Machine Learning Introduction - Part 1

| ⊙ Type	Data science masterclass

I. What Is Machine Learning?

Machine Learning (ML) is a branch of artificial intelligence (AI) that enables computers to learn from data and make decisions without being explicitly programmed. Instead of following predefined rules, ML models identify patterns from past data and generalize them to new inputs.

There are three main types of machine learning:

1. **Supervised Learning** – The model learns from labeled data, where each input has a corresponding output. Example: Spam detection in emails.

2. **Unsupervised Learning** – The model finds hidden patterns in unlabeled data. Example: Customer segmentation in marketing.

3. **Reinforcement Learning** – The model learns by interacting with the environment and receiving rewards for correct actions. Example: Self-driving cars.

Machine Learning Example: Email Spam Filter
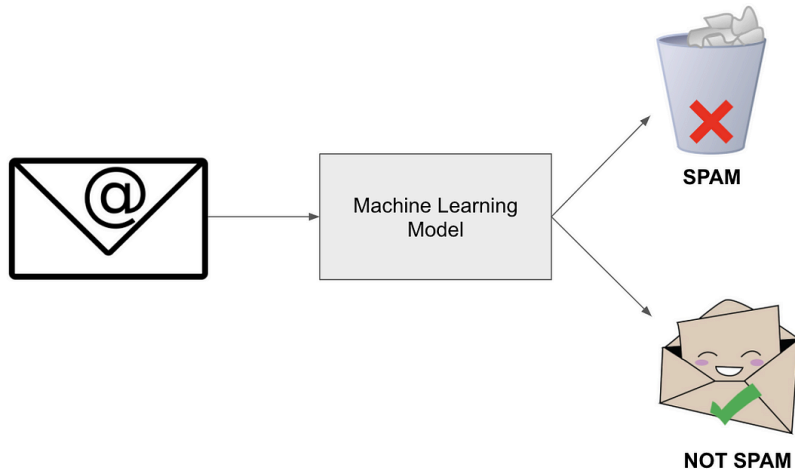
Step 1: The Problem

You receive hundreds of emails every day. Some are important emails from friends or work, and some are spam—like unwanted ads or promotions. You don't want to manually go through every email to figure out which ones are spam.

Step 2: Teaching the System

Here's where machine learning comes in: imagine you have a special spam filter that can automatically sort emails. But how does it know which emails are spam and which ones are not? You need to teach it.

- At first, the filter doesn't know anything about spam. So, you start by giving it examples of emails that are **spam** (e.g., "Buy now!" or "Congratulations, you won a prize!") and emails that are **not spam** (e.g., "Meeting at 10 AM" or "Family get-together this weekend").

- You mark a few emails as **spam** and others as **not spam**. The filter looks at patterns—like the words in the email, the subject, who sent it, etc.

Step 3: Learning the Patterns

- After looking at many examples, the spam filter starts to learn the difference between spam and non-spam emails.

- For example, it might learn that emails with words like "free," "discount," or "offer" are often spam. It may also notice that spam emails often come from unknown senders.

Step 4: Making Predictions

- Once the system has learned enough from the examples, it can start predicting on its own. Now, when you get a new email, the spam filter looks at it, checks for the patterns it learned (like certain words or the sender's email), and decides if it's **spam** or **not spam**.

Step 5: Continuous Improvement

- The filter gets better over time. As you keep marking new emails as spam or not spam, it gets more examples to learn from and becomes smarter at identifying what is and isn't spam.

In Summary: Machine learning is like teaching a computer system how to make decisions based on patterns it learns from examples. In the case of the spam filter, you showed it examples of spam and non-spam emails, and it learned how to classify new emails on its own.

Just like how you get better at recognizing spam emails the more you see them, the machine learning system improves as it gets more examples!

II. Why Use Machine Learning?

ML is used because traditional programming methods struggle with complex tasks that require adaptability and pattern recognition. Some key reasons to use ML include:

1. **Automation of Complex Tasks** – ML enables automation in areas where rule-based programming fails, such as fraud detection.

2. **Improved Decision Making** – Data-driven insights help businesses make accurate predictions and decisions.

3. **Handling Large-Scale Data** – ML models can analyze vast amounts of data quickly and efficiently.

4. **Self-Improvement Over Time** – ML models improve as they learn from more data, increasing accuracy.

5. **Customization and Personalization** – AI-powered recommendations (like Netflix and YouTube) enhance user experience.

III .Examples of Applications

1. **Healthcare** – Disease diagnosis, personalized medicine, and patient monitoring using ML algorithms.

2. **Finance** – Fraud detection, stock market predictions, and automated trading.

3. **E-commerce** – Product recommendations, customer segmentation, and chatbots.

4. **Social Media** – Content recommendations, fake news detection, and sentiment analysis.

5. **Self-Driving Cars** – Autonomous vehicles use ML for navigation and obstacle detection.

6. **Cybersecurity** – Intrusion detection, malware classification, and threat prediction.

7. **Manufacturing** – Predictive maintenance and quality control in production lines.

# IV. Types of Machine Learning Systems

Machine Learning systems can be categorized based on how they learn and make predictions. The three primary ways to classify ML systems are:

1. **Based on Training Supervision** (Supervised, Unsupervised, Semi-supervised, Reinforcement Learning)

2. **Based on Learning Method** (Batch Learning vs. Online Learning)

3. **Based on Generalization Approach** (Instance-Based vs. Model-Based Learning)

1. Training Supervision

This classification is based on how a machine learning model learns from data.

a) Supervised Learning
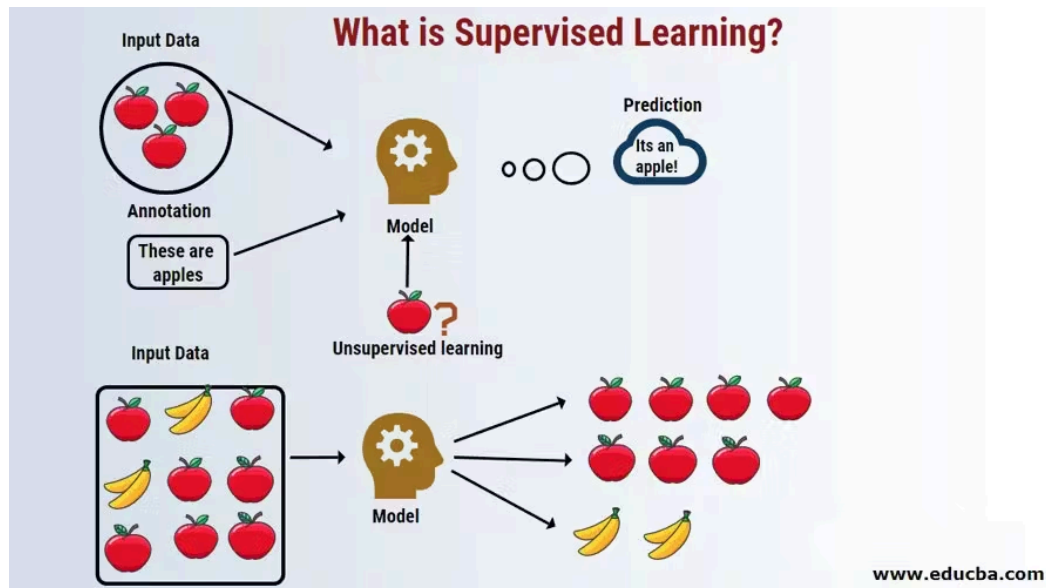
- The model is trained on labeled data, meaning each input has a corresponding correct output.
- The goal is to learn a mapping function from inputs to outputs.
- Examples:
  - **Regression** (Predicting house prices based on features like size, location)
  - **Classification** (Email spam detection – classifying emails as spam or not spam)

Real life Example: Classifying Fruits 🍎🍌🍇

Scenario:

Imagine you are teaching a child to recognize different fruits.

How It Works:

- You show the child an apple and say, **"This is an apple."**

- You show a banana and say, **"This is a banana."**

- You repeat this process with many labeled fruits (grapes, oranges, etc.).

Over time, the child learns the patterns—apples are red and round, bananas are yellow and long.
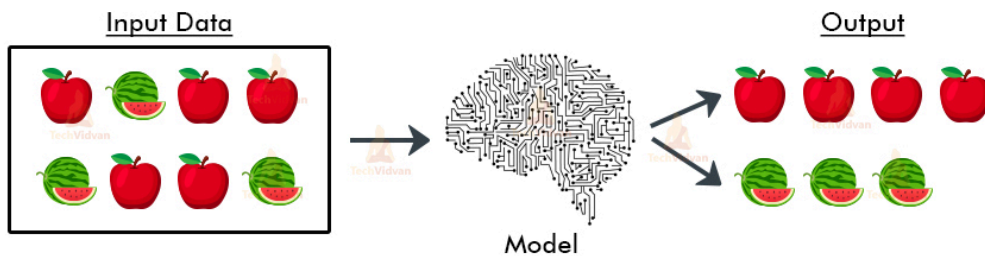
Machine Learning Version:

A computer is given **labeled** data:

- **Input:** Pictures of apples, bananas, and grapes.

- **Output:** The correct fruit label.

Once trained, the model can predict new fruits based on what it has learned.

b) Unsupervised Learning

- The model is trained on **unlabeled data**, meaning there are no predefined outputs.

- It identifies patterns, structures, or groupings in the data.

- Examples:

  - **Clustering** (Customer segmentation in marketing)

  - **Dimensionality Reduction** (Reducing the number of variables in large datasets)

Real life Example: Grouping Fruits Without Labels 🍎🍌🍇

Scenario:

Now, imagine you give the same child a basket full of different fruits but don't tell them the names.

How It Works:

- The child **groups** similar-looking fruits together (red round ones, long yellow ones, small purple ones).

- Even though they don't know the names, they naturally cluster them based on patterns like **color, shape, and size**.

This technique is used in:

- **Customer Segmentation** (Grouping customers based on shopping habits).

- **Anomaly Detection** (Detecting fraud in credit card transactions).

Machine Learning Version:

A computer is given **unlabeled** data:

- **Input:** Pictures of apples, bananas, and grapes—without labels.

- **What happens?** The model groups similar-looking fruits together but doesn't assign names.

c) Semi-Supervised Learning
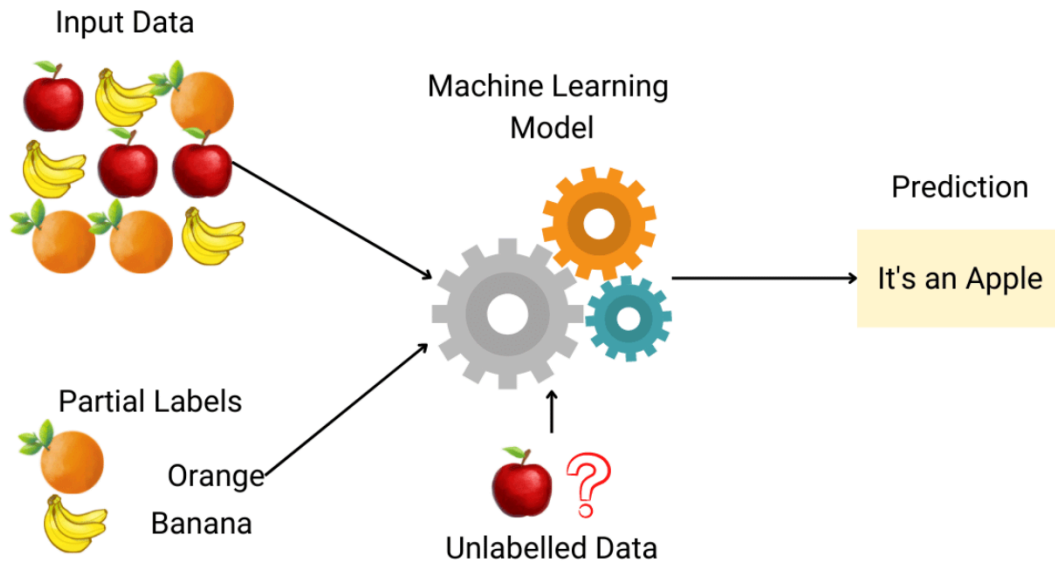
- A mix of supervised and unsupervised learning, where only a small portion of the dataset is labeled, and the rest is unlabeled.

- Example: Identifying fraudulent transactions in banking with a small labeled dataset.

Real life Example: Learning with Few Labeled Examples 📸

Scenario:

Imagine you have a huge photo album, but only a few pictures are labeled (like "Birthday Party," "Vacation," etc.), while the rest have no labels.

How It Works:

- You show a few labeled pictures to an AI.

- The AI learns from those examples and then **tries to guess the labels** of the remaining photos based on similarities.
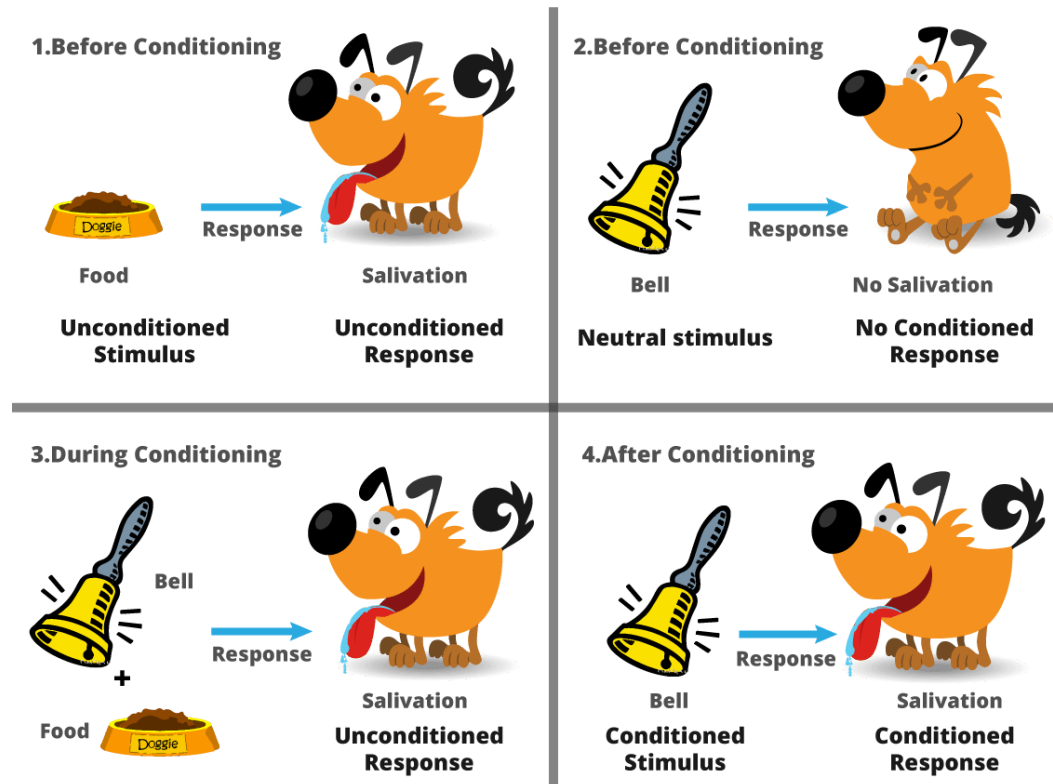
Machine Learning Version:

- Used in **medical diagnosis**, where doctors label a few X-rays, and the AI helps classify the rest.

- Used in **speech recognition**, where only some audio clips are labeled, and the AI learns to recognize words.

d) Reinforcement Learning

- The model learns by interacting with an environment and receiving rewards or penalties for its actions.

- Used in **game-playing AI, robotics, and self-driving cars**.

- Example: Training an AI to play chess using rewards for winning moves.

Real life Example: Training a Dog 🐶🎾

Scenario:

Imagine you are teaching your dog a new trick, like fetching a ball.

How It Works:

- If the dog **fetches the ball correctly**, you give it a treat (**reward**).

- If the dog runs in the wrong direction, you give no treat (**penalty**).

- Over time, the dog learns that fetching the ball gets a reward, so it keeps improving.

Machine Learning Version:

A computer (or robot) learns through **trial and error**:

- **Example:** A self-driving car gets rewarded for staying in the lane and penalized for drifting off-road.

- **Example:** A chess-playing AI gets points for winning and loses points when it makes bad moves.

e) Self-Supervised Learning
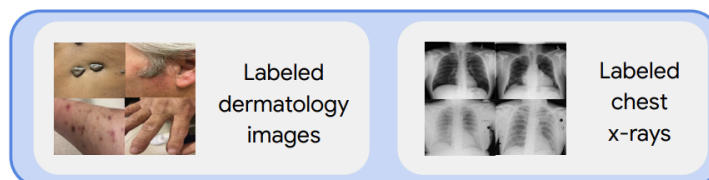

(1) Self-supervised learning on **unlabeled** natural images

(2) Self-supervised learning on **unlabeled** medical images and *Multi-Instance Contrastive Learning (MICLe)* if multiple images of each medical condition are available

Unlabeled dermatology images

Unlabeled chest x-rays
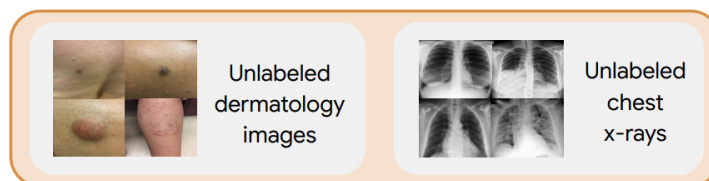
(3) Supervised fine-tuning on **labeled** medical images

Labeled dermatology images

Labeled chest x-rays

- The model generates its own labels from raw data without human intervention.

- Used in **natural language processing (NLP), computer vision, and representation learning**.

- Example: **Predicting the next word in a sentence**—like how chatbots and autocomplete features learn by filling in missing words from large amounts of text.

Real life Example: Filling in Missing Words in a Sentence (Like a Puzzle) 🧩

Imagine you're reading a book, and you come across a sentence with a missing word:

👉 **"The cat sat on the ___."**

Even without being told, you can guess the missing word is **"mat"** based on your experience with language.

How This Relates to Self-Supervised Learning:

- Instead of labeling data manually, the model **removes parts of the data itself** and tries to predict the missing information.

- Over time, it **learns patterns** and improves its predictions.

Machine Learning Version:

- **Used in NLP (Natural Language Processing)** → AI models like ChatGPT and Google's BERT learn by predicting missing words in huge amounts of text.

- **Used in Computer Vision** → AI can predict missing parts of an image, like how Photoshop's "Content-Aware Fill" works.

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2. Batch Learning vs. Online Learning

This classification is based on how frequently the model learns from new data.

a) Batch Learning (Offline Learning)

- The model is trained on the entire dataset at once and does not update frequently.

- It requires retraining from scratch when new data is available.

- Example: Training a recommendation system using historical user data every few months.

Pros:

✅ More stable and accurate since it learns from large datasets.

✅ Suitable for models that don't need frequent updates.

Cons:

❌ Expensive to retrain on new data.

❌ Cannot adapt to real-time changes.

b) Online Learning

- The model updates continuously as new data becomes available.

- Suitable for applications that require real-time learning.

- Example: Stock price prediction models updating with new market data every second.

Pros:

✅ Can adapt to real-time changes.

✅ Works well with streaming data and dynamic environments.

Cons:

❌ Risk of learning incorrect patterns due to noisy data.

❌ Requires careful tuning to prevent forgetting old data (catastrophic forgetting).

3. Instance-Based vs. Model-Based Learning

This classification is based on how the model generalizes from training data.

a) Instance-Based Learning (Memory-Based Learning)

- The model memorizes examples and uses similarity-based techniques to make predictions.

- It does **not** create an explicit mathematical model.

- Example:
    - **K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN)**: Predicts an output by looking at the most similar past examples.

Pros:

✅ Simple and interpretable.

✅ Works well with small datasets.

Cons:

❌ Slow for large datasets because it searches the entire training set during predictions.

❌ Requires large storage since it memorizes all examples.

b) Model-Based Learning

- The model creates a mathematical representation (model) from training data and uses it to make predictions on new data.
- Example:
    - **Linear Regression**: Finds the best-fitting line for predicting a numerical value.

Pros:

✅ Faster predictions since the model generalizes from past data.

✅ More efficient with large datasets.

Cons:

❌ Requires careful selection of the right model and hyperparameters.

❌ May not perform well if the model assumptions do not match the data.

Key Points

Understanding these types of ML systems helps in selecting the right approach for a given problem.

- **If labeled data is available → Use Supervised Learning**
- **If patterns need to be found in unlabeled data → Use Unsupervised Learning**

- **If real-time updates are needed → Use Online Learning**

- **If a quick memory-based approach is required → Use Instance-Based Learning**

- **If a mathematical model is preferable → Use Model-Based Learning**

V. Main Challenges of Machine Learning

1. Insufficient Quantity of Training Data

Definition:

- Insufficient training data refers to a situation where the amount of data available for training the machine learning model is too small to accurately capture the underlying patterns and relationships in the data.

Impact:

- **Model Performance:** Insufficient data leads to poor generalization. The model may not learn the underlying data distribution, leading to inaccurate predictions.

- **Overfitting Risk:** With too few samples, the model might memorize the training data (overfitting) rather than learning to generalize.

Solutions:

- **Data Augmentation:** Using techniques such as random transformations (flipping, cropping, rotating) in image data or adding noise to audio data.

- **Synthetic Data Generation:** Generating new data samples using methods like GANs (Generative Adversarial Networks).

- **Transfer Learning:** Leveraging pre-trained models on large datasets and fine-tuning them on smaller datasets.

- **Active Learning:** An iterative approach where the model requests labels for the most uncertain instances.

2. Nonrepresentative Training Data

Definition:

- Nonrepresentative training data refers to a situation where the data used to train a model does not accurately reflect the real-world problem it is trying to solve. This can happen due to biases, sampling errors, or data being skewed.

Impact:

- **Bias in Predictions:** Models trained on nonrepresentative data will likely exhibit biased or skewed predictions that do not reflect the target population.

- **Lack of Generalization:** The model will not generalize well to unseen data from the real world, leading to poor performance when deployed.

Solutions:

- **Balanced Sampling:** Ensuring the dataset includes a wide range of examples across different classes or subpopulations.

- **Stratified Sampling:** Using methods that ensure representative distribution across various groups.

- **Data Collection from Diverse Sources:** Collecting data from different demographics, environments, or conditions to ensure comprehensive coverage.

3. Poor-Quality Data

Definition:

- Poor-quality data refers to data that is noisy, incomplete, incorrect, or otherwise unreliable. This can include missing values, duplicate records, or incorrectly labeled data.

Impact:

- **Inaccurate Predictions:** Poor-quality data directly affects the accuracy of the machine learning model. The model learns from faulty data, which results in poor performance.

- **Training Instability:** Poor data quality can cause the model to become unstable during training, leading to erratic learning curves or convergence to

suboptimal solutions.

Solutions:

- **Data Cleaning:** Handling missing values, removing duplicates, correcting erroneous labels, and ensuring consistency across data entries.

- **Imputation:** Filling in missing data through techniques like mean imputation or using machine learning models (e.g., k-NN imputation).

- **Outlier Detection:** Identifying and handling outliers that may distort the learning process.

- **Noise Filtering:** Using algorithms or pre-processing methods to remove irrelevant noise.

4. Irrelevant Features

Definition:

- Irrelevant features refer to input variables in the dataset that do not contribute to predicting the target variable. Including such features can degrade model performance.

Impact:

- **Increased Complexity:** Irrelevant features add noise and unnecessary complexity, making the model harder to train and interpret.

- **Overfitting Risk:** Including irrelevant features increases the risk of overfitting, as the model may begin to "memorize" noise rather than focusing on relevant patterns.

Solutions:

- **Feature Selection:** Using statistical tests, algorithms like Recursive Feature Elimination (RFE), or models like Random Forests to identify and remove irrelevant features.

- **Principal Component Analysis (PCA):** A dimensionality reduction technique that helps reduce the number of features by transforming them into orthogonal components.

- **Domain Knowledge:** Incorporating expert knowledge to identify which features are most likely to be relevant.

5. Overfitting the Training Data

Definition:

- Overfitting occurs when the model learns the details and noise in the training data to the point where it negatively impacts the model's performance on new data. The model becomes too complex and too specific to the training data, losing its ability to generalize.

Impact:

- **Poor Generalization:** The model performs exceptionally well on training data but fails to generalize to new, unseen data.

- **High Variance:** Overfitting leads to high variance in the model, meaning small changes in the input data can lead to large changes in predictions.

Solutions:

- **Cross-Validation:** Using k-fold cross-validation to ensure the model's performance is stable across different subsets of the data.

- **Regularization:** Techniques like L1 (Lasso) and L2 (Ridge) regularization penalize overly complex models and prevent them from fitting noise in the data.

- **Pruning:** In decision trees and neural networks, pruning refers to removing nodes or layers that add complexity without improving performance.

- **Early Stopping:** Monitoring the model's performance on a validation set during training and stopping when performance starts to deteriorate.

6. Underfitting the Training Data

Definition:

- Underfitting occurs when the model is too simple to capture the underlying patterns in the data. It may have high bias and fails to learn from the training data sufficiently, leading to poor performance both on training and test data.

Impact:

- **Poor Training Performance:** The model performs poorly even on the training data, meaning it hasn't learned enough from the data.

- **High Bias:** Underfitting is a result of high bias, where the model makes strong assumptions that are too restrictive.

Solutions:

- **Model Complexity:** Increasing the complexity of the model (e.g., adding more layers in a neural network or increasing the depth of a decision tree).

- **Feature Engineering:** Adding or transforming features to provide more information to the model.

- **Reducing Regularization:** If regularization is too strong, it may prevent the model from learning adequately. Reducing regularization can help the model fit the data better.

Under-fitting
(too simple to explain the variance)

Appropirate-fitting

Over-fitting
(forcefitting--too good to be true)