## Learning Objectives

At the end of the class you should be able to:

- show an example of decision-tree learning
- explain how to avoid overfitting in decision-tree learning
- explain the relationship between linear and logistic regression
- explain how overfitting can be avoided


## Basic Models for Supervised Learning

Many learning algorithms can be seen as deriving from:

- decision trees
- linear (and non-linear) classifiers


## Learning Decision Trees

- Representation is a decision tree.
- Bias is towards simple decision trees.
- Search through the space of decision trees, from simple decision trees to more complex ones.


## Decision trees

A (binary) decision tree (for a particular target feature) is a tree where:

- Each nonleaf node is labeled with an test (function of input features).
- The arcs out of a node labeled with values for the test.
- The leaves of the tree are labeled with point prediction of the target feature.


## Example Classification Data

Training Examples:

|  | Action | Author | Thread | Length | Where |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| e1 | skips | known | new | long | home |
| e2 | reads | unknown | new | short | work |
| e3 | skips | unknown | old | long | work |
| e4 | skips | known | old | long | home |
| e5 | reads | known | new | short | home |
| e6 | skips | known | old | long | work |

New Examples:

| e7 | $? ? ?$ | known | new | short | work |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| e8 | $? ? ?$ | unknown | new | short | work |

We want to classify new examples on feature Action based on the examples' Author, Thread, Length, and Where.

## Example Decision Trees



## Equivalent Programs

define action(e):
if long(e): return skips
else if new (e): return reads
else if unknown(e): return skips
else: return reads
Logic Program:

```
skips }(E)\leftarrow\operatorname{long}(E)
    reads}(E)\leftarrow\operatorname{short}(E)\wedge\operatorname{new}(E)
    reads }(E)\leftarrow\operatorname{short}(E)\wedge\mathrm{ follow_up (E) ^ known (E).
    skips }(E)\leftarrow\operatorname{short}(E)\wedge\mathrm{ follow_up (E)^unknown (E).
```

or with negation as failure:
reads $\leftarrow$ short $\wedge$ new.
reads $\leftarrow$ short $\wedge \sim$ new $\wedge$ known.

## Issues in decision-tree learning

- Given some training examples, which decision tree should be generated?
- A decision tree can represent any discrete function of the input features.
- You need a bias. Example, prefer the smallest tree. Least depth? Fewest nodes? Which trees are the best predictors of unseen data?
- How should you go about building a decision tree? The space of decision trees is too big for systematic search for the smallest decision tree.


## Searching for a Good Decision Tree

- The input is a set of input features, a target feature and, a set of training examples.
- Either:
- Stop and return a value for the target feature or a distribution over target feature values
- Choose a test (e.g. an input feature) to split on. For each value of the test, build a subtree for those examples with this value for the test.


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- too few examples to make an informative split
- Which test to split on isn't defined. Often we use myopic split: which single split gives smallest error.
- With multi-valued features, the text can be can to split on all values or split values into half. More complex tests are possible.


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## Example: possible splits



## Handling Overfitting

- This algorithm can overfit the data. This occurs when


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- This algorithm can overfit the data.

This occurs when noise and correlations in the training set that are not reflected in the data as a whole.

- To handle overfitting:
- restrict the splitting, and split only when the split is useful.
- allow unrestricted splitting and prune the resulting tree where it makes unwarranted distinctions.
- learn multiple trees and average them.


## Linear Function

A linear function of features $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}$ is a function of the form:

$$
f^{\bar{w}}\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right)=w_{0}+w_{1} X_{1}+\cdots+w_{n} X_{n}
$$

We invent a new feature $X_{0}$ which has value 1 , to make it not a special case.

$$
f^{\bar{w}}\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right)=\sum_{i=0}^{n} w_{i} X_{i}
$$

## Linear Regression

- Aim: predict feature $Y$ from features $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}$.
- A feature is a function of an example.
$X_{i}(e)$ is the value of feature $X_{i}$ on example $e$.
- Linear regression: predict a linear function of the input features.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\widehat{Y}^{\bar{w}}(e) & =w_{0}+w_{1} X_{1}(e)+\cdots+w_{n} X_{n}(e) \\
& =\sum_{i=0}^{n} w_{i} X_{i}(e)
\end{aligned}
$$

$\widehat{Y}^{\bar{w}}(e)$ is the predicted value for $Y$ on example $e$. It depends on the weights $\bar{w}$.

## Sum of squares error for linear regression

The sum of squares error on examples $E$ for target $Y$ is:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{SSE}(E, \bar{w}) & =\sum_{e \in E}\left(Y(e)-\widehat{Y}^{\bar{w}}(e)\right)^{2} \\
& =\sum_{e \in E}\left(Y(e)-\sum_{i=0}^{n} w_{i} X_{i}(e)\right)^{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Goal: given examples $E$, find weights that minimize $\operatorname{SSE}(E, \bar{w})$.

## Finding weights that minimize $\operatorname{Error}(E, \bar{w})$

- Find the minimum analytically.

Effective when it can be done (e.g., for linear regression).

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Works for larger classes of problems.
Gradient descent:

$$
w_{i} \leftarrow w_{i}-\eta \frac{\partial}{\partial w_{i}} \operatorname{Error}(E, \bar{w})
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$\eta$ is the gradient descent step size, the learning rate.

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- Often update weights after each example:
- incremental gradient descent sweeps through examples - stochastic gradient descent selects examples at random Often much faster than updating weights after sweeping through examples, but may not converge to a local optimum


## Incremental Gradient Descent for Linear Regression

1: procedure Linear_learner $(X, Y, E, \eta)$

3:
4:
5:
6:
7:

8:

9:

- $\quad X$ : set of input features, $X=\left\{X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right\}$
- $\quad Y$ : target feature
- $E$ : set of examples
- $\quad \eta$ : learning rate initialize $w_{0}, \ldots, w_{n}$ randomly repeat
for each example $e$ in $E$ do

10 :
11:
12:
13:
14:

$$
p \leftarrow \sum_{i} w_{i} X_{i}(e)
$$

$$
\delta \leftarrow \bar{Y}(e)-p
$$

for each $i \in[0, n]$ do

$$
w_{i} \leftarrow w_{i}+\eta \delta X_{i}(e)
$$

until some stopping criterion is true return $w_{0}, \ldots, w_{n}$

## Linear Classifier

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- A squashed linear function is of the form:

$$
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$$

where $f$ is an activation function.

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where $f$ is an activation function.

- A simple activation function is the step function:

$$
f(x)= \begin{cases}1 & \text { if } x \geq 0 \\ 0 & \text { if } x<0\end{cases}
$$

## Error for Squashed Linear Function

The sum of squares error is:

$$
\operatorname{SSE}(E, \bar{w})=\sum_{e \in E}\left(Y(e)-f\left(\sum_{i} w_{i} X_{i}(e)\right)\right)^{2} .
$$

If $f$ is differentiable, we can do gradient descent.

## The sigmoid or logistic activation function



## The sigmoid or logistic activation function



$$
f^{\prime}(x)=f(x)(1-f(x))
$$

A logistic function is the sigmoid of a linear function. Logistic regression: find weights to minimise error of a logistic function.

## Error for Squashed Linear Function

Let $\widehat{Y}(e)=\operatorname{sigmoid}\left(\sum_{i=0}^{n} w_{i} * X_{i}(e)\right)$.
$\operatorname{SSE}(E, \bar{W})=\sum_{e \in E}(Y(e)-\hat{Y}(e))^{2}$
$\frac{\partial}{\partial w_{i}} \operatorname{SSE}(E, \bar{w})=$

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& \frac{\partial}{\partial w_{i}} \operatorname{SSE}(E, \bar{W})=\sum_{e \in E}-2 * \delta(e) * p *(1-p) * X_{i}(e)
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\delta(e)=Y(e)-\hat{Y}^{\bar{m}}(e)$ and $p=f\left(\sum_{i} w_{i} * X_{i}(e)\right)$

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where $\delta(e)=Y(e)-\hat{Y}^{\bar{w}}(e)$ and $p=f\left(\sum_{i} w_{i} * X_{i}(e)\right)$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& L L(E, \bar{w})=\sum_{e \in E} Y(e) * \log \widehat{Y}(e)+(1-Y(e)) * \log (1-\widehat{Y}(e)) \\
& \frac{\partial}{\partial w_{i}} L L(E, \bar{w})=
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\end{aligned}
$$

## Logistic Regression: Incremental Gradient Descent

1: procedure Logistic_regression $(X, Y, E, \eta)$
2:
3:
4: - $\quad$ : set of examples
5: - $\eta$ : learning rate
6:
7:
8:
9: initialize $w_{0}, \ldots, w_{n}$ randomly
for each example $e$ in $E$ do

$$
p \leftarrow f\left(\sum_{i} w_{i} X_{i}(e)\right)
$$

$10:$
11:
12:
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- $\quad X$ : set of input features, $X=\left\{X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right\}$
- $Y$ : target feature


## repeat

$\delta \leftarrow Y(e)-p$
for each $i \in[0, n]$ do

$$
w_{i} \leftarrow w_{i}+\eta \delta p(1-p) X_{i}(e)
$$

until some stopping criterion is true
return $w_{0}, \ldots, w_{n} \quad$ SSE and LL SSE only

## Simple Example



| Ex | new | short | home | reads <br> Predicted |  | Obs |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: |
| e1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | $f(0.4)=0.6$ | 0 | -0.6 | 0.36 |
| e2 | 1 | 1 | 0 |  | 0 |  |  |
| e3 | 1 | 0 | 1 |  | 1 |  |  |

## Simple Example



| Ex | new | short | home | reads <br> Predicted |  | Obs |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  | SSE |  |  |  |
| e1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | $f(0.4)=0.6$ | 0 | -0.6 | 0.36 |
| e2 | 1 | 1 | 0 | $f(-1.2)=0.23$ | 0 |  |  |
| e3 | 1 | 0 | 1 | $f(0.9)=0.71$ | 1 |  |  |

## Simple Example



| Ex | new | short | home | reads |  | $\delta$ | SSE |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :---: | :--- |
|  |  |  |  | Predicted | Obs |  |  |
| e1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | $f(0.4)=0.6$ | 0 | -0.6 | 0.36 |
| e2 | 1 | 1 | 0 | $f(-1.2)=0.23$ | 0 | -0.23 | 0.053 |
| e3 | 1 | 0 | 1 | $f(0.9)=0.71$ | 1 | 0.29 | 0.084 |

## Linearly Separable

- A classification is linearly separable if there is a hyperplane where the classification is true on one side of the hyperplane and false on the other side.
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This separates the predictions $>0.5$ and $<0.5$.

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$$

This separates the predictions $>0.5$ and $<0.5$.

- linearly separable implies the error can be arbitrarily small


Kernel Trick: use functions of input features (e.g., product)

## Variants in Linear Separators

Which linear separator to use can result in various algorithms:

- Perceptron
- Logistic Regression
- Support Vector Machines (SVMs)


## Bias in linear classifiers and decision trees

- It's easy for a logistic function to represent "at least two of $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{k}$ are true":

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
w_{0} & w_{1} & \cdots & w_{k} \\
\hline
\end{array}
$$

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- It's easy for a logistic function to represent "at least two of $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{k}$ are true":

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
w_{0} & w_{1} & \cdots & w_{k} \\
\hline-15 & 10 & \cdots & 10
\end{array}
$$

This concept forms a large decision tree.

- Consider representing a conditional: "If $X_{7}$ then $X_{2}$ else $X_{3}$ ":
- Simple in a decision tree.
- Complicated (possible?) for a linear separator

