Classification algorithms

Hoeffding Tree*

* Also known as Very Fast Decision Tree (VFDT)

Goal: Grow a decision tree incrementally

This means that after every new training instance, the tree may grow

Key question: When should a split happen?

Hypothesis: A small sample is often enough to choose a near optimal split decision

Hoeffding Bound

It is a <u>statistical inequality</u> that provides a <u>theoretical</u> guarantee on the convergence of sample averages to the true mean with a high probability

In other words, the **Hoeffding Bound** helps in determining whether **the observed differences in the attributes' merit** (purity) are statistically significant or merely due to random variation

Hoeffding Bound

When should we split a node?

Let X_1 and X_2 be the top 2 most informative attributes*

Is X_1 a stable option?

Hoeffding bound, split on X_1 if $G(X_1) - G(X_2) > \epsilon$

Where G(*) is a purity measure (e.g. Gini index, Information gain)

Hoeffding Bound

When should we split a node?

Let X_1 and X_2 be the top 2 most informative attributes*

$$\epsilon = \sqrt{\frac{R^2 \ln 1/\delta}{2n}}$$

Is X_1 a stable option?

Hoeffding bound, split on X_1 if $G(X_1) - G(X_2) > \epsilon$

Where G(*) is a purity measure (e.g. Gini index, Information gain)

R = Range of observed random variable

 δ = The desired probability of the estimate not being within ϵ of its expected value

n =Number of observed instances

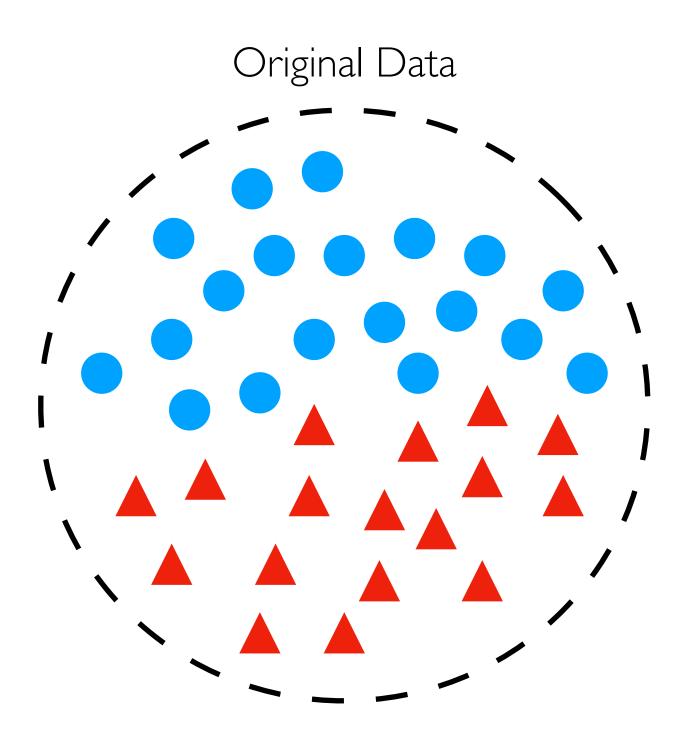
Hoeffding Tree wrap-up

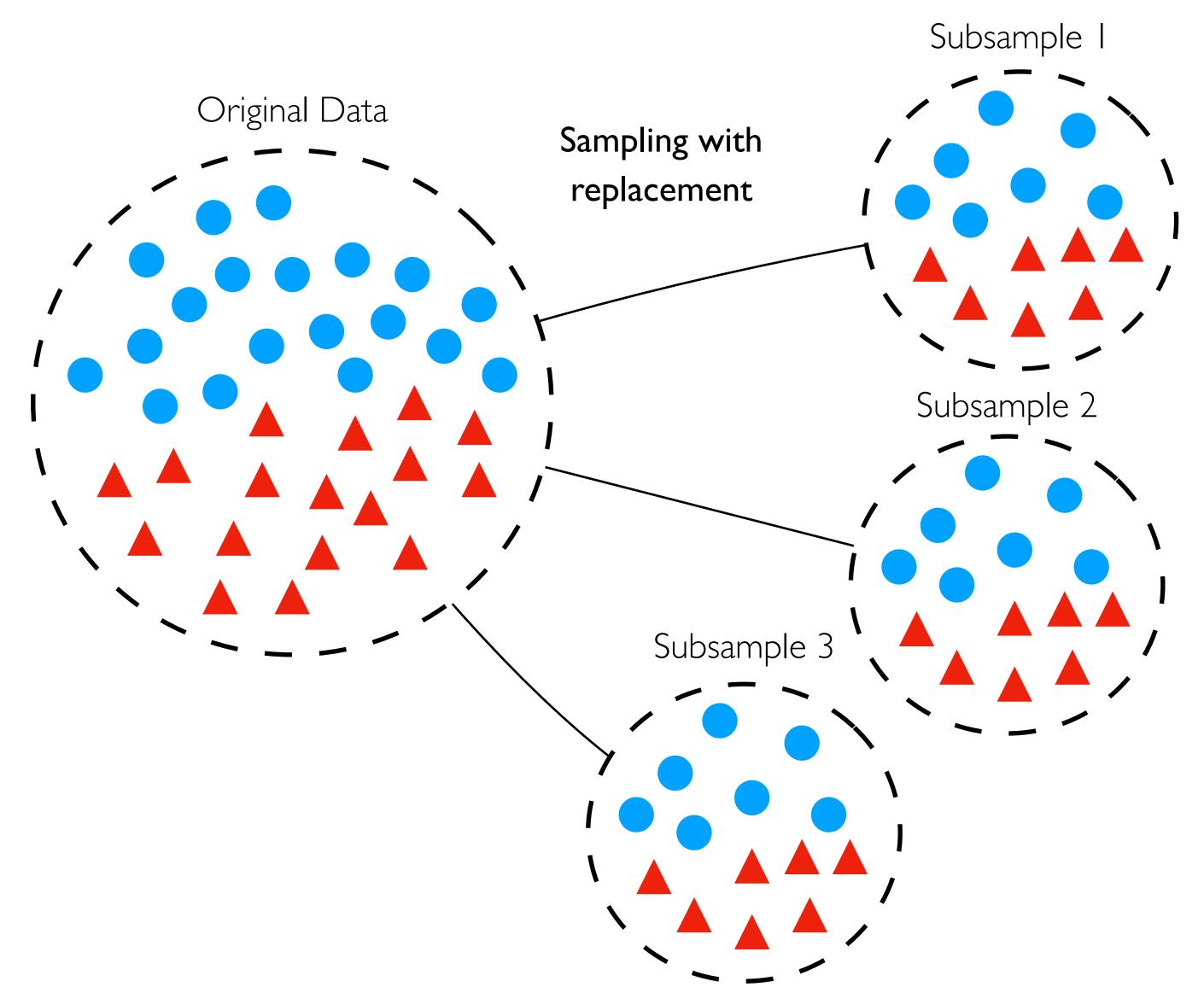
- ϵ decreases with n (or the more instances observed)
- HT builds a tree that converges to the tree built by a batch learner given sufficiently large data
- A grace period can be used to avoid "splitting too fast"
- There are better options w.r.t. theoretical guarantees (See McDiarmid Trees*), but HTs still works well in practice

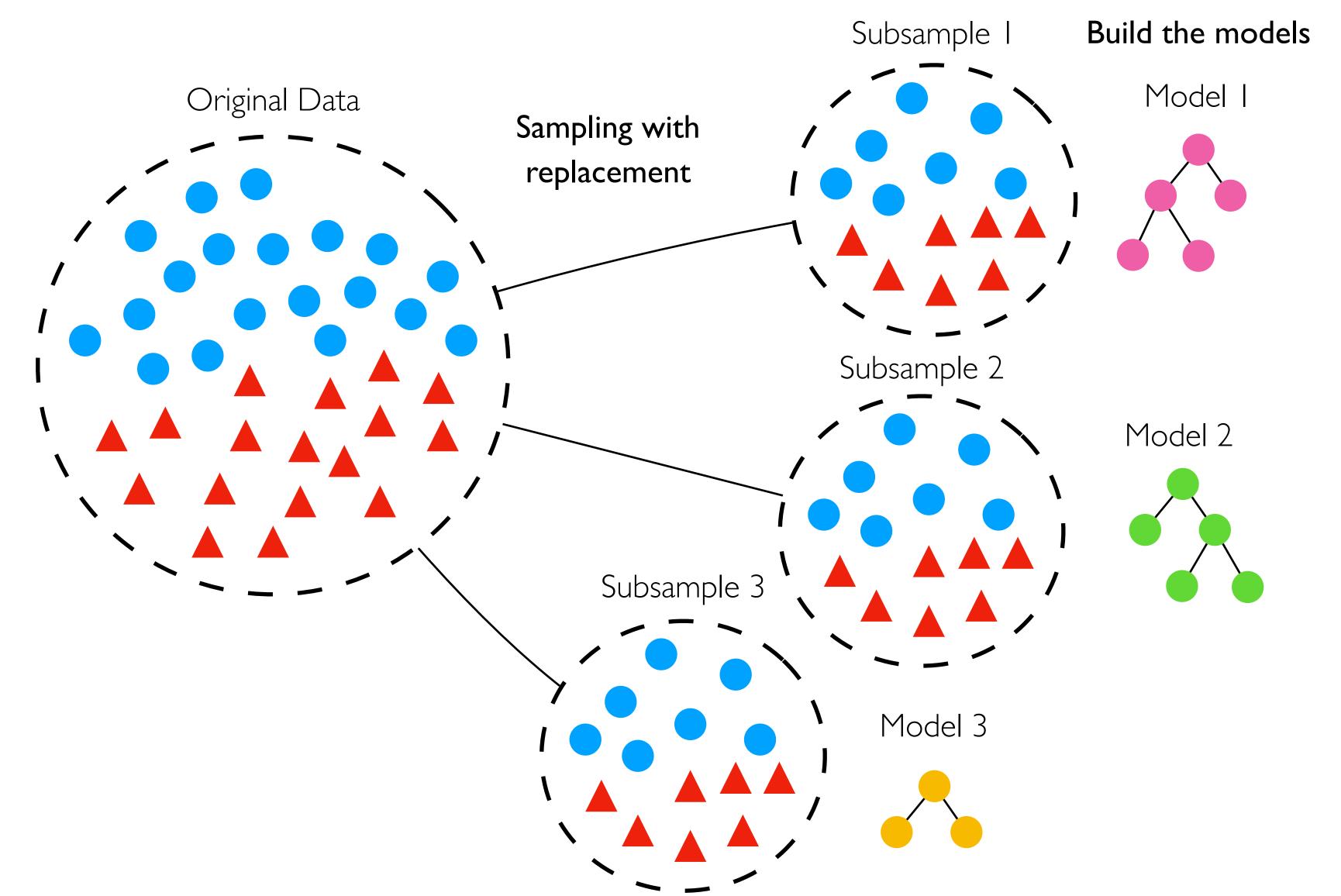
Bootstrap Aggregating

Bagging trains each model of the ensemble with a bootstrap sample from the original dataset.

Every bootstrap contains each original sample **K** times, where **Pr(K=k)** follows a binomial distribution.







On average for each subsample:

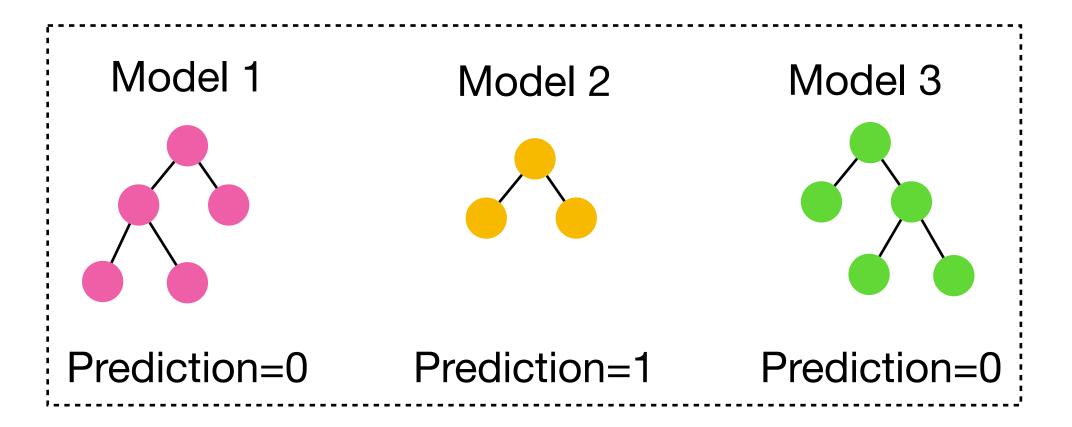
~64% of the instances are from the original dataset

~37% are repeated instances

~37% of the original instances are not present*

The **predictions** of each learner are **aggregated** using majority vote to obtain the final prediction.

Prediction for a given instance X...



Ensemble
Prediction=0

Online Bagging

- We cannot apply Bagging directly to data streams...
- Unfeasible to store all data before creating each bootstrap subsample

We need to build the subsamples online

Online Bagging

- Given a dataset with N samples
- In Bagging, every bootstrap contains each original sample
 K times, where Pr(K=k) follows a binomial distribution
- Oza and Russel found out that for large N, the binomial distribution tends to a Poisson(1) distribution
- Online Bagging instead of sampling with replacement, gives each example a weight according to Poisson(1) distribution

Online Bagging

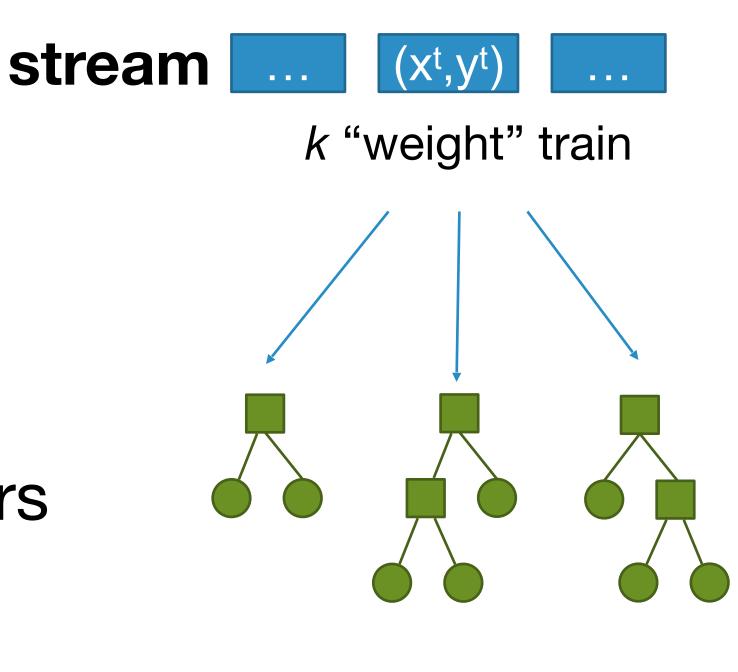
```
k \leftarrow Poisson(\lambda=1)

if k > 0 then

l \leftarrow FindLeaf(t,x)

UpdateLeafCounts(l,x,k)
```

Practical effect: train learners with different subsets of instances.



Subsamples

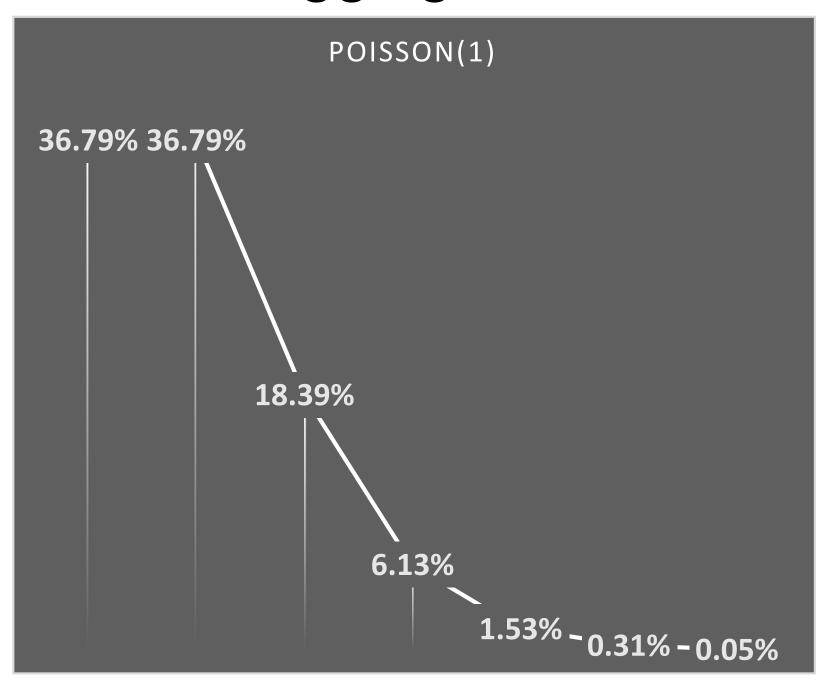
Batch bagging

~64% from the original dataset

~37% are repeated

~37% are not present

Online bagging



$$k = 0$$
 1 2 3 4 5 6 ...

Adaptive Random Forest (ARF)

Streaming version of the original Random Forest by Breiman

Uses a variation of the Hoeffding Tree

Main differences:

Bootstrap aggregation and the base learner

Overview:

- 1. Online bagging
- 2. Random subset of features
- 3. Drift detector for each tree

Breiman, L. (2001). Random forests. Machine learning.

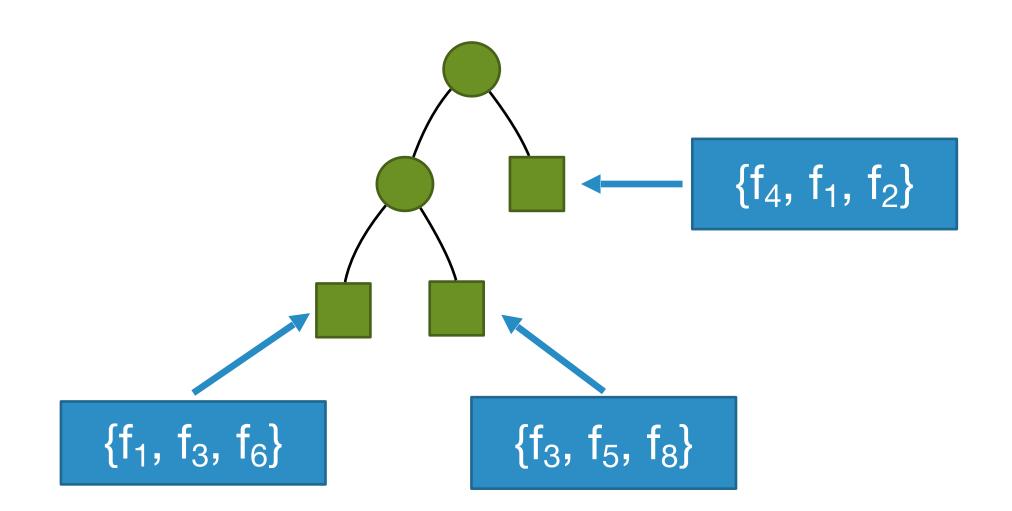
ARF: Drift Detection and Adaptation

- One Warning and one Drift detector per base model
- Relies on the Adaptive WINdow (ADWIN) algorithm for detection (other algorithms could be used)
- **Background learners** are started once a warning is detected, their subspace of features may not correspond to the subspace of features used by the "foreground" learner.
- Once a drift is detected, the *background* learner replaces the *"foreground"* learner.

Randomizing the feature set

Local randomization

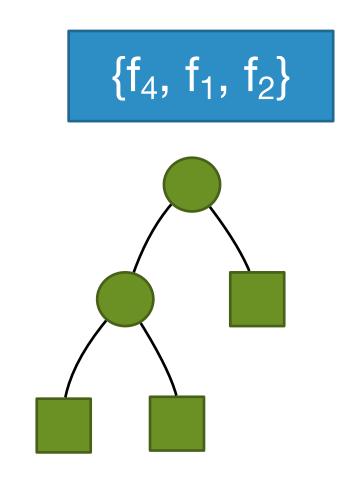
Random Forest



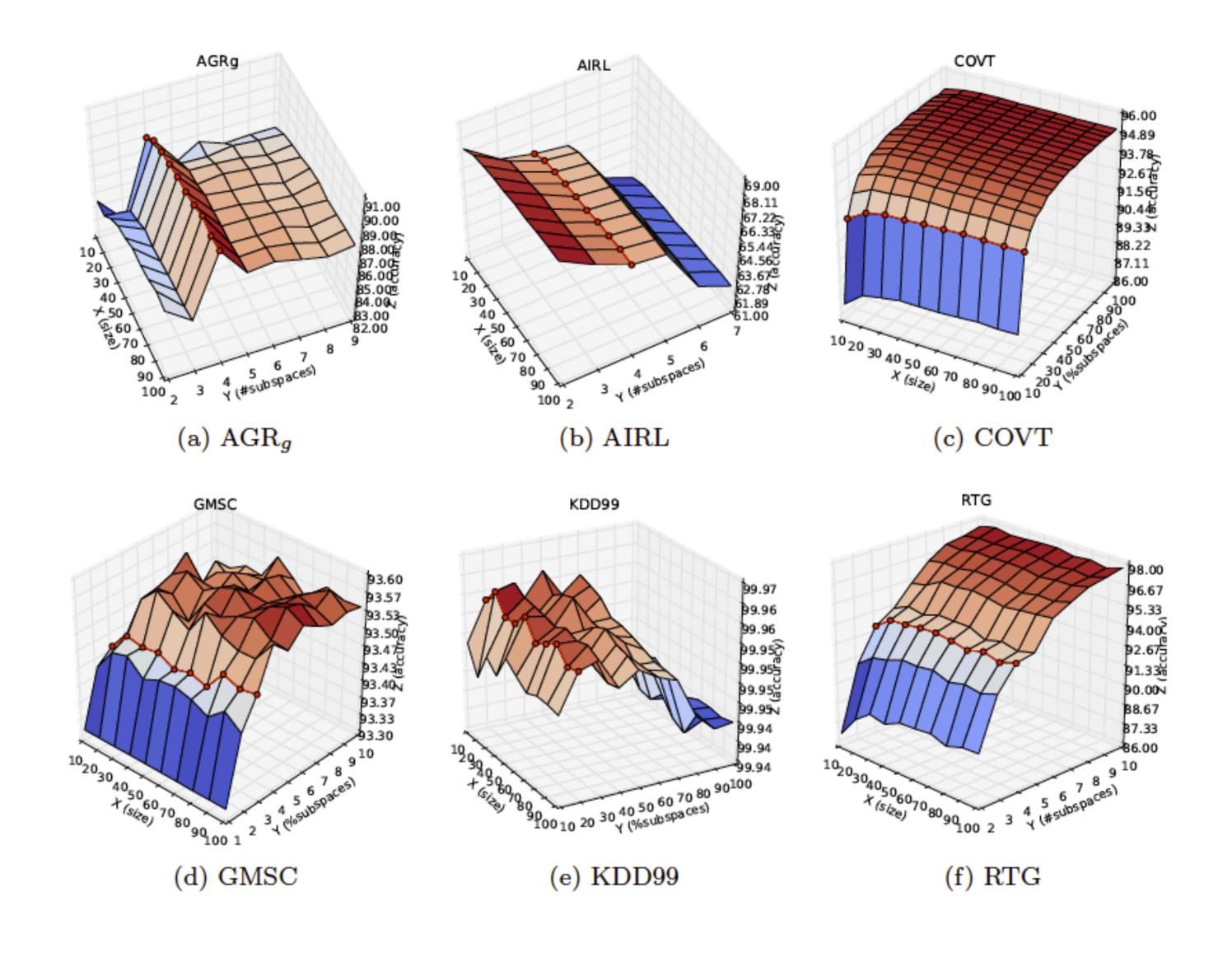
Global randomization

Random Subspaces

Random Patches



Impact of subspace size



Boosting

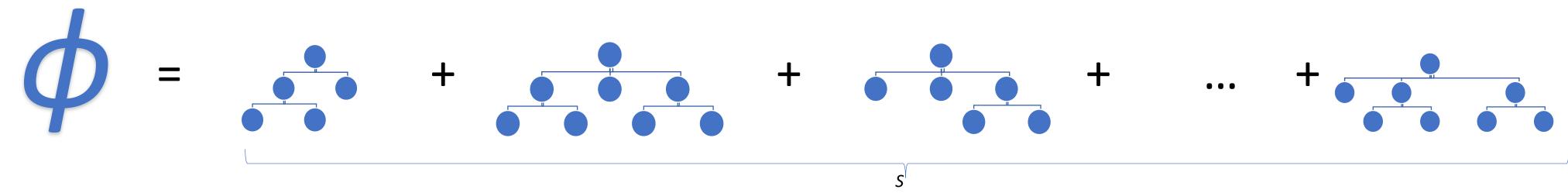
- XGBoost[1] and CatBoost[2] are popular batch boosting methods
- Challenges to streaming:
 - adjusting the booster online after a concept drift

[1] T. Chen and C. Guestrin. Xgboost: A scalable tree boosting system. In Proceedings of the 22Nd ACM SIGKDD International Conference on Knowledge Discovand Data Mining, pages 785–794. ACM, 2016.

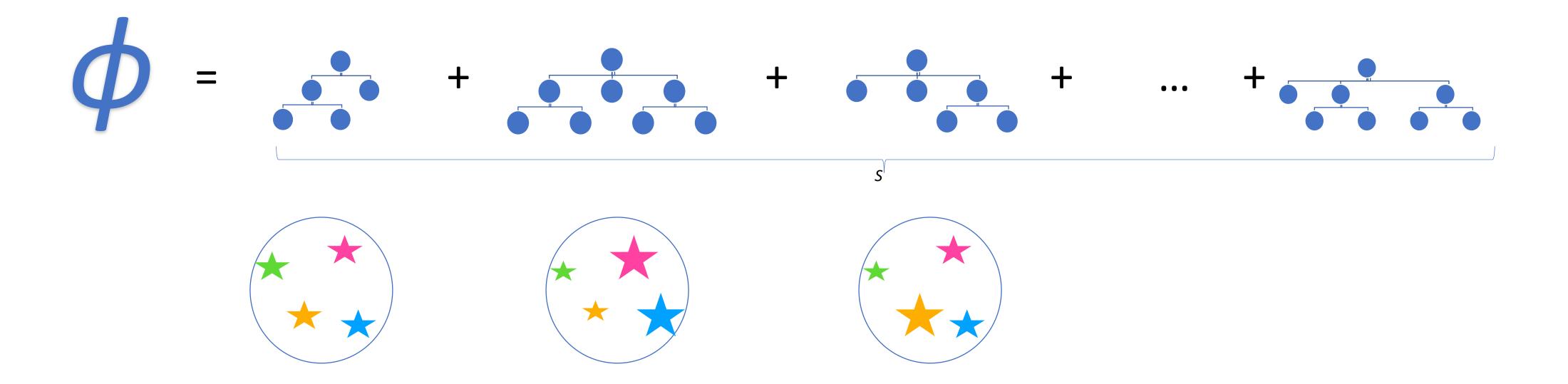
[2] Prokhorenkova, L., Gusev, G., Vorobev, A., Dorogush, A. V., & Gulin, A. (2018). CatBoost: unbiased boosting with categorical features. Advances in neural information processing systems, 31.

Boosting

The ensemble is built in an additive manner, sequentially adding trees.

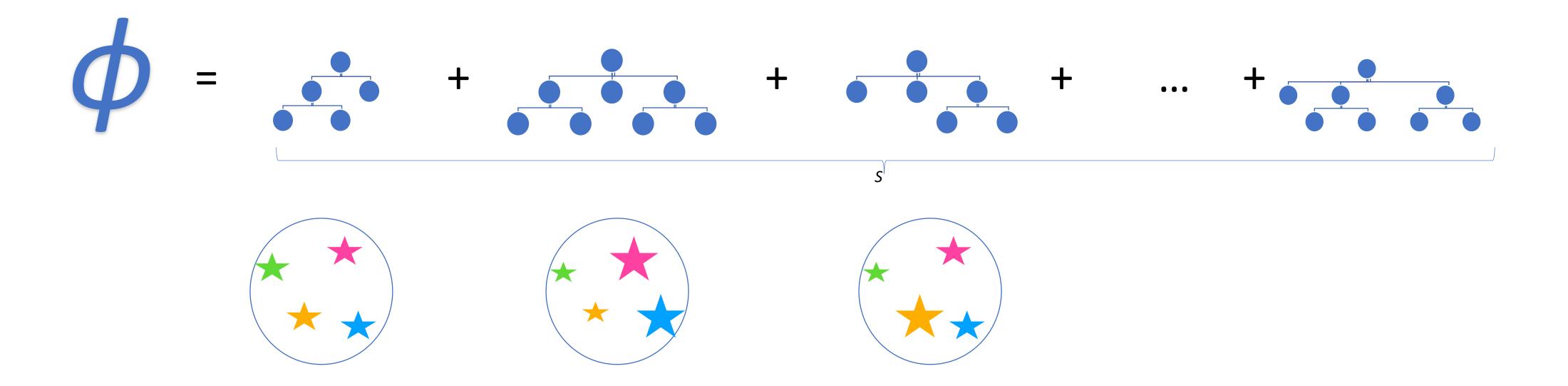


Boosting



The previous learner's prediction (loss) is considered to assign a weight to an instance.

Gradient Boosting



Gradient boosting uses gradient information to assign weights to instances.

Boosting on Streams

- Trees are configured in a **boosting** setup
- OzaBoost [1] uses weights from a Poisson(1) distribution to train multiple times using a given instance.
 - Similar to Online Bagging
- Online Smooth Boost [2] is analogous to batch SmoothBoost for imbalanced data.
 - uses a **smooth distribution** for weight assignment
- Gradient boosted AXGB [3] use
 - mini-batch trained XGBoost as its base learners
 - adjusts the booster when concept drifts are detected by ADWIN
- Challenges
 - Not as good as bagging based stream learners [3]
 - AXGB only supports binary class problems
- Streaming Gradient Boosted Trees (SGBT) performs better than bagging-based stream learners

Streaming Gradient Boosted Trees (SGBT)

- Uses weighted squared loss explained in [1,2]
 - with hessian(h_i) as the weight and gradient over hessian(g_i / h_i) as the target considering previous boosting step:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{2} h_i (f_s(x_i) - g_i/h_i)^2 + \Omega(f_s) + constant$$

penalises the complexity of the tree

• This allows one to use *any streaming regression tree* instead of the one used in XGBoost [2].

Streaming Gradient Boosted Trees (SGBT)

- Utilises trees with:
 - drift detectors to monitor standardised absolute error.
 - grows a background tree when it reaches a warning zone.
 - replaces the active tree with background tree when it reaches a danger zone.
- Uses a subset of features.
- Multi-class support
 - committee of regression trees at a given boosting step.
 - binary SGBT for each class.

SGBT re-cap

- Online boosting under concept drift is more challenging due to the sequential ensemble setup.
- SGBT allows each tree to monitor its error and adjust to concept drifts without sacrificing predictive power
 - Supports multi class problems

Ensembles re-cap

- Use Poisson distribution to derive weights for multiple training iterations
- More advance methods use drift detectors to adapt to changes
- SGBT performs better than bagging based methods
- Latest developments
 - Use task parallelism for bagging ensembles using mini-batches [1, 2]

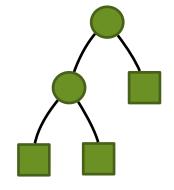
[2] G. Cassales, H. M. Gomes, A. Bifet, B. Pfahringer and H. Senger, "Balancing Performance and Energy Consumption of Bagging Ensembles for the Classification of Data Streams in Edge Computing," in IEEE Transactions on Network and Service Management, vol. 20, no. 3, pp. 3038-3054, Sept. 2023, doi: 10.1109/TNSM.2022.3226505

^[1] G. Cassales, H. M. Gomes, A. Bifet, B. Pfahringer and H. Senger, Improving the performance of bagging ensembles for data streams through mini-batching, Information Sciences, Volume 580, 2021, Pages 260-282, ISSN 0020-0255, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ins.2021.08.085.

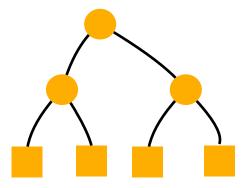
Regression algorithms

Adaptive Random Forest Regression

• Similar to ARF for classification

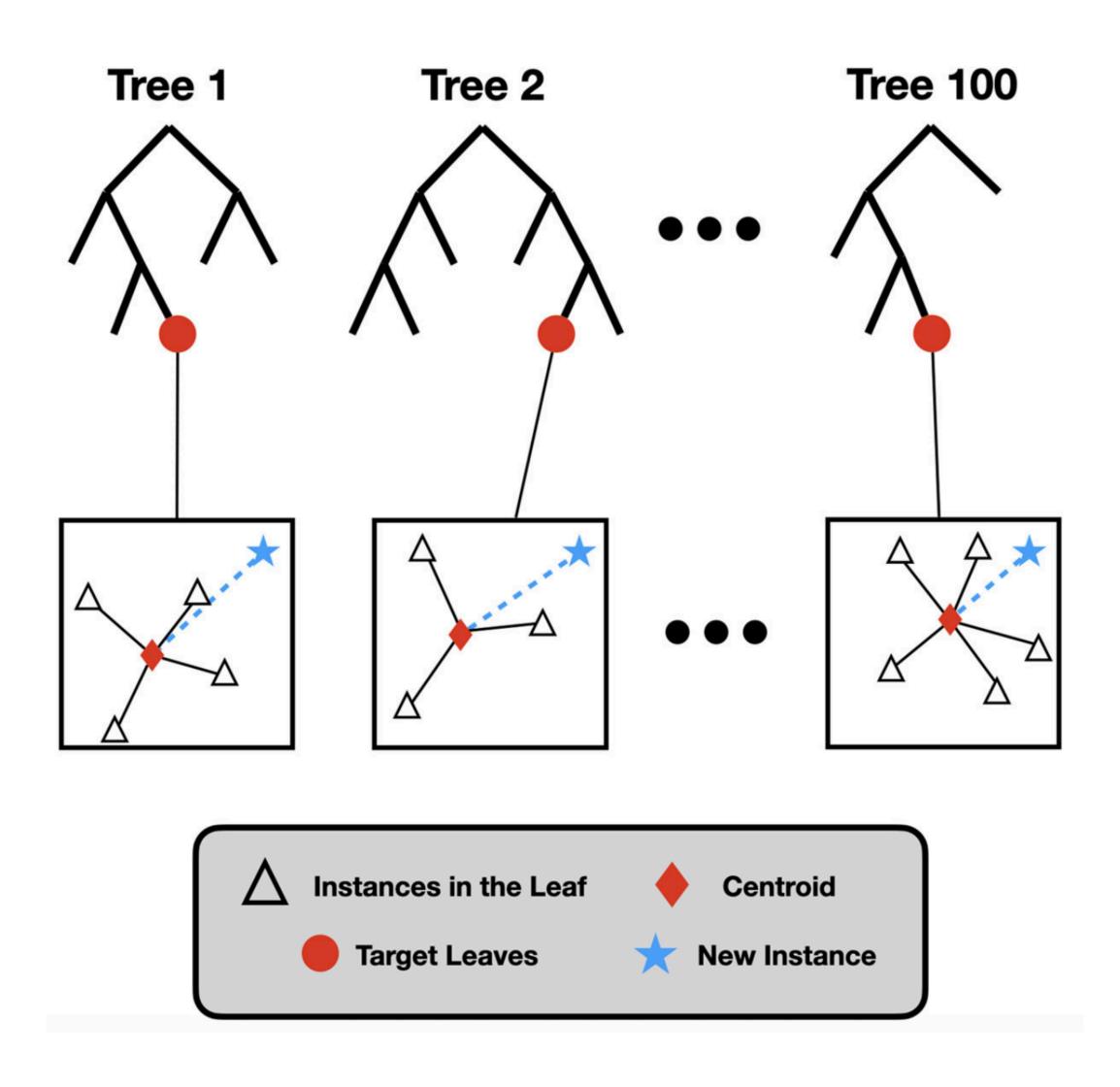






- builds regression trees
- for prediction, uses
 mean of predictions
 (by each tree)

- Extends Adaptive Random Forest Regression
- Generates a representative data point (centroid) in each leaf by compressing information from all instances in that leaf
- During prediction, calculates distances between input instance and centroids for relevant leaves
- Uses only k leaves with smallest distances for prediction
- Dynamically tuning k values based on historical information



at time t

K:

1

2

3

4

5

Error:

9.85

7.26

6.97

8.66

8.20

at time t + Δ

K:

1

2

3

4

5

Error:

9.94

8.65

8.24

7.95

7.61

Practical examples

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