

# Lecture 8: Regression Trees

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# Outline

- ① Regression
- ② Linear Regression
- ③ Regression Trees

# Regression and Linear Regression

# Supervised Learning

- **Dataset:**

- **Training** (labeled) data:  $D = \{(x_i, y_i)\}$
- $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$
- **Test** (unlabeled) data:  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^d$

- **Tasks:**

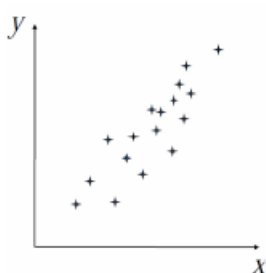
- Classification:  $y_i \in \{1, 2, \dots, C\}$
- Regression:  $y_i \in \mathbb{R}$

- **Objective:** Given  $x_0$ , predict  $y_0$

- **Supervised** learning as  $y_i$  was given during training

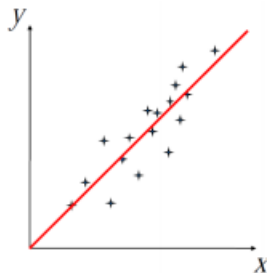
- Predict cost of house from details
- Predict job salary from job description
- Predict SAT, GRE scores
- Predict future price of Petrol from past prices
- Predict future GDP of a country, valuation of a company

# Linear Regression : One-dimensional Case



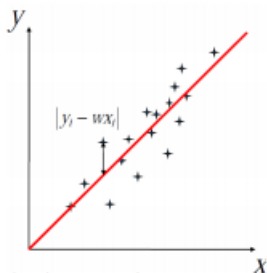
- **Given:** a set of  $N$  input-response pairs
- The inputs ( $x$ ) and the responses ( $y$ ) are one dimensional scalars
- **Goal:** Model the relationship between  $x$  and  $y$

# Linear Regression : One-dimensional Case



- Let's assume the relationship between  $x$  and  $y$  is linear
- Linear relationship can be defined by a straight line with parameter  $w$
- Equation of the straight line:  $y = wx$

# Linear Regression : One-dimensional Case

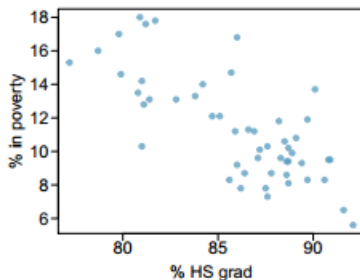


- The line may not fit the data *exactly*
- But we can try making the line a **reasonable approximation**
- **Error** for the pair  $(x_i, y_i)$  pair:  $e_i = y_i - wx_i$
- The **total squared error**:  $E = \sum_{i=1}^N e_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - wx_i)^2$
- The **best fitting** line is defined by  $w$  **minimizing** the total error  $E$
- Just requires a little bit of calculus to find it (take derivative, equate to zero..)



# Linear Regression: Poverty vs HS Graduation Rate

The *scatterplot* below shows the relationship between HS graduate rate in all 50 US states and DC and the % of residents who live below the poverty line (income below \$23,050 for a family of 4 in 2012).



Response variable?

*% in poverty*

Explanatory variable?

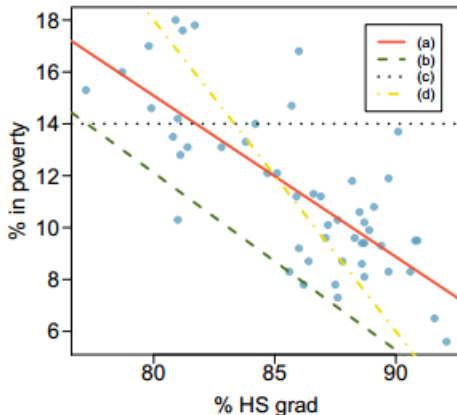
*% HS grad*

Relationship?

*linear, negative, moderately strong*

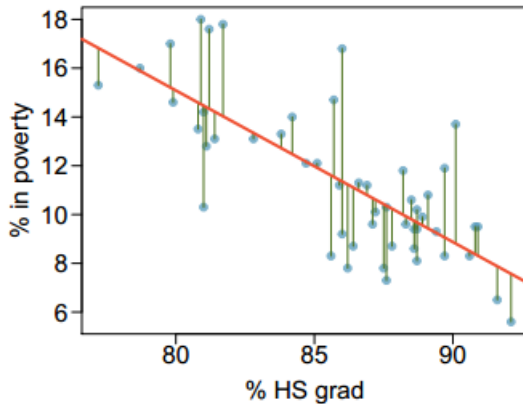
# Linear Regression: Poverty vs HS Graduation Rate

Which of the following appears to be the line that best fits the linear relationship between % in poverty and % HS grad? Choose one.



# Residuals

*Residuals* are the leftovers from the model fit:  $\text{Data} = \text{Fit} + \text{Residual}$

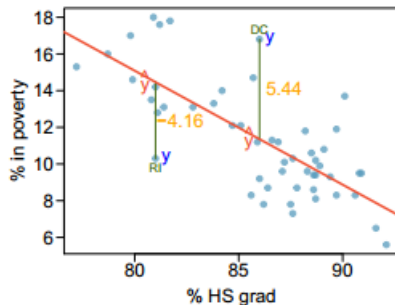


# Residuals

## Residual

Residual is the difference between the observed ( $y_i$ ) and predicted  $\hat{y}_i$ .

$$e_i = y_i - \hat{y}_i$$



- % living in poverty in DC is 5.44% more than predicted.
- % living in poverty in RI is 4.16% less than predicted.

# A measure for the best line

- We want a line that has small residuals:

1. Option 1: Minimize the sum of magnitudes (absolute values) of residuals

$$|e_1| + |e_2| + \cdots + |e_n|$$

2. Option 2: Minimize the sum of squared residuals – *least squares*

$$e_1^2 + e_2^2 + \cdots + e_n^2$$

- Why least squares?

1. Most commonly used
2. Easier to compute by hand and using software
3. In many applications, a residual twice as large as another is usually more than twice as bad

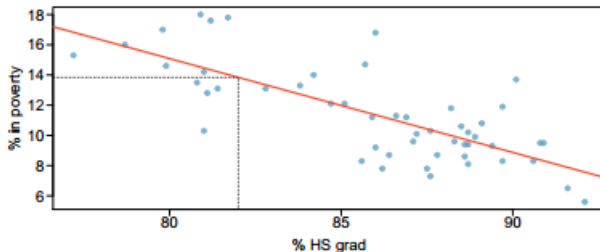
# Least Squares Line

$$\hat{y} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$$

A diagram illustrating the components of the least squares line equation  $\hat{y} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$ . The equation is written in blue. Four arrows point from the equation to its components, which are written in red: *predicted y* (pointing to  $\hat{y}$ ), *intercept* (pointing to  $\beta_0$ ), *slope* (pointing to  $\beta_1$ ), and *explanatory variable* (pointing to  $x$ ).

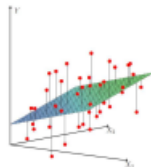
# Prediction

- Using the linear model to predict the value of the response variable for a given value of the explanatory variable is called *prediction*, simply by plugging in the value of  $x$  in the linear model equation.
- There will be some uncertainty associated with the predicted value.



# Linear Regression in Higher Dimensions

- **Analogy to line fitting:** In higher dimensions, we will fit **hyperplanes**
- For 2-dim. inputs, linear regression fits a 2-dim. plane to the data



- Many planes are possible. Which one is the best?
- **Intuition:** Choose the one which is (on average) closest to the responses  $Y$ 
  - Linear regression uses the sum-of-squared error notion of closeness
- Similar intuition carries over to higher dimensions too
  - Fitting a  $D$ -dimensional **hyperplane** to the data
  - Hard to visualize in pictures though..
- The hyperplane is defined by parameters  $\mathbf{w}$  (a  $D \times 1$  **weight vector**)



# Linear Regression in Higher Dimensions

- Given training data  $\mathcal{D} = \{(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), \dots, (\mathbf{x}_N, y_N)\}$
- Inputs  $\mathbf{x}_i$ :  $D$ -dimensional vectors ( $\mathbb{R}^D$ ), responses  $y_i$ : scalars ( $\mathbb{R}$ )
- The linear model: response is a linear function of the model parameters

$$y = f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) = b + \sum_{j=1}^M w_j \phi_j(\mathbf{x})$$

- $w_j$ 's and  $b$  are the model parameters ( $b$  is an offset)
  - Parameters define the mapping from the inputs to responses
- Each  $\phi_j$  is called a basis function
  - Allows change of representation of the input  $\mathbf{x}$  (often desired)

# Linear Regression in Higher Dimensions

The linear model:

$$y = b + \sum_{j=1}^M w_j \phi_j(\mathbf{x}) = b + \mathbf{w}^T \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x})$$

- $\boldsymbol{\phi} = [\phi_1, \dots, \phi_M]$
- $\mathbf{w} = [w_1, \dots, w_M]$ , the **weight vector** (to learn using the training data)
- We consider the simplest case:  $\boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}$ 
  - $\phi_j(\mathbf{x})$  is the  $j$ -th feature of the data (total  $D$  features, so  $M = D$ )
- The linear model becomes

$$y = b + \sum_{j=1}^D w_j x_j = b + \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}$$

- **Note:** **Nonlinear** relationships between  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $y$  can be modeled using suitably chosen  $\phi_j$ 's (more when we cover **Kernel Methods**)

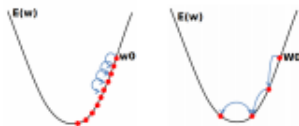
# Linear Regression: Objective Function

- Parameter  $\mathbf{w}$  that satisfies  $y_i = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i$  *exactly* for each  $i$  may not exist
- So we look for the **closest approximation**
- Specifically,  $\mathbf{w}$  that minimizes the following **sum-of-squared-differences** between the truth ( $y_i$ ) and the predictions ( $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i$ ), just as we did for the one-dimensional case:

$$E(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i)^2$$

# Linear Regression: Gradient Descent based Solution

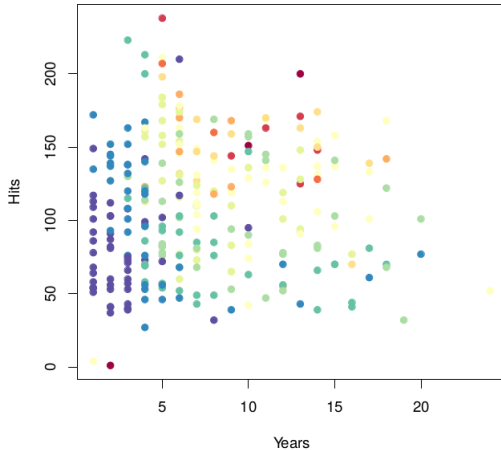
- The least-squares linear regression objective is a **convex function**
  - It has a unique minimum
  - Gradient descent will find the unique minimum (or get very close to it, depending in the learning rate  $\alpha$ )
  - For general functions, GD can only find a local minimum
- Effect of the learning rate  $\alpha$  (left: small  $\alpha$ , right: large  $\alpha$ )



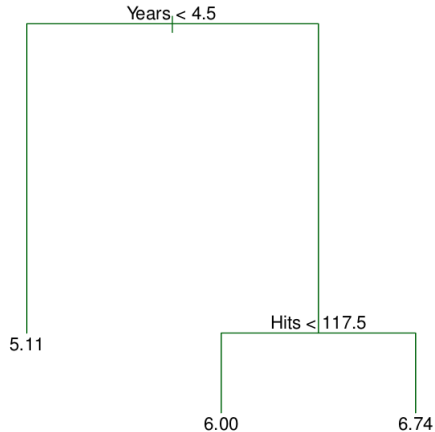
# Regression Trees

# Predicting Baseball salary data

Salary is color-coded from low (blue, green) to high (yellow, red)

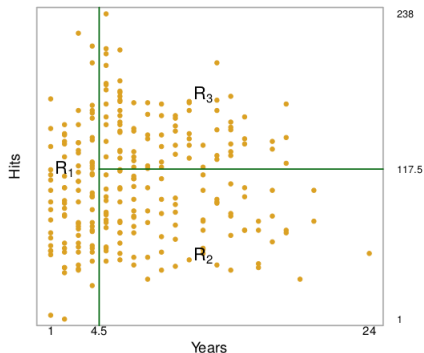


# Decision tree for Baseball Salary Prediction



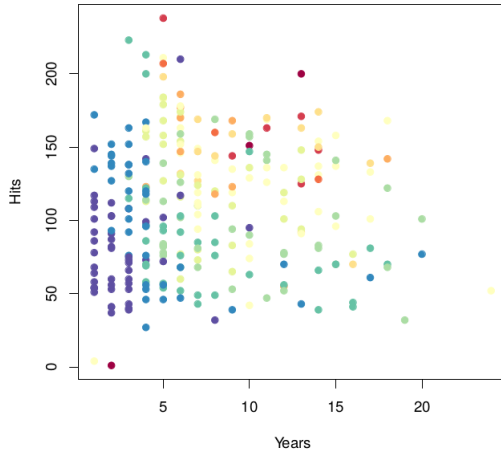
# Decision tree for Baseball Salary Prediction

- Overall, the tree stratifies or segments the players into three regions of predictor space:  $R_1 = \{X \mid \text{Years} < 4.5\}$ ,  $R_2 = \{X \mid \text{Years} \geq 4.5, \text{Hits} < 117.5\}$ , and  $R_3 = \{X \mid \text{Years} \geq 4.5, \text{Hits} \geq 117.5\}$ .





# Interpreting the Decision Tree



# Interpreting the Decision Tree

- Years is the most important factor in determining Salary, and players with less experience earn lower salaries than more experienced players.
- Given that a player is less experienced, the number of Hits that he made in the previous year seems to play little role in his Salary .
- But among players who have been in the major leagues for five or more years, the number of Hits made in the previous year does affect Salary , and players who made more Hits last year tend to have higher salaries.
- Surely an over-simplification, but compared to a regression model, it is easy to display, interpret and explain

# High Level Idea

- We divide the feature space into  $J$  distinct and non-overlapping regions  $R_1, R_2, \dots, R_J$
- For every observation that falls into the region  $R_i$ , we make same prediction, which is simply the mean of the response values for the training observations in  $R_i$
- **Objective:** Find boxes  $R_1, R_2, \dots, R_J$  that minimizes Residual Sum of Square (RSS)

$$RSS = \sum_{i=1}^J \sum_{j \in R_i} (y_j - \widehat{y}_{R_i})^2$$

where  $\widehat{y}_{R_i}$  is the mean response for the training in the  $i$ -th box.

# Building Regression Trees

- We first select the feature  $X_i$  and the cutpoint  $s$  such that splitting the feature space into the regions  $\{X|X_i < s\}$  and  $\{X|X_i \geq s\}$  leads to the greatest possible reduction in RSS.
- Next, we repeat the process, looking for the best attribute and best cutpoint in order to split the data further so as to minimize the RSS within each of the resulting regions.
- The process continues until a stopping criterion is reached; for instance, we may continue until no region contains more than five observations.















## Major Concepts:

- Geometric interpretation of Classification
- Decision trees

# Slide Material References

- Slides from ISLR book
- Slides by Piyush Rai
- Slides from OpenIntro Statistics book  
([http://www.webpages.uidaho.edu/~stevel/251/slides/os2\\_slides\\_07.pdf](http://www.webpages.uidaho.edu/~stevel/251/slides/os2_slides_07.pdf))
- See also the footnotes