Bagging, Boosting and Random Forests Section 8.2

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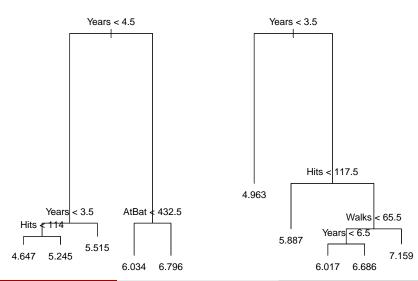
Decision Trees: Issues

Decision trees have the following disadvantages:

- They struggle with prediction accuracy.
- They suffer from high variance different subsets of the same data could yield drastically different results.

Example Recall the *Hitters* data set. Below we produced pruned regression trees that result from two different training subsets.

Difference In Trees



Compared to Linear Models

For comparison, linear models have low variance

```
> for (i in 1:2) {
   train = sample(1:n, .5*n)
   lm.model = lm(log(Salary) ~.,
                 data = Hitters2[,included.vars],
                 subset = train)
   print(lm.model$coeff)
                                                                           Walks
(Intercept)
                   AtBat
                                  Hits
                                                Runs
                                                               RBT
4.3293120988 -0.0040777461 0.0178041401 0.0028982852 0.0014815773 0.0052671305
      Years
                   Put Out s
                                Assists
                                               Errors
0.1093491642 0.0003759963 0.0006064904 -0.0058631340
                                                                           Walks
(Intercept)
                   AtBat
                                  Hits
                                                 Runs
                                                               RBT
4.0518530539 -0.0013953663 0.0088648110 0.0050624823
                                                       0.0012224423 0.0045370919
      Years
                   Put Out s
                                Assists
                                               Errors
0.1032572113 0.0006584508 0.0006051528 -0.0074061893
```

Recall Bootsrap Method

- Resample from the original data either directly or via a fitted model to create data sets, from which the variability of the quantities of interest can be assessed with out long-winded and error-prone analytical calculations.
- This approach involves repeating the original data analysis procedure with many replicate sets of data.
- The central goal is to obtain reliable standard errors, confidence intervals, and other measures of uncertainty for a wide range of problems.
- This approach can be applied in simple problems to check the adequacy of standard measures of uncertainty, to relax assumptions, and to give quick approximate solutions.
- The basic idea of bootstrap is to make inference about an estimate (such as the sample mean or sample coefficients $\hat{\beta}_j$) for a population parameter θ (such as the population mean or coefficients β_j) on sample data.

Recall General Approach to Statistical Learning

- Let Y be the response (dependent variable).
- Let $X = (X_1, X_2, ..., X_p)$ be p different predictors (independent) variables.
- We assume there is some sort of relationship between X and Y, which can be written in the general form

$$Y = f(X) + \epsilon$$

- Statistical leaning refers to a set of approaches for estimating f.
- A way to reduce the variance and increase the prediction accuracy of a statistical learning method is to take many training sets from the population, build a separate prediction model using each training set and average the resulting predictions.
- That is we could calculate $\hat{f}^1(x), \hat{f}^2(x), \dots, \hat{f}^B(x)$ using B separate training sets and average them in order to obtain a single low-variance statistical learning model, given by

$$\hat{f}_{avg}(x) = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{b=1}^{B} \hat{f}^b(x)$$

Bagging

Since we do not have access to multiple training sets, we can bootstrap, by taking repeated samples from the (single) training data set.

- 1. We generate *B* different bootstrapped training data sets.
- 2. We train our method on the *b*th bootstrapped training set in order to get $\hat{f}^{*b}(x)$.
- 3. Average all the predictions to obtain

$$\widehat{\hat{f}_{bag}(x)} = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{b=1}^{B} \hat{f}^{*b}(x).$$

This is called bagging.

Bagging for Decision Trees

- Bagging can improve predictions for many regression methods, it is particularly useful for decision trees.
- To apply bagging to regression trees:
 - 1. Construct *B* regression trees using *B* bootstrapped training sets.
 - 2. Average the resulting predictions.
- These trees are grown deep, and are not pruned. Thus each individual tree has high variance but low bias.
- Averaging these B trees reduces the variance.
- To apply bagging to classification:
 - 1. We record the class predicted by each of the *B* trees
 - 2. Take a *majority vote*: the overall prediction is the most commonly occurring class among the *B* predictions.

Bagging in R

Type and run the following in R

Lab Questions

Type and run the following in R

```
hitters.test = Hitters2[-train, "Salarv"]
yhat = predict(prune.model,newdata = Hitters2[-train,included.vars])
mean((vhat - log(hitters.test))^2)
```

1 What is the name of this result?

- a) Miss classification Mean of squared residuals
- c) Predicted salary
- d) Predicted hitters
- 2. Using the bagging method from previous slide what did we get as this value?

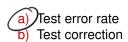
- c) 0.39
- d) 0.06

Example for Classification Tree

We will use the *Heart* data. Recall trees.

```
#Example of Classification Tree
#Using Heart data
Heart = na.omit(Heart); Heart$X = NULL
train = sample(1:nrow(Heart),nrow(Heart)/2+0.5)
tree.heart = tree(AHD ~ ., Heart,subset = train)
Heart.test = Heart[-train,]
tree.pred = predict(tree.heart,Heart.test,type = "class")
(conf.matrix = table(tree.pred,Heart.test$AHD))
(conf.matrix[1,2]+conf.matrix[2,1])/sum(conf.matrix)
```

3. What is the name of this result?



- c) Predicted values
- d) Training values

> (conf.matrix[1,2]+conf.matrix[2,1])/sum(conf.matrix) [1] 0.277027

Bagging

Type and run the following in \mathbb{R} .

OOB estimate of error rate: 19.19% Confusion matrix: No Yes class.error No 134 26 0.1625000 Yes 31 106 0.2262774

bag.model

4. What is the estimate of the error rate?



- c) 17%
- d) 24%

Estimating the Test Error

- On average, each bagged tree makes use of around two-thirds of the B observations.
- The remaining one-third of the observations not used to fit a given bagged tree are referred to as the out-of-bag (OOB) observations.
- We can predict the response for the ith observation using each of the trees in which that observation was OOB.
- We predict the response for the ith observation using each of the trees in which that observation was OOB. This yields around B/3 predictions for the ith observation.
- We can then
 - Average these predicted responses if regression is the goal
 - Take a majority vote if classification is the goal
- Then the overall OOB test error can be computed.

Variable Importance Measures

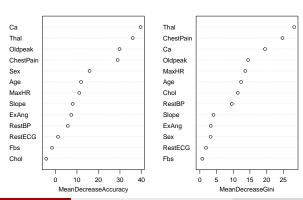
- Recall advantage of decision trees is the attractive and easily interpreted diagram that results.
- When we bag a large number of trees, the resulting statistical learning procedure is no longer using a single tree and no long clear which variable are most important to the procedure.
- We use relative variable importance measures
 - ► If variable is important, the tree split over that variable causes the RSS (or Gini index for classification trees) to decrease the most.
 - ► The measure of variable's importance is the total amount by which RSS (Gini) decreased after each split over that variable.
 - ▶ The larger the value the more importance is that variable.

Variable Importance Measures In R

In R we used int the randomForest () function importance = TRUE.

The following is the plot of the variable importances for *Heart* data. The variables with the largest mean decrease in Gini index are Thal, Ca, and ChestPain.

bag.model



Random Forests

- Random forests adds a small tweak to further improve on bagging:
 - 1. Random forests also grow B large un-pruned trees, but
 - 2. Each time a tree split is considered, it picks a random subset of $m \approx \sqrt{p}$ predictors from the full set of p predictors.
- This leads to decorreltaing the bagged trees. Less chance to have same variable dominating each bagged tree (which would have led to high correlation between estimates).
- This stabilizes the variance of the estimate.
- If m = p, then this is bagging.

Random Forest in R

- Growing a random forest proceeds in exactly the same way as Boosting, 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} when building a random forest of classification trees.

Random Forests In R

The *mtry* in the randomForest () function is changed to fit a random forest. This is the number of predictors to be considered at tree splits.

```
> #Random Forest Model
> AHD.test = Heart[-train, "AHD"]
> X.test = Heart[-train,-14] #Take away the AHD column
> rf.model = randomForest(AHD ~., data = Heart,
                          subset = train.
                         xtest = X.test, ytest = AHD.test,
                         ntree = B,
                         mtry = sqrt(p),
                          importance = TRUE)
> rf.model
Type of random forest: classification
                 Number of trees: 1000
                 No. of variables tried at each split: 4
OOB estimate of error rate: 20.13%
Confusion matrix.
   No Yes class.error
No 74 11 0.1294118
Yes 19 45 0 2968750
Test set error rate: 17.57%
Confusion matrix.
   No Yes class.error
No 67 8 0.1066667
Yes 18 55 0.2465753
```

In R type and run the following

```
varImpPlot(rf.model)
```

5. Which variable is most important to predict heart disease?

- a) Thal
 b) Ca
 c) ChestPain
 d) Age
- OOB estimate of error rate: 20.81%

Confusion matrix:

No Yes class.error

No 66 13 0.1645570

Yes 18 52 0.2571429

Test set error rate: 18.92%

Confusion matrix:

No Yes class.error

No 64 17 0.2098765

Yes 11 56 0.1641791

Boosting

- Boosting is another approach for improving the predictions resulting from a decision tree.
- Also a general approach that can be applied the many statistical learning methods for regression or classification.
- In boosting each tree is grown using information from previously grown trees. Such that each the trees are grown sequentially.

Algorithm for Boosting

- 1. Set $\hat{f}(x) = 0$ and $r_i = y_i$ for all i in the training set.
- 2. For b = 1, 2, ..., B, repeat:
 - (a) Fit a tree \hat{f}^b with d splits (d+1 terminal nodes) to the training data (X,R).
 - (b) Update \hat{f} by adding a shrunken version of the new tree:

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

(c) Update the results,

$$r_i \leftarrow r_i - \lambda \hat{f}^b(x_i).$$

3. Output the boosted model,

$$\hat{f}(x) = \sum_{b=1}^{B} \lambda \hat{f}^b(x).$$

Boosting Approach

- Learns slowly
- We fit a decision to the residuals from the models.
- We then add this new decision tree into the fitted function in order to update the residuals.
- The terminal nodes are determined by the parameter d in the algorithm.
- We slowly improve \hat{f} in areas where it does not perform well.

Three Tuning Parameters

Boosting has three tuning parameters:

- 1. The number of trees *B*. Use cross-validation to select *B*. Otherwise boosting can overfit if *B* is too large.
- 2. The shrinkage parameter λ , a small positive number. This controls the rate at which boosting learns. Typically, $\lambda = 0.01$ or 0.001.
- 3. The number of *d* splits in each tree. This controls the complexity of the boosted ensemble.

Boosting in R

- Boosting uses the gmb package and the gmb () function to fit the boosted regression trees.
- Again we will look at the Hitters data set.
- Since this is a regression problem we will use distribution = "gaussian".
- If it was a classification problem, then we would use distribution = "bernoulli".
- Type and run the following in R:

MSE obtained Boosting

Type and run the following in R:

We can use a different value of the shrinking parameter. The default is 0.001, let's use $\lambda=0.2$.