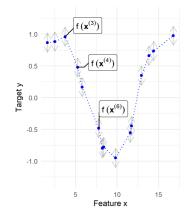
## **Introduction to Machine Learning**

# **Boosting Gradient Boosting: Concept**



## Learning goals

- Understand idea of forward stagewise modelling
- Understand fitting process of gradient boosting for regression problems



#### FORWARD STAGEWISE ADDITIVE MODELING

Assume a regression problem for now (as this is simpler to explain); and assume a space of base learners  $\mathcal{B}$ .

We want to learn an additive model:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{m=1}^{M} \alpha^{[m]} b(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{[m]}).$$

Hence, we minimize the empirical risk:

$$\mathcal{R}_{emp}(f) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} L\left(y^{(i)}, f\left(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}\right)\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} L\left(y^{(i)}, \sum_{m=1}^{M} \alpha^{[m]} b(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{[m]})\right)$$



#### FORWARD STAGEWISE ADDITIVE MODELING / 2

#### Why is gradient boosting a good choice for this problem?

- Because of the additive structure it is difficult to jointly minimize  $\mathcal{R}_{emp}(f)$  w.r.t.  $\left(\left(\alpha^{[1]}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{[1]}\right), \ldots, \left(\alpha^{[M]}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{[M]}\right)\right)$ , which is a very high-dimensional parameter space (though this is less of a problem nowadays, especially in the case of numeric parameter spaces).
- Considering trees as base learners is worse as we would have to grow M trees in parallel so they work optimally together as an ensemble.
- Stagewise additive modeling has nice properties, which we want to make use of, e.g. for regularization, early stopping, ...



#### FORWARD STAGEWISE ADDITIVE MODELING /3

Hence, we add additive components in a greedy fashion by sequentially minimizing the risk only w.r.t. the next additive component:

$$\min_{\alpha,\theta} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L\left(y^{(i)}, \hat{f}^{[m-1]}\left(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}\right) + \alpha b\left(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \theta\right)\right)$$



Doing this iteratively is called **forward stagewise additive modeling**.

## Algorithm Forward Stagewise Additive Modeling.

- 1: Initialize  $\hat{f}^{[0]}(\mathbf{x})$  with loss optimal constant model
- 2: for  $m = 1 \rightarrow M$  do

3: 
$$(\alpha^{[m]}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}^{[m]}) = \underset{\alpha, \boldsymbol{\theta}}{\arg\min} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L\left(\boldsymbol{y}^{(i)}, \hat{\boldsymbol{f}}^{[m-1]}\left(\boldsymbol{x}^{(i)}\right) + \alpha b\left(\boldsymbol{x}^{(i)}, \boldsymbol{\theta}\right)\right)$$

- 4: Update  $\hat{f}^{[m]}(\mathbf{x}) \leftarrow \hat{f}^{[m-1]}(\mathbf{x}) + \alpha^{[m]} b\left(\mathbf{x}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}^{[m]}\right)$
- 5: end for

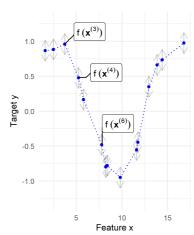
The algorithm we just introduced is not really an algorithm, but rather an abstract principle. We need to find the new additive component  $b\left(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{[m]}\right)$  and its weight coefficient  $\alpha^{[m]}$  in each iteration m. This can be done by gradient descent, but in function space.

**Thought experiment:** Consider a completely non-parametric model f whose predictions we can arbitrarily define on every point of the training data  $\mathbf{x}^{(i)}$ . So we basically specify f as a discrete, finite vector.

$$\left(f\left(\mathbf{x}^{(1)}\right),\ldots,f\left(\mathbf{x}^{(n)}\right)\right)^{\top}$$

This implies n parameters  $f\left(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}\right)$  (and the model would provide no generalization...).

Furthermore, we assume our loss function  $L(\cdot)$  to be differentiable.

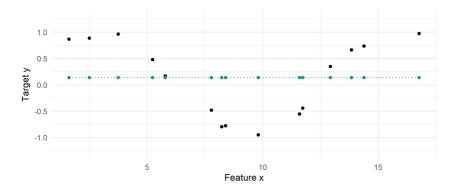




**Aim:** Define a movement in function space so we can push our current function towards the data points.

**Given:** Regression problem with one feature x and target variable y.

**Initialization:** Set all parameters to the optimal constant value (e.g., the mean of y for L2).





#### **PSEUDO RESIDUALS**

How do we have to distort this function to move it towards the observations and drive loss down?

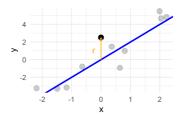
We minimize the risk of such a model with gradient descent (yes, this makes no sense, suspend all doubts for a few seconds).

So, we calculate the gradient at a point of the parameter space, that is, the derivative w.r.t. each component of the parameter vector (which is 0 for all terms with  $i \neq j$ ):

$$\tilde{r}^{(i)} = -\frac{\partial \mathcal{R}_{\mathsf{emp}}}{\partial f\left(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}\right)} = -\frac{\partial \sum_{j} L(y^{(j)}, f(\mathbf{x}^{(j)}))}{\partial f\left(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}\right)} = -\frac{\partial L\left(y^{(i)}, f\left(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}\right)\right)}{\partial f\left(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}\right)}.$$

**Reminder:** The pseudo-residuals  $\tilde{r}(f)$  match the usual residuals for the squared loss:

$$-\frac{\partial L(y, f(\mathbf{x}))}{\partial f(\mathbf{x})} = -\frac{\partial 0.5(y - f(\mathbf{x}))^2}{\partial f(\mathbf{x})}$$
$$= y - f(\mathbf{x})$$





### **BOOSTING AS GRADIENT DESCENT**

Combining this with the iterative additive procedure of "forward stagewise modeling", we are at the spot  $f^{[m-1]}$  during minimization. At this point, we now calculate the direction of the negative gradient or also called pseudo-residuals  $\tilde{r}^{[m](i)}$ :

$$\tilde{r}^{[m](i)} = -\left[\frac{\partial L\left(y^{(i)}, f\left(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}\right)\right)}{\partial f(\mathbf{x}^{(i)})}\right]_{t=t^{[m-1]}}$$



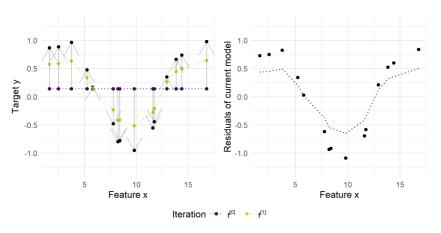
The gradient descent update for each vector component of *f* is:

$$f^{[m]}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}) = f^{[m-1]}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}) - \alpha \frac{\partial L\left(\mathbf{y}^{(i)}, f\left(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}\right)\right)}{\partial f^{[m-1]}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)})}.$$

This tells us how we could "nudge" our whole function *f* in the direction of the data to reduce its empirical risk.

#### Iteration 1:

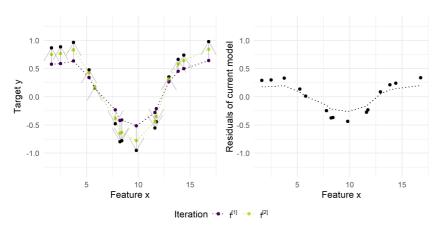
Let's move our function  $f(\mathbf{x}^{(i)})$  a fraction towards the pseudo-residuals with a learning rate of  $\alpha = 0.6$ .





#### Iteration 2:

Let's move our function  $f(\mathbf{x}^{(i)})$  a fraction towards the pseudo-residuals with a learning rate of  $\alpha = 0.6$ .





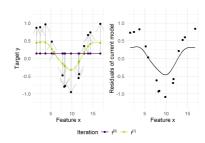
To parameterize a model in this way is pointless, as it just memorizes the instances of the training data.

So, we restrict our additive components to  $b\left(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{[m]}\right) \in \mathcal{B}.$ 

The pseudo-residuals are calculated exactly as stated above, then we fit a simple model  $b(\mathbf{x}, \theta^{[m]})$  to them:

$$\hat{oldsymbol{ heta}}^{[m]} = rg\min_{oldsymbol{ heta}} \sum_{i=1}^n \left( ilde{ au}^{[m](i)} - b(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, oldsymbol{ heta}) 
ight)^2.$$

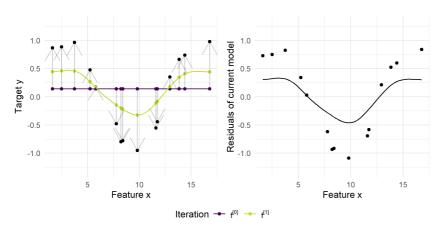
So, evaluated on the training data, our  $b(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{[m]})$  corresponds as closely as possible to the negative loss function gradient and generalizes over the whole space.





**In a nutshell**: One boosting iteration is exactly one approximated gradient descent step in function space, which minimizes the empirical risk as much as possible.

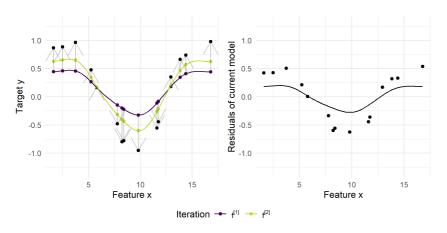
#### Iteration 1:





Instead of moving the function values for each observation by a fraction closer to the observed data, we fit a regression base learner to the pseudo-residuals (right plot).

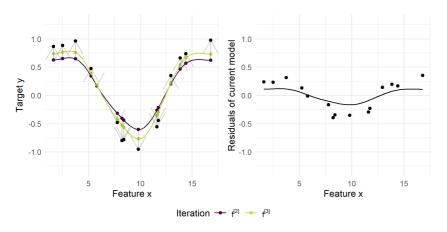
#### Iteration 2:





This base learner is then added to the current state of the ensemble weighted by the learning rate (here:  $\alpha=0.4$ ) and for the next iteration again the pseudo-residuals of the adapted ensemble are calculated and a base learner is fitted to them.

#### Iteration 3:





## GRADIENT BOOSTING ALGORITHM

## **Algorithm** Gradient Boosting Algorithm.

1: Initialize 
$$\hat{f}^{[0]}(\mathbf{x}) = \arg\min_{\theta_0 \in \mathbb{R}} \sum_{i=1}^n L(y^{(i)}, \theta_0)$$

2: for 
$$m = 1 \rightarrow M dd$$

2: **for** 
$$m = 1 \to M$$
 **do**  
3: For all  $i$ :  $\tilde{r}^{[m](i)} = -\left[\frac{\partial L(y, f)}{\partial f}\right]_{f = \tilde{r}^{[m-1]}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}), y = y^{(i)}}$ 

Fit a regression base learner to the vector of pseudo-residuals  $\tilde{r}^{[m]}$ : 4:

5: 
$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}^{[m]} = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\tilde{r}^{[m](i)} - b(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \boldsymbol{\theta}))^{2}$$

6: Set  $\alpha^{[m]}$  to  $\alpha$  being a small constant value or via line search

7: Update 
$$\hat{t}^{[m]}(\mathbf{x}) = \hat{t}^{[m-1]}(\mathbf{x}) + \alpha^{[m]}b(\mathbf{x}, \hat{\theta}^{[m]})$$

9: Output 
$$\hat{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \hat{f}^{[M]}(\mathbf{x})$$

Note that we also initialize the model in a loss-optimal manner.



#### LINE SEARCH

The learning rate in gradient boosting influences how fast the algorithm converges. Although a small constant learning rate is commonly used in practice, it can also be replaced by a line search.

Line search is an iterative approach to find a local minimum. In the case of setting the learning rate, the following one-dimensional optimization problem has to be solved:

$$\hat{\alpha}^{[m]} = \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{\alpha} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L(y^{(i)}, f^{[m-1]}(\mathbf{x}) + \alpha b(\mathbf{x}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}^{[m]}))$$

Optionally, an (inexact) backtracking line search can be used to find the  $\alpha^{[m]}$  that minimizes the above equation.

