Introduction to Machine Learning with Python

Faculty of Mathematics and Computer Science, University of Bucharest

and

Sparktech Software

Team



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Objectives of this course

- Provide you with an intuitive understanding of fundamental Machine Learning notions and algorithms.
 - Sometimes the idea behind an algorithm is more important than the algorithm itself.
- At the same time, provide you with a clear mathematical foundation for them.
 - Understanding the *inner workings* of an algorithm allows you to truly take advantage of what it can do.
- Allow you to experiment hands-on with the notions discussed in the lecture.
 - Using *Python* with *NumPy*, *matplotlib*, *scikit-learn* and *TensorFlow*.
 - Make *connections* between theoretical and practical aspects.

Administrative

Lecture

- Wednesday, 16:00 18:00
- 3rd floor, Ţiţeica Amphitheatre

Evaluation

Lab attendance	1 point
3 homework assignments	6 points
Written exam	3 points

Labs

Wednesday, 18:00 – 20:00

Time Room	18:00 – 19:00	19:00 – 20:00
L-321	Group 1	Group 2
L-309	Opt. 3 rd year	Group 3

What is Machine Learning?

Machine Learning is everywhere



Game Playing



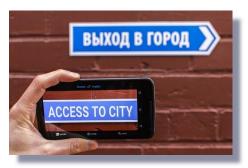
Intelligent Assistants



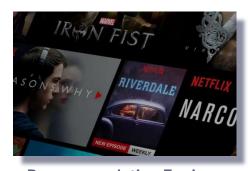
Self-driving Cars



Style Transfer

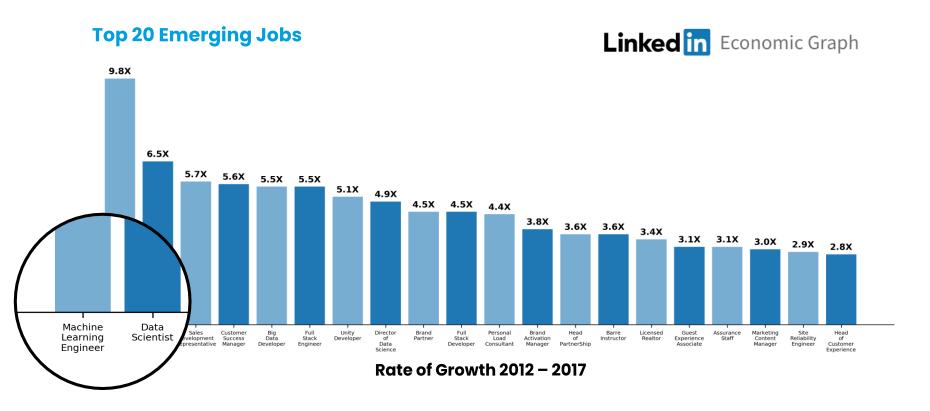


Machine Translation



Recommendation Engines

Machine Learning is everywhere



What is Machine Learning?

 Machine Learning: Field of study that gives computers the ability to learn without being explicitly programmed.

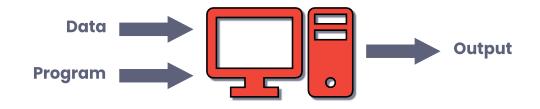
Arthur Samuel, 1959

 A computer program is said to learn from experience E with respect to some task T and some performance measure P, if its performance on T, as measured by P, improves with experience E.

Tom Mitchell, 1997

What is Machine Learning?

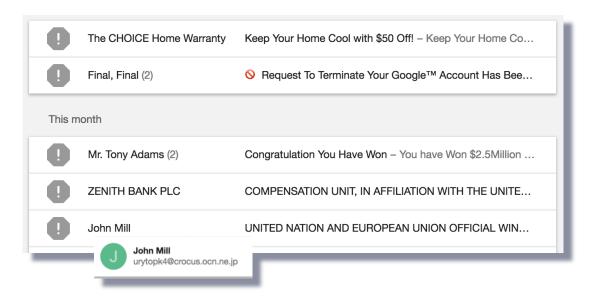
Traditional Programming



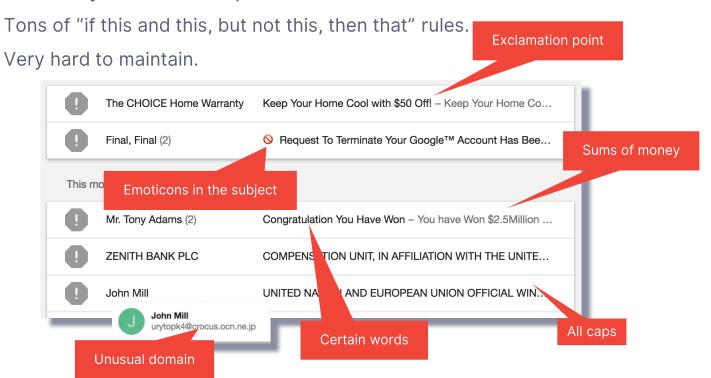
Machine Learning



How would you write a spam filter without ML?



How would you write a spam filter without ML?



 How would you write a program which detects cars in an image without ML?



 How would you write a program which detects cars in an image without ML?



- Problems for which traditional solutions require lots of hand-tuning or long lists or rules, which are hard to maintain:
 - E.g. Spam Detection, Machine Translation

- "Unprogrammable" tasks: Complex problems for which using a traditional programming approach is virtually impossible:
 - E.g. Object Detection, Speech Recognition

 Revealing insights and unsuspected correlations from large amounts of data.

Machine Learning Terminology

We are going to use a dataset with information about two types of fruit.

Mass (g)	Color	Texture	рН	Label
84	Green	Smooth	3.5	Apple
121	Orange	Rough	3.9	Orange
85	Red	Smooth	3.3	Apple
101	Orange	Smooth	3.7	Orange
111	Green	Rough	3.5	Apple
117	Red	Rough	3.4	Orange

• A **label** (or **target**) is what we are trying to predict.

Apple Orange Apple
Apple
Orange
Apple
Orange

- A **label** (or **target**) is what we are trying to predict.
 - If it is discrete, it is also called a **class** and the process is called *classification*.
 - If it is continuous, the process is called *regression*.

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A feature (or attribute) is "an individual measurable property of a phenomenon being observed".

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- All features of a data point form a feature vector.

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- Most ML algorithms work with numerical values, so there are ways of converting categorical attributes to numbers.

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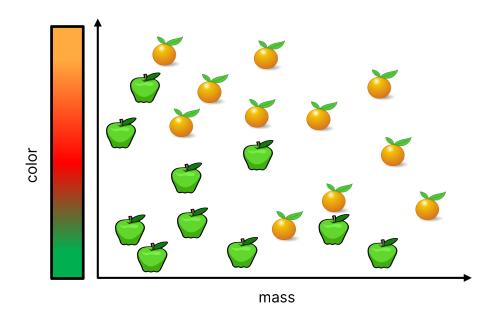
- An example (or sample) is a particular instance of data (a data point).
- It may or may not include a label (labeled vs. unlabeled data).

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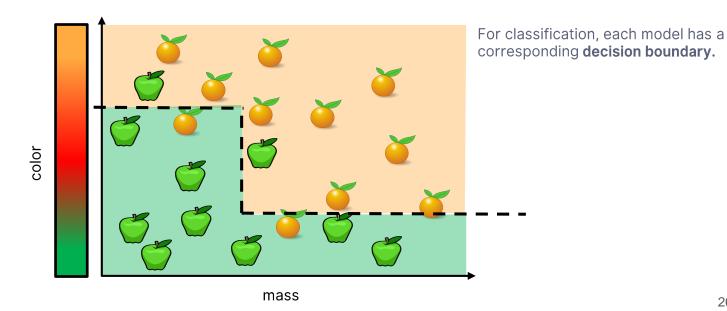
- An example (or sample) is a particular instance of data (a data point).
- It may or may not include a *label* (labeled vs. unlabeled data).
- Either comes directly as a feature vector, or the feature vector is computed by selecting and transforming certain characteristics through feature engineering.

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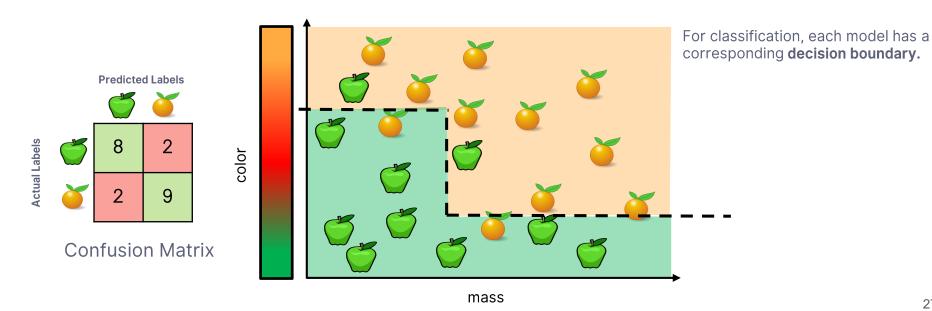
• A **model** (or **hypothesis**) is an *established* relationship between features and labels.



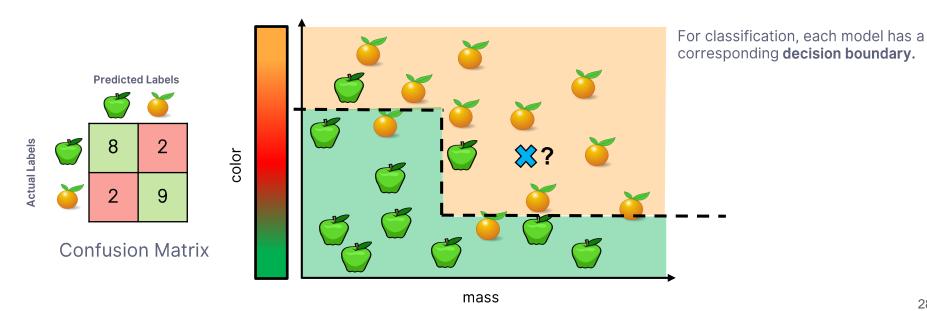
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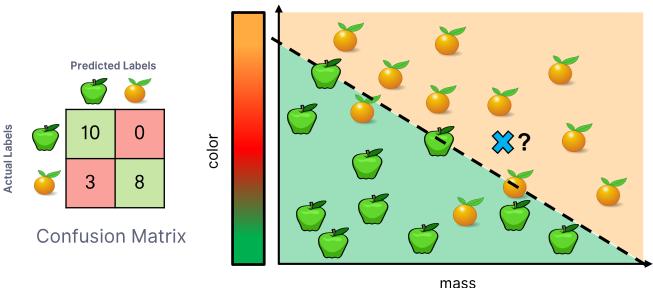


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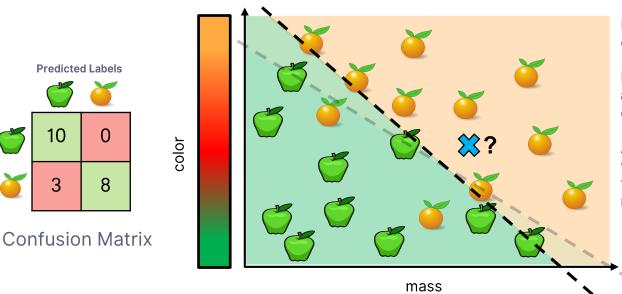


For classification, each model has a corresponding decision boundary.

Different algorithms have different allowed hypotheses and therefore different decision boundary shapes.

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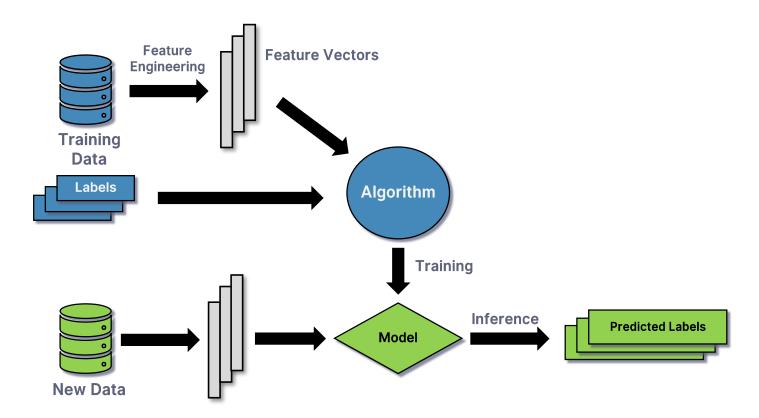
Algorithms have **hyperparameters** which control how the learning takes place, affecting the resulting model.

Actual Labels

Terminology Recap

- Label (or target) → What we are trying to *predict*.
- **Feature** (Or **attribute**) → Measurable characteristic of a **sample** (data point).
 - All features form a feature vector.
- Model (or hypothesis) → Relationship between features and labels.
- **Training** (Or **fitting**) \rightarrow Establishing the relationship based on a set of data points.
- Inference → Making predictions on previously unseen points.
- Algorithm → Defines a concrete way of doing training.
 - Has constrains on the set of allowed hypotheses, some by design, some by the use of hyperparameters

Typical Machine Learning flow



Types of Learning

Supervised Learning

- There is a **label** which we are trying to predict
 - To do this we need labeled samples.

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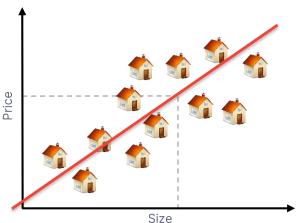
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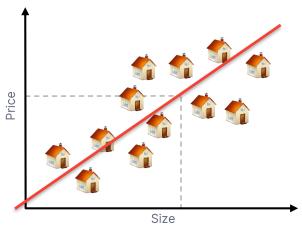


- Linear Regression
- KNN Regression
- Regression Trees

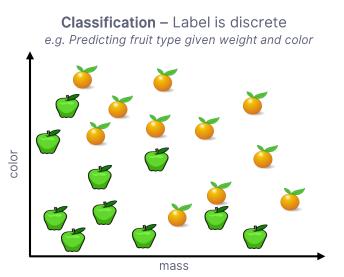
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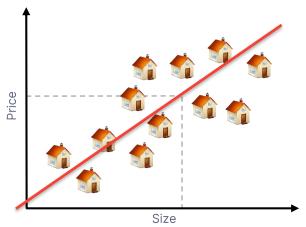
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Supervised Learning

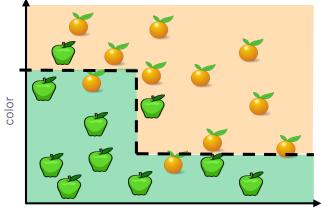
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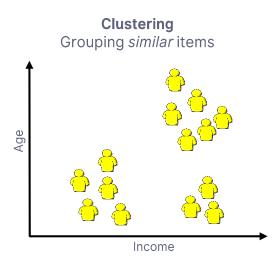
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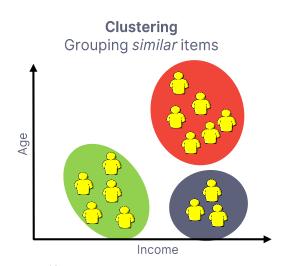
Classification – Label is discrete e.g. Predicting fruit type given weight and color



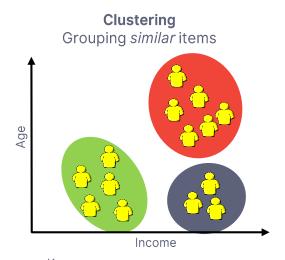
mass

- Logistic Regression
- KNN
- Decision Trees
- SVMs

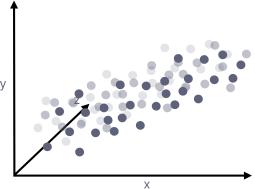




- K-means
- DBSCAN
- Hierarchical Clustering

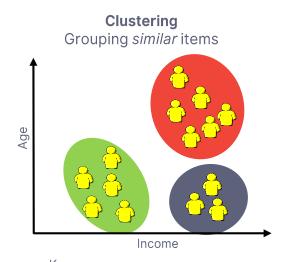






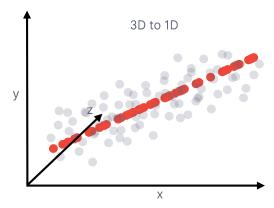
- K-means
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There is no expected label, we are trying to discover structure in the data

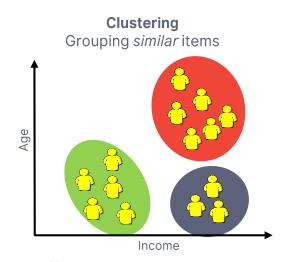


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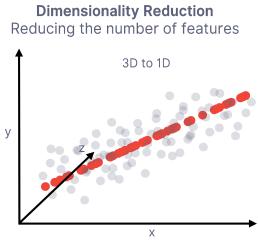
Dimensionality ReductionReducing the number of features



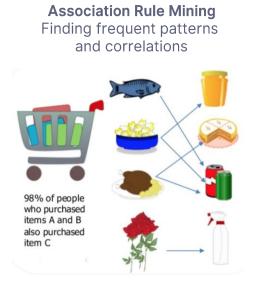
- Principal Component Analysis (PCA)
- T-SNE
- Self-organizing Maps (SOMs)



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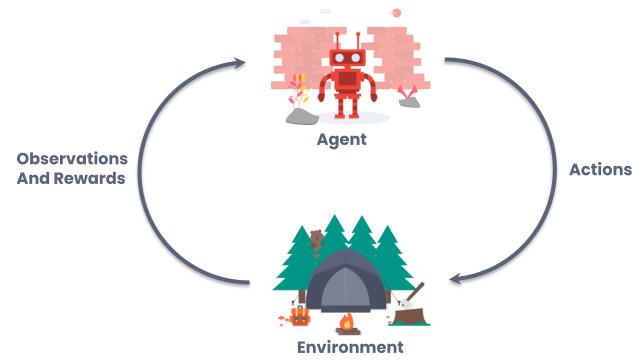


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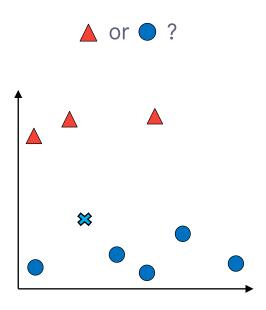
Reinforcement Learning

There is no label, only rewards (or penalties) for taking actions



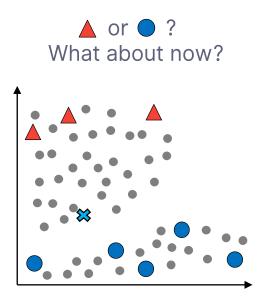
Semi-supervised Learning

Only a few labeled examples.



Semi-supervised Learning

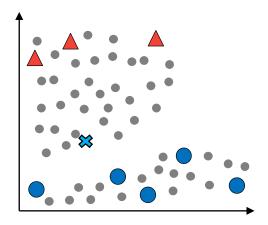
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- Lots of unlabeled examples.
 - Very common situation in practice



Semi-supervised Learning

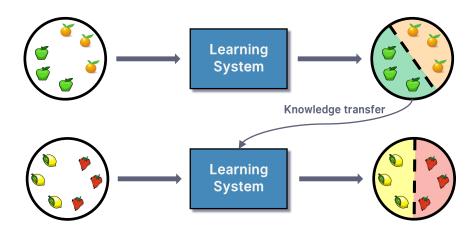
- Only a few labeled examples.
- Lots of unlabeled examples.
 - Very common situation in practice
- The unlabeled data can help improve supervised algorithms.
- Semi-supervised techniques:
 - Label Propagation
 - Co-training
 - GANs
 - Word2Vec





Transfer Learning

- Use the knowledge gained from solving one problem to solve another problem.
 - Usually used when there was much more data (or training time) available for the original problem.
- Very common in Deep Learning.
 - e.g. Using a model which was pre-trained on a large dataset



Types of Learning Recap

- Supervised Learning → There is a label
 - Label is continuous → Regression
 - Label is discrete → Classification
- Unsupervised Learning → Discovering structure in the data.
 - Grouping similar items → Clustering
 - Reducing number of features → **Dimensionality Reduction**
 - Frequent patterns → Association Rule Mining
- Reinforcement Learning → There is no label, only rewards (or penalties) for taking actions
- Semi-supervised Learning → Some labeled, lots of unlabeled data
- Transfer Learning → Use model trained for one task to speed up learning for another task

Performance Evaluation Terminology

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 - This means that it doesn't just remember the training data, but it has the capacity to **generalize**
 - Overfitting means the model performs well on training data, but it fails to generalize
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- The true error is error on all the possible data points.
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 - Sometimes called the test error, or sample error, or generalization error
- We want to minimize the true error, but it is impossible to measure.
- So we make sure that the empirical error is a good estimate of the true error.
 - O How?

- By not computing empirical error on the same data which was used for training:
 - Hold out data for testing.

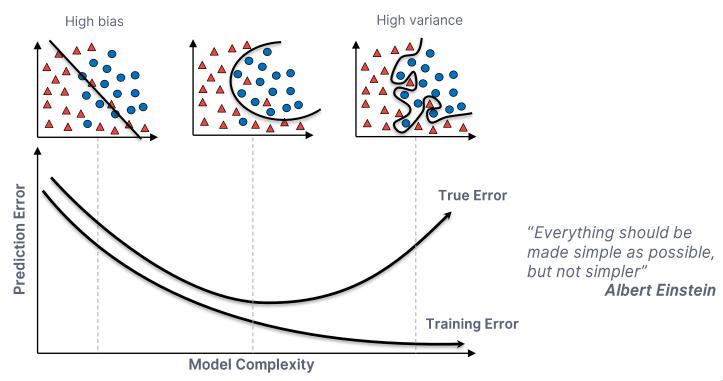
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 - Occam's Razor principle.
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 - Penalizing model complexity is called **regularization**.
- By making sure data points are i.i.d. (independent and identically distributed):
 - i.i.d. means there is no bias when selecting the training set
 - → every point is selected independently and from the same distribution
 - This assumption is very often violated in practice!

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- By getting more data. ②

Underfitting vs. Overfitting



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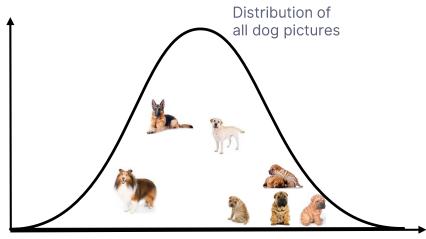








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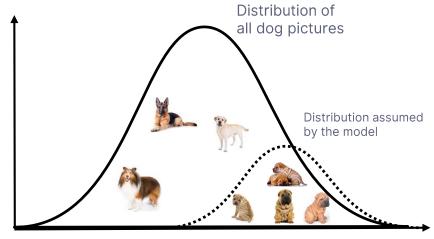








- The examples are not i.i.d.
 - It likely that the model will make mistakes on pictures from different parts of the distribution



Mathematical Frame for Machine Learning

- We assume we have:
 - \circ An instance space X, with a fixed (but unknown) distribution D_x
 - A target space Y and a function $f: X \to Y$

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 - An instance space X, with a fixed (but unknown) distribution D_x
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- We are given:
 - O A set of labeled examples $E \subseteq X \times Y = \{(\vec{x}^{(1)}, y^{(1)}), (\vec{x}^{(2)}, y^{(2)}), ..., (\vec{x}^{(m)}, y^{(m)})\}$ such that: $\forall e = (x, y) \in E \Rightarrow f(x) = y$ $x \sim D_x$ (x is drawn i.i.d. from D_x)
 - \circ A set of allowed hypothesis ${\mathcal H}$

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Sometimes there is no function f, only a distribution \mathbf{D}_{XY} with

$$(\vec{x}, y) \sim D_{XY}$$

 $(\vec{x} \text{ has a probability of having label } y)$

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 - \circ A set of allowed hypothesis ${\mathcal H}$
- We need to find:
 - \circ A hypothesis $h \in \mathcal{H}$ s.t. $error_{D_X}(h) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \mathbb{E}_{D_X} \big[\mathcal{L} \big(f(\vec{x}), h(\vec{x}) \big) \big]$ is minimal.
 - $o D_x ext{ is unknown, so we compute } \mathbf{error}_S(h) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{1}{|S|} \sum_{\vec{x} \in S} \mathcal{L}(f(\vec{x}), h(\vec{x}))$
 - where $S \subset X$ is a finite set (also i.i.d. from D_X)

Sometimes there is no function f, only a distribution D_{XY} with

 $(\vec{x}, y) \sim D_{XY}$ (\vec{x} has a probability of having label y)

 \mathcal{L} is the loss on a single example \vec{x} error_{D_X}(h) is the expected error over D_X (i.e. the **true error** of h) error_S(h) is the average error on set S

- The **loss function** should reflect the nature of the problem:
 - Classification:
 - *Y* is finite (usually small, sometimes binary)
 - $\mathcal{L}\left(f(\vec{x}), h(\vec{x})\right) = \mathcal{L}(y, \hat{y}) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } y \neq \hat{y} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$ 0-1 loss
 - $= \operatorname{error}_{D_{\mathcal{X}}}(h) = P_{\vec{\mathcal{X}} \sim D_{\mathcal{X}}} \left(f(\vec{\mathcal{X}}) \neq h(\vec{\mathcal{X}}) \right)$

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 - *Y* is finite (usually small, sometimes binary)
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 - $= \operatorname{error}_{D_X}(h) = P_{\vec{X} \sim D_X} \left(f(\vec{X}) \neq h(\vec{X}) \right)$
 - Regression:
 - *Y* is continuous
 - $\mathcal{L}\left(f(\vec{x}),h(\vec{x})\right) = \mathcal{L}(y,\hat{y}) = (y-\hat{y})^2$ Squared loss

• The **loss function** should reflect the nature of the problem:

0-1 loss

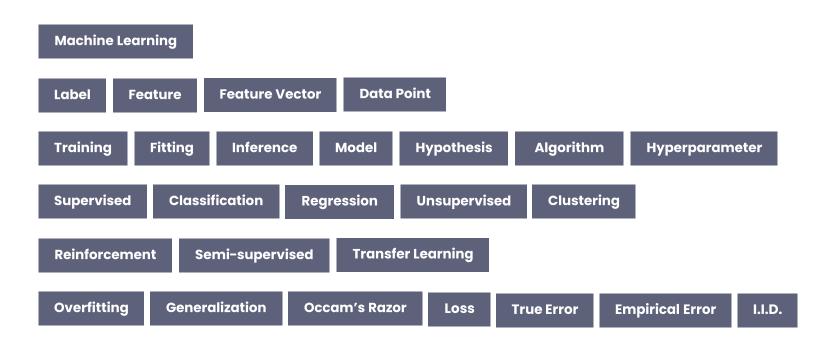
- Classification:
 - *Y* is finite (usually small, sometimes binary)
 - $\mathcal{L}\left(f(\vec{x}), h(\vec{x})\right) = \mathcal{L}(y, \hat{y}) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } y \neq \hat{y} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$
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 \hat{y} ("y hat") is the notation we'll use for predicted label

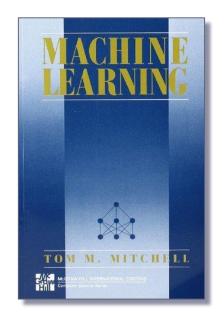
- The **loss function** should reflect the nature of the problem:
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 - These are very common loss functions, but many others are used as well.

 \hat{y} ("y hat") is the notation we'll use for predicted label

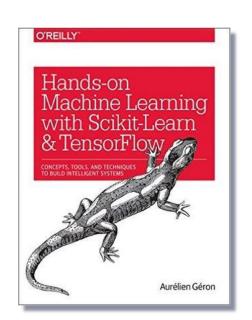
Keywords



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