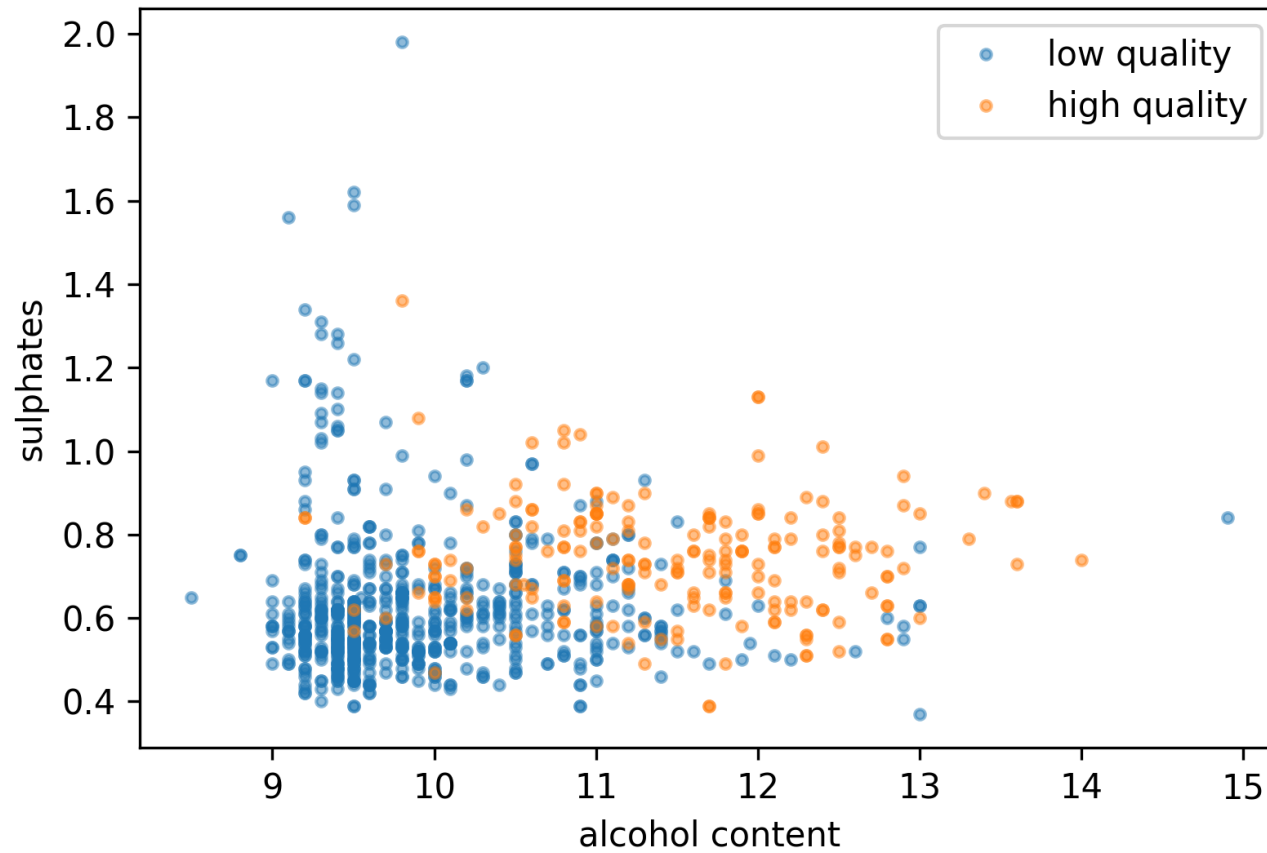


HiOA Big Data Course

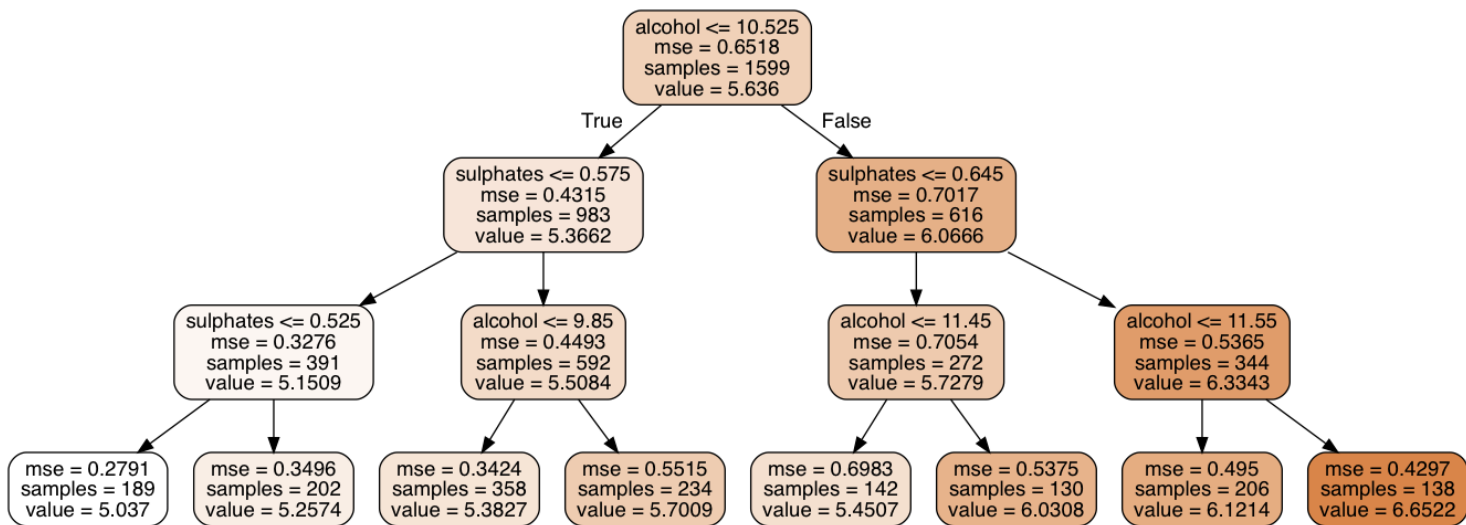
Session 6 - Trees

Dirk Hesse

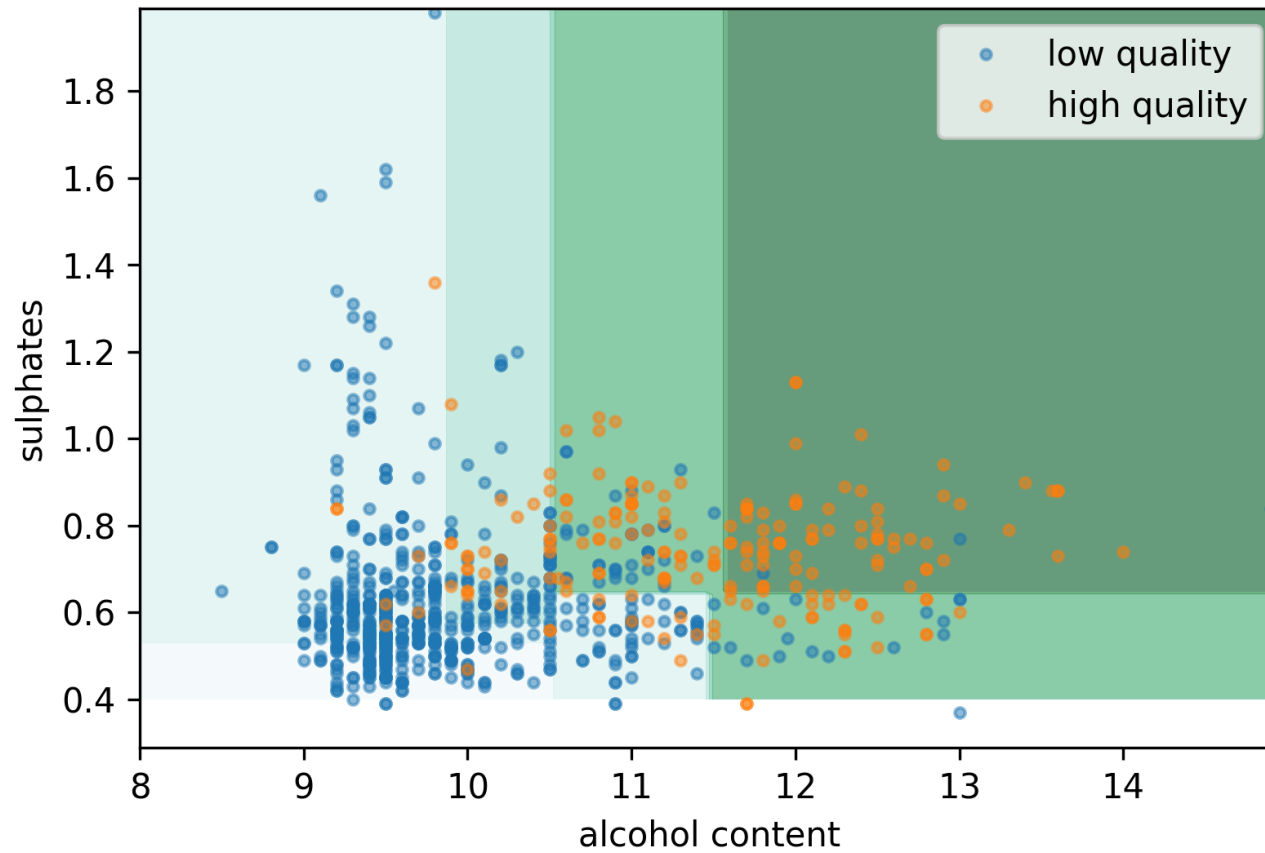
Wine Quality



Wine Quality Tree



Wine Quality Regression Tree



Why trees?

- Simple.
- Easy to explain.
 - Especially to non-experts.
- Powerful.

Calculating Trees

- Divide your data $R_L(j, s) = \{X | X^{(j)} \leq s\}$,
 $R_R(j, s) = \{X | X^{(j)} > s\}$.
- Find the best a_R, a_L, j, s to minimize

$$\sum_{i, x_i \in R_L(j, s)} (a_L - y_i)^2 + \sum_{i, x_i \in R_R(j, s)} (a_R - y_i)^2$$

- For given j, s , we find that $a_{R,L} = \text{avg}_{i, x_i \in R_{R,L}} y_i$.
- Repeat on the sub-sets.
 - Until a maximum depth is reached.
 - Until a minimum number of samples is reached.

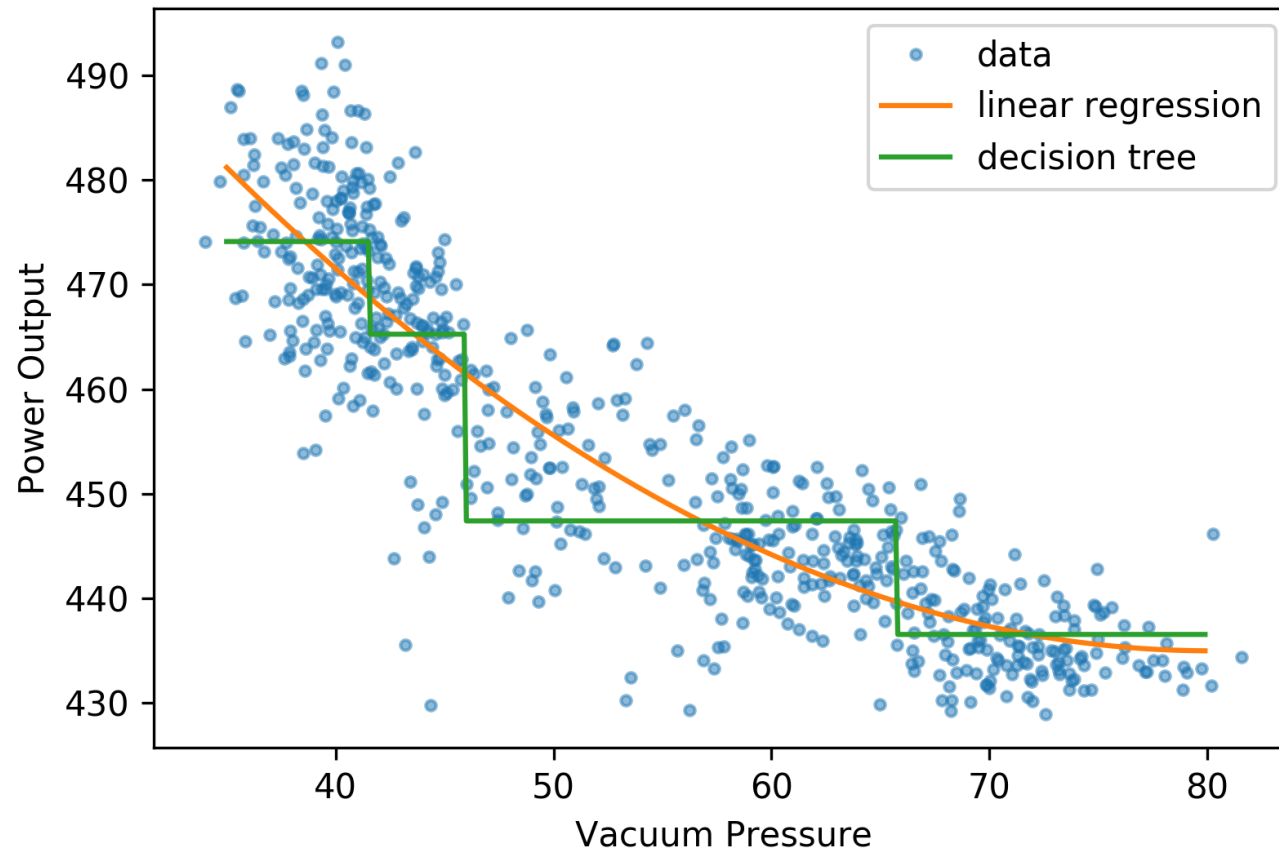
Regression Tree

Our resulting model reads

$$\hat{f}(X) = \sum_m c_m I\{X \in R_m\}.$$

Hence trees are an example of a general class of *additive models*.

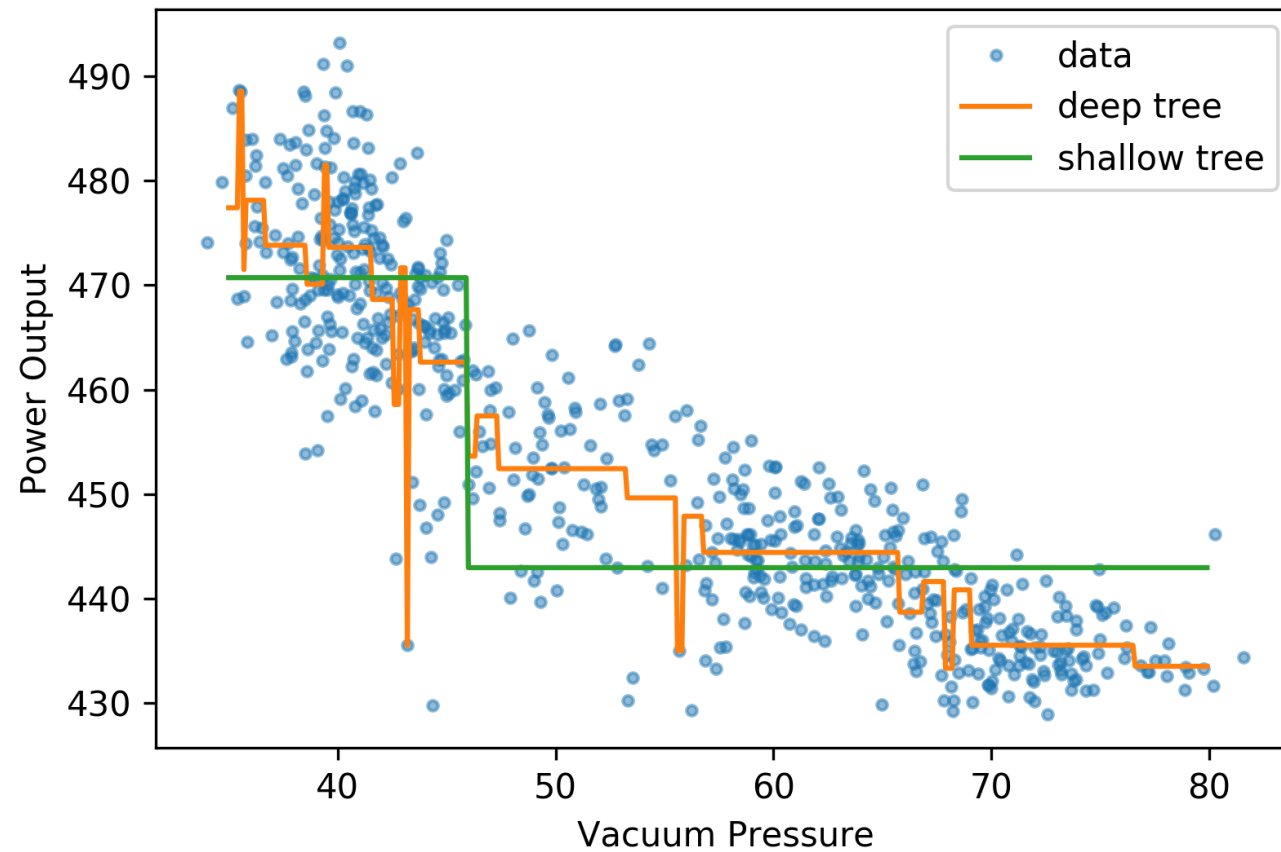
Tree Vs Linear Regression



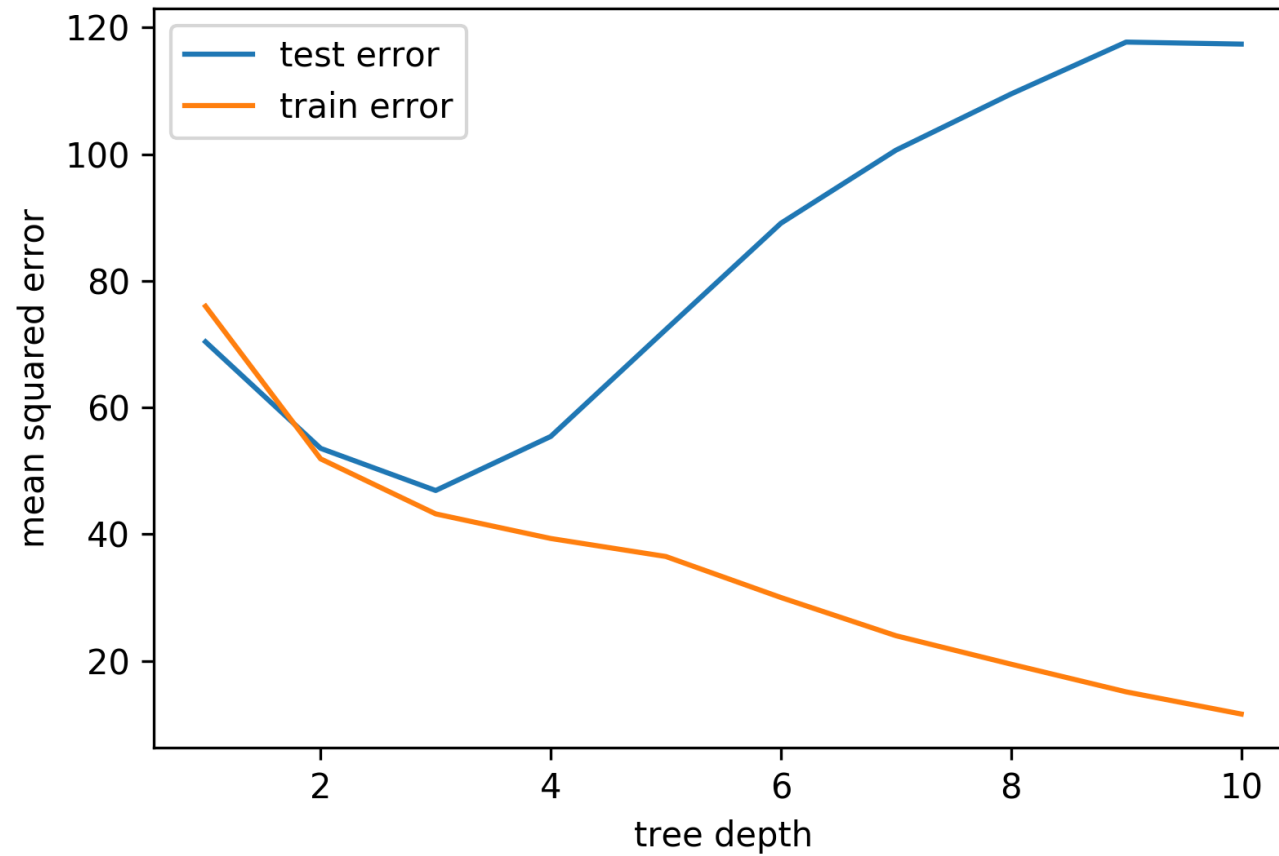
How Deep Should You Go?

- Deep trees have many degrees of freedom and hence high **variance**.
- Too shallow trees can't capture the *shape* of the data.
 - Hence have high **bias**.

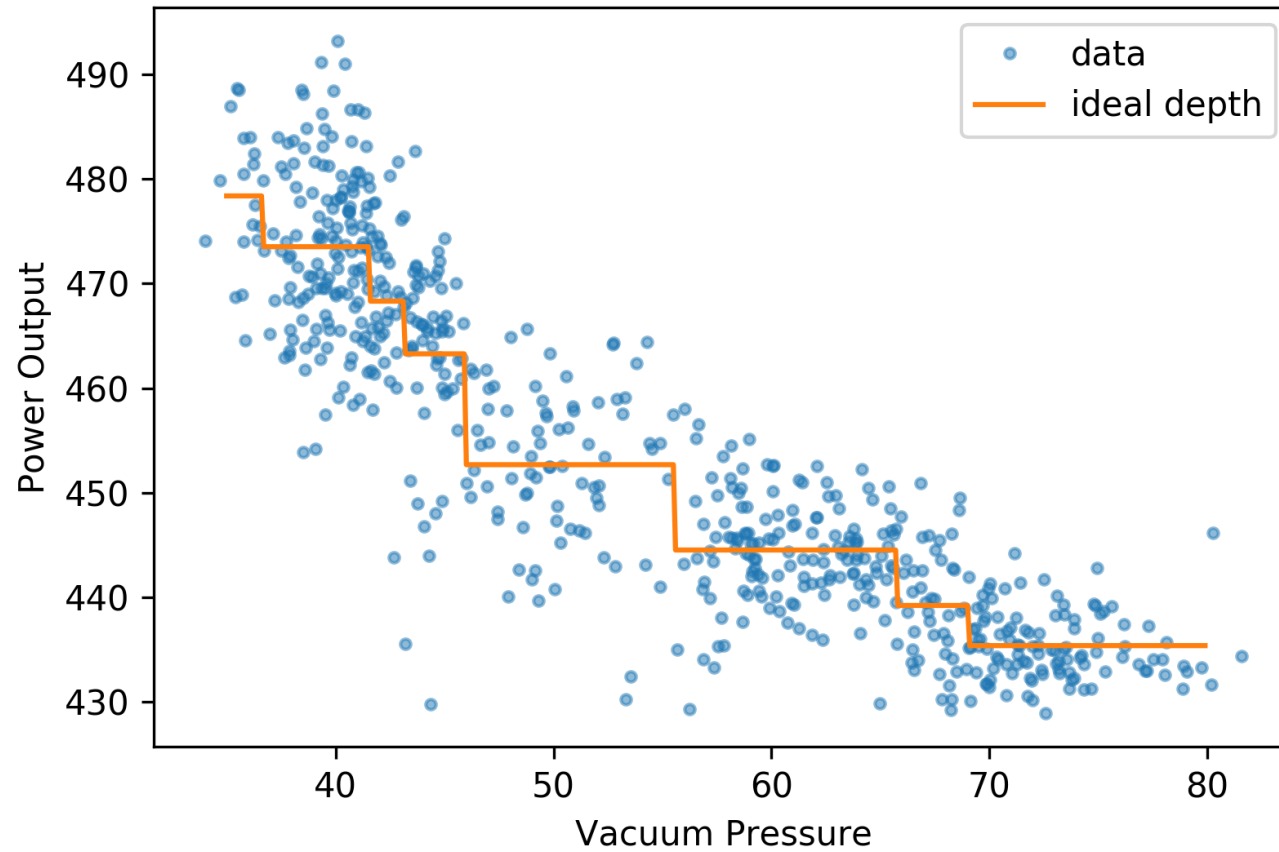
Bias-Variance Trade-off for Trees



Training and Test Error



The Best Tree



Trees for Classification

Just *modifying* our tree formulas to use the **mode**

$$a_{R,L} = \underset{i, x_i \in R_{R,L}}{\text{mode}} y_i$$

yields a classification algorithm.

How Find the Splits for Classification?

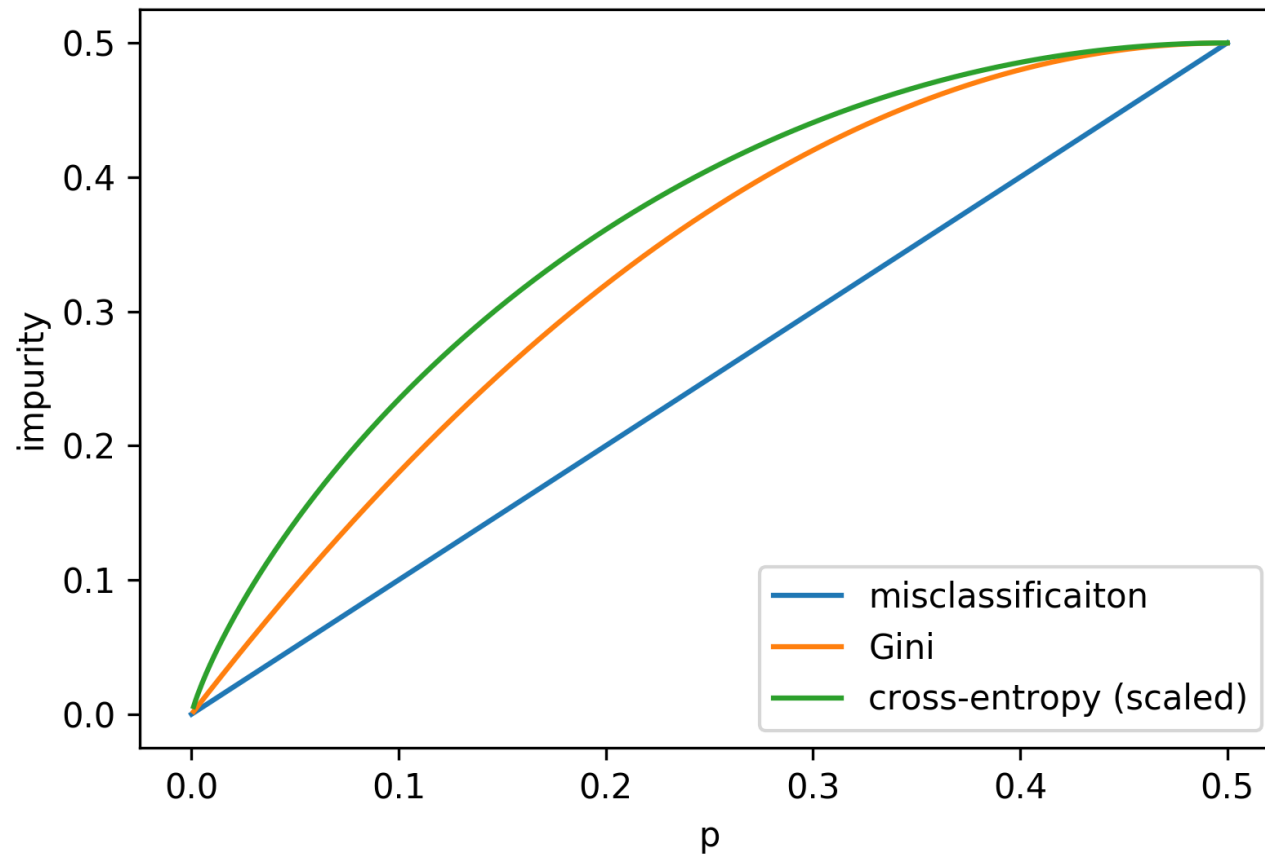
Define

$$\hat{p}_{mk} = \frac{1}{N_m} \sum_{i; x_i \in R_m} I(y_i = k),$$

such that $k(m) = \operatorname{argmax}_k \hat{p}_{mk}$

- Misclassification: $1 - \hat{p}_{mk(m)}$.
- Gini index: $\sum_{k=1}^K \hat{p}_{mk}(1 - \hat{p}_{mk})$.
- Cross-entropy: $-\sum_{k=1}^K \hat{p}_{mk} \log \hat{p}_{mk}$.

Two-Class impurity Measures



Tree pruning

- Stopping criteria:
 - Depth d .
 - Terminal node size.
 - Maximum split size.
 - Minimum impurity.
- Stopping at given d or impurity threshold might miss good splits later on.
- Often better to stop at e.g. minimal node size 10.
- Prune resulting tree.

Pruning by complexity

- Fitted tree T_0 , let T be subtree with $|T|$ terminal nodes R_m .

$$N_m = |\{x_i \in R_m\}|$$

$$\hat{c}_M = \frac{1}{N_m} \sum_{x_i \in R_m} y_i$$

$$Q_m(T) = \frac{1}{N_m} \sum_{x_i \in R_m} (y_i - \hat{c}_m)^2$$

$$C_\alpha(T) = \sum_{m=1}^{|T|} N_m Q_m(T) + \alpha |T|$$

- For each α , \exists unique smallest subtree minimizing C_α .

Practical considerations.

- Categorical inputs.
 - *Many* possible splits.
 - Easy for binary targets.
- Loss matrix.
 - L_{kl} loss for classifying k as l .
 - Classify $k(m) = \operatorname{argmin}_k \sum_l L_{lk} \hat{p}_{ml}$.
- Missing values.
- Multiple child nodes.
- Smoothness.
- Variance.

Ensemble Methods

- Reduce over-fitting and increase accuracy by using *multiple* models.
 - Reduce variance.
 - Possibly increase bias.
- Most commonly used:
 - Boosting.
 - Bagging.

Boosting

Additive Models

Instead of using one complex predictor, use many instances of a very basic one b (e.g. a tree with one split).

$$f(x) = \sum_{m=1}^M \beta_m b(x; \gamma_m)$$

The parameters are given by

$$\min_{\beta, \gamma} \sum_{i=1}^N L \left(y_i, \sum_{m=1}^M \beta_m b(x; \gamma_m) \right) .$$

Forward stepwise additive modeling

1. Set $f_0 \equiv 0$.
2. For $m = 1, \dots, M$
 - Set

$$(\beta_m, \gamma_m) = \underset{\beta, \gamma}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{i=1}^N L(y_i, f_{m-1}(x_i) + \beta b(x_i; \gamma)).$$

- Set

$$f_m(x) = f_{m-1}(x) + \beta_m b(x; \gamma_m).$$

3. Return f_m .

FSAM and Square Error loss

For square error loss, we fit in each step to the residuals of the previous step.

$$\begin{aligned} L(y_i, f_{m-1}(x_i) + \beta b(x_i; \gamma)) &= [y_i - f_{m-1}(x_i) - \beta b(x_i, \gamma)]^2 \\ &= [r_{im} - \beta b(x_i, \gamma)]^2 \end{aligned}$$

ADABOOST

Using

$$L(y, f(x)) = \exp(-yf(x))$$

for targets $y \in \{-1, 1\}$, gives rise to the AdaBoost algorithm.

AdaBoost

1. Initialize $w_i = 1/N$, $i = 1, \dots, N$.
2. For $m = 1, \dots, M$
 - Fit classifier $b_m(x)$ to data with weights w_i .
 - Set

$$e_m = \frac{\sum_i w_i I(y_i \neq b_m(x_i))}{\sum_i w_i}.$$

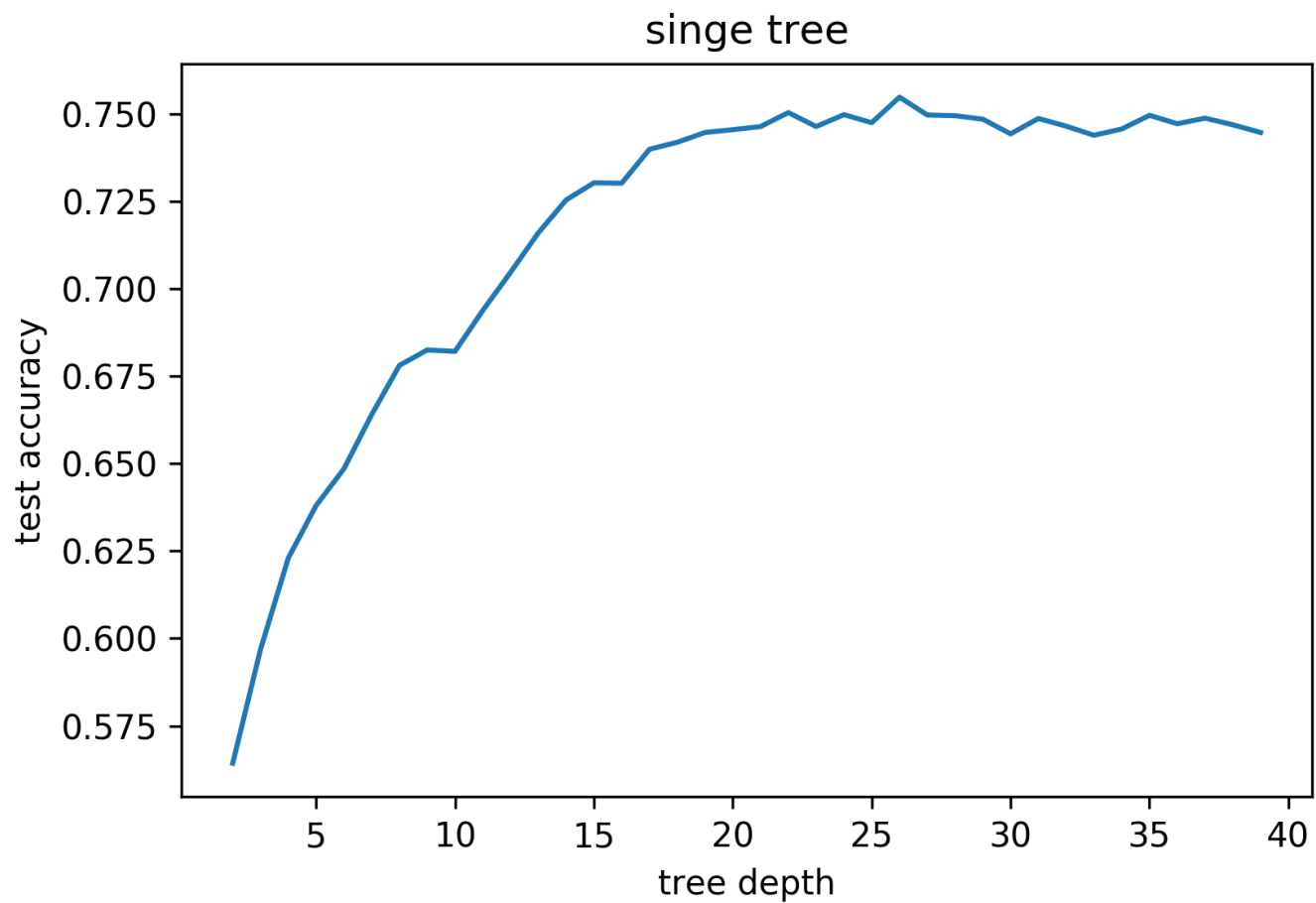
- Set $\alpha_m = \log((1 - e_m)/e_m)$.
 - Set $w_i \leftarrow w_i \exp[\alpha_m I(y_i \neq b_m(x_i))]$.
3. Return $f(x) = \text{sign}\left[\sum_{m=1}^M \alpha_m b_m(x)\right]$.

This can be adapted to *regression* as well.

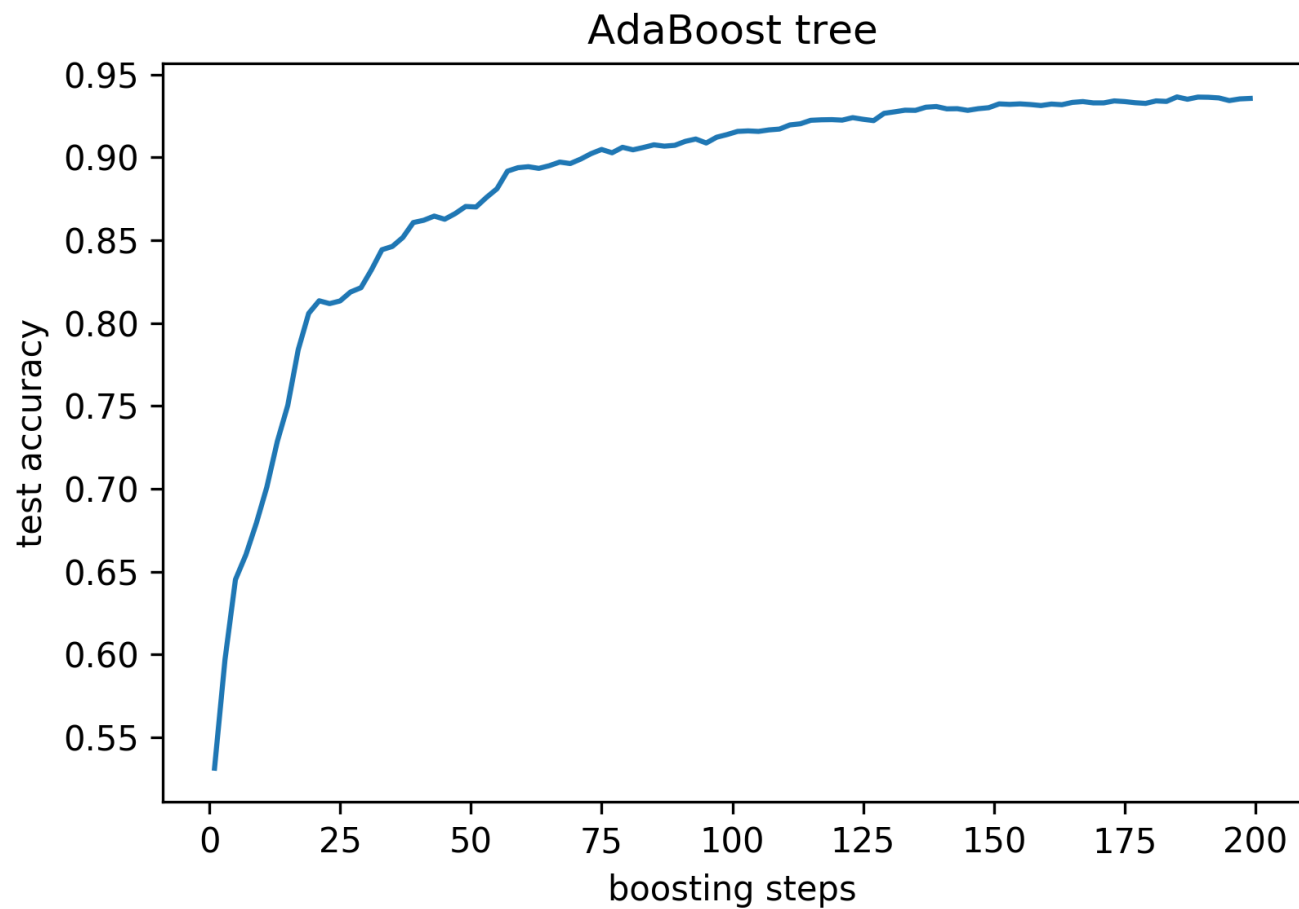
Generated Data

- Taken from Elements of Statistical Learning.
- X_1, \dots, X_{10} standard Gaussians.
- $$Y = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \sum_j X_j^2 > 9.34 = \chi_{10}^2(0.5) \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$
- 2k training cases, 10k test cases.

Single Tree on Generated Data



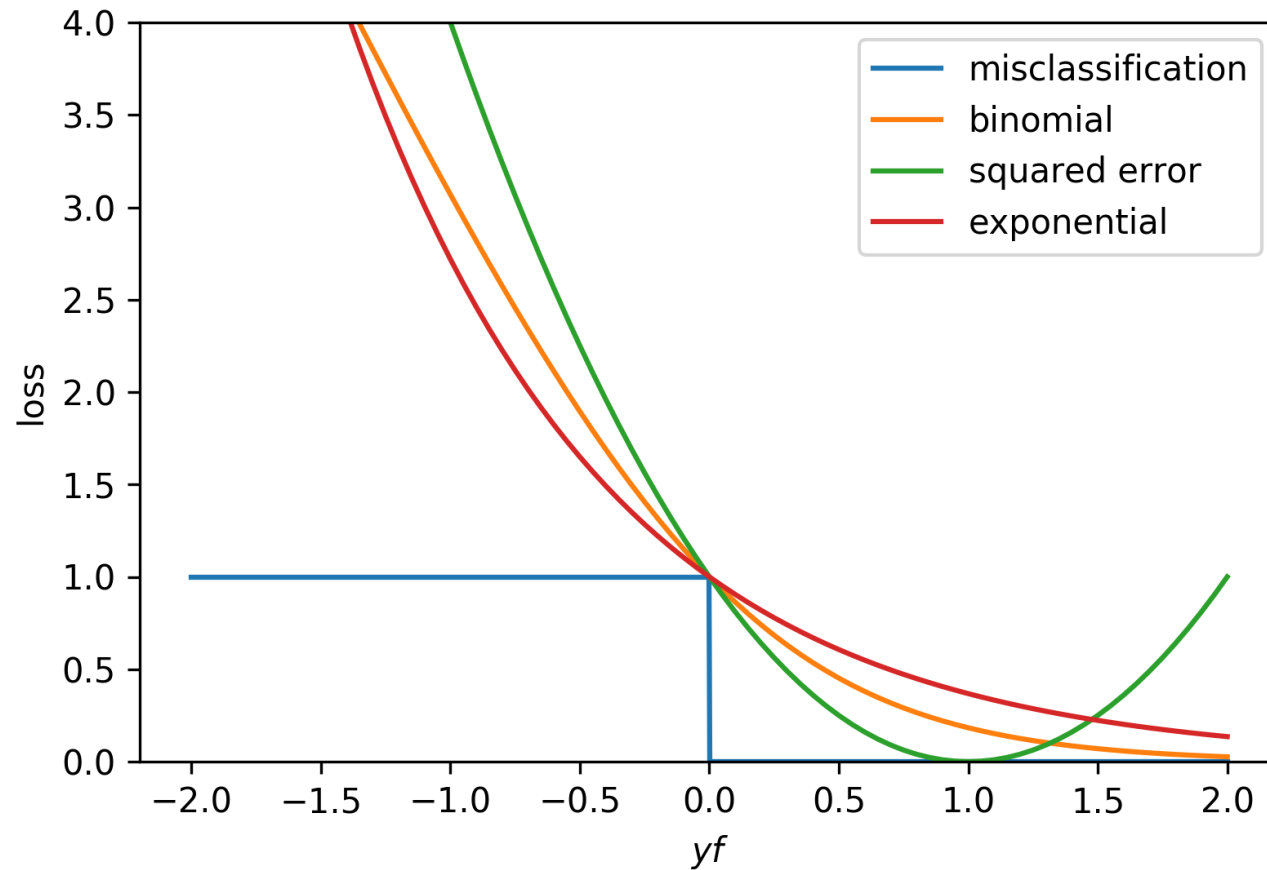
AdaBoost on Generated Data



More on Loss Functions

- Let's compare some loss functions for **classification**.
- We'll classify to $\text{sign}(f)$.
- Misclassification: $I(\text{sign}(f) \neq y)$.
- Exponential: $\exp(-yf)$.
- Binomial: $\log(1 + \exp(-2fy))$.
- Squared error: $(y - f)^2$.

Loss functions for classification



Conclusion

AdaBoost works great, but we'd like to plug in arbitrary loss functions. This seems like a hard task looking at

$$\min_{\beta, \gamma} \sum_{i=1}^N L \left(y_i, \sum_{m=1}^M \beta_m b(x; \gamma_m) \right).$$

The way out: **Gradient boosting**.

Questions?

Regression Algorithms for Anomaly Detection in Time Series Data

Time series data

- Given $x_i = x(t_i), i = 1, \dots, n$.
 - Quantities measured at a given *time*.
 - E.g. number of users.
 - Bike trips taken.
- Want to predict an $x(t_i)$ in the future.
- Assume that t_i are periodic and equidistant.

Auto-regressive models

- Fit

$$x(t) \approx \hat{f}(x(t)) = \hat{f}(x(t - \Delta_1), \dots, x(t - \Delta_p))$$

for chosen shifts Δ_k .

- Need to take into account periodicity in data.
 - E.g. $\Delta_1 = 1$ day, $\Delta_2 = 1$ week.

Detecting Anomalies

- Predict values using \hat{f} , compare to actuals.
- Let $\delta_i = \hat{f}(x(t_i)) - x(t_i)$.
- Let $\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N_t} \sum_i (\delta_i - \hat{\delta})^2}$.
- Let $z_i = \delta_i / \sigma$.
- Flag data points as anomalous if $z_i > z_{\max}$.