

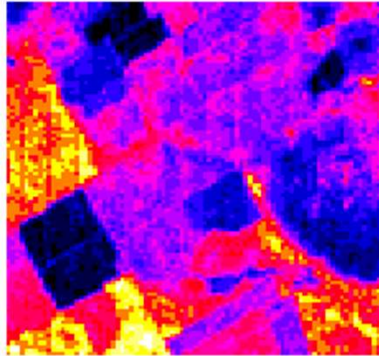
کارگاه مقدماتی امنیت هوش مصنوعی

مبانی یادگیری ماشین

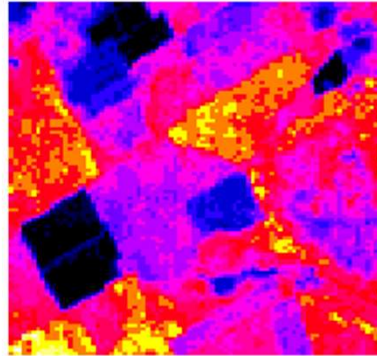
هادی فراهانی-گروه علوم کامپیوتر و داده ها-دانشگاه شهید بهشتی

- Identify the risk factors for prostate cancer.
- Predict whether someone will have a heart attack on the basis of demographic, diet and clinical measurements.
- Customize an email spam detection system.
- Establish the relationship between salary and demographic variables in population survey data.
- Classify the pixels in a LANDSAT image.

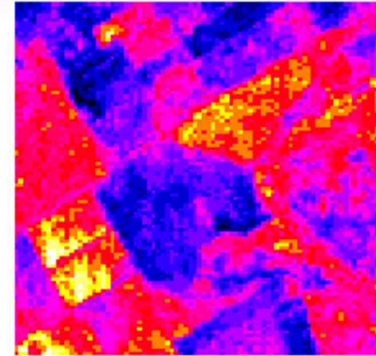
Spectral Band 1



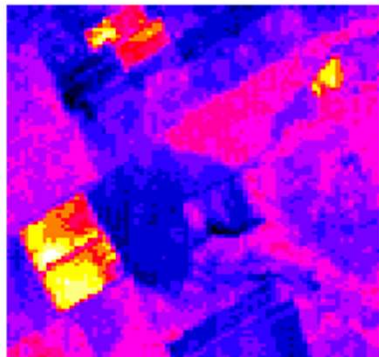
Spectral Band 2



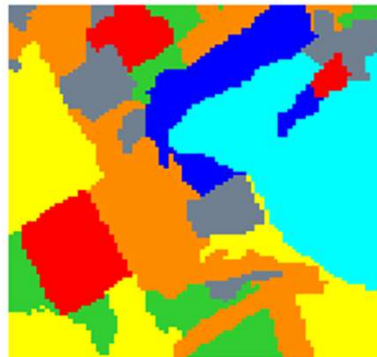
Spectral Band 3



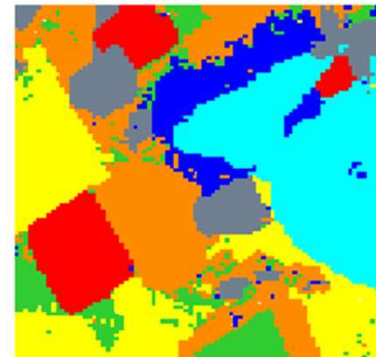
Spectral Band 4

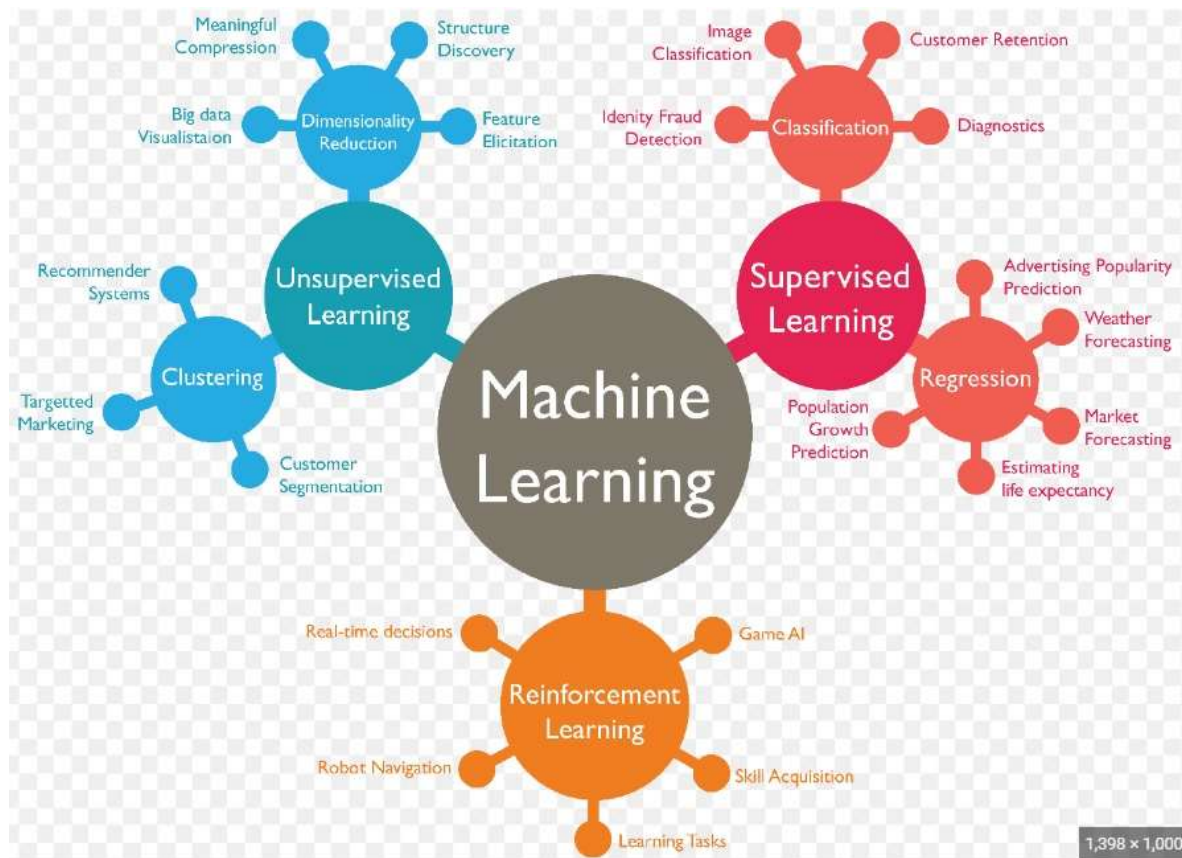


Land Usage



Predicted Land Usage





The Supervised Learning Problem

Starting point:

- Outcome measurement Y (also called dependent variable, response, target).
- Vector of p predictor measurements X (also called inputs, regressors, covariates, features, independent variables).
- In the *regression problem*, Y is quantitative (e.g price, blood pressure).
- In the *classification problem*, Y takes values in a finite, unordered set (survived/died, digit 0-9, cancer class of tissue sample).
- We have training data $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_N, y_N)$. These are observations (examples, instances) of these measurements.

Objectives

On the basis of the training data we would like to:

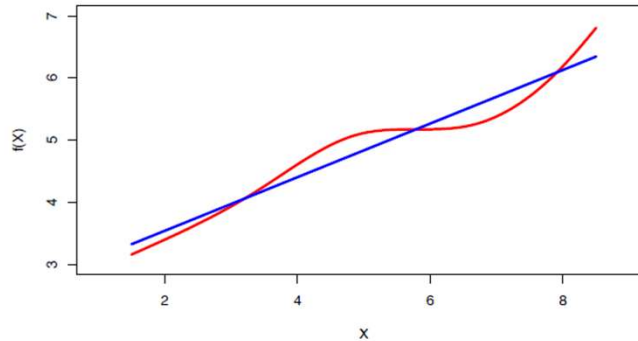
- Accurately predict unseen test cases.
- Understand which inputs affect the outcome, and how.
- Assess the quality of our predictions and inferences.

Unsupervised learning

- No outcome variable, just a set of predictors (features) measured on a set of samples.
- objective is more fuzzy — find groups of samples that behave similarly, find features that behave similarly, find linear combinations of features with the most variation.
- difficult to know how well you are doing.
- different from supervised learning, but can be useful as a pre-processing step for supervised learning.

Linear regression

- Linear regression is a simple approach to supervised learning. It assumes that the dependence of Y on X_1, X_2, \dots, X_p is linear.
- True regression functions are never linear!

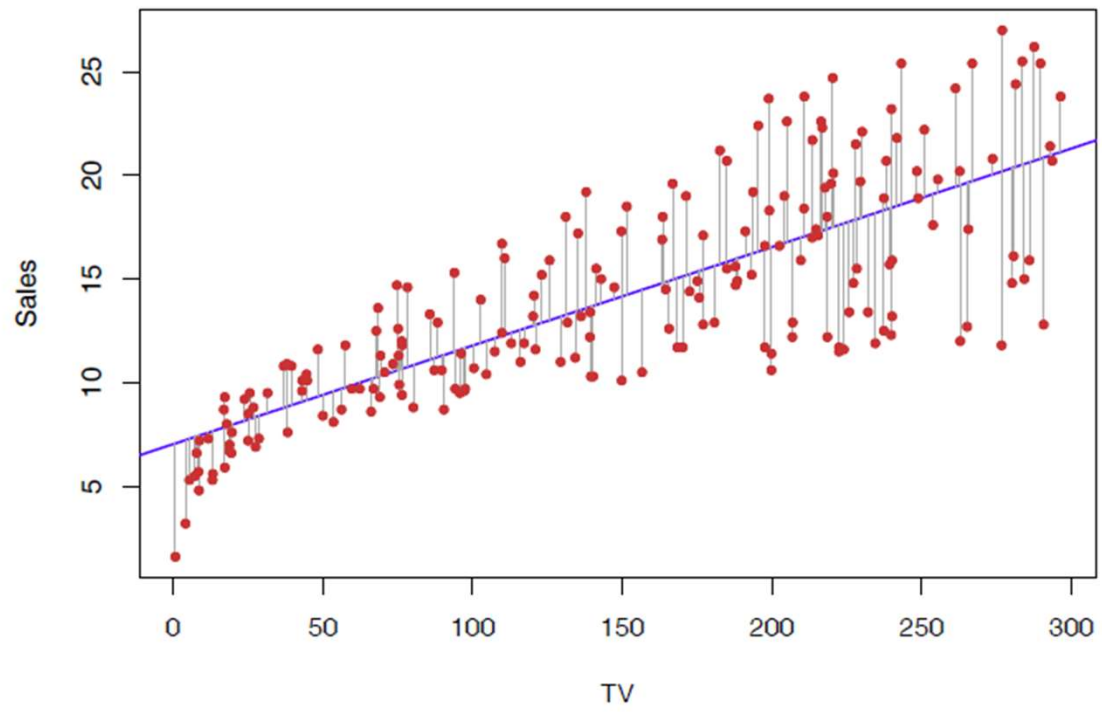


- although it may seem overly simplistic, linear regression is extremely useful both conceptually and practically.

Consider the advertising data shown on the next slide.

Questions we might ask:

- Is there a relationship between advertising budget and sales?
- How strong is the relationship between advertising budget and sales?
- Which media contribute to sales?
- How accurately can we predict future sales?
- Is the relationship linear?
- Is there synergy among the advertising media?



- We assume a model

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \epsilon,$$

where β_0 and β_1 are two unknown constants that represent the *intercept* and *slope*, also known as *coefficients* or *parameters*, and ϵ is the error term.

- Given some estimates $\hat{\beta}_0$ and $\hat{\beta}_1$ for the model coefficients, we predict future sales using

$$\hat{y} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x,$$

where \hat{y} indicates a prediction of Y on the basis of $X = x$. The *hat* symbol denotes an estimated value.

- Let $\hat{y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_i$ be the prediction for Y based on the i th value of X . Then $e_i = y_i - \hat{y}_i$ represents the i th *residual*
- We define the *residual sum of squares* (RSS) as

$$\text{RSS} = e_1^2 + e_2^2 + \cdots + e_n^2,$$

or equivalently as

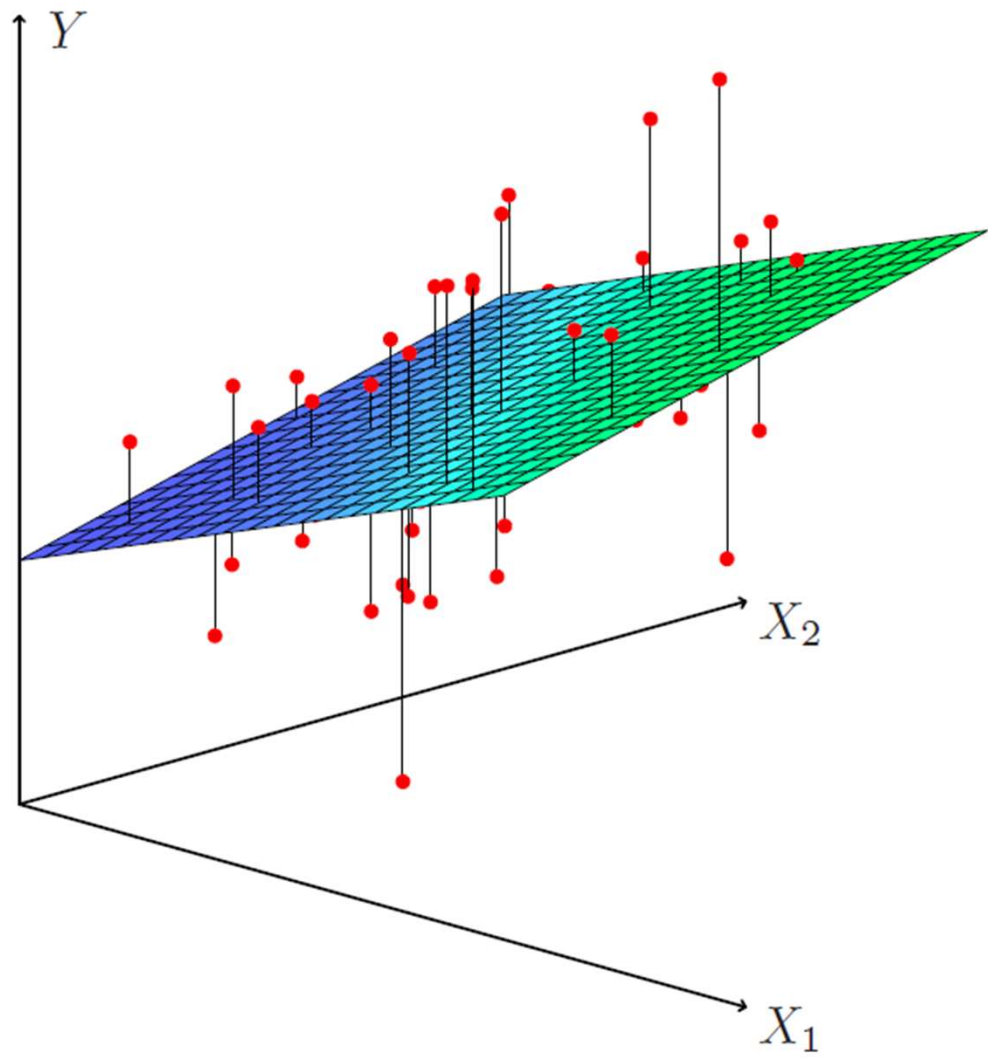
$$\text{RSS} = (y_1 - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_1)^2 + (y_2 - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_2)^2 + \cdots + (y_n - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_n)^2.$$

- The least squares approach chooses $\hat{\beta}_0$ and $\hat{\beta}_1$ to minimize the RSS. The minimizing values can be shown to be

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2},$$

$$\hat{\beta}_0 = \bar{y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{x},$$

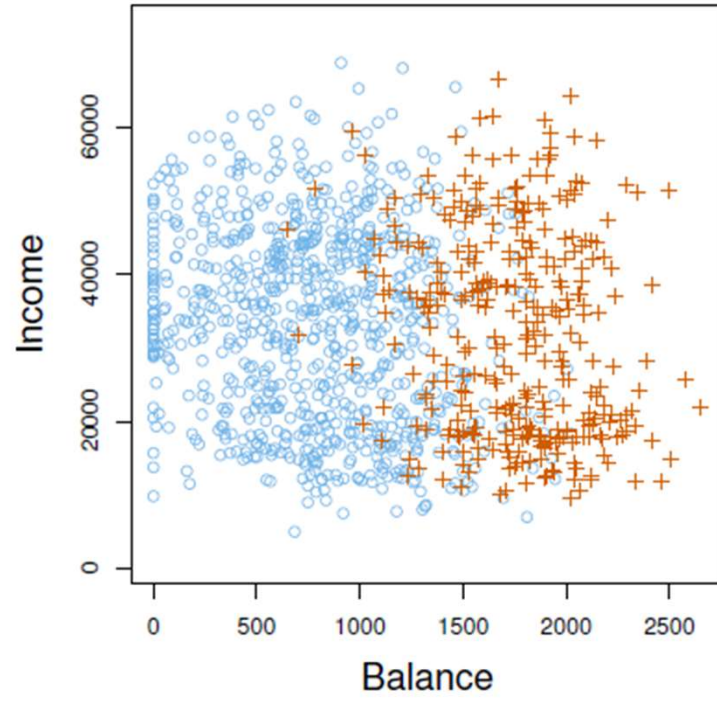
where $\bar{y} \equiv \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i$ and $\bar{x} \equiv \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$ are the sample means.



Classification

- Qualitative variables take values in an unordered set \mathcal{C} , such as:
`eye color` \in {brown, blue, green}
`email` \in {spam, ham}.
- Given a feature vector X and a qualitative response Y taking values in the set \mathcal{C} , the classification task is to build a function $C(X)$ that takes as input the feature vector X and predicts its value for Y ; i.e. $C(X) \in \mathcal{C}$.
- Often we are more interested in estimating the *probabilities* that X belongs to each category in \mathcal{C} .

For example, it is more valuable to have an estimate of the probability that an insurance claim is fraudulent, than a classification fraudulent or not.



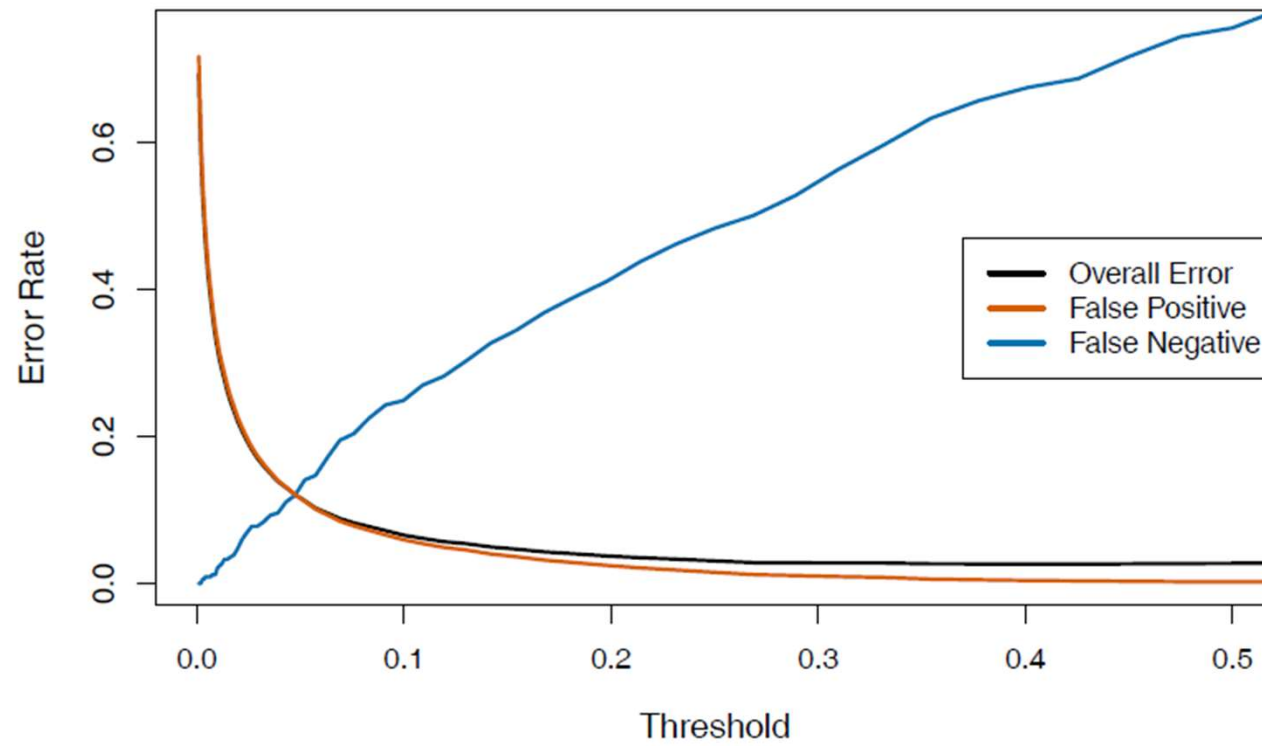
		<i>True Default Status</i>		
		No	Yes	Total
<i>Predicted Default Status</i>	No	9644	252	9896
	Yes	23	81	104
Total		9667	333	10000

$(23 + 252)/10000$ errors — a 2.75% misclassification rate!

Some caveats:

- This is *training* error, and we may be overfitting. Not a big concern here since $n = 10000$ and $p = 2$!
- If we classified to the prior — always to class **No** in this case — we would make $333/10000$ errors, or only 3.33%.
- Of the true **No**'s, we make $23/9667 = 0.2\%$ errors; of the true **Yes**'s, we make $252/333 = 75.7\%$ errors!

Varying the *threshold*



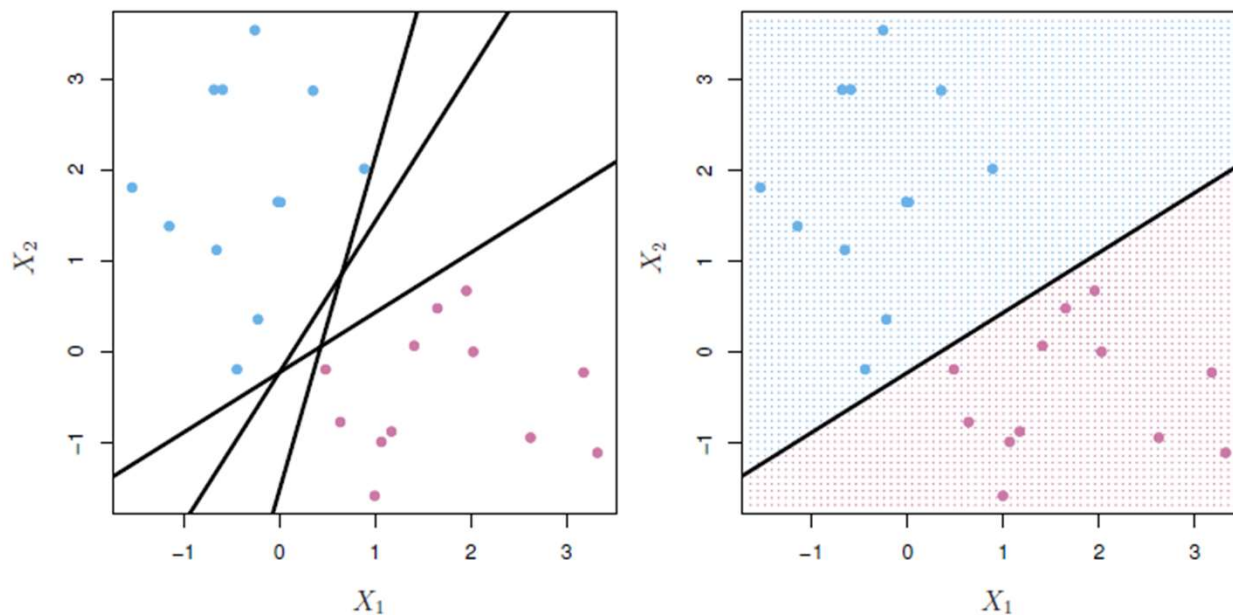
Support Vector Machines

Here we approach the two-class classification problem in a direct way:

We try and find a plane that separates the classes in feature space.

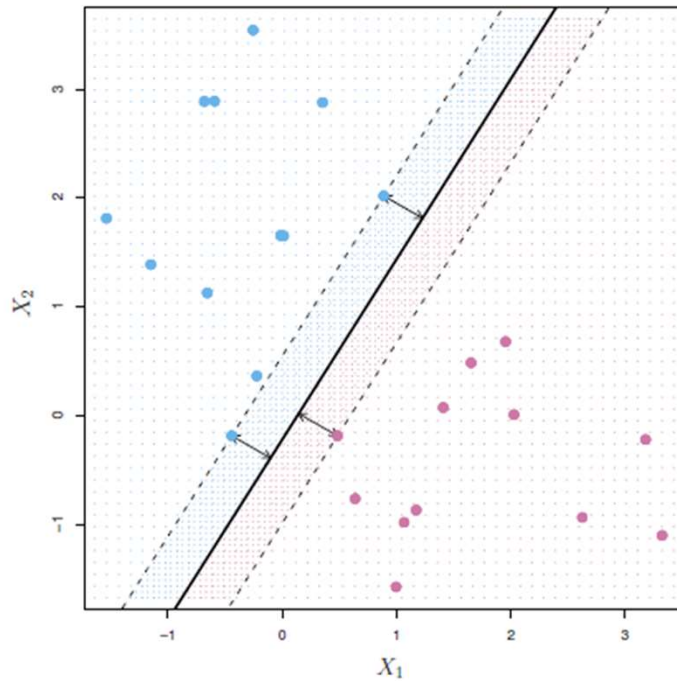
If we cannot, we get creative in two ways:

- We soften what we mean by “separates”, and
- We enrich and enlarge the feature space so that separation is possible.



- If $f(X) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \dots + \beta_p X_p$, then $f(X) > 0$ for points on one side of the hyperplane, and $f(X) < 0$ for points on the other.
 - If we code the colored points as $Y_i = +1$ for blue, say, and $Y_i = -1$ for mauve, then if $Y_i \cdot f(X_i) > 0$ for all i , $f(X) = 0$ defines a *separating hyperplane*.
-

Among all separating hyperplanes, find the one that makes the biggest gap or margin between the two classes.



Constrained optimization problem

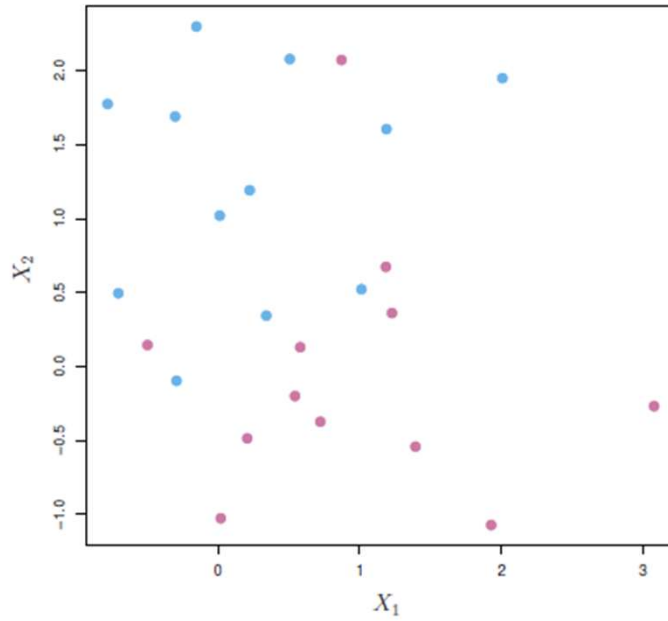
$$\text{maximize } M$$

$$\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_p$$

$$\text{subject to } \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j^2 = 1,$$

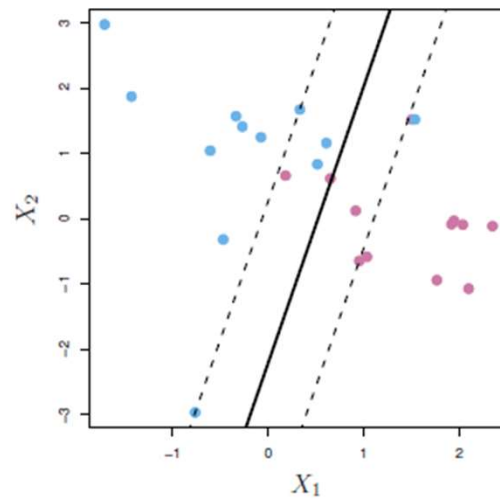
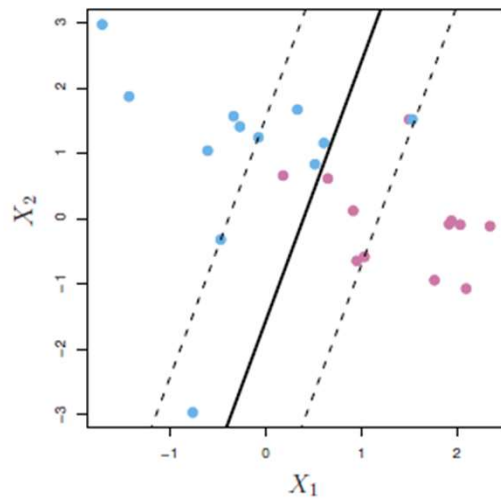
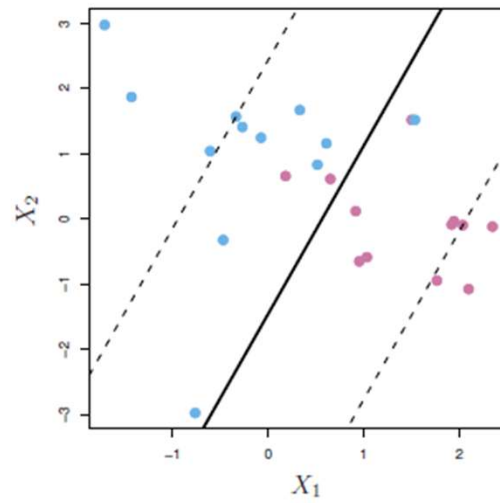
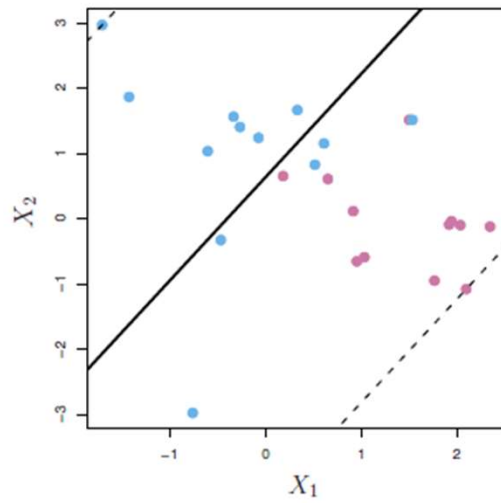
$$y_i(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \dots + \beta_p x_{ip}) \geq M$$

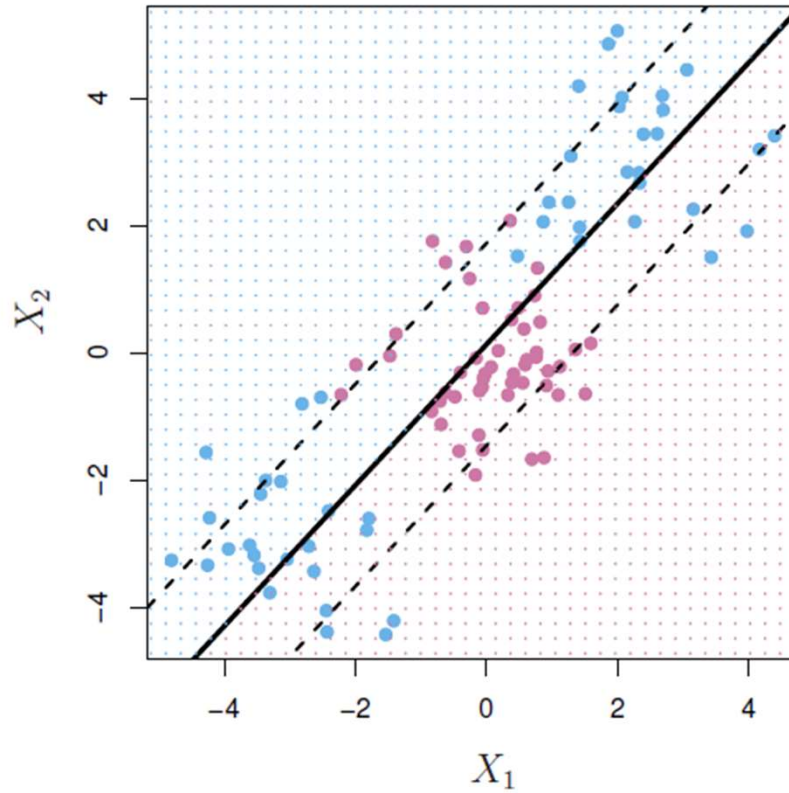
$$\text{for all } i = 1, \dots, N.$$



The data on the left are not separable by a linear boundary.

This is often the case, unless $N < p$.





Sometime a linear boundary simply won't work, no matter what value of C .

The example on the left is such a case.

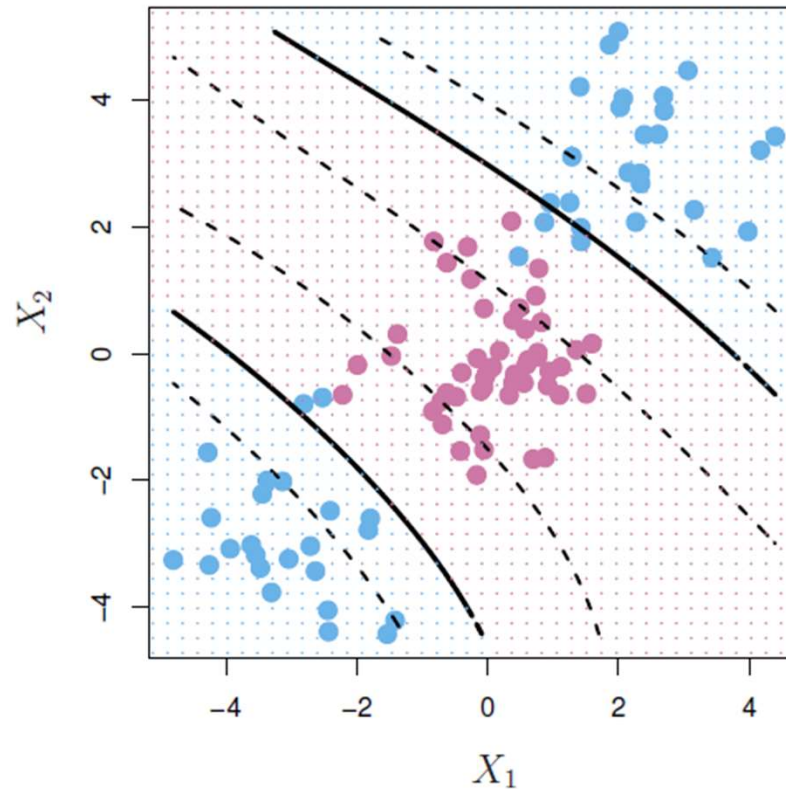
What to do?

Cubic Polynomials

Here we use a basis expansion of cubic polynomials

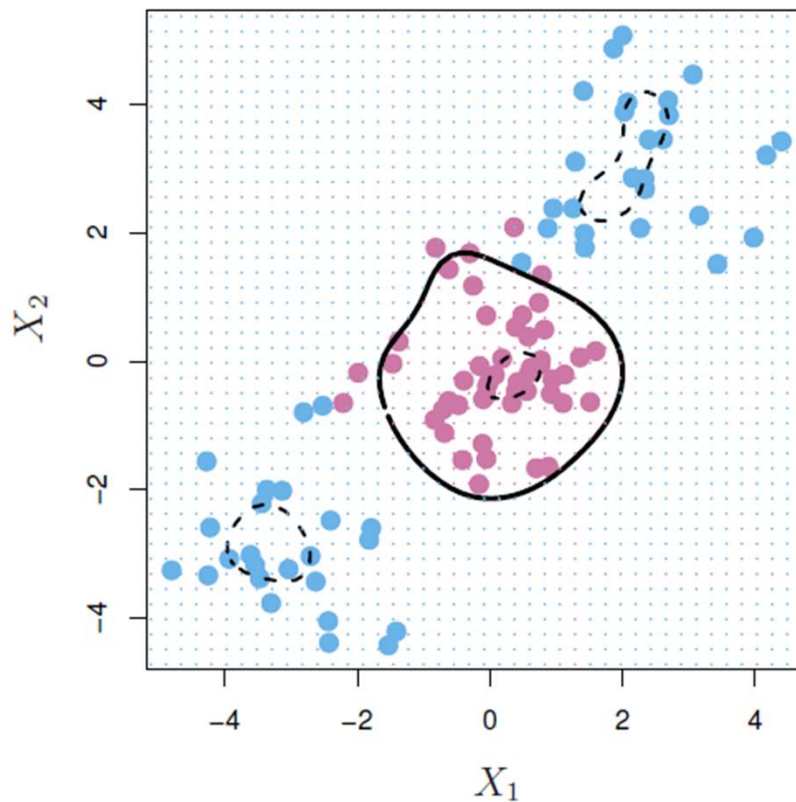
From 2 variables to 9

The support-vector classifier in the enlarged space solves the problem in the lower-dimensional space



Radial Kernel

$$K(x_i, x_{i'}) = \exp\left(-\gamma \sum_{j=1}^p (x_{ij} - x_{i'j})^2\right).$$



$$f(x) = \beta_0 + \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}} \hat{\alpha}_i K(x, x_i)$$

Implicit feature space;
very high dimensional.

Controls variance by
squashing down most
dimensions severely

در ادامه مروری مقدماتی بر پایتون و استفاده از کتابخانه های آن خواهیم داشت. به
داکیومنتیشن کتابخانه های موردنظر که آدرس آنها در زیر ارسال می گردد و نوت
بوک مراجعه فرمایید

- https://pandas.pydata.org/docs/user_guide/index.html
- <https://numpy.org/doc/stable/user/index.html>
- https://scikit-learn.org/stable/user_guide.html