DATA MINING TECHNIQUES **Review of Probability Theory**

Yijun Zhao

Northeastern University

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Review of Probability Theory

Based on "Review of Probability Theory" from CS 229 Machine Learning, Stanford University (Handout posted on the course website)

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Elements of Probability

- Sample space Ω: the set of all the outcomes of an experiment
- Event space F: a collection of possible outcomes of an experiment. $F \subseteq \Omega$.
- Probability measure: a function $P: F \rightarrow R$ that satisfies the following properties:

•
$$P(A) \geq 0 \ \forall \ A \in F$$

•
$$P(\Omega)=1$$

• If A_1, A_2, \ldots are disjoint events, then $P(\cup_i A_i) = \sum_i P(A_i)$

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Properties of Probability

• If
$$A \subseteq B \Longrightarrow P(A) \leq P(B)$$

- $P(A \cap B) \leq \min(P(A), P(B))$
- $P(A \cup B) \leq P(A) + P(B)$ (Union Bound)
- $P(\Omega \setminus A) = 1 P(A)$
- If A_1, \ldots, A_k is a disjoint partition of Ω , then k

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} P(A_k) = 1$$

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Conditional Probability

- A conditional probability P(A|B)measures the probability of an event A after observing the occurrence of event B $P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$
- Two events A and B are independent iff P(A|B) = P(A) or equivalently, $P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B)$

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Conditional Probability Examples

- A math teacher gave her class two tests. 25% of the class passed both tests and 42% of the class passed the first test. What percent of those who passed the first test also passed the second test?
- In New England, 84% of the houses have a garage and 65% of the houses have a garage and a back yard. What is the probability that a house has a backyard given that it has a garage?

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Independent Events Examples

- What's the probability of getting a sequence of 1,2,3,4,5,6 if we roll a dice six times?
- A school survey found that 9 out of 10 students like pizza. If three students are chosen at random with replacement, what is the probability that all three students like pizza?

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Random Variable

A random variable X is a function that maps a sample space Ω to real values. Formally,

 $X: \Omega \longrightarrow R$

Examples:

- Rolling one dice
 X = number on the dice at each roll
- Rolling two dice at the same time
 X = sum of the two numbers

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Random Variable

- A random variable can be continuous. E.g.,
 - X = the length of a randomly selected phone call (What's the Ω?)
 - X = amount of coke left in a can marked 12oz (What's the Ω ?)

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Probability Mass Function

If X is a discrete random variable, we can specify a probability for each of its possible values using the probability mass function (*PMF*). Formally, a *PMF* is a function $p: \Omega \longrightarrow R$ such that

$$p(x) = P(X = x)$$

• Rolling a dice:
$$p(X = i) = \frac{1}{6}$$
 $i = 1, 2, ..., 6$

• Rolling two dice at the same time: X = sum of the two numbers $p(X = 2) = \frac{1}{36}$

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Probability Mass Function

•
$$X \sim Bernoulli(p), p \in [0, 1]$$

$$p(x) = \begin{cases} p & \text{if } x = 1\\ 1-p & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$$
• $X \sim Binomial(n, p), p \in [0, 1] \text{ and } n \in Z^+$

$$p(x) = \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x}$$
• $X \sim Geometric(p), p > 0$

$$p(x) = p(1-p)^{x-1}$$
• $X \sim Poisson(\lambda), \lambda > 0$

$$p(x) = e^{-\lambda \frac{\lambda^x}{x!}}$$

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Probability Density Function

- If X is a continuous random variable, we can NOT specify a probability for each of its possible values (why?)
- We use a probability density function *PDF* to describe the relative likelihood for a random variable to take on a given value
- A (*PDF*) specifies the probability of X takes a value within a range. Formally, a *PDF* is a function f(x): Ω → R such that

$$P(a < X < b) = \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx$$

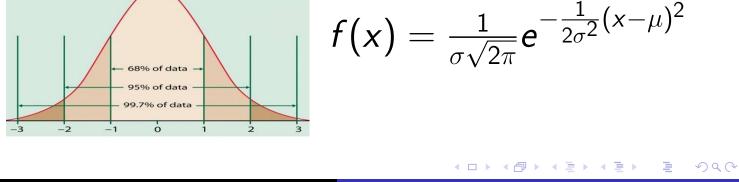
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Probability Density Function

•
$$X \sim \text{uniform on } [a, b]$$
:

$$\int f(x) = \text{height} = 1/(b-a)$$
• $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma)$:



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Joint Probability Mass Function

If we have two discrete random variables X, Y, we can define their joint probability mass function $(PMF) \ p_{XY} : R^2 \longrightarrow [0,1]$ as: p(x,y) = P(X = x, Y = y)where $p(x,y) \le 1$ and $\sum_{x \in X} \sum_{y \in Y} p(x,y) = 1$ • X, Y: rolling two dice $p(x,y) = \frac{1}{36}$ x, y = 1, 2, ..., 6

 X: rolling one dice Y: drawing a colored ball p(6, green) =? p(5, red) =?

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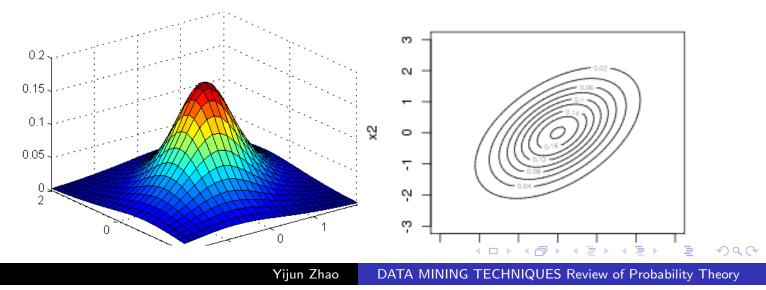
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Joint Probability Density Function

If we have two continuous random variables X, Y, we can define their joint probability density function $(PDF) f_{XY} : R^2 \longrightarrow [0, 1]$ as:

$$P(a < X < b, c < Y < d) = \int_c^d \int_a^b f(x, y) dx dy$$

• 2D Gaussian



Marginal Probability Mass Function

How does the joint *PMF* over two discrete variables relate to the *PMF* for each variable separately? It turns out that

$$p(x) = \sum_{y \in Y} p(x, y)$$

• X, Y: rolling two dice

$$p(x, y) = \frac{1}{36}$$
 $x, y = 1, 2, ..., 6$
 $p(x) = \sum_{y=1}^{6} p(x, y) = \frac{1}{6}$

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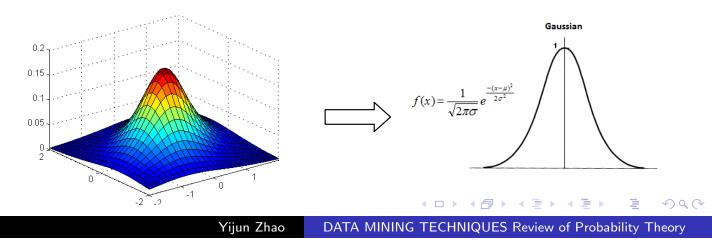
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Marginal Probability Density Function

Similarly, we can obtain a marginal *PDF* (also called marginal density) for a continuous random variable from a joint *PDF*:

$$f(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) dy$$

• Integrating out one variable in the 2D Gaussian gives a 1D Gaussian in either dimension



Conditional Probability Distribution

A conditional probability distribution defines the probability distribution over Y when we know that X must take on a certain value x

• Discrete case: conditional PMF

$$p(y|x) = \frac{p(x,y)}{p(x)} \iff p(x,y) = p(y|x)p(x)$$

Continuous case: conditional PDF

$$f(y|x) = \frac{f(x,y)}{f(x)} \iff f(x,y) = f(y|x)f(x)$$

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Marginal vs. Conditional

• Marginal probability:

$i \setminus j$	1	2	3	4	5	6	$p_X(i)$
1	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/6
2	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/6
3	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/6
4	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/6
5	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/6
6	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/6
$p_Y(j)$	1/6	1/6	1/6	1/6	1/6	1/6	

Conditional probability: probability of rolling a 2

$i \setminus j$	1	2	3	4	5	6	$p_X(i)$
1	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/6
2	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/6
3	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/6
4	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/6
5	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/36		1/36	
6	1/36	1/36	1/36	1/36		1/36	1/6
$p_Y(j)$	1/6	1/6	1/6	1/6	1/6	1/6	

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Bayes Rule

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Bayes Rule Application

A patient underwent a HIV test and got a positive result. Suppose we know that

- Overall risk of having HIV in the population is 0.1%
- The test can accurately identify 98% of HIV infected patients
- The test can accurately identify 99% of healthy patients

What's the probability the person indeed infected HIV?

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Bayes Rule - Application

We have two random variables here:

- $X \in \{+, -\}$: the outcome of the HIV test
- $C \in \{\mathbf{Y}, \mathbf{N}\}$: the patient has HIV or not

We want to know: P(C=Y|X=+)?

Apply Bayes rule:

$$P(C=\mathbf{Y}|X=+) = \frac{P(X=+|C=\mathbf{Y})P(C=\mathbf{Y})}{P(X=+)}$$

$$P(X=+|C=\mathbf{Y}) = 0.98 \qquad P(C=\mathbf{Y}) = 0.001$$

$$P(X=+) = 0.98 * 0.001 + (1-0.99) * 0.999 = 0.01097$$
Answer: 0.98 * 0.001/0.01097 = 8.9%

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Bayes Rule Terminology

$$P(Y|X) = \frac{P(X|Y)P(Y)}{P(X)}$$

P(Y): prior probability or, simply, prior

- P(X|Y): conditional probability or, likelihood
- P(X): marginal probability
- P(Y|X): posterior probability or, simply, posterior

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Independence

Two random variables X and Y are independent iff • For discrete random variables $p(x, y) = p(x)p(y) \quad \forall x \in X, y \in Y$ • For discrete random variables $p(y|x) = p(y) \quad \forall y \in Y \text{ and } p(x) \neq 0$ • For continuous random variables $f(x, y) = f(x)f(y) \quad \forall x, y \in R$ • For continuous random variables $f(y|x) = f(y) \quad \forall y \in R \text{ and } f(x) \neq 0$

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Multiple Random Variables

Extend to multiple random variables :

• Joint Distribution (discrete):

$$p(x_1,\ldots,x_n)=P(X1=x_1,\ldots,X_n=x_n)$$

• Conditional Distribution (chain rule - discrete) $p(x_1, ..., x_n) = p(x_n | x_1, ..., x_{n-1}) p(x_1, ..., x_{n-1})$ $= p(x_n | x_1, ..., x_{n-1}) p(x_{n-1} | x_1, ..., x_{n-2}) p(x_1, ..., x_{n-2})$ $= p(x_1) \prod_{i=2}^n p(x_i | x_1, ..., x_{i-1})$

(continuous case can be defined similarly using PDF)

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Multiple Random Variables

Independence:

Discrete case: X_1, \ldots, X_n are independent iff

$$p(x_1,\ldots,x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(x_i)$$

Continuous case: X_1, \ldots, X_n are independent iff

$$f(x_1,\ldots,x_n)=\prod_{i=1}^n f(x_i)$$

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Multiple Random Variables

• Bayes rule:

Discrete case:

$$p(x_n|x_1,\ldots,x_{n-1}) = \frac{p(x_1,\ldots,x_{n-1}|x_n)p(x_n)}{p(x_1,\ldots,x_{n-1})}$$

Continuous case:

$$f(x_n|x_1,...,x_{n-1}) = \frac{f(x_1,...,x_{n-1}|x_n)f(x_n)}{f(x_1,...,x_{n-1})}$$

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Probabilistic View of a Dataset

What about a dataset $S = \{(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), \ldots, (\mathbf{x}_N, y_N)\}$?

• We can view S as d + 1 random variables where d is the number of attributes in **x**, i.e.

$$X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_d, Y$$

- Uncover(model) p(x₁, x₂, ..., x_d, y) from the training data
- For ANY (x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n) , we will compute:

$$P(y = 0 | x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$$
 ?
 $P(y = 1 | x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$?

That is predicting y from \mathbf{x} !

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Review of Basic Statistical Concepts

- Statistical Inference
- Point Estimation
- Estimation Error
- Maximum Likelihood Estimate
- Expectation-Maximization (EM)
- Bayes Theorem
- Similarity and Evaluation Measures

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Statistical Inference

- More fundamental concepts
- Population

Sample

Statistical Inference

- Usually the population is not known completely.
- How to know its parameters?

Statistical Inference

- Usually the population is not known completely.
- We can obtain information about population parameters, by using samples drawn from it.
- Statistical inference deals with such problems. To draw conclusions or inferences about the
- limited information contained in the sample. unknown parameters of the populations from the
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Estimate

parameter, obtained by applying a formula An estimate is a numerical value of the unknown (estimator) to a particular sample.

If heta is a parameter, $\widehat{ heta}$ denotes its estimate

Estimator

A rule used to estimate a numerical value is called estimator.

The estimator of mean is given below: $\overline{X} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{X_i}{n}$

E.g., X_i is the height of person i.

Estimate vs. Estimator

obtained by applying an estimator, is: Example: Let a sample of size 5 be 2, 4, 5, 9, 10. Then an estimate of the population mean μ ,

$$\overline{X} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{X_i}{n} \longrightarrow \text{Estimator}$$

$$\overline{X} = \frac{2+4+5+9+10}{5}$$

$$\overline{X} = \frac{30}{5} = 6 \longrightarrow \text{Estimate}$$

Point Estimation Summary

- Point Estimate: to estimate a population parameter.
- May be made by calculating the parameter for a sample.

Point Estimation Summary

- Point Estimate: to estimate a population parameter.
- May be made by calculating the parameter for a sample.
- May be used to predict values for the missing data.
- □ **E.g.,**
- A company contains 100 employees
- 99 have salary information
- Mean salary of these is \$50,000
- Use \$50,000 as value of remaining employee's salary.

Point Estimation Summary

- Point Estimate: to estimate a population parameter.
- May be made by calculating the parameter for a sample.
- May be used to predict values for the missing data.
- □ **E.g.,**
- A company contains 100 employees
- 99 have salary information
- Mean salary of these is \$50,000
- Use \$50,000 as value of remaining employee's salary.
- Is this a good idea?

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Bias: Difference between expected value and actual value.

$$Bias = E(\hat{\Theta}) - \Theta$$

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Mean Squared Error (MSE): expected value of the actual value: squared difference between the estimate and the

$$MSE(\hat{\Theta}) = E(\hat{\Theta} - \Theta)^2$$

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Why square?

Bias: Difference between expected value and actual value.

$$Bias = E(\hat{\Theta}) - \Theta$$

Mean Squared Error (MSE): expected value of the actual value: squared difference between the estimate and the

$$MSE(\hat{\Theta}) = E(\hat{\Theta} - \Theta)^2$$

Why square? Root Mean Square Error (RMSE)

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Maximum Likelihood Estimate (MLE)

Obtain parameter estimates that maximize the specific model. probability that the sample data occurs for the

Maximum Likelihood Estimate (MLE)

- Obtain parameter estimates that maximize the probability that the sample data occurs for the specific model.
- Joint probability for observing the sample data by multiplying the individual probabilities.

Likelihood function:

$$L(\Theta \mid x_1, ..., x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n f(x_i \mid \Theta)$$

Maximize L.

Maximum Likelihood Estimate (MLE)

- Obtain parameter estimates that maximize the probability that the sample data occurs for the specific model.
- Joint probability for observing the sample data by multiplying the individual probabilities.

Likelihood function:

$$L(\Theta \mid x_1, ..., x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n f(x_i \mid \Theta)$$

Maximize L.

There is an assumption here. What is it?

MLE Example

- Coin toss five times: {H, H, H, H, T}
- Assuming a perfect coin with H and T equally likely, the likelihood of this sequence is:

$$L(p \mid 1, 1, 1, 1, 0) = \prod_{i=1}^{5} 0.5 = 0.03.$$

MLE Example

- Coin toss five times: {H, H, H, H, T}
- Assuming a perfect coin with H and T equally likely, the likelihood of this sequence is:

$$L(p \mid 1, 1, 1, 1, 0) = \prod_{i=1}^{5} 0.5 = 0.03.$$

However if the probability of a H is 0.8 then:

$$L(p \mid 1, 1, 1, 1, 0) = 0.8 \times 0.8 \times 0.8 \times 0.8 \times 0.2 = 0.08.$$

MLE Example

- Coin toss five times: {H, H, H, H, T}
- Assuming a perfect coin with H and T equally likely, the likelihood of this sequence is:

$$L(p \mid 1, 1, 1, 1, 0) = \prod_{i=1}^{5} 0.5 = 0.03.$$

- However if the probability of a H is 0.8 then:
- $L(p \mid 1, 1, 1, 1, 0) = 0.8 \times 0.8 \times 0.8 \times 0.8 \times 0.2 = 0.08.$
- How do we estimate the probability of a H?

General likelihood formula:

$$L(p \mid x_1, ..., x_5) = \prod_{i=1}^5 p^{x_i} (1-p)^{1-x_i} = p^{\sum_{i=1}^5 x_i} (1-p)^{5-\sum_{i=1}^5 x_i}.$$

General likelihood formula:

$$L(p \mid x_1, ..., x_5) = \prod_{i=1}^5 p^{x_i} (1-p)^{1-x_i} = p \sum_{i=1}^5 x_i (1-p)^{5-\sum_{i=1}^5 x_i}.$$
$$l(p) = \log L(p) = \sum_{i=1}^5 x_i \log(p) + (5-\sum_{i=1}^5 x_i) \log(1-p).$$

General likelihood formula:

$$L(p \mid x_1, ..., x_5) = \prod_{i=1}^5 p^{x_i} (1-p)^{1-x_i} = p^{\sum_{i=1}^5 x_i} (1-p)^{5-\sum_{i=1}^5 x_i}.$$
$$l(p) = \log L(p) = \sum_{i=1}^5 x_i \log(p) + (5-\sum_{i=1}^5 x_i) \log(1-p)$$
$$\frac{\partial l(p)}{\partial p} = \sum_{i=1}^5 \frac{x_i}{p} - \frac{5-\sum_{i=1}^5 x_i}{1-p}.$$

General likelihood formula:

$$L(p \mid x_1, ..., x_5) = \prod_{i=1}^5 p^{x_i} (1-p)^{1-x_i} = p^{\sum_{i=1}^5 x_i} (1-p)^{5-\sum_{i=1}^5 x_i}.$$
$$l(p) = \log L(p) = \sum_{i=1}^5 x_i \log(p) + (5-\sum_{i=1}^5 x_i) \log(1-p)$$
$$\frac{\partial l(p)}{\partial p} = \sum_{i=1}^5 \frac{x_i}{p} - \frac{5-\sum_{i=1}^5 x_i}{1-p}.$$
$$p = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^5 x_i}{5}$$

MLE Estimate for p is then 4/5 = 0.8

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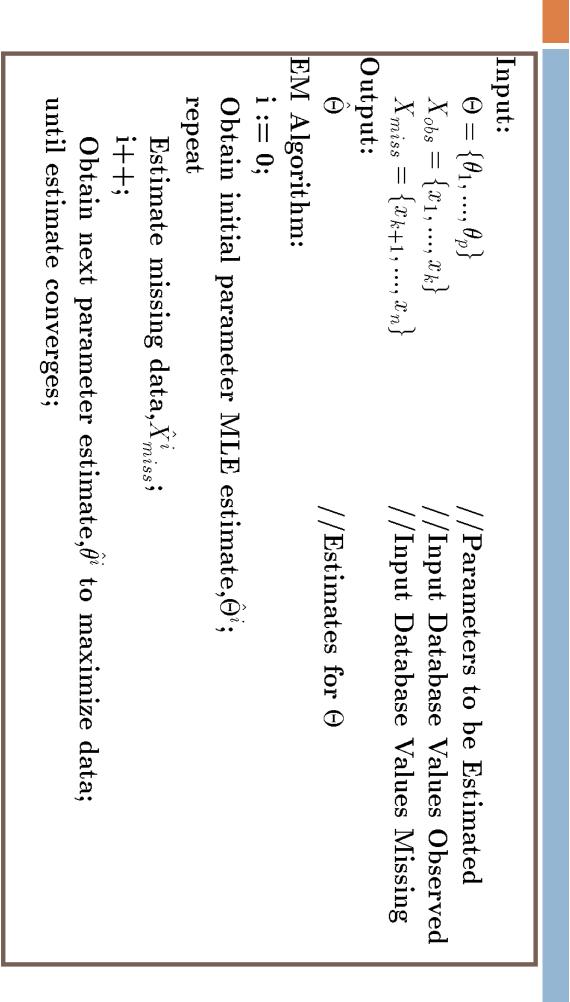
Expectation-Maximization (EM)

- Solves estimation with incomplete data.
- Key Idea:
- Obtain initial estimates for parameters.
- Iteratively use estimates for missing data and continue until convergence.

EM Example

$$\{1, 5, 10, 4\}; n = 6 \ k = 4; \ \mathbf{Guess} \ \hat{\mu}^0 = 3.$$
$$\hat{\mu}^1 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^k x_i}{n} + \frac{\sum_{i=k+1}^n x_i}{n} = 3.33 + \frac{3+3}{6} = 4.33$$
$$\hat{\mu}^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^k x_i}{n} + \frac{\sum_{i=k+1}^n x_i}{n} = 3.33 + \frac{4.33 + 4.33}{6} = 4.77$$
$$\hat{\mu}^3 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^k x_i}{n} + \frac{\sum_{i=k+1}^n x_i}{n} = 3.33 + \frac{4.77 + 4.77}{6} = 4.92$$
$$\hat{\mu}^4 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^k x_i}{n} + \frac{\sum_{i=k+1}^n x_i}{n} = 3.33 + \frac{4.92 + 4.92}{6} = 4.97$$

EM Algorithm



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Bayes Theorem Example

- Credit authorizations (hypotheses): h₁=authorize authorize but contact police identification, h_3 =do not authorize, h_4 = do not purchase, $h_2 =$ authorize after further
- Task: Assign a label for each combination of credit (col.) and income (row):

	1	2	ω	4
Excellent	X_1	X 2	X 3	X4
Good	X 5	Ъ	X7	X8
Bad	εX	X10	X_{11}	X 12

Training Data:

		8 2	7 3	6 2	54	4 3	3 2	23	1 4	ID In
										Income
Bad	Bad	Bad	Bad	Excellent	Good	Good	Excellent	Good	Excellent	Credit
h₄	h ₃	h_2	h ₂	h ₁	h ₁	h ₁	h ₁	h ₁	h1	Class
Xo	X ₁₁	X 10	X ₁₁	X ₂	X 8	X ₇	X ₂	X ₇	X ₄	×i

From training data:

 $P(h_1) = \hat{e}_i P(h_2) = \hat{e}_i P(h_3) = \hat{e}_i P(h_4) = \hat{e}_i$

Training Data:

Ð	Income	Credit	Class
_	4	Excellent	h_1
2	З	Good	h ₁
З	2	Excellent	h ₁
4	3	Good	h ₁
5	4	Good	h ₁
9	2	Excellent	h ₁
7	3	Bad	h_2
8	2	Bad	h ₂
6	3	Bad	h ₃
10		Bad	h ₄

From training data:

 $P(h_1) = 60\%; P(h_2) = 20\%; P(h_3) = 10\%; P(h_4) = 10\%.$

\Box How to predict the class for X_4 ?

¯	Income	Credit	Class
-	4	Excellent	h ₁
Ν	ယ	Good	h ₁
ω	2	Excellent	h ₁ X ₂
4	3	Good	
ე	4	Good	h ₁
6	2	Excellent	$h_1 X_2$
7	3	Bad	h_2
ω	2	Bad	h_2
9	З	Bad	h ₃
10	—	Bad	h ₄

 \Box How to predict the class for X_4 ? Calculate P(h_i | X₄) for all h_i.

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	class	
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	value.	

ె	Income	Credit	Class
	4	Excellent	μ
2	3	Good	۲
ω	2	Excellent	μ
4	3	Good	
ъ	4	Good	
6	2	Excellent	h₁
7	3	Bad	
8	2	Bad	
9	ω	Bad	
10	1	Bad	

- How to predict the class for X_4 ?
- **Calculate** $P(h_i | X_4)$ for all h_i .
- Place X₄ in class with largest value.
- In Math:

$P(h_1 | x_4) = (P(x_4 | h_1)(P(h_1))/P(x_4))$ =(1/6)(0.6)/0.1=1.

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10	9	ω	7	თ	J	4	ω	2	1	₽
<u> </u>	ယ	2	ယ	2	4	ယ	2	ယ	4	Income
Bad	Bad	Bad	Bad	Excellent	Good	Good	Excellent	Good	Excellent	Credit
h ₄	h_3	h_2	h_2	h,	Ļ	h	h	h	h ₁	Class
\mathbf{X}_{9}	X 11	X 10	X ₁₁	X_2	×®	X 7	X_2	X 7	X_4	<u>×</u>

- How to predict the class for X_4 ?
- **Calculate** $P(h_i | X_4)$ for all h_i .
- Place X₄ in class with largest value.

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Excellent | h₁

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Bad Bad Bad

Bad

h₄ h_3 h_2

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Excellent h₁ Credit

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Income

Class X_i

4

Good Good

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In Math:











Review of Basic Statistical Concepts

- Statistical Inference
- Point Estimation
- Estimation Error
- Maximum Likelihood Estimate
- Expectation-Maximization (EM)
- Bayes Theorem
- Similarity and Evaluation Measures

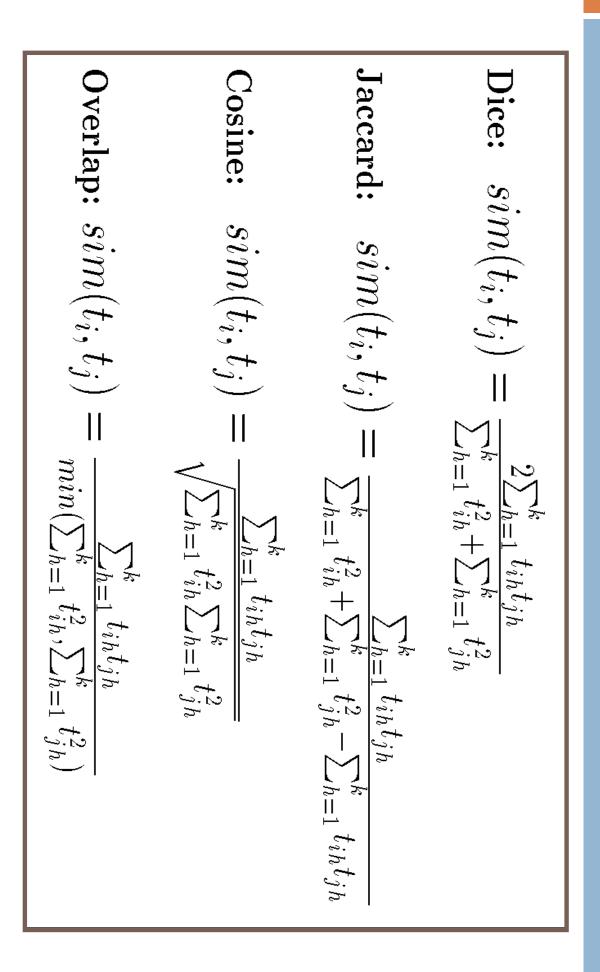
Similarity Measures

- Determine similarity between two objects.
- Similarity characteristics:

```
• \forall t_i, t_j, t_k \in D, sim(t_i, t_j) < sim(t_i, t_k) if t_i is more like t_k than it is like t_j.
                                                                                                                                                     • \forall t_i, t_j \in D, sim(t_i, t_j) = 0 if t_i and t_j are not alike at all.
                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                        \forall t_i \in D, sim(t_i, t_i) = 1
```

Alternatively, distance measure measures how unlike or dissimilar objects are.





Distance Measures

Measure dissimilarity between objects

Euclidean:
$$dis(t_i, t_j) = \sqrt{\sum_{h=1}^k (t_{ih} - t_{jh})^2}$$

Manhattan: $dis(t_i, t_j) = \sum_{h=1}^k |(t_{ih} - t_{jh})|$

Distance Measures

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Why is it called Manhattan distance?

References

Previous CSE 5243 course offered by Prof. Srinivasan Parthasarathy @OSU:

http://web.cse.ohio-state.edu/~parthasarathy.2/674/

Point Estimation on SlidesShare:

https://www.slideshare.net/ShahabYaseen/point-estimation-48241348