Boosting

Nicolas Verzelen, Alexis Joly

INRA,Inria

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Nicolas Verzelen, Alexis Joly

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Adaboost (Freund and Shapire 1996)

Le terme de boosting vient de l'idée de "booster" un algorithme, a priori peu performant - faible, pour en faire un algorithme fort.

attention On se concentre ici sur le cas de la discrimination binaire. Représentation schèmatique de l'algorithme Adaboost

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \dot{\mathrm{E}}\mathrm{chantillon\ initial} & \rightarrow & \widehat{\varphi}_1 \\ \downarrow & & & \\ \dot{\mathrm{E}}\mathrm{chantillon\ pond\acute{e}r\acute{e}} & \rightarrow & \widehat{\varphi}_2 \\ \downarrow & & & \\ \vdots & & & \\ \dot{\mathrm{E}}\mathrm{chantillon\ pond\acute{e}r\acute{e}} & \rightarrow & \widehat{\varphi}_B \end{array} \right\} \varphi = \mathrm{signe} \Big(\sum_{b=1}^{B} \alpha_b \varphi_b \Big)$$

Algorithme Adaboost

input $\ : \varphi_{d^w}$ algorithme faible calculable sur l'échantillon d_1^n pondéré par $w:d^w$

begin

```
Initialiser \eta^0(\mathbf{x}) et w_i^1 = 1/n pour tout i;
       for b = 1, \ldots, B do
              Calculer \phi_b = \phi_{dw^b};
              Calculer \varepsilon_b = \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i^b \mathbf{1}_{\mathbf{y}_i \neq \Phi_b(\mathbf{x}_i)} puis \alpha_b = \frac{1}{2} \ln \left( \frac{1 - \varepsilon_b}{\varepsilon_b} \right);
             Mettre à jour \widehat{\eta}^{b} = \widehat{\eta}^{b-1} + \alpha_{b} \phi_{b};
             Mettre à jour les poids w_i^{b+1} = w_i^b e^{2\alpha_b 1_{Y_i \neq \phi_b(x_i)}};
              Renormaliser les poids pour que \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i^{b+1} = 1
       end
      output : \widehat{\eta}^{B}(x)
end
```

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Remarques

- La première étape de l'algorithme nécessite un algorithme faible pouvant être implémenté sur un échantillon pondéré. Dans le cas contraire, on applique l'algorithme sur un échantillon tiré avec remise dans l'échantillon de départ selon les poids voulus.
- ▶ A chaque étape, le poids de l'observation i n'est augmentée que si l'observation est mal classée. Ainsi l'algorithme faible est forcé à se concentrer sur les observation difficiles à classer.
- ► Le poids α_b de l'algorithme ϕ_b augmente avec la performance de ϕ_b mesurée sur l'échantillon : α_b augmente lorsque ε_b diminue.

Illustration



Nicolas Verzelen, Alexis Joly

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Itération 1 : Algorithme faible sur l'échantillon initial



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Mise à jour des poids



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Itération 2 : Algorithme faible sur l'échantillon pondéré



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Mise à jour des poids



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Itération 3 : algorithme faible sur échantillon pondéré



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Mise à jour des poids



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Algorithme boosté



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A Gentle Introduction to Gradient Boosting

Cheng Li chengli@ccs.neu.edu College of Computer and Information Science Northeastern University

Gradient Boosting = Gradient Descent + Boosting

Gradient Boosting

- ► Fit an additive model (ensemble) ∑_t ρ_t h_t(x) in a forward stage-wise manner.
- In each stage, introduce a weak learner to compensate the shortcomings of existing weak learners.
- In Gradient Boosting, "shortcomings" are identified by gradients.
- Recall that, in Adaboost, "shortcomings" are identified by high-weight data points.
- Both high-weight data points and gradients tell us how to improve our model.

Why and how did researchers invent Gradient Boosting?



- Invent Adaboost, the first successful boosting algorithm [Freund et al., 1996, Freund and Schapire, 1997]
- Formulate Adaboost as gradient descent with a special loss function[Breiman et al., 1998, Breiman, 1999]
- Generalize Adaboost to Gradient Boosting in order to handle a variety of loss functions [Friedman et al., 2000, Friedman, 2001]

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Gradient Boosting for Different Problems Difficulty: regression ===> classification ===> ranking

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Gradient Boosting for Regression

Let's play a game...

You are given $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), ..., (x_n, y_n)$, and the task is to fit a model F(x) to minimize square loss.

Suppose your friend wants to help you and gives you a model F. You check his model and find the model is good but not perfect. There are some mistakes: $F(x_1) = 0.8$, while $y_1 = 0.9$, and $F(x_2) = 1.4$ while $y_2 = 1.3...$ How can you improve this model?

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▶ You are not allowed to remove anything from *F* or change any parameter in *F*.

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- ▶ You are not allowed to remove anything from *F* or change any parameter in *F*.
- You can add an additional model (regression tree) h to F, so the new prediction will be F(x) + h(x).

You wish to improve the model such that

$$F(x_1) + h(x_1) = y_1$$

 $F(x_2) + h(x_2) = y_2$

$$F(x_n) + h(x_n) = y_n$$

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Or, equivalently, you wish

$$h(x_1) = y_1 - F(x_1)$$

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Just fit a regression tree h to data

$$(x_1, y_1 - F(x_1)), (x_2, y_2 - F(x_2)), ..., (x_n, y_n - F(x_n))$$

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But some regression tree might be able to do this approximately. How?

Just fit a regression tree h to data $(x_1, y_1 - F(x_1)), (x_2, y_2 - F(x_2)), ..., (x_n, y_n - F(x_n))$ Congratulations, you get a better model!

 $y_i - F(x_i)$ are called **residuals**. These are the parts that existing model *F* cannot do well.

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We are improving the predictions of training data, is the procedure also useful for test data?

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How is this related to gradient descent?

Gradient Descent

Minimize a function by moving in the opposite direction of the gradient.

$$\theta_i := \theta_i - \rho \frac{\partial J}{\partial \theta_i}$$



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Figure: Gradient Descent. Source: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gradient_descent

How is this related to gradient descent?

Loss function $L(y, F(x)) = (y - F(x))^2/2$ We want to minimize $J = \sum_i L(y_i, F(x_i))$ by adjusting $F(x_1), F(x_2), ..., F(x_n)$. Notice that $F(x_1), F(x_2), ..., F(x_n)$ are just some numbers. We can treat $F(x_i)$ as parameters and take derivatives

$$\frac{\partial J}{\partial F(x_i)} = \frac{\partial \sum_i L(y_i, F(x_i))}{\partial F(x_i)} = \frac{\partial L(y_i, F(x_i))}{\partial F(x_i)} = F(x_i) - y_i$$

So we can interpret residuals as negative gradients.

$$y_i - F(x_i) = -\frac{\partial J}{\partial F(x_i)}$$

How is this related to gradient descent?

$$F(x_i) := F(x_i) + h(x_i)$$

$$F(x_i) := F(x_i) + y_i - F(x_i)$$

$$F(x_i) := F(x_i) - 1 \frac{\partial J}{\partial F(x_i)}$$

$$\theta_i := \theta_i - \rho \frac{\partial J}{\partial \theta_i}$$

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So we are actually updating our model using gradient descent!

How is this related to gradient descent? For regression with **square loss**,

 $residual \Leftrightarrow negative \ gradient$

fit h to residual \Leftrightarrow fit h to negative gradient

update F based on residual \Leftrightarrow update F based on negative gradient

So we are actually updating our model using **gradient descent**! It turns out that the concept of **gradients** is more general and useful than the concept of **residuals**. So from now on, let's stick with gradients. The reason will be explained later.

Regression with square Loss

Let us summarize the algorithm we just derived using the concept of gradients. Negative gradient:

$$-g(x_i) = -\frac{\partial L(y_i, F(x_i))}{\partial F(x_i)} = y_i - F(x_i)$$

start with an initial model, say, $F(x) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i}{n}$ iterate until converge:

calculate negative gradients $-g(x_i)$ fit a regression tree h to negative gradients $-g(x_i)$ $F := F + \rho h$, where $\rho = 1$

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calculate negative gradients $-g(x_i)$ fit a regression tree h to negative gradients $-g(x_i)$ $F := F + \rho h$, where $\rho = 1$

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.

Why do we need to consider other loss functions? Isn't square loss good enough?

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Square loss is:

- ✓ Easy to deal with mathematically
- \times Not robust to outliers

Outliers are heavily punished because the error is squared. Example:

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Уi	0.5	1.2	2	5 *
$F(x_i)$	0.6	1.4	1.5	1.7
$L = (y - F)^2/2$	0.005	0.02	0.125	5.445
C				

Consequence?

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Consequence?

Pay too much attention to outliers. Try hard to incorporate outliers into the model. Degrade the overall performance.

Absolute loss (more robust to outliers)

$$L(y,F) = |y-F|$$

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Absolute loss (more robust to outliers)

$$L(y,F) = |y-F|$$

Huber loss (more robust to outliers)

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

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Gradient Boosting for Regression

Loss Functions for Regression Problem

Absolute loss (more robust to outliers)

$$L(y,F) = |y-F|$$

Huber loss (more robust to outliers)

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

Уi	0.5	1.2	2	5*
$F(x_i)$	0.6	1.4	1.5	1.7
Square loss	0.005	0.02	0.125	5.445
Absolute loss	0.1	0.2	0.5	3.3
Huber loss($\delta = 0.5$)	0.005	0.02	0.125	1.525

Regression with Absolute Loss

Negative gradient:

$$-g(x_i) = -\frac{\partial L(y_i, F(x_i))}{\partial F(x_i)} = sign(y_i - F(x_i))$$

start with an initial model, say, $F(x) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i}{n}$ iterate until converge:

calculate gradients $-g(x_i)$

fit a regression tree h to negative gradients $-g(x_i)$ $F := F + \rho h$

Regression with Huber Loss

Negative gradient:

$$-g(x_i) = -\frac{\partial L(y_i, F(x_i))}{\partial F(x_i)}$$
$$= \begin{cases} y_i - F(x_i) & |y_i - F(x_i)| \le \delta \\ \delta sign(y_i - F(x_i)) & |y_i - F(x_i)| > \delta \end{cases}$$

start with an initial model, say, $F(x) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i}{n}$ iterate until converge:

calculate negative gradients $-g(x_i)$ fit a regression tree h to negative gradients $-g(x_i)$ $F := F + \rho h$ Regression with loss function L: general procedure Give any differentiable loss function L

start with an initial model, say $F(x) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i}{n}$ iterate until converge:

calculate negative gradients $-g(x_i) = -\frac{\partial L(y_i, F(x_i))}{\partial F(x_i)}$ fit a regression tree *h* to negative gradients $-g(x_i)$ $F := F + \rho h$

Exemple en régression

boosting régularisé pour les arbres de régression

```
input : d : profondeur de l'arbre,
            B : nombre d'arbres,
           \lambda \in (0, 1] paramètre de régularisation
begin
    Fixer \eta(x) = 0 et r_i = y_i pour tout i de l'ensemble d'entrainement.;
    for b = 1, \ldots, B do
         Ajuster un arbre \eta^{b} à d nœuds internes pour prédire les r_{i} avec x_{i};
         Mettre à jour \eta : \eta(x) \leftarrow \eta(x) + \lambda \eta^{b}(x);
         Mettre à jour les résidus r_i \leftarrow r_i - \lambda \eta^b(x_i);
    end
    output : \eta(x) = \sum_{b=1}^{B} \lambda \eta^{b}(x)
end
```

Données d'expression de gènes



Nicolas Verzelen, Alexis Joly

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- ► La figure précédente présente les résultats du boosting et de random forest sur le jeu de données d'expression de gènes
- ► L'erreur de test est représentée en fonction du nombres d'arbres. Pour les deux modèles ajustés par boosting, $\lambda = 0.01$. Les arbres de profondeur 1 battent légèrement ceux de profondeur 2, mais tous deux sont meilleurs que les forêts aléatoires. (L'erreur standard sur ce taux de mauvaise classification estimé est de 0.02, de telle sorte que la différence n'est pas très significative).
- \blacktriangleright La meilleure erreur de test avec un seul arbre est de 24%

Ajustement de B pour adaboost et variantes : compromis biais/variance Lorsque B augmente, le biais de l'algorithme diminue, mais la variance augmente. Son risque diminue donc dans un premier temps, puis augmente dans un second temps. Le choix optimal de B correspond donc au meilleur compromis biais/variance!

 \rightsquigarrow choix par validation croisée.

Néanmoins, adaboost résiste bien empiriquement à l'overfitting.

Ajustemet de B et λ pour le Gradient boosting régularisé Les choix de B et λ sont liés : si λ augmente le B optimal diminue et inversement... De très petites valeurs de λ peuvent nécessiter l'ajustement de nombreux arbres.

Le nombre de nœuds internes d. Il contrôle la complexité des éléments ajoutés. Souvent, d = 1 est une bonne valeur, auquel cas l'arbre est en forme de queue de cerise (une séparation)

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