# Data Mining Lectures - Naive Bayes classification

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# Probability

$$P(A) = \frac{T^A}{T}$$

- P(A) the measure of likelihood that an event A will occur
  - $\mathcal{T}^A$  all possible results associated with the event A
    - T all possible results

## Conditional probability

$$P(C|A) = \frac{P(C \cap A)}{P(A)}$$
 - conditional probability that a patient

has a disease C, if he has symptoms A

$$P(A|C) = \frac{P(A \cap C)}{P(C)}$$
 - conditional probability that a patient

has symptoms A, if he has a disease C

- $P({\it C} \cap {\it A})$  probability that a patient has a disease  ${\it C}$  and symptoms  ${\it A}$ 
  - P(C) probability that a patient has a disease C
  - P(A) probability of symptoms

## Bayes theorem

$$P(C|A) = \frac{P(C \cap A)}{P(A)}$$

$$P(A|C) = \frac{P(A \cap C)}{P(C)}$$

$$P(C|A) = \frac{P(A|C) * P(C)}{P(A)}$$

## Conditional probability table

Table describing conditional probabilities of diseases, where the given symptom was observed:

	influenza $C_1$	cold $C_2$	pneumonia $\mathcal{C}_3$	allergy $C_4$
headache $A_1$	$P(C_1 A_1)$	$P(C_2 A_1)$	$P(C_3 A_1)$	$P(C_4 A_1)$
cough A <sub>2</sub>	$P(C_1 A_2)$	$P(C_2 A_2)$	$P(C_3 A_2)$	$P(C_4 A_2)$
sneeze A <sub>3</sub>	$P(C_1 A_3)$	$P(C_2 A_3)$	$P(C_3 A_3)$	$P(C_4 A_3)$
temperature $A_4$	$P(C_1 A_4)$	$P(C_2 A_4)$	$P(C_3 A_4)$	$P(C_4 A_4)$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} P(A_i) = 1 \qquad \sum_{j=1}^{m} P(C_j|A_i) = 1 \qquad P(C_j) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} P(A_i) * P(C_j|A_i)$$

$$P(A_i|C_j) = \frac{P(A_i) * P(C_j|A_i)}{P(C_i)} \qquad P(C_j|A_i) = \frac{P(C_j) * P(A_i|C_j)}{P(A_i)}$$

#### More general Bayes Theorem formula

Bayes theorem has the more general form for  $\underline{\mathsf{many}}$  diseases and many symptoms:

$$P(C_{j}|A_{i1} \cap ... \cap A_{ik}) = \frac{P(C_{j}) * P(A_{i1}|C_{j}) * ... * P(A_{ik}|C_{j})}{\sum_{l=1}^{n} P(C_{l}) * P(A_{i1}|C_{l}) * ... * P(A_{ik}|C_{l})}$$

# Bayes Theorem: the comparison of equivalent sets and events

$\Omega$ - a space of independent elementary observed results; $A \in 2^{\Omega} \Rightarrow A' \in 2^{\Omega}$ - complementarity; $A, B \in 2^{\Omega} \Rightarrow A \cup B \in 2^{\Omega}$ - additivity	$F$ - the independent rule set such that $a\in F\Leftrightarrow b\notin F-\{0,a\}$ this means $b\wedge \neg a=0$	
$(2^{\Omega}, \cup, \cap,', \Omega, \phi)$	$(F, \vee, \wedge, \neg, 1, 0)$	
$P(\phi) = 0$ $P(\Omega) = 1$	$P(0) = 0 \qquad P(1) = 1$	
$A \cap A' = \phi  A \cup A' = \Omega$	$a \wedge \neg a = 0$ $a \vee \neg a = 1$	
$\forall A, B \in 2^{\Omega}  A \cap B = \phi$	$\forall a, b \in F  a \wedge b = 0$	
$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$	$P(a \lor b) = P(a) + P(b)$	
$\forall A \in 2^{\Omega}  P(A) + P(A') = 1$	$\forall a \in F  P(a) + P(\neg a) = 1$	
$A \subseteq B$ $P(A) \le P(B)$	$(a \Rightarrow b) = 1$ $P(a) \leq P(b)$	

## Bayes model

#### Bayes rule

$$P(h|e) = \frac{P(e|h)P(h)}{P(e)}$$

where h means hypothesis and e denotes an event. Such a rule is just an another form of the usual rule:

$$e \Rightarrow h$$

#### Bayes Theorem

$$\exists \ H = \{h_1, \dots, h_n\}, \ \text{where}$$

$$\forall i \neq j \quad h_i \land h_j = \mathbf{0} \quad \bigcup_{i=1}^n h_i = \mathbf{1}, \quad P(h_i) > 0, \quad i = 1, \dots, n$$

$$\exists \ \{e_1, \dots, e_m\}, \ \text{where}$$

$$P(e_1, \dots, e_m | h_i) = \prod_{j=1}^m P(e_j | h_i), \quad i = 1, \dots, n \Leftrightarrow$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \forall e_j, h_i \quad e_j \text{ conditionally independent on } h_i$$

$$P(h_i | e_1, \dots, e_m) = \frac{P(e_1, \dots, e_m | h_i) P(h_i)}{\sum_{k=1}^m P(e_j | h_i)}$$

$$P(h_i | e_1, \dots, e_m) = \frac{\prod_{j=1}^m P(e_j | h_i)}{\sum_{k=1}^m \prod_{j=1}^m P(e_j | h_k) P(h_k)}$$

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# PROSPECTOR modifications (1976)

An additional assumption:

$$P(e_1,\ldots,e_m|\neg h_i) = \prod_{j=1}^m P(e_j|\neg h_i), \ i=1,\ldots,n$$
 New Bayes rule: 
$$P(\neg h|e) = \frac{P(e|\neg h)P(\neg h)}{P(e)} \text{ or }$$
 
$$\frac{P(h|e)}{P(\neg h|e)} = \frac{P(e|h)}{P(e|\neg h)} \frac{P(h)}{P(\neg h)}$$
 
$$O(h) = \frac{P(h)}{P(\neg h)} - \text{a chance } \underline{\text{a priori}}$$
 
$$O(h|e) = \frac{P(h|e)}{P(\neg h|e)} - \text{a chance } \underline{\text{a posteriori}}$$
 A reliability coefficient: 
$$\lambda = \frac{P(e|h)}{P(e|\neg h)} \Rightarrow O(h|e) = \lambda O(h)$$

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#### Further PROSPECTOR modifications

In a general case: 
$$O(h_i|e_1,\ldots,e_m)=O(h_i)\prod_{k=1}^m\lambda_{k_i},$$
 where  $\lambda_{k_i}=rac{P(e_k|h_i)}{P(e_k|\neg h_i)}$ 

$$\overline{\lambda} = \frac{P(\neg e|h)}{P(\neg e|\neg h)} \Rightarrow O(h|\neg e) = \overline{\lambda}O(h)$$

Coefficients  $\lambda$  i  $\overline{\lambda}$  are defined a priori.  $\lambda$  denotes observation sufficiency e (especially for  $\lambda \gg 1$ ) and  $\overline{\lambda}$  denotes necessity e (especially for  $0 \le \overline{\lambda} \le 1$ ).

## Bayes model disadvantages

- Assumptions are not accomplished.
- Ignorance is hidden in a priori probabilities.
- Probabilities are known only for elementary observed independently events, but not for their sets.
- Probabilities are for both negative and positive events at the same time.

## Naive Bayes classifier assumptions

- Each instance x described by attribute values  $a(x) = \langle a_1(x), a_2(x) \dots a_n(x) \rangle$ , where  $a_i(x)$  is the given value of the attribute  $a_i$   $(a_i(x) \in \{a_{ij}\}, j \in (1 \dots A_i))$ .
- Attribute values  $a_i(x)$  of instances x are conditionally independent given the target class  $C_k$ .
- It is so called Naive Bayes assumption:

$$P(a(x)|C_k) = \prod_i P(a_i(x)|C_k)$$

which is usually not true, but incorrect class probabilities very often permit correct classification.

• Conditional probabilities of attribute values  $a_i(x)$  given the class  $C_k$  are  $P(a_i(x)|C_k) = P_{T^{C_k}}(a_i(x)) = \frac{|T^{C_k}_{a_i(x)}|}{|T^{C_k}|}$ .

$$P(C_k|a(x)) = \frac{P(C_k)\prod_i P(a_i(x)|C_k)}{\sum_{C_l \in C} P(C_l)\prod_i P(a_i(x)|C_l)}$$

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### Naive Bayes classifier

• The final Naive Bayes classifier hypothesis h(x) predicting the correct class is just the greatest conditional probability:

$$P(C_{k}|a(x)) = \frac{P(C_{k})P(a(x)|C_{k})}{\sum_{C_{l} \in C} P(C_{l})P(a(x)|C_{l})}$$
•  $P(C_{k}|a(x)) = \frac{P(C_{k})\prod_{i} P(a_{i}(x)|C_{k})}{\sum_{i} P(C_{l})\prod_{i} P(a_{i}(x)|C_{l})}$ 

- $h(x) = \arg\max_{C_k \in C} P(C_k | a(x))$
- In a case of not present values in training instances to prevent prediction errors the number of values  $A_i$  of the attribute  $a_i$  is added to conditional probability:

$$P(a_i(x)|C_k) = P_{T^{C_k}}(a_i(x)) = \frac{|T^{C_k}_{a_i(x)}|+1}{|T^{C_k}|+A_i}.$$

## Knowledge retrieval from market baskets

- Shop clients buy products in sets called baskets. Each transaction is seen as a set of items. Products are numbered from 1 to M, where M is a number of all products e.g.:

   (1 2) (1 2 3) (1 2) (1) (1 2 3)
- If the given set is the subset of at least the arbitrary number (called a threshold) of transactions then it is statistically significant and remains in use and is called "frequent" e.g.  $\frac{|P_{(1\ 2)}|}{N} > 20\%$ , where  $|P_{(1\ 2)}|$  is a number of transactions with products no 1 and 2, N is the all transactions amount.
- First the one-item frequent subsets are chosen. From them two-item subsets are created and analysed. Those ones which appear sufficiently often in the transactions remain and are called "frequent". From the frequent one-item and two-item subsets the three-item subsets are created and selected and so on while frequent elements apear.

## Knowledge retrieval from market baskets

• Frequent subsets from our transactions:

$$\frac{|P_{(1)}|}{N} = 1 > 20\%, \ \frac{|P_{(1\ 2)}|}{N} = \frac{4}{5} > 20\%, \ \frac{|P_{(1\ 2\ 3)}|}{N} = \frac{2}{5} > 20\%.$$

- Next from frequent subsets (1), (1 2), (1 2 3) association rules are assembled. They help to discover relationships betweem seemingly unrelated data:  $(1) \rightarrow (1\ 2) (1)$
- To the premise part of the rule the frequent subset was chosen and to the conclusion part of the same rule the bigger frequent subset containing (association) the former premise subset was attached, but from a rule modus ponens  $(\frac{a,a\Rightarrow b}{b})$  results that conclusion containing premises is not permitted, so they are substracted from conclusion. In such a way the association rule is obtained:  $(1)\to(2)$
- Another rule generated in the same way:

$$(1\ 2) \to (1\ 2\ 3) - (1\ 2)$$

$$(1\ 2) \rightarrow (3)$$