

"...many problems are naturally classification problems"---Prof. Forsyth

Credit: wikipedia

Last time

- ** Demo of Principal Component Analysis
- ****** Introduction to classification

Classifiers

- * Why do we need classifiers?
- * What do we use to quantify the performance of a classifier?
- ** What is the baseline accuracy of a 5-class classifier using 0-1 loss function? $+ = 2\sqrt{3}$
- * What's validation and cross-validation in classification?

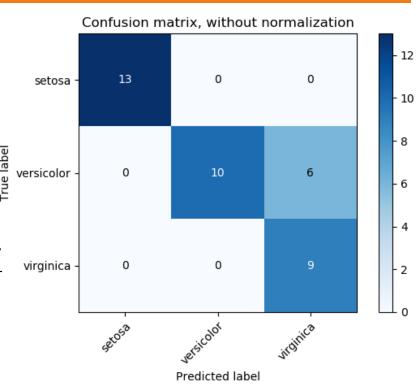


Performance of a multiclass classifier

- * Assuming there are **c** classes:
- * The class confusion matrix is c × c
- st Under the 0-1 loss function accuracy= $\dfrac{sum\ of\ diagonal\ terms}{sum\ of\ all\ terms}$

ie. in the right example, accuracy = 32/38=84%





Source: scikit-learn

Cross-validation

- If we don't want to "waste" labeled data on validation, we can use cross-validation to see if our training method is sound.
- Split the labeled data into training and validation sets in multiple ways
- # For each split (called a fold)
 - * Train a classifier on the training set
 - Evaluate its accuracy on the validation set
- Average the accuracy to evaluate the training methodology

Q1. Cross-validation

Cross-validation is a method used to prevent overfitting in classification.



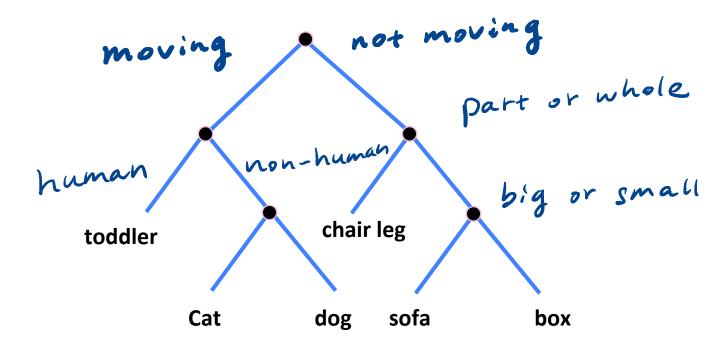
B. FALSE

Objectives

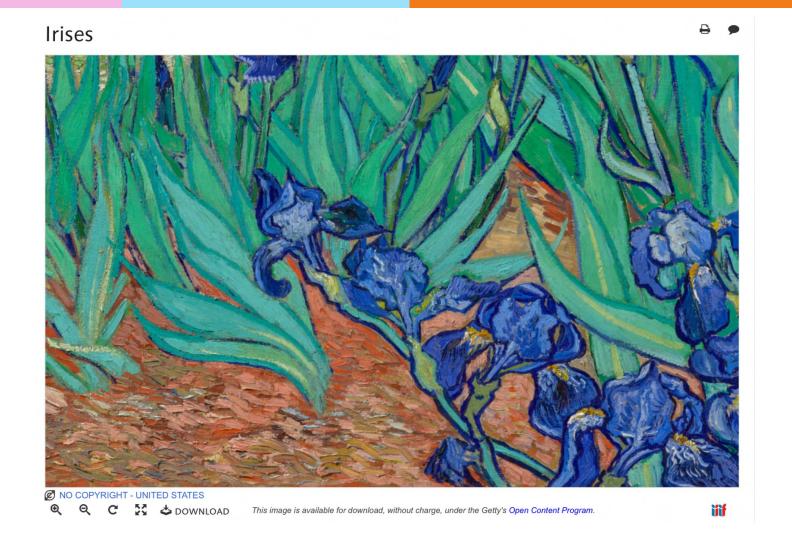
- # Decision tree (II)
- ****** Random forest
- **** Support Vector Machine (I)**

Decision tree: object classification

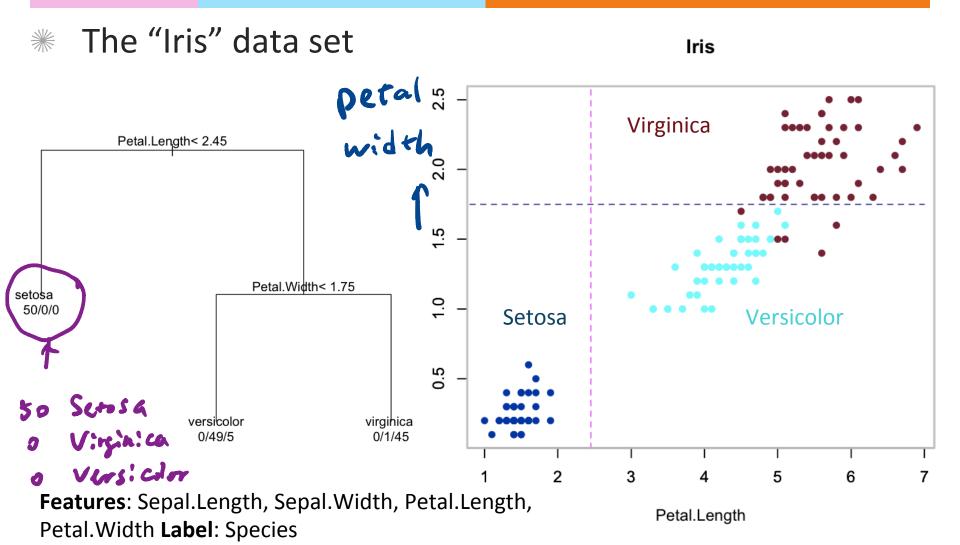
The object classification decision tree can classify objects into multiple classes using sequence of simple tests. It will naturally grow into a tree.



Iris example : which type is this?



Training a decision tree: example



Training a decision tree

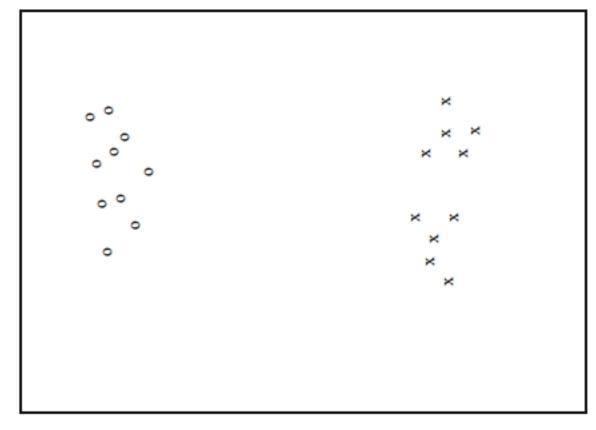
- * Choose a dimension/feature and a split
- Split the training Data into left- and rightchild subsets D_I and D_r
- Repeat the two steps above recursively on each child
- * Stop the recursion based on some conditions
- * Label the leaves with class labels

Classifying with a decision tree: example

The "Iris" data set Iris Virginica Petal.Length< 2.45 5. Petal.Width< 1.75 setosa 50/0/0 Setosa Versicolor 0.5 virgihica versicolor 0/49/5 0/1/45 3 2 5 6 Petal.Length

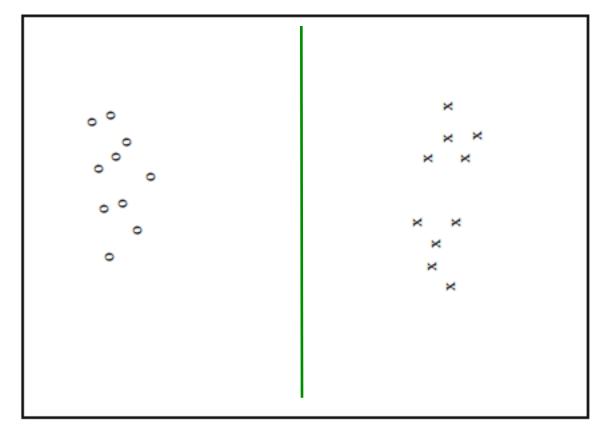
Choosing a split

An informative split makes the subsets more concentrated and reduces uncertainty about class labels



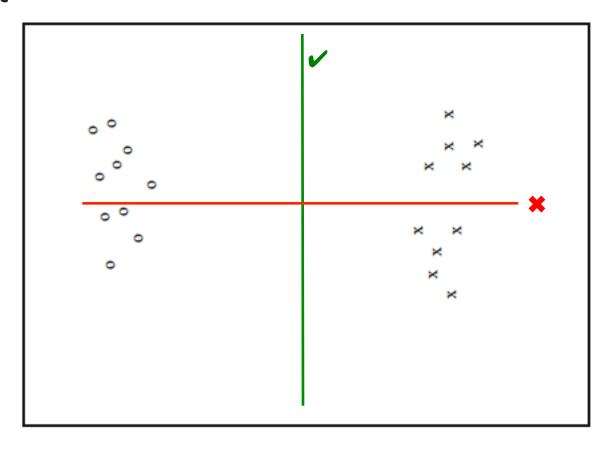
Choosing a split

An informative split makes the subsets more concentrated and reduces uncertainty about class labels

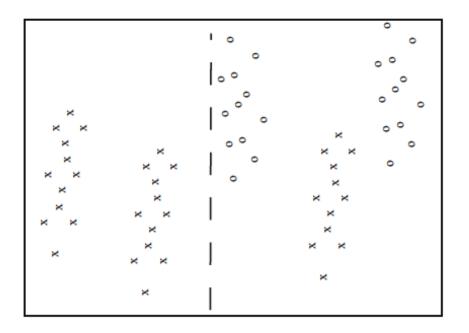


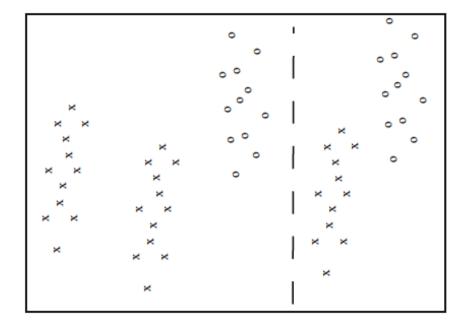
Choosing a split

* An informative split makes the subsets more concentrated and reduces uncertainty about class labels



Which is more informative?

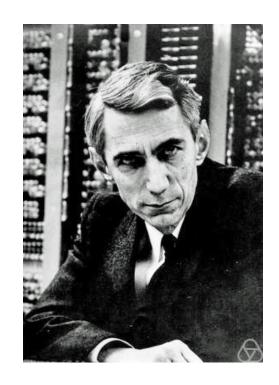




Quantifying uncertainty using entropy

- We can measure uncertainty as the number of bits of information needed to distinguish between classes in a dataset (first introduced by Claude Shannon)
 - ** We need Log₂ 2 = 1 bit to distinguish 2 equal classes
 - ** We need Log₂ 4 = 2 bit to distinguish 4 equal classes



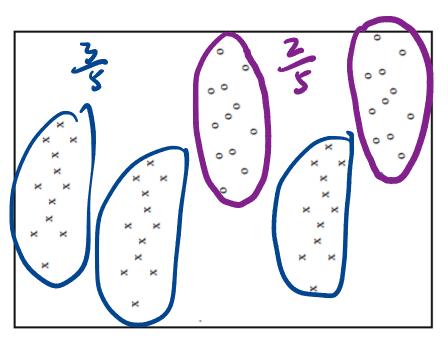


Quantifying uncertainty using entropy

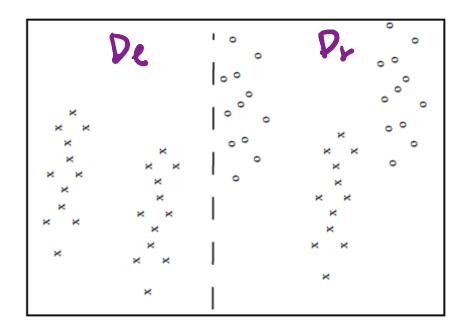
- Entropy (Shannon entropy) is the measure of uncertainty for a general distribution
 - ** If class \emph{i} contains a fraction $\emph{P}(\emph{i})$ of the data, we need log_2 $\frac{1}{P(\emph{i})}$ bits for that class
 - * The entropy H(D) of a dataset is defined as the weighted mean of entropy for every class:

$$H(D) = \sum_{i=1}^{c} P(i)log_2 \frac{1}{P(i)}$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{c} -P(i)log_2 P(i)$$

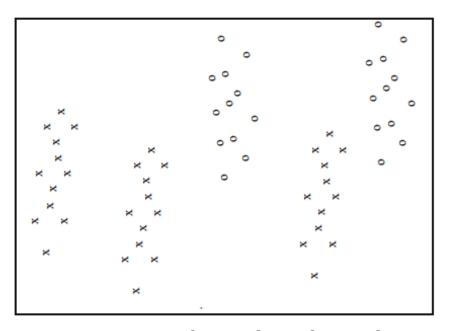
Entropy: before the split



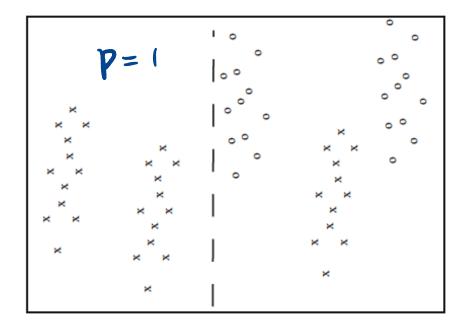
$$H(D) = -\frac{3}{5}log_2\frac{3}{5} - \frac{2}{5}log_2\frac{2}{5}$$
$$= 0.971 \ bits$$



Entropy: examples

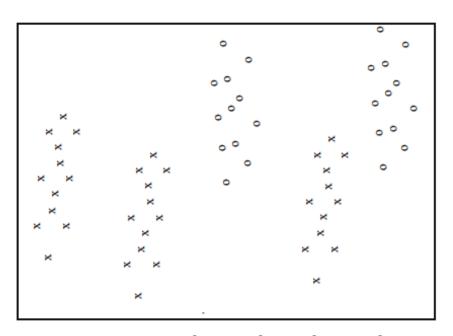


$$H(D) = -\frac{3}{5}log_2\frac{3}{5} - \frac{2}{5}log_2\frac{2}{5}$$
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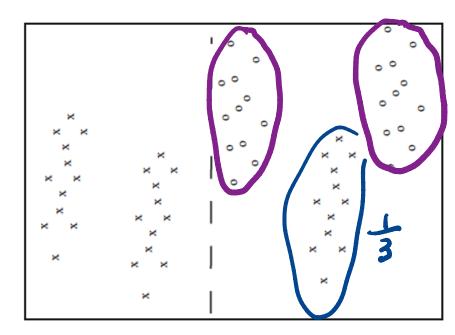


$$H(D_l) = -1 \log_2 1 = 0 \text{ bits}$$
 $H(D_r) = ?$

Entropy: examples



$$H(D) = -\frac{3}{5}log_2\frac{3}{5} - \frac{2}{5}log_2\frac{2}{5}$$
$$= 0.971 \ bits$$



$$H(D_l) = -1 \log_2 1 = 0 \text{ bits}$$

$$H(D_r) = -\frac{1}{3}\log_2 \frac{1}{3} - \frac{2}{3}\log_2 \frac{2}{3}$$

$$= 0.918 \text{ bits}$$

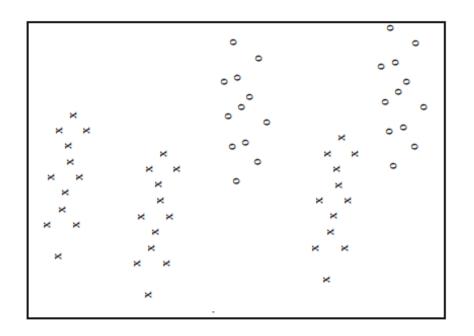
Information gain of a split

The information gain of a split is the amount of entropy that was reduced on average after the split

$$I = H(D) - (\frac{N_{Dl}}{N_D}H(D_l) + \frac{N_{Dr}}{N_D}H(D_r))$$

- * where
 - ** N_D is the number of items in the dataset D
 - ** N_{Dl} is the number of items in the left-child dataset D_l
 - ** N_{Dr} is the number of items in the left-child dataset D_r

Information gain: examples



$$I = H(D) - \left(\frac{N_{Dl}}{N_D}H(D_l) + \frac{N_{Dr}}{N_D}H(D_r)\right)$$

$$= 0.971 - \left(\frac{24}{60} \times 0 + \frac{36}{60} \times 0.918\right)$$

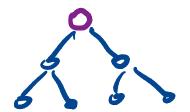
$$= 0.420 \ bits$$

Q. Is the splitting method global optimum?

local optimum

A. Yes

B. No



How to choose a dimension and split

- ** If there are **d** dimensions, choose approximately \sqrt{d} of them as candidates at random
- For each candidate, find the split that maximizes the information gain
- * Choose the best overall dimension and split
- Note that splitting can be generalized to categorical features for which there is no natural ordering of the data

When to stop growing the decision tree?

- Growing the tree too deep can lead to overfitting to the training data
- Stop recursion on a data subset if any of the following occurs:
 - * All items in the data subset are in the same class
 - ** The data subset becomes smaller than a predetermined size
 - * A predetermined maximum tree depth has been reached.

How to label the leaves of a decision tree

- * A leaf will usually have a data subset containing many class labels
- Choose the class that has the most items in the subset
- ** Alternatively, label the leaf with the number it contains in each class for a probabilistic "soft" classification.

Pros and Cons of a decision tree

* Pros: Quick.

Interretable

(lear

Decision boundary is clear

***** Cons:

over fitting.
Accuracy is low

Random Forest – forest of decision trees

- ** Build the random forest by training each decision tree on a random subset with replacement from the training data and subset of features are also randomly selected--- "Bagging"
- Evaluate the random forest by testing on its out-of-bag items
- * Classify by merging the classifications of individual decision trees $d \times N$
 - ** By simple vote
 - Or by adding soft classifications together and then take a vote

An example of bagging

Drawing random samples from our training set with replacement. E.g., if our training set consists of 7 training samples, our bootstrap samples (here: n=7) can look as follows, where C_1 , C_2 , ... C_m shall symbolize the decision tree classifiers.

Sample indices	Bagging Round 1		•••	Bagging Round M
1	2	7		
2	2	3		
3	1	2		
4	3	1		
5	4	1		
6	7	7		
7	2	1		

$$d = 9 \qquad \begin{array}{c} C_1 & \text{ were } \\ C_2 & \text{ } \\ C_3 & \text{ } \end{array}$$

Pros and Cons of Random forest

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** Pros: Less prone to overfitting
better accuracy
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** Cons: longer time; bigger complexity

not intuitive as to

decision boundary

Q2. Do you think random forest will always outperform simple decision tree?

A. Yes B. No

Considerations in choosing a classifier

- ** When solving a classification problem, it is good to try several techniques.
- Criteria to consider in choosing the classifier include
 * Accuracy

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* Speed (testing, and classification)

* flexibility (variety of data, small or big)

* Interretation (decision boundary)

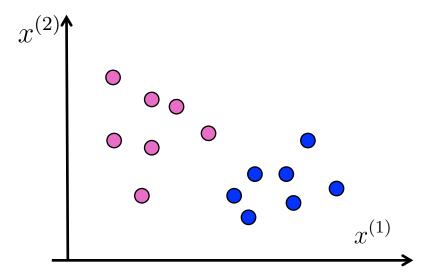
* scaling effect
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Support Vector Machine (SVM) overview

- ** The Decision boundary and function of a Support Vector Machine
- ** Loss function (cost function in the book)
- ***** Training
- ***** Validation
- **Extension to multiclass classification**

SVM problem formulation

- * At first we assume a binary classification problem
- ** The training set consists of N items
 - Feature vectors x_i of dimension d
 - ** Corresponding class labels $y_i \in \{\pm 1\}$
- We can picture the training data as a d-dimensional scatter plot with colored labels



Decision boundary of SVM

- SVM uses a hyperplane as its decision boundary
- * The decision boundary is:

$$a_1 x^{(1)} + a_2 x^{(2)} + \dots + a_d x^{(d)} + b = 0$$

In vector notation, the hyperplane can be written as:

$$\boldsymbol{a}^T \boldsymbol{x} + b = 0$$

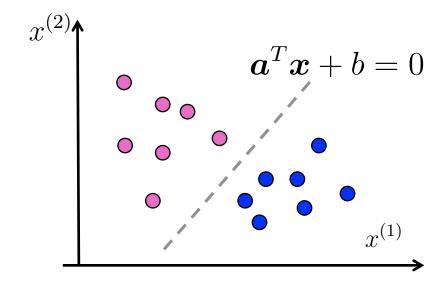
$$\mathbf{a}^{T}\mathbf{x} + b = 0$$

Q3. How many solutions can we have for the decision boundary?

A. One

B. Several

C. Infinite



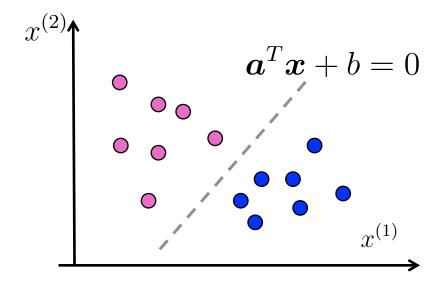
Classification function of SVM

SVM assigns a class label to a feature vector according to the following rule:

+1 if
$$\boldsymbol{a}^T \boldsymbol{x}_i + b \ge 0$$

-1 if $\boldsymbol{a}^T \boldsymbol{x}_i + b < 0$

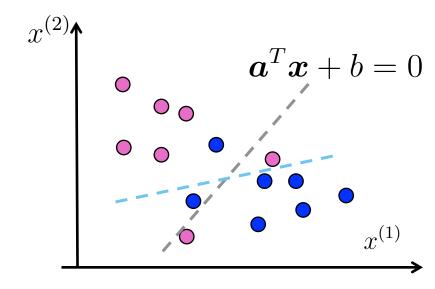
** In other words, the classification function is: $sign(\boldsymbol{a}^T\boldsymbol{x}_i+b)$



- * Note that
 - ** If $|m{a}^Tm{x}_i+b|$ is small, then $m{x}_i$ was close to the decision boundary
 - ** If $|\boldsymbol{a}^T\boldsymbol{x}_i+b|$ is large, then \boldsymbol{x}_i was far from the decision boundary

What if there is no clean cut boundary?

- Some boundaries are better than others for the training data
- Some boundaries are likely more robust for run-time data
- We need to a quantitative measure to decide about the boundary
- The loss function can help decide if one boundary is better than others



Assignments

- ** Read Chapter 11 of the textbook
- ** Next time: SVM-regularization, Stochastic descent

Additional References

- ** Robert V. Hogg, Elliot A. Tanis and Dale L. Zimmerman. "Probability and Statistical Inference"
- ** Morris H. Degroot and Mark J. Schervish "Probability and Statistics"
- ** Kelvin Murphy, "Machine learning, A Probabilistic perspective"

See you next time

See You!

