

## Goals for the lecture

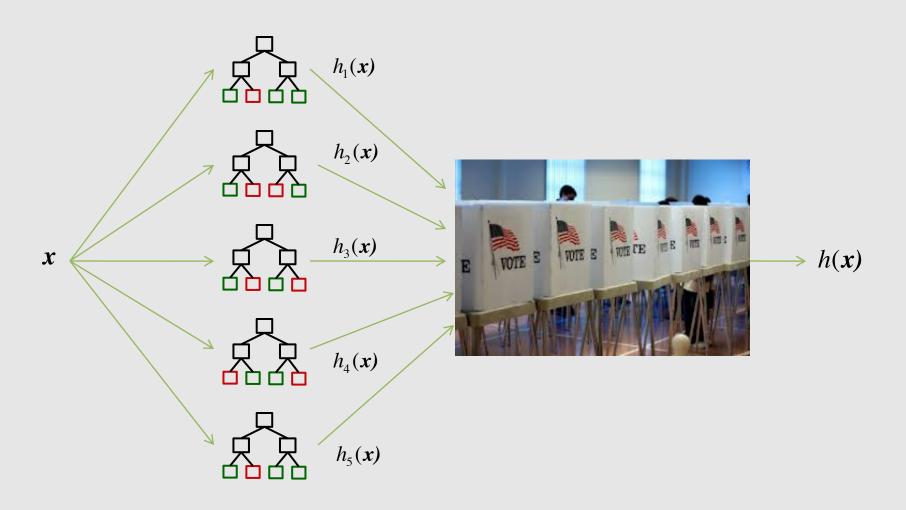


you should understand the following concepts

- ensemble
- bootstrap sample
- bagging
- boosting
- random forests
- error correcting output codes

## What is an ensemble?

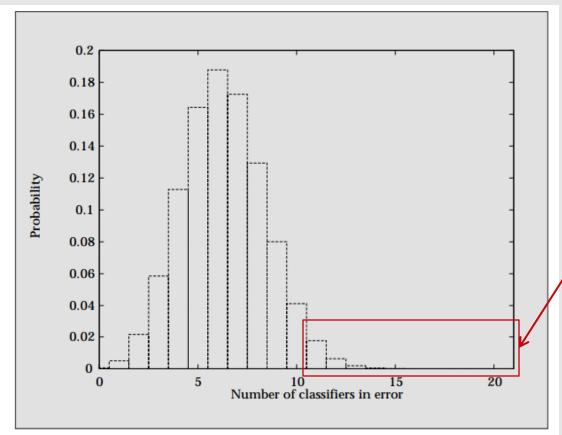




a set of learned models whose individual decisions are combined in some way to make predictions for new instances

# When can an ensemble be more accurate

- when the errors made by the individual predictors are (somewhat) uncorrelated, and the predictors' error rates are better than guessing (< 0.5 for 2-class problem)
- consider an idealized case...



error rate of ensemble is represented by probability mass in this box = 0.026

Figure 1. The Probability That Exactly  $\ell$  (of 21) Hypotheses Will Make an Error, Assuming Each Hypothesis Has an Error Rate of 0.3 and Makes Its Errors Independently of the Other Hypotheses.

Figure from Dietterich, AI Magazine, 1997

# How can we get diverse classifiers?



- In practice, we can't get classifiers whose errors are completely uncorrelated, but we can encourage diversity in their errors by
  - choosing a variety of learning algorithms
  - choosing a variety of settings (e.g. # hidden units in neural nets) for the learning algorithm
  - choosing different subsamples of the training set (bagging)
  - using different probability distributions over the training instances (boosting, skewing)
  - choosing different features and subsamples (random forests)

# Bagging (Bootstrap Aggregation)



[Breiman, Machine Learning 1996]

#### learning:

```
given: learner L, training set D = \{ \langle x_I, y_I \rangle \dots \langle x_m, y_m \rangle \} for i \leftarrow 1 to T do D^{(i)} \leftarrow m \text{ instances randomly drawn } \underline{\text{with replacement from }} D h_i \leftarrow \text{ model learned using } L \text{ on } D^{(i)}
```

#### classification:

```
given: test instance x predict y \leftarrow \text{plurality\_vote}(h_1(x) \dots h_T(x))
```

#### regression:

```
given: test instance x_t predict y \leftarrow \text{mean}(h_1(x) \dots h_T(x))
```

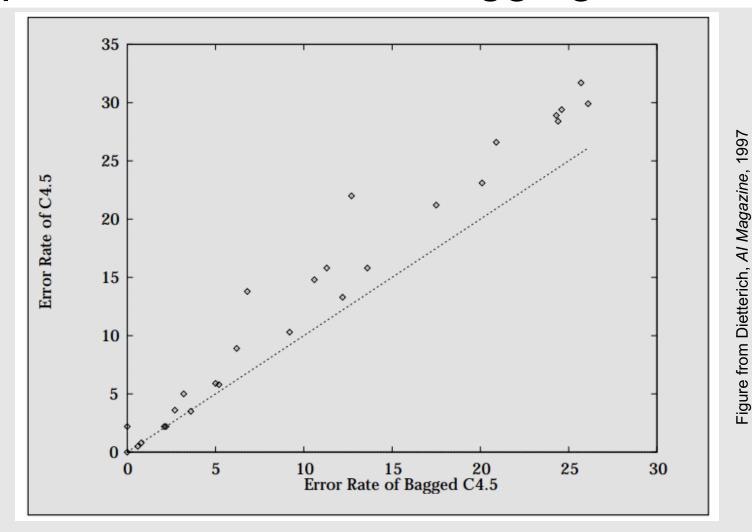
# Bagging



- each sampled training set is a bootstrap replicate
  - contains *m* instances (the same as the original training set)
  - on average it includes 63.2% of the original training set
  - some instances appear multiple times
- can be used with any base learner
- works best with *unstable* learning methods: those for which small changes in *D* result in relatively large changes in learned models, i.e., those that tend to *overfit* training data

# Empirical evaluation of bagging with C4.





Bagging reduced error of C4.5 on most data sets; wasn't harmful on any

## Boosting



- Boosting came out of the PAC learning community
- A weak PAC learning algorithm is one that cannot PAC learn for arbitrary  $\varepsilon$  and  $\delta$ , but it can for some: its hypotheses are at least slightly better than random guessing
- Suppose we have a *weak PAC learning* algorithm *L* for a concept class *C*. Can we use *L* as a subroutine to create a (strong) PAC learner for *C*?
  - Yes, by boosting! [Schapire, Machine Learning 1990]
  - The original boosting algorithm was of theoretical interest, but assumed an unbounded source of training instances
- A later boosting algorithm, AdaBoost, has had notable practical success

### AdaBoost



[Freund & Schapire, Journal of Computer and System Sciences, 1997]

```
given: learner L, # stages T, training set D = \{ \langle x_1, y_1 \rangle \dots \langle x_m, y_m \rangle \}
for all i: w_1(i) \leftarrow 1/m
                                                                     // initialize instance weights
for t \leftarrow 1 to T do
              for all i: p_t(i) \leftarrow w_t(i) / (\sum_i w_t(j))
                                                                                      // normalize weights
              h_t \leftarrow \text{model learned using } L \text{ on } D \text{ and } p_t
              \varepsilon_t \leftarrow \sum_i p_t(i)(1 - \delta(h_t(\mathbf{x}_i), y_i))
                                                                           // calculate weighted error
              if \varepsilon_t > 0.5 then
                            T \leftarrow t - 1
                             break
                                        // lower error, smaller \beta_t
              \beta_t \leftarrow \varepsilon_t / (1 - \varepsilon_t)
              for all i where h_t(x_i) = y_i // downweight correct examples
                            w_{t+1}(i) \leftarrow w_t(i) \beta_t
```

return:

$$h(\mathbf{x}) = \arg\max_{y} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \left(\log \frac{1}{\beta_t}\right) \delta(h_t(\mathbf{x}), y)$$

## Implementing weighted instances with AdaBoost



- AdaBoost calls the base learner L with probability distribution  $p_t$  specified by weights on the instances
- there are two ways to handle this
  - Adapt L to learn from weighted instances; straightforward for decision trees and naïve Bayes, among others
  - 2. Sample a large (>> m) unweighted set of instances according to  $p_t$ ; run L in the ordinary manner

# Empirical evaluation of boosting with C4.500

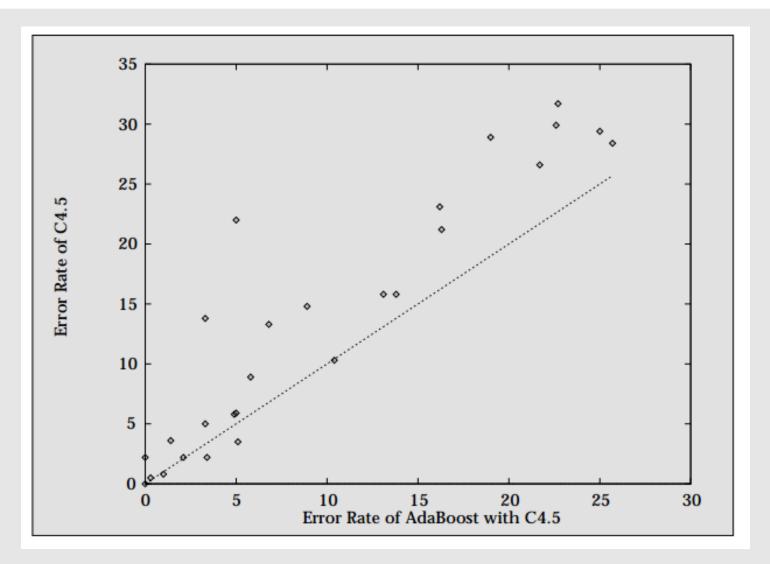


Figure from Dietterich, Al Magazine, 1997

# Bagging and boosting with C4.5



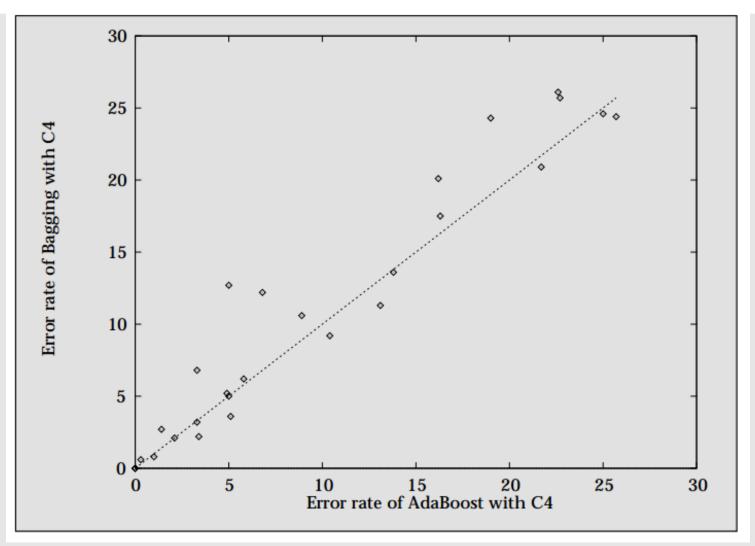


Figure from Dietterich, AI Magazine, 1997

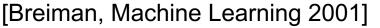
## Empirical study of bagging vs. boosting



[Opitz & Maclin, JAIR 1999]

- 23 data sets
- C4.5 and neural nets as base learners
- bagging almost always better than single decision tree or neural net
- boosting can be much better than bagging
- however, boosting can sometimes reduce accuracy (too much emphasis on outliers?)

### Random forests





```
given: candidate feature splits F, training set D = \{ \langle x_1, y_1 \rangle \dots \langle x_m, y_m \rangle \} for i \leftarrow 1 to T do D^{(i)} \leftarrow m instances randomly drawn with replacement from D h_i \leftarrow randomized decision tree learned with F, D^{(i)}
```

#### randomized decision tree learning:

to select a split at a node

 $R \leftarrow \text{randomly select (without replacement)} f \text{ feature splits from } F$  (where  $f \approx \sqrt{|F|}$ ) choose the best feature split in R

do not prune trees

### classification/regression:

as in bagging

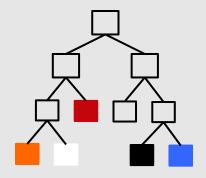
# Learning models for multi-class problems



• consider a learning task with k > 2 classes



• with some learning methods, we can learn one model to predict the *k* classes

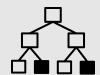


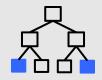
an alternative approach is to learn k models; each represents one class
 vs. the rest











but we could learn models to represent other encodings as well

## Error correcting output codes

[Dietterich & Bakiri, JAIR 1995]



- ensemble method devised specifically for problems with many classes
  - represent each class by a multi-bit code word
  - learn a classifier to represent each bit function

	Code Word														
Class	$f_0$	$f_1$	$f_2$	$f_3$	$f_4$	$f_5$	$f_6$	$f_7$	$f_8$	$f_9$	$f_{10}$	$f_{11}$	$f_{12}$	$f_{13}$	$f_{14}$
0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	1
1	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0
2	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	1
3	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
4	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
5	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1
6	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1
7	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1
8	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1
9	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	1



## Classification with ECOC



- to classify a test instance x using an ECOC ensemble with T classifiers
  - 1. form a vector  $h(x) = \langle h_I(x) \dots h_T(x) \rangle$  where  $h_i(x)$  is the prediction of the model for the  $i^{\text{th}}$  bit
  - 2. find the codeword c with the smallest Hamming distance to h(x)
  - 3. predict the class associated with *c*

• if the minimum Hamming distance between any pair of codewords is d, we can still get the right classification with  $\left\lfloor \frac{d-1}{2} \right\rfloor$  single-bit errors

recall,  $\lfloor x \rfloor$  is the largest integer not greater than x

# Error correcting code design



### a good ECOC should satisfy two properties

- 1. row separation: each codeword should be well separated in Hamming distance from every other codeword
- 2. column separation: each bit position should be uncorrelated with the other bit positions

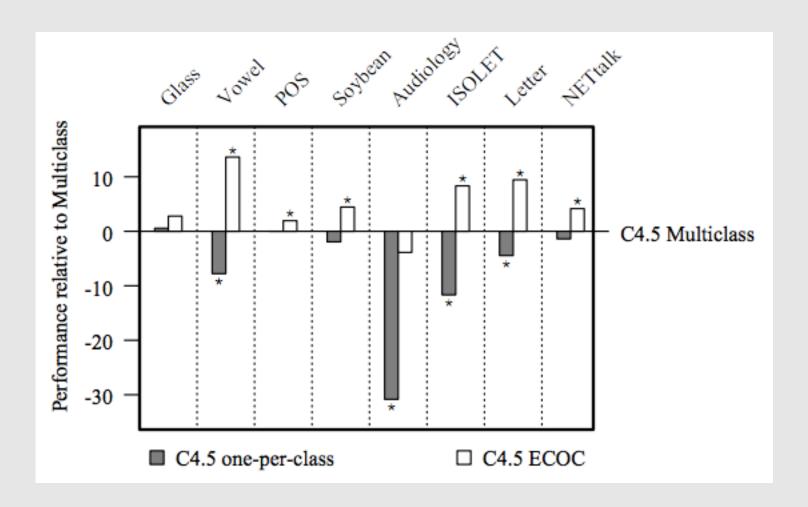
		Code Word														
	Class	$f_0$	$f_1$	$f_2$	$f_3$	$f_4$	$f_5$	$f_6$	$f_7$	$f_8$	$f_9$	$f_{10}$	$f_{11}$	$f_{12}$	$f_{13}$	$f_{14}$
	0	1	1	-0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	1
L	1	0	-0	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0
	2	-1	0	-0	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	1
	3	0	-0	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
-	4	1	-1	- 1	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
	5	0	-1	-0	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1
	6	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1
	7	0	0	-0	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1
	8	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1
	9	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	1

7 bits apart

$$d = 7$$
 so this code can correct  $\left| \frac{7-1}{2} \right| = 3$  errors

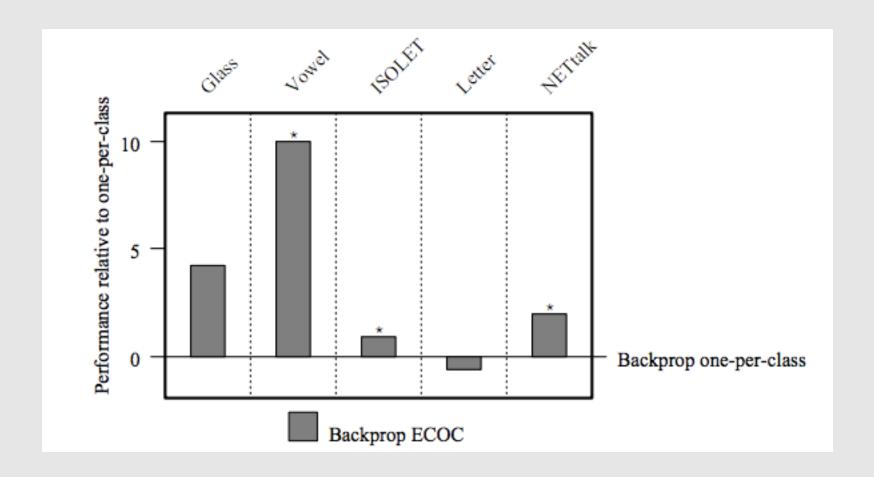
## ECOC evaluation with C4.5





## ECOC evaluation with neural nets





### Other Ensemble Methods



- Use different parameter settings with same algorithm
- Use different learning algorithms
- Instead of voting or weighted voting, learn the combining function itself
  - Called "Stacking"
  - Higher risk of overfitting
  - Ideally, train arbitrator function on different subset of data than used for input models
- Naïve Bayes is weighted vote of stumps

## Comments on ensembles



- They very often provide a boost in accuracy over base learner
- It's a good idea to evaluate an ensemble approach for almost any practical learning problem
- They increase runtime over base learner, but compute cycles are usually much cheaper than training instances
- Some ensemble approaches (e.g. bagging, random forests) are easily parallelized
- Prediction contests (e.g. Kaggle, Netflix Prize) usually won by ensemble solutions
- Ensemble models are usually low on the comprehensibility scale, although see work by

[Craven & Shavlik, NIPS 1996]

[Domingos, Intelligent Data Analysis 1998]

[Van Assche & Blockeel, ECML 2007]



