Boosting of Neural Networks over MNIST Data

Eva Volna, Vaclav Kocian and Martin Kotyrba

Department of Informatics and computers, University of ostrava, 30 dubna 22, Ostrava, Czech Republic

Keywords: Boosting, Adaboost, MNIST Data, Pattern Recognition.

Abstract: The methods proposed in the article come out from a technique called boosting, which is based on the principle of combining a large number of so-called weak classifiers into a strong classifier. The article is focused on the possibility of increasing the efficiency of the algorithms via their appropriate combination, and particularly increasing their reliability and reducing their time exigency. Time exigency does not mean time exigency of the algorithm itself, nor its development, but time exigency of applying the algorithm to a particular problem domain. Simulations and experiments of the proposed processes were performed in the designed and created application environment. Experiments have been conducted over the MNIST database of handwritten digits that is commonly used for training and testing in the field of machine learning. Finally, a comparative experimental study with other approaches is presented. All achieved results are summarized in a conclusion.

1 BOOSTING REVIEW

The two most popular methods for creating ensembles are boosting (Schapire, 1999) and bagging (Breiman, 1996). Boosting is reported to give better results than bagging (Quinlan, 1996). Both of them modify a set of training examples to achieve diversity of weak learners in the ensemble. As alternative methods we can mention randomization based on a random modification of base decision algorithm (Dietterich, 2000) or Bayesian model averaging, which can even outperform boosting in some cases (Davidson and Fan, 2006). Boosting has its roots in a theoretical framework for studying machine learning called the 'PAC' learning model, due to Valiant (Valiant, 1984). Schapire (Schapire, 1990) came up with the first provable polynomial-time boosting algorithm in 1989. A year later, Freund (Freund, 1995) developed a much more efficient boosting algorithm which, although optimal in a certain sense, nevertheless suffered from certain practical drawbacks. The first experiments with these early boosting algorithms were carried out by (Drucker, Schapire, and Simard, 1993) on an OCR task.

Boosting is a general method for improving the accuracy of any given learning algorithm. The algorithm takes as input the training set $(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_m, y_m)$ where each x_i belongs to some domain of the space X, and each label y_i belongs to

some label set *Y*, where $y_i \in Y = \{-1, +1\}$. AdaBoost calls a given weak learning algorithm repeatedly in a series of rounds t = 1, ..., T. One of the main ideas of the algorithm is to maintain a distribution of weights over the training set. The weight of this distribution on *i*-th training example on round t is denoted $D_t(i)$. Initially, all weights are set equally, but on each round, the weights of incorrectly classified examples are increased so that the weak learner is forced to focus on the hard examples in the training set. The weak learner's job is to find a weak hypothesis $h_t: X \to \{-1, +1\}$ appropriate for the distribution D_t . The goodness of a weak hypothesis is measured by its error ϵ_t (1):

$$\epsilon_t = \sum_{i:h_t(x_i) \neq y_i} D_t(i) \tag{1}$$

Notice that the error ϵ_t is measured with respect to the distribution D_t on which the weak learner was trained. In practice, the weak learner may be an algorithm that can use the weights D_t on the training examples. Alternatively, when this is not possible, a subset of the training examples can be sampled according to D_t , and these (unweighted) resampled examples can be used to train the weak learner.

The most basic theoretical property of AdaBoost concerns its ability to reduce the training error. Let us write the error ϵ_t of h_t as $0.5 - \gamma_t$. Since a hypothesis that guesses each instance's class at random has an error rate of 0.5 (on binary

Volna E., Kocian V. and Kotyrba M..
 Boosting of Neural Networks over MNIST Data.
 DOI: 10.5220/0005131802560263
 In Proceedings of the International Conference on Neural Computation Theory and Applications (NCTA-2014), pages 256-263
 ISBN: 978-989-758-054-3
 Copyright © 2014 SCITEPRESS (Science and Technology Publications, Lda.)

problems), γ_t thus measures how much better than random are h_t 's predictions. Freund and Schapire (Freund and Schapire, 1997) proved that the training error (the fraction of mistakes on the training set) of the final hypothesis *H* is at most (2):

$$\prod_{t} \left[2\sqrt{\epsilon_t (1 - \epsilon_t)} \right] = \prod_{t} \sqrt{1 - 4\gamma_t^2} \le \exp\left(-2\sum_{t} \gamma_t^2\right)$$
(2)

Thus, if each weak hypothesis is slightly better than random so that $\gamma_t \ge \gamma$ for some $\gamma \ge 0$, then the training error drops exponentially fast. However, boosting algorithms required that such a lower bound γ be known a priori before boosting begins. In practice, knowledge of such a bound is very difficult to obtain. AdaBoost, on the other hand, is adaptive in that it adapts to the error rates of the individual weak hypotheses. This is the basis of its name 'Ada' is short for 'adaptive'. (Freund and Schapire, 1999).

2 ENSEMBLES OF CLASSIFIERS

The goal of ensemble learning methods is to construct a collection (an ensemble) of individual classifiers that are diverse and yet accurate. If it is achieved, then highly accurate classification decisions can be obtained by voting the decisions of the individual classifiers in the ensemble.

We have proposed the method of learning on the basis of the property of neural networks, which have been noticed during another work (Kocian and Volná, 2012), e.g. a major part of the adaptation is performed during the first pass. We used neural networks as generators of weak classifiers only, i.e. such classifiers which are slightly better than a random variable with uniform distribution. For weak classifiers, their diversity is more important than their accuracy. Therefore, it seemed appropriate to use a greedy way in order to propose classifiers. This approach uses only the power of the neural network adaptation rule in the early stages of its work and thus time is not lost due to a full adaptation of the classifier.

2.1 Performance and Diversity

The most significant experimental part of the article focused on dealing with text (machine readable) in particular. However, we were not limited to printed text. The experiment has been conducted over the MNIST database (LeCun et al., 2014). The MNIST database is a large database of handwritten digits that is commonly used for training and testing in the field of machine learning.

We have proposed several approaches to improve performance of boosting (Iwakura et al., 2010). In our experiment, we try to increase diversity of classifiers by the following methods. It specifically relates to such innovations concerning training sets.

- Filtering of inputs;
- Randomly changing the order of the training examples;
- Doubling occurrences of incorrectly classified examples in a training set;
- All these neural networks used the algorithm for an elimination of irrelevant inputs as proposed in (Kocian et al., 2011).

2.1.1 Proposed Neural-Networks-based Classifiers

In consequent text, we have used the following nomenclature refers to neural networks:

- x input value;
- t required (expected) output value;
- y_{in}- input of neuron y;
- y_{out} output of neuron y;
- α learning parameter;
- φ formula for calculating a neuron output value (activation function) $y_{out} = \varphi(y_{in})$;
- Δw formula for calculating a change of a weight value.

We have used a total of five types of neural networks in the study. We have used codes N1-N4 for single-layer networks, and N5 for a two-layer network. The proposed ensembles of neuralnetworks-based classifiers are basically a set of m classifiers. All the *m* classifiers work with the same set of *n* inputs. Each of the *m* classifiers tries to learn to recognize objects of one class in the input patterns of size n. Details about the parameters of the networks are shown in Table 1. All the neural networks used the winner-takes-all strategy for output neurons (Y_1, \ldots, Y_n) when they worked in the active mode. So only one output neuron with the highest y_{out} value could be active. The Y_i is considered the winner if and only if $\forall j: y_i < i$ $y_i \vee (y_i = y_i \wedge i < j)$, i.e. the winner is the neuron with the highest output value y_i . In the case that more neurons have the same output value, the winner is considered the first one in the order. Since Adaline did not perform well with the basic learning rule $\alpha x(t - y_{in})$ (Fausett, 1994), we assume that the

cause lays in the relatively big number of patterns and inputs and therefore possibly the big value of $(t - y_{in})$. That is, why we have normalized value of $(t - y_{in})$ by the sigmoid function.

Table 1: Parameters of classifiers.

| Туре | $\varphi(x)$ | Δw | |
|------|--------------------------|-----------------------|--|
| N1 | Identity | Modified Adaline Rule | |
| N2 | $\frac{1}{1 + \exp(-x)}$ | Delta Rule | |
| N3 | Identity | Hebb Rule | |
| N4 | Identity | Perceptron Rule | |
| N5 | $\frac{1}{1 + \exp(-x)}$ | Back Propagation Rule | |

The *classifier* is an alias for an instance of a neural network. Each classifier was created separately and adapted by only one pass through the training set. After that the test set was presented and all achieved results were recorded in detail:

- Lists of correctly and incorrectly classified patterns;
- Time of adaptation.

Ensemble is a set of 100 classifiers, i.e. 100 instances of neural networks. Each ensemble is defined by two parameters in total:

- The base algorithms, i.e. what types of neural networks form the ensemble (Table 1);
- Configuring of rising the diversity i.e. what methods were used to increase the diversity in the process of creation of classifiers for the ensemble. We used three methods, *Filtering*, *Shuffling* and *Doubling*.

Similarly to the classifier, the ensemble was also re-created. All achieved results were recorded in detail. Achieved parameters that were recorded for ensembles:

- Patterns that were correctly identified by all classifiers;
- Patterns that were incorrectly recognized by all classifier;
- Maximal, minimal and average error of classifiers over the training set;
- Maximal, minimal and average error of classifiers over the test set.

2.1.2 Diversity Enhancement Configuration

This section describes the method to increase the

diversity of classifiers that were used in the proposal of a specific ensemble. We used 6 bases of algorithms in total: N1 represents Adaline, N2 represents delta rule, N3 represents Hebbian network, N4 represents perceptron, N5 represents Back Propagation network and the sixth base N1-N5 represents all ensembles contain 20 specific instances of a specific type. In the test, each combination of three methods was tested on 50 ensembles that were composed from classifiers formed over a given base of algorithms. Figure 1 shows briefly the logical structure of the experiment.



Figure 1: Logical structure of the experiment. Each base of algorithm has been tested with 12 different diversity enhancing configurations. Total of 50 ensembles has been created over each base of algorithm and diversity enhancing configuration. Each ensemble consisted of 100 classifiers.

Classifiers were generated as instances of N1-N5. The accuracy of each generated classifier was verified on both the test and the training set. The results achieved by each classifier were stored in a database and evaluated at the end of the experiment. For purpose of our experiment we have defined an ensemble as a group of 100 classifiers generated over the same set of algorithms with the same configuration of the generator. One set of ensembles has been made over all available algorithms. Twelve different configuration was tested 50 times in every set of ensembles. Therefore there have been created and tested $6 \cdot 12 \cdot 50 \cdot 100 = 360000$ different instances of neural networks.

Figure 2 represents a creation of one classifier instance through a generator. It utilized the available library of algorithms, training set and configuration. Configuration specifies presentation of the training



Figure 2: Block diagram of classifier generation. Dashed parts apply only to the experiment. In the real system, the procedure final product would be the classifier itself.

set. In the next step (indicated by dashed line) each generated classifier was subjected to the test of accuracy on both the training and the test set. At the end of the whole procedure, we had obtained complete information about all correctly and incorrectly classified patterns, about base algorithm and about the configuration. The experiment was conducted over the data from the MNIST database (LeCun et al., 2014). The training set contains 60000 patterns and the test set contains 10000 patterns. Patterns are stored in the database as a 28x28 pixel images with 256 grayscale. As the examples represent digits, it is obvious, that they can be divided into 10 classes, therefore all tested neural networks had a total of 10 output neurons. The highest number of input neurons was $28 \cdot 28 = 784$.

2.2 Methods of Classifiers Diversity Enhancing

We propose the input filters as a method for enhancing diversity of classifiers. The main idea of input filter is, that classifier 'sees' only a part of the input. It forces the classifier to focus its attention only on certain features (parts of pattern). It should increase the diversity of individual classifiers generated. Input filter is represented by a bitmap Fof the same size as the original pattern. The classifier 'sees' the input pattern 'through' matrix Fwhile only bits of F, which have value of 1 are 'transparent'. The blank filter is represented by a matrix whose pixels are all set to value of 1. Topology of classifier always reflects the current filter in the sense that the number of input neurons is equal to the number of bits with value of 1 in the bitmap F. It implies that the topology of classifiers,

when using a non-blank filter, is smaller and less demanding in terms of memory space and CPU time. Figure 3 shows the example of application of different filters to the pattern representing the number '8'. We have used the following three modes of the input filters:

- Blank;
- Random (white noise);
- Random Streak. In this mode, vertical or horizontal filter was picked-up with the same probability of 0.5.



Figure 3: Example of use of different filters on the input pattern with the image number '8'. In the top row we can see four different filter matrices, in the bottom row there are the results of the filtration (what the classifier can see). Through the blank filter (left) the original shape of the pattern is visible. Displayed filters from the left: The blank filter, the random filter, the horizontal streak filter, the vertical streak filter.

Shuffling. Training patterns were presented in random order. This can force the classifier to go the other path during the learning.

Doubling. Patterns that were correctly identified by all tested classifiers in the ensemble, were removed from the training set. Patterns that have not been properly learned by any classifier in the ensemble, were included twice in the training set.

We have used the diversity of classifiers in the ensembles as the criterion for judging the success of algorithms and configurations. Moreover, we have focused mainly on performance at the test set of patterns. We have expressed the diversity as the reciprocal of the count of patterns, which were not correctly classified by any of the classifiers in the ensemble. The smaller number of unrecognized patterns means the more successful ensemble. If the diversity on the testing set was remarkably worse than the diversity on the training set, we have experienced over-fitting. The results of the experiments are summarized in Tables 2-4. The tables share a common column marking:

- TAvg average percentage of unrecognized patterns in the training set;
- GAvg –average percentage of unrecognized patterns in the test set
- GAvg/TAvg error ratio. Generalization capabilities. The higher value indicates the higher overfitting. So the smaller number means the higher quality of the classifier.

| Туре | TAvg | GAvg | GAvg/TAvg |
|-------|-------|-------|-----------|
| N1 | 0.760 | 1.093 | 1.438 |
| N2 | 0.610 | 0.943 | 1.545 |
| N3 | 0.900 | 1.423 | 1.581 |
| N4 | 0.770 | 1.093 | 1.419 |
| N5 | 0.360 | 0.510 | 1.416 |
| N1-N5 | 0.430 | 0.630 | 1.465 |
| | | | |

Table 2: Achieved experimental results.

In Table 2 we can see that the average performance of the Back Propagation network (N5) is the best. It also shares the best GAvg/TAvg value with the perceptron (N4). On the other side, the Hebb (N3) is the worst, it gives the worst performance on both the average error and the GAvg/TAvg value.

Table 3: Comparison of quality of ensembles by doubling and shuffling.

| | Doubling | | Shuffling | |
|-----------|----------|-------|-----------|-------|
| | Yes | No | Yes | No |
| TAvg | 0.348 | 0.928 | 0.540 | 0.737 |
| GAvg | 0.718 | 1.180 | 0.833 | 1.066 |
| GAvg/TAvg | 2.063 | 1.271 | 1.542 | 1.446 |

Looking at Table 3, the doubling method affects parameters of generated ensembles. The doubling

enhances diversity, but it also significantly reduces the ensemble's generalization capabilities. It was expected as the doubling forces the classifiers to focus on the particular portion of the train set. Concerning shuffling, it slightly enhances diversity and reduces the generalization capabilities. The shuffling is weaker than the doubling but we cannot, if it is better or worse than the shuffling.

Table 4: Comparison of quality of ensembles by filters.

| Filter | TAvg | GAvg | GAvg/TAvg |
|--------|-------|-------|-----------|
| Streak | 0.288 | 0.378 | 1.312 |
| Random | 0.570 | 0.824 | 1.445 |
| Blank | 1.058 | 1.644 | 1.553 |

In Table 4 we can investigate the influence of different filters on the ensembles behaviour. It is clear from the values in the table that the filtering is the right way to go through. The filtering method put the ensemble's performance forward in both the average error and the generalization capabilities. We can also see that the streak filter performs significantly better than the random one.

3 BOOSTING OF NEURAL NETWORKS

In the section we have used two different types of neural networks. Hebb network and Back Propagation network. Details about initial configurations of the used networks are shown in Table 5. Both neural networks used the winnertakes-all strategy for output neurons when worked in the active mode. Just as in our previous work (Kocian and Volná, 2012), we have used a slightly modified Hebb rule with identity activation function $y_{out} = y_{in}$. This simple modification allows using the winner-takes-all strategy without losing information about the input to the neuron. Back Propagation network was adapted using the sloppy adaptation as we have proposed in (Kocian and Volná, 2012).

Table 5: Neural networks initial configuration.

| Туре | $\varphi(x)$ | Δw |
|------|--------------------------|--|
| Hebb | Identity | $\alpha \cdot x \cdot t; \alpha = 1$ |
| BP | $\frac{2}{1+\exp(-x)}-1$ | $\alpha x(t - y_o) \cdot \frac{1}{2}(1 + y_o)(1 - y_o)$ $\alpha = 0.04$ |

We worked with the following approaches to patterns weights: the lowest weight of a pattern d_{min} (e.g. weight of the pattern that was recognized by all weak classifiers from an ensemble) was recorded in each iteration. When designing the training set, there

were patterns with a weight value *d* inserted into the training set $\left(\frac{d}{d_{min}} - 1\right)$ times. It means that patterns with the lowest weight value were eliminated from the training set, the others were inserted into the training set repeatedly by the size of their weight values. The order of patterns in the training set was chosen randomly. In the process, the training set was gradually enlarged. The training set was able to reach its size of 10^7 , which significantly slowed its adaptation. To reduce enormous 'puffing' of the training set, we tried to substitute multiple insertions with dynamic manipulation with a learning rate. In this way, the neural networks set specific learning rate α_{ti} (3) for each *i*-th pattern and each *t*-th iteration.

$$\alpha_{ti} = \alpha \left(\frac{d}{d_{min}} - 1 \right) \tag{3}$$

It turned out that neural networks did not work properly with such a modified algorithm. Handling the learning rate corresponds to the multiple insertion of a pattern in the same place in the training set. Neural networks are adapted well if patterns are uniformly spread in the training set. Therefore, it was necessary to follow multiple insertion of patterns so that the training set could always mix before its use. Methods of enhanced filtering were shown in Figure 4.



Figure 4: Filters AREA and SUBCOMBINE.

The method 'subareas' is a generalization of the strip filter. Filter AREA was always defined by six rectangular 'holes' in the mask through which the neural network saw input vectors. Size and location of rectangles were chosen randomly.

Procedural filter SUBCOMBINE transforms the original pattern S to the working pattern S so that from the original pattern randomly selects a few square areas of random identical size $p \ge m$ and all of these areas are combined into one pattern.

The idea of the type of a filter is the fact that some parts of selected areas are overlapped.

We have proposed several approaches to improve performance of boosting algorithm AdaBoost.M1 based on (Freund and Schapire, 1996) that are defined as follows. Given set of *m* examples $\langle (x_1, y_1), ..., (x_m, y_m) \rangle$ with labels $y_i \in Y =$ $\{1, ..., k\}$. The initial distribution is set uniformly over *S*, so $D_1(i) = \frac{1}{m}$ for all *i*. To compute distribution D_{t+1} from D_t , h_t and the last weak hypothesis, we multiply the weight of example *i* by:

- Some number $\alpha \in [0,1)$ if h_t classifies x_i correctly (example's weight goes down);
- '1' otherwise (example's weight stays unchanged).

The weights are then renormalized by dividing by the normalization constant Z_t . The whole boosting algorithm is shown in Figure 5.



Figure 5: boosting algorithm AdaBoost.M1.

Exactly as we have expected, the more classifiers was in the ensemble, the more difficult it was to find another sufficient classifier which satisfies the condition $\epsilon_t < E_{max}$. This difficulty tended to grow exponentially fast and together with the growing training set it made the adaptation process very slow.

The experiment results are shown in Table 6, where BP8 means Back Propagation network with 8 hidden neurons and BP50 with 50 hidden neurons.

| Classifier; | Test | Train | Train |
|------------------|--------|--------|----------|
| FILTER | Err. | Err. | Size |
| Hebb; AREA | 10.907 | 10.860 | 226444 |
| Hebb; SUBCOMB | 8.190 | 8.820 | 316168 |
| BP8; AREA | 6.503 | 7.010 | 698539 |
| BP8; SUBCOMB | 6.720 | 7.400 | 647553 |
| BP50; AREA | 0.062 | 2.890 | 38513603 |
| BP50; SUBCOMB | 0.447 | 4.090 | 12543975 |

Table 6: Boosting results.

4 RESULTS AND COMPARISON WITH OTHER METHODS

Many methods have been tested with the MNIST database of handwritten digits (LeCun et al., 2014).

While recognising digits is only one of many problems involved in designing a practical recognition system, it is an excellent benchmark for comparing shape recognition methods. Though many existing method combine a hand-crafted feature extractor and a training classifier, the comparable study concentrates on adaptive methods that operate directly on size-normalized images.

A comparison of our approach with other methods is shown in Figure 6. The graph represents the achieved test of several methods over MNIST database. Here, GREEN colour represents our results (Table 6), RED colour represents results of multilayer neural networks, VIOLET colour represents results of busted methods, and BLUE colour represents other results. It means the following methods: a linear classifier, K-nearestneighbors, a quadratic classifier, RBF, SVM, a deep convex net, convolutional nets and various combinations of these methods. Details about these methods are given in (LeCun et al., 1998).



TEST ERROR RATE (%)

Figure 6: Test error over MNIST database of handwritten digits. Comparison with other methods: GREEN colour represents our results, RED colour represents results of multilayer neural networks, VIOLET colour represents results of busted methods, and BLUE colour represents other results.

5 CONCLUSIONS

We have tested five types of neural networks and three different methods of diversity enhancement. We have proposed the one-cycle learning method for neural networks, same as the method of diversity enhancement which we call input filtering. Based on the experimental study results we can formulate the following outcomes:

- Neural networks in general look suitable as the base algorithms for classifiers ensembles.
- The method of one-cycle learning looks suitable for ensembles building too.
- *Filtering* gave surprisingly good results as the method of diversity enhancement.
- Doubling of patterns gave surprisingly well results too. We expected that this method would lead to over-fitting, but this assumption did not prove correct.
- We expected more from *shuffling* of patterns. But as the results show, doubling of patterns is more permissible.

Boosting results are shown in Table 6 looking at it, we can pronounce the following:

- The best performance (train error 0.062%, test error 2.89%) has been reached with the Back Propagation network with 50 hidden neurons.
- The worst performance has been reached with the Hebbian network.
- Green colour represents our results in Figure 6, which are promising by comparison with other approaches.

Adaboost, neural networks and input filters look as a very promising combination. Although we have used only random filters, the performance of the combined classifier was satisfactory. We have proved the positive influence of input filters. Nevertheless the random method of input filters selecting makes the adaptation process very time consuming. We have to look for more sophisticated methods of detecting problematic areas in the patterns. Once such areas are found, we will able to design and possibly generalize some method of the bespoke input filter construction.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The research steps described here have been financially supported by the University of Ostrava grant SGS16/PrF/2014.

REFERENCES

- Breiman, L. (1996). Bagging predictors. In *Machine Learning*. (pp. 123-140).
- Davidson, I., and Fan, W. (2006). When efficient model averaging out-performs boosting and bagging. *Knowledge Discovery in Databases*, 478-486.
- Dietterich, T. G. (2000). An experimental comparison of three methods for constructing ensembles of decision trees: Bagging, boosting, and randomization. *Machine learning*, 139-157.
 Drucker, H., Schapire, R., and Simard, P. (1993). Boosting
- Drucker, H., Schapire, R., and Simard, P. (1993). Boosting performance in neural networks. *Int. Journ. of Pattern Recognition. and Artificial Intelligence*, 705-719.
- Fausett, L. V. (1994). *Fundamentals of Neural Networks*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.
- Freund, Y. (1995). Boosting a weak learning algorithm by majority. *Information and Computation*, 256-285.
- Freund, Y., and Schapire, R. (1996). Experiments with a New Boosting Algorithm. *ICML*, 148-156.
- Freund, Y., and Schapire, R. E. (1997). A decisiontheoretic generalization of on-line learning and an application to boosting. *J. of Comp. and System Sciences*, 119–139.
- Freund, Y., and Schapire, R. (1999). A short introduction to boosting. J. Japan. Soc. for Artif. Intel., 771-780.
- Iwakura, T., Okamoto, S., and Asakawa, K. (2010). An AdaBoost Using a Weak-Learner Generating Several Weak-Hypotheses for Large Training Data of Natural Language Processing. *IEEJ Transactions on Electronics, Information and Systems*, 83-91.
- Kocian, V., Volná, E., Janošek, M., and Kotyrba, M. (2011). Optimizatinon of training sets for Hebbianlearningbased classifiers. In *Proc. of the 17th Int. Conf. on Soft Computing, Mendel 2011*, pp. 185-190.
- Kocian, V., and Volná, E. (2012). Ensembles of neuralnetworks-based classifiers. In Proc. of the 18th Int. Conf. on Soft Computing, Mendel 2012, pp. 256-261.
- LeCun, Y. Bottou, L. Bengio, Y. and Haffner, P. (1998) Gradient-based learning applied to document recognition. *Proceedings of the IEEE*, 86(11):2278-2324, November.
- LeCun, Y., Cortes, C., and Burges, C. (2014). *Te MNIST Database*. Retrieved from http://yann.lecun.com/ exdb/mnist/
- Quinlan, J. R. (1996). Bagging, boosting, and C4.5. Thirteenth National Conference on Artificial Intelligence, (pp. 725-730).
- Schapire, R. E. (1990). The strength of weak learnability. *Machine Learning*, 197-227.
- Schapire, R. E. (1999). A brief introduction to boosting. Sixteenth International Joint Conference on Artificial Intelligence IJCAI (pp. 1401–1406). Morgan Kaufmann Publishers Inc.
- Valiant, L. G. (1984). A theory of the learnable. Communications of the ACM, 1134-1142.