## **Navigating Complex Machine Learning Challenges in Streaming Data**

### ECML Tutorial 2024

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# Classification algorithms

- **Goal**: Grow a decision tree incrementally
- This means that after every new training instance, the tree may grow
	- **Key question:** When should a split happen?
- **Hypothesis:** A small sample is often enough to choose a near optimal split decision



Hulten, G., Spencer, L., & Domingos, P. (2001). Mining time-changing data streams. In *ACM SIGKDD*.

# *Hoeffding Bound*

It is a statistical inequality that provides a theoretical guarantee on the convergence of sample averages to the true mean with a high probability

In other words, the **Hoeffding Bound** helps in determining whether **the observed differences in the attributes' merit (purity) are statistically significant** or merely due to random variation

Wassily Hoeffding (1963) Probability Inequalities for Sums of Bounded Random Variables, Journal of the American Statistical Association, 58:301, 13-30, DOI: 10.1080/01621459.1963.10500830



# *Hoeffding Bound*

When should we split a node?

Let  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  be the top 2 most informative attributes\*

Is  $X_1$  a stable option?

Hoeffding bound, split on  $X_1$  if  $G(X_1)$  –  $G(X_2) > \epsilon$ 

Where  $G(*)$  is a purity measure (e.g. Gini index, Information gain)

\* The top attributes to split, the ones that will cause the splits to be "purer"

# *Hoeffding Bound*

When should we split a node?

Let  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  be the top 2 most informative attributes\*

Is  $X_1$  a stable option?

Hoeffding bound, split on  $X_1$  if  $G(X_1)$  –  $G(X_2) \not\succ \epsilon$ 

Where  $G(*)$  is a purity measure (e.g. Gini index, Information gain)

\* The top attributes to split, the ones that will cause the splits to be "purer"



## Hoeffding Tree wrap-up

- HT builds a tree that converges to the tree built by a batch

- $-e$  decreases with  $n$  (or the more instances observed)
- learner given sufficiently large data
- A *grace period* can be used to avoid "splitting too fast"
- McDiarmid Trees\*), but HTs still works well in practice

- There are better options w.r.t. theoretical guarantees (See

\* Rutkowski, L., Pietruczuk, L., Duda, P., & Jaworski, M. (2012). Decision trees for mining data streams based on the McDiarmid's bound. *IEEE Transactions on Knowledge and Data Engineering*.

## Other Streaming Decision Tree algorithms

• The **Extremely Fast Decision Tree (EFDT) [1]** algorithm improves upon the Hoeffding Tree by using a more relaxed criterion for splitting nodes, allowing it to

• EFDT can revisit and revise earlier splits if better splits are found later, which can lead to subtree pruning and potentially sudden drops in accuracy.

- grow the tree more quickly.
	-
- than pruning it when revising splits.
	- without discarding information

• **PLASTIC [2]** avoids EFDT's subtree pruning by restructuring the tree rather Streaming Data session, 11:00am, Thursday

• This allows PLASTIC to maintain accuracy by rearranging the tree structure

[1] Manapragada, Chaitanya, Geoffrey I. Webb, and Mahsa Salehi. Extremely fast decision tree. ACM SIGKDD International, 2018 [2] M. Heyden, H. M. Gomes, E. Fouché, B. Pfahringer, and K. Bohm. Leveraging Plasticity in Incremental Decision Trees. ECML-PKDD, [To Appear] 2024

### **B**ootstrap **Agg**regat**ing**

### **Bagging** trains each model of the ensemble with a bootstrap sample from the original

dataset.

### Every bootstrap contains each original sample **K** times, where **Pr(K=k)** follows a binomial distribution.

Breiman, L. (1996). Bagging predictors. *Machine learning*, *24*(2), 123-140.







### On average for each subsample:

**~**64% of the instances are from the original dataset

**~**37% are repeated instances

**~**37% of the original instances are not present\*

\* Out-Of-Bag (OOB)

Breiman, L. (1996). Bagging predictors. *Machine learning*, *24*(2), 123-140.

### The **predictions** of each learner are **aggregated** using majority vote to obtain the final prediction. Prediction for a given instance X…



# Online Bagging

• Unfeasible to store all data before creating each bootstrap

- We cannot apply Bagging directly to data streams...
- subsample

### We need to build the subsamples online

*N. Oza and S. Russel "Online bagging and boosting" Artificial Intelligence and Statistics, 2001*

- Given a dataset with **<sup>N</sup>** samples
- In Bagging, every bootstrap contains each original sample **K** times, where **Pr(K=k)** follows a binomial distribution
- Oza and Russel found out that for large **N**, the binomial distribution tends to a **Poisson(1)** distribution
- Online Bagging instead of sampling with replacement, gives each example a weight according to **Poisson(1)** distribution

*N. Oza and S. Russel "Online bagging and boosting" Artificial Intelligence and Statistics, 2001*

# Online Bagging

if  $k > 0$  then  $l \leftarrow FindLeaf(t, x)$  $UpdateLeafCounts(l, x, k)$ 

*N. Oza and S. Russel "Online bagging and boosting" Artificial Intelligence and Statistics, 2001*



**Practical effect:** train learners with different subsets of instances.

# Subsamples

### Batch bagging

**~**64% from the original dataset

**~**37% are repeated

**~**37% are not present

### **Online bagging**



## Adaptive Random Forest (ARF)

Streaming version of the original Random Forest by Breiman

Uses a variation of the Hoeffding Tree

### **Main differences:**

Online bagging, base learner & detectors

- **Online bagging**
- 2. Random subset of features
- 3. Drift detector for each tree

### **Overview:**

Breiman, L. (2001). Random forests. *Machine learning.* Gomes, H. M., Bifet, A., Read, J., …, T. (2017). Adaptive random forests for evolving data stream classification. *Machine Learning.* Hulten, G., Spencer, L., & Domingos, P. (2001). Mining time-changing data streams. In *ACM SIGKDD*.

# ARF: Detect and Adapt

• Relies on the **Adaptive WINdow** (ADWIN) algorithm for

- One **Warning** and one **Drift** detector per base model
- detection (other algorithms could be used)
- 
- the *"foreground"* **learner**.

• *Background* **learners** are started once <sup>a</sup> warning is detected, their subspace of features may not correspond to the subspace of features used by the *"foreground"* learner.

• Once <sup>a</sup> drift is detected, the *background* **learner replaces**

## Boosting and Gradient Boosting

- XGBoost and CatBoost are popular **batch gradient boosting** methods
- 

• One key challenge when adapting such algorithms other than a stream setting includes concept drift recovery

*T. Chen and C. Guestrin. Xgboost: A scalable tree boosting system. In Proceedings of the 22Nd ACM SIGKDD. ACM, 2016. Prokhorenkova, L., Gusev, G., Vorobev, A., Dorogush, A. V., & Gulin, A. (2018). CatBoost: unbiased boosting with categorical features. NeurIPS.*

## Boosting on Streams

train multiple times using a given instance (similar to Online Bagging)

- [2001] **OzaBoost** [1] uses weights from a Poisson(1) distribution to
- [2012] **Online Smooth Boost** [2] is analogous to batch SmoothBoost, thus it uses a smooth distribution for weight assignment
- detected by ADWIN
- **better than** bagging-based stream learners

• [2020] **Gradient boosted AXGB** [3] use Mini-batch trained XGBoost as its base learners and adjusts the booster when concept drifts are

## • [2024] **Streaming Gradient Boosted Trees (SGBT)** [4] **performs**



*[1] N. Oza and S. Russel "Online bagging and boosting" Artificial Intelligence and Statistics, 2001* [2] Chen, Shang-Tse, Hsuan-Tien Lin, and Chi-Jen Lu. "An online boosting algorithm with theoretical justifications." International Conference on International Conference on Machine Learning. 2012. *[3] Montiel, J., Mitchell, R., Frank, E., Pfahringer, B., Abdessalem, T., Bifet, A.: Adaptive xgboost for evolving data streams. In: 2020 IJCNN [4] Gunasekara, N., Pfahringer, B., Gomes, H., & Bifet, A. (2024). Gradient boosted trees for evolving data streams. Machine Learning, 113(5), 3325-3352.*

# Regression algorithms

## Adaptive Random Forest Regression

- Similar to ARF for classification
- builds **regression trees**
- for **prediction**, uses **mean** of **predictions** (by each tree)



## Self-Optimizing k-Nearest Leaves (SOKNL)

- **Extends** Adaptive Random Forest Regression
- Generates **a representative data point (centroid)** in each leaf by **compressing** information **from all instances in that leaf**
- During **prediction**, calculates **distances** between **input instance** and **centroids** for **relevant leaves**
- Uses **only k leaves** with **smallest distances** for **prediction**
- **Dynamically tuning k** values based on **historical information**

Yibin Sun, B Pfahringer, H M Gomes, and A Bifet. "SOKNL: A novel way of integrating K-nearest neighbours with adaptive random forest regression for data streams" Data Mining and Knowledge Discovery (2022)



Yibin Sun, B Pfahringer, H M Gomes, and A Bifet. "SOKNL: A novel way of integrating K-nearest neighbours with adaptive random forest regression for data streams" Data Mining and Knowledge Discovery (2022)



## Self-Optimizing k-Nearest Leaves (SOKNL)



## Prediction Intervals

## Prediction Intervals

Prediction Intervals (PIs) are very useful improve our confidence in predictions yield in regression tasks

**Challenge**

Traditional PI methods were not designed to adapt to evolving streams (i.e. those with concept drift)

TIME / INSTANCE





### **Prediction Interval**

TIME / INSTANCE



TIME / INSTANCE





### Mean and Variance Estimation (MVE)

 $Pr(y \in [\hat{y} - G^{-1}(0,\gamma) \times \sigma_{\epsilon}, \hat{y} + G^{-1}(0,\gamma) \times \sigma_{\epsilon}]) \approx \gamma$ 

 $\text{PI}_{\text{MVF}} \in (\hat{y} - G^{-1}(0, \gamma) \times \sigma_{\epsilon}, \hat{y} + G^{-1}(0, \gamma) \times \sigma_{\epsilon})$ 

: Confidence Level / Significance Level

### Adaptive Prediction Interval (AdaPI)

Yibin Sun, B Pfahringer, H M Gomes, and A Bifet. "Adaptive Prediction Interval for Data Stream Regression." PAKDD (2024)

 $Pr(y \in [\hat{y} - S \times G^{-1}(0, \gamma) \times \sigma_{\epsilon}, \hat{y} + S \times G^{-1}(0, \gamma) \times \sigma_{\epsilon}]$ )  $\approx \gamma$ 

 $PI_{\text{Adap}} \in (\hat{y} - S \times G^{-1}(0, \gamma) \times \sigma_{\epsilon}, \hat{y} + S \times G^{-1}(0, \gamma) \times \sigma_{\epsilon})$ 

: Confidence Level / Significance Level

Scalar:

### Scalar for AdaPI

![](_page_34_Figure_1.jpeg)

### **Evaluation Metrics for PI**

NMPIW: Normalized Mean Prediction Interval Width

R : Range of Target Values

 $P_{\mu}$ ,  $P_{\tau}$ : Upper and Lower Bounds of Prediction Intervals

Coverage =  $\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} I_i$ 

 $NMPIW = \frac{\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N} (P_{u_i} - P_{l_i})}{D}$ 

### **Expansion Case**

![](_page_36_Figure_1.jpeg)

![](_page_36_Figure_2.jpeg)

### Blue area: AdaPI Red area: MVE

### **Shrinkage Case**

![](_page_37_Figure_1.jpeg)

### Blue area: AdaPI Red area: MVE

### **Switching Case**

![](_page_38_Figure_1.jpeg)

![](_page_38_Figure_2.jpeg)

### Blue area: AdaPI Red area: MVE

### Dealing with Drifts

Datasets: HyperA

![](_page_39_Figure_2.jpeg)

## Prediction Intervals Summary

Prediction Interval (PI) is essential for uncertainty quantification in regression tasks.

### **Challenges**

Traditional PI methods are not suitable for dynamic data streams.

### **Solution**

Mean and Variance Estimation (MVE); ADAPI\*

### **Evaluation**

Coverage

Normalised Mean Prediction Interval Width (NMPIW)

## Practical examples

### 02\_ECML2024\_supervised.ipynb