

ENSEMBLE METHODS

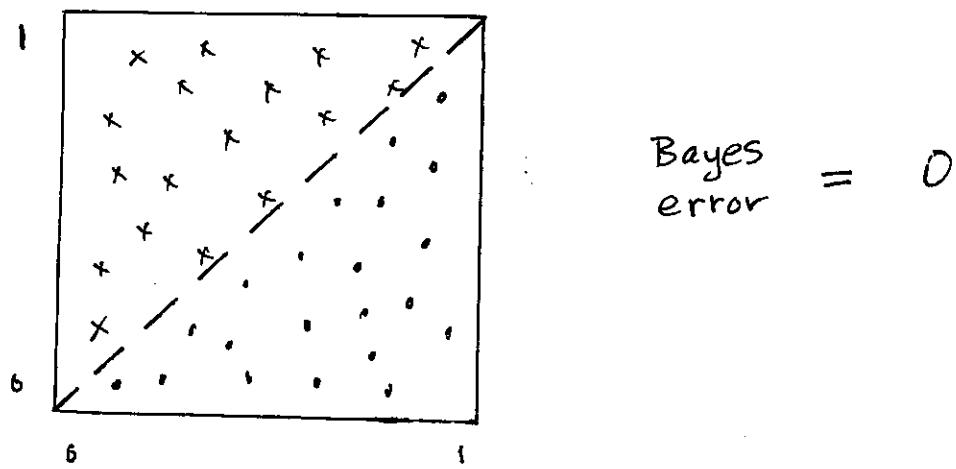
The idea behind ensemble methods is to generate several classifiers f_1, \dots, f_T using a variety of methods, and to combine them into a single classifier that performs better than any individual classifier.

Let's look at an ...

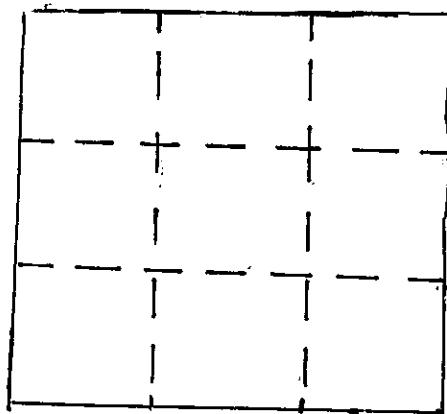
Example | Averaged Shifted Histograms

Suppose we observe two dimensional data,

$$x_i \in [0, 1]^2$$



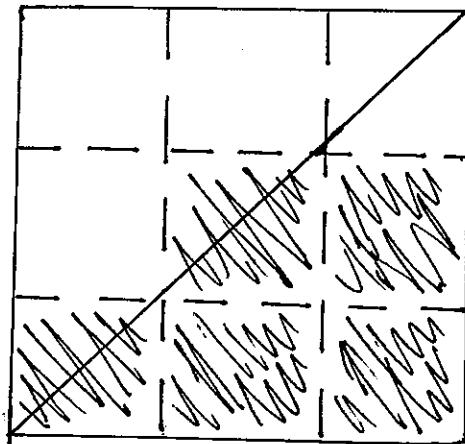
A very basic (and not recommended!) classifier is a histogram rule:



(A)

- assign the same label to patterns x in the same _____.
- determine label by _____ - _____.

As you can imagine, this classifier will not perform very well.

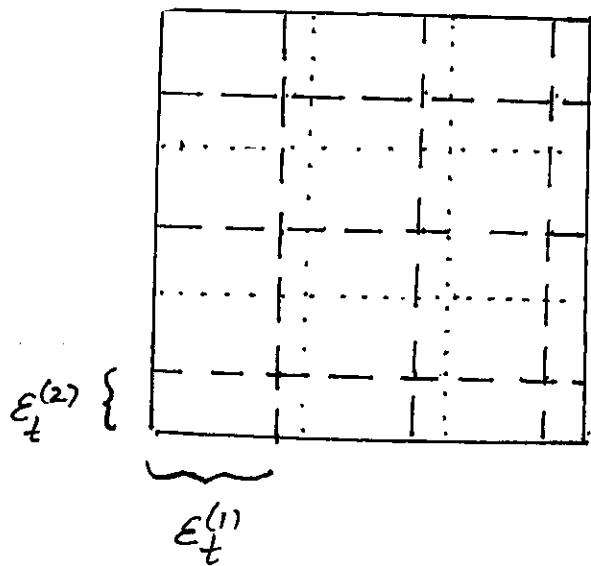


Let's generate a whole bunch of equally classifiers as follows.

(B)

For $t = 1, \dots, T$

- generate $\varepsilon_t^{(1)}, \varepsilon_t^{(2)} \in [0, \frac{1}{3})$
- shift the histogram by $[\varepsilon_t^{(1)}, \varepsilon_t^{(2)}]^T$ and construct f_t based on the shifted partition.



Now define the ensemble classifier

(C)

$$f(x) =$$

This classifier is remarkably effective.

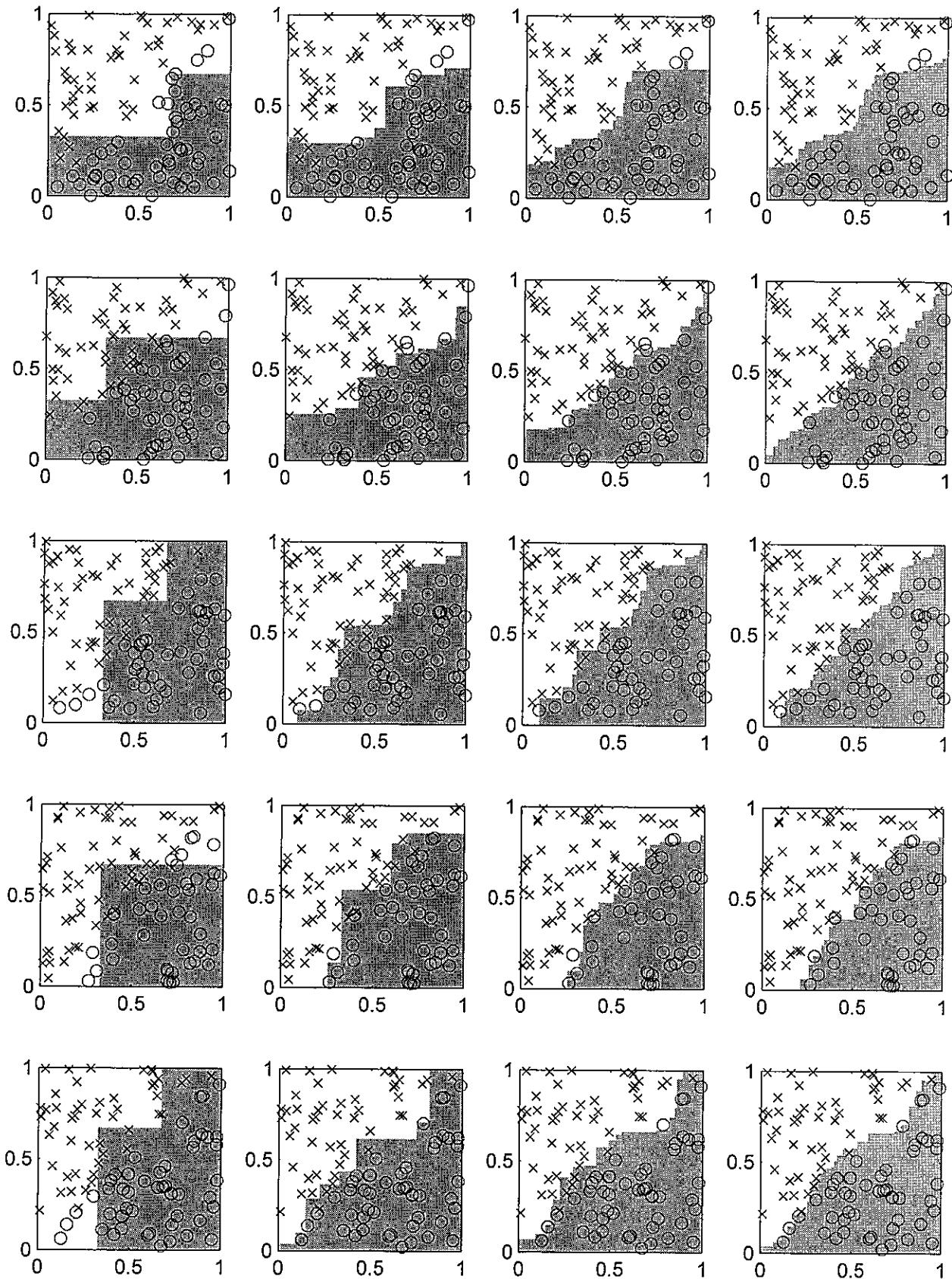
of votes = 1

5

11

21

↑
realizations of data
↓



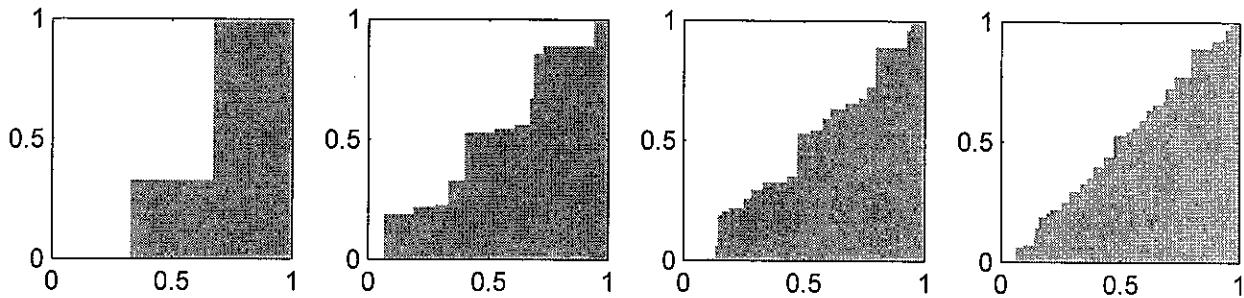
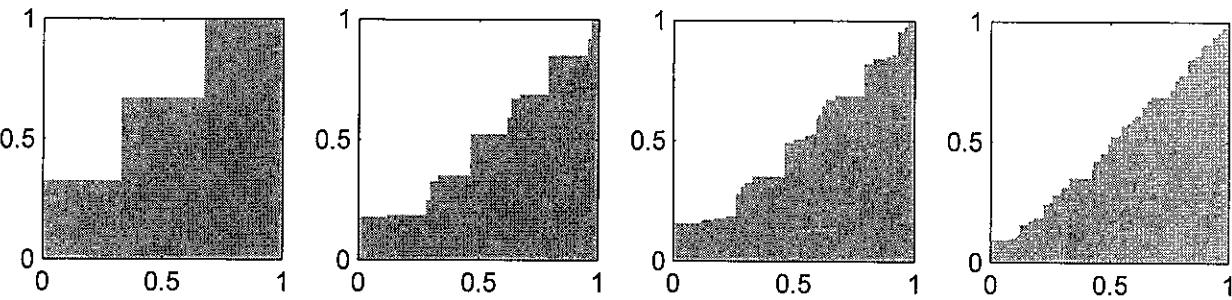
$n = 100$ points

of votes = 1

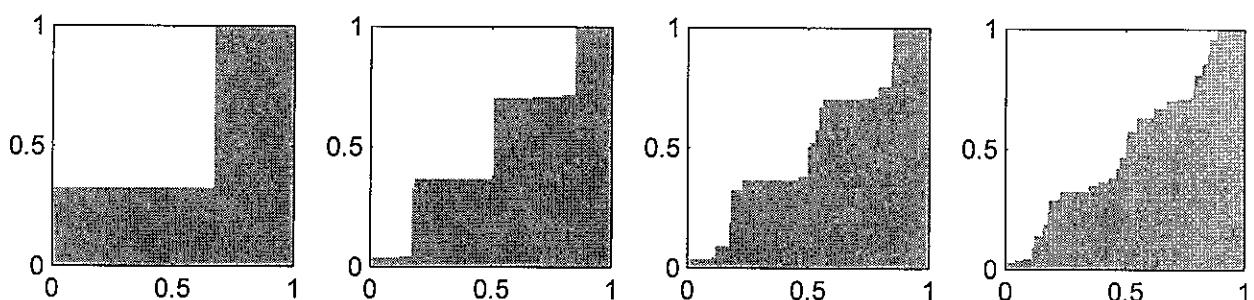
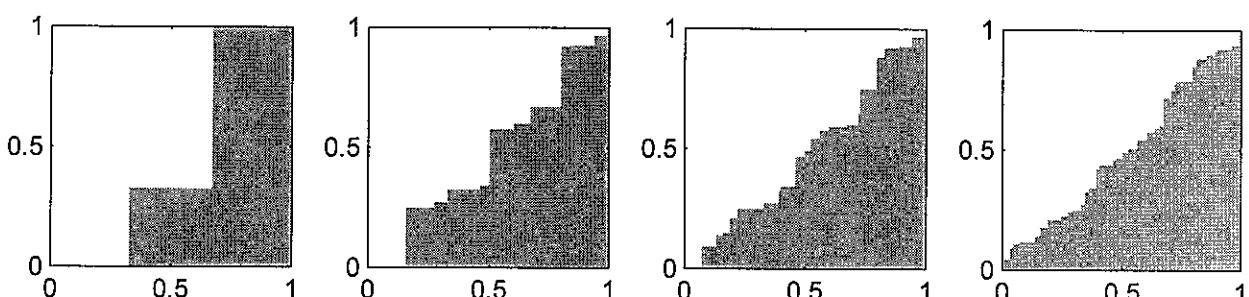
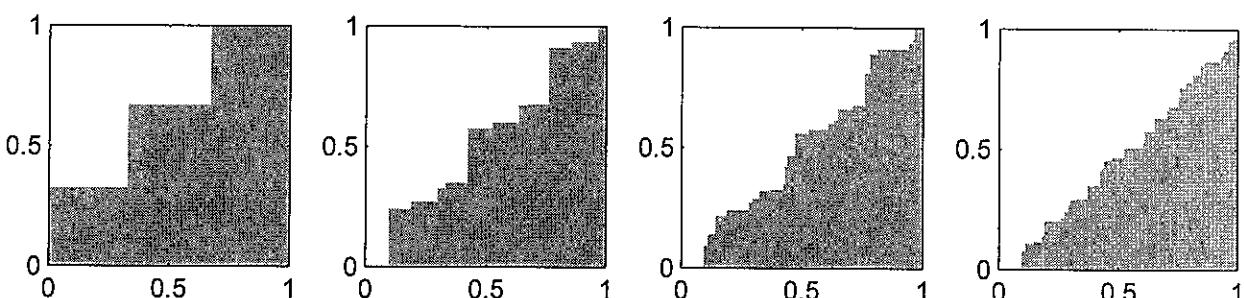
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realizations of data



$n = 1000$ points

Performance

Fix $x \in [0, 1]^2$. Let $f^*(x)$ = correct label.

For any $t = 1, \dots, T$ we have

$$\Pr \{ f_t(x) \neq f^*(x) \}$$

↑
with respect to choice of $\epsilon_t^{(1)}, \epsilon_t^{(2)}$

$$= \Pr \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{cell containing } x \text{ has } < \frac{1}{2} \\ \text{its area in same class as } x \end{array} \right\}$$

$$=: p(x) < \frac{1}{2} \quad \left[\begin{array}{l} \text{unless } x \text{ is on the} \\ \text{Bayes decision boundary} \end{array} \right]$$

Introduce the variable $Z_x \sim \text{binom}(T, p(x))$.

Then

$$\Pr \{ f(x) \neq f^*(x) \}$$

$$= \Pr \left\{ Z_x > \frac{T}{2} \right\}$$

Chernoff's
bound

$$= \Pr \left\{ Z_x > T \cdot p(x) + T \left(\frac{1}{2} - p(x) \right) \right\}$$

$$\leq e^{-T \left(\frac{1}{2} - p(x) \right)^2} \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } T \rightarrow \infty$$

This simple example illustrates two important properties of ensemble rules:

1. Combining classifiers that are

(D) _____ and _____ to

form a classifier that is

_____ and _____.

2. Increased _____.

Definition A classifier (or model) is stable if small changes in the training data do not result in large changes to the final classifier.

Our primary example of an unstable

(E) classifier is a _____.

On the downside, we lose _____.

Bagging

④ Bagging stands for _____.

Fix $B \geq 1$. Let I_b be a subset of $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ of size n , obtained by sampling with replacement.

Suppose we have adopted a specific learning strategy (e.g., decision trees, LDA) and set

$$f_b =$$

The bagging classifier is

$$f(x) =$$

Random forests

Random forests are ensemble methods that combine decision trees and some kind of randomization or resampling.

In addition to bagging, the most notable other random forest grows a large number of trees using a greedy procedure such that, at each node, the split is selected from a _____ of _____.

Among other advantages, this allows the application of trees to very _____ data.

Key

- A. cell, majority vote
- B. poor, uniformly at random
- C. majority vote over $f_1(x), \dots, f_T(x)$
- D. simple, poor ; complex, accurate ; stability
- E. decision tree ; interpretability
- F. Bootstrap aggregation,
 $f_b(x) = \text{classifier based on } \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i \in I_b}$
 $f(x) = \text{majority vote over } f_b(x) : b = 1, \dots, B$
- G. random subset of features ; high dimensional