

CS 273A: Machine Learning

Winter 2021

Lecture 10: Mid-Term Review

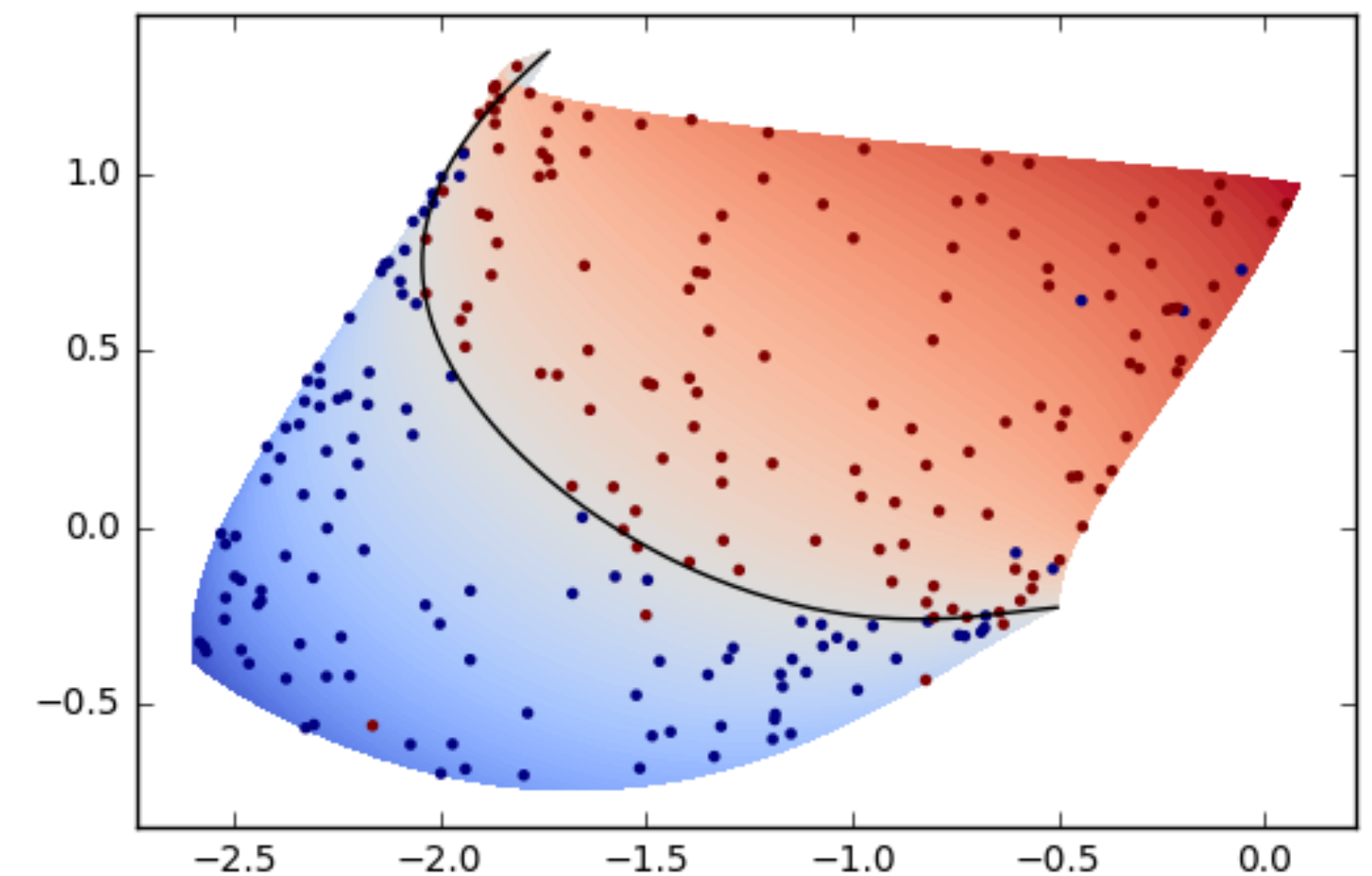
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All slides in this course adapted from Alex Ihler & Sameer Singh



Mid-Term Logistics

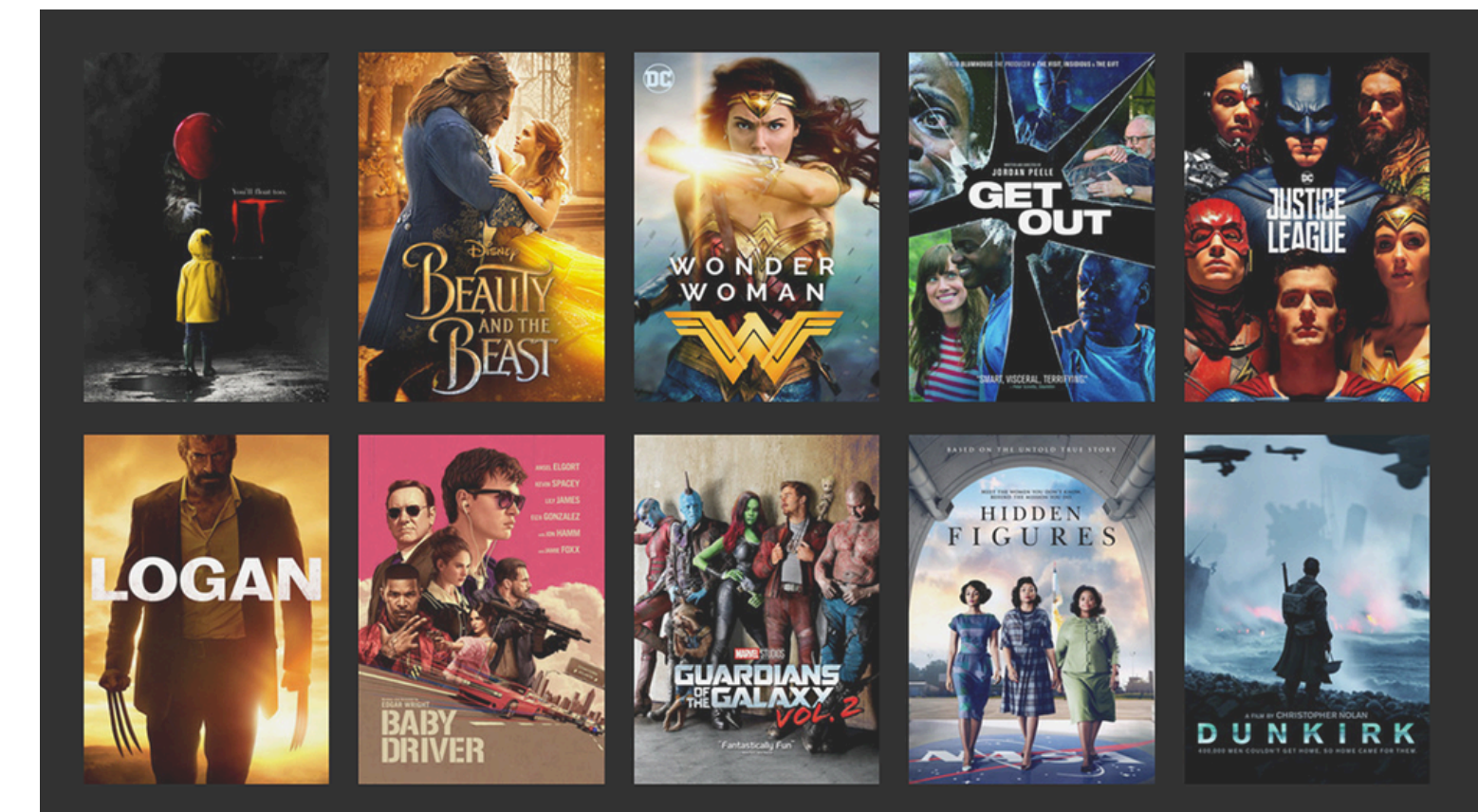
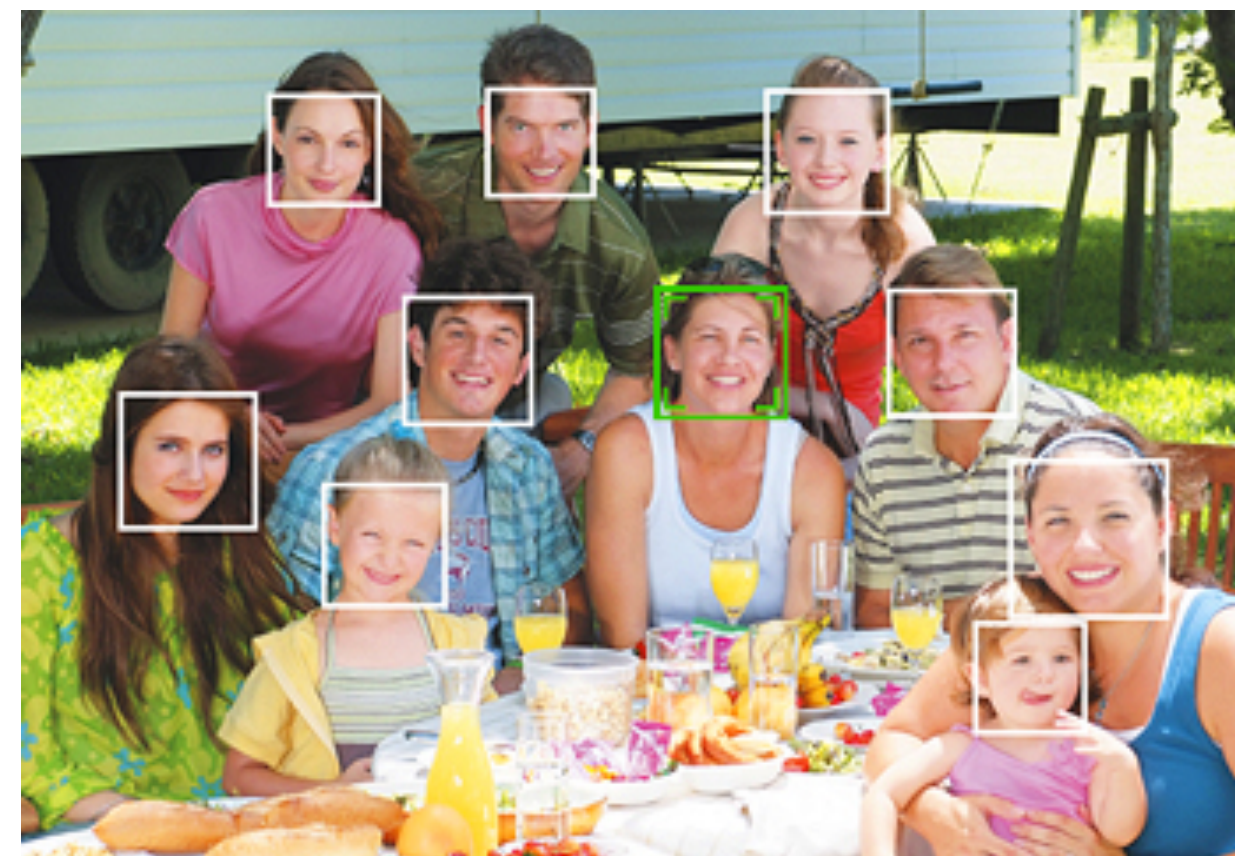
- Format:
 - Time: **Tuesday, February 9, 2–4pm**
 - **Canvas** “quiz”
 - Many questions, feels long, but should be doable in 1 hour
 - We'll be on zoom to address questions and issues: <https://uci.zoom.us/j/94903054276>
- You can use:
 - Self-prepared A4 / Letter-size two-sided **single page** with anything you'd like on it
 - A basic arithmetic **calculator**; no phones, no computers
 - **Blank paper** sheets for your calculations
 - Brainpower and good vibes
- No proctoring; the **penalty** for cheating is being the kind of person who cheats

Exam suggestions

- Look at **past exams**
 - Train yourself by reading some solutions, evaluate yourself on held-out exams
- Organize / join **study groups** (e.g. on piazza)
- During the exam:
 - Start with questions you find **easy**
 - Don't get bogged down by exact **calculations**
 - Leave expressions unsolved and come back to them **later**
 - Optional: **upload your calculation sheet(s)**
 - They won't be graded, but can be used for regrading

Learning settings (1): supervised learning

- How can we learn $f : x \mapsto y$ that achieves good performance $v(x, y)$?
- Supervised learning
 - ▶ Data: examples of instances x and good decisions y (labels)
 - ▶ Given a training dataset \mathcal{D} , find f that agrees with \mathcal{D} 's labels on its instances
 - ▶ **Classification:** y is a class in a small set
 - ▶ **Regression:** y is continuous



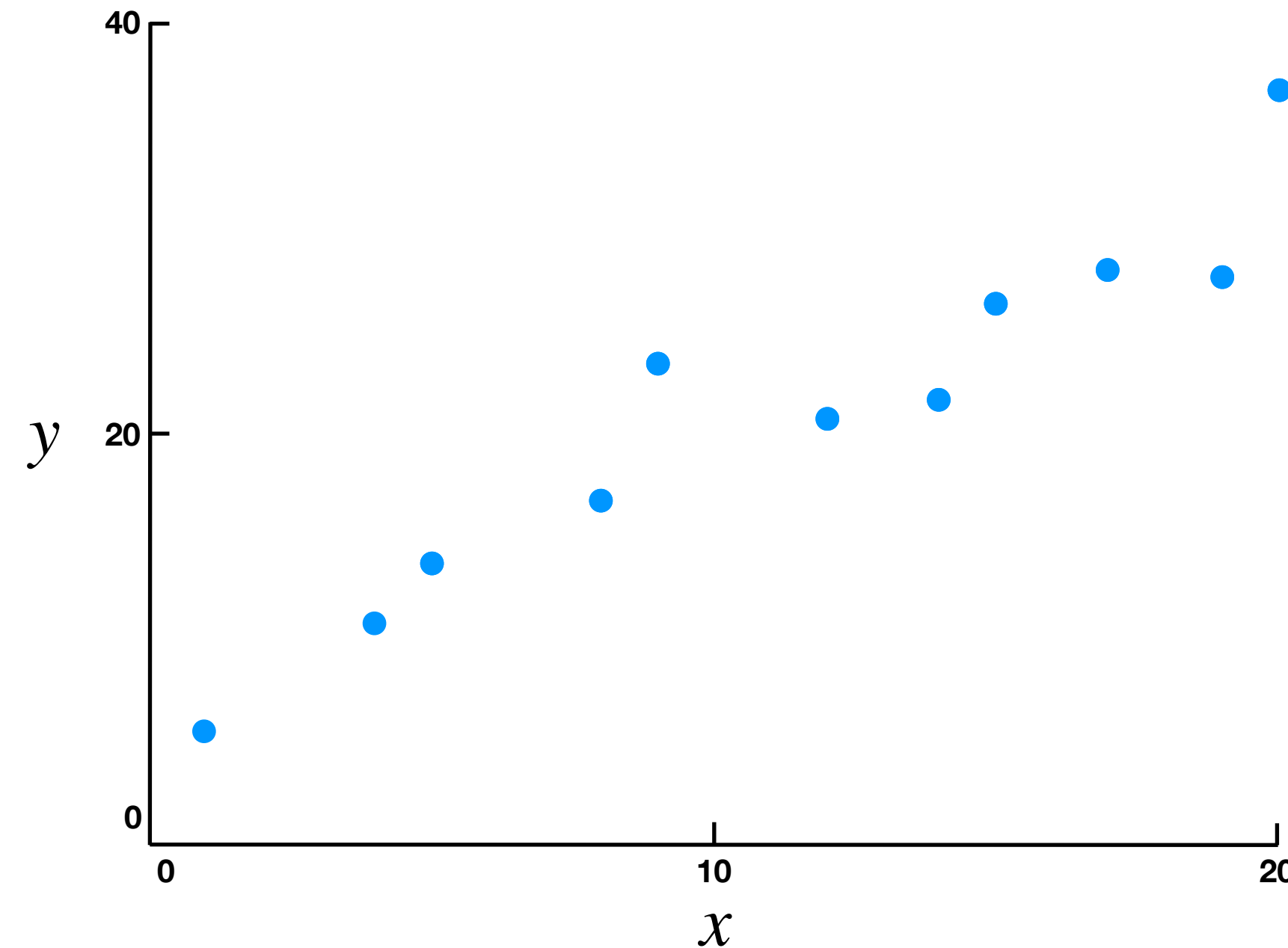
Know thy data

- ML is a **data science**
 - Look at your data, know what it is, get a “feel” for it
- How many data points?
- What are the features of every data point? What are their data types?
 - **Booleans** (spam, inbound/outbound, control group)
 - **Discrete** categories (country/state, protocol, user ID)
 - **Integers** (1–5 stars, # of bedrooms, year of birth)
 - **Reals** — up to digital representation (pixel intensity, price, timestamp)
- Is there missing data? Unreasonable values? Surprisingly missing / repeated values?

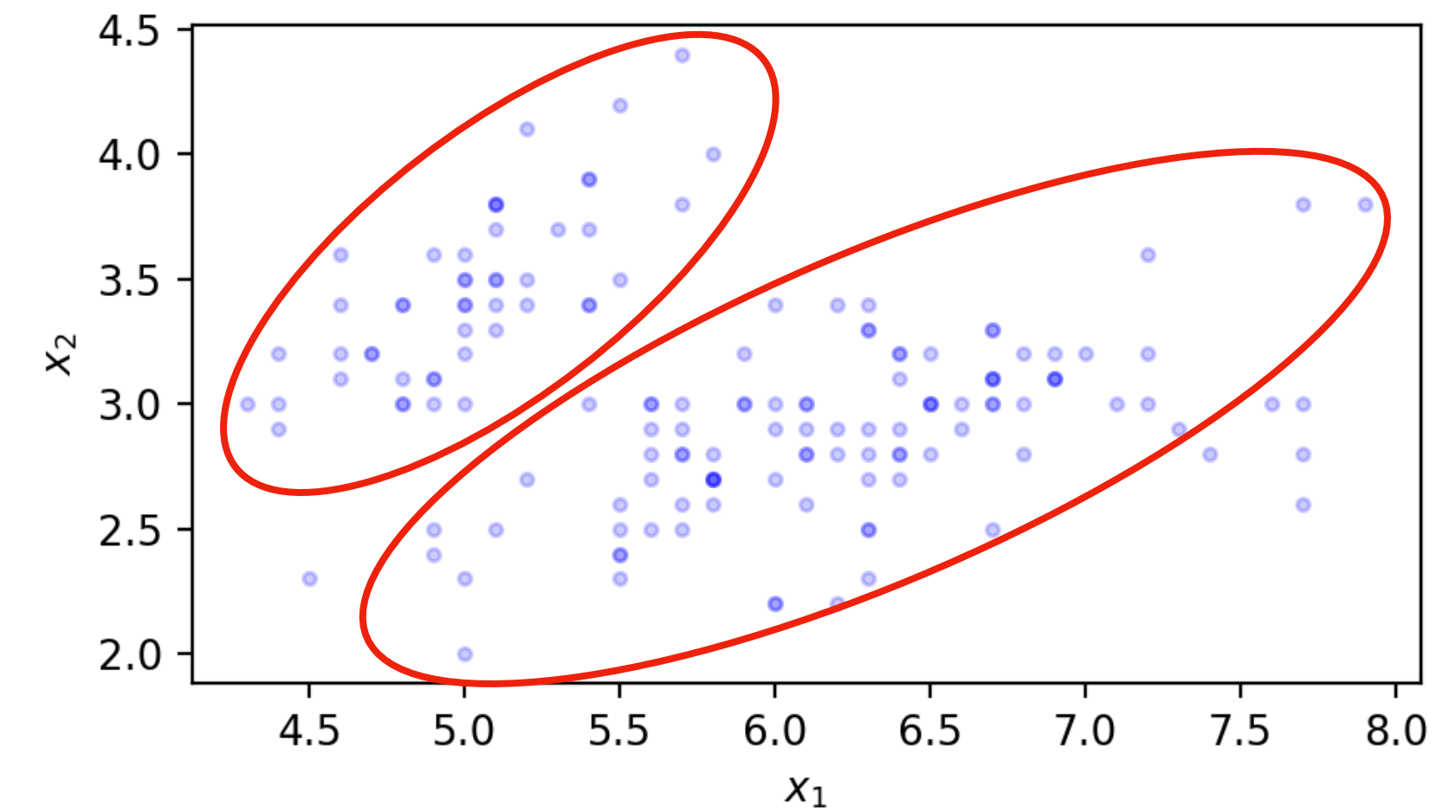
Supervised learning

- Data shows **trend**
- But also **noise**

regression

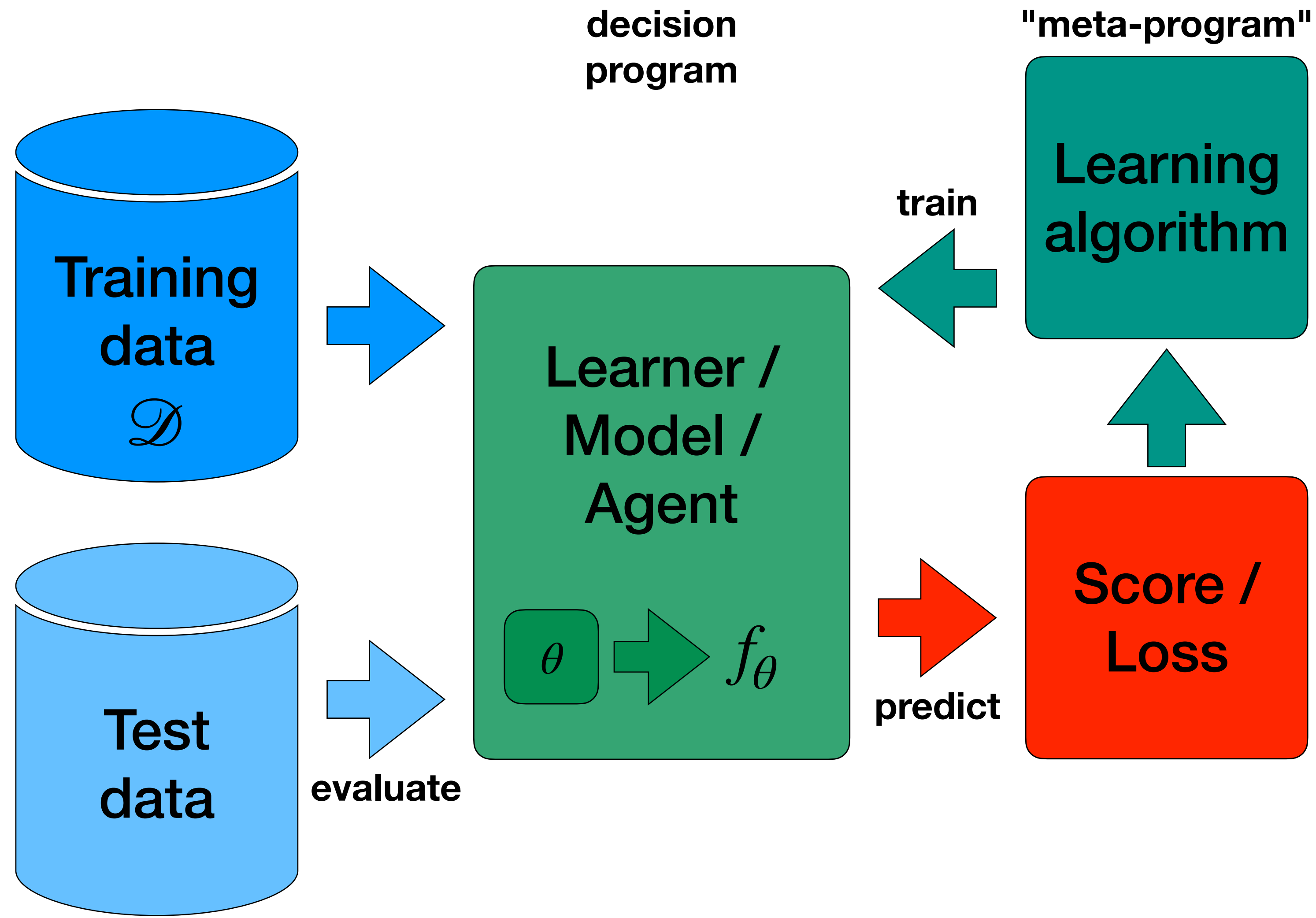


classification



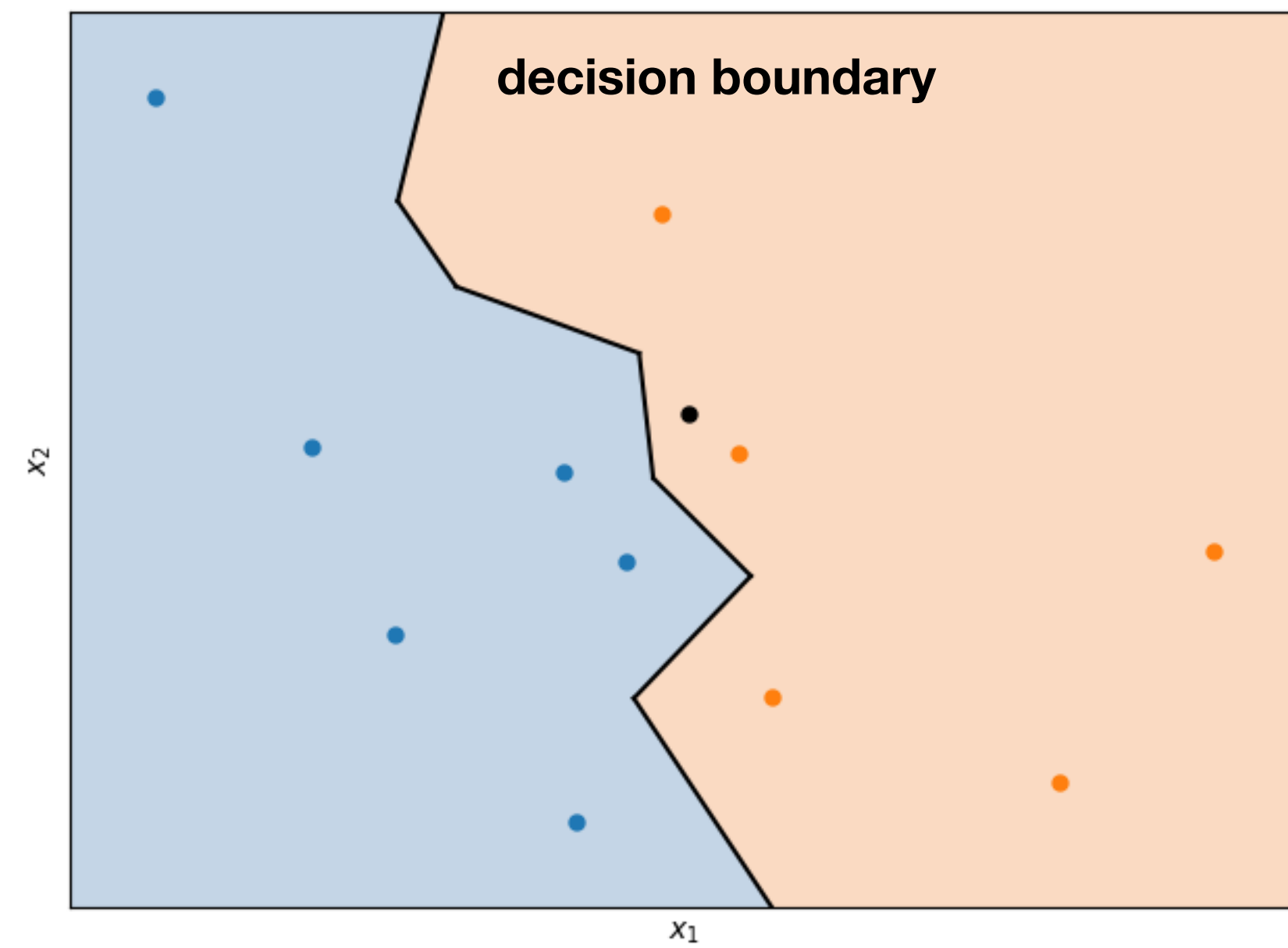
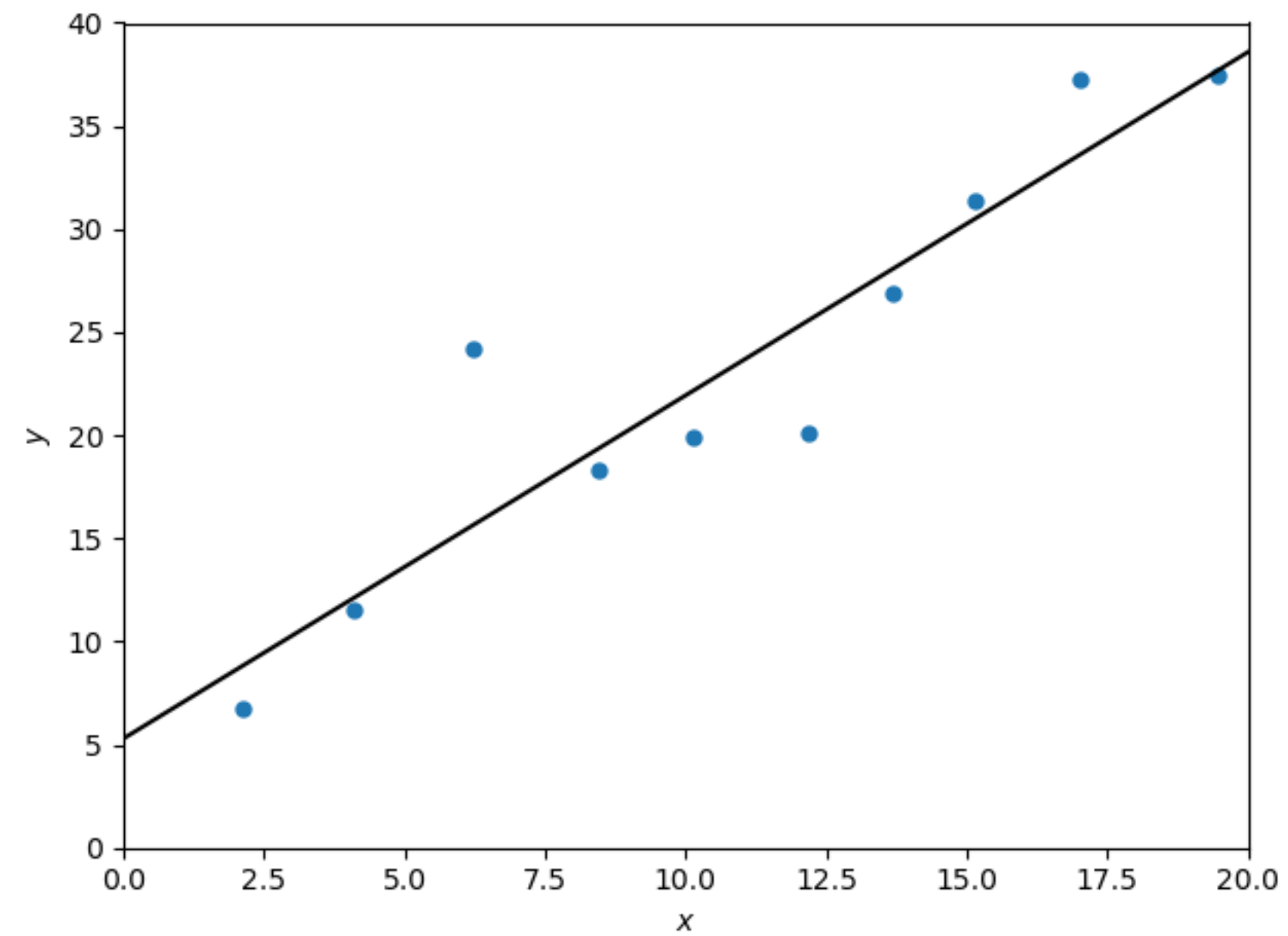
- Given some instance x , what is a good y ?

What is machine learning?



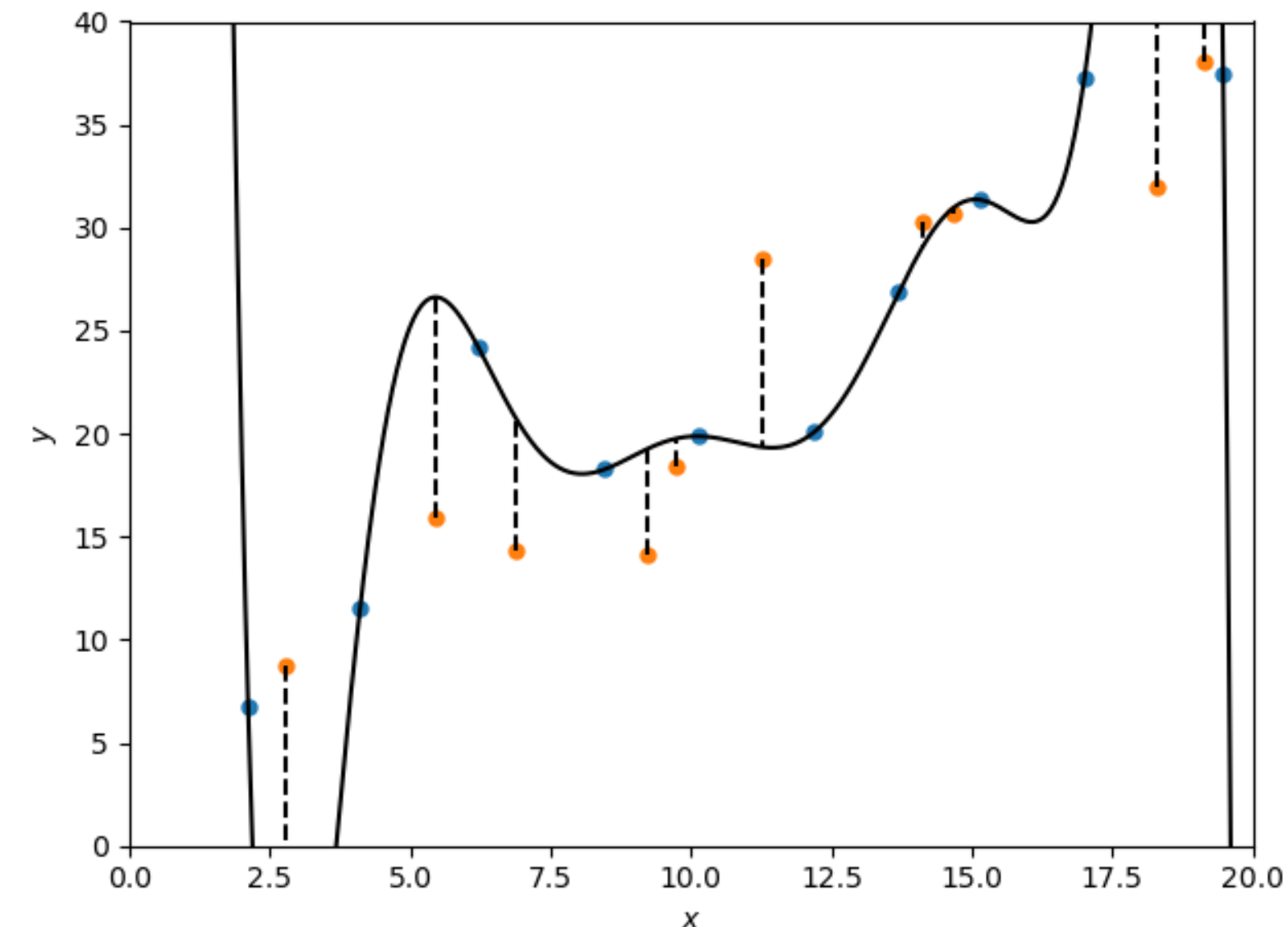
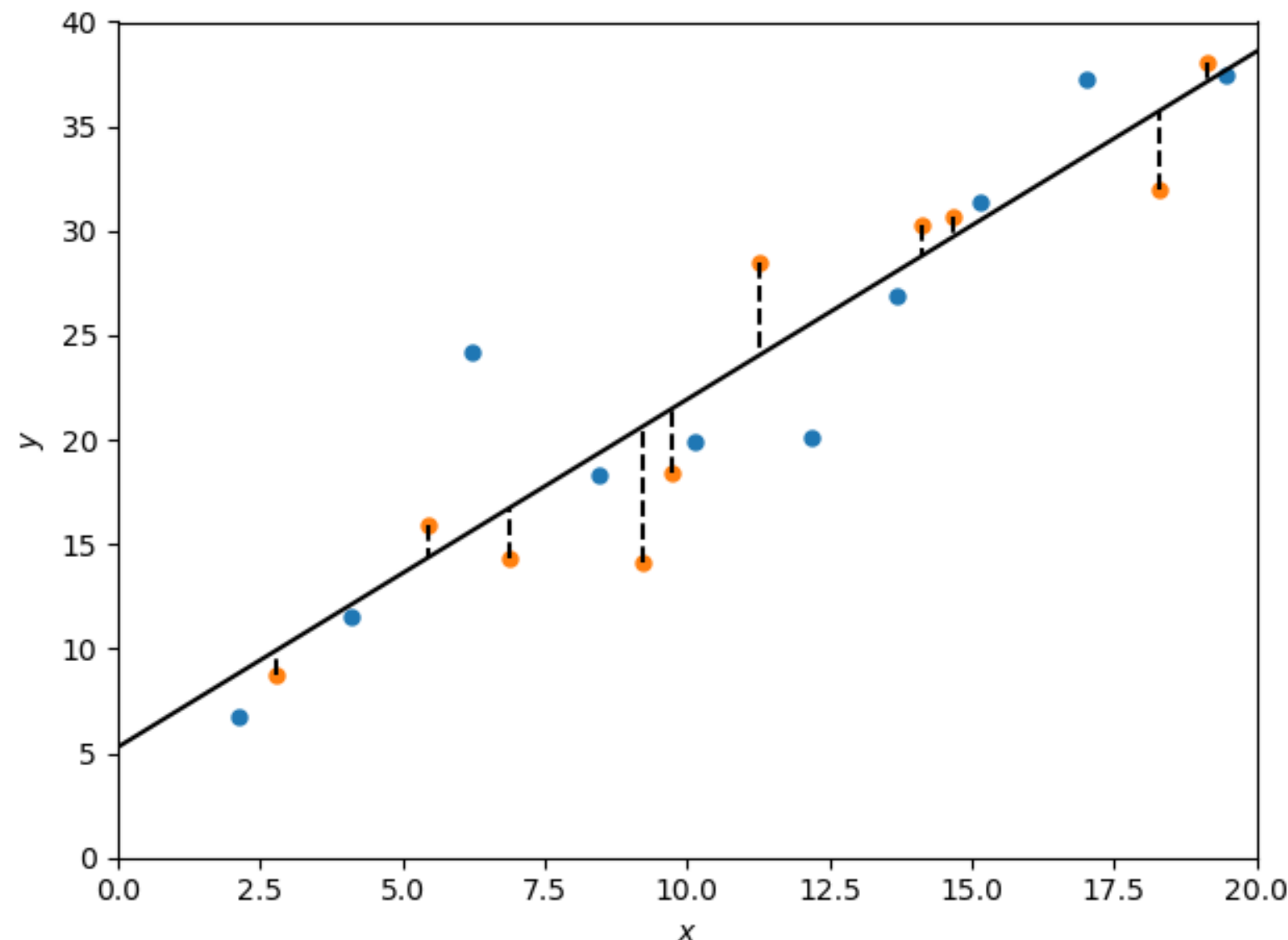
Visualizing learned decision function

$$f(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x$$

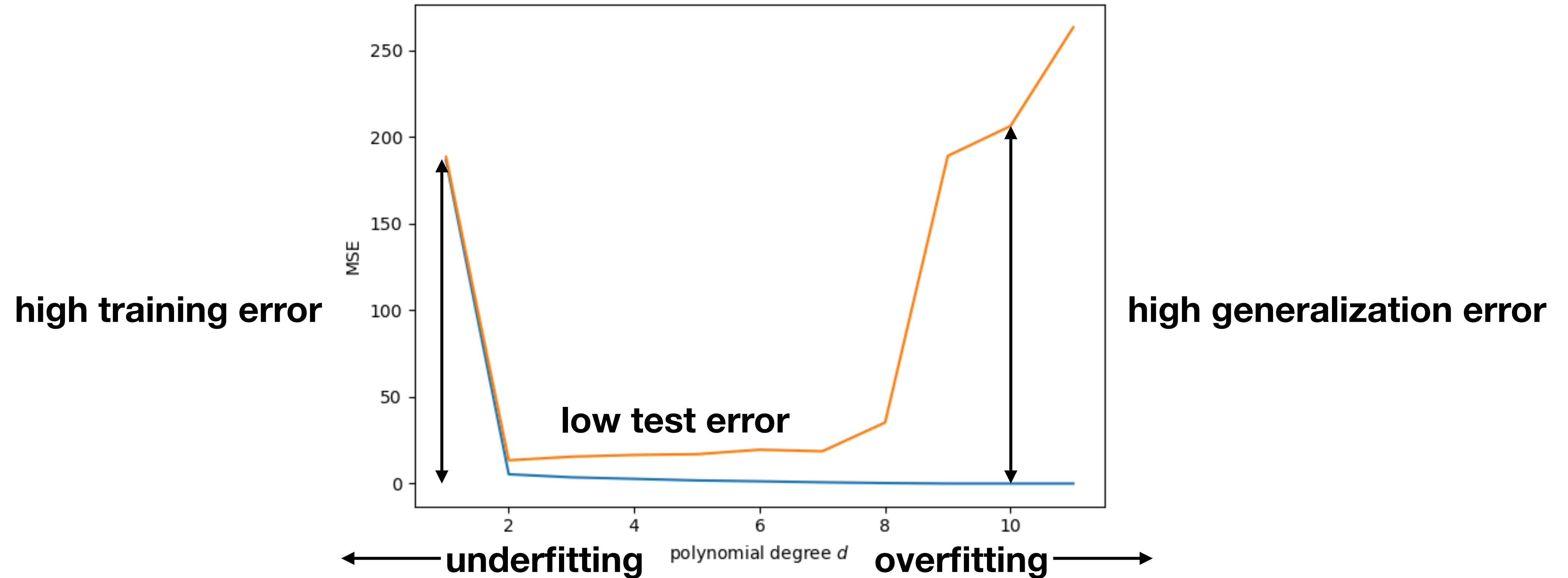


Inductive bias

- **Inductive bias** = assumptions we make to generalize to data we haven't seen
- Without any assumptions, there is no generalization
 - “Anything is possible” in the test data
- **Occam's razor**: prefer simpler explanations of the data

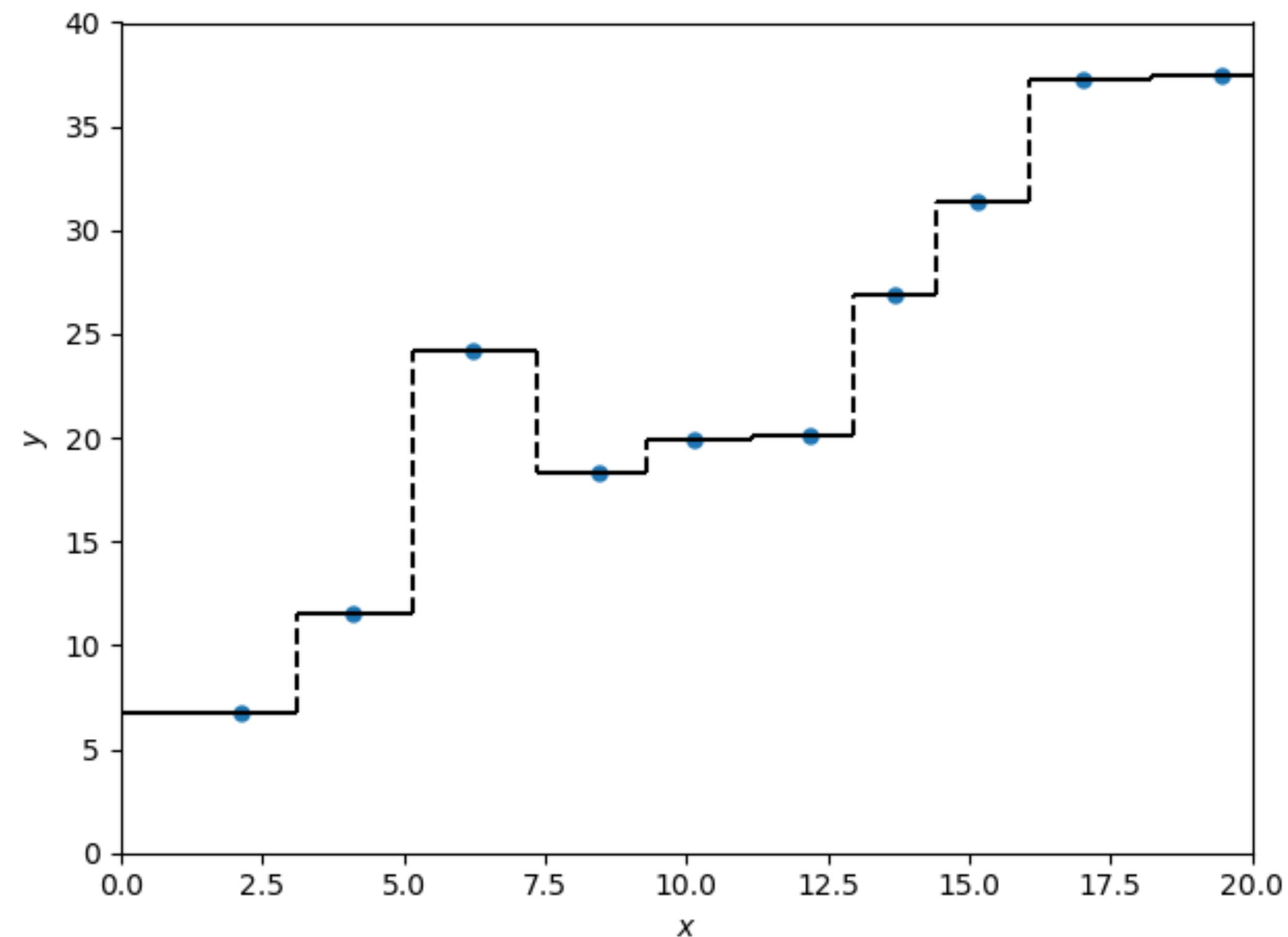


How overfitting affects prediction error



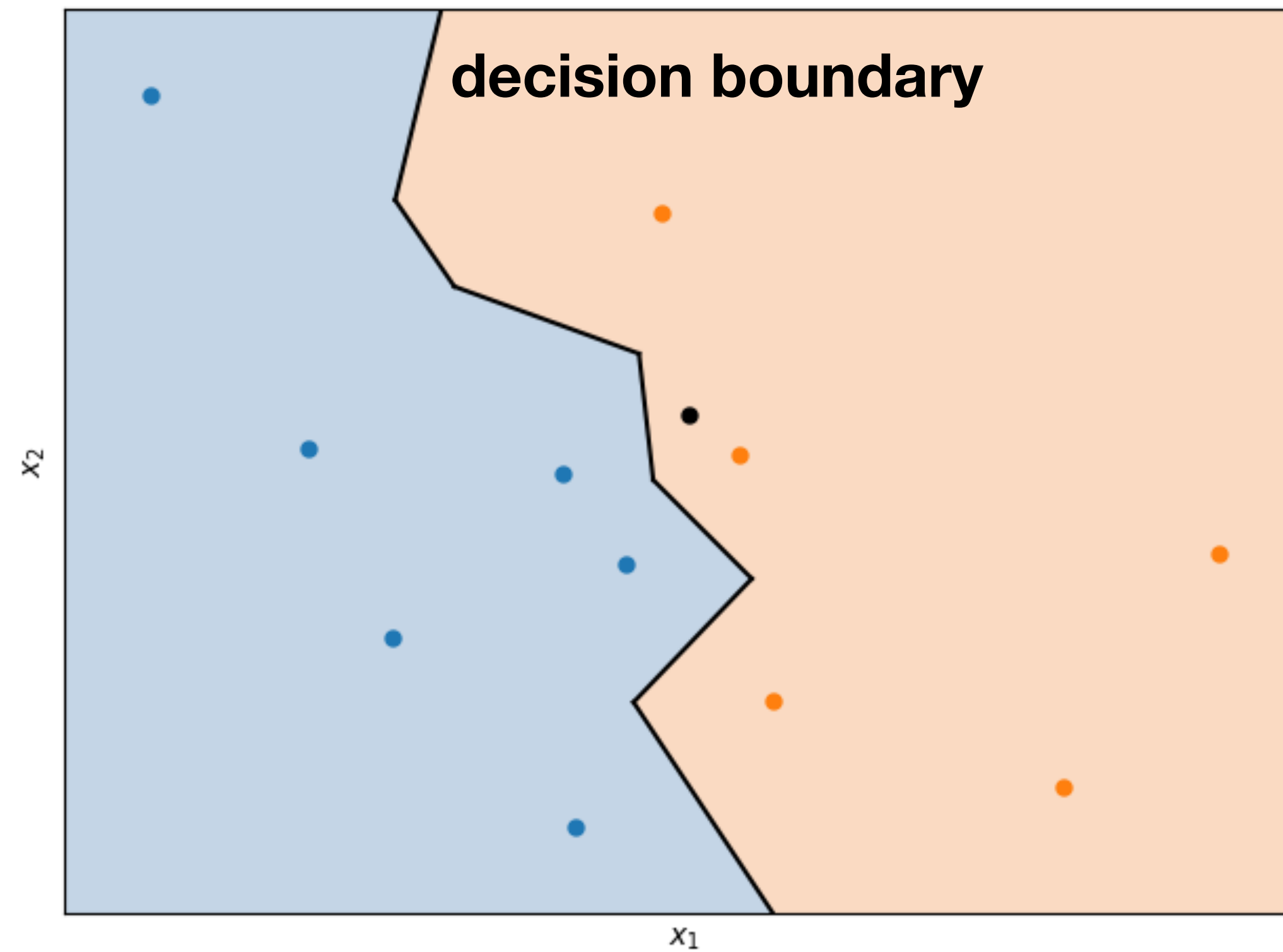
- Low model complexity → **underfitting**
 - High test error = high training error + low generalization error
- High model complexity → **overfitting**
 - High test error = low training error + high generalization error

Nearest-Neighbor regression

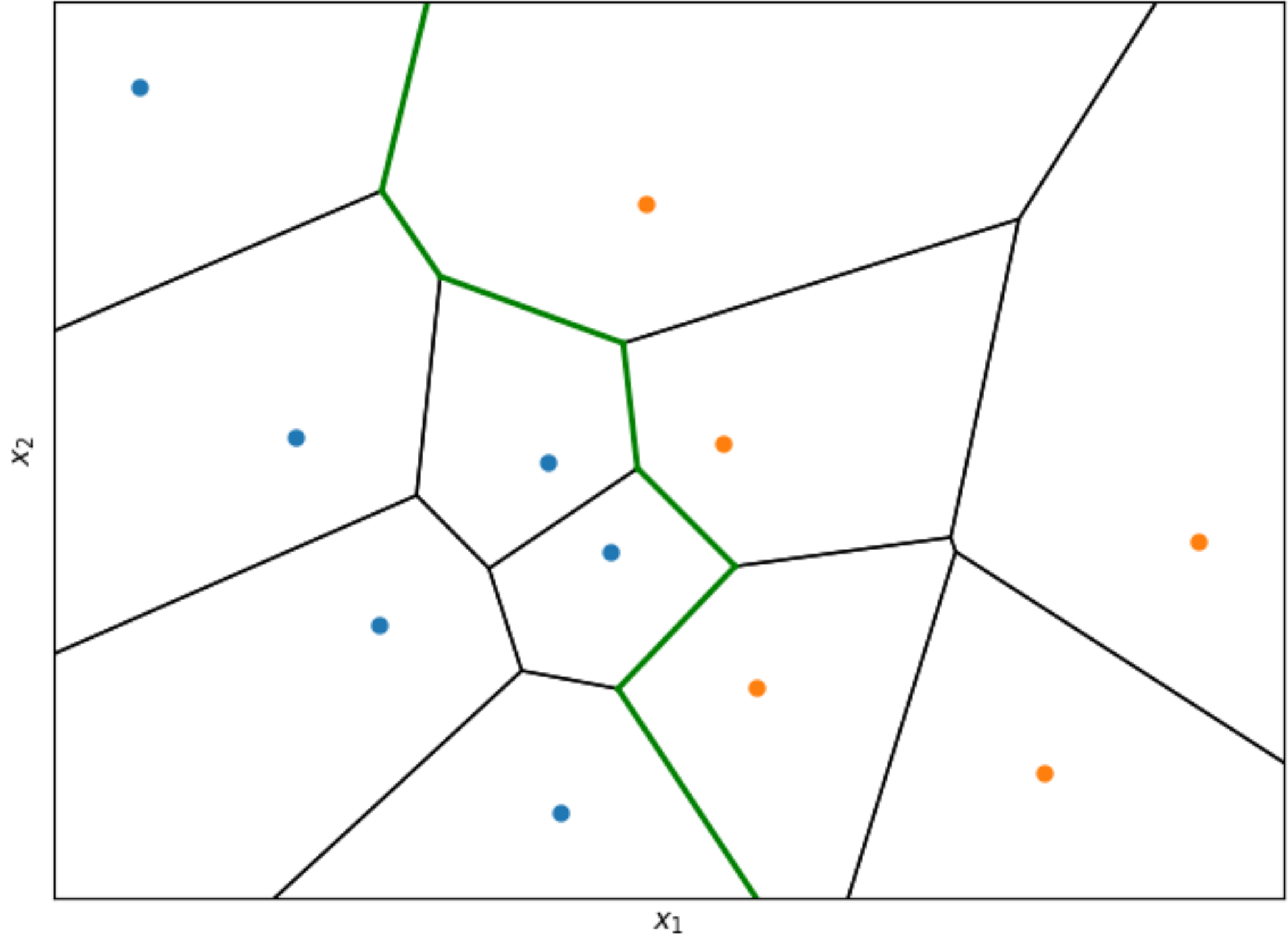


- Decision function $f : x \mapsto y$ is **piecewise constant** (for 1D x)
- Data induces f implicitly; f is never stored explicitly, but can be computed

Nearest-Neighbor classification



Nearest-Neighbor classification



k -Nearest Neighbor (kNN)

- Find the k nearest neighbors to x in the dataset

- Given x , rank the data points by their distance from x , $d(x, x^{(j)})$

- Usually, Euclidean distance $d(x, x^{(j)}) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_i (x_i - x_i^{(j)})^2}$

- Select the k data points which have smallest distance to x

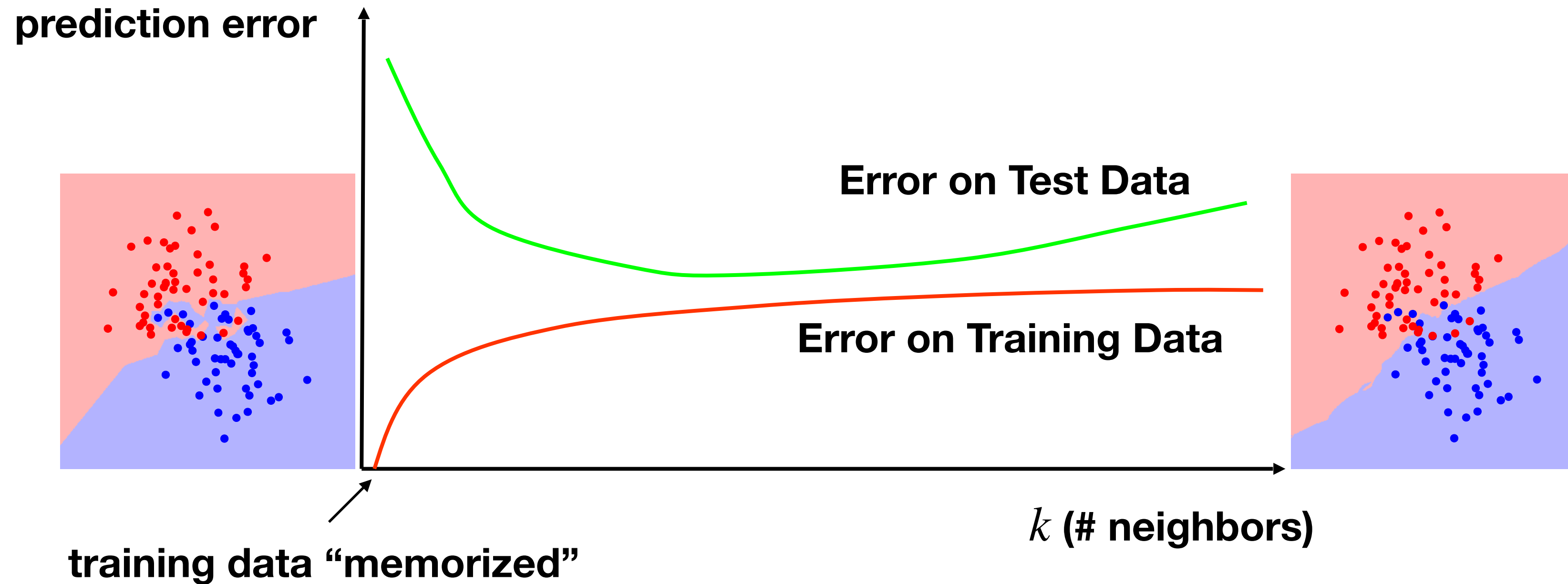
- What is the prediction?

- Regression: average $y^{(j)}$ for the k closest training examples

- Classification: take a majority vote among $y^{(j)}$ for the k closest training examples

- No ties in 2-class problems when k is odd

Error rates and k



- A complex model fits training data but generalizes poorly
- $k = 1$: perfect memorization of examples = complex
- $k = m$: predict majority class over entire dataset = simple
- We can select k with validation

Probabilistic modeling of data

- Assume data with features x and discrete labels y
- Prior probability of each class: $p(y)$
 - **Prior** = before seeing the features
 - E.g., fraction of applicants that have good credit
- Distribution of features given the class: $p(x | y = c)$
 - How likely are we to see x in applicants with good credit?

models:

$x \longrightarrow y$

$y \longrightarrow x$

- Joint distribution: $p(x, y) = p(x)p(y | x) = p(y)p(x | y)$

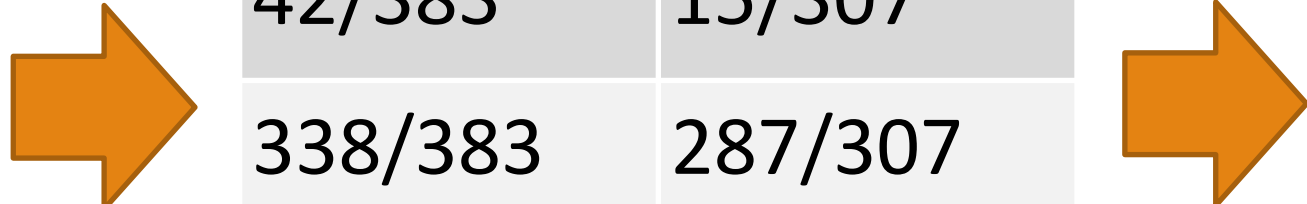
does not imply causality!

- Bayes' rule: **posterior** $p(y | x) = \frac{p(y)p(x | y)}{p(x)} = \frac{p(y)p(x | y)}{\sum_c p(y = c)p(x | y = c)}$

Bayes classifiers

- Learn a “class-conditional” model for the data
 - Estimate the probability for each class $p(y = c)$
 - Split training data by class $\mathcal{D}_c = \{x^{(j)} : y^{(j)} = c\}$
 - Estimate from \mathcal{D}_c the conditional distribution $p(x | y = c)$
- For discrete x , can represent as a contingency table

Features	# bad	# good
X=0	42	15
X=1	338	287
X=2	3	5
p(y)	383/690	307/690



p(x y=0)	p(x y=1)
42/383	15/307
338/383	287/307
3/383	5/307

p(y=0 x)	p(y=1 x)
.7368	.2632
.5408	.4592
.3750	.6250

Bayes-optimal decision

- Maximum posterior decision: $\hat{p}(y = 0 | x) \lesseqgtr \hat{p}(y = 1 | x)$
 - Optimal for the **error-rate (0–1) loss**: $\mathbb{E}_{x,y \sim p}[\hat{y}(x) \neq y]$
- What if we have different cost for different errors? $\alpha_{\text{FP}}, \alpha_{\text{FN}}$
 - $\mathcal{L} = \mathbb{E}_{x,y \sim p}[\alpha_{\text{FP}} \cdot \#(y = 0, \hat{y}(x) = 1) + \alpha_{\text{FN}} \cdot \#(y = 1, \hat{y}(x) = 0)]$
- **Bayes-optimal decision**: $\alpha_{\text{FP}} \cdot \hat{p}(y = 0 | x) \lesseqgtr \alpha_{\text{FN}} \cdot \hat{p}(y = 1 | x)$
 - **Log probability ratio**: $\log \frac{\hat{p}(y = 1 | x)}{\hat{p}(y = 0 | x)} \lesseqgtr \log \frac{\alpha_{\text{FP}}}{\alpha_{\text{FN}}} = \alpha$

Comparing classifiers

- Which classifier performs “better”?

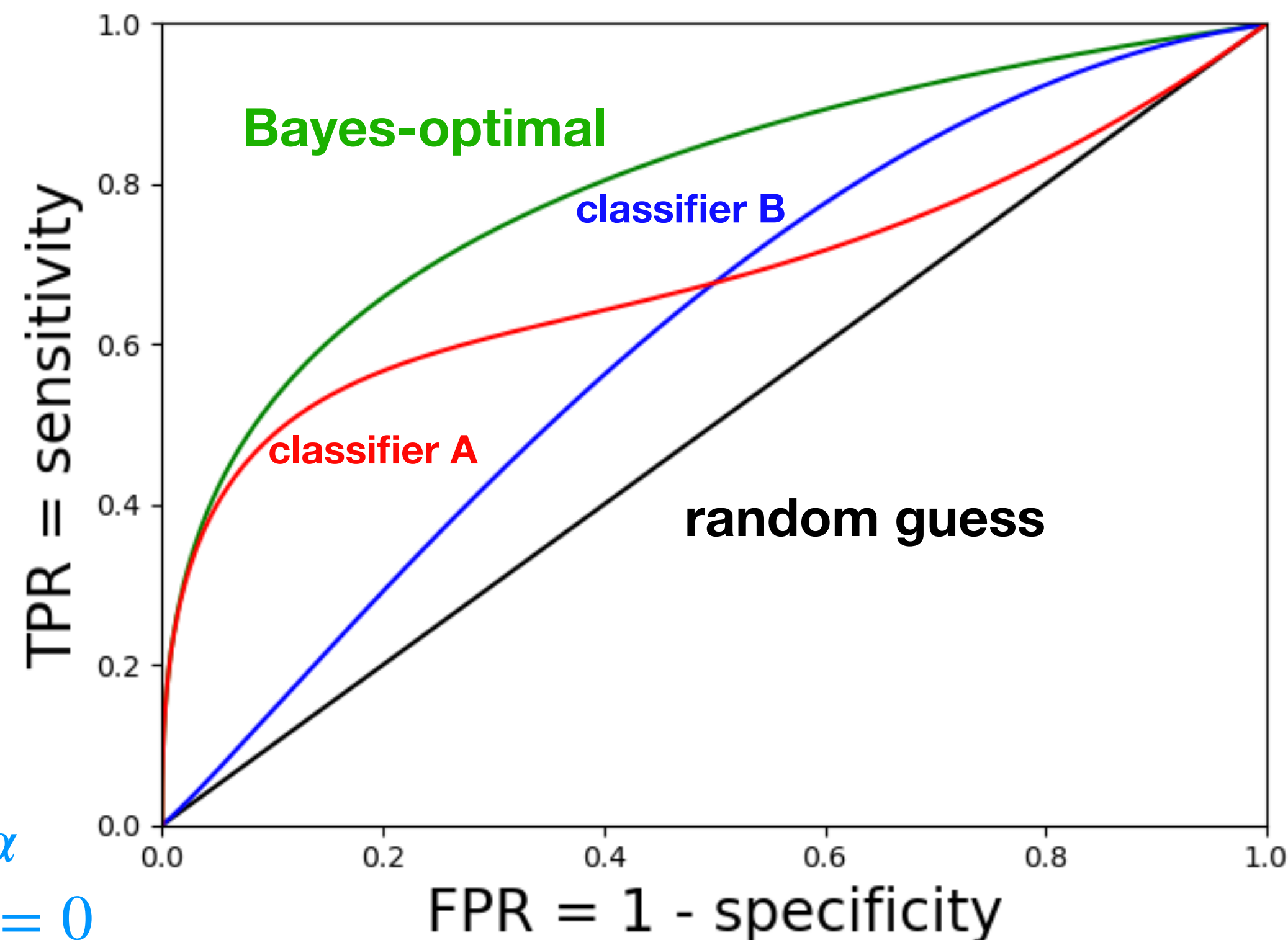
- ▶ **A** is better for high specificity
- ▶ **B** is better for high sensitivity
- ▶ Need single performance measure

- Area Under Curve (AUC)

- ▶ $0.5 \leq \text{AUC} \leq 1$
- ▶ AUC = 0.5: random guess
- ▶ AUC = 1: no errors

large α
always $\hat{y} = 0$

small α
always $\hat{y} = 1$



Estimating joint distributions

- Can we estimate $p(x | y)$ from data?
- Count how many data points for each x ?
 - If $m \ll 2^n$, most instances never occur
 - Do we predict that missing instances are impossible?
 - What if they occur in test data?
- Difficulty to represent and estimate go hand in hand
 - Model complexity \rightarrow overfitting!

A	B	C	$p(A,B,C y=1)$
0	0	0	4/10
0	0	1	1/10
0	1	0	0/10
0	1	1	0/10
1	0	0	1/10
1	0	1	2/10
1	1	0	1/10
1	1	1	1/10

Regularization

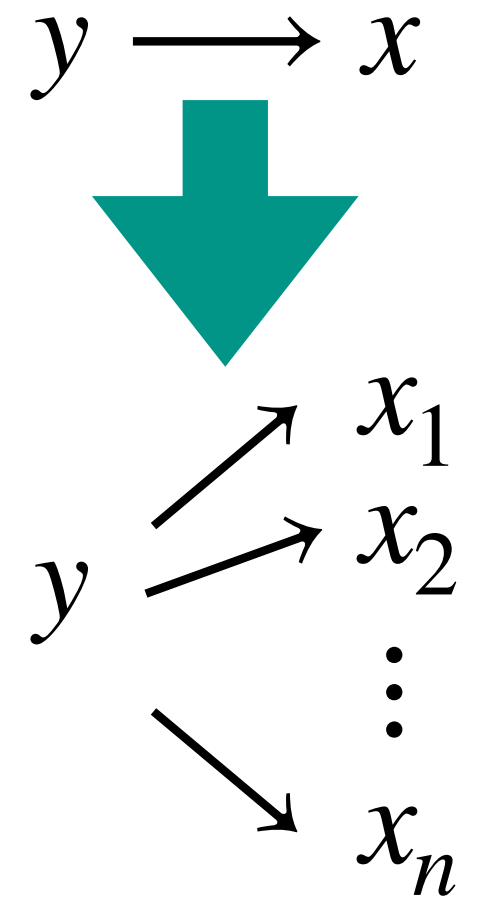
- Reduce effective size of model class
 - Hope to avoid overfitting
- One way: make the model more “regular”, less sensitive to data quirks
- Example: add small “pseudo-count” to the counts (before normalizing)

- $$\hat{p}(x | y = c) = \frac{\#_c(x) + \alpha}{m_c + \alpha \cdot 2^n}$$

- Not a huge help here, most cells will be uninformative $\frac{\alpha}{m_c + \alpha \cdot 2^n}$

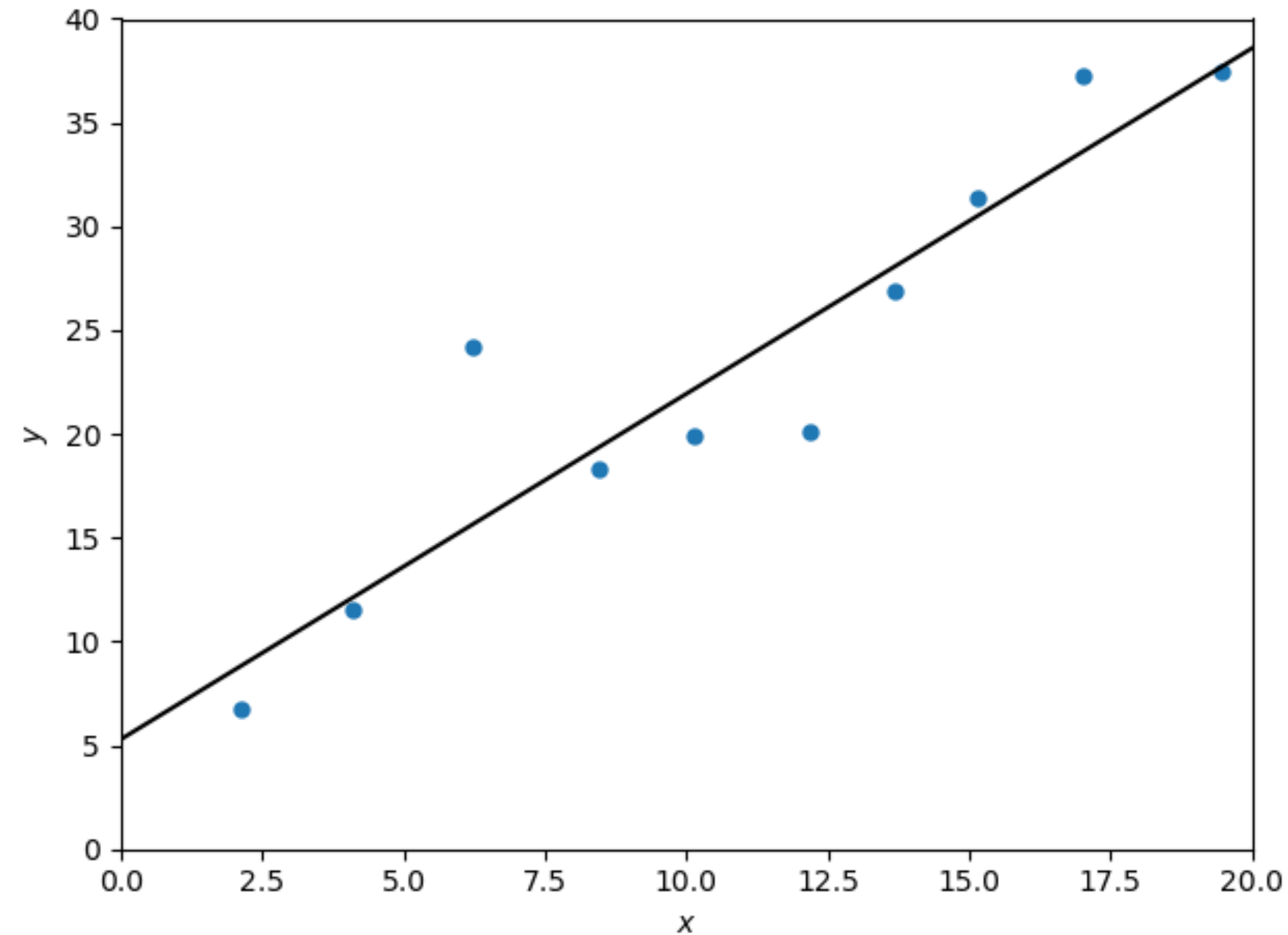
Naïve Bayes models

- We want to predict some value y , e.g. auto accident next year
- We have many known indicators for y (**covariates**) $x = x_1, \dots, x_n$
 - E.g., age, income, education, zip code, ...
 - Learn $p(y | x_1, \dots, x_n)$ — but cannot represent / estimate $O(2^n)$ values
- Naïve Bayes
 - Estimate prior distribution $\hat{p}(y)$
 - Assume $p(x_1, \dots, x_n | y) = \prod_i p(x_i | y)$, estimate covariates independently $\hat{p}(x_i | y)$
 - Model: $\hat{p}(y | x) \propto \hat{p}(y) \prod_i \hat{p}(x_i | y)$



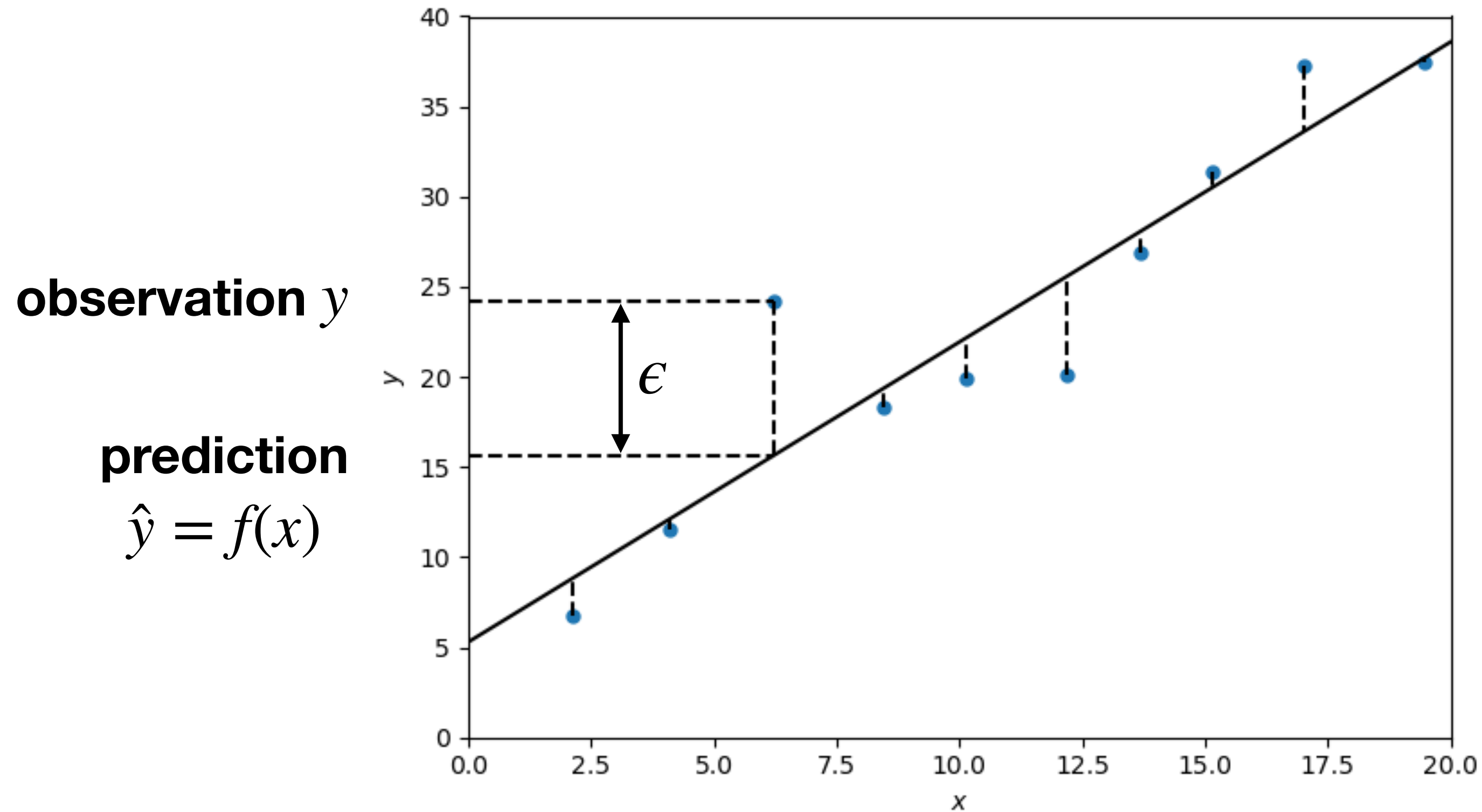
causal structure wrong!
(but useful...)

Linear regression



- Decision function $f : x \mapsto y$ is **linear**, $f(x) = \theta^T x$
- f is stored by its parameters θ

Measuring error



- Error / residual: $\epsilon = y - \hat{y}$

- Mean square error (MSE): $\frac{1}{m} \sum_j (\epsilon^{(j)})^2 = \frac{1}{m} \sum_j (y^{(j)} - \hat{y}^{(j)})^2$

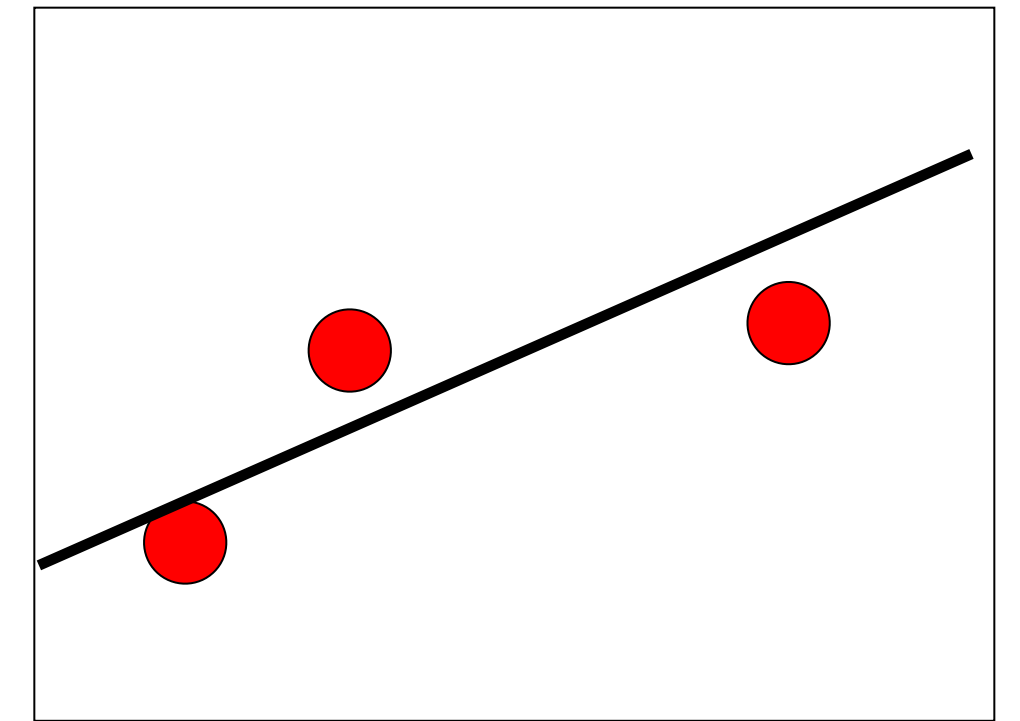
Least Squares

- The minimum is achieved when the gradient is 0

$$\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_{\theta} = -\frac{2}{m}(y - \theta^T X)X^T = 0$$

$$\theta^T X X^T = y X^T$$

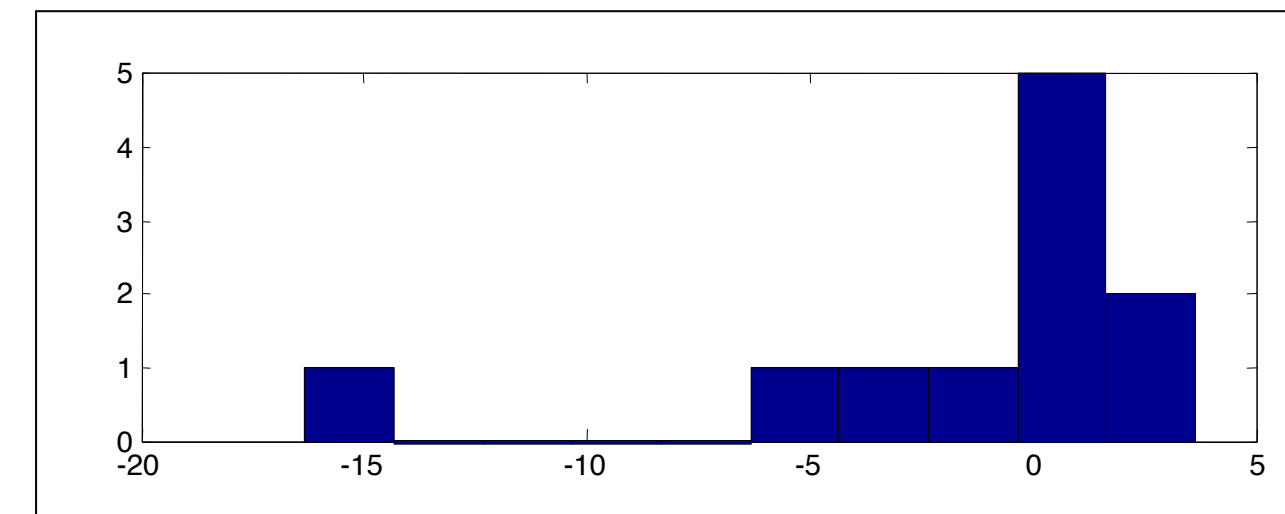
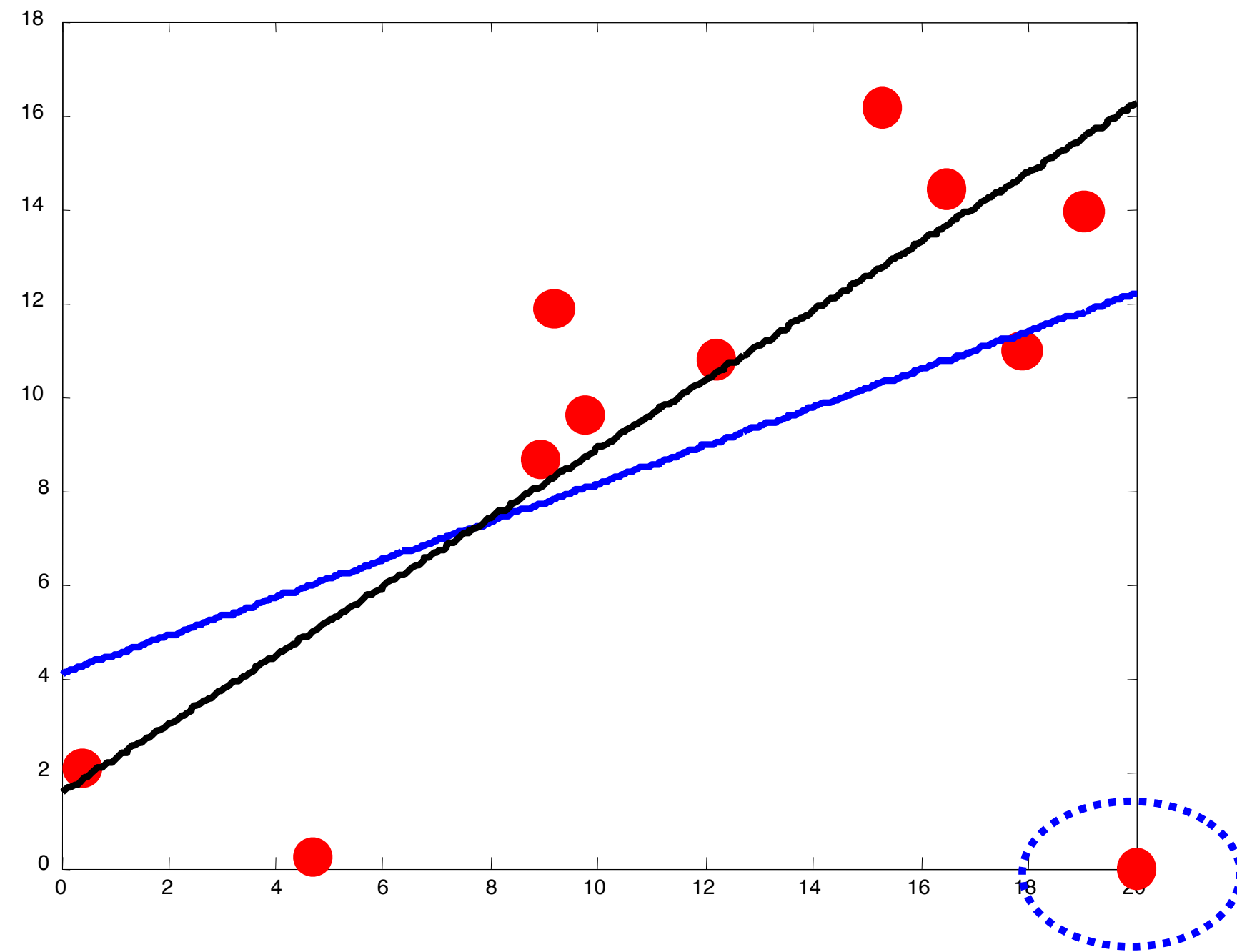
$$\theta^T = y X^T (X X^T)^{-1}$$



- XX^T is invertible when X has linearly independent rows = features
- $X^\dagger = X^T(XX^T)^{-1}$ is the Moore-Penrose **pseudo-inverse** of X
 - $X^\dagger = X^{-1}$ when the inverse exists
 - Can define X^\dagger via **Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)** when XX^T isn't invertible
- $\theta^T = yX^\dagger$ is the **Least Squares** fit of the data (X, y)

MSE and outliers

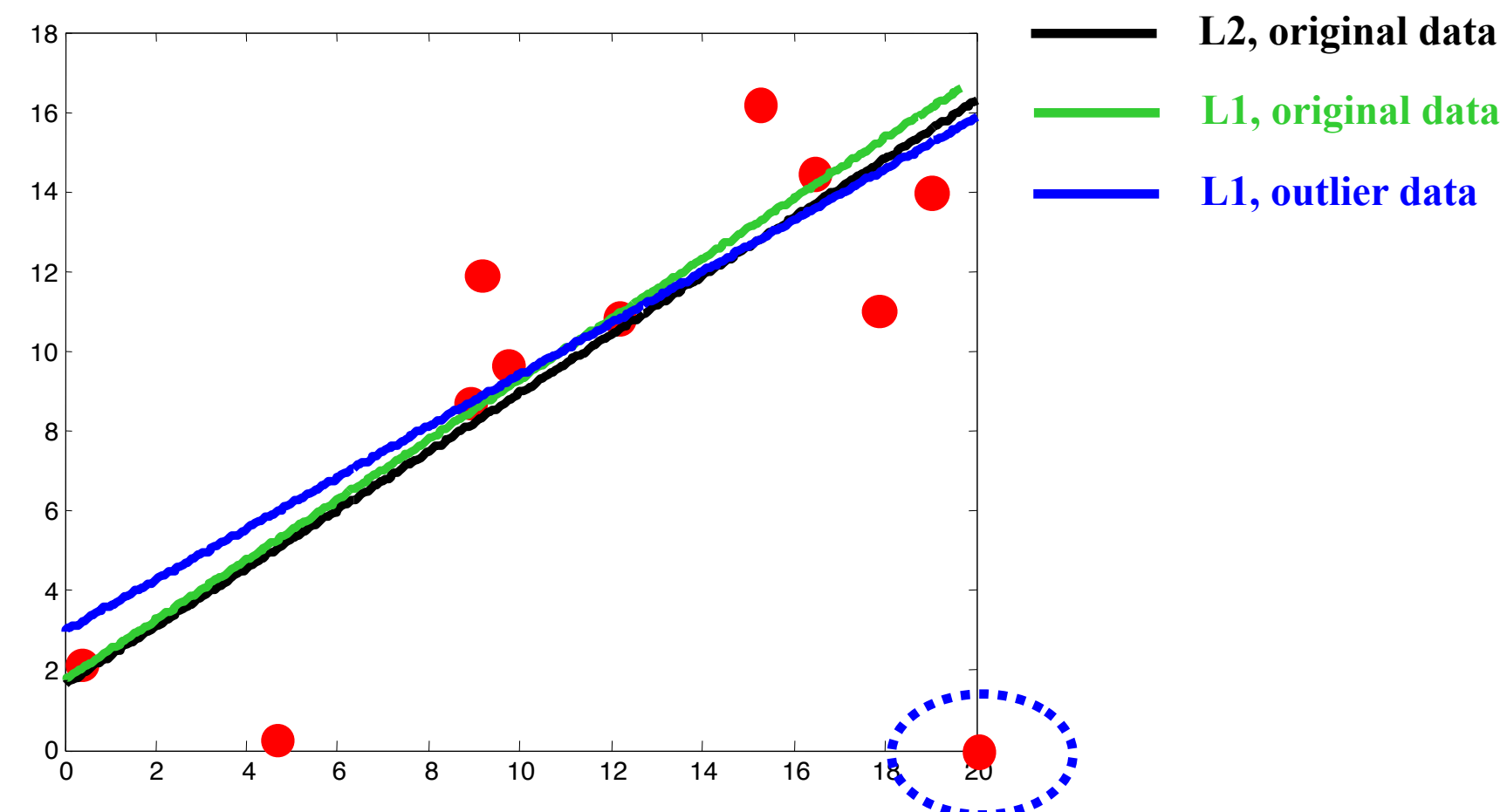
- MSE is sensitive to outliers



- Square error 16^2 throws off entire optimization

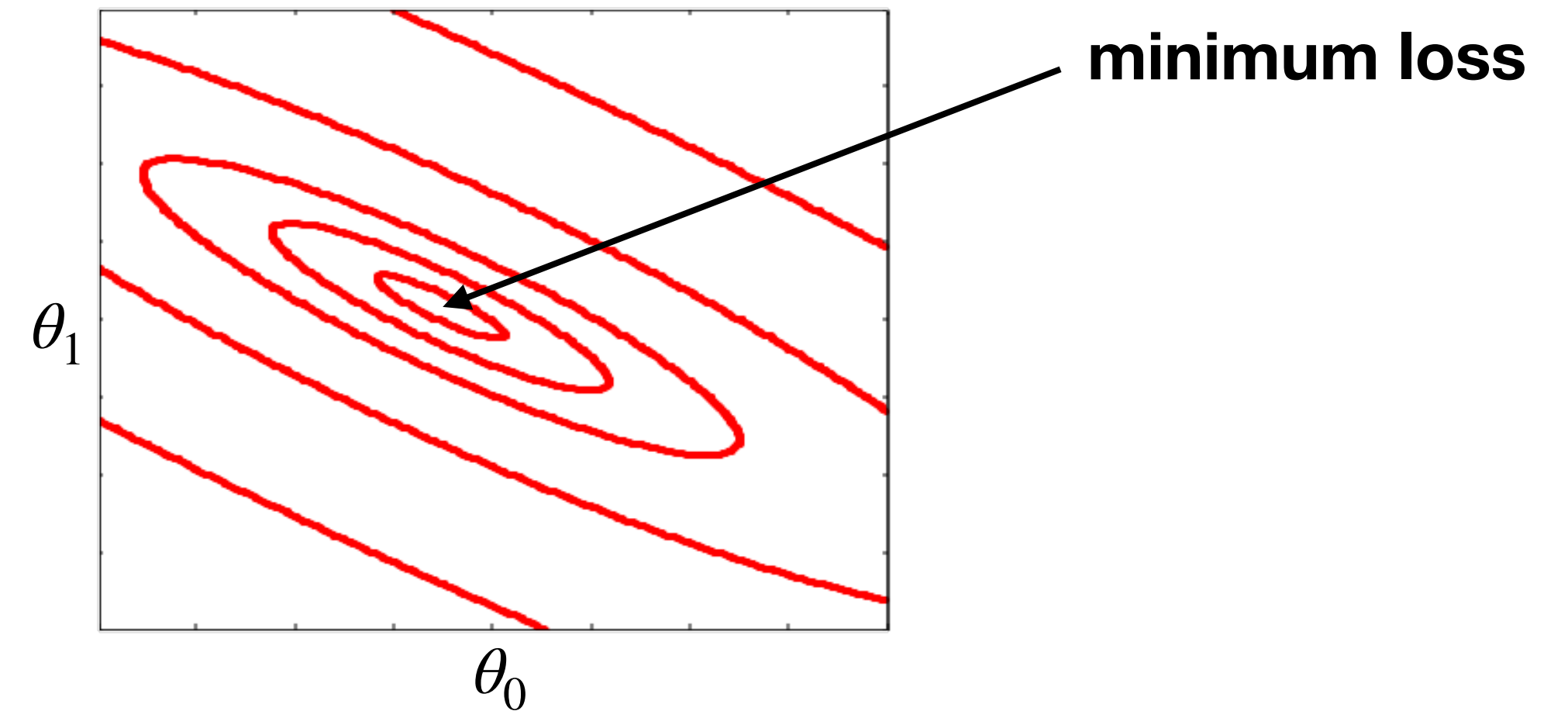
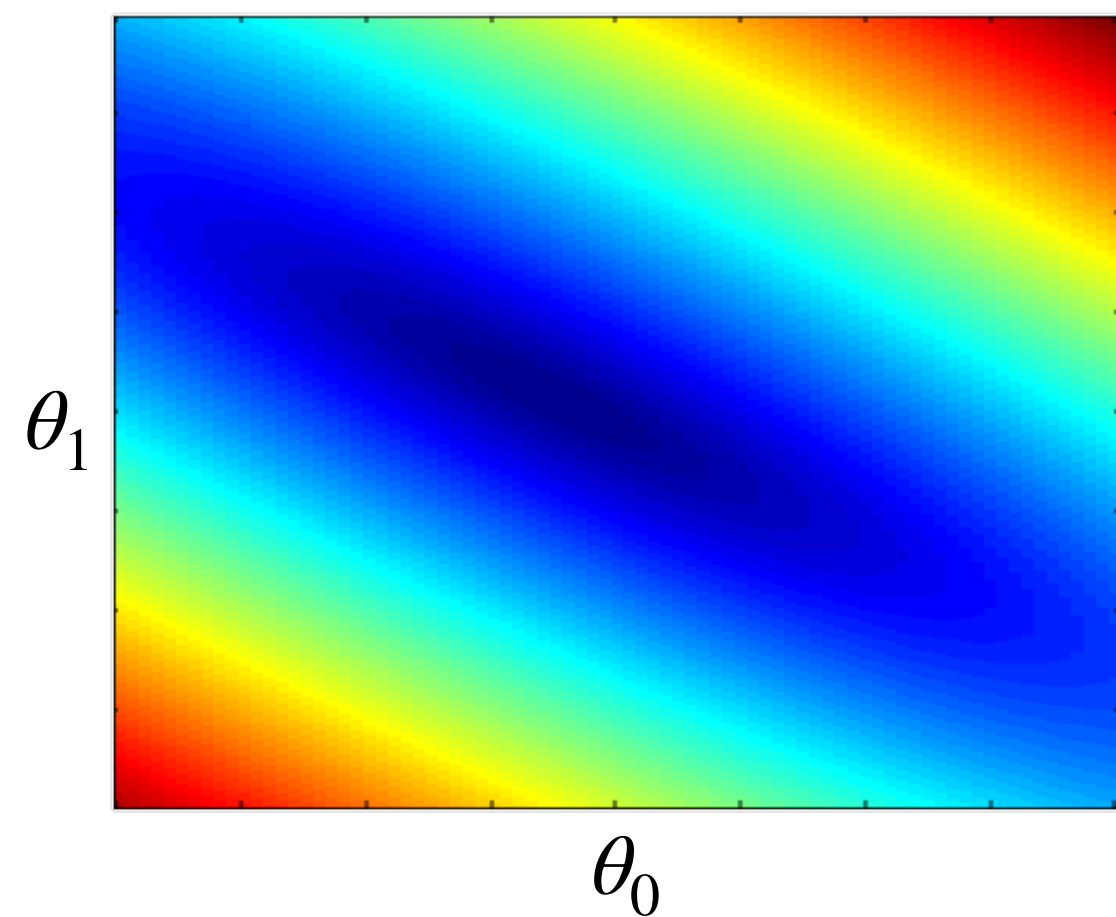
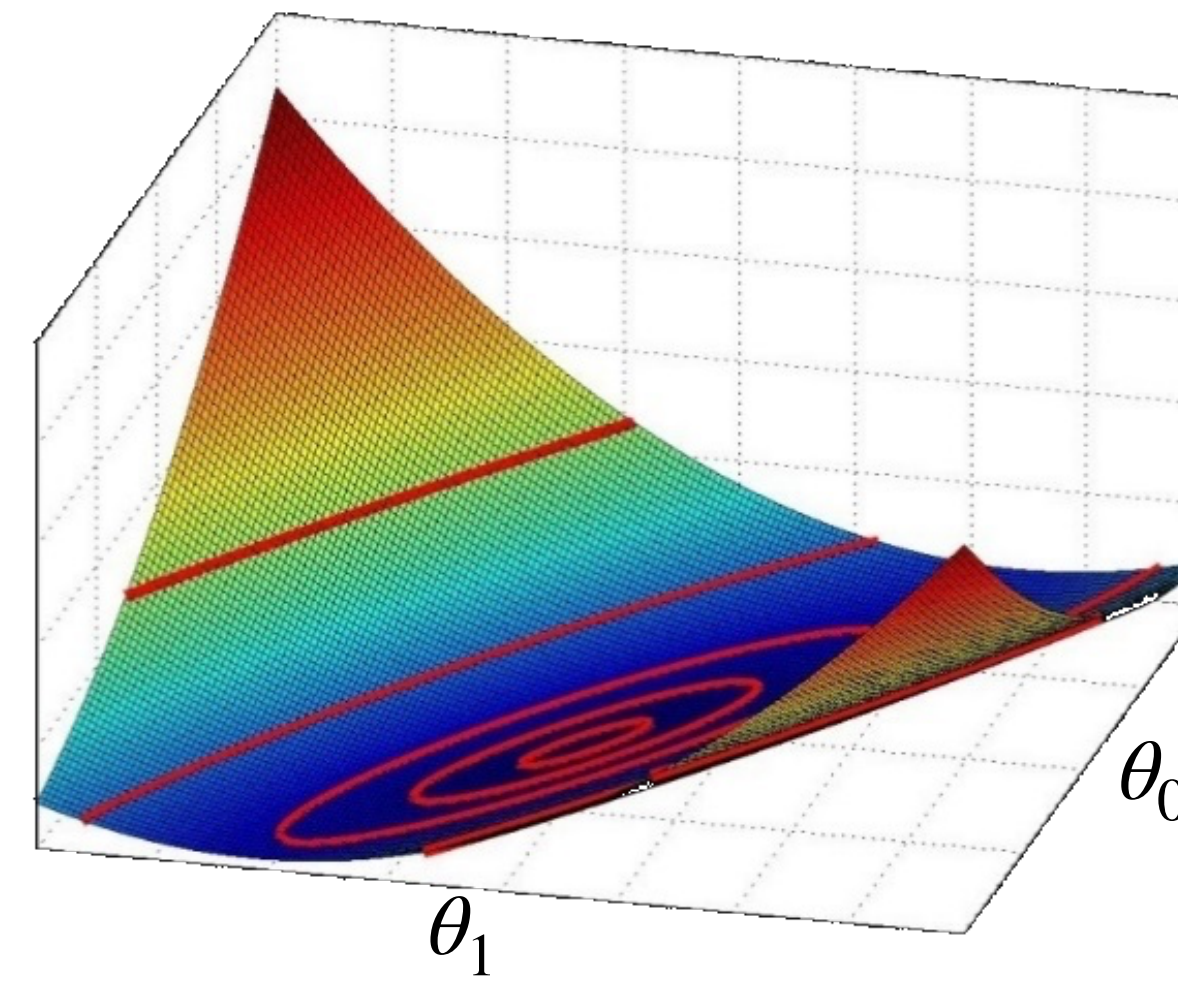
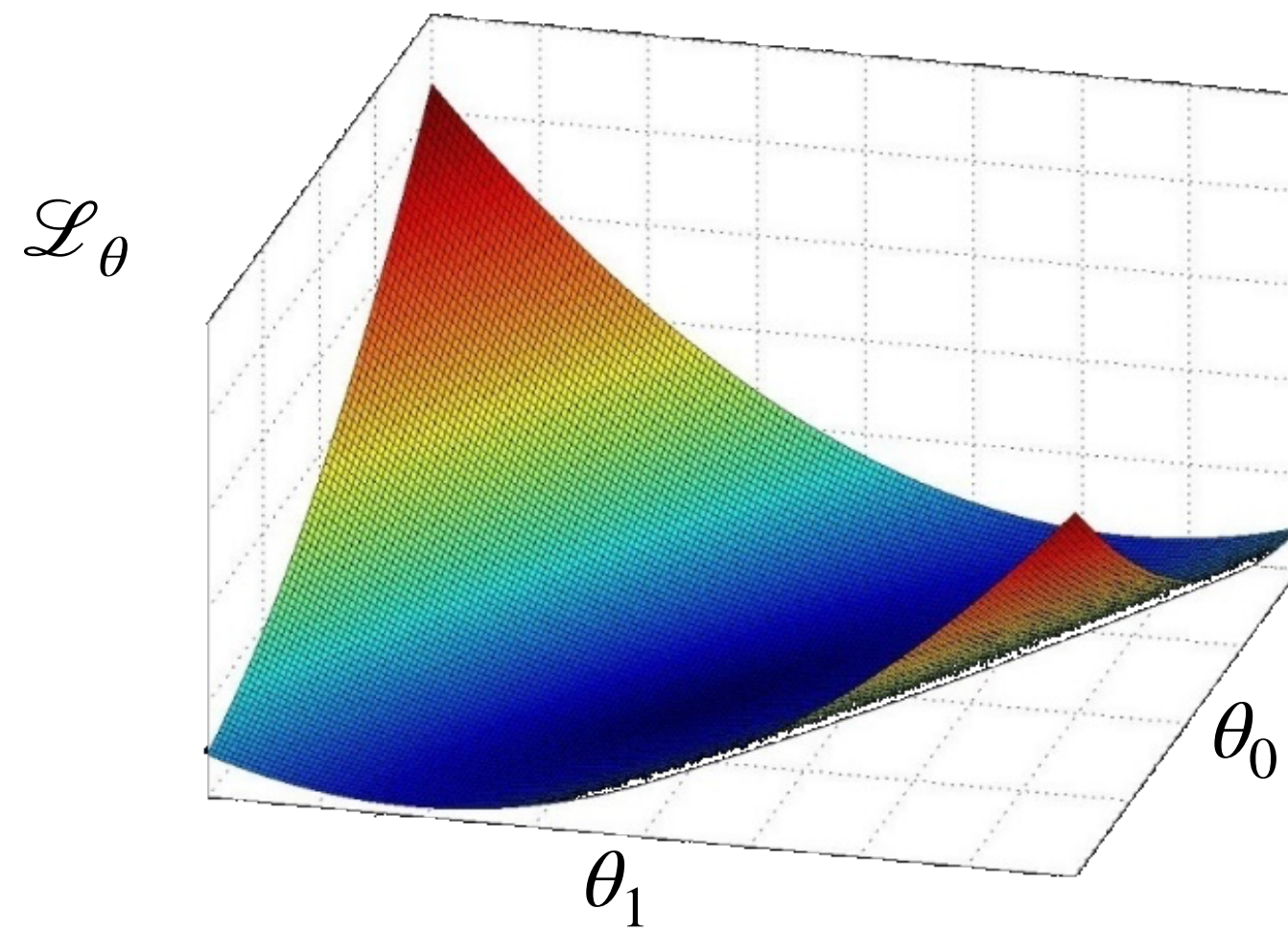
Mean Absolute Error (MAE)

- MSE uses the L_2 norm of the error $\|y - \theta^T X\|_2^2 = \sum_j (y - \theta^T X)^2$
- What if we use the L_1 norm $\|y - \theta^T X\|_1 = \sum_j |y - \theta^T X|$?
- ▶ Mean Absolute Error (MAE): $\frac{1}{m} \sum_j |y - \theta^T X|$



Loss landscape

- $\mathcal{L}_\theta(\mathcal{D}) = \frac{1}{m}(y - \theta^\top X)(y - \theta^\top X)^\top = \frac{1}{m}(\theta^\top XX^\top \theta - 2yX^\top \theta + yy^\top)$ ← quadratic!

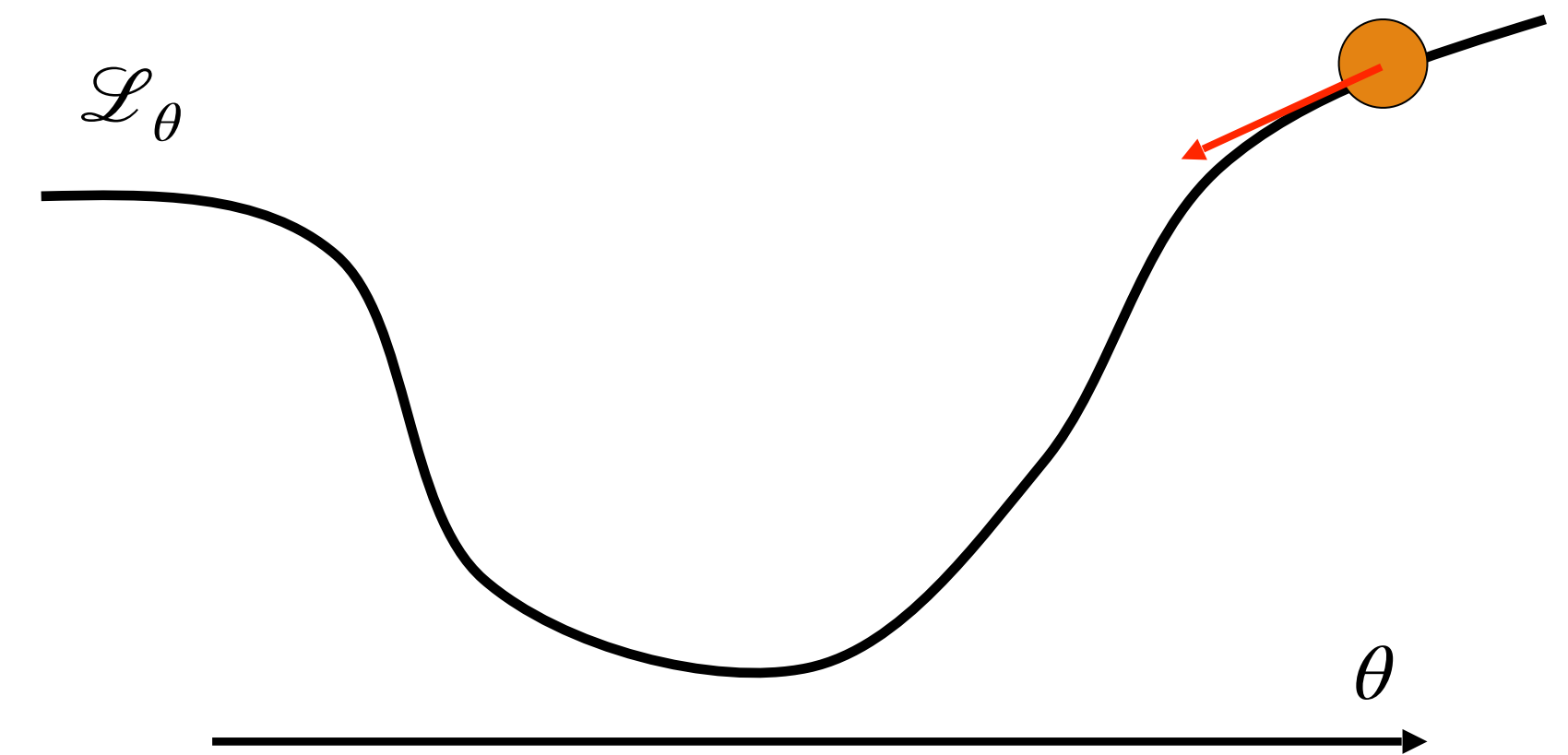


Gradient descent

- How to vary $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ to improve the loss \mathcal{L}_θ ?
 - Find a direction in parameter space in which \mathcal{L}_θ is decreasing

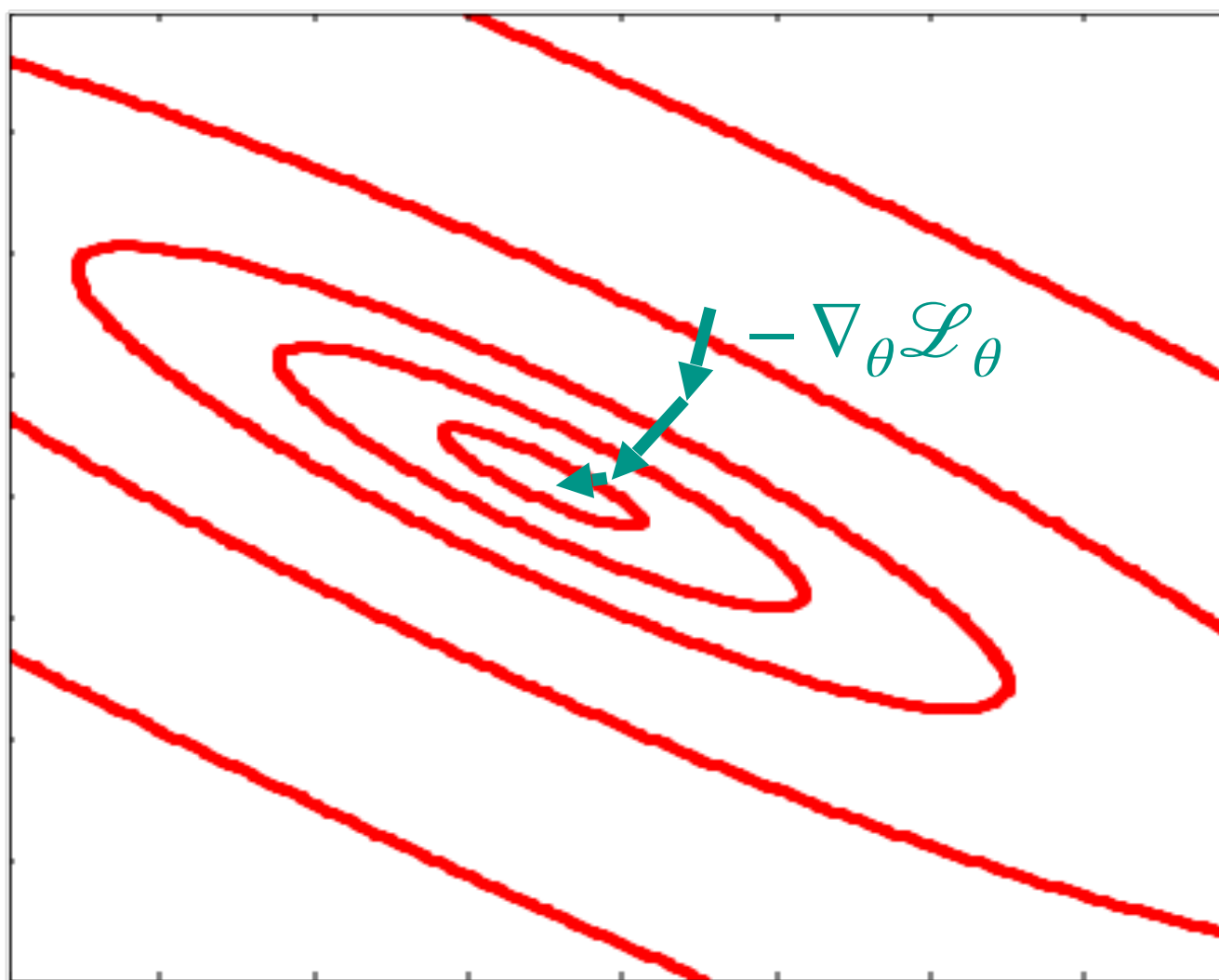
- Derivative $\partial_\theta \mathcal{L}_\theta = \lim_{\delta\theta \rightarrow 0} \frac{\mathcal{L}_{\theta+\delta\theta} - \mathcal{L}_\theta}{\delta\theta}$

- Positive = loss increases with θ
- Negative = loss decreases with θ



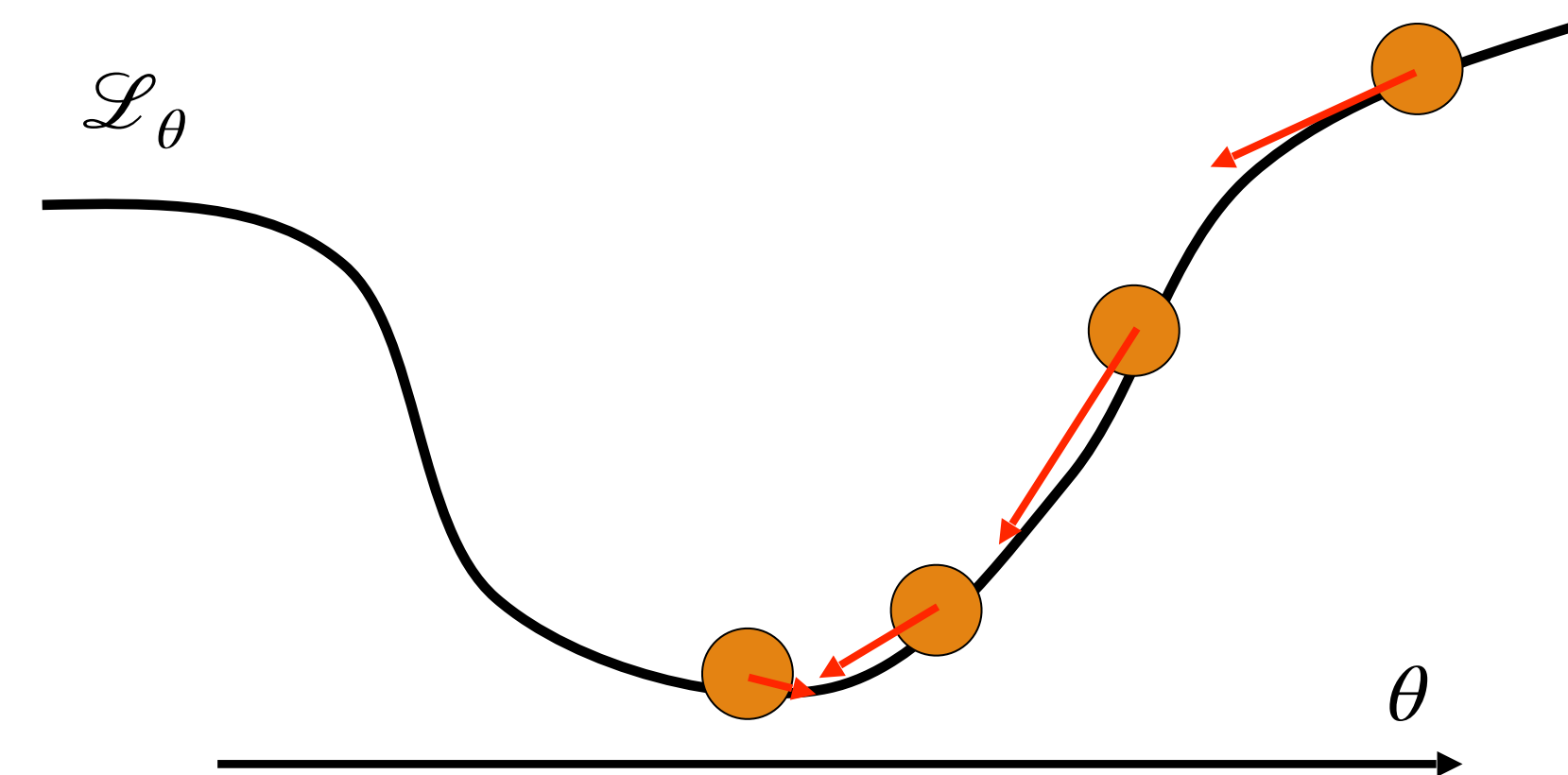
Gradient descent in higher dimension

- Gradient vector: $\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_{\theta} = [\partial_{\theta_0} \mathcal{L}_{\theta} \quad \cdots \quad \partial_{\theta_n} \mathcal{L}_{\theta}]$
- Taylor expansion: $\mathcal{L}(\theta + \delta\theta) = \mathcal{L}(\theta) + (\delta\theta)^T \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_{\theta} + o(\|\delta\theta\|^2)$
 - If we take a small step $\delta\theta$, the best one is in direction $\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_{\theta}$
 - Gradient = direction of **steepest ascent** (negative = steepest descent)



Gradient Descent

- Initialize θ
- Do
 - $\theta \leftarrow \theta - \alpha \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_{\theta}$
- While $\|\alpha \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_{\theta}\| \leq \epsilon$
- **Learning rate:** α
 - Can change in each iteration



Stochastic / Online Gradient Descent

- Estimate $\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_{\theta}$ fast on a sample of data points
- For each data point:

$$\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_{\theta}(x^{(j)}, y^{(j)}) = \nabla_{\theta} (y^{(j)} - \theta^{\top} x^{(j)})^2 = -2(y^{(j)} - \theta^{\top} x^{(j)})(x^{(j)})^{\top}$$

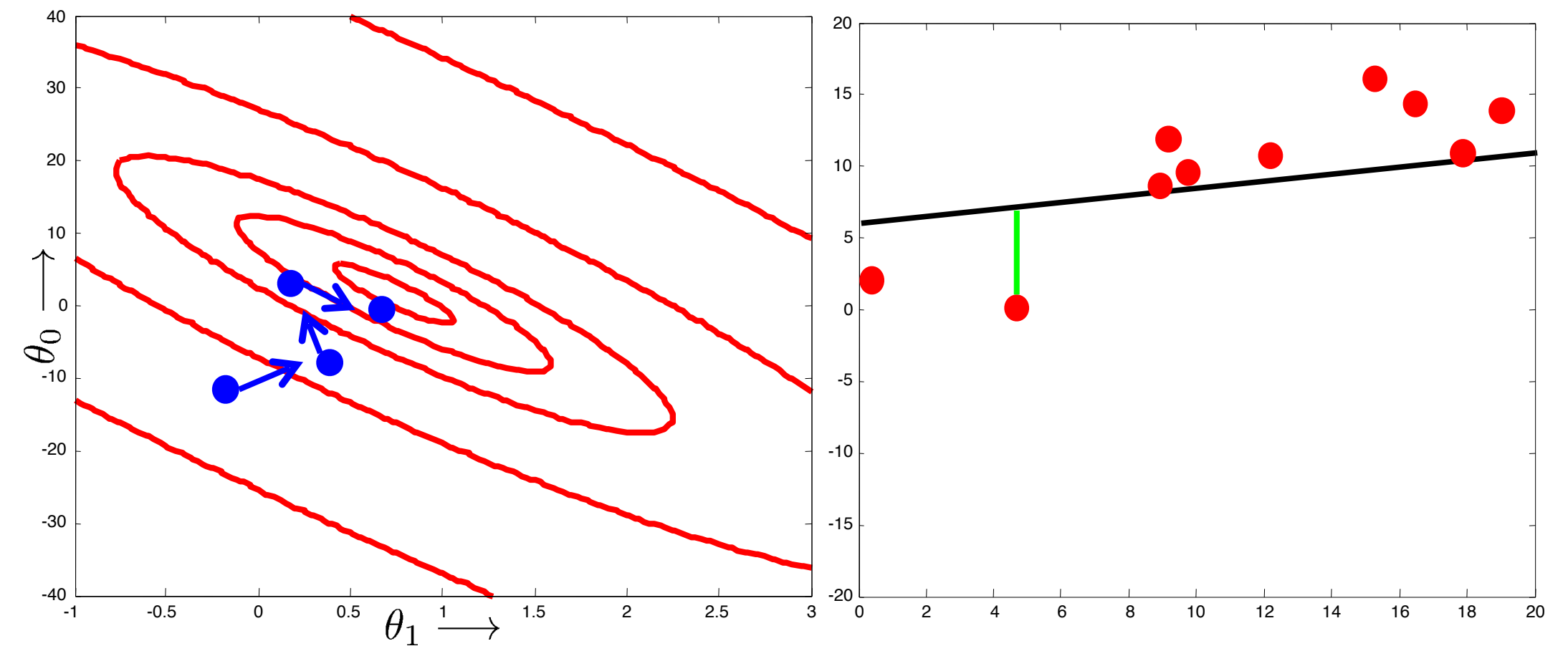
- This is an **unbiased estimator** of the gradient, i.e. in expectation

$$\mathbb{E}_{j \sim \text{Uniform}(1, \dots, m)} [\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_{\theta}^{(j)}] = \frac{1}{m} \sum_j \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_{\theta}^{(j)} = \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_{\theta}(\mathcal{D})$$

- $\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_{\theta}(\mathcal{D})$ is already a noisy unbiased estimator of true gradient $\mathbb{E}_{x, y \sim p} [\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_{\theta}(x, y)]$
 - SGD is even more noisy

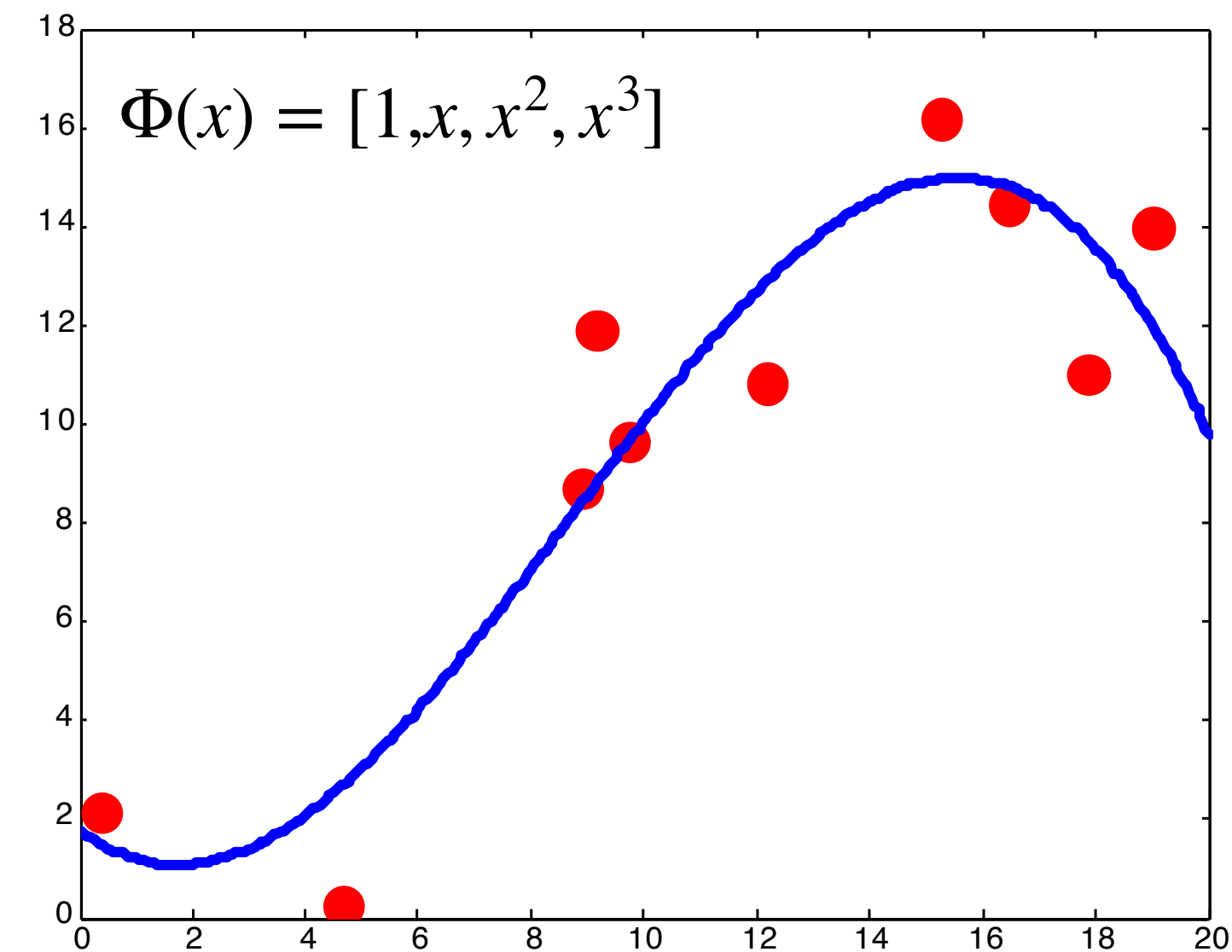
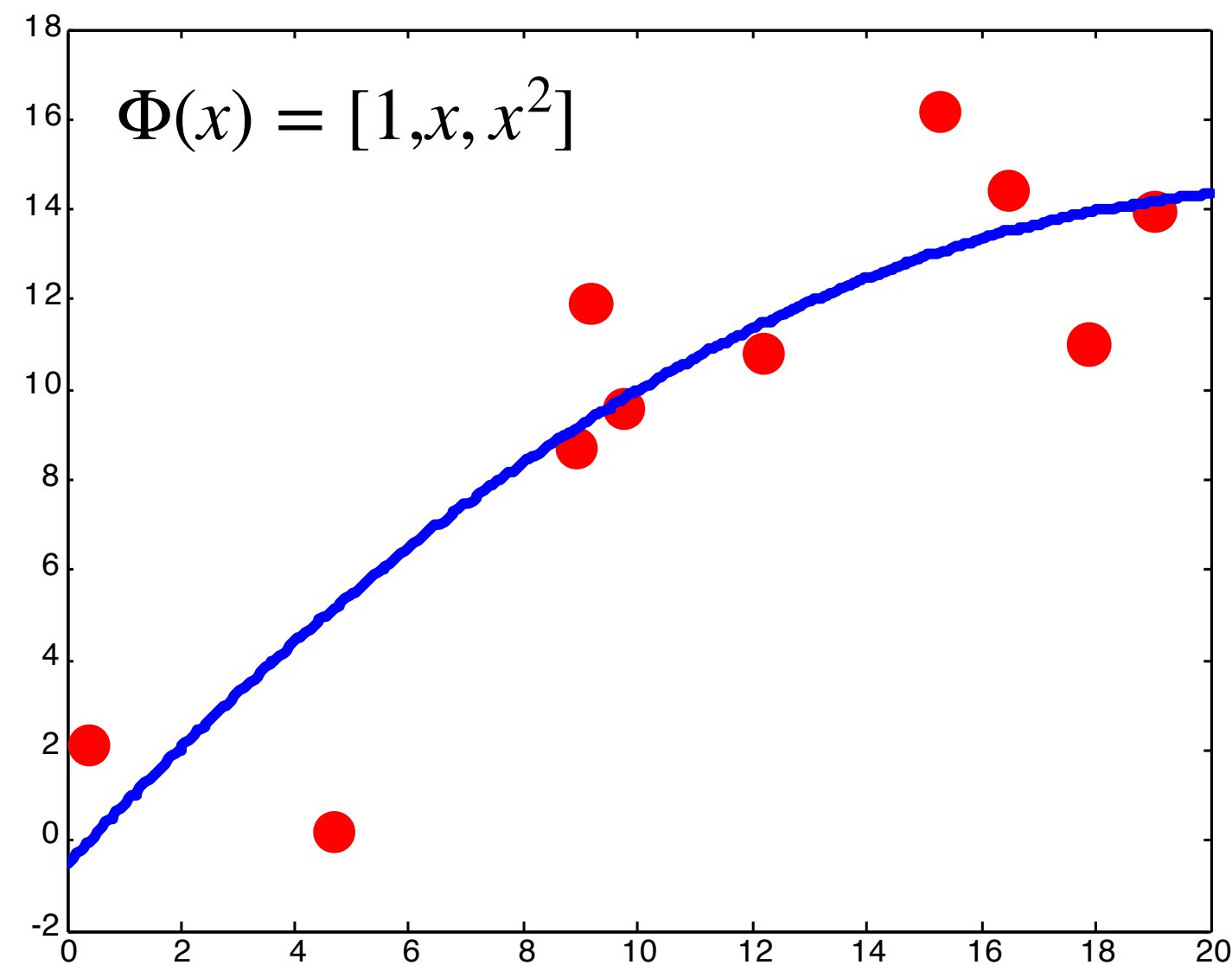
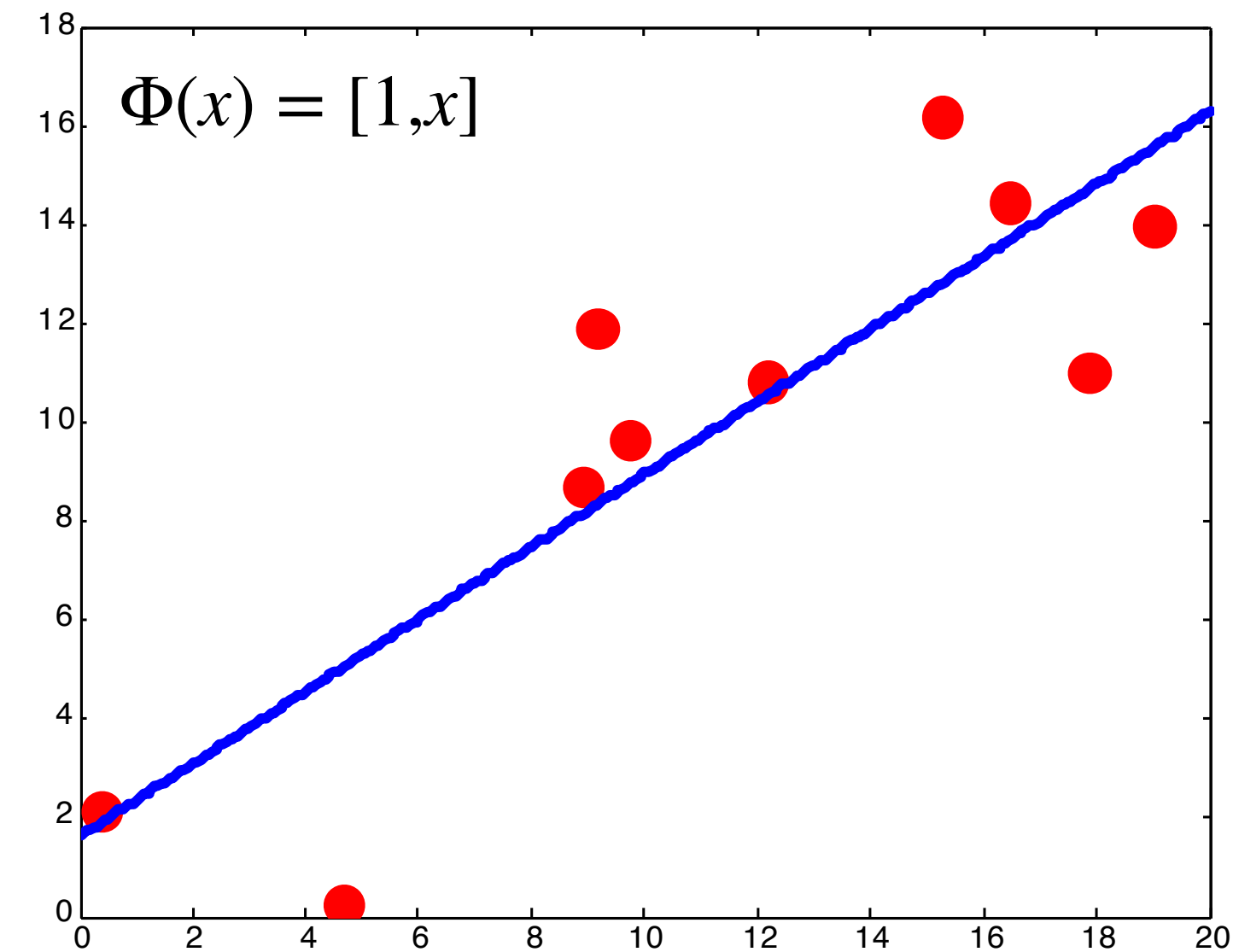
Stochastic Gradient Descent

- Initialize θ
- Repeat:
 - Sample $j \sim \text{Uniform}(1, \dots, m)$
 - $\theta \leftarrow \theta - \alpha \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_{\theta}^{(j)}$
- Until some stop criterion; e.g., no average improvement in $\mathcal{L}_{\theta}^{(j)}$ for a while



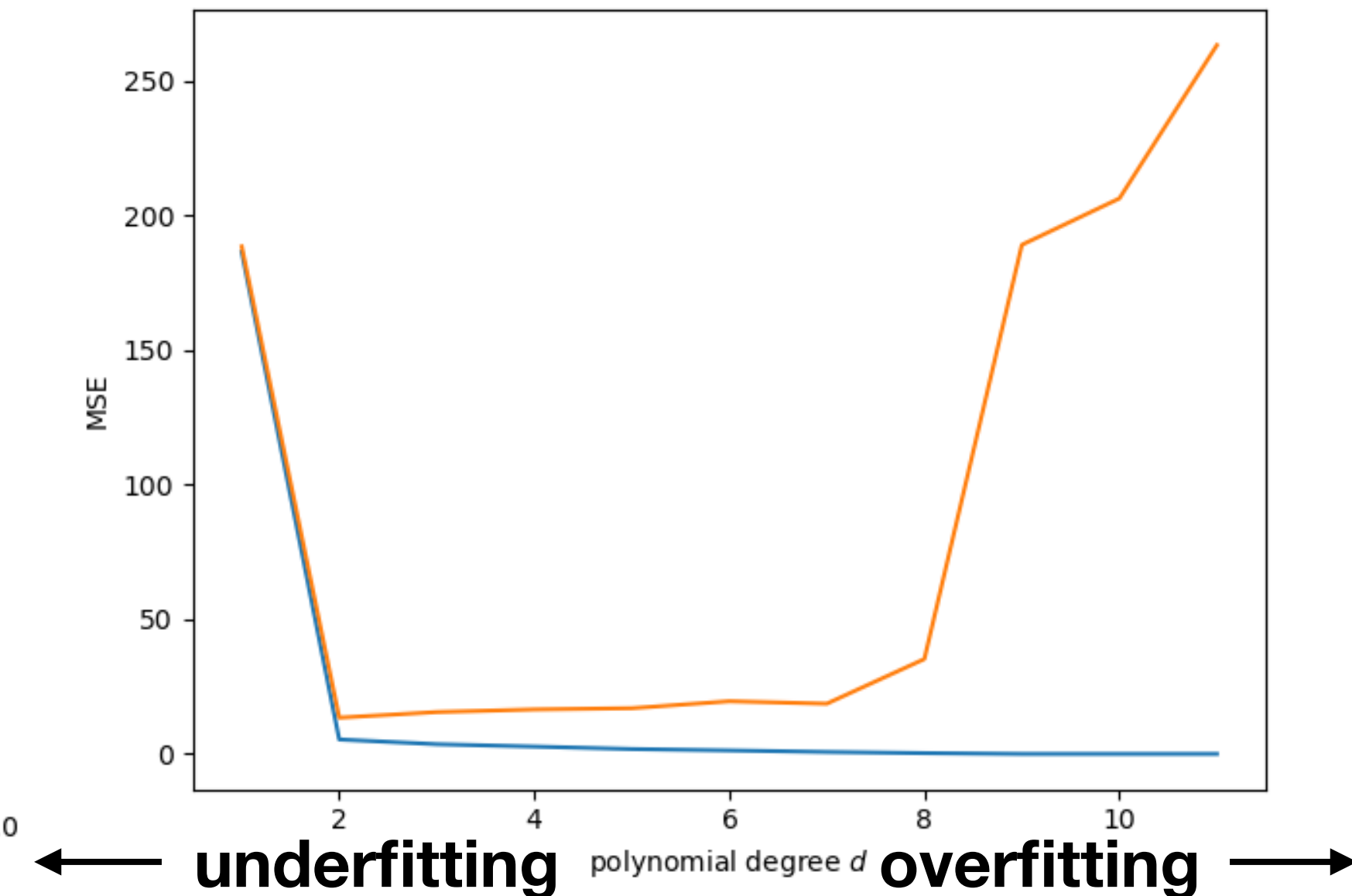
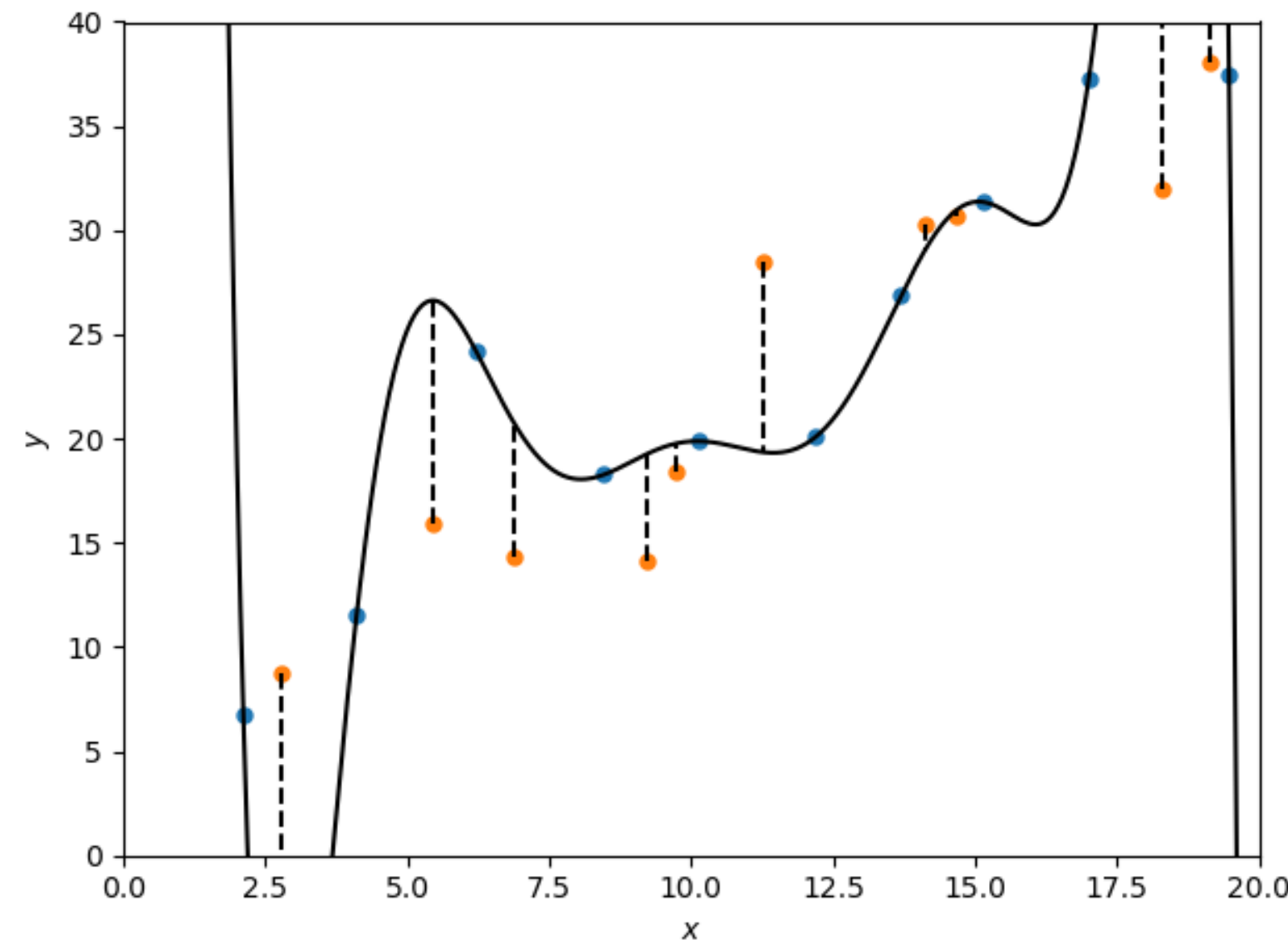
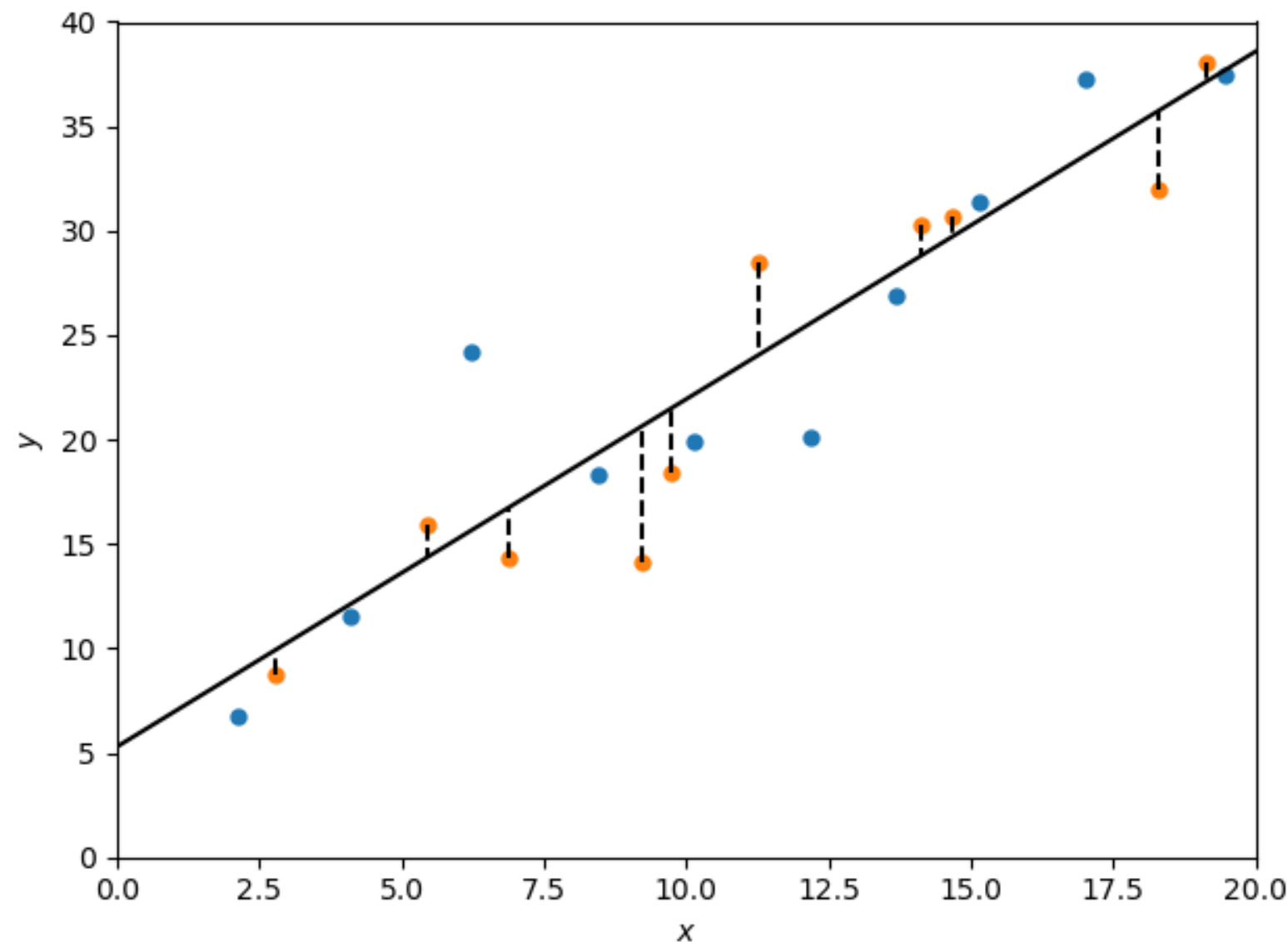
Polynomial regression

- Fit the same way as linear regression
 - With more features $\Phi(x)$



How many features to add?

- The more features we add, the more complex the model class
- Learning can always fall back to simpler model with $\theta_4 = \theta_5 = \dots = 0$
- But generally it won't, it will overfit
 - Better training data fit, worse test data fit



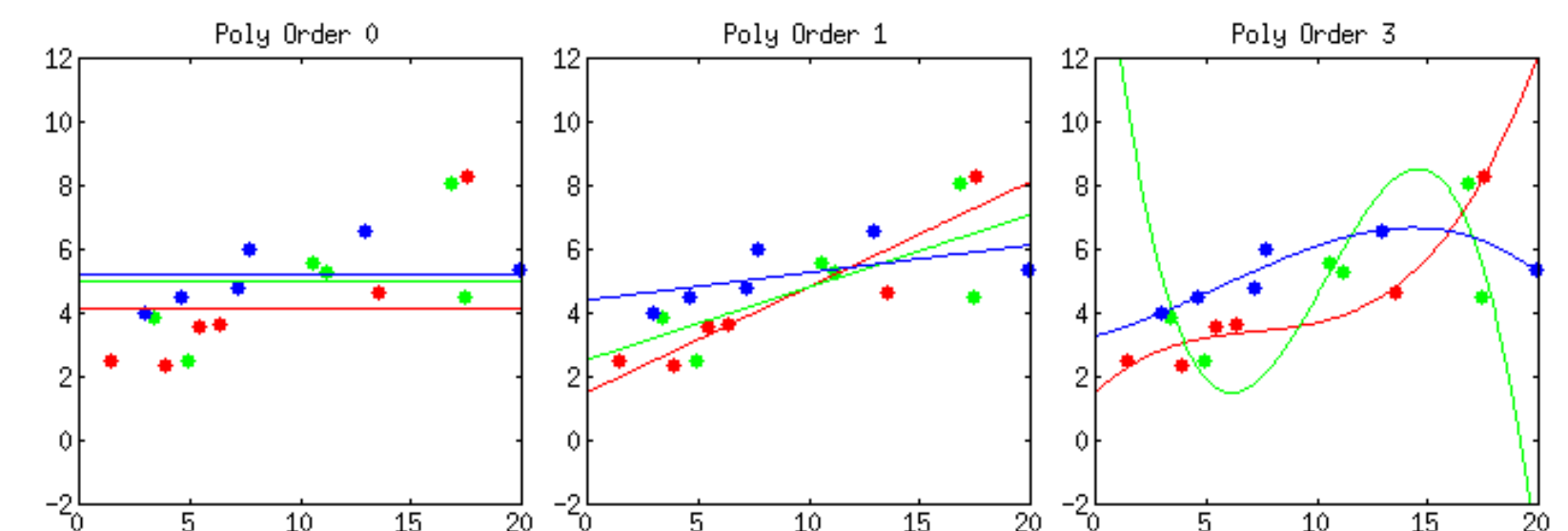
Bias–variance tradeoff

- For given test (x, y)
 - Expected MSE **over datasets** decomposes into bias and variance:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}[(y - \hat{y}_{\theta(\mathcal{D})}(x))^2] &= (\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}[\hat{y}] - y)^2 &&= (\text{bias}_{\mathcal{D}}[\hat{y}])^2 \\ &+ \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}[(\hat{y} - \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}[\hat{y}])^2] &&+ \text{var}_{\mathcal{D}}[\hat{y}]\end{aligned}$$

- Both components contribute equally to the quality of our algorithm
 - We can generally improve one at the expense of the other

- **Bias** generally **decreases with complexity**
- **Variance** generally **increases with complexity**

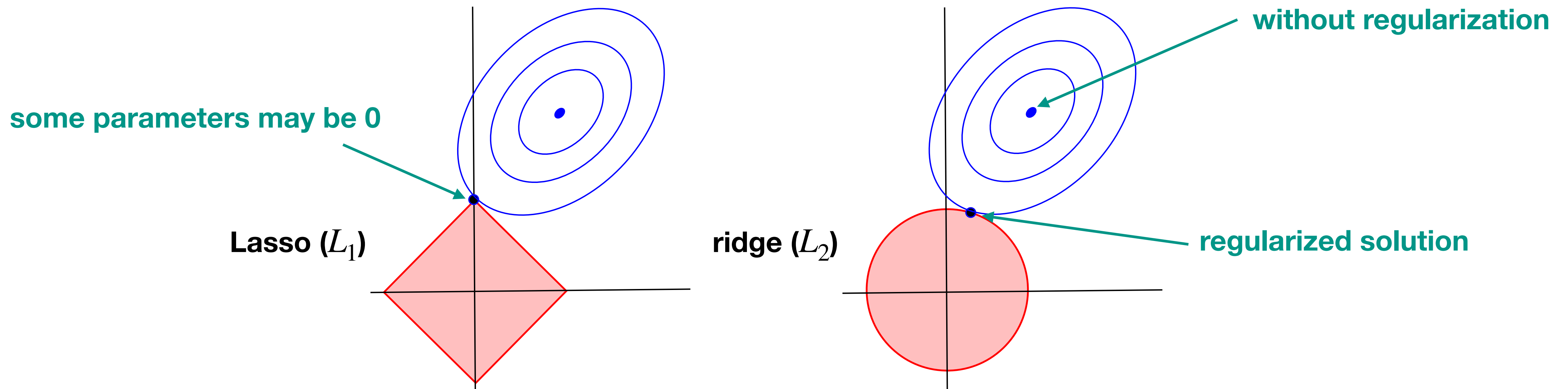


L_2 regularization

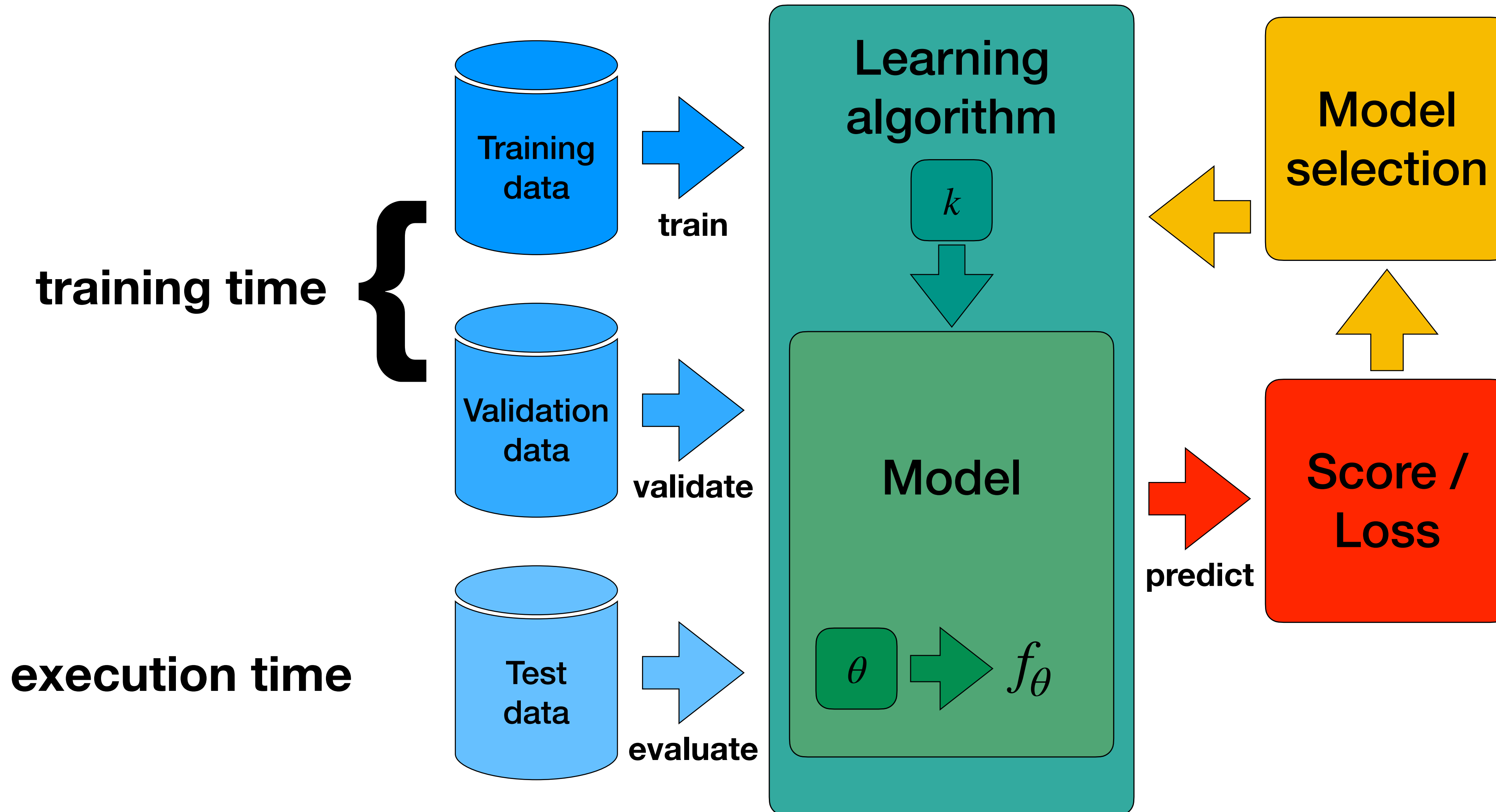
- Modify the loss function by adding a regularization term
- L_2 regularization (ridge regression) for MSE: $\mathcal{L}_\theta = \frac{1}{2}(\|y - \theta^\top X\|^2 + \alpha\|\theta\|^2)$
- Optimally: $\theta^\top = yX^\top(XX^\top + \alpha I)^{-1}$
 - αI moves XX^\top away from singularity \rightarrow inverse exists, better “conditioned”
 - Shrinks θ towards 0 (as expected)
 - At the expense of training MSE
- Regularization term $\alpha\|\theta\|^2$ independent of data = prior?

Regularization: L_1 vs. L_2

- θ estimate balances training loss and regularization
- Lasso (L_1) tends to generate sparser solutions than ridge (L_2) regularizer

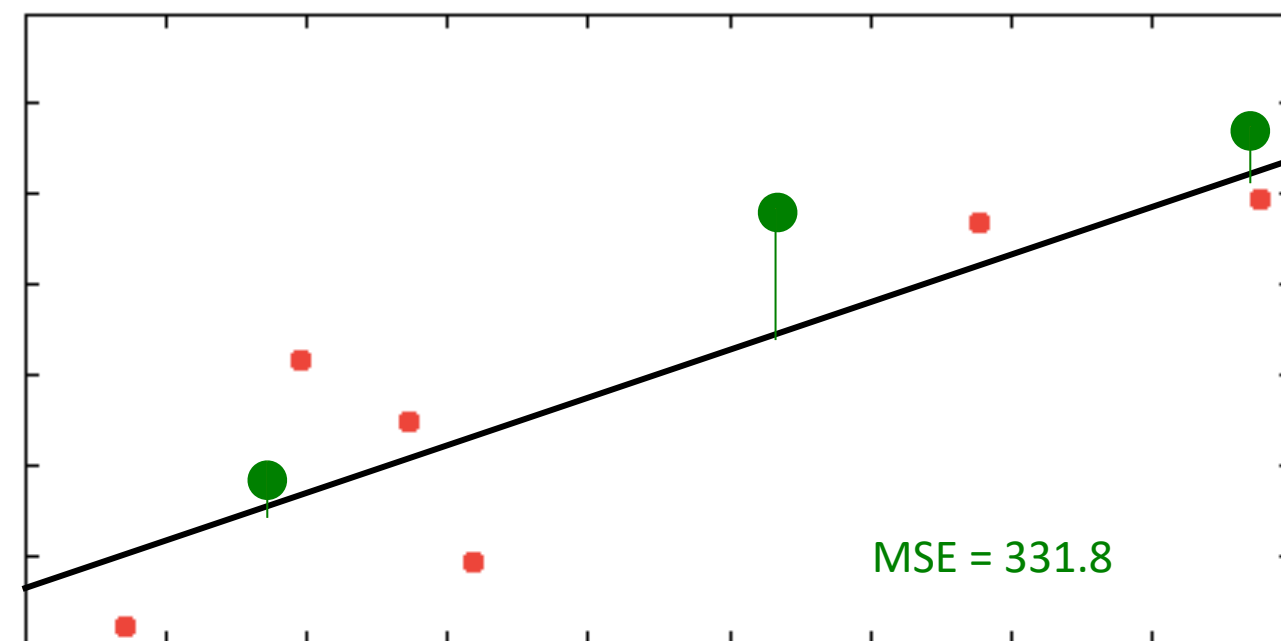


Model selection



Hold-out method

- Hold out some data for validation; e.g., random 30% of the data
 - Don't just sample training + validation with repetitions — they must be disjoint
- How to split?
 - Too few training data points → poor training, bad θ
 - Too few validation data points → poor validation, bad loss estimate
- Can we use more splits?



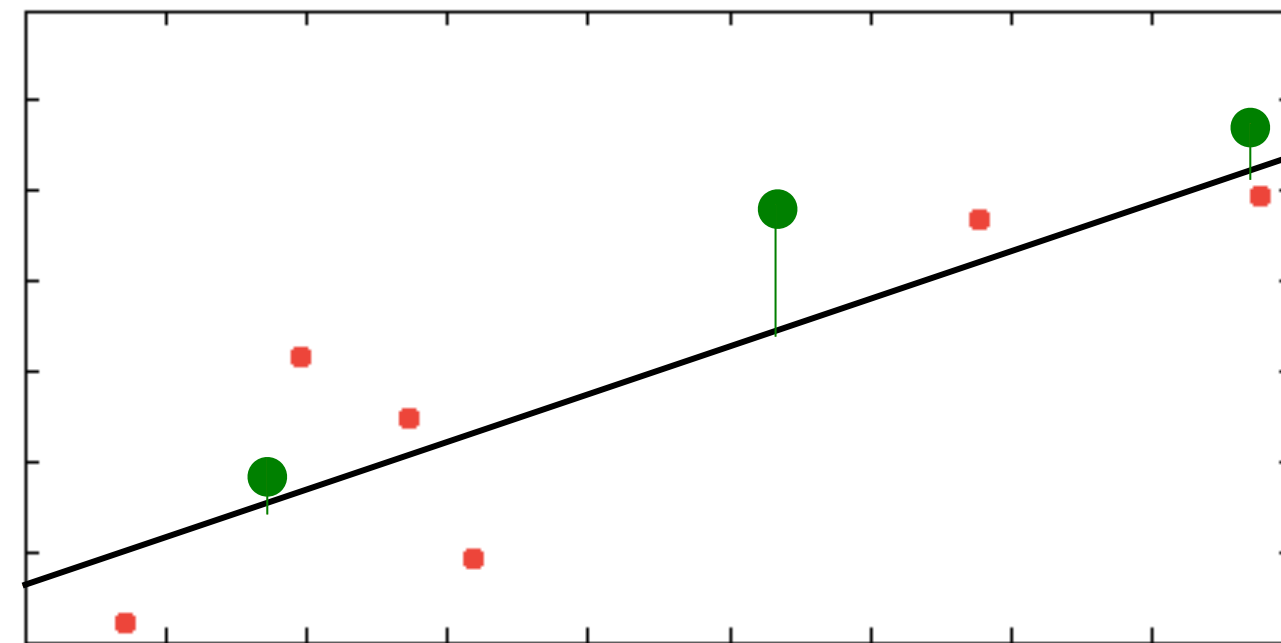
training data

validation data

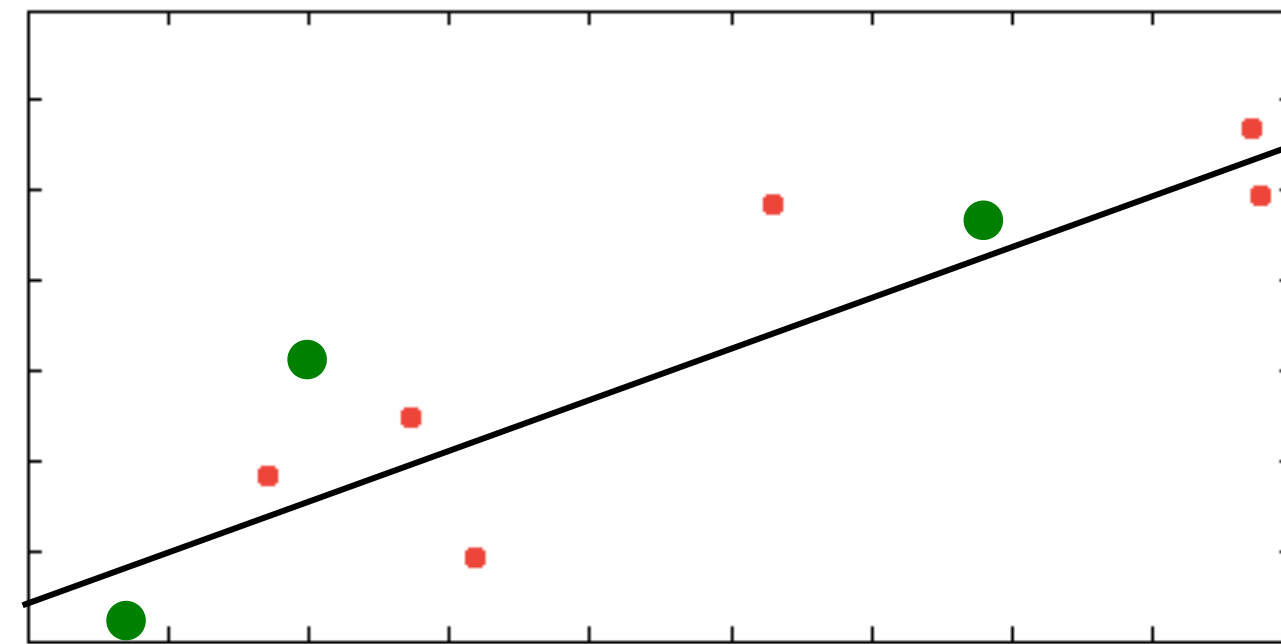
$x^{(i)}$	$y^{(i)}$
88	79
32	-2
27	30
68	73
7	-16
20	43
53	77
17	16
87	94

k -fold cross-validation method

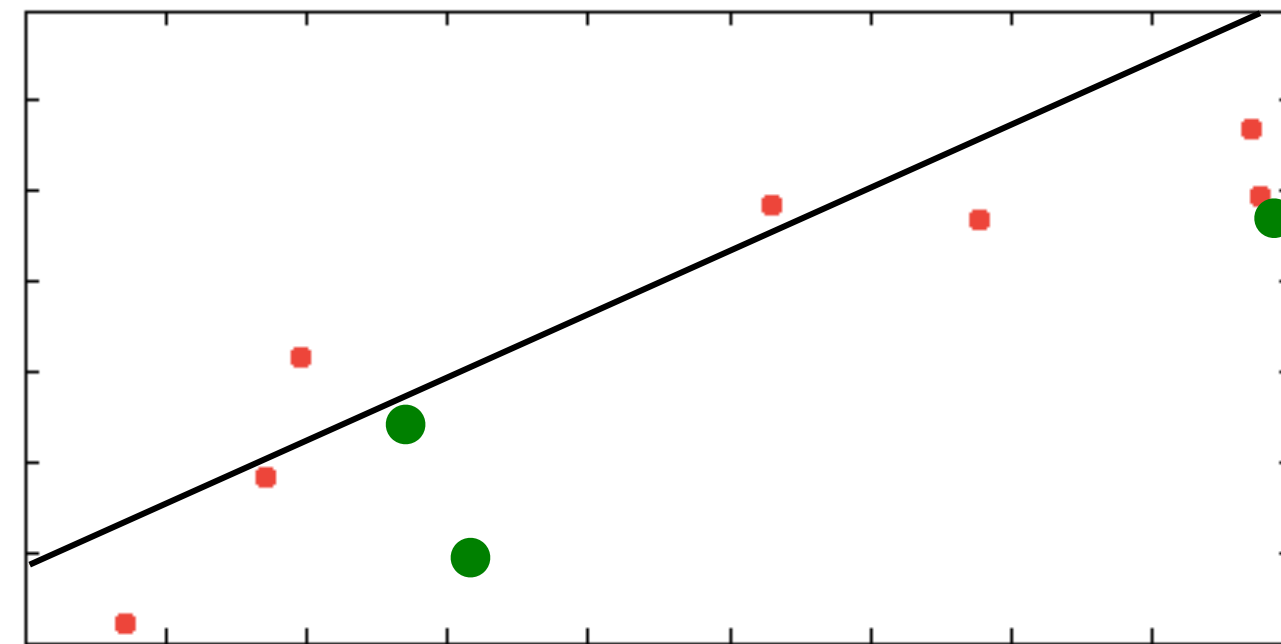
- Benefits:
 - ▶ Use all data for validation
 - ▶ Use all data to train final model



Split 1:
MSE = 331.8



Split 2:
MSE = 361.2



Split 3:
MSE = 669.8

3-Fold X-Val MSE
= 464.1

$x^{(i)}$	$y^{(i)}$
88	79
32	-2
27	30
68	73
7	-16
20	43
53	77
17	16
87	94

k -fold cross-validation method

- Benefits:

- ▶ Use all data for validation
- ▶ Use all data to train final model

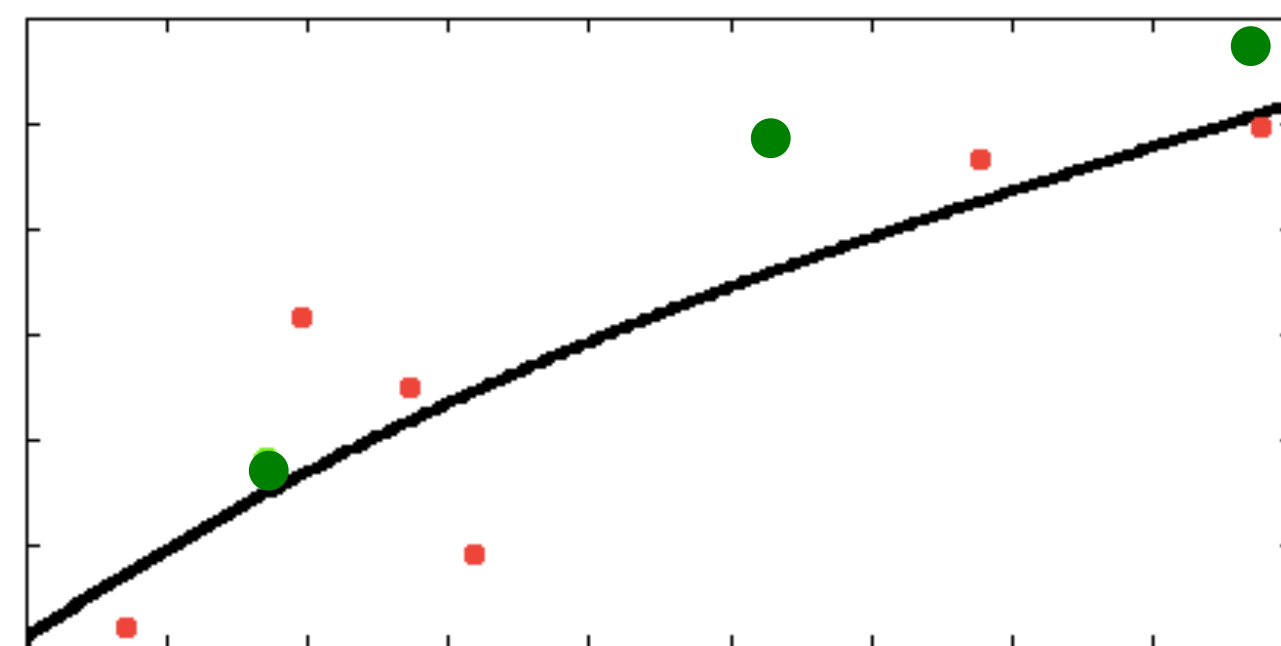
- Drawbacks:

- ▶ Trains k (+1) models
- ▶ Each model still gets noisy

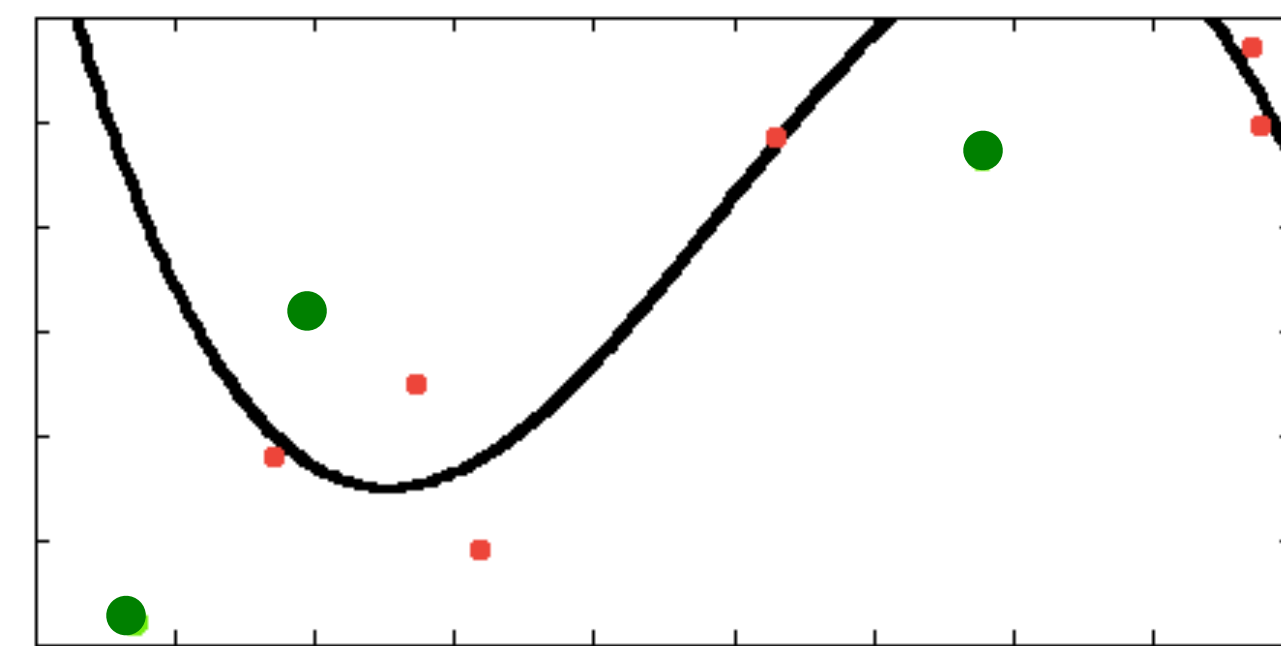
validation from $\frac{m}{k}$ data points

- ▶ No validation for the final model

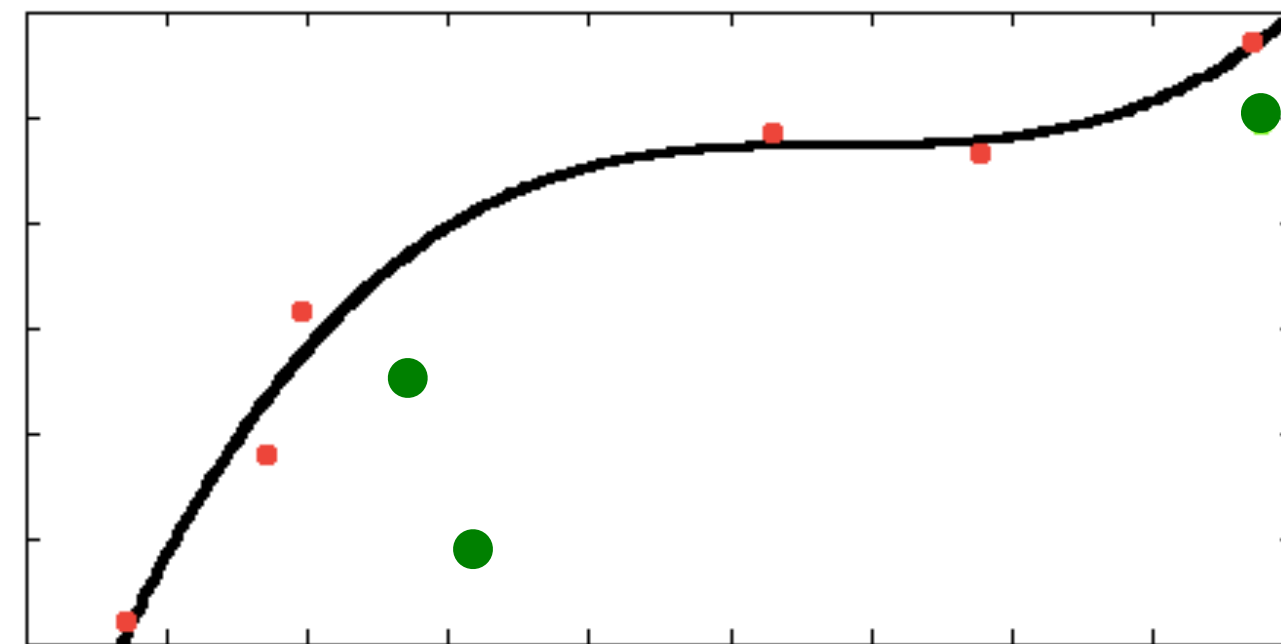
- When $k = m$: **Leave-One-Out (LOO)**



Split 1:
MSE = 280.5



Split 2:
MSE = 3081.3

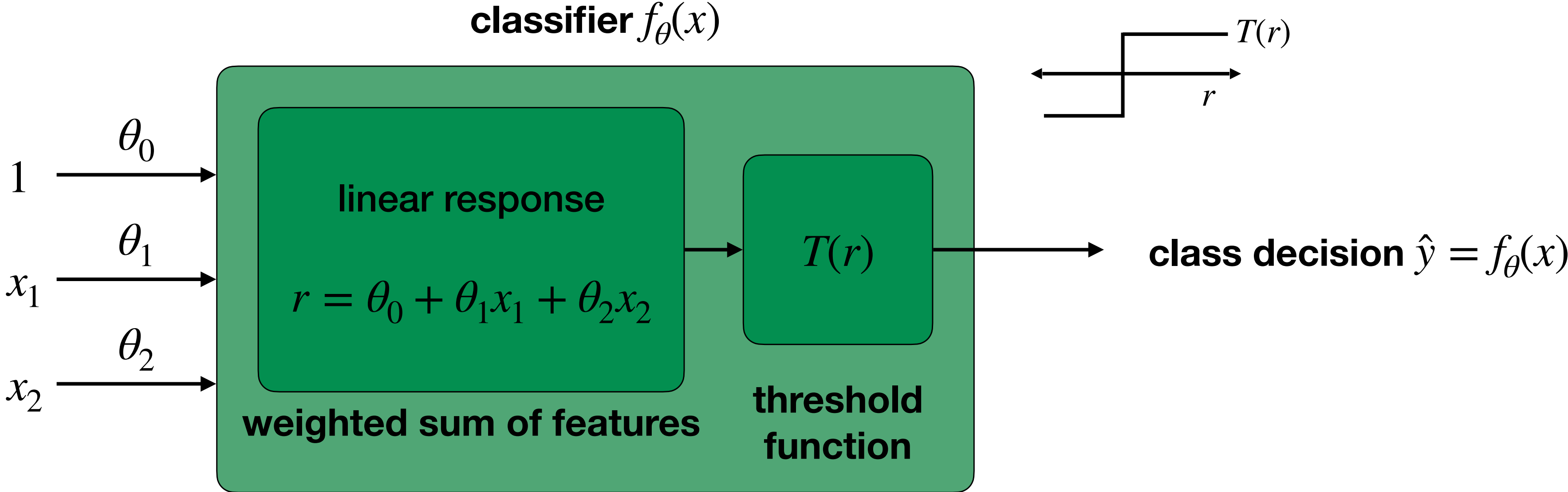


Split 3:
MSE = 1640.1

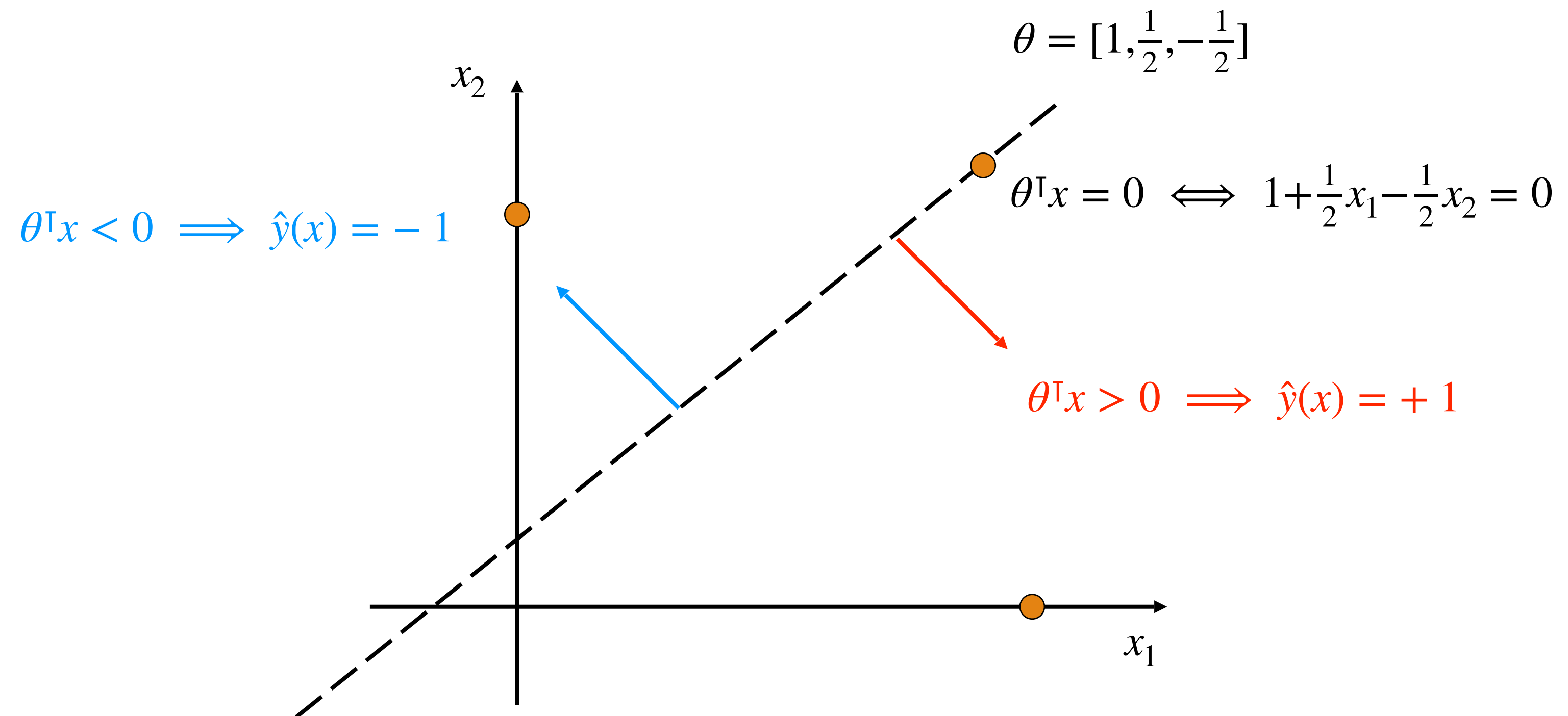
3-Fold X-Val MSE
= 1667.3

$x^{(i)}$	$y^{(i)}$
88	79
32	-2
27	30
68	73
7	-16
20	43
53	77
17	16
87	94

Perceptron



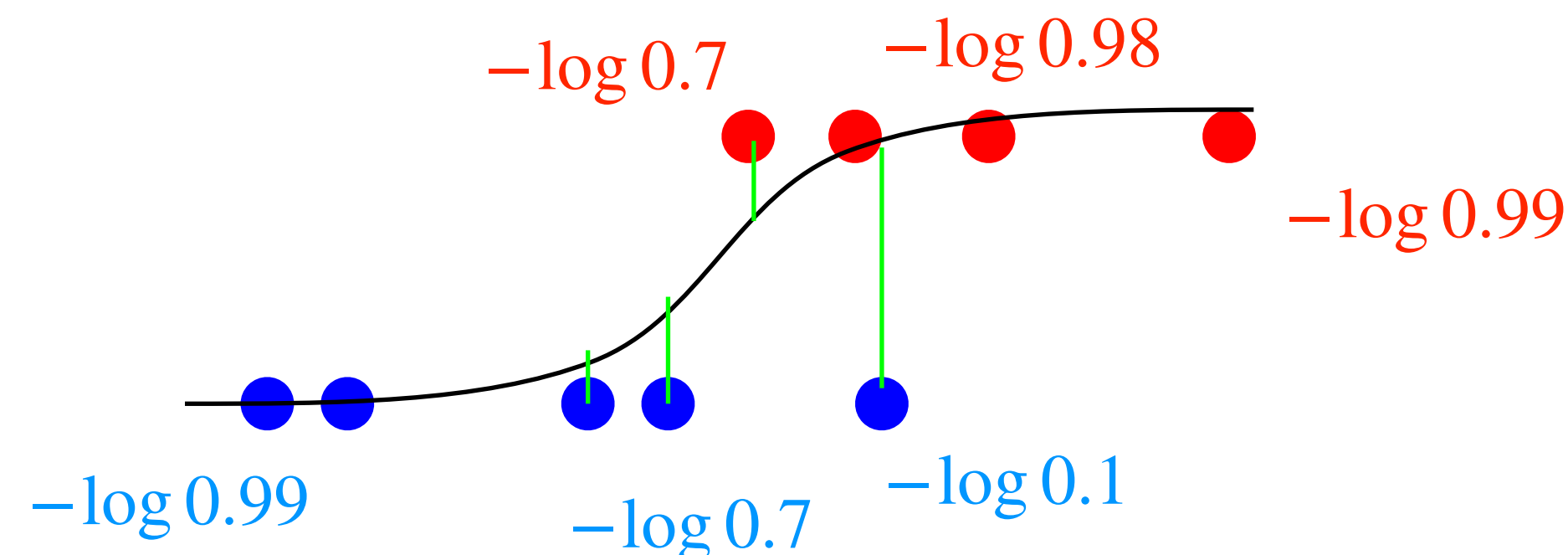
Example



Logistic Regression

- Can we turn a linear response into a probability? Sigmoid! $\sigma : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0,1]$
- Think of $\sigma(\theta^\top x) = p_\theta(y = 1 | x)$
- **Negative Log-Likelihood (NLL) loss:**

$$\mathcal{L}_\theta(x, y) = -\log p_\theta(y | x) = \underbrace{-y \log \sigma(\theta^\top x)}_{\text{for } y = 1} - \underbrace{(1 - y) \log(1 - \sigma(\theta^\top x))}_{\text{for } y = 0}$$



Logistic Regression: gradient

- Logistic NLL loss: $\mathcal{L}_\theta(x, y) = -y \log \sigma(\theta^\top x) - (1 - y) \log(1 - \sigma(\theta^\top x))$

$$-\nabla_\theta \mathcal{L}_\theta(x, y) = \left(y \frac{\sigma'(\theta^\top x)}{\sigma(\theta^\top x)} - (1 - y) \frac{\sigma'(\theta^\top x)}{1 - \sigma(\theta^\top x)} \right) x$$

Gradient:

$$= (y (1 - \sigma(\theta^\top x)) - (1 - y) \sigma(\theta^\top x)) x$$

error for $y = 1$

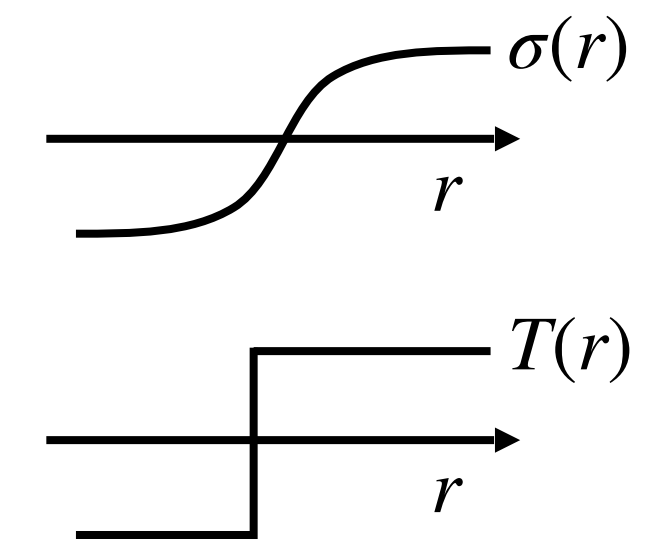
error for $y = 0$

$$= (y - p_\theta(y = 1 | x)) x$$

but update toward $-x$

- Compare:

▶ Perceptron: $(y - \hat{y})x$ ← constant error (± 2), insensitive to margin



▶ Logistic MSE: $-\nabla_\theta \mathcal{L}_\theta(x, y) = 2(y - \sigma(\theta^\top x))\sigma'(\theta^\top x)x$ ← 0 gradient for bad mistakes

Multi-class linear models

- More generally: **add features** — can even **depend on y** !

$$f_{\theta}(x) = \arg \max_y \theta^{\top} \Phi(x, y)$$

- Example: $y \in \{1, 2, \dots, C\}$

- $\Phi(x, y) = [0 \ 0 \ \dots \ x \ \dots \ 0] = \text{one-hot}(y) \otimes x$

- $\theta = [\theta_1 \ \dots \ \theta_C]$

$$\implies f_{\theta}(x) = \arg \max_c \theta_c^{\top} x \leftarrow \text{largest linear response}$$

Multi-class perceptron algorithm

- While **not done**:
 - For each data point $(x, y) \in \mathcal{D}$:
 - **Predict**: $\hat{y} = \arg \max_c \theta_c^\top x$
 - **Increase** response for true class: $\theta_y \leftarrow \theta_y + \alpha x$
 - **Decrease** response for predicted class: $\theta_{\hat{y}} \leftarrow \theta_{\hat{y}} - \alpha x$
- More generally:
 - **Predict**: $\hat{y} = \arg \max_y \theta^\top \Phi(x, y)$
 - **Update**: $\theta \leftarrow \theta + \alpha(\Phi(x, y) - \Phi(x, \hat{y}))$

Multilogit Regression

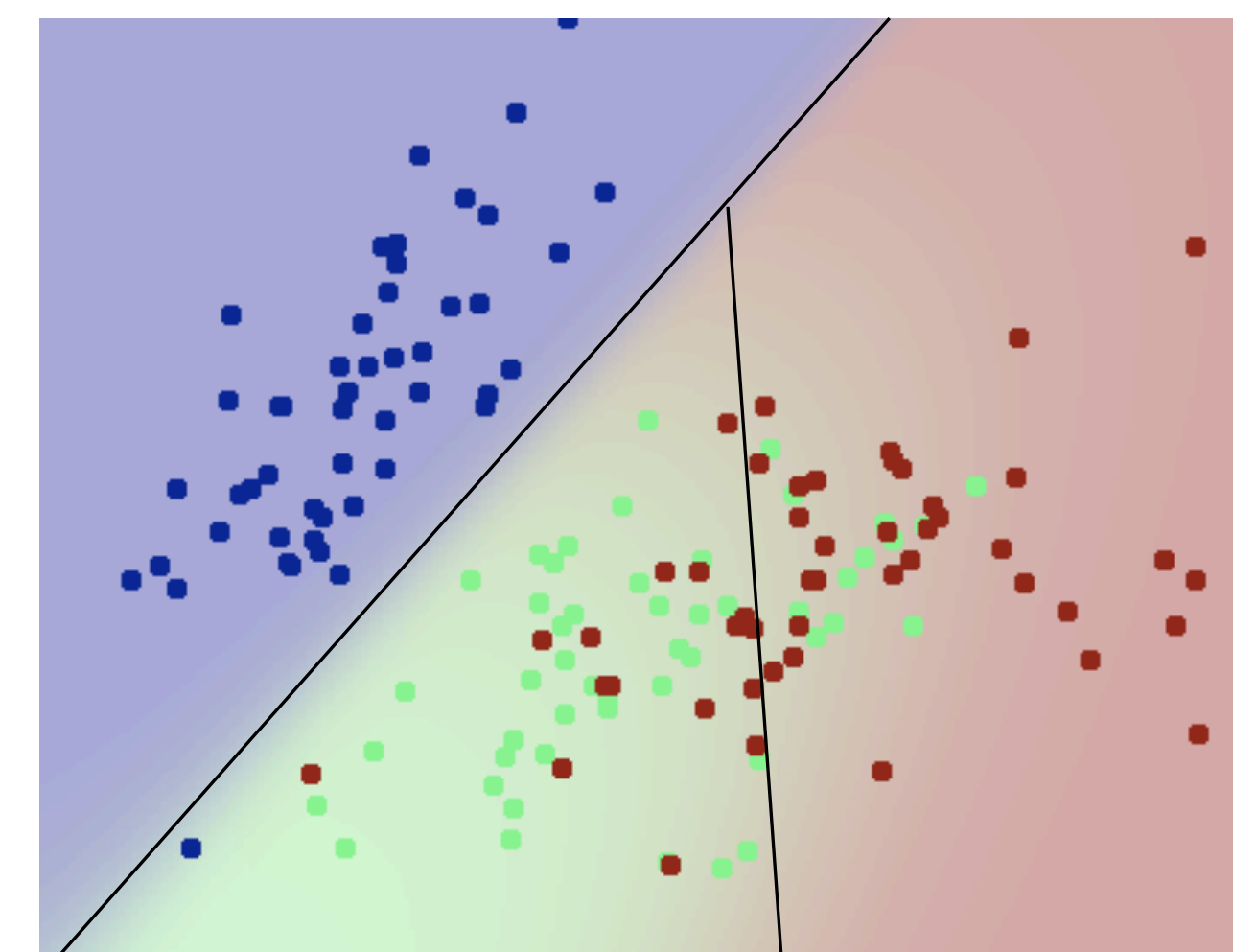
- Define multi-class probabilities: $p_{\theta}(y | x) = \frac{\exp(\theta_y^T x)}{\sum_c \exp(\theta_c^T x)} = \text{soft max}_c \theta_c^T x \Big|_y$

For binary y :

- ▶
$$p_{\theta}(y = 1 | x) = \frac{\exp(\theta_1^T x)}{\exp(\theta_1^T x) + \exp(\theta_2^T x)}$$
$$= \frac{1}{1 + \exp((\theta_2 - \theta_1)^T x)} = \sigma((\theta_1 - \theta_2)^T x)$$

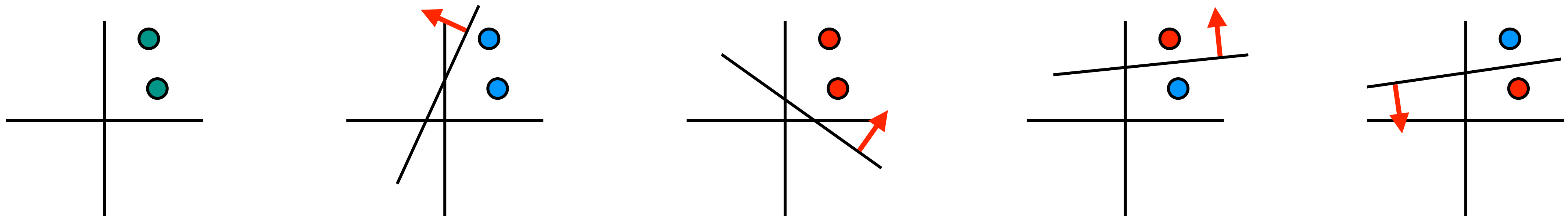
Logistic Regression with $\theta = \theta_1 - \theta_2$

- Benefits:
 - ▶ Probabilistic predictions: knows its confidence
 - ▶ Linear decision boundary: $\arg \max_y \exp(\theta_y^T x) = \arg \max_y \theta_y^T x$
 - ▶ NLL is convex



Shattering

- **Separability / realizability**: there's a model that classifies all points correctly
- **Shattering**: the points are separable regardless of their labels
 - ▶ Our model class can shatter points $x^{(1)}, \dots, x^{(h)}$
if for any labeling $y^{(1)}, \dots, y^{(h)}$
there exists a model that classifies all of them correctly
- Example: can $f_{\theta}(x) = \text{sign}(\theta_0 + \theta_1 x_1 + \theta_2 x_2)$ shatter these points?

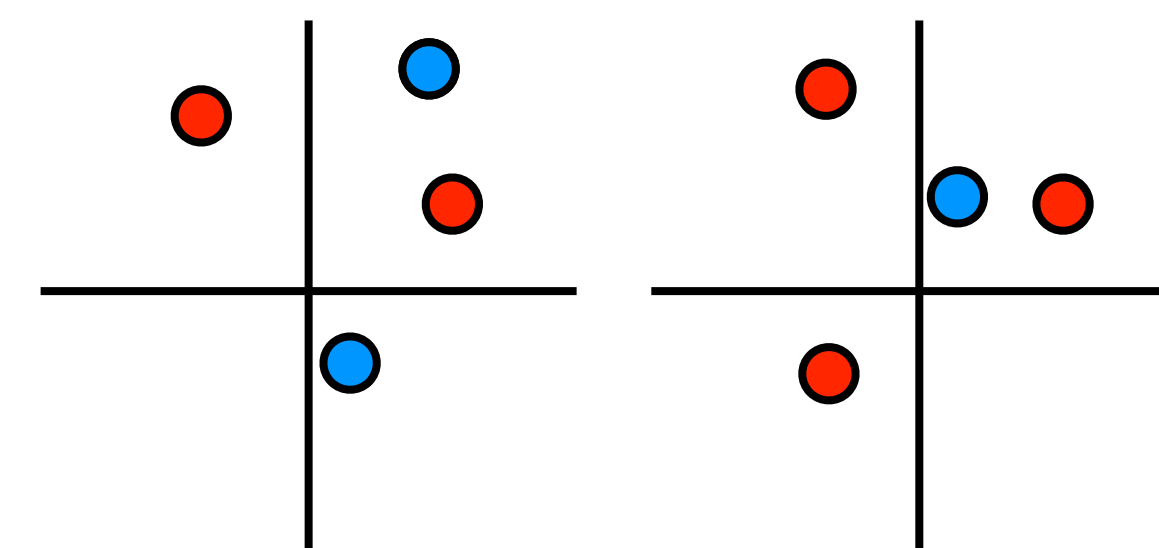
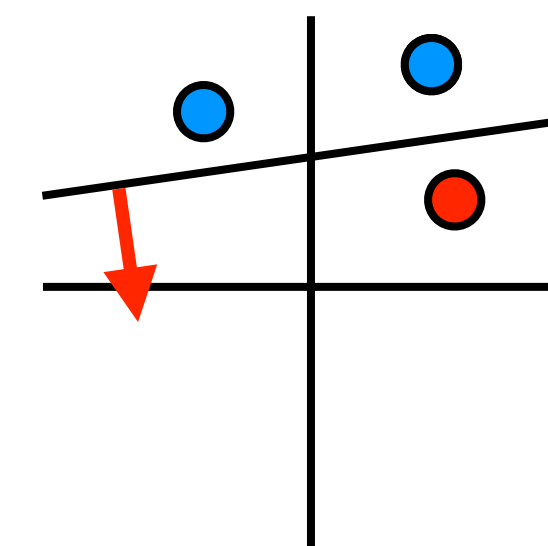


Vapnik–Chervonenkis (VC) dimension

- **VC dimension**: maximum number H of points that can be shattered by a class
- A game:
 - ▶ Fix a model class $f_\theta : x \rightarrow y \quad \theta \in \Theta$
 - ▶ **Player 1**: choose h points $x^{(1)}, \dots, x^{(h)}$
 - ▶ **Player 2**: choose labels $y^{(1)}, \dots, y^{(h)}$
 - ▶ **Player 1**: choose model θ
 - ▶ Are **all** $y^{(j)} = f_\theta(x^{(j)})$? \implies Player 1 wins $\exists x^{(1)}, \dots, x^{(h)} : \forall y^{(1)}, \dots, y^{(h)} : \exists \theta : \forall j : y^{(j)} = f_\theta(x^{(j)})$
- $h \leq H \implies$ Player 1 can win, otherwise cannot win

VC dimension: example (2)

- Example: $f_{\theta}(x) = \text{sign}(\theta_0 + \theta_1 x_1 + \theta_2 x_2)$
 - ▶ We can place **3 points** and shatter them
 - ▶ We can prevent shattering any **4 points**:
 - If they form a convex shape, alternate labels
 - Otherwise, label differently the point in the triangle
 - ▶ $H = 3$
- Linear classifiers (perceptrons) of d features have VC-dim $d + 1$
 - ▶ But VC-dim is generally not #parameters



Model selection with VC-dim

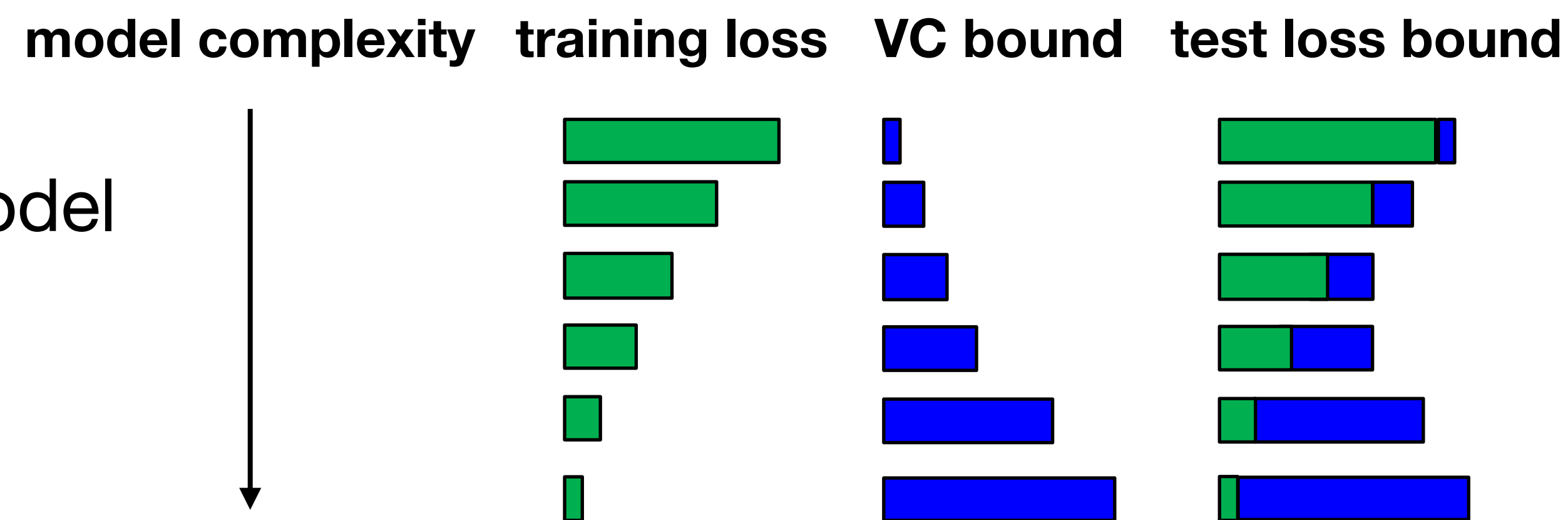
- Using validation / cross-validation:

- ▶ Estimate loss on held out set
- ▶ Use validation loss to select model



- Using VC dimension:

- ▶ Use generalization bound to select model
- ▶ **Structural Risk Minimization (SRM)**
- ▶ Bound not tight, must too conservative



Learning Decision Trees

- Start from empty decision tree
- Split on **max-info-gain** feature x_i
 - ▶ $\arg \max_i \mathbb{I}[x_i; y | b] = \arg \max_i \mathbb{H}[y | b] - \mathbb{H}[y | b, x_i]$
- Repeat for each sub-tree, until:
 - ▶ Entropy = 0 (all y are the same)
 - ▶ No more features
 - ▶ Information gain very small?
- Label leaf with majority y

Entropy reduction

- Select feature that most decreases uncertainty
- Entropy of y in branch b (before the next split):

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{H}[y | b] &= - \sum_c p(y = c | b) \log p(y = c | b) \\ &= -\frac{5}{8} \log \frac{5}{8} - \frac{3}{8} \log \frac{3}{8} = 0.66\end{aligned}$$

- Entropy after splitting by x_1 :

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{H}[y | b, x_1] &= \mathbb{E}_{x_1|b}[\mathbb{H}[y | b, x_1]] = - \sum_v p(x_1 = v | b) \sum_c p(y = c | b, x_1 = v) \log p(y = c | b, x_1 = v) \\ &= -\frac{4}{8} \left(\frac{4}{4} \log \frac{4}{4} + \frac{0}{4} \log \frac{0}{4} \right) - \frac{4}{8} \left(\frac{1}{4} \log \frac{1}{4} + \frac{3}{4} \log \frac{3}{4} \right) = 0.28\end{aligned}$$

X_1	X_2	Y
T	T	T
T	F	T
T	T	T
T	F	T
F	T	T
F	F	F
F	T	F
F	F	F

Information gain

- Information gain = reduction in entropy from conditioning y on x_1
 - The amount of new information that x_1 has on y

$$\mathbb{I}[x_1; y | b] = \mathbb{H}[y | b] - \mathbb{H}[y | b, x_1] = 0.66 - 0.28 = 0.38$$

$$\mathbb{I}[x_2; y | b] = 0.66 - 0.63 = 0.03$$

← select x_1 for Decision Tree

X_1	X_2	Y
T	T	T
T	F	T
T	T	T
T	F	T
F	T	T
F	F	F
F	T	F
F	F	F

- Information gain is always non-negative
 - By convexity of the entropy

Controlling complexity

