Machine Learning – Lecture 11

AdaBoost and Decision Trees

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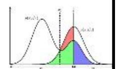
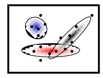
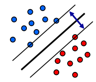
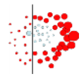
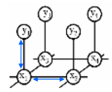
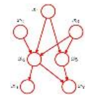
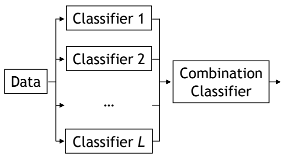
Course Outline

- Fundamentals (2 weeks)
  - Bayes Decision Theory
  - Probability Density Estimation
- Discriminative Approaches (5 weeks)
  - Linear Discriminant Functions
  - Statistical Learning Theory & SVMs
  - Ensemble Methods & Boosting
  - Randomized Trees, Forests & Ferns
- Generative Models (4 weeks)
  - Bayesian Networks
  - Markov Random Fields

Recap: Stacking

- Idea
  - Learn L classifiers (based on the training data)
  - Find a meta-classifier that takes as input the output of the L first-level classifiers.



- Example
  - Learn L classifiers with leave-one-out.
  - Interpret the prediction of the L classifiers as L-dimensional feature vector.
  - Learn "level-2" classifier based on the examples generated this way.

Slide credit: Bernt Schiele

Recap: Bayesian Model Averaging

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

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

- 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!
  - Unfortunately, this assumes that the errors are all uncorrelated. In practice, they will typically be highly correlated.

Topics of This Lecture

- Recap: AdaBoost
  - Algorithm
  - Analysis
  - Extensions
- Analysis
  - Comparing Error Functions
- Applications
  - AdaBoost for face detection
- Decision Trees
  - CART
  - Impurity measures, Stopping criterion, Pruning
  - Extensions, Issues
  - Historical development: ID3, C4.5

Recap: AdaBoost – "Adaptive Boosting"

- Main idea [Freund & Schapire, 1996]
  - Instead of resampling, 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:

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

Recap: AdaBoost - Algorithm

1. Initialization: Set $w_n^{(1)} = \frac{1}{N}$ for $n = 1,\ldots,N$.
2. For $m = 1,\ldots,M$ 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 $h_m(\mathbf{x})$:

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

   d) Update the weighting coefficients:

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

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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.

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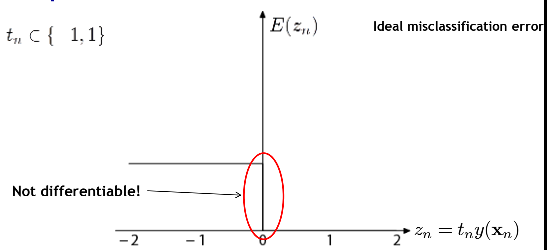
Recap: Error Functions

$t_n \subset \{\ 1, 1\}$



- Ideal misclassification error function (black)
  - This is what we want to approximate,
  - Unfortunately, it is not differentiable.
  - The gradient is zero for misclassified points.

  ⇒ We cannot minimize it by gradient descent.

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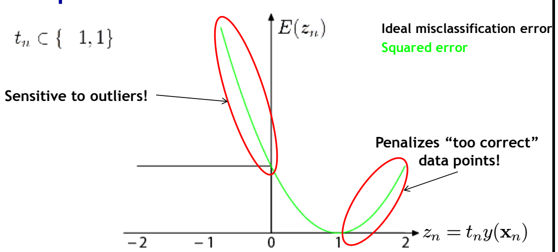
10 Image source: Bishop, 2006

Recap: Error Functions

$t_n \subset \{\ 1, 1\}$



- 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

  ⇒ Generally does not lead to good classifiers.

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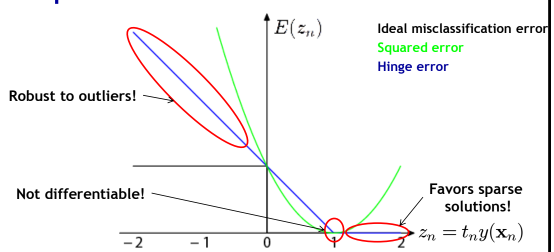
11 Image source: Bishop, 2006

Recap: Error Functions



- "Hinge error" used in SVMs
  - Zero error for points outside the margin ($z_n > 1$) ⇒ sparsity
  - Linear penalty for misclassified points ($z_n < 1$) ⇒ robustness
  - Not differentiable around $z_n = 1$ ⇒ Cannot be optimized directly.

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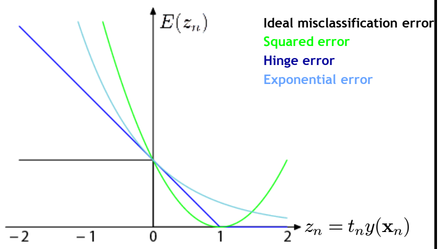
B. Leibe 12 Image source: Bishop, 2006

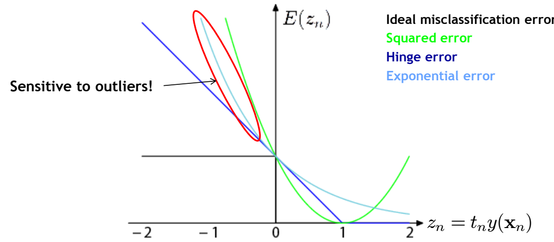
Discussion: AdaBoost Error Function



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

Image source: Bishop, 2006

Discussion: AdaBoost Error Function

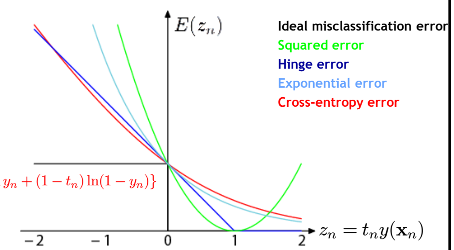


- Exponential error used in AdaBoost
  - No penalty for too correct data points, fast convergence.
  - Disadvantage: exponential penalty for large negative values!

  ⇒ Less robust to outliers or misclassified data points!

Image source: Bishop, 2006

Discussion: Other Possible Error Functions



$E = -\sum \{t_n \ln y_n + (1-t_n)\ln(1-y_n)\}$

- "Cross-entropy error" used in Logistic Regression
  - Similar to exponential error for $z>0$.
  - Only grows linearly with large negative values of z.

  ⇒ Make AdaBoost more robust by switching to this error function.

  ⇒ "GentleBoost"

Image source: Bishop, 2006

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

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Example Application: Face Detection

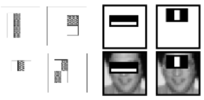
- Frontal faces are a good example of a class where global appearance models + a sliding window detection approach fit well:
  - Regular 2D structure
  - Center of face almost shaped like a "patch"/window

- Now we'll take AdaBoost and see how the Viola-Jones face detector works

Slide credit: Kristen Grauman

Feature extraction

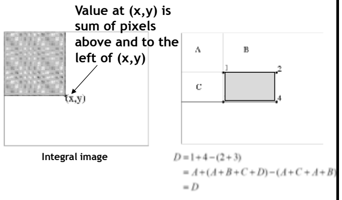
"Rectangular" filters



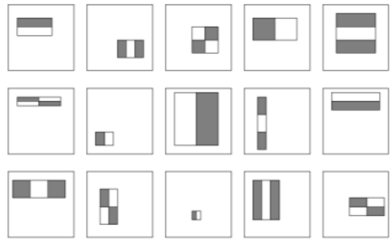
Feature output is difference between adjacent regions

Efficiently computable with integral image: any sum can be computed in constant time

Avoid scaling images → scale features directly for same cost



Large Library of Filters



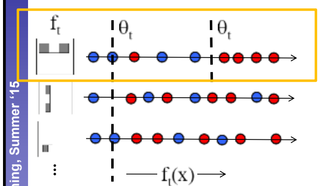
Considering all possible filter parameters: position, scale, and type:

180,000+ possible features associated with each 24 x 24 window

Use AdaBoost both to select the informative features and to form the classifier

AdaBoost for Feature+Classifier Selection

- Want to select the single rectangle feature and threshold that best separates positive (faces) and negative (non-faces) training examples, in terms of *weighted* error.



Outputs of a possible rectangle feature on faces and non-faces.

Resulting weak classifier:

$$h_t(x) = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } f_t(x) > \theta_t \\ -1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

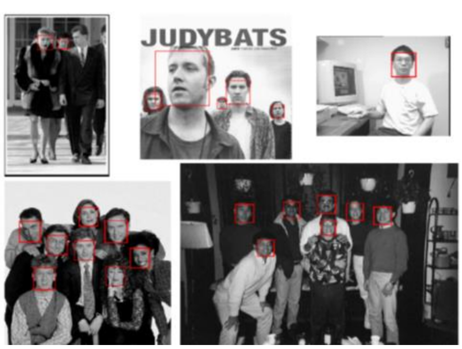
For next round, reweight the examples according to errors, choose another filter/threshold combo.

AdaBoost for Efficient Feature Selection

- Image features = weak classifiers
- For each round of boosting:
  - Evaluate each rectangle filter on each example
  - Sort examples by filter values
  - Select best threshold for each filter (min error)
    - Sorted list can be quickly scanned for the optimal threshold
  - Select best filter/threshold combination
  - Weight on this features is a simple function of error rate
  - Reweight examples

P. Viola, M. Jones, Robust Real-Time Face Detection, IJCV, Vol. 57(2), 2004. (first version appeared at CVPR 2001)

Viola-Jones Face Detector: Results



Viola-Jones Face Detector: Results

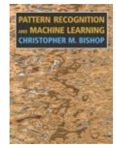
Viola-Jones Face Detector: Results

Slide credit: Kristen Grauman

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, Additive Logistic Regression: a Statistical View of Boosting, *The Annals of Statistics*, Vol. 38(2), pages 337-374, 2000.

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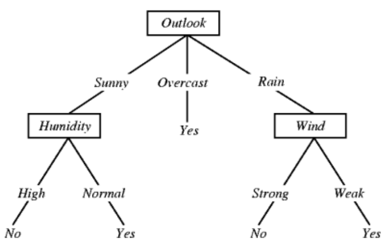
Decision Trees

- Very old technique
  - Origin in the 60s, might seem outdated.
- But…
  - Can be used for problems with nominal data
    - E.g. attributes color ∈ {red, green, blue} or weather ∈ {sunny, rainy}.
    - Discrete values, no notion of similarity or even ordering.
  - Interpretable results
    - Learned trees can be written as sets of if-then rules.
  - Methods developed for handling missing feature values.
  - Successfully applied to broad range of tasks
    - E.g. Medical diagnosis
    - E.g. Credit risk assessment of loan applicants
  - Some interesting novel developments building on top of them…

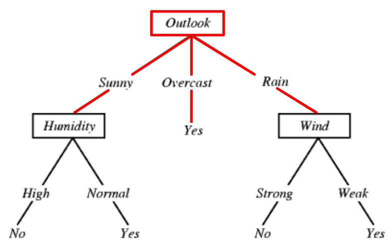
Decision Trees



- Example:
  - "Classify Saturday mornings according to whether they're suitable for playing tennis."

Image source: T. Mitchell, 1997

Decision Trees

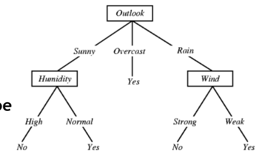


- Elements
  - Each node specifies a test for some attribute.
  - Each branch corresponds to a possible value of the attribute.

Image source: T. Mitchell, 1997

Decision Trees

- Assumption
  - Links must be mutually distinct and exhaustive
  - I.e. one and only one link will be followed at each step.



- Interpretability
  - Information in a tree can then be rendered as logical expressions.
  - In our example:

$$(Outlook = Sunny \wedge Humidity = Normal)$$
$$\vee\ (Outlook = Overcast)$$
$$\vee\ (Outlook = Rain \wedge Wind = Weak)$$

Training Decision Trees

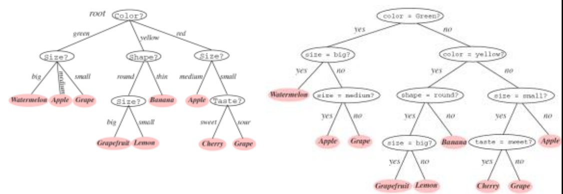
- Finding the optimal decision tree is NP-hard…
- Common procedure: Greedy top-down growing
  - Start at the root node.
  - Progressively split the training data into smaller and smaller subsets.
  - In each step, pick the ***best attribute*** to split the data.
  - If the resulting subsets are pure (only one label) or if no further attribute can be found that splits them, terminate the tree.
  - Else, recursively apply the procedure to the subsets.
- CART framework
  - Classification And Regression Trees (Breiman et al. 1993)
  - Formalization of the different design choices.

CART Framework

- Six general questions
  1. Binary or multi-valued problem?
     - I.e. how many splits should there be at each node?
  2. Which property should be tested at a node?
     - I.e. how to select the query attribute?
  3. When should a node be declared a leaf?
     - I.e. how to stop growing the tree?
  4. How can a grown tree be simplified or pruned?
     - Goal: reduce overfitting.
  5. How to deal with impure nodes?
     - I.e. when the data itself is ambiguous.
  6. How should missing attributes be handled?

CART - 1. Number of Splits

- Each multi-valued tree can be converted into an equivalent binary tree:



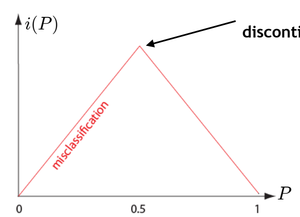
$\Rightarrow$ Only consider binary trees here…

CART - 2. Picking a Good Splitting Feature

- Goal
  - Want a tree that is as simple/small as possible (Occam's razor).
  - But: Finding a minimal tree is an NP-hard optimization problem.
- Greedy top-down search
  - Efficient, but not guaranteed to find the smallest tree.
  - Seek a property T at each node N that makes the data in the child nodes as *pure* as possible.
  - For formal reasons more convenient to define *impurity* $i(N)$.
  - Several possible definitions explored.

CART - Impurity Measures

Problem: discontinuous derivative!

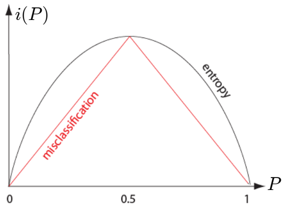


- Misclassification impurity

$$i(N) = 1 - \max_j \boxed{p(\mathcal{C}_j|N)}$$

"Fraction of the training patterns in category $\mathcal{C}_j$ that end up in node N."

CART - Impurity Measures

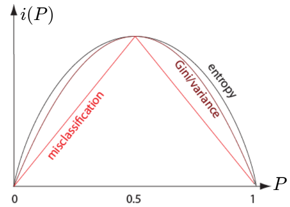


- **Entropy impurity**

$$i(N) = -\sum_j p(\mathcal{C}_j|N) \log_2 p(\mathcal{C}_j|N)$$

"Reduction in entropy = gain in information."

CART - Impurity Measures



- **Gini impurity (variance impurity)**

$$\begin{aligned} i(N) &= \sum_{i \neq j} p(\mathcal{C}_i|N) p(\mathcal{C}_j|N) \\ &= \frac{1}{2}[1 - \sum_j p^2(\mathcal{C}_j|N)] \end{aligned}$$

"Expected error rate at node N if the category label is selected randomly."

CART - Impurity Measures

- Which impurity measure should we choose?
  - Some problems with misclassification impurity.
    - Discontinuous derivative.
    - ⇒ Problems when searching over continuous parameter space.
    - Sometimes misclassification impurity does not decrease when Gini impurity would.
  - Both entropy impurity and Gini impurity perform well.
    - No big difference in terms of classifier performance.
    - In practice, stopping criterion and pruning method are often more important.

CART - 2. Picking a Good Splitting Feature

- Application
  - Select the query that decreases impurity the most

$$\triangle i(N) = i(N) - P_L i(N_L) - (1 - P_L) i(N_R)$$

- Multiway generalization (gain ratio impurity):
  - Maximize

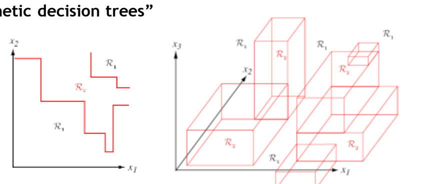
$$\triangle i(s) = \frac{1}{Z}\left(i(N) - \sum_{k=1}^{K} P_k i(N_k) \right)$$

  - where the normalization factor ensures that large K are not inherently favored:

$$Z = -\sum_{k=1}^{K} P_k \log_2 P_k$$

CART - Picking a Good Splitting Feature

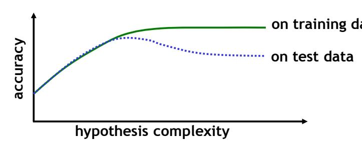
- For efficiency, splits are often based on a single feature
  - "Monothetic decision trees"



- Evaluating candidate splits
  - Nominal attributes: exhaustive search over all possibilities.
  - Real-valued attributes: only need to consider changes in label.
    - Order all data points based on attribute x_i.
    - Only need to test candidate splits where $label(x_i) \neq label(x_{i+1})$.

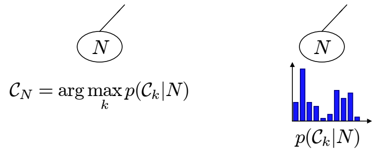
CART - 3. When to Stop Splitting

- Problem: Overfitting
  - Learning a tree that classifies the training data perfectly may not lead to the tree with the best generalization to unseen data.
  - Reasons
    - Noise or errors in the training data.
    - Poor decisions towards the leaves of the tree that are based on very little data.
- Typical behavior



CART - Overfitting Prevention (Pruning)

- Two basic approaches for decision trees
  - Prepruning: Stop growing tree as some point during top-down construction when there is no longer sufficient data to make reliable decisions.
  - Postpruning: Grow the full tree, then remove subtrees that do not have sufficient evidence.
- Label leaf resulting from pruning with the majority class of the remaining data, or a class probability distribution.

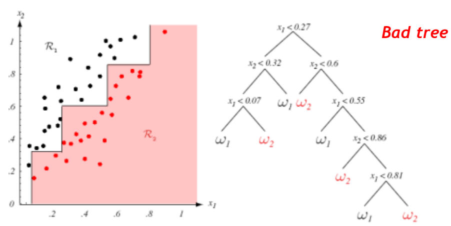


Slide adapted from Raymond Mooney

Decision Trees - Handling Missing Attributes

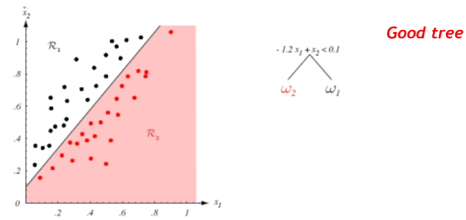
- During training
  - Calculate impurities at a node using only the attribute information present.
  - E.g. 3-dimensional data, one point is missing attribute x_3.
    - Compute possible splits on x_1 using all N points.
    - Compute possible splits on x_2 using all N points.
    - Compute possible splits on x_3 using N-1 non-deficient points.
    - ⇒ Choose split which gives greatest reduction in impurity.
- During test
  - Cannot handle test patterns that are lacking the decision attribute!
  - ⇒ In addition to primary split, store an ordered set of surrogate splits that try to approximate the desired outcome based on different attributes.

Decision Trees - Feature Choice



- Best results if proper features are used

Decision Trees - Feature Choice



- Best results if proper features are used
  - Preprocessing to find important axes often pays off.

Decision Trees - Non-Uniform Cost

- Incorporating category priors
  - Often desired to incorporate different priors for the categories.
  - Solution: weight samples to correct for the prior frequencies.
- Incorporating non-uniform loss
  - Create loss matrix λ_{ij}
  - Loss can easily be incorporated into Gini impurity

$$i(N) = \sum_{ij} \lambda_{ij} p(\mathcal{C}_i) p(\mathcal{C}_j)$$

Historical Development

- ID3 (Quinlan 1986)
  - One of the first widely used decision tree algorithms.
  - Intended to be used with nominal (unordered) variables
    - Real variables are first binned into discrete intervals.
  - General branching factor
    - Use gain ratio impurity based on entropy (information gain) criterion.
- Algorithm
  - Select attribute a that best classifies examples, assign it to root.
  - For each possible value v_i of a,
    - Add new tree branch corresponding to test $a = v_i$.
    - If example_list(v_i) is empty, add leaf node with most common label in example_list(a).
    - Else, recursively call ID3 for the subtree with attributes $A \setminus a$.

Historical Development

- C4.5 (Quinlan 1993)
  - Improved version with extended capabilities.
  - Ability to deal with real-valued variables.
  - Multiway splits are used with nominal data
    - Using gain ratio impurity based on entropy (information gain) criterion.
  - Heuristics for pruning based on statistical significance of splits.
  - Rule post-pruning
- Main difference to CART
  - Strategy for handling missing attributes.
  - When missing feature is queried, C4.5 follows all B possible answers.
  - Decision is made based on all B possible outcomes, weighted by decision probabilities at node N.

Decision Trees - Computational Complexity

- Given
  - Data points $\{\mathbf{x}_1,\ldots,\mathbf{x}_N\}$
  - Dimensionality D
- Complexity
  - Storage: $O(N)$
  - Test runtime: $O(\log N)$
  - Training runtime: $O(DN^2 \log N)$
    - Most expensive part.
    - Critical step: selecting the optimal splitting point.
    - Need to check D dimensions, for each need to sort N data points.

$$O(DN \log N)$$

Summary: Decision Trees

- Properties
  - Simple learning procedure, fast evaluation.
  - Can be applied to metric, nominal, or mixed data.
  - Often yield interpretable results.

Summary: Decision Trees

- Limitations
  - Often produce noisy (bushy) or weak (stunted) classifiers.
  - Do not generalize too well.
  - Training data fragmentation:
    - As tree progresses, splits are selected based on less and less data.
  - Overtraining and undertraining:
    - Deep trees: fit the training data well, will not generalize well to new test data.
    - Shallow trees: not sufficiently refined.
  - Stability
    - Trees can be very sensitive to details of the training points.
    - If a single data point is only slightly shifted, a radically different tree may come out!

    $\Rightarrow$ Result of discrete and greedy learning procedure.
  - Expensive learning step
    - Mostly due to costly selection of optimal split.

References and Further Reading

- More information on Decision Trees can be found in Chapters 8.2-8.4 of Duda & Hart.

R.O. Duda, P.E. Hart, D.G. Stork
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2nd Ed., Wiley-Interscience, 2000