Decision Trees and Random Forests

Laura Cline

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```
rm(list = ls(all=TRUE))
```

Fitting Classification Trees

```
The tree library is used to construct classification and regression trees.
#install.packages("tree")
#install.packages("gbm")
library(tree)
library(tidyverse)
## Registered S3 method overwritten by 'cli':
##
    method
              from
    print.tree tree
                                                 ----- tidyverse 1.3.0 --
## -- Attaching packages -----
## v ggplot2 3.3.3
                    v purrr
                               0.3.4
                   v dplyr
                              1.0.5
## v tibble 3.1.0
## v tidyr 1.1.3 v stringr 1.4.0
## v readr 1.4.0
                    v forcats 0.5.1
## -- Conflicts ----- tidyverse_conflicts() --
## x dplyr::filter() masks stats::filter()
## x dplyr::lag()
                   masks stats::lag()
library(stringr)
library(MASS)
## Attaching package: 'MASS'
## The following object is masked from 'package:dplyr':
##
##
      select
library(ISLR)
library(randomForest)
## randomForest 4.6-14
## Type rfNews() to see new features/changes/bug fixes.
##
## Attaching package: 'randomForest'
## The following object is masked from 'package:dplyr':
```

```
##
## combine
## The following object is masked from 'package:ggplot2':
##
## margin
library(gbm)
```

Loaded gbm 2.1.8

We first use classification trees to analyze the Carseats dataset. In this data, Sales is a continuous variable, and so we begin by recoding it as a binary variable. We use the ifelse() function to create a variable, called High, which takes on a value of Yes if the Sales variable exceeds 8, and takes on a value of No otherwise.

```
data <- Carseats %>%
  mutate(high = factor(if_else(Sales > 8, 1, 0)))
```

Finally, we use the data.frame() function to merge High with the rest of the Carseats data.

```
names(data) = str_to_lower(names(data))
```

We now use the tree() function to fit a classification tree in order to predict High using all variables but Sales. The syntax of the tree() function is quite similar to that of the lm() function.

```
# Set up initial tree
tree = tree(high ~ . -sales, data)
```

The summary() function lists the variables that are used as internal nodes in the tree, the number of terminal nodes, and the training error rate.

```
summary(tree)
```

```
##
## Classification tree:
## tree(formula = high ~ . - sales, data = data)
## Variables actually used in tree construction:
## [1] "shelveloc" "price" "income" "compprice" "population"
## [6] "advertising" "age" "us"
## Number of terminal nodes: 27
## Residual mean deviance: 0.4575 = 170.7 / 373
## Misclassification error rate: 0.09 = 36 / 400
```

We see that the training error rate is 9%. For classification trees, the deviance reported in the output of summary() is given by:

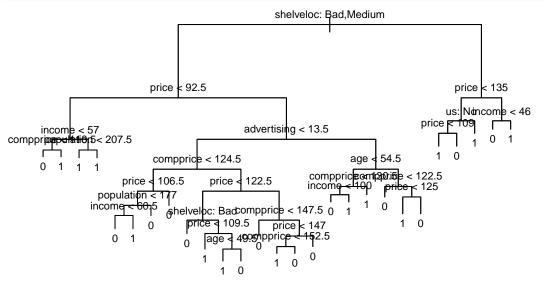
```
-2\sum_{m}\sum_{k}n_{mk}log\hat{p}_{mk},
```

where n_{mk} is the number of observations in the *m*th terminal node that belong to the *k*th class. A small deviance indicates a tree that provides a good fit to the training data. The *residual mean deviance* reported is simply the deviance divided by $n - |T_0|$, which in this case is 400 - 27 = 373.

One of the most attractive properties of trees is that they can be graphically displayed. We use the plot() function to display the tree structure, and the text() function to display the node labels. The argument pretty = 0 instructs R to include the category names for any qualitative predictors, rather than simply displaying a letter for each category.

We know that trees can easily be visually interpreted, so let's check out what our test case looks like. Be wary of doing any plotting because the tree can easily grow out of control and make the graph impossible to read. We see that in the following plot of our current results:

```
plot(tree)
text(tree, pretty = 0, cex = 0.65, digits = 1)
```



The most important indicator of Sales appears to be shelving location since the first branch differentiates 'Good' locations from 'Bad' and 'Medium' locations.

If we just type the name of the tree object, 'R' prints output corresponding to each branch of the tree. R displays the split criterion (e.g., Price < 92.5), the number of observations in that branch, the deviance, the overall prediction of that branch (Yes or No), and the fraction of observations in that branch that take on the values of Yes and No. Branches that lead to terminal nodes are indicates using asterisks.

#tree

In order to properly evaluate the performance of a classification tree on this data, we must estimate the test error rather than simply computing the training error. We split the observations into a training set and a test set, build the tree using the training set, and evaluate its performance on the test data. The predict() function can be used for this purpose. In the case of a classification tree, the argument type="class" instructs R to return the actual class prediction. This approach leads to correct predictions for around 77% of the locations in the test dataset.

In order to evaluate a classification tree, we need to use training and testing sets. Let's now repeat what we did above, this time including the calculation for the test error rate.

```
# Define our training/testing sets
set.seed(2)
train <- sample_n(data, 200)</pre>
test <- setdiff(data, train)</pre>
# Run the recursive partitioning algorithm
ttree <- tree(high ~. -sales, data=train)
# Make predictions and display the confusion matrix
test_predictions <- predict(ttree, test, type='class')</pre>
table(test_predictions, test$high)
##
## test_predictions
                           1
##
                   0 104
                          33
##
                   1 13
                          50
```

```
(104 + 50) / 200
```

```
## [1] 0.77
```

Next, we consider whether pruning the tree might lead to improved results. The function cv.tree() performs cross-validation in order to determine the optimal level of tree complexity; cost complexity pruning is used in order to select a sequence of trees for consideration. We use the argument FUN=prune.misclass in order to indicate that we want the classification error rate to guide the cross-validation and pruning process, rather than the default for cv.tree() function, which is deviance. The cv.tree() function reports the number of terminal nodes of each tree considered (size) as well as the corresponding error rate and the value of the cost-complexity parameter used (k, which corresponds to α).

We now add another layer of complexity by pruning our results. Recall that unpruned trees are prone to overfitting the data, so our method will be to watch variation in the test error rates as we increase the penalty in the number of terminal nodes. To refresh your memory, we summarize **Algorithm 8.1** below:

Algorithm 8.1: Pruning Trees

- 1. Grow your original tree T_0 using your training data.
- 2. As a function of α (the penalty parameter), define the sequence of best subtrees.
- 3. Use K-fold cross-validation to find the α that minimizes the average mean squared prediction error of the kth fold of the training data.
- 4. Find the best subtree from Step 2 using the α found in the previous step.

Luckily, tree::cv.tree will be doing most of the work for us. It will perform cross-validation required to determine the optimal tree size. It also allows us to choose the function by which the tree is pruned. In this case, pruning will be guided by the classification error rate.

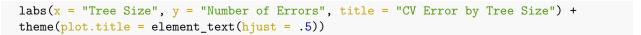
```
set.seed(3)
cv_tree <- cv.tree(ttree, FUN = prune.misclass)
cv_tree</pre>
```

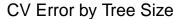
```
## $size
## [1] 21 19 14 9 8 5 3 2 1
##
## $dev
## [1] 74 76 81 81 75 77 78 85 81
##
## $k
## [1] -Inf 0.0 1.0 1.4 2.0 3.0 4.0 9.0 18.0
##
## $method
## [1] "misclass"
##
## attr(,"class")
## [1] "prune" "tree.sequence"
```

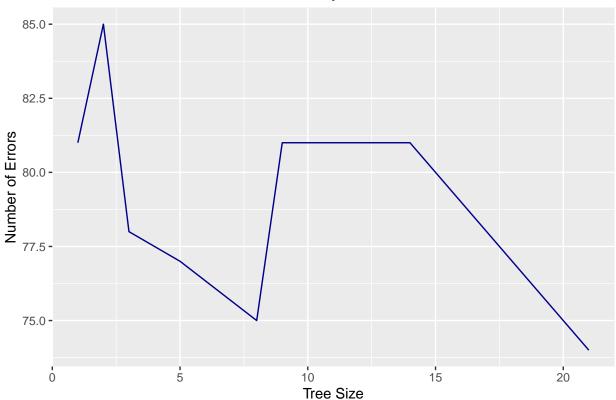
Note that, despite the name, dev corresponds to the cross-validation error rate in this instance. The tree with 21 terminal nodes results in the lowest cross-validation error rate, with 74 cross validation errors. We plot the error rate as a function of both size and k.

```
library(ggplot2)

ggplot(data = data.frame(cv_tree$size, cv_tree$dev),
   aes(x = cv_tree$size, y = cv_tree$dev)) +
   geom_line(color = "darkblue") +
```







We now apply the prune.misclass() function in order to prune the tree to obtain the nine-node tree.

Now that we know exactly how many terminal nodes we want, we prune our tree with prune.misclass() to obtain the optimal tree. Then check to see if this tree performs any better on the testing set than the base tree T_0 did.

```
pruned <- prune.misclass(ttree, best=21)</pre>
```

How well does this pruned tree perform on the test dataset? Once again, we apply the predict() function.

```
test_predictions <- predict(pruned, data=test, type='class')
table(test_predictions, test$high)</pre>
```

```
##
## test_predictions 0 1
## 0 79 49
## 1 38 34

(77 + 38)/200
```

```
## [1] 0.575
```

Now, 57% of the test observations are correctly classified, so in this case, the pruning process has produced a more interpretable tree, but the classification accuracy has decreased.

Fitting Regression Trees

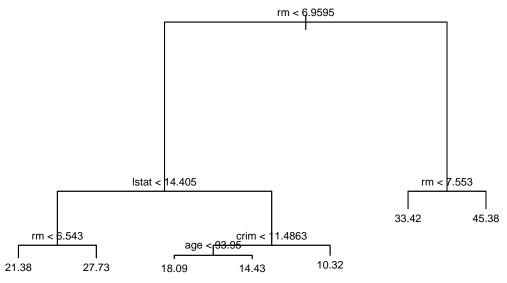
Here we fit a regression tree to the Boston dataset. First we create a training set and fit the tree to the training data.

Not much changes in terms of code when we switch to regression trees, so this section will pretty much be a recap of the previous one, just using different data. We pull the Boston dataset from the MASS library for this section.

```
Boston <- MASS::Boston
set.seed(1)
train <- sample_frac(Boston, 0.5)</pre>
test <- setdiff(Boston, train)</pre>
tree_train <- tree(medv ~ ., data=train)</pre>
summary(tree train)
##
## Regression tree:
## tree(formula = medv ~ ., data = train)
## Variables actually used in tree construction:
                "lstat" "crim" "age"
## Number of terminal nodes: 7
## Residual mean deviance: 10.38 = 2555 / 246
## Distribution of residuals:
##
             1st Qu.
                        Median
                                          3rd Qu.
                                                       Max.
       Min.
                                    Mean
## -10.1800
             -1.7770
                       -0.1775
                                  0.0000
                                           1.9230
                                                    16.5800
```

Notice that the output of summary() indicates that only four of the variables have been used in constructing the tree. In the context of a regression tree, the deviance is simply the sum of squared errors for the tree. We now plot the tree.

```
plot(tree_train)
text(tree_train, pretty = 0, cex = 0.65)
```



As you can see, rm < 6.959 is the first partition in the tree. The variable means the average number of rooms per dwelling so lower values of rm means less average rooms on the left side of the tree, this suggests that houses with more rooms end up with much larger median house prices.

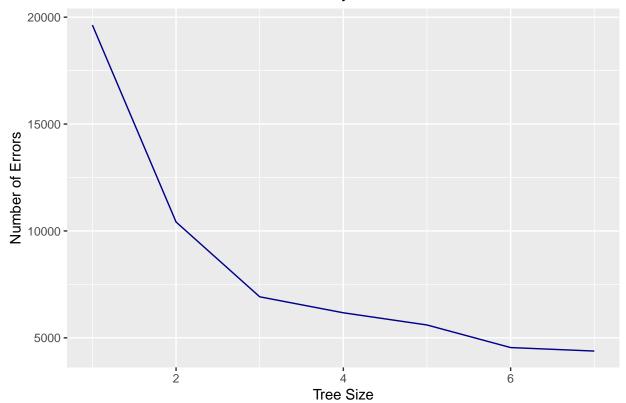
The tree predicts a median house price of \$25,380 for larger homes with more than seven rooms.

Now we use the cv.tree() function to see whether pruning the tree will improve performance.

```
cv_tree <- cv.tree(tree_train)

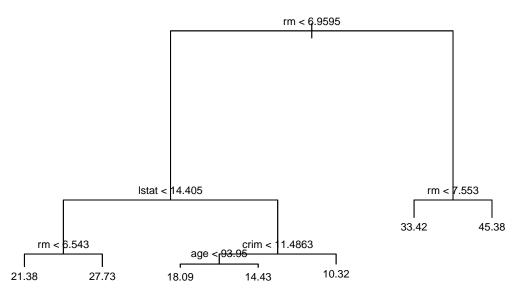
# Get an idea of change in error by changing tree size
ggplot(data = data.frame(cv_tree$size, cv_tree$dev), aes(x = cv_tree$size, y = cv_tree$dev)) +
geom_line(color = "darkblue") +
labs(x = "Tree Size", y = "Number of Errors", title = "CV Error by Tree Size") +
theme(plot.title = element_text(hjust = 0.5))</pre>
```

CV Error by Tree Size



In this case, the most complex tree is selected by cross-validation. However, if we wish to prune the tree, we could do so as follows using the prune.tree() function:

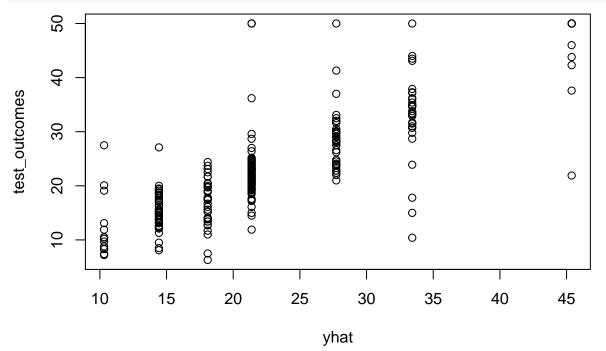
```
prune.boston = prune.tree(tree_train, best= 7)
plot(prune.boston)
text(prune.boston, pretty = 0, cex = 0.65)
```



In keeping with cross-validation results, we use the unpruned tree to make predictions on the test set.

```
# Predict, plot and calculate MSE
yhat <- predict(tree_train, newdata=test)
test_outcomes <- test$medv</pre>
```

plot(yhat, test_outcomes)



mean((yhat - test_outcomes)^2)

[1] 35.28688

In other words, the test set MSE associated with the regression tree is 35.29. The square root of the MSE is therefore around 5.94, indicating that this model leads to test predictions that are within \$5,940 of the true median home value for the suburb.

Bagging and Random Forests

Here we apply bagging and random forests to the Boston data, using the randomForest package in R. The exact results obtained in this section may depend on the version of R and the version of the randomForest package installed on your computer. Recall that bagging is simply a special case of a random forest with m = p. Therefore, the randomForest() function can be used to perform both random forests and bagging.

We'll be using the same data from the previous section and the randomForest package to help us accomplish some simple examples. We begin with a bagging example, where all predictors are used in each split. We perform bagging as follows:

```
set.seed(1)
train <- sample frac(Boston, 0.5)
test <- setdiff(Boston, train)</pre>
# Set up the randomForest for the bagging case (all vars included)
bag <- randomForest(medv ~ ., data=train, mtry = 13, importance = TRUE)</pre>
bag
##
## Call:
##
    randomForest(formula = medv ~ ., data = train, mtry = 13, importance = TRUE)
##
                  Type of random forest: regression
                         Number of trees: 500
##
## No. of variables tried at each split: 13
##
##
             Mean of squared residuals: 11.33119
                        % Var explained: 85.26
##
```

The argument mtry = 14 indicates that all 13 predictors should be considered for each split of the tree - in other words, that bagging should be done. How does this bagged model perform on the test set?

```
# Calculate MSE of the testing set for the bagged regression tree
yhat <- predict(bag, test)
mean((yhat - test$medv)^2)</pre>
```

```
## [1] 23.4579
```

The test set MSE associated with the bagged regression tree is 23.46, almost half that obtained using an optimally-pruned single tree. We could change the number of trees grown by randomForest() using the ntree argument.

```
bag.boston <- randomForest(medv ~ ., data=train, mtry = 13, ntree = 25)
yhat <- predict(bag.boston, test)
mean((yhat - test$medv)^2)</pre>
```

```
## [1] 22.99145
```

Growing a random forest proceeds in exactly the same way, except that we use a smaller value of the mtry argument. By default, randomForest() uses p/3 variables when building a random forest of regression trees, and \sqrt{p} variables when building a random forest of classification trees. Here we use mtry = 6.

Compare the MSE of the bagged random forest to the optimally pruned single tree found earlier - it's much lower. We manually change the amount of variables at each split in the above bagging example, but we might achieve better results using a general random forest. By default, randomForest uses p/3 variables when building a forest of regression trees and \sqrt{p} for classification trees. In the following example, we will use mtry = 6 ($m \approx p/2$).

```
forest = randomForest(medv ~ ., data=train, mtry = 6, importance = TRUE)

yhat <- predict(forest, test)
mean((yhat - test$medv)^2)</pre>
```

[1] 20.16422

We find that this approach worked - our MSE is now reduced to 19.88, lower than the previous two methods we tried.

Using the importance() function, we can view the importance of each variable.

importance(forest)

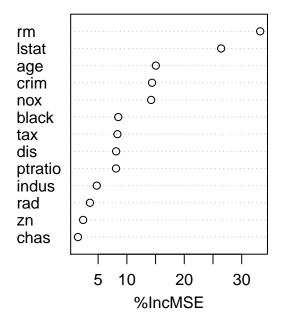
##		%IncMSE	${\tt IncNodePurity}$
##	crim	14.389520	1015.38819
##	zn	2.383675	116.75818
##	indus	4.759755	560.00649
##	chas	1.485182	36.49459
##	nox	14.227996	866.91472
##	rm	33.219106	7997.53209
##	age	15.046634	616.54222
##	dis	8.131485	751.23862
##	rad	3.571826	83.08033
##	tax	8.356359	305.72575
##	ptratio	8.115858	967.88590
##	black	8.507384	264.38182
##	lstat	26.418993	5573.29309

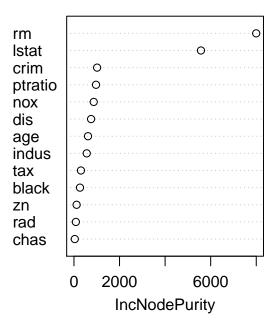
The first column represents the mean decrease in accuracy of the prediction when the variable is removed from the model, and the second column is a measure of the total decrease in node purity resulting from splits over that variable (averaged over all of the trees).

Two measures of variable importance are reported. The former is based upon the mean decrease of accuracy in predictions on the out of bag samples when a given variable is excluded from the model. The latter is a measure of the total decrease in node impurity that results from splits over that variable, averaged over all trees. In the case of regression trees, the node impurity is measured by the training RSS, and for classification trees by the deviance. Plots of these importance measures can be produced using the varImpPlot() function.

varImpPlot(forest)

forest





The results indicate that across all of the trees considered in the random forest, the average number of rooms (rm) and the wealth level of the community (lstat) are by far the two most important variables.

Boosting

Here we use the gbm package, and within it the gbm() function, to fit boosted regression trees to the Boston dataset. we run gbm() with the option of distribution="gaussian" since this is a regression problem; if it were a binary classification problem, we would use distribution=bernoulli". The argument n.trees=5000 indicates that we want 5,000 trees, and the option interaction.depth=4 limits the depth of each tree.

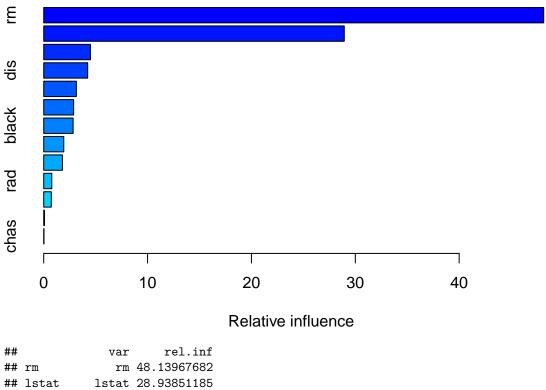
We'll be using the gbm package to help us fit boosted regression trees to the Boston dataset, which you should be familiar with by now.

```
set.seed(1)
train <- sample_frac(Boston, 0.5)
test <- setdiff(Boston, train)

# Regression => distr = gaussian
boosted <- gbm(medv ~ ., train, distribution="gaussian", n.trees=5000, interaction.depth = 4)</pre>
```

The summary() function produces a relative influence ploy and also outputs the relative influence statistics.

```
# Summarize and produce a quick plot to highlight importance of variables summary(boosted)
```

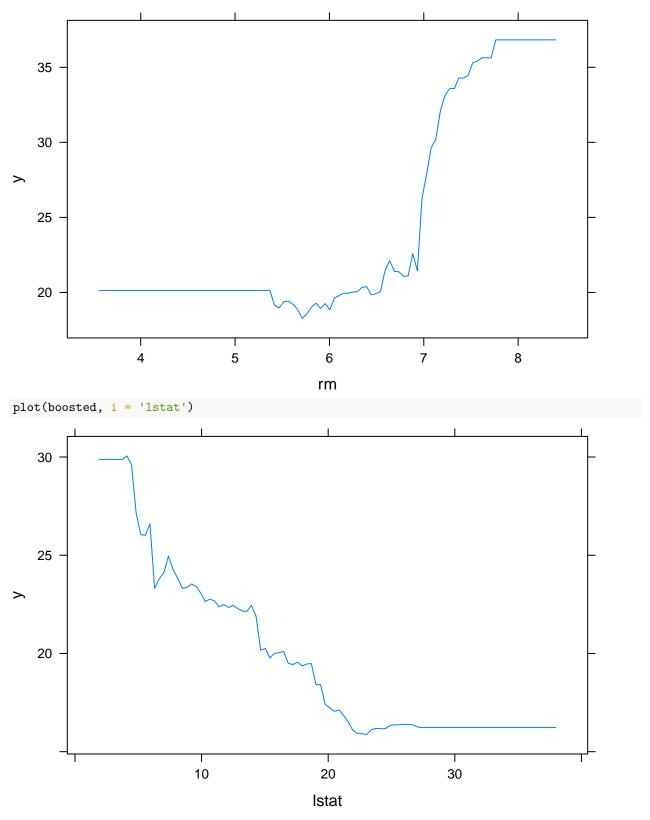


```
crim
              crim
                    4.49413146
##
  dis
                    4.23182696
               dis
## age
                    3.14221169
               age
                    2.88094283
## nox
               nox
## black
             black
                     2.83238772
## ptratio ptratio
                     1.93050932
## tax
               tax
                     1.80427054
                    0.77569461
## rad
               rad
## indus
             indus
                     0.73110525
                    0.07442923
## zn
                 zn
                    0.02430170
## chas
              chas
```

We see that rm and lstat are by far the most important variables. We can also produce partial dependence plots for these two variables. These plots illustrate the marginal effect of the selected variables on the response after integrating out the other variables. In this case, as we might expect, median house prices are increasing with rm and decreasing with lstat.

Let's plot the marginal effect of these two variables, lstat and rm.

```
par(mfrow = c(1,2))
plot(boosted, i = 'rm')
```



Alright, this just confirmed what we should have already been expecting: median house values are decreasing with lstat and increasing in rm.

We now use the boosted model to predict medv on the test set.

Let's now test how well this boosted regression tree performs on the testing data.

```
yhat <- predict(boosted, newdata = test, n.trees=5000)
mean((yhat - test$medv)^2)</pre>
```

```
## [1] 19.37033
```

Not a mazing, but not bad. The boosted model performed just about the same as random forest a and superior to that of the bagging model, but we might be able to squeeze out some extra performance by changing the shrinkage parameter λ .

The test MSE obtained is 19.37; similar to the test MSE for random forests and superior to that for bagging. If we want to, we can perform boosting with a different value of the shrinkage parameter λ . The default value is 0.01, but this is easily modified. Here we take $\lambda = 0.2$.

```
boosted <- gbm(medv ~ ., train, distribution="gaussian", n.trees=5000, interaction.depth = 4, shrinkage
yhat <- predict(boosted, newdata=test, n.trees=5000)
mean((yhat - test$medv)^2)</pre>
```

```
## [1] 18.68911
```

Changing the shrinkage parameter actually made a difference - we are now just slightly under what we got from our previous model where it was equal to 0.001.

Excercises

Question Three

Consider the Gini index, classification error and entropy in a simple classification setting with two classes. Create a single plot that displays each of these quantities as a function of \hat{p}_{m1} . The x-axis should display \hat{p}_{m1} , ranging from 0 to 1, and the y-axis should display the value of the Gini index, classification error and entropy.

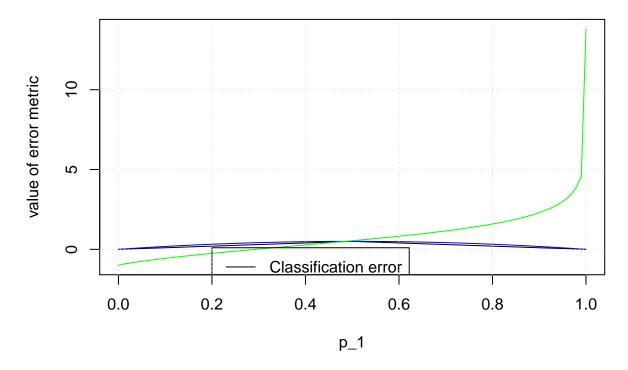
```
p1 <- seq(0+1e-06, 1-1e-6, length.out=100)
p2 = 1 - p1

# The miscalculation error rate:
E = 1 - apply(rbind(p1, p2), 2, max)

# The Gini index:
G = p1 * (1 - p1) + p2 * (1-p2)

# The cross entropy:
D = - (p1 * log(p1) + p2 + log(p2))

plot(p1, E, type='l', col='black', xlab = 'p_1', ylab='value of error metric', ylim=c(min(c(E,G,D)), malines(p1, G, col='blue'))
lines(p1, D, col='green')
legend(0.2, 0.1, c('Classification error', 'Gini index', 'Cross entropy'), col=c('black', 'blue', 'greeggrid()</pre>
```



Question Seven

In the lab, we applied random forests to the Boston data using mtry=6 and using ntree = 25 and ntree = 500. Create a plot displaying the test error resulting from random forests on this dataset for a more comprehensive range of values for mtry and ntree. Describe the results obtained.

```
set.seed(0)
n = nrow(Boston)
p = ncol(Boston) - 1 # one column is the response we are trying to model, i.e., "medv"
train = sample(1:n, n/2)
test = (1:n)[-train]
ntree_to_test = seq(from=1, to=500, by=10)
# For a number of mtry values and a number of trees look at the test error rate:
# For mtry == p:
mse.bag = rep(NA, length(ntree_to_test))
for(nti in 1:length(ntree_to_test)){
 nt = ntree_to_test[nti]
  # Grow a tree with "nt" trees:
  boston.bag = randomForest(medv ~ ., data=Boston, mtry = p, ntree = nt, importance=TRUE, subset=train)
  # Make predictions with this tree on the test dataset:
  y_hat = predict(boston.bag, newdata=Boston[test,])
  mse.bag[nti] = mean((Boston[test,]$medv - y_hat)^2)
# For mtry = p/2:
mse.p_over_two = rep(NA, length(ntree_to_test))
for(nti in 1:length(ntree_to_test)){
```

```
nt = ntree_to_test[nti]
  # Grow the tree with "nt" trees:
  boston.bag = randomForest(medv ~ ., data=Boston, mtry=p/2, ntree=nt, importance=TRUE, subset=train)
  # Make predictions with this tree on the test dataset:
  y_hat = predict(boston.bag, newdata=Boston[test,])
 mse.p_over_two[nti] = mean((Boston[test,]$medv - y_hat)^2)
# Run random forest with mtry=sqrt(p) and test on test set
mse.sqrt_p = rep(NA, length(ntree_to_test))
for(nti in 1:length(ntree_to_test)){
 nt = ntree_to_test[nti]
  # Grow a tree with "nt" trees:
  boston.bag = randomForest(medv ~ ., data=Boston, mtry=sqrt(p), ntree=nt, importance=TRUE, subset=train
  # Make predictions with this tree on the test dataset:
  y_hat = predict(boston.bag, newdata=Boston[test,])
 mse.sqrt_p[nti] = mean((Boston[test,]$medv - y_hat)^2)
plot(ntree_to_test, mse.bag, xlab = "Number of Trees", ylab="Test MSE", col='red', type='l')
lines(ntree_to_test, mse.p_over_two, xlab="Number of Trees", ylab="Test MSE", col='blue', type='l')
legend('topright', c('mtry=p', 'mtry=p/2', 'mtry=sqrt(p)'), col=c('red', 'blue', 'green'), lty=c(1,1,1)
grid()
                                                                       mtry=p
      35
                                                                       mtry=p/2
                                                                       mtry=sqrt(p)
      30
Test MSE
      25
      20
             0
                          100
                                        200
                                                      300
                                                                   400
                                                                                 500
```

Number of Trees

Question Eight

In the lab, a classification tree was applied to the Carseats dataset after converting Sales into a qualitative response variable. Now we will seek to predict Sales using regression trees and related approaches, treating the response as a quanitative variable.

A. Split the dataset into a training set and test set

```
set.seed(0)

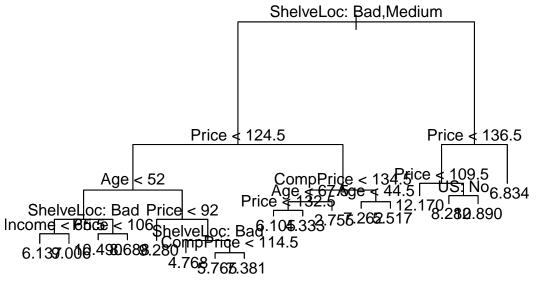
n = nrow(Carseats)
p = ncol(Carseats)-1 # Remove the column we seek to predict, i.e., "Sales"

train = sample(1:n, n/2)
test = (1:n)[-train]
```

B. Fit a regression tree to the training set. Plot the tree, and interpret the results. What test MSE do you obtain?

```
rtree.carseats = tree(Sales ~., data=Carseats[train,])
summary(rtree.carseats)
```

```
##
## Regression tree:
## tree(formula = Sales ~ ., data = Carseats[train, ])
## Variables actually used in tree construction:
## [1] "ShelveLoc" "Price"
                               "Age"
                                           "Income"
                                                       "CompPrice" "US"
## Number of terminal nodes: 17
## Residual mean deviance: 2.441 = 446.7 / 183
## Distribution of residuals:
      Min. 1st Qu. Median
                                  Mean 3rd Qu.
                                                    Max.
## -3.90700 -0.99560 -0.03944 0.00000 1.01200 3.77600
plot(rtree.carseats)
text(rtree.carseats, pretty=0)
```

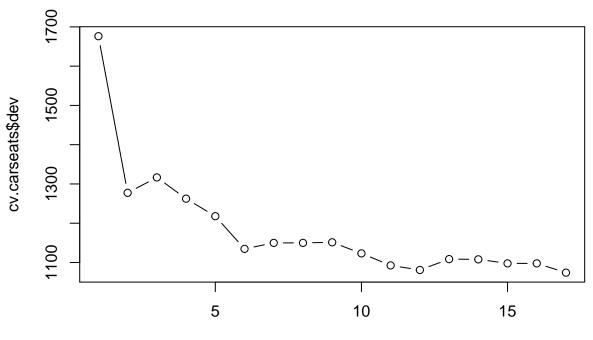


```
y_hat = predict(rtree.carseats, newdata=Carseats[test,])
test.MSE = mean((y_hat - Carseats[test,]$Sales)^2)
print(test.MSE)
```

[1] 4.276852

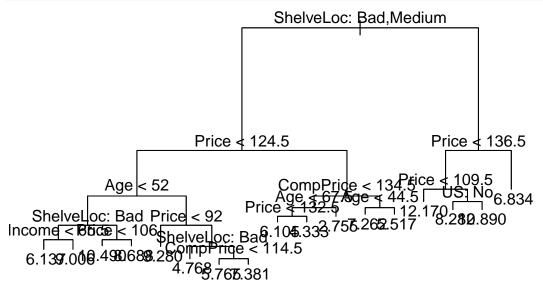
C. Use cross-validation in order to determine the optimal level of tree complexity. Does prunting the tree improve the test MSE?

```
# Use cross-validation to determine optimal tree complexity
cv.carseats = cv.tree(rtree.carseats)
names(cv.carseats)
## [1] "size"
                "dev"
                                  "method"
print(cv.carseats)
   [1] 17 16 15 14 13 12 11 10 9
                                  8
                                     7
                                         6
                                            5 4 3
##
## $dev
   [1] 1074.122 1097.694 1097.694 1107.972 1108.590 1080.886 1092.554 1123.180
   [9] 1151.382 1149.899 1149.899 1134.674 1217.885 1262.475 1316.610 1277.419
## [17] 1676.291
##
## $k
                                                22.04537
##
   [1]
            -Inf 18.83282 18.87206
                                      20.27236
                                                          27.21361
                                                                     29.14616
##
   [8]
        32.41127
                 39.33786 41.23946
                                      41.60250 48.67832 71.43696 98.75811
## [15] 130.73089 153.56960 413.77594
##
## $method
## [1] "deviance"
##
## attr(,"class")
## [1] "prune"
                       "tree.sequence"
plot(cv.carseats$size, cv.carseats$dev, type="b") #plot the tree size
```



cv.carseats\$size

```
# Pick the size of the tree you want to prune to:
\#It\ looks\ like\ k = 17 is the smallest tree with an error close to the minimum
prune.carseats = prune.tree(rtree.carseats, best=17)
plot(prune.carseats)
text(prune.carseats, pretty=0)
```



```
# Predict the MSE using this tree:
y_hat = predict(prune.carseats, newdata=Carseats[test,])
prune.MSE = mean((y_hat - Carseats[test,]$Sales)^2)
print(prune.MSE)
```

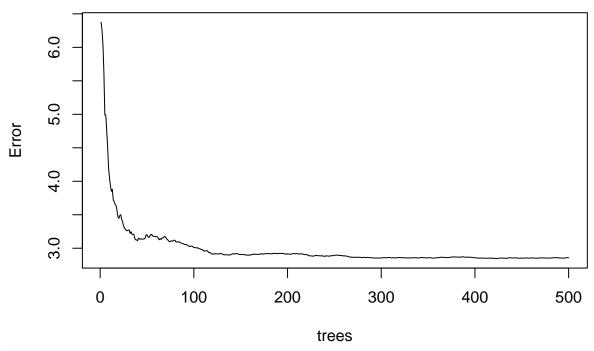
[1] 4.276852

plot(carseats.bag)

D. Use the bagging approach in order to analyze this data. What test MSE do you obtain? Use the importance() function to determine which variables are most important.

```
# Use bagging
carseats.bag = randomForest(Sales ~ ., data=Carseats, mtry=p, ntree=500, importance=TRUE, subset=train)
y_hat = predict(carseats.bag, newdata=Carseats[test,])
mse.bag = mean((Carseats[test,]$Sales - y_hat)^2)
print(mse.bag)
## [1] 2.597362
```

carseats.bag



ibag = importance(carseats.bag)
print(ibag[order(ibag[,1]),])

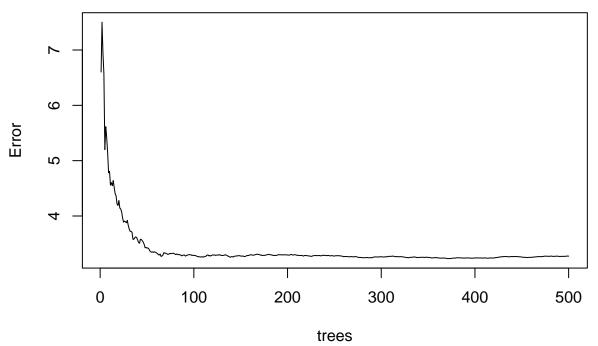
```
%IncMSE IncNodePurity
##
## Population
                               49.23199
               -2.660192
## Education
                 2.396716
                               44.92580
## US
                 2.711138
                               13.52099
                               11.36380
## Urban
                 3.303058
## Income
                 3.331959
                               79.14007
## Advertising 16.217643
                              116.83583
## Age
               17.283679
                              167.54657
## CompPrice
               22.815491
                              171.93564
## Price
               52.792602
                              495.11024
## ShelveLoc
               54.280908
                              464.99885
```

plot(carseats.rf)

E. Use random forests to analyze this data. What test MSE do you obtain? Use the importance() function to determine which variables are the most important. Describe the effect of m, the number of variables considered at each split, on the error rate obtained.

```
# Use random forests
carseats.rf = randomForest(Sales ~ ., data=Carseats, mtry=p/3, ntree=500, importance=TRUE, subset=train
y_hat = predict(carseats.rf, newdata=Carseats[test,])
mse.rf = mean((Carseats[test,]$Sales - y_hat)^2)
print(mse.rf)
## [1] 2.988168
```

carseats.rf



```
irf = importance(carseats.rf)
print(irf[order(irf[,1]),])
```

```
##
                  %IncMSE IncNodePurity
## Population
               -0.9029990
                                97.56670
## Urban
                 0.1259916
                                19.06768
## Income
                 2.1277547
                               115.04105
## Education
                 3.1350209
                                76.48365
## US
                 6.6536420
                                30.78831
## CompPrice
               13.1921517
                               166.43324
## Advertising 13.5428052
                               121.69371
## Age
               14.3583472
                               205.55877
## ShelveLoc
               34.0735184
                               330.22667
## Price
               36.8150937
                               387.12126
```

Question Nine

This problem involves the OJ dataset which is part of the ISLR package.

A. Create a training set containing a random sample of 800 observations, and a test set containing the remaining observations.

```
set.seed(0)

n = nrow(0J)
p = ncol(0J)-1 # remove the response Purchase

train = sample(1:n, 800)
test = (1:n)[-train]
```

B. Fit a tree to the training data, with Purchase as the response and the other variables as predictors. Use the summary() function to produce summary statistics about the tree, and describe the results obtained.

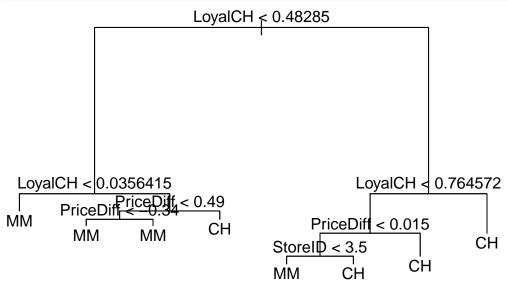
What is the training error rate? How many terminal nodes does the tree have?

```
tree.OJ = tree(Purchase ~ ., data=OJ[train,])
summary(tree.OJ)
```

```
##
## Classification tree:
## tree(formula = Purchase ~ ., data = OJ[train, ])
## Variables actually used in tree construction:
## [1] "LoyalCH" "PriceDiff" "StoreID"
## Number of terminal nodes: 8
## Residual mean deviance: 0.7679 = 608.2 / 792
## Misclassification error rate: 0.1588 = 127 / 800
```

- C. Type in the name of the tree object in order to get a detailed text output. Pick one of the terminal nodes, and interpret the information displayed.
- D. Create a plot of the tree and interpret its results.

```
plot(tree.OJ)
text(tree.OJ, pretty=0)
```



E. Predict the response on the test data, and produce a confusion matrix comparing the test labels to the predicted test labels. What is the test error rate?

```
y_hat = predict(tree.OJ, newdata=OJ[test,], type="class") #gives classification labels
CT = table(y_hat, OJ[test,]$Purchase)
print(CT)

##
## y_hat CH MM
## CH 134 24
## MM 28 84

print('original tree: classification error rate on the test dataset')

## [1] "original tree: classification error rate on the test dataset"
print((CT[1,2] + CT[2,1]) / sum(CT))
```

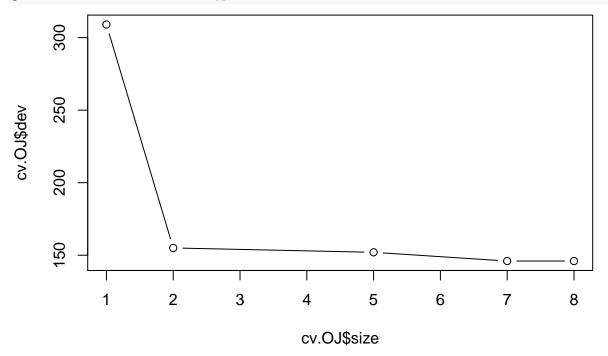
[1] 0.1925926

F. Apply the cv.tree() function to the training set in order to determine the optimal tree size.

```
cv.OJ = cv.tree(tree.OJ, FUN=prune.misclass)
```

G. Produce a plot with tree size on the x-axis and cross-validation classification error on the y-axis.

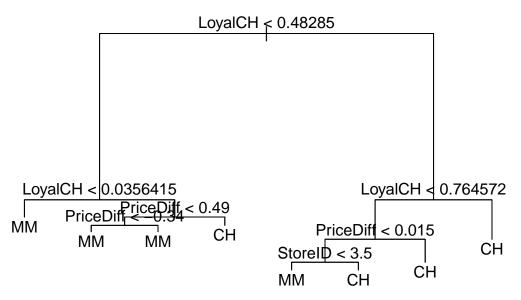
```
plot(cv.OJ$size, cv.OJ$dev, type="b")
```



- H. Which tree size corresponds to the lowest cross-validated classification error rate? Answer: 8
- I. Produce a pruned tree corresponding to the optimal tree size obtained using cross-validation. If cross-validation does not lead to selection of a pruned tree, then create a pruned tree with five terminal nodes.

```
# Based on the above, pick the size of the tree you want to prune to:
prune.OJ = prune.misclass(tree.OJ, best=8)

plot(prune.OJ)
text(prune.OJ, pretty=0)
```



J. Compare the training error rates between the pruned and unpruned trees. Which is higher?

```
# Compute the training error rates:
y_hat = predict(prune.0J, newdata=0J[train,], type="class")
CT = table(y_hat, 0J[train,]$Purchase)
print('pruned tree: classification error rate on the training dataset:')
## [1] "pruned tree: classification error rate on the training dataset:"
print((CT[1,2] + CT[2,1])/sum(CT))
```

[1] 0.15875

Answer: the training error rate for the unpruned tree is higher.

K. Compare the test error rates between the pruned and unpruned trees. Which is higher?

```
# Compute testing error rates:
y_hat = predict(prune.OJ, newdata=OJ[test,], type='class')
CT = table(y_hat, OJ[test,]$Purchase)
print('pruned tree: classification error rate on the test dataset:')
## [1] "pruned tree: classification error rate on the test dataset:"
print((CT[1,2] + CT[2,1])/sum(CT))
```

[1] 0.1925926

Answer: the testing error rates for the pruned and unpruned trees are the same.

Question Ten

We now use boosting to predict Salary in the Hitters dataset.

A. Remove the observations for whom the salary information is unknown, and then log-transform the salaries.

```
set.seed(0)

Hitters = na.omit(Hitters)
Hitters$Salary = log(Hitters$Salary)
```

B. Create a training set consisting of the first 200 observations, and a test set consisting of the remaining observations.

```
n = nrow(Hitters)
p = ncol(Hitters) - 1 # one column is the response we are trying to model, "Salary"

train = 1:200
test = 201:n
```

C. Perform boosting on the training set with 1,000 trees for a range of values of the shrinkage parameter λ . Produce a plot with different shrinkage values on the x-axis and the corresponding training set MSE on the y-axis.

```
lambda_set = seq(1.e-4, 0.04, by=0.001)

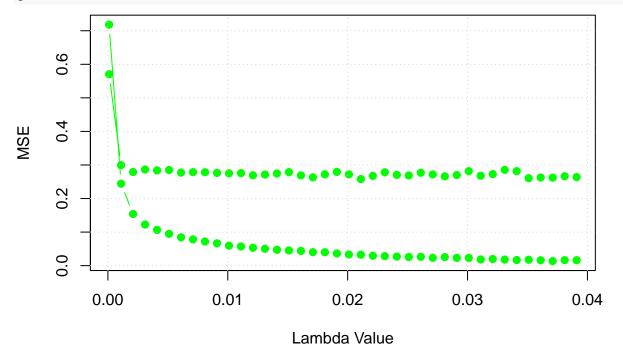
training_set_mse = rep(NA, length(lambda_set))
test_set_mse = rep(NA, length(lambda_set))
for(lmi in 1:length(lambda_set)){
    lm = lambda_set[lmi]

    boost.hitters = gbm(Salary ~ ., data=Hitters[train,], distribution="gaussian", n.trees=1000, interact

    y_hat = predict(boost.hitters, newdata=Hitters[train,], n.trees=1000)
    training_set_mse[lmi] = mean((y_hat - Hitters[test,], n.trees=1000)
    test_set_mse[lmi] = mean((y_hat - Hitters[test,], salary)^2)
}
```

D. Produce a plot with different shrinkage values on the x-axis and the corresponding test MSE on the y-axis.

```
plot(lambda_set, training_set_mse, type="b", pch=19, col='green', xlab="Lambda Value", ylab="MSE")
lines(lambda_set, test_set_mse, type="b", pch=19, col='green', xlab="Lambda Value", ylab="Test Set MSE"
grid()
```

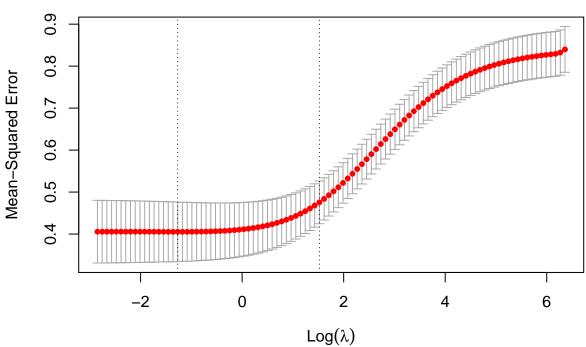


```
E. Compare the test MSE of boosting to the test MSE that results from applying two regression approaches?
# Looks like the test MSE results are insensitive to the exact value of lambda as long as its small eno
lm = 0.01
boost.hitters = gbm(Salary ~ ., data=Hitters[train,], distribution="gaussian", n.trees=1000, interaction
y_hat = predict(boost.hitters, newdata=Hitters[test,], n.trees=1000)
print('regression boosting test MSE:')
## [1] "regression boosting test MSE:"
print(mean((y_hat - Hitters[test,]$Salary)^2))
## [1] 0.2756909
# Try linear regression:
m = lm(Salary ~ ., data=Hitters[train,])
y_hat = predict(m, newdata=Hitters[test,])
print('linear regression test MSE:')
## [1] "linear regression test MSE:"
print(mean((y_hat - Hitters[test,]$Salary)^2))
## [1] 0.4917959
# Try the lasso:
library(glmnet)
## Loading required package: Matrix
##
## Attaching package: 'Matrix'
## The following objects are masked from 'package:tidyr':
##
##
       expand, pack, unpack
## Loaded glmnet 4.1-2
MM = model.matrix( Salary ~ ., data=Hitters[train,] )
cv.out = cv.glmnet( MM, Hitters[train,]$Salary, alpha=1 )
bestlam = cv.out$lambda.1se
print( "lasso CV best value of lambda (one standard error)" )
## [1] "lasso CV best value of lambda (one standard error)"
print( bestlam )
## [1] 0.1725201
lasso.mod = glmnet(MM, Hitters[train,]$Salary, alpha=1)
MM_test = model.matrix(Salary ~ ., data=Hitters[test,])
y_hat = predict(lasso.mod, s=bestlam, newx=MM_test)
print('lasso regression test MSE:')
## [1] "lasso regression test MSE:"
print(mean((y_hat = Hitters[test,]$Salary)^2))
```

[1] 35.29202

```
# Try Ridge Regression:
cv.out = cv.glmnet(MM, Hitters[train,]$Salary, alpha=0)
plot(cv.out)
```

19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19



```
bestlam = cv.out$lambda.1se
print("ridge CV best value of lambda (one standard error)")
```

[1] "ridge CV best value of lambda (one standard error)"
print(bestlam)

```
## [1] 4.582284
```

```
ridge.mod = glmnet(MM, Hitters[train,]$Salary, alpha=0)
y_hat = predict(ridge.mod, s=bestlam, newx=MM_test)
print("ridge regression test MSE:")
```

[1] "ridge regression test MSE:"

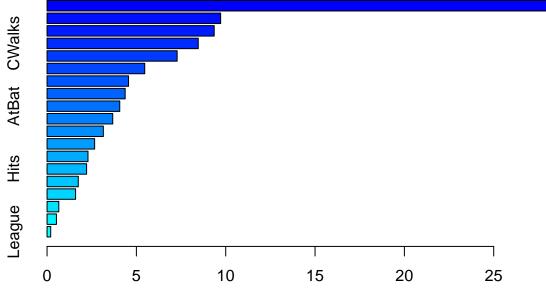
```
print(mean((y_hat - Hitters[test,]$Salary)^2))
```

[1] 0.454797

Answer: Lasso regression has the lowest test MSE.

F. Which variables appear to be the most important predictors in the boosted model?

```
# What are the most important variables
summary(boost.hitters)
```



Relative influence

```
##
                           rel.inf
                    var
## CAtBat
                 CAtBat 27.9843348
## CHits
                  CHits
                        9.7163571
## CRBI
                   CRBI
                         9.3564948
## CWalks
                 CWalks
                         8.4641693
## CRuns
                  CRuns
                         7.2820304
## Years
                         5.4674280
                  Years
## PutOuts
               PutOuts
                         4.5604591
## Walks
                  Walks
                         4.3724216
## AtBat
                  AtBat
                         4.0692012
## CHmRun
                 CHmRun
                         3.6759612
## Assists
                Assists
                         3.1511172
## RBI
                    RBI
                         2.6630040
                 Errors
## Errors
                         2.2909979
                   Hits
## Hits
                         2.2133744
## HmRun
                  {\tt HmRun}
                         1.7480868
## Runs
                   Runs
                         1.5973072
## NewLeague NewLeague
                         0.6577638
## Division
              Division
                         0.5252455
## League
                 League
                         0.2042459
```

G. Now apply bagging to the training set. What is the test set MSE for this approach?

```
# Try randomForests on the Hitters dataset (not asked for above)
rf.hitters = randomForest(Salary ~ ., data=Hitters, mtry=p/3, ntree=1000, importance=TRUE, subset=train
y_hat = predict(rf.hitters, newdata=Hitters[test,])
mse.rf = mean((Hitters[test,]$Salary - y_hat)^2)
print('randomForest test MSE:')

## [1] "randomForest test MSE:"
print(mse.rf)
```

[1] 0.2141533

```
# Try Bagging on the Hitters dataset:
bag.hitters = randomForest(Salary ~ ., data=Hitters, mtry=p, ntree=1000, importance=TRUE, subset=train)
y_hat = predict(bag.hitters, newdata=Hitters[test,])
mse.bag = mean((Hitters[test,]$Salary - y_hat)^2)
print('Bagging test MSE:')

## [1] "Bagging test MSE:"
print(mse.bag)

## [1] 0.2293072
```

Random forest has the lowest test MSE.

Question Eleven

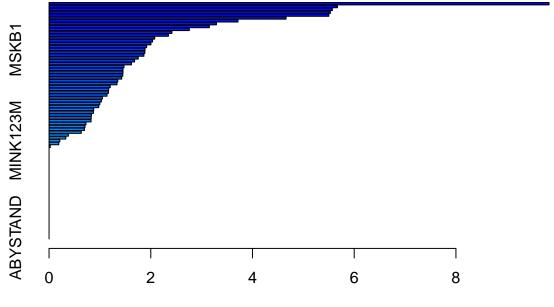
This question uses the Caravan dataset.

A. Create a training set consisting of the first 100 observations, and create a test set consisting of the remaining observations.

```
set.seed(0)
Caravan = na.omit(Caravan)
n = nrow(Caravan)
p = ncol(Caravan) - 1 # one column is the response we are trying to model, i.e., "Purchase"
train = 1:1000
test = 1001:n
# Transform the response "Purchase" to be in [0,1] as required by gbm:
PurchaseBinary = rep(0,n)
PurchaseBinary[Caravan$Purchase == 'Yes'] = 1
Caravan$Purchase = PurchaseBinary
# Some variables seen to be very noninformative (have zero variance as reported by gbm):
Caravan$PVRAAUT = NULL
Caravan$AVRAAUT = NULL
```

B. Fit a boosting model to the training set with Purchase as the response and the other variables as predictors. Use 1,000 trees, and a shrinkage value of 0.01. Which predictors appear the most important?

```
# Train a gbm:
lm = 0.01
boost.caravan = gbm(Purchase ~ ., data=Caravan[train,], distribution="bernoulli", n.trees=1000, interac
summary(boost.caravan)
```



Relative influence

```
##
                        rel.inf
                 var
## PPERSAUT PPERSAUT 9.83047713
## MKOOPKLA MKOOPKLA 5.67101078
## MOPLHOOG MOPLHOOG 5.57015086
## PBRAND
              PBRAND 5.53090647
## MGODGE
              MGODGE 5.50146339
## MBERMIDD MBERMIDD 4.66053217
## MOSTYPE
             MOSTYPE 3.71528842
## MINK3045 MINK3045 3.29167392
## MGODPR
              MGODPR 3.15189659
               MAUT2 2.75860820
## MAUT2
## MBERARBG MBERARBG 2.41585129
## ABRAND
              ABRAND 2.34750399
                MSKC 2.07742330
## MSKC
## MSKA
                MSKA 2.03539655
## MAUT1
               MAUT1 2.00290825
## MRELGE
              MRELGE 1.91903070
## MSKB1
               MSKB1 1.88713704
## PWAPART
             PWAPART 1.88354710
## MFWEKIND MFWEKIND 1.86568208
## MGODOV
              MGODOV 1.75362888
## MINK7512 MINK7512 1.68185238
## MFGEKIND MFGEKIND 1.62053883
## MBERHOOG MBERHOOG 1.47386158
## MBERARBO MBERARBO 1.45496977
## MINKM30
             MINKM30 1.45332376
## MHKOOP
              MHKOOP 1.44894919
## MGODRK
              MGODRK 1.42859782
## MRELOV
              MRELOV 1.35136073
## MINKGEM
             MINKGEM 1.33514219
## MAUTO
               MAUTO 1.20352717
## MZFONDS
             MZFONDS 1.17292916
## MINK4575 MINK4575 1.16903944
```

```
## MOSHOOFD MOSHOOFD 1.13985697
## MHHUUR
              MHHUUR 1.04951077
## MGEMLEEF MGEMLEEF 1.03005616
  APERSAUT APERSAUT 0.99864198
  MSKB2
               MSKB2 0.97672510
## PBYSTAND PBYSTAND 0.87858256
## MOPLMIDD MOPLMIDD 0.87431940
## PMOTSCO
             PMOTSCO 0.83289524
## MFALLEEN MFALLEEN 0.82850043
## MZPART
              MZPART 0.82588303
## PLEVEN
              PLEVEN 0.72568141
## MGEMOMV
             MGEMOMV 0.70719044
                MSKD 0.69605715
  MSKD
  MBERBOER MBERBOER 0.63402319
## MBERZELF MBERZELF 0.38036763
## MRELSA
              MRELSA 0.32946406
## MINK123M MINK123M 0.21200829
## MOPLLAAG MOPLLAAG 0.19163868
## MAANTHUI MAANTHUI 0.02438834
## PWABEDR
             PWABEDR 0.0000000
## PWALAND
             PWALAND 0.0000000
## PBESAUT
             PBESAUT 0.00000000
## PAANHANG PAANHANG O.OOOOOOO
## PTRACTOR PTRACTOR 0.00000000
## PWERKT
              PWERKT 0.00000000
## PBROM
               PBROM 0.00000000
## PPERSONG PPERSONG 0.00000000
## PGEZONG
             PGEZONG 0.00000000
## PWAOREG
             PWAOREG 0.0000000
## PZEILPL
             PZEILPL 0.00000000
## PPLEZIER PPLEZIER 0.0000000
## PFIETS
              PFIETS 0.00000000
## PINBOED
             PINBOED 0.00000000
## AWAPART
             AWAPART 0.0000000
  AWABEDR
             AWABEDR 0.0000000
## AWALAND
             AWALAND 0.0000000
## ABESAUT
             ABESAUT 0.00000000
## AMOTSCO
             AMOTSCO 0.00000000
## AAANHANG AAANHANG O.OOOOOOO
## ATRACTOR ATRACTOR 0.00000000
## AWERKT
              AWERKT 0.0000000
## ABROM
               ABROM 0.00000000
## ALEVEN
              ALEVEN 0.00000000
## APERSONG APERSONG 0.00000000
## AGEZONG
             AGEZONG 0.0000000
## AWAOREG
             AWAOREG 0.0000000
## AZEILPL
             AZEILPL 0.0000000
## APLEZIER APLEZIER 0.0000000
## AFIETS
              AFIETS 0.00000000
  AINBOED
             AINBOED 0.00000000
## ABYSTAND ABYSTAND 0.0000000
```

C. Use the boosting model to predict the response on the test data. Predict that a person will make a purchase if the estimated probability of purchase is greater than 2%. Form a confusion matrix. What fraction

of the people predicted to make a purchase do in fact make one? How does this compare to results obtained from applying KNN or logistic regression to this dataset?

```
# Predict the testing error:
y_hat = predict(boost.caravan, newdata=Caravan[test,], n.trees=1000)
p_hat = exp(y_hat) / (1 + exp(y_hat)) # covert the logodd output into probabilities
will buy = rep(0, length(test))
will_buy[p_hat > 0.2] = 1
# Create a confusion matrix
table(will buy, Caravan[test,]$Purchase)
##
## will_buy
##
          0 4357
                  253
          1 176
                   36
# Train a logistic regression:
lr_model = glm(Purchase ~ ., data=Caravan[train,], family="binomial")
## Warning: glm.fit: fitted probabilities numerically 0 or 1 occurred
y_hat = predict(lr_model, newdata=Caravan[test,])
## Warning in predict.lm(object, newdata, se.fit, scale = 1, type = if (type == :
## prediction from a rank-deficient fit may be misleading
p_hat = exp(y_hat) / (1 + exp(y_hat)) # Convert the logodd output into probabilities
will_buy = rep(0, length(test))
will_buy[p_hat > 0.2] = 1
# Create a confusion matrix
table(will buy, Caravan[test,]$Purchase)
##
## will_buy
              0
                    1
##
          0 4183
                  231
##
          1 350
                  58
# Try bagging (not implemented/tested):
if(FALSE){
  bag.hitters = randomForest(Purchase ~ ., data=Caravan, mtry=p, ntree=1000, importance=TRUE, subset=tr
  y_hat = predict(bag.hitters, newdata=Caravan[test,])
 mse.bag = mean((Caravan[test,]$Purchase - y_hat)^2)
 print('randomForest test MSE:')
 print(mse.bag)
}
```