Gradient Descent

```
import numpy as np
import pandas as pd
# Load data
data = pd.read csv('datasets/advertising/Advertising Budget and Sales.csv')
print(data.head())
# Preprocessing
print(data.isnull().sum())
data cleaned = data.drop(['Unnamed: 0'], axis=1)
print("Cleaned data")
print(data_cleaned.isnull().sum())
# Select Radio ad budget as feature and sales as target
X = data cleaned[['Radio Ad Budget ($)']]
v = data cleaned[['Sales ($)']]
X = np.array(X)
y = np.array(y).reshape(-1,1)
# Normalize the features for stability
X = (X - np.min(X)) / (np.max(X) - np.min(X))
# Hyperparameters
learning_rate = 0.001
epochs = 1000
weights = np.random.rand(2,1)
print("Initial weights", weights)
# Gradient Descent
for epoch in range(epochs):
 bias = np.ones((len(X), 1))
 X b = np.c [bias, X] # Add bias term to X
 y_pred = X_b.dot(weights) # Predictions
 error = y pred - y # Error
 gradients = 2 * X b.T.dot(error) / len(X b) # Gradients for weights
 weights -= learning_rate * gradients # Update weights
 mse = np.mean(error ** 2) # Mean Squared Error
 if epoch % 100 == 0:
  print(f"Epoch {epoch}, MSE: {mse}")
# Print final weights
print("Final weights", weights)
# Evaluate model using RMSE
rmse = np.sqrt(np.mean(error ** 2))
print(f"RMSE: {rmse}")
```

- Gradient Descent is an optimization algorithm used to minimize the error in machine learning models, typically by adjusting model parameters (like weights in linear regression)
- The goal is to learn a model (like y=wx+b) that can accurately predict y given X
- The cost function, or the loss function, quantifies the error between the predicted values ypred and the actual values y. For linear regression, this is typically the MSE
- The gradient represents how much the cost function changes to the weights and bias.
- Positive gradient: If the slope is positive, increasing the weight would increase the error.
- Negative gradient: If the slope is negative, increasing the weight would decrease the error.

SVM (All types included)

```
import pandas as pd
import numpy as np
from sklearn.model selection import train test split
from sklearn.preprocessing import LabelEncoder
from sklearn.svm import SVC
from sklearn.metrics import confusion matrix, accuracy score, recall score, precision score,
f1_score
file path = "datasets/Social network dataset/Social Network Ads.csv"
data = pd.read csv(file path)
print("Initial data")
print(data.head())
#preprocessing
print(data.isnull().sum())
label encoder = LabelEncoder()
data['Gender'] = label encoder.fit transform(data['Gender'])
X = data[['Gender','Age','EstimatedSalary']]
y = data['Purchased']
X train,X test,y train,y test = train test split(X,y,test size=0.2,random state=42)
model = SVC(kernel='linear')
# model = SVC(kernel='rbf')
model.fit(X train,y train)
y pred = model.predict(X test)
cm = confusion_matrix(y_test,y_pred)
acc_s = accuracy_score(y_test,y_pred)
recall_s = recall_score(y_test,y_pred)
precision_s = precision_score(y_test,y_pred)
f1_s = f1_score(y_test, y_pred)
print("Confusion matrix")
print(cm)
print(f"Accuracy: {acc s}")
print(f"Recall: {recall_s}")
print(f"Precision: {precision_s}")
```

```
print(f"F1 Score: {f1_s}")
print("Predictions")
for actual,predicted in zip(y_test,y_pred):
    print(f"Actual: {actual}, Predicted: {predicted}")
```

- Support Vector Machine (SVM) is a supervised learning algorithm for classification and regression tasks. Its main goal is to find a hyperplane that best separates the data points of different classes.
- It tries to maximize the margin (distance) between the data points from different classes and the hyperplane.
- Two types linear and non-linear(rbf radial basis function: maps it into higher dimensions where data becomes linearly separable)
- LabelEncoder is used to convert categorical data (e.g., text labels like "Male", "Female") into numerical data.
- A Confusion Matrix is a table that helps evaluate the performance of a classification model. It shows the count of True Positives (TP), False Positives (FP), True Negatives (TN), and False Negatives (FN).
- Accuracy = $\frac{TP+TN}{TP+TN+FP+FN}$
- Recall = $\frac{TP}{TP + FN}$
- Precision = $\frac{TP}{TP + FP}$
- F1 = 2 $x \frac{Precision \times Recall}{Precision + Recall}$

Decision Tree (All types)

```
import numpy as np
import pandas as pd
from sklearn.metrics import accuracy score
from sklearn.model selection import train test split
from sklearn.tree import DecisionTreeClassifier
file path = "datasets/Iris/Iris.csv"
data = pd.read csv(file path)
print("Initial data")
print(data.head())
print(data.isnull().sum())
X = data[['SepalLengthCm', 'SepalWidthCm', 'PetalLengthCm', 'PetalWidthCm']]
y = data['Species']
X train, X test, y train, y test = train test split(X, y, test size=0.2, random state=42)
model = DecisionTreeClassifier(criterion='gini',max_depth=4,min_samples_split=2)
# model = DecisionTreeClassifier(criterion='entropy',max_depth=4,min_samples_split=2)
# model = DecisionTreeClassifier(criterion='log_loss',max_depth=4,min_samples_split=2)
model.fit(X train, y train)
y_pred = model.predict(X_test)
acc s = accuracy score(y test, y pred)
print(f"Accuracy: {acc s}")
```

```
example_features = [[5.1, 3.5, 1.4, 0.2]]
predictions = model.predict(example_features)
print(f"Category for {example_features[0]} is {predictions[0]}")
```

- A Decision Tree is a supervised learning algorithm for classification and regression tasks.
- It breaks down the dataset into smaller subsets based on feature values, creating a tree-like structure of decisions.
- Each internal node in the tree represents a "test" on a feature, each branch represents the outcome of the test, and each leaf node represents the final decision or classification.
- Gini Impurity: Measures impurity by calculating the probability of misclassification. Faster to compute.
- Entropy: Measures the amount of information needed to classify data, aiming to reduce uncertainty (impurity).
- Log Loss: Measures the accuracy of probability predictions; not commonly used for decision trees but more for probabilistic models.

CLASSIFIERS (All types)

```
import pandas as pd
import numpy as np
from sklearn.model selection import train test split
from sklearn.metrics import accuracy score
from sklearn.ensemble import RandomForestClassifier, GradientBoostingClassifier,
BaggingClassifier
from sklearn.tree import DecisionTreeClassifier
file path = "datasets/Iris/Iris.csv"
data = pd.read csv(file path)
print("Initial data")
print(data.head())
print(data.isnull().sum())
X = data[['SepalLengthCm', 'SepalWidthCm', 'PetalLengthCm', 'PetalWidthCm']]
y = data['Species']
X train, X test, y train, y test = train test split(X, y, test size=0.2, random state=42)
BaggingClassifier(base estimator=DecisionTreeClassifier(),n estimators=50,random state=42)
# model = RandomForestClassifier(n_estimators=50,random_state=42)
# model = GradientBoostingClassifier(n estimators=50,random state=42)
model.fit(X_train, y_train)
y pred = model.predict(X test)
accuracy score = accuracy score(y test, y pred)
print(f"Accuracy: {accuracy_score}")
print("Predictions")
for actual, predicted in zip(y test, y pred):
  print(f"Actual: {actual}, Predicted: {predicted}")
```

- RandomForestClassifier An ensemble method that builds multiple decision trees using different random subsets of the data and features. The final prediction is made by averaging or majority voting from all trees.
- Advantage: Reduces overfitting, robust, and works well on a wide variety of datasets.
- Disadvantage: Can be less interpretable and slower for making predictions due to multiple trees.
- GradientBoostingClassifier A sequential ensemble method where each new decision tree
 tries to correct the errors made by the previous trees, using gradient descent to minimize the
 loss function.
- Advantage: High accuracy, especially on complex datasets, and customizable loss functions.
- Disadvantage: Prone to overfitting and can be slow to train due to sequential learning.
- BaggingClassifier An ensemble method that trains multiple base models (e.g., decision trees) on random subsets of the data, aggregating their predictions to improve stability and accuracy.
- Advantage: Reduces variance and prevents overfitting.
- Disadvantage: Does not significantly reduce bias, and may not perform well on noisy or imbalanced datasets.
- AdaBoostClassifier: A boosting algorithm that builds multiple weak learners (often decision stumps, i.e., single-level decision trees) sequentially. Each new learner focuses on correcting the mistakes of the previous ones by adjusting the weights of the incorrectly classified data points.
- Advantage: Improves accuracy by focusing on hard-to-classify examples, works well with weak learners, and reduces bias.
- Disadvantage: Sensitive to noisy data and outliers, and can overfit on complex datasets if not carefully tuned.

Principal Component Analysis

```
import pandas as pd
from sklearn.model selection import train test split
from sklearn.tree import DecisionTreeClassifier
from sklearn.metrics import accuracy score
from sklearn.decomposition import PCA
file path = "datasets/Iris/Iris.csv"
data = pd.read csv(file path)
print("Initial data")
print(data.head())
print(data.isnull().sum())
X = data[['SepalLengthCm', 'SepalWidthCm', 'PetalLengthCm', 'PetalWidthCm']]
y = data['Species']
X train, X test, y train, y test = train test split(X, y, test size=0.2, random state=42)
dt classifier = DecisionTreeClassifier(max depth=4,random state=42)
dt_classifier.fit(X_train, y_train)
y pred without pca = dt classifier.predict(X test)
accuracy_score_without_pca = accuracy_score(y_test, y_pred_without_pca)
```

```
print(f"Accuracy without PCA: {accuracy_score_without_pca}")

pca = PCA(n_components=2)

X_pca = pca.fit_transform(X)

X_train_pca, X_test_pca, y_train_pca, y_test_pca = train_test_split(X_pca, y, test_size=0.2, random_state=42)

dt_classifier_pca = DecisionTreeClassifier(max_depth=4,random_state=42)

dt_classifier_pca.fit(X_train_pca, y_train_pca)

y_pred_with_pca = dt_classifier_pca.predict(X_test_pca)

accuracy_score_with_pca = accuracy_score(y_test_pca, y_pred_with_pca)

print(f"Accuracy with PCA: {accuracy_score_with_pca}")

print(f"Accuracy without PCA: {accuracy_score_with_pca}")

print(f"Accuracy with PCA: {accuracy_score_with_pca}")
```

 PCA (Principal Component Analysis) is a dimensionality reduction technique that transforms data into a lower-dimensional space while preserving as much variance (information) as possible. It helps simplify complex datasets, reduce computation time, and prevent overfitting, especially when dealing with large feature sets.

```
Logistic Regression
import numpy as np
import pandas as pd
from sklearn.preprocessing import StandardScaler, LabelEncoder
from sklearn.model selection import train test split
from sklearn.metrics import confusion matrix, accuracy score, recall score, precision score
class LogisticRegression:
  def __init__(self,learning_rate=0.01,epochs=1000):
    self.learning rate = learning rate
    self.epochs = epochs
    self.weights = None
    self.bias = None
  def sigmoid(self,z):
    return 1/(1+np.exp(-z))
  def fit(self,X,y):
    num_samples,num_features = X.shape
    self.weights = np.zeros(num features)
    self.bias = 0
    for in range(self.epochs):
       linear model = np.dot(X,self.weights) + self.bias
       predictions = self.sigmoid(linear model)
       dw = (1/num \ samples)*np.dot(X.T,(predictions-y))
       db = (1/num samples)*np.sum(predictions-y)
```

```
self.weights -= self.learning rate*dw
       self.bias -= self.learning rate*db
  def predict(self,X):
     linear model = np.dot(X,self.weights) + self.bias
     predictions = self.sigmoid(linear model)
     predictions labels = [1 if i>0.5 else 0 for i in predictions]
     return predictions labels
class OVRLogisticRegression:
  def init (self, lr=0.01, epochs=1000):
     self.lr = lr
     self.epochs = epochs
     self.classifiers = []
  def fit(self, X, y):
     self.classes = np.unique(y)
     for c in self.classes:
       y binary = np.where(y == c, 1, 0)
       clf = LogisticRegression(learning_rate= self.lr, epochs = self.epochs)
       clf.fit(X, y binary)
       self.classifiers.append(clf)
  def predict(self, X):
     class scores = []
     for clf in self.classifiers:
       class scores.append(clf.predict(X))
     class_scores = np.array(class_scores).T
     return np.argmax(class_scores, axis = 1)
df = pd.read csv("datasets/lris/lris.csv")
print(df.head())
label encoder = LabelEncoder()
df['Species'] = label_encoder.fit_transform(df['Species'])
X = df.iloc[:, 1:5] # All 4 features
y = df['Species']
X train, X test, y train, y test = train test split(X, y, test size=0.4, random state=42)
scaler = StandardScaler()
X train = scaler.fit transform(X train)
X test = scaler.transform(X test)
ovr_log_reg = OVRLogisticRegression()
ovr_log_reg.fit(X_train, y_train)
y_pred = ovr_log_reg.predict(X_test)
conf_matrix = confusion_matrix(y_test, y_pred)
```

accuracy = accuracy_score(y_test, y_pred)
recall = recall_score(y_test, y_pred, average='micro')
precision = precision_score(y_test, y_pred, average='micro')

print(f"CONFUSION MATRIX:\n {conf_matrix}")
print(f"ACCURACY: {accuracy * 100:.2f}%")
print(f"RECALL: {recall * 100:.2f}%")
print(f"Precision: {precision*100:.2f}%")

- Logistic regression is a classification algorithm used to predict binary outcomes. It
 models the probability that a given input belongs to a particular class by applying the
 sigmoid function to a linear combination of the input features and weights.
- The sigmoid function is the core of logistic regression, mapping the model's linear output to a probability between 0 and 1: $\frac{1}{1+e^{-z}}$
- For multi-class classification, logistic regression can be extended using the One-vs-Rest (OvR) approach. In OvR, a separate binary classifier is trained for each class, distinguishing one class from all others. At prediction time, each classifier outputs a score, and the class with the highest score is selected as the final prediction.