

# Random Forest Classification for Training a Brain Computer Interface (BCI)

## Abstract

Brain-computer interfaces (BCIs) aim at providing a non-muscular channel for sending commands to the external world using brain activity. Most existing BCIs detect specific mental activity in a so-called synchronous paradigm. Unlike synchronous systems that are operational at specific system-defined periods, self-paced interfaces have the advantage of being operational at all times. Existing BCI systems rely on feature extraction followed by a classification scheme to detect intentions from the brain signal. In this paper, we propose a novel self-paced BCI system that employs Random Forest (RF) algorithm for the classification of brain signal. Unlike the conventional BCI systems, the proposed system does not have a feature extraction step and tries to implicitly learn features from the raw brain signals. We also employ a Bayesian optimization framework to tune the parameters of the RF algorithm and the BCI system. The performances of the proposed novel BCI system and a grid search method are compared on dataset I of BCI competition IV. On the calibration data our optimization method outperformed the grid search method by at least 11% accuracy. As expected, the results of both methods on the evaluation dataset were not promising as the brain signal recordings in the calibration and evaluation sessions followed two different paradigms

## 1 Introduction

A Brain Computer Interface is a system that discovers patterns in a person's brain activity and relates them to the person's intention to control a device [1]. The objective of BCI is to convert the electrical signals generated by the brain to meaningful signals to control an external system. The most important application of BCI is to help the disabled people to control different devices.

Electroencephalography (EEG) is one of the methods of measuring electrical activity of the brain along the scalp. EEG recordings are taken from multiple positions from the surface of the scalp by putting sensors (electrodes) on the scalp. The main source of the brain signal is in the brain itself and therefore measuring this activity on the scalp introduces potentially unwanted noise. The signal to noise ratio of the EEG signal is low, i.e., signals have very low amplitude (i.e. about 10 to 100 micro volts) compared to the background noise. Therefore, detection of intentions from the measured brain signals is a challenging task and has been at the forefront of research [1].

BCI systems can be categorized into two different paradigms, namely synchronous and self-paced systems [2]. The majority of the research in BCI is concentrated on the synchronous systems. In synchronous BCIs, the subjects are limited to control the BCI output in system-defined periods and therefore, they cannot control the output in other times. On the other hand, in self-paced BCIs, the subjects have the option of controlling the system output whenever they intend to do so and the system is inactive in other times. The periods which the user is not controlling the system are called No-Control (NC) states. The response of the

43 system to NC states would be neutral output. Compared to the synchronous BCI systems,  
44 designing self-paced BCIs is an extremely challenging task. The efforts so far have been  
45 promising but significant amount of work is needed to achieve a system that can be used in  
46 real life.

47 From another perspective BCI systems are categorized based on the Electrophysiological  
48 activity of the brain. Different electrophysiological activities of the brain produce differing  
49 patterns in the brain signal. For example, P300-based BCI systems operate based on the  
50 introduction of visual stimuli [3] and some other BCI systems work based on the sensory  
51 motor rhythm (SMR) activity. When the subjects try to move their limbs, a circumscribed  
52 desynchronization in their brain signal occurs. This desynchronization is referred to as  
53 event-related desynchronization (ERD). It is shown that motor imagery activity (i.e.,  
54 imagined movements) generates movement related brain signal patterns similar to those that  
55 are generated by actual movements [1]. In SMR-based BCIs, which is the focus of this  
56 research, the goal is to detect ERD patterns related to real or imagined movements.

57 Over the past years, researchers have developed various signal processing algorithms to  
58 solve the BCI task. Feature extraction (feature engineering) is at the center of developments  
59 in the BCI community. The extracted features are then fed to a classifier to translate them to  
60 control commands. Publications during the past years have focused on a combination of  
61 feature engineering and classification to detect patterns from brain signals [1] and to the  
62 author's best knowledge, there is not any BCI system that works by applying learning  
63 algorithms on the raw brain signals.

64 So far, using a combination of cumbersome feature engineering and simple classification methods  
65 has not resulted in a satisfactory performance in the existing self-paced BCI systems and these  
66 methods are far from being suitable to use in the real life applications. On the other hand, in  
67 machine learning community, there is an ongoing research on learning algorithms which are  
68 capable of learning the features implicitly. Among these methods we can mention Deep Learning  
69 and Random Forest methods. [4] has reported several applications of deep learning in speech  
70 processing and computer vision. These methods applied the learning algorithm on the raw datasets  
71 without extracting features and outperformed the state of the art speech processing and computer  
72 vision algorithms. The focus of this research, in contrast to most of the literature in BCI  
73 community, is on applying the learning algorithm on raw brain signals in self-paced BCIs. In  
74 addition, we have also used a challenging dataset for which no publications with acceptable  
75 performances were found. It is also noteworthy to mention that in the past, we had applied  
76 the combination of several feature extraction and classification methods on this dataset;  
77 however none of those methods resulted in acceptable performance on evaluation dataset.

78

## 79 **2 Materials and Methods**

80 In this project, Random Forest classifier has been applied on the raw brain signals and  
81 Bayesian optimization is employed for tuning the parameters. In the following, we first  
82 describe the dataset used in this project. Then, we describe the random forest algorithm and  
83 Bayesian optimization in sections 2.2 and 2.3. Finally, in section 2.4 we describe our  
84 proposed method.

85

### 86 **2.1 Dataset**

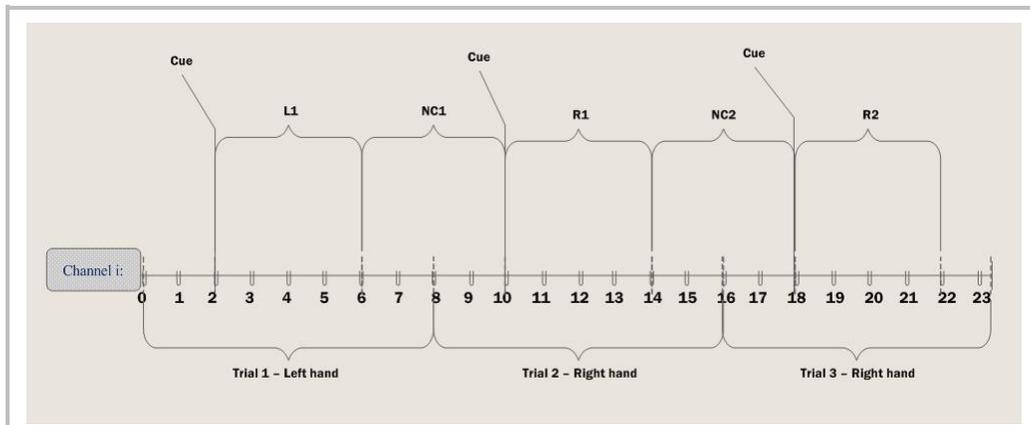
87 A well-known publically available dataset, dataset I of BCI competition IV [5], is used to  
88 evaluate the methodology proposed in this paper. This dataset was recorded from 4 subjects  
89 performing motor imagery task (left hand, right hand, or foot imagery). Each subject  
90 participated in two sessions of brain signal recording. The first session, namely the  
91 calibration phase of recording is used for training the BCI system. The second session of  
92 signal recording is used for evaluation of the BCI system.

93 The data consists of 59 EEG channels (corresponding to 59 sensors) that were spread around  
94 the sensory motor area of the brain. In the calibration phase, each subject was assigned to  
95 perform two classes of motor imagery tasks from the left hand, right hand, or foot imagery  
96 movements. There were 200 trials of imagery movement that were balanced between two  
97 classes. The structure of each trial is illustrated in Figure 1. Each trial was 8 seconds (s) long

98 in which at  $t=2s$  of each trial a visual cue on the computer screen was shown to the subject.  
99 Depending on the visual cue, the subjects were instructed to perform the assigned motor  
100 imagery task for 4s after observing the cue. The motor imagery tasks were interleaved with  
101 4s intervals in which the subject should not have controlled the device, i.e., the subject  
102 should have been in the No-Control state.

103 The evaluation phase followed a different procedure. Instead of showing a visual cue to  
104 every subject, motor imagery tasks were cued by soft acoustic stimuli (words left, right,  
105 and foot) and the subject was instructed to perform the corresponding motor imagery task.  
106 As opposed to the calibration stage in which each trial was 8 seconds long, the length of the  
107 motor imagery intervals in the evaluation session varied between 1.5 and 8s. The NC  
108 intervals were also between 1.5 and 8s.

109



110 Figure 1: An example of sequences of trials in BCI calibration phase in which each trial is  
111 8s. In the first trial subject performed imagery movement of left hand (L1) followed by a  
112 No-Control (NC1) interval of 4s. In the second trial the subject performed right hand  
113 imagery movement (R1) followed by a 4s long NC interval.  
114

115 An important consideration about the EEG signal is that in two different sessions of brain  
116 signal recordings, the EEG signals of a subject may vary while performing the same task in  
117 both sessions. Studies have shown that session-to-session variability is an issue in BCI  
118 designs and therefore, most evaluation data are collected following the same protocols that  
119 were used for collecting calibration data. In the dataset at hand, the EEG data were collected  
120 in two different sessions with two different stimulation paradigms (visual versus acoustic  
121 cues). As a result, even though the data from the calibration and evaluation sessions  
122 represent motor imagery tasks, we believe that the data from both sessions have potentially  
123 different characteristics and as stated in [6] this is probably the reason that there are no  
124 published studies with acceptable performance on this dataset.

125 Another consideration in the brain signals used for BCI task is discarding some parts of the  
126 signal before and after each interval of the movement or NC. This is because of the fact that  
127 in transition from one brain state (e.g. NC) to another state (e.g. left hand imagery  
128 movement), the ERD may begin after different periods. As a result, it is better to discard the  
129 beginning and the ending part of each controlling interval. In section 2.4 of this report this  
130 procedure will be described in more details.

131

## 132 2.2 Random Forest Classifier

133 Random Forest [7] is an ensemble learning algorithm that is constructed by combining  
134 multiple decision trees at training time and produces a result that is the average of the output  
135 of individual trees. This powerful learning algorithm injects randomness into each tree in  
136 two ways. First it uses bootstrapping to sample from the original dataset. The second way of  
137 injecting randomness into the data is through selecting a subset of the features to split each  
138 node of the tree. As a result injection of randomness in the process of building Random

139 Forests, these classifiers are robust and have a good performance in cases where there are  
140 many outliers in data. Another consequence of injecting randomness in random forests is the  
141 ability to rank different features and acquiring a measure for feature importance.

142 Random Forest algorithm takes a bootstrap of the original training data to build each  
143 individual decision tree. Therefore, in each tree a subset of training data remains out of the  
144 bootstrap and can be used to measure the generalization power of the Random Forest  
145 algorithm. The part of the training data that remains out of the bootstrap are called the out of  
146 bag (OOB) samples. By keeping track of the predictions of each individual tree on its OOB  
147 samples, we can measure the prediction accuracy for the random forest. OOB score is almost  
148 identical to that obtained by K-fold cross validation [8]. Thereby, the accuracy on OOB  
149 samples (i.e. OOB score) can be utilized to tune parameters of the Random Forest algorithm.  
150 Another claim is that increasing number of trees does not cause the random forest to overfit  
151 [8]. Thereby, we set the number of trees to the maximum possible, based on our  
152 computational power. Some of the parameters of the random forest which can affect its  
153 performance significantly are the number of features to split a node, the maximum depth of  
154 the each individual tree, and the minimum number of samples in each leaf node of the tree.  
155 In this manuscript we call these parameters as RF parameters.

156

## 157 **2.3 Bayesian Optimization**

158 Bayesian Optimization [9] is a powerful algorithm that has outperformed state of the art  
159 global optimization algorithms on a number of challenging optimization benchmarks. This  
160 method is especially suitable for black box optimization (i.e. when we do not have an  
161 expression for the objective function); in which there is no information about the gradient of  
162 the objective function. Gaussian Processes are the most widely used tools for Bayesian  
163 Optimization. Assuming the objective function is sampled from a Gaussian process, the  
164 algorithm keeps a posterior distribution over the observed values of the objective function.  
165 To pick the parameters for the next experiment, the algorithm optimizes an acquisition  
166 function which is generated from the Gaussian process. A significant property of Bayesian  
167 Optimization is that it constructs a probabilistic model of the objective function. This  
168 algorithm proposes a new candidate point by integrating out the uncertainty. To perform  
169 Bayesian Optimization, two major choices should be made. First, the covariance function of  
170 the prior over the optimization function should be specified. The second choice for Bayesian  
171 Optimization is the choice of acquisition function.

172 For Bayesian Optimization in this research the method proposed in [10] is employed. The  
173 kernel function of the Gaussian prior was Matern 5/2 Kernel. This covariance function  
174 results in functions which are twice differentiable, an assumption that is used to perform  
175 quasi-newton optimization. The behavior of the prior function is governed by the choice of  
176 hyper-parameters. The most common approach to derive an appropriate value for hyper-  
177 parameters is to use a point estimate (e.g. Maximum Likelihood) of these values. However,  
178 in [10] a fully Bayesian approach is used to obtain a marginalized acquisition function. In  
179 other words, [10] uses a Monte Carlo estimation to evaluate the expected acquisition  
180 function over the posterior distribution of the hyper-parameters. Also, the acquisition  
181 function used here is the expected improvement (EI), which can be written in a closed form.

182 Another major contribution of [10] is its ability to perform parallel Bayesian Optimization.  
183 Assuming that N evaluations of the cost function have completed and J evaluations are  
184 pending. The algorithm Proposes a new candidate point based on the expected acquisition  
185 function over the possible results of the pending evaluations.

186

## 187 **2.4 Proposed Method**

188

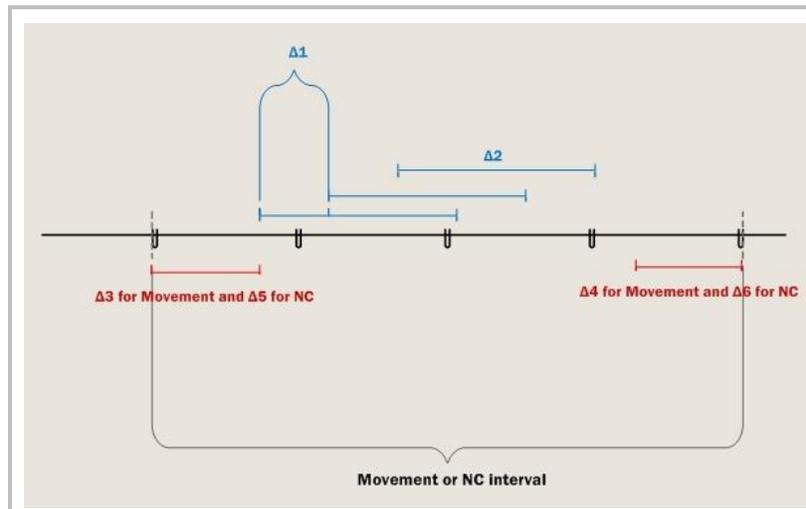
### 189 **Brain signal classification with Random Forests**

190 To detect patterns from time series data (e.g., EEG signal), the data are usually divided into  
191 overlapping sliding windows (e.g., 2s windows with 96% overlap between consecutive  
192 windows). The features are then extracted from each window and a classifier is built using  
193 the extracted features. In case of multivariate signals (multiple input channels), features are

194 extracted from the same window across all channels and the features are combined to build a  
 195 single feature vector. For instance, if input signal has  $n$  channels and  $m$  features are extracted  
 196 from each window, the final feature vector will be an  $n \times m$  matrix. Eventually the output of a  
 197 time series classification system is another time series for which the output at any time  
 198 corresponds to the outcome of the classification task corresponding to the window that ends  
 199 at that time.

200 Classifying the brain signals follows the same paradigm. Each interval of movement or NC  
 201 is partitioned into overlapping windows of data. However, in contrast to the other works on  
 202 BCI systems, in this project instead of extracting features from the brain signal, the raw  
 203 signal is directly fed to the classifier. In other words, the final feature vector which is fed to  
 204 the classifier (random forest in our case) is built by concatenating the windows of different  
 205 channels. In the dataset at hand, we aim to detect NC states from motor imagery on a  
 206 continuous basis. In other words, we intend to design a system that continuously classifies  
 207 the input signal to either a movement imagery or NC state.

208



209

Figure 2: Demonstration of parameters in each interval

210 Figure 2 illustrates overlapping windows on a sample interval. In Figure 2,  $\Delta_2$  corresponds  
 211 to the size of each sliding window and  $\Delta_1$  corresponds to the size of the overlap between two  
 212 consecutive windows. In this figure, there are also four other parameters (i.e.  $\Delta_3$ ,  $\Delta_4$ ,  $\Delta_5$  and  
 213  $\Delta_6$ ) which correspond to the parts of each interval which would be discarded (as it was  
 214 discussed in section 2.1). Note that partitioning each interval is done after discarding the  
 215 samples from the beginning and the end of each trial.  $\Delta_3$  seconds from the beginning  
 216 movement interval and  $\Delta_4$  seconds from the end of the movement interval are discarded. The  
 217 counterparts of  $\Delta_3$  and  $\Delta_4$  for NC interval are  $\Delta_5$  and  $\Delta_6$ . Choosing different values of  $\Delta_1$ ,  
 218  $\Delta_2 \dots \Delta_6$  for discarding unwanted EEG data is critical as the nature of NC and movement  
 219 imagery are different and the exact times of NC and movement imagery are not known.  
 220 Essentially, we need to make sure that the data that are fed to the classifier in fact represent  
 221 the corresponding classes. Feeding data with inaccurate classes (labels) will lead to a poor  
 222 performance. We call  $\Delta_1, \Delta_2 \dots \Delta_6$  as BCI parameters in this manuscript. As a result of using  
 223 raw brain signals the number of features for each training sample would be  $59 \times |\Delta_2|$ , where  
 224  $|\Delta_2|$  is the size of the sliding window and 59 is the number of EEG channels. As, we are  
 225 tuning the size of  $\Delta_2$  to find the best sliding window size, the number of features will be  
 226 variable. This will make tuning of joint parameters of BCI and RF difficult.

227

### 228 Bayesian optimization for tuning the joint parameters of RF and BCI 229 system

230 As it was mentioned in the previous section, tuning the joint parameters of the BCI system  
 231 and the classifier is an extremely difficult task. This optimization problem is a 9 dimensional  
 232 problem (i.e. 6 BCI parameters for the BCI system and 3 RF parameters). One of parameters

233 of the Random Forest which can affect its performance is the number of selected features to  
234 introduce the best split (we call this parameter  $\Delta_7$ ). As in this research, the parameters of the  
235 BCI system and the RF parameters are optimized jointly the value of  $\Delta_7$  is affected by the  
236 window size. That is to say, in the dataset used here, the maximum number of features that  
237 can be fed as a parameter to the random forest algorithm is  $|\Delta_2| \times 59$ . As a result, to train  
238 each Random Forest the number features to consider when looking for the best split in each  
239 node, should always be less than the maximum number of features (i.e.  $\Delta_7 \leq |\Delta_2| \times 59$ ).

240 Typically Bayesian Optimization algorithm assumes that all dimensions of search space have  
241 bounds. In [10] the authors, has made an additional simplifying assumption. They assume  
242 that these bounds are axis-aligned, so the resulting search space is a hyper-rectangle. They  
243 then, generate a set of candidate point on this rectangle using the Sobol sequence generator.  
244 Sobol sequence is a smart way of generating candidates in the search space which is an  
245 example of low-discrepancy sequences. In this research, however, as the optimization has a  
246 constraint, generating the set of candidates on the hyper-rectangle is inappropriate.

247 [10] has two phases of generating candidate points. In the first phase it uses Sobol algorithm  
248 to generate a set of candidates on the unit hyper-rectangle. In the second phase, it first  
249 calculates the Expectation Improvement for the generated candidate points in the first phase.  
250 Then, it selects a set of optimal candidates (i.e. with respect to EI) and uses each of these  
251 selected candidates as an initial point for a gradient based optimization. Finally it takes the  
252 candidates generated in both phases and among those selects the candidate with best EI  
253 value. In this research, the candidate generation algorithm is changed to satisfy the  
254 constraint discussed above. In detail, in the first phase of generating the candidates, the  
255 candidates that do not satisfy the constraint (i.e.  $\Delta_7 \leq |\Delta_2| \times 59$ ) are discarded. In the second  
256 phase, a constraint optimization algorithm is used to avoid the algorithm to optimize  
257 candidates back to the constraint violating space.

258

### 259 **3 Results and Discussion**

260 The task of classifying brain activity in self-paced BCI is really challenging. Due to the high  
261 rate of error in differentiating movement imagery task from each other and from the NC  
262 state, it is common in the BCI community to reduce the three class classification task to a  
263 movement detection problem (binary classification). In this case, the BCI system is designed  
264 to distinguish between the movement intervals and NC intervals. A binary BCI system is still  
265 a great advancement to assist paralyzed people to make binary decisions (e.g., yes or no). In  
266 the same way, we converted the three class classification in our dataset into a binary  
267 classification by considering all the movements (regardless of their type) as one class.  
268 Therefore, the goal here is to differentiate movements from the NC trials. As the evaluation  
269 data is recorded in a different session with a relatively different paradigm, the binary  
270 problem is still very challenging.

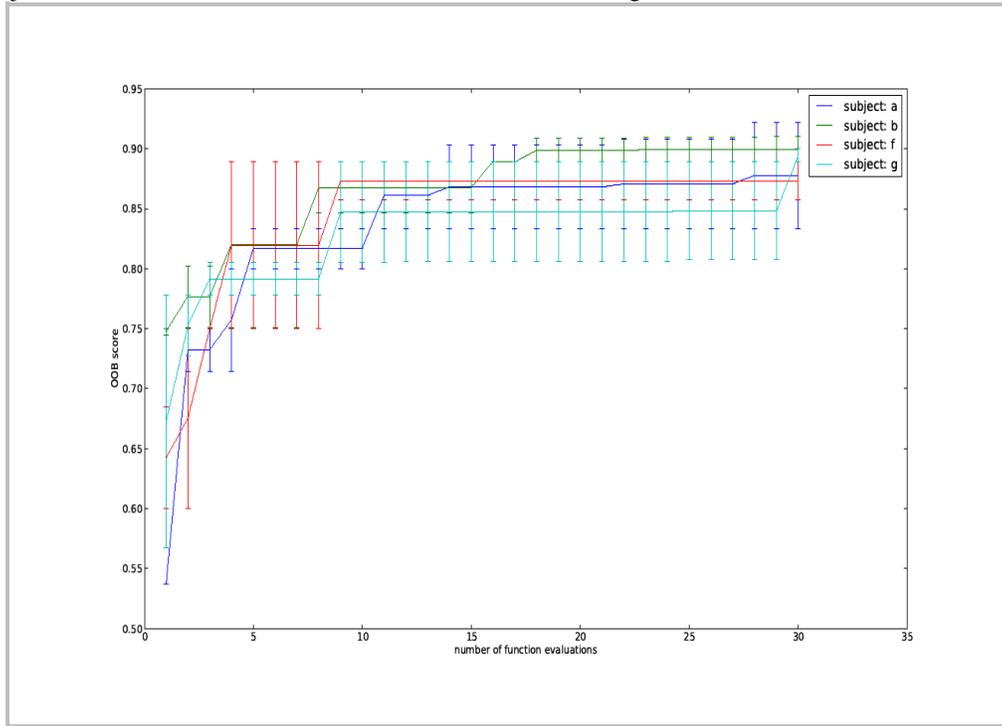
271 In this project, the performances of the proposed algorithm in section 2.4 and a simple grid  
272 search are compared. To perform the grid search, we simply set the parameters of the random  
273 forest as it was suggested by the inventor of Random Forest<sup>1</sup>, and performed the grid search  
274 only on the parameters of the BCI system (we refer to Bayesian Optimization for tuning the  
275 joint parameters of RF and BCI as BO-RF, and grid search for tuning parameters as GS-RF).  
276 For GS-RF evaluation, several combinations of  $\Delta_3$ ,  $\Delta_5 = \{50, 100, 150, 200\}$ , and  $\Delta_4$ ,  $\Delta_6 =$   
277  $\{50, 100, 150\}$ , and  $\Delta_1 = \{75, 100, 125, 150\}$ , and  $\Delta_2 = \{20, 30, 40\}$ , were examined. These  
278 combinations resulted in more than 100 evaluations for each subject.

279 The initial points to try for Bayesian Optimization are chosen at random. The algorithm then  
280 optimizes the objective function based on the evaluation of the initial points. As a result  
281 Bayesian optimization is sensitive to the random initialization. To demonstrate the required  
282 number of evaluations to find the best OOB score, BO-RF algorithm was repeated for three  
283 times with different initialization, and the mean and standard error is shown in Figure 3  
284 (although, random initializations for three times is not enough to acquire reliable results,  
285 however, due to the limitations in computational infrastructure we were not able to get more

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<sup>1</sup> For classification, the default value for number of features is  $\lceil \sqrt{p} \rceil$  where p is the size of feature vector and the minimum node size is one.

286 results in the timeframe of this project). As Figure 3 shows, Bayesian optimization algorithm  
 287 finds acceptable values for the objective function after very few iterations. Note that here the  
 288 objective function is OOB score which we are maximizing.



289 Figure 3: OOB score versus the number of function evaluations for the four subjects in the  
 290 dataset. The results are the average of 3 different random initializations. In all experiments, J  
 291 (number of parallel jobs) was set to 3.

292 The results of comparing BO-RF algorithm and the GS-RF algorithm based on the OOB  
 293 score is shown Table 1. As Table 1 shows, BO-RF method outperformed GS-RF method with  
 294 respect to the OOB score. The results of GS-RF are obtained after more than 100 evaluations  
 295 of the objective function; however, the results of BO-RF are obtained after 45 evaluations.

296 Table 1: The optimal value of the objective function, which shows that our proposed  
 297 approach (BO-RF) outperformed (GS-RF).

Subject	A	B	G	F
Best OOB Score BO-RF	0.922	0.910	0.888	0.900
Best OOB Score GS-RF	0.770	0.790	0.769	0.770

298 For each subject, a random forest is trained based on the optimal values of the BO-RF and  
 299 GS-RF algorithms. The Accuracy of the optimal random forest for both algorithms on the  
 300 evaluation data is shown in Table 2.

301 Table 2: The accuracy of BO-RF and GS-RF on the evaluation data

Subject	A	B	G	F
Accuracy BO-RF	%50	%58	%50	%52
Accuracy GS-RF	%50	%65	%50	%47

302 The results show that the performance of both methods significantly degrades on the  
 303 evaluation dataset. As mentioned earlier (Section 1), we had applied several combinations of  
 304 feature extraction and classification on this dataset; however, the performances of those

305 systems on evaluation data were also poor. A considerable fact in EEG signals is that  
306 session-to-session transfer often causes considerable changes in the EEG signals. As in the  
307 dataset at hand, the recordings were done in two different sessions with two different  
308 protocols (i.e. visual stimuli for calibration data and acoustic stimuli for evaluation data), we  
309 were not optimistic about getting good results on the evaluation data. In [6] the authors also  
310 raised the same concern about the evaluation data of this dataset.

311

## 312 **4 Conclusion and Future Work**

313 In this research, Random Forest algorithm is employed, for the first time, to classify the raw  
314 brain signals. Unlike other works in the BCI literature, we eliminated the feature extraction  
315 phase in a BCI system. Applying Random Forests on raw brain signal can be regarded as a  
316 way of implicitly learning features from the data. We then used a Bayesian optimization  
317 framework to optimize the joint parameters of the Random Forest and BCI system. Results  
318 of our analysis showed that Bayesian Optimization outperformed the grid search algorithm.  
319 Bayesian Optimization was able to find better values of the objective function (i.e. OOB  
320 score) in fewer iterations.

321 In the future work, we are going to employ drop-out nets [11] to classify the raw brain  
322 signals. These learning algorithms are capable of performing multiple levels of feature  
323 learning/transformation on the data which might be useful in BCI systems.

324 The dataset used for this research was a self-paced dataset. The most important difficulty  
325 was that the evaluation data was recorded in different session with a different paradigm. As a  
326 result the performance of our methods was not promising on the evaluation data. Evaluation  
327 of the proposed BCI system on other dataset will also be the focus of our future work.

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