

Bayes decision rule

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Costs

Classification

- supervised learning
- $y \in \{1, 2, \dots, C\}$ takes finite discrete set of values
- λ_{yf} is the cost of predicting true class y with forecasted class f .
- Examples with costs: diagnosis prediction, fraud detection, spam filtering, intrusion detection.

Costs

- Matrix of outcomes:

	$f = 1$	$f = 2$	\dots	$f = C$
$y = 1$	λ_{11}	λ_{12}	\dots	λ_{1C}
$y = 2$	λ_{21}	λ_{22}	\dots	λ_{2C}
\dots	\dots	\dots	\dots	\dots
$y = C$	λ_{C1}	λ_{C2}	\dots	λ_{CC}

- Expected cost of solution $\hat{y}(x) = f$:

$$\mathcal{L}(f) = \sum_y p(y|x) \lambda_{yf}$$

Decision rule

- Which best prediction $\hat{y}(x)$ for object x to select?

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Bayes minimum risk decision rule

Assign class, yielding minimum expected cost:

$$\hat{y}(x) = \arg \min_f \mathcal{L}(f) \quad (1)$$

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Bayes minimum risk decision rule

Assign class, yielding minimum expected cost:

$$\hat{y}(x) = \arg \min_f \mathcal{L}(f) \quad (1)$$

- This rule minimizes expected cost among all rules (if $p(y|x)$ are correct).

Simplifications

- $\lambda_{yf} \equiv \lambda_y \mathbb{I}[y \neq f]$: constant within class cost of misclassification.

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Matrix of outcomes:

	$f = 1$	$f = 2$	\dots	$f = C$
$y = 1$	0	λ_1	\dots	λ_1
$y = 2$	λ_2	0	\dots	λ_2
\dots	\dots	\dots	\dots	\dots
$y = C$	λ_C	λ_C	\dots	0

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- Expected cost of solution $\hat{y}(x) = f$:

$$\mathcal{L}(f) = \sum_y p(y|x) \lambda_y \mathbb{I}[f \neq y]$$

Equal misclassification costs

- Then cost of prediction equals:

$$\mathcal{L}(f) = \sum_y p(y|x)\lambda_y \mathbb{I}[f \neq y] = \overbrace{\sum_y p(y|x)\lambda_y}^{\text{const}(f)} - p(f|x)\lambda_f$$

- So (1) becomes:

$$\hat{y}(x) = \arg \min_f \mathcal{L}(f) = \arg \max_f \lambda_f p(f|x) \quad (2)$$

- Suppose further $\lambda_y \equiv \lambda \forall y$, then

$$\hat{y}(x) = \arg \max_f p(f|x)$$

- This is termed **maximum posterior probability rule** or **Bayes minimum error rule** because it yields minimum probability of misclassification among all decision rules (given that $p(f|x)$ is correct)

Equal misclassification costs

- This rule minimizes expected error rate.
 - if $p(y|x)$ are known

Equal misclassification costs

- This rule minimizes expected error rate.
 - if $p(y|x)$ are known
- If x and y are independent, then (2) reduces to

$$\hat{y}(x) = \arg \max_f p(f|x) = \arg \max_f p(f)$$

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Gaussian classifier

- In Gaussian classifier

$$p(x|y) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{D/2} |\Sigma_y|^{1/2}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} (x - \mu_y)^T \Sigma_y^{-1} (x - \mu_y) \right\}$$

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- It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \log p(y|x) &= \log p(x|y) + \log p(y) - \log p(x) \\ &= -\frac{1}{2} (x - \mu_y^T) \Sigma_y^{-1} (x - \mu_y) - \frac{1}{2} \log |\Sigma_y| \\ &\quad - \frac{D}{2} \log(2\pi) + \log p(y) - \log p(x) \end{aligned}$$

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- Removing common additive terms, we obtain discriminant functions:

$$g_y(x) = \log p(y) - \frac{1}{2} \log |\Sigma_y| - \frac{1}{2} (x - \mu_y)^T \Sigma_y^{-1} (x - \mu_y) \quad (3)$$

Practical application

- In practice we replace theoretical terms μ_y , Σ_y with their sample estimates $\hat{\mu}_y$, $\hat{\Sigma}_y$.
- $\hat{p}(y) = \frac{N_y}{N}$.

$$g_y(x) = \log \hat{p}(y) - \frac{1}{2} \log |\hat{\Sigma}_y| - \frac{1}{2} (x - \hat{\mu}_y)^T \hat{\Sigma}_y^{-1} (x - \hat{\mu}_y)$$

- Analysis:
 - depends on normality assumptions (in particular - on unimodality)
 - needs to specify:
 - CD parameters to estimate $\hat{\mu}_y$, $y = 1, 2, \dots, C$.
 - $CD(D + 1)/2$ parameters to estimate $\hat{\Sigma}_y$, $j = 1, 2, \dots, C$.

Simplifying assumptions

- $CD(D + 3)/2$ may be too large for multidimensional tasks with small training sets.
- Simplifying assumptions:
 - **Naive Bayes:** assume that $\Sigma_1, \Sigma_2, \dots, \Sigma_C$ are diagonal.
 - **Project data onto a subspace:** for example on first few principal components.
 - **Proportional covariance matrices:** assume that $\Sigma_1 = \alpha_1 \Sigma, \Sigma_2 = \alpha_2 \Sigma, \dots, \Sigma_C = \alpha_C \Sigma$.
 - **Fisher's linear discriminant analysis:** assume that $\Sigma_1 = \Sigma_2 = \dots = \Sigma_C$.

QDA vs. LDA

Gaussian classifier is called:

- *Quadratic discriminant analysis* (QDA) when $\Sigma_1, \Sigma_2, \dots, \Sigma_C$ are arbitrary.
 - class boundaries are quadratic¹
- *Linear discriminant analysis* (LDA) when $\Sigma_1 = \Sigma_2 = \dots = \Sigma_C$
 - class boundaries are linear²

¹prove this

²prove this

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High dimensional problem

$$p(x^1, x^2, \dots, x^D) = p(x^1)p(x^2|x^1)\dots p(x^D|x^1, x^2, \dots, x^{D-1})$$

Problem: exponential to D number of observations needed for estimation.

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Independence assumption

Individual features are independent: $p(x) = p(x^1)p(x^2)\dots p(x^D)$

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Naive Bayes assumption in classification

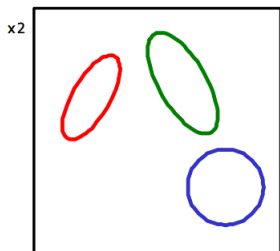
Individual features are **class conditionally** independent:

$$p(x|y) = p(x^1|y)p(x^2|y)\dots p(x^D|y)$$

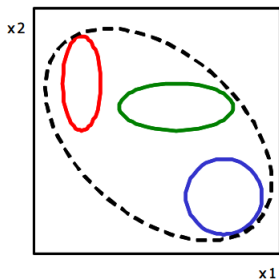
Under Naive Bayes assumption max-posterior probability rule becomes:

$$\hat{y}(x) = \arg \max_y p(y)p(x^1|y)p(x^2|y)\dots p(x^D|y)$$

Conditional independence visualization

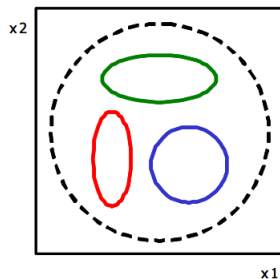


$$p(x|\omega_i) \neq \prod_{d=1}^D p(x_d|\omega_i)$$



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$$p(x) \neq \prod_{d=1}^D p(x_d)$$



$$p(x|\omega_i) = \prod_{d=1}^D p(x_d|\omega_i)$$

$$p(x) \cong \prod_{d=1}^D p(x_d)$$