AdaBoost for Learning Binary and Multiclass Discriminations

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1: Monolithic vs. Cascaded Classifiers

- The traditional approach to classification, reviewed briefly in the next section, consists of pooling all the features that you think are relevant to the classification task at hand and using your training data to partition the feature space into different regions for the different classes.

- However, for object detection (which is the same thing as binary classification), there is an alternative approach that lends itself well to creating a classifier with a specific performance metric. A detector can be characterized by two independent performance metrics: the True-Positive (TP) rate and the False-Positive (FP) rate. The issue here is creating a detector with a targeted value for either TP or FP. For example, for detecting faces in images, you would want to design a detector with an FP that is no more than $10^{-6}$. This alternative approach involves cascaded classification in which each classifier directs its firepower to the data misclassified by the previous classifier. Assuming you have training data that is large enough and rich enough in terms of the number of features you can extract from it, you keep on adding classification stages to the cascade until you have achieved the desired performance metric.

- Achieving a targeted performance metric with cascaded design is aided by the fact that for $x$ in the interval $(0, 1)$ a power like
$x^n$ decreases with $n$ much more slowly when $x$ is close to 1 compared to the case when $x$ is closer to 0. For example, for $x = 0.99$, $x^{10} \approx 0.9$. On the other hand, for $x = 0.3$, $x^{10} \approx 10^{-6}$.

- Let’s apply the above observation to a cascaded classification system in which each stage has a TP rate of 0.99 and an FP rate of 0.3. Assuming that we have 10 stages in the cascade and assuming that the cascade design is such that the overall TP and FP rates are products of the individual stage rates, the entire system will operate with a targeted FP of $10^{-6}$ while the overall TP rate would be a not unimpressive 0.9.

- The argument made above depends on being able to design a classification stage that would operate with a TP of 0.99 and FP of 0.3. Here is a fact that is highly relevant to this question: For any binary classifier, you can set its TP to as high a value as you want simply by changing the decision threshold that declares the blob of pixels as being the target — but, as you would expect, that would be at the cost of increasing the FP rate.

- What the above observation points to is the fact that while TP and FP are independent characterizations of a detector, nevertheless, for a specific detector, they are coupled in that if you increase the TP by simply changing the decision threshold
that accepts a blob of pixels as the object, you will concomitantly increase the FP. This intimate relationship between TP and FP defines what is the known as the ROC curve for a detector. ROC stands for “Receiver Operating Characteristic”. Here is a wonderful Wikipedia page that summarizes various aspects of the ROC curve:

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Receiver_operating_characteristic

- In the sections that follow, I’m going to present the AdaBoost algorithm by Freund and Schapire for designing cascaded classifiers with targeted performance metrics. But first let me review the traditional approach to classifier design in the next section.
2: The Conventional Wisdom

- Revisiting the conventional wisdom, if you want to predict the class label for a new data element, you undertake the steps described below:

  - You first get hold of as much training data as you can.

  - You come up with a decent number of features. You try to select each feature so that it can discriminate well between the classes. You believe that the greater the power of a feature to discriminate between the classes at hand, the better your classifier.

  - If you have too many features and you are not sure which ones might work the best, you carry out a feature selection step through either PCA (Principal Components Analysis), LDA (Linear Discriminant Analysis), a combination of PCA and LDA, or a greedy algorithm like the one that starts by choosing the most class-discriminatory feature and then adds additional features, one feature at a time, on the basis of the class discriminations achieved by the features chosen so far, etc. See my “Constructing Optimal Subspaces Tutorial” for further information regarding this
Once you have specified your feature space, you can use one of several approaches for predicting the class label for a new data element:

- If your feature space is sparsely populated with the training samples and you have multiple classes to deal with, you are not likely to do much better than a Nearest Neighbor (NN) classifier.

- For NN based classification, you calculate the distance from your new data element to each of the training samples and you give the new data point the class label that corresponds to the nearest training sample. [As a variation on this, you find the \( k \) nearest training-data neighbors for your new data element and the class label you give your new data element is a majority vote (or a weighted majority vote) from those \( k \) training samples. This is known as the \( k \)-NN algorithm. In such algorithms, the distance calculations can be speeded up by using a k-d tree to represent the training samples.]

- For another variation on the NN idea, you might get better results by using NN to the class means as calculated from the training data as opposed to the training samples directly.
If you don’t want to use NN and if you are trying to solve a binary classification problem for the case of two linearly separable classes, you could try using linear SVM (Support Vector Machine) for your classifier. This will give you a maximum-margin decision boundary between the two classes. Or, if your classes are not linearly separable, you could construct a nonlinear SVM that uses a “kernel trick” to project the training data into a higher-dimensional space where they become linearly separable.

If you have multiple classes and you are comfortable using parametric models for the class distributions, you should be able to use model-based similarity criterion to predict the class label for your new data element. If you can fit Gaussians to your training data, you could, for example, calculate Mahalanobis distance between your data element and the means for each of the Gaussians to figure out as to which Gaussian provides the best class label for the new data element.

Regardless of how you carry out classification, all the approaches listed above have one thing in common: The better the features are at discriminating between the classes, the better the performance of the classification algorithm.
3: Introduction to AdaBoost

- AdaBoost stands for Adaptive Boosting. [Literally, boosting here means to arrange a set of weak classifiers in a sequence in which each weak classifier is the best choice for a classifier at that point for rectifying the errors made by the previous classifier.]

- In the sequence of weak classifiers used, each classifier focuses its discriminatory firepower on the training samples misclassified by the previous weak classifier. You could say that by just focusing on the training data samples misclassified by the previous weak classifier, each weak classifier contributes its bit — the best it can — to improving the overall classification rate.

- The AdaBoost approach comes with the theoretical guarantee that as you bring in more and more weak classifiers, your final misclassification rate for the training data can be made arbitrarily small.

- The AdaBoost approach also comes with a bound on the generalization error. This classification error includes the testing data that was NOT used for training, but that is assumed to be derived from the same data source as the training data.

• AdaBoost has become even more famous after it was shown by Viola and Jones how the algorithm could be used to create face detectors with false positive rates as low as $10^{-6}$.

• Any algorithm that detects a face by scanning an image with a moving window (of different sizes to account for the fact that the size of a blob that is a face is not known in advance) and applying a classification rule to the pixels in the window must possess an extremely low false-positive rate for the detector to be effective. False positive here means declaring a blob of non-face pixels as a face.
4: The Notation

- We represent our labeled training data by the set

\[
\{(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \ldots, (x_m, y_m)\}
\]

(1)

with \(x_i \in \mathcal{X}\) and \(y_i \in \{-1, 1\}\). The set \(\mathcal{X}\) represents our training data and the set \(\{-1, 1\}\) the two class labels for the data elements. Note that each training data sample \(x_i\) can be a point in a multidimensional feature space. Obviously, \(m\) is the total number of training samples.

- The good thing is that we can be relaxed about the design of the feature space in which the training samples \(x_i \in \mathcal{X}\) reside. As long as a feature is relevant to the classification problem at hand, it should work as a dimension of the feature space.

- For the purpose of drawing samples for training a classifier, AdaBoost maintains a probability distribution over all the training samples. This distribution is modified iteratively with each application of a new weak classifier to the data. We’ll denote this probability distribution by \(D_t(x_i)\). The subscript \(t\) refers to the different iterations of the AdaBoost algorithm.
• Initially, the probability distribution is uniform over the training samples. That is, $D_0(x_i)$ is considered to be uniform over $x_i$.

• The weak classifier chosen at iteration $t$ of the AdaBoost algorithm will be denoted $h_t$. And the class label predicted by this weak classifier for the training data element $x_i$ denoted $h_t(x_i)$. By comparing $h_t(x_i)$ with $y_i$ for $i = 1, 2, \ldots, m$, we can assess the classification error rate for the classifier $h_t$.

• We use $\epsilon_t$ to denote the misclassification rate for the weak classifier $h_t$. [At iteration $t$, each candidate weak classifier is trained using a subsampling of all of the training data as made possible by the probability distribution $D_t(x)$. (The higher the probability $D_t(x)$ for a given training sample $x$, the greater the chance that it will be chosen for training the candidate classifier $h(t)$.) An important issue related to the selection of $h_t$: From all the different possibilities for $h_t$, we choose the one that minimizes the misclassification rate $\epsilon_t$, as measured over all of the training data, using a formula shown in the next section.]

• In most practical implementation of AdaBoost, a weak classifier consists of a single feature that is thresholded appropriately. [Consider a computer vision application of AdaBoost and let’s say you have a total of $F = \{f_1, f_2, \ldots, f_{|F|}\}$ features for characterizing a blob of pixels. At each iteration $t$, for the weak classifier $h_t$, you find the feature $f_t$ that results in the smallest $\epsilon_t$. This is best done by constructing an ordered list of all the training samples with respect to each candidate $f_t$. For any given $f_t$, you step through all its discrete values, from the lowest...]}
to the highest, and, considering each such value as a possible decision threshold $\theta$, you update two quantities $\text{error rate type 1}$ and $\text{error rate type 2}$. The first, $\text{error rate type 1}$, measures the misclassification rate if you classify all training samples that lie above $\theta$ as being of class $+1$ and all training sample that lie below $\theta$ as being of class $-1$. The second, $\text{error rate type 2}$, measures the misclassification rate when you reverse the sense in which you use the decision threshold. That is, for $\text{error rate type 2}$, you measure the misclassification rate when all training samples above $\theta$ are labeled $-1$ and all those below as $+1$. Finally, for a given $f_t$, you choose the threshold $\theta$ which corresponds to the smallest of the $\text{error rate type 1}$ and $\text{error rate type 2}$ values. If $\text{error rate type 1}$ yielded the best value $\theta_t$ for $\theta$, you say you will consider $f_t$ with positive polarity and decision threshold $\theta_t$ as a candidate for the weak classifier $h_t$. On the other hand, if $\text{error rate type 2}$ yielded the best $\theta_t$, you change the polarity to negative. This logic when considered over all possible features in $F$ returns the triple $(f_t, p_t, \theta_t)$, where $p_t$ represents the polarity, as the best weak classifier at iteration $t$. When stepping through the discrete values for a given feature $f_t$, there is a little bit more to the calculation of $\text{error rate type 1}$ and $\text{error rate type 2}$ than just updating the two types of counts of the misclassified training samples: the contribution made by each training sample to these two error rates must be weighted by the probability $D_t(x)$ associated with that sample. This fact will become clearer in the next section. When single features are used as weak classifiers, they are sometimes referred to as decision stumps. Note that factoring $D_t(x)$ into the calculation of the two types of misclassification rates is how sample probabilities $D_t(x)$ affect the design of $h_t$ for creating decision stumps. That is, for the case of decision stumps, you do not directly subsample all of your training data for designing $h_t$.

- We use $\alpha_t$ to denote how much trust we can place in the weak classifier $h_t$. Obviously, the larger the value of $\epsilon_t$ for a classifier, the lower our trust must be. We use the following relationship
between \( \alpha_t \) and \( \epsilon_t \):

\[
\alpha_t = \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{1 - \epsilon_t}{\epsilon_t}
\]

(2)

- As \( \epsilon_t \) varies from 1 to 0, \( \alpha_t \) will vary from \( -\infty \) to \( +\infty \). \( \epsilon_t \) being close 1 means that the weak classifier fails almost completely on the overall training dataset. And \( \epsilon_t \) being close to 0 means that your weak classifier is actually a powerful classifier. (A weak classifier whose \( \epsilon_t \) is close to 0 would negate all the reasons for using AdaBoost.)

- We will use \( H \) to denote the final classifier. This classifier carries out a weighted aggregation of the classifications produced by the individual weak classifiers to predict the class label for a new data sample. The weighting used for each weak classifier will be proportional to the degree of trust we can place in that classifier. [Weighting the individual weak classifiers \( h_t \) with the trust factor \( \alpha_t \) makes it possible for a single strong weak classifier to dominate over several not-so-strong weak classifiers.]
5: The AdaBoost Algorithm

- Let’s say we can conjure up $T$ weak classifiers. These classifiers can be as simple as what you get when you subject each feature of a multi-dimensional feature space to a suitable threshold.
  
  For illustration, let’s say you are using the value of “yellow-ness” to weakly classify fruit in a supermarket. Such a weak classifier could work as follows: if the value of yellow color is below a decision threshold $d_{th}$, you predict the fruit’s label to be apple, otherwise you predict it to be an orange. As long as such a weak classifier does better than a monkey (meaning that as along as its classification error rate is less than 50%, it’s a good enough weak classifier. (Should it happen that this decision rule gives an error rate exceeding 50%, you can flip its “polarity” to yield a classification rule with an error rate of less than 50%.)

- What the above note in blue implies is that any feature, if at all it is relevant to the objects of interest, can be used as a weak classifier.

- For $t = 1, 2, \ldots, T$, we do the following:
  
  1. Using the training samples thrown up by the probability distribution $D_t(x_i)$, we select a weak classifier, denoted $h_t$, that does the best possible job of classifying the data being used specifically for the training of $h(t)$. As you will see, $D_t$
is such that $h_t$ specifically targets the training samples misclassified by the previous weak classifier.

2. We apply $h_t$ to all of our training data (even though the classifier was constructed using just those training samples that were thrown up by the probability distribution $D_t$). The classifier $h_t$ represents a mapping $h_t : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \{-1, 1\}$.

3. Using all of the training data, we then estimate the misclassification rate $\text{Prob}\{h_t(x_i) \neq y_i\}$ for the $h_t$ classifier:

$$
\epsilon_t = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{m} D_t(x_i) \cdot |h_t(x_i) - y_i| \quad (3)
$$

Note how the misclassifications are weighted by the probabilities associated with the samples. Now read again the long comment on pages 10 and 11. [As stated on pages 15 and 16, if you are using single features as weak classifiers (which is normally the case in computer vision applications of AdaBoost), you are NOT likely to use the formula shown above for estimating the misclassification rate for a single weak classifier. Instead, you are more likely to use the logic presented on pages 15 and 16.]

4. Next, we calculate the trust factor for $h_t$ by

$$
\alpha_t = \frac{1}{2} \ln \left( \frac{1 - \epsilon_t}{\epsilon_t} \right) \quad (4)
$$

5. Finally, we update the probability distribution over the training data for the next iteration:

$$
D_{t+1}(x_i) = \frac{D_t(x_i)e^{-\alpha_t y_i h_t(x_i)}}{Z_t} \quad (5)
$$
where the role of \( Z_t \) is to serve as a normalizer. That is, we set a value for \( Z_t \) so that \( \sum_{i=1}^{m} D_{t+1}(x_i) = 1 \), where \( m \) is the total number of training samples. This implies

\[
Z_t = \sum_{i=1}^{m} D_t(x_i)e^{-\alpha_t h_t(x_i)y_i}
\]  

(6)

Note the highly intuitive manner in which \( D_{t+1}(x_i) \) acquires smaller probabilities at those samples that were correctly classified by \( h_t \). The product \( y_i h_t(x_i) \) will always be positive for such samples.

6. We then go back to Step 1 for the next iteration.

- At the end of \( T \) iterations, we construct the final classifier \( H \) as follows:

\[
H(x) = \text{sign} \left( \sum_{t=1}^{T} \alpha_t h_t(x) \right)
\]  

(7)

where \( x \) is the new data element whose class label we wish to predict on the strength of the information in the training data. If for a test data sample \( x \), \( H(x) \) turns out to be positive, the predicted class label for \( x \) is 1. Otherwise, it is -1. [The above formula for the final classifier makes sense only if you use 1 and -1 as class labels. Note, however, it is not uncommon for an AdaBoost implementation to use 1 and 0 as the two class labels, with 1 for the object you are looking for in an image and 0 for the background. When using 1 and 0 for class labels, the formula for \( H(x) \) is likely to compare the summation \( \sum_{t=1}^{T} \alpha_t h_t(x) \) against \( \frac{1}{2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \alpha_t \). Using 1 and 0 for the class labels]
makes it easier to trade off the true-positive rate for the false-positive rate for final classification — an important issue in designing object detectors in computer vision applications of AdaBoost. For such tradeoffs, you are likely to compare \( \sum_{t=1}^{T} \alpha_t h_t(x) \) with a decision threshold whose value would depend on what your desired true-positive rate is for the final classifier. For such logic to make sense, you’d keep on adding weak classifiers until the false-positive rate falls below a user-specified threshold.

- Schapire and Singer have shown that the training error of the final classifier is bounded by

\[
\frac{1}{m} \left| \left\{ i : H(x_i) \neq y_i \right\} \right| \leq \prod_{t=1}^{T} Z_t \tag{8}
\]

where \( Z_t \) is as shown at the top on page 15.

- The bound shown above implies that for any value of \( T \), which is the number of weak classifiers used, you want to use those that yield the smallest values for \( \{ Z_t | t = 1 \ldots T \} \). Generalizing this argument to treating \( T \) on a running basis, from amongst all the weak classifiers at your disposal, you want to pick that classifier for each iteration \( t \) that has the least misclassification rate.

- If you examine the formula for \( Z_t \) on page 15, the smaller the misclassification rate for a given weak classifier, the smaller the associated \( Z_t \). Now you can see why in the comment block on pages 10 and 11, at each iteration \( t \), we wanted a feature for \( h_t \) that minimized \( \epsilon_t \) as measured over all of the training data.
6: An Example for Illustrating AdaBoost

- I will use the two-class example shown below to illustrate AdaBoost.

- The points depicted as small circles were generated by the Python script shown below. I will refer to these points as just “circles”:

```python
def gen_points_displayed_as_circles():
    points_circles = []
    for i in range(N1):
        x, y = 1, 1
        while x**2 + y**2 >= 1:
            x = random.uniform(0,1)
y = random.uniform(0,1)
x, y = 0.4*(x-0.6), 0.4*(y-0.3)
points_circles.append(["circle_" + str(i), x+0.6, y+0.3])
return points_circles

where the global variable \( N_1 \) specifies the number of points you want in a circle of radius \( \approx 0.4 \) centered at (0.6,0.3).

- The points depicted as small squares in the figure were generated by the following script. The global variable \( N_2 \) specifies the number of such points desired.

```python
def gen_points_displayed_as_squares():
    points_squares = []
    for i in range(N2):
        x, y = 0.6, 0.3
        while (x-0.6)**2 + (y-0.3)**2 < 0.2**2:
            x = random.uniform(0,1)
            y = random.uniform(0,1)
        points_squares.append(["square_" + str(i), x, y])
    return points_squares
```

- Note that I make no attempt to generate the training data points according to any particular statistical distribution in the respective domains. For example, the circle points are NOT uniformly distributed (despite the impression that may be created by calls to \texttt{random.uniform()} in the area where they predominate. Along the same lines, the square points are NOT uniformly distributed in the rest of the \([0,1] \times [0,1]\) box. How the circle and the square points are statistically distributed is NOT important to my illustration of AdaBoost.
• We can use any of a number of approaches for solving the classification problem depicted in the figure on page 17. For example, it would be trivial to construct an SVM classifier for this case. Simpler still, an NN classifier would in all likelihood work just as well (although it would be a bit slower for obvious reasons).

• The next section demonstrates how we can use AdaBoost to solve this problem.
7: Weak Classifiers in Our Example Study

- A weak classifier for our example will be a linear decision line as shown in the figure below. Such a classifier will declare all of the data points on one side of the line as being “circles” and the data points on the other side as being “squares”.

- This sort of a classifier is characterized by the triple \((\theta, d_{th}, p)\), where \(\theta\) is the orientation of the decision line \(L\), and \(d_{th}\) the threshold on the projections of the data points on the
perpendicular $P$ to $L$ (with the stipulation that the perpendicular pass through the origin). We say that the polarity $p$ of the classifier is 1 if it classifies all of the data points whose projections are \textit{less than or equal to} $d_{th}$ as being “circle” and all the data points whose projections are \textit{greater than} $d_{th}$ as being “square”. For the opposite case, we consider the classifier’s polarity to be -1.

- Although, for a given orientation $\theta$, the decision line $L$ constitutes a weak classifier for almost every value of $d_{th}$ (as long we choose a polarity that yields a classification error rate of less than 0.5), that will NOT be our approach to the construction of a set of weak classifiers.

- For the discussion that follows, for each orientation $\theta$, we will choose that decision line $L$ as our weak classifier which yields the smallest classification error.

- In our demonstration of AdaBoost, each iteration of the algorithm randomly chooses a value for the orientation $\theta$ of the decision line $L$. Subsequently we step along the perpendicular $P$ to $L$ to find the best value for the threshold $d_{th}$ and the best polarity for the classifier. Best means yielding the least classification error.
• The script that is shown on page 26 demonstrates how we search for the best weak classifier for a given orientation $\theta$ for the decision line. In lines 3 and 4, the script first constructs a unit vector along the perpendicular $P$ to the decision line $L$.

• At this point, it’s good to recall that, in general, only a portion of the training data is used for the training of each weak classifier. See page 12.

• The training data for the current weak classifier is sorted in lines 6 through 9 in the ascending order of the data projections on $P$.

• Subsequently, in lines 13 through 21, the script steps through these projection points on $P$, from the smallest value to the largest, and at, each projection point on the perpendicular $P$, it calculates two types of classification errors that are described next. Let the projection point under consideration be denoted $s$.

• The first type of classification error corresponds to the case when the predicted labels for all the data points whose projections are less than or equal to $s$ are considered to be ”circle” and all the data points whose projections are greater than $s$ as being ”square”.

• The second type of the classification error corresponds to the
opposite case. That is, when all the data points whose projections are less than or equal to $s$ are labeled “square”, and all the data points whose projections are greater than $s$ are labeled “circle”.

- In the script, these two types of errors are stored in the hashes `type_1_errors` and `type_2_errors`.

- The polarity of the weak classifier chosen for a given $\theta$ is determined by which of the two minimum values for the two types of errors is the least. And $d_{th}$ is the corresponding threshold.

- The minimum values found in lines 22 and 23 are used to determine which type of error is the least. The type that yields the smallest value determines the polarity of the weak classifier, as set in line 24.

- Subsequently, in line (26), we find the decision threshold $d_{th}$ that corresponds to the best weak classifier for the decision line orientation used.
def find_best_weak_linear_classifier_at_given_orientation(orientation, training_samples):  
    polarity = None
    orient_in_rad = orientation * math.pi / 180.0
    projection_vec = -1.0 * math.sin(orient_in_rad), math.cos(orient_in_rad)
    projections = {}
    for label in training_samples:
        projection = ALL_SAMPLE_LABELS_WITH_DATA[label][0] * projection_vec[0] + ALL_SAMPLE_LABELS_WITH_DATA[label][1] * projection_vec[1]
        projections[label] = projection
    sorted_projections = sorted(projections, key=lambda x: projections[x])
    type_1_errors, type_2_errors = {},{}
    how_many_circle_labels = 0
    how_many_square_labels = 0
    for i in range(len(sorted_projections)):
        if "circle" in sorted_projections[i]:
            how_many_circle_labels += 1
        if "square" in sorted_projections[i]:
            how_many_square_labels += 1
        error1 = (N1 - how_many_circle_labels + how_many_square_labels) / (1.0 * (N1 + N2))
        type_1_errors[sorted_projections[i]] = error1
        error2 = (how_many_circle_labels + N2 - how_many_square_labels) / (1.0 * (N1 + N2))
        type_2_errors[sorted_projections[i]] = error2
    least_type_1_error = min(type_1_errors.values())
    least_type_2_error = min(type_2_errors.values())
    polarity = 1 if least_type_1_error <= least_type_2_error else -1
    error_for_polarity = least_type_1_error if least_type_1_error <= least_type_2_error else least_type_2_error
    thresholding_label = list(type_1_errors.keys())[list(type_1_errors.values()).index(least_type_1_error)] if least_type_1_error <= least_type_2_error else list(type_2_errors.keys())[list(type_2_errors.values()).index(least_type_2_error)]
    return [orientation, projections[thresholding_label], polarity, error_for_polarity]

The next section presents the calling function for the function shown above. That calling function constitutes an implementation of the Steps 1 through 6 of Section 5.
8: An Implementation of the AdaBoost Algorithm

- I next present a Python implementation of the Steps 1 through 6 of the AdaBoost algorithm as shown in Section 5.

- The script presented on page 30 starts out in lines 10 through 15 by selecting a subset of the training data on the basis of the current probability distribution over the data. The criterion used for choosing the training samples is very simple: We sort all the training samples in a descending order according to their probability values. We pick the top-ranked training samples by stepping through the sorted list until the accumulated probability mass is 0.5.

- A more sophisticated approach to the selection of training samples according to a given probability distribution over the data would consist of using an MCMC (Markov-Chain Monte-Carlo) sampler. [See Section 3.4 of my tutorial “Monte Carlo Integration in Bayesian Estimation” for an introduction to MCMC sampling.]

- For a Perl based implementation of MCMC sampling with the Metropolis-Hastings algorithm, see my “Random Point
Generator” module available at the following clickable link:

http://search.cpan.org/avikak/Algorithm-RandomPointGenerator-1.01/lib/Algorithm/RANDOMPOINTGENERATOR.pm

You can also access this module by Googling with a query string like “avi kak cpan random point generator”.

- If you do not want to go the MCMC sampling route, but you would like to be a bit more sophisticated than the approach outlined in red in the second bullet on page 26, you could try the following method: You first create a fine grid in the \([0, 1] \times [0, 1]\) box, with its resolution set to the smallest of the intervals between the adjacent point coordinates along \(x\) and \(y\). You would then allocate to each training sample a number of cells proportional to its probability. Subsequently, you would fire up a random-number generator for the two values needed for \(x\) and \(y\). The two such random values obtained would determine the choice of the training sample for each such two calls to the random number generator.

- Going back to explaining the code on page 30, in lines 16 and 17, the script fires up the random number generator for an orientation for the weak classifier for the current iteration of the AdaBoost algorithm. It makes sure that the orientation selected is different from those used previously.

- The decision line orientation selected is stored in the global array ORIENTATIONS_USED.
• The decision-line orientation chosen and the training samples selected are shipped off in line 19 to the function `find_best_weak_linear_classifier_at_given_orientation()` that was presented in the previous section.

• Next, in lines 23 through 29, the script applies the weak classifier returned by the call shown in the previous bullet to all of the training data in order to assess its classification error rate. This corresponds to Step 3 Section 5. This part of the code makes a call to the subroutine `weak_classify()` that is presented in the next section.

• Calculation of the classification error rate is followed in lines 31 through 35 by a calculation of the trust factor $\alpha$ for the weak classifier in the current iteration of the AdaBoost algorithm.

• Subsequently, in lines 36 through 43, we update the probability distribution over all the training samples according to Step 5 in Section 5.
def adaboost(outputstream):
    weak_classifiers = []
    decision_line_orientation = int(90 * random.uniform(0.1, 0.9))
    for t in range(NUMBER_OF_WEAK_CLASSIFIERS):
        samples_to_be_used_for_training = []
        if outputstream is not None:
            outputstream.write("Iteration %d --
                Printing probability distribution over the samples
" % t)
        for (k,v) in PROBABILITY_OVER_SAMPLES.items():
            print("%s => %s" % (str(k), str(v)))
        # Select training samples for the current weak classifier:
        probability_mass_selected_samples = 0
        for label in sorted(PROBABILITY_OVER_SAMPLES, 
            key=lambda x: PROBABILITY_OVER_SAMPLES[x], reverse=True):
            probability_mass_selected_samples += PROBABILITY_OVER_SAMPLES[label]
            if probability_mass_selected_samples > 0.5:
                break
            samples_to_be_used_for_training.append(label)
        while decision_line_orientation in ORIENTATIONS_USED:
            decision_line_orientation = int(90 * random.uniform(0.1, 0.9))
            ORIENTATIONS_USED.append(decision_line_orientation)
        learned_weak_classifier = find_best_weak_linear_classifier_at_given_orientation(
            decision_line_orientation, samples_to_be_used_for_training)
        LEARNED_WEAK_CLASSIFIERS[t] = learned_weak_classifier
        orientation, threshold, polarity, error_over_training_samples = learned_weak_classifier
        THRESHOLDS_USED.append(threshold)
        POLARITIES_USED.append(polarity)
        # Now find the overall classification error (meaning error for all data
        # points) for this weak classifier. That will allows us to calculate how
        # much confidence we can place in this weak classifier.
        error = 0;
        for label in ALL_SAMPLE_LABELS:
            actual_label = label[:label.index('_')]
            data_point = ALL_SAMPLE_LABELS_WITH_DATA[label]
            predicted_label = weak_classify(data_point, orientation, threshold, polarity)
            if actual_label != predicted_label:
                error += PROBABILITY_OVER_SAMPLES[label]
        WEAK_CLASSIFIER_ERROR_RATES.append(error)
        if error > 0.00001:
            ALL_ALPHAS[t] = 0.5 * math.log((1 - error) / error)
        else:
            ALL_ALPHAS[t] = 5.0
        new_PROBABILITY_OVER_SAMPLES = {}
        for label in PROBABILITY_OVER_SAMPLES:
            actual_label = label[:label.index('_')]
            data_point_for_label = ALL_SAMPLE_LABELS_WITH_DATA[label]
            predicted_label = weak_classify(data_point_for_label, orientation, threshold, polarity)
            exponent_for_prob_mod = -1.0 if actual_label == predicted_label else 1
            new_PROBABILITY_OVER_SAMPLES[label] = PROBABILITY_OVER_SAMPLES[label] * \
                math.exp(exponent_for_prob_mod * ALL_ALPHAS[t])
        all_new_probabilities = new_PROBABILITY_OVER_SAMPLES.values()
        normalization = sum(all_new_probabilities)
        for label in new_PROBABILITY_OVER_SAMPLES:
            PROBABILITY_OVER_SAMPLES[label] = new_PROBABILITY_OVER_SAMPLES[label] / normalization
9: Some Support Routines

- Lines 27 and 40 of the script shown in the previous section make calls to the subroutine `weak_classify()` shown below:

```python
def weak_classify(data_point, decision_line_orientation, decision_threshold, polarity):
    assert polarity in [-1, 1], "you have a wrong value for polarity"  # (2)
    orient_in_rad = decision_line_orientation * math.pi / 180.0  # (3)
    # The following defines the pass-through-origin perp to the decision line:
    projection_vec = -1.0 * math.sin(orient_in_rad), math.cos(orient_in_rad)  # (4)
    if polarity == 1:  # (6)
        return "circle" if projection <= decision_threshold else "square"  # (7)
    if polarity == -1:  # (8)
        return "square" if projection <= decision_threshold else "circle"  # (9)
```

- The function shown above takes the following four arguments:
  - The first argument, `data_point`, is for the \((x, y)\) coordinates of the point that needs to be classified. The second, `decision_line_orientation`, is for the orientation of the decision line for the weak classifier. The third, `decision_threshold`, is for supplying to the subroutine the value for \(d_{th}\). And the last, `polarity`, is for the polarity of the weak classifier. The logic of how the weak classifier works should be obvious from the code in lines 4 and 5. We first construct a unit vector along the perpendicular to the decision line in line 4. This is followed by projecting the training data points on the unit vector.

- Next let’s consider the implementation of the final classifier
$H(x)$ described Section 5. The function `final_classify()` does this job and is presented on the next page.

- In the loop that starts in line 6 of the code shown on page 33, we first extract one weak classifier at a time from all the weak classifiers stored in the dictionary `LEARNED_WEAK_CLASSIFIERS`. We next call on the `weak_classify()` presented at the beginning of this section to classify our new data point.

- Subsequently, in line 10, we format the numbers associated with the weak classifiers in order to produce an output that is easy to read and that allows for the different weak classifier performances to be compared easily. This formatting allows for the sort of a printout shown on page 38.

- We aggregate the individual weak classification results in lines 14 through 20 according to the formula shown for $H(x)$ in Section 5.
def final_classify(data_point, outputstream):
    classification_results = []
    if outputstream == None:
        outputstream = sys.stdout
    outputstream.write( "\n" )
    for t in range(NUMBER_OF_WEAK_CLASSIFIERS):
        orientation, threshold, polarity, error = LEARNED_WEAK_CLASSIFIERS[t]
        result = weak_classify(data_point, orientation, threshold, polarity)
        error_rate = WEAK_CLASSIFIER_ERROR_RATES[t]
        outputstream.write("Weak classifier %d (orientation: %.3f threshold: %.3f \n	polarity: %d error_rate: %.3f): %s
" % (t, orientation, threshold,
					polarity, error_rate, result))
        classification_results.append(result)
    outputstream.write("CLASSIFICATIONS: @classification_results %s\n"
					str(classification_results) )
    aggregate = 0.0
    for i in range(len(classification_results)):
        if classification_results[i] == 'circle':
            multiplier = 1
        if classification_results[i] == 'square':
            multiplier = -1
        aggregate += multiplier * ALL_ALPHAS[i]
    return "circle" if aggregate >= 0 else "square"
10: Running the Demonstration Code in an Interactive Session

• All of the code shown so far is in the script file *AdaBoost.py* that you will find in the gzipped tar archive available from the URL:


  [If clicking on this link does not directly download the archive into your own computer, you may have to copy and paste the link in your browser for download.]

• After you have unzipped and untarred the archive, executing the Python script *AdaBoost.py* will place you in an interactive session in which you will be asked to enter the \((x, y)\) coordinates of a point to classify in the \([0, 1] \times [0, 1]\) box. The script will then provide you with the “circle” versus “square” classification for the point you entered. Before going into the details of this interactive session, let’s first see what all is done by the *AdaBoost.py* script.

• The script *AdaBoost.py* needs values for the following three user-defined global variables. The values currently set are shown below. But, obviously, you can change them as you wish.

```python
# USER SPECIFIED GLOBAL VARIABLES:
N1 = 100        # the "circle" points on page 19
```
N2 = 100  # the "square" points on page 19
NUMBER_OF_WEAK_CLASSIFIERS = 40

- With regard to what it accomplishes, the AdaBoost.py script first calls the two functions shown on pages 19 and 20 for generating the number of points specified through the global variables N1 and N2.

- Subsequently, it initializes the probability distribution over the training samples, as mentioned in Section 4.

- Finally, AdaBoost.py calls the following subroutines:

  ```python
  display_points_in_each_class(class_1, class_2, outputstream)
  visualize_data(class_1, class_2)
  adaboost(outputstream)
  visualize_all_orientations_used()
  interactive_demo()
  ```

where the first two calls are for the visualization of the training data. The call to `adaboost()` accomplishes what was explained in Section 8 of this tutorial. The last call above, `interactive_demo()` places the script in an interactive mode in which the user is prompted for the points \((x, y)\) to classify and the script returns the final classifications for the points, while also displaying the results produced by each weak classifier.

- Note the argument `outputstream` in the calls to
display_points_in_each_class() and adaboost(). The role played by this argument is explained in what follows.

- The value of the variable `outputstream` is set at the very beginning when you fire up the script `AdaBoost.py` depending on how you respond to the two prompts generated by the script. These prompts ask you whether you want the information related to the construction of the weak classifiers to be dumped in a file or to be displayed in your terminal window.

- When you are first becoming familiar with this Python code, I recommend that you answer 'no' to the two prompts. With that answer, no information related to the weak classifiers will be put out.

- Shown in the figure that follows are the decision lines chosen randomly by the `AdaBoost.py` script with the global parameters set as \( N1 = 100, \ N2 = 100, \) and \( \text{NUMBER OF WEAK CLASSIFIERS} = 40. \) The origin for the \((x, y)\) coordinates in the visualization is at the bottom-left corner. The perpendicular distance from the origin to each decision line is the decision threshold for that line. When the value of polarity associated with a decision line is +1, all data points above the line are declared to be squares and all those below as circles. As you would expect, a polarity of -1, has the opposite meaning. **I have not shown the polarity associated with each of the decision lines in the figure. However, if you run the**
demo code yourself, you will see the polarities printed out.

- The depictions of the weak-classifier decision lines shown above may appear counter-intuitive to you. Most people would expect the decision lines shown to circumscribe the embedded class represented by the circles (as would be the case for, say, a nonlinear SVM). To see why the decision lines make sense in the context of AdaBoost logic, you will need to recall how the lines relate to one another. The first decision line (you’ll need to see the information that is printed out when you run the demo to see which line is the first line) will obviously misclassify many training samples. Following AdaBoost logic, the second decision line will then work primarily on what was misclassified by the first decision line with its own threshold and polarity. And so on with the decision lines that follow. So
 unlike what happens in a nonlinear SVM, it is not as if the
decision lines are trying to separate the enclosed class from the
enclosing class from different directions.

- What follows is the code for `interactive_demo()`:

```python
def interactive_demo():
    print("This AdaBoost demonstration is based on the following randomly selected
decision line orientations for the weak classifiers: %s" % str(ORIENTATIONS_USED))
    print("The lines shown pass through the decision thresholds: %s" % str(THRESHOLDS_USED))
    print("The polarities used with the decision thresholds: %s" % str(POLARITIES_USED))
    while True:
        sys.stdout.write("Enter the coordinates of the point you wish to classify: ")
        if sys.version_info[0] == 3:
            answer = input()
        else:
            answer = raw_input()
        if answer == ":
            sys.exit("End of interactive demonstration")
        answer = answer.strip()
        nums = list(map( float, nums ))
        print("This AdaBoost demonstration is based on the following randomly selected
decision line orientations for the weak classifiers: %s" % str(ORIENTATIONS_USED))
        print("The lines shown pass through the decision thresholds: %s" % str(THRESHOLDS_USED))
        print("The polarities used [polarity of +1 means all samples above threshold declared 'SQUARES': %s" % str(POLARITIES_USED))
        predicted_class = final_classify(nums, outputstream)
        print("THE PREDICTED CLASS for the data point: %s" % str(predicted_class))
```

- The user-interactive script shown above starts out in lines 2, 3,
and 4 by printing out the decision line orientations, the decision
thresholds on the perpendiculaires to the lines, and the polarities
selected for the weak classifiers.

- The rest of the above script is an infinite loop in which the user
is asked for the \((x, y)\) coordinates of a point in the \([0, 1] \times [0, 1]\)
box that needs to be classified.

- Note that the calls in lines (14), (15), and (16) are intentionally repeated versions of the code in lines 2, 3, and 4. This is just for convenience so that you can see the overall parameters for the classifier at each iteration of the interaction with the script.

- Finally, in line 18, it calls the `final_classify()` function of the previous section to classify the point.

- A command-line invocation such as

  ```
  AdaBoost.py
  ```

  automatically places the script in the interactive mode.

- In the interactive mode, after displaying the training data through a plot such as the one shown on page 19, and the information related to each weak classifier constructed, the script prints out the following message for the user:

  ```
  Enter the coordinates of the point you wish to classify:
  ```

- Let’s say you enter the following coordinates: 0.2 0.7. Subsequently, the script will print out something like the following
Weak classifier 0 (or: 0 thr: 0.51 p: 1 err: 0.21): square
Weak classifier 1 (or: 151 thr: -0.10 p: -1 err: 0.35): square
Weak classifier 2 (or: 90 thr: -0.04 p: -1 err: 0.51): square
Weak classifier 3 (or: 25 thr: 0.30 p: -1 err: 0.57): circle
Weak classifier 4 (or: 3 thr: 0.41 p: -1 err: 0.46): circle
Weak classifier 5 (or: 162 thr: -0.07 p: -1 err: 0.45): circle
Weak classifier 6 (or: 41 thr: 0.23 p: -1 err: 0.56): circle
Weak classifier 7 (or: 117 thr: -0.07 p: -1 err: 0.43): square
Weak classifier 8 (or: 135 thr: -0.09 p: -1 err: 0.50): square
Weak classifier 9 (or: 148 thr: -0.09 p: -1 err: 0.49): square

classifications: -1 -1 -1 1 1 -1 1 -1 -1 -1

The predicted class for the data point: square

Enter the coordinates of the point you wish to classify:

- In the display shown above, I have abbreviated some of the labels the script prints out so as not to overflow the page boundaries. The 'or' label is actually printed out as 'orientation', the 'thr' label as 'threshold', 'p' as 'polarity', and, finally, the 'err' label as 'error_rate'.

- You can exit the interactive session by entering $\langle Ctrl-d \rangle$ in response to the prompt.
11: Designing a Classifier Cascade

- If you have made this far into the tutorial, it’s time to read again Section 1 “Monolithic vs. Cascaded Classifiers”. The last bullet in Section 1 said that the AdaBoost algorithm lends itself well to designing a cascaded classifier with a specific performance metric. The question now is: How exactly does that work?

- Shown in the figure below is a $K$-stage cascade.

- Recall from Section 1 of this tutorial that we want each stage of the cascade to operate with roughly the same true-positive rate of $TP$ and with roughly the same false-positive rate of $FP$. With $K$ stages as shown in the figure, that would imply an overall true-positive rate of $TP^K$ and an overall false-positive rate of $FP^K$. As was pointed out in Section 1, if the per-stage $FP$ is 0.3, that would imply the overall false-positive rate of approximately $10^{-6}$. [To explain the multiplicative changes in the true-positive and the
false-positive rates for the case of a face detector as you add more detector stages to the cascade, note that for a per-stage TP rate of 0.99 and a per-stage FP rate of 0.3, the first detector is going to let through 99% of the correct faces and and 30% of the blobs that are not faces as faces. The second detector will do the same. Therefore, the number of true faces that will make it past the second detector will be $0.99^2$ and the number of non-face blobs that will make it past the second detector as faces will be $0.3^2$. And so on.

- Obviously, the same power law will cause the overall true-positive rate to decline to $T P^K$ as indicated above. In order for $T P^K$ to be an acceptable number like, say, 0.9, the per-stage true-positive rate must be very high, say like 0.99.

- **So the problem of designing a cascade boils down to creating each stage of classification with a very high true-positive rate, like, say, 0.99, and a moderate false-positive rate like, say, 0.3.**

- **Setting the true-positive rate of each stage to an arbitrarily high-value like 0.99 is trivial.** Assuming that each stage of the cascade is created with the AdaBoost algorithm, as you know from Eq. (7) in Section 5, the final classifier makes its decision by computing the value of $H(x)$ for a sample $x$ of the training data:

$$H(x) = \text{sign}\left(\sum_{t=1}^{T} \alpha_t h_t(x)\right)$$

To review how this final classifier was used in Section 5, should $H(x)$ turn out to be positive, we declare the sample $x$ as belonging to class ’+1’; and should it turn out to be negative, we declare $x$ to belong to class ’-1’. To generalize this definition to our needs here, we carry out the following comparison
against a decision threshold $d$:

$$\sum_{t=1}^{T} \alpha_t h_t(x) > d$$

(10)

Should the summation exceed the threshold $d$, we declare the input sample $x$ to belong to class '+1', otherwise declare it as belonging to class '-1'. **For a given detector, we can set $d$ to whatever it takes for the true-positive rate to be as desired.**

- Now that you can see how trivial it is to set the $TP$ rate for a detector at any desired level, I need to show how we can get the $FP$ rate to also correspond to the desired level. **This is exactly where AdaBoost comes to our rescue for designing each stage of the cascade shown in the figure on page 41.** We proceed as follows:

For each stage of Cascade:

At each iteration $t$ of the AdaBoost Algorithm:

Select training samples in accordance with the probability distribution as set at iteration $t-1$

Scan through all weak classifiers to discover the one with the smallest misclassification error over the data used for this iteration. Denote this classifier $h(t)$

Using all the weak classifiers $h_1$ through $h_t$, construct a composite classifier $H(x)$ according to Eq. (10). Choose for the decision threshold $d$ whatever value makes $TP$ of $H(x)$ equal to the target for this stage of the cascade.

With the decision threshold $d$ set as above, find the $FP$ rate associated with the composite classifier $H(x)$.

If $FP < \text{target FP}$:

declare Done with this stage

else:

    go to iteration $t+1$ of the AdaBoost algorithm for the current stage
The important thing to note is that the number of AdaBoost iterations in each stage is no longer fixed. You keep on iterating with additional weak classifiers until you have achieved the targeted false-positive rate for the state.

For such logic to work, you have to have a large number of weak classifiers at your disposal. In a classic paper on face recognition by Viola and Jones, they scanned images with $24 \times 24$ windows for face detection. Each $24 \times 24$ window was characterized with 160,000 features, which each feature serving as a candidate weak classifier for the face in that window. [All of these features were Haar-like features you have already seen in our discussion of the SURF interest point operator in Lecture 9. The big difference between the Haar-like features for SURF and the same here is that they are convolutional operators in SURF but that is not the case here. Consider, for example, the $1 \times 8$ feature '00001111', which stands for the sum of pixel values where 0’s are to be be subtracted from the sum of pixel values where 1’s are. In SURF, you convolve the image with such a feature, but here each position of such an operator in a $24 \times 24$ window is a separate feature. Such a feature at each of its positions in a $24 \times 24$ window speaks for the presence or the absence of a face in the entire $24 \times 24$ window.]

Finally, a note of caution: Sometimes people loosely refer to each iteration of the AdaBoost algorithm as a stage. That can lead to a lot of confusion in the context of a cascaded classifier framework. An AdaBoost iteration is what goes into discovering each weak classifier inside one stage of a cascade.
12: Introduction to Codeword-Based Learning for Solving Multiclass Problems

- The rest of this tutorial is concerned with using AdaBoost when you have more than two classes to deal with.

- A not-so-uncommon way to use a binary classifier (such as, say, SVM or AdaBoost) for solving a multiclass classification problem is to devise a set of binary classifiers, with each binary classifier comparing one class against all the others. So if your data is modeled by $N_c$ classes, you would need $N_c$ one-versus-the-rest binary classifiers for solving the problem.

- In this tutorial, I will use a different strategy for solving a multiclass classification problem with AdaBoost. This strategy is based on codeword based learning.

- So what’s codeword based learning of multiclass discriminations?

- The next several bullets explain this new idea that was first introduced by Dietterich and Bakiri in their seminal paper “Solving Multiclass Learning Problems via Error-Correcting Output Codes,” Journal of Artificial Intelligence Research,
1995. The example that I present to explain codeword based learning is drawn from the introduction to the paper by Dietterich and Bakiri

- Consider the problem of digit recognition in handwritten material. We want to assign a digit to one of ten classes. A structural approach to solving this problem consists of identifying the presence or absence of six features in each digit and basing the final classification on which features are found to be present and which ones to be absent.

- The six structural features are:
  
  vl: contains vertical line  
  hl: contains horizontal line  
  dl: contains diagonal line  
  cc: contains close curve  
  ol: contains curve open to the left  
  or: contains curve open to the right

- The presence or the absence of these features for each of the 10 digit classes may now be indicated by the following codeword matrix:
Note that each row in the table shown above is distinct so that each digit has a unique codeword.

- Let’s now assume that we only have binary classifiers at our disposal. How can we use such classifiers to solve the multiclass recognition problem mentioned earlier in this section?

- If all we have are binary classifiers, each column of the matrix presented above can be learned by a binary classifier from all of the training data in the following manner: Let’s say we have 1000 training samples of handwritten digits available to us, distributed uniformly with respect to all the ten digits. For the learning of the first column, we divide the set of training samples into two halves, one containing the digits labeled 1, 4, and 5, and the other containing the digits labeled 0, 2, 3, 6, 7, 8, and 9. We now use an SVM or AdaBoost to create a binary classifier for making a distinction between these TWO categories, the first corresponding to the digits 1, 4, and 5 and the second category corresponding to the rest. We can refer to this binary classifier as \( f_{vl} \).
In this manner, we construct six binary classifiers, one for each column of the codeword matrix shown above. We may labels the six binary classifiers as

\[ f_{vl} \quad f_{hl} \quad f_{dl} \quad f_{cc} \quad f_{ol} \quad f_{or} \]

Now when we want to predict the class label of a new digit, we apply each of these six binary classifiers to the pixels for the digit. If the output of each binary classifier is thresholded to result in 0,1 classification, the output produced by the six binary classifiers will be a six-bit codeword like 110001. We assign to the new digit the class label of the row of the codeword matrix which is at the shortest Hamming distance from the codeword extracted for the new digit.

For example, if the six binary classifiers yielded the codeword 110001 for the new data, you would give it the class label 4 since, of all the codewords shown in the matrix above, the Hamming distance from 110001 is the shortest to the codeword 110000 that corresponds to the digit 4. Recall that the Hamming distance measures the number of bit positions in which two codewords differ.

Does the basic idea of codeword based learning as presented above suffer from any shortcomings? I examine this issue next.

If the six features that correspond to the six columns of the
codeword matrix shown above could be measured precisely, then the basic approach outlined above should work perfectly.

- In reality, unfortunately, there will always be errors associated with the extraction of those features from a blob of pixels. Yes, the basic approach does give us a little bit of wiggle room for dealing with such errors since we only use 10 out of 64 (= $2^6$) different possible codewords and since Hamming distance is used to map the measured codeword to the nearest codeword in the matrix for classification. However, the degree of protection against errors is rather limited.

- If $d$ is the shortest Hamming distance between any pair of the codewords in the codeword matrix, the basic approach protects us against making at most $\left\lfloor \frac{d-1}{2} \right\rfloor$ errors in the extraction of the codeword for a new object to be classified.

- For the codeword matrix shown on page 47, the smallest distance is only 1 between the codewords for the digit 4 and 5. The distance is also just 1 for the digit 7 and 8 and for 8 and 9. What that means is that the codeword matrix of page 47 cannot tolerate any errors at all in the output of the six binary classifiers. [Even if we did not use a set of binary classifiers to learn that codeword matrix and relied on directly extracting the six structural features listed at the top of page 47, representing the classes in the manner shown in the matrix of page 47 does not allow for any errors in the extraction of the six features.]
• Let’s now see how the basic idea of a codeword matrix can be generalized to give us greater protection against measurement errors.

• The idea that is used for the generalization we need is based on what’s known as error correction coding (ECC) that’s used for reliable communications over noisy channels and for increasing the reliability of data storage in modern computers.

• In the ECC based approach to codeword matrix design, we are allowed to assign codewords of arbitrary length to the classes. (This is subject to the constraint that for $k$ classes, you will have a maximum of $2^k$ columns in the codeword matrix if you want the columns to be distinct.)

• For the 10 classes of digit recognition, shown on the next page is an example drawn from the paper by Dietterich and Bakiri in which we assign 15-bit codewords to the classes:
### AdaBoost Tutorial by Avi Kak

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class</th>
<th>f0</th>
<th>f1</th>
<th>f2</th>
<th>f3</th>
<th>f4</th>
<th>f5</th>
<th>f6</th>
<th>f7</th>
<th>f8</th>
<th>f9</th>
<th>f10</th>
<th>f11</th>
<th>f12</th>
<th>f13</th>
<th>f14</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
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<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>8</td>
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<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Note that the columns in the codeword matrix shown above carry no meaning — unlike the columns in the codeword matrix of page 47 where each column stood for a visual feature.

- So you can think of the codewords shown above as having been assigned more or less arbitrarily to the 10 different classes of interest to us. [As we will soon see, there do exist certain constraints on how the different codewords are laid out. Nonetheless, these constraints do not arise from a need to make the columns of the matrix meaningful in the sense they are on page 47.]

- One thing we can be certain about is that with so many more codewords possible with the 15 bits we now use ($2^{15} = 32768$), we can make sure that we have a large minimum Hamming distance between any pair of codewords in the matrix.

- As before, we can use either SVM or AdaBoost classifier for the learning required for each column of the codeword matrix on the previous page. [Let’s denote the binary classifier for learning the first
column by \( f_0 \). We can acquire \( f_0 \) by dividing our training samples into two categories, one with the training samples for the classes \{0, 2, 4, 6, 8\}, and the other for the classes \{1, 3, 5, 7, 9\}. The purpose of \( f_0 \) will be to discriminate between these two categories. Similarly, to learn \( f_1 \), the binary classifier for the second column of the codeword matrix, we would need to divide the training data between the positive examples consisting of the samples for the classes \{0, 4, 5, 8, 9\} and the negative examples consisting of the samples for the classes \{1, 2, 3, 6, 7\}. And so on.

- Dietterich and Bakiri list the following two criteria for choosing the codewords for the different classes for solving the multiclass problem:

  1. **Row Separation**: The minimum Hamming distance between any two rows of the codeword matrix should be as large as possible.

  2. **Column Separation**: The minimum Hamming distance between any two columns should be large. The minimum Hamming distance between any column and the complement of every other column should also be large.

- The first criterion follows directly from how the “decoding” step — meaning predicting a class label for a binary code word as extracted from a test sample — is supposed to work (see page 48).

- Regarding the second criterion, it is based on the fact that the logic of error correction coding (assigning to a codeword extracted for a new object the class label for the
Hamming-nearest codeword in the codeword matrix) works only when the bit-wise errors committed for the different columns of the codeword matrix are uncorrelated.

- If two columns are nearly the same, or if one column is close to being the same as the complement of another column, the bit-wise errors for two different positions in the codeword will be correlated (in the sense that one error will be predictable from the other).

- As I said earlier, if you have $k$ classes, the largest number of columns you can have in your codeword matrix is $2^k$. To all these columns, you must apply the Column Separation criterion mentioned on the previous page.

- The Column Separation criterion makes it difficult to create codeword matrices for cases when the number of classes is less than 5. [For example, when you have only 3 classes, you have $k = 3$. In this case, you can have a maximum of 8 ($= 2^3$) columns. If you eliminate from these the all-zeros and the all-ones columns, you are left with only 6 columns. Now if you eliminate the complements of the columns, you will be left with only 3 columns for the three classes. That does not give you much error protection in a codeword based approach to multiclass learning.]

- The smallest number of classes in which the codeword based approach to learning works is $k = 5$. Dietterich and Bakiri have
provided the following codeword matrix for this number of classes:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class</th>
<th>f0</th>
<th>f1</th>
<th>f2</th>
<th>f3</th>
<th>f4</th>
<th>f5</th>
<th>f6</th>
<th>f7</th>
<th>f8</th>
<th>f9</th>
<th>f10</th>
<th>f11</th>
<th>f12</th>
<th>f13</th>
<th>f14</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- The above codeword matrix for a 5-class problem was obtained by exhaustively searching through the different possible 15-bit codewords for the best set that satisfied the two criteria on page 52.

- In the next section, we will use the codeword matrix shown above to solve a contrived 5-class problem.
13: AdaBoost for Codeword-Based Learning of Multiclass Discriminations

- In the code archive that you can download from the URL:
  

  in addition to the Python file `AdaBoost.py` that I have already talked about, you will also find a Perl file named

  `MulticlassAdaBoost.pl`

  that is meant for showing how AdaBoost can be used to learn multiclass discriminations. [By “multiclass”, I mean more than two classes.]

- Multiclass application of AdaBoost will be demonstrated on the sort of randomly generated class distributions shown in the figure on the next page.
- When I say that the five distributions in the above figure are “randomly generated,” what I mean is that when you work with the code in an interactive mode, for each interactive session you will see a different distribution for the five classes in the figure. Of course, for each session you can feed in as many test data points as you wish for classification and all of those classifications will be carried out with the same training data.

- Since you already know how AdaBoost works, I’ll present this part of the tutorial in a top-down fashion with regard to the content of the file MulticlassAdaBoost.pl.

- The file MulticlassAdaBoost.pl starts out with the
declarations:

my $NUMBER_OF_CLASSES = 5;
my $N = 20;
my $NUMBER_OF_WEAK_CLASSIFIERS = 10;
my %CODEWORD_MATRIX;
$CODEWORD_MATRIX{0} = [ qw/ 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 / ];
$CODEWORD_MATRIX{1} = [ qw/ 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 / ];
$CODEWORD_MATRIX{2} = [ qw/ 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 0 0 0 0 1 1 / ];
$CODEWORD_MATRIX{3} = [ qw/ 0 1 1 0 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 0 1 / ];
$CODEWORD_MATRIX{4} = [ qw/ 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 / ];

where the variable $N holds the number of data samples per class, and the variable $NUMBER_OF_WEAK_CLASSIFIERS specifies how many weak classifiers to construct for each column of the codeword matrix. The codeword matrix shown above is the one recommended by Dietterich and Bakiri.

- Next, the file MulticlassAdaBoost.pl declares the following global variables:

my %TRAINING_DATA;
my %ALL_SAMPLE_LABELS_WITH_DATA;
my %COLUMN;
my $NUMBER_OF_COLUMNS;
my %POSITIVE_CLASSES_FOR_ALL_COLUMNS;
my %NEGATIVE_CLASSES_FOR_ALL_COLUMNS;
my %ORIENTATIONS_USED_FOR_ALL_COLUMNS;
my %WEAK_CLASSIFIERS_FOR_ALL_COLUMNS;
my %WEAK_CLASSIFIER_ERROR_RATES_FOR_ALL_COLUMNS;
my %ALPHAS_FOR_ALL_COLUMNS;

Several of these variables, whose names should convey the purpose they serve, are meant for convenience. While all of the training data for all the classes is held in the hash %TRAINING_DATA where the keys are the class indexes, we also store the same data in the hash %ALL_SAMPLE_LABELS_WITH_DATA where the keys are the "class-x-sample-i" tags
associated with the different data points. The hash %COLUMNS holds the individual
columns of the %CODEWORD_MATRIX hash introduced earlier. The keys of the %COLUMNS
hash are the column indexes and the values the columns of the codeword matrix. The
variable $NUMBER_OF_COLUMNS is set to the number of columns of the codeword matrix.]

- The variables %POSITIVE_CLASSES_FOR_ALL_COLUMNS and
  %CLASSES_CLASSES_FOR_ALL_COLUMNS shown on the previous page store for each column the positive classes and negative classes, respectively. [To explain what is meant by positive and negative classes for a column, let’s look at the column indexed 0 in the codeword matrix shown on page 54. For this column, there exists just a single positive class, which is the class indexed 0. On the other hand, this column has 4 negative classes, these being classes index 1, 2, 3, 4. Along the same lines, for the column indexed 1 on page 54, the positive classes are indexed 0 and 4, and the negative classes indexed 1, 2, and 3.] The positive and the negative classes for the different columns of the codeword matrix are set by:

```
sub set_positive_and_negative_classes_for_columns {
  $NUMBER_OF_COLUMNS = @{$CODEWORD_MATRIX{0}};
  foreach my $col_index (0..$NUMBER_OF_COLUMNS-1) {
    my @column_bits = @{$COLUMNS{$col_index}};
    my (@positive_classes, @negative_classes);
    foreach my $bit_index (0..@column_bits-1) {
      push @{$POSITIVE_CLASSES_FOR_ALL_COLUMNS{$col_index}},
        $bit_index if $column_bits[$bit_index];
      push @{$NEGATIVE_CLASSES_FOR_ALL_COLUMNS{$col_index}},
        $bit_index unless $column_bits[$bit_index];
    }
  }
}
```

- Starting with page 60, I show the workhorse of
MulticlassBadaBoost.pl script. It’s this script’s job to create all of the weak classifiers for the binary classification for the positive and the negative examples designated by the 1’s and the 0’s of a given column of the codeword matrix. The index of the column that this script is supposed to work on is supplied as its argument. In the script itself, the column index becomes the value of the local variable $col\_index$ in line 1.

- Lines 2 through 14 of the script on page 60 are primarily for initializing the probability distribution of the training samples in accordance with the comments made earlier in Section 4.

- The search for the weak classifiers begins in line 20. In lines 21 through 31, we use the current probability distribution over the training samples to choose a subset of the training data for the next weak classifier.

- The logic used in lines 32 through 63 for the construction of a weak classifier is exactly the same as described in Section 7 of this tutorial. [For a weak classifier, we randomly choose an orientation for the decision line, an example of which was shown in the figure on page 22. We then move this decision along its perpendicular until we find a position where the classification error rate over the training samples being used is the least. When we find the best position of the decision line, we take into account both polarities for the classification rule expressed by the decision line. The best location of the line on the perpendicular gives us the decision threshold $d_{th}$ to use for this weak classifier.]
• In lines 65 through 70, we set the value of $\alpha_t$ as required by Step 4 in Section 5. Note that the implementation you see for the calculation of $\alpha_t$ differs from its analytical form in Section 5. The reason is that the analytical form shown in Section 5 becomes problematic when the error rate $\epsilon_t$ is zero. As shown in line 69, when the error rate is less than 0.00001, we clamp $\alpha_t$ at a high value of 5.

• Lines 71 through 103 are devoted to the calculation of the new probability distribution over the training samples according to the classification errors made by the weak classifier just constructed. This calculation uses the formula shown in Step 5 in Section 5.

```perl
sub generate_weak_classifiers_for_one_column_of_codeword_matrix {
  my $col_index = shift;
  my @positive_classes = @{$POSITIVE_CLASSES_FOR_ALL_COLUMNS{$col_index}};
  my @negative_classes = @{$NEGATIVE_CLASSES_FOR_ALL_COLUMNS{$col_index}};
  my $N_positives = 0;
  foreach my $class_index (@positive_classes) {
    $N_positives += @{$TRAINING_DATA{$class_index}};
  }
  my $N_negatives = 0;
  foreach my $class_index (@negative_classes) {
    $N_negatives += @{$TRAINING_DATA{$class_index}};
  }
  my $N_total = $N_positives + $N_negatives;
  my %probability_over_samples;
  foreach my $label (keys %ALL_SAMPLE_LABELS_WITH_DATA) {
    $probability_over_samples{$label} = 1.0 / $N_total;
  }
  my $decision_line_orientation = 0;
}
foreach my $t (0..$NUMBER_OF_WEAK_CLASSIFIERS-1) {
    my @samples_to_be_used_for_training = ();
    # Select training samples for the current weak classifier:
    my $probability_mass_selected_samples = 0;
    foreach my $label (sort {$probability_over_samples{$b} <=> $probability_over_samples{$a} }
        keys %probability_over_samples) {
        $probability_mass_selected_samples += $probability_over_samples{$label};
        last if $probability_mass_selected_samples > 0.8;
        push @samples_to_be_used_for_training, $label;
    }
    while (contained_in($decision_line_orientation,
        @{$ORIENTATIONS_USED_FOR_ALL_COLUMNS{$col_index}})) {
        $decision_line_orientation =
            int(180 * Math::Random::random_uniform());
    }
    push @{$ORIENTATIONS_USED_FOR_ALL_COLUMNS{$col_index}},
        $decision_line_orientation;
    my $learned_weak_classifier =
        find_best_weak_linear_classifier_at_given_orientation(
            $decision_line_orientation, \@positive_classes,
            \@negative_classes);
    push @{$WEAK_CLASSIFIERS_FOR_ALL_COLUMNS{$col_index}},
        $learned_weak_classifier;
    my ($orientation, $threshold, $polarity,
        $error_over_training_samples) = @{$learned_weak_classifier};
    my $error = 0;
    foreach my $label (keys %ALL_SAMPLE_LABELS_WITH_DATA) {
        my $data_point = $ALL_SAMPLE_LABELS_WITH_DATA{$label};
        my $predicted_label = weak_classify($data_point,
            $orientation, $threshold, $polarity);
        $label =~ /class_(\d+)_sample/;
        my $class_index_for_label = $1;
        next if (contained_in($class_index_for_label,
            @positive_classes) &&
            ($predicted_label eq 'positive') ||
            (contained_in($class_index_for_label,
                @negative_classes) &&
            ($predicted_label eq 'negative')));
    $error += $probability_over_samples{$label};
    }
    push @{$WEAK_CLASSIFIER_ERROR_RATES_FOR_ALL_COLUMNS{$col_index}},
        $error;
if ($error > 0.00001) {
    $ALPHAS_FOR_ALL_COLUMNS{$col_index}->[$t] = 0.5 * log((1 - $error) / $error);
} else {
    $ALPHAS_FOR_ALL_COLUMNS{$col_index}->[$t] = 5;
}

my %new_probability_over_samples;
for my $label (keys %probability_over_samples) {
    my $data_point_for_label = $ALL_SAMPLE_LABELS_WITH_DATA{$label};
    my $predicted_label = weak_classify($data_point_for_label, $orientation, $threshold, $polarity);
    my $exponent_for_prob_mod;
    $label =~ /class_(\d+)_sample/;
    my $class_index_for_label = $1;
    if ((contained_in($class_index_for_label, @positive_classes) && ($predicted_label eq 'positive')) ||
        (contained_in($class_index_for_label, @negative_classes) && ($predicted_label eq 'negative')) ) {
        $exponent_for_prob_mod = -1.0;
    } else {
        $exponent_for_prob_mod = 1.0;
    }
    $new_probability_over_samples{$label} = $probability_over_samples{$label} * exp($exponent_for_prob_mod * $ALPHAS_FOR_ALL_COLUMNS{$col_index}->[$t]);
}

my @all_new_probabilities = values %new_probability_over_samples;
my $normalization = 0;
foreach my $prob (@all_new_probabilities) {
    $normalization += $prob;
}
for my $label (keys %new_probability_over_samples) {
    $probability_over_samples{$label} = $new_probability_over_samples{$label} / $normalization;
}
}
Another subroutine that plays a key role in the codeword based multiclass discriminations is 

final_classify_for_one_column_of_codeword_matrix() whose job is to aggregate the classifications returned by each of the weak classifiers for a given column and return the final classifications of a new data point. Shown on the next page is the implementation of this subroutine. [This subroutine takes two arguments, the column index and the data point you want to classify. These become the values of local variables in lines 1 and 2 on the next page.]

After fetching the weak classifiers for the designated column in lines 3 and 4, the loop in lines 8 through 26 queries each of the weak classifiers and formats their output for the presentation of the results in lines 25 through 28.

For aggregating the results returned by the individual weak classifiers, we use the formula in Section 5. This aggregation is implemented in lines 33 through 44.

Note that the call to weak_classify() in line 11 has the same implementation as shown previously in Section 9.

sub final_classify_for_one_column_of_codeword_matrix {
    my $col_index = shift;
    my $data_point = shift;
    my $number_of_weak_classifiers_for_this_column = scalar( @{$WEAK_CLASSIFIERS_FOR_ALL_COLUMNS{$col_index}} );
}
my @classification_results;
my @weak_classifiers_for_this_column =
   @{$WEAK_CLASSIFIERS_FOR_ALL_COLUMNS{$col_index}};
foreach my $t (0..$number_of_weak_classifiers_for_this_column-1) {
   my ($orientation, $threshold, $polarity, $error) =
      @{$weak_classifiers_for_this_column[$t]};
   my $result = weak_classify($data_point, $orientation,
      $threshold, $polarity);
   if ($result eq "positive") {
      push @classification_results, $result;
   } elsif ($result eq "negative") {
      push @classification_results, $result;
   } else {
      push @classification_results, $result;
   }
   $orientation = $orientation > 0 ? " positive": $orientation;
   $polarity = $polarity > 0 ? " positive": $polarity;
   "[(orientation: $orientation, threshold: $threshold,
      polarity: $polarity, error_rate: $error_rate), "$result
   "];
}
#For weighted pooling of the results returned by the different
#classifiers, treat "positive" as +1 and "negative" as -1
@classification_results =
   map {s/positive/1/;$_} @classification_results;
@classification_results =
   map {s/negative/-1/;$_} @classification_results;
print "[(Column $col_index) Weak classifier $t ".
   "(orientation: $orientation, threshold: $threshold,
      polarity: $polarity, error_rate: $error_rate), "$result
   "];
my $aggregate = 0;
foreach my $i (0..@classification_results-1) {
   $aggregate += $classification_results[$i] *
      $ALPHAS_FOR_ALL_COLUMNS{$col_index}->{[$i]};
}
return $aggregate >= 0 ? "positive": "negative";
14: An Interactive Session That Shows the Power of a Single Column of Codeword Matrix as a Binary Classifier

- When you first fire up MulticlassAdaBoost.pl, it will prompt you for whether you want the multiclass classifier as learned from the entire codeword matrix, or a single binary classifier for a single column of the matrix. If you opt for the latter, the script will enter the column-interactive mode and it will ask you to enter the column index for the column you are interested in.

- When you choose the single-column option in your response to the prompts, the script invokes the overall_interactive() subroutine.

- Shown on the next page is the implementation of the subroutine column_interactive().

- The interactive part of the script is the infinite loop in lines 12 through 36. The code in lines 13 through 26 first prompts the user for data entry and then checks that what the user entered makes sense. Line 17 is to allow for a user to terminate the interactive session at any time by entering ⟨Ctrl – d⟩.
• The result returned by calling final_classify_for_one_column_of_codeword_matrix() in line 27 is either 'positive' or 'negative'. The former means that the data point supplied by the user belongs to one the positive classes for this class as fetched in line 2 of the script. And the latter means that the result belongs to one of the negative classes fetched in line 4.

```perl
sub column_interactive {
    my $col_index = shift;
    my @positive_classes = @{$POSITIVE_CLASSES_FOR_ALL_COLUMNS{$col_index}};
    my @negative_classes = @{$NEGATIVE_CLASSES_FOR_ALL_COLUMNS{$col_index}};
    generate_weak_classifiers_for_one_column_of_codeword_matrix($col_index);
    print "This column-specific demonstration is based on " .
        "the following randomly selected decision line " .
        "orientations for the weak classifiers: " .
        " @{$ORIENTATIONS_USED_FOR_ALL_COLUMNS{$col_index}}\n"
    for (;;) {
        print "Enter the coordinates of the point you wish to classify: ";
        my $answer = <STDIN>;
        chomp $answer;
        die 'End of interactive demonstration' unless $answer;
        my @nums = split / /, $answer;
        unless (($nums[0] =~ /$_num_regex/) &&
            ($nums[1] =~ /$_num_regex/)) {
            print "You entered an illegal character. " .
                "Try again or enter Ctrl-D to exit\n’’;
            next;
        }
        my $predicted_class = final_classify_for_one_column_of_codeword_matrix($col_index, @nums);
        if ($predicted_class eq 'positive') {
            print "The data point (@nums) is predicted to be in ".
        }
    }
}```
When you invoke `MulticlassAdaBoost.pl` in the column-interactive mode, you will see a popup window with a plot such as the one shown on page 56 and the following sort of output in your terminal window:

```
=> MulticlassAdaBoost.pl

Prining out the points in class 0:
class_0_sample_0 0.0388130199253125 0.306701274378974
class_0_sample_1 -0.0483082434657033 0.333167487289401
....
Prining out the points in class 1:
class_1_sample_0 0.439181892150296 0.15767914403357
class_1_sample_1 0.341741264689717 0.290947662466462
....
Prining out the points in class 2:
class_2_sample_0 0.62339139639785 0.233743754191426
class_2_sample_1 0.663987994007291 0.185020510091793
....

Prining out the points in class 3:
class_3_sample_0 0.0119872353686556 0.505153721523502
class_3_sample_1 0.192827443382858 0.416779605628115
....
....

Column 0: 1 0 0 0 0
Column 1: 1 0 0 0 1
Column 2: 1 0 0 1 0
```
Column 3: 1 0 0 1 1

....
....

This column-specific demonstration is based on the following randomly selected decision line orientations for the weak classifiers: 0 173 55 37 96 105 174 113 166 30

Enter the coordinates of the point you wish to classify:

You enter the coordinates of the point you wish to classify in response to the prompt you see at the bottom.

Let’s say you enter something like “0.2 0.6” in response to the prompt. Next, the system will come back with the following sort of classification results for your point:

[Column 5] Weak classifier 0 (.........): positive
[Column 5] Weak classifier 1 (.........): positive
[Column 5] Weak classifier 2 (.........): negative
[Column 5] Weak classifier 3 (.........): negative
[Column 5] Weak classifier 4 (.........): negative
[Column 5] Weak classifier 5 (.........): negative
[Column 5] Weak classifier 6 (.........): positive
[Column 5] Weak classifier 7 (.........): negative
[Column 5] Weak classifier 8 (.........): positive
[Column 5] Weak classifier 9 (.........): negative
[Column 5] weak classifications: 1 1 -1 -1 -1 -1 1 1 -1 -1

The data point (0.2 0.6) is predicted to be in one of these classes: 1 3

Enter the coordinates of the point you wish to classify:

where I have suppressed a lot of information regarding each weak classifier that is printed out inside the parentheses that currently just have dots.
• Each row of the output shown on the previous page starts with the column of the codeword matrix whose discriminatory power you are investigating. Recall that any single column can only carry out a binary classification into two groups of classes, those corresponding to the 1’s in the column and those corresponding to the 0’s in the column.

• When a weak classifier reports ’positive’ for the classification of the point you supplied, it means that, according to the weak classifier, the point belongs to the classes corresponding to the 1’s in the column. Similarly, for the ’negative’ classification.
15: An Interactive Session for Demonstrating Multiclass Classification with AdaBoost

• If you entered “1” in response to the prompt when you first fired up MulticlassAdaBoost.pl, the demo will work in the overall-interactive mode. In this mode, you will again see the output that was shown in a highly abbreviated form on page 67 for the column-interactive mode of operation of the script. As mentioned there, the output ends in the following prompt:

Enter the coordinates of the point you wish to classify:

• You are also shown a plot of the sort you saw on page 56 to help you decide what coordinates you should supply for classification. Let’s say you entered “0.2 0.3” in response to the question shown above, you will see the kind of output that is displayed as shown below.

[Column 0] Weak classifier 0 (..........): negative
[Column 0] Weak classifier 1 (..........): negative
....
[Column 0] weak classifications: -1 -1 -1 -1 -1 -1 -1 -1 -1 -1
[Column 1] Weak classifier 0 (..........): negative
[Column 1] Weak classifier 1 (..........): negative
....
[Column 1] weak classifications: -1 -1 -1 -1 -1 -1 -1 -1 -1 -1
[Column 2] Weak classifier 0 (..........): negative
[Column 2] Weak classifier 1 (..........): negative

[Column 2] weak classifications: -1 -1 -1 -1 -1 -1 -1 -1 -1 -1
[Column 3] Weak classifier 0 (..........): negative
[Column 3] Weak classifier 1 (..........): negative

[Column 3] weak classifications: -1 -1 -1 -1 -1 -1 -1 1 -1 -1
[Column 4] Weak classifier 0 (..........): negative
[Column 4] Weak classifier 1 (..........): positive

[Column 4] weak classifications: -1 1 -1 1 1 -1 -1 -1 -1 -1
[Column 5] Weak classifier 0 (..........): positive
[Column 5] Weak classifier 1 (..........): positive

[Column 5] weak classifications: 1 1 -1 -1 -1 -1 1 -1 -1 -1
[Column 6] Weak classifier 0 (..........): positive
[Column 6] Weak classifier 1 (..........): positive

[Column 6] weak classifications: 1 1 -1 -1 -1 -1 -1 -1 -1 -1
[Column 7] Weak classifier 0 (..........): positive
[Column 7] Weak classifier 1 (..........): positive

[Column 7] weak classifications: 1 1 -1 1 1 1 -1 1 -1 -1
[Column 8] Weak classifier 0 (..........): negative
[Column 8] Weak classifier 1 (..........): negative

[Column 8] weak classifications: 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1

Predicted codeword for point (.2 .3) is: 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 1

Predicted class label for (0.2 0.3): 1 [with Hamming Distance: 0]

Enter the coordinates of the point you wish to classify:

● Note the final classification result near the bottom of the display
shown above. It says that the predicted class label is ’1’. It also says that the Hamming distance between the binary code word obtained from the 15 columns of the codeword matrix and the codeword corresponding to class 1 is zero. In this case, we happen to be right on target. A cool thing about this user interaction is that you can verify the accuracy of the predicted class label by examining your point on the plot (like the one shown on page 56) that stays on your screen.

- In the overall-interactive, the data point you want to classify is handed over to the function `final_classify_with_all_columns()` whose implementation is shown next.

```perl
sub final_classify_with_all_columns {  
    my $data_point = shift;  
    my @prediction_codeword;  
    foreach my $col_index (0..$NUMBER_OF_COLUMNS-1) {  
        generate_weak_classifiers_for_one_column_of_codeword_matrix(  
            $col_index) unless $WEAK_CLASSIFIERS_ALREADY_GENERATED;  
        my $predicted_class =  
            final_classify_for_one_column_of_codeword_matrix(  
                $col_index, $data_point);  
        push @prediction_codeword, 1 if $predicted_class eq 'positive';  
        push @prediction_codeword, 0 if $predicted_class eq 'negative';  
    }  
    print "The predicted codeword for the data point @{$data_point} is: @prediction_codeword
’’;  
    my $number_of_rows = scalar(keys %CODEWORD_MATRIX);  
    my %hamming_distance;  
    foreach my $row_index (0..$number_of_rows-1) {  
        my @codeword = @{$CODEWORD_MATRIX{$row_index}};  
        $hamming_distance{$row_index} = 0;  
        foreach my $bit_index (0..$NUMBER_OF_COLUMNS-1) {  
```
As it must, the subroutine shown above first calls on `generate_weak_classifiers_for_one_column_of_codeword_matrix()` in line 4 to generate the weak classifiers for each column of the codeword matrix.

Subsequently, in lines 6 and 7, it calls on `final_classify_for_one_column_of_codeword_matrix()` to use weak classifiers for each column to carry out a binary classification of the new data point. When the class returned is 'positive', the new data point belongs to one of the classes whose bit is 1 in the column. Otherwise, its classification would be 'negative'.

From the 'positive' or 'negative' labels returned for each of the column binary classifiers, we construct a codeword for the new data point in lines 9 and 10.
In the rest of the script, we compare the codeword thus formed for the new data point against the codewords for each of the classes in the codeword matrix. This gives us the Hamming distance between the codeword for the new data point and the class codewords. In lines (25) through (30), we declare for the final classification that class label which is at the shortest Hamming distance to the codeword for the new data point.
16: Acknowledgments

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