

# Gradient Boosted Regression Trees



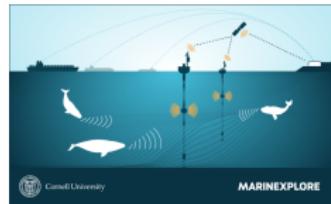
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*DataRobot*

Gilles Louppe ([@glouppe](#))  
*Université de Liège, Belgium*

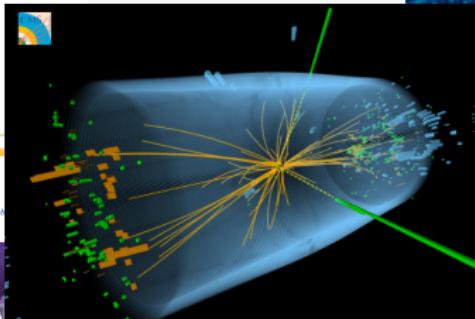
# Motivation



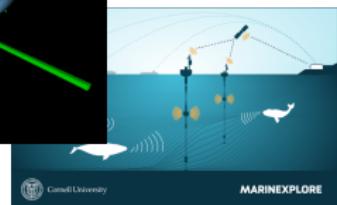
**GEFCom2012**  
Wind Forecasting



# Motivation



WIND FORECASTING



# Outline

- 1 Basics
- 2 Gradient Boosting
- 3 Gradient Boosting in scikit-learn
- 4 Case Study: California housing

# About us

## Peter

- [@pprett](#)
- Python & ML ~ 6 years
- sklearn dev since 2010

## Gilles

- [@glouuppe](#)
  - PhD student (Liège, Belgium)
  - sklearn dev since 2011
- Chief tree hugger*



# Outline

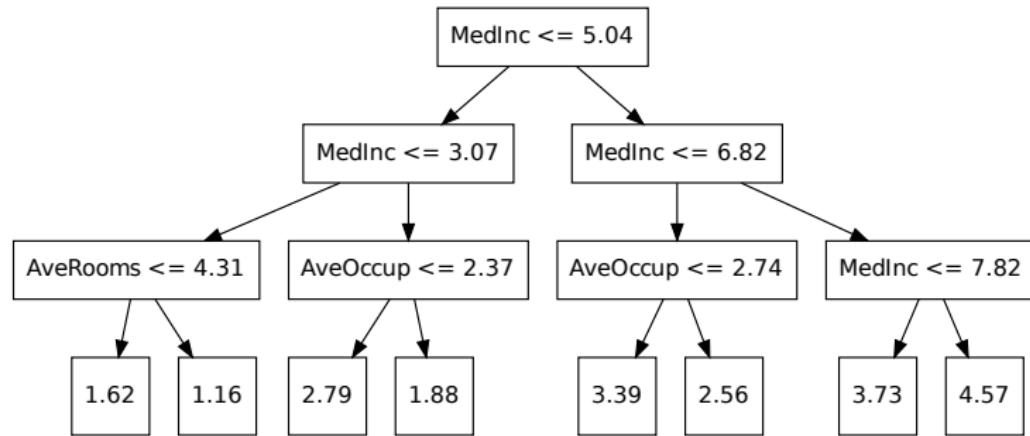
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# Machine Learning 101

- Data comes as...
  - A set of examples  $\{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) | 0 \leq i < n\_samples\}$ , with
  - Feature vector  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{n\_features}$ , and
  - Response  $y \in \mathbb{R}$  (regression) or  $y \in \{-1, 1\}$  (classification)
- Goal is to...
  - Find a function  $\hat{y} = f(\mathbf{x})$
  - Such that error  $L(y, \hat{y})$  on new (unseen)  $\mathbf{x}$  is minimal

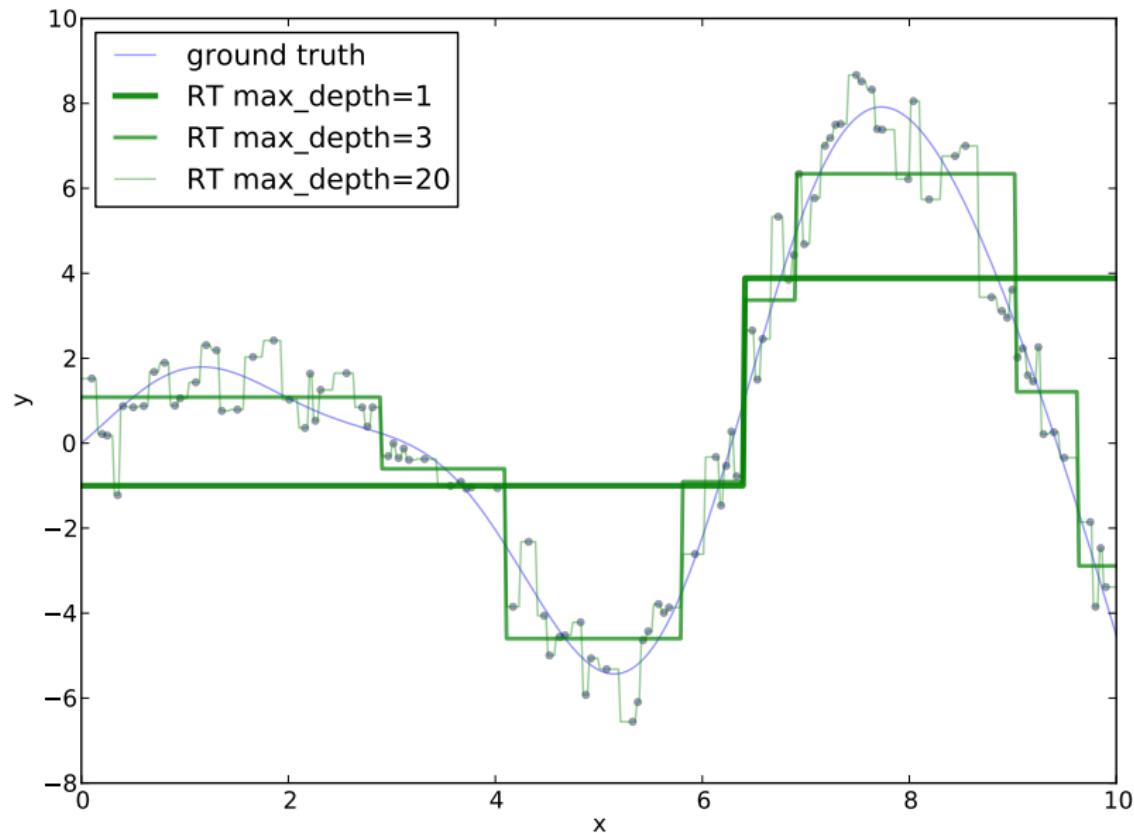


# Classification and Regression Trees [Breiman et al, 1984]

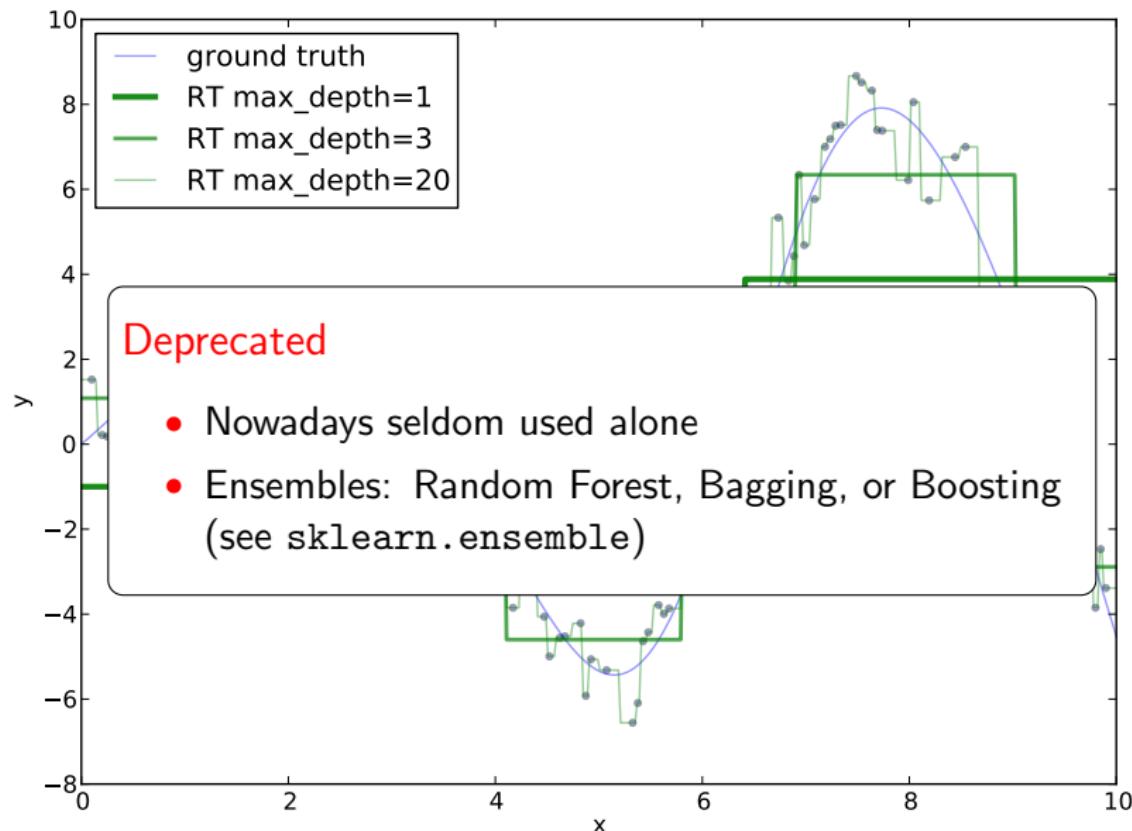


 `sklearn.tree.DecisionTreeClassifier|Regressor`

# Function approximation with Regression Trees



# Function approximation with Regression Trees



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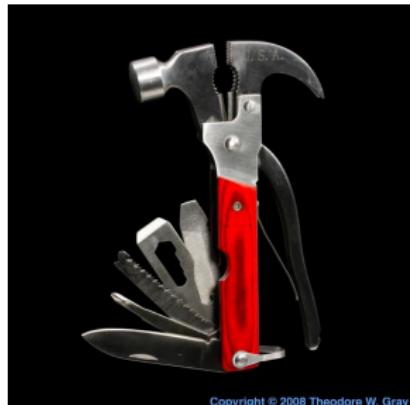
# Gradient Boosted Regression Trees

## Advantages

- Heterogeneous data (features measured on different scale)
- Supports different loss functions (e.g. huber)
- Automatically detects (non-linear) feature interactions

## Disadvantages

- Requires careful tuning
- Slow to train (but fast to predict)
- Cannot extrapolate

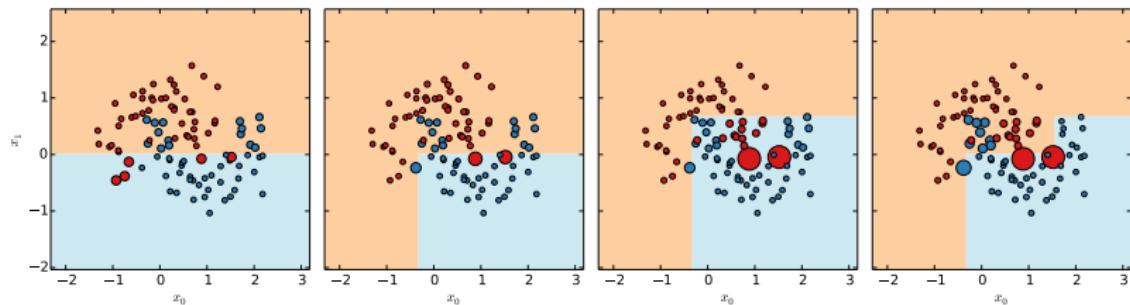


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# Boosting

AdaBoost [Y. Freund & R. Schapire, 1995]

- Ensemble: each member is an expert on the errors of its predecessor
- Iteratively re-weights training examples based on errors

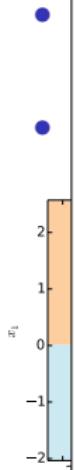
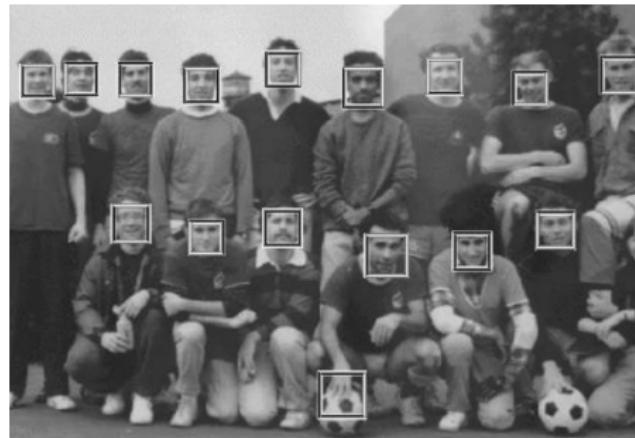


# Boosting

Huge success

Ada

- Viola-Jones Face Detector (2001)



- Freund & Schapire won the Gödel prize 2003

# Gradient Boosting [J. Friedman, 1999]

## Statistical view on boosting

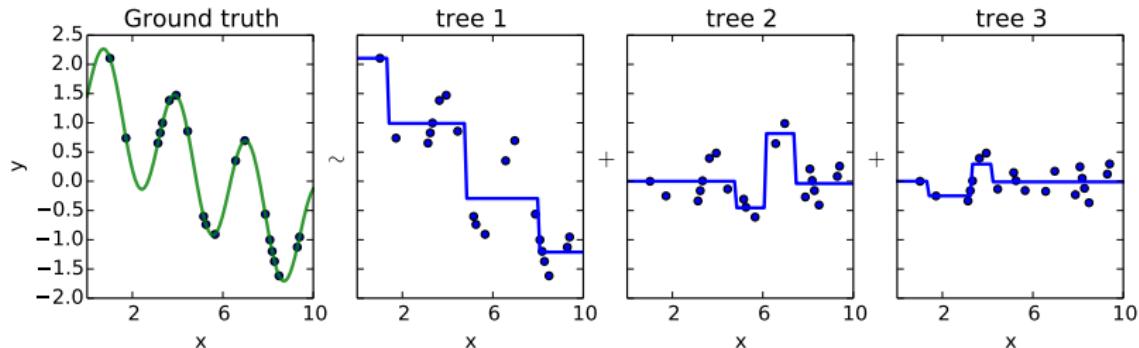
- $\Rightarrow$  Generalization of boosting to arbitrary loss functions

# Gradient Boosting [J. Friedman, 1999]

## Statistical view on boosting

- ⇒ Generalization of boosting to arbitrary loss functions

## Residual fitting



# Functional Gradient Descent

## Least Squares Regression

- Squared loss:  $L(y_i, f(\mathbf{x}_i)) = (y_i - f(\mathbf{x}_i))^2$
- The residual  $\sim$  the (negative) gradient  $\frac{\partial L(y_i, f(\mathbf{x}_i))}{\partial f(\mathbf{x}_i)}$

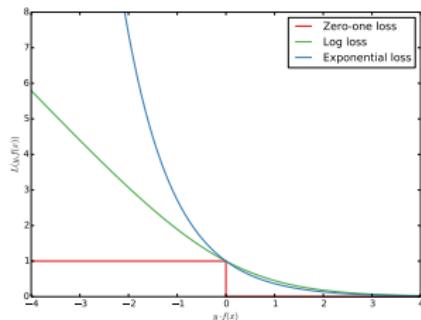
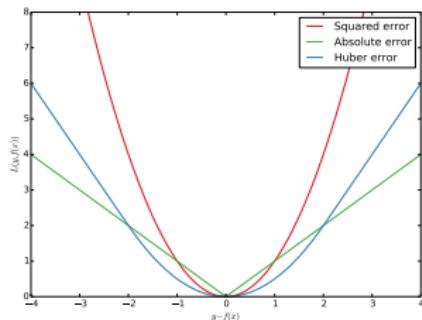
# Functional Gradient Descent

## Least Squares Regression

- Squared loss:  $L(y_i, f(\mathbf{x}_i)) = (y_i - f(\mathbf{x}_i))^2$
- The residual  $\sim$  the (negative) gradient  $\frac{\partial L(y_i, f(\mathbf{x}_i))}{\partial f(\mathbf{x}_i)}$

## Steepest Descent

- Regression trees approximate the (negative) gradient
- Each tree is a successive gradient descent step



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# GBRT in scikit-learn

## How to use it

```
>>> from sklearn.ensemble import GradientBoostingClassifier
>>> from sklearn.datasets import make_hastie_10_2
>>> X, y = make_hastie_10_2(n_samples=10000)
>>> est = GradientBoostingClassifier(n_estimators=200, max_depth=3)
>>> est.fit(X, y)

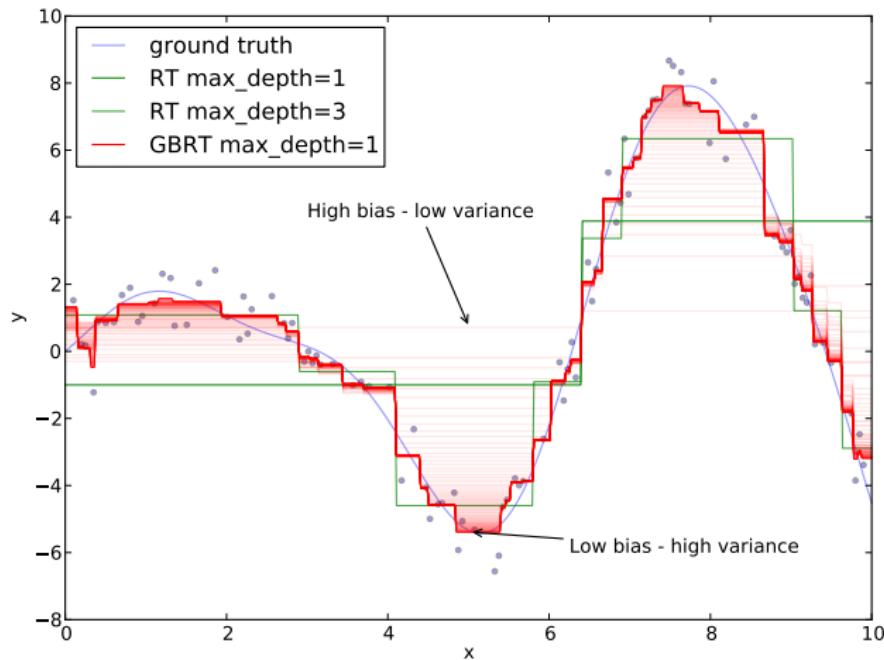
...
>>> # get predictions
>>> pred = est.predict(X)
>>> est.predict_proba(X)[0] # class probabilities
array([ 0.67,  0.33])
```

## Implementation

- Written in pure Python/Numpy (easy to extend).
- Builds on top of `sklearn.tree.DecisionTreeRegressor` (Cython).
- Custom node splitter that uses pre-sorting (better for shallow trees).

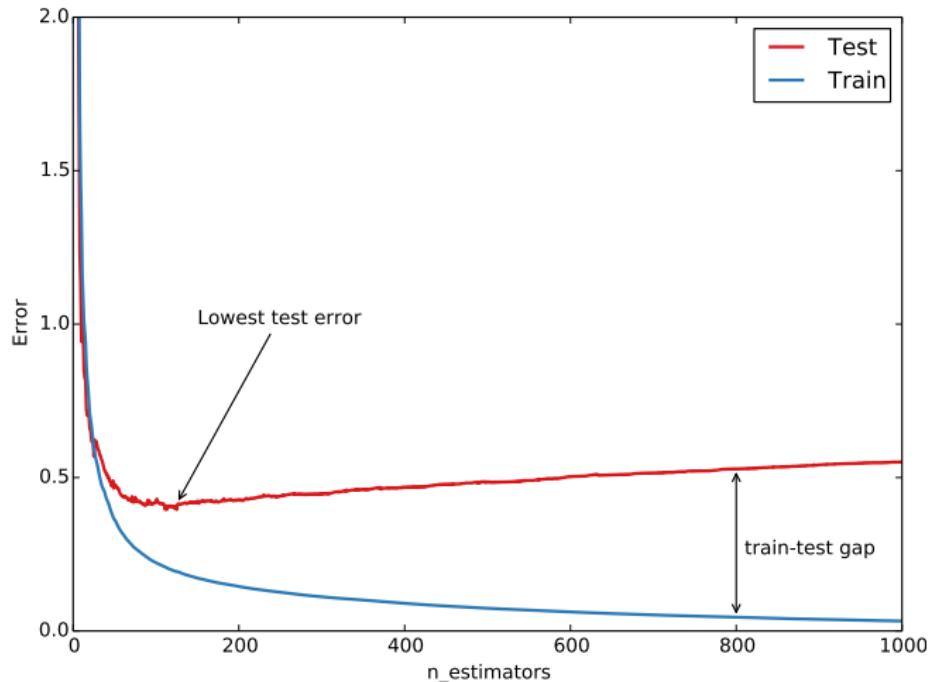
# Example

```
from sklearn.ensemble import GradientBoostingRegressor
est = GradientBoostingRegressor(n_estimators=2000, max_depth=1).fit(X, y)
for pred in est.staged_predict(X):
    plt.plot(X[:, 0], pred, color='r', alpha=0.1)
```



# Model complexity & Overfitting

```
test_score = np.empty(len(est.estimators_))
for i, pred in enumerate(est.staged_predict(X_test)):
    test_score[i] = est.loss_(y_test, pred)
plt.plot(np.arange(n_estimators) + 1, test_score, label='Test')
plt.plot(np.arange(n_estimators) + 1, est.train_score_, label='Train')
```



# Model complexity & Overfitting

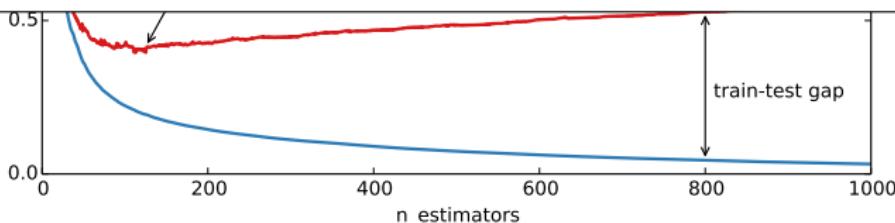
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```



## Regularization

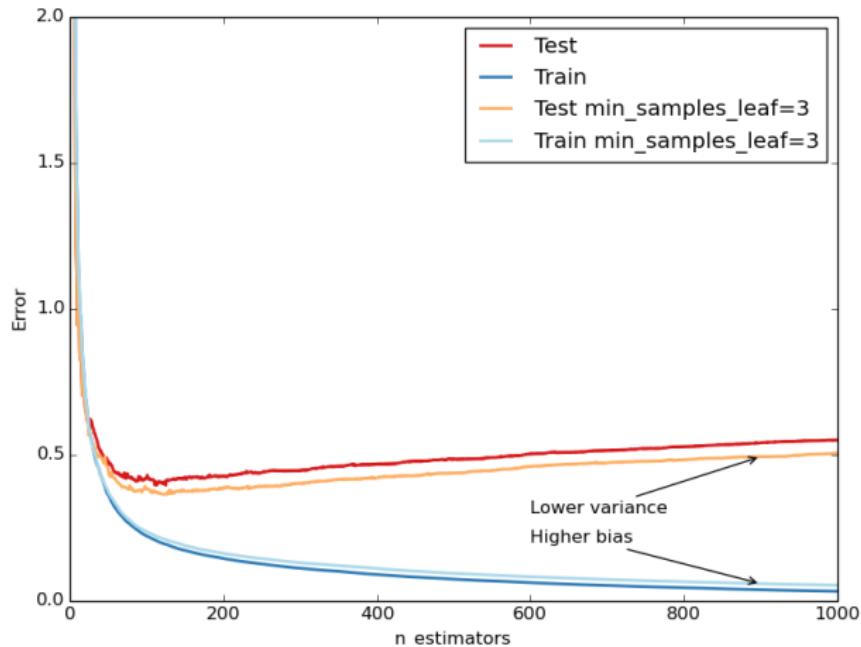
GBRT provides a number of knobs to control overfitting

- Tree structure
- Shrinkage
- Stochastic Gradient Boosting



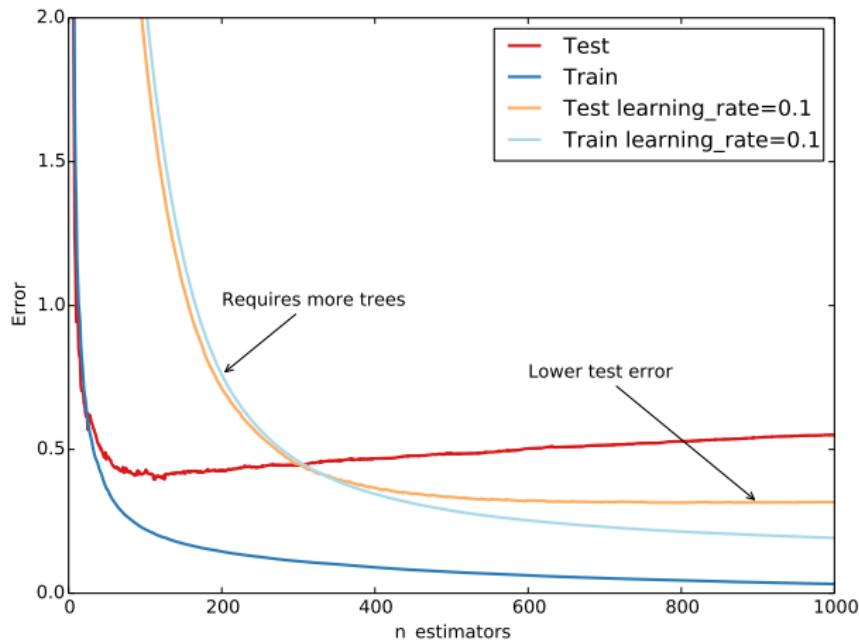
# Regularization: Tree structure

- The `max_depth` of the trees controls the degree of features interactions
- Use `min_samples_leaf` to have a sufficient nr. of samples per leaf.



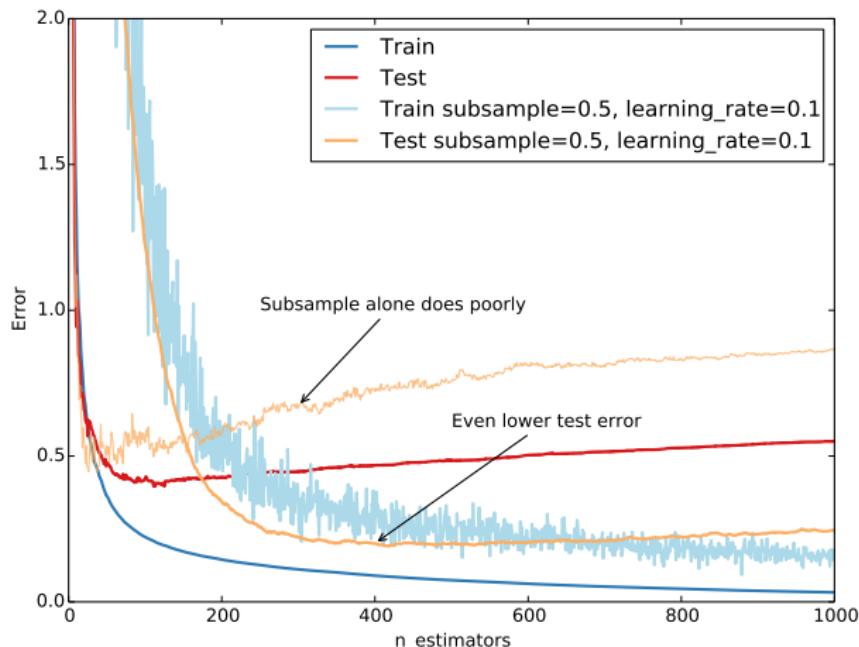
# Regularization: Shrinkage

- Slow learning by shrinking tree predictions with  $0 < \text{learning\_rate} \leq 1$
- Lower `learning_rate` requires higher `n_estimators`



# Regularization: Stochastic Gradient Boosting

- Samples: random subset of the training set (`subsample`)
- Features: random subset of features (`max_features`)
- Improved accuracy – reduced runtime



# Hyperparameter tuning

1. Set n\_estimators as high as possible (eg. 3000)
2. Tune hyperparameters via grid search.

```
from sklearn.grid_search import GridSearchCV
param_grid = {'learning_rate': [0.1, 0.05, 0.02, 0.01],
              'max_depth': [4, 6],
              'min_samples_leaf': [3, 5, 9, 17],
              'max_features': [1.0, 0.3, 0.1]}
est = GradientBoostingRegressor(n_estimators=3000)
gs_cv = GridSearchCV(est, param_grid).fit(X, y)
# best hyperparameter setting
gs_cv.best_params_
```

3. Finally, set n\_estimators even higher and tune learning\_rate.

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# Case Study

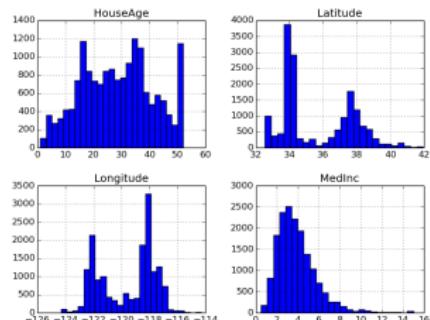
## California Housing dataset

- Predict  $\log(\text{medianHouseValue})$
- Block groups in 1990 census
- 20.640 groups with 8 features  
(median income, median age, lat, lon, ...)
- Evaluation: Mean absolute error  
on 80/20 split



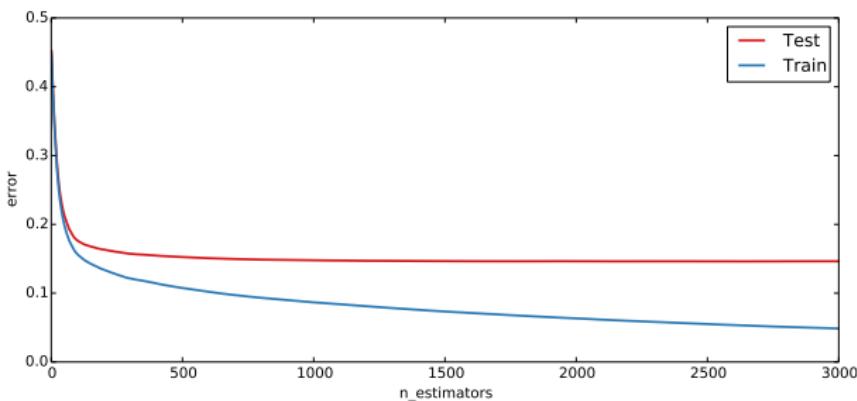
## Challenges

- Heterogeneous features
- Non-linear interactions



## Predictive accuracy & runtime

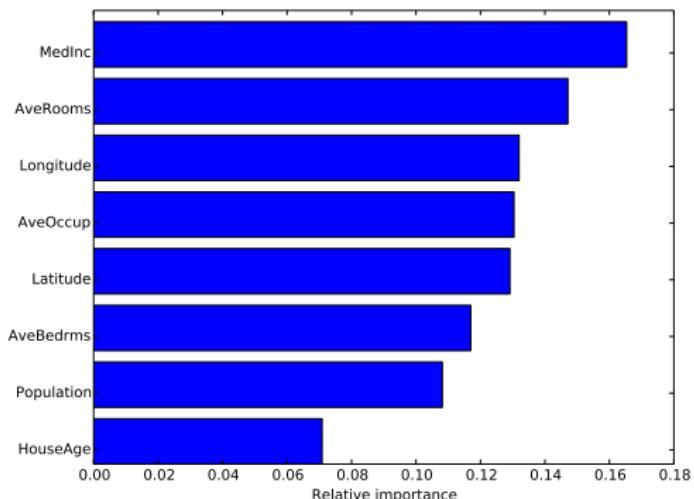
	Train time [s]	Test time [ms]	MAE
Mean	-	-	0.4635
Ridge	0.006	0.11	0.2756
SVR	28.0	2000.00	0.1888
RF	26.3	605.00	0.1620
GBRT	192.0	439.00	<b>0.1438</b>



# Model interpretation

Which features are important?

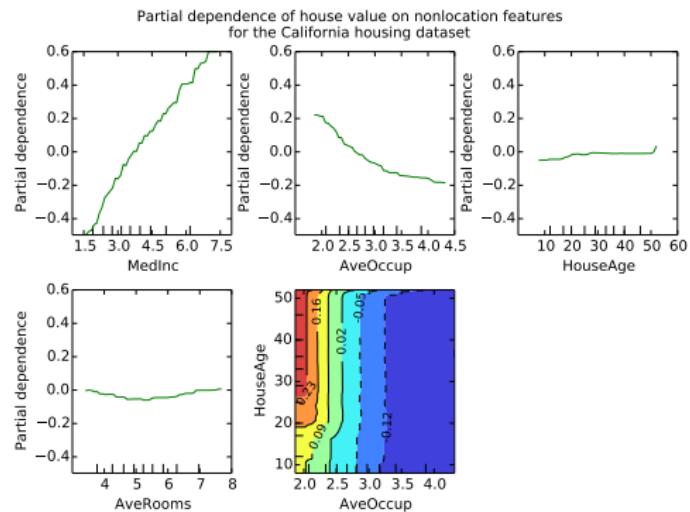
```
>>> est.feature_importances_
array([ 0.01,  0.38, ...])
```



# Model interpretation

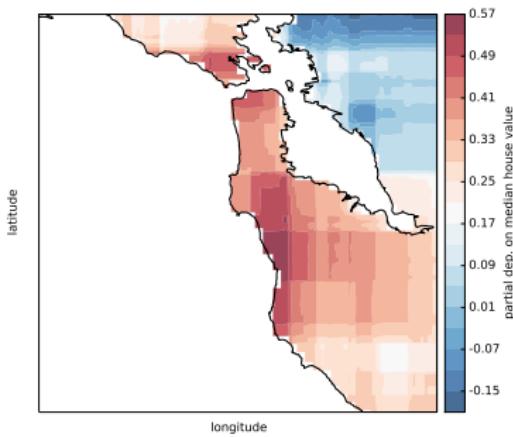
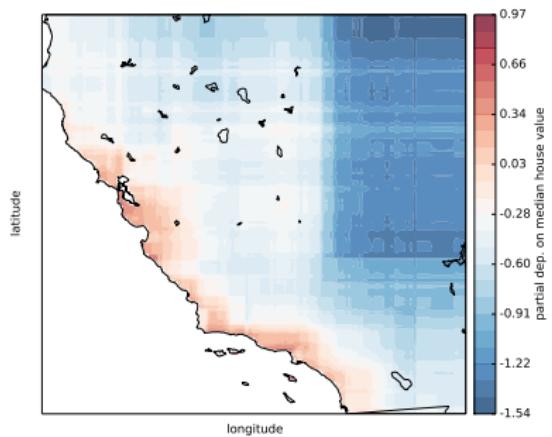
What is the effect of a feature on the response?

```
from sklearn.ensemble import partial_dependence import as pd  
  
features = ['MedInc', 'AveOccup', 'HouseAge', 'AveRooms',  
            ('AveOccup', 'HouseAge')]  
fig, axs = pd.plot_partial_dependence(est, X_train, features,  
                                       feature_names=names)
```



# Model interpretation

Automatically detects spatial effects



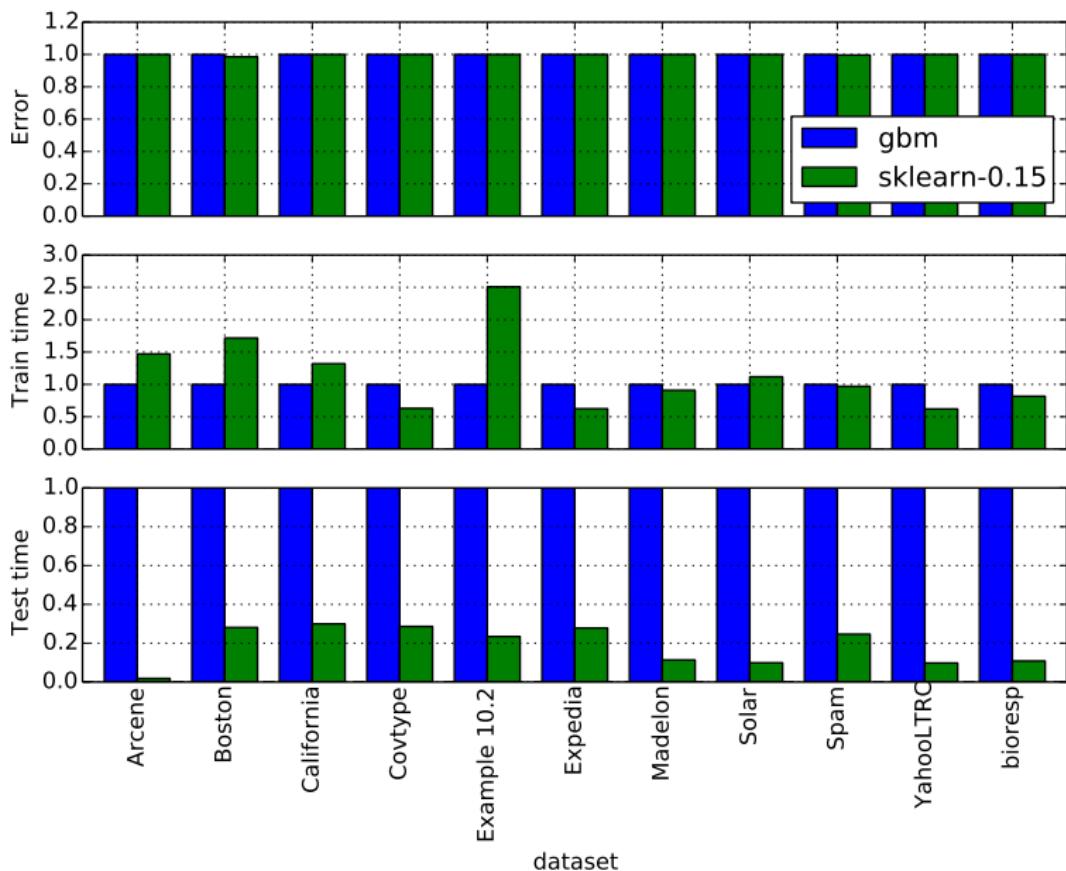
# Summary

- Flexible non-parametric classification and regression technique
- Applicable to a variety of problems
- Solid, battle-worn implementation in scikit-learn



Thanks! Questions?

# Benchmarks



# Tipps & Tricks 1

## Input layout

Use `dtype=np.float32` to avoid memory copies and fortran layout for slight runtime benefit.

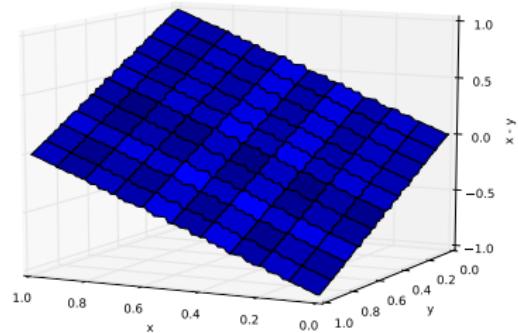
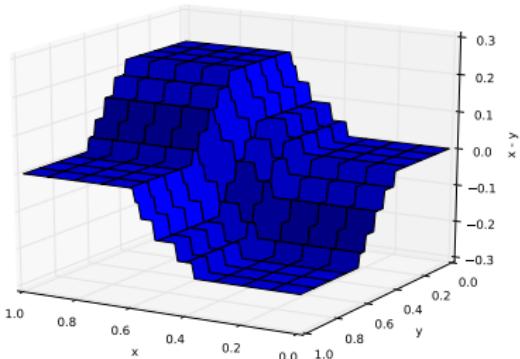
```
X = np.asfortranarray(X, dtype=np.float32)
```

# Tipps & Tricks 2

## Feature interactions

GBRT automatically detects feature interactions but often explicit interactions help.

Trees required to approximate  $X_1 - X_2$ : 10 (left), 1000 (right).



# Tipps & Tricks 3

## Categorical variables

Sklearn requires that categorical variables are encoded as numerics. Tree-based methods work well with ordinal encoding:

```
df = pd.DataFrame(data={'icao': ['CRJ2', 'A380', 'B737', 'B737']})  
# ordinal encoding  
df_enc = pd.DataFrame(data={'icao': np.unique(df.icao,  
                                         return_inverse=True)[1]})  
X = np.asfortranarray(df_enc.values, dtype=np.float32)
```