# Stacking Algorithm for Ensemble Modelling

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Motivation — 1-1

## Motivation - The wisdom of the crowd

- BUT: Only fulfilled under certain criteria [Surowiecki, 2005]
  - Variation of guesses
  - Independence of guesses
  - Decentralization
  - Algorithm



Outline — 2-1

# **Outline**

- 1. Motivation ✓
- 2. Background: Decision Tree
- 3. Ensemble Learning
- 4. Stacking Algorithms and Ensemble Modelling
  - 4.1 Bagging and Random Forest
  - 4.2 Boosting and Gradient Boosting
  - 4.3 Stacked Generalization
- 5. Potentials and Problems of Ensemble Learning
- 6. Sources



Decision Tree — 3-1

#### **Decision Tree**

- Idea: Use a set of splitting rules to recursively partition the dataset
- Classification trees:
  - Minimize impurity within nodes
- Regression trees:
  - ▶ Minimize variance of the response variable within nodes



Decision Tree — 4-1

#### **Decision Tree for classification**

 Choice of splitting rule: maximizing information gain (IG) by decreasing node impurity (I)

$$IG_n = I(n) - p_{n_1} \times I(n_1) - p_{n_2} \times I(n_2),$$
 (1)

for node n with branching nodes  $n_1$  and  $n_2$ , and  $p_{n_i}$  as the fraction of cases in branching node  $n_i$ ,  $i \in \{1,2\}$ 



#### **Decision Tree for classification**

Entropy: 
$$I(n) = -\sum_{j}^{J} p(c_{j}|n) * \log_{2}(p(c_{j}|n))$$
 (2)

Gini impurity: 
$$I(n) = 1 - \sum_{j}^{J} p(c_j|n)^2$$
 (3)

Misclassification impurity: 
$$I(n) = 1 - \max_{i} p(c_i)$$
, (4)

for node n and classes  $c_j, j \in \{1, 2, ..., J\}$ 



Decision Tree — 4-3

#### **Decision Tree for classification**

Choice of stopping rule:

A fully grown tree has pure leaf nodes and may overfit the data. However, a small tree may not capture all relevant structure of the data

- Pre-pruning
- Post-pruning



# **Ensemble Learning - Terminology**

#### Machine Learning

- Part of computer science that uses statistical techniques to train models on data
- Typically used for prediction purposes

#### Stacking and Ensemble Learning

- Idea is to combine hypotheses of multiple learning algorithms (base learners)
- Goal is to obtain a better predictive performance than with each of the single algorithms alone
- Mainly used in supervised learning
- Very flexible method



# **Ensemble Learning**

Which models to combine?

- Effective ensembling builds on diverse and little correlated models [Kuncheva and Whitaker, 2003]
- Choice of algorithm decisive

Compare with the criteria mentioned in the Motivation!



# **Ensemble Learning**

Which models to combine?

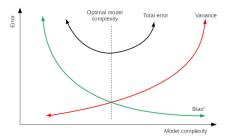


Figure 1: The bias-variance-trade-off.

- Combining complex classifiers may reduce variance
- Combining simple classifiers may reduce bias



# Bagging (= Bootstrap Aggregating)

- □ Proposed by Leo Breiman [Breiman, 1996]
- - improve accuracy of base algorithms
  - reduce MSE by reducing variance
  - avoid overfitting problems
  - obtain smoother prediction boundaries
- Can be applied to all kinds of base learners
- However best to use unstable methods that tend to have high variance, like trees



# Bagging algorithm

Suppose we have training data  $\{(x_1, y_1), ..., (x_N, y_N)\}$ 

- 1 for base learner m in  $\{1, 2, ..., M\}$
- 2 uniformly draw sample  $D_m$  from dataset D (with repl.)
- build model  $T_m$  on dataset  $D_m$  to obtain hypothesis  $h_m(x)$
- 4 combine hypotheses

- Combining by averaging in regression problems
- □ Combining by majority vote in classification problems



#### Random Forest

- □ Also proposed by Leo Breiman [Breiman, 2001]
- Random forests combine bagging with random subspace approach [Ho, 1998]
- Random subspace approach randomly samples features from set of all features for each learner (with replacement)
  - ▶ Reduces the correlation between estimators
  - Thus decreases variance in the ensemble learner
- Random feature sampling happens at tree level or at split level
- □ Random Forest only possible with tree-based base learners



# Random Forest algorithm for classification

Suppose we have training data  $\{(x_1, y_1), ..., (x_N, y_N)\}$ 

- 1 for base learner m in  $\{1, 2, ..., M\}$
- 2 uniformly draw sample  $k_m$  of size L from features  $\{1, 2, ..., K\}$  (with repl.)
- 3 uniformly draw sample  $D_m$  from dataset D (with repl.)
- build model  $T_m$  on dataset  $D_m$  using feature set  $k_m$
- 5  $\hat{C}_{rf}^{L,N}(x) = \text{majority vote} \{\hat{T}_m\}_1^M$



#### Random Forest

Random Forest vs. single Tree

Stacking Algorithm for Ensemble Modelling ——

Random Forest	Single Tree
<ul> <li>higher computational costs</li> <li>blackbox</li> <li>many parameter choices to make</li> <li>easy to tune parameters</li> <li>smaller prediction variance</li> <li>scalability</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>+ computationally simple</li> <li>+ insights into decision rules</li> <li>+ easy to tune parameters</li> <li>- tends to overfit and have high variance</li> </ul>

# **Boosting**

- Original idea only applies to classification problems
- Idea: Simple learners are easier to find. Combining many simple learners can produce a powerful learner
- The ensemble first considers only one base learner. Then we iteratively enlarge it by another base learner that aims to correct the error of the current ensemble



# The Adaboost algorithm

Suppose we have training data  $\{(x_1, y_1), ..., (x_N, y_N)\}$ , initialize weightings  $d_i^{(1)} = \frac{1}{N}, \forall i \in \{1, ..., N\}$ 

```
1 for base learner m in \{1,2,...,M\}
2 train base learner according to weighted data d^{(m)} and obtain hypothesis h_m: \mathbf{x} \mapsto \{-1,+1\}
3 calculate weighted classifier error \epsilon_m = \sum_{i=1}^N d_i^m I(y_i \neq h_t(x_i))
4 calculate hypothesis weighting \beta_m = \frac{1}{2} \log(\frac{1-\epsilon_m}{\epsilon_m})
5 update data weighting, e.g. by h_m(x_i) = y_i : d_i^{m+1} = d_i^m \exp(-\beta_m) h_m(x_i) \neq y_i : d_i^{m+1} = d_i^m \exp(\beta_m)
6 \hat{y}(x) = H_{final}(x) = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M \beta_m h_m(x_i)
```

# **Gradient Boosting**

- Developed by Friedman [Friedman, 2001]
- Extended boosting to regression and other problem types
- Shortcomings of current ensemble is identified by gradients instead of weightings of data
- ☑ In each stage  $m \in \{1, 2, ..., M\}$ , a new learner improves the current ensemble  $H_{m-1}$  and is fitted to  $(x_i, y_i H_{m-1}(x_i)), \forall i \in \{1, 2, ..., N\}$

# **Stochastic Gradient Boosting**

- Advancement of Gradient Boosting, again by Friedman [Friedman, 2002]
- Utilizes ideas from Bagging:
  - Using trees as base learners
  - ▶ Fit trees to negative gradient of random sample of dataset
- Less prune to overfitting



# **Gradient Boosting**

#### Random Forest vs. single Tree vs. Gradient Boosting

<ul> <li>higher computational costs</li> <li>blackbox</li> <li>easy to tune parameters</li> <li>smaller prediction variance</li> <li>scalability</li> <li>many parameter choices to make</li> <li>computationally simple</li> <li>insights into decision rules</li> <li>easy to tune parameters</li> <li>teasy to tune parameters</li> <li>tends to overfit and have high variance</li> <li>many parameter choices to make</li> </ul>	Random Forest	Single Tree	Gradient Boosting
	computational costs  - blackbox + easy to tune parameters + smaller prediction variance + scalability - many parameter	simple + insights into decision rules + easy to tune parameters - tends to overfit and have high	+ insights by feature importance and partial dependence plots + one of the best of-the-shelf methods - tends to overfit - parallelization difficult - many tunable



#### Stacked Generalization

- Heterogeneous ensemble model
- Second stage model: Combines predictions of different classifiers
- Multistep-Approach:
  - 1. Compare predictive accuracy of individual classifiers
  - 2. Select the best individual classifier
  - Iteratively add one more classifier and combine the predictions, e.g. by averaging
  - 4. Stop when predictive accuracy of the ensemble does not increase anymore



# The Multistep-Approach

#### An example:

Iteration	У	ŷ <b>1</b>	ŷ <sub>2</sub>	ŷз
1	0	0.53	0.17	0.07
	0	0.62	0.61	0.95
	1	0.76	0.41	0.31
Brier Score:		0,24	0.25	0.46

Iteration	у	$(\hat{y}_1, \hat{y}_1)$	$(\hat{y}_1, \hat{y}_2)$	$(\hat{y}_1, \hat{y}_3)$
2	0	0.53	0.35	0.30
	0	0.62	0.62	0.79
	1	0.76	0.59	0.54
Brier Score:		0.24	0.22	0.31

Iteration	у	$\overline{(\hat{y}_1, \hat{y}_2, \hat{y}_1)}$	$\overline{(\hat{y}_1,\hat{y}_2,\hat{y}_2)}$	$(\hat{y}_1, \hat{y}_2, \hat{y}_3)$
2	0	0.41	0.29	0.26
	0	0.62	0.61	0.73
	1	0.64	0.53	0.49
Brier Score:		0.225	0.228	0.280



## Stacked Generalization

- Most important: Diversity of first-stage models!
- □ Diversity can be enhanced by using
  - different algorithms
  - different parameter settings
  - different feature subsets
  - different training sets
- Overfitting problem. Can be evaded by
  - using cross-validation in second-stage model training
  - using regularization
  - using a combiner algorithm that is not sensible to multicollinearity, like Regularized Logistic Regression, Random Forest or hill-climbing methods.



## Stacked Generalization

# + often high predictive accuracy and robustness (most successful approach in data science competitions on kaggle) + scalable, especially parallelizable Disadvantages - complex to implement - high amount of computational resources needed - different (!) first-stage models must be built



# Potentials of Ensemble Learning

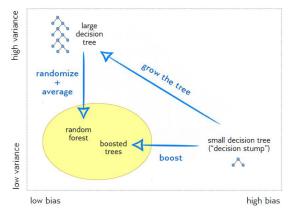


Figure 2: How Gradient Boosting and Random Forest improve performance.



# Potentials and Problems of Ensemble Learning

Potentials	Problems
<ul> <li>+ currently best predictive methods available</li> <li>+ ensembling can decrease variance and bias</li> <li>+ often scalable</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>needs high computational resources</li> <li>blackbox problems</li> <li>many parameters to tune</li> <li>lack of proven statistical properties</li> </ul>



Sources — 10-1

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