

Supervised Learning

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- a set of **target features** Y_1, \dots, Y_k
- a set of **training examples** where the values for the input features and the target features are given for each example
- a new example, where only the values for the input features are given

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- **classification** when the Y_i are discrete
- **regression** when the Y_i are continuous

Example Data Representations

A travel agent wants to predict the preferred length of a trip, which can be from 1 to 6 days. (No input features).

Two representations of the same data:

- Y is the length of trip chosen.
- Each Y_i is an **indicator variable** that has value 1 if the chosen length is i , and is 0 otherwise.

Example	Y	Example	Y_1	Y_2	Y_3	Y_4	Y_5	Y_6
e_1	1	e_1	1	0	0	0	0	0
e_2	6	e_2	0	0	0	0	0	1
e_3	6	e_3	0	0	0	0	0	1
e_4	2	e_4	0	1	0	0	0	0
e_5	1	e_5	1	0	0	0	0	0

What is a prediction?

Evaluating Predictions

Suppose F is a feature and e is an example:

- $\text{val}(e, F)$ is the value of feature F on example e .
- $\text{pval}(e, F)$ is the predicted value of feature F on example e .
- The **error** of the prediction is a measure of how close $\text{pval}(e, Y)$ is to $\text{val}(e, Y)$.
- There are many possible errors that could be measured.

Measures of error

E is the set of examples. \mathbf{T} is the set of target features.

- absolute error

$$\sum_{e \in E} \sum_{Y \in \mathbf{T}} |val(e, Y) - pval(e, Y)|$$

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- A **cost-based error** takes into account costs of various errors.

Measures of error (cont.)

When target features are $\{0, 1\}$:

- likelihood of the data

$$\prod_{e \in E} \prod_{Y \in \mathcal{T}} pval(e, Y)^{val(e, Y)} (1 - pval(e, Y))^{(1 - val(e, Y))}$$

Measures of error (cont.)

When target features are $\{0, 1\}$:

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$$\prod_{e \in E} \prod_{Y \in \mathcal{T}} p_{val}(e, Y)^{val(e, Y)} (1 - p_{val}(e, Y))^{(1 - val(e, Y))}$$

- entropy (number of bits to encode the data given a code based on p_{val})

$$-\sum_{e \in E} \sum_{Y \in \mathcal{T}} [val(e, Y) \log p_{val}(e, Y) + (1 - val(e, Y)) \log(1 - p_{val}(e, Y))]$$

Information theory overview

- A **bit** is a binary digit.
- 1 bit can distinguish 2 items
- k bits can distinguish 2^k items
- n items can be distinguished using $\log_2 n$ bits
- Can you do better?

Information and Probability

Let's design a code to distinguish elements of $\{a, b, c, d\}$ with

$$P(a) = \frac{1}{2}, P(b) = \frac{1}{4}, P(c) = \frac{1}{8}, P(d) = \frac{1}{8}$$

Consider the code:

a 0 b 10 c 110 d 111

This code sometimes uses 1 bit and sometimes uses 3 bits. On average, it uses

$$\begin{aligned} &P(a) \times 1 + P(b) \times 2 + P(c) \times 3 + P(d) \times 3 \\ &= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{2}{4} + \frac{3}{8} + \frac{3}{8} = 1\frac{3}{4} \text{ bits.} \end{aligned}$$

The string *aacabbda* has code 00110010101110.

Information Content

- To identify x , you need $-\log_2 P(x)$ bits.
- If you have a distribution over a set and want to identify a member, you need the expected number of bits:

$$\sum_x -P(x) \times \log_2 P(x).$$

This is the **information content** or **entropy** of the distribution.

- The expected number of bits it takes to describe a distribution given evidence e :

$$I(e) = \sum_x -P(x|e) \times \log_2 P(x|e).$$

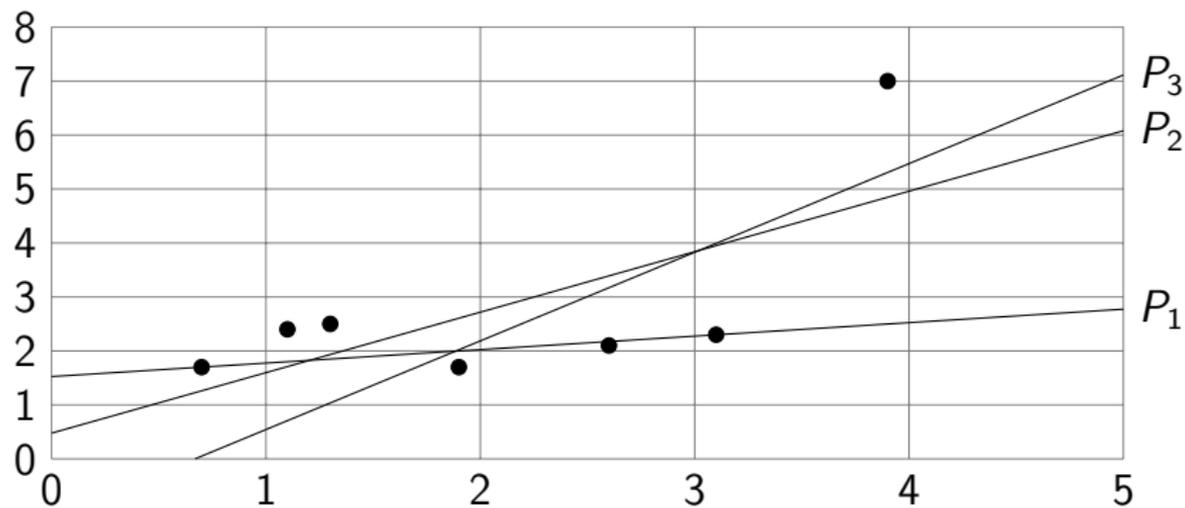
Information Gain

If you have a test that can distinguish the cases where α is true from the cases where α is false, the **information gain** from this test is:

$$I(\text{true}) - (P(\alpha) \times I(\alpha) + P(\neg\alpha) \times I(\neg\alpha)).$$

- $I(\text{true})$ is the expected number of bits needed before the test
- $P(\alpha) \times I(\alpha) + P(\neg\alpha) \times I(\neg\alpha)$ is the expected number of bits after the test.

Linear Predictions



Point Estimates

Suppose there is a single numerical feature, Y . Let E be the training examples. There is a single prediction for all examples.

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- When Y has domain $\{0, 1\}$, the prediction that minimizes the entropy on E is the empirical probability.

But that doesn't mean that these predictions minimize the error for future predictions.

Training and Test Sets

To evaluate how well a learner will work on future predictions, we divide the examples into:

- **training examples** that are used to train the learner
- **test examples** that are used to evaluate the learner

...these must be kept separate.

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- Why? A probability of zero means “impossible” and has infinite cost if there is one true case in test set.
- Solution: add (non-negative) pseudo-counts to the data. Suppose n_i is the number of examples with $X = v_i$, and c_i is the pseudo-count:

$$P(X = v_i) = \frac{c_i + n_i}{\sum_{i'} c_{i'} + n_{i'}}$$

- Pseudo-counts convey prior knowledge. Consider: “how much more would I believe v_i if I had seen one example with v_i true than if I has seen no examples with v_i true?”