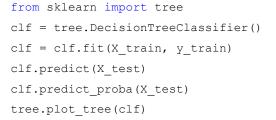
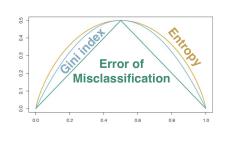
### **Decision Trees**





### Metrics used for splitting

Node impurity measures for two-class classification, as a function of the proportion p in class 2. Cross-entropy has been scaled to pass through (0.5, 0.5).



### Algorithm 8.1 Building a Regression Tree

1. Use recursive binary splitting to grow a large tree on the training data, stopping only when each terminal node has fewer than some minimum number of observations.

**Algorithm** 

- 2. Apply cost complexity pruning to the large tree in order to obtain a sequence of best subtrees, as a function of  $\alpha$ .
- 3. Use K-fold cross-validation to choose  $\alpha$ . That is, divide the training observations into K folds. For each k = 1, ..., K:
  - (a) Repeat Steps 1 and 2 on all but the kth fold of the training data.
    - (b) Evaluate the mean squared prediction error on the data in the
  - left-out kth fold, as a function of  $\alpha$ . Average the results for each value of  $\alpha$ , and pick  $\alpha$  to minimize the
- average error. 4. Return the subtree from Step 2 that corresponds to the chosen value

### Instability of trees

**Disadvantages of trees** 

### One major problem with trees is their high variance. Often a small

change in the data can result in a very different series of splits, making interpretation somewhat precarious. The major reason for this instability is the hierarchical nature of the process: the effect of an error in the top split is propagated down to all of the splits below it. One can alleviate this to some degree by trying to use a more stable split criterion, but the inherent instability is not removed. It is the price to be paid for estimating a simple, tree-based structure from the data. Bagging (Section 8.7) averages many trees to reduce this variance. Lack of smoothness

#### Another limitation of trees is the lack of smoothness of the prediction surface, as can be seen in the bottom right panel of Figure 9.2. In

classification with 0/1 loss, this doesn't hurt much, since bias in estimation of the class probabilities has a limited effect. However, this can degrade performance in the regression setting, where we would normally expect the underlying function to be smooth. **Binary vs. Multiway Splits** 

#### Rather than splitting each node into just two groups at each stage (as above), we might consider multiway splits into more than two groups.

While this can sometimes be useful, it is not a good general strategy. The problem is that multiway splits fragment the data too

quickly, leaving insufficient data at the next level down. Hence we would want to use such splits only when needed. Since multiway splits can be achieved by a series of binary splits, the latter are preferred. **Gradient Boosting** 

#### Comparison with other methods Neural kNN / **SVM** Trees **Nets** Kernels Natural handling of mixed type data Handling of missing values Robustness X to outliers Insensitive to X monotone transforms Computation X X scalability Ability to deal with irrelevant inputs Ability to extract linear combinations Interpretability Predictive power

### **Python** # XGBOOST EXAMPLE

import xgboost as xgb

# CATBOOST EXAMPLE

data=X\_test,

# eval\_set=validation\_pool,

## iterations=50, learning\_rate=0.01,

# Algorithm 8.2 Boosting for Regression Trees

**Algorithm** 

### 1. Set 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
- - (b) Update  $\hat{f}$  by adding in a shrunken version of the new tree:
    - $\hat{f}(x) \leftarrow \hat{f}(x) + \lambda \hat{f}^b(x)$ . (8.10)

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

3. Output the boosted model,

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

# Resilient to correlated variables

**Advantages of GBM** 

Regularisation to avoid overfitting

Robust to noise

- Early stopping
- Parallelised tree building All three algorithms can be trained on GPU

#### (Internal in libraries) Label encoding

Categorical variables

- Monotonic transformations have little/no
- **Target encoding**
- One-hot encoding Count encoding Percent encoding

below)

Target encoding (see

one\_hot\_max\_size te\_smothing,

**Parameters** 

Overfits easily

te\_min\_samples Calculate on train/cv\_train

Catboost uses in a way

Impl.: category\_encoders

- Treatment of new cats
- Missing values

**XGBoost Hyperparameters** 

n: The number of observations in category  $\bar{x}$ : The estimated mean m: The "weight" you want to assign to the overall mear w: The overall mean z: Minimum number of records to target encode

 $\mu$ : Mean of y per category (target encoded)

Random subsampling • subsample (percentage of rows)

constructing each tree)

• colsample\_bytree (percentage of columns when

### case of highly imbalanced classes) n\_estimators (number of boosting rounds)

**General parameters** 

 scale\_pos\_weight (for rebalancing weights of positive or negative samples in binary classification)

max\_depth

 base\_score (by default predicting 0.5 for all observations) • seed/random\_state

missing (for treating other values as missing)

**Methods** 

Random search (e.g. sklearn.model

selection.RandomizedSearchCV)

Bayesian Hyperparameter optimisation,

Grid search (e.g. GridSearchCV)

learning\_rate (shrinkage, eta)

objective (callable(y, y\_hat))

using (e.g. hyperopt)

-2

booster (usually trees)

#### max\_delta\_step (additional cap on learning rate, needed in colsample\_bylevel (percentage of columns when building each level of three tree)

- Regularisation parameters
  - reg\_alpha (L1/lasso regularisation) • reg\_labmda (L2/ridge regularisation) • gamma (LO regularisation, dependent on number of leaves)
  - min\_child\_weight (for binary classification, sum of second order gradients)
- Hyperparameter optimisation Steps for optimization using hyperopt

min\_child\_weight (min sum of hessians in a child)

- transformations and cross-validating results. Defining the hyperparameter search space, i.e. the distributions to sample
  - Loss functions for regression

# Defining the objective function. This includes hyperparameter-dependent

# Loss functions for binary classification

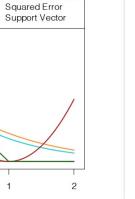
# 3.0

# 5 1.0 0.5

-1

0

 $y \cdot f$ 



Misclassification

Exponential **Binomial Deviance** 

from. E.g.: hp.quniform('te smoothing', 1, 10, 1)

Running the optimisation using fmin over a number iterations

