

An Introduction to Machine Learning

Research Group Meeting 2017

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General Set-up

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Set-up and Goal

Suppose we have X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n data samples. Can we predict properties about any given $X_{n+1}, X_{n+2}, \dots, X_N$?

Machine learning systems attempt to predict properties of unknown data based on the attributes or features of the data.

Supervised learning

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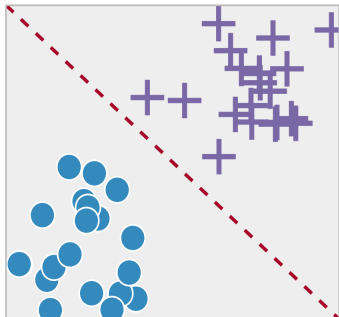
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- 1 Data comes with attributes that we want our algorithm to predict
- 2 Machine learning algorithm is given data attributes and desired outputs and the goal is to learn a way to map inputs to outputs in a general way
- 3 2 main types of learning:
 - 1 **Classification:** Data belongs to different classes/groups and we want to be able to predict which class/group unlabeled data belongs to
 - 2 **Regression:** Data labeled with one or more continuous variables (parameters) and the task is to predict the value of these variables for unknown data

Classification



Regression

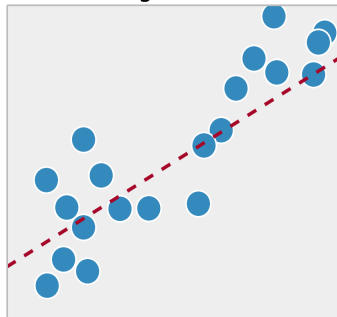


Image source: <http://ipython-books.github.io/featured-04/>

Unsupervised Learning

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- 1 No labels are given to the algorithm
- 2 Training data consists of a set of input vectors $\{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n\}$ with no target outputs
- 3 3 Types of goals in this setting:
 - 1 **Clustering**: discover groups with similar features within the data
 - 2 **Density Estimation**: determine distribution of data within the input space
 - 3 **Dimensionality Reduction**: project data into a lower dimensional space than input space

Generalized Linear Models

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Set-up: Data in the form of $X_i = (x_1^i, x_2^i, \dots, x_p^i)$

Goal: Regression

Find \hat{y}

$$\hat{y}(w, X_i) = w_0 + w_1 x_1^i + w_2 x_2^i + \dots + w_p x_p^i,$$

where w_0 is called the *intercept* and w_1, \dots, w_p are the *coefficients*.

GLM: Ordinary Least Squares

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- Fits linear model $\hat{y}(w, X_i) = w_0 + w_1 x_1^i + w_2 x_2^i + \dots + w_p x_p^i$ where $w = (w_1, \dots, w_p)$ coefficients obtained by solving

$$\min_w \|Xw - y\|_2^2$$

- Model relies on independence of model terms
- If terms are correlated then the least-square estimate is highly sensitive to random errors in the observed response (large variance)
- Complexity: $O(np^2)$

GLM: Ridge Regression

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$$\min_w \|Xw - y\|_2^2 + \alpha \|w\|_2^2$$

- $\alpha > 0$ is a complexity parameter that controls how robust the coefficients are to linearity
- Penalty on the size of coefficients addresses issues with ordinary least squares method
- Complexity: $O(np^2)$

GLM: Lasso

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$$\min_w \frac{1}{2n} \|Xw - y\|_2^2 + \alpha \|w\|_1$$

- l_1 norm means we will this linear model estimates sparse coefficients
- This method reduces number of variables upon which the solution is dependent
- Useful in compressed sensing and can be used for feature selection

SVM: Mathematical Setup

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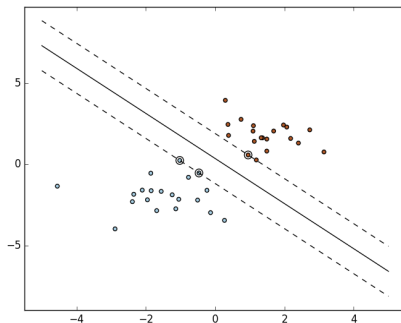
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A SVM constructs a hyperplane (or set of hyperplanes) in a high or infinite dimensional space, which can be used for classification, regression or other tasks.



SVM: Linear, separable case

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We want to find the hyperplane that maximizes the margin as follows:

Mathematical formulation

Given $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \in \mathbb{R}^p$, with labels $Y_i \in [-1, 1]$, minimize $\|w\|^2$ subject to

$$\begin{cases} (w \cdot X_i + b) \geq 1 & Y_i = 1 \\ (w \cdot X_i + b) \leq -1 & Y_i = -1 \end{cases}$$

Equivalently,

$$Y_i(w \cdot X_i + b) \geq 1$$

Decision function:

$$f(X, w, b) = \text{sign}(w \cdot X + b)$$

SVM: Linear, non-separable case

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Rewrite problem as

Mathematical formulation

Given $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \in \mathbb{R}^p$, with labels $Y_i \in [-1, 1]$, minimize $\|w\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i$ subject to

$$Y_i(w \cdot X_i + b) \geq 1 - \xi_i, \quad \xi_i \geq 0$$

This added a hinge-loss term.

General

Decision: $f(X) = w \cdot X + b$

Solve:

$$\min P(w, b) = \frac{1}{2} \|w\|^2 + C \sum_i H_1[Y_i f(X_i)]$$

= maximize margin + minimize error

SVM: Linear, non-separable case

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- For some data, linear classifiers are not complex enough
- The solution is to map data into a feature space, and then construct a hyperplane in the feature space as before:
 - $X \mapsto \Phi(X)$
 - Learn $f(X) = w \cdot \Phi(X) + b$

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 - Learn $f(X) = w \cdot \Phi(X) + b$

SVM: Kernel Trick

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- Kernel trick: if $\Phi(X)$ is high-dimensional, it can be hard to solve for w
- By representer theorem (Kimeldorf & Wahba, 1971)

$$w = \sum_i \alpha_i \Phi(X_i)$$

for some α_i

- Optimize α_i instead of w :

$$f(X) = \sum_i \alpha_i K(X_i, X) + b, \quad K(X_i, X) = \Phi(X_i) \cdot \Phi(X)$$

- Rewrite all SVM equations as before but with $w = \sum_i \alpha_i \Phi(X_i)$
- Dual:

$$\min P(w, b) = \frac{1}{2} \left\| \sum_i \alpha_i \Phi(X_i) \right\|^2 + C \sum_i H_1[Y_i f(X_i)]$$

Common kernel examples

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- RBF-SVM:

$$K(X, X') = \exp(-\gamma \|X - X'\|^2)$$

Adds a bump around each data point

- Polynomial-SVM:

$$K(X, X') = (X \cdot X')^d$$

When d is large, the kernel still only requires n computations, whereas explicit representation may not fit in memory

Pros and Cons of SVM

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Advantages

- Effective in high dimensional spaces
- Can be used for classification or regression
- Memory efficient since it only uses a subset of training points in the decision function
- Versatile since we can use different kernel functions for the decision function

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Disadvantages

- **Non-Probabilistic:** SVMs do not directly provide probability estimates
- Method will likely not do well if the number of features is much greater than the number of samples

Decision Trees formulation

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- Set-up training vectors $X_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $i = 1, \dots, p$ and a label vector $Y \in \mathbb{R}^p$
- A decision tree recursively partitions the space such that the samples with the same labels are grouped together
- Denote data at node m by Q
- Consider all possible splits of Q into left and right groups
- Choose splits which minimizes some measure of impurity
- Maximum tree depth parameter

Decision Tree Example

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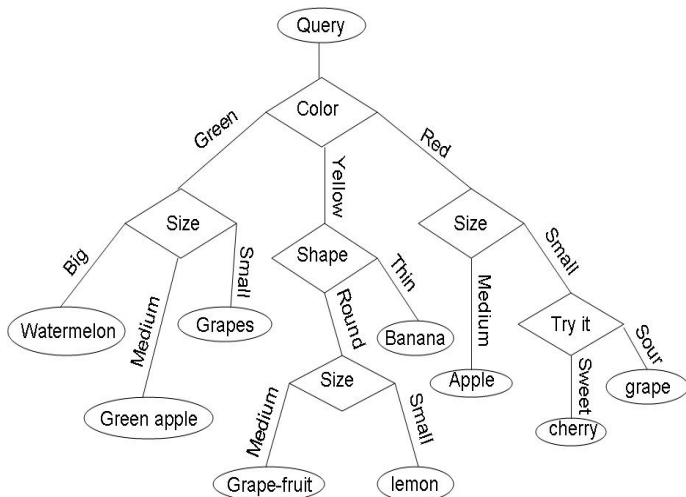


Image source: [https://www.projectrhea.org/rhea/index.php/Lecture_21_-_Decision_Trees_\(Continued\)_Old_Kiwi](https://www.projectrhea.org/rhea/index.php/Lecture_21_-_Decision_Trees_(Continued)_Old_Kiwi)

Pros and Cons of Decision Trees

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Advantages

- Simple to understand and to interpret. Trees can be visualized
- The cost of using the tree (i.e., predicting data) is logarithmic in the number of data points used to train the tree
- Possible to validate a model using statistical tests
- Able to handle both numerical and categorical data

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Disadvantages

- Decision-tree learners can create over-complex trees that do not generalize the data well
- Decision tree learners create biased trees if some classes dominate
- The problem of learning an optimal decision tree is known to be NP-complete under several aspects of optimality and even for simple concepts

Other Supervised Learning Methods

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- Stochastic gradient descent
- Nearest neighbors
- Gaussian process
- Naive bayes
- Ensemble methods

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- A dimension reduction attempt to generalize linear frameworks like PCA to be sensitive to non-linear structure in data
- Examples:
 - Isomap: seeks a lower-dimensional embedding which maintains geodesic distances between all points
 - Locally linear embedding: seeks a lower-dimensional projection of the data which preserves distances within local neighborhoods
 - Multidimensional scaling: seeks a low-dimensional representation of the data in which the distances respect well the distances in the original high-dimensional space

Clustering: K-means

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Goal: Separate samples into K clusters C by solving

$$\sum_{j=0}^n \min_{\mu_j \in C} (\|x_j - \mu_j\|^2),$$

where μ_j is the centroid of the j th cluster

- The within-cluster sum of squares criterion is referred to as inertia and it measures how internally coherent clusters are.
- Inertia makes the assumption that clusters are convex and isotropic
- Inertia is not a normalized metric, better to run PCA before doing K-means clustering if you're in a high dimensional space (curse of dimensionality)

K-means clustering

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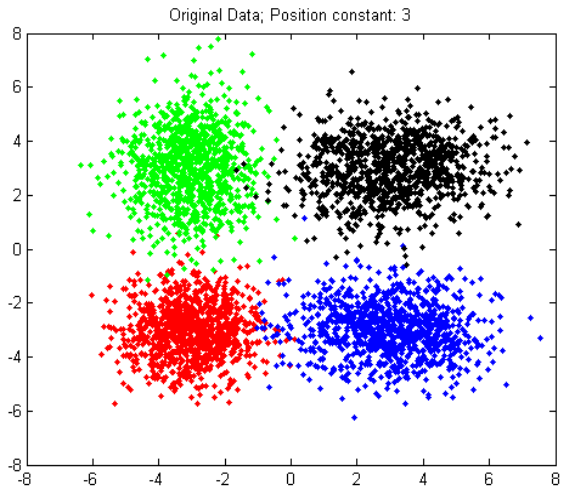


Image source:

<http://webstaff.itn.liu.se/~reile/edu/TNM025/Matlab/html/KMeansDemo.html>



Clustering: Spectral

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- Spectral clustering does a low-dimension embedding of the affinity matrix between samples, followed by a KMeans in the low dimensional space
- The general approach to spectral clustering is to use a standard clustering method on relevant eigenvectors of a Laplacian matrix of similarity matrix A , where $A_{ij} \geq 0$ represents a measure of the similarity between data points with indexes i and j
- Works well for a small number of clusters but is not advised when using many clusters
- Very useful when the structure of the individual clusters is highly non-convex, or more generally when a measure of the center and spread of the cluster is not a suitable description of the complete cluster

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- A neural network is a system that receives an input, process the data, and provides an output
- Algorithm mimics biological processes of a neuron
- Simplest case: “Neuron” is a computational unit that takes as input x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots and outputs

$$h_{W,b}(x) = f(W^T x) = f\left(\sum_i W_i x_i + b\right),$$

where $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is called the activation function, W_i are weights and b is the bias

- Common choice for the activation function is tanh
- Add hidden layers to create a more sophisticated network
- Need to learn interconnection pattern between the different layers of neurons and weights of the interconnections based on a cost function

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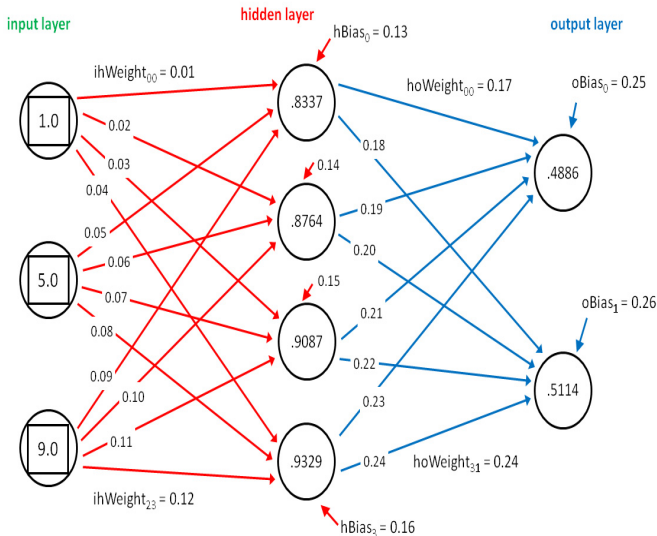


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Advantages

- Can be trained directly on data with thousands of inputs
- Once trained, predictions are fast
- Performs tasks that linear programs cannot
- Can be used with supervised or unsupervised learning
- Can be done in parallel

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Disadvantages

- Training is computationally expensive
- Complex and can be hard to interpret
- Could require a lot of parameter tweaking

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Things to consider:

- What is your goal? Classify? Parameter prediction?
- Dimension of your data
- Variability of data
- Pre-existing knowledge of data

- **Classification Metrics:**

$$\text{accuracy}(y, \hat{y}) = \frac{1}{n_{\text{samples}}} \sum_{i=0}^{n_{\text{samples}}-1} \mathbf{1}(\hat{y}_i = y_i)$$

- **Regression Metrics:**

$$\text{MAE}(y, \hat{y}) = \frac{1}{n_{\text{samples}}} \sum_{i=0}^{n_{\text{samples}}-1} |y_i - \hat{y}_i|$$

$$\text{MSE}(y, \hat{y}) = \frac{1}{n_{\text{samples}}} \sum_{i=0}^{n_{\text{samples}}-1} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

$$R^2(y, \hat{y}) = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=0}^{n_{\text{samples}}-1} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2}{\sum_{i=0}^{n_{\text{samples}}-1} (y_i - \bar{y})^2}$$

- **Classification Metrics:**

$$\text{accuracy}(y, \hat{y}) = \frac{1}{n_{\text{samples}}} \sum_{i=0}^{n_{\text{samples}}-1} \mathbf{1}(\hat{y}_i = y_i)$$

- **Regression Metrics:**

$$\text{MAE}(y, \hat{y}) = \frac{1}{n_{\text{samples}}} \sum_{i=0}^{n_{\text{samples}}-1} |y_i - \hat{y}_i|$$

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- **Spam email detection**
- Improving weather prediction
- Targeted advertising and web searches
- Predicting emergency room wait times using staffing levels, patient data, charts, and layout of ER
- Identifying heart failure from physician's notes
- Predicting hospital readmissions
- Learning dynamical systems models directly from high-dimensional sensor data (Byron Boots, Georgia Tech)

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- Spam email detection
- Improving weather prediction
- Targeted advertising and web searches
- Predicting emergency room wait times using staffing levels, patient data, charts, and layout of ER
- Identifying heart failure from physician's notes
- Predicting hospital readmissions
- Learning dynamical systems models directly from high-dimensional sensor data (Byron Boots, Georgia Tech)

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Useful Software Packages

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- PyML, pyMC, scikit-learn in Python
- TensorFlow (Google)
- MATLAB's Statistics and Machine Learning toolbox
- Spider (MATLAB)
- Shogun
- mlpack in C++
- Torch (C++)
- Weka (Java)
- Orange (Open source machine learning and data visualization)

Contamination of classifier

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- Goal: General classifier
- Problem: Illusion of success (over-tuning parameters)
- Use cross-validation to avoid this:
 - Randomly divide training data into multiple subsets
 - Only use one subset for training at a time
 - Test each classifier on data not used for training
 - Average results to see how well the classifiers do

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Overfitting

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- “Hallucinating a classifier” occurs when data are not sufficient to determine the correct classifier
- In this case the classifiers will be encoding random features in data which are not grounded in reality
- Overfitting can be decomposed into bias and variance:
 - Bias is the learner’s tendency to consistently learn the same (wrong) thing
 - Variance is the tendency to learn random things irrespective of real signal
 - Linear classifiers have high bias
 - Decision trees have low bias but high variance
- A more powerful algorithm is not necessarily better
- Use cross-validation, add a regularization term to avoid overfitting

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Bias and Variance

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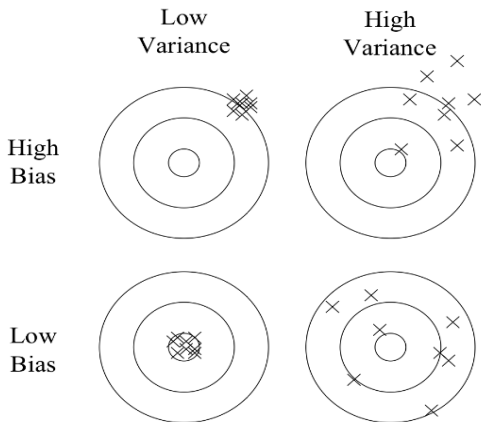


Figure 1: Bias and variance in dart-throwing.

Curse of Dimensionality

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- Second biggest problem in machine learning
- Expression coined in 1961 to refer to fact that many algorithms work well in low dimensions but fail in high dimensions
- Generalizing correctly is exponentially more difficult as the dimensionality, or number of features, increases
- Similarity-based reasoning fails in high dimensions
- Good news: usually high dimensional data are concentrated on/near a lower dimensional manifold so we can use dimension reduction techniques to avoid this “curse”

Ways Machine Learning Limits Impacts on World

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- C. Rudin and K. Wagstaff argue that most people do not ML with the primary intention of having a significant impact on the world
- Many papers in ML community are rejected solely because their algorithms and analyses are not novel, even if their scientific contribution could have an important impact on society
- In a survey of 152 papers published at ICML 2011, only 1% of papers interpret results in domain context, whereas 39% used synthetic data and 37 % used standard data from UCE archive
- Abstract metrics for performance of algorithms do not measure the impact of the results
- Theoretical advances not connected back to real world impact

Making Machine Learning Matter

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- 1 Step 1:** Define or select evaluation methods that will allow you to measure the impact of your results
- 2 Step 2:** Collaborate with experts in other fields who can help define the ML problem and label data for classification and regression tasks
- 3 Step 3:** Consider the potential impact when deciding which research problem to work on

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Wagstaff's Impact Challenges

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(Original list from Carbonell, 1992)

- 1 A law passed or legal decision made that relies on the results of an ML analysis
- 2 Save \$100 through an improved decision making algorithm provided by an ML system
- 3 Avert a conflict between nations though high-quality translation provided by an ML system
- 4 Save a human life through a diagnosis or invention recommended by a ML system
- 5 Reduce cyber security break-ins by 50% through ML defenses
- 6 Improve the Human Development Index by 10% in a country using a ML system

Obstacles to ML Impact

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1 Jargon

- ML vocabulary creates barriers between experts and society or even experts in other fields
- Replace “feature extraction” with “representation,” “variance” with “instability” and so on

2 Risk

- “With great power comes great responsibility”
- Who is at fault for errors when errors have a significant impact?
- High concerns in fields such as medicine, spacecraft, finance, etc.

3 Complexity

- ML is not simple enough for researchers across fields to use freely
- Simplifying, maturing, and “robustifying” ML tools will promote wider, more independent uses of ML

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Thanks for listening!!!

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