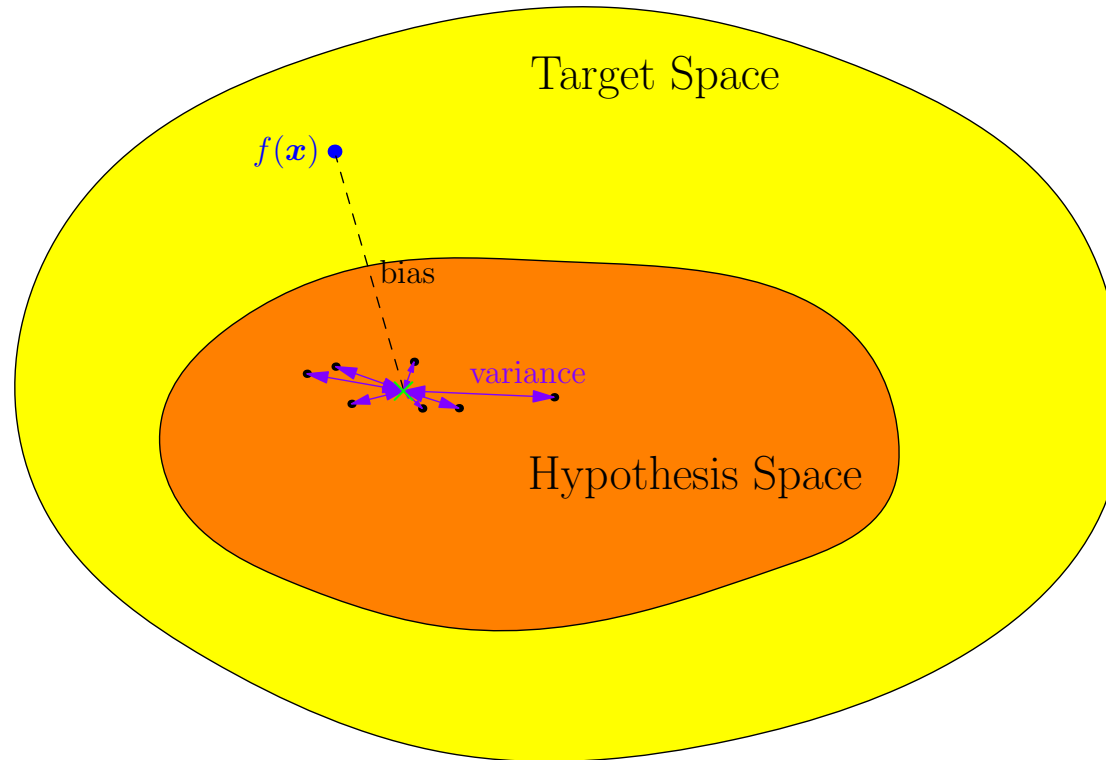


# Advanced Machine Learning

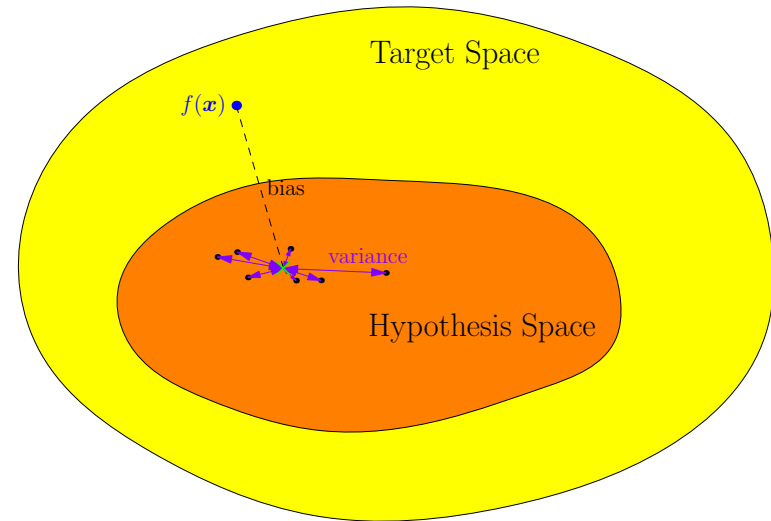
## *Advanced Machine Learning*



*When ML Works, SVMs, Decision Trees, Ensemble Methods, Bayesian Inference*

# Outline

1. **What Makes a Good Learning Machine?**
2. SVMs
3. Ensemble Methods
4. Bayesian Inference



# What Makes a Good Learning Machine?

- We are going to cover some advanced machine learning techniques
- To understand why these works we need to understand what makes a good learning machine
- For this we have to get conceptual and think about **generalisation** performance

*generalisation: how well do we do on unseen data as opposed to the training data*

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# What Makes Machine Learning Hard?

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- The problem can be over-constrained (i.e. we have conflicting data to deal with)
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# Least Squared Errors

- Suppose we want to learn some function  $f(\mathbf{x})$
- We construct a learning machine that makes a prediction  $\hat{f}(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{w})$ , where  $\mathbf{w}$  are weights we want to learn
- We typically choose the weights to minimise a *training error*

$$E_T(\mathbf{w}) = \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{D}} \left( \hat{f}(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{w}) - f(\mathbf{x}) \right)^2$$

where  $\mathcal{D}$  is a finite data set of size  $N$ , sampled from the set of all inputs,  $\mathcal{X}$ , according to a probability distribution  $p(\mathbf{x})$  describing where our data is

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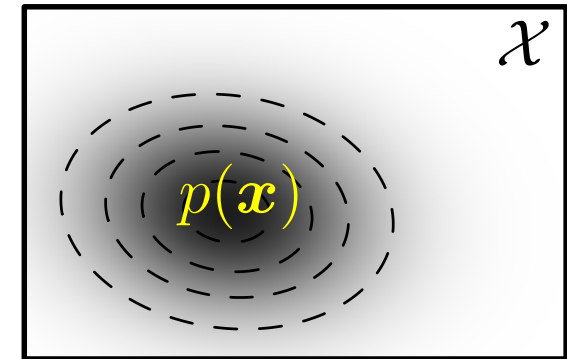
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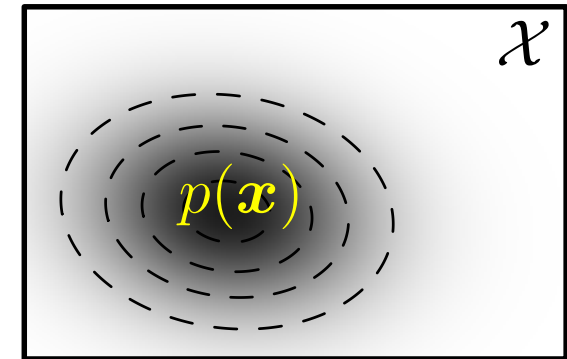
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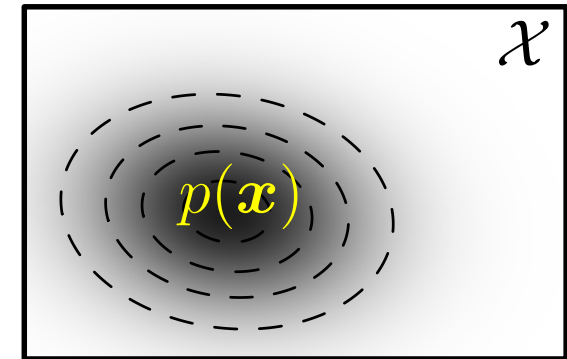
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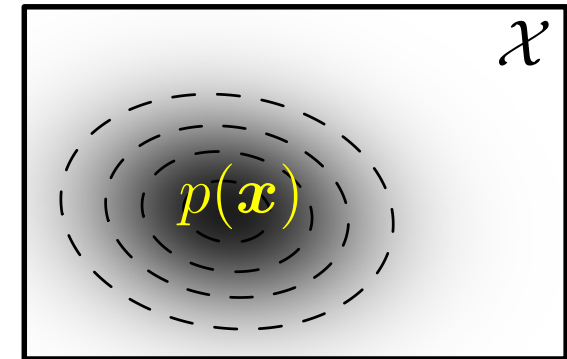
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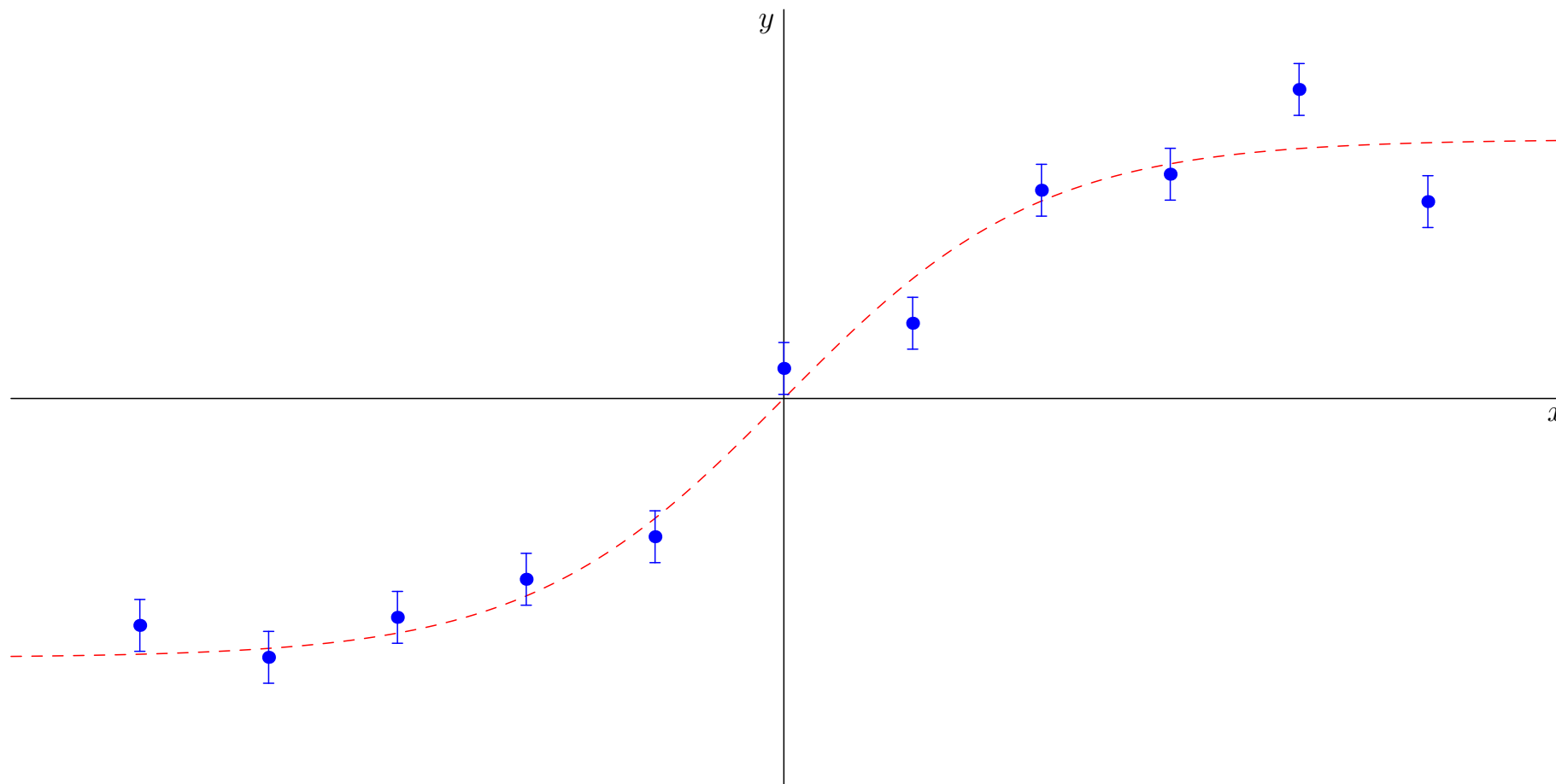


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- We want to minimise  $E_G(\mathbf{w})$  but in practice we are minimising  $E_T(\mathbf{w})$ , *what could possibly go wrong?*

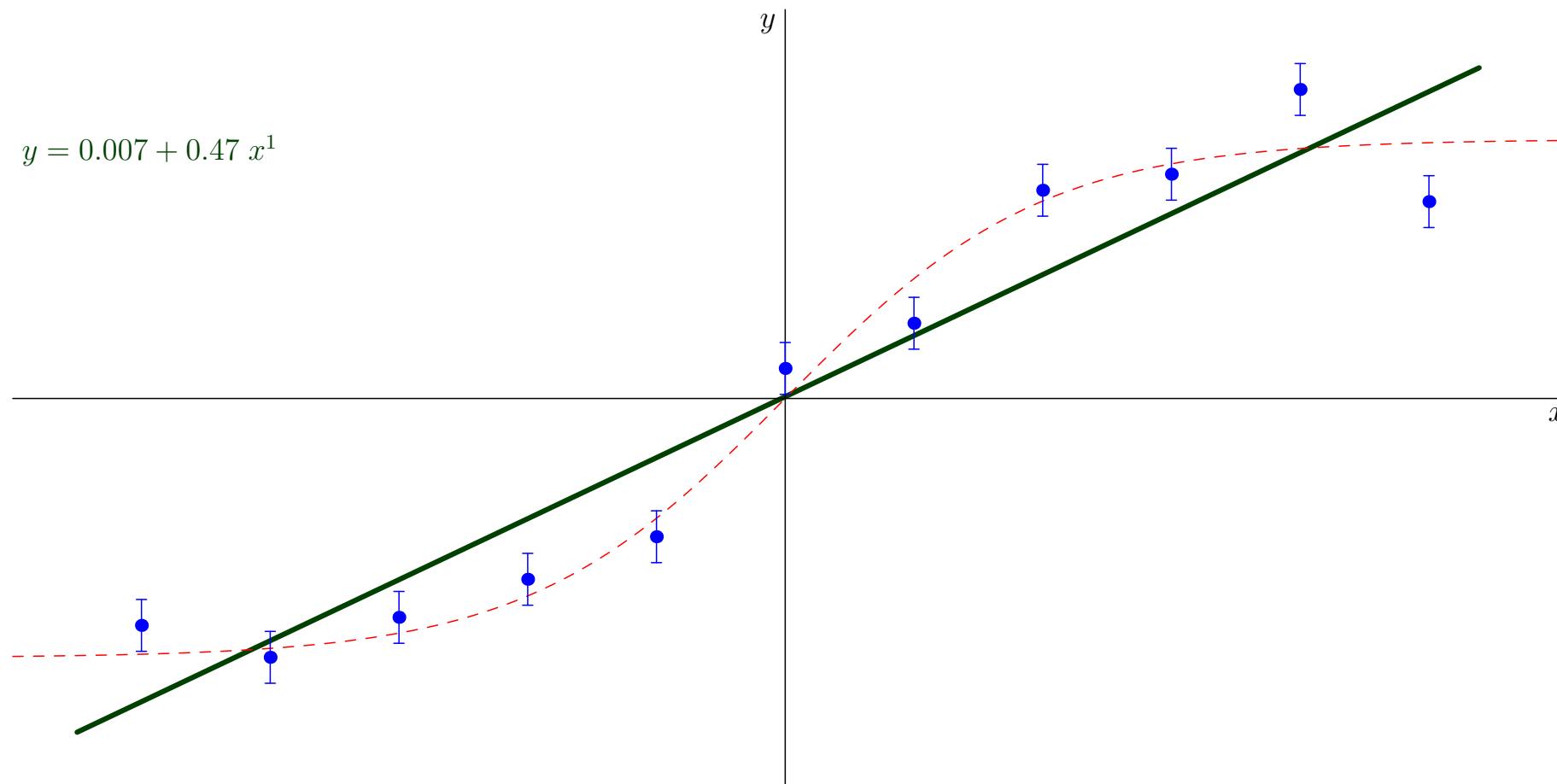
# Too Simple or Too Complex?

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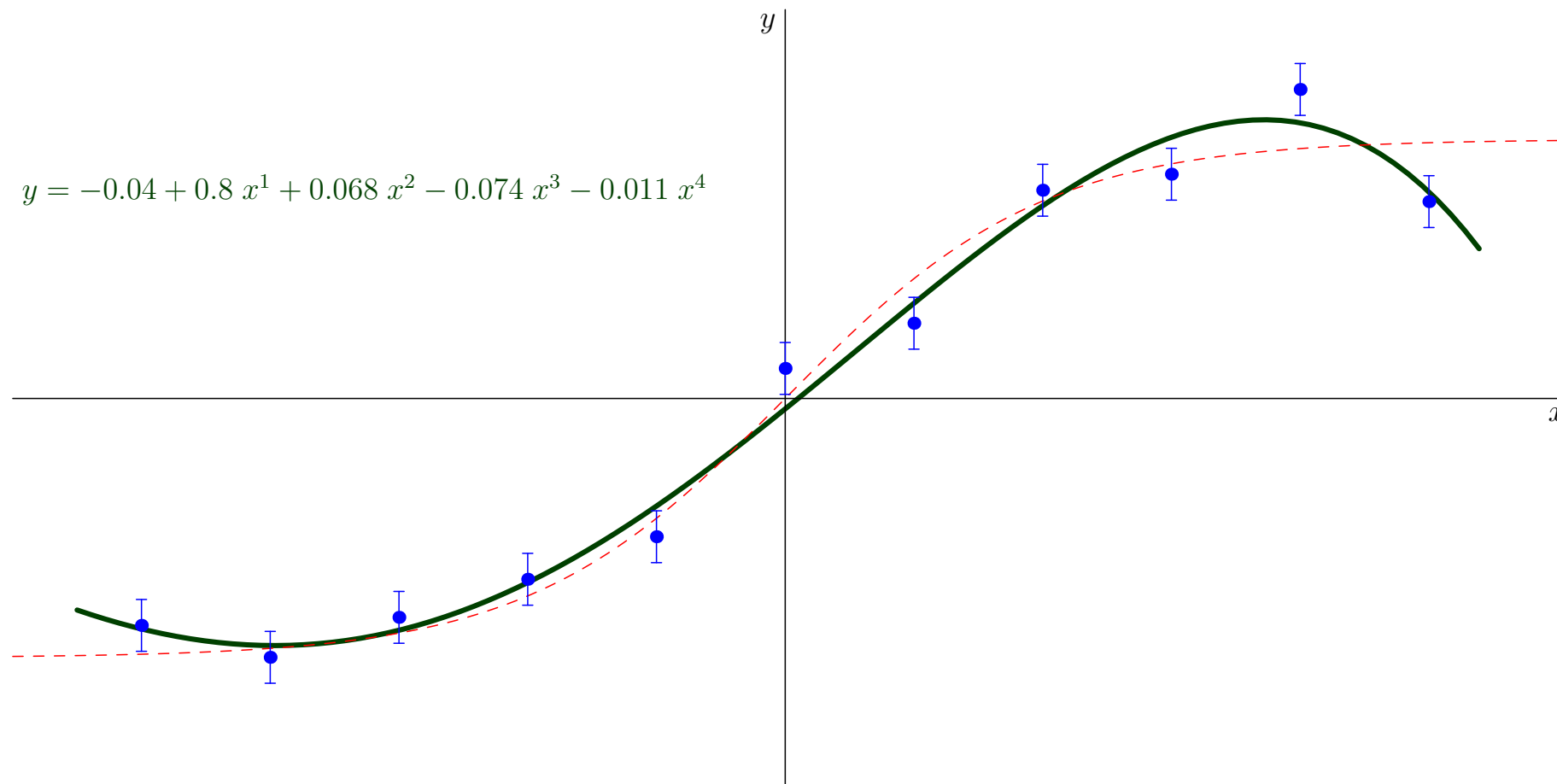
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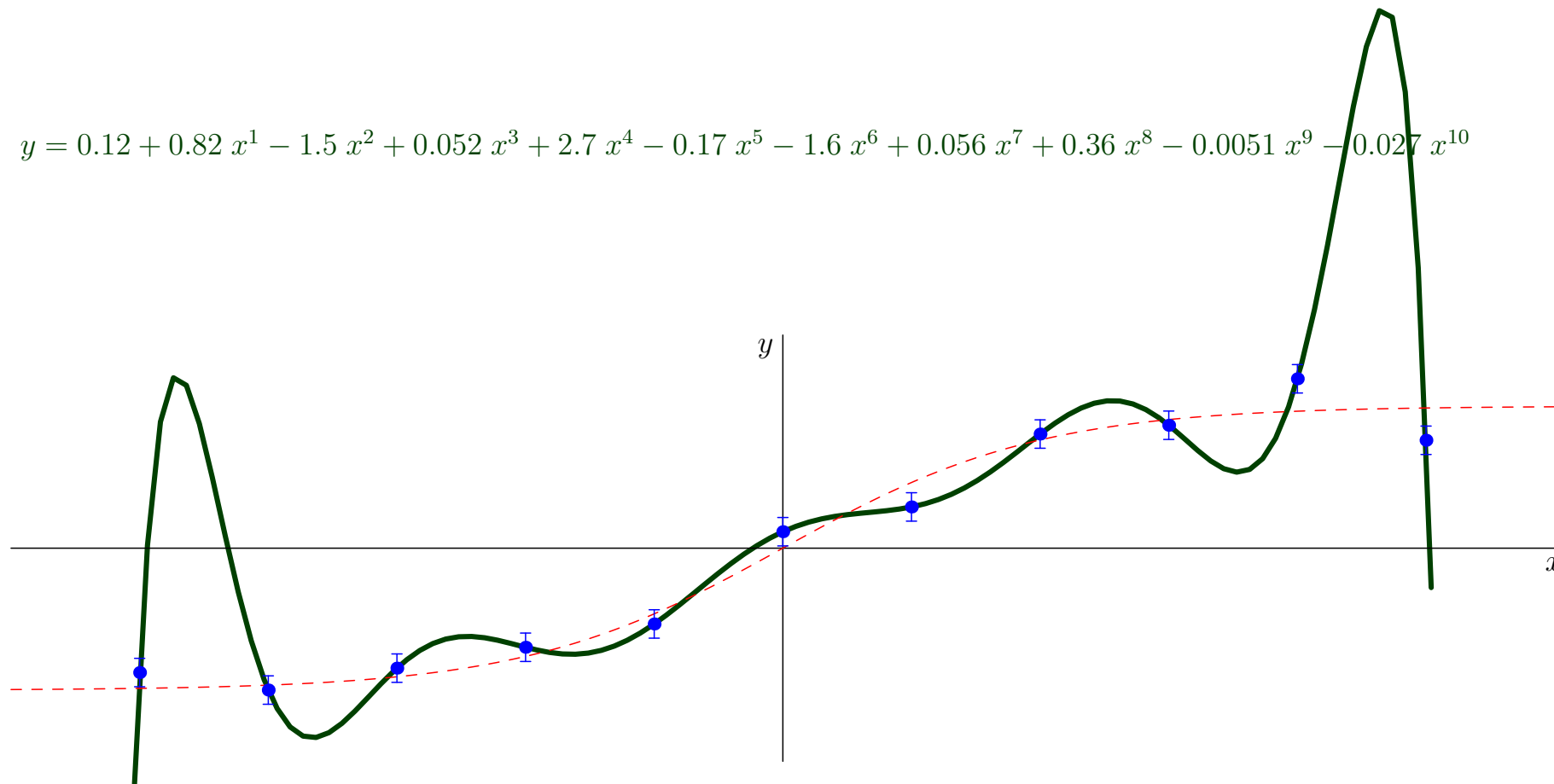
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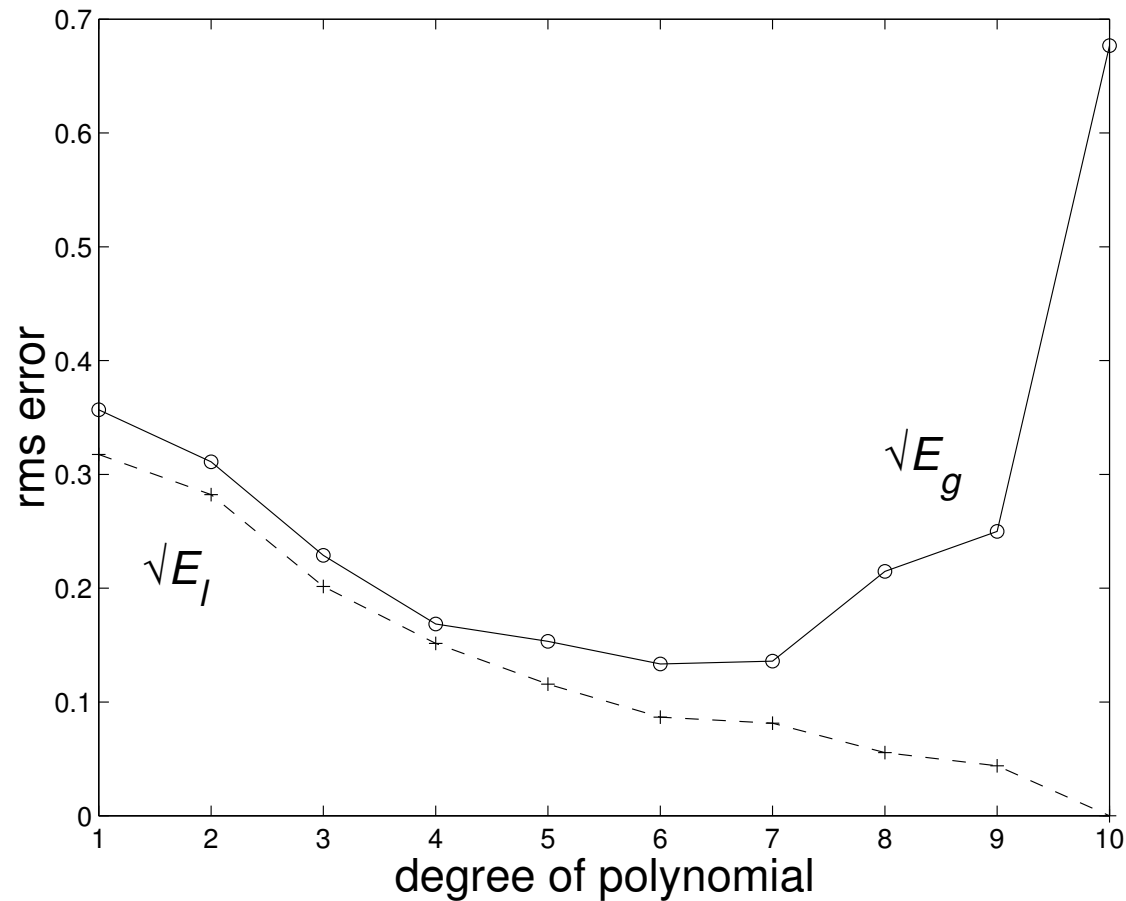
$$y = 0.12 + 0.82x^1 - 1.5x^2 + 0.052x^3 + 2.7x^4 - 0.17x^5 - 1.6x^6 + 0.056x^7 + 0.36x^8 - 0.0051x^9 - 0.027x^{10}$$





# Measuring Generalisation Error for Regression

- Consider the regression example. The root mean squared error is



# Expected Generalisation Performance

- Our generalisation performance will depend on our training set,  $\mathcal{D}$
- To reason about generalisation we can ask what is the *expected generalisation*, that is, when we average over all different data sets of size  $m$  drawn independently from  $p(\mathbf{x})$
- For each data set,  $\mathcal{D}$ , we would learn a different approximator  $\hat{f}(\mathbf{x}|\mathcal{D})$  (usually through weights  $\mathbf{w}_{\mathcal{D}}$ )
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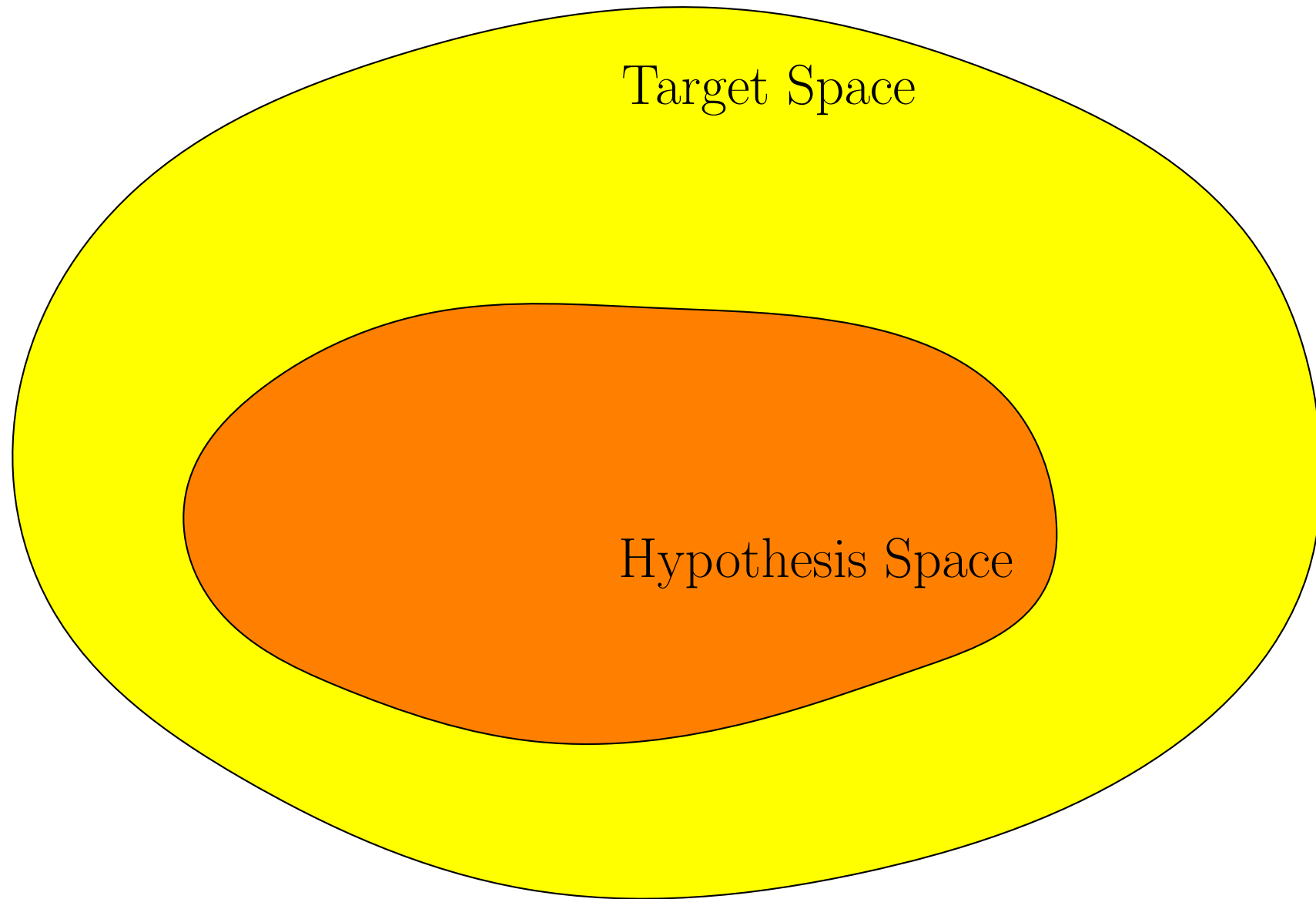
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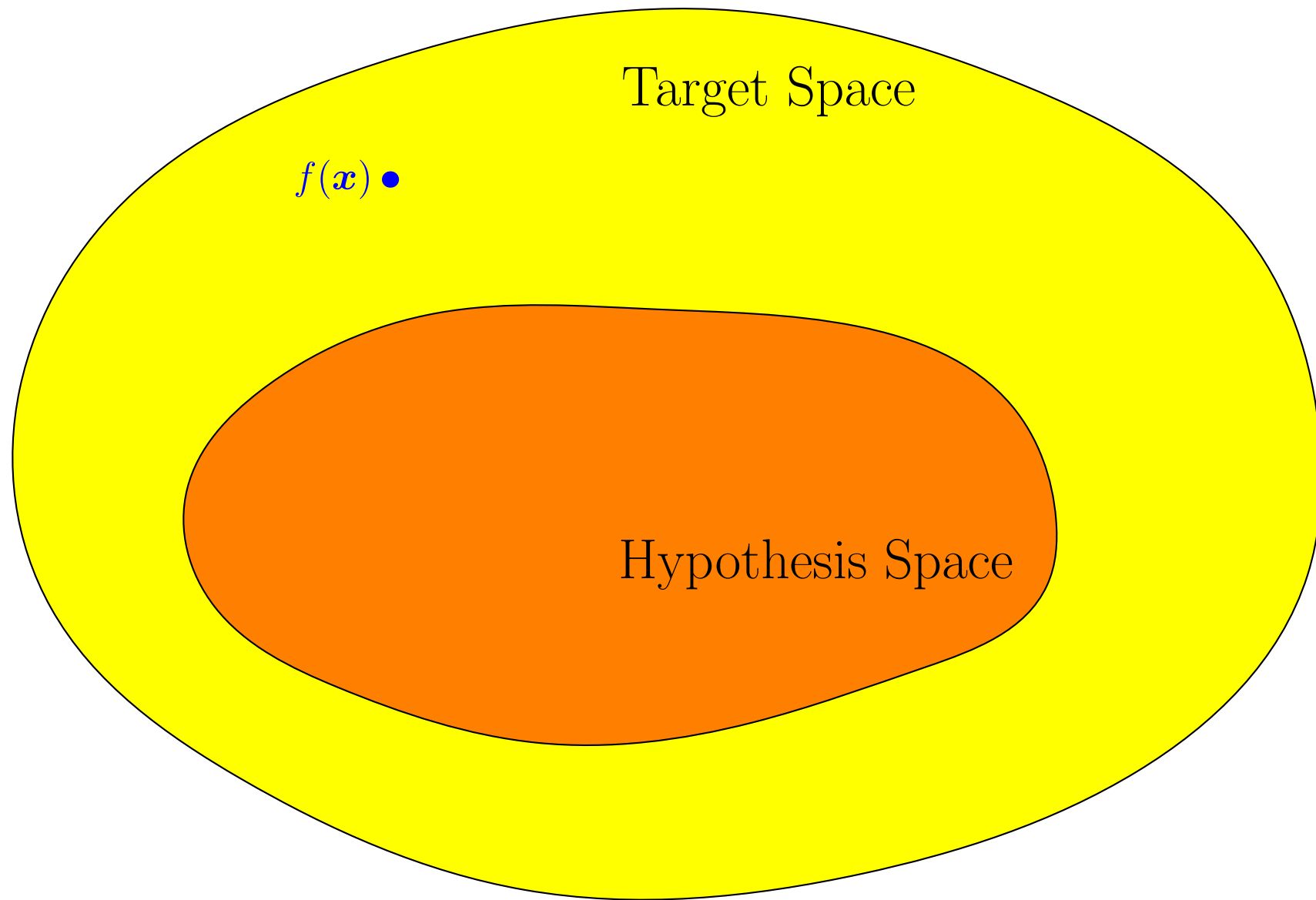
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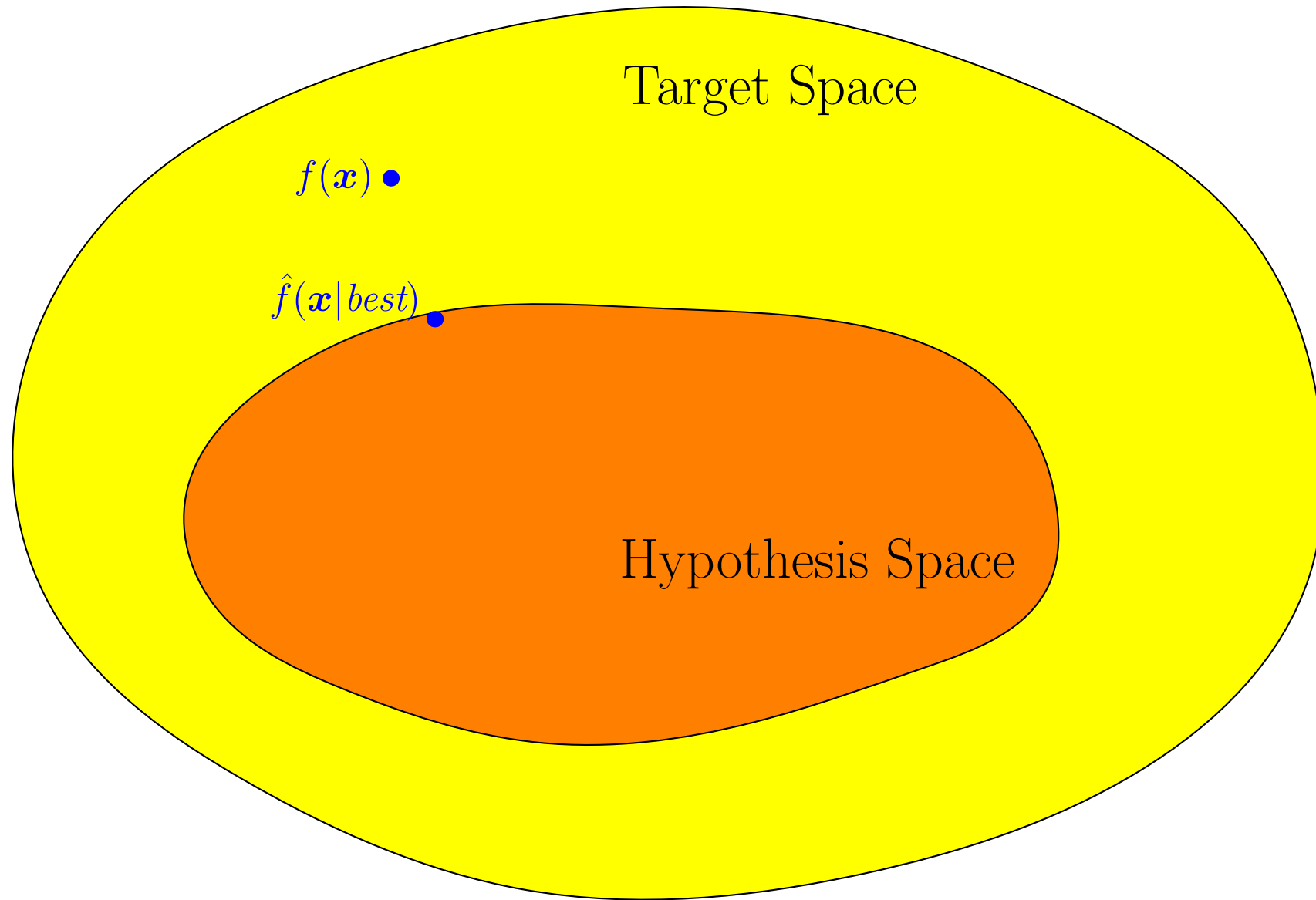
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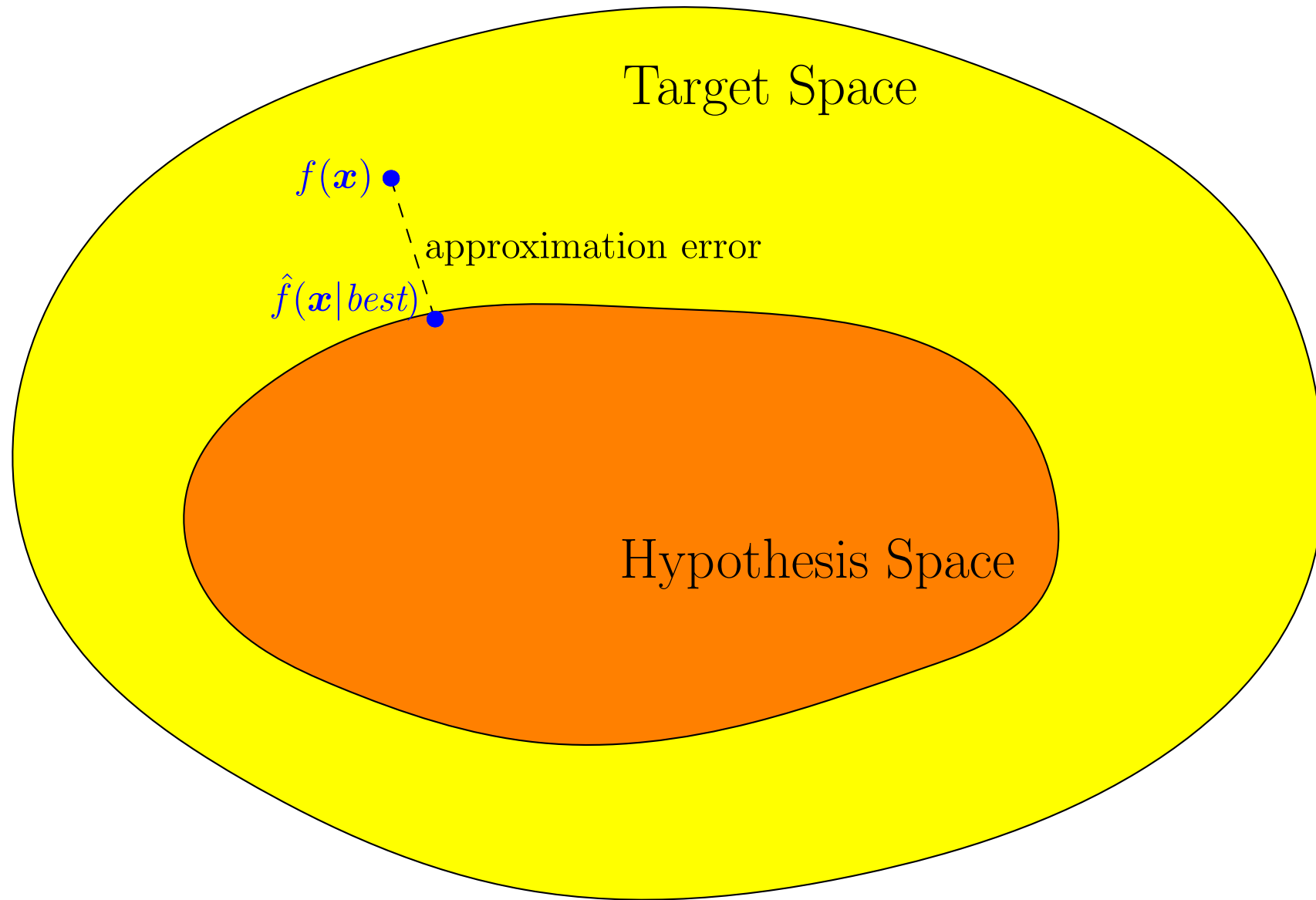


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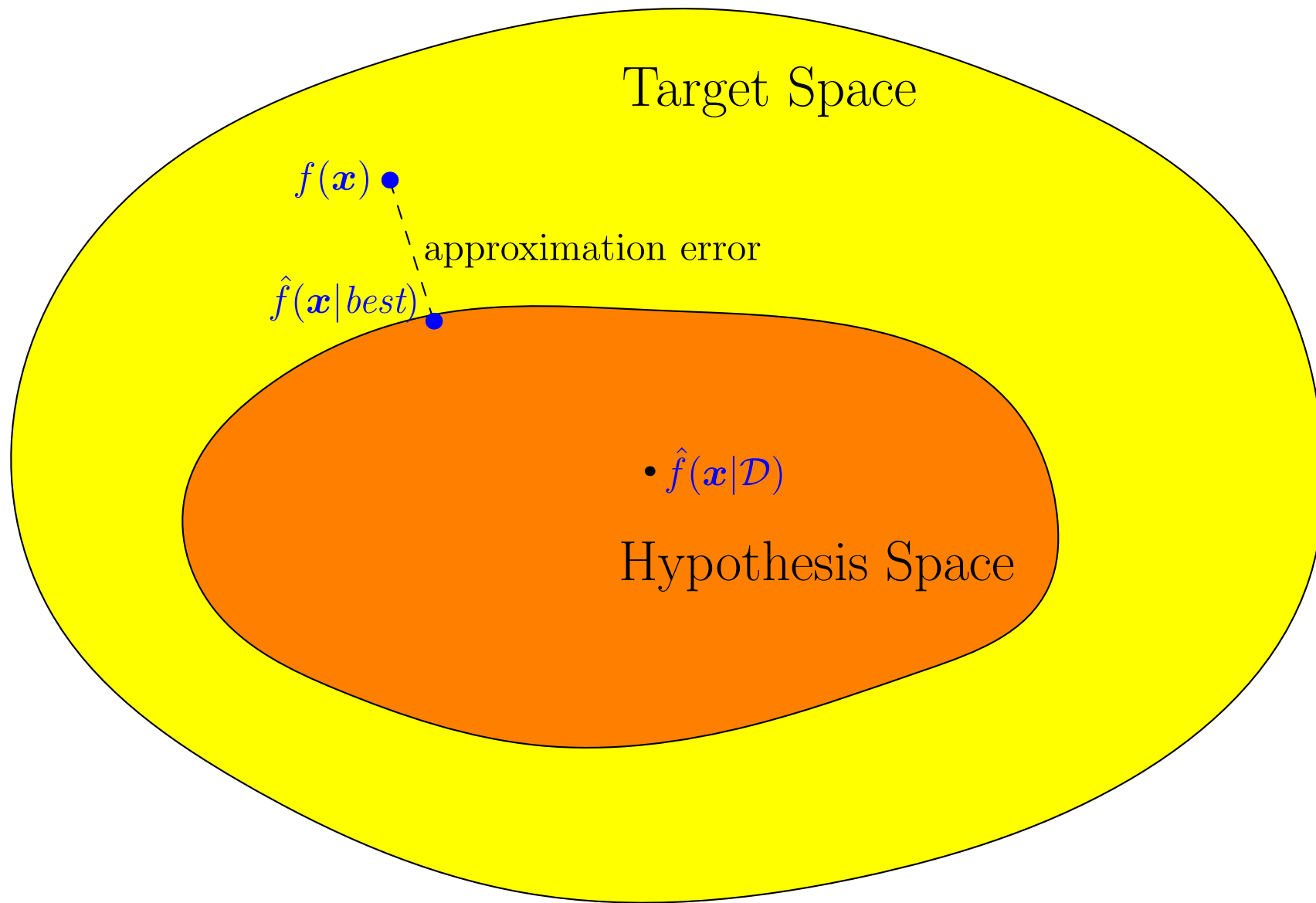




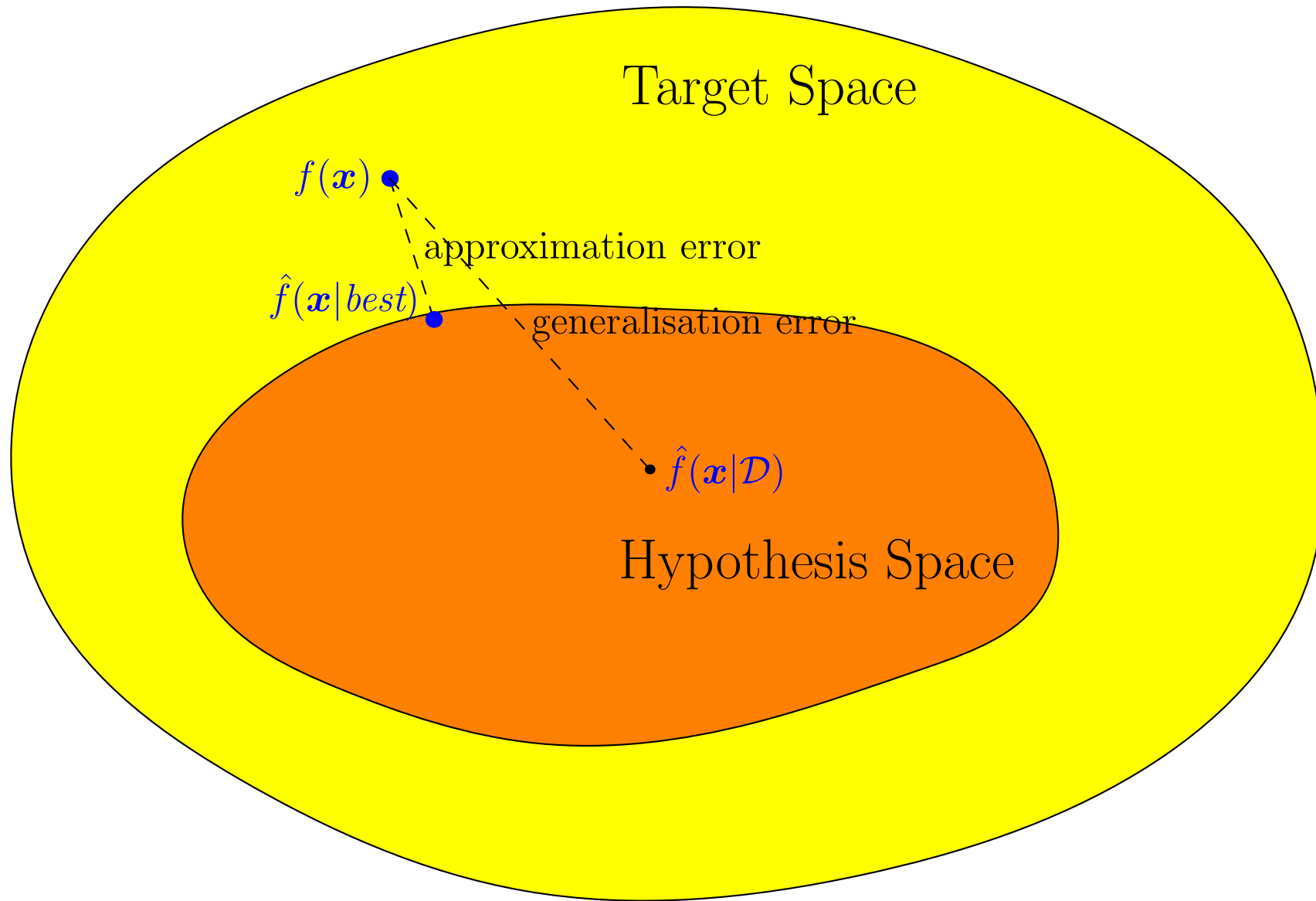
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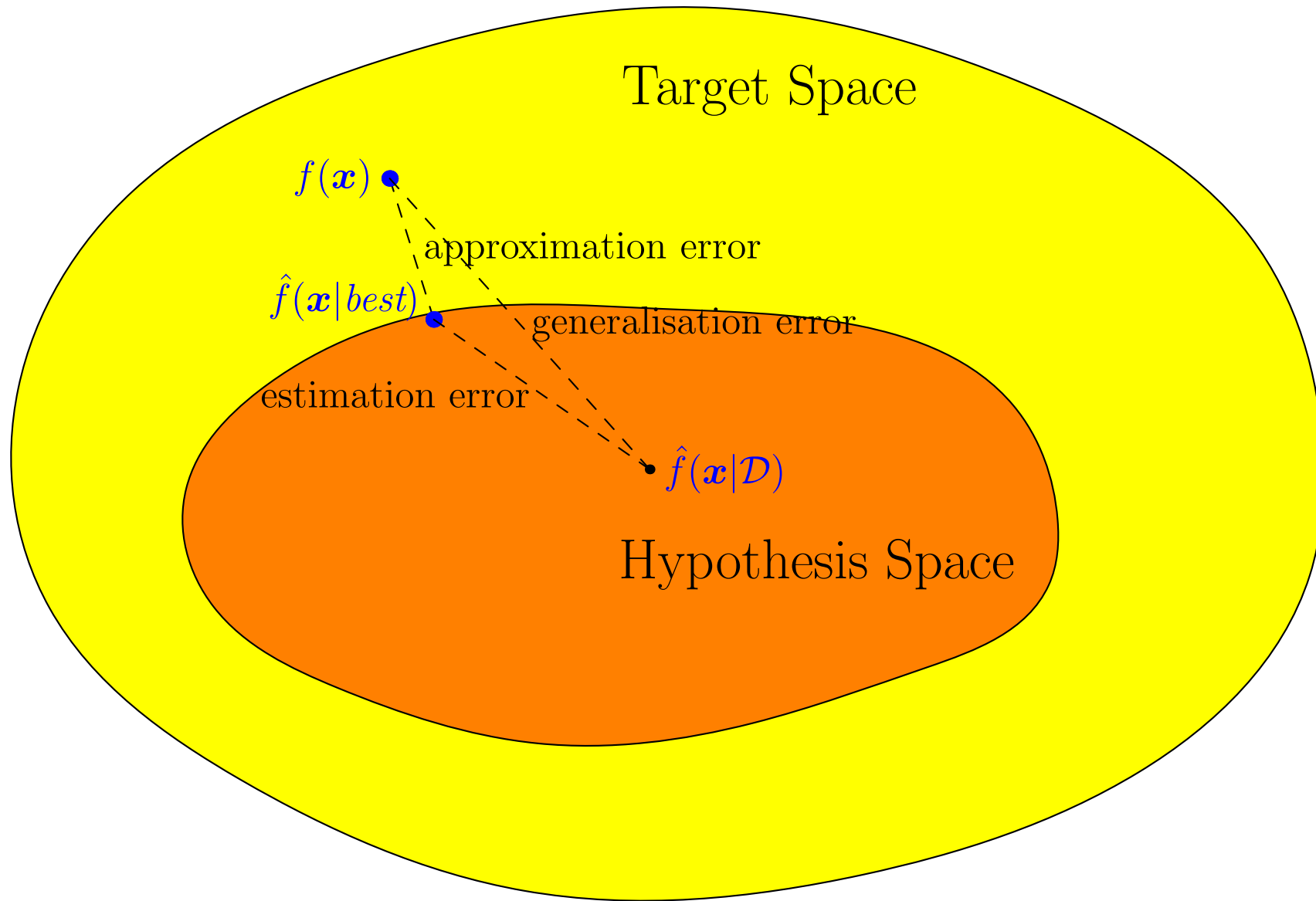
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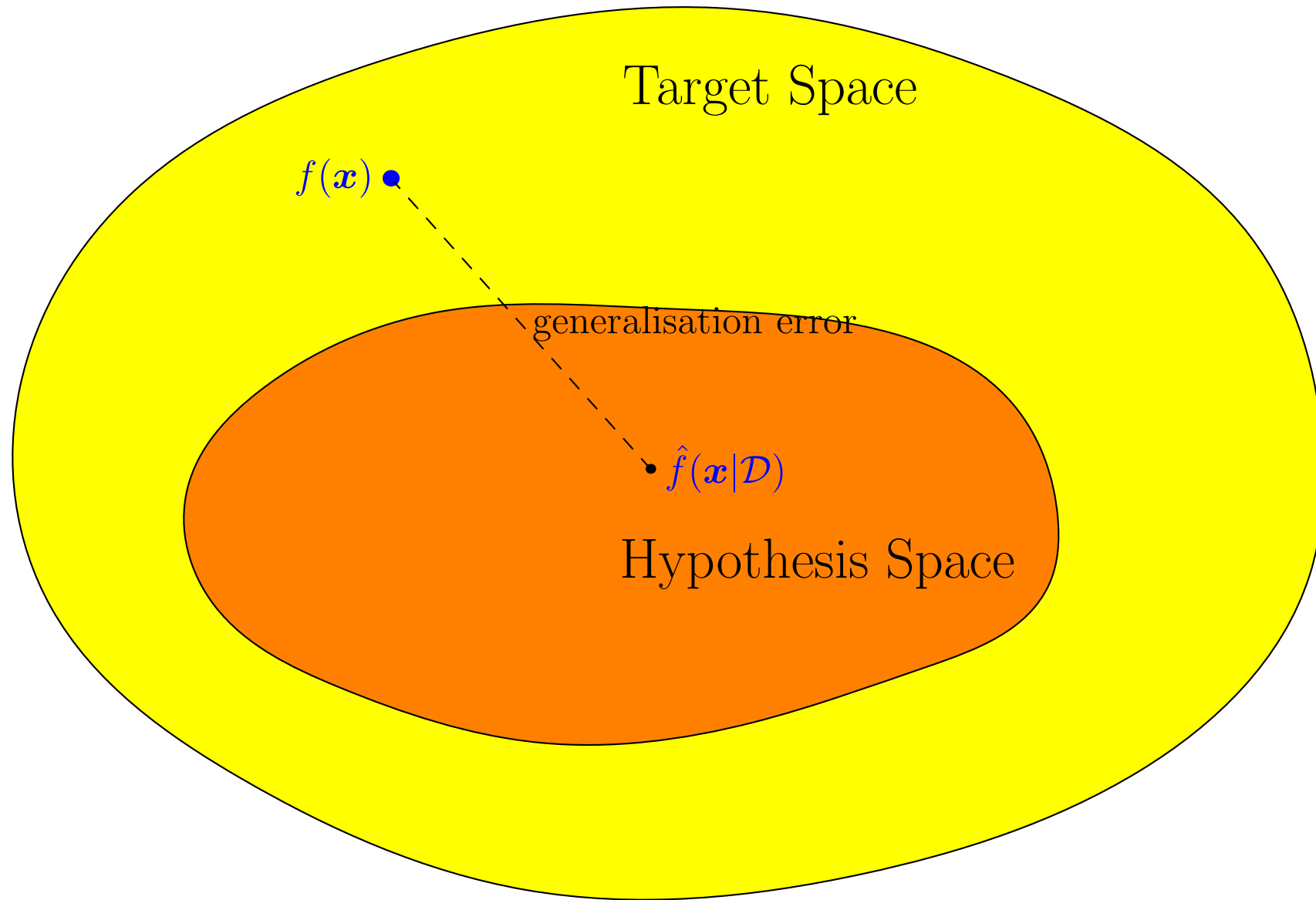
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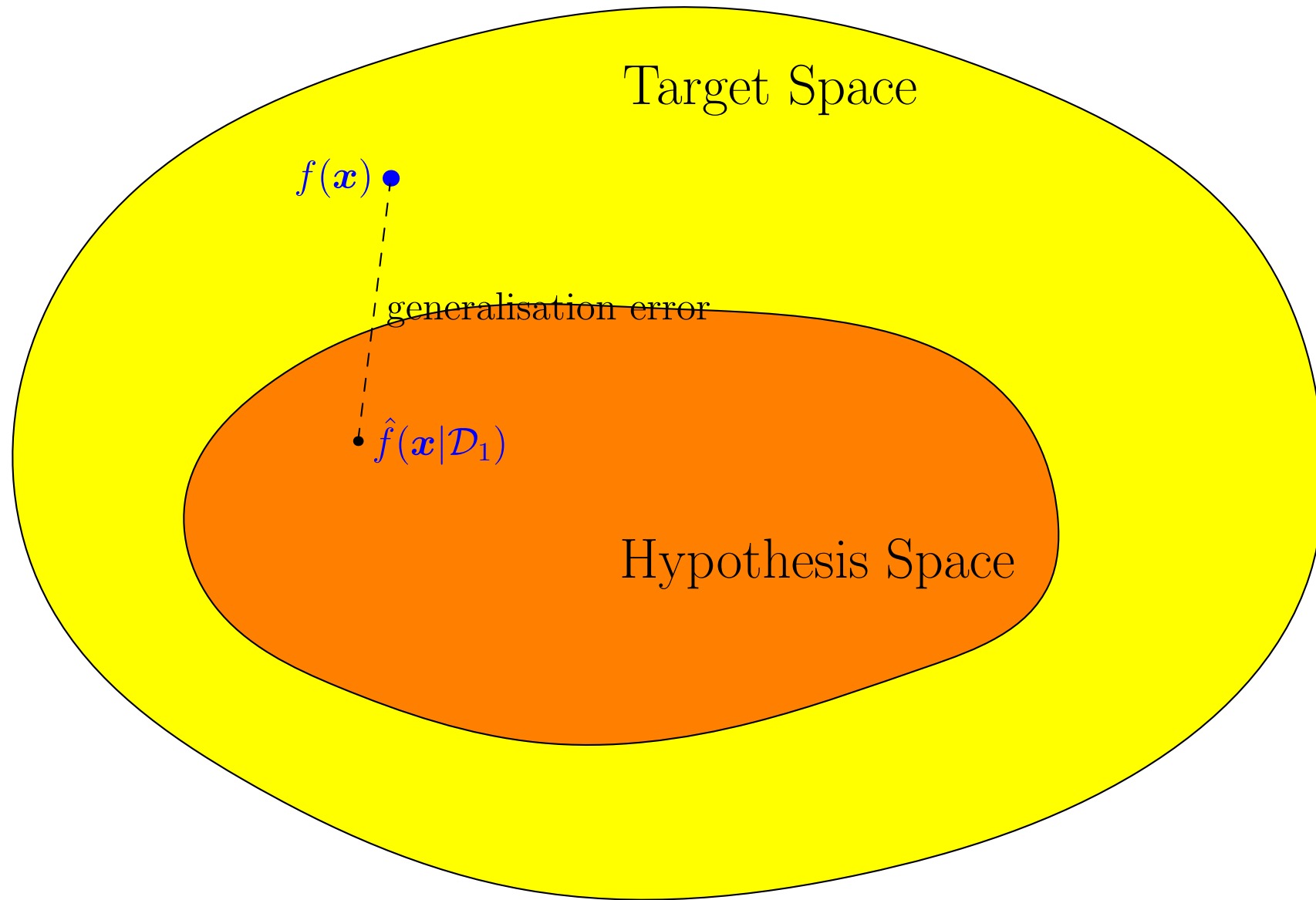
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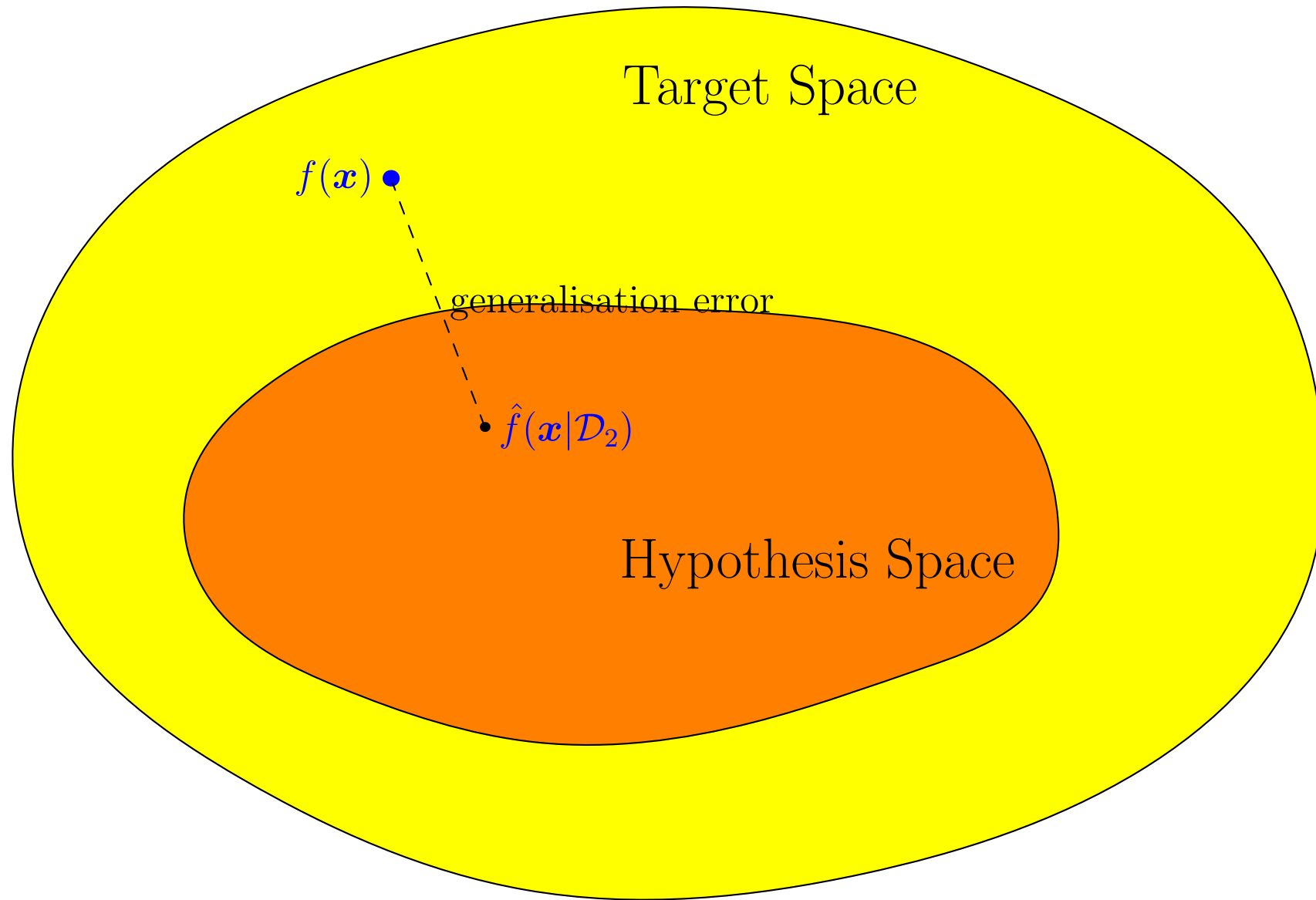
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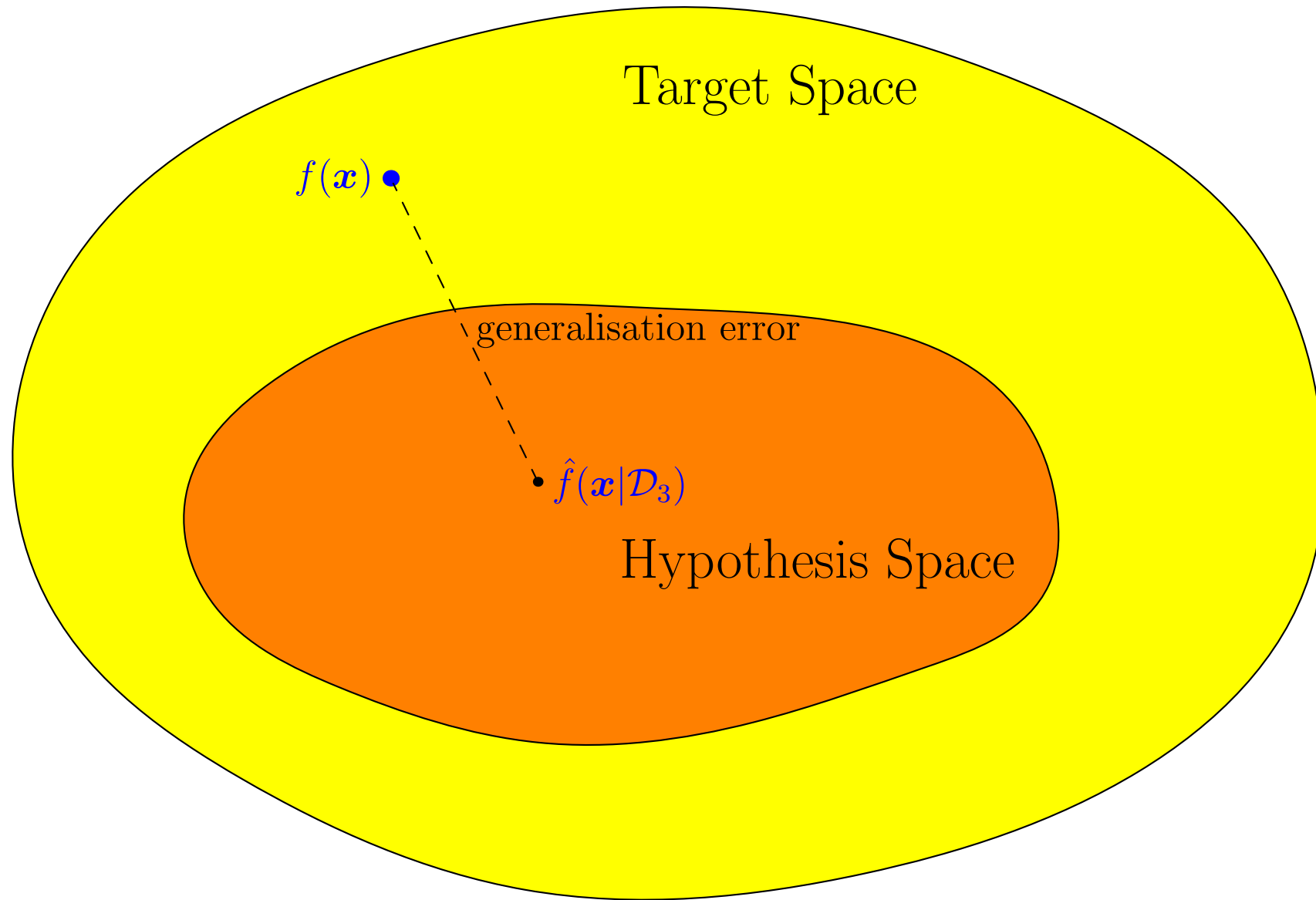
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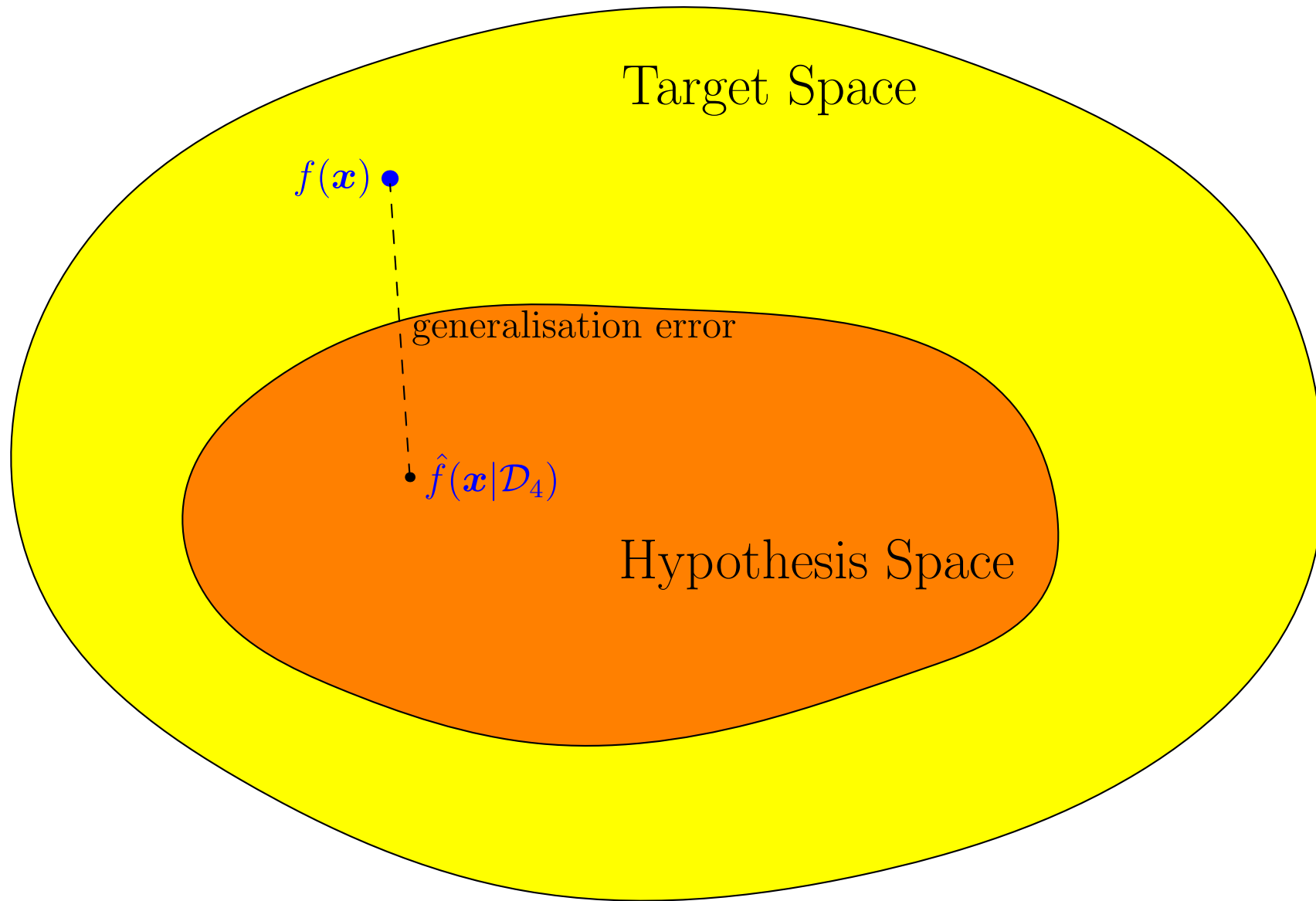


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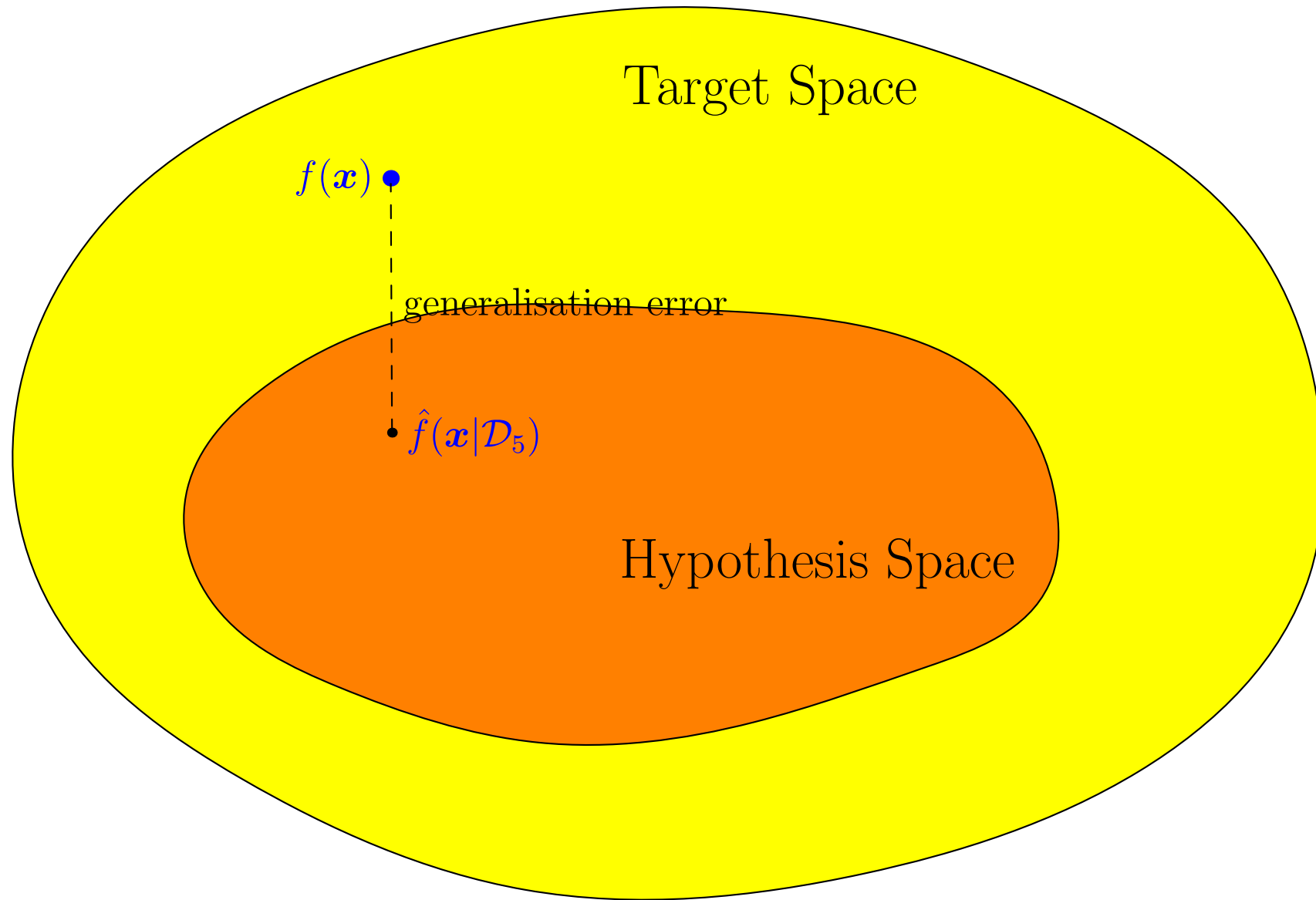




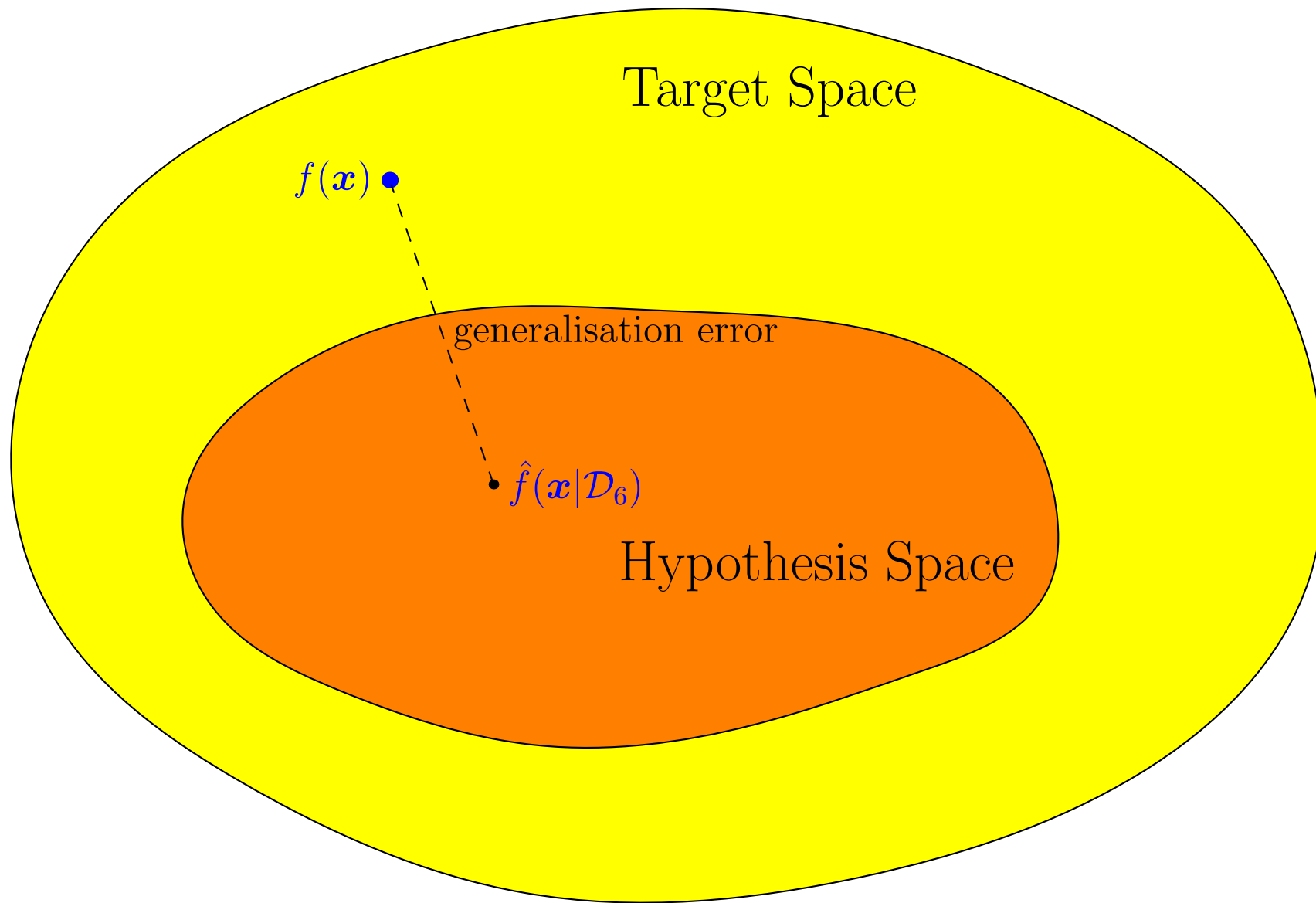
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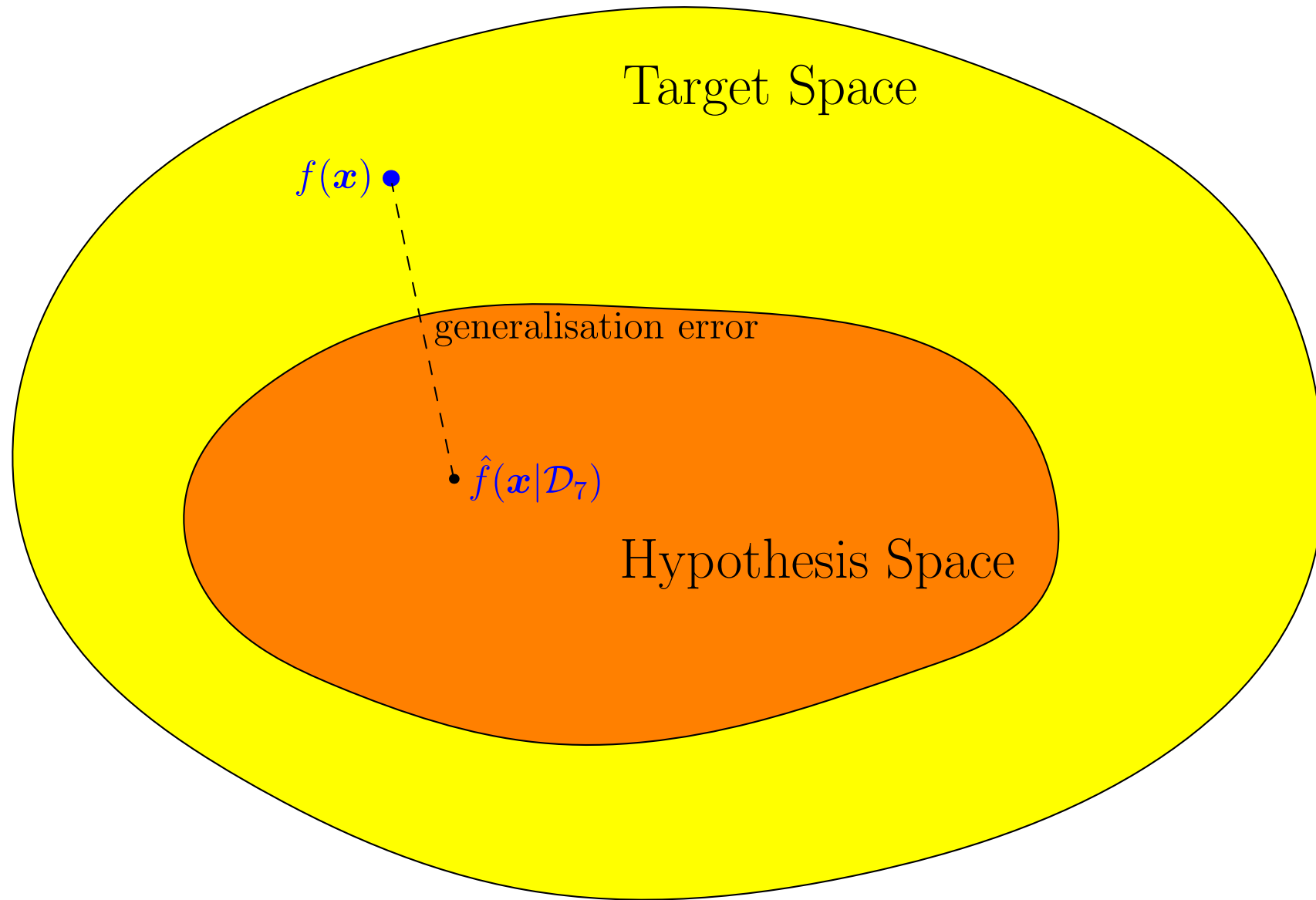
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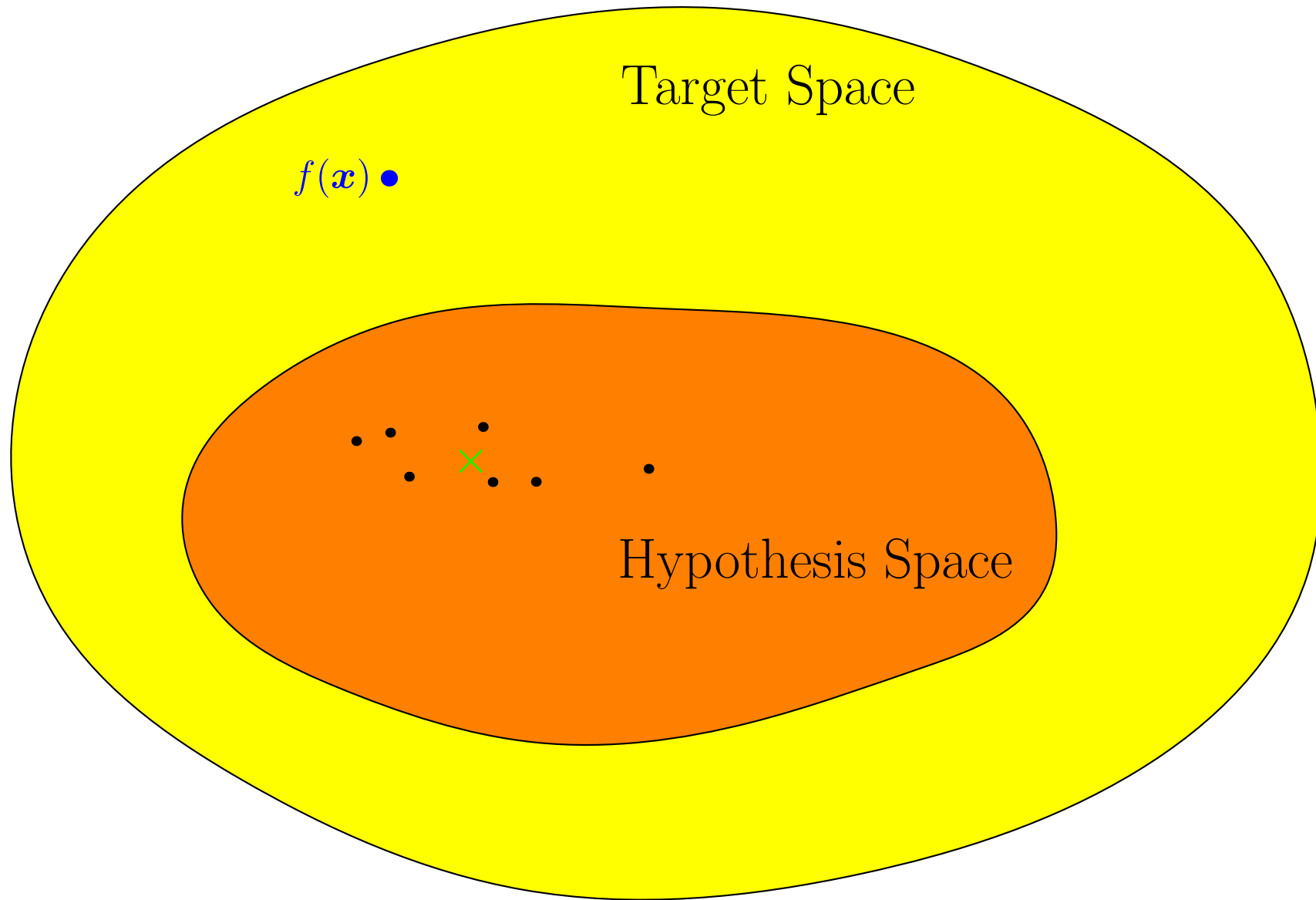
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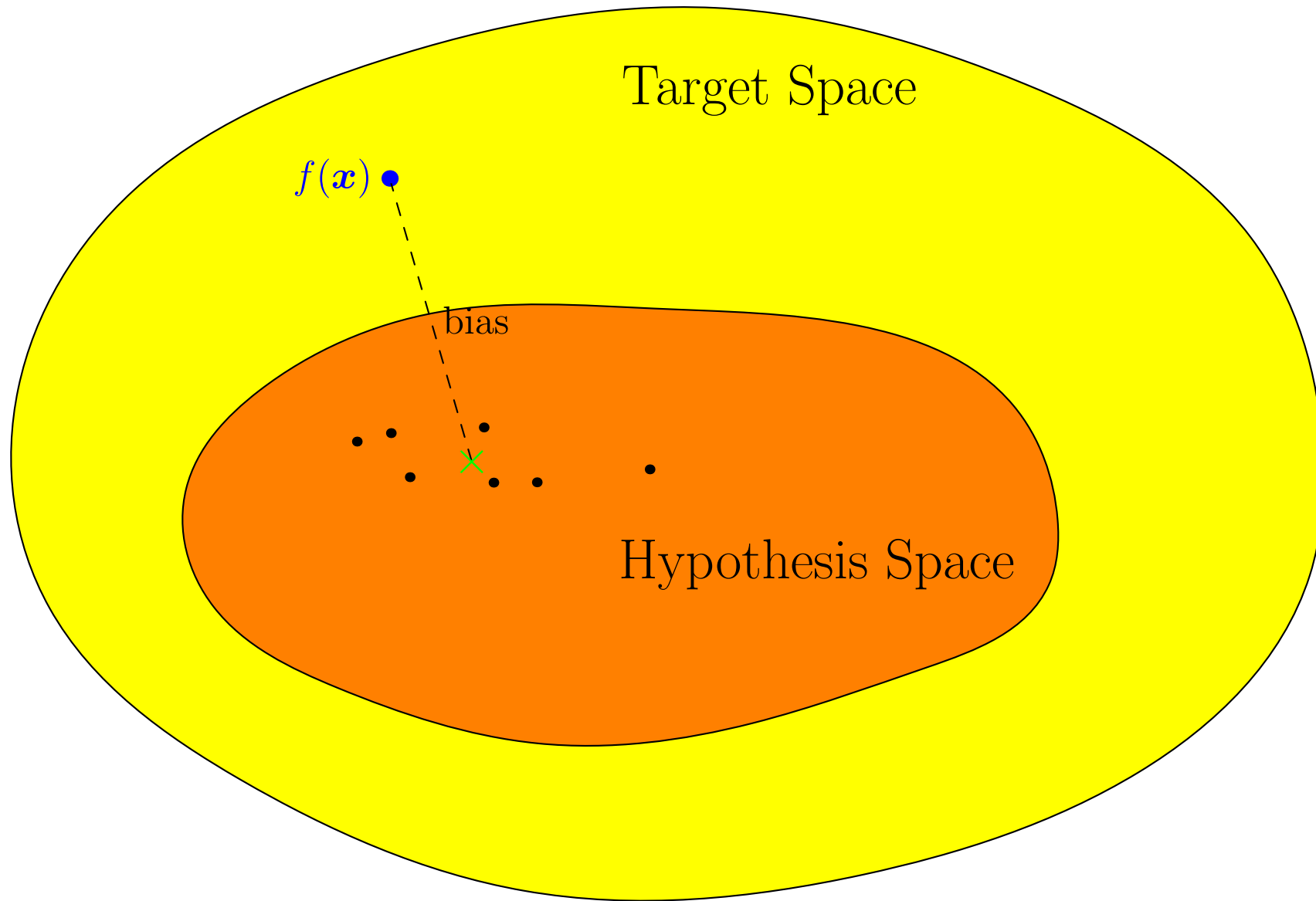
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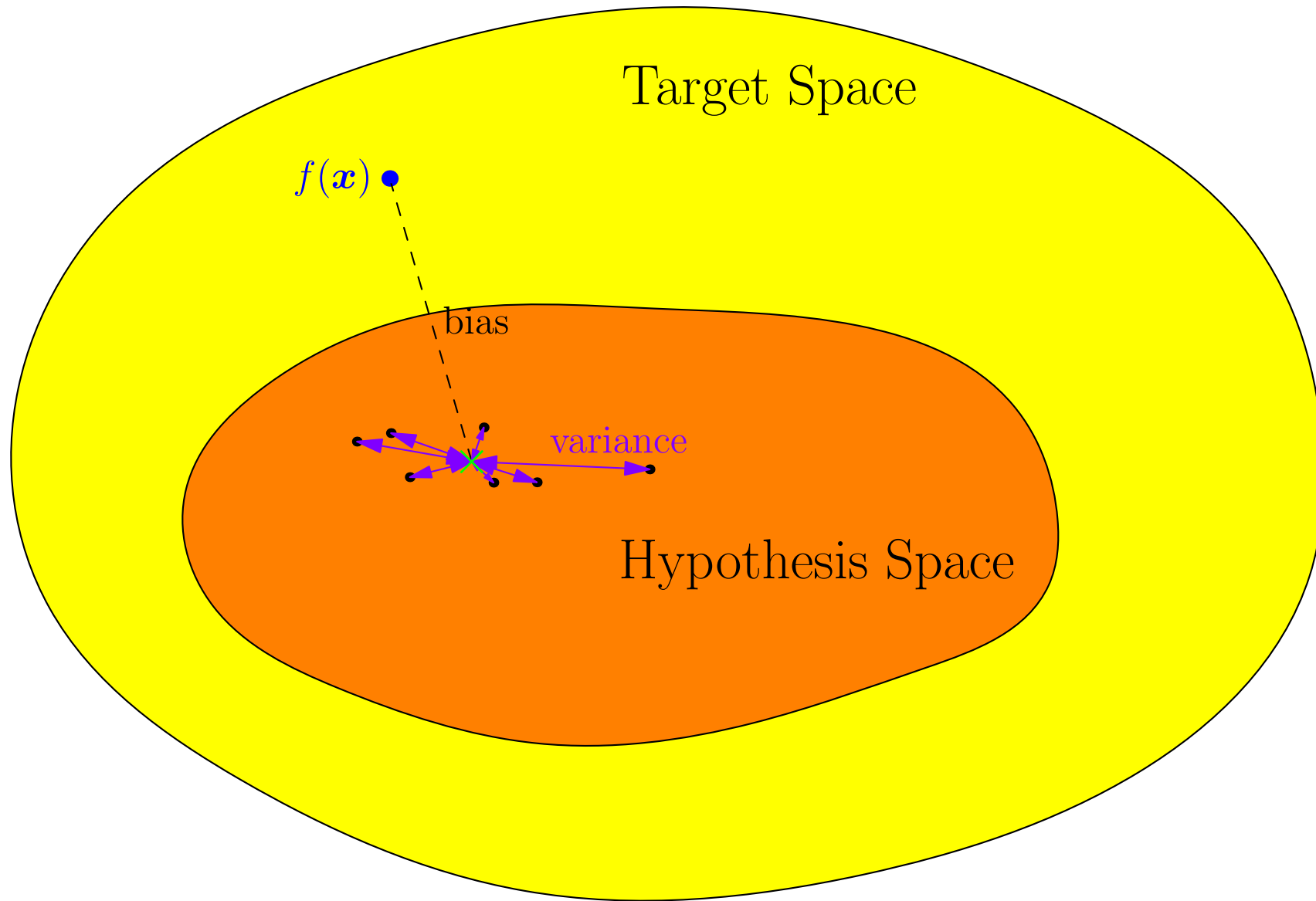
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$$\hat{f}_m(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}} \left[ \hat{f}(\mathbf{x}|\mathcal{D}) \right]$$

- We can define the **bias** to be generalisation performance of the mean machine

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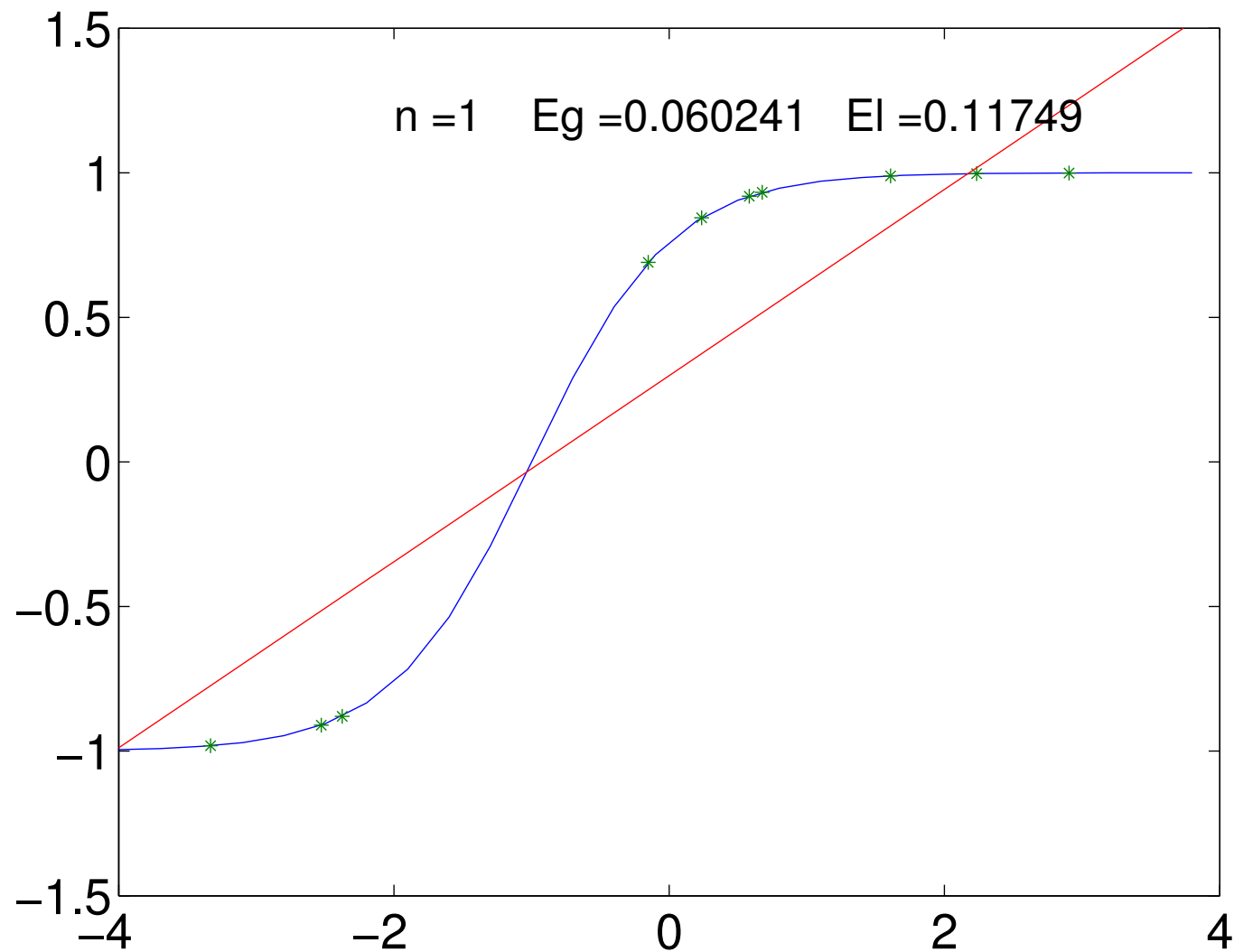
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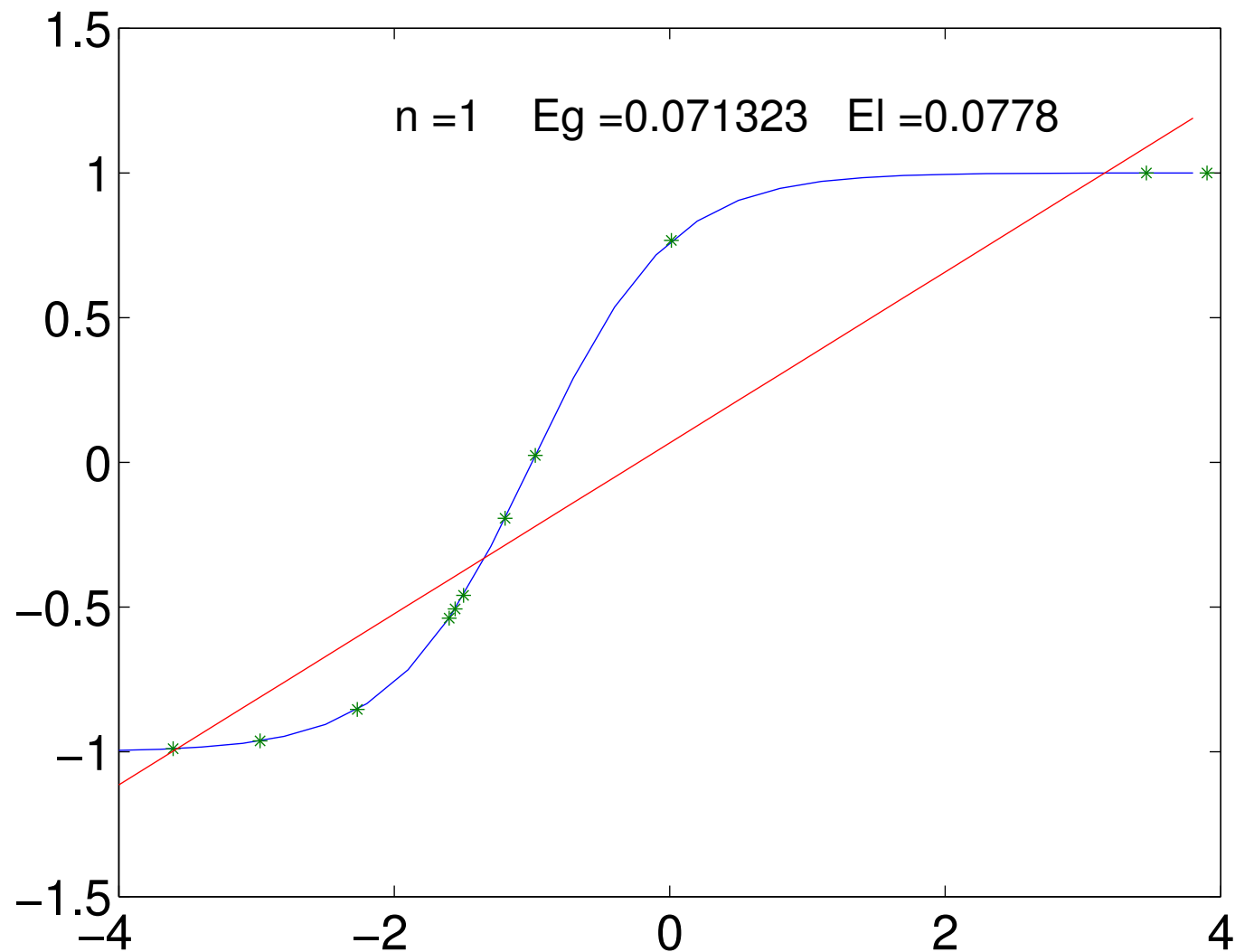
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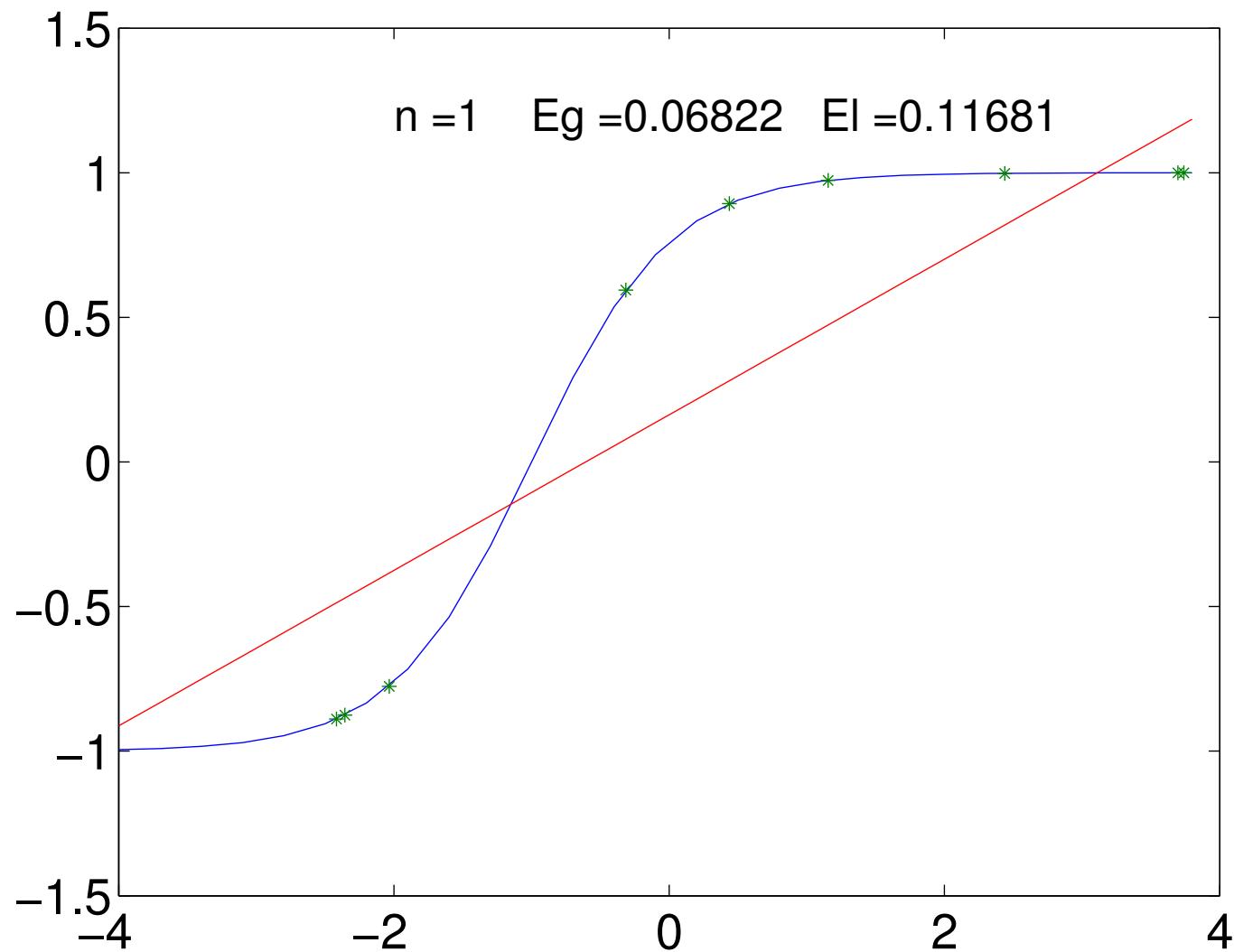
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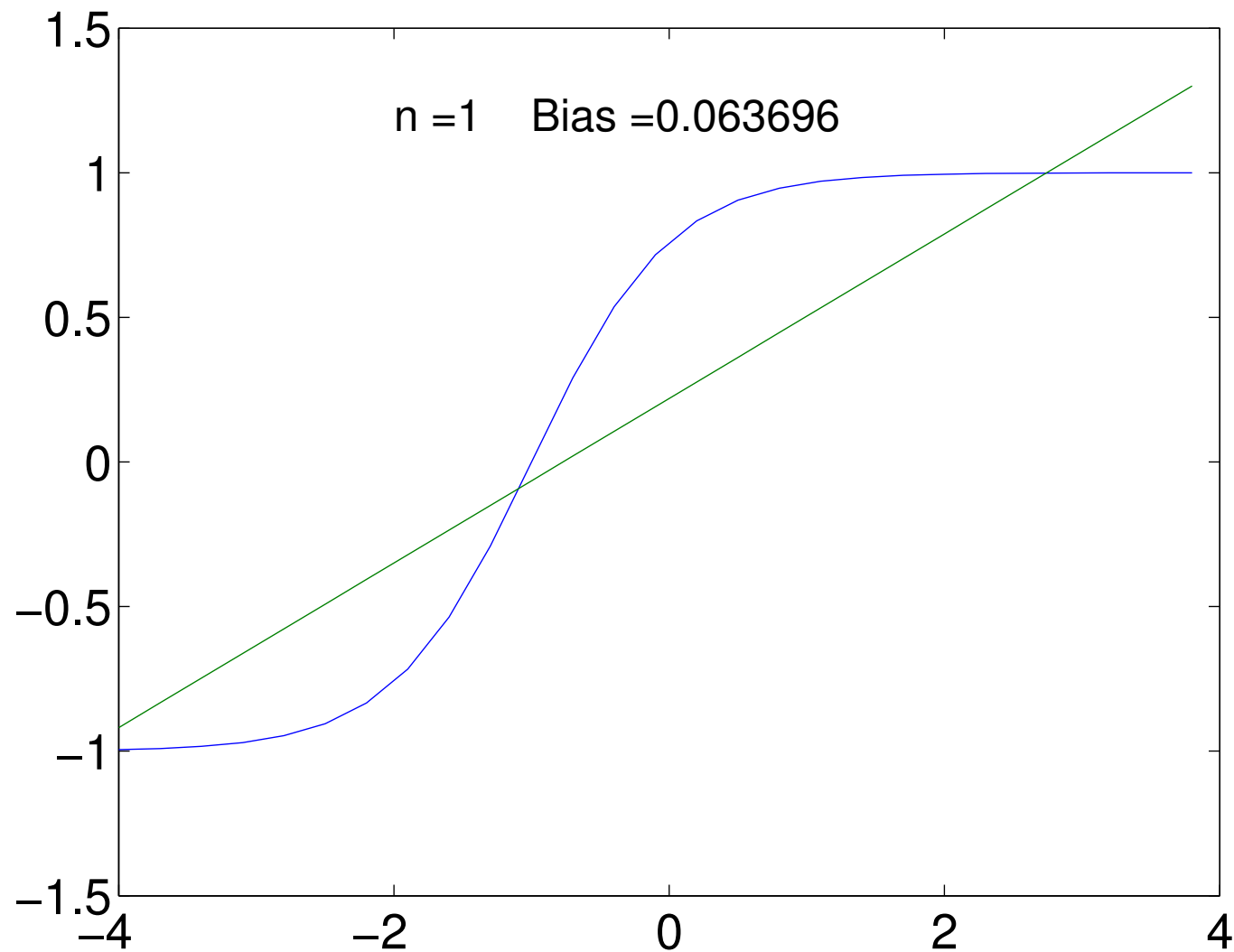
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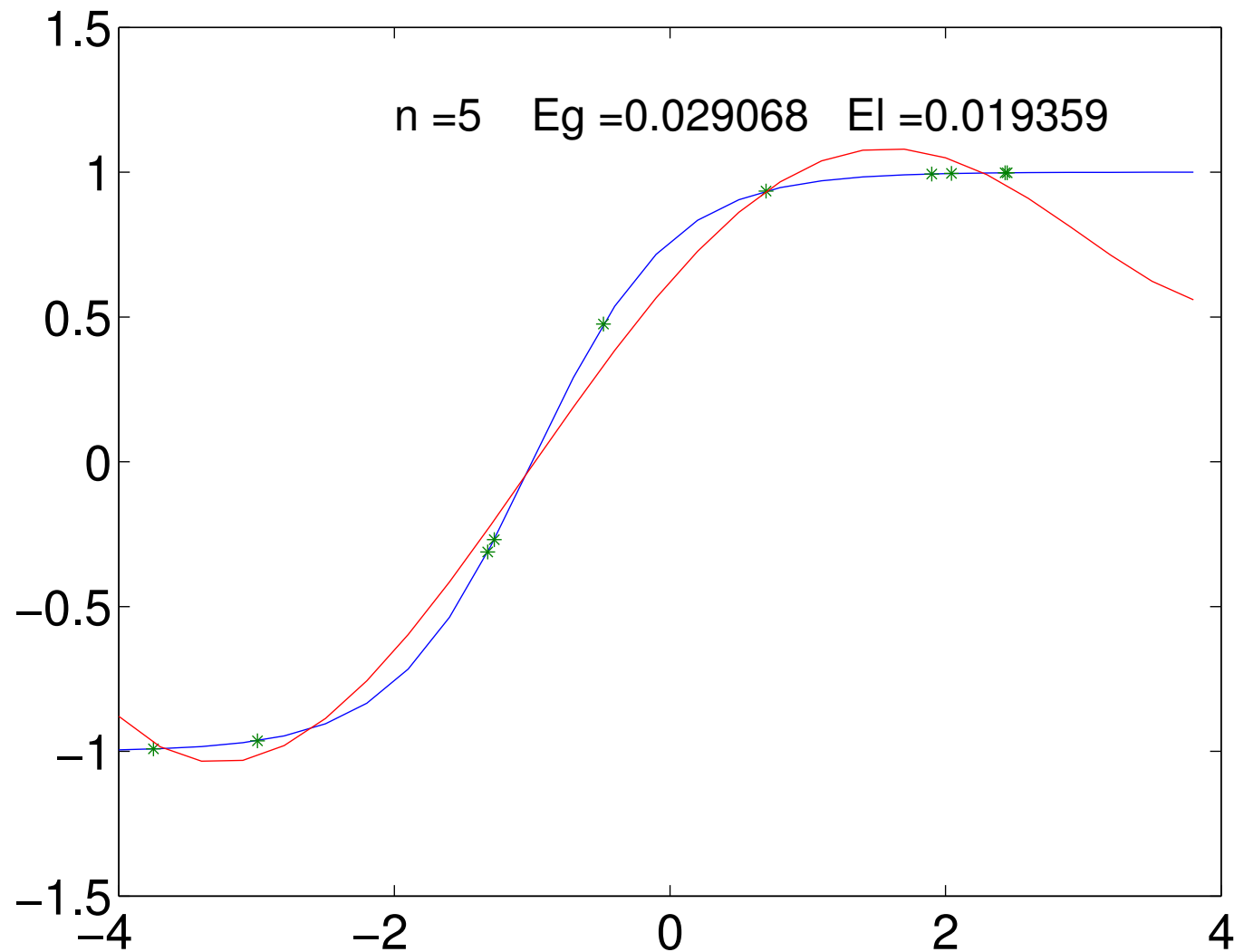
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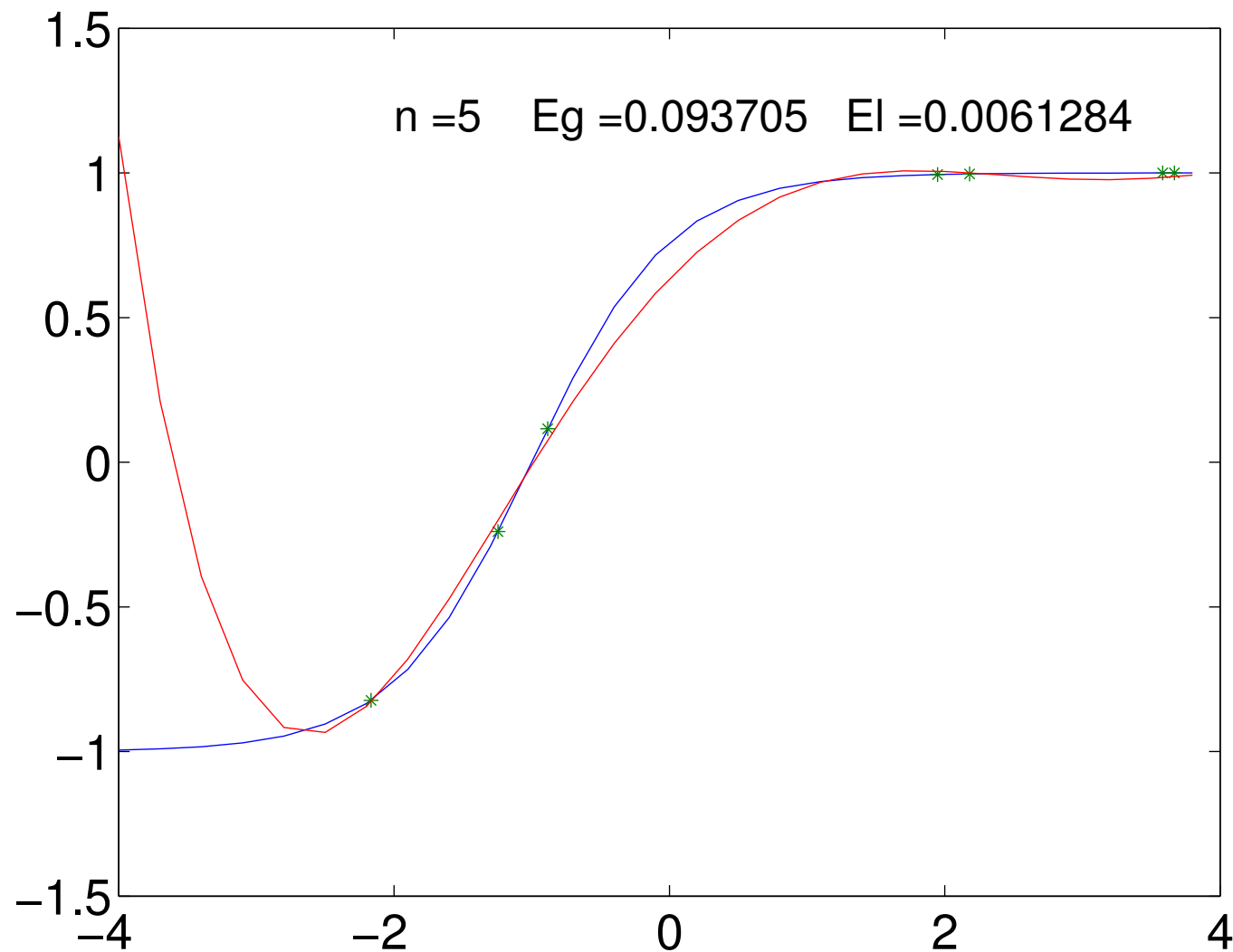
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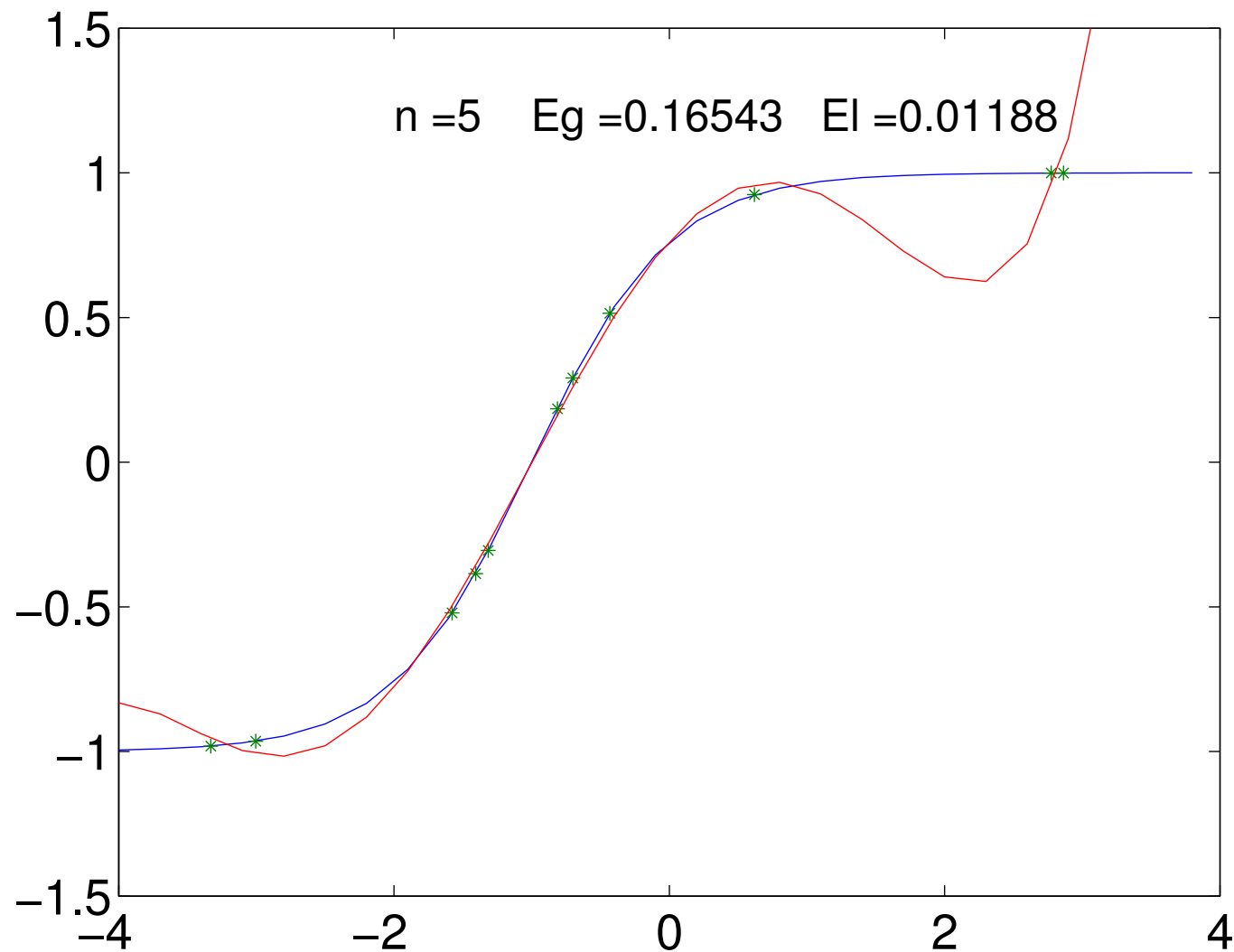
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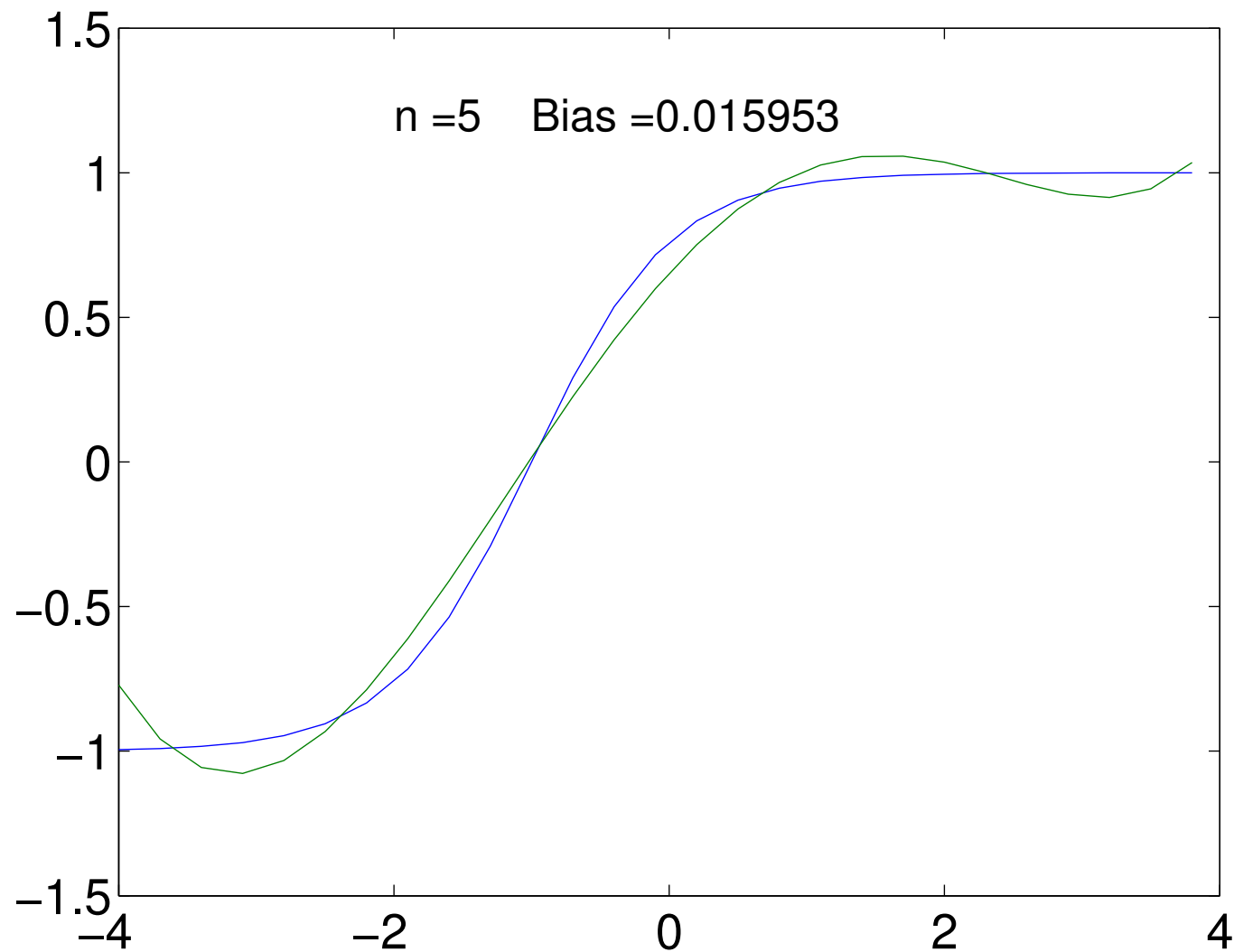


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$$\begin{aligned}\bar{E}_G &= \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}[E_G(\mathcal{D})] = \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}} \left[ \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}} p(\mathbf{x}) \left( \hat{f}(\mathbf{x}|\mathcal{D}) - f(\mathbf{x}) \right)^2 \right] \\&= \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}} p(\mathbf{x}) \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}} \left[ \left( \hat{f}(\mathbf{x}|\mathcal{D}) - f(\mathbf{x}) \right)^2 \right] \\&= \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}} p(\mathbf{x}) \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}} \left[ \left( \left( \hat{f}(\mathbf{x}|\mathcal{D}) - \hat{f}_m(\mathbf{x}) \right) + \left( \hat{f}_m(\mathbf{x}) - f(\mathbf{x}) \right) \right)^2 \right] \\&= \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}} p(\mathbf{x}) \left( \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}} \left[ \left( \hat{f}(\mathbf{x}|\mathcal{D}) - \hat{f}_m(\mathbf{x}) \right)^2 \right] + \left( \hat{f}_m(\mathbf{x}) - f(\mathbf{x}) \right)^2 \right. \\&\quad \left. + \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}} \left[ 2 \left( \hat{f}(\mathbf{x}|\mathcal{D}) - \hat{f}_m(\mathbf{x}) \right) \left( \hat{f}_m(\mathbf{x}) - f(\mathbf{x}) \right) \right] \right)\end{aligned}$$

# Bias and Variance

- We can write the expected generalisation as

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}[E_G(\mathcal{D})] &= \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}} \left[ \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}} p(\mathbf{x}) \left( \hat{f}(\mathbf{x}|\mathcal{D}) - \hat{f}_m(\mathbf{x}) \right)^2 \right] \\ &\quad + \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}} p(\mathbf{x}) \left( \hat{f}_m(\mathbf{x}) - f(\mathbf{x}) \right)^2 = V + B\end{aligned}$$

- Where  $B$  is the bias and  $V$  is the variance defined by

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# Bias-Variance Dilemma

- The bias measure the generalisation performance of the *mean machine* and is large if the machine is too simple to capture the changes in the function we want to learn
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# Balancing Bias and Variance

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# Over-fitting

- Complex machine can **over-fitting**

*over-fitting: fitting the training data well at the cost of getting poorer generalisation performance*

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# Binary Classification Task for You



Class 1



Class 2

# Which Category?

- Which category does the following image belong to?





# Training Examples

- As we increase the number of training examples, we make it hard to find a spurious rule
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- (Labelled) data is often expensive to collect so we sometimes have no choice
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# Feature Selection

- Spurious features will allow us to find spurious rules (**over-fitting**)
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# Explicit Regularisation

- As Niranjan showed us we can modify our error function to choose smoother functions

$$E = \sum_{n=1}^N (\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_n - y_n)^2$$

- Second term is minimised when  $w_i = 0$
- If  $w_i$  is large then

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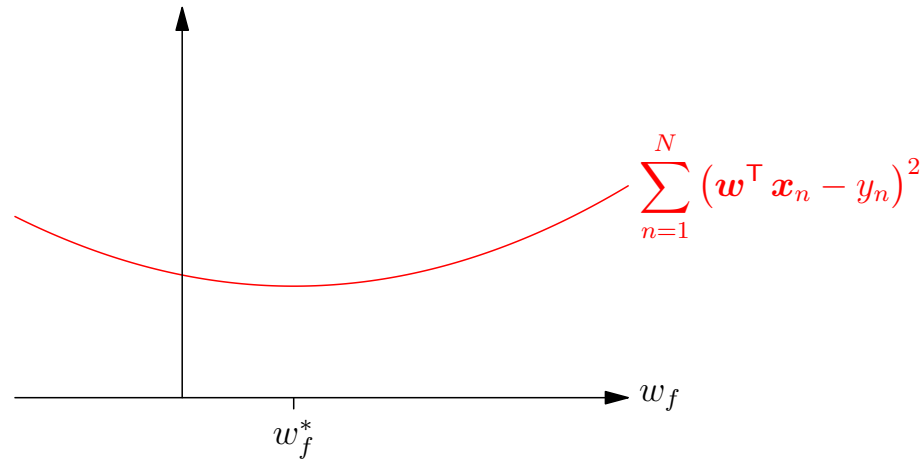
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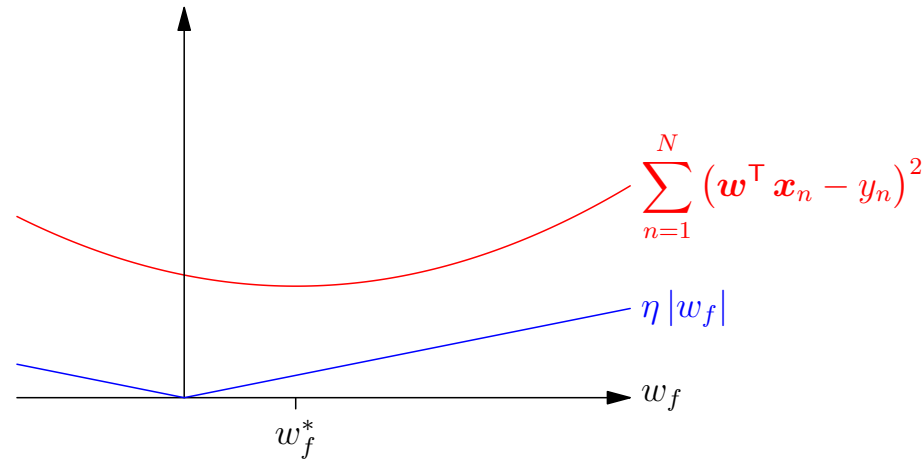


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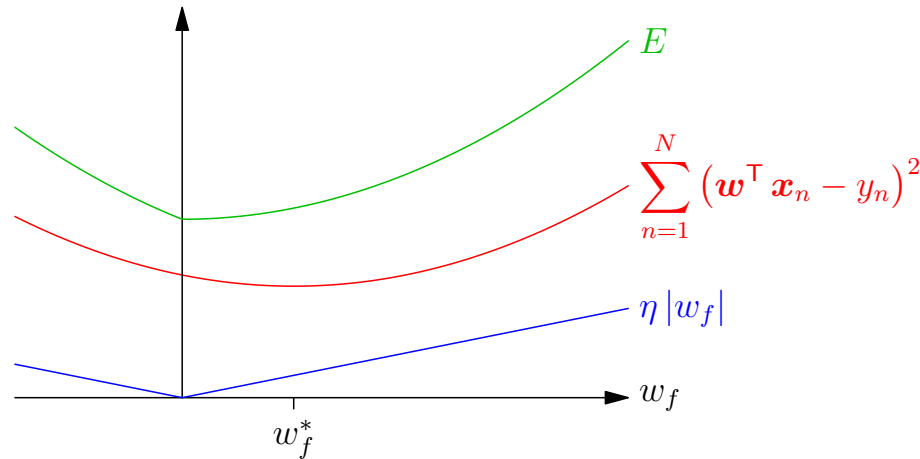


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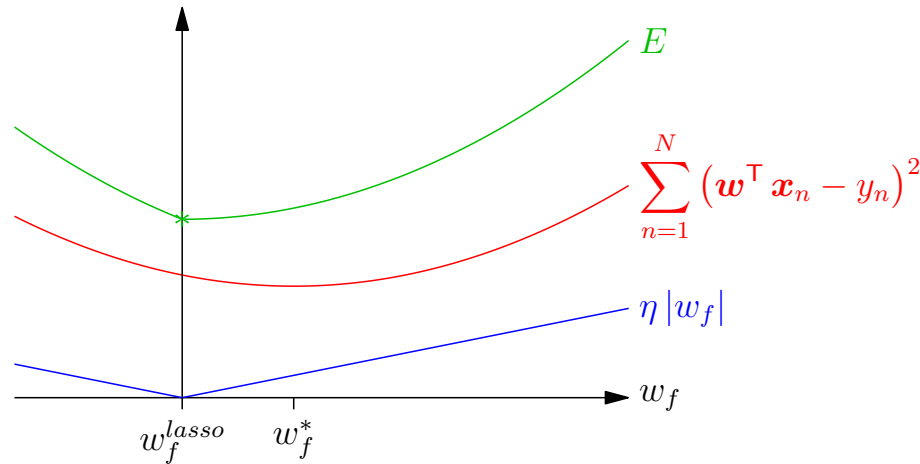


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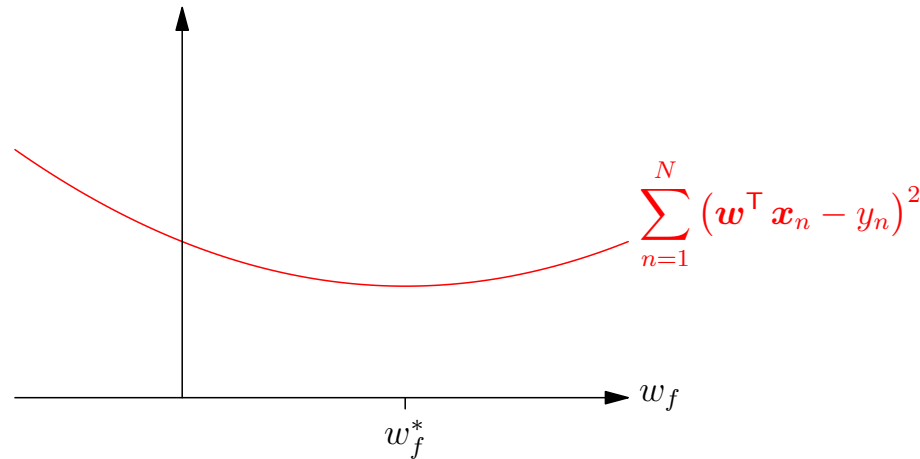


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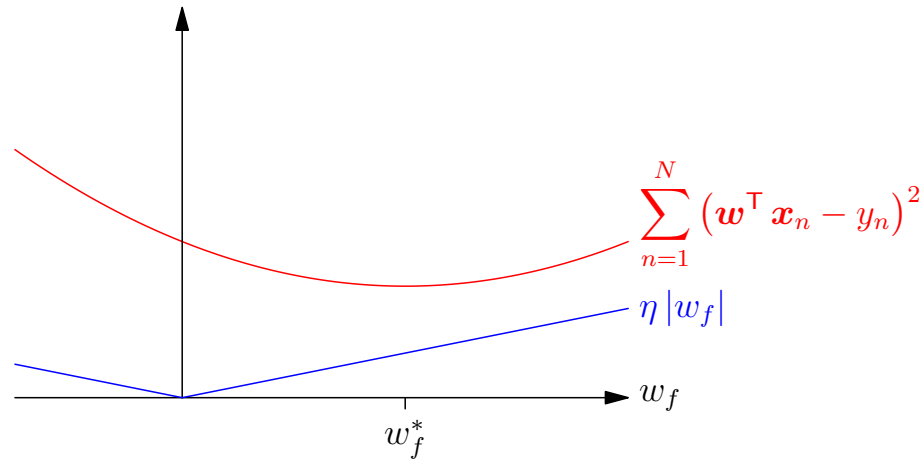


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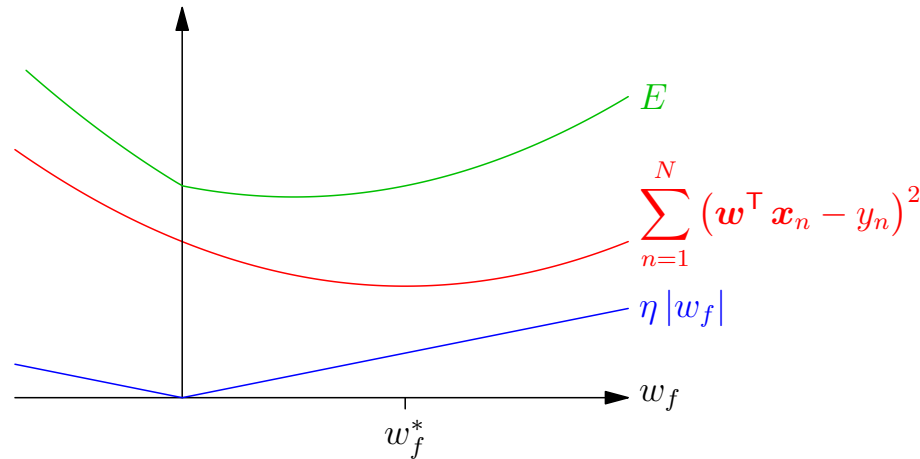


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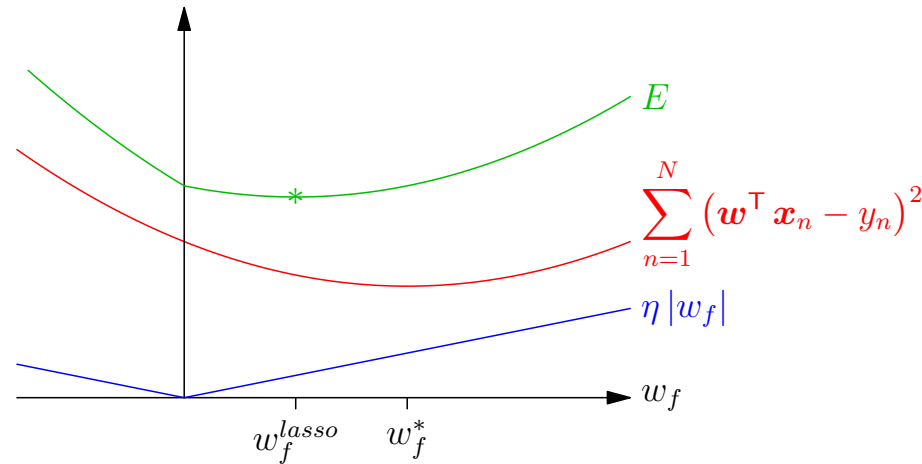


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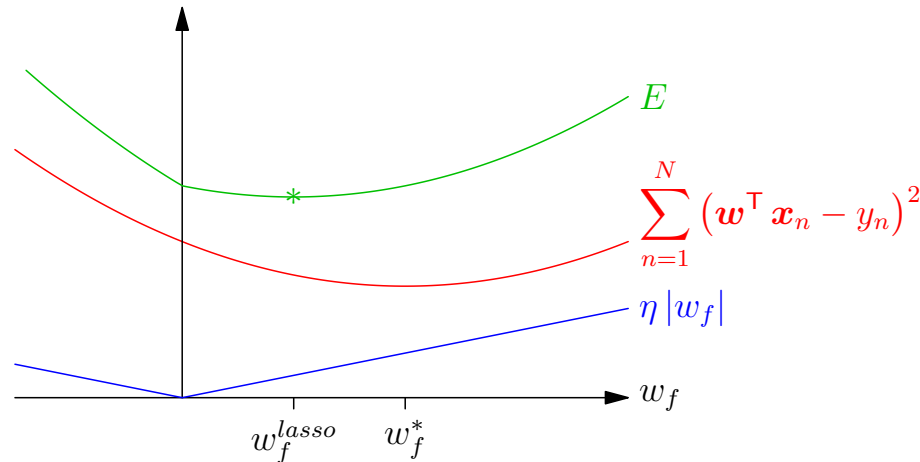


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- Does automatic feature selection



# Implicit Regularisation

- In the last two examples we added an explicit regularisation term that made the function we learnt simpler
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- Some deep learning architectures do subtle averaging
- Sometimes the architecture biases the machine to find a simple solution
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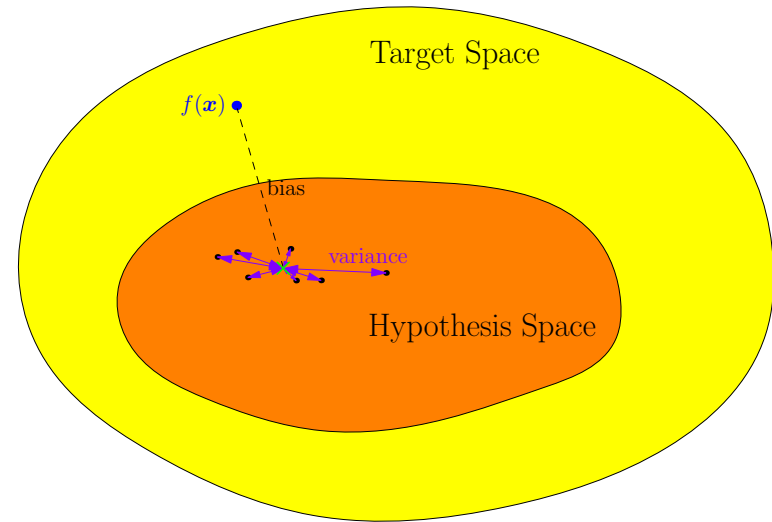
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# Outline

1. What Makes a Good Learning Machine?
2. **SVMs**
3. Ensemble Methods
4. Bayesian Inference



# Support Vector Machines

- Support vector machines, when used right, often have the best generalisation results
- They are typically used on numerical data, but can and have been adapted to text, sequences, etc.
- Although not as trendy as deep learning, they will often be the method of choice on small data sets
- They subtly regularise themselves, choosing a solution that generalises well from a host of different solutions

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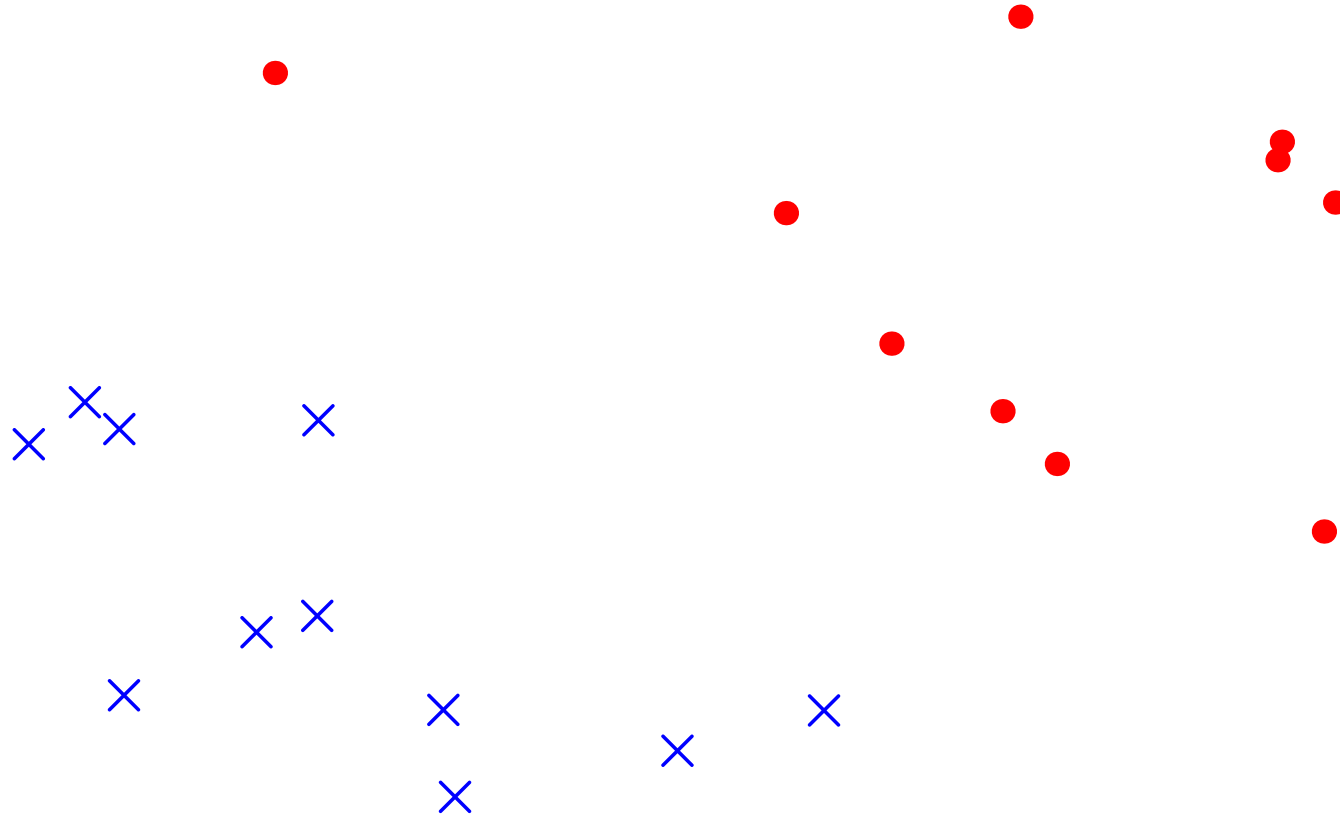
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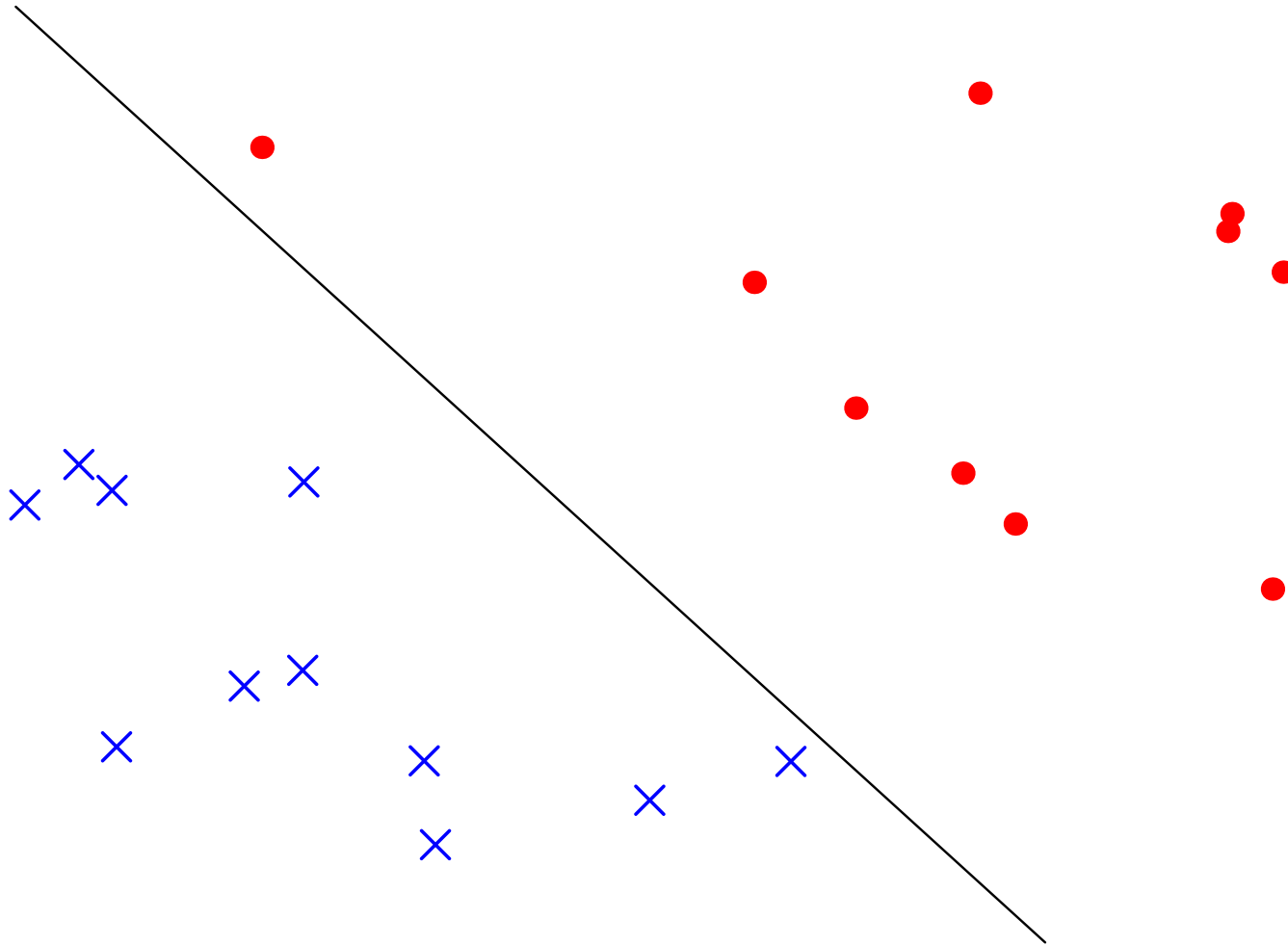
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- SVMs classify linearly separable data



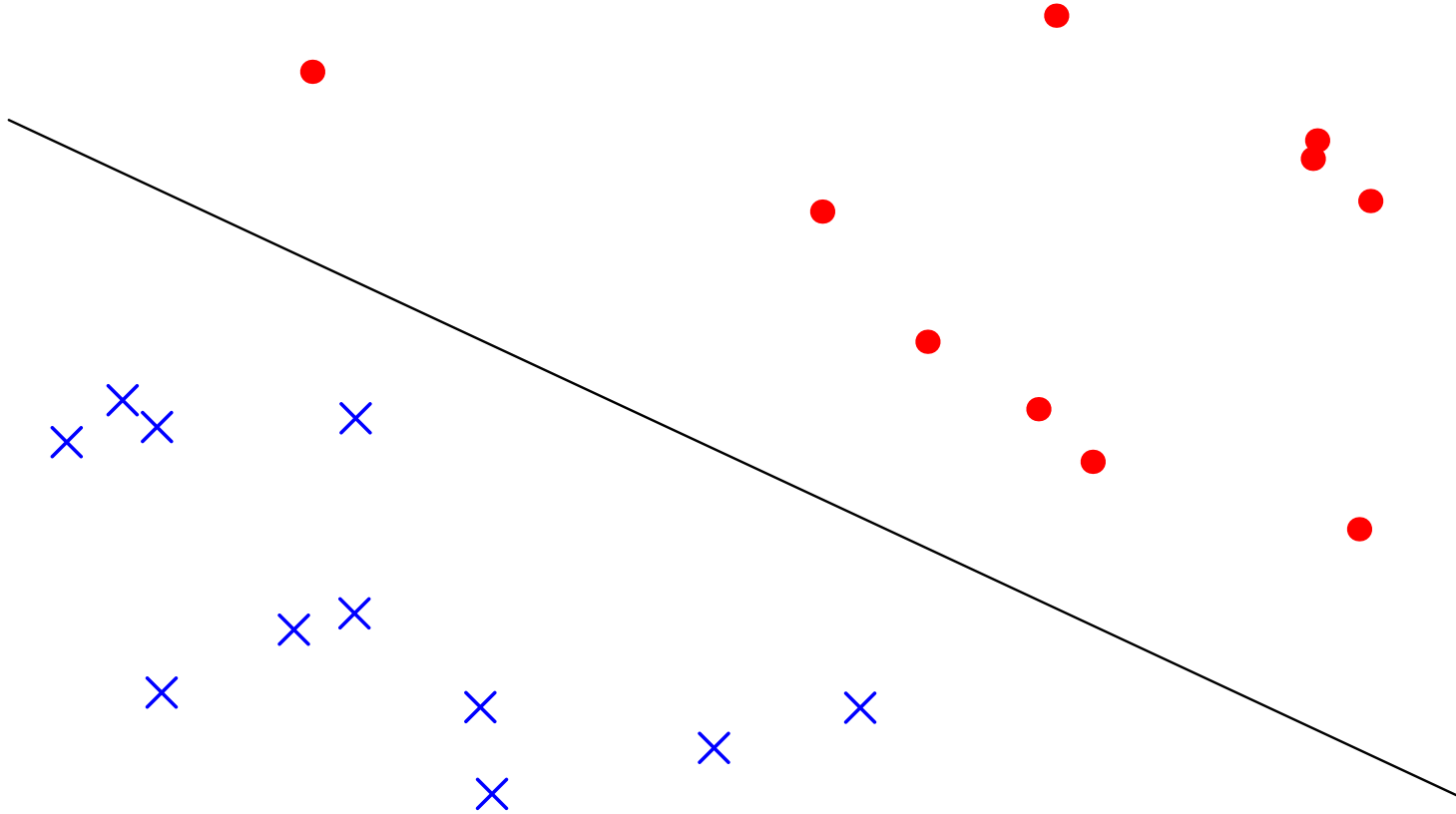
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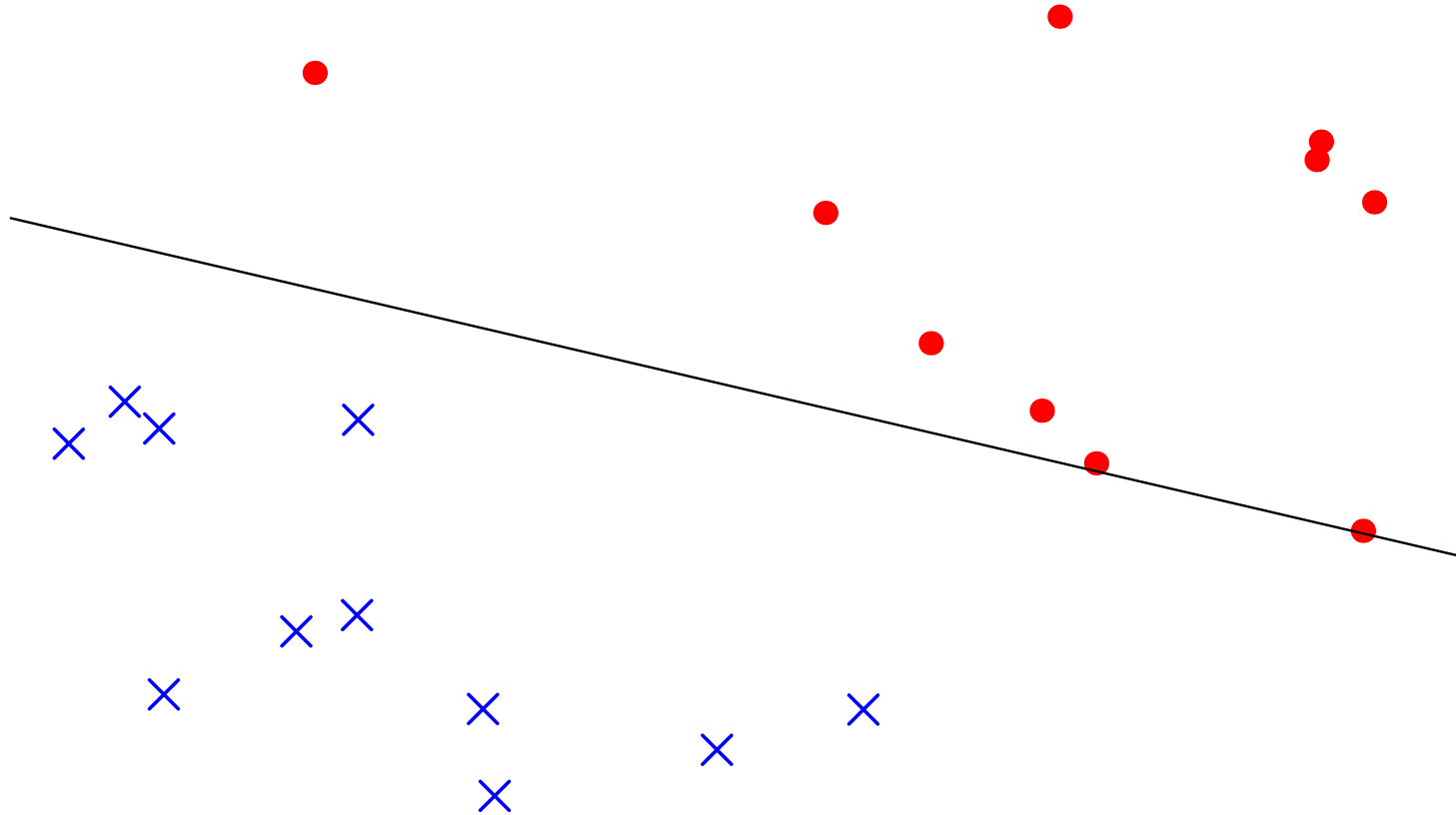
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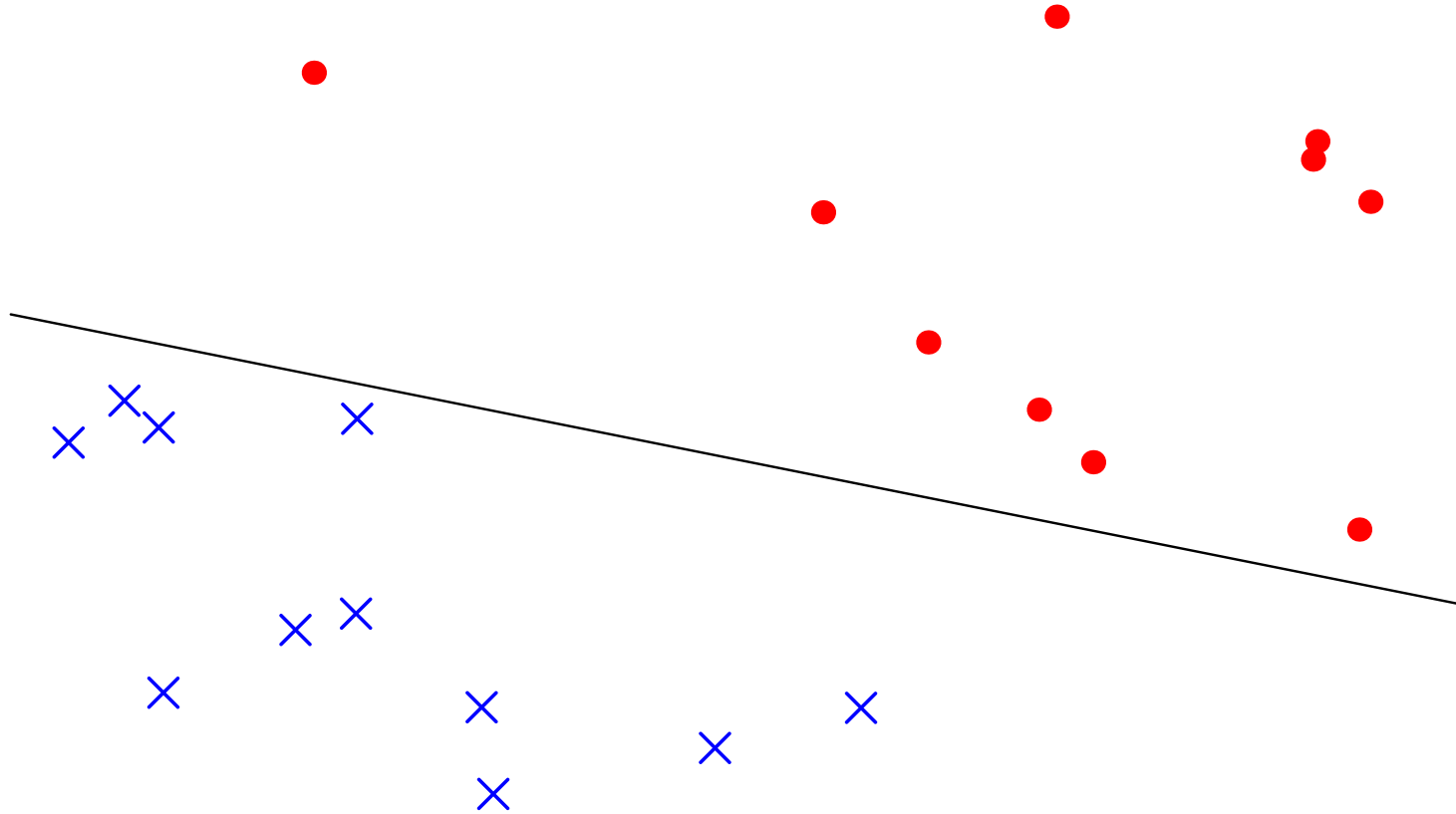
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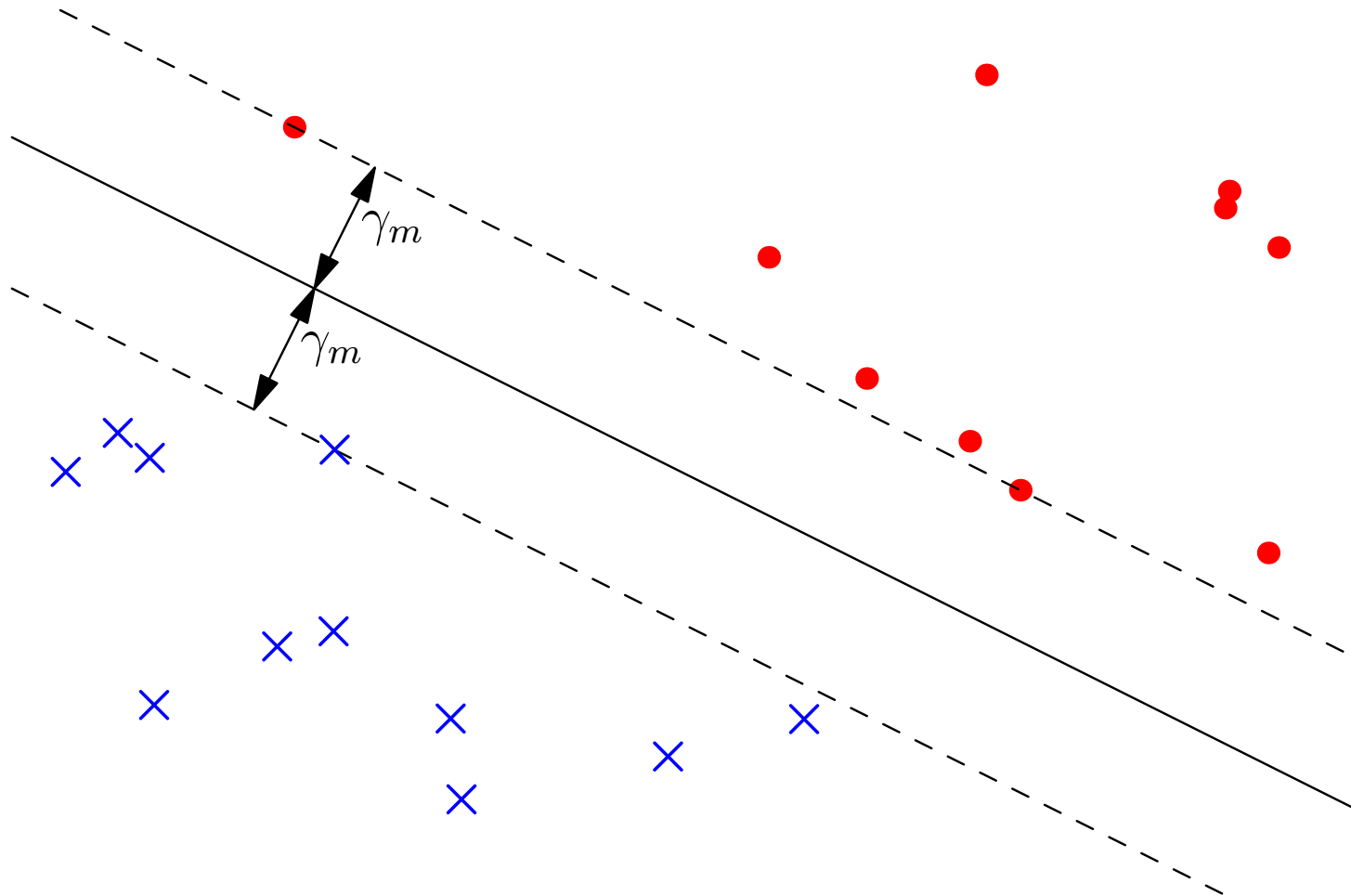
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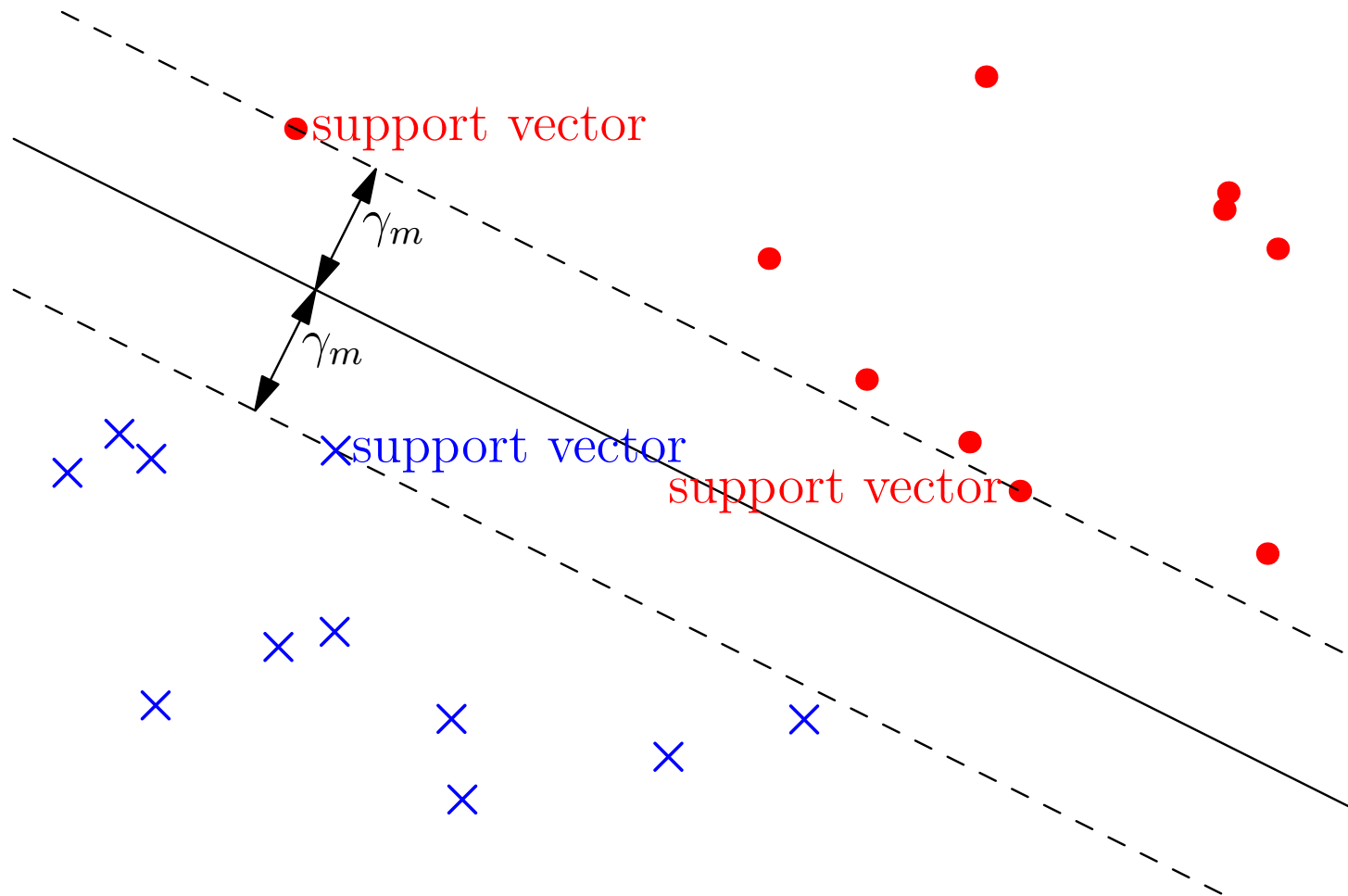
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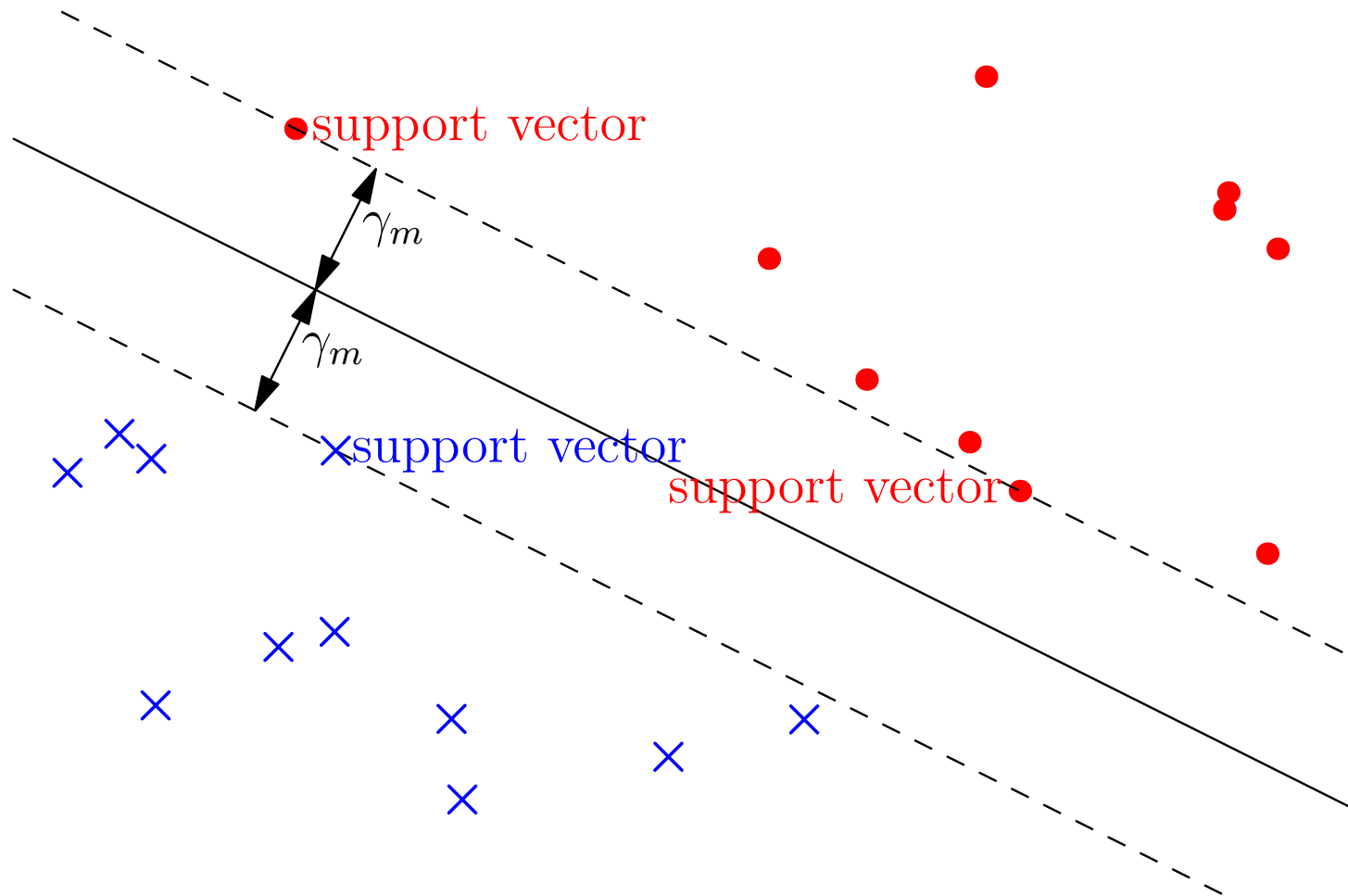
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- Finds maximum-margin separating plane

# Extended Feature Space

- To increase the likelihood of linear-separability we often use a high-dimensional mapping

$$\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_p) \rightarrow \phi(\mathbf{x}) = (\phi_1(\mathbf{x}), \phi_2(\mathbf{x}), \dots, \phi_m(\mathbf{x}))$$

$$m \gg p$$

- Finding the maximum margin hyper-plane is time consuming in “primal” form if  $m$  is large
- We can work in the “dual” space of patterns, then we only need to compute dot products

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}_i) \cdot \phi(\mathbf{x}_j)$$

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# Kernel Trick

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# Kernel Functions

- Kernel functions are symmetric functions of two variable
- Strong restriction: *positive semi-definite*
- Examples

Quadratic kernel:  $K(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) = (\mathbf{x}_1^\top \mathbf{x}_2)^2$

Gaussian (RBF) kernel:  $K(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) = e^{-\gamma \|\mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbf{x}_2\|^2}$

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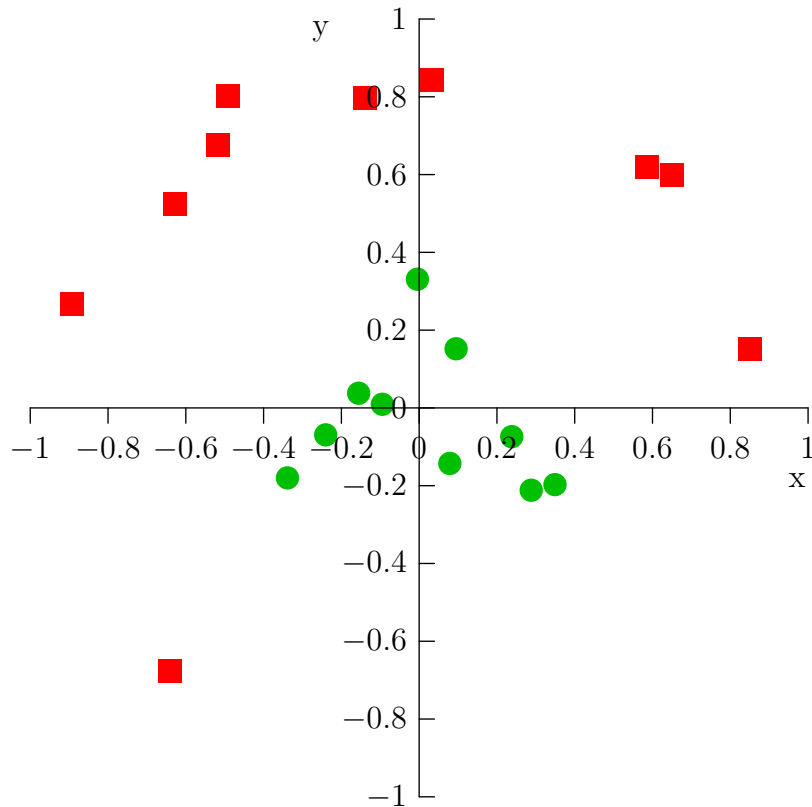
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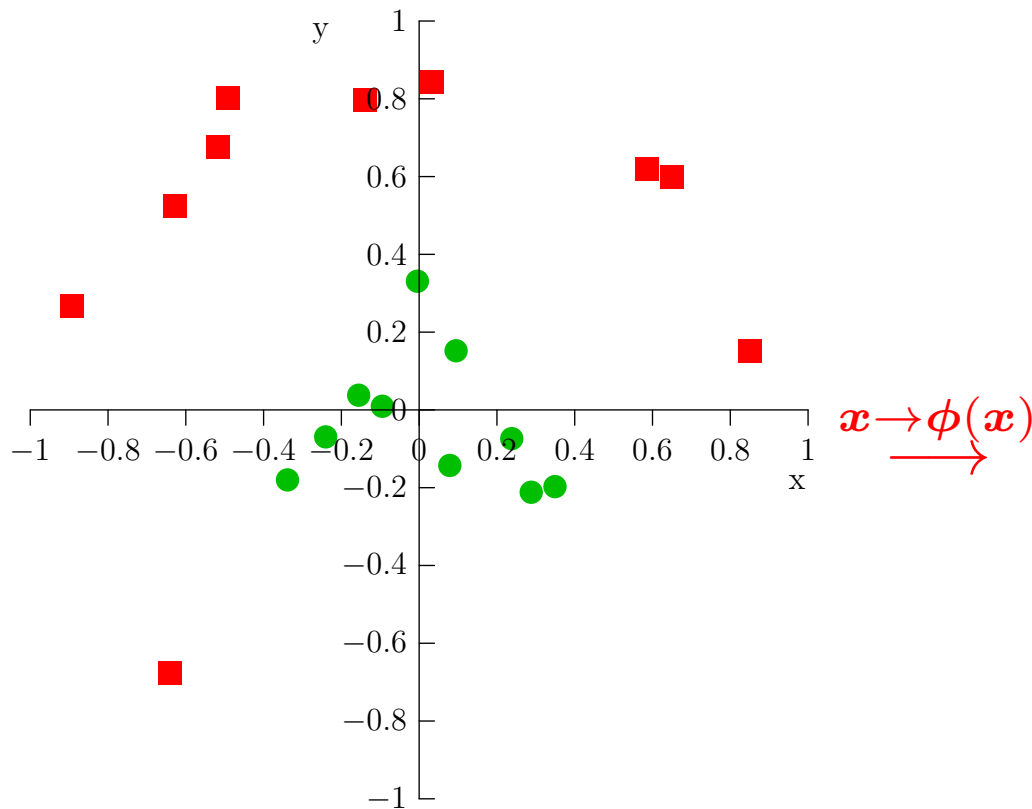
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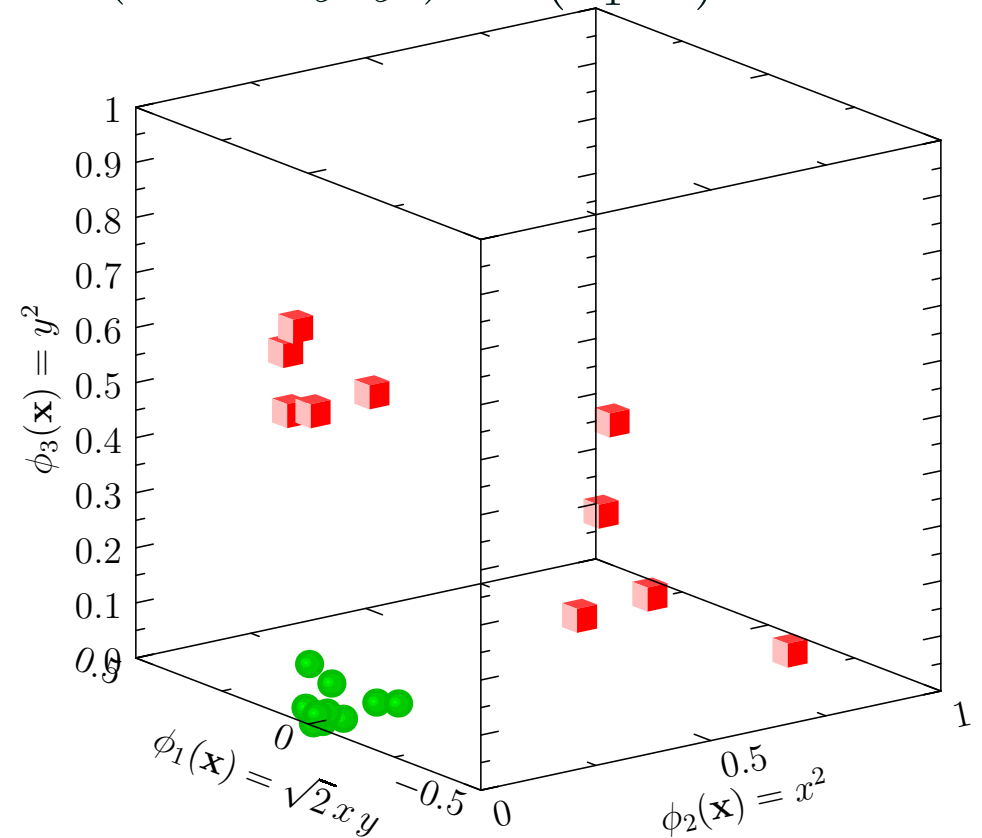
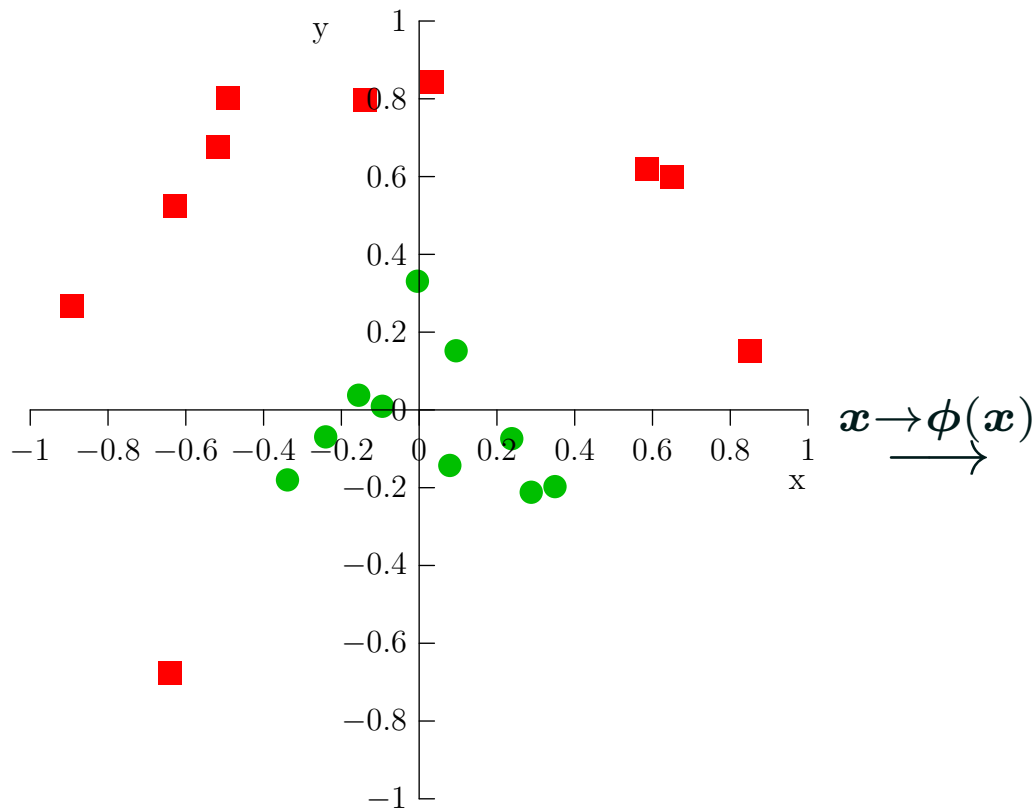
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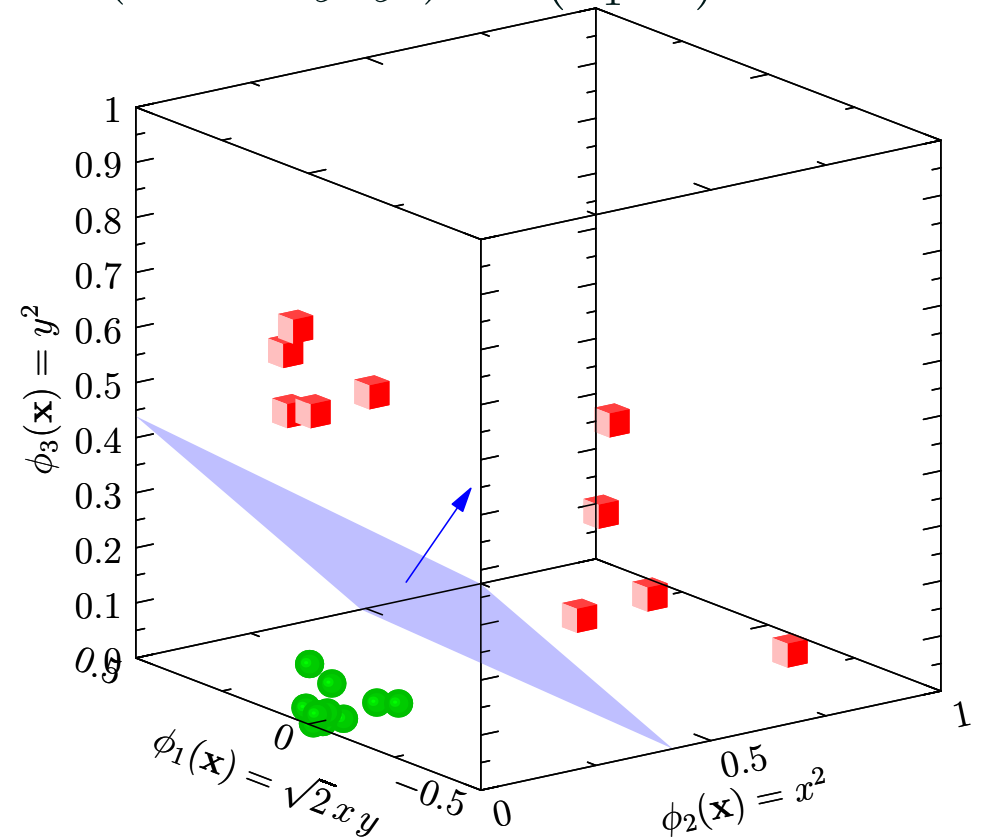
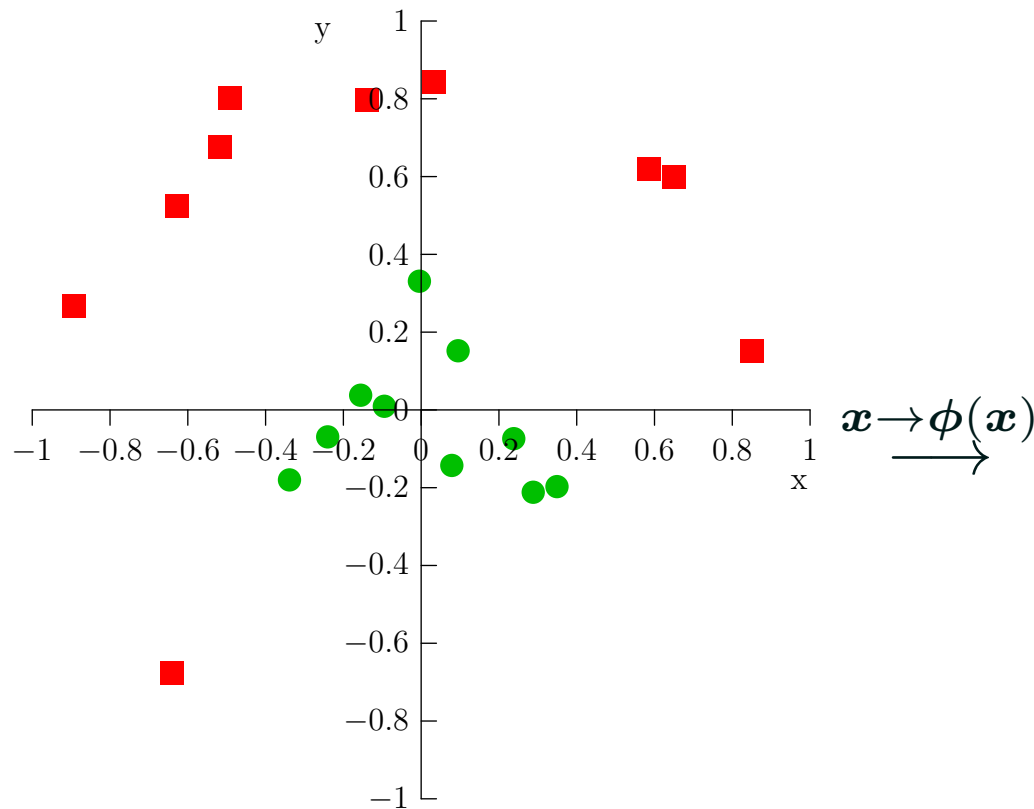
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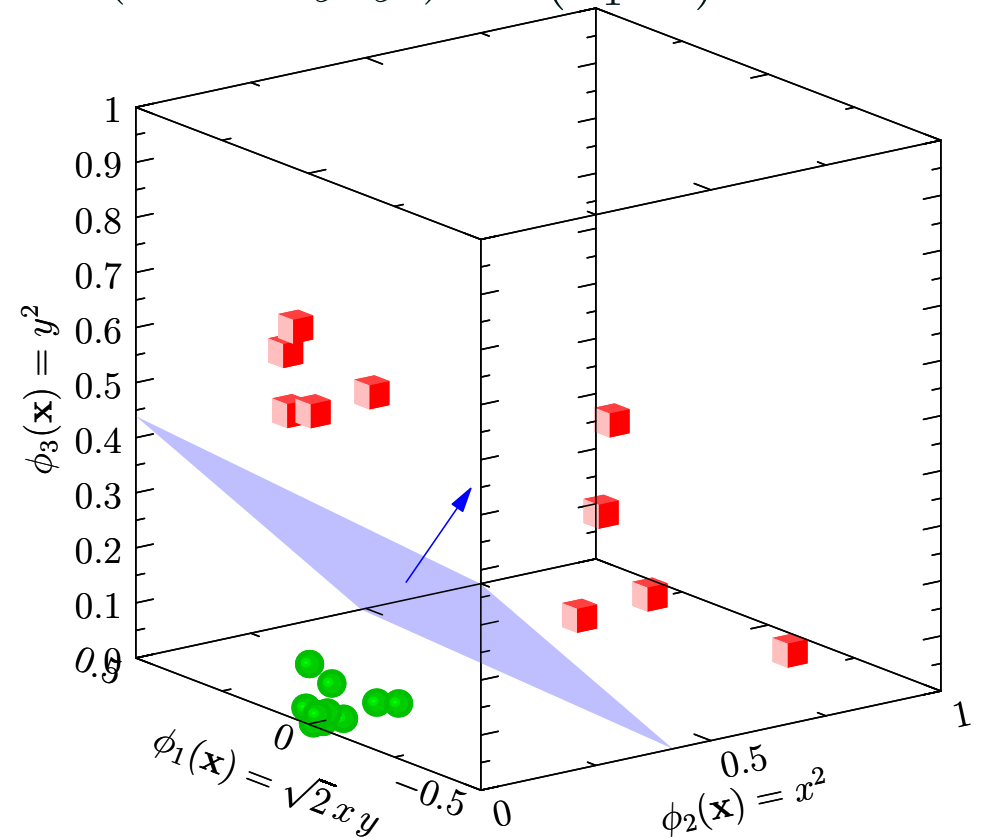
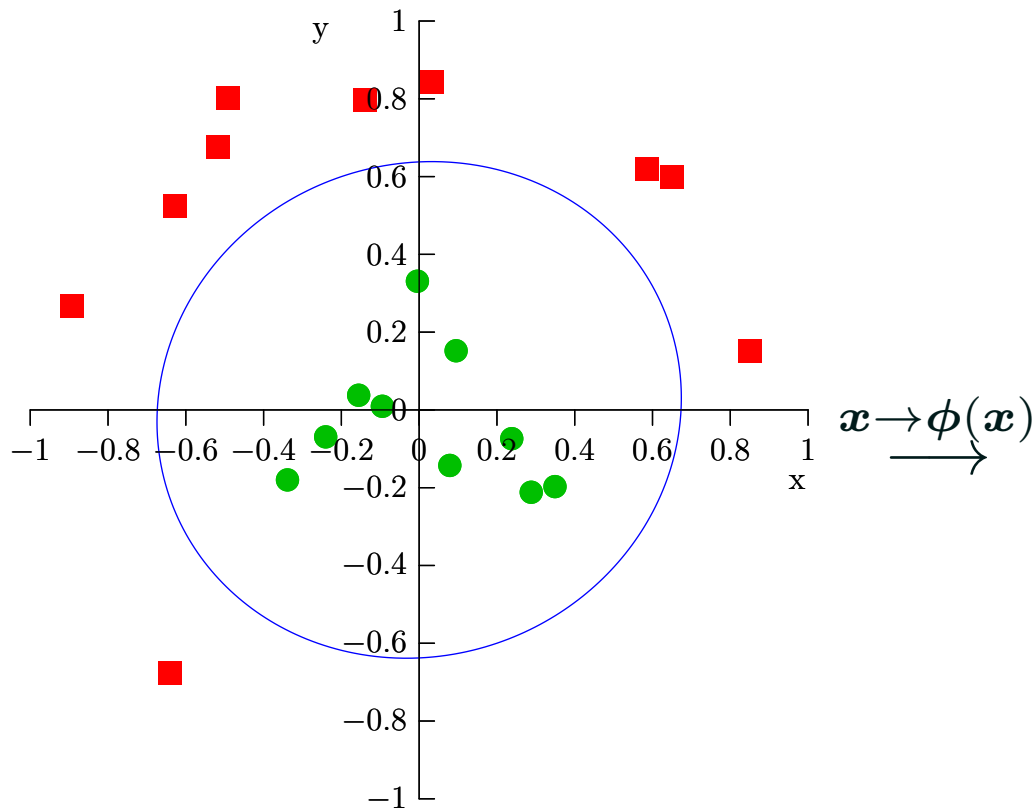
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- Never need to compute  $\phi_i(\mathbf{x})$  only need to compute  $\phi^\top(\mathbf{x}_i)\phi(\mathbf{x}_j)$
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# Getting SVMs to Work Well

- SVMs rely on distances between data points
- These will change relative to each other if we rescale some features but not other—giving different maximum-margin hyper-planes
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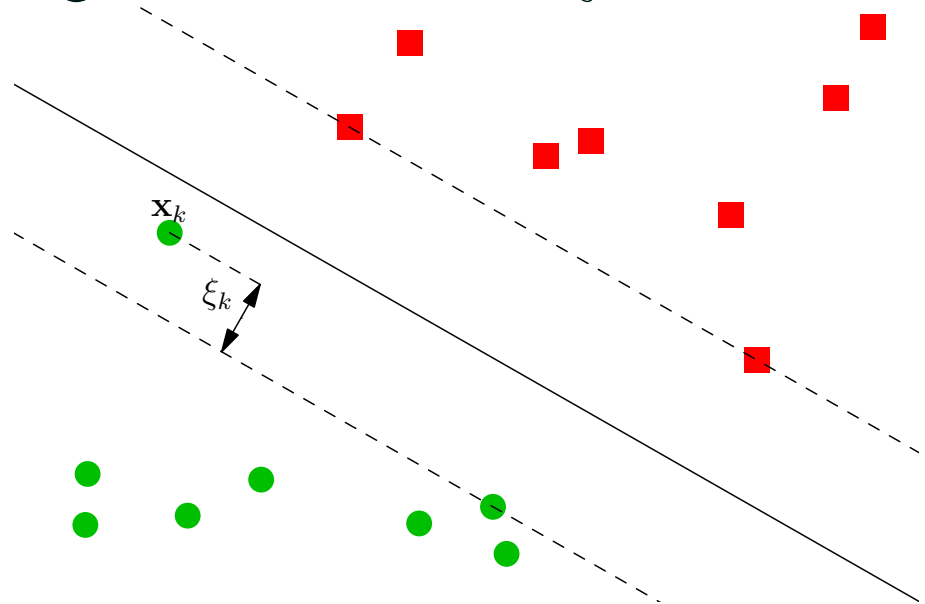
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# Soft Margins

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- Relax constraints by introducing *slack variables*,  $\xi_k \geq 0$

$$y_k(\mathbf{x}_k^\top \mathbf{w} - b) \geq 1 - \xi_k$$



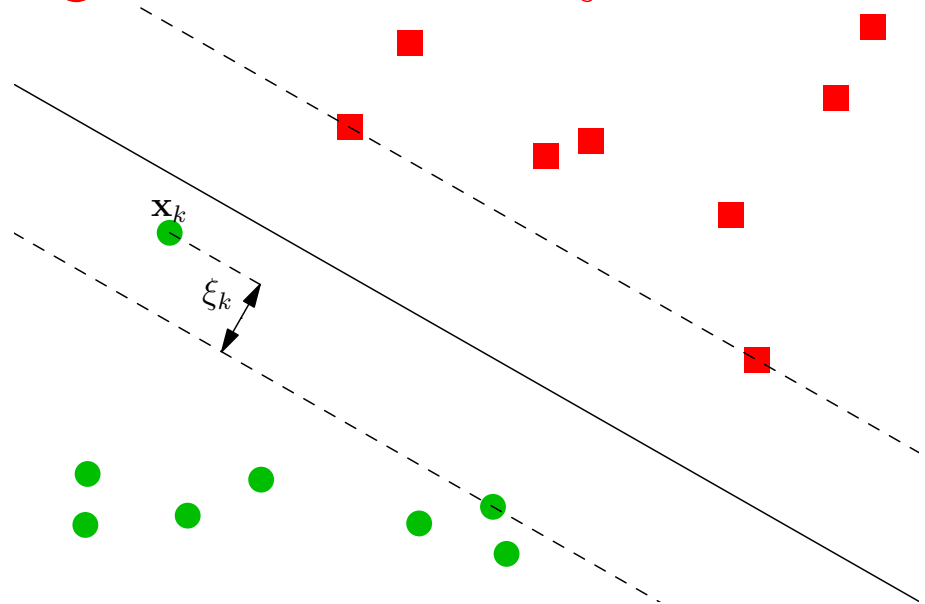
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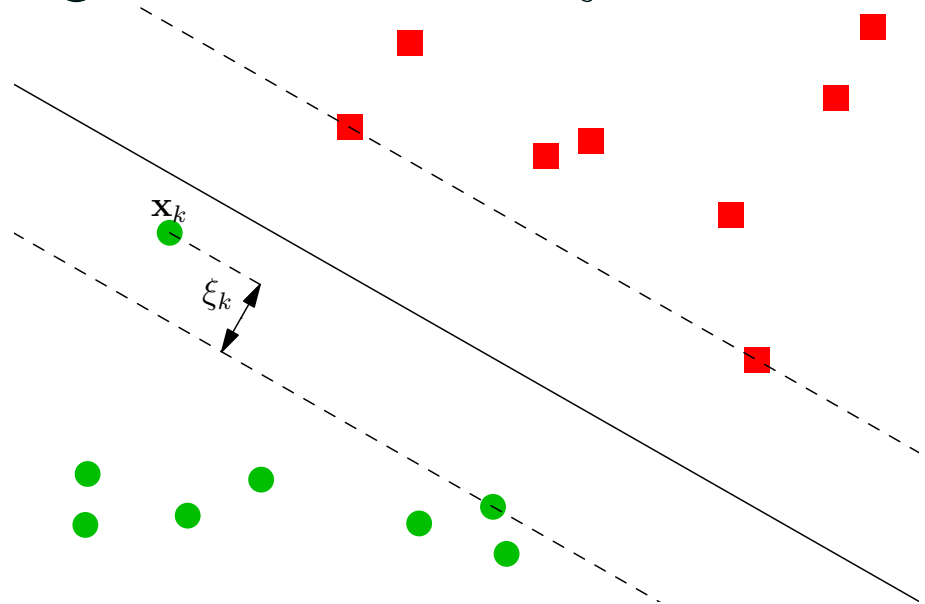


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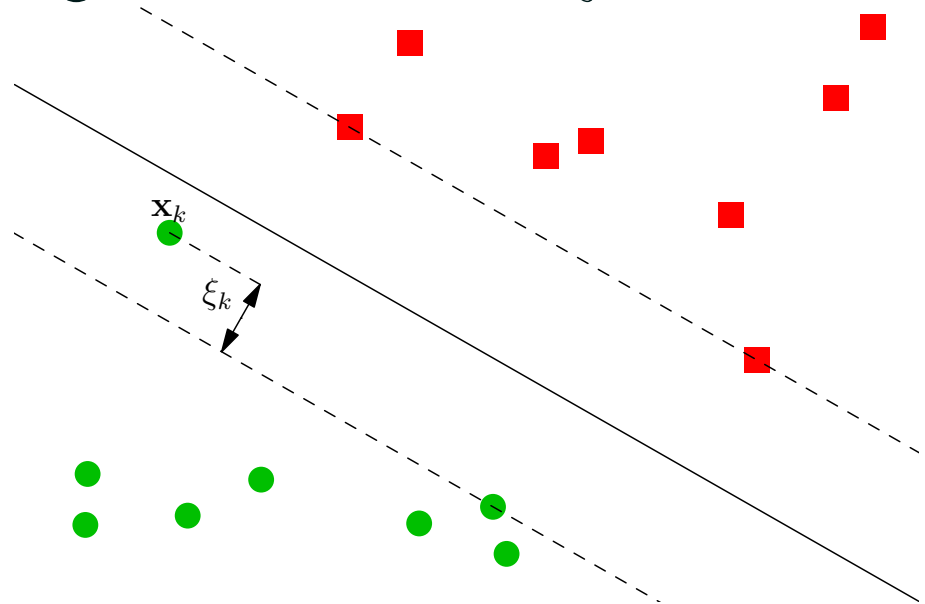


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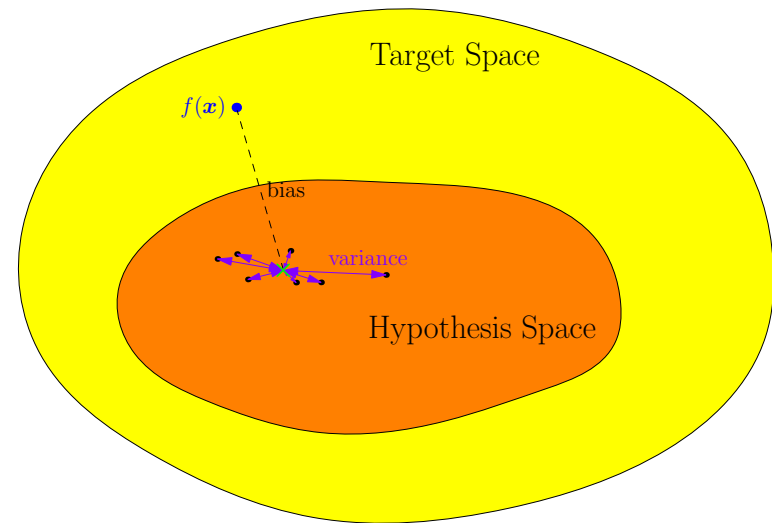
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# Outline

1. What Makes a Good Learning Machine?
2. SVMs
3. **Ensemble Methods**
4. Bayesian Inference



# Removing Variance By Averaging

- We can reduce the variance and hence improve our generalisation error by averaging over different learning machines
- There are a number of different techniques for doing this that go by the name of **ensemble methods** or **ensemble learning**
- This trick can be used with many different learning machines, but is clearly most practical for machine that can be trained quickly (nevertheless, even for deep learning taking the average response of many machines is usually done to win competitions)



# Removing Variance By Averaging

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  - ★ mixture of data types
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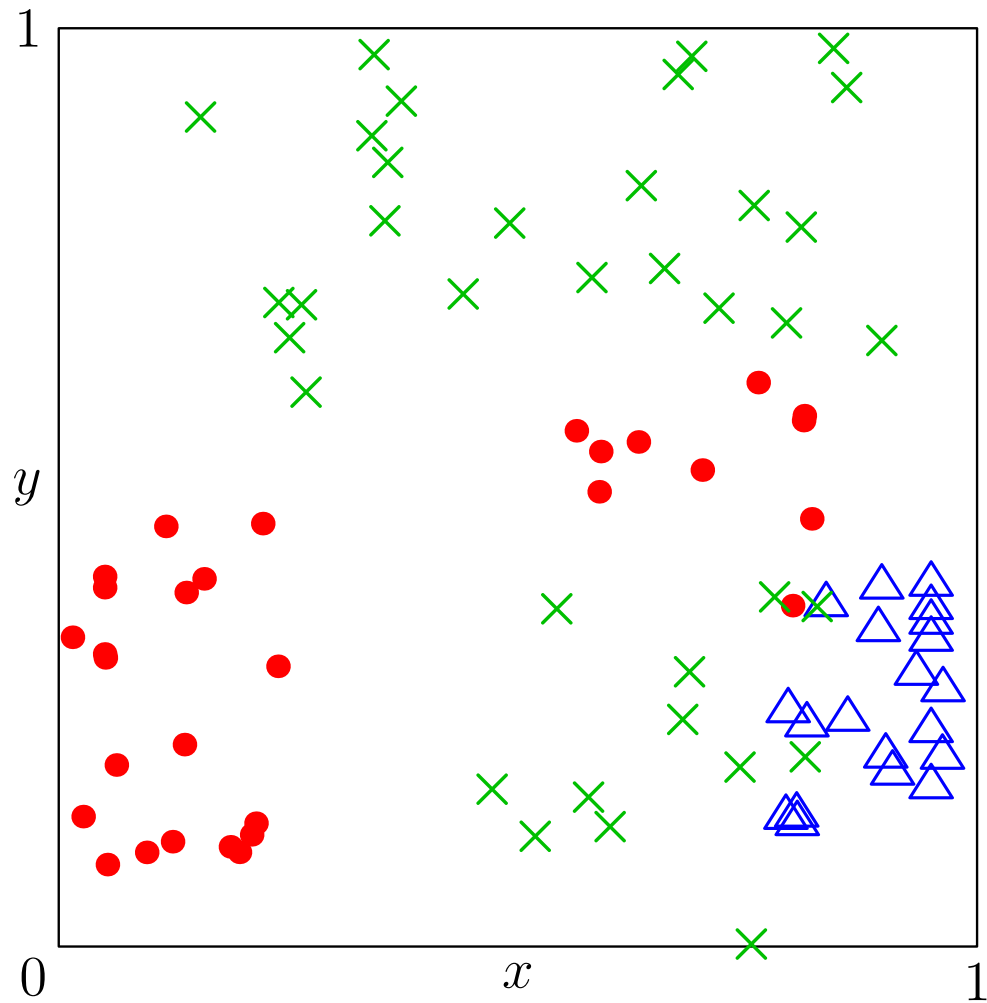
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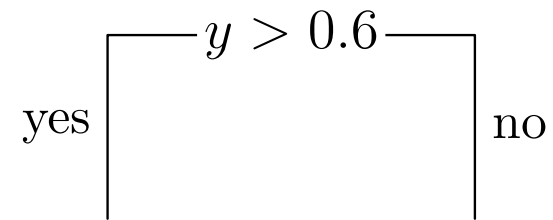
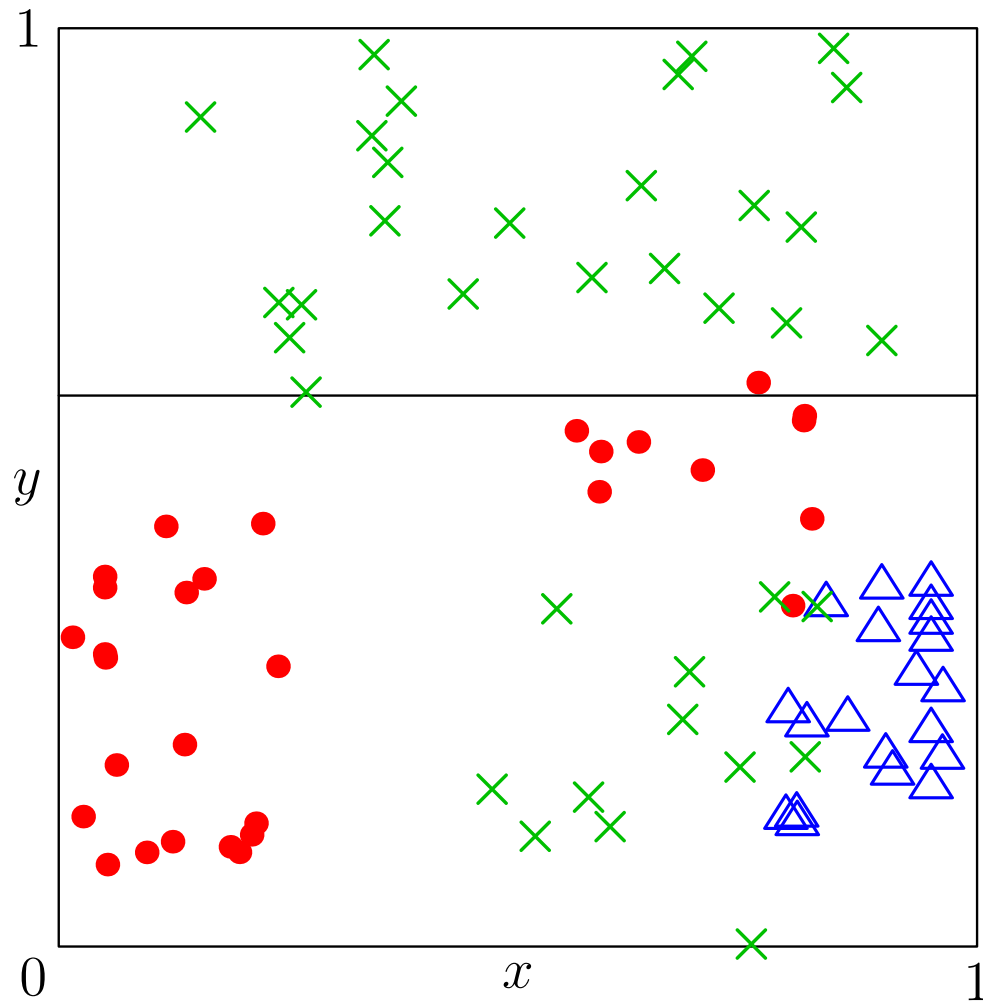
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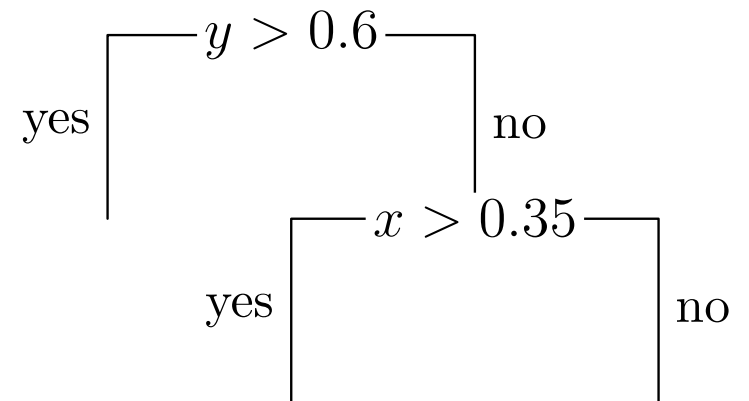
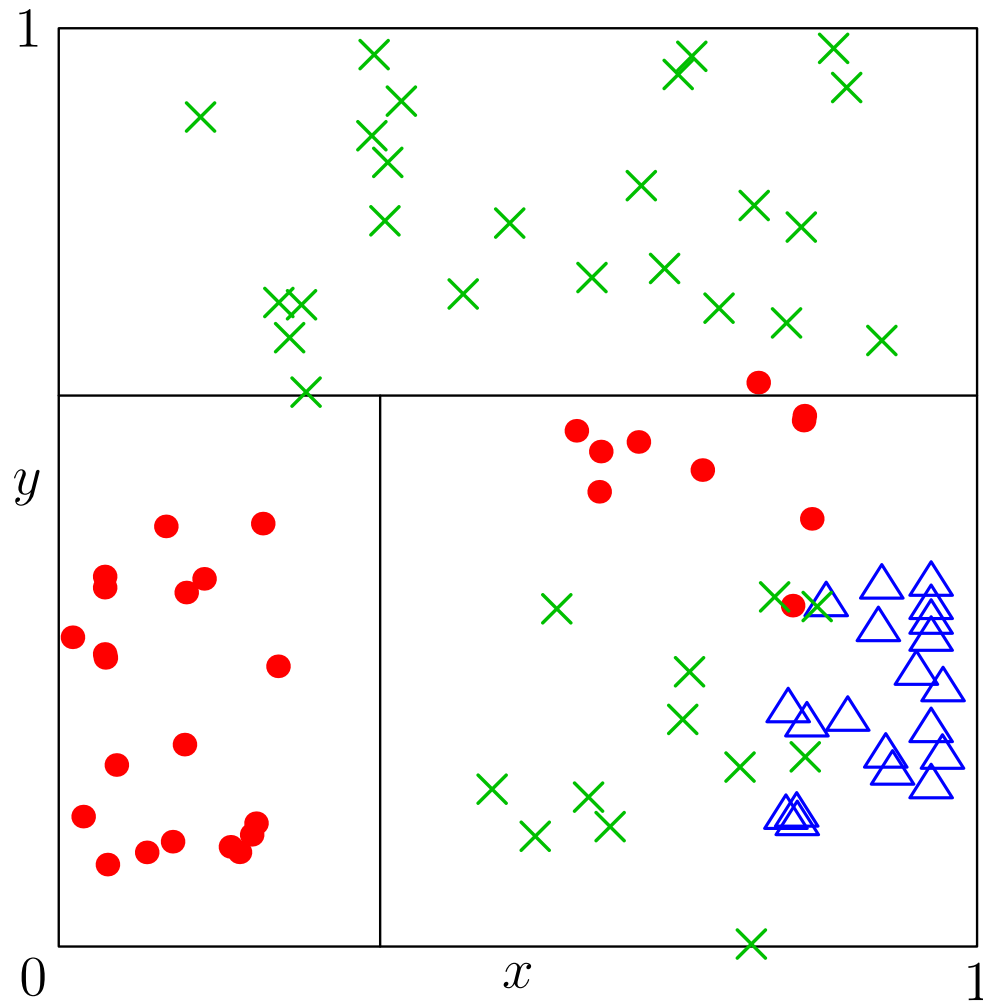
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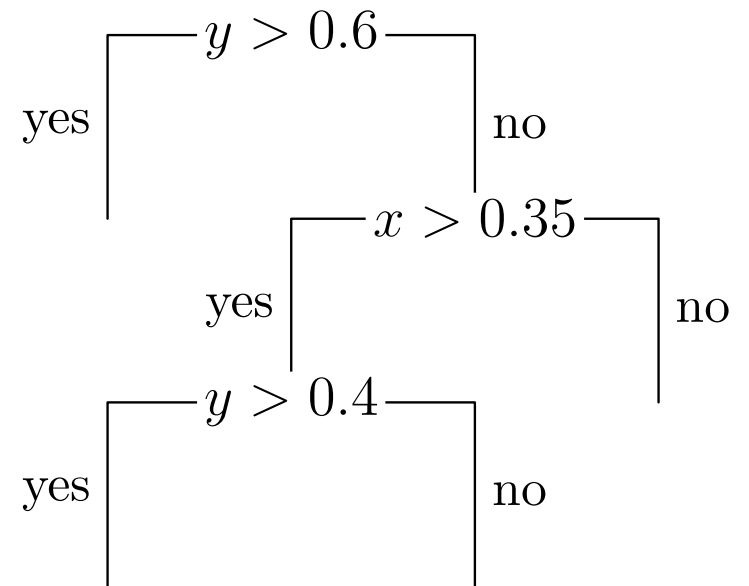
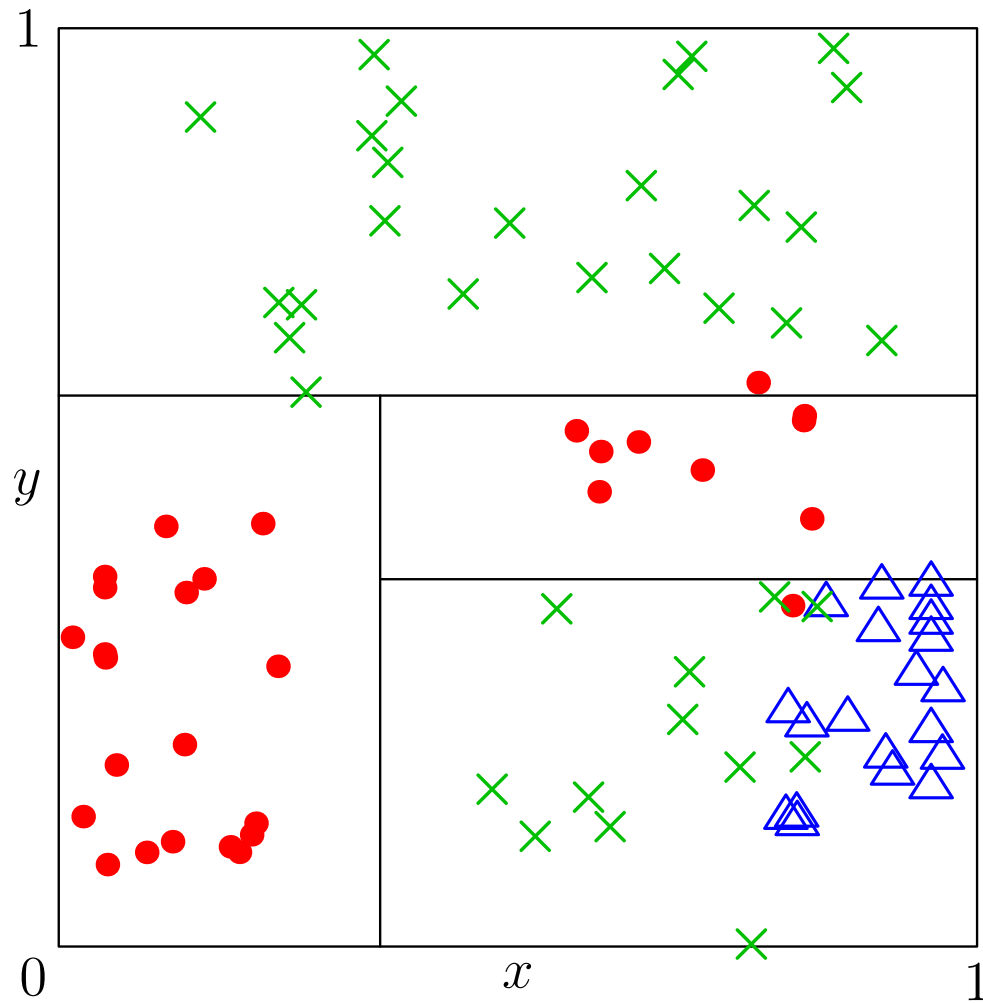
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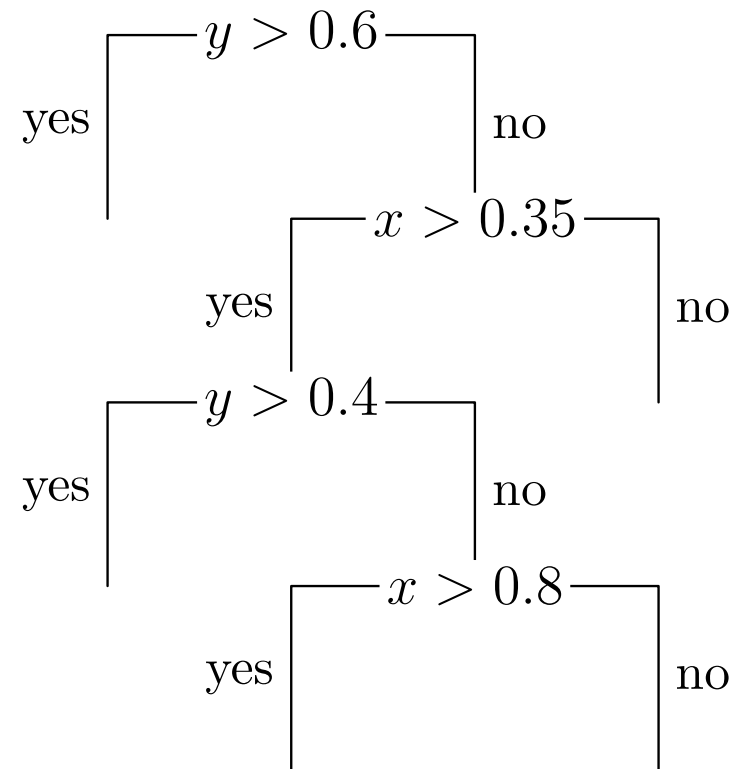
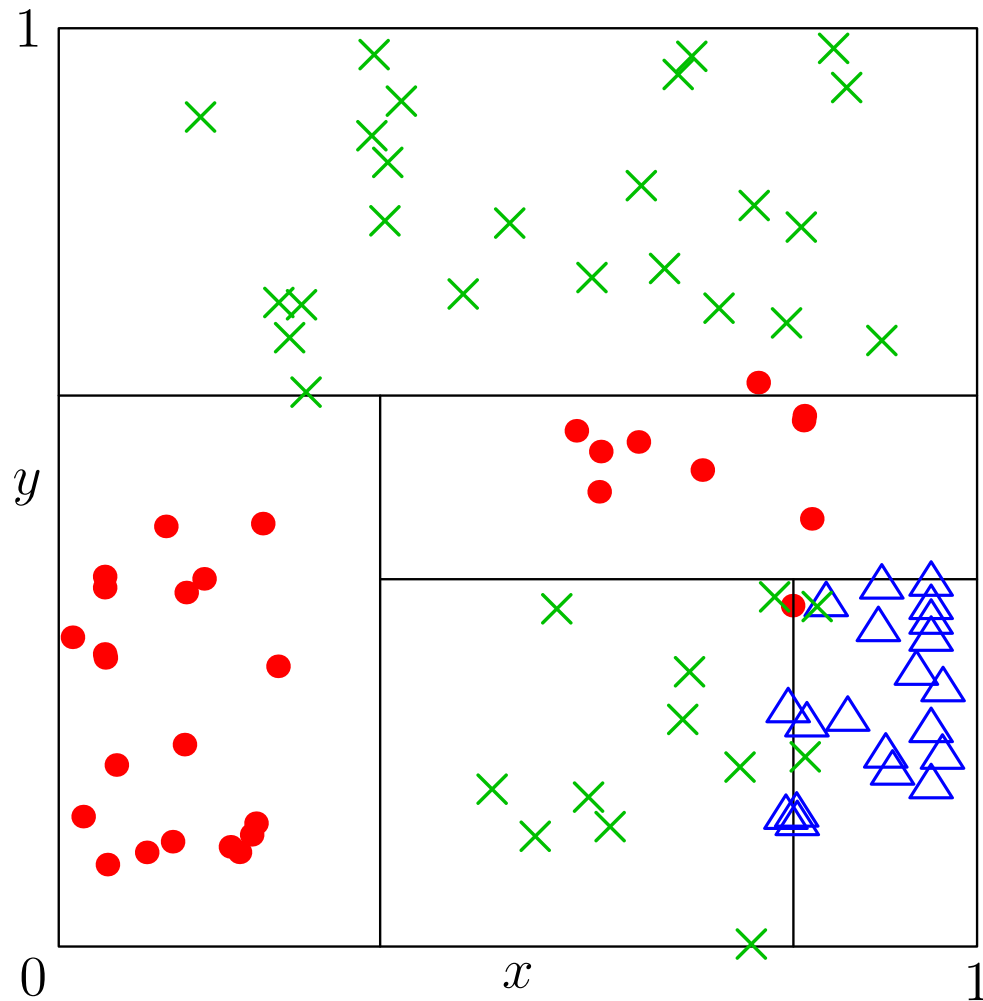
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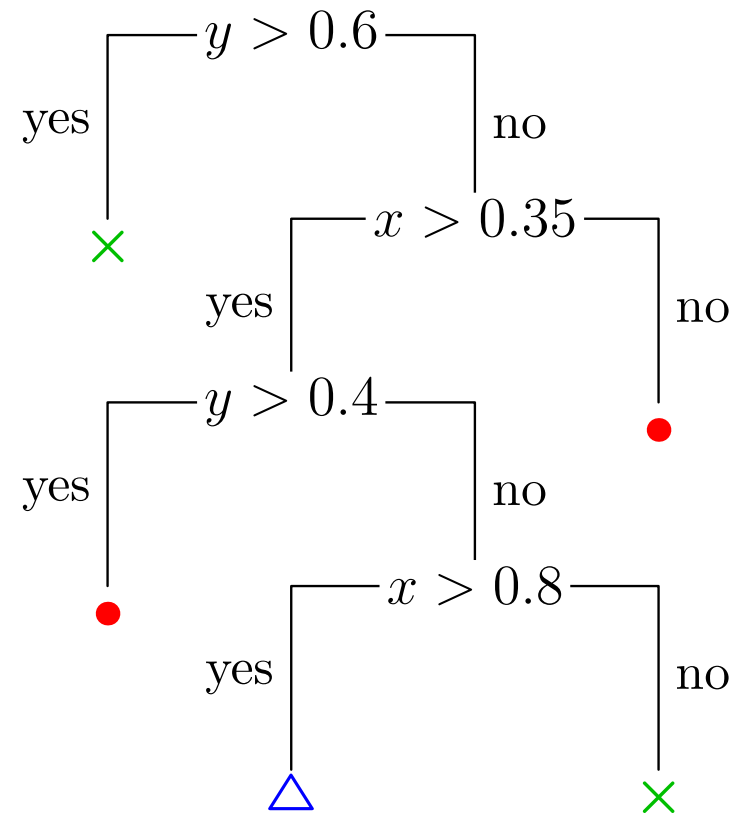
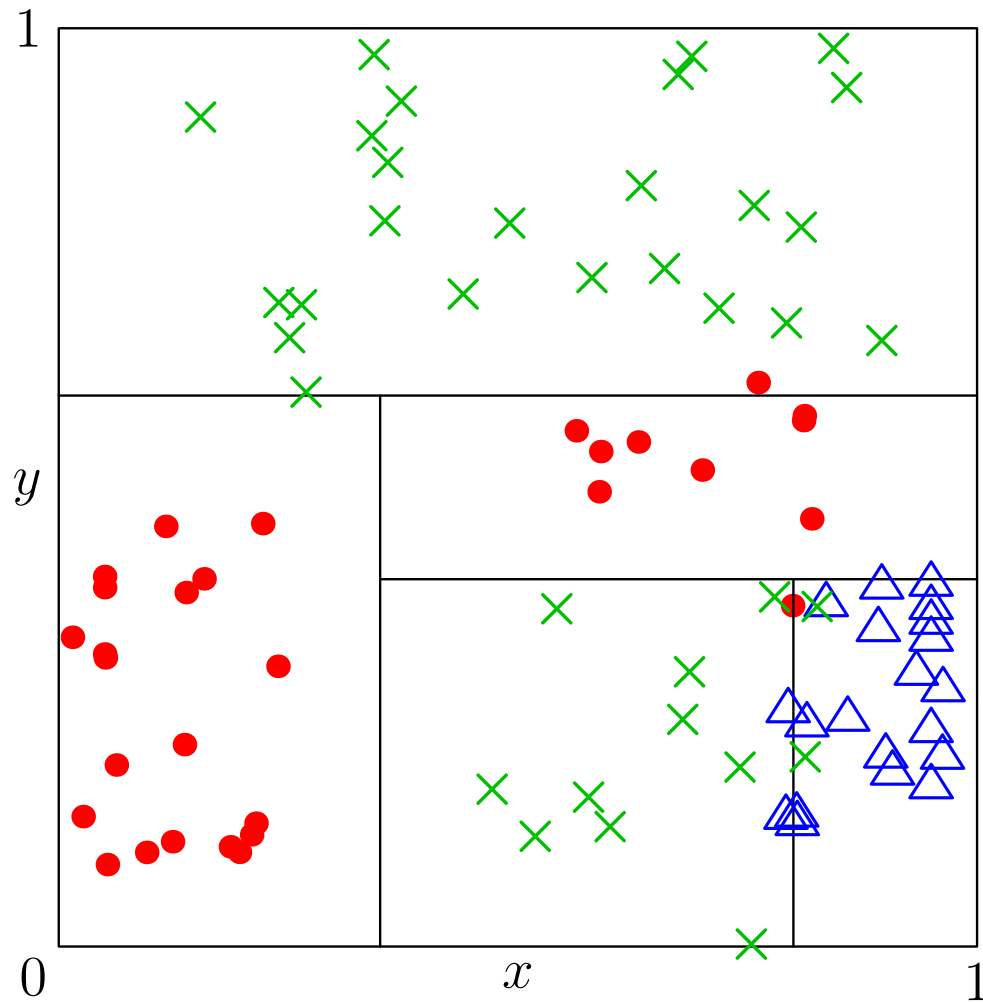
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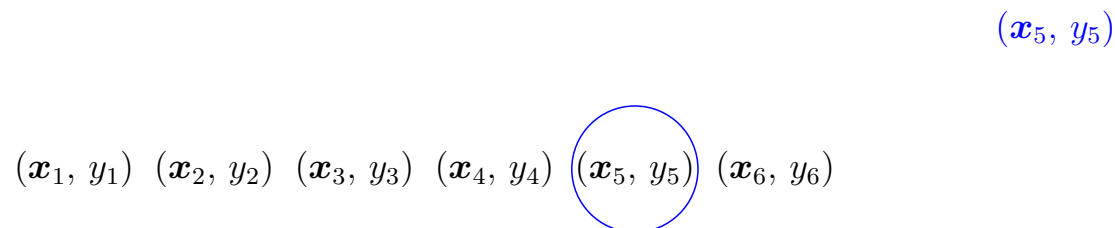
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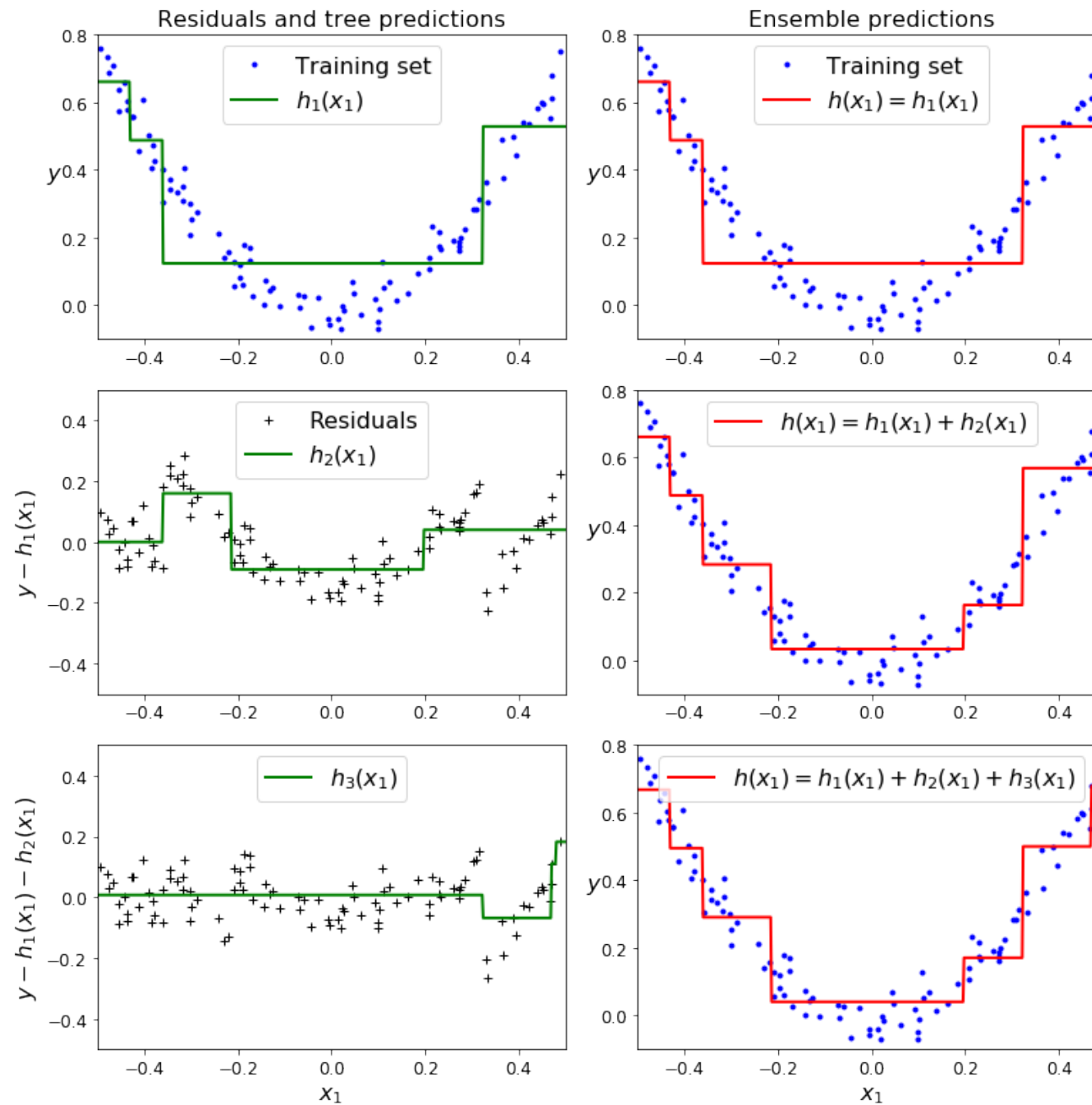


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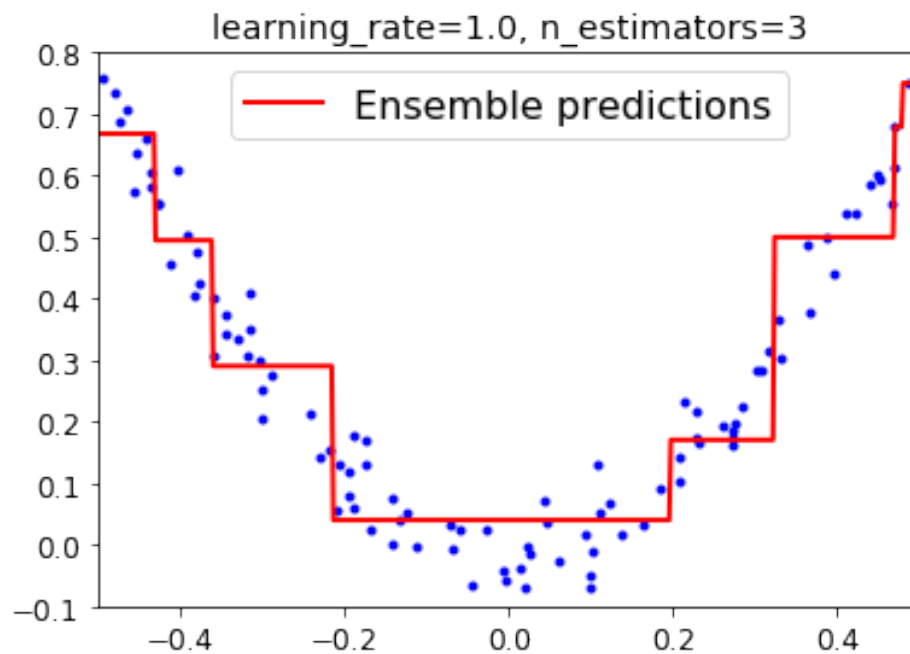
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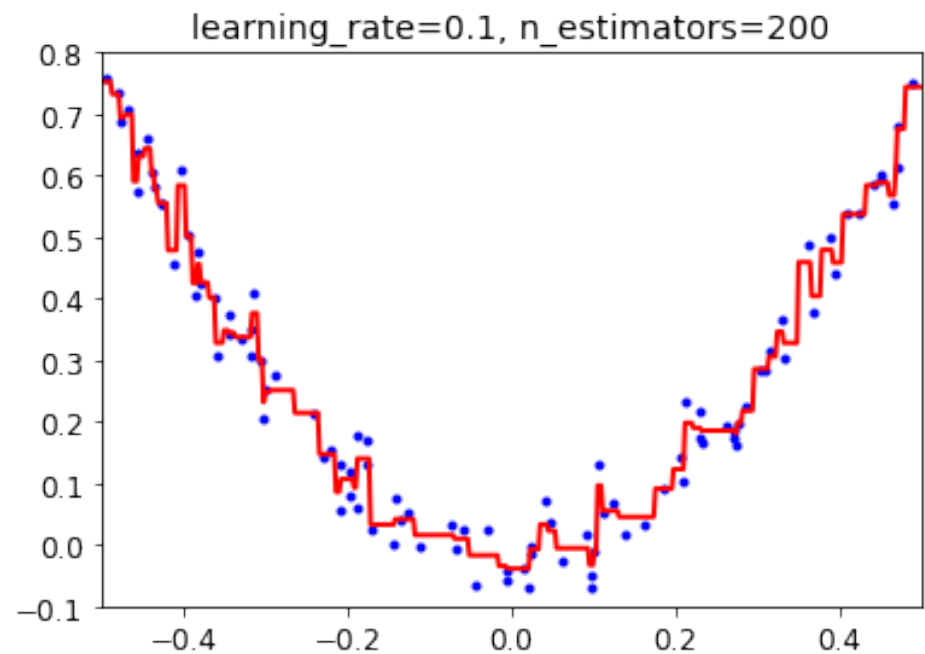
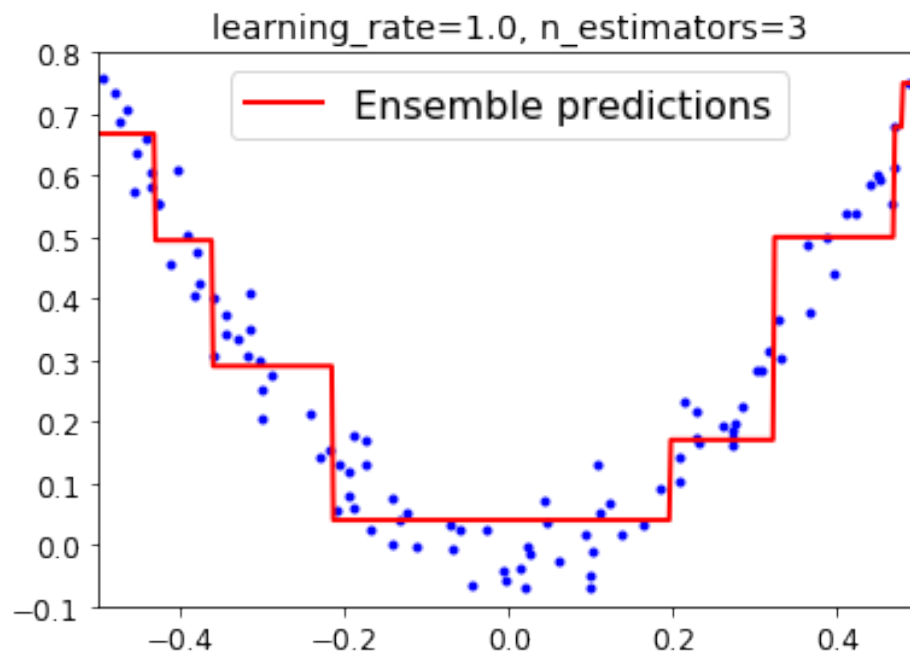
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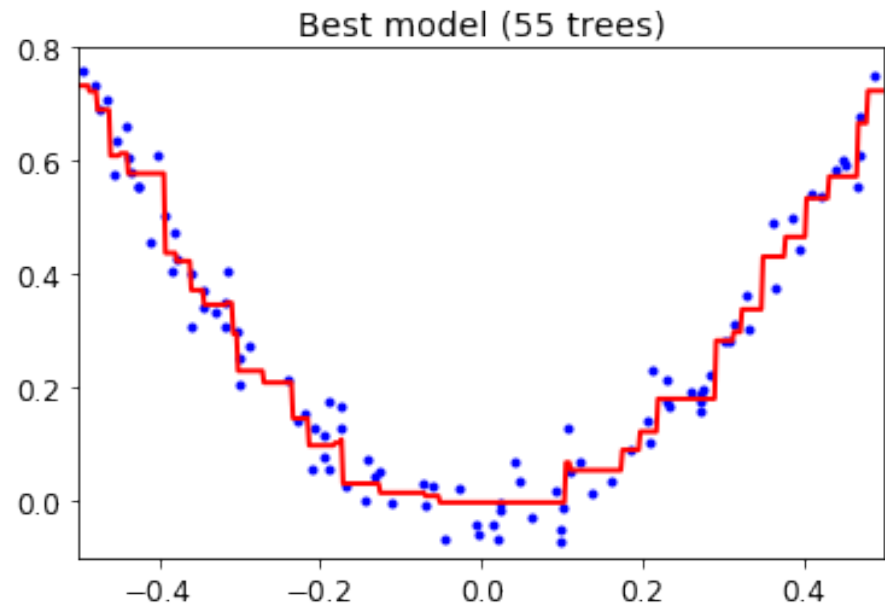
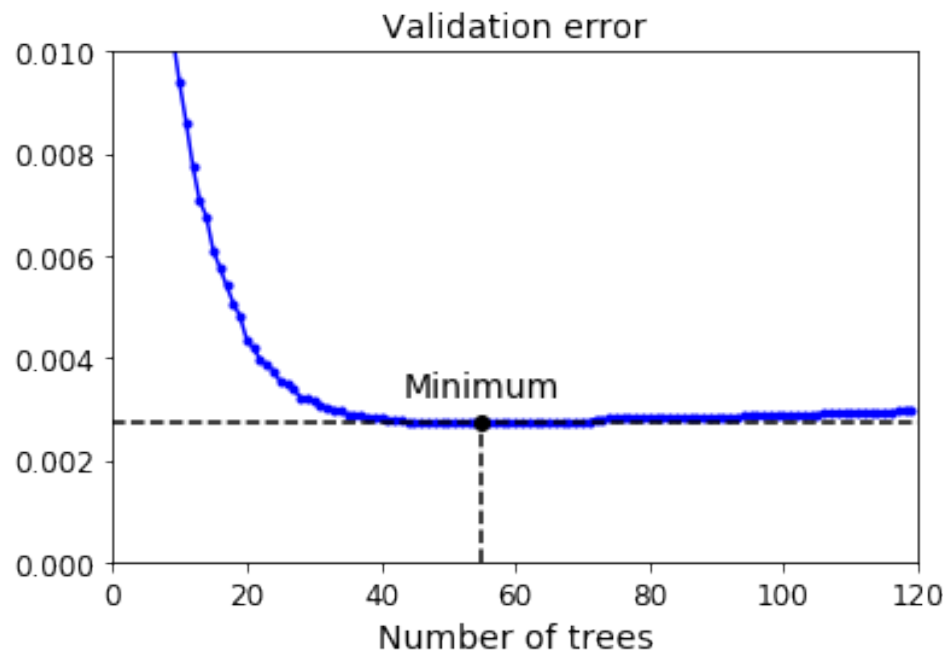
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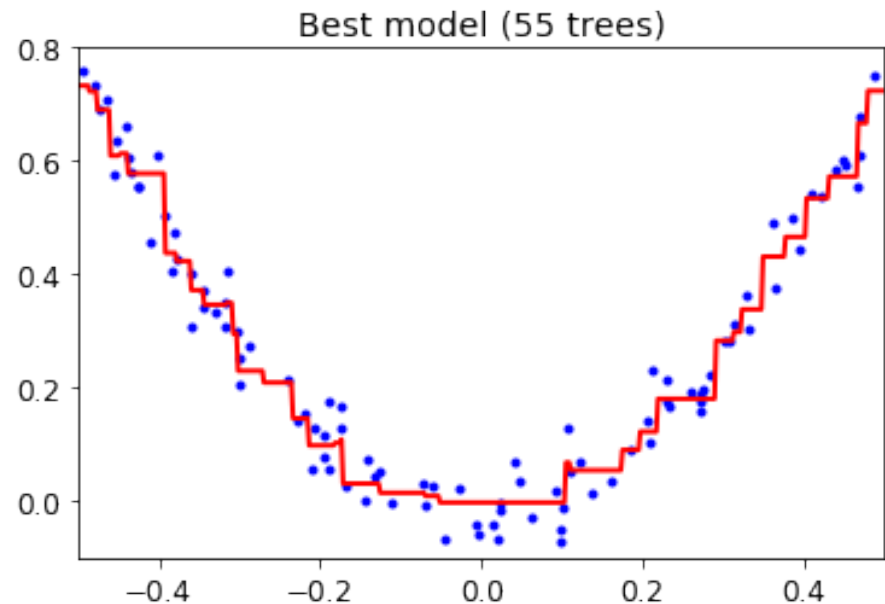
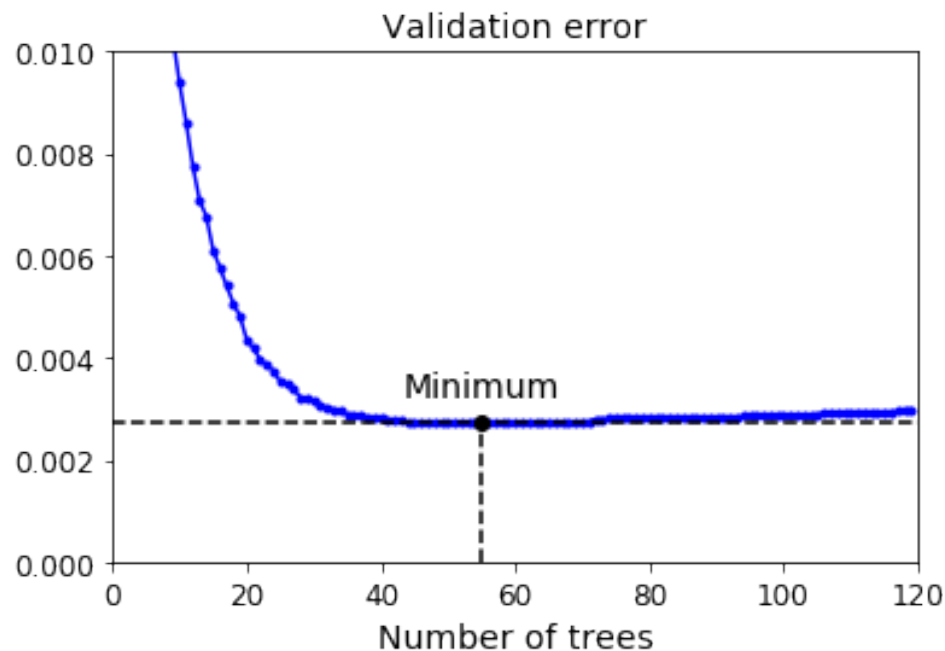
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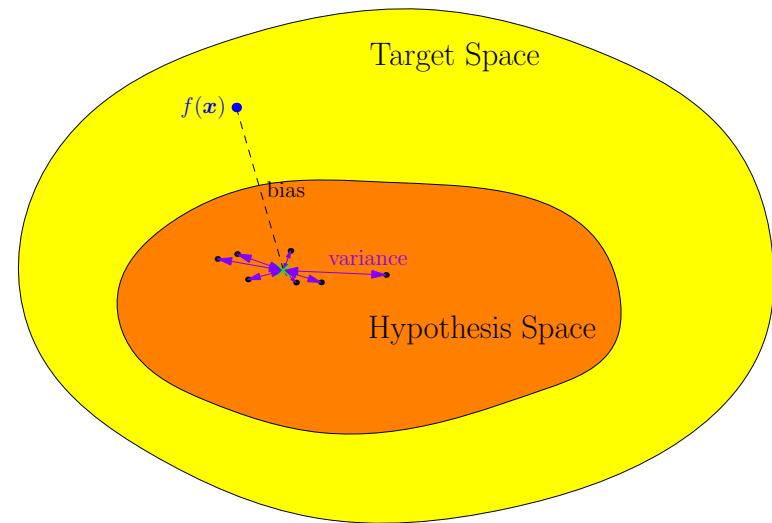
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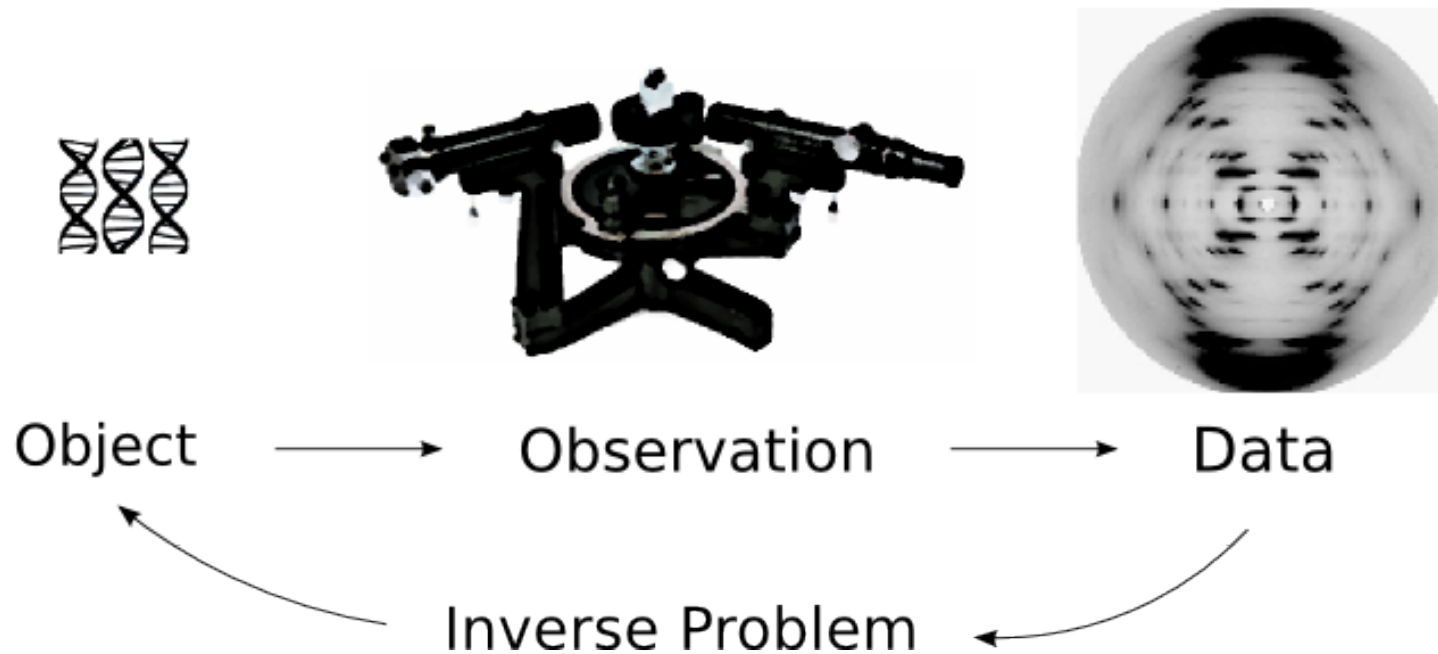
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# Outline

1. What Makes a Good Learning Machine?
2. SVMs
3. Ensemble Methods
4. **Bayesian Inference**

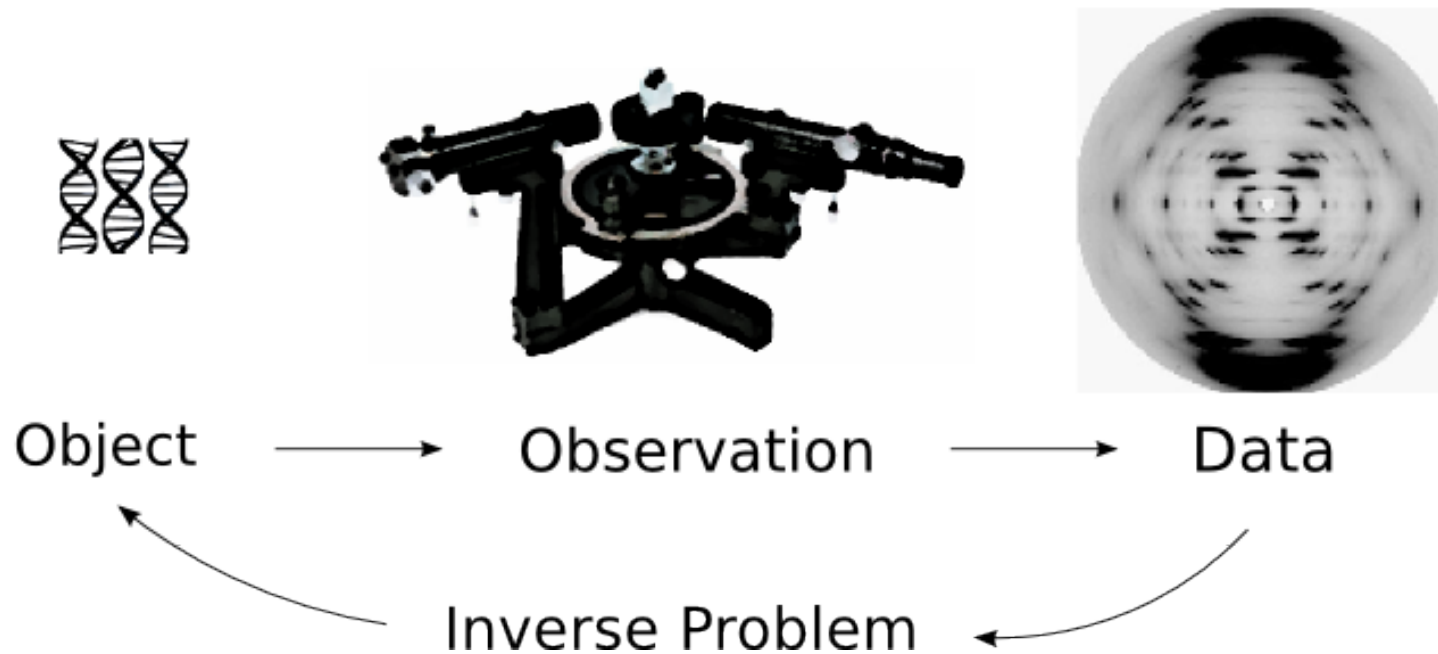


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# Bayes' Rule

- A trivial identity in probability known as Bayes' rules tells you how to solve inverse problems

$$\mathbb{P}(W|\mathcal{D}) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{D}|W) \mathbb{P}(W)}{\mathbb{P}(D)}$$

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# Normalisation

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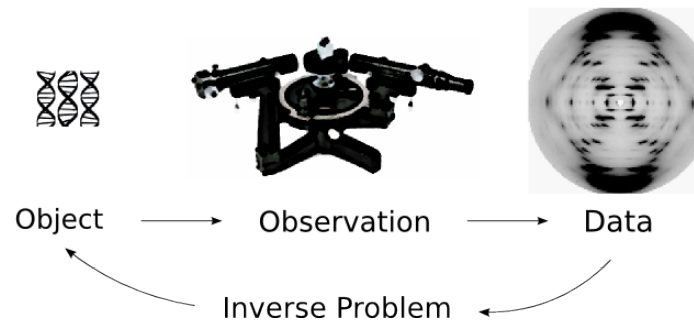
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# Advantages of Bayesian Inference

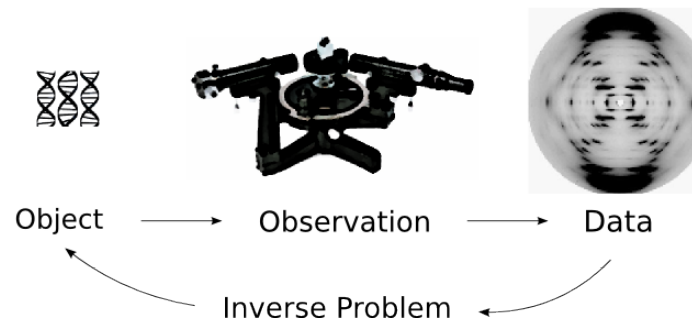
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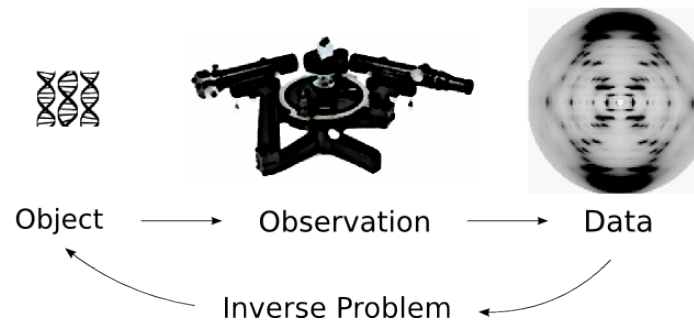
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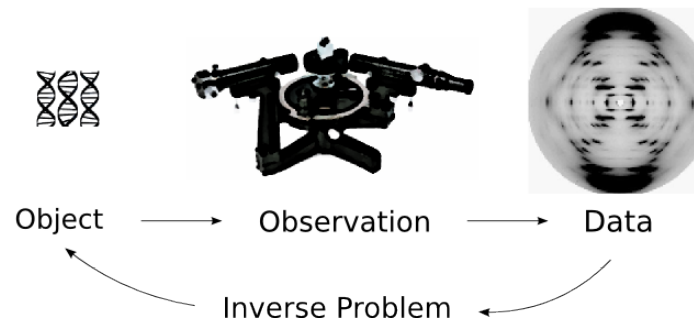


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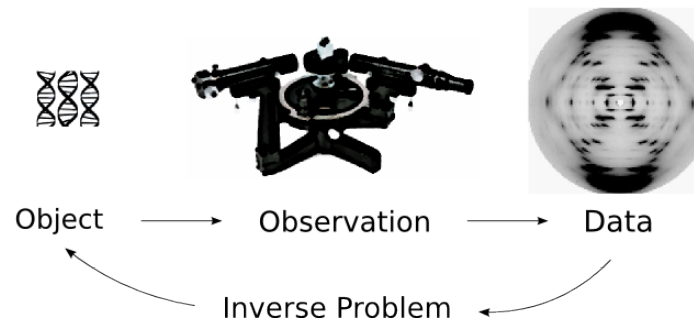
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# Simple Bayes

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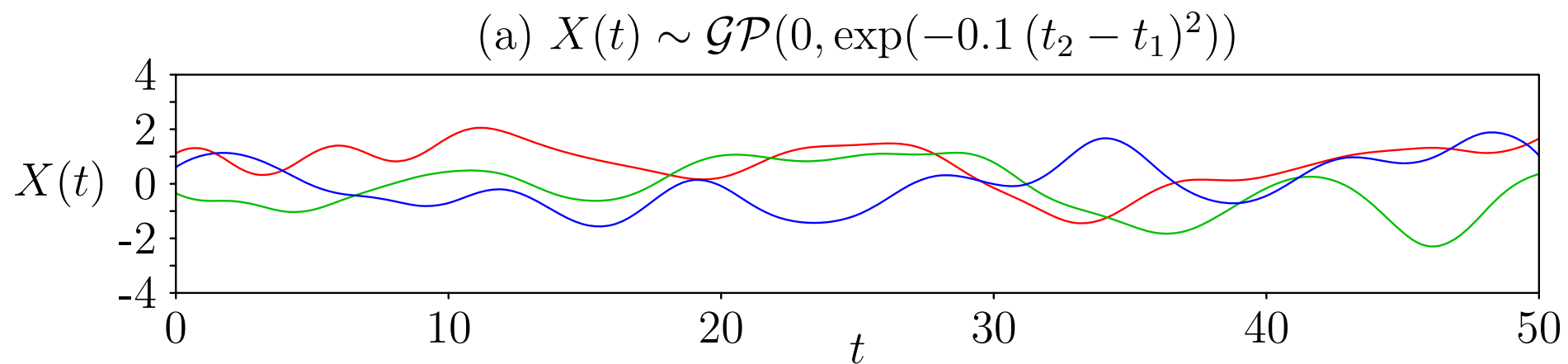
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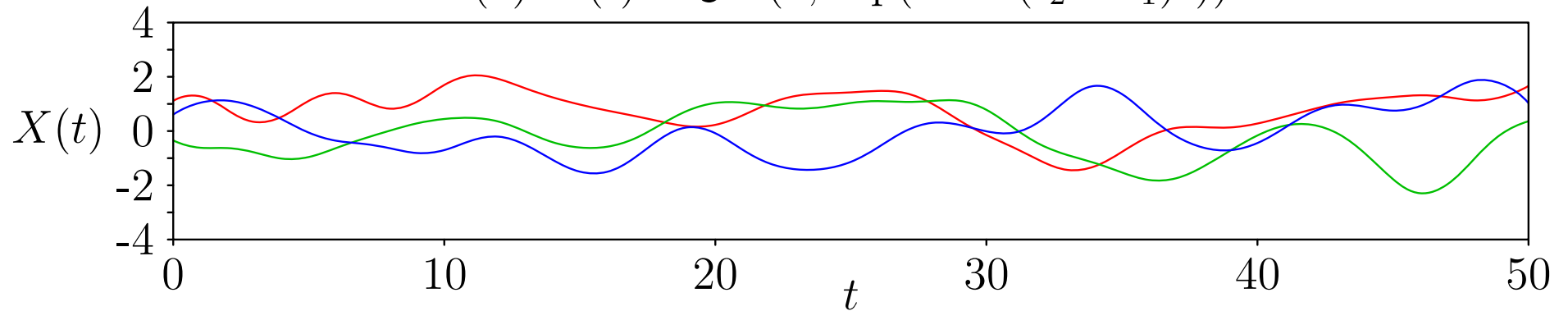
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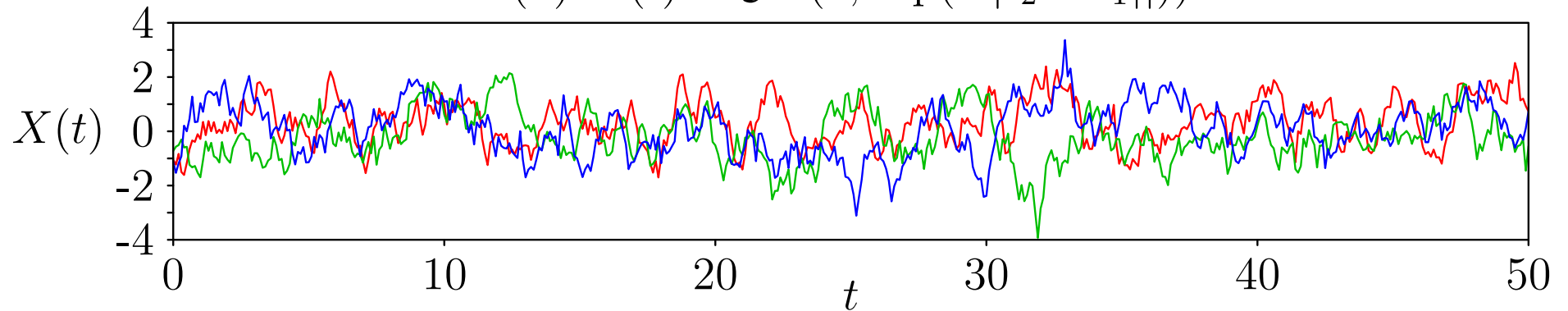


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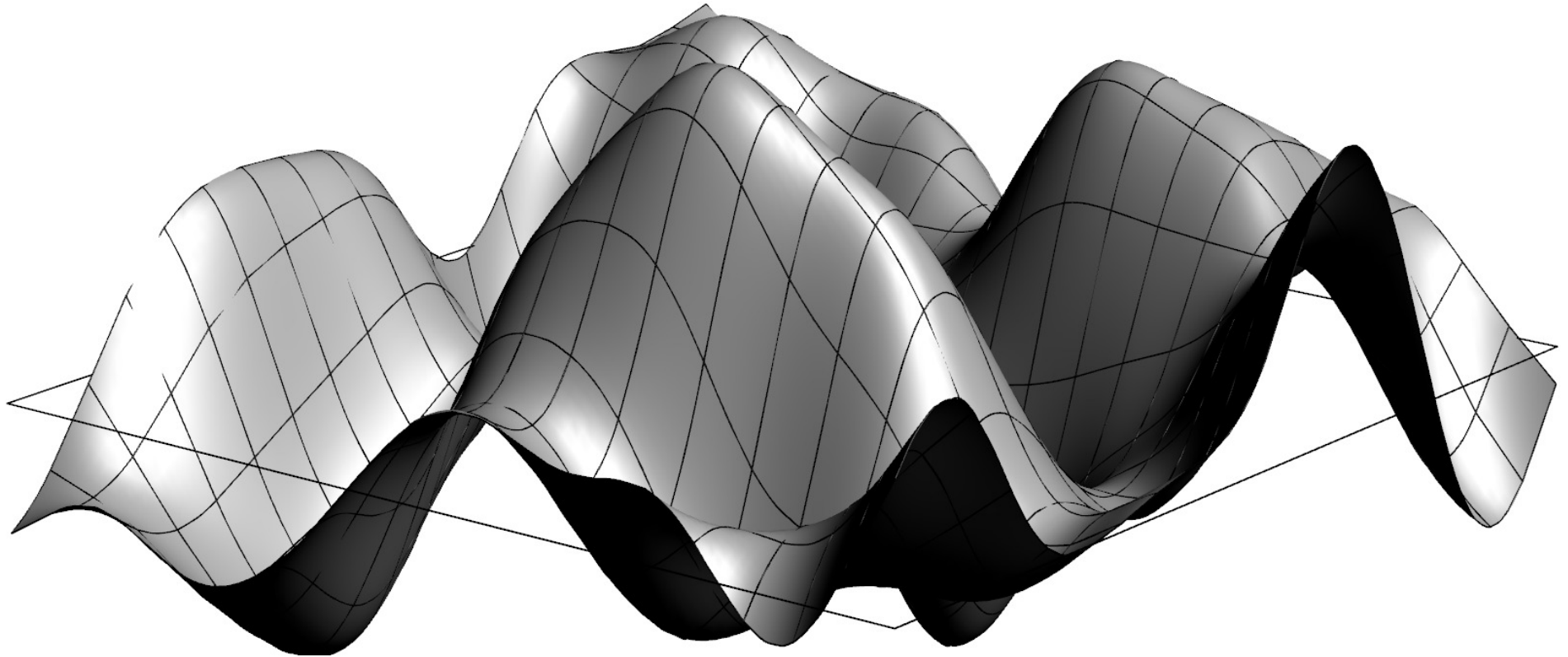
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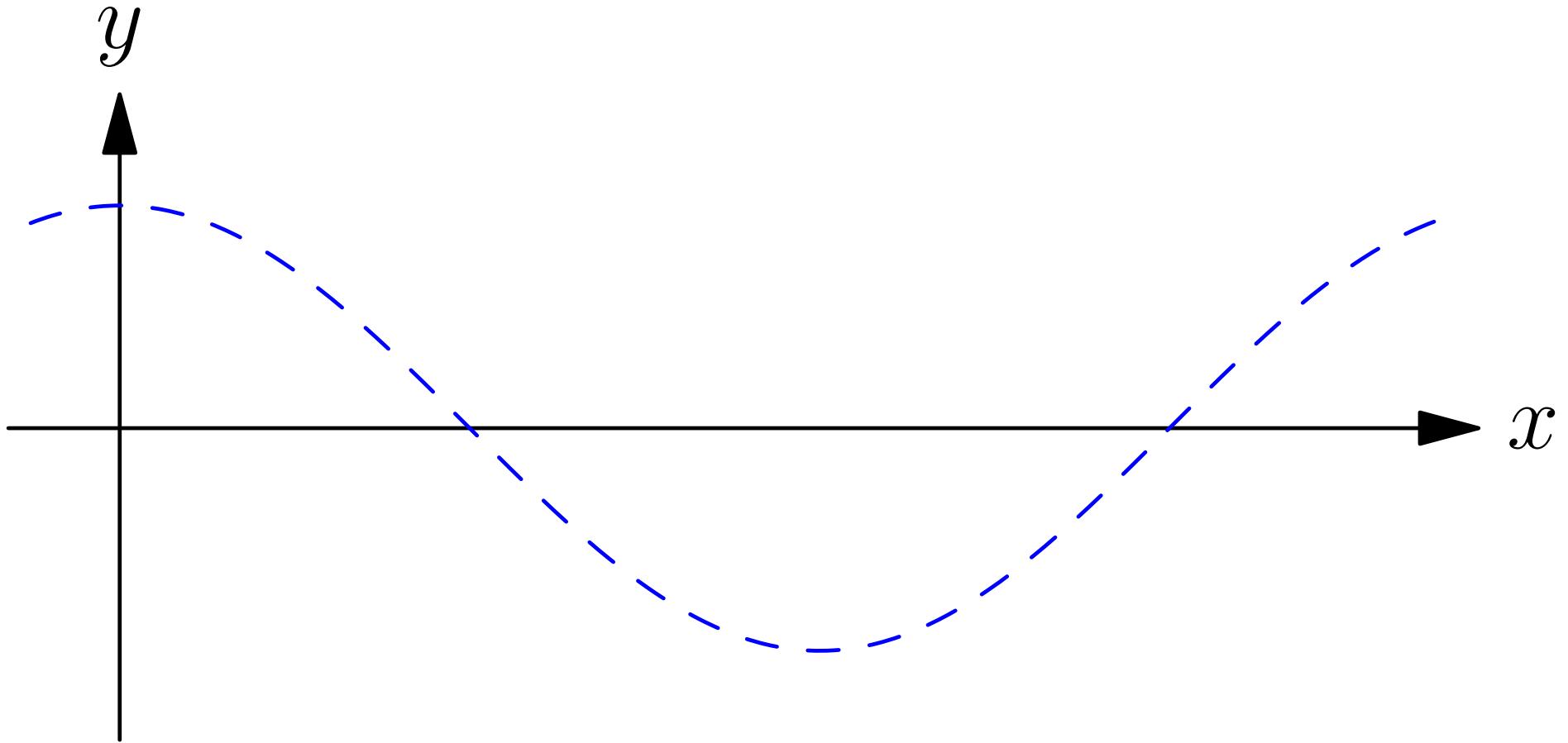
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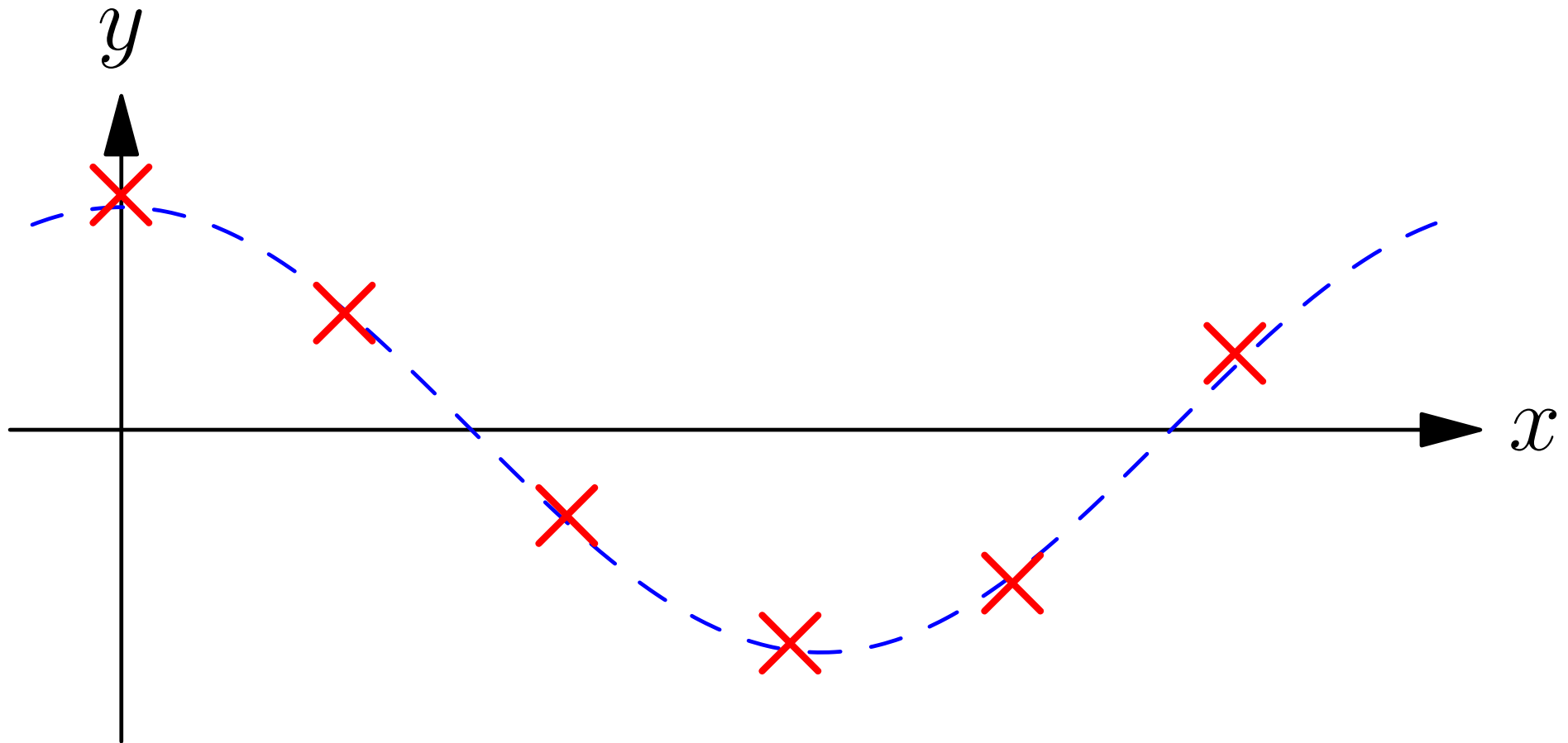
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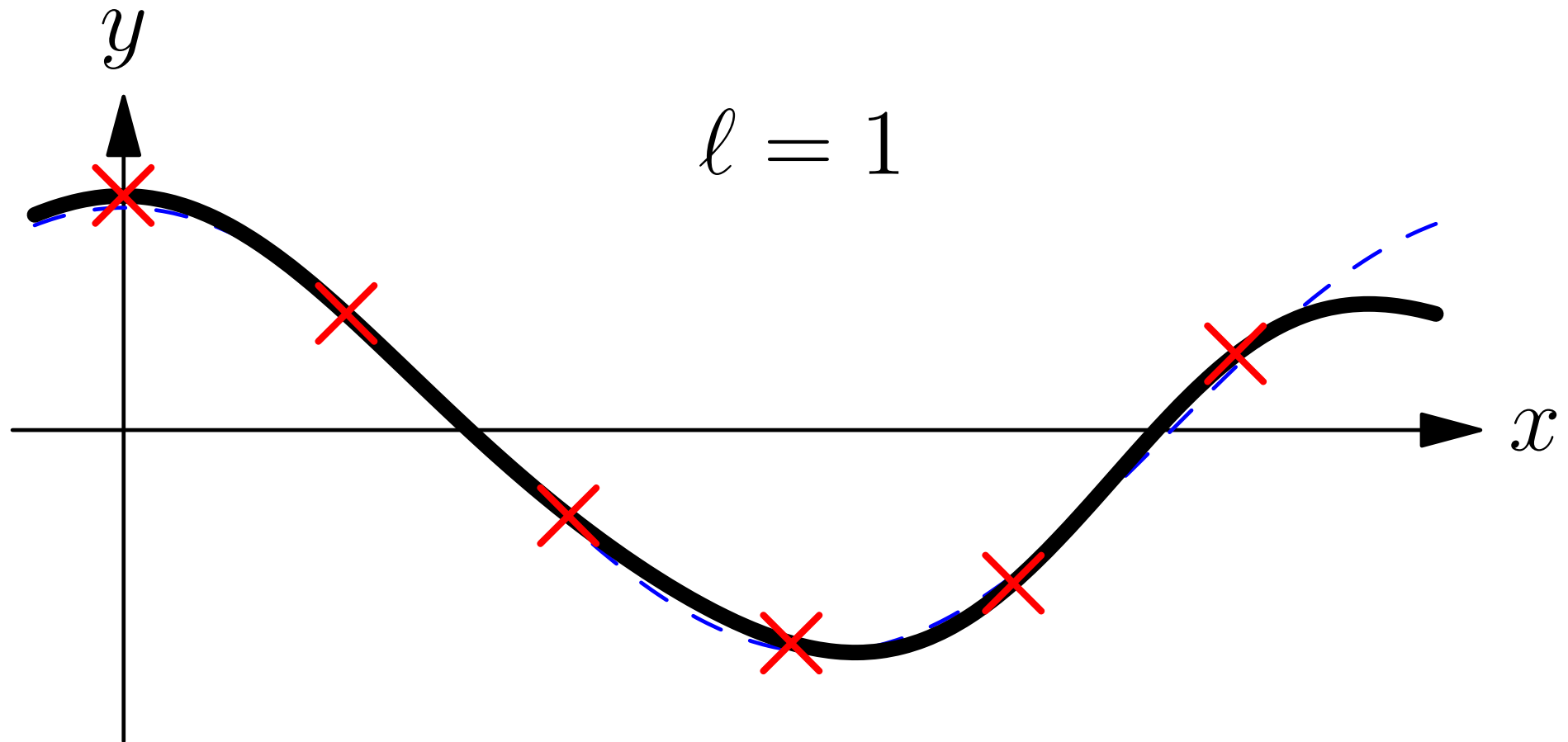


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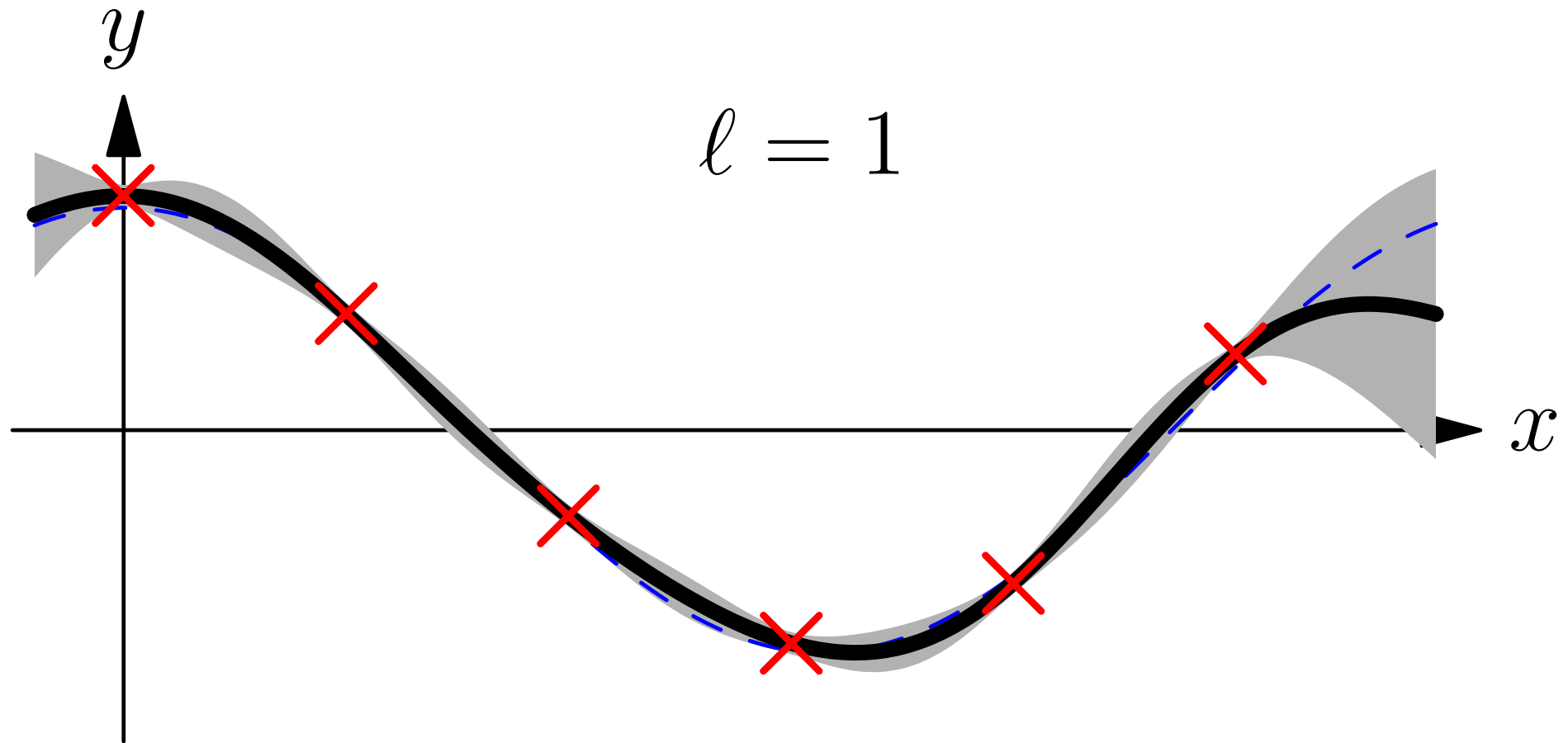




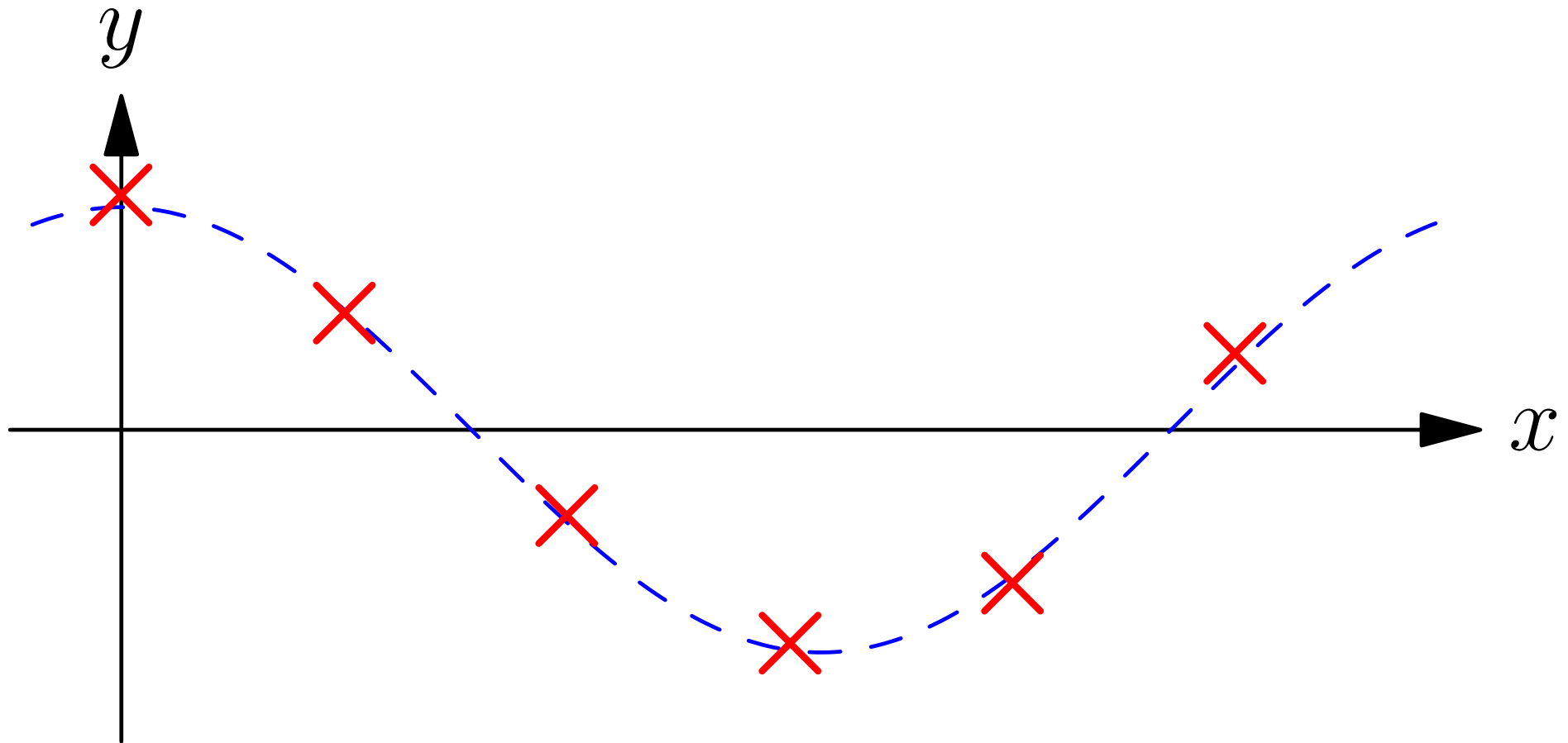
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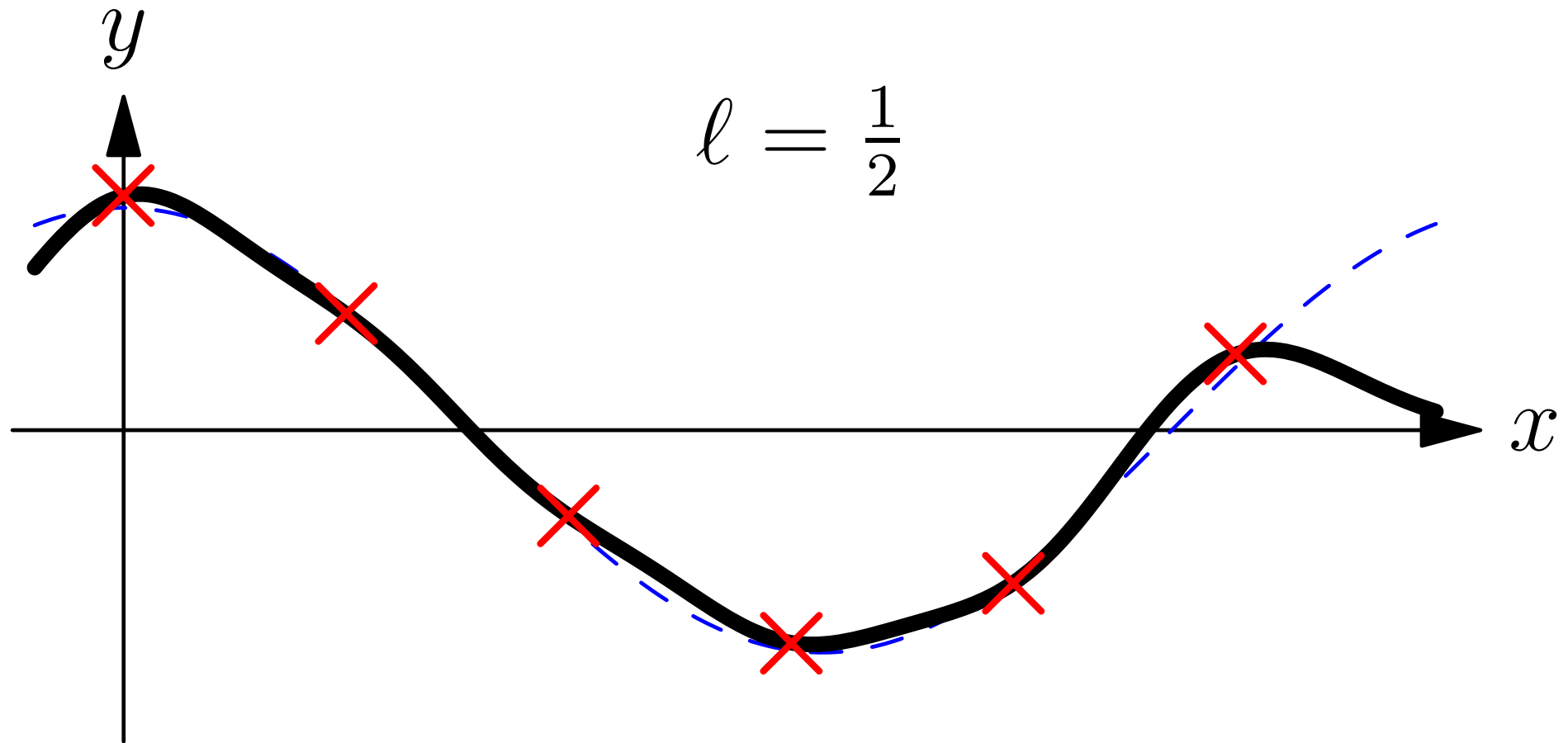
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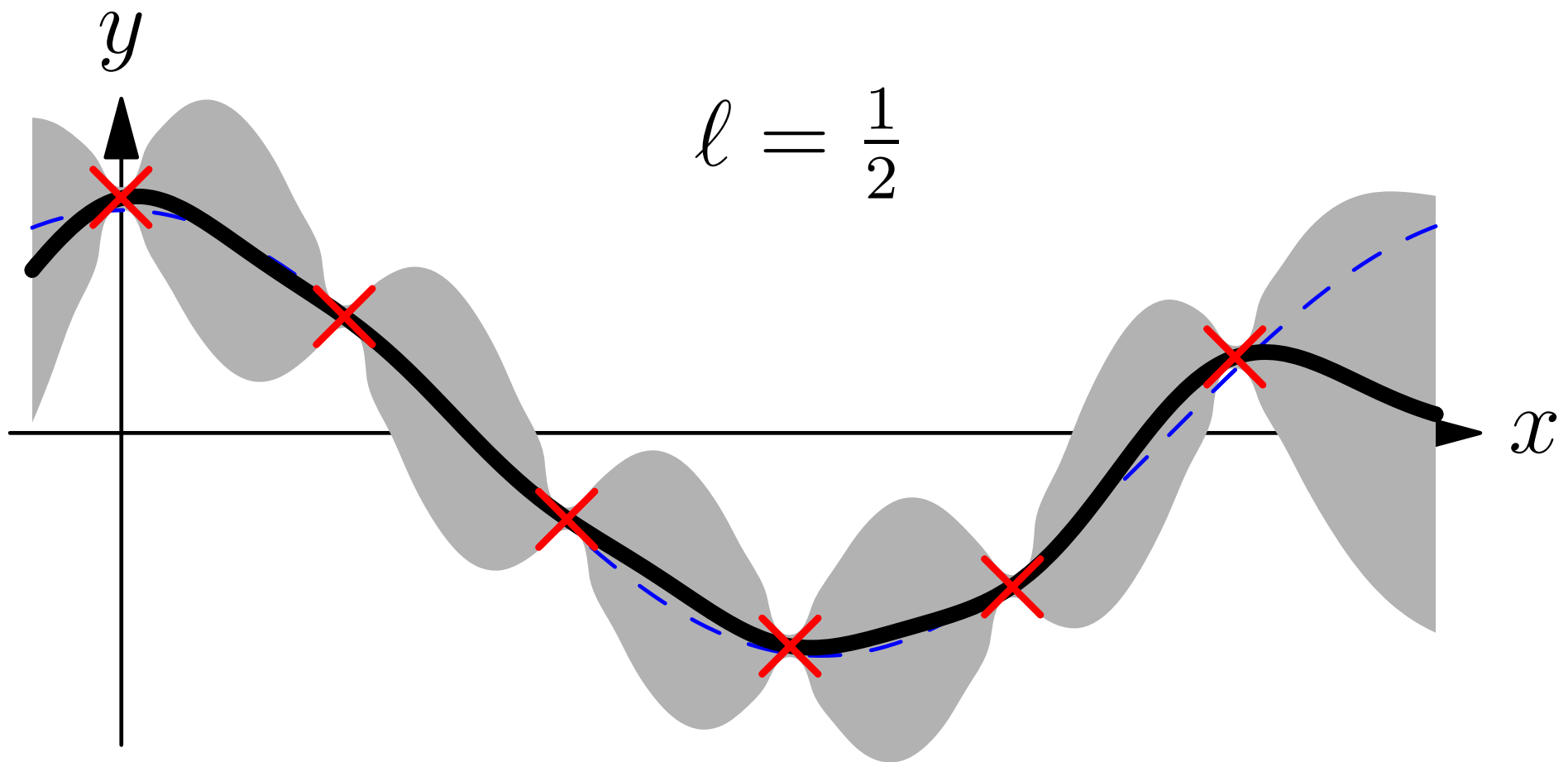
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