

Machine Learning

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- Artificial Intelligence and ML
- Traditional Programming and ML
- ML Online Courses
- Main algorithms
 - Regression
 - Gradient Descent
 - Underfitting, Overfitting
 - Regularization
 - Decision tree
 - Support vector machine
 - PCA, K-mean



Machine Learning: multi-disciplinary field



Traditional Programming and ML

Traditional Programming





Image source: http://www.cognub.com/index.php/cognitive-platform/

Supervised Learning

Regression

Decision trees Support Vector Machine Neural Networks Ensembles

🔊 Size (feet	²) Number of	Number of	Age of home	Price (\$1000)	
\times_1				Ч	
2104	5	1	45	460 7	
> 1416	3	2	40	232	M = 47
[°] 1534	3	2	30	315	
852	2	1	36	178	





Supervised learning: regression models for house price prediction

Supervised Learning

Classification

Logistic Regression

Discriminant Analysis

Decision Trees

Support Vector Machine

Neural Networks

Ensembles







New Previously Unseen Input

Supervised learning: binary classification for weather prediction





Unsupervised Learning

Clustering Dimensionality reduction



Unsupervised learning: dimensionality reduction



Unsupervised learning: association rule-mining

https://www.coursera.org/ (Andrew Ng)

- Introduction
- Linear Regression with One Variable
- Gradient Descent (GD)
- Multivariate Linear Regression (Multiple features; GD for Multiple features; Normal Equations)
- Logistic regression (Hypothesis Representation; Cost Function; GD; Advanced optimization; Multiclass Classification)
- Neural Networks (Non-linear Hypotheses; Neurons and the Brain; Forward and Backward Propagation)
- Advice for Applying Machine learning (Train-Test Sets; Regularization; Diagnosing Bias vs Variance; Learning Curves)
- Support Vector Machines (Optimization Objective; Large Margin Intuition; Kernels)
- Unsupervised learning (K-mean Algorithm)
- Principal Component Analysis
- Anomaly Detection
- Large Scale Machine Learning (Learning with Large Datasets; Stochastic GD; Mini-Batch GD; Map Reduce; Data Parallelism)

KTU

- Introduction
- Linear and Logistic Regression
- Bias and variance tradeoff
- Linear and quadratic discriminant analysis
- Decision Trees
- Support Vector Methods
- Artificial Neural Networks
- Ensemble models
- Unsupervised learning
- Principal Component Analysis

• Python for Data Science and Machine Learning Bootcamp

(Learn how to use NumPy, Pandas, Seaborn , Matplotlib , Plotly , Scikit-Learn , Machine Learning, Tensorflow , and more!)

• Machine Learning A-Z[™]: Hands-On Python & R In Data Science

Learn to create Machine Learning Algorithms in Python and R from two Data Science experts. Code templates included.

• Machine Learning Data Science and Deep Learning with Python

Complete hands-on machine learning tutorial with data science, Tensorflow, artificial intelligence, and neural networks

Supervised Learning

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Regression Gradient Descent Train - test – validate Cross - validation Underfitting Overfitting Regularization

Decision Tree Support vector machines



Regression	_{,⊘} Size (feet²) <mark>≻ 1</mark>	Number of bedrooms	Number of floors	Age of home (years)	Price (\$1000)	
	2104	5	1	45	460 7	_
	1416	3	2	40	232	M = 47
	1534	3	2	30	315	· · · · ·
	852	2	1	36	178	
nothesis: $h_{a}(x) = \theta_{a} + \theta_{a}x_{a} + \theta_{a}x_{a} + \cdots + \theta_{a}x_{b}$	Эх			•••		

Hypothesis:
$$h_{\theta}(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x_1 + \theta_2 x_2 + \dots + \theta_n x_n$$

n – number of features;

 $x^{(i)}$ – input (features) of ith training example;

 $x_j^{(i)}$ - value of feature j in ith training example;

Cost function:
$$J(\theta) = \frac{1}{2m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left(h_{\theta} \left(x^{(i)} \right) - y^{(i)} \right)^2$$

Gradient Descent:

 α – learning rate

Repeat {

$$\theta_{j} := \theta_{j} - \alpha \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_{j}} J(\theta)$$

- Gradient descent
- Conjugate gradient
- BFGS
- L-BFGS

Logistic Regression

Classification $y \in \{0, 1\}$

- Email: Spam / Not Spam?
- Online Transaction: Fraudulent (Yes / No)
- Tumor: Malignant/Benign

Gradient Descent

$$J(\theta) = -\frac{1}{m} \left[\sum_{i=1}^{m} y^{(i)} \log h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) + (1 - y^{(i)}) \log (1 - h_{\theta}(x^{(i)})) \right]$$

Want $\min_{\theta} J(\theta)$:

Repeat $\{$

$$\theta_j := \theta_j - \alpha \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} J(\theta)$$

Threshold classifier output $h_{\theta}(x)$ at 0.5:

If $h_{\theta}(x) \geq 0.5$, predict "y = 1"

If $h_{\theta}(x) < 0.5$, predict "y = 0"







Overfitting

Example: Linear regression (housing prices)



Overfitting: If we have too many features, the learned hypothesis may fit the training set very well $(J(\theta) = \frac{1}{2m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} (h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})^2 \approx 0)$, but fail to generalize to new examples (predict prices on new examples).





The training set is the set of data we analyse (train on) to design the rules in the model.

The validation set is a set of data that we did not use when training our model that we use to assess how well these rules perform on new data. It is also a set we use to tune parameters and input features for our model so that it gives us what we think is the best performance possible for new data.

The **test set** is a set of data we did not use to train our model or use in the validation set to inform our choice of parameters/input features. We will use it as a **final test once we have decided on our final model**, to get the best possible estimate of how successful our model will be when used on entirely new data.



Left: Data simulated from f, shown in black. Three estimates of f are shown: the linear regression line (orange curve), and two smoothing spline fits (blue and green curves). Right: Training MSE (grey curve), test MSE (red curve), and minimum possible test MSE over all methods (dashed line). Squares represent the training and test MSEs for the three fits shown in the left-hand panel.



Model selection

1. $h_{\theta}(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x \longrightarrow \min \mathcal{I}(\mathbf{0}) \longrightarrow \mathcal{O}'' \longrightarrow \mathcal{I}_{\mathbf{0}}(\mathbf{0}'')$ 2. $h_{\theta}(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x + \theta_2 x^2$ \longrightarrow \Im \longrightarrow \Im (\Im) 3. $h_{\theta}(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x + \dots + \theta_3 x^3 \quad \longrightarrow \quad \texttt{S}^{(n)} \quad \texttt{T}_{\mathsf{c}}(\texttt{S}^{(n)})$ 10. $h_{\theta}(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x + \dots + \theta_{10} x^{10} \longrightarrow \mathbf{S}^{(*)} \longrightarrow \mathbf{T}_{cv}(\mathbf{S}^{(*)})$ Pick $\theta_0 + \theta_1 x_1 + \cdots + \theta_4 x^4$ Estimate generalization error for test set $J_{test}(\theta^{(4)})$

K-Fold Cross Validation



Ridge and Lasso Regression

In regularized linear regression, we choose θ to minimize

$$J(\theta) = \frac{1}{2m} \left[\sum_{i=1}^{m} (h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^{n} \theta_j^2 \right]$$

Ridge regression shrinks the coefficients and it helps to reduce the model complexity and multi-collinearity.

$$J(\theta) = \frac{1}{2m} \left[\sum_{i=1}^{m} (h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^{n} |\theta| \right]$$

Lasso regression can lead to zero coefficients i.e. some of the features are completely neglected for the evaluation of output. So Lasso regression not only helps in reducing over-fitting but it can help us in feature selection.

Decision Tree



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Decision Tree

Heuristic construction rules were invented to construct decision tree

One of them: Select the split with the lowest entropy (or Gini index) or highest information gain

• Formally, entropy is a number, calculate with the following expression:

$$E(S) = \sum_{i=1}^{K} -p_i \log_2 p_i$$

 p_i - is ith class proportion in data set S. K – number of different classes.

• The larger the entropy, the bigger the mess (≤ 1)





Would You Survive the Titanic?



Resubstitution error:
$$R(T) = \frac{(16+0+8+28+45)+(59+4+2)}{891} = \frac{162}{891} = 0.18$$



Support Vector Machine

Now suppose that we have a $n \times p$ data matrix **X** that consists of n training observations in p-dimensional space,

$$x_1 = \begin{pmatrix} x_{11} \\ \vdots \\ x_{1p} \end{pmatrix}, \dots, x_n = \begin{pmatrix} x_{n1} \\ \vdots \\ x_{np} \end{pmatrix},$$

and that these observations fall into two classes—that is, $y_1, \ldots, y_n \in \{-1, 1\}$ where -1 represents one class and 1 the other class.

$$\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \ldots + \beta_p x_{ip} > 0 \text{ if } y_i = 1,$$

 $\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \ldots + \beta_p x_{ip} < 0 \text{ if } y_i = -1.$





$$M = d_{!} + d_{2}$$

maximize M
 $\beta_{0}, \beta_{1}, \dots, \beta_{p}, M$
subject to $\sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_{j}^{2} = 1,$

 $y_i(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \ldots + \beta_p x_{ip}) \ge M$

 $\forall i = 1, \ldots, n.$

Support Vector Classifiers



There are two classes of observations, shown in blue and in purple. In this case, the two classes are not separable by a hyperplane, and so the maximal margin classifier cannot be used.



 $\epsilon_1, \ldots, \epsilon_n$ are *slack variables* that allow individual observations to be on the wrong side of the margin or the hyperplane;

If $\epsilon_i > 0$ then the *i*th observation is on the wrong side of the margin, and we say that the *i*th observation has *violated* the margin. If $\epsilon_i > 1$ then it is on the wrong side of the hyperplane.

Classification with Non-linear Decision Boundaries



Classification with Non-linear Decision Boundaries



Performing Non-Linear Classification using Kernel Method

Unsupervised Learning

Clustering

Dimensionality reduction (PCA)



Unsupervised learning: dimensionality reduction



Unsupervised learning: association rule-mining

K-Means Clustering

We have a set of features X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_p measured on *n* observations.

The K-means clustering procedure results from a simple and intuitive mathematical problem. We begin by defining some notation. Let C_1, \ldots, C_K denote sets containing the indices of the observations in each cluster. These sets satisfy two properties:

- 1. $C_1 \cup C_2 \cup \ldots \cup C_K = \{1, \ldots, n\}$. In other words, each observation belongs to at least one of the K clusters.
- 2. $C_k \cap C_{k'} = \emptyset$ for all $k \neq k'$. In other words, the clusters are non-overlapping: no observation belongs to more than one cluster.

For instance, if the *i*th observation is in the *k*th cluster, then $i \in C_k$. The idea behind *K*-means clustering is that a *good* clustering is one for which the *within-cluster variation* is as small as possible. The within-cluster variation for cluster C_k is a measure $W(C_k)$ of the amount by which the observations within a cluster differ from each other. Hence we want to solve the problem

$$\underset{C_1,\ldots,C_K}{\text{minimize}} \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^K W(C_k) \right\}.$$

$$W(C_k) = rac{1}{|C_k|} \sum_{i,i' \in C_k} \sum_{j=1}^p (x_{ij} - x_{i'j})^2,$$

where $|C_k|$ denotes the number of observations in the kth cluster. In other words, the within-cluster variation for the kth cluster is the sum of all of the pairwise squared Euclidean distances between the observations in the kth cluster, divided by the total number of observations in the kth cluster.

K-means clustering,

$$\underset{C_1,...,C_K}{\text{minimize}} \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^K \frac{1}{|C_k|} \sum_{i,i' \in C_k} \sum_{j=1}^p (x_{ij} - x_{i'j})^2 \right\}.$$

Principal Component Analysis

Given a $n \times p$ data set **X**, how do we compute the first principal component? Since we are only interested in variance, we assume that each of the variables in **X** has been centered to have mean zero (that is, the column means of **X** are zero). We then look for the linear combination of the sample feature values of the form

$$z_{i1} = \phi_{11}x_{i1} + \phi_{21}x_{i2} + \ldots + \phi_{p1}x_{ip}$$

that has largest sample variance, subject to the constraint that $\sum_{j=1}^{p} \phi_{j1}^2 = 1$. In other words, the first principal component loading vector solves the optimization problem

$$\underset{\phi_{11},\ldots,\phi_{p1}}{\text{maximize}} \left\{ \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{p} \phi_{j1} x_{ij} \right)^2 \right\} \text{ subject to } \sum_{j=1}^{p} \phi_{j1}^2 = 1$$