Nonlinear Techniques

Today, you'll look at nonlinear regression techniques with a wine quality dataset dataset, which pairs up chemical characteristics of wines with their quality ratings. The dataset is split into a red wine dataset and a white wine dataset. You'll mainly be looking at the white wine dataset, which has three times as much data as the red wine dataset and so has more fine-grained nonlinear structure. Our goal will be to use the chemical properties of white wines to predict their associated quality ratings.

You'll also be using the caret package to easily get cross-validated estimates of RMSE as well as to easily tune the parameters of these nonlinear models. Since there aren't very many predictors relative to the number of rows in the data, we can use 3-fold cross-validation for simplicity, with:

Getting started

The data can be downloaded on the UCI Datasets page.

- Load the data for both the red and white wines. (If you use read_delim() for the red wine CSV, it might output a couple warning messages; just remove the two rows with NAs in that case.)
- The column names in both data frames have spaces in them, which doesn't
 work well with formulas. Write a utility function that modifies each string
 in a character vector, replacing spaces (' ') with underscores ('_'). (You
 may find gsub() helpful.) Use this to modify the column names of both
 datasets.

Next, before we do any model fitting, it's always a good idea to visualize the data.

• For each chemical property p in the white wine dataset, plot p on the *x*-axis and plot wine quality on the *y*-axis. On each plot, overlay both a

scatterplot of the individual data points and a smooth fit of the data. Note any evidence of nonlinearity.

A simple linear model

Before using nonlinear methods to predict white wine quality, let's use regularized linear regression to get some sort of baseline for comparison.

- Use caret with train(..., method="glmnet") to get an estimate for how low you can get the cross validated RMSE to get with just regularized linear regression.
 - For simplicity, instead of passing in a grid of values, you can just pass in tuneLength=10 to train(), which makes it automatically generate a grid of hyperparameters. (This is fine for glmnet, but may not work so well for the hyperparameters of more complex nonlinear methods.)
- Examine the coefficients associated with the best linear fit and interpret
 the results. Based on the graphs you viewed earlier, which nonlinear
 relationships (between wine quality and chemical properties) are the
 regularized linear model not successfully modeling?

K-Nearest Neighbors

K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN) is one of the simplest possible nonlinear regression techniques.

First, we pick a value of k. Next, suppose that we have a dataset of n points, where each \mathbf{x}_i is associated with a target variable taking on value y_i . Finally, suppose that we have a new point \mathbf{x}^* and we want to predict the associated value of the target variable. To do so, we find the k points \mathbf{x}_i which are closest to \mathbf{x}^* , look at the associated values of y_i , and take their average. That's all!

KNN is implemented in R as kknn() in the kknn package. It can be used with caret's train() by setting method="kknn". There's just a single hyperparameter to tune – the value of k. A larger value of k helps guard against overfitting, but will make the model less sensitive to fine-grained structure in the data.

 Use caret to train a KNN model for white wine quality using tuneLength=10. Compare the minimum RMSE obtained to the RMSE for a regularized linear model.

In general, we can get better predictions by using information about what happens at a greater distance from the point of interest.

Regression tree models

We'll proceed to explore three different types of nonlinear techniques: regression trees, random forests, and gradient boosted trees. All three of these can be used for both regression and classification.

Regression trees are the simplest and very easily interpretable, but their performance is often poor and they tend to overfit. We can train an *ensemble* of regression trees and combine them together into a *random forest*, or we can keep training regression trees in an iterative manner to keep improving a single model in a technique known as *boosting*.

Using regression trees

You'll need the rpart() function in the rpart package to construct regression tree models. It's used in the same way as lm(), both in how the model is constructed and in how predictions are made using the model.

For both red and white wines, create regression tree models predicting
wine quality with the other features in the dataset. View them (by just
calling print() on the models) and interpret the differences between the
two models.

There is a single hyperparameter involved in the fitting of a regression tree: the *complexity parameter*, usually denoted cp. (It defaults to 0.01 if not explicitly specified in the call to rpart().) As we grow a regression tree, we only make another 'split' in the tree if the associated incremental increase in the overall R-squared is greater than the value of cp. A higher value of cp helps us guard against overfitting to the data, but it can also stop us from growing the tree to a sufficient depth.

As before, we can use caret's train() to test different values of cp. Since there's only a single hyperparameter to optimize, we can again use the tuneLength=10 parameter.

• Use the caret package to fit a regression tree for the prediction of white wine quality with its chemical characteristics. Compare the RMSE value for the best fit with the RMSE from regularized linear regression and KNN.

Using random forests

Next, you'll be using randomForest() from the randomForest package, which is a more sophisticated nonlinear regression and classification technique.

Theoretical overview

In short, a *random forest* trains a lot of different regression trees and averages them together, with these two conditions on the regression trees:

- 1. Each regression is trained on a subset of the original data, sampled *with replacement*. This technique is known as *bagging* and helps combat overfitting.
- 2. At each split of each regression tree, only a random subset of the original predictors are considered as candidate variables for the split (usually \sqrt{p} candidate predictors for p total predictors). This prevents very strong predictors from dominating certain splits and thereby *decorrelates* the regression trees from each other. The size of this random subset, denoted as mtry, is the sole hyperparameter needed to fit a random forest model.

As a bonus, we can fit each data point in the training data to the trees that weren't trained on that data point (and average the subsequent predictions) to obtain an *out-of-bag error*, which is an estimate for the generalizable error of our model. With this, we don't really have to use cross-validation to estimate the generalizable error of our model.

• Read Edwin Chen's Quora answer on how random forests work.

Random forests in R

In general, the randomForest() function is used in a manner analogous to rpart() and lm(). There are two details to pay attention to:

First, it's important to pay some attention to the choice of the mtry hyperparameter. It's usually advised to try either mtry = floor(sqrt(p)) or mtry = floor(p/3) (for a dataset with p predictors); the former should be used when p/3 rounds to 1-2 or when we don't have very many predictors relative to the number of data points ($p \ll n$), and the latter should be used otherwise. Also, it's *always* wise to try mtry = p.

Second, when using the predict() function on a random forest model, there is an important point to keep in mind. Suppose that we've run $rf = randomForest(y \sim x, df)$ and we want to evaluate the RMSE associated with that fit. To that end, we'd like to generate predictions on the original dataset. We can run one of two commands:

- 1. predict(rf), which will make predictions for each data point only with trees which weren't trained on that data point, thereby allowing us to calculate a generalizable *out-of-bag error*, and
- 2. predict(rf, df), which will use the *entire tree* and seem to indicate severe problems with overfitting if we calculate the associated RMSE.

Usually, what you want is predict(rf), not predict(rf, df).

Anyway, let's get some practice with random forests:

- With the white wine dataset, fit two random forest models for wine quality
 as a function of the other variables, setting mtry = floor(sqrt(p)) and
 mtry = p.
- Make out-of-bag predictions with both of the random forest models and calculate the associated RMSE values. Compare the RMSEs to previously obtained RMSEs.
- Use caret's train() function with method="rf" to tune over mtry=c(3, 5, 7, 11). Compare the minimum cross-validated RMSE with the out-of-bag RMSE estimate.

Using gradient boosted trees

Gradient boosting is a very powerful nonlinear technique which is one of the best "off-the-shelf" machine learning models. They train relatively quickly, they can pick up on fairly complicated nonlinear interactions, you can guard against overfitting by increasing the shrinkage parameter, and their performance is difficult to beat.

However, they're a little more complicated than random forests; there are more hyperparameters to tune, and it's much more difficult to parallelize gradient boosted trees.²

Intuitively, one can think of boosting as iteratively improving a regression tree ensemble by repeatedly training a new regression tree on the *residuals* of the ensemble (when making predictions on the dataset) and then incorporating that regression tree into the ensemble.

Gradient boosted trees are implemented in R's gbm package as the gbm() function. They're also compatible with caret's train() – just set method="gbm".

- Use train() to perform a *grid search* to optimize the hyperparameters for a gradient boosted tree model (predicting white wine quality from chemical properties).
 - Instead of passing in the tuneLength parameter like earlier, use expand.grid() to create a grid with n.trees set to 500, shrinkage set to 10^seq(-3, 0, 1), interaction.depth set to 1:3, and n.minobsinnode set to seq(10, 50, 10).
- With the optimal values of the hyperparameters determined with train(), call gbm() on the data directly with 5000 trees instead of 500 and with

¹See Ben Kuhn's comments on gradient boosting.

²See StackExchange for a brief overview of tuning gbm() hyperparameters.

cv.folds=3. (The gbm() algorithm will automatically use 3-fold cross-validation to estimate the test error.) Compare the minimum RMSE to previously obtained RMSEs for other models.