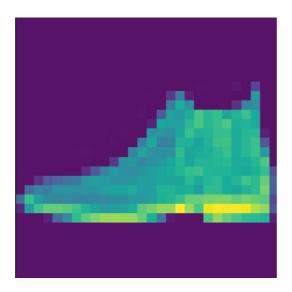
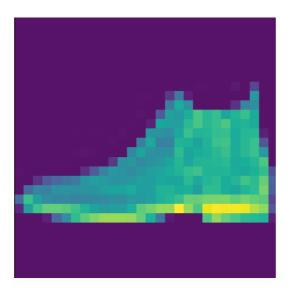
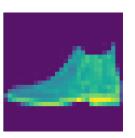
CS 4342: Class 1

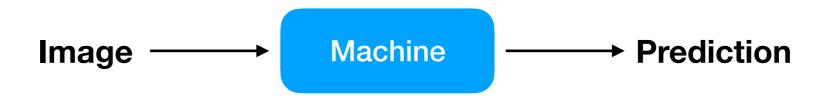
Jacob Whitehill

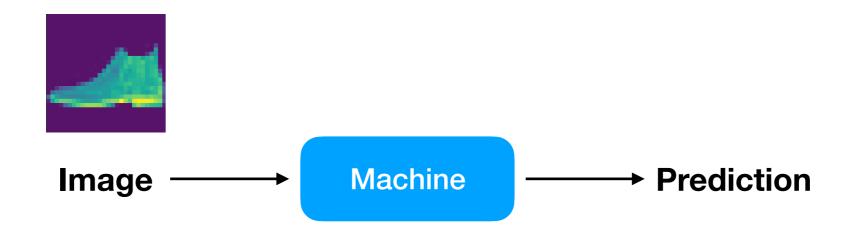


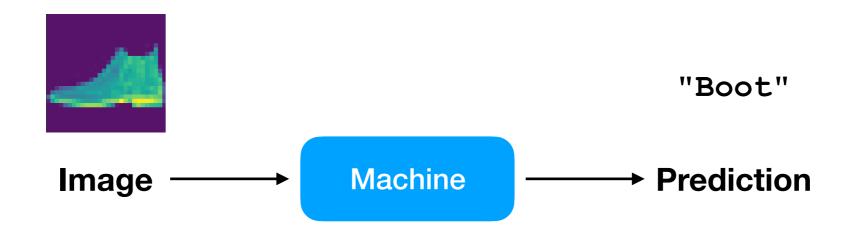


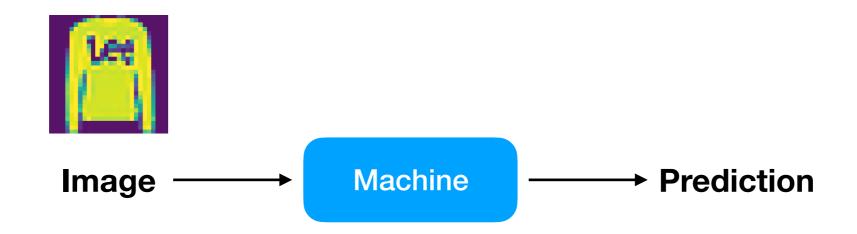


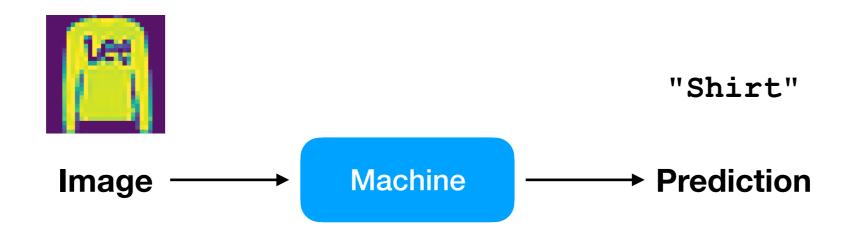
- Fashion MNIST is a toy machine learning (ML) dataset to test the viability of new ML models & algorithms.
- It consists of 60K images, each of which is one of 10 different types of clothing: t-shirt, boot, sandal, etc.











- It turns out that such machines can be constructed by surprisingly simple components, e.g.:
 - Matrix multiplication
 - Matrix addition
 - Maximum
 - Exponentiation
 - Normalization

 In fact, the machine's entire behavior can be expressed as:

```
normalize(exp(W3.dot(maximum(0, W2.dot(maximum(0, W1.dot(x) + b1)) + b2)) + b3))
```

where **x** is the input image and **W1**, **W2**, **W3**, **b1**, **b2**, **b3** are matrices of real numbers.

Demo.

• The question that remains is...

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Where do those matrices of numbers come from, and how do we know if they're "good"?

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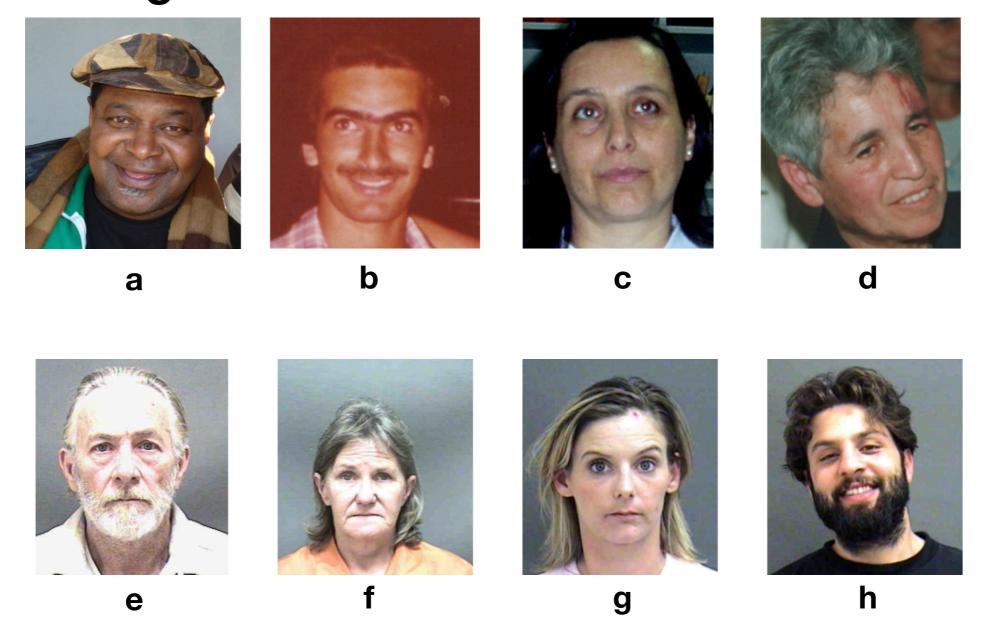
Where do those matrices of numbers come from, and how do we know if they're "good"?

 The next 7 weeks will be your journey to answer this question.

(-; Faces :-)

How old are these people?

Guess how old each person is based on their face image.



https://www.vision.ee.ethz.ch/en/publications/papers/articles/eth_biwi_01299.pdf

Whose guesses were the best?

- Who of you was best at guessing the people's ages?
- How do we define "best"?
- We need some kind of accuracy function.

- Suppose there are n faces.
- Let $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ be an *n*-vector of the **ground-truth** age values.
- Let $\hat{\mathbf{y}} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ be an *n*-vector of **guesses** for the age values.
- We write y_i and $\hat{y_i}$ for the *i*th ground-truth and guess (i=1, ..., n), respectively.
- What kinds of functions $f(\hat{y}, y)$ might we define to express the accuracy of the guesses w.r.t. ground-truth?

- Percent exactly Correct: $f_{PC}(\mathbf{y}, \hat{\mathbf{y}}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{I}[y_i = \hat{y}_i]$
 - where $\mathbb{I}[\cdot]$ equals 1 if the condition is true, and 0 otherwise.
 - Higher scores are better.

• Percent exactly Correct: $f_{PC}(\mathbf{y}, \hat{\mathbf{y}}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{I}[y_i = \hat{y}_i]$

where $\mathbb{I}[\cdot]$ equals 1 if the condition is true, and 0 otherwise.

• Example:

$$\mathbf{y} = [66, 18, 38, 61]$$

 $\mathbf{\hat{y}}^{(1)} = [65, 19, 38, 60]$
 $\mathbf{\hat{y}}^{(2)} = [5, 6, 2, 61]$

$$egin{align} f_{ ext{PC}}(\mathbf{y},\hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(1)}) &= & \mathbf{g} \ f_{ ext{PC}}(\mathbf{y},\hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(2)}) &= & \mathbf{g} \ \mathbf{$$

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$$\mathbf{y} = [66, 18, 38, 61]$$

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$$f_{PC}(\mathbf{y}, \hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(1)}) = 0.25$$

 $f_{PC}(\mathbf{y}, \hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(2)}) = 0.25$

Problem: It gives no consideration to the *distance* from ground-truth.

• Percent exactly Correct: $f_{PC}(\mathbf{y}, \hat{\mathbf{y}}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{I}[y_i = \hat{y}_i]$

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• Example:

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 For a regression problem such as ours — in which we the ground-truth can be any real number — f_{PC} is almost never used.

- Average distance: $f_{\text{avgdist}}(\mathbf{y}, \hat{\mathbf{y}}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i \hat{y}_i)$
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 - The average distance ground-truth guess compares the average guess to the average ground-truth.
 - But this is still not a good metric. **Exercise**:

$$\mathbf{y} = [66, 18, 38, 61]$$
 $\mathbf{\hat{y}}^{(1)} = [?]$
 $\mathbf{\hat{y}}^{(2)} = [?]$

Find values for $y^{(1)}$, $y^{(2)}$ such that $y^{(1)}$ is intuitively much better but they have equal average distances to y.

- Average distance: $f_{\text{avgdist}}(\mathbf{y}, \hat{\mathbf{y}}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i \hat{y}_i)$
 - Lower scores are better. $= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{y}_i$
 - The average distance ground-truth guess compares the average guess to the average ground-truth.
 - But this is still not a good metric. **Exercise**:

$$\mathbf{y} = [66, 18, 38, 61]$$
 $\mathbf{\hat{y}}^{(1)} = [65, 17, 39, 64]$
 $f_{avgdist}(\mathbf{y}, \hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(1)}) = \mathbf{\hat{y}}^{(2)} = [5, 79, 34, 67]$
 $f_{avgdist}(\mathbf{y}, \hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(2)}) = \mathbf{\hat{y}}^{(2)}$

- Average distance: $f_{\text{avgdist}}(\mathbf{y}, \hat{\mathbf{y}}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i \hat{y}_i)$
 - Lower scores are better. $= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{y}_i$
 - The average distance ground-truth guess compares the average guess to the average ground-truth.
 - But this is still not a good metric. **Exercise**:

$$\mathbf{y} = [66, 18, 38, 61]$$

 $\mathbf{\hat{y}}^{(1)} = [65, 17, 39, 64]$ $f_{\text{avgdist}}(\mathbf{y}, \hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(1)}) = \frac{1}{4}(1 + 1 - 1 - 3) = -0.5 \text{ yr}$
 $\mathbf{\hat{y}}^{(2)} = [5, 79, 34, 67]$ $f_{\text{avgdist}}(\mathbf{y}, \hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(2)}) = \frac{1}{4}(61 - 61 + 4 - 6) = -0.5 \text{ yr}$

The avgdist does not consider large *individual* deviations between a guess $\hat{y_i}$ and ground-truth y_i .

- Mean absolute error: $f_{\text{MAE}}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{\hat{y}}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} |y_i \hat{y}_i|$
 - Lower scores are better.

• Example:

 $f_{\text{MAE}}(\mathbf{y}, \hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(2)}) =$

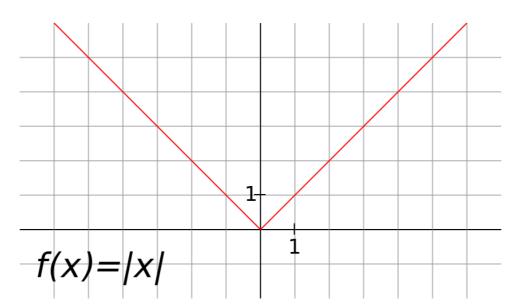
$$\mathbf{y} = [66, 18, 38, 61]$$
 $\mathbf{\hat{y}}^{(1)} = [65, 17, 39, 64]$
 $\mathbf{\hat{y}}^{(2)} = [5, 79, 34, 67]$
 $f_{\text{MAE}}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{\hat{y}}^{(1)}) = [65, 18, 38, 61]$

- Mean absolute error: $f_{\text{MAE}}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{\hat{y}}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} |y_i \hat{y}_i|$
 - Lower scores are better.

• Example:

$$\mathbf{y} = [66, 18, 38, 61]$$
 $\mathbf{\hat{y}}^{(1)} = [65, 17, 39, 64]$
 $\mathbf{\hat{y}}^{(2)} = [5, 79, 34, 67]$
 $f_{\text{MAE}}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{\hat{y}}^{(1)}) = \frac{1}{4}(1+1+1+3) = 1.5 \text{ yr}$
 $f_{\text{MAE}}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{\hat{y}}^{(2)}) = \frac{1}{4}(61+61+4+6) = 33 \text{ yr}$

- Mean absolute error: $f_{\mathrm{MAE}}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{\hat{y}}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} |y_i \hat{y}_i|$
 - Issue: Absolute value is not differentiable at 0. This is not ideal as much of ML involves differential calculus.



https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:F(x)%3DAbs(x).svg

- Mean squared error: $f_{\text{MSE}}(\mathbf{y}, \hat{\mathbf{y}}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i \hat{y}_i)^2$
 - Lower scores are better.

$$\mathbf{y} = [66, 18, 38, 61]$$

 $\mathbf{\hat{y}}^{(1)} = [65, 17, 39, 64]$
 $\mathbf{\hat{y}}^{(2)} = [5, 79, 34, 67]$

$$f_{\text{MSE}}(\mathbf{y}, \hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(1)}) = \frac{1}{4}(1^2 + 1^2 + 1^2 + 3^2) = 3 \text{ yr}^2$$

 $f_{\text{MSE}}(\mathbf{y}, \hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(2)}) = \frac{1}{4}(61^2 + 61^2 + 4^2 + 6^2) = 1873.5 \text{ yr}^2$

- Mean squared error: $f_{\text{MSE}}(\mathbf{y}, \hat{\mathbf{y}}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i \hat{y}_i)^2$
 - f_{MSE} is also both differentiable and convex.
 - Note: f_{MSE} expresses the error in squared units.

- Root mean squared error: $f_{\text{RMSE}}(\mathbf{y}, \hat{\mathbf{y}}) = \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i \hat{y}_i)^2\right)^{1/2}$
 - Lower scores are better.

$$\mathbf{y} = [66, 18, 38, 61]$$

$$\mathbf{\hat{y}}^{(1)} = [65, 17, 39, 64]$$

$$\mathbf{\hat{y}}^{(2)} = [5, 79, 34, 69]$$

$$f_{\text{RMSE}}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{\hat{y}}^{(1)}) = \left(\frac{1}{4}(1^2 + 1^2 + 1^2 + 3^2)\right)^{1/2} \approx 1.73 \text{ yr}$$

$$f_{\text{RMSE}}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{\hat{y}}^{(2)}) = \left(\frac{1}{4}(61^2 + 61^2 + 4^2 + 6^2)\right)^{1/2} \approx 43.28 \text{ yr}$$

• Root mean squared error: $f_{\text{RMSE}}(\mathbf{y}, \hat{\mathbf{y}}) = \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2\right)^{1/2}$

Note: f_{RMSE} function expresses the error in the same *scale* as the ground-truth: years (not years²). However, in practice, f_{MSE} is more commonly used:

- Square root is tedious.
- Monotonic relationship:
 - $\hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(1)}$ is better than $\hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(2)}$ in terms of RMSE \Leftrightarrow
 - $\hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(1)}$ is better than $\hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(2)}$ in terms of MSE

- In general, there are many ways of measuring accuracy.
- The appropriate metric depends on the kind of task (e.g., regression, classification) and the application domain.

Regression:

- Ground-truth values are usually elements of an infinite set (e.g., real numbers).
- We care more about distance between guess and ground-truth than exact match.
- Example: estimate age from a face image

- In general, there are many ways of measuring accuracy.
- The appropriate metric depends on the kind of task (e.g., regression, classification) and the application domain.

Classification:

- Ground-truth values are usually elements of a finite set (e.g., {0,1}, {-1,+1}, {\cup , \cup , \cup , \cup }).
- Example: estimate emotion from a face image.

How to measure accuracy?

- Some people define "accuracy" as only f_{PC} .
- Many other people (including me) treat "accuracy" as a broad family of functions:
 - When the accuracy measures the error (i.e., lower is better), it is often called a **cost** or a **loss**.
 - Loss, cost (e.g., f_{MSE}, f_{MAE}): want to minimize.
 - Accuracy (e.g., f_{PC} , f_{AUC}): want to *maximize*.

How old are these people?

Guess how old each person is based on their face image.



https://www.vision.ee.ethz.ch/en/publications/papers/articles/eth_biwi_01299.pdf

Age estimation accuracy

- Ground-truth y = [66, 18, 38, 61, 57, 53, 29, 23]
- Compute your own MSE on these 8 images:

$$f_{\text{MSE}}(\mathbf{y}, \hat{\mathbf{y}}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

Who had the best (lowest) score?

Python and ML

- Python is one of the most popular languages for machine learning (ML).
- Advantages:
 - Interpreted easy for debugging
 - High level of abstraction to accomplish large amounts of computation with concise syntax
 - Excellent library support for scientific computing & ML.
- Disadvantage:
 - Slower than C for many programming tasks.

- Computational bottleneck in Python: iteration is slow.
- To avoid large-scale iteration, we can often perform the same operation using matrix arithmetic.
 - With libraries such as **numpy**, Python can "offload" tedious computation to a high-performance low-level library for matrix manipulation (BLAS, CUDA, etc.).
 - This conversion is sometimes called vectorization.
- GPU-based fast linear algebra routines have resulted in big gains for machine learning applications.

- Example: dot product between two large vectors x, y
 - Iterative:

```
def dot (x, y): # x, y are Python lists
  total = 0
  for i in range(len(x)):
    total += x[i] * y[i]
  return total
```

Vectorized:

```
def dot (x, y): # x, y are numpy arrays
  return x.dot(y) # Much faster!
```

Vector notation

- Vectors are special cases of matrices and thus obey all the rules of matrix arithmetic.
- In this course, all vectors are column vectors (unless stated otherwise).
- The transpose of a column vector is a row vector (and vice-versa).
- Example:

$$\mathbf{a} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{a}^{\top} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

We can thus write the inner (dot) product of two vectors
 a and b as:

$$\mathbf{a}^{\top}\mathbf{b} = \left[\begin{array}{c} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \end{array}\right]^{\top} \left[\begin{array}{c} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{array}\right]$$

 We can thus write the inner (dot) product of two vectors a and b as:

$$\mathbf{a}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \end{bmatrix}^{\mathsf{T}} \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

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$$\mathbf{a}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \end{bmatrix}^{\mathsf{T}} \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= a_1b_1 + a_2b_2 + a_3b_3$$

 We can thus write the inner (dot) product of two vectors a and b as:

$$\mathbf{a}^{\top}\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \end{bmatrix}^{\top} \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= a_1b_1 + a_2b_2 + a_3b_3$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{3} a_ib_i$$

Similarly, we can vectorize the MSE computation:

$$f_{\text{MSE}}(\mathbf{y}, \hat{\mathbf{y}}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 = \frac{1}{n} (\mathbf{y} - \hat{\mathbf{y}})^\top (\mathbf{y} - \hat{\mathbf{y}})$$

Similarly, we can vectorize the MSE computation:

$$f_{\text{MSE}}(\mathbf{y}, \hat{\mathbf{y}}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 = \frac{1}{n} (\mathbf{y} - \hat{\mathbf{y}})^\top (\mathbf{y} - \hat{\mathbf{y}})$$
$$= \frac{1}{n} \left[(y_1 - \hat{y}_1) \dots (y_n - \hat{y}_n) \right] \begin{bmatrix} (y_1 - \hat{y}_1) \\ \vdots \\ (y_n - \hat{y}_n) \end{bmatrix}$$

Show numpy_speed.py