

AI/ML Overview

①

② General Classes of problems:

① Supervised (i.e. Predictive) Learning

② Unsupervised Learning

Supervised: Goal is To learn a Mapping

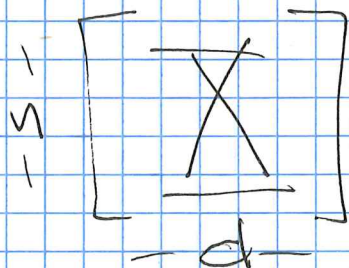
From inputs: $X \xrightarrow{T} Y$
outputs (Labels)

With supervised learning we are given Labels.

$$D = \left\{ (x_i, y_i) \right\}_{i=1}^n \quad \text{where } x_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$$

X usually denotes the design matrix

where X is $n \times d$.



When $y_i \in \mathbb{R}$, The problem
Labels

archetype is usually referred to as Regression

When $y_i \in \{1, \dots, K\}$ The problem
Discrete classes

is referred to as Classification.

E.g. Predict expected income from education level (Regression)

E.g. Predict whether digital image contains a pedestrian (Binary Classification).

Goal: $Y = f(X) + \epsilon$
"True" mapping error
Why estimate f ?
① Prediction
② Inference

$\hat{Y} = \hat{f}(X)$ (Our estimate)

Flowchart for a standard AI/ML Algorithm

WANT: $f \approx \hat{f}$ (our estimate of f)
"True" relationship
w/ w X & Y

How To Quantify The proximity of f To \hat{f} ?
Use a Loss Function.

Examples of Loss Functions:

① 0-1 Loss (for Classification)

$$L(f(x), \hat{f}(x)) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } f(x) = \hat{f}(x) \\ 1 & \text{if } f(x) \neq \hat{f}(x) \end{cases}$$

② Quadratic Loss

$$L(f(x), \hat{f}(x)) = \frac{1}{2} (f(x) - \hat{f}(x))^2$$

Flow Chart

Partition into Training & Test sets

I
Collect Data: $D = \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$

D_1 : Training Set
 $D_1 \subset D$

D_2 : Test Set
 $D_2 \subset D$

$(D_1 \cap D_2 = \emptyset)$

Note!

II

Train a Model: \hat{f} using D_1
(Regression, NN, SVM)

III

Evaluate Model with Loss function, using D_2

* Big Ideas: The smaller (Total) Loss on the Test set, the better the model (ideally).

We use the results on the Test set to ~~generalize~~ approximate how well the model will generalize to new data.

With unsupervised learning we are just given data without labels.

In this case we are interested in discovering "interesting structure" in the data; This is sometimes called knowledge discovery or cluster analysis.

Note: Reinforcement Learning offers a 3rd

problem class in AI/ML - where an "agent" learns how to act or behave when given occasional reward or punishment signals

(e.g. AlphaGo (2016), Atari w/ Deep Q-learning (2014))

Parametric Models vs. Non-Parametric Models

Parametric Models consist of a finite (a fixed #) of parameters: $\vec{\Theta} = \langle \theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_N \rangle$.

Idea: Using the training data, we "learn" values for these parameters.

Ex. Polynomial Regression: Fit a polynomial curve to a data set (e.g. using OLS, etc.)

Linear Regression

$$\hat{f}(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x$$

"Learning" this model entails finding plausible values for θ_0, θ_1 .

Quadratic Regression

$$\hat{f}(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x + \theta_2 x^2$$

Model Parameters: $\vec{\theta} = \langle \theta_0, \theta_1, \theta_2 \rangle$.

Polynomial Regression

$$\hat{f}(x) = \sum_{i=0}^d \theta_i x^i$$

\rightarrow (d+1 parameters)

Note: If we use a model with a small number of parameters it is usually easier to train (requires less time & data).

However, a low dimensional Model

might not be sufficiently "complex" to capture all the interesting & useful patterns in our data!

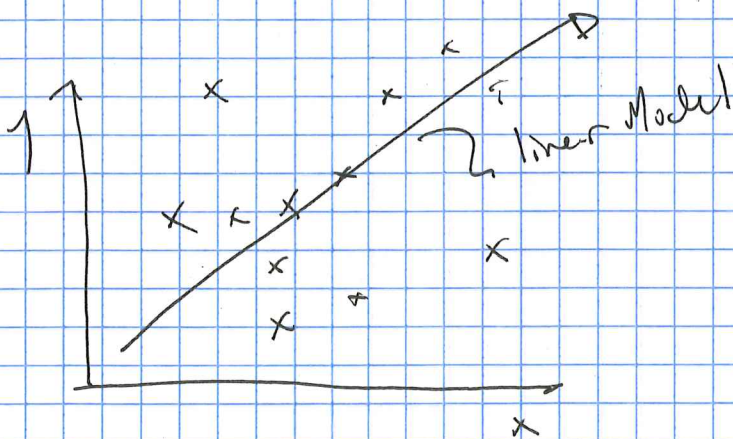
(This is called underfitting)

On the other hand, a large dimension/complex model requires more computation & time on average;

Moreover, an excessively complex model will be "overly tuned" to the training data

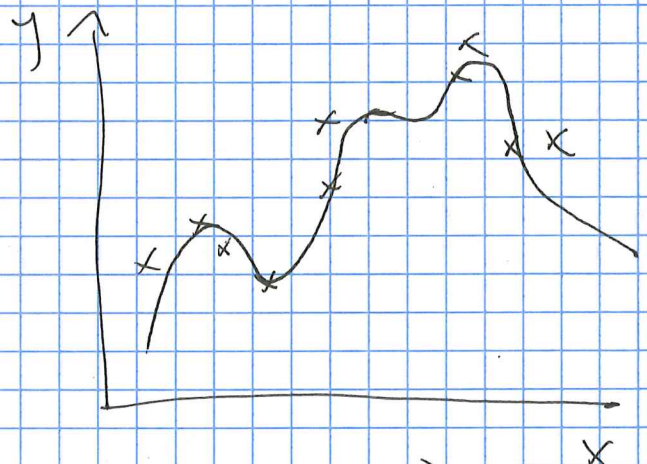
(This is called overfitting)

Conclusion: There is no "free lunch" in data science!



(underfitting)

low complexity model



(overfitting)

high complexity model

How do I know when I get it right?

(5)

This is the "art" of AI/ML/Data Science!

(In other words there is no simple answer)

In general, however, remember that we can assess our model accuracy with a loss function:

Quadratic Loss :
$$MSE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{f}(x_i))^2$$

Mean-squared error over test data

0-1 Loss :
$$Ave = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n L(y_i, \hat{f}(x_i))$$

take Average counts # of "mistakes"

Note: Unfortunately, having a low training error (e.g. MSE) does not guarantee low test error in general.

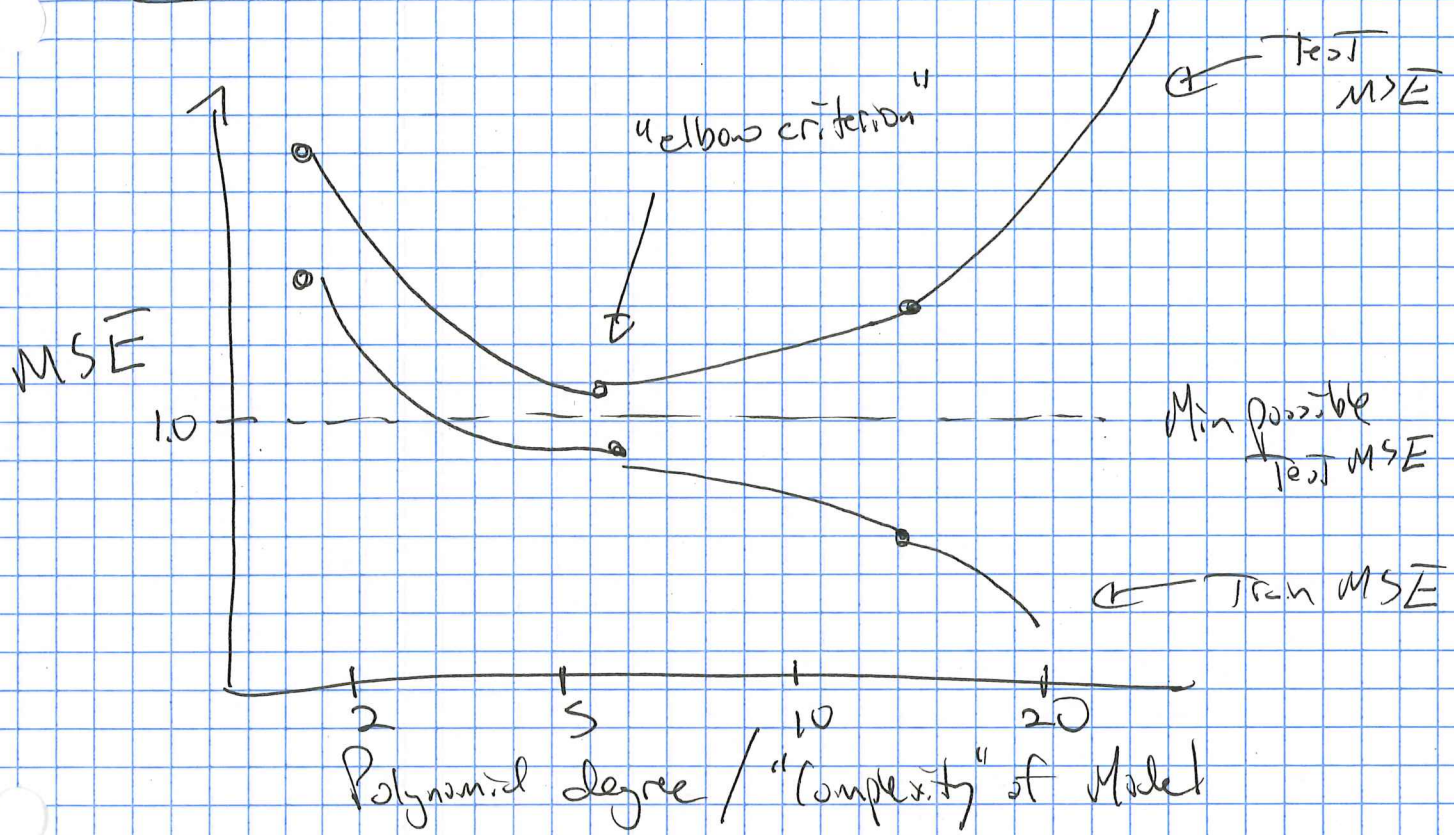
One common remedy for parametric models:

Train several models of varying complexity

(e.g. linear regression, quad, cubic regression), compute

MSE for each test set, choose model w/ lowest MSE.

Common "U-shape" error graph:



Bias-Variance Tradeoff

The "U-shape" phenomenon in the Test MSE is indicative of two competing properties of learned models: Bias & Variance.

low-dimensional (simple models): high Bias & low variance

high-dimensional (complex/flexible models): low Bias & High Variance

More concretely,

The expected ^{Test} MSE for a given value x_0 ,
can always be decomposed into the sum
of 3 fundamental quantities:

$$E[(y_0 - \hat{f}(x_0))^2] = \text{Var}[\hat{f}(x_0)] + [\text{Bias}(\hat{f}(x_0))]^2 + \text{Var}(\epsilon)$$

(expected test MSE)
(irreducible error)

From above, we see that the ideal model will simultaneously achieve low variance & low bias.

Ex. Unsupervised Learning

Suppose we have $D = \left\{ (x_1^{(i)}, x_2^{(i)}) \right\}_{i=1}^n$
with no class labels (i.e. no y values).
(2-d data)

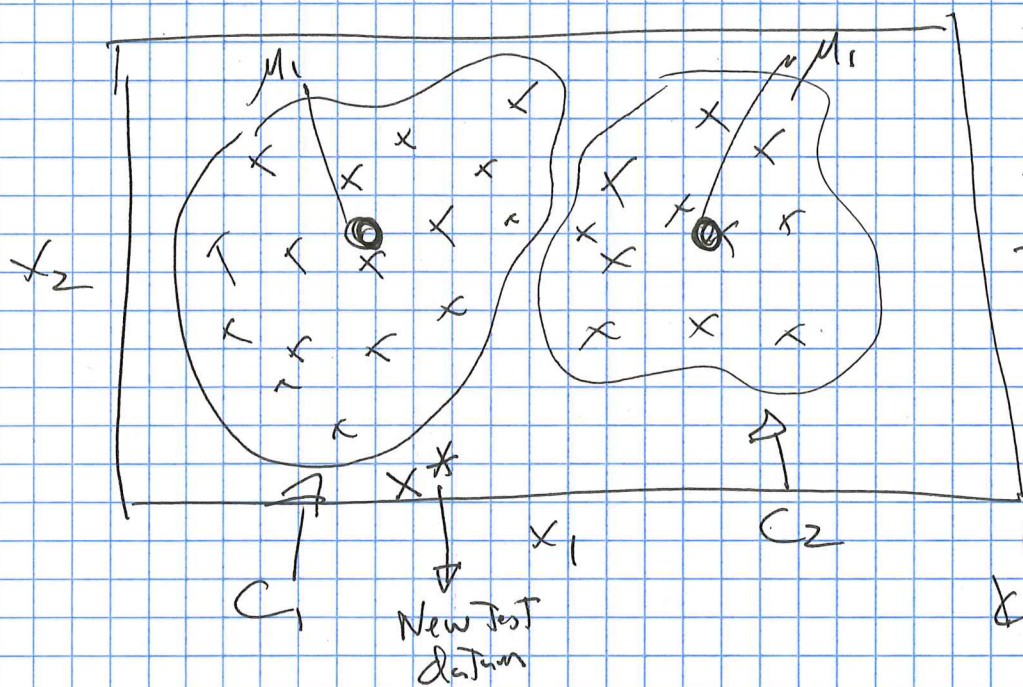
(superscript indicates datum #)

We will use a clustering method to first

cluster the data (let $k = \#$ of clusters) &

then classify a new datum based on a nearest centroid criterion - this is usually called k-means.

Idea: Suppose we obtain biometric data from men & women ($\Rightarrow k=2$), where $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^2$.



We use the k-means algorithm to identify each training datum as belonging to either cluster 1 or cluster 2. (Don't worry about k-means details now)

$$\mu_1 = \frac{1}{|C_1|} \sum_{C_1} (x_1, x_2) \rightarrow \text{centroid of } C_1$$

$$\mu_2 = \frac{1}{|C_2|} \sum_{C_2} (x_1, x_2) \rightarrow \text{centroid of } C_2$$

How to classify new test datum (x^*)?

$$\text{Class for } x^* = \arg \min_j \|x^* - \mu_j\|_2$$

i.e. classify x^* based on nearest cluster center.

Note That the previous examples are considered parametric models, because the # of parameters is fixed & once we "learn" these parameter values, the training data can be "discarded" when we perform test prediction/classification.

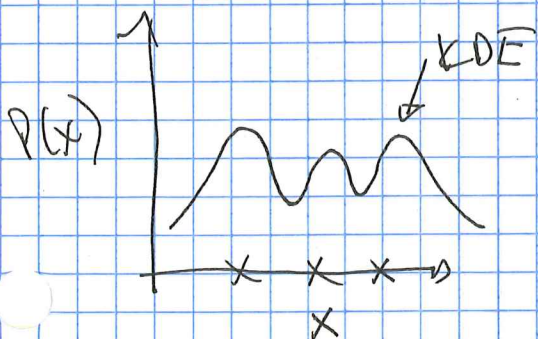
What would a non-parametric model look like?

Two conditions: (1) The # of parameters is not fixed, and typically grows as the training set gets larger;

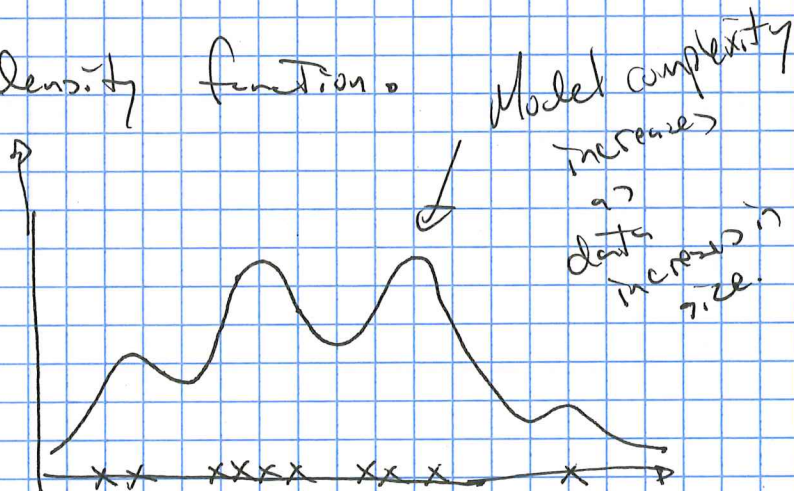
(2) The training data is retained for prediction/classification (necessarity)

Ex. Kernel Density estimation

Idea: fit a smooth/flexible "histogram" to data - produce a probability density function.



(n=3)



(n=10)

One more useful & common Model

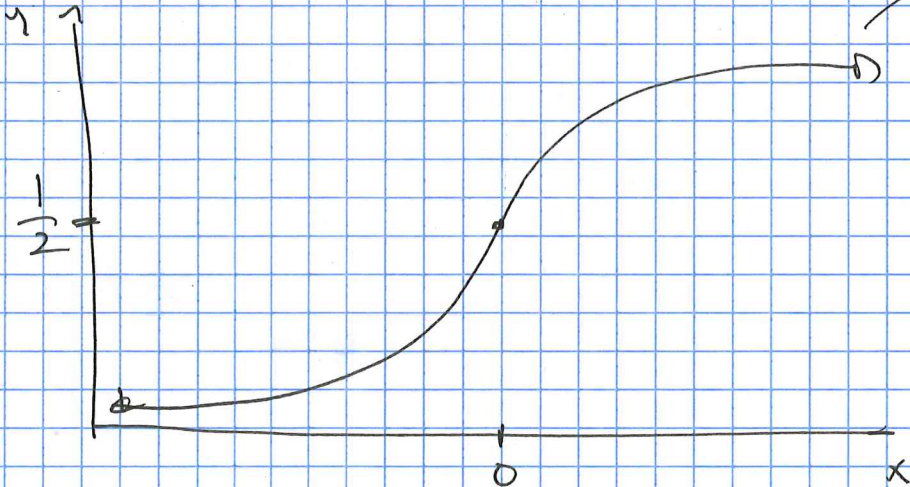
Ex.

Logistic Regression : A parametric (Binary) Classification Model.

Def. The sigmoid function :

$$\text{Sigm}(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}}$$

used for logistic regression & as "activation" function in NNs.



Graph of a sigmoid

Note: $\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \text{Sigm}(x) = 1$

$\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \text{Sigm}(x) = 0$

Idea: Parameter Models $\vec{\theta} = \langle \theta_0, \dots, \theta_n \rangle$

$$P(y | \vec{x}, \vec{\theta}) = \underbrace{\text{Ber}}_{\text{Bernoulli}}(y | \text{sigm}(\vec{\theta}^T \vec{x}))$$

$y \in \{0, 1\}$ (Binary class)
 \vec{x} (datum for classification)
 $\vec{\theta}$ (model parameters)

Steps: (1) With training, linear model parameters $\vec{\theta}$.

(2) evaluate: $\text{sigm}(\vec{\theta}^T \vec{x}) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\vec{\theta}^T \vec{x}}}$

(3) Apply a decision rule (Threshold)

e.g. $\hat{y}(x) = 1 \iff P(y=1|x) > 0.5$

Toy example: Training Data Recall: $y \in \{0, 1\}$

