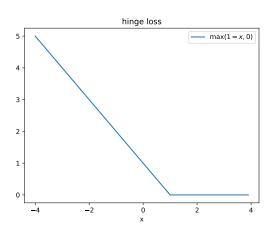
Machine learning I, supervised learning: metrics



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_i and x_i should be considered similar or dissimilar.
- ▶ The **metric** in \mathcal{Y} determines to what extent two labels y_i and y_i should be considered similar or dissimilar.

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



Metrics in output space

A **loss function** *I* 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.

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

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

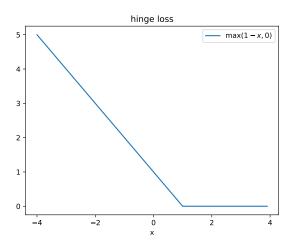
Cross entropy loss (more advanced)

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

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

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

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- $x = (x_1, ..., x_p)$ and $y = (y_1, ..., y_p)$ are p-dimensional vectors.
 - L2: $||x y||_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^{p} (x_k y_k)^2}$ (Euclidian distance, 2-norm distance)
 - ▶ 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_{∞} : max $(x_1, ..., x_n)$ (infinity norm distance, Chebyshev distance)

Metrics in input space

 $\verb|https://www.geogebra.org/geometry?lang=fr|$

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.
- Dissimilarites 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.