

BIRZEIT UNIVERSITY

Faculty of Electrical and Computer Engineering Artificial Intelligence - ENCS434 Project 2 Report

Machine Learning for Classification

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I. Abstract:

The aim of this project is to build a machine learning model to generation and testing the models for test data and reporting on the results. We used python libraries and Google Collaborator in order to achieve our goal.

II. Theory:

Many libraries and API's were used during the implementation of this project, so here we'll have a brief theory and description of what has been used and for what purpose.

✓ Pandas:

It's a software library written for the Python programming language for data manipulation and analysis. In particular, it offers data structures and operations for manipulating numerical tables and time series.

- 1. **read_csv():** function from pandas to deal with common problems when importing data.
- 2. **dataframe.info():** function is used to get a concise summary of the data frame.

Syntax: DataFrame.info(verbose=None, buf=None, max_cols=None, memory_usage=None, null_counts=None)

3. **dropna()**:function allows the user to analyze and drop Rows/Columns with Null values in different ways.

Syntax:DataFrameName.dropna(axis=0, how='any', thresh=None, subset=None, inplace=False)

4. **drop_duplicates()**:method helps in removing duplicates from the data frame.

Syntax: DataFrame.drop_duplicates(subset=None, keep='first', inplace=False).

5. **Groupby():**function allows the user to do operation involves some combination of splitting the object.

DataFrame.groupby(by=None, axis=0, level=None, as_index=True, sort=True, group_keys=True, squeeze=<object object>, observed=False, dropna=True)[source].

6. **dataframe.corr()** is used to find the pairwise correlation of all columns in the dataframe.

Syntax: DataFrame.corr(self, method='pearson', min_periods=1).

√ Seaborn:

is a Python data visualization library based on **matplotlib**. It provides a high-level interface for drawing attractive and informative statistical graphics.

Heatmap(): Plot rectangular data as a color-encoded matrix.

Syntax: seaborn.heatmap(data, *, vmin=None, vmax=None, cmap=None, center=None, robust=False, annot=None, fmt='.2g', annot_kws=None, linewidths=0, linecolor='white', cbar=True, cbar_kws=None, cbar_ax=None, square=False, xticklabels='auto', yticklabels='auto', mask=None, ax=None, **kwargs).

√ plotly.express

module (usually imported as px) contains functions that can create entire figures at once, and is referred to as Plotly Express or PX.

px.pie(): chart is a circular analytical chart, which is divided into region to symbolize numerical percentage

Syntax: plotly.express.pie(data_frame=None, names=None, values=None, color=None, color_discrete_sequence=None, color_discrete_map={}, hover_name=None, hover_data=None, custom_data=None, labels={},

title=None, template=None, width=None, height=None, opacity=None, hole=None)

√ matplotlib.pyplot

is a state-based interface to matplotlib. It provides a MATLAB-like way of plotting.

✓ Removing stop words with NLTK in Python:

The process of converting data to something a computer can understand is referred to as pre-processing. One of the major forms of pre-processing is to filter out useless data. In natural language processing, useless words (data), are referred to as stop words.

Stop Words: A stop word is a commonly used word (such as "في", "ألى") that a search engine has been programmed to ignore, both when indexing entries for searching and when retrieving them as the result of a search query.

√ sklearn.preprocessing

package provides several common utility functions and transformer classes to change raw feature vectors into a representation that is more suitable for the downstream estimators.

√ Oversampling and undersampling

In data analysis are techniques used to adjust the class distribution of a data set (i.e. the ratio between the different classes/categories represented). These terms are used both in statistical sampling, survey design methodology and in machine learning.

✓ SMOTE:

There are a number of methods available to oversample a dataset used in a typical classification problem (using a classification algorithm to classify a set of images, given a labelled training set of images). The most common technique is known as SMOTE: Synthetic Minority Oversampling Technique. To illustrate how this technique works consider some training data which has s samples, and f features in the feature space of the data. Note that these features, for simplicity, are continuous. As an example, consider a dataset of birds for classification. The feature space for the minority class for which we want to oversample could be beak length, wingspan, and weight (all continuous). To then oversample, take a sample from the dataset, and consider its k nearest neighbors (in feature space). To create a synthetic data point, take the vector between one of those k neighbors, and the current data point. Multiply this vector by a random number x which lies between 0, and 1.

Add this to the current data point to create the new, synthetic data point. Many modifications and extensions have been made to the SMOTE method ever since its proposal.

√ TF-IDF: (term frequency-inverse document frequency) vectorizer:

It's a statistical measure that evaluates how relevant a word is to a document in a collection of documents. This is done by multiplying two metrics: how many times a word appears in a document and the inverse document frequency of the word across a set of documents. TF-IDF for a word in a document is calculated by multiplying two different metrics:

• The term frequency of a word in a document.

 The inverse document frequency of the word across a set of documents.

Tf idf
$$(t,d,D) = tf(t,d) \cdot idf(t,D)$$

 $tf(t,d) = log(1 + freq(t,d))$
 $idf(t,D) = log(N / count(d \in D:t \in d))$

✓ Cosine similarity:

a measure of similarity between two non-zero vectors. Which is a real-valued function that measure the similarity between two non-zero vectors of an inner product space.

$$A.B = |A| |B| \cos(\theta)$$

$$Cos(\theta) = \frac{A.B}{|A||B|}$$

✓ Split Data to training and testing sets:

This module introduced the idea of dividing your data set into two subsets:

- **training set**—a subset to train a model.
- **test set**—a subset to test the trained model.

Split arrays or matrices into random train and test subsets

Quick utility that wraps input validation and next(ShuffleSplit().split(X, y)) and application to input data into a single call for splitting (and optionally subsampling) data in a oneliner.

 sklearn.model_selection.train_test_split(*arrays, test_size=None, train_size=None, random_state=None, shuffle=True, stratify=None)

√ Random Forest Classifier:

an ensemble learning method and predict by combining the outputs from individual trees. It is a meta estimator that fits a number of decision tree classifiers on various sub-samples of the dataset and uses averaging to improve the predictive accuracy and control over-fitting. The sub-sample size is controlled with the max_samples parameter if bootstrap=True (default), otherwise the whole dataset is used to build each tree. Random forests build each tree independently.

✓ Decision Tree Classifier:

a predictive modeling approach used in statistics, data mining and machine learning. It uses a decision tree (as a predictive model) to go from observations about an item (represented in the branches) to conclusions about the item's target value (represented in the leaves). Tree models where the target variable can take a discrete set of values are called classification trees; in these tree structures, leaves represent class labels and branches represent conjunctions of features that lead to those class labels. Decision trees where the target variable can take continuous values (typically real numbers) are called regression trees. Decision trees are among the most popular machine learning algorithms given their intelligibility and simplicity.

√ KNeighbors (Nearest Neighbors):

Nearest neighbor classification is a machine learning method that aims at labeling previously unseen query objects while distinguishing two or more destination classes. As any classifier, in general, it requires some training data with given labels and, thus, is an instance of supervised learning. In the simplest variant, the query object inherits the label from the closest sample object in the training set. Common variants extend the decision set from the single nearest neighbor within the training data to

the set of k nearest neighbors for any k > 1. The decision rule combines the labels from these kdecision objects, either by simple majority voting or by any distance-based or frequency-based weighting scheme, to decide the predicted label for the query object. Mean-based nearest neighbor classifiers group the training data and work on the means of classes rather than on the individual.

✓ KMeans:

K-means is an unsupervised classification algorithm, also called clusterization, that groups objects into k groups based on their characteristics. The grouping is done minimizing the sum of the distances between each object and the group or cluster centroid. The distance usually used is the quadratic or euclidean distance.

Initialization: once the number of groups, k has been chosen, k centroids are established in the data space, for instance, choosing them randomly.

Assignment of objects to the centroids: each object of the data is assigned to its nearest centroid.

Centroids update: The position of the centroid of each group is updated taking as the new centroid the average position of the objects belonging to said group.

✓ MLP Classifier:

A multilayer perceptron (MLP) is a class of feedforward artificial neural network (ANN). The term MLP is used ambiguously, sometimes loosely to any feedforward ANN, sometimes strictly to refer to network composed of multiple layers of perceptrons (with threshold activation). Multilayer perceptrons are sometimes colloquially referred to as "vanilla" neural networks, especially when they have a single hidden layer.

An 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. MLP utilizes

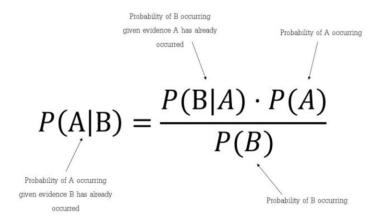
a supervised learning technique called backpropagation for training. Its multiple layers and non-linear activation distinguish MLP from a linear perceptron. It can distinguish data that is not linearly separable.

√ NaiveBayes Classifier:

It is a classification technique based on Bayes' Theorem with an assumption of independence among predictors. In simple terms, a Naive Bayes classifier assumes that the presence of a particular feature in a class is unrelated to the presence of any other feature. For example, a fruit may be considered to be an apple if it is red, round, and about 3 inches in diameter. Even if these features depend on each other or upon the existence of the other features, all of these properties independently contribute to the probability that this fruit is an apple and that is why it is known as 'Naive'.

Naive Bayes model is easy to build and particularly useful for very large data sets. Along with simplicity, Naive Bayes is known to outperform even highly sophisticated classification methods.

Bayes theorem provides a way of calculating posterior probability P(c|x) from P(c), P(x) and P(x|c). Look at the equation below:



III. Formalization and Solution Procedure:

• Preparing Data:

As a start, we read the data from the CSV file using the Pandas library, to get our data frame random. In figure 1.1 we have the head of the data, which is 10 rows of the data frame. In figure 1.2 we show 12 authors in range 25-36 depending on part 3.

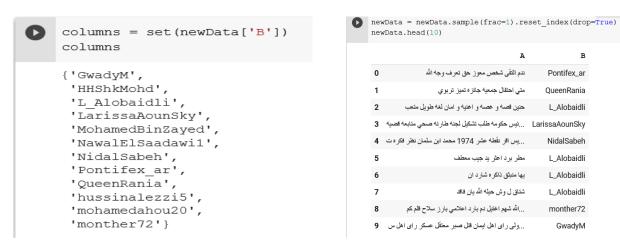


Figure 1.1 Figure 1.2

Figure 2 shows info about data frame. We notice that we have 12564 rows for 12 Authors, and two columns A(Tweets) & B(Authors).

Figure 2

• Text Processing

✓ Remove Duplicates:

Next, we dropped the null and duplicated values by applying these functions on the data frame. See Figure 3

```
data.drop_duplicates(inplace = True)
data.info()
```

Remove Duplicates

Figure 3

✓ Remove Stop Words & Nulls:

Then we remove the stop words and null from data as shown in Figure 4:

▼ Remove StopWords

```
data['A'] = data['A'].apply(lambda c: " ".join(x for x in c.split() if x not in stop))

print(stop)

['ایا' , 'وهو' , 'وسان ,
```

Figure 4

Also, we calculated the following for each tweets:

✓ Number of Characters:

```
data['character_cnt'] = data['A'].str.len()
#data.groupby('B')['character_cnt'].mean()
```

✓ Number of Words:

```
data['word_counts'] = data['A'].str.split().str.len()
#data.groupby('A')['word_counts'].mean()
```

✓ Average Number of Characters per Word:

```
data['characters_per_word'] = data['character_cnt']/data['word_counts']
#data.groupby('B')['characters_per_word'].mean()
```

✓ Number of Numerics:

```
data['num'] = data['A'].apply(lambda x: len([x for x in x.split() if x.isdigit()]))
#data.groupby('B')['num'].mean()
```

Here we show 10 tweets and the calculation for it (NumOfCharacters, NumberOfWords, Average Number of Characters per Word, Number Of Numerics):

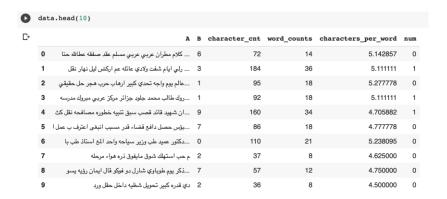


Figure 5

• Using Cosine Similarity:

We implemented an approach in building the model, by using **Cosine Similarity** and **TFIDF** to get features from the text in review content. Then we used the **heatmap** from **seaborn** library to draw the correlation of the features.

1. Using Cosine Similarity:

In this approach we used **Cosine Similarity** and **TFIDF** in order to extract features from the text in review content. But we couldn't apply Cosine Similarity on the whole dataset, because it needed extra memory, so we had to take a slice from the data.

Then we used TFIDF with max features of 500, in order to get the bag of words. We converted the output to a data frame as shown in figure 6.

	ابد	ابن	ابوظبي	اتحاد	اتفاق	اتى	اثر	اجاب	اجتماع	اجراء	احب	احتر ام	احتلال	احد	احمد	اخت	اخذ	اخر	اخو ان	اخير	ě
0	0.0	0.000000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.28737	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.000000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
1	0.0	0.000000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.00000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.000000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
2	0.0	0.000000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.00000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.000000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
3	0.0	0.000000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.00000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.000000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
4	0.0	0.000000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.00000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.377791	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
12448	0.0	0.242876	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.00000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.000000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
12449	0.0	0.000000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.00000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.000000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
12450	0.0	0.000000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.00000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.000000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
12451	0.0	0.271356	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.00000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.000000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
12452	0.0	0.000000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.32609	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.000000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
12453 rows × 500 columns																					

Figure 6

Next, we took a slice from the data (e.g., 12453 samples) in order to apply Cosine Similarity on the features in figure 6. In figure 7 we can see the output matrix. After that we took the mean value for each row in the matrix and considered it as a feature and added it to the data frame as a column 'similarity'.

```
array([[1. , 0.09449112, 0. , ..., 0. , 0.07142857,
     0.05976143],
                      , 0. , ..., 0. , 0.09449112,
     [0.09449112, 1.
          , 0. , 1. , ..., 0.
1,
     0. ],
[0. , 0.
     0.
         , O.
                      , 0.
     [0.
                                            , 0.23145502,
     0.
     [0.07142857, 0.09449112, 0.
                              , ..., 0.23145502, 1. ,
     0.05976143],
     0.05976143],
[0.05976143, 0. , 0. , ..., 0. , 0.05976143,
            ]])
```

Figure 7

Figure 8 shows the heat map of the features, with similarity features added.

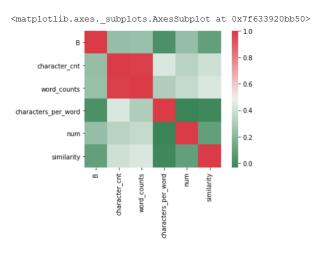


Figure 8

As the features are ready for the training, the data is unbalanced and needs to be resampled. We used the **Standard Scaler** from **sklearn** library, and **SMOTE** from **imblearn** library in order to resample the data. Then we apply splitting on the dataset to **80% training set** and **20% testing set**.

```
[346] from sklearn.model_selection import train_test_split
    y = dat['B']
    x = dat.drop({'B'}, axis=1)
    x = x.drop({'A'}, axis=1)
    x_train, x_test, y_train, y_test = train_test_split(x, y, test_size=0.20, random_state=27)
```

Figure 9

• Our Algorithms & Results:

What is Confusion Matrix and why you need it?

Well, it is a performance measurement for machine learning classification problem where output can be two or more classes. It is a table with 4 different combinations of predicted and actual values. It is extremely useful for measuring Recall, Precision and Accuracy.

Let's understand TP, FP, FN, TN in terms of pregnancy analogy.

True Positive (TP)

- The predicted value matches the actual value.
- The actual value was positive and the model predicted a positive value.

True Negative (TN)

- The predicted value matches the actual value.
- The actual value was negative and the model predicted a negative value.

False Positive (FP) - Type 1 error

- The predicted value was falsely predicted.
- The actual value was negative but the model predicted a positive value.

False Negative (FN) - Type 2 error

- The predicted value was falsely predicted.
- The actual value was positive but the model predicted a negative value.

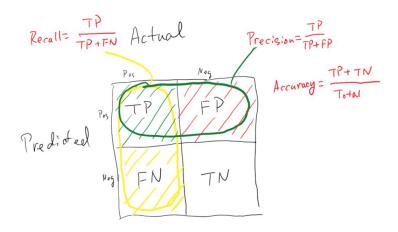


Figure 10

- **★** Recall: Out of all the positive classes, how much we predicted correctly. It should be high as possible.
- **★** Precision: Out of all the positive classes we have predicted correctly, how many are actually positive.
- ★ Accuracy: Out of all the classes, how much we predicted correctly.It should be as high as possible.

We tried many classifiers trying to get the best scores, and we found that the following classifiers achieved our goal:

Random Forest Classifier:

Random Forest Classifier for 2 Authors:

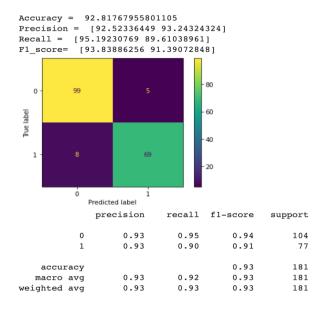


Figure 11.1

Random Forest Classifier for 4 Authors:

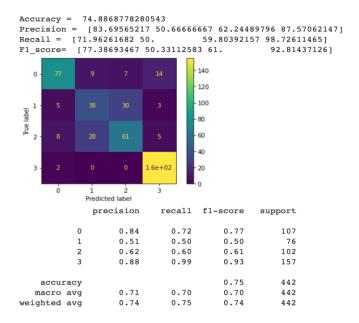


Figure 11.2

Random Forest Classifier for 6 Authors:

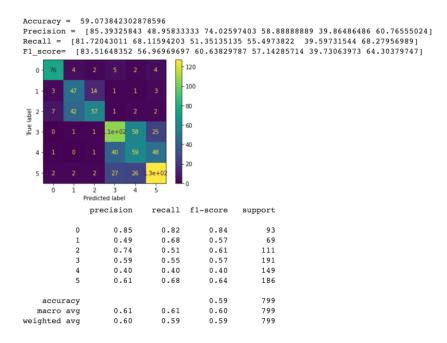


Figure 11.3

Random Forest Classifier for 8 Authors:

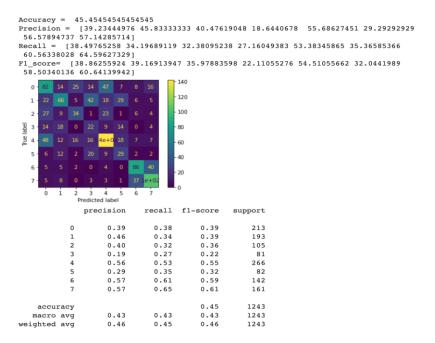


Figure 11.4

Random Forest Classifier for 10 Authors:

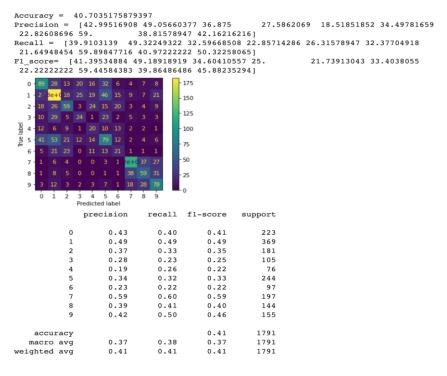


Figure 11.5

Random Forest Classifier for 12 Authors:

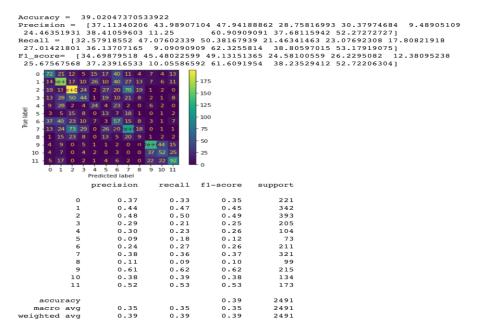


Figure 11.6

Decision Tree Classifier:

Decision Tree Classifier for 2 Authors:

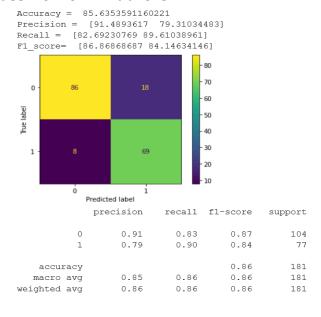
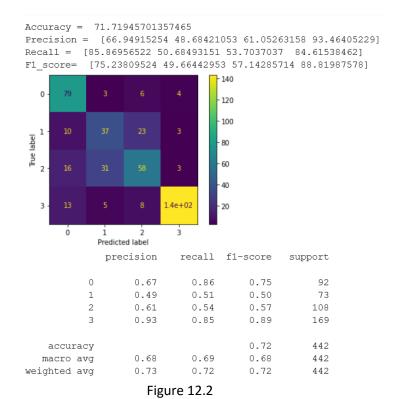


Figure 12.1

Decision Tree Classifier for 4 Authors:



Decision Tree Classifier for 6 Authors:

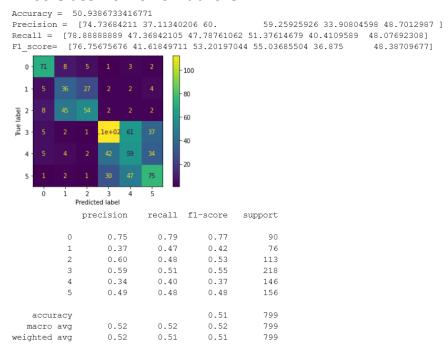


Figure 12.3

Decision Tree Classifier for 8 Authors:

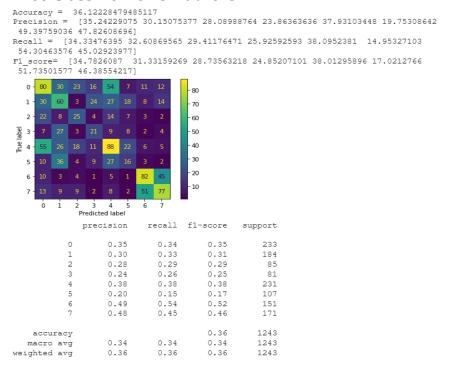


Figure 12.4

Decision Tree Classifier for 10 Authors:

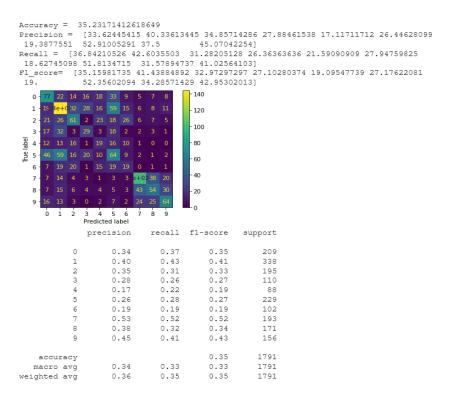


Figure 12.5

Decision Tree Classifier for 12 Authors:

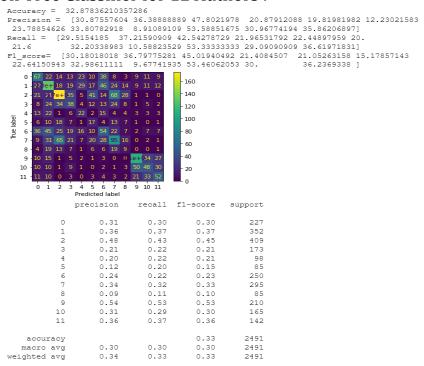


Figure 12.6

K-Neighbors Classifier:

K-Neighbors Classifier for 2 Authors with 1000 samples:

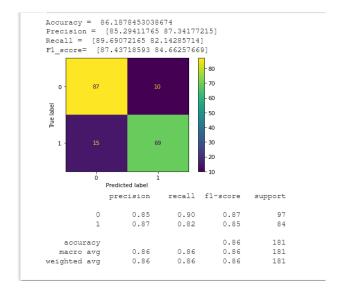


Figure 13.1

K-Neighbors Classifier for 4 Authors with 500 samples

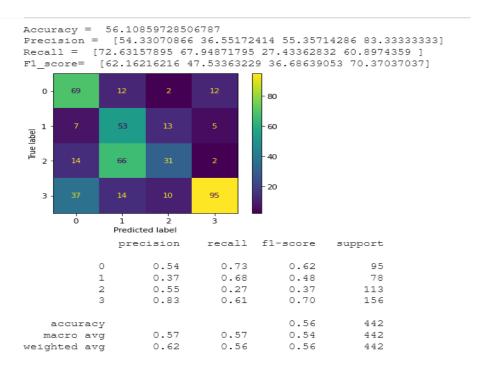


Figure 13.2

K-Neighbors Classifier for 6 Authors with 500 samples :

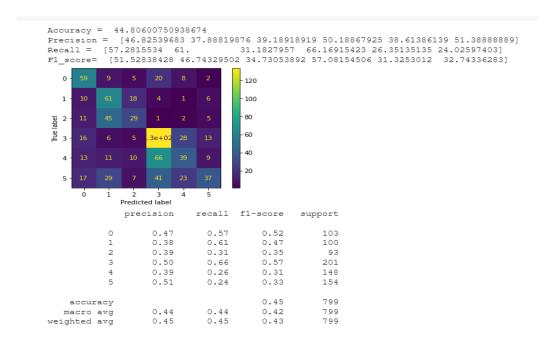


Figure 13.3

K-Neighbors Classifier for 8 Authors with 500 samples:

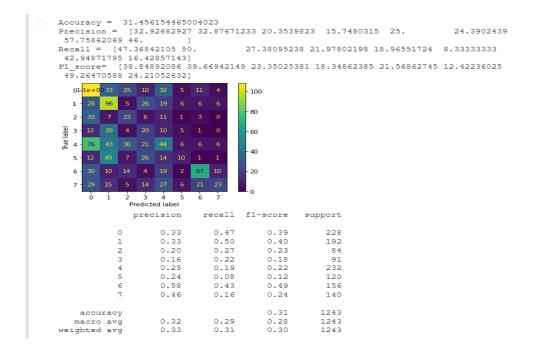


Figure 13.4

K-Neighbors Classifier for 10 Authors:

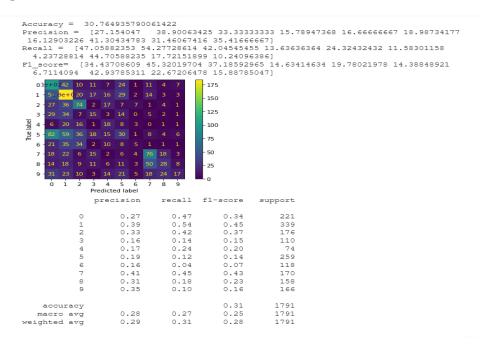


Figure 13.5

K-Neighbors Classifier for 12 Authors:

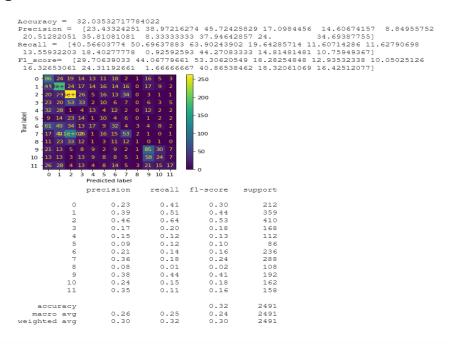


Figure 13.5

K-Means Classifier:

K-Means Classifier for 2 Authors with max_features=100:

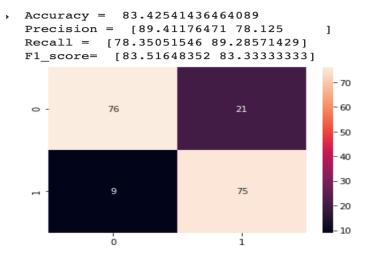


Figure 14.1

K-Means Classifier for 4 Authors:

```
Accuracy = 33.4841628959276
                         28.51239669 0.
Precision = [39.5
                                                  0.
                                                            ]
Recall = [74.52830189 86.25
                              0.
                                               0.
                                                         ]
F1_score= [51.63398693 42.85714286 0.
                                                0.
                                                          1
/usr/local/lib/python3.7/dist-packages/sklearn/metrics/_classifi
  _warn_prf(average, modifier, msg_start, len(result))
                                     - 100
                                      - 80
                                      60
 m - 1.1e+02
```

Figure 14.2

Notice: We have an error in this algorithm when tested on 4 authors, some value was zero although our code was run correctly for other algorithms.

MLP Classifier:

MLP Classifier for 2 Authors:

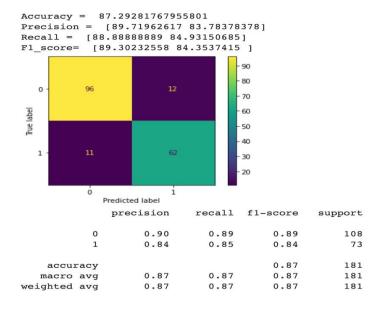


Figure 14.1

MLP Classifier for 4 Authors:

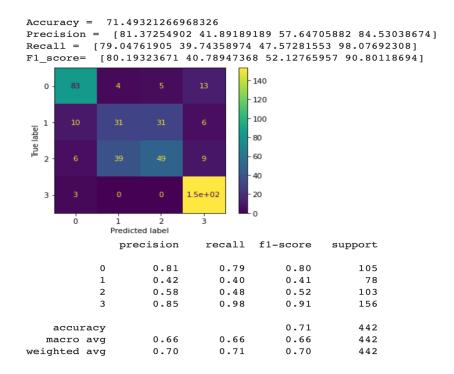


Figure 14.2

MLP Classifier for 6 Authors:

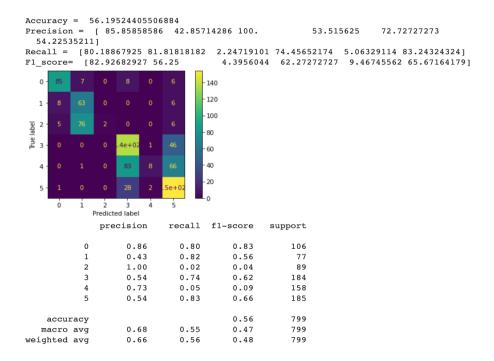


Figure 14.3

MLP Classifier for 8 Authors:

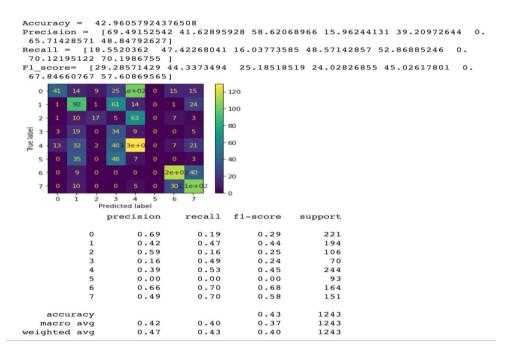


Figure 14.4

MLP Classifier for 10 Authors:

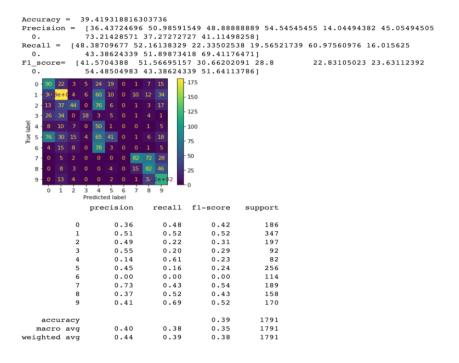


Figure 14.5

MLP Classifier for 12 Authors:

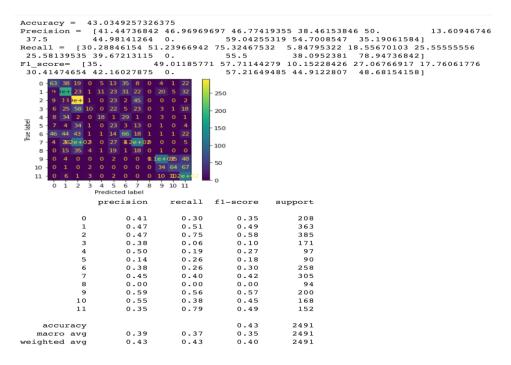


Figure 14.6

Naïve-Bayes Classifier:

Naïve-Bayes Classifier for 2 Authors:

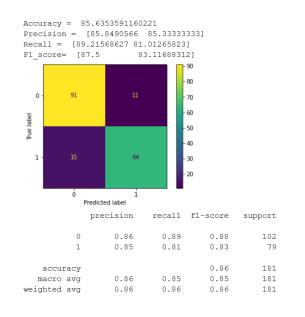


Figure 15.1

Naïve-Bayes Classifier for 4 Authors with F=1000

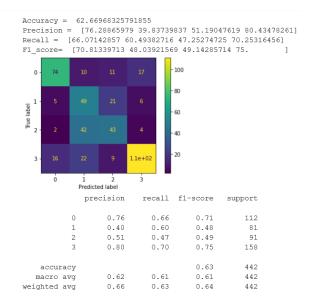


Figure 15.2

Naïve-Bayes Classifier for 6 Authors:

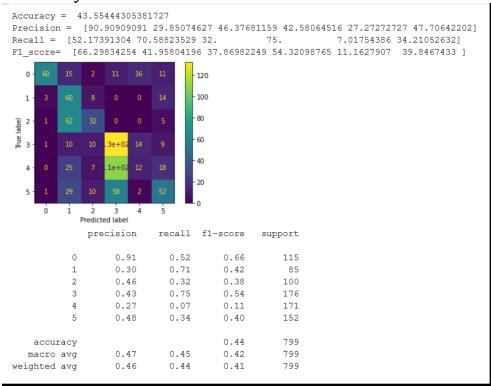


Figure 15.3

Naïve-Bayes Classifier for 8 Authors:

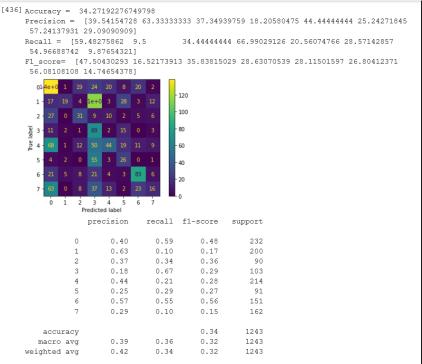


Figure 15.4

Naïve-Bayes Classifier for 10 Authors:

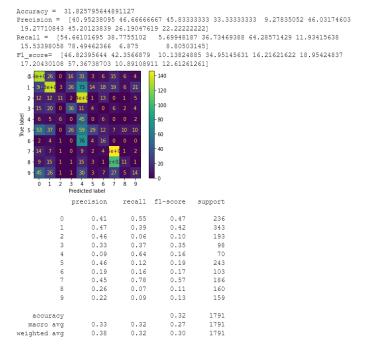


Figure 15.5

Naïve-Bayes Classifier for 12 Authors:

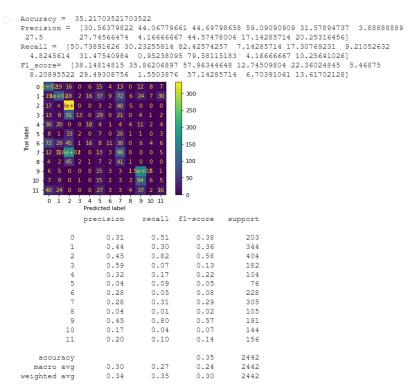


Figure 15.6

IV. Conclusion:

Using Cosine Similarity on 500-1000 Sample:

Algorithm	Language	Number Authors	Accuracy	Precision	Recall
Random Forest	Python	2	92.817	93.000	92.390
2 02 020		4	74.886	71.041	57.622
		6	59.073	61.333	60.759
			8	45.454	42.875
		10	40.703	37.300	38.000
		12	39.020	35.0	35.0

Decision Tree	Python	2	85.635	85.0	86.0
2200		4	71.719	68.0	69.0
		6	50.938	52.0	52.0
		8	36.122	34.0	34.0
		10	35.231	34.0	33.0
		12	32.878	30.0	30.0
K-Neighbors	Python	2(1000F)	86.187	86.0	86.0
		4	56.108	56.108 57.0	
		6	6 44.806 44.0		44.0
		8	31.456	32.0	29.0
		10	30.764	28.0	27.0
		12	32.035	26.0	25.0
K-Means	Python	2(100F)	83.425	83.765	83.817
		4	33.484 19.5		40.194
MLP	Python	2	87.292 87.0		87.0
		4	71.49.3	66.0	66.0
		6	56.195	68.0	55.0
		8	42.960	42.0	40.0

		10	39.419	40.0	38.0
		12	43.034	39.0	37.0
Naive Bayes	Python	2	85.635	86.0	85.0
		4(1000F)	62.669	62.0	61.0
		6	43.554	47.0	45.0
		8	34.271	39.0	36.0
		10	31.825	33.0	32.0
		12	35.217	30.0	27.0

Table 1

Testing Data:

In this part we tested some tweets for random authors to check if our algorithms guess the correct author if given a tweet of an unknown author. As shown in Figure below we noticed that the random algorithm could guess the correct author for the entered tweet which was "hussinalezzi5" and returned number "9" this number is the order of "hussinalezzi5" in array data.

```
{'GwadyM', 'HHShkMohd', 'L_Alobaidli', 'LarissaAounSky', 'MohamedBinZayed', 'NawalElSaadawi1', 'NidalSabeh', 'Pontifex_ar', 'QueenRania'
   , 'hussinalezzi5', 'mohamedahou20', 'monther72'}
  [0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11]
▼ Test Data
                                                                                                                                            ↑ ↓ © 目 $ 🗓 📋 :
   NawalElSaadawil "ور مباشره صركلٰز قومي ترجمه بدره اوبرا مصري قاعه طه حسين مكان ندوه ناقش كتاب دكتور"= pred_data#
       * عاجل صديق بوريس جونسون رئيس وزير بريطانيا اصل ل شعب بريطاني صححه صلاحه تحدي فيروس كورونا مستجد سنواجهه الله ال اداده عزيمه تضامن بشريه "= #pred_data " "ذني دائم معمل استثناء اشبه بقيه "= #pred_data " "ذني دائم معمل استثناء اشبه بقيه "= #pred_data " "ذني دائم معمل استثناء اشبه بقيه " " pred_data = "5
        چيه روج ل مضى اسر ازاد تكفف كتيبه سلاح خرج مصنف جعيه ازهابي سقط مرحله سريع انتقل ثاني صرف نظر هجوم شخصي تكفير وهانحن مرحله ثالث 27
       pred_data = pred_data.split(',')
        pred_col = ['A']
        z = {pred col[0]:pred data[0]}
        k = pd.DataFrame(z,index = [0])
        # clf = load('drive/MyDrive/RandomForest.joblib')
        #predction = estimator.predict(k)
       k['character_cnt'] = k['A'].str.len()
k['word_counts'] = k['A'].str.split().str.len()
        k['characters_per_word'] = k['character_cnt']/dat['word_counts']
        k['num'] = k['A'].apply(lambda x: len([x for x in x.split() if x.isdigit()]))
        k['similarity'] = (
        k = k.drop({'A'}, axis=1)
        clf = load('drive/MyDrive/Colab Notebooks/Output/RandomForest/RandomForest12.joblib')
        # clf = load('drive/MyDrive/Colab Notebooks/Output/DecisionTree/DecisionTree12.joblib')
        # clf = load('drive/MyDrive/Colab Notebooks/Output/KNeighbors/KNeighbors12.joblib')
        # clf = load('drive/MyDrive/Colab Notebooks/Output/KMeans/KMeans12.joblib')
        # clf = load('drive/MyDrive/Colab Notebooks/Output/MLP/MLP12.joblib')
        # clf = load('drive/MyDrive/Colab Notebooks/Output/NaiveBayes/NaiveBayes12.joblib')
        predction = clf.predict(k)
        predction[0]
```

Figure 16: Test data

V. Links For Our Work:

□ 9

- ★ https://colab.research.google.com/drive/19ABq0fEHbgKAIE
 n2M758G4x9YTLBTEJ#scrollTo=Rzb9YVv76wlB
- ★ https://drive.google.com/drive/folders/1TsWMEiWds3qUw 1C21VL4kea0BT0j9tuJ?usp=sharing

