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Why "Learn" ?

- Machine learning is programming computers to optimize a performance criterion using example data or past experience.
- There is no need to "learn" to calculate payroll
- Learning is used when:
- Human expertise does not exist (navigating on Mars),
 Humans are unable to explain their expertise (speech recognition)
- $\hfill\square$ Solution changes in time (routing on a computer network)
- Solution needs to be adapted to particular cases (user biometrics)

Applications

- Association
- Supervised Learning
- Classification
- Regression
- Unsupervised Learning
 Reinforcement Learning

What We Talk About When We Talk About "Learning"

- Learning general models from a data of particular examples
- Data is cheap and abundant (data warehouses, data marts); knowledge is expensive and scarce.
- Example in retail: Customer transactions to consumer behavior: People who bought "Blink" also bought "Outliers"
- (www.amazon.com) Build a model that is a good and useful
- approximation to the data.

Data Mining

- Retail: Market basket analysis, Customer relationship management (CRM)
- Finance: Credit scoring, fraud detection
- Manufacturing: Control, robotics, troubleshooting
- Medicine: Medical diagnosis
- Telecommunications: Spam filters, intrusion detection
- Bioinformatics: Motifs, alignment
- Web mining: Search engines

•••

Learning Associations

Basket analysis:

Regression

used car

y : price

g() model,

 θ parameters

Example: Price of a

□ x : car attributes

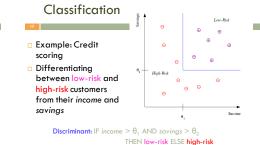
 $y = g(x | \theta)$

 $P(Y \mid X)$ probability that somebody who buys X also buys Y where X and Y are products/services.

 $y = wx + w_0$

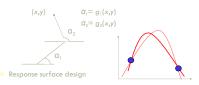
mis

Example: P (chips | beer) = 0.7



Regression Applications

Navigating a car: Angle of the steering
 Kinematics of a robot arm



Big Data

- Widespread use of personal computers and wireless communication leads to "big data"
- We are both producers and consumers of data
 Data is not random, it has structure, e.g., customer behavior
- We need "big theory" to extract that structure from data for
- (a) Understanding the process
- (b) Making predictions for the future

What is Machine Learning?

- Optimize a performance criterion using example data or past experience.
- Role of Statistics: Inference from a sample
- Role of Computer science: Efficient algorithms to
 Solve the optimization problem
 Representing and evaluating the model for inference

Classification: Applications

Aka Pattern recognition

- Face recognition: Pose, lighting, occlusion (glasses, beard), make-up, hair style
- Character recognition: Different handwriting styles.
- Speech recognition: Temporal dependency.
- Medical diagnosis: From symptoms to illnesses
- Biometrics: Recognition/authentication using physical and/or behavioral characteristics: Face, iris, signature, etc
- Outlier/novelty detection:

Supervised Learning: Uses

- Prediction of future cases: Use the rule to predict the output for future inputs
- Knowledge extraction: The rule is easy to understand
- Compression: The rule is simpler than the data it explains
- Outlier detection: Exceptions that are not covered by the rule, e.g., fraud

Face Recognition





fest images





Unsupervised Learning

Learning "what normally happens"

- No output
- Clustering: Grouping similar instances
- Example applications
- Customer segmentation in CRM
- Image compression: Color quantization Bioinformatics: Learning motifs

Reinforcement Learning

Credit assignment problem

Game playing

Robot in a maze

Learning a policy: A sequence of outputs

No supervised output but delayed reward

Multiple agents, partial observability,...

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Resources: Datasets

- UCI Repository: http://www.ics.uci.edu/~mlearn/MLRepository.htm
- Statlib: http://lib.stat.cmu.edu/

Resources: Journals

- Journal of Machine Learning Research www.imlr.org
- Machine Learning
- Neural Computation
- Neural Networks
- IEEE Trans on Neural Networks and Learning Systems
- IEEE Trans on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence
- Journals on Statistics/Data Mining/Signal Processing/Natural Language Processing/Bioinformatics/...

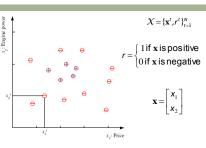
Resources: Conferences

- International Conference on Machine Learning (ICML)
- European Conference on Machine Learning (ECML)
- Neural Information Processing Systems (NIPS)
- Uncertainty in Artificial Intelligence (UAI)
- Computational Learning Theory (COLT)
- International Conference on Artificial Neural Networks (ICANN)
- International Conference on AI & Statistics (AISTATS)
- International Conference on Pattern Recognition (ICPR)
- ο..

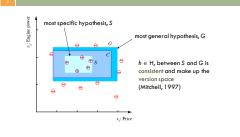
Learning a Class from Examples

- Class C of a "family car"
- Prediction: Is car x a family car?
- Knowledge extraction: What do people expect from a family car?
- Output:
 - Positive (+) and negative (-) examples
- Input representation:
 - x_1 : price, x_2 : engine power

Training set X

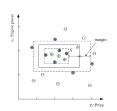


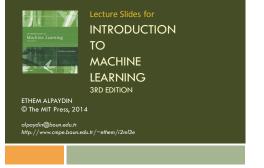
S, G, and the Version Space

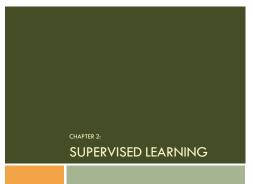


Margin

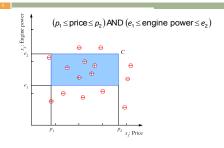
Choose h with largest margin







Class C

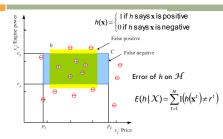


VC Dimension

- □ N points can be labeled in 2^N ways as +/-
- \square \mathcal{H} shatters N if there exists $h \in \mathcal{H}$ consistent

for any of these:

Hypothesis class ${\cal H}$



Probably Approximately Correct (PAC)

Learning

- How many training examples N should we have, such that with 1 – δ, h has error at most ε ? (Blumer et al., 1989)
- Each strip is at most $\epsilon/4$
- Pr that we miss a strip $1 \epsilon/4$ Pr that N instances miss a strip $(1 - \epsilon/4)^N$
- Pr that N instances miss 4 strips $4(1 \epsilon/4)^N$
- $4(1-\epsilon/4)^{\scriptscriptstyle N} \leq \delta \text{ and } (1-x) {\leq} exp(-x)$
- $4\exp(-\epsilon N/4) \le \delta$ and $N \ge (4/\epsilon)\log(4/\delta)$





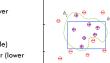
$VC(\mathcal{H}) = N$

An axis-alianed rectanale shatters 4 points only

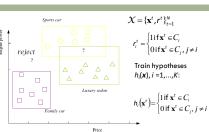
Noise and Model Complexity

Use the simpler one because

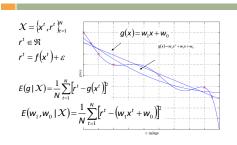
- Simpler to use (lower computational
- complexity)
- Easier to train (lower space complexity)
- Easier to explain
- (more interpretable)
- Generalizes better (lower variance - Occam's razor)











Dimensions of a Supervised Learner

- Model: $g(\mathbf{x}|\theta)$
- 2. Loss function: $E(\theta | \mathcal{X}) = \sum L(r^t, g(\mathbf{x}^t | \theta))$
- 3. Optimization procedure: $heta^* = \operatorname{argmin} E(\theta | X)$

Model Selection & Generalization

- Learning is an ill-posed problem: data is not sufficient to find a unique solution
- circ The need for inductive bias, assumptions about ${\mathcal H}$
- Generalization: How well a model performs on new data
- \square Overfitting: $\mathcal H$ more complex than C or f
- \square Underfitting: $\mathcal H$ less complex than C or f

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Triple Trade-Off

There is a trade-off between three factors (Dietterich, 2003):

INTRODUCTION

- Complexity of \mathcal{H} , c (\mathcal{H}),
- 2. Training set size, N,
- 3. Generalization error, E, on new data
- As N↑, E↓
- As c $(\mathcal{H})^{\uparrow}$, first E^{\downarrow} and then E^{\uparrow}

TO

~ w.cmpe.boun.edu.tr/~ethem/i2ml3e

MACHINE

LEARNING

3RD EDITION

Cross-Validation

- To estimate generalization error, we need data unseen during training. We split the data as
 Training set (50%)
 Validation set (25%)
- Test (publication) set (25%)
- Resampling when there is few data

Probability and Inference

- Result of tossing a coin is \in {Heads,Tails} ■ Random var $X \in \{1,0\}$ Bernoulli: $P \{X=1\} = p_o^X (1 - p_o)^{(1-X)}$ ■ Sample: $X = \{x^t\}_{t=1}^N$
- Estimation: $p_o = \# \{\text{Heads}\}/\#\{\text{Tosses}\} = \sum_t x^t / N$ \square Prediction of next toss:
 - Heads if $p_0 > \frac{1}{2}$, Tails otherwise

Classification

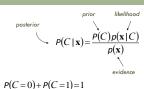
Credit scoring: Inputs are income and savings. Output is low-risk vs high-risk Input: $x = [x_1, x_2]^T$, Output: C î {0,1} Prediction: $choose \begin{cases} C=1 \text{ if } P(C=1|x_1, x_2) > 0.5 \\ C=0 \text{ otherwise} \end{cases}$ or $choose \begin{cases} C=1 \text{ if } P(C=1|x_1, x_2) > P(C=0|x_1, x_2) \\ C=0 \text{ otherwise} \end{cases}$

Bayes' Rule

ETHEM ALPAYDIN

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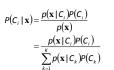


P(C = 0) + P(C = 1) = 1 $p(\mathbf{x}) = p(\mathbf{x} | C = 1)P(C = 1) + p(\mathbf{x} | C = 0)P(C = 0)$ $p(C = 0 | \mathbf{x}) + P(C = 1 | \mathbf{x}) = 1$

Bayes' Rule: K>2 Classes

CHAPTER 3:

THEORY



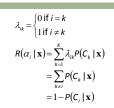
BAYESIAN DECISION

 $P(C_i) \ge 0$ and $\sum_{i=1}^{k} P(C_i) = 1$ choose C_i if $P(C_i | \mathbf{x}) = \max_k P(C_k | \mathbf{x})$

Losses and Risks

Actions: α_i Loss of α_i when the state is C_k : λ_{ik} Expected risk (Duda and Hart, 1973) R(α_i | **x**) = ∑^κ_{k=1} λ_{ik} P(C_k | **x**) chooseα_i if R(α_i | **x**) = min_kR(α_k | **x**)

Losses and Risks: 0/1 Loss



For minimum risk, choose the most probable class

Losses and Risks: Reject

 $R(\alpha_{K+1} | \mathbf{x}) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \lambda P(C_k | \mathbf{x}) = \lambda$

 $R(\alpha_i | \mathbf{x}) = \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} P(C_k | \mathbf{x}) = 1 - P(C_i | \mathbf{x})$

choose C_i if $P(C_i | \mathbf{x}) > P(C_k | \mathbf{x})$ $\forall k \neq i$ and $P(C_i | \mathbf{x}) > 1 - \lambda$

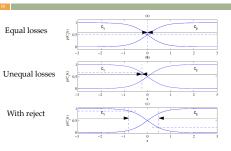
 $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & \text{if } i = k \end{bmatrix}$

1 otherwise

 $\lambda_{ik} = \begin{cases} \lambda & \text{if } i = K+1, \quad 0 < \lambda < 1 \end{cases}$

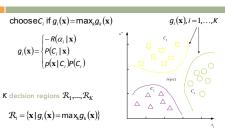
otherwise

Different Losses and Reject

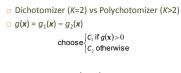


Discriminant Functions

Association measures



K=2 Classes





Utility Theory

reject

 Prob of state k given exidence x: P (S_k | x)
 Utility of α_i when state is k: U_{ik}
 Expected utility: EU(α_i | x) = ∑_kU_kP(S_k | x) Choose α_i if EU(α_i | x)=maxEU(α_i | x)

Apriori algorithm (Agrawal et al., 1996)

- For (X,Y,Z), a 3-item set, to be frequent (have enough support), (X,Y), (X,Z), and (Y,Z) should be frequent.
- If (X,Y) is not frequent, none of its supersets can be frequent.
- $\hfill\square$ Once we find the frequent k-item sets, we convert them to rules: X, Y \rightarrow Z, ...

and $X \rightarrow Y$, Z, ...

Association Rules

 \square Association rule: X \rightarrow Y

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- People who buy/click/visit/enjoy X are also likely to buy/click/visit/enjoy Y.
- □ A rule implies association, not necessarily causation.

• Support (X \rightarrow Y):				
	tomerswho bought X and Y} #{customers}			
□ Confidence $(X \to Y)$: $P(Y X) = \frac{P(X, Y)}{P(X)}$				
□ Lift (X → Y): = $\frac{P(X,Y)}{P(X)P(Y)} = \frac{P(Y \mid X)}{P(Y)}$	<pre>#{customerswho bought X and Y} #{customerswho bought X}</pre>			

Example

SOLU

Transaction	Items in basket
1	milk, bananas, chocolate
2	milk, chocolate
3	milk, bananas
4	chocolate
5	chocolate
6	milk, chocolate

milk → bananas bananas → milk	:	Support = 2/6, Confidence = 2/4 Support = 2/6, Confidence = 2/2
milk → chocolate chocolate → milk	:	Support = 3/6, Confidence = 3/4 Support = 3/6, Confidence = 3/5



Parametric Estimation

$\square \mathcal{X} = \{ x^t \}_t \text{ where } x^t \sim p(x)$

Parametric estimation:
 Assume a form for ρ (x | θ) and estimate θ, its sufficient statistics, using X
 e.g., N (μ, σ²) where θ = {μ, σ²}

Maximum Likelihood Estimation

□ Likelihood of θ given the sample \mathcal{X} $I(\theta | \mathcal{X}) = \rho (\mathcal{X} | \theta) = \prod_{t} \rho (x^{t} | \theta)$

□ Log likelihood $\mathcal{L}(\theta \mid X) = \log I \ (\theta \mid X) = \sum_{t} \log p \ (x^{t} \mid \theta)$

 $\label{eq:maximum} \begin{array}{l} \square \mbox{ Maximum likelihood estimator (MLE)} \\ \theta^* = \mathrm{argmax}_{\theta} \, \mathcal{L}(\theta \,|\, \mathcal{X}) \end{array}$

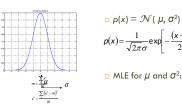
Examples: Bernoulli/Multinomial

■ Bernoulli: Two states, failure/success, x in {0,1} $P(x) = \rho_o^{x}(1 - \rho_o)^{(1-x)}$ $\mathcal{L}(\rho_o|X) = \log \prod_i \rho_o^{x^i}(1 - \rho_o)^{(1-x^i)}$ MLE: $\rho_o = \sum_i x^i / N$

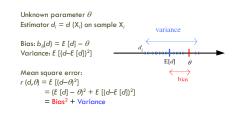
 $\begin{array}{l} & \mbox{Multinomial: } K > 2 \mbox{ states, } x_i \mbox{ in } \{0,1\} \\ & \mbox{P}(x_1, x_{2^{p-n}, X_K}) = \prod_i p_i^{x_i} \\ & \mbox{\mathcal{L}}(p_1, p_{2^{p-n}, P_K} \mid X) = \log \prod_i \prod_i p_i^{x_i'} \\ & \mbox{MLE: } p_i = \sum_i x_i' \mid N \end{array}$

Gaussian (Normal) Distribution

 $2\sigma^2$



Bias and Variance



Bayes' Estimator

Likelihood

Posteriors with equal prior

0.0 C

0.2

Equal variances

Sinale boundary at

halfway between mean

Bayes' Estimator: Example

$$\mathbf{x}^{t} \sim \mathcal{N}(\theta, \sigma_{o}^{2}) \text{ and } \theta \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^{2})$$

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}_{\mathsf{ML}} = m$$

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}_{\mathsf{MAP}} = \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\mathsf{Bcyes}^{*}} = \frac{N/\sigma_{0}^{2}}{E[\theta | \mathcal{X}]} = \frac{N/\sigma_{0}^{2}}{N/\sigma_{0}^{2} + 1/\sigma^{2}} m + \frac{1/\sigma^{2}}{N/\sigma_{0}^{2} + 1/\sigma^{2}} \mu$$

Likelihood

Posteriors with equal prior

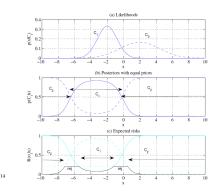
 $\frac{0.0}{D_{0}^{-1}} = \frac{0.6}{0.4}$

Variances are differen

Two boundarie

Parametric Classification

 $g_{i}(x) = p(x | C_{i})P(C_{i})$ or $g_{i}(x) = \log p(x | C_{i}) + \log P(C_{i})$ $p(x | C_{i}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_{i}}} \exp \left[-\frac{(x - \mu_{i})^{2}}{2\sigma_{i}^{2}}\right]$ $g_{i}(x) = -\frac{1}{2}\log 2\pi - \log \sigma_{i} - \frac{(x - \mu_{i})^{2}}{2\sigma_{i}^{2}} + \log P(C_{i})$



Polynomial Regression

$g(x^{t} w_{k}, \dots, w_{2}, w_{1}, w_{0}) = w_{k}(x^{t})^{k} + \dots + w_{2}(x^{t})^{2} + w_{1}x^{t} + w_{0}$							
$\mathbf{D} = \begin{bmatrix} 1\\1\\\vdots\\1 \end{bmatrix}$	x^{1} x^{2} x^{N}	$(x^1)^2 (x^2)^2 (x^N)^2$	 	$ \begin{pmatrix} (x^{1})^{k} \\ (x^{2})^{k} \\ (x^{N})^{2} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{r} = \begin{bmatrix} r^{1} \\ r^{2} \\ \vdots \\ r^{N} \end{bmatrix} $			
$\mathbf{w} = \left(\mathbf{D}^{T}\mathbf{D}\right)^{-1}\mathbf{D}^{T}\mathbf{r}$							

Bias/Variance Dilemma

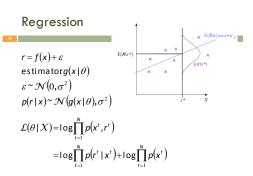
- Example: $g_i(x)=2$ has no variance and high bias $g_i(x)=\sum_i r_i^i/N$ has lower bias with variance
- As we increase complexity, bias decreases (a better fit to data) and variance increases (fit varies more with data)
 Bias/Variance dilemma: (Geman et al., 1992)

Given the sample $X = \{x^t, r^t\}_{t=1}^N$ $X \in \Re$ $r_i^t = \begin{cases} \lim_{t \to T} x^t \in C_i \\ 0 \text{ if } x^t \in C_j, j \neq i \end{cases}$

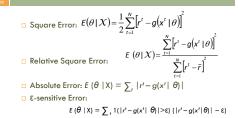


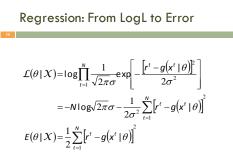
$$\hat{P}(C_{i}) = \frac{\sum_{t} r_{i}^{t}}{N} \quad m_{i} = \frac{\sum_{t} x^{t} r_{i}^{t}}{\sum_{t} r_{i}^{t}} \quad s_{i}^{2} = \frac{\sum_{t} (x^{t} - m_{i})^{2} r_{i}^{t}}{\sum_{t} r_{i}^{t}}$$

Discriminant
$$g_i(x) = -\frac{1}{2}\log 2\pi - \log s_i - \frac{(x-m_i)^2}{2s_i^2} + \log \hat{P}(C_i)$$



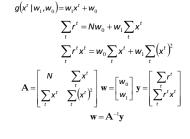
Other Error Measures





Bias and Variance

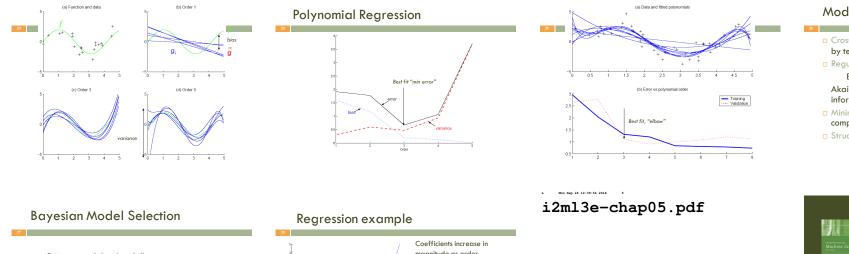




Linear Regression

Estimating Bias and Variance

■ M samples X_i={x^t_i, r^t_i}, i=1,...,M are used to fit g_i(x), i = 1,...,M Biaŝ(g) = $\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} \left[\overline{g}(x^{i}) - f(x^{i}) \right]^{2}$ Varianc $(g) = \frac{1}{NM} \sum_{i} \sum_{j} \left[g_{j}(x^{i}) - \overline{g}(x^{i}) \right]^{2}$ $\overline{g}(x) = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{j} \sum_{j} (g_{j}(x))$



Prior on models, p(model) p(model|data) = p(data|mode)p(mode) p(data)

 $\hfill\square$ Regularization, when prior favors simpler models

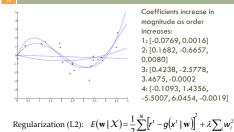
Bayes, MAP of the posterior, p(model | data)
 Average over a number of models with high

posterior (voting, ensembles: Chapter 17)

CHAPTER 5: MULTIVARIATE METHODS

Estimation of Missing Values

- What to do if certain instances have missing attributes?
- Ignore those instances: not a good idea if the sample is small
- $\hfill\square$ Use 'missing' as an attribute: may give information
- Imputation: Fill in the missing value
- Mean imputation: Use the most likely value (e.g., mean)
- Imputation by regression: Predict based on other attributes



1-1

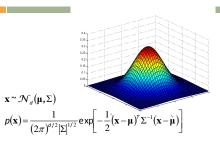
Multivariate Data

Multiple measurements (sensors)
 d inputs/features/attributes: d-variate

□ N instances/observations/examples



Multivariate Normal Distribution

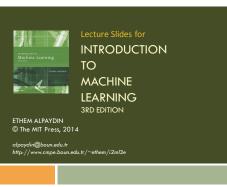




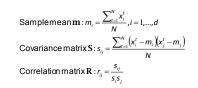
$\begin{aligned} \mathsf{Mean} &: \mathcal{E}[\mathbf{x}] = \boldsymbol{\mu} = [\mu_1, \dots, \mu_d]^T \\ \mathsf{Covariance} : \sigma_{ij} &= \mathsf{Cov}(\boldsymbol{X}_i, \boldsymbol{X}_j) \end{aligned}$ $\begin{aligned} \mathsf{Correlation} : \mathsf{Corr}(\boldsymbol{X}_i, \boldsymbol{X}_i) &= \rho_{ij} = \frac{\sigma_{ij}}{\sigma_i \sigma_j} \\ & \Sigma &= \mathsf{Cov}(\mathbf{X}) = \mathcal{E}[(\mathbf{X} - \boldsymbol{\mu})(\mathbf{X} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T] = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & \sigma_{12} & \cdots & \sigma_{1d} \\ \sigma_{21} & \sigma_2^2 & \cdots & \sigma_{2d} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \sigma_{d1} & \sigma_{d2} & \cdots & \sigma_d^2 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$

Model Selection

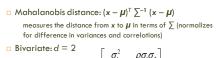
- Cross-validation: Measure generalization accuracy by testing on data unused during training
- Regularization: Penalize complex models
 E'=error on data + λ model complexity
 Akaike's information criterion (AIC), Bayesian
- information criterion (BIC) Minimum description length (MDL): Kolmogorov
- complexity, shortest description of data
- Structural risk minimization (SRM)



Parameter Estimation



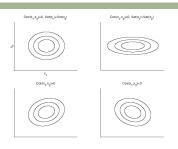
Multivariate Normal Distribution



 $\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & \rho \sigma_1 \sigma_2 \\ \rho \sigma_1 \sigma_2 & \sigma_2^2 \end{bmatrix}$

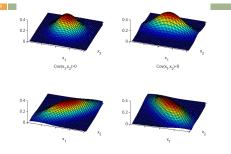
 $p(x_1, x_2) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_1\sigma_2\sqrt{1-\rho^2}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2(1-\rho^2)}(z_1^2 - 2\rho z_1 z_2 + z_2^2)\right]$ $z_i = (x_i - \mu_i) / \sigma_i$

Bivariate Normal



 $Cov(x_1, x_2)=0, Var(x_1)=Var(x_2)$





Independent Inputs: Naive Bayes

 \square If x; are independent, offdiagonals of \sum are 0, Mahalanobis distance reduces to weighted (by $1/\sigma_i$) Euclidean distance:

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \prod_{i=1}^{d} p_i(\mathbf{x}_i) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{d/2}} \prod_{i=1}^{d} \sigma_i \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{d} \left(\frac{\mathbf{x}_i - \mu_i}{\sigma_i}\right)^2\right]$$

□ If variances are also equal, reduces to Euclidean distance

Parametric Classification

 $p(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{C}_i) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{d/2} |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i|^{1/2}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_i)^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_i)\right]$

 $=-\frac{d}{2}\log 2\pi - \frac{1}{2}\log |\Sigma_i| - \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \mu_i)^T \Sigma_i^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \mu_i) + \log P(C_i)$

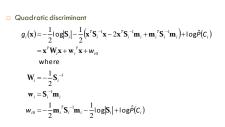
 $\square \text{ If } p(\mathbf{x} \mid C_i) \sim N(\boldsymbol{\mu}_i, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i)$

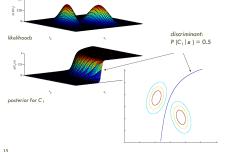
 Discriminant functions $g_i(\mathbf{x}) = \log p(\mathbf{x} | C_i) + \log P(C_i)$

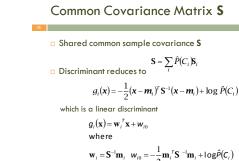
Estimation of Parameters

$$\hat{P}(\mathbf{C}_{i}) = \frac{\sum_{t} r_{i}^{t}}{N}$$
$$\mathbf{m}_{i} = \frac{\sum_{t} r_{i}^{t} \mathbf{x}^{t}}{\sum_{t} r_{i}^{t}}$$
$$\mathbf{S}_{i} = \frac{\sum_{t} r_{i}^{t} (\mathbf{x}^{t} - \mathbf{m}_{i}) (\mathbf{x}^{t} - \mathbf{m}_{i})^{T}}{\sum_{t} r_{i}^{t}}$$
$$g_{i}(\mathbf{x}) = -\frac{1}{2} \log |\mathbf{S}_{i}| - \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m}_{i})^{T} \mathbf{S}_{i}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m}_{i}) + \log \hat{P}(\mathbf{C}_{i})$$

Different S







Diagonal S, equal variances

н

Nearest mean classifier: Classify based on Euclidean distance to the nearest mean

$$g_{i}(\mathbf{x}) = -\frac{\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m}_{i}\|^{2}}{2s^{2}} + \log \hat{P}(C_{i})$$
$$= -\frac{1}{2s^{2}} \sum_{j=1}^{d} (x_{j}^{t} - m_{ij})^{2} + \log \hat{P}(C_{i})$$

Each mean can be considered a prototype or template and this is template matching

Discrete Features

□ Binary features: $p_{ij} \equiv p(x_j=1|C_i)$ if x_i are independent (Naive Bayes')

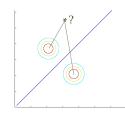
$$p(x | C_i) = \prod_{j=1}^{d} p_{ij}^{x_j} (1 - p_{ij})^{(1-x_j)}$$

the discriminant is linear $g_i(\mathbf{x}) = \log p(\mathbf{x} | C_i) + \log P(C_i)$ $= \sum \left[x_{i} \log p_{ii} + (1 - x_{i}) \log (1 - p_{ii}) \right] + \log P(C_{i})$ Estimated parameters

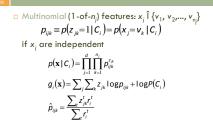


Common Covariance Matrix S

Diagonal S, equal variances



Discrete Features



Diagonal S

□ When $x_i j = 1, ...d$, are independent, \sum is diagonal $p(\mathbf{x} | C_i) = \prod_i p(x_i | C_i)$ (Naive Bayes' assumption)

$$g_i(\mathbf{x}) = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{d} \left(\frac{x_j^t - m_{ij}}{s_j} \right)^2 + \log \hat{P}(C_i)$$

Classify based on weighted Euclidean distance (in s; units) to the nearest mean

Model Selection

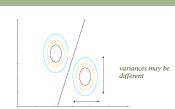
Assumption	Covariance matrix	No of parameters
Shared, Hyperspheric	$S_i = S = s^2 I$	1
Shared, Axis-aligned	$S_i = S$, with $s_{ij} = 0$	d
Shared, Hyperellipsoidal	S,=S	d(d+1)/2
Different, Hyperellipsoidal	S,	K d(d+1)/2

□ As we increase complexity (less restricted **S**), bias decreases and variance increases

Assume simple models (allow some bias) to control variance (regularization)

Diagonal S

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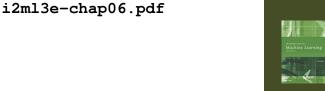


Multivariate Regression

 $r^{t} = g(x^{t} | w_{0}, w_{1}, \dots, w_{d}) + \varepsilon$ Multivariate linear model $W_0 + W_1 X_1^t + W_2 X_2^t + \dots + W_d X_d^t$ $E(w_0, w_1, ..., w_d | \mathcal{X}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{u} [r^t - w_0 - w_1 x_1^t - \dots - w_d x_d^t]^2$ Multivariate polynomial model: Define new higher-order variables $z_1 = x_1, z_2 = x_2, z_3 = x_1^2, z_4 = x_2^2, z_5 = x_1 x_2$ and use the linear model in this new z space (basis functions, kernel trick: Chapter 13)

Why Reduce Dimensionality?

- Reduces time complexity: Less computation
- Reduces space complexity: Fewer parameters
- Saves the cost of observing the feature
- Simpler models are more robust on small datasets
- More interpretable; simpler explanation
- Data visualization (structure, groups, outliers, etc) if plotted in 2 or 3 dimensions



TO MACHINE LEARNING **3RD EDITION** ETHEM ALPAYDIN © The MIT Press, 2014 alpaydin@boun.edu.tr http://www.cmpe.boun.edu.tr/~ethem/i2ml3e

INTRODUCTION

Subset Selection

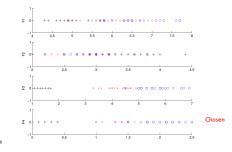
- □ There are 2^d subsets of d features
- Forward search: Add the best feature at each step □ Set of features F initially Ø. □ At each iteration, find the best new feature $j = \operatorname{argmin}_i E(F \cup x_i)$
- $\Box \operatorname{Add} x_i \text{ to } F \text{ if } E(F \cup x_i) < E(F)$
- Hill-climbing O(d²) algorithm □ Backward search: Start with all features and remove one at a time, if possible.
- \Box Floating search (Add k, remove I)

CHAPTER 6:

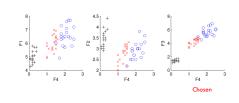
DIMENSIONALITY

REDUCTION

Iris data: Single feature



Iris data: Add one more feature to F4



How to choose k?

Proportion of Variance (PoV) explained

$$\frac{\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \dots + \lambda_k}{\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \dots + \lambda_k + \dots + \lambda_d}$$

when λ_i are sorted in descending order

- □ Typically, stop at PoV>0.9
- Scree graph plots of PoV vs k, stop at "elbow"

Principal Components Analysis

new k < d dimensions, z_i , j = 1, ..., k

□ Find a low-dimensional space such that when **x** is projected there, information loss is minimized.

The projection of x on the direction of w is: $z = w^T x$

□ Find w such that Var(z) is maximized $Var(z) = Var(w^T x) = E[(w^T x - w^T \mu)^2]$ $= \mathsf{E}[(\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\boldsymbol{\mu})(\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\boldsymbol{\mu})]$ $= \mathsf{E}[\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{w}]$ $= \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathsf{E}[(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{\mathsf{T}}]\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \sum \mathbf{w}$ where $\operatorname{Var}(\mathbf{x}) = \operatorname{E}[(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{\mathrm{T}}] = \sum$

(a) Scree graph for Optdigit

₿ 0.6

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□ Maximize Var(z) subject to | | w | |=1 $\max \mathbf{w}_1^T \Sigma \mathbf{w}_1 - \alpha (\mathbf{w}_1^T \mathbf{w}_1 - 1)$

 $\sum w_1 = \alpha w_1$ that is, w_1 is an eigenvector of \sum Choose the one with the largest eigenvalue for Var(z) to be max

□ Second principal component: Max $Var(z_2)$, s.t., $||\mathbf{w}_2||=1$ and orthogonal to \mathbf{w}_1

 $\max \mathbf{w}_{2}^{\mathsf{T}} \Sigma \mathbf{w}_{2} - \alpha \left(\mathbf{w}_{2}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{w}_{2} - 1 \right) - \beta \left(\mathbf{w}_{2}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{w}_{1} - 0 \right)$

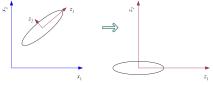
 $\sum w_2 = \alpha w_2$ that is, w_2 is another eigenvector of \sum and so on.

What PCA does

$z = W^T(x - m)$

where the columns of **W** are the eigenvectors of Σ and *m* is sample mean

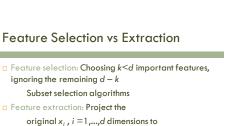
Centers the data at the origin and rotates the axes



Feature Embedding

- When X is the Nxd data matrix,
- $\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{X}$ is the dxd matrix (covariance of features, if meancentered)
- XX^T is the NxN matrix (pairwise similarities of instances) PCA uses the eigenvectors of X^TX which are d-dim and can be used for projection
- Feature embedding uses the eigenvectors of XX^T which are N-dim and which give directly the coordinates after projection
- Sometimes, we can define pairwise similarities (or distances) between instances, then we can use feature embedding without needing to represent instances as vectors.

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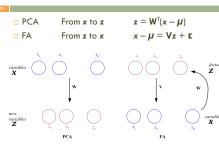
Factor Analysis

Matrix Factorization

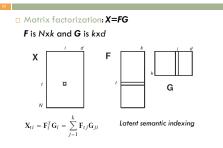
Find a small number of factors z, which when combined generate **x** : $\mathbf{x}_{i} - \mu_{i} = \mathbf{v}_{i1}\mathbf{z}_{1} + \mathbf{v}_{i2}\mathbf{z}_{2} + \dots + \mathbf{v}_{ik}\mathbf{z}_{k} + \mathbf{\varepsilon}_{i}$

where $z_{ij} = 1, ..., k$ are the latent factors with $E[z_i]=0, Var(z_i)=1, Cov(z_i, z_i)=0, i \neq j$ E are the noise sources $E[\epsilon_i] = \psi_i, \operatorname{Cov}(\epsilon_i, \epsilon_i) = 0, i \neq j, \operatorname{Cov}(\epsilon_i, z_i) = 0,$ and v_{ii} are the factor loadings

PCA vs FA



Multidimensional Scaling



Between-class scatter:

 $(m_1 - m_2)^2 = (\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{m}_1 - \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{m}_2)^2$ $= \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} (\mathbf{m}_1 - \mathbf{m}_2) (\mathbf{m}_1 - \mathbf{m}_2)^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{w}$ $= \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{S}_{\mathsf{B}} \mathbf{w}$ where $\mathbf{S}_{\mathsf{B}} = (\mathbf{m}_1 - \mathbf{m}_2)(\mathbf{m}_1 - \mathbf{m}_2)^{\mathsf{T}}$

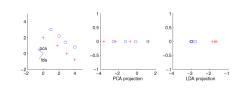
Within-class scatter: $c^2 = \sum \left(\mathbf{r} \mathbf{r}^T \mathbf{r}^$

$$s_{1}^{*} = \sum_{t} (\mathbf{w}^{T} \mathbf{x}^{*} - \mathbf{m}_{1}) \mathbf{r}^{*}$$

$$= \sum_{t} \mathbf{w}^{T} (\mathbf{x}^{t} - \mathbf{m}_{1}) (\mathbf{x}^{t} - \mathbf{m}_{1})^{T} \mathbf{w} \mathbf{r}^{t} = \mathbf{w}^{T} \mathbf{S}_{1} \mathbf{w}$$
where $\mathbf{S}_{1} = \sum_{t} (\mathbf{x}^{t} - \mathbf{m}_{1}) (\mathbf{x}^{t} - \mathbf{m}_{1})^{T} \mathbf{r}^{t}$

$$s_{1}^{2} + s_{1}^{2} = \mathbf{w}^{T} \mathbf{S}_{W} \mathbf{w} \text{ where } \mathbf{S}_{W} = \mathbf{S}_{1} + \mathbf{S}_{2}$$
²³

PCA vs LDA



Given pairwise distances between N points, $d_{ii}, i, j = 1, ..., N$ place on a low-dim map s.t. distances are preserved (by feature embedding) $\Box z = g(x | \theta)$ Find θ that min Sammon stress $E(\theta \mid \mathcal{X}) = \sum_{r,s} \frac{(\|\mathbf{z}^{r} - \mathbf{z}^{s}\| - \|\mathbf{x}^{r} - \mathbf{x}^{s}\|)^{2}}{\|\mathbf{x}^{r} - \mathbf{x}^{s}\|^{2}}$ $=\sum_{r,s}\frac{\left(\left\|\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^{r}\mid\boldsymbol{\theta})-\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^{s}\mid\boldsymbol{\theta})\right\|-\left\|\mathbf{x}^{r}-\mathbf{x}^{s}\right\|\right)^{2}}{\left\|\mathbf{x}^{r}-\mathbf{x}^{s}\right\|^{2}}$

Fisher's Linear Discriminant

Find w that max $J(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{S}_{\mathsf{B}} \mathbf{w}}{\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{S}_{\mathsf{W}} \mathbf{w}} = \frac{\left|\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} (\mathbf{m}_{1} - \mathbf{m}_{2})\right|^{2}}{\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{S}_{\mathsf{W}} \mathbf{w}}$

LDA soln:

Parametric soln: $\mathbf{w} = \Sigma^{-1} (\boldsymbol{\mu}_1 - \boldsymbol{\mu}_2)$

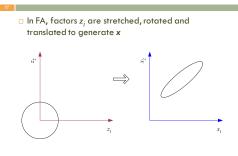
when $p(\mathbf{x}|C_i) \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_i, \Sigma)$

Canonical Correlation Analysis

- $\square X = \{x^t, y^t\}_t$; two sets of variables x and y x
- \Box We want to find two projections **w** and **v** st when **x** is projected along w and y is projected along v, the correlation is maximized:

$$\begin{split} \rho &= \operatorname{Corr}(\boldsymbol{w}^T\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{v}^T\boldsymbol{y}) = \frac{\operatorname{Cov}(\boldsymbol{w}^T\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{v}^T\boldsymbol{y})}{\sqrt{\operatorname{Var}(\boldsymbol{v}^T\boldsymbol{x})}\sqrt{\operatorname{Var}(\boldsymbol{v}^T\boldsymbol{y})}} \\ &= \frac{\boldsymbol{w}^T\operatorname{Cov}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})\boldsymbol{v}}{\sqrt{\boldsymbol{w}^T\operatorname{Var}(\boldsymbol{x})\boldsymbol{w}}\sqrt{\boldsymbol{v}^T\operatorname{Var}(\boldsymbol{y})\boldsymbol{v}}} = \frac{\boldsymbol{w}^T\boldsymbol{S}_{\boldsymbol{x}\boldsymbol{y}}\boldsymbol{v}}{\sqrt{\boldsymbol{w}^T\boldsymbol{S}_{\boldsymbol{y}\boldsymbol{y}}}\sqrt{\boldsymbol{w}^T\boldsymbol{S}_{\boldsymbol{y}\boldsymbol{y}}}} \end{split}$$

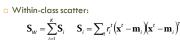
Factor Analysis



Map of Europe by MDS



K>2 Classes



Between-class scatter:

$$\mathbf{S}_{s} = \sum_{i=1}^{k} N_{i} (\mathbf{m}_{i} - \mathbf{m}) (\mathbf{m}_{i} - \mathbf{m})^{\mathrm{T}} \qquad \mathbf{m} = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i=1}^{k} \mathbf{m}_{i}$$

Find W that max $J(\mathbf{W}) = \frac{|\mathbf{W}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{S}_{u} \mathbf{W}|}{|\mathbf{W}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{S}_{u} \mathbf{W}|}$

The largest eigenvectors of $S_{w}^{-1}S_{s}$ maximum rank of K-1

CCA

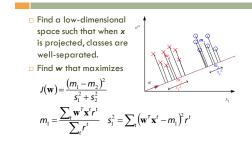
• x and y may be two different views or modalities; e.g., image and word tags, and CCA does a joint mapping

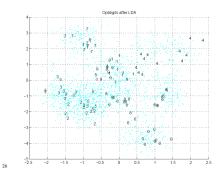
Singular Value Decomposition and Matrix Factorization

□ Singular value decomposition: X=VAW^T

- V is NxN and contains the eigenvectors of XX^T **W** is dxd and contains the eigenvectors of $\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{X}$ and A is Nxd and contains singular values on its first k diaaonal
- \square **X**= $\mathbf{u}_1 \alpha_1 \mathbf{v}_1^T$ +...+ $\mathbf{u}_k \alpha_k \mathbf{v}_k^T$ where k is the rank of **X**

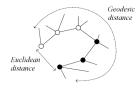
Linear Discriminant Analysis

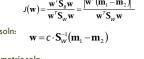




Isomap

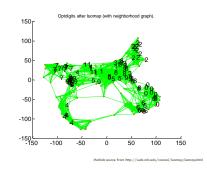
Geodesic distance is the distance along the manifold that the data lies in, as opposed to the Euclidean distance in the input space





Isomap

- Instances r and s are connected in the graph if $||\mathbf{x}^r \cdot \mathbf{x}^s|| < \varepsilon$ or if \mathbf{x}^s is one of the k neighbors of \mathbf{x}^r The edge length is $||\mathbf{x}^{r} \cdot \mathbf{x}^{s}||$
- For two nodes r and s not connected, the distance is equal to the shortest path between them
- □ Once the NxN distance matrix is thus formed, use MDS to find a lower-dimensional mapping



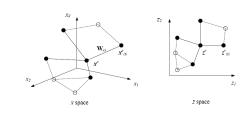
Locally Linear Embedding

- Given \mathbf{x}^r find its neighbors $\mathbf{x}^{s}_{(r)}$
- Find W_{rs} that minimize

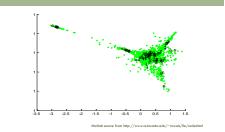
$$E(\mathbf{W} \mid \boldsymbol{X}) = \sum_{r} \left\| \mathbf{x}^{r} - \sum_{s} \mathbf{W}_{rs} \mathbf{x}_{(r)}^{s} \right\|^{2}$$

3. Find the new coordinates \mathbf{z}^{r} that minimize

$$E(\mathbf{z} \mid \mathbf{W}) = \sum_{r} \left\| z^{r} - \sum_{s} \mathbf{W}_{rs} z^{s}_{(r)} \right\|^{2}$$



LLE on Optdigits



INTRODUCTION

TO

. w.cmpe.boun.edu.tr/~ethem/i2ml3e

MACHINE

LEARNING

3RD EDITION

Laplacian Eigenmaps

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 \Box Let r and s be two instances and B_{re} is their similarity, we want to find \mathbf{z}^r and \mathbf{z}^s that

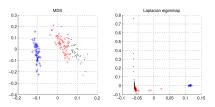
$$\min\sum_{r,s} \|\boldsymbol{z}^r - \boldsymbol{z}^s\|^2 B_{rs}$$

 \square B_{rs} can be defined in terms of similarity in an original space: 0 if x^r and x^s are too far, otherwise



Defines a graph Laplacian, and feature embedding returns **z**^r

Laplacian Eigenmaps on Iris



Spectral clustering (chapter 7)

Semiparametric Density Estimation

- \square Parametric: Assume a single model for $p(\mathbf{x} \mid C_i)$ (Chapters 4 and 5)
- Semiparametric: $p(\mathbf{x} | C_i)$ is a mixture of densities Multiple possible explanations/prototypes: Different handwriting styles, accents in speech
- □ Nonparametric: No model; data speaks for itself (Chapter 8)

Mixture Densities

i2ml3e-chap07.pdf

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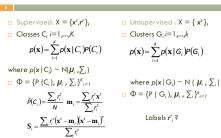
 $p(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} p(\mathbf{x} | G_i) P(G_i)$ where G_i the components/groups/clusters, $P(G_i)$ mixture proportions (priors), $p(\mathbf{x} \mid G_i)$ component densities Gaussian mixture where $p(\mathbf{x} | G_i) \sim N(\mathbf{\mu}_i, \sum_i)$ parameters $\Phi = \{P (G_i), \mu_i, \sum_i\}_{i=1}^k$ unlabeled sample $X = \{x^t\}_t$ (unsupervised learning)

Classes vs. Clusters

ETHEM ALPAYDIN

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k-Means Clustering

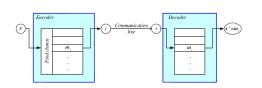
CHAPTER 7:

CLUSTERING

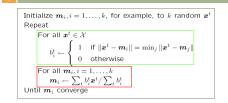
 \Box Find k reference vectors (prototypes/codebook vectors/codewords) which best represent data \square Reference vectors, $m_{ij} = 1, ..., k$ Use nearest (most similar) reference: $\|\mathbf{x}^t - \mathbf{m}_i\| = \min \|\mathbf{x}^t - \mathbf{m}_i\|$ • Reconstruction error $E(\{\mathbf{m}_i\}_{i=1}^k | \mathcal{X}) = \sum_{t} \sum_{i=1}^k b_i^t \| \mathbf{x}^t - \mathbf{m}_i \|$

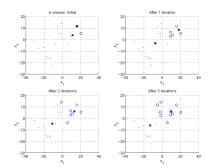
 $\boldsymbol{b}_{i}^{t} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if} \| \mathbf{x}^{t} - \mathbf{m}_{i} \| = \min_{j} \| \mathbf{x}^{t} - \mathbf{m}_{j} \| \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$





k-means Clustering





EM solution

Expectation-Maximization (EM)

Log likelihood with a mixture model

 $\mathcal{L}(\Phi | \mathcal{X}) = \log \prod p(\mathbf{x}^t | \Phi)$

- $= \sum_{i} \log \sum_{i} p(\mathbf{x}^{t} \mid G_{i}) P(G_{i})$ □ Assume hidden variables¹z, which when known, make optimization much simpler
- Complete likelihood, $L_c(\Phi \mid X, Z)$, in terms of x and z

Mixtures of Latent Variable Models

1. Assume shared/diagonal covariance matrices

2. Use PCA/FA to decrease dimensionality: Mixtures

 $p(\mathbf{x}_{i} | G_{i}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{m}_{i}, \mathbf{V}_{i}\mathbf{V}_{i}^{T} + \boldsymbol{\psi}_{i})$

Can use EM to learn V; (Ghahramani and Hinton,

1997; Tipping and Bishop, 1999)

□ Incomplete likelihood, $L(\Phi | X)$, in terms of x

E- and M-steps

Iterate the two steps

1. E-step: Estimate z given X and current Φ 2. M-step: Find new Φ ' given z, X, and old Φ .

> E-step: $\mathcal{Q}(\Phi | \Phi') = E[\mathcal{L}_{r}(\Phi | X, Z) | X, \Phi']$ $M-step: \Phi^{l+1} = \arg\max_{\Phi} \mathcal{Q}(\Phi \mid \Phi^{l})$

An increase in Q increases incomplete likelihood $\mathcal{L}(\Phi^{\prime+1} | \chi) \geq \mathcal{L}(\Phi^{\prime} | \chi)$

After Clustering

- Dimensionality reduction methods find correlations between features and group features
- Clustering methods find similarities between instances and group instances
- Allows knowledge extraction through number of clusters. prior probabilities,

cluster parameters, i.e., center, range of features. Example: CRM, customer segmentation

EM in Gaussian Mixtures

 $\Box z_i^t = 1$ if x_i^t belongs to G_i , 0 otherwise (labels r_i^t of supervised learning); assume $p(\mathbf{x} | \mathbf{G}_i) \sim N(\boldsymbol{\mu}_i, \sum_i)$ (... 1)-(-) n F-

E-step:
$$E[z_i^r | \mathcal{X}, \Phi^r] = \frac{p(\mathbf{x}^r | G_i, \Phi^r) P(G_i)}{\sum_j p(\mathbf{x}^r | G_j, \Phi^r) P(G_j)}$$
$$= P(G_i | \mathbf{x}^r, \Phi^r) = h_i^r$$

M-step:
$$P(G_i) = \frac{\sum_i h_i^r}{N} \quad \mathbf{m}_i^{r+1} = \frac{\sum_i h_i^r \mathbf{x}^r}{\sum_j h_i^r} \qquad \text{Use estimated labels in place of unknown labe}$$

vn labels

Agglomerative Clustering

two closest groups at each iteration

Single-link:

Complete-link:

Average-link, centroid

Distance between two groups G; and G;

- **Estimated group labels** h_i (soft) or b_i (hard) may be seen as the dimensions of a new k dimensional space, where we can then learn our discriminant or regressor.
- □ Local representation (only one b; is 1, all others are 0; only few h_i are nonzero) vs Distributed representation (After PCA; all z_i are nonzero)

Start with N groups each with one instance and merge

 $d(G_i,G_j) = \min_{\mathbf{x}' \in G_i, \mathbf{x}^s \in G_i} d(\mathbf{x}',\mathbf{x}^s)$

 $d(G_i, G_j) = \max_{i \in \mathcal{A}} d(\mathbf{x}^i, \mathbf{x}^s)$

 $d(G_i,G_j) = \sup_{\mathbf{x}' \in G_i, \mathbf{x}^s \in G_j} d(\mathbf{x}',\mathbf{x}^s)$

Mixture of Mixtures

 $P(G_1 | x) = h_1 = 0.5$

- In classification, the input comes from a mixture of classes (supervised).
- If each class is also a mixture, e.g., of Gaussians, (unsupervised), we have a mixture of mixtures:

$$p(\mathbf{x} | C_i) = \sum_{j=1}^{k_i} p(\mathbf{x} | G_{ij}) P(G_{ij})$$
$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{j=1}^{k} p(\mathbf{x} | C_i) P(C_j)$$

Spectral Clustering

Regularize clusters

of PCA/FA

- Cluster using predefined pairwise similarities B_r instead of using Euclidean or Mahalanobis distance
- Can be used even if instances not vectorially represented

Steps:

- Use Laplacian Eigenmaps (chapter 6) to map to a new \mathbf{z} space using B_{rs}
- Use k-means in this new **z** space for clustering

Hierarchical Clustering

Cluster based on similarities/distances Distance measure between instances x^r and x^s

$$d_m(\mathbf{x}^r, \mathbf{x}^s) = \left[\sum_{i=1}^d (x_i^r - x_i^s)^p\right]^{/p}$$

City-block distance

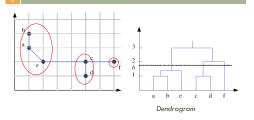
$$\boldsymbol{d}_{cb}(\mathbf{x}^{r},\mathbf{x}^{s}) = \sum_{j=1}^{d} \left| \boldsymbol{x}_{j}^{r} - \boldsymbol{x}_{j}^{s} \right|$$

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Example: Single-Link Clustering



Choosing k

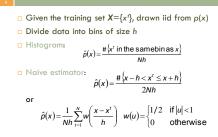
- Defined by the application, e.g., image quantization
- Plot data (after PCA) and check for clusters
- Incremental (leader-cluster) algorithm: Add one at a time until "elbow" (reconstruction error/log likelihood/intergroup distances)
- Manually check for meaning

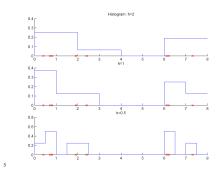
Minkowski (L_p) (Euclidean for p = 2)

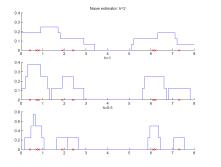
Nonparametric Estimation

- Parametric (single global model), semiparametric (small number of local models)
- Nonparametric: Similar inputs have similar outputs Functions (pdf, discriminant, regression) change smoothly
- Keep the training data;"let the data speak for itself
- Given x, find a small number of closest training instances and interpolate from these
- Aka lazy/memory-based/case-based/instancebased learning

Density Estimation



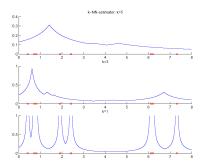




CHAPTER 8:

METHODS

NONPARAMETRIC



Condensed Nearest Neighbor

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Incremental algorithm: Add instance if needed

 $\mathcal{Z} \leftarrow \emptyset$ Repeat For all $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}$ (in random order) Find $x' \in \mathcal{Z}$ s.t. $\|x - x'\| = \min_{x^j \in \mathcal{Z}} \|x - x^j\|$ If $class(x) \neq class(x')$ add x to \mathcal{Z} Until \mathcal{Z} does not change

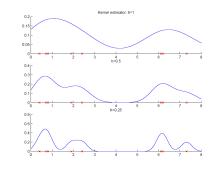
Kernel Estimator

□ Kernel function, e.g., Gaussian kernel:

$$K(u) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left[-\frac{u^2}{2}\right]$$

Kernel estimator (Parzen windows)

 $\hat{p}(x) = \frac{1}{Nh} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \mathcal{K}\left(\frac{x - x^{t}}{h}\right)$



Nonparametric Classification

 \square Estimate $p(\mathbf{x} | C_i)$ and use Bayes' rule Kernel estimator

$$\hat{\rho}(\mathbf{x} \mid C_i) = \frac{1}{N_i h^d} \sum_{t=1}^N K \left(\frac{\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^t}{h} \right)_{i}^{t} \quad \hat{\rho}(C_i) = \frac{N_i}{N}$$
$$g_i(\mathbf{x}) = \hat{\rho}(\mathbf{x} \mid C_i) \hat{\rho}(C_i) = \frac{1}{N h^d} \sum_{t=1}^N K \left(\frac{\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^t}{h} \right)_{i}^{t}$$

k-NN estimator

$$\hat{\rho}(\mathbf{x} \mid C_i) = \frac{k_i}{N_i V^k(\mathbf{x})} \quad \hat{\rho}(C_i \mid \mathbf{x}) = \frac{\hat{\rho}(\mathbf{x} \mid C_i)\hat{\rho}(C_i)}{\hat{\rho}(\mathbf{x})} = \frac{k_i}{k}$$

Learning a Distance Function

- The three-way relationship between distances, dimensionality reduction, and feature extraction.
- M=L^TL is dxd and L is kxd

 $\mathcal{D}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}^{t} | \mathbf{M}) = (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^{t})^{T} \mathbf{M}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^{t}) = (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^{t})^{T} \mathbf{L}^{T} \mathbf{L}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^{t})$ $= (\mathbf{L}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^{t}))^{T} (\mathbf{L}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^{t})) = (\mathbf{L}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{L}\mathbf{x}^{t})^{T} (\mathbf{L}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{L}\mathbf{x}^{t}))$ $= (\boldsymbol{z} - \boldsymbol{z}^t)^T (\boldsymbol{z} - \boldsymbol{z}^t) = \|\boldsymbol{z} - \boldsymbol{z}^t\|^2$

- Similarity-based representation using similarity scores
- Large-margin nearest neighbor (chapter 13)

k-Nearest Neighbor Estimator

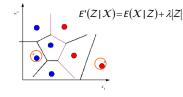
 \Box Instead of fixing bin width *h* and counting the number of instances, fix the instances (neighbors) k and check bin width

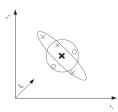
$$\hat{p}(x) = \frac{k}{2Nd_k(x)}$$

 $d_k(x)$, distance to kth closest instance to x

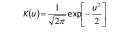
Condensed Nearest Neighbor

 \Box Time/space complexity of k-NN is O (N) □ Find a subset Z of X that is small and is accurate in classifying X (Hart, 1968)

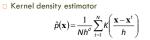




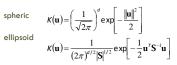
Euclidean distance (circle) is not suitable, Mahalanobis distance using an **M** (ellipse) is suitable. After the data is projected along L, Euclidean distance can be used.







Multivariate Gaussian kernel



Distance-based Classification

- \Box Find a distance function $D(\mathbf{x}^r, \mathbf{x}^s)$ such that if x^r and x^s belong to the same class, distance is small and if they belong to different classes, distance is large
- Assume a parametric model and learn its parameters using data, e.g.,

 $\mathcal{D}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}^t | \mathbf{M}) = (\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{x}^t)^T \mathbf{M} (\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{x}^t)$

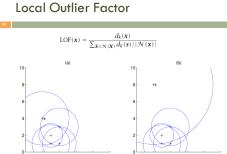
Outlier Detection

Find outlier/novelty points

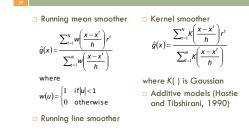
- Not a two-class problem because outliers are very few, of many types, and seldom labeled
- Instead, one-class classification problem: Find instances that have low probability
- In nonparametric case: Find instances far away from other instances

Kernel smooth: h=

4 b=0.25



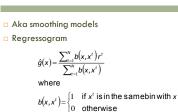
Running Mean/Kernel Smoother

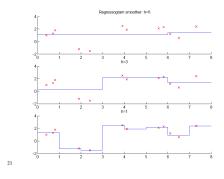


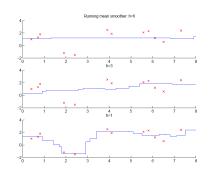
How to Choose k or h?

- When k or h is small, single instances matter; bias is small, variance is large (undersmoothing): High complexity
- As k or h increases, we average over more instances and variance decreases but bias increases (oversmoothing): Low complexity
- Cross-validation is used to finetune k or h.



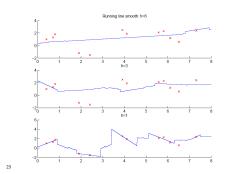




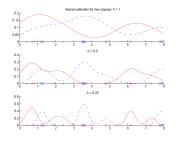


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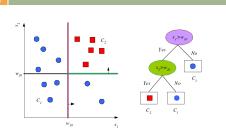
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Tree Uses Nodes and Leaves

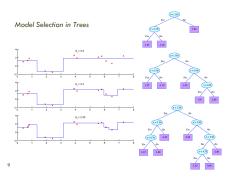


Divide and Conquer

- Internal decision nodes
 - Univariate: Uses a single attribute, x_i
 - Numeric x_i : Binary split : x_i > w_m
 - Discrete x_i : n-way split for n possible values
 Multivariate: Uses all attributes, x
- Leaves
- Leaves
- Classification: Class labels, or proportions
 Regression: Numeric; r average, or local fit
- Learning is greedy; find the best split recursively (Breiman et al, 1984; Quinlan, 1986, 1993)

Classification Trees (ID3,CART,C4.5)

For node *m*, N_m instances reach *m*, N_m^i belong to C_i $\hat{P}(C_i | \mathbf{x}, m) \equiv p'_m \equiv \frac{N_m^i}{N_m}$ Node *m* is pure if p^i_m is 0 or 1 Measure of impurity is entropy $I_m = -\sum_{i=1}^{K} p'_m | \operatorname{og}_2 p'_m$





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Best Split

Pruning Trees

(decrease variance)

Prepruning: Early stopping

overfit on the pruning set

(requires a separate pruning set)

 If node m is pure, generate a leaf and stop, otherwise split and continue recursively

Impurity after split: N_{mj} of N_m take branch j. Nⁱ_{mj} belong to C_i

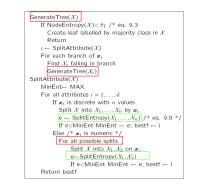
$$\hat{P}(C_i | \mathbf{x}, m, j) \equiv p_{mj}^i = \frac{N_{mj}^i}{N_{mj}} \qquad I^i_{\ m} = -\sum_{j=1}^n \frac{N_{mj}}{N_m} \sum_{i=1}^{\kappa} p_{mj}^i \log_2 p_{mj}^i$$

 Find the variable and split that min impurity (among all variables -- and split positions for numeric variables)

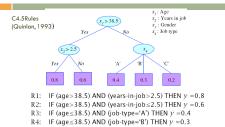
Remove subtrees for better generalization

Postpruning: Grow the whole tree then prune subtrees that

Prepruning is faster, postpruning is more accurate

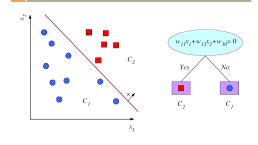


Rule Extraction from Trees



R5: IF (age \leq 38.5) AND (job-type='C') THEN y =0.2

Multivariate Trees



Likelihood- vs. Discriminant-based Classification

- Likelihood-based: Assume a model for $p(\mathbf{x} | C_i)$, use Bayes' rule to calculate $P(C_i | \mathbf{x})$
- $g_i(\mathbf{x}) = \log P(C_i \mid \mathbf{x})$
- □ Discriminant-based: Assume a model for g_i(x | Φ_i); no density estimation
- Estimating the boundaries is enough; no need to accurately estimate the densities inside the boundaries

Regression Trees

Error at node m:

 $\boldsymbol{b}_{m}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}_{m} : \mathbf{x} \text{ reaches nodem} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

$$E_m = \frac{1}{N_m} \sum_t (r^t - g_m)^2 b_m(\mathbf{x}^t) \qquad g_m = \frac{\sum_t b_m(\mathbf{x}^t) r^t}{\sum_t b_m(\mathbf{x}^t)}$$

□ After splitting: $b_{mj}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \mathbf{x} \in X_{mj} : \mathbf{x} \text{ reaches node } m \text{ and } b \text{ ranch } j \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$ $E'_{m} = \frac{1}{N_{m}} \sum_{j} \sum_{\mathbf{x}} (r^{t} - g_{mj})^{2} b_{mj}(\mathbf{x}^{t}) \quad g_{mj} = \frac{\sum_{j} b_{mj}(\mathbf{x}^{t}) r^{t}}{\sum_{i} b_{mj}(\mathbf{x}^{t})}$

Learning Rules

- Rule induction is similar to tree induction but
- tree induction is breadth-first,
- Rule set contains rules; rules are conjunctions of terms
- Rule covers an example if all terms of the rule evaluate to true for the example
- Sequential covering: Generate rules one at a time until all positive examples are covered
- IREP (Fürnkrantz and Widmer, 1994), Ripper (Cohen, 1995)

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Linear Discriminant

Linear discriminant

$\boldsymbol{g}_{i}(\mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{w}_{i}, \boldsymbol{w}_{i0}) = \mathbf{w}_{i}^{T} \mathbf{x} + \boldsymbol{w}_{i0} = \sum_{j=1}^{d} \boldsymbol{w}_{ij} \boldsymbol{x}_{j} + \boldsymbol{w}_{i0}$

- Advantages:
- Simple: O(d) space/computation
- Knowledge extraction: Weighted sum of attributes; positive/negative weights, magnitudes (credit scoring)
- Optimal when p(x | C_i) are Gaussian with shared cov matrix; useful when classes are (almost) linearly separable

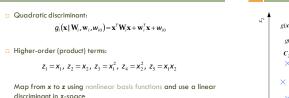
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PruneRuleSet(RuleSet,Pos,Neg) For each Rule ∈ RuleSet in reverse order DL ← DescLen(RuleSet,Pos,Neg) $DL' \leftarrow DescLen(RuleSet-Rule, Pos, Neg)$ IF DL'<DL Delete Rule from RuleSet Return RuleSet OptimizeRuleSet(RuleSet,Pos,Neg) For each Rule Rule RuleSet DL0 ← DescLen(RuleSet,Pos,Neg) DL1 ← DescLen(RuleSet-Rule+ ReplaceRule(RuleSet, Pos, Neg), Pos, Neg) DL2 ← DescLen(RuleSet-Rule+ ReviseRule(RuleSet.Rule.Pos.Neg).Pos.Neg) If DL1=min(DL0,DL1,DL2) Delete Rule from RuleSet and add ReplaceRule(RuleSet,Pos,Neg) Else If DL2=min(DL0,DL1,DL2) Delete Rule from RuleSet and add ReviseRule(RuleSet Rule Pos Neg) Return RuleSet

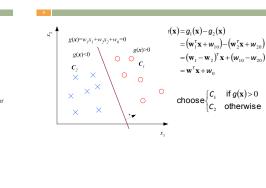


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Generalized Linear Model



$$\boldsymbol{g}_i(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{j=1}^k \boldsymbol{w}_{ij} \boldsymbol{\phi}_j(\mathbf{x})$$



Two Classes

From Discriminants to Posteriors

When $p(\mathbf{x} \mid C_i) \sim N(\boldsymbol{\mu}_i, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$

 $y \equiv P(C_1 | \mathbf{x})$ and $P(C_2 | \mathbf{x}) = 1 - y$

Gradient-Descent

 $\eta^{w^{t+1}}$ w

E (w^t)

E (w^{t+1})

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 $g_i(\mathbf{x} | \mathbf{w}_i, \mathbf{w}_{i0}) = \mathbf{w}_i^T \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{w}_{i0}$

y > 0.5

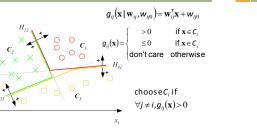
 $\log[y/(1-y)] > 0$

choose C_1 if $\int y/(1-y) > 1$ and C_2 otherwise

 $\mathbf{w}_i = \Sigma^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu}_i \quad \boldsymbol{w}_{i0} = -\frac{1}{2} \boldsymbol{\mu}_i^T \Sigma^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu}_i + \log P(\boldsymbol{C}_i)$

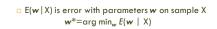
 $\Delta w_i = -\eta \frac{\partial E}{\partial w_i}, \forall i$

 $w_i = w_i + \Delta w_i$



Gradient-Descent

Pairwise Separation



Gradient
$$\nabla_{w} E = \left[\frac{\partial E}{\partial w_{1}}, \frac{\partial E}{\partial w_{2}}, \dots, \frac{\partial E}{\partial w_{d}}\right]^{T}$$

Gradient-descent: Starts from random w and updates w iteratively in the negative direction of gradient

Training: Gradient-Descent

$$E(\mathbf{w}, w_0 \mid \mathcal{X}) = -\sum_{t} r^{t} \log y^{t} + (1 - r^{t}) \log (1 - y^{t})$$

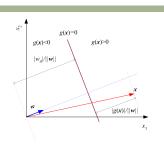
If $y = \text{sigmoid}(\mathbf{a}) \quad \frac{dy}{da} = y(1 - y)$
$$\Delta w_j = -\eta \frac{\partial E}{\partial w_j} = \eta \sum_{t} \left(\frac{r^{t}}{y^{t}} - \frac{1 - r^{t}}{1 - y^{t}} \right) y^{t} (1 - y^{t}) x_j^{t}$$

$$= \eta \sum_{t} \left(r^{t} - y^{t} \right) x_j^{t}, j = 1, ..., d$$

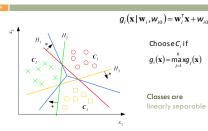
$$\Delta w_0 = -\eta \frac{\partial E}{\partial w_0} = \eta \sum_{t} \left(r^{t} - y^{t} \right)$$

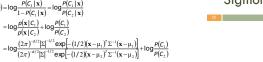
For $j = 0, \ldots, d$ $w_j \leftarrow \mathsf{rand}(-0.01, 0.01)$ Repeat For j = 0, ..., d $\Delta w_i \leftarrow 0$ For $t = 1, \ldots, N$ $o \leftarrow 0$ For j = 0, ..., d $o \leftarrow o + w_j x_j^t$ $y \leftarrow \operatorname{sigmoid}(o)$ $\Delta w_j \leftarrow \Delta w_j + (r^t - y) x_j^t$ For $j = 0, \ldots, d$ $w_j \leftarrow w_j + \eta \Delta w_i$ Until convergence

Geometry



Multiple Classes





where $\mathbf{w} = \Sigma^{-1} (\mu_1 - \mu_2) \quad w_0 = -\frac{1}{2} (\mu_1 + \mu_2)^T \Sigma^{-1} (\mu_1 - \mu_2)$

The inverse of logit $\underline{P(C_1 \mid \mathbf{x})} = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{w}_0$ $\log \frac{P(C_{11}, c_{12})}{1 - P(C_{1} | \mathbf{x})} =$

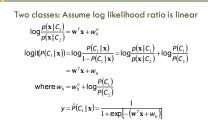
 $\operatorname{logit}(P(C_1 | \mathbf{x})) = \operatorname{log} \frac{P(C_1 | \mathbf{x})}{1 - P(C_1 | \mathbf{x})} = \operatorname{log} \frac{P(C_1 | \mathbf{x})}{P(C_2 | \mathbf{x})}$ $= \log \frac{p(\mathbf{x} | C_1)}{p(\mathbf{x} | C_2)} + \log \frac{P(C_1)}{P(C_2)}$

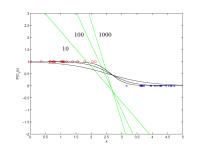
 $= \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{w}_0$

 $p(\mathbf{x}|C_2)$

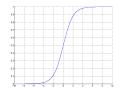
 $P(C_1 | \mathbf{x}) = \operatorname{sigmoid}(\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x} + w_0) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp[-(\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x} + w_0)]}$

Logistic Discrimination



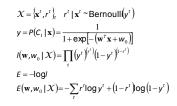


Sigmoid (Logistic) Function

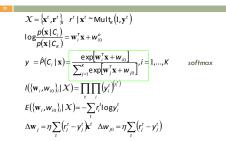


Calculate $g(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x} + w_0$ and choose C_1 if $g(\mathbf{x}) > 0$, or Calculate $y = \text{sigmoid}(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + w_0)$ and choose C_1 if y > 0.5

Training: Two Classes

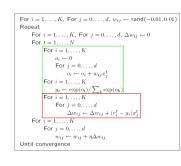


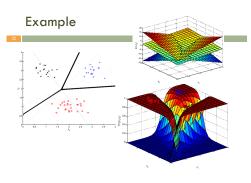
K>2 Classes



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Generalizing the Linear Model

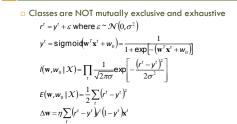
Quadratic: $\log \frac{p(\mathbf{x} | C_i)}{p(\mathbf{x} | C_{\kappa})} = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{W}_i \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{w}_i^T \mathbf{x} + w_{i0}$

```
Sum of basis functions:

\log \frac{p(\mathbf{x} \mid C_i)}{p(\mathbf{x} \mid C_k)} = \mathbf{w}_i^T \phi(\mathbf{x}) + w_{i0}
```

where φ(x) are basis functions. Examples: ■ Hidden units in neural networks (Chapters 11 and 12) ■ Kernels in SVM (Chapter 13)

Discrimination by Regression



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Learning to Rank

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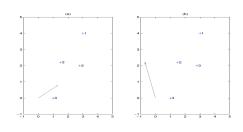
- Ranking: A different problem than classification or regression
- Let us say x^u and x^v are two instances, e.g., two movies
- We prefer u to v implies that $g(\mathbf{x}^v) > g(\mathbf{x}^v)$
- where $g(\mathbf{x})$ is a score function, here linear: $g(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}$
- Find a direction w such that we get the desired ranks when instances are projected along w



• We prefer u to v implies that $g(\mathbf{x}^{v}) > g(\mathbf{x}^{v})$, so error is $g(\mathbf{x}^{v})$ - $g(\mathbf{x}^{u})$, if $g(\mathbf{x}^{u}) < g(\mathbf{x}^{v})$

 $E(\boldsymbol{w}|\{r^{\boldsymbol{u}},r^{\boldsymbol{v}}\}) = \sum_{r^{\boldsymbol{u}} < r^{\boldsymbol{v}}} [g(\boldsymbol{x}^{\boldsymbol{v}}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) - g(\boldsymbol{x}^{\boldsymbol{u}}|\boldsymbol{\theta})]_{+}$

where a_+ is equal to *a* if $a \ge 0$ and 0 otherwise.



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Neural Networks

□ Large connectitivity: 10⁵

Robust to noise, failures

Parallel processing

Networks of processing units (neurons) with

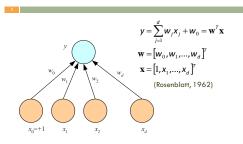
connections (synapses) between them

□ Large number of neurons: 10¹⁰

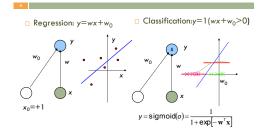
Distributed computation/memory

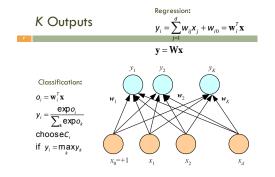


Perceptron



What a Perceptron Does





Understanding the Brain

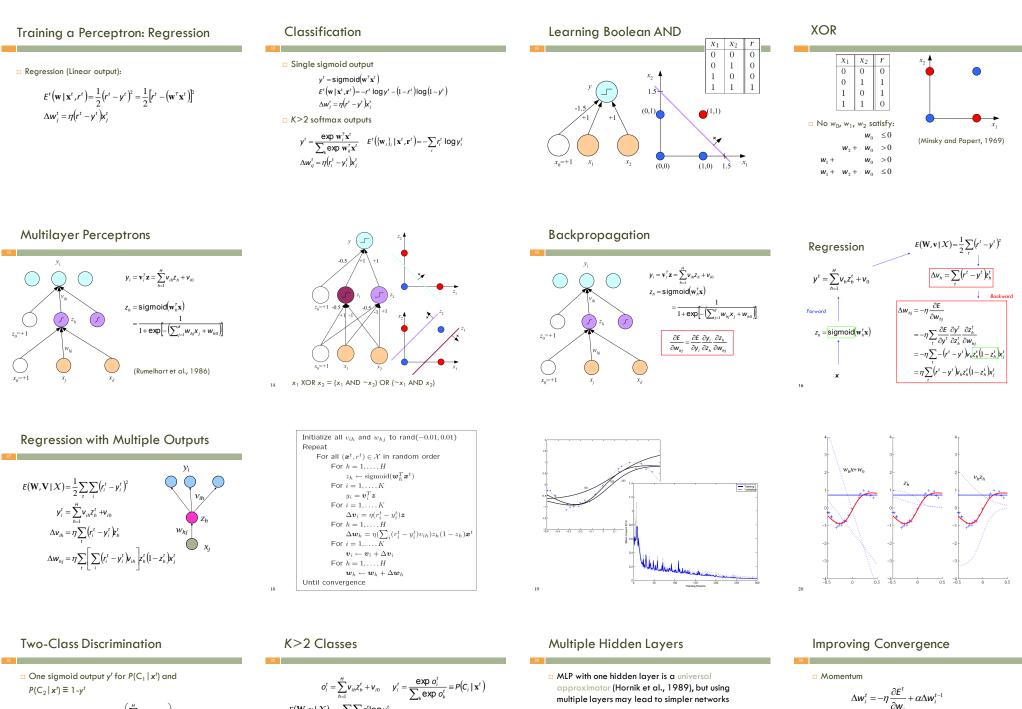
- Levels of analysis (Marr, 1982)
 - 1. Computational theory
 - 2. Representation and algorithm
- 3. Hardware implementation
- Reverse engineering: From hardware to theory
- Parallel processing: SIMD vs MIMD
- Neural net: SIMD with modifiable local memory Learning: Update by training/experience

Training

- Online (instances seen one by one) vs batch (whole sample) learning:
 - No need to store the whole sample
 - Problem may change in time
- Wear and degradation in system components
- Stochastic gradient-descent: Update after a single pattern
- Generic update rule (LMS rule):

 $\Delta w_{ii}^{t} = \eta (r_{i}^{t} - y_{i}^{t}) \mathbf{x}_{i}^{t}$

Update=LearningFactor (DesiredOutput-ActualOutput) Input



 $z_{1h} = \operatorname{sigmoid}(\mathbf{w}_{1h}^{T}\mathbf{x}) = \operatorname{sigmoid}\left(\sum_{j=1}^{d} w_{1hj}x_{j} + w_{1h0}\right), h = 1, \dots, H_{1}$

 $z_{2l} = \text{sigmoid}(\mathbf{w}_{2l}^{T}\mathbf{z}_{1}) = \text{sigmoid}\left(\sum_{l=1}^{H_{1}} w_{2lh}z_{1h} + w_{2l0}\right), l = 1, ..., H_{2l}$

 $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{v}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{z}_2 = \sum_{i=1}^{H_2} \mathbf{v}_i \mathbf{z}_{2i} + \mathbf{v}_0$

Adaptive learning rate

 $\Delta \eta =$

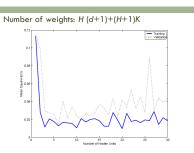
 $\int +a \quad \text{if } E^{t+r} < E^t$

 $-b\eta$ otherwise

$$y^{t} = \operatorname{sigmoid}\left(\sum_{h=1}^{H} v_{h} z_{h}^{t} + v_{0}\right)$$
$$E(\mathbf{W}, \mathbf{v} \mid \mathcal{X}) = -\sum_{i} r^{t} \log y^{t} + (1 - r^{t}) \log(1 - y^{t})$$
$$\Delta v_{h} = \eta \sum_{i} (r^{t} - y^{t}) z_{h}^{t}$$
$$\Delta w_{hj} = \eta \sum_{i} (r^{t} - y^{t}) y_{h} z_{h}^{t} (1 - z_{h}^{t}) \mathbf{x}_{j}^{t}$$

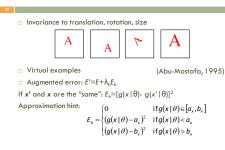
 $E(\mathbf{W}, \mathbf{v} | \mathcal{X}) = -\sum_{t} \sum_{i} r_{i}^{t} \log y_{i}^{t}$ $\Delta v_{ih} = \eta \sum_{t} \left(r_{i}^{t} - y_{i}^{t} \right) z_{h}^{t}$ $\Delta w_{hj} = \eta \sum_{r} \left[\sum_{i} \left(r_i^t - y_i^t \right) v_{ih} \right] z_h^t \left(1 - z_h^t \right) x_j^t$

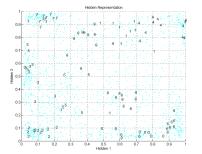
Overfitting/Overtraining

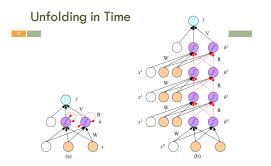


Hints

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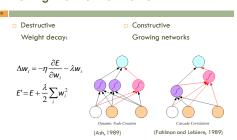






Tuning the Network Size

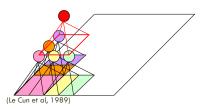
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Training Walidation

Structured MLP

Convolutional networks (Deep learning)

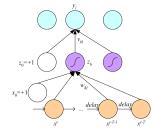


Bayesian Learning

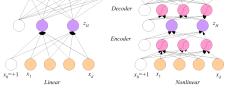
 Consider weights w_i as random vars, prior p(w_i) $p(\mathbf{w} \mid \mathcal{X}) = \frac{p(\mathcal{X} \mid \mathbf{w})p(\mathbf{w})}{p(\mathcal{X})} \quad \hat{\mathbf{w}}_{\scriptscriptstyle MAP} = \arg\max_{\mathbf{w}} \log p(\mathbf{w} \mid \mathcal{X})$ $\log p(\mathbf{w} \mid \mathcal{X}) = \log p(\mathcal{X} \mid \mathbf{w}) + \log p(\mathbf{w}) + C$ $p(\mathbf{w}) = \prod_{i} p(w_i)$ where $p(w_i) = c \cdot \exp \left| -\frac{w_i^2}{2(1/2\lambda)} \right|$ $E' = E + \lambda \|\mathbf{w}\|^2$

 Weight decay, ridge regression, regularization $cost=data-misfit + \lambda$ complexity More about Bayesian methods in chapter 14

Time-Delay Neural Networks

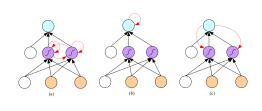


Dimensionality Reduction



Autoencoder networks

Recurrent Networks



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Deep Networks

Learning Time

Sequence association Network architectures

Sequence recognition: Speech recognition Sequence reproduction: Time-series prediction

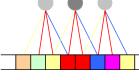
□ Time-delay networks (Waibel et al., 1989) Recurrent networks (Rumelhart et al., 1986)

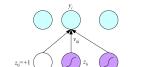
Applications:

- Layers of feature extraction units
- Can have local receptive fields as in convolution networks, or can be fully connected
- Can be trained layer by layer using an autoencoder in an unsupervised manner
- No need to craft the right features or the right basis functions or the right dimensionality reduction method; learns multiple layers of abstraction all by itself given a lot of data and a lot of computation
- Applications in vision, language processing, ...

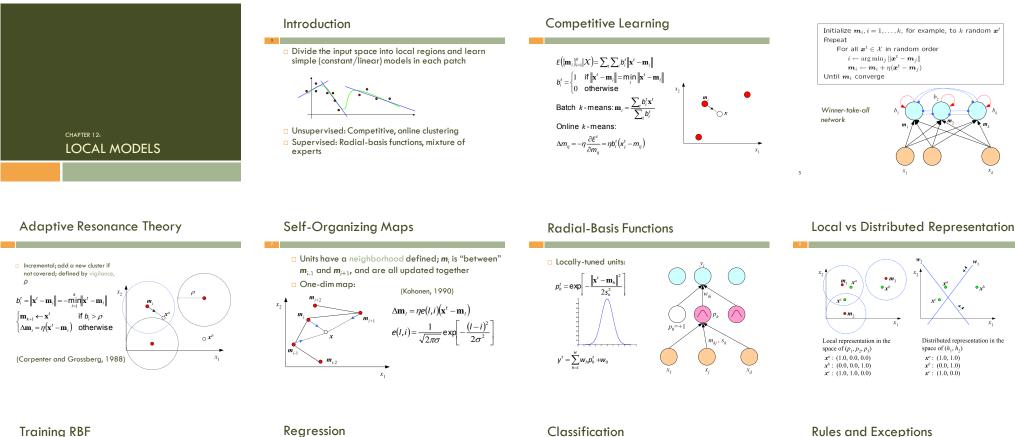


Weight Sharing









Training RBF

- Hybrid learning: First layer centers and spreads: Unsupervised k-means Second layer weights:
 - Supervised gradient-descent

Rule-Based Knowledge

 $p_2 = \exp\left[-\frac{(x_3 - c)^2}{2s_a^2}\right]$ with $w_2 = 0.1$

- Fully supervised
- (Broomhead and Lowe, 1988; Moody and Darken, 1989)

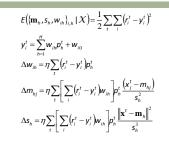
IF $((x_1 \approx a) \text{ AND } (x_2 \approx b)) \text{ OR } (x_3 \approx c) \text{ THEN } y = 0.1$

 $p_1 = \exp\left[-\frac{(x_1 - a)^2}{2s_1^2}\right] \cdot \exp\left[-\frac{(x_2 - b)^2}{2s_2^2}\right]$ with $w_1 = 0.1$

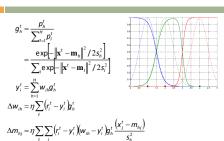
Incorporation of prior knowledge (before training) □ Rule extraction (after training) (Tresp et al., 1997)

Fuzzy membership functions and fuzzy rules

Regression



Normalized Basis Functions





 $E(\{\mathbf{m}_{h}, s_{h}, w_{ih}\}_{i,h} \mid \mathcal{X}) = -\sum \sum r_{i}^{t} \log y_{i}^{t}$

 $y_i^t = \frac{\exp\left[\sum_h w_{ih} p_h^t + w_{i0}\right]}{\sum_i \exp\left[\sum_h w_{ip} p_h^t + w_{p0}\right]}$

 $p(h \mid \mathbf{x}^{t}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{x}^{t} \mid h)p(h)}{\sum_{i} p(\mathbf{x}^{t} \mid i)p(i)}$ $g_{h}^{t} = \frac{a_{h} \exp\left[-\left\|\mathbf{x}^{t} - \mathbf{m}_{h}\right\|^{2} / 2s_{h}^{2}\right]}{\sum_{k} a_{k} \exp\left[-\left\|\mathbf{x}^{t} - \mathbf{m}_{k}\right\|^{2} / 2s_{h}^{2}\right]}$

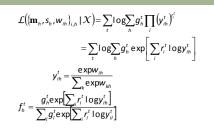
Regression $p(\mathbf{r}^{t} | \mathbf{x}^{t}) = \prod \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma}} \exp \left[-\frac{(r_{i}^{t} - y_{i}^{t})}{2\sigma^{2}}\right]$ $\mathcal{L}\left(\left\{\mathbf{m}_{h}, \boldsymbol{s}_{h}, \boldsymbol{w}_{ih}\right\}_{i,h} \mid \boldsymbol{X}\right) = \sum \log \sum \boldsymbol{g}_{h}^{t} \exp \left|-\frac{1}{2} \sum \left(\boldsymbol{r}_{i}^{t} - \boldsymbol{y}_{ih}^{t}\right)^{2}\right)$ $y_{ih}^{t} = w_{ih}$ is the constant fit $\Delta w_{ih} = \eta \sum_{t} \left(r_i^t - y_{ih}^t \right) f_h^t \quad \Delta m_{hj} = \eta \sum_{t} \left(f_h^t - g_h^t \right) \frac{\left(x_j^t - m_{hj} \right)}{s^2}$ $f_{h}^{t} = \frac{g_{h}^{t} \exp\left[-(1/2)\sum_{i} (r_{i}^{t} - y_{ih}^{t})^{2}\right]}{\sum_{i} g_{i}^{t} \exp\left[-(1/2)\sum_{i} (r_{i}^{t} - y_{ih}^{t})^{2}\right]}$ $p(h | \mathbf{r}, \mathbf{x}) = \frac{p(h | \mathbf{x})p(\mathbf{r} | h, \mathbf{x})}{\sum_{i} p(i | \mathbf{x})p(\mathbf{r} | i, \mathbf{x})}$

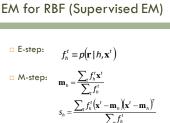
Default

rule

Exceptions

Classification

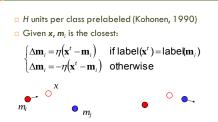




 $w_{ih} = \frac{\sum_{t} f_h^t r_i^t}{\sum_{t} f_h^t}$

Cooperative MoE





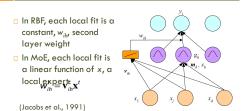
Competitive MoE: Regression

 $y_{ih}^{t} = w_{ih} = \mathbf{v}_{ih} \mathbf{x}^{t}$ $\Delta \mathbf{v}_{ih} = \eta \sum_{t} \left(r_{i}^{t} - y_{ih}^{t} \right) f_{h}^{t} \mathbf{x}^{t}$

 $\Delta \mathbf{m}_h = \eta \sum_{h=1}^{T} \left(f_h^t - g_h^t \right) \mathbf{x}^t$

 $\mathcal{L}\left(\{\mathbf{m}_{h}, \boldsymbol{s}_{h}, \boldsymbol{w}_{ih}\}_{i,h} \mid \mathcal{X}\right) = \sum_{t} \log \sum_{h} \boldsymbol{g}_{h}^{t} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i} \left(\boldsymbol{r}_{i}^{t} - \boldsymbol{y}_{ih}^{t}\right)^{2}\right]$

Mixture of Experts



Competitive MoE: Classification

 $\mathcal{L}(\{\mathbf{m}_{h}, \mathbf{s}_{h}, \mathbf{w}_{ih}\}_{i,h} \mid \mathcal{X}) = \sum \log g_{h}^{t} \prod (\mathbf{y}_{ih}^{t})^{t}$

 $\mathbf{y}_{ih}^{t} = \frac{\mathsf{e}\,\mathsf{xp}\mathbf{w}_{ih}}{\sum_{\mu}\mathsf{e}\,\mathsf{xp}\mathbf{w}_{kh}} = \frac{\mathsf{e}\,\mathsf{xp}\mathbf{v}_{ih}\mathbf{x}^{t}}{\sum_{\mu}\mathsf{e}\,\mathsf{xp}\mathbf{v}_{kh}\mathbf{x}^{t}}$

 $= \sum_{t} \log \sum_{h} g_{h}^{t} \exp \left[\sum_{i} r_{i}^{t} \log y_{ih}^{t}\right]$

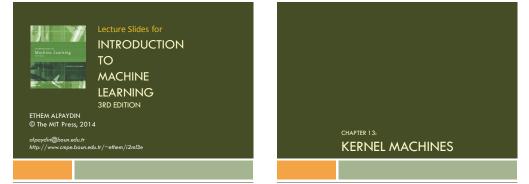
Regression Radial gating: $E\left(\left\{\mathbf{m}_{h}, \mathbf{s}_{h}, \mathbf{w}_{ih}\right\}_{i,h} \mid \mathcal{X}\right) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i} \sum_{i} \left(r_{i}^{t} - y_{i}^{t}\right)^{2}$ $\exp\left[-\left\|\mathbf{x}^{t}-\mathbf{m}_{h}\right\|^{2}/2s_{h}^{2}\right]$ $\sum_{t} \exp\left[-\left\|\mathbf{x}^{t}-\mathbf{m}_{t}\right\|^{2}/2\right]$ $\Delta \mathbf{v}_{ih} = \eta \sum \left(\mathbf{r}_i^t - \mathbf{y}_{ih}^t \right) \mathbf{g}_h^t \mathbf{x}^t$ $\Delta m_{hj} = \eta \sum_{i}^{t} \left(\mathbf{r}_{i}^{t} - \mathbf{y}_{ih}^{t} \right) \left(\mathbf{w}_{ih}^{t} - \mathbf{y}_{i}^{t} \right) \mathbf{g}_{h}^{t} \mathbf{x}_{j}^{t}$ Softmax gating: $\boldsymbol{g}_{h}^{t} = \frac{\exp[\mathbf{m}_{h}^{T}\mathbf{x}^{t}]}{\sum_{l} \exp[\mathbf{m}_{l}^{T}\mathbf{x}^{t}]}$

Hierarchical Mixture of Experts

MoE as Models Combined

- Tree of MoE where each MoE is an expert in a higher-level MoE
- Soft decision tree: Takes a weighted (gating) average of all leaves (experts), as opposed to using a single path and a single leaf
- Can be trained using EM (Jordan and Jacobs, 1994)

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Kernel Machines

- Discriminant-based: No need to estimate densities first
- Define the discriminant in terms of support vectors
- □ The use of kernel functions, application-specific measures of similarity
- No need to represent instances as vectors
- Convex optimization problems with a unique solution

Optimal Separating Hyperplane

+1 if $\mathbf{x}^t \in C_1$ $\mathcal{X} = \{\mathbf{x}^t, r^t\}_t$ where $r^t =$ -1 if $\mathbf{x}^t \in \mathbf{C}$, find w and w_0 such that $\mathbf{w}^{T}\mathbf{x}^{t} + \mathbf{w}_{0} \ge +1$ for $\mathbf{r}^{t} = +1$ ${\bf w}^{T}{\bf x}^{t} + {\bf w}_{0} \le +1$ for ${\bf r}^{t} = -1$ which can be rewritten as $r^t (\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}^t + \mathbf{w}_0) \geq +1$

Margin

• Distance from the discriminant to the closest instances on either side

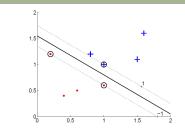
• Distance of x to the hyperplane is
$$\frac{|\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}^t + w_0|}{\|\mathbf{w}\|}$$

We require
$$\frac{r^{*}(\mathbf{w}^{*}\mathbf{x}^{*}+\mathbf{w}_{0})}{\|\mathbf{w}\|} \ge \rho, \forall t$$

• For a unique sol'n, fix $\rho ||w||=1$, and to max margin

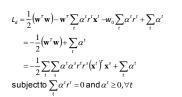
 $\min \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 \text{ subject to } r^t \big(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}^t + \mathbf{w}_0 \big) \ge +1, \forall t$

Margin



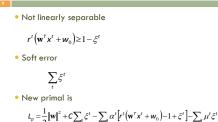
(Cortes and Vapnik, 1995; Vapnik, 1995)

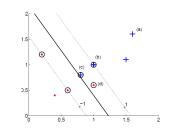
$$\begin{split} \min \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 & \text{subject to } r^t (\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}^t + w_0) \ge +1, \forall t \\ L_p &= \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 - \sum_{t=1}^{N} \alpha^t [r^t (\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}^t + w_0) - 1] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 - \sum_{t=1}^{N} \alpha^t r^t (\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}^t + w_0) + \sum_{t=1}^{N} \alpha^t \\ \frac{\partial L_p}{\partial \mathbf{w}} &= 0 \Rightarrow \mathbf{w} = \sum_{t=1}^{N} \alpha^t r^t \mathbf{x}^t \\ \frac{\partial L_p}{\partial W_0} &= 0 \Rightarrow \sum_{t=1}^{N} \alpha^t r^t = 0 \end{split}$$

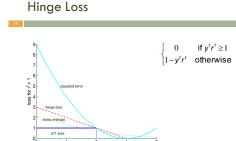


Most α^t are 0 and only a small number have $\alpha^t > 0$; they are the support vectors

Soft Margin Hyperplane

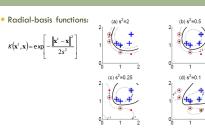






Vectorial Kernels

SVM for Regression



v-SVM

Defining kernels

Kernel "engineering"

and score function $s(x, m_i)$

 $K(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}^{t}) = \phi(\mathbf{x})^{T} \phi(\mathbf{x}^{t})$

and

Defining good measures of similarity

 $\phi(\mathbf{x}^{t}) = [s(\mathbf{x}^{t}, \mathbf{m}_{1}), s(\mathbf{x}^{t}, \mathbf{m}_{2}), ..., s(\mathbf{x}^{t}, \mathbf{m}_{M})]$

String kernels, graph kernels, image kernels, ...

Empirical kernel map: Define a set of templates m;

 $\min \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 - v\rho + \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} \xi^i$ subjectto $r^t (\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}^t + \mathbf{w}_0) \ge \rho - \xi^t, \xi^t \ge 0, \rho \ge 0$ $L_{d} = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum \alpha^{t} \alpha^{s} r^{t} r^{s} (\mathbf{x}^{t})^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}^{s}$ subjectto

v controls the fraction of support vectors



$z = \varphi(x)$ $g(z) = w^T z$ $g(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^T \boldsymbol{\varphi}(\mathbf{x})$ The SVM solution $\mathbf{w} = \sum \alpha^t r^t \mathbf{z}^t = \sum \alpha^t r^t \boldsymbol{\varphi}(\mathbf{x}^t)$ $g(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{\varphi}(\mathbf{x}) = \sum \alpha^{\mathsf{T}} r^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{\varphi}(\mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}})^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{\varphi}(\mathbf{x})$ $g(\mathbf{x}) = \sum \alpha^t r^t \mathcal{K}(\mathbf{x}^t, \mathbf{x})$

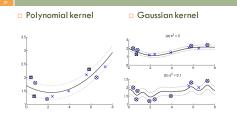
Multiple Kernel Learning

- Fixed kernel combination $cK(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y})$ $K(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) = \{K_1(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) + K_2(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y})\}$ $K_1(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y})K_2(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y})$

 $\kappa(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \eta_i \kappa_i(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ x^s) $g(\mathbf{x}) = \sum \alpha^{t} r^{t} \sum \eta_{i} K_{i}(\mathbf{x}^{t}, \mathbf{x})$

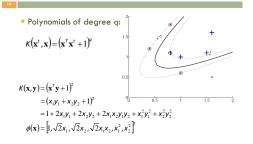
• Localized kernel combination $g(\mathbf{x}) = \sum \alpha^{t} r^{t} \sum \eta_{i}(\mathbf{x} \mid \theta) \kappa_{i}(\mathbf{x}^{t}, \mathbf{x})$

Kernel Regression



Vectorial Kernels

10



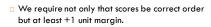
Multiclass Kernel Machines

- 1-vs-all Pairwise separation
- Error-Correcting Output Codes (section 17.5)
- Single multiclass optimization

 $\min \frac{1}{2} \sum \|\mathbf{w}_i\|^2$ $+C\sum \sum \xi_{i}^{t}$ subiectto

$$\mathbf{w}_{z^{t}}^{T}\mathbf{x}^{t} + \mathbf{w}_{z^{t}0} \ge \mathbf{w}_{i}^{T}\mathbf{x}^{t} + \mathbf{w}_{i0} + 2 - \xi_{i}^{t}, \forall i \neq z^{t}, \xi_{i}^{t} \ge 0$$

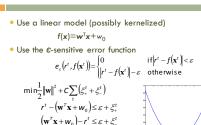
Kernel Machines for Ranking



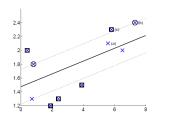
Linear case:

 $\min \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}_i\|^2 + C \sum \xi_i^t$

subjectto $\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{u}} \geq \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{v}} + 1 - \xi^{\mathsf{t}}, \forall \mathsf{t}: \mathsf{r}^{\mathsf{u}} \prec \mathsf{r}^{\mathsf{v}}, \xi^{\mathsf{t}}_{\mathsf{i}} \geq 0$



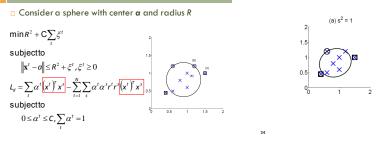
 $\xi_{\pm}^t, \xi_{\pm}^t \ge 0$



$$L_{d} = \sum_{t} \alpha^{t} - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{t} \sum_{s} \alpha^{t} \alpha^{s} r^{t} r^{s} \sum_{i} \eta_{i} K_{i} (\mathbf{x}^{t}, \mathbf{x}^{t})$$

$\sum_{i} \alpha^{t} r^{t} = 0, 0 \le \alpha^{t} \le \frac{1}{N}, \sum \alpha^{t} \le V$

One-Class Kernel Machines



.

0.5

1 15

Large Margin Nearest Neighbor

- Learns the matrix **M** of Mahalanobis metric D(xⁱ, xⁱ)=(xⁱ-xⁱ)^T**M**(xⁱ-xⁱ)
- For three instances i, j, and l, where i and j are of the same class and l different, we require

 $D(x^{i}, x^{i}) > D(x^{i}, x^{i}) + 1$

and if this is not satisfied, we have a slack for the difference and we learn M to minimize the sum of such slacks over all $i_i, j_i/l$ triples (j and l being one of k neighbors of i, over all i)

Learning a Distance Measure

$\label{eq:LMNN algorithm (Weinberger and Saul 2009)} (1-\mu) \sum \mathcal{D}(\mathbf{x}^i, \mathbf{x}^j) + \mu \sum (1-y_{il}) \xi_{ijl}$

subject to $\mathcal{D}(\mathbf{x}^{l}, \mathbf{x}^{l}) \geq \mathcal{D}(\mathbf{x}^{l}, \mathbf{x}^{l}) + 1 - \xi^{ljl}, \text{ if } \mathbf{r}^{l} = \mathbf{r}^{j} \text{ and } \mathbf{r}^{i} \neq \mathbf{r}^{l}$ $\xi^{ljl} \geq 0$

 LMCA algorithm (Torresani and Lee 2007) uses a similar approach where M=L^TL and learns L

Image: State Stat

Graphical Models

Kernel PCA does

PCA on the

(equal to

kernel)

kernel matrix

canonical PCA

Kernel LDA, CCA

with a linear

Aka Bayesian networks, probabilistic networks

Kernel Dimensionality Reduction

(a) Quadratic kernel in the x space

(b) Linear kernel in the z space

1.05

¹+⊕7

-0.5

0.95

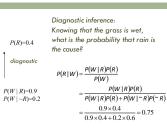
- Nodes are hypotheses (random vars) and the probabilities corresponds to our belief in the truth of the hypothesis
- Arcs are direct influences between hypotheses
- The structure is represented as a directed acyclic graph (DAG)
- The parameters are the conditional probabilities in the arcs (Pearl, 1988, 2000; Jensen, 1996; Lauritzen, 1996)

Causes and Bayes' Rule

Rain

Wet grass

i2ml3e-chap14.pdf



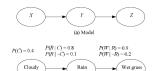
Conditional Independence

X and Y are independent if
 P(X,Y)=P(X)P(Y)
 X and Y are conditionally independent given Z if
 P(X,Y|Z)=P(X|Z)P(Y|Z)
 or

P(X | Y,Z)=P(X | Z) □ Three canonical cases: Head-to-tail, Tail-to-tail, head-to-head

Case 1: Head-to-Head

$\square P(X,Y,Z) = P(X)P(Y | X)P(Z | Y)$



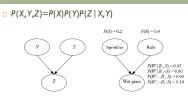
 $\square P(W | C) = P(W | R)P(R | C) + P(W | \sim R)P(\sim R | C)$

Case 2: Tail-to-Tail

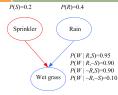
$\square P(X,Y,Z) = P(X)P(Y | X)P(Z | X)$



Case 3: Head-to-Head



Causal vs Diagnostic Inference



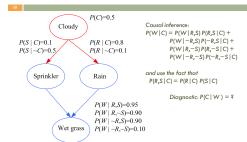
 $\begin{array}{l} \text{probability that the grass is wet?} \\ P(W|S) = P(W|R,S) P(R|S) + \\ P(W|\sim R,S) P(\sim R|S) \\ = P(W|R,S) P(R) + \\ P(W|\sim R,S) P(\sim R) \\ = 0.95 \ 0.4 + 0.9 \ 0.6 = 0.92 \end{array}$

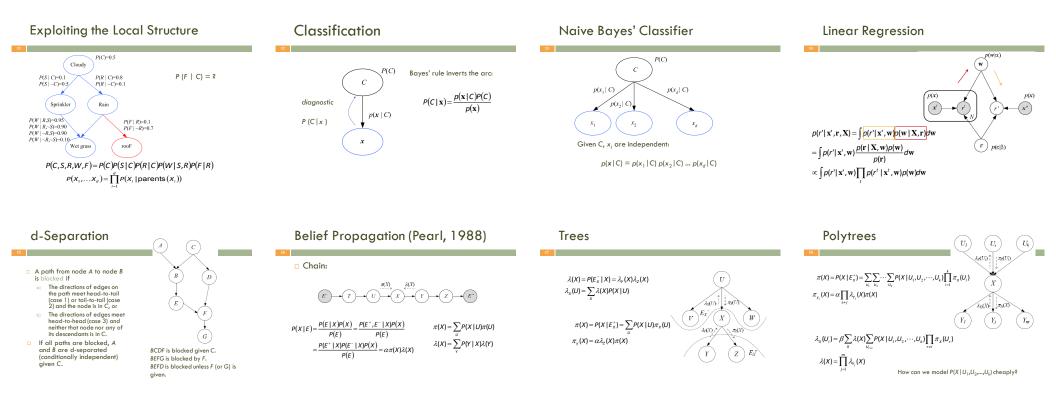
Causal inference: If the

sprinkler is on, what is the

Diagnostic inference: If the grass is wet, what is the probability that the sprinkler is and P(S|W) = 0.35 > 0.2 P(S)P(S|R,W) = 0.21 Explaining away: Knowing that it has rained decreases the probability that the sprinkler is an.

Causes





Junction Trees

□ If X does not separate E^+ and E^- , we convert it into a junction tree and then apply the polytree algorithm

> $\begin{bmatrix} c \end{bmatrix}$ (R,S)Tree of moralized, clique nodes W

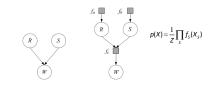
Undirected Graphs: Markov Random Fields

- In a Markov random field, dependencies are symmetric, for example, pixels in an image
- □ In an undirected graph, A and B are independent if removing C makes them unconnected.
- □ Potential function $\psi_c(X_c)$ shows how favorable is the particular configuration X over the clique C
- □ The joint is defined in terms of the clique potentials

 $p(X) = \frac{1}{7} \prod \psi_c(X_c)$ where normalizer $Z = \sum \prod \psi_c(X_c)$

Factor Graphs

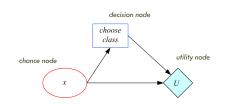
Define new factor nodes and write the joint in terms of them



Learning a Graphical Model

- Learning the conditional probabilities, either as tables (for discrete case with small number of parents), or as parametric functions
- Learning the structure of the graph: Doing a statespace search over a score function that uses both goodness of fit to data and some measure of complexity

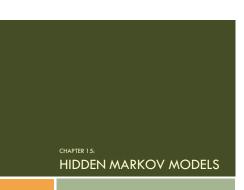
Influence Diagrams



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INTRODUCTION TO MACHINE LEARNING **3RD EDITION** ETHEM ALPAYDIN © The MIT Press, 2014

@boun.edu.tr http://www.cmpe.boun.edu.tr/~ethem/i2ml3e



Introduction

- Modeling dependencies in input; no longer iid
- Sequences:
- □ Temporal: In speech; phonemes in a word (dictionary), words in a sentence (syntax, semantics of the language). In handwriting, pen movements
- Spatial: In a DNA sequence; base pairs

Discrete Markov Process

First-order Markov

Transition probabilities $a_{ii} \equiv P(q_{t+1} = S_i | q_t = S_i)$ $a_{ii} = 1$

Initial probabilities

 $\pi_i \equiv P(q_1 = S_i)$

Hidden Markov Models

probabilistic function of the state

 $b_i(m) \equiv P(O_t = v_m \mid q_t = S_i)$

States are not observable

Emission probabilities

state sequences

 \square N states: S₁, S₂, ..., S_N State at "time" t, q_t = S_i

 $P(q_{t+1}=S_i | q_t=S_i, q_{t-1}=S_k,...) = P(q_{t+1}=S_i | q_t=S_i)$

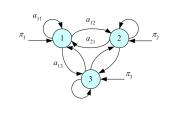
 $\sum_{i=1}^{N} \pi_i = 1$

Discrete observations $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_M\}$ are recorded; a

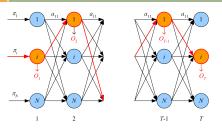
Example: In each urn, there are balls of different colors, but with different probabilities. □ For each observation sequence, there are multiple

 $a_{ii} \ge 0$ and $\sum_{i=1}^{N} a_{ii}$

Stochastic Automaton



HMM Unfolded in Time



Example: Balls and Urns

Three urns each full of balls of one color S1: red, S2: blue, S3: green

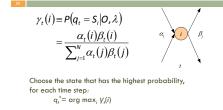
```
0.4 0.3 0.3
\Pi = \begin{bmatrix} 0.5, 0.2, 0.3 \end{bmatrix}^T A = \begin{bmatrix} 0.2 & 0.6 & 0.2 \end{bmatrix}
                                             0.1 0.1 0.8
O = \{S_1, S_1, S_3, S_3\}
P(O | \mathbf{A}, \Pi) = P(S_1) \cdot P(S_1 | S_1) \cdot P(S_3 | S_1) \cdot P(S_3 | S_3)
                 = \pi_1 \cdot a_{11} \cdot a_{13} \cdot a_{33}
                 = 0.5 \cdot 0.4 \cdot 0.3 \cdot 0.8 = 0.048
```

Elements of an HMM

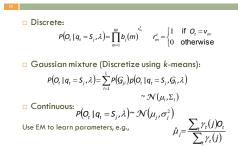
- N: Number of states
- M: Number of observation symbols
- $\mathbf{A} = [\alpha_{ii}]: N$ by N state transition probability matrix
- **B** = $b_i(m)$: N by M observation probability matrix
- $\square \Pi = [\pi_i]: N \text{ by 1 initial state probability vector}$

 $\lambda = (\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}, \mathbf{\Pi})$, parameter set of HMM

Finding the State Sequence



Continuous Observations



Balls and Urns: Learning

Given K example sequences of length T

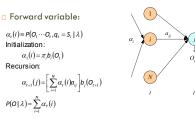
$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\pi}_{i} &= \frac{\# \{\text{sequences starting with } S_{i}\}}{\# \{\text{sequences}\}} = \frac{\sum_{k} [(q_{i}^{k} = S_{i})]}{K} \\ \hat{a}_{ij} &= \frac{\# \{\text{transitions from } S_{i} \text{ to } S_{i}\}}{\# \{\text{transitions from } S_{i}\}} \\ &= \frac{\sum_{k} \sum_{i=1}^{r_{i}} [(q_{i}^{k} = S_{i} \text{ and } q_{i+1}^{k} = S_{i})]}{\sum_{k} \sum_{i=1}^{r_{i}} [(q_{i}^{k} = S_{i})]} \end{aligned}$$

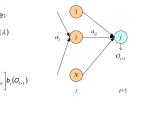
Three Basic Problems of HMMs

- 1. Evaluation: Given λ , and O, calculate P (O | λ)
- 2. State sequence: Given λ , and O, find Q^{*} such that
- $P(Q^* \mid O, \lambda) = \max_{Q} P(Q \mid O, \lambda)$
- 3. Learning: Given $X = \{O^k\}_k$, find λ^* such that $P(X \mid \lambda^*) = \max_{\lambda} P(X \mid \lambda)$

(Rabiner, 1989)

Evaluation



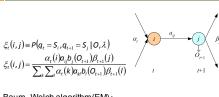


Viterbi's Algorithm

 $\delta_{t}(i) \equiv \max_{q_1q_2\cdots q_{t-1}} p(q_1q_2\cdots q_{t-1}, q_t = S_{i}, O_1\cdots O_t \mid \lambda)$

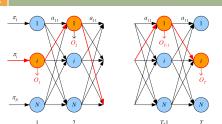
- Initialization:
- $\delta_1(i) = \pi_i b_i(O_1), \Psi_1(i) = 0$ Recursion:
- $\delta_t(j) = \max_i \delta_{t-1}(i) \alpha_{ij} b_i(O_t), \Psi_t(j) = \operatorname{argmax}_i \delta_{t-1}(j) \delta_t(O_t)$ 1(i)a;;
- Termination:
- $p^* = \max_i \delta_{\tau}(i), q_{\tau}^* = \operatorname{argmax}_i \delta_{\tau}(i)$ Path backtracking:
- $q_t^* = \psi_{t+1}(q_{t+1}^*), t=T-1, T-2, ..., 1$

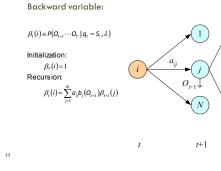
Learnina



Baum-Welch algorithm(EM):

 $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & \text{if } q_t = S_i \end{bmatrix}$ $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & \text{if } q_t = S_i \text{ and } q_{t+1} = S_i \end{bmatrix}$ 0 otherwise 0 otherwise





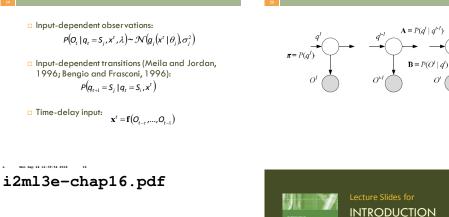
Baum-Welch (EM)

 $E - step: E[z_i^t] = \gamma_t(i) \quad E[z_{ij}^t] = \xi_t(i, j)$ M-step: $\sum_{k=1}^{\kappa} \gamma_1^k(i)$

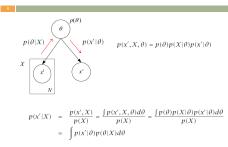
$$\pi_{i} = \frac{\pi_{i}}{\kappa} \quad a_{ij} = \frac{1}{\sum_{k=1}^{\kappa} \sum_{t=1}^{\tau_{i}-1} \gamma_{t}^{k}} (j) (m_{k}) = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{\kappa} \sum_{t=1}^{\tau_{i}-1} \gamma_{t}^{k}}{\sum_{k=1}^{\tau_{i}-1} \gamma_{t}^{k}} (j) (m_{k}) = \frac{1}{\sum_{k=1}^{\kappa} \sum_{t=1}^{\tau_{i}-1} \gamma_{t}^{k}} (m_{k}) (m_{k}) (m_{k}) = \frac{1}{\sum_{k=1}^{\kappa} \sum_{t=1}^{\tau_{i}-1} \gamma_{t}^{k}} (m_{k}) (m_{k$$

HMM with Input

HMM as a Graphical Model



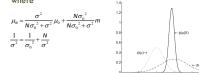
Generative Model



Estimating the Parameters of a Distribution: Continuous case



- Gaussian prior for μ , $p(\mu) \sim N(\mu_0, \sigma_0^2)$
- Posterior is also Gaussian $p(\mu|X) \sim N(\mu_{N'} \sigma_N^2)$ where



Instead of a single estimate with a single θ_{t} we generate several estimates using several θ and average, weighted by how their probabilities

 $\theta_{MAP} = \arg \max_{\theta} p(\theta | X)$

Gaussian: Prior on Variance

 $p(\lambda) \sim \operatorname{gamma}(a_0, b_0) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(a_0)} b_0^{a_0} \lambda^{a_0 - 1} \exp(-b_0 \lambda)$

 $p(X|\lambda) = \prod_{t \to \infty} \frac{\lambda^{1/2}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left[-\frac{\lambda}{2}(x^t - \mu)^2\right]$

 \Box Let's define a prior (gamma) on precision $\lambda = 1/\sigma^2$

 $= \lambda^{N/2} (2\pi)^{-N/2} \exp\left[-\frac{\lambda}{2} \sum_{t} (x^t - \mu)^2\right]$

Bayesian Approach

(c) Coupled HMM

21

$p(x'|\mathcal{X}) = \int p(x'|\theta)p(\theta|\mathcal{X})d\theta$

□ In certain cases, it is easy to integrate

Conjugate prior: Posterior has the same density as prior

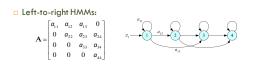
(d) Switching HMM

- Sampling (Markov Chain Monte Carlo): Sample from the posterior and average
- Approximation: Approximate the posterior with a model easier to integrate
- Laplace approximation: Use a Gaussian
- Variational approximation: Split the multivariate density into a set of simpler densities using independencies

Joint Prior and Making a Prediction

$p(\mu,\lambda) = p(\mu \lambda)p(\lambda)$						
$p(\mu$, λ <i>)</i>	\mathcal{K}) ~ normal-gamma($\mu_N, \kappa_N, a_N, b_N$)				
whe	re					
κ_N	=	$\kappa_0 + N$				
		$\frac{\kappa_0 + N}{\kappa_N}$				
		$a_0 + N/2$				
b_N	=	$b_0 + \frac{N}{2}s^2 + \frac{\kappa_0 N}{2\kappa_N}(m-\mu_0)^2$				
		$p(\boldsymbol{x} \boldsymbol{\mathcal{X}}) \ = \ \int \int p(\boldsymbol{x} \boldsymbol{\mu},\boldsymbol{\lambda}) p(\boldsymbol{\mu},\boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\mathcal{X}}) d\boldsymbol{\mu} d\boldsymbol{\lambda}$				
		$\sim t_{2a_N}\left(\mu_N, \frac{b_N(\kappa_N+1)}{a_N\kappa_N}\right)$				

Model Selection in HMM



□ In classification, for each C_i, estimate P (O | λ_i) by a separate HMM and use Bayes' rule $P(\lambda, | O)$: $P(O \mid \lambda_i)P(\lambda_i)$ $\sum P(O|\lambda_i)P(\lambda_i)$

Rationale

 \square Parameters θ not constant, but random variables with a prior, $p(\theta)$

□ Bayes' Rule: $p(\theta | \mathbf{X}) = \frac{p(\theta)p(\mathbf{X} | \theta)}{p(\mathbf{X})}$

Estimating the Parameters of a Distribution: Discrete case

- $x_i^{t}=1$ if in instance t is in state i, probability of state i is q_i Dirichlet prior, α_i are hyperparameters
- Dirichlet($\mathbf{q} \mid \boldsymbol{\alpha}$) = $\frac{\Gamma(\alpha_0)}{\Gamma(\alpha_1) \cdots \Gamma(\alpha_n)} \prod_{i=1}^{n} q_i^{\alpha_i 1}$ Sample likelihood

 $p(X | \mathbf{q}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \prod_{j=1}^{n} q_{j}$

Posterior $p(\mathbf{q} \mid \boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha_0 + N)}{\Gamma(\alpha_1 + N_1) \cdots \Gamma(\alpha_n + N_n)} \prod_{i=1}^{n} q_i^{\alpha_1 + N_i}$

= Dirichlet($\mathbf{q} \mid \boldsymbol{\alpha} + \mathbf{n}$)

- Dirichlet is a conjugate prior
- With K=2, Dirichlet reduced to Beta

Multivariate Gaussian

```
p(\mathbf{x}) \sim \mathcal{N}_{d}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Lambda}) p(\boldsymbol{\mu}|\boldsymbol{\Lambda}) \sim \mathcal{N}_{d}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_{0}, (1/\kappa_{0})\boldsymbol{\Lambda}) - p(\boldsymbol{\Lambda}) \sim \text{Wishart}(v_{0}, \mathbf{V}_{0})
p(\mu, \Lambda) = p(\mu|\Lambda)p(\Lambda)
                             ~ normal-Wishart(\boldsymbol{\mu}_0, \kappa_0, v_0, \mathbf{V}_0)
p(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Lambda} | \boldsymbol{X}) \sim \text{normal-Wishart}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_N, \kappa_N, \boldsymbol{\nu}_N, \mathbf{V}_N)
               \kappa_N = \kappa_0 + N
             \boldsymbol{\mu}_N = \frac{\kappa_0 \boldsymbol{\mu}_0 + N \boldsymbol{m}}{\kappa_0 \boldsymbol{\mu}_0 + N \boldsymbol{m}}
                v_N = v_0 + N
             \mathbf{V}_{N} = \left(\mathbf{V}_{0}^{-1} + \mathbf{C} + \frac{\kappa_{0}N}{\kappa_{N}}(\boldsymbol{m} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{0})(\boldsymbol{m} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{0})^{T}\right)^{-1}
    p(\mathbf{x}|\mathcal{X}) = \int \int p(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Lambda}) p(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Lambda}|\mathcal{X}) d\boldsymbol{\mu} d\boldsymbol{\Lambda}
                                 ~ t_{\nu_N-d+1}\left(\boldsymbol{\mu}_N, \frac{\kappa_N+1}{\kappa_N(\nu_N-d+1)}(\mathbf{V}_N)^{-1}\right)
```

TO MACHINE LEARNING **3RD EDITION** CHAPTER 16: alpaydin@boun.edu.tr http://www.cmpe.boun.edu.tr/~ethem/i2ml3e **BAYESIAN ESTIMATION**

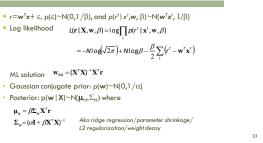
Bayesian Approach

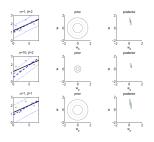
ETHEM ALPAYDIN © The MIT Press, 2014

Prior $p(\theta)$ allows us to concentrate on region where θ is likely to lie, ignoring regions where it's unlikely

Even if prior $p(\theta)$ is uninformative, (2) still helps. MAP estimator does not make use of (2):

Estimating the Parameters of a Function: Regression





(a) Linear (α = 1, β = 1)

(b) Quadrati

(c) Sixth-degree

Prior on Noise Variance

$$\begin{split} p(\beta) &\sim \operatorname{gamma}(a_0, b_0) \qquad p(\boldsymbol{w}|\beta) \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_0, \beta\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_0) \\ p(\boldsymbol{w}, \beta) &= p(\beta)p(\boldsymbol{w}|\beta) \sim \operatorname{normal-gamma}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_0, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_0, a_0, b_0) \end{split}$$

 $p(\mathbf{w}, \boldsymbol{\beta} | \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{r}) \sim \text{normal-gamma}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_N, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_N, a_N, b_N)$

$$\begin{split} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{N} &= (\mathbf{X}^{T}\mathbf{X} + \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{0})^{-1} \\ \boldsymbol{\mu}_{N} &= \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{N}(\mathbf{X}^{T}\boldsymbol{r} + \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{0}\boldsymbol{\mu}_{0}) \end{split}$$

 $a_N = a_0 + N/2$

 $b_N = b_0 + \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{r}^T \mathbf{r} + \boldsymbol{\mu}_0^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_0 \boldsymbol{\mu}_0 - \boldsymbol{\mu}_N^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_N \boldsymbol{\mu}_N)$

Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) sampling

What's in a Prior?

- Defining a prior is subjective
- Uninformative prior if no prior preferenceHow high to go?

Level I: $p(x|X) = \int p(x|\theta)p(\theta|X)d\theta$

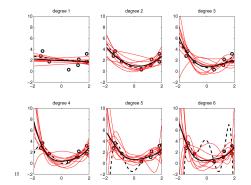
Level II: $p(x|X) = \int p(x|\theta)p(\theta|X, \alpha)p(\alpha)d\theta d\alpha$

 \square Empirical Bayes: Use one good $lpha^*$

Level II ML: $p(x|X) = \int p(x|\theta)p(\theta|X, \alpha^*)d\theta$

Nonparametric Bayes

- Model complexity can increase with more data (in practice up to N, potentially to infinity)
- □ Similar to *k*-NN and Parzen windows we saw before where training set is the parameters



Bayesian Model Comparison

Marginal likelihood of a model:

 $p(\mathcal{X}|\mathcal{M}) = \int p(\mathcal{X}|\theta, \mathcal{M}) p(\theta|\mathcal{M}) d\theta$ □ Posterior probability of model given data:

 $p(\mathcal{M}|\mathcal{X}) = \frac{p(\mathcal{X}|\mathcal{M})p(\mathcal{M})}{p(\mathcal{X})}$

□ Bayes' factor: $\frac{P(\mathcal{M}_1|\mathcal{X})}{P(\mathcal{M}_0|\mathcal{X})} = \frac{P(\mathcal{X}|\mathcal{M}_1)}{P(\mathcal{X}|\mathcal{M}_0)} \frac{P(\mathcal{M}_1)}{P(\mathcal{M}_0)}$

Approximations:

BIC: $\log p(X|\mathcal{M}) \approx \text{BIC} \equiv \log p(X|\theta_{ML}, \mathcal{M}) - \frac{|\mathcal{M}|}{2} \log N$ **AIC:** $\operatorname{AIC} \equiv \log p(X|\theta_{ML}, \mathcal{M}) - |\mathcal{M}|$

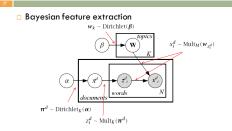
Gaussian Processes

- Nonparametric model for supervised learning
- Assume Gaussian prior p(w)~N(0,1/α) y=Xw, where E[y]=0 and Cov(y)=K with K_{ij}= (xⁱ)^Txⁱ
 K is the covariance function, here linear
- With basis function $\phi(\mathbf{x})$, $\mathbf{K}_{ii} = (\phi(\mathbf{x}^i))^T \phi(\mathbf{x}^i)$
- With basis formed $\psi(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{k}_{ij} = (\psi(\mathbf{x})), \psi(\mathbf{x})$ $r \sim N_N(\mathbf{0}, C_N)$ where $C_N = (1/\beta)\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{K}$ • With new \mathbf{x}' added as $\mathbf{x}_{N+1}, r_{N+1} \sim N_{N+1}(\mathbf{0}, C_{N+1})$
 - $\mathbf{C}_{N+1} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{C}_{N} & \mathbf{k} \\ \mathbf{k} & c \end{bmatrix}$

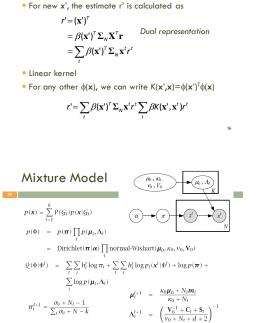
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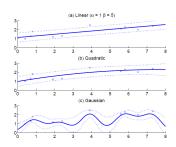
where $\mathbf{k} = [K(\mathbf{x}', \mathbf{x}')_i]^T$ and $c=K(\mathbf{x}', \mathbf{x}')+1/\beta$. $p(\mathbf{r}' | \mathbf{x}', \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{r}) \sim N(\mathbf{k}^T \mathbf{C}_{N-1} \mathbf{r}, c-\mathbf{k}^T \mathbf{C}_{N-1} \mathbf{k})$

Latent Dirichlet Allocation



Basis/Kernel Functions





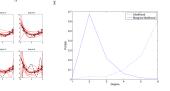
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 $(W|X)^{\alpha}$

21

Kernel Functions

Models in increasing complexity. A complex model can fit more datasets but is spread thin, a simple model can fit few datasets but has higher marginal likelihood where it does (MacKay 2003)



Dirichlet Processes

- Nonparametric Bayesian approach for clustering
 Chinese restaurant process
- Customers arrive and either join one of the existing tables or start a new one, based on the table occupancies:

Join existing table *i* with $P(z_i = 1) = \frac{n_i}{\alpha + n - 1}$, i = 1, ..., kStart new table with $P(z_{k+1} = 1) = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + n - 1}$

Nonparametric Gaussian Mixture

 Tables are Gaussian components and decisions based both on prior and also on input x:

Beta Processes

Nonparametric Bayesian approach for feature extraction

 $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{Z}\mathbf{A}$

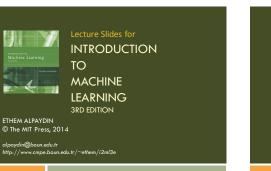
Matrix factorization:

1 with probability μ_i 0 with probability $1 - \mu_j$

$\mu_j \sim \text{beta}(\alpha, 1)$

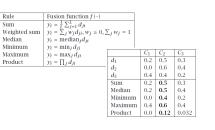
Nonparametric version: Allow j to increase with more data probabilistically

□ Indian buffet process: Customer can take one of the existing dishes with prob μ_i or add a new dish to the buffet



CHAPTER 17: COMBINING MULTIPLE LEARNERS

Fixed Combination Rules



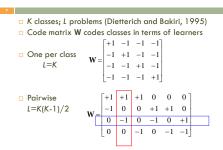
AdaBoost

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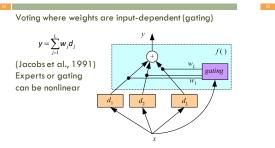
Rationale

- □ No Free Lunch Theorem: There is no algorithm that is always the most accurate
- Generate a group of base-learners which when combined has higher accuracy
- Different learners use different
- Algorithms
- Hyperparameters
- Representations /Modalities/Views
- Training sets
- Subproblems
- Diversity vs accuracy

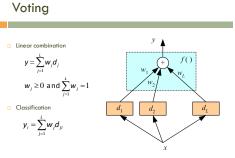
Error-Correcting Output Codes



Mixture of Experts



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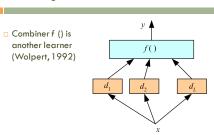
□ Full code *L*=2^(K-1)-1 $\mathbf{W} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 & -1 & +1 & +1 & +1 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 & +1 & +1 & +1 \\ +1 & -1 & +1 & -1 & +1 & +1 \end{bmatrix}$

 \Box With reasonable *L*, find **W** such that the Hamming distance btw rows and columns are maximized.

Voting scheme $y_i = \sum w_j d_{ji}$

Subproblems may be more difficult than one-per-K

Stacking



Fine-Tuning an Ensemble

Bayesian perspective:

□ If d; are iid

Bagging

 $P(C_i | x) = \sum_{\text{all models}\mathcal{M}_i} P(C_i | x, \mathcal{M}_j) P(\mathcal{M}_j)$

 $\operatorname{Var}(y) = \operatorname{Var}\left(\sum_{i} \frac{1}{l} d_{i}\right) = \frac{1}{l^{2}} \operatorname{Var}\left(\sum_{j} d_{j}\right) = \frac{1}{l^{2}} l \cdot \operatorname{Var}(d_{j}) = \frac{1}{l} \operatorname{Var}(d_{j})$

Bias does not change, variance decreases by L

□ If dependent, error increase with positive correlation

 $\operatorname{Var}(y) = \frac{1}{l^2} \operatorname{Var}\left(\sum d_j\right) = \frac{1}{l^2} \left[\sum \operatorname{Var}(d_j) + 2\sum \sum Cov(d_i, d_j)\right]$

Use bootstrapping to generate L training sets and

Use voting (Average or median with regression)

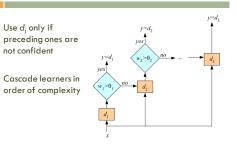
Unstable algorithms profit from bagging

train one base-learner with each (Breiman, 1996)

 $E[y] = E\left[\sum_{j=1}^{n-1} d_{j}\right] = \frac{1}{L} \cdot E[d_{j}] = E[d_{j}]$

- Given an ensemble of dependent classifiers, do not use it as is, try to get independence
- 1. Subset selection: Forward (growing)/Backward (pruning) approaches to improve accuracy/diversity/independence
- Train metaclassifiers: From the output of correlated classifiers, extract new combinations that are uncorrelated. Using PCA, we get "eigenlearners."
- Similar to feature selection vs feature extraction

Cascading



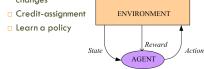
Combining Multiple Sources/Views

- Early integration: Concat all features and train a single learner
- □ Late integration: With each feature set, train one learner, then either use a fixed rule or stacking to combine decisions
- □ Intermediate integration: With each feature set, calculate a kernel, then use a single SVM with multiple kernels
- Combining features vs decisions vs kernels



Introduction

- Game-playing: Sequence of moves to win a game
- Robot in a maze: Sequence of actions to find a goal
- Agent has a state in an environment, takes an action and sometimes receives reward and the state changes



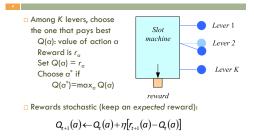
 $V^*(s_t) = \max V^{\pi}(s_t), \forall s_t$ = maxE $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \gamma^{i-1} r_{t+i}$ $= \max_{\alpha} E \left| r_{t+1} + \gamma \sum_{\alpha}^{\infty} \gamma^{i-1} r_{t+i+1} \right|$ $= \max E\left[r_{t+1} + \gamma V^*(s_{t+1})\right]$ Bellman's equation $V^{*}(s_{t}) = \max_{a_{t}} \left\{ E[r_{t+1}] + \gamma \sum P(s_{t+1} | s_{t}, a_{t}) V^{*}(s_{t+1}) \right\}$ $V^*(s_t) = \max Q^*(s_t, a_t)$ Value of $a_t \text{ in } s_t$ $Q^{*}(s_{t},a_{t}) = E[r_{t+1}] + \gamma \sum P(s_{t+1} | s_{t},a_{t}) \max_{a} Q^{*}(s_{t+1},a_{t+1})$

Temporal Difference Learning

- □ Environment, $P(s_{t+1} | s_t, a_t)$, $p(r_{t+1} | s_t, a_t)$, is not known; model-free learning
- There is need for exploration to sample from $P(s_{t+1} | s_t, a_t) \text{ and } p(r_{t+1} | s_t, a_t)$
- Use the reward received in the next time step to update the value of current state (action)
- □ The temporal difference between the value of the current action and the value discounted from the next state

Single State: K-armed Bandit

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Environment, P ($s_{t+1} | s_t, a_t$), p ($r_{t+1} | s_t, a_t$) known

 $V^{*}(s_{t}) = \max_{a_{t}} \left\{ E[r_{t+1}] + \gamma \sum_{s_{t-1}} P(s_{t+1} | s_{t}, a_{t}) V^{*}(s_{t+1}) \right\}$ timal policy $\pi^{*}(s_{t}) = \arg\max_{a_{t}} \left\{ E[r_{t+1} | s_{t}, a_{t}] + \gamma \sum_{s_{t-1}} P(s_{t+1} | s_{t}, a_{t}) V^{*}(s_{t+1}) \right\}$

Can be solved using dynamic programming

Elements of RL (Markov Decision

Processes)

- \Box s_t: State of agent at time t
- □ a.: Action taken at time t
- \Box In s_t, action a_t is taken, clock ticks and reward r_{t+1} is received and state changes to s_{t+1}
- □ Next state prob: $P(s_{t+1} | s_t, a_t)$
- □ Reward prob: $p(r_{t+1} | s_t, a_t)$
- Initial state(s), goal state(s)
- Episode (trial) of actions from initial state to goal
- (Sutton and Barto, 1998; Kaelbling et al., 1996)

Value Iteration

Initialize V(s) to arbitrary values Repeat For all $s \in S$ For all $a \in \mathcal{A}$ $Q(s, a) \leftarrow E[r|s, a] + \gamma \sum_{s' \in S} P(s'|s, a) V(s')$ $V(s) \leftarrow \max_a Q(s, a)$ Until V(s) converge

Policy and Cumulative Reward

\square Policy, $\pi: S \to \mathcal{A}$ $a_t = \pi(s_t)$

□ Value of a policy, $V^{\pi}(s_{1})$ □ Finite-horizon:

$$V^{\pi}(s_{t}) = E[r_{t+1} + r_{t+2} + \dots + r_{t+T}] = E\left[\sum_{i=1}^{T} r_{t+i}\right]$$

Infinite horizon:

$$V^{\varepsilon}(s_{t}) = E\left[t_{t+1} + \gamma t_{t+2} + \gamma^{2} t_{t+3} + \cdots\right] = E\left[\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \gamma^{i-1} t_{t+i}\right]$$

$$0 \le \gamma < 1 \text{ is the discount rate}$$

Policy Iteration

Initialize a policy π arbitrarily
Repeat
$\pi \leftarrow \pi'$
Compute the values using π by
solving the linear equations
$V^{\pi}(s) = E[r s, \pi(s)] + \gamma \sum_{s' \in S} P(s' s, \pi(s))V^{\pi}(s')$
Improve the policy at each state
$\pi'(s) \leftarrow \arg \max_a(E[r s, a] + \gamma \sum_{s' \in S} P(s' s, a)V^{\pi}(s'))$
Until $\pi = \pi'$

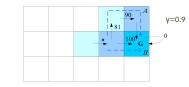
Deterministic Rewards and Actions

 $Q^{*}(s_{t}, a_{t}) = E[r_{t+1}] + \gamma \sum P(s_{t+1} | s_{t}, a_{t}) \max Q^{*}(s_{t+1}, a_{t+1})$

Deterministic: single possible reward and next state $Q(s_t, a_t) = r_{t+1} + \gamma \max_{a_{t+1}} Q(s_{t+1}, a_{t+1})$

used as an update rule (backup) $\hat{Q}(s_t, a_t) \leftarrow r_{t+1} + \gamma \max_{a_{t+1}} \hat{Q}(s_{t+1}, a_{t+1})$

Starting at zero, Q values increase, never decrease



Consider the value of action marked by '*': If path A is seen first, Q(*)=0.9*max(0,81)=73 Then B is seen, Q(*)=0.9*max(100,81)=90 Or,

If path B is seen first, Q(*)=0.9*max(100,0)=90 Then A is seen, Q(*)=0.9*max(100,81)=90 Q values increase but never decrease

Exploration Strategies

Model-Based Learning

□ There is no need for exploration

Solve for

Optimal policy

- E-greedy: With pr E,choose one action at random uniformly; and choose the best action with pr 1-E
- Probabilistic: $P(a \mid s) = \frac{\exp Q(s,a)}{\sum_{b=1}^{\mathcal{A}} \exp Q(s,b)}$
- Move smoothly from exploration/exploitation.
- Decrease & $\exp[Q(s,a)/T]$ Annealing $P(a \mid s) =$ $\sum_{b=1}^{\mathcal{A}} \exp[Q(s,b)/T]$

Nondeterministic Rewards and

Actions

 When next states and rewards are nondeterministic (there is an opponent or randomness in the environment), we keep averages (expected values) instead as assignments

Q-learning (Watkins and Dayan, 1992):

 $\hat{Q}(s_t, a_t) \leftarrow \hat{Q}(s_t, a_t) + \eta \left(r_{t+1} + \gamma \max_{a_{t+1}} \hat{Q}(s_{t+1}, a_{t+1}) - \hat{Q}(s_t, a_t) \right)$

□ Off-policy vs on-policy (Sarsa) body □ Learning V (TD-learning: Sutton, 1988) $V(s_t) \leftarrow V(s_t) + \eta(r_{t+1} + \gamma V(s_{t+1}) - V(s_t))$

Q-learning

Initialize all $Q(s, a)$ arbitrarily
For all episodes
Initalize s
Repeat
Choose a using policy derived from Q , e.g., ϵ -greedy
Take action a , observe r and s'
Update Q(s, a):
$Q(s,a) \leftarrow Q(s,a) + \eta(r + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s',a') - Q(s,a))$
$s \leftarrow s'$
Until s is terminal state

Sarsa

Initialize all $Q(s, a)$ arbitrarily				
For all episodes				
Initalize s				
Choose a using policy derived from Q , e.g., ϵ -greedy				
Repeat				
Take action a , observe r and s'				
Choose a' using policy derived from Q , e.g., ϵ -greedy				
Update Q(s, a):				
$Q(s,a) \leftarrow Q(s,a) + \eta(r + \gamma Q(s',a') - Q(s,a))$				
$s \leftarrow s', \ a \leftarrow a'$				
Until s is terminal state				

Eligibility Traces

Keep a record of previously visited states (actions)

 $e_t(s,a) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } s = s_t \text{ and } a = a_t \\ \gamma \lambda e_{t-1}(s,a) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$ $\delta_t = r_{t+1} + \gamma Q(s_{t+1},a_{t+1}) - Q(s_t,a_t) \\ Q(s_t,a_t) \leftarrow Q(s_t,a_t) + \eta \delta_t e_t(s,a), \forall s,a \end{cases}$

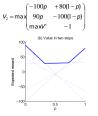


Sarsa (λ)

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□ If we sense o_{1} , our belief in tiger's position changes $p' = P(z_{L} | o_{L}) = \frac{P(o_{L} | z_{L})P(z_{L})}{P(o_{L})} = \frac{0.7p}{0.7p + 0.3(1-p)}$ $R(a_{L} | o_{L}) = r(a_{L}, z_{L})P(z_{L} | o_{L}) + r(a_{L}, z_{R})P(z_{R} | o_{L})$ = -100p' + 80(1-p') $= -100\frac{0.7p}{P(o_{L})} + 80\frac{0.3(1-p)}{P(o_{L})}$ $R(a_{R} | o_{L}) = r(a_{R}, z_{L})P(z_{L} | o_{L}) + r(a_{R}, z_{R})P(z_{R} | o_{L})$ = 90p' - 100(1-p') $= 90\frac{0.7p}{P(o_{L})} - 100\frac{0.3(1-p)}{P(o_{L})}$ $R(a_{L} | o_{L}) = -1$

• When planning for episodes of two, we can take a_{l} , a_{R} , or sense and wait:



Generalization

□ Tabular: Q (s, a) or V (s) stored in a table
 □ Regressor: Use a learner to estimate Q(s,a) or V(s)
 E^t(θ)=[r_{t+1}+γQ(s_{t+1},a_{t+1})-Q(s_t,a_t)]²
 Δθ = η[r_{t+1}+γQ(s_{t+1},a_{t+1})-Q(s_t,a_t)]∇₀,Q(s_t,a_t)

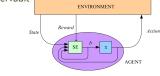
Eligibility $\Delta \boldsymbol{\theta} = \eta \delta_t \mathbf{e}_t$ $\delta_t = r_{t+1} + \gamma Q(s_{t+1}, a_{t+1}) - Q(s_t, a_t)$

 $\mathbf{e}_{t} = \gamma \lambda \mathbf{e}_{t-1} + \nabla_{\theta_{t}} Q(\mathbf{s}_{t}, \mathbf{a}_{t}) \text{ with } \mathbf{e}_{0} \text{ all zeros}$

Partially Observable States

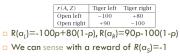
The agent does not know its state but receives an observation p(o_{t+1} | s_µa_µ) which can be used to infer a belief about states

Partially observable
 MDP



The Tiger Problem

Two doors, behind one of which there is a tiger
p: prob that tiger is behind the left door



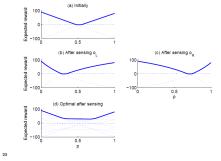
Let us say the tiger can move from one room to the other with prob 0.8

 $\begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} \rho = 0.2p + 0.8(1-p) \\ \rho' = 0.2p + 0.8(1-p) \\ V' = \max \begin{pmatrix} -100p' & +80(1-p') \\ 33p & +26(1-p') \\ 90p & -100(1-p') \end{pmatrix} \end{array}$

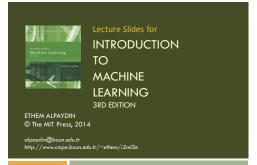


$\begin{aligned} V &= \sum_{j} [\max_{a_{k}} R(a_{i} \mid o_{j})]^{2}(o_{j}) \\ &= \max_{i} R(a_{i} \mid o_{i}), R(a_{k} \mid o_{i}), R(a_{s} \mid o_{i})) P(o_{i}) + \max_{i} R(a_{i} \mid o_{k}), R(a_{k} \mid o_{k}), R(a_{s} \mid o_{k})) P(o_{k}) \\ &= \max_{i} \begin{pmatrix} -100\rho &+ 80(1-\rho) \\ -43\rho &- 46(1-\rho) \\ -43\rho &- 46(1-\rho) \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$

 $\begin{array}{c} 33p + 26(1-p) \\ 90p - 100(1-p) \end{array}$



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CHAPTER 19: DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF MACHINE LEARNING EXPERIMENTS

Introduction

Questions:

- Assessment of the expected error of a learning algorithm: Is the error rate of 1-NN less than 2%?
 Comparing the expected errors of two algorithms: Is k-NN more accurate than MLP ?
- Training/validation/test sets

A Aim of the study

Resampling methods: K-fold cross-validation

Guidelines for ML experiments

Selection of the response variable

Conclusions and Recommendations

Choice of factors and levels

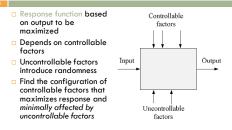
Performing the experiment Statistical Analysis of the Data

Choice of experimental design

Algorithm Preference

Criteria (Application-dependent):
 Misclassification error, or risk (loss functions)
 Training time/space complexity
 Testing time/space complexity
 Interpretability
 Easy programmability
 Cost-sensitive learning





5×2 Cross-Validation

□ 5 times 2 fold cross-validation (Dietterich, 1998)						
	$ \begin{aligned} \mathcal{T}_1 &= \mathcal{X}_1^{(1)} \mathcal{V}_1 &= \mathcal{X}_1^{(2)} \\ \mathcal{T}_2 &= \mathcal{X}_1^{(2)} \mathcal{V}_2 &= \mathcal{X}_1^{(1)} \end{aligned} $					
	$ \begin{aligned} \mathcal{T}_3 &= \mathcal{X}_2^{(1)} \mathcal{V}_3 &= \mathcal{X}_2^{(2)} \\ \mathcal{T}_4 &= \mathcal{X}_2^{(2)} \mathcal{V}_4 &= \mathcal{X}_2^{(1)} \end{aligned} $					
	$\mathcal{T}_4 = \mathcal{X}_2^{(2)}$ $\mathcal{V}_4 = \mathcal{X}_2^{(1)}$					
	$ \begin{array}{l} \mathcal{T}_{9} = \mathcal{X}_{5}^{(1)} & \mathcal{V}_{9} = \mathcal{X}_{5}^{(2)} \\ \mathcal{T}_{10} = \mathcal{X}_{5}^{(2)} & \mathcal{V}_{10} = \mathcal{X}_{5}^{(1)} \end{array} $					
	$\mathcal{T}_{10} = \mathcal{X}_5^{(2)}$ $\mathcal{V}_{10} = \mathcal{X}_5^{(1)}$					

Strategies of Experimentation

How to search the factor space?

Factor2		0 -	$\begin{array}{c} 0 - 0 - 0 - 0 - 0 \\ 0 - 0 - 0 - 0 - 0 \\ 0 - 0 -$
	Factor1		
	(a) Best guess	(b) One factor at a time	(c) Factorial design

Response surface design for approximating and maximizing the response function in terms of the controllable factors

Bootstrapping

Draw instances from a dataset with replacement
 Prob that we do not pick an instance after N draws



that is, only 36.8% is new!

Performance Measures

	Predicted class		
True Class	Yes	No	
Yes	TP: True Positive	FN: False Negative	
No	FP: False Positive	TN: True Negative	
Recall	= # of found positives / # of positives = TP / (TP+FN) = sensitivity = hit rate		
Precision	s / # or round		
	= TP / (TP+FP)		
Specificity	= TN / (TN+FP)		
Ealso alarm	rate = FP / (FP+TN) =	- 1 Specificity	

ROC Curve

□ T; share K-2 parts

Resampling and

K-Fold Cross-Validation

The need for multiple training/validation sets

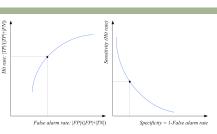
□ K-fold cross-validation: Divide X into k, X, i=1,...,K

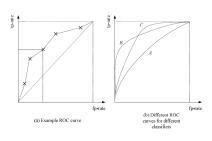
 $\mathcal{V}_1 = \mathcal{X}_1 \quad \mathcal{T}_1 = \mathcal{X}_2 \cup \mathcal{X}_3 \cup \cdots \cup \mathcal{X}_{\kappa}$

 $\mathcal{V}_2 = \mathcal{X}_2$ $\mathcal{T}_2 = \mathcal{X}_1 \cup \mathcal{X}_3 \cup \cdots \cup \mathcal{X}_k$

 $\mathcal{V}_{\kappa} = \mathcal{X}_{\kappa} \quad \mathcal{T}_{\kappa} = \mathcal{X}_{1} \cup \mathcal{X}_{2} \cup \cdots \cup \mathcal{X}_{\kappa-1}$

 $\{X_i, V_i\}$: Training/validation sets of fold *i*

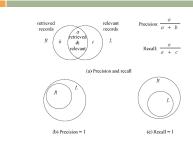




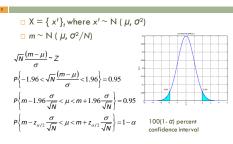
■ Reject a null hypothesis if not supported by the sample with enough confidence $X = \{x^i\}, \text{ where } x^i \sim N (\mu, \sigma^2)$ $H_0; \mu = \mu_0 \text{ vs. } H_1; \mu \neq \mu_0$ Accept H_0 with level of significance α if μ_0 is in the 100(1- α) confidence interval $\frac{\sqrt{N}(m-\mu_0)}{\sigma} \in (-z_{\alpha/2}, z_{\alpha/2})$

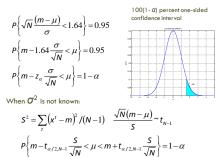
Two-sided test

Precision and Recall



Interval Estimation





	Hypothesis Testing
17	 Reject a null hypothesis if not s with enough confidence X = { x^t}, where x^t ~ N (μ, σ²

13

		C

18

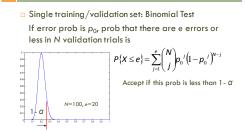
	Decision		
Truth	Accept	Reject	
True	Correct	Type I error	
False	Type II error	Correct (Power)	

 $\label{eq:constraint} \begin{array}{l} \square \mbox{ One-sided test: } H_0 \colon \mu \leq \ \mu_0 \ \mbox{vs. } H_1 \colon \mu > \mu_0 \\ \mbox{ Accept if } \quad \frac{\sqrt{n}(m-\mu_0)}{\sigma} \in (-\infty, \mathbf{Z}_a) \end{array}$

□ Variance unknown: Use *t*, instead of *z* Accept H_0 : $\mu = \mu_0$ if

 $\frac{\sqrt{N}(m-\mu_0)}{c} \in \left(-t_{\alpha/2,N-1},t_{\alpha/2,N-1}\right)$

Assessing Error: $H_0:p \le p_0$ vs. $H_1:p > p_0$

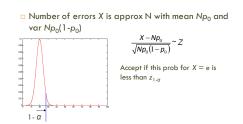




5×2 cv Paired t Test

2 of replication i=1,...,5

(Dietterich, 1998)



□ Use 5×2 cv to get 2 folds of 5 tra/val replications

 \square $p_i^{(j)}$: difference btw errors of 1 and 2 on fold j=1,

 $\overline{p}_{i} = (p_{i}^{(1)} + p_{i}^{(2)})/2 \qquad s_{i}^{2} = (p_{i}^{(1)} - \overline{p}_{i})^{2} + (p_{i}^{(2)} - \overline{p}_{i})^{2}$

 $\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{5} s_{i}^{2}/5}$

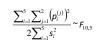
Two-sided test: Accept H₀: $\mu_0 = \mu_1$ if in $(-t_{\alpha/2,5\mu}t_{\alpha/2,5})$ One-sided test: Accept H₀: $\mu_0 \le \mu_1$ if $< t_{\alpha,5}$

Paired t Test

Multiple training/validation sets $x_i^r = 1$ if instance *t* misclassified on fold *i* Error rate of fold *i*: $p_i = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{x_i^i}{N}$ With *m* and s² average and var of p_i , we accept p_0 or less error if $\frac{\sqrt{K}(m-p_0)}{S} \sim t_{k-1}$

is less than $t_{\alpha,K-1}$

5×2 cv Paired F Test



Two-sided test: Accept $H_0: \mu_0 = \mu_1$ if $< F_{\alpha,10,5}$

Comparing Classifiers: $H_0:\mu_0=\mu_1$ vs. $H_1:\mu_0\neq\mu_1$

Single training/validatio	n set: McNemar's Test
e ₀₀ : Number of examples misclassified by both	e_{01} : Number of examples misclassified by 1 but not 2
e_{10} : Number of examples misclassified by 2 but not 1	e ₁₁ : Number of examples
misclassified by 2 but not 1	correctly classified by both

□ Under H₀, we expect $e_{01} = e_{10} = (e_{01} + e_{10})/2$

$$\frac{\left(\left|\boldsymbol{e}_{01}-\boldsymbol{e}_{10}\right|-1\right)^{2}}{\boldsymbol{e}_{01}+\boldsymbol{e}_{10}}\sim\chi_{1}^{2}$$

Accept if $< X^2_{\alpha,1}$

Comparing L>2 Algorithms: Analysis of Variance (Anova)

- $H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \dots = \mu_t$ $\Box \text{ Errors of } L \text{ algorithms on } K \text{ folds}$ $X_u \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_i, \sigma^2), j = 1, \dots, t, i = 1, \dots, K$
- We construct two estimators to σ².
 One is valid if H₀ is true, the other is always valid.
 We reject H₀ if the two estimators disagree.

Comparison over Multiple Datasets

Comparing two algorithms:

Sign test: Count how many times A beats B over N datasets, and check if this could have been by chance if A and B did have the same error rate

Comparing multiple algorithms

Kruskal-Wallis test: Calculate the average rank of all algorithms on N datasets, and check if these could have been by chance if they all had equal error

If KW rejects, we do pairwise posthoc tests to find which ones have significant rank difference

K-Fold CV Paired t Test

- Use K-fold cv to get K training/validation folds
- \square p_i^1, p_i^2 : Errors of classifiers 1 and 2 on fold *i*
- $p_i = p_i^1 p_i^2$: Paired difference on fold *i*

The null hypothesis is whether p_i has mean 0

 $H_0: \mu = 0$ VS. $H_0: \mu \neq 0$

$$m = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{\kappa} p_i}{K} \quad s^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{\kappa} (p_i - m)^2}{K - 1}$$
$$\frac{\sqrt{\kappa}(m - 0)}{s} = \frac{\sqrt{\kappa} \cdot m}{s} \sim t_{\kappa - 1} \text{ Accept if in} \left(-t_{a/2, \kappa - 1}, t_{a/2, \kappa - 1} \right)$$

If H_0 is true: $m_j = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{X_{ij}}{K} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2 / K)$ $m = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{l} m_j}{L} \qquad S^2 = \frac{\sum_i (m_j - m)^2}{L - 1}$ Thus an estimator of σ^2 is $K \cdot S^2$, namely, $\hat{\sigma}^2 = K \sum_{j=1}^{L} \frac{(m_j - m)^2}{L - 1}$ $\sum_j \frac{(m_j - m)^2}{\sigma^2 / K} \sim \chi_{i-1}^2 \qquad Sbb = K \sum_j (m_j - m)^2$ So when H_0 is true, we have $\frac{Sbb}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi_{i-1}^2$

Multivariate Tests

- Instead of testing using a single performance measure, e.g., error, use multiple measures for better discrimination, e.g., [fp-rate,fn-rate]
- Compare p-dimensional distributions
- Parametric case: Assume p-variate Gaussians

 $H_0: \boldsymbol{\mu}_1 = \boldsymbol{\mu}_2 \text{ vs. } H_1: \boldsymbol{\mu}_1 \neq \boldsymbol{\mu}_2$

Regardless of H_0 our second stimator to σ^2 is the average of group variances S_1^2 :

$$S_{j}^{2} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{\kappa} (X_{ij} - m_{j})^{2}}{\kappa - 1} \quad \hat{\sigma}^{2} = \sum_{j=1}^{L} \frac{S_{j}^{2}}{L} = \sum_{j} \sum_{i} \frac{(X_{ij} - m_{j})^{2}}{L(\kappa - 1)}$$

$$SSw \equiv \sum_{j} \sum_{i} (X_{ij} - m_{j})^{2}$$

$$(\kappa - 1) \frac{S_{j}^{2}}{\sigma^{2}} \sim X_{\kappa - 1}^{2} \quad \frac{SSw}{\sigma^{2}} \sim X_{\iota(\kappa - 1)}^{2}$$

$$\left(\frac{SSb / \sigma^{2}}{L - 1}\right) \left(\frac{SSw / \sigma^{2}}{L(\kappa - 1)}\right) = \frac{SSb / (L - 1)}{SSw / (L(\kappa - 1))} \sim F_{\iota - 1, \iota(\kappa - 1)}$$

$$H_{0} : \mu_{1} = \mu_{2} = \dots = \mu_{\iota} \text{ if } < F_{\sigma, \iota - \iota, \iota(\kappa - 1)}$$

ANOVA table

Source of	Sum of	Degrees of	Mean	
variation	squares	freedom	square	F ₀
Between groups	$SS_b \equiv K \sum_j (m_j - m)^2$	L – 1	$MS_b = \frac{SS_b}{L-1}$	$\frac{MS_b}{MS_b}$
Within groups	$\begin{array}{l} SS_w \equiv \\ \sum_j \sum_i (X_{ij} - m_j)^2 \end{array}$	L(K-1)	$MS_W = \frac{SS_W}{L(K-1)}$	
Total	$SS_T \equiv \sum_j \sum_i (X_{ij} - m)^2$	$L \cdot K - 1$		
If ANOVA	rejects, we do p $H_0: \mu_i = \mu_j$ vs		sthoc tests	
	$t = \frac{m_i - m_j}{\sqrt{2}\sigma} \sim t$	L(K-1)		

Multivariate Pairwise Comparison Multivariate ANOVA

D Paired differences: $d_i = x_{1i} - x_{2i}$

```
H_0: \boldsymbol{\mu}_d = \mathbf{0} vs. H_1: \boldsymbol{\mu}_d \neq \mathbf{0}
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    Hotelling's multivariate T<sup>2</sup> test
    T'<sup>2</sup> = Km<sup>T</sup>S<sup>-1</sup>m
    For p=1, reduces to paired t test
```

Comparison of L>2 algorithms H_0 : $\boldsymbol{\mu}_1 = \boldsymbol{\mu}_2 = \cdots = \boldsymbol{\mu}_L$ vs. H_1 : $\mu_r \neq \mu_s$ for at least one pair r, s $\mathbf{H} = K \sum_{i=1}^{L} (\boldsymbol{m}_{i} - \boldsymbol{m}) (\boldsymbol{m}_{i} - \boldsymbol{m})^{T}$

 $\mathbf{E} = \sum_{i=1}^{L} \sum_{j=1}^{K} (\mathbf{x}_{ij} - \mathbf{m}_j) (\mathbf{x}_{ij} - \mathbf{m}_j)^T$

 $\Lambda' = \frac{|\mathbf{E}|}{|\mathbf{E}+\mathbf{H}|}$ is Wilks's Λ distributed with p, L(K-1), L-1 degrees of freedom