Lecture 008

Ensembles A A A A

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Admin

Today

Topic Ensembles (applied to decision trees)

Upcoming

Readings

- Today ISL Ch. 8.2
- Next ISL Ch. 9

Project Get the data together!

Decision trees

Review

Decision trees

Fundamentals

Decision trees

- split the predictor space (our X) into regions
- then predict the most-common value within a region

Regression trees

- **Predict:** Region's mean
- **Split:** Minimize RSS
- **Prune:** Penalized RSS

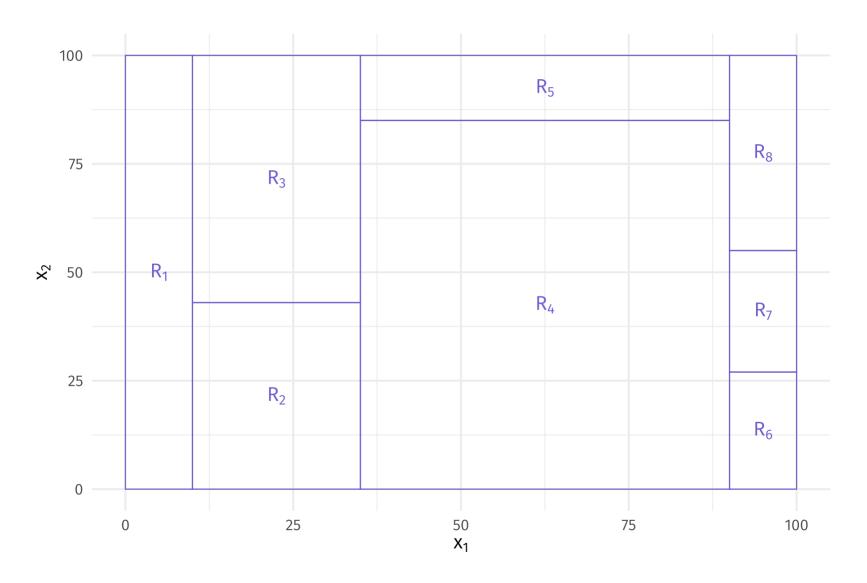
Classification trees

- **Predict:** Region's mode
- **Split:** Min. Gini or entropy.super
- **Prune:** Penalized error rate

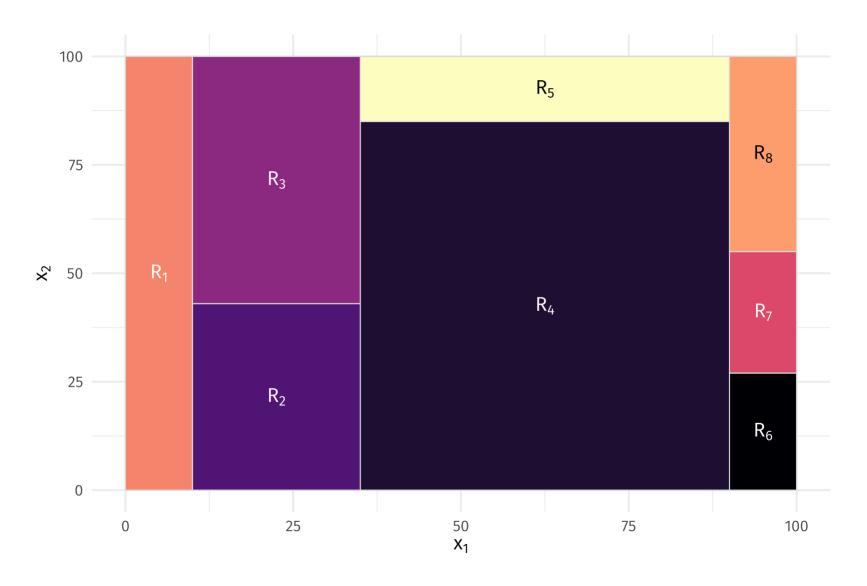
An additional nuance for classification trees: we typically care about the **proportions of classes in the leaves**—not just the final prediction.



Example Each split in our tree creates **regions**.



Example Each region has its own **predicted value**.



Decision trees

Strengths and weaknesses

As with any method, decision trees have tradeoffs.

Strengths

- + Easily explained/interpretted
- + Include several graphical options
- + Mirror human decision making?
- + Handle num. or cat. on LHS/RHS®

Weaknesses

- Outperformed by other methods
- Struggle with linearity
- Can be very "non-robust"

Non-robust: Small data changes can cause huge changes in our tree.

Next: Create ensembles of trees to strengthen these weaknesses.

- Without needing to create lots of dummy variables!
- A Forests! T Which will also weaken some of the strengths.

Intro

Rather than focusing on training a **single**, highly accurate model, **ensemble methods** combine **many** low-accuracy models into a *meta-model*.

Today: Three common methods for combining individual trees

- 1. Bagging
- 2. Random forests
- 3. Boosting

Why? While individual trees may be highly variable and inaccurate, a combination of trees is often quite stable and accurate.

Bagging

Bagging creates additional samples via bootstrapping.

Q How does bootstrapping help?

A Recall: Individual decision trees suffer from variability (non-robust).

This *non-robustness* means trees can change *a lot* based upon which observations are included/excluded.

We're essentially using many "draws" instead of a single one. T

TRecall that an estimator's variance typically decreases as the sample size increases.

Bagging

Bootstrap aggregation (bagging) reduces this type of variability.

- 1. Create B bootstrapped samples
- 2. Train an estimator (tree) $\hat{f}^b(x)$ on each of the B samples
- 3. Aggregate across your *B* bootstrapped models:

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

This aggregated model $\hat{f}_{\text{bag}}(x)$ is your final model.

Bagging trees

When we apply bagging to decision trees,

- we typically grow the trees deep and do not prune
- for regression, we average across the B trees' regions
- for classification, we have more options—but often take plurality

Individual (unpruned) trees will be very **flexible** and **noisy**, but their **aggregate** will be quite **stable**.

The number of trees B is generally not critical with bagging. B=100 often works fine.

Out-of-bag error estimation

Bagging also offers a convenient method for evaluating performance.

For any bootstrapped sample, we omit $\sim n/3$ observations.

Out-of-bag (OOB) error estimation estimates the test error rate using observations randomly omitted from each bootstrapped sample.

For each observation *i*:

- 1. Find all samples S_i in which i was omitted from training.
- 2. Aggregate the $|S_i|$ predictions $\hat{f}^b(x_i)$, e.g., using their mean or mode
- 3. Calculate the error, e.g., $y_i \hat{f}_{i,\mathrm{OOB},i}(x_i)$

Out-of-bag error estimation

When B is big enough, the OOB error rate will be very close to LOOCV.

Q Why use OOB error rate?

A When B and n are large, cross validation—with any number of folds—can become pretty computationally intensive.

Quick aside: Here is a tool to search parsnip models:

https://www.tidymodels.org/find/parsnip/

Bagging in R

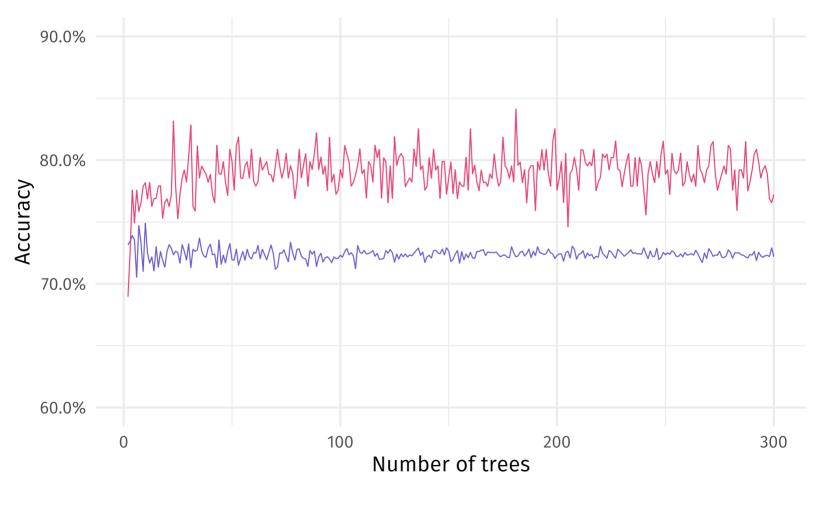
We can use tidymodels plus the baguette package to bag trees.

Function: bag_tree()

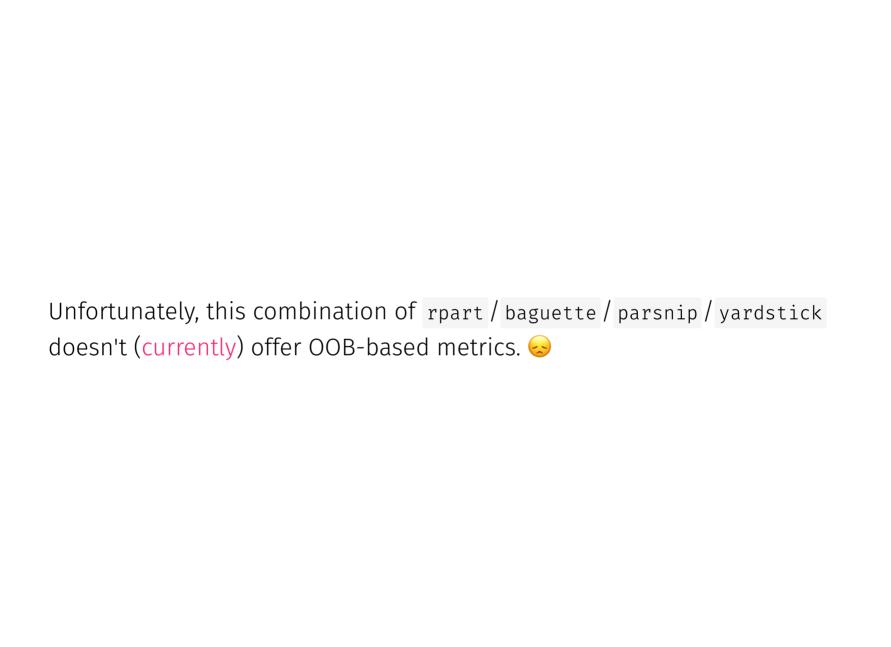
- "Specifies" model for parsnip.
- mode: class., reg., or unknown
- cost_complexity: the penalty for model complexity (cp)
- tree_depth: max. tree depth
- min_n: min. # obs. to split
- class_cost: magnify cost
- rpart is the defaul engine
- times: the number of trees

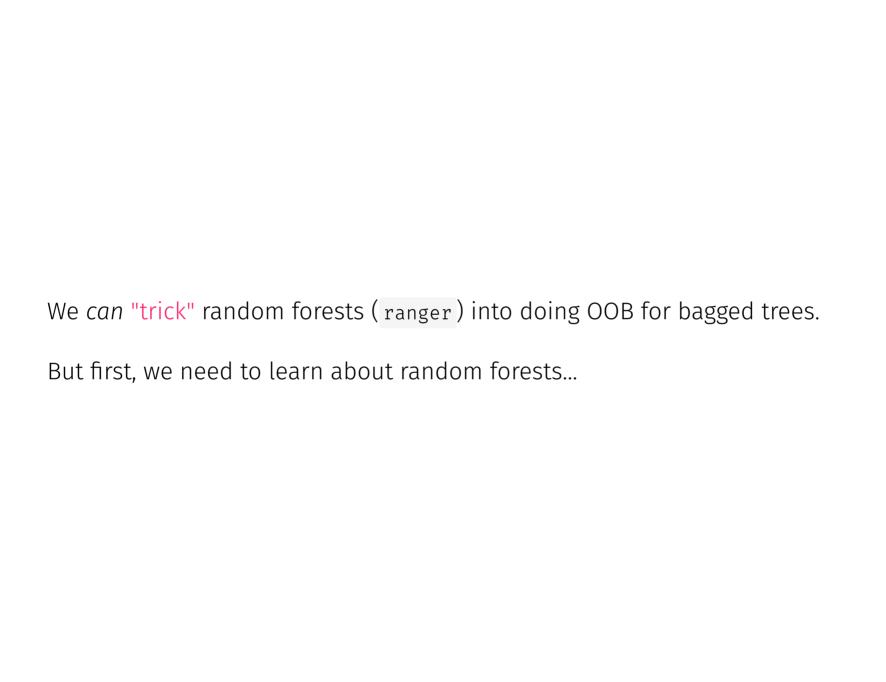
```
# Train a bagged tree model
bag_tree(
  mode = "classification",
  cost_complexity = 0,
  tree_depth = NULL,
  min_n = 2,
  class_cost = NULL
) %>% set_engine(
  engine = "rpart",
  times = 100
)
```

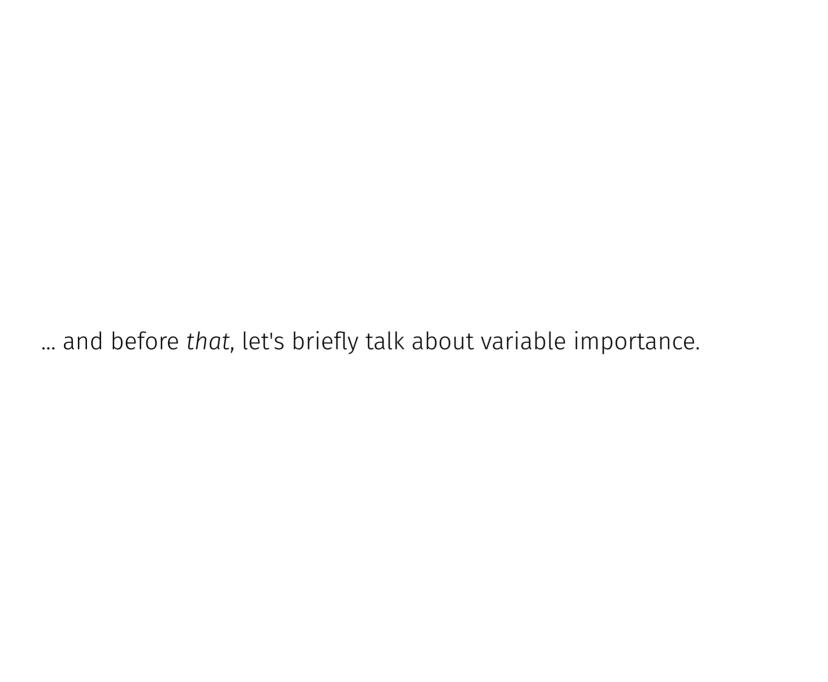
Bagging and the number of trees



[Method, Estimate] — Bagged, CV — Bagged, OOB







Variable importance

While ensemble methods tend to **improve predictive performance**, they also tend **reduce interpretability**.

We can illustrate **variables' importance** by considering their splits' reductions in the model's performance metric (RSS, Gini, entropy, *etc.*).

Note By default, many variable-importance functions will scale importance.

This idea isn't exclusive to bagging/ensembles; it also works for a single tree.

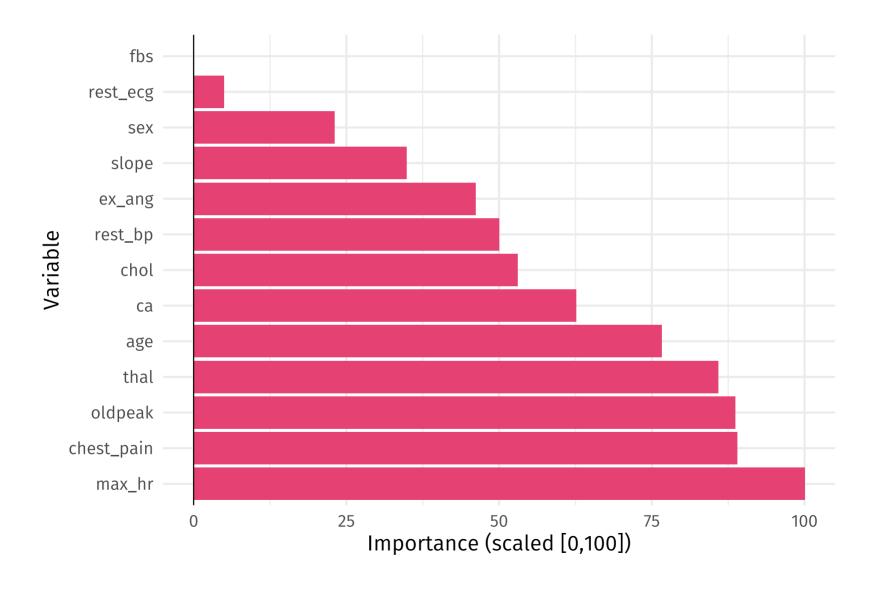
In the case of "rpart" bagged trees...

```
# Recipe to clean data (impute NAs)
heart recipe = recipe(heart disease ~ ., data = heart df) %>%
  step medianimpute(all predictors() & all numeric()) %>%
  step modeimpute(all predictors() & all nominal())
# Define the bagged tree model
heart bag = bag tree(
  mode = "classification",
  cost complexity = 0,
 tree depth = NULL,
 min n = 2,
  class cost = NULL
) %>% set engine(
  engine = "rpart",
  times = 100
# Define workflow
heart bag wf = workflow() %>%
  add model(heart bag) %>%
  add recipe(heart recipe)
# Fit/assess with CV
heart bag fit = heart bag wf %>% fit(heart df)
```

... the fitted object automatically includes variable importance.

```
#> Bagged CART (classification with 100 members)
#>
#> Variable importance scores include:
#>
#> # A tibble: 13 × 4
     term value std.error
#>
                                used
     <chr> <dbl>
                         <dbl> <int>
#>
#>
   1 max hr
               41.1
                         0.839
                                 100
#>
   2 chest pain 36.9
                         1.18
                                 100
   3 oldpeak
#>
               36.8
                         0.806
                                 100
   4 thal
               35.7
                                 100
#>
                         1.35
               32.2
                         0.702
                                 100
#>
   5 age
                26.8
                         1.18
                                 100
#>
   6 ca
   7 chol
                23.2
                                 100
#>
                         0.685
               22.1
                         0.589
                                 100
#>
   8 rest bp
                20.6
                                 99
#>
   9 ex ang
                         0.818
#> 10 slope
               16.3
                         0.772
                                 100
#> 11 sex
               11.8
                         0.678
                                 100
#> 12 rest_ecg
             4.92
                         0.311
                                 95
#> 13 fbs
                3.02
                         0.210
                                  93
```

Variable importance from our bagged tree model.



Bagging

Bagging has one additional shortcoming...

If one variable dominates other variables, the trees will be very correlated.

If the trees are very correlated, then bagging loses its advantage.

Solution We should make the trees less correlated.

Random forests

Random forests improve upon bagged trees by decorrelating the trees.

In order to decorrelate its trees, a random forest only considers a random subset of m ($\approx \sqrt{p}$) predictors when making each split (for each tree).

Restricting the variables our tree sees at a given split

- nudges trees away from always using the same variables,
- increasing the variation across trees in our forest,
- which potentially reduces the variance of our estimates.

If our predictors are very correlated, we may want to shrink m.

Random forests

Random forests thus introduce two dimensions of random variation

- 1. the bootstrapped sample
- 2. the m randomly selected predictors (for the split)

Everything else about random forests works just as it did with bagging.



Random forests in R

You have several options for training random forests with tidymodels. ** E.g., ranger, randomForest, spark.

rand_forest() accesses each of these packages via their engines.

- The default engine is "ranger" (ranger package).
- The argument mtry gives m, the # of predictors at each split.

You've already seen the other hyperparameters for ranger:

- trees the number of trees in your (random) forest
- min_n min. # of observations
- ▲ And even more if you look outside of tidymodels.

Training a random forest in R using tidymodels...

```
... and ranger
```

- Goal: Classification
- Three variables per split
- 100 trees in the forest
- At least 2 obs. to split
- Choose the ranger engine
- Set a splitting rule

```
# Define the random forest
heart_rf = rand_forest(
  mode = "classification",
  mtry = 3,
  trees = 100,
  min_n = 2
) %>% set_engine(
  engine = "ranger",
  splitrule = "gini"
)
```

Step 1: Define our parameter grid

```
# Define the parameter grid

rf_grid = expand_grid(
  mtry = 1:13,
  min_n = 1:15
)
```

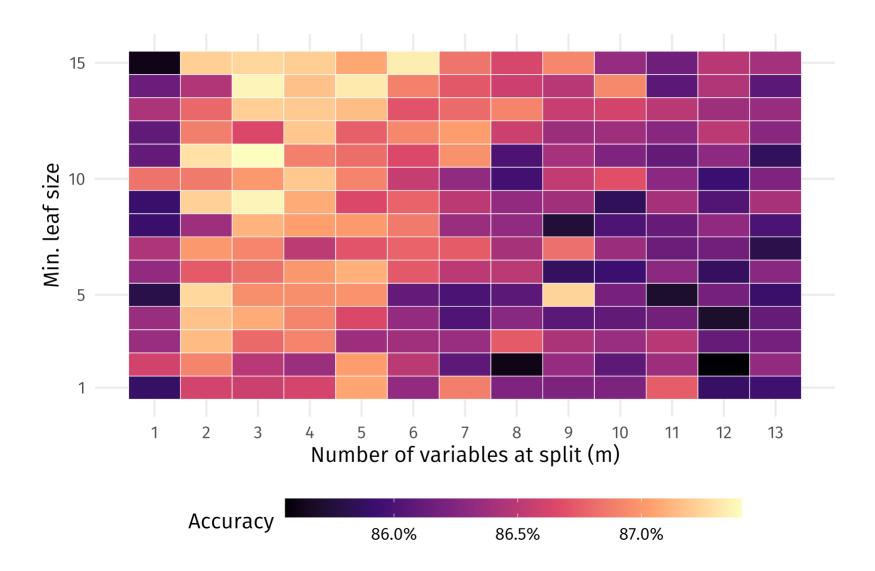
Step 2: Write a function that fits a RF using given hyperparameters.

```
# Function: One set of hyperparam
rf i = function(i) {
  # Define the random forest
  heart rf i = rand forest(
   mode = "classification",
   mtry = rf grid$mtry[i],
   trees = 100.
   min n = rf grid$min n[i]
  ) %>% set engine(engine = "ranger", splitrule = "gini")
  # Define workflow
  heart rf wf i =
    workflow() %>% add model(heart rf i) %>% add recipe(heart recipe)
  # Fit
  heart_rf_fit_i = heart_rf_wf_i %>% fit(heart_df)
  # Return DF w/ OOB error and the hyperparameters
  tibble(
    mtry = rf grid$mtry[i],
    min n = rf grid min n[i],
    # Note: OOB error is buried
    error_oob = heart_rf_fit_i$fit$fit$fit$prediction.error
```

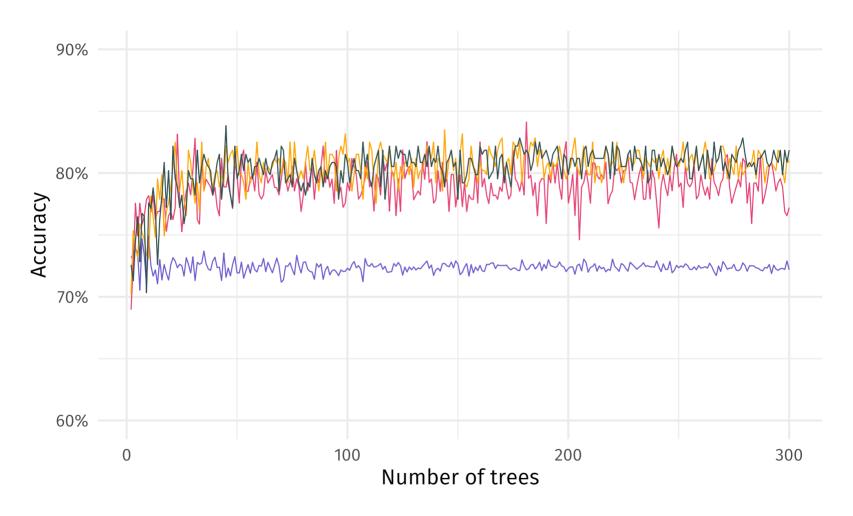
Step 3: Fit all of the forests (in parallel)!

```
# Fit the RFs on the grid
rf_tuning = mclapply(
   X = 1:nrow(rf_grid),
   FUN = rf_i,
   mc.cores = 12
) %>% rbindlist()
```

Accuracy (OOB) across the grid of our parameters.



Tree ensembles and the number of trees



[Method, Estimate] — Bagged, CV — Bagged, OOB — Random forest, CV — Random forest,

Boosting

So far, the elements of our ensembles have been acting independently: any single tree knows nothing about the rest of the forest.

Boosting allows trees to pass on information to eachother.

Specifically, **boosting** trains its trees *sequentially*—each new tree trains on the residuals (mistakes) from its predecessors.

- ullet We add each new tree to our model \hat{f} (and update our residuals).
- Trees are typically small—slowly improving \hat{f} where it struggles.

As with bagging, boosting can be applied to many methods (in addition to trees).

Boosting

Boosting has three **tuning parameters**.

- 1. The **number of trees** *B* can be important to prevent overfitting.
- 2. The **shrinkage parameter** λ , which controls boosting's *learning rate* (often 0.01 or 0.001).
- 3. The **number of splits** d in each tree (trees' complexity).
 - \circ Individual trees are typically short—often d=1 ("stumps").
 - Remember Trees learn from predecessors' mistakes,
 so no single tree needs to offer a perfect model.

How to boost

Step 1: Set $\hat{f}(x) = 0$, which yields residuals $r_i = y_i$ for all i.

Step 2: For b = 1, 2, ..., B do:

- **A.** Fit a tree \hat{f}^b with d splits.
- **B.** Update the model \hat{f} with "shrunken version" of new treee \hat{f}^b

$$\hat{f}(x) \leftarrow \hat{f}(x) + \lambda \, \hat{f^b}(x)$$

- **C.** Update the residuals: $r_i \leftarrow r_i \lambda \, \hat{f}^b(x)$.
- **Step 3:** Output the boosted model: $\hat{f}(x) = \sum_b \lambda \, \hat{f}^b(x)$.

Boosted residuals: The expansion

Recall: Boosting trains

- ullet successive models $\hat{f}_i(y,x)$
- on previous models' residuals, r_{i-1} (shrunk by λ)

$$egin{aligned} m{r}_0 &= y \ & m{r}_1 &= m{r}_0 - \lambda \hat{f}_1(m{r}_0, x) \ &= y - \lambda \hat{f}_1(y, x) \ & m{r}_2 &= m{r}_1 - \lambda \hat{f}_2(m{r}_1, x) \ &= y - \lambda \hat{f}_1(y, x) - \lambda \hat{f}_2(y - \lambda \hat{f}_1(y, x), x) \end{aligned}$$

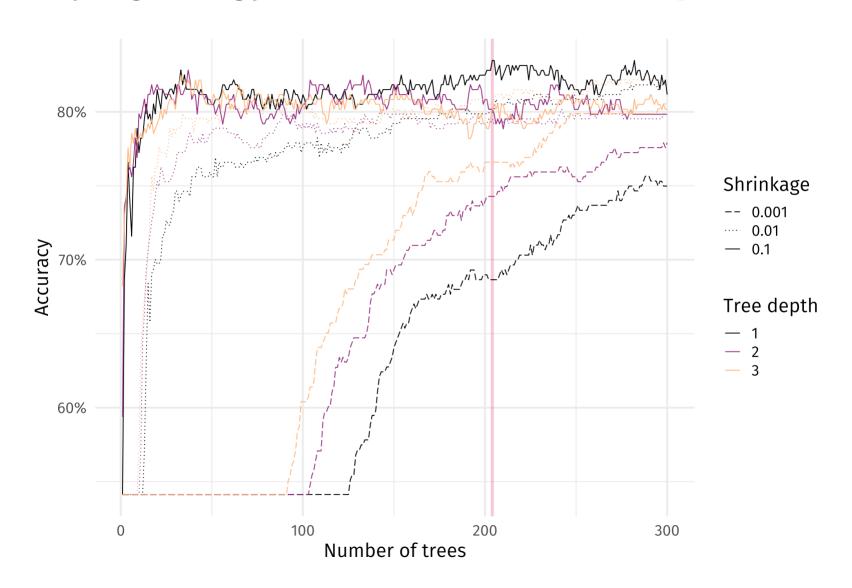
Boosting in R

We will use parsnips's boost_tree() to train boosted trees. T

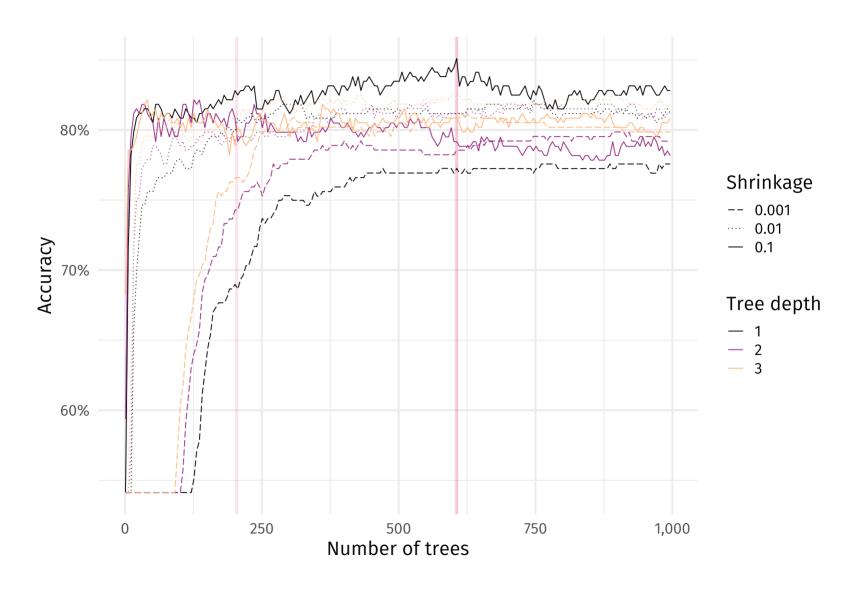
boost_tree() takes several parameters you've seen—plus one more:

- 1. mtry number of predictors to try at each split
- 2. trees, the number of trees (B)
- 3. min_n, minimum observations to split
- 4. tree_depth, max. tree depth (max. splits from top)
- 5. learn_rate, the learning rate (λ)
- This method uses the xgboost package.

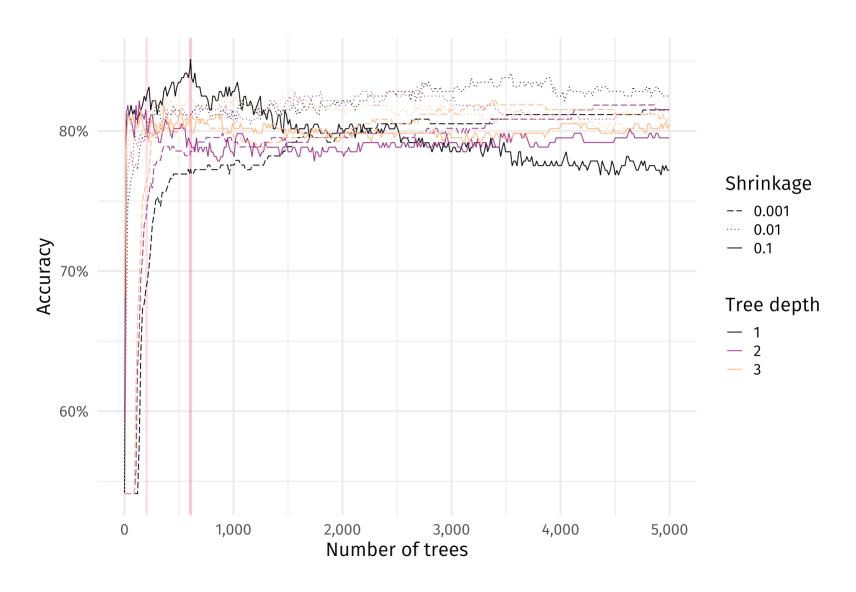
Comparing boosting parameters—notice the rates of learning



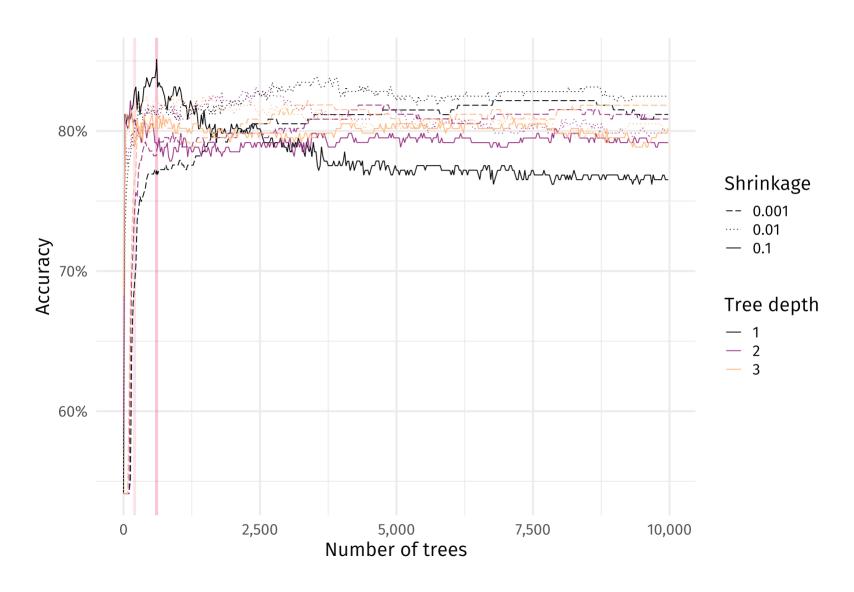
Comparing boosting parameters—more trees!



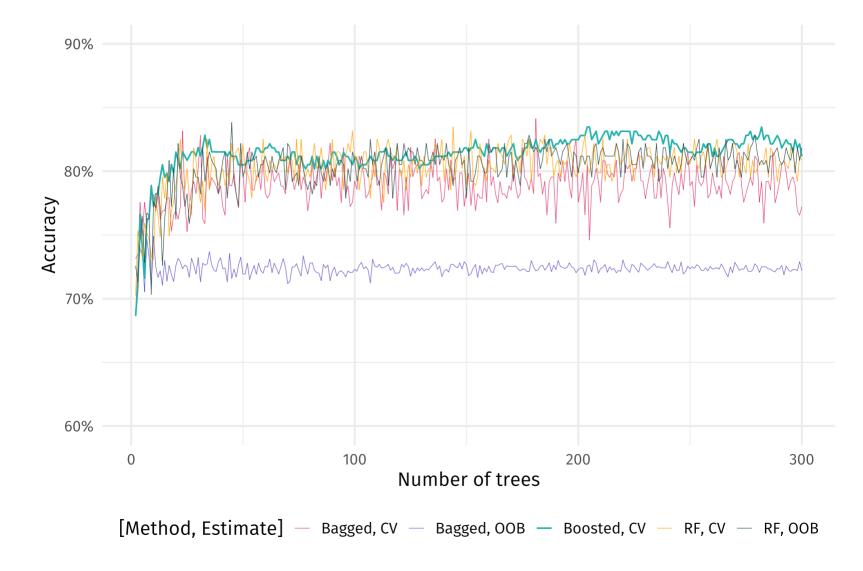
Comparing boosting parameters—even more trees!



Comparing boosting parameters—and even more trees!



Tree ensembles and the number of trees



Of course, there are a lot of other tree-based learning options:

- CatBoost (R)
- LightGBM (R)
- TabNet (R)

Sources

These notes draw upon

• An Introduction to Statistical Learning (ISL) James, Witten, Hastie, and Tibshirani

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