# Statistics 452: Statistical Learning and Prediction

Chapter 8, Part 3: Boosting

Brad McNeney

### Introduction to Boosting

- ► Reference: Hastie, Tibshirani and Friedman (2001). The Elements of Statistical Learning (hereafter ESL).
- ▶ Motivation for boosting: Combine many "weak" classifiers to produce a powerful "committee".
  - Similar in this respect to bagging, but otherwise fundamentally different.
- A weak classifier is one that does little better than guessing.
  - On its own a weak classifier is not useful, but if applied sequentially, it can produce a powerful classifier.

### Example Boosting Algorithm: AdaBoost.M1

- ▶ Due to Freund and Schapire (1997).
- Suppose two outcome classes Y = -1 or 1 and a "base" classifier that produces a prediction.
  - ▶ Need not be a decision tree classifier at this point.
- ▶ Sequentially apply the classifier to modified versions of the data (more on next slide), leading to a sequence of weak classifiers  $G_m(x)$ ;  $m=1,\ldots,M$  which are weighted to give final predictions.

### AdaBoost Weighting

Combine predictions with a weighted majority vote

$$G(x) = \operatorname{sign}\left(\sum_{m=1}^{M} \alpha_m G_m(x)\right),$$

which classifies as 1 if weighted sum > 0 and -1 otherwise.

- ▶ The classifier weights  $\alpha_m$  are computed by the algorithm to give higher weight to more accurate classifiers.
- Modify the data at each boosting step by applying observation weights  $w_1, \ldots, w_n$ .
  - Initially all weights are equal.
  - At step m, observations that were misclassified at step m-1 are up-weighted.
  - As we go, observations that are difficult to classify receive more and more weight, forcing the weak classifier to focus on them.

### AdaBoost algorithm

▶ Algorithm 10.1 of ESL (page 339).

#### Algorithm 10.1 AdaBoost.M1.

- 1. Initialize the observation weights  $w_i = 1/N$ , i = 1, 2, ..., N.
- 2. For m = 1 to M:
  - (a) Fit a classifier  $G_m(x)$  to the training data using weights  $w_i$ .
  - (b) Compute

$$err_m = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} w_i I(y_i \neq G_m(x_i))}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} w_i}.$$

- (c) Compute  $\alpha_m = \log((1 \operatorname{err}_m)/\operatorname{err}_m)$ .
- (d) Set  $w_i \leftarrow w_i \cdot \exp[\alpha_m \cdot I(y_i \neq G_m(x_i))], i = 1, 2, \dots, N.$
- 3. Output  $G(x) = \operatorname{sign} \left[ \sum_{m=1}^{M} \alpha_m G_m(x) \right]$ .

#### Schematic

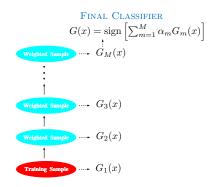


FIGURE 10.1. Schematic of AdaBoost. Classifiers are trained on weighted versions of the dataset, and then combined to produce a final prediction.

### AdaBoost as an Additive Model

- Let  $b(x; \gamma)$  be the base classifier for parameters  $\gamma$ .
  - Let  $\gamma_m$  denote the values at step m, so that  $G_m(x) = b(x; \gamma_m)$  is the classifier at step m. This is a basis function.
- ▶ The classifier weights are the coefficients of the basis functions.
- ► The additive model is

$$f(x;\alpha,\gamma) = \sum_{m=1}^{M} \alpha_m b(x;\gamma_m)$$

We would like to find the coefficients  $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_M)$  and  $\gamma = (\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_M)$  that minimize a loss function,

$$\sum_{i=1}^n L(y_i, f(x_i; \alpha)).$$

We are used to the squared-error loss  $L(y, f(x)) = (y - f(x))^2$  and misclassification  $L(y, f(x)) = I(y \neq f(x))$ ; it turns out (ESL, Section 10.4) that AdaBoost uses exponential loss function  $L(y, f(x)) = \exp(-yf(x))$ .

### Forward Stagewise Additive Modelling

- Finding the best values of  $\alpha, \gamma$  is a difficult problem.
- Approximate the solution by a greedy algorithm that sequentially adds the best new basis function, without adjusting the coefficients of those previously added.
  - 1. Initialize  $f_0(x) = 0$ \$.
  - 2. For m = 1 : M
    - (a) Find the  $\alpha_m$  and  $\gamma_m$  that minimize  $\sum_{i=1}^n L(y_i, f_{m-1}(x_i) + \alpha b(x_i; \gamma))$
    - (b) Set  $f_m(x) = f_{m-1}(x) + \alpha_m b(x; \gamma_m)$
  - 3. Return  $\hat{f}(x) = f_M(x)$ .

### **Boosting Decision Trees**

- ► The parameters of a decision tree are the disjoint regions (obtained by recursive partitioning) and the values assigned to each region.
- Let  $T(x; \gamma)$  be a tree.
- The boosted tree model is a sum

$$f_M(x) = \sum_{m=1}^{M} T(x; \gamma_m)$$

(no weighting), where the trees at step m are fit according to the forward stagewise algorithm.

At step m we find the  $\gamma_m$  that minimizes

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} L(y_i, f_{m-1}(x_i) + T(x_i; \gamma))$$
 (1)

and take 
$$f_m(x) = f_{m-1}(x) + T(x; \gamma_m)$$
.

### Boosting Regression Trees

▶ If a regression tree and the loss is squared-error loss,

$$L(y_i, f_{m-1}(x_i) + T(x_i; \gamma)) = (y_i - f_{m-1}(x_i) - T(x_i; \gamma))^2$$
  
=  $(r_i^{(m-1)} - T(x_i; \gamma))^2$ ,

where  $r_i^{(m-1)}$  is the *i*th residual from step m-1.

- ▶ Solve (1) by fitting a tree to the residuals (Our text, Alg. 8.2).
- Note: As a basis function,  $T(x; \gamma)$  could, in general, depend on all predictors, which would make the boosted model not additive in the sense of Chapter 7.
  - When the trees have only two leaves (i.e., one split on one variable), the boosted model is additive in the sense of Chapter 7.

# **Gradient Boosting**

- ▶ With loss functions other than squared-error and exponential, the solution to (1) is more challenging.
- ► A general, but approximate algorithm based on ideas from optimization is called gradient boosting.
  - ▶ A description is beyond the scope of this course.
  - ▶ We use the implementation in the gbm package.
  - ▶ A more modern implementation of boosting trees is in the package xgboost (eXtreme Gradient Boosting). More flexible, computations highly optimized and parallelized, but same basic idea.

# Choosing the Depth of the Trees

- ▶ Set the tree depth to be the same for all trees.
- Could consider the depth as a tuning parameter and choose it by cross-validation.
- ▶ Text and software suggest d = 1 is often fine.
  - Software calls d the interaction depth. For d > 1 each tree depends on more than one variable and would represent an "interaction".

# Shrinkage

- Large M will lead to overfitting.
- ► Can select *M* as a tuning parameter, but experience has shown that it is better to take a large M and shrink the contributions of each tree by a factor  $\lambda$ ; that is, take  $f_m(x) = f_{m-1}(x) + \lambda T(x; \gamma_m).$

$$f_m(x) = f_{m-1}(x) + \lambda T(x; \gamma_m)$$

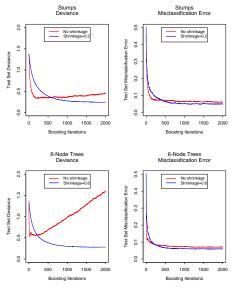
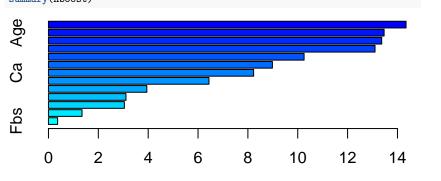


FIGURE 10.11. Test error curves for simulated example (10.2) of Figure 10.9, using gradient boosting (MART). The models were trained using binomial deviance, either stumps or six terminal-node trees, and with our without absolutes. The left people report test

### Example: Heart Data

- ▶ Recall that the best tree fit the to Heart data had test-set misclassification rate about 27%,
- ▶ Random forest had a test-set misclassification of about 21%.





#### Relative influence

```
##
                   var
                          rel.inf
## Chol
                  Chol 14.3442792
## Age
                   Age 13.4646299
## RestBP
                RestBP 13.3681938
## MaxHR
                 MaxHR 13.1003697
## Oldpeak
               Oldpeak 10.2547164
## ChestPain ChestPain 8.9834631
## Ca
                        8.2309151
                    Ca
```

# Change Shrinkage

```
hboost <- gbm(I(AHD=="Yes") ~ ., data=Heart[train,],</pre>
              n.trees=5000,distribution="bernoulli",shrinkage=.2)
boo.hpred <- predict(hboost,newdata=Heart[-train,],</pre>
                      n.trees=5000,type="response")
boo.hpred <- (boo.hpred>0.5)
tt <- table(boo.hpred, Heart[-train,]$AHD)</pre>
t.t.
##
## boo.hpred No Yes
       FALSE 41 12
##
##
       TRUE 11 35
sum(tt[row(tt) != col(tt)])/sum(tt)
## [1] 0.2323232
```