Ensemble and Boosting Algorithms

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Content of this lecture

Ensemble Methods

Bagging

Random Forest

AdaBoost

Gradient Boosting Decision Trees

Content of this lecture

• Ensemble Methods

Bagging

Random Forest

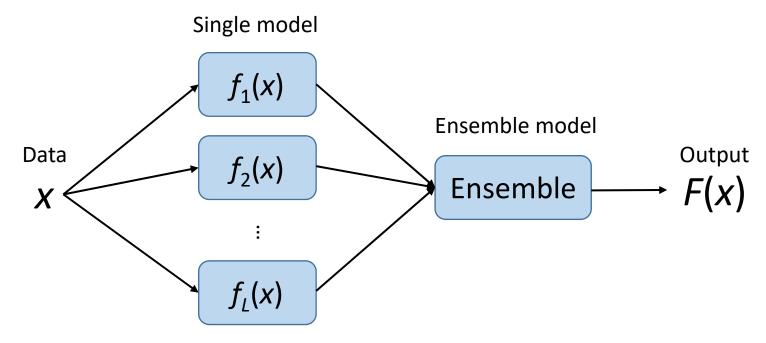
AdaBoost

Gradient Boosting Decision Trees

Ensemble Learning

- Consider a set of predictors $f_1, ..., f_L$
 - Different predictors have different performance across data
- Idea: construct a predictor F(x) that combines the individual decisions of $f_1, ..., f_l$
 - E.g., could have the member predictor vote
 - E.g., could use different members for different region of the data space
 - Works well if the member each has low error rate
- Successful ensembles require diversity
 - Predictors should make different mistakes
 - Encourage to involve different types of predictors

Ensemble Learning



 Although complex, ensemble learning probably offers the most sophisticated output and the best empirical performance!

Practical Application in Competitions

- Netflix Prize Competition
 - Task: predict the user's rating on a movie, given some users' ratings on some movies
 - Called 'collaborative filtering' (we will have a lecture about it later)
- Winner solution
 - BellKor's Pragmatic Chaos an ensemble of more than 800 predictors



Yehuda Koren

Practical Application in Competitions

- KDD-Cup 2011 Yahoo! Music Recommendation
 - Task: predict the user's rating on a music, given some users' ratings on some music
 - With music information like album, artist, genre IDs
- Winner solution
 - From A graduate course of National Taiwan University an ensemble of 221 predictors

A Linear Ensemble of Individual and Blended Models for Music Rating Prediction

Po-Lung Chen, Chen-Tse Tsai, Yao-Nan Chen, Ku-Chun Chou, Chun-Liang Li, Cheng-Hao Tsai, Kuan-Wei Wu, Yu-Cheng Chou, Chung-Yi Li, Wei-Shih Lin, Shu-Hao Yu, Rong-Bing Chiu, Chieh-Yen Lin, Chien-Chih Wang, Po-Wei Wang, Wei-Lun Su, Chen-Hung Wu, Tsung-Ting Kuo, Todd G. McKenzie, Ya-Hsuan Chang, Chun-Sung Ferng, Chia-Mau Ni, Hsuan-Tien Lin, Chih-Jen Lin, Shou-De Lin

{R99922038, R98922028, R99922008, R99922095, B97018, B97705004, B96018, B96115, B96069, B96113, B95076, B97114, B97042, D98922007, B97058, B96110, B96055, D97944007, D97041, B96025, R99922054, B96092, HTLIN, CJLIN, SDLIN}@CSIE.NTU.EDU.TW
Department of Computer Science and Information Engineering,
National Taiwan University

Practical Application in Competitions

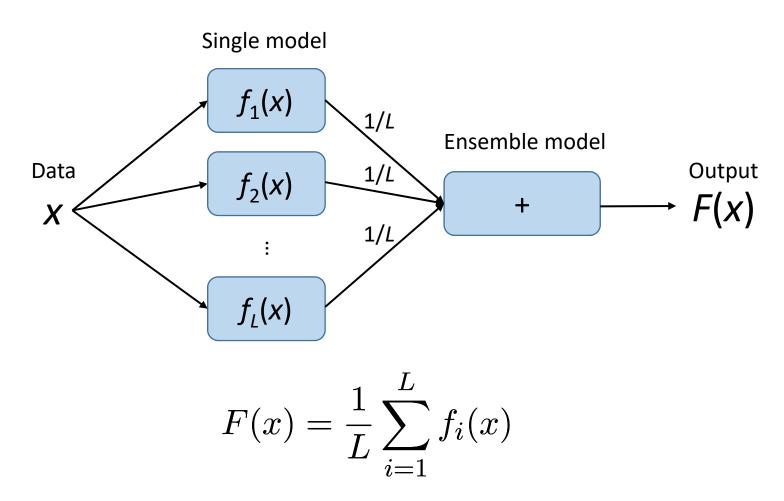
- KDD-Cup 2011 Yahoo! Music Recommendation
 - Task: predict the user's rating on a music, given some users' ratings on some music
 - With music information like album, artist, genre IDs
- 3rd place solution
 - SJTU-HKUST joint team, an ensemble of 16 predictors

Informative Ensemble of Multi-Resolution Dynamic Factorization Models

Tianqi Chen^{*}, Zhao Zheng, Qiuxia Lu, Xiao Jiang, Yuqiang Chen, Weinan Zhang
Kailong Chen and Yong Yu
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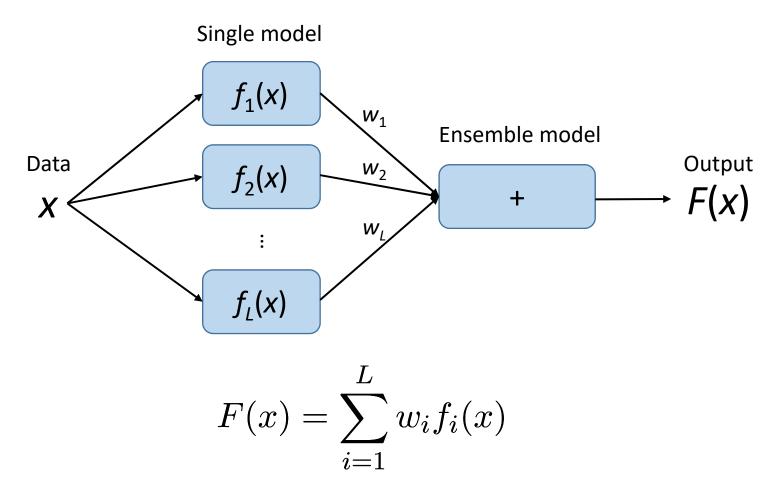
Nathan N. Liu[†], Bin Cao, Luheng He and Qiang Yang Hong Kong University of Science and Technology Clear Water Bay, Hong Kong {nliu,caobin,luhenghe,qyang}@cse.ust.hk

Combining Predictor: Averaging



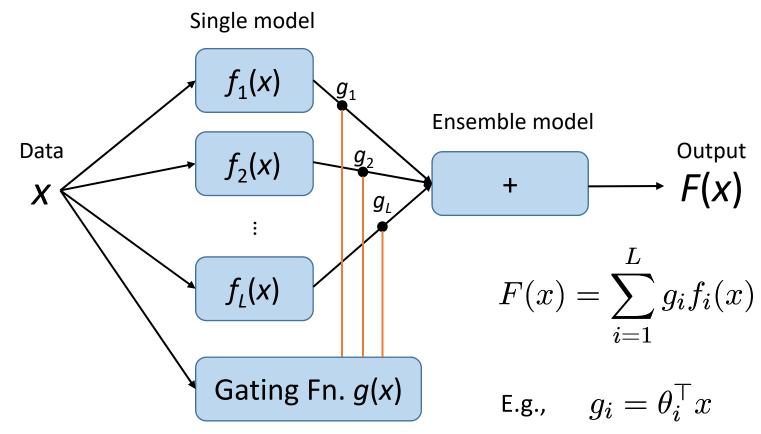
Averaging for regression; voting for classification

Combining Predictor: Weighted Avg



- Just like linear regression or classification
- Note: single model will not be updated when training ensemble model

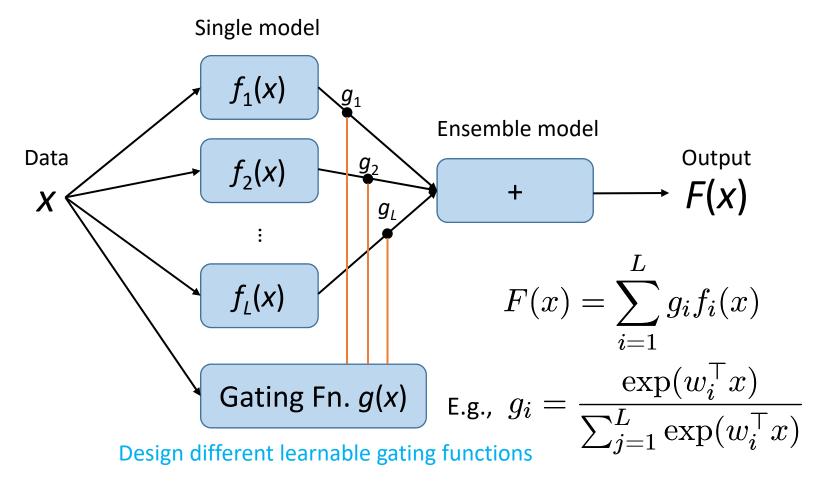
Combining Predictor: Gating



Design different learnable gating functions

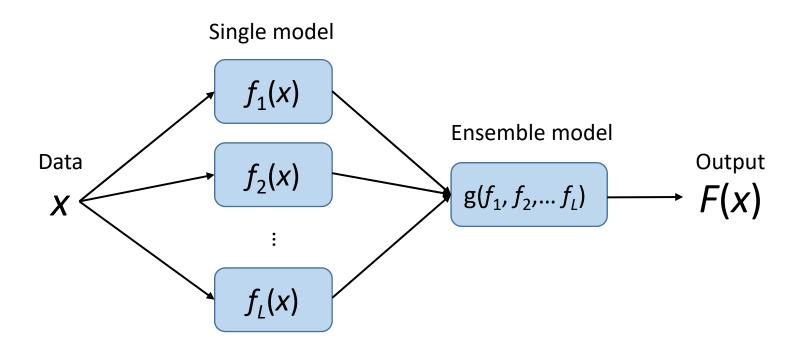
- Just like linear regression or classification
- Note: single model will not be updated when training ensemble model

Combining Predictor: Gating



- Just like linear regression or classification
- Note: single model will not be updated when training ensemble model

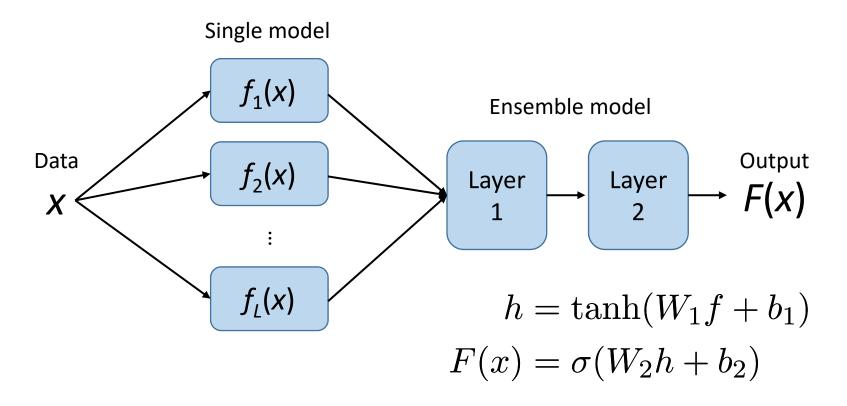
Combining Predictor: Stacking



$$F(x) = g(f_1(x), f_2(x), \dots, f_L(x))$$

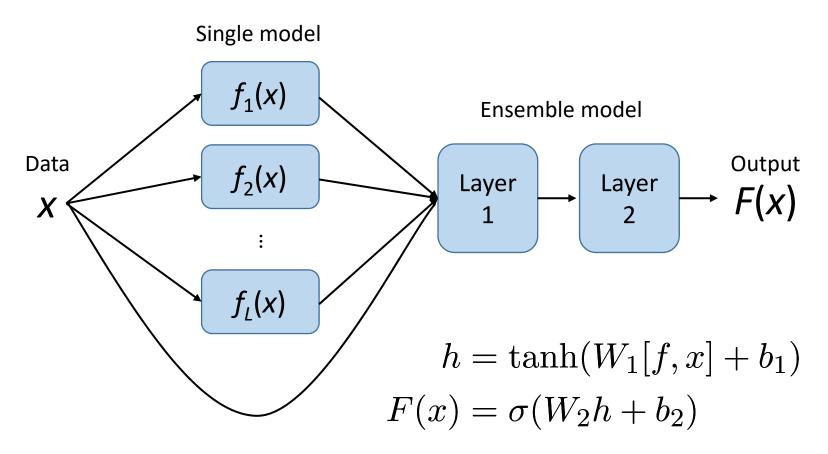
• This is the general formulation of an ensemble

Combining Predictor: Multi-Layer



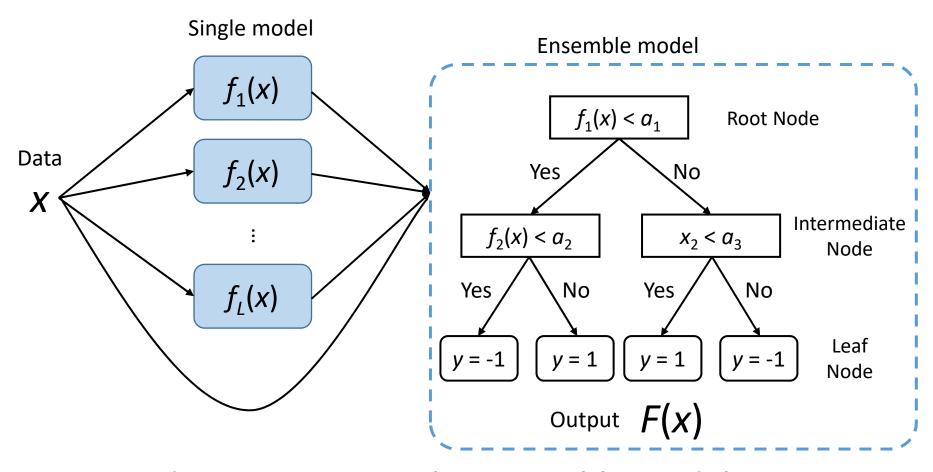
Use neural networks as the ensemble model

Combining Predictor: Multi-Layer



- Use neural networks as the ensemble model
- Incorporate x into the first hidden layer (as gating)

Combining Predictor: Tree Models



- Use decision trees as the ensemble model
- Splitting according to the value of f's and x

Diversity for Ensemble Input

- Successful ensembles require diversity
 - Predictors may make different mistakes
 - Encourage to
 - involve different types of predictors
 - vary the training sets
 - vary the feature sets

Cause of the Mistake	Diversification Strategy
Pattern was difficult	Try different models
Overfitting	Vary the training sets
Some features are noisy	Vary the set of input features

Content of this lecture

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Manipulating the Training Data

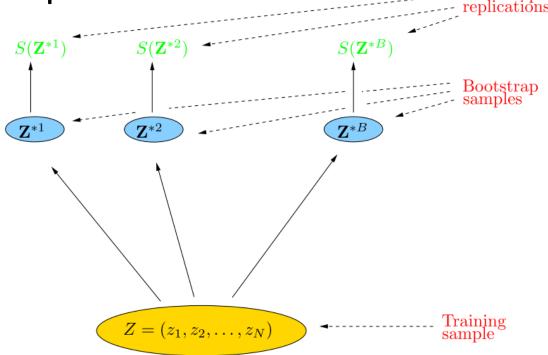
- Bootstrap replication
 - Given n training samples Z, construct a new training set
 Z* by sampling n instances with replacement
 - Excludes about 37% of the training instances

$$P\{\text{observation } i \in \text{bootstrap samples}\} = 1 - \left(1 - \frac{1}{N}\right)^N$$

$$\simeq 1 - e^{-1} = 0.632$$

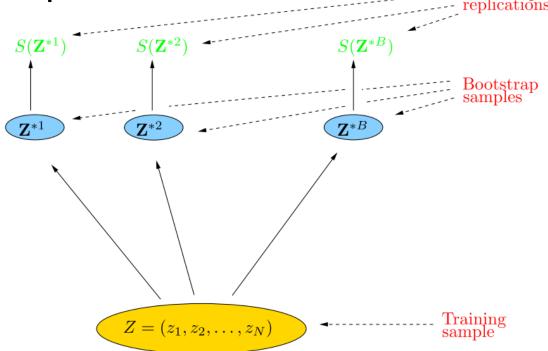
- Bagging (Bootstrap Aggregating)
 - Create bootstrap replicates of training set
 - Train a predictor for each replicate
 - Validate the predictor using out-of-bootstrap data
 - Average output of all predictors

Bootstrap



- Basic idea
 - Randomly draw datasets with replacement from the training data
 - Each replicate with the same size as the training set
 - Evaluate any statistics S() over the replicates
 - For example, variance $\hat{\mathrm{Var}}[S({\bm Z})] = \frac{1}{B-1} \sum_{b=1}^B (S({\bm Z}^{*b}) \bar{S}^*)^2$

Bootstrap



- Basic idea
 - Randomly draw datasets with replacement from the training data
 - Each replicate with the same size as the training set
 - Evaluate any statistics *S*() over the replicates
 - For example, model error

$$\hat{\text{Err}}_{\text{boot}} = \frac{1}{B} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{b=1}^{B} \sum_{i=1}^{N} L(y_i, \hat{f}^{*b}(x_i))$$

Bootstrap for Model Evaluation

 If we directly evaluate the model using the whole training data

$$\hat{\text{Err}}_{\text{boot}} = \frac{1}{B} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{b=1}^{B} \sum_{i=1}^{N} L(y_i, \hat{f}^{*b}(x_i))$$

 As the probability of a data instance in the bootstrap samples is

$$P\{\text{observation } i \in \text{bootstrap samples}\} = 1 - \left(1 - \frac{1}{N}\right)^N$$

$$\simeq 1 - e^{-1} = 0.632$$

- If validate on training data, it is much likely to overfit
 - For example in a binary classification problem where y is indeed independent with x
 - Correct error rate: 0.5
 - Above bootstrap error rate: 0.632*0 + (1-0.632)*0.5=0.184

Leave-One-Out Bootstrap

 Build a bootstrap replicate with one instance i out, then evaluate the model using instance i

$$\hat{\text{Err}}^{(1)} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{1}{|C^{-i}|} \sum_{b \in C^{-i}} L(y_i, \hat{f}^{*b}(x_i))$$

- *C*^{-*i*} is the set of indices of the bootstrap samples *b* that do not contain the instance *i*
- For some instance *i*, the set C^{-i} could be null set, just ignore such cases
- We shall come back to the model evaluation and select in later lectures.

Bootstrap for Model Parameters

• Sec 8.4 of Hastie et al. The elements of statistical learning. 2008.

Bootstrap mean is approximately a posterior average.

Bagging: Bootstrap Aggregating

- Bootstrap replication
 - Given n training samples $Z = \{(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), ..., (x_n, y_n)\},$ construct a new training set Z^* by sampling n instances with replacement
 - Construct B bootstrap samples Z^{*b} , b = 1,2,...,B
 - Train a set of predictors $\hat{f}^{*1}(x), \hat{f}^{*2}(x), \dots, \hat{f}^{*B}(x)$
- Bagging average the predictions

$$\hat{f}_{\text{bag}}(x) = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{b=1}^{B} \hat{f}^{*b}(x)$$

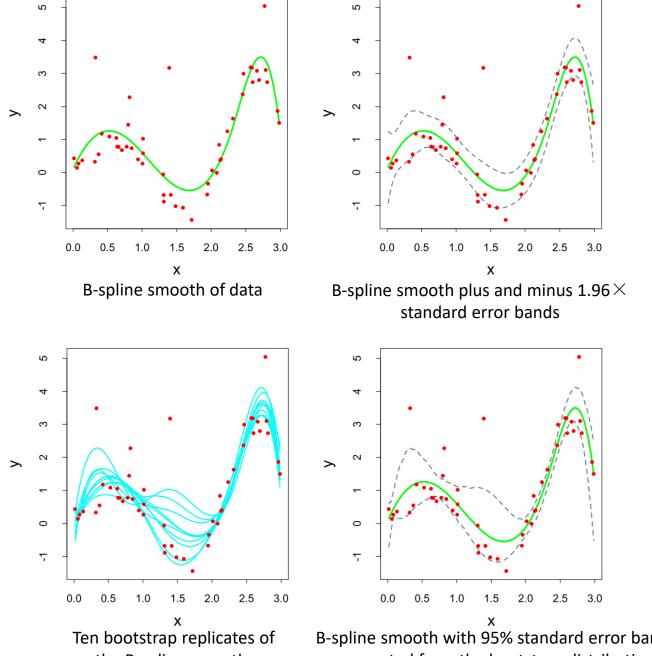
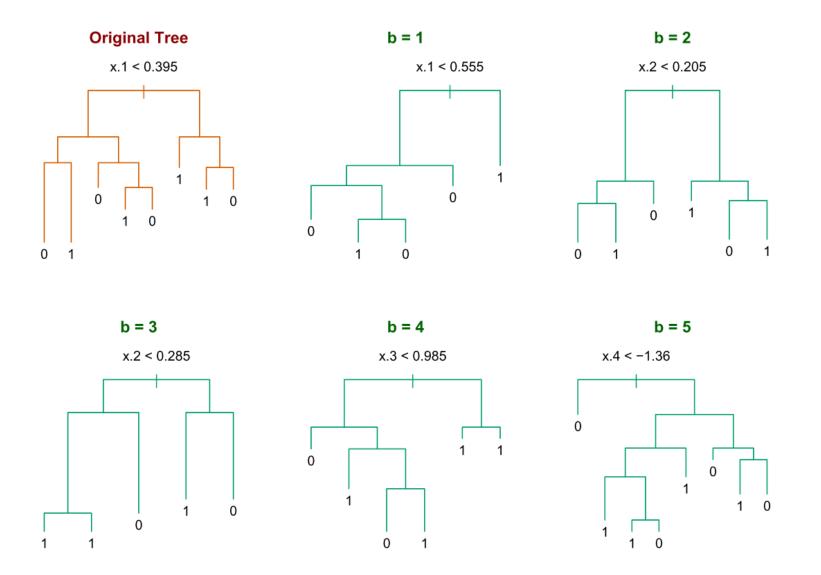


Fig 8.2 of Hastie et al. The elements of statistical learning.

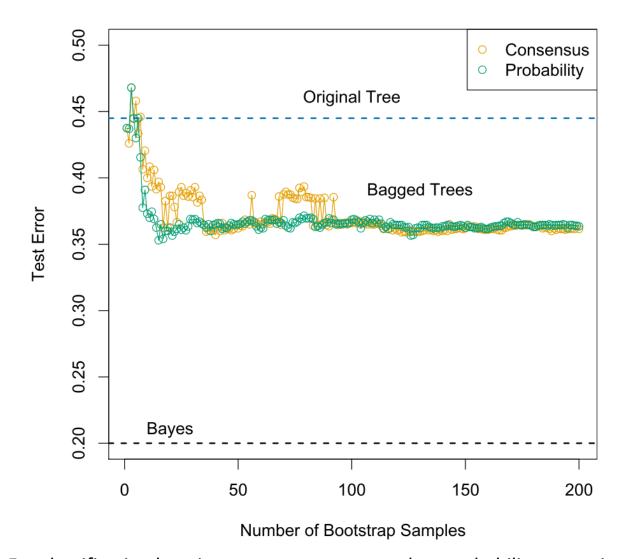
the B-spline smooth.

B-spline smooth with 95% standard error bands computed from the bootstrap distribution



Bagging trees on simulated dataset. The top left panel shows the original tree. 5 trees grown on bootstrap samples are shown. For each tree, the top split is annotated.

Fig 8.9 of Hastie et al. The elements of statistical learning.



For classification bagging, consensus vote vs. class probability averaging

Fig 8.10 of Hastie et al. The elements of statistical learning.

Why Bagging Works

- Bias-Variance Decomposition
 - Assume $Y = f(X) + \epsilon$ where $\mathbb{E}[\epsilon] = 0$ $\mathrm{Var}[\epsilon] = \sigma_\epsilon^2$
 - Then the expected prediction error at an input point x_0

$$\operatorname{Err}(x_0) = \mathbb{E}[(Y - \hat{f}(x_0))^2 | X = x_0]$$

$$= \sigma_{\epsilon}^2 + [\mathbb{E}[\hat{f}(x_0)] - f(x_0)]^2 + \mathbb{E}[\hat{f}(x_0) - \mathbb{E}[\hat{f}(x_0)]]^2$$

$$= \sigma_{\epsilon}^2 + \operatorname{Bias}^2(\hat{f}(x_0)) + \operatorname{Var}(\hat{f}(x_0))$$

- Bagging works by reducing the variance with the same bias as the original model (trained over the whole data)
 - Works especially well based on low-bias and highvariance prediction models

Content of this lecture

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The Problem of Bagging

- Bagging works by reducing the variance with the same bias as the original model (trained over the whole data)
 - Works especially based on low-bias and high-variance prediction models
- If the variables (with variance σ^2) are i.d. (identically distributed but not necessarily independent) with positive correlation ρ , the variance of the average is

$$\rho\sigma^2 + \frac{1-\rho}{B}\sigma^2$$

which reduces to $\rho\sigma^2$ if the bootstrap sample size goes to infinity

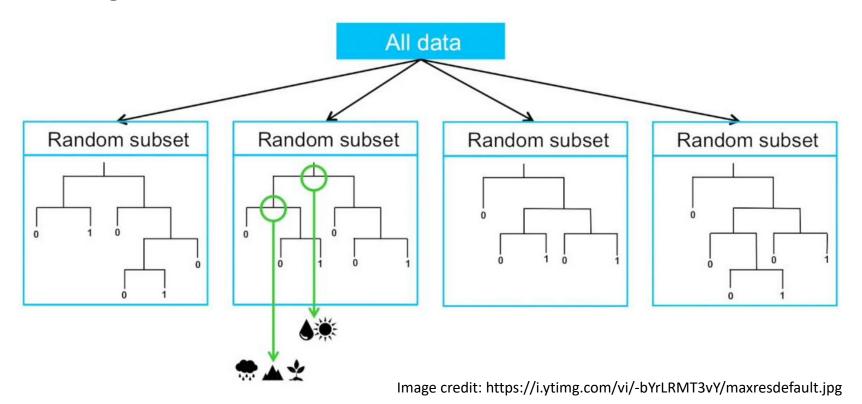
The Problem of Bagging

- Bagging works by reducing the variance with the same bias as the original model (trained over the whole data)
 - Works especially based on low-bias and high-variance prediction models
- Problem: the models trained from bootstrap samples are probably positively correlated

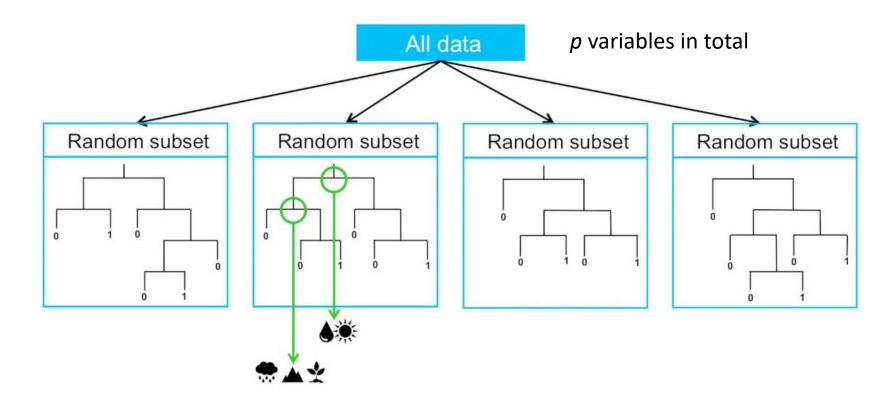
$$\rho\sigma^2 + \frac{1-\rho}{B}\sigma^2$$

Random Forest

- Breiman, Leo. "Random forests." Machine learning 45.1 (2001): 532.
- Random forest is a substantial modification of bagging that builds a large collection of de-correlated trees, and then average them.



Tree De-correlation in Random Forest



- Before each tree node split, select m ≤ p variables at random as candidates of splitting
 - Typically values $\,m=\sqrt{p}\,\,$ or even low as 1

Random Forest Algorithm

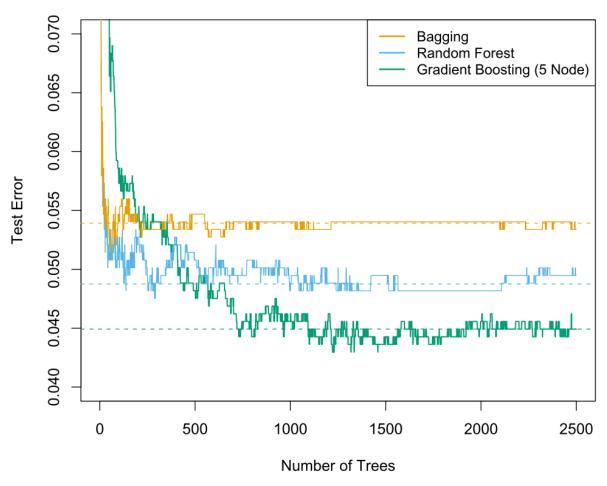
- For b = 1 to B:
 - a) Draw a bootstrap sample Z^* of size n from training data
 - b) Grow a random-forest tree T_b to the bootstrap data, by recursively repeating the following steps for each leaf node of the tree, until the minimum node size is reached
 - I. Select *m* variables at random from the *p* variables
 - II. Pick the best variable & split-point among the *m*
 - III. Split the node into two child nodes
- Output the ensemble of trees $\{T_b\}_{b=1...B}$
- To make a prediction at a new point x

Regression: prediction average
$$\hat{f}_{\mathrm{rf}}^B(x) = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{b=1}^B T_b(x)$$

Classification: majority voting $\hat{C}^B_{\mathrm{rf}}(x) = \mathrm{majority} \ \mathrm{vote} \ \{\hat{C}_b(x)\}_1^B$

Performance Comparison

Spam Data

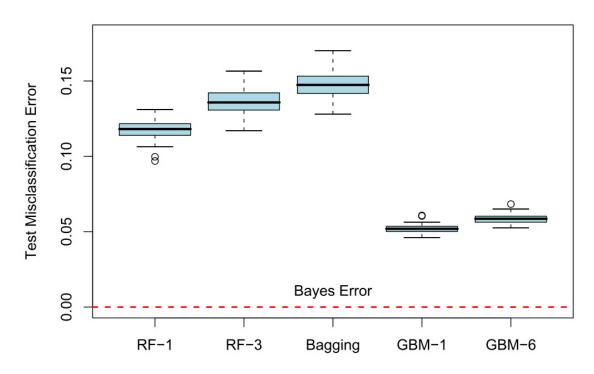


1536 test data instances

Fig. 15.1 of Hastie et al. The elements of statistical learning.

Performance Comparison

Nested Spheres



- Nest spheres data $Y = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \sum_{j=1}^{10} X_j^2 > 9.34 \\ -1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$
- RF-m: m means # of the randomly selected variables for each splitting

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Bagging vs. Random Forest vs. Boosting

 Bagging (bootstrap aggregating) simply treats each predictor trained on a bootstrap set with the same weight

 Random forest tries to de-correlate the bootstraptrained predictors (decision trees) by sampling features

 Boosting strategically learns and combines the next predictor based on previous predictors

Additive Models and Boosting

- Strongly recommend:
 - Friedman, Jerome, Trevor Hastie, and Robert Tibshirani. "Additive logistic regression: a statistical view of boosting." The annals of statistics 28.2 (2000): 337-407.

Additive Models

General form of an additive model

$$F(x) = \sum_{m=1}^{M} f_m(x)$$

For regression problem

$$f_m(x) = \beta_m b(x; \gamma_m)$$
 $F_M(x) = \sum_{m=1}^M \beta_m b(x; \gamma_m)$

Least-square learning of a predictor with others fixed

$$\{\beta_m, \gamma_m\} \leftarrow \arg\min_{\beta, \gamma} \mathbb{E}\left[y - \sum_{k \neq m} \beta_k b(x; \gamma_k) - \beta b(x; \gamma)\right]^2$$

Stepwise least-square learning of a predictor with previous ones fixed

$$\{\beta_m, \gamma_m\} \leftarrow \arg\min_{\beta, \gamma} \mathbb{E}\left[y - F_{m-1}(x) - \beta b(x; \gamma)\right]^2$$

Additive Regression Models

Least-square learning of a predictor with others fixed

$$\{\beta_m, \gamma_m\} \leftarrow \arg\min_{\beta, \gamma} \mathbb{E}\left[y - \sum_{k \neq m} \beta_k b(x; \gamma_k) - \beta b(x; \gamma)\right]^2$$

 Essentially, the additive learning is equivalent with modifying the original data as

$$y_m \leftarrow y - \sum_{k \neq m} f_k(x)$$

Stepwise least-square learning of a predictor with previous ones fixed

$$\{\beta_m, \gamma_m\} \leftarrow \arg\min_{\beta, \gamma} \mathbb{E}\left[y - F_{m-1}(x) - \beta b(x; \gamma)\right]^2$$

 Essentially, the additive learning is equivalent with modifying the original data as

$$y_m \leftarrow y - F_{m-1}(x) = y_{m-1} - f_{m-1}(x)$$

Additive Classification Models

• For binary classification $y = \{1, -1\}$

$$F(x) = \sum_{m=1}^{M} f_m(x)$$

$$P(y = 1|x) = \frac{\exp(F(x))}{1 + \exp(F(x))}$$

$$P(y = -1|x) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(F(x))}$$

The monotone logit transformation

$$\log \frac{P(y=1|x)}{1 - P(y=1|x)} = F(x)$$

AdaBoost

For binary classification, consider minimizing the criterion

$$J(F) = \mathbb{E}[e^{-yF(x)}]$$

[proposed by Schapire and Singer 1998 as an upper bound on misclassification error]

- It is (almost) equivalent with logistic cross entropy loss
 - for y=+1 and -1 label

$$\begin{split} \mathcal{L}(y,x) &= -\frac{1+y}{2} \log \frac{e^{F(x)}}{1+e^{F(x)}} - \frac{1-y}{2} \log \frac{1}{1+e^{F(x)}} \\ &= -\frac{1+y}{2} \Big(F(x) - \log(1+e^{F(x)}) \Big) + \frac{1-y}{2} \log(1+e^{F(x)}) \\ &= -\frac{1+y}{2} F(x) + \log(1+e^{F(x)}) \\ &= \log \frac{1+e^{F(x)}}{e^{\frac{1+y}{2}F(x)}} = \begin{cases} \log(1+e^{F(x)}) & \text{if } y = -1 \\ \log(1+e^{-F(x)}) & \text{if } y = +1 \end{cases} = \log(1+e^{-yF(x)}) \end{split}$$

AdaBoost: an Exponential Criterion

• For binary classification, consider minimizing the criterion

$$J(F) = \mathbb{E}[e^{-yF(x)}]$$

Solution

$$\mathbb{E}[e^{-yF(x)}] = \int \mathbb{E}[e^{-yF(x)}|x]p(x)dx$$

$$\mathbb{E}[e^{-yF(x)}|x] = P(y = 1|x)e^{-F(x)} + P(y = -1|x)e^{F(x)}$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathbb{E}[e^{-yF(x)}|x]}{\partial F(x)} = -P(y = 1|x)e^{-F(x)} + P(y = -1|x)e^{F(x)}$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathbb{E}[e^{-yF(x)}|x]}{\partial F(x)} = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad F(x) = \frac{1}{2}\log\frac{P(y = 1|x)}{P(y = -1|x)}$$

AdaBoost: an Exponential Criterion

Solution

$$\frac{\partial \mathbb{E}[e^{-yF(x)}|x]}{\partial F(x)} = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad F(x) = \frac{1}{2}\log\frac{P(y=1|x)}{P(y=-1|x)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad P(y=1|x) = \frac{e^{2F(x)}}{1+e^{2F(x)}}$$

 Hence, AdaBoost and LR are equivalent up to a factor 2

Discrete AdaBoost $f(x) = \pm 1$

$$f(x) = \pm 1$$

- Criterion $J(F) = \mathbb{E}[e^{-yF(x)}]$
- Current estimate F(x)
- Seek an improved estimate F(x) + cf(x)
- Taylor series

$$f(a+x) = f(a) + \frac{f'(a)}{1!}x + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}x^2 + \frac{f'''(a)}{3!}x^3 + \cdots$$

With second-order Taylor series

$$J(F + cf) = \mathbb{E}[e^{-y(F(x) + cf(x))}]$$

$$\simeq \mathbb{E}[e^{-yF(x)}(1 - ycf(x) + c^2y^2f(x)^2/2)]$$

$$= \mathbb{E}[e^{-yF(x)}(1 - ycf(x) + c^2/2)]$$

Note that $y^2 = 1$ $f(x)^2 = 1$

Discrete AdaBoost

$$f(x) = \pm 1$$

• Criterion $J(F)=\mathbb{E}[e^{-yF(x)}]$ $J(F+cf)\simeq \mathbb{E}[e^{-yF(x)}(1-ycf(x)+c^2/2)]$

Solve f with fixed c

$$f = \arg\min_{f} J(F + cf) = \arg\min_{f} \mathbb{E}[e^{-yF(x)}(1 - ycf(x) + c^{2}/2)]$$
$$= \arg\min_{f} \mathbb{E}_{w}[1 - ycf(x) + c^{2}/2|x]$$
$$= \arg\max_{f} \mathbb{E}_{w}[yf(x)|x] \quad (\text{for } c > 0)$$

where the weighted conditional expectation

$$\mathbb{E}_{w}[yf(x)|x] = \frac{\mathbb{E}[e^{-yF(x)}yf(x)]}{\mathbb{E}[e^{-yF(x)}]}$$

The weight is the normalized error factor $e^{-yF(x)}$ on each data instance

Discrete AdaBoost $f(x) = \pm 1$

$$f(x) = \pm 1$$

Solve f with fixed c

$$f = \arg\min_f J(F+cf) = \arg\max_f \mathbb{E}_w[yf(x)|x] \quad \text{(for } c>0)$$

$$\mathbb{E}_w[yf(x)|x] = \frac{\mathbb{E}[e^{-yF(x)}yf(x)]}{\mathbb{E}[e^{-yF(x)}]} \quad \text{Weighted expectation}$$

- i.e., train an f() with each training data instance weighted proportional to its previous error factor $e^{-yF(x)}$
- Solution

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } \mathbb{E}_w(y|x) = P_w(y=1|x) - P_w(y=-1|x) > 0\\ -1, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Discrete AdaBoost

$$f(x) = \pm 1$$

• Criterion $J(F) = \mathbb{E}[e^{-yF(x)}]$

• Solve *c* with fixed *f*

$$c = \arg\min_{c} J(F + cf) = \arg\min_{c} \mathbb{E}_{w}[e^{-cyf(x)}]$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathbb{E}_w[e^{-cyf(x)}]}{\partial c} = \mathbb{E}_w[-e^{-cyf(x)}yf(x)]$$

$$= \mathbb{E}_w[P(y \neq f(x)) \cdot e^c + (1 - P(y \neq f(x))) \cdot (-e^{-c})]$$

$$= \operatorname{err} \cdot e^c + (1 - \operatorname{err}) \cdot (-e^{-c}) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow c = \frac{1}{2} \log \frac{1 - \operatorname{err}}{\operatorname{err}} \qquad \qquad [\operatorname{err} = \mathbb{E}_w[1_{[y \neq f(x)]}]]$$

The overall error rate of the weighted instances

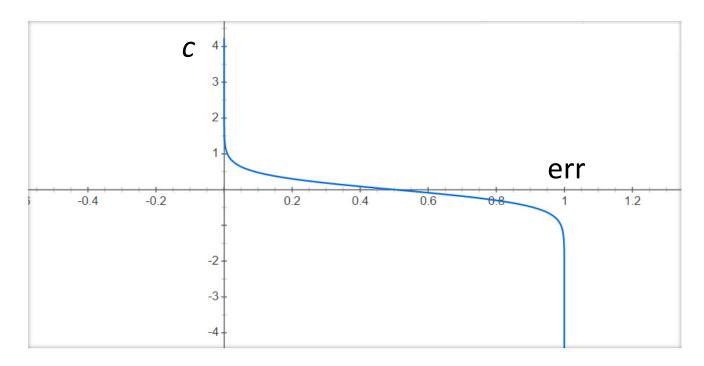
Discrete AdaBoost $f(x) = \pm 1$

$$f(x) = \pm 1$$

- Criterion $J(F) = \mathbb{E}[e^{-yF(x)}]$
- Solve *c* with fixed *f*

$$c = \frac{1}{2} \log \frac{1 - \text{err}}{\text{err}}$$

 $\operatorname{err} = \mathbb{E}_w[1_{[y
eq f(x)]}]$



Discrete AdaBoost

$$f(x) = \pm 1$$

Iteration

train f() with each training data instance weighted proportional to its error factor $e^{-yF(x)}$

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } \mathbb{E}_w(y|x) = P_w(y=1|x) - P_w(y=-1|x) > 0\\ -1, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\operatorname{err} = \mathbb{E}_w[1_{[y \neq f(x)]}]$$

$$F(x) \leftarrow F(x) + \frac{1}{2} \log \frac{1 - \operatorname{err}}{\operatorname{err}} f(x)$$

$$w(x,y) \leftarrow w(x,y)e^{-cf(x)y} = w(x,y)e^{c(2\times 1_{[y\neq f(x)]}-1)}$$
$$= w(x,y)\exp\left(\log\frac{1-\text{err}}{\text{err}}1_{[y\neq f(x)]}-\frac{1}{2}\right)$$

Discrete AdaBoost Algorithm

Discrete AdaBoost [Freund and Schapire (1996b)]

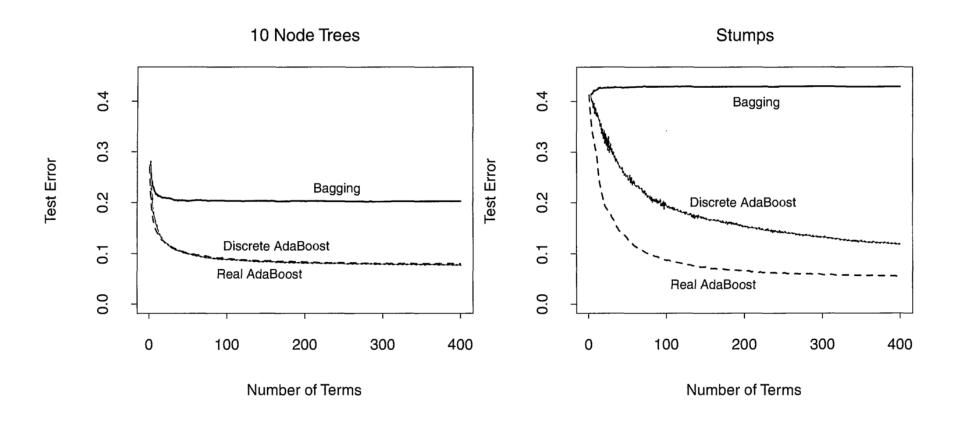
- 1. Start with weights $w_i = 1/N$, i = 1, ..., N.
- 2. Repeat for m = 1, 2, ..., M:
 - (a) Fit the classifier $f_m(x) \in \{-1, 1\}$ using weights w_i on the training data.
 - (b) Compute $\operatorname{err}_m = E_w[1_{(y \neq f_m(x))}], c_m = \log((1 \operatorname{err}_m)/\operatorname{err}_m).$
 - (c) Set $w_i \leftarrow w_i \exp[c_m \mathbf{1}_{(y_i \neq f_m(x_i))}]$, i = 1, 2, ..., N, and renormalize so that $\sum_i w_i = 1$.
- 3. Output the classifier sign[$\sum_{m=1}^{M} c_m f_m(x)$].

Real AdaBoost Algorithm

Real AdaBoost

- 1. Start with weights $w_i = 1/N$, i = 1, 2, ..., N.
- 2. Repeat for m = 1, 2, ..., M:
 - (a) Fit the classifier to obtain a class probability estimate $p_m(x) = \hat{P}_w(y = 1|x) \in [0, 1]$, using weights w_i on the training data.
 - (b) Set $f_m(x) \leftarrow \frac{1}{2} \log p_m(x) / (1 p_m(x)) \in R$.
 - (c) Set $w_i \leftarrow w_i \exp[-y_i f_m(x_i)]$, i = 1, 2, ..., N, and renormalize so that $\sum_i w_i = 1$.
- 3. Output the classifier sign[$\sum_{m=1}^{M} f_m(x)$].
 - Real AdaBoost uses class probability estimates $p_m(x)$ to construct real-valued contributions $f_m(x)$.

Bagging vs. Boosting



Stump: a single-split tree with only two terminal nodes.

LogitBoost

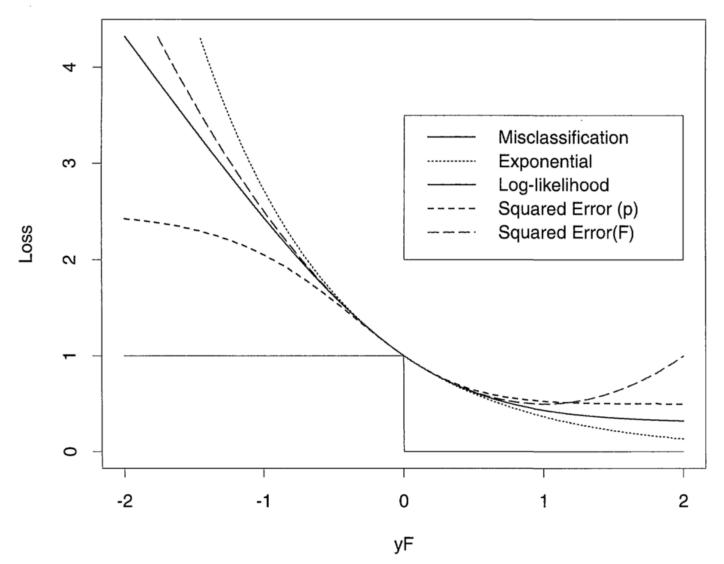
LogitBoost (two classes)

- 1. Start with weights $w_i = 1/N$ i = 1, 2, ..., N, F(x) = 0 and probability estimates $p(x_i) = \frac{1}{2}$.
- 2. Repeat for m = 1, 2, ..., M:
 - (a) Compute the working response and weights

$$z_i = \frac{y_i^* - p(x_i)}{p(x_i)(1 - p(x_i))},$$

 $w_i = p(x_i)(1 - p(x_i)).$

- (b) Fit the function $f_m(x)$ by a weighted least-squares regression of z_i to x_i using weights w_i .
- (c) Update $F(x) \leftarrow F(x) + \frac{1}{2} f_m(x)$ and $p(x) \leftarrow (e^{F(x)})/(e^{F(x)} + e^{-F(x)})$.
- 3. Output the classifier $sign[F(x)] = sign[\sum_{m=1}^{M} f_m(x)]$.
- More advanced than previous version of AdaBoost
- May not discussed in details



• Exponential criterion and log-likelihood (cross entropy) is equivalent on first 2 orders of Taylor series.

A Brief History of Boosting

- 1990 Schapire showed that a weak learner could always improve its performance by training two additional classifiers on filtered versions of the input data stream
 - A weak learner is an algorithm for producing a twoclass classifier with performance guaranteed (with high probability) to be significantly better than a coinflip



Robert Schapire

Specifically

- Classifier h_1 is learned on the original data with N samples
- Classifier h_2 is then learned on a new set of N samples, half of which are misclassified by h_1
- Classifier h_3 is then learned on N samples for which h_1 and h_2 disagree
- The boosted classifier is h_B = Majority Vote(h_1 , h_2 , h_3)
- It is proven h_B has improved performance over h_1

A Brief History of Boosting

- 1995 Freund proposed a "boost by majority" variation which combined many weak learners simultaneously and improved the performance of Schapire's simple boosting algorithm
 - Both two algorithms require the weak learner has a fixed error rate



Yoav Freund

- 1996 Freund and Schapire proposed AdaBoost
 - Dropped the fixed-error-rate requirement
- 1996~1998 Freund, Schapire and Singer proposed some theory to support their algorithms, in the form of the upper bound of generalization error
 - But the bounds are too loose to be of practical importance
 - Boosting achieves far more impressive performance than bounds

Content of this lecture

Ensemble Methods

Bagging

Random Forest

AdaBoost

Gradient Boosting Decision Trees

Gradient Boosting Decision Trees

- Boosting with decision trees
 - $f_m(x)$ is a decision tree model
 - Many aliases such as GBRT, boosted trees, GBM

- Strongly recommend Tianqi Chen's tutorial
 - http://www.52cs.org/?p=429
 - http://homes.cs.washington.edu/~tqchen/data/pdf/B oostedTree.pdf
 - https://xgboost.readthedocs.io/en/latest/model.html



Additive Trees

$$J^{(t)} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} l(y_i, \hat{y}_i^{(t)}) + \Omega(f_t)$$

$$\hat{y}_i^{(t)} = \sum_{m=1}^t f_m(x_i) = \hat{y}_i^{(t-1)} + f_t(x_i)$$

Objective w.r.t.
$$f_t$$
 $J^{(t)} = \sum_{i=1}^n l\Big(y_i, \hat{y}_i^{(t-1)} + f_t(x_i)\Big) + \Omega(f_t)$

• Grow the next tree f_t to minimize the loss function $J^{(t)}$, including the tree penalty $\Omega(f_t)$

$$\min_{f_t} J^{(t)}$$

Taylor Series Approximation

Objective w.r.t.
$$f_t$$
 $J^{(t)} = \sum_{i=1}^n l\Big(y_i, \hat{y}_i^{(t-1)} + f_t(x_i)\Big) + \Omega(f_t)$

Taylor series

$$f(a+x) = f(a) + \frac{f'(a)}{1!}x + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}x^2 + \frac{f'''(a)}{3!}x^3 + \cdots$$

Let's define the gradients

$$g_i = \nabla_{\hat{y}^{(t-1)}} l(y_i, \hat{y}_i^{(t-1)})$$
 $h_i = \nabla_{\hat{y}^{(t-1)}}^2 l(y_i, \hat{y}_i^{(t-1)})$

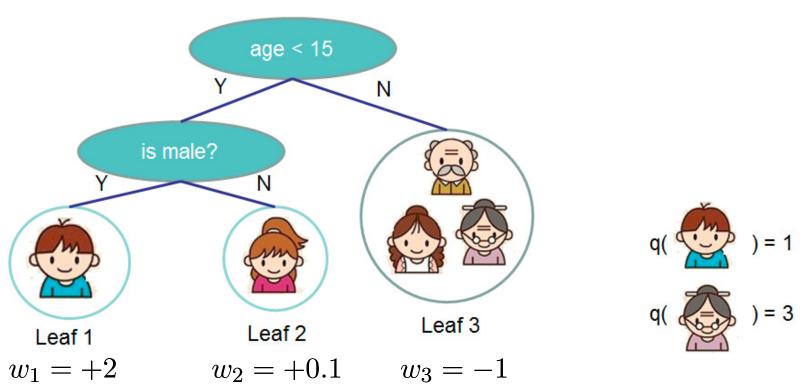
Approximation

$$J^{(t)} \simeq \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[l(y_i, \hat{y}_i^{(t-1)}) + g_i f_t(x_i) + \frac{1}{2} h_i f_t^2(x_i) \right] + \Omega(f_t)$$

Penalty on Tree Complexity

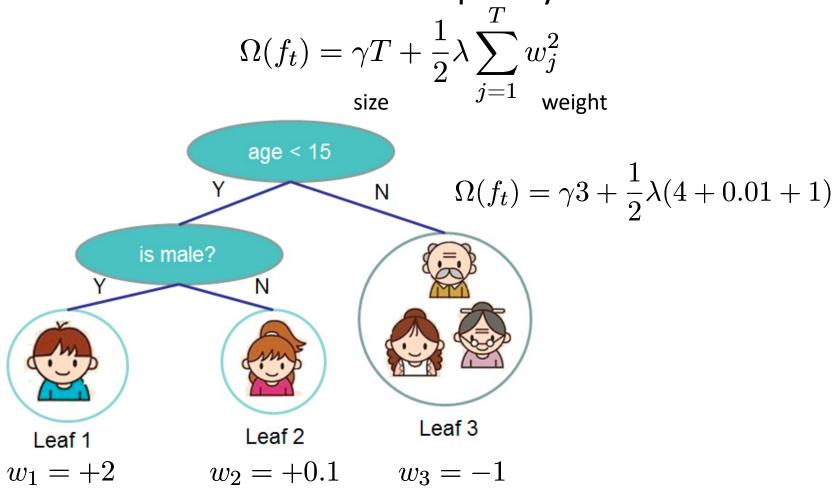
Prediction variety on leaves

$$f_t(x) = w_{q(x)}, \ w \in \mathbb{R}^T, \ q: \mathbb{R}^d \mapsto \{1, 2, \dots, T\}$$
T: # leaves



Penalty on Tree Complexity

We could define the tree complexity as



Rewritten Objective

- With the penalty $\Omega(f_t) = \gamma T + \frac{1}{2}\lambda \sum_{j=1}^{T} w_j^2$
- Objective function

$$J^{(t)} \simeq \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[l(y_i, \hat{y}_i^{(t-1)}) + g_i f_t(x_i) + \frac{1}{2} h_i f_t^2(x_i) \right] + \Omega(f_t)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[g_i f_t(x_i) + \frac{1}{2} h_i f_t^2(x_i) \right] + \gamma T + \frac{1}{2} \lambda \sum_{j=1}^{T} w_j^2 + \text{const}$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{T} \left[\left(\sum_{i \in I_j} g_i \right) w_j + \frac{1}{2} \left(\sum_{i \in I_j} h_i + \lambda \right) w_j^2 \right] + \gamma T + \text{const}$$

Sum over leaves

• I_j is the instance set $\{i \mid q(x_i) = j\}$

$$egin{align} g_i &=
abla_{\hat{y}^{(t-1)}} l(y_i, \hat{y}_i^{(t-1)}) \ h_i &=
abla_{\hat{y}^{(t-1)}}^2 l(y_i, \hat{y}_i^{(t-1)}) \ \end{pmatrix}$$

Rewritten Objective

Objective function

$$J^{(t)} = \sum_{j=1}^{T} \left[\left(\sum_{i \in I_j} g_i \right) w_j + \frac{1}{2} \left(\sum_{i \in I_j} h_i + \lambda \right) w_j^2 \right] + \gamma T$$

• Define for simplicity $G_j = \sum_{i \in I_j} g_i$ $H_j = \sum_{i \in I_j} h_i$

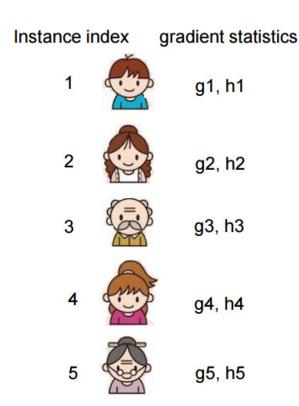
$$J^{(t)} = \sum_{j=1}^{T} [G_j w_j + \frac{1}{2} (H_j + \lambda) w_j^2] + \gamma T$$

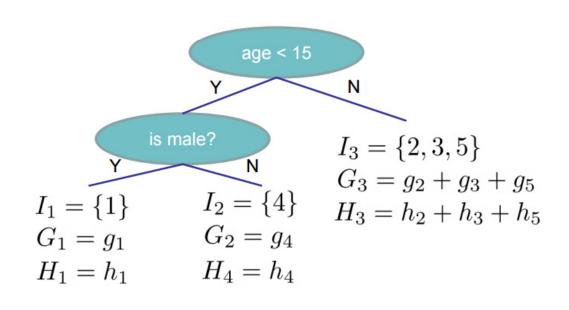
- With the fixed tree structure $q: \mathbb{R}^d \mapsto \{1, 2, \dots, T\}$
- The closed-form solution

$$w_j^* = -\frac{G_j}{H_j + \lambda}$$
 $J^{(t)} = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^T \frac{G_j^2}{H_j + \lambda} + \gamma T$

This measures how good a tree structure is

The Structure Score Calculation





$$J^{(t)} = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{3} \frac{G_j^2}{H_j + \lambda} + \gamma 3$$

The smaller, the better.

Reminder: this is already far from maximizing Gini impurity or information gain

Find the Optimal Tree Structure

Feature and splitting point

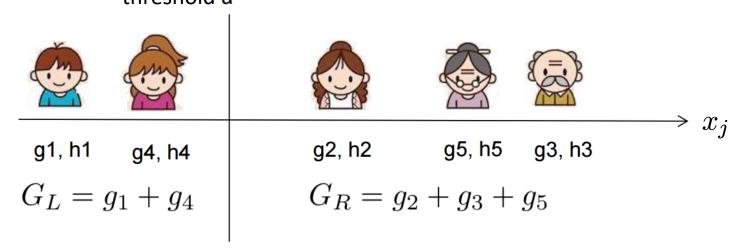
- Greedily grow the tree
 - Start from tree with depth 0
 - For each leaf node of the tree, try to add a split. The change of objective after adding the split is

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Gain} &= \frac{G_L^2}{H_L + \lambda} + \frac{G_R^2}{H_R + \lambda} - \frac{(G_L + G_R)^2}{H_L + H_R + \lambda} - \gamma \\ & \text{left child} & \text{right child} & \text{non-split} & \text{penalty of} \\ & \text{score} & \text{score} & \text{score} & \text{the new} \\ & & \text{leaf} \end{aligned}$$

Introducing a split may not obtain positive gain, because of the last term

Efficiently Find the Optimal Split

 For the selected feature j, we sort the data ascendingly threshold a



All we need is sum of g and h on each side, and calculate

Gain =
$$\frac{G_L^2}{H_L + \lambda} + \frac{G_R^2}{H_R + \lambda} - \frac{(G_L + G_R)^2}{H_L + H_R + \lambda} - \gamma$$

 Left to right linear scan over sorted instance is enough to decide the best split along the feature

An Algorithm for Split Finding

- For each node, enumerate over all features
 - For each feature, sorted the instances by feature value
 - Use a linear scan to decide the best split along that feature
 - Take the best split solution along all the features
- Time Complexity growing a tree of depth K
 - It is $O(n \ d \ K \log n)$: or each level, need $O(n \log n)$ time to sort
 - There are *d* features, and we need to do it for *K* levels
 - This can be further optimized (e.g. use approximation or caching the sorted features)
 - Can scale to very large dataset

XGBoost

The most effective and efficient toolkit for GBDT

Scalable and Flexible Gradient Boosting



https://xgboost.readthedocs.io

T Chen, C Guestrin. XGBoost: A Scalable Tree Boosting System. KDD 2016.