

Applied Machine Learning in Engineering

Lecture 02 summer term 2025

Prof. Merten Stender

Cyber-Physical Systems in Mechanical Engineering, Technische Universität Berlin

www.tu.berlin/cpsme merten.stender@tu-berlin.de

Recap: Lecture 01



Least Squares Linear Regression

- Scalar variable x and scalar target value $y \rightarrow \text{find } f(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x$
- Generating process $y_i = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x_i + \epsilon_i$ with $\mathbf{x} = [1, x_i]^{\mathsf{T}}$ $y_i = \mathbf{x}_i^{\mathsf{T}} \theta + \epsilon_i$ i = 1, ..., N (unobserved random variable ϵ causing deviations from a perfectly linear relationship)
- Prediction:

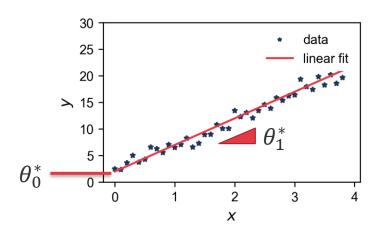
$$\hat{y} = f(x)$$

Sum of squared errors:

$$\mathcal{L}_{SSE} = \sum_{i} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2, i = 1, ... N$$

• Solution for θ_0 and θ_1 : vanishing gradient of \mathcal{L}_{SSE}

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_{\text{SSE}}}{\partial \theta_0} = 0$$
 and $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_{\text{SSE}}}{\partial \theta_1} = 0$



Recap: Lecture 01



Loss for scalar setting:

$$\mathcal{L} = \sum_{i} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 = \sum_{i} (y_i - \theta_0 - \theta_1 x_i)^2$$

 \blacksquare Vanishing gradient of $\mathcal L$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \theta_0} = -2\sum_i (y_i - \theta_0 - \theta_1 x_i) = 0$$

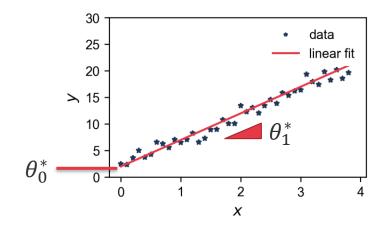
$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \theta_1} = -2\sum_i (y_i - \theta_0 - \theta_1 x_i) x_i = 0$$

Normal equation

$$\begin{bmatrix} N & \sum_{i} x_{i} \\ \sum_{i} x_{i} & \sum_{i} x_{i}^{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \theta_{0} \\ \theta_{1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{i} y_{i} \\ \sum_{i} y_{i} x_{i} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$$

 \rightarrow Solve for θ to find optimal parameters θ^*



Recap: Lecture 01

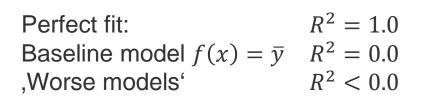


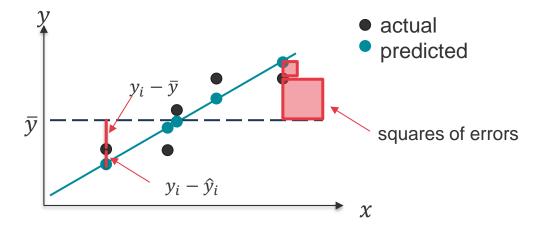
• Measuring the goodness of fit for regression problems: coefficient of determination (R^2 value)

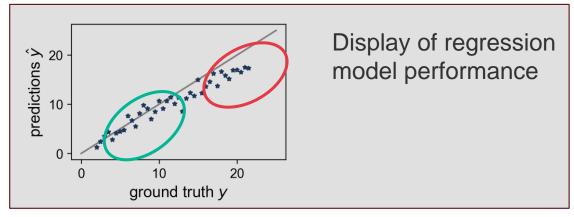
$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum_i (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2}{\sum_i (y_i - \bar{y})^2}, \ i = 1, ..., N,$$

sample mean $\bar{y} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} y_{i}$

Residual sum of squares $\sum_{i}(y_{i}-\hat{y}_{i})^{2}$ Total sum of squares $\sum_{i}(y_{i}-\bar{y})^{2}$







Recap: Exercise 01



Model parameter estimation using Least Squares Linear Regression

Implementation of the normal form

Solution using np.linalg.solve

Return of the coefficients

```
def lin regress(x: np.ndarray, y: np.ndarray) -> list:
     # assuming x and y being 1-dim np.arrays of
     # length N (number of training data samples)
     # number of training samples
    N = x.shape[0]
     # normal form: A=[N, sum(x); sum(x), sum(x^2)]; b=[sum(y); sum(y*x)]
    A = np.array([[N, np.sum(x)], [np.sum(x), np.sum(x ** 2)]])
    b = np.expand dims(np.array([np.sum(y), np.sum(y * x)]), axis=-1)
     \# solve Ax = b
     theta = np.linalq.solve(A, b).flatten()
    return theta[0], theta[1]
```

Recap: Exercise 01



Model parameter estimation using Least Squares Linear Regression

•
$$P_{\text{engine}} = v(F_{\text{wind}} + F_{\text{roll}})$$

•
$$P_{\mathrm{roll}} = P_{\mathrm{engine}} - vF_{\mathrm{wind}}$$
, assuming $\alpha = 0$, $v_{\mathrm{rel}} = v$

•
$$P_{\text{engine}} - P_{\text{wind}} = c_r \cdot mg \cdot v = P_{\text{roll}}$$

takes the form of $y = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x$

```
linear regression model: y = 1191.6353 + 0.0177 * x rolling resistance cR = 0.0177
```

```
data = np.genfromtxt("driving data.csv", delimiter=",")
velocity = data[:, 0] # m/s
power = data[:, 1] # W
# some constants as given in the exercise sheet
CW, A, RHO, G, M = 0.4, 1.5, 1.2, 9.81, 2400
def wind resistance(v:np.ndarray) -> np.ndarray:
     return CW * A * (RHO * v ** 2) / 2
power roll = power - velocity * wind resistance(v=velocity)
f roll = power wo wind / velocity
y = np.expand dims(power roll, axis=1)
X = np.expand dims(velocity * M * G, axis=1)
# Least-squares lin. regression
theta = lin regress(x=X, y=y)
theta 0, theta 1 = \text{theta}[0], theta[1]
print(f'\nlinear regression model: \ty = {theta 0:.4f} +
{theta 1:.4f} * x')
print(f'rolling resistance \t\t\tcR = {theta 1:.4f}')
```

Recap: Exercise 01



Python take aways

- Function definition including type hints
- Importing functions from different files
- '__name__' == '__main__' idiom
- Vectors and matrices in numpy
- Test-driven development
- Raising of error

```
import numpy as np
import unittest
from my_r2_score import r2_score

class TestR2Score(unittest.TestCase):
    def test_perfect_pred(self) -> None:
        y_true = np.random.randn(100)
        y_pred = y_true
        self.assertAlmostEqual(r2_score(y_true, y_pred), 1.0)

    def test_mean_pred(self) -> None:
        y_true = np.random.randn(100)
        y_pred = np.ones_like(y_true) * np.mean(y_true)
        self.assertEqual(r2_score(y_true, y_pred), 0.0)

...

if __name__ == "__main__":
    unittest.main()
```

Agenda



- Attribute types
- Type conversion and encoding
- Python: object-oriented programming

Learning outcomes



Learn to ...

- Characterize different attributes by their type
- Represent categorical data in a computer-readable form
- Differentiate functional and object-oriented programming

Know about ...

- Computational operations valid for specific attribute types
- Variance inflation and the dummy variable trap
- Class attributes and methods



Data Types

Data Types



Most common data types of relevance for this class in Python

data type	Python type	description	examples
integer	int	whole numbers	-1, 0, 42
floating point number (real)	float	fractional numbers	-3.14, 0.0, 10.1
string	str	sequence of characters	Hello world!
boolean	bool	logical: true or false	True, False

Consider type-hinting when implementing functions and methods!

Attributes



Definition: An attribute is a property or characteristic of an object that may vary, either from

one data object to another or from one time to another.

[Tan, Introduction to Data Mining]

■ Example: data object weather conditions

Attributes

Current temperature [°C]

Current wind speed [m/s]

Current wind direction {N, W, S, E}

Current humidity [%]

Current rain fall {yes, no}

Current location [city name]



- Attributes can have different types
- Understanding types is crucial for data science and machine learning
 - The attribute type defines the set of <u>valid operations</u>
- Operations:
 - Distinctness (= and ≠)
 - Order $(<, \le, >, \ge)$
 - Addition and multiplication (+, -, *, /)
- Four types of attributes:
 - 1. Nominal
 - 2. Ordinal
 - 3. Interval
 - 4. Ratio

Nominal data



- Observation from a set of mutually exclusive values, classes or categories
- Can be expressed in words or in numbers
- There is no meaningful order of the labels
- Arithmetic operations cannot be performed on nominal data
- Examples:
 - City names
 - Student identity number
 - Political preferences
 - Binary variables (true / false)

Ordinal data



- Observation from a set values, classes or categories that have a natural rank order
- Can be expressed in words or in numbers
- There is a meaningful order of the labels
- Arithmetic operations cannot be performed on ordinal data, but sorting can be performed
- Distances between categories can be uneven or undefined
- Examples:
 - Frequencies {never, rarely, sometimes, often}
 - Colors from a specific color palette
 - University grades {1.0, 1.3, ...}
 - Skill levels {beginner, experienced user, expert}

Interval data



- Observation measured on a numerical interval scale with ...
- ... equal distances between adjacent values
- No true zero, i.e. value=0 is arbitrary and does not indicate the absence of a variable
- There is a meaningful order of the labels
- Arithmetic operations (+ ,) can be performed

- Examples:
 - Temperatures in [°C] and [F]
 - Time on a 12-hour clock
 - IQ test scores

Ratio data



- Observation measured on a numerical interval scale with ...
- ... equal distances between adjacent values
- There is a true zero, i.e. value=0 indicates the absence of a variable
- There is a meaningful order of the labels
- Arithmetic operations (+ , -, /, *) can be performed

- Examples:
 - Temperatures in [K]
 - Speed, height, mass
 - Age

Types of Attributes: Permissible Operations



		Туре	Description	Example	Operations
orical /		Nominal	value corresponds to a set of mutually exclusive values, classes or categories	eye color, city name, brand name, class name, booleans	= and ≠
categorical / qualitative		Ordinal	values from a set of distinct values, can be put into an order	house numbers, study semester, grades	= and ≠ (<, ≤, >, ≥)
numeric / quantitative		Interval	values from a continuous set of equally spaced values, unit of measurement exists, no true zero	temperature °C, time on 12-hour clock, IQ test results	= and \neq (<, \leq , >, \geq) (+, -)
		Ratio	values from a continuous set of equally spaced values, unit of measurement exists, true zero indicates absence	age, velocity, height	= and \neq (<, \leq , $>$, \geq) (+, -, *, /)

Types of Attributes: Levels of Measurement



- Levels of measurement (framework for: how much mathematical meaning your data holds.):
 - metric for precision of data recording and how one can analyze the data
 - the higher, the more complex the recording, and the more options for analysis

	Nominal	Ordinal	Interval	Ratio
Categories	yes	yes	yes	yes
Rank order		yes	yes	yes
Equal spacing			yes	yes
True zero				yes



■ Example: data object weather conditions

Exercise: fill in types

- Attributes
 - interval Current temperature [°C] ratio Current wind speed [m/s]{N, W, S, E} nominal Current wind direction \rightarrow ratio Current humidity [%] nominal Current rain fall {yes, no} \rightarrow nominal [city name] Current location \rightarrow

Ideas for ordinal?

Current quarter of the year

→ ordinal



- Why does it matter so much?
- Computers cannot work with qualitative data (nominal, ordinal) directly
 - A numeric representation of qualitative data is required
 - Numbers may lead to wrong operations on the originally qualitative data
- Example 1: predicting student's final grades based on participation and study hours

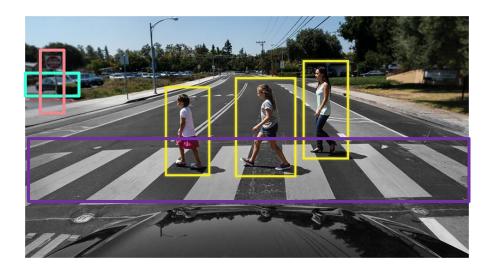
Ordinal data as numeric data

Model prediction: $y = 1.801 \rightarrow$ which grade?

Solution: rounding to nearest valid value \rightarrow 1.7



- Why does it matter so much?
- Computers cannot work with qualitative data (nominal, ordinal) directly
 - A numerical representation of qualitative data is required
 - Numerics may lead to wrong operations on the originally qualitative data
- Example 2: recognizing traffic participants in a video stream



Nominal data as numeric data (naïve approach)

Pedestrian \rightarrow 1Crosswalk \rightarrow 2Stop sign \rightarrow 3Car \rightarrow 4

Model prediction: $y = 1.801 \rightarrow \text{interpretation?}$

Wrong assumption of order and existing distance!



Data Encoding

One-Hot Encoding



Making qualitative (categorical) data readable to a computer

■ One-Hot Encoding $y \in \{v_1, ..., v_k\} \mapsto y \in \mathbb{R}^k, \in \{0, 1\}, k$: number of distinct values / classes

- Traffic example:
 - 4 classes: pedestrian, crosswalk, stop sign, car

■ pedestrian $\rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^T$ ■ crosswalk $\rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^T$

• stop sign $\rightarrow [0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 0]^{\mathsf{T}}$

• car $\rightarrow [0 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 1]^{\mathsf{T}}$

Do not use for ordinal data, as order gets lost!

(almost) no ML algorithm does create an implicit relationship or order between neighboring values in an output array such as an OHE vector

■ Model prediction $y = \begin{bmatrix} 0.95 & 0 & 0 & 0.05 \end{bmatrix}^T \rightarrow$ to 95% a pedestrian, to 5% a car

One-Hot Encoding vs. Multicollinearity



Example: two-class problem: age over 18 (adult) / age under 18 (child)

■ Classical OHE: adult \rightarrow [1 0], child \rightarrow [0 1]

→ perfect collinearity



Solution:

- 1. Delete one of the colinear columns
- 2. Select a reference variable, and create a (K-1)-dim vector for K categorical variables
 - Reference variable maps to vector of zeros (attention with NN output layer activation softmax)
 - Remaining variables are one-hot encoded (all zeros except for one entry)

 $y \in \{v_1, ..., v_k\} \mapsto \tilde{y} \in \mathbb{R}^{K-1}, \in \{0, 1\}, K$: number of distinct values / classes

Multicollinearity (dummy variable trap)

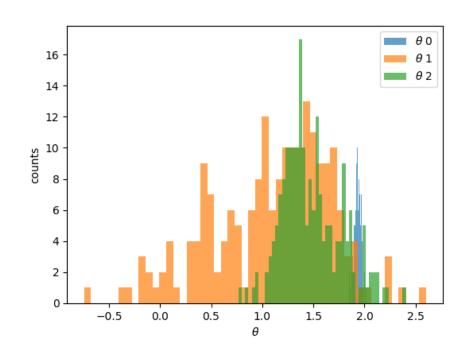


- One feature dimension can be approximated from ≥ 1 other feature dimension(s) using a linear model
 - → feature columns are linearly dependent
- Large variations in regression model coefficients for small changes to the data set
 - → variance inflation
- No direct effect on model quality, but
 - → poor interpretability of importance of individual feature attributes
- Example: $\tilde{y} = f(x, \theta) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x_1 + \theta_2 x_2$
 - if $x_1 \approx \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 x_2$, then different β build models of equal quality, e.g. for slightly different X_{train}
 - $X = [x_1, x_2]$ does not have full rank
 - Check variance inflation factor (VIF)!

Example: Variance Inflation



- A model can be very sensitive to the actual training data when that data contains linearly correlated feature vectors
- Example: $y = 2 + 2x_1 + x^2 + N(0,1)$, highly correlated features $x_2 = 2x_1 + N(0,0.1)$, 100 samples (N(0,1)): normal distribution with 0 mean and unit standard deviation)
- Linear regression model $\hat{y} = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x_1 + \theta_2 x_2$
- Experiment:
- 1. Loop 200 times:
 - 1. Take 90 out of 100 samples of y, X
 - 2. Train linear regression model $\mathcal{M}: X \mapsto y$
 - 3. Read model parameters **9**
- 2. Display histogram of model parameters
- 3. Observe great variability → variance inflation



Variance Inflation Factor (VIF)!



- VIF: metric used to detect multicollinearity among the input (independent) variables in tabular data, especially in regression models.
 - If two or more features are highly correlated, they provide redundant information.
 - Highly correlated features may confuse models and deteriorate performance.

Calculation:

- 1. For a given feature x_i , regress it linearly against all the other features x_j , $i \neq j$ and compute the coefficient of determination R_i^2
- 2. VIF for x_i is calculated as: VIF = $\frac{1}{1-R_i^2}$

Interpretation

- VIF = 1.0: x_i not correlated to any other feature
- VIF > 1.0: some correlation exists
- VIF > 5: high correlation, usually considered problematic.

Integer (Label) Encoding for Ordinal data



- Encoding ordinal data requires keeping an order
- Simplistic encoding: assign an integer to each category, start with 0 for the first category
- **Example**: satisfaction rating for this class
 - 5 classes with natural rank order ("extremely dislike", "dislike", "neutral", "like", "extremely like")

■ Integer encoding: extremely dislike → 0

dislike → 1

neutral → 2

. . .

- Caution! Integer encoding keeps the order but pretends a measure of (equal) distances!
 - Strictly speaking, a model prediction $\tilde{y} = 1.8$ is not meaningful, and rounding may be wrong
 - Decoding strategy is highly case-specific!
 - Some models might assume distances between values (e.g., SVM, linear regression)

Common Mistakes



Averaging Nominal Data

- Mistake(s): Taking the average of nominal categories after integer-encoding them.
- Example: Suppose you encode colors as:
 - Red = 1
 - Green = 2
 - Blue = 3
- Result: If you compute the mean color over 100 samples and get "2.3", what does that mean? Nothing! There's no real numeric relationship between Red, Green, and Blue.

Common Mistakes



Assuming Equal Distances in Ordinal Data

- Mistake(s): Treating ordinal data as if the distances between categories are equal.
- Example: Survey question: "How satisfied are you?" (rated 1 to 5)
 - 1 = Very Unsatisfied
 - 2 = Neutral
 - 3 = Satisfied
- Result: Someone might assume the emotional gap between "Neutral" and "Satisfied" $(3 \rightarrow 4)$ is the same as between "Unsatisfied" and "Neutral" $(2 \rightarrow 3)$, and then perform linear regression on these values
- Why it's wrong: The numerical labels imply an order but not equal intervals. The satisfaction difference between "Neutral" and "Satisfied" might be smaller or larger than between "Unsatisfied" and "Neutral".



Python: object-oriented programming

Object-oriented programming



• Main reason for using classes and object-oriented programming in the context of ML:

Uniting the location of methods (functionalities) and attributes (data)

- Therefore, class instances have
 - Methods (functions): perform actions on attributes and external inputs self.my_attribute(self, x):
 - Attributes (variables): assign values to self.my attribute
- Example Class EmailServer:
 - Methods: fetch_new_mails(); check_for_spam(); ...
 - Attributes: sent mails; free space; num of mails; ...

Object-oriented programming



- Definition of a class
- Constructor (initialization)
- Attributes (variables)
- Methods (functions)
- Hiding class attributes from user
- Class instantiation

```
class MyClass:
   def init (self, some value='hello'):
       self.my attribute = some value
       self. hidden attribute = 42
   def a method(self, some argument='world'):
       print(f'{self.my attribute}, {some argument}')
   def hidden method(self):
       print(f'some hidden function')
if name == " main ":
   class instance = MyClass()
   class instance.a method()
   print(class instance.my attribute)
```

OOP: linear regression example



```
def fit(x: np.ndarray, y: np.ndarray) -> tuple[float, float]:
     N = x.shape[0] # number of training samples
      # normal form # A = [N, sum(x); sum(x), sum(x^2)]
      \# b = [sum(y); sum(y*x)]
     A = np.array([[N, np.sum(x)], [np.sum(x), np.sum(x ** 2)]])
      b = np.expand dims(np.array([np.sum(y), np.sum(y * x)]),
                        axis=-1
      # solve Ax = b
      theta = np.linalg.solve(A, b).flatten()
      return (theta[0], theta[1])
def predict(theta: tuple, x: np.ndarray) -> np.ndarray:
      # expects model parameters (theta 0, theta 1) and query
      points x
      # evaluate model at query points
      return theta[0] + theta[1] * x
# fit model and make a prediction
theta = fit(x=x, y=y)
y hat = predict(theta=theta, x=x pred)
```

```
class LinRegressor:
      def init (self):
            self.theta: tuple
            self.x train: np.ndarray
            self.y train: np.ndarray
           self.N train: int
      def fit(self, x, y):
            self.x train = x
            self.y train = y
            self.N train = self.x train.shape[0]
            # normal form: A = [N, sum(x); sum(x), sum(x^2)];
           \# b = [sum(y); sum(y*x)]
           A = np.array([[self.N train, np.sum(self.x train)],
            [np.sum(self.x train), np.sum(self.x train ** 2)]])
           b = np.expand dims(np.array([np.sum(self.y train),
           np.sum(self.y train * self.x train)]), axis=-1)
            # solve Ax = b
           self.theta = np.linalg.solve(A, b).flatten()
      def predict(self, x):
           return self.theta[0] + self.theta[1] * x
# fit and evaluate lin. regress. model using OOP
regressor = LinRegressor()
regressor.fit(x=x, y=y)
y hat = regressor.predict(x=x pred)
```



Exercise 02



Bing Image Generator

Exercise 02: One-Hot Encoding



 Compare functional and object-oriented programming for implementing one-hot encoding

Example: One-Hot Encoding categorical data into

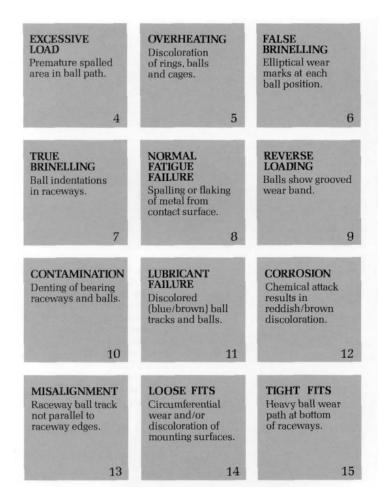
numeric representation

• Functions / methods:

- Fit (on some training data)
- Encode nominal data
- Decode numerical data

Test data: bearing failure modes

1	Α	В	С
1	true brinelling		
2	excessive	load	
3	contamina	ation	
4	loose fits		
5	loose fits		
6	normal fat	tigue	
7	normal fat	tigue	
8	excessive load		
9	normal fat	tigue	
10	false brine	elling	
11	misalignm	nent	
12	false brine	elling	
13	lubricant f	failure	
14	excessive	load	
15	overheati	ng	





Questions?