

Machine Learning – Lecture 9

Model Combination

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Course Outline

- Fundamentals
 - Bayes Decision Theory
 - Probability Density Estimation
- Classification Approaches
 - Linear Discriminants
 - Support Vector Machines
 - > Ensemble Methods & Boosting
 - Randomized Trees, Forests & Ferns
- Deep Learning
 - Foundations
 - Convolutional Neural Networks
 - Recurrent Neural Networks







Topics of This Lecture

- Recap: Nonlinear Support Vector Machines
- Analysis
 - Error function
- Applications
- Ensembles of classifiers
 - Bagging
 - > Bayesian Model Averaging
- AdaBoost
 - Intuition
 - Algorithm
 - Analysis
 - Extensions

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Recap: Support Vector Machine (SVM)

- Basic idea
 - The SVM tries to find a classifier which maximizes the margin between pos. and neg. data points.

> Up to now: consider linear classifiers

$$\mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{x} + b = 0$$



 $t_n \in \{-1, 1\}$

- Formulation as a convex optimization problem
 - Find the hyperplane satisfying

$$\underset{\mathbf{w},b}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2$$

under the constraints

$$t_n(\mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{x}_n+b) \ge 1 \quad \forall n$$

based on training data points \mathbf{x}_n and target values



Recap: SVM – Dual Formulation

• Maximize

$$L_d(\mathbf{a}) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} a_n - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \sum_{m=1}^{N} a_n a_m t_n t_m(\mathbf{x}_m^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{x}_n)$$

under the conditions

$$a_n \geq 0 \quad \forall n$$

 $\sum_{n=1}^N a_n t_n = 0$

- Comparison
 - > L_d is equivalent to the primal form L_p , but only depends on a_n .
 - > L_p scales with $\mathcal{O}(D^3)$.
 - > L_d scales with $\mathcal{O}(N^3)$ in practice between $\mathcal{O}(N)$ and $\mathcal{O}(N^2)$.

Slide adapted from Bernt Schiele

Recap: SVM for Non-Separable Data

- Slack variables
 - > One slack variable $\xi_n \ge 0$ for each training data point.
- Interpretation
 - > $\xi_n = 0$ for points that are on the correct side of the margin.
 - > $\xi_n = |t_n y(\mathbf{x}_n)|$ for all other points.



Point on decision boundary: $\xi_n = 1$

 $\begin{array}{l} \text{Misclassified point:} \\ \xi_n > 1 \end{array}$

- > We do not have to set the slack variables ourselves!
- \Rightarrow They are jointly optimized together with \mathbf{w} .

Recap: SVM – New Dual Formulation

• New SVM Dual: Maximize

$$L_d(\mathbf{a}) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} a_n - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \sum_{m=1}^{N} a_n a_m t_n t_m(\mathbf{x}_m^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{x}_n)$$

under the conditions

$$egin{array}{ccc} 0 & \cdot & a_n & \cdot & C \ \sum_{n=1}^N a_n t_n & = & 0 \end{array}$$

This is all that changed!

 This is again a quadratic programming problem ⇒ Solve as before...



Recap: Nonlinear SVMs

 General idea: The original input space can be mapped to some higher-dimensional feature space where the training set is separable:





Recap: The Kernel Trick

- Important observation
 - > $\phi(\mathbf{x})$ only appears in the form of dot products $\phi(\mathbf{x})^{\mathsf{T}}\phi(\mathbf{y})$:

$$y(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \phi(\mathbf{x}) + b$$
$$= \sum_{n=1}^{N} a_n t_n \phi(\mathbf{x}_n)^{\mathrm{T}} \phi(\mathbf{x}) + b$$

- > Define a so-called kernel function $k(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) = \phi(\mathbf{x})^{\mathsf{T}}\phi(\mathbf{y})$.
- Now, in place of the dot product, use the kernel instead:

$$y(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} a_n t_n k(\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{x}) + b$$

> The kernel function *implicitly* maps the data to the higherdimensional space (without having to compute $\phi(\mathbf{x})$ explicitly)!



Nonlinear SVM – Dual Formulation

• SVM Dual: Maximize

$$L_d(\mathbf{a}) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} a_n - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \sum_{m=1}^{N} a_n a_m t_n t_m k(\mathbf{x}_m, \mathbf{x}_n)$$

under the conditions

$$0 \cdot a_n \cdot C$$
$$\sum_{n=1}^N a_n t_n = 0$$

Classify new data points using

$$y(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} a_n t_n \mathbf{k}(\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{x}) + b$$



Summary: SVMs

- Properties
 - Empirically, SVMs work very, very well.
 - SVMs are currently among the best performers for a number of classification tasks ranging from text to genomic data.
 - SVMs can be applied to complex data types beyond feature vectors (e.g. graphs, sequences, relational data) by designing kernel functions for such data.
 - SVM techniques have been applied to a variety of other tasks
 - e.g. SV Regression, One-class SVMs, ...
 - The kernel trick has been used for a wide variety of applications. It can be applied wherever dot products are in use
 - e.g. Kernel PCA, kernel FLD, ...
 - Good overview, software, and tutorials available on <u>http://www.kernel-machines.org/</u>



Summary: SVMs

- Limitations
 - How to select the right kernel?
 - Best practice guidelines are available for many applications
 - How to select the kernel parameters?
 - (Massive) cross-validation.
 - Usually, several parameters are optimized together in a grid search.
 - Solving the quadratic programming problem
 - Standard QP solvers do not perform too well on SVM task.
 - Dedicated methods have been developed for this, e.g. SMO.
 - Speed of evaluation
 - Evaluating $y(\mathbf{x})$ scales linearly in the number of SVs.
 - Too expensive if we have a large number of support vectors.
 - \Rightarrow There are techniques to reduce the effective SV set.
 - Training for very large datasets (millions of data points)
 - Stochastic gradient descent and other approximations can be used



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SVM – Analysis

Traditional soft-margin formulation

$$\min_{\mathbf{w}\in\mathbb{R}^{D},\,\boldsymbol{\xi}_{n}\in\mathbb{R}^{+}} \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^{2} + C\sum_{n=1}^{N} \boldsymbol{\xi}_{n}$$

λT

"Maximize the margin"

subject to the constraints

$$t_n y(\mathbf{x}_n) \geq 1 - \boldsymbol{\xi}_n$$

"Most points should be on the correct side of the margin"

- Different way of looking at it
 - We can reformulate the constraints into the objective function.

$$\min_{\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{D}} \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^{2}}_{\mathbf{L}_{2} \text{ regularizer}} + C \sum_{n=1}^{N} [1 - t_{n} y(\mathbf{x}_{n})]_{+}$$

$$\underbrace{\mathbf{L}_{2} \text{ regularizer}}_{\mathbf{H}_{2} \text{ regularizer}} \text{ "Hinge loss"}$$

$$\text{where } [x]_{+} := \max\{0, x\}.$$

Slide adapted from Christoph Lampert



- Ideal misclassification error function (black)
 - This is what we want to approximate,
 - > Unfortunately, it is not differentiable.
 - > The gradient is zero for misclassified points.
 - \Rightarrow We cannot minimize it by gradient descent.



Squared error used in Least-Squares Classification

- Very popular, leads to closed-form solutions.
- However, sensitive to outliers due to squared penalty.
- > Penalizes "too correct" data points
- \Rightarrow Generally does not lead to good classifiers.



Error Functions (Loss Functions)



"Hinge error" used in SVMs

- Zero error for points outside the margin $(z_n > 1) \implies$ sparsity
- > Linear penalty for misclassified points ($z_n < 1$) \Rightarrow robustness
- > Not differentiable around $z_n = 1 \Rightarrow$ Cannot be optimized directly.



SVM – Discussion

SVM optimization function



- Hinge loss enforces sparsity
 - Only a subset of training data points actually influences the decision boundary.
 - This is different from sparsity obtained through the regularizer! There, only a subset of input dimensions are used.
 - Unconstrained optimization, but non-differentiable function.
 - Solve, e.g. by subgradient descent
 - > Currently most efficient: *stochastic gradient descent*



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Example Application: Text Classification

- Problem:
 - Classify a document in a number of categories



• Representation:

- "Bag-of-words" approach
- Histogram of word counts (on learned dictionary)
 - Very high-dimensional feature space (~10.000 dimensions)
 - Few irrelevant features
- This was one of the first applications of SVMs
 - T. Joachims (1997)

Example Application: Text Classification

• Results:

					SVM (poly)				SVM (rbf)				
					degree $d =$			width $\gamma =$					
	Bayes	Rocchio	C4.5	k-NN	1	2	3	4	5	0.6	0.8	1.0	1.2
earn	95.9	96.1	96.1	97.3	98.2	98.4	98.5	98.4	98.3	98.5	98.5	98.4	98.3
acq	91.5	92.1	85.3	92.0	92.6	94.6	95.2	95.2	95.3	95.0	95.3	95.3	95.4
money-fx	62.9	67.6	69.4	78.2	66.9	72.5	75.4	74.9	76.2	74.0	75.4	76.3	75.9
grain	72.5	79.5	89.1	82.2	91.3	93.1	92.4	91.3	89.9	93.1	91.9	91.9	90.6
crude	81.0	81.5	75.5	85.7	86.0	87.3	88.6	88.9	87.8	88.9	89.0	88.9	88.2
trade	50.0	77.4	59.2	77.4	69.2	75.5	76.6	77.3	77.1	76.9	78.0	77.8	76.8
interest	58.0	72.5	49.1	74.0	69.8	63.3	67.9	73.1	76.2	74.4	75.0	76.2	76.1
ship	78.7	83.1	80.9	79.2	82.0	85.4	86.0	86.5	86.0	85.4	86.5	87.6	87.1
wheat	60.6	79.4	85.5	76.6	83.1	84.5	85.2	85.9	83.8	85.2	85.9	85.9	85.9
corn	47.3	62.2	87.7	77.9	86.0	86.5	85.3	85.7	83.9	85.1	85.7	85.7	84.5
microavg.	72.0	79.9	79.4	82.3	84.2	85.1	85.9	86.2	85.9	86.4	86.5	86.3	86.2
<u> </u>					combined: 86.0			combined: 86.4					

Example Application: Text Classification

• This is also how you could implement a simple spam filter...





Example Application: OCR

- Handwritten digit recognition
 - > US Postal Service Database
 - Standard benchmark task for many learning algorithms



Historical Importance

- USPS benchmark
 - > 2.5% error: human performance
- Different learning algorithms
 - > 16.2% error: Decision tree (C4.5)
 - 5.9% error: (best) 2-layer Neural Network
 - 5.1% error: LeNet 1 (massively hand-tuned) 5-layer network
- Different SVMs
 - 4.0% error: Polynomial kernel (p=3, 274 support vectors)
 - > 4.1% error: Gaussian kernel (σ =0.3, 291 support vectors)



Example Application: OCR

- Results
 - > Almost no overfitting with higher-degree kernels.

degree of	dimensionality of	support	raw
polynomial	feature space	vectors	error
1	256	282	8.9
2	pprox 33000	227	4.7
3	$pprox 1 imes 10^6$	274	4.0
4	$\approx 1 \times 10^9$	321	4.2
5	$pprox 1 imes 10^{12}$	374	4.3
6	$pprox 1 imes 10^{14}$	377	4.5
7	$pprox 1 imes 10^{16}$	422	4.5

Example Application: Object Detection

Sliding-window approach







- E.g. histogram representation (HOG)
 - Map each grid cell in the input window to a histogram of gradient orientations.
 - Train a linear SVM using training set of pedestrian vs. non-pedestrian windows.



[Dalal & Triggs, CVPR 2005]

Example Application: Pedestrian Detection



N. Dalal, B. Triggs, Histograms of Oriented Gradients for Human Detection, CVPR 2005



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So Far...

- We've seen already a variety of different classifiers
 - > k-NN
 - Bayes classifiers
 - Linear discriminants

SVMs



- Each of them has their strengths and weaknesses...
 - Can we improve performance by combining them?

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Ensembles of Classifiers

- Intuition
 - > Assume we have K classifiers.
 - > They are independent (i.e., their errors are uncorrelated).
 - > Each of them has an error probability p < 0.5 on training data.
 - Why can we assume that p won't be larger than 0.5?
 - Then a simple majority vote of all classifiers should have a lower error than each individual classifier...



Constructing Ensembles

- How do we get different classifiers?
 - Simplest case: train same classifier on different data.
 - But... where shall we get this additional data from?
 - Recall: training data is very expensive!
- Idea: Subsample the training data
 - Reuse the same training algorithm several times on different subsets of the training data.
- Well-suited for "unstable" learning algorithms
 - Unstable: small differences in training data can produce very different classifiers
 - E.g., Decision trees, neural networks, rule learning algorithms,...
 - Stable learning algorithms
 - E.g., Nearest neighbor, linear regression, SVMs,...



Constructing Ensembles

- Bagging = "Bootstrap aggregation" (Breiman 1996)
 - > In each run of the training algorithm, randomly select M samples from the full set of N training data points.
 - > If M = N, then on average, 63.2% of the training points will be represented. The rest are duplicates.
- Injecting randomness
 - Many (iterative) learning algorithms need a random initialization (e.g. k-means, EM)
 - Perform multiple runs of the learning algorithm with different random initializations.



Bayesian Model Averaging

- Model Averaging
 - > Suppose we have H different models h = 1, ..., H with prior probabilities p(h).
 - Construct the marginal distribution over the data set

$$p(\mathbf{X}) = \sum_{h=1}^{H} p(\mathbf{X}|h)p(h)$$

Interpretation

- Just one model is responsible for generating the entire data set.
- The probability distribution over h just reflects our uncertainty which model that is.
- > As the size of the data set increases, this uncertainty reduces, and $p(\mathbf{X}|h)$ becomes focused on just one of the models.



Note the Different Interpretations!

- Model Combination (e.g., Mixtures of Gaussians)
 - > Different data points generated by different model components.
 - Uncertainty is about which component created which data point.
 - \Rightarrow One latent variable \mathbf{z}_n for each data point:

$$p(\mathbf{X}) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} p(\mathbf{x}_n) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} \sum_{\mathbf{z}_n} p(\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{z}_n)$$

- Bayesian Model Averaging
 - > The whole data set is *generated by a single model*.
 - Uncertainty is about which model was responsible.
 - \Rightarrow One latent variable \mathbf{z} for the entire data set:

$$p(\mathbf{X}) = \sum_{\mathbf{z}} p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{z})$$

35

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Model Averaging: Expected Error

- Combine *M* predictors $y_m(\mathbf{x})$ for target output $h(\mathbf{x})$.
 - > E.g. each trained on a different bootstrap data set by bagging.
 - The committee prediction is given by

$$y_{COM}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^{M} y_m(\mathbf{x})$$

The output can be written as the true value plus some error.

$$y(\mathbf{x}) = h(\mathbf{x}) + \epsilon(\mathbf{x})$$

> Thus, the expected sum-of-squares error takes the form $\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x}} = \left[\left\{ y_m(\mathbf{x}) - h(\mathbf{x}) \right\}^2 \right] = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x}} \left[\epsilon_m(\mathbf{x})^2 \right]$



Model Averaging: Expected Error

Average error of individual models

$$\mathbb{E}_{AV} = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^{M} \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x}} \left[\epsilon_m(\mathbf{x})^2 \right]$$

Average error of committee

$$\mathbb{E}_{COM} = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x}} \left[\left\{ \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^{M} y_m(\mathbf{x}) - h(\mathbf{x}) \right\}^2 \right] = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x}} \left[\left\{ \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^{M} \epsilon_m(\mathbf{x}) \right\}^2 \right]$$

- Assumptions
 - Errors have zero mean: \triangleright
 - Errors are uncorrelated:

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x}} \left[\epsilon_m(\mathbf{x}) \right] = 0$$
$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x}} \left[\epsilon_m(\mathbf{x}) \epsilon_j(\mathbf{x}) \right] = 0$$

 $\mathbb{E}\left[\epsilon \left(\mathbf{x}\right)\right] = 0$

Then:

$$\mathbb{E}_{COM} = \frac{1}{M} \mathbb{E}_{AV}$$

1




Model Averaging: Expected Error

• Average error of committee

$$\mathbb{E}_{COM} = \frac{1}{M} \mathbb{E}_{AV}$$

- > This suggests that the average error of a model can be reduced by a factor of M simply by averaging M versions of the model!
- Spectacular indeed...
- This sounds almost too good to be true...
- And it is... Can you see where the problem is?
 - Unfortunately, this result depends on the assumption that the errors are all uncorrelated.
 - In practice, they will typically be highly correlated.
 - Still, it can be shown that

$$\mathbb{E}_{COM} \cdot \mathbb{E}_{AV}$$

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AdaBoost - "Adaptive Boosting"

• Main idea

[Freund & Schapire, 1996]

- Iteratively select an ensemble of component classifiers
- After each iteration, reweight misclassified training examples.
 - Increase the chance of being selected in a sampled training set.
 - Or increase the misclassification cost when training on the full set.
- Components
 - > $h_m(\mathbf{x})$: "weak" or base classifier
 - Condition: <50% training error over any distribution
 - > $H(\mathbf{x})$: "strong" or final classifier
- AdaBoost:
 - Construct a strong classifier as a thresholded linear combination of the weighted weak classifiers:

$$H(\mathbf{x}) = sign\left(\sum_{\substack{m=1\\B \ l \ \text{eibe}}}^{M} \alpha_m h_m(\mathbf{x})\right)$$

39

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AdaBoost: Intuition



Consider a 2D feature space with positive and negative examples.

Each weak classifier splits the training examples with at least 50% accuracy.

Examples misclassified by a previous weak learner are given more emphasis at future rounds.



AdaBoost: Intuition







AdaBoost: Intuition



Weak classifier 3

The final classifier is a linear combination of the weak classifiers



Slide credit: Kristen Grauman



AdaBoost – Formalization

- 2-class classification problem
 - > Given: training set $\mathbf{X} = \{\mathbf{x}_1, ..., \mathbf{x}_N\}$ with target values $\mathbf{T} = \{t_1, ..., t_N\}, t_n \in \{-1, 1\}$.
 - > Associated weights $\mathbf{W} = \{w_1, ..., w_N\}$ for each training point.
- Basic steps
 - > In each iteration, AdaBoost trains a new weak classifier $h_m(\mathbf{x})$ based on the current weighting coefficients $\mathbf{W}^{(m)}$.
 - > We then adapt the weighting coefficients for each point
 - Increase w_n if \mathbf{x}_n was misclassified by $h_m(\mathbf{x})$.
 - Decrease w_n if \mathbf{x}_n was classified correctly by $h_m(\mathbf{x})$.
 - Make predictions using the final combined model

$$H(\mathbf{x}) = sign\left(\sum_{\substack{m=1\\\text{B. Leibe}}}^{M} \alpha_m h_m(\mathbf{x})\right)$$

43



AdaBoost – Algorithm

- 1. Initialization: Set $w_n^{(1)} = \frac{1}{N}$ or n = 1, ..., N.
- **2.** For m = 1, ..., M iterations
 - a) Train a new weak classifier $h_m(\mathbf{x})$ using the current weighting coefficients $\mathbf{W}^{(m)}$ by minimizing the weighted error function

$$J_m = \sum_{n=1}^{N} w_n^{(m)} I(h_m(\mathbf{x}) \neq t_n) \qquad I(A) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } A \text{ is true} \\ 0, & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

b) Estimate the weighted error of this classifier on \mathbf{X} :

$$\epsilon_m = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^N w_n^{(m)} I(h_m(\mathbf{x}) \neq t_n)}{\sum_{n=1}^N w_n^{(m)}}$$

c) Calculate a weighting coefficient for $h_m(\mathbf{x})$:

$$\alpha_m = ?$$

d) Update the weighting coefficients:

$$w_n^{(m+1)} = ?$$

How should we do this exactly?

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AdaBoost – Historical Development

- Originally motivated by Statistical Learning Theory
 - AdaBoost was introduced in 1996 by Freund & Schapire.
 - It was empirically observed that AdaBoost often tends not to overfit. (Breiman 96, Cortes & Drucker 97, etc.)
 - As a result, the margin theory (Schapire et al. 98) developed, which is based on loose generalization bounds.
 - Note: margin for boosting is *not* the same as margin for SVM.
 - A bit like retrofitting the theory...
 - However, those bounds are too loose to be of practical value.
- Different explanation (Friedman, Hastie, Tibshirani, 2000)
 - Interpretation as sequential minimization of an exponential error function ("Forward Stagewise Additive Modeling").
 - Explains why boosting works well.
 - > Improvements possible by altering the error function.

• Exponential error function

$$E = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \exp\left\{-t_n f_m(\mathbf{x}_n)\right\}$$

> where $f_m(\mathbf{x})$ is a classifier defined as a linear combination of base classifiers $h_l(\mathbf{x})$:

$$f_m(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{l=1}^m \alpha_l h_l(\mathbf{x})$$

- Goal
 - > Minimize *E* with respect to both the weighting coefficients α_l and the parameters of the base classifiers $h_l(\mathbf{x})$.

- Sequential Minimization
 - > Suppose that the base classifiers $h_1(\mathbf{x}), \ldots, h_{m-1}(\mathbf{x})$ and their coefficients $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_{m-1}$ are fixed.
 - \Rightarrow Only minimize with respect to α_m and $h_m(\mathbf{x})$.



$$E = \sum_{n=1}^{N} w_n^{(m)} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}t_n \alpha_m h_m(\mathbf{x}_n)\right\}$$

- > Observation:
 - Correctly classified points: $t_n h_m(\mathbf{x}_n) = +1 \implies$ collect in \mathcal{T}_m
 - Misclassified points: $t_n h_m(\mathbf{x}_n) = -1$

 $\Rightarrow \text{ collect in } \mathcal{T}_m$ $\Rightarrow \text{ collect in } \mathcal{F}_m$

Rewrite the error function as

$$E = e^{-\alpha_m/2} \sum_{n \in \mathcal{T}_m} w_n^{(m)} + e^{\alpha_m/2} \sum_{n \in \mathcal{F}_m} w_n^{(m)}$$
$$= \left(e^{\alpha_m/2}\right) \sum_{n=1}^N w_n^{(m)} I(h_m(\mathbf{x}_n) \neq t_n)$$

$$E = \sum_{n=1}^{N} w_n^{(m)} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}t_n \alpha_m h_m(\mathbf{x}_n)\right\}$$

- Observation:
 - Correctly classified points: $t_n h_m(\mathbf{x}_n) = +1$ \Rightarrow collect in \mathcal{T}_m
 - Misclassified points: $t_n h_m(\mathbf{x}_n) = -1$

 $\Rightarrow \text{ collect in } \mathcal{F}_m$ $\Rightarrow \text{ collect in } \mathcal{F}_m$

Rewrite the error function as

$$E = e^{-\alpha_m/2} \sum_{n \in \mathcal{T}_m} w_n^{(m)} + e^{\alpha_m/2} \sum_{n \in \mathcal{F}_m} w_n^{(m)}$$
$$= \left(e^{\alpha_m/2} - e^{-\alpha_m/2}\right) \sum_{n=1}^N w_n^{(m)} I(h_m(\mathbf{x}_n) \neq t_n) + e^{-\alpha_m/2} \sum_{n=1}^N w_n^{(m)}$$

49

• Minimize with respect to $h_m(\mathbf{x})$: $\frac{\partial E}{\partial h_m(\mathbf{x}_m)} \stackrel{!}{=} 0$

$$E = \left(e^{\alpha_m/2} - e^{-\alpha_m/2}\right) \sum_{n=1}^{N} w_n^{(m)} I(h_m(\mathbf{x}_n) \neq t_n) + e^{-\alpha_m/2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} w_n^{(m)}$$

= const. = const.

 \Rightarrow This is equivalent to minimizing

$$J_m = \sum_{n=1}^N w_n^{(m)} I(h_m(\mathbf{x}) \neq t_n)$$

(our weighted error function from step 2a) of the algorithm)

 \Rightarrow We're on the right track. Let's continue...

• Minimize with respect to α_m : $\frac{\partial E}{\partial \alpha_m} \stackrel{!}{=} 0$

$$E = \left(e^{\alpha_m/2} - e^{-\alpha_m/2}\right) \sum_{n=1}^N w_n^{(m)} I(h_m(\mathbf{x}_n) \neq t_n) + e^{-\alpha_m/2} \sum_{n=1}^N w_n^{(m)}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{p} e^{\alpha_m/2} + \frac{1}{p} e^{-\alpha_m/2} \end{pmatrix} \sum_{n=1}^{N} w_n^{(m)} I(h_m(\mathbf{x}_n) \neq t_n) \quad \stackrel{!}{=} \quad \frac{1}{p} e^{-\alpha_m/2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} w_n^{(m)} \\ \frac{1}{p} e^{-\alpha_m/2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} w_n^{(m)} I(h_m(\mathbf{x}_n) \neq t_n) \\ \stackrel{\text{error}}{=} \quad \frac{e^{-\alpha_m/2}}{e^{\alpha_m/2} + e^{-\alpha_m/2}} \\ \epsilon_m \quad = \quad \frac{1}{e^{\alpha_m} + 1} \end{cases}$$

 \Rightarrow Update for the α coefficients:

$$\alpha_m = \ln\left\{\frac{1-\epsilon_m}{\epsilon_m}\right\}$$

- Remaining step: update the weights
 - Recall that

$$E = \sum_{n=1}^{N} w_n^{(m)} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}t_n \alpha_m h_m(\mathbf{x}_n)\right\}$$

This becomes $w_n^{(m+1)}$
in the next iteration

> Therefore

$$w_n^{(m+1)} = w_n^{(m)} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}t_n\alpha_m h_m(\mathbf{x}_n)\right\}$$
$$= \dots$$
$$= w_n^{(m)} \exp\left\{\alpha_m I(h_m(\mathbf{x}_n) \neq t_n)\right\}$$

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 \Rightarrow Update for the weight coefficients.



AdaBoost – Final Algorithm

- **1.** Initialization: Set $w_n^{(1)} = \frac{1}{N}$ or n = 1, ..., N.
- **2.** For m = 1, ..., M iterations
 - a) Train a new weak classifier $h_m(\mathbf{x})$ using the current weighting coefficients $\mathbf{W}^{(m)}$ by minimizing the weighted error function

$$J_m = \sum_{n=1}^{N} w_n^{(m)} I(h_m(\mathbf{x}) \neq t_n)$$

b) Estimate the weighted error of this classifier on X:

$$\epsilon_m = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^N w_n^{(m)} I(h_m(\mathbf{x}) \neq t_n)}{\sum_{n=1}^N w_n^{(m)}}$$

c) Calculate a weighting coefficient for $h_m(\mathbf{x})$:

$$\alpha_m = \ln\left\{\frac{1-\epsilon_m}{\epsilon_m}\right\}$$

d) Update the weighting coefficients:

 $w_n^{(m+1)} = w_n^{(m)} \exp\left\{\alpha_m I(h_m(\mathbf{x}_n) \neq t_n)\right\}$



AdaBoost – Analysis

- Result of this derivation
 - We now know that AdaBoost minimizes an exponential error function in a sequential fashion.
 - This allows us to analyze AdaBoost's behavior in more detail.
 - In particular, we can see how robust it is to outlier data points.



- Ideal misclassification error function (black)
 - This is what we want to approximate,
 - > Unfortunately, it is not differentiable.
 - > The gradient is zero for misclassified points.
 - \Rightarrow We cannot minimize it by gradient descent.



Squared error used in Least-Squares Classification

- Very popular, leads to closed-form solutions.
- > However, sensitive to outliers due to squared penalty.
- > Penalizes "too correct" data points
- \Rightarrow Generally does not lead to good classifiers.



Recap: Error Functions $E(z_n)$ Ideal misclassification error Squared error **Hinge error** Robust to outliers! **Favors sparse** Not differentiable! solutions! $z_n = t_n y(\mathbf{x}_n)$

"Hinge error" used in SVMs

-2

Zero error for points outside the margin $(z_n > 1)$ \Rightarrow sparsity

1

- Linear penalty for misclassified points ($z_n < 1$) \Rightarrow robustness ≻
- Not differentiable around $z_n = 1 \Rightarrow$ Cannot be optimized directly. ≻

Discussion: AdaBoost Error Function



- Exponential error used in AdaBoost
 - Continuous approximation to ideal misclassification function.
 - Sequential minimization leads to simple AdaBoost scheme.
 - > Properties?



Exponential error used in AdaBoost

- No penalty for too correct data points, fast convergence.
- Disadvantage: exponential penalty for large negative values!
- \Rightarrow Less robust to outliers or misclassified data points!



- "Cross-entropy error" used in Logistic Regression
 - > Similar to exponential error for z>0.
 - > Only grows linearly with large negative values of z.
 - \Rightarrow Make AdaBoost more robust by switching to this error function.
 - \Rightarrow "GentleBoost"

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Summary: AdaBoost

- Properties
 - Simple combination of multiple classifiers.
 - Easy to implement.
 - > Can be used with many different types of classifiers.
 - None of them needs to be too good on its own.
 - In fact, they only have to be slightly better than chance.
 - Commonly used in many areas.
 - Empirically good generalization capabilities.
 - Limitations
 - Original AdaBoost sensitive to misclassified training data points.
 - Because of exponential error function.
 - Improvement by GentleBoost
 - Single-class classifier
 - Multiclass extensions available



References and Further Reading

 More information on Classifier Combination and Boosting can be found in Chapters 14.1-14.3 of Bishop's book.

> Christopher M. Bishop Pattern Recognition and Machine Learning Springer, 2006



- A more in-depth discussion of the statistical interpretation of AdaBoost is available in the following paper:
 - J. Friedman, T. Hastie, R. Tibshirani, <u>Additive Logistic Regression: a</u> <u>Statistical View of Boosting</u>, *The Annals of Statistics*, Vol. 38(2), pages 337-374, 2000.