#### **Decision Trees and Random Forrests**









#### Klaus-Robert Müller

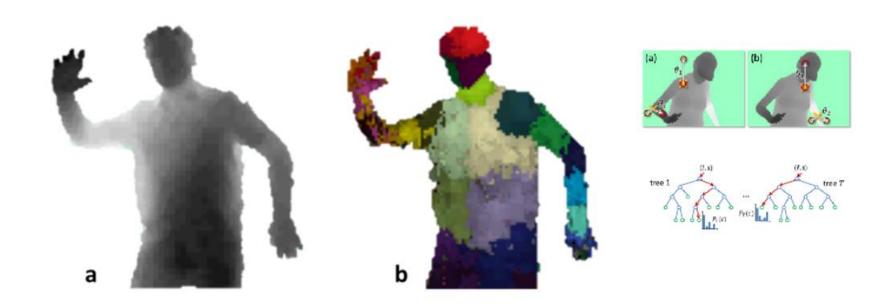




### **Tree-based Methods - applications**

#### Microsoft Kinect Pose Estimation

(Classifications Forests in Kinect for XBox 360)



J. Shotton, A. Fitzgibbon, M. Cook, T. Sharp, M. Finocchio, R. Moore, A. Kipman, A. Blake. Real-Time Human Pose Recognition in Parts from a Single Depth Image (2011)





### **Tree-based Methods - applications**

#### Other "real life" applications:

- Recommender systems (Facebook, Amazon, Netflix)
- Business applications (customer segmentation, target marketing)
- Medical (disease diagnosis)
- Banking (credit card issue, fraud detection)



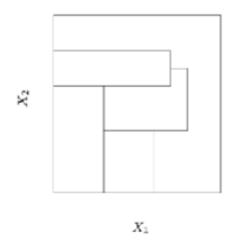


### Tree-based Methods - background

Given: Features:  $X_1, X_2, ..., X_p$ <u>Target:</u> Y

#### Key idea:

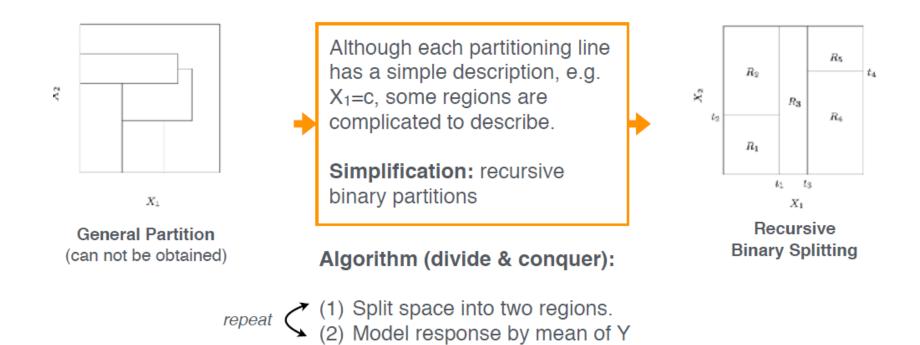
- Partition feature space into a set of rectangles.
- (2) Fit a simple model (e.g. a constant) in each one.



General Partition (can not be obtained)

For each partition: model Y with a different constant.

#### **Tree-based Methods - background**



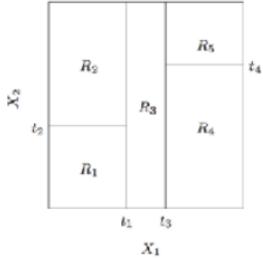
The Elements of Statistical Learning, T. Hastie, R. Tibshirani, and J. Friedman (2001)

in each region.





#### **Decision Trees – conceptual construction**



## Recursive Binary Splitting

#### Example:

- Split at X<sub>1</sub> = t<sub>1</sub>
- Split the region X<sub>1</sub> <= t<sub>1</sub> at t<sub>2</sub>
- etc.

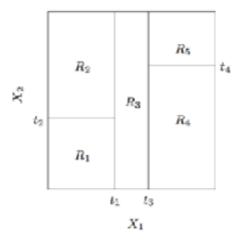
**Result:** Partitioning into R<sub>1</sub>-R<sub>5</sub>

Model: 
$$\hat{f}(X) = \sum_{m=1}^{5} c_m I\{(X_1, X_2) \in R_m\}$$

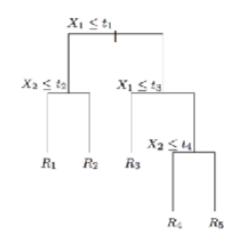


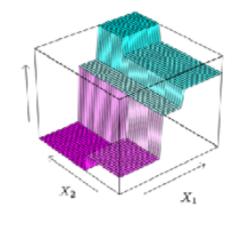


#### **Decision Trees – conceptual construction**



Recursive Binary Splitting





#### **Decision Tree**

#### **Regression Surface**

$$\hat{f}(X) = \sum_{m=1}^{5} c_m I\{(X_1, X_2) \in R_m\}$$





#### **Decision Trees – algorithm**

**Given:** N observations, P features

$$(x_i, y_i)$$
 for  $i = 1, 2, ..., N$ , with  $x_i = (x_{i1}, x_{i2}, ..., x_{ip})$ .

**Wanted:** splitting variables j, split points s (to partition space into M regions)

**Minimization criterion:** e.g.  $\hat{c}_m = \text{ave}(y_i | x_i \in R_m)$  (sum of squares)

Finding best binary partition is computationally infeasible (NP hard): use greedy approach





## Decision Trees - algorithm - splitting

**Given:** N observations, P features

$$(x_i, y_i)$$
 for  $i = 1, 2, ..., N$ , with  $x_i = (x_{i1}, x_{i2}, ..., x_{ip})$ .

Consider a splitting variable j and split point s and define a pair of half planes:

$$R_1(j,s) = \{X | X_j \le s\}$$
 and  $R_2(j,s) = \{X | X_j > s\}$ 

We seek *j* and *s* to solve:

$$\min_{j, s} \left[ \min_{c_1} \sum_{x_i \in R_1(j, s)} (y_i - c_1)^2 + \min_{c_2} \sum_{x_i \in R_2(j, s)} (y_i - c_2)^2 \right]$$

#### Splitting:

Inner minimization solved by:  $\hat{c}_1 = \operatorname{ave}(y_i|x_i \in R_1(j,s))$  and  $\hat{c}_2 = \operatorname{ave}(y_i|x_i \in R_2(j,s))$ I.e. scan through all P features and determine optimal (j,s)





## **Decision Trees – algorithm – splitting (metrics)**

#### Information gain

Based on the concept of entropy from information theory.

$$H(T) = I_E(p_1,p_2,\ldots,p_J) = -\sum_{i=1}^J p_i \log_2 p_i$$

were  $p_1, p_2, \ldots$  represent the probability of each class present in the child node that results form splitting the tree.

$$\widetilde{IG(T,a)} = \widetilde{H(T)}$$
 - Weighted Sum of Entropy(Children)
$$\widetilde{H(T|a)}$$

Choose the split that results in the purest daughter nodes.





## **Decision Trees – algorithm – splitting (metrics)**

#### Gini impurtiy

Measure of how often a randomly chosen element from the set would be incorrectly labeled if it was randomly labeled according to the distribution of labels in the subset

$$GI(\mathcal{X}) = \sum_{c=1}^{C} p(c)(1 - p(c)) = \sum_{c \neq \tilde{c}} p(c)p(\tilde{c})$$

Similar to entropy, zero if all samples belong to same class.





## **Decision Trees – algorithm – splitting (metrics)**

Variance Reduction (often used for regression)

Variance reduction of a node is defined as the total reduction of the variance of the target variable due to the split at this node.

$$I_V(N) = rac{1}{\left|S
ight|^2} \sum_{i \in S} \sum_{j \in S} rac{1}{2} (x_i - x_j)^2 - \left(rac{1}{\left|S_t
ight|^2} \sum_{i \in S_t} \sum_{j \in S_t} rac{1}{2} (x_i - x_j)^2 + rac{1}{\left|S_f
ight|^2} \sum_{i \in S_f} \sum_{j \in S_f} rac{1}{2} (x_i - x_j)^2
ight)$$

were S,  $S_t$ , and  $S_f$  are the set of pre-split sample indices for which the split test is <u>true</u> and <u>false</u>, respectively.





## Decision Trees - algorithm - pruning

#### How large to grow the tree?

- · too large: overfitting
- · too small: not all important structure is captured

**Solution:** grow large tree, then prune using <u>cost-complexity criterion</u> (collapse any number of internal (non-leaf) nodes)

$$N_m = \#\{x_i \in R_m\},$$
 (training data in region)

$$\hat{c}_m = rac{1}{N_m} \sum_{x_i \in R_m} y_i,$$
 (prediction in region)

$$Q_m(T) = \frac{1}{N_m} \sum_{x_i \in R_m} (y_i - \hat{c}_m)^2$$
, (squared loss)

|T| (number of terminal leaves)

 $\alpha \ge 0$  (regularization parameter)

#### Find subtree that minimizes:

$$C_{\alpha}(T) = \sum_{m=1}^{|T|} \frac{N_m Q_m(T) + \alpha |T|}{\text{cost}} \frac{1}{\text{complexity}}$$





# **Decision Trees – algorithm – pruning**

Find subtree that minimizes:

$$C_{lpha}(T) = \sum_{m=1}^{|T|} \frac{N_m Q_m(T) + lpha |T|}{\mathrm{cost}}$$
 complexity

#### Weakest Link Pruning:

1. Starting with the full tree, successively collapse the internal node that produces the smallest per node increase in  $\sum_{m} N_{m}Q_{m}(T)$ 

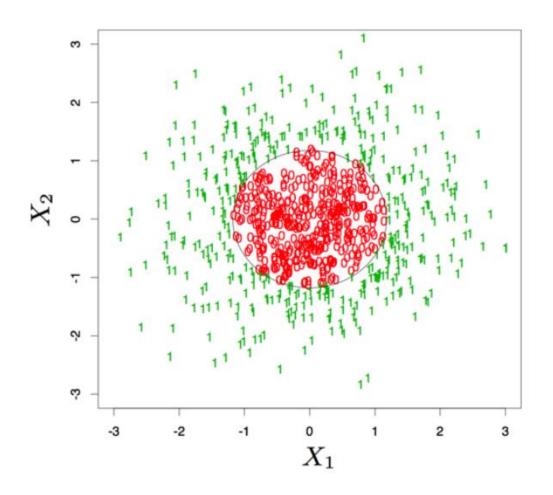
**Result:** Sequence of trees  $T_0, T_1, T_2, ..., T_m$  (were  $T_m$  is a single-leaf tree)

2. Choose optimal  $\alpha$  (the optimal tree  $T_i$ ) via cross-validation.





# **Toy Classification Problem - setup**



**Given:** N training pairs  $(X_i, Y_i)$ 

(black line: optimal decision boundary)

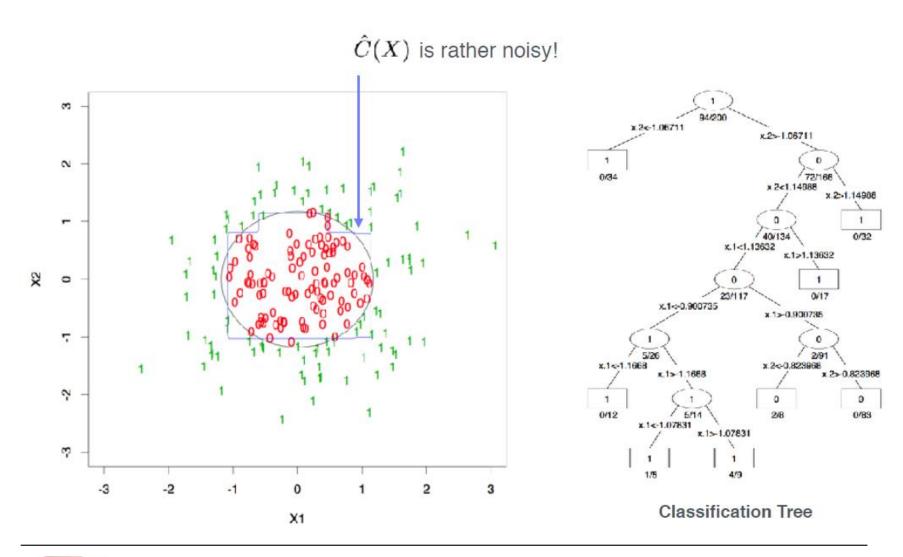
Goal: Produce a classifier

$$\hat{C}(X) \in \{-1,1\}$$





# **Toy Classification Problem - result**







#### **Decision Trees- advantages**

- Interpretability
- Generalizes to higher dimensions
- Can handle mixed predictors: quantitative & qualitative
- Easily ignores redundant variables
- Handles missing data elegantly

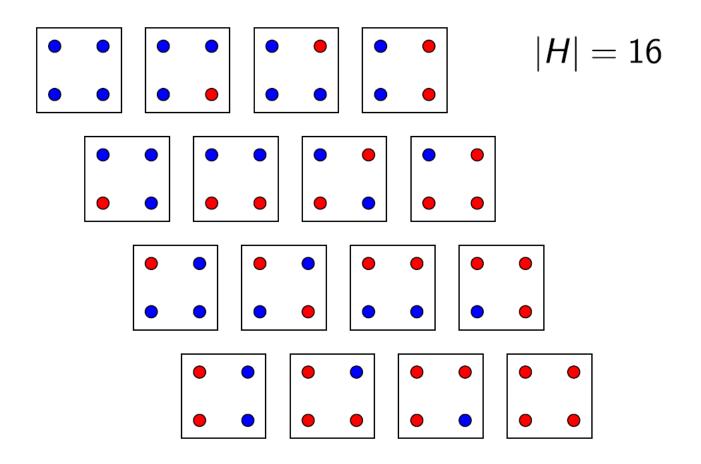
**BUT:** decision trees are prone to overfitting (high variance)





learning theory for decision trees

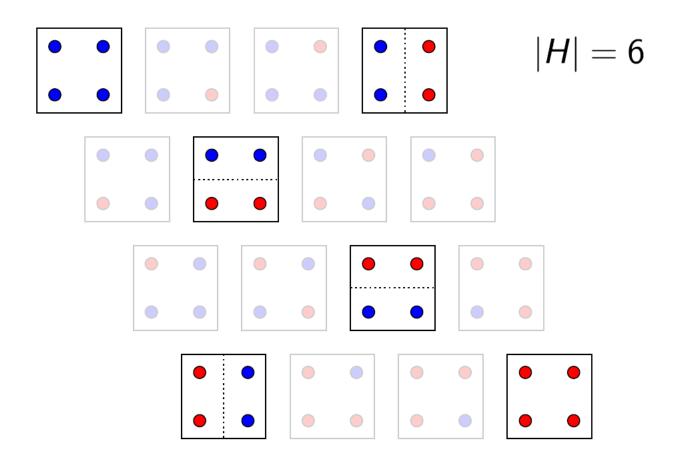
# Hypothesis Space – general classifiers







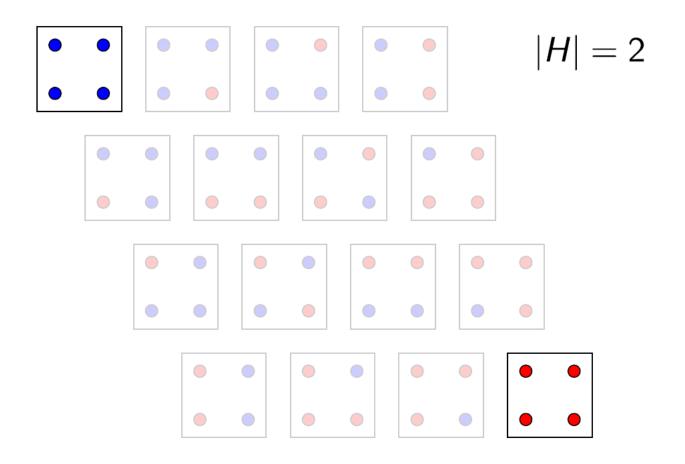
## **Hypothesis Space – decision trees (level 1)**







# **Hypothesis Space – constant classifiers**







## **Bounding Generalization Error**

[Haussler'88]: When the hypothesis space H is finite, then, the generalization error of a consistent (i.e. correctly classifying) hypothesis h can be bounded as:

$$P(\operatorname{error}_{\mathcal{X}}(h) > \varepsilon) \le |H|e^{-m\varepsilon}$$

... where |H| is the size of the hypothesis space, and m is the number of iid samples in the training set.

**Observation:** generalization error grows with the number of hypotheses and decreases with the number of data points.





### **Bounding Generalization Error**

If we take the bound from the previous slide and consider the probability to be constant

$$P(\operatorname{error}_{\mathcal{X}}(h) > \varepsilon) \le |H|e^{-m\varepsilon}$$

then, we can rewrite the bound in a more convenient way as

$$\operatorname{error}_{\mathcal{X}}(h) \leq \frac{\log|H| + \log\frac{1}{\delta}}{m}$$

i.e. generalization error grows with model complexity |H| and decreases with the training set size m.





## **Bounding Generalization Error**

Limitation of Haussler's bound:

It applies only to set of hypotheses that perfectly classify the data.
 What if we use a simple model (e.g. shallow decision tree or linear classifier?)

Another bound (derived from the Chernoff inequality) for the generalization error is given by:

$$\operatorname{error}_{\mathcal{X}}(h) \leq \operatorname{error}_{\mathcal{D}}(h) + \sqrt{\frac{\log |H| + \log \frac{1}{\delta}}{2m}}$$
 $\operatorname{training\ error}$ 
 $\sim \operatorname{bias}$ 
 $\operatorname{model\ complexity}$ 
 $\sim \operatorname{variance}$ 





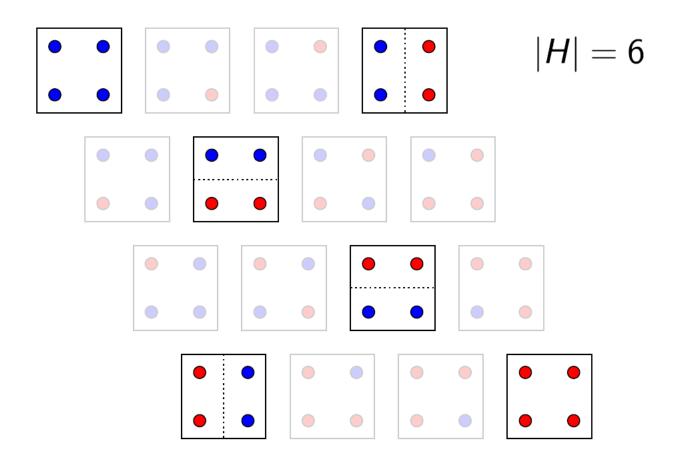
## **Application to Decision Trees**

Question: Can we bound the error of decision trees?

How large is the hypothesis space of decision trees?

$$\operatorname{error}_{\mathcal{X}}(h) \leq \operatorname{error}_{\mathcal{D}}(h) + \sqrt{\frac{\log|H| + \log\frac{1}{\delta}}{2m}}$$
 $\sim \text{bias}$ 
 $\sim \text{variance}$ 

## **Hypothesis Space – decision trees (level 1)**







# **Complexity of Decision Trees**

• **Example 1**: General decision tree with *n* binary features (i.e. expanded until it perfectly classifies data):

$$|H|=2^{2^n}$$

i.e. all possible lookup tables overn binary features.

• **Example 2**: Decision tree of depth 0:

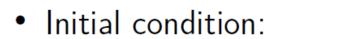
$$|H| = 2$$



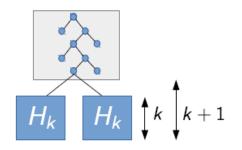


# **Complexity of Decision Trees**

Solution for trees of depth k: Use induction



$$|H_0| = 2$$



Recursion:

$$|H_{k+1}| = n imes |H_k| imes |H_k|$$
 choice of left right root attribute tree tree

Result

$$\log_2|H_k| = (2^k - 1)(1 + \log_2 n) + 1$$





# Wrap-up

How large is the hypothesis space of decision trees?

~ variance

$$\operatorname{error}_{\mathcal{X}}(h) \leq \operatorname{error}_{\mathcal{D}}(h) + \sqrt{\frac{\log|H| + \log\frac{1}{\delta}}{2m}}$$

#### Decision tree:

Depth 0
 (constant labeling)

$$\log_2|H_0|=1$$

~ bias

Depth k

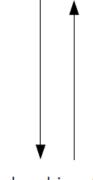
$$\log_2|H_k| = (2^k - 1)(1 + \log_2 n) + 1$$

Unrestricted

$$\log_2|H|=2^n$$



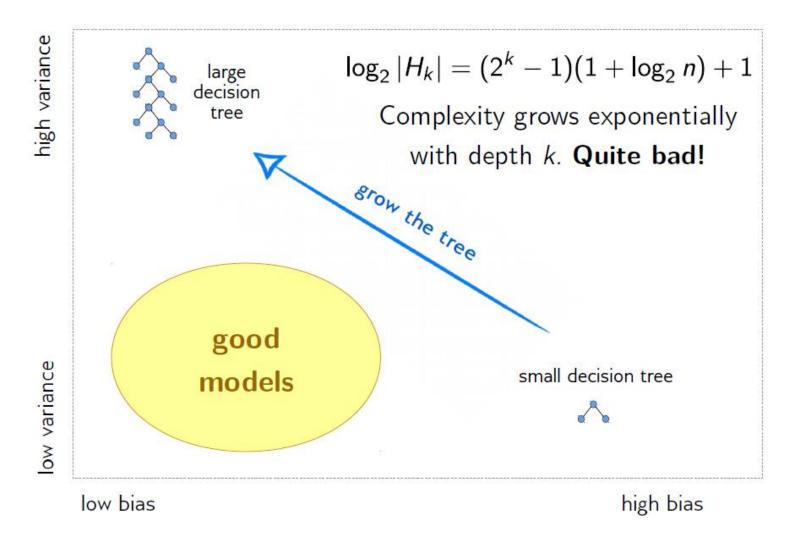
high bias / low variance



low bias /

high variance

#### **Decision Trees and Bias Variance**



# → We need better capacity control.

Idea: combine decision trees with averaging, boosting.

# DT- regularization via model averaging (ensembles)

Generalization error:  $\mathrm{E}\left[\left(y-\hat{f}\left(x
ight)\right)^{2}\right]=\mathrm{Bias}\left[\hat{f}\left(x
ight)\right]^{2}+\mathrm{Var}\left[\hat{f}\left(x
ight)\right]+\sigma^{2}$ 

bias: IOW (if sufficiently deep)

+ variance: high (sensitive to choice of splits)

+ residual error

Consequence: decision trees often produce noisy or weak classifiers!

Idea: Combine the predictions of several randomized trees into single model.





### **Toy Classification Problem**

### Bagging (Bootstrap aggregating)

Classifier  $C(\mathcal{S},x)$  training data S

# Train B models on different dataset:

Draw  $\mathcal{S}^{*1}, \dots \mathcal{S}^{*B}$  samples sets of length N (bootstrap samples: duplicates allowed!)

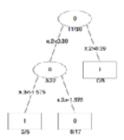
#### Prediction:

 $\hat{C}_{bag}(x) = \text{Majority Vote } \{C(\mathcal{S}^{*b}, x)\}_{b=1}^{B}$  (in classification; regression: avergage)

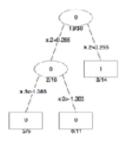
#### Original Tree



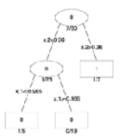
#### Bootstrap Tree 2



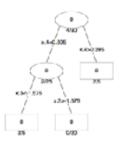
#### Bootstrap Tree 4



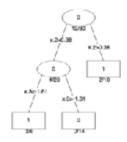
#### Bootstrap Tree 1



#### Bootstrap Tree 3



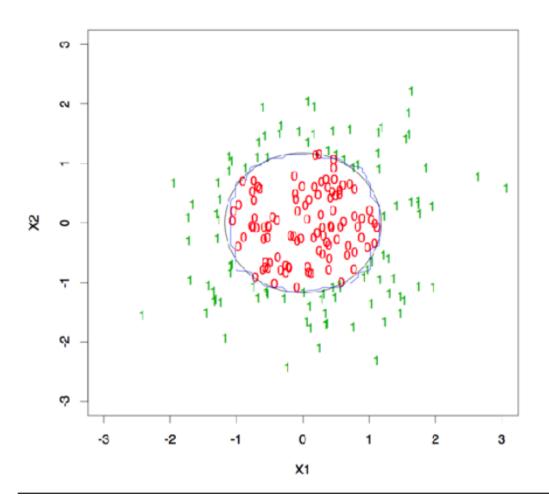
#### Bootstrap Tree 5







# **Toy Classification Problem - bagging**



# Improved prediction via reduced variance

Bagging averages trees for smoother decision boundaries.





# **Bagging - limitations**

- Datasets highly overlapping:
   Predictions of different trees become highly correlated.
- Variance not reduced as much as desired!





#### **Random Forrests - overview**

#### Random Subspace Method (Tin Kam Ho, 1998):

Randomly sample features  $x_i = (x_{i1}, x_{i2}, \dots, x_{ip})$  without replacement



De-correlates estimators and decreases variance of the aggregate.

#### Random Forest (Breiman, 1999):

Combination of Bagging + Random Subspace Method applied to decision trees

- Complexity control through "out-of-bag" control (estimate generalization error using untrained samples)
- Random feature selection either at tree or split level





### Random Forrests - algorithm

For b = 1 to B:

- (a) Draw a <u>bootstrap sample</u> (random sampling with replacement) of size N from the training data.
- (b) Grow a tree T<sub>b</sub> to the bootstrapped data until minimum node size reached:
  - Select m features at random.
  - ii. Pick best variable/split-point among the *m*.
  - iii. Split node into two daughter nodes.

Result: ensemble of B trees.

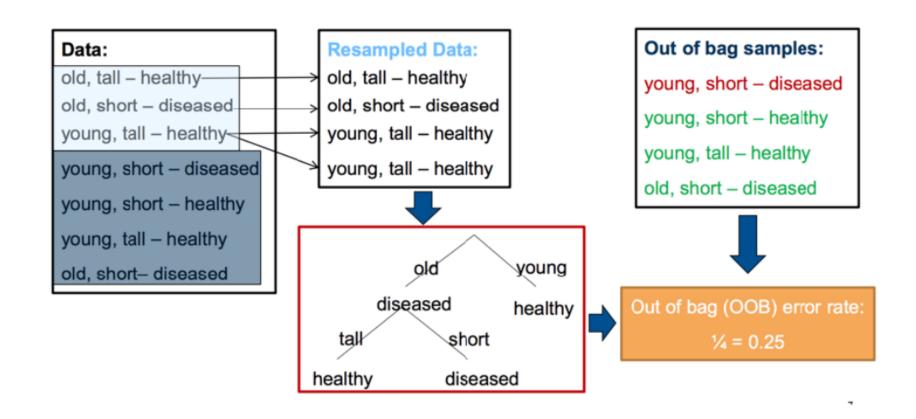
**Prediction:**  $\hat{f}_{\mathrm{rf}}^B(x) = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{b=1}^B T_b(x)$  (regression)

$$\hat{C}^{B}_{\mathrm{rf}}(x) = majority \ vote \ \{\hat{C}_{b}(x)\}_{1}^{B}$$
 (classification)





#### Random Forrests - algorithm







### Random Forrests – differences to single tree

- Train each tree on bootstrap resample of data.
- For each split: consider only a subset of m randomly selected features. (typically  $m = \sqrt{p}$  or  $\log_2 p$  were p is the total number of features)
- No pruning.
- Fit B trees this way and aggregate predictions.





## Random Forrests – differences to single tree

#### Single Trees

- + yield insight into decision rules
- + rather fast
- + easy to tune parameters
- predictions with high variance

#### **Random Forests**

- + smaller prediction variance: better performance
- + easy to tune parameters
- slower
- "black box"





### **Boosting - conceptually**

**Idea:** given a weak learner, run it multiple times on (reweighted) training data, then let learned classifiers vote.

#### On each iteration:

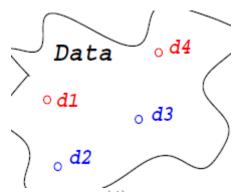
- <u>Like in bagging</u>, draw a sample of the observations from data (with replacement).
- <u>Unlike in bagging</u>, observations are not sampled randomly Higher weight observations are more likely chosen.
- Weight each training example by how incorrectly it was classified.
   Weight is higher for examples that are harder to classify.





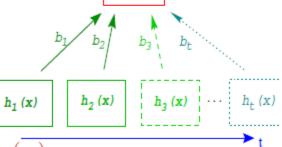
# The Adaboost Algorithm

Input: N examples  $\{(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), \dots, (\mathbf{x}_N, y_N)\}$ Initialize:  $d_i^{(1)} = 1/N$  for all  $i = 1 \dots N$ Do for  $t = 1, \dots, T$ ,



- 1. Train base learner according to example distribution  $\mathbf{d}^{(t)}$  and obtain hypothesis  $h_t: \mathbf{x} \mapsto \{\pm 1\}$ .
- 2. compute weighted error  $\epsilon_t = \sum_{i=1}^N d_i^{(t)} \mathrm{I}(y_i \neq h_t(\mathbf{x}_i))$
- 3. compute hypothesis weight  $\alpha_t = \frac{1}{2} \log \frac{1 \epsilon_t}{\epsilon_t}$
- 4. update example distribution

$$d_i^{(t+1)} = d_i^{(t)} \exp\left(-\alpha_t y_i h_t(\mathbf{x}_i)\right) / Z_t$$



**Output:** final hypothesis  $f_{\mathsf{Ens}}(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{t=1}^{T} \alpha_t h_t(\overline{\mathbf{x}})$ 



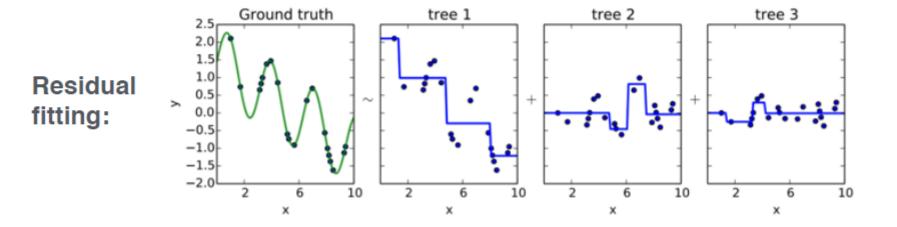


### **Gradient Tree Boosting - conceptually**

**Idea:** Iteratively improve a weak learner by correcting it:  $F_{m+1}(x) = F_m(x) + h(x)$ 

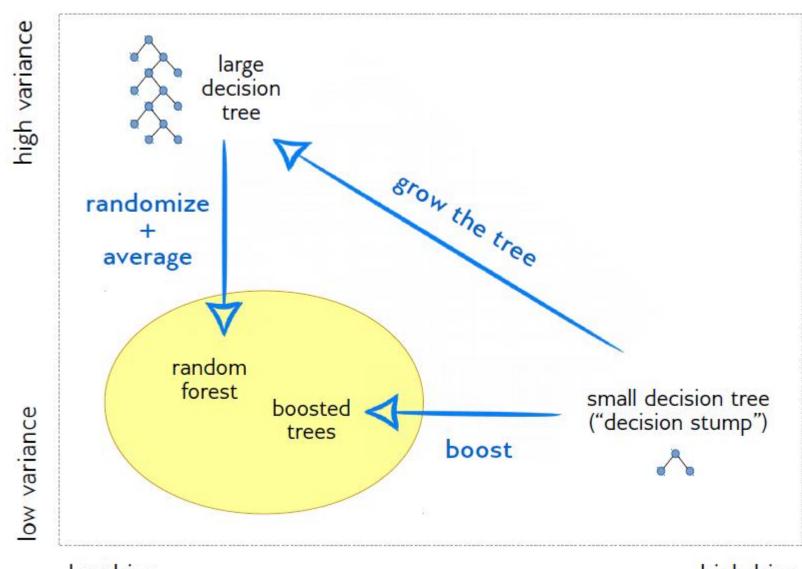
A perfect correction h(x) implies: 
$$F_{m+1}(x) = F_m(x) + h(x) = y$$
  
i.e.  $h(x) = y - F_m(x)$ 

Hence we fit a new tree to the residual:  $y - F_m(x)$   $\longrightarrow$   $\frac{1}{2}(y - F(x))^2$  (negative gradient of quadratic loss function)



Gradient boosting is a gradient descent algorithm and can be trivially generalized with other loss functions and their gradients.

#### **Decision Trees and Bias Variance**



low bias

high bias