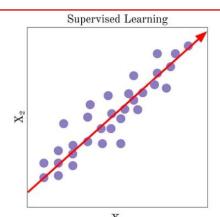
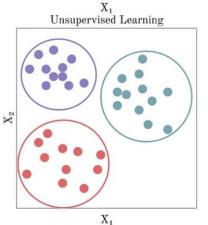
L2 Introduction to Machine Learning

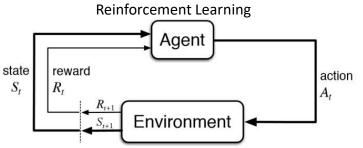
Zonghua Gu, Umeå University Nov. 2023

ML Taxonomy

- Supervised Learning:
 - The system is presented with example inputs and their desired outputs, given by a "teacher", and the goal is to learn a general rule that maps inputs to outputs
 - Classification (cat or dog?)
 - Regression (housing price next year?)
- Unsupervised Learning:
 - No labels are given to the learning algorithm, leaving it on its own to find structure in its input. Unsupervised learning can be a goal in itself (discovering hidden patterns in data) or a means towards an end (feature learning)
- Reinforcement Learning:
 - An agent interacts with a dynamic environment in which it must perform a certain goal. The agent is provided feedback in terms of rewards and it tries to learn an optimal policy that maximizes its cumulative rewards.
 - Applications: Game playing (AlphaGo); Robotics; AD...

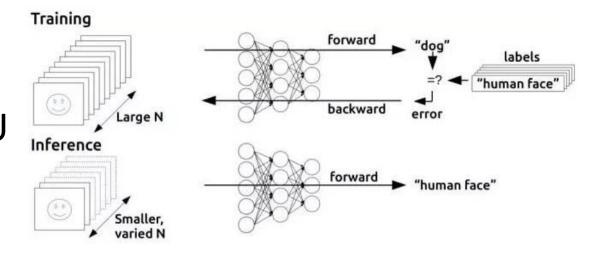






Training vs. Inference

- Training: millions of iterations of forward pass + back propagation to adjust model params (e.g., NN weights); requires large CPU/GPU clusters and days/weeks of training time
- Inference (also called prediction): a single forward pass; can be run on edge devices

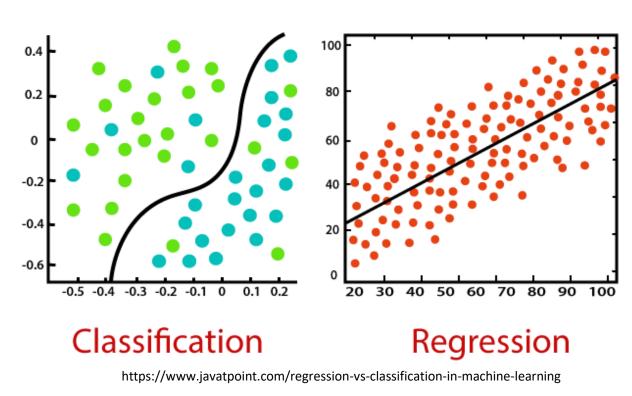


```
def train(train_images, train_labels):
    # build a model for images -> labels...
    return model

def predict(model, test_images):
    # predict test_labels using the model...
    return test_labels
```

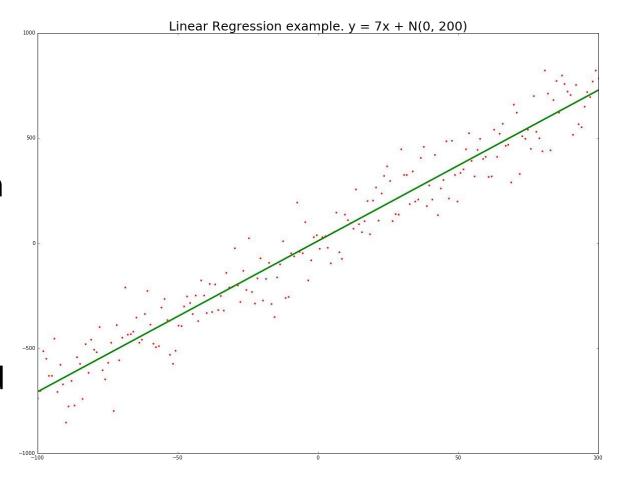
Supervised Learning: Classification and Regression

- Both are Supervised Learning algorithms that require groundtruth values as labels.
 - Classification is used to predict/classify discrete labels such as Male or Female, True or False, Spam or Not Spam, etc.
 - Regression is used to predict continuous values such as price, salary, age, etc.
- Loss functions measure how the predicted value differs from ground-truth value.



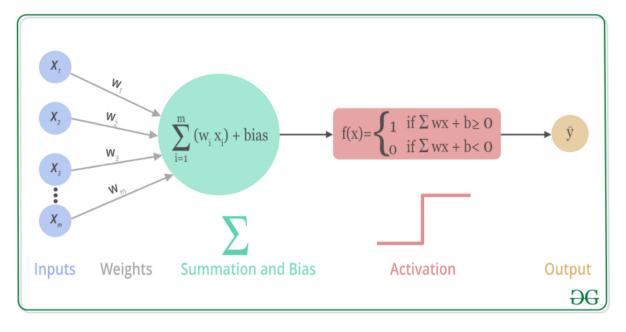
Linear Regression

- Function approximation y = wx + b, with learnable parameters $\theta = \{w, b\}$, where x, y, b are vectors, and w is a weight matrix
 - e.g., we want to predict price of a house based on its feature vector $\mathbf{x} = [x_1 \ x_2 \ x_3]^T$, where x_1 is area in square meters (sqm), x_2 is location ranking (loc), x_3 is year of construction (yoc)
 - Predicted price y = wx + b= $w_1x_1 + w_2x_2 + w_3x_3 + b$
 - Fig shows an example for scalar \boldsymbol{x} and \boldsymbol{y}



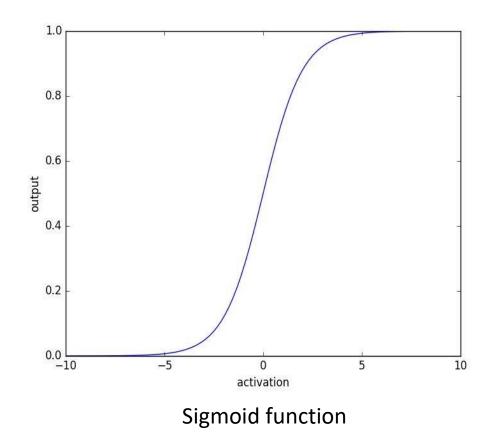
A Neuron and its Activation Function

- Activation function is a nonlinear monotonic function that acts like a "gate": output is larger for larger input activation
 - Perceptron $y = \sigma(z) = \text{step}(wx + b)$ (activation function f = step function, shown below)
 - Linear Regression if y = z = wx + b (activation function f = identity function)
 - Logistic Regression if $y = \sigma(z) = \sigma(wx + b)$ (activation function f = sigmoid function)



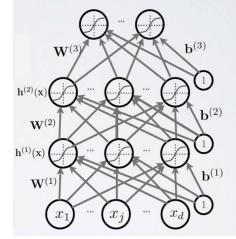
Logistic Regression for Binary Classification

- Consider a binary classification problem: an input image x may be classified as a dog with probability P(y = dog|x), a cat with probability P(y = cat|x), with P(y = dog|x) + P(y = cat|x) = 1.0
- Logistic Regression: use sigmoid function $\sigma(z_i) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-z_i}}$ to map from the activation (also called the logit) to the output probability
- In addition to binary classification at the output layer, sigmoid may also be used as the non-linear activation function in the hidden layers of a NN



Deep Neural Networks and Activation Functions

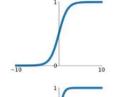
- We can stack many hidden layers to form a DNN if we have enough data and computing power to train it
- The high model capacity of DNN comes from non-linear activation functions in hidden layers
 - Without non-linear activation functions, a DNN with many layers can be collapsed into an equivalent single-layer NN
- Fully-Connected NNs
 - Number of params at the i-th layer is $(N_{i-1}+1)*N_i$, where N_i is the number of neurons at the i-th layer. Can grow very large
 - Convolutional NNs have much fewer params



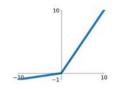
Slide Credit: Hugo Laroche NN cours

Sigmoid

$$\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}}$$





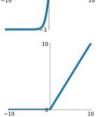


tanh

tanh(x)

ReLU

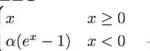
 $\max(0,x)$

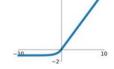


Maxout

$$\max(w_1^T x + b_1, w_2^T x + b_2)$$

ELU

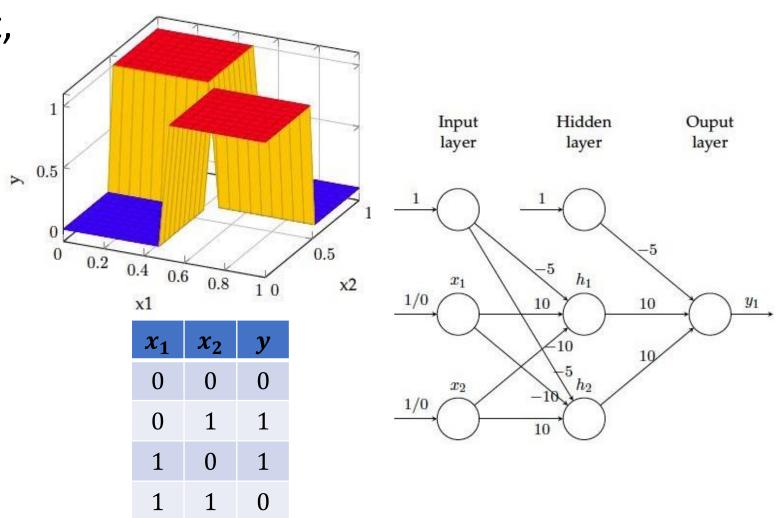




Common Activation Functions

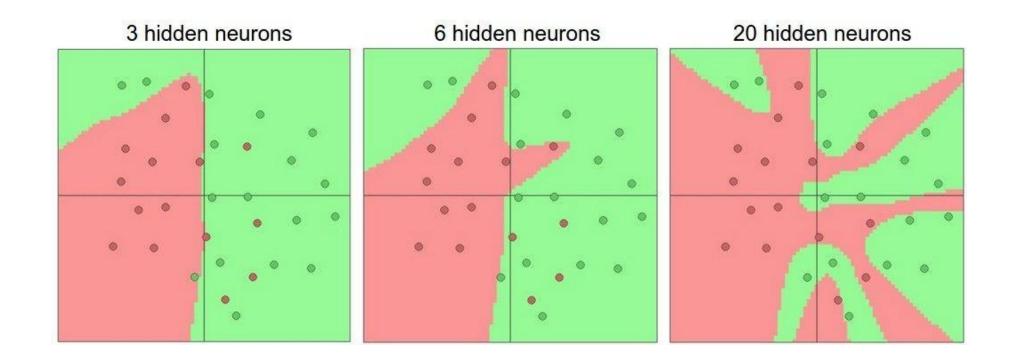
Example: Two-Layer Fully-Connected NN for Solving XOR

 Consists of one input, one hidden, and one output layer, with sigmoid activations



Setting # Layers and Their Sizes

- An example illustrating adding more hidden neurons increases model capacity and reduces training error
- But too many layers and neurons may lead to overfitting



Loss Functions

Classification

 Cross-Entropy Loss, Log Loss, Focal Loss, Exponential Loss, Hinge Loss...

Regression

• MSE (Mean Squared Error)/L2 Loss/Quadratic Loss, MAE (Mean Absolute Error)/L1 Loss, Huber Loss, Log Cosh Loss, Quantile Loss...

NN for Multi-Class Classification

- Consider a NN defining the model $h_{\theta} \colon \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}^k$, as the mapping from input x to output $h_{\theta}(x)$, a k-dim vector of logits, where k is the number of classes
 - θ is the set of params (weights and biases)
 - y is the correct label for input x
 - (Here h_{θ} does not include the last SoftMax layer that outputs the prediction scores)
- e.g., a 3-layer NN consisting of 2 layers with ReLU activation functions and a last linear layer is
 - $h_{\theta}(x) = W_3 \max(0, W_2 \max(0, W_1 x + b_1) + b_2) + b_3$

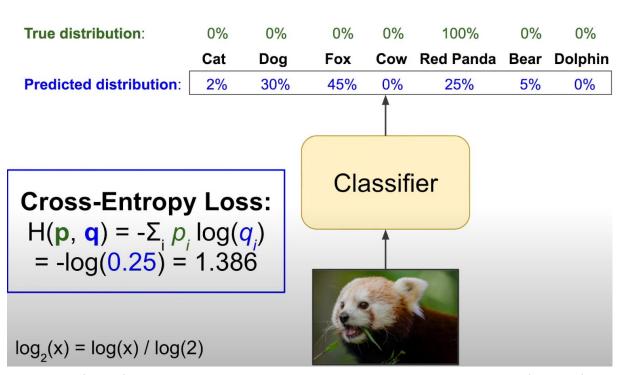
Important

Cross-Entropy Loss for Multi-Class Classification

• The SoftMax operator $\sigma: \mathbb{R}^k \to \mathbb{R}^k$ computes a vector of predicted probabilities $\sigma(z): \mathbb{R}^k$ that sum to 1.0, from a vector of logits $z: \mathbb{R}^k$ in the last hidden layer (the penultimate layer), where k is the number of classes:

•
$$\sigma(z)_i = \frac{\exp(z_i)}{\sum_{j=1}^k \exp(z_j)}$$

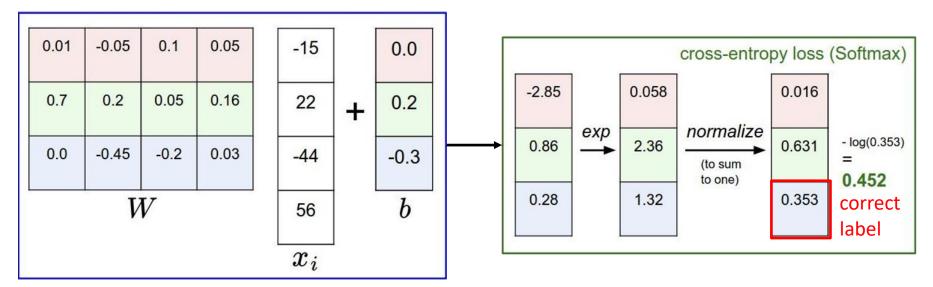
- The loss function is defined as the negative log likelihood of the predicted probability corresponding to the correct label *y*:
 - Loss $(x, y; \theta) = -\log \sigma (h_{\theta}(x))_{y} = -\log \left(\frac{\exp(h_{\theta}(x)_{y})}{\sum_{j=1}^{k} \exp(h_{\theta}(x)_{j})}\right) = \log \left(\sum_{j=1}^{k} \exp(h_{\theta}(x)_{j})\right) h_{\theta}(x)_{y}$
 - Minimizing $\operatorname{Loss}(h_{\theta}(x), y)$ amounts to maximizing the logit $(h_{\theta}(x))_y$ corresponding to the correct label y



Aurélien Géron A Short Introduction to Entropy, Cross-Entropy and KL-Divergence (YouTube)

CE Loss Example

- Consider a NN for 3-class classification. Fig shows the last linear layer and the SoftMax layer
- The last linear layer computes the vector of logits $h_{\theta}(x) = Wx_i + b$ = $[-2.85 \ .86 \ .28]^T(x)$ is the input image to the NN, x_i is the intermediate input to the last layer)
- The SoftMax layer computes the vector of predicted probabilities $[.016 \ .631 \ .353]^T$ for labels $[1 \ 2 \ 3]^T$, and the loss $-\log.353$, assuming correct label $y_i = 3$
 - Logits: $[e^{-2.85}, e^{.86}, e^{.28}] = [.058, 2.36, 1.32]$
 - Normalize by $e^{-2.85} + e^{.86} + e^{.28} = 3.738$ to get SoftMax scores $\left[\frac{.058}{3.738}, \frac{2.36}{3.738}, \frac{1.32}{3.738}\right] = [.016, .631, .353]$

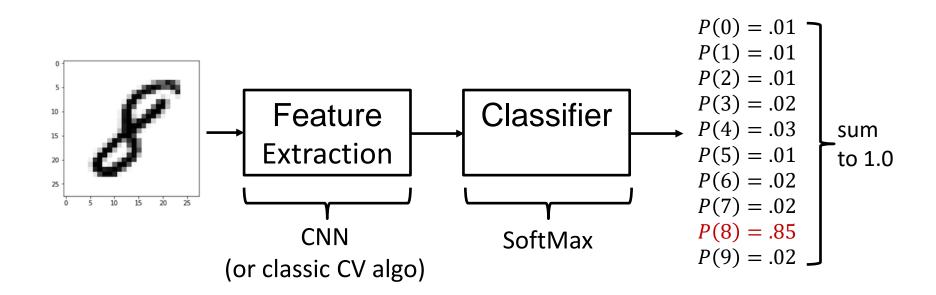


Last Linear Layer

SoftMax Layer

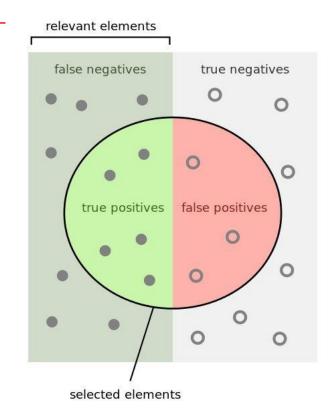
Multi-Class Image Classification

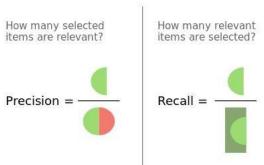
- Two stages: feature extraction from input, and classification based on extracted features
- Classifier returns output as a list of probabilities with size equal to the number of classes, but it may also return the top-1 or top-5 results with highest probability ranking



Binary Classification Metrics

- The relevant class is considered "positive" in a binary classifier
- e.g., for a medical test that aims to diagnose people with a certain disease. "Positive" denotes sick (has disease), and "negative" denotes healthy (no disease)
 - TP: a sick person is diagnosed as sick
 - TN: a healthy person is diagnosed as healthy
 - FP: a healthy person is misdiagnosed as sick
 - FN: a sick person is misdiagnosed as healthy
- Never Forget Again! // Precision vs Recall with a Clear Example of Precision and Recall by Kimberly Fessel
 - https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=qWfzIYCvBqo





Example Confusion Matrix 1

- Precision = $\frac{TP}{TP+FP} = \frac{1}{1+7} = .125$
 - When the classifier predicts positive, it is correct 12.5% of the time
- Recall (TPR) = $\frac{TP}{TP+FN} = \frac{1}{1+2} \approx .333$
 - Among all the positive cases, the classier correctly classifies 33.3% of them as positive

•
$$F1 = 2 * \frac{\text{Precision*Recall}}{(\text{Precision+Recall})} = 2 * \frac{.333*.125}{.333+.125} = .182$$

- False Positive Rate (FPR) = $\frac{FP}{FP+TN} = \frac{7}{7+90} \approx .072$
 - Among all the negative cases, the classier misclassifies 7.2% of them as positive
- Accuracy = $\frac{TP+TN}{TP+TN+FP+FN} = \frac{1+90}{1+90+7+2} = .91$
 - The classier makes the correct prediction 91% percent of the time
- Positive correlation between TPR vs. FPR
- In general, negative correlation between precision vs. recall (but not strictly monotonic)

		Ground Truth	
		Positive	Negative
Predicted	Neg	False Negative (FN)=2	True Negative (TN)=90
	Pos	True Positive (TP)=1	False Positive (FP)=7

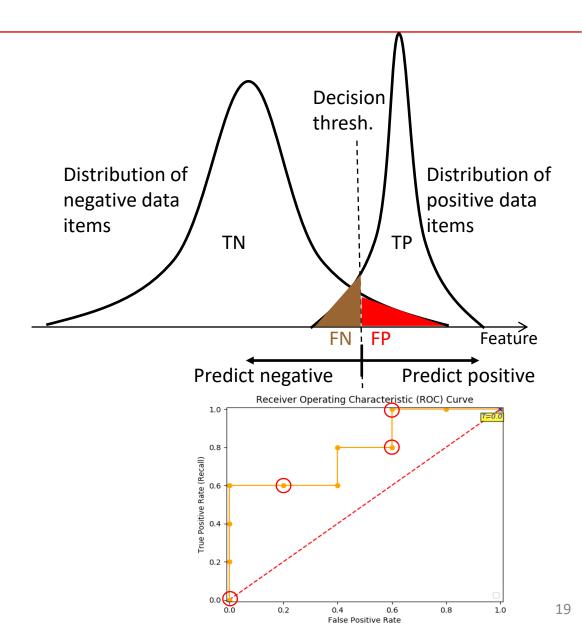
Example Confusion Matrix 2

- Precision = $\frac{TP}{TP+FP} = \frac{0}{0+0}$ (ill-defined)
 - When the classifier predicts positive, it is correct ?% of the time (since it never predicts positive, the question is ill-defined)
- Recall (TPR) = $\frac{TP}{TP+FN} = \frac{0}{0+3} = 0$
 - Among all the positive cases, the classier correctly classifies 0% of them as positive
- False Positive Rate (FPR) = $\frac{FP}{FP+TN} = \frac{0}{0+97} = 0$
 - Among all the negative cases, the classier misclassifies 0% of them as positive
- Accuracy = $\frac{TP+TN}{TP+TN+FP+FN} = \frac{0+97}{0+97+0+3} = .97$
 - The classier makes the correct prediction 97% percent of the time
- A medical test that never makes any positive diagnoses is very accurate for a rare disease (diagnose everyone to be healthy), but not very useful

		Ground Truth		
		Positive	Negative	
Predicted	Neg	False Negative (FN)=3	True Negative (TN)=97	
	Pos	True Positive (TP)=0	False Positive (FP)=0	

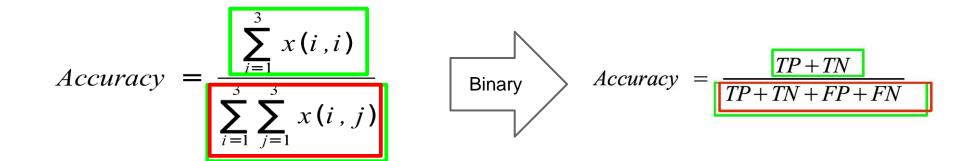
ROC and AUC

- Binary classification is typically based on a decision threshold parameter. Moving the decision threshold will cause FPR and TPR to move in the same direction
 - Lower threshold for positive prediction leads to higher FPR and higher TPR, and vice versa
- Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) Curve plots FPR (x-axis) vs. TPR (y-axis); Area Under the Curve (AUC) is the area under ROC ($.5 \le ROC \le 1$, since $FPR \le TPR$)
 - Fig shows an example with 4 points (FPR, TPR) highlighted: (0,0), (.2, .6), (.6, .8), (.6,1.0)
 - The ideal ROC curve: $FPR \equiv 0$, $TPR \equiv 1$, AUC = 1, with FP = FN = 0,
 - The worst ROC curve; $FPR \equiv TPR$, AUC = .5 (dotted line)



Confusion Matrix

• Binary classification is a special case of multi-class classification:

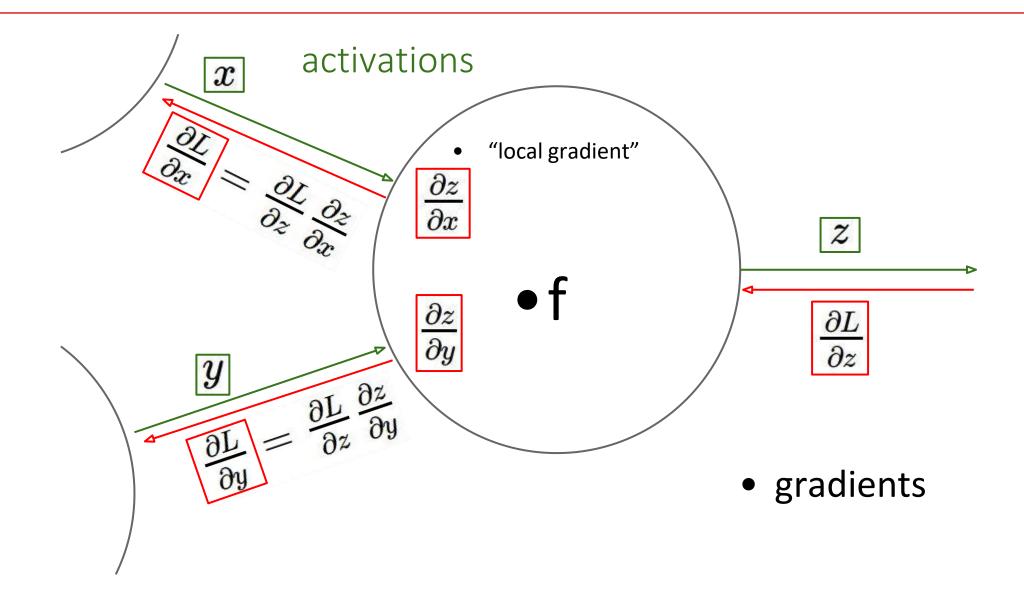


		Ground Truth		
		Cls1	Cls2	Cls3
Pred.	Cls3			
	Cls2			
	Cls1			

		Ground Truth		
		Pos	Neg	
Pred.	Pos	FN	TN	
	Neg	TP	FP	

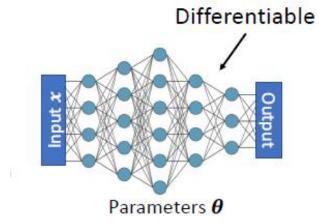
Training Neural Networks

Local Gradient at One Neuron

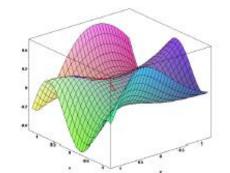


Gradient Descent

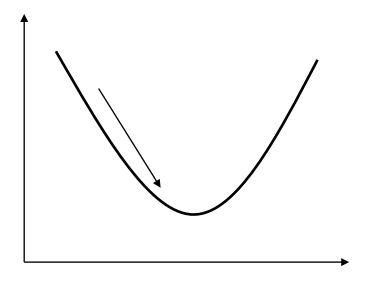
- Gradient descent $\theta \leftarrow \theta \alpha \nabla_{\theta} \text{Loss}(x, y; \theta)$
- Loss surface of a DNN is highly non-convex; can only hope to find "reasonably good" local minima



Can use gradient descent method to find good θ

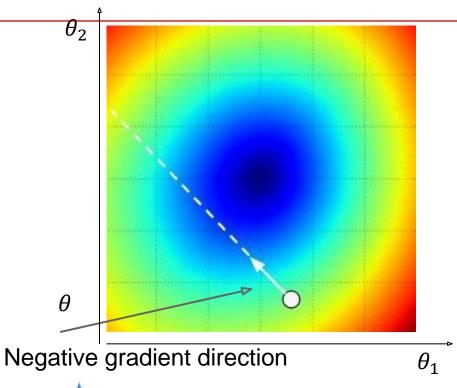


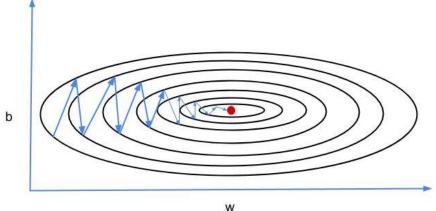
$$\mathbb{E}_{(x,y)\sim D} \text{Loss}(x,y;\theta)$$



Gradient Descent Algorithms

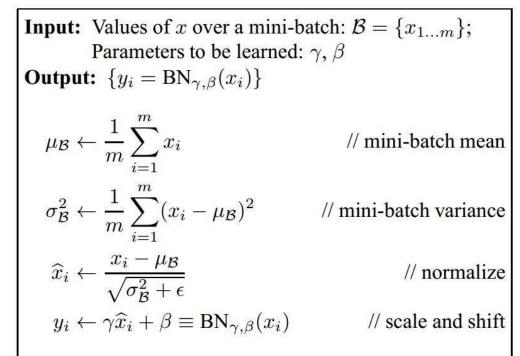
- Steepest descent may result in in efficient zig-zag path
 - More advanced GD methods exploit momentum, e.g., Nesterov, AdaGrad, RMSProp, Adam...
- Mini-batch Stochastic Gradient Descent
 - Only use a small portion (a mini-batch) of the training data to compute the gradient
 - Common mini-batch sizes are 32/64/128 examples
 - Loop:
 - Sample a mini-batch of data
 - Forward prop it through the graph, get loss
 - Backprop to calculate the gradients
 - Update the parameters using gradient descent

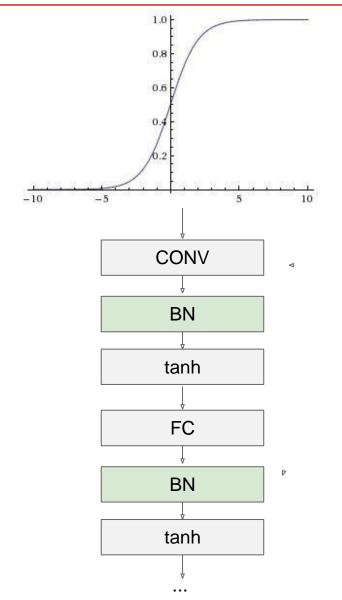




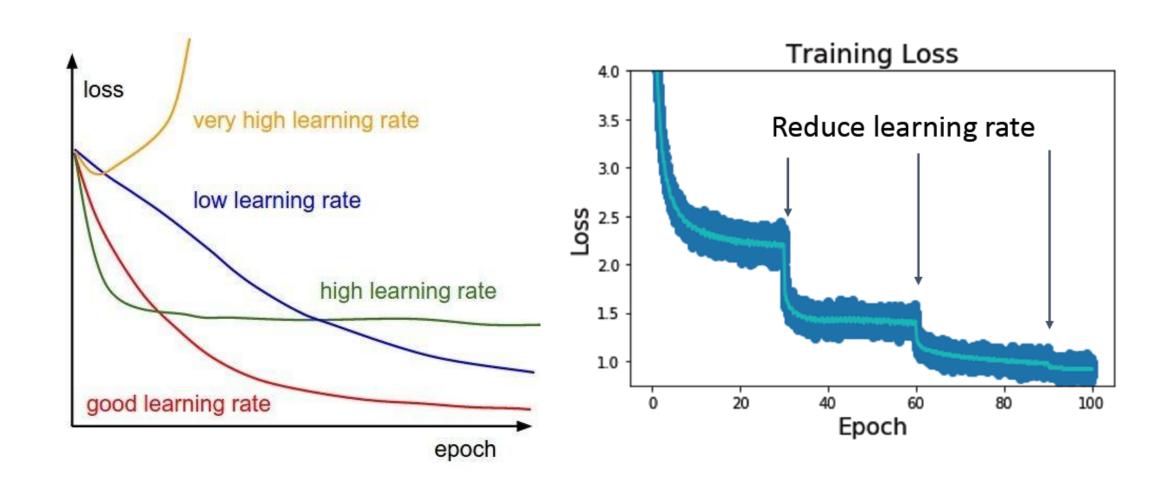
Batch Normalization

- For each mini-batch:
 - 1. Compute the empirical mean and variance independently for each dimension i = 1, ... m
 - 2. Normalize to a unit Gaussian with 0 mean and unit variance
- BN layers inserted before nonlinear activation function, and it keeps x's average value around 0 for maximum gradient during learning
- Scale and shift params γ , β gives more flexibility during training
- Benefits:
 - Improves gradient flow through the network; Allows higher learning rates; Reduces the strong dependence on initialization; Acts as a form of regularization



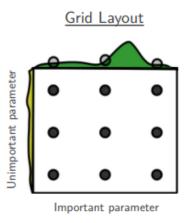


Learning Rate Schedule during Training



Hyperparameter Optimization

- Example hyperparams
 - Network architecture
 - Learning rate, its decay schedule, update type
 - Regularization (L2/Dropout strength)
- Grid search vs. random search
 - If a function f of two variables can be approximated by another function of one variable $(f(x_1,x_2)\approx g(x_1))$, then we say that f has a low effective dimension. Fig. 1 illustrates how point grids and uniformly random point sets differ in how they cope with low effective dimensionality



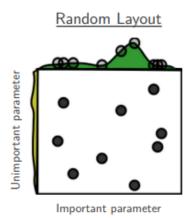
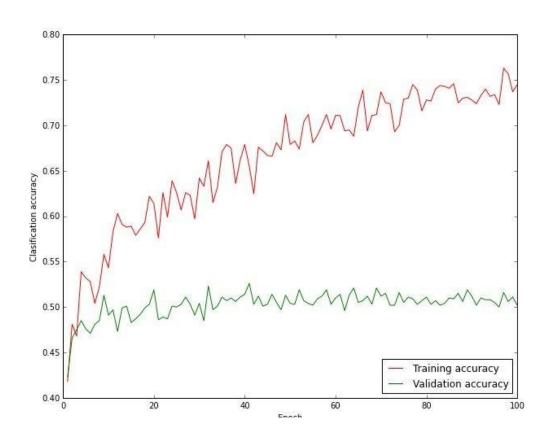


Figure 1: Grid and random search of nine trials for optimizing a function $f(x,y) = g(x) + h(y) \approx g(x)$ with low effective dimensionality. Above each square g(x) is shown in green, and left of each square h(y) is shown in yellow. With grid search, nine trials only test g(x) in three distinct places. With random search, all nine trials explore distinct values of g. This failure of grid search is the rule rather than the exception in high dimensional hyper-parameter optimization.

Bergstra, James, and Yoshua Bengio. "Random search for hyper-parameter optimization." *Journal of machine learning research* 13.2 (2012).

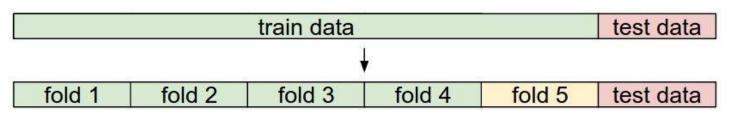
Classification Accuracy

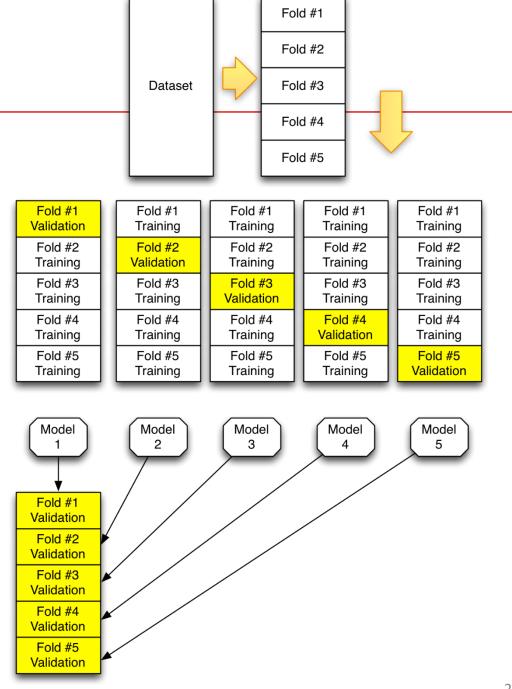
- Big gap between training accuracy and validation accuracy may imply overfitting => decrease model capacity/size
- No gap may imply underfitting => increase model capacity/size



K-Fold Cross-Validation

- Divide data into train data and test data. Since we cannot peek at the test data during training time, we use part of the train data for Cross-Validation
 - e.g., Divide training data into K=5 parts (folds). Use each fold as validation data, and the other 4 folds as training data. Cycle through the choice of which fold used for validation and average results





Data Augmentation for Enlarging Training Dataset

 Mirroring, random cropping, color shifting, rotation, shearing, local warping...

