

# AI / ML Overview

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## (2) General Classes of problems:

(1) Supervised (i.e. Predictive) Learning

(2) Unsupervised Learning

Supervised: Goal is to learn a [mapping]

From inputs:  $X \xrightarrow{\text{To}} Y$   
 outputs (labels)

With supervised learning we are given [labels].

$$D = \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n \quad \text{where } x_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$$

$X$  usually denotes the [design matrix]

where  $X_{n \times d}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} X \\ \vdots \\ X \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$$

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When  $y_i \in \mathbb{R}$ , the problem  
 ↓  
 Labels

archetype is usually referred to as Regression.

When  $y_i \in \{1, \dots, K\}$  the problem  
 ↓  
 Discrete classes

is referred to as Classification.

E.g. Predict expected income from education level (Regression)

E.g. Predict whether digital image contains a pedestrian (Binary Classification).

Goal:  $\hat{Y} = f(\vec{x}) + \underbrace{\varepsilon}_{\text{"True" mapping error}}$

Why estimate  $f$ ?

- (1) Prediction
- (2) Inference

$\hat{Y} = \hat{f}(\vec{x})$  (Our estimate)

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Flowchart for a standard AI/ML  
Algorithm

WANT:  $f \approx \hat{f}$  (our estimate of  $f$ )  
 "True" relationship w/o  $X \approx Y$

How To Quantify The Proximity of  $f$  To  $\hat{f}$ ?  
 Use a Loss Function.

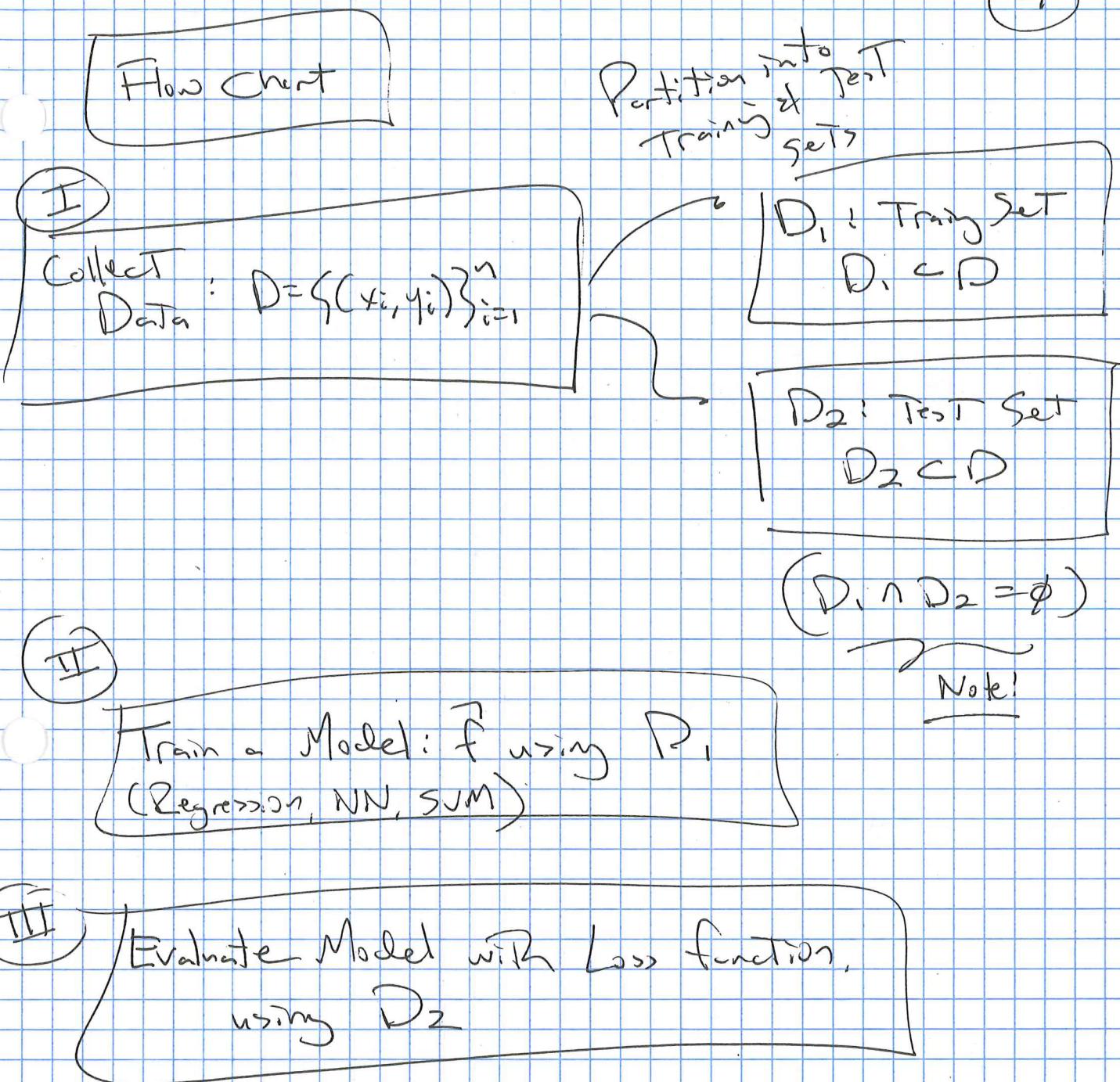
Examples of Loss Functions:

(1) [0-1 Loss] (for Classification)

$$L(f(x), \hat{f}(x)) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } f(x) = \hat{f}(x) \\ 1 & \text{if } f(x) \neq \hat{f}(x) \end{cases}$$

(2) [Quadratic Loss]

$$L(f(x), \hat{f}(x)) = \sum (f(x) - \hat{f}(x))^2$$



\* By Ideals: The smaller (Total) Loss on The Test set, The better The model (ideally).

We use The results on The Test set To generalization approximate How well The model will generalize To new data.

With Unsupervised Learning we are just given data without labels.

In this case we are interested in discovering

"interesting structure" in the data; This is sometimes

called knowledge discovery or cluster analysis.

Note: Reinforcement Learning offers a "3rd

problem class in AI/ML - where an "agent"

learns how to act or behave when given occasional reward or punishment signals

(e.g. Alpha GO, Atari w/ Deep Q-Learning)

Parametric Models vs. Non-Parametric Models

Parametric Models consist of a finite (a fixed #) of parameters:  $\vec{\Theta} = \langle \Theta_1, \Theta_2, \dots, \Theta_N \rangle$ .

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Idea: Using the training data, we "learn" values for these parameters.

[Ex.] Polynomial Regression: Fit a polynomial

curve to a data set (e.g. using OLS, etc.)

[Linear Regression]  $\hat{f}(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x$  "Learning" this model  
entails finding plausible values for  $\theta_0, \theta_1$

[Quadratic Regression]

$$\hat{f}(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x + \theta_2 x^2$$

Model Parameters:  $\vec{\theta} = (\theta_0, \theta_1, \theta_2)$ .

[Polynomial Regression]

$$\hat{f}(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{d-1} \theta_i x^i \quad \rightarrow \text{(d+1 parameters)}$$

Note: If we use a model with a small

number of parameters it is usually easier

To train (requires less time & data).

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However, a low dimensional Model

might not be sufficiently "complex" to capture all the interesting & useful patterns in our data!

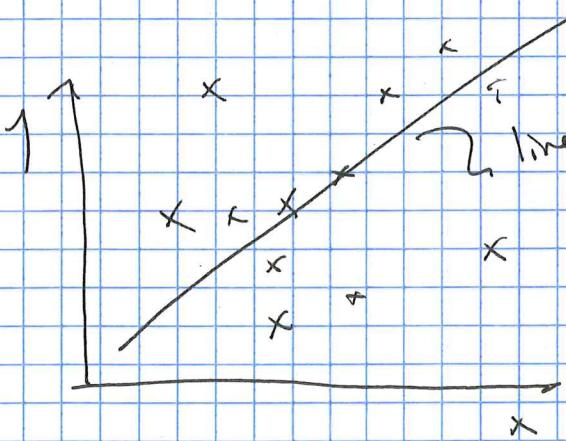
(This is called underfitting)

On the other hand, a large dimension/complex model requires more computation & time on

average; Moreover, an excessively complex model will be "overly tuned" to the training data

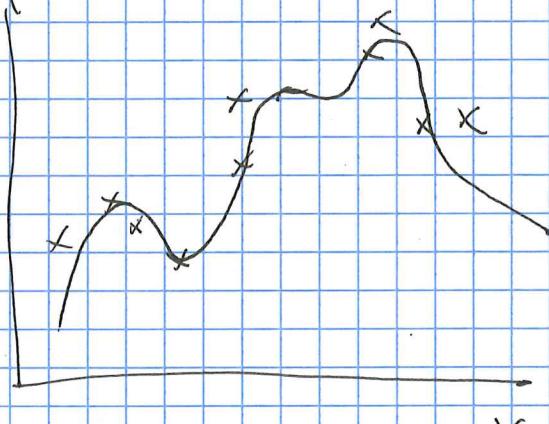
(This is called overfitting)

Conclusion: There is No "free lunch" in data science!



(underfitting)

low complexity  
Model



(overfitting)

high complexity model

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How do I know when I get it right?

This is the "art" of AI/ML / Data Science!

(In other words there is no simple answer)

In general, however, remember that we can assess our model accuracy with a Loss function:

Quadratic Loss

$$\text{MSE} = \underbrace{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n}_{\substack{\text{Mean-squared} \\ \text{error}}} \underbrace{(y_i - \hat{f}(x_i))^2}_{\substack{\text{over test data}}}$$

0-1 Loss

$$\text{Ave} = \underbrace{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n}_{\substack{\text{take} \\ \text{Average}}} \underbrace{L(y_i, \hat{f}(x_i))}_{\substack{\text{counts # of "mistakes"}}}$$

Note: Unfortunately, having a low training error (e.g. MSE) does not guarantee low Test error in general.

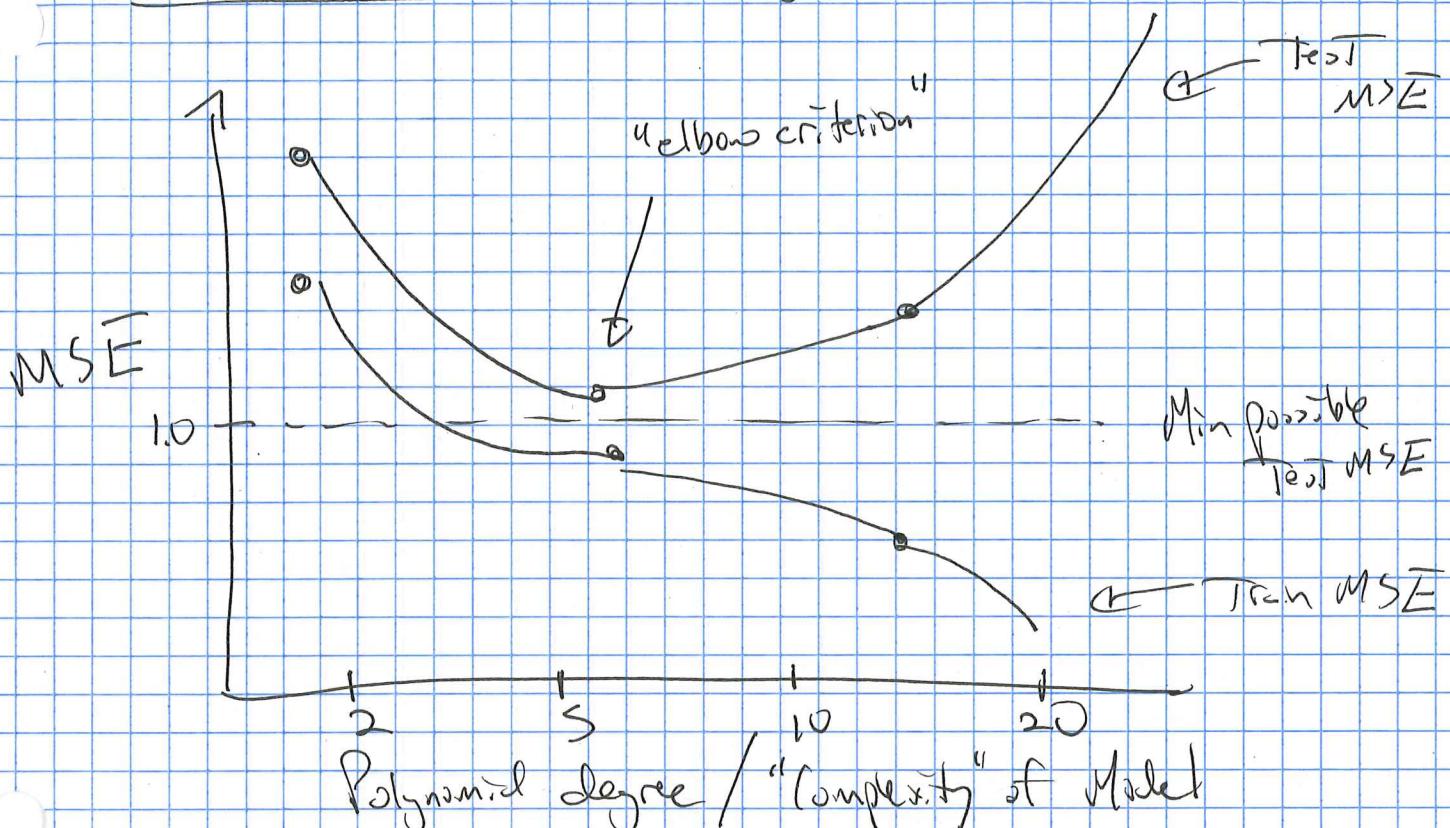
One common remedy for parametric models:

Train several models of varying complexity

(e.g. linear regression, quad, cubic regression), compute MSE for each Test set, choose Model w/ lowest MSE.

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Common "U-shape" error graph



### Bias-Variance Tradeoff

The "U-shape" phenomenon in the Test MSE is indicative of two competing properties of learned models: Bias & Variance.

low-dimensional (simple models): high Bias & low variance

high-dimensional (complex/flexible models): low Bias & high Variance

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More concretely,

The expected  $\text{MSE}^{\text{Test}}$  for a given value  $x_0$ ,

can always be decomposed into the sum  
of ③ fundamental quantities:

$$\underbrace{E[(y_0 - \hat{f}(x_0))^2]}_{\text{expected Test MSE}} = \text{Var}[\hat{f}(x_0)] + \text{Bias}(\hat{f}(x_0))^2 + \text{Var}(\varepsilon)$$

(Irreducible error)

From above, we see that the ideal model will simultaneously achieve low variance & low bias.

Ex. Unsupervised Learning

Suppose we have  $D = \{(x_i^{(1)}, x_i^{(2)})\}_{i=1}^n$

with no class labels  
(i.e. no  $y$  values).

(2-d data)

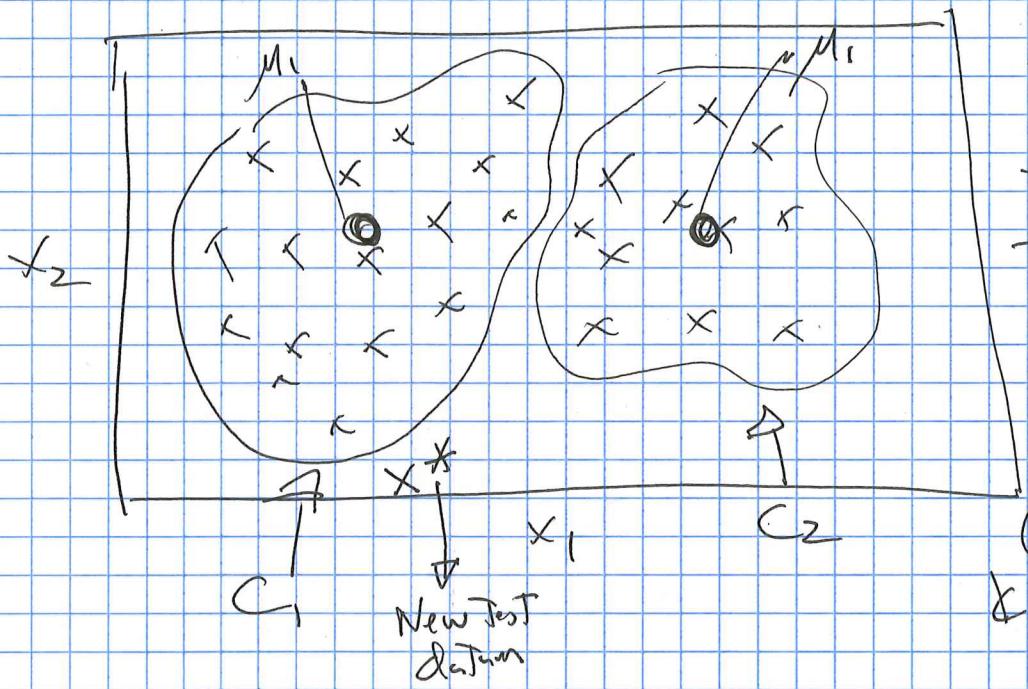
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We will use a clustering method to first

cluster the data (let  $k = \#$  of clusters) &

then classify a new datum based on a nearest centroid criterion — this  $\Rightarrow$  usually called  $k$ -means.

Idea: Suppose we obtain biometric data from men & women ( $\Rightarrow k=2$ ), where  $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^2$ .



We use the  $k$ -means algorithm to identify each training datum as belonging to either cluster 1 or cluster 2.  
(Don't worry about  $k$ -means details now)

$$M_1 = \frac{1}{|C_1|} \sum_{C_1} (x_1, x_2) \rightarrow \boxed{\text{centroid of } C_1}$$

$$M_2 = \frac{1}{|C_2|} \sum_{C_2} (x_1, x_2) \rightarrow \boxed{\text{centroid of } C_2}$$

How to classify new test datum ( $x^*$ )?  
Class for  $x^* = \arg \min_i \|x^* - M_i\|_2$

i.e. classify  $x^*$  based on nearest cluster center.

Note That The previous examples are considered parametric Models, because The #

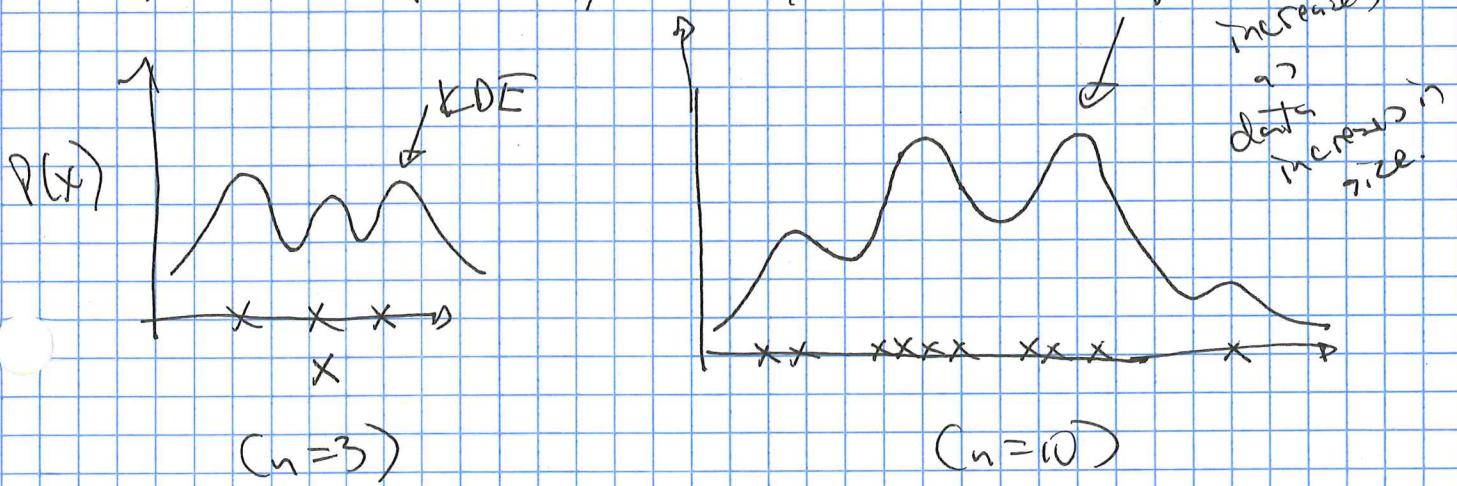
of parameters is fixed & once we "learn" These parameter values, The training data can be "discarded" when we perform Test prediction/classification.

What would a non-parametric Model look like?

- Two conditions:
- ① The # of parameters is not fixed, and typically grows as The training set gets larger;
  - ② The training data is retained for prediction/classif.  
(necessity)

### [EF.] Kernel Density estimation

Idea: fit a smooth/flexible "histogram" to data - produce a probability density function.



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Are more useful & common Model

Def.

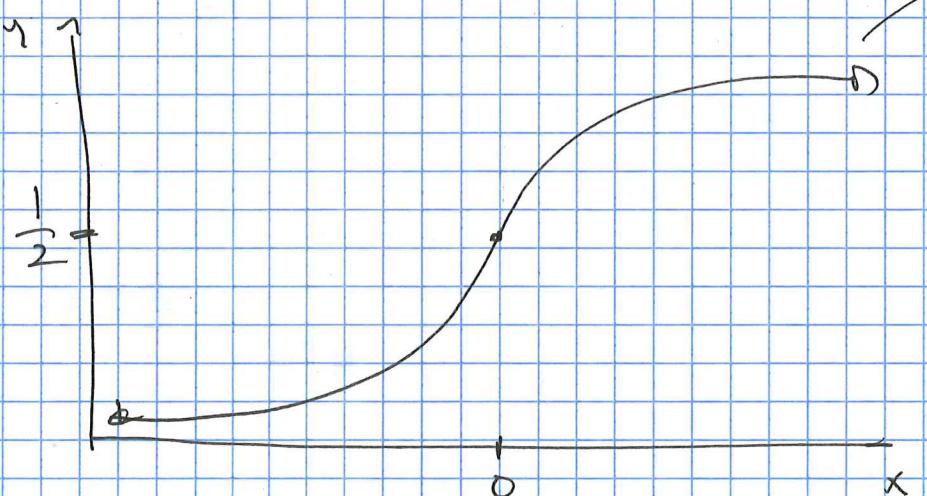
Logistic Regression

: A parametric (Binary) Classification Model.

Def.: The sigmoid function:

$$\text{Sigmoid}(n) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-n}}$$

useful for logistic & a regression "function" activation in NNs.



Graph of a sigmoid

Note:  $\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \text{Sigmoid}(x) = 1$

$\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \text{Sigmoid}(x) = 0$

Idea:

Parameter Models  $\vec{\theta} = \langle \theta_0, \dots, \theta_n \rangle$

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$$P(y | \vec{x}, \vec{\theta}) = \text{Ber}(y | \text{sigm}(\vec{\theta}^T \vec{x}))$$

↓      ↓  
 Binary class      datum for classification  
 ↓  
 model parameters  
 $y \in \{0, 1\}$

Steps: ① With training, linear model parameters  $\vec{\theta}$ .

② evaluate :  $\text{sigm}(\vec{\theta}^T \vec{x}) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\vec{\theta}^T \vec{x}}}$

③ Apply a [decision rule] (Threshold)

e.g.  $\hat{y}(x) = 1 \iff P(y=1|x) > 0.5$

Data  
in  
one  
class

Toy example: Training Data →  $y$   
Recall:  $y \in \{0, 1\}$

