

Assumptions from the "Statistical Modeling"

Recall the main assumption of the 1R method:

"a single attribute is enough to learn a significant rule"

The 1R approach is "opposite" to the **statistical modeling** assumption:

"all attributes are equally important and independent of one another"

... two essential assumptions

- All attributes are equally important
 - i.e., an estimation must always account for the influence of all attributes
- The attributes are statistically independent (given the class)
 - i.e., the value of an attribute is not influenced by the value of any another (even assuming that the attributes' class is known)

Those assumptions do not seem realistic!

We know that *rarely* all attributes have the same importance.

We know that *rarely* the attributes are independent among themselves.

But, they lead to a simple scheme that works surprisingly well in practice!

An example (classic)

Weather data and the decision about playing (Play) tennis! (dataset represents "my" decision under different weather conditions)

Outlook	Temperature	Humidity	Windy	Play
sunny	hot	high	false	no
sunny	hot	high	true	no
overcast	hot	high	false	yes
rainy	mild	high	false	yes
rainy	cool	normal	false	yes
rainy	cool	normal	true	no
overcast	cool	normal	true	yes
sunny	mild	high	false	no
sunny	cool	normal	false	yes
rainy	mild	normal	false	yes
sunny	mild	normal	true	yes
overcast	mild	high	true	yes
overcast	hot	normal	false	yes
rainy	mild	high	true	no

... and now, what is my the expected decision?

... the weather conditions for "today" are:

Am I to play tennis?

Outlook	Temperature	Humidity	Windy	Play
sunny	cool	high	true	?

Search the most likely decision (*likelihood* evaluation) by means of a statistical analysis, starting by doing "synthesis table" with:

• the number of times that the value of each attribute (i.e., each pair attribute-value) is associated with each value (yes or no) of Play

	0	utlook		Ten	nperatu	ire	Hu	ımidity		V	/indy		Pla	У
example		yes	no	h - 4	yes	no	la i a la	yes	no	falss	yes	no	yes	no
	sunny overcast rainy	2	ر	hot mild cool			high normal			false true				

complete this table

... the synthesis table (the counting)

0	utlook		Ten	nperatu	ire	Н	umidity	1	V	Vindy		Pla	У
	yes	no		yes	no		yes	no		yes	no	yes	no
sunny	2	3	hot	2	2	high	3	4	false	6	2	9	5
overcast	4	0	mild	4	2	normal	6	1	true	3	3		
rainy	3	2	cool	3	1								

Now, represent in the format of "frequencies", or "observed probabilities":

- #(Attribute= 'vAtr' | Play = 'vClass') / #(Play = 'vClass')
 - #(Play = 'vClass') / Σ_v #(Play = 'v') ,
 - $vClass \in \{yes, no\}, v \in \{yes, no\}$

eva	ample		Outlook		Ter	nperat	ure	Н	umidity	,	V	/indy		Play	
Paulo Trigo Silva		sunny overca rainy	yes 2/9	3/5	hot mild cool	yes		high normal	yes	no	faise true	yes	no	yes 9/14 ?	no

... synthesis table (counting and observed probabilities)

0	utlook		Ten	nperati	ıre	Н	umidity	/	V	Vindy		Pla	У
	yes	no		yes	no		yes	no		yes	no	yes	no
sunny overcast rainy	2 4 3	3 0 2	hot mild cool	2 4 3	2 2 1	high normal	3 6	4 1	false true	6 3	2	9	5
sunny overcast rainy	2/9 4/9 3/9	3/5 0/5 2/5	hot mild cool	2/9 4/9 3/9	2/5 2/5 1/5	high normal	3/9 6/9	4/5 1/5	false true	6/9 3/9	2/5 3/5	9/14	5/14

... and now, given the following weather conditions:

Outlook	Temperature	Humidity	Windy	Play
sunny	cool	high	true	?

What is the likelihood of each value, yes and no, for the class Play?

... synthesis table (observed probabilities) and likelihood

0	utlook		Ten	nperatı	ıre	Н	umidity	/	V	/indy		Pla	У
	yes	no		yes	no		yes	no		yes	no	yes	no
sunny overcast rainy	2 4 3	3 0 2	hot mild cool	2 4 3	2 2 1	high normal	3 6	4 1	false true	6 3	2	9	5
sunny overcast rainy	2/9 4/9 3/9	3/5 0/5 2/5	hot mild cool	2/9 4/9 3/9	2/5 2/5 1/5	high normal	3/9 6/9	4/5 1/5	false true	6/9 3/9	2/5 3/5	9/14	5/14

Outlook	Temperature	Humidity	Windy	Play
sunny	cool	high	true	?

likelihood ("verosimilhança") of yes = $2/9 \times 3/9 \times 3/9 \times 3/9 \times 9/14 = 0.0053$

likelihood ("verosimilhança") of $no = 3/5 \times 1/5 \times 4/5 \times 3/5 \times 5/14 = 0.0206$

... given those conditions is more likely (≈ 4 times more) NOT to play tennis!

Bayes Rule

likelihood ("verosimilhança") of $yes = 2/9 \times 3/9 \times 3/9 \times 3/9 \times 9/14 = 0.0053$

likelihood ("verosimilhança") of $no = 3/5 \times 1/5 \times 4/5 \times 3/5 \times 5/14 = 0.0206$

probability of yes = 0.0053 / (0.0053 + 0.0206) = 20.5%

probability of no = 0.0206 / (0.0053 + 0.0206) = 79.5%

This example illustrates the application of the Bayes rule of conditional probabilities, which states that:

given an hypothesis *H* and an evidence *E* that bears on that hypothesis, then:

$$\Pr[H|E] = \frac{\Pr[E|H]\Pr[H]}{\Pr[E]}$$

The hypothesis and the evidence

Given an hypothesis *H* and an evidence *E* that bears on that hypothesis, then:

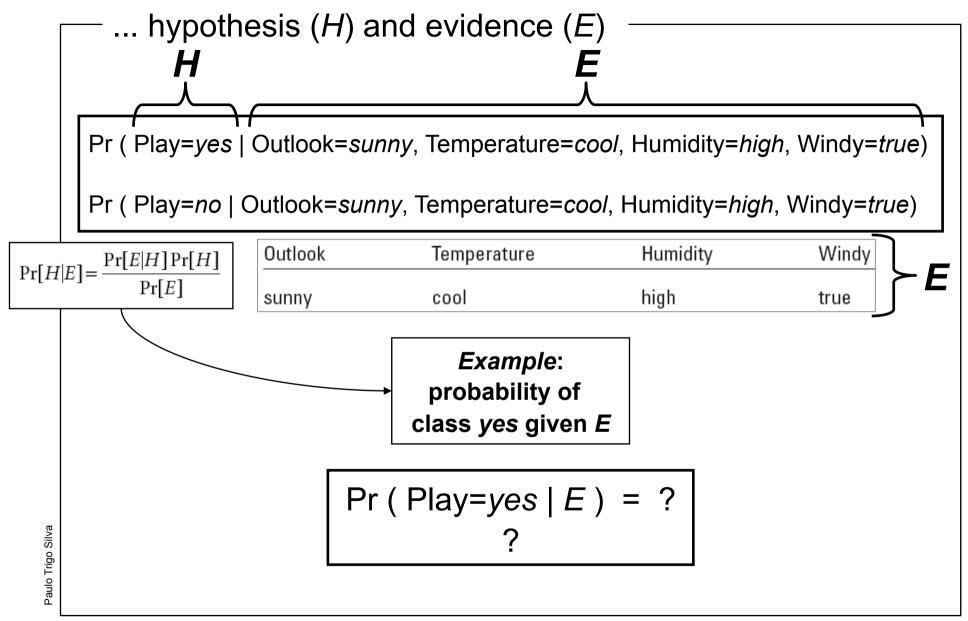
$$\Pr[H|E] = \frac{\Pr[E|H]\Pr[H]}{\Pr[E]}$$

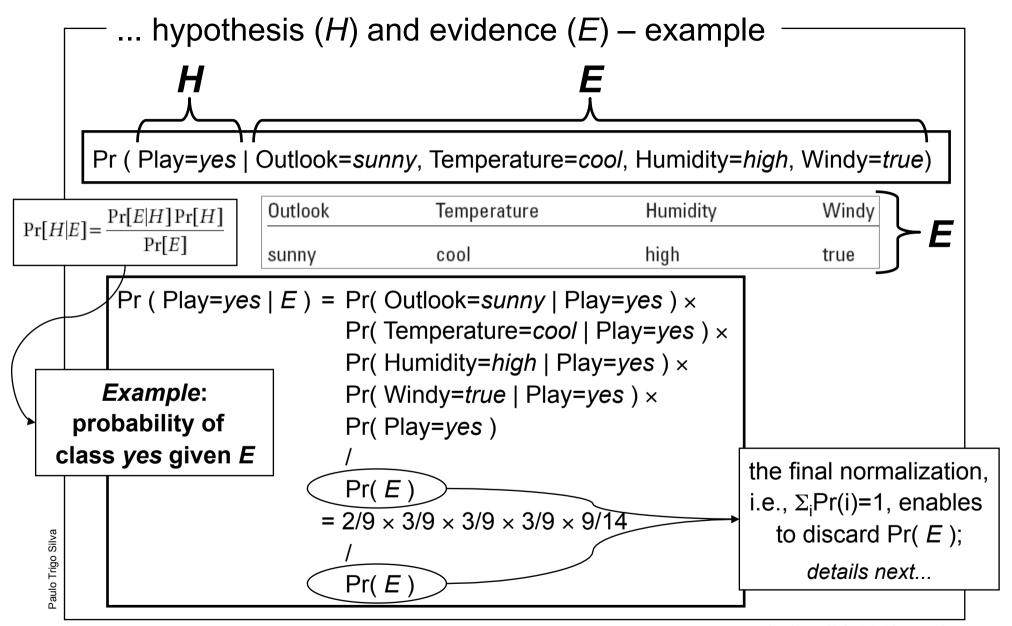
Which is *H* (in the previous example)?

- 1. Play = yes and Play = no
- 2. Outlook Temperature Humidity Windy sunny cool high true
- 3. Pr(Play = yes)

Which is *E* (in the previous example)?

- 1. Play = yes and Play = no
- 2. Outlook Temperature Humidity Windy sunny cool high true
- 3. Pr(Play = yes)





... in decision making, discard Pr(E)

$$\Pr[H|E] = \frac{\Pr[E|H]\Pr[H]}{\Pr[E]}$$

$$Pr(yes | E) = p1 / Pr(E)$$
, where $p1 = Pr(E | yes) \times Pr(yes)$
 $Pr(no | E) = p2 / Pr(E)$, where $p2 = Pr(E | no) \times Pr(no)$

According to the law of probability $\Sigma_i Pr(i)=1$; therefore, $Pr(yes \mid E) + Pr(no \mid E) = 1$, or, equivalently,

$$p1 / Pr(E) + p2 / Pr(E) = 1 \Leftrightarrow$$

$$(p1 + p2) / Pr(E) = 1 \Leftrightarrow$$

$$Pr(E) = p1 + p2$$

That is, the probability of the evidence to occur, i.e., Pr(E), only serves a "normalization" purpose, i.e., it guarantees that the summation is 1.

Pr(*E*) does not influence the relation among the probabilities of the hypothesis values because it is the same (constant) for all the values.

Thus, Pr(E) can be discarded when using the Bayes rule to support a decision.

Synthesis: the various components of the Bayes rule

- Probability of an event (hypothesis) H given the evidence E
 - à-posteriori probability relative to à-priori from evidence E given H

$$\Pr[H|E] = \frac{\Pr[E|H]\Pr[H]}{\Pr[E]}$$



Thomas Bayes 1702 – 1761 England

- à-priori probability of the H
 - probability of the event H before the evidence's perception

- **à-posteriori** probability of the *H* (conditional on the *E*)
 - probability of the event H after (or "given that") the evidence's perception

Another important concept: "conditional independence"

- Consider three variables
 - A, B, C
- The conditional distribution of A given B and C
 - is written Pr(A | B, C)
- If Pr(A | B, C) does not depend on the value of B
 - we have Pr(A | B, C) = Pr(A | C)
- ... in that case we say that
 - A is conditionally independent of B given C

Factorizing into marginals

- If the conditional distribution of A given B and C is independent of B
 - we have Pr(A | B, C) = Pr(A | C)
- The joint distribution of A and B conditioned on C
 - is written Pr(A, B | C)
- ... it can be expressed in slightly different way

- i.e., the joint distribution factorizes into product of marginals
 - when the variables A and B are statistically independent given C

An illustrative example – using three binary variables

Let variables A, B, C represent colors:

 $A \subseteq \{a, \sim a\}$, where a is red and $\sim a$ is not red

 $B \in \{b, \sim b\}$, where b is blue and $\sim b$ is not blue

 $C \subseteq \{c, \sim c\}$, where c is green and $\sim c$ is not green

$$P(A=a) = 16/49$$

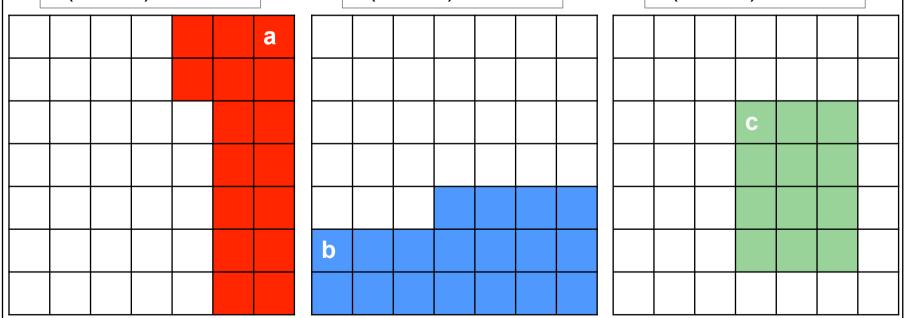
$$P(A=\sim a) = 33/49$$

$$P(B=b) = 18/49$$

$$P(B=\sim b) = 31/49$$

$$P(C=c) = 12/49$$

$$P(C=\sim c) = 37/49$$

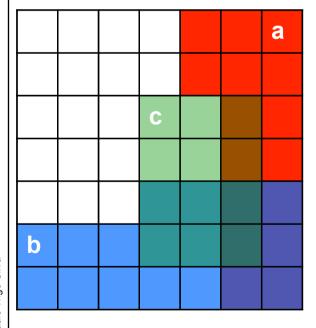


... mixing the three binary variables, and some notation

Let variables A, B, C represent colors:

$$A \subseteq \{a, \sim a\}$$

 $B \subseteq \{b, \sim b\}$
 $C \subseteq \{c, \sim c\}$



Some aspects of notation:

Let **X** be a random variable

if **X** is a <u>discrete random variable</u> it means that it may only take a countable number of distinct values, e.g., { 0, 1, 2 }

Pr(X) is the <u>probability distribution</u> of **X**, i.e., a list of probabilities associated with each of its possible values, e.g., P(X=0)=1/2, P(X=1)=1/4, P(X=2)=1/4

X=x is the <u>event</u> of **X** taking the value x, e.g., X=2

P(X=x) = p says that the <u>event X=x occurs</u> with the <u>probability value p</u>.

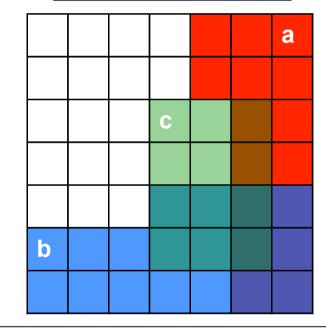
P(x) = p is a <u>simplified way of writing</u> P(X=x) = p

... illustrative example – marginal and joint distributions?

Let variables A, B, C represent colors:

$$A \subseteq \{a, \sim a\}$$

 $B \subseteq \{b, \sim b\}$
 $C \subseteq \{c, \sim c\}$



There are **26** marginal and joint probabilities in this problem!

Marginal probabilities (6):

$$Pr(A)$$
: $P(A=a) = ?$ $P(\sim a) = ?$

$$Pr(B)$$
: $P(b) = ?$ $P(\sim b) = ?$

$$Pr(C)$$
: $P(c) = ?$

$$P(\sim a) = ?$$

$$P(\sim b) = ?$$

$$P(\sim c) = ?$$

Joint probabilities (12 with 2 variables):

$$Pr(A,B)$$
: $P(A=a,B=b) = ?$ $P(a,\sim b) = ?$

$$P(\sim a,b) = ?$$
 $P(\sim a,\sim b) = ?$

$$P(\sim a, \sim b) = ?$$

$$Pr(B,C): P(b,c) = ?$$

$$P(b, \sim c) = ?$$

$$P(\sim b,c) = ?$$

$$P(\sim b, \sim c) = ?$$

$$Pr(A,C): P(a,c) = ?$$

$$P(a, \sim c) = ?$$

$$P(\sim a,c) = ?$$

$$P(\sim a,c) = ?$$
 $P(\sim a,\sim c) = ?$

Joint probabilities (8 with 3 variables):

$$Pr(A,B,C): P(a,b,c) = ? P(a,b,\sim c) = ?$$

$$P(a,b,\sim c) = ?$$

$$P(a, \sim b, c) = ?$$

$$P(a, \sim b, c) = ?$$
 $P(a, \sim b, \sim c) = ?$

$$P(\sim a,b,c) = ?$$

$$P(\sim a,b,c) = ?$$
 $P(\sim a,b,\sim c) = ?$

$$P(\sim a, \sim b, c) = 3$$

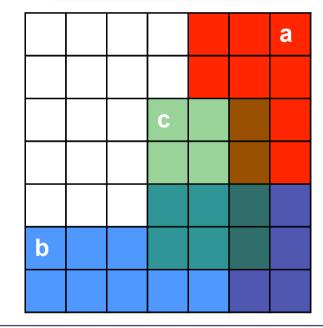
$$P(\sim a, \sim b, c) = ?$$
 $P(\sim a, \sim b, \sim c) = ?$

... illustrative example – marginal and joint distributions

Let variables A, B, C represent colors:

$$A \subseteq \{a, \sim a\}$$

 $B \subseteq \{b, \sim b\}$
 $C \subseteq \{c, \sim c\}$



There are **26** marginal and joint probabilities in this problem!

Marginal probabilities (6):

Pr(A): P(A=a) = 16/49 $P(\sim a) = 33/49$ P(B): P(b) = 18/49 $P(\sim b) = 31/49$

P(C): P(c) = 12/49 $P(\sim c) = 37/49$

Joint probabilities (12 with 2 variables):

Pr(A,B): P(A=a,B=b) = 6/49 $P(a,\sim b) = 10/49$ $P(\sim a,b) = 12/49$ $P(\sim a,\sim b) = 21/49$

Pr(B,C): P(b,c) = 6/49 $P(b,\sim c) = 12/49$ $P(\sim b,c) = 6/49$ $P(\sim b,\sim c) = 25/49$

Pr(A,C): P(a,c) = 4/49 $P(a,\sim c) = 12/49$ $P(\sim a,c) = 8/49$ $P(\sim a,\sim c) = 25/49$

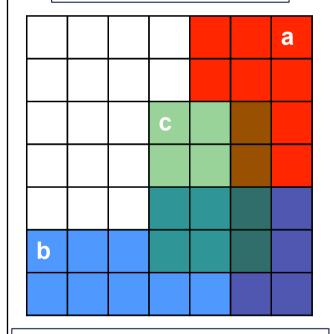
Joint probabilities (8 with 3 variables):

... illustrative example - single variable conditioned

Let variables A, B, C represent colors:

$$A \subseteq \{a, \sim a\}$$

 $B \subseteq \{b, \sim b\}$
 $C \subseteq \{c, \sim c\}$



There are **24** single variable conditional probabilities!

Single variables conditioned on single variables (24):

Pr(A|B):
$$P(a|b)=P(a,b)/P(b)=1/3$$
 $P(\sim a|b) = 2/3$ $P(a|\sim b)=P(a,\sim b)/P(\sim b)=10/31$ $P(\sim a|\sim b)=21/31$

Pr(A|C):
$$P(a|c)=P(a,c)/P(c)=1/3$$
 $P(\sim a|c)=2/3$ $P(a|\sim c)=P(a,\sim c)/P(\sim c)=12/37$ $P(\sim a|\sim c)=25/37$

Pr(B|C):
$$P(b|c)=P(b,c)/P(c)=1/2$$
 $P(\sim b|c)=1/2$ $P(b|\sim c)=P(b,\sim c)/P(\sim c)=12/37$ $P(\sim b|\sim c)=25/37$

$$P(b|a) = P(b,a)/P(a) = ?$$
 $P(b|a) = P(b,a)/P(a) = ?$ $P(b|a) = P(b,a)/P(a) = ?$ $P(b|a) = ?$

$$P(C|A): P(c|a)=P(c,a)/P(a)=? P(\sim c|a)=? P(c|\sim a)=P(c,\sim a)/P(\sim a)=? P(\sim c|\sim a)=?$$

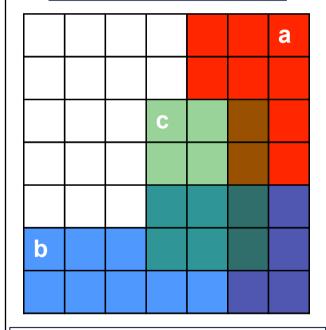
$$P(C|B)$$
: $P(c|b)=P(c,b)/P(b)=?$ $P(\sim c|b)=?$ $P(\sim c|\sim b)=?$

... example – conditioned (two and one variables)

Let variables A, B, C represent colors:

$$A \subseteq \{a, \sim a\}$$

 $B \subseteq \{b, \sim b\}$
 $C \subseteq \{c, \sim c\}$



24 two variable conditioned on one and 24 one variable conditioned on two!

Two variables conditioned on a single variables (24):

Pr(A,B|C): P(a,b|c) = P(a,b,c)/P(c)=1/6
P(a,b|
$$\sim$$
c) = P(a,b, \sim c)/P(\sim c) = 4/37
P(a, \sim b|c) = P(a, \sim b,c)/P(c) = 1/6

$$P(a, \sim b | \sim c) = P(a, \sim b, \sim c)/P(\sim c) = 8/37$$

$$P(\sim a,b|c) = P(\sim a,b,c)/P(c) = 1/3$$

$$P(\sim a,b|\sim c) = P(\sim a,b,\sim c)/P(\sim c) = 8/37$$

$$P(\sim a, \sim b|c) = P(\sim a, \sim b, c)/P(c) = 1/3$$

$$P(\sim a, \sim b | \sim c) = P(\sim a, \sim b, \sim c)/P(\sim c) = 17/37$$

Pr(A,C|B): ? (eight additional probabilities)

Pr(B,C|A): ? (eight additional probabilities)

[similarly] one variable conditioned on two (24):

Pr(A|B,C): ? (eight additional probabilities)

Pr(B|A,C): ? (eight additional probabilities)

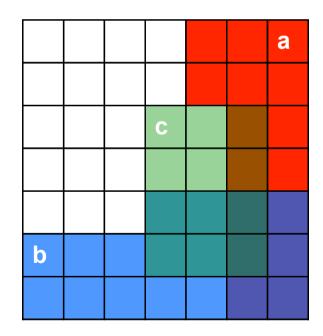
Pr(C|A,B): ? (eight additional probabilities)

... example – are there independent relations?

Let variables A, B, C represent colors:

$$A \subseteq \{ a, \sim a \}$$

 $B \subseteq \{ b, \sim b \}$
 $C \subseteq \{ c, \sim c \}$



Independence:

Is A independent from B?
Is B independent from C?

Conditional Independence:

Is A independent from B given C? Is C independent from A given B?

... example – are there independent relations? (cont.)

Independence:

Is A independent from B?

$$P(a,b) \neq P(a)P(b)$$

$$P(a,\sim b) \neq P(a)P(\sim b)$$

$$P(\sim a,b) \neq P(\sim a)P(b)$$

$$P(\sim a, \sim b) \neq P(\sim a)P(\sim b)$$

so A and B are not independent

(a single ≠ is sufficient)

Is B independent from C?

Conditional Independence:

Is A independent from B given C?

$$P(a,b|c) = 1/6 = P(a|c) P(b|c)$$

but

$$P(a,b|\sim c) = 4/37 \neq P(a|\sim c)P(b|\sim c)$$

so A and B are not conditionally independent

Is C independent from A given B?

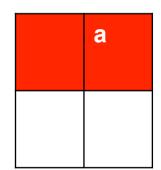
An illustrative example of two independent variables

Let variables A, B represent colors:

 $A \subseteq \{a, \sim a\}$, where a is red and $\sim a$ is not red $B \subseteq \{b, \sim b\}$, where b is blue and $\sim b$ is not blue

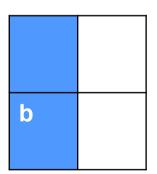
$$P(A=a) = 2/4 = 1/2$$

 $P(A=\sim a) = 2/4 = 1/2$

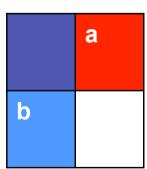


$$P(B=b) = 2/4 = 1/2$$

 $P(B=\sim b) = 2/4 = 1/2$



A and B are independent variables?

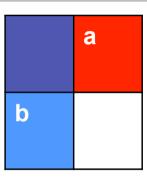


... example of two independent variables

Let variables A, B represent colors:

 $A \subseteq \{a, \sim a\}$, where a is red and $\sim a$ is not red $B \subseteq \{b, \sim b\}$, where b is blue and $\sim b$ is not blue

$$P(a,b) = 1/4$$
 $P(a,\sim b) = 1/4$ $P(\sim a,b) = 1/4$ $P(\sim a,\sim b) = 1/4$



$$P(a,b) = P(a) \times P(b) = 1/2 \times 1/2 = 1/4$$
 $P(a, \sim b) = P(a) \times P(\sim b) = 1/2 \times 1/2 = 1/4$ $P(\sim a,b) = P(\sim a) \times P(b) = 1/2 \times 1/2 = 1/4$ $P(\sim a, \sim b) = P(\sim a) \times P(\sim b) = 1/2 \times 1/2 = 1/4$

... another example – two variables with different range

Let variables A, B represent colors:

 $A \in \{a, \sim a\}$, where a is red and $\sim a$ is not red

B ∈ { b, bL, ~b }, where b is blue, bL is blue light and ~b is not blue

draw a pattern (graphical representation) to illustrate A and B as independent variables

... example of two variables with different range

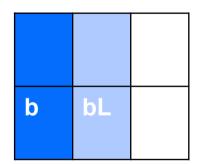
Let variables A, B represent colors:

 $A \subseteq \{a, \sim a\}$, where a is red and $\sim a$ is not red

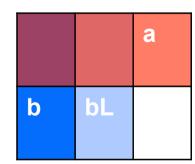
B ∈ { b, bL, ~b }, where b is blue, bL is blue light and ~b is not blue

$$P(A=a) = 3/6 = 1/2$$

 $P(A=\sim a) = 3/6 = 1/2$



A and B are independent variables?

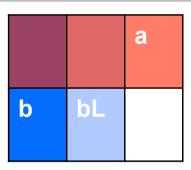


... two independent variables with different range

Let variables A, B represent colors:

 $A \subseteq \{a, \sim a\}$, where a is red and $\sim a$ is not red $B \subseteq \{b, bL, \sim b\}$, where b is blue, bL is blue light and $\sim b$ is not blue

$$P(a,b) = 1/6$$
 $P(a,bL) = 1/6$ $P(a,\sim b) = 1/6$ $P(\sim a,b) = 1/6$ $P(\sim a,bL) = 1/6$ $P(\sim a,\sim b) = 1/6$



$$P(a,b) = P(a) \times P(b) = 1/2 \times 1/3 = 1/6$$
 $P(a,bL) = 1/2 \times 1/3 = 1/6$ $P(a,-b) = 1/6$ $P(-a,b) = P(-a) \times P(b) = 1/2 \times 1/3 = 1/6$ $P(-a,bL) = 1/2 \times 1/3 = 1/6$ $P(-a,-b) = 1/6$

... two independent variables each with three values

Let variables A, B represent colors:

 $A \in \{ a, aL, \sim a \}$, where a is red, aL is red light and $\sim a$ is not red $B \in \{ b, bL, \sim b \}$, where b is blue, bL is blue light and $\sim b$ is not blue

$$P(A=a) = 3/9 = 1/3$$

$$P(A=aL) = 3/9 = 1/3$$

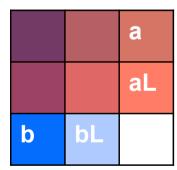
$$P(A=\sim a) = 3/9 = 1/3$$

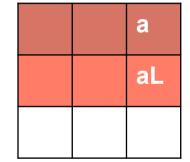
$$P(B=b) = 3/9 = 1/3$$

 $P(B=bL) = 3/9 = 1/3$
 $P(B=b) = 3/9 = 1/3$

b bL

A and B are independent variables?





Similarly to previous examples we see Pr(A,B) is always 1/9 for all events, i.e., P(a,b)=1/9; P(a,b)=1/9; P(a,b)=1/9; P(a,b)=1/9; P(a,b)=1/9; P(a,b)=1/9; P(a,b)=1/9; P(a,a,b)=1/9; P(a,

therefore, as $Pr(A, B) = Pr(A) \times P(B)$, the variables A and B are independent

... two variables; now, values with different probabilities

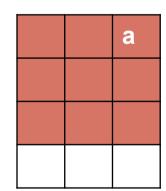
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 $A \subseteq \{a, \sim a\}$, where a is red and $\sim a$ is not red

B ∈ { b, bL, ~b }, where b is blue, bL is blue light and ~b is not blue

$$P(A=a) = 9/12 = 3/4$$

$$P(A=\sim a) = 3/12 = 1/4$$

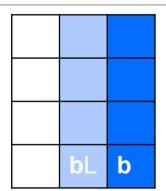


variable A with different probability for each value

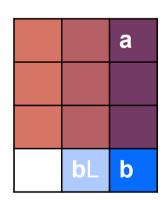
$$P(B=b) = 4/12 = 1/3$$

$$P(B=bL) = 4/12 = 1/3$$

$$P(B=\sim b) = 4/12 = 1/3$$



A and B are independent variables?



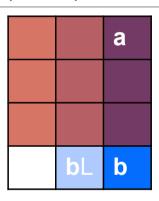
variable A has 2 values but its space of probabilities was "divided" in "4 portions", so the whole space is 4 × 3 = 12 cells

... two variables; values with different probabilities (cont.)

Let variables A, B represent colors:

 $A \subseteq \{a, \sim a\}$, where a is red and $\sim a$ is not red $B \subseteq \{b, bL, \sim b\}$, where b is blue, bL is blue light and $\sim b$ is not blue

$$P(a,b) = 1/4$$
 $P(a,bL) = 1/4$ $P(a,\sim b) = 1/4$ $P(\sim a,b) = 1/12$ $P(\sim a,bL) = 1/12$ $P(\sim a,\sim b) = 1/12$



$$P(a,b) = P(a) \times P(b) = 3/4 \times 1/3 = 1/4$$
 $P(a,bL) = 3/4 \times 1/3 = 1/4$ $P(a,\sim b) = 1/4$ $P(\sim a,b) = P(\sim a) \times P(b) = 1/4 \times 1/3 = 1/12$ $P(\sim a,bL) = 1/4 \times 1/3 = 1/12$ $P(-a,\sim b) = 1/12$

... the "bottom line" idea on "independent variables"

If A and B are independent variables then

all joint events are likely to occur according to their proportionality relation

i.e.,

all combinations of the A and B values (joint events) occur the number of times delimited by the space that they occupy

And now, A and B conditionally independent given C

Let variables A, B, C represent colors:

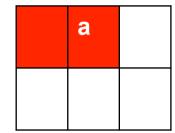
 $A \in \{a, \sim a\}$, where a is red and $\sim a$ is not red

 $B \in \{b, \sim b\}$, where b is blue and $\sim b$ is not blue

 $C \in \{c, \sim c\}$, where c is green and $\sim c$ is not green

$$P(A=a) = 2/6 = 1/3$$

$$P(A=\sim a) = 4/6 = 2/3$$



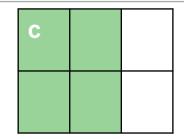
$$P(B=b) = 2/6 = 1/3$$

$$P(B=\sim b) = 4/6 = 2/3$$



$$P(C=c) = 4/6 = 2/3$$

$$P(C=\sim c) = 2/6 = 1/3$$



A and B are independent?

A and B are conditionally independent given C?



... A and B conditionally independent given C

A and B are independent?

A and B are conditionally independent given C?

С	а	
þ		

A and B are independent?

$$P(a,b) = 1/6$$

$$P(a) = 2/6 = 1/3$$

$$P(b) = 2/6 = 1/3$$

$$P(a,b)=1/3 \neq P(a)P(b)=1/9$$

so A and B are not independent

A and B conditionally independent given C?

$$P(a,b|c)=1/4$$
 $P(a|c)=1/2$ $P(b|c)=1/2$

$$P(a,\sim b|c)=1/4$$
 $P(a|c)=1/2$ $P(\sim b|c)=1/2$

$$P(\sim a,b|c)=1/4$$
 $P(\sim a|c)=1/2$ $P(b|c)=1/2$

$$P(\sim a, \sim b|c) = 1/4$$
 $P(\sim a|c) = 1/2$ $P(\sim b|c) = 1/2$

$$P(\sim a, \sim b \mid \sim c) = 1$$
; $P(a,b \mid \sim c) = 0$; ... all zero in $\sim c$

$$Pr(A,B|C) = P(A|C) \times P(B|C)$$

so A and B conditionally independent given C

Notice that A and B follow the "pattern" independence (cf. previous example)
Now A and B follow that "pattern" in the "scope of C=c" (and do not occur in C=~c)

... the "bottom line" idea on "conditional independence"

If A and B are conditionally independent given C then

all joint events of A and B are likely to occur according to their proportionality relation within the scope of each possible value for C

i.e.,

the variables A and B are independent within the "narrowed" space delimited by each value of C

using the "graphical intuition" the idea is to see if the "independence pattern" between A and B occurs within the scope of each value of C

Synthesis: important results on "conditional independence"

- If A and B are conditionally independent given C, then
 - we have Pr(A | B, C) = Pr(A | C)
- ... which can be expressed in a slightly different way

- = $Pr(A \mid B, C) Pr(B \mid C)$ // product rule Pr(X,Y)=Pr(X|Y)Pr(Y)
- = Pr(A | C) Pr(B | C) // A and B conditionally independent given C
- If we have N variables, A_1 , A_2 , A_3 , ... A_n , that are all conditionally independent given C, the last expression can be generalized as

$$Pr(A_{1}, A_{2}, A_{3}, ..., A_{n} | C) =$$

$$= Pr(A_{1} | A_{2}, A_{3}, ..., A_{n}, C) Pr(A_{2} | A_{3}, ..., A_{n}, C) ... Pr(A_{n} | C)$$

$$= Pr(A_{1} | C) Pr(A_{2} | C) Pr(A_{3} | C) ... Pr(A_{n} | C)$$

$$= \Pi_{i=1..n} Pr(A_{i} | C)$$

Now, back to the Bayes rule for "Decision Making"

$$\Pr[H|E] = \frac{\Pr[E|H]\Pr[H]}{\Pr[E]}$$

Precisely the same formulation!

Only variables get a different name!

$$p\left(Decis\tilde{a}o_{i} \mid x\right) = \frac{p\left(x \mid Decis\tilde{a}o_{i}\right)p\left(Decis\tilde{a}o_{i}\right)}{p\left(x\right)}$$

Algorithm for "Decision Making"

- 1. decision = \emptyset , max = 0.0
- 2. for each *H*:

a.
$$p \leftarrow Pr(H \mid E)$$

- b. if p > max, then: $max \leftarrow p$, decision $\leftarrow H$
- 3. return decision

The "decision" is to choose the hypothesis, *H*, with highest probability *à-posteriori*

... how to compute the likelihood, $Pr(E \mid H)$?

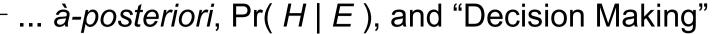
... assumption – independence of the evidence E given H

$$\frac{\Pr[H|E] = \frac{\Pr[E|H]\Pr[H]}{\Pr[E]}}{\Pr[E]}$$

Assuming that the evidence, *E*, is composed of parts(i.e., attributes) that are independent given *H*, (conditional independence), so we have:

$$\Pr[E|H] = \Pr(E_1 | H) \times \Pr(E_2 | H) \dots \Pr(E_n | H)$$

where E_i is the attribute *i* from the example to classify



... and the assumption that each E_i component of the evidence are **conditionally independent** given H

$$\Pr[H|E] = \frac{\Pr[E|H]\Pr[H]}{\Pr[E]}$$

$$Pr(H | E) = \frac{\left(Pr(E_1 | H) \times Pr(E_2 | H) \dots Pr(E_n | H) \times Pr(H)\right)}{Pr(E)}$$

Recall that in decision making we can discard Pr(E), so:

$$Pr(H | E) \propto Pr(E_1 | H) \times Pr(E_2 | H) \times ... \times Pr(E_n | H) \times Pr(H)$$

... to use in the "Decision Making" algorithm

this reads as: "it is proportional to"

Synthesis: Pr(H | E) in "Decision Making"

$$Pr(H|E) \propto Pr(E_1|H) \times Pr(E_2|H) \times ... \times Pr(E_n|H) \times Pr(H)$$

Using an informal and intuitive style, we can write:

Algorithm for "Decision Making"

- 1. decision = \emptyset , max = 0.0
- 2. for each *H*:

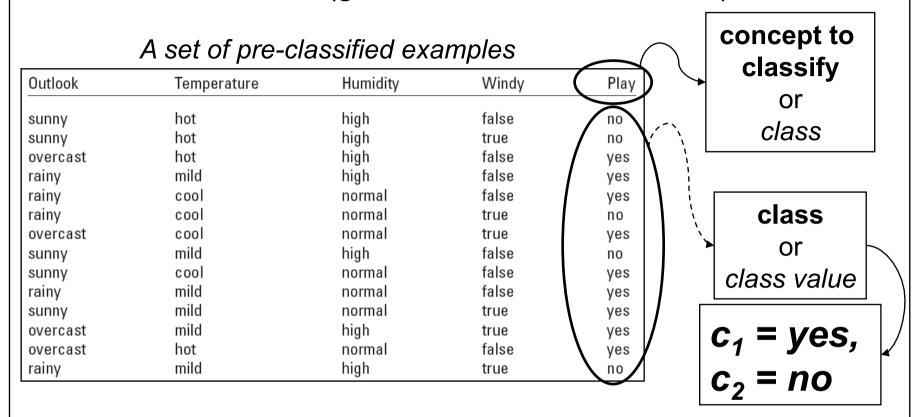
a.
$$p \leftarrow Pr(H) \times Pr(E_1 \mid H) \times Pr(E_2 \mid H) \times ... \times Pr(E_n \mid H)$$

- b. if p > max, then: $max \leftarrow p$, $decision \leftarrow H$
- 3. return decision

The classification task (... Bayes rule provides support)

- To classify is to decide how to answer the question:
 - "In which class (group) is this example better framed (belonged)?"
 - i.e., learn a function $f: X \rightarrow \{ classe_1, classe_2, ..., classe_n \}$
 - ... each $x \in X$ is an example that we want to know the *class* it belongs
- The input data (dataset)
 - the set of classes to consider, e.g., $C = \{c_1, c_2, ..., c_n\}$
 - pre-classified examples, e.g., $< x_1, c_3 >$, $< x_2, c_4 >$, $< x_3, c_3 >$, $< x_4, c_1 >$, ...
- The output (resulting model)
 - a function f, that is, a classification procedure,
 - that can be represented in several forms,
 - e.g., **statistical model**, decision tree, rule set, neural network, etc
 - ... *f* is used to associate a new object with its most likely class
 - ... by doing such an association we are classifying!

Classification task (global view of this scenario)



To which class does this example belong?

Outlook	Temperature	Humidity	Windy	Play
sunny	cool	high	true	?

The classification task – an intuitive scenario!

A set of pre-classified examples



the dataset would be formed by features computed from each image (e.g., the RGB of each pixel).

To which class does this example belong?



Classify – Bayes rule and the independence assumption

- "Bayes rule" context: "classify is to learn how to answer the question"
 - "What is the probability of each class given a certain instance?"
- In the "classification context" we have:
 - evidence E = instance (or "example" when considering a training set)
 - hypothesis H = the class of a concept (or the "class value" of a class)
 - ... prediction: "the instance belongs to the class with highest probability!"
- General case (recall: conditional independence assumption)

$$Pr(H|E) \propto Pr(E_1|H) \times Pr(E_2|H) \dots Pr(E_n|H) \times Pr(H)$$

e.g., scenario of "weather conditions",

$$Pr(yes | E) \propto Pr(E_1 | yes) \times Pr(E_2 | yes) \times Pr(E_3 | yes) \times Pr(E_4 | yes) \times Pr(yes)$$

 $Pr(no | E) \propto Pr(E_1 | no) \times Pr(E_2 | no) \times Pr(E_3 | no) \times Pr(E_4 | no) \times Pr(no)$

where E_i is the attribute i from the instance to classify

... independence assumption (of E_i given H) is Naïve

- "Evidence, E, is composed by independent parts (i.e., attributes)"
 - this is a naïve (simplistic, ingenuous) assumption
 - ... seems to be an ingenuous perspective of our surrounding reality!
- Naïve Bayes designates the Bayes rule under the assumption that
 - $Pr(E | H) = Pr(E_1, ..., E_n | H) = Pr(E_1 | H) \times ... \times Pr(E_n | H)$
 - i.e., assuming that all E_i are conditionally independent given H
- Despite its name, Naïve Bayes works very well in practical datasets!
 - mainly when the attributes are conditionally independent (given H)
- ... so, existence of **redundant attributes** skews the learning process
 - e.g., if we add a new attribute with the same values as windy the effect of windy would be multiplied; all its probabilities would be squared and increase its influence in the decision; if we add 10 such attributes, then the decisions would effectively be made on windy alone!
 - ... there are methods to identify and eliminate redundant attributes!

The problem of "zero-frequency"

Suppose the value of an attribute is not associated with any class,

i.e. the attribute, for that value, has zero-frequency,

... and, what happens to the probability à-posteriori?

As an example, suppose we have,

P(Humidity=high | Play=yes) = 0

what happens to

P(Play=yes | *E*)

?

P(*yes* | *E*) would be:

- indefinite
- an infinite value (+ ∞)
- a zero value (0)
- an unity value (1)

What is the correct answer?

```
P(Play=yes | E) \propto P(Outlook=sunny | Play=yes) \times P(Temperature=cool | Play=yes) \times P(Humidity=high | Play=yes) \times P(Windy=true | Play=yes) \times P(Play=yes) \times P(Play=yes)
```

... probabilities that are zero hold a veto over the other ones; and, we loose all the information about the remaining attributes.

A (standard) technique (named "Laplace estimator"):

add 1 to the count of each "value of the class attribute"

Effect: a (estimated) probability that is always > 0

zero-frequency ⇒ probability modified by estimator

0	utlook		Ten	nperatı	ıre	Н	umidity	1	V	√indy		Pla	y
	yes	no		yes	no		yes	no		yes	no	yes	no
sunny overcast rainy	2 4 3	3 0 2	hot mild cool	2 4 3	2 2 1	high normal	3 6	4 1	false true	6 3	2	9	5
sunny overcast rainy	2/9 4/9 3/9	3/5 0/5 2/5	hot mild cool	2/9 4/9 3/9	2/5 2/5 1/5	high normal	3/9 6/9	4/5 1/5	false true	6/9 3/9	2/5 3/5	9/14	5/14

$$\Sigma = 12 / 12 = 1$$

$$(3 + 1) / (9 + 2) / (4 + 1) / (5 + 2)$$

 $(6 + 1) / (9 + 2) / (1 + 1) / (5 + 2)$

$$\Sigma = 11 / 11 = 1$$
 $\Sigma = 7 / 7 = 1$

Examples – add 1 to the count of each frequency

Note: add 1 to numerator; add to denominator the total amount of 1s

... generalize the Laplace estimator

There is no particular reason for adding 1 to the counts.

It can be more adequate to add a constant value that is different from 1.

Example of *Outlook* for the class value *yes*

Outlook

yes

$$\frac{(2 + \mu / 3)}{(9 + \mu)}$$

rainy

$$\frac{(3 + \mu / 3)}{(3 + \mu)}$$

Note that, in numerator, we have: $\mu \times 1/3$

i.e., the value of μ (e.g., 3) provides a weight that determines how influential the *a-priori* values of 1/3, 1/3 e 1/3 are for each of the three values sunny, overcast and rainy of attribute Outlook.

An increment of μ also increments the <u>importance</u> of the *à-priori* value (1/3 in this example) in the classification of a new instance; a decrement of μ also decrements such importance.

Frequencies weighted by the à-priori probabilities

There is no particular reason for dividing μ into equal parts in the numerators! i.e.,, we generalize the approach of multiplying μ for 1/|range(Attribute)|.

Example of *Outlook* for the class value *yes*

Outlook

yes

sunny

$$\frac{(2 + \mu \times \mathbf{p}_1)}{(9 + \mu)}$$

overcast

$$\frac{(4 + \mu \times \mathbf{p}_2)}{(9 + \mu)}$$

rainy

$$\frac{(3 + \mu \times \mathbf{p}_3)}{(9 + \mu)}$$

Note that, in the numerator, we now have:

$$\mu \times p_i$$

with the additional restriction: $p_1 + p_2 + p_3 = 1$

i.e., the three numbers $\mathbf{p_1}$, $\mathbf{p_2}$ e $\mathbf{p_3}$ now represent the $\mathbf{\grave{a}}$ -priori probabilities of, respectively, the sunny, overcast and rainy of attribute Outlook.

(complete) Bayes formulation – (à-priori in all the terms)

In synthesis, the generalization of Laplace estimator gives:

Pr(
$$E_i = e_i | H = h_j$$
) = $\frac{\#(E_i = e_i, H = h_j) + \mu \times p_j}{\#(H = h_j) + \mu}$.

with the additional restriction: $\Sigma_i p_i = 1$

frequency perspective

Laplace estimator

à-priori probability of attribute *i*

Now we have a complete Bayes formulation with the à-priori probabilities, p_i e Pr(H), being present in all its terms (on the right side)

$$Pr(H | E) \propto Pr(E_1 | H) \times Pr(E_2 | H) \times ... \times Pr(E_n | H) \times Pr(H)$$

i.e., in an informal and intuitive way we can write:

à-posteriori ∝ likelihood-&-à-priori × à-priori

... the practice and the estimation of *à-priori* probabilities

- Advantage of the complete formulation (à-priori in all the terms)
 - completely rigorous
- Disadvantages of the complete formulation
 - it is not usually clear how the à-priori probabilities should be assigned
- In practice the à-priori probabilities may have small impact
 - provided that there are a reasonable number of training instances
 - in that case the observed frequencies approximate the probability
- In practice, the usual approach is just to compute the frequencies
 - using the Laplace estimator
 - by initializing all counts to 1 (one) instead of initializing to 0 (zero)!

Missing Attributes

A "really nice" thing about the Bayes formulation is that dealing with missing values does not constitute an additional problem!

	01	utlook		Temperature			Humidity			V	/indy	Play		
		yes	no		yes	no		yes	no		yes	no	yes	no
	sunny overcast	2 4	3 0	hot mild	2 4	2 2	high normal	3 6	4 1	false true	6 3	2 3	9	5
	rainy	3	2	cool	3	1								
	sunny	2/9	3/5	hot	2/9	2/5	high	3/9	4/5	false	6/9	2/5	9/14	5/14
- 1	overcast	4/9	0/5	mild	4/9	2/5	normal	6/9	1/5	true	3/9	3/5		
	rainy	3/9	2/5	cool	3/9	1/5								

Outlook	Temperature	Humidity	Windy	Play
omisso!	cool	high	true	?

likelihood of yes =

$$3/9 \times 3/9 \times 3/9 \times 9/14 = 0.0238$$

 likelihood of no =
 $1/5 \times 4/5 \times 3/5 \times 5/14 = 0.0343$

Missing Attribute (cont.)

Now (without the attribute)

likelihood of yes =
$$3/9 \times 3/9 \times 9/14 = 0.0238$$

likelihood of
$$no = 1/5 \times 4/5 \times 3/5 \times 5/14 = 0.0343$$

Previous Computation (with the attribute)

likelihood of *yes* =
$$2/9 \times 3/9 \times 3/9 \times 3/9 \times 9/14 = 0.0053$$

likelihood of
$$no = 3/5 \times 1/5 \times 4/5 \times 3/5 \times 5/14 = 0.0206$$

Notice that the final numbers (individually) are much higher without the attribute (it is like if the attribute has a weight of 1)!

But, after normalization, the probability of *yes* and *no* is 41% and 59%

probability of
$$yes = 0.0238 / (0.0238 + 0.0343) = 41\%$$

probability of
$$no = 0.0343 / (0.0238 + 0.0343) = 59\%$$

Synthesis – missing attributes

- If a value is missing in a <u>new instance</u> (to classify)
 - then the likelihood is computed only with the values that really occur
 - the missing value(s) are simply not included in the computation
 - (such as in the previous example)
- If a value is missing in a <u>training instance</u> (data to analyze)
 - then, that value(s) is(are) simply not included in the frequency counts
 - i.e., the probability ratios are based on the <u>number of values that</u> actually occur rather than on the total number of instances

Attributes with Numeric Domain

The previous example has changed: *Temperature* and *Humidity* now have a numeric domain!

Outlook	Temperature	Humidity	Windy	Play
eunny	85	85	false	no
sunny				no
sunny	80	90	true	no
overcast	83	86	false	yes
rainy	70	96	false	yes
rainy	68	80	false	yes
rainy	65	70	true	no
overcast	64	65	true	yes
sunny	72	95	false	no
sunny	69	70	false	yes
rainy	75	80	false	yes
sunny	75	70	true	yes
overcast	72	90	true	yes
overcast	81	75	false	yes
rainy	71	91	true	no

... how to classify when attributes have numeric domain?

Outlook	Temperature	Humidity	Windy	Play
sunny	85	85	false	no
sunny	80	90	true	no
overcast	83	86	false	yes
rainy	70	96	false	yes
rainy	68	80	false	yes
rainy	65	70	true	no
overcast	64	65	true	yes
sunny	72	95	false	no
sunny	69	70	false	yes
rainy	75	80	false	yes
sunny	75	70	true	yes
overcast	72	90	true	yes
overcast	81	75	false	yes
rainy	71	91	true	no

... today the weather conditions are as follows:

Am I going to play tennis?

Outlook	Temperature	Humidity	Windy	Play
sunny	66	90	true	?

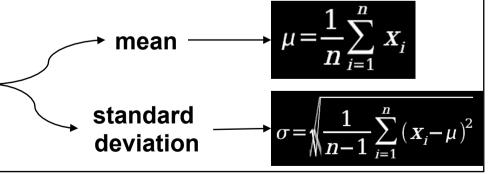
For numeric attributes consider statistical measures

count the nominal attributes and list the vales of numeric attributes

0ι	utlook		Temperatur	е	H	Humidity		\	Vindy		Pla	ay
	yes	no	yes	no		yes	no		yes	no	yes	no
sunny	2	3	83	85		86	85	false	6	2	9	5
overcast	4	0	70	80		96	90	true	3	3		
rainy	3	2	68	65		80	70					
			64	72		65	95					
			69	71		70	91					
			75			80						
			75			70						
			72			90						
			81			75						

... and then,

calculate the <u>mean</u> and <u>standard</u> <u>deviation</u> of numeric attributes



... mean and standard deviation of numeric attributes

0u	ıtlook	ook Temperature			e	Humidity			Windy			Play	
	yes	no		yes	no		yes	no		yes	no	yes	no
sunny overcast rainy	2 4 3	3 0 2		83 70 68 64 69 75 75 72 81	85 80 65 72 71		86 96 80 65 70 80 70 90	85 90 70 95 91	false true	6 3	2 3	9	5
sunny overcast rainy	2/9 4/9 3/9	3/5 0/5 2/5	mean std. dev.	73 6.2	74.6 7.9	mean std. dev.	79.1 10.2	86.2 9.7	false true	6/9 3/9	2/5 3/5	9/14	5/14

... and then,

assume that the numeric values follow some probabilistic law ...

... numeric attributes follow a probabilistic law

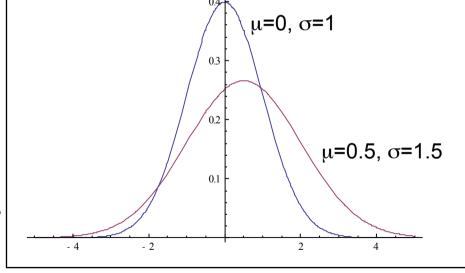
Usually numeric values are handled assuming that they have a "normal" or "Gaussian" probability distribution with mean μ and standard deviation σ .

The probability density function for normal distribution is:

$$f(x,\mu,\sigma) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \, e^{\left(-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)}, -\infty < x < \infty, \sigma > 0$$



Carl Friedrich Gauss 1777 – 1855 Germany



Symmetric around the mean value.

When μ =0 e σ =1 it is called "centered and reduced" (or standard) Normal.

0ι	ıtlook		Temp	eratur	е	Hu	midity		\	Vindy		PI	ау
	yes	no		yes	no		yes	no		yes	no	yes	no
sunny overcast	2 4	3		83 70	85 80		86 96	85 90	false true	6 3	2 3	9	5
rainy	3	2		68 64 69	65 72 71		80 65 70	70 95 91					
				75 75			80 70						
				72 81			90 75						
sunny overcast rainy	2/9 4/9 3/9	3/5 0/5 2/5	mean std. dev.	73 6.2	74.6 7.9	mean std. dev.	79.1 10.2	86.2 9.7	false true	6/9 3/9	2/5 3/5	9/14	5/14

What is the value of:

?

$$f(x,\mu,\sigma) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{\left(-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)}, -\infty < x < \infty, \sigma > 0$$

... example – and classification of a "new day"

$$\mu$$
=73 e σ=6.2

= 1 / (
$$6.2 \times \text{sqrt}(2 \times \pi)) \times e^{(-(66-73)^2/(2 \times 6.2^2))} = 0.0340$$

... and what is the value for:

$$\mu$$
=79.1 e σ =10.2

= 1 / (10.2 × sqrt(2 ×
$$\pi$$
)) × e[^](- (90 - 79.1)² / (2 × 10.2²)) = 0.0221

So, in this "new day" am I expected to play tennis?

Outlook	Temperature	Humidity	Windy	Play
sunny	66	90	true	?

... example – classification with numeric domain

```
likelihood of yes = 2/9 \times 0.0340 \times 0.0221 \times 3/9 \times 9/14 = 0.000036
```

likelihood of $no = 3/5 \times 0.0221 \times 0.0381 \times 3/5 \times 5/14 = 0.000108$

```
probability of yes = 0.000036 / (0.000036 + 0.000108) / = 25.0\%
```

probability of no = 0.000108 / (0.000036 + 0.000108) \= 75.0%

These probability values are very close to the probabilities calculated earlier with nominal domains for the *temperature* and *humidity*.

i.e., the numeric values of 66 and 90 yield similar probabilities to, respectively, the nominal values of *cool* and *high* previously used.

The numeric domain & missing values

What to do with missing values in a numeric domain?

The missing values (in the training dataset) are simply not included in the calculation neither of the mean, μ , nor the standard deviation, σ .

The increase of missing values decreases the capability of properly expressing the distribution of the values of that attribute.

Naïve Bayes – final considerations about this technique

- Impressive results can be achieved
 - even when the "independence assumption" is not guaranteed
- What is the justification for such good results?
 - the classification does not demand precise probability estimation values
- ... the classification only demands that the maximum probability
 - is assigned to the correct class!
- Nevertheless, adding too many redundant attributes (e.g., equal)
 - is problematic as it augments the attribute's weight in classification

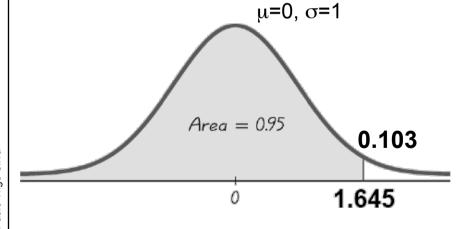
Additional – density function and cumulative function

The probability density function for the Normal distribution is given by:

$$f(x,\mu,\sigma) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{\left(-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)}, -\infty < x < \infty, \sigma > 0$$

The probability density function for Normal distribution has total area equal to 1.

 $f(z, \mu, \sigma)$ describes a distributions and enables to characterize the cumulative distribution $Pr(Z \le z)$ as the area of function f until the point z.



Pr(
$$Z \le 1.645$$
) = 0.95
= $\int_{-\infty}^{1.645} \widehat{f(x, 0, 1)}$

 $F(z) = Pr(Z \le z)$ is named the cumulative distribution function.

Additional – relation between density and probability

Notice that the probability of a continuous variable, *Z*, having exactly a certain value, *z*, is zero,

i.e.,
$$Pr(Z = z) = 0$$

Therefore, the meaning of the density probability function f(z) is that:

the probability of the value to occur in a "small" neighborhood, ϵ , of z, e.g., between $z - \epsilon/2$ and $z + \epsilon/2$,

is
$$\epsilon f(z)$$
.

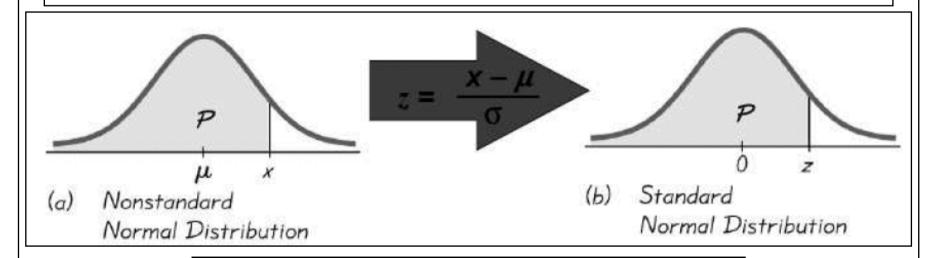
i.e.,
$$\Pr(z - \varepsilon/2 \le Z \le z + \varepsilon/2) \approx \varepsilon \times f(z)$$

In presented technique the ε does not need to be used because as it occurs in all likelihood values it is canceled when divided by summation of all likelihood

Additional – computation of the probabilities of the Normal

To compute the $Pr(X \le x)$ one may resort to tables.

If X follows Normal distribution $N(\mu, \sigma)$ we need to transform the variable into the standard Normal N(0, 1) because all tables has values for that distribution.



If X is
$$N(\mu, \sigma)$$
, then $Z = (X - \mu) / \sigma$ is $N(0, 1)$.

for example, if X is N(5, 2) and we want to compute $Pr(X \le 7)$:

$$Pr(X \le 7) = Pr((X-5)/2 \le (7-5)/2) = Pr(Z \le 1) = 0.8413$$

... consult the table of the cumulative function N(0, 1)0.00 0.01 0.02 0.03 0.04 0.05 0.06 0.07 0.08 0.09 A(z)0.5359 0.0 0.5000 0.5040 0.5080 0.5160 0.5199 0.5239 0.5279 0.5319 0.5120 0.5714 0.5753 0.1 0.5398 0.5438 0.5478 0.5517 0.5557 0.5596 0.5636 0.5675 0.5793 0.5832 0.2 0.5871 0.5910 0.5948 0.5987 0.6026 0.6064 0.6103 0.6141 0.6217 0.6255 0.6293 0.6517 0.3 0.6179 0.6331 0.6368 0.6406 0.6443 0.6480 0.6879 0.4 0.6554 0.6591 0.6628 0.6664 0.6700 0.6736 0.6772 0.6808 0.6844 0.7224 0.5 0.6915 0.6950 0.6985 0.7019 0.7054 0.7088 0.7123 0.7157 0.7190 0.6 0.7257 0.7291 0.7324 0.7357 0.7389 0.7422 0.7454 0.7486 0.7517 0.7549 0.7 0.7580 0.7611 0.7642 0.7673 0.7704 0.7734 0.7764 0.7794 0.7823 0.7852 0.8 0.7881 0.7910 0.7939 0.7967 0.7995 0.8023 0.8051 0.8078 0.8106 0.8133 1 Z -3 -2 0.9 0.8159 0.8186 0.8212 0.8238 0.8264 0.8289 0.8315 0.8340 0.8365 0.8389 0.8531 0.8413 0.8438 0.8461 0.8485 0.8508 0.8554 0.8577 0.8599 0.8621 0.8729 0.8749 0.8830 1.1 0.8643 0.8665 0.8686 0.8708 0.8770 0.8790 0.8810 0.8907 0.8925 0.8944 0.8962 0.8980 0.8997 0.9015 1.2 0.8849 0.8869 0.8888 0.9032 0.9082 0.9099 0.9115 0.9177 1.3 0.9049 0.9066 0.9131 0.9147 0.9162 0.9251 1.4 0.9192 0.9207 0.9222 0.9236 0.9265 0.9279 0.9292 0.9306 0.9319 0.9332 0.9345 0.9357 0.9370 0.9382 0.9394 0.9406 0.9418 0.9429 0.9441 0.9505 0.9452 0.9463 0.9474 0.9484 0.9495 0.9515 0.9525 0.9535 0.9545 0.9599 0.9554 1.7 0.9564 0.9573 0.9582 0.9591 0.9608 0.9616 0.9625 0.9633 0.9678 1.8 0.9641 0.9649 0.9656 0.9664 0.9671 0.9686 0.9693 0.9699 0.9706 1.9 0.9744 0.9767 0.9713 0.9719 0.9726 0.9732 0.9738 0.9750 0.9756 0.9761 2.0 0.9772 0.9778 0.9783 0.9788 0.9793 0.9798 0.9803 0.9808 0.9812 0.9817 2.1 0.9821 0.9826 0.9830 0.9834 0.9838 0.9842 0.9846 0.9850 0.9854 0.9857 0.9881 0.9861 0.9864 0.9868 0.9871 0.9875 0.9878 0.9884 0.9887 0.9890 2.3 0.9893 0.9896 0.9898 0.9901 0.9904 0.9906 0.9909 0.9911 0.9913 0.9916 2.4 0.9918 0.9920 0.9922 0.9925 0.9927 0.9929 0.9931 0.9932 0.9934 0.9936 2.5 0.9938 0.9940 0.9941 0.9943 0.9945 0.9946 0.9948 0.9949 0.9951 0.9952 2.6 0.9963 0.9964 0.9953 0.9955 0.9956 0.9957 0.9959 0.9960 0.9961 0.9962 → Pr[$Z \le 1$] = 0.8413 2.7 0.9965 0.9966 0.9967 0.9968 0.9969 0.9970 0.9971 0.9972 0.9973 0.9974 2.8 0.9974 0.9975 0.9976 0.9977 0.9977 0.9978 0.9979 0.9979 0.9980 0.9981 Paulo Trigo Silva 2.9 0.9981 0.9982 0.9982 0.9983 0.9984 0.9984 0.9985 0.9985 0.9986 0.9986 3.0 0.9990 0.9987 0.9987 0.9987 0.9988 0.9988 0.9989 0.9989 0.9989 0.9990 3.1 0.9992 0.9993 0.9990 0.9991 0.9991 0.9991 0.9992 0.9992 0.9992 0.9993 3.2 0.9993 0.9993 0.9994 0.9994 0.9994 0.9994 0.9994 0.9995 0.9995 0.9995 3.3 0.9995 0.9995 0.9995 0.9996 0.9996 0.9996 0.9996 0.9996 0.9996 0.9997 3.4 0.9997 0.9997 0.9997 0.9997 0.9997 0.9997 0.9997 0.9997 0.9997 0.9998 Algorithms with Statistical Support, 70 0.9998 0.9998 0.9998 0.9998 0.9998 0.9998 0.9998 0.9998 0.9998 0.9998

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