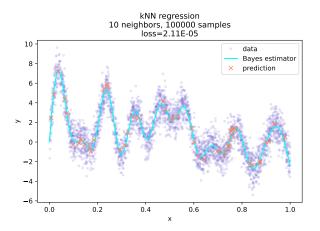
# Machine learning I, supervised learning: metrics



#### Metrics

Let  $D = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\} \subset \mathcal{X}$  be a dataset of n samples, with labels  $\{y_1, \dots, y_n\} \subset \mathcal{Y}$ .

There is a metric in the input space  ${\mathcal X}$  and in the output space  ${\mathcal Y}.$ 

- ► The metric in X determines to what extent two samples x<sub>i</sub> and x<sub>i</sub> should be considered similar or dissimilar.
- ▶ The **metric** in  $\mathcal{Y}$  determines to what extent two labels  $y_i$  and  $y_j$  should be considered similar or dissimilar.

This is very important during the complete processing of the data.

### Metrics in output space

A **loss function** / is a map that measures the discrepancy between to elements of a set (for instance of a linear space).

$$I: \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \mathcal{Y} \times \mathcal{Y} \to \mathbb{R}_+ \\ (y,z) \mapsto I(y,z) \end{array} \right.$$

Typically, z can represent our prediction for a given input x,  $z = \tilde{f}(x)$ , and y the correct label.

### "0-1" loss for binary classification.

$$\mathcal{Y}=\{0,1\}$$
 or  $\mathcal{Y}=\{-1,1\}.$  
$$I(y,z)=1_{y\neq z} \tag{1}$$

# square loss for regression.

$$\mathcal{Y} = \mathbb{R}$$
.

$$I(y,z) = (y-z)^2$$
 (2)

# absolute loss for regression.

$$\mathcal{Y} = \mathbb{R}$$
.

$$I(y,z) = |y-z| \tag{3}$$

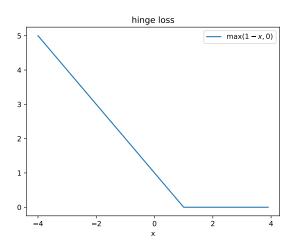
# Cross entropy loss (more advanced)

$$\mathcal{Y} = \{0, 1\}$$

$$I(z,y) = y \log(1 + e^{-z}) + (1 - y) \log(1 + e^{z})$$
 (4)

▶ typically used for logistic regression or neural networks (note that sometimes  $\mathcal{Y} = \{-1, 1\}$ , and then the writing is different).

Other losses exist and are relevant in some contexts, such as the hinge loss.



Metrics in input space

### Metrics in input space

Often,  $\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}^p$  (input space). In this case, **geometric** metrics are used.

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 and  $y = (y_1, ..., y_p)$  are p-dimensional vectors.

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- ▶ L1 :  $||x y||_1 = \sum_{k=1}^{p} |x_k y_k|$  (Manhattan distance, 1-norm distance)
- weighted  $L_1: \sum_{k=1}^p w_k |x_k y_k|$
- ▶  $L_{\infty}$ : max $(x_1, ..., x_n)$  (infinity norm distance, Chebyshev distance)

# FTML Metrics in input space

https://www.geogebra.org/geometry?lang=fr

# Non-geometric data

Not all data are geometric!

### Hamming distance

- $\#\{x_i \neq y_i\}$  (Hamming distance)
- Levenshtein distance for strings (allows deletions and additions)

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- ▶ separate the values :  $\forall x, y, d(x, y) = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = y$
- respect the triangular inequality  $\forall x, y, z, d(x, y) \leq d(x, z) + d(y, z)$

#### We could verify that :

- ▶ L2 is a distance
- Hamming is a distance

#### Similarities

Sometimes, it is not possible to define a proper **distance** in the input space  $\mathcal{X}$ ! This may happen for instance is  $\mathcal{X}$  is a dataset of texts.

- When distances are unavailable, we can use Similarities or Dissimilarity to compare points.
- Dissimilarities are more general and don't always abide by the distance axioms.
- ▶ Other examples : Adjacency in an oriented graph, Custom agregated score to compare data.

### Example: cosine similarity

The **cosine similarity** may be used to compare texts. If u and v are vectors,

$$S_C(u,v) = \frac{(u|v)}{||u||||v||} \tag{5}$$

- the bag of words representation allows us to build a vector from a text (one hot encoding).
- cosine similarity/scraper.py
- cosine similarity/similarity.py

### Hybrid data

Sometimes each sample contains both numerical data and non-numerical data (text, categorical data.)

See hybrid data/

This is often the case in machine learning applications! (database of customers, database of cars, etc.)

### Exercice

Manual distances computations.