# Tree-based Inference

March 4, 2019

```
In [1]: import numpy as np
    import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
    import pandas as pd
    import xgboost as xgb

from time import time
    from sklearn.model_selection import KFold, cross_val_score
    from sklearn.linear_model import LogisticRegression, ElasticNet
    from sklearn.naive_bayes import GaussianNB
    from sklearn.neighbors import KNeighborsClassifier
    from sklearn.pipeline import Pipeline
    from sklearn.tree import DecisionTreeClassifier
    from sklearn.ensemble import BaggingClassifier, RandomForestClassifier
    from sklearn.metrics import accuracy_score, roc_auc_score
    from pyearth import Earth
```

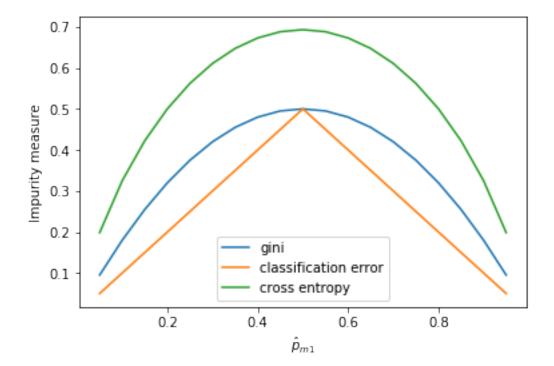
# 1 Conceptual exercises

#### 1.1 Cost functions for classification trees

Consider the Gini index, classification error, and cross-entropy in a simple classification setting with two classes.

1.1.1 Create a single plot in Python or R that displays each of these quantities as a function of  $\hat{p}_{m1}$ . The x-axis should display  $\hat{p}_{m1}$ , ranging from 0 to 1, and the y-axis should display the value of the Gini index, classification error, and cross-entropy.

```
plt.plot(p_lst, crsentr, label='cross entropy')
plt.legend()
plt.xlabel(r"$\hat{p}_{m1}$"); plt.ylabel("Impurity measure")
plt.show()
```



# 1.1.2 Of these three possible cost functions, which would be best to use when growing a decision tree? Which would be best to use when pruning a decision tree? Why?

When growing a decision tree, we want the cost functions that can generate higher node purity. In that case, we normally would use Gini index, or cross entropy to grow the tree, as they are more sensitive to node purity. When pruning a tree, we want to make sure the trained decision tree is not overfitting the training set data. Therefore, we would use the classification to prune the tree.

# 1.2 Predictions from tree-aggregation methods

Suppose we produce ten bootstrapped samples from a data set containing red and green classes. We then apply a classification tree to each of the bootstrapped samples and, for a specific value of X, produce 10 estimates of  $Pr(Class\ is\ Red\ |\ X)$ : 0.1, 0.15, 0.2, 0.2, 0.55, 0.6, 0.6, 0.6, 0.7, 0.75

There are two common ways to combine these results together into a single class prediction. One is the majority vote approach, and the second is to classify based on the average probability.

#### 1.2.1 What is the final classification under the majority vote approach?

```
In [5]: p_red = np.array([0.1, 0.15, 0.2, 0.2, 0.55, 0.6, 0.6, 0.65, 0.7, 0.75])
```

By aggregating all these tree models, we can see that more of them classified this sample as red. So, the final classification is red.

## 1.2.2 What is the final classification based on the average probability?

By averaging all these probabilities, the probability that the sample is red is 0.45(less than 0.5). Therefore, we would classify the sample as green.

1.2.3 What is  $Pr(Class\ is\ Red\ |\ X)$ ? That is, what is the probability this specific observation is "Red" given the 10 classification trees? Compare the result if you calculate the probability using the voting proportions from the majority vote approach versus averaging each of the individual classification tree predicted probabilities. Which approach is correct?

I think the average probability will is more correct in a sense it captures more information on how confidenty we are about the prediction. For example, a sample with a probability of 0.6 to be red will be calculated as 1 in the majority vote approach, whereas average can maintain the probability prediction as 0.6. So, the avearge probability is a more solid model.

# 1.3 Standardization using xgboost

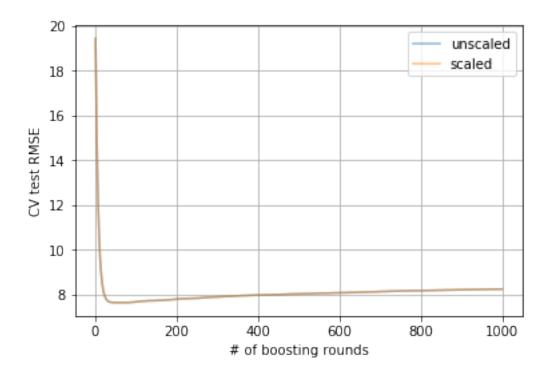
Evaluate the performance of xgboost using gss\_train.csv, predicting egalit\_scale as a function of all the other covariates. Estimate two separate models with 1000 trees using 5-fold cross-validation (leave all other hyperparameter settings at their default values):

- One with unstandardized predictors
- One with standardized predictors

Record the time it takes your computer to estimate each model and compare the performance of each model based on the CV MSE.

```
x = gss_train.drop('egalit_scale', axis=1).values
        y = gss_train['egalit_scale'].values
In [10]: data_dmatrix_unscaled = xgb.DMatrix(data=x,label=y)
         x_scaled = (x-x.mean(0))/np.std(x, axis=0)
         data_dmatrix_scaled = xgb.DMatrix(data=x_scaled, label=y)
In [11]: %%capture
         # build the unscaled model
         params = {"objective":"reg:linear",'colsample_bytree': 1,'learning_rate': 0.1,'max_dej
         s = time()
         cv_results_unscaled = xgb.cv(dtrain=data_dmatrix_unscaled, params=params, nfold=5,
                             num_boost_round=1000, metrics="rmse", as_pandas=True, seed=123)
         time_unscaled = time()-s
In [12]: %%capture
         # Build the unscaled model
         params = {"objective":"reg:linear",'colsample_bytree': 1,'learning_rate': 0.1,'max_de
         s = time()
         cv_results_scaled = xgb.cv(dtrain=data_dmatrix_scaled, params=params, nfold=5,
                             num_boost_round=1000, metrics="rmse", as_pandas=True, seed=123)
         time_scaled = time()-s
1.3.1 Do the models perform substantially differently in terms of error? Why or why not?
In [13]: plt.plot(range(1,1001), cv_results_unscaled['test-rmse-mean'], alpha=0.5, label = 'unstale'
         plt.plot(range(1,1001), cv_results_scaled['test-rmse-mean'], alpha=0.5, label = 'scale'
         plt.xlabel("# of boosting rounds"); plt.ylabel('CV test RMSE')
         plt.legend()
         plt.grid()
         plt.show()
```

In [9]: gss\_train = pd.read\_csv("./data/gss\_train.csv", dtype=float)



As we can see from the graph, the two models do not differ in terms of prediction error. This is because this is a binary spiliting algorithm, so the distance to the original points does not matter. The splitting decision is not affected by whether the predicting variables are scaled or not.

# 1.3.2 Do the models perform substantially differently in terms of computational efficiency? Why or why not?

The XGBoost with unscaled predictors took 10.5231032371521 seconds The XGBoost with scaled predictors took 10.32926607131958 seconds

Both models can run pretty efficiently and their time consumption is very similar. There is not much efficiency gain or loss from scaling, as the global loss function is convex, and the models are basically following the same branching strategy. Hence, there is not much difference regarding predictor scaling.

# 2 Predicting attitudes towards racist college professors

```
y_train = gss_train['colrac'].values
x_train = gss_train.drop(['colrac'], axis=1).values
y_test = gss_test['colrac'].values
x_test = gss_test.drop(['colrac'], axis=1).values
model_lst = []
```

#### 2.1 Estimate statistical models

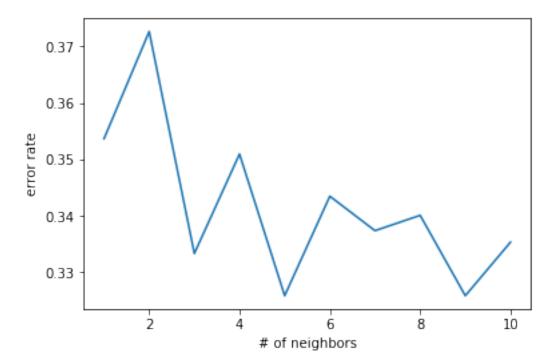
# 2.1.1 Logistic Regression

```
In [16]: model_lst.append(LogisticRegression(C=1e6))
```

## 2.1.2 Naive Bayes

```
In [17]: model_lst.append(GaussianNB())
```

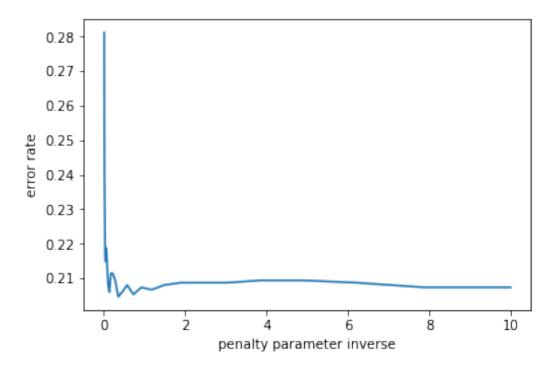
## 2.1.3 K-nearest neighbors



The error rate is the smallest at K=9

In [20]: model\_lst.append(KNeighborsClassifier(n\_neighbors=np.argmin(errors\_knn)+1))

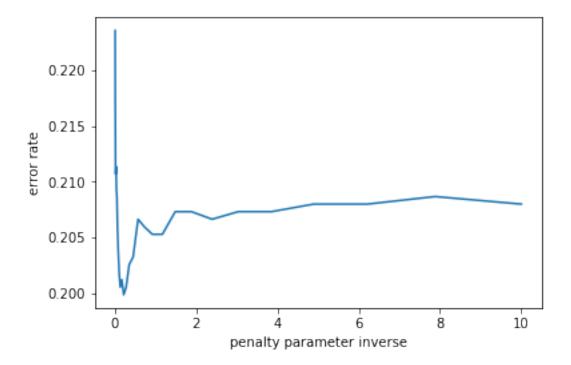
# 2.1.4 Ridge regression



The error rate is the smallest when C=0.3562247890262442

```
In [23]: model_lst.append(LogisticRegression(C=c_lst[np.argmin(errors_ridge)], penalty='l1'))
```

## 2.1.5 Lasso regression



The error rate is the smallest when C=0.2212216291070449

```
In [26]: model_lst.append(LogisticRegression(C=c_lst[np.argmin(errors_lasso)], penalty='12'))
```

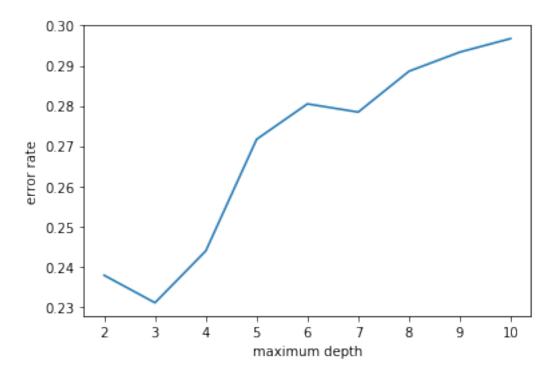
#### 2.1.6 MARS

```
In [27]: model_lst.append(Pipeline([('earth', Earth()),('logistic', LogisticRegression())]))
```

#### 2.1.7 Decision Tree

plt.show()

print("The error rate is the smallest when d={}".format(np.argmin(errors\_dt)+2))

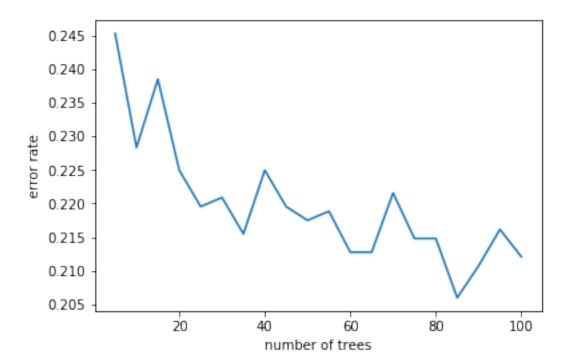


The error rate is the smallest when d=3

In [30]: model\_lst.append(DecisionTreeClassifier(max\_depth=np.argmin(errors\_dt)+2))

# 2.1.8 Bagging

print("The error rate is the smallest when n={}".format(n\_tree[np.argmin(errors\_bagging)])

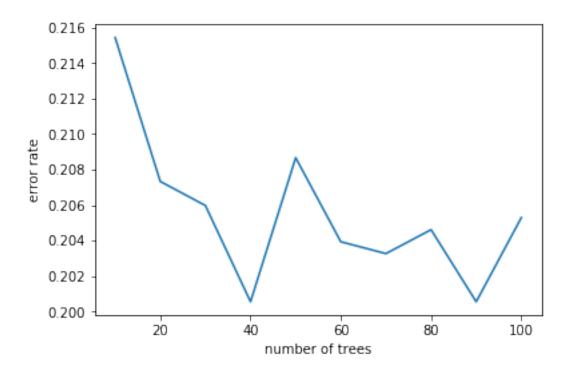


The error rate is the smallest when n=85

In [33]: model\_lst.append(BaggingClassifier(n\_estimators=n\_tree[np.argmin(errors\_bagging)]))

#### 2.1.9 Random forest

```
In [34]: n_tree = np.arange(10, 101, 10)
         max_depth = np.arange(2, 11)
         errors_rf = []; opt_depth = []
         for n in n_tree:
             errors = []
             for d in max_depth:
                 model = RandomForestClassifier(n_estimators=n, max_depth=d)
                 error = 1-np.mean(cross_val_score(model, x_train, y_train, cv=KFold(5), scori
                 errors.append(error)
             idx = np.argmin(errors)
             errors_rf.append(errors[idx])
             opt_depth.append(max_depth[idx])
In [35]: plt.plot(n_tree, errors_rf)
         plt.xlabel("number of trees"); plt.ylabel("error rate")
         plt.show()
         opt_idx = np.argmin(errors_rf)
         print("The error rate is the smallest when n={} and max-depth={}".format(n_tree[opt_ient)]
```



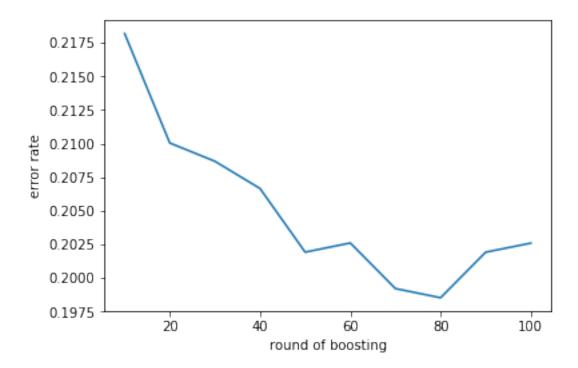
The error rate is the smallest when n=40 and max-depth=9

In [36]: model\_lst.append(RandomForestClassifier(n\_estimators=n\_tree[opt\_idx], max\_depth=opt\_d

## 2.1.10 Boosting

plt.show()

```
opt_idx = np.argmin(errors_xgboost)
print("The error rate is the smallest when n={} and max-depth={}".format(n_tree[opt_identified to the smallest when n={}).
```



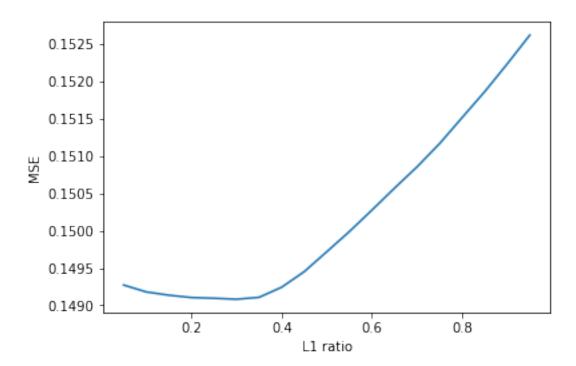
The error rate is the smallest when n=80 and max-depth=4

In [39]: model\_lst.append(xgb.XGBClassifier(objective="binary:logistic", n\_estimators=n\_tree[original])

#### 2.1.11 Elastic net

Seems like that the Scikit-Learn's Logistic Regression can't implement the L1 and L2 penalty at the same time. Therefore, I would run a simple ElasticNet Linear Probability Regression first

```
In [40]: mses_en = []; opt_alpha = []
    alpha_lst = np.logspace(-2, 1, 30);
    ratio_lst = np.arange(0.05, 1, 0.05)
    for r in ratio_lst:
        mses = []
        for a in alpha_lst:
            model = ElasticNet(alpha=a, l1_ratio=r)
            mse = -np.mean(cross_val_score(model, x_train, y_train, cv=KFold(5), scoring=
            mses.append(mse)
        idx = np.argmin(mses)
        mses_en.append(mses[idx])
        opt_alpha.append(alpha_lst[idx])
```



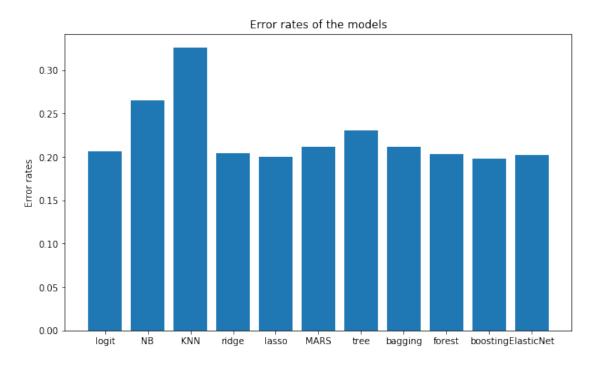
The MSE is the smallest when L1-ratio=0.30 and alpha=0.01

In [42]: model\_lst.append(ElasticNet(alpha=opt\_alpha[idx], l1\_ratio=ratio\_lst[idx]))

#### 2.2 Evaluate statistical models

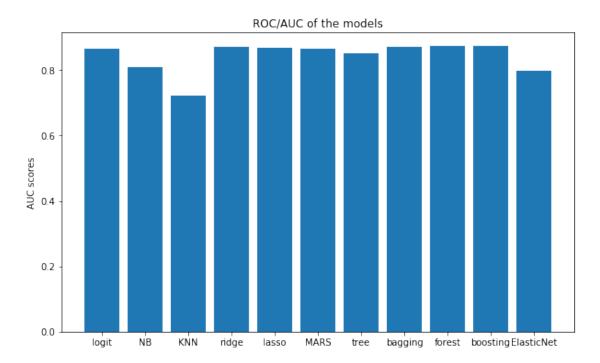
In [43]: model\_lst[-1]

```
In [45]: # Calaculate the CV error rate and AUC for ElasticNet model manually
                              model = model_lst[-1]
                              np.random.seed(1234)
                               idx = np.random.choice(5, x_train.shape[0])
                               errors = []; aucs = []
                              for i in range(5):
                                            x = x_train[idx!=i]; y = y_train[idx!=i]
                                             res = model.fit(X=x, y=y)
                                            pred = 1*(res.predict(x_train[idx==i])>0.5); y_true = y_train[idx==i]
                                             error = 1 - accuracy_score(y_true, pred); errors.append(error)
                                             auc = roc_auc_score(y_true, pred); aucs.append(auc)
                               error_lst.append(np.mean(errors))
                               auc_lst.append(np.mean(aucs))
In [46]: plt.figure(figsize=(10,6))
                              plt.bar(range(len(model_lst)), error_lst)
                              plt.ylabel('Error rates')
                              plt.title('Error rates of the models')
                              plt.xticks(range(len(model_lst)), ('logit', 'NB', 'KNN', 'ridge', 'lasso', 'MARS', 'tange', 'mars', 'm
                                                                                                                                                         , 'bagging', 'forest', 'boosting', 'ElasticNet'))
                              plt.show()
```



```
In [47]: plt.figure(figsize=(10,6))
        plt.bar(range(len(model_lst)), auc_lst)
        plt.ylabel('AUC scores')
        plt.title('ROC/AUC of the models')
```

```
plt.xticks(range(len(model_lst)), ('logit', 'NB', 'KNN', 'ridge', 'lasso', 'MARS', 'tagging', 'forest', 'boosting', 'ElasticNet'))
plt.show()
```



The lasso model has the lowest error rates of all, and the random forest model hits the top AUC score that has a slight edge over lasso. Therefore, I would argue that lasso has the best cross validation performance and I will proceed with the lasso model.

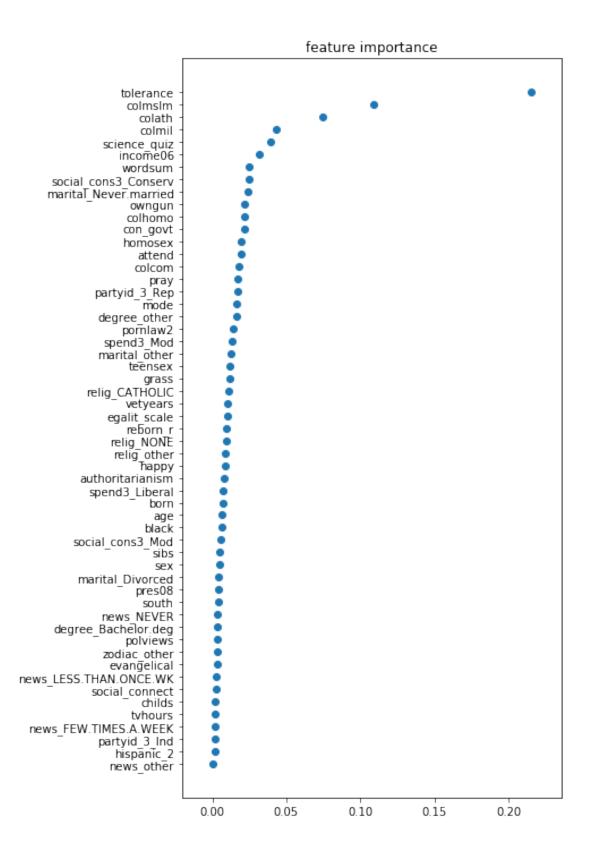
## 2.3 Interpret the best model

I will proceed with the lasso model.

## 2.3.1 Feature Importance

2019-03-04 16:06:03,615 - skater.core.explanations - WARNING - Progress bars slow down runs by faster runs, do progress\_bar=False

[55/55] features Time elapsed: 4 seconds

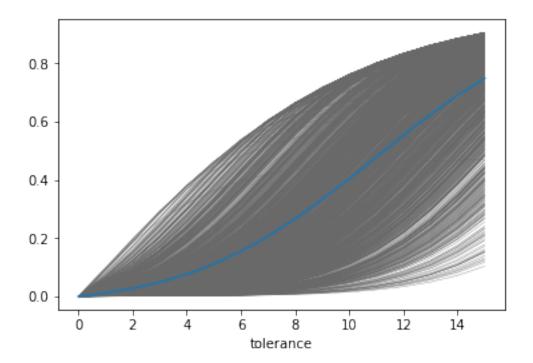


As we can see from the feature importance ranking, the most important feature here is the

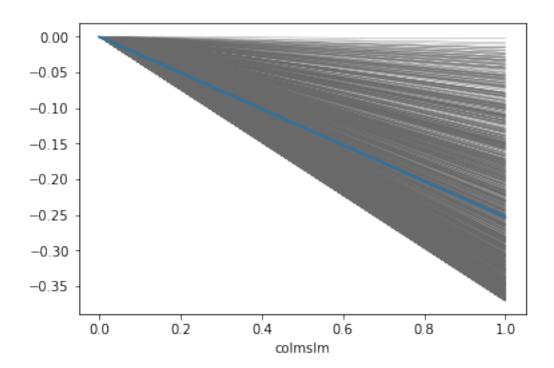
tolerance, colmslm, and colath.

## 2.3.2 PDPs/ICE

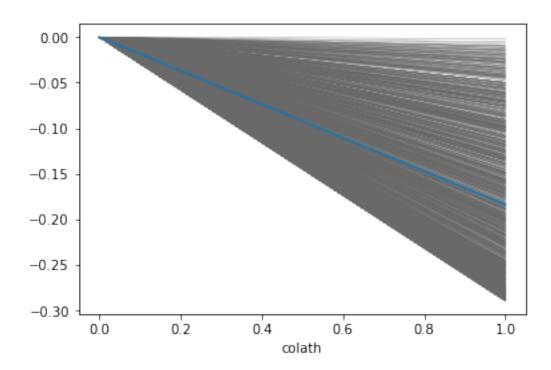
```
In [51]: from pycebox.ice import ice, ice_plot
```



The tolerance is positively associated with colrac.

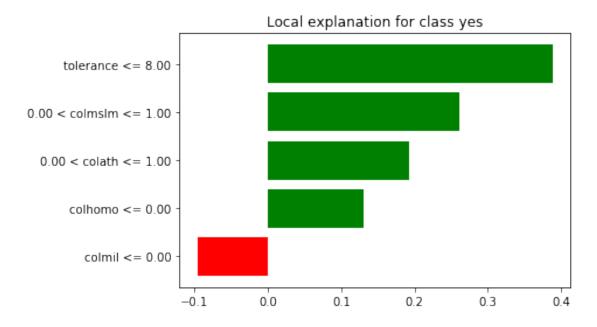


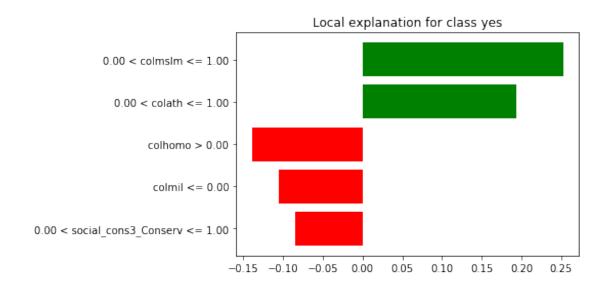
The colmslm is negatively associated with colrac.

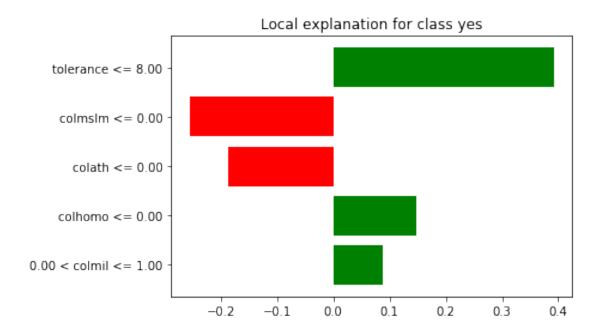


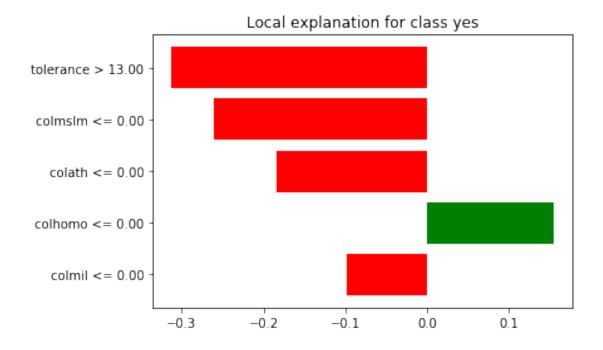
The colath is negatively associated with colrac.

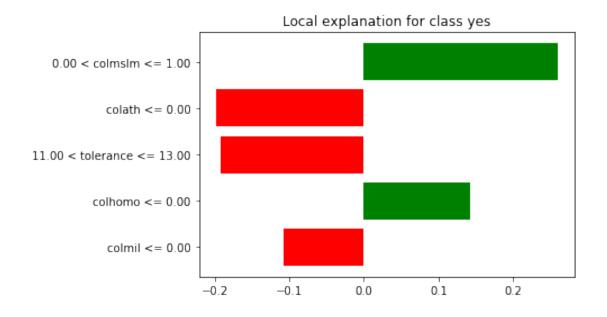
#### 2.3.3 LIME











From the first five observations of the gss\_local dataset, we can see that the most important features are still tolerance, colmslm, colath, colhomo, colmil. But the direction of their effects vary among these five samples.

#### 2.4 Evaluate the best model

As we can see from these comparisons, the error rate is a bit inflated on the testing set, while the AUC score is deflated on the testing set. The model does not generalize very will externally.