

# Ensemble methods

Course of Machine Learning  
Master Degree in Computer Science  
University of Rome "Tor Vergata"  
a.a. 2019-2020

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## Ensemble methods

Improve performance by combining multiple models, in some way, instead of using a single model.

- train a *committee* of  $L$  different models and make predictions by averaging the predictions made by each model on dataset samplings (*bagging*)
- train different models in sequence: the error function used to train a model depend on the performance of previous models (*boosting*)

## Bagging

- Classifiers (especially some of them, such as decision trees) may have low performances due to their high variance: their behavior may largely differ in presence of slightly different training sets (or even of the same training set).
- For example, in trees, the separations made by splits are enforced at all lower levels: hence, if the data is perturbed slightly, the new tree can have a considerably different sequence of splits, leading to a different classification rule

## Bootstrap

- The *bootstrap* is a fundamental resampling tool in statistics. The basic underlying idea is to estimate the true distribution of data  $\mathcal{F}$  by the so-called empirical distribution  $\hat{\mathcal{F}}$
- Given the training data  $(\mathbf{x}_i, t_i)$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$ , the empirical distribution function  $\hat{\mathcal{F}}$  is defined as

$$\hat{p}(\mathbf{x}, t) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{n} & \text{if } \exists i : (\mathbf{x}, t) = (\mathbf{x}_i, t_i) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- This is just a discrete probability distribution, putting equal weight  $\frac{1}{n}$  on each of the observed training points

## Bootstrap

- A *bootstrap sample* of size  $m$  from the training data is

$$(\mathbf{x}_i^*, t_i^*) \quad i = 1, \dots, m$$

where each  $(\mathbf{x}_i^*, t_i^*)$  is drawn uniformly at random from  $(\mathbf{x}_1, t_1), \dots, (\mathbf{x}_n, t_n)$ , with *replacement*

- This corresponds exactly to  $m$  independent draws from  $\hat{\mathcal{F}}$ . Hence it approximates what we would see if we could sample more data from the true  $\mathcal{F}$ . We often consider  $m = n$ , which is like sampling an entirely new training set

### Bagging

- Given a training set  $(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$ , bagging averages the predictions done by classifiers of the same type (such as decision trees) over a collection of bootstrap samples. For  $b = 1, \dots, B$  (e.g.,  $B = 100$ ),  $n$  bootstrap items  $(\mathbf{x}_i^b, y_i^b)$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$  are sampled and a classifier is fit on this set.
- At the end, to classify an input  $x$ , we simply take the most commonly predicted class, among all  $B$  classifiers
- This is just choosing the class with the most votes
- In the case of regression, the predicted value is derived as the average among the predictions returned by the  $B$  regressors

### Bagging variant

If the used classifier returns class probabilities  $\hat{p}_k^b(\mathbf{x})$ , the final bagged probabilities can be computed by averaging

$$\hat{p}_k^b(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{b=1}^B \hat{p}_k^b(\mathbf{x})$$

the predicted class is, again, the one with highest probability

### Bagging classification

- Why is bagging working?
- Let us consider, for simplicity, a binary classification problem. Suppose that for a given input  $\mathbf{x}$ , we have  $B$  independent classifiers, each with a given misclassification rate  $e$  (for example,  $e = 0.4$ ). Assume w.l.o.g. that the true class at  $\mathbf{x}$  is 1: so the probability that the  $b$ -th classifier predicts class 0 is  $e = 0.4$
- Let  $B_0 \leq B$  be the number of classifiers returning class 0 on input  $\mathbf{x}$ : the probability of  $B_0$  is clearly distributed according to a binomial (if classifiers are independent)

$$B_0 \sim \text{Binomial}(B, e)$$

the misclassification rate of the bagged classifier is then

$$p\left(B_0 > \frac{B}{2}\right) = \sum_{k=\frac{B}{2}+1}^B \binom{B}{k} e^k (1-e)^{B-k}$$

which tends to 0 as  $B$  increases.

### Bagging regression

- Expected error of one model  $y_i(\mathbf{x})$  wrt the true function  $h(\mathbf{x})$ :

$$E_{\mathbf{x}}[(y_i(\mathbf{x}) - h(\mathbf{x}))^2] = E_{\mathbf{x}}[\varepsilon_i(\mathbf{x})^2]$$

- Average expected error of the models

$$E_{av} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m E_{\mathbf{x}}[\varepsilon_i(\mathbf{x})^2]$$

- Committee expected error

$$E_c = E_{\mathbf{x}} \left[ \left( \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m y_i(\mathbf{x}) - h(\mathbf{x}) \right)^2 \right] = E_{\mathbf{x}} \left[ \left( \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \varepsilon_i(\mathbf{x}) \right)^2 \right]$$

If  $E_{\mathbf{x}}[\varepsilon_i(\mathbf{x})\varepsilon_j(\mathbf{x})] = 0$  if  $i \neq j$  (errors are uncorrelated) then  $E_c = \frac{1}{m} E_{av}$ .

- This is usually not verified: errors from different models are highly correlated.

### Out-of-bag error

- Model evaluation can be performed by evaluating, for each item  $\mathbf{x}_i$  in the data set, the prediction done by the set of models trained on bootstrap samples not including  $\mathbf{x}_i$ .
- If bootstrap samples have the same size of the dataset (i.e.  $m = n$ ), there is a probability .63 that an item is included in a bootstrap sample: in fact, for each sample, the probability that item  $\mathbf{x}_i$  is not selected is  $1 - \frac{1}{n}$ . Hence there is a probability  $\left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right)^n$  that it is never sampled. For large enough values of  $n$ , the probability is about  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right)^n = \frac{1}{e} \approx .37$
- In out-of-bag evaluation, the prediction of an item is done by using approximately a fraction .37 of all the trees. For those trees the item can be considered as a test set member.

### Random forest

Application of bagging to a set of (random) decision trees: classification performed by voting.

1. For  $b = 1$  to  $B$ :
  - (a) Bootstrap sample from training set
  - (b) Grow a decision tree  $T_b$  on such data by performing the following operations for each node:
    - i. select  $m$  variables at random
    - ii. pick the best variable among them
    - iii. split the node into two children
2. output the collection of trees  $T_1, \dots, T_B$

Overall prediction is performed as majority (for classification) or average (for regression) among trees predictions.

### Boosting

- Boosting is a procedure to combine the output of many weak classifiers to produce a powerful committee.
- A weak classifier is one whose error rate is only slightly better than random guessing.
- Boosting produces a sequence of weak classifiers  $y_m(x)$  for  $m = 1, \dots, M$  whose predictions are then combined through a weighted majority to produce the final prediction

$$y(\mathbf{x}) = \text{sgn} \left( \sum_{j=1}^m \alpha_j y_j(\mathbf{x}) \right)$$

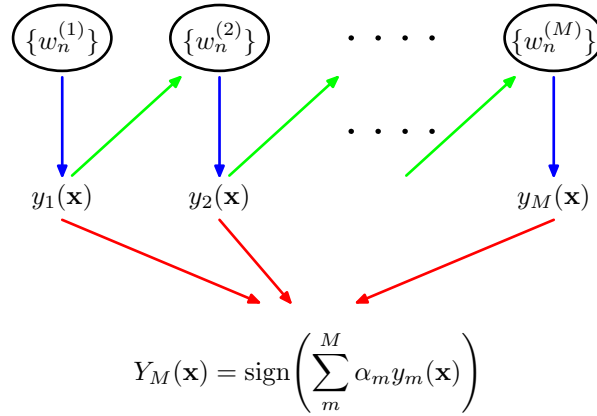
- Each  $\alpha_j > 0$  is computed by the boosting algorithm and reflects how accurately  $y_m$  classified the data.

### Boosting

### Adaboost (adaptive boosting)

- Models are trained in sequence: each model is trained using a weighted form of the dataset
- Element weights depend on the performances of the previous models (misclassified points receive larger weights)
- Predictions are performed through a weighted majority voting scheme on all models

### Boosting



### Adaboost

Binary classification, dataset  $(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{t})$  of size  $n$ , with  $t_i \in \{-1, 1\}$ . The algorithm maintains a set of weights  $w(\mathbf{x}) = (w_1, \dots, w_n)$  associated to the dataset elements.

- Initialize weights as  $w_i^{(0)} = \frac{1}{n}$  for  $i = 1, \dots, n$
- For  $j = 1, \dots, m$ :
  - Train a *weak learner*  $y_j(\mathbf{x})$  on  $\mathbf{X}$  in such a way to minimize the weighted misclassification wrt to  $w^{(j)}(\mathbf{x})$ .
  - Let

$$e^{(j)} = \frac{\sum_{\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathcal{E}^{(j)}} w_i^{(j)}}{\sum_i w_i^{(j)}}$$

where  $\mathcal{E}^{(j)}$  is the set of dataset elements misclassified by  $y_j(\mathbf{x})$ .

- ★ If  $e^{(j)} > \frac{1}{2}$ , consider the reverse learner, which returns opposite predictions for all elements.
- ★  $e^{(j)}$  can be interpreted as the probability that a random item from the training set is misclassified, assuming that item  $\mathbf{x}_i$  can be sampled with probability  $\frac{w_i^{(j)}}{\sum_i w_i^{(j)}}$

### Adaboost

- Compute the learner confidence as log odds of a random item being well classified  $(1 - e^{(j)})$  vs being misclassified  $e^{(j)}$

$$\alpha_j = \log \frac{1 - e^{(j)}}{e^{(j)}} > 0$$

- For each  $\mathbf{x}_i$ , update the corresponding weight as follows

$$w_i^{(j+1)} = \begin{cases} w_i^{(j)} e^{\alpha_j} > w_i^{(j)} & \text{if } \mathbf{x}_i \in \mathcal{E}^{(j)} \\ w_i^{(j)} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

## Adaboost

The overall prediction is

$$y(\mathbf{x}) = \text{sgn} \left( \sum_{j=1}^m \alpha_j y_j(\mathbf{x}) \right)$$

since  $y_j(\mathbf{x}) \in \{-1, 1\}$ , this corresponds to a voting procedure, where each learner vote (class prediction) is weighted by the learner confidence.

## Adaboost

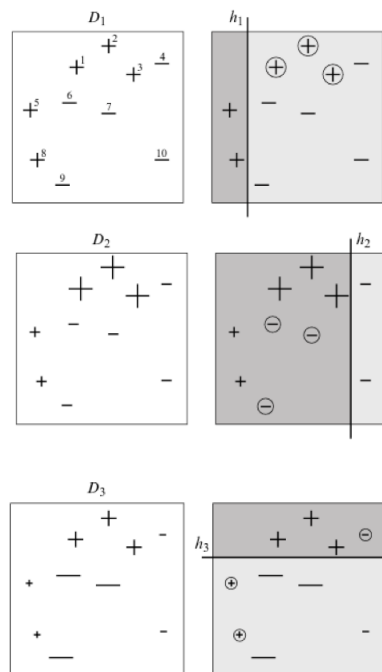
- Observe that a weak learner confidence is inversely related to the probability of misclassification. Moreover,

$$w_i^{(t)} = \frac{1}{n} \prod_{j \in \mathcal{B}_i} \frac{1 - e^{(j)}}{e^{(j)}}$$

where  $\mathcal{B}_i$  is the set of indices of "bad" weak learners wrt  $\mathbf{x}_i$  (that is ones that misclassify  $\mathbf{x}_i$ )

- Since  $1 - e^{(j)} > e^{(j)}$  it derives that bad learners increase the probability of an element, while good learners decrease it.
  - As iterations proceed, observations difficult to classify correctly receive more influence.
  - Each successive classifier is forced to concentrate on training observations missed by previous ones in the sequence.

## Adaboost



## Adaboost

$$H = \text{sign} \left( 0.42 \begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline & \\ \hline \end{array} + 0.65 \begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline & \\ \hline \end{array} + 0.92 \begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline & \\ \hline \end{array} \right)$$

$$= \begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline & \\ \hline \end{array}$$

## Additive models

- Additive models are defined as the additive composition of simpler “base” predictors

$$y(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{j=1}^m c_j \bar{y}(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{w}_j)$$

where  $c_j$ 's are weights and  $\bar{y}(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{w}) \in \mathbb{R}$  are simple functions of the input  $\mathbf{x}$  parameterized by  $\mathbf{w}$

## Fitting additive models

- As usual, an additive model is fit by minimizing a loss function averaged over the training data:

$$\min_{c_j, \mathbf{w}_j} \sum_{i=1}^n L(t_i, \sum_{k=1}^m c_k \bar{y}(\mathbf{x}_i; \mathbf{w}_k))$$

- For many loss functions  $L$  and/or predictors  $\bar{y}$  this is too hard

## Forward stagewise additive modeling

More simply, one can greedily add one basis function at a time in the following fashion.

- Set  $y_0(\mathbf{x}) = 0$
- For  $k = 1, \dots, m$ :
  - Compute

$$(\hat{c}_k, \hat{\mathbf{w}}_k) = \underset{c_k, \mathbf{w}_k}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{i=1}^n L(t_i, y_{k-1}(\mathbf{x}_i) + c_k \bar{y}(\mathbf{x}_i; \mathbf{w}_k))$$

- Set  $y_k(\mathbf{x}) = y_{k-1}(\mathbf{x}) + \hat{c}_k \bar{y}(\mathbf{x}; \hat{\mathbf{w}}_k)$

That is, fitting is performed not modifying previously added terms

## Adaboost as additive model

Adaboost can be interpreted as fitting an additive model with *exponential loss*

$$L(y, f(\mathbf{x})) = e^{-tf(\mathbf{x})}$$

that is, minimizing

$$\underset{\alpha_j, \mathbf{w}_j}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{i=1}^n e^{-t_i \sum_{k=1}^m \alpha_k \bar{y}(\mathbf{x}_i; \mathbf{w}_k)}$$

## Adaboost as additive model

Applying forward stagewise additive modeling, at each step  $k$  it computes

$$\begin{aligned}(\hat{\alpha}_k, \hat{\mathbf{w}}_k) &= \underset{\alpha_k, \mathbf{w}_k}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{i=1}^n e^{-t_i(y_{k-1}(\mathbf{x}_i) + \alpha_k \bar{y}(\mathbf{x}_i; \mathbf{w}_k))} \\ &= \underset{\alpha_k, \mathbf{w}_k}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{i=1}^n p_i^{(k)} e^{-\alpha_k \bar{y}(\mathbf{x}_i; \mathbf{w}_k)}\end{aligned}$$

where  $p_i^{(k)} = e^{-t_i y_{k-1}(\mathbf{x}_i)} = e^{-\frac{1}{2} t_i \sum_{r=1}^{k-1} \alpha_r y_r(\mathbf{x}_i)}$  is a constant wrt  $\alpha_k$  and  $\mathbf{w}_k$

The approach can be extended to the case of different loss functions

## Gradient boosting

General idea:

- Fit an additive model  $\sum_{j=1}^m \alpha_j y_j(\mathbf{x})$  in a forward stage-wise manner.
- At each stage, introduce a weak learner to compensate the shortcomings of existing ones.
- Shortcomings are identified by high-weight data points.

## Gradient boosting

- You are given  $(\mathbf{x}_i, t_i)$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$ , and the task is to fit a model  $y(\mathbf{x})$  to minimize square loss.
- Assume a model  $y^{(1)}(\mathbf{x})$  is available, with residuals  $t_i - y^{(1)}(\mathbf{x}_i) = t_i - y_i^{(1)}$
- A new dataset  $(\mathbf{x}_i, t_i - y_i^{(1)})$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$  can be defined, and a model  $\bar{y}^{(1)}(\mathbf{x})$  can be fit to minimize square loss wrt such dataset
- Clearly,  $y_2(\mathbf{x}) = y_1(\mathbf{x}) + \bar{y}_1(\mathbf{x})$  is a model which improves  $y_1(\mathbf{x})$
- The role of  $\bar{y}_1(\mathbf{x})$  is to compensate the shortcoming of  $y(\mathbf{x})$
- If  $y_2(\mathbf{x})$  is unsatisfactory, we may define new models  $\bar{y}_2(\mathbf{x})$  and  $y_3(\mathbf{x}) = y_2(\mathbf{x}) + \bar{y}_2(\mathbf{x})$

## Gradient boosting

How is this related to gradient descent?

- Let us consider the squared loss function  $L(t, y) = \frac{1}{2}(t - y)^2$
- We want to minimize the risk  $R = \sum_{i=1}^n L(t_i, y_i)$  by adjusting  $y_i, \dots, y_n$
- Consider  $y_i$  as parameters and take derivatives

$$\frac{\partial R}{\partial y_i} = y_i - t_i$$

So, we can consider residuals as negative gradients

$$t_i - y_i = -\frac{\partial R}{\partial y_i}$$

- Model  $\bar{y}(\mathbf{x})$  can then be derived by considering the dataset

$$(\mathbf{x}_i, t_i - y_i) = \left( \mathbf{x}_i, -\frac{\partial R}{\partial y_i} \right) \quad i = 1, \dots, n$$

## Gradient boosting for regression

The following algorithm results

- Set  $y^{(1)}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n t_i$
- For  $k = 1, \dots, m$ :
  - Compute negative gradients

$$-g_i^{(k)} = -\frac{\partial R}{\partial y_i} \Big|_{y_i=y^{(k)}(\mathbf{x}_i)} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial y_i} L(t_i, y_i) \Big|_{y_i=y^{(k)}(\mathbf{x}_i)} = t_i - y^{(k)}(\mathbf{x}_i)$$

- Fit a weak learner  $\bar{y}^{(k)}(\mathbf{x})$  to negative gradients, considering dataset  $(\mathbf{x}_i, -g_i^{(k)})$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$
- Derive the new classifier  $y^{(k+1)}(\mathbf{x}) = y^{(k)}(\mathbf{x}) + \bar{y}^{(k)}(\mathbf{x})$

### Gradient boosting for regression

- The benefit of formulating this algorithm using gradients is that it allows us to consider other loss functions and derive the corresponding algorithms in the same way.
- For example, square loss is easy to deal with mathematically, but not robust to outliers, i.e. pays too much attention to outliers.
- Different loss functions
  - Absolute loss
    - \*  $L(t, y) = |t - y|$
    - \*  $-g = \text{sgn}(t - y)$
  - Huber loss

\*

$$L(t, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}(t - y)^2 & |t - y| \leq \delta \\ \delta(|t - y|) - \frac{\delta^2}{2} & |t - y| > \delta \end{cases}$$

\*

$$-g = \begin{cases} y - t & |t - y| \leq \delta \\ \delta \cdot \text{sgn}(t - y) & |t - y| > \delta \end{cases}$$

### Gradient boosting for classification

Consider a  $K$ -class framework.

Again, let  $R = \sum_{i=1}^n L(t_i, y_1(\mathbf{x}_i), \dots, y_K(\mathbf{x}_i))$  for a given loss function

- Set  $y_j^{(1)}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{K}$ , for  $j = 1, \dots, K$
- For  $k = 1, \dots, m$ :
  - Compute negative gradients

$$\begin{aligned} -g_j^{(k)}(\mathbf{x}_i) &= -\frac{\partial R}{\partial y_j^{(k)}(\mathbf{x}_i)} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial y_i} L(t_i, y_1(\mathbf{x}_i), \dots, y_K(\mathbf{x}_i)) \Big|_{y_i=y^{(k)}(\mathbf{x}_i)} \\ &= -\frac{\partial}{\partial y_j^{(k)}(\mathbf{x}_i)} L(t_i, y_1(\mathbf{x}_i), \dots, y_K(\mathbf{x}_i)) \end{aligned}$$

for  $j = 1, \dots, K$

- Fit  $K$  weak learners  $\bar{y}_k^{(j)}(\mathbf{x})$  ( $j = 1, \dots, K$ ) to negative gradients, considering dataset  $(\mathbf{x}_i, -g(\mathbf{x}_i))$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$
- Derive the new classifiers  $y_{k+1}^{(j)}(\mathbf{x}) = y_k^{(j)}(\mathbf{x}) + \bar{y}_k^{(j)}(\mathbf{x})$



Which weak learners?

- Regression trees (special case of decision trees)
- Decision stumps (trees with only one node)