

"The Wisdom of Crowds"



- Francis Galton's experience at the 1906 West of England Fat Stock and Poultry Exhibition
- Jack Treynor's jelly-beans-in-the-jar experiment (1987)
 - Only 1 of 56 students' guesses came closer to the truth than the average of the class's guesses
- Who Wants to Be a Millionaire?
 - Call an expert? \rightarrow 65% correct
 - Ask the audience? \rightarrow 91% correct







• Example (thought experiment):

"Which person from the following list was not a member of the Monkees?"

(A) Peter Tork (C) Roger Noll

(B) Davy Jones (D) Michael Nesmith

- (BTW: Monkeys are a 1960s pop band)
- Correct answer: the non-Monkee is Roger Noll (a Stanford economist)
- Now imagine a crowd of 100 people with knowledge distributed as: 7 know all 3 of the Monkees 10 know 2 of the Monkees 15 know 1 of the Monkees 68 have no clue
- So "Noll" will garner, on average, 34 votes versus 22 votes for each of the other choices





- Implication: one should not expend energy trying to identify an expert within a group but instead rely on the group's collective wisdom
- Counter example:
 - Kindergartners guessing the weight of a 747
- Prerequisites for crowd wisdom to emerge:
 - Opinions must be independent
 - Some knowledge of the truth must reside with some group members (→ weak classifiers)

The Random Forest Method

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- One kind of so-called ensemble (of experts) methods
- Idea: predict class label for unseen data by aggregating a set of predictions (= classifiers learned from the training data)





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Details on the Construction of Random Forests



- Learning multiple trees:
 - Generate a number of data sets $\mathcal{L}_1, \mathcal{L}_2, \ldots$ from the original training data \mathcal{L} , $\mathcal{L}_i \subset \mathcal{L}$
 - Bootstrapping: randomly draw samples, with replacement, size of new data = size of original data set
 - Subsampling: randomly draw samples, without replacement, size of new data < size of original data set
 - Resulting trees can differ substantially (see earlier slide)
 - New data sets reflect the same random process as the orig. data, but they differ slightly from each other and the orig. set due to random variation





- Growing the trees:
 - Each tree is grown without any stopping criterion, i.e., until each leaf contains data points of only one single class
 - At *each* node, a random subset of attributes (= predictor variables/ features) is preselected; *only from those*, the one with the best information gain is chosen
 - NB: an individual tree is not just a DT over a subspace of feature space!
- Naming convention for 2 essential parameters:
 - Number of trees = ntree
 - Size of random subset of variables/attributes = mtry
- Rules of thumb:
 - ntree = 100 ... 300
 - mtry = sqrt(d), with d = dimensions of the feature space





The learning algorithm:

```
input: learning set L
for t = 1...ntree:
    build subset L<sub>t</sub> from L by random sampling
    learn tree T<sub>t</sub> from L<sub>t</sub>:
        at each node:
            randomly choose mtry features
            compute best split from only those features
        grow each tree until leaves are perfectly pure
```



A Random Forest Example for the Smoking Data Set







Using a Random Forest for Classification



- With a new data point:
 - Traverse each tree individually using that point
 - Gives *ntree* many class labels



- Take majority of those class labels
- Sometimes, if labels are numbers, (weighted) averaging makes sense



Why does It Work?



- Make following assumptions:
 - The RF has *ntree* many trees (classifiers)
 - Each tree has an error rate of ε
 - All trees are perfectly independent! (no correlation among trees)
- Probability that the RF makes a wrong prediction:

$$\varepsilon_{\mathsf{RF}} = \sum_{i=\left\lceil \frac{ntree}{2} \right\rceil}^{ntree} \binom{ntree}{i} \varepsilon^{i} (1-\varepsilon)^{(ntree-i)}$$

• Example: individual error rate $\varepsilon = 0.35 \rightarrow \text{error rate of RF}$ $\varepsilon_{\text{RF}} \approx 0.01$





Variable Importance





Variants of Random Forests



Regression trees:

- Variable Y (dependent variable) is continuous
 - I.e., no longer a class label
- Goal is to learn a function $\mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ that generalizes the training data
- Example:







- "Small n, large p":
 - RFs are well-suited for problems with many more variables (dimensions in the feature space) than observations / training data
- Nonlinear function approximation:
 - RFs can approximate *any* unknown function
- Blackbox:

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- RFs are a black box; it is practically impossible to obtain an analytic function description, or gain insights in predictor variable interactions
- The "XOR problem":
 - In an XOR truth table, the two variables show no effect at all
 - With either split variable, the information gain is 0
 - But there is a perfect interaction between the two variables
 - Random pre-selection of mtry variables can help





- Out-of-bag error estimation:
 - For each tree T_i , a training data set $\mathcal{L}_i \subset \mathcal{L}$ was used
 - Use $\mathcal{L} \setminus \mathcal{L}_i$ (the out-of-bag data set) to test the prediction accuracy
- Handling missing values:
 - Occasionally, some data points contain a missing value for one or more of its variables (e.g., because the corresponding measuring instrument had a malfunction)
 - When information gain is computed, just omit the missing values
 - During splitting, use a surrogate that best predicts the values of the splitting variable (in case of a missing value)





Randomness:

- Random forests are truly random
- Consequence: when you build two RFs with the same training data, you get slightly different classifiers/predictors
 - Fix the random seed, if you need reproducible RFs
- Suggestion: if you observe that two RFs over the same training data (with different random seeds) produce noticeably different prediction results, and different variable importance rankings, then you should adjust the parameters *ntree* and *mtry*





- Do random forests overfit?
 - The evidence is inconclusive (with some data sets it seems like they could, with other data sets it doesn't)
 - If you suspect overfitting: try to build the individual trees of the RF to a smaller depth, i.e., not up to completely pure leaves



Application: Handwritten Digit Recognition



- 000000000000000000 Data set: 11/71)/ 222222222222222 Images of handwritten digits 3333333 3 3 Normalization: 20x20 pixels, 66666666666666 binary images 7771 7777777 88888888888 8 88 10 classes
- Naïve feature vectors (data points):
 - Each pixel = one variable \rightarrow 400-dim. feature space over {0,1}
 - Recognition rate: ~ 70-80 %
- Better feature vectors by domain knowledge:
 - For each pixel *I*(*i*,*j*) compute:

$$H(i, j) = I(i, j) \land I(i, j + 2)$$

$$V(i, j) = I(i, j) \land I(i + 2, j)$$

$$N(i, j) = I(i, j) \land I(i + 2, j + 2)$$

$$S(i, j) = I(i, j) \land I(i + 2, j - 2)$$

999999999999999999999

and a few more ...





- Feature vector for an image = (all pixels, all H(i,j), V(i,j), ...)
- Feature space = 852-dimensional = 852 variables per data point
- Classification accuracy = ~93%
 - Caveat: it was a precursor of random forests







Body Tracking Using Depth Images (Kinect)



The tracking / data flow pipeline:





The Training Data









Synthetic vs Real Data





For each pixel in the depth image, we know its correct class (= label). Sometimes, such data is also called ground truth data.



Classifying Pixels



- Goal: for each pixel determine the most likely body part (head, shoulder, knee, etc.) it belongs to
- Classifying pixels =
 compute probability P(c_x)
 for pixel x = (x,y),
 where c_x = body part
- Task: learn classifier that returns the most likely body part class c_x for every pixel x



image windows move with classifier



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Fast Depth Image Features

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- For a given pixel, consider all depth comparisons inside a window
- The *feature vector* for a pixel x are all *feature variables* obtained by all possible depth comparisons inside the window:

$$f(\mathbf{x}, \Delta) = D(\mathbf{x}) - D(\mathbf{x} + \frac{\Delta}{D(\mathbf{x})})$$

where *D* = depth image,

 $\Delta = (\Delta_x, \Delta_y) = \text{offset vector,}$

- and D(background) = large constant
- Note: scale ∆ by 1/depth of x, so that the window shrinks with distance
- Features are very fast to compute





Training of a Single Decision Tree



- The training set L (conceptually): all features (= all f(x, Δ)) of all pixels (= feature vectors) of all training images, together with the correct labels
- Training a decision tree amounts to finding that Δ and θ such that the information gain is maximized



Classification of a Pixel At Runtime

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- Toy example: distinguish left (L) and right (R) sides of the body
- Note: each node only needs to store Δ and θ !
- For every pixel x in the depth image, we traverse the DT:



Training a Random Forest

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Average per-class

- Train ntree many trees, for each one introduce lots of randomization:
 - Random subset of pixels of the training images (~ 2000)
 - At each node to be trained, choose a random set of *mtry* many (Δ , θ) values
- Note: the complete feature vector is never explicitly constructed (only conceptually)









Random Forests 72





 Depth of trees: check whether it is really best to grow all DTs in the RF to their maximum depth



More Parameters





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Implementing Decision Trees and Forests on a GPU - Sharp, ECCV 2008 Papers/Massively\ Parallel\ Algorithms/Random\ Forests





