

- Decision trees
- Ensemble methods
- Bagging
- Random forests
- Boosting

## Machine learning - Block 2

Måns Magnusson Department of Statistics, Uppsala University

Autumn 2023



- Decision trees
- Ensemble methods
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## This week's lecture

- Trees
- Bagging
- Random Forest
- Boosting (Trees)



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## Assignment 1

#### Short evaluation.

- 1. Research ammanuens positions ()
- 2. Master Thesis projects (deadline friday)



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## Section 1

#### Decision trees



- Decision trees
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 A popular method that can be used for both classification and regression is decision trees.



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- Have you ever played the game "20 questions"?



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- Have you ever played the game "20 questions"?
- Decision trees is more or less that game!



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- A popular method that can be used for both classification and regression is decision trees.
- Have you ever played the game "20 questions"?
- Decision trees is more or less that game!
- In the case of classification, the idea is to classify the new observation by
  - 1. Asking a questions
  - 2. Based on the previous answer, ask new question
  - 3. Questions are asked until a conclusion is reached



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Name	Body temp	Gives birth	Legs	Class
Human	warm-blooded	yes	yes	mammal
Whale	warm-blooded	yes	no	mammal
Cat	warm-blooded	yes	yes	mammal
Cow	warm-blooded	yes	yes	mammal
Python	cold-blooded	no	no	reptile
Komodo dragon	cold-blooded	no	yes	reptile
Turtle	cold-blooded	no	yes	reptile
Salmon	cold-blooded	no	no	fish
Eel	cold-blooded	no	no	fish
Pigeon	warm-blooded	no	yes	bird
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Classify Komodo dragon with a decision tree:

1. Does it give live birth?



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#### Classify Komodo dragon with a decision tree:

- 1. Does it give live birth? (No!)
- 2. Is it warm-blooded?



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#### Classify Komodo dragon with a decision tree:

- 1. Does it give live birth? (No!)
- 2. Is it warm-blooded? (No!)
- 3. Does it have legs?



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#### Classify Komodo dragon with a decision tree:

- 1. Does it give live birth? (No!)
- 2. Is it warm-blooded? (No!)
- 3. Does it have legs? (Yes!)  $\rightarrow$  Reptile



#### Decision trees

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# Regression trees: The regions of a tree

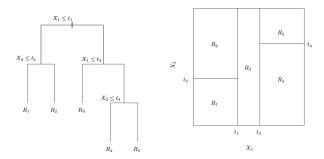


Figure: Regions of a tree (Garreth et al, 2013, Fig. 8.3)



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## Regression Trees

$$T(x) = \sum_{m=1}^{M} \gamma_m I(x \in R_m),$$

where M is the total number of regions and  $I(x \in R_m)$  is an indicator variable if  $x_i$  belongs to region  $R_m$  and  $\gamma_m$  is the prediction for region m.



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## Regression Trees

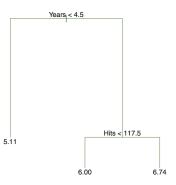


Figure: Regression Tree (Garreth et al, 2013, Fig. 8.1.)

- The Hitters dataset: log Salaries of Baseball players.
- The end of the tree contain the observations.



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## Regression Trees

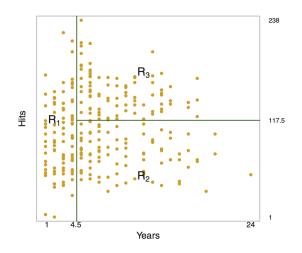


Figure: Hitters data and regression tree regions (Garreth et al, 2013, Fig. 8.2.)



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1. A tree has two groups of parameters  $\Theta = (\gamma, R)$  that we need to learn.



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- 3. Usually we estimate  $\gamma_m$  as the mean of  $y_i$  in the region as:

$$\hat{\gamma}_m = \frac{1}{N_m} \sum_{\mathbf{x}:\in R_m}^{N_m} y_i \,,$$

where  $N_m$  is the number of observations in region  $R_m$ .



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4. Learning  $R_m$  exact is generally computationally infeasable so we use a greedy heuristic.



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# Growing a Decision Tree: Greedy Algorithm

Let S be the set of all observations  $\{1,...,N\}$  and S[[m]] be the set of observation indecies in  $R_m$  and 1 is the minimal number of leafs per node.

Input: S, X, y, 1

- 1. S[[1]] = S,M = 1, m = 1
- 2. while m <= M then do:</pre>

  - 2.2 else
  - 2.2.1 compute  $\hat{\gamma}$  for S[[m]]
  - 2.3 m = m + 1

Output:  $j, s, \gamma$ 

Example of a tree: j = {Years, Hits}, s = {4.5, 117.5},  $\hat{\gamma} = \{122, 317, 245\}$ 



#### Decision trees

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# How to do a split?

Here we try to compute Eq. (9.12-9.14) in ESL:

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

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

Inner minimization is solved by:

$$\hat{c}_m = \frac{1}{N_m} \sum_{\mathbf{y} \in R}^{N_m} y_i,$$



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## How to do a split? Pseudo-code

#### Input: $\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y}, I$

- 1.  $SS = Inf \# Store sum of squares in matrix of dim <math>P \times N_s$
- 2.  $S = Inf \# Store split point in matrix of dim <math>P \times N_s$
- 3. for  $j \in \{1, ..., P\}$  # all features
  - 3.1 for  $k \in \{1, ..., N_s\}$  # all observations in set s
    - 3.1.1  $s = x_{k,j} \# Split point (use the value of x)$
    - 3.1.2 if  $(|R_1(s,j)| < l \text{ or } |R_2(s,j)| < l)$  next # Dont create too few leaves
    - 3.1.3  $\hat{c}_1 = \frac{1}{|R_1(s,j)|} \sum_{x_i \in R_1(s,j)} y_i$
    - 3.1.4  $\hat{c}_2 = \frac{1}{|R_2(s,j)|} \sum_{x_i \in R_2(s,j)} y_i$
    - 3.1.5  $SS_{k,j} = \sum_{x_i \in R_1(s,j)} (y_i c_1)^2 + \sum_{x_i \in R_2(s,j)} (y_i c_2)^2 \#$  Compute Sum of Squares
    - 3.1.6  $S_{k,j} = s$
- 4.  $k_{final}, j_{final} = \min_{k,j} SS$
- 5.  $s_{final} = S_{k_{final}, j_{final}}$
- 6. return  $R_1(s_{final}, j_{final}), R_2(s_{final}, j_{final}), s_{final}, j_{final}$



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• How do we do if we have a classification tree?



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- We just change the loss function  $L(\theta)$ .



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- Let p(j|t) be the fraction of observations in class j at the node t and let J be the number of classes.



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- Let p(j|t) be the fraction of observations in class j at the node t and let J be the number of classes.
- The Gini for node t is defined as

$$Gini(t) = 1 - \sum_{j=1}^{J} p(j|t)^2$$



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• Gini is a measure of "impurity". If all observations belong to the same class, then

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- One criterion for splitting could be to minimize the Gini in the next level of the tree. That way we will get "purer" nodes.



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 Tree depth: the length of the longest path from the root to a leaf (i.e. greatest number of questions that the tree can ask).



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Decision trees can become quite large, which may lead to:

- Overfitting (high variance)
- Difficulties interpreting the tree



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The solution to this is

 Pruning: forcing the tree to be smaller by adding a stopping condition, e.g. a maximum depth or minimal leaf size.



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The solution to this is

- Pruning: forcing the tree to be smaller by adding a stopping condition, e.g. a maximum depth or minimal leaf size.
- But decision trees are quite bad predition models...



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#### Section 2

#### Ensemble methods



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Simulated example (Prize academy, see ESL):

 50 members vote in 10 categories, each with 4 nominations.



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Simulated example (Prize academy, see ESL):

- 50 members vote in 10 categories, each with 4 nominations.
- 2. For any category, only 15 voters have some knowledge (p > 0.25)



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Simulated example (Prize academy, see ESL):

- 50 members vote in 10 categories, each with 4 nominations.
- 2. For any category, only 15 voters have some knowledge (p > 0.25)
- 3. For each category, the 15 experts are chosen at random from the 50.



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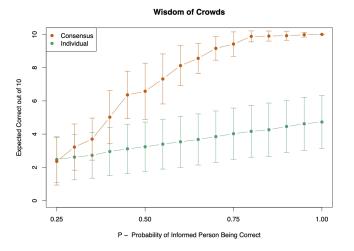


Figure: Simulated Award Voting, Fig. 8.11 (ESL)



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### General idea of ensembles

The idea of an ensemble is simple: If it difficult to find one really good model perhaps we can find several weaker models and combine their predictions.



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#### General idea of ensembles

The idea of an ensemble is simple: If it difficult to find one really good model perhaps we can find several weaker models and combine their predictions.

A simple example: Say you have one outcome Y and 4 covariates  $X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4$ . The goal is to predict Y. A possible ensemble would be to fit

$$y = \alpha_1 + \beta_1 X_1 + \epsilon_1$$
$$y = \alpha_2 + \beta_2 X_2 + \epsilon_2$$
$$y = \alpha_3 + \beta_3 X_3 + \epsilon_3$$
$$y = \alpha_4 + \beta_4 X_4 + \epsilon_4$$

and then use the mean of their predictions

$$\hat{y}_{ensemble} = \frac{1}{4} \sum_{i=1}^{4} \hat{y} = \frac{1}{4} \sum_{i=1}^{4} (\hat{\alpha}_i + \hat{\beta}_i X_i)$$
 (1)



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## Two key parts of an ensemble

- 1. The prediction models (sometimes called 'learners')
  - A single model in an ensemble can be a simple or a complex model
  - Often the ensemble contains many simple models.



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## Two key parts of an ensemble

- 1. The prediction models (sometimes called 'learners')
  - A single model in an ensemble can be a simple or a complex model
  - Often the ensemble contains many simple models.
- The weighting of each prediction in the final ensemble prediction
  - Many different algorithms for weighting together the predictions from many models
  - Models/learners with better predictive power can be given larger weights in the final prediction



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### Ensambles of decision trees

- A common type of ensembles is ensembles of decision trees.
- We will focus on this case, but note that any type of model can be included in an ensemble in principle.



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Remember, the error of a prediction/classification can be decomposed as

$$error = bias^2 + variance + bayeserror.$$
 (2)



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 Complex models/strong learners (with many parameters) tend to have small bias and large variance (tend to be overfitted)



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- Shallow models/weak learners (with few parameters) tend to have small variance and large bias



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- Complex models/strong learners (with many parameters) tend to have small bias and large variance (tend to be overfitted)
- Shallow models/weak learners (with few parameters) tend to have small variance and large bias

Bagging: Ensemble methods that aim to decrease the variance of complex/strong learners with low bias and large variance

Boosting: Ensemble methods that aim to decrease the bias of shallow/weak learners with low variance and large bias



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Section 3

Bagging



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# Bagging (Bootstrap AGGregating)

- Train several deep trees and combine their results
- Use bootstrap to train different trees

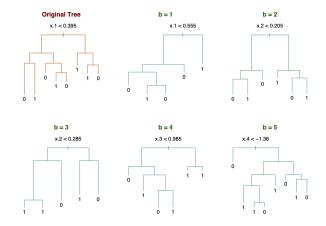


Figure: Bagging trees, Fig. 8.9 (ESL)



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# Bagging (Bootstrap AGGregating)

- 1. Draw, with replacement, a random sample of N units from the original sample
- 2. Fit a prediction model (e.g., a deep decision tree)
- 3. Repeat steps 1-2 B times
- 4. Weight together the predictions from the B models into a final ensemble prediction as

$$\hat{f}_{\text{bag}}(x_i) = \frac{1}{B} \sum_b \hat{f}^b(x_i) = \frac{1}{B} \sum_b \hat{T}(x_i | \Theta_b)$$



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#### Section 4

#### Random forests



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### Random Forest

 $\bullet \ \ A \ bagging \ ensemble \ method, \ but...$ 



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### Random Forest

- A bagging ensemble method, but...
- Sample of N observations and K covariates/features



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#### Random Forest

- A bagging ensemble method, but...
- Sample of N observations and K covariates/features
- It is common to use  $k = \sqrt{K}$  (rounded down) for classification and k = K/3 for regression. But these are only rules of thumb: k is a *tuning parameter*.



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## Random Forest: Algorithm

- 1. Draw, *with replacement*, a random sample of *N* units from the original sample
- 2. Draw, without replacement, a random subset of *k* covariates/features
- 3. Fit a prediction model (e.g., a decision tree)
- 4. Repeat step 1-3 B times
- 5. Weight together the predictions from the B models into a final ensemble prediction



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- Consider each tree to be an i.i.d. random variable with variance  $\sigma^2$ .
- The average of these trees then have variance

$$\mathbb{V}(\hat{f}(x) = \frac{1}{B}\sigma^2.$$



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- The average of these trees then have variance

$$\mathbb{V}(\hat{f}(x) = \frac{1}{B}\sigma^2.$$

- Trees constructed from the same set of covariates will be correlated and therefore not independent.
- The variance of the average of these correlated trees then becomes

$$\mathbb{V}(\hat{f}(x)) = \rho \sigma^2 + \frac{1 - \rho}{B} \sigma^2.$$



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• The variance of the average of correlated trees:

$$\mathbb{V}(\hat{f}(x)) = \rho \sigma^2 + \frac{1-\rho}{B} \sigma^2.$$

 The second term will vanish with increasing B leaving just the first term left: a function of the correlation between the trees



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$$\mathbb{V}(\hat{f}(x)) = \rho \sigma^2 + \frac{1 - \rho}{B} \sigma^2.$$

- The second term will vanish with increasing B leaving just the first term left: a function of the correlation between the trees
- The remaining part of the variance is minimized by only consider a subset of the covariates when constructing trees - reducing the correlation between trees.



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# Bagging vs. Random forest

- In bagging, the trees are often highly correlated
  - If some covariates are strong predictors of the outcome (in the training data), many trees in the 'bag' will us the same covariates in their decisions



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# Bagging vs. Random forest

- In bagging, the trees are often highly correlated
  - If some covariates are strong predictors of the outcome (in the training data), many trees in the 'bag' will us the same covariates in their decisions
- In a random forest, the trees are less similar/correlated since all covariates are not available when each tree is constructed.



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- Boosting

# Bagging vs. Random forest

- In bagging, the trees are often highly correlated
  - If some covariates are strong predictors of the outcome (in the training data), many trees in the 'bag' will us the same covariates in their decisions
- In a random forest, the trees are less similar/correlated since all covariates are not available when each tree is constructed.
- Intuition: A random forest (with many trees) uses the predictive ability of all covariates rather than just a few → improved out of sample performance.



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Section 5

Boosting



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1. In boosting, models/trees are trained sequentially



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- 1. In boosting, models/trees are trained sequentially
- 2. Each new model tries to target weak spots of the previous models in the ensemble to improve the performance of the ensemble



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- Fit a prediction model/classifier (e.g., a decision tree) using the original sample
  - Give the misclassified observations higher weights
- Draw, with replacement, with probability proportional to the weights, a random sample of N units from the original sample
- 3. Fit a prediction model/classifier (e.g., a *shallow* decision tree) using the new sample
- 4. Update the weights of each observation according to the average misclassification of the trained classifiers
- 5. Repeat step 2-4 B times
- Weight together the predictions from the B models into a final ensemble prediction, giving larger weights to classifiers with smaller errors



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For boosting to work well, the updates of the weights must be chosen in some clever way. One successful method is *gradient descent*.

We will not focus more on the particular algorithms. For now, we are satisfied with understanding the concept of boosting:

Train a bunch of classifiers sequentially. Force each new classifier to train more on data that the previous classifiers had problems with classifying by giving those samples a higher probability to be sampled.



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## $\mathsf{XGBoost}$

1. State of the Art method



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## XGBoost

- 1. State of the Art method
- 2. Use gradient boosting trees with regularization



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## **XGBoost**

- 1. State of the Art method
- 2. Use gradient boosting trees with regularization
- 3. Is scalable to very large data