

# CSCI567 Machine Learning (Spring 2025)

Haipeng Luo

University of Southern California

Feb 28, 2025

# Quiz 1 Logistics

**Date:** Friday, March 7th

**Time:** 1:00-3:20pm

**Location:** THH 101 (double seating), waiting for an overflow room (will announce on Piazza)

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Individual effort, close-book (no cheat sheet), no calculators or any other electronics, *but need your phone to upload your solutions to Gradescope from 3:20-3:30pm*

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**Tips:** expect to see variants of questions from discussion/homework

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Most other formulas are not needed (*do not overthink!*)

- Taylor expansion, complete Backprop algorithm in matrix form, KKT conditions, etc.

# Outline

- 1 Review of last lecture
- 2 Decision tree
- 3 Boosting



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# Support Vector Machine

SVM: **max-margin linear classifier**

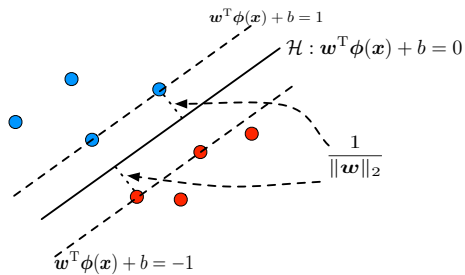
**Primal** (equivalent to minimizing L2 regularized hinge loss):

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{\mathbf{w}, b, \{\xi_n\}} \quad & C \sum_n \xi_n + \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|_2^2 \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & 1 - y_n(\mathbf{w}^\top \phi(\mathbf{x}_n) + b) \leq \xi_n, \quad \forall n \\ & \xi_n \geq 0, \quad \forall n \end{aligned}$$

**Dual** (kernelizable, reveals what training points are support vectors):

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{\{\alpha_n\}} \quad & \sum_n \alpha_n - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{m,n} y_m y_n \alpha_m \alpha_n \phi(\mathbf{x}_m)^\top \phi(\mathbf{x}_n) \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & \sum_n \alpha_n y_n = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad 0 \leq \alpha_n \leq C, \quad \forall n \end{aligned}$$

# Separable Case



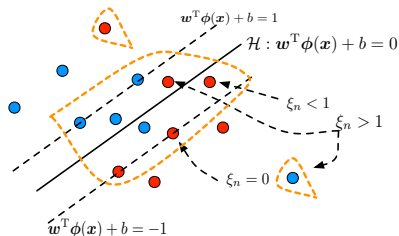
# Geometric interpretation of support vectors

A support vector satisfies  $\alpha_n^* \neq 0$  and

$$1 - \xi_n^* - y_n(\mathbf{w}^{*\top} \phi(\mathbf{x}_n) + b^*) = 0$$

When

- $\xi_n^* = 0$ ,  $y_n(\mathbf{w}^{*\top} \phi(\mathbf{x}_n) + b^*) = 1$  and thus the point is  $1/\|\mathbf{w}^*\|_2$  away from the hyperplane.
- $\xi_n^* < 1$ , the point is classified correctly but does not satisfy the large margin constraint.
- $\xi_n^* > 1$ , the point is misclassified.



Support vectors (circled with the orange line) are *the only points that matter!*

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  - The model
  - Learning a decision tree
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# Decision tree

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- **nonlinear** in general
- works for both classification and regression; we focus on **classification**
- one key advantage is good **interpretability**
- not to be confused with the “tree reduction” in Lec 4
- still very popular for small tabular data, especially when used in ensemble (i.e. “**forest**”)

# Tree-based models outperform neural nets sometimes

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## Why do tree-based models still outperform deep learning on tabular data?

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Léo Grinsztajn

Soda, Inria Saclay

leo.grinsztajn@inria.fr

Edouard Oyallon

ISIR, CNRS, Sorbonne University

Gaël Varoquaux

Soda, Inria Saclay

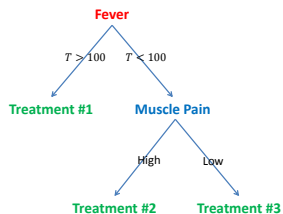
### Abstract

While deep learning has enabled tremendous progress on text and image datasets, its superiority on tabular data is not clear. We contribute extensive benchmarks of standard and novel deep learning methods as well as tree-based models such as XGBoost and Random Forests, across a large number of datasets and hyperparameter combinations. We define a standard set of 45 datasets from varied domains with clear characteristics of tabular data and a benchmarking methodology accounting for both fitting models and finding good hyperparameters. Results show that tree-based models remain state-of-the-art on medium-sized data (~10K samples) even without accounting for their superior speed. To understand this gap, we conduct an empirical investigation into the differing inductive biases of tree-based models and Neural Networks (NNs). This leads to a series of challenges which should guide researchers aiming to build tabular-specific NNs: **1.** be robust to uninformative features, **2.** preserve the orientation of the data, and **3.** be able to easily learn irregular functions. To stimulate research on tabular architectures, we contribute a standard benchmark and raw data for baselines: every point of a 20 000 compute hours hyperparameter search for each learner.

# Example

Many decisions are made based on some tree structure

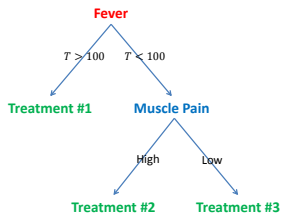
## Medical treatment



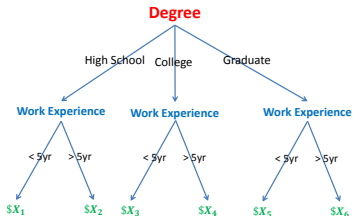
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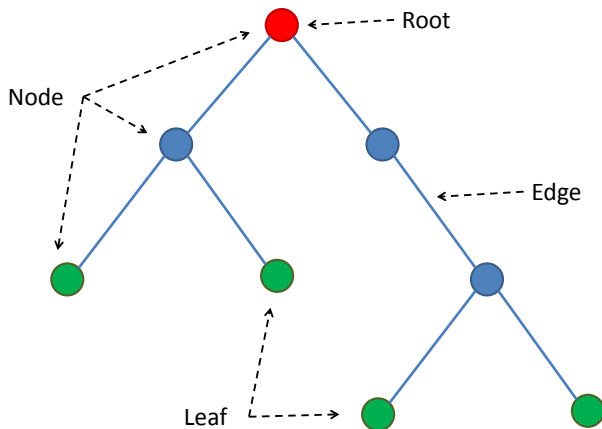
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## Salary in a company



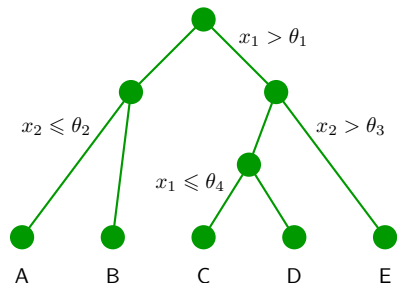
# Tree terminology





# A more abstract example of decision trees

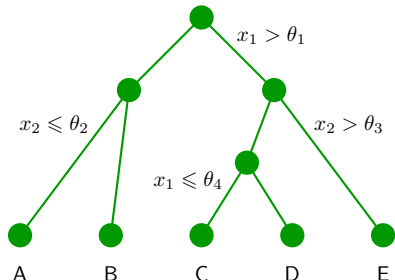
**Input:**  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2)$



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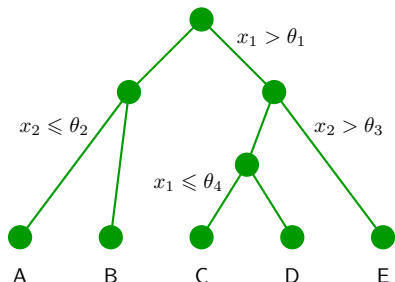


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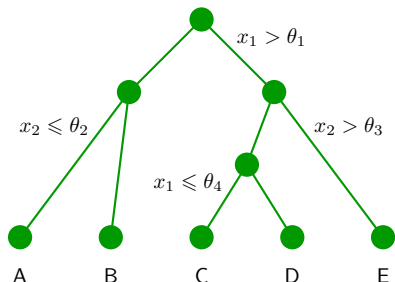


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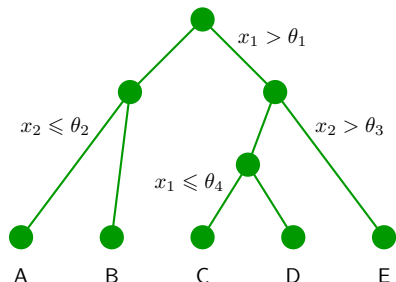


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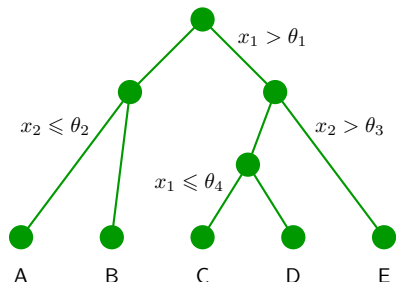


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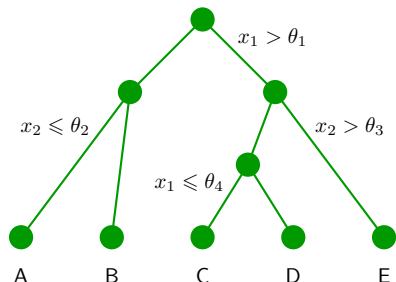
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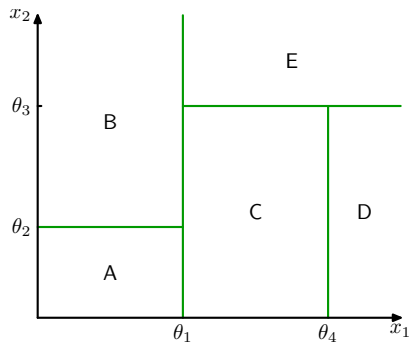
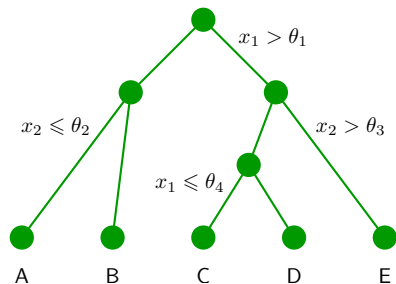


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Complex to formally write down, but **easy to represent pictorially or as codes**.

# The decision boundary

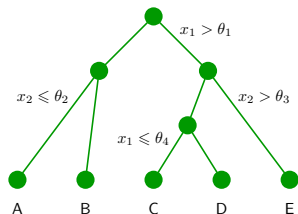
Corresponds to a classifier with boundaries:





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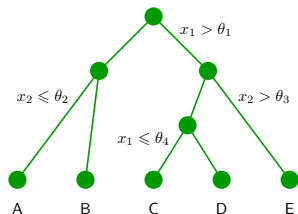
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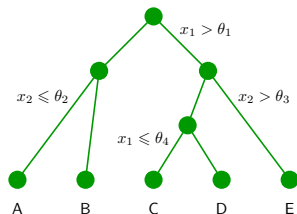
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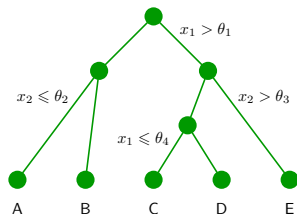
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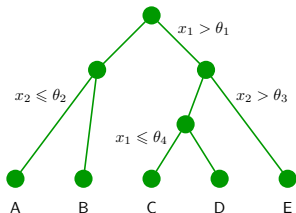
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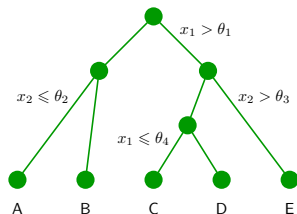
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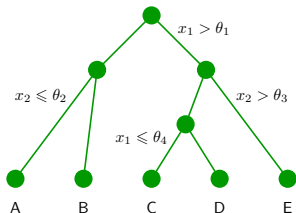
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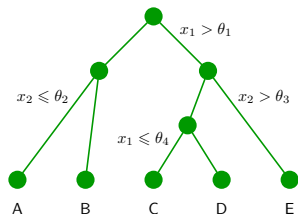
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- the **value/prediction** of the leaves (A, B, ...)





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Instead, we turn to some **greedy top-down approach**.

# A running example

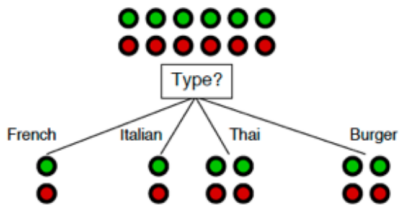
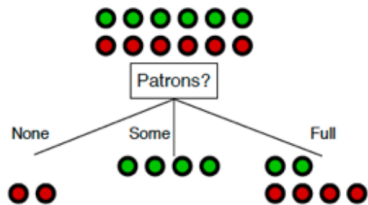
[Russell & Norvig, AIMA]

- predict whether a customer will wait for a table at a restaurant
- 12 training examples
- 10 features (all discrete)

Example	Attributes										Target
	<i>Alt</i>	<i>Bar</i>	<i>Fri</i>	<i>Hun</i>	<i>Pat</i>	<i>Price</i>	<i>Rain</i>	<i>Res</i>	<i>Type</i>	<i>Est</i>	<i>WillWait</i>
$X_1$	<i>T</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>Some</i>	<i>\$\$\$</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>French</i>	<i>0-10</i>	<i>T</i>
$X_2$	<i>T</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>Full</i>	<i>\$</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Thai</i>	<i>30-60</i>	<i>F</i>
$X_3$	<i>F</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Some</i>	<i>\$</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Burger</i>	<i>0-10</i>	<i>T</i>
$X_4$	<i>T</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>Full</i>	<i>\$</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Thai</i>	<i>10-30</i>	<i>T</i>
$X_5$	<i>T</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Full</i>	<i>\$\$\$</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>French</i>	<i>&gt;60</i>	<i>F</i>
$X_6$	<i>F</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>Some</i>	<i>\$\$</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>Italian</i>	<i>0-10</i>	<i>T</i>
$X_7$	<i>F</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>None</i>	<i>\$</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Burger</i>	<i>0-10</i>	<i>F</i>
$X_8$	<i>F</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>Some</i>	<i>\$\$</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>Thai</i>	<i>0-10</i>	<i>T</i>
$X_9$	<i>F</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Full</i>	<i>\$</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Burger</i>	<i>&gt;60</i>	<i>F</i>
$X_{10}$	<i>T</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>Full</i>	<i>\$\$\$</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>Italian</i>	<i>10-30</i>	<i>F</i>
$X_{11}$	<i>F</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>None</i>	<i>\$</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Thai</i>	<i>0-10</i>	<i>F</i>
$X_{12}$	<i>T</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>Full</i>	<i>\$</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Burger</i>	<i>30-60</i>	<i>T</i>

## First step: how to build the root?

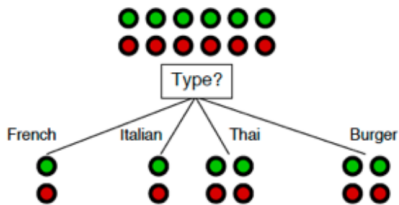
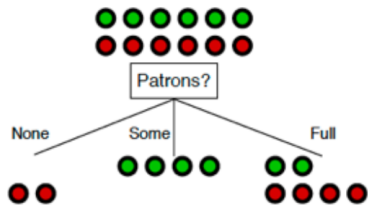
I.e., which feature should we test at the root? Examples:





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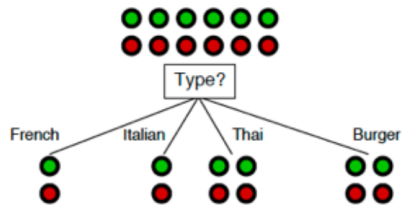
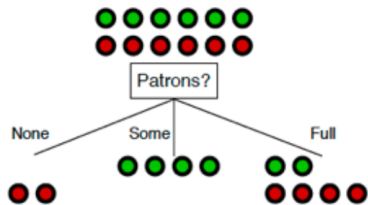
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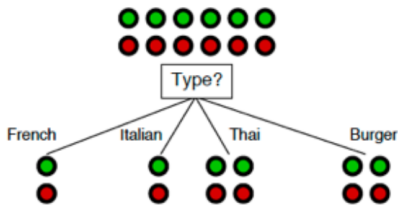
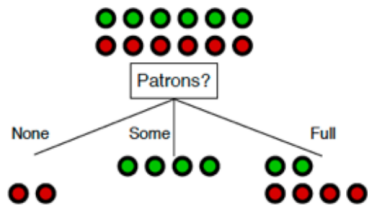


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- intuitively "patrons" is a better feature since it leads to "more pure" or "more certain" children
- how to quantify this intuition?

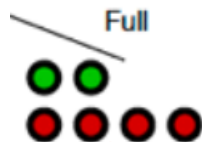
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One classic uncertainty measure of a distribution is its (*Shannon*) *entropy*:

$$H(P) = - \sum_{k=1}^C P(Y = k) \log P(Y = k)$$

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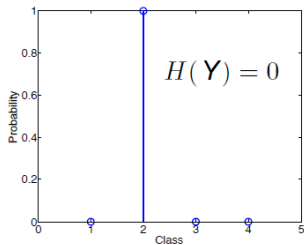
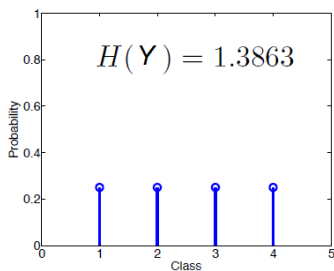
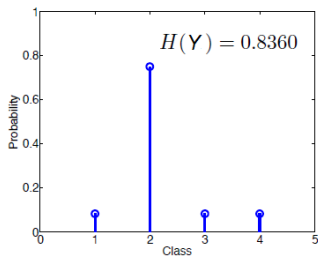
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  - $0 \log 0$  is defined naturally as  $\lim_{z \rightarrow 0^+} z \log z = 0$

# Examples of computing entropy

With base  $e$  and 4 classes:



## Another example

Entropy in each child if root tests on “patrons”

For “None” branch

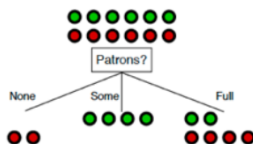
$$-\left(\frac{0}{0+2} \log \frac{0}{0+2} + \frac{2}{0+2} \log \frac{2}{0+2}\right) = 0$$

For “Some” branch

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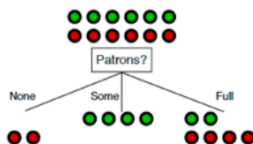
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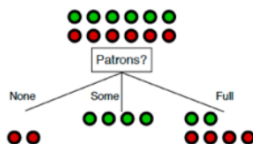
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Very naturally, we take the **weighted average of entropy**:

$$\frac{2}{12} \times 0 + \frac{4}{12} \times 0 + \frac{6}{12} \times 0.9 = 0.45$$



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Pick the feature that leads to the smallest conditional entropy.

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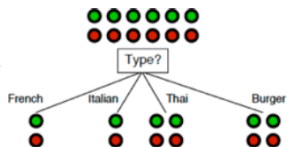
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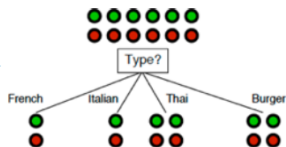
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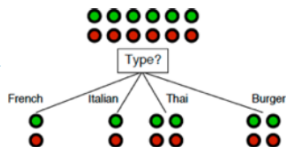
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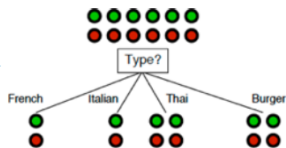
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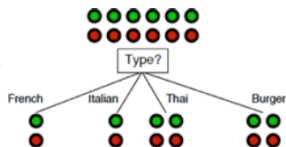
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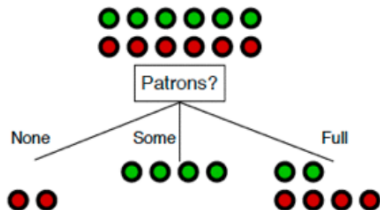
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We are now done with building the root (this is also called a **stump**).

Repeat recursively

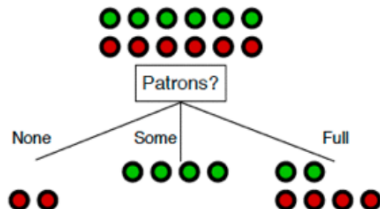
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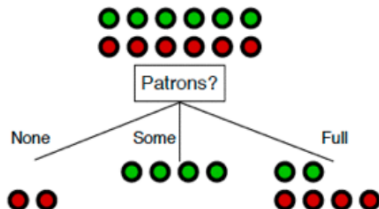
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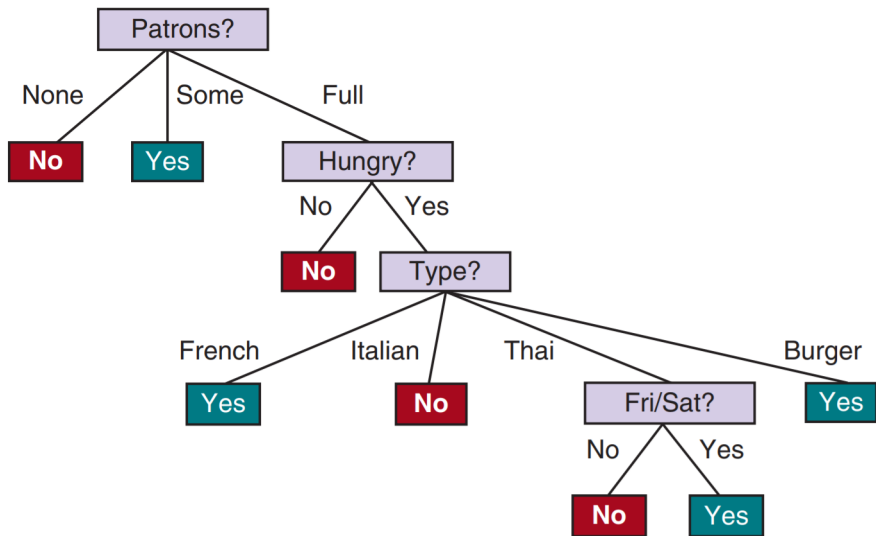
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- but no need to split children “none” and “some”: they are pure already and become leaves
- for “full”, repeat, focusing on those 6 examples:



	Alt	Bar	Fri	Hun	Pat	Price	Rain	Res	Type	Est	WillWait
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$X_5$	T	F	T	F	Full	\$\$\$	F	T	French	>60	F
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$X_7$	F	T	F	F	None	\$	T	F	Burger	0-10	F
$X_8$	F	F	F	T	Some	\$\$	T	T	Thai	0-10	T
$X_9$	F	T	T	F	Full	\$	T	F	Burger	>60	F
$X_{10}$	T	T	T	T	Full	\$\$\$	F	T	Italian	10-30	F
$X_{11}$	F	F	F	F	None	\$	F	F	Thai	0-10	F
$X_{12}$	T	T	T	T	Full	\$	F	F	Burger	30-60	T



Again, very easy to interpret.

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- else if **Examples** is empty, return a leaf with majority class of parent
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Popular decision tree algorithms (e.g. [C4.5](#), [CART](#), etc) are all based on this framework.

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meaning: *probability of two randomly drawn classes being different*

- if a feature is continuous, we need to find a **threshold** that leads to minimum conditional entropy or Gini impurity. *Think about how to do it efficiently.*

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- final prediction is the *majority vote* of all trees (for classification tasks) or the *averaged prediction* of all trees (for regression tasks)
- much better performance than a single tree, trivially parallelizable!

# Outline

- 1 Review of last lecture
- 2 Decision tree
- 3 Boosting
  - Examples
  - AdaBoost
  - Derivation of AdaBoost

# Introduction

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We again focus on **binary classification**.

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- repeat ...
- final classifier is the (**weighted**) **majority vote** of all weak classifiers

# The base algorithm

A **base algorithm**  $\mathcal{A}$  (also called weak learning algorithm/oracle) takes a **training set**  $S$  **weighted by**  $D$  as input, and outputs classifier  $h \leftarrow \mathcal{A}(S, D)$

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- many algorithms can deal with a **weighted training set** (e.g. for algorithm that minimizes some loss, we can simply **replace** “total loss” by “weighted total loss”)
- even if it's not obvious how to deal with weight directly, we can always **resample according to**  $D$  to create a new unweighted dataset

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Focus on **AdaBoost**, one of the most successful boosting algorithms.

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$$D_{t+1}(n) \propto D_t(n) e^{-\beta_t y_n h_t(\mathbf{x}_n)} = \begin{cases} D_t(n) e^{-\beta_t} & \text{if } h_t(\mathbf{x}_n) = y_n \\ D_t(n) e^{\beta_t} & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

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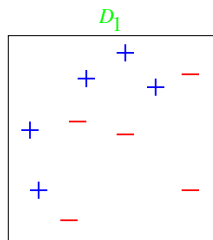
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Output the final classifier  $H(\mathbf{x}) = \text{sgn} \left( \sum_{t=1}^T \beta_t h_t(\mathbf{x}) \right)$

# Example

10 data points in  $\mathbb{R}^2$

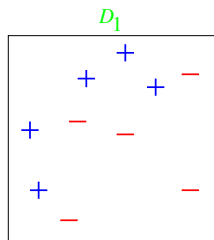
The size of + or - indicates the weight, which starts from uniform  $D_1$



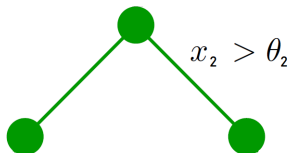
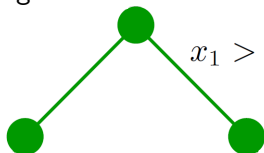
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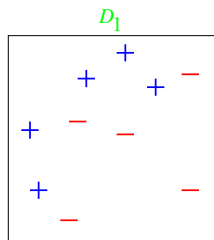




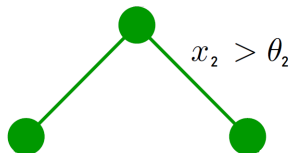
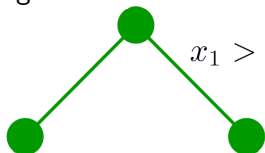
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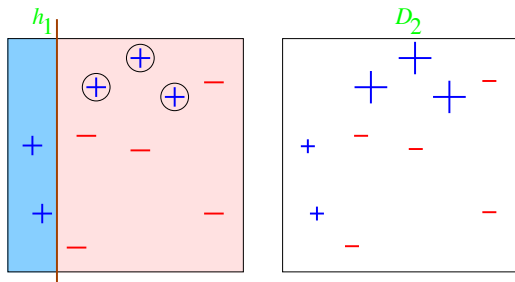
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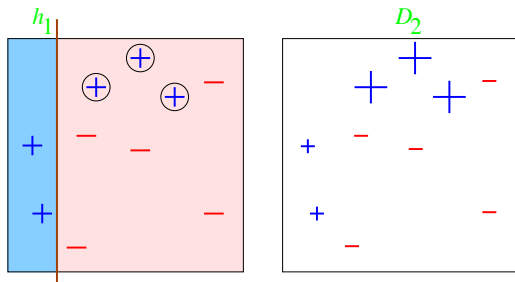
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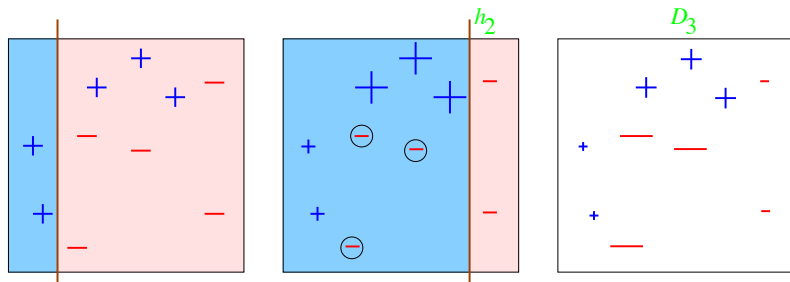
Observe that *no stump can predict very accurately for this dataset*

Round 1:  $t = 1$ 

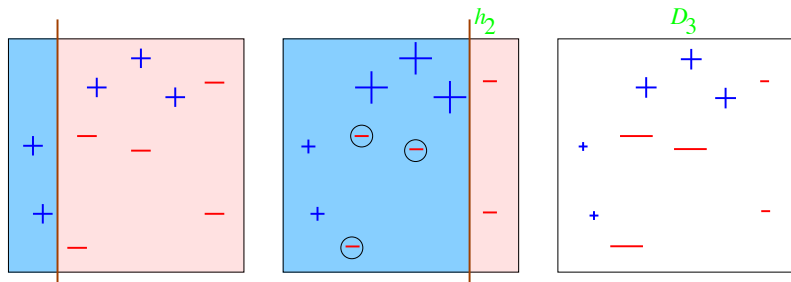
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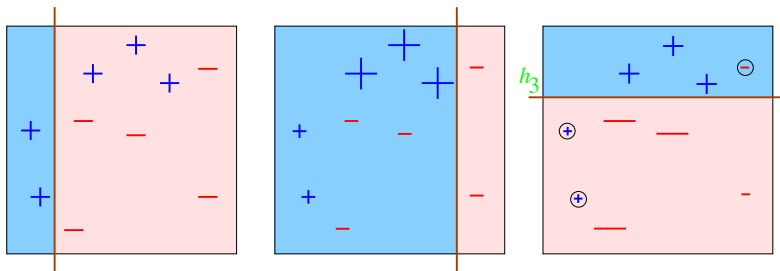
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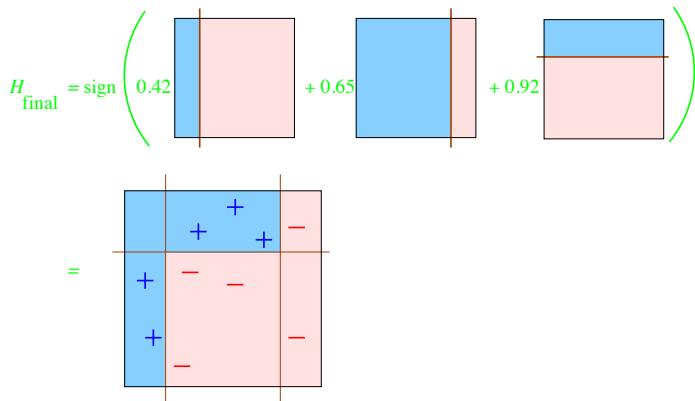
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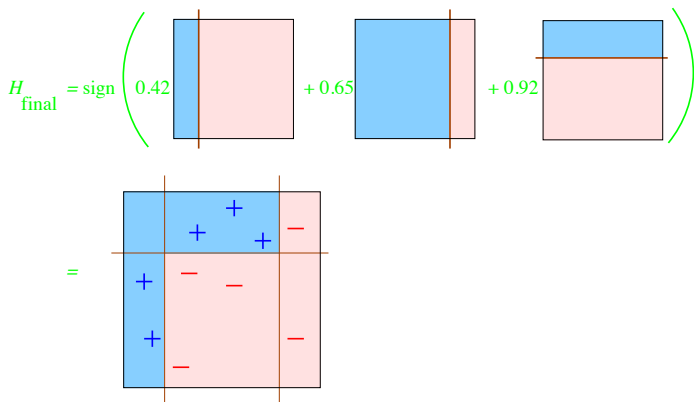
Round 3:  $t = 3$ 

- again 3 misclassified (circled):  $\epsilon_3 = 0.14 \rightarrow \beta_3 = 0.92$ .

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*All data points are now classified correctly*, even though each weak classifier makes 3 mistakes.

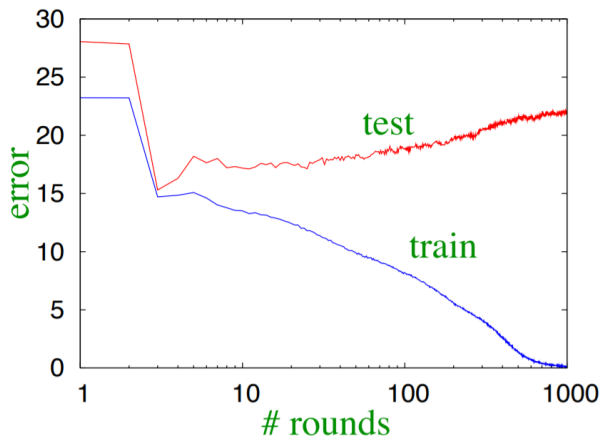


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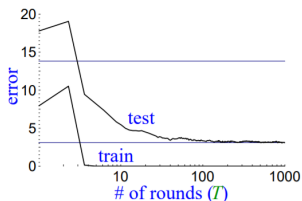
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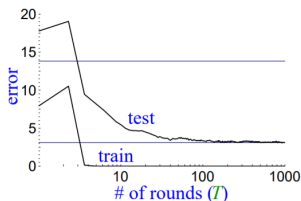
(boosting C4.5 on  
"letter" dataset)

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  - (total size > 2,000,000 nodes)
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Used to be a mystery, but by now rigorous theory has been developed to explain this phenomenon.

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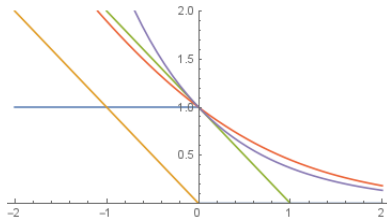
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Step 2: **the loss** that AdaBoost minimizes is the **exponential loss**

$$\sum_{n=1}^N \exp(-y_n f(\mathbf{x}_n))$$





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where the last step is by the definition of weights

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This greedy step is abstracted out through a base algorithm.

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When  $h_t$  (and thus  $\epsilon_t$ ) is fixed, we then find  $\beta_t$  to minimize

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$$\epsilon_t(e^{\beta_t} - e^{-\beta_t}) + e^{-\beta_t},$$

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Keep doing this greedy minimization gives the AdaBoost algorithm.

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AdaBoost is **greedily minimizing the exponential loss**.

AdaBoost is often **resistant to overfitting**.