Logistic Regression is used for classification tasks. The two classes are usually 0 and 1 (false and true) but there are more extensions if there are more than 2 classes. The regression model fits the data into a logistic (sigmoidal curve) instead of fitting it into a straight line. The logistic regression assumes that the relationship between the feature and the class variable is non-linear.

Ridge Regression is a regularized version of Linear Regression and is also known as the linear Regression. It uses the same equation as the Linear Regression Model to make predictions however the regression coefficients are chosen in such a way that not only does it fit the training data well, but it also makes sure that the magnitude of coefficients is as small a spossible. Small values of coefficients means that each feature will have little effect on the outcome and the regression line will have a small slope. This makes it in such a way that the linear regression model is less complex and more restricted thus making it less likely to overfit. It uses the so called L2 regularization method. The main goal of this algorithm is to have high accuracy on the training data and be a low complexity model.

a way that the finear regression those is see compact and more restricted unto making it restricted. The parameter or controls the trade-off between the performance on the training set and the model complexity.

Lasso Regression is another type of regularized version of the standard Linear Regression Model. LASSO stands for Least Absolute Shrinkage and Selection Operator Regression, as the Ridge regression, this regression model adds a regularization term to the cost function, but it uses the L1 norm of the regression coefficient vector unlike the Ridge regression which uses L2 norm. The main goal of this regression model is to get high accuracy on training data while have a low complexity model. The consequence of using the L1 norm is that some regression coefficient vector unlike the Ridge regression which uses L2 norm. The main goal of this regression model is to get high accuracy on training data while have a low complexity model. The consequence of using the L1 norm is that some regression coefficients can become exactly 0. That means that certain features would be completely ignored by the model, which makes it kind of like an automatic feature selection model. As the features would be less, the model itself will be less

Naïve Bayes Algorithm uses the Bayes theorem to solve classification tasks. It takes into consideration 2 assumptions, these are: The attributes are conditionally independent of each other for each class value, all attributes are equally important. Considering that these Naïve Bayes Algorithm uses the Bayes theorem to solve classification tasks. It takes into consideration 2 assumptions, these are: The attributes are conditionally independent of each other for each class value, all attributes are equally important. Considering that these assumptions are almost never correct, the algorithm is called Naïve Bayes theorem. These assumptions, however, leads to a simple and easy to implement algorithm which works well in practice. Given below are the steps to use Bayes Theorem: Calculate P(H | E) for each H (class) - P(yes | E) and P(no | E). Compare them and assign E to the class with the highest probability. For P(H | E) we need to calculate P(E, P(T) and P(E) | H) from the given training data.

Evaluating Machine Learning Algorithms: Holdout Method, Holdout Method with parameter tuning. Holdout Method with parameter tuning.

Entropy measures the homogeneity of a set with respect to the class. The smaller the entropy, the greater the purity of the data set. Information Gain measures the reduction in entropy caused by using an attribute to partition the set of training examples. The best attribute is the one with the highest information gain (signest reduction in entropy). Information gain is the difference between 2 values of entropies.

Ensemble Methods: Bagging (also called as bootstrap aggregation. Given a dataset 'D' with 'n' examples. Bootstrap examples 'D'-contains 'n' examples as well chosen randomly from 'D' where some examples will appear more than once or some not at all.), Ada Boosting (This algorithm uses a weighted training set of the entraining example has an associated weight to it which is greater or equal to 0. The higher the weight, the more difficult the example was to classify by the previous classifier and hence have a higher chance to be selected for the training set of the next classifier.).

Kernel Trick is a method for computing the dot product of a pair of vectors in the new space without first computing the transformation of each vector from the original

Intuction' to determine the dot product of the transformed features. The kernel function specifies the relationship between the dot products in the original and transformed space.

Principal Component Analysis is the most popular dimensionality reduction method. The dimensionality dies of this method is to find a lot less of this method is to find a lot when the construction of new space is smaller than the original space and the new axes captures the essence of the data. The resulting dataset (projection) can be used as an input to train a ML algorithm. In short, the PCA method deals with the construction of new features which are smaller than the number of original new and the projection of the projecti

Reactive and the contractive and a support of the network and an output is calculated. This is compared with the target output and a support and the network and an output is calculated. This is compared with the target output and error is calculated. The weights are then updated to reduce the error until the error for overall examples is less than the threshold value. The weights are updated backwards, from the output to the input neurons by propagating the weight change to minimize the error and

hence is called a back propagation algorithm.

Vanishing Gradient Problem: when there are more layers in the network, the value of the product of derivative decreases until at some point the partial derivative of the loss function approaches a value close to zero, and the partial derivative vanishes. We call this the

Vanishing Gradient Problem: when there are more layers in the network, the value of the product of derivative decreases until at some point the partial derivative of the loss function approaches a value close to zero, and the partial derivative vanisheg gradient problem:

Dropout: This is a method to prevent overfitting. The main idea is to avoid learning spurious features at the hidden nodes through intuition. Relevant features are more resilient to the removal of neurons, and they perform well for different combinations of neurons. While spurious features depend on certain neurons. Dropout forces the Neural Network to be less dependent on certain neurons to collect more evidence from the other neurons and to be more robust to noise. During training, at each iteration of the backpropagation, random neurons are selected in each layer and their values are set to 0. This results in a thinned sub-network of a smaller size. During training, the weights and biases are updated using back propagation algorithm and then new weight values are added to the original network.

During testing, no neurons are dropped out and the network is scaled down based on the dropout rate.

SoftMax: The neural network outputs are processed to turn them into probabilities. The main motivation for this is to interpret the outputs as probabilities that sum up to 1.

GMM stands for Gaussian Mixture Model clustering which is a probabilistic clustering technique. It assumes that the data is generated by a mixture of normal distributions. In this algorithm we assume that the data is generated by a mixture of the original network. The parameters are recomputed until they don't change, K-Means uses hard assignment to each cluster rather than crise.

Additional control of the decrease of the parameters are recomputed until they don't change. K-Means uses hard assignment of the change is computed and then parameters are recomputed until they don't change. K-Means uses hard assignment to each cluster rather than crise.

parameters are recomputed until they don't change. K-Means uses hard assignment to each cluster rather than crisp.

Agglomerative clustering (Hierarchical) also called as the bottom-up clustering wherein the clusters merges iteratively. The algorithm starts with each item in its own cluster and iteratively merge until all items belong in one big cluster. The key operation in this type of clustering (Hierarchical) also called the top-down clustering wherein the clusters are merged at each step.

Divisive clustering (Hierarchical) also called the top-down clustering wherein the clusters split into two until all items are in their own clusters. This can be implemented based on computing the minimum spanning tree.

DBSCAN stands for Density Based Spatial Clustering of Applications with Noise. The clusters reacted are regions. The clusters reacted are regions are reacted are regions with low density. In contrast to K-Means, DBSCAN can find clusters with arbitrary and complex shape. The main idea of the algorithm was that in a cluster the density of the points around it should be higher than the threshold. We need to define the density and the neighbourhood of a point is the area within a radius of the point. Density the should be higher than the threshold with the density will be less and if the Ens is too small, all the points will have density as 1.

of a point is the number of points in the neighbourhood of a point including that point. And Density threshold MinPts is the minimum number of points in the EPS neighbourhood of a point. The density of a point depends on the neighbourhood Eps (Epsilon). If the epsilon is too big, the density will be ledensity of the cell. There are more sophisticated approaches as well such as breaking did cells. The common approache hot obtains its by splitting the values in equal width intervals. This leash the grid cell be to have the same volume and the number of points will give the density of the cell. There are more sophisticated approaches as well such as breaking the values of an attribute in intervals such that there are equal data points in each grid, using clustering to determine intervals, break the initial values into large number of equal width intervals and then combine intervals with similar densities.

Clustering algorithms that use a few attributes from a pool of attributes is called subspace. It is called as the Clustering in Question and a transhold. To efficiently find the dense cells are identified based on a threshold. To efficiently find the dense cells are identified based on a threshold. To efficiently find the dense cells are identified based on a threshold. To efficiently find the dense cells are identified based on a threshold To efficiently find the dense cells are identified based on a threshold. To efficiently find the dense cells are identified based on a threshold To efficiently find the dense cells are identified based on a threshold To efficiently find the dense cells are identified based on a threshold To efficiently find the dense cells are identified based on a threshold To efficiently find the dense cells are identified based on a threshold To efficiently find the dense cells are identified based on a threshold To efficiently find the dense cells

				algorithm: credit random selection.	
•	Questi	on 6.	Per	rceptron	

Mean Squared Error (MSE)  $MSE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i} (\hat{y}_i - y_i)^2$ (RMSE)  $RMSE = \int \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\hat{y}_i - y_i)^2$ 

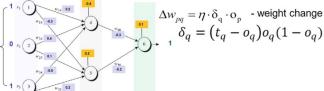
in w and b as e=0

a) starting point: w=[0 0 0], b=0

applying ex.1: p<sub>1</sub>= [1 0 0], t<sub>1</sub>=1 a=step([0 0 0][1 0 0]+0)=step(0)=1 "=[0 0 0]+0[1 0 0] =[0 0 0]

credit history debt depot bad high none unknown high none unknown low none unknown low none unknown low adequ bad low adequ bad low adequ good low none low high none low none unknown low adequ bad low adequ good low none

# |=0,1=1| |{0 0 0}|+(-1)[0 1 1] =[0 -1 -1 After applying ex. 5: no change |=0+(-1)=-1 end of epoch 1 | an b have been updated | Weight vector and bias at the en Weight vector and bias at the end of epoch 1: w =[0 -1 -2], b =-1 applying ex. 3: w<sup>sem</sup>=[1 0 -1], b<sup>sem</sup>=0 applying ex. 4: w<sup>sem</sup>=[0 -1 -2], b<sup>sem</sup>=-1



input vector x			initial weights w								initial biases			
	p	X2	X3	1174	1925	W24	W25	1934	W35	146	W56	$\theta_4$	θş	θ6
	1	0	1	0.2	-0.3	0.4	0.1	-0.5	0.2	-0.3	-0.2	-0.4	0.2	0.1

Input to neuron 4:  $z_a$ =1\*0.2+0\*0.4+1\*(-0.5)-0.4=-0.7, output of neuron 4:  $o_a$ =1/(1+e<sup>0.3</sup>)=0.325 input to neuron 5:  $o_a$ =1/(1+e<sup>0.3</sup>)=0.525 NNO output of neuron 5:  $o_a$ =1/(1+e<sup>0.3</sup>)=0.525 NNO output of neuron 6:  $o_a$ =1/(1+e<sup>0.305</sup>)=0.525 NNO output of neuron 6:  $o_a$ =1/(1+e<sup>0.305</sup>)=0.474 NNO output of neuron 6:  $o_a$ =1/(1+e<sup>0.305</sup>)=0.474

 $\delta_6 = (t_6 \text{-}o_6)^*o_6 \cdot (1 \text{-}o_6) = (1 \text{-}0.474)^*0.474^*(1 \text{-}0.474) = 0.1311$ 

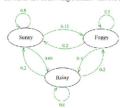
 $\Delta w_{\rm sel}^{-1} = 0_{\rm sel}^{-1} = 0.39 \cdot 1.31 \cdot 10^{-3.32} = 0.39 \cdot w_{\rm sel}^{-1} = 0.39 \cdot 1.31 \cdot 10^{-3.32} = 0.39 \cdot w_{\rm sel}^{-1} = 0.39 \cdot 1.31 \cdot 10^{-3.32} = 0.39 \cdot 1.31 \cdot 10^{-3.32} = 0.39 \cdot 10^{-$ 

 $\delta_4 = o_4^* (1 - o_4)^* W_{46}^* \delta_6 = 0.332^* (1 - 0.332)^* (-0.3)^* 0.1311 = -0.0087$ 

 $\Delta w_{i,z} = 1^{*} \; \delta_{4}^{2} \; O_{i} = 0.9^{*} (-0.0087)^{*} \; 1 = -0.0079, \; w_{i,d} | new = w_{i,d} | old + \Delta w_{i,z} = 0.2 - 0.0079 = 0.1921 \\ \Delta w_{i,z} = 1^{*} \; \delta_{i} \; O_{i} = 0.9^{*} \; (-0.0087)^{*} \; 10 = 0.008, \; w_{i,d} | new = w_{i,d} | old + \Delta w_{i,z} = 0.4 + 0.0 + 0.4 \\ \Delta w_{i,z} = 1^{*} \; \delta_{i} \; O_{i} = 0.9^{*} \; (-0.0087)^{*} \; 1 = -0.0079, \; w_{i,d} | new = w_{i,d} | old + \Delta w_{i,z} = -0.5 - 0.0079 = -0.5079 \\ \theta_{i} | new = \theta_{i} | old + \Delta \theta_{d} = \theta_{i} | old + 1^{*} \; \delta_{d}^{*} \; 1 = -0.4 + 0.9^{*} (-0.0087)^{*} \; 1 = -0.4078$ 

### **Question 8. Markov models**

Given is the following Markov model for the weather in Sydney:



a) Given that today the weather is Sunny, what is the probability that it will be Sunny tomorrow and Rainy the day after tomorrow, i.e. what is the probability  $P(\pi_3 = Rainy, \pi_2 = Sunny | \pi_1 = Sunny)$ ?

Hint: P(A,B|C) = P(A|B,C) P(B|C)

b) If the weather yesterday was Rainy, and today is Foggy, what is the probability that tomorrow it will be Summy?

For both questions, briefly show your calculations.

## Solution:

a) 
$$P(\pi_3 = Rainy, \ \pi_2 = Sunny | \ \pi_1 = Sunny) =$$

=  $P(\pi_3 = Rainy \mid \pi_2 = Sunny, \pi_1 = Sunny) * P(\pi_2 = Sunny \mid \pi_1 = Sunny) =$ (rule from hint) =  $P(\pi_3 = Rainy \mid \pi_2 = Sunny) * P(\pi_2 = Sunny \mid q\pi_1 = Sunny) =$ (Markov assumption)

= 0.05 \* 0.8 = 0.04

b) 
$$P(\pi_3 = Sumy \mid \pi_2 = Foggy, \ \pi_1 = Rainy) = \\ = P(\pi_3 = Sumy \mid \pi_2 = Foggy) = (Markov assumption) \\ = 0.2$$

