Intelligent Embedded Systems

Uncertainty, Information and Learning Mechanisms (Part 2)

Intelligence for Embedded Systems

Ph. D. and Master Course Manuel Roveri Politecnico di Milano, DEIB, Italy

Uncertaintanty and Learning

- The real world is prone to uncertainty
- At different level of the data analysis process



- Two questions:
 - ✓ Why do we need learning mechanisms?
 - Which are basics of supervised statistical learning?

A "toy" example

A very tough classification problem

???

Physical model ? I did not completed my PhD in Physics yet Data-driven might be a good solution (brute-force as well)

Pass

NO Pass

What is the learning goal here?

POLITECNICO DI MILANO

Pass

NO Pass

Pass

Data-processing and applications



Not rarely we wish to generate a functional dependency among sensor datastreams (model) to solve a problem. Some examples

Design a Classifier

 e.g., optical character recognition, face recognition, explosive detection, quality analysis in the manufactoring industry...

<u>Construct a functional dependency</u> (function regression)

• e.g., function reconstruction, data regularization, predictive modeling...



- In some cases the physical equations describing the process are available but some parameters need to be determined
- In others, we do not know the equations ruling the system
- If the considered model is linear we speak about system identification, when not linear about learning





Learning the system model



We will come back to the learning mechanism later



• A real example: classifying microacoustic bursts



The Torrioni di Rialba Monitoring system





- We wish to automatically identify microacoustic bursts to reduce the false alarms (data trigger)
- The application requires to design a classifier assigning a relevant/not relevant label to bursts



Designing a Classifier



- Burst alignment: bursts need to be aligned to provide a common comparison
- Bursts are then processed to extract scalar features
- Design the classifier from available bursts
- Bursts are automatically classified



 Each burst is projected onto an adaptive orthonormal three-axis system estimated with a Principal Component Analysis (PCA)





• Only the principal and the leat signifcant components are further processed





Time Domain Features

- Mean (before PCA)
- PCA eigenvalue
- Max amplitude

- SNR
- PSNR
- Peak decay





Fourier Domain Features (Power Spectrum)

- Max amplitude
- Main frequency
- Variance of peaks







Designing a classifier requires identification of the function separating the labeled points

Designing a classifier: Burst separation

Determination of the linear separating border with Linear Discriminant Analisys (LDA). We assume that the two classes have a gaussian distribution with different means and identical covariance matrix

- Squares correspond to LDA values of real fractures
- Circles correspond to LDA values of false alarms



Projection along LDA axis

Some issues we need to focus on...





- Linear vs. non linear
- Many points versus the available points
- Several tecniques are available to design the classifier (KNN, feedforward, SVM...)





Given a set of *n* noise affected couples (x_i, y_i) we wish to reconstruct the unknown function



Supervised Learning: Statistical framework



The time invariant process generating the data

 $y = g(x) + \eta,$

provides, given input x_i output instance

$$y_i = g(x_i) + \eta_i$$

We collect a set of couples (training set)

$$Z_N = \{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_N, y_N)\}$$

And wish to model unknown g(x) with parameterized family of models $f(\theta, x)$ The goal of **learning** is to build the simplest approximating model able to explain past data Z_N and future instances provided by the data generating process.

The parameterized family of models $f(\theta, x)$ takes advantage of a priori information about g(x).

- belongs to a nested hierarchy of model families
- is mostly continuous and differentiable
- is chosen according to the a priori information we have about g(x) (e.g., gray box modeling), model complexity (linear families) or universal function approximation ability.
- Not rarely it is linear
- It can also have dynamics (e.g. AR, ARX, recurrent networks)

The statistical learning framework

Structural risk

$$\bar{V}(\theta) = \int L(y, f(\theta, x)) p_{x,y} dxy$$

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^o = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{\theta}\in\boldsymbol{\Theta}} \bar{V}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

Empirical risk

$$V_N(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N L(y_i, f(\boldsymbol{\theta}, x_i))$$

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = \operatorname{arg\,min}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}\in\boldsymbol{\Theta}} V_N(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

Learning procedure

$$\theta_{i+1} = \theta_i - \eta \frac{\partial V_N(\theta, Z_N)}{\partial \theta}|_{\theta_i}$$

Inherent, approximation and estimation risks

$$\bar{V}(\hat{\theta}) = \left(\bar{V}(\hat{\theta}) - \bar{V}(\theta^o)\right) + \left(\bar{V}(\theta^o) - V_I\right) + V_I.$$

<u>estimatio</u> <u>n risk</u> approximation risk

<u>inheren</u> <u>t risk</u>

- The <u>inherent risk</u> depends only on the structure of the learning problem and, for this reason, can be reduced only by improving the problem itself
- The <u>approximation risk</u> depends on how close the model family (also named hypothesis space) is to the process generating the data
- The <u>estimation risk</u> depends on the ability of the learning algorithm to select a parameter vector $\hat{\theta}$ close to θ^o

Approximation and estimation risks



Approximation and estimation risks



Choosing a universal function approximator

Not rarely $f(\theta, x)$ is chosen as a feedforward neural network



Choosing an universal function approximator

And the function implemented by a neuron is



The activation function can be

- A hard limiter function
- A sigmodal-like function
- A linear one (output layer)



Quality assessment of the solution

«How good is your 'good'?»



Assessing the performance (1)

- Apparent Error Rate (AER), or resubstitution: The whole set Z_N is used both to infer the model and to estimate its error
- Sample Partitioning (SP): S_D and S_E are obtained by randomly splitting Z_N in two disjoint subsets. S_D is used to estimate the model and S_E to estimate its accuracy.
- Leaving-One-Out (LOO): S_E contains one pattern in Z_N , and S_D contains the remaining n - 1 patterns. The procedure is iterated n times by holding out each pattern in Z_N , and the resulting n estimates are averaged.

Assessing the performance (2)

• w-fold Crossvalidation (wCV): Z_N is randomly split into w disjoint subsets of equal size. For each subset the re- maining w – 1 subsets are merged to form S_D and the reserved subset is used as S_E . The resulting w estimates are averaged. This procedure can be iterated and the results averaged when w \ll n in order to reduce the random resampling variance. This estimate is a generalization of LOO.

An example: Binomial law confidence interval for the classifier accuracy





... what about the confidence of an estimator?

- Bootstrap
- Bag of little bootstrap





Consider a data set Z_n obtained by extracting *n* i.i.d. samples x_1, \ldots, x_n from random variable *x* defined over *X*, i.e., $Z_n = \{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$ and construct the estimator $\Phi_n = \Phi(Z_n)$. We are interested in providing an indication of the quality ζ of Φ_n , e.g., we wish to provide a confidence interval for Φ_n .

Clearly, the ideal framework would recommend to carry out the following procedure

- 1. Extract *m* independent data sets of cardinality *n* from *X* so as to generate datasets Z_n^1, \ldots, Z_n^m ;
- 2. Evaluate, in correspondence of the generic *i*-th data set Z_n^i the estimator $\Phi_n^i = \Phi(Z_n^i)$. Repeat this procedure for all i = 1, ..., m.;
- 3. Estimate the quality $\zeta \left(\Phi_n^1, \dots, \Phi_n^m \right)$ of the estimator Φ_n based on the *m* realizations $\Phi_n^i = \Phi(Z_n^i), i = 1, \dots, m$.



Unfortunately, the above framework is mostly theoretical: if we have *m* independent datasets Z_n we should use all *nm* data to provide a better estimate. This means that in practical applications we have only a dataset but, at the same time, we are interested in evaluating the quality ζ of the estimator Φ_n .

• In the bootstrap method data sets Z_n^i , i = 1, ..., m are extracted with replacement from Z_n

Algorithm 15: The bootstrap algorithm

i = 0; while i < m do Extract *n* samples with replacement from Z_n and insert them in Z_n^i ; Compute $\Phi_n^i = \Phi(Z_n^i)$; i = i+1; end

Evaluate the assessment $\zeta(\Phi_n^1, \ldots, \Phi_n^m)$ of the quality of the estimator Φ_n .

The bag of little bootstraps method

 BLB shows to be accurate and appears to over-perform all other bootstrap methods in terms of computational complexity, hence becoming a very appealing method for Big Data

Algorithm 16: The Bag of Little Bootstraps algorithm

 $n' = n^{\gamma}$; i = 0: while i < m do Extract n' samples without replacement from Z_n and insert them in $Z_{n'}^i$; i = 1;while j < r do Extract *n* samples with replacement from $Z_{n'}^i$ and insert them in $Z_{n,i}^i$; Compute $\Phi_{n,i}^i = \Phi(Z_{n,i}^i);$ j=j+1; end e.g., γ=0.6 Evaluate $\zeta_i = \zeta \left(\Phi_{n,1}^i, \cdots, \Phi_{n,r}^i \right);$ i = i+1;end Evaluate the assessment ζ for of the quality of the estimator Φ_n as $\zeta = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^m \zeta_i}{m}$.

Let's play with MATLAB

- Download the examples related to Lecture 3 Part 2
- In the ZIP file:
 - Example 3_2_A.m
 - Linear dataset, linear model
 - Example 3_2_B.m
 - Linear dataset, nonlinear model
 - Example 3_2_C.m
 - Nonlinear dataset, linear model
 - Example 3_2_D.m
 - Nonlinear dataset, nonlinear model
 - Example 3_2_E.m
 - Different number of hidden units
 - Example 3_2_F.m
 - Classification and Apparent Error Rate
 - Example 3_2_G.m
 - Classification and Sample Partitioning