

Data Mining and Machine Learning

Part 8: Ensemble Learning

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Classification as Approximation of the Target Function

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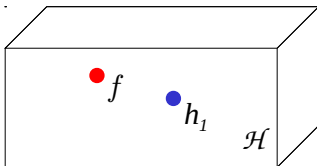
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Motivation for
Ensemble LearningDiversity
Ensemble Methods

Recall the classification task:

- ▶ For some domain \mathcal{D} and a set of classes $C = \{c_1, \dots, c_k\}$, $k \geq 2$, each $o \in \mathcal{D}$ belongs uniquely to some $c_i \in C$, i.e., there is a function $f : \mathcal{D} \rightarrow C$.
- ▶ Given a set of objects $O = \{o_1, o_2, \dots, o_n\} \subseteq \mathcal{D}$ and a mapping $(O \rightarrow C) \subset f$ (examples):
We want to also map any object $o_m \in \mathcal{D} \setminus O$ to C .
- ▶ A classifier is trained on some training set $TR \subseteq O$ to learn the mapping function (a model or hypothesis) $h : \mathcal{D} \rightarrow C$.
- ▶ Ideally we have $\forall o \in TR : h(o) = f(o)$ (if not for all, we should have this at least for most examples o).
- ▶ In general, the hypothesis h should be an approximation of f .

- ▶ The true function f (target function) is unknown.
- ▶ Based on the training data and its hypothesis space \mathcal{H} , a learning algorithm looks for the hypothesis $h_i \in \mathcal{H}$ that fits optimally to the training data.



- ▶ The true function f is not necessarily an element of the hypothesis space!

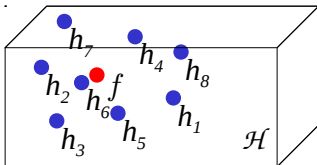
- ▶ We apply h on elements $x \in \mathcal{D}$ to predict class $c_i = f(x)$.
- ▶ The accuracy of a classifier (hypothesis h) is the probability (statistically/empirically: frequency) of its predictions being correct:

$$\text{acc}(h) = \Pr(h(x) = f(x))$$

or

$$\text{err}(h) = \Pr(h(x) \neq f(x)) = 1 - \text{acc}(h)$$

- ▶ The basic idea of using ensembles (combinations of several classifiers) is the reduction of the probability of errors by asking a jury of experts instead of just one expert and by letting them vote to find a common prediction.
- ▶ Intuitively, we expect a better approximation of f by aggregating (e.g., averaging) over several approximations h_i .



- ▶ Cf. the considerations on Bayes optimal classification.

- ▶ If we have two classes $C = \{-1, 1\}$, a simple voting procedure could be defined as:
 - ▶ Learn hypotheses h_1, \dots, h_k with associated weights w_1, \dots, w_k .
 - ▶ ensemble classifier \hat{h} is given by:

$$\hat{h}(x) = \begin{cases} \text{if } w_1 h_1(x) + \dots + w_k h_k(x) \geq 0 & : x \mapsto 1 \\ \text{if } w_1 h_1(x) + \dots + w_k h_k(x) < 0 & : x \mapsto -1 \end{cases}$$

- ▶ We can have $w_1 = \dots = w_k = 1$ (i.e., unweighted voting).
- ▶ Weights can be based on (empirical) reliability of individual classifiers.
- ▶ We can have more complex voting procedures (and need to have, if we have more than two classes), resulting in many ensemble methods.

$$\hat{h}(x) = \begin{cases} \text{if } w_1 h_1(x) + \dots + w_k h_k(x) \geq 0 & : x \mapsto 1 \\ \text{if } w_1 h_1(x) + \dots + w_k h_k(x) < 0 & : x \mapsto -1 \end{cases}$$

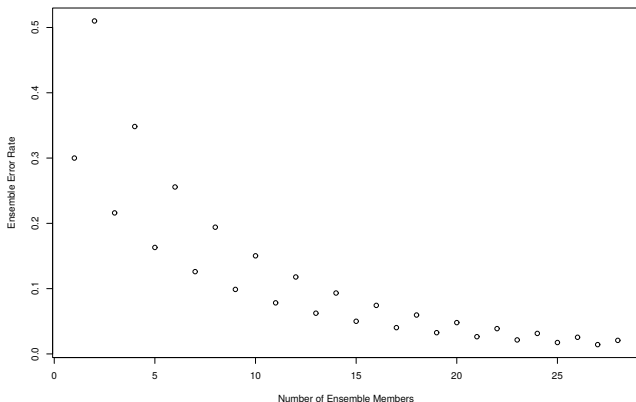
- ▶ The error rate of an ensemble depends on the error rate of the base classifiers (ensemble members) and on how many we combine.
- ▶ Assuming $\text{err}(h_1) = \dots = \text{err}(h_k) = \text{err}$, the ensemble error follows a binomial distribution (the ensemble is wrong, if at least half of its members are wrong):

$$\overline{\text{err}}(k, \text{err}) = \sum_{i=\lceil k/2 \rceil}^k \binom{k}{i} \text{err}^i (1 - \text{err})^{k-i}$$

(relates to Condorcet's Jury theorem)

Error rate of the ensemble, depending on the number of ensemble members (base classifiers), assuming $err = 0.3$:

$$\overline{err}(k, 0.3) = \sum_{i=\lceil k/2 \rceil}^k \binom{k}{i} 0.3^i (1 - 0.3)^{k-i}$$

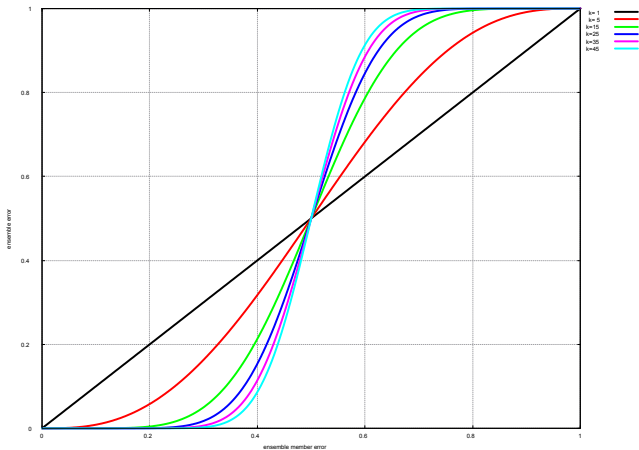


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Motivation for
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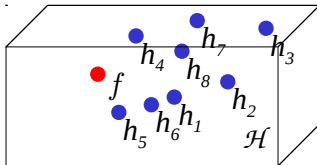
Diversity
Ensemble Methods



$$\overline{err}(k, err) = \sum_{i=\lceil k/2 \rceil}^k \binom{k}{i} err^i (1 - err)^{k-i}$$

$$\overline{err}(k, err) = \sum_{i=\lceil k/2 \rceil}^k \binom{k}{i} err^i (1 - err)^{k-i}$$

- Note that we require independence of errors for this formula.
- If the errors are not independent, we cannot expect much improvement from the average.



Note that:

We observed two necessary conditions for an improvement of the error rate by combining base classifiers into an ensemble:

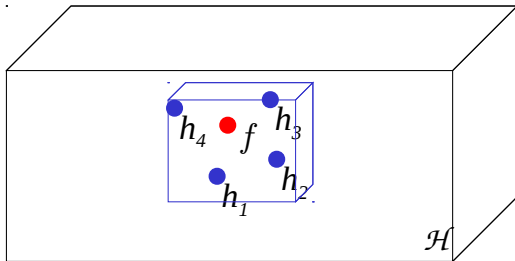
- 1. All base classifiers are accurate.*
- 2. The individual base classifiers are diverse.*

- ▶ Accuracy is a mild condition — they need to be at least better than random.
- ▶ Diversity: there should be no (strong) correlation between the errors.
- ▶ Can we optimize both, diversity and accuracy?

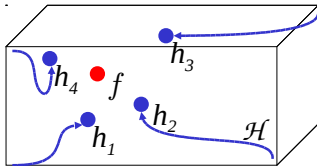
Without engineering diversity artificially, there are already inherent reasons for getting diverse classifiers on one and the same classification problem:

- ▶ statistical variance
- ▶ computational variance
- ▶ representation problem
- ▶ uncertain/noisy target function

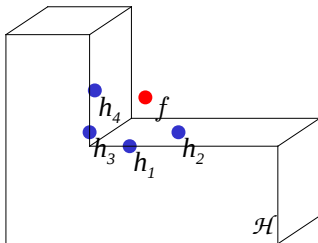
- ▶ The hypothesis space is too big to be explored based on the limited amount of training examples.
- ▶ Combination of several hypotheses reduces the risk of being very far off.



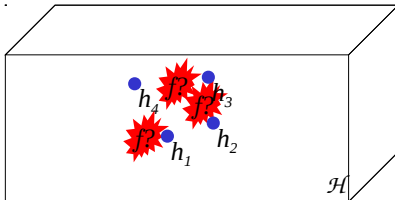
- ▶ Some learning algorithms cannot guarantee to find the best hypothesis, as that would be computationally infeasible.
- ▶ Instead, they use learning heuristics such that the search could get stuck in local optima.
- ▶ Combination of several hypotheses reduces the risk to stick to the wrong (local) optimum.



- ▶ The hypothesis space does not contain any close approximation to the true target function f .
- ▶ The combination of several hypotheses can effectively enlarge the hypothesis space.



- ▶ The training examples do not allow to draw unambiguous conclusions on the target function.
 - ▶ Noisy training data: there could be contradictory examples.
 - ▶ Some class labels might be non-deterministic.
- ▶ Combination of several hypotheses reduces the risk, to approximate the wrong target.



Different Approximation Error of Different Classifiers

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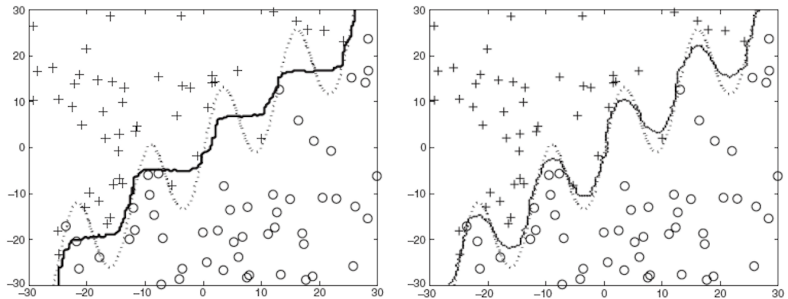
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Aspects of Diversity

Ensemble Methods

True decision boundary (dotted) and average (over 100 classifiers trained on 100 variants of the data set) decision boundary (solid) of decision trees (left) and k -nearest neighbor classifiers (right).



based on a figure by Tan et al.

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Aspects of Diversity

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Varying the regularization parameter C for a quadratic kernel (trade-off between slack variables and margin):

- ▶ small C emphasizes margin (stronger bias)
- ▶ large C de-emphasizes margin (weaker bias)

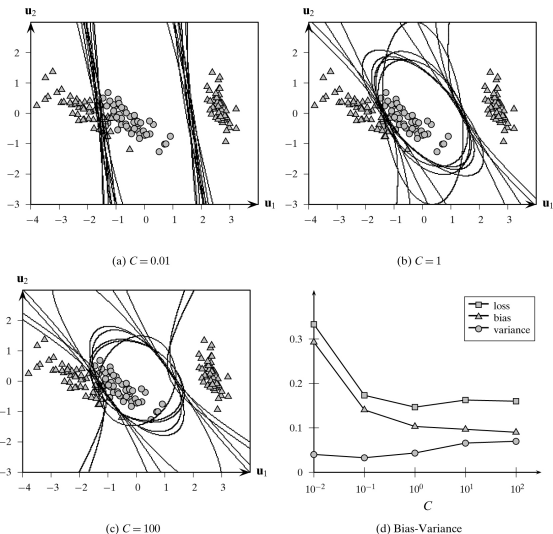
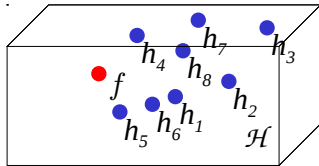
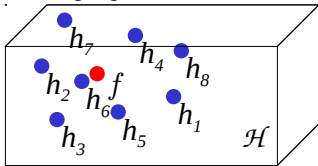


Figure by Zakia et al.

- ▶ Any individual classifier would have either a strong bias or a large variance on a non-trivial learning task.
- ▶ The combination of classifiers can reduce both, bias and variance:
 - ▶ We can combine classifiers with a weak bias, thus a large variance.
 - ▶ Averaging reduces the overall variance.



- ▶ We can combine classifiers with strong bias (and thus typically small variance), but choose them in a way to diversify the biases.
- ▶ Averaging reduces the overall bias.

Possibilities to Achieve Diverse Classifiers

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Varying the Training
Set

Varying Data
Descriptors

Manipulating Class
Labels

Manipulating the
Learning Algorithm

- ▶ vary the training set
 - ▶ bagging
 - ▶ boosting
 - ▶ manipulate data descriptors
 - ▶ use different subspaces/projections
 - ▶ use different representations
 - ▶ manipulate class labels
 - ▶ different mappings from polytomous to dichotomous problems
 - ▶ manipulate learning algorithm
 - ▶ use elements of randomness
 - ▶ use different start configurations for local optimizers
- } meta methods
- } specialized methods

Varying the Training Set

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- ▶ based on the instability of learning algorithms:
 - ▶ An algorithm is the more stable, the less classifiers (hypotheses) differ that have been learned on varied training data for the same classification problem.
 - ▶ Instability is based on the variance of the learned decision boundary: high variance makes the learner susceptible to overfitting.
 - ▶ For an unstable learning algorithm, small changes of the training set can induce large changes in the model.
- ▶ To build ensembles based on varying the training set, instable learners are beneficial, e.g.:
 - ▶ decision trees
 - ▶ neuronal nets
 - ▶ rule learners (not covered in the lecture)

- ▶ Bagging is an acronym for **B**ootstrap **A**ggregating.
- ▶ Idea: get diverse training sets by repeated bootstrapping.

Original Data	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Bagging (Round 1)	7	8	10	8	2	5	10	10	5	9
Bagging (Round 2)	1	4	9	1	2	3	2	7	3	2
Bagging (Round 3)	1	8	5	10	5	5	9	6	3	7

- ▶ Bagging trains a classifier on each bootstrap sample and aggregates the models.
- ▶ With unstable learners, sufficiently diverse hypotheses will be learned.
- ▶ New data objects are classified by voting over all learned hypotheses.

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- ▶ While the bootstrap is sampled uniformly, boosting assigns a weight to each data object.
- ▶ The weights are adjusted (increased) for difficult objects (where previous hypotheses made errors).
- ▶ The weights change the probability of drawing the object in the next round of sampling.
- ▶ As a result, difficult objects will show up more frequently in the next round and thus get implicitly a higher weight for training the classifier.

Original Data	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Boosting (Round 1)	7	3	2	8	7	9	4	10	6	3
Boosting (Round 2)	5	4	9	4	2	5	1	7	4	2
Boosting (Round 3)	4	4	8	10	4	5	4	6	3	4

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- ▶ “feature bagging”:
 - ▶ sample attributes
 - ▶ learn in the subspace
 - ▶ repeat several times and combine the models/predictions
- ▶ instead of sampling individual attributes, use different feature combinations/projections (e.g., random projections)
- ▶ use different feature spaces

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- ▶ Some classification algorithms can only solve dichotomous classification problems (e.g., SVMs).
- ▶ Complex problems with more than 2 classes can be tackled by learning several classifiers on subproblems, reduced to two classes.
- ▶ Most prominent methods:
 - ▶ one-versus-rest
 - ▶ all pairs
 - ▶ Error correcting output codes (ECOC)

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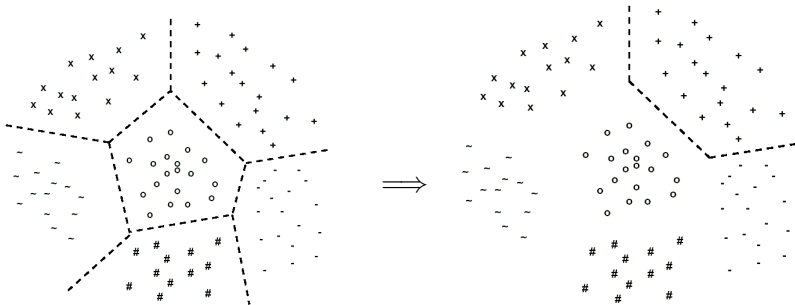
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- ▶ a.k.a. one-versus-all, one-versus-others, one-per-class
- ▶ For n classes, we train n classifiers, each separating one of the classes, in turn, from all the others.



Figures by Fue et al.

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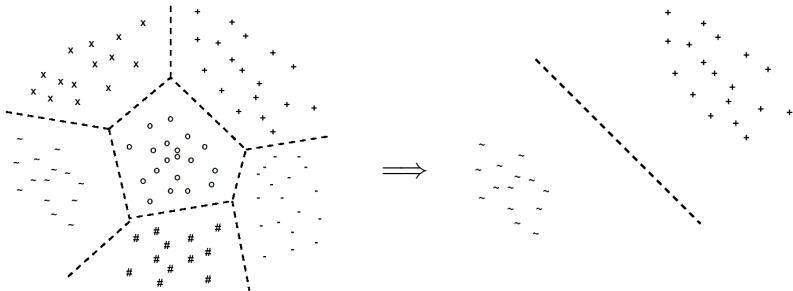
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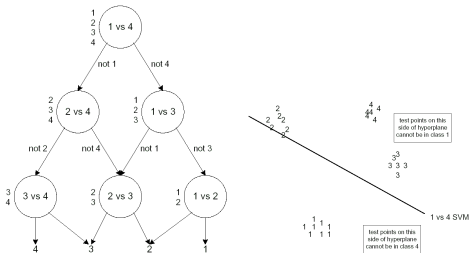
Manipulating the
Learning Algorithm

- ▶ a.k.a. all-versus-all, one-versus-one, round robin, pairwise
- ▶ For each pair of n classes, we train a classifier for separating just these classes from each other.

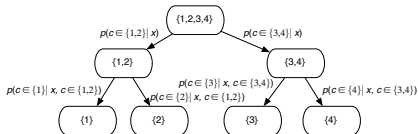
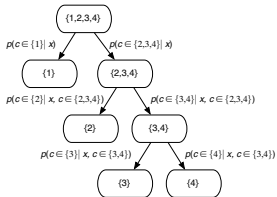


Figures by Fue et al.

- ▶ collect all votes
- ▶ directed acyclic graph: sequential votes, follow only up on the winners



► nested dichotomies



- incorporate domain knowledge (hierarchies of classes):
hierarchically nested dichotomies

Error Correcting Output Codes (ECOC)

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ECOC defines both: getting diverse classifiers, and combining their votes.

Diversity

- ▶ Set C of classes is randomly split k times into two subsets A and B .
- ▶ Examples $\in A$ get assigned the new label -1 , the other classes ($\in B$) get label 1 .
- ▶ Train k classifiers on the resulting k two-class problems.

Combination

- ▶ If in one of the problems a classifier votes for A , all classes $\in C$ that belong to A in this iteration get a vote.
- ▶ The class $\in C$ receiving most votes is the decision of the ensemble.

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- ▶ Let $C = \{c_1, c_2, c_3, c_4\}$, choose $k = 7$ (i.e., we have a 7-bit encoding):

class	code						
c_1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
c_2	0	0	0	0	1	1	1
c_3	0	0	1	1	0	0	1
c_4	0	1	0	1	0	1	0

- ▶ For each bit of the code, we train a classifier.
- ▶ We get seven decisions, e.g., $(0, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1)$ — what is the ensemble's decision?

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- ▶ The name “error correcting” relates to the idea that we introduce a redundancy for the decisions.
- ▶ The codes can be chosen randomly.
- ▶ For a good diversity, the codes should separate well:
 - row separation:** each pair of codes should have a large Hamming-distance.
 - column separation:** the k binary classifiers should be rather uncorrelated.
- ▶ What is the Hamming distance of the vote $(0, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1)$ in our example?

Use vs. Design of Random Elements

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- ▶ Some learning algorithms include random elements.
- ▶ An example are random starting points for local optimizers (e.g., the weights used in a neural net).
- ▶ Other learning algorithms can be changed to incorporate random elements.
- ▶ The greedy optimization used in decision trees is an obvious choice, leading to random forests.

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“Random Forests” is a speaking name for an ensemble consisting of trees — decision trees that involve some random component:

- ▶ train each decision tree on an independent randomly selected subset of the features (Forest-RI: Random Input);
 - ▶ generate at each node a set of random linear combinations of a subset of the features, select the best of them for the split (Forest-RC: Random Combination);
 - ▶ select at each node randomly one of the n best splits;
- or
- ▶ some combination of the three approaches.