

# **Machine Learning in Practice I**

Antal Jakovac, 2025



# About the course

- Course Title: "Machine Learning in Practice I"
- instructor: antal.jakovac@uni-corvinus.hu
- course objectives
  - why and when to use Machine Learning (ML)
  - data handling methods
  - core ML models before deep learning
  - how to build an ML project



### About the course

- about the course
  - evaluation: written exams (together with exercises)
  - learning material: course slides, books, podcasts, etc.
  - books:
    - An Introduction to Statistical Learning (G.James , D. Witten , T. Hastie , R. Tibshirani, https://www.statlearning.com/)
    - Designing machine learning systems (Chip Huyen)
  - github repository: https://github.com/ajakovac/ML-in-Practice-I



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  - books:
    - An Introduction to Statistical Learning (G.James , D. Witten , T. Hastie , R. Tibshirani, https://www.statlearning.com/)
    - Design #git clone project from command line
  - git clone https://github.com/ajakovac/ML-in-Practice-I.git cd ML-in-Practice-I
    #read the README.md file and follow instructions





why do we need Artificial Intelligence (Machine Learning)?

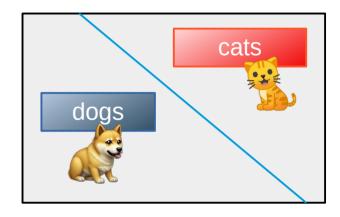
	observation	modelling	computation	conclude/action
historic times	human	human	human	human
machines	machine	human	human	human
computers	machine	human	machine	human
Al	machine	machine	machine	human

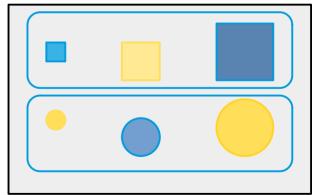
- task of AI is not to solve an actual problem, but solve modelling
- we do not know the model it uses → it can be smarter than us!

- Traditional Programming vs. ML
  - traditional: data + rules → output
  - ML: data + output → rules
- when to use ML?
  - → Automation of complex tasks → heuristics
  - Adaptability
  - Performance on large data
  - Real-world examples (email spam, face detection, recommendation systems)



- Types of ML; traditionally
  - supervised:
    - show data + labels → learns the assignment
    - examples: classification, regression
  - unsupervised:
    - find patterns in unlabeled data
    - not unique → context, magnitude
    - examples: clustering, dimensionality reduction
  - reinforcement:
    - learn by interacting with the environment
    - not covered in this course







- Types of ML; other points of view
  - task-driven (System I)
    - define a task (classification, prediction, control)
    - show examples of good (eventually bad) solutions
    - train models to optimize for success on that task
    - includes most supervised/reinforcement learning examples
  - data-driven (System II)
    - reveal structures by showing similar data
    - does not need explicit labelling
    - LLM's, autoencoders, similarity learning
    - recently popular (self-supervised learning, foundation models, and retrievalbased systems)



- Typical ML tasks
  - classification
    - face, dog breeds, bird songs classification
    - spam detection, disease diagnosis, sentiment analysis
    - lot of labeled data
  - regression (price prediction, weather forecasting, energy demand)
  - clustering (customer segmentation, document grouping, biological cell types)
  - compression (PCA, visualization, autoencoders, embeddings)



#### Typical ML tasks

- decision making (robotics, game playing, resource allocation, monitoring)
- generation (text, translation, image, data, molecular structure, code)
- outlier analysis (email spam, suspicious customer, fraud detection, etc.)
- recommendation systems (movies, jobs, code completion, etc.)
- ranking/retrieval (search engines, document/data retrieval)



- somewhat overlapping areas; e.g. chemical plant monitoring system
  - anomaly detection
  - classification
  - time-series forecasting
  - reinforcement learning (control), recommendation systems



- ML algorithms (pre-deep neural networks)
  - Linear regression, logistic probability
  - Bayesian analysis, probability theory
  - Support Vector Machines
  - Decision Trees, ensemble methods
  - k-nearest neighbour method
  - Principal Component Analysis
  - Extreme Learning Machine
- majority of ML applications in production are not DNN!



#### **Tools**

- language: Python
- packages:
  - numpy: numerical computing
  - scipy, scikit-learn: classical ML tools
  - pandas: data manipulation
  - matplotlib, seaborn: visualization

#### **Tools**

- Python virtual environment: > python -m venv .venv
- activate environment:
  - Linux/Windows WSL: > source .venv/bin/activate
  - Windows PowerShell: > .venv\Scripts\Activate
- Install necessary packages within the environment
  - > pip install matplotlib numpy scipy scikit-learn pandas seaborn ipykernel
- automation:
- > pip freeze > requirements.txt
- > pip install -r requirements.txt



#### Tools for code development

- notebook services: Jupyter, Google Colab
- advanced editors: Visual Studio Code or similar
- Linux-like environment in Windows: WSL
- docker: containerize your work like a standalone machine
- communication: API endpoints (Python fastAPI or Flask)



# **Typical ML workflow**

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- Typical ML workflow
  - 1) Problem definition
  - 2) Data collection
  - 3) Data cleaning & preprocessing
  - 4) Feature engineering
  - 5) Model selection
  - 6) Training & validation
  - 7) Evaluation
  - 8) Deployment & monitoring



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- what is the problem we want to solve?
   (classification, regression, clustering, ...)
- is ML an adequate tool?
- what does success look like? (accuracy? low error? business impact?)
- what are the domain constraints and goals (e.g. medicine data availability, privacy → practical, ethical or technical limits)
- example: predict customer churn or classify handwritten digits



- Typical ML workflow
  - 1) Problem definition
  - 2) Data collection —————
  - 3) Data cleaning & preprocessing
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- enough data
- sampling methods → diverse data
- labelled data (if supervised)
- example: downloading a CSV of housing prices or collecting user logs



- Typical ML workflow
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- missing values, duplicates, outliers
- normalize, scale, encode categorical features
- convert raw inputs into usable formats
- example: fill missing ages with median; scale prices to [0,1]



- Typical ML workflow
  - 1) Problem definition
  - 2) Data collection
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- create meaningful input features
- transform or combine raw attributes
- select or construct new features based on domain knowledge
- example: from date of birth → compute age; combine "city" and "job type"



- Typical ML workflow
  - 1) Problem definition
  - 2) Data collection
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- choose a suitable algorithm (e.g. linear regression; SVM; RF; k-NN)
- consider interpretability, complexity, training time
- example: try logistic regression first for classification, then maybe a random forest, or a deep neural network



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- split data into training and validation sets (and possibly test)
- train on one part, validate on another
- tune hyperparameters (e.g., via crossvalidation)
- example: train a model on 80% of the data, validate on 20%



- Typical ML workflow
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Use metrics appropriate for the task:

- classification: accuracy, precision, recall, F1
- regression: MSE, MAE, R<sup>2</sup>
- plot confusion matrices, ROC curves, residuals
- example: check precision/recall on spam classification



- Typical ML workflow
  - 1) Problem definition
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- integrate the model into production (web app, API, etc.)
- monitor for drift, performance degradation
- retrain if needed (based on new data or feedback)
- example: host model on a server and track prediction accuracy over time



- Consider a world W consisting of 2 pixels
  - $\{\square\square,\square\square,\square\square,\ldots\square\square\}$
- W also has two visible states A and B. We observe that
  - **→** A → { □ □, □ □,... □ }
  - **→** B → { □ ■, ■,... ■ }
- Step1: problem definition: tell the state from the pixels
  - → classification task

- Step2-3: Data collection, cleaning, preprocessing
- in our case: observation → numerics
- the pixels are black-and-white → brightness is a number in [0,1]
  - black: 0
  - white: 1
  - grey: somewhere in between
- 2 pixels mean 2 numbers  $(x_1, x_2)$
- usually Step2-3 is rather tedious...

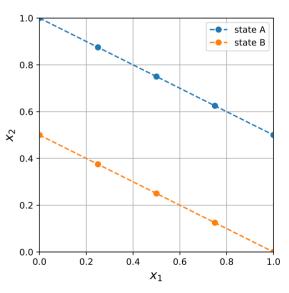


- Step4-5-6: feature engineering, model selection, training (in practice these are separate steps)
- Let us plot the point pairs corresponding to state A and B
  - the points lie in subspaces (lines)
  - within state A and B

$$\frac{x_1}{2} + x_2 = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for state } A \\ 0 & \text{for state } B \end{cases}$$

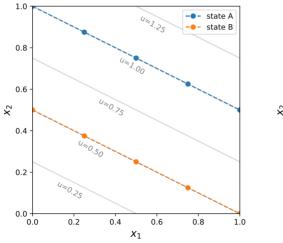
worth to introduce new coordinates (features)

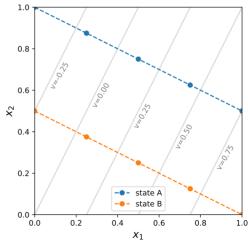
$$u = \frac{x_1}{2} + x_2, \quad v = x_1 - \frac{x_2}{2}$$





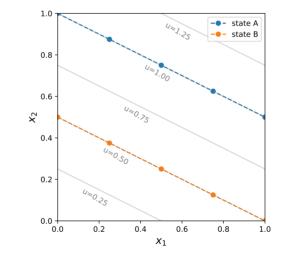
- Step4-5-6: feature engineering, model selection, training
- with the new coordinates  $x_1 = \frac{2u}{5} + \frac{4v}{5}$ ,  $x_2 = \frac{4u}{5} \frac{2v}{5}$
- constant u aligned with states; constant v changes within a given state

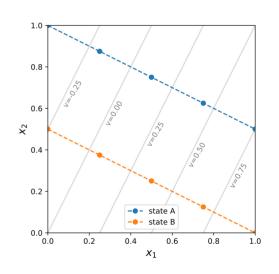




- Step4-5-6: feature engineering, model selection, training
- To tell apart state A and B we need only the value of u!

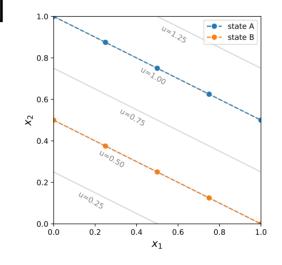
- → u = 0.5 state B
- otherwise neither
- solves classification task

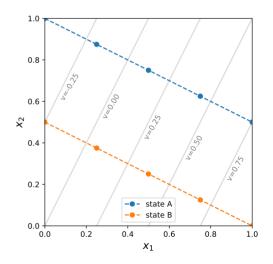






- Step4-5-6: feature engineering, model selection, training
- To describe a instance belonging to a state we need just v!
  - state A: v in [-0.5,0.75]
  - state B: v in [-0.25,1]
- solves compression, dimensional reduction







- Step4-5-6: feature engineering, model selection, training
- a perfect feature selection provides a coordinate system best aligned with the equivalence classes of the data
  - there are coordinates that are constant on each data class, and have different values on different classes (relevant/selective coordinates – good for classification)
  - there are coordinates that change within a given data class (descriptive/irrelevant coordinates – good for compression)
- task of all model building is to find (approximately) these coordinates/features



- Step4-5-6: feature engineering, model selection, training
- in practice we separate the task of coordination
  - feature selection: original features, simple combinations
  - model selection: single out a parametrizable functional space to combine the features (distance, linear- or nonlinear combinations)
  - training: determine the free parameters of the model that fits the data the best



- Step4-5-6: feature engineering, model selection, training
- mind vs data?
  - data/models importance ratio → data are central importance in real world applications
  - are data enough? do we possess the necessary knowledge?
  - present approach: data engineering is the most important, few fundamental research (cf. LeCun vs Wang in Meta)



### Logics of Intelligence

- Step7: evaluation
- try to estimate how well the original task was solved
  - class reconstruction accuracy
  - robustness, proclivity for failures
  - treatment of outliers
  - business benefits



### Logics of Intelligence

- Step8: deployment and monitoring
- in a real-life application the ML code is used as a product
- requires continuous monitoring
  - data/environment may change
  - new classes appear
  - errors may occur

### Logics of Intelligence

takehome message: Task of the intelligence is to

find the **relevant features** and **adapt** their values to the task



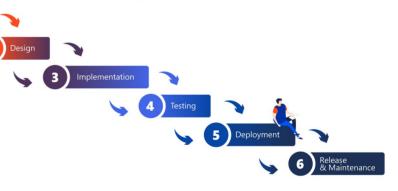
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- two popular workflow schemes today: waterfall vs. agile
- waterfall workflow:

- clear documentation of the task
- predictable timeline
- inflexible
- late discovery of errors
- good for well-defined projects (like bridge building)



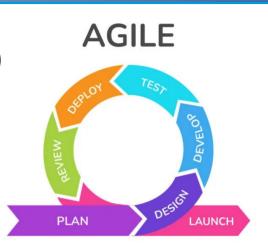
Waterfall



- agile workflow: (agile manifesto, description)
  - individuals > processes
    - collaborative vs rigid teams
  - working model > detailed documentation
    - Minimal Viable Product MVP
    - improvement

"If you're not embarrassed by the first version of your product, you've launched too late."

— Reid Hoffman, founder of LinkedIn



Goal: Solve transportation

MVP: Skateboard 🛹

Next: Bicycle 🚲

Then: Motorcycle 😹

Finally: Car 🚗

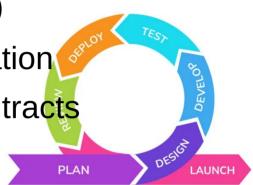


agile workflow: (agile manifesto, description)

customer collaboration > contract negotiation

customer needs even over signed contracts

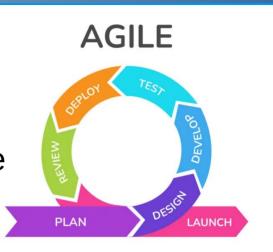
- responding to change > following a plan
  - original ideas/original task estimates may fail
  - continuous adaptation
- launch a "good enough" product



**AGILE** 



- agile workflow: (agile manifesto, description)
  - pros:
    - flexible, self-improving, communicative
    - customer-centric
  - cons:
    - over-emphasized meetings ("agile theater")
    - over-controlled
    - less predictable



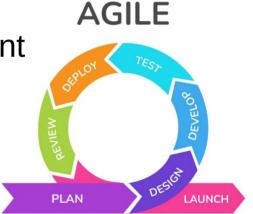


- agile workflow: (agile manifesto, description)
  - loops, sprints
  - user interface/user experience (UI/UX)
  - CI/CD, CI/CD pipelines continuous integration, continuous deployment
  - Kanban/Jira: project development visualization (backlog, to do, in progress, testing, done)





- typical small group agile project
  - define the goal (user stories), create a backlog (list of tasks)
  - make repo (github), branches
  - make MVP, backend API, frontend, testbed
  - get MVP working, deploy to test environment
  - collect feedback (team + users)
  - refine tasks, and directions to proceed





#### Structure of a professional ML organization

- Business side
  - client/stakeholder: business requirements (e.g., "reduce equipment downtime," "recommend better products")
  - Business Analyst / Product Manager (translates business goals into ML problems, acts as the bridge between client and technical teams)
  - Project/ Product Manager (budgeting, timelines, and resource allocation, Coordinates with business analysts and technical leads to estimate cost)



#### **Production level ML organization**

- Bata/model experts
  - data engineer: build and maintain data pipelines → data collection, cleaning, validating, transformation (ETL/ELT), storing (database, data lake), monitoring
  - ML engineer/data scientist
    - feature generation
    - design, train, and fine-tune ML models
    - explores and experiments with data, build prototypes
    - performance evaluation

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#### **Production level ML organization**

- Software & Infrastructure
  - software architect: designs overall system, service planning, integration with other services, APIs, databases
  - software developer (coder): implements algorithms, frontend-backend
  - DevOps/MLOps engineer:
    - automates deployment, monitoring, scaling of ML models
    - works with Docker, Kubernetes, CI/CD pipelines, cloud platforms.
    - ensures the ML system is reproducible, reliable, and easy to maintain.



#### **Production level ML organization**

- ① Operations, Monitoring & Safety
  - QA / Test Engineer: tests software and ML pipelines (unit tests, integration tests, stress tests), ensures reliability before release
  - Monitoring & Reliability Engineer: monitors system health after deployment.; tracks data drift, performance degradation, unusual patterns
  - Security Engineer: ensures compliance with data privacy, protects against adversarial attacks, model leaks.



### >> The Full Pipeline in a Story (user story)

- Client says: "I need early warnings for dangers in a chemical plant."
- Business Analyst refines: "This means anomaly detection on sensor signals."
- Data Engineer sets up pipelines to collect sensor data.
- Data Scientist explores, builds a prototype anomaly detector.
- ML Engineer optimizes the model for latency and accuracy.



### >> The Full Pipeline in a Story (user story)

- Software Architect decides how it fits into the production system.
- Developers implement the service around the model.
- DevOps/MLOps deploys it to the cloud with monitoring.
- QA & Monitoring check performance and flag issues.
- Security Engineer ensures compliance and robustness.



# **Programming code structure**



### **VERSITY** Code structure

#### How to organize a (ML) code?

- points of view:
  - effective code development (also in teams)
  - scalability
  - extensibility
  - easy maintenance



#### monolith code structure

#### Original approach: monolith program structure

- UI, business logic, data access in one code
- coding logic: input data → transformation → resulting data
- best fits for imperative/procedural languages (like C, Fortran)
  - program state: mutable variables
  - program is a chain of commands, changing the state
- natural approach → original programming style



#### monolith code structure

#### problems:

- hard to trace bugs or change code:
  - variable change appear in different functions
  - frequently hidden state change in procedures
  - in a large code intractable structure
- functions are specific → not reusable
- experience: monolith codes become unmaintainable (software complexity crisis in the 1970s–80s)
- still used for starting a project (MVP)

```
y = 3 #global state variable

def function(x):
    x +=y
    y+=1 #changes y tacitly
    return x
```



#### different type of solutions:

- object oriented programming
  - data and the corresponding procedures are bundled: "objects" of the world
  - abstraction: hierarchy of classes
  - inheritance: classes are reusable
  - examples: C++, Java

```
class MyClass:
    def __init__(self, state):
        self.state = state

#change of state is a class method
    def rotate(self, angle):
        self.state → self.state′(angle)
        return self
```



- functional programming
  - stateless programs, unmutable variables
  - functions give back new objects (pure functions)
  - $\rightarrow$  based on mathematical logic ( $\lambda$ -calculus) e.g.  $\lambda x$ . x+1 and their application, e.g.  $(\lambda x$ . x+1) 5  $\rightarrow$  6
  - basic elemental functions: see next page

```
counter=0
def impure():
    counter+=1 #side effect
    return counter
def pure(x):
    return x+1 #no side effect
```

basic elemental functions

```
→ map: map (\lambda x. x*2) [1,2,3] \rightarrow [2,4,6]
```

- reduce/fold: fold (+) 0 [1,2,3] → 6
- filter: filter even [1,2,3,4] → [2,4]
- $\rightarrow$  compose: (compose f g) x → f(g(x))
- examples: Haskell, Lisp, F#
- not popular in the original form, but lot of elements are applied

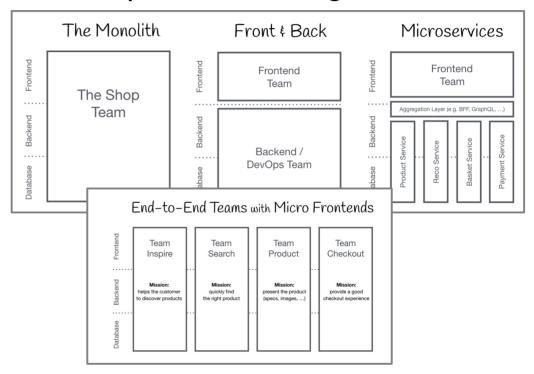


- mixed (multi-paradigm) languages:
  - allow all kind of programming style
  - examples: Python, JavaScript, Rust, Swift,
  - e.g. Python has map, filter, reduce, based on lists.
  - Python supports OOP, classes, inheritance, etc.

#### architectures

#### Other way of deviating from monolithic imperative coding

- monolithic structure
- frontend+backend
- microservices
- micro frontend structure (c.f. https://micro-frontends.org/)



#### **Backend + frontend**

- rise of web (1990s) browsers became universal clients
- specialized tools for browser programming (like HTML, CSS, JavaScript)
- task solving (backend) + visualization (frontend) separately
  - develop separately, different languages, tools
  - scale BE and FE separately
  - needs interface management → see next page

- functions designed for intra-code communication, can not be applied any more
- inter-service communication standards:
  - → APIs (application programming interface → synchronous)
  - queues (message buffer → asynchronous)



- APIs call server functions (endpoints)
  - needs continuously running background processes (web server process), listening to input channels (ports)
  - endpoints: well defined input and output formats, usually in json
  - communication → REST API: get, put/patch, post, delete
  - in Python: Flask, fastAPI
  - can be asynchronous, too

```
#fastAPI snippet
from fastapi import FastAPI
app = FastAPI()
@app.get("/")
def read root():
  return {"message": "Hello ">+"}
#start service
uvicorn main:app
#call service
open http://127.0.0.1:8000, or
curl http://127.0.0.1:8000/
results {"message": "Hello "
```



- queues: async send message
  - message broker runs in background, it stores messages
  - worker processes deliver messages for subscribers/consumers
  - data plain text or json
  - metadata + payload
  - in Python: queue + threading

```
#queue application example
import queue
q = queue.Queue()
#put data to queue
q.put(item)
#read data from queue
item = q.qet()
#... process data ...
q.task_done()
```

#### **Microservices + frontend**

- good scaling properties (e.g. web users) → requiring independence of elementary tasks became popular
- lot independent, narrowly scoped (micro) services
  - separate development (languages, tools, teams), deployment
  - separate scaling
  - resilience: bugs are confined, not affect the whole system
- examples Netflix, Amazon → hype in 2010s



- new challenge: how to organize a lot of services
- microservice management: docker, Kubernetes

# #example Dockerfile FROM python:3.12-slim

WORKDIR /app

COPY main.py.

RUN pip install fastapi uvicorn

CMD ["uvicorn", "main:app", "--host", "0.0.0.0", "--port", "8000"]

```
#example docker-compose.yml
services:
 service1:
  build: ./service1
  container name: service1
  ports:
   - "8001:8000"
 service2:
  build: ./service2
  container name: service2
  ports:
   - "8002:8000"
```

docker-compose up --build

- new challenge: how to organize a lot of services
- CI/CD pipelines:
  - continuous improvement
  - continuous deployment
  - team communication
- example: github



of BUDAPEST

- new challenge: how to organize a lot of services
- CI/CD pipelines:
  - continuous improvement
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  - team communication
- example: github

```
#example .github/workflows/ci.yml
name: CI
on:
 push: branches: ["main"]
 pull request: branches: ["main"]
jobs:
 build-and-test:
  runs-on: ubuntu-latest
  steps:
   - name: Checkout code
    uses: actions/checkout@v4
   - name: Set up Python
    uses: actions/setup-python@v5
    with:
     python-version: "3.12"
   - name: Install dependencies
    run: |
     python -m pip install --upgrade pip
     pip install -r requirements.txt
     pip install pytest
```

- new challenge: how to organize a lot of services
- CI/CD pipelines:
  - Continuous imp cd ML-in-Practice-I

continuous deproyment

team communication

example: github

#practical example: git clone project

git clone https://github.com/ajakovac/ML-in-Practice-I.git

- despite all advantages microservices have drawbacks
  - operational complexity manage hundreds of services
  - network calls → latency, performance issues
  - interprocess debugging is hard

- Current trends (2020s → now)
  - modular monolith applications
  - microservices where they make sense
  - functions-as-a-service (FaaS)
    - in cloud services like AWS, Azure, Google cloud
    - locally they seem like functions
    - behave like services when deployed
    - run on demand

### microservices

Current trend

modular r

microserv

functions-

in clou

locally

run on

```
#example in AWS
            #lambda_function.py
            def lambda handler(event, context):
                 name = event.get("name", "my name")
                 return { "statusCode": 200,
                         "body": f"Hello, {name}! \(\frac{1}{2}\rm \)"}
           zip function.zip lambda function.py
            aws lambda create-function \
             --function-name helloLambda \
             --runtime python3.12 \
             --role arn:aws:iam::<YOUR_ACCOUNT_ID>:role/lambda-ex-role \
             --handler lambda function.lambda handler \
             --zip-file fileb://function.zip
behave curl -X POST \
              -H "Content-Type: application/json" \
              -d '{"name": "MLcourse"}' \
               https://abcd1234.execute-api.us-east-1.amazonaws.com/default/hello
```



### ML Code structure

### Code infrastructure → software architecture

- use few necessary microservices → clear task definition
- use lambda for simple services
- containerize microservices → portability, environmental stability
- use container management → docker (Kubernetes)
- use CI/CD management → github or similar





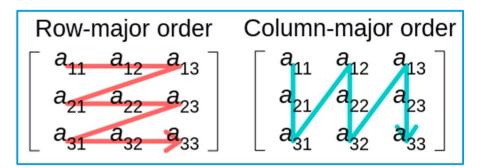
### data sources:

- user input (text, image, video, etc.) often not well formed, errors
- system generated (logs, measurements, predictions) well formed data, easy-to-use
- own data, own clients (first-party), other companies, their own clients (second-party), other companies not own clients (thirdparty – e.g. internet usage, traffic, etc)



### data formats

- CSV (comma separated values)
  - text, human readable
  - tabular, row-major
  - fast to get data belonging to the same example
- Parquette
  - binary more compact, but not human readable
  - tabular, column major
  - fast to get data belonging to the same feature



data formats

CSV (comma

tabular, row

Parquette

binary – md #output

tabular, coli

fast to get d

#example books.csv

title, author, publisher, year

The Hobbit, J.R.R. Tolkien, George Allen & Unwin, 1937

The Fellowship of the Ring, J.R.R. Tolkien, George Allen & Unwin, 1954

Nineteen Eighty-Four, George Orwell, Secker & Warburg, 1949

Brave New World, Aldous Huxley, Chatto & Windus, 1932

text, humar The Catcher in the Rye,J.D. Salinger,"Little, Brown and Company",1951

#read data using pandas

fast to get d import pandas as pd

df = pd.read\_csv("books.csv")

print(df)

	title	author	publisher	year
0	The Hobbit	J.R.R. Tolkien	George Allen & Unwin	1937
1	The Fellowship of the Ring	J.R.R. Tolkien	George Allen & Unwin	1954
2	Nineteen Eighty-Four	George Orwell	Secker & Warburg	1949
3	Brave New World	Aldous Huxley	Chatto & Windus	1932
4	The Catcher in the Rye	J.D. Salinger Litt	le, Brown and Company	1951

### data formats

- CSV (comma separated values)
  - text, human readable
  - tabular, row-major
  - fast to get data belonging to the same example

df\_parquet = pd.read\_parquet("books.parquet", engine="fastparquet")

- Parquette
  - binary mor
  - tabular, colul #store in parquette needs fastparquet to be installed
  - fast to get da

```
Row-major order
                                                        Column-major order
#store in parquette - needs fastparquet to be installed
df.to_parquet("books.parquet", engine="fastparquet", index=False)
```



### data formats:

- JSON (JavaScript Object Notation) → today's standard
  - hierarchical structure
  - text, human readable
  - key-value pairs
  - in Python: dict
  - supported by all languages

### data formats:

- JSON (Java§
  - hierarchical
  - text, humar
  - key-value p
  - in Python: o
  - supported |

```
#example books.json
  "title": "The Hobbit",
  "author": "J.R.R. Tolkien",
  "publisher": "George Allen & Unwin",
  "year": 1937
  "title": "The Fellowship of the Ring",
  "author": "J.R.R. Tolkien",
  "publisher": "George Allen & Unwin",
  "year": 1954
#read with pandas
df = pd.read json("books.json")
```



### data models:

- for more complicated data, and if queries are required, storing data in simple files is not enough
- instead: databases with dedicated database handlers
  - relational (e.g. Sqlite)
  - nonrelational (e.g. Redis, Mongo)



#### data models:

- relational
  - tabular logic: main tables, subtables for standardization, index tables for faster query
  - strict schemas
  - query language for data retrieval → SQL (structured query language): declarative, specify the result, not the algorithm
  - pros: simple logic, widely used
  - cons: abundant schema systems, lots of superficial data, tedious to introduce new features, complicated table structure

### data models:

relational

faster query

strict schen

query langu declarative.

pros: simpl

cons: abun introduce n

```
#example sqlite application – built in Python package
                   import sqlite3
                   #create/connect database
                   conn = sqlite3.connect("Data/books.db")
                   cur = conn.cursor()
                   #create tables
                   cur.execute("""
* tabular logi CREATE TABLE IF NOT EXISTS publishers (
                      id INTEGER PRIMARY KEY AUTOINCREMENT.
                      name TEXT NOT NULL
                   cur.execute("""
                    CREATE TABLE IF NOT EXISTS books (
                      id INTEGER PRIMARY KEY AUTOINCREMENT,
                      title TEXT NOT NULL,
                     author TEXT NOT NULL,
                     vear INTEGER.
                      publisher id INTEGER,
                      FOREIGN KEY (publisher id) REFERENCES publishers(id)
                   111111
```



### data models:

- relational
  - tabular logi faster query
  - strict schen
  - query languer FROM books b declarative
  - **pros**: simpl
  - cons: abun

```
#insert a publisher
cur.execute("INSERT INTO publishers (name) VALUES (?)", ("George Allen &
Unwin",))
publisher id = cur.lastrowid
# Insert a book linked to that publisher
cur.execute("INSERT INTO books (title, author, year, publisher id) VALUES
(?, ?, ?)",("The Hobbit", "J.R.R. Tolkien", 1937, publisher id))
#commit changes
conn.commit()
```

# Query join

cur.execute("""

SELECT b.title, b.author, p.name AS publisher

JOIN publishers p ON b.publisher id = p.id

print(cur.fetchall()) conn.close()

#output

[('The Hobbit', 'J.R.R. Tolkien', 'George Allen & Unwin')]



### data models:

- NoSQL: no SQL → not only SQL
  - pros: no schemas → flexibility, scalability, treat of unstructured data
  - cons: storage capacity, performance trade-offs, data chaos
  - document stores: data are stored as a JSON (string)
    - query can be a more difficult task
    - examples: mongoDB, CouchDB create own index tables for effectivity
  - key-value pairs: for fast query (example: RedisDB, DynamoDB)
  - graph databases: concentrate on relations (nodes and edges)
     (Examples: Neo4j, Amazon Neptune, ArangoDB)



### data models:

- NoSQL: no S docker start/stop mongodb

  - cons: stora
  - - examples
  - key-value p
  - graph datal books = db["books"] (Examples: N

#install mongodb-image and pymongo

docker run -d --name mongodb -p 27017:27017 -v ~/my data/mongo:/data/db mongo:7.0 pip install pymongo

#runs a service in the background – start/stop it

pros: no sc #install mongodb and pymongo

from pymongo import MongoClient

# 1. Connect to local MongoDB

document </p

query cal # 2. Create (or use existing) database

db = client["library"]

# 3. Create collections

publishers = db["publishers"]

# 4. Clear old data (for demo purposes)

publishers.delete many({}) books.delete many({})

f"was published by {publisher['name']} in {book['year']}.")

of BUD

# 5. Insert publishers

```
pub allen = publishers.insert one({"name": "George Allen & Unwin"}).inserted id
          pub secker = publishers.insert one({"name": "Secker & Warburg"}).inserted id
data
          pub chatto = publishers.insert one({"name": "Chatto & Windus"}).inserted id
          pub little = publishers.insert one({"name": "Little, Brown and Company"}).inserted id
          # 6. Insert books with publisher references
          books.insert many([
             {"title": "The Hobbit", "author": "J.R.R. Tolkien", "year": 1937, "publisher id": pub allen},
             {"title": "The Fellowship of the Ring", "author": "J.R.R. Tolkien", "year": 1954, "publisher id": pub allen},
             {"title": "Nineteen Eighty-Four", "author": "George Orwell", "year": 1949, "publisher id": pub secker},
             {"title": "Brave New World", "author": "Aldous Huxley", "year": 1932, "publisher id": pub chatto},
             {"title": "The Catcher in the Rye", "author": "J.D. Salinger", "year": 1951, "publisher id": pub little},
          # 7. Query: find all books and join publisher info manually
          for book in books.find():
             publisher = publishers.find one({" id": book["publisher id"]})
             print(f"{book['title']} by {book['author']} "
```



### data storage:

- data warehouse:
  - stores historical data → structured, cleaned, integrated
  - → optimized for analysis, reporting → few but very large, complex queries
  - ETL (extract, transform, load)
  - OLAP (online analytic processing)
  - examples: historical sales data, stock price data
  - solutions: Amazon Redshift, Google BigQuery



### data storage:

- database:
  - stores current, operational data.
  - used for day-to-day transactions (insert, update, delete).
  - optimized for fast read/write, many small simple queries
  - example: an e-commerce database storing users, orders, payments
  - OLTP (Online Transaction Processing)
  - solutions: MySQL, PostgreSQL, Oracle DB, MongoDB, DynamoDB



### data storage:

- data lake:
  - stores data in raw form → future-proof
  - application goal not needed to be specify
  - cheap and scalable storage (HDFS, Amazon S3, Azure Data Lake Storage, Google Cloud Storage)
  - schema-on-read solutions (ELT, extract, load, transform) → processing engines (Kafka, TensorFlow, Athena)
  - example: log storage, IoT data storage



### data sampling: collecting all data usually not feasible

- nonprobability sampling → focus on data collection; prone to selection bias
  - convenience sampling: take all what is available
  - snowball sampling: start with a small set, and follow its descendants
  - judgement sampling: experts say what to collect
  - quota sampling: collect the same number of data from different areas (like age groups)
  - example of bias: psychology experiments (university students), sentiment analysis (wordy people), medical data (unsuccessful treatments)



### data sampling:

- probability sampling → needs a data model → biased?
  - stratified sampling: collect the same amount of data per class
  - weighted sampling: take into account data scaled with probability
    - in choice: class A 25%, class B 75% → consider A samples 3 times
    - in training: give weight for underrepresented classes (see later)
  - reservoir sampling: keep the first k sample, and replace it randomly
  - importance sampling

$$E_P[x] = \sum_{x} x P(x) = \sum_{x} x P(x) = \sum_{x} x P(x) = E_Q[x P(x)]$$



### data augmentation:

- if there are not enough data, or not representative enough, we can transform data to generate new ones (symmetries)
  - rotation, scaling
  - perturbation, noising
  - texture or style change
- data generation: simulations in artificial environment (e.g. selfdriving cars)

### labelling:

- for classification we should collect examples in different classes
- problems:
  - → how unambiguous are the labels? → multi-label classes
  - how precise are the labels? → no database is 100% correct!
  - what to do with missing labels? → label functions, semi-supervised, etc.
- hand labelled data, naturally labelled data (context is given), automatically generated data





### How can we assess the success of the ML results?

- not unique! depends on the problem on hand
  - example: percentage of correctly classified images
  - if the probability of belonging to class A is 99%, then the simple method saying that all elements belong to A is 99% accurate!
  - clearly not good, if the task is to find the 1% not-A class!

- baselines: how accurate are simple methods and other approaches?
  - random baseline: choose class randomly → 1/N probability for balanced
  - zero rule: all belonging to one class → high probability for inbalanced
  - simple heuristic → use a simple proxy (feature)
  - human experts → how well do humans perform?
  - other ML methods



- confusion matrix
  - correct classes vs. estimated classes
  - works for multi-class evaluation
  - in probabilistic sense joint probability:  $C_{ij} = P(\text{predicted}_i, \text{actual}_j)$

	Actual Yes	Actual No	Predicted Total
Predicted Yes	TP=0.510	FP=0.038	PP=0.548
Predicted No	FN=0.032	TN=0.420	PN=0.452
Actual Total	AP=0.542	AN=0.478	1.0

- correctness measures for 2-class evaluation
  - accuracy: prob. of choosing the correct class: (TP+TN)
  - precision: conditional for Predicted Yes:  $P(\text{actual}_p|\text{predicted}_p) = \frac{TP}{PP}$
  - recall: conditional for Actual Yes:  $P(\text{predicted}_P|\text{actual}_P) = \frac{TP}{AP}$
  - *type I error*: probability of false alarm:  $P(\text{predicted}_P|\text{actual}_N) = \frac{FP}{AN}$
  - \* type II error: probability of missing signal:  $P(\text{predicted}_N|\text{actual}_P) = \frac{FN}{AP}$



- controlled case → measure does not matter
  - probability of class A or B is 50%, predict symmetrically
  - accuracy=98%
  - for class A: precision=98%, recall=98%, type II error=2%
  - for class B: precision=98%, recall=98%, type I error=2%

	Actual Yes	Actual No	Predicted Total
Predicted Yes	TP=0.49	FP=0.01	PP=0.5
Predicted No	FN=0.01	TN=0.49	PN=0.5
Actual Total	AP=0.5	AN=0.5	1.0

05/10/25 101



#### extreme cases

- classify everything as class A, but probability of class A is 99%
- accuracy=99%
- for class A: precision=99%, recall=100%, type II error=0%
- for class B: precision=?, recall=0%, type I error=100%

	Actual Yes	Actual No	Predicted Total
Predicted Yes	TP=0.99	FP=0.01	PP=1.0
Predicted No	FN=0.0	TN=0.0	PN=0.0
Actual Total	AP=0.99	AN=0.01	1.0

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#### extreme cases

- classify everything randomly, but probability of class A is 98%
- accuracy=50%
- for class A: precision=98%, recall=50%, type II error=50%
- for class B: precision=2%, recall=50%, type I error=50%

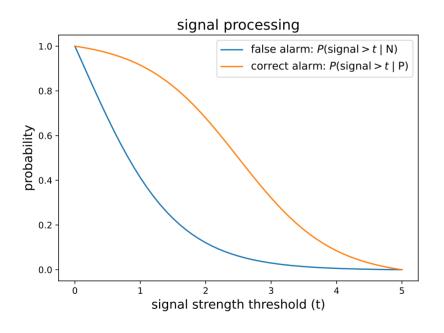
	Actual Yes	Actual No	Predicted Total
Predicted Yes	TP=0.49	FP=0.01	PP=0.5
Predicted No	FN=0.49	TN=0.01	PN=0.5
Actual Total	AP=0.98	AN=0.02	1.0

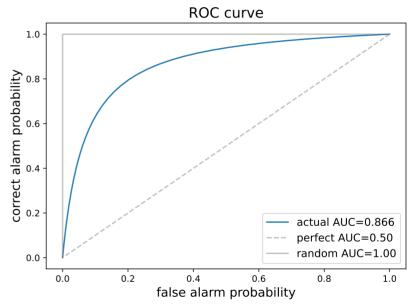
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- effect of a threshold on the prediction
  - in lot of cases Yes/No decision comes from comparing a signal with a threshold → e.g. smoke detector signal vs. danger level
  - ROC (receiver operating characteristics)
    - $P(\text{predicted}_p|\text{actual}_p)$  vs.  $P(\text{predicted}_p|\text{actual}_N)$
    - recall vs. type I error
    - correct alarm probability vs. false alarm probability
  - AUC: area under curve



effect of a threshold on the prediction







# **Data modelling**

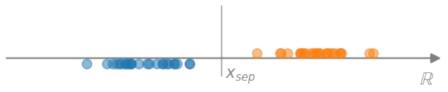


# Data modelling

- task: find out the selective/descriptive features
- depends both on the dataset and the context
- selective: constant on a class, descriptive: changes within a class class depends on the context
- finding the selective coordinates is the main challenge
- we start with simple 1D classification problems, and generalize to several dimensions

### One dimensional dataset

- Simplest basic case: characterization of one-dimensional data
  - → data  $\rightarrow x \in \mathbb{R}$  (numbers for analytic characterization)
- Separation of two 1D sets
  - assume that in given sections belong (approximately) to a single class
  - basic case: one section → A, other section → B
  - if the two sets are separated (hard margin)  $x \in A \Leftrightarrow x < x_{sep}$
  - overlapping case? → no perfect solution



## **CERSITY** One dimensional dataset

- overlapping regions → no perfect solution (heuristics)
  - choose  $x_{sep}$  somewhere in the overlapping region (eg. midpoint)



- define en error function in the overlapping region, e.g.
- ⇒ p=1 ("hinge loss") → median, p=2 → mean  $L_p(x_{sep}) = \sum_{x \in \text{overlap}} |x x_{sep}|^p$
- we can weight the points

$$0 = \frac{d}{dx_{sep}} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (x_i - x_{sep})^2 = 2 \sum_{i=1}^{N} (x_{sep} - x_i) \Rightarrow x_{sep} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} x_i$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} |x_i - x_{sep}| = \sum_{x_i > x_{sep}} (x_i - x_{sep}) + \sum_{x_i < x_{sep}} (x_{sep} - x_i) = (N_{<} - N_{>}) x_{sep} + \sum_{x_i > x_{sep}} x_i - \sum_{x_i < x_{sep}} x_i \Rightarrow N_{<} = N_{>}$$

# UNIVERSITY One dimensional dataset

- Another approach: treat the problem as a regression
  - define a function  $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ , that  $\begin{cases} f(x) < 0 \Leftrightarrow x \in A \\ f(x) > 0 \Leftrightarrow x \in B \end{cases}$
  - a classification can always be translated to regression
  - simplest: linear relation f(x)=ax+b
  - probabilistic interpretation:  $p(x) = \frac{e^{f(x)}}{1 + e^{f(x)}} \in [0,1], \quad p(0) = 0.5$ logistic map, probability of belonging to class B
  - ▶ loss function:  $L(a,b)=\sum (p(x)-I_{x\in B})^2$ ,  $I_{x\in B}=1$  if  $x\in B$ , else 0

### ERSITY One dimensional dataset

- Another approach: trea
  - define a function
  - a classification can all
  - simplest: linear relation
  - probabilistic interpreta

a.x0 = res.x

```
# Python function minimization
                                import numpy, matplotlib
                                 def P(p, x):
                                      a.x0=p
                                      return np.exp(a*(x-x0))/(1+np.exp(a*(x-x0)))
                                 def loss(p, A, B):
                                      loss = np.sum([P(p,a)**2 for a in A])
                                      loss += np.sum([(P(p,b)-1)**2 \text{ for b in B}])
                                      return loss
                                 p0 = [1, 1] # initial guess
                                 params = (A,B) # values of a, b
                                 res = minimize(loss, p0, args=params)
logistic map, probability of belonging to class B
```

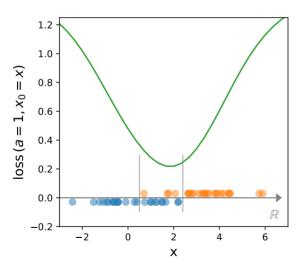
→ loss function:  $L(a,b) = \sum (p(x) - I_{x \in B})^2$ ,  $I_{x \in B} = 1$  if  $x \in B$ , else 0

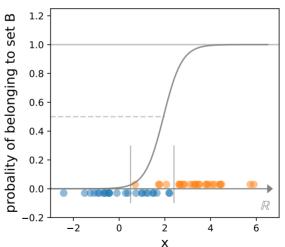


## One dimensional dataset

- Another approach: treat the problem as a regression
  - logistic map, probability of belonging to class B

$$p(x) = \frac{e^{ax+b}}{1+e^{ax+b}}$$







## Information theory basics

### Statistical / information theory characterization

- take a sample where  $n_A \in A$ ,  $n_B \in B$ ,  $n = n_A + n_B$
- entropy: ~ log of how many ways we can order this set

$$S = \frac{1}{n} \ln \binom{n}{n_A} = \frac{1}{n} \ln \frac{n!}{n_A! n_B!}$$

- Stirling formula:  $\ln(n!) \approx n \ln n n...$
- Shannon entropy:

$$S = \ln n - \frac{n_A}{n} \ln n_A - \frac{n_B}{n} \ln n_B = -n \sum_{i=1}^{2} p_i \ln p_i \qquad p_i = \frac{n_i}{n}$$



## Information theory basics

### Statistical / information theory characterization

- if we randomly choose A with probability q, and B with (1-q), then what is the probability to get  $n_A \in A$ ,  $n_B \in B$ ?
  - choose the first  $n_A$  from A, the rest from B + ordering:  $P = \binom{n}{n_A} q^{n_A} (1-q)^{n_B}$  $\ln P = -n p_A \ln p_a - n p_B \ln p_B + n_A \ln q + n_B \ln (1-q) = n \sum_{i=1}^2 p_i \ln \frac{q}{p_i}$
- Kullback-Leibler (KL) divergence: probability to get the sample from a random choice with probability q: 1
  - "distance" of distributions

$$D(p||q) = \frac{1}{n} \ln P = \sum_{i=1}^{2} p_i \ln \frac{q}{p_i}$$

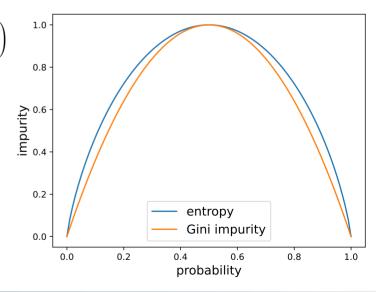


## Information theory basics

### How successful is the separation?

- impurity of a sample:  $n_A \in A$ ,  $n_B \in B \Rightarrow p = \frac{n_A}{n_A + n_B}$
- impurity measure:
  - entropy:  $I_H(p) = p \log(p) + (1-p) \log(1-p)$
  - Gini impurity:  $I_G(p) = p(1-p)$
- with separation total impurity change

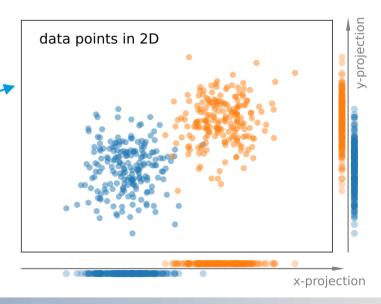
$$\Delta I = I_0 - \left(\frac{n_{\text{left}}}{n} I_{\text{left}} + \frac{n_{\text{right}}}{n} I_{\text{right}}\right)$$





## Tree based methods

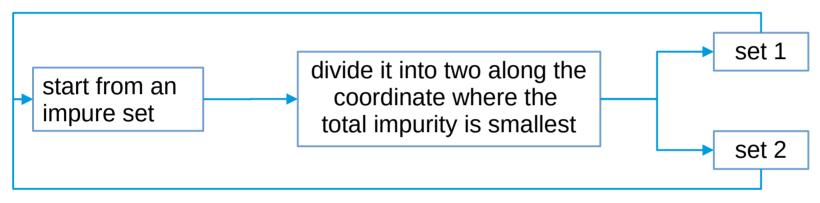
- The **generalization to multiple dimensions** is not simple
  - in 1D the coordinates are unique
  - $\rightarrow$  in multidimensional case we can optimize the coordination  $\rightarrow$  features
  - simplest case: use original coordinates
  - usually the original coordinates are not equally useful (c.f. image → x coord separates more)
  - choose that coordinate that leads to the smallest total impurity!





### Tree based methods

Decision tree (DT)



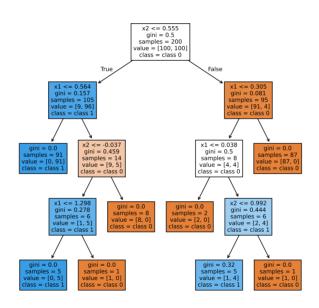
repeat until pure or max number

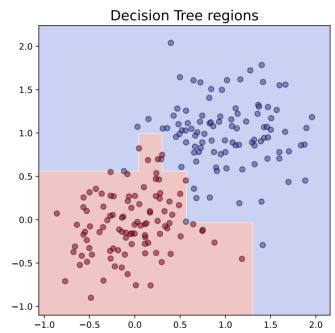
always converges, but may result in fragmented divisions



## **VERSITY** Tree based methods

- Decision tree (DT) example
  - two 2D sets
- pros:
  - simple
  - interpretable
- cons:
  - not robust enough( → irregular shape)

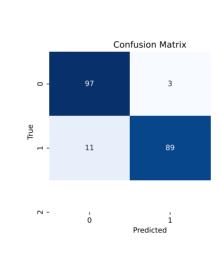


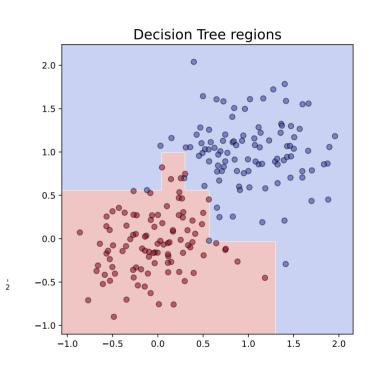




### Tree based methods

- Decision tree (DT) example
  - two 2D sets
- pros:
  - simple
  - interpretable
- cons:
  - not robust enough
     ( → irregular shape)
     use fixed depth!
  - accuracy: train: 100%, test: 92.5%





### Tree based methods

Decision tree (DT) technical solution in Python → github

```
# Python function minimization
from sklearn.tree import DecisionTreeClassifier
from sklearn.metrics import confusion matrix
# 1. get or generate data and labels
# 2. Fit a decision tree
clf = DecisionTreeClassifier()
clf.fit(data, labels)
#3. use for prediction
pred labels = clf.predict(other data)
#4. confusion matrix
cm = confusion matrix(labels, pred labels)
```

### The Ensemble methods

- Decision tree → too specific for a sample
- Possible solution: use ensemble of methods
- ways of improvement
  - bagging (Bootstrap AGGregatING) → bagging, random forest
  - boosting → adaptive boosting, gradient boosting
  - other methods → extra trees, isolated forests, oblique trees

#### Idea:

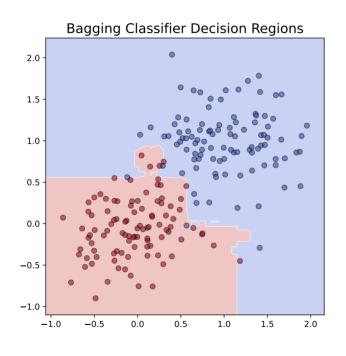
- train several models in slightly different datasets
- each dataset contains the same number of data from the database, but some of them are missing, some appear multiple times
- → combine the results → regression: average, classification: majority vote

#### Benefits:

- lowers variance
- increases robustness

## Bagging

Code: github



```
# Python function minimization
from sklearn.ensemble import BaggingClassifier
from sklearn.tree import DecisionTreeClassifier
from sklearn.metrics import confusion matrix
# bagging based on decision tree
base tree = DecisionTreeClassifier()
clf = BaggingClassifier(
  estimator=base tree,
  n estimators=50,
                         # number of trees
  max samples=0.8,
                        # each tree sees 80% of data
  bootstrap=True,
                        # sampling with replacement
  random state=42
clf.fit(X,y)
#3. use for prediction
pred labels = clf.predict(other data)
#4. confusion matrix
cm = confusion matrix(labels, pred labels)
```

### Random forest

- Idea: in addition vary the used parameters, too
  - train several models in slightly different datasets
  - each model uses selected data and selected parameters
  - → combine the results → regression: average, classification: majority vote

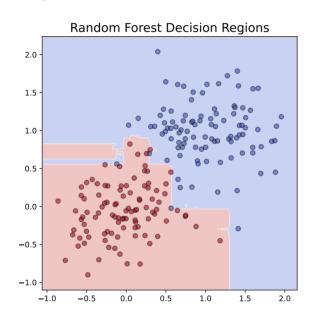
#### Benefits:

- more robust than simple bagging
- can be used to rank parameters by their significance, i.e. which contributed more to the final decision



### Random forest

- 2D case
- accuracy: 94%

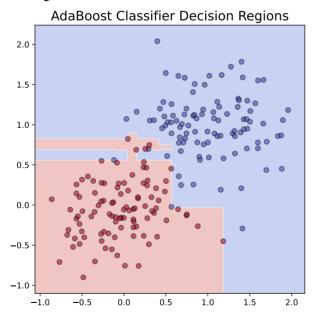


```
# Python function minimization
from sklearn.ensemble import RandomForestClassifier
from sklearn.metrics import confusion matrix
# bagging based on decision tree
# Train Random Forest
clf = RandomForestClassifier(
     n estimators=100, # number of trees
     max depth=None, # let trees grow fully
     random state=42 # random generator seed
clf.fit(X, y)
#3. use for prediction
pred labels = clf.predict(other data)
#4. confusion matrix
cm = confusion matrix(labels, pred labels)
```

- Idea:
  - calculate a series of decision trees
  - each focuses on the points where the previous one fails
  - combine weighted sum of all of these models
- Adaptations: AdaBoost, Gradient Boosting (GBM), XGBoost, ...

## Boosting

- 2D case
- accuracy: 94%



```
# Python function minimization
from sklearn.metrics import confusion matrix
from sklearn.ensemble import AdaBoostClassifier
# boosting based on decision tree
# Train AdaBoost model
boost = AdaBoostClassifier(
     estimator=DecisionTreeClassifier(max depth=2),
     n estimators=50,
     learning rate=1.0,
     random state=42)
boost.fit(X, y)
# 3. use for prediction
pred labels = boost.predict(other data)
#4. confusion matrix
cm = confusion matrix(labels, pred labels)
```

### Relevance of features

- not all features contribute equally to the result to reduce the number of features we shall asses their relevance
- idea: measure the change in the result when change the feature
- relevance measures (the most used ones)
  - feature importance (only for random forest)
  - permutation importance, feature masking
  - mutual information
  - in deep neural networks Gradient-weighted Class Activation Mapping (Grad-CAM)



### Relevance of features

we will demonstrate the feature relevance measures in a 2-class
 20 dimensional dataset with 2000 elements

```
# make mulitdimensional dataset
from sklearn.datasets import make_classification
from sklearn.model_selection import train_test_split

ndim = 20
Nsamples = 2000

X, y = make_classification(n_samples=Nsamples, n_features=20, n_classes=2, random_state=42)

X_train, X_test, y_train, y_test = train_test_split(X, y, test_size=0.2, random_state=42)
```



# corvinus university Feature importance

- works only for random forest
- idea:
  - measure the impurity (e.g. Gini impurity) of all nodes before and after a decision
  - if we use a feature for a decision, measure the impurity decrease

Importance 
$$(f) = \sum_{\text{nodes using } f}$$
 Impurity decrease at that node

average over the forest

Importance<sub>forest</sub>(f) = 
$$\frac{1}{N_{trees}} \sum_{t=1}^{N_{trees}} \text{Importance}_t(f)$$



- example: create a 20 dimensional dataset with 2000 elements
- train a random forest classifier

```
# make mulitdimensional dataset
from sklearn.ensemble import RandomForestClassifier

# Creating a Random Forest classifier
clf = RandomForestClassifier(n_estimators=100, random_state=42)

# Training the classifier on the training data
clf.fit(X_train, y_train)
```



- example: create a 20 dimensional dataset with 2000 elements
- train a random forest classifier
- evaluate the result

```
# evaluate result
from sklearn.metrics import confusion_matrix

# Making predictions on the testing data
y_pred = clf.predict(X_test)

# confusion matrix
cm = confusion_matrix(y_test, y_pred)
accuracy = np.trace(cm) / np.sum(cm)

→ accuracy = 93.5%
```

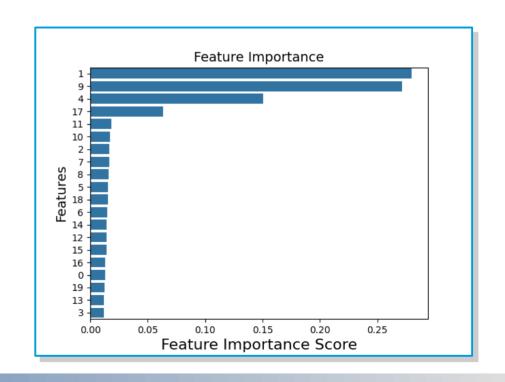


- example: create a 20 dimensional dataset with 2000 elements
- train a random forest classifier
- evaluate the result
- get feature importance

```
feature_importance =clf.feature_importances_
```

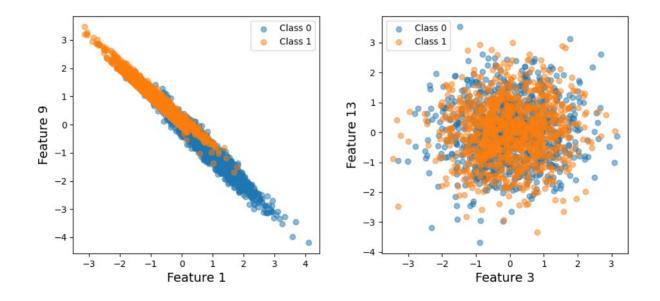
```
→ np.array([0.01291599, 0.27999269, 0.01658218, 0.01157727, 0.15054909, 0.01555601, 0.0150478, 0.01637177, 0.01582075, 0.27170634, 0.01723006, 0.01812296, 0.01401398, 0.01165928, 0.01404261, 0.01398676, 0.01323008, 0.0636087, 0.01551626, 0.01246943])
```

- example: create a 20 dimensional dataset with 2000 elements
- train a random forest classifier
- evaluate the result
- get feature importance
- visualize it





- example: create a 20 dimensional dataset with 2000 elements
- most (1,9) and least (13,3) important features



- works for all methods
- idea:
  - train the model, measure the performance baseline
  - for each feature permute the values among samples
  - measure the performance again
  - relevance of the feature: drop in performance Importance  $(f) = Score_{original} - Score_{permuted}(f)$
  - instead permutation we can use a constant value (e.g. average), or a random value → mask that feature



get permutation importance in Pyhton

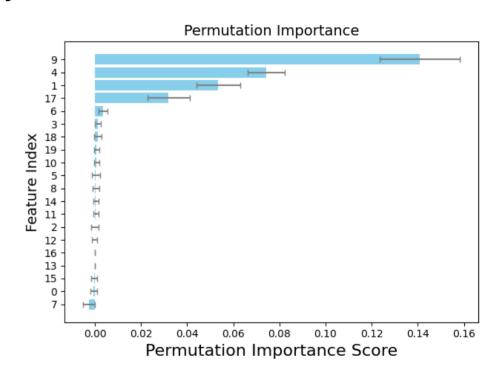
```
# import package
from sklearn.inspection import permutation_importance

# use trained model clf to calculate importance
result = permutation_importance(clf, X_test, y_test,
n_repeats=10, random_state=42)

# read mean and variance of the estimates
importances = result.importances_mean
std = result.importances_std
```

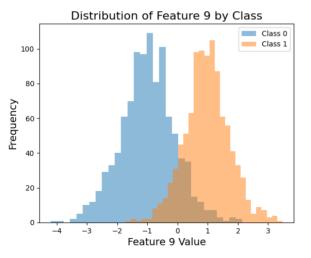


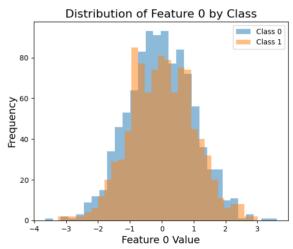
- get permutation importance in Pyhton
- visualize the result
- same features are selected as before, but order is different





- choose feature 9, and feature 0 to demonstrate the effect
- plot the distribution of the given feature, conditioned for the class (histogram)  $P(\text{feature value} = f \mid \text{class})$







## Mutual information

- can be used for any models for any two set, actually
- idea:
  - → calculate the joint probability of two sets  $p(x \in X, y \in Y)$
  - if x and y are independent, then the joint probability is the product

$$p(x,y)$$
 independent  $p_x(x) p_y(y)$ 

measure the dependence (mutual information) by

$$I(X,Y) = \sum_{x \in X, y \in Y} p(x,y) \ln \left( \frac{p(x,y)}{p_X(x) p_Y(y)} \right)$$

can be used to measure mutual information between features and labels



### Mutual information

- in Python there is a package to calculate mutual information
- the code

```
# import package
from sklearn.feature_selection import mutual_info_classif, mutual_info_regression

# we can use the original labels, or the model-predicted ones
# characteristic for both the system and the trained model
# y = clf.predict(X)

mi_model = mutual_info_classif(X, y, random_state=42)

mi_model /= np.sum(mi_model)
```



## Mutual information

- in Python there is a package to calculate mutual information
- the code
- visualization
- similar result as before

