_k}{\sqrt{(\Sigma)_{kk}}} \right|$

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