

# Introduction to Machine Learning

## Robert Haase

Reusing materials from Johannes Soltwedel, Till Korten, Johannes Müller, Laura Žiguty (TU Dresden), Ryan Savill (MPI-CBG), Matthias Täschner (ScaDS.AI/Uni Leipzig) and the Scikit-learn community.

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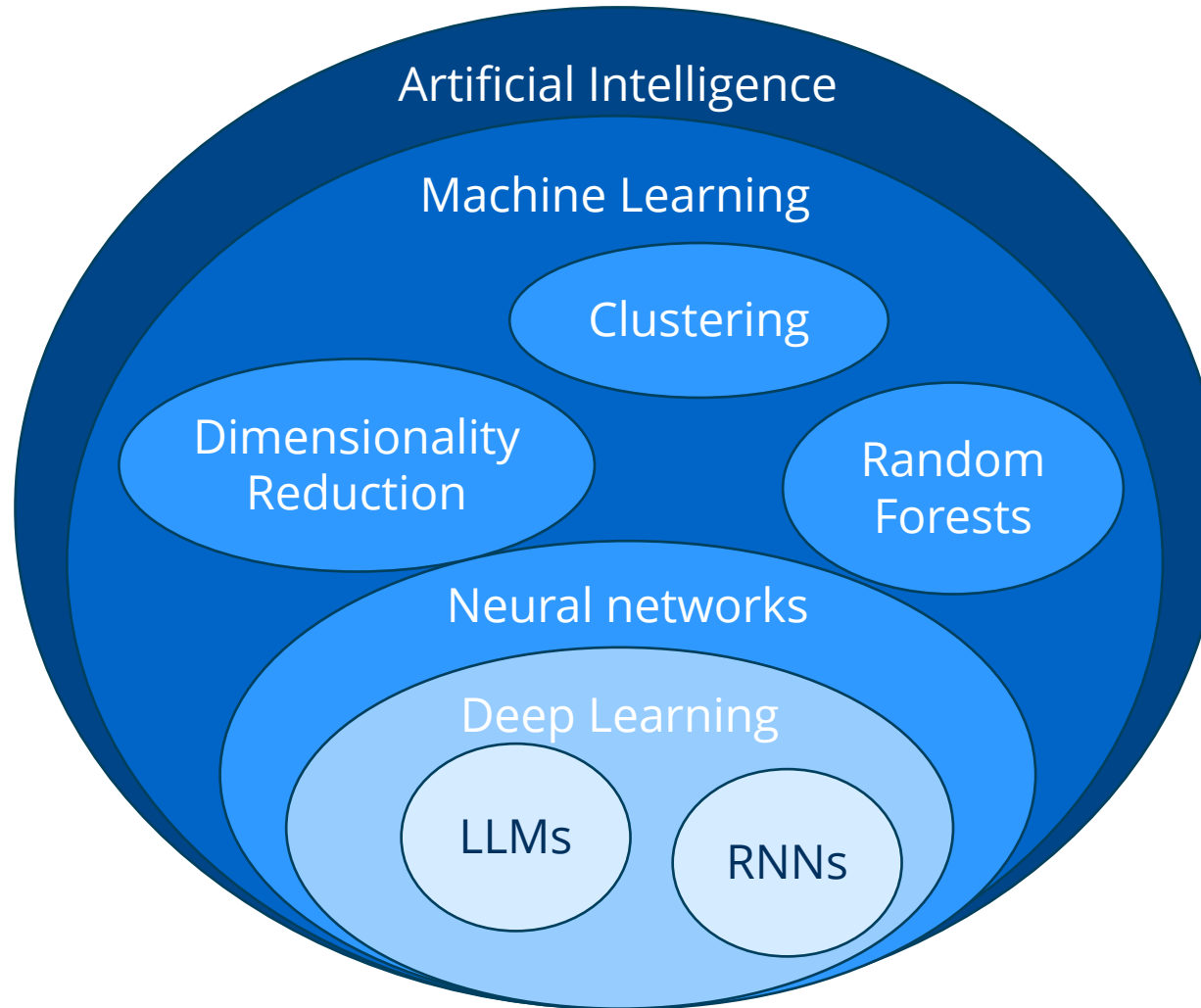
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# Artificial intelligence



# Artificial intelligence

## Narrow AI

- Application specific
- Trained on labelled data
- Reflexive tasks
- Cannot extrapolate

Great for data  
analysis tasks

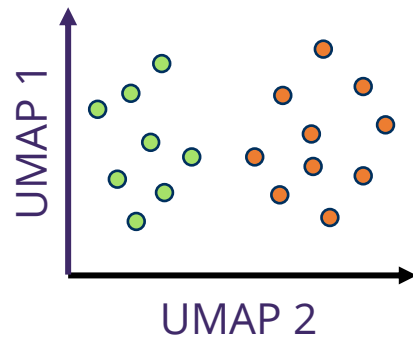
## General AI

- Human capabilities
- Access to knowledge of humanity, beyond individuals
- Can create *new* solutions by working creatively

# Artificial intelligence

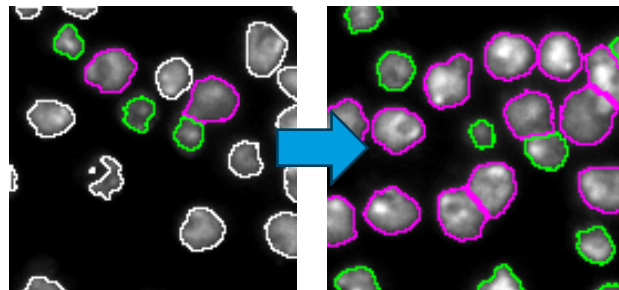
## Unsupervised ML

- Dimensionality reduction
- Clustering
- Detecting patterns in unlabeled data
- Hypothesis generation



## Supervised ML

- Learning tasks otherwise only humans could do
- Train a model, predict a classification



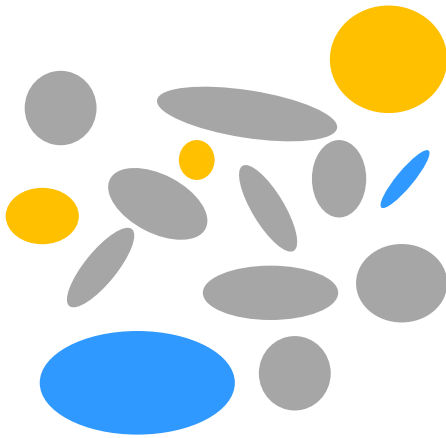
## Generative AI

- Produces new data provided a context, often with human language prompts
- Hyped since 2022, with yet unclear limitations

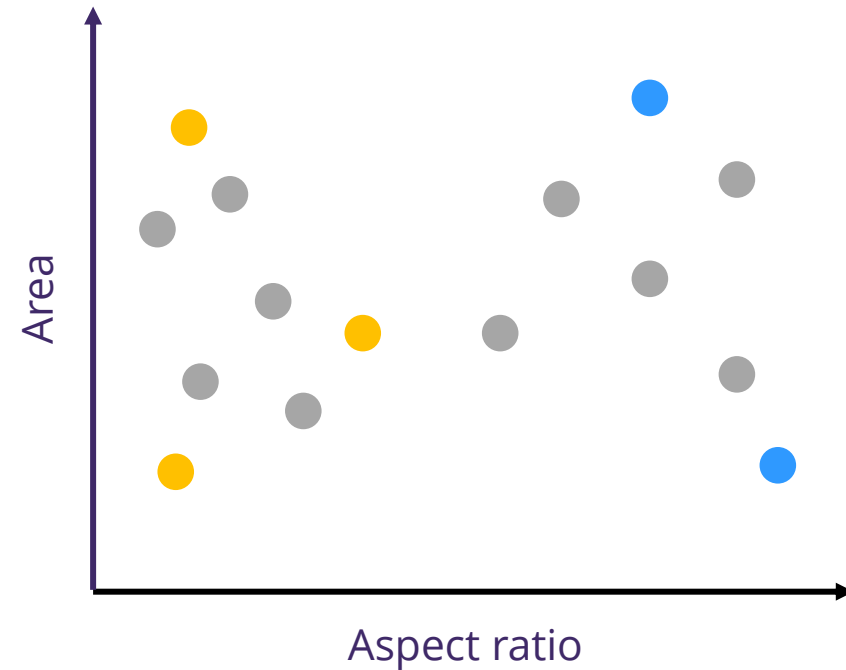


# Labelled data

- E.g. for shape differentiation of objects
- Partially labelled data Bias?



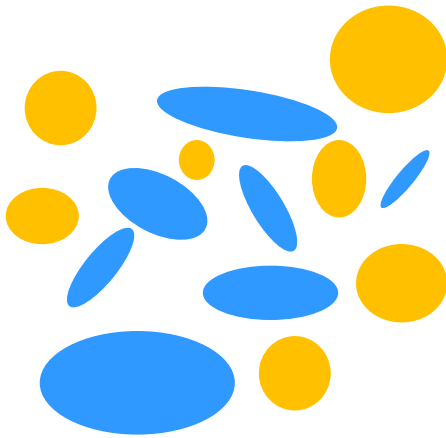
Elongated  
Round  
Unlabelled



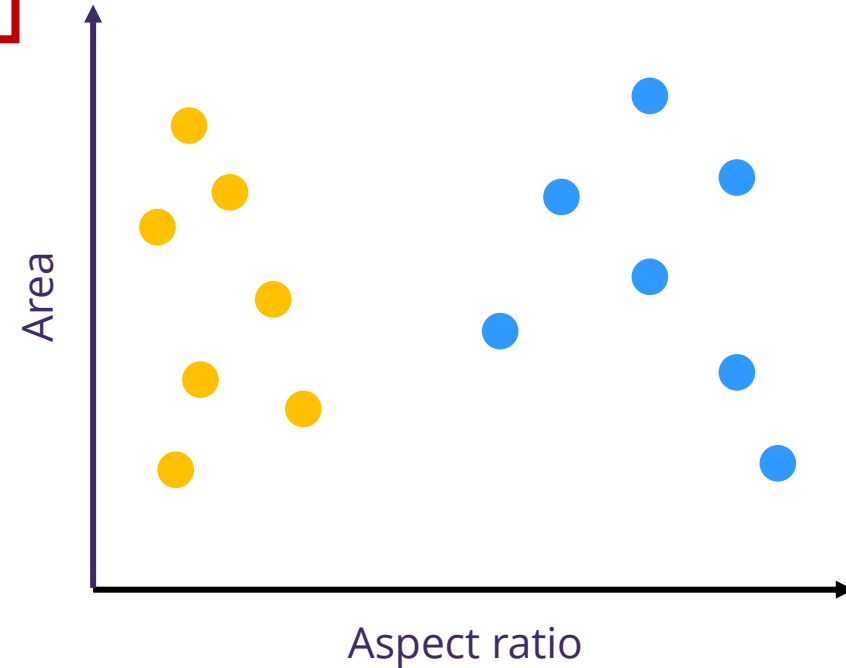
# Labelled data

- E.g. for shape differentiation of objects
- Fully labelled data

Typically  
expensive



Elongated  
Round  
Unlabelled



# Unsupervised Machine Learning

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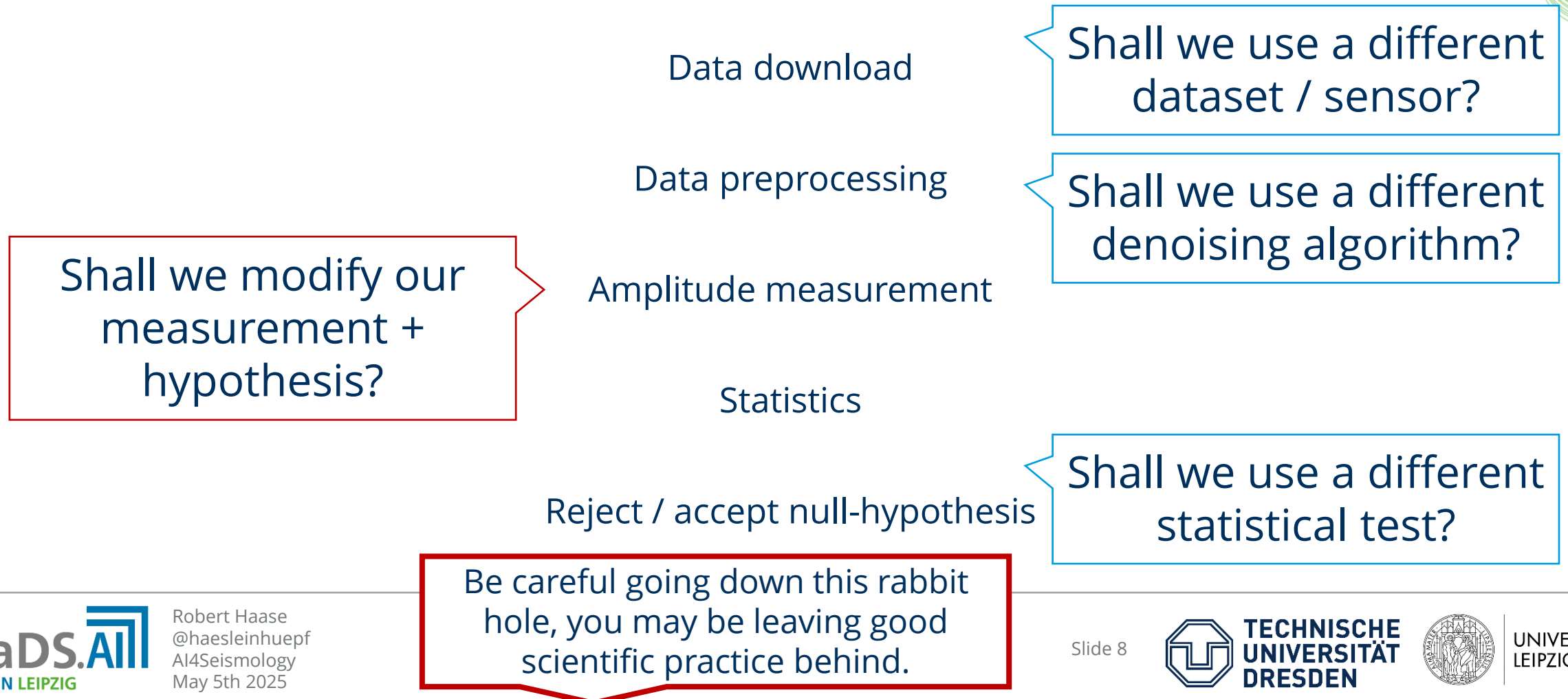


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# Hypothesis-driven quantitative science

Hypothesis: The amplitude of a given signal is an indicator for upcoming earthquakes.

Null-Hypothesis: There is no relationship between the amplitude and future earthquakes.





# Data-driven quantitative science

~~Hypothesis: The amplitude of a given signal is an indicator for upcoming earthquakes.~~

Question: Which measurement is a good predictor for upcoming earthquakes?

Which sensor / data  
is the most reliable?

Data download (multiple sources, sensors, ...)

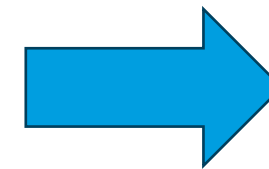
Data preprocessing using Method A, B, C

Why?

Amplitude, frequency, wavelength, ... measurement

Which parameter shows  
any relationship with  
upcoming earthquakes?

Statistics



Hypothesis  
generation

# Feature selection

- Which measurement / parameter / feature is related to the effect I'm investigating?
- Example goals:

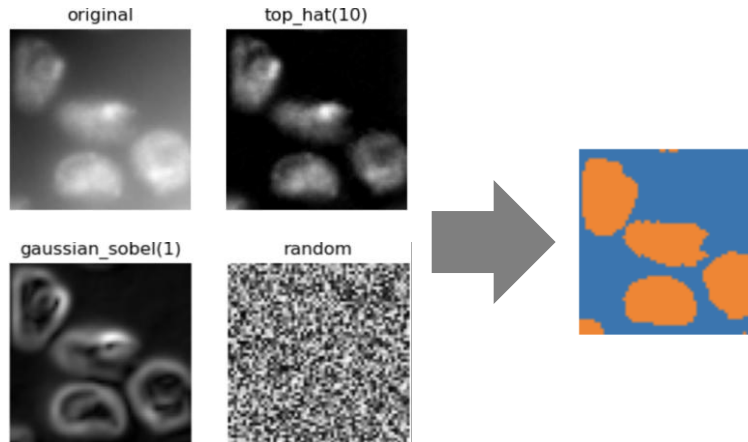


- Amplitude
- Energy
- Duration
- ...



- Silence
- Tourists jumping on a sensor
- Earthquake approaching

Signal classification



Pixel classification



- Area
- Perimeter
- Aspect ratio
- ...

- Round
- Elongated

Object classification

# Feature selection

Question: Which features shall I analyse?

Challenges:

- Physical properties versus measurable features
- Correlation versus causation
- Too many features

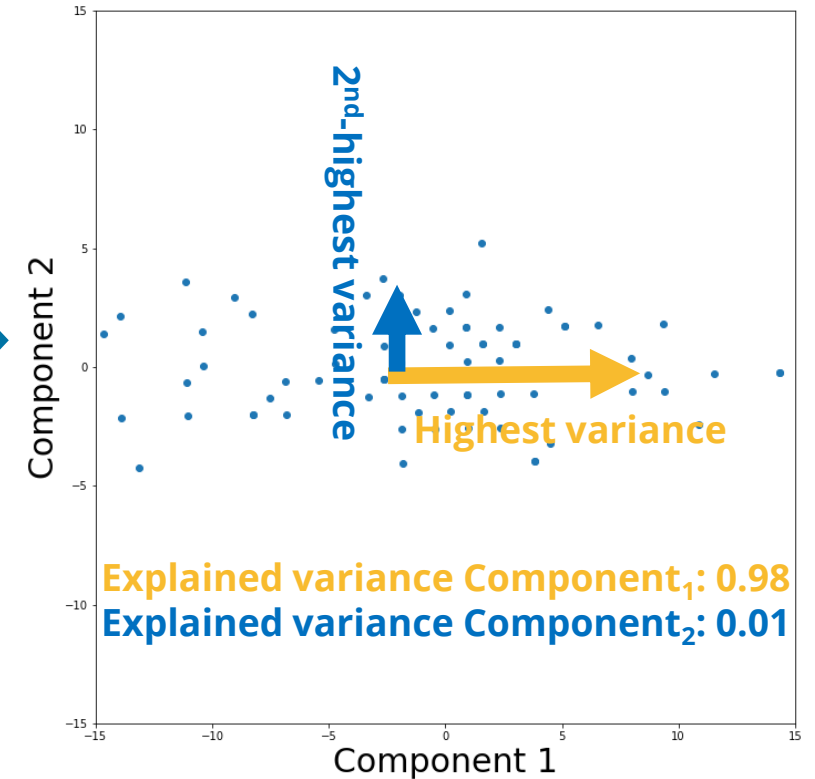
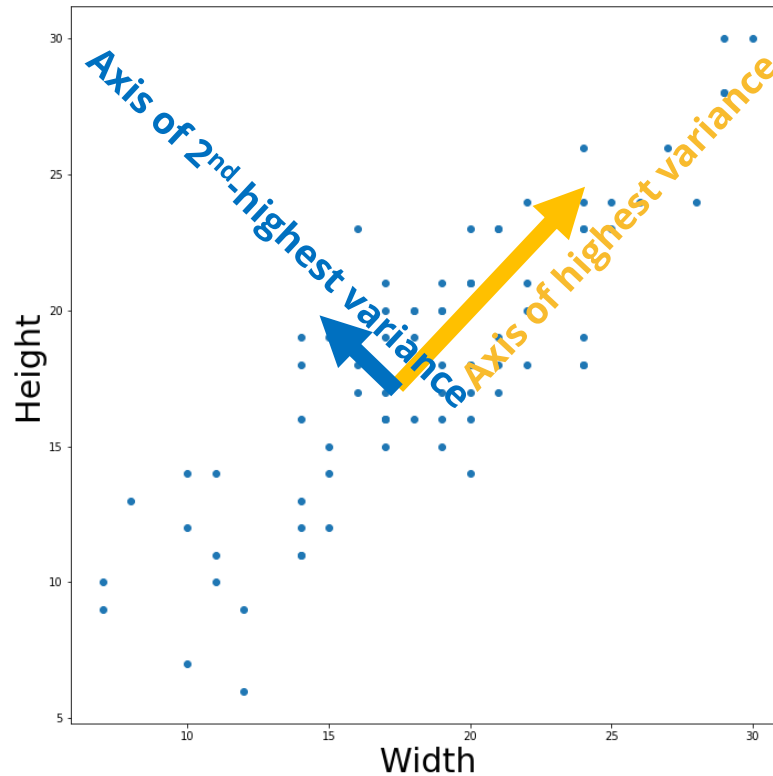
If you have no idea -> unsupervised machine learning

- Dimensionality reduction
- Clustering

# Dimensionality reduction: Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

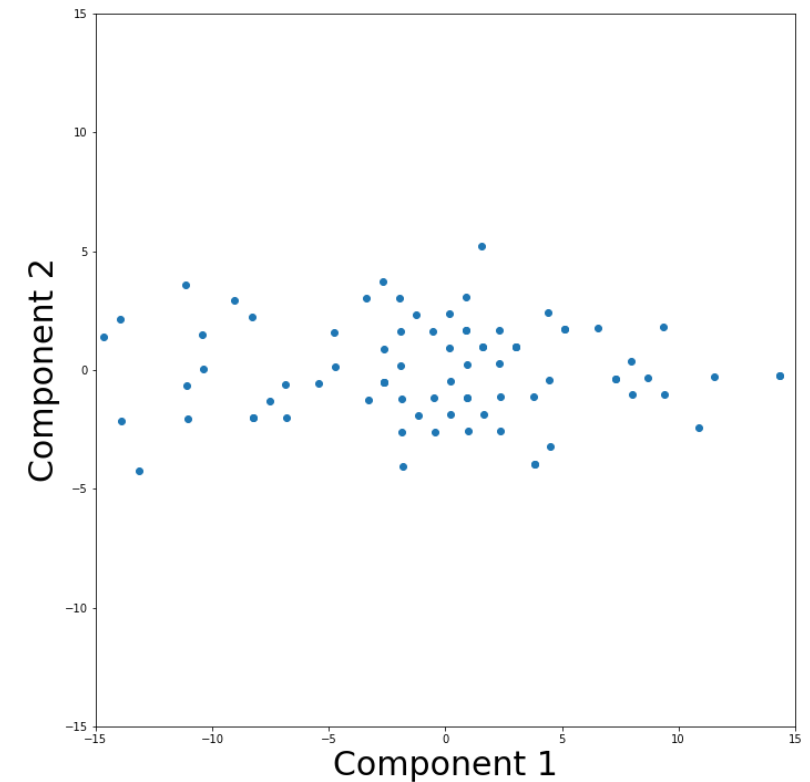
Linear transformation of high-dimensional data to concentrate information in a lower dimensional *embedding*

|   | height   | width    | depth    |
|---|----------|----------|----------|
| 0 | 0.649060 | 0.213074 | 0.032167 |
| 1 | 0.983763 | 0.533933 | 0.026125 |
| 2 | 0.826448 | 0.223712 | 0.048805 |
| 3 | 0.610540 | 0.574425 | 0.116101 |
| 4 | 0.383580 | 0.042504 | 0.973645 |
| 5 | 0.222935 | 0.842952 | 0.152771 |
| 6 | 0.946367 | 0.780378 | 0.565486 |
| 7 | 0.580490 | 0.001958 | 0.945884 |
| 8 | 0.005322 | 0.019889 | 0.455281 |
| 9 | 0.359661 | 0.426161 | 0.369291 |



# Embeddings

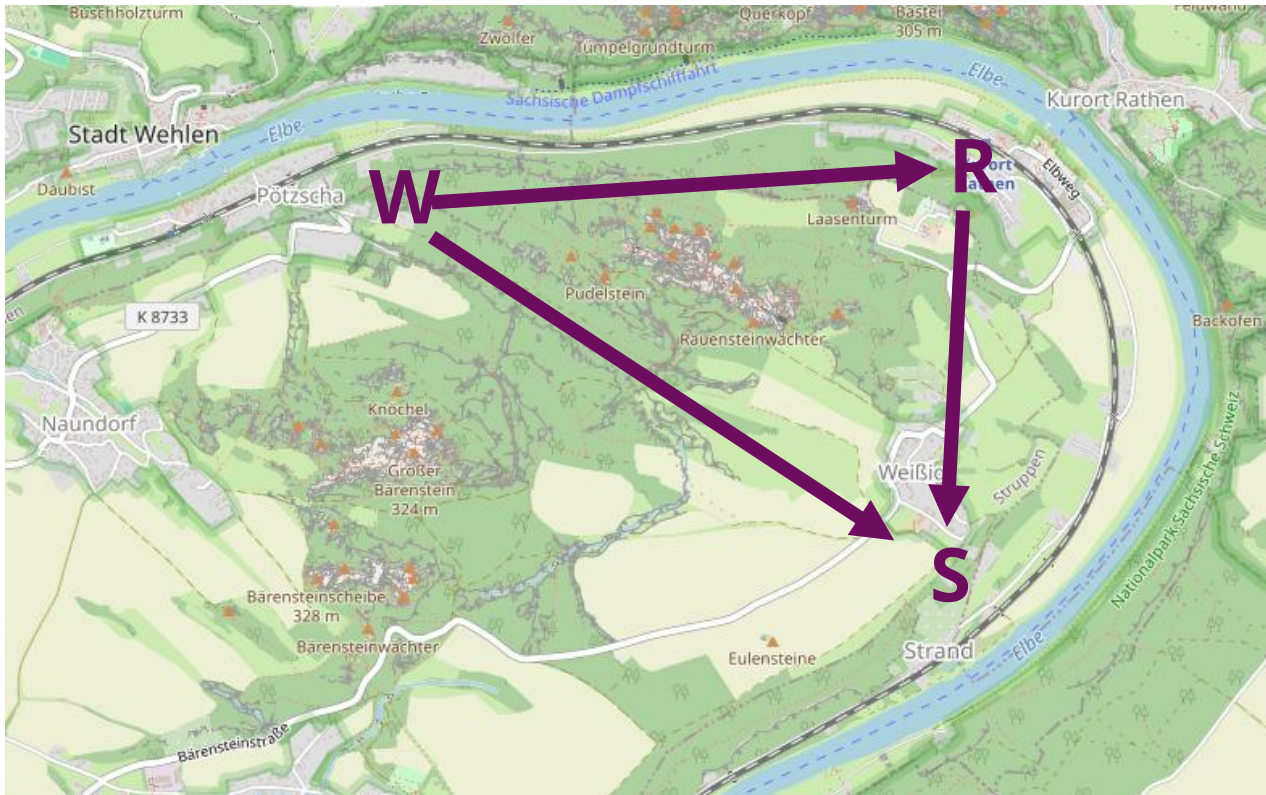
- N-dimensional latent space
- Axes typically have no meaningful/physical name (PCA1, UMAP1, ...) and no physical unit
- Allow representing complex measurements, things, relationships in numeric space.
- Example:
  - You measure amplitude, frequency, wavelength, etc.,
  - derive a 2D-embedding from it,
  - to visualize the data or
  - to better process data





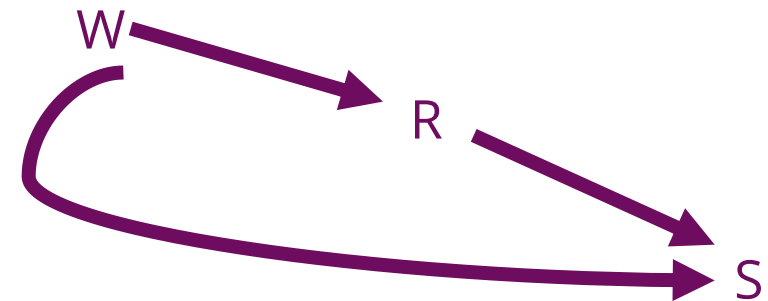
# Non-Euclidian spaces

Not all features might be distances



Use travel time between W and S as metric for distance

→ Travelling from **W**ehlen to **S**trand by bike is probably faster if you make a detour through **R**athen



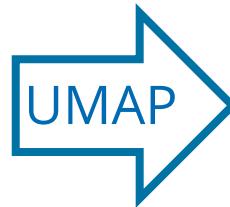
# Uniform Manifold Approximation Projection (UMAP)

Structural, hierarchical, **non-linear** transformation

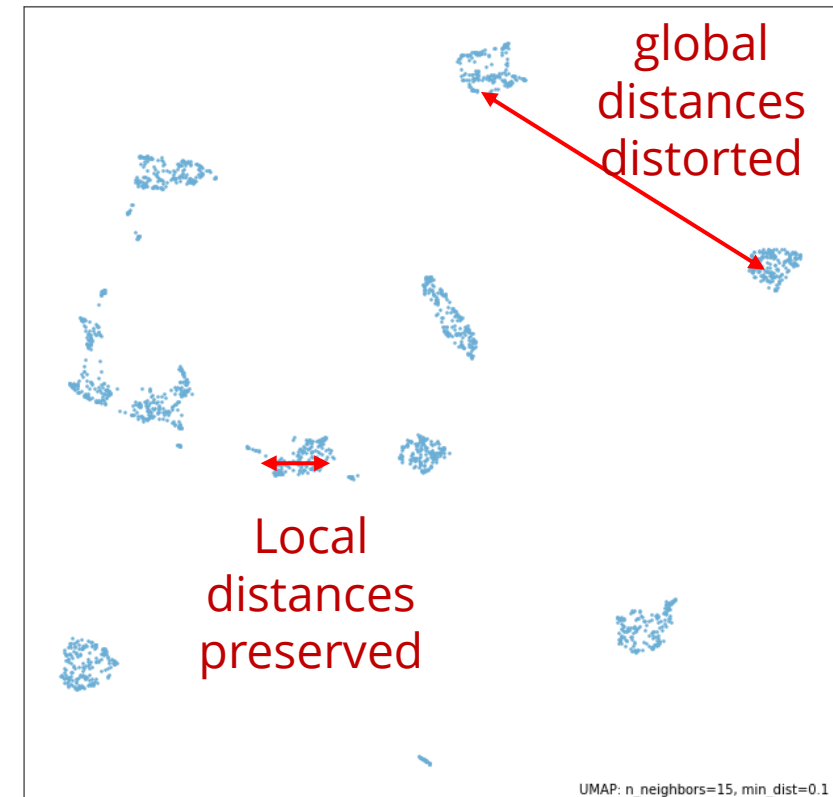
Modifies density of data points.

|                              | count | mean       | std        |
|------------------------------|-------|------------|------------|
| label                        | 44.0  | 22.500000  | 12.845233  |
| area                         | 44.0  | 401.863636 | 202.852288 |
| bbox_area                    | 44.0  | 542.750000 | 295.106376 |
| equivalent_diameter          | 44.0  | 21.781085  | 6.174086   |
| convex_area                  | 44.0  | 423.295455 | 216.613747 |
| max_intensity                | 44.0  | 234.909091 | 17.517856  |
| mean_intensity               | 44.0  | 190.116971 | 15.034153  |
| min_intensity                | 44.0  | 128.000000 | 0.000000   |
| extent                       | 44.0  | 0.758804   | 0.063276   |
| local_centroid-0             | 44.0  | 11.439824  | 4.126230   |
| local_centroid-1             | 44.0  | 10.138666  | 3.491815   |
| solidity                     | 44.0  | 0.953153   | 0.024749   |
| feret_diameter_max           | 44.0  | 26.382434  | 8.915046   |
| major_axis_length            | 44.0  | 25.876797  | 9.591558   |
| minor_axis_length            | 44.0  | 18.872898  | 5.158791   |
| orientation                  | 44.0  | 0.053057   | 0.691430   |
| eccentricity                 | 44.0  | 0.600434   | 0.165688   |
| standard_deviation_intensity | 44.0  | 29.556705  | 5.507399   |
| aspect_ratio                 | 44.0  | 1.374342   | 0.397611   |
| roundness                    | 44.0  | 0.762889   | 0.156695   |
| circularity                  | 44.0  | 0.918858   | 0.133288   |

Many dimensions



UMAP 2



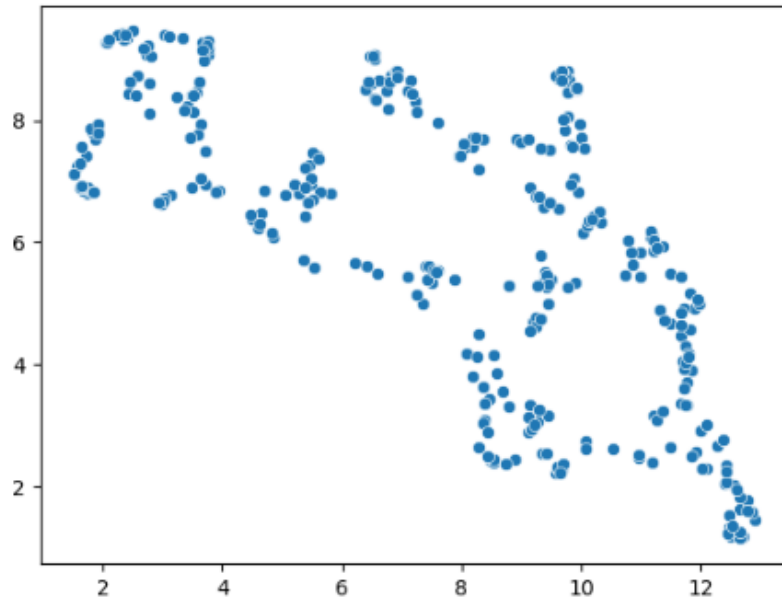
UMAP 1

# Uniform Manifold Approximation Projection (UMAP)

Non-deterministic algorithm: You execute it twice, you get different results.

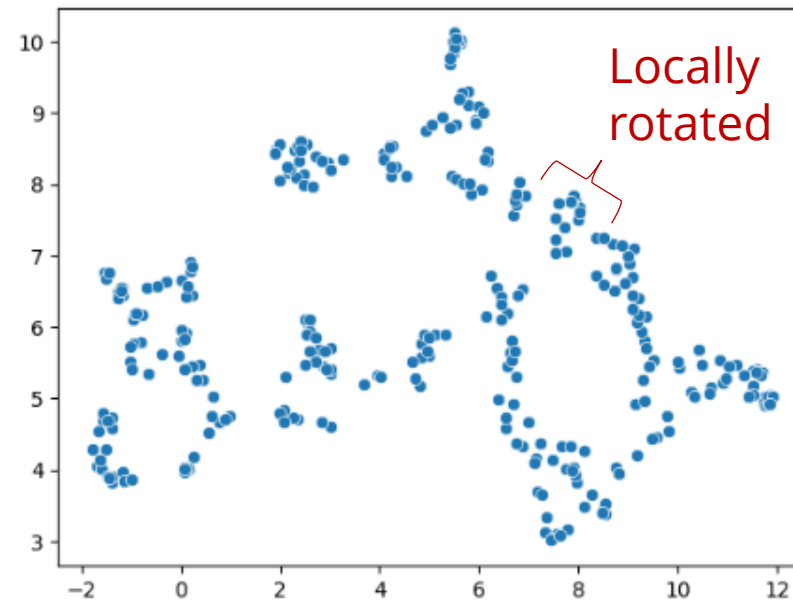
```
[11]: reducer = umap.UMAP()  
      embedding2 = reducer.fit_transform(scaled_statistics)  
  
      seaborn.scatterplot(x=embedding2[:, 0],  
                          y=embedding2[:, 1])
```

[11]: <AxesSubplot: >



```
[12]: reducer = umap.UMAP()  
      embedding2 = reducer.fit_transform(scaled_statistics)  
  
      seaborn.scatterplot(x=embedding2[:, 0],  
                          y=embedding2[:, 1])
```

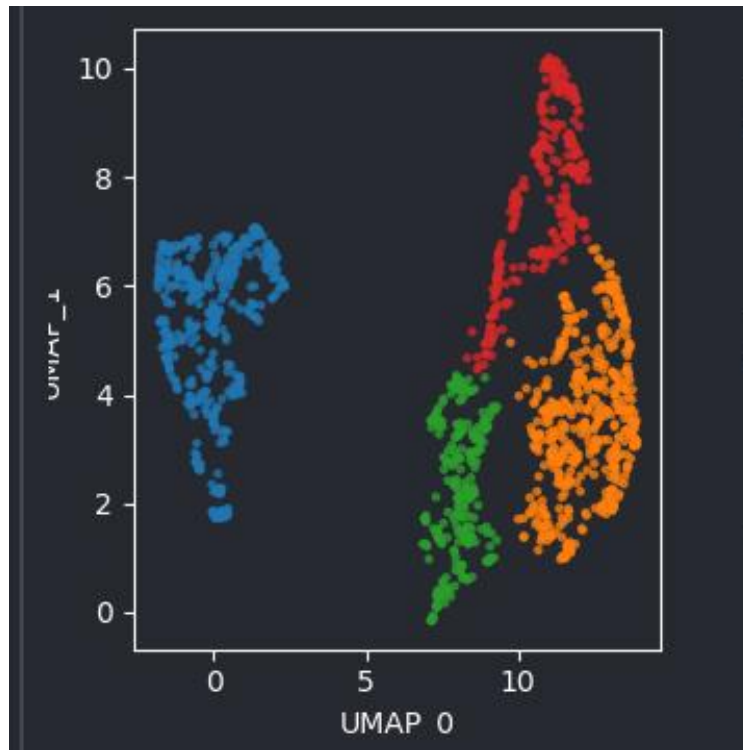
[12]: <AxesSubplot: >



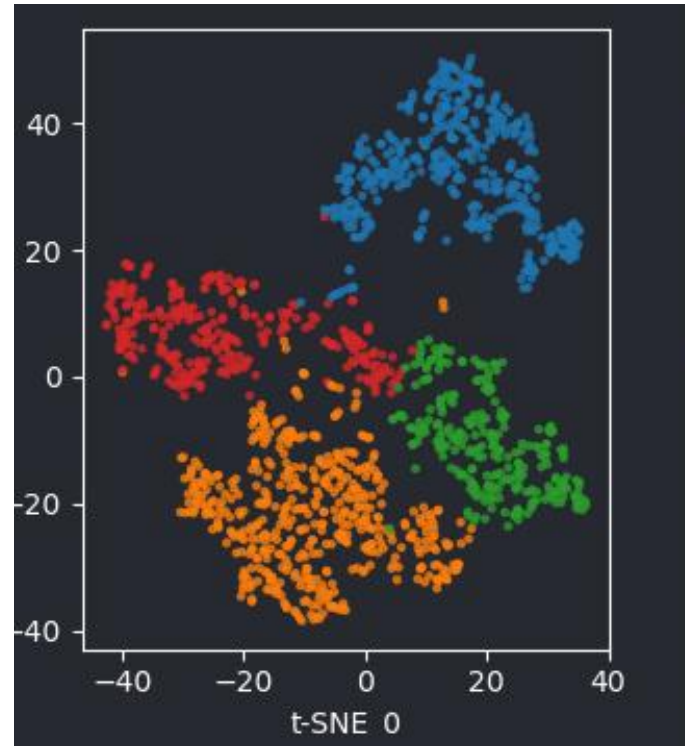


# Dimensionality reduction

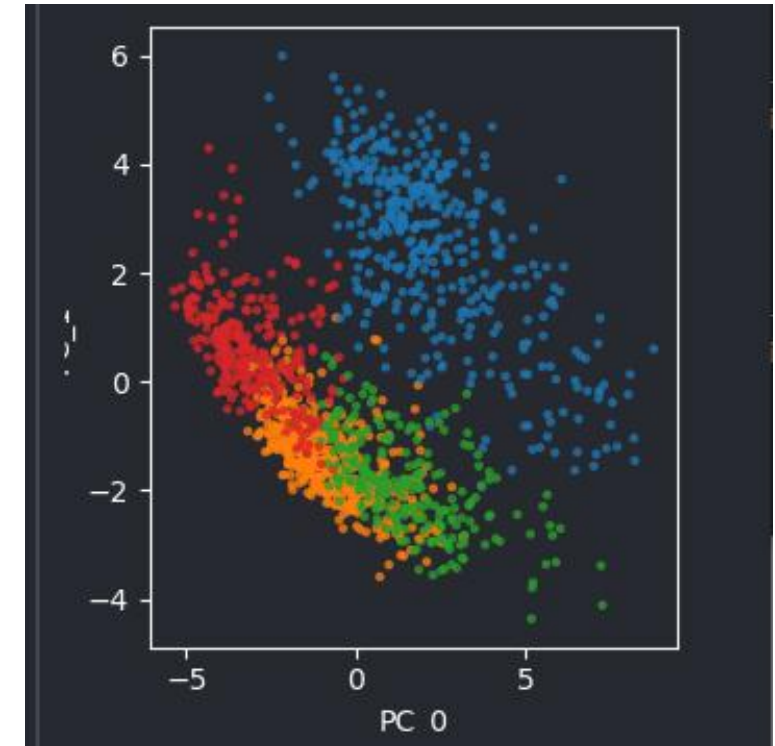
Uniform manifold approximation and projection (UMAP)



t-distributed stochastic neighbor embedding (t-SNE)

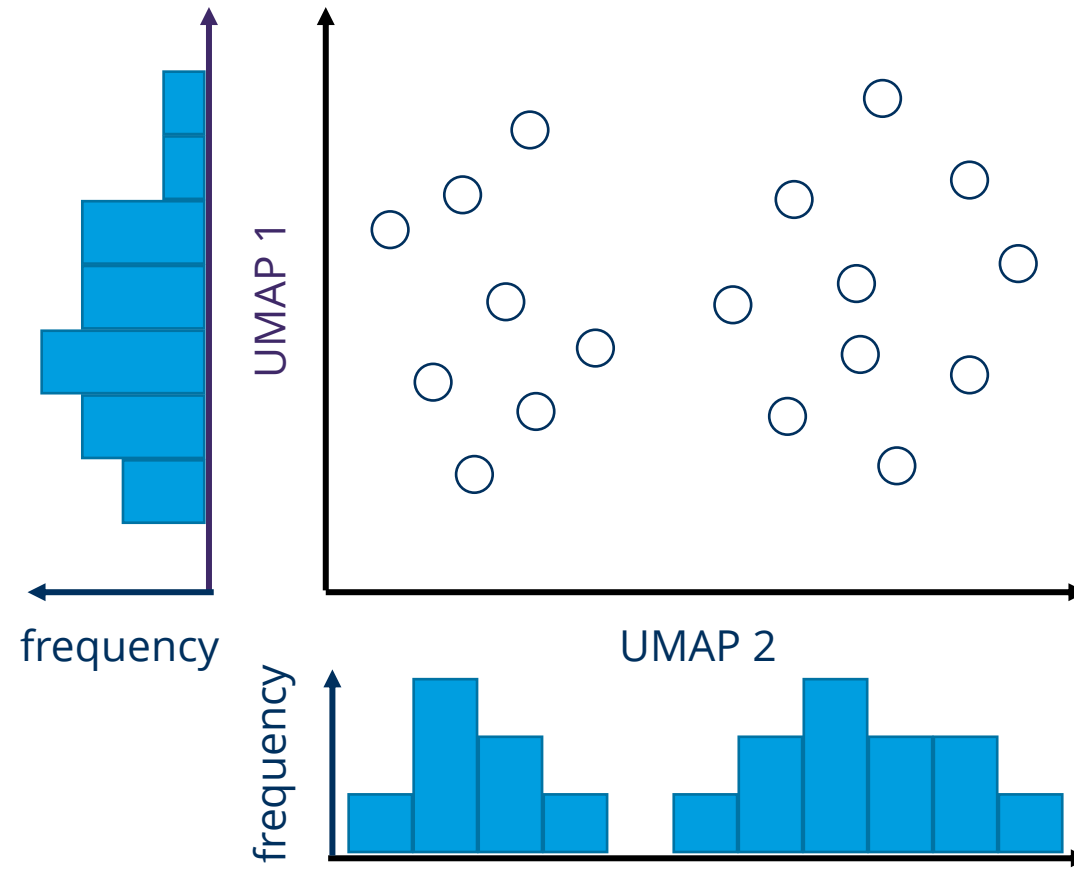


Principal component analysis (PCA)



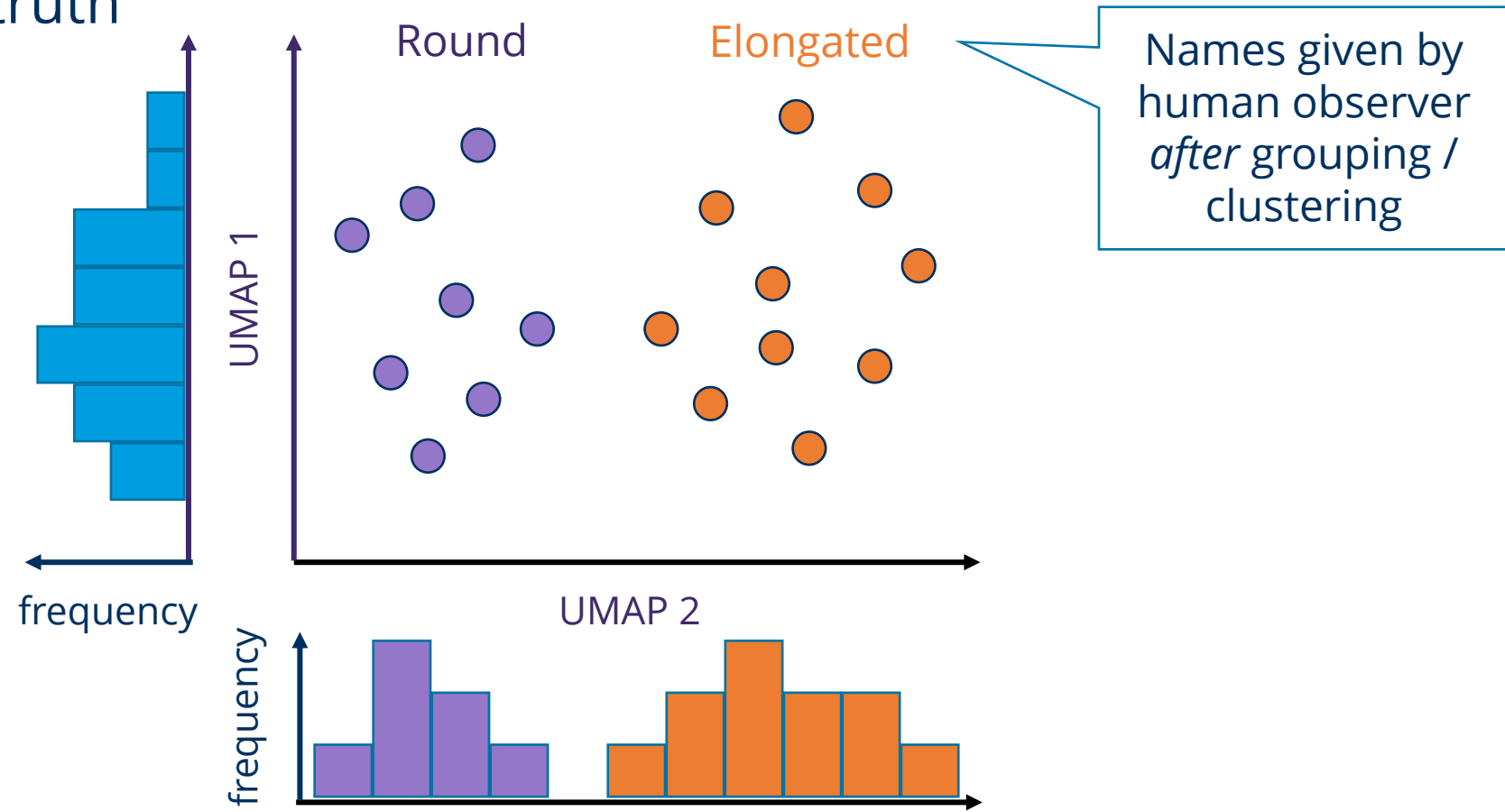
# Clustering

Unsupervised machine learning may include grouping objects without given ground truth



# Clustering

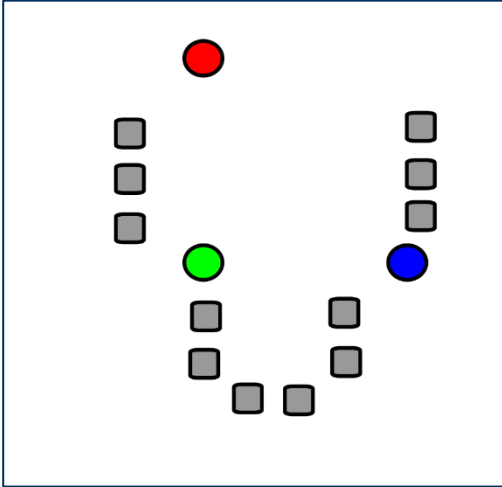
Unsupervised machine learning may include grouping objects without given ground truth



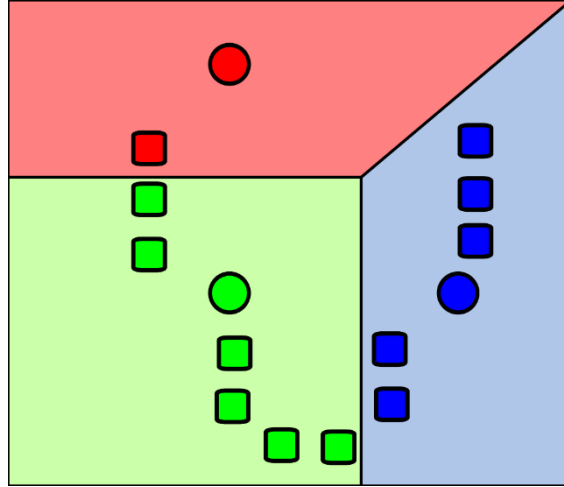
# K-Means Clustering

Clustering algorithm, where you *only* need to specify the number of clusters.

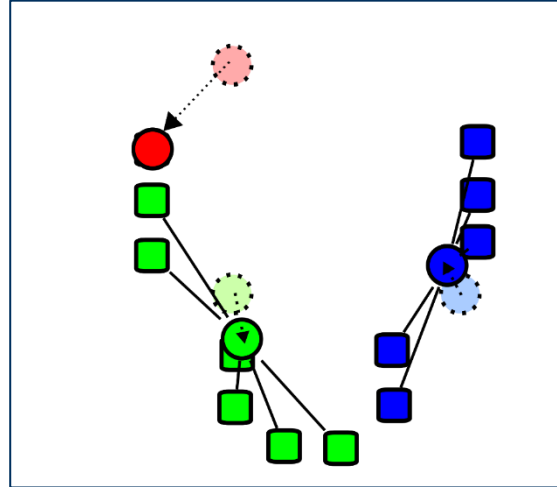
Step1: Random initialization of cluster centers



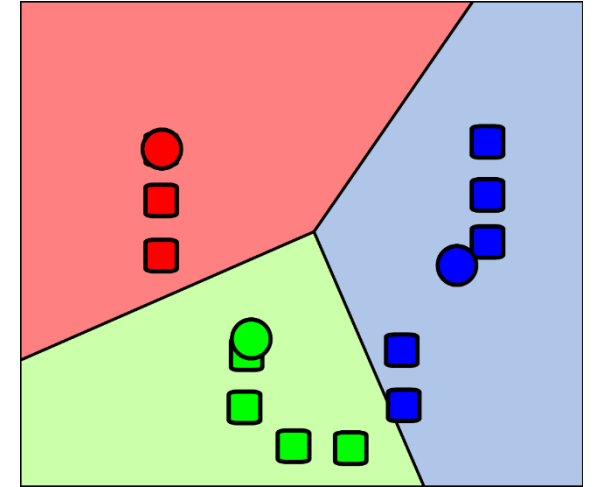
Step2: Tessellation of space into cluster regions



Step3: Replace cluster center with centroids

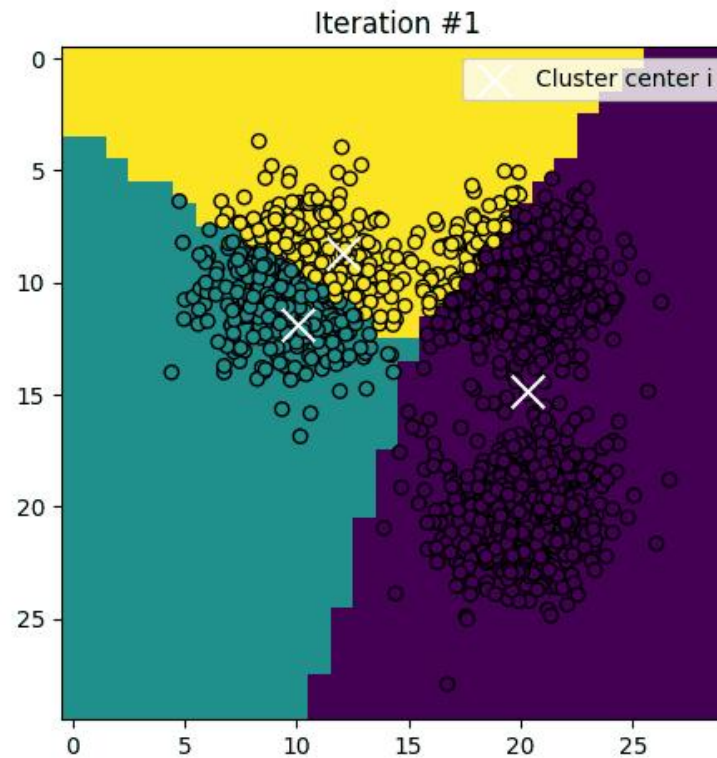


Step4: Repeat 2&3 until convergence



# K-Means Clustering

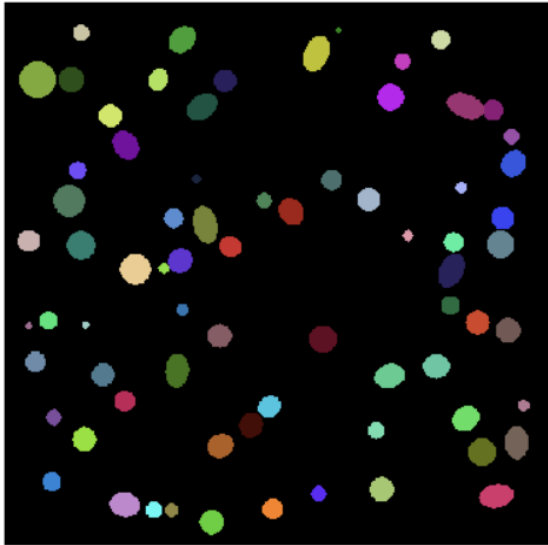
Clustering algorithm, where you *only* need to specify the number of clusters.



# Walk-through: Data Exploration

Goal: Understand shape measurements

Data: Shape measurements from *randomly* shaped blobs.



|   | label | area  | perimeter | minor_axis_length | major_axis_length | circularity | solidity | aspect_ratio | elongation |
|---|-------|-------|-----------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------|----------|--------------|------------|
| 0 | 1     | 97.0  | 32.970563 | 11.092860         | 11.092860         | 1.121318    | 0.788288 | 1.000000     | 0.000000   |
| 1 | 2     | 285.0 | 60.284271 | 19.052651         | 19.052651         | 0.985477    | 0.785116 | 1.000000     | 0.000000   |
| 2 | 3     | 473.0 | 79.597980 | 21.823280         | 27.594586         | 0.938138    | 0.785448 | 1.264456     | 0.209146   |
| 3 | 4     | 321.0 | 63.112698 | 19.033334         | 21.456036         | 1.012701    | 0.786033 | 1.127287     | 0.112915   |
| 4 | 5     | 407.0 | 72.769553 | 22.155138         | 23.384406         | 0.965839    | 0.785586 | 1.055485     | 0.052568   |

...



# Walk-through: Data Exploration

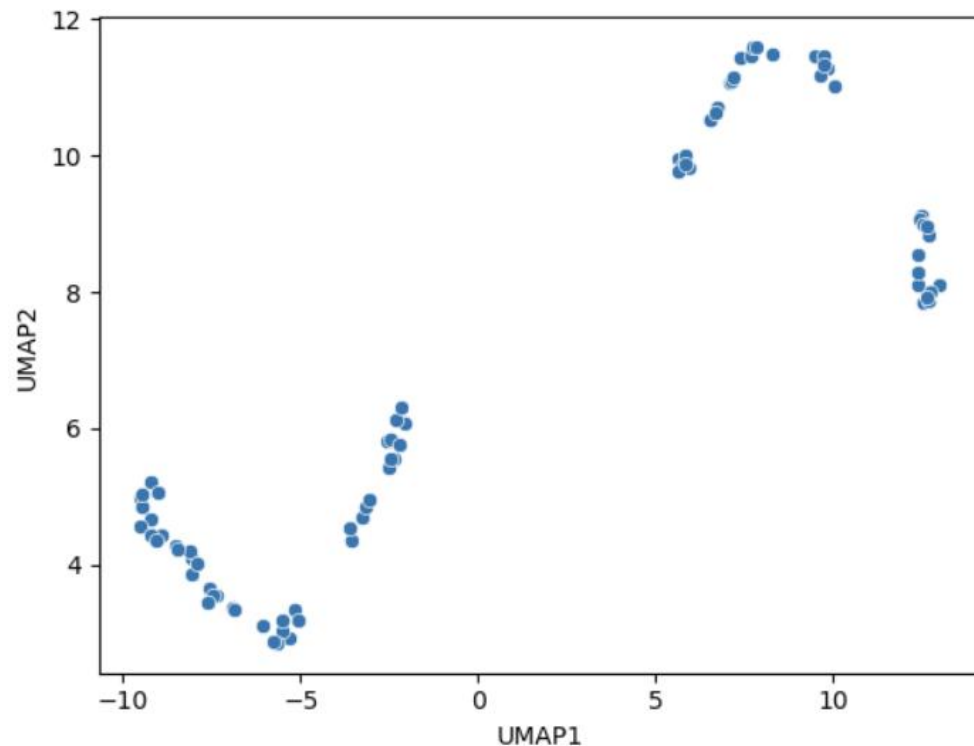
Step 1: Dimensionality reduction (UMAP)

Observation: There appear to be *2 distinct groups*

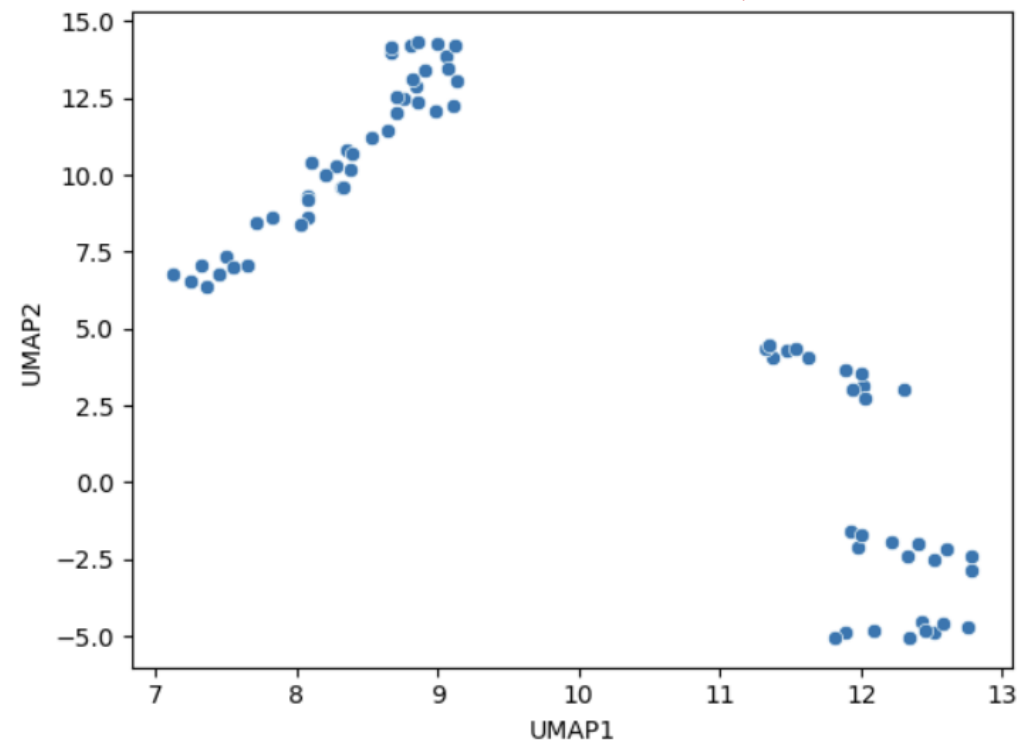
Pinning the random seed is no solution to this general problem.

Beware: UMAPs are non-deterministic. Different runs lead to different results.

Run 1:



Run 2:

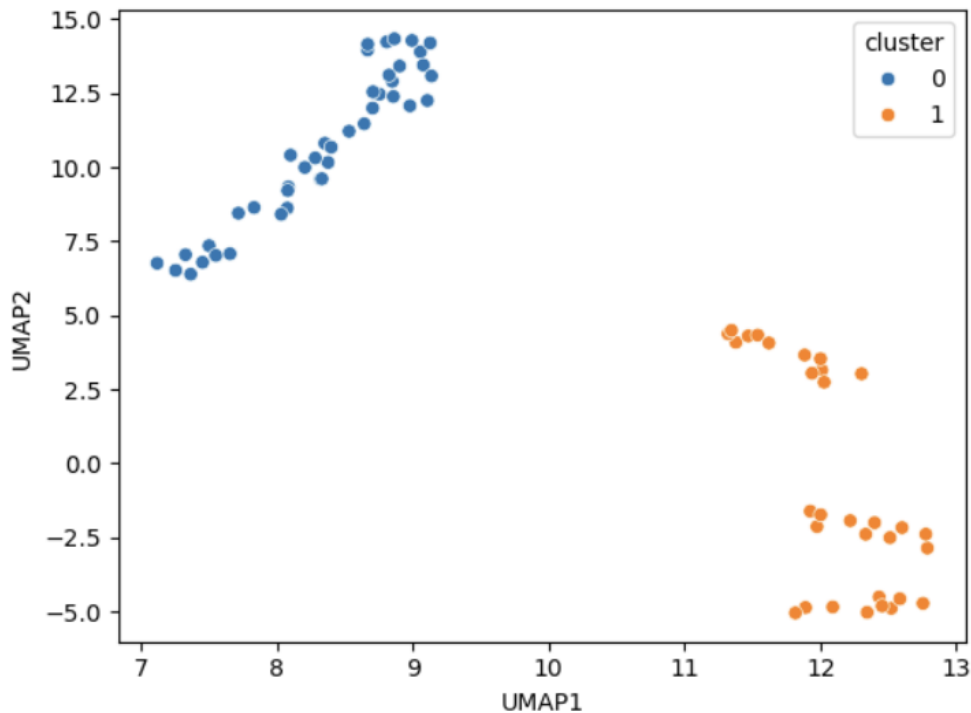


# Walk-through: Data Exploration

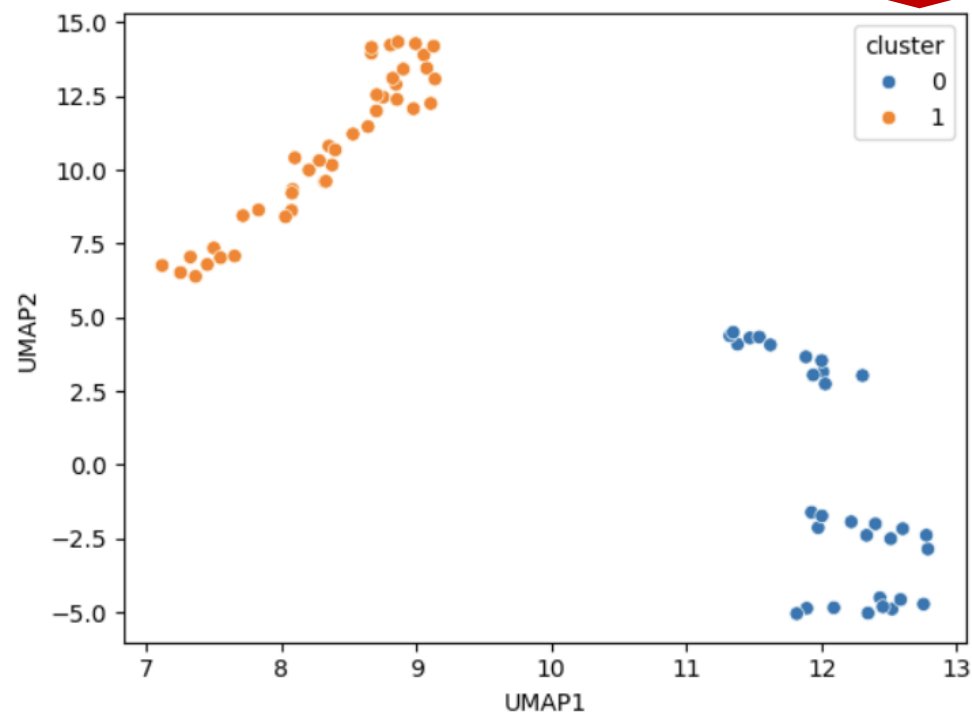
Step 2: Clustering data into 2 clusters

Using K-Means clustering

Run 1:

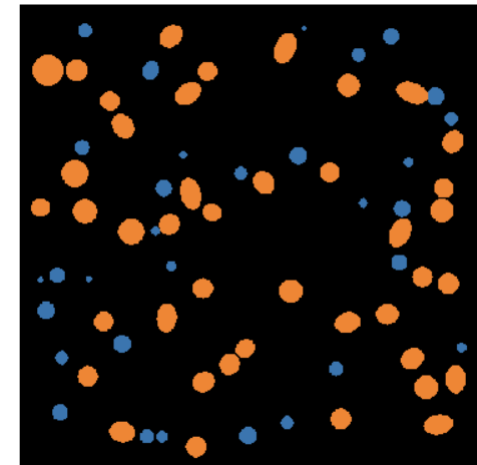


Run 2:



Pinning the random seed is no solution to this general problem.

Beware: Clustering-algorithms are non-deterministic. Different runs lead to different results.





# Walk-through: Data Exploration

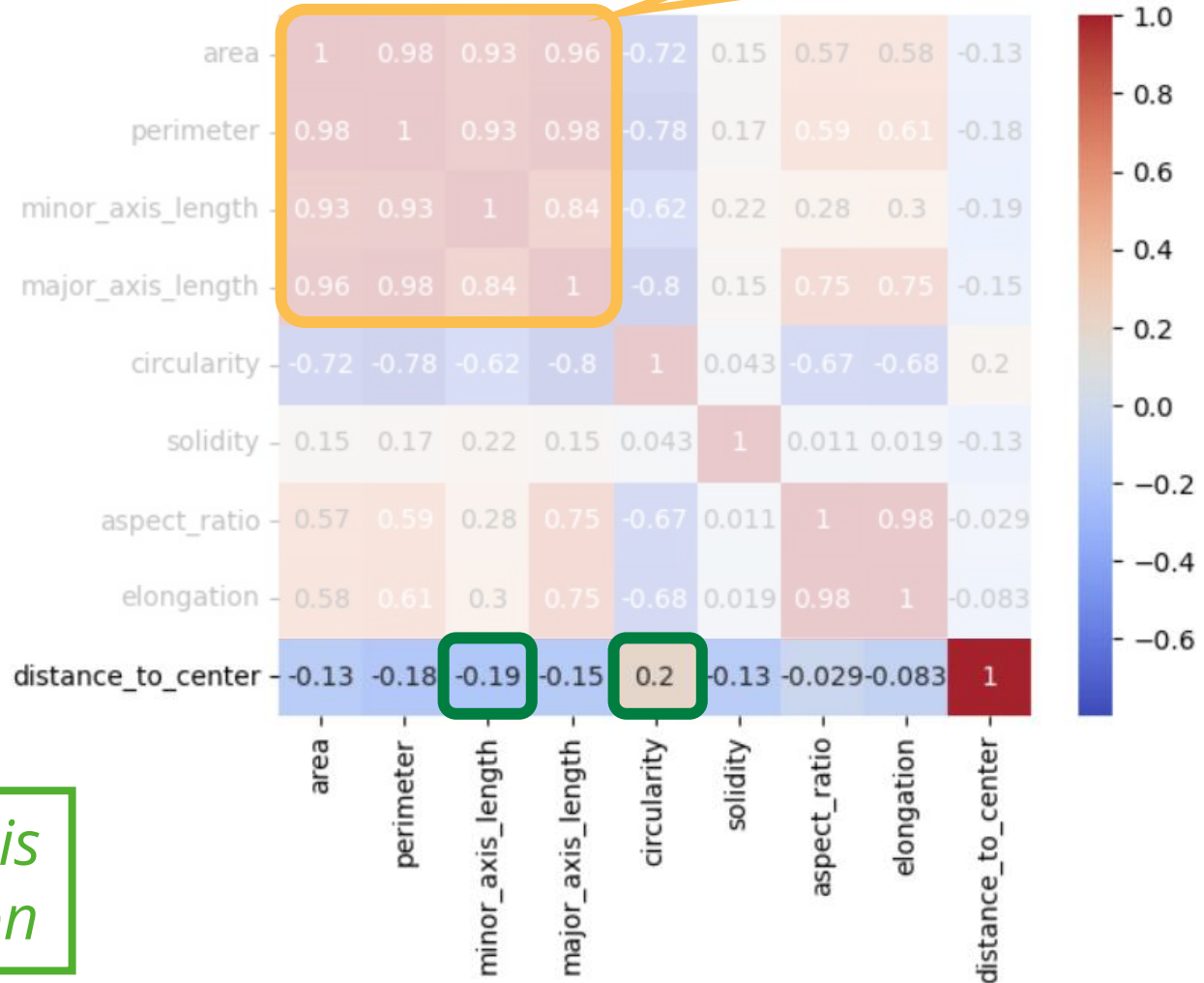
Side note: beware of feature correlation.

## Step 3: Feature selection

Based on correlation  
with distance to cluster-centers

Hypothesis:  
"Circularity and minor\_axis\_length  
allow to predict classification."

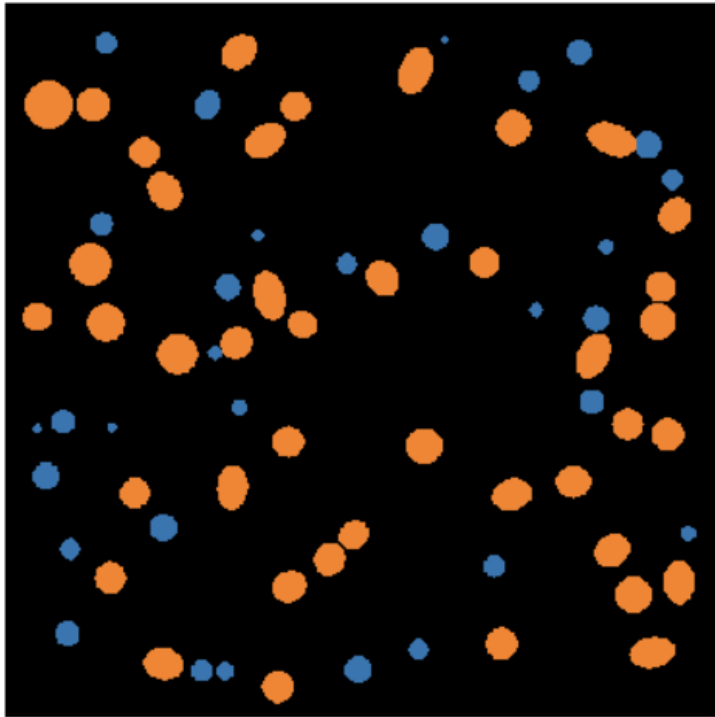
Hypothesis  
generation



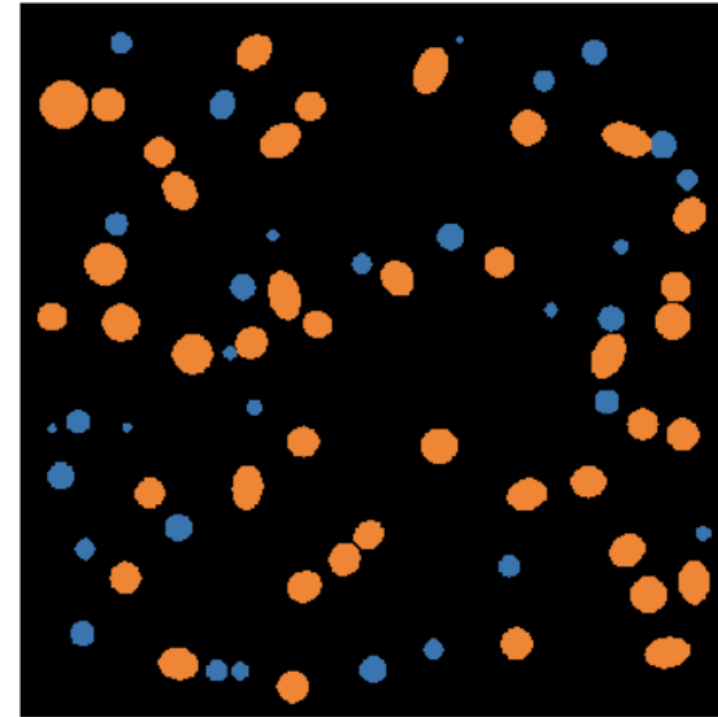
# Walk-through: Data Exploration

Step 4: Train a classifier (supervised ML)

Goal: Eliminate non-determinism



Clustering result (non-deterministic)



Classification result (deterministic, repeatable)

# Supervised Machine Learning

## Robert Haase

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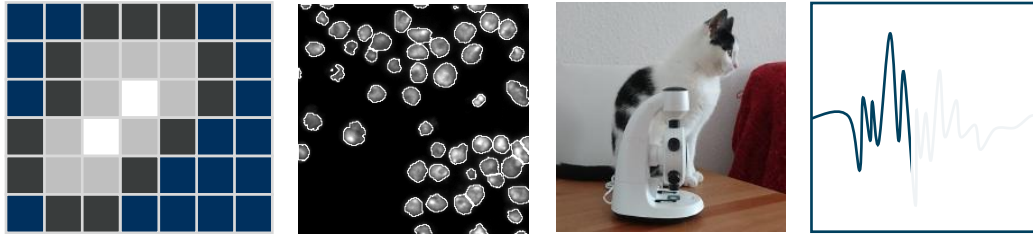


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# Supervised Machine learning

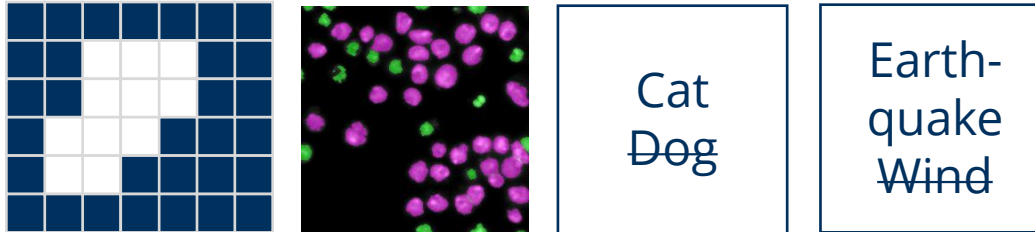
Automatic construction of predictive models from given data

Pixels, Objects, Images, Audio, Sensor data, Text, Measurements, ...

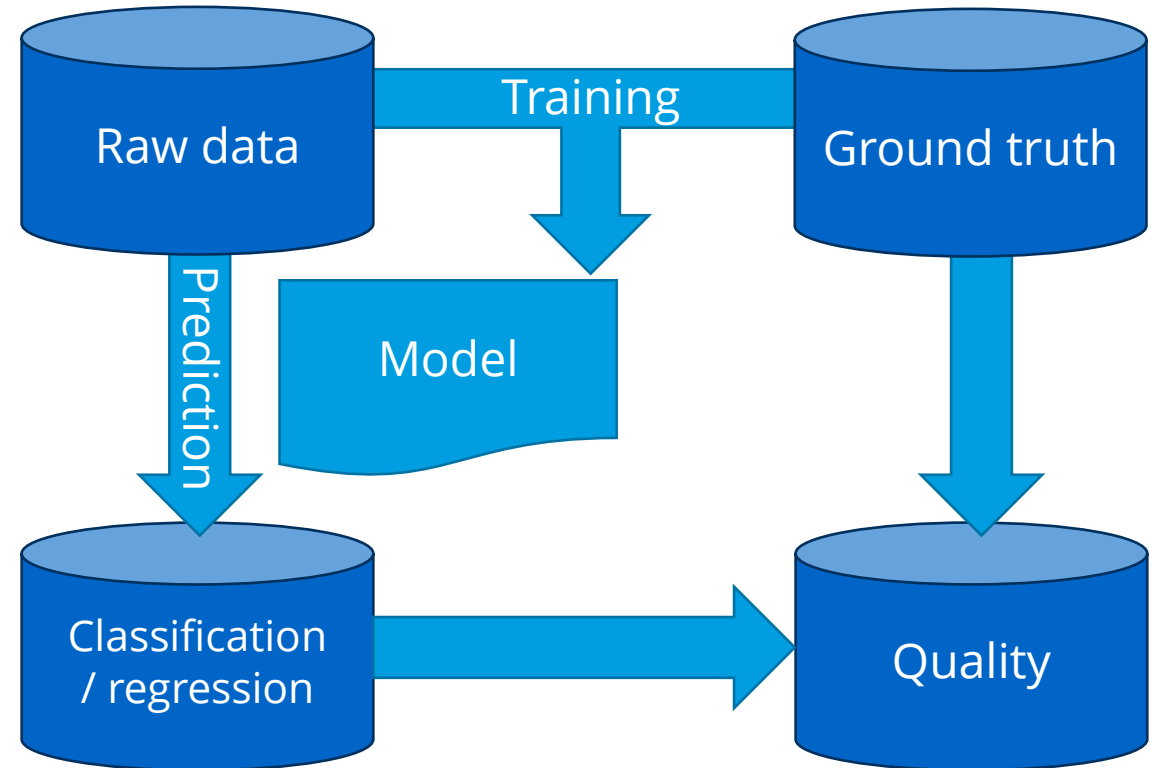
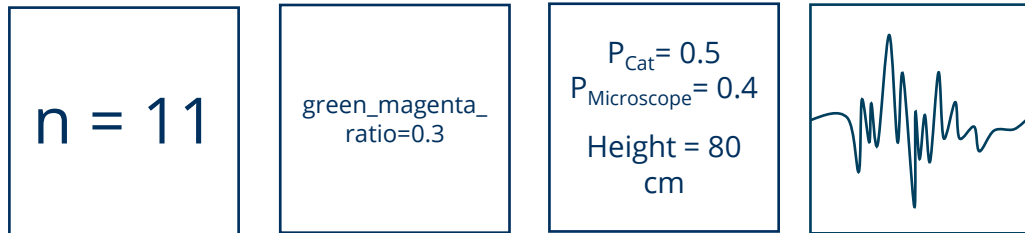


Annotated raw data, often generated by humans

Classification (categorical)

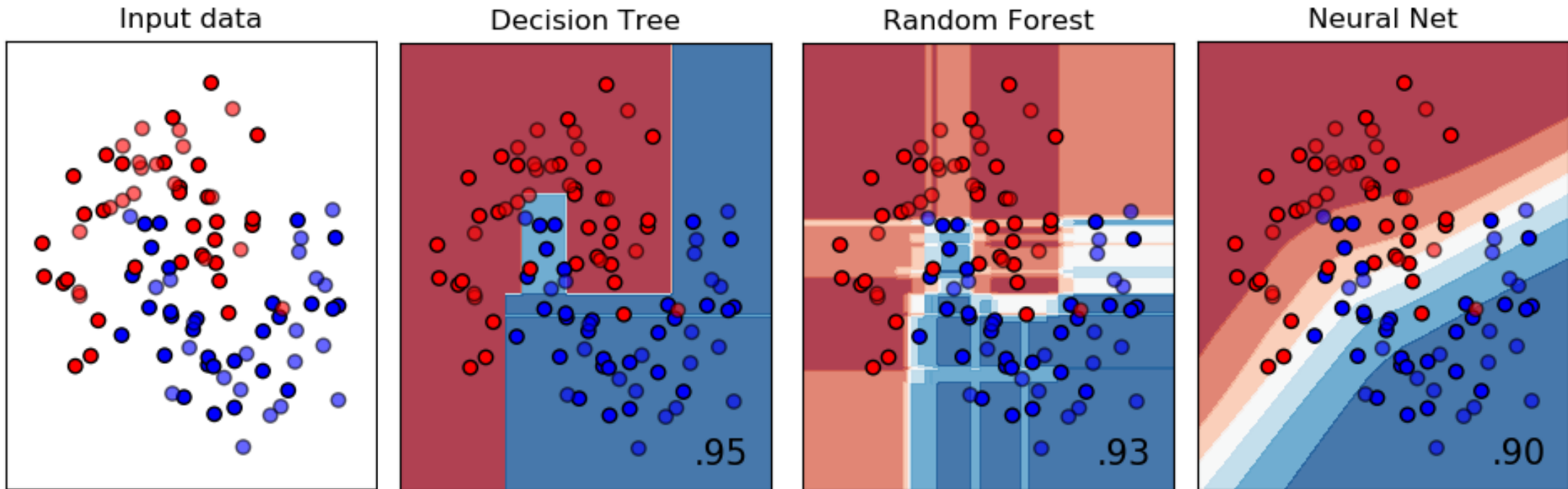


Regression (continuous numerical)



# Goal

Guess classification (color) from position of a sample in parameter space.

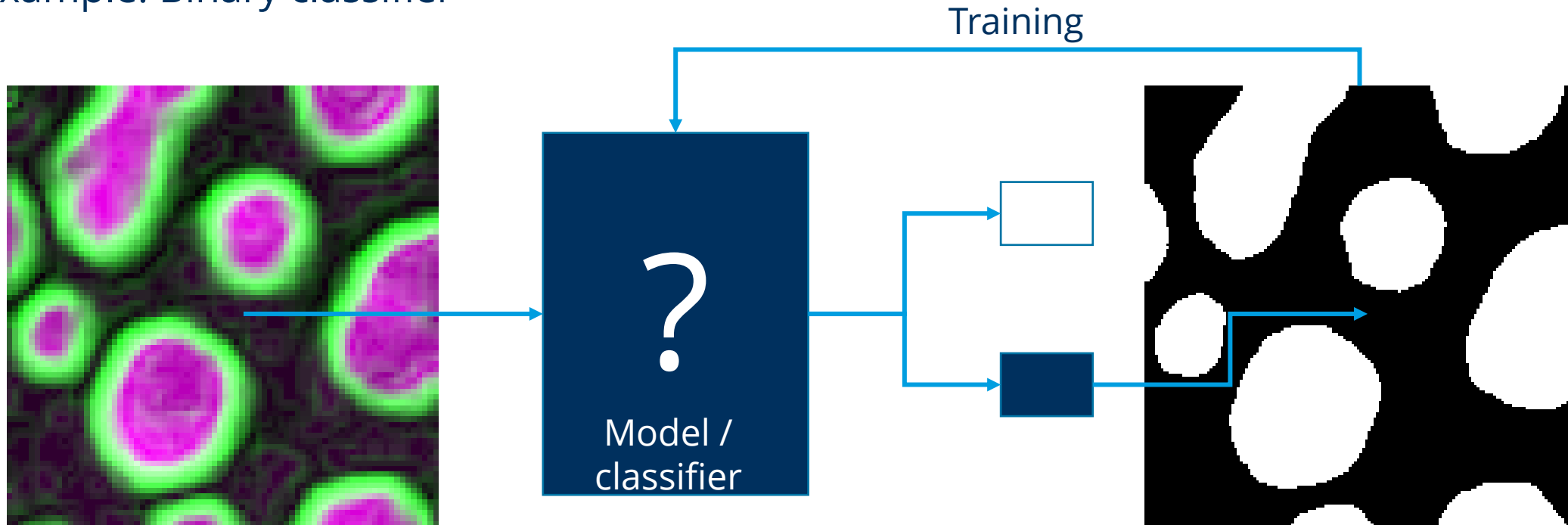


# Machine learning for image segmentation

*Supervised* machine learning: We give the computer some ground truth to learn from

The computer derives a *model* or a *classifier* which can judge if a pixel should be foreground (white) or background (black)

Example: Binary classifier





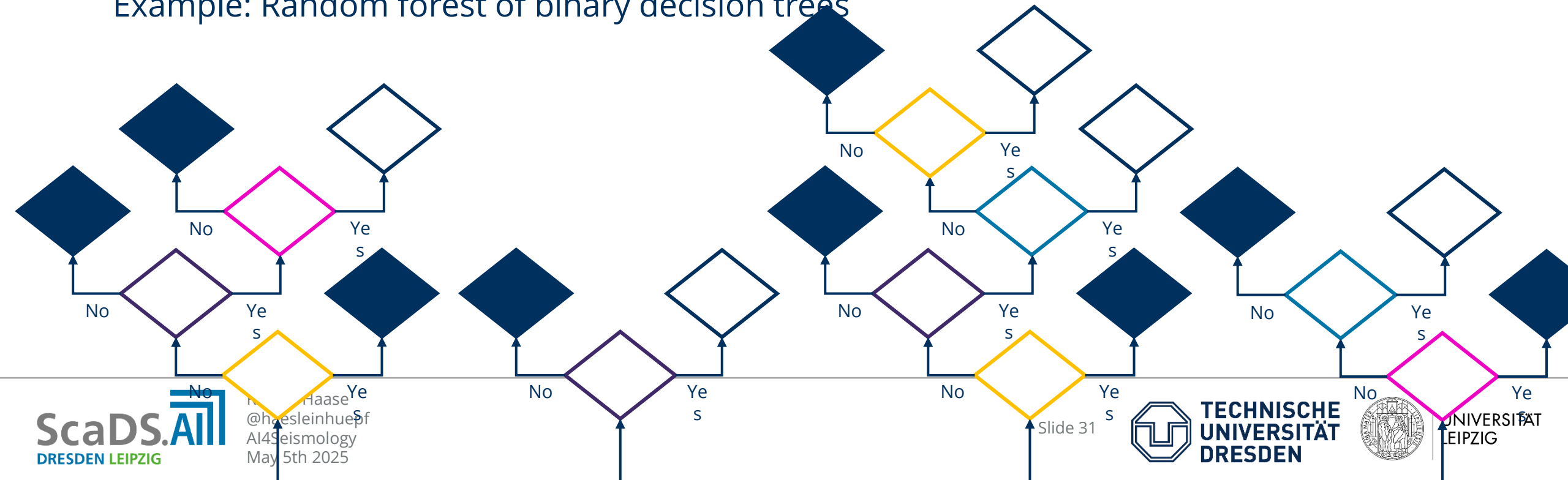
# Random forest based image segmentation

Decision trees are classifiers, they decide if a pixel should be white or black

Random decision trees are randomly initialized, afterwards evaluated and selected

Random forests consist of many random decision trees

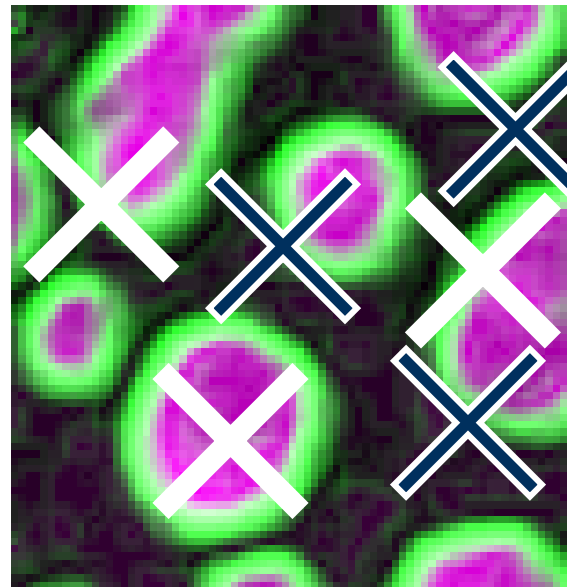
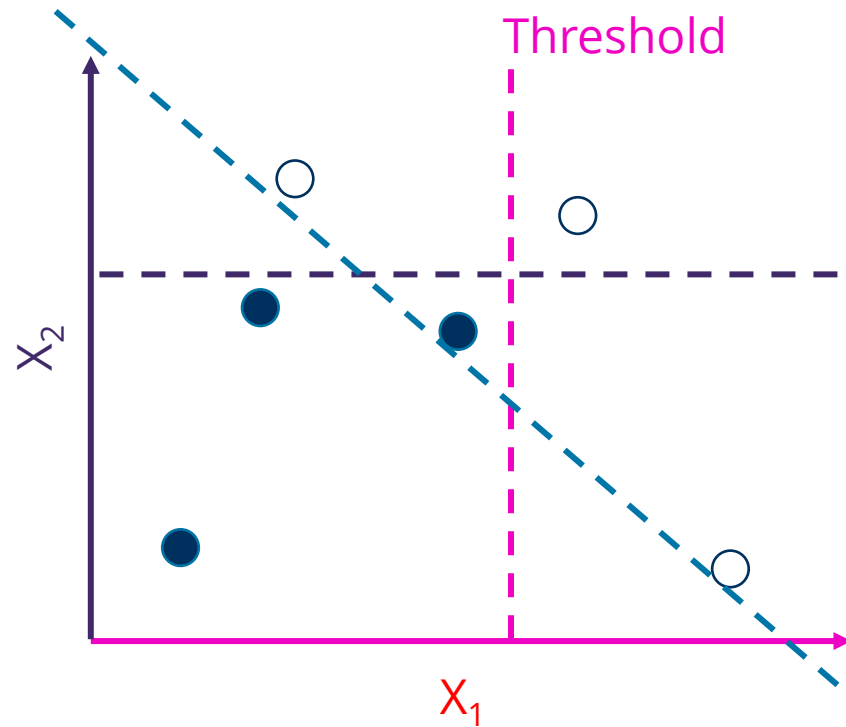
Example: Random forest of binary decision trees



# Deriving random decision trees

For efficient processing, we randomly *sample* our data set

- Individual pixels, their intensity and their classification

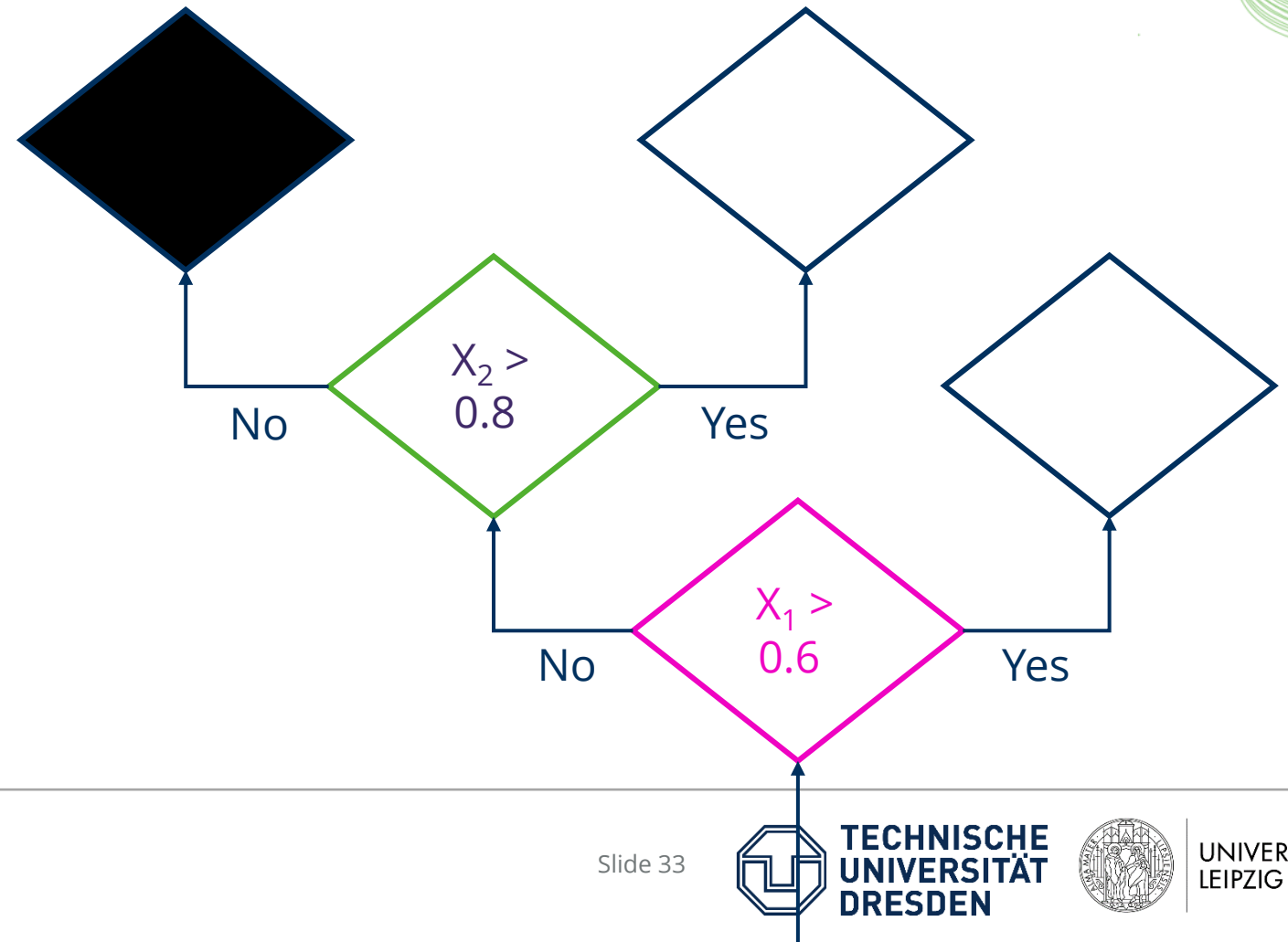
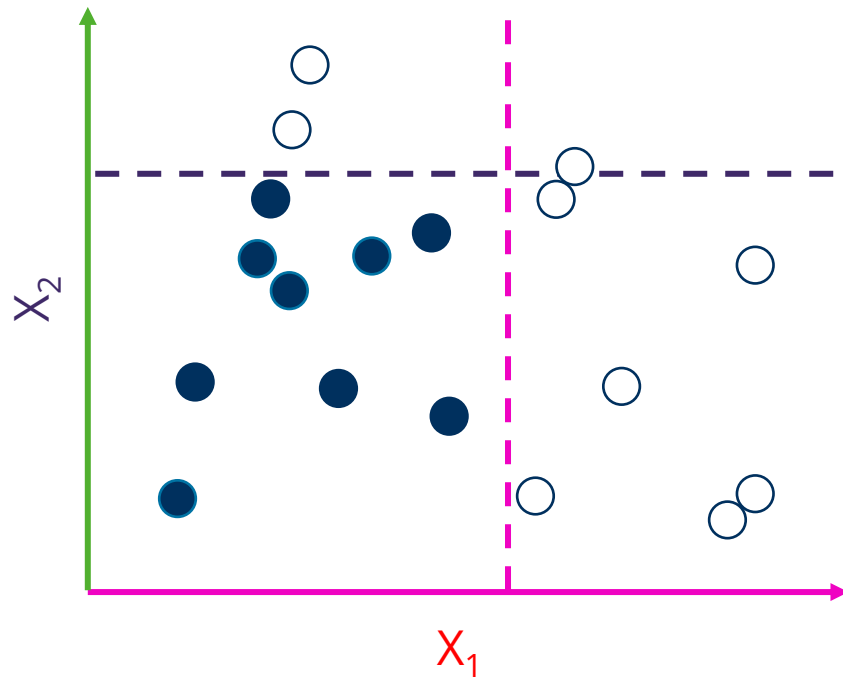


Note: You cannot use a single threshold to make the decision



# Deriving random decision trees

Decision trees combine several thresholds on several parameters

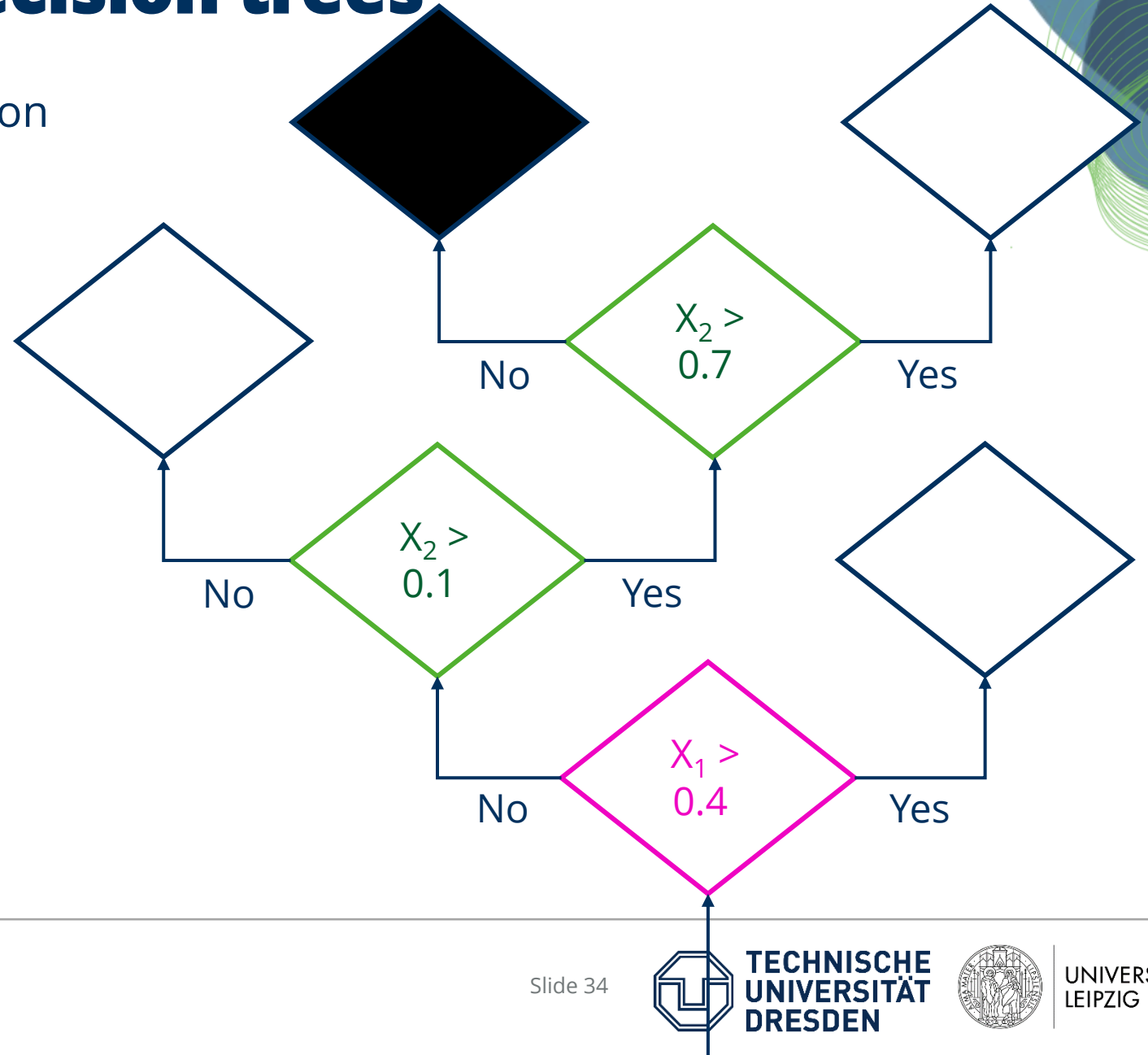
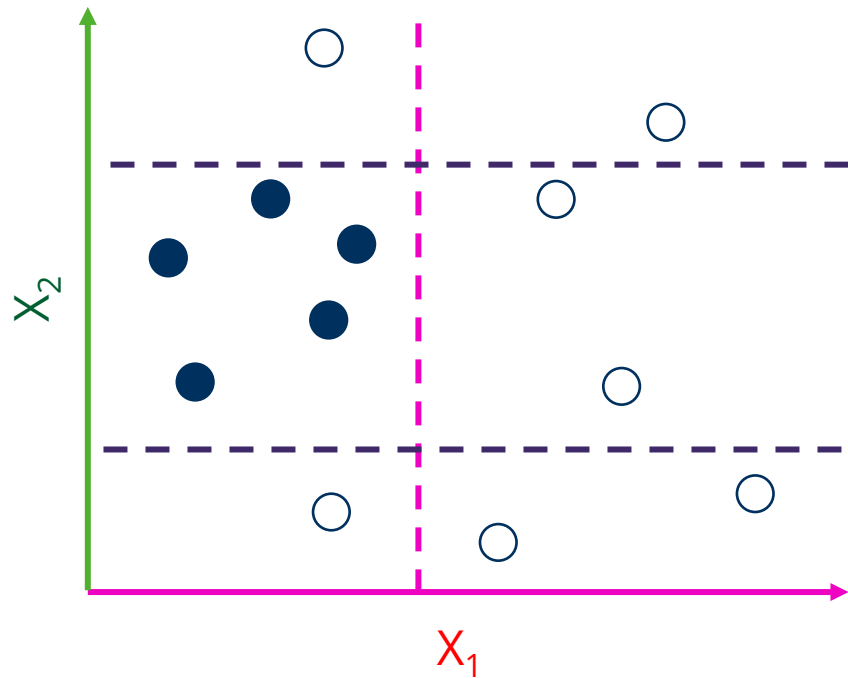


# Deriving random decision trees

Depending on sampling, the decision trees are different

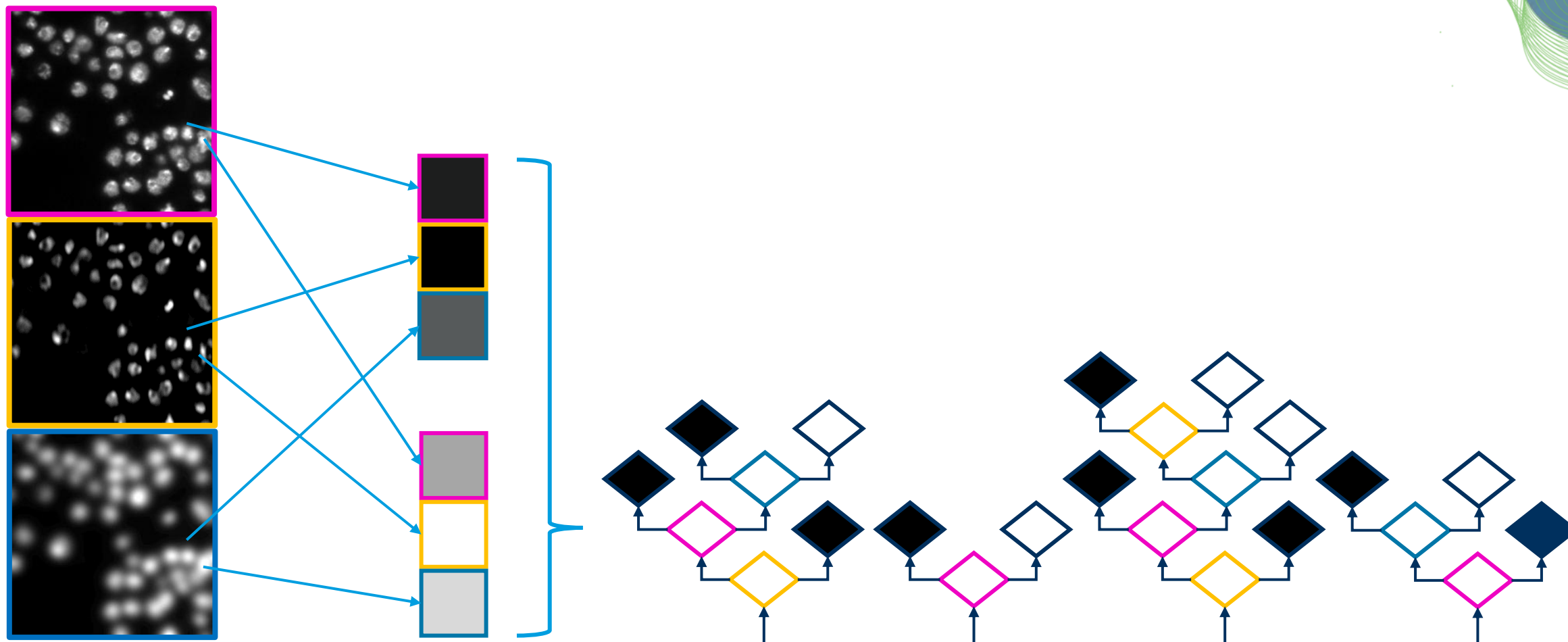


Depending on sampling, the decision trees are different



# Random Forest Pixel Classifiers

By training many decision trees, errors are equilibrated

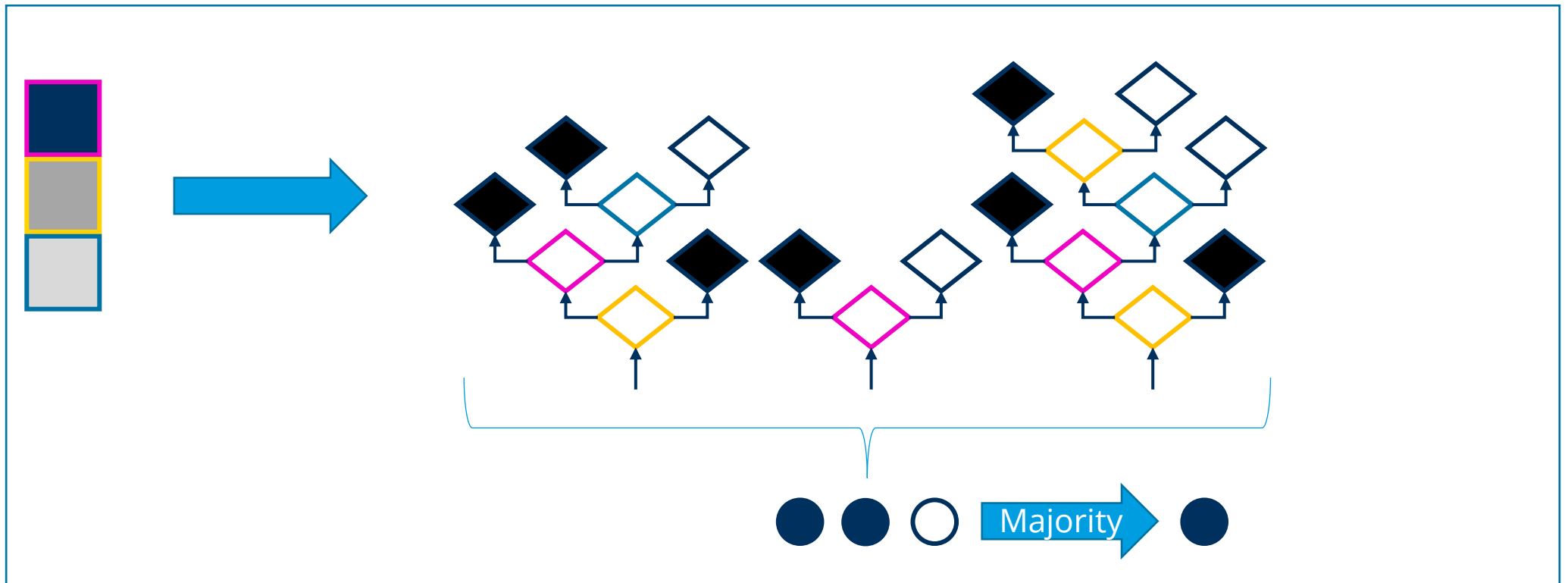


Sampling

# Random Forest Pixel Classifiers

Combination of individual tree decisions by voting or max / mean

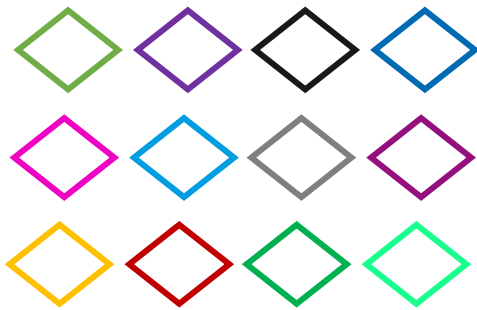
Prediction



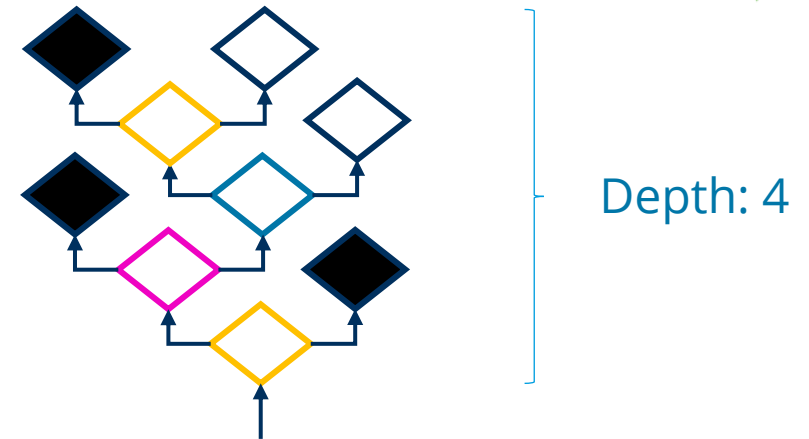
# Random Forest Pixel Classifiers

Typical numbers for pixel classifiers in microscopy

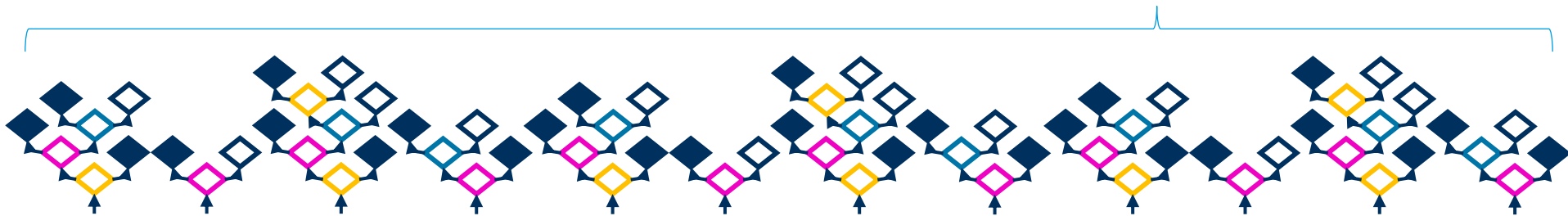
Available features:



- Gaussian blur image
- DoG image
- LoG image
- Hessian
- ....



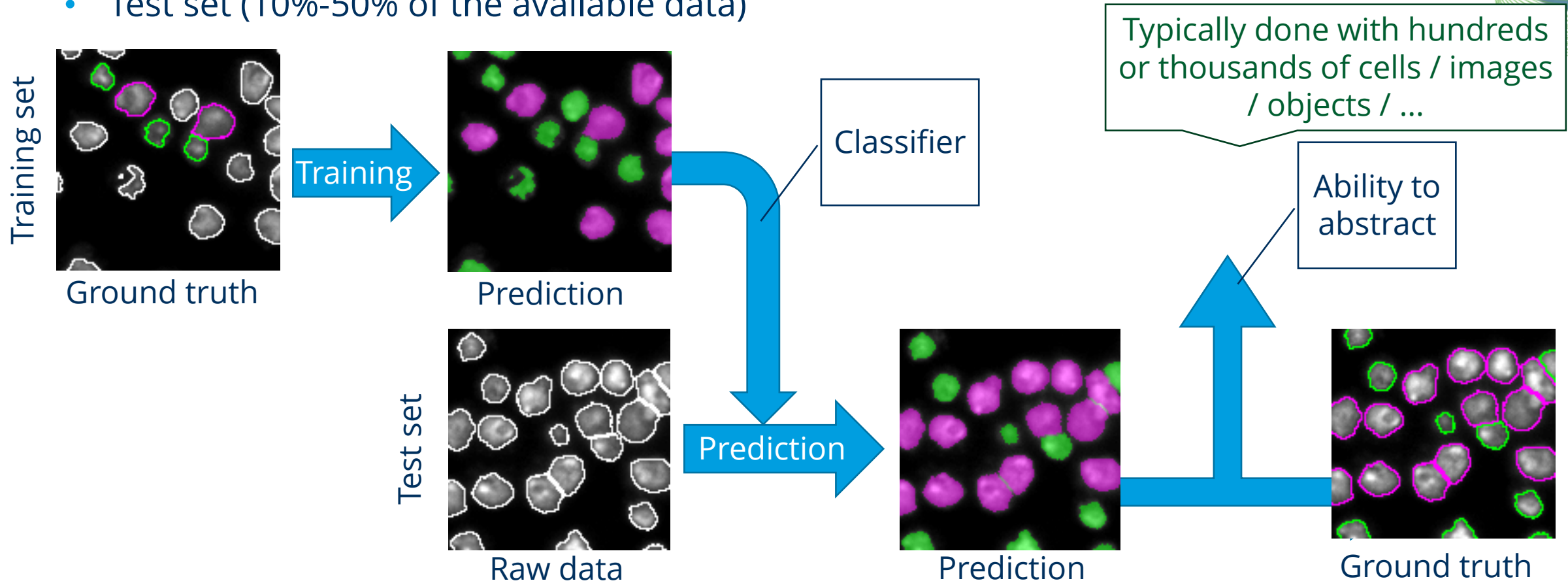
Number of trees: > 100



# Model validation

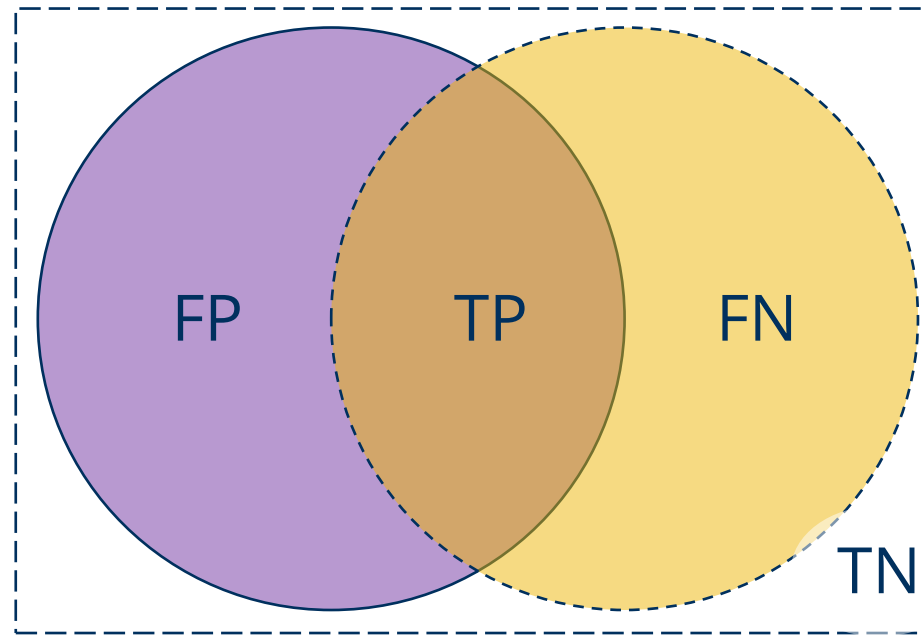
In order to assess model quality, we split the ground truth into two set

- Training set (50%-90% of the available data)
- Test set (10%-50% of the available data)



# Model validation

Based on the theory of sets



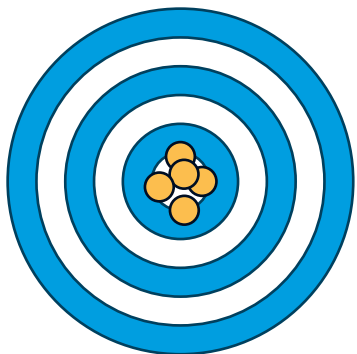
- A Prediction
- B Reference / ground truth
- ROI Region of interest
- TP True-positive
- FN False-negative
- FP False-positive
- TN True-negative

$$\text{Accuracy} = \frac{\text{correct classifications}}{\text{all classifications}} \quad \text{This means:} \quad = \frac{TP + TN}{FP + FN + TP + TN}$$

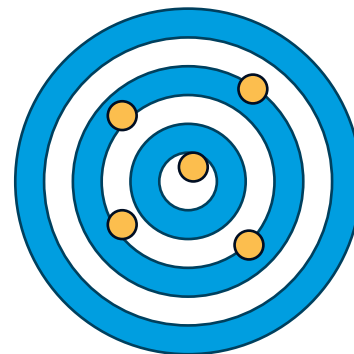
$$\text{Precision} = \frac{\text{Relevant retrieved instances}}{\text{All retrieved instances}} \quad \text{This may mean:} \quad = \frac{TP}{FP + TP}$$



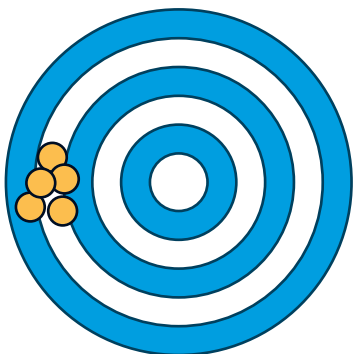
# Model validation: Accuracy versus precision



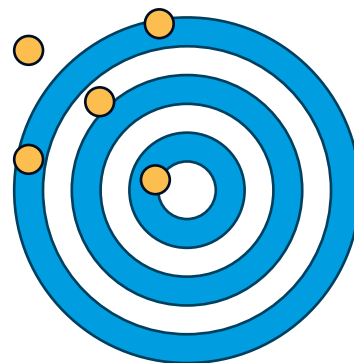
Accurate and precise



Accurate and but not precise



Not accurate and but precise



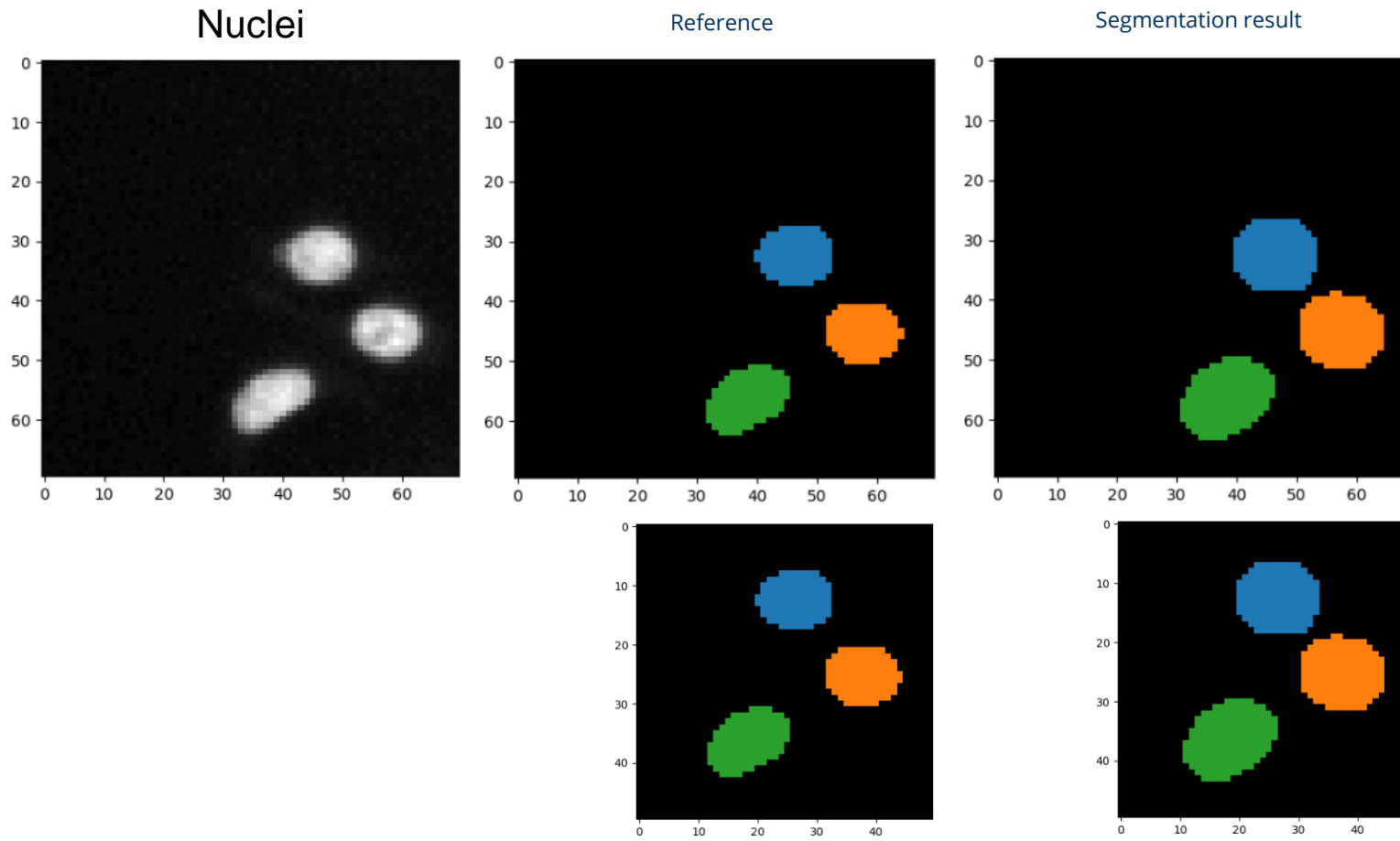
Neither accurate nor precise

Lesson learned:  
A single quality  
metric cannot  
describe the whole  
situation



# Model validation: Accuracy versus Jaccard Index

Side-effect of number of true negatives



$$A = \frac{TP + TN}{FN + FP + TP + TN}$$

$$J = \frac{TP}{FN + FP + TP}$$

Accuracy: 0.97

Jaccard Index: 0.73

Accuracy decreases  
because there are less  
correct black pixels (TN)

Accuracy: 0.95

Jaccard Index: 0.73

# Deep Learning

## Robert Haase

Funded by



Bundesministerium  
für Bildung  
und Forschung

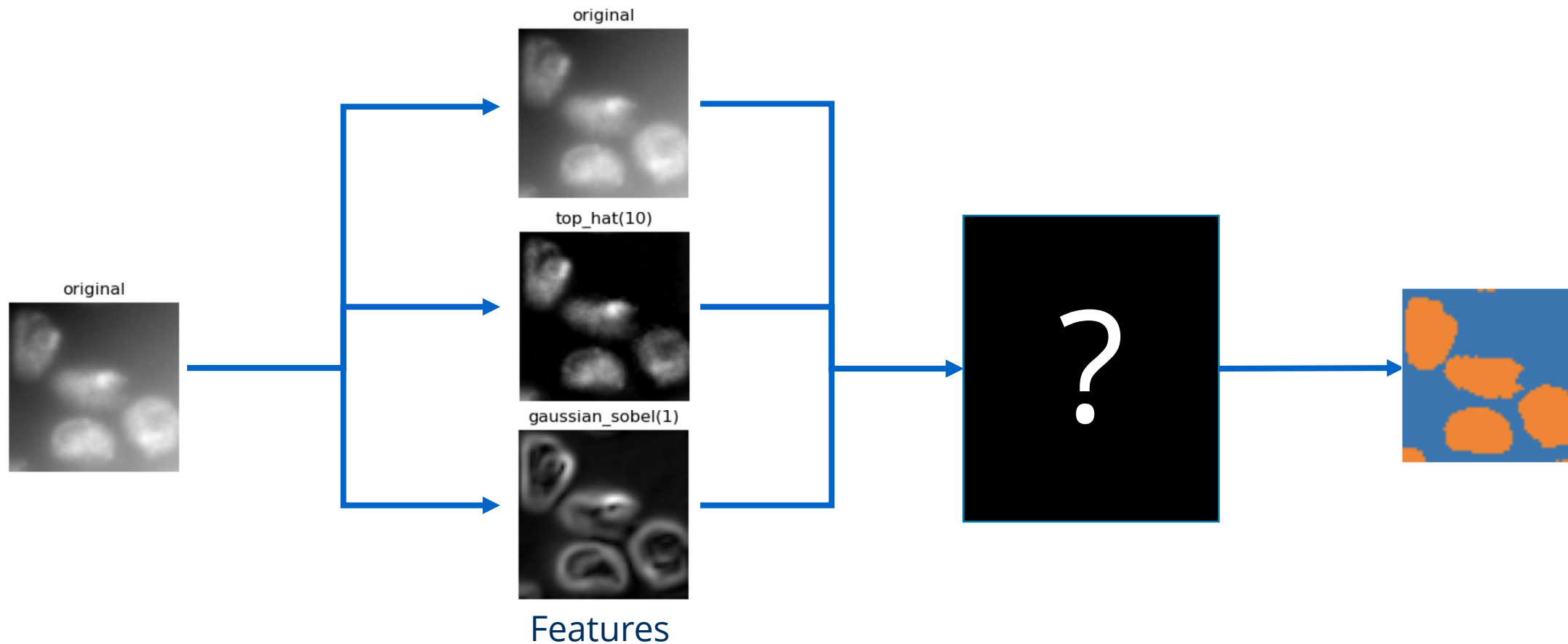
SACHSEN



Diese Maßnahme wird gefördert durch die Bundesregierung  
aufgrund eines Beschlusses des Deutschen Bundestages.  
Diese Maßnahme wird mitfinanziert durch Steuermittel auf  
der Grundlage des von den Abgeordneten des Sächsischen  
Landtags beschlossenen Haushaltes.

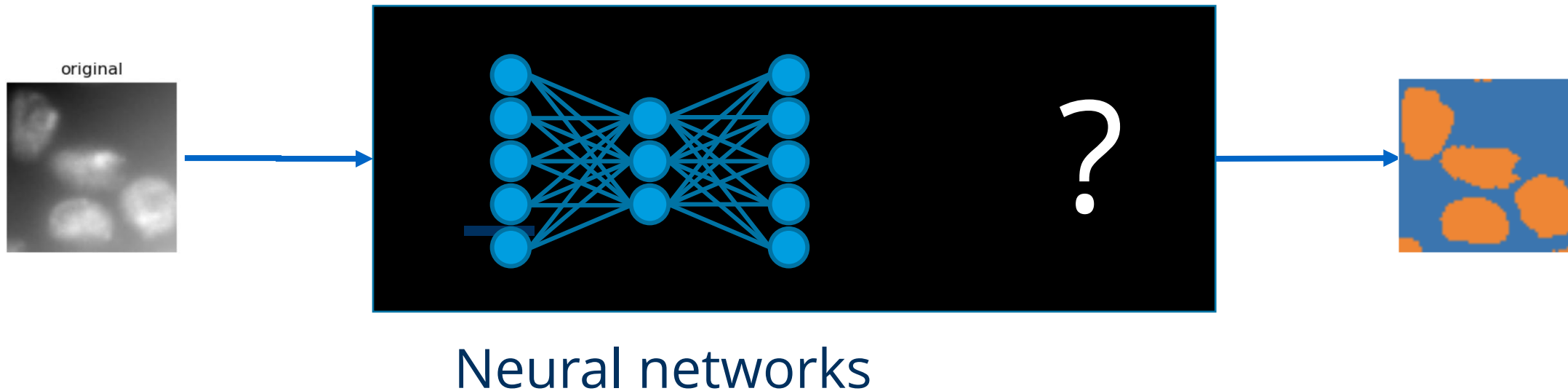
# Machine learning for image analysis

In classical machine learning, we typically select features for training our classifier



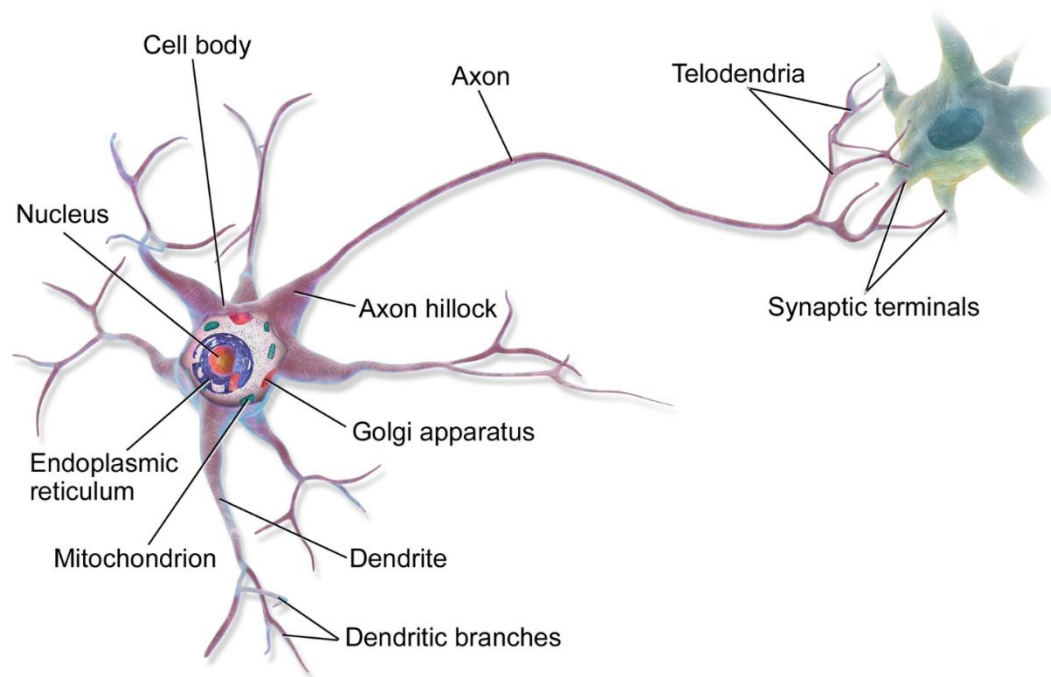
# Deep learning for image analysis

In deep learning, this selection becomes part of the black box



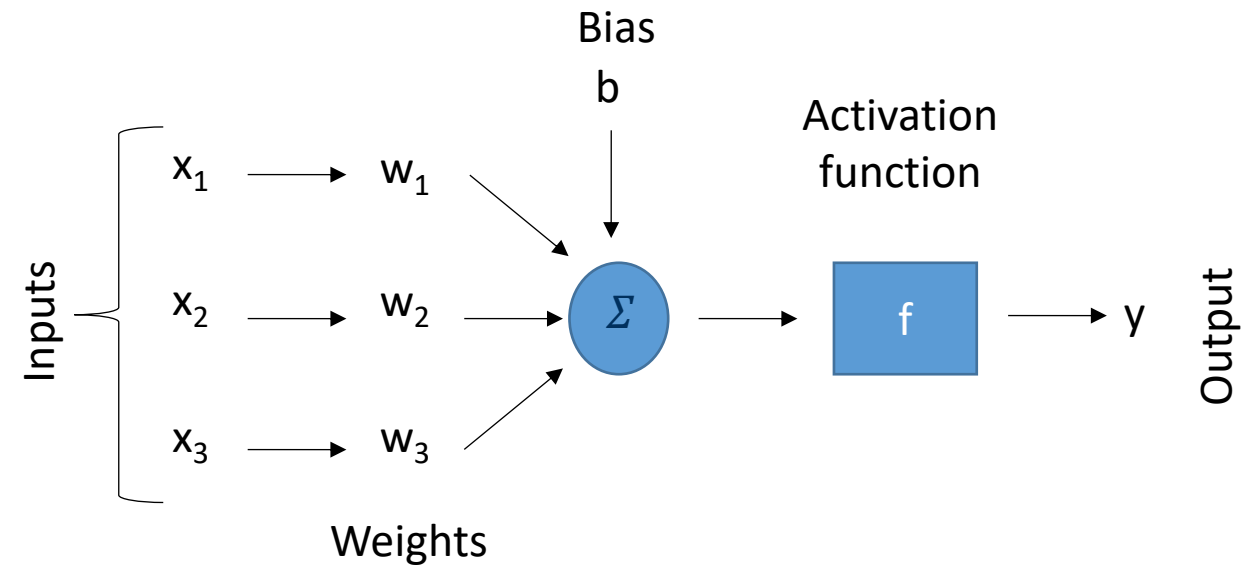
# Neural networks

- How biologists see neurons



- How computer scientists see neurons

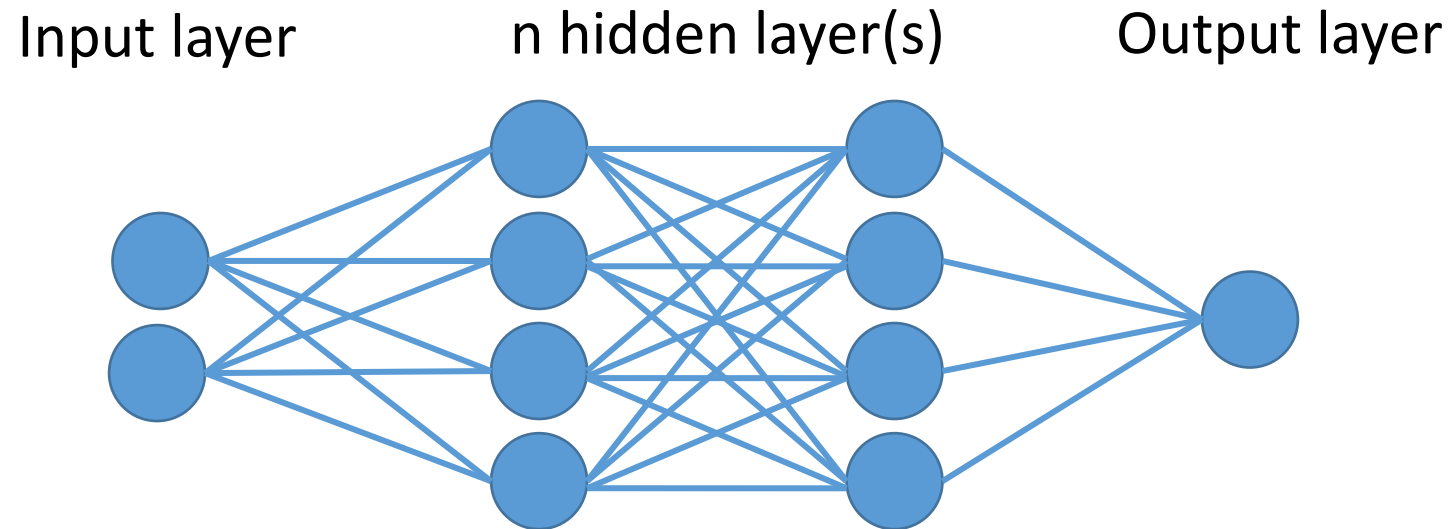
“perceptron”



# Neural Networks

- Early form: “Multilayer Perceptron”
- fully connected class of feedforward artificial neural network

If there are *many* hidden layers, we speak of a *deep* neural network

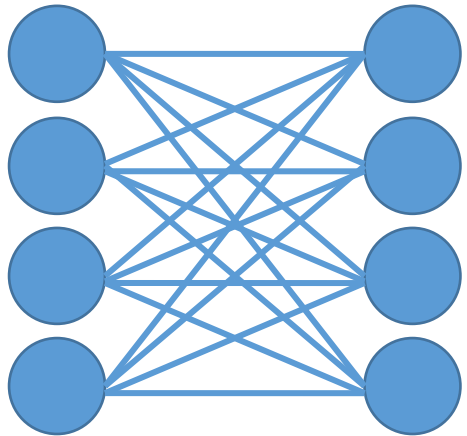




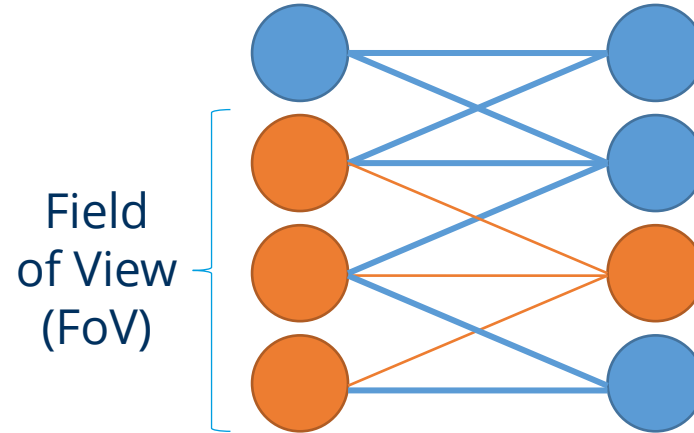
# Convolutional neural networks

- Layer types

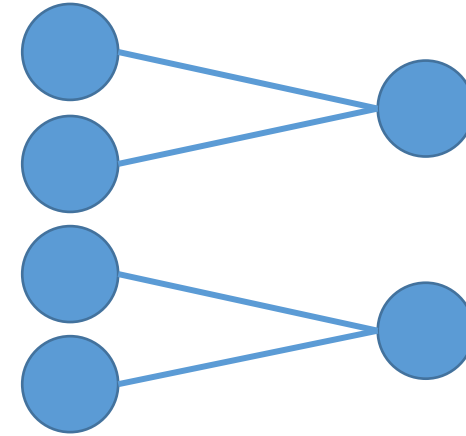
Fully connected layer



Convolutional layer



Pooling layer  
("Max pool", "Average pool")



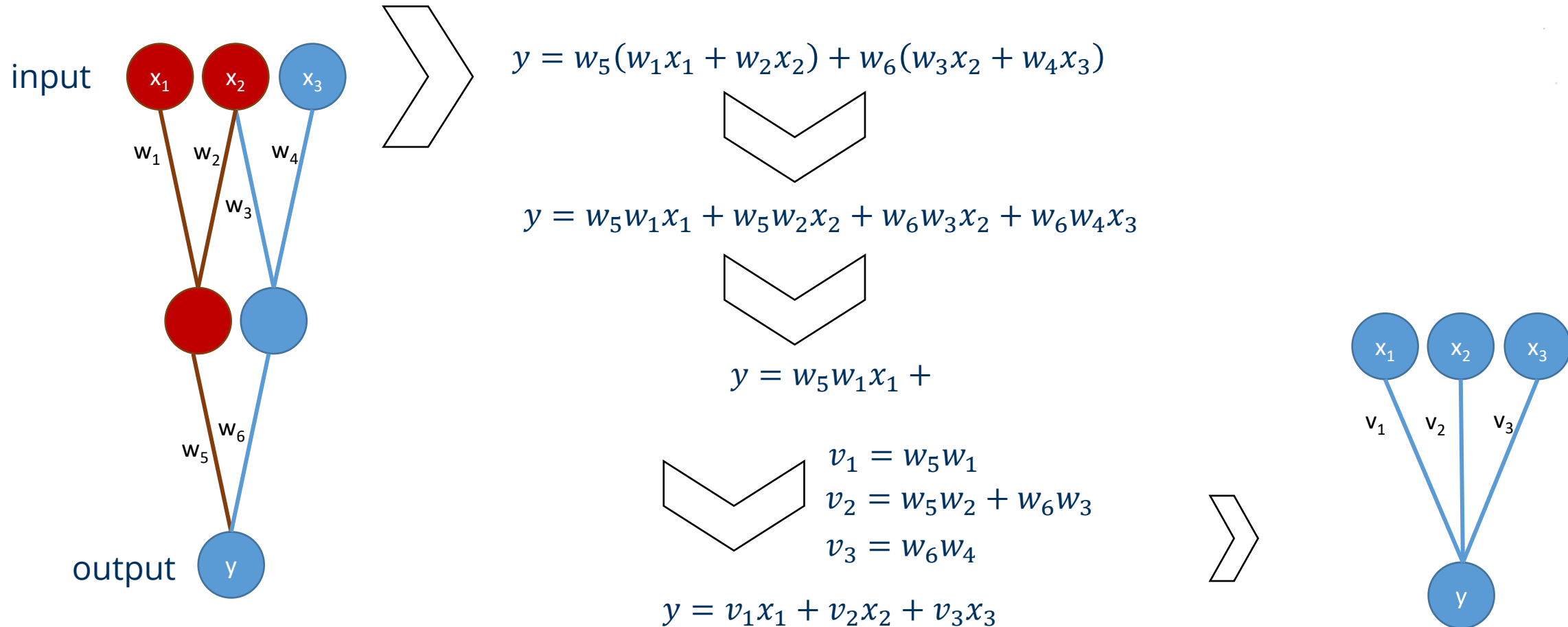
|    |    |   |    |
|----|----|---|----|
| 3  | 15 | 1 | 13 |
| 9  | 7  | 0 | 10 |
| 11 | 5  | 5 | 3  |
| 1  | 8  | 9 | 6  |

Max pooling

|    |    |
|----|----|
| 15 | 13 |
| 11 | 9  |

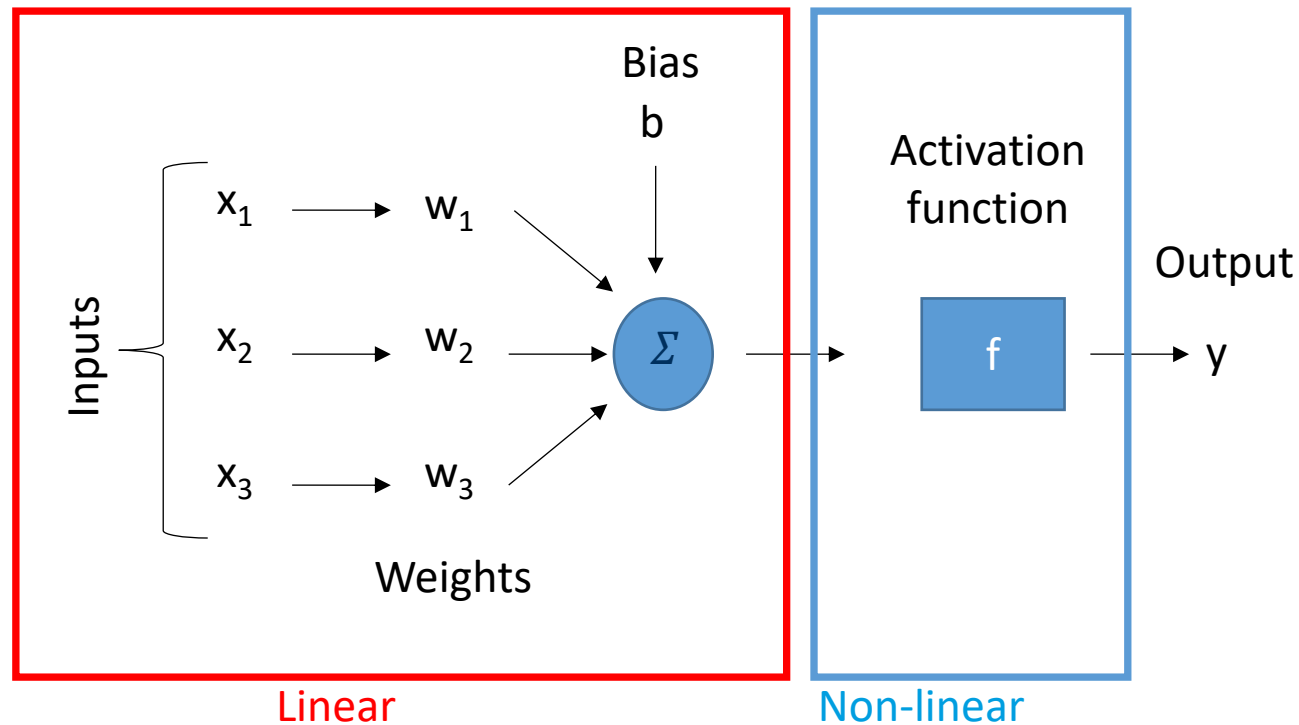
# Convolutional neural networks

- Assuming we had no activation functions in the network layers can be reduced by eliminating brackets!



# Activation functions

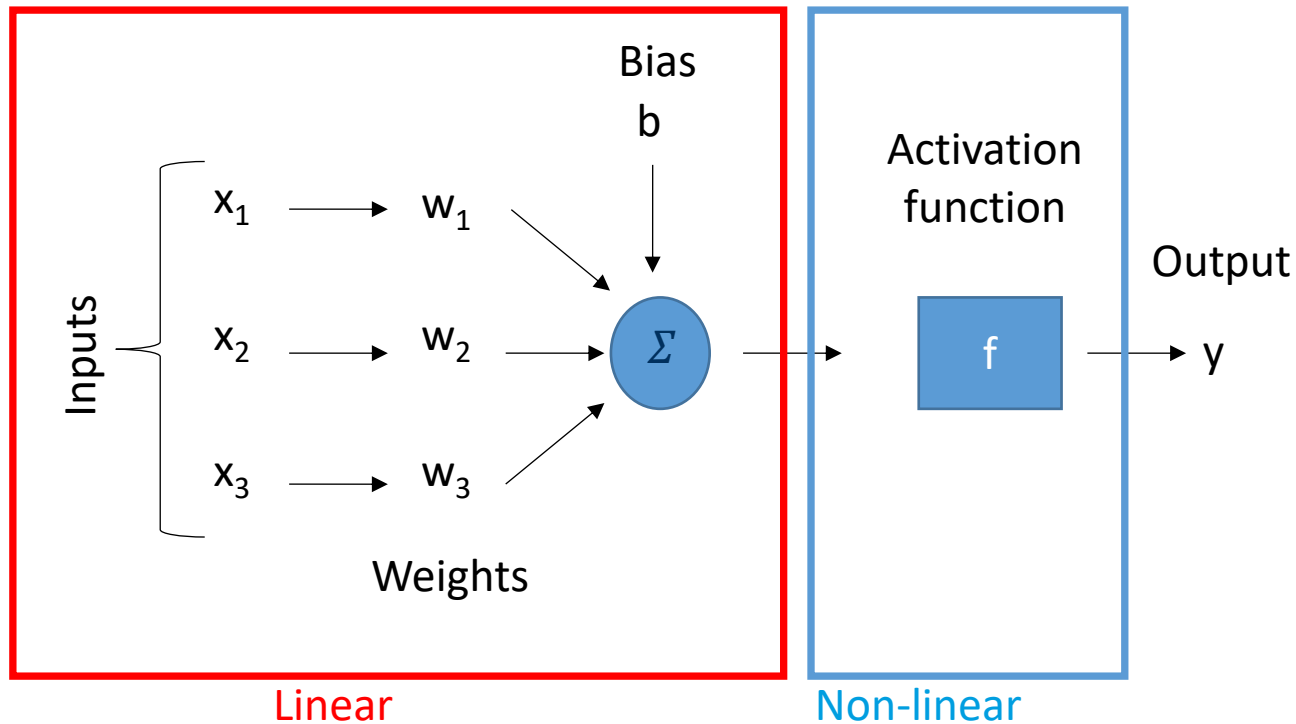
- Introduction of *non-linearity* and *activation functions* enabled what we call *deep-learning* today.

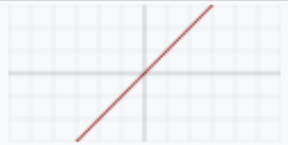


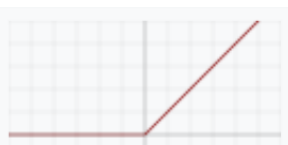


$$y = f(w_1x_1 + w_2x_2 + w_3x_3 + b)$$

# Activation functions

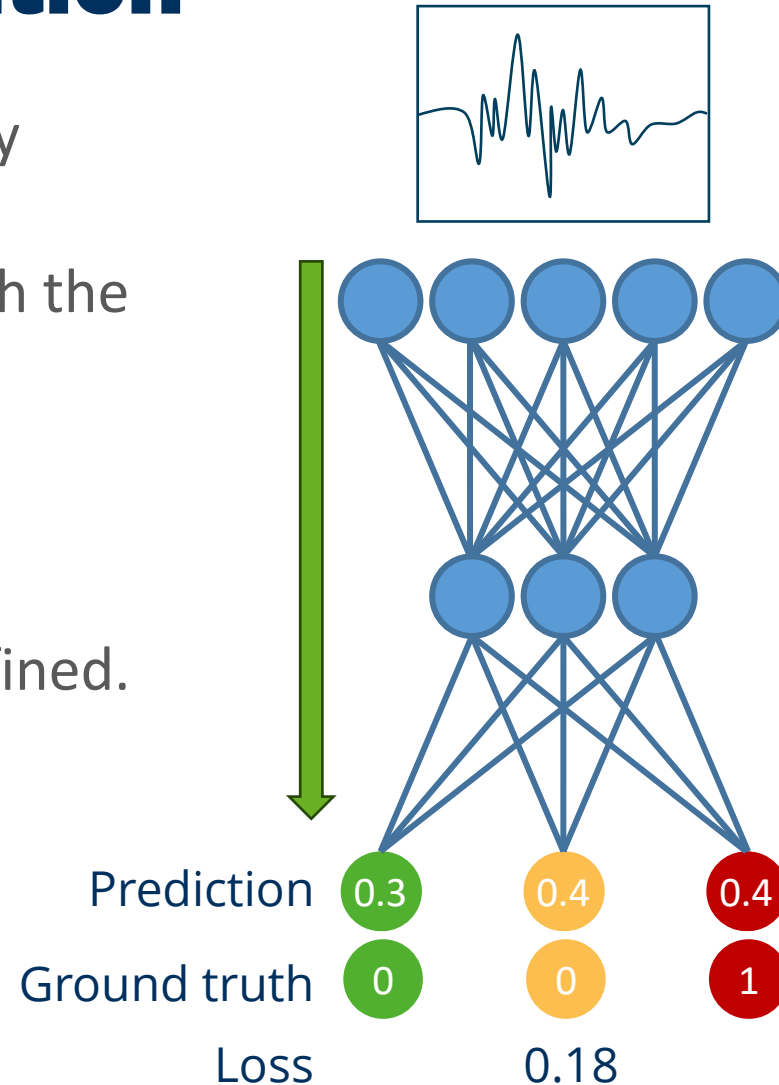
- Introduction of *non-linearity* and *activation functions* enabled what we call *deep-learning* today.



|   |  |   |
|---|--|---|
| Identity                                    |   | $x$   |
| Binary step                                 |   | $\begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < 0 \\ 1 & \text{if } x \geq 0 \end{cases}$   |
| Logistic, sigmoid, or soft step             |   | $\sigma(x) \doteq \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}}$   |
| Rectified linear unit (ReLU) <sup>[8]</sup> |  | $(x)^+ \doteq \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \leq 0 \\ x & \text{if } x > 0 \end{cases}$<br>$= \max(0, x) = x \mathbf{1}_{x>0}$ |

# Learning: Back propagation

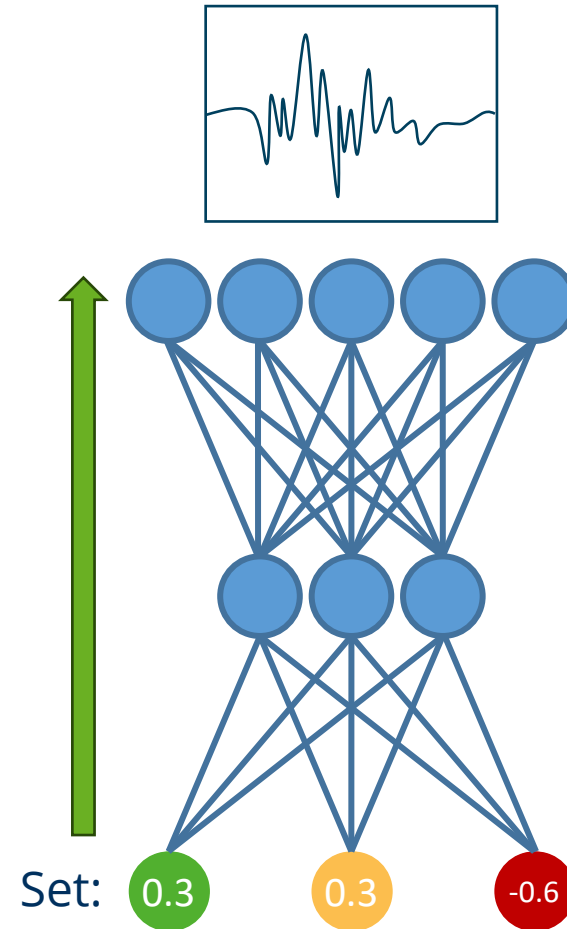
- Step 0: Initialize the network randomly (weights, bias)
- Step 1: **Forward pass** the input through the network, get an initial prediction
- Step 2: Compare the output with the ground truth, compute the error (loss function)
  - The loss function can be freely defined.
  - Example: mean squared error
- Step 3: Update weights



- Silence
- Tourists jumping on a sensor
- Earthquake approaching

# Learning: Back propagation

- Updating weights:
  - Set output to the error (per-parameter gradient)
  - **Backward-pass**: add/subtract gradients from weights, to push the network towards giving the right answer.
- Execute the same procedure for next sample
- Execute the same for multiple *epochs*



- Silence
- Tourists jumping on a sensor
- Earthquake approaching



# Train- [validation]- Test-split

Training dataset (e.g. 80% of the data)

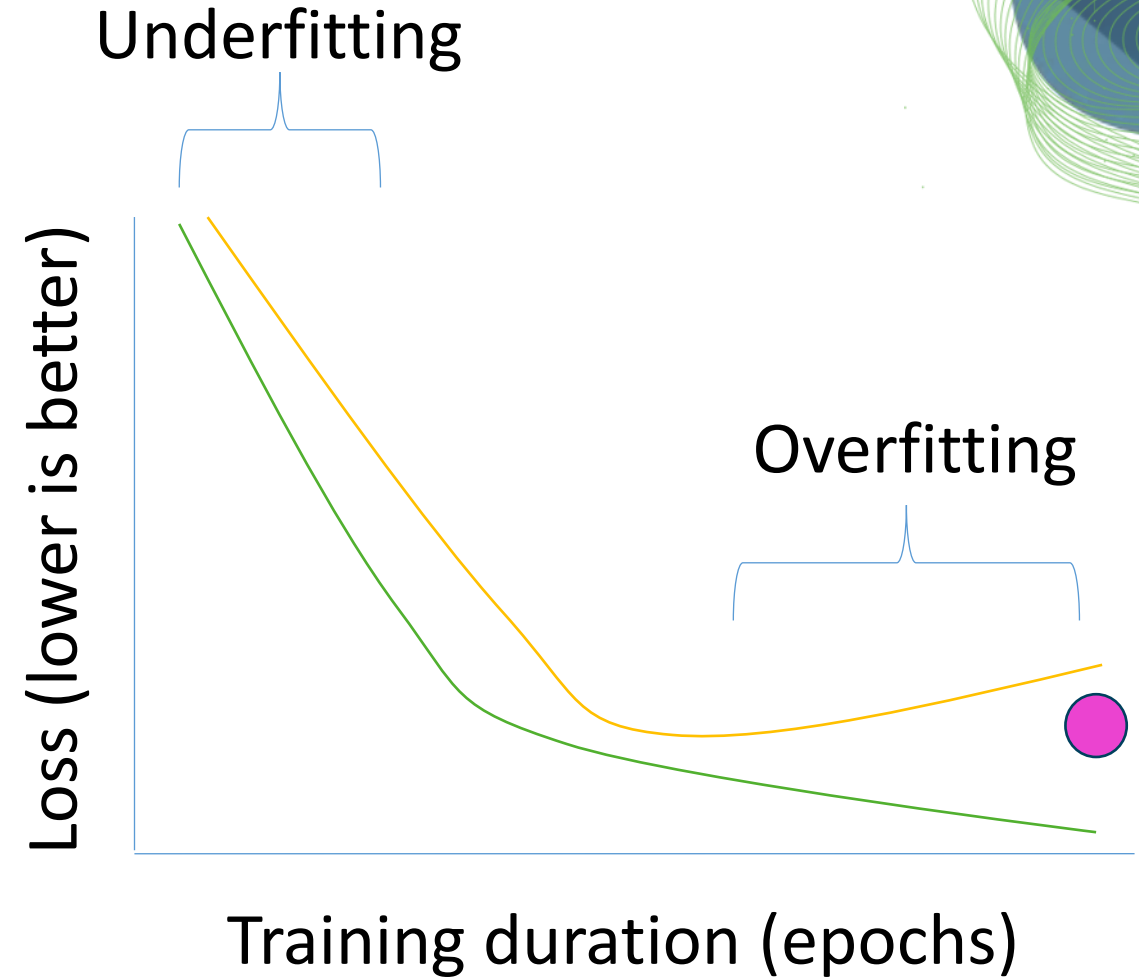
Used for training directly

Validation dataset (10% of the data)

After every iteration see if the model overfits

Test dataset (10% of the data)

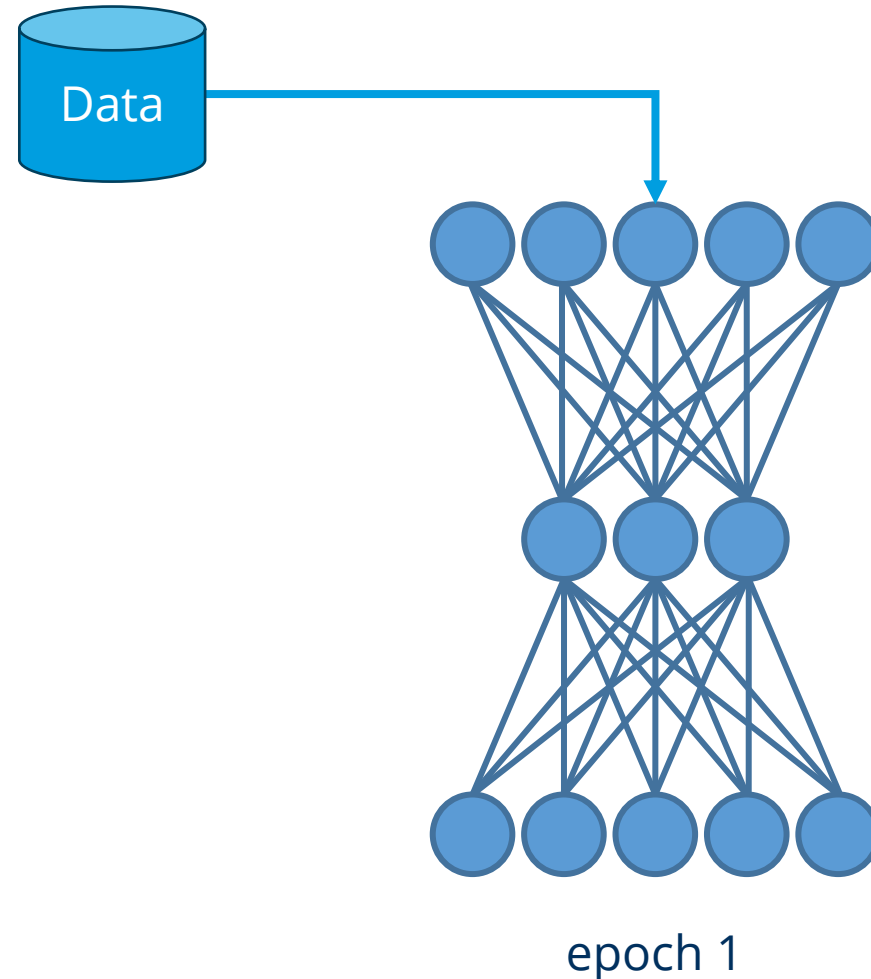
Final evaluation after training is finished (once)



# Training NNs: Batch size & epochs

Problem:

- Assume you have  $10^{10}$  samples and attempt to train for 1000 epochs
- >  $10^{13}$  backprop steps required.



# Training NNs: Batch size & epochs

Problem:

- Assume you have  $10^{10}$  samples and attempt to train for 1000 epochs

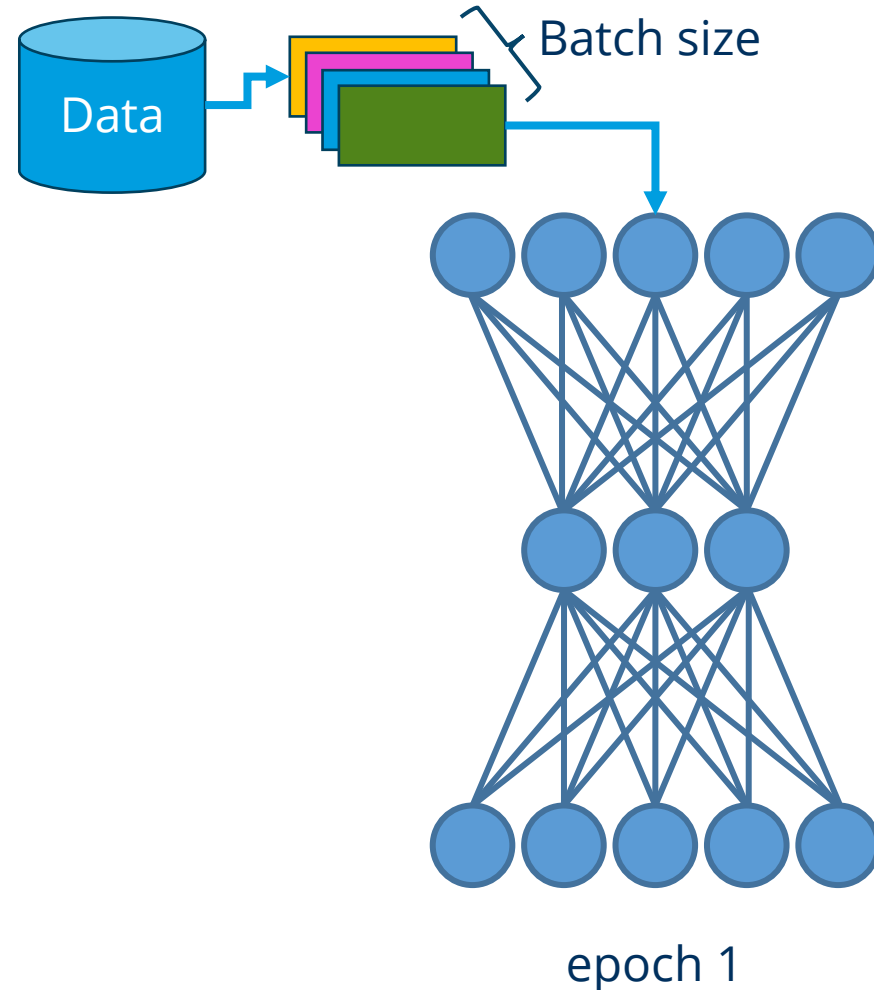
->  $10^{13}$  backprop steps required.

Solution:

- Draw  $n=1000$  random samples from the training data to train for one epoch.

- Next epoch: different  $n$  samples.

->  $10^6$  backprop steps required.



# Training NNs: Batch size & epochs

Problem:

- Assume you have  $10^{10}$  samples and attempt to train for 1000 epochs

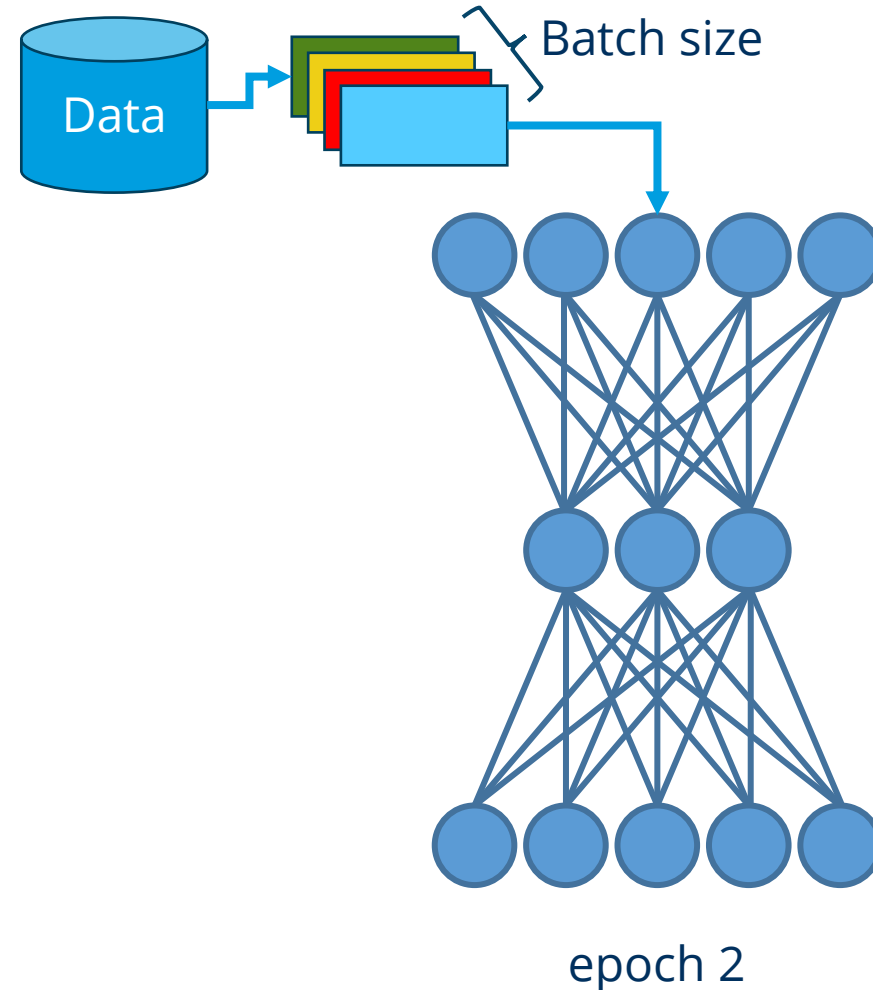
->  $10^{13}$  backprop steps required.

Solution:

- Draw  $n=1000$  random samples from the training data to train for one epoch.

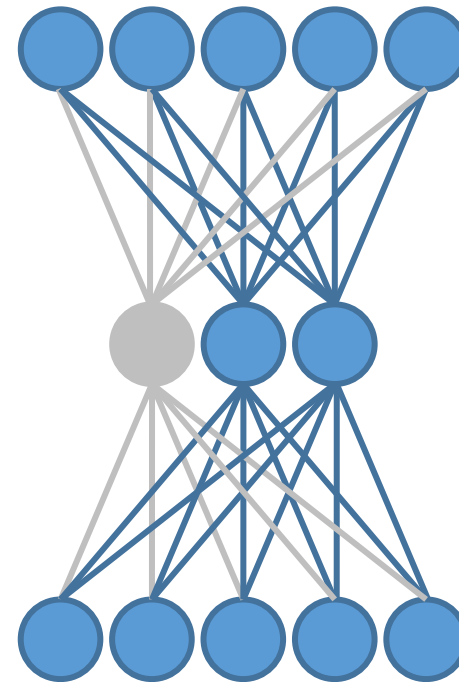
- Next epoch: different  $n$  samples.

->  $10^6$  backprop steps required.



# Training NNs: Drop-out

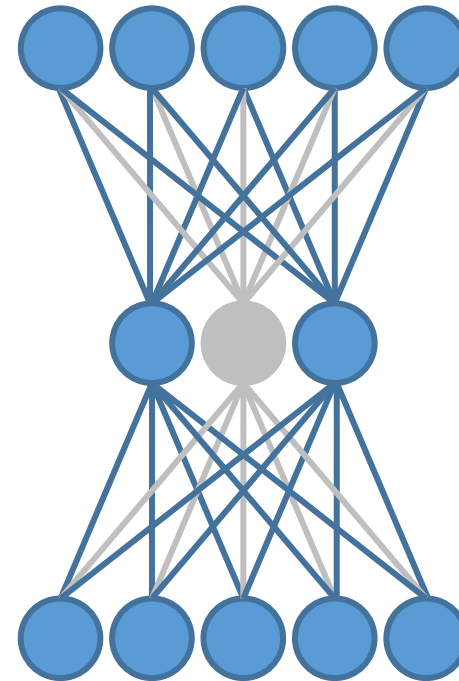
- Drop-out: deactivating individual neurons during training
- Helps with over-fitting, because the network cannot rely on individual neurons by chance being well trained, while others remain randomly initialized
- Example: drop-out-rate: 30%



epoch 1

# Training NNs: Drop-out

- Drop-out: deactivating individual neurons during training
- Helps with over-fitting, because the network cannot rely on individual neurons by chance being well trained, while others remain randomly initialized
- Example: drop-out-rate: 30%

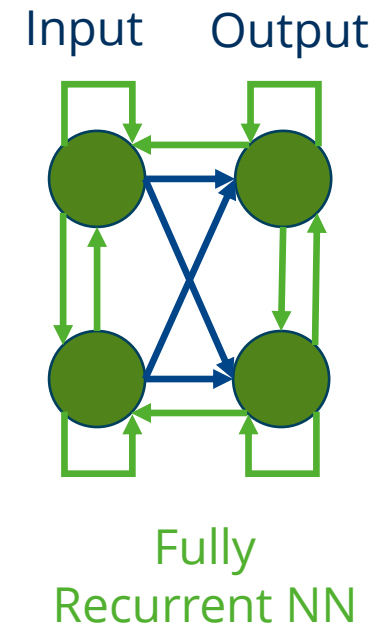
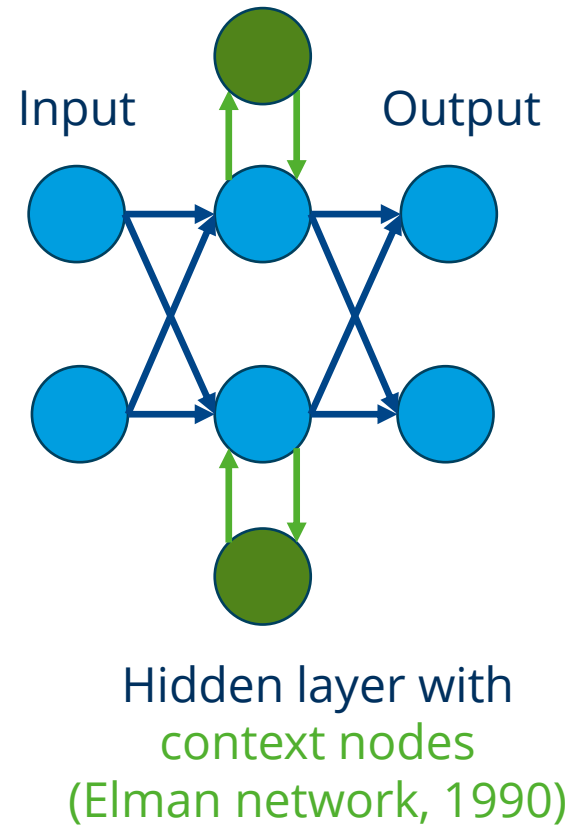
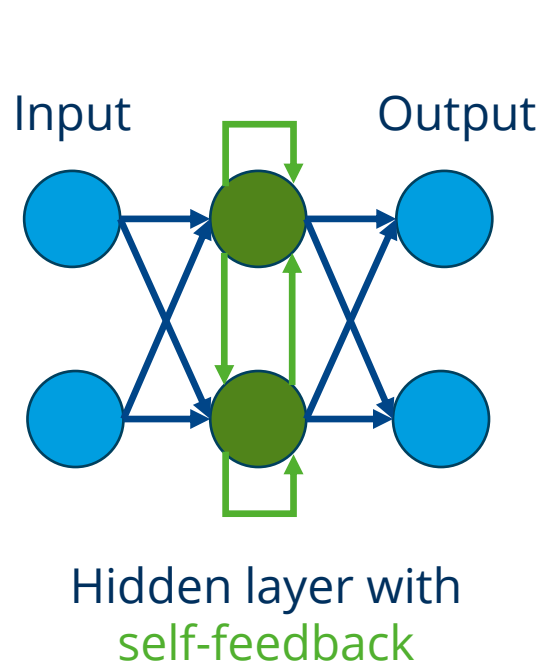


epoch 2



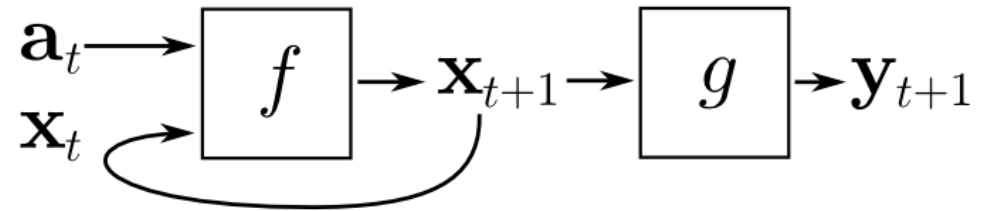
# NN Architectures: Recurrent Neural Networks

Introducing some form of **memory** through additional connections and nodes.

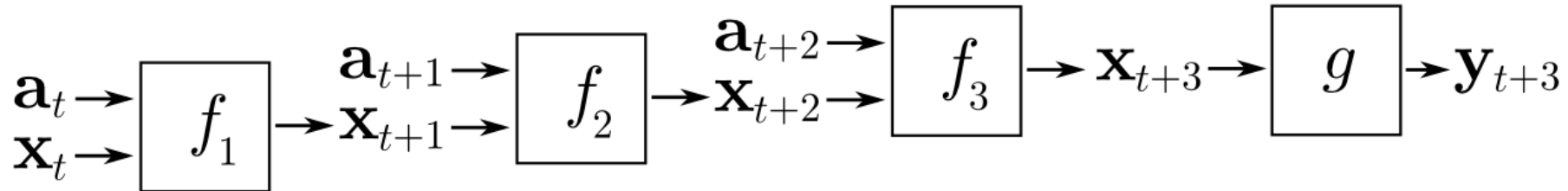


# Training Recurrent Neural Networks

- Backpropagation through time
- Computationally expensive
- Unfolding through time

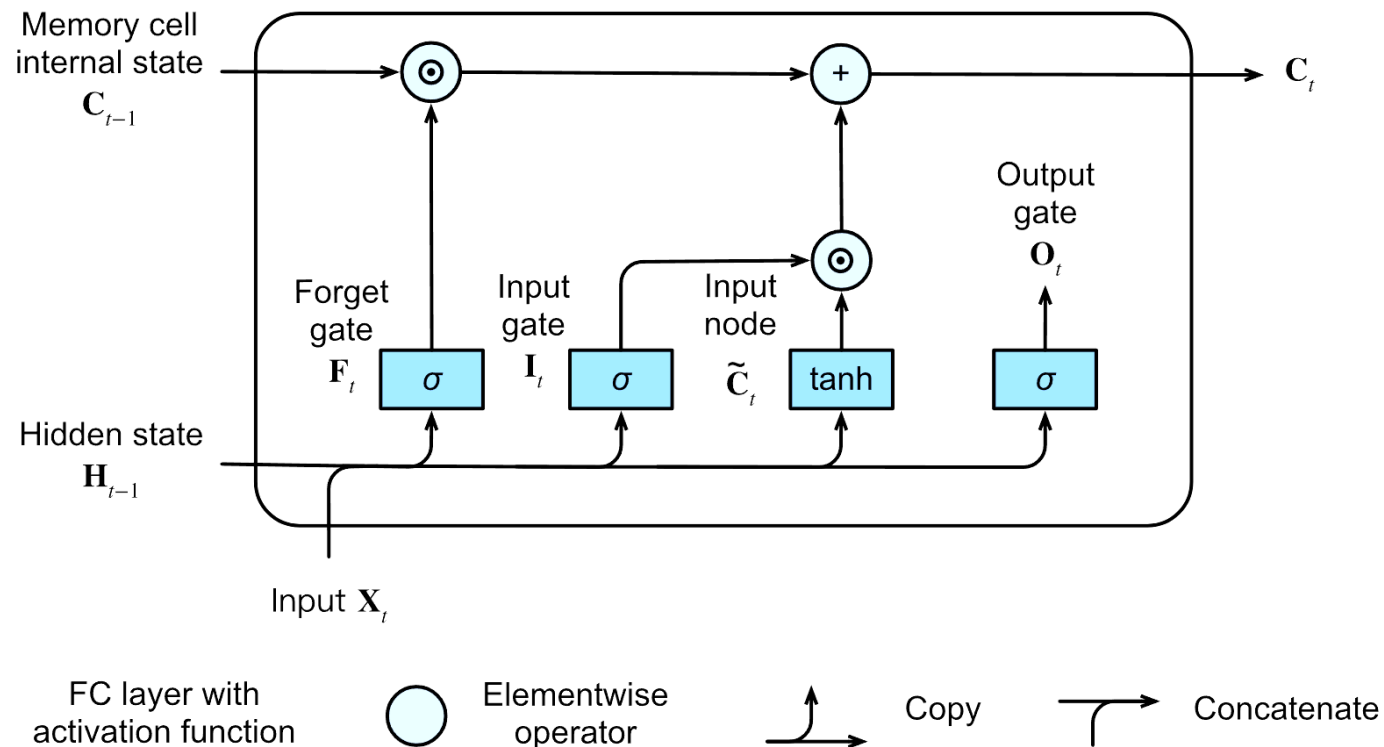


↓ unfold through time ↓



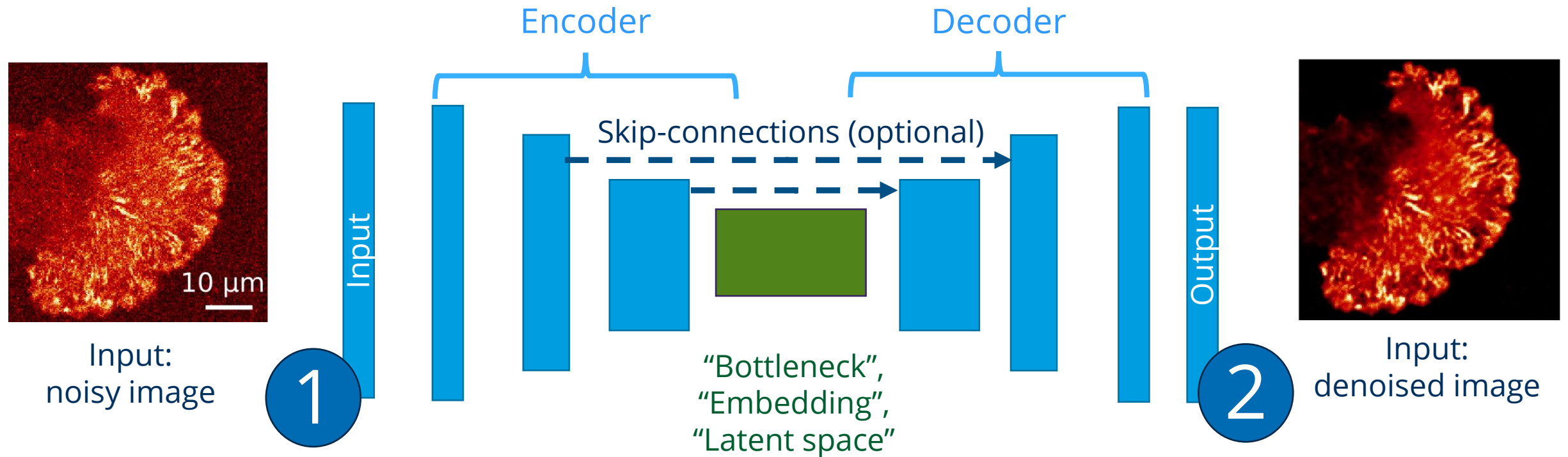
# NN Architectures: Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM)

Differentiation between updating short-term memory (all the time) and updating long-term memory ([not] forgetting) thanks to separate input- and forget-gates.

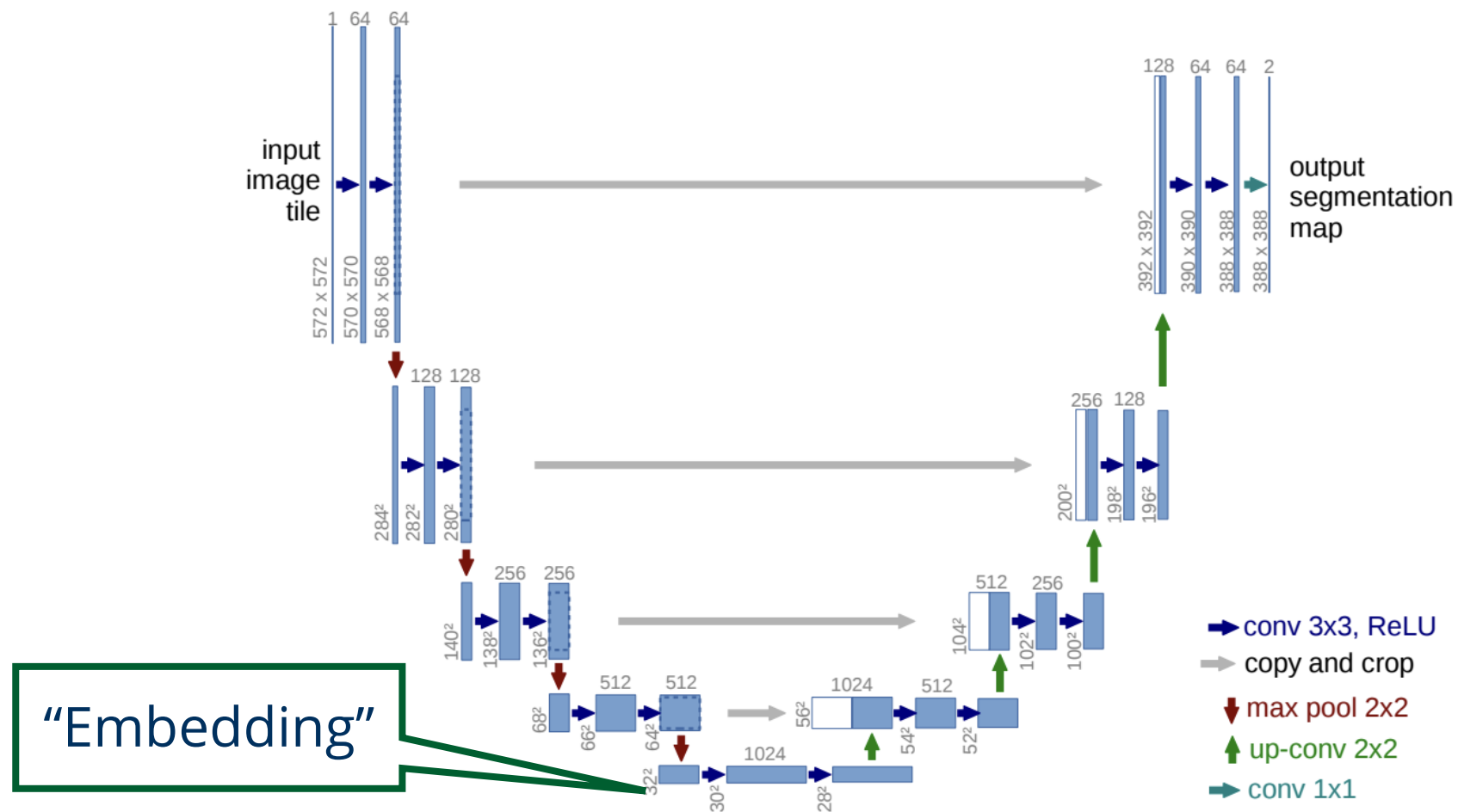


# Traditional architecture: Encoder-Decoder Networks

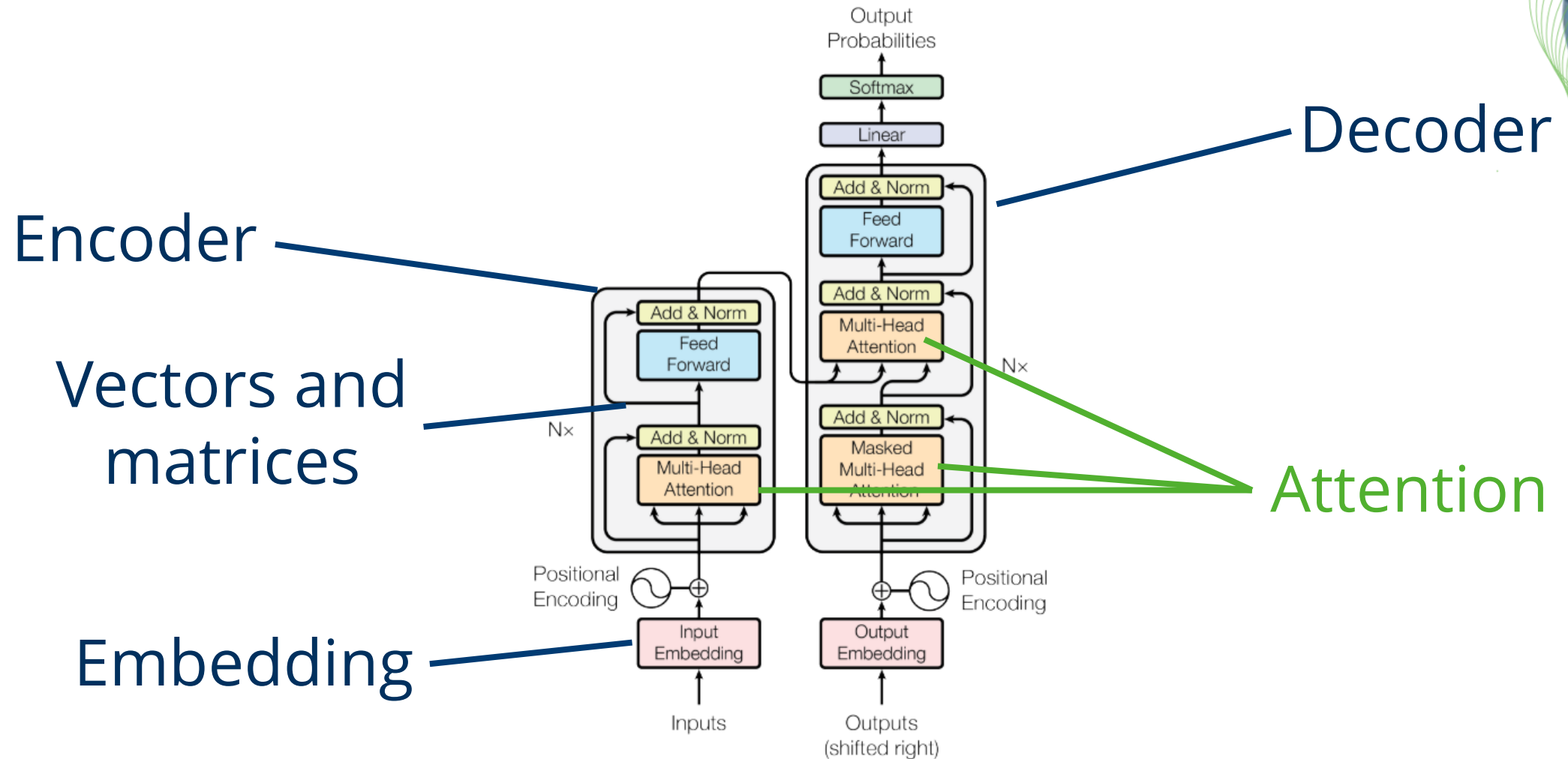
Related: „Auto-encoder“, „Variational Auto-Encoder“, „U-Net“



# Traditional architecture: Encoder-Decoder Networks



# NN Architectures: Transformers





# Scaled dot-product attention

Attention score: How much related are two words?

**Query:** For which word are we calculating attention?

**Key:** To which word are we calculating attention

**Value:** Relevance of the query-key relationship

The **cat** is black and **white**

attention score

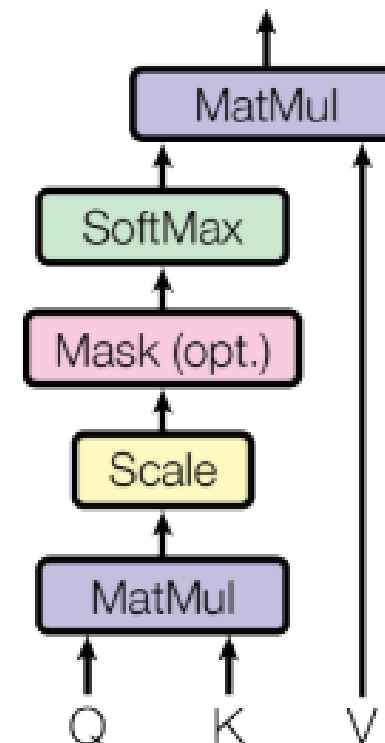
Relevance value: 0.1

The **cat** is **meowing**

attention score

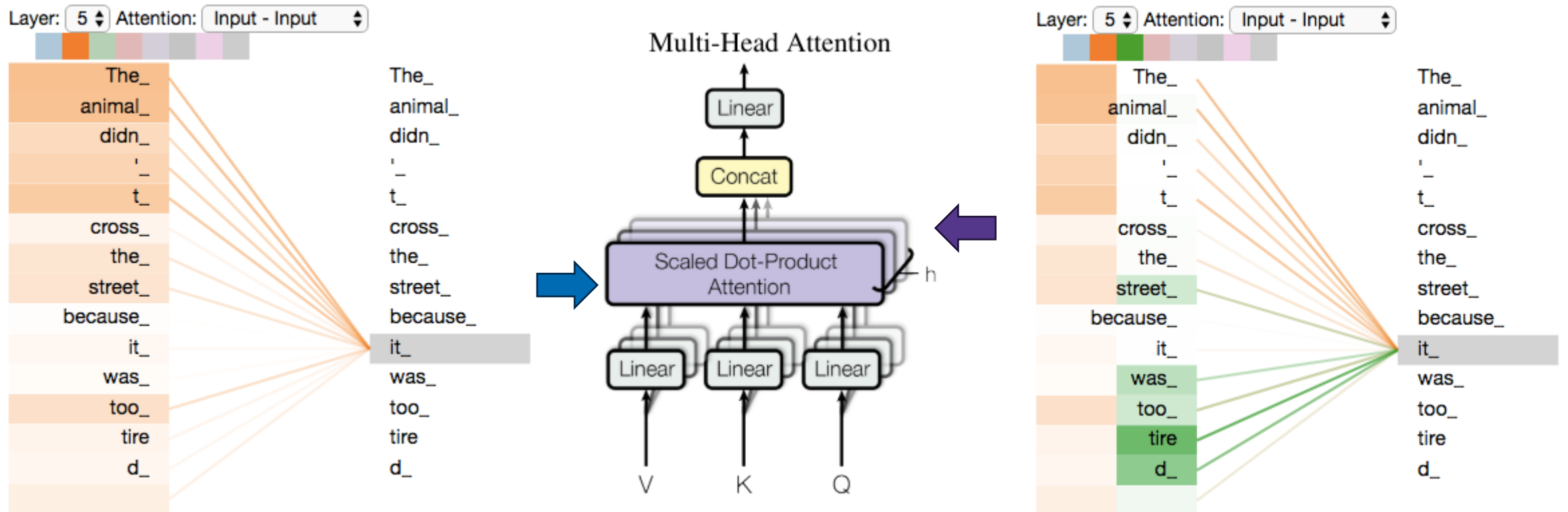
Relevance value: 0.9

## Scaled Dot-Product Attention

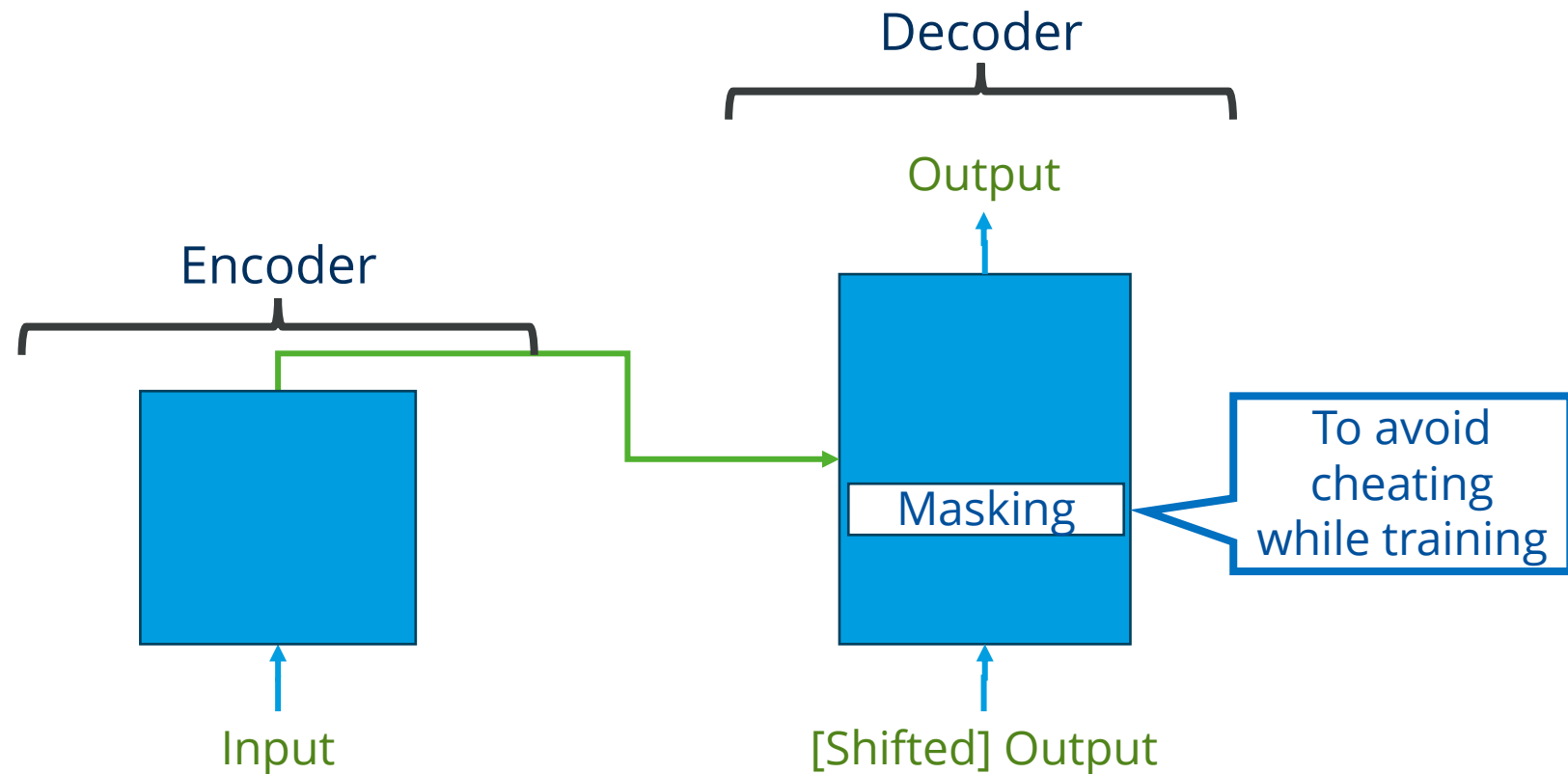


# Multi-head attention

Multiple aspects represented by multiple attention heads



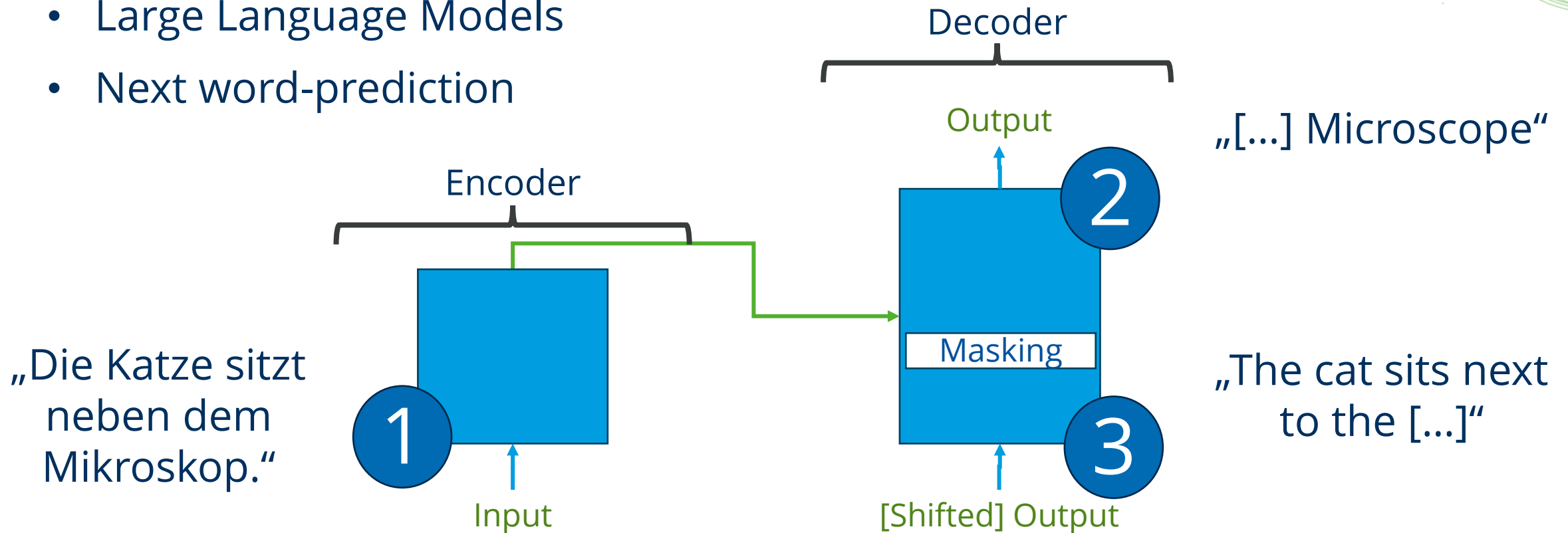
# NN Architectures: Transformers



# NN Architectures: Transformers

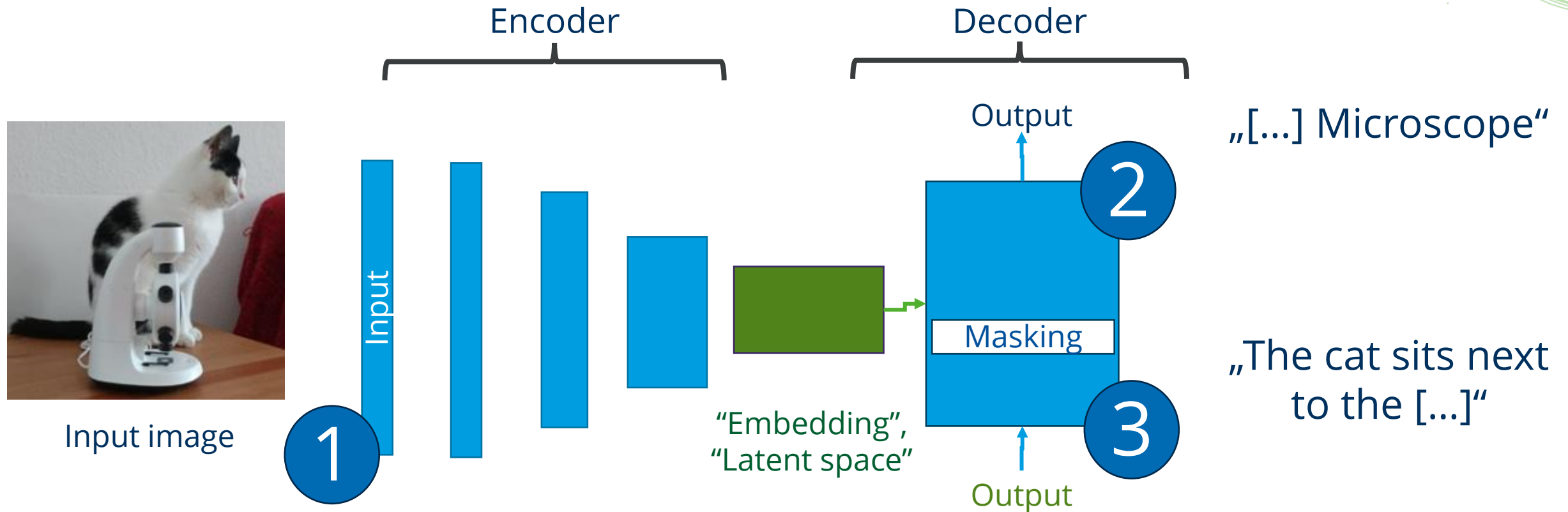
Related terms:

- Generative Pretrained Transformer (GPT)
- Large Language Models
- Next word-prediction



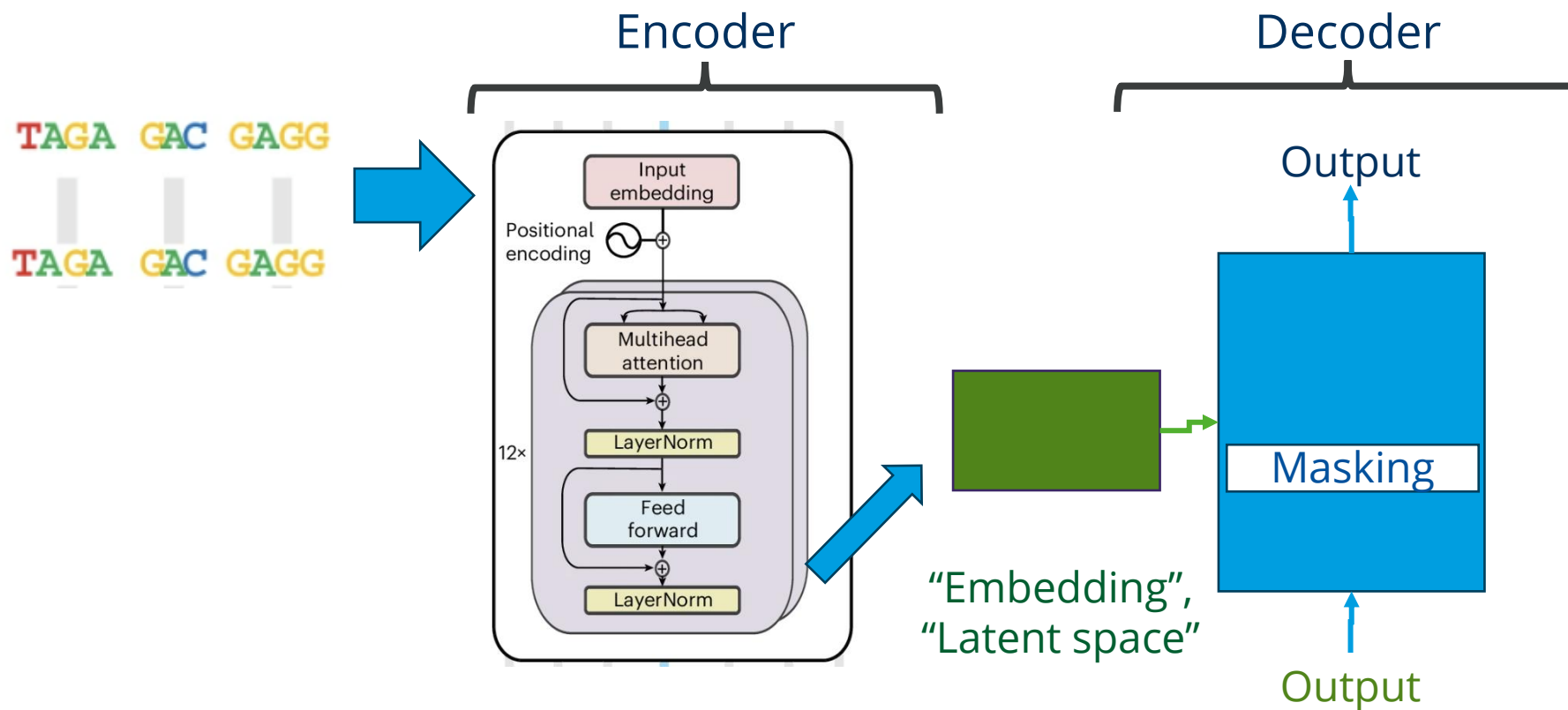
# NN Architectures: Vision Language Models

VLMs use combinations of traditional neural network architectures and transformers.



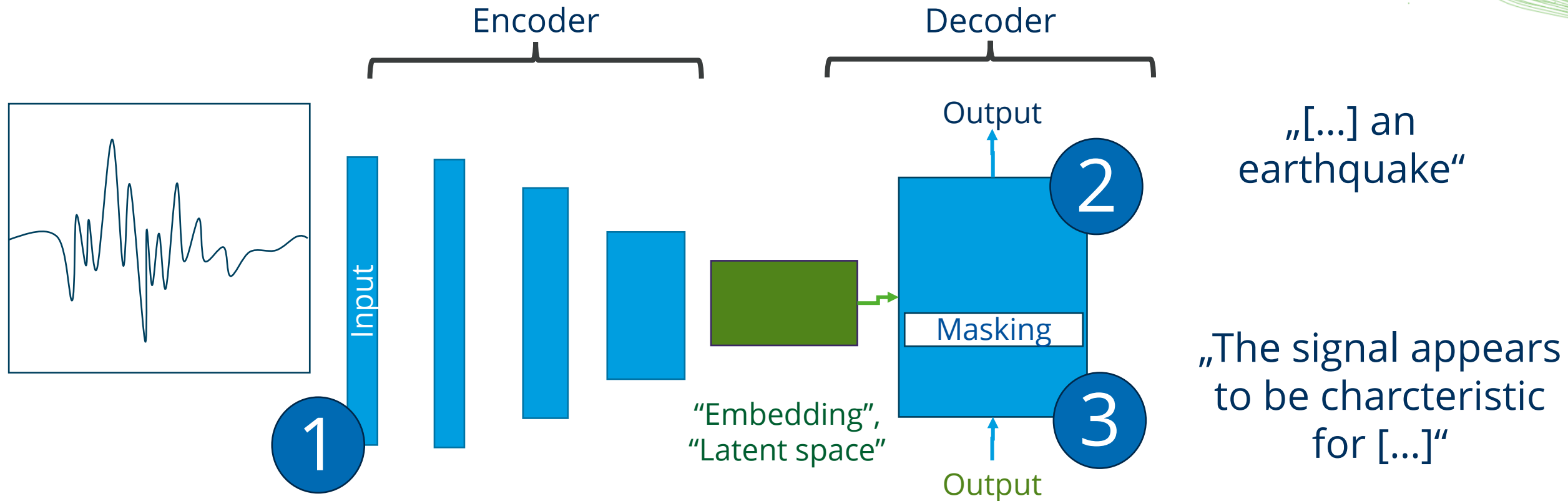
# NN Architectures: DNA Language Models

DNA-LMs use a variation of the transformer architecture.



# Multi-modal Language Models

**MMLMs** use combinations and/or variations of traditional neural network architectures and transformers.



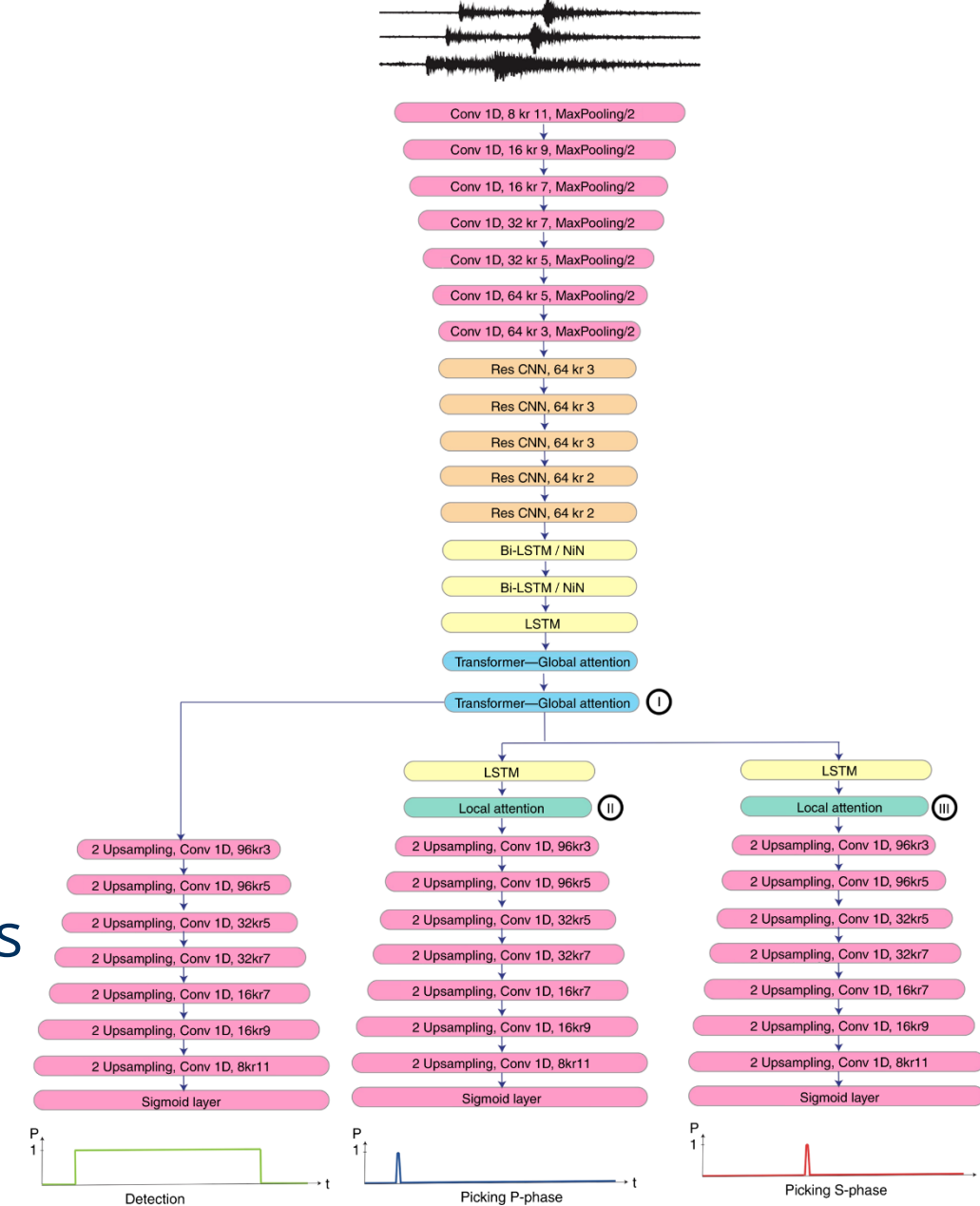


# NN Architectures

Modern NN architectures combine techniques quite freely. Example, for large earthquake detection:

- LSTMs
- Transformers
- Convolutional
- Attention

Combining architectures sometimes appears *more art than science*. Computer scientists world-wide struggle comparing different architectures.



# Summary

Unsupervised ML: Explorative data science, **Embeddings**

Supervised ML / DL: Prediction: classification / regression, **Embeddings**

Explainability: SHapleys Additive exPlanations (SHAP-Analysis)

Neural networks

- Many hidden layers -> *deep* learning, **Embeddings**
- Training: Drop-out, batch-size, epochs
- RNNs / LSTMs -> Memory
- Transformers -> Attention, **Embeddings**

Good scientific practice

- Train-test-split
- Overfitting / underfitting

