

LECTURE 4: Bayesian Decision Theory

- The Likelihood Ratio Test
- The Probability of Error
- The Bayes Risk
- Bayes, MAP and ML Criteria
- Multi-class problems
- Discriminant Functions

Likelihood Ratio Test (LRT)

- Assume we are to classify an object based on the evidence provided by a measurement (or feature vector) x
- Would you agree that a reasonable decision rule would be the following?
 - "Choose the class that is most 'probable' given the observed feature vector x "
 - More formally: Evaluate the posterior probability of each class $P(\omega_i|x)$ and choose the class with largest $P(\omega_i|x)$
- Let us examine the implications of this decision rule for a 2-class problem
 - In this case the decision rule becomes

if $P(\omega_1 | x) > P(\omega_2 | x)$ choose ω_1
else choose ω_2

- Or, in a more compact form

$$P(\omega_1 | x) \underset{\omega_2}{\overset{\omega_1}{\geq}} P(\omega_2 | x)$$

- Applying Bayes Rule

$$\frac{P(x | \omega_1)P(\omega_1)}{P(x)} \underset{\omega_2}{\overset{\omega_1}{\geq}} \frac{P(x | \omega_2)P(\omega_2)}{P(x)}$$

- $P(x)$ does not affect the decision rule so it can be eliminated*. Rearranging the previous expression

$$\Lambda(x) = \frac{P(x | \omega_1)}{P(x | \omega_2)} \underset{\omega_2}{\overset{\omega_1}{\geq}} \frac{P(\omega_2)}{P(\omega_1)}$$

- The term $\Lambda(x)$ is called the **likelihood ratio**, and the decision rule is known as the **likelihood ratio test**

** $P(x)$ can be disregarded in the decision rule since it is constant regardless of class ω . However, $P(x)$ will be needed if we want to estimate the posterior $P(\omega|x)$ which, unlike $P(x|\omega)P(x)$, is a true probability value and, therefore, gives us an estimate of the "goodness" of our decision.*

Likelihood Ratio Test: an example

- Given a classification problem with the following class conditional densities, derive a decision rule based on the Likelihood Ratio Test (assume equal priors)

$$P(x | \omega_1) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-4)^2} \quad P(x | \omega_2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-10)^2}$$

■ Solution

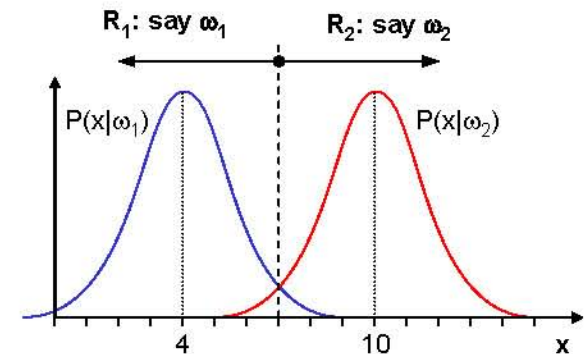
- Substituting the given likelihoods and priors into the LRT expression: $\Lambda(x) = \frac{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-4)^2}}{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-10)^2}} \begin{matrix} \omega_1 > 1 \\ \omega_2 < 1 \end{matrix}$

- Simplifying the LRT expression: $\Lambda(x) = \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-4)^2}}{e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-10)^2}} \begin{matrix} \omega_1 > 1 \\ \omega_2 < 1 \end{matrix}$

- Changing signs and taking logs: $(x-4)^2 - (x-10)^2 \begin{matrix} < 0 \\ > 0 \end{matrix}$

- Which yields: $x \begin{matrix} < 7 \\ > 7 \end{matrix}$

- This LRT result makes sense from an intuitive point of view since the likelihoods are identical and differ only in their mean value



- How would the LRT decision rule change if, say, the priors were such that $P(\omega_1)=2P(\omega_2)$?

The probability of error (1)

- The performance of any decision rule can be measured by its probability of error $P[\text{error}]$ which, making use of the Theorem of total probability (Lecture 2), can be broken up into

$$P[\text{error}] = \sum_{i=1}^C P[\text{error} | \omega_i] P[\omega_i]$$

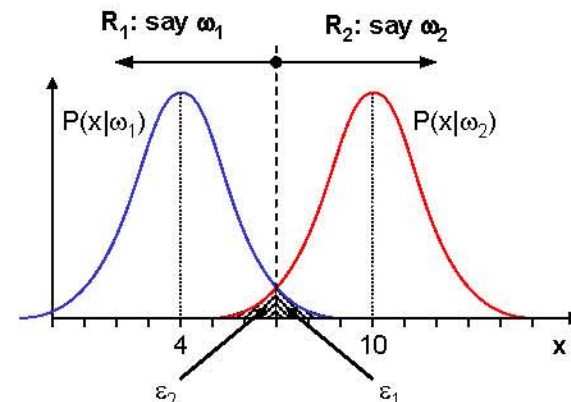
- The class conditional probability of error $P[\text{error} | \omega_i]$ can be expressed as

$$P[\text{error} | \omega_i] = P[\text{choose } \omega_j | \omega_i] = \int_{R_j} P(x | \omega_i) dx$$

- So, for our 2-class problem, the probability of error becomes

$$P[\text{error}] = P[\omega_1] \underbrace{\int_{R_2} P(x | \omega_1) dx}_{\epsilon_1} + P[\omega_2] \underbrace{\int_{R_1} P(x | \omega_2) dx}_{\epsilon_2}$$

- where ϵ_i is the integral of the likelihood $P(x | \omega_i)$ over the region R_j where we choose ω_j
- For the decision rule of the previous example, the integrals ϵ_1 and ϵ_2 are depicted below
 - Since we assumed equal priors, then $P[\text{error}] = (\epsilon_1 + \epsilon_2)/2$



- Compute the probability for the example above

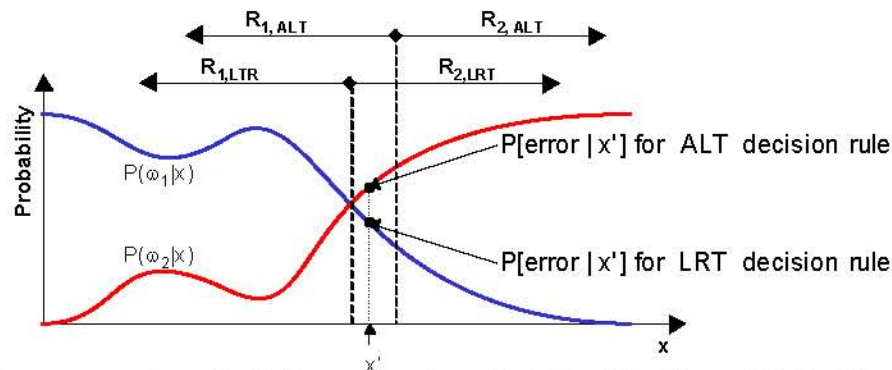
The probability of error (2)

- Now that we can measure the performance of a decision rule we can ask the following question: How good is the Likelihood Ratio Test decision rule?

- For this purpose it is convenient to express $P[\text{error}]$ in terms of the posterior $P[\text{error}|x]$

$$P[\text{error}] = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} P[\text{error} | x] P(x) dx$$

- The optimal decision rule will minimize $P[\text{error}|x]$ for every value of x , so that the integral above is minimized
- At each point x' , $P[\text{error}|x']$ is equal to $P[\omega_i|x']$ when we choose the other class ω_j
 - This is depicted in the following figure:



- From the figure it becomes clear that, for any value of x' , the Likelihood Ratio Test decision rule will always have a lower $P[\text{error}|x']$
 - Therefore, when we integrate over the real line, the LRT decision rule will yield a lower $P[\text{error}]$

For any given problem, the minimum probability of error is achieved by the Likelihood Ratio Test decision rule. This probability of error is called the **Bayes Error Rate** and is the **BEST** any classifier can do.

The Bayes Risk (1)

- So far we have assumed that the penalty of misclassifying a class ω_1 example as class ω_2 is the same as the reciprocal. In general, this is not the case:
 - For example, misclassifying a cancer sufferer as a healthy patient is a much more serious problem than the other way around
- This concept can be formalized in terms of a cost function C_{ij}
 - C_{ij} represents the cost of choosing class ω_i when class ω_j is the true class
- We define the Bayes Risk as the expected value of the cost

$$\mathfrak{R} = E[C] = \sum_{i=1}^2 \sum_{j=1}^2 C_{ij} \cdot P[\text{choose } \omega_i \text{ and } x \in \omega_j] = \sum_{i=1}^2 \sum_{j=1}^2 C_{ij} \cdot P[x \in R_i | \omega_j] \cdot P[\omega_j]$$

- What is the decision rule that minimizes the Bayes Risk?

- First notice that

$$P[x \in R_i | \omega_j] = \int_{R_i} P(x | \omega_j) dx$$

- We can express the Bayes Risk as

$$\begin{aligned} \mathfrak{R} = & \int_{R_1} [C_{11} \cdot P[\omega_1] \cdot P(x | \omega_1) + C_{12} \cdot P[\omega_2] \cdot P(x | \omega_2)] dx + \\ & \int_{R_2} [C_{21} \cdot P[\omega_1] \cdot P(x | \omega_1) + C_{22} \cdot P[\omega_2] \cdot P(x | \omega_2)] dx \end{aligned}$$

- Then we note that, for either likelihood, one can write:

$$\int_{R_1} P(x | \omega_1) dx + \int_{R_2} P(x | \omega_1) dx = \int_{R_1 \cup R_2} P(x | \omega_1) dx = 1$$

The Bayes Risk (2)

- Merging the last equation into the Bayes Risk expression yields

$$\mathfrak{R} = \begin{array}{|l|} \hline C_{11}P[\omega_1] \int_{R_1} P(x | \omega_1) dx + C_{12}P[\omega_2] \int_{R_1} P(x | \omega_2) dx + \\ \hline + C_{21}P[\omega_1] \int_{R_2} P(x | \omega_1) dx + C_{22}P[\omega_2] \int_{R_2} P(x | \omega_2) dx + \\ \hline + C_{21}P[\omega_1] \int_{R_1} P(x | \omega_1) dx + C_{22}P[\omega_2] \int_{R_1} P(x | \omega_2) dx + \\ \hline - C_{21}P[\omega_1] \int_{R_1} P(x | \omega_1) dx - C_{22}P[\omega_2] \int_{R_1} P(x | \omega_2) dx \\ \hline \end{array}$$

- Now we cancel out all the integrals over R_2

$$\mathfrak{R} = \underbrace{C_{21}P[\omega_1]}_{\text{const}} + \underbrace{C_{22}P[\omega_2]}_{\text{const}} + \underbrace{(C_{12} - C_{22})P[\omega_2] \int_{R_1} P(x | \omega_2) dx}_{\text{var}} - \underbrace{(C_{21} - C_{11})P[\omega_1] \int_{R_1} P(x | \omega_1) dx}_{\text{var}}$$

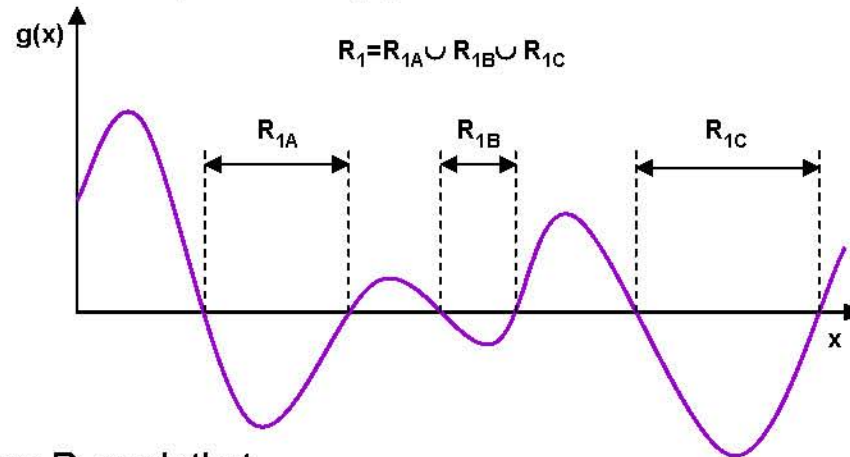
- The first two terms are constant as far as our minimization is concerned since they do not depend on R_1 , so we will be seeking a decision region R_1 that minimizes:

$$\begin{aligned} R_1 &= \operatorname{argmin}_{R_1} \left\{ \int_{R_1} [(C_{12} - C_{22})P[\omega_2]P(x | \omega_2) - (C_{21} - C_{11})P[\omega_1]P(x | \omega_1)] dx \right\} \\ &= \operatorname{argmin}_{R_1} \left\{ \int_{R_1} g(x) dx \right\} \end{aligned}$$

The Bayes Risk (3)

- Let's forget about the actual expression of $g(x)$ to develop some intuition for what kind of decision region R_1 we are looking for

- Intuitively, we will select for R_1 those regions that minimize the integral $\int_{R_1} g(x) dx$
 - In other words, those regions where $g(x) < 0$



- So we will choose R_1 such that

$$(C_{21} - C_{11})P[\omega_1]P(x | \omega_1) > (C_{12} - C_{22})P[\omega_2]P(x | \omega_2)$$

- And rearranging

$$\frac{P(x | \omega_1)}{P(x | \omega_2)} > \frac{(C_{12} - C_{22}) P[\omega_2]}{(C_{21} - C_{11}) P[\omega_1]}$$

- Therefore, minimization of the Bayes Risk also leads to a **Likelihood Ratio Test**

The Bayes Risk: an example

- Consider a classification problem with two classes defined by the following likelihood functions

$$P(x | \omega_1) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sqrt{3}} e^{-\frac{1x^2}{2 \cdot 3}}$$

$$P(x | \omega_2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-2)^2}$$

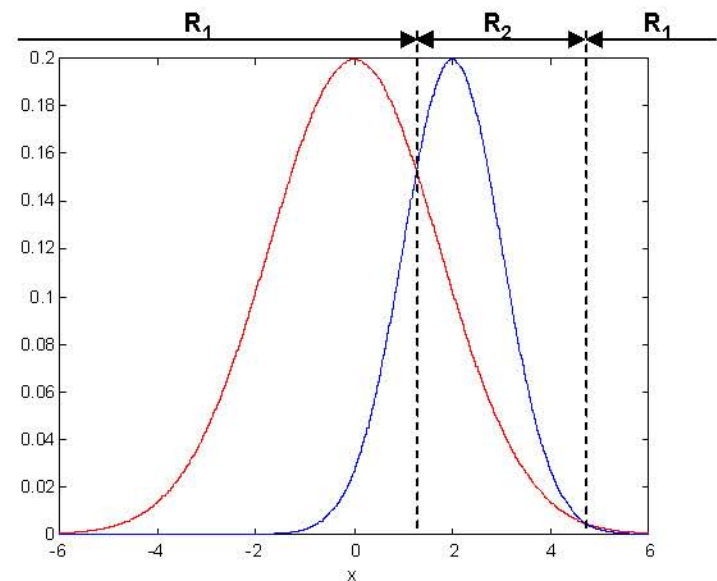
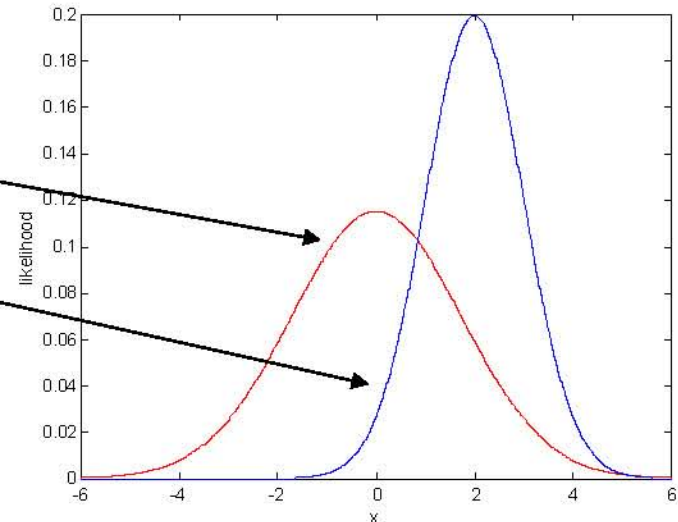
- Sketch the two densities
- What is the likelihood ratio?
- Assume $P[\omega_1]=P[\omega_2]=0.5$, $C_{11}=C_{22}=0$, $C_{12}=1$ and $C_{21}=3^{1/2}$. Determine a decision rule that minimizes the probability of error

$$\Lambda(x) = \frac{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sqrt{3}} e^{-\frac{1x^2}{2 \cdot 3}}}{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-2)^2}} > \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$$

$$\frac{e^{-\frac{1x^2}{2 \cdot 3}}}{e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-2)^2}} > 1$$

$$-\frac{1x^2}{2 \cdot 3} + \frac{1}{2}(x-2)^2 > 0$$

$$2x^2 - 12x + 12 > 0 \Rightarrow x = 4.73, 1.27$$



Variations of the Likelihood Ratio Test (1)

- The LRT decision rule that minimizes the Bayes Risk is commonly called the Bayes Criterion

$$\Lambda(x) = \frac{P(x | \omega_1)}{P(x | \omega_2)} \underset{\omega_2}{>} \frac{(C_{12} - C_{22})}{(C_{21} - C_{11})} \frac{P[\omega_2]}{P[\omega_1]} \quad \text{Bayes criterion}$$

- Many times we will simply be interested in minimizing the probability of error, which is a special case of the Bayes Criterion that uses the so-called symmetrical or zero-one cost function. This version of the LRT decision rule is referred to as the Maximum A Posteriori Criterion, since it seeks to maximize the posterior $P(\omega_i|x)$

$$C_{ij} = \begin{cases} 0 & i = j \\ 1 & i \neq j \end{cases} \Rightarrow \Lambda(x) = \frac{P(x | \omega_1)}{P(x | \omega_2)} \underset{\omega_2}{>} \frac{P(\omega_2)}{P(\omega_1)} \Leftrightarrow \frac{P(\omega_1 | x)}{P(\omega_2 | x)} \underset{\omega_2}{>} 1 \quad \text{Maximum A Posteriori (MAP) Criterion}$$

- Finally, for the case of equal priors $P[\omega_i]=1/2$, and the zero-one cost function the LTR decision rule is called the Maximum Likelihood Criterion, since it will minimize the likelihood $P(x|\omega_i)$

$$C_{ij} = \begin{cases} 0 & i = j \\ 1 & i \neq j \end{cases} \Rightarrow \Lambda(x) = \frac{P(x | \omega_1)}{P(x | \omega_2)} \underset{\omega_2}{>} 1 \quad \text{Maximum Likelihood (ML) Criterion}$$

$$P(\omega_i) = \frac{1}{C} \quad \forall i$$

Variations of the Likelihood Ratio Test (2)

■ Two more decision rules are commonly cited in the related literature

- The **Neyman-Pearson Criterion**, used in Detection and Estimation Theory, which also leads to an LRT decision rule, fixes one class error probabilities, say $\epsilon_1 < \alpha$, and seeks to minimize the other
 - For instance, for the sea-bass/salmon classification problem of Lecture 1, there may be some kind of government regulation that we must not misclassify more than 1% of salmon as sea bass
 - The Neyman-Pearson Criterion is very attractive since it does not require knowledge of priors and cost function
- The **Minimax Criterion**, used in Game Theory, is derived from the Bayes criterion, and seeks to minimize the maximum Bayes Risk
 - The Minimax Criterion does not require knowledge of the priors, but it needs a cost function
- For more information on these methods, the reader is referred to “Detection, Estimation and Modulation Theory”, by H.L. van Trees, the classical reference in this field

Minimum $P[\text{error}]$ rule for multi-class problems

■ The decision rule that minimizes $P[\text{error}]$ generalizes very easily to multi-class problems

- For clarity in the derivation, the probability of error is better expressed in terms of the probability of making a correct assignment

$$P[\text{error}] = 1 - P[\text{correct}]$$

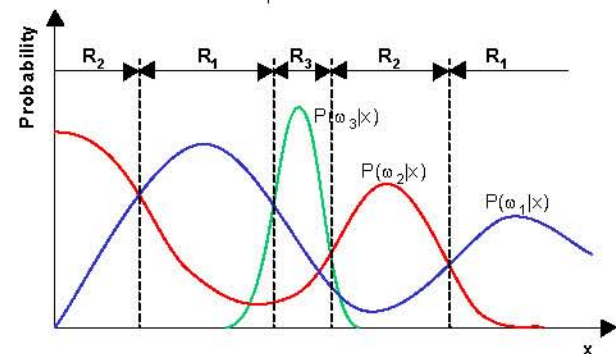
- The probability of making a correct assignment is

$$P[\text{correct}] = \sum_{i=1}^C P(\omega_i) \int_{R_i} P(x | \omega_i) dx$$

- The problem of minimizing $P[\text{error}]$ is equivalent to that of maximizing $P[\text{correct}]$. Expressing $P[\text{correct}]$ in terms of the posteriors:

$$P[\text{correct}] = \sum_{i=1}^C P(\omega_i) \int_{R_i} P(x | \omega_i) dx = \sum_{i=1}^C \int_{R_i} P(x | \omega_i) P(\omega_i) dx = \sum_{i=1}^C \underbrace{\int_{R_i} P(\omega_i | x) P(x) dx}_{\mathfrak{I}_i}$$

- In order to maximize $P[\text{correct}]$, we will have to maximize each of the integrals \mathfrak{I}_i . In turn, each integral \mathfrak{I}_i will be maximized by choosing the class ω_i that yields the maximum $P[\omega_i|x]$
 \Rightarrow we will define R_i to be the region where $P[\omega_i|x]$ is maximum



■ Therefore, the decision rule that minimizes $P[\text{error}]$ is the MAP Criterion

Minimum Bayes Risk for multi-class problems

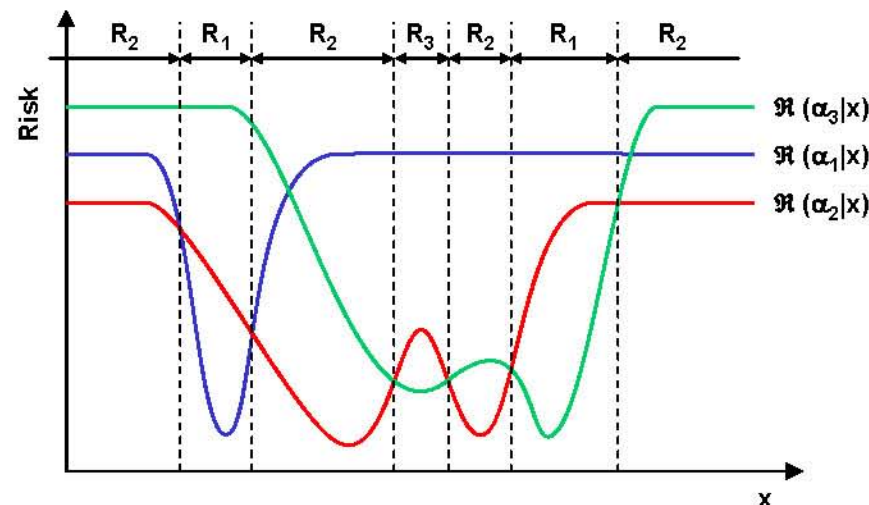
- To determine which decision rule yields the minimum Bayes Risk for the multi-class problem we will use a slightly different formulation
 - We will denote by α_i the decision to choose class ω_i ,
 - We will denote by $\alpha(x)$ the overall decision rule that maps features x into classes ω_i : $\alpha(x) \rightarrow \{\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_C\}$
- The (conditional) risk $\mathcal{R}(\alpha_i|x)$ of assigning a feature x to class ω_i is

$$\mathcal{R}(\alpha(x) \rightarrow \alpha_i) = \mathcal{R}(\alpha_i | x) = \sum_{j=1}^C C_{ij} P(\omega_j | x)$$

- And the Bayes Risk associated with the decision rule $\alpha(x)$ is

$$\mathcal{R}(\alpha(x)) = \int \mathcal{R}(\alpha(x) | x) P(x) dx$$

- In order to minimize this expression, we will have to minimize the conditional risk $\mathcal{R}(\alpha(x)|x)$ at each point x in the feature space, which in turn is equivalent to choosing ω_i such that $\mathcal{R}(\alpha_i|x)$ is minimum

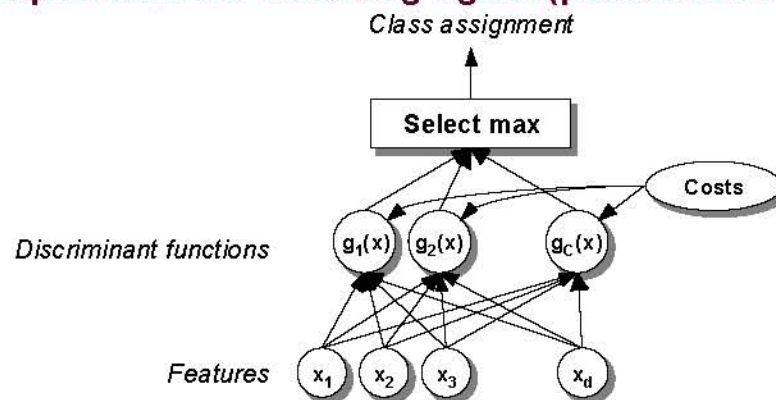


Discriminant functions

- All the decision rules we have presented in this lecture have the same structure
 - At each point x in feature space choose class ω_i which maximizes (or minimizes) some measure $g_i(x)$
- This structure can be formalized with a set of discriminant functions $g_i(x)$, $i=1..C$, and the following decision rule

"assign x to class ω_i if $g_i(x) > g_j(x) \quad \forall j \neq i$ "

- Therefore, we can visualize the decision rule as a network or machine that computes C discriminant functions and selects the category corresponding to the largest discriminant. Such network is depicted in the following figure (presented already in Lecture 1)



- Finally, we express the three basic decision rules: Bayes, MAP and ML in terms of Discriminant Functions to show the generality of this formulation

Criterion	Discriminant Function
Bayes	$g_i(x) = -\mathcal{R}(\alpha_i x)$
MAP	$g_i(x) = P(\omega_i x)$
ML	$g_i(x) = P(x \omega_i)$