

# Lecture-2 Machine Learning

CS 277: Machine Learning and Data Science

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## Types of learning

#### Supervised learning

- Learning mapping between input x and desired output y
- Teacher gives me y's for the learning purposes

#### Unsupervised learning

- Learning relations between data components
- No specific outputs given by a teacher

#### Reinforcement learning

- Learning mapping between input x and desired output y
- Critic does not give me y's but instead a signal (reinforcement) of how good my answer was

#### Other types of learning:

Concept learning, explanation-based learning, etc.



- 1. Data:  $D = \{d_1, d_2, ..., d_n\}$
- 2. Model selection:
  - a. Select a model or a set of models (with parameters) E.g. y = ax + b
- 3. Choose the objective function
  - a. Squared error

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - f(x_i))^2$$

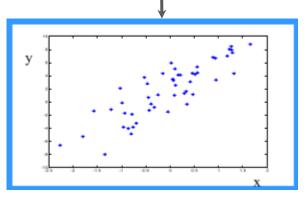
- 4. Learning:
  - a. Find the set of parameters optimizing the error function
    - i. The model and parameters with the smallest error



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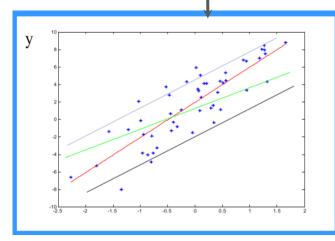




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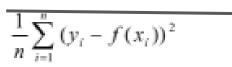
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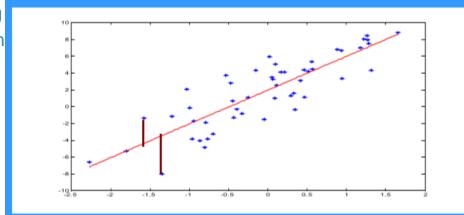
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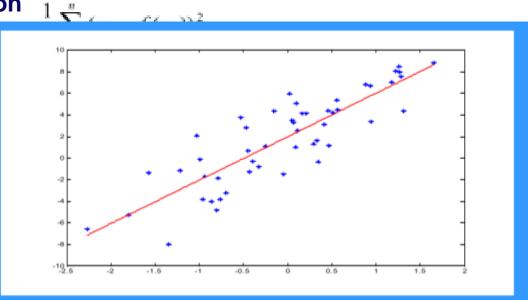
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But there are problems one must be careful about ...



#### Evaluation of the learned model

#### **Problem**

- We fit the model based on past examples observed in D
- But ultimately we are interested in learning the mapping that performs well on the whole population of examples

Training data: Data used to fit the parameters of the model

**Training error:** 

Error 
$$(D, f) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - f(x_i))^2$$

**True (generalization) error** (over the whole population):

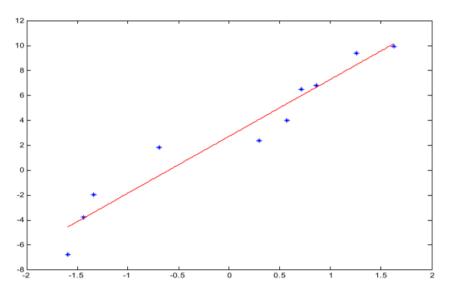
$$E_{(x,y)}[(y-f(x))^2]$$
 Mean squared error

Training error tries to approximate the true error !!!!

Does a good training error imply a good generalization error?

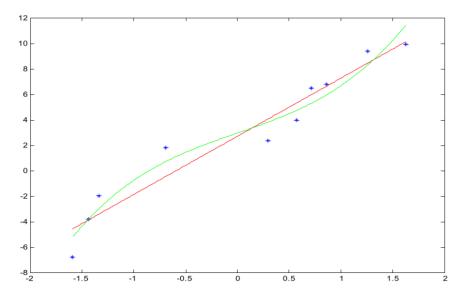


- Fitting a linear function with the square error
- Error is nonzero



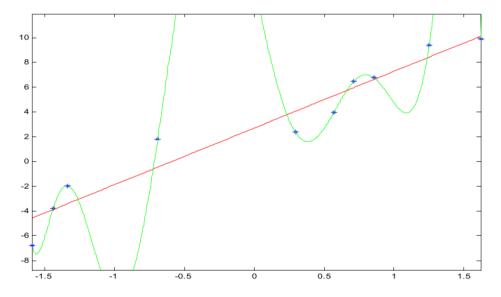


- Linear vs. cubic polynomial
- Higher order polynomial leads to a better fit, smaller error



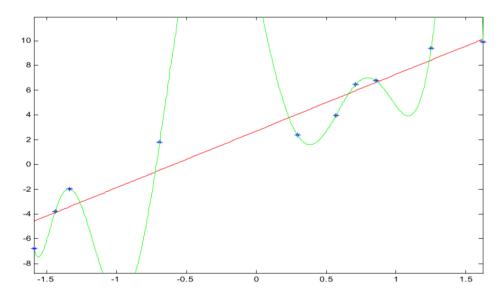


- For 10 data points, degree 9 polynomial gives a perfect fit (Lagrange interpolation). Error is zero.
- Is it always good to minimize the training error? NO!!





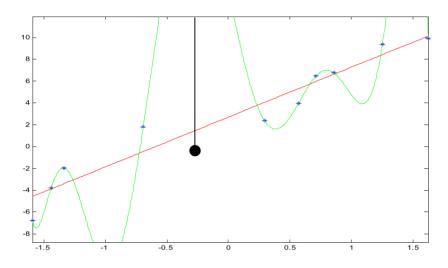
- For 10 data points, degree 9 polynomial gives a perfect fit (Lagrange interpolation). Error is zero.
- Is it always good to minimize the training error? NO!!
- More important: How do we perform on the unseen data?





**Situation** when the training error is low and the generalization error is high. Causes of the phenomenon:

- Model with a large number of parameters (degrees of freedom)
- Small data size (as compared to the complexity of the model)





### How to evaluate the learner's performance?

 Generalization error is the true error for the population of examples we would like to optimize

$$E_{(x,y)}[(y-f(x))^2]$$

- But it cannot be computed exactly
- Sample mean only approximates the true mean
- Optimizing (mean) training error can lead to the overfit, i.e. training error may not reflect properly the generalization error

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1,\dots,n} (y_i - f(x_i))^2$$

So how to test the generalization error?



### How to evaluate the learner's performance?

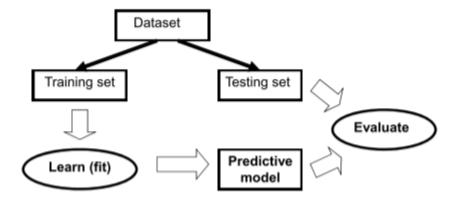
- Generalization error is the true error for the population of examples we would like to optimize
- Sample mean only approximates it
- Two ways to assess the generalization error is:
  - Theoretical: Law of Large numbers
    - statistical bounds on the difference between true and sample mean errors
  - Practical: Use a separate data set with m data samples to test the model
    - (Mean) test error

$$\frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=1,..m} (y_j - f(x_j))^2$$



## Testing of learning models

- Simple holdout method
  - Divide the data to the training and test data



Typically 2/3 training and 1/3 testing



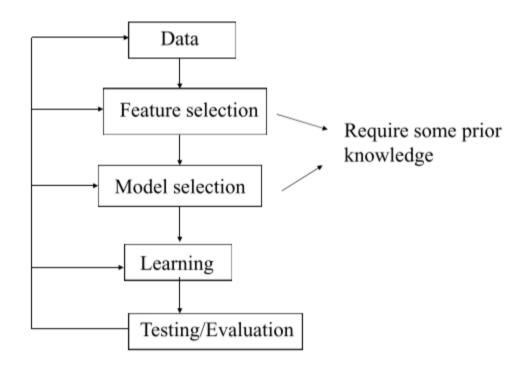
### Basic experimental setup to test the learner's performance

- 1. Take a dataset D and divide it into:
  - a. Training data set
  - b. Testing data set
- 2. Use the training set and your favorite ML algorithm to train the learner
- 3. Test (evaluate) the learner on the testing data set

The results on the testing set can be used to compare different learners powered with different models and learning algorithms

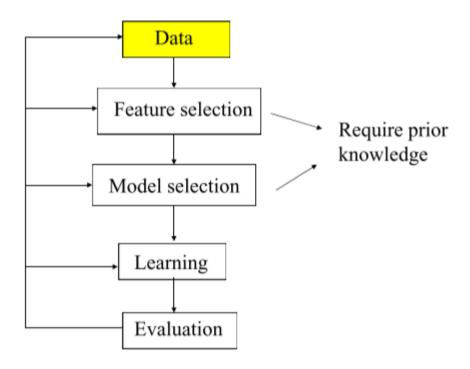


## Design cycle



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## Design cycle



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#### Data

#### Data may need a lot of:

- Cleaning
- Preprocessing (conversions)

#### **Cleaning:**

- → Get rid of errors, noise
- → Removal of redundancies

#### **Preprocessing:**

- → Renaming
- → Rescaling (normalization)
- → Discretization
- → Abstraction
- → Aggregation
- → New attributes

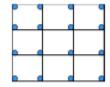


## Data preprocessing

- Renaming (relabeling) categorical values to numbers
  - dangerous in conjunction with some learning methods
  - numbers will impose an order that is not warranted

$$\begin{array}{c|c} \text{High} \rightarrow 2 & \text{True} \rightarrow 2 \\ \text{Normal} \rightarrow 1 & \text{False} \rightarrow 1 \\ \text{Low} \rightarrow 0 & \text{Unknown} \rightarrow 0 & \text{Green} \rightarrow 0 \end{array}$$

 Rescaling (normalization): continuous values transformed to some range, typically [-1, 1] or [0,1].  Discretizations (binning): continuous values to a finite set of discrete values



- Abstraction: merge together categorical values
- Aggregation: summary or aggregation operations, such minimum value, maximum value, average etc.
- New attributes:
  - example: obesity-factor = weight/height



#### Data biases

#### Watch out for data biases:

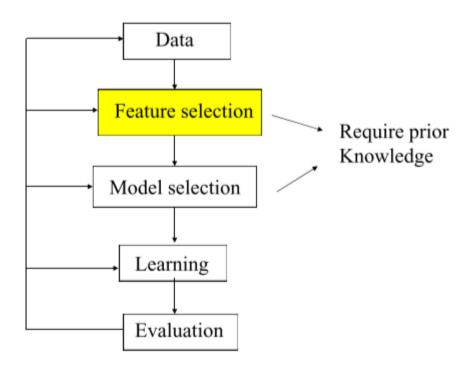
- Try to understand the data source
- Make sure the data we make conclusions on are the same as data we used in the analysis
- It is very easy to derive "unexpected" results when data used for analysis and learning are biased (pre-selected)
- Results (conclusions) derived for a biased dataset do not hold in general !!!

#### **Example 1: Risks in pregnancy study**

- Sponsored by DARPA at military hospitals
- Study of a large sample of pregnant woman who visited military hospitals
- Conclusion: the factor with the largest impact on reducing risks during pregnancy (statistically significant) is a pregnant woman being single
- a woman that is single → the smallest risk
- What is wrong?



## Design cycle





#### Feature selection

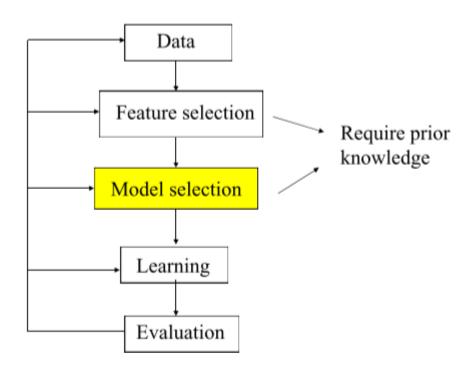
The size (dimensionality) of a sample can be enormous d

$$x_i = (x_i^1, x_i^2, ..., x_i^d)$$
 d -very large

- Example: document classification
  - thousands of documents
  - 10,000 different words
  - Features/Inputs: counts of occurrences of different words
  - Overfit threat too many parameters to learn, not enough samples to justify the estimates the parameters of the model
- Feature selection: reduces the feature sets
  - Methods for removing input features



## Design cycle





#### Model selection

#### What is the right model to learn?

- A prior knowledge helps a lot, but still a lot of guessing
- Initial data analysis and visualization
  - We can make a good guess about the form of the distribution, shape of the function
- Independences and correlations

#### Overfitting problem

- Take into account the bias and variance of error estimates
- Simpler (more biased) model parameters can be estimated more reliably (smaller variance of estimates)
- Complex model with many parameters parameter estimates are less reliable (large variance of the estimate)



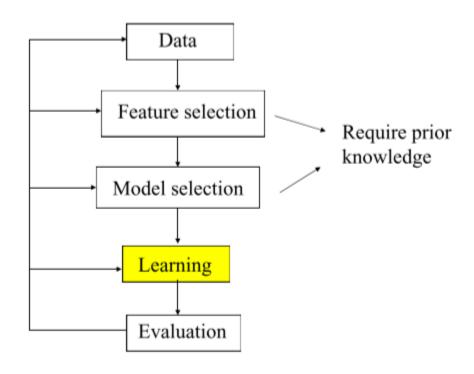
## Solutions for overfitting

#### How to make the learner avoid the overfit?

- Assure sufficient number of samples in the training set
  - May not be possible (small number of examples)
- Hold some data out of the training set = validation set
  - Train (fit) on the training set (w/o data held out);
  - Check for the generalization error on the validation set, choose the model based on the validation set error (random re-sampling validation techniques)
- Regularization (Occam's Razor)
  - Explicit preference towards simple models
  - Penalize for the model complexity (number of parameters) in the objective function



## Design cycle



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## Learning

- Learning = optimization problem. Various criteria:
  - Mean square error

$$\mathbf{w}^* = \arg\min_{\mathbf{w}} Error(\mathbf{w}) \qquad Error(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1,...N} (y_i - f(x_i, \mathbf{w}))^2$$

- Maximum likelihood (ML) criterion

$$\Theta^* = \underset{\Theta}{\operatorname{arg max}} P(D \mid \Theta)$$
  $Error(\Theta) = -\log P(D \mid \Theta)$ 

Maximum posterior probability (MAP)

$$\Theta^* = \underset{\Theta}{\operatorname{arg max}} P(\Theta \mid D) \qquad P(\Theta \mid D) = \frac{P(D \mid \Theta)P(\Theta)}{P(D)}$$



## Learning

#### **Learning = optimization problem**

- Optimization problems can be hard to solve. Right choice of a model and an error function makes a difference.
- Parameter optimizations (continuous space)
  - Linear programming, Convex programming
  - Gradient methods: grad. descent, Conjugate gradient
  - Newton-Rhapson (2nd order method)
  - Levenberg-Marquard

Some can be carried **on-line** on a sample by sample basis

- Combinatorial optimizations (over discrete spaces):
  - Hill-climbing
  - Simulated-annealing
  - Genetic algorithms

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## Parametric optimizations

- Sometimes can be solved directly but this depends on the objective function and the model
  - **Example:** squared error criterion for linear regression
- Very often the error function to be optimized is not that nice.

$$Error(\mathbf{w}) = f(\mathbf{w})$$
  $\mathbf{w} = (w_0, w_1, w_2 \dots w_k)$ 

- a complex function of weights (parameters)

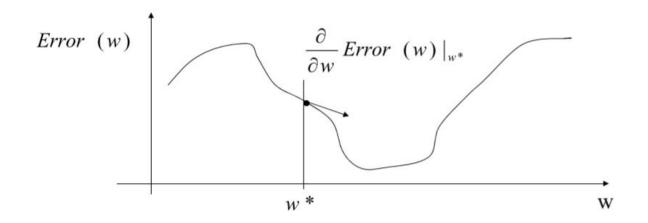
Goal: 
$$\mathbf{w}^* = \arg\min_{\mathbf{w}} f(\mathbf{w})$$

Example of a possible method: Gradient-descent method
 Idea: move the weights (free parameters) gradually in the error decreasing direction



#### Gradient descent method

Descend to the minimum of the function using the gradient information

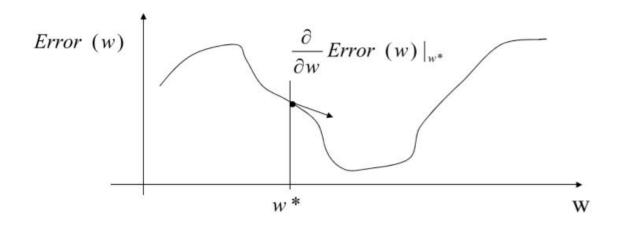


• Change the parameter value of w according to the gradient  $w \leftarrow w^* - \alpha \frac{\partial}{\partial w} Error(w)|_{w^*}$ 

$$w \leftarrow w * -\alpha \frac{\partial}{\partial w} Error(w)|_{w^*}$$



#### Gradient descent method



• New value of the parameter

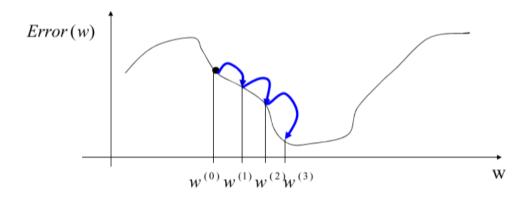
$$w \leftarrow w^* - \alpha \frac{\partial}{\partial w} Error(w)|_{w^*}$$

 $\alpha > 0$  - a learning rate (scales the gradient changes)



#### Gradient descent method

- To get to the function minimum repeat (iterate) the gradient based update few times
- Problems: local optima, saddle points, slow convergence More complex optimization techniques use additional
- information (e.g. second derivatives)



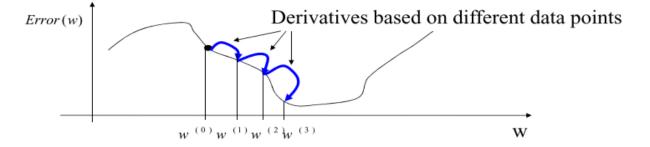


## On-line learning (optimization)

Error function looks at all data points at the same time E.g. 
$$Error(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1,\dots,n} (y_i - f(x_i, \mathbf{w}))^2$$
On-line error - separates the contribution from a data point

$$Error_{ON-LINE}(\mathbf{w}) = (y_i - f(x_i, \mathbf{w}))^2$$

**Example: On-line gradient descent** 

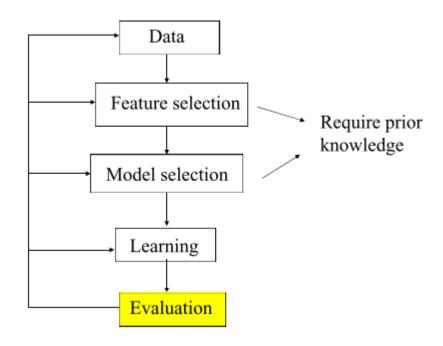


#### **Advantages:**

- simple learning algorithm
- no need to store data (on-line data streams)

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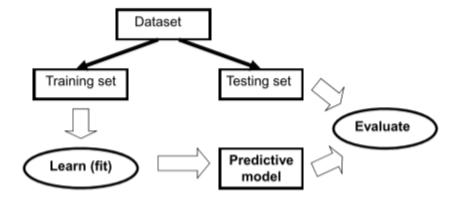
## Design cycle





## Evaluation of learning models

- Simple holdout method
  - Divide the data to the training and test data



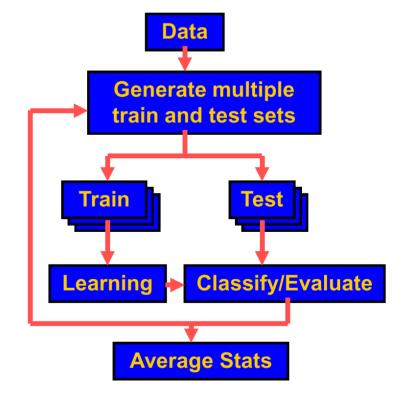
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#### **Evaluation**

#### Other more complex methods

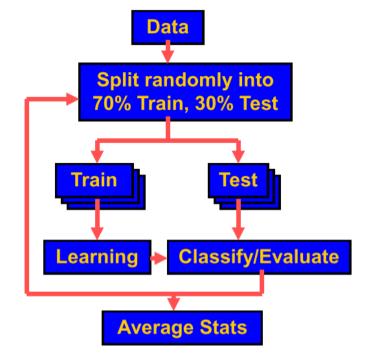
- Use multiple train/test sets
- Based on various random resampling schemes:
  - Random sub-sampling
  - Cross-validation
  - Bootstrap



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#### **Evaluation**

- Random sub-sampling
  - Repeat a simple
  - holdout method k times



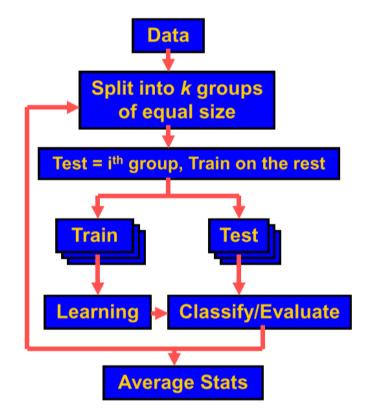


#### **Evaluation**

#### **Cross-validation (k-fold)**

- Divide data into k disjoint groups,
   test on k-th group/train on the rest
- Typically 10-fold cross-validation
- Leave one out cross-validation

(k = size of the data D)

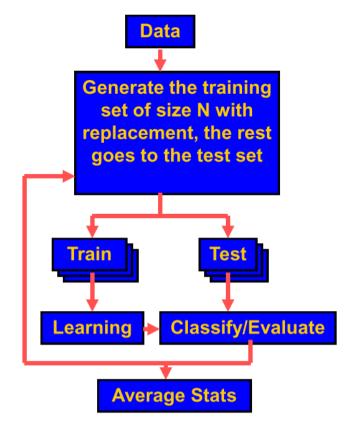


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#### **Evaluation**

#### **Bootstrap**

- The training set of size N = size of the data D
- Sampling with the replacement





## **Any Questions??**