

Computational Data Analysis

Machine Learning

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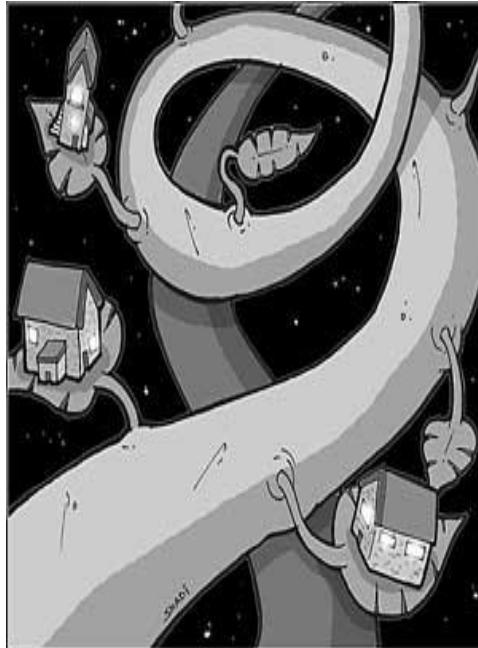
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Regression and Random Forest



Machine learning for apartment hunting



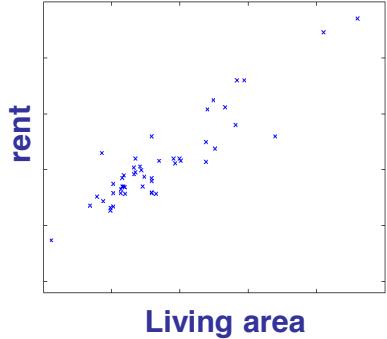
- Suppose you are to move to Atlanta
- And you want to find the **most reasonably priced** apartment satisfying your **needs**:
square-ft., # of bedroom, distance to campus ...

Living area (ft ²)	# bedroom	Rent (\$)
230	1	600
506	2	1000
433	2	1100
109	1	500
...		
150	1	?
270	1.5	?

The learning problem

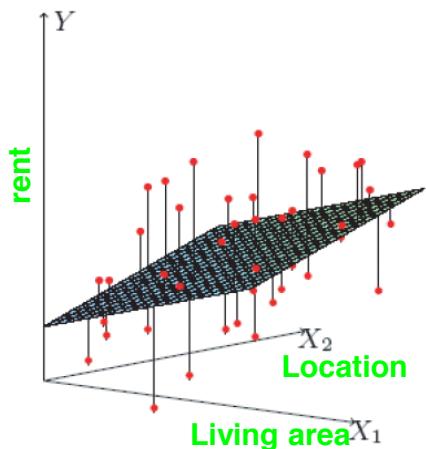
- Features:

- Living area, distance to campus, # bedroom ...
- Denote as $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)^\top$



- Target:

- Rent
- Denoted as y



- Training set:

- $X = (x^1, x^2, \dots, x^m)$
- $y = (y^1, y^2, \dots, y^m)^\top$

Linear Regression Model

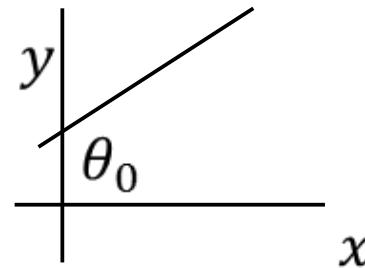
- Assume y is a linear function of x (features) plus noise ϵ

$$y = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x_1 + \cdots + \theta_n x_n + \epsilon$$

- where ϵ is an error term of unmodeled effects or random noise
- Let $\theta = (\theta_0, \theta_1, \dots, \theta_n)^\top$, and augment data by one dimension

$$x \leftarrow (1, x)^\top$$

- Then $y = \theta^\top x + \epsilon$



Least mean square method

- Given m data points, find θ that minimizes the mean square error

$$\hat{\theta} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\theta} L(\theta) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (y^i - \theta^\top x^i)^2$$

- Our usual trick: set gradient to 0 and find parameter

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial L(\theta)}{\partial \theta} &= -\frac{2}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (y^i - \theta^\top x^i) x^i = 0 \\ \Leftrightarrow -\frac{2}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m y^i x^i + \frac{2}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m x^i x^{i\top} \theta &= 0\end{aligned}$$

Matrix version of the gradient

- $\frac{\partial L(\theta)}{\partial \theta} = -\frac{2}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m y^i x^i + \frac{2}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m x^i x^{i^\top} \theta = 0$

- Equivalent to

$$\frac{\partial L(\theta)}{\partial \theta} = -\frac{2}{m} (x^1 \dots, x^m) (y^1 \dots, y^m)^\top + \frac{2}{m} (x^1, \dots, x^m) (x^1, \dots, x^m)^\top \theta = 0$$

- Define $X = (x^1, x^2, \dots, x^m)$, $y = (y^1, y^2, \dots, y^m)^\top$, gradient becomes

$$\frac{\partial L(\theta)}{\partial \theta} = -\frac{2}{m} Xy + \frac{2}{m} XX^\top \theta = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \hat{\theta} = (XX^\top)^{-1}Xy$$

Alternative way of obtaining θ

- The matrix inversion in $\hat{\theta} = (XX^\top)^{-1}Xy$ can be very expensive to compute

- $$\frac{\partial L(\theta)}{\partial \theta} = -\frac{2}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (y^i - \theta^\top x^i) x^i$$

- Gradient descent

$$\hat{\theta}^{t+1} \leftarrow \hat{\theta}^t + \frac{\alpha}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (y^i - \hat{\theta}^{t\top} x^i) x^i$$

- Stochastic gradient descent (use one data point at a time)

$$\hat{\theta}^{t+1} \leftarrow \hat{\theta}^t + \beta_t (y^i - \hat{\theta}^{t\top} x^i) x^i$$

A recap:

- Stochastic gradient update rule

$$\hat{\theta}^{t+1} \leftarrow \hat{\theta}^t + \beta \left(y^i - \hat{\theta}^{t\top} x^i \right) x^i$$

- Pros: on-line, low per-step cost
- Cons: coordinate, maybe slow-converging

- Gradient descent

$$\hat{\theta}^{t+1} \leftarrow \hat{\theta}^t + \frac{\alpha}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \left(y^i - \hat{\theta}^{t\top} x^i \right) x^i$$

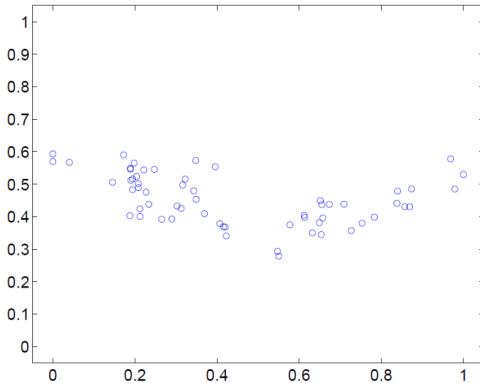
- Pros: fast-converging, easy to implement
- Cons: need to read all data

- Solve normal equations

$$(X X^\top) \hat{\theta} = X y$$

- Pros: a single-shot algorithm! Easiest to implement.
- Cons: need to compute inverse $(X^\top X)^{-1}$, expensive, numerical issues (e.g., matrix is singular ..)

Nonlinear regression



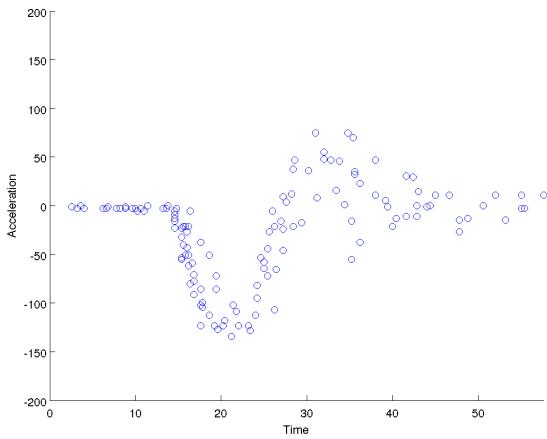
- Want to fit a polynomial regression model

$$y = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x + \theta_2 x^2 + \cdots + \theta_n x^n + \epsilon$$

- Let $\tilde{x} = (1, x, x^2, \dots, x^n)^\top$ and $\theta = (\theta_0, \theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_n)^\top$

$$y = \theta^\top \tilde{x}$$

Example: head acceleration in accident

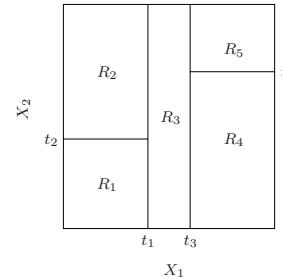
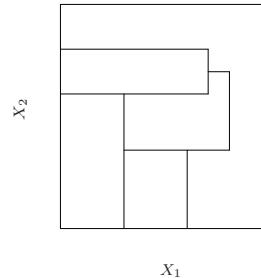


<http://www.jari.jp/Portals/0/resource/pdf/AAI%20Summit/H25/4.%20MIROS.pdf>

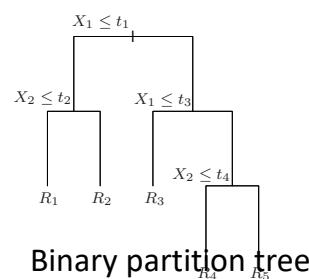
Regression tree

- Regression tree partition the feature space into a set of rectangles
- Fit a simple model (like a constant) in each one
- Popular method: CART

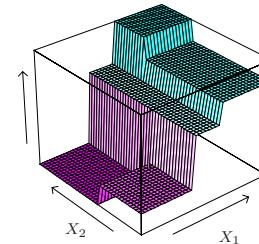
$$\hat{f}(X) = \sum_{m=1}^5 c_m I\{(X_1, X_2) \in R_m\}.$$



$$\hat{c}_m = \text{ave}(y_i | x_i \in R_m)$$



Binary partition tree



Greedy procedure

- Greedy approach
- Start with all of the data
- Consider a splitting variable j and split point s , and define half-spaces

$$R_1(j, s) = \{X | X_j \leq s\} \text{ and } R_2(j, s) = \{X | X_j > s\}$$

- Solve the problem

$$\min_{j, s} \left[\min_{c_1} \sum_{x_i \in R_1(j, s)} (y_i - c_1)^2 + \min_{c_2} \sum_{x_i \in R_2(j, s)} (y_i - c_2)^2 \right]$$

$$\hat{c}_1 = \text{ave}(y_i | x_i \in R_1(j, s))$$

$$\hat{c}_2 = \text{ave}(y_i | x_i \in R_2(j, s)).$$

Greedy procedure

- How large should the tree be
- Very large tree may over-fit the data; very small tree does not capture the important structure
- Determine the tree depth by controlling the fitting error-complexity tradeoff
- Grow a large tree, stop when a minimum node size has reached, then performing pruning by minimizing the cost function

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

error
complexity

$$N_m = \#\{x_i \in R_m\},$$

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

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

Classification tree

- The classification outcome taking value 1,2,..., K
- The only change needed in the tree algorithm is to change the criteria for splitting nodes and pruning the tree

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

$$k(m) = \arg \max_k \hat{p}_{mk},$$

- Different measures of “error” $Q_m(T)$

Misclassification error: $\frac{1}{N_m} \sum_{i \in R_m} I(y_i \neq k(m)) = 1 - \hat{p}_{mk(m)}.$

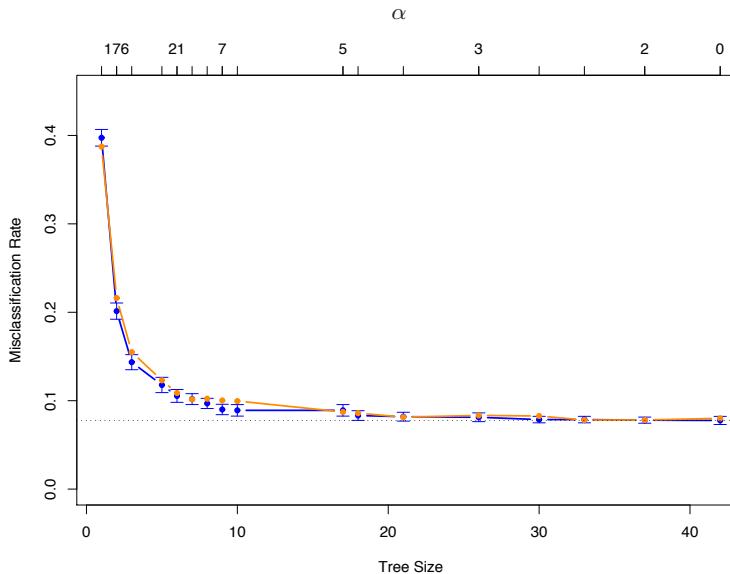
Gini index: $\sum_{k \neq k'} \hat{p}_{mk} \hat{p}_{mk'} = \sum_{k=1}^K \hat{p}_{mk} (1 - \hat{p}_{mk}).$

Cross-entropy or deviance: $-\sum_{k=1}^K \hat{p}_{mk} \log \hat{p}_{mk}.$

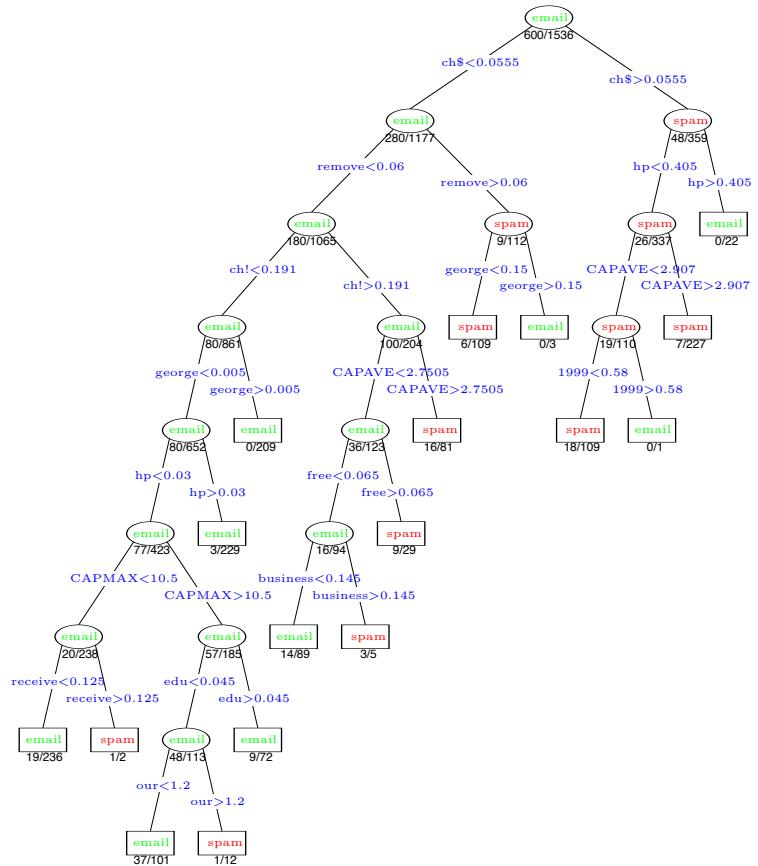
Example: Email spam

TABLE 9.3. *Spam data: confusion rates for the 17-node tree (chosen by cross-validation) on the test data. Overall error rate is 9.3%.*

True	Predicted	
	email	spam
email	57.3%	4.0%
spam	5.3%	33.4%

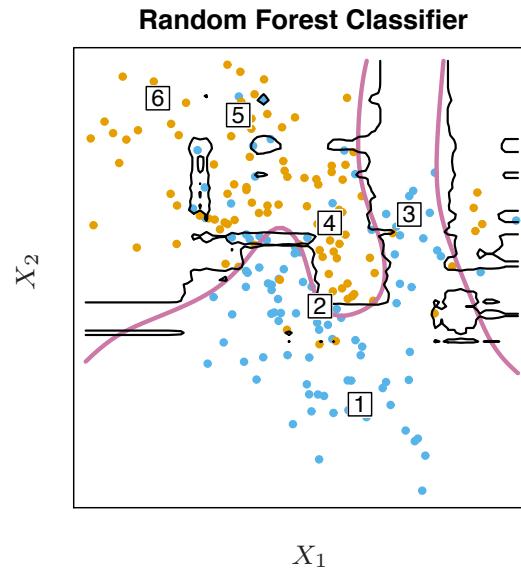
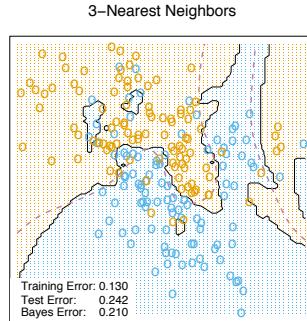
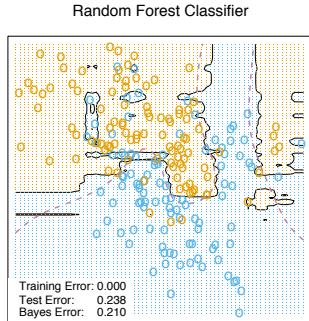


Example: Email spam



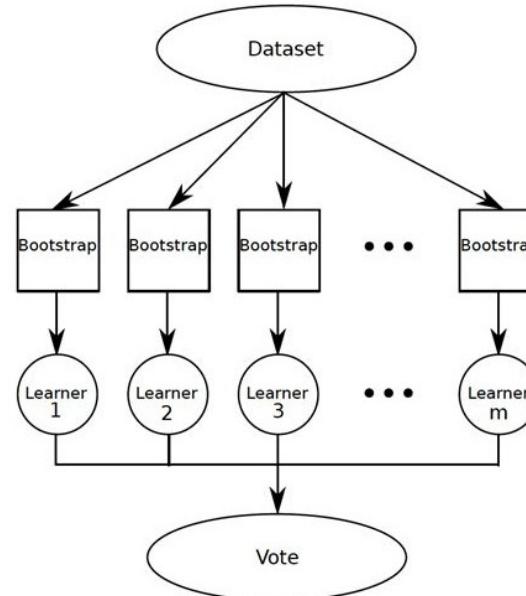
Random forest

- A main issue of the tree-based method is large variance
- Trees (if grown deep enough) have low bias: can capture complicated structure
- Trees are known to be very noisy
- They benefit greatly from averaging



Overview

- Bagging or bootstrap aggregation is an approach to reduce variance of the prediction
- Random forest is a type of bagging algorithm that builds a large collection of de-correlated trees, and then average them.
- For many problems, performance of random forest is very similar to boosting, and they are simpler to train and tune.



California housing price

- Data set (Pace and Barry, 1997) is available from CMU StatLib
- Aggregated data from each of 20,460 neighborhood (1990 census data) in California
- 8 predictors
 - Median income
 - House density
 - Average occupancy
 - Location
 - Average number of rooms
 - Average number of bedrooms

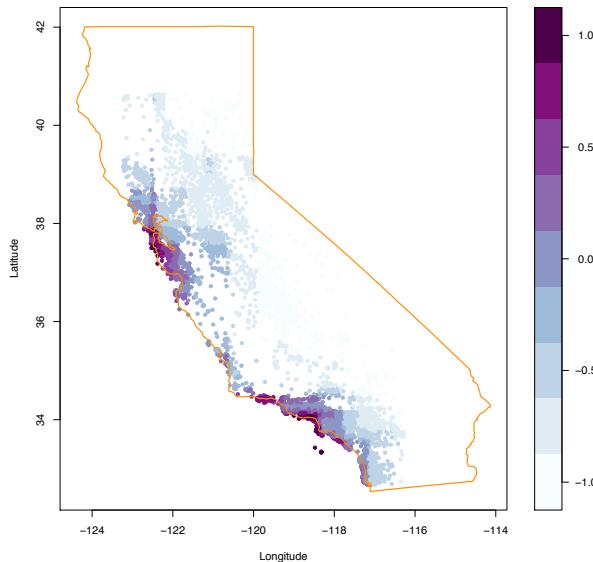


FIGURE 10.17. Partial dependence of median house value on location in California. One unit is \$100,000, at 1990 prices, and the values plotted are relative to the overall median of \$180,000.

California housing price

