

# Mathématiques pour l'IA 1

## Bayesian Decision Theory, Discriminant Analysis

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« [On the Gaussian curve] *Experimentalists think that it is a mathematical theorem while the mathematicians believe it to be an experimental fact.* »

Gabriel Lippmann

# Outline

- 1 Bayesian Decision Theory
- 2 Discriminant Analysis
- 3 Fisher Discriminant Analysis
- 4 Naive Bayes
- 5 Logistic Regression

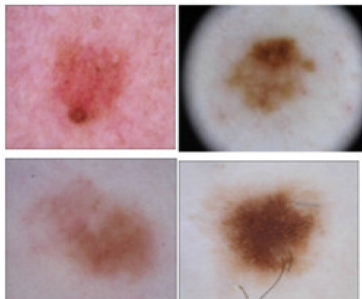
# Statistical Methods

- ▶ Statistical methods in machine learning all have in common that they assume that the process that “generates” the data is governed by the rules of probability
- ▶ The data is understood to be a set of random samples from some underlying probability distribution
- ▶ First part of this talk will be all about probabilistic models. In the second part, and other talks, the use of probability will sometimes be much less explicit
- ▶ Nonetheless, the basic assumption about how the data is generated is always there, even if you don't see a single probability distribution anywhere

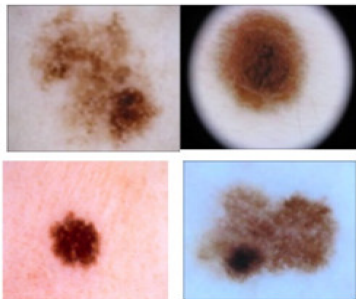
# Cancer detection

Two classes decision problem

**a) Benign**



**b) Melanoma**



⇒ classify a new image so that the probability of a wrong classification is minimized

# Class conditional probabilities

- Probability of making an observation  $\mathbf{x}$  knowing that it comes from some class  $\mathcal{C}_k$
- Here  $\mathbf{x}$  is often a feature vector, which measures/describes properties of the data. E.g.: number of black pixels, height-width ratio, ...

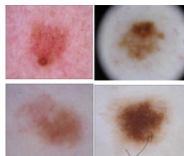


Figure: “benign”

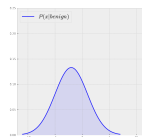


Figure: Distribution of  $\mathbf{x}$  conditionally to “benign”

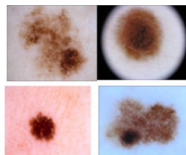


Figure: “malign”

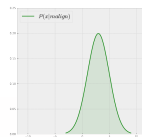


Figure: Distribution of  $\mathbf{x}$  conditionally to “malign”

# Class conditional probabilities

- Example, we have an observation  $\mathbf{x} = -2$

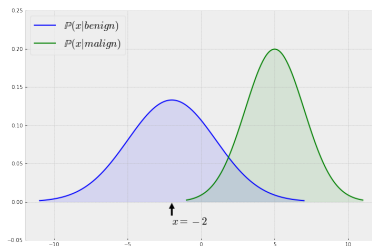


Figure:  $\mathbf{x} = -2$  should produce “benign”

- How do we decide which class the data point belongs to?
- Here, we should decide for class “benign”

# Class conditional probabilities

- Example, we have an observation  $\mathbf{x} = 6$

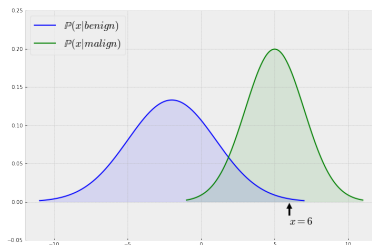


Figure:  $\mathbf{x} = 6$  should produce “malign”

- How do we decide which class the data point belongs to?
- Here, we should decide for class “malign”

# Class conditional probabilities

- Example, we have an observation  $\mathbf{x} = 2$

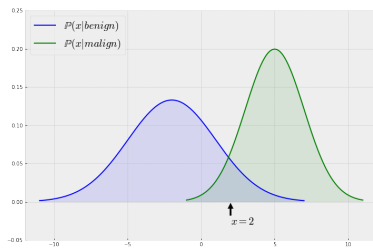


Figure:  $\mathbf{x} = 2$  should produce ?

- How do we decide which class the data point belongs to?



# Class Priors

- ▶ The **a priori** probability of a data point belonging to a particular class is called the **class prior**
- ▶ Invasive melanomas account for about 1% of all skin cancer cases<sup>1</sup>
- ▶ What are  $p(\text{"malign"})$  and  $p(\text{"benign"})$ ?

$$C_1 = \text{"malign"} \quad p(C_1) = 0.01$$

$$C_2 = \text{"benign"} \quad p(C_2) = 0.99$$

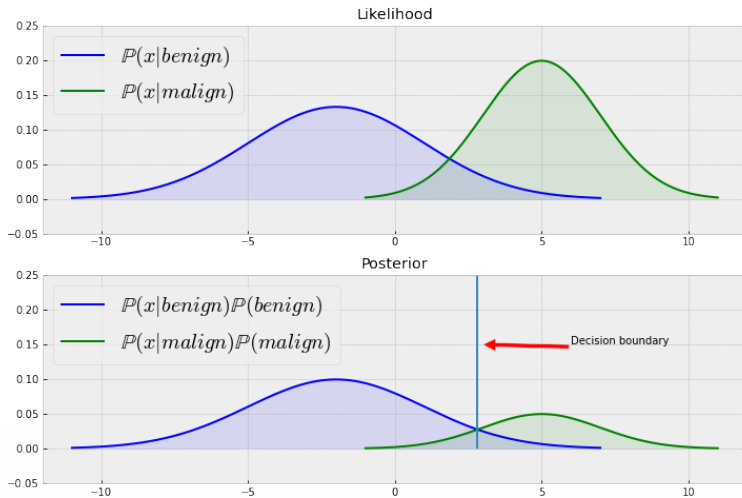
$$\sum_k p(C_k) = 1$$

- ▶ How do we decide which class the data point belongs to?
- ▶ If  $p(C_1) = 0.01$  and  $p(C_2) = 0.99$ , we should decide for "benign".

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<sup>1</sup>but they account for over 75% of skin cancer deaths

# Bayesian Decision Theory



# Bayesian Decision Theory

## ► Bayes formula

$$\mathbb{P}(A|B) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(B|A)\mathbb{P}(A)}{\mathbb{P}(B)}.$$

- We want to find the **a-posteriori probability** (posterior) of the class  $C_k$  given the observation (feature)  $\mathbf{x}$

$$p(C_k|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{x}|C_k)p(C_k)}{p(\mathbf{x})}.$$

- $p(C_k) = \pi_k$  is the *prior* probability
  - $p(\mathbf{x}|C_k)$  is the class-conditional probability (likelihood)
  - $p(C_k|\mathbf{x})$  is the class *posterior* probability
  - $p(\mathbf{x})$  is the normalization term
- We classify a new point according to which density is highest. When the priors are different, we take them into account as well

# Bayesian Decision Theory

- ▶ **Decision rule:** decide  $C_1$  if  $p(C_1 | \mathbf{x}) > p(C_2 | \mathbf{x})$
- ▶ Equivalent to

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{p(\mathbf{x} | C_1) p(C_1)}{p(\mathbf{x})} &> \frac{p(\mathbf{x} | C_2) p(C_2)}{p(\mathbf{x})} \\ \iff \frac{p(\mathbf{x} | C_1)}{p(\mathbf{x} | C_2)} &> \frac{p(C_2)}{p(C_1)} \end{aligned}$$

- ▶ A classifier obeying this rule is called a **Bayes Optimal Classifier**
- ▶ **Generalization to more than 2 classes:**
  - Decide for class  $k$  iff it has the highest a-posteriori probability

$$p(C_k | \mathbf{x}) > p(C_j | \mathbf{x}), \quad \forall j \neq k$$

- Equivalent to

$$p(\mathbf{x} | C_k) p(C_k) > p(\mathbf{x} | C_j) p(C_j), \quad \forall j \neq k$$

- ▶ **Decision Region:**  $R_1, R_2, \dots$  form a partition of the predictor space  $\mathcal{X}$

# Risk Minimization

- ▶ So far, we have tried to minimize the **misclassification rate**
- ▶ There are many cases when not every misclassification is **equally bad**
- ▶ Smoke detector
  - If there is a fire, we need to be very sure that we classify it as such
  - If there is no fire, it is ok to occasionally have a false alarm
- ▶ Medical diagnosis
  - If the patient is sick, we need to be very sure that we report them as sick
  - If they are healthy, it is ok to classify them as sick and order further testing that may help clarifying this up

# Loss Function

- ▶ **Key idea** : we have to construct a loss function in a way that expresses what we want to achieve

$$\begin{aligned} \text{loss}(\text{decision} = \text{healthy} | \text{patient} = \text{sick}) &>> \\ \text{loss}(\text{decision} = \text{sick} | \text{patient} = \text{healthy}) \end{aligned}$$

- ▶ Possible decisions:  $\alpha_i$
- ▶ True classes:  $C_j$
- ▶ Loss function:  $\lambda(\alpha_i | C_j)$ 
  - $\Rightarrow$  Measure the loss of deciding  $\alpha_i$  when the truth is  $C_j$

# Risk Minimization

- ▶ The expected loss of a decision is also called the **risk of making a decision**
- ▶ **Instead of minimizing the Misclassification Rate**

$$\begin{aligned} p(\text{error}) &= p(\mathbf{x} \in R_1, C_2) + p(\mathbf{x} \in R_2, C_1) \\ &= \int_{R_1} p(\mathbf{x} | C_2) p(C_2) dx + \int_{R_2} p(\mathbf{x} | C_1) p(C_1) dx \end{aligned}$$

- ▶ **We minimize the Overall Risk**

$$R(\alpha_i | \mathbf{x}) = \sum_j \lambda(\alpha_i | C_j) p(C_j | \mathbf{x})$$

- ▶ **Goal: Create a decision rule so that overall risk is minimized**  
 ⇒ Decide  $\alpha_1$  if  $R(\alpha_2 | \mathbf{x}) > R(\alpha_1 | \mathbf{x})$

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# Discriminant Analysis

## ► Introduction:

- Model the distribution of  $\mathbf{X}$  using **Gaussian distribution** in each of the classes separately, and then use Bayes theorem to flip things around and obtain  $p(Y|\mathbf{X})$ .
- This leads to **linear** or **quadratic** discriminant analysis (LDA or QDA).

## ► Pros:

- When the classes are **well-separated** or  $n$  is small, the parameter estimates for the **logistic regression** (*more on logistic regression later*) model are surprisingly **unstable**. LDA does not suffer from this problem
- It is a **simple** and computationally efficient algorithm
- Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA), when we have more than two response classes, provides **low-dimensional views** of the data.

## ► Cons:

- It requires **Normal** distribution **assumption** on features/predictors.
- It assumes that the data is **linearly separable**
- It may not perform well in **high-dimensional** feature spaces

LDA explained when  $p = 1$ 

- ▶ The Gaussian density has the form

$$f_k(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_k} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu_k)^2}{2\sigma_k^2}}$$

Here  $\mu_k$  is the mean, and  $\sigma_k^2$  the variance (in class  $k$ ).

- ▶ Plugging this into Bayes formula, we get a rather complex expression for  $p_k(x) = \mathbb{P}(Y = k | X = x)$ :

$$p_k(x) = \frac{\pi_k \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_k} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu_k)^2}{2\sigma_k^2}}}{\sum_{l=1}^K \pi_l \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_l} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu_l)^2}{2\sigma_l^2}}}$$

- ▶ Happily, there are simplifications and cancellations.

# Discriminant functions

**Assume**  $\sigma_k = \sigma$  **for all**  $k$ .

- ▶ To classify at the value  $X = x$ , we need to see which of the  $p_k(x)$  is **largest**.
- ▶ Taking **logs**, and discarding terms that do not depend on  $k$ , we see that this is equivalent to assigning  $x$  to the class with the largest **discriminant score**:

$$\delta_k(x) = x \frac{\mu_k}{\sigma^2} - \frac{\mu_k^2}{2\sigma^2} + \log(\pi_k)$$

- ▶ Note that  $\delta_k(x)$  is a **linear** function of  $x$ .
- ▶ If there are  $K = 2$  classes and  $\pi_1 = \pi_2 = 0.5$ , then one can see that the decision boundary is at

$$x = \frac{\mu_1 + \mu_2}{2}.$$

1 What is the discriminant score if  $\sigma_k$  are not all equals ? [Hint: QDA]

# Estimating the parameters ( $p = 1$ )

Maximum likelihood estimates are

$$\hat{\pi}_k = \frac{n_k}{n} \quad \text{with } n_k \text{ the number of samples in class } k$$

$$\hat{\mu}_k = \frac{1}{n_k} \sum_{i:y_i=k} x_i$$

$$\hat{\sigma}_k^2 = \frac{1}{n_k} \sum_{i:y_i=k} (x_i - \hat{\mu}_k)^2 \quad (\text{In class variances})$$

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^K \sum_{i:y_i=k} (x_i - \hat{\mu}_k)^2 = \sum_{k=1}^K \hat{\pi}_k \hat{\sigma}_k^2 \quad (\text{Within variance})$$

# Linear Discriminant Analysis ( $p > 1$ )

- ▶ When there is more than one variable, we use the **multivariate Gaussian distribution** given by

$$f(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{p/2} |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k|^{1/2}} \exp \left[ -\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k)^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k) \right]$$

- ▶  $\boldsymbol{\mu}_k \in \mathbb{R}^p$  the expectation of  $\mathbf{x}$  conditional to  $Y = k$
- ▶  $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k$  the **covariance** matrix of  $\mathbf{x}$  conditional to  $Y = k$
- ▶ If  $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}$  for all  $k$  then the discriminant function is:

$$\delta_k(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu}_k - \frac{1}{2} \boldsymbol{\mu}_k^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu}_k + \log \pi_k$$

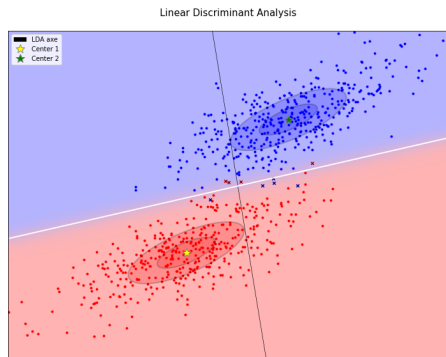
This is a **linear** function of  $\mathbf{x}$ !

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# FDA versus PCA

- ▶ FDA: find a **linear combination of features** that characterizes or **separates two or more classes**
- ▶ PCA maximizes the **variance of projections** on the subspace
- ▶ FDA maximizes **differentiation between classes** in subspace



## FDA: Discriminant axis

## ► Covariance between variables:

- Between-class:  $S_B$  calculated by considering that the observations are the centers of gravity of the classes

$$\mathbf{S}_B = \sum_{k=1}^K (\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_k - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})(\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_k - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})^T$$

- Within-class:  $S_W$  calculated on the initial observations, by centering each class on its center of gravity

$$\mathbf{S}_W = \sum_{k=1}^K \sum_{i \in \mathcal{C}_k} (\mathbf{x}_i - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_k)(\mathbf{x}_i - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_k)^T$$

- Total:  $S$  calculated on initial observations;

$$\mathbf{S} = \sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{x}_i - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})(\mathbf{x}_i - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})^T$$

- Huygens relationship  $\mathbf{S} = \mathbf{S}_B + \mathbf{S}_W$



# Solution

- The first **Linear Discriminant projection** is find by **maximizing** the criterion

$$J(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{S}_B \mathbf{w}}{\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{S}_W \mathbf{w}}$$

- Solving the **generalized eigenvalue problem**  $\mathbf{S}_B \mathbf{w} = \lambda \mathbf{S}_W \mathbf{w}$  yields the discriminant axis (see PCA)
- $\mathbf{S}_B$  is the sum of  $K$  matrices of rank 1 (or less) and the mean vectors are constrained by a linear relationship
    - ⇒  $\mathbf{S}_B$  is of rank  $K - 1$  (or less)
    - ⇒ if  $K < p$ , there is at least  **$K - 1$**  discriminant axis
  - The matrix  $\mathbf{S}_W^{-1} \mathbf{S}_B$  is not **symmetric**
    - ⇒ The Discriminant axis **are not orthogonal**

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# Naive Bayes Approach

- ▶ Naive Bayes approach is a simple but surprisingly powerful algorithm for predictive modeling.
- ▶ If  $\mathbf{X} = (X^1, \dots, X^p)$  is a (high)  $p$  dimensional vector of features, it may be difficult to find a plausible distribution  $\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x} | Y = k)$ .
- ▶ Using the naive assumption (hence the name) that variables are independent given the class, we can rewrite  $\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{X}|y)$  as follows:

$$p(\mathbf{X}|y) = \prod_{j=1}^p p(X^j|y).$$

- ▶ Classification rule become

$$\hat{y} = \arg \max_y p(y) \prod_{j=1}^p p(x^j|y)$$

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# Generative vs. Discriminative

- ▶ There are two different views to solve the **classification problem**
- ▶ **Generative modelling**
  - We model the **class-conditional** distributions  $p(\mathbf{x}|C_2)$  and  $p(\mathbf{x}|C_1)$
  - We classify by computing the **class posterior** using Bayes rule
  - E.g.: Naive Bayes, LDA, QDA
- ▶ **Discriminative modelling**
  - We model the class-posterior **directly**, e.g.  $p(C_1|\mathbf{x})$
  - Consequence: We only care about **optimizing** the **classification rate**, and not whether we fit the class-conditional well
  - E.g.: Logistic Regression, Perceptron,...

# Probabilistic Discriminative Models

- For now, we will write the class posterior using Bayes' rule

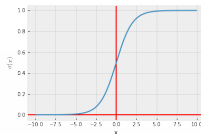
$$\begin{aligned}
 p(C_1 | \mathbf{x}) &= \frac{p(\mathbf{x} | C_1) p(C_1)}{p(\mathbf{x})} \\
 &= \frac{p(\mathbf{x} | C_1) p(C_1)}{p(\mathbf{x} | C_1) p(C_1) + p(\mathbf{x} | C_2) p(C_2)} \\
 &= \frac{1}{1 + (p(\mathbf{x} | C_2) p(C_2)) / (p(\mathbf{x} | C_1) p(C_1))} \\
 &= \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-a(\mathbf{x}))} \rightarrow \text{logistic sigmoid function}
 \end{aligned}$$

with  $a(\mathbf{x}) = \log \frac{p(\mathbf{x} | C_1) p(C_1)}{p(\mathbf{x} | C_2) p(C_2)}$

- Logistic/Sigmoid function

$$\sigma(a) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-a)}$$

⇒ Sigmoid: 'S-shaped'



- Squashes real numbers into the  $[0, 1]$  interval

# Probabilistic Discriminative Models

## ► Class posterior

$$p(C_1 | \mathbf{x}) = \sigma(a) \quad \text{with} \quad a = a(\mathbf{x}) = \log \frac{p(\mathbf{x} | C_1) p(C_1)}{p(\mathbf{x} | C_2) p(C_2)}$$

## ► Logistic Regression

- Assume that  $a$  is given by a linear discriminant function

$$p(C_1 | \mathbf{x}) = \sigma(\boldsymbol{\beta}^T \mathbf{x} + \beta_0)$$

- Find  $\boldsymbol{\beta}$  and  $\beta_0$  so that the class-posterior is modeled best
- When is this an **appropriate assumption**?
  - When the class conditionals are **Gaussian** with **equal covariance**
  - But also for a number of **other distributions**
  - There exists some **independence** of the form of the class-conditionals (*Naive Bayes models*)

# Logistic Regression

- Model the class posterior as

$$p(C_1 | \mathbf{x}) = \sigma(\boldsymbol{\beta} \mathbf{x} + \beta_0)$$

- Maximize likelihood

⇒ Data (as always) is i.i.d. and define  $y_i = \begin{cases} 0 & \mathbf{x}_i \text{ belongs to } C_1 \\ 1 & \mathbf{x}_i \text{ belongs to } C_2 \end{cases}$

- Likelihood is

$$\begin{aligned} L(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \beta_0 | \mathbf{Y}, \mathbf{X}) &= \prod_{i=1}^n p(y_i | \mathbf{x}_i; \boldsymbol{\beta}, \beta_0) \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^n p(C_2 | \mathbf{x}_i; \boldsymbol{\beta}, \beta_0)^{y_i} p(C_1 | \mathbf{x}_i; \boldsymbol{\beta}, \beta_0)^{1-y_i} \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^n \sigma(\boldsymbol{\beta}^T \mathbf{x}_i + \beta_0)^{y_i} (1 - \sigma(\boldsymbol{\beta}^T \mathbf{x}_i + \beta_0))^{1-y_i} \end{aligned}$$

- The log-likelihood is given by

$$l_n(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \sum_{i=1}^n y_i \log \sigma(\mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\beta}) + (1 - y_i) \log(1 - \sigma(\mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\beta})).$$



# First derivatives

Compute  $\nabla l_n$

- ▶ Taking the first derivative with respect to  $\beta_j$ , we get

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial l_n}{\partial \beta_j} &= \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{y_i}{\sigma(\mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\beta})} \sigma'(\mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\beta}) x_{ij} - \frac{1 - y_i}{1 - \sigma(\mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\beta})} \sigma'(\mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\beta}) x_{ij} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n x_{ij} \sigma'(\mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\beta}) \left( \frac{y_i}{\sigma(\mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\beta})} - \frac{1 - y_i}{1 - \sigma(\mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\beta})} \right) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n x_{ij} \frac{\sigma'(\mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\beta})}{\sigma(\mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\beta})(1 - \sigma(\mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\beta}))} (y_i - \sigma(\mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\beta})).\end{aligned}$$

- ▶  $\sigma' = \sigma(1 - \sigma)$  [Proove it !] which means this simplifies to

$$\frac{\partial l_n}{\partial \beta_j} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_{ij} (y_i - \sigma(\mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\beta}))$$

- ▶ So

$$\nabla l_n(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \mathbf{X}^T (\mathbf{y} - \hat{\mathbf{y}}).$$

## Second derivatives

Compute  $\nabla^2 l_n$ .

► Furthermore

$$\frac{\partial^2 l_n}{\partial \beta_k \partial \beta_j} = - \sum_{i=1}^n x_{ij} \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_k} \sigma(\mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\beta}) = - \sum_i x_{ij} x_{ik} \left[ \sigma(\mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\beta}) (1 - \sigma(\mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\beta})) \right].$$

► Let

$$\begin{aligned} W &= \text{diag} \left( \sigma(\mathbf{x}_1^T \boldsymbol{\beta}) (1 - \sigma(\mathbf{x}_1^T \boldsymbol{\beta})), \dots, \sigma(\mathbf{x}_n^T \boldsymbol{\beta}) (1 - \sigma(\mathbf{x}_n^T \boldsymbol{\beta})) \right) \\ &= \text{diag} (\hat{y}_1 (1 - \hat{y}_1), \dots, \hat{y}_n (1 - \hat{y}_n)). \end{aligned}$$

► Then we have

$$\nabla^2 l_n = -\mathbf{X}^T W \mathbf{X}.$$

► As  $\hat{y}_i \in (0, 1)$ ,  $-\mathbf{X}^T W \mathbf{X}$  will always be **strictly** negative definite, although **numerically** if  $\hat{y}_i$  gets too close to 0 or 1 then we may have weights round to 0 which can make  $H$  negative semidefinite and therefore **computationally singular**.

# Newton-Raphson algorithm

Use iterative **weighted least squares regression**.

- ▶ Create the **working response**  $\mathbf{z} = W^{-1}(\mathbf{y} - \hat{\mathbf{y}})$  and note that

$$\nabla l_n = \mathbf{X}^T (y - \hat{y}) = \mathbf{X}^T W \mathbf{z}.$$

- ▶ All together this means that we can optimize the log likelihood by iterating

$$\boldsymbol{\beta}^{(k+1)} = \boldsymbol{\beta}^{(k)} + (\mathbf{X}^T W^{(k)} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T W^{(k)} \mathbf{z}^{(k)}$$

- ▶ Remark:  $(\mathbf{X}^T W^{(k)} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T W^{(k)} \mathbf{z}^{(k)}$  is **exactly**  $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$  for a weighted least squares regression of  $\mathbf{z}^{(k)}$  on  $\mathbf{X}$ .