

DCML-CPS - Module 6

Supervised ML

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Course Map

1. Basics and Metrology

2. Monitoring

Monitoring

Testing

3. Fault Injection

4. Robustness Testing

5. Data Analysis

6. Supervised ML

7. Unsupervised ML

8. Meta-Learning

**Anomaly
Detection**

9. Error/Intrusion Detection

Tools & Libs

Deep Learning



RCL



Supervised Learning

- ▶ Classifiers were usually meant to be supervised
 - Use labels in data during training
 - They NEED ground truth!**
 - This way, they learn both normal behaviour and specific alterations due to known errors/attacks
- ▶ Non-Sliding Algorithms are very famous and usually build the core of any Machine Learning course.
 - Here we are presenting the baseline idea of some of them, without expanding on the insights
 - Just enough to use them for meaningful analyses!



Supervised Algorithms

► In the followings we will see an overview of the following supervised algorithms

- Tree-Based

- Decision Tree, Random Forest

- Neighbour-based

- kNN

- Statistical

- Naïve Bayes, LDA, Logistic Regression

- Neural Networks

- MultiLayer Perceptron

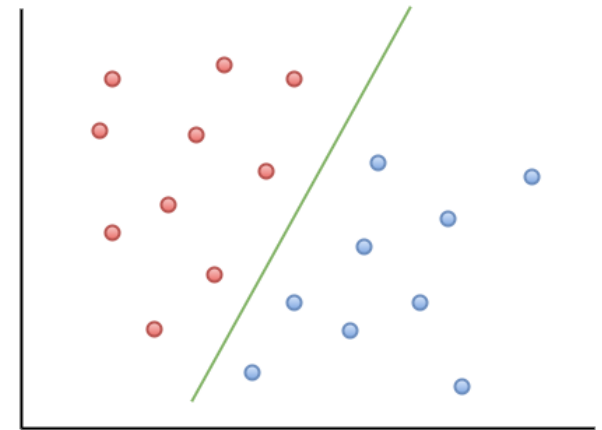
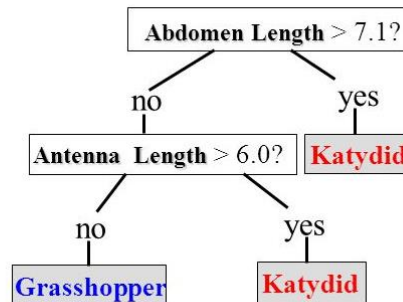
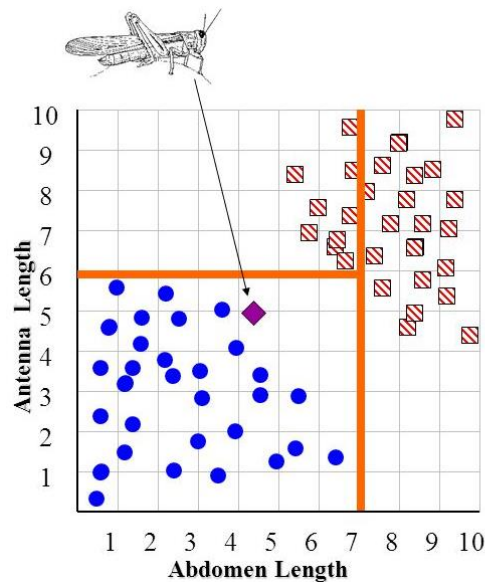


Tree-Based



Classification

- ▶ Most supervised algorithms are suitable for binary decisions
- ▶ They aim at learning a linear or non-linear boundary
 - To differentiate between normal and anomalous data points



Classification: Decision Tree

- ▶ We start from the baseline of Tree-based classification.
- ▶ Decision trees aim at partitioning the input space, labeling each partition according to its class
 - Each internal node of a tree specifies a "split" based on a feature



Ways to “split” in Decision Trees

- **Gini Index:** the **gini impurity** is calculated using the following formula:
 - Where p_j is the probability of class j .
 - The gini impurity measures the frequency at which data points will be mislabelled if randomly labeled.
 - The minimum value of the Gini Index is 0.
 - This happens when the node is **pure**, this means that all the contained elements in the node are of one unique class.
 - Thus, the optimum split is chosen by the features with less Gini Index

$$GiniIndex = 1 - \sum_j p_j^2$$



Ways to “split” in Decision Trees

- **Entropy:** The **entropy** is calculated using the following formula:
 - Where, as before, p_j is the probability of class j .
 - Entropy is a measure of information that indicates the disorder of the features with the target.
 - Similar to the Gini Index, the optimum split is chosen by the feature with less entropy.
 - It gets its maximum value when the probability of the two classes is the same and a node is pure when the entropy has its minimum value, which is 0.

$$Entropy = - \sum_j p_j \cdot \log_2 \cdot p_j$$



Building a Decision Tree - I

► Example from start to finish

- Problem: will you play outside depending on the current weather, temperature, humidity and wind?

Day	Weather	Temperature	Humidity	Wind	Play?
1	Sunny	Hot	High	Weak	No
2	Cloudy	Hot	High	Weak	Yes
3	Sunny	Mild	Normal	Strong	Yes
4	Cloudy	Mild	High	Strong	Yes
5	Rainy	Mild	High	Strong	No
6	Rainy	Cool	Normal	Strong	No
7	Rainy	Mild	High	Weak	Yes
8	Sunny	Hot	High	Strong	No
9	Cloudy	Hot	Normal	Weak	Yes
10	Rainy	Mild	High	Strong	No

Partially taken from <https://www.hackerearth.com/practice/machine-learning/machine-learning-algorithms/ml-decision-tree/tutorial/>



Building a Decision Tree - II

- First split: Gini to be calculated for each feature
- Weather: Sunny 3/10, Cloudy 3/10, Rainy 4/10
 - When sunny, 1/3 you play, 2/3 you don't
 - $\text{Gini}(\text{sunny}) = 1 - ((1/3)^2 + (2/3)^2) = 4/9$
 - When cloudy, you always play
 - $\text{Gini}(\text{cloudy}) = 1 - ((1)^2) = 0$
 - When rainy, $\frac{1}{4}$ you play, $\frac{3}{4}$ you don't
 - $\text{Gini}(\text{rainy}) = 1 - ((1/4)^2 + (3/4)^2) = 6/16$

Day	Weather	Temperature	Humidity	Wind	Play?
1	Sunny	Hot	High	Weak	No
2	Cloudy	Hot	High	Weak	Yes
3	Sunny	Mild	Normal	Strong	Yes
4	Cloudy	Mild	High	Strong	Yes
5	Rainy	Mild	High	Strong	No
6	Rainy	Cool	Normal	Strong	No
7	Rainy	Mild	High	Weak	Yes
8	Sunny	Hot	High	Strong	No
9	Cloudy	Hot	Normal	Weak	Yes
10	Rainy	Mild	High	Strong	No

$$\text{Gini}(\text{weather}) =$$

$$p(\text{sunny}) * \text{gini}(\text{sunny}) + p(\text{cloudy}) * \text{gini}(\text{cloudy}) + p(\text{rainy}) * \text{gini}(\text{rainy}) = \\ 3/10 * 4/9 + 3/10 * 0 + 4/10 * 6/16 = 2/15 + 3/20 = 14/60 = 7/30$$



Building a Decision Tree - III

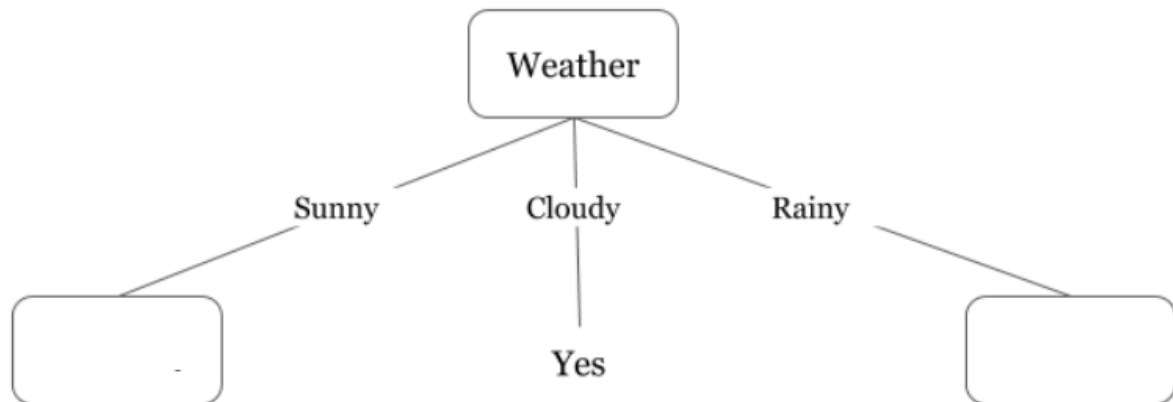
- First split: Gini to be calculated for each feature
 - Gini has to be calculated for others

Day	Weather	Temperature	Humidity	Wind	Play?
1	Sunny	Hot	High	Weak	No
2	Cloudy	Hot	High	Weak	Yes
3	Sunny	Mild	Normal	Strong	Yes
4	Cloudy	Mild	High	Strong	Yes
5	Rainy	Mild	High	Strong	No
6	Rainy	Cool	Normal	Strong	No
7	Rainy	Mild	High	Weak	Yes
8	Sunny	Hot	High	Strong	No
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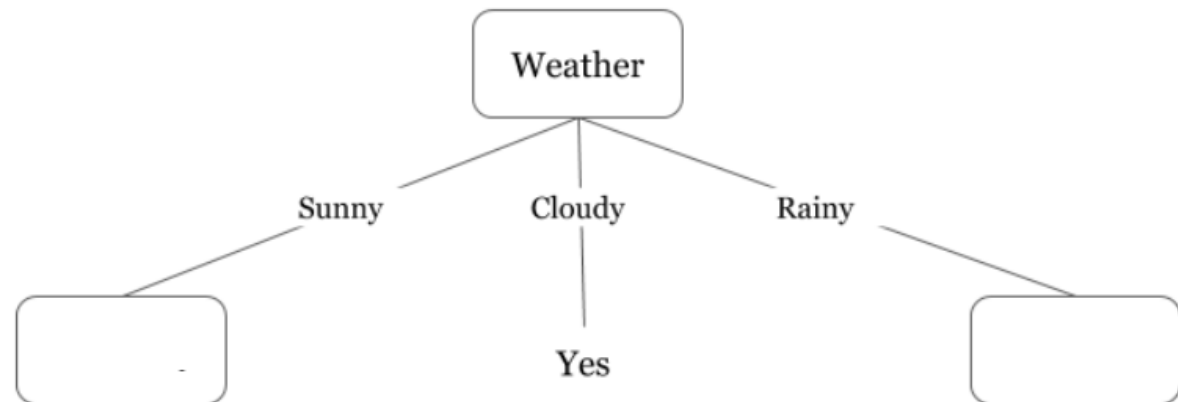
Building a Decision Tree - IV

- First split: Gini to be calculated for each feature
 - $\text{Gini}(\text{weather}) = 7 / 30$
 - $\text{Gini}(\text{Temperature}) = 11 / 25$
 - $\text{Gini}(\text{Humidity}) = 10 / 21$
 - $\text{Gini}(\text{Wind}) = 5 / 12$
- $\text{Gini}(\text{weather})$ is the lowest, therefore the first layer of the tree is



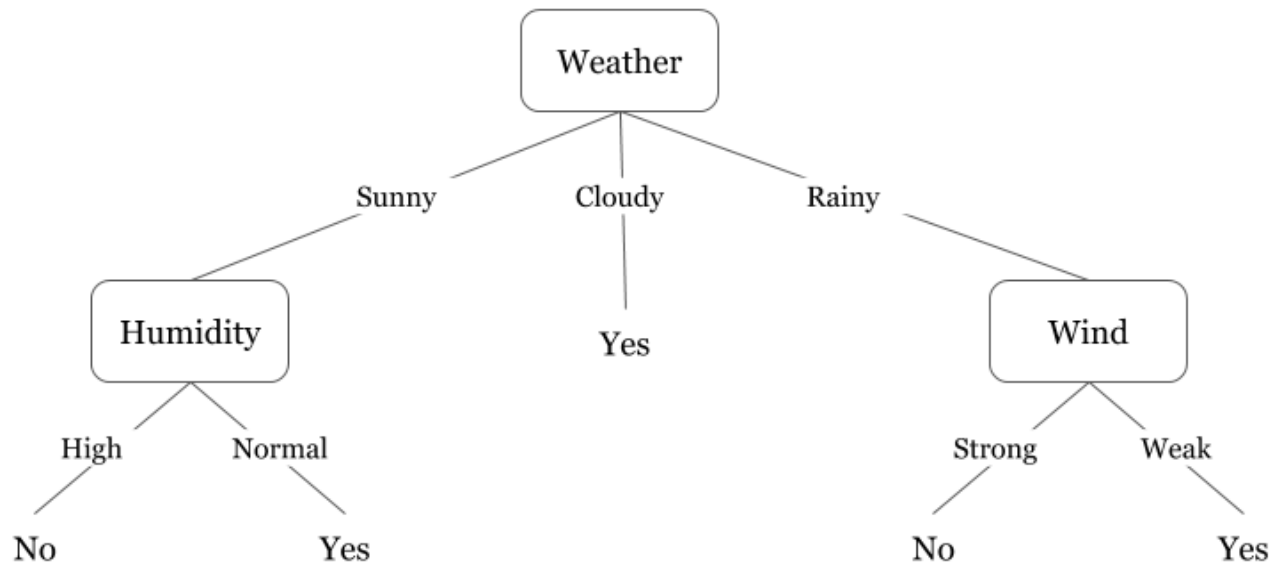
Building a Decision Tree - V

- ▶ The process iterates for all sub-branches which do not have a clear label
 - "Cloudy" branch is already ok
- ▶ We calculate Gini for the other 3 features
 - Only for "sunny" data
 - Only for "rainy" data



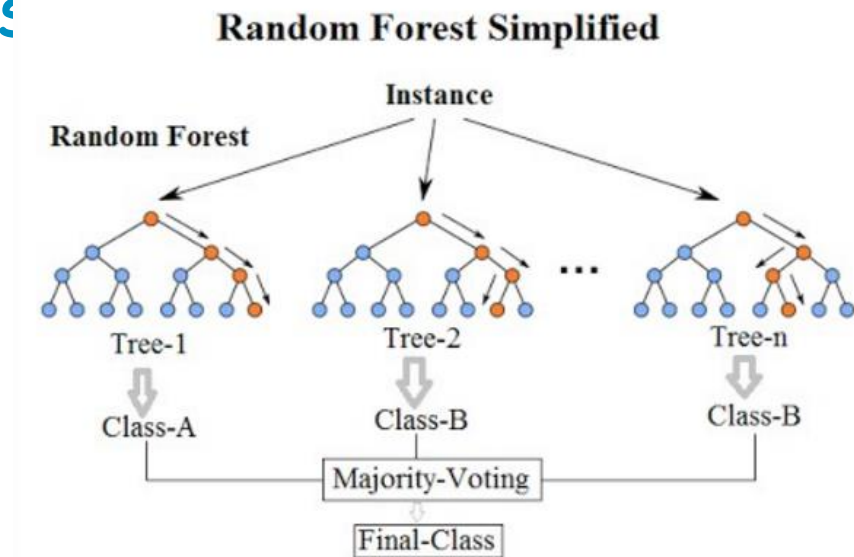
Building a Decision Tree - VI

- For sunny data, the lowest gini is Humidity
 - For rainy data, the lowest gini is Wind
- Then, the process ends because there is no need to split anymore



From Trees to Random Forests

- Random Forests build multiple decision trees
 - Each tree uses a slightly different subset of training set
 - Classifier result is build as a majority voting of individual ans



By Venkata Jagannath - <https://community.tibco.com/wiki/random-forest-template-tibco-spotfirer-wiki-page>, CC BY-SA 4.0, <https://commons.wikimedia.org/w/index.php?curid=68995764>

RCL

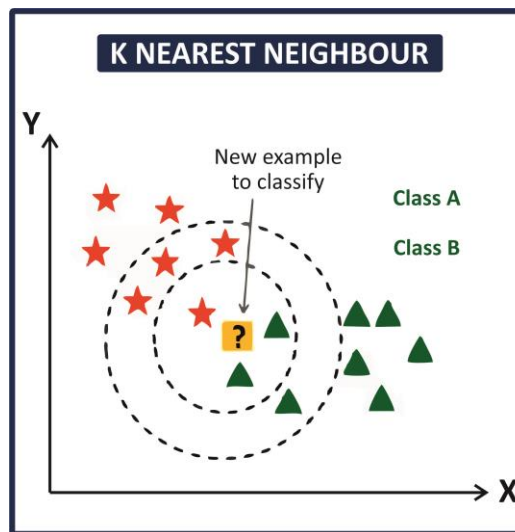


Neighbour-Based



Neighbour-Based

- Assigns the class to a novel data point depending on the class the majority of its "neighbours" belong to
 - Neighbourhood is generally derived through Euclidean distance

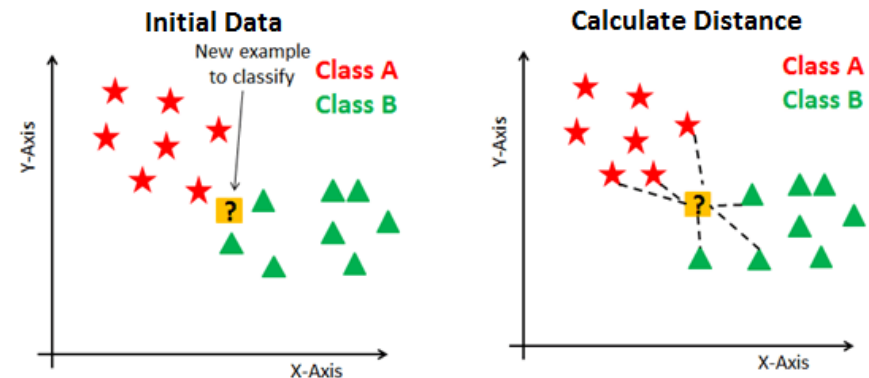


From: <http://test.basel.in/product/knn-naive-bayes-classifier-using-excel/>

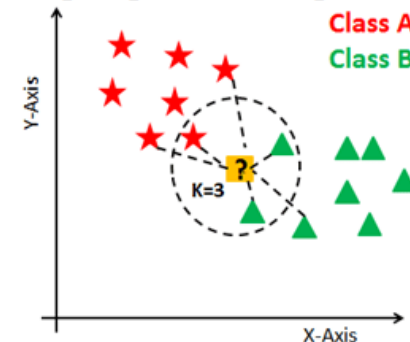


Neighbour-Based: kNN

- Typical algorithm is the kNN (k-th Nearest Neighbour)
 - Calculates the k nearest (lower Euclidean distance) neighbours
 - Uses their labels to decide on a new data point



Finding Neighbors & Voting for Labels



<https://www.datacamp.com/community/tutorials/k-nearest-neighbor-classification-scikit-learn>

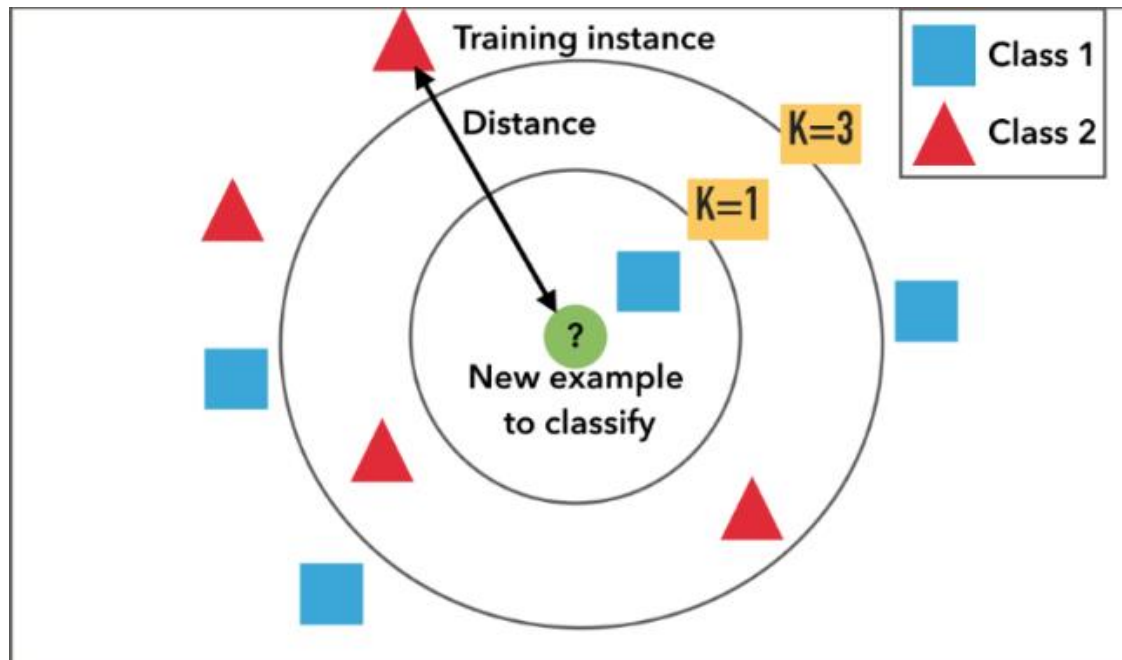


Neighbour-Based: kNN

► The parameter k has big impact

- Example below:

- $K=1$ -> new example classified as SQUARE (C1)
- $K=2$ -> new example classified as undefined (k should be even)
- $K=3$ -> new example classified as TRIANGLE (C2)



Statistical



Statistical Algorithms

- ▶ Statistical algorithms
 - exploit distributions or statistical indexes
 - to first model the data and then
 - predict classes for novel data points
- ▶ They are very different among themselves
- ▶ We will see 3 different algorithms based on different statistical mechanisms



Naïve Bayes Classifier

► Based on the Bayes Theorem

- Briefly, during training it aims at learning a statistical model that minimizes the probability of misclassification

$$\hat{y} = \operatorname{argmax}_{k \in \{1, \dots, K\}} p(C_k) \prod_{i=1}^n p(x_i \mid C_k).$$

- For each class C_k ($K=2$ in binary classification), the predicted class \hat{y} is the one that maximises the product of n probabilities that a feature value of the data point belongs to that class ($n = \# \text{ feat}$)
 - Other details are out of scope in this course

Devroye, L.; Györfi, L. & Lugosi, G. (1996). *A probabilistic theory of pattern recognition*. Springer. [ISBN 0-3879-4618-7](#).



Example (from Wikipedia) - I

- Problem: classify whether a given person is a male or a female based on the measured features.

Person	height (feet)	weight (lbs)	foot size(inches)
male	6	180	12
male	5.92 (5'11")	190	11
male	5.58 (5'7")	170	12
male	5.92 (5'11")	165	10
female	5	100	6
female	5.5 (5'6")	150	8
female	5.42 (5'5")	130	7
female	5.75 (5'9")	150	9

Example (from Wikipedia) - II

- The classifier created from the training set using a Gaussian distribution assumption would be (given variances are *unbiased* sample variances)

Person	mean (height)	variance (height)	mean (weight)	variance (weight)	mean (foot size)	variance (foot size)
male	5.855	3.5033×10^{-2}	176.25	1.2292×10^2	11.25	9.1667×10^{-1}
female	5.4175	9.7225×10^{-2}	132.5	5.5833×10^2	7.5	1.6667

- The following example assumes equiprobable classes so that $P(\text{male}) = P(\text{female}) = 0.5$. This prior probability distribution might be based on prior knowledge of frequencies in the larger population or in the training set.

RCL



Example (from Wikipedia) - III

posterior (male) = $P(\text{male}) p(\text{height} \mid \text{male}) p(\text{weight} \mid \text{male}) p(\text{foot size} \mid \text{male})$

posterior (female) = $P(\text{female}) p(\text{height} \mid \text{female}) p(\text{weight} \mid \text{female}) p(\text{foot size} \mid \text{female})$

► Need to calculate both

- And understanding what is bigger

- Also, $p(\text{male}) = p(\text{female}) = 0.5$ (50%)

► Data point to classify

Person	height (feet)	weight (lbs)	foot size(inches)
sample	6	130	8



Example (from Wikipedia) - IV

Person	mean (height)	variance (height)	mean (weight)	variance (weight)	mean (foot size)	variance (foot size)
male	5.855	3.5033×10^{-2}	176.25	1.2292×10^2	11.25	9.1667×10^{-1}
female	5.4175	9.7225×10^{-2}	132.5	5.5833×10^2	7.5	1.6667

► Data point to classify

Person	height (feet)	weight (lbs)	foot size(inches)
sample	6	130	8

$$p(\text{height} \mid \text{male}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(\frac{-(6 - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \approx 1.5789,$$

$$p(\text{weight} \mid \text{male}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(\frac{-(130 - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) = 5.9881 \cdot 10^{-6}$$

$$p(\text{foot size} \mid \text{male}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(\frac{-(8 - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) = 1.3112 \cdot 10^{-3}$$

$$\text{posterior numerator (male)} = \text{their product} = 6.1984 \cdot 10^{-9}$$



Example (from Wikipedia) - V

Person	mean (height)	variance (height)	mean (weight)	variance (weight)	mean (foot size)	variance (foot size)
male	5.855	3.5033×10^{-2}	176.25	1.2292×10^2	11.25	9.1667×10^{-1}
female	5.4175	9.7225×10^{-2}	132.5	5.5833×10^2	7.5	1.6667

► Data point to classify

Person	height (feet)	weight (lbs)	foot size(inches)
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$$p(\text{height} \mid \text{male}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(\frac{-(6 - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \approx 1.5789,$$

$$p(\text{weight} \mid \text{male}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(\frac{-(130 - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) = 5.9881 \cdot 10^{-6}$$

$$p(\text{foot size} \mid \text{male}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(\frac{-(8 - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) = 1.3112 \cdot 10^{-3}$$

posterior numerator (male) = their product = $6.1984 \cdot 10^{-9}$



Example (from Wikipedia) - VI

► Data point to classify

Person	height (feet)	weight (lbs)	foot size(inches)
sample	6	130	8

► The same goes for

$$p(\text{height} \mid \text{female}) = 2.23 \cdot 10^{-1}$$

$$p(\text{weight} \mid \text{female}) = 1.6789 \cdot 10^{-2}$$

$$p(\text{foot size} \mid \text{female}) = 2.8669 \cdot 10^{-1}$$

$$\text{posterior numerator (female)} = \text{their product} = 5.3778 \cdot 10^{-4}$$

- Overall, $\text{posterior}(\text{female}) > \text{posterior}(\text{male})$
 - Therefore the data point is classified as FEMALE

RCL



Linear Discriminant Analysis - I

- ▶ Another Statistical Classifier
 - Based on Fisher Linear Discriminant
 - (Very briefly) Fisher Linear Discriminant projects data points to a vector which maximises "discriminant" capabilities

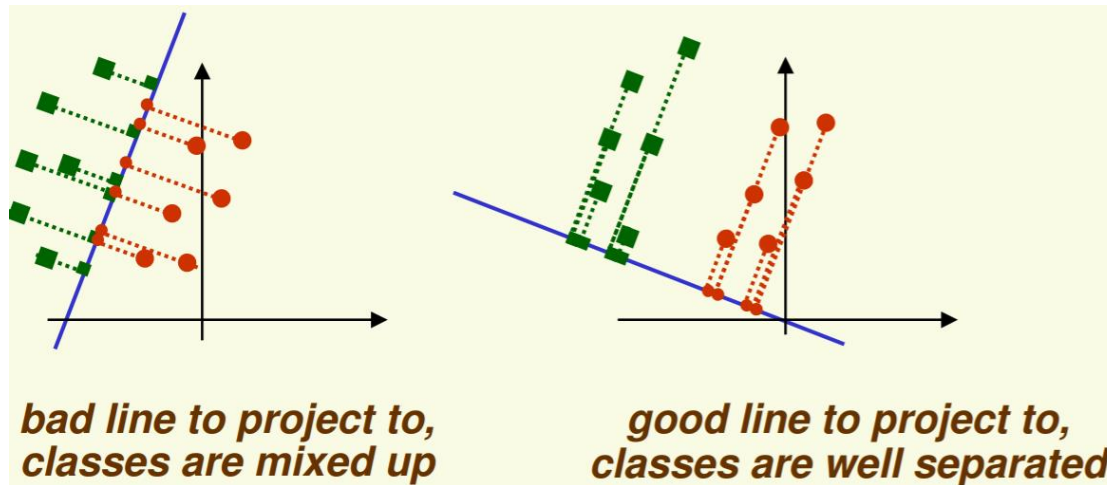


Image from https://www.csd.uwo.ca/~oveksler/Courses/CS434a_541a/Lecture8.pdf



Linear Discriminant Analysis - II

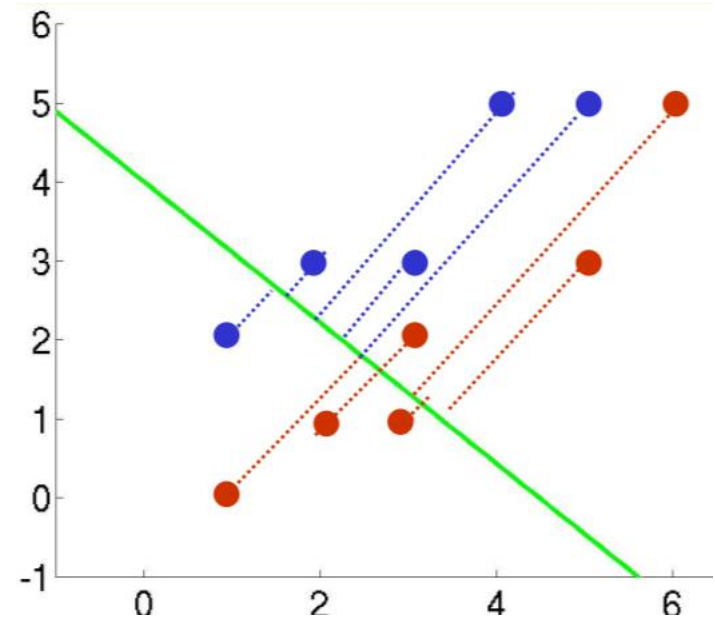
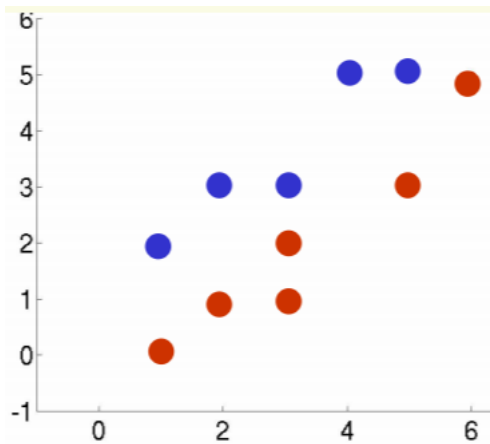
► Another Statistical Classifier

- Based on Fisher Linear Discriminant
- (Very briefly) Fisher Linear Discriminant projects data points to a vector which maximises "discriminant" capabilities
- Once found, the vector is used as reference to calculate average /std of data points projected onto the vector, for each class (two classes in binary classification)
- This is used to predict class for a new data point
 - Again, no need to go deeper in this course, the main idea is enough



Linear Discriminant Analysis - III

► Example



- Green line is the Fisher Discriminant
- Once found, the discriminant allows calculating average/std for blue dots and for red dots

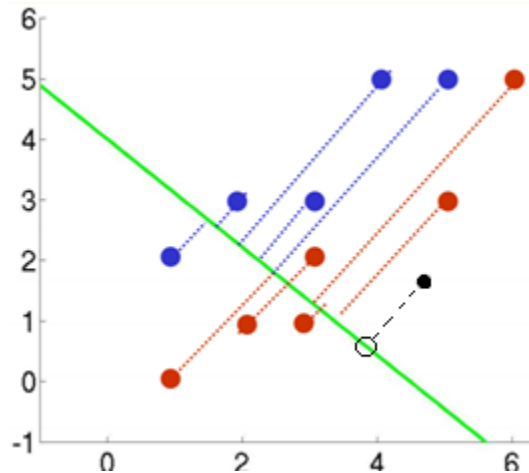
Example from https://www.csd.uwo.ca/~oveksler/Courses/CS434a_541a/Lecture8.pdf



Linear Discriminant Analysis - IV

► Example (cont.)

- Green line is the Fisher Discriminant
- Once found, the discriminant allows calculating average/std for blue dots and for red dots
- Intuitively
 - a new (black) data point will be projected to the green line and
 - we will understand if it is closer to blue or red dots
 - Closer to red -> red class



Logistic Regression - I

- Key observation here is that logistic regression is a statistical model that uses a logistic function to model a binary dependent variable
 - Slightly different from linear regression, which is usually used to predict real values rather than classes
 - In the logistic model, the log-odds (the logarithm of the odds) for the value labeled "1" is a linear combination of one or more independent variables ("predictors")
 - The corresponding probability of the value labeled "1" can vary between 0 (certainly the value "0") and 1 (certainly the value "1"), hence the labeling



Logistic Regression - II

- Example from Wikipedia (slightly modified)
 - Problem: A group of 20 students spends between 0 and 6 hours studying for an exam: some of them succeeded, others did not. How does the number of hours spent studying affect the probability of the student passing the exam?
- Train Data

Hours	0.50	0.75	1.00	1.25	1.50	1.75	1.75	2.00	2.25	2.50	2.75	3.00	3.25	3.50	4.00	4.25	4.50	4.75	5.00	5.50
Pass	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1



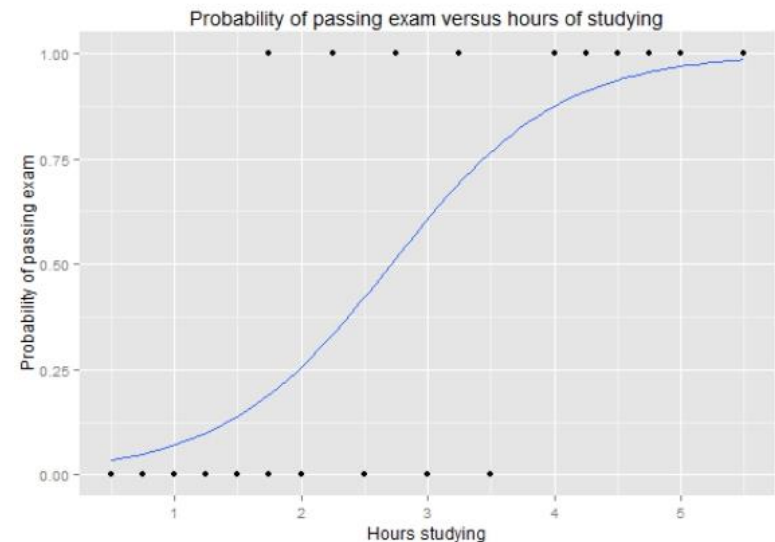
Logistic Regression - III

► Train Data

Hours	0.50	0.75	1.00	1.25	1.50	1.75	1.75	2.00	2.25	2.50	2.75	3.00	3.25	3.50	4.00	4.25	4.50	4.75	5.00	5.50
Pass	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1

- The logistic regression analysis gives the following output
- Which traces the distribution on the right

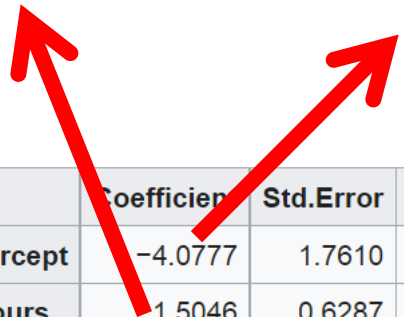
	Coefficient	Std.Error	z-value	P-value (Wald)
Intercept	-4.0777	1.7610	-2.316	0.0206
Hours	1.5046	0.6287	2.393	0.0167



Logistic Regression - IV

- Now, such distribution follows the formula

$$\text{Probability of passing exam} = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-(1.5046 \cdot \text{Hours} - 4.0777))}$$



	Coefficient	Std.Error	z-value	P-value (Wald)
Intercept	-4.0777	1.7610	-2.316	0.0206
Hours	1.5046	0.6287	2.393	0.0167

- Which is the one that we can use to predict new class labels

- Hours = 5 → probability = 0.97, or rather class 1 (pass)
- Hours = 2 → probability = 0.26, or rather class 0 (fail)
-



Neural Networks



Neural Networks (I)

► (Artificial) Neural Networks (A)NNs are classifiers inspired by the biological neural networks that constitute animal brains.

– A NN is based on a collection of

- connected units or **nodes** called artificial neurons, which loosely model the neurons in a biological brain.
- Each connection (**edge**), like the synapses in a biological brain, can transmit a signal to other neurons.



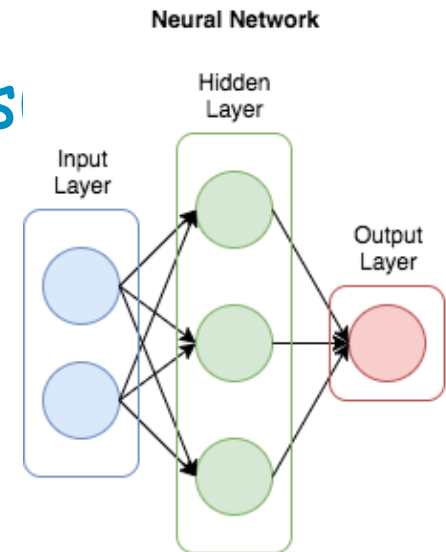
Neural Networks (II)

- (Artificial) Neural Networks (A)NNs are classifiers inspired by the biological neural networks that constitute animal brains.
- Neurons and edges have a weight that adjusts as learning goes
- Neurons are aggregated into layers.
 - Different layers may perform different transformations on their inputs.
 - Signals travel from the first layer (the input layer), to the last layer (the output layer), possibly after traversing the layers multiple times.



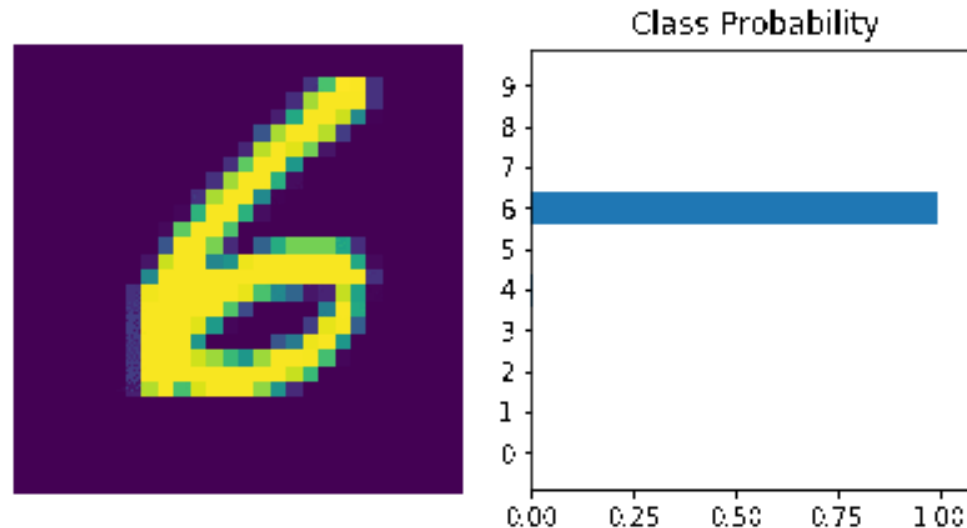
Neural Networks Explained

- The input layer provides the interface of the network
 - Input data is sent here
- The hidden layer allows executing non-linear combinations of inputs through subsequent weighted sums
- Output layer(s) produce the result, usually a number
 - e.g., % of belonging to class B for binary classification
 - More than 2 classes -> more neurons in output layer



Neural Networks: Multiple Outputs

- In case of multiple classes, multiple neurons in the output layer are needed
 - For example, lets recognize numbers 0-9
 - Each neuron outputs a probability

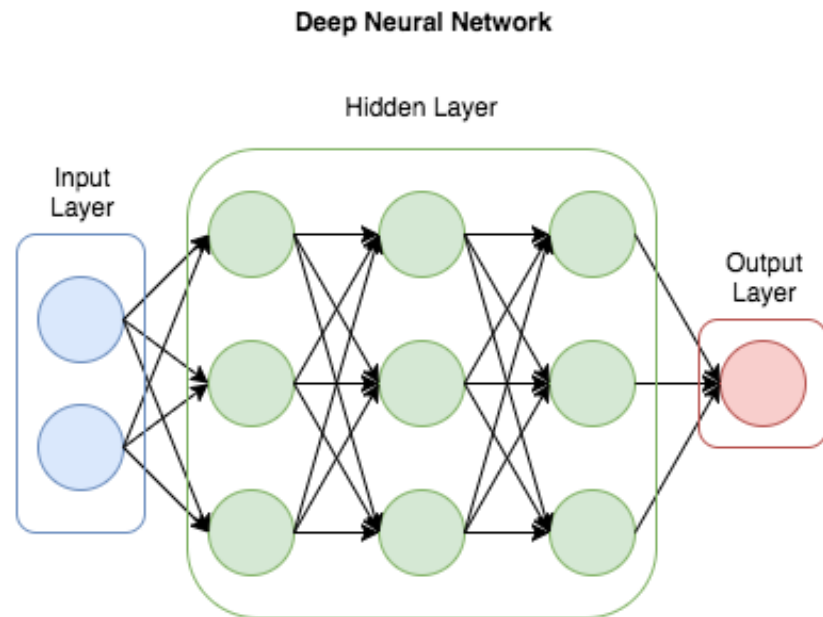
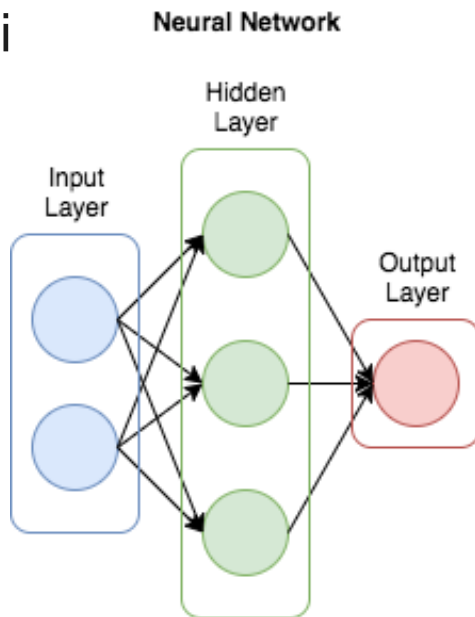


From: <https://towardsdatascience.com/training-neural-network-from-scratch-using-pytorch-in-just-7-cells-e6e904070a1d>



Deep Neural Networks

- Briefly, a deep NN has multiple hidden layers (more than 1)
 - Other more precise characterizations are currently used, but are too detailed for this part of the course
 - You will



Neural Networks: Train Functions

- ▶ Training a Neural Network translates to assigning adequate weights to edges
 - Weights are initialized randomly
 - Subsequent training **epochs** aim at reducing the **loss**
 - Which is the difference of NN outputs with respect to ground truth
 - The impact each train epoch has on weights is guided by learning rate
 - The higher the rate, the bigger the potential change of weights
 - Different **train functions** obey to different rules or heuristics to minimize loss by changing weights of edges involving hidden layers

RCL



MultiLayer Perceptron

- ▶ A multilayer perceptron (MLP) is a class of artificial neural network
 - A MLP consists of at least three layers of nodes:
 - an input layer,
 - a hidden layer and
 - an output layer
 - Except for the input nodes, each node is a neuron that uses a nonlinear activation function.
 - non-linear activation distinguish MLP from a linear perceptron
 - MLP relies on backpropagation for training
 - backpropagation computes the gradient of the loss function
 - Baseline for reinforcement learning



MLP: Backpropagation

- MLP relies on backpropagation for training
 - backpropagation computes the gradient of the loss function
 - Baseline for reinforcement learning

