# A Handbook of Statistical Analyses Using $\mathsf{R}$ —2nd Edition

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#### CHAPTER 9

## Recursive Partitioning: Predicting Body Fat and Glaucoma Diagnosis

- 9.1 Introduction
- 9.2 Recursive Partitioning
- 9.3 Analysis Using R
- 9.3.1 Predicting Body Fat Content

The rpart function from rpart can be used to grow a regression tree. The response variable and the covariates are defined by a model formula in the same way as for lm, say. By default, a large initial tree is grown, we restrict the number of observations required to establish a potential binary split to at least ten:

A print method for *rpart* objects is available; however, a graphical representation (here utilising functionality offered from package **partykit**, Hothorn and Zeileis, 2012) shown in Figure 9.1 is more convenient. Observations that satisfy the condition shown for each node go to the left and observations that don't are element of the right branch in each node. As expected, higher values for waist- and hip circumferences and wider knees correspond to higher values of body fat content. The rightmost terminal node consists of only three rather extreme observations.

To determine if the tree is appropriate or if some of the branches need to be subjected to pruning we can use the **cptable** element of the *rpart* object:

#### R> print(bodyfat\_rpart\$cptable)

```
CP nsplit rel error xerror
1 0.6629
                   1.0000 1.027 0.1684
2 0.0938
                   0.3371
                           0.427 0.0943
3 0.0770
                   0.2433
                           0.445 0.0869
4 0.0451
                   0.1663
                           0.354 0.0696
5 0.0184
                           0.264 0.0597
                   0.1212
6 0.0182
                   0.1028
                           0.286 0.0622
                           0.279 0.0624
7 0.0100
                   0.0846
```

R> opt <- which.min(bodyfat\_rpart\$cptable[,"xerror"])</pre>

R> library("partykit")

R> plot(as.party(bodyfat\_rpart), tp\_args = list(id = FALSE))

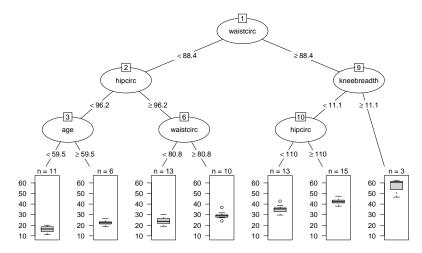


Figure 9.1 Initial tree for the body fat data with the distribution of body fat in terminal nodes visualised via boxplots.

The xerror column contains of estimates of cross-validated prediction error for different numbers of splits (nsplit). The best tree has four splits. Now we can prune back the large initial tree using

```
R> cp <- bodyfat_rpart$cptable[opt, "CP"]
R> bodyfat_prune <- prune(bodyfat_rpart, cp = cp)</pre>
```

The result is shown in Figure 9.2. Note that the inner nodes three and six have been removed from the tree. Still, the rightmost terminal node might give very unreliable extreme predictions.

Given this model, one can predict the (unknown, in real circumstances) body fat content based on the covariate measurements. Here, using the known values of the response variable, we compare the model predictions with the actually measured body fat as shown in Figure 9.3. The three observations with large body fat measurements in the rightmost terminal node can be identified easily.

#### 9.3.2 Glaucoma Diagnosis

R> plot(as.party(bodyfat\_prune), tp\_args = list(id = FALSE))

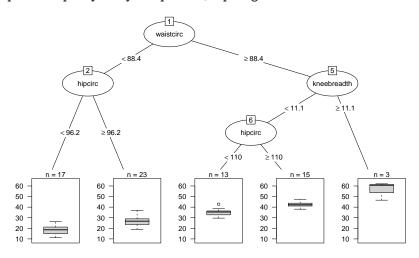


Figure 9.2 Pruned regression tree for body fat data.

```
CP nsplit rel error xerror
1 0.6531
                         1.531 0.0605
             0
                   1.000
2 0.0714
                   0.347
                          0.388 0.0565
3 0.0136
                   0.276
                         0.378 0.0559
                         0.449 0.0596
4 0.0100
                   0.235
R> opt <- which.min(glaucoma_rpart$cptable[,"xerror"])</pre>
R> cp <- glaucoma_rpart$cptable[opt, "CP"]</pre>
R> glaucoma_prune <- prune(glaucoma_rpart, cp = cp)</pre>
```

As we discussed earlier, the choice of the appropriatly sized tree is not a trivial problem. For the glaucoma data, the above choice of three leaves is very unstable across multiple runs of cross-validation. As an illustration of this problem we repeat the very same analysis as shown above and record the optimal number of splits as suggested by the cross-validation runs.

Although for 14 runs of cross-validation a simple tree with one split only is suggested, larger trees would have been favoured in 11 of the cases. This short analysis shows that we should not trust the tree in Figure 9.4 too much.

```
R> DEXfat_pred <- predict(bodyfat_prune, newdata = bodyfat)
R> xlim <- range(bodyfat$DEXfat)
R> plot(DEXfat_pred ~ DEXfat, data = bodyfat, xlab = "Observed",
+ ylab = "Predicted", ylim = xlim, xlim = xlim)
R> abline(a = 0, b = 1)
```

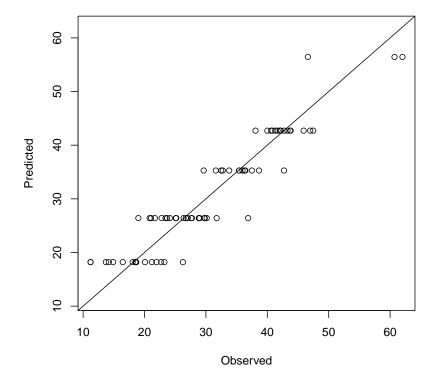


Figure 9.3 Observed and predicted DXA measurements.

One way out of this dilemma is the aggregation of multiple trees via bagging. In R, the bagging idea can be implemented by three or four lines of code. Case count or weight vectors representing the bootstrap samples can be drawn from the multinominal distribution with parameters n and  $p_1 = 1/n, \ldots, p_n = 1/n$  via the rmultinom function. For each weight vector, one large tree is constructed without pruning and the *rpart* objects are stored in a list, here called trees:

```
R> trees <- vector(mode = "list", length = 25)
R> n <- nrow(GlaucomaM)</pre>
```

R> plot(as.party(glaucoma\_prune), tp\_args = list(id = FALSE))

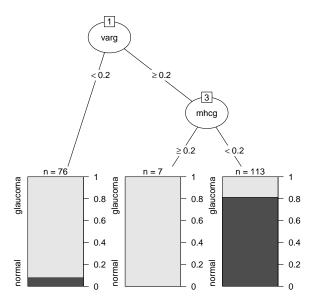


Figure 9.4 Pruned classification tree of the glaucoma data with class distribution in the leaves.

The update function re-evaluates the call of mod, however, with the weights being altered, i.e., fits a tree to a bootstrap sample specified by the weights. It is interesting to have a look at the structures of the multiple trees. For example, the variable selected for splitting in the root of the tree is not unique as can be seen by

Although varg is selected most of the time, other variables such as vari occur as well – a further indication that the tree in Figure 9.4 is questionable and that hard decisions are not appropriate for the glaucoma data.

In order to make use of the ensemble of trees in the list trees we estimate the conditional probability of suffering from glaucoma given the covariates for each observation in the original data set by

Thus, for each observation we get 25 estimates. However, each observation has been used for growing one of the trees with probability 0.632 and thus was not used with probability 0.368. Consequently, the estimate from a tree where an observation was not used for growing is better for judging the quality of the predictions and we label the other estimates with NA.

Now, we can average the estimates and we vote for glaucoma when the average of the estimates of the conditional glaucoma probability exceeds 0.5. The comparison between the observed and the predicted classes does not suffer from overfitting since the predictions are computed from those trees for which each single observation was not used for growing.

Thus, an honest estimate of the probability of a glaucoma prediction when the patient is actually suffering from glaucoma is

```
R> round(predtab[1,1] / colSums(predtab)[1] * 100)
glaucoma
    79
per cent. For
R> round(predtab[2,2] / colSums(predtab)[2] * 100)
normal
oo
```

per cent of normal eyes, the ensemble does not predict a glaucomateous damage

The bagging procedure is a special case of a more general approach called *random forest* (Breiman, 2001). The package **randomForest** (Breiman et al., 2012) can be used to compute such ensembles via

```
R> library("randomForest")
R> rf <- randomForest(Class ~ ., data = GlaucomaM)
and we obtain out-of-bag estimates for the prediction error via
R> table(predict(rf), GlaucomaM$Class)

glaucoma normal
glaucoma 80 11
normal 18 87
```

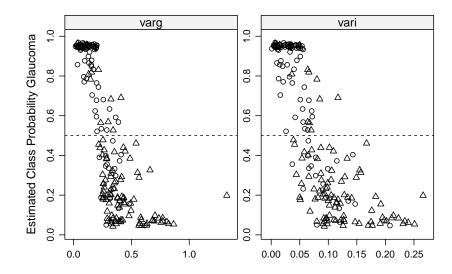
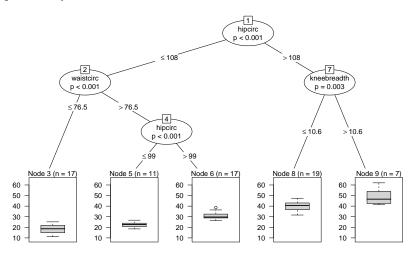


Figure 9.5 Estimated class probabilities depending on two important variables. The 0.5 cut-off for the estimated glaucoma probability is depicted as a horizontal line. Glaucomateous eyes are plotted as circles and normal eyes are triangles.

R> plot(bodyfat\_ctree)



**Figure 9.6** Conditional inference tree with the distribution of body fat content shown for each terminal leaf.

#### 9.3.3 Trees Revisited

For the body fat data, such a *conditional inference tree* can be computed using the **ctree** function

```
R> library("party")
```

This tree doesn't require a pruning procedure because an internal stop criterion based on formal statistical tests prevents the procedure from overfitting the data. The tree structure is shown in Figure 9.6. Although the structure of this tree and the tree depicted in Figure 9.2 are rather different, the corresponding predictions don't vary too much.

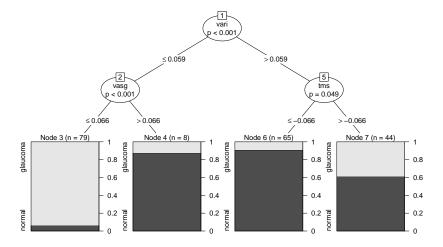
Very much the same code is needed to grow a tree on the glaucoma data:

#### R> glaucoma\_ctree <- ctree(Class ~ ., data = GlaucomaM)</pre>

and a graphical representation is depicted in Figure 9.7 showing both the cutpoints and the p-values of the associated independence tests for each node. The first split is performed using a cutpoint defined with respect to the volume of the optic nerve above some reference plane, but in the inferior part of the eye only (vari).

### ANALYSIS USING R

R> plot(glaucoma\_ctree)



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Figure 9.7 Conditional inference tree with the distribution of glaucomateous eyes shown for each terminal leaf.

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## **Bibliography**

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URL http://stat-www.berkeley.edu/users/breiman/RandomForests,
R package version 4.6-6.

Hothorn, T. and Zeileis, A. (2012), *partykit:* A Toolkit for Recursive Partytioning, URL http://R-forge.R-project.org/projects/partykit/, R package version 0.1-4.