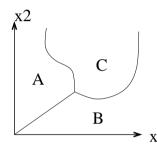
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VORONOI TESSELLATION, DECISION SURFACES

- For continuous inputs, we can view the problem as one of segmenting the input space into regions which belong to a single class, i.e. constant output.
- Such a segmentation is the "Voronoi tessellation" for our classifier.
- The boundaries between regions are the "decision surfaces".
- Training a classifier == defining decision surfaces.

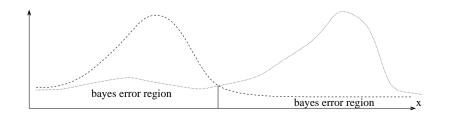


PROBABILISTIC MODEL, BAYES ERROR RATE

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- Model original data as coming from joint pdf $p(\mathbf{x}, y)$. Classification == trying to learn conditional density $p(y|\mathbf{x})$.
- Even if we get the perfect model, our error rate may not be zero. Why? Classes may overlap.
- The best we could ever do if our cost function is number of errors is to guess $y^* = \operatorname{argmax}_y p(y|\mathbf{x})$.

(The error rate of this procedure is known as the "Bayes error".)



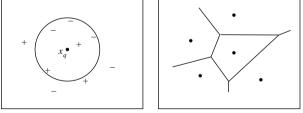
- K-Nearest-Neighbour
- Finally: a real algorithm!
- To classify a test point, chose the most common class amongst its *K* nearest neighbours in the training set.
- Algorithm K-NN

 $c-test \leftarrow KNN(K,x-train,c-train,x-test)$ d(m,n) = distance between x-train(m) and x-test(n) n(n,1) = index of l-th smallest entry of d(:,n) [*] c(n,1) = c-train(n(n,1)) c-test(n) = most common value in c(n.1:K) [**]

- If ties at * when l = K, increase K for that n only.
- If ties at **, decrease K for that n only.
- confidence \approx (#votes for class) / K
- Q: How should we select K? A: Cross-Validation (coming soon).

More on K-NN

- 7
- Typical distance = squared Euclidean $d(m,n) = \sum_d (x_d^m x_d^n)^2$
- If Euclidean distance is used, decision surfaces are piecewise linear.



- Trick: remember the K^{th} smallest distance so far, and break out of the summation over dimensions if you exceed it.
- In low-d with lots of training points you can build "KD trees", "ball trees" or other data structures to speed up the query time.
- In high-d, save time by computing the distance of each training point from the min corner and using the "annulus bound".

8

• Amazing fact: asymptotically, err(1-NN) < 2 err(Bayes):

$$e_B \le e_{1_{NN}} \le 2e_B - \frac{M}{M-1}e_B^2$$

this is a tight upper bound, achieved in the "zero-information" case when the classes have identical densities.

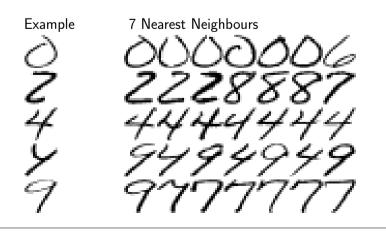
 \bullet For K-NN there are also bounds. e.g. for two classes and odd K:

$$e_B \le e_{K_{NN}} \le \sum_{i=0}^{(K-1)/2} \binom{k}{i} \left[e_B^{i+1} (1-e_B)^{k-i} + e_B^{k-i} (1-e_B)^{i+1} \right]$$

• For more on these bounds, see the book *A Probabilistic Theory of Pattern Recognition*, by L. Devroye, L. Gyorfi & G. Lugosi (1996).

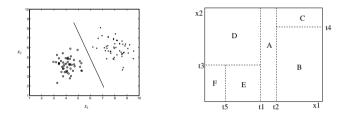


- Take 16x16 grayscale images (8bit) of handwritten digits.
- Use Euclidean distance in raw pixel space (dumb!) and 7-nn.
- Classification error (leave-one-out): 4.85%.



NONPARAMETRIC (INSTANCE-BASED) MODELS 10

- Q: What are the parameters in K-NN? What is the complexity? A: the scalar K *and the entire training set*. Models which need the entire training set at test time but (hopefully) have very few other parameters are known as *nonparametric, instance-based* or *case based*.
- What if we want a classifier that uses only a small number of parameters at test time? (e.g. for speed or memory reasons) Idea 1: single linear boundary, of arbitrary orientation Idea 2: many boundaries, but axis-parallel & tree structured



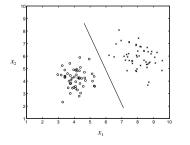
LINEAR CLASSIFICATION FOR BINARY OUTPUT

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• Goal: find the line (or hyperplane) which best separates two classes:

$$c(x) = \operatorname{sign}[\mathbf{x}_{weight}^{\top} \mathbf{w}_{weight} - \underbrace{w_0}_{threshold}]$$

- ${\ensuremath{\, \bullet }} {\ensuremath{\, w}}$ is a vector perpendicular to decision boundary
- This is the opposite of non-parametric: only d+1 parameters!
- Typically we augment \mathbf{x} with a constant term ± 1 ("bias unit") and then absorb w_0 into \mathbf{w} , so we don't have to treat it specially.





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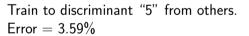
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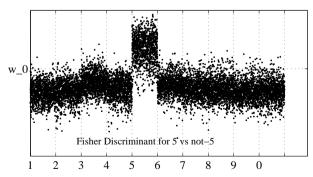
• Observation: If each class has a Gaussian distribution (with same covariances) then the Bayes decision boundary is linear:

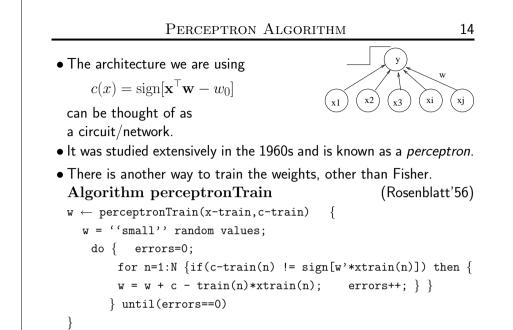
 $\mathbf{w}^* = \Sigma^{-1}(\mu_0 - \mu_1)$ $w_0^* = \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{w}^\top(\mu_0 + \mu_1) - \mathbf{w}^\top(\mu_0 - \mu_1) \left[\frac{\log p_0 - \log p_1}{(\mu_0 - \mu_1)^\top \Sigma^{-1}(\mu_0 - \mu_1)}\right]$

- Idea (Fisher'36): Assume each class is Gaussian even if they aren't! Fit μ_i and Σ as sample mean and sample covariance (shared).
- This also maximizes the ratio of cross-class scatter to within class scatter: $(\bar{z_0} \bar{z_1})^2/(\operatorname{var}(z_0) \operatorname{var}(z_1))$

HANDWRITTEN DIGITS AGAIN







PERCEPTRON LEARNING RULES

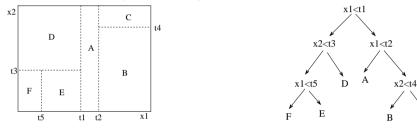
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- Now: cycle through examples, when you make an error, add/subtract the example from the weight vector depending on its true class.
- Amazingly, for separable training sets, this always converges. (We absorb the threshold as a "bias" variable always equal to -1.)
- For non-separable datasets, you need to remember the sets of weights which you have seen so far, and combine them somehow.
- One way: keep the set that survived unchanged for the longest number of (random) pattern presentations. (Gallant's *pocket algorithm*.)
- Better way: Freund & Shapire's *voted perceptron* algorithm. Remember all sets and the length of time they survived.
- Perceptron, voted-perceptron, weighted-majority, kernel perceptron, Winnow, and other algorithms have a frumpy reputation but they are actually extremely powerful and useful, especially using the kernel trick. Try these before more complex classifiers such as SVMs!

DECISION TREES

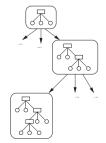
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- What if we want more than two regions?
- We could consider a fixed number of arbitrary linear segments but even cheaper is to use axis-aligned splits (one dimension each).
- If these form a hierarchical partition, then the classifier is called a *decision tree* or (axis-aligned) *classification tree*.
- Each internal node tests one attribute; leaves assign a class.
- Equivalent to a disjunction of conjunctions of constraints on attribute values (if-then rules).



Cost Function for Decision Trees

- Define a measure of "class impurity" in a set of examples. Push each example down the tree, how "pure" are leaves?
- Goal: minimize expected sum of impurity at leaves at test time.
- Two problems:
- 1) We don't know true distribution $p(\mathbf{x}, y)$.
- 2) Search: even if we knew $p(\mathbf{x},y)$ finding optimal tree is NP.
- \bullet So we will take a suboptimal (greedy) approach.



LEARNING (INDUCING) DECISION TREES

- Need to pick the order of split axes and values of split points. Many algorithms: CART, ID3, C4.5, C5.0.
- Almost all have the following structure:
- 1. Put all examples into the root node.
- 2. At each node: search all dimensions, on each one chose split which most reduces impurity; chose the best split.
- 3. Sort the data cases into the daughter nodes based on the split.
- 4. Recurse until a leaf condition:
 - number of examples at node is too small
 - $-\operatorname{all}$ examples at node have same class
 - $-\operatorname{all}$ examples at node have same inputs
- Prune tree down to some maximum number of leaves.
 (Possibly using a different impurity measure than for growing.)

Impurity Measures

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- When considering splitting data D at a node on x_i , we measure:

$$\operatorname{Gain}(D; x_i) = I(D) - \sum_{v \in split(x_i)} \frac{|D_{iv}|}{|D|} I(D_{iv})$$

• Common impurity measures:

Entropy: $I(D) = -\sum_{c} p_{c}(D) \log p_{c}(D)$

Misclass:
$$I(D) = 1 - p_{c^*}$$

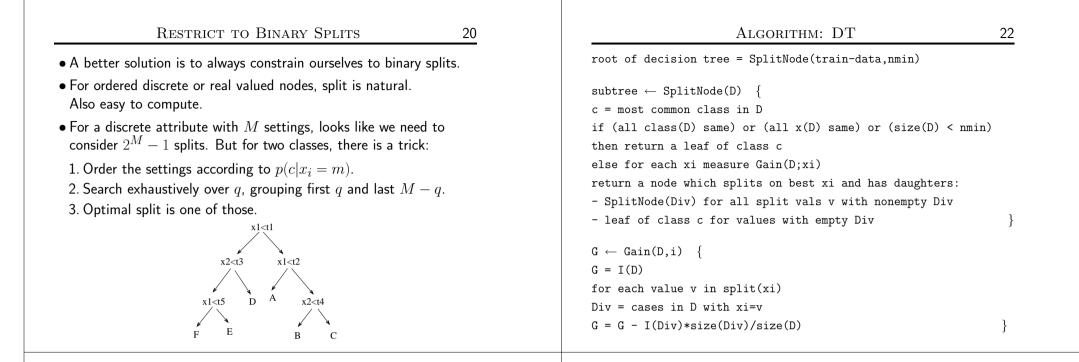
Gini: $I(D) = \sum_c \sum_{c' \neq c} p_c(D) p_{c'}(D)$
 $= \sum_c p_c(D)(1 - p_c(D))$

(Gini is the avgerage error if we stochastically classify with node prior)

(two classes)

- These often favour multi-way splits.
- One solution: normalize by "split information":

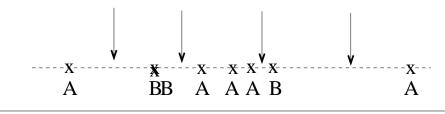
$$S(D) = -\sum_{v} \frac{|D_{iv}|}{|D|} \log \frac{|D_{iv}|}{|D|}$$



Real Valued Attributes

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- For real valued attributes, what splits should we consider?
- \bullet ldea1: discretize the real value into M bins.
- Idea2: Search for a scalar value to split on.
 Sounds hard! Lots of real values. But there is a trick:
 Only need to consider splits at midpoints between observed values.
 In fact, only need to consider splits at midpoints between observed values with different classes.
- Complexity: $N \log N + 2N|C|$



Overfitting in Trees

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- Just as with most other models, decision trees can overfit. In fact they are quite powerful.
- eg: Expressive power of binary trees
- Q: If all input and outputs are binary, what class of Boolean functions can DTs represent?
- A: All Boolean functions.
- Hence we must *regularize* to control capacity.
- Typically we do this by limiting the number of leaf nodes. Formally, we define: $\Phi(T) = \sum_{leaves} I(l) + \alpha |leaves|$.
- Minimizing this for any α is equivalent to finding the tree of a fixed size with smallest impurity. (cf. Lagrange multipliers).
- Practically, we achieve this via pruning. Often we use Gini/Entropy to grow tree and Misclass to prune it.

Pruning	DECISION	Trees
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- How do we chose K in K-NN? (Cross-validation)
- How do we chose T_{max} for decision trees? (Cross-validation)
- Can Fisher's Discriminant overfit? (What do you think?)
- What about nearest-neighbour or tree-based models for regression as well as classification? (Good idea!)

Next class: Logistic regression, Neural Nets for Classification, Class-Conditional Models (Gaussian and Naive Bayes)

- Finding the "optimal" pruned tree.
- It can be shown that if you start with a tree T_0 and insist on using a rooted subtree of it, the following sequence of trees contains the optimum tree for all numbers of leaves:
- 1. Let U(node) = I(node) I(subtree-rooted-at-node)
- Replace the non-leaf node with the smallest value of: U(node)/leaves-below-node with a leaf node having majority class.
- Even after pruning, decision trees still have problems:
- cannot capture additive structure (OR), for this MARS is better
- cannot deal with linear combinations of variables

DT VARIANTS

- ID3 (Quinlan)
- split values are all possible values of \boldsymbol{x}_i
- I(D) is entropy, no pruning
- C4.5, C5.0 (Quinlan)
- binary splits
- I(D) is entropy
- error-pruning
- "rule simplification"
- CART (Breiman et. al)
- binary splits
- I(D) is Gini
- minimum-leaf subtree pruning

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