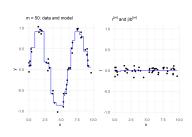
Introduction to Machine Learning

Gradient Boosting with Trees



Learning goals

- See how gradient boosting process is adapted for trees
- Understand relationship between model structure and interaction depth
- Understand multiclass extension for gradient boosting with trees

GRADIENT BOOSTING WITH TREES

Trees are mainly used as base learners for gradient boosting in ML. A great deal of research has been done on this combination so far, and it often provides the best results.

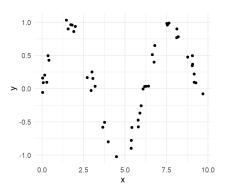
Reminder: advantages of trees

- No problems with categorical features.
- No problems with outliers in feature values.
- No problems with missing values.
- No problems with monotone transformations of features.
- Trees (and stumps!) can be fitted quickly, even for large *n*.
- Trees have a simple, built-in type of variable selection.

The gradient-boosted trees method retains all of them, and strongly improves the trees' predictive power. Furthermore, it is possible to adapt gradient boosting to tree learners in a targeted manner.

Simulation setting:

- Given: one feature *x* and one numeric target variable *y* of 50 observations.
- x is uniformly distributed between 0 and 10.
- y depends on x as follows: $y^{(i)} = \sin(x^{(i)}) + \epsilon^{(i)}$ with $\epsilon^{(i)} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 0.01)$, $\forall i \in \{1, \dots, 50\}$.

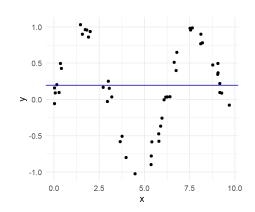


Aim: we want to fit a gradient boosting model to the data by using stumps as base learners.

Since we are facing a regression problem, we use *L*2 loss.

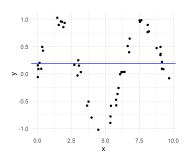
Iteration 0: initialization by optimal constant (mean) prediction $\hat{t}^{[0](i)}(x) = \bar{y} \approx 0.2$.

i	x ⁽ⁱ⁾	v ⁽ⁱ⁾	
1	0.03	0.16	0.20
2	0.03	-0.06	0.20
3	0.07	0.09	0.20
:	:		:
50	9.69	-0.08	0.20



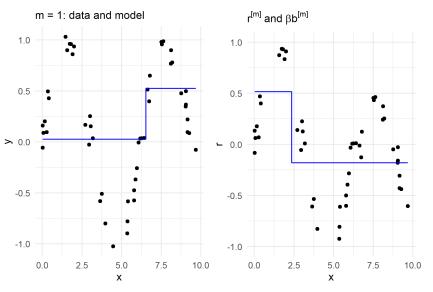
Iteration 1: (1) Calculate pseudo-residuals $\tilde{r}^{[m](i)}$ and (2) fit a regression stump $b^{[m]}$.

i	x ⁽ⁱ⁾	y ⁽ⁱ⁾	<i>f</i> [0]	~[1](i)	$\hat{b}^{[1](i)}$
1	0.03	0.16	0.20	-0.04	-0.17
2	0.03	-0.06	0.20	-0.25	-0.17
3	0.07	0.09	0.20	-0.11	-0.17
: 50	9.69	: -0.08	0.20	-0.27	0.33

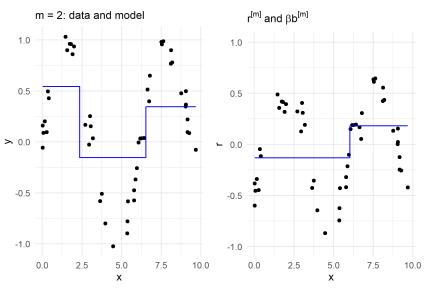


(3) Update model by $\hat{f}^{[1]}(x) = \hat{f}^{[0]}(x) + \hat{b}^{[1]}$.

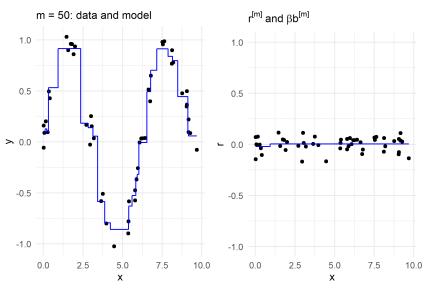
Repeat step (1) to (3):



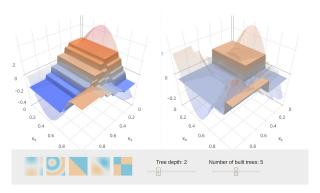
Repeat step (1) to (3):



Repeat step (1) to (3):



This website shows on various 3D examples how tree depth and number of iterations influence the model fit of a GBM with trees.



The model structure of a gradient boosting model with trees is influenced by the chosen tree / interaction depth of $b^{[m]}(\mathbf{x})$.

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{m=1}^{M} \beta^{[m]} b^{[m]}(\mathbf{x})$$

When using stumps (depth = 1), the resulting model is an additive model (GAM) without any interactions:

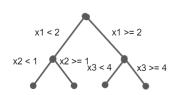
$$f(\mathbf{x}) = f_0 + \sum_{i=1}^{p} f_i(x_i)$$

When also including trees with a depth of 2, 2-way interactions are included and we get:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = f_0 + \sum_{j=1}^{p} f_j(x_j) + \sum_{j \neq k} f_{j,k}(x_j, x_k)$$

with f_0 being a constant intercept.

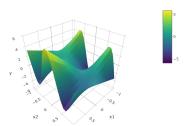




Simulation setting:

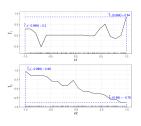
- Given: two features x_1 and x_2 and one numeric target variable y of 500 observations.
- x_1 and x_2 are uniformly distributed between -1 and 1.
- Target function: $y^{(i)} = x_1^{(i)} x_2^{(i)} + 5\cos(5x_2^{(i)}) \cdot x_1^{(i)} + \epsilon^{(i)}$ with $\epsilon^{(i)} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1), \forall i \in \{1, \dots, 500\}.$

We fit two tree-based GBMs, one with an interaction depth (ID) of 1 (GAM) and one with an interaction depth of 2 (all possible interactions included).

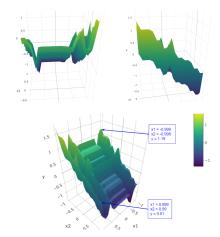


GBM with interaction depth of 1 (GAM)

No interactions are modelled: Marginal effects of x_1 and x_2 add up to joint effect (plus the constant intercept $\hat{f_0} = -0.07$).

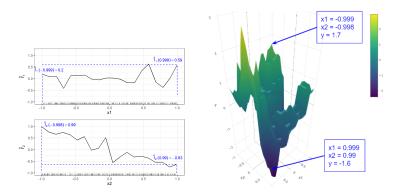


$$\hat{t}(-0.999, -0.998)
= \hat{t}_0 + \hat{t}_1(-0.999) + \hat{t}_2(-0.998)
= -0.07 + 0.3 + 0.96 = 1.19$$



GBM with interaction depth of 2

Interactions between x_1 and x_2 are modelled: Marginal effects of x_1 and x_2 do NOT add up to joint effect due to interaction effects.



One can write a tree as: $b(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{t=1}^{T} c_t \mathbb{1}_{\{\mathbf{x} \in R_t\}}$, where R_t are the terminal regions and c_t the corresponding constant parameters.

For a fitted tree with regions R_t , the special additive structure can be exploited in boosting:

$$\begin{split} f^{[m]}(\mathbf{x}) &= f^{[m-1]}(\mathbf{x}) + \beta^{[m]} b^{[m]}(\mathbf{x}) \\ &= f^{[m-1]}(\mathbf{x}) + \beta^{[m]} \sum_{t=1}^{T^{[m]}} c_t^{[m]} \mathbb{1}_{\{\mathbf{x} \in R_t^{[m]}\}} \\ &= f^{[m-1]}(\mathbf{x}) + \sum_{t=1}^{T^{[m]}} \tilde{c}_t^{[m]} \mathbb{1}_{\{\mathbf{x} \in R_t^{[m]}\}}. \end{split}$$

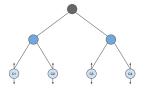
With $\tilde{c}_t^{[m]} = \beta^{[m]} \cdot c_t^{[m]}$ in the case that $\beta^{[m]}$ is a constant learning rate

We do the same steps as before: (1) calculate the pseudo-residuals, (2) fit a tree against pseudo-residuals, **but now** we keep only the structure of the tree and optimize the c parameter in a (further) post-hoc step.

$$f^{[m]}(\mathbf{x}) = f^{[m-1]}(\mathbf{x}) + \sum_{t=1}^{T^{[m]}} \tilde{\mathbf{c}}_t^{[m]} \mathbb{1}_{\{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{R}_t^{[m]}\}}.$$

We can determine/change all $\tilde{c}_t^{[m]}$ individually and directly L-optimally:

$$\tilde{c}_t^{[m]} = rg \min_{c} \sum_{\mathbf{x}^{(i)} \in \mathcal{B}_t^{[m]}} L(y^{(i)}, f^{[m-1]}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}) + c).$$



An alternative approach ist to directly fit a loss-optimal tree. The risk function is then defined by:

$$\mathcal{R}(\mathcal{N}') = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{N}'} L(y^{(i)}, f^{[m-1]}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}) + c)$$

with \mathcal{N}' being the index set of a specific (left or right) node after splitting and c being a constant value added to the current model for this node. Thus, instead of having a two-step approach of first fitting a tree to the pseudo-residuals of the current model and then finding the optimal value for c, we now directly build a tree that finds c loss-optimally. Since c is unknown, it needs to be determined, which can either be done by a line search or by taking the derivative:

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{R}(\mathcal{N}')}{\partial c} = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{N}'} \frac{\partial L(y^{(i)}, f^{[m-1]}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}) + c)}{\partial f|_{f=f^{[m-1]}+c}} = 0$$

Algorithm Tree Algorithm for Gradient Boosting.

```
1: Input: All observations \mathcal{N} and risk function \mathcal{R}
2: Output: \mathcal{N}_{l}^{j^{*},s^{*}} and \mathcal{N}_{r}^{j^{*},s^{*}}
3: for j=x_{1}\dots x_{p} do
4: for every split s on feature j do
5: \mathcal{N}_{l}^{j,s}=\{i\in\mathcal{N}\}_{j^{(l)}\leq s}
6: \mathcal{N}_{r}^{j,s}=\{i\in\mathcal{N}\}_{j^{(l)}>s}
7: Find c which minimizes \mathcal{R} for each node 8: \mathcal{I}(j,s)=\mathcal{R}(\mathcal{N}_{l}^{j,s})+\mathcal{R}(\mathcal{N}_{r}^{j,s})
9: end for
10: end for
11: (j^{*},s^{*})\in \arg\min_{j,s}\mathcal{I}(j,s)
```

The tree algorithm based on the CART algorithm of Breiman shows one partitioning step based on the risk function we introduced before.

- From Friedman, J. H. Greedy Function Approximation: A Gradient Boosting Machine (1999)
- Determining the tree structure for each $\hat{b}_k^{[m]}$ by L2 loss works just like before in the 2-class problem.
- In the estimation of the c values, i.e., the heights of the terminal regions, however, all models depend on each other because of the definition of L. Optimizing this is more difficult, so we will skip some details and present the main idea and results.

• The post-hoc, loss-optimal heights of the terminals $\hat{c}_{tk}^{[m]}$ are:

$$\hat{c}_{tk}^{[m]} = -\arg\min_{c_{tk}^{[m]}} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^g \mathbb{1}_{\{y=k\}} \ln \pi_k^{[m]}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}) \,.$$

- Softmax trafo: $\pi_k^{[m]}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\exp(f_k^{[m]}(\mathbf{x}))}{\sum_i \exp(f_i^{[m]}(\mathbf{x}))}$, with
- The *k*-th model: $\hat{t}_k^{[m]}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)})) = \hat{t}_k^{[m-1]}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}) + \sum_{t=1}^{T_k^{[m]}} \hat{c}_{tk}^{[m]} \mathbb{1}_{\{\mathbf{x}^{(i)} \in R_k^{[m]}\}}$.

- There is no closed-form solution for finding the optimal $\hat{c}_{tk}^{[m]}$ values. Additionally, the regions corresponding to the different class trees overlap, so that the solution does not reduce to a separate calculation within each region of each tree.
- Hence, we approximate the solution with a single Newton-Raphson step, using a diagonal approximation to the Hessian (we leave out the details here).
- This decomposes the problem into a separate calculation for each terminal node of each tree.
- The result is

$$\hat{c}_{tk}^{[m]} = \frac{g-1}{g} \frac{\sum_{\mathbf{x}^{(i)} \in R_{tk}^{[m]}} \tilde{r}_{k}^{[m](i)}}{\sum_{\mathbf{x}^{(i)} \in R_{tk}^{[m]}} \left| \tilde{r}_{k}^{[m](i)} \right| \left(1 - \left| \tilde{r}_{k}^{[m](i)} \right| \right)}.$$

Algorithm Gradient Boosting for *g*-class Classification.

```
1: Initialize f_{k}^{[0]}(\mathbf{x}) = 0, \ k = 1, \dots, g
 2: for m = 1 \rightarrow M do
               Set \pi_k(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\exp(f_k^{[m]}(\mathbf{x}))}{\sum_i \exp(f_i^{[m]}(\mathbf{x}))}, k = 1, \dots, g
 3:
 4:
               for k = 1 \rightarrow g do
                       For all i: Compute \tilde{r}_k^{[m](i)} = \mathbb{1}_{\{v(i)=k\}} - \pi_k(\mathbf{x}^{(i)})
 5:
                       Fit regr. tree to the \tilde{r}_{k}^{[m](i)} giving terminal regions R_{i\nu}^{[m]}
 6:
                       Compute
                              \hat{C}_{lk}^{[m]} = \frac{g-1}{g} \frac{\sum_{\mathbf{x}^{(l)} \in R_{lk}^{[m]}} r_k^{r_{lk}^{(m)} r_k^{(m)}}}{\sum_{\mathbf{x}^{(l)} \in R_{lm}^{[m]}} |\hat{r}_k^{[m](l)}| \left(1 - |\tilde{r}_k^{[m](l)}|\right)}
 8:
                       Update \hat{f}_k^{[m]}(\mathbf{x}) = \hat{f}_k^{[m-1]}(\mathbf{x}) + \sum_t \hat{c}_{tk}^{[m]} \mathbb{1}_{\{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{B}^{[m]}\}}
 9:
10:
                 end for
11: end for
12: Output \hat{f}_1^{[M]} \dots \hat{f}_n^{[M]}
```