Tree-based Models and Ensembles

Supervised learning in practice

Preprocessing Explore & prepare data

Data Visualization and Exploration

Data Cleaning

- Missing data Noisy data
- Erroneous data

Scaling (Standardization)

Prepare data for use in scale-dependent

Feature Extraction

Dimensionality redundant information

Model training Supervised Learning Models: Linear models and KNN (enough to get started using supervised learning) Select model options Other algorithms and concepts: Generative vs discriminative models Parametric vs nonparametric models Model ensembles Feature/representation learning (neural networks, deep learning) How to control model overfit: regularization strategies for model refinement

Performance evaluation Make a prediction the model on validation data Evaluating model performance and comparing models Classification Precision Recall F How to make decisions using models Regression MSE, explained variance, R²

fine tune

Supervised Learning Techniques

Covered so far

Linear Regression

K-Nearest Neighbors

Perceptron

Logistic Regression

Linear Discriminant Analysis

Quadratic Discriminant Analysis

Naïve Bayes

Decision Trees and Random Forests

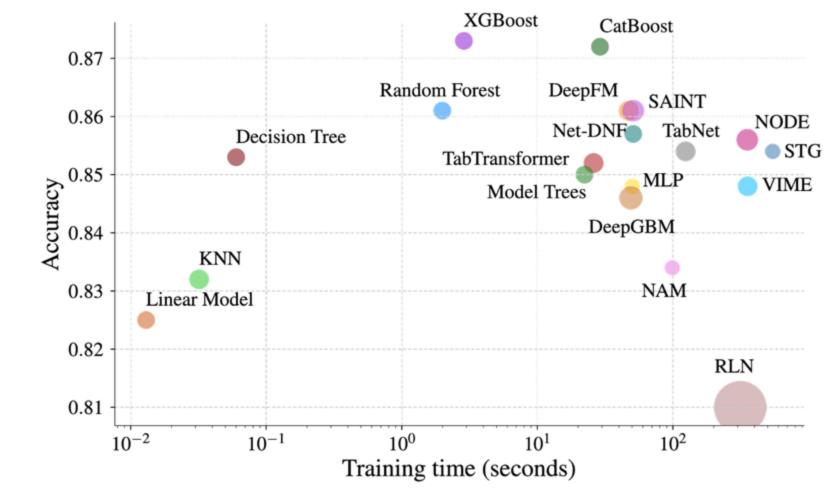
Ensemble methods (bagging, boosting, stacking)

Decision Tree Ensembles

"gradient-boosted tree **ensembles** still mostly outperform deep learning models on supervised learning tasks [on heterogeneous tabular data]" a data set with a fixed number

of features that are either

continuous or categorical



Results on Adult Income dataset from UCI repository. Task: predict whether income exceeds \$50K/yr based on census data

Borisov, V., Leemann, T., Seßler, K., Haug, J., Pawelczyk, M. and Kasneci, G., 2022. Deep neural networks and tabular data: A survey. IEEE Transactions on Neural Networks and Learning Systems.

| م م اطر | | Acc ↑ | AUC ↑ | $MSE\downarrow$ |
|--|---------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|-----------------|-------------------|
| Gradient-boosted Deep Learning decision tree ensemble | Linear Model | 73.0±0.0 | 80.1±0.1 | 82.5±0.2 | 85.4±0.2 | 64.1±0.0 | 68.4±0.0 | 72.4±0.0 | 92.8±0.0 | 0.528 ± 0.008 |
| | KNN [65] | 72.2 ± 0.0 | 79.0 ± 0.1 | 83.2 ± 0.2 | 87.5 ± 0.2 | 62.3 ± 0.1 | 67.1 ± 0.0 | 70.2 ± 0.1 | 90.1 ± 0.2 | 0.421 ± 0.009 |
| | Decision Tree [197] | 80.3 ± 0.0 | 89.3 ± 0.1 | 85.3 ± 0.2 | 89.8 ± 0.1 | 71.3 ± 0.0 | 78.7 ± 0.0 | 79.1 ± 0.0 | 95.0 ± 0.0 | 0.404 ± 0.007 |
| | Random Forest [198] | 82.1 ± 0.2 | 90.0 ± 0.2 | 86.1 ± 0.2 | 91.7 ± 0.2 | 71.9 ± 0.0 | 79.7 ± 0.0 | 78.1 ± 0.1 | 96.1 ± 0.0 | 0.272 ± 0.006 |
| | XGBoost [53] | 83.5 ± 0.2 | 92.2 ± 0.0 | 87.3 ± 0.2 | 92.8 ± 0.1 | 77.6 ± 0.0 | 85.9 ± 0.0 | 97.3 \pm 0.0 | 99.9±0.0 | 0.206 ± 0.005 |
| | LightGBM [78] | 83.5 ± 0.1 | 92.3 ± 0.0 | 87.4 ± 0.2 | 92.9 ± 0.1 | 77.1 ± 0.0 | 85.5 ± 0.0 | 93.5 ± 0.0 | 99.7 ± 0.0 | 0.195 ± 0.005 |
| | CatBoost [79] | 83.6±0.3 | 92.4 \pm 0.1 | 87.2 ± 0.2 | 92.8 ± 0.1 | 77.5 ± 0.0 | 85.8 ± 0.0 | 96.4 ± 0.0 | 99.8 ± 0.0 | 0.196 ± 0.004 |
| | Model Trees [199] | 82.6±0.2 | 91.5±0.0 | 85.0±0.2 | 90.4±0.1 | 69.8±0.0 | 76.7 ± 0.0 | - | - | 0.385 ± 0.019 |
| | MLP [200] | 73.2 ± 0.3 | 80.3±0.1 | 84.8 ± 0.1 | 90.3 ± 0.2 | 77.1 ± 0.0 | 85.6 ± 0.0 | 91.0 ± 0.4 | 76.1 ± 3.0 | 0.263 ± 0.008 |
| | DeepFM [15] | 73.6 ± 0.2 | 80.4 ± 0.1 | 86.1 ± 0.2 | 91.7 ± 0.1 | 76.9 ± 0.0 | 83.4 ± 0.0 | - | - | 0.260 ± 0.006 |
| | DeepGBM [70] | 78.0 ± 0.4 | 84.1 ± 0.1 | 84.6 ± 0.3 | 90.8 ± 0.1 | 74.5 ± 0.0 | 83.0 ± 0.0 | - | - | 0.856 ± 0.065 |
| | RLN [72] | 73.2 ± 0.4 | 80.1 ± 0.4 | 81.0 ± 1.6 | 75.9 ± 8.2 | 71.8 ± 0.2 | 79.4 ± 0.2 | 77.2 ± 1.5 | 92.0 ± 0.9 | 0.348 ± 0.013 |
| | TabNet [5] | 81.0 ± 0.1 | 90.0 ± 0.1 | 85.4 ± 0.2 | 91.1 ± 0.1 | 76.5 ± 1.3 | 84.9 ± 1.4 | 93.1 ± 0.2 | 99.4 ± 0.0 | 0.346 ± 0.007 |
| | VIME [88] | 72.7 ± 0.0 | 79.2 ± 0.0 | 84.8 ± 0.2 | 90.5 ± 0.2 | 76.9 ± 0.2 | 85.5 ± 0.1 | 90.9 ± 0.1 | 82.9 ± 0.7 | 0.275 ± 0.007 |
| | TabTransformer [98] | 73.3 ± 0.1 | 80.1 ± 0.2 | 85.2 ± 0.2 | 90.6 ± 0.2 | 73.8 ± 0.0 | 81.9 ± 0.0 | 76.5 ± 0.3 | 72.9 ± 2.3 | 0.451 ± 0.014 |
| | NODE [6] | 79.8 ± 0.2 | 87.5 ± 0.2 | 85.6 ± 0.3 | 91.1 ± 0.2 | 76.9 ± 0.1 | 85.4 ± 0.1 | 89.9 ± 0.1 | 98.7 ± 0.0 | 0.276 ± 0.005 |
| | Net-DNF [57] | 82.6 ± 0.4 | 91.5 ± 0.2 | 85.7 ± 0.2 | 91.3 ± 0.1 | 76.6 ± 0.1 | 85.1 ± 0.1 | 94.2 ± 0.1 | 99.1 ± 0.0 | - |
| | STG [201] | 73.1 ± 0.1 | 80.0 ± 0.1 | 85.4 ± 0.1 | 90.9 ± 0.1 | 73.9 ± 0.1 | 81.9 ± 0.1 | 81.8 ± 0.3 | 96.2 ± 0.0 | 0.285 ± 0.006 |
| | NAM [202] | 73.3 ± 0.1 | 80.7 ± 0.3 | 83.4 ± 0.1 | 86.6 ± 0.1 | 53.9 ± 0.6 | 55.0 ± 1.2 | - | - | 0.725 ± 0.022 |
| | SAINT [9] | 82.1±0.3 | 90.7±0.2 | 86.1±0.3 | 91.6±0.2 | 79.8±0.0 | 88.3±0.0 | 96.3±0.1 | <u>99.8±0.0</u> | 0.226±0.004 |
| Borisov, V., Leemann, T., Seßler, K., Haug, J., Pawelczyk, M. and Kasneci, G., 2022. Deep neural networks and tabular data: A survey. IEEE Transactions on Neural Networks and Learning Systems. | | | | | | | | | | |
| Kyle R | radhurv | | Tree | -hased Meth | nnds & Ensei | mhles | Lectu | re 11 | | 5 |

Benchmark datasets: HELOC bold ones are the best ones by comparison

HIGGS

Cal. Housing

Covertype

Parametric vs Nonparametric techniques

Non-parametric Models

Complexity of the model grows with the size of the training data

Parametric Models

Fixed number of parameters (i.e. a fixed structure)

How is KNN more complex based on data size?

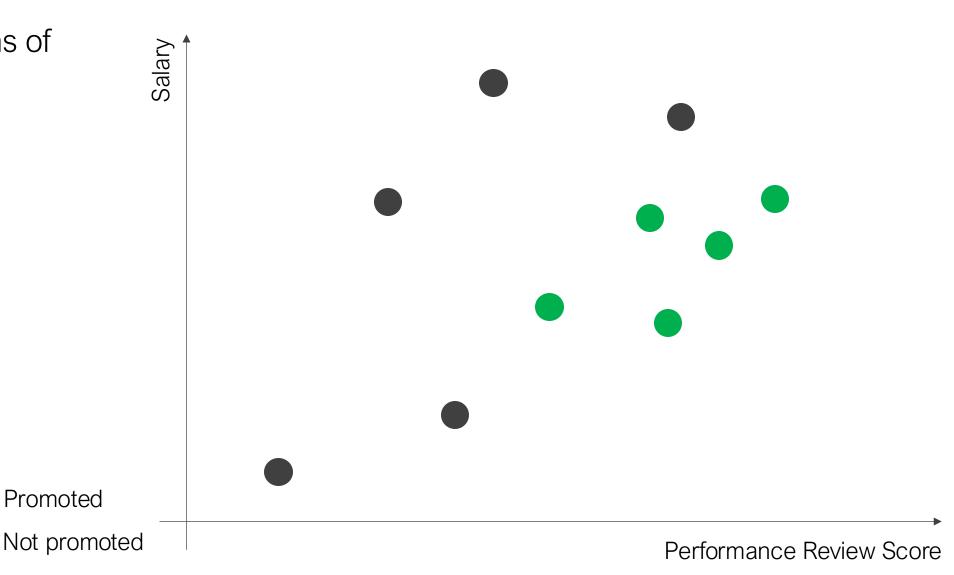
- K-Nearest Neighbors
- Decision Trees

- Linear regression
- Logistic regression
- LDA, QDA
- Naïve Bayes with Gaussian likelihoods

Classification trees = decision trees

Promoted

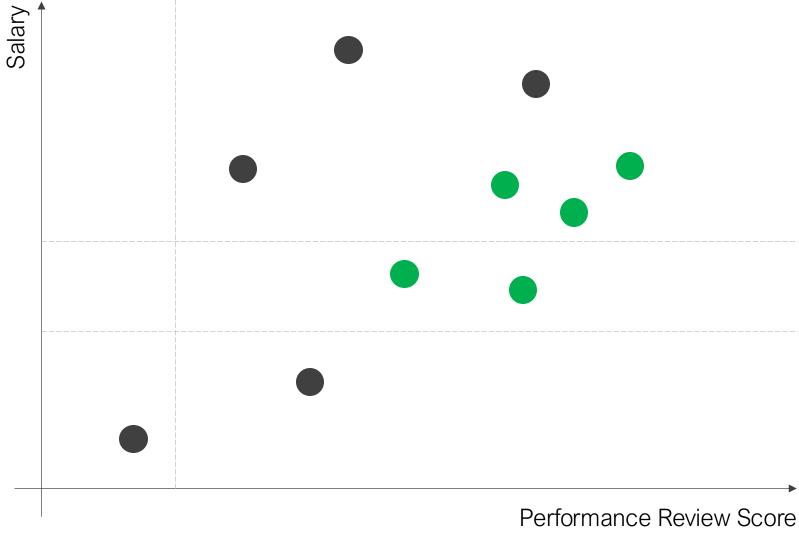
Predicting promotions of salaried employees



Kyle Bradbury

Predicting promotions of salaried employees

Find the best "split" in any one feature (that best classifies the data) that divides the region in two

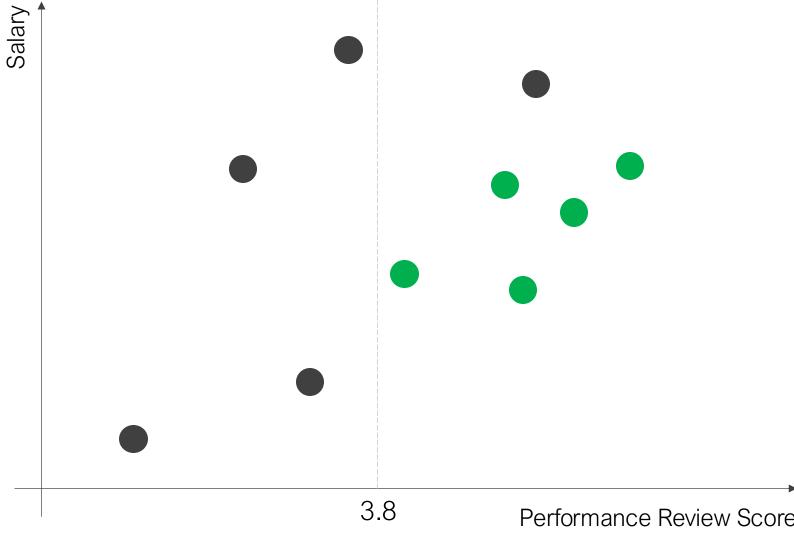


Promoted

Not promoted

Predicting promotions of salaried employees

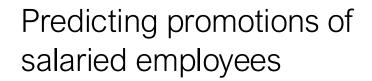
Find the best "split" in any one feature (that best classifies the data) that divides the region in two



Promoted

Not promoted

Performance Review Score

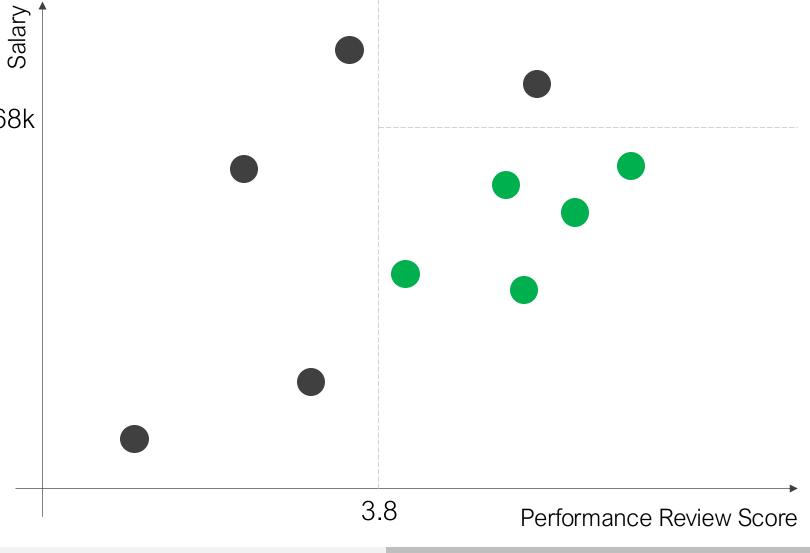


- Find the best "split" in any one 68k feature (that best classifies the
- feature (that best classifies the data) that divides the region in two
- Continue splitting regions (1 feature at a time) until a stopping criterion is reached (e.g. there are at most N samples in any region

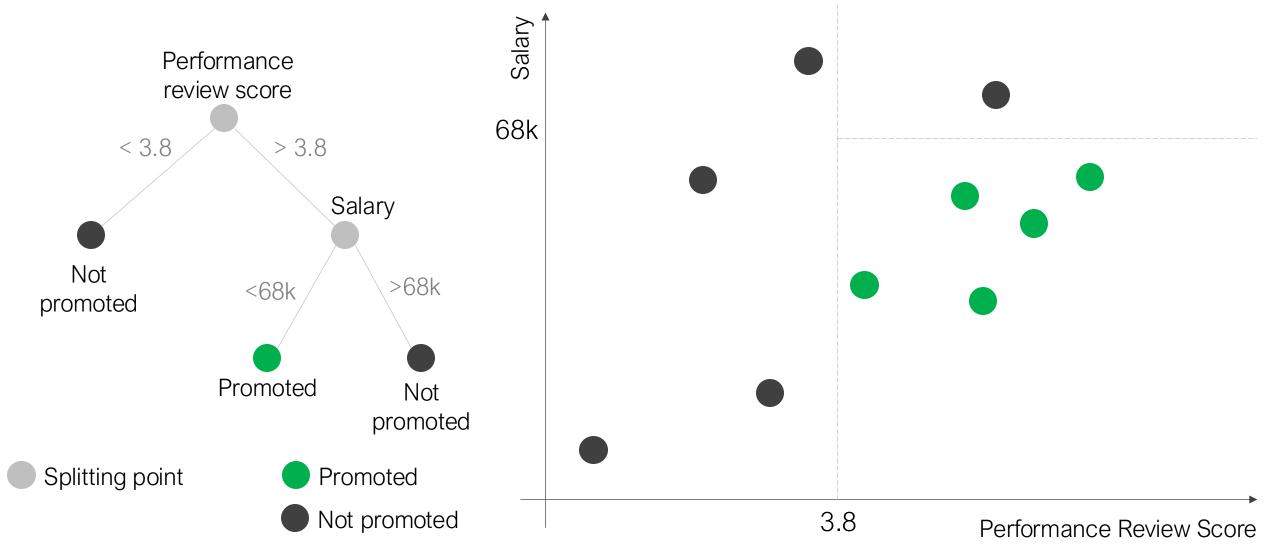
Greedy, recursive binary tree



Not promoted



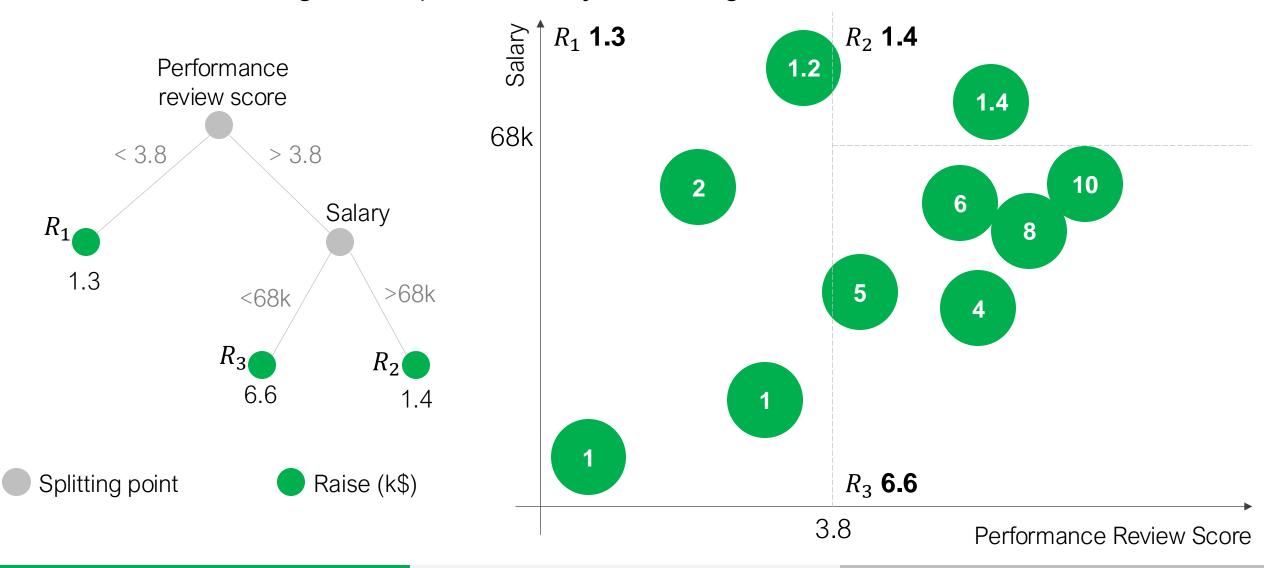
Tree representation:



Tree representation: continue splitting until each region only has one class R_1 Not promoted R_2 Not promoted Performance review score 68k > 3.8 < 3.8 Salary R_1 **Branch** Not >68k <68k promoted R_3 R_2 **Promoted** Not promoted Internal node: Terminal node (leaf): R_3 Promoted Splitting point Promoted Not promoted 3.8 Performance Review Score

The Regression Setting

In this case, each region is represented by an average of the values it contains



How do we determine which split to make?

Pick the split that reduces the error/cost criterion most after the split

Splitting criterion

$$C = \sum_{r=1}^{R_{tot}} Q(r)$$

Regression

Mean square error

$$Q_{MSE}(r) = \sum_{i \in R_r} (y_i - \hat{y}_{R_r})^2$$

 y_i = training data response i $\hat{y}_{R_r} = \text{mean value in region } r$, (where R_r is the set of samples in region r)

Classification

Misclassification rate

$$Q_{Misclass}(r) = 1 - \max_{k} (\hat{p}_{rk})$$

Gini impurity

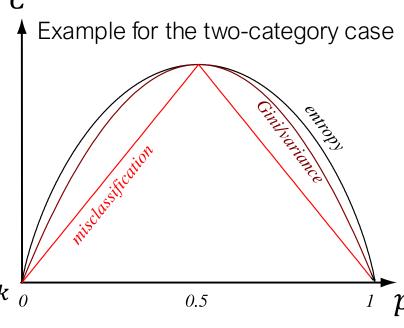
Measure of how often a randomly chosen element from the set would be incorrectly labeled if it was randomly labeled

$$Q_{Gini}(r) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \hat{p}_{rk} (1 - \hat{p}_{rk})$$

Cross-entropy

$$Q_{entropy}(r) = -\sum_{k=1}^{K} \hat{p}_{rk} \log \hat{p}_{rk}$$

 \hat{p}_{rk} = proportion of training observations in the r^{th} region from the k^{th} class



Duda, Hart, and Stork., Pattern Classification

How to measure quality of split for classification?

Class 1

Class 2



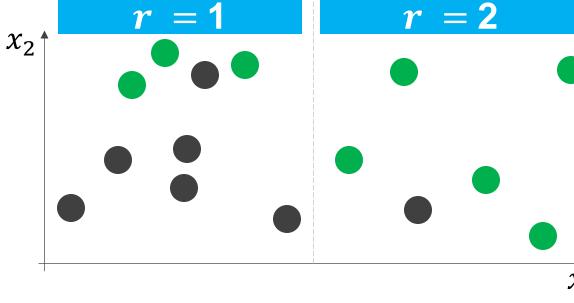
 \hat{p}_{rk} = proportion of training observations in the r^{th} region from the k^{th} class

For each region:

Misclassification rate

$$Q_{Misclass}(r) = 1 - \max_{k} \ (\hat{p}_{rk})$$





Gini impurity

$$Q_{Gini}(r) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \hat{p}_{rk} (1 - \hat{p}_{rk})$$

$$\hat{p}_{11} = 3/9$$

$$\hat{p}_{12} = 6/9$$

$$\hat{p}_{21} = 5/6$$

$$\hat{p}_{22} = 1/6$$

Cross-entropy

$$Q_{entropy}(r) = -\sum_{k} \hat{p}_{rk} \log \hat{p}_{rk} \quad _{0.637}$$

Tree Pruning

Trees have the tendency to overfit the data

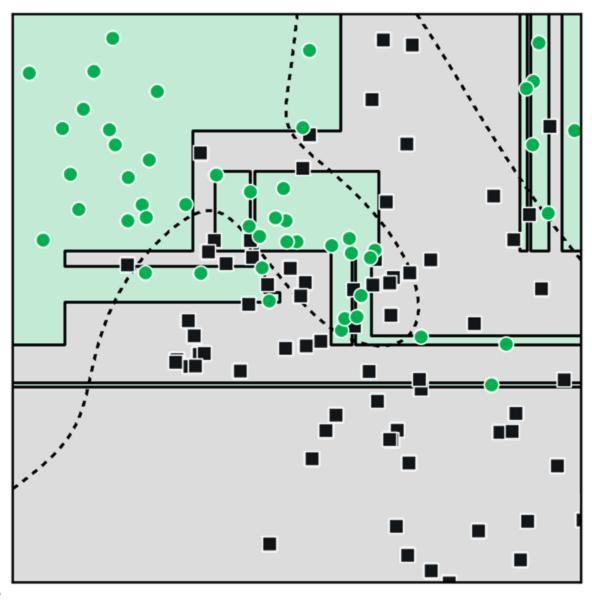
Consider the stopping rule: stop splitting once there is only 1 class of observations in each region (leads to complete overfit)

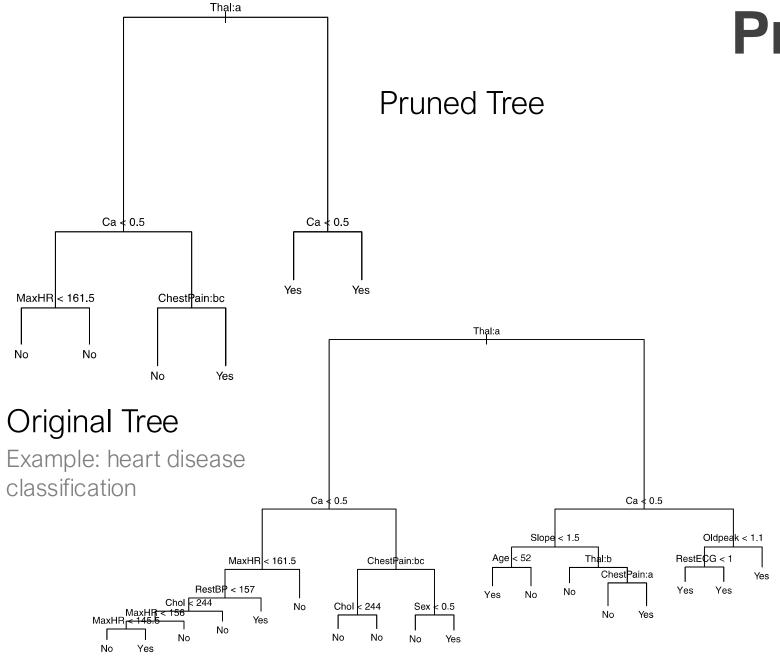
Pruning the tree reduces this overfit (removing splits after the tree is formed)

Pruning can be optimized through a penalty on the number of terminal nodes:

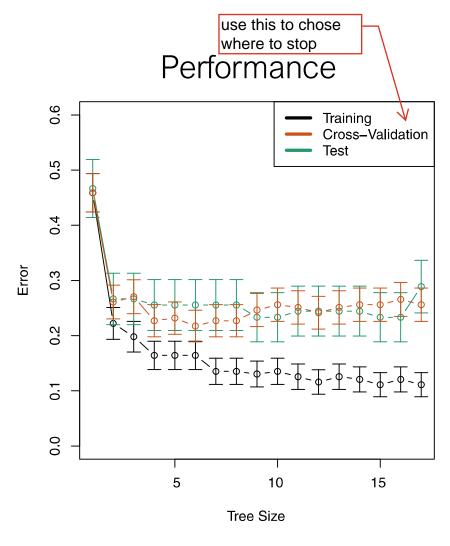
$$C_{Prune} = \sum_{j=1}^{T} \sum_{i \in R_j} \left(y_i - \hat{y}_{R_j} \right)^2 + \alpha T$$
 penalty on number of number of terminal nodes

Decision Tree



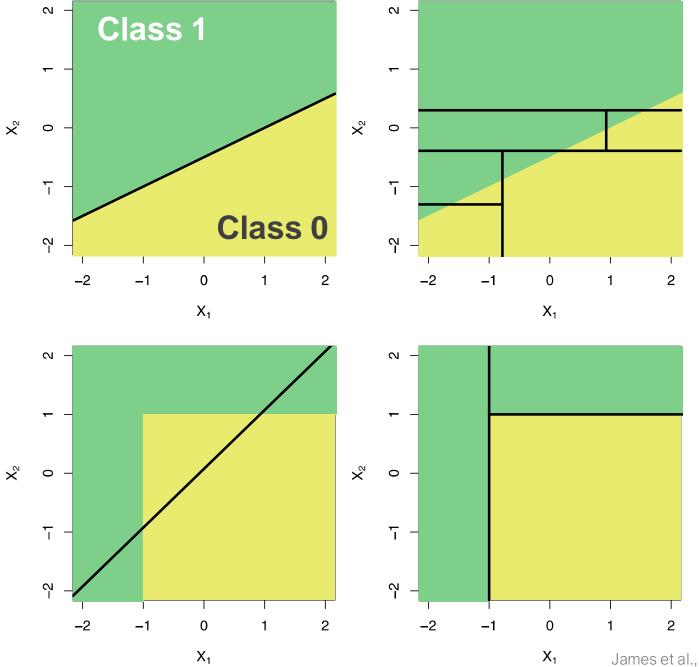


Pruning example



James et al., An Introduction to Statistical Learning

Linear model



Classification Tree

Struggle when the boundary is not parallel to an axis

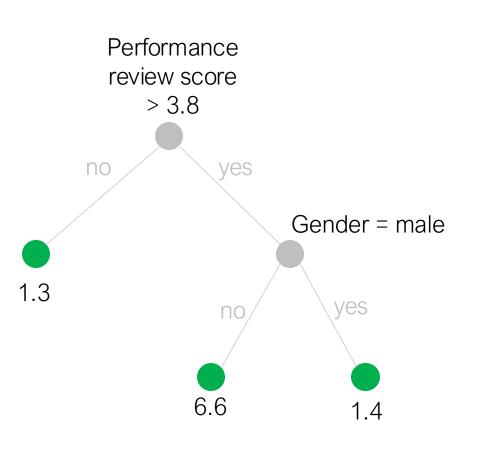
...nonlinear feature transforms could help...

James et al., An Introduction to Statistical Learning

Pros/Cons

Numerical data

Categorical data



Pros:

Trees easily handle multiple types of data

Trees are easy to interpret

Cons:

Trees do not typically have the same level of predictive accuracy of other methods

Tend to overfit (have high variance)

Ensemble learning

Combining models to improve performance beyond any individual model alone

Bagging (bootstrap aggregation)
Random forests (tree-specific modification of bagging)
Gradient boosting

Reducing Variance or Bias through ensembles

Bagging

Boosting

Models in ensemble:

high variance, low bias (i.e. overfit models)

high bias, low variance (i.e. underfit models, "weak learners")

Effect of aggregating:

Reduce variance through averaging output

Reduce bias through sequentially fitting models to previous model errors

Bootstrap aggregation

Trees overfit (have high variance). Averaging over observations reduces variance

Recall bootstrap sampling (sampling with replacement):

Original Data:

















Bootstrapped sample 1:

























Bootstrap aggregation

- 1 Create a random bootstrap sample from the training data
- Train a model on that bootstrap sample and call it $\hat{f}_b(x)$
- Repeat 1 and 2 until we have B models trained on different bootstrap samples
- Take the average of the output for our new model estimate:

$$\hat{f}_{bag}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{b=1}^{B} \hat{f}_{b}(\mathbf{x})$$

(for classification models we can get the average class confidence or take a majority vote)

Tree Number:



2



4

Observations

Included:

(out of 1-9)

[1,2,3,3,8]

[1,2,4,7,7]

[1,5,6,8,9]

[2,2,2,4,9]

Features list:

[A, B, C, D]

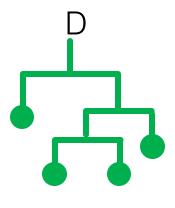
[A, B, C, D]

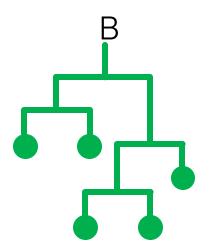
[A, B, C, D]

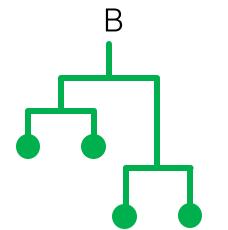
[A, B, C, D]

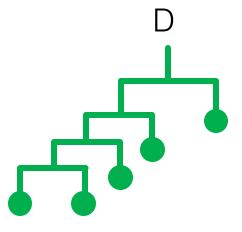
First split:

Trees:









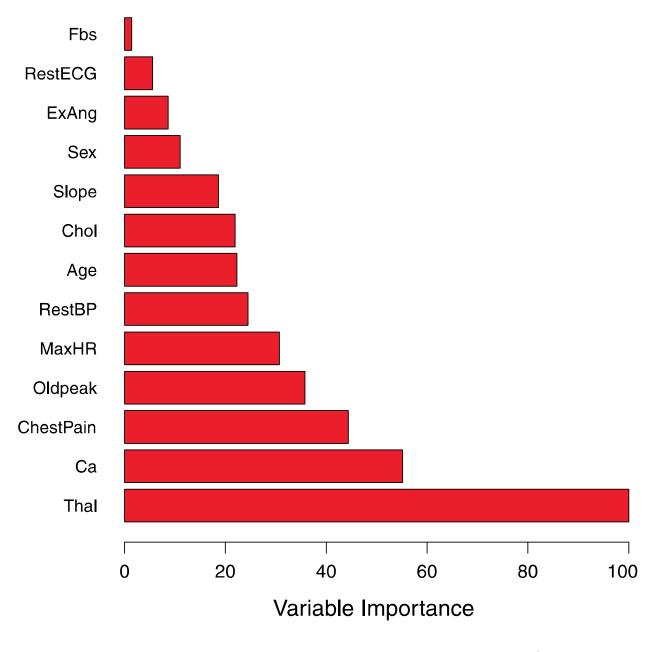
Variable Importance

Decision trees are very interpretable, but this is lost with bagging

We can construct another measure called "variable importance" to compare feature contributions

Calculate the total amount the error (or impurity) decreased by splitting on each feature.

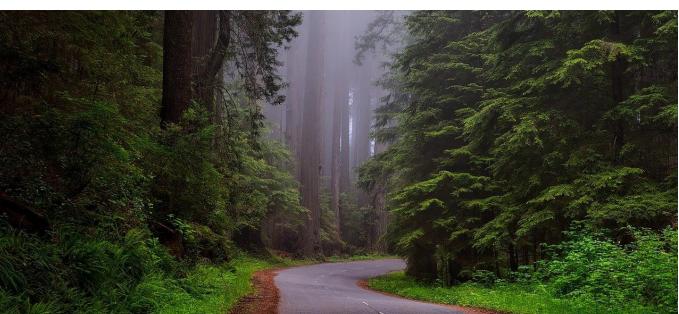
Average over all the trees resulting from bagging



James et al., An Introduction to Statistical Learning









Kyle Bradbury

Tree-based Methods & Ensembles

Random Forests

A small tweak on bagging

Random forests decorrelate the bagged trees

Decision trees are constructed greedily

This can lead to highly correlated trees

"Strong" features will typically be split before moderately strong predictors.

Each time a split is considered, a **random subset of** m **features** is selected as candidates from the full set of p features

Typically chose:
$$m = \sqrt{p}$$

(If m = p, then we would be back to the bagging approach)

Random forests

Observations Included: (out of 1-9)

[1,2,3,3,8]

[1,2,3,3,8]

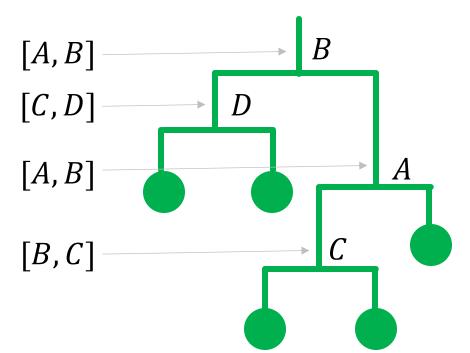
Features list:

[A, B, C, D]

[A, B, C, D]

eature options for each split:

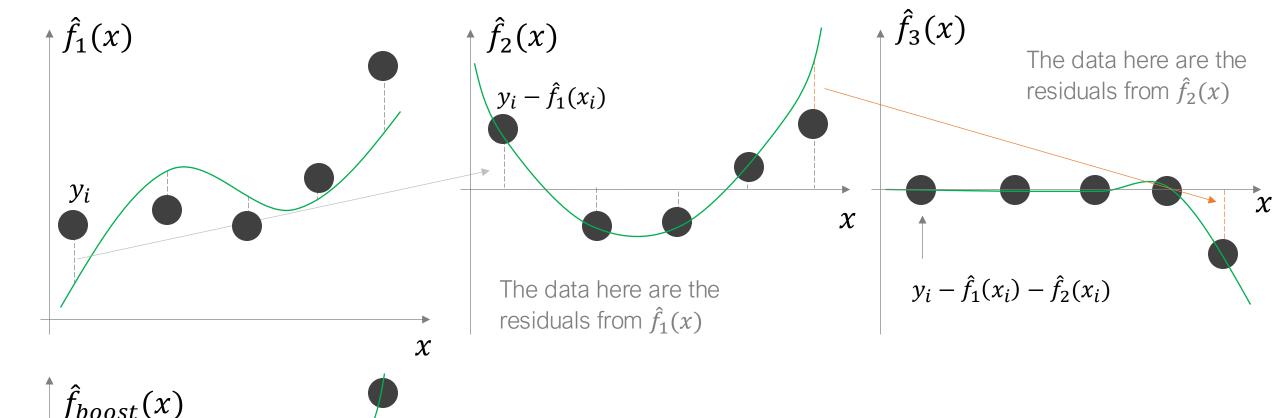
[A, B, C, D] [A, B, C, D] [A, B, C, D]



Boosting

Bagging created trees that were designed to be as independent as possible

Boosting involves building trees sequentially, each building on the errors of the last



We build consecutive models, each fit to the residuals of the last model

Lecture 11

We sum models output to get the boosted prediction $\hat{f}_{boost}(x) = \hat{f}_1(x) + \hat{f}_2(x) + \hat{f}_3(x)$

Boosting

Boosting for regression trees

Select the number of models to train, B, and learning rate λ

λ slows down the learning process to avoid overfitting

- Set $\hat{f}(x) = 0$ and $r_i = y_i$ for all the training data
- 3 Fit a tree, $\hat{f}_b(x)$ to the residuals, r_i (with d splits)
- 4 Update $\hat{f}(x) \leftarrow \hat{f}(x) + \lambda \hat{f}_b(x)$
- 5 Update the residuals $r_i \leftarrow r_i \lambda \hat{f}_b(\mathbf{x}_i)$
- 6 Output the boosted model: $\hat{f}(x) = \sum_{b=1}^{2} \lambda \hat{f}_b(x)$

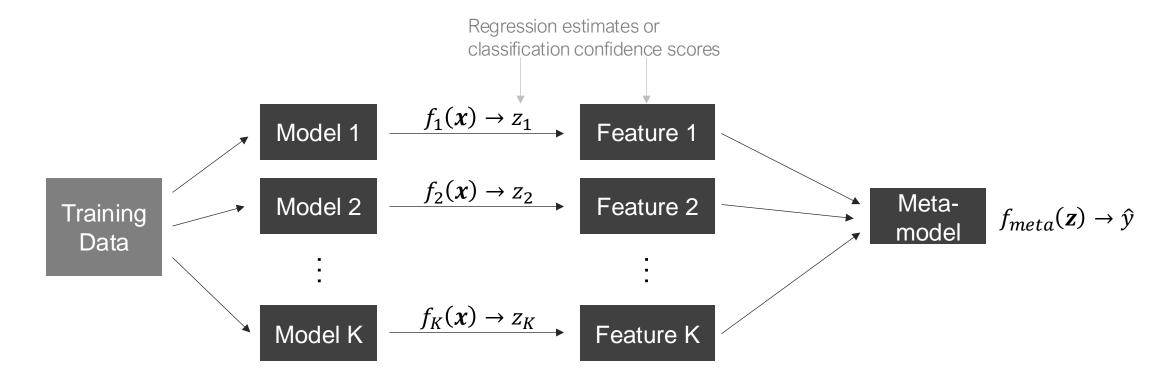
Often this is just a small number of splits (a stump)

Repeat B times

Model Stacking

Train multiple supervised learning techniques (could be different models)

THEN Train a supervised learning technique that includes the **outputs** of the other models as **features**



Supervised Learning Techniques

- Linear Regression
- K-Nearest Neighbors
 - Perceptron
 - Logistic Regression
 - Linear Discriminant Analysis
 - Quadratic Discriminant Analysis
 - Naïve Bayes
- Decision Trees and Random Forests
- Ensemble methods (bagging, boosting, stacking)

Can be used with numerous machine learning techniques, often CART

Appropriate for:

Classification

Regression