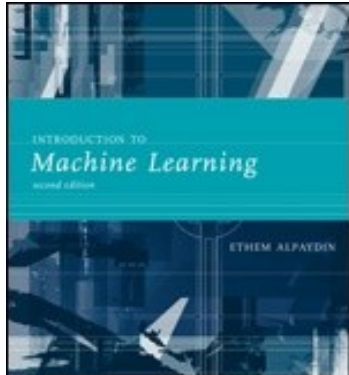


Lecture Slides for

INTRODUCTION TO

# Machine Learning

2nd Edition



ETHEM ALPAYDIN, modified by Leonardo Bobadilla  
and some parts from  
<http://www.cs.tau.ac.il/~apartzin/MachineLearning/>  
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# Outline

Last Class: Ch 2 Supervised Learning (Sec 2.1-2.4)  
Learning Multiple Classes  
Regression  
Model Selection and Generalization  
Dimensions of a Supervised Learning

This class:

- Bayes theorem
- Losses and risks
- Discriminant functions
- Association Rules

CHAPTER 3:

# Bayesian Decision Theory

# Making Decision Under Uncertainty

- Probability theory is the framework for making decisions under uncertainty.
- Use Bayes rule to calculate the probability of the classes
- Make rational decision among multiple actions to minimize expected risk
- Learning association rules from data

# Unobservable variables

- Tossing a coin is completely random process, can't predict the outcome
- Only can talk about the probabilities that the outcome of the next toss will be head or tails
- If we have access to extra knowledge (exact composition of the coin, initial position, force etc.) the exact outcome of the toss can be predicted

# Unobservable Variable

- Unobservable variable is the extra knowledge that we don't have access to
- Coin toss: the only observable variables is the outcome of the toss
- $x=f(z)$ ,  $z$  is unobservables ,  $x$  is observables
- $f$  is deterministic function

# Bernoulli Random Variable

- Result of tossing a coin is  $\in \{\text{Heads}, \text{Tails}\}$
- Define a random variable  $X \in \{1, 0\}$
- $p_o$  the probability of heads
- $P(X = 1) = p_o$  and  $P(X = 0) = 1 - P(X = 1) = 1 - p_o$
- Assume asked to predict the next toss
- If know  $p_o$  we would predict heads if  $p_o > 1/2$
- Choose more probable case to minimize probability of the error  $1 - p_o$

# Estimation

- What if we don't know  $P(X)$
- Want to estimate from given data (sample)  $\mathcal{X}$
- Realm of statistics
- Sample  $\mathcal{X}$  generated from probability distribution of the observables  $x^t$
- Want to build an approximator  $\underline{p}(x)$  using sample  $\mathcal{X}$
- In coin toss example: sample is outcomes of past  $N$  tosses and in distribution is characterized by single parameter  $p_o$



# Parameter Estimation

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$$\hat{p}_o = \frac{\#\{\text{tosses with outcome heads}\}}{\#\{\text{tosses}\}}$$

$$\mathcal{X} = \{1, 1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 0, 1, 1\}$$

$$\hat{p}_o = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^N x^t}{N} = \frac{6}{9}$$

# Classification

- Credit scoring: two classes – high risk and low risk
- Decide on observable information: (income and saving)
- Have reasons to believe that these 2 variable gives us idea about the credibility of a customer
- Represent by two random variable  $X_1$  and  $X_2$
- Can't observe customer intentions and moral codes
- Can observe credibility of a past customer
- Bernoulli random variable  $C$  conditioned on  $X=[X_1, X_2]^T$
- Assume we know  $P(C|X_1, X_2)$

# Classification

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- Assume know  $P(C | X_1, X_2)$
- New applications  $X_1=x_1, X_2=x_2$

$$\text{choose} \begin{cases} C = 1 & \text{if } P(C = 1 | x_1, x_2) > 0.5 \\ C = 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

or equivalently

$$\text{choose} \begin{cases} C = 1 & \text{if } P(C = 1 | x_1, x_2) > P(C = 0 | x_1, x_2) \\ C = 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

# Classification

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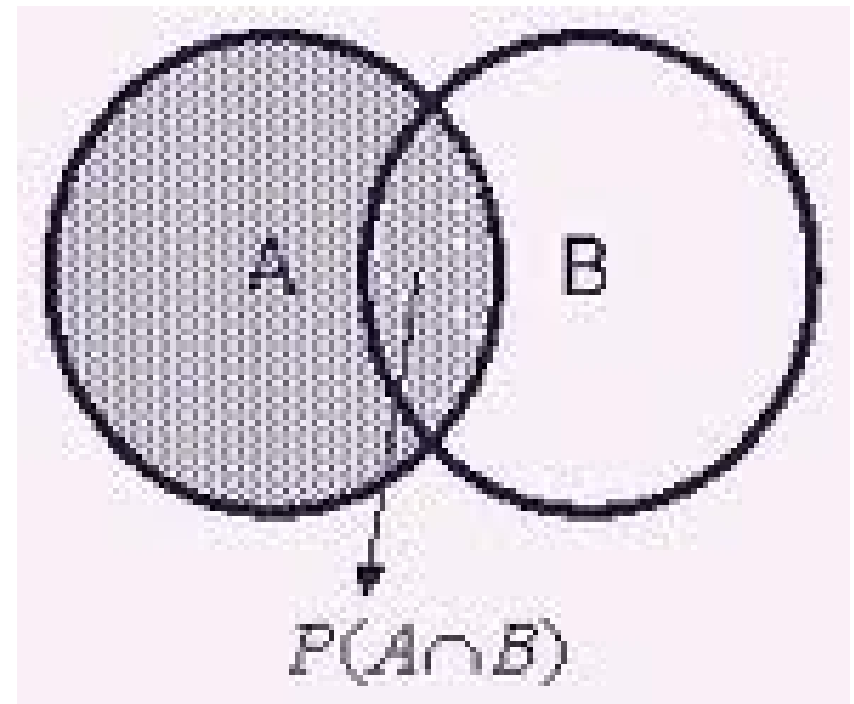
The probability of error is  $1 - \max(P(C = 1|x_1, x_2), P(C = 0|x_1, x_2))$ .

- Similar to coin toss but  $C$  is conditioned on two other observable variables  $x=[x_1, x_2]^T$
- The problem : Calculate  $P(C|x)$
- Use Bayes rule

# Conditional Probability

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- Probability of A (point will be inside A) if we know that B happens (point is inside B)
- $P(A|B) = P(A \cap B) / P(B)$



# Bayes Rule

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- $P(A|B) = P(A \cap B) / P(B)$
- $P(B|A) = P(A \cap B) / P(A) \Rightarrow P(A \cap B) = P(B|A) * P(A)$

$$\text{– } P(A|B) = P(B|A) * P(A) / P(B)$$

# Bayes Rule

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The diagram shows the Bayes Rule equation with labels and arrows indicating the components:

$$\textit{posterior} \rightarrow P(C | \mathbf{x}) = \frac{\textit{prior} \ P(C) \ \textit{likelihood} \ p(\mathbf{x} | C)}{\textit{evidence} \ p(\mathbf{x})}$$

Labels and arrows:

- posterior*: points to  $P(C | \mathbf{x})$
- prior*: points to  $P(C)$
- likelihood*: points to  $p(\mathbf{x} | C)$
- evidence*: points to  $p(\mathbf{x})$

- **Prior**: probability of a customer is high risk regardless of  $x$ .
- Knowledge we have as to the value of  $C$  before looking at observables  $x$

# Bayes Rule

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The diagram shows the Bayes Rule equation with labels and arrows indicating the components:

$$\textit{posterior} \rightarrow P(C | \mathbf{x}) = \frac{\textit{prior} \ P(C) \ \textit{likelihood} \ p(\mathbf{x} | C)}{\textit{evidence} \ p(\mathbf{x})}$$

Labels and arrows:   
- *posterior* points to  $P(C | \mathbf{x})$    
- *prior* points to  $P(C)$    
- *likelihood* points to  $p(\mathbf{x} | C)$    
- *evidence* points to  $p(\mathbf{x})$

- **Likelihood:** probability that event in C will have observable X
- $P(x_1, x_2 | C=1)$  is the probability that a high-risk customer has his  $X_1=x_1, X_2=x_2$



# Bayes Rule

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The diagram shows the Bayes Rule equation with labels and arrows indicating the components:

$$\textit{posterior} \rightarrow P(C | \mathbf{x}) = \frac{\textit{prior} \ P(C) \ \textit{likelihood} \ p(\mathbf{x} | C)}{\textit{evidence} \ p(\mathbf{x})}$$

- Evidence:  $P(\mathbf{x})$  probability that observation  $\mathbf{x}$  is seen regardless if positive or negative

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_C p(\mathbf{x}, C) = p(\mathbf{x} | C = 1)P(C = 1) + p(\mathbf{x} | C = 0)P(C = 0)$$

# Bayes' Rule

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$$\begin{array}{c} \text{posterior} \\ \curvearrowright P(C | \mathbf{x}) = \frac{\overset{\text{prior}}{P(C)} \overset{\text{likelihood}}{p(\mathbf{x} | C)}}{\underset{\text{evidence}}{p(\mathbf{x})}} \end{array}$$

$$P(C = 0) + P(C = 1) = 1$$

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = p(\mathbf{x} | C = 1)P(C = 1) + p(\mathbf{x} | C = 0)P(C = 0)$$

$$p(C = 0 | \mathbf{x}) + p(C = 1 | \mathbf{x}) = 1$$

# Bayes Rule for classification

- Assume know : prior, evidence and likelihood
- Will learn how to estimate them from the data later
- Plug them in into Bayes formula to obtain  $P(C|x)$
- Choose  $C=1$  if  $P(C=1|x) > P(c=0|x)$

# Bayes Rule for classification

$$\text{posterior} = \frac{\text{prior} \times \text{likelihood}}{\text{evidence}}$$

# Bayes' Rule: $K > 2$ Classes

$$\begin{aligned} P(C_i | \mathbf{x}) &= \frac{p(\mathbf{x} | C_i) P(C_i)}{p(\mathbf{x})} \\ &= \frac{p(\mathbf{x} | C_i) P(C_i)}{\sum_{k=1}^K p(\mathbf{x} | C_k) P(C_k)} \end{aligned}$$

$$P(C_i) \geq 0 \text{ and } \sum_{i=1}^K P(C_i) = 1$$

choose  $C_i$  if  $P(C_i | \mathbf{x}) = \max_k P(C_k | \mathbf{x})$

# Bayes' Rule

$$\begin{aligned} P(C_i | \mathbf{x}) &= \frac{p(\mathbf{x} | C_i) P(C_i)}{p(\mathbf{x})} \\ &= \frac{p(\mathbf{x} | C_i) P(C_i)}{\sum_{k=1}^K p(\mathbf{x} | C_k) P(C_k)} \end{aligned}$$

- Deciding on specific input  $\mathbf{x}$
- $P(\mathbf{x})$  is the same for all classes
- Don't need it to compare posterior

# Losses and Risks

- Decisions/Errors are not equally good or costly
- e.g. an accepted low-risk applicant increases profit, while a rejected high-risk decreases loss.
- However, the loss for a high-risk applicant accepted can be different from loss from incorrectly rejecting low-risk applicant
- What about other domains like medical diagnosis or earthquake prediction?

# Losses and Risks

- Actions:  $\alpha_i$  is assignment to class  $i$
- Loss of  $\alpha_i$  when the state is  $C_k$  :  $\lambda_{ik}$
- Expected risk (Duda and Hart, 1973)

$$R(\alpha_i | x) = \sum_{k=1}^K \lambda_{ik} P(C_k | x)$$

$$\text{choose } \alpha_i \text{ if } R(\alpha_i | x) = \min_k R(\alpha_k | x)$$



# Losses and Risks: 0/1 Loss

$$\lambda_{ik} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i = k \\ 1 & \text{if } i \neq k \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{aligned} R(\alpha_i \mid \mathbf{x}) &= \sum_{k=1}^K \lambda_{ik} P(C_k \mid \mathbf{x}) \\ &= \sum_{k \neq i} P(C_k \mid \mathbf{x}) \\ &= 1 - P(C_i \mid \mathbf{x}) \end{aligned}$$

*For minimum risk, choose the most probable class*

# Losses and Risks: Reject

- In some applications, wrong decisions (misclassification have high cost)
- Manual decision is made if the system has low uncertainty
- An additional action *reject* or *doubt* is added.

# Losses and Risks: Reject

$$\lambda_{ik} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i=k \\ \lambda & \text{if } i=K+1, \quad 0 < \lambda < 1 \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$R(\alpha_{K+1} | x) = \sum_{k=1}^K \lambda P(C_k | x) = \lambda$$

$$R(\alpha_i | x) = \sum_{k \neq i} P(C_k | x) = 1 - P(C_i | x)$$

# Losses and Risks: Reject

The optimal decision rule is to

choose  $C_i$     if  $R(\alpha_i|\mathbf{x}) < R(\alpha_k|\mathbf{x})$  for all  $k \neq i$  and

$$R(\alpha_i|\mathbf{x}) < R(\alpha_{K+1}|\mathbf{x})$$

reject        if  $R(\alpha_{K+1}|\mathbf{x}) < R(\alpha_i|\mathbf{x}), i = 1, \dots, K$

choose  $C_i$     if  $P(C_i|\mathbf{x}) > P(C_k|\mathbf{x}) \quad \forall k \neq i$  and  $P(C_i|\mathbf{x}) > 1 - \lambda$

reject otherwise

# Discriminant Functions

- Define a function  $g_i(x)$  for each class ( “goodness” of selecting class  $C_i$  given observables  $x$ )

choose  $C_i$  if  $g_i(x) = \max_k g_k(x)$

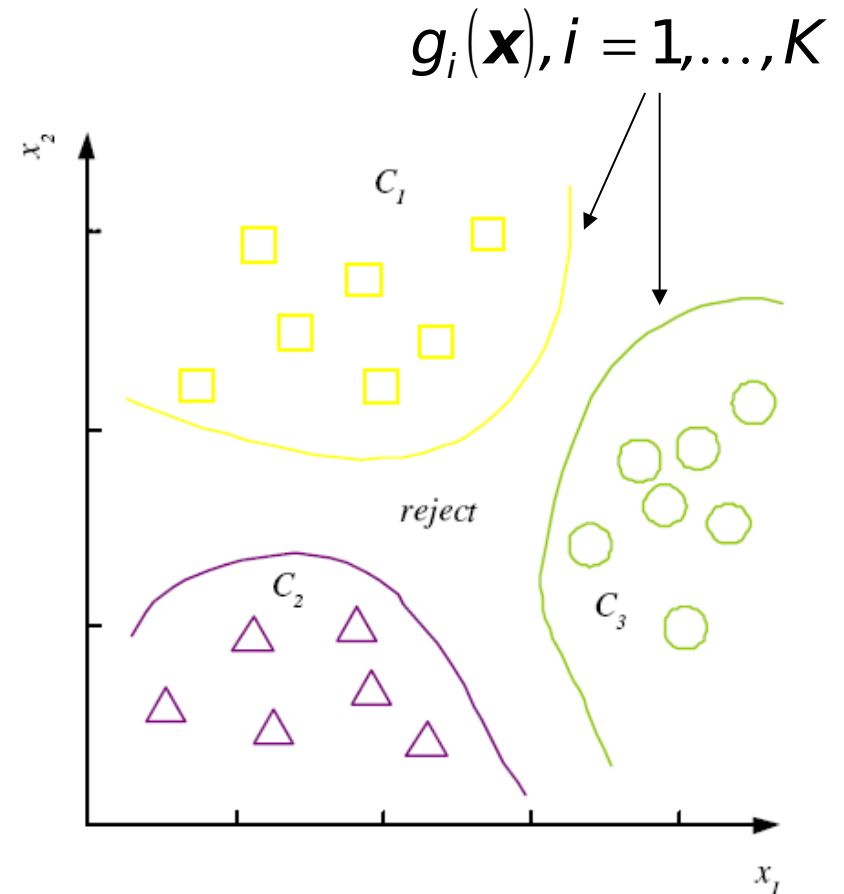
$$g_i(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{cases} -R(\alpha_i | \mathbf{x}) \\ P(C_i | \mathbf{x}) \\ p(\mathbf{x} | C_i) P(C_i) \end{cases}$$

- Maximum discriminant corresponds to minimum conditional risk

# Decision Regions

$K$  decision regions  $R_1, \dots, R_K$

$$R_i = \{\mathbf{x} \mid g_i(\mathbf{x}) = \max_k g_k(\mathbf{x})\}$$



# K=2 Classes

- $g(\mathbf{x}) = g_1(\mathbf{x}) - g_2(\mathbf{x})$

$$\text{choose} \begin{cases} C_1 & \text{if } g(\mathbf{x}) > 0 \\ C_2 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- *Log odds:*

$$\log \frac{P(C_1 | \mathbf{x})}{P(C_2 | \mathbf{x})}$$

# Association Rules

- Association rule:  $X \rightarrow Y$   
X is called the antecedent  
Y is called the consequent
- People who buy X typically also buy Y
- If there is a customer who buy X and does not buy Y, he is a potential Y customer



# Association Rules

- Association rule:  $X \rightarrow Y$
- **Support** ( $X \rightarrow Y$ ):

$$P(X, Y) = \frac{\#\{\text{customers who bought } X \text{ and } Y\}}{\#\{\text{customers}\}}$$

- **Confidence** ( $X \rightarrow Y$ ):

$$\begin{aligned} P(Y | X) &= \frac{P(X, Y)}{P(X)} \\ &= \frac{\#\{\text{customers who bought } X \text{ and } Y\}}{\#\{\text{customers who bought } X\}} \end{aligned}$$

# Association Rules

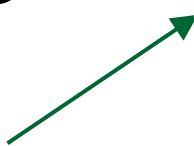
Transaction number	Items
0	soy milk, lettuce
1	lettuce, diapers, wine, chard
2	soy milk, diapers, wine, orange juice
3	lettuce, soy milk, diapers, wine
4	lettuce, soy milk, diapers, orange juice

Calculate support for {soy milk,diapers}

Calculate confidence for {diapers->wine}

Find all the set of items with support greater than 0.5 How to do that?

# An example



t1:	Beef, Chicken, Milk
t2:	Beef, Cheese
t3:	Cheese, Boots
t4:	Beef, Chicken, Cheese
t5:	Beef, Chicken, Clothes, Cheese, Milk
t6:	Chicken, Clothes, Milk
t7:	Chicken, Milk, Clothes

- Transaction data
- Assume:

$\text{minsup} = 0.3$

$\text{minconf} = 0.8\%$

- An example **frequent itemset**:

{Chicken, Clothes, Milk} [sup = 3/7]

- **Association rules** from the itemset:

Clothes  $\rightarrow$  Milk, Chicken [sup = 3/7, conf = 3/3]

... ..

Clothes, Chicken  $\rightarrow$  Milk, [sup = 3/7, conf = 3/3]

# Association Rule

- Only one customer bought chips
- Same customer bought beer
- $P(C|B)=1$
- But support is tiny
- Support shows statistical significance

# Finding Association Rules

- Step 1: Finding frequent item sets, those which have enough support
- Step 2: Converting them to rules with enough confidence

$2^n$

-

# Step 1: A priori principle

- Suppose that we have 4 products {0,1,2,3},
- How to calculate the support for a given set.
  - Go to every transaction, check if {0,3} is present then divide by the number of transactions
- What are the possible combinations of items?
-

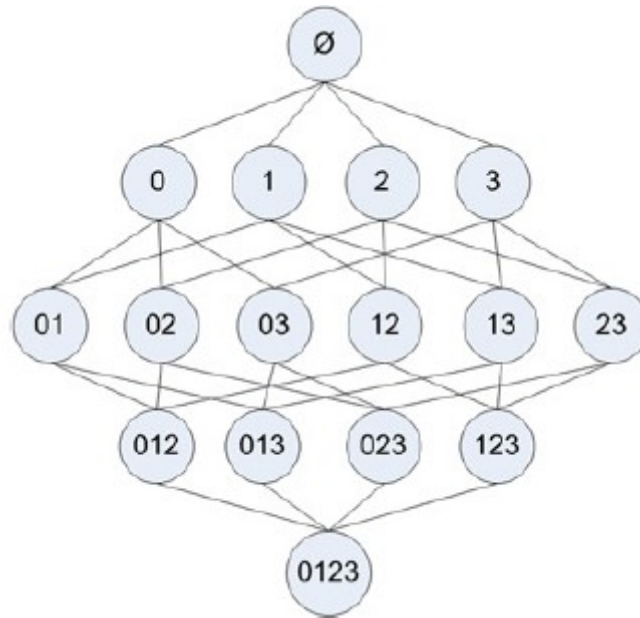
# A priori principle

- Suppose that we have 4 products {0,1,2,3},
- How to calculate the support for a given set.
  - Go to every transaction, check if {0,3} is present then divide by the number of transactions
- what are the possible combinations of items?

$$2^n$$

Only 100 items will generate  $1.26 \times 10^{30}$  possibilities.

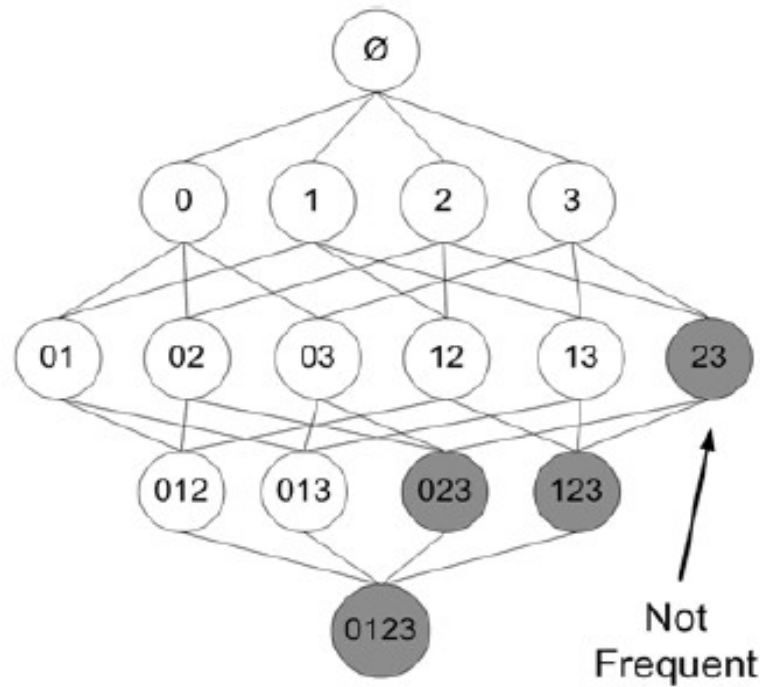
# Step 1: A priori principle



If an item set is frequent, all its subsets are frequent



# A priori principle



If a subset is infrequent, the set is infrequent

Dataset T

minsup=0.5

TID	Items
T100	1, 3, 4
T200	2, 3, 5
T300	1, 2, 3, 5
T400	2, 5

# 1: Finding frequent itemsets

itemset:count

1. scan T  $\rightarrow C_1$ : {1}:2, {2}:3, {3}:3, {4}:1, {5}:3

$\rightarrow F_1$ : {1}:2, {2}:3, {3}:3, {5}:3

$\rightarrow C_2$ : {1,2}, {1,3}, {1,5}, {2,3}, {2,5}, {3,5}

2. scan T  $\rightarrow C_2$ : {1,2}:1, {1,3}:2, {1,5}:1, {2,3}:2, {2,5}:3, {3,5}:2

$\rightarrow F_2$ : {1,3}:2, {2,3}:2, {2,5}:3, {3,5}:2

$\rightarrow C_3$ : {2, 3,5}

3. scan T  $\rightarrow C_3$ : {2, 3, 5}:2  $\rightarrow F_3$ : {2, 3, 5}

## Step 2: Generating rules from frequent itemsets

- Frequent itemsets  $\neq$  association rules
- One more step is needed to generate association rules
- For each frequent itemset  $X$ ,  
For each proper nonempty subset  $A$  of  $X$ ,
  - Let  $B = X - A$
  - $A \rightarrow B$  is an association rule if
    - $\text{Confidence}(A \rightarrow B) \geq \text{minconf}$ ,  
$$\text{confidence}(A \rightarrow B) = \text{support}(A, B) / \text{support}(A)$$

# Generating rules: an example

- Suppose  $\{2,3,4\}$  is frequent, with  $\text{sup}=50\%$ 
  - Proper nonempty subsets:  $\{2,3\}$ ,  $\{2,4\}$ ,  $\{3,4\}$ ,  $\{2\}$ ,  $\{3\}$ ,  $\{4\}$ , with  $\text{sup}=50\%$ ,  $50\%$ ,  $75\%$ ,  $75\%$ ,  $75\%$ ,  $75\%$  respectively
  - These generate these association rules:
    - $2,3 \rightarrow 4$ , confidence=100%
    - $2,4 \rightarrow 3$ , confidence=100%
    - $3,4 \rightarrow 2$ , confidence=67%
    - $2 \rightarrow 3,4$ , confidence=67%
    - $3 \rightarrow 2,4$ , confidence=67%
    - $4 \rightarrow 2,3$ , confidence=67%
    - All rules have support = 50%

# Generating rules: summary

- To recap, in order to obtain  $A \rightarrow B$ , we need to have  $\text{support}(A,B)$  and  $\text{support}(A)$
- All the required information for confidence computation has already been recorded in itemset generation. No need to see the data  $T$  any more.
- This step is not as time-consuming as frequent itemsets generation.