COMP 551 - Applied Machine Learning Lecture 12 — Ensemble methods

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(with slides and content from Joelle Pineau)

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MiniProject 2

- Deadline extended by 12 hours due to Kaggle downtime.
- If you still cannot get >50% on Kaggle, come to my office after class.
 - The likely reason is that you are not loading the test data in the right order. You cannot assume that functions like os.listdir(...) will iterate over files in a fixed order.
 - Examples of correct ways to load the data:

```
def read test1(data path):
 data = []
 folder = "test/"
 for file name in os.listdir(folder):
    with open(os.path.join(folder, file name), 'rb') as f:
      review = f.read().decode('utf-8').replace('\n', '').strip().lower()
      data.append([review, int(file name.split(".")[0])])
  return data
def read test2(data path):
 data = []
 folder = "test/"
 for i in range(25000):
    with open(os.path.join(folder, str(i)+".txt"), 'rb') as f:
      review = f.read().decode('utf-8').replace('\n', '').strip().lower()
      data.append([review, i])
  return data
```

MiniProject 2

- There is no minimum accuracy for Naïve Bayes. It just needs to be a correct implementation.
- YOUR LEARNED MODEL MUST NOT USE ANY INFORMATION FROM THE TEST SET.
 - You obviously need to make predictions on the test set but that is the only interaction with the test set that you should have.
 - Cheating by searching for information about the test set or trying to manually label examples in the test set will result in a grade of 0.
 - The teaching staff has a very good sense of how well different models should perform, so cheating to get better Kaggle results and then trying to present a different model in your report will be easy to catch!!!

Next topic: Ensemble methods

- Recently seen supervised learning methods:
 - Logistic regression, Naïve Bayes, LDA/QDA
 - Decision trees, Instance-based learning
 - SVMs

 Now we will discuss the idea of how we can combine the output of different models, an idea called ensembling.

Ensemble learning in general

- Key idea: Run base learning algorithm(s) multiple times, then combine the predictions of the different learners to get a final prediction.
 - What's a base learning algorithm? Naïve Bayes, LDA, Decision trees, SVMs, ...
- Option 1 (Bagging): Construct K independent models by training the same base learning algorithm on different subsets of the training data.
- Option 2 (Boosting): Incrementally train K models, where each successive model tries to fix the mistakes of the previous models.

 Option 3 (Stacking): Train K different models and combine their output using a "meta-classifier".

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- Option 1 (Bagging): Construct K independent models by training the same base learning algorithm on different subsets of the training data.
- Option 2 (Boosting): Incrementally train K models, where each successive model tries to fix the mistakes of the previous models.
 - Generally assume that the same base learning algorithm is used to construct all models in the ensemble.
- Option 3 (Stacking): Train K different models and combine their output using a "meta-classifier".

Bootstrapping

• Given dataset D, construct a bootstrap replicate of D, called D_k , which has the same number of examples, by drawing samples from D with replacement.

- Use the learning algorithm to construct a hypothesis h_k by training on D_k .
- Compute the prediction of h_k on each of the remaining points, from the set $T_k = D D_k$.
- Repeat this process B times, where B is typically a few hundred.

Similar to cross-validation but using random sampling with replacement.

Estimating bias and variance

- In general, bootstrapping is useful for computing sound statistical estimates of the bias and variance for our model.
- For each point \mathbf{x} , we have a set of estimates $\mathbf{h}_1(\mathbf{x})$, ..., $\mathbf{h}_K(\mathbf{x})$, with $\mathbf{K} \leq \mathbf{B}$ (since \mathbf{x} might not appear in some replicates).
- The average empirical prediction of **x** is: $\hat{\mathbf{h}}(\mathbf{x}) = (1/K) \sum_{k=1:K} \mathbf{h}_k(\mathbf{x})$.
- We estimate the bias as: $y \hat{h}(x)$.
- We estimate the variance as: $(1/(K-1))\sum_{k=1:K} (\hat{h}(x) h_k(x))^2$.

Bagging: Bootstrap aggregation

- If we did all the work to get the hypotheses h_k , why not use all of them to make a prediction? (as opposed to just estimating bias/variance/error).
- All hypotheses get to have a vote.
 - For classification: pick the majority class.
 - For regression, average all the predictions.
- Which hypotheses classes would benefit most from this approach?

Bagging

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 - We estimate the variance as: $(1/(K-1)) \sum_{k=1:K} (\hat{h}(x) h_k(x))^2$.
- In theory, bagging eliminates variance altogether.
- In practice, bagging tends to reduce variance and increase bias.
- Use this with "unstable" learners that have high variance, e.g., decision trees or nearest-neighbours.

Random forests (Breiman)

- Basic algorithm:
 - Use K bootstrap replicates to train K different trees.
 - At each node, pick m variables at random (use m < M, the total number of features).
 - Determine the best test (using normalized information gain).
 - Recurse until the tree reaches maximum depth (no pruning).

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Comments:

- Each tree has high variance, but the ensemble uses averaging, which reduces variance.
- Random forests are very competitive in both classification and regression, but still subject to overfitting.

Extremely randomized trees

(Geurts et al., 2005)

- Basic algorithm:
 - Construct K decision trees.
 - Pick m attributes at random (without replacement) and pick a random test involving each attribute.
 - Evaluate all tests (using a normalized information gain metric) and pick the best one for the node.
 - Continue until a desired depth or a desired number of instances (n_{min}) at the leaf is reached.

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 - Evaluate all tests (using a normalized information gain metric) and pick the best one for the node.
 - Continue until a desired depth or a desired number of instances (n_{min}) at the leaf is reached.
- Comments:
 - Very reliable method for both classification and regression.
 - The smaller m is, the more randomized the trees are; small m is best, especially with large levels of noise. Small n_{min} means less bias and more variance, but variance is controlled by averaging over trees.

Randomization in general

- Instead of searching very hard for the best hypothesis, generate lots of random ones, then average their results.
- Examples: Random feature selection, random projections of continuous data, ...
- Advantages?

Disadvantages?

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- Advantages?
 - Very fast, easy, can handle lots of data.
 - Can circumvent difficulties in optimization.
 - Averaging reduces the variance introduced by randomization.
- Disadvantages?

Randomization in general

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- Examples: Random feature selection, random projections of continuous data, ...
- Advantages?
 - Very fast, easy, can handle lots of data.
 - Can circumvent difficulties in optimization.
 - Averaging reduces the variance introduced by randomization.
- Disadvantages?
 - New prediction may be more expensive to evaluate (go over all trees).
 - Still typically subject to overfitting.
 - Low interpretability (e.g., compared to standard decision trees).

Incrementally constructing an ensemble

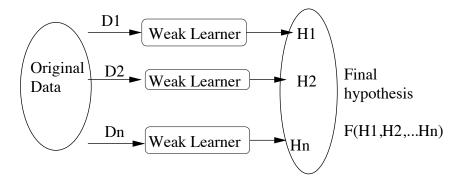
 In an ensemble, the output on any instance is computed by combining the outputs of several hypotheses.

- Idea: Don't construct the hypotheses independently. Instead, new hypotheses should focus on instances that are problematic for existing hypotheses.
 - If an example is difficult, more components should focus on it.

Boosting

Basic algorithm:

- Use the training set to train a simple predictor.
- Re-weight the training examples, putting more weight on examples that were not properly classified in the previous predictor.
- Repeat n times.
- Combine the simple hypotheses into a single, accurate predictor.



Notation

- Assume that examples are drawn independently from some probability distribution P on the set of possible data D.
- Let $J_P(h)$ be the expected error of hypothesis h when data is drawn from P:

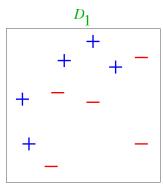
$$J_{P}(h) = \sum_{\langle x,y \rangle \in D} J(h(x),y) P(\langle x,y \rangle)$$

where J(h(x),y) could be the squared error, or 0/1 loss.

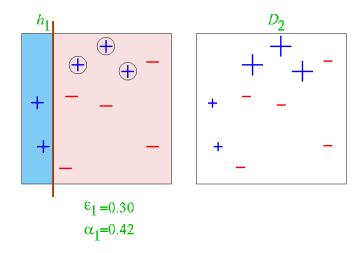
Weak learners

- Assume we have some "weak" binary classifiers:
 - A decision stump is a single node decision tree: x_i>t
 - A single feature Naïve Bayes classifier.
 - A 1-nearest neighbour classifier.
- "Weak" means $J_P(h) < 1/2 \gamma$ (assuming 2 classes), where $\gamma > 0$
 - So true error of the classifier is only slightly better than random.
- Questions:
 - How do we re-weight the examples?
 - How do we combine many simple predictors into a single classifier?

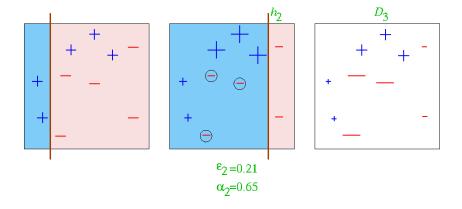
Example



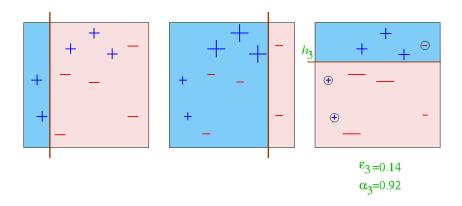
Example: First step



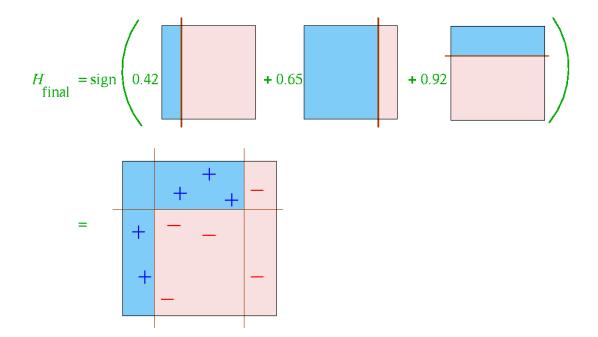
Example: Second step



Example: Third step



Example: Final hypothesis



```
Given: (x_1, y_1), ..., (x_m, y_m) where x_i \in X, y_i \in Y = \{-1, +1\}
Initialize D_1(i) = 1/m.
For t = 1, ..., T:
```

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- Train weak learner using distribution D_t .
- Get weak hypothesis $h_t: X \to \{-1, +1\}$ with error

$$\epsilon_t = \Pr_{i \sim D_t} \left[h_t(x_i) \neq y_i \right].$$

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• Choose
$$\alpha_t = \frac{1}{2} \ln \left(\frac{1 - \epsilon_t}{\epsilon_t} \right)$$
. weight of weak learner t

Given: $(x_1, y_1), ..., (x_m, y_m)$ where $x_i \in X, y_i \in Y = \{-1, +1\}$ Initialize $D_1(i) = 1/m$. For t = 1, ..., T:

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- Choose $\alpha_t = \frac{1}{2} \ln \left(\frac{1 \epsilon_t}{\epsilon_t} \right)$. weight of weak learner t
- Update:

$$D_{t+1}(i) = \frac{D_t(i)}{Z_t} \times \begin{cases} e^{-\alpha_t} & \text{if } h_t(x_i) = y_i \\ e^{\alpha_t} & \text{if } h_t(x_i) \neq y_i \end{cases}$$
$$= \frac{D_t(i) \exp(-\alpha_t y_i h_t(x_i))}{Z_t}$$

where Z_t is a normalization factor (chosen so that D_{t+1} will be a distribution).

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Output the final hypothesis:

$$H(x) = \operatorname{sign}\left(\sum_{t=1}^{T} \alpha_t h_t(x)\right).$$

Won the Gödel Prize in 2003.

Properties of AdaBoost

- Compared to other boosting algorithms, main insight is to automatically adapt the error rate at each iteration.
- Training error on the final hypothesis is at most:

$$\prod_{t} \left[2\sqrt{\epsilon_t (1 - \epsilon_t)} \right] = \prod_{t} \sqrt{1 - 4\gamma_t^2} \le \exp\left(-2\sum_{t} \gamma_t^2 \right)$$

recall: $y_t = how much better than random is h_t$

AdaBoost gradually reduces the training error exponentially fast.

Why does boosting work?

Why does boosting work?

 Weak learners have high bias. By combining them, we get more expressive classifiers. Hence, boosting is a bias-reduction technique.

Why does boosting work?

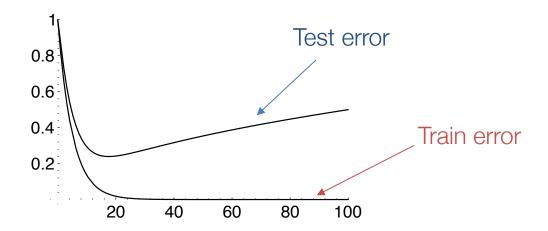
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 Adaboost looks for a good approximation to the log-odds ratio, within the space of functions that can be captured by a linear combination of the base classifiers.

What happens as we run boosting longer? Intuitively, we get more and more complex hypotheses. How would you expect bias and variance to evolve over time?

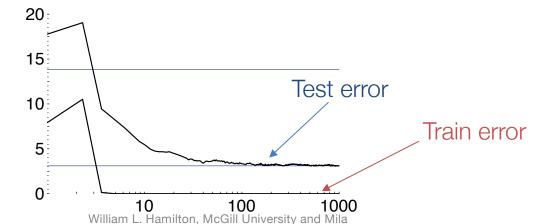
A naïve (but reasonable) analysis of error

- Expect the training error to continue to drop (until it reaches 0).
- Expect the test error to increase as we get more voters, and \mathbf{h}_{f} becomes too complex.



Actual typical run of AdaBoost

- Test error does not increase even after 1000 runs! (more than 2 million decision nodes!)
- Test error continues to drop even after training error reaches 0!
- These are consistent results through many sets of experiments!
- Conjecture: Boosting does not overfit!



Bagging vs Boosting

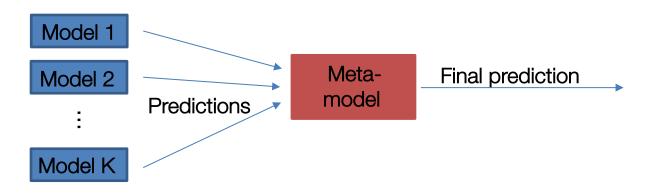
- Bagging is typically faster, but may get a smaller error reduction (not by much).
- Bagging works well with "reasonable" classifiers.
- Boosting works with very simple classifiers.
 - E.g., Boostexter text classification using decision stumps based on single words.
- Boosting may have a problem if a lot of the data is mislabeled, because it will focus on those examples a lot, leading to overfitting.

Stacking

- Both bagging and boosting assume we have a single "base learning" algorithm.
- But what if we want to ensemble an arbitrary set of classifiers?
 - E.g., combine the output of a SVM, naïve Bayes, and a nearest neighbor model?

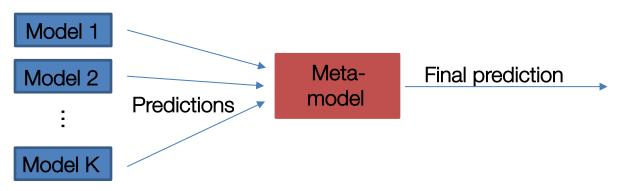
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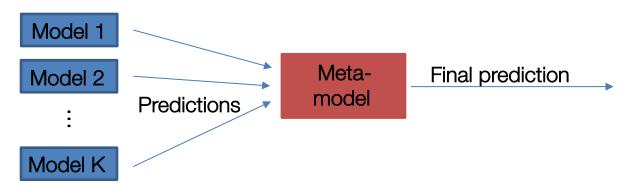
Stacking

- Train K distinct base models, h_k , k=1...K, on the training set $\langle x_i, y_i \rangle$, i=1...n
- Make a new training set where the new features are the predictions of the base models: $\langle h_1(\mathbf{x_i}), h_2(\mathbf{x_i}), ..., h_K(\mathbf{x_i}), y_i \rangle$, i=1...n
 - (Can also add the original feature information, x_i , to the new training set)
- Train a meta-model m on this new training set.
 - (Possibly train multiple meta-models and repeat the process.)



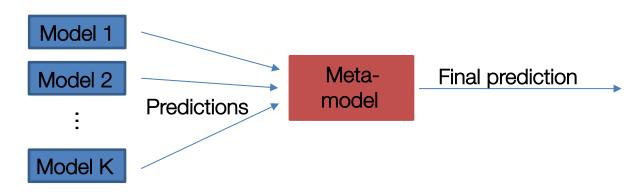
Meta-model

- What is the meta-model? Any supervised model will work!
- Common choices:
 - Averaging (for regression tasks)
 - Majority vote (for classification tasks)
 - Linear regression (for regression tasks)
 - Logistic regression (for classification tasks)



When does stacking work?

- Stacking works best when the base models have complimentary strengths and weaknesses (i.e., different inductive biases).
- For example: combining k-nearest neighbor models with different k-values, Naïve Bayes, and logistic regression. Each of these models has different underlying assumptions so (hopefully) they will be complimentary.



What you should know

- Ensemble methods combine several hypotheses into one prediction.
- They work better than the best individual hypothesis from the same class because they reduce bias or variance (or both).
- Bagging is mainly a variance-reduction technique, useful for complex hypotheses.
- Boosting focuses on harder examples, and gives a weighted vote to the hypotheses.
- Boosting works by reducing bias and increasing classification margin.
- Stacking is a generic approach to ensemble various models and performs very well in practice.