

1. ✎ Confusion Matrix

A **confusion matrix** is a table used to evaluate the performance of a **classification model** by comparing predicted and actual values.

It helps derive metrics like accuracy, precision, recall, and F1 score.



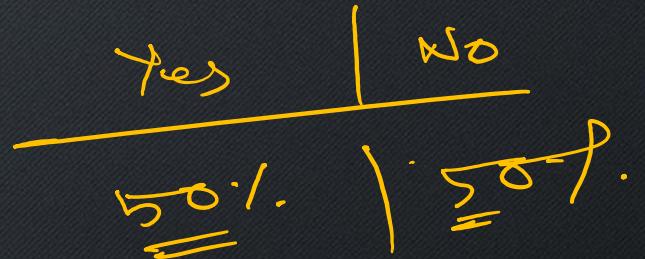
	Predicted Positive	Predicted Negative
Actual Positive	True Positive (TP)	False Negative (FN)
Actual Negative	False Positive (FP)	True Negative (TN)

TP: True +ve :- Predicted → True Actual → True
TN: True -ve :- " → False " → False
FP:- " → True " → False
FN:- " → False " → True

2. Accuracy

Measures how often the model is correct overall.

- Good when classes are balanced.
- Not reliable if one class dominates (e.g., 95% spam, 5% not spam).



$$\text{Accuracy} = \frac{\underline{TP} + \underline{TN}}{\underline{TP} + \underline{TN} + \underline{FP} + \underline{FN}} \quad \checkmark$$

$$= \frac{\overline{TP} + \overline{TN}}{\overline{TP} + \overline{TN} + \overline{FP} + \overline{FN}}$$

$$= \frac{\overline{TP} + \overline{TN}}{\text{total}}$$

3. R-squared Value (R^2) → regression

Used in regression models to measure how well the predictions fit the actual data.

- Range: 0 to 1 (higher is better)
- $R^2 = 1$ → perfect prediction
- $R^2 = 0$ → no better than mean

$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{\text{Sum of Squared Errors}}{\text{Total Sum of Squares}} ?$$

$$\hat{e}^2 = \frac{\sum (y_p - \bar{y})^2}{\sum (y - \bar{y})^2}$$

$y_p \rightarrow$ predicted
 $\bar{y} \rightarrow$ mean of y
 $y \rightarrow$ Actual

4. F1 Measure (F1 Score)

Average → Special

Harmonic mean of precision and recall. Used when you need a balance between the two.

Best when False Positives and False Negatives are equally costly.

$$F1 = 2 \cdot \frac{\text{Precision} \cdot \text{Recall}}{\text{Precision} + \text{Recall}}$$

= []

5. ⚡ Precision

Measures how many predicted positives are actually correct.

- High precision = few false positives.
- Useful when false alarms are expensive (e.g., spam filters).

Actual
5 correct
pred
4 correct
=

TP →

$$Precision = \frac{TP}{TP + FP}$$

TP → Predicted → Yes
Actual → Yes

FP → Predicted → Yes
Actual → No

5. 🔎 Recall (Sensitivity / True Positive Rate)

Measures how well the model detects **actual positives**.

- High recall = few false negatives.
- Useful in medical tests, fraud detection, etc.

$$= \text{Recall} = \frac{TP}{TP + FN}$$

$\frac{FN\%}{predicted \rightarrow NO}$
Actual $\rightarrow YES$

$$\left| \text{Precision} = \frac{TP}{TP + FP} \right.$$

pred $\rightarrow YES$
Actual $\rightarrow NO$

Metric	Used For	Formula	Key Focus
Confusion Matrix	Classification	—	Overall performance breakdown
Accuracy	Classification	$\frac{TP + TN}{\text{total}}$	Overall correctness
R-squared (R^2)	Regression	$1 - \frac{\sum (y_p - \bar{y})^2}{\sum (y - \bar{y})^2}$	Fit of regression line
F1 Score	Classification	2. $\frac{\text{precision} \times \text{recall}}{\text{precision} + \text{recall}}$	Balance between precision & recall
Recall	Classification	$\frac{TP}{TP + FN}$	Catching actual positives
Precision	Classification	$\frac{TP}{TP + FP}$	Reducing false positives

(b) Suppose you have written a classifier for selfie filtering. You have tested your classifier with some data and got the following predictions. Compute the Confusion Matrix from the output and calculate Accuracy, Precision, Recall, and F-1 score from that matrix.

Number	Target	Prediction
1	<u>Selfie</u>	Not Selfie (<u>FN</u>)
2	<u>Not Selfie</u>	<u>Not Selfie</u> (<u>TN</u>)
3	<u>Selfie</u>	<u>Selfie</u> (<u>TP</u>)
4	Not Selfie	<u>Selfie</u> (<u>FP</u>)
5	<u>Not Selfie</u>	<u>Not Selfie</u> (<u>TN</u>)
6	Not Selfie	<u>Not Selfie</u> (<u>FN</u>)
7	<u>Selfie</u>	<u>Selfie</u> (<u>TP</u>)
8	Selfie	<u>Not Selfie</u> (<u>FN</u>)
9	Not Selfie	<u>Not Selfie</u> (<u>TN</u>)
10	Not Selfie	<u>Not Selfie</u> (<u>TN</u>)

Actual

		Predicted	
		Yes	No
Actual	Self	TP →	W/o
		TN →	NO
Not Self	Yes	FP →	NO
	No	FN →	YES
		Pred - Self	Pred - Not Self
Actual Self		TP = 2	TN = 2
Actual Not Self		FP = 1	TN = 5

Number	Target	Prediction	Type
1	Selfie	Not Selfie	FN
2	Not Selfie	Not Selfie	TN
3	Selfie	Selfie	TP
4	Not Selfie	Selfie	FP
5	Not Selfie	Not Selfie	TN
6	Not Selfie	Not Selfie	TN
7	Selfie	Selfie	TP
8	Selfie	Not Selfie	FN
9	Not Selfie	Not Selfie	TN
10	Not Selfie	Not Selfie	TN

$\frac{TP}{TN}$ ←
 $\frac{FP}{FN}$

$$FP = 1$$

$$FN = 2$$

$$TP = 2 \quad (\text{row } 3, 7)$$

$$TN = 5 \quad (\text{row } 2, 5, 6, 9, 10)$$

$$\checkmark \quad Accuracy = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + TN + FP + FN} = \frac{2+5}{10} = \boxed{} \times 100\% = \boxed{}$$

$$\checkmark \quad Precision = \frac{TP}{TP + \cancel{FP}} = \frac{2}{2+1} = \boxed{} \times 100\% = \boxed{}$$

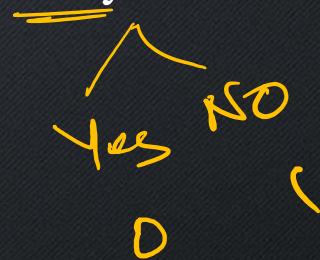
$$\checkmark \quad Recall = \frac{TP}{TP + \cancel{FN}} = \frac{2}{2+2} = \boxed{} \times 100\% = \boxed{}$$

$$F1 = 2 \cdot \frac{Precision \cdot Recall}{Precision + Recall} = \checkmark$$

Perceptron → Neural Networks

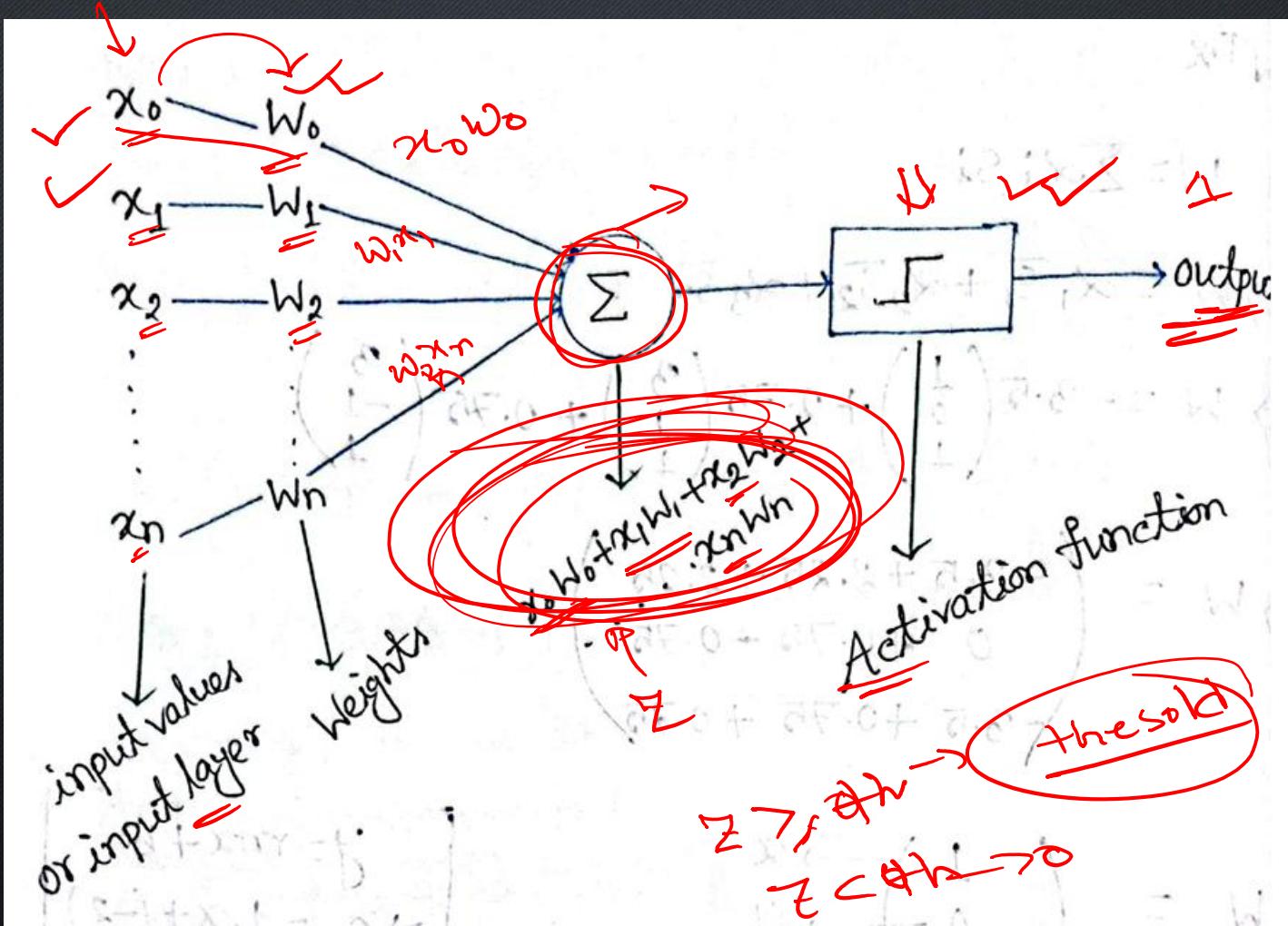
- ✓ Perceptron is considered a single-layer neural links with four main parameter.
- ✓ A machine learning based algorithm used for supervised learning of binary classification.
- ✓ Used for binary classification problems.
- ✓ Only works for **linearly separable** data.
- ✓ Cannot solve problems like **XOR**.
- ✓ Application:

- 1. Image recognition (simple tasks) → Cat → Dog
- 2. Binary classification problems
- 3. Basic pattern recognition →



multi-layer
perceptron

Perceptron



Perceptron

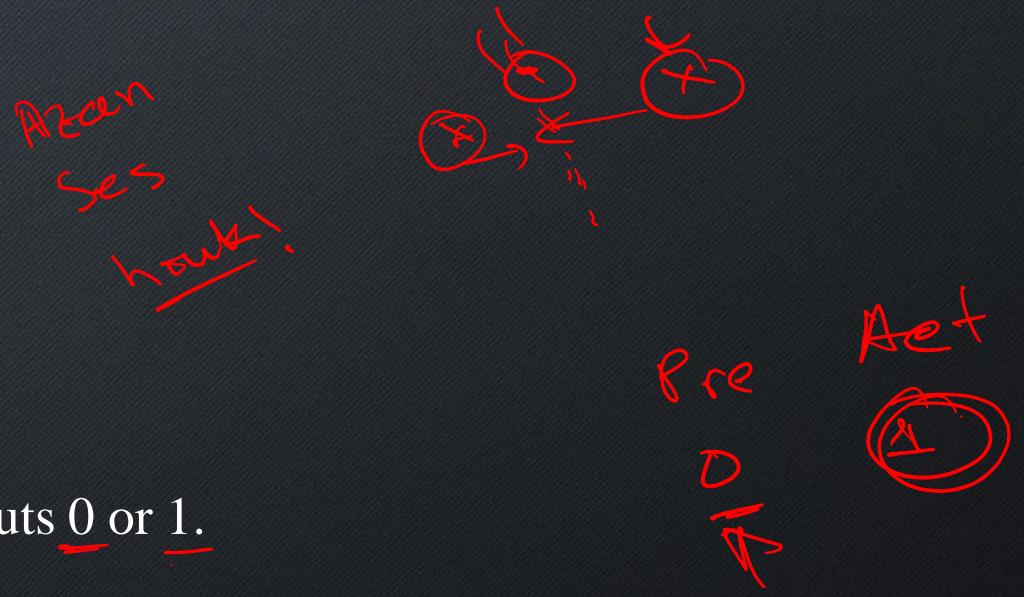
Structure:

Inputs (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n): Features of the input data.

Weights (w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n): Assigned to each input.

Bias (b): Allows the model to shift the decision boundary.

Activation Function: Typically a **step function** that outputs 0 or 1.



Output Function:

$$y = f \left(\sum_{i=1}^n w_i x_i + b \right)$$

$w_i x_i$

$$f(z) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } z \geq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } z < 0 \end{cases}$$

Perceptron

(c) Apply Perceptron Training Algorithm to the following dataset. Use $\alpha = 0.5$, $Th = 1$, $w_1 = 1.2$ and $w_2 = 0.6$ for two iterations. Show the final updated weights using the figure of a perceptron.

epoch

$$z = w_1x_1 + w_2x_2$$

x1	x2	y
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

$$\begin{aligned} Th &= 1 \\ w_1 &= 1.2 \\ w_2 &= 0.6 \\ \alpha &= 0.5 \end{aligned}$$

Perceptron

Perceptron Basics:

- The perceptron predicts using:

$$z = w_1 * x_1 + w_2 * \underline{x_2}$$

If $\underline{z} \geq \underline{Th}$, predict 1; else predict 0.

- If the prediction is wrong, update the weights:

$$\begin{aligned} \textcolor{red}{w_1} &= w_1 + \alpha * (\textcolor{red}{y} - \textcolor{red}{prediction}) * x_1 \\ \textcolor{red}{w_2} &= w_2 + \alpha * (\textcolor{red}{y} - \textcolor{red}{prediction}) * x_2 \end{aligned}$$

$$z = \sum_{i=1}^n w_i x_i$$



Perceptron

Initial Setup: $\alpha = 0.5$, $Th = \underline{1}$, $w_1 = \underline{1.2}$, $w_2 = \underline{0.6}$

Epoch-1

x_1	y_1	y	y_p	$y - y_p$	w_1	w_2	z
0	0	0	0	0	1.2	0.6	0
0	1	1	1	1	1.2	1.1	1.1
1	0	1	1	1	1.7	1.1	1.2
1	1	1	1	0	1.2	1.1	1.8

$$w_1 = 1.2 \quad w_2 = 1.1$$

$$\begin{aligned} w_1 &= w_1 + \alpha (y - y_p) x_1 \\ &= 1.2 + 0.5 \times 1 \times 1 = 1.7 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} w_2 &= w_2 + \alpha (y - y_p) x_2 \\ &= 1.1 + 0.5 \times (1) \times 0 = 1.1 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} z &= 1.7 + 1 \\ &\quad + 1.1 \times 0 \\ &= 1.7 > Th \end{aligned}$$

Perceptron

Epoch-2

x_1	y_1	y	y_p	$y - y_p$	w_1	w_2	z

$$\omega_r = \omega$$

Activation Function

An **activation function** in a neural network decides whether a neuron should be activated (i.e., whether it should pass its signal to the next layer). It introduces non-linearity into the network, enabling it to learn and solve complex problems.

Without activation functions, a neural network would behave like a simple linear model, no matter how many layers it has.

Role of Activation Functions

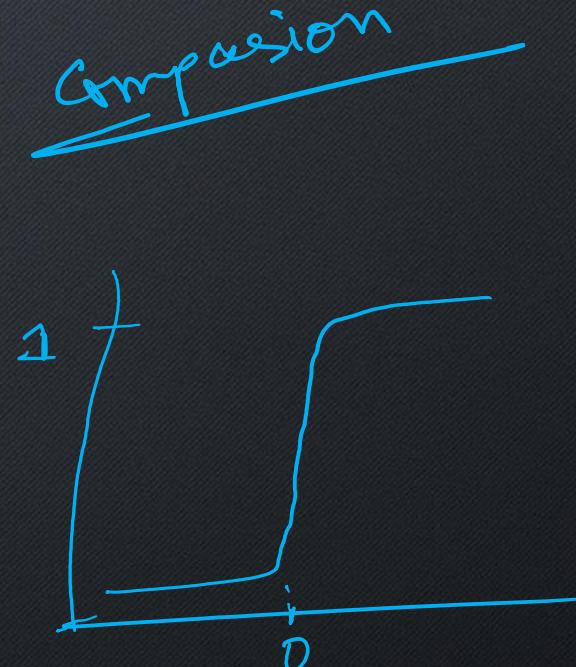
- Introduce non-linearity into the model.
- Help the network learn complex patterns in data.
- Decide whether a neuron should "fire" or stay inactive.
- Enable deep neural networks to learn hierarchical representations.

🔧 Types of Activation Functions

1. Sigmoid Function

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

- ✓ Function that is s-shaped graph.
- ✓ Value range : $(0, 1)$
- ✓ Use case: Binary Classification problems.
- ✓ Non-linear Activation function
- ✓ Smooth output, interpretable as probability.
- ✗ Cons: Vanishing gradient problem (output isn't zero-centered), slow learning.



🔧 Types of Activation Functions

2. Tanh (Hyperbolic Tangent) Function

$$T(x) = \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{e^x + e^{-x}} \approx$$

- ✓ Function that is s-shaped graph.
- ✓ Zero-centered.
- ✓ Value range : $(-1, 1)$
- ✓ Use case: Hidden layer (better than sigmoid).
- ✓ Zero-centered output, stronger gradients than sigmoid.
- ✓ Still suffers from vanishing gradients.



- * Value range
- * A dv.
- * Dis

🔧 Types of Activation Functions

3. ReLU (Rectified Linear Unit)

$$f(x) = \max(0, \underline{x})$$

$$(-\infty, 0)$$

- ✓ Value range : $[0, \infty)$
- ✓ Use case: Most popular in hidden layers of deep networks.
- ✓ Simple, fast, helps prevent vanishing gradients.
- ✓ Dying ReLU problem (neurons stop learning if struck at 0).

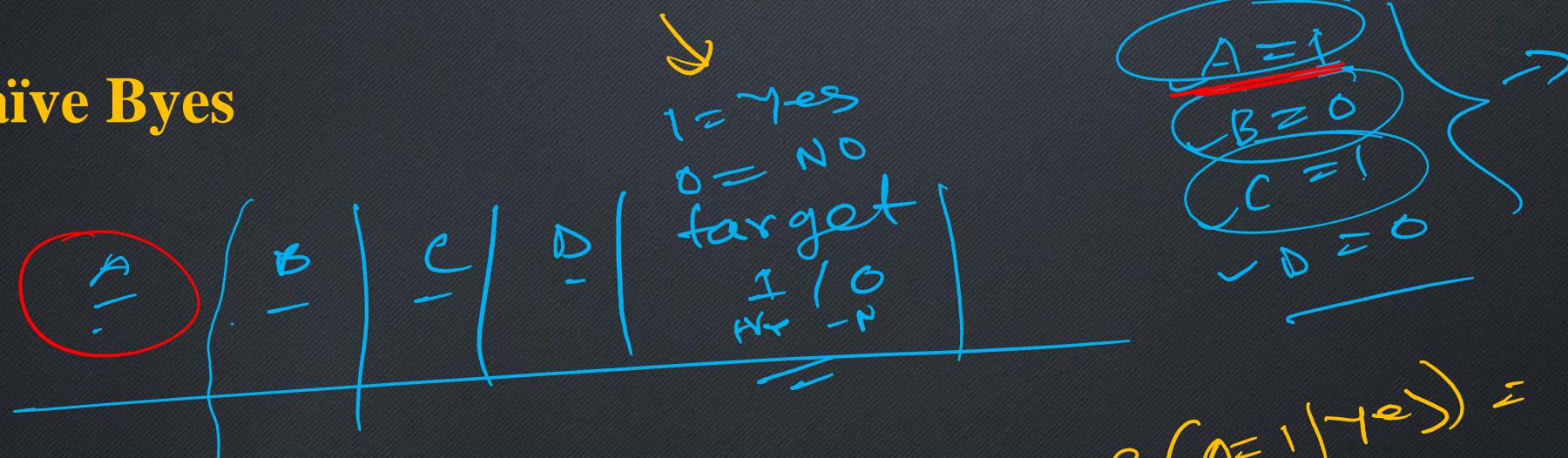
Comparison Table

Function	Output Range	Common Use	Pros	Cons
Sigmoid	(0, 1)	Output layer (binary)	Probabilities	Vanishing gradient
Tanh	(-1, 1)	Hidden layers	Zero-centered	Vanishing gradient
ReLU	[0, ∞)	Hidden layers	Fast, efficient	Dying neurons

$[0, \infty)$

* Advantages & disadvantages

Naïve Bayes



$$P(A=1 \mid \text{Yes}) = \frac{\text{total Yes}}{\text{total}}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(C=1 \mid \alpha = A, B, C, D) &= \\
 &= \frac{P(A=1 \mid \text{Yes}) * P(B=0 \mid \text{Yes})}{P(A) * P(B) * P(C) * P(D)} * P(D=0 \mid \text{Yes}) * P(\text{Yes})
 \end{aligned}$$

1. You have data from a telecom company. Each row represents a customer, and the goal is to predict whether a customer will decide (leave the company) or Stay.

ContractType = Postpaid, Bill = High, Method = Credit

Contract Type	Monthly Bill	Support Calls	Payment Method	Decision
Prepaid	Low	Few	Online	Stay
Postpaid	High	Many	Bank Transfer	Leave
Prepaid	Medium	Few	Online	Stay
Postpaid	High	Few	Bank Transfer	Stay
Postpaid	High	Many	Credit Card	Leave
Prepaid	Low	Many	Online	Leave
Postpaid	Medium	Few	Credit Card	Stay

$$P(\text{Stay}) = \frac{4}{7}$$

$$P(\text{Leave}) = \frac{3}{7}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Stay} &= 4 \\ \text{Leave} &= 3 \\ &= \frac{0}{4} \end{aligned}$$



$$\begin{aligned}
 P(C=\text{stay} | x) &= \frac{P(\text{Postpaid} | \text{stay}) + P(\text{High} | \text{stay}) * P(\text{credit} | \text{stay})}{P(\text{Postpaid}) * P(\text{High}) * P(\text{credit}) * P(\text{many})} \\
 &= \frac{\frac{2}{4} * \frac{1}{4} * \frac{0}{4} + \frac{1}{4} * \frac{4}{7}}{\frac{6}{7} * \frac{3}{7} * \frac{3}{7} * \frac{2}{7}} \\
 &= 0
 \end{aligned}$$

KNN

You are given the following 2D dataset representing the coordinates of customers based on their location in a city:

Customer	X (Longitude)	Y (Latitude)
A	1	2
B	2	1
C	2	2
D	1	3
E	2	3
F	8	8
G	9	8
H	9	9
I	8	9
J	7	8

3. Attempt any TWO

- (a) Apply K-means clustering algorithm for the given data: $\underline{(2, 3)}, \underline{(5, 6)}, \underline{(8, 7)}$,
 $\underline{(1, 4)}, \underline{(2, 2)}, \underline{(6, 7)}, \underline{(3, 4)}, \underline{(8, 6)}$.
 Divide the datapoints into two clusters C_1 and C_2 , where initial centroids for
 $C_1 = \underline{(2, 3)}$ and $C_2 = \underline{(5, 6)}$.

$$(2 \times 10 = 20)$$

C_1	C_2
2, 3	5, 6
1, 4	8, 7

centri
2.3
5.6
1.4
8.7

for $(8, 7)$

$$C_1 = \sqrt{(2-8)^2 + (3-7)^2} = 7.211$$

$$C_2 = \sqrt{(5-8)^2 + (6-7)^2} = 3.16$$

$(8, 7) \rightarrow C_2$

new centroid =

$$\left(\frac{5+8}{2}, \frac{6+7}{2} \right) = (6.5, 6.5)$$

(6, 7)

$$c_1 = \sqrt{(1.67 - 6)^2 + (3 - 7)^2} = 5.89$$

$$c_2 = \sqrt{(6.5 - 6)^2 + (6.5 - 7)^2} = 0.707$$

5, 4
6, 7
6, 7

(6, 7) → c₂

$$c_1 = \sqrt{(1.67 - 3)^2 + (3 - 3)^2} = \boxed{0}$$

$$c_2 = \sqrt{(5.667 - 3)^2 + (6.667 - 4)^2} = \boxed{2}$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \left(\frac{3+6+6}{3}, \frac{6+7+7}{3} \right) \\ &= (5.867, 6.6667) \end{aligned}$$

