# COMS 4721: Machine Learning for Data Science Lecture 12, 2/28/2017 

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## Decision Trees

## Decision Trees

A decision tree maps input $x \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$ to output $y$ using binary decision rules:

- Each node in the tree has a splitting rule.
- Each leaf node is associated with an output value (outputs can repeat).

Each splitting rule is of the form

$$
h(x)=\mathbb{1}\left\{x_{j}>t\right\}
$$

for some dimension $j$ of $x$ and $t \in \mathbb{R}$.
Using these transition rules, a path to a leaf node gives the prediction.
$($ One-level tree $=$ decision stump $)$


## Regression Trees



Motivation: Partition the space so that data in a region have same prediction Left: Difficult to define a "rule".

Right: Easy to define a recursive splitting rule.

## Regression Trees



If we think in terms of trees, we can define a simple rule for partitioning the space. The left and right figures represent the same regression function.

## Regression Trees



Adding an output dimension to the figure (right), we can see how regression trees can learn a step function approximation to the data.

## Classification Trees (Example)

Classifying irises using sepal and petal measurements:

- $x \in \mathbb{R}^{2}, y \in\{1,2,3\}$
- $x_{1}=$ ratio of sepal length to width
- $x_{2}=$ ratio of petal length to width



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## BASIC DECISION TREE LEARNING ALGORITHM



The basic method for learning trees is with a top-down greedy algorithm.

- Start with a single leaf node containing all data
- Loop through the following steps:
- Pick the leaf to split that reduces uncertainty the most.
- Figure out the $\lessgtr$ decision rule on one of the dimensions.
- Stopping rule discussed later.

Label/response of the leaf is majority-vote/average of data assigned to it.

## Growing a Regression tree

How do we grow a regression tree?

- For $M$ regions of the space, $R_{1}, \ldots, R_{M}$, the prediction function is

$$
f(x)=\sum_{m=1}^{M} c_{m} \mathbb{1}\left\{x \in R_{m}\right\}
$$

So for a fixed $M$, we need $R_{m}$ and $c_{m}$.
Goal: Try to minimize $\sum_{i}\left(y_{i}-f\left(x_{i}\right)\right)^{2}$.


1. Find $c_{m}$ given $R_{m}$ : Simply the average of all $y_{i}$ for which $x_{i} \in R_{m}$.
2. How do we find regions? Consider splitting region $R$ at value $s$ of $\operatorname{dim} j$ :

- Define $R^{-}(j, s)=\left\{x_{i} \in R \mid x_{i}(j) \leq s\right\}$ and $R^{+}(j, s)=\left\{x_{i} \in R \mid x_{i}(j)>s\right\}$
- For each dimension $j$, calculate the best splitting point $s$ for that dimension.
- Do this for each region (leaf node). Pick the one that reduces the objective most.


## Growing a CLASSIFICATION TREE

For regression: Squared error is a natural way to define the splitting rule.
For classification: Need some measure of how badly a region classifies data and how much it can improve if it's split.

K-class problem: For all $x \in R_{m}$, let $p_{k}$ be empirical fraction labeled $k$.

Measures of quality of $R_{m}$ include

1. Classification error: $1-\max _{k} p_{k}$
2. Gini index: $1-\sum_{k} p_{k}^{2}$
3. Entropy: $-\sum_{k} p_{k} \ln p_{k}$


- These are all maximized when $p_{k}$ is uniform on the $K$ classes in $R_{m}$.
- These are minimized when $p_{k}=1$ for some $k$ ( $R_{m}$ only contains one class)


## Growing a CLASSIFICATION TREE



Search $R_{1}$ and $R_{2}$ for splitting options.

1. $R_{1}: y=1$ leaf classifies perfectly
2. $R_{2}: y=3$ leaf has Gini index

$$
\begin{aligned}
u\left(R_{2}\right) & =1-\left(\frac{1}{101}\right)^{2}-\left(\frac{50}{101}\right)^{2}-\left(\frac{50}{101}\right)^{2} \\
& =0.5098
\end{aligned}
$$

Gini improvement from split $R_{m}$ to $R_{m}^{-} \& R_{m}^{+}$:

$$
u\left(R_{m}\right)-\left(p_{R_{m}^{-}} \cdot u\left(R_{m}^{-}\right)+p_{R_{m}^{+}} \cdot u\left(R_{m}^{+}\right)\right)
$$

$p_{R_{m}^{+}}$: Fraction of data in $R_{m}$ split into $R_{m}^{+}$.
$u\left(R_{m}^{+}\right)$: New quality measure in region $R_{m}^{+}$.

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Check split $R_{2}$ with $\mathbb{1}\left\{x_{2}>t\right\}$


## Pruning a tree

Q: When should we stop growing a tree?
A: Uncertainty reduction is not best way.
Example: Any split of $x_{1}$ or $x_{2}$ at right will show zero reduction in uncertainty.
However, we can learn a perfect tree on this data by partitioning in quadrants.


Pruning is the method most often used. Grow the tree to a very large size. Then use an algorithm to trim it back.
(We won't cover the algorithm, but mention that it's non-trivial.)

## Overfitting



- Training error goes to zero as size of tree increases.
- Testing error decreases, but then increases because of overfitting.


## The Bootstrap

## The Bootstrap: A Resampling Technique

We briefly present a technique called the bootstrap. This statistical technique is used as the basis for learning ensemble classifiers.

## Bootstrap

Bootstrap (i.e., resampling) is a technique for improving estimators.
Resampling $=$ Sampling from the empirical distribution of the data

Application to ensemble methods

- We will use resampling to generate many "mediocre" classifiers.
- We then discuss how "bagging" these classifiers improves performance.
- First, we cover the bootstrap in a simpler context.


## Bootstrap: Basic algorithm

Input

- A sample of data $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$.
- An estimation rule $\hat{S}$ of a statistic $S$. For example, $\hat{S}=\operatorname{med}\left(x_{1: n}\right)$ estimates the true median $S$ of the unknown distribution on $x$.

Bootstrap algorithm

1. Generate bootstrap samples $\mathcal{B}_{1}, \ldots, \mathcal{B}_{B}$.

- Create $\mathcal{B}_{b}$ by picking points from $\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$ randomly $n$ times.
- A particular $x_{i}$ can appear in $\mathcal{B}_{b}$ many times (it's simply duplicated).

2. Evaluate the estimator on each $\mathcal{B}_{b}$ by pretending it's the data set:

$$
\hat{S}_{b}:=\hat{S}\left(\mathcal{B}_{b}\right)
$$

3. Estimate the mean and variance of $\hat{S}$ :

$$
\mu_{B}=\frac{1}{B} \sum_{b=1}^{B} \hat{S}_{b}, \quad \sigma_{B}^{2}=\frac{1}{B} \sum_{b=1}^{B}\left(\hat{S}_{b}-\mu_{B}\right)^{2}
$$

## EXAMPLE: VARIANCE ESTIMATION OF THE MEDIAN

- The median of $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$ (for $x \in \mathbb{R}$ ) is found by simply sorting them and taking the middle one, or the average of the two middle ones.
- How confident can we be in the estimate median $\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$ ?
- Find it's variance.
- But how? Answer: By bootstrapping the data.

1. Generate bootstrap data sets $\mathcal{B}_{1}, \ldots, \mathcal{B}_{B}$.
2. Calculate: (notice that $\hat{S}_{\text {mean }}$ is the mean of the median)

$$
\hat{S}_{\text {mean }}=\frac{1}{B} \sum_{b=1}^{B} \operatorname{median}\left(\mathcal{B}_{b}\right), \quad \hat{S}_{\text {var }}=\frac{1}{B} \sum_{b=1}^{B}\left(\operatorname{median}\left(\mathcal{B}_{b}\right)-\hat{S}_{\text {mean }}\right)^{2}
$$

- The procedure is remarkably simple, but has a lot of theory behind it.

Bagging and Random Forests

## BAGGING

Bagging uses the bootstrap for regression or classification:

$$
\text { Bagging }=\text { Bootstrap aggregation }
$$

## Algorithm

For $b=1, \ldots, B$ :

1. Draw a bootstrap sample $\mathcal{B}_{b}$ of size $n$ from training data.
2. Train a classifier or regression model $f_{b}$ on $\mathcal{B}_{b}$.

- For a new point $x_{0}$, compute:

$$
f_{\text {avg }}\left(x_{0}\right)=\frac{1}{B} \sum_{b=1}^{B} f_{b}\left(x_{0}\right)
$$

- For regression, $f_{\text {avg }}\left(x_{0}\right)$ is the prediction.
- For classification, view $f_{\text {avg }}\left(x_{0}\right)$ as an average over $B$ votes. Pick the majority.


## Example: Bagging Trees



- Binary classification, $x \in \mathbb{R}^{5}$.
- Note the variation among bootstrapped trees.
- Take-home message:

With bagging, each tree doesn't have to be great, just "ok".

- Bagging often improves results when the function is non-linear.



## Random Forests

## Drawbacks of Bagging

- Bagging works on trees because of the bias-variance tradeoff ( $\uparrow$ bias, $\downarrow$ variance).
- However, the bagged trees are correlated.
- In general, when bootstrap samples are correlated, the benefit of bagging decreases.



## Random Forests

Modification of bagging where trees are designed to reduce correlation.

- A very simple modification.
- Still learn a tree on each bootstrap set, $\mathcal{B}_{b}$.
- To split a region, only consider random subset of dimensions of $x \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$.


## Random Forests: Algorithm

## Training

Input parameter: $m$ - a positive integer with $m<d$, often $m \approx \sqrt{d}$
For $b=1, \ldots, B$ :

1. Draw a bootstrap sample $\mathcal{B}_{b}$ of size $n$ from the training data.
2. Train a tree classifier on $\mathcal{B}_{b}$, where each split is computed as follows:

- Randomly select $m$ dimensions of $x \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$, newly chosen for each $b$.
- Make the best split restricted to that subset of dimensions.
- Bagging for trees: Bag trees learned using the original algorithm.
- Random forests: Bag trees learned using algorithm on this slide.


## Random Forests

Example problem

- Random forest classification.
- Forest size: A few hundred trees.
- Notice there is a tendency to align decision boundary with the axis.


