

OSLOMET

Machine Learning –p2

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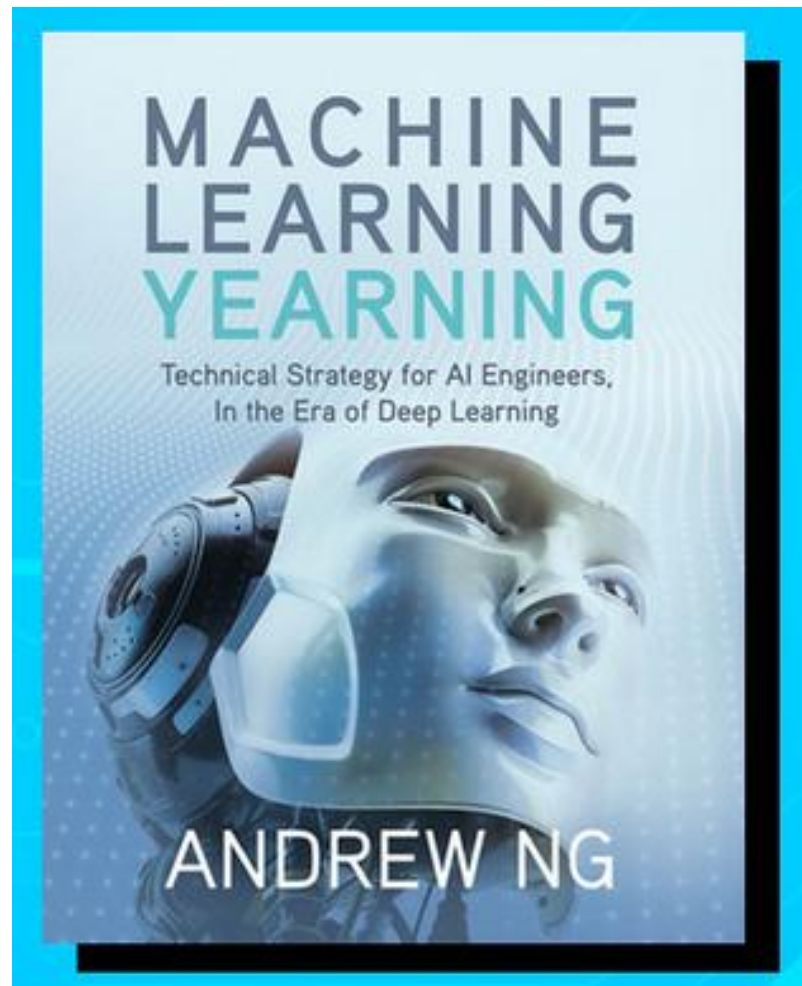


Types of Machine Learning algorithms

- Supervised learning
- Unsupervised learning
- Reinforcement learning
- Recommender systems

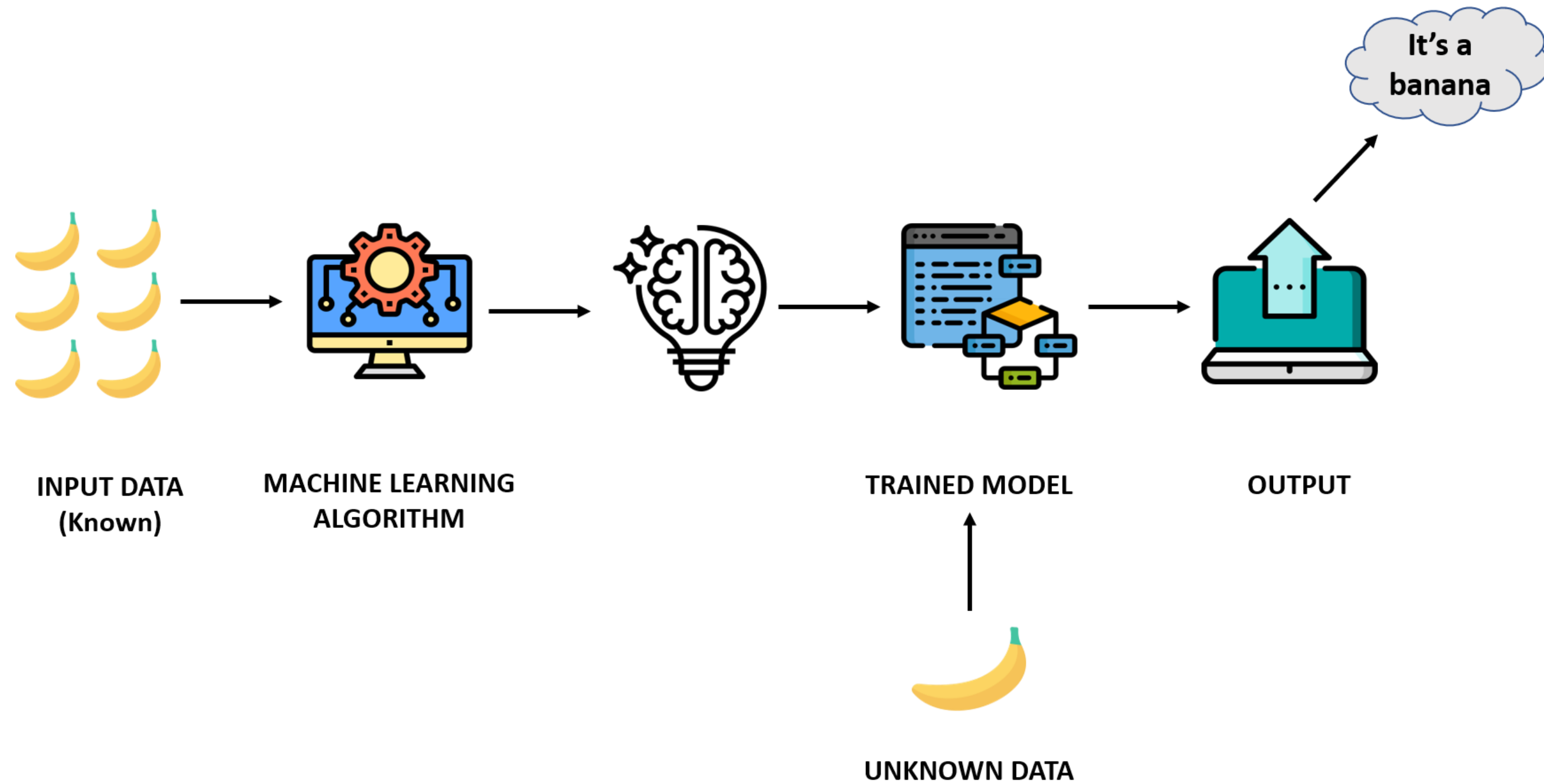
Supervised Machine Learning

Resources for Machine learning



**Course slide from
DIKU 004 - Supervised Machine Learning.pdf**

Supervised learning



How to work with Supervised machine learning

- Data collection
- Data processing
 - Data cleaning
 - Data labeling
 - Feature Engineering
 - Feature scaling
 - Data splitting (training, validation and test sets)
- Model Selection
- Training
- Validation
- Evaluation (with test data)
- Deploy the model
- Monitoring and maintenance

We will focus on models

Model types (supervised learning)



Classification

Support vector machines

Decision Trees

K-Nearest Neighbour

Random Forest

Logistic regression

Naïve Bayes classifier

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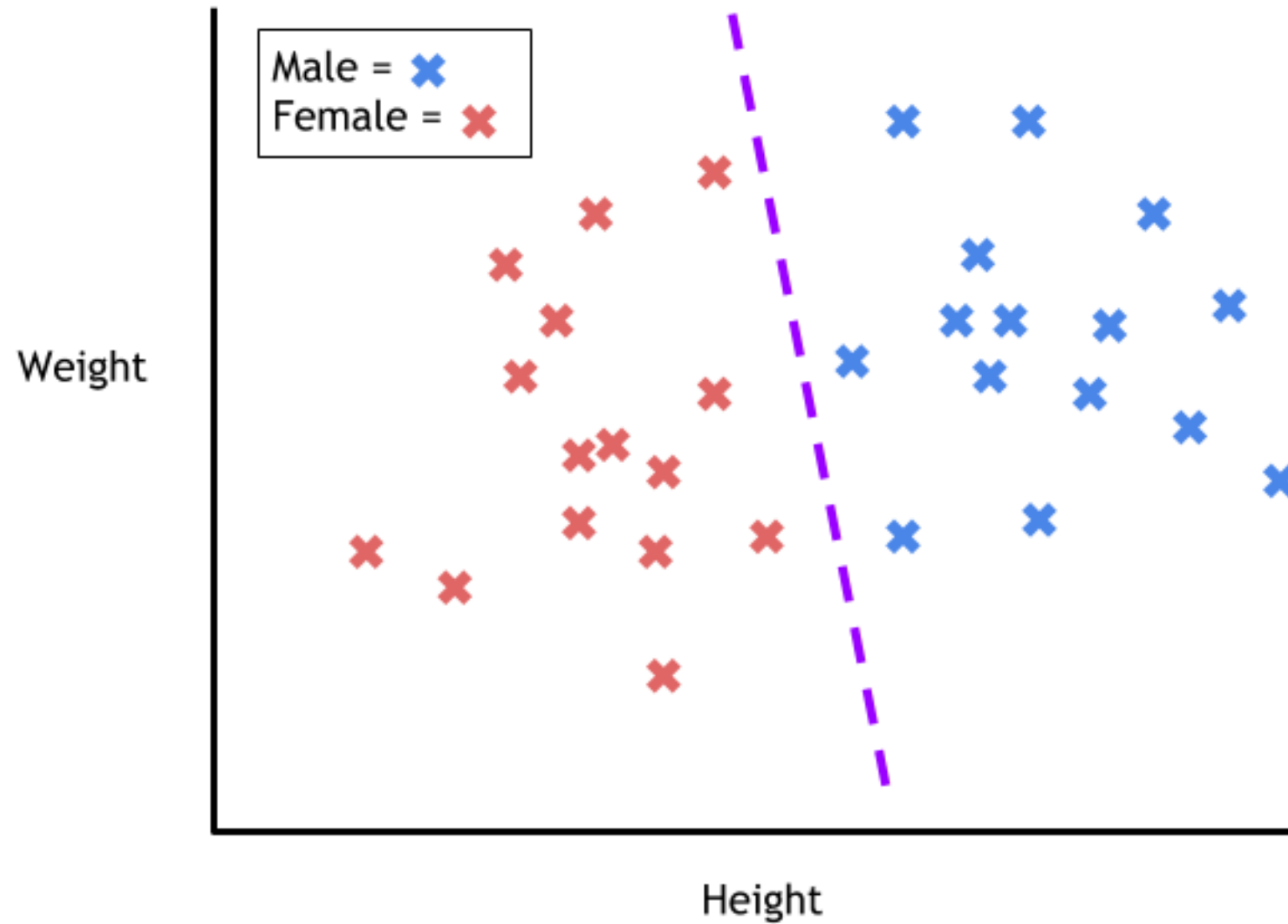
Regression

Linear Regression

Polynomial
Regression

...

Classification



- Divides the data in classes / categories
- Use cases:
 - Spam detection (classification: spam or normal)
 - Analysis of the customer data to predict whether they will buy computer accessories (classification: Yes or No)
 - Classifying fruits from features like colour, taste, size, weight (classification: Apple, Orange, Cherry, Banana)
 - Gender classification from hair length (classification: Male or Female)
 - Stock market price prediction (classification: high or low)

Classification versus Clustering algorithms

Clustering

- Where we want to discover the groupings in data



sample



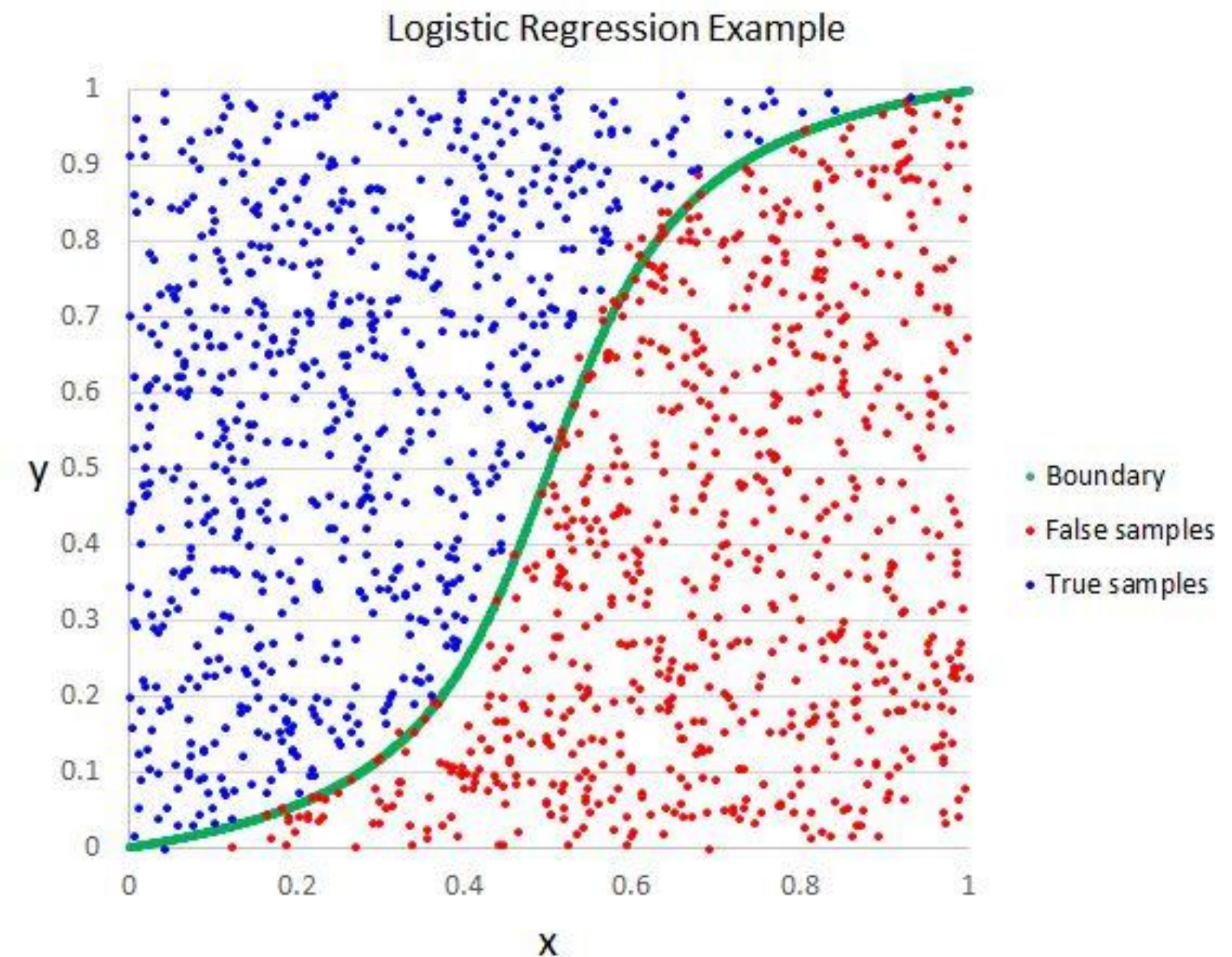
Cluster/group

Classification versus Clustering algorithms

- Classification is assigning labels
- Clustering is grouping data together
- Classification is supervised, clustering is unsupervised.

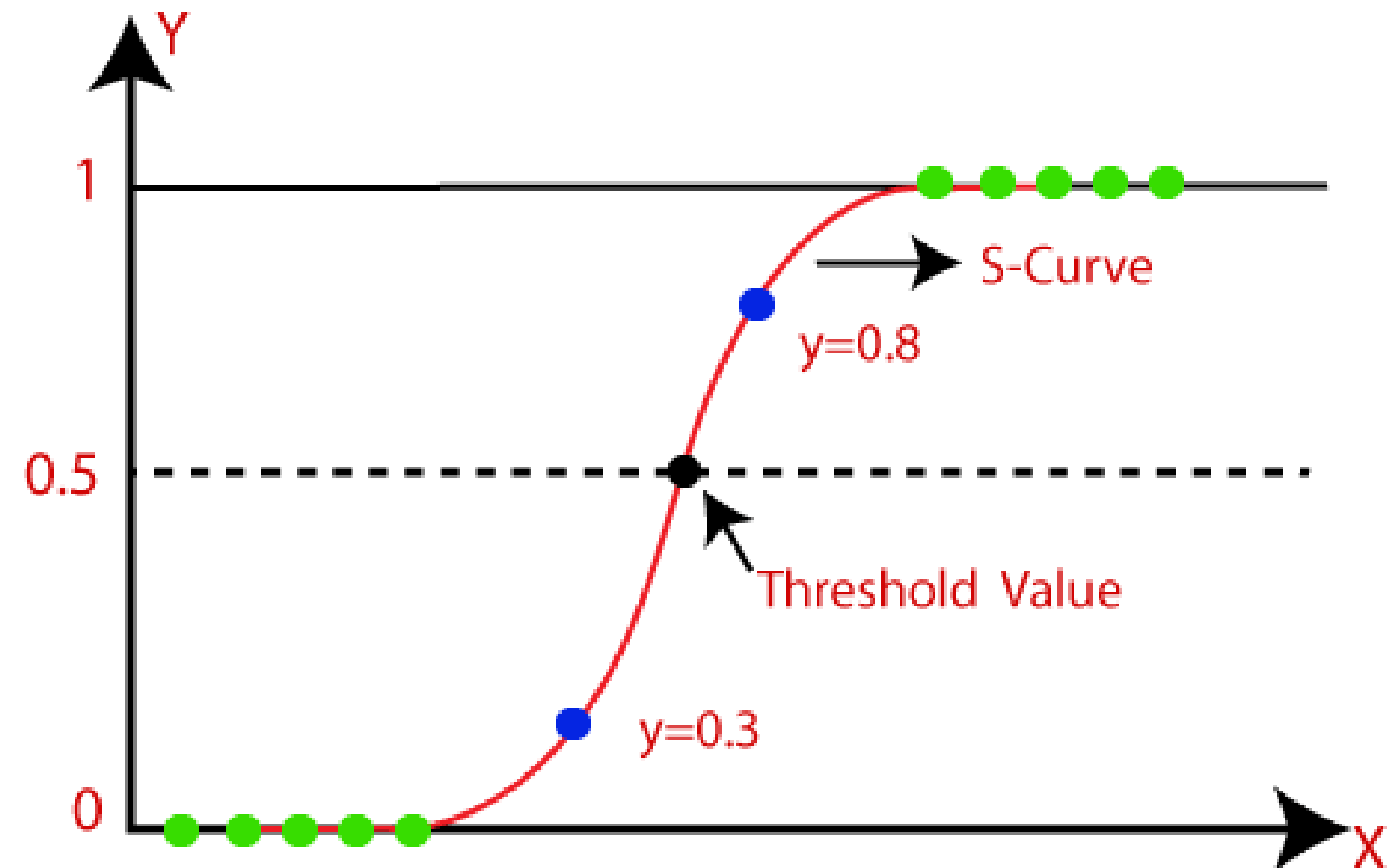
Classification -> Logistic regression

- is used when you have a classification problem - yes/no, pass/fail, win/lose, alive/dead, healthy/sick etc..
- It is the go-to method for binary classification problems
- The logistic function looks like a big S and will transform any value into the range 0 to 1.



Sigmoid function:

- Allows to put a threshold value.
e.g 0.5 (use case spam
detection)



Uses

- Logistic regression is used to predict the occurrence of some event. e.g
 - Predict whether rain will occur or not
 - spam detection, Diabetes prediction, cancer detection etc.

Types of Logistic regression

- Binary logistic regression (e.g pass / fail)
- Multiclass logistic regression (e.g cats, dogs, sheep)
- Ordinal (low, medium, high)

Example run of an A.I algorithm

1. Develop the algorithm

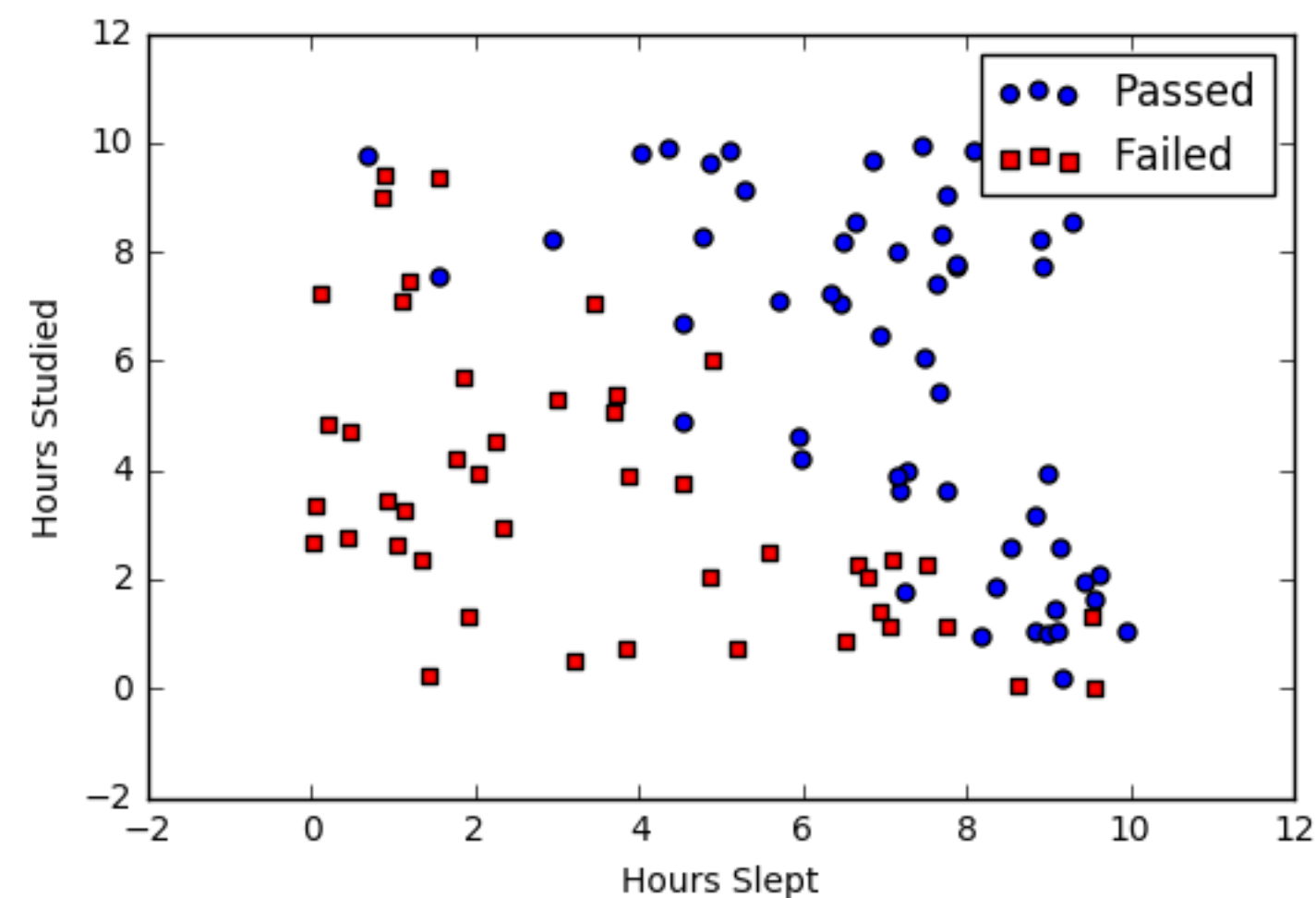


2. Evaluate the algorithm

Develop (using binary logistic regression)

Step1 : Visualization

Studied	Slept	Passed
4.85	9.63	1
8.62	3.23	0
5.43	8.23	1
9.21	6.34	0



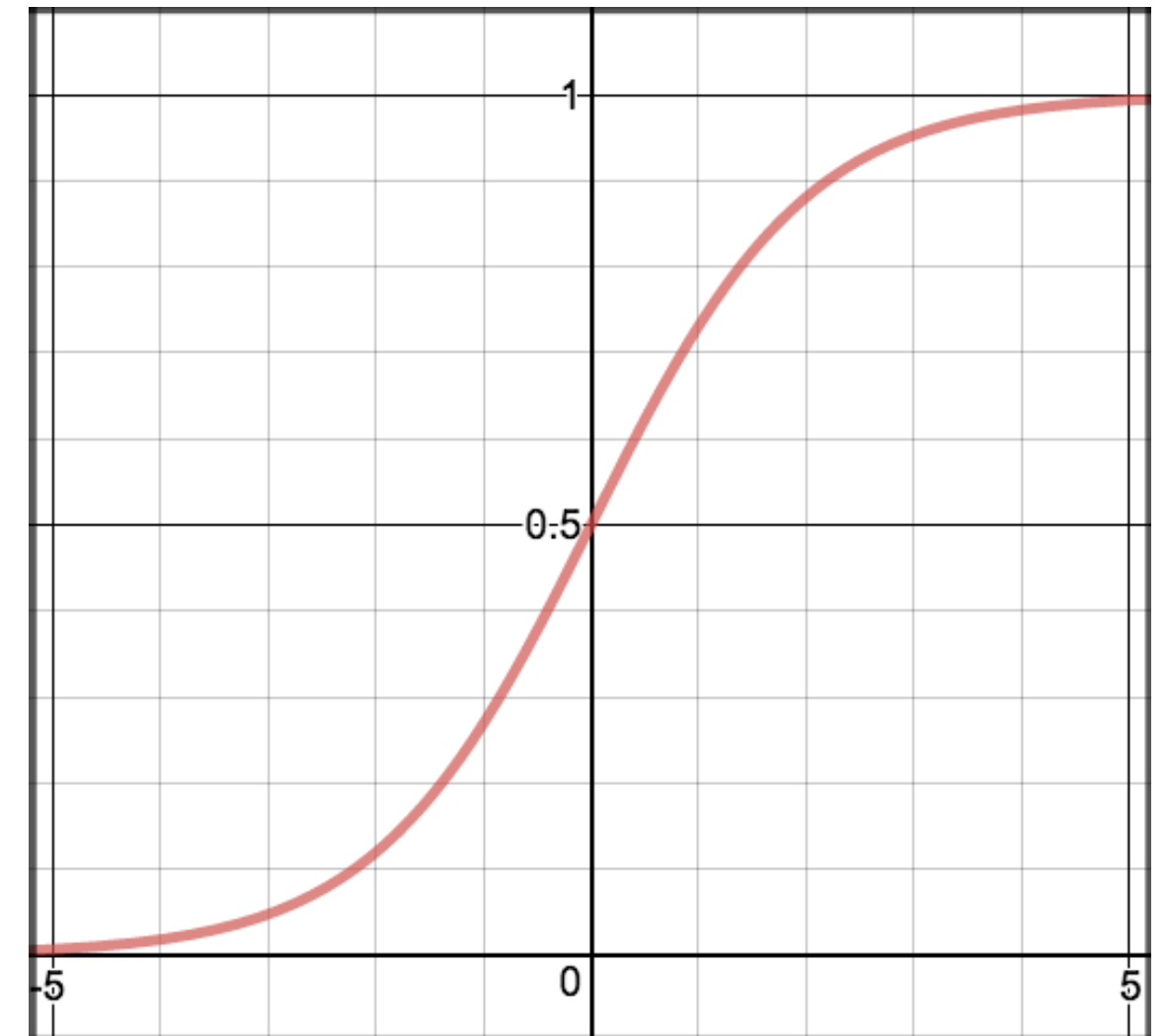
Step 2: Sigmoid activation (a bit of maths)

$$S(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}$$

Code

```
def sigmoid(z):  
    return 1.0 / (1 + np.exp(-z))
```

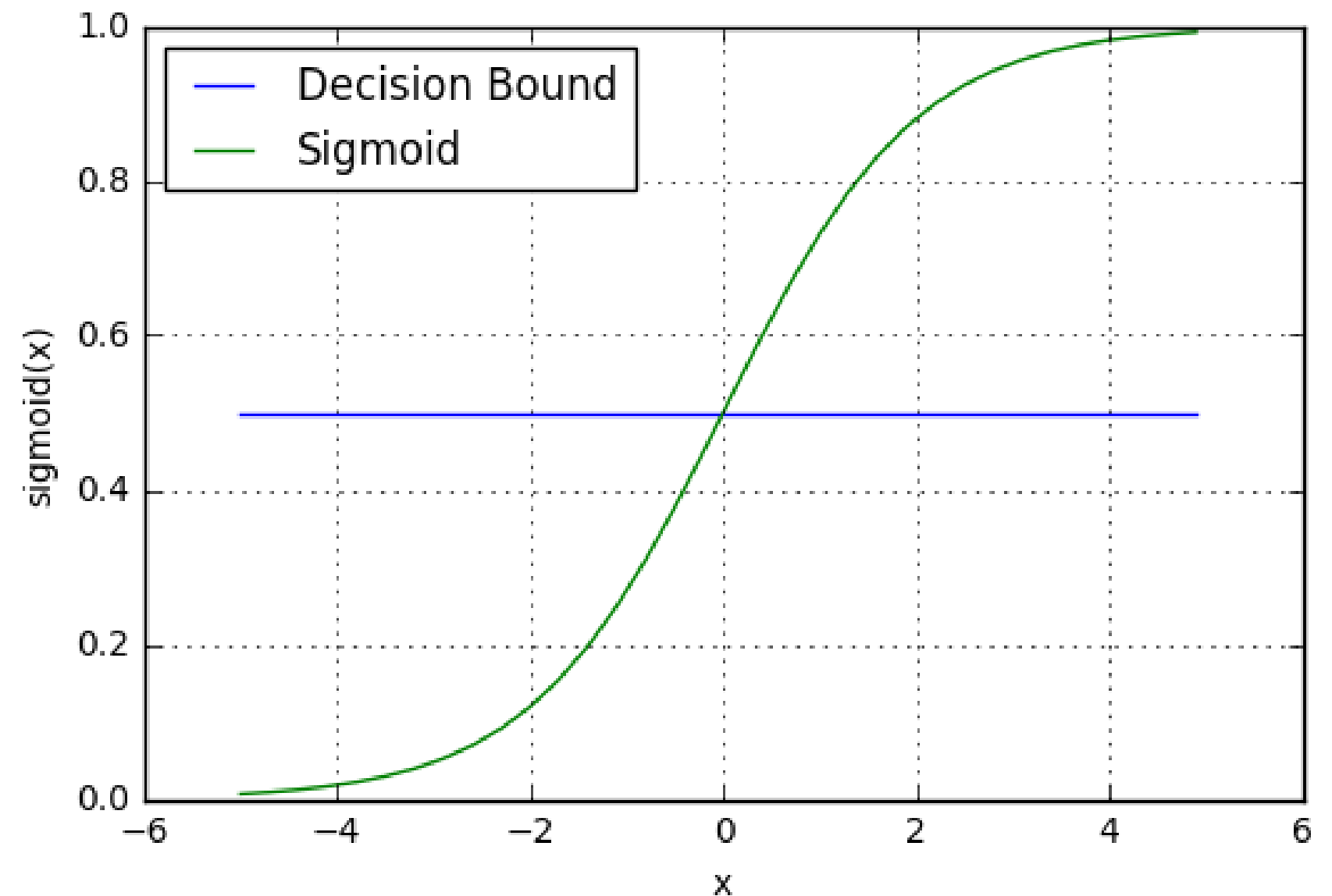
$s(z)$ = output between 0 and 1 (probability estimate)
 z = input to the function (your algorithm's prediction e.g. $mx + b$)
 e = base of natural log



Step 3: Decision boundary

- We need a threshold value

$$p \geq 0.5, \text{class} = 1$$
$$p < 0.5, \text{class} = 0$$



Step 4: Making predictions

- Using our knowledge of sigmoid functions and decision boundaries, we can now write a prediction function.
- A prediction function in logistic regression returns the probability of our observation being positive, True, or “Yes”.
- We call this class 1 and its notation is $P(class=1)$.

$$P(class = 1) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}$$

- If the model returns .4 it believes there is only a 40% chance of passing. If our decision boundary was .5, we would categorize this observation as “Fail.”“

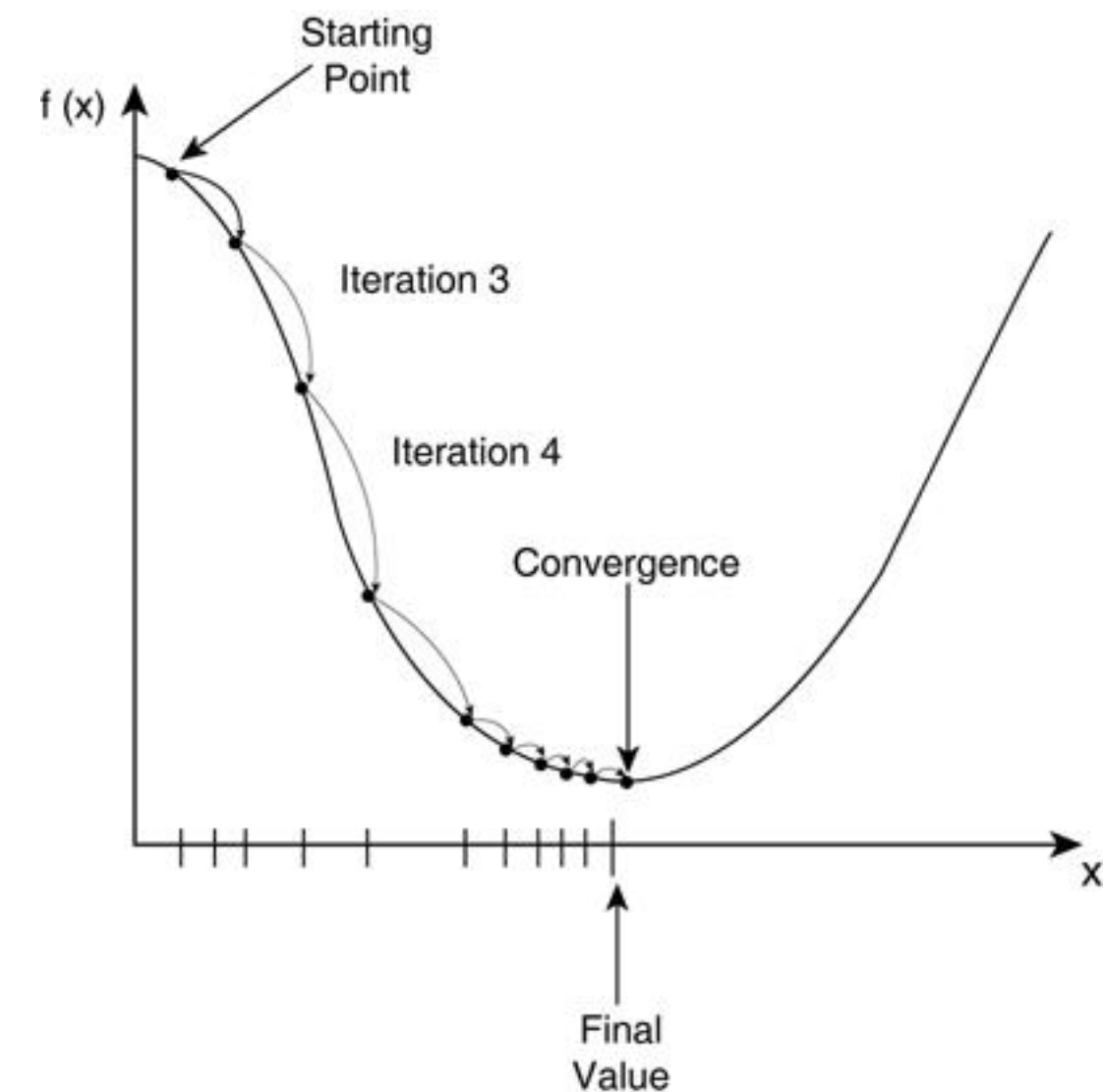
Second stage: evaluate the algorithm

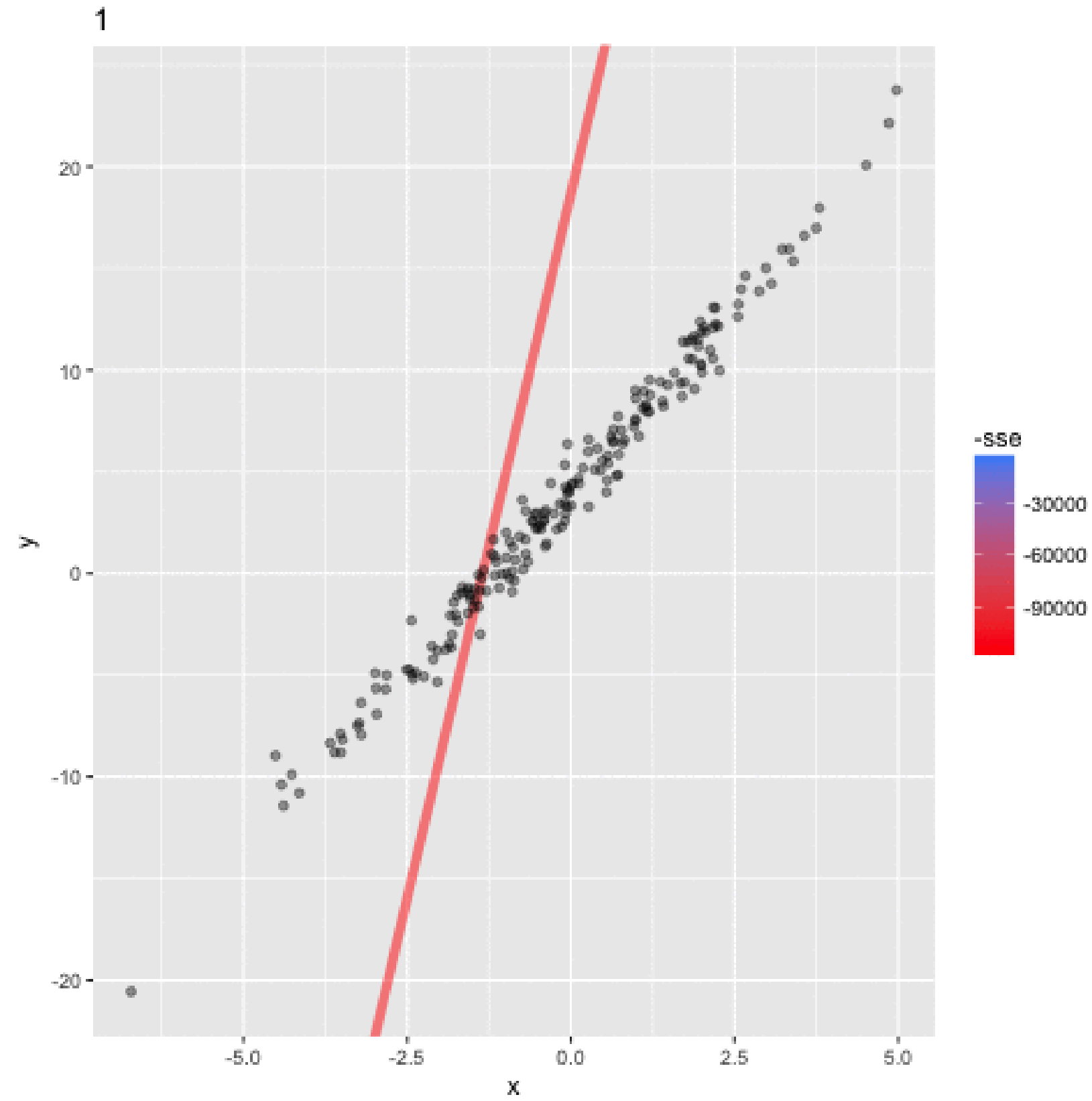
Evaluate using cost function

- What is a cost function ?
 - The cost function helps the learner to correct / change behaviour to minimize mistakes.
- In ML, cost functions are used to estimate how badly models are performing.
- Put simply, *a cost function is a measure of how wrong the model is in terms of its ability to estimate the relationship between X and y .*

Cost function: Gradient descent

- Gradient Descent is an optimization algorithm used to tweak parameters iteratively to minimize the cost function.
- Gradient descent enables a model to learn the gradient or *direction* that the model should take in order to reduce errors (differences between actual y and predicted y).





Develop: Map probabilities to classes

- The final step is assign class labels (0 or 1) to our predicted probabilities.

Decision boundary

```
def decision_boundary(prob):  
    return 1 if prob >= .5 else 0
```

Convert probabilities to classes

```
def classify(predictions):  
    '''  
    input  - N element array of predictions between 0 and 1  
    output - N element array of 0s (False) and 1s (True)  
    '''  
    decision_boundary = np.vectorize(decision_boundary)  
    return decision_boundary(predictions).flatten()
```

Example output

```
Probabilities = [ 0.967, 0.448, 0.015, 0.780, 0.978, 0.004]  
Classifications = [1, 0, 0, 1, 1, 0]
```


Final stage: Finish it up

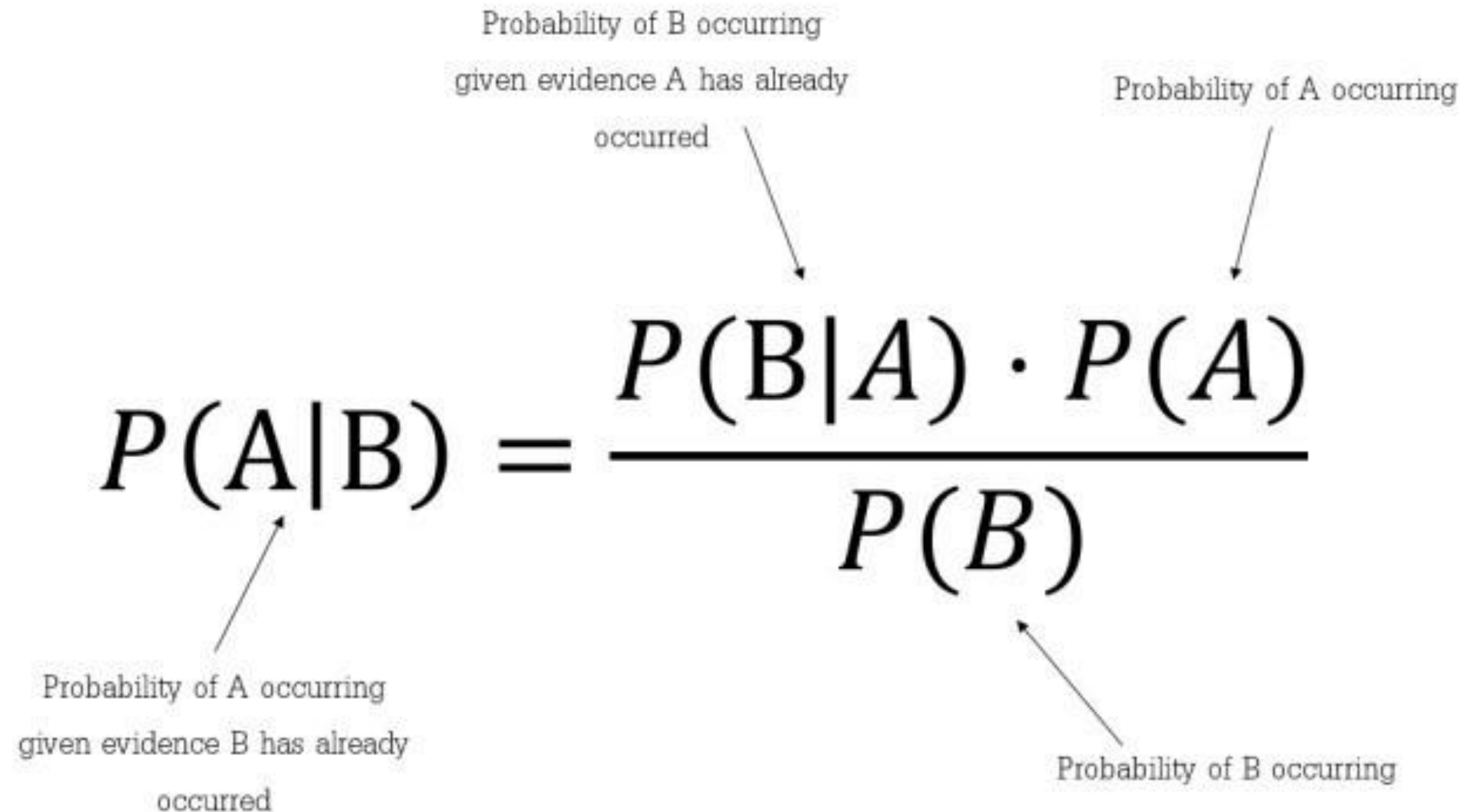
- Train the model
- Evaluate the model
 - Minimize the cost with repeated iterations
- Measure the accuracy of your outputs
- Measure the probability score

Classification -> Naive Bayes classification algorithm

- A Naive Bayes classifier assumes that the presence of a particular feature in a class is unrelated to the presence of any other feature.
- e.g a fruit may be considered to be an apple if it is red, round, and about 3 inches in diameter.
- Its an easy to build algorithm and a very powerful one.

BAYES THEOREM

Bayes's theorem describes the probability of an event, based on prior knowledge of conditions that might be related to the event



The diagram illustrates Bayes' Theorem with the following equation and annotations:

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A) \cdot P(A)}{P(B)}$$

Annotations with arrows pointing to the terms in the equation:

- $P(A|B)$: Probability of A occurring given evidence B has already occurred
- $P(B|A)$: Probability of B occurring given evidence A has already occurred
- $P(A)$: Probability of A occurring
- $P(B)$: Probability of B occurring