Machine Learning: Assessed Coursework 2

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1 Question 1: Image Segmentation and Counting

The image provided is a 640×640 pixel image thus there are N = 409600 data points, **P**. The data for each pixel, p_i , is stored in the Red-Green-Blue (RGB) colour format as $p_i = [R_i, G_i, B_i]$. The image is segmented by clustering pixels into a predefined number of groups in the 3 dimensional RGB space. Two method have been considered: the K-means algorithm and then the more general Gaussian mixture model (GMM).

1.1 K-Means

The basic premise of the K-means algorithm is to partition the data points into a given number of clusters, K, to minimise the within cluster distance from the cluster centre/mean. For cluster k this can be defined as

$$\sum_{p_i \in C_k} ||p_i - \mu_k|| = \sum_{i=1}^N z_{ki} ||p_i - \mu_k|| \tag{1}$$

 $z_{ki} \in \{0,1\}$ is a binary indicator that assigns each data point, p_i , to a single cluster, k. μ_k is the cluster mean, $\frac{1}{N_k} \sum_{p_i \in C_k} p_i$ i.e. the average values of the data points in the cluster.

The total measure of the K-means algorithm can then be written as

$$\mathcal{E}_K = \sum_{k=1}^K \sum_{i=1}^N z_{ki} ||p_i - \mu_k||$$
 (2)

which is the overall cluster goodness. The K-means algorithm minimizes this by a 2 step algorithm. Given a segmentation of the data, the cluster centres can be found using the formula above. And given cluster centres, $\{\mu_k\}$, it can be found which data points belong to that cluster, i.e. have the smallest distance function to a cluster. This updates the indicator variables z_{ki} . This process can be repeated until the cluster centres stop moving and the solution converges.

The MATLAB code for 1 iteration is as follows:

Thus for the pixels in the RGB space, each pixel intensity vector can be replaced by cluster mean value corresponding to the cluster of that pixel. Furthermore for storage purposes it means that each picture can be stored using only *K* cluster mean vectors and a single integer value assigning the data points to one of the cluster means.

1.2 Gaussian Mixture Models

A Guassian mixture model differs from the K-means algorithm in that it assigns a distribution over the indicator variables rather than only assigning binary indicator variables for each cluster-data point pair. This means the model is more complex but allows better segmentation of the image. This is because the K-means algorithm uses the L2 norm and thus is biased towards spherical distributions whereas GMM can have gaussians with covariance between dimensions.

A GMM trys to fit K gaussians to the data. That means the parameters $\mu_k \in \mathbb{R}^3$ and $\Sigma_k \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3}$ for each cluster must be found. Let θ be the parameters of the entire model. Maximising the the log likelihood of the data given the parameters is a method to do so. In lectures the lower bound on the log likelihood was derived as

$$\mathcal{L}_{B} = log p(\mathbf{P}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sum_{\mathbf{Z}} p(\mathbf{Z}|\mathbf{P}) log p(\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{Z}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) - \sum_{\mathbf{Z}} p(\mathbf{Z}|\mathbf{P}) log p(\mathbf{Z}|\mathbf{P})$$
(3)

where **Z** is the matrix of indicator variables. This can be maximized using the Expectation-Minimization algorithm. Given estimates for the model parameters, the probability density of the latent variables, $p(\mathbf{Z}|\mathbf{P})$, can be calculated. And given the probabilities of the latent variables, the parameters values, θ , can be estimated by maximizing the log likelihood. These two steps are repeated until convergence.

So the algorithm is set up to start at random initial conditions and then first calculate the posterior distribution over the mixture components

$$p(k|p_i) = \frac{p(p_i|\theta_k)p(k)}{\sum_{k'=1}^{K} p(p_i|\theta_{k'})p(k)}$$
(4)

where k is a cluster. Then estimate the parameters, θ ,

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{k} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} p(p_{i}|\theta_{k})p_{i}}{\sum_{j=1}^{N} p(p_{j}|\theta_{k})} \quad \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}_{k} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} p(p_{i}|\theta_{k})(p_{i} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{k})(p_{i} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{k})^{T}}{\sum_{j=1}^{N} p(p_{j}|\theta_{k})}$$
(5)

and finally repeat these two steps until convergence.

1 iteration of this algorithm in MATLAB is written as:

Thus for the pixels in the RGB space, each pixel intensity vector can be replaced by a centroid vector. A centroid vector is formed using the probabilities of the indicator variables for each data point along with the K cluster means using the formula $\sum_k P(k|x_i)\mu_k$.

1.3 Results

Image segmentation results using the K-means algorithm for K = 2, 3, 5, 10 are shown in the figures. The normalised within cluster sum of squares for K = 1, ..., 10 clearly has a sharp decrease until K = 3 and then plateaus/flat-line a little¹. Given that we would prefer a simpler model (Occam's Razor) and thus a smaller value of K, this sharp turn indicates that a value of K = 3 is a good choice to segment the colour pixels of this image. This result is also reenforced by our intuition as looking at the image, there are clearly 3 dominant colours present: black, green, and blue.

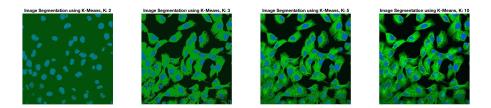


Figure 1: Image segmentation using the K-means algorithm for different values of K

Image segmentation results using a Gaussian Mixture Model algorithm for K = 2,3,5,10 are as shown. There is large variation in the likelihood of the model fitted to the data in GMMs due to the random starting positions of the initial cluster centres. This can be seen in the likelihood figures below. There is flatlining of the negative LogLikelihood after a large drop in one of the cases at K = 4. Also later using cross validation it can also be seen that the negative LogLikelihood plateaus at K = 4 after a large drop. Thus using the idea of the "Elbow method" and Occam's Razor it seems that K = 4 is a reasonable choice for a Gaussian Mixture Model.

It should be noted that the inferences in both the cases are subjective.

¹This method is often called the "Elbow Method"

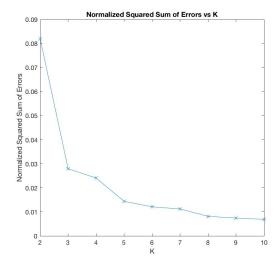


Figure 2: The normalised within cluster sum of squares vs K values using the K-means algorithm

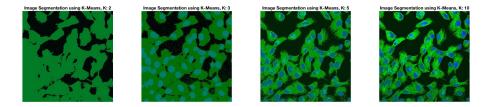


Figure 3: Image segmentation using a Gaussian Mixture Model for different values of K

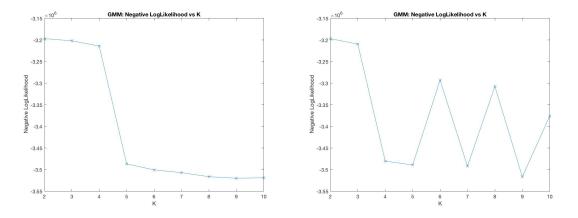


Figure 4: The normalised within cluster sum of squares vs K values using a GMM with K clusters

Another technique that was used to try and see if the a better choice of K could be made was 2 fold cross validation. I took random permutation of the data and split it into test and training sets.

```
1  Xperm = X(:,randperm(length(X),length(X))); % X is the entire data here of size (MNN)
2  Xtest = Xperm(:,1:N/2);
3  Xtrain = Xperm(:, N/2+1:N);
```

Then fit the parameters of the models using the training data and compared the fit to the test data. But the results were mostly inconclusive except for reenforcing the idea that K=4 is a reasonable cluster number choice for a GMM. I believe this because many of pixels lie very close together in the 3D RGB space which can be seen on the scatter figure produced.

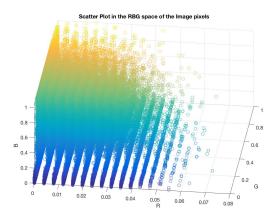


Figure 5: Scatter graph of the pixels in the normalized RGB 3D space. Shows how most of the pixels are concentrated in 1 corner

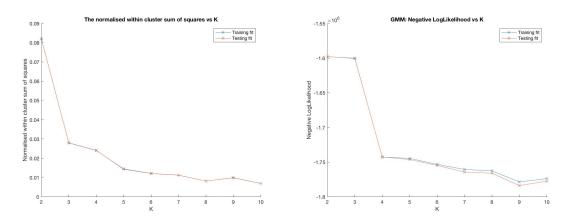
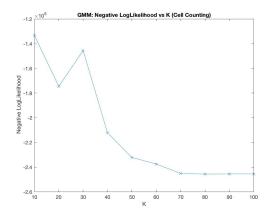


Figure 6: The results for cross validation using K means (left) and GMM (right) fitting. It can clearly be seen that the squared sum or errors and the likelihood for both the test and training data are very closely matched

1.4 Counting the Number of Cells

After an image has been segmented, there is still the issue of counting the number of cells present in the image. In order to do so, I extract the cluster of the images with its centre located closest to the blue colour vector.

This task has been attempted to be automated by using a Gaussian Mixture Model or K-Means algorithm to try and fit it with K clusters. Then model comparison can be utilised to find the value of K. First lets look at the negative LogLikelihood for various values of K fit onto the cell data.



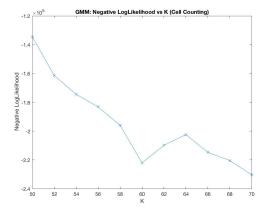


Figure 7: Negative LogLikelihood vs K for fitting a GMM to the cell data. The figure on the right is a higher resolution version of the one on the left

The negative LogLikelihood for the GMM fits for various values of K do not have as sharp as a drop to plateau change. Thus it is hard to find a good cut-off point by inspecting the graph. But the value flatlines after K = 80. Running the same test for values between K = 50 and K = 70 is useful and done on the image on the right. It indicates that K = 62 might be a reasonable choice.

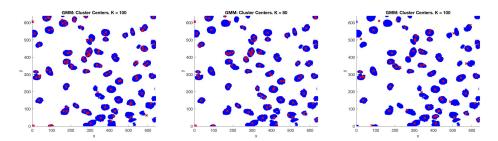


Figure 8: The cluster centres for fitting a GMM to the cell data for various values of K. The effect of some cluster centres getting 'stuck' between other clusters can be observed here.

Due to the random starting points of the GMM algorithm, it does not always produce optimal segmentation. i.e. the result converges but not necessarily to the best solution. Thus looking at the plots of the cells with clusters centres marked it can be seen that some clusters are, in a sense, stuck between two other clusters and thus cannot move towards a visually unoccupied cluster of points

that do not have a cluster near them. Hence simply looking at the likelihood is not a good idea. Although the above plots give an indication that the answer might be K = 62.

2 Question 2: Bayesian Linear Regression and Gaussian Proccesses

1. Given data 2 , $\mathcal{D} = \{x_t, y_t\}_{t=1}^N$, linear regression models the data as

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon} = f(\mathbf{X}) + \boldsymbol{\epsilon} \tag{6}$$

where **y** is the vector of regressand values, **X** is a matrix whose rows contain the covariates for each data point, and ϵ is a vector of the noise. $f(\mathbf{X})$ is then the hidden function of time.

This model describes a family of functions and a single realisation is generated by choosing values for the parameter vector $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ along with appropriate parameters for the noise vector. In this question it is assumed that $\epsilon_t \sim N(0, \sigma_\epsilon^2)$.

The likelihood function of the data given the parameter values is

$$P(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X},\boldsymbol{\beta},\sigma_{\epsilon}) = \prod_{t=1}^{N} p(y_t|x_t,\boldsymbol{\beta},\sigma_{\epsilon}) = \prod_{t=1}^{N} \mathcal{N}_{y_t}(\mathbf{x}_t\boldsymbol{\beta},\sigma_{\epsilon})$$
(7)

Maximizing this likelihood function gives the most likely set of parameters. But in a Bayesian framework, a probability distribution over the parameters is of interest, $p(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma_{\epsilon}|\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X})$ i.e. posterior distribution for the parameters given the data. This posterior can be found using Bayes Rule.

Bayes Rule for a model with parameters Θ and given data \mathcal{D} is

$$P(\Theta|\mathcal{D}) = \frac{P(\mathcal{D}|\Theta)P(\Theta)}{P(\mathcal{D})}$$
(8)

where $P(\Theta|\mathcal{D})$ is the posterior probability (the probability of a certain model parameters given the data), $P(\mathcal{D}|\Theta)$ is the probability of observing the data given a model with parameters Θ , $P(\Theta)$ is the probability of certain model parameters, i.e. our prior beliefs about the model, and $P(\mathcal{D})$ is the probability of obtaining the given data over all values of Θ .

Going back to our case of Bayesian Linear regression and using the simplification that σ_{ϵ} is known this gives that the posterior distribution can be written as

$$p(\boldsymbol{\beta}|\sigma_{\epsilon}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X}) = \frac{p(\sigma_{\epsilon}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X}|\boldsymbol{\beta})p(\boldsymbol{\beta})}{p(\sigma_{\epsilon}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X})}$$

$$\propto p(\sigma_{\epsilon}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X}|\boldsymbol{\beta})p(\boldsymbol{\beta})$$
(9)

Now assuming an independent Gaussian prior over each of the parameters in the weight vector, β_i , gives

 $^{^2}$ In this question, I constrain my independent variable to be 1 dimensional given the CO2 dataset being analyzed

$$p(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \mathcal{N}(0, \Sigma_{\beta}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}|\Sigma_{\beta}|^{1/2}} \exp{-\frac{1}{2}\boldsymbol{\beta}^{T}\Sigma_{\beta}^{-1}\boldsymbol{\beta}}$$
(10)

$$p(\sigma_{\epsilon}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X}|\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \prod_{i=1}^{N} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_{\epsilon}}} \exp{-\frac{1}{2\sigma_{\epsilon}^{2}}} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})^{T} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})$$
(11)

Using the fact that the product of two gaussians is also gaussian this gives another gaussian distribution for the posterior probability. This can be written as

$$p(\boldsymbol{\beta}|\sigma_{\epsilon}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X}) = \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$$
(12)

where
$$\mu = \frac{1}{\sigma_z^2} (\Sigma_{\beta}^{-1} + \frac{1}{\sigma_z^2} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1}$$
 and $\Sigma = \frac{1}{\sigma_z^2} (\Sigma_{\beta}^{-1} + \frac{1}{\sigma_z^2} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$

So finally, the underlying hidden function of time $f(\mathbf{X})$ in the form $\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}$ can be considered as a linear combination between the covariate matrix \mathbf{X} defined by the independent variables and the parameter vector, $\boldsymbol{\beta}$, for which a posterior distribution can be found using the given data.

2. Consider two points x_i and x_j . For linear regression each point can be represented as a linear combination of its basis function (the basis functions form the covariates from the independent variables) as $f(\mathbf{X}_i) = \mathbf{X}_i \boldsymbol{\beta} = \sum_k \beta_k \phi_k(\mathbf{x}_i) = \phi(\mathbf{x}_i) \boldsymbol{\beta}$.

So the covariance of the function f for the two time points will be

$$Cov(f(\mathbf{X}_i), f(\mathbf{X}_i)) = \mathbb{E}[f(\mathbf{X}_i)f(\mathbf{X}_i)^T] - \mathbb{E}[f(\mathbf{X}_i)]\mathbb{E}[f(\mathbf{X}_i)]$$
(13)

$$\mathbb{E}[f(\mathbf{X}_i)] = \mathbb{E}[\phi(\mathbf{x}_i)\boldsymbol{\beta}] = \phi(\mathbf{x}_i)\mathbb{E}[\boldsymbol{\beta}] = 0 \tag{14}$$

as $\beta \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \Sigma_{\beta})$. Therefore

$$Cov(f(\mathbf{X}_i), f(\mathbf{X}_j)) = \mathbb{E}[f(\mathbf{X}_i)f(\mathbf{X}_j)^T] = \mathbb{E}[\phi(\mathbf{x}_i)\boldsymbol{\beta}\boldsymbol{\beta}^T\phi(\mathbf{x}_j)^T] = \phi(\mathbf{x}_i)\mathbb{E}[\boldsymbol{\beta}\boldsymbol{\beta}^T]\phi(\mathbf{x}_j)^T$$
$$= \phi(\mathbf{x}_i)\Sigma_{\boldsymbol{\beta}}\phi(\mathbf{x}_i)^T$$

Note x_i is a row of values and thus $x_i x_i^T$ defines an inner-product.

Thus the covariance is a linear combination of Gaussian variables. A Gaussian process is defined by its mean function $\mu(\mathbf{x})$ and Covariance matrix, $K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')$. In this case defining $K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \text{Cov}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')$ gives that f is then a gaussian process.

3. In the following section are results produced by fitting a Gaussian Process to the CO2 data recorded in Hawaii. This is done by first finding the hyperparameters that maximise the log likelihood of the data. This is done in GP.m. The basic process is as follows [1].

Firstly assumptions must be made by looking at the data set on what covariances function to utilize. In the figures below I have used 3 different types of Kernels.

The first is a linear kernel function with added white noise. This has the form.

$$K(x_i, x_j) = \sigma_f(x_i - c)(x_j - c) + \sigma_n \delta_{x_i, x_j}$$
(15)

The second is a squared exponential function with added white noise

$$K(x_i, x_j) = \sigma_f e^{-\frac{1}{2l_1^2}(x_i - x_j)^2} + \sigma_n \delta_{x_i, x_j}$$
(16)

And finally the third and the one with most hyper parameters was a squared exponential plus squared sin expotential

$$K(x_i, x_j) = \sigma_f e^{-\frac{1}{2l_1^2}(x_i - x_j)^2} + e^{-\frac{1}{2l_2^2}\sin(f * (x_i - x_j))^2} + \sigma_n \delta_{x_i, x_j}$$
(17)

Each of these Kernels has a different hyper-parameters and for each case these must be optimized. This can be done by using the fminunc() function in MATLAB where an input of the Kernel generating function that itself takes the hyper parameters and training data as input and gives the negative LogLikelihood of the Kernel and its derivatives with respect to the various hyper parameters. This is done in OptimHP.m.

```
1 [theta, fval] = fminunc(@(hyperparameters) optimHP(hyperparameters,constants), startVals(s,:), options);
```

An example of a gradient of with respect to the hyper-parameters can be seen here for the squared expotential [2]:

```
1 % Covariance

2 K = sigma_f^2 * exp(-(x1-x2)^2/(2*1^2));

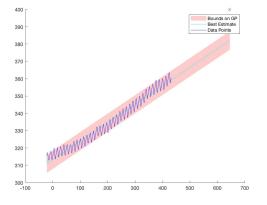
3 % Derivatives

4 d.1 = K * (1^-3) * (x1-x2)^2;

6 dsigma_f = 2*sigma_f * exp(-(x1-x2)^2/(2*1^2));
```

Once the hyper-parameters have been optimized, then the realized Kernel matrix is computed from the training data. Using this the mean for the test data along with 95% confidence intervals bounds can be found.

```
1 % Fit test data to the GP with the found hyperparameters
2 [ytest, bounds, K, kstar] = computeGP (@K.SE, X, y, theta, xtest);
```



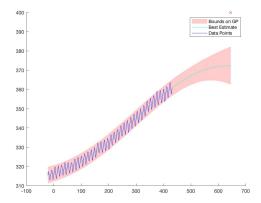


Figure 9: Predictions made by my Gaussian Process models in the 95% confidence interval. The observation of 400pm in 2013 is marked with a red cross. The x-axis here is Months after 1960. The y-axis is the CO2 levels.

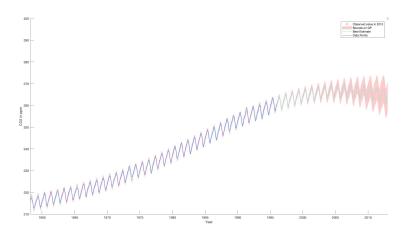


Figure 10: Predictions made by my Gaussian Process models in the 95% confidence interval. The observation of 400pm in 2013 is marked with a red cross

The graphs above have 95% confidence intervals plotted for the data points until 2013. Looking at the various fits of the Gaussian Process for the different Kernel functions, it can be seen none of them predict the dramatic increase in CO2 level ppm recorded in 2013.

The linear Kernel is unable to capture the nature of the exponential rise in the data.

And the squared exponential and periodic kernels are limited due to the training data stopping about 20 years before the prediction point. This point at 2013 is far out from the actual training data and thus the non-noise components start to diminish and the kernel becomes dominated by the noise element leading to the flattening of the curve.

An exponential increase occurred in the CO2 emission level between 1993 and 2013. This is hard to model using a Gaussian Process as seen from the previous part that the underlying generating function is a linear combination of basis functions. And in the case of a Guassian Process, having an exponentially increasing on decreasing basis function is hard to model.

3 Question 3: Social Consequences of AI and Machine Learning

Machine learning, and artificial intelligence ($AI^{[3]}$), have gained popularity in recent years. The heart of these techniques lies in trying to find optimisations such that a computer can 'learn' how to handle a specific set of problems given enough training data rather than finding explicit solutions. The wide scope of these techniques means that no single researcher can hope to assess all of their possible impacts. In light of this, I shall look at an example that is near the horizon and will quite possibly have a large impact.

My chosen example is that of autonomous cars. Many leading automobile companies, such as Tesla [3], BMW, and more have invested significantly in this field along with technology companies such as Google and Intel as well [4]. Driverless cars use GPS systems and map databases to locate themselves in their environments. Moreover, they utilise machine vision systems, often using lasers, to map out their immediate surroundings. The systems then need to classify various elements on the road such as cars, busses, cyclists and pedestrians. This is done through combinations of PCA basis analysis and classification algorithms. Furthermore, they also need to predict where each element on the road will be moving in the future and utilize algorithms such as Hidden Markov Monte Carlo techniques, as well as classical IF-THEN rules [5] [6].

It is estimated that over 1 hour per day, per person, is spent driving in many European countries [7]. Consider a reality where people no longer need to drive cars at all. This time could instead be utilized for other activities. People could sleep en-route and thus live further away from work leading to less densely populated urban areas. Rented cars might immerse us in advertisements that are personalized using machine learning algorithms, just like for webpage adverts nowadays [8]. Furthermore, there will be a revolution in delivery services that could lead to a large number of jobs becoming automated. A large change in one industry will undoubtedly impact entire economies. Only time will tell whether these impacts will be, on the whole, positive or negative.

A key consequence of autonomous cars will be our requirement of having to deal with new ethical grey-areas. Suppose a car with a passenger runs over a pedestrian, killing them instantly. If the situation is deemed avoidable, is the car company at fault or is it the passenger? Does it matter if the passenger owned the car or rented it? New laws will have to be written and entire systems, such as driving licenses, redone. Already many automobile owners in China, Germany, Korea, and USA have started to use driver-assistance systems [9]. I do not believe the transition to autonomous cars will be sudden, but as their prevalence rises I am certain they will impact us all regardless of whether we choose to adopt them. I only hope that their impact is not physical.

³For the sake of clarity I'd like to distinguish between AI, artificial intelligence, and AGI, artificial general intelligence. The former is able to tackle a set of given tasks, e.g. categorising images based on the objects present in them. The latter is able to tackle any sort of problems/tasks and is comparable to creating intelligence that is, in a sense, similar to our own intelligence.

4 Question 4: Bitcoin Transactions

Before choosing a model, I believe it is useful to understand and visualise the data. A key issue with the data set provided is that each transaction does not have a time stamp but only a date stamp along with a transaction ID (assumed to be chronological in time ⁴. Hence the data is not linearly spaced time. For example, it is not possible to know whether 1 second passed between 2 transactions or 1 hour. This notion is further reenforced by noting the variation in the number of transactions per day.

```
NumTransactionsPerDay
2 = 1261 3261 3754 1485 1447 1993 2928 1231 2473 115]
```

The data can then be visualized by looking at the spread of transactions per day. This gives



Figure 11: Bid and Ask prices for the data set. Also the lines represent the average bid and ask price traded each day.

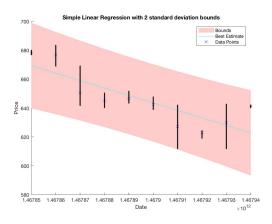


Figure 12: Simple linear regression on the data points that represent the average price of the day

 $^{^4}$ The provided data does have the transaction IDs in order either and thus the data has been sorted to fix this. See Figure 14 in the Appendix for more details

Simple linear regression gives extremely large prediction bounds (Figure 12) that would not be very useful in order to predict the price and make transactions. An example of this can be seen in the figure produced.

Even though the data is not linearly spaced in time. It is helpful to see the impact the bid and ask price have on the trend of the data. It can clearly be seen that often when transactions are repeatedly occurring at bid price, the price is falling and often when the transactions are repeatedly occurring at ask price, the price is increasing. This agrees with our basic market knowledge that if people are willing to pay some incremental amount more than the bid to match the ask price then there is larger demand than supply and thus the price moves up (and vice versa).

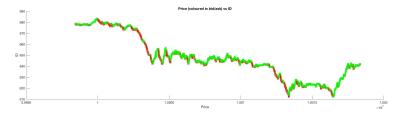


Figure 13: A plot of the prices of Bitcoin in Price vs ID. Coloured red for bid price and green for ask price.

Now as the assumption is made that the transaction IDs are chronological in time, this Bitcoin data must then be treated as a times-series. The price at transaction *t* appears to be dependent on the prices of the transactions before along with the bid-ask binary information for each transcation. This is an ideal problem for a neural network to solve!

The Neural Network Architecture that I have considered has 3 layers with a sigmoid activation function. The input layer is specified by the size of number of prices plus bid/ask binaries inputted to the system. The hidden layer of a chosen size (mostly through trial and error - more on this later). And finally the output layer, in my chosen model, has 2 nodes representing a binary probability of the price going up or down in the future.

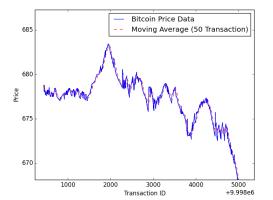
A key element for this model is determining what it means for the price to go up or down in the future. Simple taking the difference between the price between two immediate transactions is not reasonable. Visualising the bit-coin data for small intervals shows that it behaves very much like any other financial instrument in that there is huge amount of fluctuations in the price at small time intervals. But nonetheless there are clear trends in the direction the average price is heading. So to test the data a moving average is considered. It is set up in a simple way

$$\operatorname{movingAvg}_t = \frac{1}{\tau} \sum_{i=1}^{\tau} \operatorname{movingAvg}_{t-i}$$

where τ is the size of the moving average window. So now in our model we wish to input some known values up to the point t and get an indication of whether the average price in the next τ points will be higher or lower than the current average price (also over the same τ time period.

 N_I is the number of input layers. N_H is the number of hidden layers. And N_O is the number of output layers.

Then for a 3 layer neural network with input vector $X \in \mathbb{R}^{N_I}$,



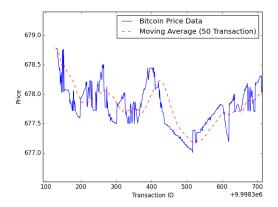


Figure 14: Moving Average over 50 transactions for the Bitcoin Data. The right figure is a zoomed in version of the left. The moving in red is for the previous 50 data points and comparing the moving average between 2 points is more indicative than simply comparing the prices between them.

$$u_{1} = W_{1}X + c_{1}$$

$$v_{1} = \tanh(u_{1})$$

$$u_{2} = W_{2}v_{2} + c_{2}$$

$$v_{2} = \frac{\exp(u_{2})}{\sum_{i} \exp(u_{2i})}$$
(18)

where $W_1 \in \mathbb{R}^{N_H \times N_I}$, $c_1 \in \mathbb{R}^{N_H}$, $W_2 \in \mathbb{R}^{N_O \times N_H}$, and $c_2 \in \mathbb{R}^{N_O}$. Also $v_1 \in \mathbb{R}^{N_H}$ and $v_2 \in \mathbb{R}^{N_O}$. The model learns but propagating the error backwards by using a test solution vector $y \in \mathbb{R}^{N_O}$ such that

$$\Delta_{1} = v_{2} - y$$

$$\delta W_{2} = \Delta v_{1}^{T}$$

$$\delta c_{2} = \sum_{i} \Delta_{1i}$$

$$\Delta_{2} = W_{2}^{T} \Delta_{1} (1 - v_{1}^{2})$$

$$\delta W_{1} = \Delta_{2} X^{T}$$

$$\delta c_{1} = \sum_{i} \Delta_{2i}$$

$$\delta W_{2} = \delta W_{2} + \epsilon_{2} W_{2}$$

$$\delta W_{1} = \delta W_{1} \epsilon_{2} W_{1}$$

$$W_{1} = W_{1} - \epsilon_{1} \delta W_{1}$$

$$c_{1} = c_{1} - \epsilon_{1} \delta c_{1}$$

$$W_{2} = W_{2} - \epsilon_{1} \delta W_{2}$$

$$c_{2} = c_{2} - \epsilon_{1} \delta c_{2}$$
(19)

4.1 Results

Given that the data is sequential, I believe it is not possible to shuffle the data around, else the intrinsic behaviour of the impact between bid/ask price and the movement of price is lost. Furthermore as the neural network components are initialized to random values it is important to model test multiple times to ensure the results are not generated simply due to chance and rather due to the network learning from the training set.

One method is to use 10-fold cross validation where a new random model is initalized for each set of data to be tested. Using this I see get an averaged prediction performance over all testing sets of 0.547%. The values of individual sections can be seen in Figure 15. Some aspects of interest are that the sections with relatively flat prices and/or that have less autocorrelated data (more up/down spikes) are closer to 50% accuracy as we would reasonably suspect. Sections with strong trends in either direction and/or large autocorrelations perform significantly better.

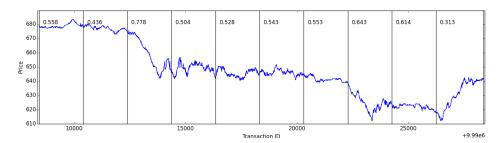


Figure 15: 10-fold Cross Validation. Lines display where the sets are split and the percentage of values correct that specific set was tested using all the other sets for training.

Another method of testing used given the sequential nature of the data is iteratively testing the data using the first X points as training data and then testing on the next X followed by training on the currently tested points and repeating this process multiple times for different random starting conditions of the neural network. It can be seen that this method perhaps with an average performance of 52.9% for batches of size 2000 and of 53.4% for batches of size 4000. The batch size is the value of X defined before. Once again the model predicts better when there are strong underlying trends and worse when the data is mostly flat.

Overall it seems that the neural network is able to get a 52-55% rate of predicting the price correctly over the entire data set. In terms of trading an asset this is quite significant as over time a lot of money could be made with such an advantage. But there are also several assumptions made in the implementation that compromise this result.

- 1. Firstly, this model does not have an accurate time-stamp and thus it is not possible to know whether all these transactions occurred in a small time interval. Perhaps one even too small for a neural network to train and predict based on past values.
- 2. Secondly, it is assumed that transactions IDs are chronological in time but this must be verified
- 3. Most importantly, our training set is quite small only 10 days. This means that even though the results have been cross validated, it is hard to assess whether the entire data set is rep-

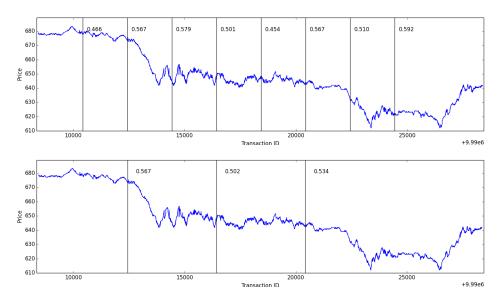


Figure 16: Iterative Batch Cross Validation with 10 Repeats. In the upper figure, the first 2000 values are used to training and then the next 2000 are tested after which they are used for training and this process is iteratively repeated. In the lower figure the same has been done but for a batch size of 4000. The values indicate the performance (percentage of times the model correctly predicted the price trend) in each section

resentative of the general market of Bitcoin transactions. Furthermore, this ties into the idea that neural networks require tremendous amounts of data to train properly.

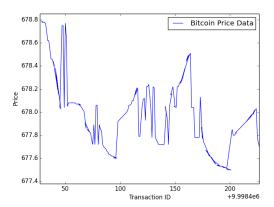
4. Lastly, the analysis of neural networks is still in its infancy. There are no exact methods for determining what sort of architecture will lead to the best result. This also makes it extremely hard to choose and then justify parameter choices, such as the learning rate.

A similar implementation could be attempted on properly formatted data. Properly formatted data is received regularly, i.e. in set time steps, and sequentially in time. Without regularity, many forms of inference do not make sense such as moving averages and volatility which would be extremely beneficial here. Also, then other simpler and better understood models, for example AR regression models, could be implemented for comparison given the lack of rigour involved in neural networks.

Ultimately, I would not trade based on this model but I think it is a good proof of concept.

Appendix

4.2 Q4: Figure



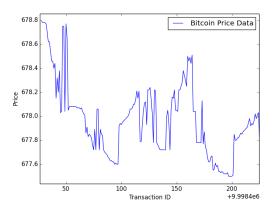


Figure 17: A zoomed in view of small intervals in Transaction IDs with the figure on the left plotted without transaction IDs sorted and the one of the right plotted with the transaction IDs sorted. The locally random ordering of transaction ID data is not visible on a global scale but clearly impacts any implementation that is dependent on assuming the Bitcoin data is time-series data and the underlying function for the price depends on the previous prices

4.3 Code

Note that the bound plotting function that I have used is heavily influenced from [1]. Also the Gaussian Process code is implemented in line with the same tutorial. Furthermore I believe it is worth mentioning that I have used a similar code for investigations in my on-going M4R course as well.

4.3.1 Q1

${\tt Kmeans.m}$

```
function [ Z, Mu , EK] = Kmeans( X, K, tol , display )

W Uses the K Means algorithm to segment the inputted data into K clusters

NINPUTS: X: M x N points of data to be segmented using a gaussians

K. Number of clusts. Default set to 3.

CUITPUTS: Z: Contains the centroid vector for each data point

C: Defines the cluster means for each centroid vector

Ek: Normalized Within Cluster Sum Squared of Errors

if (nargin < 2) K = 3; end

Set default cluster value to 3 if not given

if (nargin < 3) tol = 1e-10; end % Set default value for the break tolerance

if (nargin < 4) display = false; end % Display iteration count/means

[M,N] = size(X);

Array to store the indicator variables

dist = zeros(K,1);

Array to store the norm between a point and the cluster means

size_k = zeros(K,1);

Array to store the norm between in each iteration

Mu_new = rand(M,K);

Array to store the new cluster means

Mu_new = rand(M,K);

Array to store the new cluster means

Mu_new = rand(M,K);

Array to store the new cluster means

iters = 0;

w iteration count
```

GaussianMixtureModel.m

```
for k = 1:K
 Pk(k) = sum(PKX(:,k)) / N;
           \% \ M\text{--}Step \colon Maximise parameters values based on the likelihood function for k=1\text{:}K
                                                                k = 1:K

Mu.new(:,k) = 0; % Compute new values for Cluster centers

PKXX = X;

for m = 1:M

PKXX(m,:) = PKX(:,k) .* X(m,:) ';

end
                                                                 Mu.new(:,k) = Mu.new(:,k) + sum(PKXX, 2) / sum(PKX(:,k));
                                                                Sigma.new(:,:,k) = 0; % Compute new values for Cluster variances Xminus = X - Mu.new(:,k); PKXminus = Xminus; for m = 1:M PKXminus(m,:) = PKX(:,k) .* Xminus(m,:) '; end
                                                             n2 = norm(Mu.new - Mu); % norm to check if the solution has converged if (n2 < tol) || (abs(n1 - n2) < tol) % Stop once converged Mu = Mu.new; Sigma = Sigma.new; break
                                                               n1 = n2;
Mu = Mu_new;
                                                                 Sigma = Sigma_new;
                                                if (display) % Display variables if asked for
                                                                 display (n2)
                                                                                                     iters + 1;
                                                                 iters = iters - display(iters)
102
103
end
104
end
105
106
107
% Get indicator variables
for n = 1:N
109
[*-,index] = max(PKX(n,:));
2(n) = index;
end
**rte LogLikelihood
         | Time | 
          118
119
120 %
121 %
122 %
123 %
124 end
           125
126 end
```

 ${\tt test_Kmeans_imageSegmentation.m.}$

Note test_GMM_imageSegmentation.m is very similar and just calls the GMM function instead of the K means one.

```
1 img = imread('FluorescentCells.jpg'); % Load the image and format it
2 img = double(img);
3 [Nx,Ny,M] = size(img);
4 X = reshape(img, Nx*Ny,M)';
5 X = X/25;
6 % Initalize arrays needed to store data
7 K.vals = 2:10;
8 Nk = length(K.vals);
9 Z = cell (Nk,1);
10 Mu = cell (Nk,1);
11 EK = zeros(Nk,1);
12 TimeTaken = zeros(Nk,1);
13 % Compute K Means clustering for each value of K
14 for K = K.vals
15 tic;
16 [Z{K-1},Mu{K-1},EK(K-1)] = Kmeans(X,K);
17 TimeTaken(K-1) = toc
end
```

```
19 % Plot results
20 figure();
21 subplot(1,4,1);
22 plotImage(Z{2-1}Mn{2-1},2,Nx,Ny);
23 title(('Image Segmentation using K-Means, K: ',num2str(2)]);
24 subplot(1,4,2);
25 plotImage(Z{3-1}Mn{3-1},3,Nx,Ny);
26 title(['Image Segmentation using K-Means, K: ',num2str(3)]);
27 subplot(1,4,3);
28 plotImage(Z{3-1},Mn{5-1},5,Nx,Ny);
29 title(('Image Segmentation using K-Means, K: ',num2str(5)]);
30 subplot(1,4,4);
31 plotImage(Z{10-1},Mn{10-1},10,Nx,Ny);
32 title(('Image Segmentation using K-Means, K: ',num2str(10)]);
33 figure();
34 figure();
35 plot(K.vals, FK, 'x-');
36 title('Normalized Squared Sum of Errors vs K'); xlabel('K'); ylabel('Normalized Squared Sum of Errors')
```

test_GMM_segmentationCrossValidation.m

test_CellCounting.m

KmeansTest.m

for segmenting the testing data with given clusters.

${\tt GMMTest.m}$

for segmenting the testing data with given clusters means and variances.

```
function [ Z , LK, PKX] = GMMTest( X, K, Mu, Sigma, Pk )

% Segments the inputted test data into K clusters with means Mu

% K: Number of clusts . Default set to 3.

% Mi: Cluster means

% Sigma: Cluster varainces

Pk: Prior probabilities of each cluster

% OUTPUTS: Z: Contains the centroid vector for each data point

LK: Negative Log Likelihood

% Probability vectors

[M,N] = size(X); % Get dimensions of data and gaussians to be fit

PKX = zeros(N,K); % Centroid vector for each X point

PX = zeros(N,I); % Inicator for each X point
```

```
for k = 1:K % Compute Posterior
    sqrt.Sigma = 1/ sqrt (det(Sigma(:,:,k)));
    Xminus = X - Mu(:,k);
    invSX = -0.5 * (Sigma(:,:,k) \ Xminus);
    PKX(:,k) = Pk(k) * sqrt.Sigma * exp( dot(Xminus,invSX,1));
end

PKX = PKX ./ sum(PKX,2); % Normalize

### PKX = PKX ./ sum(PKX(n,:));
    Z(n) = index;
end

### PKX = PKX ./ sum(PKX(n,:));
    Z(n) = index;
end

### PKX = PKX ./ sum(PKX(i,k)) / 2;
    Xinius = X(i,i) - Mu(i,k);
    invSX = (Sigma(:,:,k) - Mu(i,k);
    invSX = (Sigma(:,:,k)
```

4.3.2 Q2

testGP.m

Produces the plot for the periodic gaussian process fit using the functions defined below.

```
data = csvread('../CO2.Mauna.Loa.Data.csv',1); % load the data in the file

% For ease of reading

X = data(:,1);

X = X/12 + 1960; % Convert to Years

y = data(:,2);

sigma.n = sqrt(var(y));

n = length(X); % Extract length of data

n.xtest = 1e3; % Length of GP extrapolation points over the domain

Nstarts = 1; % Nam starting points sampled from a hyperbolic distribution to achieve fmin

ov = 2013; % Year of observation

w = 400; % mm level

Create a vector fom the smallest x value to the observation point

x test = linspace(min(X), ox, n.xtest);

% Compute Hyperparameters

theta = computeHP(X, y, Nstarts);

y test data to the GP with the found hyperparameters

[ytest, bounds, K, kstar] = computeGP (@K.SE, X, y, theta, xtest);

% Plot Data

display(theta)

fig.main = figure(); hold on;

plotGP(X, y, xtest, ytest, bounds, 'b-');

ylabel('COZ in ppm'); xlabel('Year')

y axis([min(X) ox 310 400])
```

Computes the covariance matrix K as well as all the derivatives wrt the hyper-parameters

K_SE.m

```
function [K, d.l, dsigma.n, dsigma.f, d.f, d.l2] = K.SE (x1, x2, theta)
2 % Computes the covariance matrix K using a squared exponential +
3 % exponential sin squared and white noise kernels as well as all the
4 % derivatives with respect the inputted theta
5 if exist('theta','var') == 0 % make sure all parameters have beeb inputted
7 theta = [];
8 end
9 if length(theta) < 5
12 = 1;
11 else
12 = theta(5);
13 end
14 if length(theta) < 4
5 f = 0;
else
16 else</pre>
```

```
f = theta(4);
d if length(theta) < 3
    sigma.f = 1;
else
sigma.f = theta(3);
d if length(theta) < 2
sigma.n = 0;
else
sigma.n = theta(2);
else
d if length(theta) < 1
    1 = 1;
d lese
1 = theta(1);
d covariance
K = sigma.f'2 * exp(-(x1-x2) '2 / (2*1'2));
D corvariance
K = sigma.f'2 * exp(-(x1-x2) '2 / (2*1'2));
d sigma.f = 2 * sigma.f'2 * exp(-(x1-x2) '2 / (2*1'2));
d sigma.f = 2 * sigma.f'2 * exp(-(x1-x2) '2 / (2*1'2));
d sigma.f = 2 * sigma.f'2 * exp(-(x1-x2) '2 / (2*1'2));
d sigma.f = 2 * sigma.f'2 * exp(-(x1-x2) '2 / (2*1'2));
d sigma.f = 2 * sigma.f'2 * exp(-(x1-x2) '2 / (2*1'2));
d sigma.f = 2 * sigma.f'2 * exp(-(x1-x2) '2 / (2*1'2));
d sigma.f = 2 * sigma.f'2 * exp(-(x1-x2) * (x1-x2) * (x1-x2)
```

optimHP.m

Based on the implementation in [1] but altered to handle more hyperparameters

computeGP.m

Computes the GP given training data, hyper-parameters and testing x values.

```
function [ytest, bounds, K, ytestvar] = computeCP (k, X, y, theta, xstar)

% Finds the mean vector and variances for the testing values when fitting

% to a Gaussian Process with parameters that a formed from training data

% X and y.

% CUTPUTS: ytest, predicted mean vector of the testing data

% bounds, 95% confidence values

% K, The kernel for theta and the training data

% ytestvar, the variance computed for the testing data.

10 if nargin < 5, sigma.n = 0; end

11 m = mean(Y); y = y = ym; % Make data to have zero mean.

12 m = mean(Y); y = y = ym; % Make data to have zero mean.

13 m = mean(Y); y, Nxiest = length(xstar);

14 for i = 1:N

15 K = zero(N); xstar = zeros(N,1);

16 for i = 1:N

17 for j = 1:N

18 K(i,j) = k(X(i),X(j),theta);

19 end

20 end

21

22 % Factorize the Kernel for easier computations.

23 L = chol (K, 'lower');

24 alpha = Y. (Y(LV));

25 % Compute bounds and estimate for xstar

27 ytestmean = zeros(Nxtest,1); ytestvar = zeros(Nxtest,1);

18 for j = 1:NN test = new form in the components

19 kstar(i) = k(X(i),xstar(q),theta);

20 end

21 ytestmean(q) = kstar' * alpha; % Mean values

22 y = ytestmar(q) = k(xstar(q),xstar(q),theta) - v'*v + ystar.noise;

23 end

34 % Compute bounds = [ytestmean + 1.96 * sqrt(ytestvar)] + ym;

35 ytest = ytestmean + ym;

46 end

47 end
```

computeHP.m

Computes the hyper-parameters for a GP given training data.

plotGP.m

creates plots of the computed Gaussian Process

stdRegion.m

From [1]. Creates shaded bounds around the mean

```
1 % Fill a graph with standard deviations; t is nx1 and Range is nx2
2 % sC is the colour to use, in RGB vector format
3 % reaxisVar = 0 to leave the axes to be overdrawn, or 1 to redraw them
4 % Mark Ebden, 2008
5 function theRange = stdRegion (t, theRange, sC, reaxisVar)
7 if exist('sC') == 0
8 sC = [.6 .6 .6];
9 end
10 if exist('reaxisVar') == 0
11 reaxisVar = 0;
12 end
13 t = t(:);
14 % Create enclosed shape using bounds
15 fill ([t; flipud(t)], [theRange(:,1); flipud(theRange(:,2))], sC, 'EdgeColor', sC, 'DisplayName', 'Bounds on GP');
16
17 if reaxisVar == 1
18 v = axis;
19 line (v([1 1]), v([3 4]), 'Color', 'k');
19 line (v([1 2]), v([3 3]), 'Color', 'k');
20 end
21 end
22 end
3 t = (1,2);
4 % Create enclosed shape using bounds
4 if incomparison of the reaction of
```

${\tt HypSample.m}$

From [10]. Samples a hyperbola N times for a parameter with given bounds

4.3.3 Q4

testingGeneral.m

for generating the data visualisations at the start of Q4.

testingRegression.m

For generating the data regression plot visualisations

1 % Load Data

```
bid = string(bd);
bid = string(symbol);
symbol = string(symbol);
string(symbol) = string(string(symbol);
string(symbol) = string(symbol);
string(symbol) =
```

OLS

For generating the data regression plot visualisations

```
26 bound = tval * sigma * c;
27
28 bounds = [fitted_data + bound, fitted_data - bound];
29
30 end
```

NeuralNetwork.py

This file contains some of the initial python plots and some basic analysis of the system using iterative validation

```
import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
      def buildModel(NIL,NHL,NOL):
           # Initialize matrices and arrays to random values np.random.seed(0) # For testing purposes WI = np.random.randn(NHL, NIL) / np.sqrt(NIL) c1 = np.zeros((NHL,1)) W2 = np.random.randn(NOL, NHL) / np.sqrt(NHL) c2 = np.zeros((NOL,1))
     return { 'W1': W1, 'c1': c1, 'W2': W2, 'c2': c2}
def testResult(model, Xtest, ytest):
# Specefic to this situation. Can be changed for different models
   probs = predict(model, Xtest)
   if np.argmax(probs) == np.argmax(ytest):
        return 1
   else:
        return 0
      def train/vals(model, start, num):
    for i in range(start, start+num):
        vals = np.arange(i-Ntau+1,i+1) # indices of prices of interest
        Xt = np.array([price[vals].T, bid[vals].T])
        Xt = Xt.reshape(NIL,1) # Make into a vector
        yt = np.array([priceUp[i], 1 - priceUp[i]]) # Vector of [up, down] booleans
        yt = yt.reshape((XIL))
    # Train the model of this value
```

```
82
83
84
85
86 ##
87 de
88
90
90
91
92
93
94
95
                                 model = trainModel(model, Xt, yt)
                        return model
            def testVals(model, start, num):
                       testVals(model, start, num):
correct = 0
for i in range(start, start+num):
    vals = np.arange(i-Ntau+1,i+1)  # indices of prices of interest
    Xt = np.arange(i-price[vals].T, bid[vals].T])
    Xt = Xt.reshape(NIL,1)  # Make into a vector
    yt = np.array([priceUp[i], 1 - priceUp[i]])  # Vector of [up, down] booleans
    yt = yt.reshape((2,1))
    # Compute if the result is correct
    correct += testResult(model, Xt, yt)
return correct / float(num)  # Return % of correct values
96
97
98
99
100
101
102
          ID = my_data[1:,0]
ID = ID.astype(np.float
ID = ID[np.argsort(ID)]
104
105
106
107
108
109
110
                        date = my_data[1:,3]
date = date.astype(np.float)
date = date[np.argsort(ID)]
111
112
113
114
115
116
117
                        price = my.data[1:,4]
price = price.astype(np.float)
price = price[np.argsort(ID)]
                        amount = my.data[1:,5]
amount = amount.astype(np.float)
amount = amount[np.argsort(ID)]
118
119
120
121
122
123
124
125
126
127
128
129
130
131
132
                       bid = my_data[1:,6]
bid[bid == 'TRUE'] = 1
bid[bid == 'FALSE'] = 0
bid = bid.astype(np.float)
bid = bid[np.argsort(ID)]
                       # Comment out the statements with np.argsort to see the impact
# plt.plot(ID,price , label = 'Bitcoin Price Data')
# plt.legend(loc='upper right')
# plt.xlabel('Transaction ID')
# plt.ylabel('Price')
# plt.show()
                      # Different definition of if the price went up.

# 1. Firstly if the next transaction value is higher on lower

# Not very useful in terms of understanding anything because of financial fluctuations

N = np. size(price)

Dl = price[1:N] - price[:N-1] # Level 1 different in price

priceUp1[Dl < 0] = 0 # 1.e. if the price went up or down

# 2. See if the average price in the next avgSize transactions is higher or lower

avgSize = 50 # Chosen arbitarily

movingAvg = moving_average(price, avgSize)

ND = avgSize

D = movingAvg[ND:] - movingAvg[:-ND]

priceUp[D] < 0] = 0

# Plot to visualize

# plt_plot(D) price_ label = 'Bitcoin Price Data')
133
134
135
136
137
138
139
140
141
142
143
144
145
146
147
                       # Plot to visualize
# plt.plot(ID, price, label = 'Bitcoin Price Data')
# plt.plot(ID, movingAvg, '--r', label='Moving Average (50 Transaction)')
# plt.xlabel('Transaction ID')
# plt.xlabel('Transaction ID')
# plt.xlabel('Price')
# plt.xhow()
148
149
150
151
152
153
154
155
156
157
158
159
160
161
162
163
                        Ntau = 100
dim_X = 2
NX = Ntau * dim_X
                       # Parameters for Neural Network
eps1 = 1e-6 # learning rate (chosen)
eps2 = 1e-6 # regularization strength (chosen)
NIL = NNX # input layer size
NHL = NIL
NOL = 2 # output layer size
164
165
                        # Initialize matrices and vectors for the model
model = buildModel(NIL,NHL,NOL)
166
167
168
169
170
171
172
173
174
175
176
                        # Basic testing if trained on roughly half the values is prediction on the
                        # rest of the data set
model = trainVals(model, Ntau,10000)
print testVals(model, Ntau+10000, N-2*Ntau-10000)
                        \# \# Iterative cross validation but without randomness dealt with N.samples = 4000 N.runs = N / N.samples
```

```
# Train model on intial data set
model = train Vals (model, Ntau, N.samples)

# Store model performance in each validation set
performance = np. array([])

# Test model on the next N.sample values then train and repeat
for run in range(1,N.runs):

if run == N.runs: # Make sure all values are tested in the last batch
N.samples += N - N.runs * N.samples

# Compute perforamance
performance = np. append(performance, testVals (model, Ntau + run*N.samples))

if run != N.runs: # If not the last run then train the model further
model = trainVals (model, Ntau + run*N.samples)

print performance
print np. average(performance)

plt. figure()
plt. figure()
plt.plot([D, price)
for run in range(1,N.runs):
midval = run*N.samples* N.samples/10
plt.anotate(str(performance[run-1]), (ID[midval], 680))
plt.plot((ID[run*N.samples], ID[run*N.samples]), (610, 690), 'k-')

plt. xlabel('Transaction ID')
plt.ylabel('Price')
plt. ylabel('Price')
plt.show()
```

NeuralNetwork.py

Python file for K-folds cross validation

```
perfs = np.array([])

K.fold = 10

# Set number of values in each fold

N.samples = (N - Ntau - avgSize) / K.fold

for K in range(K.fold):

# Initialize matrices and vectors for the model

model = buildModel(NIL,NHL,NXL)

# Train model on 9 of the 10 data sets

for run in np.random.permutation(K.fold):

if run != K:

model = trainVals(model, Ntau + run * N.samples, N.samples)

# Test on the Kth data set

performance = testVals(model, Ntau + K * N.samples)

perfs = np.append(perfs, performance)

print perfs

print perfs

print np.average(perfs)

plt.figure()

plt.plot([D,price)

for K in range(K.fold):

midval = K*N.samples* N.samples / 10

plt.annotate( str.format(' {0.:3}f', perfs[K] ) , ( ID[midval], 680))

plt.plot([D[N-1], ID[N-1]), (610, 690), 'k-')

plt.ylabel('Transaction ID')

plt.ylabel('Price')

plt.show()

plt.show()
```

NeuralNetwork.py

Python file for Iterative Batch Cross Validation with multiple runs

```
perfs = np.array([])

N.random = 10

for rand in range(N.random):

# Initialize matrices and vectors for the model
model = buildModel(NIL,NHL,NCL)

# Iterative cross validation:

N.samples = 2000

N.runs = N / N.samples

# Train model on initial data set
model = trainVals(model, Ntau, N.samples)

# Store model performance in each validation set
performance = np.array([])

# Test model on the next N.sample values then train and repeat
for run in range(1,N.runs):

if run == N.runs: # Make sure all values are tested in the last batch
N.samples + N - N.runs * N.samples

# Compute performance
performance = np.append(performance, testVals(model, Ntau + run*N.samples, N.samples))

if run != N.runs: # If not the last run then train the model further
model = trainVals(model, Ntau + run*N.samples)

perfs = np.append(perfs, performance)

perfs = np.reshape(perfs, (N.runs-1,N.random))
avgPerfs = np.average(perfs, axis = 1)
TotalPerf = np.average(avgPerfs)
print TotalPerf
```

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