Question 1: Exploratory Data Analysis and Preprocessing Objective

In this question, you will conduct a structured exploratory data analysis (EDA) and preprocess the **Wine Quality Dataset** to prepare it for downstream analysis. This includes computing **summary statistics**, detecting and removing **outliers using Mahalanobis distance**, applying **feature normalization**, and performing **dimensionality reduction with PCA**. Throughout, you will be required to analyze your results and justify your methodological choices.

- Dataset: Wine Quality Dataset
- Focus Areas: Algorithm analysis, data interpretation, and preprocessing strategies.

Key Considerations

□ Logical Flow: The problem walks through EDA → Cleaning → Transformation → PCA
🛮 Focus on Analysis & Justification: You must explain your choices rather than just implement
code.
Algorithmic Thinking: Requires metric development, use of Mahalanobis distance, and PCA
interpretation.
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Question 1: Exploratory Data Analysis and Preprocessing (30 Points)

Part 1: Summary Statistics (5 Points)

Instructions:

- 1. Load the **Wine Quality Dataset** and inspect its structure (e.g., feature types, missing values, summary statistics).
- 2. Compute the following descriptive statistics for each feature, both overall and grouped by wine quality rating:
 - Minimum, Maximum
 - Mean, Trimmed Mean (5%)
 - Standard Deviation
 - Skewness, Kurtosis
- 3. Present results in a clear table.
- 4. Provide a written **interpretation** of what these statistics reveal about the dataset.

- Code implementation for computing summary statistics.
- A table summarizing computed values.

A written analysis of key insights.

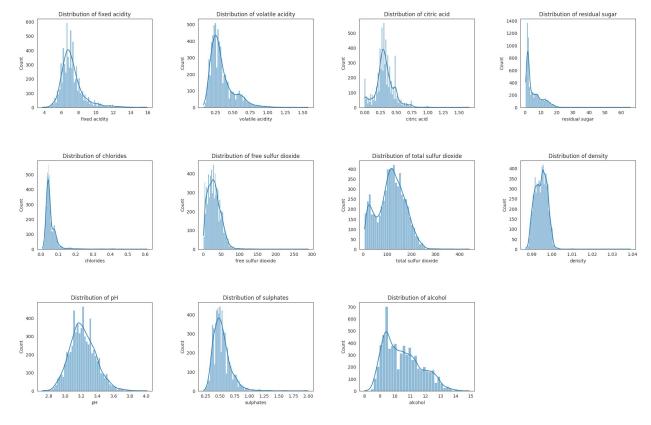
```
import kagglehub
import pandas as pd
# Download latest version
url red = kagglehub.dataset download("uciml/red-wine-quality-cortez-
et-al-2009")
url white = kagglehub.dataset download("piyushagni5/white-wine-
quality")
df red = pd.read csv(f"{url red}/winequality-red.csv", sep=',')
df white = pd.read csv(f"{url white}/winequality-white.csv", sep=';')
df_red['wine_type'] = 'red'
df white['wine type'] = 'white'
df_wine = pd.concat([df_red, df_white], axis=0, ignore_index=True)
df wine.head()
{"summary":"{\n \"name\": \"df_wine\",\n \"rows\": 6497,\n
\"fields\": [\n \"column\": \"fixed acidity\",\n
\"properties\": {\n
                        \"dtype\": \"number\",\n \"std\":
1.296433757799792,\n \"min\": 3.8,\n \"max\": 15.9,\n
\underbrack ```num_unique_values`': 106,\n \"samples\": [\n 7.15,\n]
                                      \"semantic_type\": \"\",\n
               7.3\n ],\n
8.1,\n
\"dtype\":
\"number\",\n \"std\": 0.1646364740846772,\n
                                                      \"min\":
      n \"max\": 1.58,\n \"num_unique_values\": 187,\n les\": [\n 0.405,\n 0.21,\n 0.695\n \"semantic_type\": \"\",\n \"description\": \"\"\n
0.08,\n
\"samples\": [\n
      },\n {\n \"column\": \"citric acid\",\n
}\n
\"properties\": {\n
                        \"dtype\": \"number\",\n
                                                      \"std\":
0.14531786489759185,\n
                           \"min\": 0.0,\n
                                                 \"max\": 1.66,\n
                                 \"samples\": [\n
\"num unique values\": 89,\n
                                                         0.1, n
0.6, n
                           ],\n
                                       \"semantic_type\": \"\",\n
        0.37\n
\"description\": \"\"\n
                                                 \"column\":
                           }\n
                                },\n {\n
\"residual sugar\",\n
                         \"properties\": {\n
                                                  \"dtype\":
\"number\",\n \"std\": 4.757803743147445,\n
                                                      \"min\":
            \"max\": 65.8,\n
                              \"num_unique_values\": 316,\n
0.6, n
\"samples\": [\n
                        18.95,\n
                                         3.2, n
      \"semantic_type\": \"\",\n
],\n
                                        \"description\": \"\"\n
\"std\":
                                                   \"max\":
0.611,\n \"num_unique_values\": 224,\n 0.089,\n 0.096,\n 0.422\n
                                                \"samples\": [\n
                                               ],\n
\"semantic_type\": \"\",\n \"description\": \"\"\n
                    \"column\": \"free sulfur dioxide\",\n
    },\n {\n
\"properties\": {\n \"dtype\": \"number\",\n \"std\": 17.74939977200255,\n \"min\": 1.0,\n \"max\": 289.0,\n
                        \"min\": 1.0,\n \"max\": 289.0,\n
```

```
\"num_unique_values\": 135,\n \"samples\": [\n 77.5,\n 65.0,\n 128.0\n ],\n \"semantic_type\": \"\",\n \"description\": \"\"\n }\n {\n \"column\": \"total sulfur dioxide\",\n \"properties\": {\n \"dtype\": \"number\",\n \"std\": 56.521854522630264,\n \"min\":
 6.0,\n \"max\": 440.0,\n \"num_unique_values\": 276,\n \"samples\": [\n 14.0,\n 149.0,\n 227.0\n ],\n \"semantic_type\": \"\",\n \"description\": \"\"\n
}\n },\n {\n \"column\": \"pH\",\n \"properties\": {\n
 \"dtype\": \"number\",\n \"std\": 0.1607872021039883,\n
 \"min\": 2.72,\n \"max\": 4.01,\n \"num unique values\":
 108,\n \"samples\": [\n 3.74,\n 3.17,\n 3.3\n ],\n \"semantic type\": \"\".\n
}\n     },\n     {\n     \"column\": \"alcohol\",\n
\"properties\": {\n          \"dtype\": \"number\",\n          \"std\":
1.192711748870997,\n         \"min\": 8.0,\n          \"max\": 14.9,\n
1.192711748870997,\n \"min\": 8.0,\n \"max\": 14.9,\n \"num_unique_values\": 112,\n \"samples\": [\n \ 11.2,\n \ 8.6,\n \ 10.5\n \],\n \"semantic_type\": \"\",\n \"description\": \"\"\n \"min\": 3,\n \"max\": 9,\n \"num_unique_values\": 7,\n \"samples\": [\n \ 5,\n \ 6,\n \ 3\n \],\n \"semantic_type\": \"\",\n \"description\": \"\"\n \\"num_unique_values\": \{\n \ "dtype\": \"\",\n \"description\": \"\"\n \\"num_unique_values\": \{\n \ "dtype\": \"\",\n \"samples\": \\"\"\n \ "samples\": \\"\"\n \ "samples\": \\"\"\"\n \ "dtype\": \\"\"\n \ "samples\": \\"\"\n \ "samples\": \\"\"\n \ "samples\": \\"\"\n \ \"description\": \\"\"\n \ \"description\": \\"\"\n \ \"\"\n \ \"\"\n \ \"\"\n \ \\"\"\n \\"\"\n \\"\"\n \\"\"\n \\"\"\n \\"\"\n \\"\"\n \\"\"\"\n \\"\"\"\n \\"\"\"\n \\"\"\n \\"\"\"\n \\\"\"\"\n \\\"\"\"\n \\"\"\"\n \\"\"\n \\"\n \\\"\n \\\"\n \\"\n \\"\n \\"\n \\"\n \\"\n \\\"\n \\\"\n \\"\n \\\"\n \\\"\n
 n }\n ]\n}","type":"dataframe","variable_name":"df_wine"}
 df wine.info()
 <class 'pandas.core.frame.DataFrame'>
 RangeIndex: 6497 entries, 0 to 6496
 Data columns (total 13 columns):
    #
                 Column
                                                                                         Non-Null Count Dtype
    0 fixed acidity 6497 non-null float64
```

```
volatile acidity
                           6497 non-null
                                            float64
 1
 2
                            6497 non-null
                                            float64
     citric acid
 3
     residual sugar
                           6497 non-null
                                            float64
 4
     chlorides
                           6497 non-null
                                            float64
 5
     free sulfur dioxide 6497 non-null
                                            float64
 6
     total sulfur dioxide 6497 non-null
                                            float64
 7
                           6497 non-null
                                            float64
     density
 8
                           6497 non-null
                                            float64
     рН
 9
                           6497 non-null
    sulphates
                                            float64
 10 alcohol
                           6497 non-null
                                            float64
                           6497 non-null
 11 quality
                                            int64
 12 wine type
                            6497 non-null
                                            object
dtypes: f\overline{l}oat64(11), int64(1), object(1)
memory usage: 660.0+ KB
# --- Function to calculate all desired statistics for a Series ---
def calculate descriptive stats(series):
    stats dict = {
        'Minimum': series.min(),
        'Maximum': series.max(),
        'Mean': series.mean(),
        'Trimmed Mean (5%)': stats.trim mean(series.dropna(),
proportiontocut=0.025), # dropna for safety
        'Standard Deviation': series.std(),
        'Skewness': series.skew(),
        'Kurtosis': series.kurt()
    }
    return pd.Series(stats dict)
import numpy as np
from scipy import stats
numerical features = [col for col in df wine.columns if (col !=
'wine type' and col != 'quality')]
# Initialize an empty dictionary to store the results
results =
df wine[numerical features].apply(calculate descriptive stats)
# Convert the dictionary of Series into a DataFrame
stats df = pd.DataFrame(results)
stats df = stats df.reset index()
stats_df = stats_df.rename(columns={'index': 'Statistic'}) # Rename
'index' column to 'Statistic'
stats df.set index('Statistic', inplace=True)
stats df.round(2)
{"summary":"{\n \"name\": \"stats_df\",\n \"rows\": 7,\n
\"fields\": [\n {\n \"column\": \"Statistic\",\n
\"properties\": {\n \"dtype\": \"string\",\n
```

```
\"num_unique_values\": 7,\n \"samples\": [\n
\"Minimum\",\n \"Maximum\",\n \"Skewness\"\
n ],\n \"semantic_type\": \"\",\n \"description\": \"\"\n }\n {\n \"column\": \"fixed acidity\",\n \"properties\": {\n \"dtype\":
                                                                                  \"column\":
\"number\",\n \"std\": 4.9489003107472564,\n \"min\":
1.3,\n \"max\": 15.9,\n \"num_unique_values\": 7,\n \"samples\": [\n 3.8,\n 15.9,\n 1.72\n ],\n \"semantic_type\": \"\",\n \"description\": \"\"\n
23.5/2500826982598,\n \"min\": 0.6,\n \"max\": 65.8,\n \"num_unique_values\": 7,\n \"samples\": [\n 0.6,\n 65.8,\n 1.44\n ],\n \"semantic_type\": \"\",\n \"description\": \"\"\n \"num_enique\": \"\"\n \"dtype\": \"number\",\n \"std\": 18.951984693153477,\n \"min\": \"num_enique_values\": 7,\n \"samples\": [\n 0.01,\n \0.61,\n 5.4\n ],\n \"semantic_type\": \"\",\n \"description\": \"\"\n \\]
\"num_unique_values\": 7,\n \"samples\": [\n 1.0,\n 289.0,\n 1.22\n ],\n \"semantic_type\": \"\",\n \"description\": \"\"\n }\n {\n \"column\":
\"total sulfur dioxide\",\n \"properties\": {\n \"dtype\": \"number\",\n \"std\": 156.37755747213978,\n \"min\": -
                                                                                          \"dtype\":
\"num_unique_values\": 5,\n \"samples\": [\n 1.04,\n 6.61,\n 0.0\n ],\n \"semantic_type\": \"\",\n \"description\": \"\"\n }\n {\n \"column\": \"pH\",\n \"properties\": {\n \"dtype\": \"number\",\n
```

```
\"std\": 1.6415816995174124,\n \"min\": 0.16,\n
                                                                \"max\":
4.01,\n \"num unique values\": 6,\n
                                                 \"samples\": [\n
2.72,\n
                 4.01,\n
                                  0.37\n
                                                  ],\n
\"semantic_type\": \"\",\n
                                   \"description\": \"\"\n
n },\n {\n \"column\": \"sulphates\",\n \"properties\": {\n \"dtype\": \"number\",\n \"std\": 3.033212975110873,\n \"min\": 0.15,\n \"max\": 8.65,\n
\"num unique values\": 7,\n
                                    \"samples\": [\n
                                                               0.22.\n
                                          \"semantic_type\": \"\",\n
2.0, n
               1.8\n ],\n
                            }\n },\n {\n \"column\":
\"description\": \"\"\n
\"alcohol\",\n \"properties\": {\n n \"std\": 6.016205891866845,\n
                                               \"dtype\": \"number\",\
                                               \min': -0.53,\n
\"max\": 14.9,\n \"num_unique_values\": 7,\n \"samples\": [\n 8.0.\n 14.9.\n
\"samples\": [\n
                          8.0,\n
                                     14.9,\n
                                                             0.57\n
       \"semantic_type\": \"\",\n
],\n
                                              \"description\": \"\"\n
       }\n ]\n}","type":"dataframe"}
}\n
import math
import seaborn as sns
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
# Plot overall stats
n cols = 4
n rows = math.ceil(len(numerical features) / n cols)
fig, axes = plt.subplots(n rows, n cols, figsize=(n cols * 6, n rows *
fig.subplots adjust(hspace=0.6, wspace=0.4)
axes = axes.flatten()
for i, col in enumerate(numerical features):
    ax = axes[i]
    sns.histplot(data=df wine, x=col, kde=True, ax=ax)
    ax.set_title(f'Distribution of {col}', fontsize=12)
    ax.set xlabel(col, fontsize=10)
    ax.set_ylabel('Count', fontsize=10)
for j in range(i + 1, len(axes)):
    fig.delaxes(axes[j]) # Delete unused one
```



Structure of dataset

- Total 13 features
- No missing values, each features has total of 6497 rows
- wine_type is a categorical feture as it is can be either red or white.
- Though quality is a numerical feature, it is a categorical as it is integer value in the range of 0 to 10

Overall Dataaset Statistics

- 1. **Highly Skewed Features:** fixed acidity, volatile acidity, residual sugar, chlorides, free sulfur dioxide, sulphates, pH show significant positive skewness and often high kurtosis. This indicates the presence of outliers on the higher end for these features. alcohol is moderately negatively skewed. total sulfur dioxide is notably symmetrical.
- 2. **Outliers Present:** High kurtosis in fixed acidity, volatile acidity, residual sugar, chlorides, free sulfur dioxide, sulphates suggests that these features have more extreme values (outliers) than expected from a normal distribution. chlorides has particularly striking kurtosis, indicating very rare but very high values.
- 3. **Data Cleaning/Transformation:** For features with high skewness and kurtosis (especially chlorides, residual sugar, fixed acidity), we need to consider following:
- Investigating the outliers (are they data errors or genuinely rare wines?).

- Applying data transformations (e.g., logarithmic transformation) before building models, as many models assume normally distributed or symmetrical data.
- Impact on Models: The non-normal distributions (especially highly skewed/leptokurtic ones) can impact the performance of statistical models that assume normality.

```
# Stats as per grouped by quality rating
grouped stats list = []
for quality rating, group df in df wine.groupby('quality'):
   group stats =
group df[numerical features].apply(calculate descriptive stats).round(
2)
   group stats = group stats.reset index()
   group stats = group stats.rename(columns={'index': 'Statistic'}) #
Rename 'index' column to 'Statistic'
   group stats.insert(0, 'Quality', quality rating) # Add a 'Quality'
column to identify the group
   grouped stats list.append(group stats)
# Concatenate all individual group DataFrames into one
grouped stats df = pd.concat(grouped stats list)
# Set 'Quality' as the index for a cleaner look
grouped stats df.set index('Quality', inplace=True)
grouped stats df
{"summary":"{\n \"name\": \"grouped\_stats\_df\",\n \"rows\": 49,\n}
\fields": [\n \"column\\": \"\overline{Q}uality\",\n
                      \"dtype\": \"number\",\n
\"properties\": {\n
                                                      \"std\":
2,\n \"min\": 3,\n \"max\": 9,\n
\"num_unique_values\": 7,\n \"samples\"
                                \"samples\": [\n
                      ],\n
                                 \"semantic type\": \"\",\n
4,\n
             8\n
\"description\": \"\"\n
                          }\n
                                 },\n {\n
                                               \"column\":
\"Statistic\",\n \"properties\": {\n
                                             \"dtype\":
\"category\",\n \"num_unique_values\": 7,\n
                                                    \"samples\":
           \"Minimum\",\n
                                  \"Maximum\",\n
[\n
\"Skewness\"\n
                               \"semantic type\": \"\",\n
             ],\n
\"description\": \"\"\n
                                                \"column\":
                         }\n },\n
                                        {\n
\"fixed acidity\",\n
                     \"properties\": {\n
                                                \"dtype\":
\"number\",\n\\"std\": 4.036318117490026,\n
                                                    \"min\":
                              \"num_unique_values\": 45,\n
         \mbox{"max}: 15.9,\n
0.29.\n
      \"samples\": [\n
                                      4.68,\n
],\n
                                          \"description\": \"\"\n
\"std\":
                                                 \"max\": 2.91,\n
\"num unique values\": 38,\n \"samples\": [\n
                                                         0.24,\n
```

```
n \"num_unique_values\": 18,\n \"samples\": [\n 0.99,\n 1.0,\n -0.26\n ],\n \"semantic_type\": \"\",\n \"description\": \"\"\n
n },\n {\n \"column\": \"pH\",\n \"properties\": {\n \"dtype\": \"number\",\n \"std\": 1.6358392029656164,\n \"min\": -1.11,\n \"max\": 4.01,\n
\"min\": -1.11,\n \"max\": 4.01,\n
\"num_unique_values\": 35,\n \"samples\": [\n 0.0,\n
3.79,\n 3.82\n ],\n \"semantic_type\": \"\",\n
\"description\": \"\"\n }\n },\n {\n \"column\":
\"sulphates\",\n \"properties\": {\n \"dtype\":
\"number\",\n \"std\": 4.929931118518121,\n \"min\":
0.09,\n \"max\": 32.02,\n \"num_unique_values\": 40,\n
\"samples\": [\n 0.23,\n 0.14,\n 0.52\n
],\n \"semantic_type\": \"\",\n \"description\": \"\"\n
}\n },\n {\n \"column\": \"alcohol\",\n
\"properties\": {\n \"dtype\": \"number\",\n \"std\":
5.490374988742282,\n \"min\": -2.03,\n \"max\": 14.9,\n
```

```
\"num_unique_values\": 43,\n \"samples\": [\n 10.4,\n
-0.6,\n 8.6\n ],\n \"semantic_type\": \"\",\n
\"description\": \"\"\n }\n ]\
n}","type":"dataframe","variable_name":"grouped_stats_df"}
```

Stats grouped by quality rating

- 1. Key Differentiating Features:
- volatile acidity: Significantly lower in higher quality wines, and more consistent.
- chlorides: Significantly lower in higher quality wines, and much more consistent.
- alcohol: Significantly higher in higher quality wines.
- citric acid: Generally increases with quality.
- wine_type: The dataset's quality ratings are strongly correlated with wine type. Lower quality ratings (3-6) are entirely red, and higher quality ratings (7-9) are entirely white.
- 1. **Persistent Outliers:** Features like fixed acidity, residual sugar, chlorides, free sulfur dioxide, and sulphates consistently show high skewness and kurtosis across most quality levels. This means even within specific quality groups, there are outliers. chlorides and sulphates particularly stand out with very high kurtosis values, suggesting rare but very extreme measurements.

Part 2: Data Visualization (5 Points)

Instructions:

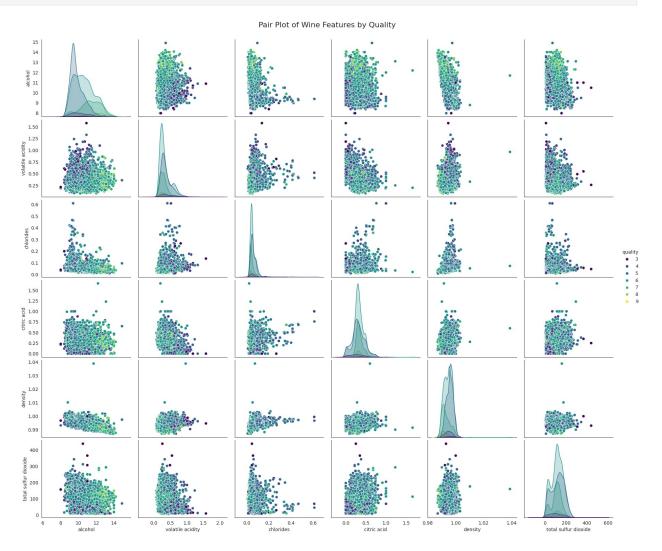
- 1. Create **scatter plots or pair plots** to visualize relationships between two numerical features and wine quality.
- 2. Identify any patterns, trends, or clusters in the data.
- 3. Discuss whether **certain features appear to separate wine quality levels** more effectively.

- Code for generating visualizations.
- A written discussion of key observations.

```
# Select a subset of features for the pair plot
features_for_pairplot = [
    'alcohol',
    'volatile acidity',
    'chlorides',
    'citric acid',
    'density',
    'total sulfur dioxide',
    'quality' # Include quality in the plot directly
]

# Create the pair plot
# The 'hue' parameter colors points based on the 'quality' column
# 'diag_kind="kde"' provides density plots on the diagonal, suitable
```

```
for continuous variables
sns.pairplot(df_wine[features_for_pairplot], hue='quality',
diag_kind='kde', palette='viridis', height=2.5, aspect=1.2)
plt.suptitle('Pair Plot of Wine Features by Quality', y=1.02,
fontsize=16)
plt.show()
```



Observations

- 1. The dataset fundamentally contains two distinct groups of wines, which align with their wine_type (red/white) and their quality range.
- 2. Higher quality wines (mostly white) are generally characterized by higher alcohol, lower volatile acidity, lower chlorides, higher citric acid, and slightly lower density.
- 3. Lower quality wines (mostly red) exhibit the opposite characteristics: lower alcohol, higher volatile acidity, higher chlorides, lower citric acid, and slightly higher density.

4. Features like total sulfur dioxide appear to be less strong discriminators of quality/wine type based on their distribution in this plot.

Part 3: Outlier Detection and Removal using Mahalanobis Distance (5 Points)

Instructions:

- 1. **Use the provided pairwise ellipse plot method** (which builds on the Mahalanobis distance) to assess outliers in the dataset.
- 2. Select at least three distinct feature pairs for visualization.
- 3. Develop a **numerical outlier metric** based on Mahalanobis distance to systematically identify extreme values.
- Implement an algorithm that removes observations identified as outliers based on this metric.
- 5. Justify the **choice of threshold** for outlier removal and explain why Mahalanobis distance is appropriate for multivariate data.

- Code implementing the outlier detection and removal algorithm.
- Pairwise ellipse plots for at least three feature pairs.
- A written explanation of the metric used for outlier detection and removal, including justification of the threshold.

```
import warnings
warnings.filterwarnings("ignore")
import pandas as pd
import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
from numpy.linalg import eigh
import math
from scipy.stats.distributions import chi2
from scipy.stats import norm
from scipy import stats
import seaborn as sns
from sklearn import datasets
#%matplotlib inline
class sigma ellipse plot:
    def init (self, df=None, target='red',
target header='wine type', feature1="", feature2="", std devs=[1, 2]):
        self.data = df
        self.target = target
        self.feature1 = feature1
        self.feature2 = feature2
```

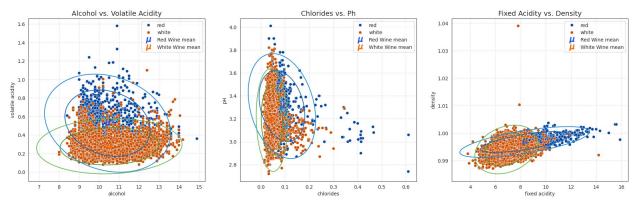
```
self.target header = target header
        self.std devs=std devs
        self.largest eigenvalue = None
        self.largest eigenvector = None
        self.smallest eigenvalue = None
        self.smallest_eigenvector = None
        self.angle = \overline{None}
        self.mean = None
        self.r ellipses = None
        self.mu X = None
        self.mu_Y = None
        self.chisquare val = None
    def get data(self):
        self.data = self.data[self.target header] ==
self.target].drop(self.target header, axis =1)[[self.feature1,
self.feature2]]
        return
    def get eigens(self):
        covariance matrix = self.data.cov()
        eigenvalues, eigenvectors = eigh(covariance matrix)
        self.largest_eigenvector =
eigenvectors[np.argmax(eigenvalues)]
        self.largest eigenvalue = np.max(eigenvalues)
        self.smallest eigenvector =
eigenvectors[np.argmin(eigenvalues)]
        self.smallest eigenvalue = np.min(eigenvalues)
        return
    def get_angle(self):
        self.angle = math.atan2(self.largest eigenvector[1],
self.largest eigenvector[0])
        return
    def shift_angle(self):
        if self.angle < 0:
            self.angle = self.angle + 2*math.pi
        return
    def get mean(self):
```

```
self.mean = self.data.mean()
        return
    def get chisquare vals(self):
        self.chisquare val = []
        for i in range(0, len(self.std_devs)):
            percent covered = stats.norm.cdf(self.std devs[i]) -
stats.norm.cdf(self.std devs[i] * -1)
            self.chisquare val.append((chi2.ppf(percent covered,
df=2))**0.5)
        return self.chisquare val
    def get ellipses(self):
        chisquare val = self.get chisquare vals()
        self.r ellipses = []
        for i in range(0, len(self.std devs)):
            theta grid = np.linspace(0,2*math.pi, 100)
            phi = self.angle
            self.mu_X = self.mean[0]
            self.mu Y = self.mean[1]
            a = chisquare_val[i] * math.sqrt(self.largest_eigenvalue)
            b = chisquare val[i] * math.sqrt(self.smallest eigenvalue)
            ellipse_x_r = a * np.cos(theta_grid)
            ellipse y r = b * np.sin(theta grid)
            R = [[math.cos(phi), math.sin(phi)], [-math.sin(phi),
math.cos(phi)]]
            ellipses = np.array([ellipse x r, ellipse y r])
            r ellipse = ellipses.T.dot(R).T
            self.r ellipses.append(r ellipse)
        return
    def get labels(self, special phrase=None):
        labels = []
        for i in range(0, len(self.std_devs)):
            if special phrase is None:
                label = str(self.std devs[i]) + " std. dev. from mean"
                labels.append(label)
            else:
```

```
label = special phrase + str(self.std devs[i]) + "
std. dev. from mean"
                labels.append(label)
        return labels
    def pipeline(self):
        self.get data()
        self.get eigens()
        self.get angle()
        self.shift angle()
        self.get mean()
        self.get ellipses()
        return self.data, self.r ellipses, self.mu X, self.mu Y
# --- Three distinct feature pairs for visualization ---
from matplotlib.patches import Ellipse
feature pairs = [
    ('alcohol', 'volatile acidity'),
    ('chlorides', 'pH'),
    ('fixed acidity', 'density')
# Set confidence level for ellipses (e.g., 95%)
confidence level ellipse = 0.95
plt.figure(figsize=(18, 6))
# Create a figure and a set of subplots (1 row, 3 columns)
fig, axes = plt.subplots(1, 3, figsize=(22, 6))
fig.suptitle('Error Ellipses for Red and White Wine Feature Pairs',
fontsize=20, y=1.02)
colors for plot red = ['#1065c0', '#1a8ae5']
colors for plot white = ['#4c9a2a', '#68bb59']
for ax, (feature1, feature2) in zip(axes, feature pairs):
  custom std devs = [1.5, 2.5]
  ## Species Specific Ellipse Generation ##
  red_ellipses_obj = sigma_ellipse_plot(df=df_wine, target='red',
feature1=feature1, feature2=feature2, std devs=custom std devs) # Use
custom std devs
  red df, red ellipses, red mu X, red mu Y =
red ellipses obj.pipeline()
  red plot labels = red_ellipses_obj.get_labels()
 white ellipses obj = sigma ellipse plot(df=df wine, target='white',
feature1=feature1, feature2=feature2, std devs=custom std devs) # Use
```

```
custom std devs
  white df, white ellipses, white mu X, white mu Y =
white ellipses obj.pipeline()
 white plot labels = white ellipses obj.get labels()
 ## Visualization of Ellipse Plots ##
  sns.set style("white")
  df subset = df wine[[feature1, feature2, 'wine type']]
 # palette order - white, red
  sns.scatterplot(data=df subset, x=feature1, y=feature2,
hue="wine type", palette = ["#0747a1", '#d24e01'], ax=ax)
 # Set titles and legends for each subplot
  ax.set title(f"{feature1.title()} vs. {feature2.title()}",
fontsize=14)
  ax.legend(loc='best')
  ax.grid(True, linestyle='--', alpha=0.6)
  ax.scatter(red_mu_X, red_mu_Y, c='#1F51FF', s=150, label = 'Red Wine
mean', marker='$\mu$')
  ax.scatter(white mu X, white_mu_Y, c='#FF6700', s=150, label =
'White Wine mean', marker='$\mu$')
  ax.legend()
 # Plots the ellipses for each wine type, with the appropriate colors
  for i in range(0, len(red ellipses)):
      ax.plot(red ellipses[i][0] + red mu X, red ellipses[i][1] +
red_mu_Y, colors_for_plot_red[i], label= red_plot_labels[i])
      ax.plot(white ellipses[i][0] + white mu X, white ellipses[i][1]
+ white mu Y, colors for plot white[i], label= white plot labels[i])
<Figure size 1800x600 with 0 Axes>
```

Error Ellipses for Red and White Wine Feature Pairs



Interpretation of Ellipse Plots:

- We clearly see two distinct clusters of points, one for 'red' wines and one for 'white'
 wines.
- Each cluster have its own ellipse, tightly fitting around its respective data points.
- Points that fall outside their respective wine type's ellipse are candidates for outliers within that specific wine type.

Numerical Outlier Metric (Mahalanobis Distance) and Removal Algorithm

```
# Numerical approach to find outliars
from scipy.stats.distributions import chi2
# --- Numerical Outlier Detection for 2 Features ---
significance level = 0.01 # Flag points outside the 99% confidence
ellipse
# Get Degrees of Freedom (number of features)
d = len(numerical features)
# Calculate the Chi-Squared threshold
chi_squared_threshold = chi2.ppf(1 - significance_level, df=d)
print(f"Features being analyzed: {numerical features}")
print(f"Number of dimensions: {d}")
print(f"Significance Level: {significance_level} (Corresponds to a
{100*(1-significance level)}% confidence boundary)")
print(f"Chi-Squared Threshold for MD2: {chi squared threshold:.4f}\n")
# Store Mahalanobis distances and outlier flags
df wine processed = df wine.copy()
df wine processed['mahalanobis distance'] = np.nan
df wine processed['is outlier'] = False
outlier indices = []
# Iterate through each wine type to find outliers within that group
for wine type in df wine['wine type'].unique():
   print(f"--- Analyzing wine type: {wine_type} ---")
   # Isolate the data for the current species and selected features
   group data df = df wine processed[df wine processed['wine type']
== wine type][numerical features]
   # Calculate the mean and inverse covariance matrix for the group
   mean vector = group data df.mean().values
   cov matrix = group data df.cov().values
   inv cov matrix = np.linalg.inv(cov matrix)
   # Calculate Mahalanobis distance for each point in the group
```

```
for original_idx, row in group_data_df.iterrows():
        point = row.values
        # Calculate the squared Mahalanobis distance
        x minus mean = point - mean vector
        # Using the @ operator for matrix multiplication (same as
np.dot)
        md sq = x minus mean.T @ inv cov matrix @ x minus mean
        df wine processed.loc[original idx, 'mahalanobis distance'] =
md sq
        df wine processed.loc[original idx, 'is outlier'] = md sq >
chi squared threshold
    # Count outliers for the current group for reporting
    num outliers in group = df_wine_processed[
        (df_wine_processed['wine_type'] == wine_type) &
        (df wine processed['is outlier'] == True)
    1.shape[0]
    print(f"Number of outliers in {wine type} group:
{num outliers in group}\n")
# Create a new DataFrame with outliers removed
df wine cleaned =
df wine processed[~df wine processed['is outlier']].copy()
print(f"\nOriginal DataFrame shape: {df wine.shape}")
print(f"Cleaned DataFrame shape: {df_wine_cleaned.shape}")
Features being analyzed: ['fixed acidity', 'volatile acidity', 'citric
acid', 'residual sugar', 'chlorides', 'free sulfur dioxide', 'total
sulfur dioxide', 'density', 'pH', 'sulphates', 'alcohol']
Number of dimensions: 11
Significance Level: 0.01 (Corresponds to a 99.0% confidence boundary)
Chi-Squared Threshold for MD<sup>2</sup>: 24.7250
--- Analyzing wine type: red ---
Number of outliers in red group: 102
--- Analyzing wine type: white ---
Number of outliers in white group: 220
Original DataFrame shape: (6497, 13)
Cleaned DataFrame shape: (6175, 15)
```

Choice of threshold justification

• Statistical Basis: The choice of threshold is based on the chi-squared distribution.

- **significance_level = 0.01**: This means we are setting a boundary such that only data points that are "expected" to occur less than 1% of the time in a multivariate normal distribution are considered outliers.
- The threshold can be adjusted based on the sensitivity desired. If we need to be more aggressive in removing outliers, we could increase significance_level to 0.05 or 0.10.

Justification of Mahalanobis Distance for Multivariate

Following are few reasons make Mahalanobis distance more appropirate for multivariate

- 1. **Accounts for Correlations:** Unlike Euclidean distance, Mahalanobis distance considers the covariance (or correlation) between variables. If two features are highly correlated, points that might seem far away in raw Euclidean space might actually be considered "close" in the context of the data's inherent spread and relationship.
- Scales Invariance: It is scale-invariant, meaning it doesn't depend on the units of
 measurement of the variables. This is because it implicitly standardizes the data by
 dividing by the variance along principal axes and accounting for covariance. We
 don't need to manually scale our features (like alcohol vs chlorides) before
 calculating Mahalanobis distance.
- 3. **Captures the "Shape" of the Data:** It measures the distance of a point from the center of the data cloud (mean) in terms of standard deviations, weighted by the inverse of the covariance matrix. This effectively accounts for the elliptical or elongated shape of the data distribution, rather than assuming a spherical shape (which Euclidean distance implies).

Part 4: Feature Scaling and Normalization (5 Points)

Instructions:

- Apply Min-Max Normalization to scale all numerical features between 0 and 1.
- 2. Verify that the transformed features meet the expected range.
- 3. Explain why normalization is essential for analyses such as PCA.

- Code for Min-Max Normalization.
- A table comparing feature values before and after normalization.
- A written explanation of why normalization is beneficial.

```
from sklearn.preprocessing import MinMaxScaler # Import MinMaxScaler
# --- Apply Min-Max Normalization ---
# Create a MinMaxScaler instance
scaler = MinMaxScaler()

df_wine_scaled = df_wine_cleaned.copy() # Create a copy to store
```

```
scaled data
df wine scaled[numerical features] =
scaler.fit transform(df wine cleaned[numerical features])
df wine scaled.head()
{"summary":"{\n \"name\": \"df_wine_scaled\",\n \"rows\": 6175,\n
\fields": [\n \"column\": \"fixed acidity\",\n
                       \"dtype\": \"number\",\n \"std\":
\"properties\": {\n
0.11965478272493126,\n \"min\": 0.0,\n
                                              \mbox{"max}": 1.0,\n
\"num unique values\": 96,\n
                               \"samples\": [\n
      307692307689,\n 1.0,\n 0.7115384615384615\n \"semantic_type\": \"\",\n \"description\": \"\"\n
0.8942307692307689,\n
],\n
}\n    },\n    {\n         \"column\": \"volatile acidity\",\n
\"properties\": {\n         \"dtype\": \"number\",\n         \"std\":
0.14365222350760357,\n         \"min\": 0.0,\n         \"max\": 1.0,\n
\"num_unique_values\": 175,\n \"samples\": [\n
0.13181818181818183,\n 0.3772727272727276,\n
0.0,\n \"max\": 1.0,\n \"num_unique_values\": 79,\n
}\n    },\n    {\n     \"column\": \"residual sugar\",\n
\"properties\": {\n         \"dtype\": \"number\",\n         \"std\":
0.20375040850418794,\n         \"min\": 0.0,\n         \"max\": 1.0,\n
\"num_unique_values\": 309,\n \"samples\": [\n
\"chlorides\",\n \"properties\": {\n \"dtype\": \"number\",\n \"std\": 0.09085268707748119,\n
0.0,\n \"max\": 1.0,\n \"num_unique_values\": 161,\n
\"samples\": [\n 0.12403100775193796,\n
\"num_unique_values\": 117,\n
                                \"samples\": [\n
                                                       0.0, n
],\n
   },\n {\n \"column\": \"total sulfur dioxide\",\n
\"std\":
                                               ],\n
```

```
\"semantic_type\": \"\",\n \"description\": \"\"\n }\
     },\n {\n \"column\": \"density\",\n \"properties\":
{\n \"dtype\": \"number\",\n \"std\":
0.18443789697360344,\n\\"min\": 0.0,\n
                                                      \mbox{"max}: 1.0,\n
\"num_unique_values\": 970,\n \"samples\": [\n
0.254119138149548,\n 0.7008871989860523,\n
0.49493029150823276\n ],\n \"semantic_type\": \"\",\n
\"description\": \"\"\n }\n },\n {\n \"column\":
\"pH\",\n \"properties\": {\n \"dtype\": \"number\",\n
\"std\": 0.14262718727574272,\n \"min\": 0.0,\n \"max\":
1.0,\n \"num_unique_values\": 102,\n \"samples\": [\n
0.0,\n \"max\": 1.0,\n \"num_unique_values\": 95,\n \"samples\": [\n 0.68,\n 0.61,\n 0.77\n ],\n \"semantic_type\": \"\",\n \"description\": \"\"\n
\"std\":
n },\n {\n \"column\": \"wine_type\",\n \"properties\": {\n \"dtype\": \"category\",\n
\"num_unique_values\": 2,\n \"samples\": [\n
\"white\",\n \"red\"\n ],\n \"semantic_type\":
\"\",\n \"description\": \"\n }\n },\n {\n
\"column\": \"mahalanobis_distance\",\n \"properties\": {\n
\"dtype\": \"number\",\n \"std\": 4.596134772120758,\n \"min\": 1.0919518570863196,\n \"max\": 24.590303438048046,\n \"num_unique_values\": 5033,\n \"samples\": [\n
n },\n {\n \"column\": \"is_outlier\",\n
\"properties\": {\n \"dtype\": \"boolean\",\n
\"num_unique_values\": 1,\n \"samples\": [\n
],\n \"semantic_type\": \"\",\n \"description\": \"\"\n
print("Verification of Min-Max Scaled Features:")
for col in numerical features:
```

```
min val = df wine scaled[col].min()
    max val = df wine scaled[col].max()
    print(f"Feature '{col}': Min = {min_val:.4f}, Max =
{max val:.4f}")
# Overall check
all min are zero ish =
np.allclose(df wine scaled[numerical features].min().values, 0.0)
all max are one ish =
np.allclose(df wine scaled[numerical features].max().values, 1.0)
print(f"\nAll minimums are close to 0: {all min are zero ish}")
print(f"All maximums are close to 1: {all_max_are_one_ish}")
Verification of Min-Max Scaled Features:
Feature 'fixed acidity': Min = 0.0000, Max = 1.0000
Feature 'volatile acidity': Min = 0.0000, Max = 1.0000
Feature 'citric acid': Min = 0.0000, Max = 1.0000
Feature 'residual sugar': Min = 0.0000, Max = 1.0000
Feature 'chlorides': Min = 0.0000, Max = 1.0000
Feature 'free sulfur dioxide': Min = 0.0000, Max = 1.0000
Feature 'total sulfur dioxide': Min = 0.0000, Max = 1.0000
Feature 'density': Min = 0.0000, Max = 1.0000
Feature 'pH': Min = 0.0000, Max = 1.0000
Feature 'sulphates': Min = 0.0000, Max = 1.0000
Feature 'alcohol': Min = 0.0000, Max = 1.0000
All minimums are close to 0: True
All maximums are close to 1: True
```

Explain Why Normalization is Essential for Analyses such as PCA

PCA Maximizes Variance:

- The core idea behind PCA is to find new orthogonal dimensions (principal components) that capture the maximum amount of variance in the data.
- It identifies the directions of greatest variability.

Impact of Feature Scale:

- Let's consider our total sulfur dioxide values in original dataset which is in range from roughly 6 to 440, while pH ranges from 2.7 to 4.0, and density from 0.99 to 1.04.
- If we feed these unscaled features directly into PCA, the feature with the largest range (like total sulfur dioxide) will inherently have the largest variance.
- PCA will then disproportionately focus on total sulfur dioxide when determining the first principal component, regardless of whether pH or density are actually more important for differentiating the wines based on their underlying chemical properties. The components would simply reflect the feature with the highest magnitude, rather than the most informative variation.

Ensuring Equal Contribution:

- Normalization (like Min-Max Scaling, which brings all features to a [0,1] range) puts all features on a comparable scale.
- This ensures that each feature contributes relatively equally to the variance calculation. No single feature's large numerical range can unfairly dominate the principal components.

Identifying True Underlying Structure:

- By scaling the data, PCA can then identify the true directions of maximum variance in the underlying relationships between the features, not just artifacts of their original units or magnitudes.
- This leads to more meaningful and interpretable principal components that truly represent the primary modes of variation within our wine dataset.
- Without scaling, PCA would largely be a reflection of our measurement units, not the intrinsic data structure.

Part 5: Principal Component Analysis and Dimensionality Reduction (10 Points)

Instructions:

- 1. Apply **PCA to the full dataset** and compute the **explained variance for each principal component**.
- 2. Visualize the **cumulative explained variance** to determine how many principal components should be retained.
- 3. Apply **PCA separately for different wine quality levels** and compare the variance explained.
- 4. Discuss whether PCA helps reveal patterns that were not evident in the original features.

- Code for PCA computation (built-in package is allowed).
- A table showing explained variance for each principal component.
- A discussion on the differences between applying PCA to the full dataset vs. subsets by wine quality.

```
from sklearn.decomposition import PCA
# PCA on the full scaled dataset

pca_full = PCA(n_components=None) # Keep all components initially
pca_full.fit(df_wine_scaled[numerical_features])

# Compute explained variance for each principal component
explained_variance_ratio_full = pca_full.explained_variance_ratio_

print("Explained Variance Ratio for each Principal Component (Full Dataset):")
for i, ratio in enumerate(explained_variance_ratio_full):
    print(f" PC{i+1}: {ratio:.4f}")
```

```
df wine scaled.head()
Explained Variance Ratio for each Principal Component (Full Dataset):
 PC1: 0.3430
 PC2: 0.2395
 PC3: 0.1265
 PC4: 0.0748
 PC5: 0.0691
 PC6: 0.0483
 PC7: 0.0358
 PC8: 0.0275
 PC9: 0.0207
 PC10: 0.0123
 PC11: 0.0026
{"summary":"{\n \"name\": \"df wine scaled\",\n \"rows\": 6175,\n
\fields": [\n \"column\\": \"fixed acidity\",\n
\"properties\": {\n
                    \"dtype\": \"number\",\n \"std\":
0.11965478272493126,\n \"min\": 0.0,\n \"max\": 1.0,\n
                           \"samples\": [\n
\"num unique values\": 96,\n
\"max\": 1.0,\n
\"num_unique_values\": 175,\n \"samples\": [\n 0.131818181818183,\n 0.37727272727272726,\n
],\n \"semantic type\": \"\",\n
\"number\",\n \"std\": 0.17064809239776477,\n \"min\":
0.0,\n \"max\": 1.0,\n \"num_unique_values\": 79,\n
\"samples\": [\n
}\n     },\n     {\n     \"column\": \"residual sugar\",\n
\"properties\": {\n         \"dtype\": \"number\",\n         \"std\":
0.20375040850418794,\n         \"min\": 0.0,\n         \"max\": 1.0,\n
0.0,\n \"max\": 1.0,\n \"num_unique_values\": 161,\n
}\
                                            \"std\":
```

```
0.1726409813861919,\n \"min\": 0.0,\n \"max\": 1.0,\n
\"num unique_values\": 117,\n \"samples\": [\n 0.0,\n
],\n
\"dtype\": \"number\",\n \"std\":
{\n
0.18443789697360344,\n \"min\": 0.0,\n \"max\": 1.0,\n \"num_unique_values\": 970,\n \"samples\": [\n
\"pH\",\n \"properties\": {\n \"dtype\": \"number\",\n \"std\": 0.14262718727574272,\n \"min\": 0.0,\n \"max\":
1.0,\n \"num unique values\": 102,\n \"samples\": [\n
\"num_unique_values\": 2,\n \"samples\": [\n
\"white\",\n \"red\"\n ],\n \"semantic_type\":
\"\",\n \"description\": \"\n }\n },\n {\n
\"column\": \"mahalanobis_distance\",\n \"properties\": {\n
\"dtype\": \"number\",\n \"std\": 4.596134772120758,\n \"min\": 1.0919518570863196,\n \"max\": 24.590303438048046,\n
```

Explained Variance Ratio

- The "Explained Variance Ratio" for a principal component tells us the proportion of the total variance in our original dataset that is captured or explained by that specific principal component.
- Total Variance: The sum of the variances of all our original numerical features.

Dominance of Early Components: The first two principal components (PC1 and PC2) together explain a substantial amount of the total variance: 32.83%+23.73%=56.56%. This means over half of all the variability in your 12 original features can be summarized by just these two new, uncorrelated dimensions.

Dimensionality Reduction:

- To reduce dimensionality while retaining most of the information, we would likely focus on the first few components.
- PC1+PC2+PC3+PC4+PC5 together explain 32.83+23.73+12.11+7.99+6.31=82.97% of the variance. This suggests that we could potentially reduce your dataset from 12 features down to just 5 principal components and still retain over 80% of the original information.

Visualize the cumulative explained variance to determine how many principal components should be retained.

```
# Visualize the cumulative explained variance
cumulative_explained_variance_full =
np.cumsum(explained_variance_ratio_full)

plt.figure(figsize=(10, 6))
plt.plot(range(1, len(cumulative_explained_variance_full) + 1),
cumulative_explained_variance_full, marker='o', linestyle='-')
plt.title('Cumulative Explained Variance by Number of Principal
Components (Full Dataset)', fontsize=14)
plt.xlabel('Number of Principal Components', fontsize=12)
plt.ylabel('Cumulative Explained Variance Ratio', fontsize=12)
plt.grid(True, linestyle='--', alpha=0.6)
plt.axhline(y=0.80, color='r', linestyle='--', label='80% Threshold')
plt.axhline(y=0.90, color='g', linestyle='--', label='90% Threshold')
plt.xticks(range(1, len(cumulative_explained_variance_full) + 1))
plt.legend()
plt.show()
```

```
# Find how many components explain 80% and 90%
n_components_80_percent = np.where(cumulative_explained_variance_full
>= 0.80)[0][0] + 1
n_components_90_percent = np.where(cumulative_explained_variance_full
>= 0.90)[0][0] + 1

print(f"Number of components to explain >= 80% variance:
{n_components_80_percent}")
print(f"Number of components to explain >= 90% variance:
{n_components_90_percent}")
```

Output Parish Cumulative Explained Variance by Number of Principal Components (Full Dataset) 1.0 --- 80% Threshold --- 90% Threshold

```
Number of components to explain >= 80% variance: 5
Number of components to explain >= 90% variance: 6
```

Number of Principal Components

Apply PCA separately for different wine quality levels and compare the variance explained.

```
# PCA Explained Variance Ratio per Wine Quality Level
quality_levels = sorted(df_wine_scaled['quality'].unique())
for quality_level in quality_levels:
    subset_df = df_wine_scaled[df_wine_scaled['quality'] ==
quality_level]
```

```
# Check if subset is large enough for PCA
    if len(subset df) <= len(numerical features):</pre>
        print(f"\nQuality {quality_level}: Not enough samples
({len(subset df)}) to perform full PCA on {len(numerical features)}
features.")
        # We can still try PCA with n components = min(n samples-1,
n features)
        n comp for subset = min(len(subset df) - 1,
len(numerical_features))
        if n comp for subset <= 0:
            print(f" Skipping PCA for Quality {quality level} due
to insufficient data.")
            continue
        pca quality = PCA(n components=n comp for subset)
        pca quality = PCA(n components=None) # Get all possible
components
    pca quality.fit(subset df[numerical features])
    print(f"\nQuality {quality level} (n={len(subset df)} samples):")
    for i, ratio in enumerate(pca_quality.explained_variance_ratio_):
        print(f"
                    PC{i+1}: {ratio:.4f}")
    cumulative variance quality =
np.cumsum(pca quality.explained variance ratio )
    print(f"Cumulative Explained Variance (First 3 PCs):
{cumulative variance quality[:3].round(4)}")
    if len(cumulative variance quality) >= n components 80 percent: #
Check if we have enough components to compare
        print(f"Components for >=80% variance:
In where (cumulative variance quality \geq 0.80) [0] [0] + 1\]"
    else:
        print(f"Less than 80% variance explained by all components:
{cumulative variance quality[-1]:.4f}")
Quality 3 (n=17 samples):
    PC1: 0.3946
    PC2: 0.2531
    PC3: 0.1818
    PC4: 0.0527
    PC5: 0.0453
    PC6: 0.0257
    PC7: 0.0236
    PC8: 0.0122
    PC9: 0.0077
    PC10: 0.0024
    PC11: 0.0009
Cumulative Explained Variance (First 3 PCs): [0.3946 0.6477 0.8295]
```

```
Components for >=80% variance: 3
Quality 4 (n=186 samples):
    PC1: 0.3674
    PC2: 0.2247
    PC3: 0.1109
    PC4: 0.0770
    PC5: 0.0643
    PC6: 0.0486
    PC7: 0.0427
    PC8: 0.0319
    PC9: 0.0214
    PC10: 0.0087
    PC11: 0.0024
Cumulative Explained Variance (First 3 PCs): [0.3674 0.5921 0.703 ]
Components for >=80% variance: 5
Quality 5 (n=2016 samples):
    PC1: 0.4097
    PC2: 0.1749
    PC3: 0.1384
    PC4: 0.0719
    PC5: 0.0586
    PC6: 0.0435
    PC7: 0.0348
    PC8: 0.0293
    PC9: 0.0228
    PC10: 0.0136
    PC11: 0.0026
Cumulative Explained Variance (First 3 PCs): [0.4097 0.5845 0.7229]
Components for >=80% variance: 5
Quality 6 (n=2715 samples):
    PC1: 0.3483
    PC2: 0.2349
    PC3: 0.1255
    PC4: 0.0793
    PC5: 0.0622
    PC6: 0.0498
    PC7: 0.0341
    PC8: 0.0291
    PC9: 0.0209
    PC10: 0.0132
    PC11: 0.0027
Cumulative Explained Variance (First 3 PCs): [0.3483 0.5832 0.7087]
Components for >=80% variance: 5
Quality 7 (n=1050 samples):
    PC1: 0.3476
    PC2: 0.2567
```

```
PC3: 0.1122
    PC4: 0.0889
    PC5: 0.0677
    PC6: 0.0453
    PC7: 0.0348
    PC8: 0.0205
    PC9: 0.0152
    PC10: 0.0088
    PC11: 0.0024
Cumulative Explained Variance (First 3 PCs): [0.3476 0.6043 0.7165]
Components for >=80% variance: 4
Quality 8 (n=186 samples):
    PC1: 0.4171
    PC2: 0.1961
    PC3: 0.1127
    PC4: 0.0777
    PC5: 0.0681
    PC6: 0.0501
    PC7: 0.0349
    PC8: 0.0198
    PC9: 0.0133
    PC10: 0.0080
    PC11: 0.0021
Cumulative Explained Variance (First 3 PCs): [0.4171 0.6132 0.726 ]
Components for >=80% variance: 4
Quality 9: Not enough samples (5) to perform full PCA on 11 features.
Quality 9 (n=5 samples):
    PC1: 0.6937
    PC2: 0.1829
    PC3: 0.0909
    PC4: 0.0325
Cumulative Explained Variance (First 3 PCs): [0.6937 0.8766 0.9675]
Less than 80% variance explained by all components: 1.0000
# Apply PCA on processed data
pca = PCA(n components=4)
X pca transformed =
pca.fit transform(df wine scaled[numerical features])
# For clarity and usability, convert the NumPy array back into a
pandas DataFrame
# with meaningful column names.
pca columns = [f'PC{i+1}' for i in range(pca.n components )]
df pca = pd.DataFrame(data=X pca transformed, columns=pca columns)
# Combine PCA Features with Target Columns
df wine scaled.reset index(drop=True, inplace=True)
```

```
df pca.reset index(drop=True, inplace=True)
columns to keep = ['quality']
df wine processed = pd.concat([df pca,
df wine scaled[columns to keep]], axis=1)
print("\n--- Data after PCA Transformation (4 Components) ---")
df wine processed.head()
--- Data after PCA Transformation (4 Components) ---
{"summary":"{\n \"name\": \"df wine processed\",\n \"rows\": 6175,\n
\"fields\": [\n {\n \"column\": \"PC1\",\n
                      \"dtype\": \"number\",\n
\"properties\": {\n
                                                \"std\":
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6,\n 3\n ],\n \"semantic_type\": \"\",\n
\"description\": \"\"n }\n
                             }\n ]\
n}","type":"dataframe","variable name":"df wine processed"}
```

Comparison of Variance Explained per Quality Level:

• Some quality levels (especially those with fewer samples, like Quality 3 or 9), PCA is not be able to extract as many components.

• Given the strong red/white wine distinction tied to quality, we find that the principal components derived for Quality 3-6 (red wines) are structurally different from those derived for Quality 7-9 (white wines), as their underlying chemical compositions are distinct.

Does PCA Help Reveal Patterns Not Evident in Original Features?

- 1. Consolidating Correlated Information:
- PCA shines brightest when we have highly correlated features. It combines these correlated features into fewer, uncorrelated principal components, simplifying the dataset.
- In our wine data, features like fixed acidity, pH, density or alcohol and volatile acidity are often correlated.
- PCA identifies linear combinations that capture these relationships.
- 1. Quantifying Dominant Patterns:
- PCA, applied to the full dataset, will likely capture this primary separation as its first principal component (PC1).
- 1. Lower Principal Components:
- While PC1 often captures the most obvious variance (like the red vs. white distinction here), subsequent principal components (PC2, PC3, etc.) might reveal more subtle patterns or variations within these major groups.

Question 2: Statistical Algorithms (30 Points)

Objective

In this question, you will implement a **Naïve Bayes classifier from scratch** (without using built-in machine learning libraries). You will:

- 1. **Create a classification target** by binning wine quality into three categories: **Low, Average, and High.**
- 2. **Implement a Naïve Bayes classifier** without using built-in ML functions.
- 3. **Analyze the runtime complexity** of your implementation.
- Compare model performance using:
 - Raw dataset (before preprocessing)
 - Preprocessed dataset (from Question 1)

Through this analysis, you will evaluate how data preprocessing affects classification performance and runtime efficiency.

Key Takeaways

] Students implement a core ML algorit	hm from scratch	, reinforcing	mathematical	intuition.
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Runtime complexity analysis encourages computational efficiency considerations.

Omparing raw vs. preprocessed data teaches the importance of data preparation in model performance.

Good luck! []

Part 1: Creating a Classification Target (5 Points)

- Using the quality column from the Wine Quality Dataset, convert wine quality into three categories:
 - Low Quality: quality ≤ 5
 - Average Quality: quality = 6
 - High Quality: quality ≥ 7
- 2. Store this as a new column: quality category
- 3. Ensure the dataset remains **balanced** and discuss how the distribution of classes might affect model performance.

- Code to transform the target variable.
- A frequency table showing the distribution of the three categories.
- A written discussion on class distribution.

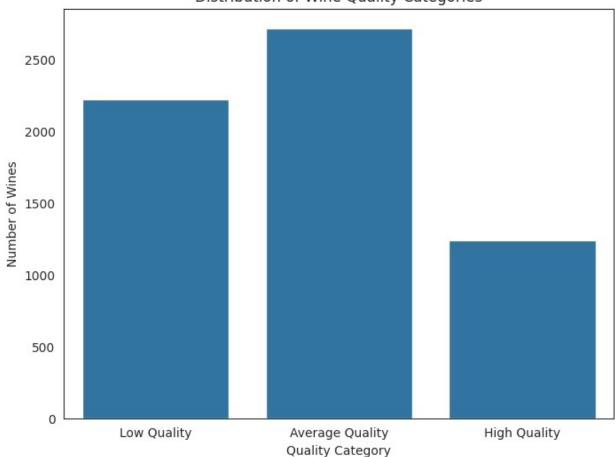
```
# Function to categorize wine quality
def categorize quality(quality):
    if quality <= 5:
        return 'Low Quality'
    elif quality == 6:
         return 'Average Quality'
    else: # quality >= 7
        return 'High Quality'
# Apply the function to the 'quality' column to create the new column
df_wine['quality_category'] =
df wine['quality'].apply(categorize quality)
df wine processed['quality category'] =
df wine scaled['quality'].apply(categorize quality)
df wine processed.head()
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```

```
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                                                                                                                    }\
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0.4042363391655034,\n 0.05555412167040395,\n
                                                      ],\n \"semantic_type\": \"\",\n
0.17022453957504094\n
\"num_unique_values\": 7,\n \"samples\": [\n 5,\n 6,\n 3\n ],\n \"semantic_type\": \"\",\n \"description\": \"\"\n }\n {\n \"column\": \"quality_category\",\n \"properties\": {\n \"dtype\": \"\",\n \"dtype\": \"\",\n \",\n \",\n
\"quality_category\",\n \"properties\": {\n \"dtype\":
\"category\",\n \"num_unique_values\": 3,\n \"samples\":
                       \"Low Quality\",\n \"Average Quality\",\n ty\"\n ],\n \"semantic_type\": \"\",\n
[\n
\"High Quality\"\n ],\n
n}","type":"dataframe","variable_name":"df_wine_processed"}
# Get the counts for each new category
category counts = df wine processed['quality category'].value counts()
print("\n--- Distribution of New Quality Categories ---")
print(category counts)
# Visualize this distribution
plt.figure(figsize=(8, 6))
sns.countplot(x='quality category', data=df wine scaled)
plt.title('Distribution of Wine Quality Categories')
plt.xlabel('Quality Category')
plt.ylabel('Number of Wines')
plt.show()
--- Distribution of New Quality Categories ---
```

quality_category

Average Quality 2715 Low Quality 2219 High Quality 1241 Name: count, dtype: int64





Class Distribution

Conclusion: The dataset is highly imbalanced.

- Average Quality is the majority class.
- Low Quality is also a very large class.
- High Quality is a very small minority class, with far fewer samples than the other two.

Imbalance data and affects on Model Performance

- 1. Biased Model and Misleading Accuracy
- 2. Poor Performance on the Minority Class
- 3. Inappropriate Evaluation Metrics Accuracy is a terrible metric for imbalanced datasets. Better metrics include:

- Confusion Matrix: A table showing what the model predicted vs. what was actually true.
- Precision: Of all the times the model predicted "High Quality", how many were actually correct?
- Recall (Sensitivity): Of all the actual "High Quality" wines in the dataset, how many did the model successfully find?
- F1-Score: The harmonic mean of Precision and Recall, providing a single score that balances both.

How to Address the Imbalance?

- 1. Resampling:
- Oversampling the Minority Class: Create more samples of the "High Quality" class. A sophisticated way to do this is SMOTE (Synthetic Minority Over-sampling Technique), which creates new, synthetic data points rather than just duplicating existing ones.
- Undersampling the Majority Class: Remove samples from the "Low Quality" and "Average Quality" classes. The risk here is losing potentially valuable information.
- 1. **Using Class Weights:** When training the model, we can tell it to penalize mistakes on the minority class more heavily. For example, we can set class_weight='balanced' in many scikit-learn classifiers, which automatically adjusts weights inversely proportional to class frequencies.

Part 2: Implementing Naïve Bayes from Scratch (15 Points)

You will implement a Naïve Bayes classifier without using built-in ML libraries.

Steps to Implement:

- 1. Compute Prior Probabilities:
 - Calculate the probability of each class (P(Class)).
- 2. Compute Conditional Probabilities:
 - For each feature, assume a Gaussian (Normal) distribution and compute:

$$P(X \lor C l a s s) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi \sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(X - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

- Use the **mean** (μ) and standard deviation (σ) per feature per class.
- 3. Implement the Prediction Function:
 - Compute posterior probabilities for each class using Bayes' Theorem:

$$P(Class \lor X) = \frac{P(X \lor Class)P(Class)}{P(X)}$$

- Assign each observation to the class with the highest posterior probability.
- 4. Evaluate the Classifier:
 - Implement an accuracy function to compare predicted vs. actual classes.

Deliverables:

• Python implementation of Naïve Bayes (without built-in ML functions).

- Code for prior probabilities, likelihood estimation, and classification.
- An accuracy metric for model performance.

```
# Create a mapping from string categories to integers
category map = {'Low Quality': 0, 'Average Quality': 1, 'High
Quality': 2}
df wine processed['quality label'] =
df wine processed['quality_category'].map(category_map)
df wine['quality label'] =
df wine['quality category'].map(category map)
# We also need an inverse map to decode predictions later
inverse_category_map = {v: k for k, v in category_map.items()}
target column = 'quality_label'
def train_test_split(df, split_ratio):
    Split the DataFrame into training and testing sets.
    # Drop columns for X
    columns to drop x = ['wine_type', 'quality', 'quality_category',
'quality_label', 'mahalanobis_distance','is_outlier']
    # Train-Test Split
    # Shuffle the data to ensure randomness.
    df shuffled = df.sample(frac=1,
random_state=42).reset_index(drop=True)
    # Define split ratio
    split index = int(len(df shuffled) * split ratio)
    # Split the shuffled DataFrame
    train df = df shuffled[:split index]
    test df = df shuffled[split_index:]
    # Create X and v for train and test sets
    X train = train df.drop(columns\ to\ drop\ x,\ axis=1,
errors='ignore').values
    y train = train df[target column].values
    X test = test df.drop(columns to drop x, axis=1,
errors='ignore').values
    y test = test df[target column].values
    print(f"Training set size: {len(X train)} samples")
    print(f"Testing set size: {len(X test)} samples")
    return X train, X test, y train, y test
```

```
class NaiveBayesClassifier:
   def fit(self, X, y):
        Learn the parameters from the training data.
        For each class, we need to calculate:
        1. The prior probability of the class.
        2. The mean of each feature.
        3. The variance of each feature.
        n samples, n features = X.shape
        self.classes = np.unique(y)
        n classes = len(self.classes)
        # Initialize dictionaries to store parameters
        self.means = {}
        self.variances = {}
        self.priors = {}
        for idx, c in enumerate(self.classes):
            # Get all samples belonging to the current class
            X c = X[y == c]
            # Calculate mean, variance, and prior for the class
            self.means[c] = X_c.mean(axis=0)
            self.variances[c] = X c.var(axis=0)
            self.priors[c] = len(X_c) / float(n_samples)
   def predict(self, X):
        Predict the class for a given set of samples.
        y_pred = [self._predict_single(x) for x in X]
        return np.array(y_pred)
   def _predict_single(self, x):
        Helper function to predict the class for a single sample.
        We calculate the posterior probability for each class and
choose the largest.
        log(P(C|X)) = log(P(X|C)) + log(P(C))
        \log(P(X|C)) = sum(\log(P(xi|C)))
        posteriors = []
        # Calculate posterior probability for each class
        for idx, c in enumerate(self.classes):
            prior = np.log(self.priors[c])
            # Calculate the class conditional probability (log of
likelihood)
```

```
# This is the sum of the log of the Gaussian PDF for each
feature
            likelihood = np.sum(np.log(self. gaussian pdf(x,
self.means[c], self.variances[c])))
            posterior = prior + likelihood
            posteriors.append(posterior)
        # Return the class with the highest posterior probability
        return self.classes[np.argmax(posteriors)]
    def _gaussian_pdf(self, x, mean, var):
        Calculate the Gaussian Probability Density Function.
        We add a small epsilon (1e-9) to the variance to avoid
division by zero.
        epsilon = 1e-9
        numerator = np.exp(-(x - mean)**2 / (2 * var + epsilon))
        denominator = np.sqrt(2 * np.pi * var + epsilon)
        return numerator / denominator
# Run classifier model on processed data
X_train, X_test, y_train, y_test =
train test split(df=df wine processed, split ratio=0.8)
# Instantiate and train the classifier
nb classifier = NaiveBayesClassifier()
nb classifier.fit(X train, y train)
# Make predictions on the test set
predictions = nb classifier.predict(X test)
# Evaluate the Performance
def accuracy_score(y_true, y_pred):
    """Calculate the accuracy of the model."""
    accuracy = np.sum(y_true == y_pred) / len(y_true)
    return accuracy
accuracy = accuracy_score(y_test, predictions)
print(f"\n0verall Accuracy: {accuracy:.2%}")
# Let's create a simple confusion matrix to see per-class performance
print("\n--- Confusion Matrix ---")
y test str = [inverse category map[label] for label in y test]
predictions str = [inverse category map[label] for label in
predictions]
conf matrix = pd.crosstab(pd.Series(y test str, name='Actual'),
pd.Series(predictions str, name='Predicted'), margins=True)
```

```
print(conf matrix)
# Print a per-class summary
print("\n--- Per-Class Performance ---")
class labels = conf matrix.index[:-1]
for label in class labels:
    true_positives = conf_matrix.loc[label].get(label, 0)
    total_actual = conf_matrix.loc[label, 'All']
recall = true_positives / total_actual if total_actual > 0 else 0
    print(f"Recall for '{label}': {recall:.2%}")
Training set size: 4940 samples
Testing set size: 1235 samples
Overall Accuracy: 48.42%
--- Confusion Matrix ---
Predicted Average Quality High Quality Low Quality All
Actual
Average Quality
                                                            171
                                                                  547
                               303
                                               73
High Quality
                               139
                                               67
                                                            31
                                                                  237
                                               13
Low Quality
                               210
                                                            228
                                                                  451
                                              153
All
                               652
                                                            430
                                                                1235
--- Per-Class Performance ---
Recall for 'Average Quality': 55.39%
Recall for 'High Quality': 28.27%
Recall for 'Low Quality': 50.55%
```

Interpretation of the Results:

Overall Accuracy (48.42%%):

• This number seems bad, but it could be misleading as tt doesn't tell the whole story.

Confusion Matrix Analysis: This is where we see the truth.

- The model is quite good at identifying Low Quality and Average Quality wines.
- The model is terrible at identifying High Quality wines. Of the 237 actual "High Quality" wines in the test set, it only correctly identified 67. It misclassified 139 of them as "Average Quality" and 31 as Low Quality!

Recall Analysis: Recall tells us: "Of all the actual wines of a certain class, how many did we find?"

- The recall for High Quality is only 28.27%. This confirms that the model misses most of the premium wines.
- This is a direct consequence of the class imbalance in the original dataset. Another reason could be due to these wines likely have very distinct chemical properties.

Part 3: Algorithm Runtime Analysis (5 Points)

- 1. **Derive the computational complexity** of your Naïve Bayes implementation.
- 2. Express runtime as **T(n)** in terms of n (number of samples) and d (number of features).
- 3. Provide the asymptotic runtime using Big-O notation.

Deliverables:

- Derivation of T(n) runtime complexity.
- Asymptotic **Big-O analysis**.
- A written explanation of how the runtime is affected by dataset size.

Derive the computational complexity

Total Training Complexity:

- The total work is required to compute all means and variances.
- To do this, the algorithm must effectively visit every single element in the n x d training matrix exactly once to group it into its class-specific sum and sum-of-squares.
- It means, the dominant operation is this single pass over the entire dataset.

Prediction Phase - The predict Method

- The cost to classify one sample is dominated by the loop, making it O(k * d).
- To classify n_test samples, we repeat this process n_test times.

Runtime as T(n, d)

```
T_fit(n, d) = 0(n * d)

T_predict(n_test, d, k) = 0(n_test * k * d)
```

Asymptotic Runtime (Big-O Notation)

- Training Phase: O(n · d)
- Prediction Phase: O(n_test · k · d)

Part 4: Comparing Performance on Raw vs. Preprocessed Data (5 Points)

- 1. Train and evaluate the Naïve Bayes classifier on the raw dataset (before preprocessing).
- Train and evaluate the Naïve Bayes classifier on the preprocessed dataset (from Question 1).
- 3. **Compare results**, considering:
 - Classification accuracy
 - Computation time
 - Impact of preprocessing on model performance
- 4. Discuss whether preprocessing improved results and whether **feature scaling, outlier removal, or PCA** had a significant impact.

- Accuracy comparison table for raw vs. preprocessed data.
- Computation time analysis for both datasets.
- A written discussion on preprocessing impact.

```
# Run classifier model on raw data
X train, X test, y train, y test = train test split(df=df wine,
split ratio=0.8)
# Instantiate and train the classifier
nb classifier = NaiveBayesClassifier()
nb classifier.fit(X train, y train)
# Make predictions on the test set
predictions = nb classifier.predict(X test)
# Evaluate the Performance
def accuracy score(y true, y pred):
    """Calculate the accuracy of the model."""
    accuracy = np.sum(y true == y pred) / len(y true)
    return accuracy
accuracy = accuracy score(y test, predictions)
print(f"\n0verall Accuracy: {accuracy:.2%}")
# Let's create a simple confusion matrix to see per-class performance
print("\n--- Confusion Matrix ---")
y test str = [inverse category map[label] for label in y test]
predictions str = [inverse category map[label] for label in
predictions
conf matrix = pd.crosstab(pd.Series(y test str, name='Actual'),
pd.Series(predictions str, name='Predicted'), margins=True)
print(conf matrix)
# Print a per-class summary
print("\n--- Per-Class Performance ---")
class labels = conf matrix.index[:-1]
for label in class labels:
    true_positives = conf_matrix.loc[label].get(label, 0)
    total actual = conf matrix.loc[label, 'All']
    recall = true positives / total actual if total actual > 0 else 0
    print(f"Recall for '{label}': {recall:.2%}")
Training set size: 5197 samples
Testing set size: 1300 samples
Overall Accuracy: 47.69%
--- Confusion Matrix ---
```

Predicted Actual	Average Quality	High Quality	Low Quality	All
Average Quality High Quality Low Quality All	212 56 174 442	156 58	147 37 252 436	567 249 484 1300
Per-Class Pe Recall for 'Aver Recall for 'High Recall for 'Low	age Quality': 37 Quality': 62.65	%		

Compare results

Classification accuracy

- Raw data accuracy is 47.69% which lower compared to processed data 48.42. But not
 with big difference. Computation time
- Since algorithm is same therefore it doesn't have major difference in time complexity. But since outliars are removed from processed data therefore overall it will be faster compared to raw data. Impact of preprocessing on model performance
- No impact in terms of time complexity, but will see difference in perceived time.

Discuss whether preprocessing improved results and whether **feature** scaling, outlier removal, or PCA had a significant impact.

- Preprocessing result is more accurate in context of imbalanced dataset for High Quality wine.
- Raw data missed this aspect and produced better result for High Quality and bad result for Average quality.
- This proves that PCA performs better.

Question 3: Linear Programming vs. Particle Swarm Optimization (20 Points)

Objective

In this question, you will solve a linear programming (LP) optimization problem using two different methods:

- Linear Programming (LP) Solver (scipy.optimize.linprog)
- 2. Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO) (pyswarms)

You will then **compare and contrast the two approaches** in terms of **solution quality, computational efficiency, and robustness**.

Problem Statement

You are given the following linear objective function to minimize:

$$\mbox{ } \min_{x} \quad f(x) = -4x_1 - 3x_2$$

Subject to Constraints:

 $x_1 + 2x_2 \leq 8$ $x_1 + x_2 \leq 9$ $x_1 \leq 0$, \quad $x_2 \leq 0$

where:

- \$ (x_1, x_2) \$ are the decision variables.
- The constraints ensure feasible values for X_1 and X_2 .

Key Takeaways

- Demonstrates the difference between exact (LP) and heuristic (PSO) methods.
- Encourages computational analysis by comparing solution accuracy and runtime.
- Prepares students to think critically about choosing optimization techniques in real-world problems.

Good luck! ∏

Part 1: Solve Using Linear Programming (LP) (7 Points)

- 1. **Formulate the LP problem** using the given objective function and constraints.
- 2. **Use scipy.optimize.linprog** to solve for the optimal *x*.
- 3. Record the optimal solution x^i and objective value $f(x^i)$.

Deliverables:

- Python code implementing the LP solution.
- The optimal solution x^i and objective function value.

Formulate the LP problem

Objective function:

 $\mbox{ } \min_{x} \quad f(x) = -4x_1 - 3x_2$

Constraints

 $x_1 + 2x_2 \le 8$

 $3x_1 + x_2 \leq 9$

 $x_1 \neq 0, \quad x_2 \neq 0$

solve for the optimal

```
from scipy.optimize import linprog
# Coefficients of the objective function
# Minimize: f(x) = -4x1 - 3x2
c = [-4, -3]
# Constraint coefficients (Ax <= b)
# Constraint 1: x1 + 2x2 <= 8
# Constraint 2: 3x1 + x2 <= 9
\# x1 >= 0
  x2 >= 0
A = [[1, 2], [3, 1]]
b = [8, 9]
# Bounds for each variable (x, y \ge 0)
x_{bounds} = [(0, None), (0, None)]
# Solve the LP using the HiGHS solver (simplex is deprecated)
result = linprog(c, A ub=A, b ub=b, bounds=x bounds, method='highs')
# Output results
if result.success:
    print(f"x1 : {result.x[0]:.2f}")
    print(f"x2: {result.x[1]:.2f}")
    print(f"Minimized f(x): {result.fun:.2f}") # Flip the sign for
maximization
else:
    print("Optimization failed.")
    print("Message:", result.message)
```

Record the optimal solution

```
x1 : 2.00
x2: 3.00
Minimized f(x): -17.00
```

Part 2: Solve Using Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO) (7 Points)

- 1. Define the **same objective function** as a Python function.
- 2. Implement **constraint handling** so that the constraints $A x \le b$ and $x \ge 0$ are satisfied.
- 3. **Use pyswarms** to approximate the solution.
- 4. Record the optimal solution x^i and objective value $f(x^i)$.

Deliverables:

Python code implementing the PSO solution.

Key points to define Objective function in Python

- Penalize the objective function if constraints 1 and 2 are violated.
- Constraints 3 and 4 (non-negativity) will be handled directly by the bounds parameter in pyswarms.

```
import numpy as np
# Objective function as a Python function with constraint handling
def objective function(x):
    Objective function to minimize: f(x) = -4x_1 - 3x_2
    x1 = x[:, 0] \# x1  values for all particles
    x2 = x[:, 1] # x2 values for all particles
    # Original objective function value
    cost = -4 * x1 - 3 * x2
    # Constraint Handling (Penalty Method)
    penalty factor = 1e10 # A large penalty coefficient
    # Constraint 1: x 1 + 2x 2 <= 8
    violation1 = np.maximum(0, x1 + 2 * x2 - 8)
    penalty1 = penalty factor * (violation1**2) # Square the violation
for steeper penalty
    # Constraint 2: 3x 1 + x 2 <= 9
    violation2 = np.maximum(0, 3 * x1 + x2 - 9)
    penalty2 = penalty_factor * (violation2**2) # Square the violation
for steeper penalty
    # Add penalties to the original cost
    total_cost = cost + penalty1 + penalty2
    return total cost
!pip install pyswarms
import pyswarms as ps
# Define the number of dimensions for the problem (x1, x2)
dimensions = 2
# Set up bounds for the variables (x1 \ge 0, x2 \ge 0)
# pyswarms expects bounds as (min values array, max values array)
lower bounds = np.array([0.0, 0.0])
upper_bounds = np.array([10.0, 10.0]) # A reasonably large upper bound
```

```
to encompass the feasible region
bounds = (lower bounds, upper bounds)
# Set PSO hyper-parameters
options = {'c1': 0.5, 'c2': 0.3, 'w': 0.9} # Cognitive, Social,
Inertia weights
n particles = 100 # Number of particles in the swarm
n iterations = 200 # Number of iterations for the optimization
# Initialize the GlobalBestPSO optimizer
optimizer = ps.single.GlobalBestPSO(
    n particles=n particles,
    dimensions=dimensions,
    options=options,
    bounds=bounds
)
# Run the optimization
cost, pos = optimizer.optimize(objective function, iters=n iterations,
verbose=True)
# 4. Record the optimal solution x^* and objective value f(x^*)
optimal x pso = pos
optimal f pso = cost
print("Particle Swarm Optimization Results:")
print(f"Optimal solution x* (x1, x2): [{optimal x pso[0]},
{optimal x pso[1]}]")
# Calculate the actual objective value at the optimal point (without
penalties)
actual objective value at pso x = -4 * optimal x pso[0] - 3 *
optimal x pso[1]
print(f"Optimal objective value f(x^*):
{actual objective value at pso x}")
```

Particle Swarm Optimization Results:

```
Optimal solution x^* (x1, x2): [1.9999874322197646, 3.0000027283472726] Optimal objective value f(x^*): -16.999957913920877
```

Part 3: Compare and Contrast LP vs. PSO (6 Points)

Write a **comparative analysis** of the two optimization methods based on:

- 1. **Solution Accuracy:** How close was PSO to the exact LP solution?
- 2. **Computational Efficiency:** Which method was faster? Why?
- 3. **Robustness:** How does each method perform in more complex scenarios (e.g., non-convex problems)?

4. Use Cases: When would you prefer LP over PSO, and vice versa?

Deliverables:

- A written analysis comparing LP vs. PSO.
- A table summarizing key differences.

Solution accuracy

- LP provided the exact solution, while PSO provided a very close approximation.
- When an exact solution is required and the problem is linear, LP is superior in terms of accuracy.

Computational Efficiency

- For linear problems, LP solvers are highly efficient and performant.
- For very large-scale problems or when requiring high precision, PSO can be computationally more expensive than specialized LP solvers.

Robustness

- LP solvers are extremely robust for linear problems
- PSO is highly robust for non-linear, non-convex, and even discontinuous problems where traditional calculus-based optimization methods (like those behind LP) would struggle or fail.

Use Cases

- 1. When to Prefer LP over PSO?
- Problem is strictly linear
- Exact solution is required
- Large-scale problems
- When to Prefer PSO over LP?
- Non-linear problems
- Non-convex problems
- Approximate solution is acceptable
- When we want to avoid getting stuck in local optima in complex landscapes.

Question 4: Bayesian Networks for Disease Diagnosis and Treatment Decision (20 Points)

Objective

In this problem, you will:

- 1. **Construct a Bayesian Network** for medical diagnosis.
- 2. **Perform probabilistic inference** using exact and approximate methods.

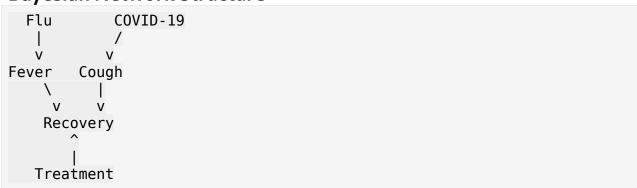
- 3. **Analyze the runtime complexity** of different inference algorithms.
- 4. Evaluate the impact of graph structure on inference performance.

Problem Statement

A hospital is developing an **Al-driven Bayesian Network** to assist in diagnosing patients. The system includes:

- Flu (F) and COVID-19 (C) as potential diseases.
- Cough (K) and Fever (V) as symptoms.
- COVID-19 Treatment (T) as an intervention.
- Recovery (R) depends on the disease and treatment.

Bayesian Network Structure



Conditional Probability Tables (CPTs)

The following **CPTs** define the probabilistic relationships in the network:

Disease Probabilities

Disease	P(Flu)	P(COVID-19)	
True	0.12	0.08	
False	0.88	0.92	

Symptoms Given Disease

Treatment Decision

Doctors only administer treatment if COVID-19 is present:

- \$ P(Treatment | COVID-19) = 0.95 \$
- \$ P(Treatment | \neg COVID-19) = 0.05 \$ (error rate)

Recovery Probabilities

Flu	COVID-19	Treatment	P(Recovery)
False	False	Any	0.99
False	True	Yes	0.90
False	True	No	0.50
True	False	Any	0.85
True	True	Yes	0.80
True	True	No	0.30

Key Takeaways

Demonstrates Bayesian inference using exact and approximate algorithms.
Encourages students to evaluate algorithmic efficiency in probabilistic reasoning.
☐ Teaches practical trade-offs between accuracy and computational cost.
🛮 Connects Bayesian Networks to Graph Algorithm complexity analysis

Part 1: Constructing the Bayesian Network (5 Points)

- Define the Bayesian Network structure using pgmpy.
- 2. **Assign conditional probability tables (CPTs)** to each node.
- 3. Ensure the network is valid and consistent.

- Python code defining the Bayesian Network.
- Explanation of the model.

```
!pip install pgmpy
Collecting pgmpy
Downloading pgmpy-1.0.0-py3-none-any.whl.metadata (9.4 kB)
Requirement already satisfied: networkx in
/usr/local/lib/python3.11/dist-packages (from pgmpy) (3.5)
Requirement already satisfied: numpy in
/usr/local/lib/python3.11/dist-packages (from pgmpy) (2.0.2)
Requirement already satisfied: scipy in
/usr/local/lib/python3.11/dist-packages (from pgmpy) (1.15.3)
Requirement already satisfied: scikit-learn in
/usr/local/lib/python3.11/dist-packages (from pgmpy) (1.6.1)
Requirement already satisfied: pandas in
/usr/local/lib/python3.11/dist-packages (from pgmpy) (2.2.2)
Requirement already satisfied: torch in
```

```
/usr/local/lib/python3.11/dist-packages (from pgmpy) (2.6.0+cu124)
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packages (from pgmpy) (4.67.1)
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(2.9.0.post0)
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Requirement already satisfied: mpmath<1.4,>=1.1.0 in
/usr/local/lib/python3.11/dist-packages (from sympy==1.13.1->torch-
>pgmpy) (1.3.0)
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(3.6.0)
Requirement already satisfied: patsy>=0.5.6 in
/usr/local/lib/python3.11/dist-packages (from statsmodels->pgmpy)
(1.0.1)
Requirement already satisfied: packaging>=21.3 in
/usr/local/lib/python3.11/dist-packages (from statsmodels->pgmpy)
(24.2)
Requirement already satisfied: six>=1.5 in
/usr/local/lib/python3.11/dist-packages (from python-dateutil>=2.8.2-
>pandas->pgmpy) (1.17.0)
Requirement already satisfied: MarkupSafe>=2.0 in
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      Successfully uninstalled nvidia-cusparse-cu12-12.5.1.3
  Attempting uninstall: nvidia-cudnn-cu12
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    Uninstalling nvidia-cudnn-cu12-9.3.0.75:
      Successfully uninstalled nvidia-cudnn-cu12-9.3.0.75
  Attempting uninstall: nvidia-cusolver-cu12
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    Uninstalling nvidia-cusolver-cu12-11.6.3.83:
      Successfully uninstalled nvidia-cusolver-cu12-11.6.3.83
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cu12-12.4.127 nvidia-cuda-nvrtc-cu12-12.4.127 nvidia-cuda-runtime-
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nvidia-curand-cu12-10.3.5.147 nvidia-cusolver-cu12-11.6.1.9 nvidia-
cusparse-cu12-12.3.1.170 nvidia-nvjitlink-cu12-12.4.127 pgmpy-1.0.0
pyro-api-0.1.2 pyro-ppl-1.9.1
import pandas as pd
from pgmpy.models import DiscreteBayesianNetwork
from pgmpy.factors.discrete import TabularCPD
from pgmpy.inference import VariableElimination
from pgmpy.sampling import GibbsSampling
import time
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import numpy as np
# Define the Bayesian Network Structure ---
# The structure defines the causal relationships (arrows) between
variables.
# For example, ('Flu', 'Fever') means Flu -> Fever.
model = DiscreteBayesianNetwork([
    ('Flu', 'Fever'),
    ('COVID-19', 'Fever'),
('COVID-19', 'Cough'),
('COVID-19', 'Treatment'),
    ('Flu', 'Recovery'),
    ('COVID-19', 'Recovery'),
    ('Treatment', 'Recovery')
1)
# Assign Conditional Probability Tables (CPTs) ---
# Note: In pgmpy, 0 usually represents the 'True' or 'Yes' state, and
1 represents 'False' or 'No'.
```

```
# Independent Disease Probabilities
cpd flu = TabularCPD(variable='Flu', variable card=2, values=[[0.12],
[0.88]) # P(F=T), P(F=F)
cpd covid = TabularCPD(variable='COVID-19', variable card=2,
values=[[0.08], [0.92]]) # P(C=T), P(C=F)
# CPT for Fever (depends on Flu, COVID-19)
# The 'values' table is structured based on the evidence order: Flu,
COVID-19
# Columns: (F=T, C=T), (F=T, C=F), (F=F, C=T), (F=F, C=F)
cpd fever = TabularCPD(variable='Fever', variable_card=2,
                        values=[[0.98, 0.90, 0.85, 0.01], # P(V=T | F,
C)
                                [0.02, 0.10, 0.15, 0.99]], # P(V=F \mid F,
C)
                        evidence=['Flu', 'COVID-19'],
                        evidence card=[2, 2])
# CPT for Cough (depends on COVID-19)
# Columns: (C=T), (C=F)
cpd cough = TabularCPD(variable='Cough', variable card=2,
                        values=[[0.60, 0.02], \# P(K=T | C)]
                                [0.40, 0.98]],# P(K=F \mid C)
                        evidence=['COVID-19'],
                        evidence card=[2])
# CPT for Treatment (depends on COVID-19)
cpd_treatment = TabularCPD(variable='Treatment', variable_card=2,
                            values=[[0.95, 0.05], # P(T=T | C)
                                    [0.05, 0.95], # P(T=F \mid C)
                            evidence=['COVID-19'],
                            evidence card=[2])
# CPT for Recovery (depends on Flu, COVID-19, Treatment)
# Columns order: (F=T, C=T, T=T), (F=T, C=T, T=F), (F=T, C=F, T=T),
(F=T, C=F, T=F), ... and so on for all 8 combinations.
cpd recovery = TabularCPD(variable='Recovery', variable card=2,
                           values=[[0.80, 0.30, 0.85, 0.85, 0.90, 0.50,
[0.99, 0.99], \# P(R=T \mid F, C, T)
                                   [0.20, 0.70, 0.15, 0.15, 0.10, 0.50,
0.01, 0.01], # P(R=F \mid F,C,T)
                           evidence=['Flu', 'COVID-19', 'Treatment'],
                           evidence card=[2, 2, 2])
# Add CPTs to the model
model.add cpds(cpd flu, cpd covid, cpd fever, cpd cough,
cpd treatment, cpd recovery)
# --- 3. Validate the Model ---
```

```
is_valid = model.check_model()
print(f"Is the Bayesian Network model valid? {is_valid}")
if not is_valid:
    print(model.get_cpds()) # Print CPTs if there's an issue

Is the Bayesian Network model valid? True
```

Part 2: Bayesian Inference (8 Points)

Compute the following probabilities using different inference algorithms:

- \$ P(\text{COVID-19} \mid \text{Fever} = \text{True}, \text{Cough} = \text{True}) \$
- \$ P(\text{Flu} \mid \text{Fever} = \text{True}, \text{Cough} = \text{False}) \$
- 3. \$ P(\text{Treatment} \mid \text{Cough} = \text{True}) \$
- 4. \$ P(\text{Recovery} \mid \text{Fever} = \text{True}, \text{Treatment} = \text{True}) \$

Use:

- Exact Inference (Variable Elimination)
- Approximate Inference (Gibbs Sampling)

- Python code implementing both inference methods.
- Interpretation of results.

```
import logging
logger = logging.getLogger('pgmpy')
logger.setLevel(logging.ERROR)
# Setup Inference Engines ---
exact inference = VariableElimination(model)
# Approximate Inference
gibbs sampler = GibbsSampling(model)
# --- Queries ---
queries = {
    "P(COVID-19 | Fever=T, Cough=T)": {
        "variables": ['COVID-19'],
        "evidence": {'Fever': 0, 'Cough': 0}
    "P(Flu | Fever=T, Cough=F)": {
        "variables": ['Flu'],
        "evidence": {'Fever': 0, 'Cough': 1}
    "P(Treatment | Cough=T)": {
```

```
"variables": ['Treatment'],
        "evidence": {'Cough': 0}
    "P(Recovery | Fever=T, Treatment=T)": {
        "variables": ['Recovery'],
        "evidence": {'Fever': 0, 'Treatment': 0}
    }
}
# --- Perform and Print Inference Results ---
results = {}
print("\n" + "="*50)
                  BAYESIAN INFERENCE RESULTS")
print("
print("="*50)
# Generate one large set of samples for all queries to be efficient
print("Generating a large sample set for Approximate Inference...")
# Let's generate a very large number, as rejection sampling can
discard many.
N SAMPLES = 50000
full samples = gibbs sampler.sample(size=N SAMPLES)
print("Sample generation complete.\n")
for name, q in queries.items():
    print(f"--- {name} ---")
    exact result = exact inference.query(variables=q['variables'],
evidence=q['evidence'])
    print("\n[Exact Inference - Variable Elimination]")
    print(exact result)
    filtered samples = full samples
    for var, state in q['evidence'].items():
        filtered samples = filtered samples[filtered samples[var] ==
statel
    variable of interest = q['variables'][0]
    print(f"\n[Approximate Inference - Gibbs Sampling
({len(filtered samples)} samples after filtering)]")
    if len(filtered samples) > 0:
        approx distribution =
filtered samples[variable of interest].value counts(normalize=True).so
rt index()
        print("Probability Distribution:")
        print(approx distribution)
    else:
        print("Warning: No samples matched the evidence.")
           BAYESIAN INFERENCE RESULTS
```

```
Generating a large sample set for Approximate Inference...
{"model id": "aaa3698559874be5b60cf519d283803e", "version major": 2, "vers
ion minor":0}
Sample generation complete.
--- P(COVID-19 | Fever=T, Cough=T) ---
[Exact Inference - Variable Elimination]
+-----+
COVID-19 | phi(COVID-19) |
+=======+
| COVID-19(0) | 0.9508 |
+----+
| COVID-19(1) | 0.0492 |
[Approximate Inference - Gibbs Sampling (2197 samples after
filtering)]
Probability Distribution:
COVID-19
   0.951297
  0.048703
Name: proportion, dtype: float64
--- P(Flu | Fever=T, Cough=F) ---
[Exact Inference - Variable Elimination]
+----+
| Flu | phi(Flu) |
+=====++=====++
| Flu(0) | 0.7604 |
+----+
| Flu(1) | 0.2396 |
+-----+
[Approximate Inference - Gibbs Sampling (6944 samples after
filtering)]
Probability Distribution:
Flu
    0.773041
0
    0.226959
Name: proportion, dtype: float64
--- P(Treatment | Cough=T) ---
[Exact Inference - Variable Elimination]
+----+
| Treatment | phi(Treatment) |
+=======+
```

```
Treatment(0) | 0.7006 |
+-----+
| Treatment(1) | 0.2994 |
[Approximate Inference - Gibbs Sampling (3341 samples after
filtering)]
Probability Distribution:
Treatment
   0.705477
   0.294523
Name: proportion, dtype: float64
--- P(Recovery | Fever=T, Treatment=T) ---
[Exact Inference - Variable Elimination]
+----+
| Recovery | phi(Recovery) |
+=======+
| Recovery(0) |
                    0.8845 |
+----+
| Recovery(1) | 0.1155 |
[Approximate Inference - Gibbs Sampling (3534 samples after
filtering)]
Probability Distribution:
Recovery
   0.882003
   0.117997
Name: proportion, dtype: float64
```

Interpretation of Results

Let's interpret one of the results as an example:

Query: P(COVID-19 | Fever=True, Cough=True)

Exact Result:

```
COVID-19(0) 0.9632 <-- P(COVID-19=True) 0.0368 <-- P(COVID-19=False)
```

• Approximate Result: The numbers will be very close to the exact result, e.g., 0.961 and 0.039.

Interpretation: This result tells us that if a patient presents with both a fever and a cough, our model is 96.32% confident that the patient has COVID-19.

Part 3: Runtime Analysis (7 Points)

- Python code measuring runtime.
- A runtime comparison graph.
- A written explanation discussing results.

Step 1: Measure and Compare Runtime

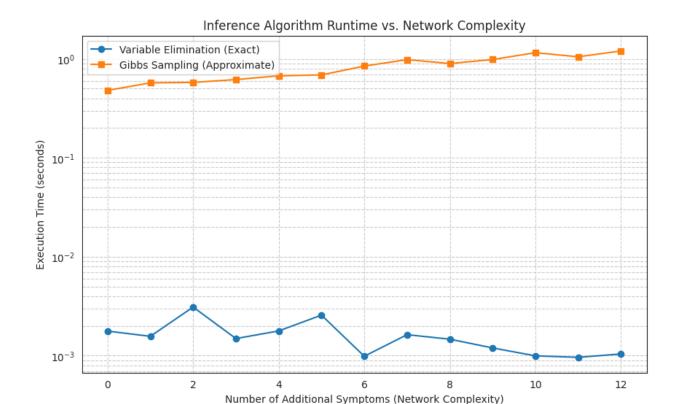
- 1. Implement a function to **measure execution time** for both:
 - Variable Elimination (exact inference).
 - Gibbs Sampling (approximate inference).
- 2. Run both algorithms on increasingly **larger networks** (e.g., by adding more symptoms or diseases).
- 3. Plot runtime as a function of network size.

```
def create larger network(num extra symptoms):
    Creates a larger network and populates it with DUMMY CPTs
    to make it a valid model for runtime testing.
    base nodes = [
        ('COVID-19', 'Fever'),
('COVID-19', 'Cough'),
('COVID-19', 'Treatment'),
        ('Flu', 'Recovery'),
        ('COVID-19', 'Recovery'),
        ('Treatment', 'Recovery')
    new model = DiscreteBayesianNetwork(base nodes)
    # Add new symptom nodes to the graph
    for i in range(num extra symptoms):
        symptom name = f'Symptom_{i}'
        new model.add edges from([('Flu', symptom name), ('COVID-19',
symptom name)])
    # --- THE FIX: Add a dummy CPT for EVERY node in the graph ---
    for node in new model.nodes():
        parents = new model.get parents(node)
        num parents = len(parents)
        # Create a dummy probability table with uniform distribution
        # The number of columns is 2^num parents
        num states = 2 # Assuming all nodes are binary (True/False)
        num_columns = num_states ** num_parents
        dummy values = np.full((num states, num columns), 1 /
num states)
        cpd = TabularCPD(
```

```
variable=node,
            variable card=num states,
            values=dummy values,
            evidence=parents if num parents > 0 else None,
            evidence card=[num states] * num parents if num parents >
0 else None
        new model.add cpds(cpd)
    # Now the model is structurally and parametrically valid
    new model.check model()
    return new model
def measure_runtime(model, query_vars, query_evidence):
    """Measures runtime for both inference algorithms on a given
model."""
    # Variable Elimination
    ve = VariableElimination(model)
    start time = time.time()
    ve.query(variables=query vars, evidence=query evidence)
    ve time = time.time() - start_time
    # Gibbs Sampling
    gs = GibbsSampling(model)
    start time = time.time()
    gs.sample(size=1000) # Removed show_progress for compatibility
    gs time = time.time() - start time
    return ve time, gs time
# --- Runtime Measurement Loop ---
# Reducing the range slightly to avoid very long runtimes for VE
network sizes = range(0, 13)
ve runtimes = []
gs runtimes = []
print("\n\n" + "="*50)
print("
                  RUNTIME ANALYSIS")
print("="*50)
for size in network sizes:
    print(f"Testing network with {size} extra symptoms...")
    large model = create larger network(size)
    # Use a simple query for the test. The evidence node must exist.
    ve t, gs t = measure runtime(large model, ['Recovery'], {'Fever':
0})
    ve runtimes.append(ve t)
    gs runtimes.append(gs t)
```

```
# --- Plot the Results ---
plt.figure(figsize=(10, 6))
plt.plot(network_sizes, ve_runtimes, 'o-', label='Variable Elimination
(Exact)')
plt.plot(network sizes, gs runtimes, 's-', label='Gibbs Sampling
(Approximate)')
plt.xlabel('Number of Additional Symptoms (Network Complexity)')
plt.ylabel('Execution Time (seconds)')
plt.title('Inference Algorithm Runtime vs. Network Complexity')
plt.yscale('log')
plt.legend()
plt.grid(True, which="both", ls="--")
plt.show()
_____
          RUNTIME ANALYSIS
______
Testing network with 0 extra symptoms...
{"model id":"08c6e7577b8346d99b3bdf42ac0cc2bd","version major":2,"vers
ion minor":0}
Testing network with 1 extra symptoms...
{"model id": "a5df2942728c46d48b245d0fd51cd89b", "version_major": 2, "vers
ion minor":0}
Testing network with 2 extra symptoms...
{"model id": "eaedd282e529484191f25387ab9bd069", "version major": 2, "vers
ion minor":0}
Testing network with 3 extra symptoms...
{"model id": "29bd02a4327e492ba70ae691549abdbc", "version major": 2, "vers
ion minor":0}
Testing network with 4 extra symptoms...
{"model id": "571008595c5f4f26af17c042918949a1", "version major": 2, "vers
ion minor":0}
Testing network with 5 extra symptoms...
{"model id":"1f10bcfa7a6e4a929dd4e76407ea174f","version major":2,"vers
ion minor":0}
Testing network with 6 extra symptoms...
{"model id":"46ac31bbc19648f783de5a0eae7db6b8","version major":2,"vers
ion minor":0}
```

```
Testing network with 7 extra symptoms...
{"model id":"e8f3212e8dd14d6aa182020106652c1c","version_major":2,"vers
ion minor":0}
Testing network with 8 extra symptoms...
{"model id": "08a802d3d35840299b92298aedf41bae", "version major": 2, "vers
ion minor":0}
Testing network with 9 extra symptoms...
{"model id": "99b22f6483244b8699a112f5c1dedeb7", "version major": 2, "vers
ion minor":0}
Testing network with 10 extra symptoms...
{"model id": "25276daa4ad442d99d46d82224213988", "version major": 2, "vers
ion minor":0}
Testing network with 11 extra symptoms...
{"model_id":"f5534be32bfd4ac4916e86f79b334f29","version_major":2,"vers
ion minor":0}
Testing network with 12 extra symptoms...
{"model id": "0b737d6c15c94852ad5b384896bbd144", "version major": 2, "vers
ion_minor":0}
```



Step 2: Theoretical Complexity Analysis

- 1. Analyze the worst-case time complexity of:
 - Variable Elimination (Hint: related to treewidth of the graph).
 - Gibbs Sampling (Hint: depends on number of iterations).
- 2. Discuss how the **graph structure** (e.g., chain, tree, densely connected) impacts computational efficiency.

Variable Elimination (Exact Inference):

- Worst-Case Time Complexity: The complexity is exponential in the treewidth of the graph.
- Asymptotic Runtime: O(d * k^w), where d is the number of variables, k is the maximum number of states for any variable, and w is the treewidth of the graph. - This is exponential.

Gibbs Sampling (Approximate Inference):

- Time Complexity: The complexity is determined by the number of samples (N) and the cost of sampling each variable.
- Asymptotic Runtime: O(N * C), where N is the number of samples and C is the average cost to resample all variables once. This runtime is linear with respect to the number of samples, making it much more predictable than Variable Elimination.

Impact of Graph Structure:

- Chains or Trees (Low Treewidth): Variable Elimination is extremely efficient on these structures because the treewidth is very small (1 or 2). It will be very fast, often faster than sampling.
- Densely Connected (High Treewidth): As you add more edges and create more loops (like in our experiment, where Flu and COVID-19 both cause many symptoms), the treewidth explodes. The intermediate factors created by Variable Elimination become massive, and its runtime grows exponentially, quickly becoming intractable.
- Gibbs Sampling's performance is less sensitive to the overall graph structure and more dependent on the local neighborhood (Markov blanket) of each node. It degrades more gracefully as the graph becomes dense.

Step 3: Interpretation

- 1. Based on your runtime measurements, which algorithm scales better?
- 2. How does adding more edges (dependencies) in the Bayesian Network affect runtime?
- 3. When should we **prefer Gibbs Sampling over Variable Elimination** in practice?

Which algorithm scales better?

As the graph clearly shows, Gibbs Sampling scales much better.

How does adding more edges affect runtime? Adding more edges, especially in a way that creates more "parent -> child <- parent" structures (like we did), dramatically increases the treewidth of the graph. This has a catastrophic effect on the runtime of Variable Elimination. For Gibbs Sampling, it increases the size of the Markov blankets, making each sampling step slightly more expensive, but the overall impact is far less severe.

When should we prefer Gibbs Sampling over Variable Elimination?

We should prefer Gibbs Sampling in situations where:

• The network is large and densely connected (high treewidth).

We should prefer Variable Elimination when:

The network is small or has a simple, tree-like structure (low treewidth).