

OSLOMET

Machine Learning -p2

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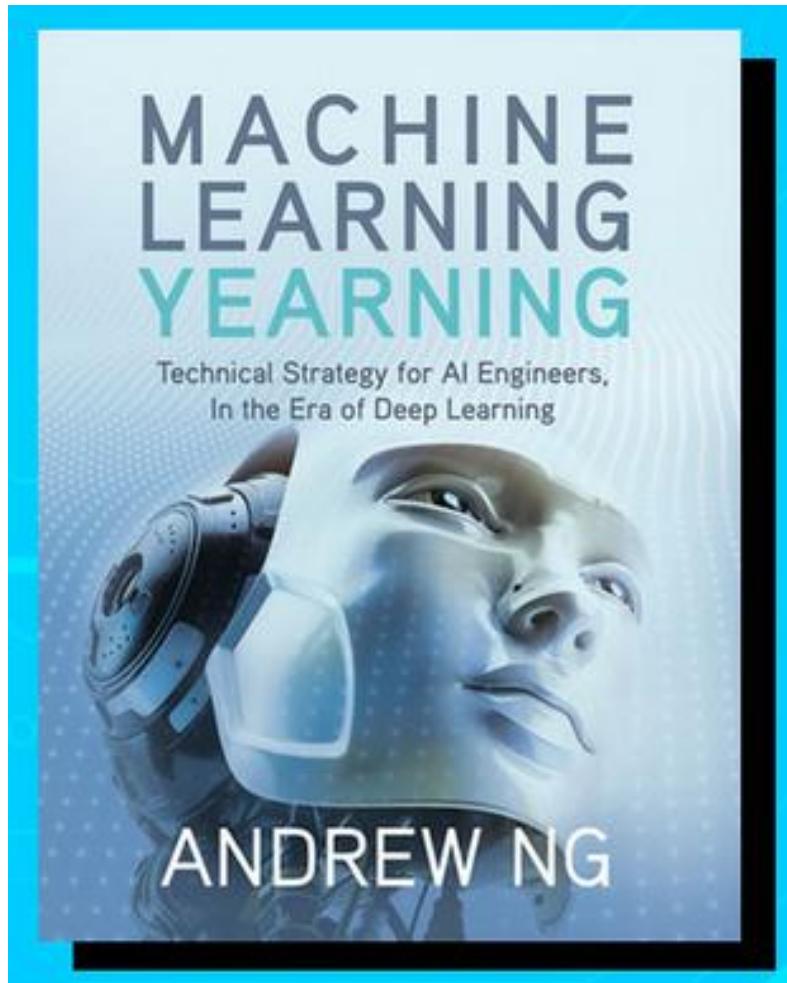


Types of Machine Learning algorithms

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

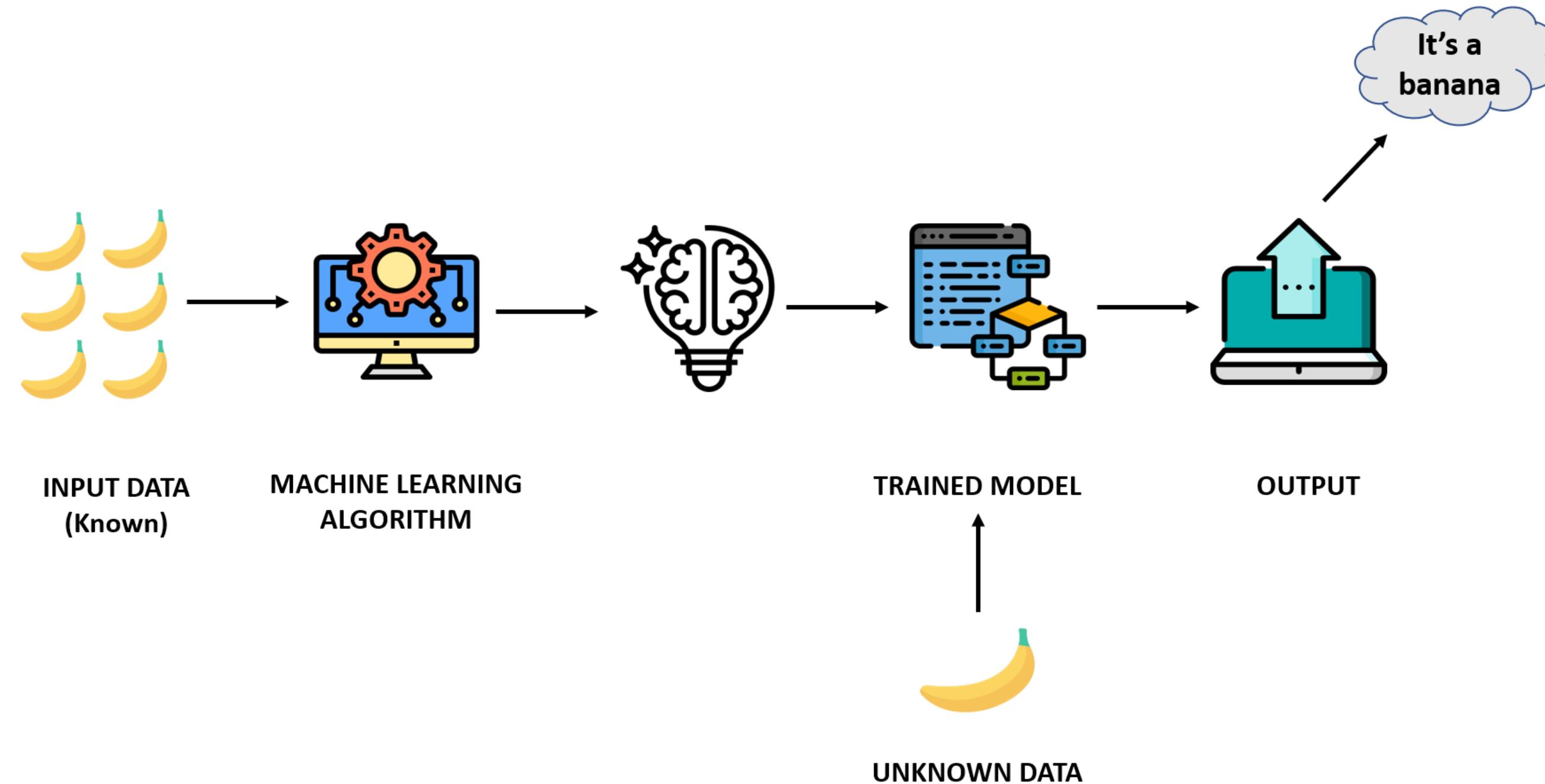
Supervised Machine Learning

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

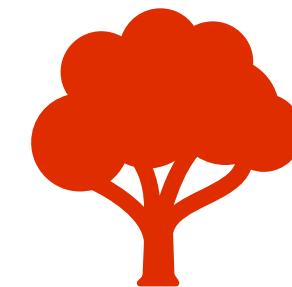
Model types (supervised learning)



Classification

Support vector machines
Decision Trees
K-Nearest Neighbour
Random Forest
Logistic regression
Naïve Bayes classifier

...

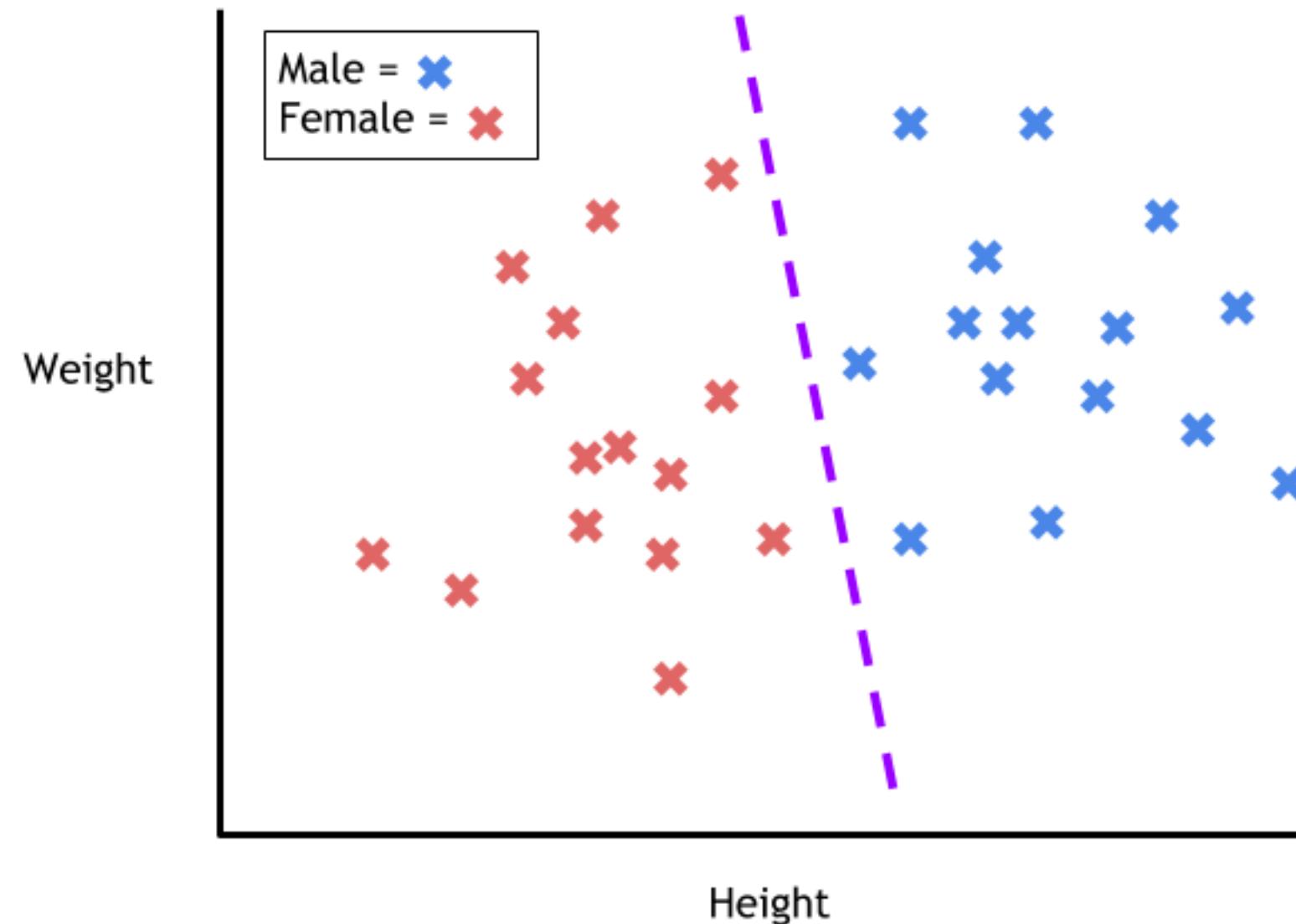


Regression

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



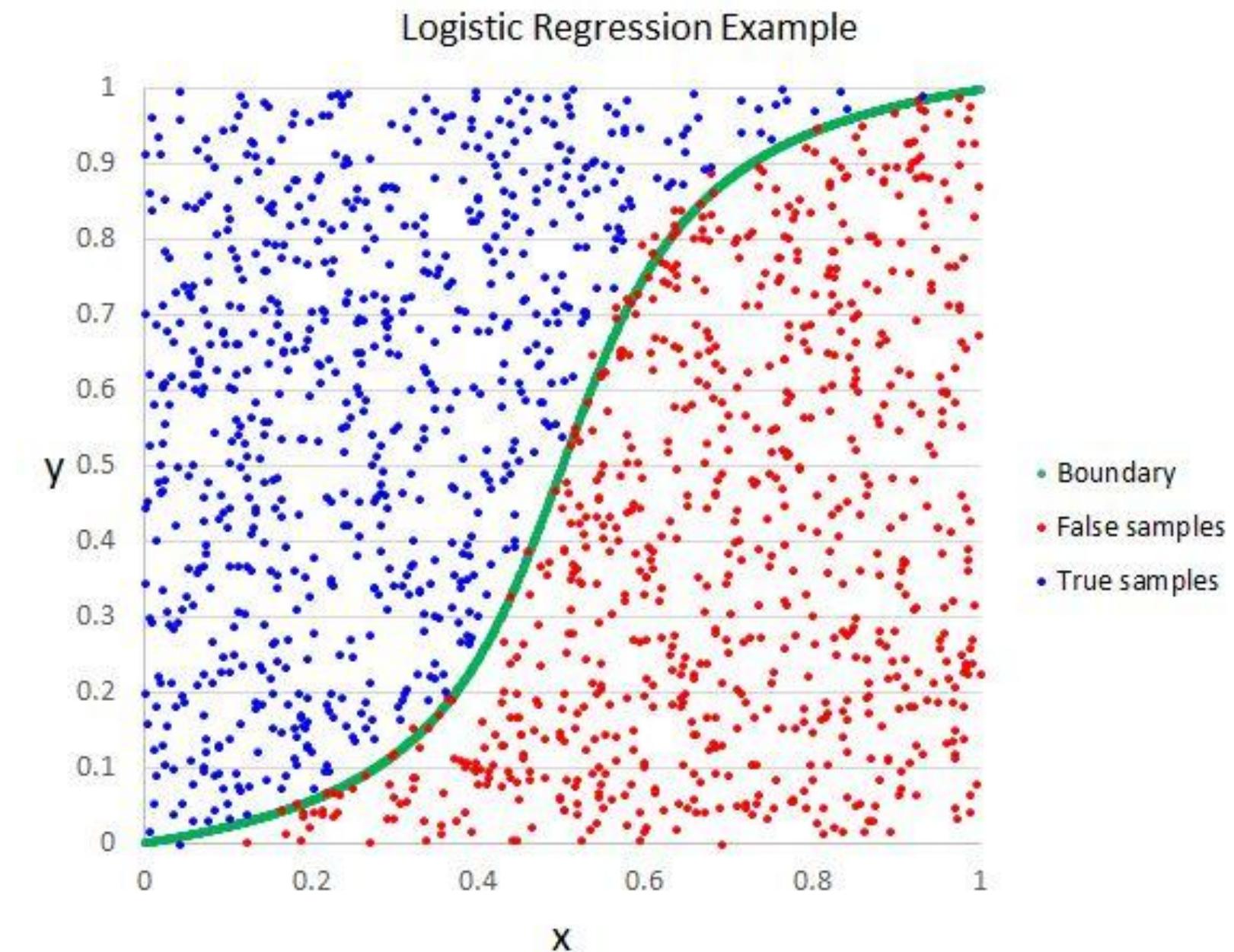
Cluster/group

Classification versus Clustering algorithms

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

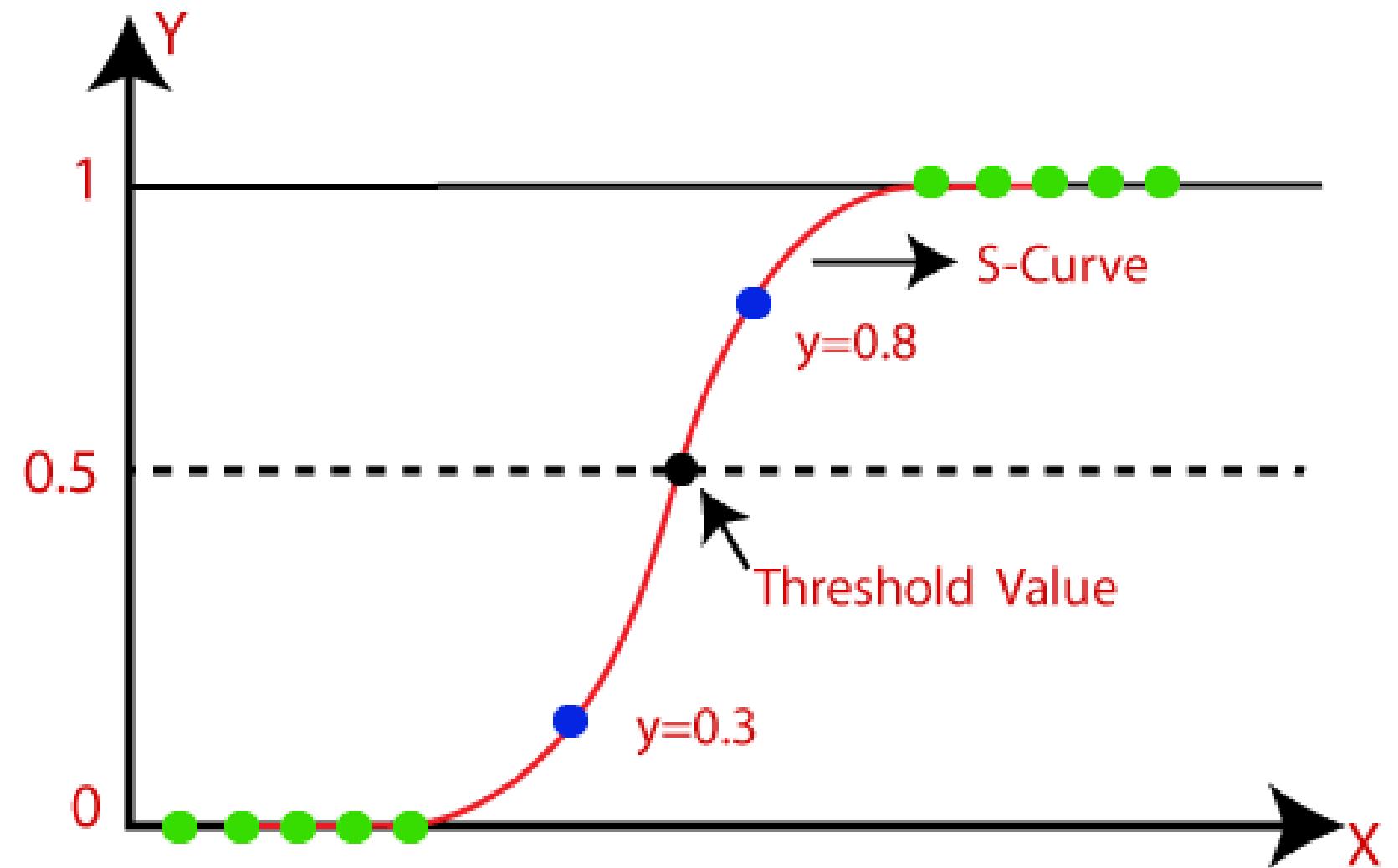
Classification -> Logistic regression

- 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



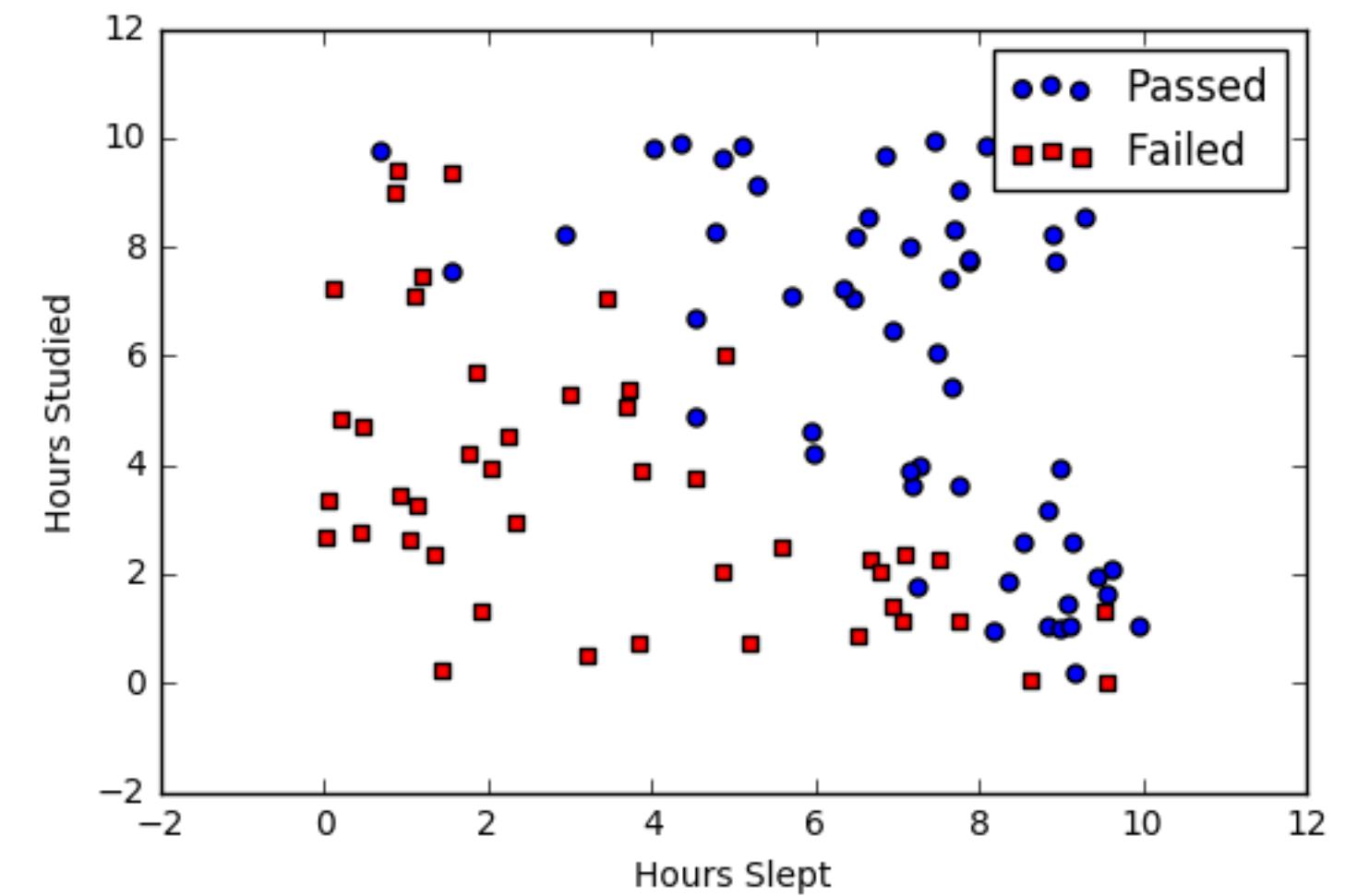
2. Evaluate the algorithm

Develop (using binary logistic regression)

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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



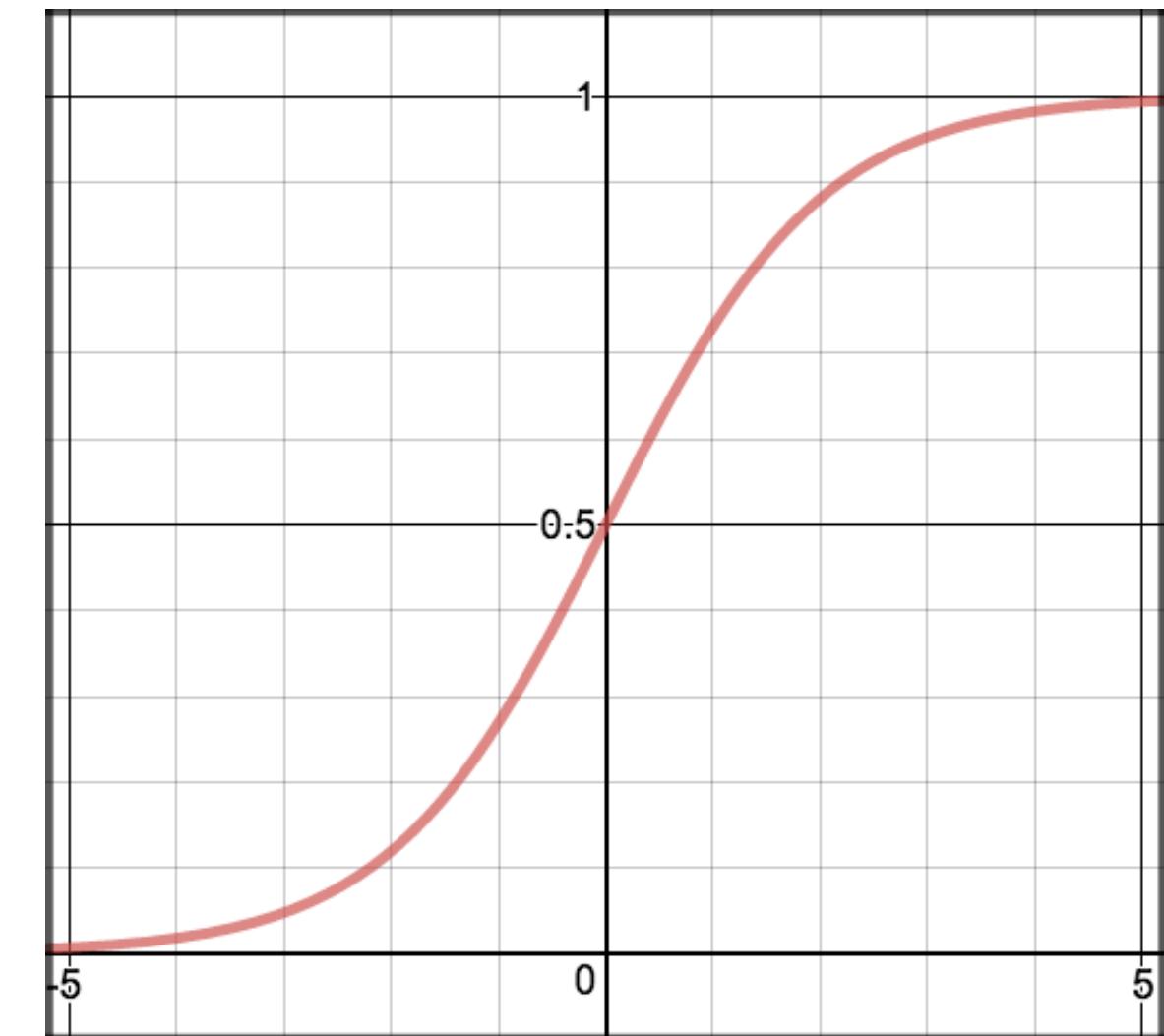
Step 2: Sigmoid activation (a bit of maths)

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

Code

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

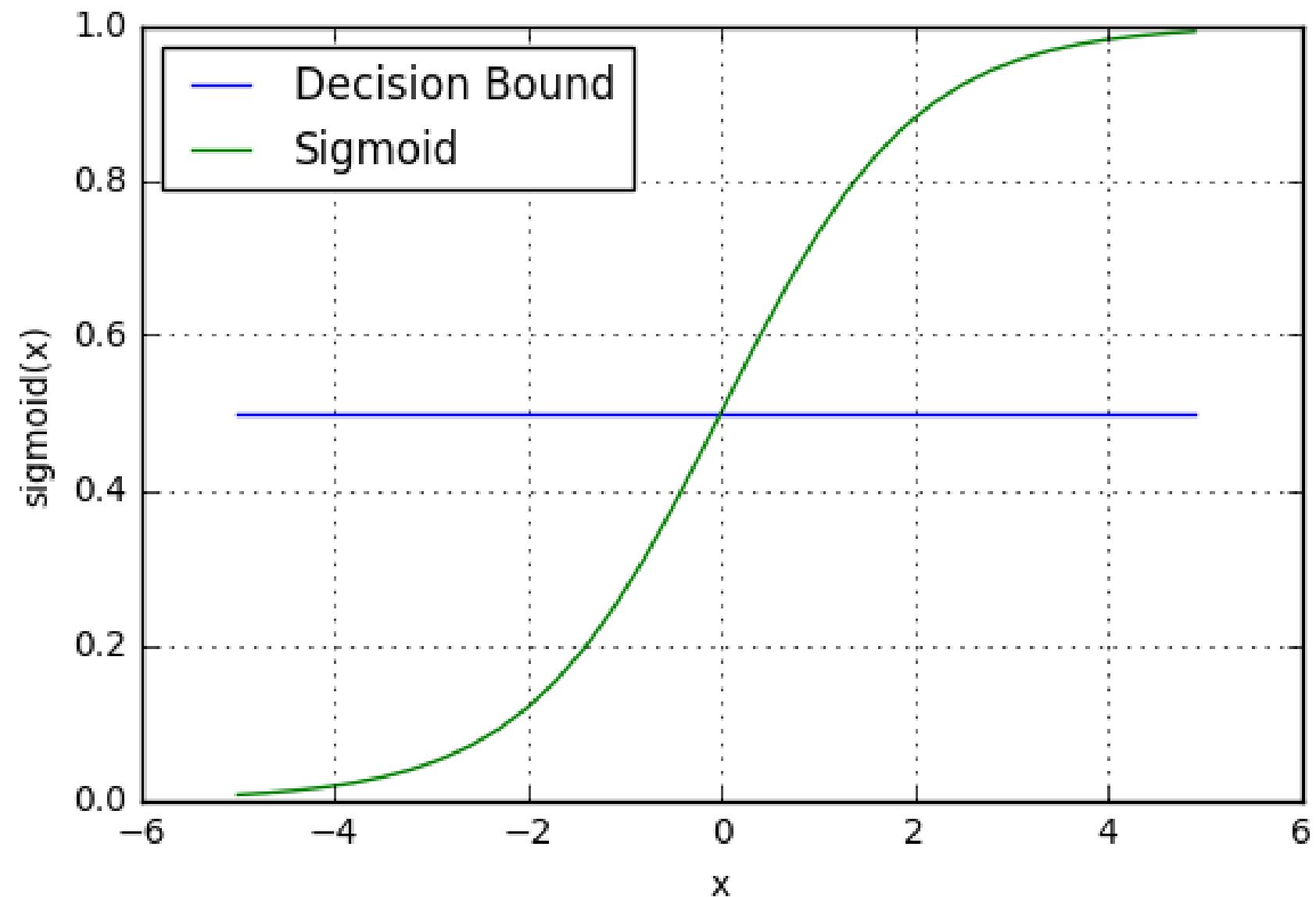
$s(z)$ = output between 0 and 1 (probability estimate)
 z = input to the function (your algorithm's prediction e.g. $mx + b$)
 e = base of natural log



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.”“

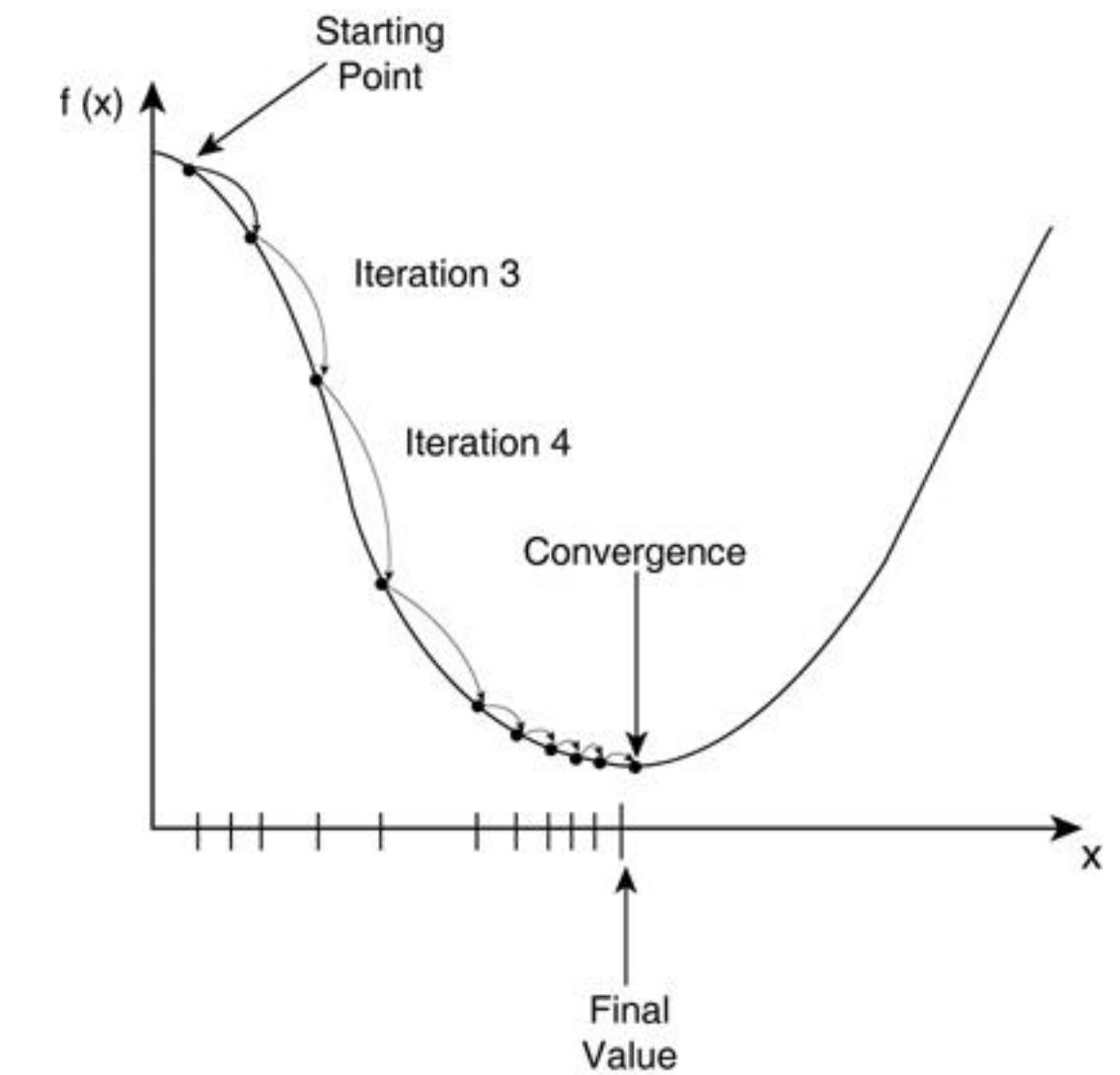
Second stage: evaluate the algorithm

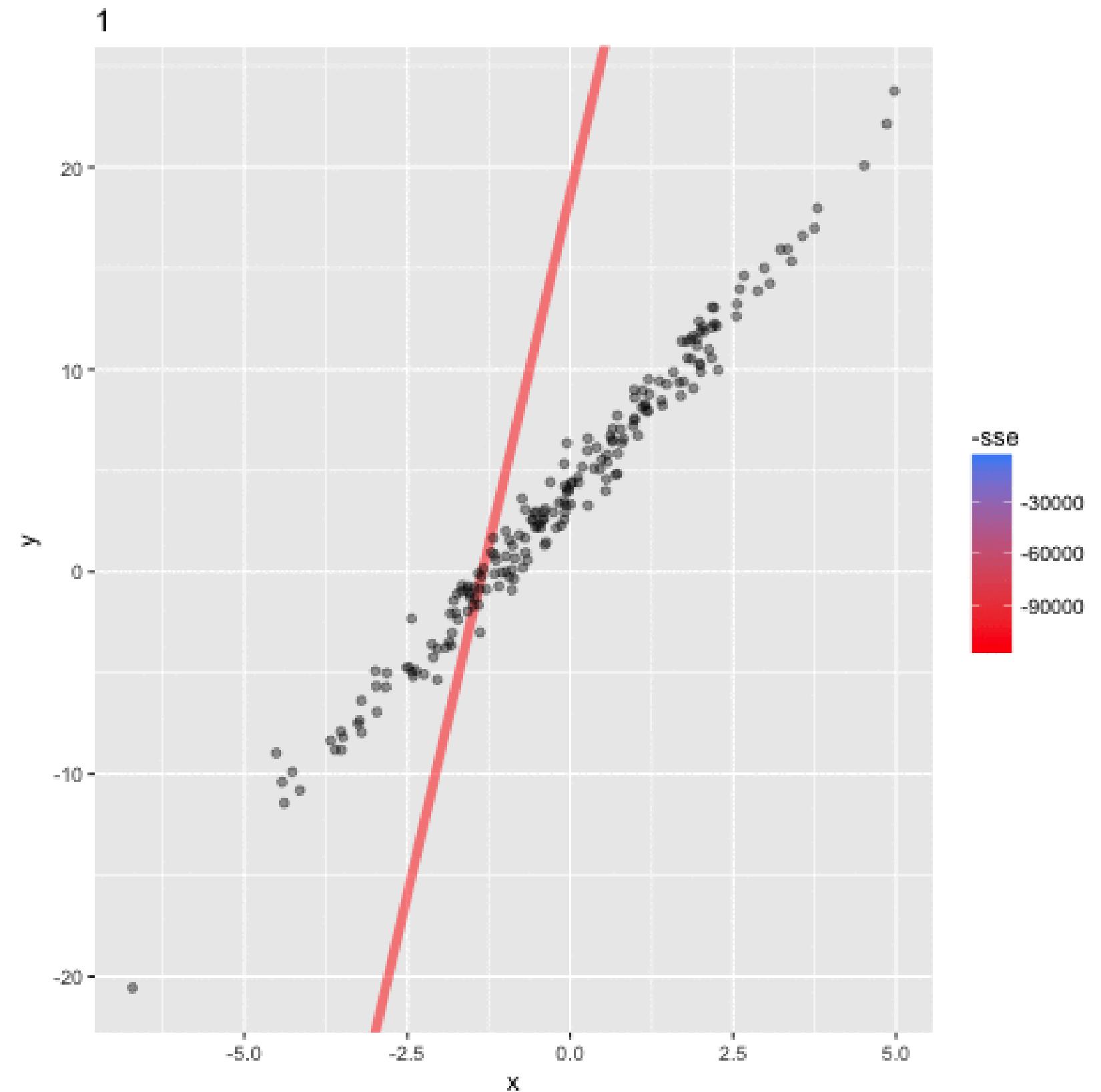
Evaluate using cost function

- 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
 - Minimzie the cost with repeated iterations
- Measure the accuracy of your outputs
- Meausre the probabbility 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

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

The diagram illustrates the components of Bayes' Theorem. The formula is shown as $P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A) \cdot P(A)}{P(B)}$. Four arrows point from text labels to the corresponding terms in the formula:

- An arrow points from "Probability of A occurring given evidence B has already occurred" to the term $P(A)$.
- An arrow points from "Probability of B occurring given evidence A has already occurred" to the term $P(B|A)$.
- An arrow points from "Probability of B occurring" to the term $P(B)$.
- An arrow points from "Probability of A occurring" to the term $P(A)$.