Introduction to Machine Learning (IML)

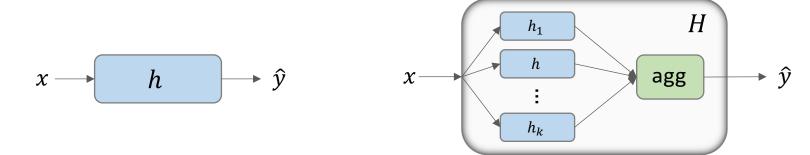
LECTURE #10: BAGGING AND BOOSTING

236756 – 2023-2024 WINTER – TECHNION

LECTURER: YONATAN BELINKOV

Today

- Part III: more supervised learning
 - 1. Regression
 - 2. Bagging and boosting (today)
 - 3. Generative models
 - 4. Deep learning
- Back to a discriminative frame-of-thought
- Will consider classification and regression interchangeably (i.e., use a different loss)



Ensemble methods:

aggregate multiple models into a single, (hopefully) more powerful model

Ensemble (aka committee)

- Q: are ensembles more powerful than any individual models?
- A: it's complicated
- Today's goal is to shed light on this question
- Intuitively, ensembling works well when:
 - \triangleright Models differ in strengths and weaknesses (e.g., accurate on different parts of D)
 - > Aggregation amplifies strengths and mitigates weaknesses
 - > Optimization is likely to work reasonably well

Template (and today):

1. Base-class learner

ID3 (decision trees)

2. Aggregation rule

linear: $H = \sum_{i} \alpha_{i} h_{i}$

3. Meta-learner

- Bagging
- Boosting

- Base model class: $h \in \mathcal{H}$ (classification, regression, ...)
- Base-class learner (=algorithm): $h_S = A(S)$
- Linear ensemble model: $H(x) = \sum_{i} \alpha_{i} h_{i}(x), \quad \alpha_{i} \in \mathbb{R}, h_{i} \in \mathcal{H}$
- Meta-learner (=algorithm): $H_S = M(S)$ (learns α_i , h_i)

• Template (and today):

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regression:

$$H(x) = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k} h_i(x)$$

will write this...

classification:

$$H(x) = \text{majority}(\{h_i(x)\})$$
$$= sign(\frac{1}{k}\sum_{i=1}^k \text{sign}(h_i(x)))$$

...to also mean this

Template (and today):

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- **Q**: Does it make sense to aggregate linear models?
- A: Question is ill-posed
 - Need to also say what base learner is (e.g., ERM, RLM, SVM)
 - For linear classes, ensembles H are also linear! so member of the base class
 - But this does <u>not</u> imply that learning H is the same as learning h
- We will return to this!

• **Recall**: bias-variance tradeoff

$$\mathbb{E}_{S \sim D^{m}} \left[L_{D}^{sqr}(h_{S}) \right] = \mathbb{E}_{x,y} \left[(\bar{y}(x) - y)^{2} \right] + \mathbb{E}_{x} \left[\left(\bar{h}(x) - \bar{y}(x) \right)^{2} \right] + \mathbb{E}_{S,x} \left[\left(h_{S}(x) - \bar{h}(x) \right)^{2} \right]$$
expected error
noise
bias²
variance

- where:
 - Expected label: $\overline{y}(x) = \mathbb{E}_{y \sim D_{Y|X=x}}[y] \in [0,1]$
 - Expected classifier: $\overline{h} = \mathbb{E}_{S \sim D^m}[h_S]$

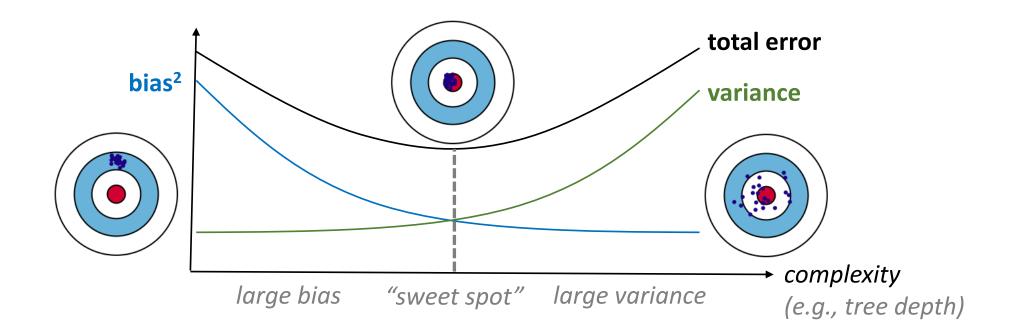
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expected error

noise

bias²

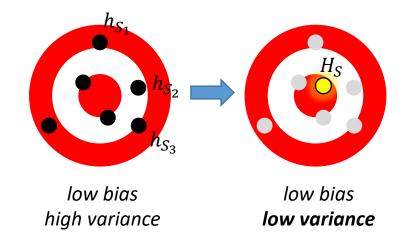
variance



• Recall: bias-variance tradeoff

$$\mathbb{E}_{S \sim D^m} \big[L_D^{sqr}(h_S) \big] = \mathbb{E}_{x,y} \left[(\bar{y}(x) - y)^2 \right] + \mathbb{E}_x \left[\left(\bar{h}(x) - \bar{y}(x) \right)^2 \right] + \mathbb{E}_{S,x} \left[\left(h_S/(x) - \bar{h}(x) \right)^2 \right]$$
expected error
noise
bias²
variance

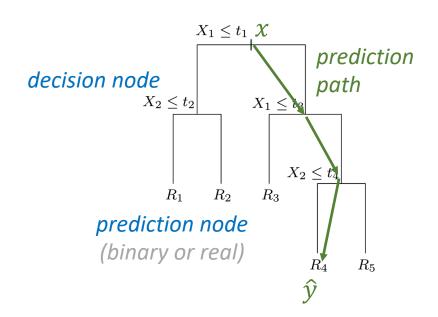
- Bagging is an ensembling approach aimed at reducing variance without decreasing complexity
- Idea: learn an H_S that tries to "approximate" \bar{h}
- Bagging works well for high-variance, low-bias base model classes
- For example, deep decision trees

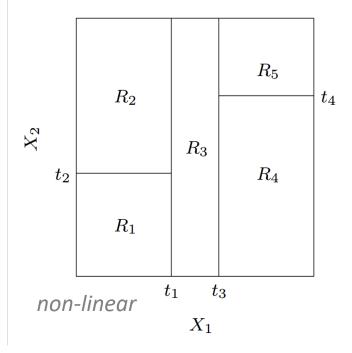


 $H_{\mathcal{S}}$

Decision trees

- **Recall**: decision trees
- ID3 learning algorithm:
 - 1. Start with root as leaf.
 - 2. For each feature, compute best possible split (using entropy).
 - 3. Create decision node (and split data) using best feature.
 - 4. Recurse.
- Trees can be highly non-linear
- Without restrictions, always exists a tree T having zero empirical error, $L_S(H_T)=0$
- Generally, large depth implies high variance





Variance reduction via averaging

- Bagging reduces variance by averaging.
- Recall: law of large numbers roughly states that:

If z_i are i.i.d. with mean μ and variance σ^2 , then

1.
$$\bar{z}_{(k)} = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k} z_i \xrightarrow[k \to \infty]{} \mu$$

2.
$$\operatorname{Var}(\bar{z}_{(k)}) = \frac{\sigma^2}{k}$$

• Idea: average multiple models

Variance reduction via averaging

- Bagging reduces variance by averaging.
- **Recall**: law of large numbers roughly states that:

If h_i are i.i.d. with mean μ and variance σ^2 , then*

1.
$$\overline{h}_{(k)} = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k} h_i \xrightarrow[k \to \infty]{} \mu \rightarrow \text{bias remains roughly the same}$$

$$2. \quad \operatorname{Var}(\overline{h}_{(k)}) = \frac{\sigma^2}{k}$$

2. $Var(\overline{h}_{(k)}) = \frac{\sigma^2}{\nu}$ \rightarrow variance diminishes quickly! (compared to base models)

- Idea: average multiple models
- Can hope for error (or at least its variance term) to decrease at rate $\approx \frac{1}{L}$

bias²:
$$\mathbb{E}_{x}\left[\left(\bar{h}(x)-\bar{y}(x)\right)^{2}\right]$$

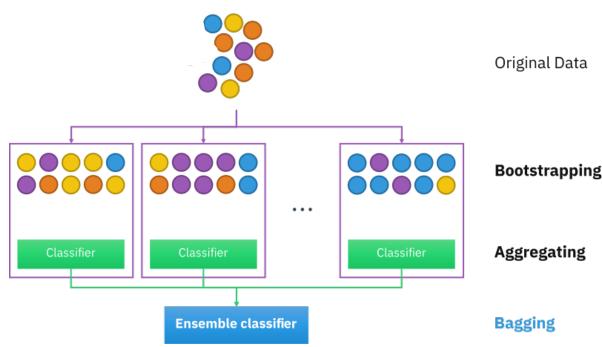
variance:
$$\mathbb{E}_{S,x}\left[\left(h_S(x)-\bar{h}(x)\right)^2\right]$$

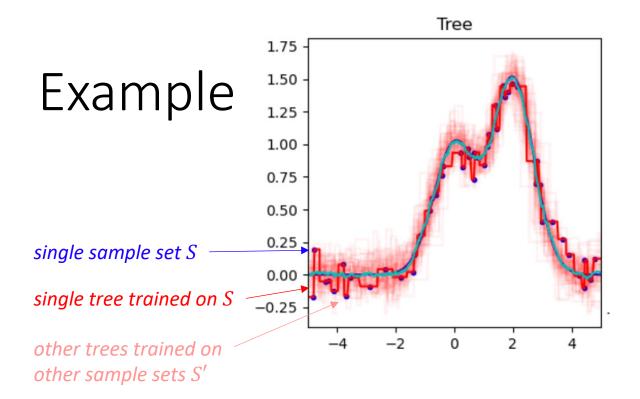
Bootstrapping

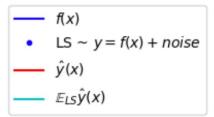
- **Q**: How can we obtain k different models $h_1, ..., h_k$?
- A: (obvious) train on k different (iid) data sets $S_1, ..., S_k$: $h_1 = A(S_1), ..., h_k = A(S_k)$
- (recall *A* is our *base learner*)
- **Problem**: we don't have multiple (iid) data sets $S_1, ..., S_k$ just one!
- Naïve solution: partition S into k sets of size m/k
- Think: can/should/will this lead to improved performance?
- Better solution: use single S to "simulate" multiple sets by repeated sub-sampling
 - ➤ Many ways to subsample
 - Bagging uses bootstrapping

Boostrapping

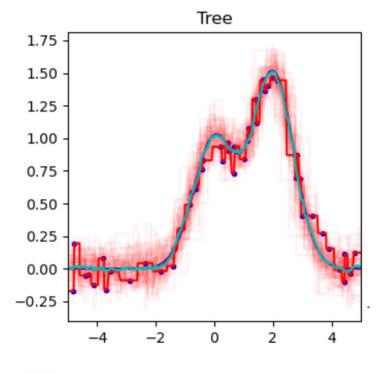
- Bootstrap = sample uniformly with replacement: (="take out and put back in")
 - Define distribution $Q((x,y)|S) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{m} & (x,y) \in S \\ 0 & o.w. \end{cases}$
 - Sample $S_i \sim Q^m$ iid
- Then:
 - Train $h_i = A(S_i)$
 - Aggregate $H = agg(h_1, ..., h_k)$ (by averaging)
- Bagging = Bootstrap Aggregating

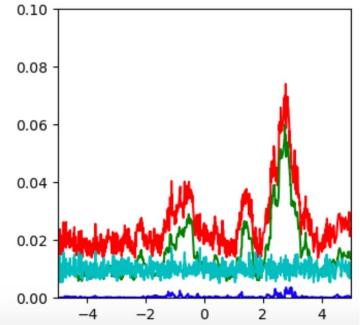




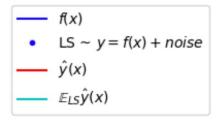


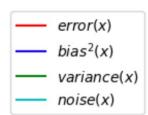
Example



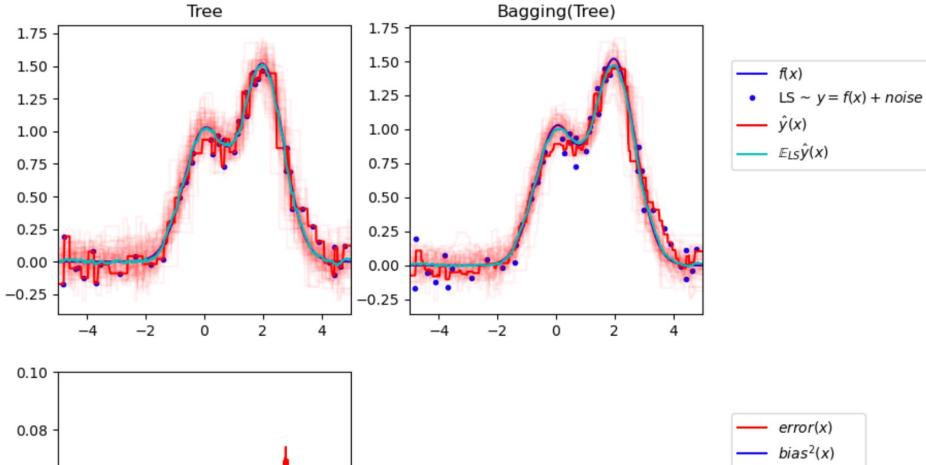


https://scikitlearn.org/stable/auto_examples/ens emble/plot_bias_variance.html



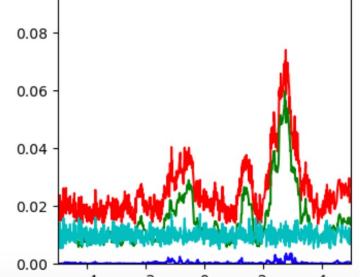


Example



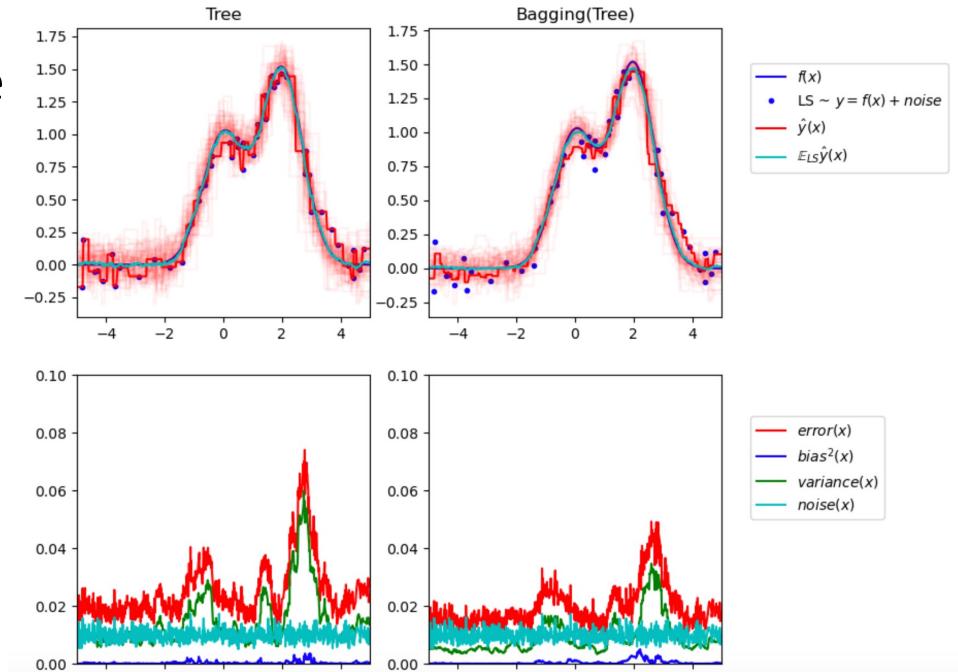
variance(x)

noise(x)



https://scikitlearn.org/stable/auto_examples/ens emble/plot_bias_variance.html

Example



https://scikitlearn.org/stable/auto_examples/ens emble/plot_bias_variance.html

- Assume for simplicity $y = h^*(x)$ (i.e., no noise)
- Each base learner can be written as: $h_i(x) = h^*(x) + \epsilon_i(x)$



• Expected (squared-loss) error of each base learner:

$$\underline{\operatorname{err}_i} = \mathbb{E}_{x} \left[\left(h_i(x) - h^*(x) \right)^2 \right] = \mathbb{E}_{x} \left[\left(h^*(x) + \epsilon_i(x) - h^*(x) \right)^2 \right] = \mathbb{E}_{x} \left[\epsilon_i(x)^2 \right]$$

• Denote "average error" of base learners, had they been acting individually:

$$\operatorname{err}_{avg} = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k} \mathbb{E}_{x} [\epsilon_{i}(x)^{2}]$$

• Decmoposition of error of the **ensemble**:

$$\operatorname{err}_{H} = \mathbb{E}_{x} \left[\left(H(x) - h^{*}(x) \right)^{2} \right] = \mathbb{E}_{x} \left[\left(\frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k} h_{i}(x) - h^{*}(x) \right)^{2} \right] = \mathbb{E}_{x} \left[\left(\frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k} \epsilon_{i}(x) \right)^{2} \right]$$

$$= \mathbb{E}_{x} \left[\frac{1}{k^{2}} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{k} \epsilon_{i}(x)^{2} + \sum_{i \neq j} \epsilon_{i}(x) \epsilon_{j}(x) \right) \right] = \frac{1}{k} \operatorname{err}_{avg} + \frac{1}{k^{2}} \mathbb{E}_{x} \left[\sum_{i \neq j} \epsilon_{i}(x) \epsilon_{j}(x) \right]$$

• Decmoposition of error of the **ensemble**:

$$\operatorname{err}_{H} = \frac{1}{k} \operatorname{err}_{avg} + \frac{1}{k^{2}} \mathbb{E}_{x} \left[\sum_{i \neq j} \epsilon_{i}(x) \epsilon_{j}(x) \right]$$

- If errors ϵ_i :
 - have zero mean: $\mathbb{E}_{x}[\epsilon_{i}(x)] = 0$
 - are uncorrelated: $\mathbb{E}_{x}[\epsilon_{i}(x)\epsilon_{i}(x)] = \mathbb{E}_{x}[\epsilon_{i}(x)]\mathbb{E}_{x}[\epsilon_{i}(x)]$,

then:
$$\operatorname{err}_{H} = \frac{1}{k} \operatorname{err}_{avg}$$

- Dramatic reduction in error just by averaging!
- In practice, errors are usually correlated
- Suffer additional "correlation errors" $\frac{1}{k^2}\mathbb{E}_x\left[\sum_{i\neq j}\epsilon_i(x)\epsilon_j(x)\right]$

- Intuition: "more" variation in input ⇒ less variation in output (through averaging)
- Note that examples are no longer independent (they are linked by S)
- This means $H = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k} h_i \xrightarrow[m \to \infty]{} \mu$ (S_i are not iid and so LLN does not kick in)
- Nonetheless, their probability under D is preserved
- Claim: $P_Q(x,y) = P_D(x,y)$ (that is, sampling from D is like sampling S and then from Q)
- To simplify, consider finite $x \in \{x_1, ..., x_n\}$ with $P(x_i) = p_i$, and discard y
- Proof:

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- Proof:

$$P_Q(x_i) = P(x_i \in S \text{ and was picked})$$

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- Claim: $P_O(x, y) = P_D(x, y)$ (that is, sampling from D is like sampling S and then from Q)
- To simplify, consider finite $x \in \{x_1, ..., x_n\}$ with $P(x_i) = p_i$, and discard y
- **Proof**: $P_Q(x_i) = P(x_i \in S \text{ and was picked}) = \sum_{n=1}^m \binom{m}{n} p_i^n (1-p_i)^{m-n} \cdot \frac{n}{m}$

probability of picking one of those copies

- Intuition: "more" variation in input ⇒ less variation in output (through averaging)
- Note that examples are no longer independent (they are linked by S)
- This means $H = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k} h_i \longrightarrow \mu$ (S_i are not iid and so LLN does not kick in)
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- Proof:

consider finite
$$x \in \{x_1, ..., x_n\}$$
 with $P(x_i) = p_i$, and discard y prob. of having n copies of x_i in S
$$P_Q(x_i) = P(x_i \in S \text{ and was picked}) = \sum_{m=1}^{m} {m \choose n} p_i^n (1-p_i)^{m-n} \cdot \frac{n}{m}$$
 expected value of binomial distribution p_i probability of pick p_i and discard p_i probability of pick p_i probability p_i probability of pick p_i probability p_i

probability of picking one of those copies

$$= \frac{1}{m} \sum_{n=1}^{m} {m \choose n} p_i^n (1 - p_i)^{m-n} n$$

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probability of picking one of those copies

$$= \frac{1}{m} \sum_{n=1}^{m} {m \choose n} p_i^n (1 - p_i)^{m-n} n = \frac{1}{m} m p_i = p_i = P_D(x_i)$$

0.632 bootstrapping

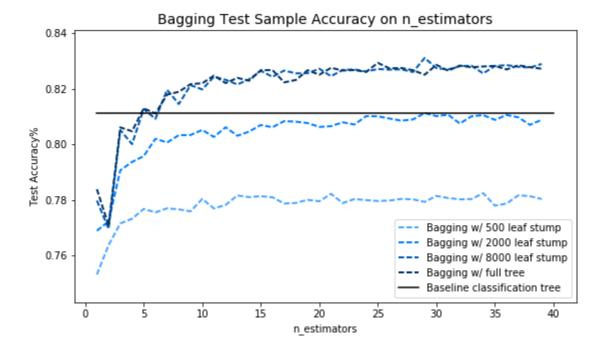
- For any x_i and S_i :
 - At each step, $P(\text{choose } x_i) = \frac{1}{m}$
 - Overall, $P(x_i \notin S_j) = \left(1 \frac{1}{m}\right)^m \xrightarrow[m \to \infty]{} e^{-1} = 0.368$
- This means each S_i includes roughly 2/3 of the data, regardless of m
- Hence, each h_i is effectively trained on a different, random 1/3-2/3 "split" of the data
- Performance on non-selected points provides unbiased estimate of test error
- Sounds like cross-validation, but free! (i.e., didn't "throw away" validation examples)
- Gives insight into how variance reduction works

Random Forests

- An extremely popular and practically useful instantiation of Bagging
- Uses decision trees, but not using ID3 rather, uses a different base learner (having additional randomization)

Random Forest(S, k, d')

- 1. Sub-sample k sample sets $S_1, ..., S_k$ of size m = |S| with replacement from S
- 2. For each S_i , learn an unbounded-depth decision tree h_i , but with a twist: at each decision node, use only a randomly sampled subset of d' < d features (without replacement! i.e., each split criterion is based on different features)
- 3. Return $H(x) = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k} h_i(x)$
- Usually fairly insensitive to choices of hyper-parameters k, d' (often set $d' = \sqrt{d}$)



Boosting

- > mostly aimed at reducing variance
- ➤ targets high-variance models e.g., deep trees
- ➤ linear aggregation, uniform weights:

$$H = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{1}{k} h_i$$

 \triangleright parallel training $(h_i \text{ independent given } S)$

Boosting:

- mostly aimed at reducing bias
- targets high-bias modelse.g., stumps (depth-one trees)
- ➤ linear aggregation, varying weights:

$$H = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \alpha_i h_i$$

incremental (greedy) training $(h_i \text{ depends on } h_1, \dots, h_{i-1})$

Weak learners

- Boosting works well for weak base learners
 (this is how we can operationalize the notion of "high-bias")
- **Definition**: (for binary classification)

 The base class $\mathcal{H} = \{h: \mathcal{X} \to \{\pm 1\}\}$ is a γ -weakly learnable if exists A and $m(\delta)$ s.t. for all $\delta \in [0,1]$ and all D, for $S \sim D^m$,

$$P_D(\operatorname{err}(A(S)) \le 0.5 - \gamma) \ge 1 - \delta$$

- Intuitively, means learned models perform at least better than random
- A fairly minimal requirement... notice that if both $h, -h \in \mathcal{H}$, then at least one has err < 0.5

Weak learners

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Vs. PAC-learnable:

... and $m(\delta, \epsilon)$ s.t. $\forall \delta, \epsilon \in [0,1]$

$$P_D(\operatorname{err}(A(S)) \le \epsilon) \ge 1 - \delta$$

- Intuitively, means learned models perform at least better than random
- A fairly minimal requirement... notice that if both $h, -h \in \mathcal{H}$, then at least one has err < 0.5
- Compare to PAC; in weak learning, m does not depending on error (ϵ)

Weak learners

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- We call such A a **weak learner**, and the learned model h_S a **weak model**
- Simply averaging weakly-learned models (i.e., bagging) isn't going to work
- Enter Boosting

Boosting

- **Boosting** uses a weak learner to form a strong learner (i.e., that PAC-learns with any ϵ)
- Main idea iteratively build aggregate model:
 - for t = 1 ... T
 - learn h_t with weak learner A
 - set α_t
 - update $H_t = H_{t-1} + \alpha_t h_t$
 - return $H = H_T = \sum_{t=1}^{T} \alpha_t h_t$
- α_t can be either pre-determined (constant, diminishing, etc) or optimized (also greedily) (this depends on the particular learning setting)
- Intuition: each h_t "compensates" for errors made by its predecessors in H_{t-1}
- Let's start with an example, and then proceed to a more fundamental understanding

AdaBoost

- AdaBoost = Adaptive Boosting
- Requires weak learner A(S; D) that takes as input:
 - data $S = \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^m$
 - vector $D \in [0,1]^m$ having $\sum_i D_i = 1$ that encodes per-example importance weights
- Each weak model h_t minimizes $\sum_{i=1}^m D_i \mathbb{1}\{y_i \neq h_t(x_i)\}$
- initialize $D^{(1)} = (1/m, ..., 1/m)$
 - for t = 1 ... T
 - Learn weak model $h_t = A(S; D^{(t)})$
 - set α_t
 - update $D^{(t+1)}$ based on $D^{(t)}$
 - return $H = H_T = \sum_{t=1}^{T} \alpha_t h_t$

Intuition:

- α_t should be high if h_t is "good"
- $D^{(t+1)}$ should up-weight examples that h_t misclassified

For example (not real derivation):

- $\alpha_t \approx 1/\text{err}(h_t)$
- $D_i^{(t+1)} \approx 1/y_i h_t(x_i)$

AdaBoost(S, A, T)

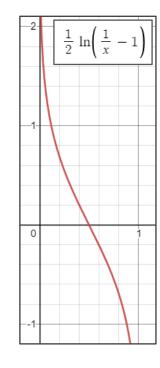
- initialize $D^{(1)} = (1/m, ..., 1/m)$
- for t = 1 ... T:
 - 1. $h_t = A(S; D^{(t)})$ 0-1 loss
 - 2. $\varepsilon_t = \sum_{i=1}^m D_i^{(t)} \mathbb{1}\{y_i \neq h_t(x_i)\}$
 - 3. $\alpha_t = \frac{1}{2} \log(\frac{1}{\varepsilon_t} 1)$ guess?
 - 4. $\forall i, D_i^{(t+1)} \propto D_i^{(t)} \exp\{-\alpha_t y_i h_t(x_i)\}$

- # train with weak learner
- # compute weighted 0/1 error
- # set model coefficient ———
- # update normalized weights

• return $H = \operatorname{sign}(\sum_{t=1}^{T} \alpha_t h_t)$

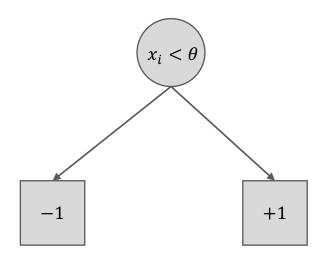
"more" wrong => more importance

learned (=optimized) weights



More to follow!

most popular base-class for boosting:



stumps

= trees of depth 0

(vs. deep trees in bagging)

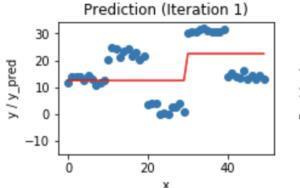
Boosting vs. Bagging

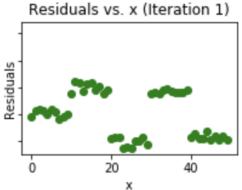
- Boosting trains each h_t on a "reweighted" sample, with importance scores $D^{(t)}$
- Each $D^{(t)}$ is updated according to $D^{(t-1)}$
- Can think of Bagging as special case where $\alpha_t = \frac{1}{T}$ and each $D^{(t)}$:
 - > is set independently
 - > and at random
 - \triangleright to include "count" entries $D_i \in \{0,1,2,...\}$ (and then normalize)
 - > (by sampling indices with replacement)
- Conclusion: boosting generalizes bagging
- **Q**: What generalizes boosting?

Gradient boosting

A gentle start

- Consider regression with least squares as a loss
- Ideally, we want $\hat{y} = y$.
- In practice, get residual errors: $r_i = y_i \hat{y}_i$
- Idea:
 - \triangleright Train sequence of models $h_1, h_2, ...$
 - \triangleright Train each h_t to fit the **residuals** of h_{t-1}
 - \blacktriangleright Hope that each h_t "compensates" for previous errors
 - \triangleright Output $H = \sum_t h_t$



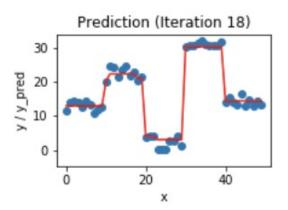


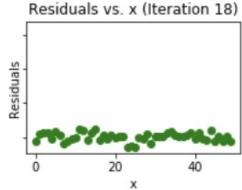
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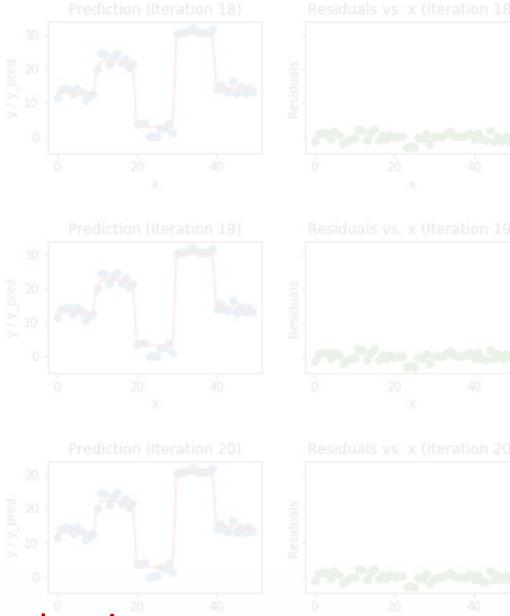
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But we'd like a more general solution; enter gradient boosting

Boosted least squares

- At step t, say we want to minimize $L_S(H_{t-1}) = \sum_i \frac{1}{2} (H_{t-1}(x_i) y_i)^2$, by adjusting prior predictions $H(x_i)$
- Think of $H_{t-1}(x_i)$ as parameters and take the gradient:

$$g_{i} = [\nabla L_{S}(H_{t-1})]_{x_{i}} = \frac{\partial L_{S}(H_{t-1})}{\partial H_{t-1}(x_{i})} = \frac{\partial \frac{1}{2}(H_{t-1}(x_{i}) - y_{i})^{2}}{\partial H_{t-1}(x_{i})} = H_{t-1}(x_{i}) - y_{i}$$

• Residuals are negative gradients(!): $y_i - H_{t-1}(x_i) = -g_i$

• h fits the residuals and thus approximates the negative gradient

$$h(x_i) \approx -g_i$$

Boosted least squares

Gradient-Boosted Least Squares:

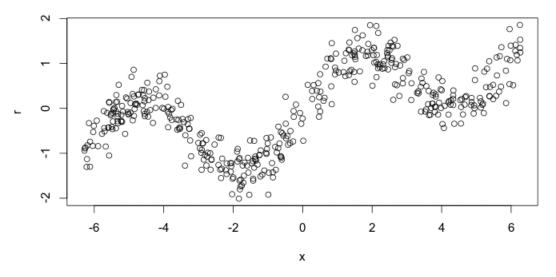
Start with initial model, say $H_0 = \frac{1}{m} \sum_i y_i$ at each step t,

- 1. Compute negative gradient $r_i = y_i H_{t-1}(x_i)$
- 2. Learn $h_t \in \underset{h \in \mathcal{H}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{i=1}^m (h(x_i) r_i)^2$
- 3. Take optimal local step: $H_t = H_{t-1} + h_t$

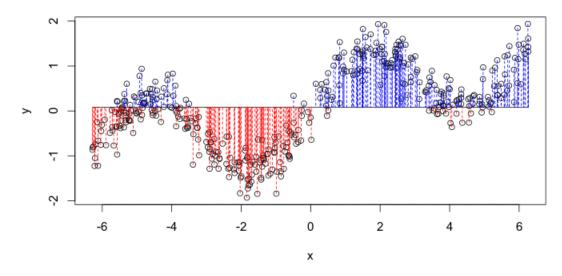
Notice the update rule

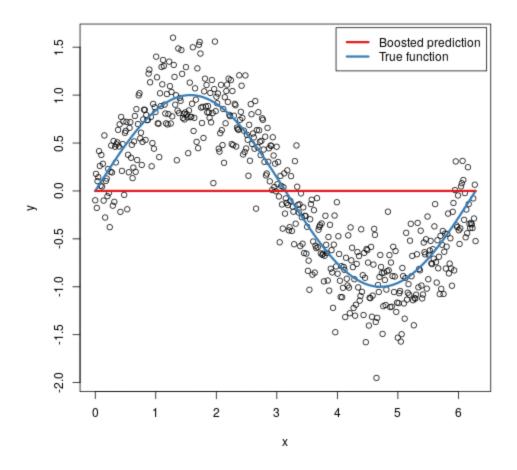
$$H_t(x_i) = H_{t-1}(x_i) + h_t(x_i) \approx H_{t-1}(x_i) - g_i = H_{t-1}(x_i) - 1[\nabla L_S(H_{t-1})]_{x_i}$$

residuals / negative gradient (Round 0)



Observed Data vs. Fit Vector (Round 0)





Boosted least squares approximates the following update:

$$H_t = H_{t-1} + h_t \approx H_{t-1} - 1[\nabla L_S(H_{t-1})]$$

- Generally, we want: $H_t = H_{t-1} \eta \nabla L_S(H_{t-1})$
- What does this remind you of?
- Recall gradient descent in *parameter space* (e.g., for linear $h_w(x) = w^T x$):

$$w_t = w_{t-1} - \eta \nabla L_S(w_t)$$

We can now think of GD as learning an "ensemble":

$$\hat{h} = h_{\widehat{w}}, \quad \widehat{w} = \sum_t \alpha_t h_t, \quad h_t = \nabla L_S(w_t), \quad \alpha_t = -\eta$$

Gradient boosting performs gradient descent in function space

- Gradient descent updates: $H_t = H_{t-1} \eta \nabla L_S(H_{t-1})$
- Great! But two problems:
 - 1. no one said $\nabla L_S(H_{t-1}) \in \mathcal{H}$ (recall we want to learn an ensemble)
 - 2. we can't compute $\nabla L_S(H_{t-1})$ for all x we only have S!
- Fortunately, one solution solves both problems at once
- Idea:
 - 1. Compute "empirical" gradient, with entries only for observed data points:

$$g_i = [\nabla L_S(H_{t-1})]_{x_i} = \frac{\partial \ell(y_i, H_{t-1}(x_i))}{\partial H_{t-1}(x_i)}$$

- 2. Find $h_t \in \mathcal{H}$ that best fits empirical gradient, i.e., $h_t(x_i) \approx g_i \ \forall i \in [m]$
- 3. Update with inferred model: $H_t = H_{t-1} \eta h_t$

- Gradient Boosting: at each step t,
 - 1. Compute "empirical" gradient $g_i = [\nabla L_S(H_{t-1})]_{x_i}$
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(can use any loss function; should choose according to what g_i are)

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- Gradient Boosting: at each step t,
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(can use any loss function; should choose according to what g_i are)

3. Take optimal local step: $H_t = \underset{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}}{\operatorname{argmin}} H_{t-1} + \alpha h_t$

(aka "line search"; when possible; sometimes has closed-form solution)

- Together, can think of as approximating $\underset{h \in \mathcal{H}, \alpha \in \mathbb{R}}{\operatorname{argmin}} L_{\mathcal{S}}(H_{t-1} + \alpha h)$
- This approach is called forward stage-wise optimization
- Gradient-Boosted least squares is one example

AdaBoost, revisited

- Claim:
 - AdaBoost is an instance of Gradient Boosting
- Loss: exponential, $\ell^{\exp}(y, \hat{y}) = e^{-y\hat{y}}$
- Gradient:

$$g_i = \frac{\partial \ell(y_i, H(x_i))}{\partial H(x_i)} = -y_i e^{-y_i H(x_i)}$$

- Will see in tirgul:
 - 1. updating *D* approximates gradient step
 - 2. α_t is the optimal step size
- AdaBoost converges exponentially fast (won't show)

AdaBoost(S, A, T)

- initialize $D^{(1)} = (1/m, ..., 1/m)$
- for t = 1 ... T:

train with weak learner

1.
$$h_t = A(S; D^{(t)})$$

compute weighted 0/1 error

2.
$$\varepsilon_t = \sum_{i=1}^m D_i^{(t)} \mathbb{1}\{y_i \neq h_t(x_i)\}$$

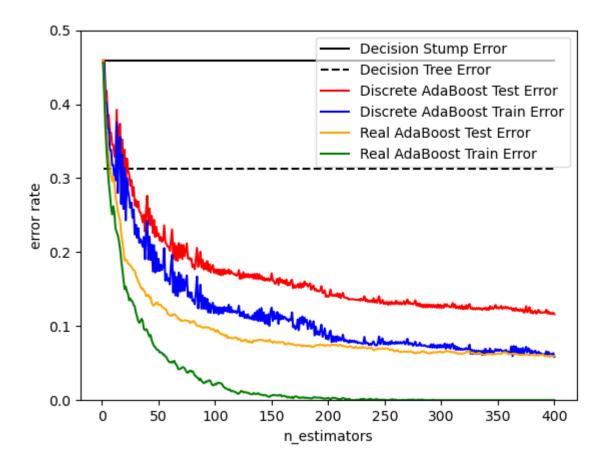
set model coefficient

3.
$$\alpha_t = \frac{1}{2} \log(\frac{1}{\epsilon_t} - 1)$$

update normalized weights

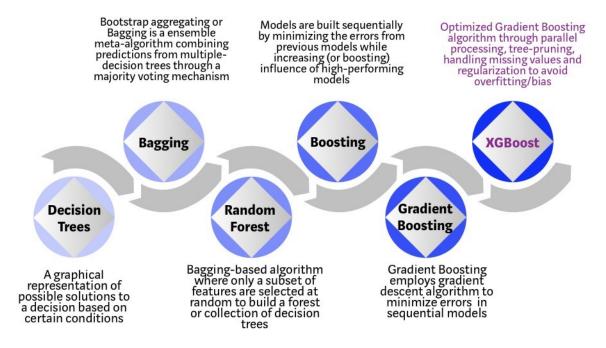
4.
$$\forall i, D_i^{(t+1)} \propto D_i^{(t)} \exp\{-\alpha_t y_i h_t(x_i)\}$$

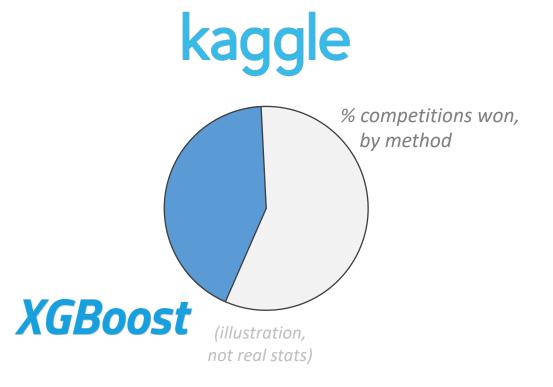
• return $H(x) = \operatorname{sign}(\sum_{t=1}^{T} \alpha_t h_t)$



- Ensembling is an approach to combine multiple models into a single, better model
 - Bagging works well when base learner has high variance
 - Boosting works well when base learner has high bias
- Both propose ways to optimize over a class of linear ensemble models, $H=\sum_i \alpha_i h_i$ (helpful when direct optimization is hard)
- Cons: runtime (training, prediction)
- Pros:
 - expressivity
 - works very, very well

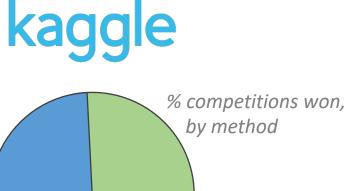
XGBoost: highly-optimized flexible gradient boosting tool





XGBoost: highly-optimized flexible gradient boosting tool

Bootstrap aggregating or Bagging is a ensemble meta-algorithm combining predictions from multiple-Models are built sequentially **Optimized Gradient Boosting** by minimizing the errors from algorithm through parallel previous models while processing, tree-pruning, handling missing values and regularization to avoid increasing (or boosting) influence of high-performing decision trees through a majority voting mechanism models overfitting/bias Boosting **Bagging XGBoost** Gradient Random Decision Boosting **Trees** Forest Bagging-based algorithm where only a subset of features are selected at Gradient Boosting employs gradient descent algorithm to A graphical representation of possible solutions to a decision based on minimize errors in sequential models random to build a forest or collection of decision certain conditions trees



Interpretation:

ensembles are linear models over a representation consisting of weak model predictions:

$$H(x) = \sum_{i} \alpha_{i} h_{i}(x) \equiv H(x) = w^{\mathsf{T}} \phi(x), (\phi(x))_{i} = h_{i}(x)$$

- Can think of learning as done in two steps:
 - 1. learn representation mapping ϕ
 - 2. learn linear model w over representation ϕ
- We will see that deep learning can be thought of as jointly learning ϕ and w (and so entries in ϕ will now longer correspond to predictions of some h)

Next week

- Part III: more supervised learning
 - 1. Regression
 - 2. Bagging and boosting (today)
 - 3. Generative models
 - 4. Deep learning

