

# Pattern Classification EET3053 Lecture 03: Bayesian Decision Theory

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<span id="page-1-0"></span>

- Bayesian Decision Theory is a fundamental statistical approach that quantifies the trade-offs between various decisions using probabilities and costs that accompany such decisions.
- First, we will assume that all probabilities are known.
- Then, we will study the cases where the probabilistic structure is not completely known.



### Fish Sorting Example Revisited

- State of nature (class) is a random variable.
- Define  $\omega$  as the type of fish we observe (state of nature, class) where
	- $\Box$   $\omega = \omega_1$  for sea bass.
	- $\Box$   $\omega = \omega_2$  for salmon.
	- $P(\omega_1)$  is the *a priori probability* that the next fish is a sea bass.
	- $P(\omega_2)$  is the *a priori probability* that the next fish is a salman.



- Prior probabilities reflect our knowledge of how likely each type of fish will appear before we actually see it.
- How can we choose  $P(\omega_1)$  and  $P(\omega_2)$ ?
	- $\Box$  Set  $P(\omega_1) = P(\omega_2)$  if they are equiprobable (uniform priors).
	- $\Box$  May use different values depending on the fishing area, time of the year, etc.
- Assume there are no other types of fish

$$
\boxed{P(\omega_1)+P(\omega_2)=1}
$$

(exclusivity and exhaustivity)



How can we make a decision with only the prior information? (*Decision rule*)

$$
\begin{bmatrix}\n\text{Decide} & \left\{\n\begin{array}{l}\n\omega_1 & \text{if } P(\omega_1) > P(\omega_2) \\
\omega_2 & \text{otherwise}\n\end{array}\n\right\}
$$

What is the *probability of error* for this decision?

$$
P(error) = \min\{P(\omega_1), P(\omega_2)\}\
$$

Don't you feel that there is some problem in making a decision?



### Class-Conditional Probabilities

- Let's try to improve the decision using the lightness measurement  $x$ .
- $\blacksquare$  Let x be a continuous random variable.
- **Probability density function**  $p(x)$  (evidence)
	- $\Box$  how frequently we will measure a pattern with feature value x (e.g., x corresponds to lightness)
- **Define**  $p(x|\omega_i)$  as the class-conditional probability density
	- $\Box$  how frequently we will measure a pattern with feature value x given that pattern belongs to class  $\omega_i$
- $p(x|\omega_1)$  and  $p(x|\omega_2)$  describe the difference in lightness between populations of sea bass and salmon.



#### Class-Conditional Probabilities guarantees that the posterior probabilities sum to one, as all good probabilities must. The variation of P(ω<sup>j</sup> |x) with x is illustrated in Fig. 2.2 for the case P(ω1)=2/3 and P(ω2)=1/3.



Figure: Hypothetical class-conditional probability density functions (lightness) for salmon/sea-bass

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### Posterior Probabilities

- Suppose we know  $P(\omega_i)$  and  $p(x|\omega_i)$  for  $j=1,2$  and measure the lightness of a fish as the value  $x$ .
- Define  $P(\omega_i | x)$  as the a posterior probability (probability of the state of nature being  $\omega_i$  given the measurement of feature value x)
- $\blacksquare$  We can use the *Bayes formula* to convert the prior probability to the posterior probability

$$
P(\omega_j|x) = \frac{p(x|\omega_j)P(\omega_j)}{p(x)} = \frac{likelihood \times prior}{evidence}
$$

where 
$$
p(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{2} p(x|\omega_j) P(\omega_j)
$$

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### Posterior Probabilities 6 CHAPTER 2. BAYESIAN DECISION THEORY



Figure: Posterior probabilities for the particular priors  $P(\omega_1)=2/3$  and  $P(\omega_2)=1/3$  for the class-conditional probability densities. Thus in this case, given that a pattern is measured to have feature value  $x = 14$ , the  $g(x)$  a pattern is measured to  $\frac{1}{2}$ , the probability  $0.08$  and that it is in  $\omega_1$  is  $0.02$ . At every x the position probability it is in category  $\omega_2$  is roughly 0.08, and that it is in  $\omega_1$  is 0.92. At every  $x$ , the posteriors sum to 1.0.

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- $p(x|\omega_i)$  is called the *likelihood* and  $p(x)$  is called the *evidence*.
- How can we make a decision after observing the value of  $x$ ?

$$
\text{Decide} \quad \begin{cases} \omega_1 & \text{if } P(\omega_1|x) > P(\omega_2|x) \\ \omega_2 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}
$$

Rewriting the rule gives

Decide  $\omega_1$  if  $p(x|\omega_1)P(\omega_1) > p(x|\omega_2)P(\omega_2)$  $\omega_2$  otherwise

Note that, at every x,  $P(\omega_1|x) + P(\omega_2|x) = 1$ 

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■ What is the probability of error for this decision?

$$
P(error|x) = \begin{cases} P(\omega_1|x) & \text{if we decide } \omega_2 \\ P(\omega_2|x) & \text{if we decide } \omega_1 \end{cases}
$$

What is the average probability of error?

$$
P(error) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} P(error, x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} P(error|x) p(x) dx
$$

Bayes decision rule minimizes this error because

$$
P(error|x) = \min\{P(\omega_1|x), P(\omega_2|x)\}\
$$

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### Generalization of the preceding ideas

#### Generalization of Bayes decision rule

- Use of more than one feature, e.g.,  $\{x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_d\}$
- Use more than two states of nature, e.g.,  $\{\omega_1, \omega_2, \ldots, \omega_c\}$
- Allowing actions and not only decide on the state of nature  $\Box$  take an action from the set of predefined actions  $\{\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_a\}$ .
- Introduce a loss of function which is more general than the probability of error  $\Box$  Loss incurred  $\lambda(\alpha_i|\omega_j)$  for taking action  $\alpha_i$  while the true state of nature is  $\omega_j.$

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### Generalization of the preceding ideas

- Allowing the use of more than one feature merely requires replacing the scalar x by the feature vector  $\mathrm{x},$  where  $\mathrm{x}$  is in a  $d$ -dimensional Euclidean space,  $\mathbb{R}^d$ , called the feature space.
- Allowing actions other than classification primarily allows the *possibility of rejection* – that is, of refusing to make a decision in close cases.
- The *loss function* states exactly how costly each action is, and is used to convert a probability determination into a decision.

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### Bayesian Decision Theory – Continuous Features

- Let  $\{\omega_1, \omega_2, \ldots, \omega_c\}$  be the finite set of c states of nature (or "classes", "categories")
- Let  $\{\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_n\}$  be the finite set of 'a' possible actions.
- $\blacksquare$  Let  $\lambda(\alpha_i|\omega_j)$  be the *loss* incurred for taking action  $\alpha_i$  when the state of nature is  $\omega_j.$
- $\blacksquare$  Let x be the *d*-component vector-valued random variable called the *feature vector*.

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### Bayesian Decision Theory – Continuous Features

- $p(x|\omega_i)$  is the class-conditional probability density function.
- $P(\omega_i)$  is the prior probability that nature is in state  $\omega_i$ .
- The posterior probability can be computed as

$$
P(\omega_j|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_j)P(\omega_j)}{p(\mathbf{x})}
$$

where  $p(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{j=1}^{c} p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_j) P(\omega_j)$ .

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- $\blacksquare$  Suppose we observe  ${\rm x}$  and take action  $\alpha_i.$
- If the true state of nature is  $\omega_j$ , we incur the loss  $\lambda(\alpha_i|\omega_j)$ .
- $\textcolor{black}{\blacksquare}$  The expected loss with taking action  $\alpha_i$  is

$$
R(\alpha_i|\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{j=1}^{c} \lambda(\alpha_i|\omega_j) P(\omega_j|\mathbf{x})
$$

which is also called the *conditional risk*.

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### Minimum-Risk Classification

- The general *decision rule*  $\alpha(x)$  tells us which action to take for observation x.
- We want to find the decision rule that minimizes the overall risk

$$
R = \int R(\alpha(\mathbf{x})|\mathbf{x})p(\mathbf{x})d\mathbf{x}.
$$

- **Bayes decision rule minimizes the overall risk by selecting the action**  $\alpha_i$  **for which**  $R(\omega_i|\mathrm{x})$  is minimum.
- $\blacksquare$  The resulting minimum overall risk is called the *Bayes risk* and is the best performance that can be achieved.

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#### ${\sf Two\text{-}Category\; Classification}$ cation problems. Here action and the true state of nature  $\alpha$

 $\blacksquare$   $\alpha_1$  deciding true state of nature is  $\omega_1$ . cation problems. Here action and the true state of nature stat is understand action action action action action  $\mathcal{C}$  corresponds to deciding that it is  $\mathcal{C}$  is understanding to decide that it is  $\mathcal{C}$  is  $\mathcal{C}$  is  $\mathcal{C}$  is not action action action action action action declaing true state of nature is  $\omega_1$ .

 $\alpha_2$  deciding true state of nature is  $\omega_2$ .  $i$  deciding true state of nature is  $\omega_2$ .

 $\lambda_{ij} = \lambda(\alpha_i | \omega_j) =$  loss incurred for deciding  $\omega_i$  when the true state of nature is  $\omega_j$ .

Conditional risk:

$$
R(\alpha_1|\mathbf{x}) = \lambda_{11} P(\omega_1|\mathbf{x}) + \lambda_{12} P(\omega_2|\mathbf{x}) \text{ and}
$$
  

$$
R(\alpha_2|\mathbf{x}) = \lambda_{21} P(\omega_1|\mathbf{x}) + \lambda_{22} P(\omega_2|\mathbf{x}).
$$

- $\blacksquare$  Fundamental rule to decide  $\omega_1$ ,  $R(\alpha_1|\mathrm{x}) < R(\alpha_2|\mathrm{x})$
- In terms of the posterior probabilities, decide  $\omega_1$  if  $R$  accurs of the posterior probabilities, we define  $\omega_1$  if

$$
(\lambda_{21} - \lambda_{11})P(\omega_1|\mathbf{x}) > (\lambda_{12} - \lambda_{22})P(\omega_2|\mathbf{x})
$$

$$
(\lambda_{21} - \lambda_{11})p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_1)P(\omega_1) > (\lambda_{12} - \lambda_{22})p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_2)P(\omega_2)
$$

and decide  $\omega_2$  otherwise. Another alternative, which follows at once under the reasonable assumption that  $\mathcal{A}$ 

<span id="page-18-0"></span>

 $\blacksquare$  the preceding rule is equivalent to the following rule:

$$
\left(\frac{p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_1)}{p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_2)} > \left(\frac{\lambda_{12} - \lambda_{22}}{\lambda_{21} - \lambda_{11}}\right) \frac{P(\omega_2)}{P(\omega_1)}\right)
$$

This is called likelihood ratio.

Optimal decision property:

"If the likelihood ratio exceeds a threshold value independent of the input pattern x, we can take optimal actions"

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### Minimum-Error-Rate Classification

- Classification: actions are decision on classes
	- $\Box$  If action  $\alpha_i$  is taken and the true state of nature is  $\omega_j$  then then decision is correct if  $i = j$  and in error if  $i \neq j$
- Seek a decision rule that minimizes the *probability of error* which is the *error rate*.

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### Minimum-Error-Rate Classification

Define the zero-one loss function

$$
\lambda(\alpha_i|\omega_j) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i = j \\ 1 & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases} i, j = 1, \dots, c
$$

■ Conditional risk becomes

$$
R(\alpha_i|\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{j=1}^{c} \lambda(\alpha_i|\omega_j) P(\omega_j|\mathbf{x})
$$

$$
= \sum_{j \neq i} P(\omega_j|\mathbf{x})
$$

$$
= 1 - P(\omega_i|\mathbf{x})
$$

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### Minimum-Error-Rate Classification

 $\blacksquare$  Minimizing the risk requires maximizing  $P(\omega_i|\mathrm{x})$  and results in the minimum-error decision rule

Decide 
$$
\omega_i
$$
 if  $P(\omega_i|\mathbf{x}) > P(\omega_j|\mathbf{x}) \quad \forall \ j \neq i$ .

 $\blacksquare$  The resulting error is called the *Bayes error* and is the best performance that can be achieved.

<span id="page-22-0"></span>[Bayesian Decision Theory](#page-1-0) Disc. Functions Normal Density Evaluation BDT-Discrete [References](#page-65-0) [i](#page-17-0)[n](#page-18-0) [c](#page-20-0)[l](#page-21-0)[as](#page-22-0)sifyin[g](#page-23-0) [ω](#page-24-0)[1](#page-26-0) [p](#page-27-0)[a](#page-28-0)tterns as ω[2](#page-29-0) [m](#page-30-0)[o](#page-32-0)[r](#page-33-0)[e](#page-34-0) [t](#page-35-0)[h](#page-36-0)[a](#page-38-0)[n](#page-39-0) [t](#page-40-0)[h](#page-41-0)[e](#page-43-0) [c](#page-44-0)[o](#page-45-0)[n](#page-46-0)[v](#page-47-0)[e](#page-48-0)[r](#page-49-0)[se](#page-50-0) (i.e., [λ](#page-52-0)[21](#page-53-0) [>](#page-55-0) λ12), th[e](#page-57-0)[n](#page-58-0) [E](#page-60-0)[q](#page-61-0)[.](#page-62-0) [17](#page-64-0)

#### Minimum-Error-Rate Classification and the threshold experience of the range of x values for which we classification Error rided diasomederon



 $P(\omega_2)=1/3$ , and a zero-one loss function. If we penalize mistakes in classifying  $\omega_2$  patterns as  $\omega_1$  more than the converse, we should increase the threshold to  $\theta_b.$ Figure: The likelihood ratio  $p(x|\omega_1)/p(x|\omega_2)$ . The threshold  $\theta_a$  is computed using the priors  $P(\omega_1) = 2/3$  and

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# Classifiers, Discriminant Functions, and Decision Surfaces

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■ There are many different ways to represent patterns classifiers.

work representation of a classifier is in  $\mathcal{L}_\mathcal{F}$  in  $\mathcal{L}_\mathcal{F}$  is illustrated in  $\mathcal{L}_\mathcal{F}$ 



Figure: The functional structure of a general statistical pattern classifier which includes  $d$  inputs and  $c$ discriminant functions  $g_i(\mathbf{x})$ . A subsequent step determines which of the discriminant values is the maximum, and categorizes the input pattern accordingly.

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### Discriminant Functions

A useful way of representing classifiers is through *discriminant functions*  $g_i(\mathrm{x}), i=1,\ldots,c$ , where the classifier assigns a feature vector  $\mathrm{x}$  to class  $\omega_i$  if

$$
g_i(\mathbf{x}) > g_j(\mathbf{x}) \quad \forall \ j \neq i.
$$

For the classifier that minimizes conditional risk

$$
\left(g_i(\mathbf{x}) = -R(\alpha_i|\mathbf{x}).\right)
$$

 $\blacksquare$  For the classifier that minimizes error

$$
g_i(\mathbf{x}) = P(\omega_i|\mathbf{x}).
$$

<span id="page-26-0"></span>

- These functions divide the feature space into c decision regions  $(\mathcal{R}_1, \ldots, \mathcal{R}_c)$ ,
- separated by *decision boundaries*. Note that the results do not change even if we replace every  $q_i(\mathbf{x})$  by  $f(q_i(\mathbf{x}))$
- where  $f(\cdot)$  is a monotonically increasing function (e.g., logarithm).
- This may lead to significant analytical and computational simplifications.

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#### For example: Minimum-Error-Rate Classification discriminant functions (Fig. 2.6).



Figure: In this two-dimensional two-category classifier, the probability densities are Gaussian, 2.4.2 The Two-Category Case hyperbolas. While the two-category case is just a special instance of the multicategory case, it has not the multicategory classifier, the probability defisities are Gaussian,<br>the decision boundary consists of two decision rules are equivalent. The effect of any decision rule is to divide the feature is to divide the feature region Rights for the decision rule calls for us to  $\alpha$  the regions are separated  $\alpha$ .

$$
g_i(\mathbf{x}) = P(\omega_i|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_i)P(\omega_i)}{\sum_{j=1}^{c} p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_j)P(\omega_j)}
$$

$$
g_i(\mathbf{x}) = p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_i)P(\omega_i)
$$

$$
g_i(\mathbf{x}) = \ln p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_i) + \ln P(\omega_i),
$$

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### Decision boundary: Two-Category Case

- **The two-category case is just a special instance of the multicategory case.**
- Instead of using two discriminant functions  $q_1$  and  $q_2$  and assigning x to  $\omega_1$  if  $g_1 > g_2$ , it is common to define a single discriminant function

 $g(x) \equiv g_1(x) - g_2(x)$ and to use the following decision rule:  $\overline{O(1)}$  if  $\overline{O(1)}$  if  $\overline{O(1)}$ function g( $\overline{a}$ ), and classifies  $\overline{a}$  and  $\overline{a}$  algebraic sign of the result. Of the resul

discriminant functions gradient functions  $\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{L}}$  and  $\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{L}}$  is more common common common common

and Decide  $\omega_1$  if  $g(\mathrm{x})>0$ ; otherwise decide  $\omega_2$ 

■ Minimum-error-rate discriminant function can be written as

$$
g(\mathbf{x}) = P(\omega_1|\mathbf{x}) - P(\omega_2|\mathbf{x})
$$

$$
g(\mathbf{x}) = \ln \frac{p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_1)}{p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_2)} + \ln \frac{P(\omega_1)}{P(\omega_2)}.
$$

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# Normal/Gaussian Density

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### The Normal/Gaussian Density

- $\blacksquare$  Univariate density,  $N(\mu,\sigma^2)$ 
	- $\Box$  Density which is analytically tractable
	- $\Box$  Continuous density
	- $\Box$  A lot of processes are asymptotically Gaussian
	- $\Box$  Handwritten characters, speech sounds are ideal or prototype corrupted by random process (central limit theorem)
	- $\Box$  For  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ :

$$
p(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2\right]
$$

where 
$$
\mu
$$
 = mean (or expected value) of x  
\n
$$
= E[x] = \int x p(x) dx
$$
\n
$$
\sigma^2
$$
\n
$$
= \text{expected squared deviation or variance}
$$
\n
$$
= E[(x - \mu)(x - \mu)^t] = \int (x - \mu)(x - \mu)^t p(x) dx
$$

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#### Univariate density that x is distributed normally with mean  $\sim$ from normal distributions tend to cluster about the mean, with a spread related to  $\alpha$



Figure: A univariate normal distribution has roughly 95% of its area in the range  $|x - \mu| \le 2\sigma$ . The peak of the<br>distribution has value  $p(\mu) = 1/\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma$  $x_1$  as shown. The peak of the peak of the distribution has value  $p(\mu) = 1/\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma$ 

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### Multivariate Density

■ Multivariate normal density,  $N(\mu, \Sigma)$ , in  $d$ -dimensions (i.e., for  $\mathrm{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ ) is

$$
p(x) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{d/2} |\Sigma|^{1/2}} \exp \left[ -\frac{1}{2} (x - \mu)^t \Sigma^{-1} (x - \mu) \right]
$$

where:

 $\mathrm{x} = (x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_d)^T$   $d$ -dimensional vector  $\mu=(\mu_1,\mu_2,\ldots,\mu_d)^T$  mean vector  $= E[x] = \int x p(x) dx$  $\Sigma = d \times d$  covariance matrix  $= E[(x - \mu)(x - \mu)^t] = \int (x - \mu)(x - \mu)^t p(x) dx$  $|\Sigma|$  and  $\Sigma^{-1}$  are determinant and inverse respectively

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### Multivariate Density



Figure: Samples drawn from a two-dimensional Gaussian lie in a cloud centered on the mean  $\mu$ . The loci of points of constant density are the ellipses for which  $(x - \mu)^t \Sigma^{-1} (x - \mu)$  is constant, where the eigenvectors of  $\Sigma$  determine the direction and the corresponding eigenvalues determine the length of the principal axes. The quantity  $r^2 = (x - \mu)^t \Sigma^{-1} (x - \mu)$  is called the squared *Mahalanobis distance* from x to  $\mu$ 

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### Discriminant Functions for the Normal Density

Discriminant functions for minimum-error-rate classification can be written as

 $g_i(\mathbf{x}) = \ln \mathrm{p}(\mathbf{x}|\omega_i) + \ln \mathrm{P}(\omega_i)$ 

**F** For  $p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_i) = N(\mu_i, \Sigma_i)$  (case of multivariate normal)

$$
g_i(x) = -\frac{1}{2}(x - \mu_i)^T \Sigma_i^{-1} (x - \mu_i) - \frac{d}{2} \ln 2\pi - \frac{1}{2} \ln |\Sigma_i| + \ln P(\omega_i)
$$

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#### Discriminant functions are

$$
g_i(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}_i^T \mathbf{x} + w_{i0}
$$
 linear discriminant

where

$$
w_i = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \mu_i
$$
  

$$
w_{i0} = -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \mu_i^T \mu_i + \ln P(w_i)
$$

 $(w_{i0}$  is the threshold or bias for the *i*th category)

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**Decision boundaries are the hyperplanes**  $g_i(x) = g_j(x)$ , and can be written as

$$
\mathbf{w}^T(\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{x}_0)
$$

where

w = 
$$
\mu_i - \mu_j
$$
  
x<sub>0</sub> =  $\frac{1}{2}(\mu_i + \mu_j) - \frac{\sigma^2}{||\mu_i - \mu_j||^2} \ln \frac{P(w_i)}{P(w_j)}(\mu_i - \mu_j).$ 

Hyperplane separating  $\mathcal{R}_i$  and  $\mathcal{R}_j$  passes through the point  $x_0$  and is orthogonal to the vector w.

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 $\blacksquare$  If the covariances of two distributions are equal and proportional to the identity matrix, then the distributions are spherical in  $d$  dimensions, and the boundary is a generalized hyperplane of  $(d-1)$  dimensions, perpendicular to the line separating<br>. the means.



Figure: In these 1-, 2-, and 3-dimensional examples, we indicate  $p(x|w_i)$  and the boundaries for the case  $P(w_1) = P(w_2)$ . In this 3-dimensional case, the grid plane separates  $\mathcal{R}_1$  from  $\mathcal{R}_2$ .

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 $\overline{c}$ 



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0

Case 1:  $\Sigma_i = \sigma^2 I$ 

0



Figure: A the priors are changed, the decision boundary shifts; for sufficiently disparate priors the boundary will not lie between the means of these 1-, 2-, and 3-dimensional spherical Gaussian distributions.

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Special case when  $P(w_i)$  are the same for  $i = 1, \ldots, c$  is the minimum-distance classifier that uses the decision rule

assign x to 
$$
w_{i^*}
$$
 where  $i^* = \arg \min_{i=1,\dots,c} ||x - \mu_i||$ 

<span id="page-41-0"></span>

$$
\mathcal{L}^{\text{max}}(\mathcal{L}^{\text{max}}(\mathcal{L}^{\text{max}}))
$$

Discriminant functions are

$$
g(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}_i^T \mathbf{x} + w_{i0} \quad \text{(linear discriminant)}
$$

where

$$
w_i = \Sigma^{-1} \mu_i
$$
  

$$
w_{i0} = -\frac{1}{2} \mu_i^T \Sigma^{-1} \mu_i + \ln P(w_i).
$$

<span id="page-42-0"></span>

Decision boundaries can be written as

$$
\mathbf{w}^T(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0) = 0
$$

$$
w = \Sigma^{-1} (\mu_i - \mu_j)
$$
  
\n
$$
x_0 = \frac{1}{2} (\mu_i + \mu_j) - \frac{\ln(P(w_i)/P(w_j))}{(\mu_i - \mu_j)^T \Sigma^{-1} (\mu_i - \mu_j)} (\mu_i - \mu_j).
$$

Hyperplane passes through  $x_0$  but is not necessarily orthogonal to the line between the means.

<span id="page-43-0"></span>

Case 2: 
$$
\Sigma_i = \Sigma
$$



5

 $\overline{a}$ 

<span id="page-44-0"></span>

Case 2:  $\Sigma_i = \Sigma$ 



Figure: Probability densities (indicated by the surfaces in two dimensions and Figure: Probability densities (indicated by the surfaces in two dimensions and ellipsoidal surfaces in three dimensions) and decision regions for equal but asymmetric Gaussian distributions. The decision hyperplanes need<br>ast he gauges disclents the line assumetive the gaseas gaussian distribution of the definition of the decision hyperplanes need not be perpendicular to the method of not be perpendicular to the line connecting the means.



<span id="page-45-0"></span>

Case 3:  $\Sigma_i$  = arbitrary

### Discriminant functions are

$$
g_i(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{W}_i \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{w}_i^T \mathbf{x} + w_{i0} \qquad \text{(quadratic discriminant)}
$$

where

$$
W_i = -\frac{1}{2} \Sigma_i^{-1}
$$
  
\n
$$
w_i = \Sigma_i^{-1} \mu_i
$$
  
\n
$$
w_{i0} = -\frac{1}{2} \mu_i^T \Sigma_i^{-1} \mu_i - \frac{1}{2} \ln |\Sigma_i| + \ln P(w_i)
$$

Decision boundaries are hyperquadrics.

<span id="page-46-0"></span>

### Case 3:  $\Sigma_i$  = arbitrary





<span id="page-47-0"></span>

10

-10

# Case 3:  $\Sigma_i =$ arbitrary

10

-10



Figure: Arbitrary Gaussian distributions lead to Bayes decision boundaries that Figure: Arbitrary Gaussian distributions lead to Bayes decision boundaries that are general hyperquadrics. Conversely, given any hyperquadratic, one can find two Gaussian distributions whose Bayes decision boundary is<br>''  $G$ aussian distributions whose Bayes decision boundary is that hyperquadric. that hyperquadric.

<span id="page-48-0"></span>

### Question:

For a 2-class problem, the prior probabilities are:  $P(w_1) = 1/4$  and  $P(w_2) = 3/4$ . The class conditional distribution for  $x = x$ , that is x has only a single attribute, are  $p(x/w_1) = N(0, 1)$  and  $p(x/w_2) = N(1, 1)$ .

- (a) Calculate the threshold boundary value  $x_t$  which gives the probability of minimum error.
- (b) If the loss matrix is

$$
\lambda_{ij} = \left[ \begin{array}{cc} 0 & 1 \\ 1/2 & 0 \end{array} \right],
$$

find the threshold boundary value  $x_t$  for minimum risk.

<span id="page-49-0"></span>

### Example to solve

#### Question:

Two normal distribution are characterized by:  $P(w_1) = P(w_2) = 0.5$  and

$$
\mu_1 = \left( \begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 1 \end{array} \right), \mu_2 = \left( \begin{array}{c} 0 \\ -1 \end{array} \right)
$$

Sketch the Bayes decision boundary for  $\Sigma_1 = \Sigma_2 = I$ .

<span id="page-50-0"></span>

distribution. Because the overall prior probabilities are the same (i.e., the integral over

### Example to solve

#### Question:

Find the decision boundary between  $\omega_1$  and  $\omega_2$  where lower than the point midway between the two means, as can be seen in the decision of  $\mathcal{L}$ 



Assuming that samples in  $\omega_1$  and  $\omega_2$  following Normal distribution. *Solution:*  $1.5x_1^2 - 9x_1 - 8x_2 + 28.1137 = 0$ 

<span id="page-51-0"></span>

### Evaluate Classifiers

<span id="page-52-0"></span>

- For a two class-problem, a table of confusion (sometimes also called a confusion matrix), is a table with two rows and two columns that reports the number of
	- $\Box$  false positives (FP),
	- $\Box$  false negatives (FN),
	- $\Box$  true positives (TP), and
	- $\Box$  true negatives(TN)
- $\blacksquare$  In statistical classification, a confusion matrix, also known as an error matrix.



<span id="page-53-0"></span>

### Performance Evaluation using confusion matrix

- True positive rate (TPR), also called Sensitivity
- False positive rate (FPR), also called Fall-out
- False negative rate (FNR), also called Miss rate
- True negative rate (TNR), also called Specificity



 $\Sigma$  Total population

<span id="page-54-0"></span>[Bayesian Decision Theory](#page-1-0) [Disc. Functions](#page-23-0) [Normal Density](#page-29-0) [Evaluation](#page-51-0) [BDT-Discrete](#page-57-0) [References](#page-65-0)

### Receiver Operating Characteristics

- If we use a parameter  $(e.g.,$ a threshold) in our decision, the plot of TPR vs FPR for different values of the parameter is called the receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve.
- The ROC curve is created by plotting the true positive rate (TPR) against the false positive rate (FPR) at various threshold positive rate (TPR) against<br>the false positive rate<br>(FPR) at various threshold<br>settings.<br>term of the system of the system of the system of the system<br>setting of the system



Figure: Example receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curves for different setting of the system

<span id="page-55-0"></span>[Bayesian Decision Theory](#page-1-0) [Disc. Functions](#page-23-0) [Normal Density](#page-29-0) [Evaluation](#page-51-0) [BDT-Discrete](#page-57-0) [References](#page-65-0)

### Receiver Operating Characteristics



<span id="page-56-0"></span>

- To minimize the overall risk, choose the action that minimizes the conditional risk  $R(\alpha|x)$ .
- To minimize the probability of error, choose the class that maximizes the posterior probability  $P(\omega_i | x)$ .
- If there are different penalties for misclassifying patterns from different classes, the posteriors must be weighted according to such penalties before taking action.
- Do not forget that these decisions are the optimal ones under the assumption that the "true" values of the probabilities are known.

<span id="page-57-0"></span>

### Bayes Decision Theory - Discrete Features

<span id="page-58-0"></span>

### Bayes Decision Theory - Discrete Features

- **Components of x are binary or integer valued, x can take only one of m discrete** values  $v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_m$
- Case of independent binary features in 2 category problem Let  $\mathbf{x} = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_d]^t$  where each  $x_i$  is either 0 or 1, with probabilities:  $p_i = P(x_i = 1 | \omega_1)$  $q_i = P(x_i = 1 | \omega_2)$

 $p_i > q_i \Rightarrow x_i$  is more likely to have value 1 if  $\mathrm{x} \in \omega_1$ 

■ Class conditional probabilities

$$
p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_1) = \prod_{i=1}^d p_i^{x_i} (1 - p_i)^{1 - x_i}
$$

$$
^{1-x_{i}}\left[ p(x|\omega_{2})=\prod_{i=1}^{d}q_{i}^{x_{i}}(1-q_{i})^{1-x_{i}}\right]
$$

<span id="page-59-0"></span>[Bayesian Decision Theory](#page-1-0) [Disc. Functions](#page-23-0) [Normal Density](#page-29-0) [Evaluation](#page-51-0) [BDT-Discrete](#page-57-0) [References](#page-65-0)  $\frac{1}{2}$   $\frac{1}{2}$  Disc Functions

#### Bayes Decision Theory - Discrete Features Decision Theory - Discrete Features p<sup>x</sup><sup>i</sup> <sup>i</sup> (1 − pi)

 $\blacksquare$  Then the likelihood ratio is given by Thus, a dichotomizer can be viewed as a machine that computes a single discriminant  $\alpha$ 

$$
\frac{p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_1)}{p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_2)} = \prod_{i=1}^d \left(\frac{p_i}{q_i}\right)^{x_i} \left(\frac{1-p_i}{1-q_i}\right)^{1-x_i}
$$

we know that Then the likelihood ratio is given by

writer.

$$
g(\mathbf{x}) = \ln \frac{p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_1)}{p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_2)} + \ln \frac{P(\omega_1)}{P(\omega_2)}
$$

 $\frac{2}{3}$  $\blacksquare$  Therefore discriminant function will be

$$
g(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{d} \left[ x_i \ln \frac{p_i}{q_i} + (1 - x_i) \ln \frac{1 - p_i}{1 - q_i} \right] + \ln \frac{P(\omega_1)}{P(\omega_2)}
$$

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# <span id="page-60-0"></span>Bayes Decision Theory - Discrete Features

 $\blacksquare$  We note especially that this discrimant function is linear in the  $x_i$  and thus we can write write

i=1

$$
g(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^d w_i x_i + w_0,
$$

1 − qili<br>1 − qili<br>1 − qili

where

$$
w_i = \ln \frac{p_i(1 - q_i)}{q_i(1 - p_i)} \qquad i = 1, ..., d
$$

and

$$
w_0 = \sum_{i=1}^d \ln \frac{1-p_i}{1-q_i} + \ln \frac{P(\omega_1)}{P(\omega_2)}.
$$

Decide  $\omega_1$  if  $g(x) > 0$  and  $\omega_2$  if  $g(x) \le 0$ we decide when  $\frac{d}{dx}$  if  $g(x) = 0$ .

<span id="page-61-0"></span>

### Bayes Decision Theory - Discrete Features

- If  $p_i = q_i$ ,  $x_i$  gives us no information about the state of nature, and  $\omega_0$ .
- If  $p_i > q_i$ , then  $1 p_i < 1 q_i$  and  $w_i$  is positive. Thus in this case a "yes" answer for  $x_i$  contribute  $w_i$  votes for  $\omega_1$ .
- **Furthermore, for any fixed**  $q_i < 1$ ,  $w_i$  gets larger as  $p_i$  gets larger.
- $\blacksquare$  On the other hand, if  $p_i < q_i$ ,  $w_i$  is negative and a "yes" answer contributes  $|w_i|$ votes for  $\omega_2$ .

<span id="page-62-0"></span>

### Question:

### Compute Bayesian decision for three-dimensional binary features

Suppose two categories consist of independent binary features in three dimensions with known feature probabilities. Let us construct the Bayesian decision boundary if  $P(\omega_1) = P(\omega_2) = 0.5$  and the individual components obey:

$$
\begin{cases} p_i = 0.8\\ q_i = 0.5 \end{cases} i = 1, 2, 3
$$

<span id="page-63-0"></span>

### Question:

### Compute Bayesian decision for three-dimensional binary features

Suppose two categories consist of independent binary features in three dimensions with known feature probabilities. Let us construct the Bayesian decision boundary if  $P(\omega_1) = P(\omega_2) = 0.5$  and the individual components obey:

> $\int p_1 = p_2 = 0.8, p_3 = 0.5$  $q_1 = q_2 = q_3 = 0.5$

<span id="page-64-0"></span>

### Addition Examples:

#### Question:

13. In many pattern classification problems one has the option either to assign the pattern to one of c classes, or to reject it as being unrecognizable. If the cost for rejects is not too high, rejection may be a desirable action. Let

$$
\lambda(\alpha_i|\omega_j) = \begin{cases} 0 & i = j & i, j = 1, ..., c \\ \lambda_r & i = c + 1 \\ \lambda_s & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}
$$

where  $\lambda_r$  is the loss incurred for choosing the  $(c+1)$ th action, rejection, and  $\lambda_s$  is the loss incurred for making a substitution error. Show that the minimum risk is obtained if we decide  $\omega_i$  if  $P(\omega_i|\mathbf{x}) \ge P(\omega_i|\mathbf{x})$  for all j and if  $P(\omega_i|\mathbf{x}) \ge 1 - \lambda_r/\lambda_s$ , and reject otherwise. What happens if  $\lambda_r = 0$ ? What happens if  $\lambda_r > \lambda_s$ ?

are optimal for such problems:  $\frac{1}{2}$ What is the inverse of  $\begin{bmatrix} 4 & 4 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ ?  $p(\omega)$  is the 1,  $p(\omega)$  in  $p(\omega)$  in  $p(\omega)$ Question:

<span id="page-65-0"></span>

References

- [1] Hart, P. E., Stork, D. G., & Duda, R. O. (2000). Pattern classification. Hoboken: Wiley.
- [2] Gose, E. (1997). Pattern recognition and image analysis.

<span id="page-66-0"></span>



Thank you!