Multiclass Classification, Structured Prediction, & Decision Trees

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Margin for Multiclass

Binary • Margin for $(x^{(n)}, y^{(n)})$:

$$y^{(n)}w^Tx^{(n)} \tag{1}$$

• Want margin to be large and positive $(w^T x^{(n)})$ has same sign as $y^{(n)}$

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Multiclass

• Class-specific margin for $(x^{(n)}, y^{(n)})$:

$$h(x^{(n)}, y^{(n)}) - h(x^{(n)}, y).$$
 (2)

- Difference between scores of the correct class and each other class
- Want margin to be large and positive for all $y \neq y^{(n)}$.

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Multiclass SVM: separable case

Binary

$$\min_{w} \frac{1}{2} ||w||^{2}
\text{s.t.} \quad \underline{y^{(n)} w^{T} x^{(n)}} \geqslant 1 \quad \forall (x^{(n)}, y^{(n)}) \in \mathcal{D}$$
(3)

i.t.
$$\underbrace{y^{(n)}w^Tx^{(n)}}_{\text{margin}} \geqslant 1 \quad \forall (x^{(n)}, y^{(n)}) \in \mathcal{D}$$
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Multiclass As in the binary case, take 1 as our target margin.

$$m_{n,y}(w) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \underbrace{\left\langle w, \Psi(x^{(n)}, y^{(n)}) \right\rangle}_{\text{score of correct class}} - \underbrace{\left\langle w, \Psi(x^{(n)}, y) \right\rangle}_{\text{score of other class}}$$
(5)

$$\min_{w} \quad \frac{1}{2} \|w\|^2 \tag{6}$$

s.t.
$$m_{n,y}(w) \geqslant 1 \quad \forall (x^{(n)}, y^{(n)}) \in \mathcal{D}, y \neq y^{(n)}$$
 (7)

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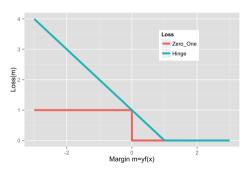
Exercise: write the objective for the non-separable case

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Recap: hingle loss for binary classification

• Hinge loss: a convex upperbound on the 0-1 loss

$$\ell_{\mathsf{hinge}}(y, \hat{y}) = \mathsf{max}(0, 1 - yh(x)) \tag{8}$$



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- Upper bound on $\Delta(y, y')$.

$$\hat{y} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \underset{y' \in \mathcal{Y}}{\operatorname{arg\,max}} \langle w, \Psi(x, y') \rangle \tag{10}$$

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$$\Longrightarrow \langle w, \Psi(x, y) \rangle \leqslant \langle w, \Psi(x, \hat{y}) \rangle \tag{11}$$

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$$\Longrightarrow \Delta(y,\hat{y}) \leqslant \Delta(y,\hat{y}) - \langle w, (\Psi(x,y) - \Psi(x,\hat{y})) \rangle \qquad \text{When are they equal?} \qquad \text{(12)}$$

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$$\implies \langle w, \Psi(x, y) \rangle \leqslant \langle w, \Psi(x, \hat{y}) \rangle \tag{11}$$

$$\Rightarrow \Delta(y,\hat{y}) \leq \Delta(y,\hat{y}) - \langle w, (\Psi(x,y) - \Psi(x,\hat{y})) \rangle$$
 When are they equal? (12)

• Generalized hinge loss:

$$\ell_{\mathsf{hinge}}(y, x, w) \stackrel{\mathsf{def}}{=} \max_{y' \in \mathcal{Y}} \left(\Delta(y, y') - \left\langle w, \left(\Psi(x, y) - \Psi(x, y') \right) \right\rangle \right) \tag{13}$$

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Multiclass SVM with Hinge Loss

• Recall the hinge loss formulation for binary SVM (without the bias term):

$$\min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^d} \frac{1}{2} ||w||^2 + C \sum_{n=1}^N \max \left(0, 1 - \underbrace{y^{(n)} w^T x^{(n)}}_{\text{margin}} \right).$$

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• The multiclass objective:

$$\min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^d} \frac{1}{2} ||w||^2 + C \sum_{n=1}^N \max_{y' \in \mathcal{Y}} \left(\Delta(y, y') - \underbrace{\left\langle w, \left(\Psi(x, y) - \Psi(x, y') \right) \right\rangle}_{\text{margin}} \right)$$

- $\Delta(y, y')$ as target margin for each class.
- If margin $m_{n,y'}(w)$ meets or exceeds its target $\Delta(y^{(n)},y')$ $\forall y \in \mathcal{Y}$, then no loss on example n.

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Recap: What Have We Got?

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- Solution 1: One-vs-All
 - Train k models: $h_1(x), \ldots, h_k(x) : \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$.
 - Predict with $\arg \max_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} h_y(x)$.
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 - Predict with $\arg \max_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} h_y(x)$.
 - Gave simple example where this fails for linear classifiers
- Solution 2: Multiclass loss
 - Train one model: $h(x,y): \mathfrak{X} \times \mathcal{Y} \to \mathsf{R}$.
 - Prediction involves solving $\arg \max_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} h(x, y)$.

Does it work better in practice?

- Paper by Rifkin & Klautau: "In Defense of One-Vs-All Classification" (2004)
 - Extensive experiments, carefully done
 - albeit on relatively small UCI datasets
 - Suggests one-vs-all works just as well in practice
 - (or at least, the advantages claimed by earlier papers for multiclass methods were not compelling)

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 - Suggests one-vs-all works just as well in practice
 - (or at least, the advantages claimed by earlier papers for multiclass methods were not compelling)
- Compared
 - many multiclass frameworks (including the one we discuss)
 - one-vs-all for SVMs with RBF kernel
 - one-vs-all for square loss with RBF kernel (for classification!)
- All performed roughly the same

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Why Are We Bothering with Multiclass?

- The framework we have developed for multiclass
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 - multiclass margin
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- Generalizes to situations where k is very large and one-vs-all is intractable.
- Key idea is that we can generalize across outputs y by using features of y.

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Introduction to Structured Prediction

Example: Part-of-speech (POS) Tagging

• Given a sentence, give a part of speech tag for each word:

X	[START]	He	eats	apples
	×0	x_1	<i>x</i> ₂	<i>x</i> ₃
У	[START]	Pronoun	Verb	Noun
	<i>y</i> ₀	<i>y</i> ₁	<i>y</i> ₂	<i>y</i> 3

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- $V = \{all \text{ English words}\} \cup \{[START], "."\}$
- $X = V^n$, n = 1, 2, 3, ... [Word sequences of any length]

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- $\mathcal{V} = \{\text{all English words}\} \cup \{[\text{START}], "."\}$
- $X = V^n$, n = 1, 2, 3, ... [Word sequences of any length]
- $\mathcal{P} = \{START, Pronoun, Verb, Noun, Adjective\}$
- $y = \mathcal{P}^n$, n = 1, 2, 3, ...[Part of speech sequence of any length]

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Multiclass Hypothesis Space

- Discrete output space: y(x)
 - Very large but has structure, e.g., linear chain (sequence labeling), tree (parsing)
 - Size depends on input x

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- Base Hypothesis Space: $\mathcal{H} = \{h : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y} \to R\}$
 - h(x,y) gives compatibility score between input x and output y

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- Base Hypothesis Space: $\mathcal{H} = \{h : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y} \to \mathsf{R}\}$
 - h(x,y) gives compatibility score between input x and output y
- Multiclass hypothesis space

$$\mathcal{F} = \left\{ x \mapsto \argmax_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} h(x, y) \mid h \in \mathcal{H} \right\}$$

- Final prediction function is an $f \in \mathcal{F}$.
- For each $f \in \mathcal{F}$ there is an underlying compatibility score function $h \in \mathcal{H}$.

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Structured Prediction

Part-of-speech tagging

Multiclass hypothesis space:

$$h(x,y) = w^{T} \Psi(x,y) \tag{14}$$

$$\mathcal{F} = \left\{ x \mapsto \arg\max_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} h(x, y) \mid h \in \mathcal{H} \right\}$$
 (15)

- A special case of multiclass classification
- How to design the feature map Ψ ? What are the considerations?

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Unary features

- A unary feature only depends on
 - the label at a single position, y_i , and x
- Example:

$$\begin{aligned} & \phi_1(x, y_i) &= & \mathbb{1}[x_i = \mathsf{runs}] \mathbb{1}[y_i = \mathsf{Verb}] \\ & \phi_2(x, y_i) &= & \mathbb{1}[x_i = \mathsf{runs}] \mathbb{1}[y_i = \mathsf{Noun}] \\ & \phi_3(x, y_i) &= & \mathbb{1}[x_{i-1} = \mathsf{He}] \mathbb{1}[x_i = \mathsf{runs}] \mathbb{1}[y_i = \mathsf{Verb}] \end{aligned}$$

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- A markov feature only depends on
 - two adjacent labels, y_{i-1} and y_i , and x
- Example:

$$\theta_1(x, y_{i-1}, y_i) = \mathbb{1}[y_{i-1} = \text{Pronoun}] \mathbb{1}[y_i = \text{Verb}]$$

 $\theta_2(x, y_{i-1}, y_i) = \mathbb{1}[y_{i-1} = \text{Pronoun}] \mathbb{1}[y_i = \text{Noun}]$

- Reminiscent of Markov models in the output space
- Possible to have higher-order features

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Local Feature Vector and Compatibility Score

• At each position *i* in sequence, define the **local feature vector** (unary and markov):

$$\Psi_{i}(x, y_{i-1}, y_{i}) = (\phi_{1}(x, y_{i}), \phi_{2}(x, y_{i}), \dots, \\
\theta_{1}(x, y_{i-1}, y_{i}), \theta_{2}(x, y_{i-1}, y_{i}), \dots)$$

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• And local compatibility score at position $i: \langle w, \Psi_i(x, y_{i-1}, y_i) \rangle$.

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- And local compatibility score at position $i: \langle w, \Psi_i(x, y_{i-1}, y_i) \rangle$.
- The compatibility score for (x, y) is the sum of local compatibility scores:

$$\sum_{i} \langle w, \Psi_{i}(x, y_{i-1}, y_{i}) \rangle = \left\langle w, \sum_{i} \Psi_{i}(x, y_{i-1}, y_{i}) \right\rangle = \left\langle w, \Psi(x, y) \right\rangle, \tag{16}$$

where we define the sequence feature vector by

$$\Psi(x,y) = \sum_{i} \Psi_{i}(x,y_{i-1},y_{i}).$$
 decomposable

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```
Given a dataset \mathcal{D} = \{(x, y)\};
Initialize w \leftarrow 0:
for iter = 1, 2, \dots, T do
      for (x, y) \in \mathcal{D} do
           \hat{y} = \operatorname{arg\,max}_{y' \in \mathcal{Y}(x)} w^T \psi(x, y');
           if \hat{y} \neq y then // We've made a mistake
            w \leftarrow w + \Psi(x,y); // Move the scorer towards \psi(x,y)
w \leftarrow w - \Psi(x,\hat{y}); // Move the scorer away from \psi(x,\hat{y})
            end
      end
end
```

```
Given a dataset \mathcal{D} = \{(x, v)\}:
Initialize w \leftarrow 0:
for iter = 1, 2, ..., T do
      for (x, y) \in \mathcal{D} do
            \hat{y} = \operatorname{arg\,max}_{\mathbf{v}' \in \mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x})} \mathbf{w}^T \psi(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}');
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w \leftarrow w - \Psi(x,\hat{y}); // Move the scorer away from \psi(x,\hat{y})
             end
      end
end
```

Identical to the multiclass perceptron algorithm except the arg max is now over the structured output space y(x).

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Structured hinge loss

• Recall the generalized hinge loss

$$\ell_{\mathsf{hinge}}(y, \hat{y}) \stackrel{\mathsf{def}}{=} \max_{y' \in \mathcal{Y}(x)} \left(\Delta(y, y') + \left\langle w, \left(\Psi(x, y') - \Psi(x, y) \right) \right\rangle \right) \tag{17}$$

• What is $\Delta(y, y')$ for two sequences?

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- What is $\Delta(y, y')$ for two sequences?
- Hamming loss is common:

$$\Delta(y, y') = \frac{1}{L} \sum_{i=1}^{L} \mathbb{1}[y_i \neq y_i']$$

where L is the sequence length.

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Structured SVM

Exercise:

- Write down the objective of structured SVM using the structured hinge loss.
- Stochastic sub-gradient descent for structured SVM (similar to HW3 P3)
- Compare with the structured perceptron algorithm

The argmax problem for sequences

Problem To compute predictions, we need to find $\arg\max_{y\in\mathcal{Y}(x)}\langle w,\Psi(x,y)\rangle$, and $|\mathcal{Y}(x)|$ is exponentially large.

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The argmax problem for sequences

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Observation $\Psi(x,y)$ decomposes to $\sum_i \Psi_i(x,y)$.

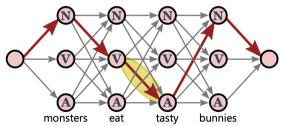
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Solution Dynamic programming (similar to the Viterbi algorithm)



What's the running time?

Figure by Daumé III. A course in machine learning. Figure 17.1.

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• Recall that we can write logistic regression in a general form:

$$p(y|x) = \frac{1}{Z(x)} \exp(w^{\top} \psi(x, y)).$$

• Z is normalization constant: $Z(x) = \sum_{y \in Y} \exp(w^{\top} \psi(x, y))$.

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- Z is normalization constant: $Z(x) = \sum_{y \in Y} \exp(w^{\top} \psi(x, y))$.
- Example: linear chain $\{y_t\}$
- We can incorporate unary and Markov features: $p(y|x) = \frac{1}{Z(x)} \exp(\sum_t w^\top \psi(x, y_t, y_{t-1}))$









Linear-chain CRFs

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- Compared to Structured SVM, CRF has a probabilistic interpretation.
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- Compared to Structured SVM, CRF has a probabilistic interpretation.
- We can draw samples in the output space.
- How do we learn w? Maximum log likelihood, and regularization term: $\lambda ||w||^2$
- Loss function:

$$I(w) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \log p(y^{(i)}|x^{(i)}) + \frac{1}{2}\lambda ||w||^{2}$$

$$= -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} \sum_{t} \sum_{k} w_{k} \psi_{k}(y_{t}^{(i)}, y_{t-1}^{(i)}) + \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} \log Z(x^{(i)}) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k} \lambda w_{k}^{2}$$

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Loss function:

$$I(w) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} \sum_{t} \sum_{k} w_{k} \psi_{k}(x^{(i)}, y_{t}^{(i)}, y_{t-1}^{(i)}) + \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} \log Z(x^{(i)}) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k} \lambda w_{k}^{2}$$

• Gradient:

$$\frac{\partial I(w)}{\partial w_k} = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} \sum_{t} \sum_{k} \psi_k(x^{(i)}, y_t^{(i)}, y_{t-1}^{(i)}) + \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial w_k} \log \sum_{y' \in Y} \exp(\sum_{t} \sum_{k'} w_{k'} \psi_{k'}(x^{(i)}, y_t', y_{t-1}')) + \sum_{k} \lambda w_k \qquad (19)$$

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• What is $\frac{1}{N} \sum_i \sum_t \sum_k \psi_k(x^{(i)}, y_t^{(i)}, y_{t-1}^{(i)})$?

- What is $\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} \sum_{t} \sum_{k} \psi_{k}(x^{(i)}, y_{t}^{(i)}, y_{t-1}^{(i)})$?
- It is the expectation $\psi_k(x^{(i)}, y_t, y_{t-1})$ under the empirical distribution $\tilde{p}(x,y) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} \mathbb{1}[x = x^{(i)}] \mathbb{1}[y = y^{(i)}].$

CSCI-GA 2565 Nov 7, 2023 24 / 66

• What is $\frac{1}{N}\sum_i \frac{\partial}{\partial w_k} \log \sum_{y' \in Y} \exp(\sum_t \sum_{k'} w_{k'} \psi_{k'}(x^{(i)}, y'_t, y'_{t-1}))$?

• What is $\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial w_{k}} \log \sum_{v' \in Y} \exp(\sum_{t} \sum_{k'} w_{k'} \psi_{k'}(x^{(i)}, y'_{t}, y'_{t-1}))$?

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial w_{k}} \log \sum_{v' \in Y} \exp(\sum_{t} \sum_{k'} w_{k'} \psi_{k'}(x^{(i)}, y'_{t}, y'_{t-1}))$$
(20)

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(22)

$$= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} \sum_{t} \sum_{y' \in Y} p(y'_{t}, y'_{t-1} | x) \psi_{k}(x^{(i)}, y'_{t}, y'_{t-1})$$
(23)

Mengye Ren (NYU) CSCI-GA 2565 Nov 7, 2023 25 / 66

• What is $\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial w_{i}} \log \sum_{v' \in Y} \exp(\sum_{t} \sum_{k'} w_{k'} \psi_{k'}(x^{(i)}, y'_{t}, y'_{t-1}))$?

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$$= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} \sum_{t} \sum_{y' \in X} \rho(y'_t, y'_{t-1} | x) \psi_k(x^{(i)}, y'_t, y'_{t-1})$$
(23)

• It is the expectation of $\psi_k(x^{(i)}, y'_t, y'_{t-1})$ under the model distribution $p(y'_t, y'_{t-1}|x)$.

Mengye Ren (NYU) CSCI-GA 2565 Nov 7, 2023 25 / 66

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Mengye Ren (NYU) CSCI-GA 2565 Nov 7, 2023 27 / 66

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27 / 66 Mengve Ren (NYU) CSCI-GA 2565 Nov 7, 2023

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27 / 66 Mengve Ren (NYU) CSCI-GA 2565 Nov 7, 2023

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- In general graphs, we rely on approximate inference (e.g. loopy belief propagation).

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Examples

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Mengye Ren (NYU) CSCI-GA 2565 Nov 7, 2023 28 / 66

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- Multi-label learning
 An image may contain multiple class labels, e.g. a bus is likely to co-occur with a car.

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Conclusion

Multiclass algorithms

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CSCI-GA 2565 Nov 7, 2023 29 / 66

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 - Multi-class perceptron, multi-class logistics regression, multi-class SVM
- Structured prediction: Structured SVM, CRF. Data containing structure. Extremely large output space. Text and image applications.

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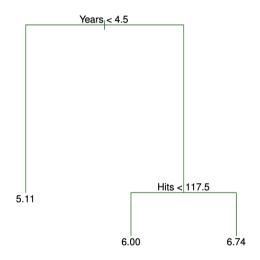
Decision Trees

Overview: Decision Trees

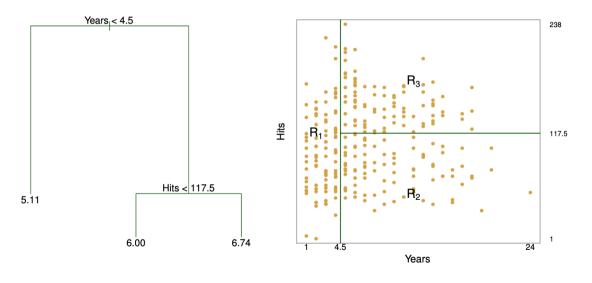
- Our first inherently non-linear classifier: decision trees.
- Ensemble methods: bagging and boosting.

Decision Trees

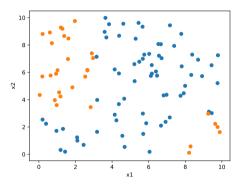
Regression trees: Predicting basketball players' salaries



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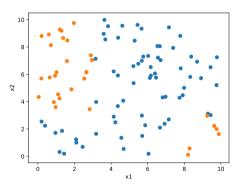


Classification trees

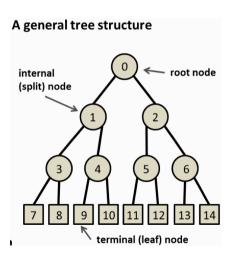


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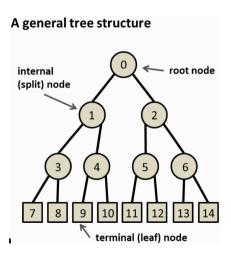


- Can we classify these points using a linear classifier?
- Partition the data into axis-aligned regions recursively (on the board)

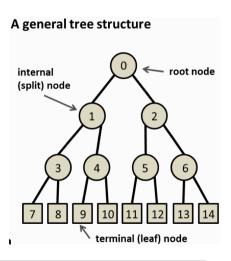


 We focus on binary trees (as opposed to multiway trees where nodes can have more than two children)

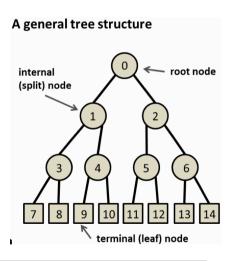
From Criminisi et al. MSR-TR-2011-114, 28 October 2011.



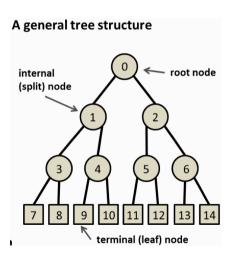
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A general tree structure root node internal (split) node terminal (leaf) node

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From Criminisi et al. MSR-TR-2011-114, 28 October 2011.

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CSCI-GA 2565 Nov 7, 2023 35 / 66

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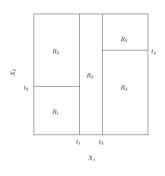
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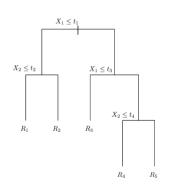
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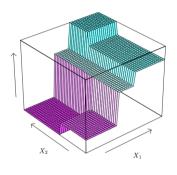
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Prediction in a Regression Tree







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- It is common to split half way between two adjacent values:

$$s_j \in \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \left(x_{j(r)} + x_{j(r+1)} \right) \mid r = 1, \dots, n-1 \right\}.$$
 $n-1 \text{ splits}$ (24)

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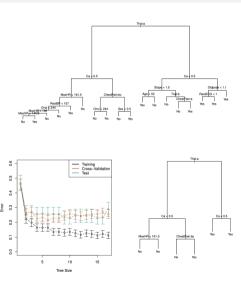
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 - Prune the tree back greedily, potentially all the way to the root, until validation performance starts decreasing.

Pruning: Example



What Makes a Good Split for Classification?

Our plan is to predict the majority label in each region.

Which of the following splits is better?

Split 1
$$R_1:8+/2 R_2:2+/8-$$

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Intuition: we want to produce pure nodes, i.e. nodes where most instances have the same class.

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$$k(m) = \arg\max_{k} \hat{p}_{mk}$$

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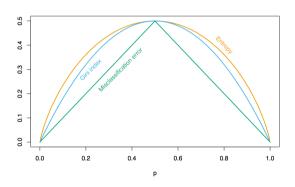
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• The Gini index and entropy are numerically similar to each other, and both work better in practice than the misclassification error.

Impurity Measures for Binary Classification

(p is the relative frequency of class 1)



44 / 66

Quantifying the Impurity of a Split

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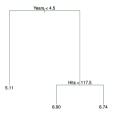
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- We aim to find a split that minimizes the weighted average of node impurities:

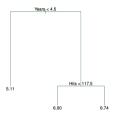
$$\frac{N_L Q(R_L) + N_R Q(R_R)}{N_L + N_R}$$

Discussion: Interpretability of Decision Trees



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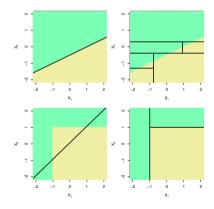
Discussion: Interpretability of Decision Trees



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- Small trees are interpretable large trees, maybe not so much

Discussion: Trees vs. Linear Models

Trees may have to work hard to capture linear decision boundaries, but can easily capture certain nonlinear ones:



Discussion: Review

Decision trees are:

- Non-linear: the decision boundary that results from splitting may end up being quite complicated
- Non-metric: they do not rely on the geometry of the space (inner products or distances)
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Additional pros:

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Cons:

- Struggle to capture linear decision boundaries
- They have high variance and tend to overfit: they are sensitive to small changes in the training data (The ensemble techniques we discuss next can mitigate these issues)

Bagging and Random Forests

• We observe data $\mathcal{D} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ sampled i.i.d. from a parametric distribution $p(\cdot \mid \theta)$

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- A statistic $\hat{\theta} = \hat{\theta}(\mathcal{D})$ is a **point estimator** of θ if $\hat{\theta} \approx \theta$

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- Why does variance matter if an estimator is unbiased?
 - $\hat{\theta}(\mathcal{D}) = x_1$ is an unbiased estimator of the mean of a Gaussian, but would be farther away from θ than the sample mean.

- Let $\hat{\theta}(\mathcal{D})$ be an unbiased estimator with variance σ^2 : $\mathbb{E}\left[\hat{\theta}\right] = \theta$, $\mathsf{Var}(\hat{\theta}) = \sigma^2$.
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52 / 66 Mengve Ren (NYU) CSCI-GA 2565 Nov 7, 2023

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52 / 66 Mengve Ren (NYU) CSCI-GA 2565 Nov 7, 2023

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- The average has the same expected value but smaller standard error (recall that $Var(cX) = c^2 Var(X)$, and that the $\hat{\theta}_i$ -s are uncorrelated):

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\hat{\theta}_{i}\right] = \theta \qquad \text{Var}\left[\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\hat{\theta}_{i}\right] = \frac{\sigma^{2}}{n}$$
 (25)

Mengye Ren (NYU) CSCI-GA 2565 Nov 7, 2023 52 / 66

Averaging Independent Prediction Functions

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CSCI-GA 2565 Nov 7, 2023 53 / 66

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- Our learning algorithm gives us B prediction functions: $\hat{f}_1(x), \hat{f}_2(x), \dots, \hat{f}_B(x)$
- We will define the average prediction function as:

$$\hat{f}_{\text{avg}} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{1}{B} \sum_{b=1}^{B} \hat{f}_b \tag{26}$$

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Averaging Reduces Variance of Predictions

• The average prediction for x_0 is

$$\hat{f}_{avg}(x_0) = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{b=1}^{B} \hat{f}_b(x_0).$$

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- $\hat{f}_{avg}(x_0)$ has smaller variance:

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• Problem: in practice we don't have B independent training sets!

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55 / 66 Mengve Ren (NYU) CSCI-GA 2565 Nov 7, 2023

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- Each x_i has a probability of $(1-1/n)^n$ of not being included in a given bootstrap sample
- For large n,

$$\left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right)^n \approx \frac{1}{e} \approx .368. \tag{27}$$

• So we expect ~63.2% of elements of \mathcal{D}_n will show up at least once.

Mengye Ren (NYU) CSCI-GA 2565 Nov 7, 2023 55 / 66

Definition

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- Use these values as though D_n^1, \ldots, D_n^B were i.i.d. samples from P.
- This often ends up being very close to what we'd get with independent samples from P!

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Independent Samples vs. Bootstrap Samples

- Point estimator $\hat{\alpha} = \hat{\alpha}(\mathcal{D}_{100})$ for samples of size 100, for a synthetic case where the data generating distribution is known
- Histograms of $\hat{\alpha}$ based on
 - 1000 independent samples of size 100 (left), vs.
 - 1000 bootstrap samples of size 100 (right)

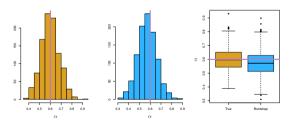


Figure 5.10 from ISLR (Springer, 2013) with permission from the authors: G. James, D. Witten, T. Hastie and R. Tibshirani.

Mengye Ren (NYU) CSCI-GA 2565 Nov 7, 2023 57/66

Key ideas:

 In general, ensemble methods combine multiple weak models into a single, more powerful model

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- We can use bootstrap to simulate multiple data samples and average them
- Parallel ensemble (e.g., bagging): models are built independently
- Sequential ensemble (e.g., boosting): models are built sequentially
 - We try to find new learners that do well where previous learners fall short

Mengye Ren (NYU) CSCI-GA 2565 Nov 7, 2023 58 / 66

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- Let $\hat{f}_1, \hat{f}_2, \dots, \hat{f}_B$ be the prediction functions resulting from training on D^1, \dots, D^B , respectively
- The **bagged prediction function** is a *combination* of these:

$$\hat{f}_{\mathsf{avg}}(x) = \mathsf{Combine}\left(\hat{f}_1(x), \hat{f}_2(x), \dots, \hat{f}_B(x)\right)$$

59 / 66 Mengve Ren (NYU) CSCI-GA 2565 Nov 7, 2023

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- Is there a downside, compared to having a single decision tree?
- Yes: if we have many trees, the bagged predictor is much less interpretable

Mengye Ren (NYU) CSCI-GA 2565 Nov 7, 2023 60 / 66

Aside: Out-of-Bag Error Estimation

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$$S_i = \{b \mid D^b \text{ does not contain } i \text{th point}\}$$

• The OOB prediction on x_i is

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Mengye Ren (NYU) CSCI-GA 2565 Nov 7, 2023 61 / 66

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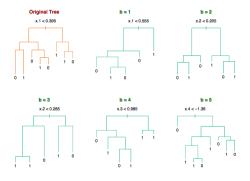
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- The OOB error is a good estimate of the test error
- Similar to cross validation error: both are computed on the training set

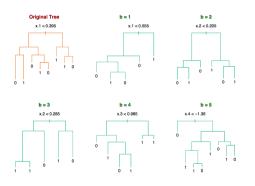
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• Input space $\mathfrak{X}=\mathsf{R}^5$ and output space $\mathfrak{Y}=\{-1,1\}$. Sample size n=30.



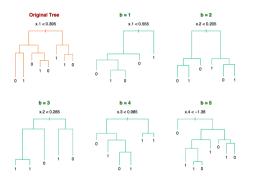
From HTF Figure 8.9

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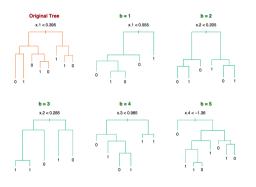
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- Each bootstrap tree is quite different: different splitting variable at the root!
- **High variance**: small perturbations of the training data lead to a high degree of model variability
- Bagging helps most when the base learners are relatively unbiased but have high variance (exactly the case for decision trees)

Recall the motivating principle of bagging:

• For
$$\hat{\theta}_1, \dots, \hat{\theta}_n$$
 i.i.d. with $\mathbb{E}\left[\hat{\theta}\right] = \theta$ and $\operatorname{Var}\left[\hat{\theta}\right] = \sigma^2$,

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63 / 66 Mengve Ren (NYU) CSCI-GA 2565 Nov 7, 2023

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- Can we reduce the dependence between \hat{f}_i 's?

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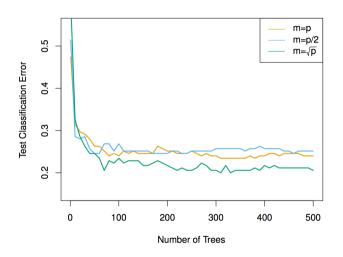
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- We typically choose $m \approx \sqrt{p}$, where p is the number of features (or we can choose m using cross validation)
- If m = p, this is just bagging

Random Forests: Effect of m



From An Introduction to Statistical Learning, with applications in R (Springer, 2013) with permission from the authors: G. James, D. Witten, T. Hastie and R. Tibshirani.

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- Use bootstrap to simulate many data samples from one dataset
 - Bagged decision trees

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- Ensembling works better when we combine a diverse set of prediction functions
 - Random forests: select a random subset of features for each decision tree