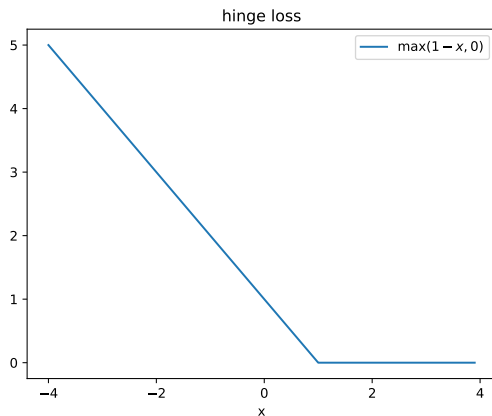


# Machine learning II, unsupervised learning and agents: metrics



## 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  $\mathcal{X}$  determines to what extent two samples  $x_i$  and  $x_j$  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**  $l$  is a map that measures the discrepancy between two elements of a set (for instance of a linear space).

$$l : \begin{cases} \mathcal{Y} \times \mathcal{Y} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+ \\ (y, z) \mapsto l(y, z) \end{cases}$$

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  $\mathcal{Y} = \{-1, 1\}$ .

$$l(y, z) = 1_{y \neq z} \tag{1}$$

square loss for **regression**.

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

$$l(y, z) = (y - z)^2 \quad (2)$$

absolute loss for **regression**.

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

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

In **unsupervised learning**, there is notion of **output space** !

## Metrics in input space

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



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- ▶ weighted L1 :  $\sum_{k=1}^p w_k |x_k - y_k|$
- ▶  $\|x - y\|_\infty : \max(|x_i - y_i|, i \in [1, n])$  (infinity norm distance, Chebyshev distance)

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

## Choice of the metric

In some contexts, some usual metrics such as  $L2$  might not be meaningful !

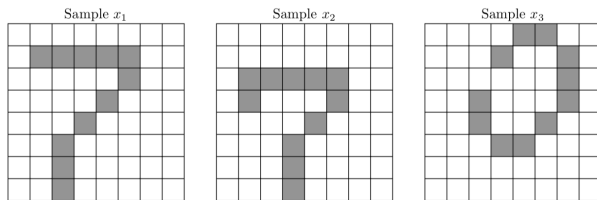


Figure – In  $\mathbb{R}^{64}$ , those three points form an equilateral triangle, [Fix et al., , ]

# 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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- ▶ respect the **triangular inequality**  
 $\forall x, y, z, d(x, y) \leq d(x, z) + d(y, z)$

## General definition of a distance

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 if  $\mathcal{X}$  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 aggregated score to compare data.

## Example : cosine similarity

The **cosine similarity** may be used to compare texts.

If  $u$  and  $v$  are vectors,

$$S_C(u, v) = \frac{(u|v)}{||u|| ||v||} \quad (4)$$

- ▶ the **bag of words representation** allows us to build a vector from a text (one hot encoding).
- ▶ `cosine_similarity/scrapper.py`
- ▶ `cosine_similarity/similarity.py`



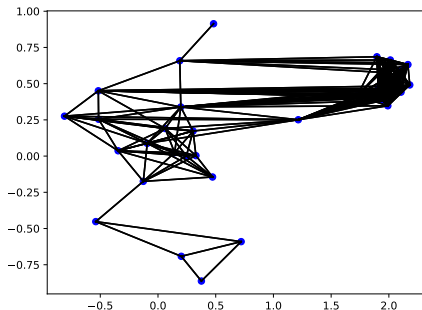
## Hybrid data

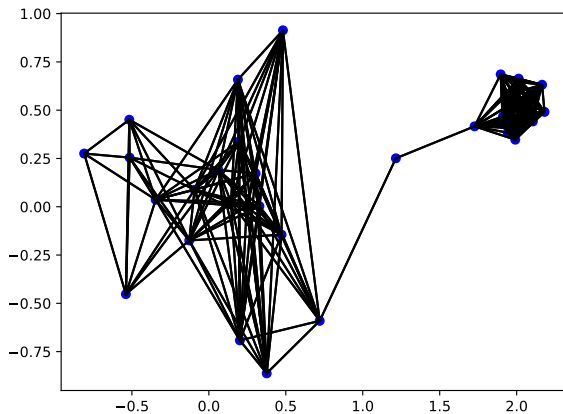
Sometimes each sample contains both numerical data and non-numerical data (text, categorical data.)

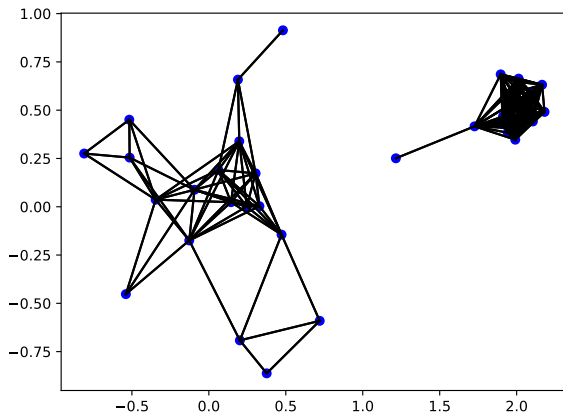
See **hybrid\_data/**

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

**Exercise 1 :** Using `metrics/geometric_data/build_graph_2.py`, choose the metric and the threshold so that this graph (and the ones on the next slides) are built.







# References I



Fix, J., Frezza-Buet, H., Geist, M., and Pennerath, F.  
Machine Learning.pdf.