# <span id="page-0-0"></span>Machine Learning (Bayesian Classifier for continuous Attributes)

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## Continuous Attribute Vectors

 $\Rightarrow$  In continuous attributes, e.g. age, percentile marks, speed of car, temperature values, relative frequency is impractical.

 $\Rightarrow$  Let a population of 900, we want to find, given one person as sample, to what age he/she belongs? But, there can be infinite number of ages. So, we divide ages in 10 intervals (0, 10], ..., (90, 100], like 10 different attributes.

 $\Rightarrow$  Frequency count in age interval  $a_1$  to  $a_{10}$  represented by  $\mathsf{X}' \times \mathsf{S}$  signs, one  $\mathsf{X}' \times \mathsf{S}$  is population of 30. Population at (30, 40]

$$
(a_4)
$$
 is  $4 \times 30 = 120$ .



<span id="page-1-0"></span>Figure 1: (a) Population at each age intervals, (b) Histogram plot of age interval  $x$  versus population density  $p(x)$ 

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<span id="page-2-1"></span> $\Rightarrow$  In histogram, each step i corresponds to population count in interval  $a_i$ . A function  $p(x)$ , has value in *i*th slot as  $N_i/N$ . So,  $\frac{\sum N_i}{N} = 1$ .

 $\Rightarrow$  We may shorten the interval in the histogram by increasing count of intervals, and ensure that number of persons in each slot are sufficient for reliable probability estimates.

 $\Rightarrow$  In a general case, we keep reducing the length of interval until it becomes infinitesimally small, plot (Fig. [1\)](#page-1-0) becomes a continuous function  $p(x)$ (Fig. [2\)](#page-2-0). High and low count refers to density of people, so  $p(x)$  is probability density function (pdf).



<span id="page-2-0"></span>Function (Bell curve)



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## <span id="page-3-0"></span>Continuous Attribute Vectors...

 $\Rightarrow$  In Fig. [2,](#page-2-0) slot "a to b" is probability of  $x \in [a, b]$ . It is relative size of the area under this section of pdf curve.

 $\Rightarrow$   $p(x)$  is probability at x. If pdf has been created exclusively from examples in class  $c_i$  then this probability is  $p_{c_i}(x)$ , in discrete attributes it was  $P(\mathbf{x}|c_i)$ .

Bayes Formula for Continuous Attributes: In pdf it is possible to use Bayes formula. Now, conditional probability  $P(x|c_i)$  becomes  $p_{c_i}(x)$ , and  $P(x)$  becomes  $p(x)$ . For single attribute  $x$ , Bayes formula is:

$$
P(c_i|x) = \frac{p_{c_i}(x).P(c_i)}{p(x)}, \quad (1)
$$

 $\Rightarrow P(c_i) =$  Estimated relative freq. of class  $c_i$  in training set,  $p(x) =$  pdf due to all training examples,  $\mathit{p}_{c_{i}}(x) = \mathsf{pdf}$  due to training examples in class  $c_i$ .

⇒ We assume attributes as mutually exclusive. For a vector  $\mathbf{x} = \{x_1, ..., x_n\}$ , pdf is:

$$
p_{c_j}(\mathbf{x}) = \prod_{i=1}^n p_{c_j}(x_i) \qquad (2)
$$

## <span id="page-4-0"></span>Bayes Formula for Continuous Attributes ...

 $\Rightarrow$  After discritizing continuous attribute we get approximate pdf. We can also use standard probability model, known as Gaussian function. Shape of the function is "bell" function (Fig. [2\)](#page-2-0), maximum is at  $x = \mu$ (mean), towards both directions height decreases. Gaussian curve can be represented by:

<span id="page-4-1"></span>
$$
p(x) = k.e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}, \qquad (3)
$$

 $\Rightarrow$  The e is base of natural log,  $\sigma$  is variance. Greater is the difference between x and  $\mu$ ,

smaller will be  $p(x)$ . How steep is slop, depends on  $\sigma^2$ . Greater variance means smaller sensitivity to the difference between  $\mu$  and  $x$ , and it will result to a flatter bell curve. Smaller value of  $\sigma$ , it will result to a narrower bell curve.

 $\Rightarrow$  Coefficient k makes the area under the curve as 1, which is a requirement for the theory of probability. This happens when value of  $k$  is,





### <span id="page-5-0"></span>Area under the Bell curve is unity

To show that area under bell curve for pdf  $p(x) = k e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$  $\overline{2\sigma^2}$  is 1, we substitute value of  $k$ :

$$
p(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}}e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}
$$

Next, we need to calculate the integral of  $p(x)$  over the entire range of x, which is from  $-\infty$  to  $+\infty$ :

$$
\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} p(x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} dx
$$

To solve this integral, we can make a substitution. Let:  $z = \frac{x - \mu}{\sigma}$  $\frac{-\mu}{\sigma}$ . Taking derivative both sides, we get,  $dx = \sigma dz$ . The limits of integration remain the same as x approaches  $-\infty$  and  $+\infty$ . When  $x = -\infty$ , then  $z = -\infty$  and when  $x = +\infty$ ,  $z = +\infty$ .

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### Area under the Bell curve is unity ...

We can rewrite the integral:

$$
\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} p(x)dx = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(z\sigma)^2}{2\sigma^2}} \sigma dz
$$

$$
= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \sigma \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-\frac{z^2}{2}} dz
$$

The integral  $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-\frac{z^2}{2}}dz$  is a well-known result, and evaluates to:

$$
\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-\frac{z^2}{2}} dz = \sqrt{2\pi}
$$

Substituting this back into our expression, we get:

$$
\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} p(x)dx = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}}\sigma \cdot \sqrt{2\pi} = 1
$$

which shows that area under the bell curve is 1, and  $p(x)$  is a valid  $\left\{\begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ b_1 \end{bmatrix}\right\}$ probability density function. つくい

#### <span id="page-7-0"></span>Parameter Values

 $\Rightarrow$  Since formula [\(3\)](#page-4-1) is standard Bell curve, we can use it to calculate probability  $\rho_{c_i}(x)$ . For this we require  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$ . Let there are  $m$  classes of  $c_i$  in training set,  $x_i$  is value of given attribute in  $i$ -th example, then mean  $(\mu)$  and variance  $(\sigma)$  are:

and

$$
\mu = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} x_i, \qquad (5)
$$

$$
\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{m-1} \sum_{i=1}^m (x_i - \mu)^2.
$$
 (6)

⇒ Centre of Gaussian curve (i.e.,  $\mu$ ) is obtained by arithmetic average of values observed in training examples, and variance  $(\sigma)$  is obtained by squaring difference of  $x_i$  and  $\mu$ .

 $\Rightarrow$  To calculate the variance, we divide expression by  $m - 1$  and not by  $m$ , this is to compensate that,  $\mu$  itself is an estimate. The variance should therefore be some what higher then it would be if we divided by m.

