Introduction to Machine Learning

Inteligencia Artificial

3° INF



Learning agents

Learning from experience

Interaction with the surroundings + other agents

- Learning by imitation (needs interaction with instructor).
- **Reinforcement learning**: Trial & error + reward/punishment.

■ Learning from data

- Unsupervised learning
 - Clustering

Somewhat simpler than learning from experience!

- Estimation of densities (e.g.. Generative models)
- Autoencoders
- Anomaly detection
- Supervised learning
- Semi-supervised learning

Reinforcement learning

- Goal: Learn how to make sequence of decisions.
- **Method:** Trial and error
 - The agent carries out sequence of actions

 Example: moves in a chess game
 - At the end of each sequence agent receives a reward or a penalty.

Example: Reward in agent wins match Penalty if agent loses

Credit assignment problem: How does one determine impact of each of the decisions in the sequence in the final result?
 Solution: Compute a "value function" at each state that estimates the optimal (final) reward from that state.

AlphaGo Zero

- Initially the agent has no knowledge of Go, except for its rules.
- The agent is equipped with a
 - Advanced search tree
 - Two **neuronal networks**, which take as input a description of its board at the current state.
 - The **policy network** selects the next move.
 - The value network predicts the winner of the game from that state.
- The reinforcement learning process consists in modifying the weights of the networks using the reward / penalty that corresponds to winning or losing a game.
- The **system** progressively **improves** the quality of its moves by **playing** Go with **modified copies** of itself.

https://deepmind.com/blog/alphago-zero-learning-scratch/#gif-120

Inductive learning from data

- **1. Data collection**: Capture, encoding and storage of instances (= examples) from which one wishes to learn.
- **2. Feature selection and feature construction:** For each of the instances, one determines the features that characterized de data.
- 3. Choice of learning algorithm:
 - 1. Unsupervised: K-means, fuzzy K-means, spectral clustering, etc.
 - 2. Supervised: Naïve Bayes, nearest-neighbors, decision trees, ensembles (bagging, boosting, random forest), support vector machines, neural networks, Gaussian processes, etc.
- **4. Training**: Application of a learning algorithm on the labeled data to determine the parameters of the system that performs clustering or prediction (typically, an optimization process).
- **5. Validation**: Process by which the quality of the system that has been trained is assessed.

Learning by induction from data

- Unsupervised: Inference from unlabeled data $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^N$
 - Clustering (hierarchical, K-means, fuzzy K-means, etc.)
 - Probability modeling (density estimation)
 - Autoencoders
 - Anomaly detection
- Supervised: Leaning to predict from a set of labeled instances (aka examples, instances, samples): $\{(\mathbf{x}_n, y_n)\}_{n=1}^N$
 - $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}$: vector of **attributes**, features, independent variables, input variables. covariates...
 - $y \in \mathcal{Y}$: (class) label, dependent variable, outcome, target, ...
- Semisupervised: Leaning to predict from data that are partially labeled.

Unsupervised learning

Given a set of unlabeled data

$$\mathcal{D}_{train} = \{(\mathbf{x}_n)\}_{n=1}^{N_{train}};$$

$$\mathbf{x}_n = (x_{n1} \dots x_{nD})^T \in \mathcal{X} : \text{Vector of attributes}$$
(inputs, features, independent variables, etc.).

- Clustering: Identification of natural groupings
 - K-means
 - Fuzzy K-means
 - Hierarchical clustering
- Density estimation / generative models
 - Mixture models (e.g. Gaussian mixtures)
- Anomaly detection

Clustering for image segmentation



Figure 9.3 Two examples of the application of the *K*-means clustering algorithm to image segmentation showing the initial images together with their *K*-means segmentations obtained using various values of *K*. This also illustrates of the use of vector quantization for data compression, in which smaller values of *K* give higher compression at the expense of poorer image quality.

Image source: Christopher M. Bishop. 2006. Pattern Recognition and Machine Learning (Information Science and Statistics). Springer-Verlag, Berlin, Heidelberg.

Labeled dataset

Leaning to predict from labeled data $\mathcal{D} = \{(\mathbf{x}_n, y_n)\}_{n=1}^N$

$$\mathbf{x}_n^T = (x_{n1} \ x_{n2} \ ... \ x_{nD})$$
 [D-dimensional vector of attributes]

- Regression: Labels y are continuous $(e, g, y \in \mathbb{R})$
- Classification: Labels y are discrete (no ordering) $y \in \{C_1, C_2, ..., C_K\}$
- Ordinal classification: Labels y are discrete & ordered

$$y \in \{C_1, C_2, \dots, C_K\};$$

 $C_1 \le C_2 \le \dots \le C_K$

Supervised learning

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Given a labeled dataset: \mathcal{D}_{train} = \{(\mathbf{x}_n, y_n)\}_{n=1}^{N_{train}};

\mathbf{x}_n = (x_{n1} \dots x_{nD})^T \in \mathcal{X} : \text{Vector of attributes}

(inputs, characteristics, independent variables,...)

y_n \in \mathcal{Y}: \text{Variable to predict}

(outputs, label, dependent variable,...)
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- Objective: Induce from \mathcal{D}_{train} a function to predict the value of y from the value of the vector of attributes \mathbf{x} . Predictions should be accurate for instances that could be different from the training ones (generalization capacity).
- Learning algorithm

$$\mathcal{L}: \mathcal{D}_{train} \to h \text{ [predictor (model) induced from } \mathcal{D}_{train}]$$

$$h: \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X} \to h(\mathbf{x}) \in \mathcal{Y}$$

Data preparation: Attributes

The vector attributes (or features) \mathbf{x} characterizes the instances whose class label we want to predict.

- **■** Feature construction
- **Feature (variable) selection**
- **■** Types of attributes
 - Ordinal: discrete / continuous
 - Nominal: There is no order relation between the values this type of attribut can take

$$C_1 \equiv (1 \ 0 \dots 0)$$

$$C_2 \equiv (0 \ 1 \dots 0)$$
...

Needed for SVMs, neural networks, etc. Not needed for decision trees

$$C_K \equiv (0 \ 0 \ ... \ 1)$$

Data preparation: Preprocessing

Training data:
$$\mathcal{D}_{train} = \{(\mathbf{x}_n, y_n)\}_{n=1}^{N_{train}}$$

- Outlier detection
- Handling of missing values
- Centering and scaling $x_{nd} \rightarrow \frac{x_{nd} m_d}{s_d}$ Estimates in \mathcal{D}_{train} (no peeking at test)

IMPORTANT:

Center: m_d	Scale: s_d
Mean: $\overline{x_d} = \frac{1}{N_{train}} \sum_{n=1}^{N_{train}} x_{nd}$	stdev = $\sqrt{\frac{1}{N_{train}} \sum_{n=1}^{N_{train}} (x_{nd} - \overline{x_d})^2}$
Median	Interquartile range
$max\{x_{nd}\}_{n=1}^{N_{train}} + min\{x_{nd}\}_{n=1}^{N_{train}}$	$\max\{x_{nd}\}_{n=1}^{N_{train}} - \min\{x_{nd}\}_{n=1}^{N_{train}}$
2	2

Preprocessing in scikit-learn

http://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/preprocessing.html

StandardScaler: Centering with the mean

Scaling with the standard deviation

RobustScaler: Centering with the median

Scaling with the interquartile range

■ <u>MaxAbsScaler:</u> Data normalized in [-1,1] (does not center data)

■ <u>MinMaxScaler</u>: Data normalized in [0,1]

Should I normalize/standardize/rescale the data?

http://www.faqs.org/faqs/ai-faq/neural-nets/part2/section-16.html

Data preparation: Class label encoding

Leaning to predict from labeled data $\{(\mathbf{x}_n, c_n)\}_{n=1}^N$

- Binary classification: $c_n \in \{C_0, C_1\}$ Encoding $\{(\mathbf{x}_n, t_n)\}_{n=1}^N$
 - Zero-one encoding: $t_n = \mathbb{I}[c_n = C_1] = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } c_n = C_0 \\ 1 & \text{if } c_n = C_1 \end{cases}$
 - Sign encoding: $t_n = 2\mathbb{I}[c_n = C_1] 1 = \begin{cases} -1 & \text{if } c_n = C_0 \\ 1 & \text{if } c_n = C_1 \end{cases}$
- Multiclass classification: $y_n \in \{C_1, C_2, ..., C_K\}$ $\{(\mathbf{x}_n, \boldsymbol{t}_n)\}_{n=1}^N; \qquad \boldsymbol{t}_n^T = (t_{n1} \ t_{n2} \ ... \ t_{nK})$

$$t_{nk} = \mathbb{I}[c_n = C_k] = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } c_n \neq C_k \\ 1 & \text{if } c_n = C_k \end{cases}; k = 1, 2, \dots, K$$

E.g. K = 3 C_1 : 100, C_2 : 010, C_3 : 001 [1-of-K or 1-hot encoding] Vertices of a regular (probability) simplex.

k-Nearest neighbors (k-NN)

Input:

Vector of attributes: $\mathbf{x}_n \in \mathcal{X}$ | Class label: $c_n \in \mathcal{C}$

- Training data: $\mathcal{D}_{train} = \{(\mathbf{x}_n, c_n)\}_{n=1}^{N_{train}}$
- Test instance: \mathbf{x}_{test}
- Nr. of neighbors: k > 0 (typically uneven, to avoid ties)
- Metric to compute distances: $d(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_i)$
- Output: $h_{kNN}(\mathbf{x}_{test}; \mathcal{D}_{train})$

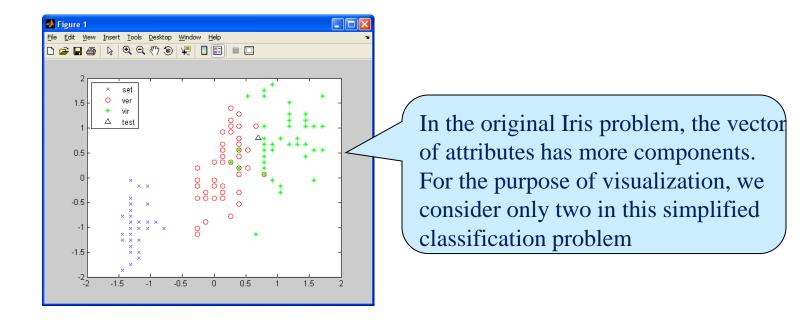
E.g. Euclidean distance, Manhattan distance, etc.

Pseudocode: Class label prediction for \mathbf{x}_{test} .

- Find the k nearest-neighbors to x_{test} in the training set, using the distance function $d(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_{test})$.
- Assign to \mathbf{x}_{test} the majority class among the k neighbors.
- Note: Ties can be resolved in a number of ways. For instance, by reducing the value of k by one unit at a time until the tie is resolved.

Example: Iris dataset (k = 1)

- Attributes: "Petal length", "Sepal length"
- Classes: "Setosa", "Versicolor", "Virginica"



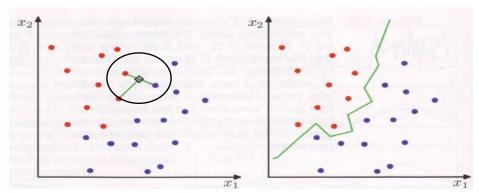
■ k = 1 Assign "virginica", which is the class of the nearest neighbor to \mathbf{x}_{test}

k-NN and Bayes theorem

Let us consider the smallest ball around \mathbf{x}_{test} that contains exactly k instances from the training set

$$k = 3$$

[Fig. 2.27, Bishop]



k -NN can be seen as a MAP (maximum a posteriori) predictor that uses **local estimations** of the relevant probability densities

$$P(c|\mathbf{x}_{test}) \approx \frac{N_c(\mathbf{x}_{test})}{N(\mathbf{x}_{test})}$$
k-NN prediction

number of instances in the ball centered in x_{test} class c in the same ball

number of instances of

 $c_{MAP}^*(\mathbf{x}_{test}) = \arg\max_{c \in \mathcal{C}} P(c|\mathbf{x}_{test}) = \arg\max_{c \in \mathcal{C}} N_c(\mathbf{x}_{test})$

How many neighbors in *k*-NN?

The number of neighbors can be seen as a smoothing parameter: The larger k is,

the smoother the classification boundary

[Fig. 2.16, James et al.]

• Asymptotic properties $N_{train} \rightarrow \infty$

$$k = 1$$
: error_{1-NN} < 2 error_{Bayes}

$$k = 3$$
: $error_{3-NN} \approx error_{Bayes} + 3 (error_{Bayes})^2$

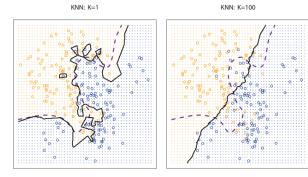


FIGURE 2.16. A comparison of the KNN decision boundaries (solid black curves) obtained using K=1 and K=100 on the data from Figure 2.13. With K=1, the decision boundary is overly flexible, while with K=100 it is not sufficiently flexible. The Bayes decision boundary is shown as a purple dashed line.

Estimation of k by **leave-one-out** (loo) **cross-validation**

$$err_{kNN}(\mathbf{x}_n; k, \mathcal{D}_{train \setminus n}) = \mathbb{I}[c_n \neq h_{kNN}(\mathbf{x}_n; \mathcal{D}_{train \setminus n})]$$

$$k_{loo}^* = \arg\min_{k} \frac{1}{N_{train}} \sum_{n=1}^{N_{train}} err_{kNN}(\mathbf{x}_n; k, \mathcal{D}_{train} \setminus n) \underbrace{\mathcal{D}_{train} \setminus n}_{train} = \{(\mathbf{x}_m, c_m)\}_{\substack{m = 1 \\ m \neq n}}^{N_{train}}$$

k-NN: pros & cons

Advantages

- Simple implementation.
- Typically, good results if appropriate distance function is chosen.
- It is possible to provide an interpretation of the prediction results in terms of the examples used to determine the class.

Drawbacks

- Difficulties with irrelevant or noisy attributes.
- Selection of k.
- Selection of distance function
 - Scaling of attributes
 - Handling of nominal attributes.
- High computational cost at prediction time.