# 分割と併合に基づくブースティング

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あらまし InfoBoost は、学習対象に関する相互情報量が 0 ではない複数の仮説を統合して精度の高い仮説を構築するブースティングアルゴリズムである。本稿は、InfoBoost が、ドメインの分割と併合を繰り返すブランチングプログラムを生成するアルゴリズムとみなせることを示す。ただし、ブランチングプログラムを定義する決定グラフの各頂点には重みが割り当てられ、各事例に対する統合仮説の値は、その事例がたどる道上の重みの和に基づいて定められる。さらに、併合の手続きを一般化し、新しいブースティング手法のクラス BP.InfoBoost を提案する。InfoBoost は、分割された領域をすべて併合してしまう極端なアルゴリズムとみなせる。一方、併合をあまり行わないと、仮説の性能向上の効率は良くなるが過学習のリスクを伴う。本稿では、仮説の性能向上の効率化と過学習のリスクの回避を両立する併合手法を提案する。

キーワード ブースティング、決定木、ブランチングプログラム、相互情報量

# Boosting Based on Divide and Merge

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Abstract InfoBoost is a boosting algorithm that improves the performance of the master hypothesis by combining weak hypotheses with non-zero mutual information about the target. We give a somewhat surprising observation that InfoBoost can be viewed as an algorithm for growing a branching program that divides and merges the domain repeatedly. Here, weights are assigned to nodes of the decision graph that the branching program defines, and for a given instance, the value that the master hypothesis takes is determined by the sum of the weights over the path induced by the instance. We generalize the merging process and propose a new class of boosting algorithms called BP.InfoBoost with various merging schema. InfoBoost is a BP.InfoBoost with an extreme scheme that merges all nodes in each round. The other extreme that merges few nodes yields an algorithm that improves the master hypothesis very efficiently but has a risk of overfitting. We propose a merging scheme between these extremes that improves the master hypothesis efficiently while avoiding the risk of overfitting.

Key words boosting, decision tree, branching program, mutual information

### 1. Introduction

Since the stage-wise process of AdaBoost was explained in terms of a Newton-like method for minimizing an exponential cost function [2], [5], designing and analyzing boosting algorithms by using results from the optimization theory has been a mainstream of this research area [3], [4], [9], [11]. In the most common scheme of boosting, the booster iteratively makes probability weightings over the sample and receives weak hypotheses that slightly correlate with the sample with respect to the current weightings. The booster then produces a linear combination of the weak hypotheses as a master hypothesis with a good performance guarantee expressed in terms of the margin [6], [12]. Here, the correlation between a weak hypothesis and the sample is defined as the expected margin, which intuitively mean how well the hy-

pothesis classifies the sample.

As oppose to the margin based criterion, there is an information-theoretic approach where the correlation is defined by the mutual information, i.e., how much amount of information the hypotheses bring on the sample. In this scheme, the requirement for weak hypotheses can be relaxed to have non-zero mutual information, rather than non-zero margin, to obtain a good master hypothesis. The first theoretical result on information-based boosting is due to Kearns and Mansour [8] who give theoretical justification to empirically successful heuristics in top-down decision tree learning. The result is naturally generalized for learning multiclass classification problems [14] and is improved to avoid overfitting by merging some sets of nodes [10]. A modification of the latter algorithm is applied to the problem of boosting in the presence of noise [7]. These algorithms are quite different from AdaBoost-like algorithms in that they grow a decision tree or a branching program as a master hypothesis that is far from the form of linear combinations. Moreover, the probability weightings they make are not based on the principle of minimizing any cost function. Later we give an evidence that these algorithms are inefficient in the sense that they make the complexity of the master hypothesis unnecessarily large. Aslam proposed a promising method of informationbased boosting called InfoBoost [1]. InfoBoost is interesting because the weight update is obtained by minimizing the same cost function as AdaBoost and the master hypothesis has an "quasi-linear" form (the coefficients are not constants but depend on the values of weak hypotheses).

In this paper, we generalize InfoBoost and propose a new class of information-based boosting algorithms. We first give a somewhat surprising observation that InfoBoost can be viewed as a process of growing a branching program that divides and merges the domain repeatedly. We show that the merging process used in InfoBoost can be replaced by any merging scheme with the boosting property preserved. So we have a class of boosting algorithms with various merging schema. We call any of them a BP.InfoBoost. BP.InfoBoost assigns to each node a weight as well as a weak hypothesis, and the master hypothesis is a threshold function of the sum of the weights over the path induced by a given instance. Note that this is different from the previous BP based boosting algorithms [7], [10] where the master hypothesis is just a branching program. InfoBoost is a BP.InfoBoost using an extreme scheme that merges all nodes in each round. The other extreme that merges no nodes yields an algorithm for growing a decision tree. We particularly call this version DT.InfoBoost. DT.InfoBoost has a totally corrective update property. (The notion of totally corrective updates was originally proposed for a better booster in the margin based criterion [9].) Specifically, a totally corrective update makes the weight  $D_{t+1}$  for the next round so that all weak hypotheses  $h_1, \ldots, h_t$  obtained so far are uncorrelated with the sample with respect to  $D_{t+1}$ . This implies that any weak hypothesis  $h_{t+1}$  that correlates with the sample must contain novel information that  $h_1, \ldots, h_t$  do not have. Note that AdaBoost and InfoBoost make  $D_{t+1}$  so that only  $h_t$  is uncorrelated. So we can expect that DT.InfoBoost improves the master hypothesis much faster than InfoBoost. On the other hand, since the size of the decision tree may grow exponentially in t, DT.InfoBoost has more risk of overfitting than InfoBoost<sup>1</sup>.

There must be an appropriate merging scheme between the two extremes that takes advantages of the two extremes. In this paper, we propose a merging scheme that reduces the training error of the master hypothesis nearly as fast as the one we would have without merge while keeping the master hypothesis (branching program) in a moderate size.

## 2. Preliminaries

Let X denote an instance space and  $Y = \{-1, +1\}$  the set of labels. We fix a sample  $S = \{(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_m, y_m)\} \subseteq X \times Y$  on which we discuss the performance of boosting algorithms. The procedure of boosting is described as in the following general protocol with two parties, the booster and the weak learner. On each round t, the booster makes a probability distribution  $D_t$  on the index set  $\{1,\ldots,m\}$  of the sample S and gives S with  $D_t$  to the weak learner; The weak learner returns a weak hypothesis  $h_t: X \to Y$  to the booster (denoted  $h_t = \operatorname{WL}(S, D_t)$ ); The booster updates the distribution to  $D_{t+1}$ . Repeating the above procedure for T rounds for some T, the booster combines the weak hypotheses  $h_1, \ldots, h_T$  obtained so far and makes a master hypothesis.

In this paper we measure the performance of a weak hypothesis  $h_t$  in terms of the information that  $h_t$  brings. For the entropy function, we use  $G(p) = 2\sqrt{p(1-p)}$  defined for  $p \in [0,1]$  so that we can interpret the progress of boosting as the product of conditional entropies. This function is used to describe the performance of various boosting algorithms [1], [8], [10], [14]. Note that since the function G upper bounds Shannon entropy, small entropy in terms of G implies small Shannon entropy. For a probability distribution D over  $\{1,\ldots,m\}$ , we sometimes consider X and Y as random variables that take values  $x_i$  and  $y_i$  (resp.) with probability D(i). Especially we call Y the target random variable. Let the probability that the target Y takes value 1 under D be

<sup>1):</sup> The decision tree produced by DT.InfoBoost uses the same weak hypothesis  $h_t$  as the decision rule at all nodes of depth t-1. So we can expect that DT.InfoBoost has less risk of overfitting than the classical top-down algorithms that produce trees with exponentially many different decision rules.

denoted by

$$p = \Pr_D(y_i = 1) = \sum_{i=1}^m D(i)[y_i = 1],$$

where  $[\![C]\!]$  is the indicator function that is 1 if the condition C holds and 0 otherwise. Then the entropy of the target Y with respect to D is defined as

$$H_D(Y) = G(p) = 2\sqrt{p(1-p)}$$
.

Furthermore, for any function  $g: X \to Z$  for some countable set Z, the conditional entropy of Y given g with respect to D is defined as

$$\begin{split} H_D(Y|g) &= \sum_{z \in Z} \Pr_D(g(x_i) = z) H_D(Y|g(x_i) = z) \\ &= \sum_{z \in Z} \Pr_D(g(x_i) = z) G(p_z) \end{split}$$

where  $p_z = \Pr_D(y_i = 1 \mid g(x_i) = z)$ . The entropies  $H_D(Y)$  and  $H_D(Y|g)$  are interpreted as uncertainty of the target before and after seeing the value of g, respectively. So the mutual information  $H_D(Y) - H_D(Y|g)$  represents the amount of information that g brings. In particular, since the distribution  $D_t$  we consider in this paper always satisfies  $H_{D_t}(Y) = 1$ , we measure the performance of the weak hypothesis  $h_t$  by the conditional entropy  $H_{D_t}(Y|h_t)$ . The inequality  $H_{D_t}(Y|h_t) < 1$  implies that the weak hypothesis  $h_t$  brings non-zero information about the target.

Here we give some basic properties of the entropies. Let D be a distribution over  $\{1, \ldots, m\}$  and g' be another function defined on X. Then, we have

$$H_D(Y|g) = 2\sum_{z \in Z} \sqrt{\Pr_D(g(x_i) = z, y_i = 1)} \cdot \sqrt{\Pr_D(g(x_i) = z, y_i = -1)}, \quad (1)$$

$$H_D(Y|g,g') \le H_D(Y|g). \tag{2}$$

# 3. InfoBoost growing a Branching Program

In this section, we show that InfoBoost can be viewed as a top-down algorithm for growing a branching program.

First we briefly review how InfoBoost works. In each round t, when given a weak hypothesis  $h_t$ , InfoBoost updates the distribution to

$$D_{t+1}(i) = \frac{D_t(i) \exp\left(-\alpha_t [h_t(x_i)] h_t(x_i) y_i\right)}{Z_t}$$

for appropriately chosen real numbers  $\alpha_t[-1]$  and  $\alpha[1]$ , where  $Z_t$  is for normalization. The two parameters  $\alpha_t[-1]$  and  $\alpha_t[1]$  are chosen so that the normalization factor  $Z_t$  is minimized. Interestingly, for these choices of parameters we have  $Z_t = H_{D_t}(Y|h_t)$ . The master hypothesis that InfoBoost produces is given by  $\mathrm{sign}(F_T(x))$ , where

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\begin{split} & \text{Input: } S = \{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_m, y_m)\} \\ & \text{Initialize } D_1(i) = 1/m; \\ & \text{for } t = 1 \text{ to } T \text{ do} \\ & h_t = \text{WL}(S, D_t); \\ & \text{Choose real numbers } \alpha_t[-1] \text{ and } \alpha_t[1] \text{ so that} \\ & \alpha_t[a] = \frac{a}{2} \ln \frac{\Pr_D(h_t(x_i) = a, y_i = 1)}{\Pr_D(h_t(x_i) = a, y_i = -1)} \\ & \text{for any } a \in \{-1, 1\}; \\ & \text{Update } D_t \text{ to } D_{t+1} \text{ so that} \\ & D_{t+1}(i) = D_t(i) \exp\left(-\alpha_t[h_t(x_i)]h_t(x_i)y_i\right)/Z_t \\ & \text{holds for } 1 \leq i \leq m, \text{ where } Z_t \text{ is for normalization;} \\ & \text{Let } F_T : x \mapsto \sum_{t=1}^T \alpha_t[h_t(x)]h_t(x); \\ & \text{Output } \operatorname{sign}(F_T(x)) \end{split}
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Fig. 1 The algorithm of InfoBoost.

$$F_T(x) = \sum_{t=1}^{T} \alpha_t [h_t(x)] h_t(x).$$
 (3)

The detail of the algorithm is given in Fig. 3.. The performance of InfoBoost is summarized as in the following inequality [1]:

$$\Pr_{U}\left(\operatorname{sign}(F_{T}(x_{i})) \neq y_{i}\right) \leq \prod_{t=1}^{T} H_{D_{t}}(Y|h_{t}),\tag{4}$$

where U is the uniform distribution over  $\{1, \ldots, m\}$ . This implies that the training error of the master hypothesis decreases rapidly as T becomes large, as long as the weak hypotheses  $h_t$  bring non-zero information with respect to  $D_t$ , i.e.,  $H_{D_t}(Y|h_t) < 1$ . In particular, if all hypotheses  $h_t$  satisfy  $H_{D_t}(Y|h_t) \leq 1 - \gamma$  for some  $\gamma > 0$ , then  $\Pr_U(\operatorname{sign}(F_T(x_i)) \neq y_i) \leq \epsilon$  with  $T = (1/\gamma) \ln(1/\epsilon)$ .

Now we interpret InfoBoost as a process of growing a branching program. At the beginning of round t (except t=1), we have the set  $L_{t-1}$  of two leaves. When given  $h_t$ , each leaf  $l \in L_{t-1}$  becomes an internal node with two child leaves  $l_{-1}$  and  $l_1$ , just as in a decision tree growing algorithm. Note that the same hypothesis  $h_t$  is used for the decision done at any  $l \in L_{t-1}$  and the outcomes -1 and 1 correspond to the edges  $(l, l_{-1})$  and  $(l, l_1)$ , respectively. Here we have four leaves. Then for each  $a \in \{-1, 1\}$ , the set  $\{l_a \mid l \in L_{t-1}\}$  of two leaves are merged into a single leaf and it is labeled with weight  $a \cdot \alpha_t[a]$ . The new leaves corresponding to a = -1 and a = 1 are called a (-1)-node and a 1-node, respectively. Thus, in the end of round t, we have the set  $L_t$  of two leaves again. So each round consists of two phases, dividing and merging the subset of the instance space. See Fig. 2.

By virtue of the branching program representation, we give natural interpretations of how the distribution  $D_{t+1}$  and the combined hypothesis  $F_T$  are determined. An instance  $x \in X$  induces a path of the branching program based on the outcome sequence  $h_1(x), \ldots, h_T(x)$  in the obvious way. Let  $\ell_t: X \to L_t$  denote the function that maps an instance

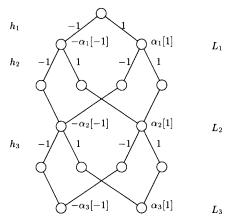


Fig. 2 A branching program that InfoBoost grows.

x to the node in  $L_t$  on the path that x induces. Note that for the branching program generated by InfoBoost,  $\ell_t(x)$  depends only on  $h_t(x)$  and so  $H_D(Y|\ell_t) = H_D(Y|h_t)$  for any D. Intuitively, the distribution  $D_{t+1}$  is determined so that  $\ell_t$  (and thus  $h_t$ ) is uncorrelated with Y and the total weight of leaf  $l \in L_t$  is proportional to the uncertainty of Y at the leaf l. More precisely, (as we will see later for a general branching program), the distribution  $D_{t+1}$  satisfies that

$$H_{D_{t+1}}(Y|\ell_t) = H_{D_{t+1}}(Y|h_t) = 1$$
 (5)

and for any  $l \in L_t$ ,

$$\Pr_{D_{t+1}}(\boldsymbol{\ell}_t(x_i) = l) = \frac{\Pr_{D_t}(\boldsymbol{\ell}_t(x_i) = l)H_{D_t}(Y|\boldsymbol{\ell}_t(x_i) = l)}{H_{D_t}(Y|\boldsymbol{\ell}_t)}$$
(6)

The property of (5) is essential because otherwise the next hypothesis  $h_{t+1}$  would be the same as  $h_t$  for which  $H_{D_{t+1}}(Y|h_{t+1}) < 1$  but no additional information is obtained. The property of (6) is reasonable since this means that the leaf with larger entropy will be more focused with the hope that the next hypothesis  $h_{t+1}$  would reduce the whole entropy efficiently.

The combined hypothesis  $F_T$  given by (3) is also represented in terms of the branching program. For each node  $l \in L_t$ , let w[l] denote the weight labeled at l. That is,  $w[l] = -\alpha_t[-1]$  if l is a (-1)-node and  $w[l] = \alpha_t[1]$  if l is a 1-node. It is easy to see that for a given instance x,  $F_T(x)$  is represented as the sum of the weights of the nodes on the path induced by x. That is,

$$F_T(x) = \sum_{t=1}^T w[\ell_t(x)]. \tag{7}$$

# 4. BP.InfoBoost

In this section, we generalize the merging scheme used by InfoBoost and propose a class of boosting algorithms called

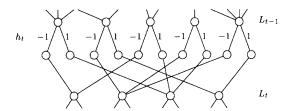


Fig. 3 A branching program that a BP.InfoBoost grows. Note that any leaf in  $L_t$  is determined by a leaf in  $L_{t-1}$  and the outcome of  $h_t$ .

BP.InfoBoost with various merging schema. Curiously, we show that the bound (4) on the training error remains to hold for BP.InfoBoost with *any* merging scheme.

First we describe how BP.InfoBoost works. For convenience, we represent the set of leaves  $L_t$  as a partition of  $\{-1,1\}^t$ . That is, a leaf  $l \in L_t$  is a subset of  $\{-1,1\}^t$ . For a given partition  $L_t$ , the function  $\ell_t : X \to L_t$  is defined as

$$\ell_t(x) = l \Leftrightarrow (h_1(x), \dots, h_t(x)) \in l.$$

At the beginning of round t, we have the set  $L_{t-1}$  of leaves. Now  $L_{t-1}$  may contain more than two leaves. When given  $h_t$ , each leaf  $l \in L_{t-1}$  becomes an internal node with two child leaves  $l_{-1}$  and  $l_1$ . Formally, the leaf  $l_a$  with  $a \in \{-1, 1\}$  is a subset of  $\{-1,1\}^t$  and given by  $l_a = \{(v,a) \mid v \in l\}$ . So, an instance x that reaches a leaf  $l \in L_{t-1}$  (i.e.,  $\ell_{t-1}(x) = l$ ) goes to  $l_a$  if  $h_t(x) = a$ . Here we have twice as many leaves as in  $L_{t-1}$ . Then for any  $a \in \{-1, 1\}$  the set  $\{l_a \mid l \in L_{t-1}\}$ is partitioned somehow into  $L'_{a,1}, \ldots, L'_{a,k_a}$  for some  $k_a$  and the leaves in each  $L'_{a,i}$  are merged into a single leaf, which is formally given by  $\bigcup_{l_a \in L'_{a,t}} l_a$ . Thus we have the set  $L_t$  of leaves of size  $k_{-1} + k_1$ . Fig. 3 illustrates how the branching program grows. A merging scheme is a procedure of deciding how the sets  $\{l_a \mid l \in L_{t-1}\}\$  are partitioned. For example, InfoBoost is a BP.InfoBoost with a particular merging scheme that lets each set  $\{l_a \mid l \in L_{t-1}\}$  be a partition of itself.

Each leaf  $l \in L_t$  is labeled with the weight given by

$$w[l] = \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{\Pr_{D_l} (\ell_l(x_i) = l, y_i = 1)}{\Pr_{D_l} (\ell_l(x_i) = l, y_i = -1)}.$$
 (8)

With the notations w and  $\ell_t$ , we can write the update rule and the master hypothesis as in the same way as for the case of InfoBoost. That is, the distribution is updated to

$$D_{t+1}(i) = \frac{D_t(i) \exp(-w[\ell_t(x_i)]y_i)}{Z_t}$$
(9)

where  $Z_t$  is for normalization, and the master hypothesis is  $sign(F_T(x))$ , where  $F_T$  is given by (7). The details of the algorithm is given in Fig. 4.. Note that  $\ell_t$  can be viewed as a domain-partitioning weak hypothesis and the weights w[l] derived in (8) are identical to the confidences assigned by Schapire and Singer [13].

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\begin{split} & \text{Input: } S = \{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_m, y_m)\} \\ & \text{Initialize } D_1(i) = 1/m, \ L_0 = \{\epsilon\}, \ \ell_0 : x \mapsto \epsilon; \\ & \text{for } t = 1 \text{ to } T \text{ do} \\ & h_t = \text{WL}(S, D_t); \\ & \text{Let } l_a = \{(v, a) \mid v \in l\} \text{ for } l \in L_{t-1} \text{ and } a \in \{-1, 1\}; \\ & \text{for } a \in \{-1, 1\} \text{ do} \\ & \text{Partition } \{l_a \mid l \in L_{t-1}\} \text{ into } L'_{a, 1}, \dots, L'_{a, k_a}; \\ & L_t = \left\{\bigcup_{l_a \in L'_{a, i}} l_a \mid 1 \leq i \leq k_a, a \in \{-1, 1\}\right\}; \\ & \text{Let } \ell_t : x \mapsto l \in L_t \text{ where } (h_1(x), \dots, h_t(x)) \in l; \\ & \text{for } l \in L_t \text{ do} \\ & \text{Let } w[l] = \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{\Pr_{D_t} (\ell_t(x_i) = l, y_i = 1)}{\Pr_{D_t} (\ell_t(x_i) = l, y_i = -1)}; \\ & \text{Update } D_t \text{ to} \\ & D_{t+1}(i) = D_t(i) \exp\left(-w[\ell_t(x_i)]y_i\right)/Z_t \\ & \text{for } 1 \leq i \leq m, \text{ where } Z_t \text{ is for normalization;} \\ & \text{Let } F_T : x \mapsto \sum_{t=1}^T w[\ell_t(x)]; \\ & \text{Output } \text{sign}(F_T(x)) \end{split}
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Fig. 4 The algorithm of a BP.InfoBoost.

Now we show that a BP.InfoBoost with any merging scheme has the same form of upper bound on the training error. We need some technical lemmas. The first one is immediately obtained by recursively applying the update rule (9).

**Lemma 1:** Let  $Z_t$  be the normalization factor in (9) and  $D_{T+1}$  be the distribution obtained in the final round. Then,

$$\begin{split} D_{T+1}(i) &= \frac{D_1(i)}{Z_1 \cdots Z_T} \exp\left(-\sum_{t=1}^T w[\boldsymbol{\ell}_t(x_i)] y_i\right) \\ &= \frac{D_1(i)}{Z_1 \cdots Z_T} \exp\left(-F_T(x_i) y_i\right). \end{split}$$

The next lemma shows that the normalization factor  $Z_t$  can be rewritten as the conditional entropy.

Lemma 2:  $Z_t = H_{D_t}(Y|\boldsymbol{\ell}_t) \leq H_{D_t}(Y|h_t)$ .

Proof. First we show the equality part. By (8) we have

$$\begin{split} Z_t &= \sum_{i=1}^m D_t(i) \exp\left(-w[\boldsymbol{\ell}_t(x_i)]y_i\right) \\ &= \sum_{l \in L_t} \sum_{a \in \{-1,1\}}^{} \sum_{i=1}^m D_t(i)[\![\boldsymbol{\ell}_t(x_i) = l, y_i = a]\!] \exp(-w[l]a) \\ &= \sum_{l \in L_t} \sum_{a \in \{-1,1\}}^{} \Pr_{D_t}\left(\boldsymbol{\ell}_t(x_i) = l, y_i = a\right) \\ & \cdot \left(\frac{\Pr_{D_t}\left(\boldsymbol{\ell}_t(x_i) = l, y_i \neq a\right)}{\Pr_{D_t}\left(\boldsymbol{\ell}_t(x_i) = l, y_i = a\right)}\right)^{1/2} \\ &= 2 \sum_{l \in L_t} \sqrt{\Pr_{D_t}\left(\boldsymbol{\ell}_t(x_i) = l, y_i = 1\right)} \\ & \cdot \sqrt{\Pr_{D_t}\left(\boldsymbol{\ell}_t(x_i) = l, y_i = -1\right)} \\ &= H_{D_t}(Y|\boldsymbol{\ell}_t). \end{split}$$

The last line is derived from (1).

For the inequality part, since the last component of any vector in the set  $\ell_t(x)$  is  $h_t(x)$ , we have  $H_{D_t}(Y|\ell_t) = H_{D_t}(Y|\ell_t, h_t)$ , which is at most  $H_{D_t}(Y|h_t)$  by (2).

Now we are ready to give an upper bound on the training error.

**Theorem 1:** Let  $F_T$  be the combined hypothesis of a BP.InfoBoost. Then

$$\Pr_{U}\left(\operatorname{sign}(F_{T}(x_{i})) \neq y_{i}\right) \leq \prod_{t=1}^{T} H_{D_{t}}(Y|\boldsymbol{\ell}_{t}) \leq \prod_{t=1}^{T} H_{D_{t}}(Y|h_{t}).$$

*Proof.* By Lemma 2, it suffices to show that  $\Pr_U\left(\operatorname{sign}(F_T(x_i)) \neq y_i\right) \leq \prod_{t=1}^T Z_t$ . Since the initial distribution  $D_1$  is uniform, we have

$$\Pr_{U} \left( \operatorname{sign}(F_T(x_i)) \neq y_i \right) = \sum_{i=1}^m D_1(i) \llbracket \operatorname{sign}(F_T(x_i)) \neq y_i 
rbracket$$

Using  $[sign(F_T(x_i)) \neq y_i] \leq exp(-F_T(x_i)y_i)$  and Lemma 1, we have

$$\Pr_{U}\left(\operatorname{sign}(F_{T}(x_{i})) \neq y_{i}\right) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{m} D_{1}(i) \exp\left(-F_{T}(x_{i})y_{i}\right)$$

$$= Z_{1} \cdots Z_{T} \sum_{i=1}^{m} D_{T+1}(i)$$

$$= Z_{1} \cdots Z_{T}.$$

This theorem means that the upper bound on the training error for a BP.InfoBoost is not larger than that for InfoBoost provided that the same distributions  $D_t$  and weak hypotheses  $h_t$  are used. Moreover, when there is a large gap between  $H_{D_t}(Y|\ell_t)$  and  $H_{D_t}(Y|h_t)$ , then the BP.InfoBoost would improve the master hypothesis faster than InfoBoost.

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Next we consider any possible construction of the master hypothesis. Since any master hypothesis  $f: X \to \{-1, 1\}$  should be constructed from the weak hypotheses  $h_1, \ldots, h_T$ , it must hold that  $H_U(Y|h_1, \ldots, h_T) \leq H_U(Y|f)$  and so the l.h.s. gives an information-theoretic limitation of the performance of f. The next theorem shows how much the entropy  $H_U(Y|h_1, \ldots, h_T)$  is reduced as T grows. For an instance x,  $\ell_{1...T}(x)$  is short for the path  $(\ell_1(x), \ldots, \ell_T(x)) \in L_{1...T} \equiv L_1 \times \cdots \times L_T$ .

Theorem 2:

$$egin{aligned} H_{U}(Y|h_1,\ldots,h_T) &= H_{U}(Y|oldsymbol{\ell}_{1\ldots T}) \ &= \left(\prod_{t=1}^T H_{D_t}(Y|oldsymbol{\ell}_t)
ight) H_{D_{T+1}}(Y|oldsymbol{\ell}_{1\ldots T}). \end{aligned}$$

*Proof.* The first equality holds since there is one-to-one correspondence between the set of paths  $\ell_{1...T}(x)$  of the branching program and the set of outcome sequences  $(h_1(x), \ldots, h_T(x))$ .

By (1) we have

$$H_{D_{T+1}}(Y|\ell_{1..T})$$

$$= 2 \sum_{\vec{l} \in L_{1..T}} \sqrt{\Pr_{D_{T+1}} \left( \ell_{1..T}(x_i) = \vec{l}, y_i = 1 \right)}$$

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$$\cdot \sqrt{\operatorname{Pr}_{D_{T+1}}\left(\boldsymbol{\ell}_{1..T}(x_i) = \vec{l}, y_i = -1\right)}.$$

Lemma 1 says that the distribution  $D_{T+1}(i)$  depends on the path  $\ell_{1...T}(x_i)$  on which an instance  $x_i$  goes through. So for a particular path  $\vec{l} = (l_1, \ldots, l_T) \in L_{1...T}$  and for any  $a \in \{-1, 1\}$ , we have

$$\begin{split} & \Pr_{D_{T+1}} \left( \boldsymbol{\ell}_{1..T}(x_i) = \vec{l}, y_i = a \right) \\ & = \sum_i D_{T+1}(i) [\![\boldsymbol{\ell}_{1..T}(x_i) = \vec{l}, y_i = a]\!] \\ & = \frac{\exp\left( -a \sum_{t=1}^T w[l_t] \right)}{Z_1 \cdots Z_T} \sum_i D_1(i) [\![\boldsymbol{\ell}_{1..T}(x_i) = \vec{l}, y_i = a]\!] \\ & = \frac{\exp\left( -a \sum_{t=1}^T w[l_t] \right)}{Z_1 \cdots Z_T} \Pr_{U} \left( \boldsymbol{\ell}_{1..T}(x_i) = \vec{l}, y_i = a \right). \end{split}$$

By multiplying the above probabilities with a=1 and a=-1 the exponential terms are canceled and we get

$$H_{D_{T+1}}(Y|\boldsymbol{\ell}_{1..T}) = \frac{H_U(Y|\boldsymbol{\ell}_{1..t})}{Z_1 \cdots Z_T},$$

which completes the theorem.

Theorem 1 and Theorem 2 imply that our master hypothesis  $\operatorname{sign}(F(x))$  would be nearly optimal if  $H_{D_{T+1}}(Y|\boldsymbol{\ell}_{1..T})$  is not too small. Although we do not know a lower bound on  $H_{D_{T+1}}(Y|\boldsymbol{\ell}_{1..T})$  in general, the distribution satisfies  $H_{D_{T+1}}(Y|\boldsymbol{\ell}_{1..T})=1$  as shown in (5) for the case of InfoBoost. That is, BP.InfoBoost updates the distribution so that  $\boldsymbol{\ell}_T$  is uncorrelated with Y. The next lemma shows that a BP.InfoBoost makes  $D_{t+1}$  so that  $\boldsymbol{\ell}_t$  is uncorrelated with the sample. This implies that the weak hypothesis  $h_{t+1}$  (and  $\boldsymbol{\ell}_{t+1}$  as well) with non-zero correlation must have some information that the function  $\boldsymbol{\ell}_t$  does not have. This gives an intuitive justification why the improvement of the master hypothesis for a BP.InfoBoost is upper bounded by the product of  $H_{D_t}(Y|\boldsymbol{\ell}_t)$ .

**Lemma 3:** For any  $1 \le t \le T$ , a BP.InfoBoost updates the distribution to  $D_{t+1}$  so that  $H_{D_{t+1}}(Y|\ell_t) = 1$  holds.

*Proof.* It suffices to show that for any leaf  $l \in L_t$ ,  $\Pr_{D_{t+1}}(y_i = 1 \mid \ell_t(x_i) = l) = 1/2$ , or equivalently

$$\Pr_{D_{t+1}} \left( \ell_t(x_i) = l, y_i = 1 \right) = \Pr_{D_{t+1}} \left( \ell_t(x_i) = l, y_i = -1 \right).$$
 (10)

By (9) and (8), it is straightforward to see that the both sides of (10) are equal to

$$\frac{\sqrt{\Pr_{D_t} \left(\boldsymbol{\ell}_t(x_i) = l, y_i = 1\right) \Pr_{D_t} \left(\boldsymbol{\ell}_t(x_i) = l, y_i = -1\right)}}{Z_t}$$

Note that [7] also suggests to make  $D_{t+1}$  be uncorrelated with  $\ell_t$  but in a trivial way:  $D_{t+1}$  is restricted to a single leaf l and set so that  $\Pr_{D_{t+1}}(y_i = 1 \mid l) = 1/2$ . This means that the weak leaner must be invoked for all leaves

in  $L_t$  with different distributions. On the other hand, our distribution (9) assigns positive weights to all nodes l unless  $H_{D_t}(Y \mid \ell_t(x_i) = l) = 0$ , and the weak leaner is invoked only once for each depth t.

#### 5. DT.InfoBoost

As we stated, InfoBoost is a BP.InfoBoost with a particular merging scheme that merges all nodes  $l_1$  into one leaf and all nodes  $l_{-1}$  into the other leaf. Since  $H_{D_t}(Y|\boldsymbol{\ell}_t) = H_{D_t}(Y|h_t)$ , InfoBoost takes no advantage of the branching program representation.

Next we consider the BP.InfoBoost with no merging phase, namely, DT.InfoBoost. In this case, since a path of the decision tree is uniquely determined by the leaf of the path, we have  $H_{D_t}(Y|\ell_t) = H_{D_t}(Y|h_1,\ldots,h_t)$ . Since  $H_{D_t}(Y|h_1,\ldots,h_t)$  is likely to be much smaller than  $H_{D_t}(Y|h_t)$ , DT.InfoBoost would improve the master hypothesis more efficiently than InfoBoost. Lemma 3 implies

$$H_{D_{t}1}(Y|h_{1},...,h_{t})=H_{D_{t+1}}(Y|\boldsymbol{\ell}_{t})=1.$$

So, DT.InfoBoost has a totally corrective update. This means that all the hypotheses  $h_1, \ldots, h_t$  obtained so far are uncorrelated with Y. So the next hypothesis  $h_{t+1}$  will bring truly new information that  $h_1, \ldots, h_t$  do not have, provided  $H_{D_{t+1}}(Y|h_{t+1}) < 1$ . This contrasts with the case of InfoBoost, where  $h_{t+1}$  is only guaranteed to bring information that  $h_t$  does not have. Moreover, with the fact that  $H_{D_{T+1}}(Y|\ell_T) = 1$ , Theorem 1 and Theorem 2 gives the performance of DT.InfoBoost nicely as

$$\Pr_{U}\left(\operatorname{sign}(F_{T}(x_{i})) \neq y_{i}\right) \leq H_{U}(Y|h_{1},\ldots,h_{T})$$

$$= \prod_{t=1}^{T} H_{D_{t}}(Y|h_{t}).$$

This implies that DT.InfoBoost extracts information very effectively from the weak learner. Actually, we observe in experiments that DT.InfoBoost reduces the generalization error as well as the training error very rapidly in early rounds. Unfortunately, however, the generalization error sometimes turns to be increasing in later rounds. This is because the complexity of the master hypothesis grows exponentially in the number of rounds.

Generally, there is a tradeoff between the size of  $L_t$  and  $H_{D_t}(Y|\boldsymbol{\ell}_t)$ . More precisely, the larger the size of  $L_t$  is (i.e., the less nodes we merge), the smaller  $H_{D_t}(Y|\boldsymbol{\ell}_t)$  becomes (i.e., the more rapidly the training error decreases). In the next section, we propose a merging scheme that makes  $H_{D_t}(Y|\boldsymbol{\ell}_t)$  nearly as small as the one we would have without merge, while keeping  $L_t$  in a moderate size.

#### 6. A merging scheme

Assume we are given a weak hypothesis  $h_t$  in the tth round

and each node  $l \in L_{t-1}$  grows two child leaves  $l_1$  and  $l_{-1}$ . Now we have twice as many leaves as  $L_{t-1}$ . Let the set of leaves be denoted by

$$\tilde{L}_t = \{l_1 \mid l \in L_{t-1}\} \cup \{l_{-1} \mid l \in L_{t-1}\}$$

and let  $\ell_t: X \to \tilde{L}_t$  be defined analogously, that is,  $\ell_t(x)$  is the leaf in  $\tilde{L}_t$  that instance x reaches. If we merge no nodes in  $\tilde{L}_t$ , then we would have  $L_t = \tilde{L}_t$  and  $\tilde{\ell}_t = \ell_t$ . So,  $H_{D_t}(Y|\tilde{\ell}_t)$  gives a lower bound on  $H_{D_t}(Y|\ell_t)$  for  $\ell_t$  induced by any merging for  $\tilde{L}_t$ . Let  $H_{D_t}(Y|\tilde{\ell}_t) = 1 - \gamma_t$ . The merging scheme we give guarantees that  $H_{D_t}(Y|\ell_t) \leq 1 - c\gamma_t$  for some constant 0 < c < 1. For this purpose, we could use the merging method developed by Mansour and McAllester [10]. [Lemma 4] ([10]) For any function  $f: X \to Z$ , any distribution D over  $X \times Y$ , and for any  $0 < \lambda, \delta < 1$ , there exists a function  $g: Z \to M$  such that

$$H_D(Y|g \circ f) \le (1+\lambda)H_D(Y|f) + \delta$$

and

$$|M| = O((1/\lambda)\log(1/\delta)).$$

Clearly, letting  $\tilde{\boldsymbol{\ell}}_t$ ,  $\tilde{L}_t$  and  $L_t$  correspond to f, Z and M, respectively, we have a merging scheme induced by g so that  $g \circ f = \boldsymbol{\ell}_t$ . So by choosing  $\lambda = (1-c)\gamma_t/2(1-\gamma_t)$  and  $\delta = (1-c)\gamma_t/2$ , we have  $H_{D_t}(Y|\boldsymbol{\ell}_t) \leq 1-c\gamma_t$ . Unfortunately, however, the size of  $L_t$  is too big, i.e.,  $|L_t| = O((1/\gamma_t)\ln(1/\gamma_t))$ . In the following, we give a new merging method that guarantees the same bound on  $H_{D_t}(Y|\boldsymbol{\ell}_t)$  with significantly small  $L_t$ , i.e.,  $|L_t| = O(\ln(1/\gamma_t))$ .

**Theorem 3:** Let  $f: X \to Z$  with  $H_D(Y|f) = 1 - \gamma$  for some  $0 < \gamma < 1$ . Then, for any 0 < c < 1, there exists a function  $g: Z \to M$  such that

$$H_D(Y|g \circ f) \le 1 - c\gamma$$

and

$$|M| = O\left(\frac{\log(1/((1-c)\gamma)}{\log(1+1/c)}\right).$$

*Proof.* For each  $z \in \mathbb{Z}$ , let

$$p_z = \Pr_D(f(x_i) = z)$$
 and  $q_z = \Pr_D(y_i = 1 \mid f(x_i) = z)$ .

Note that

$$H_D(Y|f) = \sum_{z \in Z} p_z G(q_z) = 1 - \gamma,$$
 (11)

where  $G(q)=2\sqrt{q(1-q)}$  is our entropy function. Let  $a=2c/(1-c),\,\epsilon_0=0$  and for each  $j\geq 1,\,$  let

$$\epsilon_j = \left(\frac{1+a}{a}\right)^{j-1} \frac{c\gamma}{a}.$$

Let k be the smallest integer such that  $\epsilon_k \geq 1$ . Now we

define the function g. For each  $1 \le j \le k$ , let

$$S_{-i} = \{ z \in Z \mid p_z < 1/2, \epsilon_{i-1} \le 1 - G(q_z) < \epsilon_i \}$$

and

$$S_j = \{ z \in Z \mid p_z \ge 1/2, \epsilon_{j-1} \le 1 - G(q_z) < \epsilon_j \}.$$

That is, Z is partitioned into  $S_{-k} \cup \cdots \cup S_k$ . Let  $M = \{j, -j \mid 1 \le j \le k\}$  and for any  $z \in Z$ , let g(z) = j such that  $z \in S_j$ . It is easy to see that  $|M| = O\left(\frac{\log(1/((1-c)\gamma)}{\log(1+1/c)}\right)$ . So it suffices to show that  $H_D(Y|g \circ f) \le 1 - c\gamma$ .

For each j, let

$$p(S_j) = \sum_{z \in S_j} p_z$$
 and  $\mu_j = \sum_{z \in S_j} \tilde{p}_z q_z$ ,

where  $\tilde{p}_z = p_z/p(S_j)$  with  $z \in S_j$ . Then,

$$H_D(Y|g \circ f) = \sum_{j \in M} p(S_j)G(\mu_j).$$

Since  $G(\mu_j) \leq 1 - \epsilon_{j-1}$ , we have

$$\sum_{j \in M} p(S_j)G(\mu_j) \leq 1 - \sum_{j \in M} p(S_j)\epsilon_{j-1}.$$

If  $\sum_{j \in M} p(S_j) \epsilon_{j-1} \ge c \gamma$ , then we are done. So in what follows, we assume

$$\sum_{j \in M} p(S_j)\epsilon_{j-1} < c\gamma. \tag{12}$$

Since both  $G(\mu_j)$  and  $\sum_{z \in S_j} \tilde{p}_z G(q_z)$  are in the range  $(1 - \epsilon_j, 1 - \epsilon_{j-1}]$ , we have

$$G(\mu_j) \le \sum_{z \in S_j} \tilde{p}_z G(q_z) + \epsilon_j - \epsilon_{j-1}$$

and this with (11) gives

$$H_D(Y|g \circ f) \le 1 - \gamma + \sum_{j \in M} p(S_j)(\epsilon_j - \epsilon_{j-1}). \tag{13}$$

By our choices of  $\epsilon_i$ ,

$$\epsilon_{j-1} = a(\epsilon_j - \epsilon_{j-1})$$

holds for  $j \ge 2$ . Plugging this into (13) and using (12), we get

$$H_D(Y|g \circ f) \le 1 - \gamma + \frac{c\gamma}{a} + \epsilon_1(p(S_{-1}) + p(S_1)) \le 1 - c\gamma.$$

Again, letting  $\tilde{\boldsymbol{\ell}}_t$  and  $\boldsymbol{\ell}_t$  correspond to f and  $g \circ f$ , respectively, we have a merging scheme as desired. Intuitively, the parameter c controls the tradeoff between  $H_{D_t}(Y|\boldsymbol{\ell}_t)$  and  $|L_t|$ . That is, if we let c close to 1, then  $H_{D_t}(Y|\boldsymbol{\ell}_t)$  is as small as  $H_{D_t}(Y|\tilde{\boldsymbol{\ell}}_t)$  while  $|L_t|$  is unbounded. This implies that the BP.InfoBoost behaves like DT.InfoBoost. On the other hand, if we let c close to 0, then  $H_{D_t}(Y|\boldsymbol{\ell}_t)$  is unbounded (naturally bounded by  $H_{D_t}(Y|h_t)$ ) while  $|L_t|$  is as small as a constant. Thus, the BP.InfoBoost behaves like InfoBoost. So, we can expect that BP.InfoBoost with appropriate choice of parameter c outperforms both InfoBoost and DT.InfoBoost.

Finally, we remark that we develop the merging method

in a different philosophy from the one of Mansour and McAllester [10] in the following two points.

- Our merging scheme is based on the current distribution  $D_t$  while that of [10] is based on the uniform distribution over the sample.
- Our merging scheme aims to make the function  $\ell_t$  perform not much worse than  $\tilde{\ell}_t$  as a weak hypothesis. On the other hand, [10] aims to make  $\ell_t$  perform getting better as a master hypothesis, so that  $H_U(Y|\ell_t)$  converges to 0. So their method needs much more leaves and the complexity of the branching program becomes unnecessarily large.

#### 7. Remarks and future works

- (1) Our analysis suggests that the weak learner should produce  $h_t$  so that  $H_{D_t}(Y|\ell_t)$ , rather than  $H_{D_t}(Y|h_t)$ , is as small as possible.
- (2) Our algorithm uses the same cost function  $\sum_i e^{-F_T(x_i)y_i}$  as AdaBoost and InfoBoost. This seems to nicely mesh with our entropy function  $G(q) = 2\sqrt{q(1-q)}$ . What is the relation between the choices of cost functions and corresponding entropy functions?
- (3) The combined hypothesis  $F_T(x) = \sum_{t=1}^T w[\boldsymbol{\ell}_t(x)]$  can be rewritten as the dot product  $F_T(x) = W \cdot H(x)$  where W and H(x) are vectors indexed by paths  $\sigma \in L_1 \times \cdots \times L_T$  and its  $\sigma = (\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_T)$ th components are  $W_\sigma = \sum_{t=1}^T w[\sigma_t]$  and  $H_\sigma(x) = \prod_{t=1}^T [\boldsymbol{\ell}_t(x) = \sigma_t]$ , respectively. This defines feature maps from the node space to the path space. Can we analyze BP.InfoBoost in terms of the path space?
- (4) We need to give a criterion of choosing the tradeoff parameter c (that may depend on round t).
- (5) We need to analyze the complexity of the master hypothesis, say, in terms of VC dimension.
- (6) We are evaluating the performance of BP.InfoBoost on data sets from the UCI Machine Learning Repository. Preliminary experiments show that the BP.InfoBoost with the merging scheme developed in Section 6. performs well as compared to InfoBoost and DT.InfoBoost.

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