



CS 4375
Introduction to Machine Learning

Nicholas Ruozzi
University of Texas at Dallas

What is ML?



“A computer program is said to learn from experience E with respect to some task T and some performance measure P , if its performance on T , as measured by P , improves with experience E .”

- Tom Mitchell

Course Info.



- Instructor: Nicholas Ruozzi
 - Office: ECSS 3.409
 - Office hours: M 12:45pm-2:00pm, W 10:30am-11:30am
- TA: ?
 - Office hours and location: ?
- Course website: www.utdallas.edu/~nicholas.ruozzi/cs4375/2022fa/
- Book: none required
- Piazza (online forum): sign-up link on eLearning

Prerequisites



- CS3345, Data Structures and Algorithms
- CS3341, Probability and Statistics in Computer Science
- “Mathematical sophistication”
 - Basic probability
 - Linear algebra: eigenvalues/vectors, matrices, vectors, etc.
 - Multivariate calculus: derivatives, gradients, etc.
- I’ll review some concepts as we come to them, but **you should brush up on areas that you aren’t as comfortable**

- Dimensionality reduction
 - PCA
 - Matrix Factorizations
- Learning
 - Supervised, unsupervised, active, reinforcement, ...
 - SVMs & kernel methods
 - Decision trees, k-NN, logistic regression, ...
 - Parameter estimation: Bayesian methods, MAP estimation, maximum likelihood estimation, expectation maximization, ...
 - Clustering: k-means & spectral clustering
- Probabilistic models
 - Bayesian networks
 - Naïve Bayes
- Neural networks
- Evaluation
 - AOC, cross-validation, precision/recall
- Statistical methods
 - Boosting, bagging, bootstrapping
 - Sampling

- 5-6 problem sets (50%)
 - See collaboration policy on the web
 - Mix of theory and programming (in MATLAB or Python)
 - Available and turned in on eLearning
 - Approximately one assignment every two weeks
- Midterm Exam (20%)
- Final Exam (30%)
- Attendance policy?

-subject to change-

Basic Machine Learning Paradigm



- Collect data
- Build a model using “training” data
- Use model to make predictions

- **Input:** $(x^{(1)}, y^{(1)}), \dots, (x^{(M)}, y^{(M)})$
 - $x^{(m)}$ is the m^{th} data item and $y^{(m)}$ is the m^{th} **label**
- **Goal:** find a function f such that $f(x^{(m)})$ is a “good approximation” to $y^{(m)}$
 - Can use it to predict y values for previously unseen x values

Examples of Supervised Learning

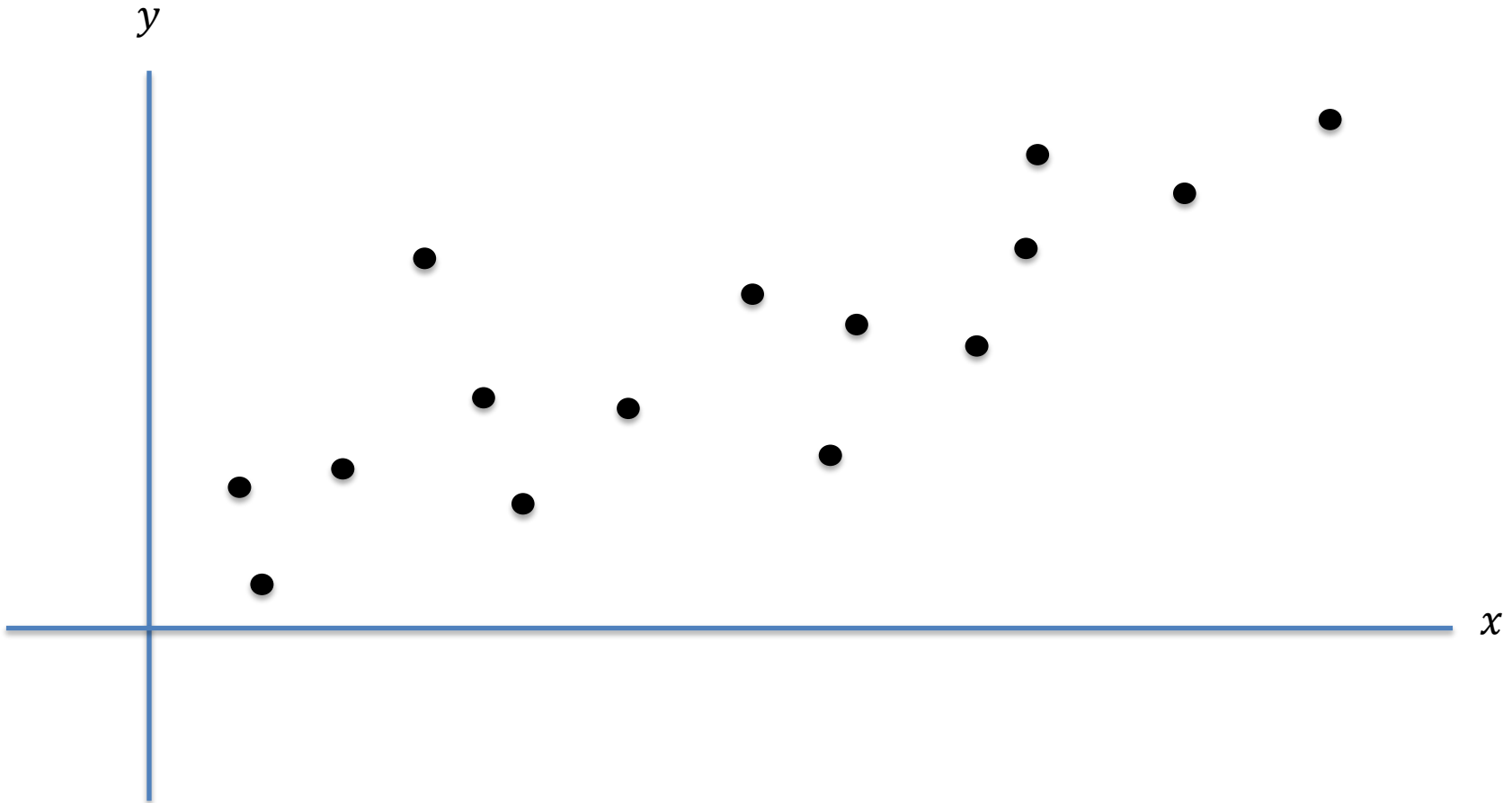


- Spam email detection
- Handwritten digit recognition
- Stock market prediction
- More?

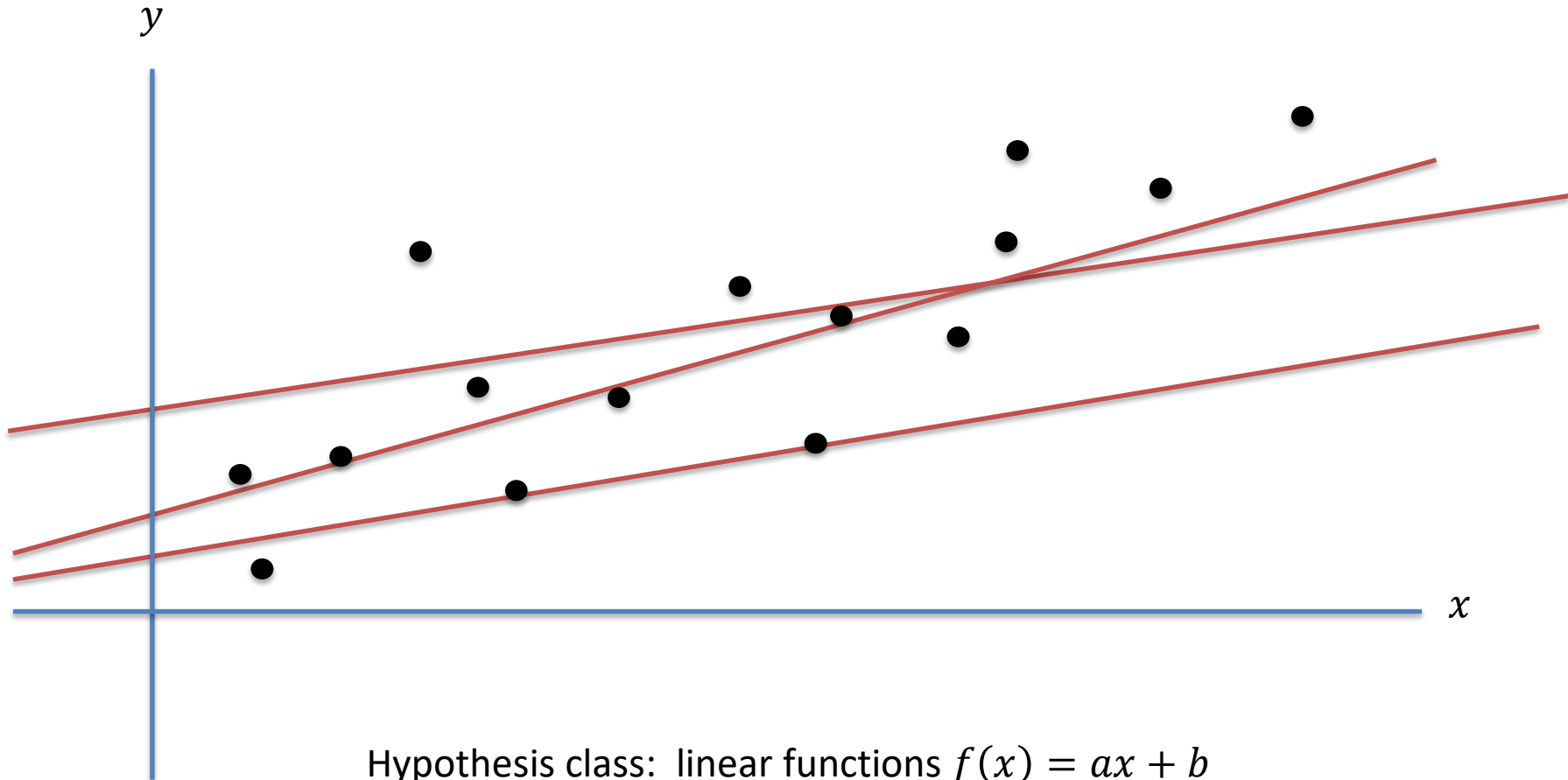
- **Hypothesis space**: set of allowable functions $f: X \rightarrow Y$
- Goal: find the “best” element of the hypothesis space
 - How do we measure the quality of f ?

- Simple linear regression
 - Input: pairs of points $(x^{(1)}, y^{(1)}), \dots, (x^{(M)}, y^{(M)})$ with $x^{(m)} \in \mathbb{R}$ and $y^{(m)} \in \mathbb{R}$
 - Hypothesis space: set of linear functions $f(x) = ax + b$ with $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$
 - Error metric: squared difference between the predicted value and the actual value

Regression



Regression



How do we compute the error of a specific hypothesis?

Linear Regression



- For any data point, x , the learning algorithm predicts $f(x)$
- In typical regression applications, measure the fit using a squared **loss function**

$$L(f) = \frac{1}{M} \sum_m (f(x^{(m)}) - y^{(m)})^2$$

- Want to minimize the average loss on the **training data**
- The optimal linear hypothesis is then given by

$$\min_{a,b} \frac{1}{M} \sum_m (ax^{(m)} + b - y^{(m)})^2$$

$$\min_{a,b} \frac{1}{M} \sum_m (ax^{(m)} + b - y^{(m)})^2$$

- How do we find the optimal a and b ?

$$\min_{a,b} \frac{1}{M} \sum_m (ax^{(m)} + b - y^{(m)})^2$$

- How do we find the optimal a and b ?
 - Solution 1: take derivatives and solve
(there is a closed form solution!)
 - Solution 2: use gradient descent

$$\min_{a,b} \frac{1}{M} \sum_m (ax^{(m)} + b - y^{(m)})^2$$

- How do we find the optimal a and b ?
 - Solution 1: take derivatives and solve
(there is a closed form solution!)
 - Solution 2: use gradient descent
 - This approach is much more likely to be useful for general loss functions

Iterative method to minimize a **(convex) differentiable** function f

A function $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is **convex** if

$$\lambda f(x) + (1 - \lambda)f(y) \geq f(\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y)$$

for all $\lambda \in [0,1]$ and all $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$

Iterative method to minimize a (convex) differentiable function f

- Pick an initial point x_0
- Iterate until convergence

$$x_{t+1} = x_t - \gamma_t \nabla f(x_t)$$

where γ_t is the t^{th} step size (sometimes called learning rate)

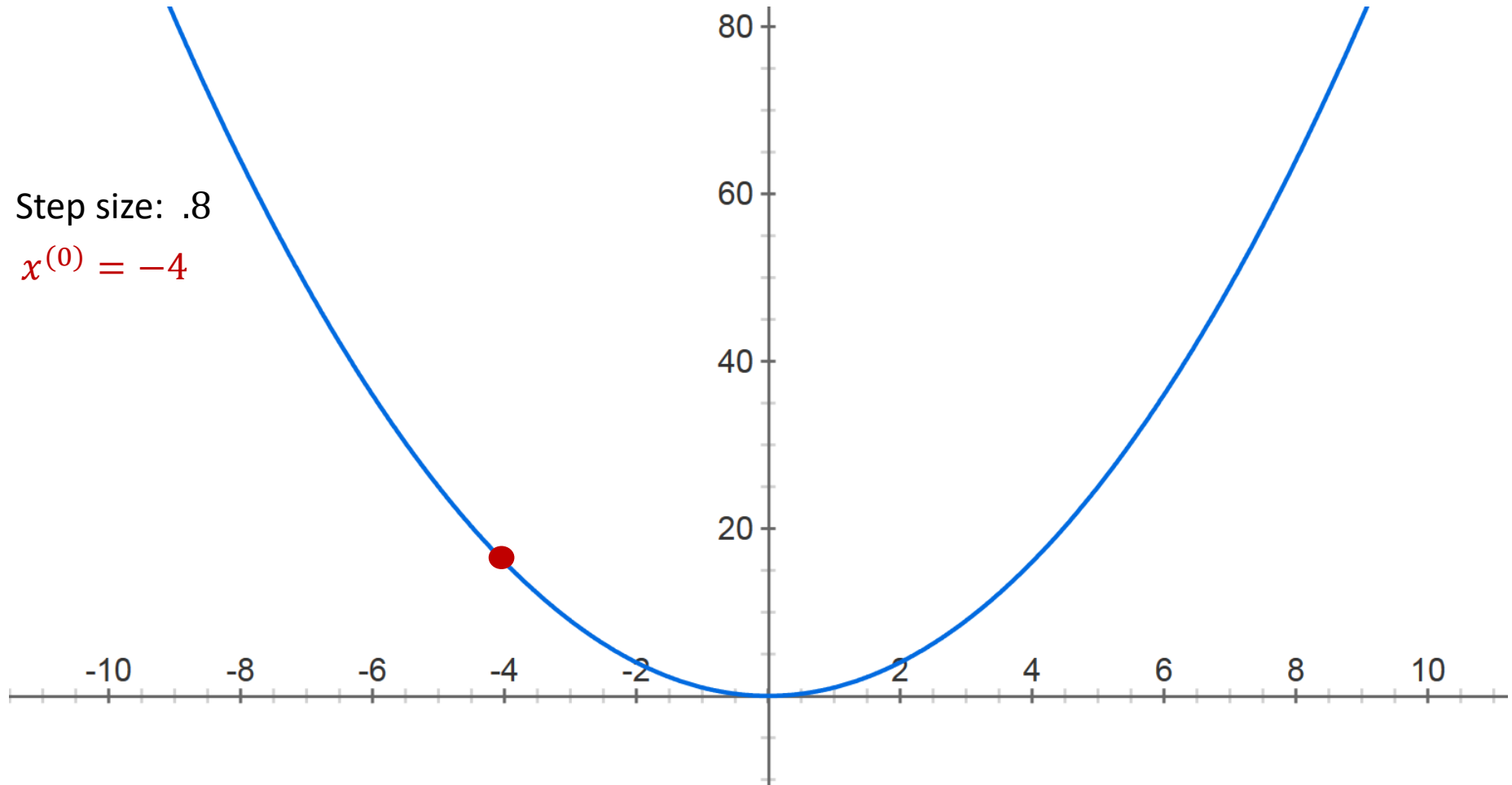
Gradient Descent



$$f(x) = x^2$$

Step size: .8

$$x^{(0)} = -4$$



Gradient Descent

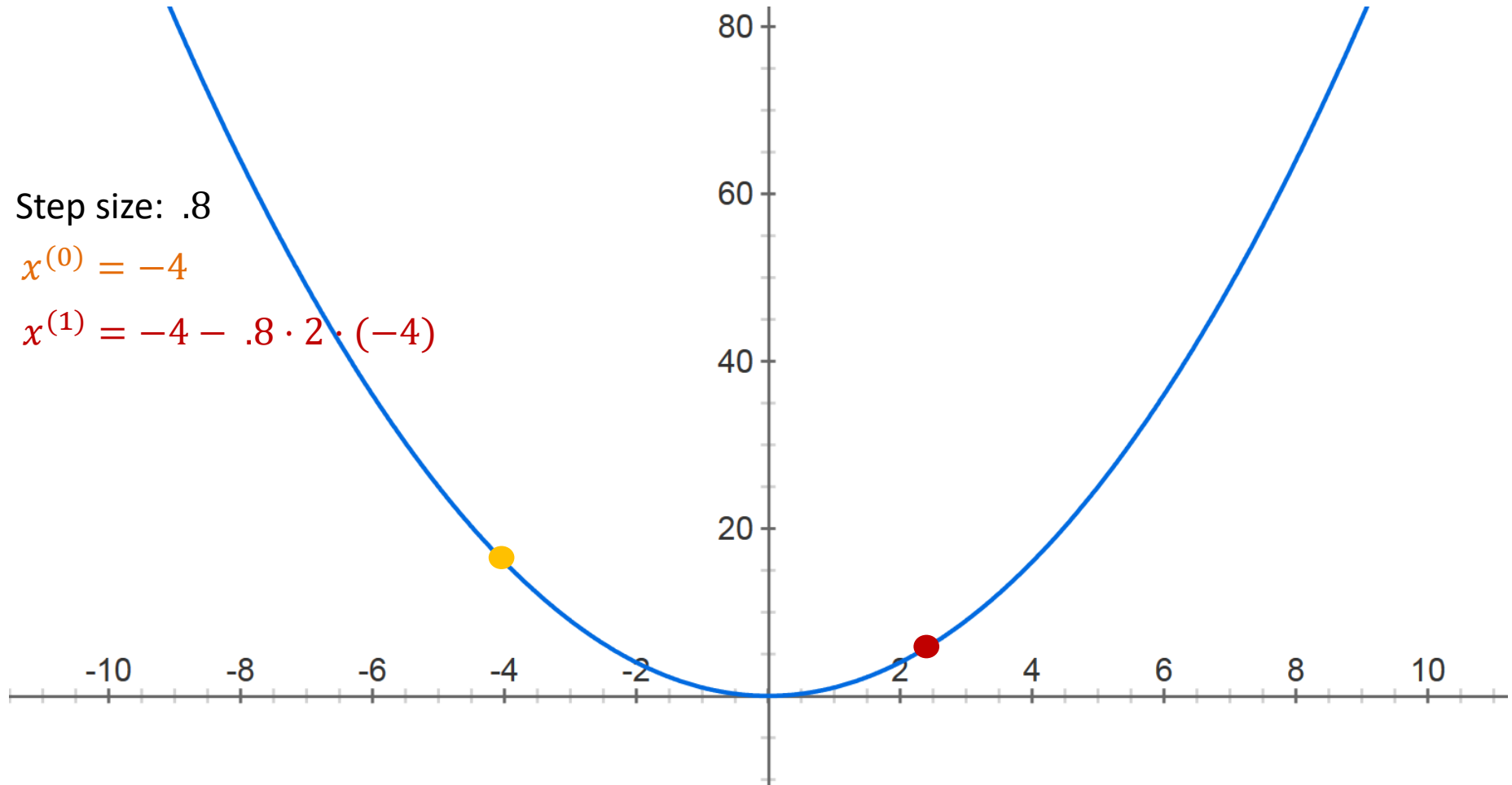


$$f(x) = x^2$$

Step size: .8

$$x^{(0)} = -4$$

$$x^{(1)} = -4 - .8 \cdot 2 \cdot (-4)$$



Gradient Descent

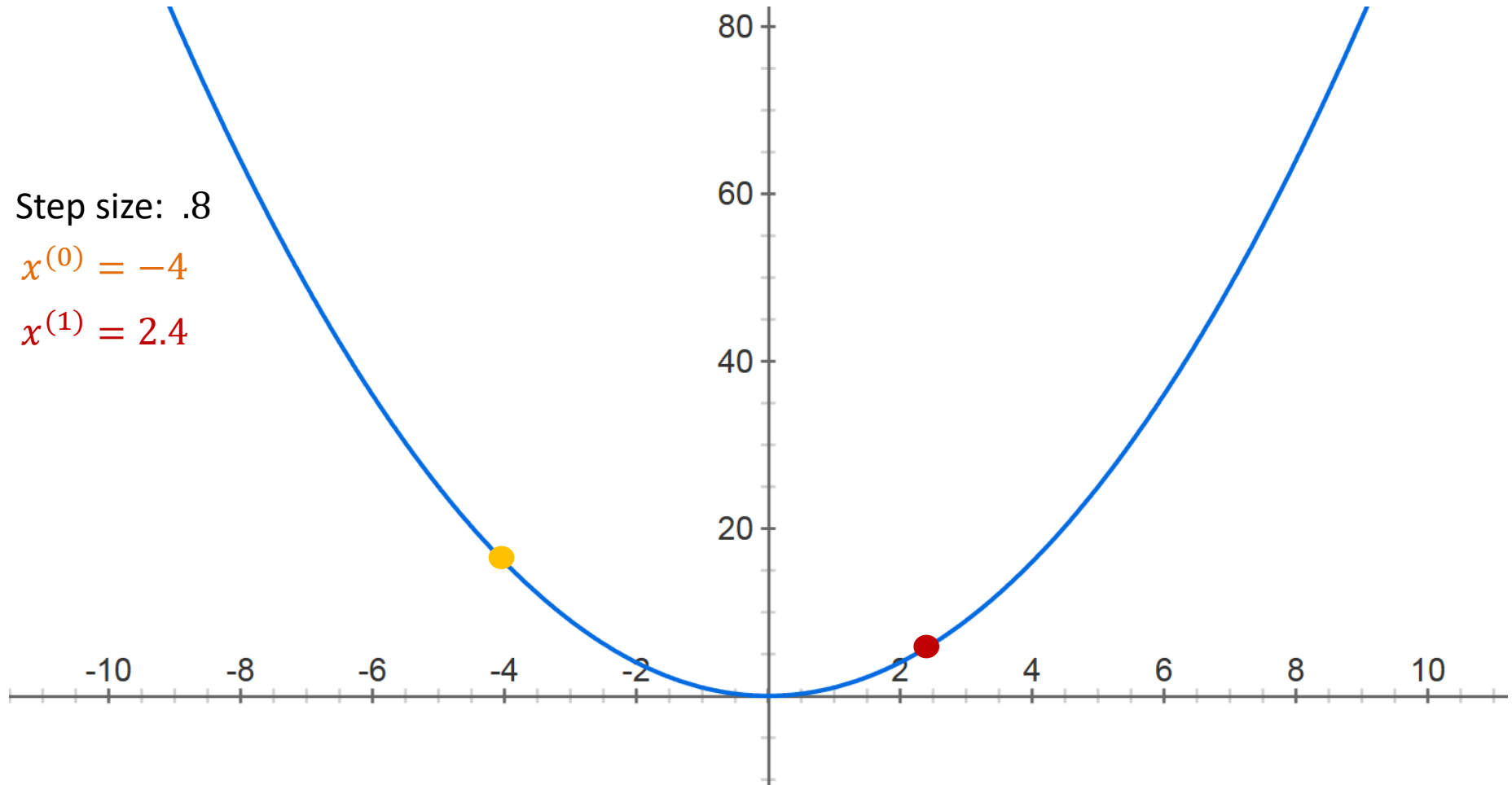


$$f(x) = x^2$$

Step size: .8

$$x^{(0)} = -4$$

$$x^{(1)} = 2.4$$



Gradient Descent



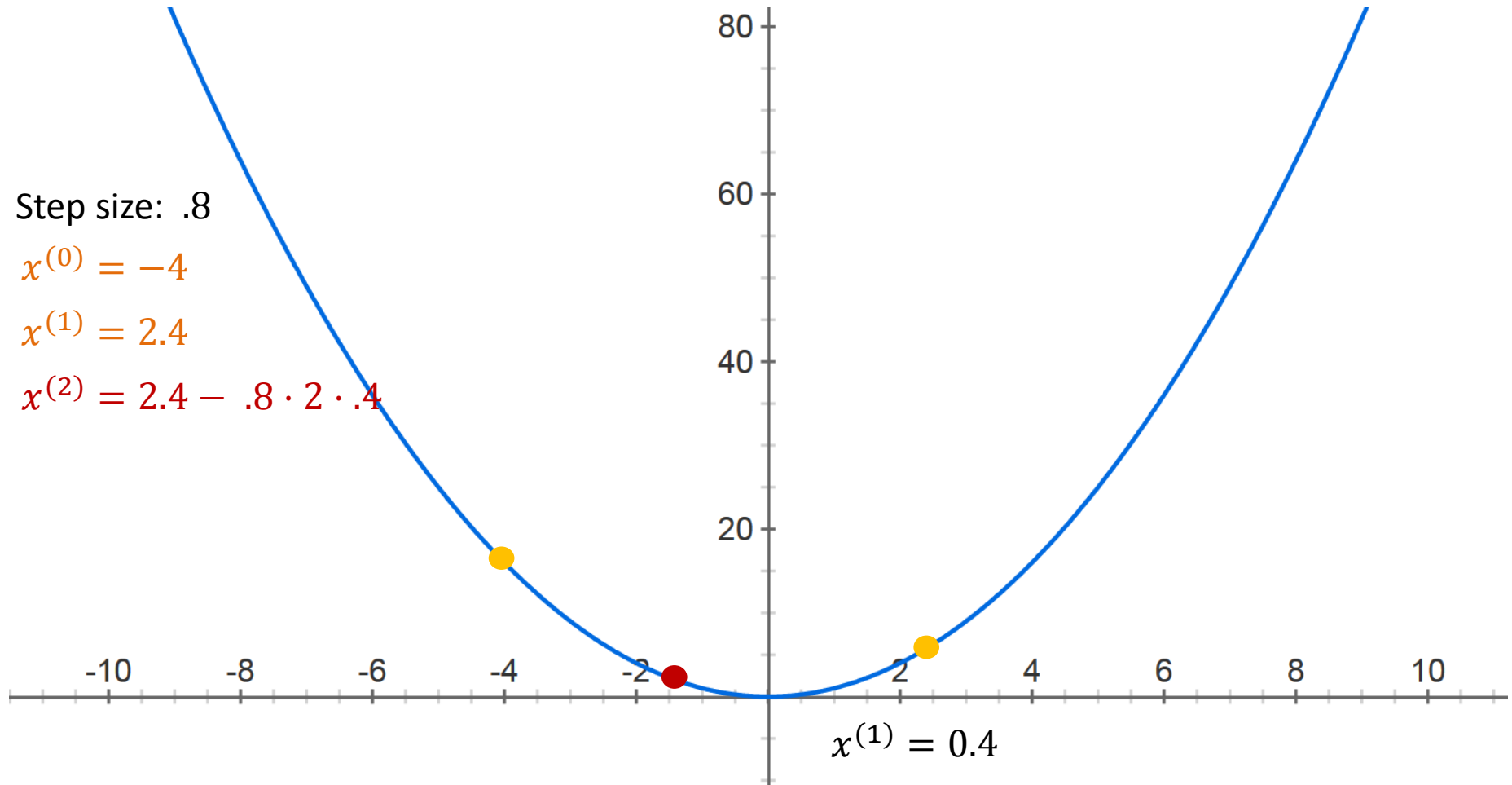
$$f(x) = x^2$$

Step size: .8

$$x^{(0)} = -4$$

$$x^{(1)} = 2.4$$

$$x^{(2)} = 2.4 - .8 \cdot 2 \cdot .4$$



Gradient Descent



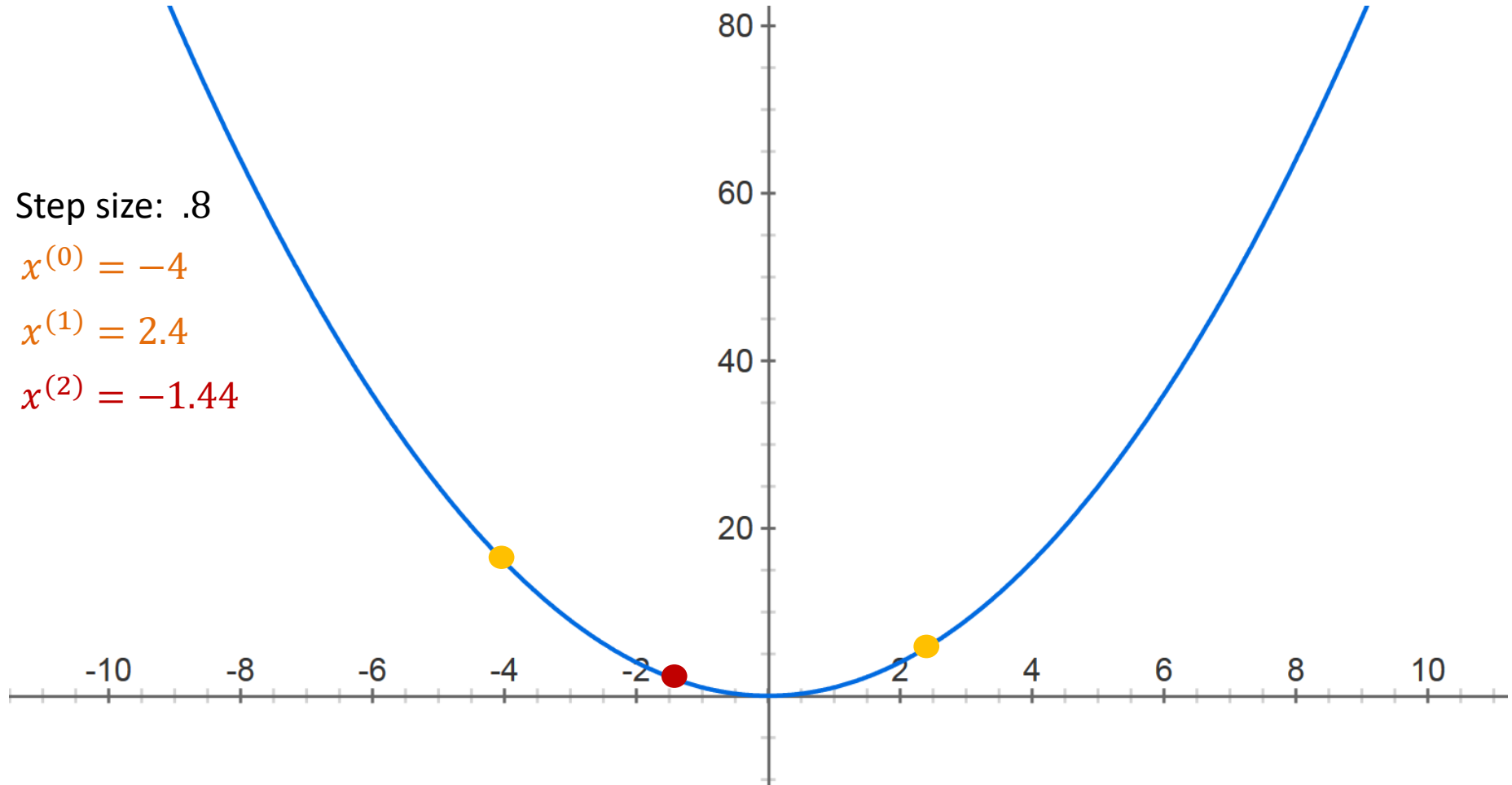
$$f(x) = x^2$$

Step size: .8

$$x^{(0)} = -4$$

$$x^{(1)} = 2.4$$

$$x^{(2)} = -1.44$$



Gradient Descent



$$f(x) = x^2$$

Step size: .8

$$x^{(0)} = -4$$

$$x^{(1)} = 2.4$$

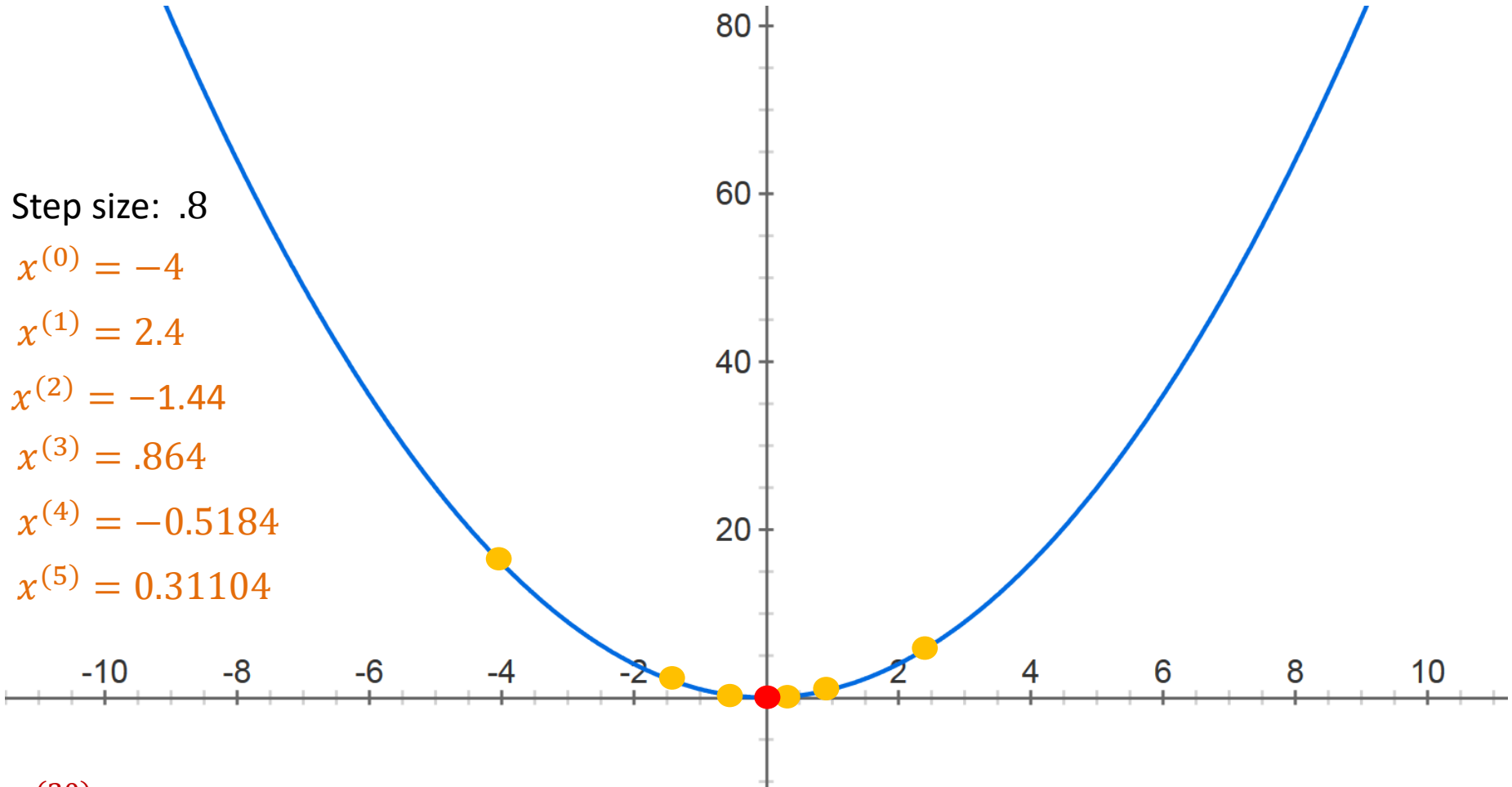
$$x^{(2)} = -1.44$$

$$x^{(3)} = .864$$

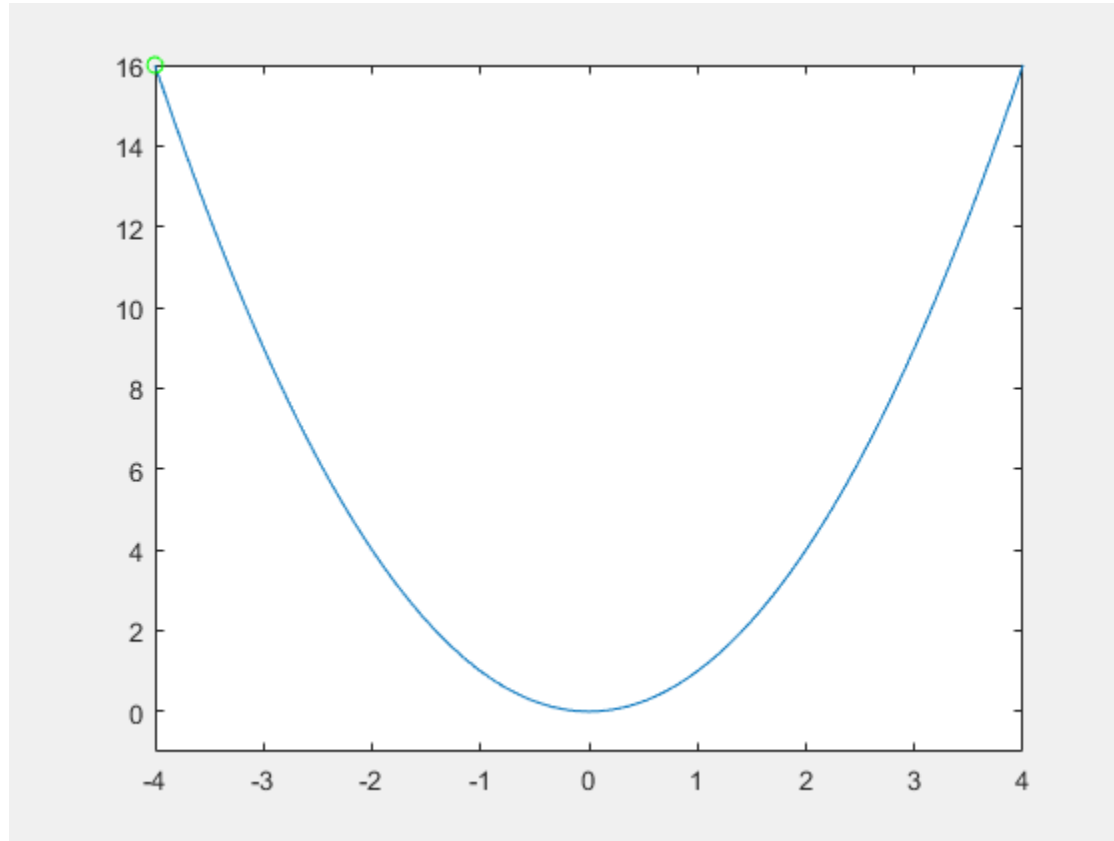
$$x^{(4)} = -0.5184$$

$$x^{(5)} = 0.31104$$

$$x^{(30)} = -8.84296e - 07$$

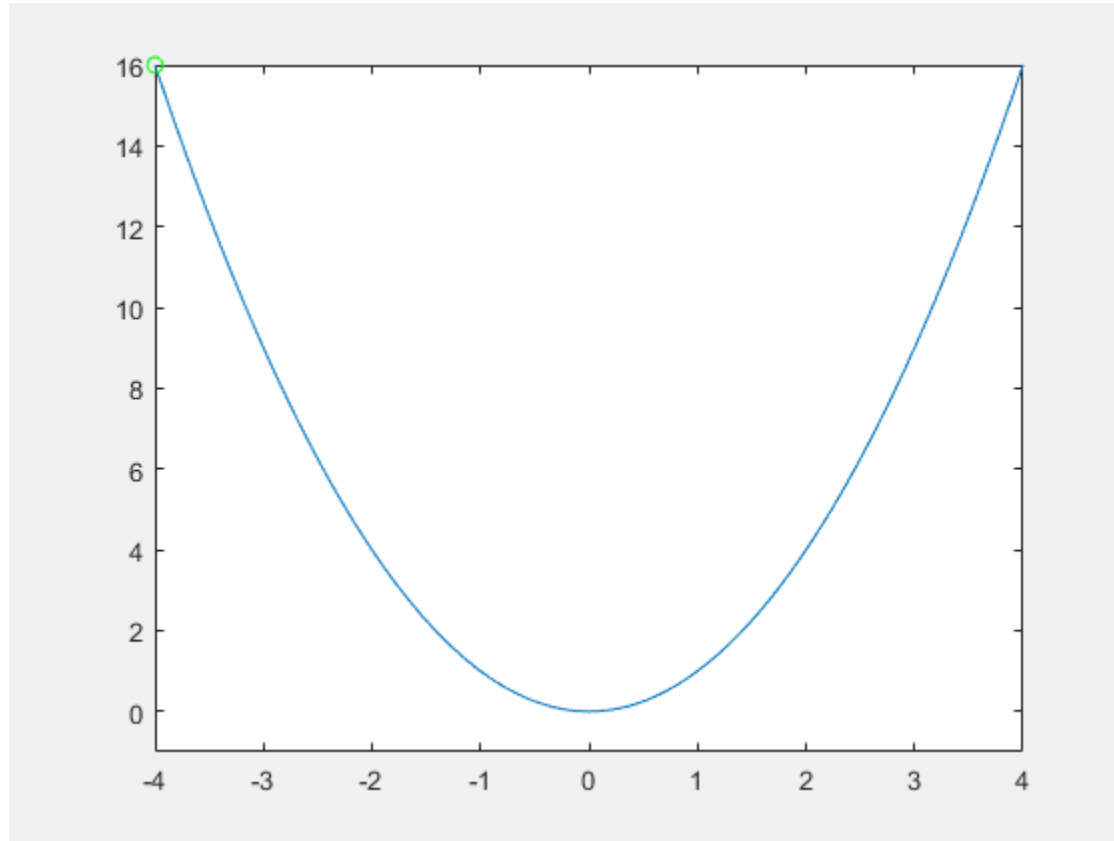


Gradient Descent



Step size: .9

Gradient Descent



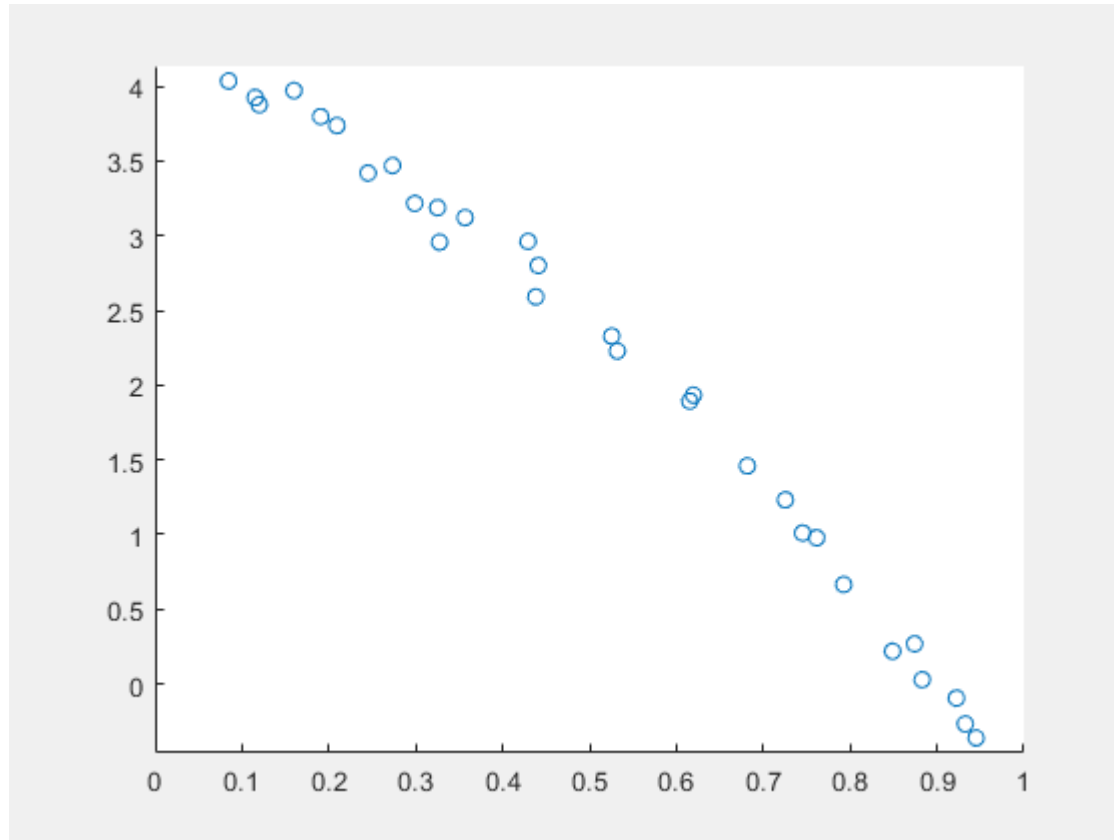
Step size: .2

$$\min_{a,b} \frac{1}{M} \sum_m (ax^{(m)} + b - y^{(m)})^2$$

- What is the gradient of this function?
- What does a gradient descent iteration look like for this simple regression problem?

(on board)

Gradient Descent



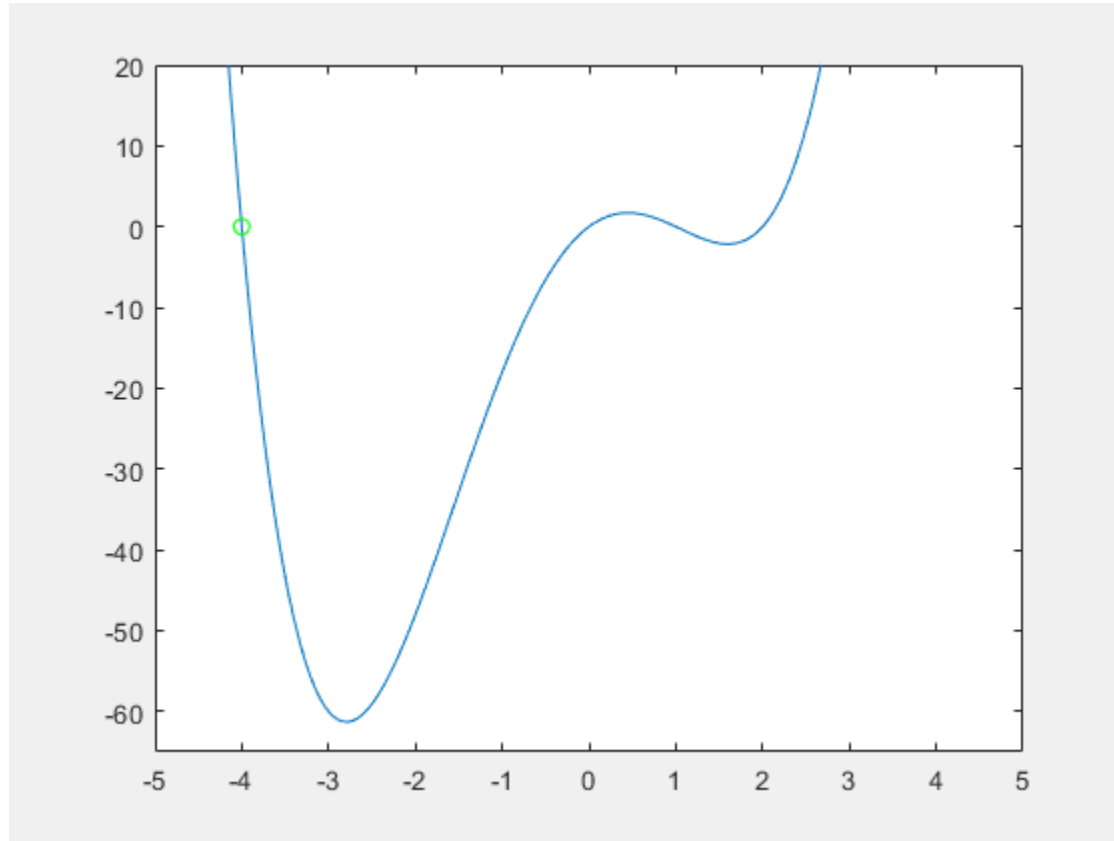
- In higher dimensions, the linear regression problem is essentially the same with $x^{(m)} \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$$\min_{a \in \mathbb{R}^n, b} \frac{1}{M} \sum_m (a^T x^{(m)} + b - y^{(m)})^2$$

- Can still use gradient descent to minimize this
 - Not much more difficult than the $n = 1$ case

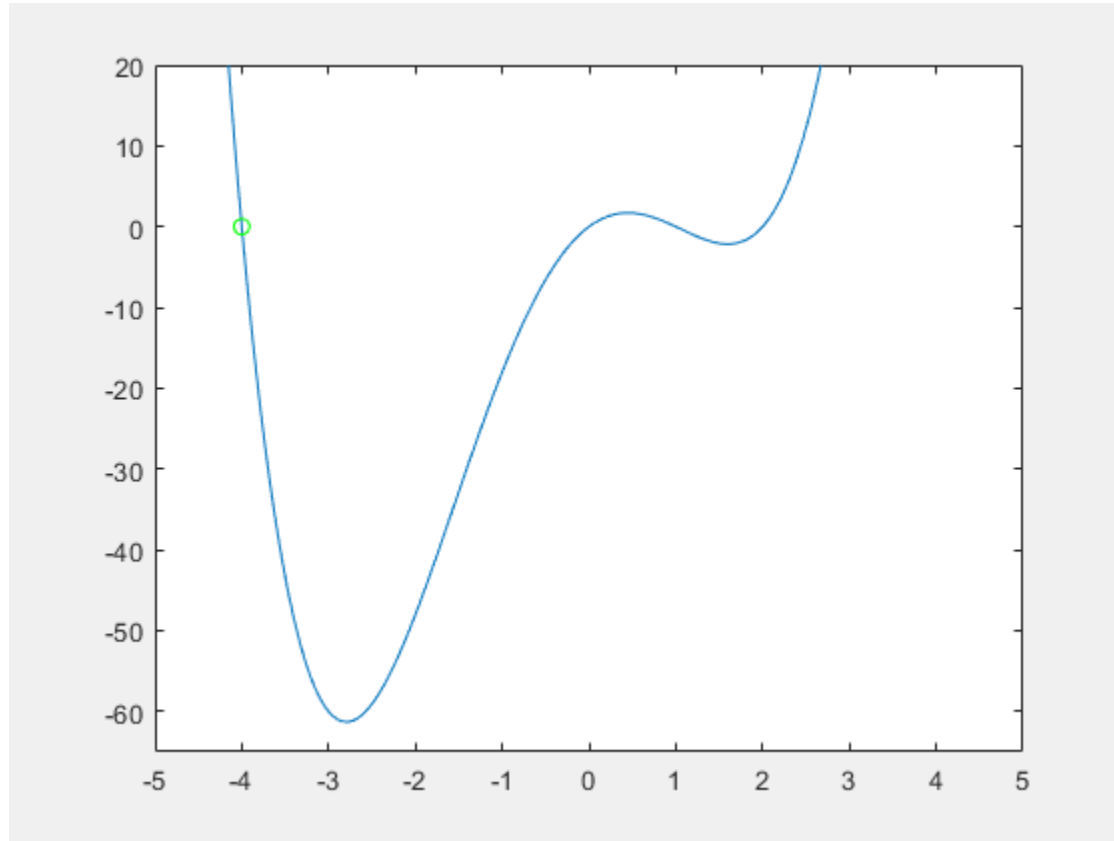
- Gradient descent converges under certain technical conditions on the function f and the step size γ_t
 - If f is convex, then any fixed point of gradient descent must correspond to a global minimum of f
 - In general, for a nonconvex function, may only converge to a local optimum

Gradient Descent



Step size matters!

Gradient Descent



Step size matters!

- What if we enlarge the hypothesis class?
 - Quadratic functions: $ax^2 + bx + c$
 - k -degree polynomials: $a_k x^k + a_{k-1} x^{k-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$

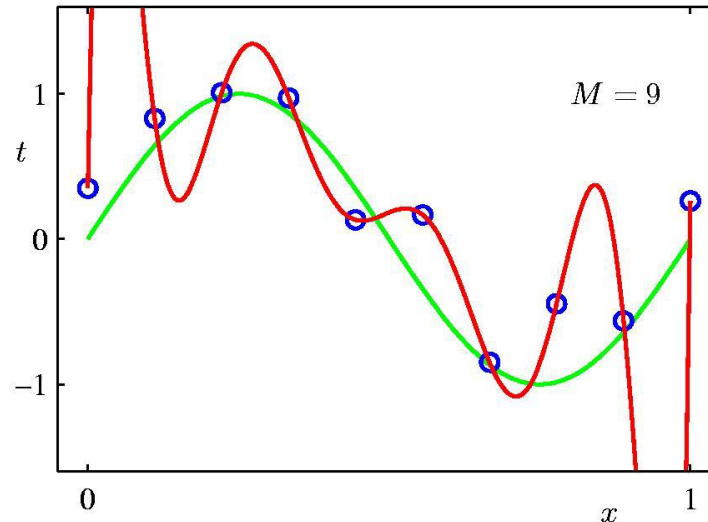
$$\min_{a_k, \dots, a_0} \frac{1}{M} \sum_m \left(a_k (x^{(m)})^k + \dots + a_1 x^{(m)} + a_0 - y^{(m)} \right)^2$$

- What if we enlarge the hypothesis class?
 - Quadratic functions: $ax^2 + bx + c$
 - k -degree polynomials: $a_k x^k + a_{k-1} x^{k-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$
- Can we always learn “better” with a larger hypothesis class?

Regression



- What if we enlarge the hypothesis class?
 - Quadratic functions: $ax^2 + bx + c$
 - k -degree polynomials: $a_k x^k + a_{k-1} x^{k-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$
- Can we always learn “better” with a larger hypothesis class?



- Larger hypothesis space always decreases the cost function, but this does **NOT** necessarily mean better predictive performance
 - This phenomenon is known as **overfitting**
 - Ideally, we would select the **simplest** hypothesis consistent with the observed data
- In practice, we cannot simply evaluate our learned hypothesis on the training data, we want it to perform well on unseen data (otherwise, we can just memorize the training data!)
 - Report the loss on some held out **test data** (i.e., data not used as part of the training process)