<u>Pattern Recognition – Unit 1 – IMP Questions</u>

1.) Define Pattern Recognition. List out its applications.

Pattern Recognition: Pattern recognition is a branch of machine learning that focuses on the classification or categorization of data based on patterns or regularities. It involves the use of algorithms to identify structures and regularities in data, enabling systems to make decisions or predictions based on input data. Pattern recognition is foundational to fields like artificial intelligence and data science, where it is used to extract meaningful information from raw data.

Applications of Pattern Recognition:

1. Image and Facial Recognition:

- Identifying and classifying objects in images.
- Facial recognition systems used in security and social media tagging.

2. Speech Recognition:

- Converting spoken language into text.
- Used in virtual assistants (e.g., Siri, Alexa) and transcription services.

3. Handwriting Recognition:

- Recognizing and digitizing handwritten text.
- Used in digital notepads and form processing.

4. Biometric Recognition:

- Identifying individuals based on physical characteristics like fingerprints, iris patterns, and voice.
- Applications in security and access control systems.

5. Medical Diagnosis:

- Analyzing medical images (e.g., X-rays, MRIs) to detect diseases.
- Pattern recognition in genomics for identifying genetic disorders.

6. Financial Analysis:

- Detecting fraudulent transactions and activities.
- Predictive modeling for stock market analysis and credit scoring.

7. Natural Language Processing (NLP):

Sentiment analysis of text data (e.g., social media posts, reviews).

Language translation and text summarization.

8. Robotics and Automation:

Object detection and navigation for autonomous robots.

9. Weather Prediction:

- Analyzing patterns in weather data to forecast weather conditions.
- Climate modeling and prediction.

10. Marketing and Customer Insights:

- o Analyzing customer behavior and preferences for targeted marketing.
- Recommender systems used in e-commerce platforms.

These applications demonstrate the versatility and importance of pattern recognition in various industries, contributing to advancements in technology and improving the efficiency of systems and processes.

2.) Explain Various Steps of Pattern Recognition Life Cycle with Diagram

The pattern recognition life cycle involves a series of steps to identify and classify patterns within data. Here is a detailed explanation of each step, accompanied by a diagram.

Steps of Pattern Recognition Life Cycle:

1. Data Collection:

- Gather raw data relevant to the pattern recognition task.
- Sources of data can include sensors, databases, or external data providers.

2. Preprocessing:

- Clean the data to remove noise and handle missing values.
- Normalize or scale the data to bring all features to a similar scale.

3. Feature Extraction:

- Identify and extract significant features from the raw data that will help in classification.
- Techniques include dimensionality reduction and selecting relevant attributes.

4. Model Selection:

- Choose an appropriate algorithm or model for recognizing patterns in the data.
- o Options include statistical models, neural networks, decision trees, etc.

5. **Training**:

- Use a labeled dataset to train the model, adjusting its parameters to minimize error.
- Involves splitting the data into training and validation sets.

6. **Testing**:

 Metrics like accuracy, precision, recall, and F1-score are used for evaluation.

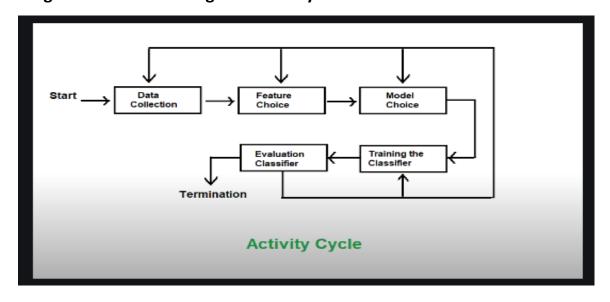
7. Deployment:

- Implement the trained model in a real-world environment where it can make predictions on new data.
- This step may involve setting up servers, APIs, or embedding the model in applications.

8. Maintenance:

- Continuously monitor the model's performance and update it with new data if necessary.
- Address issues like model drift and retraining with updated datasets.

Diagram of Pattern Recognition Life Cycle:



This diagram illustrates the sequential flow from data collection to model deployment and maintenance, highlighting the iterative nature of the pattern recognition life cycle. Each step is crucial for building an effective pattern recognition system, ensuring that the model performs well and remains accurate over time.

3.) Explain the Difference Between PDF and CDF with Example

Probability Density Function (PDF) and Cumulative Distribution Function (CDF) are two fundamental concepts in probability and statistics, especially when dealing with continuous random variables.

Probability Density Function (PDF):

 Definition: A PDF describes the likelihood of a random variable to take on a specific value. For continuous random variables, the PDF is a function that describes the relative likelihood for this random variable to occur at a given point.

• Properties:

- The value of the PDF at any point can be zero or positive.
- The area under the PDF curve over the entire range of the random variable is equal to 1.
- The probability that a random variable falls within a particular range is given by the area under the PDF curve for that range.
- **Example**: Suppose XXX is a continuous random variable representing the height of adult males in a certain population, and it follows a normal distribution with mean μ =70\mu = 70 μ =70 inches and standard deviation σ =3\ sigma = 3 σ =3 inches. The PDF of XXX would be represented by a bell-shaped curve centered at 70 inches. The probability that a male is exactly 70 inches tall is zero, but the height around 70 inches will have the highest density.

Cumulative Distribution Function (CDF):

• **Definition**: A CDF represents the probability that a random variable XXX takes on a value less than or equal to xxx. It is a function that maps from the value of the random variable to the cumulative probability.

Properties:

The CDF is non-decreasing and ranges from 0 to 1.

- The CDF of a continuous random variable is a smooth curve.
- **Example**: Using the same example of the height of adult males, the CDF at x=70x=70x=70 inches represents the probability that a randomly selected male has a height of 70 inches or less. For a normal distribution, this might be approximately 0.5, meaning there's a 50% chance that a randomly selected male is 70 inches or shorter.

Visualization Example:

PDF Example: Normal Distribution

- Imagine a bell curve centered at x=70x = 70x=70 with σ =3\sigma = 3 σ =3. This is the PDF.
- The height of the curve at any point xxx gives the relative likelihood of X=xX = xX=x.

CDF Example: Normal Distribution

- The CDF starts at 0, increases smoothly, and approaches 1 as xxx increases.
- At x=70x = 70x=70, the CDF value might be 0.5, representing the probability of selecting a male with height less than or equal to 70 inches.

Relationship Between PDF and CDF:

- The PDF is the derivative of the CDF. Conversely, the CDF is the integral of the PDF.
- Mathematically:
 - o $f(x)=dF(x)dxf(x) = \frac{dF(x)}{dx}f(x)=dxdF(x)$
 - $F(x)=\int -\infty x f(t) dt F(x) = \int -\infty x f(t) dt F(x) = \int -\infty x f(t) dt$

Example Calculation:

- 1. For a normal distribution with μ =70\mu = 70 μ =70 and σ =3\sigma = 3 σ =3:
 - \circ PDF: $P(x) = \int abf(x) dx$.
 - CDF: $F(x)=x\int -\infty f(t)dt$.
 - $_{\circ}$ The PDF graph peaks at x=70x = 70x=70 and the CDF graph starts at 0, increasing to 1 as xxx goes to infinity.

These concepts are crucial in statistics and probability, providing different perspectives on how probabilities are distributed across the range of a random variable.

4.) Discuss the Significance of Statistical Pattern Recognition

Statistical Pattern Recognition is a branch of machine learning and pattern recognition that uses statistical techniques to classify data and identify patterns. Its significance lies in its robust methodology, versatility, and wide range of applications.

Key Points of Significance:

1. Foundation for Machine Learning:

 Statistical pattern recognition forms the basis for many machine learning algorithms. Techniques such as Bayesian networks, Gaussian processes, and Hidden Markov Models rely on statistical principles to model complex data distributions and make predictions.

2. Robustness and Flexibility:

 Statistical methods can handle noise and variability in data, making them robust to imperfect data. This flexibility allows them to be applied in a wide range of real-world scenarios, from medical diagnosis to financial forecasting.

3. Quantitative Analysis:

These methods provide a quantitative framework for decision-making.
 By quantifying uncertainty and variability, statistical pattern recognition enables informed decisions based on probabilistic measures rather than deterministic rules.

4. Data-Driven Insights:

 Statistical techniques can uncover hidden patterns and relationships within data, leading to valuable insights. For instance, in genomics, statistical pattern recognition can identify gene interactions and predict disease susceptibility.

5. Handling High-Dimensional Data:

o In many modern applications, data is high-dimensional (e.g., image pixels, genetic data). Statistical pattern recognition techniques like Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA) are essential for dimensionality reduction and feature extraction, making analysis computationally feasible.

6. Predictive Modeling:

 Predictive models built using statistical pattern recognition are crucial in forecasting future events based on historical data. Applications include predicting stock prices, customer behavior, and equipment failures.

7. Real-Time Applications:

 Many real-time systems, such as speech recognition, object detection, and autonomous vehicles, rely on statistical pattern recognition to process and respond to data instantaneously.

8. Medical Applications:

 In healthcare, statistical pattern recognition is used for diagnosing diseases, analyzing medical images, and personalizing treatment plans.
 For example, machine learning models can predict patient outcomes based on historical medical records and current health indicators.

9. Automation and Efficiency:

 By automating the recognition and classification of patterns, statistical methods enhance efficiency and reduce human error. This is particularly valuable in fields like manufacturing, where automated quality control systems inspect products for defects.

10. Scientific Research:

 In scientific research, statistical pattern recognition aids in analyzing experimental data, testing hypotheses, and validating models. It provides a rigorous approach to understanding complex phenomena in fields like physics, biology, and social sciences.

Applications of Statistical Pattern Recognition:

1. Image and Video Analysis:

Face recognition, object detection, and scene understanding.

2. Natural Language Processing:

• Text classification, sentiment analysis, and machine translation.

3. Speech Recognition:

Converting spoken words into text and understanding natural language.

4. Bioinformatics:

o Analyzing genetic data and identifying biomarkers for diseases.

5. Finance:

o Fraud detection, risk assessment, and algorithmic trading.

6. Marketing:

 Customer segmentation, behavior prediction, and recommendation systems.

7. Healthcare:

Disease diagnosis, treatment recommendation, and patient monitoring.

Conclusion:

Statistical pattern recognition is a critical field that integrates statistical methods with machine learning to analyze and interpret complex data. Its significance lies in its ability to handle diverse and high-dimensional data, provide robust and quantitative insights, and support a wide array of applications across different industries. As data continues to grow in volume and complexity, the importance of statistical pattern recognition will only increase, driving innovation and informed decision-making in various domains.

5.) What is Naive Bayes Classifier? Discuss About It.

The **Naive Bayes Classifier** is a probabilistic machine learning model used for classification tasks. It is based on Bayes' Theorem and assumes that the features (or predictors) are conditionally independent given the class label. Despite this 'naive' assumption, the classifier often performs surprisingly well in practice, especially for text classification problems like spam detection, sentiment analysis, and document categorization.

Bayes' Theorem

Bayes' Theorem provides a way to update the probability of a hypothesis based on new evidence. It is formulated as:

Bayes Theorem Formula

The formula for the Bayes theorem can be written in a variety of ways. The following is the most common version:

 $P(A \mid B) = P(B \mid A)P(A) / P(B)$

P(A | B) is the conditional probability of event A occurring, given that B is true.

P(B | A) is the conditional probability of event B occurring, given that A is true.

P(A) and P(B) are the probabilities of A and B occurring independently of one another.

Naive Bayes Classifier Assumptions

Working of Naïve Bayes' Classifier can be understood with the help of the below example:

Suppose we have a dataset of **weather conditions** and corresponding target variable "**Play**". So using this dataset we need to decide that whether we should play or not on a particular day according to the weather conditions. So to solve this problem, we need to follow the below steps:

1. Convert the given dataset into frequency tables.

2. Generate Likelihood table by finding the probabilities of given features.

3. Now, use Bayes theorem to calculate the posterior probability.

Problem: If the weather is sunny, then the Player should play or not?

Solution: To solve this, first consider the below dataset:

	Outlook	Play
0	Rainy	Yes
1	Sunny	Yes
2	Overcast	Yes
3	Overcast	Yes
4	Sunny	No
5	Rainy	Yes
6	Sunny	Yes
7	Overcast	Yes
8	Rainy	No
9	Sunny	No
10	Sunny	Yes
11	Rainy	No
12	Overcast	Yes
13	Overcast	Yes

Frequency table for the Weather Conditions:

Weather	Yes	No
Overcast	5	0
Rainy	2	2
Sunny	3	2
Total	10	5

Likelihood table weather condition:

Weather	No	Yes	
Overcast	0	5	5/14= 0.35
Rainy	2	2	4/14=0.29
Sunny	2	3	5/14=0.35
All	4/14=0.29	10/14=0.71	

Applying Bayes'theorem:

P(Yes|Sunny)= P(Sunny|Yes)*P(Yes)/P(Sunny)

P(Sunny | Yes) = 3/10 = 0.3

P(Sunny)= 0.35

P(Yes)=0.71

So P(Yes|Sunny) = 0.3*0.71/0.35= **0.60**

P(No|Sunny)= P(Sunny|No)*P(No)/P(Sunny)

P(Sunny|NO)= 2/4=0.5

P(No) = 0.29

P(Sunny)= 0.35

So P(No|Sunny)= 0.5*0.29/0.35 = **0.41**

So as we can see from the above calculation that P(Yes|Sunny)>P(No|Sunny)

Hence on a Sunny day, Player can play the game.

Advantages and Disadvantages

Advantages:

- Simple to implement and computationally efficient.
- Works well with small datasets and high-dimensional data (e.g., text).
- Requires fewer training data compared to other models.

Disadvantages:

- The strong independence assumption is often unrealistic, which can affect performance.
- Less effective when features are highly correlated.
- Can perform poorly with continuous data without appropriate preprocessing.

Applications

1. Text Classification:

o Spam filtering, sentiment analysis, document categorization.

2. Medical Diagnosis:

Predicting diseases based on symptoms.

3. Recommendation Systems:

Collaborative filtering in recommendation systems.

4. Real-Time Prediction:

o Due to its efficiency, it is suitable for real-time applications.

In summary, the Naive Bayes Classifier is a powerful yet simple probabilistic classifier that performs well in many practical scenarios, especially when dealing with high-dimensional data and text classification.

6.) Define and Give Example of Bayes' Theorem

Bayes' Theorem is a fundamental theorem in probability theory and statistics that describes how to update the probability of a hypothesis based on new evidence. It provides a way to revise existing predictions or theories (hypotheses) in light of new data.

Definition

Bayes' Theorem is formulated as:

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

where:

P(A) = The probability of A occurring

P(B) =The probability of B occurring

P(A|B) =The probability of A given B

P(B|A) =The probability of B given A

 $P(A \cap B)$ = The probability of both A and B

Bayes Theorem Examples

Example 1: A person has undertaken a job. The probabilities of completion of the job on time with and without rain are 0.44 and 0.95 respectively. If the probability that it will rain is 0.45, then determine the probability that the job will be completed on time.

Solution:

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Let E_1 be the event that the mining job will be completed on time and E_2 be the event that it rains. We have,
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P(A) = 0.45,

P(no rain) = P(B) = 1 - P(A) = 1 - 0.45 = 0.55

By multiplication law of probability,

 $P(E_1) = 0.44$, and $P(E_2) = 0.95$

Since, events A and B form partitions of the sample space S, by total probability theorem, we have

 $P(E) = P(A) P(E_1) + P(B) P(E_2)$

 \Rightarrow P(E) = 0.45 × 0.44 + 0.55 × 0.95

 \Rightarrow P(E) = 0.198 + 0.5225 = 0.7205

So, the probability that the job will be completed on time is 0.7205

Interpretation

- **Prior Probability (P(A)P(A)P(A))**: Initial belief about the probability of having the disease before considering the test result.
- Likelihood (P(B|A)P(B|A)P(B|A)): How likely we are to observe the positive test result if the patient truly has the disease.
- Marginal Likelihood (P(B)P(B)P(B)): Overall probability of a positive test result, accounting for both true positives and false positives.
- **Posterior Probability** (P(A|B)P(A|B)P(A|B)): Updated belief about the probability of having the disease after considering the positive test result.

Bayes' Theorem allows for updating the probability of a hypothesis (having the disease) based on new evidence (positive test result), providing a more accurate probability assessment.

7.) Explain the Gaussian (Normal) Distribution with an Example

Gaussian Distribution, also known as the **Normal Distribution**, is one of the most important probability distributions in statistics and is commonly used in the natural and social sciences to represent real-valued random variables whose distributions are not known. It is characterized by its bell-shaped curve, which is symmetric about the mean.

Key Characteristics of Gaussian Distribution:

- 1. **Mean** (μ): The central point of the distribution. The peak of the bell curve occurs at the mean.
- 2. **Standard Deviation (σ)**: Measures the spread or dispersion of the distribution. A smaller standard deviation indicates that the data points are closer to the mean, while a larger standard deviation indicates that the data points are spread out over a wider range of values.

The probability density function (PDF) of a Gaussian distribution is given by:

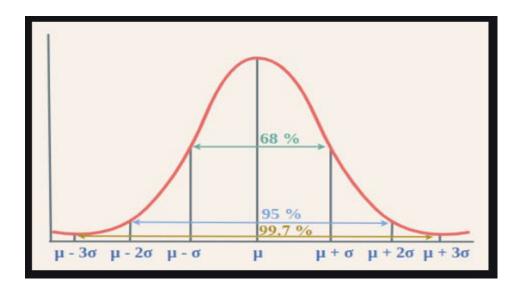
$$f(x, \mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

Where,

- x is the variable
- μ is the mean
- σ is the standard deviation

Properties of the Gaussian Distribution:

- 1. **Symmetry**: The Gaussian distribution is symmetric around the mean.
- 2. **Bell-shaped Curve**: It has a single peak at the mean.
- 3. **68-95-99.7 Rule**:



- \circ Approximately 68% of the data falls within one standard deviation (μ±σ\ mu \pm \sigmaμ±σ) of the mean.
- o Approximately 95% falls within two standard deviations ($\mu\pm2\sigma$ \mu \pm 2\sigma $\mu\pm2\sigma$).
- $_{\odot}$ Approximately 99.7% falls within three standard deviations (μ±3σ\mu \ pm 3\sigmaμ±3σ).

Example:

Question 1: Calculate the probability density function of normal distribution using the following data. x=3, $\mu=4$ and $\sigma=2$.

Solution: Given, variable, x = 3

Mean = 4 and

Standard deviation = 2

By the formula of the probability density of normal distribution, we can write;

$$f(3,4,2) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{\frac{-(3-2)^2}{2\times 2^2}}$$

Hence, f(3,4,2) = 1.106.

Question 2: If the value of random variable is 2, mean is 5 and the standard deviation is 4, then find the probability density function of the gaussian distribution.

Solution: Given,

Variable, x = 2

Mean = 5 and

Standard deviation = 4

By the formula of the probability density of normal distribution, we can write;

$$f(2,2,4) = \frac{1}{4\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{\frac{-(2-2)^2}{2\times 4^2}}$$

$$f(2,2,4) = 1/(4\sqrt{2\pi}) e^0$$

$$f(2,2,4) = 0.0997$$

There are two main parameters of normal distribution in statistics namely mean and standard deviation. The location and scale parameters of the given normal distribution can be estimated using these two parameters.

Applications of Gaussian Distribution:

- 1. **Natural Phenomena**: Many natural phenomena follow a normal distribution, such as the heights, weights, and blood pressure of individuals in a population.
- 2. **Measurement Errors**: In many scientific experiments, measurement errors tend to be normally distributed.
- 3. **Statistical Methods**: Many statistical tests and procedures assume normality of the data, such as t-tests and ANOVA.
- 4. **Finance**: Asset returns are often modelled using normal distributions.

In summary, the Gaussian (normal) distribution is a fundamental probability distribution in statistics, characterized by its mean and standard deviation, and is widely used in various fields to model real-world data.

8.) Explain Discriminant Functions and Normal Density as per Bayesian Decision Theory

Bayesian Decision Theory is a fundamental statistical approach that makes decisions based on probabilities and costs associated with different outcomes. It involves calculating the probabilities of various states of nature given observed data and then making decisions that minimize expected loss or maximize expected utility.

1. Discriminant Function:

 A discriminant function is a function that maps data points to a score based on the values of input features. This score helps in classifying the data point into one of the predefined classes.

2. **Objective**:

 The main goal of a discriminant function is to separate different classes in a feature space in such a way that the distance between classes is maximized and the variance within each class is minimized.

Types of Discriminant Functions

1. Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA)

Description: LDA is a method that finds a linear combination of features that best separates two or more classes. It assumes that the features are normally distributed and that the covariance matrices of each class are the same.

Discriminant Function:

For a two-class problem, the LDA discriminant function is given by:

$$g(x) = x^T W + b$$

where W is the weight vector and b is the bias term. The class with the higher score g(x) is chosen.

Steps:

- Compute the means and covariances of each class.
- Compute the within-class scatter matrix and between-class scatter matrix.
- Find the linear discriminants by solving the generalized eigenvalue problem.
- · Use the linear discriminants to classify new observations.

Advantages:

- Simple and computationally efficient.
- Provides a clear and interpretable model.

Disadvantages:

- Assumes equal covariance matrices for all classes.
- Assumes normality of the data.

Quadratic Discriminant Analysis (QDA)

• **Description**: QDA extends LDA by allowing each class to have its own covariance matrix. This makes QDA more flexible, but also more complex.\

Discriminant Function:

For a two-class problem, the QDA discriminant function is:

$$g_i(x) = -rac{1}{2}\log |\Sigma_i| - rac{1}{2}(x-\mu_i)^T \Sigma_i^{-1}(x-\mu_i) + \log \pi_i$$

where Σ_i is the covariance matrix of class i, μ_i is the mean vector, and π_i is the prior probability of class i.

Steps:

- · Compute the mean vector and covariance matrix for each class.
- Calculate the discriminant function for each class.
- Classify the observation to the class with the highest discriminant function value.

Advantages:

More flexible than LDA due to the allowance for different covariance matrices.

Disadvantages:

 Requires estimating more parameters, which may lead to overfitting if the sample size is small.

Fisher's Linear Discriminant

• **Description**: Fisher's Linear Discriminant is a special case of LDA used specifically to find the linear combination of features that best separates two classes by maximizing the ratio of between-class variance to within-class variance.

Discriminant Function:

The Fisher's criterion is given by:

$$J(w) = rac{w^T S_B w}{w^T S_W w}$$

where S_B is the between-class scatter matrix and S_W is the within-class scatter matrix. The optimal w is found by solving the generalized eigenvalue problem.

Steps:

- Compute the scatter matrices S_B and S_W .
- Solve the eigenvalue problem to find the optimal projection direction w.
- ullet Project the data onto w and classify based on the projection.

Advantages:

- Effective in low-dimensional spaces.
- Provides a clear separation between classes.

Disadvantages:

- Assumes normal distribution and equal covariance matrices.
- May not perform well with overlapping classes or in high-dimensional spaces.

•

Normal Density (Gaussian Distribution)

Normal Density is a probability density function associated with the normal (Gaussian) distribution. It plays a significant role in Bayesian decision theory due to its mathematical properties and frequent occurrence in real-world data.

$$f(x,\mu,\sigma) = rac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}}\;e^{rac{-(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

Where,

x is the variable μ is the mean σ is the standard deviation

9.) Parameter Estimation Methods

Parameter estimation is a key aspect of statistical analysis and machine learning, where the goal is to estimate the parameters of a statistical model from sample data. There are several methods for parameter estimation, each with its own advantages and applications. Here are some of the most common methods:

1. Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

Description:

MLE estimates parameters by finding the values that maximize the likelihood function. The likelihood function measures how likely it is to observe the given sample data given certain parameter values.

Steps:

- Define the likelihood function based on the statistical model.
- Differentiate the likelihood function with respect to the parameters.
- Solve the resulting equations to find the parameter values that maximize the likelihood.

Advantages:

- Asymptotically unbiased and efficient.
- Provides a clear framework for deriving estimators.

Disadvantages:

- Can be complex for models with multiple parameters or non-standard likelihood functions.

2. Least Squares Estimation (LSE)

Description:

LSE estimates parameters by minimizing the sum of the squared differences between observed and predicted values. It is commonly used in linear regression.

Steps:

- Define the residual sum of squares (RSS) as the sum of squared differences between observed values and predicted values.

- Minimize RSS with respect to the parameters.

Advantages:

- Simple and computationally efficient.
- Provides closed-form solutions for linear models.

Disadvantages:

- Sensitive to outliers.
- Assumes that the model errors are normally distributed and homoscedastic.

3. Bayesian Estimation

Description:

Bayesian estimation incorporates prior beliefs about the parameters through a prior distribution and updates these beliefs with the observed data using Bayes' theorem to obtain the posterior distribution.

Steps:

- Specify a prior distribution for the parameters.
- Calculate the likelihood of the observed data given the parameters.
- Update the prior with the likelihood to obtain the posterior distribution.

Advantages:

- Incorporates prior knowledge and uncertainty.
- Provides a full probability distribution for parameter estimates.

Disadvantages:

- Requires specification of a prior, which can be subjective.
- Computationally intensive, especially for complex models.

4. Method of Moments (MoM)

Description: MoM estimates parameters by equating sample moments (e.g., sample mean, variance) with the theoretical moments of the distribution and solving for the parameters.

Steps:

- Calculate sample moments from the data.
- Set these equal to the theoretical moments of the distribution.
- Solve the resulting equations to estimate the parameters.

Advantages:

- Often simpler to compute than MLE.
- Useful when MLE is difficult to compute.

Disadvantages:

- Estimates can be less efficient compared to MLE.
- May not always provide unique solutions.

5. Regularized Estimation

Description:

Regularization methods add a penalty term to the estimation procedure to prevent overfitting and handle high-dimensional data.

Types:

- Lasso (Least Absolute Shrinkage and Selection Operator): Adds a penalty proportional to the absolute value of coefficients (L1 norm), which can lead to sparse models.
- Ridge Regression: Adds a penalty proportional to the square of the coefficients (L2 norm), which can help in stabilizing estimates.

Steps:

- Define the objective function that includes both the loss function and the penalty term.
- Optimize this objective function to obtain parameter estimates.

Advantages:

- Helps to manage multi collinearity and overfitting.
- Can improve model generalization.

Disadvantages:

- Requires tuning of regularization parameters.
- The choice of penalty type can impact the results.

6. Empirical Bayes Estimation

Description:

Empirical Bayes estimation involves estimating the prior distribution from the data itself, rather than specifying it subjectively.

Steps:

- Estimate the prior distribution from the sample data.
- Apply Bayes' theorem with the estimated prior to obtain the posterior distribution.

Advantages:

- Provides a practical approach when prior information is limited.
- Combines elements of Bayesian and frequentist approaches.

Disadvantages:

- The estimated prior might not always be reliable.
- Still requires careful model specification.

Each method has its own strengths and is suited for different types of problems and data structures. The choice of method often depends on the specific requirements of the problem, such as the complexity of the model, the amount of data, and the assumptions that can be made.

Summary:

- Maximum-Likelihood Estimation (MLE): Estimates parameters by maximizing the likelihood function based on observed data.
- **Expectation-Maximization (EM) Method**: An iterative approach for estimating parameters when dealing with missing data or latent variables.
- Bayesian Parameter Estimation: Incorporates prior beliefs and updates them with observed data to estimate parameters using Bayesian inference.

10.) From a standard desk of playing cards, a single card is drawn. The probability of that card is queen is (4/52), then calculate the posterior probability P(queen | Face), which means the drawn card is queen.

Definitions and Known Probabilities

- 1. Total number of cards in a deck: 52.
- 2. Number of Queens: 4.
- 3. Number of Face cards: Face cards are Jacks, Queens, and Kings. There are 3 face cards per suit and 4 suits, so there are $3 \times 4 = 12$ face cards in total.

Probabilities

Prior Probability of Queen: P(Queen). This is the probability of drawing a Queen from the
deck:

$$P(\mathrm{Queen}) = rac{4}{52} = rac{1}{13}$$

Prior Probability of Face Card: P(Face). This is the probability of drawing a Face card from the
deck:

$$P(ext{Face}) = rac{12}{52} = rac{3}{13}$$

 Joint Probability of Queen and Face Card: P(Queen ∩ Face). Since all Queens are Face cards, this is just the probability of drawing a Queen:

$$P(ext{Queen} \cap ext{Face}) = P(ext{Queen}) = rac{1}{13}$$

Bayes' Theorem

Bayes' theorem relates the conditional probability $P(Queen \mid Face)$ to the other probabilities:

$$P(ext{Queen} \mid ext{Face}) = rac{P(ext{Queen} \cap ext{Face})}{P(ext{Face})}$$

Substitute the known values into the formula:

$$P(ext{Queen} \mid ext{Face}) = rac{rac{1}{13}}{rac{3}{13}} = rac{1}{3}$$

Result

The posterior probability of drawing a Queen given that the card is a Face card is $\frac{1}{3}$.

11.) A fair six-sided die is rolled. What is the probability of rolling a number greater than 3?

To find the probability of rolling a number greater than 3 on a fair six-sided die, follow these steps:

A fair six-sided die has the following possible outcomes: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6.

The numbers greater than 3 are 4, 5, and 6. Therefore, there are 3 favorable outcomes.

The total number of possible outcomes when rolling a six-sided die is 6.

To find the probability, we use the formula for probability:

$$Probability = \frac{Number\ of\ favorable\ outcomes}{Total\ number\ of\ possible\ outcomes}$$

Substituting the numbers:

$$Probability = \frac{3}{6} = \frac{1}{2}$$

Thus, the probability of rolling a number greater than 3 is $\frac{1}{2}$.

12.)

Define followings:

- a) **Mean**
- b) Mode
- c) **Median**
- d) Mid range
- e) **Central Tendency**
- f) Variance
- g) Covariance
- h) Standard Deviation
- i) PDF
- i) CDF

Here are the definitions for the terms:

a) Mean

Mean (or average) is a measure of central tendency that represents the sum of all values in a dataset divided by the number of values. It provides a central value around which the data points are distributed.

Mean = Sum of all Observations / Total Number of Data Points (Observations)

b) Mode

Mode is the value that appears most frequently in a dataset. A dataset can have one mode (unimodal), more than one mode (bimodal or multimodal), or no mode if no value repeats.

• **Example**: In the dataset [1, 2, 2, 3, 4], the mode is 2 because it appears more frequently than any other number.

c) Median

Median is the middle value in a dataset when the values are sorted in ascending or descending order. If the number of values is even, the median is the average of the two middle numbers.

• Steps to Find:

- 1. Arrange the data in ascending order.
- 2. If N (number of values) is odd, the median is the middle value.
- 3. If N is even, the median is the average of the two middle values.

d) Mid Range

Mid Range is the average of the maximum and minimum values in a dataset. It gives a measure of the central value of the range of data.

$$ext{Midrange} = rac{ ext{Max}(x) + ext{Min}(x)}{2}$$

e) Central Tendency

Central Tendency refers to statistical measures that describe the center or typical value of a dataset. Common measures of central tendency include the mean, median, and mode.

f) Variance

Variance is a measure of how much the values in a dataset vary from the mean. It represents the average of the squared differences between each value and the mean.

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \left(x_i - \overline{x}\right)^2}{N}$$

where:

 $x_i = \text{Each value in the data set}$

 \overline{x} = Mean of all values in the data set

N = Number of values in the data set

g) Covariance

Covariance is a measure of the degree to which two variables change together. It indicates whether an increase in one variable would result in an increase or decrease in another variable.

· Covariance formula for population:

$$Cov(X,Y) = \frac{\sum (X_i - \overline{X_i})(Y_i - \overline{Y_i})}{n}$$

· Covariance Formula for a sample:

$$\text{Cov}(X,Y) = \frac{\sum (X_i - \overline{X_i})(Y_i - \overline{Y_i})}{n-1}$$

Where,

- X_i is the values of the X-variable
- Yi is the values of the Y-variable
- X is the mean of the X-variable
- Y is the mean of the Y-variable
- n is the number of data points

h) Standard Deviation

Standard Deviation is a measure of the amount of variation or dispersion in a dataset. It is the square root of the variance and provides a sense of how spread out the data points are around the mean.

$$ext{SD} = \sqrt{rac{\sum |x-\mu|^2}{N}}$$

where \sum means "sum of", x is a value in the data set, μ is the mean of the data set, and N is the number of data points in the population.

i) PDF (Probability Density Function)

Probability Density Function (PDF) is a function that describes the likelihood of a continuous random variable to take on a particular value. The area under the PDF curve over an interval gives the probability that the variable falls within that interval.

• Properties:

- The PDF is always non-negative.
- The total area under the PDF curve equals 1.

j) CDF (Cumulative Distribution Function)

Cumulative Distribution Function (CDF) is a function that describes the probability that a random variable will take a value less than or equal to a given point. It provides the cumulative probability up to a specific value.

Formula
$$F_X(x) = P(X \le x)$$
 $F_X(x)$ = function of X X = real value variable P = probability that X will have a value less than or equal to x

These definitions provide a foundation for understanding key concepts in statistics and probability.

Pattern Recognition - Unit 2 & 3 - IMP Questions

1.) Explain Principal Component analysis in detail.

It works on the condition that while the data in a higher dimensional space is mapped to data in a lower dimension space, the variance of the data in the lower dimensional space should be maximum.

Principal Component Analysis (PCA) is a statistical procedure that uses an orthogonal transformation that converts a set of correlated variables to a set of uncorrelated variables.PCA is the most widely used tool in exploratory data analysis and in machine learning for predictive models.

Example:

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=MLaJbA82nzk

2.) Explain KNN algorithm in detail.

K-Nearest Neighbour is one of the simplest Machine Learning algorithms based on Supervised Learning technique.

- K-NN algorithm assumes the similarity between the new case/data and available cases and put the new case into the category that is most similar to the available categories.
- K-NN algorithm stores all the available data and classifies a new data point based on the similarity. This means when new data appears then it can be easily classified into a well suite category by using K- NN algorithm.
- K-NN algorithm can be used for Regression as well as for Classification but mostly it is used for the Classification problems.
- K-NN is a non-parametric algorithm, which means it does not make any assumption on underlying data.
- It is also called a **lazy learner algorithm** because it does not learn from the training set immediately instead it stores the dataset and at the time of classification, it performs an action on the dataset.
- KNN algorithm at the training phase just stores the dataset and when it gets new data, then it classifies that data into a category that is much similar to the new data.
- **Example:** Suppose, we have an image of a creature that looks similar to cat and dog, but we want to know either it is a cat or dog. So for this identification, we can use the KNN algorithm, as it works on a similarity measure. Our KNN model will find the similar features of the new data set to the cats and dogs images and based on the most similar features it will put it in either cat or dog category.

How does K-NN work?

- The K-NN working can be explained on the basis of the below algorithm:
- **Step-1:** Select the number K of the neighbors
- Step-2: Calculate the Euclidean distance of K number of neighbors
- **Step-3:** Take the K nearest neighbors as per the calculated Euclidean distance.
- **Step-4:** Among these k neighbors, count the number of the data points in each category.
- **Step-5:** Assign the new data points to that category for which the number of the neighbor is maximum.
- Step-6: Our model is ready.

3.) Supervised Learning Vs Unsupervised Learning

• Supervised learning is a machine learning method in which models are trained using labeled data. In supervised learning, models need to find the mapping function to map the input variable (X) with the output variable (Y).

$$Y = f(X)$$

Supervised learning needs supervision to train the model, which is similar to as a student learns things in the presence of a teacher. Supervised learning can be used for two types of problems: **Classification** and **Regression**.

 Unsupervised learning is another machine learning method in which patterns inferred from the unlabeled input data. The goal of unsupervised learning is to find the structure and patterns from the input data. Unsupervised learning does not need any supervision. Instead, it finds patterns from the data by its own.

Unsupervised learning can be used for two types of problems: **Clustering** and **Association**.

4.) Explain Hidden Markov Model In Detail.

https://people.engr.tamu.edu/andreas-klappenecker/csce658-s18/markov chains.pdf

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=i3AkTO9HLXo&list=PLM8wYQRetTxBkdvBtz-gw8b9lcVkdXQKV&index=1