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So What is Machine Learning?

- Automating automation
- Getting computers to program themselves
- Writing software is the bottleneck
- Let the data do the work instead!

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Traditional Programming

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Machine Learning Problem Types

• Based on Type of Data

Supervised, Unsupervised, Semi supervised, Reinforcement Learning

• Based on Type of Output

• Regression, Classification

Based on Type of Model

• Generative, Discriminative

We will focus on: Supervised \rightarrow {Regression, Classification} \rightarrow Discriminative models

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Types of Learning based on Type of Data

• Supervised learning

- Training data includes desired outputs.
- Trving to learn a relation between input data and the output
- **•** Unsupervised learning
	- Training data does not include desired outputs.
	- Trying to "understand" the data.
- Semi supervised learning
	- Training data includes a few desired outputs.
- Reinforcement learning
	- Rewards from sequence of actions.

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Types of Learning based on Type of Output

Regression

A regression model predicts continuous values.

For example:

- What is the value of a house in California?
- What is the probability that a user will click on this ad?

Classification

A classification model predicts discrete values.

For example:

- Is a given email message spam or not spam?
- Is this an image of a dog, a cat, or a hamster?

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Types of Learning based on Type of Model

Generative Model

A Generative nodel explicitly learns the actual distribution of each class.

Discriminative Model

A Discriminative model learns the decision boundary between the classes.

Generative Models

- **•** Naïve Bayes
- **Hidden Markov Models**
- **•** Bayesian networks
- **Markov random fields**

Discriminative Models

- Logistic regression
- SVMs
- **o** Traditional neural networks
- Nearest neighbor
- **Conditional Random Fields** (CRF)

Regression vs Classification

Classification (supervised learning)

Regression (supervised learning)

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ML Basic Terminologies

Many terminologies associated with ML. Will cover them in the following slides.

- o Labels
- **•** Features
- **•** Examples
- Models

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Label

- A label is the thing that we are predicting in classification or regression task. Example: Male, Female
- The label could also be the future price of wheat, the kind of animal shown in a picture, the meaning of an audio clip, or just about anything.
- Usually denoted with the variable y.

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Features (1/2)

- A feature is an input variable (a.k.a attribute).
- A simple machine learning project might use a single feature, while a more sophisticated machine learning project could use millions of features.
- Usually denoted as:

 X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_N

In the spam detector example, the features could include the following:

- words in the email text
- sender's address
- time of day the email was sent

 \bullet ...

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Features (2/2)

Generally three types of attributes:

- **Categorical:** red, blue, brown, yellow
- **Ordinal:** poor, satisfactory, good, excellent
- Numeric: 3.14, 6E23, 0,

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Features (2/2)

Generally three types of attributes:

- **Categorical:** red, blue, brown, yellow
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- **Numeric:** 3.14, 6E23, 0,

Categorical

- No natural ordering to categories
- Categories usually encoded as numbers

Ordinal

- **o** There is a natural ordering to categories
- Encoded as numbers to preserve ordering

Numeric

- Integers or real numbers
- **•** meaningful to add, mul tiply, compute

Notethat

The process of generating this features for our machine learning problem is called feature engineering.

Data samples (Examples)

Data sample / Example is a particular instance of data, x . (Note That. x is a vector of features)

We break examples into two categories:

- Labeled examples: (Used for prediction)
- Unlabeled examples: (Used for inference/testing)

Example

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Model

A model defines a relationship between features and label.

Two phases of a model's life:

- **Training** means creating or learning the model. You show the model labeled examples and enable the model to gradually learn the relationships between features and label.
- **Testing/Inference** means applying the trained model to unlabeled examples. You use the trained model to make useful predictions $(y^{\prime}).$

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ML Application 1: Credit Approval

• Numeric Features:

- \bullet loan amount (e. g. \$1000)
- Income (e. g. \$65000)
- Ordinal Features:
	- savings: $\{none, <100, 100..500, 500..1000, >1000\}$
	- **e** employed: $\{unemployed, <1 \lor r, 1..4 \lor rs, 4..7 \lor rs, >7 \lor rs\}$

Categorical Features:

- purpose: $\{car, application, e$, repairs, education, business $\}$
- personal: {single, married, divorced, separated}

Labels (Categorical):

- Approve credit application
- Disapprove credit application

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Easy feature engineering process.

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ML Application 2: Handwritten Digits Recognation

Represent each pixel as a separate attribute either Categorical OR Ordinal:

- Categorical Features:
	- (white) or (black) based on a threshold
- Ordinal Features:
	- Degree of "blackness" of a pixel
- Labels (Categorical): ${0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9}$

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ML Application 2: Handwritten Digits Recognation

Represent each pixel as a separate attribute either Categorical OR Ordinal:

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What if we are dealing with paper like this $\frac{22}{8}$ Isolate each digit, rescale, de-slant, .. Hard feature engineering pr[oc](#page-20-0)e[ss](#page-22-0)[.](#page-19-0)

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Linear Regression

Linear regression attempts to model the relationship between two variables by fitting a linear equation to observed data

Example: Scientists found that crickets (an insect species) chirp more frequently on hotter days than on cooler days.

A linear relationship

- True, the line doesn't pass through every dot.
- However, the line does clearly show the relationship between chirps and temperature.

$$
y = mx + b
$$

where:

- y: is the temperature in Celsius—the value we're trying to predict.
- m: is the slope of the line.
- \bullet x: is the number of chirps per minute—the value of our input feature.
- **o** b: is the y-intercept.

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In machine learning, we'll write the equation for a model slightly differently:

 $y' = w_1 x_1 + w_0$

where:

- \bullet y': is the predicted label (a desired output).
- \bullet w_1 : is the weight of feature 1. Weight is the same concept as the "slope".
- \bullet x_1 : is feature 1.
- \bullet w_0 or *b*: is the bias (the y-intercept).

Notethat

A model that relies on three features might look as follows:

$$
y' = w_3x_3 + w_2x_2 + w_1x_1 + w_0
$$

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Training and Loss

- **Training** a model simply means learning (determining) good values for all the weights and the bias from labeled examples.
- **Loss** is the penalty for a bad prediction.
	- Perfect prediction means the loss is zero
	- Bad model have large loss.
- Suppose we selected the following weights and biases.

Squared loss

- The linear regression models use a popular loss function called squared loss.
- Also known as L_2 .
- o Is represented as follows:

[observation(x) – prediction(x)]²
=
$$
(y - y')^{2}
$$

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Squared loss

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- Is represented as follows:

[*observation*(
$$
x
$$
) – *prediction*(x)]²
= $(y - y')^{2}$

Why squared loss?

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Squared loss

- The linear regression models use a popular loss function called squared loss.
- Also known as L_2 .
- Is represented as follows:

$$
[observation(x) - prediction(x)]2
$$

= $(y - y')2$

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Why squared loss? Can we do absolute loss?

Mean square error (MSE)

• Is the average squared loss per example over the whole dataset.

$$
MSE = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{(x,y)\in D} (y - prediction(x))^2
$$

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- \bullet (x,y) is an example in which
	- y is the label
	- **a** x is a feature
- prediction(x) is equal $y' = w_1x + w_0$
- \bullet D is the dataset that contains all (x,y) pairs
- N is the number of samples in D

Reducing Loss

- **Training** is a feedback process that use the loss function to improve the model parameters.
- The training is an iterative process.

Two Questions

- What initial values should we set for w_1 and w_0 ?
- How to update w_1 and w_0 ?

Gradient Descent (1/3)

- Assume (for symplicity) we are only concerned with finding w_1 .
- Assume we had the time and the computing resources to calculate the loss for all possible values of w_1 .

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Gradient Descent (1/3)

- Assume (for symplicity) we are only concerned with finding w_1 .
- Assume we had the time and the computing resources to calculate the loss for all possible values of w_1 .

Gradient Descent (2/3)

- Gradient descent enables you to find the optimal w without computing for all possible values.
- **•** Gradient descent has the following steps
	- **1** Pick a random starting point for w
	- 2 Calculates the gradient of the loss curve at w.
	- **3** Update w
	- ⁴ go to 2, till convergence

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Gradient Descent (3/3)

Note that a gradient is a vector, so it has both of the following characteristics:

- **•** Magnitude
- **•** Direction

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$$
W_{new} = W_{old} - \eta * \frac{d \text{ loss}}{dw}
$$

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Gradient Descent (3/3)

The gradient descent algorithm takes a step in the direction of the negative gradient

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$$
W_{new} = W_{old} - \eta * \frac{d \text{ loss}}{dw}
$$

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 $A \equiv A \quad A \equiv A$

Gradient Descent (3/3)

the gradient descent algorithm adds some fraction of the gradient's magnitude (Learning **Rate** η) to the previous point

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$$
W_{new} = W_{old} - \eta * \frac{d \text{ loss}}{dw}
$$

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Convergence Criteria

• For convex functions, optimum occurs when

$$
\bullet \ \left| \frac{d \ \text{loss}}{dw} \right| = 0
$$

• In practice, stop when

$$
\bullet \ \left| \frac{d \ \text{loss}}{dw} \right| \leq \epsilon
$$

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- Gradient descent algorithms multiply the gradient by a scalar known as the learning rate (also sometimes called step size) .
- How can we choose the learning rate?

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- Gradient descent algorithms multiply the gradient by a scalar known as the learning rate (also sometimes called step size) .
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Small Learning Rate

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- Gradient descent algorithms multiply the gradient by a scalar known as the learning rate (also sometimes called step size) .
- How can we choose the learning rate?

Large Learning Rate

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- Gradient descent algorithms multiply the gradient by a scalar known as the learning rate (also sometimes called step size) .
- How can we choose the learning rate?

Optimal Learning Rate usually (0.01)

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Generalization and Gradient

• For n features:
$$
y' = \sum_{i=0}^{i=n} w_i x_i
$$

- Note w_0 is the bias (intercept), and $x_0 = 1$.
- vector representation $\bm{{\mathsf{y}}}^\prime = \bm{{\mathsf{w}}}^T\bm{{\mathsf{x}}}$
- $Loss = \ell = (y y')^2$
- **•** Gradient derivation

$$
\frac{d\ell}{dw_i} = \frac{d\ell}{dy'} \frac{dy'}{dw_i}
$$

$$
= [2(y - y') * x_i * (-1)]
$$

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Types of Gradient Descents

Batch Gradient Descent:

- MSE loss assumes taking gradient for the total number of samples in the data set
- Data sets often contain billions or even hundreds of billions of examples
- Can take a very long time to compute.

Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD):

- Uses only a single example (a batch size of 1) per iteration.
- Very noisy.

Mini-Batch Gradient Descent:

- Compromise between full-batch iteration and SGD
- Typically a batch of size between 10 and 1,000 examples, chosen at random.

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