

# Machine Learning Algorithms And Models

## ◆ 1. Decision Tree

**Definition:** A Decision Tree splits data into smaller subsets based on feature conditions, forming a tree structure. It uses impurity measures (like **Entropy** or **Gini**) to decide the best splits.

### 📌 Key Terms:

**Root Node:** First node; contains the full dataset.

**Internal Node:** Splits based on a feature.

**Leaf Node:** Final output (class or value).

### 📊 Equations:

#### Entropy:

$$H(S) = -\sum_{i=1}^c p_i \log_2(p_i)$$

#### Gini Index:

$$\text{Gini} = 1 - \sum_{i=1}^c p_i^2$$

### 🔧 Steps:

Choose the best feature (using Gini/Entropy).

Split dataset.

Repeat until stopping criteria (max depth, min samples).



### Example (Python):

```
from sklearn.tree import DecisionTreeClassifier
from sklearn.datasets import load_iris

X, y = load_iris(return_X_y=True)
model = DecisionTreeClassifier(max_depth=3)
model.fit(X, y)
print(model.predict([X[0]]))
```

### ✅ Advantages:

Easy to interpret & visualize.

Handles numeric & categorical data.

### ❌ Disadvantages:

Prone to overfitting.

Sensitive to small changes in data.

### 🎯 Use Cases:

Fraud detection, medical diagnosis.

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## ◆ 2. Random Forest

**Definition:** An **ensemble method** that builds multiple Decision Trees on random subsets of data & features, then averages predictions to improve accuracy.

### 🏠 Equation:

For classification:

$$\hat{y} = \text{mode}(\{h_1(x), h_2(x), \dots, h_T(x)\})$$

For regression:

$$\hat{y} = 1/T \sum_{t=1}^T h_t(x)$$

### 🔧 Steps:

Draw **bootstrap samples** from dataset.

Train a Decision Tree on each sample.

Use random subset of features at each split.

Aggregate predictions (majority vote or mean).



### Example (Python):

```
from sklearn.ensemble import RandomForestClassifier

model = RandomForestClassifier(n_estimators=100)
model.fit(X, y)
print(model.predict([X[0]]))
```



### Advantages:

Robust to overfitting.

Handles missing data well.



### Disadvantages:

Slower for large datasets.

Less interpretable than a single tree.



### Use Cases:

Loan default prediction, stock trend analysis.

## ◆ 3. Support Vector Machine (SVM)

**Definition:** SVM finds a **hyperplane** that maximizes the margin between classes. For non-linear problems, it uses **kernel trick**.



### Equation:

Hyperplane equation:

$$f(x) = w^T x + b$$

Optimization problem:

$$\min \frac{1}{2} \|w\|^2 \text{ subject to } y_i(w^T x_i + b) \geq 1$$

### Steps:

Find hyperplane that maximizes margin.

Use **support vectors** to define boundary.

Apply kernels if data is not linearly separable.

1 2  
3 4

### Example (Python):

```
from sklearn.svm import SVC

model = SVC(kernel='rbf')
model.fit(X, y)
print(model.predict([X[0]]))
```



### Advantages:

Effective in high dimensions.

Works with non-linear data using kernels.



### Disadvantages:

Slow with large datasets.

Needs parameter tuning (C, gamma).



### Use Cases:

Face recognition, text classification.

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## ◆ 4. K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN)

**Definition:** Instance-based algorithm. Predicts labels based on **k nearest neighbors**.



### Equation (Euclidean Distance):

$$d(x,y)=\sqrt{(\sum_{i=1}^n(x_i-y_i)^2)}$$

### Steps:

Choose **k**.

Find nearest neighbors.

Classification: majority vote.

Regression: average value.

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### Example (Python):

```
from sklearn.neighbors import KNeighborsClassifier

model = KNeighborsClassifier(n_neighbors=3)
model.fit(X, y)
print(model.predict([X[0]]))
```



### Advantages:

Simple, no training needed.

Works for multi-class problems.



### Disadvantages:

Slow for large datasets.

Sensitive to irrelevant features.



### Use Cases:

Recommendation systems, image recognition.

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## ◆ 5. Naïve Bayes

**Definition:** Probabilistic classifier based on **Bayes' Theorem**, assuming features are independent.



### Equation:

$$P(Y|X) = (P(X|Y)P(Y))/P(X)$$



### Types:

**Gaussian NB:** Continuous features.

**Multinomial NB:** Text classification.

**Bernoulli NB:** Binary features.



### Example (Python):

```
from sklearn.naive_bayes import GaussianNB

model = GaussianNB()
model.fit(X, y)
print(model.predict([X[0]]))
```



### Advantages:

Fast and efficient.

Works well for text data.



### Disadvantages:

Strong independence assumption.

Poor if features are correlated.



### Use Cases:

Spam detection, sentiment analysis.



## 6. Gradient Boosting

**Definition:** An ensemble technique that builds models sequentially, each correcting errors of the previous one.



## Equation:

$$F_m(x) = F_{m-1}(x) + \eta h_m(x)$$

$\eta$ : learning rate

$h_m(x)$ : weak learner (small tree)



## Steps:

Train weak learner.

Compute residuals.

Fit next learner on residuals.

Combine predictions.



## Example (Python):

```
from sklearn.ensemble import GradientBoostingClassifier

model = GradientBoostingClassifier()
model.fit(X, y)
print(model.predict([X[0]]))
```



## Advantages:

High accuracy.

Works well for mixed data types.



## Disadvantages:

Requires careful tuning.

Slower to train.



## Use Cases:

Credit scoring, Kaggle competitions.

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# Quick Comparison Table

Algorithm	Type	Strengths	Weaknesses
Decision Tree	Single model	Easy to interpret	Overfitting
Random Forest	Ensemble	Robust, high accuracy	Slower
SVM	Linear/Kernel	Works in high dimensions	Expensive on large data
KNN	Instance-based	Simple, non-parametric	Slow, sensitive to noise
Naïve Bayes	Probabilistic	Fast, good for text	Independence assumption
Gradient Boosting	Ensemble	High accuracy, flexible	Overfitting, slow