Random Forests

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Lecture 06.2 (v3.0.0)



Dinosaur comics meme

- This is the final set of key classification tools: Decision Trees and Random Forests.
 - ► We'll also cover regression trees.
- ► The Workshop covers using them in practice.

Questions

- ► Which splits should we make in a tree?
- ► When should we stop splitting?
- ► How can we combine multiple trees?

Trees, Forests, Decisions

- Decision trees: are extremely flexible and can fit highly non-linear spaces.
 - ▶ They can capture arbitrary complexity in the training data
 - ► They tend to overfit
 - ► They have overly-regular shapes, aligned to features
- ▶ Random Forests: Combining many random, decision trees
 - ► Randomization fights overfitting
 - Averaging creates smoother decision boundaries
 - Remarkable predictive performance.

Some data, before we start

```
from sklearn.model_selection import train_test_split

X_train, X_test, y_train, y_test = train_test_split(
    features_pd, labels, train_size=0.8, test_size=0.2)
```

Decision Tree

- ► A decision tree is a sequence of conditionally evaluated tests:
- ▶ If c_1 then:
 - ▶ If c_{11} then:
 - **>** ...
 - ightharpoonup Else $!c_{11}$ so:
 - **•** ...
- ightharpoonup Else $!c_1$ so:
 - ▶ If c_{21} then:
 - **...**
 - ightharpoonup Else $!c_{21}$ so:
 - **▶** ...
- The conditions need to be chosen appropriately. How to decide?

Decision Tree Algorithm: CART

- ► Classification and Regression Trees (CART)¹
- Consider a decision tree for C classes.
- For each feature $j \in [1, \dots, J]$, we evaluate the **best-split** location in the feature space. . .
 - ▶ i.e. the one that **Minimises** the "Gini impurity":

$$G_j = 1 - \sum_{c=1}^{C} p_{jc}^2 = \sum_{c=1}^{C} p_{jc} (1 - p_{jc}).$$

- ▶ The assignment probability p_{jc} is the probability that class c is found at this leaf of the tree, if we use feature j.
- We choose the "best" (induces many $p \to 0$ or $p \to 1$) feature as the next split.

¹CART = Classification and Regression Trees. Breiman, Leo; Friedman, J. H.; Olshen, R. A.; Stone, C. J. (1984). Classification and regression trees. See Wei-Yin Loh's Review

```
def sq(y):
    return y * y
sq = np.vectorize(sq)
def gini(x):
    return 1-sq(x/x.sum()).sum()
```

```
test=pd.DataFrame()
test["size0"]=np.array([100,100,100])
test["size1.1"]=np.array([50,50,50])
test["size1.2"]=np.array([50,50,50])
test["size2.1"]=np.array([100,0,0])
test["size2.2"]=np.array([0,100,100])
```

```
test=pd.DataFrame()
test["size0"]=np.array([100,100,100])
test["size1.1"]=np.array([50,50,50])
test["size1.2"]=np.array([50,50,50])
test["size2.1"]=np.array([100,0,0])
test["size2.2"]=np.array([0,100,100])
print("Gini index initial value =",gini(test["size0"]))
print("Gini reduction from split 1 =",gini(test["size0"])
  (gini(test["size1.1"])/2+gini(test["size1.2"])/2))
print("Gini reduction from split 2 =",gini(test["size0"]) -
  (gini(test["size2.1"])*1/3+gini(test["size2.2"])*2/3))
```

```
test=pd.DataFrame()
test["size0"]=np.array([100,100,100])
test["size1.1"]=np.array([50,50,50])
test["size1.2"]=np.array([50,50,50])
test["size2.1"]=np.array([100,0,0])
test["size2.2"]=np.array([0,100,100])
print("Gini index initial value =",gini(test["size0"]))
print("Gini reduction from split 1 =",gini(test["size0"])
  (gini(test["size1.1"])/2+gini(test["size1.2"])/2))
print("Gini reduction from split 2 =",gini(test["size0"]) -
  (gini(test["size2.1"])*1/3+gini(test["size2.2"])*2/3))
Gini index initial value = 0.666666666667
Gini reduction from split 1 = 0.0
```

Decision Tree Algorithm: ID3

- ▶ But is Gini Index right?
- ► ID3² (Iterative Dichotomiser 3) **Maximises** the "information gain", by **Minimising**:

$$H_j = -\sum_{c=1}^{C} p_{jc} \log(p_{jc})$$

- ► The difference is how each probability is weighted.
- ▶ We still define "best" feature as one that makes many $p \to 0$ and $p \to 1$.
- Gini punishes large absolute-value mistakes whilst information punishes large log-scale mistakes.
- ► The difference is important for a tree but usually unimportant for the classifier.

²ID = Iterative Dichotomiser. Quinlan, J. R. 1986. Induction of Decision rees. Mach. Learn. 1, 1 (Mar. 1986), 81-106.

ID3

```
def ylogy(y): # CAREFUL!
    ty=[max(1e-10,x) for x in y]
    return y * np.log(ty)
def id3(x):
return -ylogy(x/x.sum()).sum()
```

```
def ylogy(y): # CAREFUL!
   ty=[max(1e-10,x) for x in y]
   return y * np.log(ty)
def id3(x):
return -ylogy(x/x.sum()).sum()
print("ID3 index initial value =",id3(test["size0"]))
print("ID3 reduction from split 1 =",id3(test["size0"]) -
  (id3(test["size1.1"])/2+id3(test["size1.2"])/2))
print("ID3 reduction from split 2 =",id3(test["size0"]) -
  (id3(test["size2.1"])*1/3+id3(test["size2.2"])*2/3))
```

```
def ylogy(y): # CAREFUL!
   ty=[max(1e-10,x) for x in y]
   return y * np.log(ty)
def id3(x):
return -ylogy(x/x.sum()).sum()
print("ID3 index initial value =",id3(test["size0"]))
print("ID3 reduction from split 1 =",id3(test["size0"]) -
  (id3(test["size1.1"])/2+id3(test["size1.2"])/2))
print("ID3 reduction from split 2 =",id3(test["size0"]) -
  (id3(test["size2.1"])*1/3+id3(test["size2.2"])*2/3))
ID3 index initial value = 1.0986122886681096
ID3 reduction from split 1 = 0.0
ID3 reduction from split 2 = 0.6365141682948128
```

Decision Tree pruning (Information Criteria)

- Decision trees overfit to the data.
- Penalisation is often used:

 - ▶ Where |T| is the number of bipartitions in the tree, and $\mathcal L$ is a log-loss.
 - All the usual caveats of Information Criteria apply.
 - Tree search is usually performed by a greedy brute force approach:
 - ightharpoonup Evaluate \mathcal{L}' for every branch in the tree
 - ► Choose the sub-tree with the lowest value
 - ► Repeat until no cuts improve the loss
 - Alternative search approaches exist for large trees

Decision Tree pruning (Cross Validation)

- ► To avoid the problems with Information Criteria, Cross-validation can be used
- Choose the sub-tree that has the best out of sample predictive power.
 - ► With a single left-out dataset (risks overfitting),
 - Or random sets (higher variance)
- Now we have to re-compute the entire model each pruning
- Search is a computational concern

Regression Trees (simple version)

- Regression trees are constructed identically to classification trees
- Decision can follow information or squared loss
- \blacktriangleright Prediction is the average $\hat{y}_i|\{i\in c_j\}=\bar{y}_{c_j}$ inside the leaf j
- ▶ Comparing to classification: if $y \in \{0,1\}$ this reduces to:

$$R_{j} = \frac{1}{N_{j}} \sum_{i \in c_{j}} (y_{i} - \hat{y}(x_{i}))^{2}$$
 (1)

$$= \frac{1}{N_j} \sum_{i \in c_j} \left(y_i^2 - 2y_i \hat{y}(x_i) + \hat{y}(x_i)^2 \right)$$
 (2)

▶ Which since $\hat{y} = \bar{y}$, simplifies to:

$$R = \bar{y} - 2\bar{y}^2 + \bar{y}^2$$
 (3)
= $\bar{y}(1 - \bar{y})$ (4)

Comparing Regression Trees to Classification Trees

Similarly the Gini index is:

$$G = \sum_{j=1}^{J} p_{j} (1 - p_{j})$$

$$= \bar{y} (1 - \bar{y})$$
(5)

► So regression trees and classification trees use equivalent loss functions in CART.

General Regression Trees

- ► Within each decision node (leaf) we fit a model
- ► This is typically a **constant** model, i.e. the average
- ► Why?
 - ► The piecewise constant model fit can be arbitrarily good (number of splits scales with data volume)
 - Making non-constant models consistent is computationally costly
- ► Why not?
 - ► Computational cost grows with tree depth
 - Often locally the structure is linear
- ► Leads to Local Regression Trees ³
 - Complex if we ensure that the local regressions meet up

Decision tree notes

- ► In practice, **bagging** (bootstrapping the data) is important, to prevent overfitting and for smoothing the output
- ► The choice of feature space directly affects the decisions that are examined. So **LDA** or similar could usefully be applied to obtain "orthogonal" feature space, **reducing depth**.
- ► There are parameters, e.g. depth/stopping criterion/split rule, which could be chosen by cross-validation.

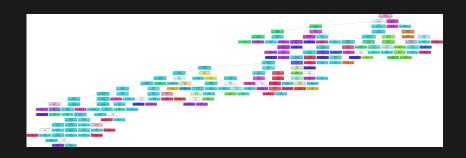
Fitting a Decision Tree in Python

```
from sklearn import tree
cldt = tree.DecisionTreeClassifier()

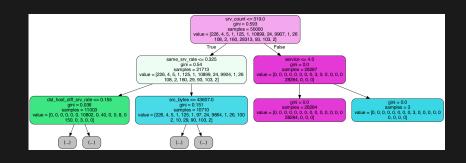
trained_model_d= cldt.fit(X_train, y_train)
y_pred_d = cldt.predict(X_test)
error_d = zero_one_loss(y_test, y_pred_d)
```

Plot a Decision Tree in Python

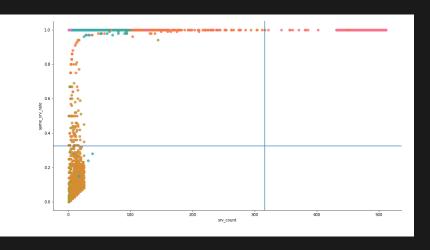
Decision Tree (whole)



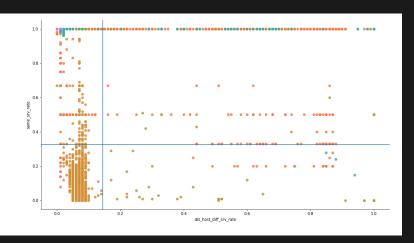
Decision Tree (root)



Decision Tree in feature space (1)



Decision Tree in feature space (2)



Boosted decision tree

- As noted previously, adaboost is using a sequence of decisions to make a boosted classifier.
- By default it uses a boosted depth=1 decision tree, i.e. classifiers were just the features. This is called a decision stump.
- ► You can use deeper trees, eg. with xgboost⁴; usually the depth is limited to control learning cost and complexity
- Boosting in theory doesn't need trees so the difference is about learning rate and computational complexity

⁴J. Elith, J. Leathwick, and T. Hastie "A working guide to boosted regression trees" (2008). British Ecological Society.

Random Forest

- ► A random forest is a set of decision trees that are combined together to perform classification.
- ► For each of *T* trees, the following steps are run:
 - a) Choose which of J variables to include:
 - ▶ Choose m_f random features. The canonical choice is $m_f = \sqrt{J}$.
 - Like bagging for features? (downsampling without replaceme
 - b) Learn a Tree classifier independently as above.

Random Forest outputs

- The Random Forest combines decision trees into a classification by:
 - Weighting each tree according to its performance
 - Report the weighted vote
- It is also possible to extract feature importance:
 - ▶ How much a feature decreases the score, averaged over all trees
 - ► Features that are never used will get a score of 0
 - ► Features that are important in every tree in which they appear will get a high score
 - ► Features that are correlated will often split their importance

Random Forest vs boosted decision tree

- Gradient Boosting Machine (GBM) is the go-to boosted decision tree
- ► GBM and RF differ in the way the trees are built, the order, and the way the results are combined
- ► RF can be trivially paralellized
- ► GBMs seem to outperform RFs under competition conditions, but do worse when their parameters are untuned⁵

⁵http://fastml.com/what-is-better-gradient-boosted-trees-or-random-forest/

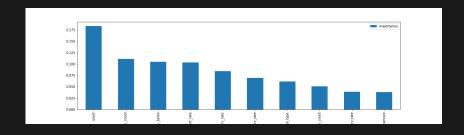
Random Forest algorithm

Random Forest Feature Importance

```
feature_importances = pd.DataFrame(clf.feature_importances_,
    index = X_train.columns,
    columns=['importance']).sort_values('importance',
    ascending=False)

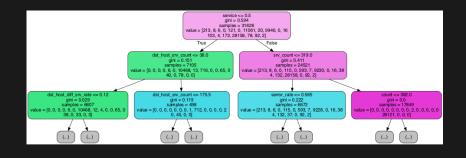
feature_importances.nlargest(10,
    columns=['importance']).plot(kind='bar',figsize=(18, 5))
```

Random Forest Feature Importance

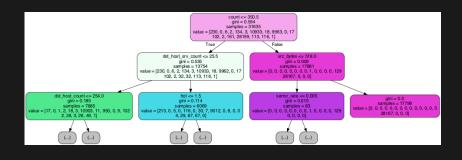


Random Forest Extract single trees

Random Forest Feature Trees



Random Forest Feature Trees



Final thoughts

- Random Forests are typically better than bagged decision trees
- ► There are theoretical examples where either dominates
- Boosting changes things but isn't a magic bullet
- Usually worth being open minded; the differences could be seen as tuning parameters of a more general algorithm

- ▶ References:
- ► Tree methods:
 - ► Chapter 9.2 of The Elements of Statistical Learning: Data Mining, Inference, and Prediction (Friedman, Hastie and Tibshirani).
 - ► Penn State U Applied Data Mining and Statistical Learning How to prune trees
 - Decision Tree Algorithms: Deep Math ML
- ► Regression Trees:
 - ► Karalic A, "Employing Linear Regression in Regression Tree Leaves" (1992) ECAI-92

- ► References (2):
- ► Boosted Decision Trees:
 - ▶ J. Elith, J. Leathwick, and T. Hastie "A working guide to boosted regression trees" (2008). British Ecological Society.
- ► CART:
 - CART = Classification and Regression Trees. Breiman, Leo;
 Friedman, J. H.; Olshen, R. A.; Stone, C. J. (1984).
 Classification and regression trees.
 - ► Wei-Yin Loh's 2011 Review is popular.
- ► ID3: Quinlan, J. R. 1986. Induction of Decision Trees. Mach. Learn. 1, 1 (Mar. 1986), 81-106.

- ► In the practical we'll implement these models in R and Python; compare implementations, and to previous results.
- Next semester we'll start with the "other" LDA (Latent Dirichlet Allocation), Topic Modelling, and Modelling Documents.
- ▶ References:
 - Chapter 15 of The Elements of Statistical Learning: Data Mining, Inference, and Prediction (Friedman, Hastie and Tibshirani).
 - ► Implement a Random Forest From Scratch in Python
 - ► A Gentle Introduction to Random Forests at CitizenNet
 - ► DataDive on Selecting good features
 - Cosma Shalizi on Regression Trees
 - ► Gilles Louppe PhD Thesis: Understanding Random Forests