

# Introduction to Machine Learning

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# Why Machine Learning

- Search engines
- Recommender systems
- Automatic translation
- Speech understanding
- Game playing
- Self-driving cars
- Personalized medicine
- ...
- Progress in all sciences: genetics, astronomy, chemistry, neurology, **physics**,...



# What is Machine Learning ?

*"A computer program is said to learn from experience  $E$  with respect to some class of tasks  $T$  and performance measure  $P$  if its performance at tasks in  $T$ , as measured by  $P$ , improves with experience  $E$ ."* Tom Mitchell (1997).

⇒ Learn to perform a task  $T$ , based on experience  $E$  (examples) minimizing error  $\mathcal{E}$  (or maximizing performance  $P$ )

Often, we want to learn a function (model)  $f_\theta$  with some model parameters  $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^d$  that produces the right output  $y$

$$\hat{\theta} = \operatorname{Arg} \min_{\theta} \mathcal{E}(f_\theta(E))$$

$E$  needs to be collected, cleaned, normalized, checked for data biases...

# Inductive bias

Assumptions into the model = *inductive bias b*

- What should the model look like ?
  - Perform logical combination of inputs: decision trees, linear models,...
  - Memorize similar examples: KNN, SVM,...
  - Approach probability distributions: Bayesian approaches
  - "Reproduce" human brain : NN, DNN
- Hyperparameter settings (depth of tree, NN architecture,..)
- Hypothesis on data distribution ( $E \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$ ...)
- Transfer knowledge from another domain

So...

$$\hat{\theta}, \hat{b} = \operatorname{Arg\,min}_{\theta, b} \mathcal{E}(f_{\theta, b}(E))$$

# Machine Learning vs. Statistics

- Historically been developed in different fields
- Mathematical foundations are partially equivalent.
- Both aim to make predictions of natural phenomena

## ML models...

- Focus more on precise predictions
- Automate a task
- Assume that the data generation process is unknown

## Stats models

- Assume data is generated according to an understandable model
- focus more on the ability to interpret the patterns that generated the data and the ability to derive sound inference.

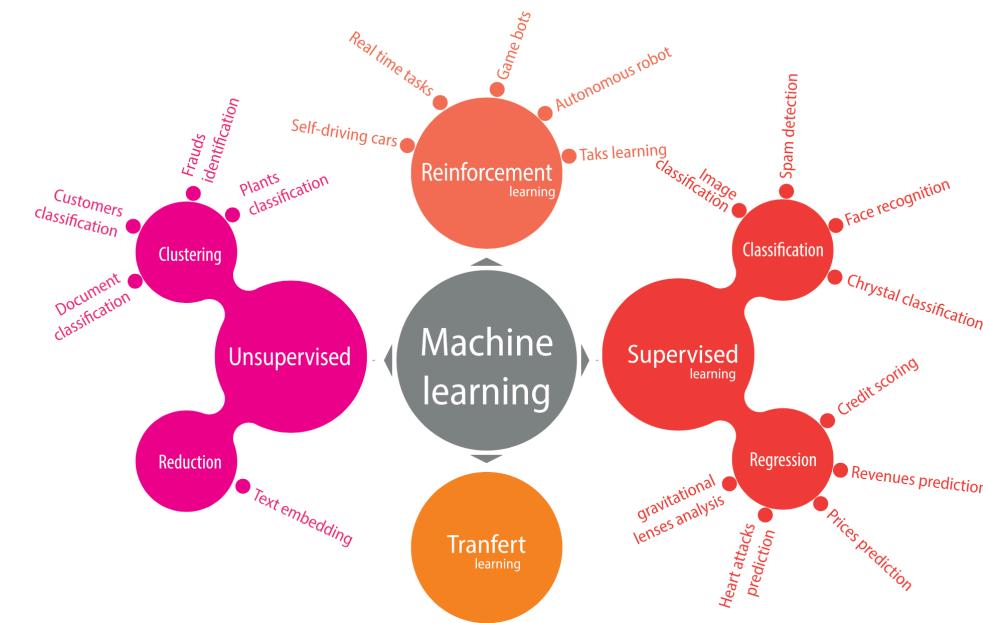
# Taxonomy of Machine Learning algorithms

Several criteria, non exhaustive and combinable

- Supervised or not
- Incremental or batch learning
- Instance-based or model based

Tasks :

- Classification : group similar object in clusters
- Regression : predict a value / vector



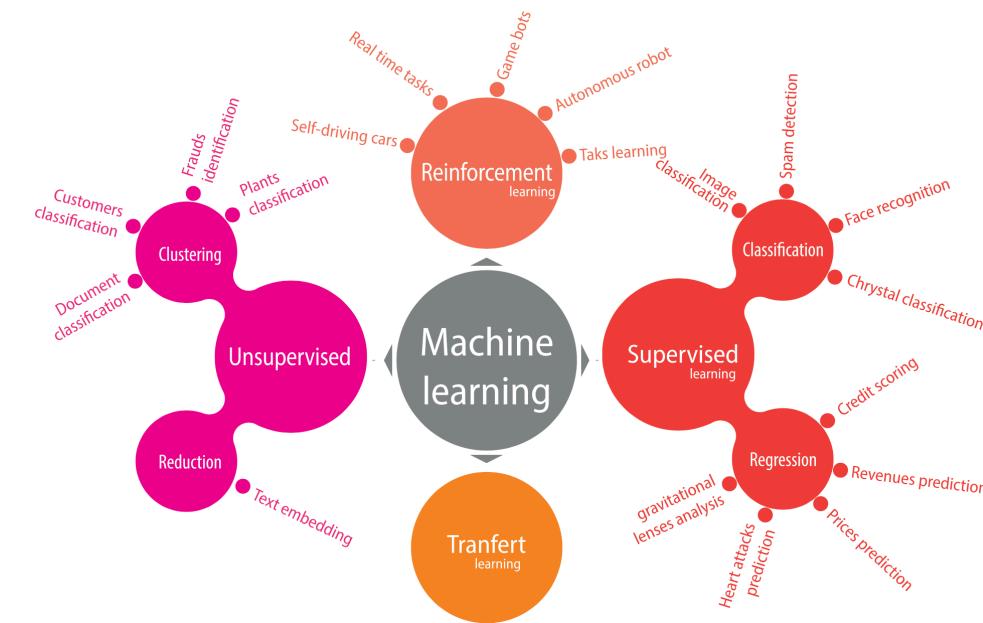
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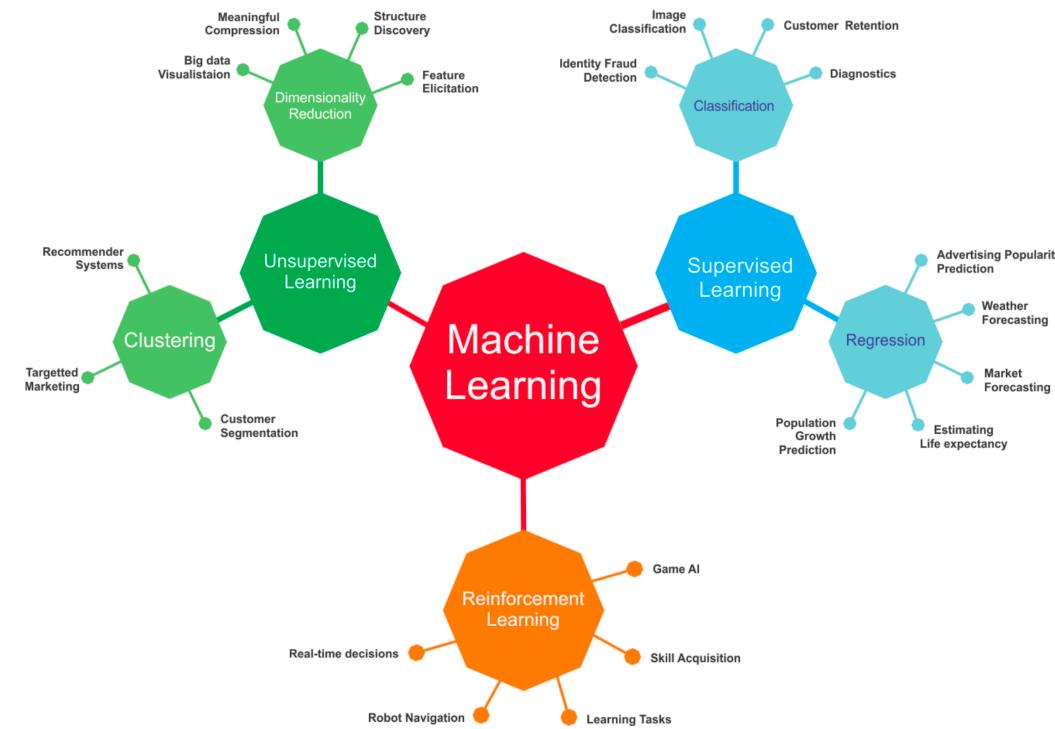
Tasks :

- Classification
- Regression



# Taxonomy: supervision

- *Supervised algorithms*: learn  $f$  from labeled examples  $E = (X, y)$
- *Unsupervised algorithms*: explore the structure of  $E$  to extract meaningful information
- *Semi-Supervised algorithms*: learn a model from few labeled and many unlabeled examples
- *Reinforcement Learning*: develop an agent that improves its performance based on interactions with the environment



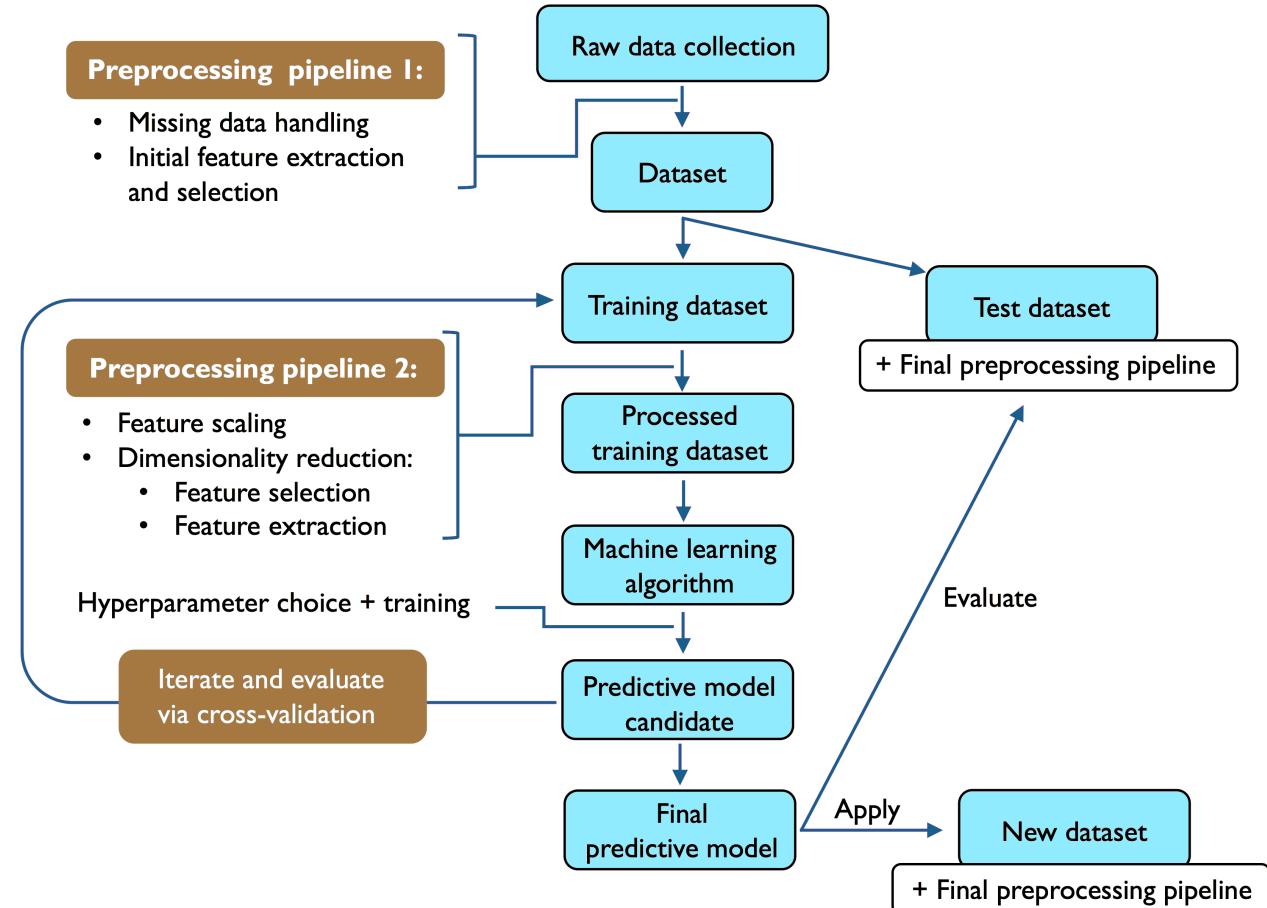
# Supervised algorithms

- Known data: training/test set (fruits/labels)
- Model :  $f$
- Input data: unknown data
- Output data: label

# Supervised algorithms

## Workflow

- Learn  $f$  from a set of examples
- Make predictions using  $f$

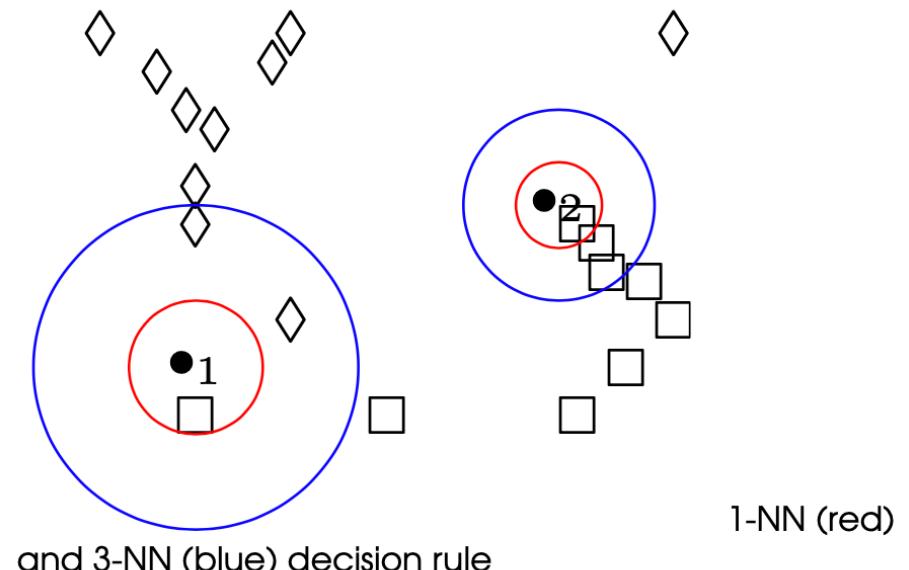


# Supervised algorithms

## K-nearest neighbors

An data point not in  $E$  is labeled based on the value/class of its  $K$  nearest neighbors in the feature space.

- classification : majority vote
- regression: mean value



# Supervised algorithms

SVM / SVR

Maximization of a margin

$$\min_{\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2$$

w.r.t.

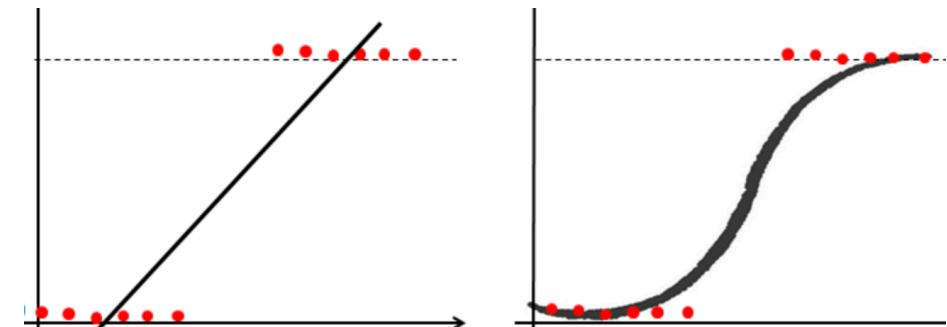
$$y_i(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i) \geq 1, i \in \llbracket 1, n \rrbracket$$

# Supervised algorithms

## Linear / Logistic regression

Model: Find  $\theta$  such that  $\|\mathbf{A}\theta - \mathbf{Y}\|^2$  is minimum  $\Rightarrow \hat{\theta} = (\mathbf{A}^\top \mathbf{A})^{-1} \mathbf{A}^\top \mathbf{Y}$

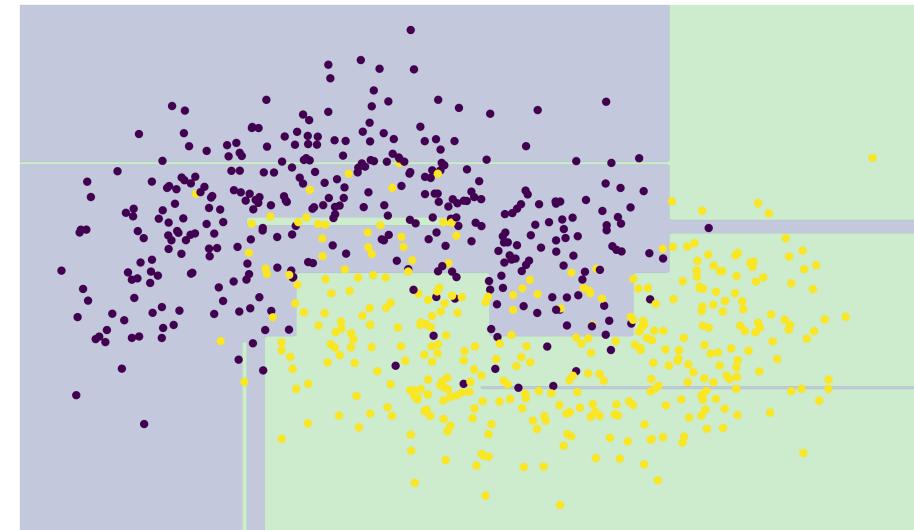
- Classification: logit transform
- Regression:  $\mathcal{E}$ : mean square error



# Supervised algorithms

## Decision trees

- Process an object by means of a series of tests on the attributes that describe it.
- Tests are organized in such a way that the answer to one of them indicates the next test to which the object must be submitted  
⇒ Structuration of tests into a tree.
  - Classification: individuals in a node
  - Regression: mean value in a node



# Supervised algorithms

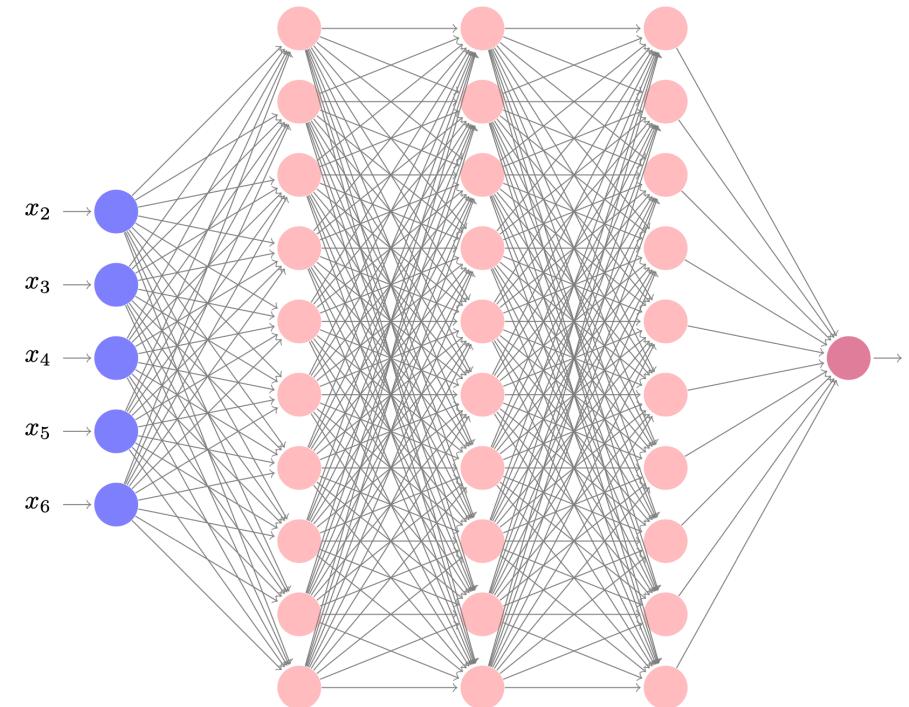
## Random forests

- Bagging algorithm + decorrelation criterion between trees.
- Uses decision trees as partially independent classifiers.
- Trains each decision tree on a sampling of  $E$  obtained by bootstrapping according to a tree learning algorithm
  - Classification: individuals in a node
  - Regression: mean value in a node

# Supervised algorithms

## Neural networks

- Fully connected layers of neurons
- Memory stored in connections  
(weights+bias)
- Learning algorithm (backpropagation)
- Shallow / Deep



# Unupervised algorithms

- Unlabeled data  $E$ , or data with unknown structure :
- Explore the structure of the data to extract information
  - *Clustering algorithm*: organize information into meaningful subgroups (clusters)
  - *Data reduction/visualization* : find an intrinsic representation of the data

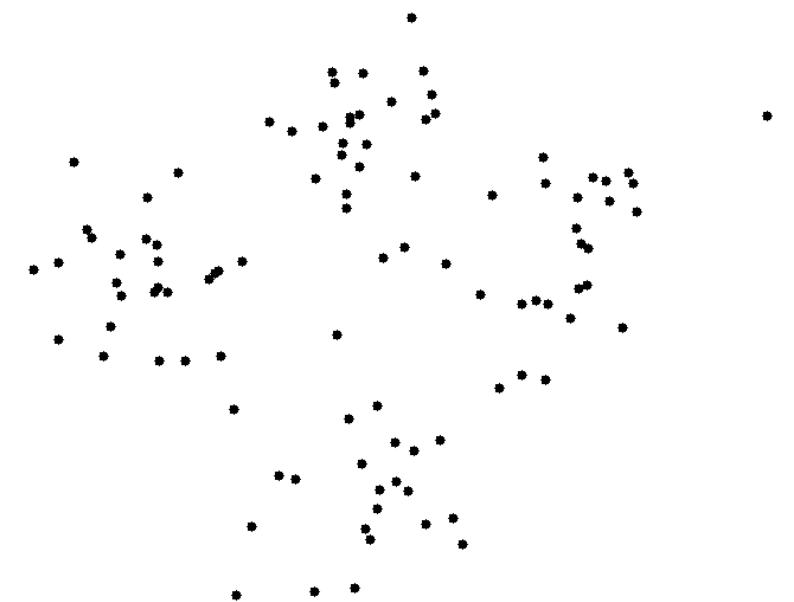
# Unsupervised algorithms

## K-means and variants

Given  $C$  initial points (class centers)  $g_1 \dots g_c$ :

1. Compute  $d(x, g_j), \forall x \in E, j \in \llbracket 1, C \rrbracket$
2. Assign each  $x \in E$  to its closest class center
3. Recompute class centers
4. Iterate until convergence

⇒ Group data into clusters



# Unsupervised algorithms

## Hierarchical clustering

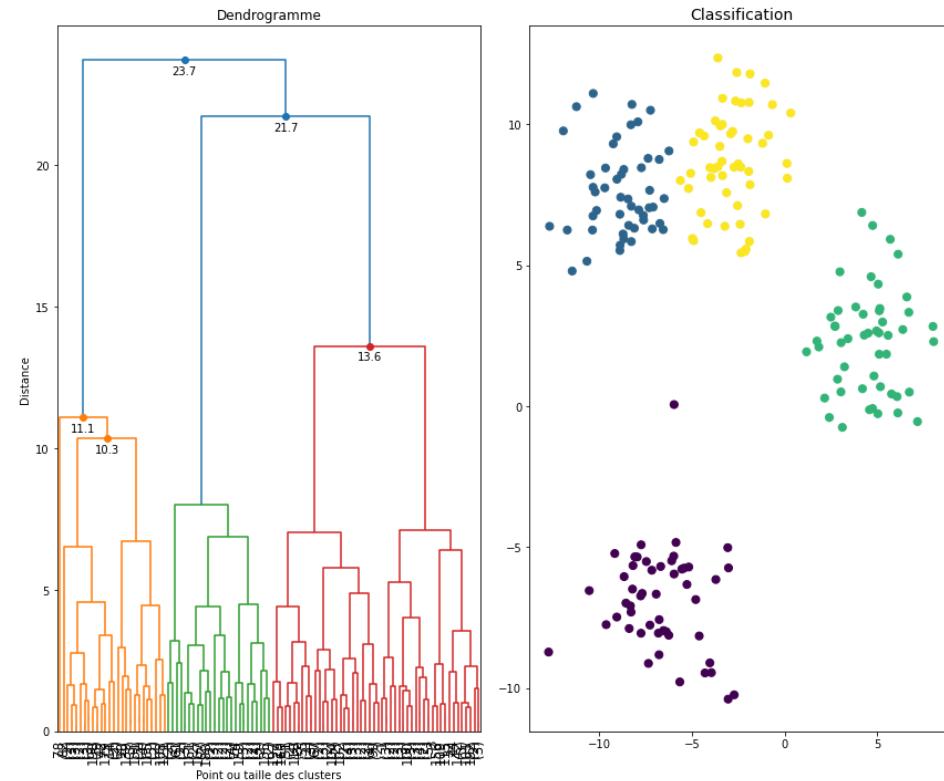
Init: each  $x \in E$  is a subset,

While (number of subsets > 1)

1. Compute distances between all pairs of subsets

2. Merge the two closest subsets

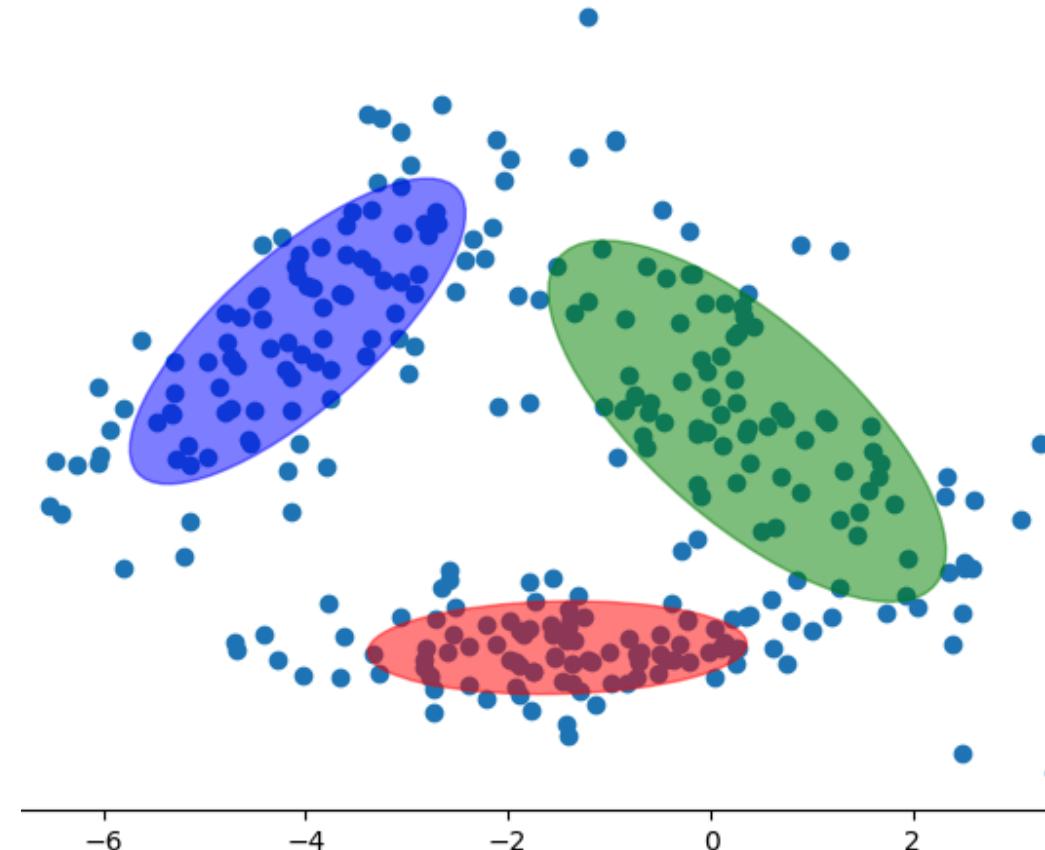
⇒ Definition of a distance between subsets



# Unsupervised algorithms

## Mixture Models

- Claim: Data comes from a mixture of distributions (usually Gaussian)
- Aim: estimate the parameters of the mixture model by maximizing the likelihood of the data



# Unsupervised algorithms

Data can be very high-dimensional and difficult  
to understand, learn from, store,...

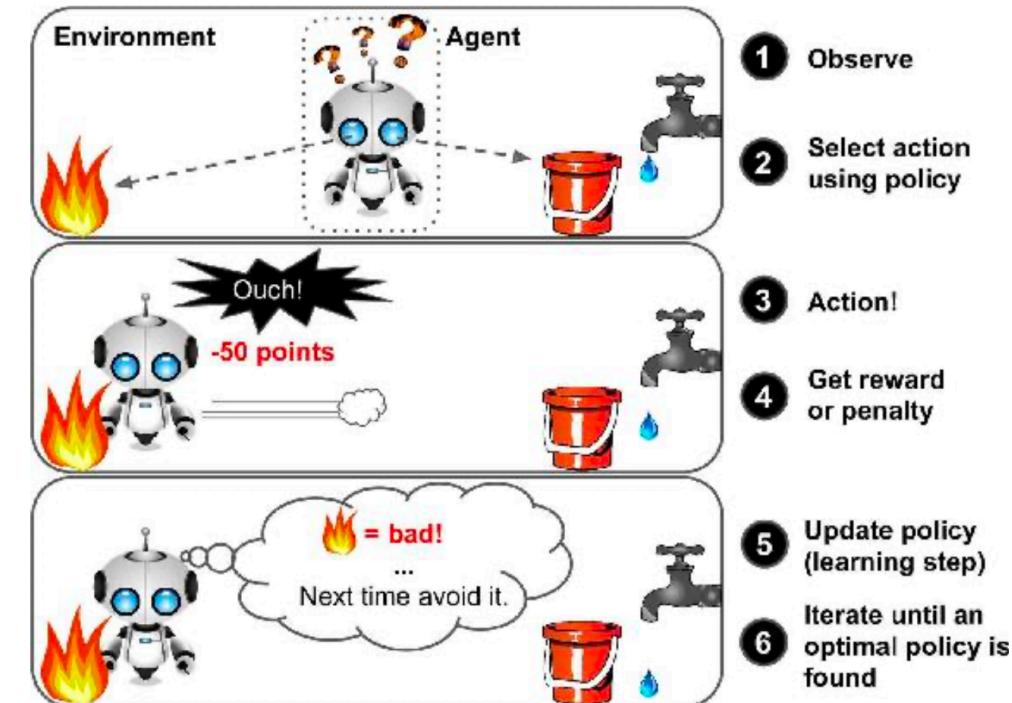
## Dimension reduction

- Linear (ACP,..)
- Non linear (manifold learning)

⇒ Find intrinsic dimension of the data

# Reinforcement Learning

- Develop an agent that improves its performance based on interactions with the environment
- Search a large space of actions and states
- Reward function defines how well a series of actions works
- Learn a policy that maximizes reward through exploration



# Taxonomy of Machine Learning algorithms

Several criteria, non exhaustive and combinable

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# Incremental / Batch learning

Availability of data  $E$ :

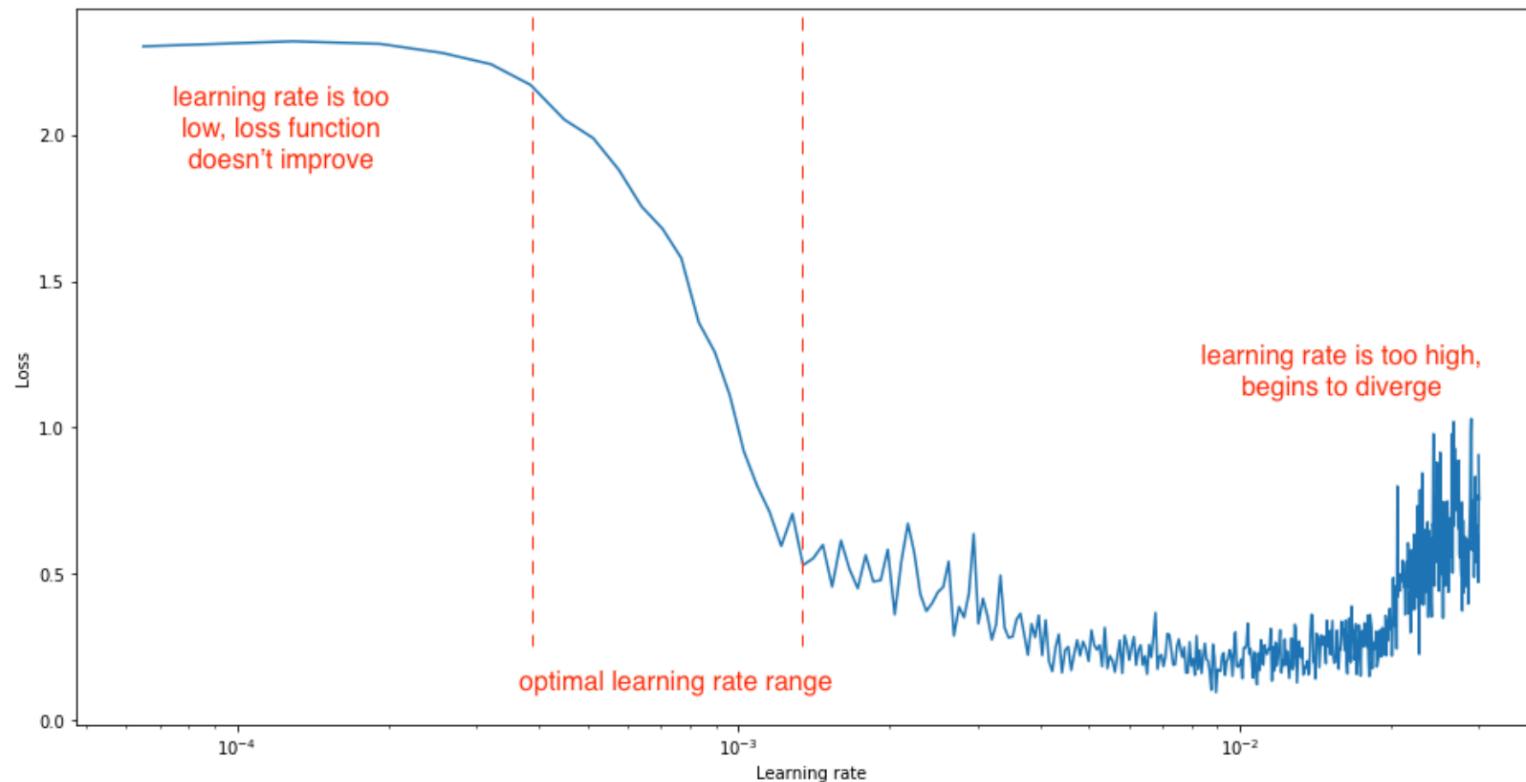
- Yes: batch Learning
  - time consuming
  - offline training
  - how to retrain if new data arrives ?
- No: online learning
  - fast
  - online
  - interests: data flow/limited resources

# Incremental / Batch learning

When do we have to learn again ?

- too often: instability, sensitivity to outliers
- too rarely: no adaptation

⇒ Learning rate



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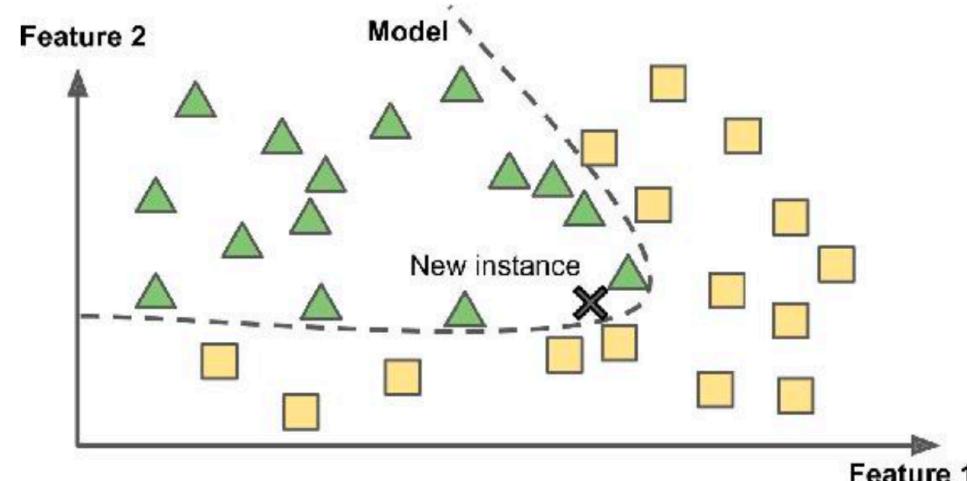
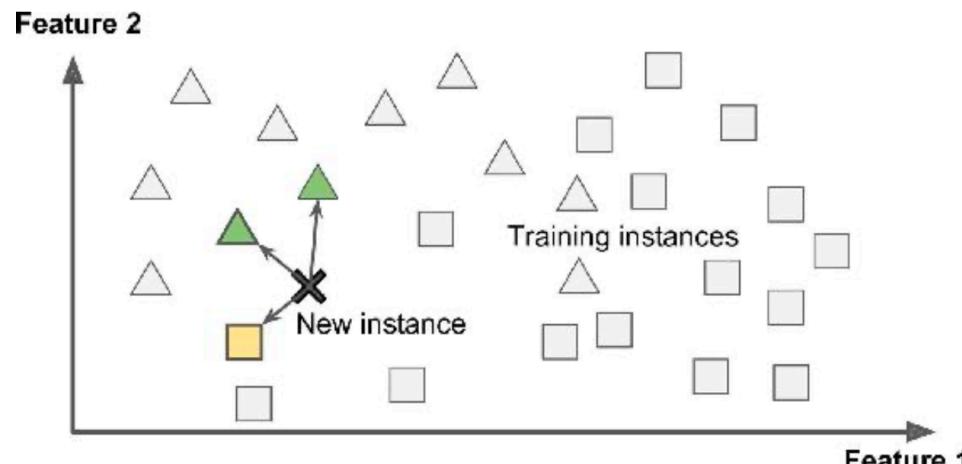
# Instance/Model based algorithms

1. Instance-based algorithm: only relying on the training set

- Easy to learn by heart
- How to allow generalization ?

2. Model-based: use of a parametric model

- What kind of model ?
- How to tune parameters ?



# Summary

**Learning = representation + evaluation + optimization**

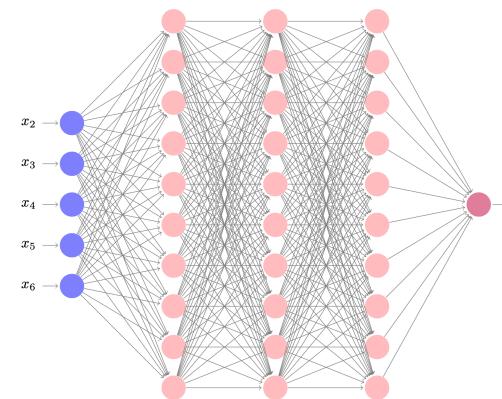
Machine learning algorithms consist of 3 components:

- *Representation*: a model  $f_{\theta,b}$  must be represented in a formal language that the computer can handle
  - Defines the 'concepts' it can learn, the hypothesis space
- *Evaluation*: an internal way to choose one hypothesis over the others
  - Error  $\mathcal{E}$ , loss function,...
- *Optimization*: an efficient way to search the hypothesis space

# Summary

## Example : Multilayer perceptron

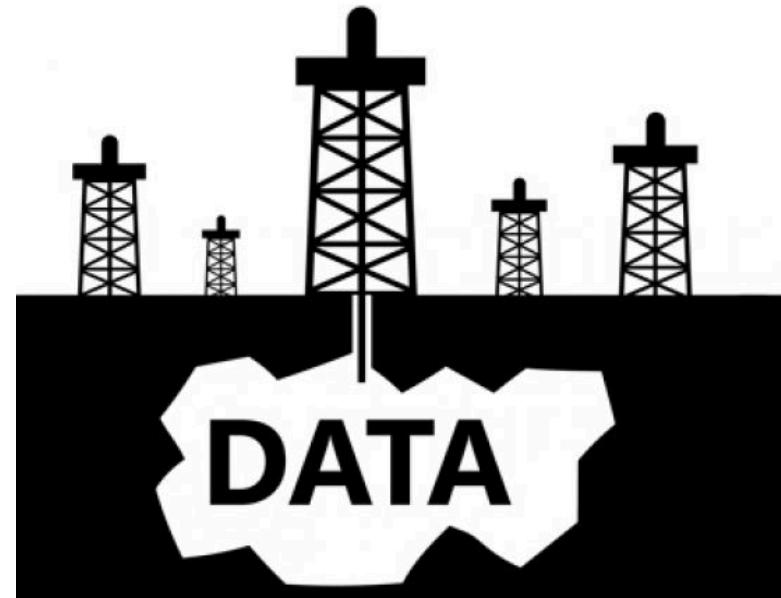
- *Representation:*
  - Fixed architecture
  - Each neuron process  $\sigma(w^\top x)$ 
    - $x$  input of the neuron
    - $w$  weight vector  $\rightarrow \theta = \text{set of weights}$
    - $\sigma$ : activation function
  - Each neuron is connected to all the neurons in the next layer
  - $f_{\theta,b}$ : output of the last layer
- *Evaluation:* loss function  $\mathcal{L}(f_{\theta,b})$  estimated on a training set
- *Optimization:* Find  $\hat{\theta}, \hat{b}$  minimizing  $\mathcal{L}(f_{\theta,b})$  (e.g. gradient descent)



# Machine Learning Challenges

Two things can go wrong

- Bad data
- Bad algorithms



# Bad data

## Not enough data

- A child can learn (and generalize) what is an apple with only few examples
- A machine learning algorithm needs thousands of examples
- Take care of imbalanced data

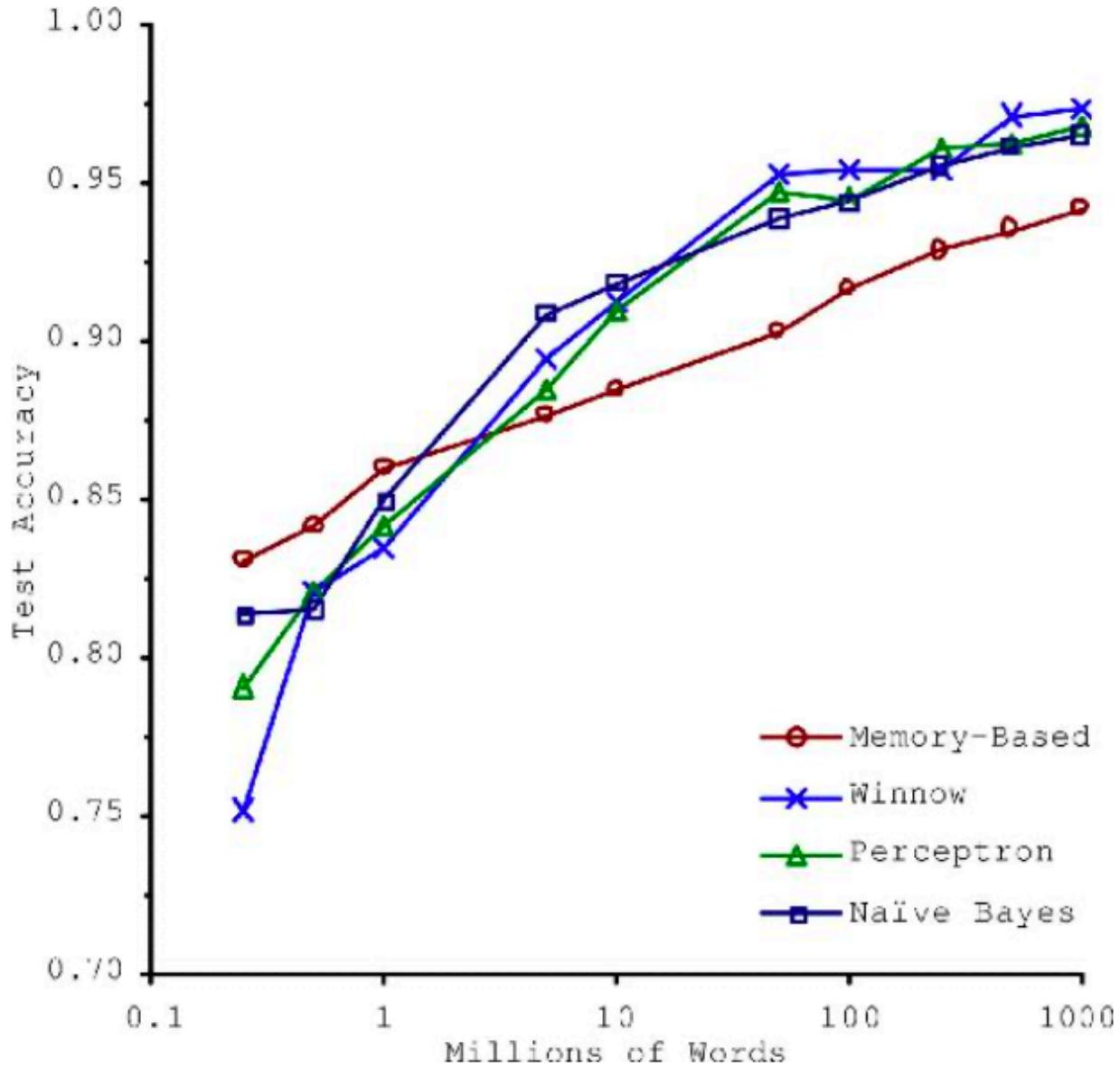


## Bad data

Not enough data

Few data → a simple algorithm.

Example: to-two disambiguation.



# Bad data

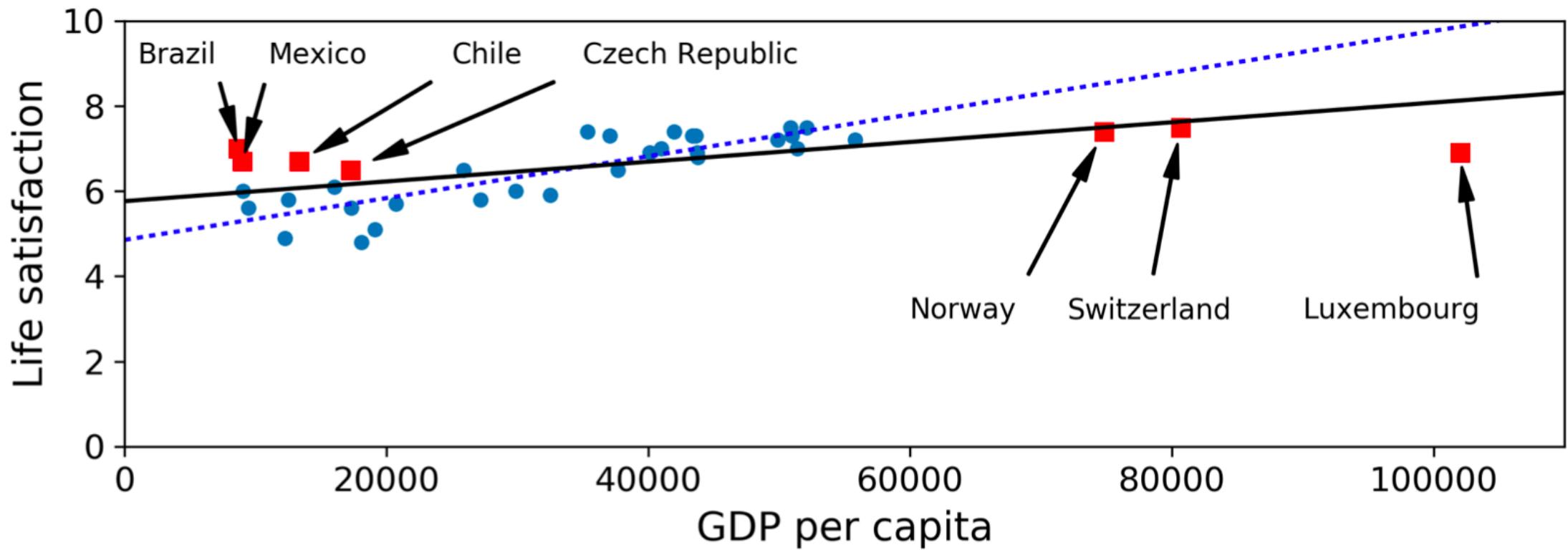
**More data is better than a cleverer method (but if you have both ...:-))**

- More data reduces the chance of overfitting (see below...)
- Less sparse data reduces the curse of dimensionality (see below...)
- Non-parametric models: number of model parameters grows with amount of data
  - can learn any model given sufficient data (but can get stuck in local minima)
- Parametric (fixed size) models: fixed number of model parameters
  - Can be given a huge number of parameters to benefit from more data
  - Deep learning models can have millions of weights, learn almost any function.

⇒ The bottleneck is moving from data to compute/scalability

# Bad data

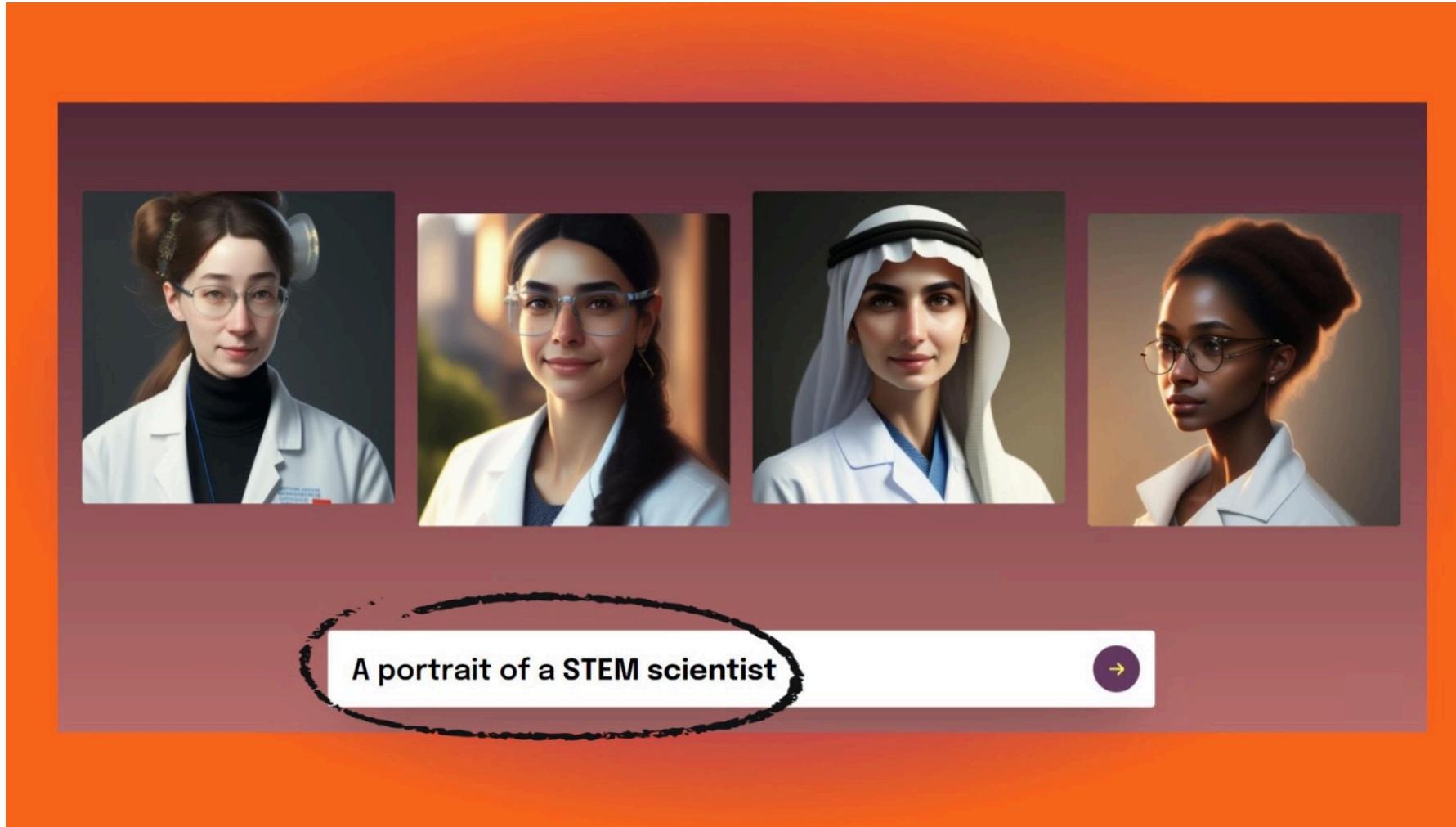
Unrepresentative data



⇒ Bias

# Bad data

## Unrepresentative data

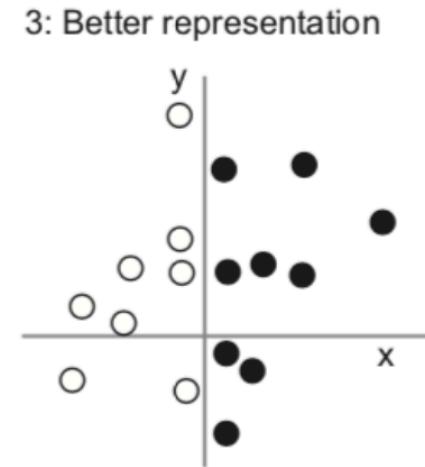
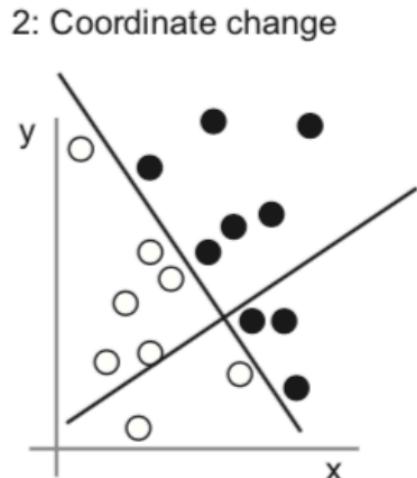
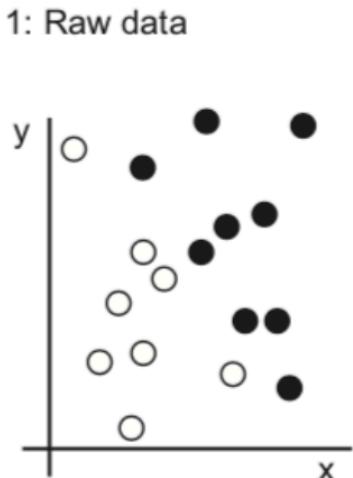


⇒ Bias

# Bad data

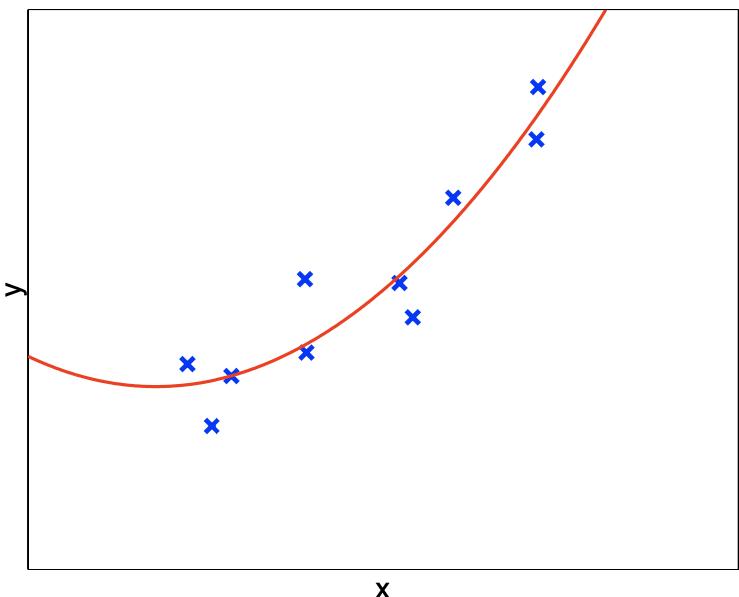
Poor quality data  $\Rightarrow$  Feature engineering

- Remove or correct outliers
- Handle missing values : ignore / impute
- Transform data: better data representation, better models
- Manage unsignificant features: selection/extraction/collection
- Take care of the curse of dimensionality !!



# Bad algorithms

Linear least square fitting of a set  $E = (x, y)$  with a polynomial of order  $p \in \llbracket 2, 9 \rrbracket$ .



# Bad algorithms

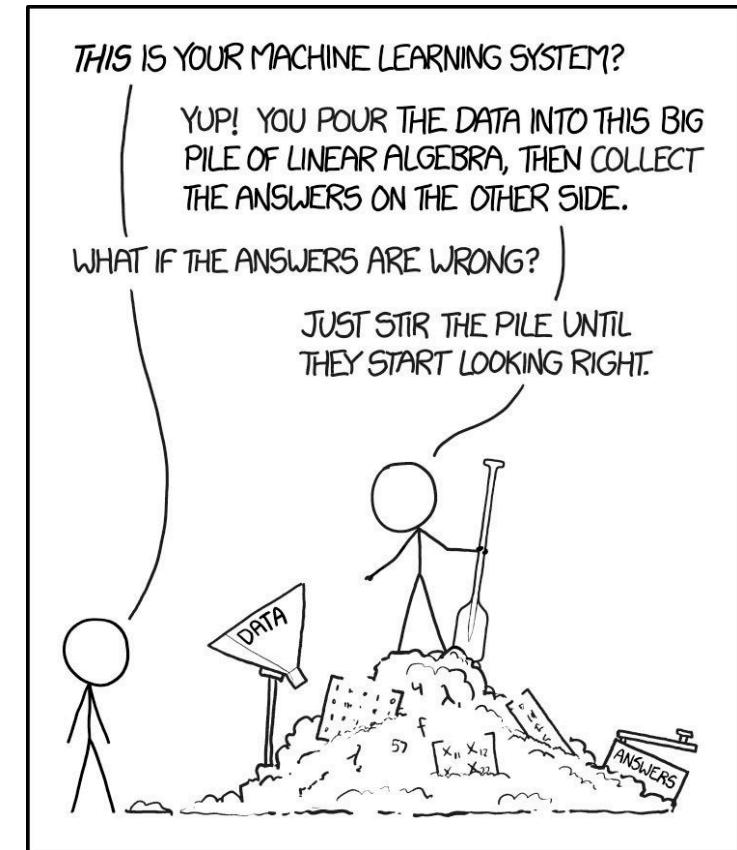
## Overfitting / Underfitting

- Overfitting: building a model that is too complex given the amount of data
    - peculiarities in the training data (noise, biases,...)
    - 100% accurate on the training data, but very bad on new data  
⇒ Solve by making model simpler (regularization), or getting more data
    - There exists techniques for detecting overfitting (e.g. bias-variance analysis).
  - Underfitting: building a model that is too simple given the complexity of the data
    - Use a more complex model
- ⇒ *Generalization* capability

# Bad algorithms

## Model selection

- No single algorithm is always best.
- Next to the error/loss function, need for an external evaluation function
  - Feedback signal: are we actually learning the right thing?
    - Are we under/overfitting?
  - Carefully choose to fit the application.
  - Needed to select between models (and hyperparameter settings)



# Bad algorithms

## Model selection

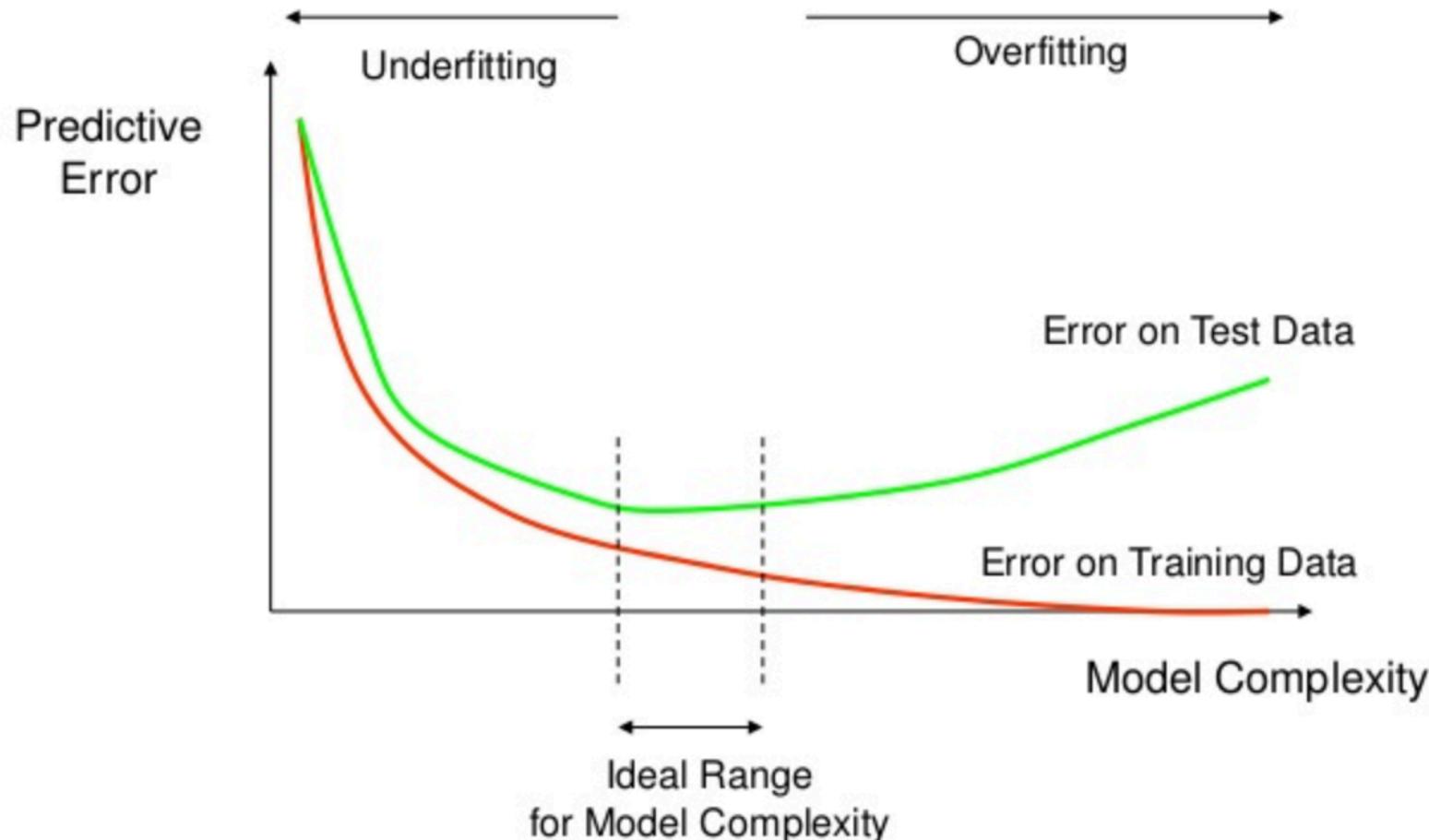
$$E = E_{train} \cup E_{test}$$

- $E_{train} \rightarrow$  training error  $e_t$
- $E_{test} \rightarrow$  generalization error  $e_g$

	<b>small <math>e_t</math></b>	<b>large <math>e_t</math></b>
<b>small <math>e_g</math></b>	generalizes, performs well	possible (luck or fraud?)
<b>large <math>e_g</math></b>	fails to generalize, overfit	generalizes, but performs poorly

# Bad algorithms

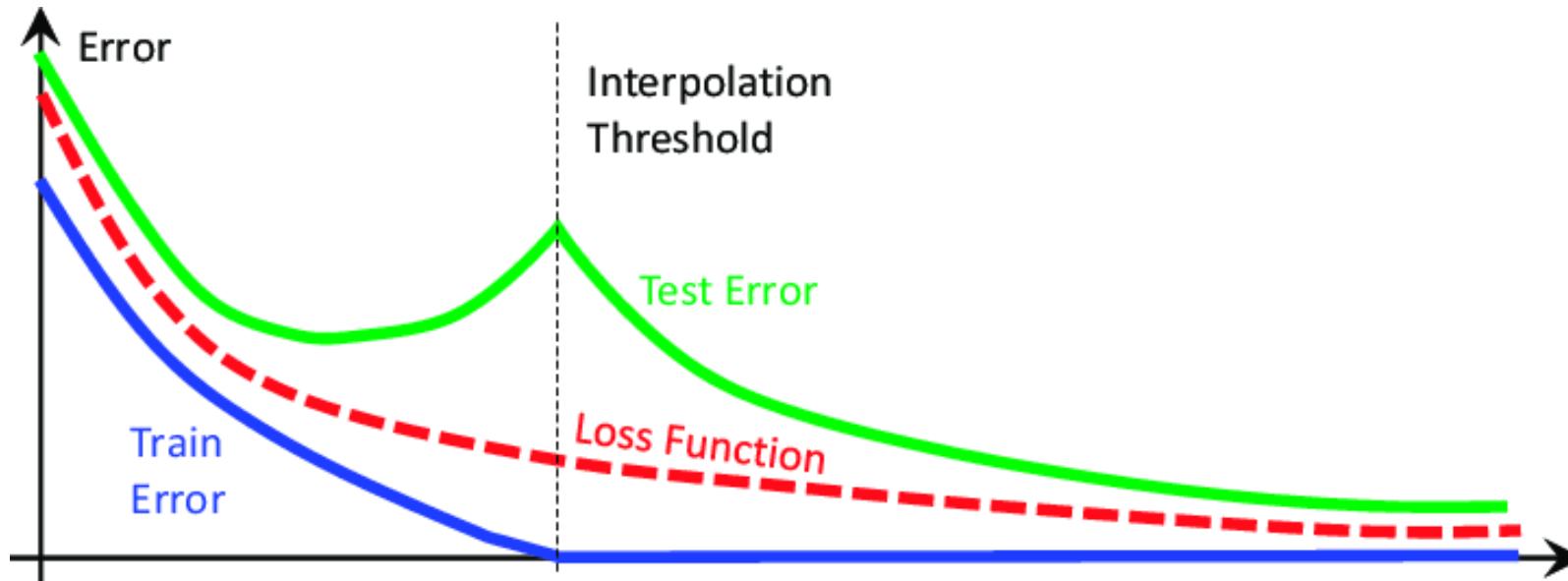
## Model selection



# Bad algorithms

## Model selection

### Double descent phenomenon



# Bad algorithms

## Model selection

When the model includes hyperparameters, set aside part of training set as a validation set

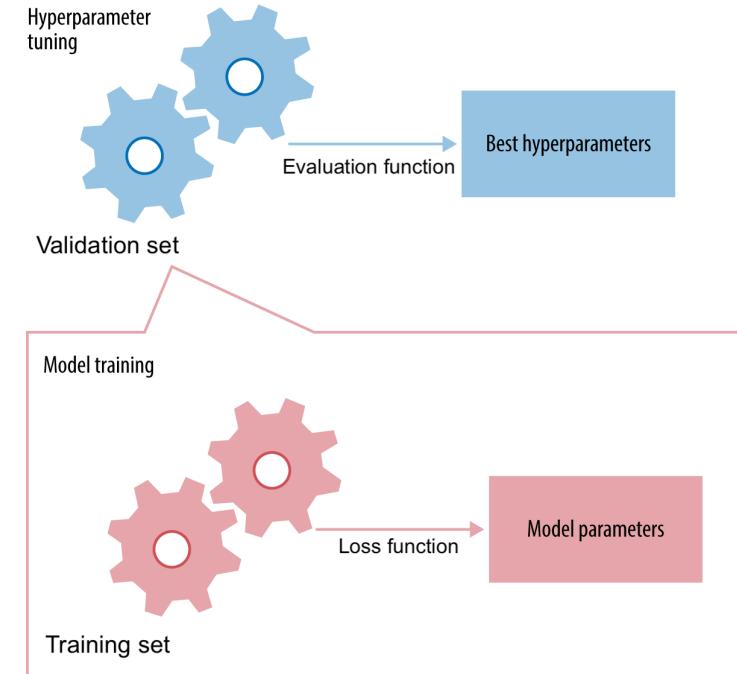
$$E = E_{train} \cup E_{test} \cup E_{val}$$

- $E_{train}$ : training error
- $E_{test}$ : generalization error
- $E_{val}$ : hyperparameter optimization

# Bad algorithms

## Model selection

- For a given hyperparameter setting, learn the model parameters on the training set
- Evaluate the trained model on the validation set
  - Tune the hyperparameters to maximize a certain metric (e.g. accuracy)
- Keep test set hidden during all training

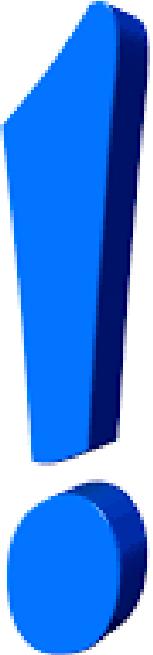


# Bad algorithms

## Model selection

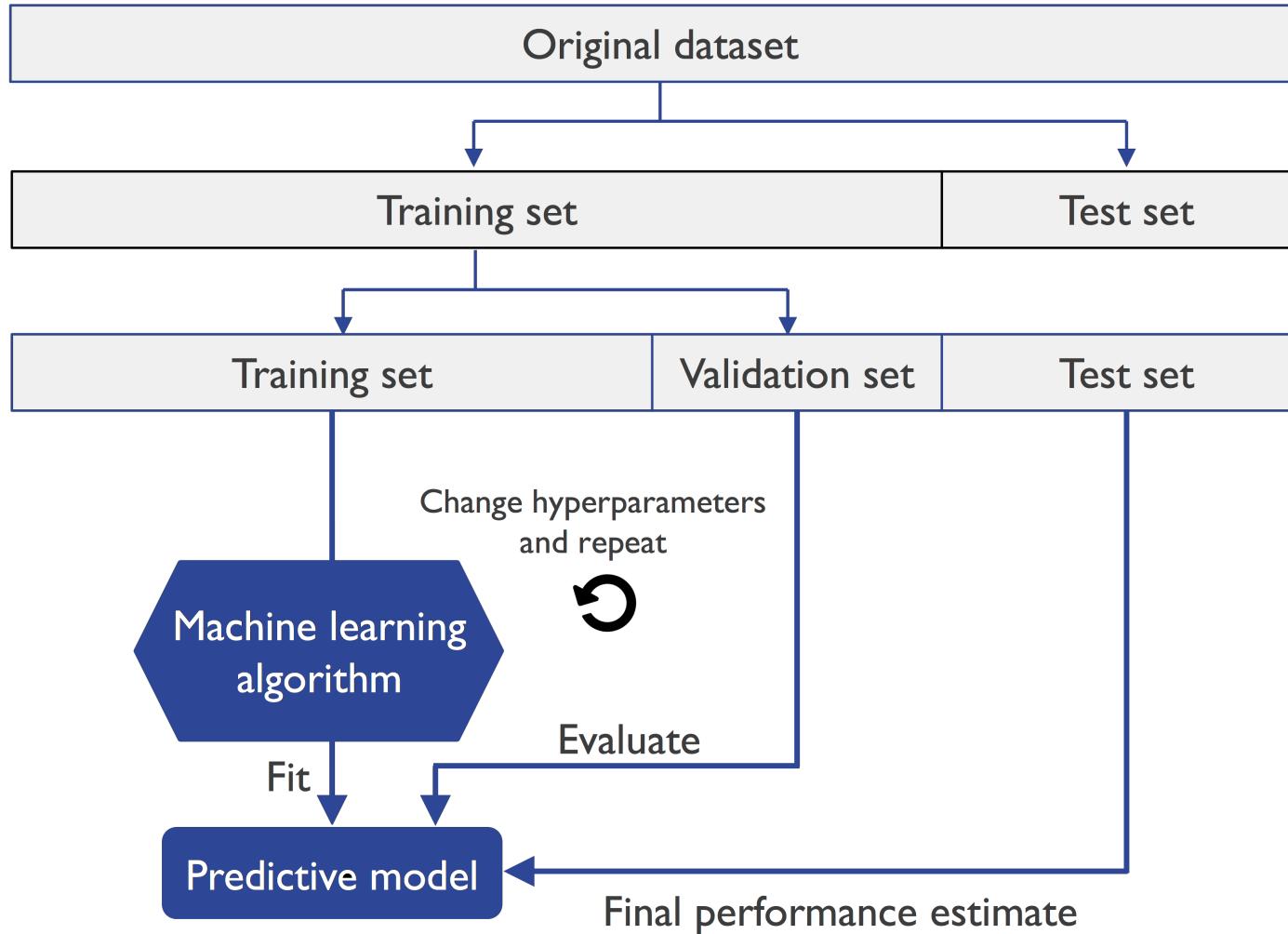
Generalization must guide your process !

- Never evaluate the final model on  $E_{train}$ , except for:
  - Tracking whether the optimizer converges (learning curves)
  - Diagnosing under/overfitting:
    - High training and test error: underfitting
    - low training error, high test error: overfitting
- Always keep a completely independent test set
- On small datasets, use multiple train-test splits to avoid sampling bias  
(e.g. cross validation)



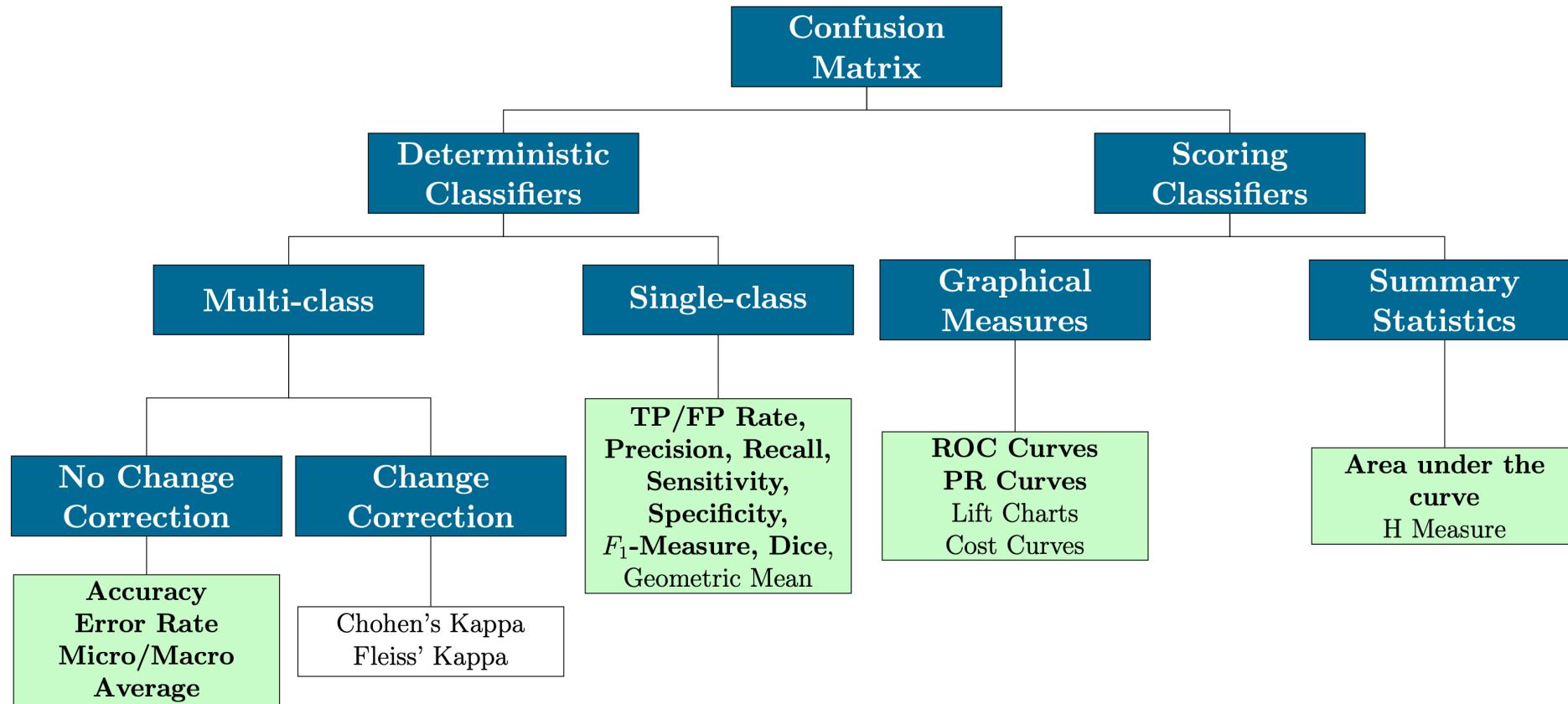
# Bad algorithms

## Summary



# Measuring performance

Going further than the test error...



credits: Sebastian Pölsterl

# Measuring performance

Example: binary classification problem (+/-) on  $N$  individuals using algorithm  $\mathcal{A}$ :

- True Positive (TP) = + sample correctly classified as belonging to the + class
- False Positive (FP) = - sample misclassified as belonging to the + class
- True Negative (TN) = - sample correctly classified as belonging to the - class
- False Negative (FN) = + sample misclassified as belonging to the - class

# Measuring performance

## Confusion matrix

	True +	True -
Predicted +	TP	FP (type I error ( $\alpha$ ))
Predicted -	FN (type II error ( $\beta$ ))	TN

$$\text{Accuracy} = \frac{TP+TN}{N}$$

$$\text{Error rate} = 1-\text{Accuracy}$$

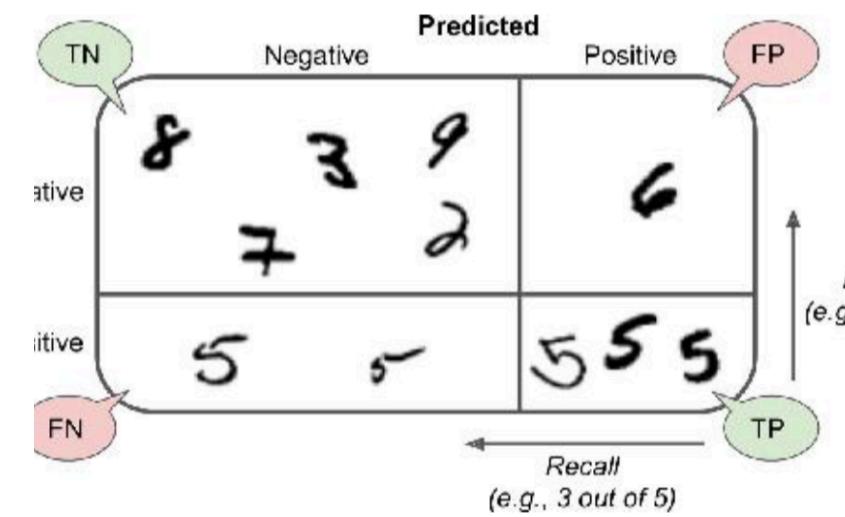
$$FPR = \frac{FP}{FP+TN}$$

$$\text{Recall } R = \frac{TP}{TP+FN}$$

$$\text{Precision } P = \frac{TP}{TP+FP}$$

$$F_1 \text{ score : } F_1 = \frac{2PR}{P+R}$$

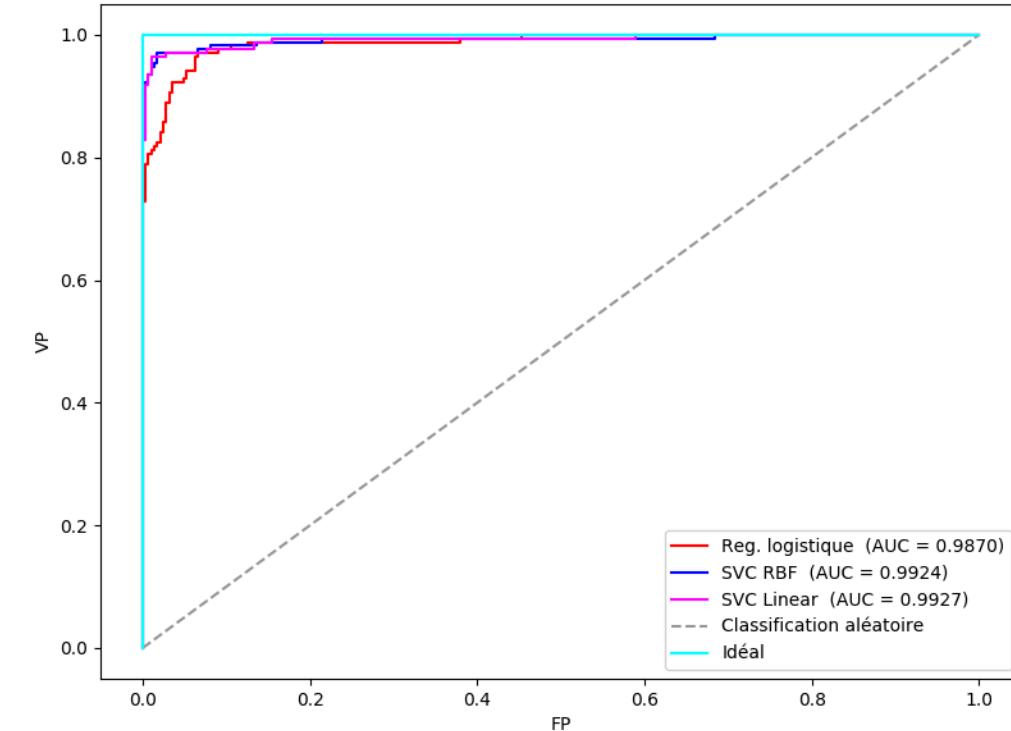
Extension to multiple class: One vs. One/One vs. All



# Measuring performance

## ROC curve

- Binary classifier returns probability or score that represents the degree to which class an example belongs to.
- The ROC curve plots R vs. FPR for all possible thresholds of the  $\mathcal{A}$ 's score.
- Visualizes the trade-off between benefits (R) and costs (FPR).



## Area Under the Curve

⇒ AUC ∈ [0, 1] ~ probability that  $\mathcal{A}$  will rank a randomly chosen + instance higher than a randomly chosen - instance (Mann-Whitney test)

# Measuring performance

## ROC curve

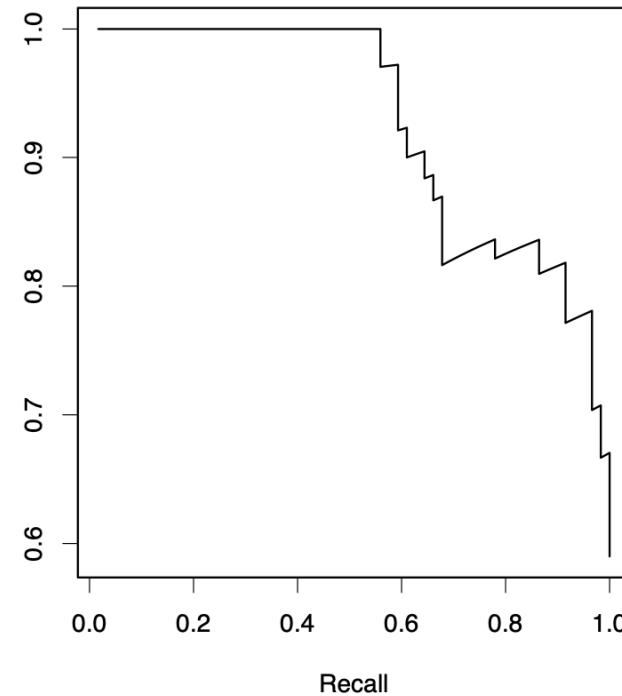
Drawbacks:

- can present an overly optimistic view of  $\mathcal{A}$ 's performance if there is a large skew in the class distribution (the data set contains much more samples of one class)
- A large change in the number of false positives can lead to a small change in the false positive rate

# Measuring performance

## P/R curve

- plots P vs. R for all possible thresholds of the  $\mathcal{A}$ 's score.
- P/R curve of optimal classifier is in the upper-right corner.
- One point in P/R space corresponds to a single confusion matrix.
- Algorithms that optimizes the AUC are not guaranteed to optimize the area under the PR curve



# Measuring performance

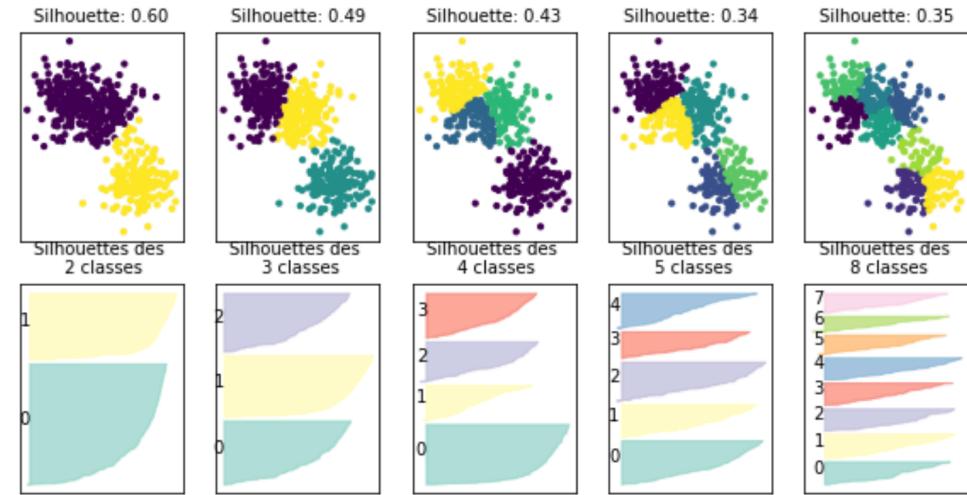
And what about unsupervised methods ?

- Hard to evaluate since the ground truth is not known ?

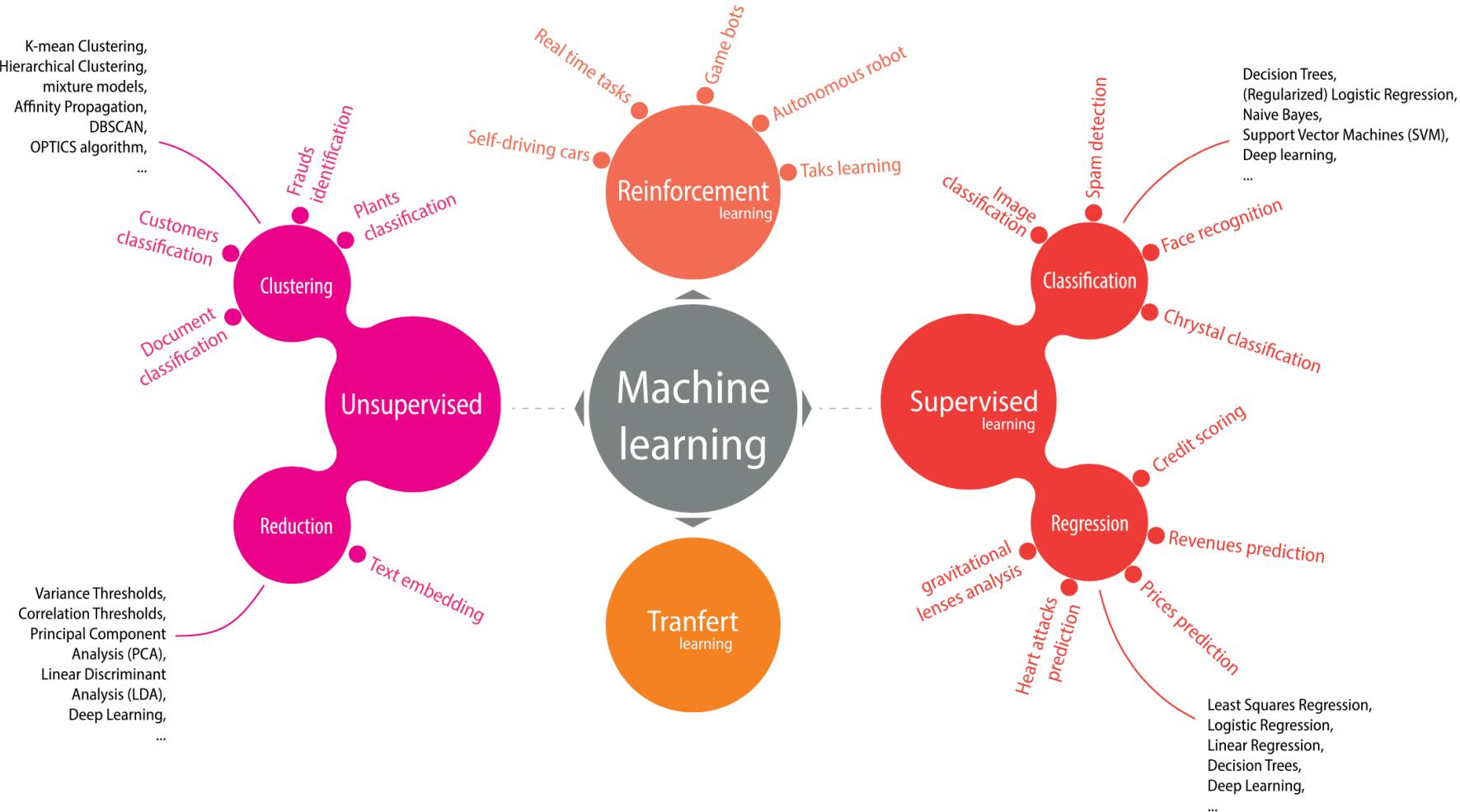
## Silhouette Index

$x_i \in \text{cluster } P_k$ , and  $P_j$  closest cluster of  $P_k$ :

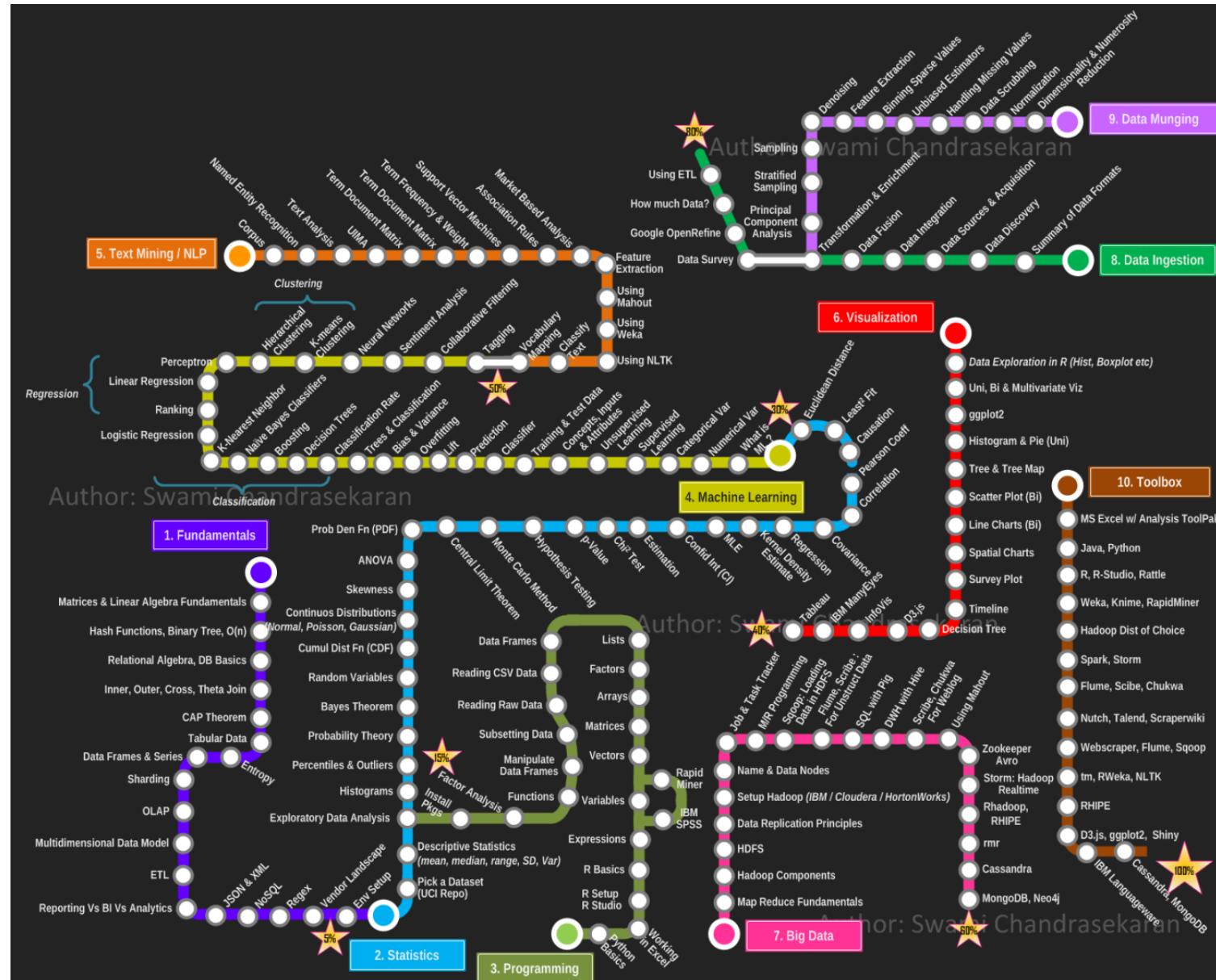
- $a_i = \frac{1}{|P_k|-1} \sum_{x_j \in P_k} d(x_i, x_j)$ ,
- $b_i = \frac{1}{|P_j|} \sum_{x_l \in P_j} d(x_i, x_l)$
- silhouette index of  $x_i$  :  
$$s_i \in [-1, 1] = \frac{b_i - a_i}{\max(a_i, b_i)}.$$



# Summary



# ML MAP (still evolving)



# Statistical Learning Theory

Learning Model (Vapnik):

- A generator  $G$  of random vectors  $x \in D$ , i.i.d,  $P(x)$  fixed but unknown
- A supervisor  $S$  giving for each input  $x$  a value  $y \in C$  drawn from  $P(y|x)$  fixed but unknown
- A Learning Machine  $LM$  implementing a set of functions  $\mathcal{F}$

> *Problem statement*: Find  $f \in \mathcal{F}$  that best fit  $S$ .

Training set  $E = \{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_l, y_l)\}$   $l$  observations i.i.d from

$$P(x, y) = P(x)P(y|x)$$

> *Problem statement*: Find  $f : D \rightarrow C$  such as  $R(f) = P(y \neq f(x))$  is minimal.

# Statistical Learning Theory

*Loss function*

$$L(y, f(x)) = \mathbb{1}_{y \neq f(x)}, \text{ or } (y - f(x))^2 \text{ or } \dots$$

Difference between  $S(y)$  and  $\text{LM}(f(x))$

*Risk (Error)*

$$R(f) = \int L(y, f(x)) dP(x, y) = P(y \neq f(x))$$

$\Rightarrow$  Expected value of the loss function = probability that  $f$  predicts a different value of  $S$ .

> *Problem statement*

Knowing  $E$ , find  $f \in \mathcal{F}$  such that

$$f = \operatorname{Arg} \min_{g \in \mathcal{F}} R(g)$$

# Statistical Learning Theory

*Minimum risk function*

For classification problem,  $\exists$  a minimum risk function

$$f_{Bayes}(x) = \operatorname{Arg} \max_y P(y|x)$$

$f_{Bayes}$  : "Ideal" function to reach (no hypothesis on the underlying distributions)

> *Problem statement*

Knowing  $E$ , approximate  $f_{Bayes}$  with  $f \in \mathcal{F}$  (a priori  $f_{Bayes} \notin \mathcal{F}$ )

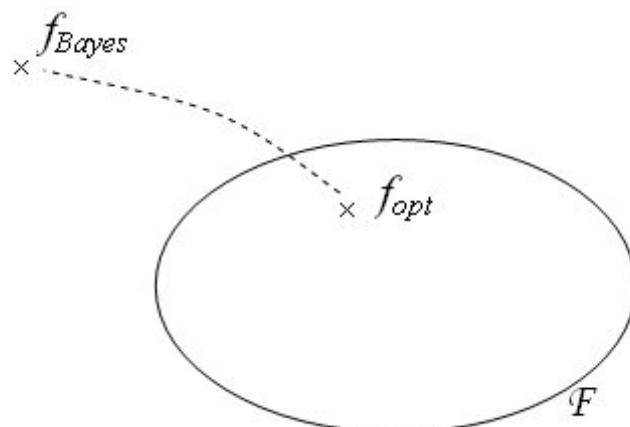
# Statistical Learning Theory

Let suppose there exists  $f_{opt} \in \mathcal{F}$  of minimal risk:

$$0 \leq R(f_{Bayes}) \leq R(f_{opt}) = \underbrace{R(f_{Bayes})}_{\text{non-deterministic}} + \underbrace{(R(f_{opt}) - R(f_{Bayes}))}_{\text{structural error}}$$

Choice of  $\mathcal{F}$ :

- Using expressive  $\mathcal{F}$  spaces to allow  $R(f_{opt}) \approx R(f_{Bayes})$
- Not too rich, otherwise risk of overfitting



# Statistical Learning Theory

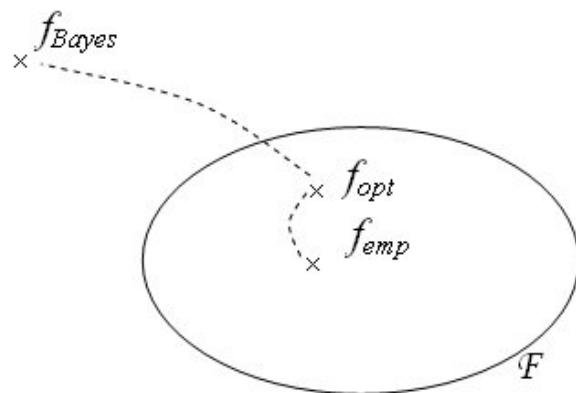
*Empirical risk*

Natural idea: find  $f \in \mathcal{F}$  that best classify  $E$

$$R_{emp}(f) = \frac{1}{l} \sum_{i=1}^l L(y_i, f(x_i)) = \frac{\text{Card}\{i | f(x_i) \neq y_i\}}{l}$$

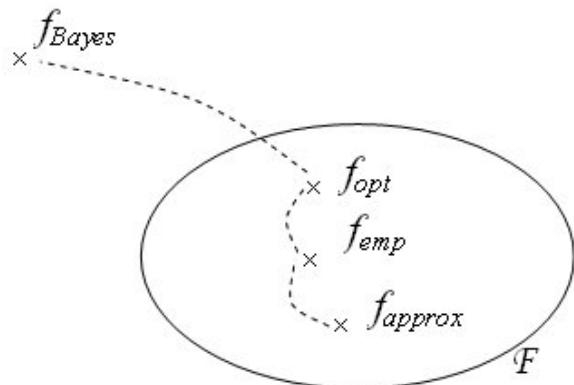
$\Rightarrow$  *Empirical Risk Minimization(ERM)*: Find  $f \in \mathcal{F}$  ( $f_{emp}$ ) minimizing  $R_{emp}(f)$

$$R(f_{emp}) = R(f_{Bayes}) + (R(f_{opt}) - R(f_{Bayes})) + (R(f_{emp}) - R(f_{opt}))$$



# Statistical Learning Theory

One cannot expect to compute  $f_{emp}$  in a reasonable time  
→ Approximation  $f_{approx}$  of  $f_{emp}$ .



# Statistical Learning Theory

At least four reasons altering the results of a classification method:

- *Nature of the problem* : minimum  $\Rightarrow$  Bayes and can be important;
- *Low expressivity of  $\mathcal{F}$*  : structural error;
- *Non consistancy of ERM principle* : do we get close to  $f_{opt}$  with  $E$ ? (be careful: learning by heart !!);
- Minimization can be computationally hard/unstable.

# Statistical Learning Theory

*Uniform convergence of the empirical risk*

ERM does not necessarily get close to the real risk ( $E$  is randomly drawn)

⇒ Serious problem !!

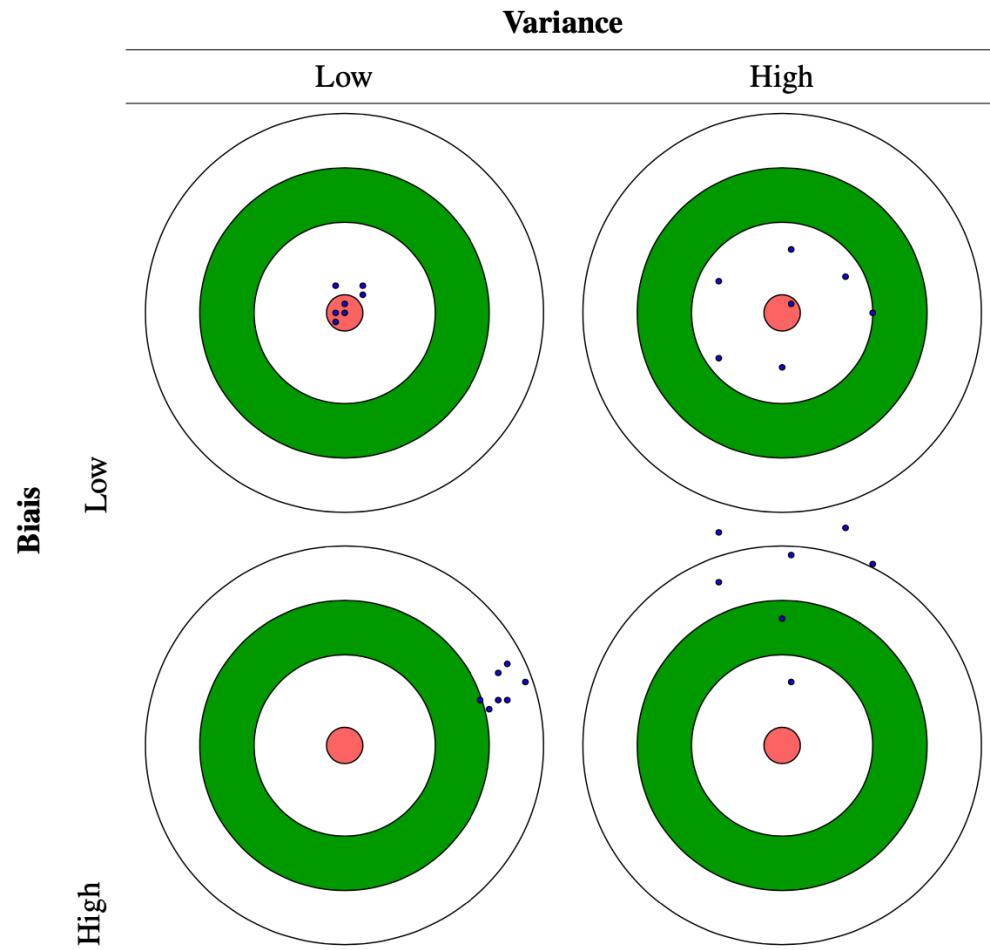
- $f_{opt}$  close to  $f_{bayes} \Rightarrow$  rich  $\mathcal{F}$
- To find  $f_{opt}$  by ERM,  $\mathcal{F}$  not too rich....

*Extreme cases*

- $\mathcal{F} = \{f_{opt}\}$ : easy to find but probably high  $R_{emp}$
- $\mathcal{F}$ : set of all possible functions  $\Rightarrow f_{bayes} \in \mathcal{F}$  but also all  $f$  minimizing  $R_{emp}$  and in particular  $f_{byheart}$ .

# Statistical Learning Theory

- Bias  $\approx$  distance between  $f_{bayes}$  and  $f_{opt}$
- Variance  $\approx$  distance between  $f_{opt}$  and  $f_{emp}$



# Statistical Learning Theory

The Empirical risk uniformly converges (in probability) to the real risk in  $\mathcal{F}$  iff

$$(\forall \epsilon > 0) \lim_{l \rightarrow \infty} Pr \left\{ \max_{f \in \mathcal{F}} |R_{emp}^l(f) - R(f)| \geq \epsilon \right\} = 0$$

If the empirical risk uniformly converges to the real risk then a LM based on ERM converges in probability to  $f_{opt}$ :

$$\lim_{l \rightarrow \infty} Pr \left\{ |R(f_{emp}^l) - R(f_{opt})| \geq \epsilon \right\} = 0$$