

# MACHINE LEARNING

## Supervised Approaches

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<https://moodle.insa-toulouse.fr/course/view.php?id=1790>

**Volume:** 6 CM – 3 TP

1. Introduction on AI and supervised learning (E. Chanthery)
  - Learning process and assessment
  - A brief focus on a basic tool for learning: Gradient descent
2. Learning using Artificial Neural Networks (P. Leleux)
3. Learning using Interpretable Machine Learning Models (M. Siala)

### Practical sessions

- Artificial Neural Networks
- Decision Trees

**Assessment:** 1 quizz on moodle, 1 report on labs

At the end of this module, the student will have understood and be able to explain:

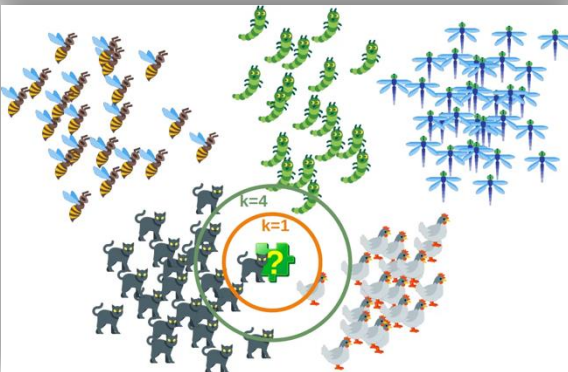
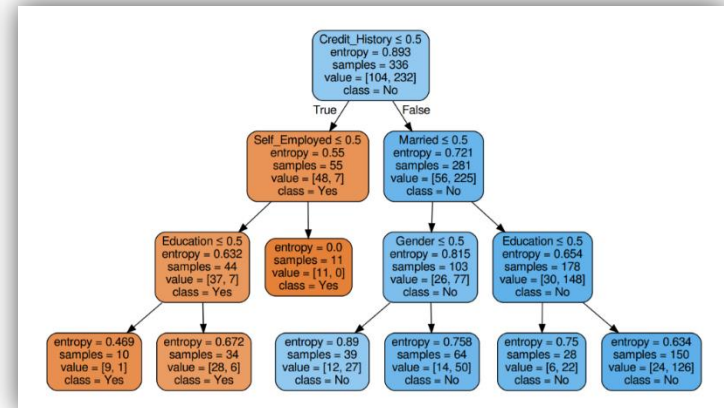
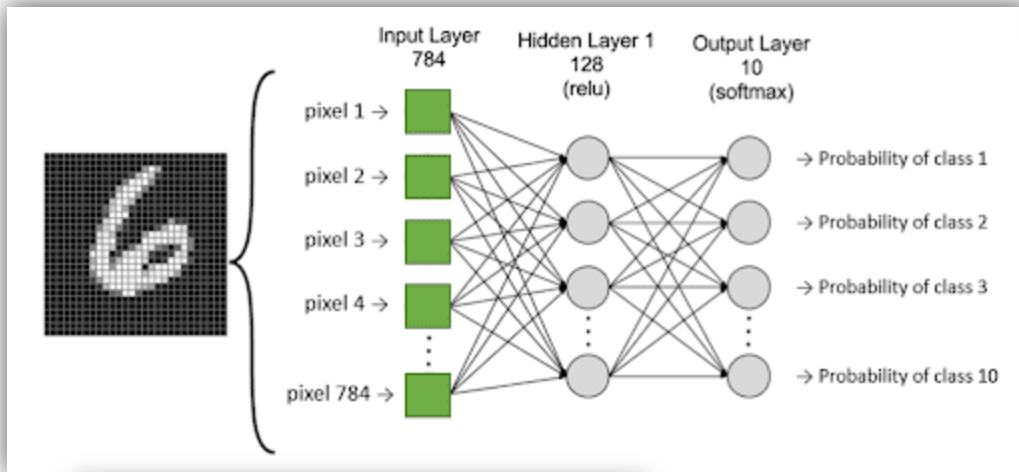
- The **characteristics of supervised learning problems** (data sets, classification / regression, learning process, evaluation of learning models)
- the **main basic methods and algorithms** to deal with these problems (neural networks and interpretable models)

## A short teaser: what you will be able to do after this course

- set up a learning process
- use the algorithms implemented in existing libraries
- adapt and develop your own algorithms
- present and explain the results of learning algorithms
- program ML in Python

### The Confusion Matrix

		ACTUAL	
		POSITIVE	NEGATIVE
PREDICTED	Positive	TRUE POSITIVE	FALSE POSITIVE Type I Error
	Negative	FALSE NEGATIVE Type II Error	TRUE NEGATIVE



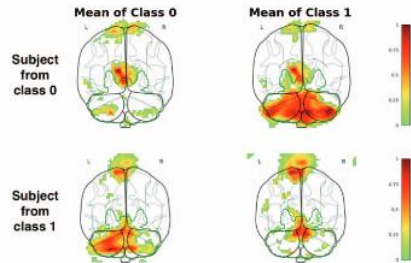


Figure 7: Visualization of the absolute distance between the activation maps from a random subject of both classes and the mean activation map on the training dataset for cerebellum and putamen abnormal-induced data. The green line contours putamen and cerebellum areas.

Villain, Edouard, et al. "Visual interpretation of CNN decision-making process using Simulated Brain MRI." 2021 IEEE 34th International Symposium on Computer-Based Medical Systems (CBMS). IEEE, 2021.

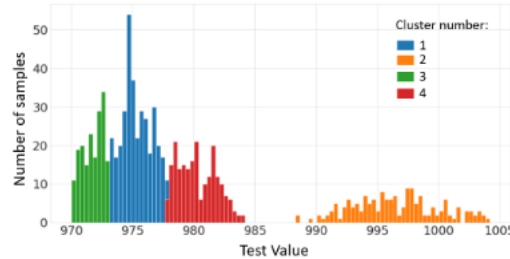


Figure 7. Histogram of the classes of the period number 3

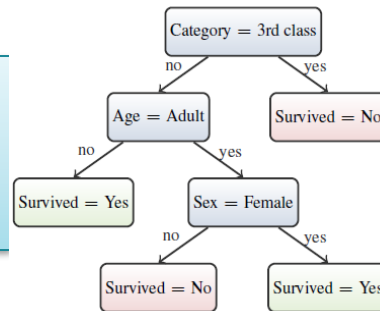
Alexandre Gaffet, et al. Data-Driven Capability-based Health Monitoring Method for Automotive Manufacturing. EUROPEAN CONFERENCE OF THE PROGNOSTICS AND HEALTH MANAGEMENT SOCIETY (PHM Europe), PHM society, Jun 2021, Turin (virtual), Italy

Data-based diagnosis and prognosis

Model learning for health monitoring

## Interpretable methods

- Decision trees
- rules



IF Age = Adult  $\wedge$  Sex  $\neq$  Female THEN Survived = No  
ELSE IF Category  $\neq$  3rd class THEN Survived = Yes  
ELSE Survived = No

Combinatory methods (MaxSAT) for interpretable models

Hu, Hao, et al. "Learning optimal decision trees with maxsat and its integration in adaboost." IJCAI-PRICAI 2020, 29th International Joint Conference on Artificial Intelligence and the 17th Pacific Rim International Conference on Artificial Intelligence. 2020.

```

if [capitalGain=5095.5] then [high]
else if [1881.5<capitalLoss<=1978.5] then [high]
else if [education:hs_grad AND capitalLoss<=1534.0] then [low]
else if [occupation:whiteCollar AND hoursPerWeek>=40.5] then [high]
else [low]
  
```

Error=0,183  
Unf=0,066



```

if [education:hs_grad AND hoursPerWeek>=40.5] then [low]
else if [35.5<age<=61.5 AND occupation:professional] then [high]
else if [capitalGain=7073.5] then [high]
else [low]
  
```

Error=0,208  
Unf=0,0036

Combinatory problems (Branch and Bound) for interpretable fair models

FairCORELS, an Open-Source Library for Learning Fair Rule Lists. U. Aïvodji, J. Ferry, S. Gambs, M-J. Huguet, M. Siala - ACM International Conference on Information and Knowledge Management (CIKM), November 1-5, 2021

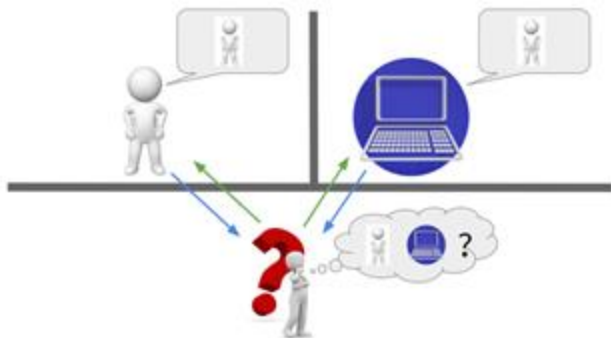
# Introduction on AI and Supervised Learning

**What is AI?**  
**What is Machine Learning?**  
**What is Supervised Learning?**

**1950's** : idea : do not define AI, but test it → Turing test intended to test whether or not a machine has the ability to imitate human intelligence

**1956:** AI as a scientific field (conference at Darmouth College)

*"The main components of an AI system should be knowledge, reasoning, natural language understanding and learning."* A. Turing



## empirique

## théorique

Systems that think like humans	Systems that think rationally
<p>"The exciting new effort to make computers think ... <i>machines with minds</i>, in the full and literal sense." (Haugeland, 1985)</p> <p>"[The automation of] activities that we associate with human thinking, activities such as decision-making, problem solving, learning ..." (Bellman, 1978)</p>	<p>"The study of mental faculties through the use of computational models." (Charniak and McDermott, 1985)</p> <p>"The study of the computations that make it possible to perceive, reason, and act." (Winston, 1992)</p>
Systems that act like humans	Systems that act rationally
<p>"The art of creating machines that perform functions that require intelligence when performed by people." (Kurzweil, 1990)</p> <p>"The study of how to make computers do things at which, at the moment, people are better." (Rich and Knight, 1991)</p>	<p>"Computational Intelligence is the study of the design of intelligent agents." (Poole <i>et al.</i>, 1998)</p> <p>"AI ...is concerned with intelligent behavior in artifacts." (Nilsson, 1998)</p>

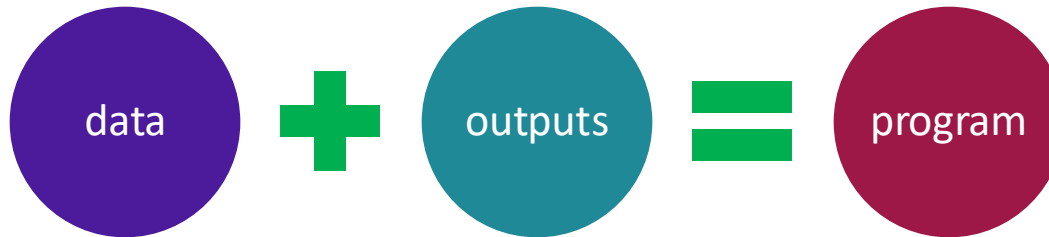
**Figure 1.1** Some definitions of artificial intelligence, organized into four categories.



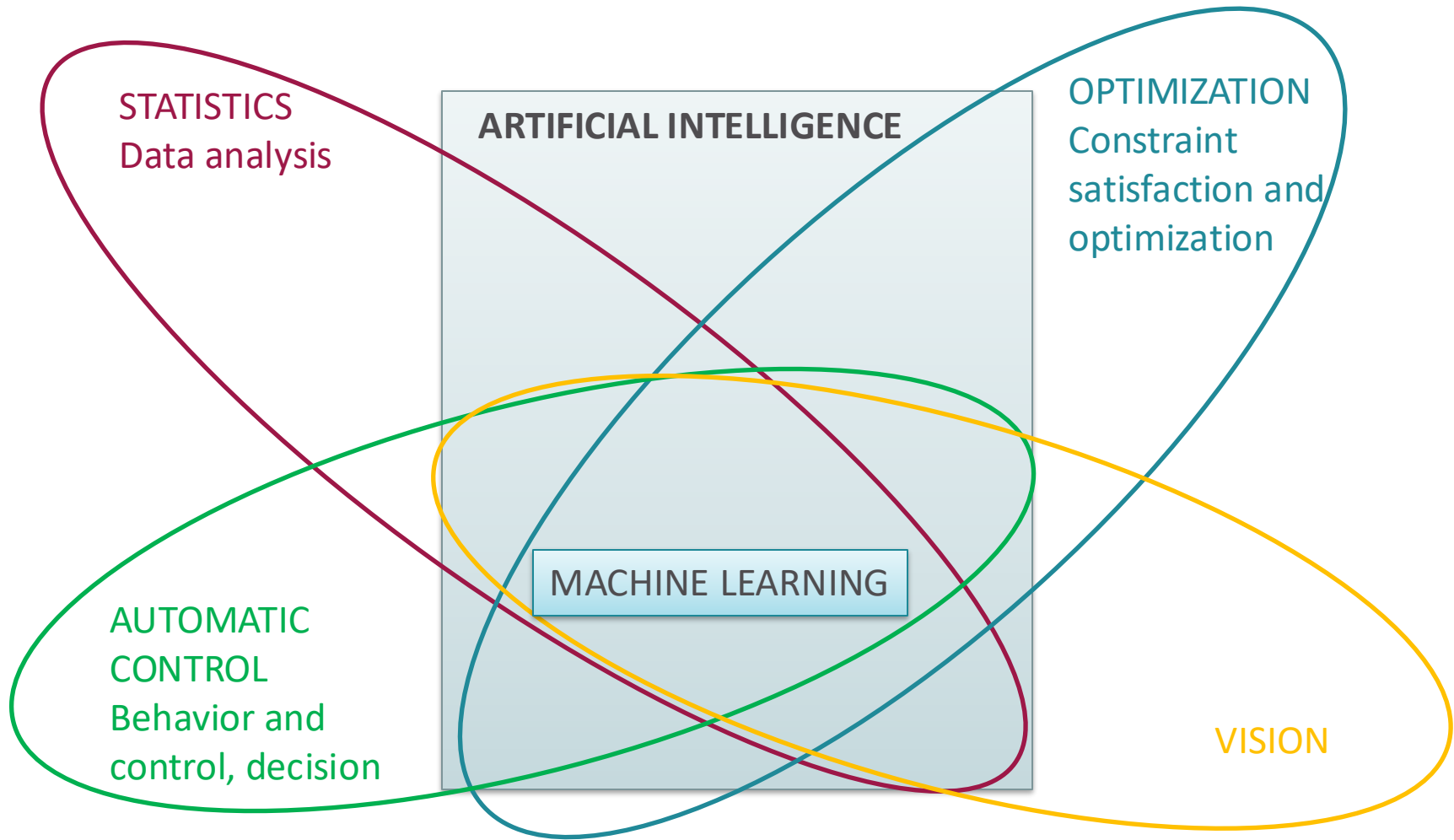
The traditional programming paradigm



Machine Learning



*“Machine Learning is the field of study that gives computers the ability to learn without being explicitly programmed”.* Arthur Samuel (1959)



# Artificial Intelligence

## Machine Learning

Natural  
Language  
Processing (NLP)

Reasoning

Planning

Knowledge  
Representation  
and Reasoning

Vision

Motion and  
Manipulation

Multitagent  
Systems

General  
Intelligence

Supervised  
Learning

Semi-supervised  
Learning

Unsupervised  
Learning

Reinforcement  
Learning

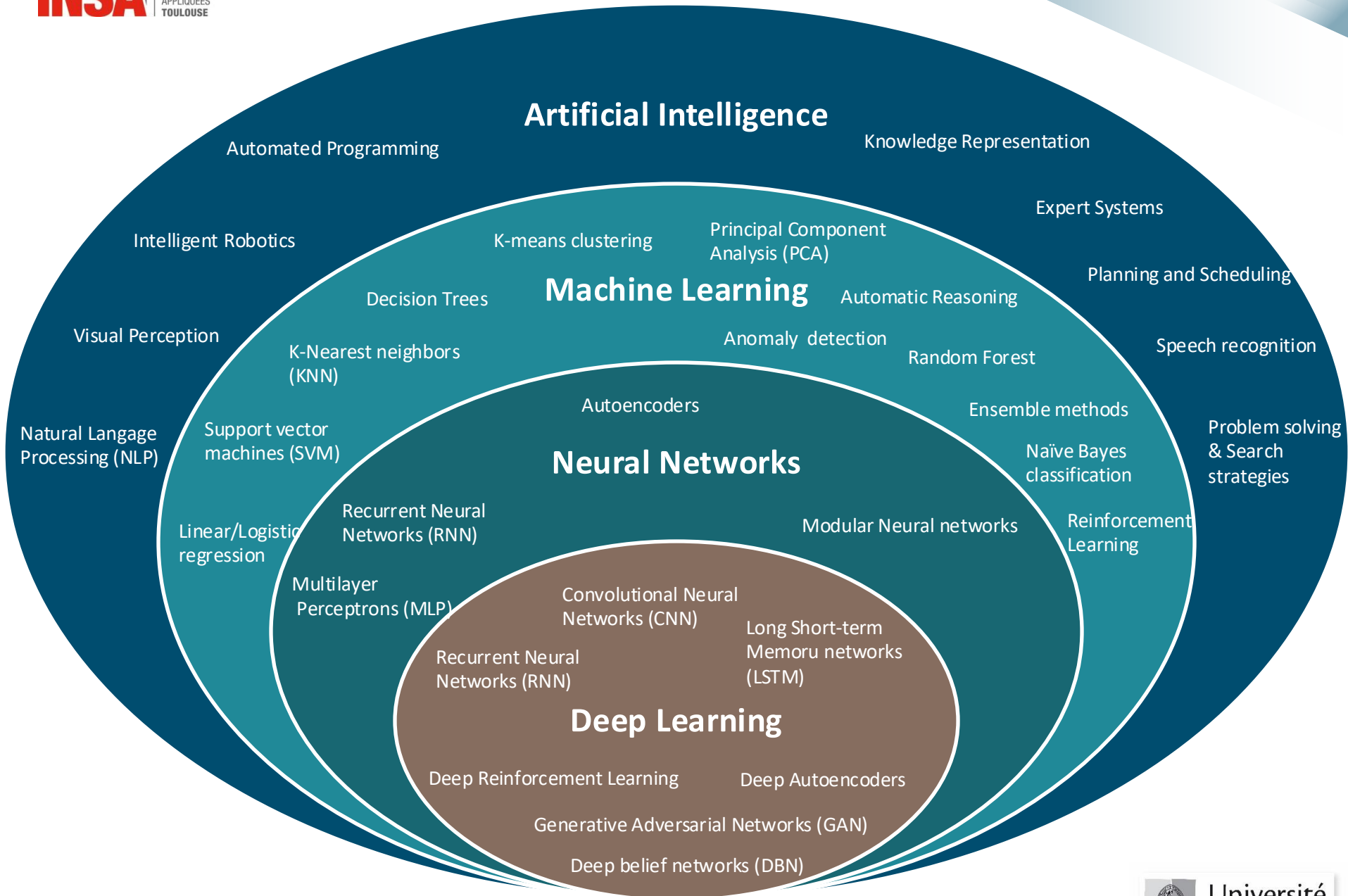
Transfert  
Learning

Deep Learning



**Machine Learning is a subset of Artificial Intelligence.** The term Artificial Intelligence is often used wrongly (buzzword in the sense of global intelligence).

**Not all AI systems involve machine learning:** ex Deep Blue executes the alpha-beta search algorithm: it is not ML



- Diagnostic support systems
- High stake decision-making systems
- Games
- Pattern recognition: email spam detection, fingerprint/face detection and matching
- System control: self-driving cars (Uber, Tesla), automatic control, sort (post office)
- Automatic translation (initiated during the war) (google translate, deepl)
- Voice synthesizer, smart assistants (Apple Siri, Amazon Alexa...)
- Finance/industry: cost of living forecasting, stock predictions
- Sports prediction, product recommendation (Netflix, Amazon...)
- Drug design, medical diagnoses (EEG and ECG analysis)

...



# Machine Learning

Supervised  
Learning

Semi-  
supervised  
Learning

Unsupervised  
Learning

Reinforcement  
Learning

Transfer  
Learning

Deep Learning

## Supervised Learning

- Labeled data
- Direct feedback
- Predict outcome/future

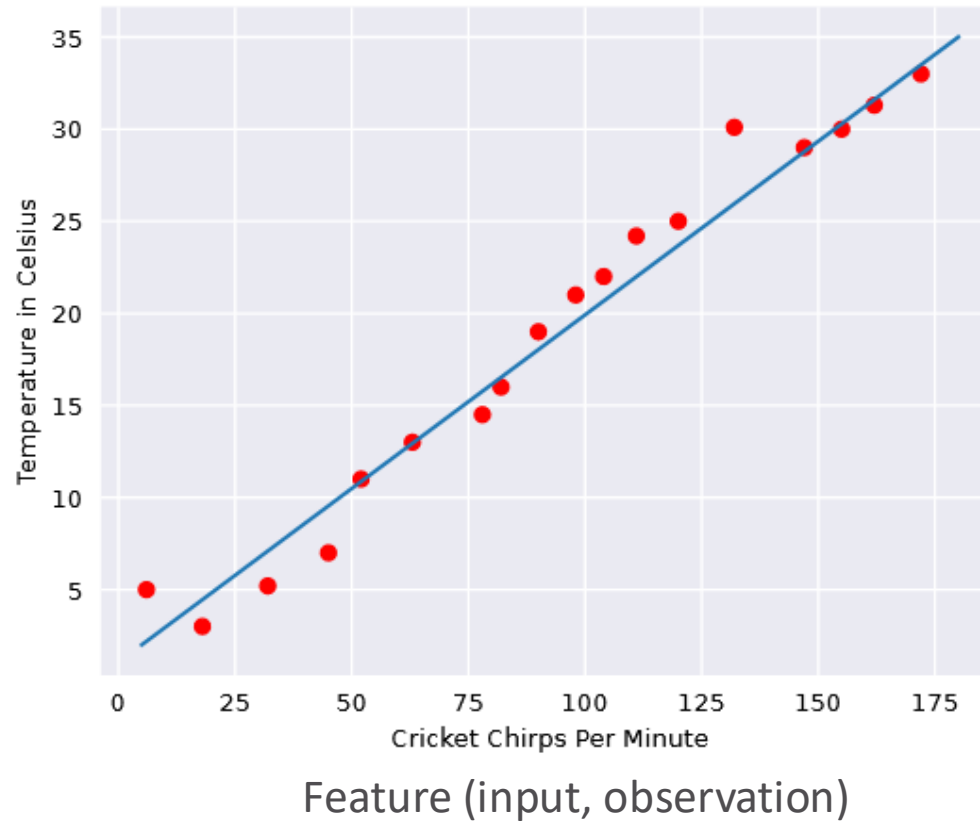
**Source:** Raschka and Mirjalily (2019). *Python Machine Learning, 3rd Edition*

**Input:** a set of data for which we know the class (classification) said to be **annotated/labeled** with their outputs or the result of the function (regression): these values are called targets or labeled data.

**Goal:** an algorithm/model that can predict from new data  $x^* \rightarrow y^*$  once it has been "trained" by  $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), (x_3, y_3), \dots$

## Supervised Learning (1): regression

Target (dependent  
variable, output)

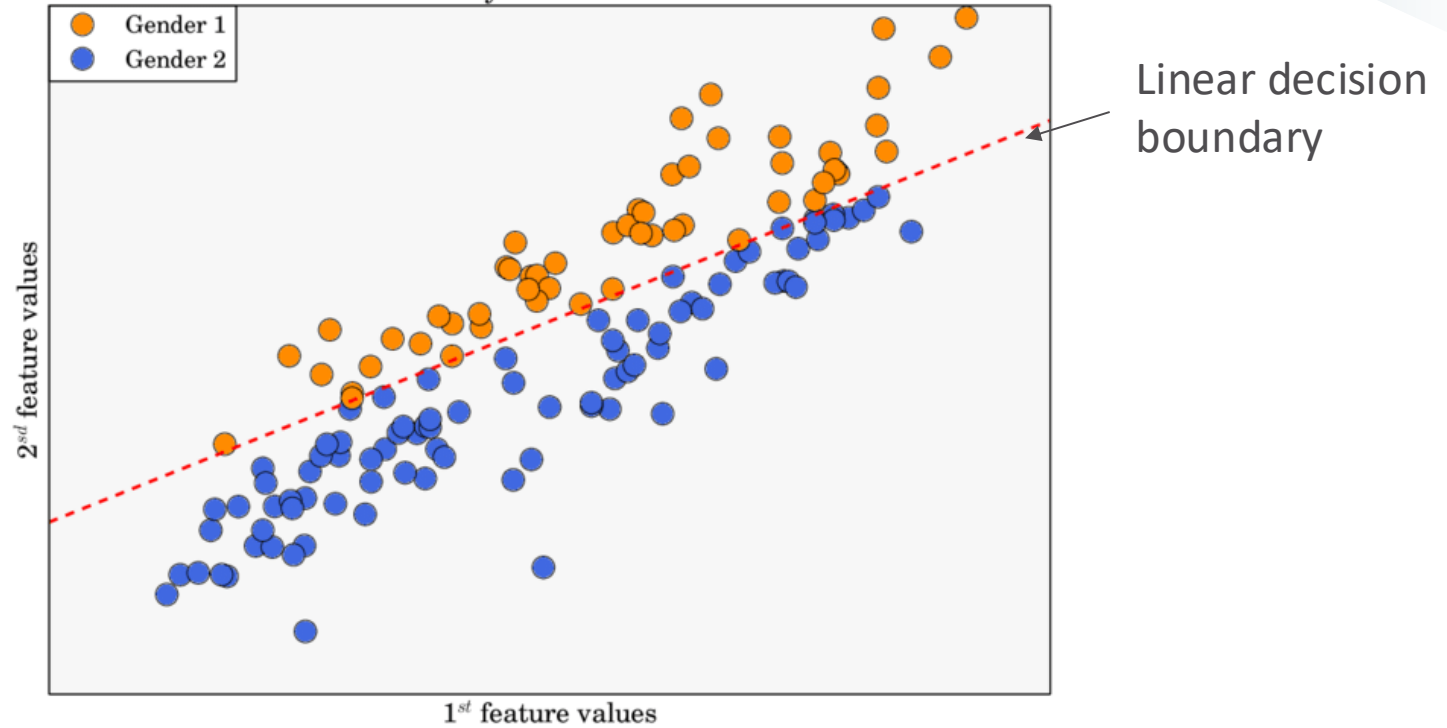


To **infer** (predict) the temperature for a new chirps-per-minute value, just substitute the value into the blue model.



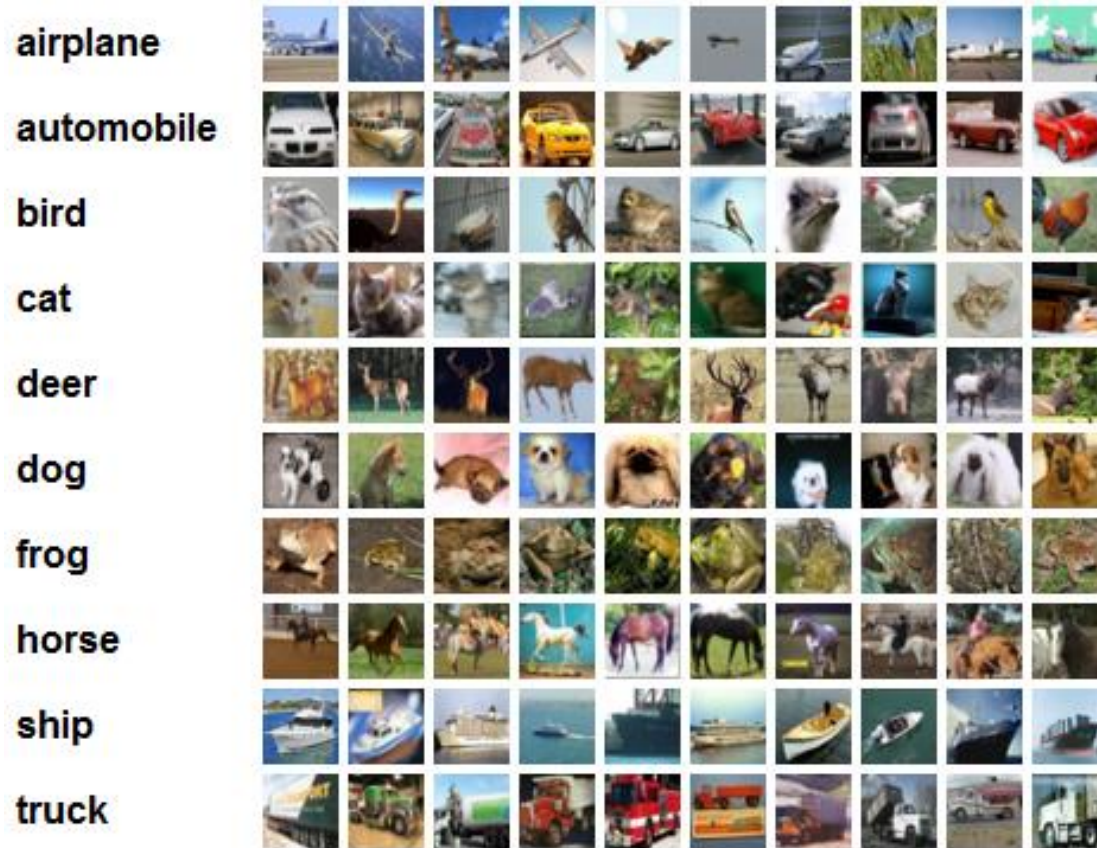
## Supervised Learning (2): classification

Illustration of the supervised machine learning  
in a binary classification task



Kawala, François. (2015). Activity prediction in social-networks.

## Supervised Learning (3): classification



Input data: labeled images

Target: photo category

## Unsupervised Learning

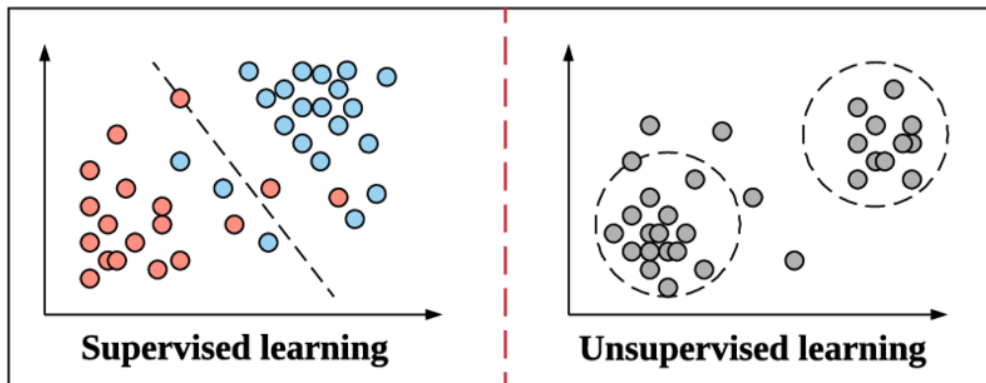
- No labels/targets
- No feedback
- Find hidden structure in data

(Won't cover this in this course)  
But in 5<sup>th</sup> year! (SIEC)

**Source:** Raschka and Mirjalily (2019). *Python Machine Learning, 3rd Edition*

**Inputs:** unlabeled data, the targets are unknown

**Goal:** group the data  $x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots$  by similarity and discover the relationship with structural latent variables:  $x_i \rightarrow y_i$



## Semisupervised Learning

- Some training examples contain outputs, but some do not
- Use the labeled training subset to label the unlabeled portion of the training set  
→ model training

- A recent development, promising research trend in deep learning
- Useful if pre-trained models for transfer learning are not available

## Reinforcement Learning

- Based on an experience/reward cycle
- Decision process that improves performance with each iteration, reward system
- The “dopamine” effect



**Data**



**Supervised learning** ML systems learn how to combine input to produce useful predictions on never-before-seen data

**Labels** A label is the thing we're predict  $y$

Ex: the future price of house, the kind of animal shown in a picture, the meaning of an audio clip

**Features/attributes/variables** A feature is an input variable.

A simple ML model uses a single feature  $x$ ; a more sophisticated ML model could use millions of features:  $x_1, \dots, x_N$

**Examples/samples/instances/point/vector** An example is a particular instance of data  $x$ , it is made up of attributes

It is assume the data set consists of  $N$  **samples**

housingMedianAge (feature)	totalRooms (feature)	totalBedrooms (feature)	medianHouseValue (label)
15	5612	1283	66900
19	7650	1901	80100
17	720	174	85700
14	1501	337	73400
20	1454	326	65500

Labeled examples from a data set containing information about housing prices in California

housingMedianAge (feature)	totalRooms (feature)	totalBedrooms (feature)
42	1686	361
34	1226	180
33	1077	271

Unlabeled examples about housing prices in California

sepal_length	sepal_width	petal_length	petal_width	Iris_class
5	2	3.5	1	versicolor
6	2.2	4	1	versicolor
6.2	2.2	4.5	1.5	versicolor
6	2.2	5	1.5	virginica
4.5	2.3	1.3	0.3	setosa
5.5	2.3	4	1.3	versicolor
6.3	2.3	4.4	1.3	versicolor
5	2.3	3.3	1	versicolor
4.9	2.4	3.3	1	versicolor
5.5	2.4	3.8	1.1	versicolor
5.5	2.4	3.7	1	versicolor
5.6	2.5	3.9	1.1	versicolor
6.3	2.5	4.9	1.5	versicolor
5.5	2.5	4	1.3	versicolor
5.1	2.5	3	1.1	versicolor
4.9	2.5	4.5	1.7	virginica
6.7	2.5	5.8	1.8	virginica
5.7	2.5	5	2	virginica
6.3	2.5	5	1.9	virginica
5.7	2.6	3.5	1	versicolor
5.5	2.6	4.4	1.2	versicolor
5.8	2.6	4	1.2	versicolor

←  
Categorical  
value

What does the green line represent?

1. Attributes
2. One sample
3. Several samples

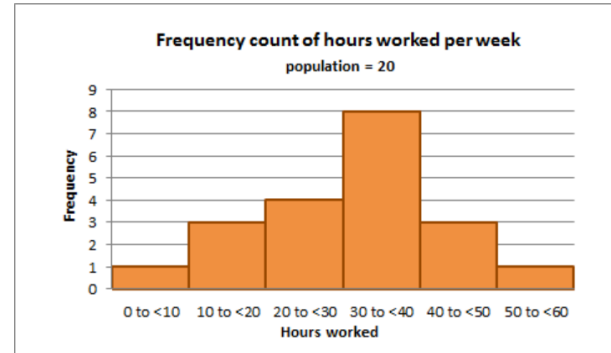


Suppose you want to develop a supervised ML model to predict whether a given email is “spam” or “not spam”. Which of the following statements is true?

1. Word in the subject header will make good labels
2. Unlabeled example will be used to train the model
3. Emails not marked as “spam” or “not spam” are unlabeled examples
4. By hypothesis, all the labels applied to examples are reliable

## Quantitative/Numerical data

- Can be counted, data are exact numbers, but they are not ordered
- Ex: house prices, speed, frequency
- Can be **continuous** (temperature, speed) or **discrete/binary** (number of cycles)
- Special mention for **time** and **interval**



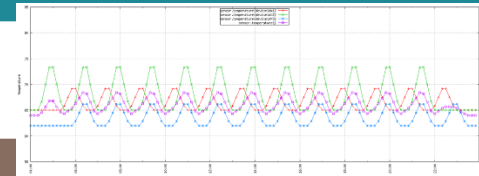
## Qualitative/Categorical data

- Can't be counted, represents characteristics
- Ex: gender, color, team
- Can take numerical values that do not have mathematical meaning
- Can be **nominal** (not ordered, ex: gender, color) or **ordinal** (small<medium<large)
- could the class label



## Time series data

- A sequence of numbers collected at regular intervals over some period of time
- Values are ordered : there is a first data point and a last data point collected
- Ex: the voltage value during 10 sec



Text

## Video

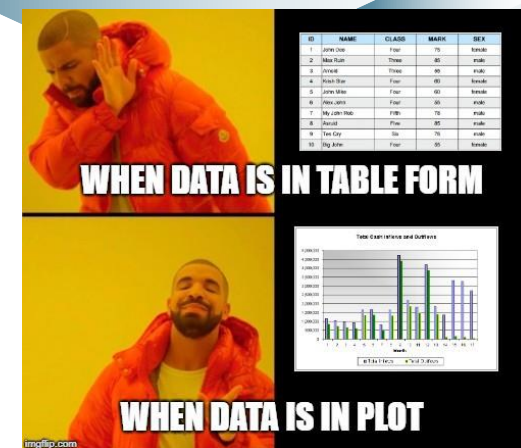
## Audio

Image



- **Transactional logs:** record a **specific event**.  
Ex: record an open command, plus date and time
- **Attribute data:** contain snapshots of information.  
Ex: user demographics
- **Aggregate statistics:** create an attribute from multiple transactional logs.  
Ex: average of a signal value

- Why visualization? For understandability, for intuition, for explainability
- How? → there are very good packages for visualization
  - Common languages: R (more a statistical language), Python (widely used for ML and data science)
  - Packages: scikit, matplotlib, seaborn...
- How to work with big dimensionality? Dimensionality reduction techniques ([PCA](#), [TSNE](#), [LDA](#)...)



- Univariate analysis: plot a single feature to analyze its properties

Box plot

Violin plot

Distribution plot

Joint plot

- Bivariate analysis: compare exactly 2 features

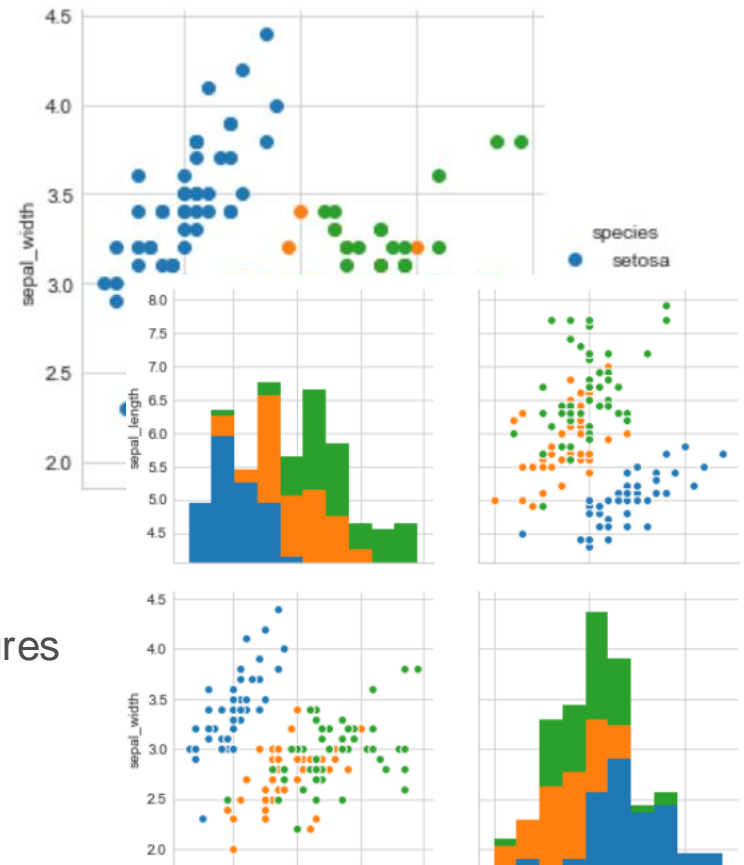
Scatter plot

Bar chart

Line plot

- Multivariate analysis: compare more than 2 features

Pair plot: a nxn figure with



Pair plot

- The **quality** and **size of the data set** matter much more than which shiny algorithm you use

### Google Translate

The Google Translate team has more training data than they can use. Rather than tuning their model, the team has earned bigger wins by using the best features in their data.

"Interesting-looking" errors are typically caused by the data. Faulty data may cause your model to learn the wrong patterns, regardless of what modeling techniques you try.

- As a rough rule of thumb, your model should **train on at least an order of magnitude more examples than trainable parameters**.
- What is “a lot” of data?

Data set	Size (number of examples)
<a href="#">Iris flower data set</a>	150 (total set)
<a href="#">MovieLens (the 20M data set)</a>	20,000,263 (total set)
<a href="#">Google Gmail SmartReply</a>	238,000,000 (training set)
Google Books Ngram	468,000,000,000 (total set)
Google Translate	trillions

- Amount of data depends on the complexity of the “true” function
  - If the true function is simple, a small amount of data is enough for a learning algorithm with high bias and low variance
  - If the true function is complex, a very large amount of data will be necessary and the algorithm should be with low bias and high variance

- **Rule 1: be pragmatic** → a quality set is one that accomplishes its intended task
- **3 quality criteria:**
  - Reliability
  - Feature representation
  - Minimizing skew



Represents how much you can trust the data

- Depends on the **label errors** (ex: if the data are labeled by humans → mistakes)
- Depends on the **noise** on the features (ex: GPS measurements)
- Depends if the data are **appropriate** for the problem (ex: bias)

Examples:

- Omitted values in a data base
- Duplicated examples
- Bad labels
- Bad feature values (sensor failures for example)

In your machine learning project, how much time will you typically spend on data preparation and transformation?


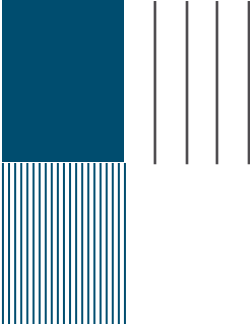
1. Less than half time of the project
2. More than half time of the project

- How is data shown to the model?
- Should you **normalize** numeric values? Are the features scaled to similar ranges?  
Methods that employs distance are sensitive to this → SVM, KNN perform poorly
- How should you handle **outliers**?
- Is there some redundancy/interaction in the data or not ?
  - If each of the features makes an independent contribution to the output  
linear regression, SVM, naive Bayes and distance-based algorithms (KNN) perform well
  - If there are complex interactions among features  
Linear regression, distance based methods will perform poorly, decision trees and neural networks work better



# De quand date l'Intelligence Artificielle?

1. Des 10 dernières années
2. Des années 2000
3. Des années 70
4. Des années 50



Quelle approche d'apprentissage est utilisée lorsque l'algorithme s'améliore en fonction de son expérience antérieure?

- 1) Apprentissage supervisé
- 2) Apprentissage non supervisé
- 3) Apprentissage par renforcement
- 4) Apprentissage semi-supervisé



Quelle est la différence entre l'apprentissage supervisé et l'apprentissage non supervisé?

- 1) La présence ou l'absence d'un modèle
- 2) La présence ou l'absence d'étiquettes dans les données d'entraînement
- 3) La complexité des algorithmes utilisés
- 4) Le nombre de layers dans le modèle

## Minimizing skew (distorsion): training vs prediction

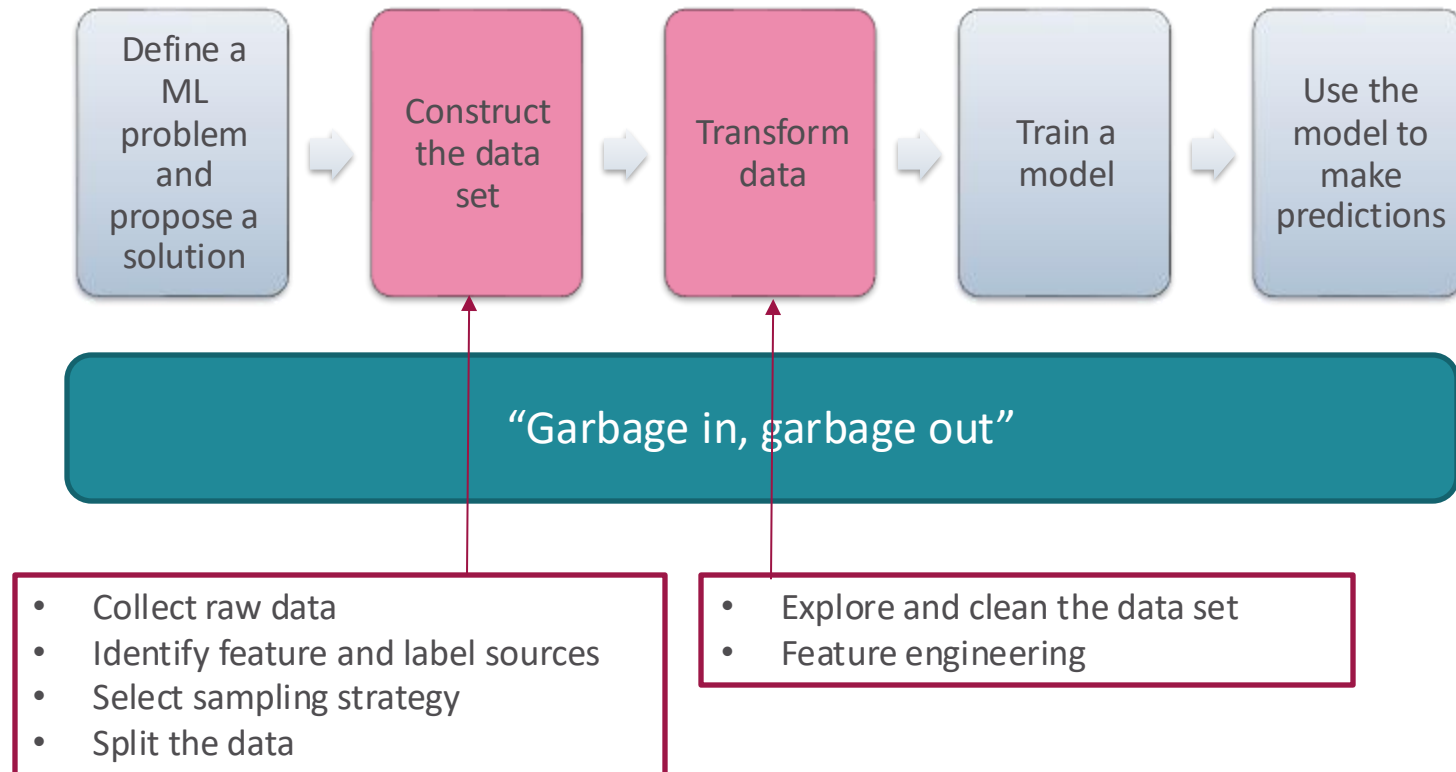
- Sometimes we get great results offline and very bad results online
  - It is a training/serving skew (distorsion apprentissage/reconnaissance)
  - Always consider what data is available to your model **at prediction time**. During training, use only the features that you'll have available in serving, and make sure your training set is representative of your serving traffic.

The more closely the training task matches the prediction task, the better the ML system will perform

- Online: latency is concern, the system must generate input quickly
- Offline: no computation restrictions



## Data preparation



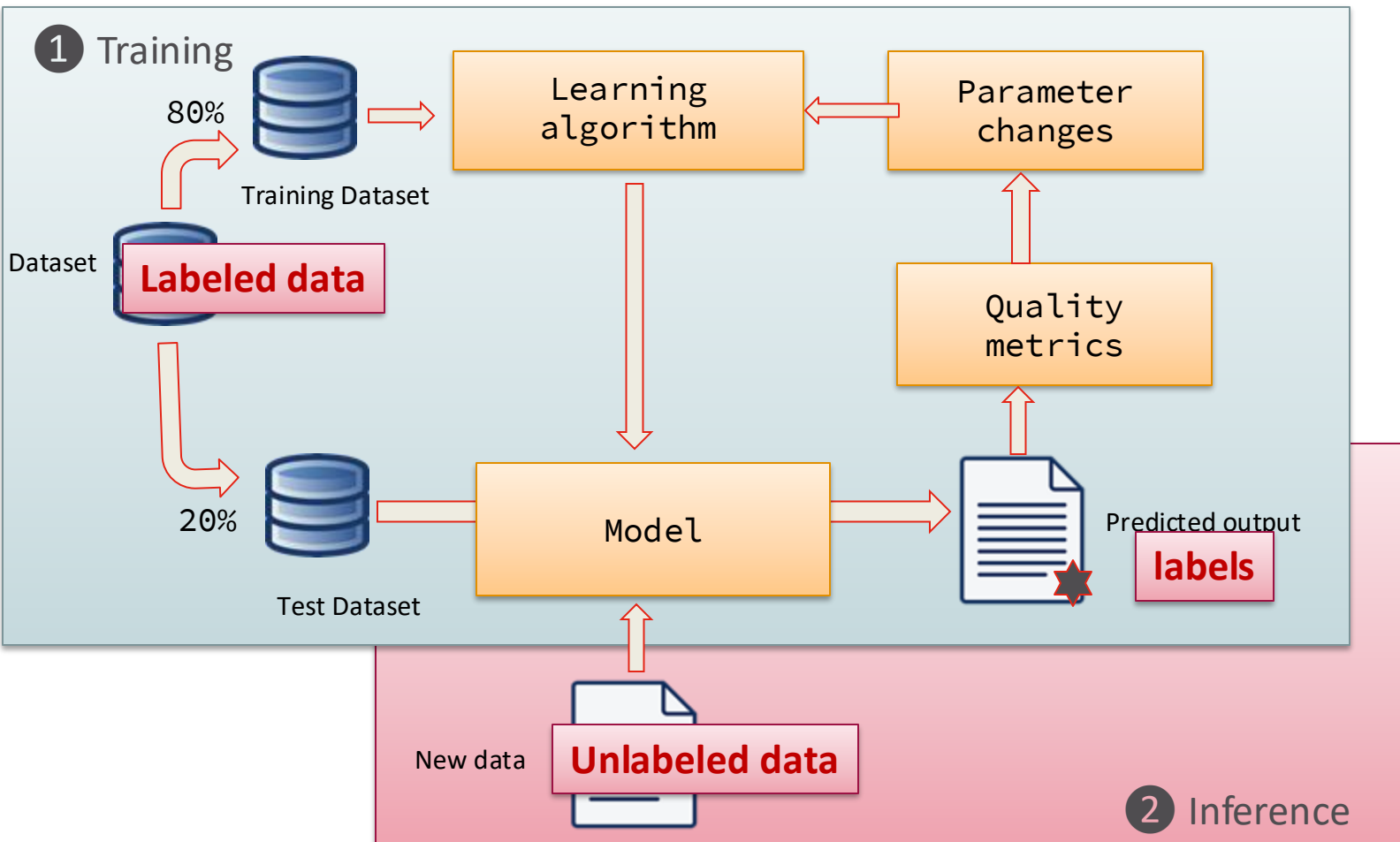
### Caution:

- this process is a typical process, not ideal for every process
- The process is not always sequential (more data needed, modification of the feature set even after training)

## The ML workflow

A machine learning problem has different specific elements:

- The data (training data but also new data)
- The specific task to be accomplished (predict, recommend, decide something, etc.)
- The learning algorithm itself
- The error analysis (or measurement of the model performance)



Suppose we must choose between two possible ways to fit some data. How do we choose between them?

→ Simple solution: try to fit the data as closely as possible.

Problem: the generalization to new measurements

→ Solution: evaluate models by **testing them on a new data set** (the “test set”), distinct from the training set. Model validation: estimating the reliability of a model

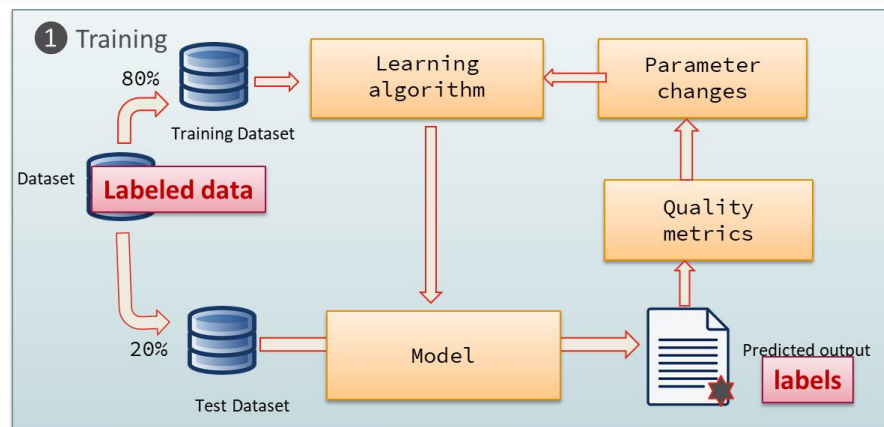
**Cross-validation is a method for estimating the reliability of a model based on a sampling technique.**

### **3 methods:**

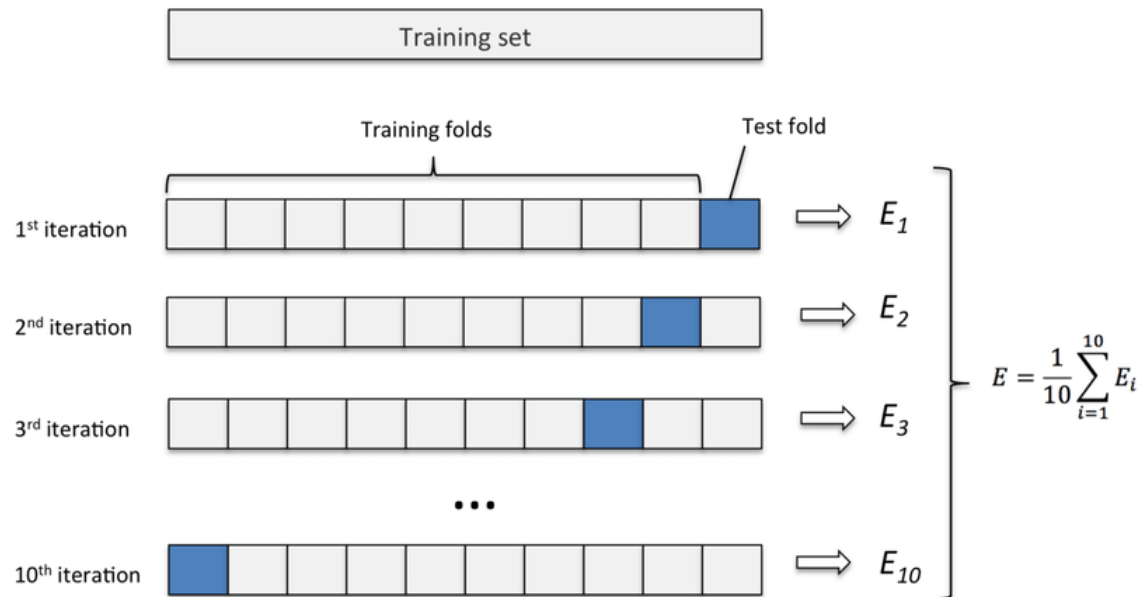
1. "testset validation" or "hold-out validation"
2. "k-fold cross-validation"
3. "leave-one-out cross-validation" (LOOCV).

The simplest method:

1. Partition the data randomly into a **training set** (usually > 60%) and a **validation set (hold-out set)**
2. For a set of chosen values for hyperparameters, learn a model on the training set
3. Compute the model’s error on the validation set (see metrics)
4. Pick the best hyperparameter which has the smallest validation set error and retrain the model

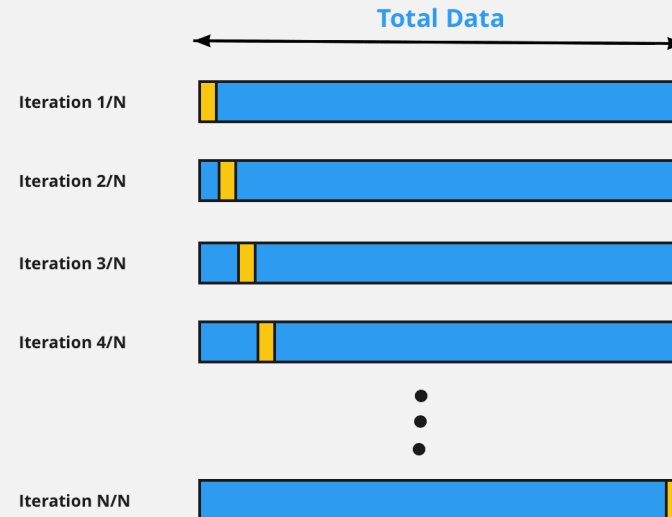


1. Randomly partition the training data into **K sets of equal size**
2. **Run the learning algorithm K times**: each time, a different one of the K sets is deemed the test set, and the model is trained on the remaining K-1 sets
3. The hyperparameter score is the average of the error across the K tests
4. **Pick the best hyperparameters** and **retrain** the model



- K-fold cross validation with  $K = M - 1$ , with  $M$  the number of data points

## LOOCV: Leave One Out Cross Validation



dataaspirant.com

**Confusion Matrix:** describes the complete performance of the model

Predicted class	True class	
	Positive	Negative
Positive	True positive (TP)	False Positive (FP)
Negative	False Negative (FN)	True Negative (TN)

Confusion Matrix						
Output Class	BRCA	KIRC	LUAD	LUSC	UCEC	
	342 41.0%	2 0.2%	3 0.4%	4 0.5%	1 0.1%	97.2% 2.8%
	3 0.4%	211 25.3%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	98.6% 1.4%
	4 0.5%	1 0.1%	54 6.5%	13 1.6%	3 0.4%	72.0% 28.0%
	2 0.2%	1 0.1%	8 1.0%	79 9.5%	0 0.0%	87.8% 12.2%
	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	104 12.5%	100% 0.0%
						94.6% 5.4%
Target Class						
						BRCA KIRC LUAD LUSC UCEC





- **Classification Accuracy**: ratio of number of correct predictions to the total number of input samples.

$$Accuracy = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + FP + FN + TN}$$

		True class	
		Positive	Negative
Predicted class	Positive	True positive (TP)	False Positive (FP)
	Negative	False Negative (FN)	True Negative (TN)

Works well if there are equal number of samples belonging to each class.

Predicted class	True class	
	Positive	Negative
Positive	True positive (TP)	False Positive (FP)
Negative	False Negative (FN)	True Negative (TN)

- **Sensitivity/Recall (proba de detection)**: True Positive Rate, corresponds to the proportion of positive data points that are correctly considered as positive, with respect to all positive data points.

$$TPR = \frac{TP}{FN + TP}$$

Ex: Rapid COVID-19 antigen-test :  
97,3% sensitivity

- **Specificity**: True Negative Rate, corresponds to the proportion of negative data points that are correctly considered as negative, with respect to all negative data points.

$$TNR = \frac{TN}{FP + TN}$$

Ex: Rapid COVID-19 antigen-test :  
100% specificity

For example, if the sensitivity is 100% and the specificity is 50%, this means that all infected people will be detected as positive, however, many people who are not infected will be mistakenly identified as positive (false positives).

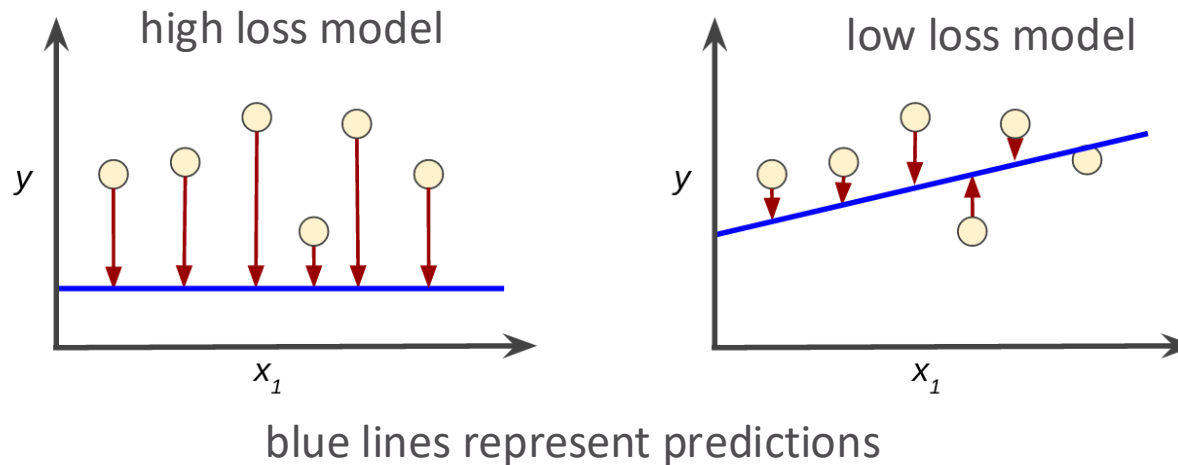
- **False Positive Rate**, corresponds to the proportion of negative data points that are mistakenly considered as positive, with respect to all negative data points.

$$FPR = \frac{FP}{FP + TN}$$

**Loss** is a number indicating how bad the model's prediction was on a single example.

**If the model's prediction is perfect, the loss is zero; otherwise, the loss is greater.**

The goal of training a model is to find a set of weights and biases that have **low** loss, on average, across all examples.



- **$L_1$  loss: Least Absolute Deviation** (LAD) is used to minimize the error which is the sum of the all the **absolute** differences between the true value and the predicted value.

$$L_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n |\hat{y}_i - y_i|$$

- **$L_2$  loss: Least Square Error** is used to minimize the error which is the sum of the all the **squared** differences between the true value and the predicted value.

$$L_2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{y}_i - y_i)^2$$

Generally,  $L_2$  is preferred in most of the cases (except when outliers are present in the dataset)

Note : It is possible to compute the  $L_1$  loss or the  $L_2$  loss for a single example

- **Mean Absolute Error (MAE) (empirical  $L_1$  loss):** average of the difference between the original values  $y_i$  and the predicted values  $\hat{y}_i$ . No info about the direction of the error (under or over prediction)

$$MAE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n |\hat{y}_i - y_i|$$

- **Mean Squared Error (MSE) Loss (empirical  $L_2$  loss):** takes the average of the square of the difference between the original values and the predicted values. The goal is to reduce MSE

Advantages: easier to compute a gradient, whereas the MAE requires complicated computations

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

- **Root Mean Square Error (RMSE)**  $RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{y}_i - y_i)^2}$

- **Binary Cross-entropy**: measures the performance of a classification model whose output is a probability value between 0 and 1. Cross-entropy loss **increases as the predicted probability value deviates from the actual label**. *Binary Cross Entropy is the negative average of the log of corrected predicted probabilities.*

$$-\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (\log(p_i))$$

- **Log loss**: the same but does not computes corrected probabilities

$$\text{Log loss} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N -(y_i \log(p_i) + (1 - y_i) \log(1 - p_i))$$

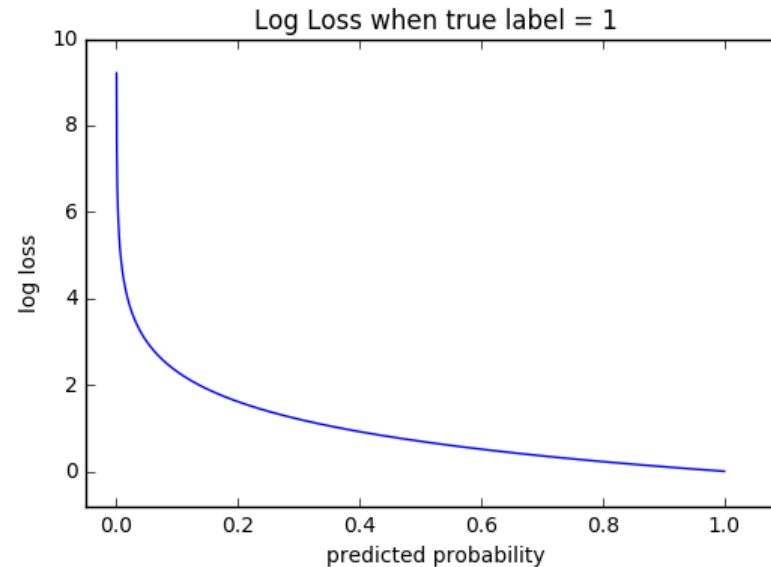
ID	Actual	Predicted probabilities	Corrected Probabilities	Log
ID6	1	0.94	0.94	-0.0268721464
ID1	1	0.90	0.90	-0.0457574906
ID7	1	0.78	0.78	-0.1079053973
ID8	0	0.56	0.44	-0.3565473235
ID2	0	0.51	0.49	-0.30980392
ID3	1	0.47	0.47	-0.3279021421
ID4	1	0.32	0.32	-0.4948500217
ID5	0	0.10	0.90	-0.0457574906

- **Binary Cross-Entropy for Multi-class classification**, N numbers of rows, M number of classes

$$\text{Log loss} = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^M y_{ij} \log(p_{ij})$$

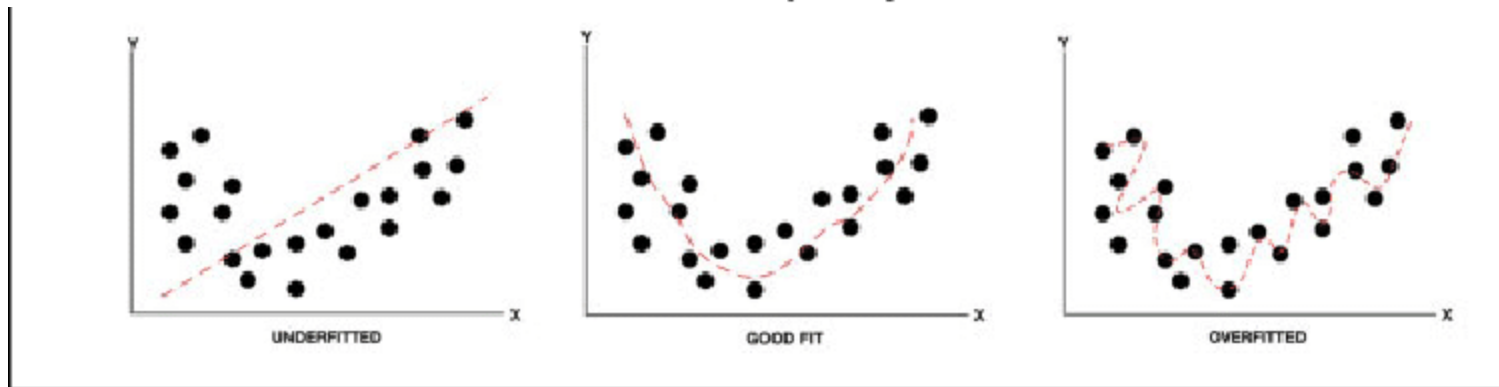
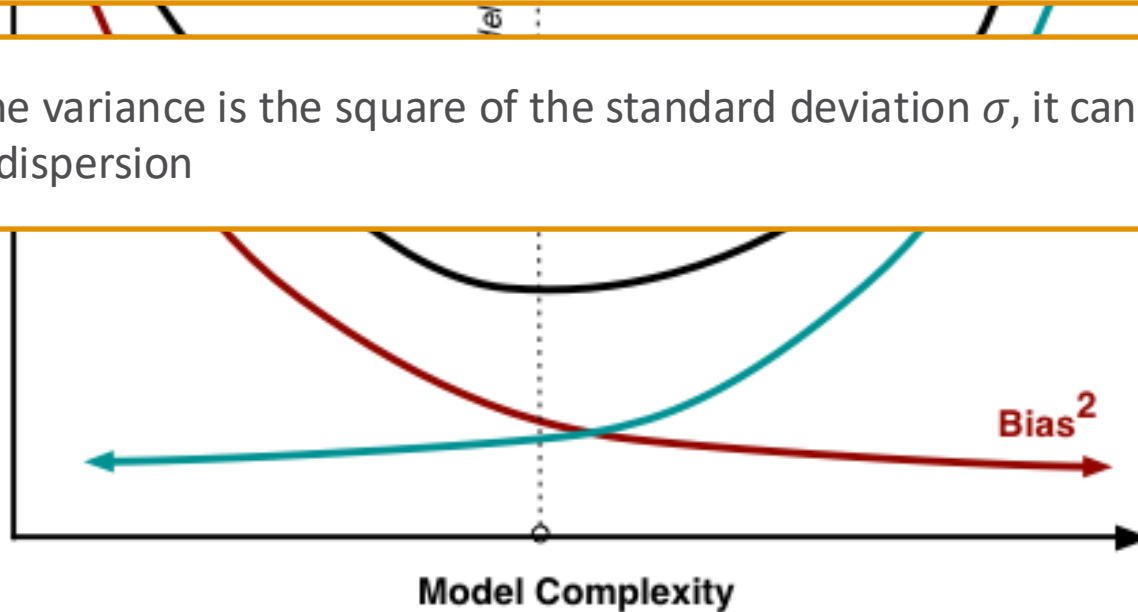
My model predicts a probability of 0,012 when the actual observation label is 1.

1. The value of the log loss will be close to 1
2. The value of the log loss will be greater than 1
3. The value of the log loss will be close to 0
4. The value of the log loss will be lower than 0

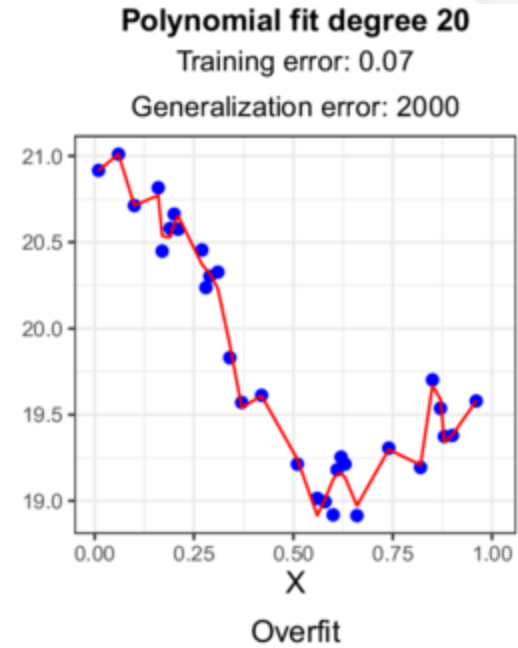
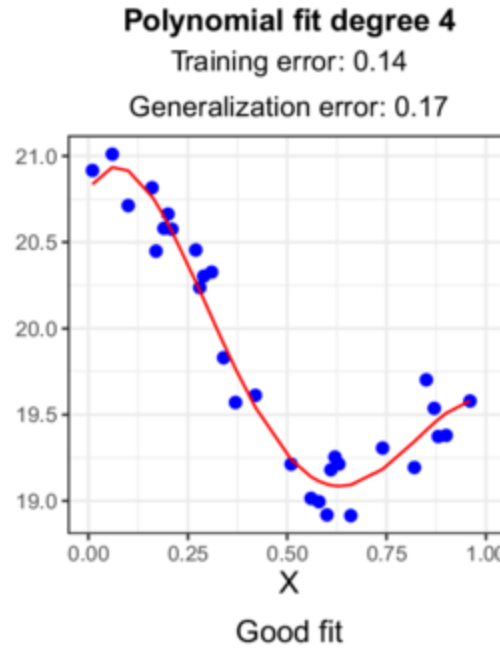
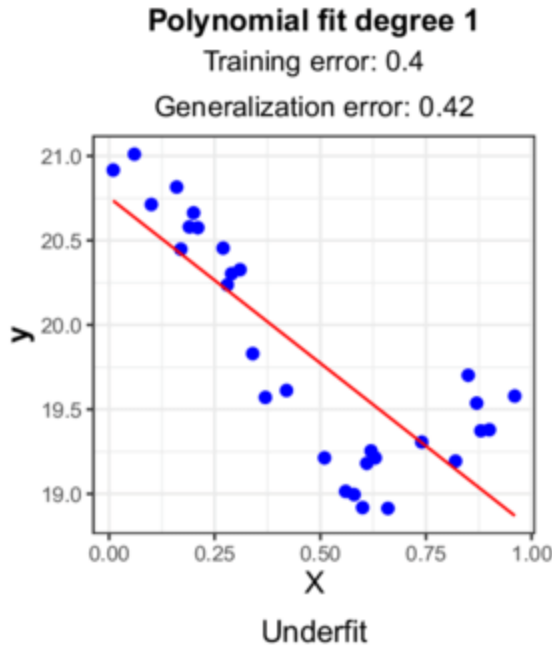


**Bias:** Let  $T$  be a statistic used to estimate a parameter  $\theta$ . If  $E(T) = \theta + b(\theta)$  then  $b(\theta)$  is called the bias of the statistic  $T$ .  $E(T)$  represents the expected value of the statistics  $T$ .

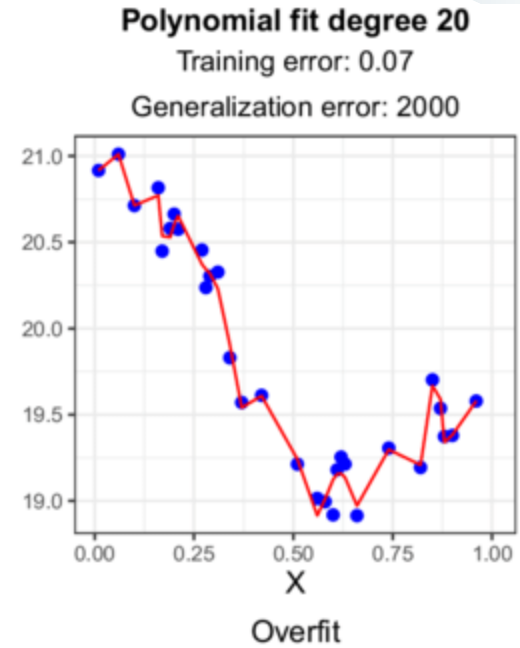
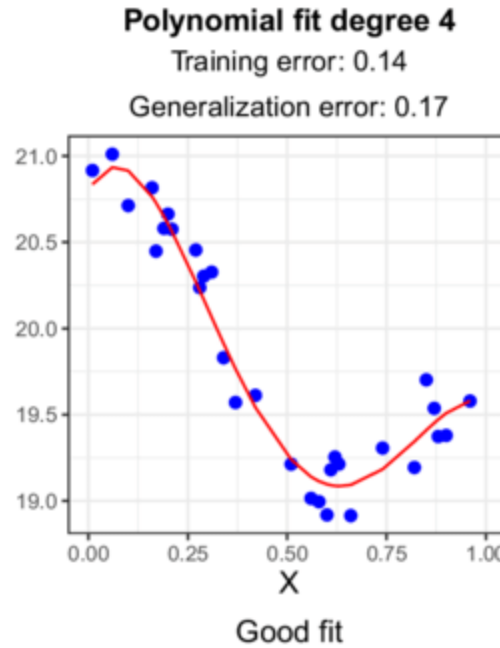
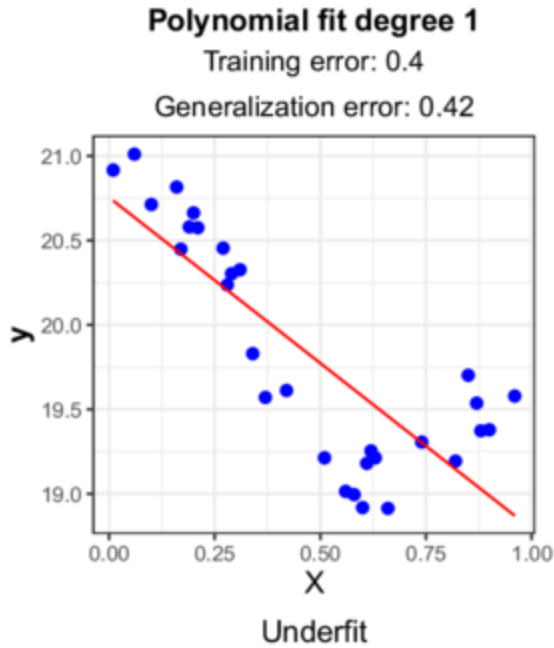
**Variance:** The variance is the square of the standard deviation  $\sigma$ , it can be seen as a measure of dispersion







- Attempting to fit the data too carefully leads to **overfitting (low bias, high variance)**
  - If the desired output values are often incorrect (human errors or sensor noise), the learning algorithm attempts to find a function that exactly matches the training examples
  - If the model has too many parameters
- Solutions:** early stopping, detecting and removing the noisy training examples prior training, smoothness assumption (either with the model directly, or with regularization terms in the optimization criterion)



- When a model is not complex enough to accurately capture relationships between features and target variables, it leads to **underfitting (high bias, low variance)**
- **Solutions:**
  - Decrease regularization term used to reduce the variance
  - Increase the duration of training
  - Feature selection
  - Increase the size of the model (more hidden neurons, add more trees...)

# Supervised learning: a guiding tour

