



Institut de Mathématiques de Toulouse, INSA Toulouse

Supervised Learning- Part II

Formation en machine Learning
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Methods studied in this course :

Part I

- Linear models for regression
- Linear models for classification

Part II

- Classification And Regression Trees, Bagging, Random Forests
- Neural networks, Introduction to deep learning

Outline

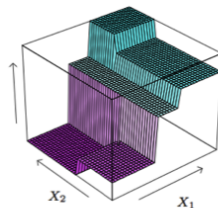
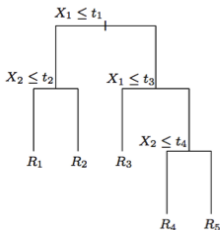
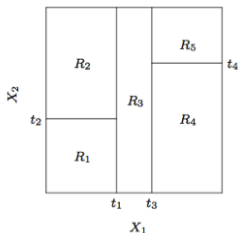
- Classification And Regression Trees (CART)
- Bagging, Random Forests

Classification And Regression Trees

Introduction

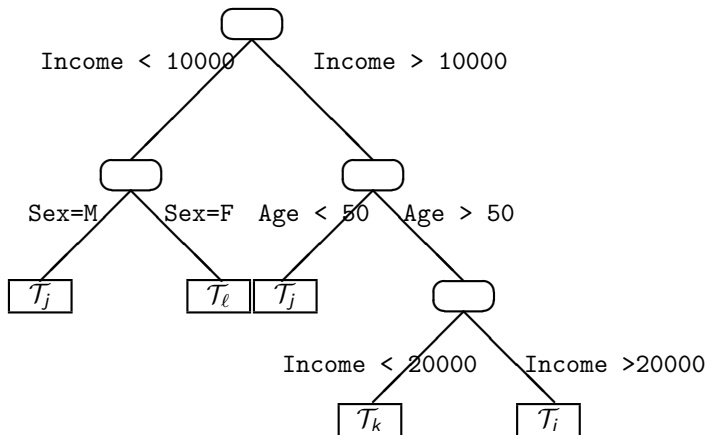
- Classification and regression trees (CART) : Breiman et al. (1984)
- X^j explanatory variables (quantitative or qualitative)
- Y qualitative with m levels $\{\mathcal{T}_\ell; \ell = 1 \dots, m\}$: classification tree
- Y quantitative : regression tree
- Objective : construction of a binary decision tree easy to interpret
- No assumption on the model : non parametric procedure.

Example of binary regression tree



Source : Hastie, Tibshirani, Friedman (2019), "The elements of statistical learning"

Example of binary classification tree



Principles for constructing a tree

- Recursive binary split
 - Split a region in two, then split subregions in two, then ...
- Splits are defined by one variable
 - Very easy numerically : d optimizations in 1-dimensions
- Clustering idea
 - Find a split that give the most homogeneous groups

Constructing regression trees

For a given region (node) κ with size $|\kappa|$, define the **heterogeneity** by :

$$D_{\kappa} = \sum_{i \in \kappa} (y_i - \bar{y}_{\kappa})^2 = |\kappa| \frac{1}{|\kappa|} \sum_{i \in \kappa} (y_i - \bar{y}_{\kappa})^2$$

Splitting procedure

For a variable x_j , and a split candidate t , define left and right subregions

$$\kappa_L(t, j) = \{x_j \leq t\}, \quad \kappa_R(t, j) = \{x_j > t\}.$$

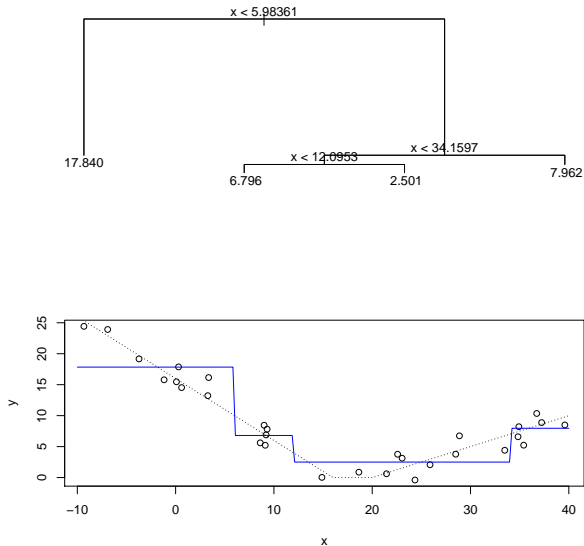
Find (j, t) in order **to minimize the intra-class variance**

$$J(j, t) = D_{\kappa_L(t, j)} + D_{\kappa_R(t, j)},$$

or equiv. **to maximize the decrease in heterogeneity (inter-class variance)**

$$D_{\kappa} - J(j, t)$$

Illustration in 1 dimension



Constructing classification trees

This is the same procedure, with specific notions of heterogeneity

Heterogeneity measures in classification

p_{κ}^{ℓ} : proportion of the class \mathcal{T}_{ℓ} of \mathcal{Y} in the node κ .

- Shannon Entropy

$$E_{\kappa} = - \sum_{\ell=1}^m p_{\kappa}^{\ell} \log(p_{\kappa}^{\ell}) \quad \Rightarrow \quad D_{\kappa} = -|\kappa| \sum_{\ell=1}^m p_{\kappa}^{\ell} \log(p_{\kappa}^{\ell})$$

Maximal in $(\frac{1}{m}, \dots, \frac{1}{m})$, minimal in $(1, 0, \dots, 0), \dots, (0, \dots, 0, 1)$
(by continuity, we assume that $0 \log(0) = 0$)

- Gini concentration : $D_{\kappa} = |\kappa| \sum_{\ell=1}^m p_{\kappa}^{\ell} (1 - p_{\kappa}^{\ell})$

Illustration with two classes ($m = 2$)

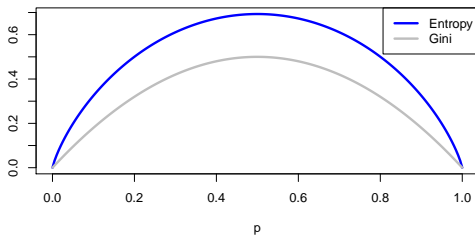
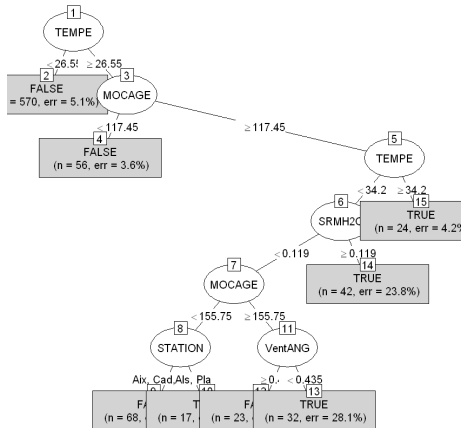


FIGURE – Heterogeneity criteria for classification. Both are minimal for $p = 0$ or $p = 1$, and maximal for $p = 1/2$.

Example for Ozone data



Ozone : Classification tree pruned by cross-validation

Stopping rule, pruning, optimal tree

- We need a tradeoff between maximal tree (overfits) and the constant tree (too rough)
- There exists a nice theory to find an optimal tree, minimizing prediction error penalized by complexity (number of leaves)
- When aggregating trees (random forest), simpler procedures are often preferred (see why after), e.g. fixing the number of leaves

Advantages

- **Trees** are easy to interpret
- **Efficient algorithms** to find the pruned trees
- Tolerant to **missing data**

⇒ Success of CART for practical applications

Warnings

- **Variable selection** : the selected tree only depends on few explanatory variables, trees are often (wrongly) interpreted as a variable selection procedure
- **High instability** of the trees : not robust to the learning sample, curse of dimensionality ..
- **Prediction accuracy** of a tree is often poor compared to other procedures

⇒ **Aggregation of trees : bagging, random forests**

Outline

- Classification And Regression Trees (CART)
- Bagging , Random Forests

Introduction

- Combination or **aggregation** of models (almost) without **overfitting**
- **Bagging** is for **bootstrap^(*) aggregating** : Breiman, 1996
- **Random forests** : Breiman, 2001
- Allows to aggregate any modelisation method
- **Efficient** methods : Fernandez-Delgado et al. (2014), *Kaggle*

(*) *bootstrap = sampling with replacement*

- **Bagging** is appropriate for unstable algorithms, with small bias and high variance (CART)

Bagging - Principle

Bootstrap AGGREGatING

- **Variance reduction** : by aggregating independent predictions
 - Aggregation : average (regression), majority vote (classification)
- **Bootstrap trick** : get new data from themselves by resampling!
 - Caution : new data remain (slightly) dependent on the initial ones

Bagging - Introductory example

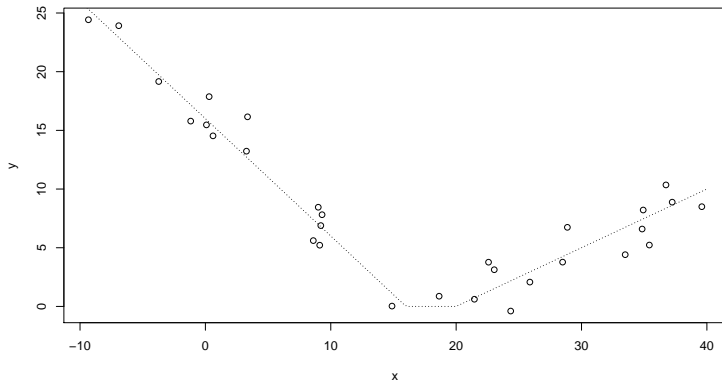


FIGURE – Original data

Bagging - Introductory example

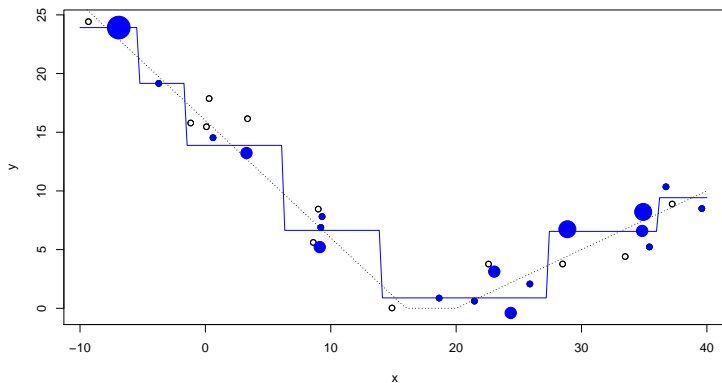


FIGURE – Bootstrap sample n^o1 (in blue), and corresp. prediction with tree. The point size is proportional to the number of replicates.

Bagging - Introductory example

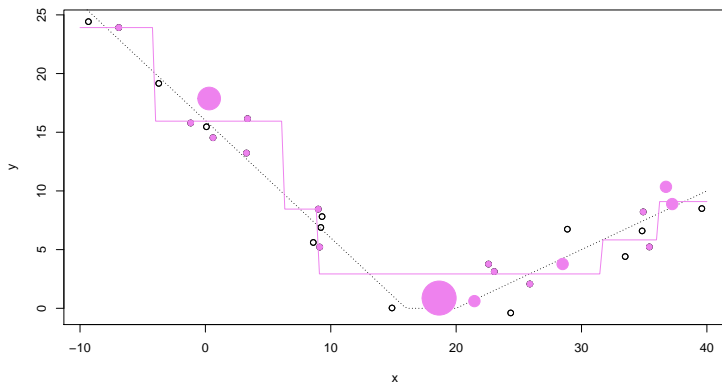


FIGURE – Bootstrap sample $n=2$ (in violet), and corresp. prediction with tree. The point size is proportional to the number of replicates.

Bagging - Introductory example

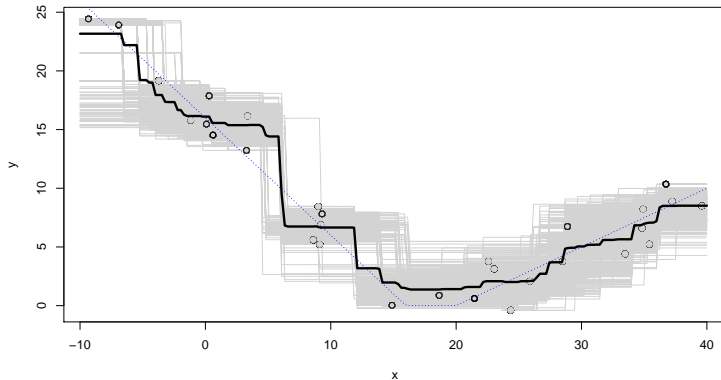


FIGURE – 500 bootstrap samples (grey), corresp. predictions with tree, and their average (bold line).

Bagging - Pause

Physical experiment !

Experiment yourself the bootstrap procedure by resampling “by hand”

Question : Choose a number between 1 and N (number of participants). What is the probability that your number does not appear in the bootstrap sample ?

Bagging - Out-Of-Bag data

Out-Of-Bag (OOB) data

For each bootstrap sample :

- Let U_1^*, \dots, U_N^* be random variables representing the bootstrapped indices. The probability that a given data z_i is not chosen is :

$$\mathbb{P}\left(z_{U_1^*} \neq z_i, \dots, z_{U_N^*} \neq z_i\right) = \left(1 - \frac{1}{N}\right)^N \xrightarrow{N \rightarrow +\infty} e^{-1} \approx 0.367$$

- The non-chosen data are called **Out-Of-Bag (OOB)**. They can be used **as a test set inside the bootstrap loop**

The **OOB error** is obtained by averaging prediction errors over OOB data

Bagging - Out-Of-Bag data

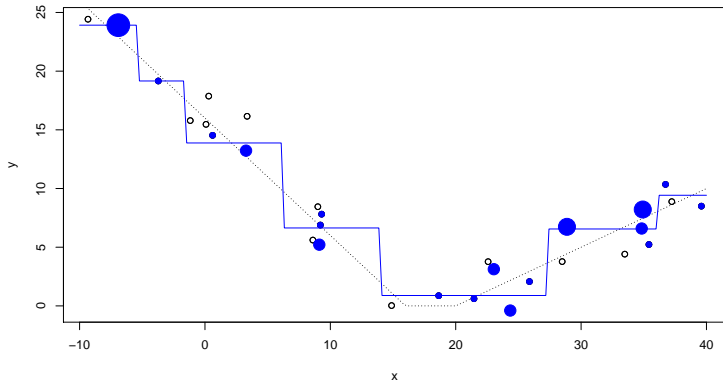


FIGURE – Residuals for the OOB bootstrap sample n^o1 (red bars).

Bagging - Out-Of-Bag data

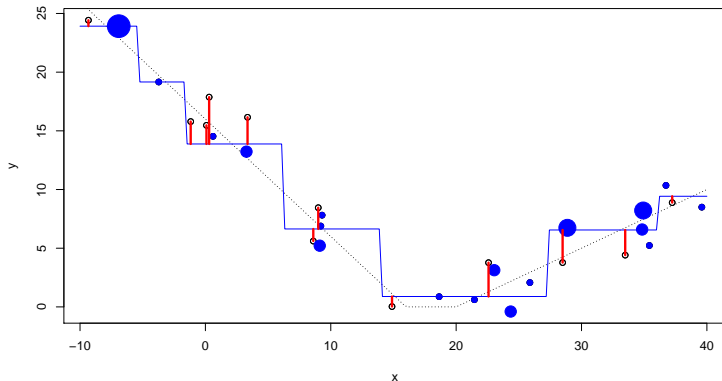


FIGURE – Residuals for the OOB bootstrap sample n^o1 (red bars).

Bagging - Out-Of-Bag data

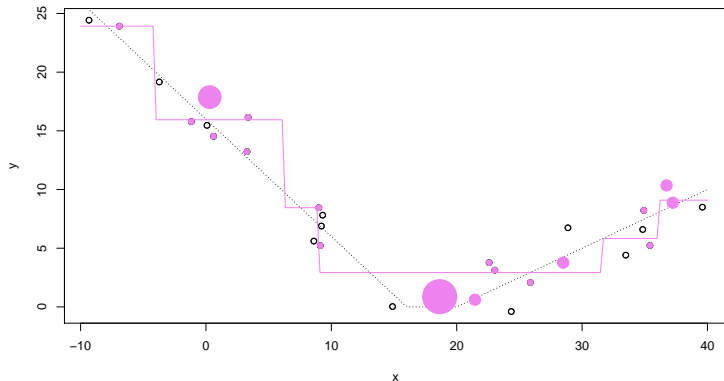


FIGURE – Residuals for the OOB bootstrap sample n^o2 (red bars).

Bagging - Out-Of-Bag data

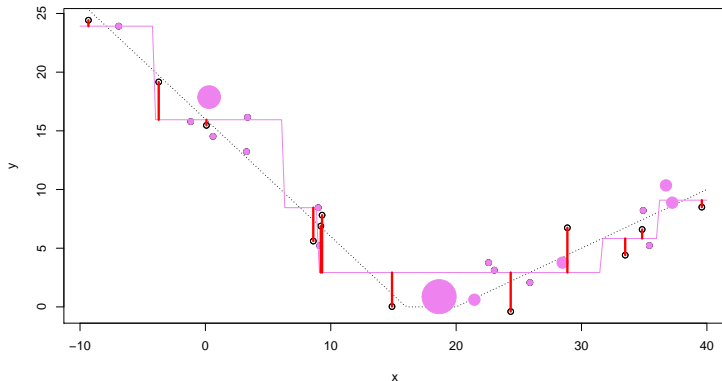


FIGURE – Residuals for the OOB bootstrap sample n^{o2} (red bars).

Bagging - Theory

Framework and notations

- Output : Y , a quantitative or qualitative variable to explain
- Inputs : X^1, \dots, X^p , explanatory variables
- Model : $f(\mathbf{x})$, function of $\mathbf{x} = \{x^1, \dots, x^p\} \in \mathbb{R}^p$
- Learning sample : $\mathbf{z} = \{(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), \dots, (\mathbf{x}_n, y_n)\}$, with distribution F
- A predictor : $\hat{f}_{\mathbf{z}}$, associated to \mathbf{z} , with $f(.) = \mathbb{E}_F(\hat{f}_{\mathbf{z}})$
- Bootstrap samples : $\{\mathbf{z}_b\}_{b=1, B}$
- Aggregated predictor :
 - Y quantitative : $\hat{f}_B(.) = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{b=1}^B \hat{f}_{\mathbf{z}_b}(.)$ (mean)
 - Y qualitative : $\hat{f}_B(.) = \arg \max_j \text{card} \left\{ b \mid \hat{f}_{\mathbf{z}_b}(.) = j \right\}$ (majority vote)

Bagging - Theory

Variance reduction quantification

- The B bootstrap samples are built on the same learning sample \mathbf{z}
 \Rightarrow the estimators $\hat{f}_{z_b}(\mathbf{x}_0)$ are **not independent**
- **Regression case** : If $\text{Corr}(\hat{f}_{z_b}(\mathbf{x}_0), \hat{f}_{z_{b'}}(\mathbf{x}_0)) = \rho(\mathbf{x}_0)$,

$$\begin{aligned} E(\hat{f}_B(\mathbf{x}_0)) &= f(\mathbf{x}_0) \\ \text{Var}(\hat{f}_B(\mathbf{x}_0)) &= \rho(\mathbf{x}_0)\text{Var}(\hat{f}_b(\mathbf{x}_0)) + \underbrace{\frac{(1 - \rho(\mathbf{x}_0))}{B}\text{Var}(\hat{f}_b(\mathbf{x}_0))}_{\rightarrow 0 \text{ as } B \rightarrow \infty} \end{aligned}$$

- Importance to find **low correlated predictors** $(\hat{f}_b(\mathbf{x}_0))_{1 \leq b \leq B}$.
 \Rightarrow **Random forests**

Random forest - Principle

The three ingredients of random forest

- **Variance reduction** : by aggregating independent predictions
 - Aggregation : average (regression), majority vote (classification)
- **Data resampling** : get new data from themselves by resampling!
 - Caution : new data remain (slightly) dependent on the initial ones
- **Variable resampling** : reduces correlation between resampled data
 - The number of resampled variables must be tuned properly

Random forest = $\underbrace{\text{data resampling} + \text{aggregation}}_{\text{bagging}} + \text{variable resampling}$

Random forest

Algorithm

- Let \mathbf{x}_0 the point where we want to predict, \mathbf{z} a learning sample
- For $b = 1$ to B , do :
 - Generate a bootstrap sample \mathbf{z}_b^*
 - Estimate a tree with randomization of the variables :
At each node, resample $m < p$ variables to build the subdivision
- Aggregate predictors (average or majority vote)

Random forest

Variance reduction quantification

Consider the regression case. For a large number of bootstrap samples,

$$\text{Var} \left(\hat{f}_B(\mathbf{x}_0) \right) \approx \underbrace{\rho(\mathbf{x}_0)}_{\text{small when } m \text{ small}} \times \underbrace{\text{Var} \left(\hat{f}_b(\mathbf{x}_0) \right)}_{\text{small when } m \text{ large}}$$

⇒ Tradeoff required to choose m !

Random forest

Random forest : utilisation

- **Pruning** : tree with q leaves, or complete tree,
 - Reducing variance by computing the optimal tree is time-consuming
- **Random selection** of m predictors : default values
 - $m = \frac{p}{3}$ for regression
 - $m = \sqrt{p}$ for classification
- Choice of tuning parameters (including m) by cross-validation

Interpretation - Variable importance

How can we quantify the importance of a variable X_i in random forest ?

Decrease in heterogeneity

Average the decrease of heterogeneity when X_i is chosen as a split.

- Mean Decrease Accuracy
- Mean Decrease Gini

Permutation of variables

Compute the OOB error for the subsample of OOB data involving X_i . Compare with the OOB error when permuting at random the inputs (but keeping the output).

Random forest

To go further

- Prediction intervals with ranger
- Anomaly detection with IsolationForest
- Imputation of missing data with missForest
- Survival analysis with survival forest
- ...

References

- L. Breiman, J. Friedman, C. J. Stone, R. A. Olshen (1984). *Classification and regression trees*. Chapman et Hall. CRC Press, Boca Raton.
- Giraud C. (2015) *Introduction to High-Dimensional Statistics* Vol. 139 of Monographs on Statistics and Applied Probability. CRC Press, Boca Raton, FL.
- Hastie, T. and Tibshirani, R. and Friedman, J, (2009), *The elements of statistical learning : data mining, inference, and prediction*, Springer.