CISC 372 Advanced Data Analytics L6 – Ensemble Method

https://l1nna.com/372

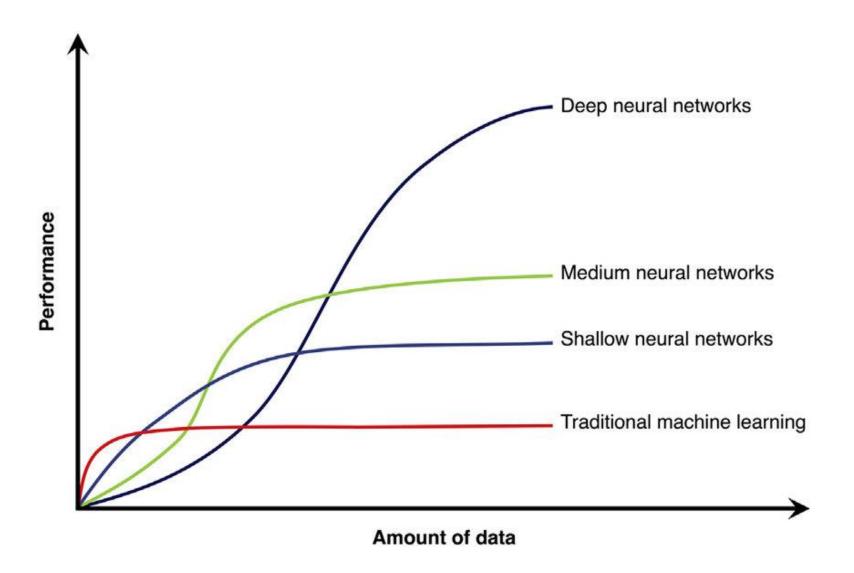
Yesterday

- Underfitting vs. Overfitting
- Hyper-parameter tuning & Experimental Protocol
- KDD Process
 - Iterative
 - Data lifecycle
- Data Attributes
 - Numeric/Nominal/Binominal/Ordinal
- Data Types:
 - Relational records
 - Data Metric
 - Document Data
 - Graph Data
 - Structured vs unstructured data
- Data Characteristics
 - Dimensionality/Sparsity
- Data Preprocessing
 - Normalization/Standardization/Encoding/OOV/Discretization/

Today

- Ensemble Method
 - Bias-Variance decomposition
 - Bagging
 - Boosting

Error vs. Data size



Suppose we have a dataset we want to model.

 Let P be some property of the perfect model which we can imagine, but can't build.

 Whenever we build an actual model, it has property Q which is an estimate of P, derived from the data.

If we used a different sample, we would get a different value of **Q**, so **Q** is a random variable from some distribution.

E[Q] is the expected value (mean) of **Q**

The bias of Q is

$$bias(Q) = E[Q] - P$$

which measures how Q differs from P systematically.

The variance of **Q** is

$$Var(Q) = E[Q - E[Q]]^2$$

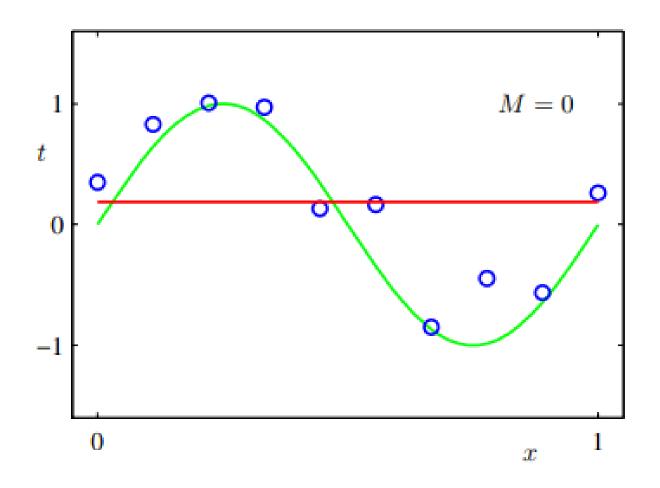
and measures the effect of **individual datasets** on the **observed** value of **Q**.

The complexity of the model used to represent the dataset has an effect on both bias and variance.

A very inflexible model (hardly any settable parameters) has low variance, but almost certainly high bias.

Suppose we always estimate Q = 1. Then the variance is 0. But the bias is probably large.

A inflexible model



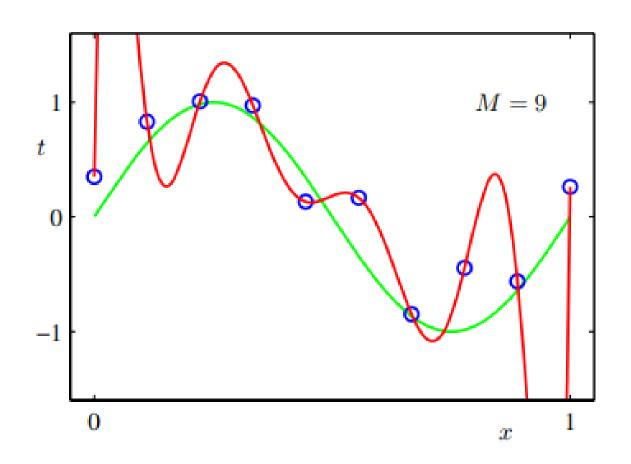
A flexible model has lots of settable parameters, so a small change in the data might produce a large change in Q.

A flexible model has large variance.

But its **flexibility** allows it to model the data well, so it typically has **low bias**.

We want to build models with the best tradeoff between bias and variance.

A flexible model



The mean squared error is

$$E[(Q - P)^2]$$

With a bit of algebra

$$E[(Q-P)^{2}] = E[(Q-E[Q] + E[Q] - P)^{2}]$$

$$= (E[Q] - P)^{2} + E[(Q-E[Q])^{2}]$$

$$= (Bias(Q))^{2} + Var(Q)$$

This is why the mean squared error is such a common metric for model quality.

But note that it pays too much attention to bias.

=> mean squared error gives a lot of weight to bad errors;

and the same weight to errors under and over – both of which might not be appropriate in some settings.

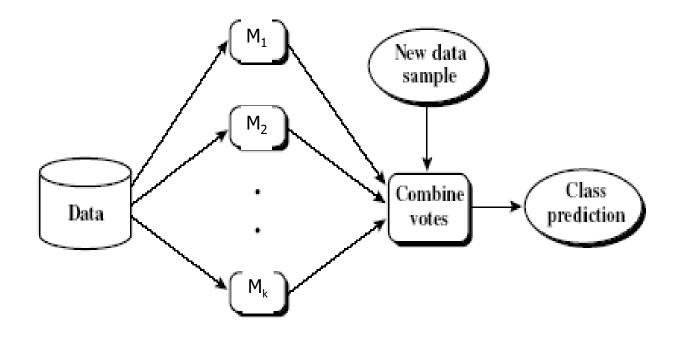
The decomposition theorem

$$Error(Q) = BCE(Q) + Bias(Q) + Var(Q)$$

where BCE(Q) is the irreducible error of a perfect model (comes from the variance of the errors).

- ⇒the error that can't be reduced by using only observed
 - ⇒intrinsic to the process being observed.
 - \Rightarrow the amount of noise in our data.

Ensemble methods



Use a combination of models to increase accuracy Combine a series of k learned models, M_1 , M_2 , ..., M_k , with the aim of creating an improved model M^*

• Analogy: Diagnosis based on multiple doctors' majority vote

- Training
 - Given a set D of d records, at each iteration i, a training set D_i
 D tuples is sampled with replacement from D
 - Like we did for bootstrap, but this is only for training
 - A classifier model M_i is learned for each training set D_i
- Classification: classify an unknown sample X
 - Each classifier M_i returns its class prediction
 - The bagged classifier M* counts the votes and assigns the class with the majority votes to X
- Prediction: can be applied to the prediction of continuous values by taking the average value of each prediction for a given test tuple

As long as the model being used is **complex** *enough*, each of the individual predictors will have small biases.

The effect of the voting is **to cancel out the errors due to variance**.

So overall the errors will tend to be small.

- Accuracy
 - Often significantly better than a single classifier derived from D
 - For noisy data: not considerably worse, more robust
 - Proved improved accuracy in prediction

- Required: sampling with replacement
 - Samples have the right variance properties.

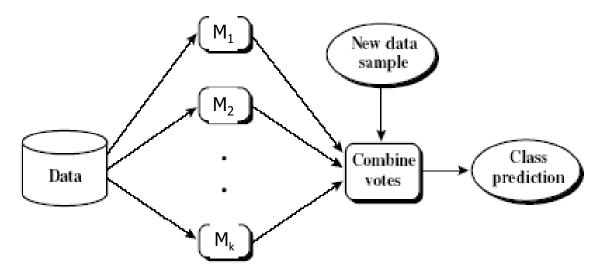
In practice, many variations seem to give decent results. N.B. especially a partition instead of a set of samples, which is required for a parallel algorithm.

This is probably because real datasets tend to be repetitive.

In bagging, all samples and so all predictors are created equal.

However, as a predictor is built from the first sample, we learn something about which objects are the hardest to classify.

Use this information to select a better sample to learn from the second time, the third time,



- How boosting works?
 - Equal Weights are assigned to each training tuple
 - A series of k classifiers is iteratively learned
 - Sample data based on the weights
 - Build classifier M_i
 - Weights updated for the whole dataset, M_{i+1},
 - Until built k classifiers
 - The final M* combines the votes of each individual classifier, where the weight of each classifier's vote is a function of its accuracy

Weight
1
1
1
1
1

Rec ID	Attribs.	Class
100	•••	Yes
101	•••	Yes
102	•••	Yes
103	•••	No
104		No

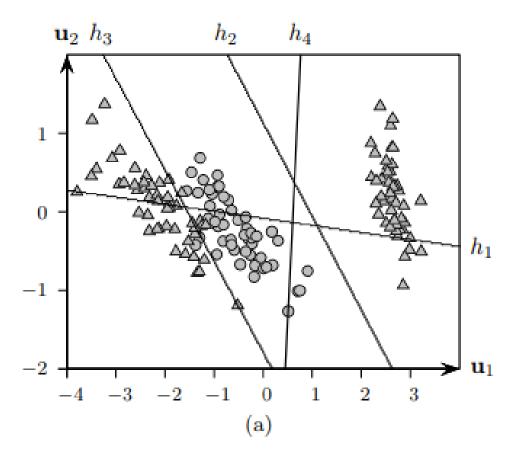
Correct?
✓
✓
×
✓
✓

Weight
1
1
1.2
1
1

Rec ID	Attribs.	Class
100	•••	Yes
101	•••	Yes
102	•••	Yes
103	•••	No
104		No

Correct?
✓
×
✓
✓
✓

Boosting – SVM (Linear kernel)



_	h_1		h_3	h_4	
e_t	0.280	0.305	0.174	0.282	

combined model					
training error rate	0.280	0.253	0.073	0.047	

In bagging, all of the predictors are equal.

In boosting, the predictors form a sequence, with the later predictors 'specializing' in difficult objects.

- Boosting algorithm can be extended for numeric prediction
- Comparing with bagging: boosting tends to achieve greater accuracy, but it also risks overfitting the model to misclassified data

Summary

More is not necessarily better.

 Although model quality improves rapidly with exposure to new objects, and then flattens, this is surprisingly tricky to exploit.

 It turns out that the best thing to do is to build models from small bitesize chunks of data, and then vote their predictions.