# Machine Learning:

Introduction and Fundamentals



### Conceptual Overview

Giving computers the ability to learn without explicitly programming them.

Arthur Samuel, 1959

#### Computer algorithms that:

- Learn an output-input relationships through data
- Characterize patterns and relationships amongst system variables

## (Some) Applications of Machine Learning

- Natural Language Processing: chatbots.
- Computer Vision: object detection, segmentation, depth estimation.
- Search: retrieval, ordering.
- Recommendations: ads, entertainment, e-commerce.
- Forecasting: financial markets.
- Anomaly detection: freud, spam, cyber-threads.
- Robotics.
- Automation: self-driving cars, smart spaces.
- Science: particle physics, astrophysics, cosmology.

## Motivation for Machine Learning

- Use case: given an image, determine whether there are any faces present and return the bounding box of each face, i.e. **face detection**.
- Difficult computer vision problem because of variability: expressions, illuminations, skin types, scale, orientation, background, occlusion, resolution.
- Designing feature-based methods based on hand crafted edge detectors (kernels or filters) to target facial features is an impossible task.
- Instead: train a **model** using available data to learn these filters.

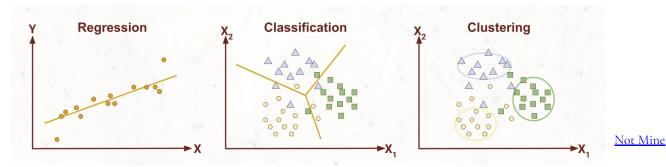
What is a model?

### Concept of a Model

- A model is a parameterized function  $f_{\theta}$  where  $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^n$  are the parameters.
- A model is a mathematical characterization of system(s) of interest.
- A model **learns** from data, i.e. we *fit* a model on a dataset.
- Given N examples with features and targets, a training dataset  $D = \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^{N}$ parameters  $\theta$  are learned via a learning algorithm that optimize an objective.
- A model can be seen as a computer program with  $\theta$  and  $x_i$  as input arguments performing a **prediction** or **inference** on new data points.

## Types of Machine Learning Problems

- Classification: predict a label, i.e.  $y_i \in \mathcal{Y}$ , where  $\mathcal{Y}$  is a finite set of classes.
- Regression: predict a continuous variable,  $y_i \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ .
- Clustering: group similar set of objects.



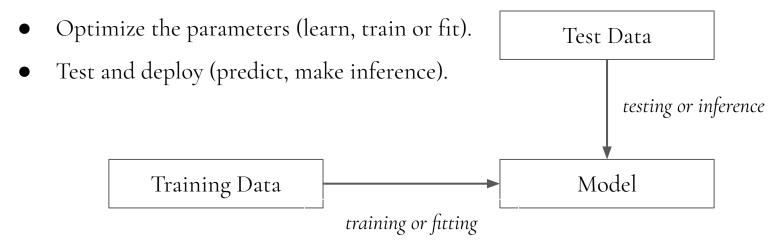
Others: dimensionality reduction, generation, association, collaborative filtering.

## Types of learning

- Supervised: labels are available.
  - Examples: classification, regression.
- Unsupervised: labels are unavailable.
  - Examples: clustering, dimensionality reduction.
- **Semi-supervised**: some labels are available.
  - Examples: some generative models.
- Self-supervised: some learning signal required, e.g. outputs distance.
- Reinforcement learning: an agent learns through interaction with a system.

## Typical pipeline

- Collect the data (model *experience*).
- Choose a model (and model capacity).



#### Loss function

- Find best parameters which minimize the *loss function L*.
- Examples for supervised learning:
  - Squared error (for regression):  $L(f_{\theta}(x), y) = (f_{\theta}(x) y)^2$
  - Cross-entropy (for classification):  $L(f_{\theta}(x), y) = -y \log(f_{\theta}(x)) (1-y)\log(1-f_{\theta}(x))$
- Minimizing the loss function should result in maximizing the **metric**.

### Evaluation Metrics: Regression

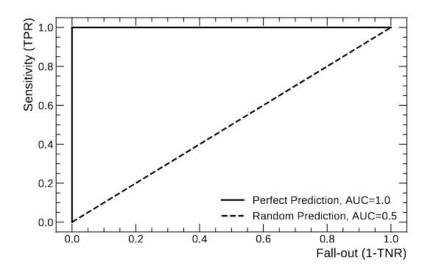
- Metric: a function and measure of a quantitative assessment a model.
- Regression metrics:
  - Mean Squared Error
  - Mean Absolute Error 0
  - Median Absolute Error
  - R<sub>2</sub> Score 0
  - Mean Pinball Loss 0
  - Mean Absolute Percentage Error 0

### Evaluation Metrics: Classification

- True positive (TP): correctly indicates the presence of a condition.
- False positive (FP, Type I error): wrongly indicates that a particular condition is present.
- True negative (TN): correctly indicates the absence of a condition.
- False negative (FN, Type II error): wrongly indicates that a particular condition is absent.
- Classification metrics:
  - Accuracy: (TP + TN) / (P + N)
  - Sensitivity: TP/P 0
  - False Positive Rate: FP/N 0
  - Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC): Sensitivity vs. False Positive Rate 0

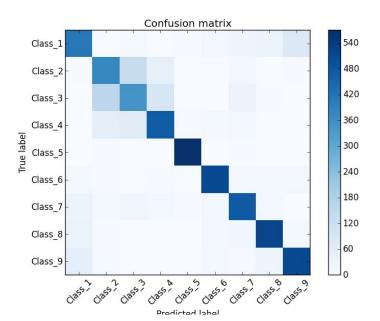
#### Evaluation Metrics: Classification

- Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC): Sensitivity vs. False Positive Rate.
- ROC Area Under the Curve (AUC): integral over the ROC line, the higher the better.



### Evaluation Metrics: Classification, Confusion Matrix

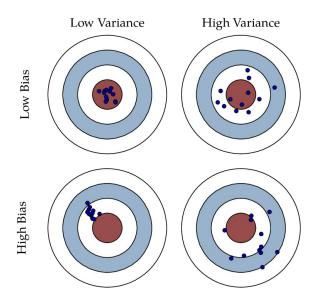
• Confusion matrix: a table that allows interpretation of the algorithm performance.



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#### Bias-Variance Trade-off

- Bias is the model error from erroneous assumption, i.e. systematic error
- Variance is the model sensitivity to small changes in the data, i.e. noise sensitivity.



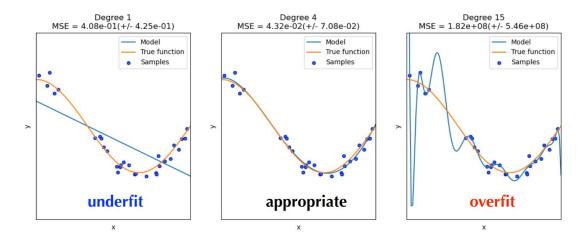
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#### Model Generalization

- Model **generalization**: ability to react properly to new, previously unseen data.
- Underfitting (low variance, high bias) with poor train and test results.
  - Inaccurate inference.
  - Model is too simple or it can't capture underlying data structure.
  - Model does not have enough capacity.
- Overfitting (high variance, low bias) with good training error but bad test results.
  - Inaccurate inference.
  - Model captures noise instead of the input structure (low generalization).
  - Model has too much capacity.

### Model Generalization

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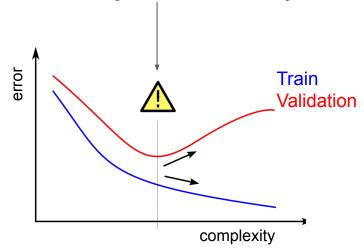


## Monitoring Generalization

Split the dataset.

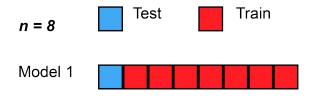
17-21 July, 2023

- Training set: use to fit the model.
- Validation set: verify generalization used for model selection. 0
- Test set: use for the final independent check after all parameters are fixed. 0



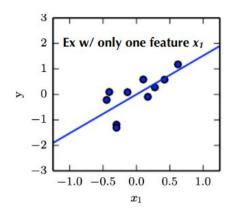
### Cross-validation

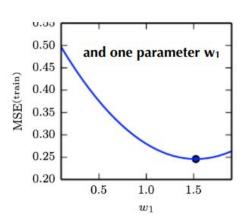
- Cross-validation: better estimation (with variance) of model performance.
  - Split the dataset in K chunks (called folds).
  - Train on K-1 chunks, validate on 1 chunk and average results. 0
- Too many folds: small bias, large variance (due to small split sizes), costl.
- Too few folds: large bias, small variance, cheap.



### Linear Regression

- Given D =  $\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^N$ , where  $x \in \mathbb{R}^m$  and  $y \in \mathbb{R}$ , and m is the number of features.
- We look for a linear model  $f(\mathbf{w}, x) = \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{x}$ , where  $\mathbf{w} = \{\mathbf{w}_{0}, \mathbf{w}_{1}, ..., \mathbf{w}_{m}\}$ .
- We will use Mean Squared Error as a loss function,  $L(\mathbf{w}) = (f(\mathbf{w}, x) y)^2/N$ , to minimize  $\mathbf{w}^* = \operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{w}} L(\mathbf{w})$ .





### Linear Regression: Solution

$$\bullet \quad \text{Rewrite linear model as:} \quad \begin{bmatrix} \hat{y}_1 \\ \hat{y}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \hat{y}_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{1,1} & x_{1,2} & \cdots & x_{1,m} \\ x_{2,1} & x_{2,2} & \cdots & x_{2,m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_{n,1} & x_{n,2} & \cdots & x_{n,m} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \\ \vdots \\ w_m \end{bmatrix} , \text{ or } \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}$$

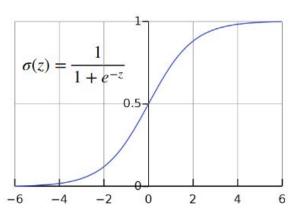
• Rewrite loss as: 
$$||\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}||^2 = \frac{1}{n}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w})^T(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w})$$

The solution can be solved analytically:  $\mathbf{w}^* = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$ 

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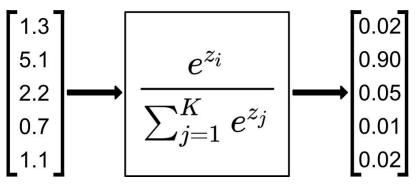
### Logistic Regression

- Let's assume a binary classification problem.
- Given D =  $\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^N$ , where  $x \in \mathbb{R}^m$  and  $y \in \{0,1\}$ , and m is the number of features.
- Convert the distance from the boundary into a probability: sigmoid function.
- The further from boundary, the more certain about a class.



### Multi-Class Classification

- For multi-class classification, i.e.  $y \in \{c_1, c_2, ..., c_n\}$ , y should be represented with one-hot vector, i.e.  $y_i = c_k = (0, ..., 1, ... 0)$ , where only  $k^{th}$  element is 1.
- Softmax: multi-class generalization of logistic sigmoid function,  $p(c_k|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{e^{w_k \mathbf{x}}}{\sum_{i=1}^N e^{\mathbf{w}_i^T \mathbf{x}}}$



### Logistic Regression

• We write  $p(y \mid \mathbf{x})$  as Bernoulli random variable:

$$p(y_i = y \mid \mathbf{x}_i) = (p_i)^{y_i} (1 - p_i)^{1 - y_i} = \begin{cases} p_i & \text{if } y_i = 1\\ 1 - p_i & \text{if } y_i = 0 \end{cases}$$

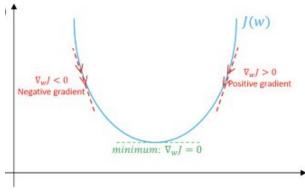
- Negative log-likelihood:  $-\ln \prod_{i} (p_i)^{y_i} (1 p_i)^{1 y_i} = -\sum_{i} y_i \ln(p_i) + (1 y_i) \ln(1 p_i)$
- No analytical solution to **w**\*.

#### Gradient Descent

- We normally minimize loss by evaluating the derivatives (direction towards minimum).
- Gradient descent computes the gradient of the loss function w.r.t. to the current parameters  $\theta$ .
- At each training step k update model parameters to move towards steepest decline:

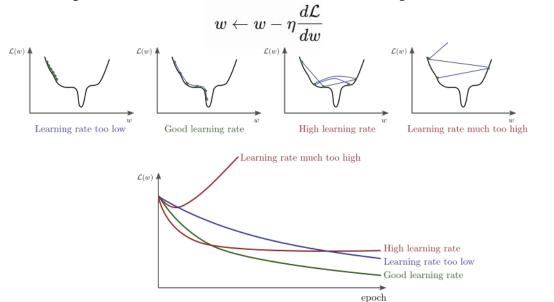
$$\theta_{k+1} \leftarrow \theta_k - \eta + \nabla L(\theta_k)$$
, where  $L(\theta_k)$  is the loss and  $\eta$  is the step size and  $k$  is the time

• Adjustment step is determined by learning rate  $\eta$  (hyperparameter).



## Choice of the Learning Rate

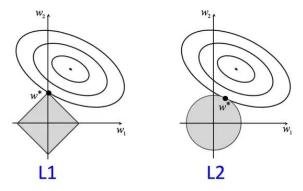
• Choice of the learning rate is critical for the successful training.



Credit

## L<sub>1</sub>/L<sub>2</sub> Regularization

- Limit the capacity of the model by penalizing the value of weights.
- L1 regularization (Ridge): absolute value of weights for sparsity (feature selection):  $\lambda \sum_{i=1}^{n} |\theta_i|$
- L2 regularization (LASSO): penalize square of weights:  $\lambda \sum_{i=1}^{n} \theta_i^2$
- $\lambda$  is a hyperparameter.



Hands On Session