Big Data Computing

Master's Degree in Computer Science 2019-2020

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Recap from Last Lectures

- We presented 2 linear models: linear regression and logistic regression
- Those hypotheses work well whenever there exists a linear relationship between the features (input) and the response (output)
- Model's parameter estimation done either analytically (OLS) or iteratively (Gradient Descent)

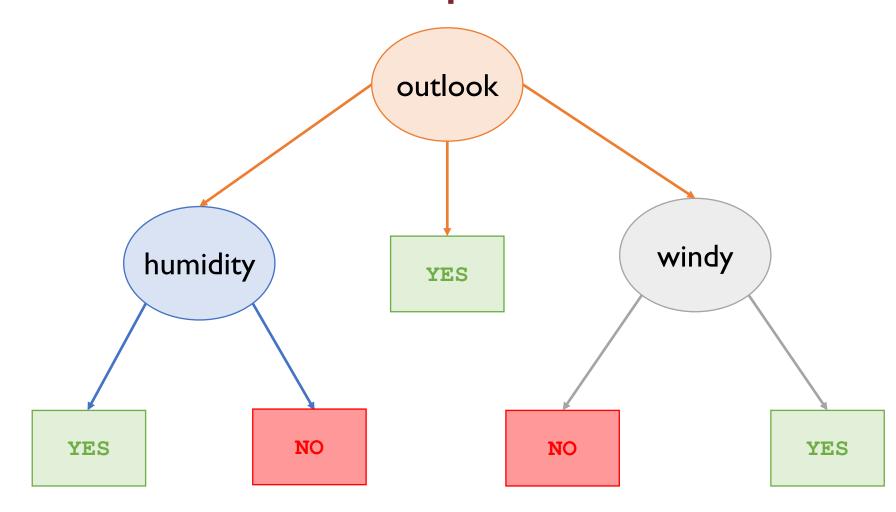
• Suitable for both regression and classification tasks

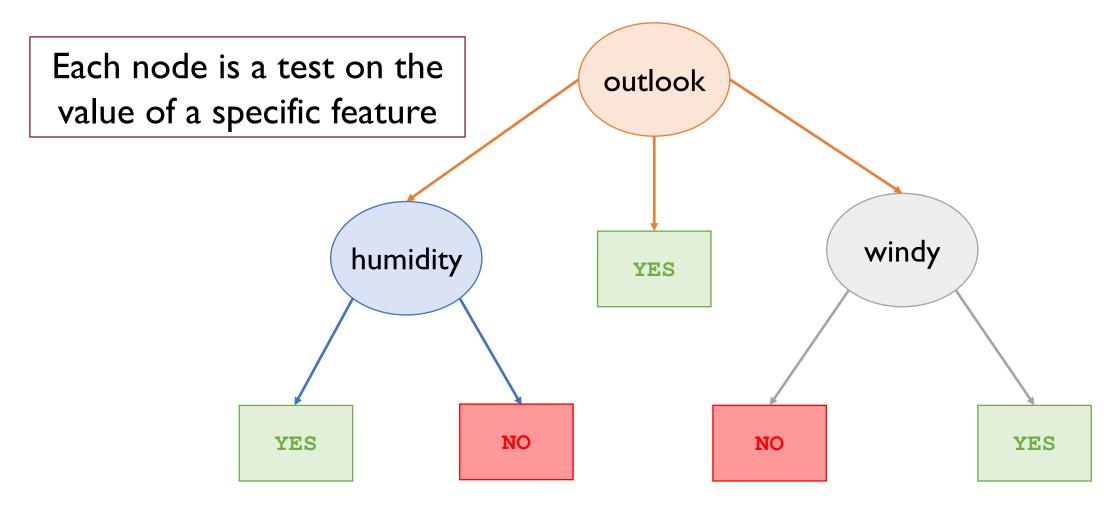
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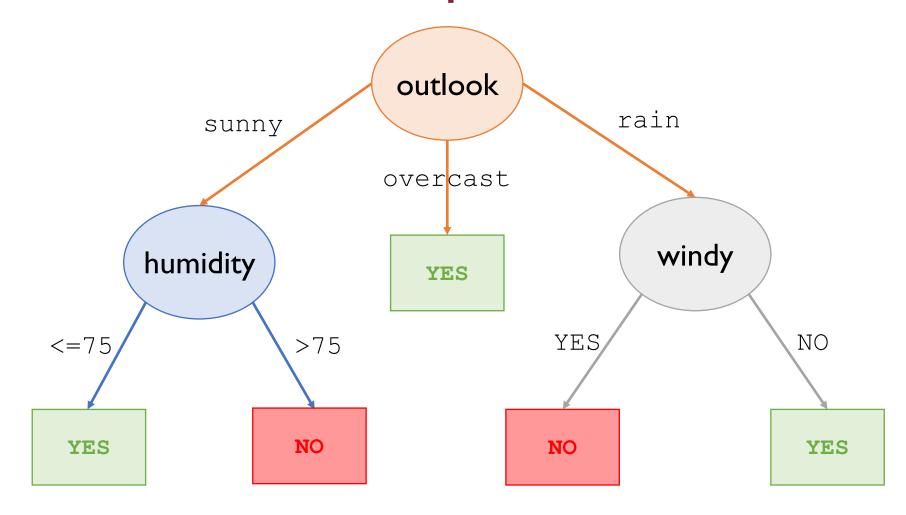
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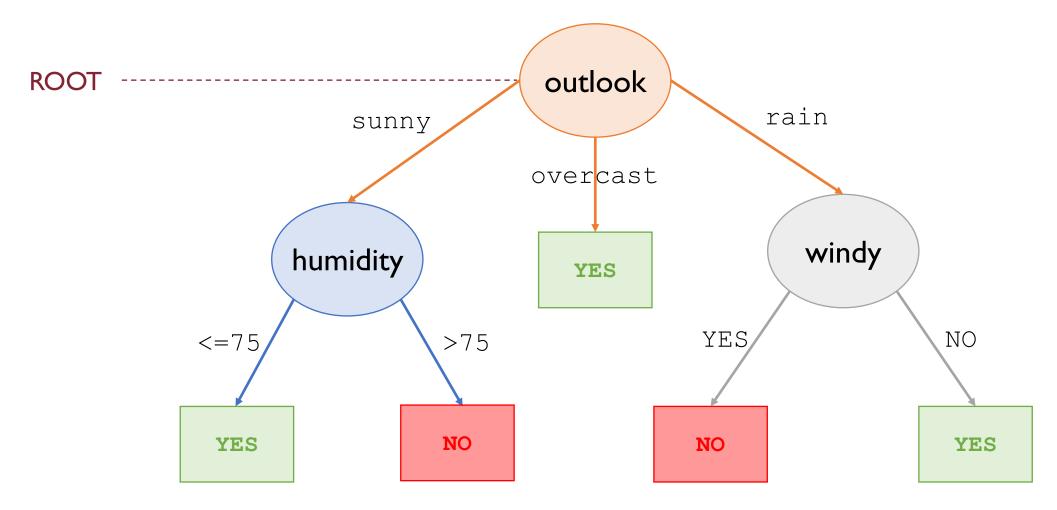
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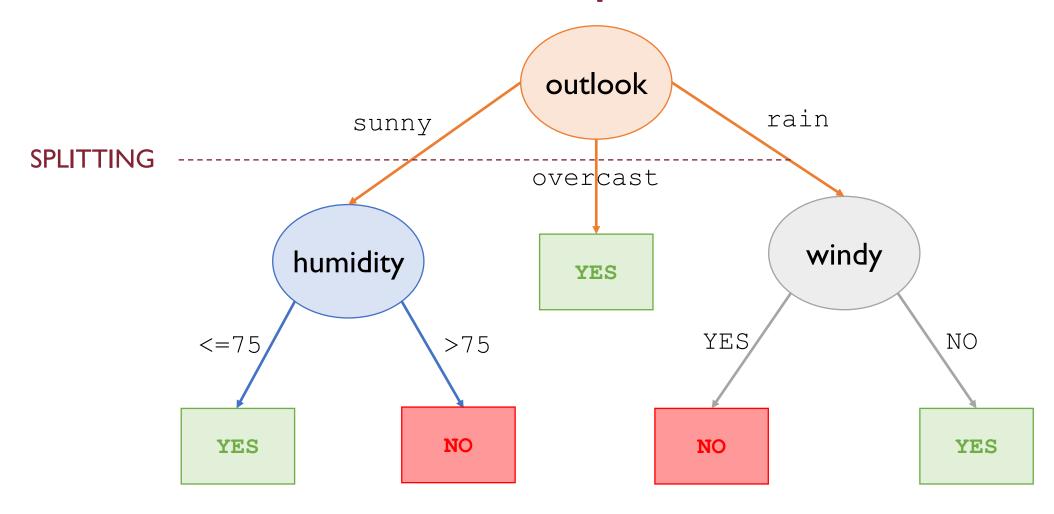
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- Highly human-interpretable models

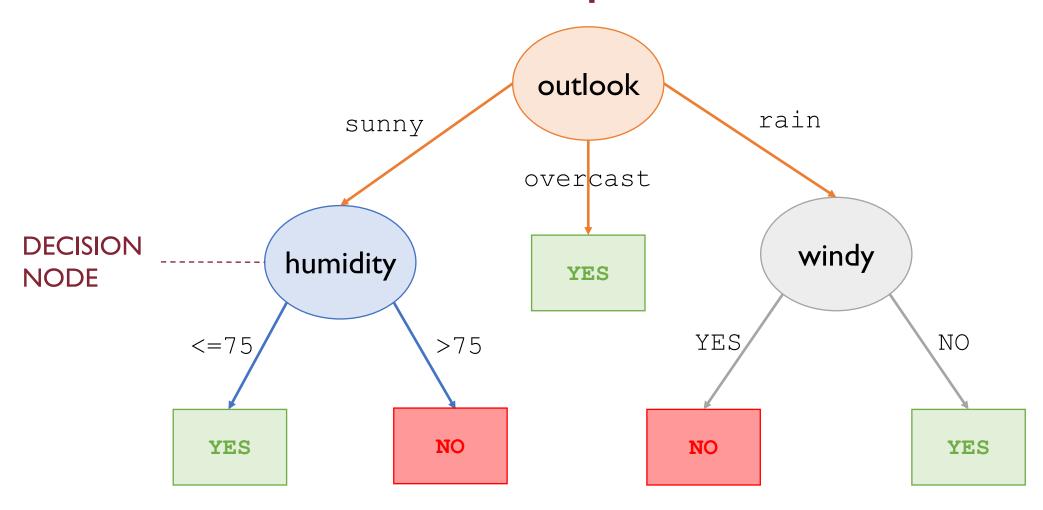


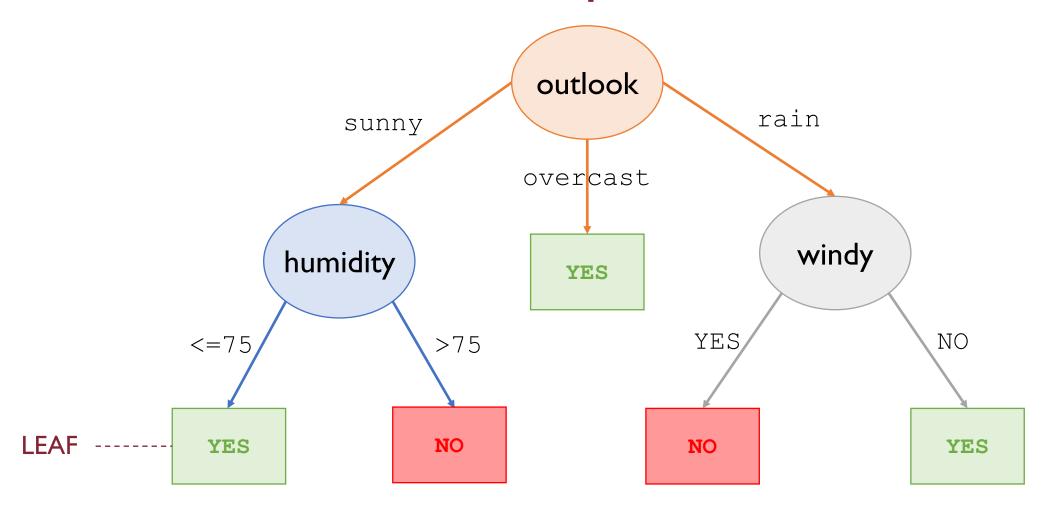






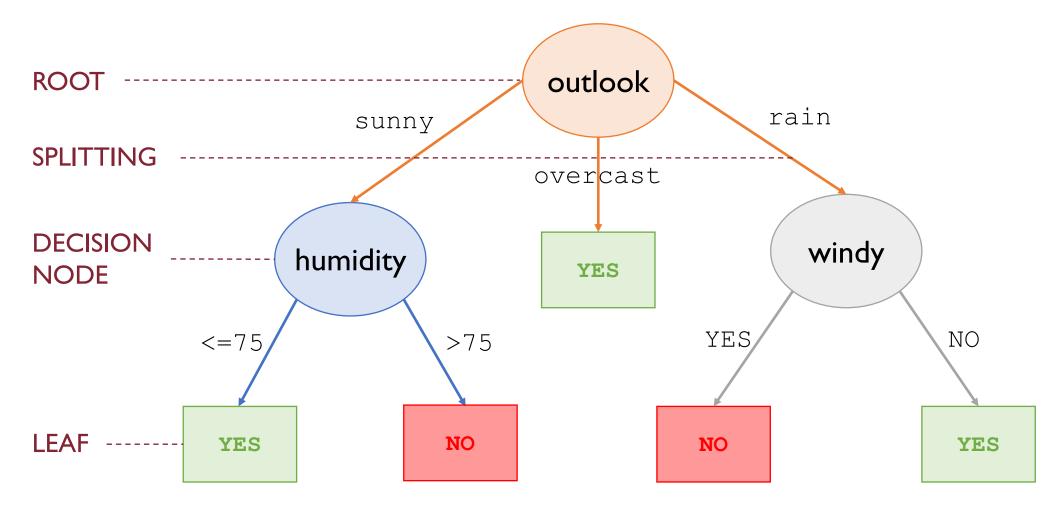




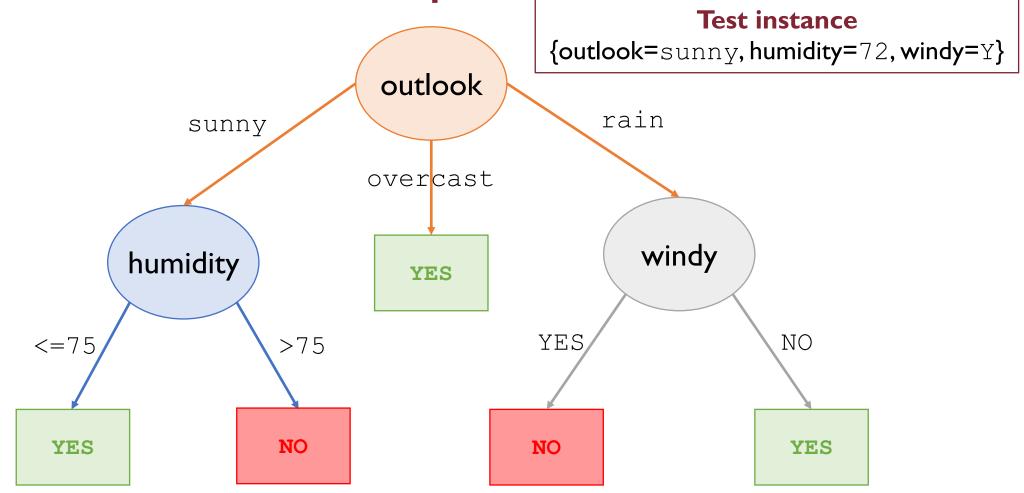


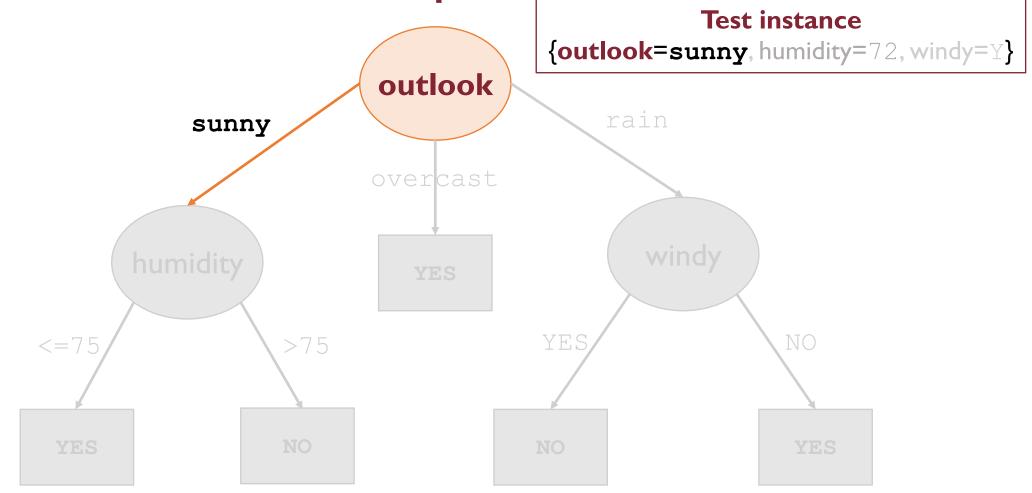
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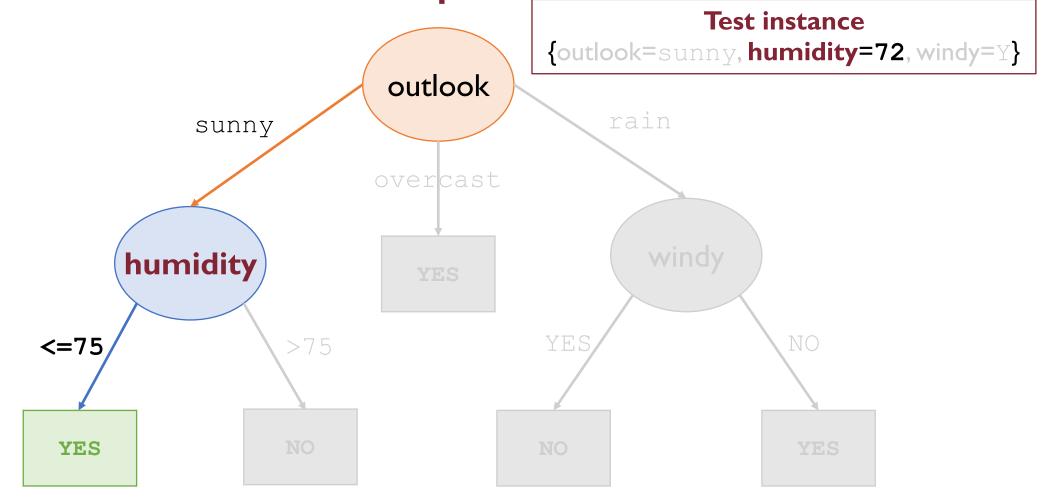
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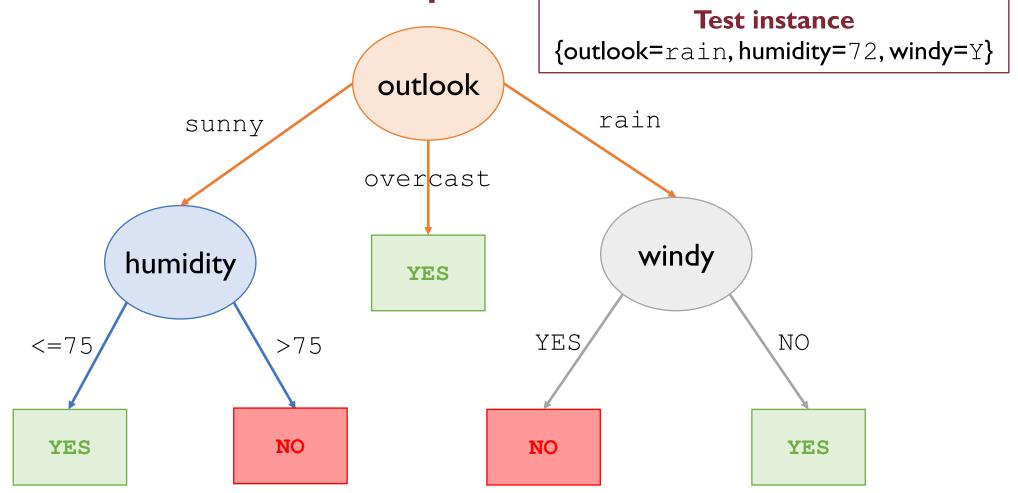


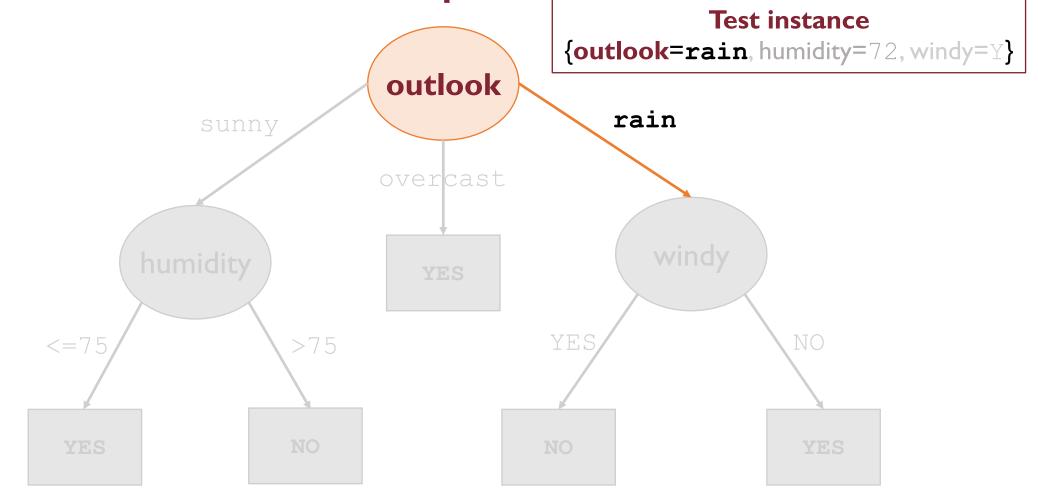
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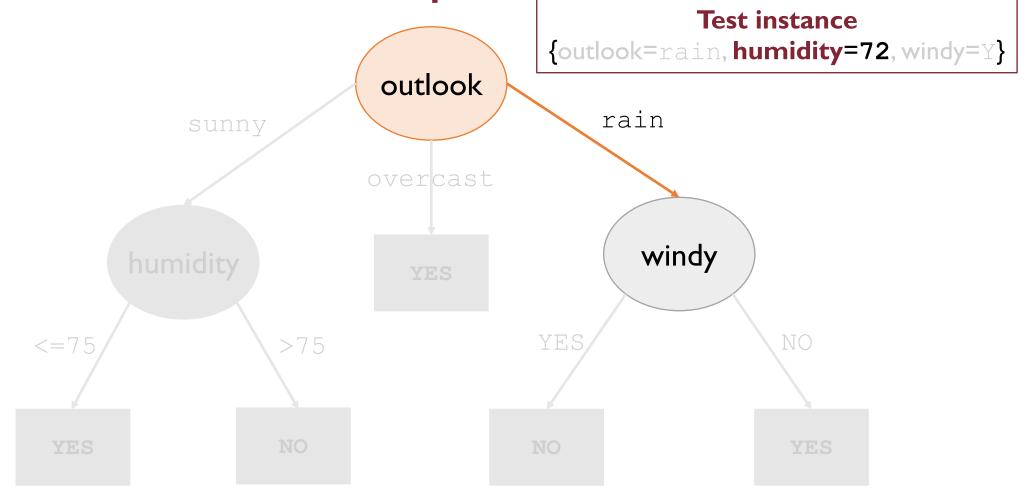




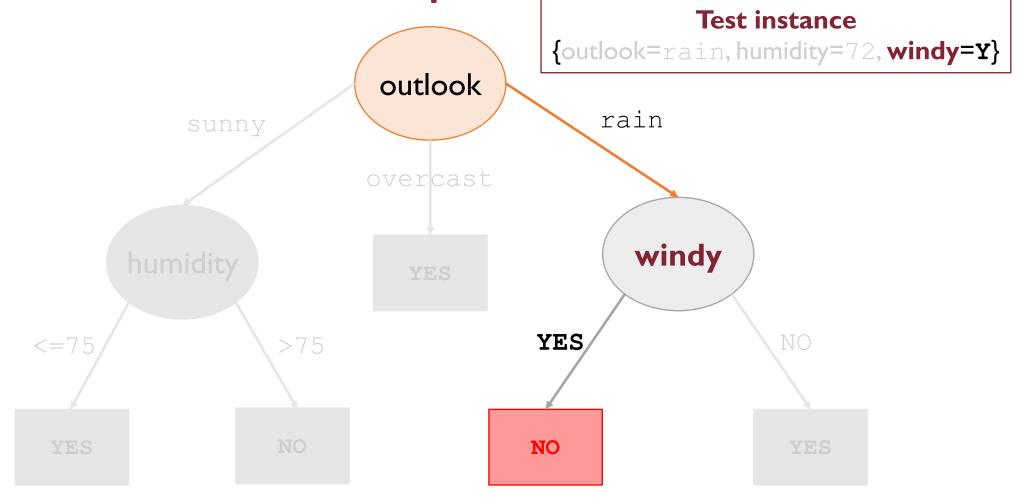








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A Bit of Notation

$$\mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$$
 $\mathcal{Y} \in \mathbb{R}$

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$$\mathcal{Y} \in \{1, \dots, k\}$$
 (\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)
 $\mathbf{x}_i = (x_{i,1}, \dots, x_{i,n}) \in \mathcal{X}$
 $y_i \in \mathcal{Y}$

$$\mathcal{D} = \{(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), \dots, (\mathbf{x}_m, y_m)\}$$

input feature space output space real-value label of the i-th instance (regression) discrete-value label of the i-th instance (k-ary classification) i-th labeled instance *n*-dimensional feature vector of the *i*-th instance

label of the *i*-th instance

How Do We Build a Decision Tree?

• Split the input feature space (i.e., the set of possible values observed for each feature x_i) into a set of non-overlapping regions $R_1, R_2, ..., R_l$

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- For every observation that falls into the region R_j , we make the same prediction, i.e., the mean of the response values in R_j

• Example:

- Suppose we split the input feature space in 2 regions: R_1 and R_2 and the response mean as computed from $R_1 = 10$ and $R_2 = 20$
- For any \mathbf{x} belonging to R_1 (R_2) will be predicted 10 (20)

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Minimize the Residual Sum of Squares

RSS =
$$\sum_{j=1}^{J} \sum_{i \in R_j} (y_i - \bar{y}_{R_j})^2$$

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 The mean computed from observations in $\mathrm{R_j}$

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(e.g., boolean)

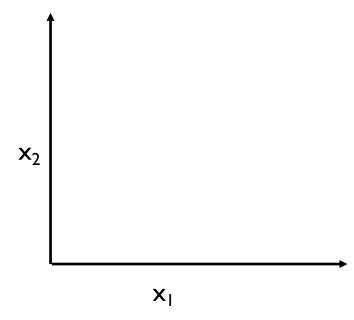
One branch for each value

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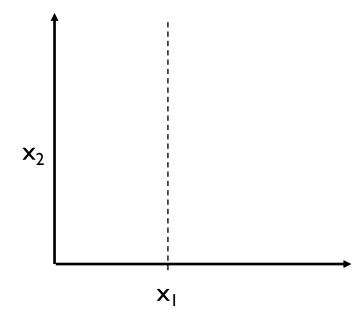
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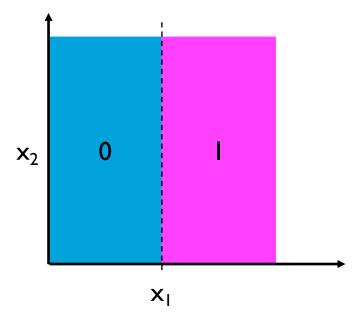


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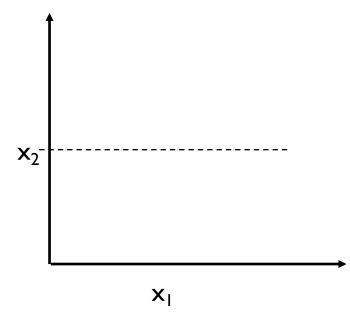
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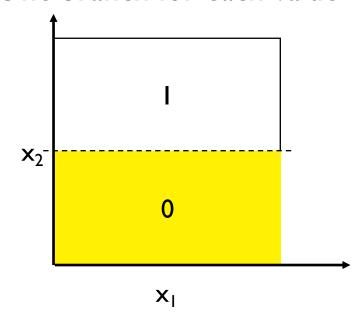
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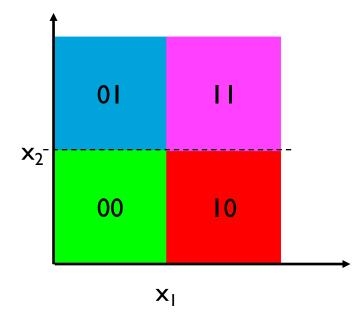
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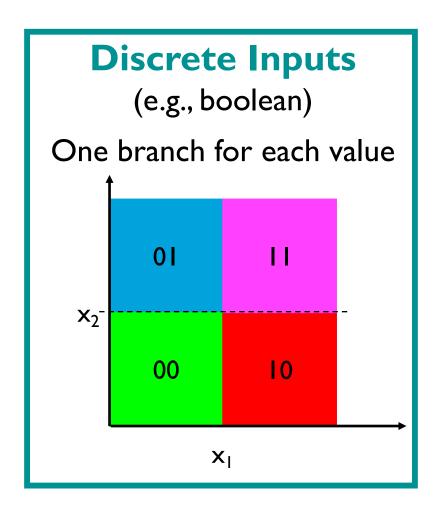


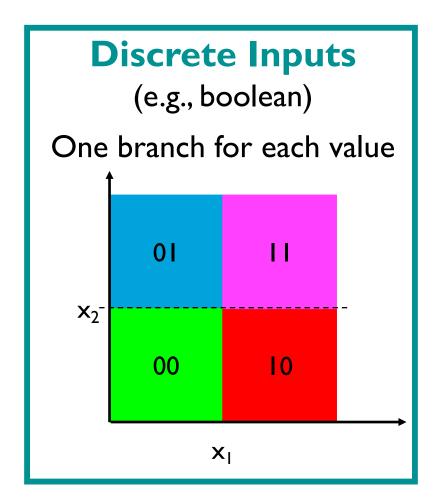
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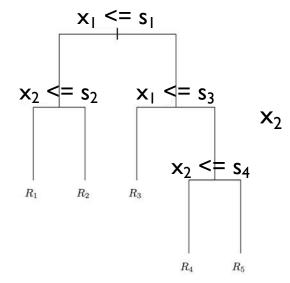


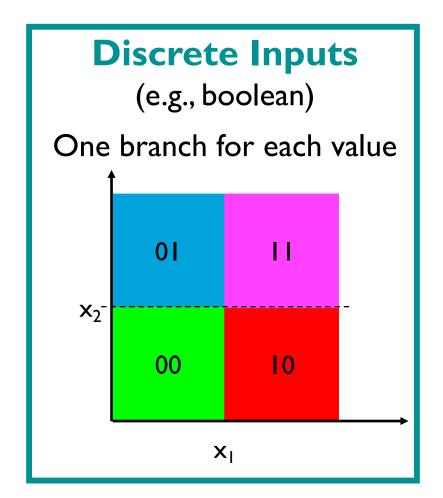




Continuous Inputs

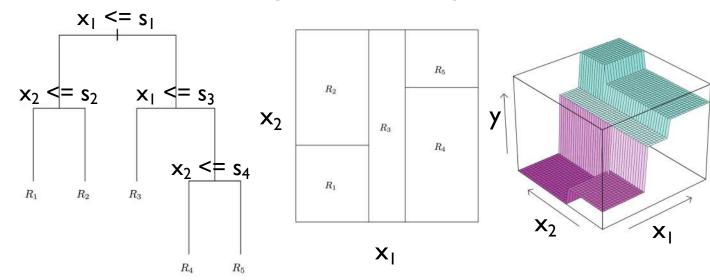
For each attribute, find a split point s Test $x_j \le s$ and create 2 branches The same attribute may be further split in each subtree

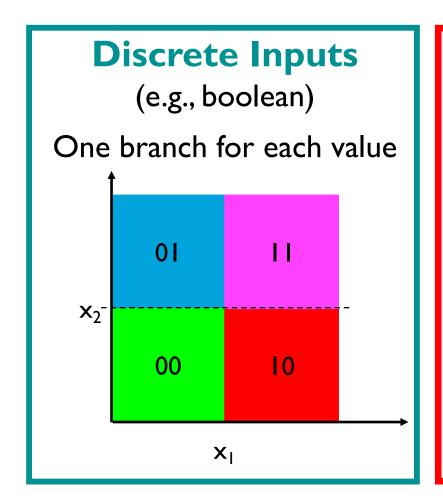




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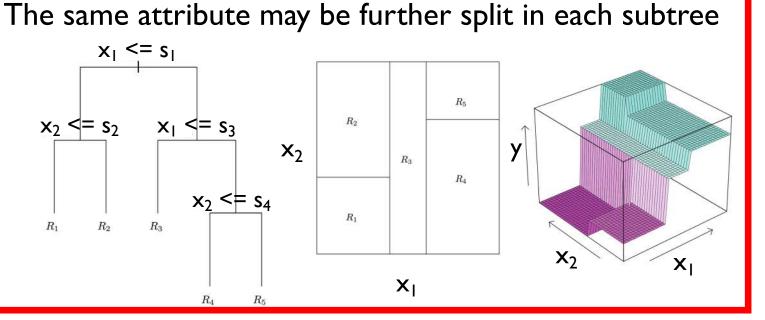
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Discrete Inputs/Discrete Outputs

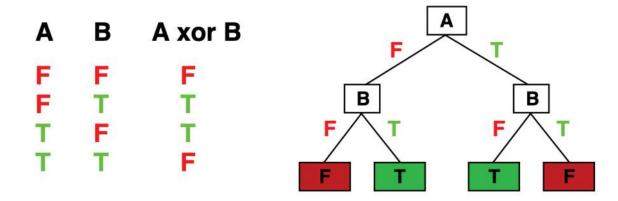
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Example: Boolean Functions

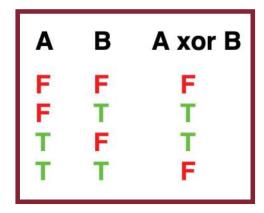


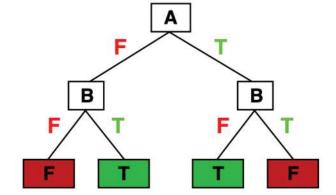
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Truth table

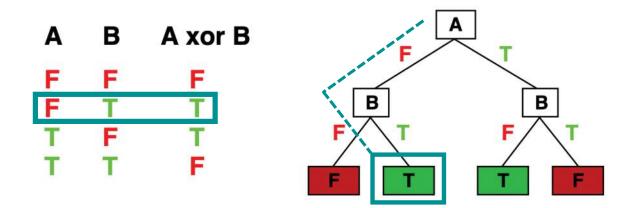




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Each row of the truth table maps to a root-to-leaf path on the tree

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Such a tree will have one dedicated root-to-leaf path for each training instance

Of course, this tree clearly overfits the training data and it will not generalize to unseen examples (needs regularization)

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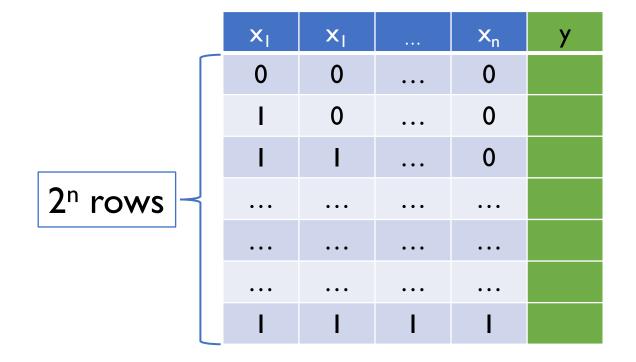
Each boolean function of *n* boolean inputs is represented by a truth table

x_1	ΧĮ		x _n	y
0	0	•••	0	
I	0	• • •	0	
I	I	• • •	0	
•••	• • •	• • •	• • •	
•••	• • •	• • •	• • •	
• • •	• • •	• • •	• • •	
I	I	I	I	

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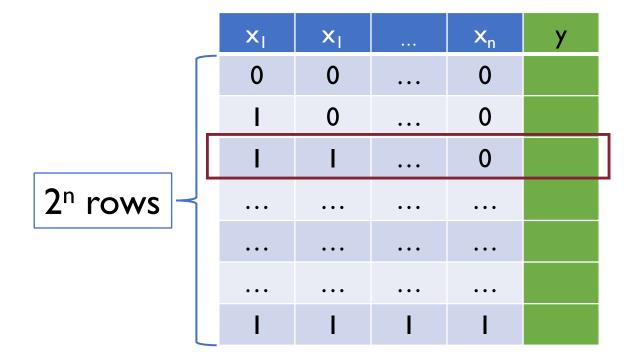
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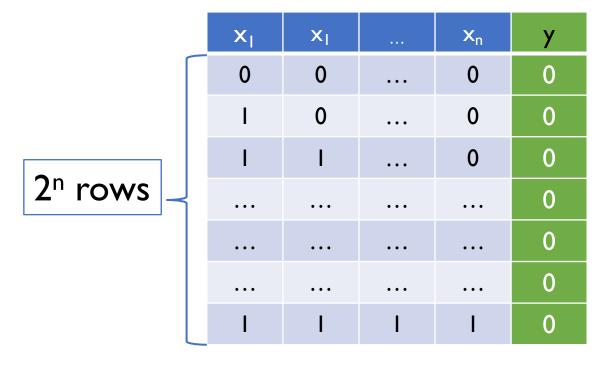
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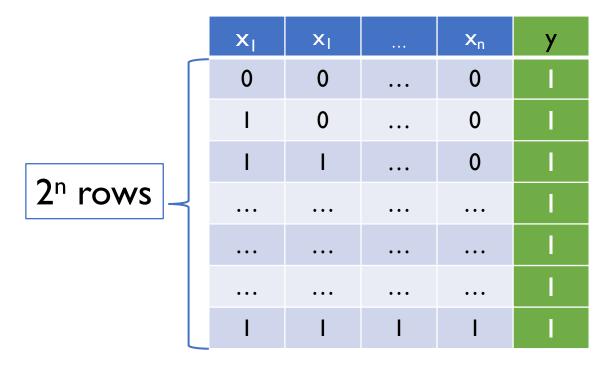


For each input y = 0 or I

A possible boolean function is the one which will output all 0s



Another possible boolean function is the one which will output all Is



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Larger hypothesis space means also it is generally harder for the learning algorithm to find the best hypothesis (larger space to explore)

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Solution

Top-Down greedy heuristic Recursive Binary Splitting

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cop-dowr

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- Split the input feature space into 2 subtrees (i.e., left and right)
- Recursively repeat the step above on both subtrees
- Greedy strategy:
 - At each step, the best "local" split is made
 - Looking ahead might result in a different split, which leads to a better tree

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How to Choose the Split?

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$$\{x_{i,f} \le s\}$$

is the region of the feature space in which the f-th feature takes on values less than or equal to s

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Goal: find the pair
$$(f, s)$$
 which minimizes the following
$$\sum_{i: \mathbf{x}_i \in R_{\text{left}}(f, s)} (y_i - \bar{y}_{R_{\text{left}}})^2 + \sum_{i: \mathbf{x}_i \in R_{\text{right}}(f, s)} (y_i - \bar{y}_{R_{\text{right}}})^2$$

Growing the Tree

• Finding the pair (f, s) which minimizes the quantity below can be done "easily", especially when the number of features d is not too large

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- Each time, we reduce the RSS

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- Possible stopping criteria (tree grows until):
 - no region contains more than N observations
 - max depth of the tree is D
 - RSS is reduced by at least a threshold value t

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- Very similar to a regression tree
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- Tree building is still based on Recursive Binary Splitting but RSS cannot be used as a criterion for splitting nodes
- A natural alternative to RSS minimization is to minimize the "impurity"
- The predicted label of a test instance is the most frequent label (mode) of the instances belonging to the region where it falls

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- We would like to grow a tree whose nodes are as purest as possible
- Several different measures to represent this notion of node "impurity":
 - Classification Error Rate
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 - Entropy
- It is often convenient to refer to the information gain of a split

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impurity of a region $I(\mathcal{D}_R)$

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$$R_{\text{left}}(f, s) = \{ \mathbf{x}_i \mid x_{i,f} \le s \} \ R_{\text{right}}(f, s) = \{ \mathbf{x}_i \mid x_{i,f} > s \}$$

impurity of a region

$$I(\mathcal{D}_R)$$

information gain obtained with an (f, s)-split

$$IG(\mathcal{D}_R, f, s)$$

Subset of training instances falling into region R

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$$IG(\mathcal{D}_{R}, f, s) = \underbrace{I(\mathcal{D}_{R})}_{\text{parent node's impurity}} - \underbrace{\left[\frac{|\mathcal{D}_{R_{\text{left}}(f, s)}|}{|\mathcal{D}_{R}|}I(\mathcal{D}_{R_{\text{left}}(f, s)}) + \frac{|\mathcal{D}_{R_{\text{right}}(f, s)}|}{|\mathcal{D}_{R}|}I(\mathcal{D}_{R_{\text{right}}(f, s)})\right]}_{\text{parent node's impurity}}$$

children nodes' impurity

Node Impurity: Classification Error Rate

• Classification error rate is the fraction of the training observations in that region that are not labeled with the most common class

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- Although this is the most intuitive notion of impurity we will see how this may not be a great choice
- Other 2 measures are preferable: Gini Index and Entropy

Node Impurity: Gini Index

Measures the variance across the K classes

$$I_G(\mathcal{D}_{Rj}) = \sum_{k=1}^K \hat{p}_{jk} (1 - \hat{p}_{jk})$$

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- A small value indicates that a node contains predominantly observations from a single class

• Alternative, yet similar to Gini

$$I_H(\mathcal{D}_{Rj}) = -\sum_{k=1}^K \hat{p}_{jk} \log_2(\hat{p}_{jk})$$

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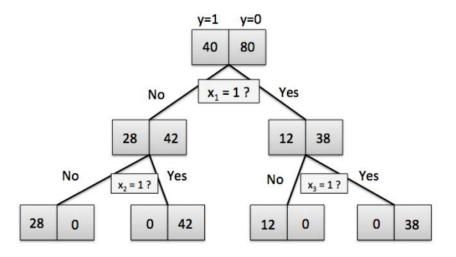
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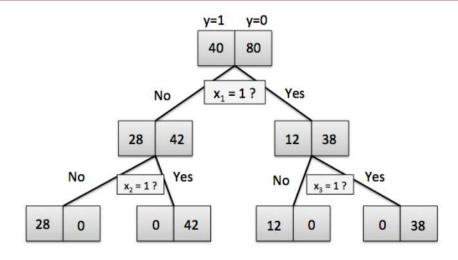
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- In practice, both entropy and Gini can be used to grow a tree

Consider this decision tree which perfectly separates positive (y=1) from negative (y=0) samples using 3 splits on 3 binary features x_1, x_2, x_3



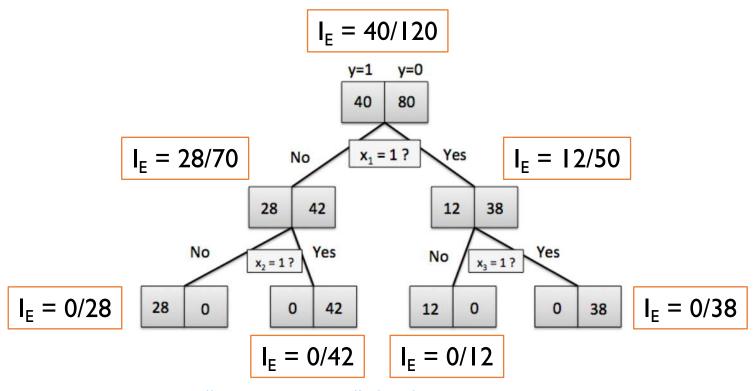
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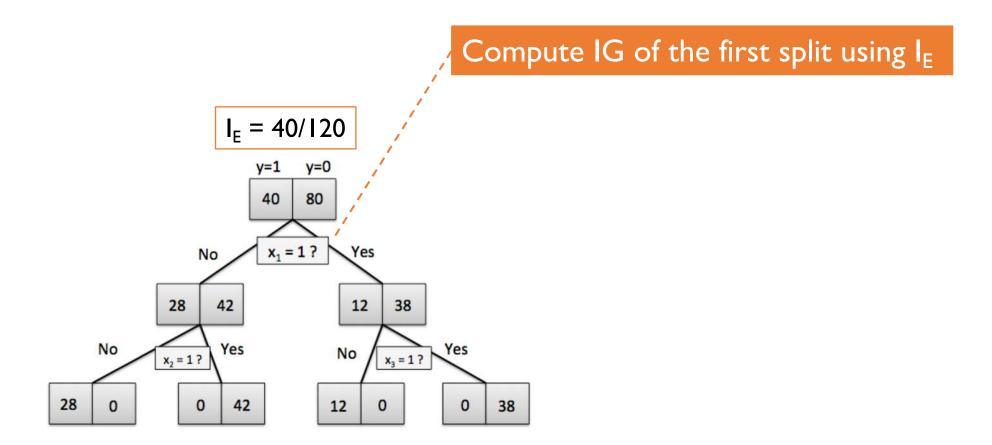
Question

Would we be able to learn the tree above using classification error rate as splitting criterion?

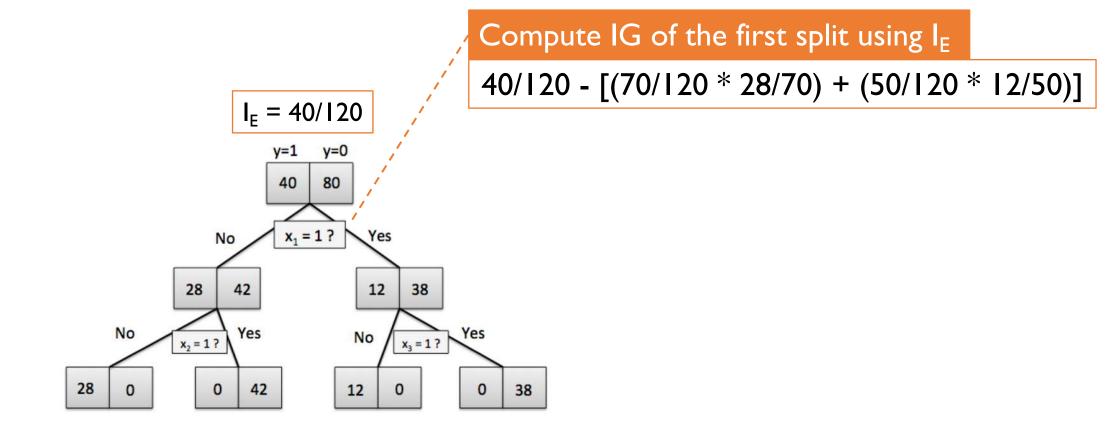
Node impurity using I_E



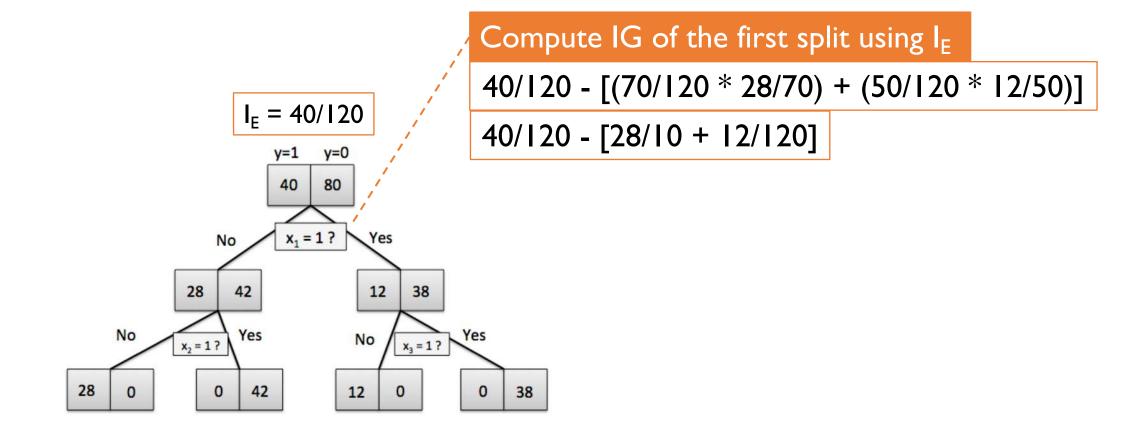
source: https://sebastianraschka.com/faq/docs/decisiontree-error-vs-entropy.html



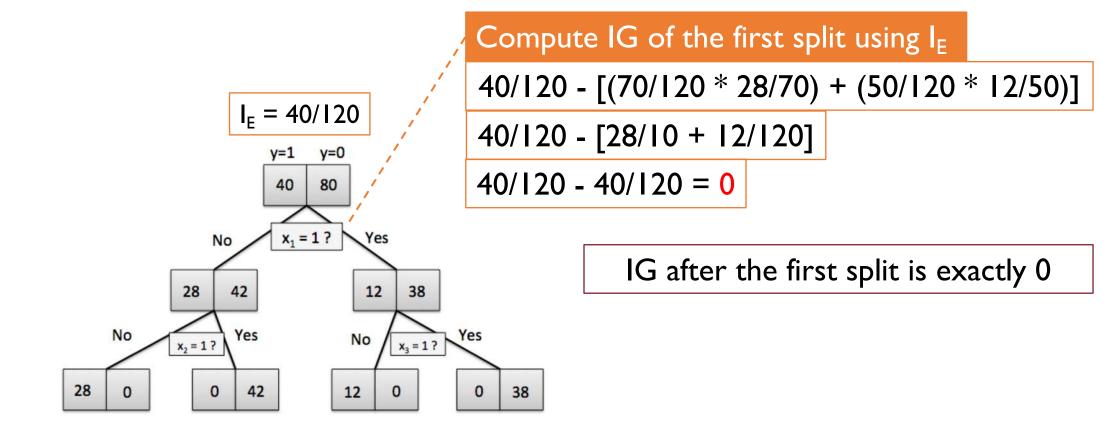
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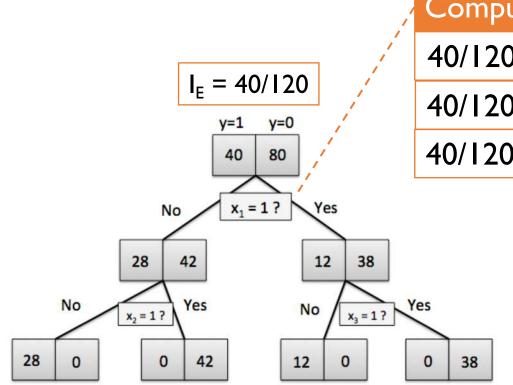
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Compute IG of the first split using I_E

40/120 - [(70/120 * 28/70) + (50/120 * 12/50)]

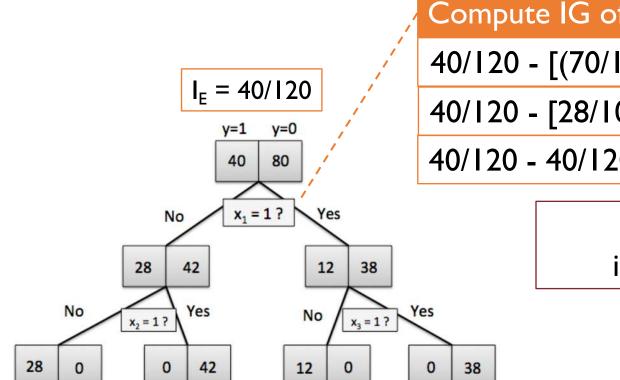
40/120 - [28/10 + 12/120]

40/120 - 40/120 = 0

IG after the first split is exactly 0

the sum of I_E of the 2 child nodes is equal to that of the parent (40/120)

source: https://sebastianraschka.com/faq/docs/decisiontree-error-vs-entropy.html



Compute IG of the first split using I_E

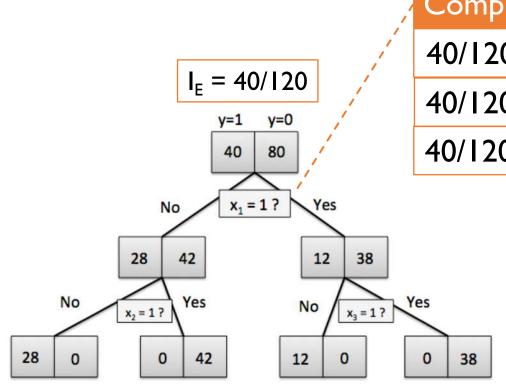
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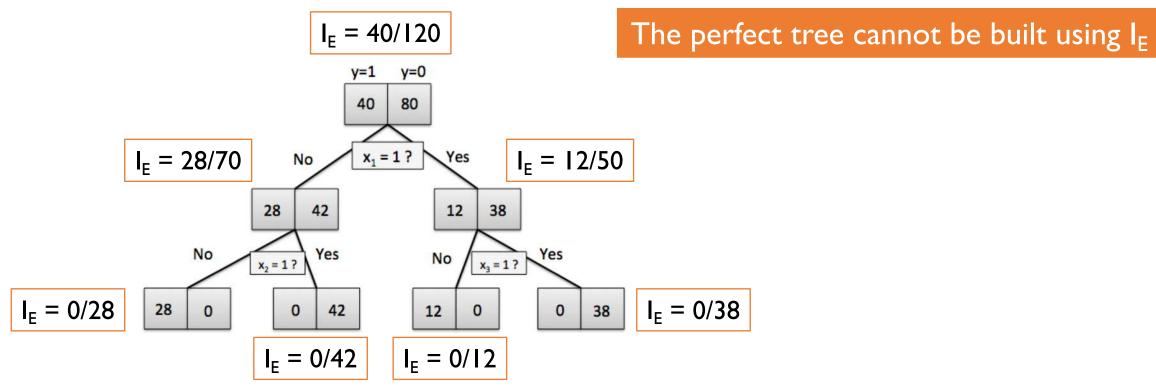
Compute IG of the first split using IE

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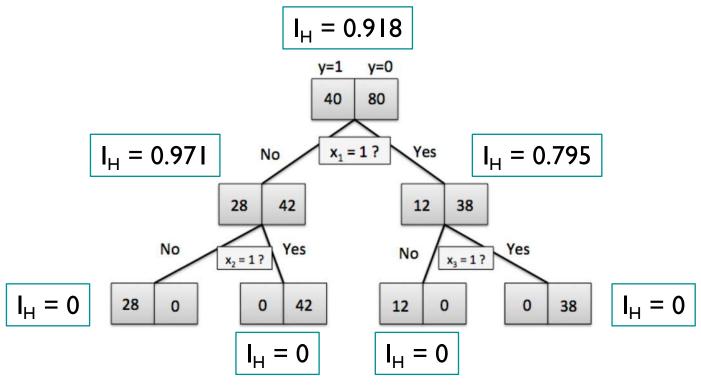
The tree learning algorithm would stop at this point

source: https://sebastianraschka.com/faq/docs/decisiontree-error-vs-entropy.html

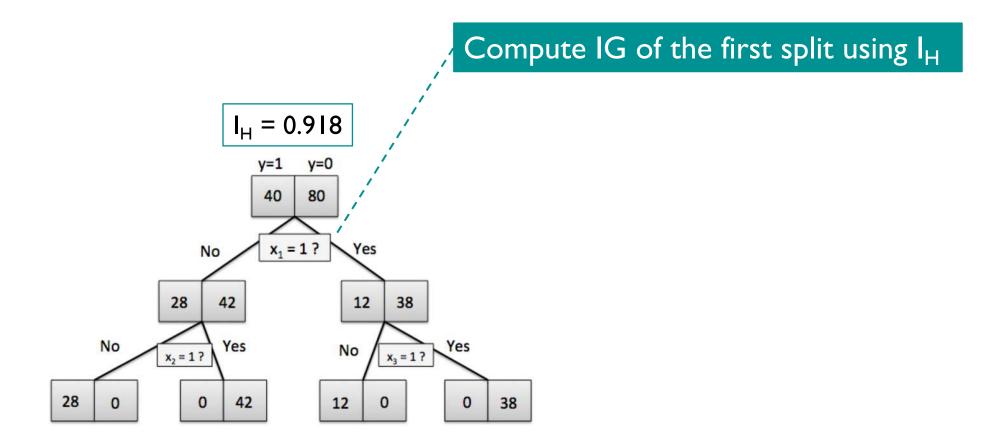


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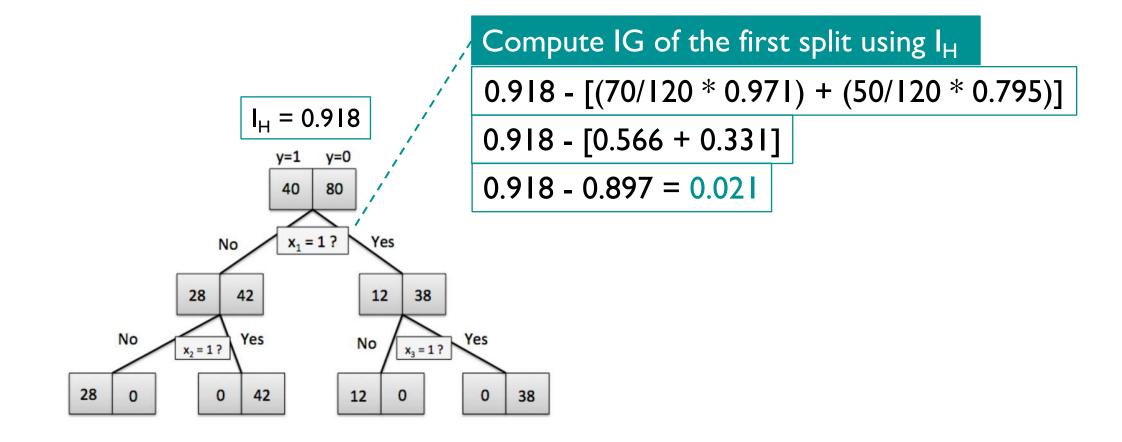
Node impurity using I_H



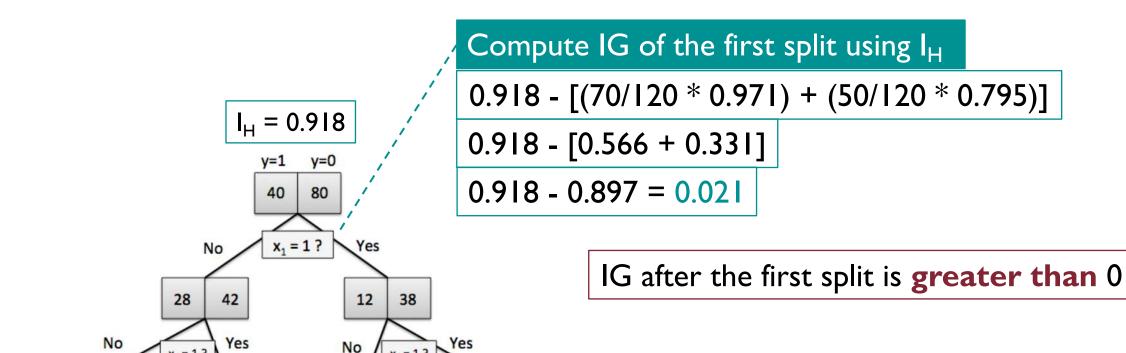
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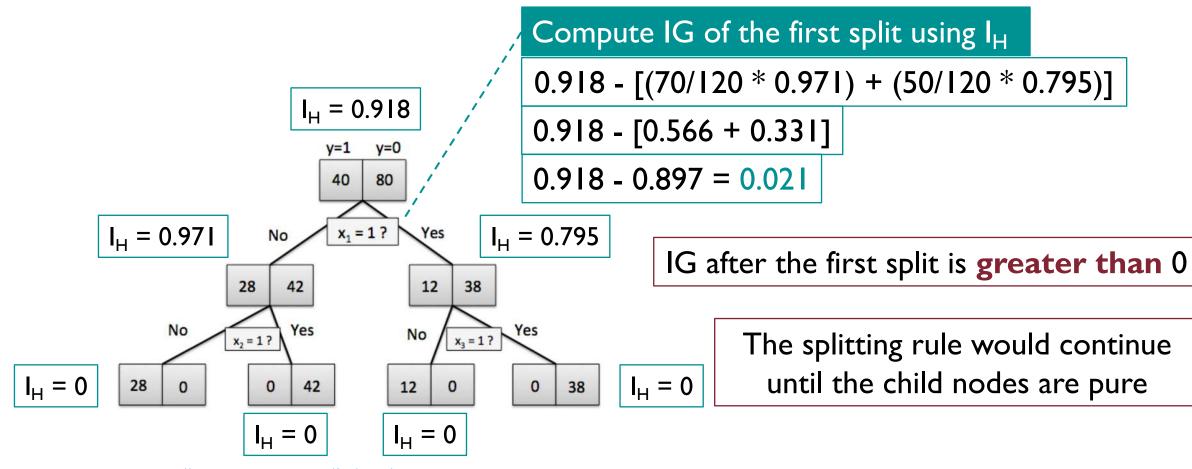
 $x_2 = 1?$

28

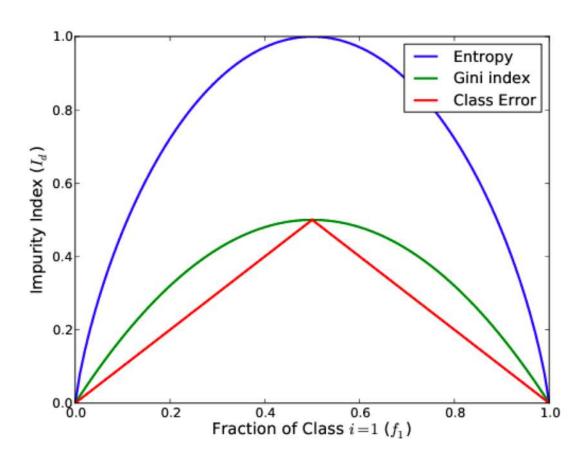
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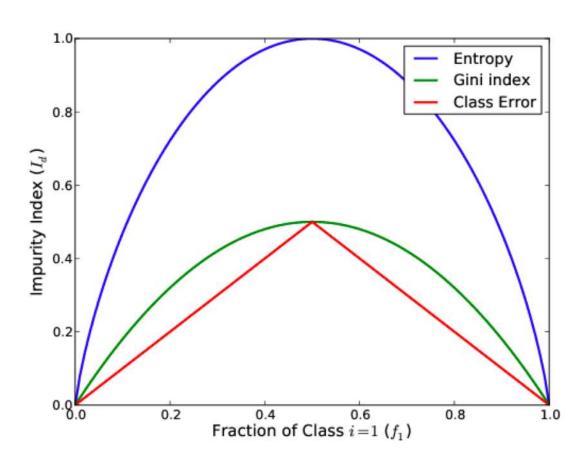
38

x₃ = 1?

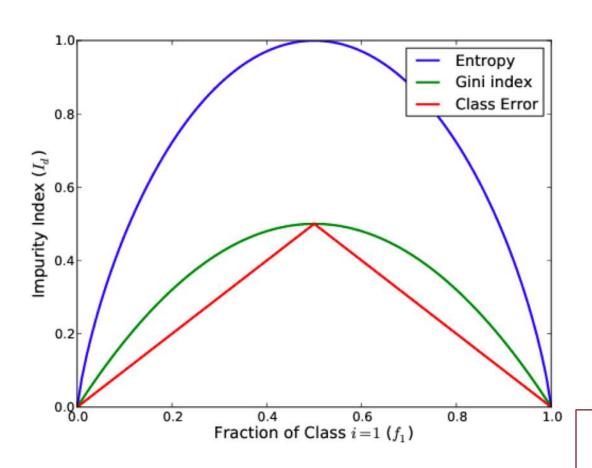


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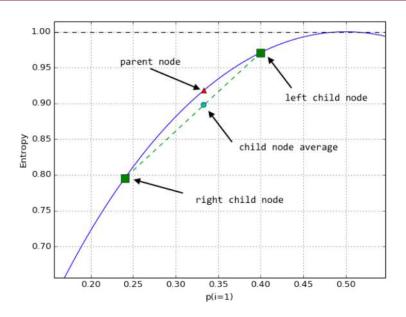




Gini and Entropy are "smoother" than classification error



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Entropy is always larger than the weighted averaged entropy due to its "bell shape"

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Only because each x_i takes on a binary value, in general H ranges in [0, +infinity]

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Linear Models

$$h_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}) = \theta_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n \theta_i x_i$$

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$$h(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{j=1}^{J} c_j \cdot \mathbf{1}_{R_j}(\mathbf{x})$$

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Which one is better?

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If there is a strong linear relationship between input and output

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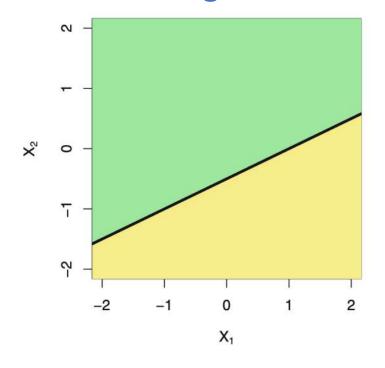
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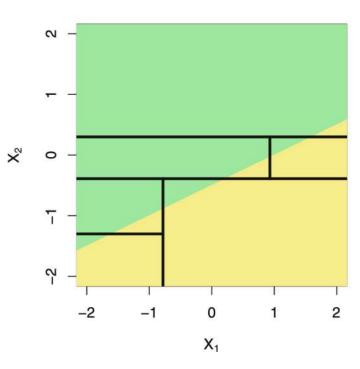
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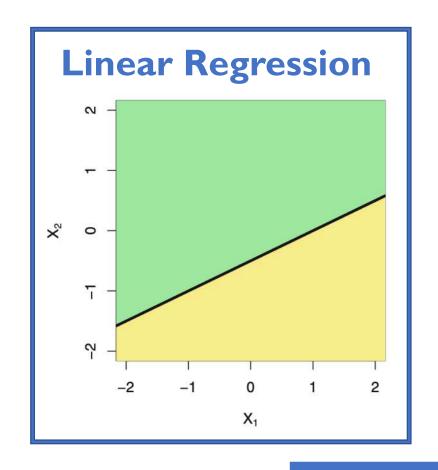
If there is a highly non-linear relationship between input and output

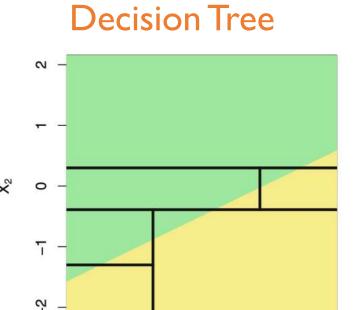
Linear Regression



Decision Tree

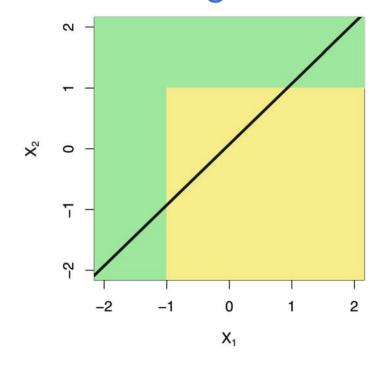




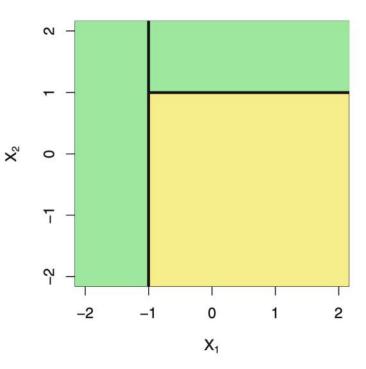


Nice linear decision boundary

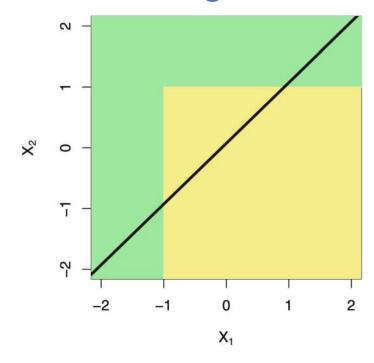
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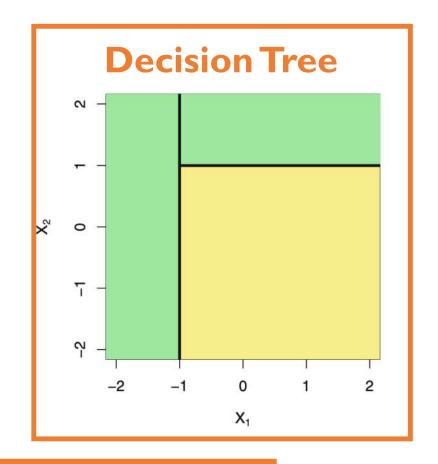


Decision Tree









Non-linear decision boundary

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Intuitively, by selecting the subtree with the smalles test error!

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Cost Complexity Pruning (a.k.a. Weakest Link Pruning)

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- We can select a value of α using a validation set or cross-validation

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- Trees can be displayed graphically, and are easily interpreted even by a non-expert (especially if they are small)
- Trees can easily handle categorical features without the need to create dummy variables (i.e., one-hot encoding)

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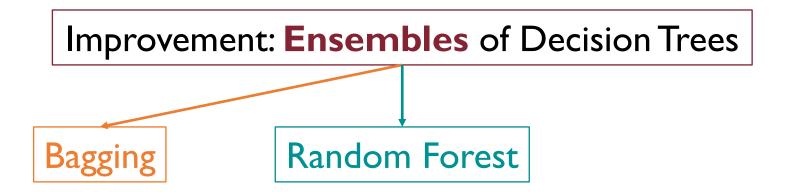
Improvement: **Ensembles** of Decision Trees

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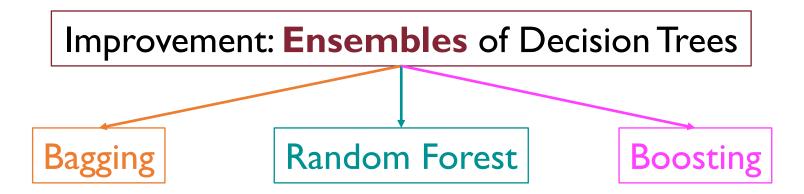
Improvement: **Ensembles** of Decision Trees

Bagging

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- Low-variance approaches, instead, are less sensitive to different training sets
- Bootstrap aggregation (Bagging) is a general-purpose method to lower the variance of a statistical learning method

• Given a set of n i.i.d. observations $Z_1,\,...,\,Z_n$, each with variance σ^2

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\text{Var}(\bar{Z}) = \text{Var} \left[\frac{1}{n} \Big(Z_1 + \dots + Z_n \Big) \right] =
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\text{Var}(\alpha X) = \alpha^2 \text{Var}(X) \\
\text{Var}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i \right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \text{Var}(X_i) \text{ if } X_i \text{ are independent} \\
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$$\operatorname{Var}(\alpha X) = \alpha^{2} \operatorname{Var}(X)$$

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Bootstrap

Taking repeated samples from the same training set

Generate B different bootstrapped samples from the original training set

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$$h_{\text{bagging}}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{b=1}^{B} h^{b*}(\mathbf{x})$$

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- When used with classification trees the final prediction is typically obtained via majority voting
 - The overall prediction is just the most common across the B models

Bagging: Variable Importance

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- Still, one can obtain an overall summary of the importance of each feature using RSS (regression) or Gini index/Entropy (classification)
- Add up the total RSS/Gini index reduction obtained splitting on a certain feature and take the average over all the B trees

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Lower variance reduction

• Enforce random sampling of k out of n features at each split

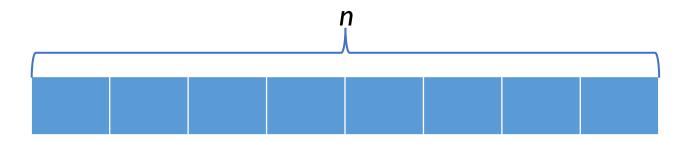
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- Note that when k = n this simply resembles to bagging
- As with bagging, random forests will not overfit if we increase B

Why k/n?



Randomly choose k features out of n, each with uniform probability p = 1/n

What is the probability that the highly predictive feature f is contained in the k-sized random sample?

We want to compute the following:

P(f is extracted as 1st)

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$$\frac{1}{n} + \frac{n-1}{n} * \frac{1}{n-1} + \frac{n-1}{n} * \frac{n-2}{n-1} * \frac{1}{n-2} + \ldots + \frac{n-1}{n} * \frac{n-2}{n-1} * \ldots * \frac{n-(k-1)}{n-(k-2)} * \frac{1}{n-(k-1)} = \underbrace{\frac{1}{n} * \frac{1}{n} * \ldots * \frac{1}{n}}_{k} = \underbrace{\frac{k}{n}}_{n}$$

It might be easier to compute the following:

 $1 - P(f \text{ is NOT extracted as 1st AND } f \text{ is NOT extracted as 2nd AND } \dots \text{ AND } f \text{ is NOT extracted as } k\text{-th})$

Why k/n? — Approach 1.b.

It might be easier to compute the following:

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 f is already chosen: we need to count the subsets of size k-1 of n-1 elements

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 $\binom{n}{k}$ Combinations of k out of n elements "n choose k"

$$= \frac{\frac{(n-1)!}{(k-1)!(n-1-(k-1))!}}{\frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}} = \frac{(n-1)!}{(k-1)!(n-k)!} * \frac{k!(n-k)!}{n!} = \frac{k}{n}$$

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- In bagging, each tree is built on a bootstrap data set, independent of the other trees
- Boosting works in a similar way, except that the trees are grown sequentially using information from previously grown trees
- Boosting does not involve bootstrap sampling; instead each tree is fit on a modified version of the original data set

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Boosting

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- Unlike fitting a single large decision tree to the data, potentially leading to overfitting, the boosting approach instead learns slowly
- Consider boosting regression trees:
 - I. Fit the tree to the current residuals rather than the actual response Y
 - 2. Add this new decision tree into the fitted function so as to update the residuals
 - 3. Each of these trees can be rather small, with just a few terminal nodes, determined by a model's hyperparameter (d)
 - 4. The shrinkage parameter λ slows the process down even further, allowing more and different shaped trees to attack the residuals

Boosting: Algorithm

Algorithm 8.2 Boosting for Regression Trees

- 1. Set $\hat{f}(x) = 0$ and $r_i = y_i$ for all i in the training set.
- 2. For b = 1, 2, ..., B, repeat:
 - (a) Fit a tree \hat{f}^b with d splits (d+1) terminal nodes to the training data (X,r).
 - (b) Update \hat{f} by adding in a shrunken version of the new tree:

$$\hat{f}(x) \leftarrow \hat{f}(x) + \lambda \hat{f}^b(x). \tag{8.10}$$

(c) Update the residuals,

$$r_i \leftarrow r_i - \lambda \hat{f}^b(x_i). \tag{8.11}$$

3. Output the boosted model,

$$\hat{f}(x) = \sum_{b=1}^{B} \lambda \hat{f}^b(x).$$
 (8.12)

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- Tuning done via validation or cross-validation

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- DTs tend to overfit and have a low prediction accuracy
- Pruning and Ensembling techniques overcome both issues